m^6^A and eIF2\alpha-\oplus Team Up to Tackle ATF4 Translation during Stress

Emily Nicole Powers^1 and Gloria Ann Brar^1,*
^1Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA
^*Correspondence: gabrar@berkeley.edu
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While m^6^A modification of mRNAs is now known to be widespread, the cellular roles of this modification remain largely mysterious. In this issue of Molecular Cell, Zhou et al. (2018) show that m^6^A modification unexpectedly contributes to the established uORF- and eIF2\alpha-\oplus-dependent mechanism of ATF4 translational regulation in response to stress.

Studies of translational control have benefited enormously from development of a suite of tools that allow in vitro views of ribosome positions, providing information that was difficult to extract from pre-existing genetic and in vitro approaches. These new methods include ribosome profiling, which measures genome-wide translation via the sequencing of mRNA fragments bound by 80S translating ribosomes (Ingolia et al., 2012), and QTI-seq (quantitative translation initiation sequencing), which precisely and quantitatively maps sites of translation initiation (Gao et al., 2015). Broad application of these methods has been powerful, often confirming defined translation mechanisms, but sometimes suggesting a need to revisit long-held assumptions about general and specific mechanisms of translational regulation. Zhou and colleagues integrate use of these and other global approaches to reveal an added layer to the regulation responsible for stress-responsive translation of the mRNA for transcription factor ATF4 (Zhou et al., 2018).

The 5′ leader of ATF4 is known to contain two upstream open reading frames (uORFs). In the absence of stress, it is thought that the ATF4 ORF is poorly translated due to the translation of uORF2, which is overlapping and out of frame with the ATF4 ORF start codon (Vattem and Wek, 2004; Lu et al., 2004). Under an array of stresses, however—not including starvation—the translation initiation factor eIF2\alpha is phosphorylated (\oplus), and the ATF4 ORF is resultanty translated. A general model for uORF-based regulation, based on elegant studies of the Gcn4 transcription factor-encoding gene in budding yeast, proposes that eIF2\alpha-\oplus reduces the amount of ternary complex (TC) available to mediate translation initiation. This causes a general decrease in translation initiation. However, in the case of at least a subset of genes with ORF-repressive uORFs that are translated under non-stressed conditions, the ultimate effect is increased translation of the main ORF. This is due to “leaky scanning” by ribosomes that lack TCs, and therefore bypass uORFs (Hinnebusch, 2014). Consistent with this model, mutation of uORF2 enhances ATF4 translation under non-stressed conditions (Vattem and Wek, 2004; Lu et al., 2004). Zhou and colleagues explored this mechanism in detail, comparing ribosome profiling and QTI-seq data for control and starved cells. They observed that, while 80S translating ribosome occupancy within the ATF4 ORF increased upon starvation, there was no associated decrease in ribosome occupancy of uORF2. This result was confirmed by reporter assay and led Zhou and colleagues to investigate the possibility that ATF4 regulation involved additional mechanisms beyond the prevailing model.

Mass spectrometry of proteins associated with ATF4 mRNA revealed enrichment of the RNA demethylase ALKBH5 in starved cells compared to control conditions. ALKBH5 can reverse N^6^-methyladenosine (m^6^A); therefore, the authors performed global mapping of the m^6^A mRNA modification sites to investigate a possible link between this modification and ATF4 translation. They noted that the ATF4 mRNA showed several regions of m^6^A modification, including one within uORF2. Intriguingly, this site in particular showed a decrease in m^6^A upon starvation. m^6^A modification is thought to be the most common internal mRNA modification, although the degree of its prevalence has only recently become clear. Some m^6^A sites have been shown to be capable of driving transcript-specific translational regulation, poly(A) site choice, and mRNA stability, but no function is currently known for the large majority of known m^6^A sites (Meyer and Jaffrey, 2017).

The authors considered the possibility that m^6^A-based regulation contributed to the translational control of ATF4. They first tested this model by knocking down ALKBH5, which indeed revealed an absence of translational induction of the ATF4 ORF upon starvation despite high levels of eIF2\alpha-\oplus. Consistently, inhibition of m^6^A mRNA methylases enhanced ATF4 translation upon starvation. Reporter assays demonstrated that blocking m^6^A modification within uORF2 increased translation from the main ORF, an effect that did not occur in the absence of starvation, suggesting that this mechanism of regulation is interdependent with the classical one based on eIF2\alpha-\oplus (Figure 1). The authors propose that m^6^A impedes scanning ribosomes, thus promoting translation initiation of uORF2 and decreasing the likelihood of re-initiation at the downstream and out-of-frame ATF4 start codon. Genome-wide m^6^A mapping in conjunction with QTI-seq identified cases in which starvation-induced decreased m^6^A near start codons correlated with decreased initiating ribosome occupancy. Interestingly, in these cases, decreased initiating ribosome occupancy was not linked to a
m6A stalling and eIF2α phosphorylation both contribute to ATF4 translation, the authors propose that the m6A modification promotes translation of uORF2, and that removal of m6A at uORF2 results in increased translation of the ATF4 ORF and uORF2, a model that is distinct from that proposed to explain regulation based on eIF2α phosphorylation. Exactly how the low TC-based model resulting in leaky scanning contributes to this model is an intriguing open question. Reconciling these models and determining the precise mechanism of starvation-induced translation initiation at the ATF4 ORF is clearly an important future direction.

Locally slowed ribosome scanning is an appealing model to explain suboptimal start codon usage and, as the authors propose, may be used to explain the translation initiation now known to occur at some—but not all—non-AUG codons (Brar, 2016). A similar model to the one proposed here, but based on mRNA structure rather than modification, has also been proposed to explain the translation initiation seen at sub-optimal start codons in multiple frames in repeat-associated non-ATG (RAN) translation, a phenomenon associated with several neurodegenerative diseases (Kearse et al., 2016). The general idea that cis-context within an mRNA molecule can determine its level and mechanism of translation is not a new one, but it is an area of study that has expanded rapidly in recent years (Brar, 2016).

New methods, including those that have enabled genome-wide mapping of m6A, have also resulted in identification of an array of other mRNA modifications, many of which were previously thought to be limited to noncoding RNAs, although in most cases, the roles for these modifications in mRNA remain mysterious (Gilbert et al., 2016). It is likely that further study will reveal that specific combinations of cis- and trans-control are broadly used to enable necessary specificity in translational regulation, akin to the types of regulation that are well established to provide specificity to transcription.

REFERENCES


