

# hVps34, an ancient player, enters a growing game: mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling

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Recent studies have shown that the nutrient input to the mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling pathway is mediated by class 3 PI3K or hVps34, the oldest member of the PI3K family. Moreover, studies to date would suggest that during the evolution of multicellular organisms this ancient branch of the pathway was merged with the growth-factor-hormone-controlled class 1 PI3K pathway at the level of mTOR Complex1 to control the development and growth of the organism. However, hVps34 also plays a role in the regulation of macroautophagy — the mechanism by which cells generate nutrients, such as amino acids, through the degradation of intracellular complexes, including mitochondria and ribosomes. These functions of hVps34 initially appear contradictory, since increased mTOR Complex1 activation is triggered by increased amino acid levels, while autophagy is triggered when cells are faced with amino acid deprivation.

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## Introduction

It has been known for nearly a decade that the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) Complex1 is exquisitely sensitive to nutrients. However, there has been little understanding of the underlying mechanisms which mediate this response, despite an increasing awareness of the importance of this pathway in metabolic syndromes such as diabetes, obesity and cancer. Here we review the recent finding that hVps34 mediates nutrient signaling to mTOR. We also discuss a potential framework to rationalize the distinct roles played by hVps34 in the control of growth versus autophagy.

## mTOR Complex1/S6K1

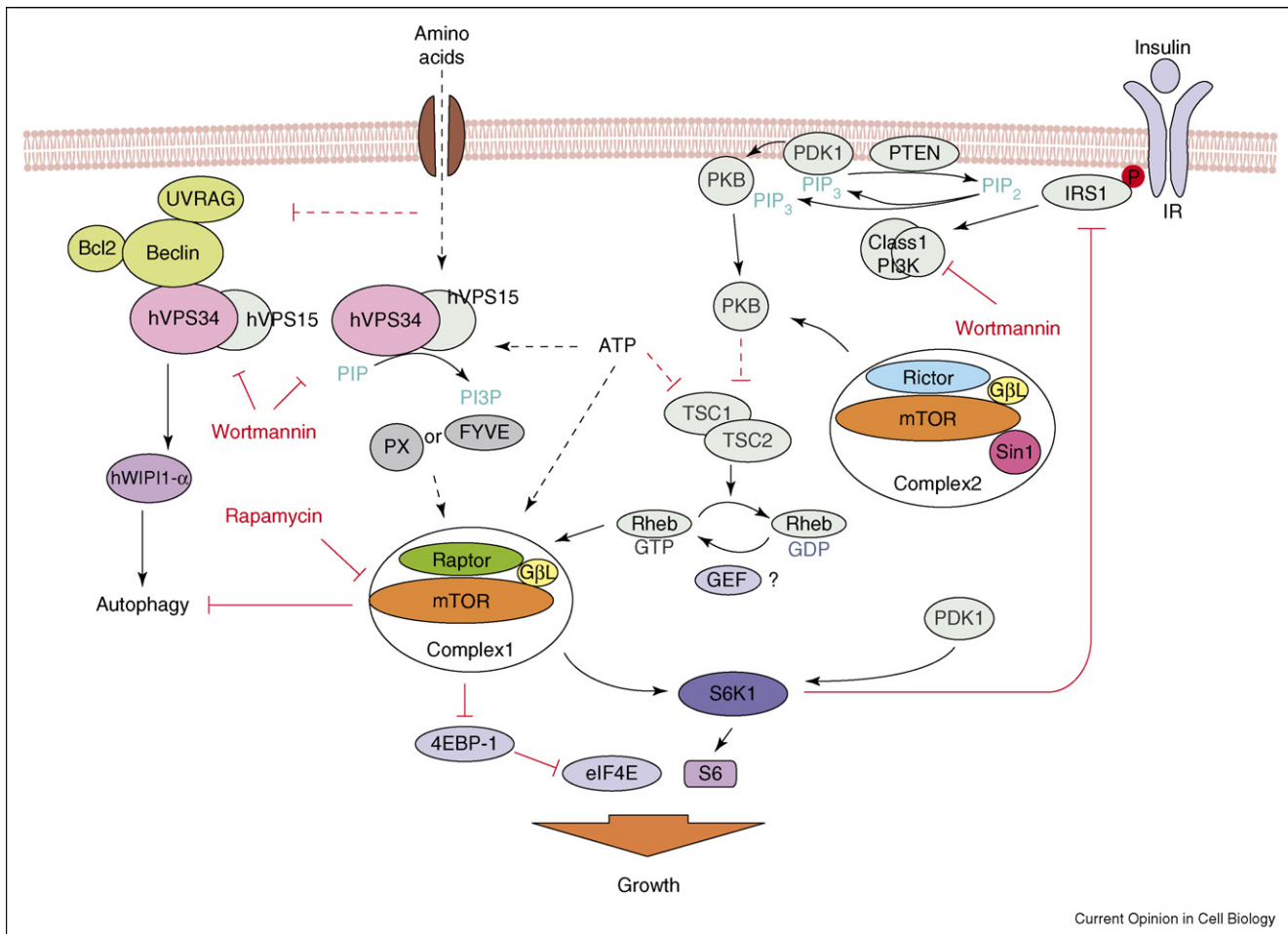
mTOR and its downstream effector S6 kinase 1 (S6K1), as well as initiation factor 4E binding protein (4E-BP1), have emerged as critical signaling components in the

development, differentiation and growth of the organism [1], as well as in the maintenance of normal metabolic homeostasis [2,3]. In the case of S6K1, mTOR appears to influence these processes largely at the level of protein synthesis, through S6K1 phosphorylation of target proteins, such as ribosomal protein S6 [4], elongation factor 2 kinase [5], and initiation factor 4B [6] as well as raising the levels of initiation factor eIF4A, through the phosphorylation and degradation of its inhibitor, programmed cell death protein 4 [7]. Moreover, dysregulation of this pathway is associated with a number of pathological states, including obesity, insulin resistance and cancer [3,8,9]. Indeed, the rapamycin derivatives CCI779 (Wyeth-Ayerst) and RAD001 (Novartis) are being used in phase II and III clinical trials for the treatment of solid tumors [9].

*In vivo*, mTOR requires two associated proteins to signal to S6K1: raptor [10–12] and GβL [13]. This complex, termed mTOR Complex1 [3], interacts with downstream substrates through raptor, which recognizes substrates, such as S6K1, through their TOR signaling (TOS) motifs [14]. The rapamycins, when bound to FKBP-12, appear to interfere with raptor's ability to recruit substrates, such as S6K1, to mTOR, thus inhibiting their phosphorylation. Although GβL initially appeared to be required for a signaling-competent mTOR Complex1 [13], this view has recently been questioned [15]. Further studies have shown that mTOR also exists in a second complex, mTOR Complex2, which includes GβL, rictor and mSin1 [16–19]. mTOR Complex2 appears to be the major kinase involved in regulating the phosphorylation of S473 on protein kinase B (PKB/Akt), one of the two key residues required for the phosphorylation of specific substrates (see Figure 1). The rapamycins do not normally inhibit mTOR Complex2, although, under conditions of chronic exposure to the drug, they may do so, since they are able to bind nascent mTOR prior to its assembly into mature mTOR Complex2. Both mTOR complexes are activated by mitogens; however, only the mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling branch responds to nutrients, including amino acids and glucose [20]. Thus, to propagate downstream signals, mTOR Complex1/S6K1 must integrate growth factor and hormone signals with those of nutrients.

Earlier studies have demonstrated that growth factors and hormones, such as insulin, regulate mTOR Complex1/S6K1 activation via class 1 PI3K. Upon insulin stimulation, the insulin receptor autophosphorylates at specific tyrosine residues, leading to the creation of specific docking sites. One of these sites acts to recruit IRS1 and IRS2

Figure 1



Model of the mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling pathway (see text). Insulin and amino acids activate mTOR through distinct signaling cascades, with amino acids acting through hVps34. hVps34 also participates in the regulation of autophagy.

(see Figure 1), leading to their increased phosphorylation and to recruitment of adaptor molecules, such as the p85 regulatory subunit of class 1 PI3K [21]. In the case of class 1 PI3K, bringing the lipid kinase to the vicinity of the membrane leads to the transient production of the second messenger phosphatidylinositol (PtdIns (3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>). PtdIns (3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> binds to the N-terminal plextrin-homology (PH) domain of PKB/Akt, recruiting PKB/Akt to the membrane, where it is phosphorylated by phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1 (PDK1) [22,23] and mTOR Complex2 [19]. Activated PKB/Akt then acts to phosphorylate tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) protein 2, which joins with TSC1 to make up a tumor suppressor complex associated with the autosomal-dominant genetic disorder, TSC [24]. Phosphorylation of TSC2 is thought to target TSC2 for destruction [25] or for 14-3-3 sequestration, where 14-3-3 proteins bind phosphorylated TSC2, thus keeping TSC2 in the cytosol and away from TSC1, which is always at the membrane [26]. In this way, the formation of the functional TSC1/TSC2 complex is inhibited [27], which may be a

mechanism for inhibiting TSC2 tumor suppressor activity. In turn, TSC1/TSC2 functions as a GTPase that drives Ras homologue enriched in brain (Rheb) [28] into the inactive GDP-bound state [29–32]. Rheb directly interacts with mTOR Complex1, thus stimulating its ability to signal downstream to S6K1 [33]. The outcome of the insulin-induced response is elevated levels of protein synthesis and increased cell growth (see Figure 1).

The mechanism by which nutrients, such as amino acids and glucose, signal to mTOR Complex1/S6K1 is largely unknown. The importance of understanding this phenomenon has been underscored by two recent observations: first, that this branch of the pathway appears to play a critical role in insulin resistance, through a negative feedback loop from mTOR Complex1/S6K1 to IRS1 [3] (see Figure 1), and second, that in the environment of a solid tumor, where nutrients may be scarce, upregulation of this branch of the pathway may facilitate tumor growth [20]. Recent studies have indicated that the amino acid

response is, in part, mediated by a novel signaling pathway that is triggered by class 3 PI3K, also known as human vacuolar protein sorting 34 (hVps34) [34<sup>\*</sup>,35<sup>••</sup>] (see Figure 2). hVps34 differs from class 1 PI3K in its substrate specificity and salt requirement in *in vitro* assays, in its binding partners and in its primary structure. *In vitro*, class 1 PI3K is more active with Mg<sup>2+</sup> than with Mn<sup>2+</sup>, whereas hVps34 exhibits the opposite preference. Moreover, hVps34 uses PtdIns (phosphoinositide) as a substrate to produce PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub>, whereas class 1 is more active toward PtdIns(4, 5)P<sub>2</sub> to produce PtdIns(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>. The catalytic subunits of both class 1 PI3K and hVps34 harbor a C2 domain, PIK domain and lipid kinase domain, though class 1 also has a p85-binding and a ras-binding domain. In addition, both lipid kinases form heterodimers with unique regulatory subunits: the adapter protein p85 for class 1 PI3K, and S/T protein kinase p150 for hVps34.

The role of amino acids in mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling was initially demonstrated in studies on macroautophagy, a cellular process in which portions of cytoplasm are sequestered within double-membrane vesicles known as autophagosomes before being delivered to lysosomes for degradation and recycling of cellular components [36]. Earlier studies showed that inhibition of macroautophagy by the addition of amino acids was directly paralleled by increased S6 phosphorylation and that this response was suppressed by rapamycin [37]. Subsequently, it was shown that amino-acid-induced S6K1 activation was dependent on mTOR Complex1 [38–40]. Moreover, a number of studies have shown that

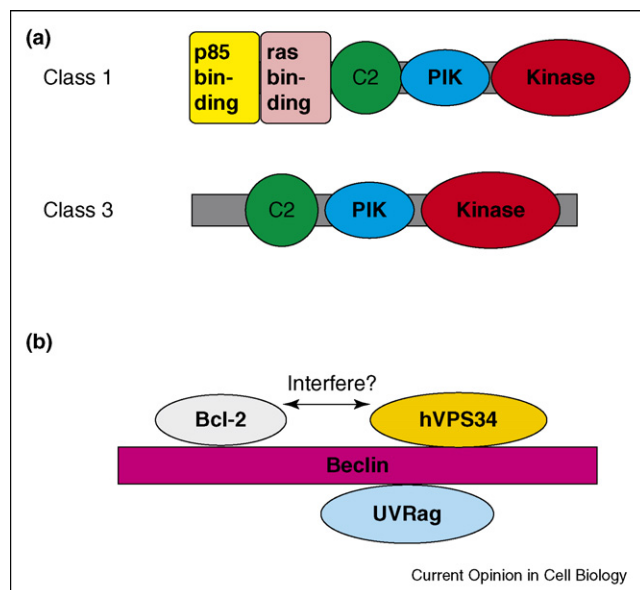
essential amino acids, especially the branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs), are critical in potentiating mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling [41]. However, it is clear that non-essential amino acids can also affect mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling [38,39], consistent with their role in driving early embryonic growth [42], a process in which mTOR Complex1 has been implicated [43].

The yeast orthologue of hVps34 was first identified in a screen for genes involved in vacuolar protein localization and processing [44]. Further genetic [45,46] and biochemical [47,48] studies revealed that hVps34 resides in a membrane-associated complex with a serine/threonine kinase, hVps15, whose activity is essential for hVps34 function [45]. The sequence of hVps34 contains a C2 Ca<sup>2+</sup>-binding motif [49] at its N-terminus, which was recently identified as the domain by which hVps34 interacts with beclin, the human orthologue of the autophagic gene Atg6 [50]. The C2 Ca<sup>2+</sup>-binding motif of hVps34 is followed by a conserved PIK accessory domain, first described in yeast PI4K [51], and a highly conserved lipid kinase domain located at the C-terminus [47]. hVps15 (p150) contains a consensus sequence for the addition of myristic acid at its N-terminus, which is thought to target the hVps34/hVps15 complex to membranes, followed by a conserved serine/threonine catalytic kinase domain, a single HEAT repeat, and multiple WD40 repeats. Moreover, Rabs have been shown to bind to the HEAT and WD40 protein-interaction domains of hVps15, which may direct the hVps34/hVps15 complex to distinct intracellular compartments (see below). At these sites of recruitment, PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub> is produced, which in turn acts to recruit proteins containing FYVE or PX domains [52]. Many of these FYVE- and PX-domain-containing proteins are thought to be Rab effectors [53].

### hVps34 and mTOR

The link between hVps34 and mTOR Complex1 signaling emerged independently in studies designed to elucidate the mechanism by which nutrient input, particularly of amino acids and glucose, leads to increased S6K1 T389 phosphorylation as a readout of mTOR Complex1 activation [34<sup>\*</sup>,35<sup>••</sup>]. Initially it was presumed that amino acids affected mTOR Complex1/S6K1 by acting through the generic class 1 PI3K branch of this pathway [35<sup>••</sup>]. In the absence of TSC1/TSC2, although mTOR Complex1/S6K1 activation was elevated and refractive to stimulation by mitogens [54–56], such as insulin, it was still regulated by amino acids [35<sup>••</sup>]. However, this was not the case for Rheb, as siRNA knock-down of Rheb protein levels blocked both the insulin and amino acid input to S6K1 [35<sup>••</sup>]. Nonetheless, withdrawal of amino acids, which triggers S6K1 inactivation, had no effect on elevated Rheb-GTP levels in TSC2-deficient cells, leading to the hypothesis that endogenous, in contrast to overexpressed, Rheb-GTP [29] is necessary, but not sufficient, to drive S6K1 activation in the absence of amino acids.

**Figure 2**



Class 3 PI3Kinase is structurally distinct from Class 1 PI3Kinase and forms a unique complex with other signaling components. **(a)** Comparison between class 1 and 3 PI3Kinases. **(b)** Beclin complex containing hVPS34.

The reason for the difference between the amino acid requirements associated with endogenous and overexpressed Rheb is not entirely understood. However, our unpublished results suggest that, normally, amino acids are necessary to induce a change in Rheb localization or a conformational change in mTOR Complex1 that allows active Rheb (or an immediate target effector of Rheb other than mTOR) to trigger mTOR substrate phosphorylation. However, it appears that an overwhelming amount of active Rheb can bypass this activation mechanism and signal to mTOR without amino acid stimulation. These findings suggested that the amino acid input to mTOR Complex1/S6K1 acts on a pathway parallel to the TSC1/2–Rheb axis. As earlier studies demonstrated that wortmannin, a class 1 PI3K inhibitor, blocked amino acid-induced S6K1 activation and that amino acids did not induce PKB activation [38,40], this suggested that a novel wortmannin-sensitive signaling component was responsible for mediating the amino acid input to the mTOR Complex1/S6K1. These observations led to the identification of hVps34 as the novel wortmannin-sensitive target by which these responses were mediated [34<sup>\*</sup>,35<sup>\*\*</sup>]. In brief, it was shown that ectopic expression of hVps34 drives S6K1 activation in the presence, but not in the absence, of amino acids, and that this effect is blocked by siRNAs [34<sup>\*</sup>,35<sup>\*\*</sup>] or neutralizing antibodies [34<sup>\*</sup>] directed against hVps34. Moreover, stimulation of cells with amino acids appears to increase hVps34 activity, as measured by the production of PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub>. Consistent with hVps34 mediating the amino acid input to S6K1, this response is attenuated by expression of a cDNA whose protein product contains two FYVE domains and binds to PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub>, blocking the binding of FYVE- or PX-domain-containing proteins and preventing S6K1 activation [34<sup>\*</sup>,35<sup>\*\*</sup>]. Interestingly, hVps34 is the only PI3K found in yeast. Indeed, it may be that, during the evolution of metazoans and the rise of systemic hormonal regulation, the insulin–class 1 PI3K signaling pathway was merged with the primordial amino-acid-driven class 3 PI3K signaling pathway so that both pathways act through the mTOR Complex1 to control the growth and development of the organism (see Figure 1).

The mechanism by which PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub> signals to mTOR Complex1/S6K1 is not known; however, the data above suggest that it requires the increased production of PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub>. One possibility is that hVps34, through PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub>, acts to increase the intracellular concentrations of amino acids, either by enhancing their uptake from the external milieu or by increasing protein degradation through macro- or microautophagy. To test this possibility, the concentration of individual amino acids was measured in HeLa cells in which hVps34 protein levels were depleted by siRNA treatment. The amino acid content did not differ between cells treated with hVps34 siRNA and those treated with a control siRNA (T Nobukuni and G Thomas, unpublished). This indicates

that hVps34 stimulation of mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling is not mediated through increased levels of amino acids, but instead acts as a component of the pathway downstream of amino acids. Given the role of PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub> in recruiting proteins containing either FYVE or PX domains, it is highly possible that hVps34 is involved in forming a signaling complex that includes mTOR Complex1 and potentially S6K1 (see below). It should also be noted that glucose depletion has been reported to inhibit hVps34 activity, suggesting that amino acids or glucose are converging through a common mechanism to activate mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling [34<sup>\*</sup>]. Although earlier it was argued that glucose signals to mTOR Complex1/S6K1 through the activation of AMPK kinase and the phosphorylation of TSC2 [57], this model has been called into question by two recent publications. These studies showed that REDD1, which negatively regulates mTOR activity in response to energy deprivation, does not require AMPK to mediate this response [58], and reagents that affect AMPK activity affected a downstream target of mTOR, eEF2 kinase, in the absence of TSC2 [59]. It should also be noted that energy deprivation does not have an immediate impact on intracellular amino acid levels, nor does amino acid deprivation affect ATP levels [60]. Key questions, then, are the identity of the mechanism leading to hVps34 activation, and whether this mechanism is shared by amino acids, glucose and other nutrients.

### Autophagy and endosome signaling

hVps34 is known to play a critical role in autophagy, and has been shown to directly interact with the autophagic gene beclin. Beclin was first identified as a Bcl-2-interacting protein in a yeast two-hybrid screen [61]. Subsequently it has been shown to be a haploinsufficient tumor suppressor gene [62,63], and it has been demonstrated that overexpression of Bcl-2 disrupts the hVps34–beclin interaction [64<sup>\*</sup>]. Moreover, it is hypothesized that, in a nutrient-replete setting, Bcl-2 inhibits autophagy by sequestering beclin away from hVps34 [64<sup>\*</sup>]. However, this latter view has been challenged recently, in that Bcl-2 and hVps34 are argued to bind within the same complex through two distinct domains in beclin, along with a third protein, UVRAG, which is also a haploinsufficient tumor suppressor gene [65<sup>\*\*</sup>]. How then does hVps34 trigger autophagy? Recent studies have led to the identification of a WD40-repeat-containing protein, hWIPI-1 $\alpha$  (WIPI49) (see Figure 1), the human orthologue of the yeast autophagy gene Atg18, which, following amino acid deprivation, colocalizes with the autophagosomal marker LC3 at punctate cytoplasmic structures in cells. Moreover, structural analysis data suggest that hWIPI-1 $\alpha$  contains an evolutionarily conserved phospholipid-binding domain [66<sup>\*</sup>]. In yeast, this domain has been shown to bind PtdIns(3)P<sub>1</sub> and to be involved in the formation of the pre-autophagosome structures (PASS) [67], which act as a donor compartments for the biogenesis of autophagosomes [68]. Given the

common role of WD40-repeat-containing proteins in coordinating multiprotein complex assemblies, with the repeating units serving as a rigid scaffold for protein interactions [69], it has been hypothesized that hWIPI-1 $\alpha$  may also act as a scaffold for building the autophagosome [66\*].

The suggestion that hVps34 is a positive effector in both autophagy and mTOR Complex1/S6K1 signaling appears incongruent because autophagy is thought to be under the negative control of mTOR [36]. A potential explanation is that hVps34 may be operating in specific cellular compartments. As indicated above, hVps34 potentially plays a distinct role in the recruitment of hWIPI-1 $\alpha$  during the generation of the autophagosome. However, it is known that the hVps34/hVp15 complex is also recruited to early endosomes by Rab5 [70] through the direct interaction of Rab5 with the carboxyl tail of hVp15 [71]. In this way, Rab5 is more readily able to recruit its downstream FYVE-domain effector early-endosomal autoantigen 1 (EEA1) to early endosomes, where it is required for endosome fusion [72]. The primary roles of hVps34 in endosomes are in growth-factor-receptor sorting and the formation of intraluminal endosomal vesicles; it does not appear to play a role in targeting cargo to the late endosome/lysosome [73]. Interestingly, early endosomes have been implicated in signaling [74]. The concept of endosome signaling emanates from studies showing that, following ligand addition, activated epidermal growth factor receptors were found on early endosomes with their downstream signaling effectors. Similarly, nerve growth factor was found with its activated TrkA receptor and phospholipase  $\gamma$ 1 (PLC- $\gamma$ 1) in endocytic organelles, which were capable of signaling to downstream effectors such as MAPK [74]. Relevant to this concept, we have found that mTOR Complex1 co-immunoprecipitates with hVps34 (P Gulati and G Thomas, unpublished), and others have reported that Rheb, through its carboxyl CaaX box, associates with the Golgi [75]. These findings raise the possibility that mTOR Complex1 may signal to downstream effectors through such vesicles.

### Future perspectives

Given the ability of mTOR Complex1 to suppress autophagy, and the importance of both endosome trafficking and autophagy to the malignant phenotype, it will be critical to identify the mechanisms by which these two pathways interact at the intracellular level. Currently, hVps34 and hVps15 are the only known components of the pathway linking nutrient input to mTOR Complex1 activation. Thus, identifying the upstream and downstream elements of this pathway will be critical to deciphering the mechanism of the cellular response to nutrients. To find the downstream targets of hVps34, it will be important to find the PtdIns (2)P<sub>1</sub>-binding protein responsible for the activation of the pathway, especially since it seems that hVps34's ability to produce PtdIns (3)P<sub>1</sub> is critical for activation of the pathway. It is also of

importance to find the binding partners of hVps34/hVps15 to identify the upstream regulator of the pathway.

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