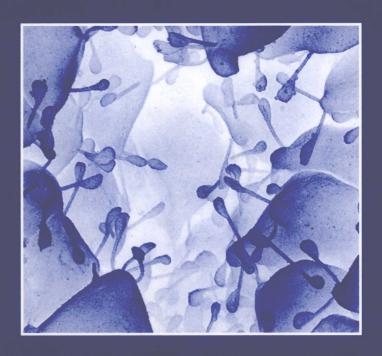
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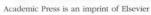
KWANG W. JEON

Department of Biochemistry University of Tennessee Knoxville, Tennessee





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CONTRIBUTORS

Frank P. Conte

Department of Zoology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon 97331

R. Dallai

Department of Evolutionary Biology, University of Siena, 53100 Siena, Italy

Shukry J. Habib

Interfaculty Institute for Biochemistry, University of Tübingen, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

Johannes M. Herrmann

Cell Biology, University of Kaiserslautern, 67663 Kaiserslautern, Germany

Markus Hildenbeutel

Cell Biology, University of Kaiserslautern, 67663 Kaiserslautern, Germany

Hironori Itoh

National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, Tsukuba 305-8602, Japan

Keith E. Latham

Fels Institute for Cancer Research and Molecular Biology, and Department of Biochemistry, Temple University School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA 19140

P. Lupetti

Department of Evolutionary Biology, University of Siena, 53100 Siena, Italy

Makoto Matsuoka

Bioscience and Biotechnology Center, Nagoya University, Nagoya 464-8601, Japan

C. Mencarelli

Department of Evolutionary Biology, University of Siena, 53100 Siena, Italy

Oded Meyuhas

Department of Biochemistry, Hebrew University-Hadassah Medical School, Jerusalem 91120, Israel

Namdori R. Mtango

Fels Institute for Cancer Research and Molecular Biology, Temple University School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA 19140

Santhi Potireddy

Department of Biochemistry, Temple University School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA 19140

Contributors viii

Doron Rapaport

Interfaculty Institute for Biochemistry, University of Tübingen, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

Juan A. Rosado

The Department of Physiology, University of Extremadura, Cáceres, Spain

Miyako Ueguchi-Tanaka

Bioscience and Biotechnology Center, Nagoya University, Nagoya 464-8601, Japan

Geoffrey E. Woodard

National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Bethesda, Maryland, 20892-1876

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PHYSIOLOGICAL ROLES OF RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S6: ONE OF ITS KIND

Oded Meyuhas*

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Abstract

The phosphorylation of ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6), which occurs in response to a wide variety of stimuli on five evolutionarily conserved serine residues, has attracted much attention since its discovery more than three decades ago. However, despite a large body of information on the respective kinases and the signal transduction pathways, the role of this phosphorylation remained obscure. It is only recent that targeting the genes encoding rpS6, the phosphorylatable serine residues or the respective kinases that the unique role of rpS6 and its posttranslational modification have started to be elucidated. This review focuses primarily on the critical role of rpS6 for mouse development, the

^{*} Department of Biochemistry, Hebrew University-Hadassah Medical School, Jerusalem 91120, Israel

pathways that transduce various signals into rpS6 phosphorylation, and the physiological functions of this modification. The mechanism(s) underlying the diverse effects of rpS6 phosphorylation on cellular and organismal physiology has yet to be determined. However, a model emerging from the currently available data suggests that rpS6 phosphorylation operates, at least partly, by counteracting positive signals simultaneously induced by rpS6 kinase, and thus might be involved in fine-tuning of the cellular response to these signals.

Key Words: Ribosomal protein S6, S6 kinase, RSK, mTOR, Protein synthesis, TOP mRNAs, Cell size, Cell proliferation, Glucose homeostasis. © 2008 Elsevier Inc.



1. Introduction

The higher eukaryotic ribosomes are composed of two subunits that are designated as 40S (small) and 60S (large) subunits. The mammalian 40S subunit is composed of a single RNA molecule, 18S ribosomal (r) RNA, and 33 proteins, whereas the 60S subunit has three RNA molecules: 5S, 5.8S, and 28S rRNAs, and 46 proteins (Wool *et al.*, 1996). Of all ribosomal proteins, it is ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6) that has attracted much attention, since it is the first, and was for many years the only one, that has been shown to undergo inducible phosphorylation.

The ribosome biogenesis takes place in the nucleolus and starts with the synthesis of 5S and 45S pre-rRNA by distinct RNA polymerases and requires the import of ribosomal proteins from the cytoplasm. A complex pathway that involves both endo- and exonucleolytic digestions enables the release of mature rRNAs from the pre-rRNA. Concomitantly, rRNAs are extensively modified and bound by the ribosomal proteins before the assembled pre-40S and pre-60S subunits are exported separately to the cytoplasm (Fromont-Racine et al., 2003; Zemp and Kutay, 2007). Highresolution cytological analysis has recently disclosed the fate of rpS6 from its biosynthesis site in the cytoplasm to the pre-40S subunit. Thus, rpS6 enters the nucleus of HeLa cells, reaches, via Cajal bodies, the nucleolus, where it is assembled with other proteins and rRNA into pre-40S subunit. The latter is then released to the nucleoplasm prior to its export through the nuclear pores to the cytoplasm (Cisterna et al., 2006). Interestingly, the nuclear import, as well as the nucleolar localization of human rpS6 and yeast rpS6A, rely on motifs, whose number, nature, and position are evolutionary conserved (Lipsius et al., 2005; Schmidt et al., 1995).

The phosphorylation of rpS6 has attracted much attention in numerous labs since its discovery in 1974 (Gressner and Wool, 1974b). However, it is only recently that the role of rpS6 and its posttranslational modification has started being disclosed by genetic targeting of the rpS6 gene and of the

respective kinases. Hence, this review includes a brief account on the evolutionary conservation of rpS6, as well as the enzymes that conduct, and the cues that affect its phosphorylation, and a comprehensive discussion on the critical role of rpS6 for mouse development, pathways that transduce various signals into rpS6 phosphorylation, and the physiological role of this modification.



2. GENERAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Evolutionary conservation of rpS6

rpS6 is an evolutionary conserved protein that spans 236–253 residues in species as remote as yeast, plants, invertebrates, and vertebrates (Fig. 1.1), yet no homology with any ribosomal protein in *E. coli* or archebacteria has

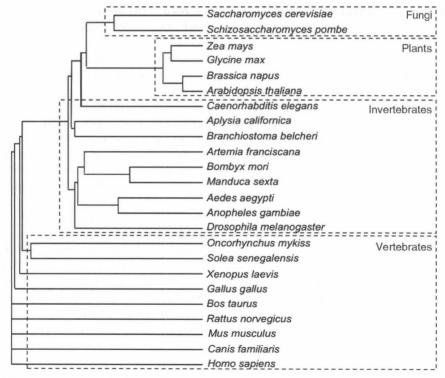


Figure 1.1 The phylogenetic tree of sequences of rpS6 orthologs in different eukaryotic species. Alignments and the tree were generated using the ClustalW program (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/clustalw/index.html).

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been detected (Wool et al., 1996). Interestingly, rpS6 with C-terminal extensions, ranging in length from 81 to 190 amino acids and enriched for lysine and alanine, is widespread among the Culicomorpha (an infraorder of Nematocera that includes mosquitoes and black flies) (Fallon and Li, 2007). The C-terminal extensions on rpS6 from the mosquitoes Aedes aegypti and Aedes albopictus are 42–49% homologous with histone H1 proteins from other multicellular organisms (Hernandez et al., 2003).

2.2. rpS6 is an indispensable ribosomal protein

The role of rpS6 was first addressed by conditional knockout of the respective gene in adult mouse liver (Volarevic *et al.*, 2000). Hepatocytes that lacked *rpS6* gene failed to synthesize the 40S ribosomal subunit and consequently to proliferate following partial hepatectomy. This failure to progress through the cell cycle correlated with a block in expression of cyclin E gene. Nonetheless, the expression of *rpS6* gene was not required for liver growth when starved mice were refed. Moreover, the relative engagement of liver ribosomes in translation, as exemplified by their polysomal association, was indistinguishable between rpS6-containing and -lacking hypertrophying livers (Volarevic *et al.*, 2000).

The critical role of rpS6 is not confined to the regenerating liver, as thymus-specific knockout of rpS6 gene, but not conditional deletion of one allele, had devastating effect on the gland development (Sulic et al., 2005). rpS6 heterozygosity (rpS6wt/del), however, had a remarkable effect on the number of mature T cells in peripheral lymphoid organs (spleen and lymph nodes). The deficiency of one rpS6 allele led to a proportional diminution in the abundance of rpS6 and ribosome contents in purified rpS6^{wt/del} T cells, yet with no effect on their total protein content or their ability to undergo normal stimulated cell growth (Sulic et al., 2005). Likewise, 30-50% reduction in rpS6 content of HeLa cells by siRNA only mildly affected global protein synthesis (Montgomery et al., 2006). Nevertheless, while wild-type T cells progressed in vitro through several divisions upon mitogenic stimulation, their rpS6wt/del counterparts failed to proliferate, as a result of a block at the G1/S checkpoint of the cell cycle, and partially due to increased apoptosis. Interestingly, deletion of both p53 alleles almost completely resumed the proliferative capacity of stimulated rpS6wt/del T cells. These observations strongly support the notion that impaired ribosome biogenesis. associated with rpS6 deficiency, activates a p53-dependent checkpoint to eliminate defective T cells (Sulic et al., 2005).

rpS6^{wt/del} embryos died during gastrulation at day 8.5. However, already at day 6.5, their cells failed to show dephosphorylation and activation of Cdk1 and to enter mitosis. Moreover, the embryonal death was preceded by induced apoptosis. The fact that p53 gene knockout enabled rpS6^{wt/del} embryo to develop past gastrulation stage, suggests that rpS6 heterozygosity

triggers a p53-mediated checkpoint during gastrulation. Interestingly, ribosome biogenesis is defective in $rpS6^{\rm wt/del}/P53^{-/-}$ embryo, as well as in the corresponding mouse embryo fibroblasts (MEFs). However, while neither cell cycle progression nor cell growth is impaired in $rpS6^{\rm wt/del}/P53^{-/-}$ MEFs, compromised cell proliferation was observed in the liver from $rpS6^{\rm wt/del}/P53^{-/-}$ embryo. This decreased in hepatic proliferation might be explained by the relative deficiency of cyclins D1 and D3, observed in this organ (Panic *et al.*, 2006).

Lesions in *Drosophila rpS6* gene expression, due to insertion of P element upstream of the transcription initiation site, had a mixed response: hyperplasia of lymphglands on the one hand and growth inhibition of most larval organs on the other hand (Stewart and Denell, 1993; Watson *et al.*, 1992).

The critical role of rpS6 is underscored by the fact that it is the only ribosomal protein, for which it has been shown, so far, that heterozygosity leads to early embryonal lethality (Panic et al., 2006). Thus, rpL24^{-/-} mice die before E9.5, yet the heterozygotes are viable, even though exhibiting dysmorphic feature and reduced somatic growth (Oliver et al., 2004). Similarly, rpS19 null mutation is lethal prior to implantation, whereas rpS19^{+/-} mice have normal growth and organ development (Matsson et al., 2004). Unlike rpS6, rpL29 seems to be a dispensable ribosomal protein, as mice with disruption of both rpL29 alleles suffer of global growth deficiency, yet they are viable (Kirn-Safran et al., 2007). Similarly, it has recently been shown that efficient depletion (2% residual activity) of rpL13a in human monocytic cells by short hairpin RNA had no significant effect on global protein synthesis, translational fidelity, or cell proliferation. These results suggest, therefore, that rpL13a is dispensable for canonical ribosome function (Chaudhuri et al., 2007).

3. Phosphorylation of rpS6

3.1. Stimuli inducing rpS6 phosphorylation

A pioneer study conducted by David Kabat has shown that a 33-kDa protein, termed F protein, which resided in the small ribosomal subunit undergoes phosphorylation in rabbit reticulocytes (Kabat, 1970). Later, it has been identified as rpS6, and that it is the only ribosomal protein that undergoes phosphorylation during rat liver regeneration (Gressner and Wool, 1974b). A flood of subsequent reports has demonstrated that rpS6 is subject to phosphorylation in response to numerous physiological, pathological, and pharmacological stimuli (see Table 1.1). Notably, this modification can be detected in both the cytosol and the nucleus (Pende et al., 2004).

 Table 1.1
 rpS6 is phosphorylated by multiple

Treatment	Organism/cell	Phosphorylation	References
(A) Mitogenic stimulat	ion		
(a) Liver regeneration	Rat	\uparrow	Gressner and Wool (1974b)
(b) Growth factors and			
(1) Serum, IGF	Chick embryo fibroblasts	\uparrow	Haselbacher et al., (1979)
(2) EGF	Mouse Swiss 3T3 cells	\uparrow	Thomas et al., (1982)
(3) NGF	Rat PC12 cells	1	Halegoua and Patrick (1980)
(4) PDGF	Mouse Swiss 3T3 cells	\uparrow	Nishimura and Deuel (1983)
(5) Interleukin 2	Mouse T lymphocytes	\uparrow	Evans and Farrar (1987)
(B) Hormones	1)		(1707)
(a) Insulin	Mouse 3T3-L1 cells	\uparrow	Smith <i>et al.</i> , (1979)
(b) Glucagon	Rat liver	\uparrow	Gressner and Wool (1976)
(c) Progesterone	Xenopus oocyte	\uparrow	Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , (1982)
(d) Estrogen	Rooster hepatocytes	\uparrow	Cochrane and Deeley (1984)
(e) PTTH	Tobacco hornworm	\uparrow	Song and Gilbert (1997)
(f) Juvenile hormone	Flesh-fly	\uparrow	Itoh <i>et al.</i> , (1987)
(C) Nutrients			
(a) Amino acids	Human HEK293 cells	\uparrow	Tang et al., (2001)
(b) Leucine	Rat L6 myoblasts	\uparrow	Kimball <i>et al.</i> , (1999)
(c) Glucose	Mouse MIN6 β -cells	\uparrow	Gleason et al., (2007)
(D) Lipid compounds	,		(
(a) Diacyl glycerol	Mouse T lymphocytes	1	Evans and Farrar (1987)
(b) Prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$	Mouse Swiss 3T3 cells	\uparrow	Thomas et al., (1982)
(E) Viral infection			(/
(a) Vaccinia virus	Human HeLa cells	\uparrow	Kaerlein and Horak (1976)

 Table 1.1 (continued)

Treatment	Organism/cell	Phosphorylation	References
(b) Pseudorabies	Hamster fibroblasts	\uparrow	Kennedy <i>et al.</i> , (1981)
(c) Polyoma virus	Hamster fibroblasts	\uparrow	Kennedy and Leader (1981)
(d) Simian virus	Hamster fibroblasts	\uparrow	Kennedy and Leader (1981)
(e) Avian sarcoma virus	Chick embryo fibroblasts	1	Decker (1981)
(f) AMLV	Mouse NIH 3T3 fibroblasts	1	Maller <i>et al.</i> , (1985)
(g) Alphavirus	Human HEK293	#	Montgomery et al., (2006)
(F) Stresses			
(a) Hypoxia	Human HEK293 cells	#	Arsham et al., (2003)
	Maize root tips	#	Williams et al., (2003)
(b) Heat shock	Drosophila	\	Glover (1982)
	Human HeLa cells	1	Kennedy et al., (1984)
	Tomato cell suspension	#	Scharf and Nover (1982)
(c) Hyperosmolarity	Mouse myeloma	#	Kruppa and Clemens (1984)
(G) Pharmacological a			
(a) Translation inhibite			
(1) Cycloheximide	Rat liver	\uparrow	Gressner and Wool (1974a)
(2) Puromycin	Rat liver	\uparrow	Gressner and Wool (1974a)
(b) Transcription inhib	oitors		
(1) d-Galactosamine	Rat liver	1	Gressner and Greiling (1977)
(2) DRB	Human HeLa cells	Î	Duncan and McConkey (1984)
(c) Energy depletion			
(1) 2-Deoxyglucose	Human HEK293		Inoki <i>et al.</i> , (2003)

Table 1.1 (continued)

Treatment	Organism/cell	Phosphorylation	References
(2) 5-Thioglucose	Mouse embryo fibroblasts	#	Hahn- Windgassen et al., (2005)
(d) Phorbol esters	Rat hepatoma cells	\uparrow	Trevillyan et al., (1984)

Notes: ↑, increase; ↓, decrease; AMLV, Abelson murine leukemia virus; DRB, dichlororibofuranozyl benzimidazole; EGF, epidermal growth factor; IGF, insulin-like growth factor; NGF, nerve growth factor; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; PTTH, prothoracicotropic hormone.

3.1.1. Evolutionary conservation of rpS6 phosphorylation sites

The phosphorylation sites in rpS6 in mammals and *Xenopus laevis* have been mapped to five clustered residues: S²³⁵, S²³⁶, S²⁴⁰, S²⁴⁴, and S²⁴⁷ (Bandi *et al.*, 1993; Krieg *et al.*, 1988; Wettenhall *et al.*, 1992), whose location at the carboxy terminus of higher eukaryotes is evolutionarily conserved (Table 1.2). It has been proposed that phosphorylation progresses in an ordered fashion, with Ser236 as the primary phosphorylation site (Flotow and Thomas, 1992; Wettenhall *et al.*, 1992). A similar organization of phosphorylation sites, relative to the carboxy terminus was described for *Drosophila melanogaster* rpS6 (Radimerski *et al.*, 2000 and Table 1.2).

Maize (Zea mays) rpS6 appears to be encoded by two genes and the resulting proteins are identical except for two amino acid substitutions. The relative location of the five phosphorylation sites is comparable with that of vertebrate rpS6, yet this set of sites is not confined to serines, as it include also a threonine residue (Williams et al., 2003 and Table 1.2).

The first report on the phosphorylation of rpS6 (S10 according to an older nomenclature) in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* lagged behind that of its mammalian counterpart (Hebert *et al.*, 1977). Yeast rpS6 is phosphorylated after transfer of a stationary culture to fresh nutrient medium, as well as at an early stage of germination, and as in other eukaryotes, the protein is dephosphorylated during heat shock (Jakubowicz, 1985; Szyszka and Gasior, 1984). However, yeast rpS6, unlike higher eukaryotes, bears only two phosphorylatable serine residues (Ser232 and Ser233) that correspond to Ser235 and Ser236 in the mammalian protein.

3.1.2. S6 kinase (S6K1 and S6K2)

Characterization of an S6 kinase at a molecular level was first achieved in *Xenopus* oocytes wherein the dominant form of S6 kinase detected after mitogenic stimulation had been purified as a 90-kDa polypeptide (Erikson and Maller, 1985), later termed as p90 ribosomal protein S6 kinase (RSK, also known as p90^{RSK}). Purification of the avian and mammalian major