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Convergence of TOR-Nitrogen and Snf1-Glucose Signaling Pathways onto Gln3

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Carbon and nitrogen are two basic nutrient sources for cellular organisms. They supply precursors for energy metabolism and metabolic biosynthesis. In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, distinct sensing and signaling pathways have been described that regulate gene expression in response to the quality of carbon and nitrogen sources, respectively. Gln3 is a GATA-type transcription factor of nitrogen catabolite-repressible (NCR) genes. Previous observations indicate that the quality of nitrogen sources controls the phosphorylation and cytoplasmic retention of Gln3 via the target of rapamycin (TOR) protein. In this study, we show that glucose also regulates Gln3 phosphorylation and subcellular localization, which is mediated by Snf1, the yeast homolog of AMP-dependent protein kinase and a cytoplasmic glucose sensor. Our data show that glucose and nitrogen signaling pathways converge onto Gln3, which may be critical for both nutrient sensing and starvation responses.

Carbon and nitrogen are the two most basic nutrient sources for cellular organisms. They are used to produce energy and synthesize a wide range of biomolecules. Energy metabolism and metabolic biosynthesis are carried out by some 500 individual chemical reactions, which are well organized along the centrally placed glycolysis and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (1). Individual reactions are well calibrated by a feedback regulation, which fine-tunes the flux of metabolites through a particular pathway by temporarily increasing or decreasing the activity of crucial enzymes. In response to the quality of carbon and nitrogen, cells can also regulate the expression of genes involved in different metabolic pathways, particularly those involved in utilization and transport of the available nutrients. Genetic analysis in budding yeast led to the identification of signaling pathways that detect the quality of nutrients and regulate gene expression. In the presence of high-quality nitrogen compounds such as glutamine, the expression of genes necessary for utilization and transport of poor nitrogen sources such as glutamate is repressed. These genes become derepressed in a poor nitrogen source such as glutamate or during nitrogen starvation. This phenomenon is called nitrogen catabolite repression (NCR) (reviewed in references 24 and 33). Likewise, the presence of glucose represses the expression of genes involved in transport and utilization of other carbon sources. This is commonly known as glucose repression (reviewed in references 8 and 21).

A number of NCR transcription factors have now been identified, including the GATA-type transcription factors Gln3 and Gat1/Nil1 (13, 16, 42). Recent studies have shed light on the regulatory events leading to activation of Gln3. Tor1 and Tor2 are the yeast targets of rapamycin proteins (6, 28) and key players of nutrient-mediated signal transduction (recently reviewed in references 17, 29, and 37–39). Both TOR proteins interact with Gln3 and Gat1/Nil1 (3) and control their phosphorylation (2, 3, 9). Nitrogen starvation or inhibition of TOR by rapamycin causes rapid dephosphorylation and nuclear accumulation of Gln3 (2, 3, 9), as well as expression of a wide variety of NCR genes (3, 7, 23, 41). The Tap42-Sit4 phosphatase complex also appears to be involved in the regulation of Gln3, tap42-11, a gain-of-function mutation (18) was found to confer moderate (3) to complete (2) resistance to rapamycin in Gln3 dephosphorylation. Ure2 is a yeast preprion protein that acts as an inhibitor of Gln3 (14, 44). Depletion of Ure2 causes constitutive nuclear accumulation of Gln3 (2, 3, 27). However, the precise roles of Tap42-Sit4 and Ure2 remain to be further defined.

Glucose repression is mediated by the intracellular glucose sensor Snf1, a yeast homolog of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), and becomes activated when the glucose level is low (recently reviewed in references 8, 21, and 22). Snf1 phosphorylates and negatively regulates Mig1, a transcriptional repressor involved in the utilization of alternative carbon sources (34, 43). A second class of glucose sensors is involved in the glucose induction mechanism. Rgt2 and Snf3 are two plasma membrane proteins with strong sequence similarity to hexose transporters (HXT). However, they act as high- and low-glucose sensors, respectively, to activate transcription of HXT genes in response to extracellular glucose levels (reviewed in reference 35). Snf3 and Rgt2 do not appear to be involved in the general glucose repression mechanism (31, 36).

Several studies indicate that not only nitrogen, but also carbon nutrient, controls the expression of some NCR genes (15, 41). However, it is not clear how carbon signaling cross talks with the NCR pathway. In this study, we found that glucose availability regulates Gln3 phosphorylation and subcellular localization via the Snf1 AMPK pathway. Thus, like mitogenic signal transduction pathways, nutrient signaling pathways can...
closely interact with each other. Such interplay between two key nutrient sensing and signaling pathways may be important for cells to rapidly adjust cellular metabolic activities as well as growth and proliferation in response to changing nutrient conditions.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Strains and plasmids.** The following yeast strains were used in this study: AH109 (MATa trp1-901 leu2-3 11 ura3-52 his3-200 gol4Δ gol80Δ lys2Δ: Gal1UAAs-Gal1TTA-HIS3 Gal2UAAs-Gal2TTA-ADE2 ade2-3: MEL1UAAs-MELTTA-frame) (Clontech). SYZ154 (MATa his1Δ leu2Δ met15Δ ura3Δ arg4Δ trp1Δ ade2-3: KANMX) (3), SYZ155 (MATa his1Δ leu2Δ met15Δ ura3Δ gln3Δ) (this study), SYZ156 (MATa his1Δ trp1Δ ade2-3: KANMX) (this study), SYZ159 (MATa his1Δ leu2Δ met15Δ ura3Δ gln3Δ) (this study), SYZ160 (MATa his1Δ ade2-3: KANMX) (this study), SYZ161 (MATa his1Δ trp1Δ ade2-3: KANMX) (this study), SYZ163 (MATa his1Δ trp1Δ ade2-3: KANMX) (this study).

**In vitro kinase assay.** To purify active Snf1 from yeast, log-phase snf1Δ cells expressing HA-Snf1 or carrying a control vector were shifted to low-glucose conditions (0.05% glucose) for 1 h, lysed by glass beads in extraction buffer (50 mM HEPES [pH 7.5], 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% Triton X-100, 10% glycerol, 50 mM imidazole, 1 mM PMSF, Roche Complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor tablet, 50 mM NaF, 10 mM β-glycerophosphate). After being cleared by centrifugation as described above, Snf1 was incubated with Ni-agarose beads (Qiagen) for 2 h at 4°C and washed 5 times with extraction buffer containing 50 mM imidazole and twice with kinase buffer (50 mM Tris [pH 7.5], 10 mM MgCl2, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 20 μM ATP). To assay for Snf1 kinase activity toward Gln3, affinity-purified Snf1 was incubated in the presence of bacterial recombinant GST-Gln3 (1 μg/ml) and [γ-32P]ATP (5 μCi/ml, 3,000 Ci/mM [Amerham]) in the kinase buffer (25 μl) for 30 min at 25°C. The phosphorylated GST-Gln3 was analyzed by autoradiography.

**Northern blotting analysis.** Exponential wild-type and mutant yeast cultures (OD600 = 0.4) in SC medium (2% glucose) at 30°C were switched to SC medium minus glucose. A switch to SC medium containing a low concentration of glucose (0.05%) gave essentially the same results (data not shown). Aliquots of yeast cultures were withdrawn at different times. Total yeast RNA was prepared by the phenol freezing extraction method (40). Total yeast RNA samples (20 μg) were separated on denaturing agarose gels, transferred onto nylon filters, hybridized to 32P-labeled DNA probes, and detected by phosphorimaging as described before (3).

**RESULTS**

Recent studies indicate that Gln3 localization is controlled by nitrogen availability (2, 3). We found that Gln3 tagged at the C terminus with a nine-MYC epitope (MYC9) primarily localized in the cytoplasm when cells were cultured in SC medium, but accumulated in the nucleus in the absence of nitrogen (Fig. 1A) (2, 3). There was no staining with the non-tagged strain (data not shown). For comparison, we also examined the localization of Gln3 in the absence of glucose or both glucose and nitrogen. To our surprise, we also found that glucose starvation led to rapid nuclear accumulation of Gln3 (Fig. 1A). Therefore, although Gln3 is known as a nitrogen sensor in a broad sense, it is also under the control of glucose availability. In essence, Gln3 cytoplasmic localization is a good indicator of the level of preferred nutrients in the environment.

Regulation of Gln3 localization by glucose availability suggested a role of glucose in the control of NCR gene expression. To further explore this possibility, we performed Northern blot analysis of several NCR genes. We found that glucose starvation indeed caused an induction of GAPI, GDH2, and PUT1, but not ACT1, the yeast actin gene (Fig. 1B). We next asked whether Gln3 was required for NCR gene expression during glucose limitation. We found that the gln3Δ mutation substantially reduced, but did not completely abolish the expression of GAPI, GDH2, and PUT1 (Fig. 1B), which was similar to that during nitrogen starvation (3). We further investigated the role of Gat1 during glucose limitation. We found that Gat1 was also required for the full induction of GAPI. However, it was dispensable for GDH2 induction. In addition, deletion of GAT1 actually enhanced the induction of PUT1. The effect of the gat1Δ mutation was dependent on Gln3, since such an effect was blocked by deletion of GLN3 (Fig. 1B). Hence, like Gln3, Gat1 appears to participate in the regulation of NCR genes by glucose. Its role, however, appears to be more complex.

Gln3 is phosphorylated in a TOR-dependent manner in preferred nitrogen, but becomes dephosphorylated under poor nitrogen conditions or during nitrogen starvation (2, 3). We therefore investigated whether glucose starvation affected the level of Gln3 phosphorylation. As shown previously (2, 3),
Gln3 appeared as several different phosphorylation forms when grown in SC media, as indicated by its multiple mobility forms on a sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel (Fig. 2A, lanes 1 through 3). Nitrogen starvation or rapamycin treatment rapidly increased Gln3 gel mobility, eventually to a single, fully dephosphorylated form (Fig. 2A, lanes 6 and 9). In contrast to nitrogen starvation, however, glucose starvation further decreased the gel mobility of Gln3, suggesting that it became additionally phosphorylated (Fig. 2A, lanes 11 and 12). To confirm that this gel mobility change of Gln3 was due to phosphorylation, we treated the lysates of glucose-starved cells with CIP. CIP treatment led to an increase in Gln3 gel mobility (Fig. 2B, lane 4) that comigrated with the fastest form of Gln3 in the unstarved cells (Fig. 2B, lane 1). More importantly, such a gel mobility increase was blocked by Na4P2O7, a potent CIP inhibitor (Fig. 2B, lane 5), indicating that the Gln3 gel mobility increase during glucose starvation was indeed due to phosphorylation. Gln3 phosphorylation by glucose limitation was rapidly reversible once glucose was available (Fig. 2C), suggesting that the phosphorylation or dephosphorylation status of Gln3 can rapidly adapt to different glucose conditions. Gln3 also became phosphorylated when cells were switched from a high glucose concentration (2%) to ethanol (nonfermentable carbon source), raffinose (mimicking a low-glucose condition), and galactose (Fig. 2D) or to a low glucose concentration (0.05%) (data not shown). Thus, Gln3 phosphorylation is controlled by a glucose repression mechanism.

That glucose limitation enhances Gln3 phosphorylation argues against a role of TOR in Gln3 phosphorylation, despite the fact that TOR has been suggested in glucose signaling. To further clarify this, we investigated whether TOR is involved in...
Gln3 phosphorylation during glucose starvation. In this experiment, we first treated exponentially growing cells in SC medium (2% glucose) with rapamycin for 30 min, which led to inhibition of TOR kinase activity (4) and complete dephosphorylation of Gln3 (Fig. 3, lanes 2 and 5). We then switched the cells to medium containing rapamycin, but with or without 2% glucose. Gln3 remained in the dephosphorylated state under the high-glucose condition (Fig. 3, lanes 5 through 7), but became rapidly phosphorylated in the absence of glucose (Fig. 3, lanes 2 through 4). As expected, the tap42-11 mutation did not have any effect on Gln3 phosphorylation in the presence or absence of glucose (data not shown). Taken together with the data shown in lanes 10 to 12 of Fig. 2A, these results indicate that Gln3 becomes phosphorylated during glucose starvation, regardless of whether rapamycin was present. Therefore, TOR is not required for glucose signaling to regulate Gln3 phosphorylation. Our observation further suggests that the two types of phosphorylations are independent events.

We have recently conducted a chemical genomics screen for genes that, when deleted, confer resistance or sensitivity to rapamycin (12). We have recently completed screening the entire yeast genome. Like GLN3 and URE2, deletion of several genes in the Snf1 pathway conferred significant differential rapamycin sensitivity. Deletion of SNF1, the yeast AMPK and SNF4, an activator of Snf1, rendered rapamycin resistance (Fig. 4A). In contrast, deletion of REG1, a negative regulator of Snf1, caused rapamycin hypersensitivity (Fig. 4A). These results suggest that Snf1 negatively participates in a cellular process that also involves TOR. We therefore examined whether Snf1 was required for increased Gln3 phosphorylation during glucose limitation. We found that the snf1Δ mutation did not affect normal phosphorylation of Gln3 in SC medium or dephosphorylation of Gln3 during nitrogen starvation (Fig. 4B) or rapamycin treatment (data not shown). However, the snf1Δ mutation completely abolished the ability of Gln3 to become phosphorylated in the absence of glucose (Fig. 4B). These results demonstrate that Snf1 is required for glucose, but not nitrogen, signaling to Gln3. To confirm this, we further examined Gln3 phosphorylation during glucose limitation in the snf1Δ strain that carried a plasmid-borne SNF1 or a vector control. The plasmid-borne SNF1, but not the vector control, was able to restore Gln3 phosphorylation upon glucose limitation (Fig. 4C). In contrast, deletion of RGT2 and SNF3 did not affect Gln3 phosphorylation under different nutrient conditions (Fig. 4D). Therefore, the cytoplasmic, but not the cell surface, glucose sensors regulate Gln3 phosphorylation or dephosphorylation, further supporting the hypothesis that Gln3 regulation is mediated by the glucose repression mechanism.

Snf1 is known to interact with several transcriptional regulators, including Mig1 (34). Hence, we investigated a possible interaction between Snf1 and Gln3 by using the yeast two-hybrid system. We found that Gal4 DNA-binding domain (BD)-Snf1 specifically interacted with Gal4 activation domain (AD)-Gln3, but not with Gal4 AD alone (Fig. 5A). Conversely, Gal4(AD)-Gln3 interacted with Gal4(BD)-Snf1, but not Gal4(BD) alone (Fig. 5A). To further confirm the interaction...
between Snf1 and Gln3, we tested the ability of Snf1 to bind to Gln3 in an in vitro GST-pull down assay (Fig. 5B). In this experiment, we incubated lysates from the wild-type and snf1/H9004 strains with bacterially produced GST-Gln3 or GST. We found that Snf1 specifically bound to GST-Gln3, but not to GST alone (Fig. 5B). These results demonstrate that Snf1 and Gln3 are capable of binding to each other. In addition, Snf1 significantly phosphorylated a bacterial recombinant Gln3 in vitro, suggesting that Snf1 may be directly responsible for Gln3 phosphorylation in vivo.

To further confirm the role of Snf1 in glucose signaling to Gln3, we performed indirect IF staining of Gln3-MYC9 in the wild-type and snf1Δ yeast cells. Gln3 primarily localized in the cytoplasm in both cell types in SC medium and accumulated in the nucleus in the absence of nitrogen or glucose in the wild-type strain (Fig. 6A). However, Gln3 remained in the cytoplasm even in the absence of glucose in the snf1Δ strain (Fig. 6A). In contrast, deletion of SNF1 did not affect the nuclear accumulation of Gln3 during nitrogen starvation. Therefore, Snf1 is required for nuclear accumulation during glucose, but not nitrogen starvation. We next investigated whether Snf1 was involved in the regulation of NCR genes by Northern blot analysis of GAP1, GDH2, and PUT1. As seen earlier (Fig. 1B), glucose limitation caused an induction of these genes in the wild-type yeast (Fig. 6B). This induction, however, was virtually absent in the snf1Δ mutant strain (Fig. 6B). Reg1 is a negative regulator of Snf1, and deletion of REG1 causes constitutive activation of Snf1 and derepression of many Snf1-regulated genes (32). We found that the reg1Δ mutation caused constitutive expression of GAP1 and GDH2 even in the presence of 2% glucose, further supporting the notion that Snf1 is a critical regulator of NCR-sensitive genes via Gln3 and Gat1 (Fig. 6B). Interestingly, the reg1Δ mutation only slightly delayed PUT1 induction, suggesting that additional factors in the Snf1 pathway are required for Snf1-regulated PUT1 expression.
FIG. 7. Model for regulation of Gln3 by both nitrogen and glucose.

**DISCUSSION**

There are two major glucose sensing and signaling mechanisms in yeast: the one mediated by the cell surface glucose sensors Rgt2 and Snf3, which belong to the glucose transporter family, also called the glucose induction mechanism (recently reviewed in reference 35); and the one mediated by the cytoplasmic glucose sensor Ssy1, also called the glucose repression mechanism (recently reviewed in references 8, 21, and 22). Similarly, nitrogen sensing and signaling also involve two distinct sensors. The cell surface amino acid sensor Ssy1 is related to amino acid permeases and acts analogously to Rgt2 and Snf3 (19, 25, 26). On the other hand, Tor1 and Tor2 are the cytoplasmic nitrogen sensors. The role of Gln3 in nitrogen sensing and signaling is dependent on TOR proteins, but not Ssy1 (P. G. Bertram and X. F. S. Zheng, unpublished observation). In this study, we show that Gln3 is regulated by Snf1 (this study), but not Snf3 and Rgt2 (Fig. 4D), the two cell surface glucose sensors (31, 36). Therefore, regulation of Gln3 by both nitrogen and glucose utilizes very similar strategies (for a model, see Fig. 7). In addition to regulating Gln3 nuclear accumulation, phosphorylation may also modulate the ability of Gln3 to transactivate NCR genes, since there is a quantitative difference in GAPI expression levels under different conditions. The GAPI induction level was much higher during nitrogen starvation (~100-fold) (3) than during glucose starvation (~11.5-fold) (Fig. 1B).

Both TOR and Snf1 are cytoplasmic kinases that control the phosphorylation of Gln3 in response to different nutrients. However, phosphorylation by these two kinases has opposite effects. TOR-dependent phosphorylation is consistent with its role in keeping Gln3 in the cytoplasm (2, 3). In contrast, Snf1-dependent phosphorylation correlates well with increased nuclear accumulation (this study). The opposing effects of the two different phosphorylations also suggest that TOR-depen-

dent and Snf1-dependent phosphorylation events occur at distinct sites. Two additional observations further support this hypothesis. Inhibition of TOR by rapamycin treatment did not affect glucose limitation-dependent phosphorylation. In contrast, deletion of Snf1 had little effect on the phosphorylation or dephosphorylation events under different nitrogen conditions. Snf1-dependent phosphorylation may promote Gln3 nuclear import and/or inhibit Gln3 export (Fig. 7). The TOR- and Snf1-dependent phosphorylation sites need to be identified in order to clearly define their roles in the regulation of Gln3 localization and functions.

Why does the cell need to up-regulate NCR-sensitive genes during glucose limitation? Both carbon- and nitrogen-containing compounds can be ultimately utilized for energy metabolism as well as metabolic biosyntheses. For example, while glycolysis and the TCA cycle use glucose to generate NADH leading to ATP synthesis, many of the intermediate products are also precursors for biosynthesis of amino acids, nucleotides, and lipids (1). These genes are induced by rapamycin or nitrogen starvation (23). Conversely, amino acids can be used as precursors for biosynthesis of other amino acids, nucleotides, and lipids as well as for energy metabolism. For example, GDH2 encodes glutamate dehydrogenase that catalyzes the conversion of glutamate and NAD to $\alpha$-ketoglutarate, NH$_3^+$, and NADH. While NADH is directly used to generate ATP, $\alpha$-ketoglutarate can be directly fed into the TCA cycle. During glucose limitation, the cell may need to mobilize other available nutrients as alternative carbon sources, including amino acids. In addition to energy metabolism and metabolic biosyntheses, nitrogen and glucose starvation results in many other common cell physiological changes, such as exit from the cell cycle, accumulation of glycogen, reduced protein synthesis, and increased autophagy. For example, limitation of both nitrogen and glucose leads to increased expression of several genes required for autophagy, including APG and vacuolar protease genes (11, 41), as well as those involved in ribosomal biogenesis (30). Therefore, in addition to regulation of NCR genes, Gln3 appears to be important for general starvation responses as well.

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