Substrate-specific regulation of mTORC1 activity by G protein-coupled receptors

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Running title

Substrate-specific GPCR-mTORC1 signaling

Keywords

mammalian/mechanistic Target of Rapamycin Complex 1 (mTORC1); G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR)

Abbreviations

mTORC1: mammalian/mechanistic Target of Rapamycin Complex 1

GPCR: G protein-coupled receptor

M5R: muscarinic acetylcholine receptor M5

FPR2: formyl peptide receptor 2

β2AR: beta-2 adrenergic receptor

DREADD: designer receptor exclusively activated by designer drugs

CNO: Clozapine N-oxide

PKC: protein kinase C

PKA: protein kinase A

Abstract

The mammalian/mechanistic Target of Rapamycin Complex 1 (mTORC1) kinase controls cell growth in response to various external stimuli. mTORC1 has a myriad of substrates, and the activation of distinct downstream pathways has important physiological outcomes. Emerging evidence suggests that mTORC1 can respond to upstream signals in a nuanced manner, differentially regulating individual substrates and downstream biological processes. The nature of signals that determine the signaling selectivity of mTORC1 is not fully understood. Here, we studied mTORC1 regulation by G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). We found that muscarinic acetylcholine receptor M5, formyl peptide receptor 2, and beta-2 adrenergic receptor, which are coupled to distinct effector G proteins, all trigger substrate-specific activation of mTORC1. Remarkably, phosphorylation of the TFEB transcription factor, a non-canonical mTORC1 substrate that controls lysosome biogenesis, responded to GPCRs differently, sometimes even oppositely, compared to canonical mTORC1 substrates such as S6K1 and 4EBP1. This study highlights the need to re-evaluate the effects of GPCRs on mTORC1 by parallelly monitoring individual substrates, an important consideration to be made when assessing GPCR ligands as therapeutic tools to manipulate the mTORC1 pathway.

Introduction

Cells adapt to the changing environment by fine-tuning various biological processes. At the core of the cellular adaptation mechanism is the mammalian/mechanistic Target of Rapamycin Complex 1 (mTORC1) kinase, a master regulator of cell growth and metabolism [1][2]. mTORC1 is activated by pro-growth signals such as nutrients (e.g., amino acids) and growth factors (e.g., insulin). mTORC1, in turn, activates pro-growth cellular processes such as anabolic reactions (e.g. protein synthesis) while repressing catabolic reactions (e.g. protein degradation via autophagy), through phosphorylating its substrate proteins. mTORC1 activation by amino acids and by insulin/growth factors is mediated by Rag and Rheb small GTPases, respectively. mTORC1 significantly impacts human health and diseases such as cancer, diabetes, and neurodegeneration, as well as aging. To design therapeutic approaches against these conditions, a deeper mechanistic understanding of mTORC1 regulation is imperative.

An emerging theme in the mTORC1 research field is mTORC1's differential signaling to individual substrates. Depending on upstream stimuli, the phosphorylation pattern of several "non-canonical" mTORC1 substrates including the transcription factor EB (TFEB), a regulator of lysosome biogenesis, responds differently to that of canonical mTORC1 substrates such as the ribosomal protein S6 kinase 1 (S6K1) and the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1 (4EBP1), regulators of global protein synthesis [3][4][5]. Unlike phosphorylation of canonical substrates that requires activation of both Rag and Rheb small GTPases, TFEB phosphorylation is thought to only respond to Rag GTPases. Two models have been proposed to explain the distinct behavior of TFEB, which are not mutually exclusive. One model attributes it to the unique substrate recruitment mechanism, in which Rag GTPases physically interact with TFEB (but not S6K1 or 4EBP1) and present it to mTORC1 [3][6]. Another model assigns these substrates to spatially distinct mTORC1 pools; the cytosolic mTORC1 pool phosphorylates S6K1 and 4EBP1, while the lysosomal mTORC1 pool phosphorylates TFEB [5]. In either case, a comprehensive view is missing on how various external cues, that are typically sensed by cell-surface receptors, differentially feed into individual mTORC1 substrates.

Many cell-surface receptors signal to mTORC1. Among them, G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) constitute the largest family, being encoded by more than 800 genes in the human genome [7][8]. GPCRs sense diverse signals ranging from chemicals such as growth factors and odorants to physical parameters such as light. Characterizing any GPCR-mTORC1 signaling therefore has wide-reaching implications for cellular adaptation mechanisms operating in diverse contexts across the human body. Moreover, GPCRs are highly "druggable" proteins, as more than 30% of FDA-approved drugs target GPCRs [9]. To utilize these drugs effectively and safely (as well as repurpose for other diseases), we need to understand how GPCRs signal to downstream pathways such as the mTORC1 pathway.

For many years GPCR signaling was considered to be mediated exclusively via activation of heterotrimeric G-proteins, with distinct Gα subtypes triggering distinct downstream events. G_q stimulates phospholipase C; G_s and G_i stimulates and inhibits, respectively, cyclic AMP production; $G_{12/13}$ activates Rho small GTPases [10][11]. This original paradigm has since been challenged, with the identification of G protein-independent signaling cascades, often proposed to be mediated by β-arrestin proteins [12]. More recently, the GPCR field has seen another paradigm shift; both G-protein dependent and -independent signaling can occur from intracellular compartments, particularly endosomes, previously considered to be refractory for signaling [13]. However, the role of intracellular signaling is widely unknown.

Substantial efforts have been made to delineate how GPCRs impact mTORC1 signaling (reviewed in [14]), with some GPCRs activating, while others inhibiting, mTORC1. A largely overlooked aspect,

however, is the substrate specificity of GPCR-mTORC1 signaling, since most past studies monitored

phosphorylation of only canonical mTORC1 substrates such as S6K1 and/or 4EBP1. In this study, we

parallelly examined the response of S6K1, 4EBP1, and the non-canonical mTORC1 substrate TFEB to

GPCR stimulation. We found that TFEB responds to GPCR stimulation differently to S6K1 and 4EBP1,

allowing simultaneous activation of protein synthesis and lysosome biogenesis. Our results revealed

substrate/downstream specificity as a new dimension of the GPCR-mTORC1 signaling.

Results

M5R regulates mTORC1 in a substrate-specific manner

We examined how phosphorylation of various mTORC1 substrates —S6K1, 4EBP1, and TFEB—

respond to GPCR stimulation. To gain broader insight, we decided to cover three model GPCRs, the

muscarinic acetylcholine receptor M5 (M5R), the formyl peptide receptor 2 (FPR2), and the beta-2

adrenergic receptor (β2AR), each of which is selectively coupled to a distinct Gα protein, namely G_q,

G_i, or G_s, respectively.

As G_q has been previously implicated in mTORC1 signaling [14], we investigated a G_q-coupled GPCR

with M5R as a model. To enable selective stimulation of M5R, we took advantage of the previously

described mutations that make muscarinic receptors into 'designer receptor exclusively activated by

designer drugs (DREADD)' receptors and generated a HEK293 cell line stably expressing an M5R

DREADD [15]. The M5R-DREADD cells responded to the synthetic ligand clozapine N-oxide (CNO) in a

dose-dependent manner as expected, triggering phosphorylation of its downstream MAP kinase

ERK1/2 (Figure 1A and 1B, showing the activation kinetics and dose response curve, respectively).

We then examined phosphorylation of mTORC1 substrates. We serum-starved M5R-DREADD cells to

bring the mTORC1 activity to a basal level before stimulation with CNO. CNO treatment triggered

phosphorylation of S6K1, as probed by the phospho-specific antibody (Figure 1C and 1D for a short

and long time-course, respectively, panel 1). Phosphorylation of S6K1 coincided with that of 4EBP1,

which was detected as its upper band shift (Figure 1C and 1D, panel 3). Strikingly, however,

phosphorylation of TFEB, as probed by the phospho-specific antibody, was rather downregulated by

CNO treatment after 16 minutes (Figure 1C and 1D, panel 4). These results suggest that M5R

activates mTORC1 towards S6K1 and 4EBP1, while inhibiting it towards TFEB.

We noticed the slow kinetics of mTORC1 substrate phosphorylation by M5R, which did not peak until

32 minutes in the case of S6K1 (Figure 1C and 1D, panel 1). This was in stark contrast to the kinetics

of ERK1/2 phosphorylation that peaked at, or even before, 4 minutes of CNO treatment (Figure 1C,

panel 6). This observation raises the intriguing possibility that mTORC1 is activated only after M5R is

internalized (see later).

Another notable observation was that M5R failed to stimulate S6K1 and 4EBP1 phosphorylation in

amino acid-starved cells (Figure 1E, lanes 2 and 6; compare with serum-starved cells in lanes 3 and

7). This was not due to the failure of M5R activation, because ERK1/2 phosphorylation was similarly

triggered by CNO in serum- and amino acid-starved cells (Figure 1E lanes 6 and 7, panel 6). A possible

explanation is that M5R can activate the Rheb branch but not the Rag branch, the latter of which

requires amino acids.

Distinct effects of M5R stimulation on protein synthesis and lysosome biogenesis

Having observed the opposite effects of M5R activation on phosphorylation of canonical substrates
(S6K1 and 4EBP1) and that of TFEB, we then examined further downstream cellular processes.
Phosphorylation of S6K1 and 4EBP1 by mTORC1 promotes global protein synthesis [1][2]. *De novo*
protein synthesis can be monitored by the established puromycin incorporation assay. As shown in
Figure 2A, serum starvation caused decreased incorporation of puromycin, suggestive of slowed
protein synthesis. Subsequent M5R stimulation by CNO triggered significantly increased puromycin
incorporation. Puromycin incorporation was further enhanced 2 hours after washing out CNO,
suggesting a prolonged effect of M5R activation. These results suggest the positive effect of M5R
signaling on cellular protein synthesis activity, consistent with increased phosphorylation of S6K1 and
4EBP1.

Since mTORC1 inhibits lysosome biogenesis through phosphorylating TFEB [16], dephosphorylation
of TFEB upon M5R activation was predicted to boost lysosome biogenesis. We tested this possibility
by quantifying the fluorescent signal of the lysosome-staining dye Lysotracker. As shown in Figure 2B,
serum starvation increased the Lysotracker signal, suggestive of accelerated lysosome biogenesis.
This trend was, unlike the case for puromycin incorporation, not reversed by subsequent M5R
stimulation by CNO. The effect of M5R stimulation on lysosome biogenesis was rather positive, if any
(although this positive effect was not statistically significant).

Together, M5R activation promoted protein synthesis without suppressing lysosome biogenesis. This
observation was consistent with the positive effect of M5R stimulation on phosphorylation of S6K1
and 4EBP1, and the negative effect on that of TFEB (Figure 2C). We conclude that M5R regulates
mTORC1 in a substrate/downstream-specific manner to achieve this outcome.

mTORC1 regulation by FPR2 and β2AR

We then asked whether substrate-specific regulation of mTORC1 is unique to M5R/G_q-coupled
GPCRs. We studied a G_i-coupled GPCR using FPR2 as a model, expressed stably in a previously
generated HEK293 cell line [17]. FPR2-expressing cells were serum starved and treated with the
peptide ligand WKYMVm, a potent FPR2 agonist. As shown in Figure 3A, while WKYMVm triggered
phosphorylation of S6K1 and 4EBP1 in 16 minutes (panels 1 and 3), it did not affect phosphorylation
of TFEB (panel 4) as strongly as M5R.

We then chose β2AR as a model G_S-coupled GPCR. We treated wild-type HEK293 cells, which
naturally express β2AR, with the ligand isoprenaline. This triggered phosphorylation of S6K1 in 64
minutes (Figure 3B, panel 1), but did not cause a clear band-shift of 4EBP1 (panel 3). Phosphorylation
of TFEB was enhanced, and this effect was observed in 16 minutes (panel 4), earlier than S6K1's
response.

To summarize, M5R, FPR2, and β2AR all activated mTORC1 towards S6K1. M5R and FPR2 also
activated the mTORC1-4EBP1 branch. The mTORC1-TFEB axis behaved very differently from those
canonical substrates; while M5R inhibited mTORC1 towards TFEB, β2AR activated it. FPR2 did not
strongly affect this signaling. Thus, TFEB showed diverse responses to three GPCRs even though all of
them activate the mTORC1-S6K1 axis, further highlighting a substrate-specific nature of mTORC1
regulation by GPCRs.

mTORC1 regulation towards S6K1 and 4EBP1 involves kinases downstream of Gα

We next addressed the mechanism of GPCR-mTORC1 signaling. We specifically examined the
contribution of kinases activated downstream of Gα proteins. Because G_q activates protein kinase C
(PKC) via phospholipase C [10][11], we examined the effect of the PKC inhibitor GF109203x on the
M5R-mTORC1 signaling. As shown in Figure 4A, CNO-triggered phosphorylation of S6K1 and 4EBP1 in
M5R-DREADD cells was blocked by GF109203x (lanes 4 and 5), suggesting that these responses
require PKC activity.

G_i, which is coupled to FPR2, activates MEK kinase [10][11]. The MEK inhibitor PD 98059 blocked
WKYMVm-triggered phosphorylation of S6K1 and 4EBP1 in FPR2-expressing cells (Figure 4B, lanes 4
and 5), suggesting the role of MEK in this signaling process. MEK inhibition did not affect TFEB
phosphorylation.

G_S, which is coupled to β2AR, activates protein kinase A (PKA) via cAMP production [10][11].
Interestingly, the PKA inhibitor PKI rather enhanced isoprenaline-triggered phosphorylation of S6K1
(Figure 4C, lanes 4 and 5), suggesting the negative contribution of PKA. This is consistent with the
inhibitory phosphorylation of the mTORC1 subunit Raptor by PKA previously reported [18]. Our
results thus suggest that β2AR sends both positive and negative signals to the mTORC1-S6K1 axis, the
latter of which is mediated by PKA. Which signal dominates may depend on the context and/or cell
types. The contribution of β1AR, which is also expressed in HEK293 cells at a low level, should also be
taken into account. PKA inhibition, on the other hand, did not enhance TFEB phosphorylation.

To confirm that β2AR signals to mTORC1 mainly via G_S rather than its alternate effector β-arrestin, we
examined the effect of carvedilol, which primarily stimulates the β2AR-β-arrestin signaling [19].
Carvedilol did not detectably affect phosphorylation of S6K1, 4EBP1, and TFEB (Figure 4D),
suggesting that β-arrestin does not mediate the β2AR-mTORC1 signaling. Overall, our observations
suggest that M5R, FPR2, and β2AR regulate the mTORC1-S6K1 axis via standard second messenger-
dependent protein kinases downstream of Gα proteins. These kinases however do not similarly
regulate the mTORC1-TFEB axis.

mTORC1 activation by GPCRs involves endocytosis

As GPCRs signal from both the plasma membrane and endosomes, we asked where GPCRs signal to
mTORC1. The remarkably slow kinetics of mTORC1's response to GPCRs led us to hypothesize that
GPCRs only signal to mTORC1 after being internalized. We addressed this possibility using the
dynamin inhibitor Dyngo-4a that blocks endocytosis [20]. As shown in Figures 5A to 5C (lanes 4 and
5), Dyngo-4a significantly reduced phosphorylation of S6K1 and 4EBP1 triggered by M5R, FPR2, and
β2AR. These observations favor the post-internalization signaling model, although we do not exclude
the possibility that this effect was caused by general endocytosis defects or off-target effects of
Dyngo-4a.

We noticed that Dyngo-4a treatment causes a reduction in the total TFEB level. Because this effect
towards TFEB was observed even without GPCR ligands, it should be attributed to a general
endocytosis defect or off-target effects. Our results thus did not inform the location where GPCRs
signal to the mTORC1-TFEB axis.

Together, the most straightforward interpretation of our data is that three GPCRs signal to the
mTORC1-S6K1/4EBP1 axis through Gα after being internalized. This signaling mechanism is substrate-
selective, as it does not work for the mTORC1-TFEB axis in the same way.

Discussion

This study revealed the substrate/downstream-specific nature of mTORC1 regulation by GPCRs, adding a new layer of complexity to this signaling. In particular, the behavior of TFEB was very different from that of canonical mTORC1 substrates, S6K1 and 4EBP1. A lesson to be drawn from this is that we need to monitor multiple mTORC1 substrates including TFEB when assessing the effects of GPCRs, a viewpoint that has largely been missing in past studies [14].

Mechanistically, the unique behavior of TFEB upon GPCR stimulation can be partly explained if GPCRs signal to mTORC1 through the Rheb branch, which TFEB is uniquely deaf to. This possibility is consistent with our observation that M5R stimulation overrides FBS starvation but not amino acid starvation (Figure 1E). It is indeed known that the MEK-ERK1/2 kinase cascade, which acts downstream of many GPCRs including the ones examined here, activates Rheb by inhibiting its negative regulator TSC complex [21]. Another factor could be the location of phosphorylation events. Given that TFEB is phosphorylated at lysosomes rather than the cytoplasm as proposed for S6K1 and 4EBP1 [5], GPCRs may exert substrate-specific effects by modulating mTORC1 localization.

The non-canonical behavior of TFEB observed in this and other studies means the regulatory decoupling of a catabolic process (lysosome biogenesis) from an anabolic process (protein synthesis), even though both are governed by mTORC1. A similar decoupling is observed in the budding yeast model, in which protein synthesis and autophagy are regulated by spatially distinct TORC1 pools [22]. This may look counterintuitive from the traditional view in the TORC1 field that activation of anabolism or catabolism should coincide with inhibition of the other. Such coupling would make sense in the context of nutrient response, where cells adapt their bulk mass to nutrient availability. However, the situation is different when cells respond to other stimuli such as growth factors or stresses. Cells would need to change themselves qualitatively by remodeling the proteome, not necessarily changing their total mass. For that, they would need to synthesize proteins that are needed in the new environment, and simultaneously degrade proteins not needed anymore. The latter catabolic process and subsequent recycling of resources (e.g., amino acids) fuel the former anabolic processes. In such a situation, it would be beneficial to decouple anabolism and catabolism.

The supreme druggability of GPCRs, and their tissue/context-specific expression patterns, make GPCR ligands attractive therapeutic tools to manipulate mTORC1 pathway to treat cancer, diabetes, neurodegeneration, and aging. The substrate/downstream specificity revealed in this study further enhances the potential of GPCR ligands, as it theoretically enables selective manipulation of desired downstream functions of mTORC1. Such a targeted approach should be more effective and safer than pan-mTORC1 manipulation. This potential warrants a comprehensive investigation of the mTORC1 substrate specificity for a wider range of GPCRs.

Materials and methods

Antibodies and reagents

All antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling technologies except anti-GAPDH (Proteintech 60004-1-Ig). Anti-S6K (2708), anti-P-S6K (9205), anti-4EBP1 (9644), anti-TFEB (4240), anti-P-TFEB (8793) and anti-P-MAPK (4370) were used at 1:1000. Anti-GAPDH was used at 1:30,000. Unless otherwise stated, common reagents were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific.

Cell culture

All cell lines (HEK293 and derivatives) were cultured in DMEM high glucose (Merck D5671) supplemented with 1 mM sodium pyruvate (ThermoFisher Scientific 11360-039), 1% glutamine (Merck G7513) and 10% FBS (Biosera 10011500) at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO_2. Cell lines were regularly tested for the presence of mycoplasma contamination. FPR2 stably expressing cells were previously generated as described in [17]. DMEM without amino acids (VWR USBID9800-13) was supplemented with glucose to match DMEM high glucose above, 1 mM sodium pyruvate and 10% dialysed FBS (lacking amino acids). The same FBS batch for all experiments was dialysed against PBS twice overnight at 4°C using a 3500 Da cutoff Snakeskin™ dialysis membrane (ThermoFisher Scientific 88242).

Muscarinic Acetylcholine Receptor M5 DREADD stable cell line

HEK293 cells were from the EACCC. The M5 DREADD receptor was generated based on the M3R DREADD [23]. Briefly, M5R cDNA was obtained from cDNA.org and subcloned into the Flag pcDNA3.1+ zeo [17]. Site-directed mutagenesis (QuickChange, Agilent) was then used to introduce the conserved mutations in the 3rd and 5th transmembrane domain (Y111C and A201G) to confer sensitivity to CNO. Stables were generated by selection with zeocin and identified by anti-Flag immunofluorescence determined by microscopy.

GPCR stimulation

All cell lines were washed with PBS then starved of amino acids or FBS for 2 hours before treatment with the GPCR antagonists at 1 µM: CNO (Tocris/bio-techne 6329), Isoprenaline/Carvedilol (Sigma/Merck I6504; Sigma/Merck C3993) or WKYMVm (Tocris/BioTechne 1800) in M5R-DREADD, WT or FPR2-expressing HEK293 cells respectively for the indicated timepoints. Dyngo®-4a (Abcam ab120689) was added to culture media 20 minutes before stimulation at 10 µM. MEK inhibitor PD 98059 (Abcam ab120234) was added for 1.5 hours before stimulation at 50 µM. PKC inhibitor GF109203x (Sigma/Merck B6292) and PKA inhibitor PKI (Tocris/BioTechne 2546) were added for 1.5 hours before stimulation at 1 µM.

Global translation assay

Cells were stimulated as above, and puromycin (ThermoFisher Scientific 227420500). was added 15 minutes before lysis at 5 ug ul^{-1} as per the SUNSET assay protocol [24].

Western blotting

Cells were washed with PBS before being lysed directly in high SDS lysis buffer (3% SDS, 60 mM sucrose, 65 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8), denatured at 95°C for 5 minutes, homogenised by sonication and cleared by centrifugation at 18,000 x g for 30 minutes. Lysates were quantified by a linearised bradford assay (Abcam ab119216) using 595nm/450nm ratio.

25 μg of proteins were separated in SDS-PAGE gels before being transferred to nitrocellulose
membranes (VWR 10600002). After ponceau staining, membranes were blocked with 5% milk/TBST
(for anti-TFEB, P-TFEB, GAPDH, P-MAPK antibodies) or 5% BSA/TBST (for anti-S6k, PS6k, 4EBP1
antibodies) and probed with antibodies overnight at 4°C in 5% BSA/TBST (for anti-S6k, PS6k, 4EBP1,
TFEB, P-TFEB, P-MAPK antibodies) or 5% Milk/TBST (for anti-GAPDH antibody). Membranes were
visualised after secondary antibody incubation (Cell Signaling Technologies 7074 and 7076) and
washing with TBST using ECL substrate (ThermoFisher Scientific 12994780). Membranes were
imaged in a Gbox gel/blot imaging system (Syngene) and densitometry analysis for was performed
using ImageJ [25].

Flow cytometry

304   After stimulation, cells were treated with 20 nM LysoTracker™ Red DND-99 (ThermoFisher Scientific
305   L7528) before being placed on ice detached, resuspended in cold FACS buffer (PBS 3% FBS, 25 mM
306   HEPES, 5 mM EDTA) and analysed on an Attune NxT flow cytometer (ThermoFisher Scientific),
307   collecting at least 10,000 single cell events. Data was analysed using https://floreada.io.

Statistical analysis

309   All statistical analyses and graphs were produced in GraphPad Prism. Technical replicates (n) were
310   averaged for each biological replicates (N). Control and experimental condition's biological repeats
311   were compared using unpaired student's t tests. P<0.05 was considered significant and P>0.05 non-
312   significant.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization: SJA, DT, JH, and RH; Methodology: SJA, WR, KT, and JH; Investigation: SJA, WR, KT, and JH; Formal Analysis: SJA and JH; Validation: SJA, WR, and JH; Supervision: DT, JH, and RH; Funding acquisition: DT, JH and RH; Visualization: SJA, JH, and RH; Writing – original draft: SJA and RH; Writing – review & editing: SJA, DT, JH, and RH.

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Figure 1

Figure 1. Activation of M5R-DREADD by CNO and downstream signalling to mTORC1.

HEK293 cells stably expressing the M5R DREADD were serum starved for 2 hours prior to stimulation with 1 μM CNO for the indicated time (**A**) or with the indicated concentration of CNO for 7 minutes (**B**), before lysis and analysis by SDS-PAGE. Representative anti-phospho-ERK1/2 and anti-tubulin Western blots are presented alongside quantification relative to untreated samples (n=3). The same M5R DREADD cells were seeded overnight and then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM CNO for up to 32 minutes (**C**) or 128 minutes (**D**) before lysis and separation by SDS-PAGE. (**E**) M5R-DREADD cells were treated as above but with the additional conditions of amino acid and combined amino acid/FBS starvation. Cells were treated with 1 μM CNO for 32 minutes before lysis.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Protein synthesis and lysosome biogenesis regulated by M5R. HEK293 cells expressing
M5R-DREADD were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2
hours before being stimulated with 1 μM CNO for 32 minutes. After stimulation, CNO was removed
and fresh FBS starvation media was added for a further 2 hours in one condition. Puromycin at 5 μg
ml^{-1} was added to each condition for 15 minutes before lysis and separation by SDS-PAGE (**A**) (top
panel representative western blot, bottom panel – quantitative analysis of N = 3 experiments) or
LysoTracker™ Red DND-99 at 20 nM was added before detachment for flow cytometry analysis (**B**).
(**C**) A schematic showing the proposed dualistic regulation of downstream mTORC1 substrates by
M5R where, in contrast to normally observed signaling (e.g. Figure 1E without CNO lanes),
S6K1/4EBP1 phosphorylation is promoted and TFEB phosphorylation is suppressed – activating all
three substrates simultaneously. Significance was calculated by unpaired student's t test with *
denoting P<0.05 and ** P<0.01.

Figure 3

421 **Figure 3. Activation of mTORC1 by alternative classes of GPCRs.** HEK293 cells expressing FPR2 (**A**) or
422 WT HEK293 (**B**) were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2
423 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM WKYMVm peptide or 1 μM isoprenaline respectively for up
424 to 128 minutes before being lysed and separation by SDS-PAGE.

Figure 4

A

FBS	+	+	-	-	-	-
CNO	-	-	-	+	+	-
GF109203x	-	+	-	-	+	+

Phospho-S6K1

S6K1

4EBP1

Phospho-TFEB

TFEB

Phospho-ERK1/2

GAPDH

B

FBS	+	+	-	-	-	-
WKYMVm	-	-	-	+	+	-
PD 98059	-	+	-	-	+	+

Phospho-S6K1

S6K1

4EBP1

Phospho-TFEB

TFEB

Phospho-ERK1/2

GAPDH

C

FBS	+	+	-	-	-	-
Isoprenaline	-	-	-	+	+	-
PKI	-	+	-	-	+	+

Phospho-S6K1

S6K1

4EBP1

Phospho-TFEB

TFEB

Phospho-ERK1/2

GAPDH

D

| FBS | - | - | - | - | - |
| Carvedilol (mins) | 0 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 128 |

Phospho-S6K1

S6K1

4EBP1

Phospho-TFEB

TFEB

Phospho-ERK1/2

GAPDH

Figure 4. Activation of mTORC1 by GPCRs occurs through distinct Gα regulated downstream pathways. (**A**) HEK293 cells expressing M5R-DREADD were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM CNO for 32 minutes then lysed and separated by SDS-PAGE. A major effector of the G_q coupled M5R, PKC, was inhibited using 1 μM GF109203x for 1.5 hours before CNO treatment. (**B**) HEK293 cells expressing FPR2 were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM WKYMVm peptide for 32 minutes then lysed and separated by SDS-PAGE. The MEK inhibitor PD-98059 was used 1.5 hours before WKYMVm treatment. (**C**) WT HEK293 cells were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM isoprenaline for 64 minutes then lysed and separated by SDS-PAGE. A major effector of the G_s coupled β2AR, PKA, was inhibited using 1 μM PKI for 1.5 hours before isoprenaline treatment. (**D**) WT HEK293 were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS-containing media for 2 hours before being stimulated with the β-arrestin biased agonist 1 μM carvedilol for up to 128 minutes before being lysed and separated by SDS-PAGE.

Figure 5

Figure 5. Internalisation of GPCRs is required for mTORC1 activation. HEK293 cells expressing M5R-
DREADD (**A**) or FPR2 (**B**) were seeded overnight then starved of FBS or given fresh FBS containing
media for 2 hours before being stimulated with 1 μM CNO or WKYMVm peptide for 32 minutes
respectively and were then lysed and western blotted. WT HEK293 cells were treated as above
expect stimulated for 64 minutes with 1 μM isoprenaline (**C**). The dynamin inhibitor Dyngo-4a was
used 20 minutes before GPCR stimulation to prevent endocytosis of GPCR receptors at 10 μM.