The Same Arabidopsis Gene Encodes Both Cytosolic and Mitochondrial Alanyl-tRNA Synthetases

Hakim Mireau, Dominique Lancelin, and Ian D. Small

Station de Génétique et d'Amélioration des Plantes, Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique, Route de St.-Cyr, Versailles F-78026 Cedex, France

In plants, all aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases are nuclearly encoded, despite the fact that their activities are required in the three protein-synthesizing cell compartments (cytosol, mitochondria, and chloroplasts). To investigate targeting of these enzymes, we cloned cDNAs encoding alanyl-tRNA synthetase (AlaRS) and the corresponding nuclear gene, ALATS, from Arabidopsis by using degenerate polymerase chain reaction primers based on highly conserved regions shared between known AlaRSs from other organisms. Analysis of the transcription of the gene showed the presence of two potential translation initiation codons in some ALATS mRNAs. Translation from the upstream AUG would generate an N-terminal extension with features characteristic of mitochondrial targeting peptides. A polyclonal antibody raised against part of the Arabidopsis AlaRS revealed that the Arabidopsis cytosolic and mitochondrial AlaRSs are immunologically similar, suggesting that both isoforms are encoded by the ALATS gene. In vitro experiments confirmed that two polypeptides can be translated from ALATS transcripts, with most ribosomes initiating on the downstream AUG to give the shorter polypeptide corresponding in size to the cytosolic enzyme. The ability of the presequence encoded between the two initiation codons to direct polypeptides to mitochondria was demonstrated by expression of fusion proteins in tobacco protoplasts and in yeast. We conclude that the ALATS gene encodes both the cytosolic and the mitochondrial forms of AlaRS, depending on which of the two AUG codons is used to initiate translation.

INTRODUCTION

The translation of a nucleotide sequence into an amino acid sequence is essentially assured by tRNAs. These molecular adapters must be doubly specific, both for their corresponding codon(s) and for the amino acid with which they are charged. Although codon recognition simply rests on base pairing with the anticodon, amino acid specificity is assured by the 20 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases in a two-step reaction that involves the ATP-dependant activation of the amino acid followed by transfer of the activated amino acid to the 3' end of the tRNA (reviewed in Moras, 1992; Carter, 1993). The astonishing specificity of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases for their cognate tRNAs and amino acids contributes to the high fidelity of the translation process. The manner by which aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases distinguish between different tRNAs despite their conserved secondary and tertiary structure is an area of considerable research (McCraith, 1993; Saks et al., 1994). In most cases, tRNA recognition depends on only a small number of nucleotides (often in the anticodon or the acceptor stem). One of the most striking examples is the interaction between tRNA^{Ala} and alanyl-tRNA synthetase (AlaRS). AlaRS apparently primarily recognizes the conserved G_{34}U_{70} wobble base pair in the acceptor stem (Hou and Schimmel, 1988; Musier-Forsyth et al., 1991; Gabriel et al., 1996). It has been shown that mutation of U_{70} to C_{70} abolishes aminoacylation of tRNA^{Ala} by AlaRS in a wide range of organisms (Hou and Schimmel, 1989), including plants (Carneiro et al., 1994). The simplicity and high conservation of this motif make it an ideal model for studying aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase—tRNA interactions.

In plant cells, aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases are required in the three protein-synthesizing compartments (cytosol, mitochondria, and chloroplasts). Because none of these enzymes has been shown to be encoded by the plant organellar genomes, it is likely that they are nuclearly encoded and imported from the cytosol. In general, the organellar enzymes have different substrate specificities than their cytosolic counterparts and resemble bacterial enzymes. For example, the plastid AlaRS can be clearly differentiated from the cytosolic enzyme by its ability to aminoacylate bacterial and plastid tRNA^{Ala}, which are poor substrates for the cytosolic enzyme (Steinmetz and Well, 1986). The exceptions are the mitochondrial enzymes corresponding to imported tRNAs. In plant cells, at least one-third of the tRNAs involved in translation of mitochondrial mRNAs (including tRNA^{Ala}) are nuclearly encoded and imported from the cytosol (Dietrich et al., 1992). In the cases that have been investigated, the mitochondrial enzymes aminoacylating these tRNAs are indistinguishable from their cytosolic counterparts and are suspected of aiding in the import of tRNAs into mitochondria (Dietrich et al., 1992; Small et al., 1992).
We have shown that mutation of U70 to C70 in Arabidopsis tRNAAla abolishes both its aminoacylation (Carneiro et al., 1994) and its import into plant mitochondria in vivo (A. Dietrich, L. Marchal-Drouard, V. Carneiro, A. Cosset, I.D. Small, manuscript submitted). Similarly, the yeast tRNALYS(CUUj, which is imported into mitochondria, passes through the protein import pathway, and the process requires both the cytosolic lysyl-tRNA synthetase and the precursor for the mitochondrial lysyl-tRNA synthetase (Tarassov and Entelis, 1992; Tarassov et al., 1995a, 1995b). To investigate some of these processes in more detail, we decided to clone the nuclear gene encoding the mitochondrial AlaRS from Arabidopsis.

RESULTS

The Cloning of Arabidopsis cDNAs Encoding AlaRS

The strategy used to clone Arabidopsis AlaRS cDNAs was based on successive polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications that used degenerate primers deduced from regions highly conserved between the Escherichia coli (Putney et al., 1981) and silkworm (Chang and Dignam, 1990) AlaRSs. The substrate used was cDNA made from poly(A)+ RNA extracted from young Arabidopsis seedlings. The PCR procedure gave us a 196-bp probe that was used to screen an Arabidopsis cDNA library. Eventually, we obtained and sequenced 12 incomplete cDNA clones. Their sequences suggested that they were derived from the same Arabidopsis gene (all overlaps were 100% identical) and when combined gave us a 3147-bp cDNA. This cDNA sequence contained an open reading frame (ORF) that continued to the 5' terminus, suggesting that the reconstituted sequence was not full length. In fact, because the cDNA used to make the library was not tailed, it would have been virtually impossible to recover the 5' terminus from the library. There was an ATG codon close to the position expected for the initiation codon by comparison with AlaRS sequences from other organisms, which if used would give a polypeptide of 955 amino acids, as shown in Figure 1. The polypeptide potentially encoded by this ORF is slightly >50% identical to the cytosolic AlaRSs from silkworm (Chang and Dignam, 1990),

Figure 1. AlaRS Alignments.

A comparison of AlaRS amino acid sequences from Arabidopsis (Ath; EMBL accession number Z22673), baker's yeast (Sce; GenBank accession number U16872), humans (Hsa; GenBank accession number D32050), silkworm (Bmo; GenBank accession number M55993), and E. coli (Eco; GenBank accession number J01581, incorporating sequence corrections noted by Ribas de Pouplana et al. [1993]). The two possible initiator methionines (circled) correspond to polypeptides of 1003 and 955 amino acids, respectively. The regions used for designing the degenerate oligonucleotides used to amplify the Arabidopsis sequence are indicated by arrows. The three motifs that characterize AlaRS as a class II aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase are underlined with solid lines. Amino acids that are identical in four or more sequences are boxed.
yeast (Ripmaster et al., 1995), and humans (Shiba et al., 1995), but is only 41.7% identical to the *E. coli* AlaRS (Putney et al., 1981). In all cases, the similarity is higher in the N-terminal 400 to 500 amino acids that have been shown to contain the catalytic domain (Jasin et al., 1983; Buechter and Schimmel, 1993; Ribas de Pouplana et al., 1993). The high level of similarity assured us of the identity of the encoded enzyme as an AlaRS.

**A Single Gene Potentially Could Encode the Cytosolic and the Mitochondrial Enzymes**

We also attempted to clone the Arabidopsis genes encoding AlaRS. Because AlaRS is needed in the cytosol, plastids, and mitochondria, there are potentially three different nuclear genes encoding these three isozymes, and the biochemical data strongly suggest that at least the cytosolic and plastid enzymes are encoded by different genes (Steinmetz and Weil, 1986). However, tRNA\(^{\text{Ala}}\) is identical in the cytosolic and mitochondrial compartments of plant cells (Maréchal-Drouard et al., 1990), so AlaRS activity is likely to be similar or identical as well. Restriction map analysis of several of the genomic clones we obtained (Figure 2A and data not shown) showed that they came from the same region of the genome. This was confirmed by the DNA gel blot analysis in Figure 2B that resulted in, with the appropriate digestions, only one band of the expected size, using one of our cDNA clones as a probe. Under the hybridization and washing conditions used, we could not detect the gene encoding the chloroplast enzyme (probably ~40% identical to the amino acid sequence of the cytosolic enzyme), but we would have expected to detect two genes encoding the cytosolic and mitochondrial enzymes, respectively, if indeed the two isozymes were encoded by separate genes (assuming that their amino acid sequences were at least 90% identical). We concluded that the gene we had cloned had no other very close homolog in the Arabidopsis genome. We have named this gene ALATS, for alanyl–tRNA synthetase. Considering the similarity with the cytosolic silkworm, yeast, and human proteins, it probably encodes at least the cytosolic AlaRS.

If the ALATS gene encodes the mitochondrial enzyme, one would expect a mitochondrial targeting sequence to be encoded at the 5′ end of the gene. Because the reading frame in our cDNA was open for >30 amino acids upstream of the first ATG, we sequenced the corresponding genomic region, which is shown in Figure 3A. We found another in-frame ATG (henceforth referred to as the upstream ATG) that could be the initiation codon for the translation of an ORF of 1003 amino acids containing an N-terminal extension (Figure 1). This potential initiation codon is 144 nucleotides upstream of the other ATG (henceforth referred to as the downstream ATG) and is preceded by potential TATA (Mukumoto et al., 1993) and CAAT motifs, suggesting that it could be transcribed. The amino acid composition and the predicted secondary structure of the peptide encoded between the two in-frame ATGs show several characteristics of mitochondrial presequences. There is a complete absence of acidic residues and an enrichment in Arg, Leu, and Ser residues. The first 15 amino acids are predicted to form an amphiphilic α-helix, and there is a short domain between amino acids 25 to 30, with a very high hydrophobic moment for angles between successive residues (3) of ~75°, both features being frequently observed in a survey of 37 mitochondrial targeting peptides from different organisms (von Heijne et al., 1989).

**Transcription of the ALATS Gene**

To verify that both ATG codons were transcribed, we determined the 5′ termini of ALATS mRNAs (Figure 3). Preliminary indications were given by RNase protection experiments. We found complete protection of an antisense RNA probe extending from...
the Sall site to the Alul site just downstream of the upstream ATG, indicating that a major transcription initiation site is unlikely to be downstream of the Alul site (data not shown). A second RNase protection experiment done with an antisense probe extending between the two Acil sites bracketing the first ATG (Figure 3B) gave multiple protected fragments, suggesting that the 5' ends of ALATS mRNAs are heterogeneous. The estimated sizes of these protected fragments indicate three major populations of mRNAs beginning before the upstream ATG and another population where the 5' ends lie between the upstream ATG and the Alul site.

An independent and more precise determination of the 5' termini of ALATS mRNAs was made by using the single-strand ligation to single-strand cDNA (SLIC) technique (Dumas et al., 1991). As shown in Figure 3C, one major and several minor amplification products were obtained. The sequence of the major amplification product indicated a 5' terminus at position +17 with respect to the A residue of the upstream ATG (Figure 3A), but several other 5' termini were found that are distributed

Figure 3. Analysis of the 5' Extremities of ALATS mRNAs.

(A) Partial sequence of an ALATS genomic clone showing the two in-frame ATG codons (indicated in boldface) in the 5' region of the gene. The CAAT- and TATA-like motifs of the probable promoter region are underlined. The mRNA extremities found by RNase protection (B) and

PCR amplification of cDNA ends (C) are indicated by solid and open arrows, respectively. The size of the arrowheads represents approximately the frequency with which each 5' end was found with the two techniques (based on relative signal strengths for the RNase protection results and on 17 sequences for the PCR experiments). The oligonucleotides 5580, slic1, and slic2 used to identify the 5' mRNA extremities are indicated by arrows beneath the sequence. Homopurine and homopyrimidine sequences flanking the upstream ATG are boxed. The Acil sites delimiting the region used as an RNase protection probe in (B) are marked, as are the Apol and Sall sites used for many of the cloning experiments.

(B) Autoradiography of labeled antisense RNA probe fragments protected from RNase A digestion after hybridization to two independent preparations of Arabidopsis poly(A)+ RNA (A+) or yeast tRNA (Y). The products were run on an 8% polyacrylamide gel. The undigested probe is also shown (PROBE). Five micrograms of RNA was present in each sample, and RNase digestion was performed at 30°C for 30 min. Varying the quantity of RNA or the digestion conditions (from 15 min at 25°C to 30 min at 37°C) did not alter the banding pattern. At left are the estimated starting points of the different transcripts relative to the A residue of the first ATG codon, assuming that the RNA digestion products migrated 5 to 10% more slowly than did the labeled DNA fragments used as markers. Alul digest of pBluescript SK+ (M), with sizes in nucleotides (nt) indicated at right.

(C) PCR amplification of 5' ends of ALATS cDNAs. The first round of PCR used the upstream anchor primer and the 5580 oligonucleotide with Arabidopsis cDNA as template. One-fifth of the second-round PCR products were run on a 3% agarose gel and stained with ethidium bromide. Lane 1 contains no added template; lane 2, no reverse transcriptase added when the cDNA synthesis was done; lane 3, second-round PCR products obtained with the downstream anchor primer only; lane 4, second-round PCR products obtained with the downstream anchor primer and the ALATS-specific slic1 primer; lanes M, 1-kb DNA ladder (Life Technologies). The lengths of the marker fragments are indicated at right.
on both sides of the upstream ATG. The heterogeneity in apparent 5' termini is probably not due to the premature arrest of the reverse transcriptase, because reconstitution experiments under the same conditions using SLIC on in vitro transcripts of the cloned gene gave a single amplification product whose sequence showed the expected 5' terminus (data not shown). A second SLIC experiment using a primer overlapping the upstream ATG gave two major amplification products whose sequences indicated 5' termini at positions -23 and -40 with respect to the A residue of the upstream ATG (Figure 3A).

Although the RNase protection and SLIC experiments agreed very well as to the positions of the various 5' termini of the ALATS mRNAs, they disagreed as to their relative abundance. PCR-based methods favor the recovery of shorter fragments because they denature more easily and replicate faster. RNase protection tends to favor the detection of longer fragments because they hybridize better and contain more labeled UTP. Nevertheless, considering that the RNase protection pattern was unchanged by varying the quantity of RNA (data not shown), it seems likely that the probe was in sufficient excess to detect all ALATS mRNAs in the sample. In addition, the RNase protection pattern was unaltered by changing the digestion conditions (data not shown), suggesting that all the probe/mRNA hybrids were equally stable under the conditions employed in Figure 3B. For these reasons, the RNase protection results probably reflect the proportions of the different transcripts better than the nested SLIC procedure, which involved a total of 60 PCR cycles.

**AlaRS Enzymes in the Cytosol and in Mitochondria Are Immunologically Similar**

Rabbit polyclonal antibodies were raised against the C-terminal half of Arabidopsis AlaRS overexpressed in E. coli. This part of the polypeptide was chosen because it is less conserved than the N-terminal half and thus was more likely to generate specific antibodies. Figure 4A illustrates a protein gel blot analysis of Arabidopsis total and mitochondrial proteins by using this antibody preparation. There are similar immunoreactive polypeptides in both total and mitochondrial protein extracts that migrated with an apparent molecular mass of ~105 to 110 kD. The polypeptide in the mitochondrial preparation recognized by the AlaRS antibody is assumed to be inside the mitochondria because it was resistant to proteinase K treatment until the mitochondria were lysed with detergent. The identification and purity of the mitochondrial protein preparation were verified with appropriate controls (Figures 4B and 4C).

The molecular mass predicted from the amino acid sequence for the cytosolic enzyme is 105 kD, whereas that predicted for the presumed mitochondrial precursor is 110.5 kD; however, removal of the prosequence by the mitochondrial processing peptidase could give a polypeptide similar in size to the cytosolic enzyme. The result strengthened our belief that the ALATS gene encodes both the cytosolic and mitochondrial enzymes.

**A Choice between Initiation Codons Occurs during Translation**

Given the apparently high proportion of ALATS mRNAs that carry both potential initiation codons, we believed it necessary to verify which of these AUG codons was used preferentially in translation. The different AlaRS constructs diagrammed in Figure 5A were analyzed in an in vitro translation system. The 1WT2WT construct containing all of the elements present in the longest mRNAs, including all of the untranslated leader sequence and the two AUG codons, resulted in the synthesis of two polypeptides of >100 kD (Figures 5B and 5C). The smaller one, much more abundant than the other, comigrated with the polypeptide detected on protein gel blots of total Arabidopsis proteins (data not shown). Because this
The First AUG Codon Is Inefficiently Used When Present on ALATS Transcripts.

(A) Constructs used for the in vitro translation experiments. The 1WT2WT construct contains both 5' ATG codons, whereas 2WT contains only the downstream ATG codon. In 1WT2m, the downstream ATG codon has been mutated to ATC. The TntWT construct has the Tnt1 transposon untranslated leader sequence in front of the upstream ATG codon. Tnt2m is identical to TntWT, except that the downstream ATG codon has been altered to ATC.

(B) Autoradiogram of ^S-methionine-labeled in vitro translation products of the different constructs. One microgram of plasmid DNA was used for a coupled transcription/translation reaction. The molecular masses indicated at left show the migration of the corresponding protein size markers. The arrows at right indicate the products resulting from translation from the upstream ATG codon (1st ATG) or the downstream ATG codon (2nd ATG), respectively.

(C) Autoradiogram of ^S-methionine-labeled in vitro translation products of 1WT2WT and 2WT. An excess of RNA (10 μg) was used for the translation reaction. The molecular masses shown at left indicate the migration of the corresponding protein size markers. The arrows on the right indicate the products resulting from translation from the upstream ATG codon (1st ATG) or the downstream ATG codon (2nd ATG), respectively.

The AlaRS Presequence Can Direct β-Glucuronidase and Yeast CoxI into Mitochondria

To confirm the functional role of the putative AlaRS mitochondrial targeting sequence, we tested its ability to direct β-glucuronidase (GUS) into plant mitochondria. Figure 6A presents the different in-frame fusions between ALATS sequences and the GUS gene that were tested in transient expression experiments by electroporation of tobacco protoplasts. Total and mitochondrial GUS activities were measured in each case, and the relative specific activities showed whether a significant fraction of GUS enzymes had been directed to mitochondria, as shown in Figure 6B. The prep-GUS plasmid, encoding an ATP synthase β subunit–GUS fusion (leading to...
mitochondrial GUS activity; Chaumont et al., 1994), and the plasmid pBMCV102120 (Pouteau et al., 1991), expressing a Tnt1 polyprotein–GUS fusion (leading to cytosolic GUS activity), were used as controls. The AlaRS–GUS construct, containing the ALATS promoter and both ATG codons, gave results similar to those when pBMCV102120 was used, indicating that virtually all of the enzyme produced is cytosolic. The Tnt–AlaRS–GUS construct was optimized for the synthesis of the putative mitochondrial precursor by replacing the ALATS promoter and 5′ untranslated region with the Tnt1 promoter and leader and by altering the downstream ATG by mutagenesis. The results with this plasmid resembled those with preβ-GUS in that a significant level of activity was recovered in mitochondria. None of the plasmids gave rise to significant GUS activity in chloroplasts (data not shown).

A second functional test was done that relied on the previously demonstrated interchangeability of mitochondrial targeting sequences between plants and yeast (Schmitz and Lonsdale, 1989; Chaumont et al., 1990). We tested the ability of the AlaRS presequence to direct the CoxIV subunit of cytochrome c oxidase into yeast mitochondria in vivo. As shown in Figure 7A, different in-frame fusions were made between the 5′ end of the ALATS gene and a COXIV gene lacking the region coding for its own targeting sequence; the resulting plasmids were used to complement the yeast strain WSR containing a disrupted chromosomal COXIV gene. Figure 7B shows the complementation observed by restoration of the respiratory activity on medium containing glycerol as energy source. The presence of the Tnt1 leader was necessary to observe growth on glycerol, implying that the upstream ATG was used too inefficiently in its usual context to provide sufficient mitochondrial protein to complement. Mutation of the upstream ATG abolished the ability of the AlaRS–CoxIV fusion to complement the mutant strain, confirming that this ATG is the initiation codon used to make the mitochondrial protein.

**DISCUSSION**

Sequence comparisons showed that AlaRS is a relatively well conserved enzyme, at least in the catalytic core region, and this facilitated the cloning of the Arabidopsis gene via a strategy based on sequence similarity. This high level of similarity leaves little doubt that the identified gene encodes an AlaRS, and virtually all of the residues and sequence motifs identified as important for activity of the *E. coli* enzyme are conserved (Buechter and Schimmel, 1993; Filley and Hill, 1993; Ribas de Pouplana et al., 1993; Davis et al., 1994; Lu and Hill, 1994; Shi et al., 1994).

The aminocacyl–tRNA synthetases have been divided into two distinct classes based on common architectural elements shared by the catalytic domains of the enzymes of each group (Eriani et al., 1990). The AlaRS enzyme belongs to the group
of class II aminoacyl-–tRNA synthetases characterized by three highly degenerate sequence motifs—1, 2, and 3 (Figure 1). These motifs form part of the active site domain, which presents conserved secondary and tertiary structures consisting of seven or eight antiparallel β-strands and three α-helices. Study of the crystal structures of two other class II enzymes, yeast AspRS (Cavarelli et al., 1993, 1994) and Thermus thermophilus SerRS (Belrhali et al., 1994; Biou et al., 1994), has shown that motif 1 and the sequences immediately following it are involved in binding the tRNA acceptor stem, whereas motifs 2 and 3 are involved in ATP binding and catalysis. Originally, neither motif 1 nor 2 could be identified for E. coli AlaRS (Eriani et al., 1990), although a possible motif 2 was subsequently suggested (Cusack et al., 1991). Recent alignments of the Arabidopsis AlaRS sequence, along with other known AlaRSs, helped with identification of a potential motif 1 (Ribas de Pouplana et al., 1993) and realignment of motif 2 (Davis et al., 1994).

We have demonstrated that the Arabidopsis ALATS gene is a bifunctional gene coding for both cytosolic and mitochondrial AlaRS enzymes. In a similar fashion, the Arabidopsis glutathione reductase gene encodes both chloroplastic and mitochondrial isoforms as well as possibly a cytosolic isoform (Creissen et al., 1995). These genes belong to what is probably a fairly large class of genes encoding isozymes performing analogous functions in more than one cellular location (Danpure, 1995). Genes of this type that have been studied are usually characterized by the presence of more than one ATG codon in their 5' region, with the multiple enzyme destinations due to heterogenous N-terminal ends, depending on which of the AUG codons is used to initiate translation. Often, such genes have alternative transcription start sites, leading to the synthesis of two mRNAs that differ by the presence or absence of the upstream region coding for a mitochondrial presequence. For example, the genes coding for the yeast valyl–tRNA synthetase (Chatton et al., 1988) and histidyl–tRNA synthetase (Natsoulis et al., 1986) synthesize and probably Caenorhabditis elegans histidyl–tRNA synthetase (Amaar and Baillie, 1993) are expressed in this fashion.

A different type of regulation has been described for the yeast genes encoding isopentenyl pyrophosphatetRNA isopentenyltransferase (MOD5) and ATP(CTP):tRNA nucleotidyltransferase (CCA1) (Martin and Hopper, 1994) and the rat fumarase gene (Suzuki et al., 1992). In the case of MOD5, two transcripts are synthesized, and both contain two in-frame AUG codons in the 5' region. It has been demonstrated that alteration of the ALATS segment. The pYΔCOX-Tnt–1mAraRSp construct is identical to pYΔCOX-Tnt–AlaRSp, except that the AlaRS initiation codon has been altered from ATG to GCA.

(B) Restoration of respiration in the yeast strain WSR. Each of the constructs described in (A) was used to transform the strain WSR (containing a disrupted endogenous COXIV) and the transformed cells were streaked on glycerol medium. The numbers correspond to the constructs described in (A).
ing the nucleotides surrounding the upstream AUG to match the yeast consensus sequence or creating a longer mRNA ing the nucleotides surrounding the upstream AUG to match the yeast consensus sequence or creating a longer mRNA
expression at the second AUG (Slusher et al., 1991). The CCA1 gene and the rat fumarase genes also have heterogenous transcript start sites leading to mRNAs carrying two or three in-frame 5' AUG codons (Suzuki et al., 1992; Wolfe et al., 1994).

For both genes, the most active AUG in terms of translation initiation appears to be the downstream one, despite the presence of one or two upstream AUG codons. Thus, for MOD5, CCA1, and the rat fumarase gene, the choice of cytosolic or mitochondrial location is not made solely on the basis of the transcription start point but also presumably involves AUG selection by the ribosomes. For the products of MOD5, CCA1 (Martin and Hopper, 1994), and the yeast fumarase gene (Stein et al., 1994), targeting by their presequences is inefficient or incomplete. Uniquely, all yeast fumarase precursor molecules are cleaved by the mitochondrial processing peptidase, but 90% of the cleaved polypeptides are released back into the cytosol, with only 10% imported into the mitochondrial matrix (Stein et al., 1994).

Our results do not conclusively show which of these potential mechanisms is responsible for the partitioning of Arabidopsis AlaRS between the cytosolic and mitochondrial compartments. It is clear that translation from the upstream AUG codon can give rise to mitochondrial protein, but we cannot be sure that all the polypeptides translated from this AUG end up in mitochondria. Both the RNase protection and the SLIC experiments indicate that several 5' termini exist for ALATS transcripts, and this heterogeneity can explain at least in part the generation of two polypeptides. However, even in the SLIC experiments, more transcripts contain the upstream AUG initiation codon than would be expected if the most 5' AUG codon was always used to initiate translation and if translation from the upstream AUG only gave the mitochondrial protein. The RNase protection results suggest that more than half of the ALATS mRNAs contain the upstream AUG codon.

Our in vitro translation results showed that a single population of ALATS transcripts containing both potential initiation codons can give rise to two proteins in the expected relative amounts (<5% mitochondrial precursor and the rest destined for the cytosol). It is thus possible that the dual targeting of AlaRS in plant cells is achieved primarily via AUG selection by ribosomes. If the standard scanning model applied to the ALATS mRNA, the upstream AUG must be extraordinarily inefficient. The preference for the downstream AUG was observed in three different systems (rabbit reticulocyte lysate, yeast cells, and tobacco protoplasts), which could be due to cis elements in the mRNA itself. A close examination of the sequence suggests two reasons for this. First, as described for the AUGs that are bypassed on the MOD5 and CCA1 mRNAs, the upstream AUG is placed in a poor context (UGAUGAG) in comparison with the plant consensus sequence AC/CA/AU/GCC (Cavener and Stuart, 1991). The absence of the highly conserved purine at position –3 and the guanosine at +4 predicts it to be a weak initiation codon in eukaryotes (Kozak, 1986). The downstream AUG is in a better context with a purine at position –3 and cytosine at +5 (GUCAUGCC). Second, there are partially complementary homopurine and homopyrimidine sequences on either side of the first AUG (Figure 3), which could form a relatively stable secondary structure blocking access to the AUG. The substantially increased expression from the upstream AUG in the presence of the TntI leader (with adenine at –3) demonstrates clearly the inhibitory effect of the sequence that normally lies upstream of the first AUG, although it does not indicate which of the two suggested mechanisms is the most important.

METHODS

Except where stated otherwise, standard molecular biological techniques were performed using the protocols described by Ausubel et al. (1990). Full details of the procedures used and the construction of the various plasmids described are available on request. Oligonucleotides were synthesized with a 381A DNA synthesizer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) or bought from Eurogentec (Liège, Belgium), Oligo Express (Montreuil, France), or Genosys (Cambridge, UK). Sequencing was performed with fluorophore-labeled primers in a semi-automated sequencing system (model 370A, Applied Biosystems).

Poly(A)+ RNA Extraction and cDNA Preparation

Total RNA from Arabidopsis thaliana seedlings or inflorescences was isolated by the guanidine hydrochloride method (Logemann et al., 1987) and purified on a CsCl cushion. The poly(A)+ RNA fraction was recovered by using oligo(dT)-cellulose spin columns provided in an mRNA purification kit (Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden). For cDNA synthesis, 2 μg of poly(A)+ RNA was denatured at 65°C for 5 min and then placed on ice. The cDNA synthesis reaction was performed in 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 75 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 10 mM DTT, 0.5 mM deoxynucleotides and in the presence of five units of RNase inhibitor (Life Technologies, Cergy Pontoise, France) and 200 units of Superscript murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Life Technologies) for 2 hr at 42°C. Poly(A)+ RNA was then hydrolyzed with 0.3 N NaOH at 50°C for 15 min. The solution was neutralized with 0.3 N acetic acid, and the recovered cDNA was ethanol precipitated.

Cloning of AlaRS cDNAs and the AlaRS Gene

A 26-bp sequence specific to Arabidopsis cDNA was obtained by two successive polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications using four nested degenerate oligonucleotides deduced from four regions conserved between alanyl-tRNA synthetases (AlaRS) from Escherichia coli (Putney et al., 1981) and silkworm (Chang and Dignam, 1990). The first PCR reaction was performed on cDNA from in vitro-grown Arabidopsis seedlings by using the two outer primers: 5'-AAGCNG-GNATGAA-3' (where N is A or C or G or T) and 5'-GTNARNARY-TCCCA-3' (where R is A or G; Y is C or T) deduced from the highly conserved NAGMN and WELT regions of AlaRS (Figure 1). The PCR conditions were 30 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 45°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1 min.
for 30 sec plus 1 sec per cycle. The second PCR used 1 μL of the first PCR products as substrate. This amplification was performed with the two inner primers, 5'-GATCAAGCTTYTTGARATG-3' and 5'-GATCAAGCTTYTTGARATG-3', deduced from the two conserved regions FFEM and DFYK (Figure 1), respectively. The primers contained HindIII and BglII restriction sites (underlined) to facilitate the cloning of the PCR products. PCR conditions were five cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 37°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 20 sec followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 50°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 25 sec plus 1 sec per cycle. The 61-bp major amplification product was cloned, and its sequence was used to synthesize the oligonucleotide 5'-TCTACAAAGACGATCGAC-3' specific to the Arabidopsis cDNA, which was used with the first outer oligonucleotide (see above) to amplify a larger 198-bp fragment from the Arabidopsis AlaRS cDNA.

This fragment was cloned into pBluescript SK+ (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA), sequenced, and then transcribed in the presence of digoxigenin-UTP (Boehringer Mannheim France, Meylan, France). The probe obtained was used to screen 10^6 tgt10 clones from an Arabidopsis ecotype Columbia cDNA library (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) plated according to the manufacturer's instructions. Five independent, incomplete cDNA clones were obtained; their inserts were PCR amplified by using primers flanking the EcoRI cloning site and cloned into pBluescript SK+. Because none of them covered the entire cDNA sequence, the longest one, named H17 (Figure 2), was used as a probe to screen a genomic library (in EMBL-3 SP6/T7; Clontech). A dozen hybridizing genomic clones were purified and characterized by restriction digests. Subsequently, two overlapping clones were partially sequenced. The Ncol-XbaI and the XbaI-XbaI fragments of the clone hB2 (Figure 2A), containing the 5' end of the gene, were used to rescreen the cDNA library. Eventually, 12 recovered cDNA clones were sequenced, using single-stranded DNA prepared from subclones obtained from directed exonuclease III deletions.

Isolation of Total DNA and DNA Gel Blot Hybridization Analysis

Total DNA of greenhouse-grown plants of Arabidopsis was prepared by the method of Dellaporta et al. (1983) and further purified on CsCl gradients. For DNA gel blot analysis, 3 μg of total DNA was digested with appropriate restriction enzymes, run on a 0.7% agarose gel, and transferred to Hybond-N nylon membranes (Amersham International, Little Chalfont, UK). DNA probes were labeled with α-32P-UTP (Amersham) by T7 RNA polymerase transcription of the H17 cDNA clone.

Transcript Mapping

RNAse protection experiments were done according to Bordonaro et al. (1994), except that the RNA probes were purified on a 6% polyacrylamide gel before use. The probes were recovered by overnight diffusion at room temperature in 200 μL of 1.875 M ammonium acetate and 1% SDS. After precipitation, one-twentieth of the probe was filtered through four layers of Miracloth (Calbiochem, La Jolla, CA). The filtrate was centrifuged at 1500g for 10 min, and the pellet was discarded. The supernatant was rechromatographed at 3000g and then at 3500g (each spin 10 min), and the pellets were discarded. After several washes with ethanol, the probes were resuspended in 1 mL of resuspension buffer (0.4 M mannitol, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.5% BSA). The probes were then purified on a 6% polyacrylamide gel before use. The probes were recovered by overnight diffusion in a water bath at 40°C. The gel was washed with a buffer containing 75% formamide, 10 mM NaOH, and 1 mM EDTA, and air-dried before use.

Mitochondrial Purification

Approximately 20 g of Arabidopsis flowers, buds, and siliques were ground in a mortar with acid-washed sand and 5 mL of prechilled mitochondrial extraction buffer (0.4 M sucrose, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM EDTA, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.5% BSA). The volume was then raised to 500 mL with extraction buffer, and the homogenate was filtered through four layers of Miracloth (Calbiochem, La Jolla, CA). All of the subsequent steps were performed at 4°C. The filtrate was centrifuged at 1500g for 10 min, and the pellet was discarded. The supernatant was rechromatographed at 3000g and then at 3500g (each spin 10 min), and the pellets were discarded. The mitochondria in the supernatant were pelleted at 23000g for 20 min and resuspended with a brush in 1 mL of resuspension buffer (0.4 M mannitol, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 0.5% BSA). The organelles were finally layered on three-step Percoll (Pharmacia Biotech) gradients consisting of 4 mL of 50%, 5 mL of 25%, and 3.5 mL of 14% Percoll in 0.25 M sucrose, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, and spun at 17000g for 20 min. The mitochondria were collected from the 50%:25% interface, diluted approximately six times with resuspension buffer, and pelleted at 17000g for 20 min. For proteinase K treatment, the mitochondrial pellet was resuspended in 200 μL of resuspension buffer devoid of BSA. The protein concentration was determined according to Bradford (1976). Four hundred micrograms of proteins was subjected to proteinase K digestion for 15 min on ice in the presence or absence of 0.5% Triton X-100. Either in the presence or absence of detergent, the formate dehydrogenase used as a mitochondrial marker protein proved to be much more resistant than AlaRS to the protease, presumably because of its much smaller size (40 kD) and greater abundance (Colas des Francs-Small et al., 1993). In the experiments shown in Figure 4, the minimal amounts of proteinase K needed to give complete digestion of the test polypeptide in the presence of Triton X-100 were added to each sample (7.5 μg for AlaRS, 75 μg for formate dehydrogenase). The proteinase K was inhibited by the addition of 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), and for the samples treated without Triton X-100, mitochondria were resolated by pelleting through a 1.5-M sucrose cushion (0.25 M sucrose, 50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 1 mM PMSF) at 17000g for 10 min.

Antibodies and Protein Gel Blot Analysis

A 1259-bp SphI-HindIII fragment from the 3' end of the Arabidopsis AlaRS cDNA (positions 1858 to 3116 of the cDNA sequence) was cloned in-frame at the filled-in XhoI site of the vector pET-14b (Novagen, Madison, WI). The in-frame fusion was checked by sequencing the junction. The peptide was overexpressed in the strain BL21(DE3)pLysS, according to Novagen's instructions, and purified on Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen Inc., Chatsworth, CA). Approximately 1 mg of purified protein in incomplete Freund's adjuvant was injected subcutaneously into a New Zealand male rabbit, and three more similar injections were done in incomplete Freund's adjuvant at 2-week intervals. Blood was collected 7 days after the last injection.
Total Arabidopsis proteins were prepared according to Damerval et al. (1988). For protein gel blots, 5 μg of each protein sample was run on 5% SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to Hybond-C membranes (Amersham). A 1:4000 anti-AlaRS antiserum dilution gave a strong, specific signal at the expected size, whereas preimmune serum gave no significant signal under the same conditions. The monoclonal anti-α-tubulin antibody (clone MAS 077B; Sera-Lab, Crawley Down, UK; used at 1:300 dilution) was kindly given by Jan Traas (Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique, Versailles, France), to check for contamination of mitochondrial protein preparations with cytosolic polypeptides. The polyclonal anti-formate dehydrogenase antibody (used at 1:4000 dilution) was kindly given by Catherine Colas des Francs-Small (Institut de Biotechnologie des Plantes, Orsay, France).

In Vitro Transcription/Translation of AlaRS Constructs

The whole of the cytosolic AlaRS coding sequence was ligated into pBluescript SK+ behind 1 kb of ALATS promoter region comprising the HindIII-SalI fragment isolated from the lB2 genomic clone (Figure 2A) containing the upstream ATG. This construct was named P-AlaRS. To make a plasmid suitable for in vitro transcription, P-AlaRS was cut with Sall and religated to remove the AlaRS promoter and the upstream ATG. This brought the downstream ATG close to the T7 RNA polymerase promoter, forming the 2WT construct. To bring back the upstream ATG, an Apol-SstI fragment of P-AlaRS containing both ATGs was ligated to the Sall-BamHI fragment from the 2WT plasmid (containing the rest of the cDNA sequence) into pBluescript SK+ (cut with EcoRI and BamHI), resulting in the construct named 1WT2WT. To create the plasmid 1WT2m, the downstream ATG was mutated to the upstream ATG, an Apol-SstI fragment of P-tAlaRS containing both ATGs was mutated to the usual position of the GUS initiation codon. The fusion was performed by PCR (details available on request). The Tnt–AlaRS precursor–GUS fusion was made by ligating a HindIII-SalI fragment from the Tnt2m construct (see above) containing the Tnt1 leader and the AlaRS precursor into the AlaRS–GUS plasmid at the same sites. To bring this fusion under the control of the protoplast-inducible Tnt1 promoter, a HindIII-BclI fragment containing the Tnt1 leader, the AlaRS precursor, and the start of the GUS coding sequence was cloned into the pBMVC102120 vector (Pouet et al., 1991) at the same sites. All the constructs were finally checked by sequencing.

A plasmid expressing a fusion between the precursor of the β subunit of the mitochondrial ATP synthase and GUS and shown to direct GUS protein into plant mitochondria (Chaumont et al., 1994) was kindly provided by Marc Boutry (Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium) and used as a control.

Tobacco leaf protoplast preparation, protoplast electroporation, total protein extracts, and GUS activity measurements were done as previously described (Carneiro et al., 1993). Purification of tobacco protoplast mitochondria was principally done as described above for Arabidopsis mitochondria, except that extraction was done in 80 mL of extraction buffer and the Percoll gradients were spun in 2 mL tubes containing 450 μL of 50%, 700 μL of 25%, and 500 μL of 14% Percoll. Recovered mitochondria were resuspended in 50 μL of GUS buffer (Jefferson et al., 1987), and half (~9 μg of protein) was used to assay GUS activity. The pellet obtained from the first low-speed spin after breaking the cells was kept to provide the chloroplast-enriched fraction. The GUS activity values were corrected for pigment (which absorbed some of the fluorescence) and protein content to give specific activities that could be compared between different fractions.

Yeast Constructs and Yeast Transformation

A BamHI-HindIII fragment from pYCIX (Allison and Schatz, 1986), containing the precursor-less yeast COXIV gene under the control of the alcohol dehydrogenase promoter, was cloned into the vector pFL38 (URA3; Bonneau et al., 1991), which had been modified previously by filling in the EcoRI site (position 396). This construct was named pYCAOX and was a gift from François Budar (Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique, Versailles, France). The AlaRS precursor was amplified from the pWT2WT construct (see above) by PCR, using the T7 primer (Stratagene) and the oligonucleotide 5'-TGGTGAAAAATAAACAAGATTA-3'. The fusion product was then digested with Sspl and Xbal before the T7 primer (Stratagene) and the oligonucleotide 5'-AGC-TCTAGAGAAGCGAAGGAGA-3' bearing an XbaI site (underlined). The 250-bp PCR product was digested by Apol and XbaI restriction enzymes and inserted in pYΔCOX between the EcoRI and XbaI sites, creating the pYΔCOX–AlaRSp construct. The pYΔCOX–Tnt–AlaRSp construct, containing the Tnt1 leader in addition, was made similarly, except that the PCR used the TntWT plasmid as substrate, and the product was digested with Sspl and XbaI before ligation between the EcoRI (filled-in) and XbaI sites of pYΔCOX. To make pYΔCOX–Tnt–AlaRSp, in which the first ATG was changed to a GCA codon, a first PCR was performed on the WT2WT construct using the primer bearing the XbaI site (see above) and an oligonucleotide introducing the mutations (underlined) 5'-TGGGTGAAAGTTAAAGCCAAGGATTAGTGAAGGCA-3'. The AlaRS-β-glucuronidase (AlaRS–GUS) construct contains the ALATS promoter and both potential initiation codons fused to the GUS coding sequence. The downstream ALATS ATG is placed exactly at the usual position of the GUS initiation codon. The fusion was performed by PCR (details available on request). The Tnt–AlaRS precursor–GUS fusion was made by ligating a HindIII-Sali fragment from the Tnt2m construct (see above) containing the Tnt1 leader and the AlaRS precursor into the AlaRS–GUS plasmid at the same sites. To bring this fusion under the control of the protoplast-inducible Tnt1 promoter, a HindIII-BclI fragment containing the Tnt1 leader, the AlaRS precursor, and the start of the GUS coding sequence was cloned into the pBMVC102120 vector (Pouet et al., 1991) at the same sites. All the constructs were finally checked by sequencing.

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All constructs were used to transform the yeast strain WSR, in which the endogenous COXIV copy is disrupted by the LEU2 marker. Yeast transformation was performed using the protocol described by Schiest and Giesz (1989). Tests of complementation of respiratory deficiency were made on medium lacking sugars and containing 2% glycerol.

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