

An Insertion Peptide in Yeast Glycyl-tRNA Synthetase Facilitates both Productive Docking and Catalysis of Cognate tRNAs

Yi-Hua Wu,^a Chia-Pei Chang,^a Chin-I Chien,^a Yi-Kuan Tseng,^b Chien-Chia Wang^a

Department of Life Sciences, National Central University, Jungli, Taiwan^a; Graduate Institute of Statistics, National Central University, Jungli, Taiwan^b

The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* possesses two distinct glycyl-tRNA synthetase (GlyRS) genes: *GRS1* and *GRS2*. *GRS1* is dually functional, encoding both cytoplasmic and mitochondrial activities, while *GRS2* is dysfunctional and not required for growth. The protein products of these two genes, GlyRS1 and GlyRS2, are much alike but are distinguished by an insertion peptide of GlyRS1, which is absent from GlyRS2 and other eukaryotic homologues. We show that deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide modestly impaired the enzyme's catalytic efficiency *in vitro* (with a 2- to 3-fold increase in K_m and a 5- to 8-fold decrease in k_{cat}). Consistently, *GRS2* can be conveniently converted to a functional gene via codon optimization, and the insertion peptide is dispensable for protein stability and the rescue activity of *GRS1* at 30°C *in vivo*. A phylogenetic analysis further showed that *GRS1* and *GRS2* are paralogues that arose from a gene duplication event relatively recently, with *GRS1* being the predecessor. These results indicate that GlyRS2 is an active enzyme essentially resembling the insertion peptide-deleted form of GlyRS1. Our study suggests that the insertion peptide represents a novel auxiliary domain, which facilitates both productive docking and catalysis of cognate tRNAs.

Faithful decoding of mRNA depends on accurate aminoacylation of tRNA by aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) and a specific readout of the codons by tRNAs. aaRSs are a group of structurally diverse enzymes, each of which catalyzes the ligation of a specific amino acid to its cognate tRNA. The resultant aminoacyl-tRNA is then delivered to ribosomes for protein translation. Typically, a full complement of aaRSs consists of 20 different enzymes in prokaryotes, one for each amino acid (1–4). In contrast, eukaryotes, such as yeast, contain two distinct sets of aaRSs, one localized to the cytoplasm and the other to mitochondria. With the exception of yeast glutamyl-tRNA synthetase, which is distributed in both the cytoplasm and mitochondria (5), each set recognizes and aminoacylates cognate tRNAs within its respective cellular compartment and is sequestered from isoacceptors confined in other compartments. However, four *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genes, *ALAI* (which encodes alanyl-tRNA synthetase) (6, 7), *GRS1* (which encodes glycyl-tRNA synthetase [GlyRS]) (8), *HTS1* (which encodes histidyl-tRNA synthetase) (9), and *VASI* (which encodes valyl-tRNA synthetase) (10), specify both mitochondrial and cytoplasmic activities. This dually functional feature was found to be conserved in homologues of these genes in almost all yeast species studied (7, 11, 12).

Nearly all yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs possess an N- or C-terminal polypeptide extension (typically 80 to 200 amino acids long), known as an appended domain, which is absent from their prokaryotic counterparts (13). Many of these domains are rich in lysine residues and are involved in nonspecific tRNA binding, examples of which include glutamyl-tRNA (14), arginyl-tRNA (15), and valyl-tRNA (16) synthetases. These domains act *in cis* as an auxiliary tRNA-binding domain and enhance the tRNA-binding affinity of the enzymes (17). In contrast, appended domains of some yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs participate in specific protein-protein interactions, examples of which include glutamyl-, methionyl-, and seryl-tRNA synthetases. Glutamyl- and methionyl-tRNA synthetases form a ternary complex with Arc1p, a nonspecific tRNA-binding protein encoded by *ARCI*, through their N-terminal appended domains (18), while seryl-tRNA synthetase forms a binary complex with the peroxisome biogenesis-related factor, Pex21p, through its C-ter-

минаl appended domain (19). These interactions were also shown to enhance tRNA binding and aminoacylation activities of the associated enzymes. In addition, Arc1p acts as a cytosolic sorting platform to regulate the subcellular distributions of glutamyl- and methionyl-tRNA synthetases (20).

Based on the conserved sequence motifs, quaternary structure, and aminoacylation function, aaRSs can be divided into two classes of 10 enzymes each (21, 22). Class I enzymes possess two conserved signature sequences, HIGH and KMSKS, while class II enzymes contain three conserved motifs, motifs 1, 2, and 3. In addition, class I enzymes first couple amino acids to the 2'-OH of the terminal adenylate residue of tRNA before transferring it to the 3'-OH, while class II enzymes directly couple it to the 3'-OH. Normally, orthologous enzymes that couple the same amino acid to isoaccepting tRNAs share high sequence similarities in their catalytic core domains and are grouped into the same class (I or II), which indicates that they shared a common ancestor. However, there are two exceptions to this rule: lysyl-tRNA synthetase and GlyRS. In the case of lysyl-tRNA synthetase, both class I- and II-type enzymes were found (23), while in the case of GlyRS, two oligomeric forms were identified: an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer and an α_2 homodimer (24, 25). Despite both forms of GlyRS containing a class II-defining architecture, they dramatically differ in size and sequence (26). As a result, they are believed to have evolved from different origins (27). To date, $\alpha_2\beta_2$ -type enzymes have been found only in bacteria and chloroplasts, while α_2 -type enzymes have been recovered from all three domains of life.

The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* possesses two distinct nuclear GlyRS genes, *GRS1* and *GRS2*. *GRS1* encodes both cytoplas-

Received 28 January 2013 Returned for modification 2 April 2013

Accepted 26 June 2013

Published ahead of print 1 July 2013

Address correspondence to Chien-Chia Wang, dukewang@cc.ncu.edu.tw.

Copyright © 2013, American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

doi:10.1128/MCB.00122-13

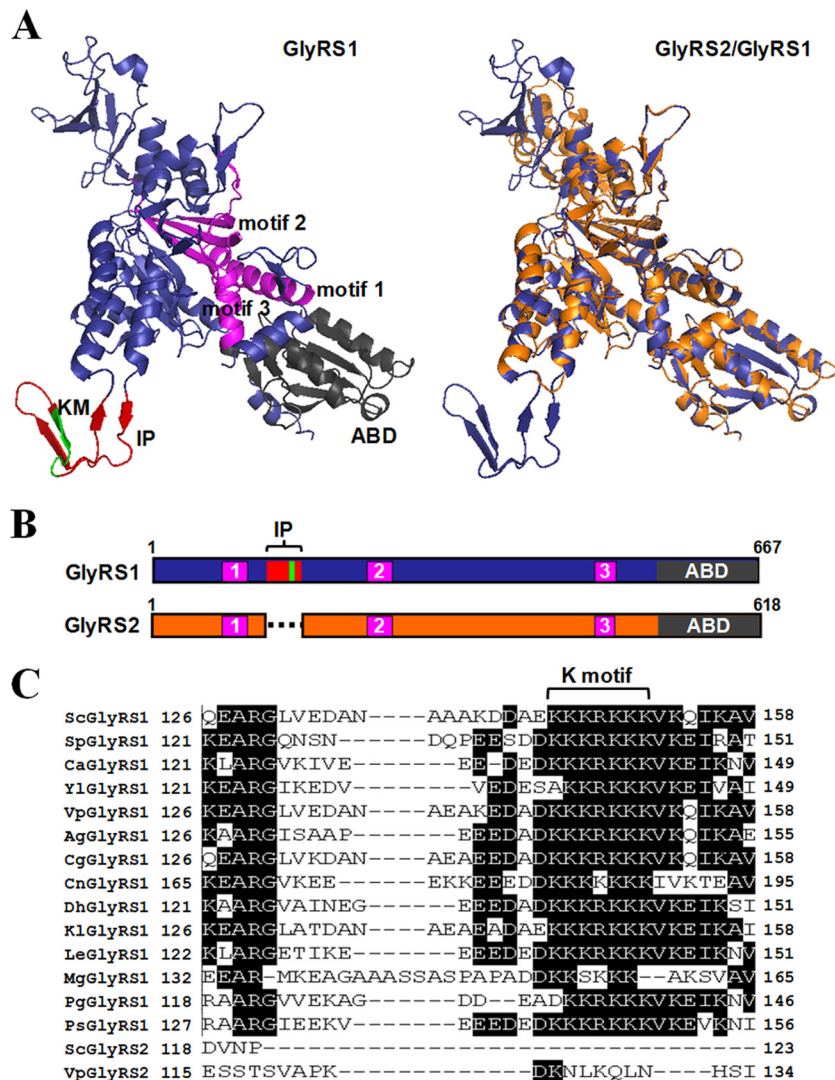


FIG 1 Insertion peptide of yeast GlyRS1. (A) Predicted three-dimensional structures of yeast GlyRS1 and GlyRS2. Left, GlyRS1; right, GlyRS2 (orange) superimposed onto GlyRS1 (blue). For distinction, the insertion peptide (IP), K motif (KM), anticodon-binding domain (ABD), and class II-defining motifs are highlighted in red, green, black, and magenta, respectively, in the GlyRS1 structure (left). (B) Relative positions of the functional domains of GlyRS1 and GlyRS2. The insertion peptide (IP) consists of the N-terminal amino acid residues 126 to 158. (C) Alignment of the insertion peptide of yeast GlyRS1s.

mic and mitochondrial forms of GlyRS through alternative initiation of translation (8, 28), while *GRS2* is defective in gene expression and dispensable for survival (29–31). GlyRS1 (encoded by *GRS1*) lacks an apparent N- or C-terminal appended domain but carries a lysine-rich insertion peptide, which is absent from GlyRS2 (encoded by *GRS2*) and other eukaryotic relatives (30). To provide further insights into the origin and function of this insertion peptide, various approaches were taken to characterize these two homologous genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmid construction. Cloning of the wild-type (WT) *GRS1* gene into pADH (a high-copy-number yeast shuttle vector with a constitutive *ADH* promoter, followed by multiple cloning sites and a short sequence coding for a His₆ tag) or pRS315 (a low-copy-number yeast shuttle vector) followed a previously described protocol (30). To delete the insertion peptide (amino acid residues 126 to 158) from GlyRS1, DNA sequences flanking the insertion peptide of *GRS1* were amplified by a PCR as two

fragments, an *EagI*-*SpeI* fragment (containing bp –75 to +375) and a *SpeI*-*Sall* fragment (containing bp +475 to +2001). These two fragments were sequentially cloned into pADH, yielding *GRS1*(Δ IP) (pWYH184). Deletion of the K motif (amino acid residues 145 to 151) followed a similar strategy. Cloning of *GRS1* mutants into pRS315 followed a similar protocol, except that the 5' end was at position –300 instead.

To enhance the protein expression of *GRS2*, a codon-optimized *GRS2* variant [here designated *GRS2*(CO)] was *in vitro* synthesized by Genscript USA (Piscataway, NJ) using a set of codons preferable for *S. cerevisiae*. To fuse the insertion peptide coding sequence of *GRS1* into the corresponding position in *GRS2*(CO), a *SpeI* site was first created in *GRS2*(CO) between bp +369 and +370, resulting in *GRS2*(CO)-*SpeI*. The DNA sequence encoding the insertion peptide (bp +376 to +474) was amplified by PCR as a *SpeI*-*SpeI* fragment and cloned into the *SpeI* site of *GRS2*(CO)-*SpeI*, resulting in *GRS2*(CO)(IP) (pWYH167). To mutate the K motif of *GRS1*, the insertion peptide (a PCR-amplified *SpeI*-*SpeI* fragment) was cloned into pBluescript II KS(+/-) (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA), and the resultant construct was used as the template for mutagenesis. Mutagenesis was carried out according to standard pro-

protocols provided by the manufacturer (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). After mutagenesis, the SpeI-SpeI fragment was retrieved from the plasmid and inserted into the SpeI site of *GRS1*(Δ IP), resulting in various *GRS1*(KMM) constructs. The K motif was mutated from KKKRKKK to SGGSGT, SEEEEET, and SAAAAAT in *GRS1*(KMM1), *GRS1*(KMM2), and *GRS1*(KMM3), respectively.

Complementation assays for cytoplasmic GlyRS activity. The yeast *GRS1* knockout strain, RJT3/II-1, was previously described (29). Complementation assays for cytoplasmic GlyRS activity were carried out by introducing a test plasmid carrying the gene of interest and a *LEU2* marker into RJT3/II-1, and the ability of the transformants to grow in the presence of 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA) medium was determined. Starting from a cell density of an A_{600} of 4.0, cell cultures were 5-fold serially diluted, and 10- μ l aliquots of each dilution were spotted onto the designated plates containing 5-FOA medium. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 3 to 5 days. The transformants evicted the maintenance plasmid with the *URA3* marker in the presence of 5-FOA medium and thus could not grow on the selection medium unless a functional cytoplasmic GlyRS was encoded by the test plasmid.

Complementation assays for mitochondrial GlyRS activity. RJT3/II-1 was cotransformed with a test plasmid (carrying a *LEU2* marker) and a second maintenance plasmid (carrying a *TRP1* marker) that expressed only the cytoplasmic form of GlyRS (due to a mutation in the initiator codon of the mitochondrial form). In the presence of 5-FOA medium, the first maintenance plasmid (carrying a *URA3* marker) was evicted from the cotransformants, while the second maintenance plasmid was retained. Thus, all cotransformants survived 5-FOA selection, due to the presence of the cytoplasmic GlyRS derived from the second maintenance plasmid. The mitochondrial phenotypes of the cotransformants were further tested on yeast extract-peptone-glycerol (YPG) plates at 30°C, with results documented on day 3 following plating. Because a yeast cell cannot survive on glycerol without functional mitochondria, the cotransformants did not grow on the YPG plates unless a functional mitochondrial GlyRS was generated from the test plasmid.

Aminoacylation assay. Aminoacylation reactions were carried out at 25°C in a buffer containing 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 50 mM KCl, 15 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM dithiothreitol, 10 mM ATP, 0.1 mg/ml bovine serum albumin (BSA), 100 μ M unfractionated yeast tRNA (Boehringer Mannheim, Germany), and 20 μ M glycine (2 μ M [³H]glycine; Moravek Biochemicals, Brea, CA) (31, 32). The specific activity of [³H]glycine used was 35.0 Ci/mmol. Determination of active protein concentrations by active-site titration followed a previously described protocol (33). Reactions were quenched by spotting 10- μ l aliquots of the reaction mixture onto Whatman filters (Maidstone, United Kingdom) soaked in 5% trichloroacetic acid and 1 mM glycine. Filters were washed three times for 15 min each in ice-cold 5% trichloroacetic acid before liquid scintillation counting. Data were obtained from three independent experiments and averaged. Error bars indicate ± 2 times the standard deviation.

Kinetic parameters for aminoacylation of tRNA by the purified enzymes were determined by directly fitting the data points to the Michaelis-Menten equation. Initial rates of aminoacylation were determined at 25°C with tRNA^{Gly} concentrations ranging from 1 to 20 μ M and enzyme concentrations ranging from 4 to 200 nM. tRNA used for the assay was unfractionated yeast tRNA or *in vitro*-transcribed yeast tRNA_n^{Gly}. K_m values of GlyRS variants for glycine were determined by an ATP-PP_i exchange assay (34).

Miscellaneous methods. Structure models of GlyRS1 (UniProt P38088) and GlyRS2 (UniProt Q06817) were taken from the Swiss-Model repository (35) and were prepared by superimposing to a crystal structure template of human GlyRS (PDB-ID 2zt5) (36) using the PyMOL program (37). The degradation assay and green fluorescence protein (GFP) assay followed previously described protocols (38). Western blotting used an anti-His₆ tag antibody and followed a protocol described earlier (12). Purification of His₆-tagged GlyRS enzymes was as previously described (39). Circular dichroism spectroscopy followed a protocol described earlier (40).

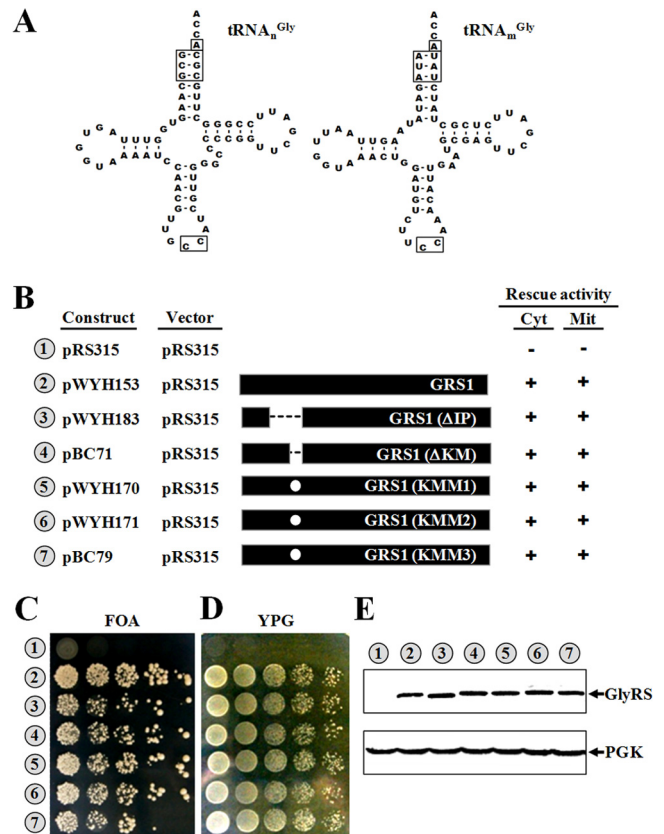


FIG 2 Functional assays of *GRS1* variants. (A) Comparison of yeast cytoplasmic and mitochondrial tRNA^{Gly} isoacceptors. Secondary structures of tRNAs^{Gly} are shown in cloverleaf form. Nucleotides and base pairs that were shown to be important for recognition by GlyRS are boxed. (B) Summary of the constructs and their rescue activities. Constructs bearing wild-type or mutant *GRS1* genes were transformed into a *grs1*⁻ strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and the ability of the transformants to grow on 5-FOA and YPG media was tested. The symbols + and - indicate positive and negative complementation, respectively. Mit, mitochondrial; Cyt, cytoplasmic. (C) Rescue of cytoplasmic GlyRS activity. (D) Rescue of mitochondrial GlyRS activity. (E) Western blotting. Top, GlyRS; bottom, phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) (as a loading control). Indicated at the bottom of the Western blots are the amounts of protein extracts loaded into the gels. Numbers 1 to 7 (circled) in panels C to E represent the constructs shown in panel B. GlyRS and PGK were probed with an anti-His₆ tag antibody and an anti-PGK antibody, respectively.

RESULTS

The insertion peptide folds into a discrete loop protruding from the main body of GlyRS1. Yeast GlyRS1 and GlyRS2 are both α_2 -type enzymes and share ~64% identity. Comparison of the predicted three-dimensional structures of these two proteins revealed that they are superimposable in most parts of their structures, with the exception of an insertion peptide of 33 amino acid residues (residues 126 to 158), which is present only in GlyRS1 (Fig. 1A). The catalytic domain, in particular the class II-defining motifs, is highly conserved in these two homologous enzymes (Fig. 1A and B) and in other α_2 -type GlyRS sequences (41). The insertion peptide protrudes from the main body of the protein as a discrete loop with two pairs of antiparallel β -pleated sheets interspersed with random coils (Fig. 1A). Sequence alignment among GlyRSs of various yeast species further showed that this peptide is conserved in all yeast GlyRS1 sequences (Fig. 1C) but

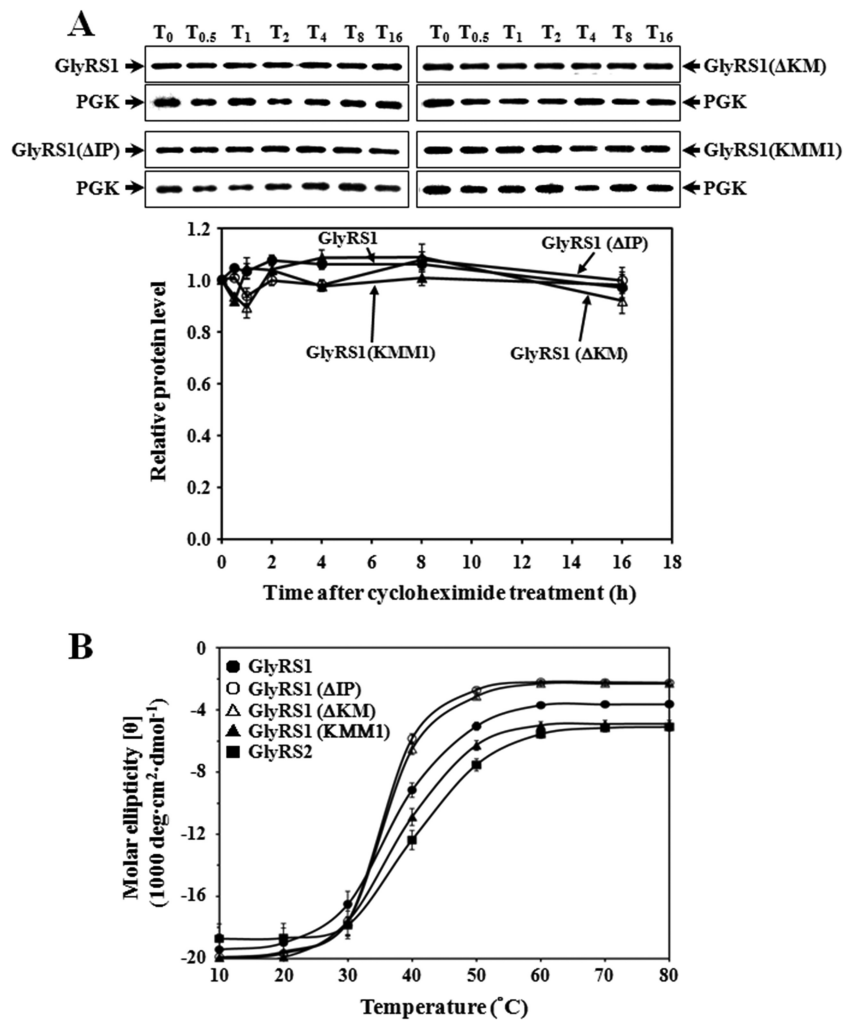


FIG 3 Degradation and stability assays for GlyRS1 variants. (A) Cycloheximide chase assay. Transformants harboring various *GRS1* constructs were grown in a raffinose-containing medium to a cell density of an A_{600} of ~ 1.0 and then induced with galactose for 2 h before the addition of cycloheximide. Cells were harvested at various time periods following treatment with cycloheximide and lysed. T₀, T_{0.5}, T₁, T₂, T₄, T₈, and T₁₆ denote 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, and 16 h postinduction, respectively. PGK served as a loading control for each assay. Quantitative data for relative levels of GlyRSs are shown in a separate diagram below the Western blots. (B) The melting curves of the WT and mutant GlyRS1 enzymes. The melting curves of GlyRS1 and its mutants were determined via circular dichroism spectroscopy at 222 nm. The final concentration of the proteins was 2.4 μ M. Spectra were recorded from 10°C to 80°C in a 1-mm-path-length cell on a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter using a scan speed of 50 nm per min, a time constant of 1 s, and a bandwidth of 1 nm. Three scans were accumulated and averaged for each protein tested.

absent from GlyRS2. This peptide is particularly enriched in lysine residues, which make up $\sim 25\%$ of its amino acid composition. Notably, a lysine-rich cluster, KKKRKKK (here designated the K motif), is strictly conserved in the insertion peptide of all yeast GlyRS1 sequences (Fig. 1C) and was predicted to be folded into a β -pleated sheet close to the apex of the loop (Fig. 1A).

The insertion peptide is dispensable for the rescue activity of *GRS1* *in vivo*. The identity elements of tRNA^{Gly} include the discriminator base (N73), the first 3 bp of the acceptor stem (1:72, 2:71, and 3:70), and C35 and C36 in the anticodon loop (3). Despite the fact that the yeast mitochondrion-encoded tRNA^{Gly}, tRNA_m^{Gly}, possesses an acceptor stem that appreciably diverges from that of its cytosolic counterpart, tRNA_n^{Gly} (nucleus-encoded tRNA^{Gly}) (Fig. 2A), GlyRS1 can efficiently recognize both tRNA^{Gly} isoacceptors (8). To investigate whether the insertion peptide or the K motif is essential for recognition of these isoaccepting

tRNAs, various deletions and mutations were introduced into the insertion peptide or the K motif therein, and the ability of the resultant constructs to rescue growth defects of a *grs1*⁻ strain of *S. cerevisiae* on 5-FOA and YPG media was assayed.

Figure 2 shows that deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide or the K motif had little effect on the enzyme's ability to restore the growth phenotypes of the knockout strain on both 5-FOA and YPG media, suggesting that the insertion peptide is dispensable for the enzyme's rescue activities *in vivo* [compare *GRS1*, *GRS1*(Δ IP), *GRS1*(Δ KM), *GRS1*(KMM1), *GRS1*(KMM2), and *GRS1*(KMM3) in Fig. 2B, C, and D]. *GRS1*(KMM1), *GRS1*(KMM2), and *GRS1*(KMM3) bear different mutations in the K motif. Western blotting using an anti-His₆ tag antibody showed that all of the *GRS1* constructs used were well expressed in cells (Fig. 2E), regardless of whether they contain mutations in the insertion peptide.

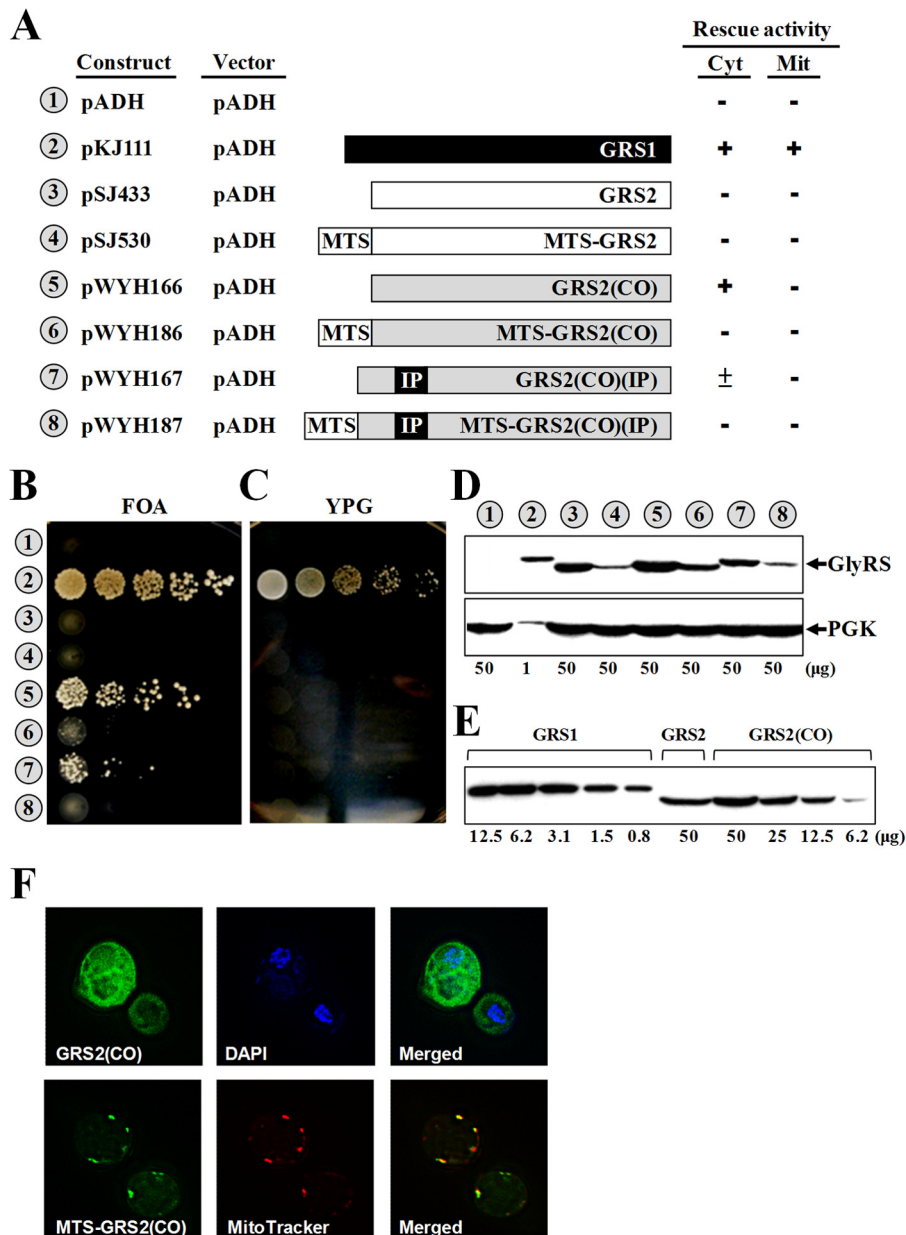


FIG 4 Functional assays of *GRS2* variants. Constructs bearing *GRS2* or its derivatives were transformed into a *grs1*⁻ strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and the ability of the transformants to grow on 5-FOA and YPG media was tested. (A) Summary of the constructs and their rescue activities. Mit, mitochondrial; Cyt, cytoplasmic; MTS, mitochondrial targeting signal; IP, insertion peptide; *GRS2(CO)*, a codon-optimized *GRS2*. (B) Rescue of cytoplasmic GlyRS activity. (C) Rescue of mitochondrial GlyRS activity. (D) Western blotting. Top, GlyRS; bottom, PGK (as a loading control). (E) Relative protein levels of GlyRS1, GlyRS2, and GlyRS2(CO). (F) Fluorescence microscopy. MitoTracker and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) were used to label mitochondria and nuclei, respectively. Indicated at the bottom of the Western blots are the amounts of protein extracts loaded into the gels. Numbers 1 to 8 (circled) in panels B to E represent constructs shown in panel A.

Deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide has little effect on the protein stability of GlyRS1 at 30°C. To test whether deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide impairs the protein stability of GlyRS1, a cycloheximide (CHX) chase assay was carried out. *GRS1*, *GRS1(ΔIP)*, *GRS1(ΔKM)*, and *GRS1(KMM1)* were cloned into pGAL1, a high-copy-number yeast shuttle vector with an inducible *GAL1* promoter and a short sequence coding for a His₆ tag. Constructs bearing these *GRS1* variants were transformed into INVSc1, and cultures of the transformants were induced with galactose for 2 h, followed by the addition of CHX to

terminate protein synthesis. Cells were harvested at various time points following CHX treatment and prepared for Western blot analyses using an anti-His₆ tag antibody. As shown in Fig. 3A, the WT enzyme was quite stable, and its protein level remained almost constant throughout the time period tested (up to 16 h). A similar scenario was observed for the mutants, suggesting that deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide did not perturb the overall folding or stability of GlyRS1. This outcome is not unexpected, considering the fact that this peptide protrudes from the main body of the protein as a discrete loop (Fig. 1A).

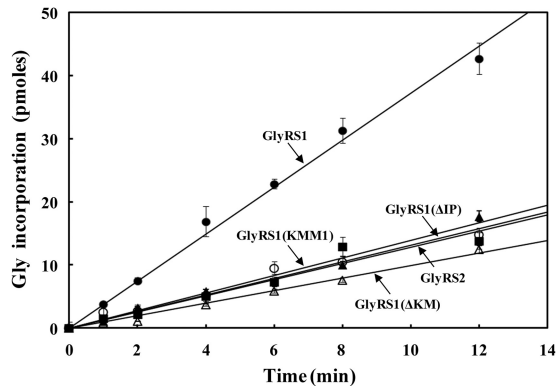


FIG 5 Aminoacylation assays for GlyRS variants. Aminoacylation activities of the purified recombinant GlyRS enzymes were determined *in vitro* by measuring relative amounts of [^3H]glycine that were incorporated into tRNA using a liquid scintillation counter. The final concentration of the enzymes used in the reaction mixtures was 20 nM.

To investigate whether the deletion or mutation affects the protein folding of GlyRS1 *in vitro*, the melting curves of GlyRS1 and its derivatives were determined via circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy at 222 nm. As shown in Fig. 3B, all GlyRS1 variants tested possessed a molar ellipticity (θ) similar to that of the WT enzyme at 30°C or a lower temperature. At 30°C, the GlyRS1 protein contained $\sim 35\%$ α -helix and $\sim 18\%$ β -sheet as estimated by the K2D3 software (42). Thus, the deletion or mutation did not significantly alter the conformation of GlyRS1 at 30°C, which is largely consistent with the finding of the cycloheximide chase assay shown in Fig. 3A. However, the deletion mutants GlyRS1(Δ IP) and GlyRS1(Δ KM) appeared to have a melting temperature slightly lower than that of the WT enzyme. The melting curves of these two enzymes slightly shifted to the left ($\sim 5^\circ\text{C}$) relative to that of their WT counterpart. As for GlyRS2, it had a melting temperature $\sim 5^\circ\text{C}$ higher than that of GlyRS1. This result suggests that deletion of the insertion peptide did not alter the enzyme's conformation at a temperature below 30°C but did impair its stability at a higher temperature.

GRS2 can be converted into a functional gene via codon optimization. Since the main difference between GlyRS1 and GlyRS2 is the insertion peptide, we then asked whether *GRS2* can be converted to a functional gene by fusing the insertion peptide coding sequence of *GRS1* at its matching position. Given that the native *GRS2* gene is very poor at both transcription and translation (30, 31), a constitutive *ADH* promoter and a codon-optimized *GRS2* variant [here designated *GRS2(CO)*] were used instead to improve the expression efficiency. For this purpose, *GRS2(CO)* was first *in vitro* synthesized using a set of codons preferable for *S. cerevisiae* and then cloned into pADH. Unexpectedly, *GRS2(CO)* *per se* rescued the growth defect of the *GRS1* knockout strain on 5-FOA medium with an appreciably high efficiency. On the other hand, fusion of the insertion peptide coding sequence to *GRS2(CO)*, resulting in *GRS2(CO)(IP)*, did not further enhance its efficiency (compare pWYH166 and pWYH167 in Fig. 4). As a matter of fact, *GRS2(CO)(IP)* could barely support the growth of the strain with the null allele on 5-FOA medium. Perhaps, fusion of the insertion peptide somehow destabilizes the protein structure of GlyRS2. In addition, fusion of a sequence encoding a mitochondrion-targeted signal (MTS) 5' to

GRS2(CO) or *GRS2(CO)(IP)* failed to confer positive mitochondrial activity to either of the two constructs on YPG medium (see pWYH186 and pWYH187 in Fig. 4). To provide direct evidence that the MTS used actually guided GlyRS2(*CO*) to mitochondria, cellular distributions of two GFP fusion constructs, *GRS2(CO)-GFP* and *MTS-GRS2(CO)-GFP*, were analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. MitoTracker and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) were used to label mitochondria and nuclei, respectively. Figure 4F shows that MTS-GlyRS2(*CO*) was indeed localized in mitochondria, while GlyRS2(*CO*) was restricted in the cytoplasm.

Western blotting using an anti-His₆ tag antibody showed that all of the *GRS2* constructs used were properly expressed in the knockout strain, but their expression levels were much lower than that of *GRS1* (Fig. 4D). To get more quantitative data, protein extracts of *GRS1* and *GRS2(CO)* were 2-fold serially diluted before being loaded into the gel. As shown in Fig. 4E, *GRS2* had a protein expression level ~ 25 -fold lower than that of *GRS1* under the conditions used (compare *GRS1* and *GRS2*). However, the protein expression level of *GRS2* was modestly enhanced (by ~ 3 -fold) by codon optimization [compare *GRS2* and *GRS2(CO)*], which might account for the positive rescue activity of *GRS2(CO)* on 5-FOA medium. As suspected, fusion of the insertion peptide coding sequence to *GRS2(CO)* slightly reduced its protein expression level [compare *GRS2(CO)* and *GRS2(CO)(IP)* in Fig. 4D]. Taking into account the fact that *GRS2(CO)(IP)* had a protein expression level almost equivalent to that of *GRS2*, it is possible that insertion of the peptide to GlyRS2 somehow reduces its protein stability but enhances its aminoacylation activity (Fig. 4B).

The insertion peptide facilitates both productive tRNA binding and catalysis *in vitro*. To examine whether the insertion peptide contributes to the enzymatic activity of GlyRS1, aminoacylation activities of the WT and mutant GlyRS1 enzymes were assayed *in vitro*. To this end, the WT and mutant *GRS1* genes were cloned in pADH and then transformed into a yeast strain, INVSc1. Recombinant His₆-tagged GlyRS enzymes were purified from the transformants to homogeneity using nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid (Ni-NTA) column chromatography. As shown in Fig. 5, deletion of the insertion peptide appreciably reduced the enzyme's aminoacylation activity (by ~ 3 -fold) [compare GlyRS1 and GlyRS1(Δ IP)]. Moreover, deletion or mutation of the K motif had a similar effect on aminoacylation (with a 3- to 4-fold decrease) [see GlyRS1(Δ KM) and GlyRS1(KMM1)], suggesting that the effect of the insertion peptide on aminoacylation is probably mediated through the positively charged K motif. On the other hand, the deletion or mutation had no significant effect on the K_m values of the GlyRS1 variants for glycine ($\sim 135 \mu\text{M}$) as determined by the ATP-PP_i exchange assay shown in Table 1, suggesting that

TABLE 1 K_m values of GlyRS variants for Gly determined by the ATP-PP_i exchange

GlyRS variant	Gly K_m (μM)
GlyRS1	135
GlyRS1(Δ IP)	145
GlyRS1(Δ KM)	140
GlyRS1(KMM1)	130
GlyRS2	145

TABLE 2 Kinetic parameters for aminoacylation of yeast tRNA^{Gly} by GlyRS variants

GlyRS variant	Unfractionated yeast tRNA			<i>In vitro</i> -transcribed yeast tRNA _n ^{Gly}		
	K_m (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_m ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)	K_m (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_m ($\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)
GlyRS1	0.33 \pm 0.03	0.38 \pm 0.15	11.4 $\times 10^5$	0.28 \pm 0.03	0.33 \pm 0.03	12.3 $\times 10^5$
GlyRS1(Δ IP)	0.89 \pm 0.39	0.08 \pm 0.01	1.0 $\times 10^5$	1.37 \pm 0.23	0.19 \pm 0.02	1.4 $\times 10^5$
GlyRS1(Δ KM)	0.91 \pm 0.45	0.05 \pm 0.02	0.5 $\times 10^5$	ND ^a	ND	ND
GlyRS1(KMM1)	0.65 \pm 0.13	0.08 \pm 0.03	1.2 $\times 10^5$	ND	ND	ND
GlyRS2	0.53 \pm 0.08	0.10 \pm 0.02	1.8 $\times 10^5$	0.73 \pm 0.27	0.15 \pm 0.03	2.2 $\times 10^5$

^a ND, not determined.

the insertion peptide contributes to tRNA binding or catalysis rather than cognate amino acid binding. In addition, GlyRS2 had a K_m value for glycine ($\sim 145 \mu\text{M}$) very close to that of GlyRS1.

To gain further insights into the effect of the insertion peptide on aminoacylation, kinetic parameters for aminoacylation of tRNA^{Gly} by GlyRS enzymes were subsequently determined using unfractionated yeast tRNA as the substrate. As shown in Table 2, the WT GlyRS1 enzyme had a K_m value of 0.33 μM for tRNA^{Gly} and a k_{cat} value of 0.38 s^{-1} . In contrast, the mutant enzymes, including GlyRS1(Δ IP), GlyRS1(Δ KM), and GlyRS1(KMM1), had K_m values for tRNA^{Gly} ranging from 0.65 to 0.91 μM and k_{cat} values ranging from 0.05 to 0.08 s^{-1} . Thus, deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide or the K motif increased the enzyme's K_m value for tRNA^{Gly} by 2- to 3-fold and decreased the enzyme's k_{cat} value by 5- to 8-fold. Overall, the catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) of the glycine enzyme was reduced by 10- to 24-fold upon deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide or the K motif. It is also noted that GlyRS2, which inherently lacks the insertion peptide, possessed kinetic parameters comparable to those of GlyRS1(Δ IP). These data suggest that the insertion peptide, while dispensable for rescue activity and protein stability, plays a significant role in both tRNA binding and catalysis, and this effect on aminoacylation appears to be mediated through the K motif.

To eliminate the effect of competition by noncognate tRNAs, we next used *in vitro*-transcribed tRNA_n^{Gly} as the substrate for determination of the kinetic parameters. As shown in Table 2, deletion of the insertion peptide increased the enzyme's K_m value for tRNA_n^{Gly} by 5-fold and decreased the enzyme's k_{cat} value by 2-fold. Overall, the catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) of the glycine enzyme was reduced by ~ 9 -fold upon deletion of the insertion peptide. These data reinforce the hypothesis that the insertion peptide plays an important role in both tRNA binding and catalysis.

GRS1 and GRS2 arose from a gene duplication event. As GRS2 of *S. cerevisiae* appreciably diverged from its GRS1 counterpart, we analyzed the possible historical relationships between GRS2 and its yeast homologues using the neighbor-joining (NJ) method (43). To get a more-complete picture, representative α_2 -dimeric GlyRS sequences from all three of the major branches of life (*Bacteria*, *Archaea*, and *Eukarya*) were retrieved from databases. Bias in the alignments of these sequences was minimized by taking away all major extensions and insertions. Thus, the portion used for analysis comprised only the core active site and the anticodon-binding domain, which accounts for $\sim 64\%$ of the sequence of GlyRS2.

As shown in Fig. 6, all eukaryotic GlyRSs were clustered within a monophyletic branch. In contrast, the archaeal and bacterial sequences were clustered into two paraphyletic branches, with the

archaeal branch having higher affinity with the eukaryotic branch. This result argues that all prevailing eukaryotic α_2 -dimeric GlyRS genes originated from a eukaryotic source. Thus, yeast GRS1 and GRS2 are paralogues that arose from a gene duplication event relatively recently. Since the lysine-rich insertion peptide exists only in yeast GlyRS1, it appears that this insert was added to the enzyme after the yeast branch separated from other eukaryotic branches. Moreover, it is likely that GlyRS2 once possessed this insert, but the insert was later deleted during evolution.

DISCUSSION

The *Thermus thermophilus* GlyRS enzyme possesses an insertion peptide located at a position analogous to that of the insertion peptide of yeast GlyRS1. This peptide was predicted to interact with the acceptor arm of its cognate tRNA (44). Consistent with this hypothesis, deletion or mutation of the insertion peptide of yeast GlyRS1 impairs its apparent affinity for tRNA^{Gly} and catalytic rate (Table 2). Moreover, this effect of the insertion peptide on aminoacylation appears to be mediated through its K motif. However, even with such a low catalytic efficiency (5% relative to that of the WT GlyRS1 enzyme), these mutants effectively rescued growth defects of the knockout strain on both 5-FOA and YPG media (Fig. 2). A similar scenario was previously observed in yeast *ALA1* (6, 12), *GLN4* (16), and *VAS1* (11, 45) genes, indicative of a common feature of the ability to rescue a knockout strain with a considerably low level of aaRS activity. It is noteworthy that the fragment containing the amino acid residues 122 to 165 of GlyRS1 was previously considered to be the insertion peptide solely on the basis of sequence alignment, but deletion of such a peptide considerably destabilizes the protein structure of GlyRS1 (30). In contrast, the insertion peptide described here was predicted on the basis of structure, and deletion of such a peptide had little effect on protein stability at 30°C. It thus appears that the insertion peptide specified here is more representative of its location and size.

With the exception of two yeast species, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora*, which contain a second GlyRS homologue (GRS2), all other yeast species studied thus far possess a single, dually functional GRS1 homologue (31). GRS2 is poor at both transcription and translation, and thus, it cannot substitute for GRS1 even under the control of a constitutive *ADH1* promoter (29, 30). As a result, this redundant gene was once thought to be an evolutionary relic. Despite that, a recent report argued that expression of GRS2 can be drastically induced by various stresses such as heat, alkali, hydrogen peroxide, and ethanol, suggesting that it may have a purpose under certain special conditions (31). Evidence supporting this hypothesis came from the discovery that the purified recombinant GlyRS2 enzyme is fairly active *in vitro* (30) (Fig. 5; Table 2). In addition, GRS2 can be

- cerevisiae* imports the cytosolic pathway for Gln-tRNA synthesis into the mitochondrion. *Genes Dev.* 19:583–592.
6. Tang HL, Yeh LS, Chen NK, Ripmaster T, Schimmel P, Wang CC. 2004. Translation of a yeast mitochondrial tRNA synthetase initiated at redundant non-AUG codons. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279:49656–49663.
 7. Huang HY, Tang HL, Chao HY, Yeh LS, Wang CC. 2006. An unusual pattern of protein expression and localization of yeast alanyl-tRNA synthetase isoforms. *Mol. Microbiol.* 60:189–198.
 8. Chang KJ, Wang CC. 2004. Translation initiation from a naturally occurring non-AUG codon in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279:13778–13785.
 9. Natsoulis G, Hilger F, Fink GR. 1986. The *HTS1* gene encodes both the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial histidine tRNA synthetases of *S. cerevisiae*. *Cell* 46:235–243.
 10. Chatton B, Walter P, Ebel JP, Lacroute F, Fasiolo F. 1988. The yeast *VAS1* gene encodes both mitochondrial and cytoplasmic valyl-tRNA synthetases. *J. Biol. Chem.* 263:52–57.
 11. Chiu WC, Chang CP, Wen WL, Wang SW, Wang CC. 2010. *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* possesses two paralogous valyl-tRNA synthetase genes of mitochondrial origin. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 27:1415–1424.
 12. Chang CP, Tseng YK, Ko CY, Wang CC. 2012. Alanyl-tRNA synthetase genes of *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora* arose from duplication of a dual-functional predecessor of mitochondrial origin. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 40:314–322.
 13. Mirande M. 2010. Processivity of translation in the eukaryote cell: role of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. *FEBS Lett.* 584:443–447.
 14. Wang CC, Schimmel P. 1999. Species barrier to RNA recognition overcome with nonspecific RNA binding domains. *J. Biol. Chem.* 274:16508–16512.
 15. Frugier M, Moulinier L, Giege R. 2000. A domain in the N-terminal extension of class IIb eukaryotic aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases is important for tRNA binding. *EMBO J.* 19:2371–2380.
 16. Chang CP, Lin G, Chen SJ, Chiu WC, Chen WH, Wang CC. 2008. Promoting the formation of an active synthetase/tRNA complex by a non-specific tRNA-binding domain. *J. Biol. Chem.* 283:30699–30706.
 17. Grant TD, Snell EH, Luft JR, Quartley E, Corretore S, Wolfley JR, Snell ME, Hadd A, Perona JJ, Phizicky EM, Grayhack EJ. 2012. Structural conservation of an ancient tRNA sensor in eukaryotic glutamyl-tRNA synthetase. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 40:3723–3731.
 18. Simos G, Segref A, Fasiolo F, Hellmuth K, Shevchenko A, Mann M, Hurt EC. 1996. The yeast protein Arc1p binds to tRNA and functions as a cofactor for the methionyl- and glutamyl-tRNA synthetases. *EMBO J.* 15:5437–5448.
 19. Godinic V, Mocibob M, Rocak S, Ibba M, Weygand-Durasevic I. 2007. Peroxin Pex21p interacts with the C-terminal noncatalytic domain of yeast seryl-tRNA synthetase and forms a specific ternary complex with tRNA(Ser). *FEBS J.* 274:2788–2799.
 20. Frechin M, Senger B, Braye M, Kern D, Martin RP, Becker HD. 2009. Yeast mitochondrial Gln-tRNA(Gln) is generated by a GatFAB-mediated transamidation pathway involving Arc1p-controlled subcellular sorting of cytosolic GluRS. *Genes Dev.* 23:1119–1130.
 21. Schimmel P. 1987. Aminoacyl tRNA synthetases: general scheme of structure-function relationships in the polypeptides and recognition of transfer RNAs. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 56:125–158.
 22. Eriani G, Delarue M, Poch O, Gangloff J, Moras D. 1990. Partition of tRNA synthetases into two classes based on mutually exclusive sets of sequence motifs. *Nature* 347:203–206.
 23. Ibba M, Morgan S, Curnow AW, Pridmore DR, Vothknecht UC, Gardner W, Lin W, Woese CR, Söll D. 1997. A euryarchaeal lysyl-tRNA synthetase: resemblance to class I synthetases. *Science* 278:1119–1122.
 24. Ostrem DL, Berg P. 1970. Glycyl-tRNA synthetase: an oligomeric protein containing dissimilar subunits. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 67:1967–1974.
 25. Mazaauric MH, Reinbolt J, Lorber B, Ebel C, Keith G, Giege R, Kern D. 1996. An example of non-conservation of oligomeric structure in prokaryotic aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. Biochemical and structural properties of glycyl-tRNA synthetase from *Thermus thermophilus*. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 241:814–826.
 26. Shiba K, Schimmel P, Motegi H, Noda T. 1994. Human glycyl-tRNA synthetase. Wide divergence of primary structure from bacterial counterpart and species-specific aminoacylation. *J. Biol. Chem.* 269:30049–30055.
 27. Nada S, Chang PK, Dignam JD. 1993. Primary structure of the gene for glycyl-tRNA synthetase from *Bombyx mori*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 268:7660–7667.
 28. Chen SJ, Lin G, Chang KJ, Yeh LS, Wang CC. 2008. Translational efficiency of a non-AUG initiation codon is significantly affected by its sequence context in yeast. *J. Biol. Chem.* 283:3173–3180.
 29. Turner RJ, Lovato M, Schimmel P. 2000. One of two genes encoding glycyl-tRNA synthetase in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* provides mitochondrial and cytoplasmic functions. *J. Biol. Chem.* 275:27681–27688.
 30. Chen SJ, Lee CY, Lin ST, Wang CC. 2011. Rescuing a dysfunctional homologue of a yeast glycyl-tRNA synthetase gene. *ACS Chem. Biol.* 6:1182–1187.
 31. Chen SJ, Wu YH, Huang HY, Wang CC. 2012. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* possesses a stress-inducible glycyl-tRNA synthetase gene. *PLoS One* 7:e33363. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0033363.
 32. Nameki N, Tamura K, Asahara H, Hasegawa T. 1997. Recognition of tRNA(Gly) by three widely diverged glycyl-tRNA synthetases. *J. Mol. Biol.* 268:640–647.
 33. Fersht AR, Ashford JS, Bruton CJ, Jakes R, Koch GL, Hartley BS. 1975. Active site titration and aminoacyl adenylate binding stoichiometry of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. *Biochemistry* 14:1–4.
 34. Simlot MM, Pfaender P. 1973. Amino acid dependent ATP-³²PP_i exchange measurement. A filter paper disk method. *FEBS Lett.* 35:201–203.
 35. Schwede T, Kopp J, Guex N, Peitsch MC. 2003. SWISS-MODEL: an automated protein homology-modeling server. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 31:3381–3385.
 36. Nangle LA, Zhang W, Xie W, Yang XL, Schimmel P. 2007. Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease-associated mutant tRNA synthetases linked to altered dimer interface and neurite distribution defect. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 104:11239–11244.
 37. Schrödinger LLC. 2010. The PyMOL molecular graphics system, version 1.3r1. Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY.
 38. Liao CC, Lin CH, Chen SJ, Wang CC. 2012. Trans-kingdom rescue of Gln-tRNA^{Gln} synthesis in yeast cytoplasm and mitochondria. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 40:9171–9181.
 39. Chen SJ, Ko CY, Yen CW, Wang CC. 2009. Translational efficiency of redundant ACG initiator codons is enhanced by a favorable sequence context and remedial initiation. *J. Biol. Chem.* 284:818–827.
 40. Kelly SM, Jess TJ, Price NC. 2005. How to study proteins by circular dichroism? *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1751:119–139.
 41. Mazaauric MH, Keith G, Logan D, Kreutzer R, Giege R, Kern D. 1998. Glycyl-tRNA synthetase from *Thermus thermophilus*—wide structural divergence with other prokaryotic glycyl-tRNA synthetases and functional inter-relation with prokaryotic and eukaryotic glycylation systems. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 251:744–757.
 42. Louis-Jeune C, Andrade-Navarro MA, Perez-Iratxeta C. 2012. Prediction of protein secondary structure from circular dichroism using theoretically derived spectra. *Proteins* 80:374–381.
 43. Saitou N, Nei M. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 4:406–425.
 44. Logan DT, Mazaauric MH, Kern D, Moras D. 1995. Crystal structure of glycyl-tRNA synthetase from *Thermus thermophilus*. *EMBO J.* 14:4156–4167.
 45. Chiu WC, Chang CP, Wang CC. 2009. Evolutionary basis of converting a bacterial tRNA synthetase into a yeast cytoplasmic or mitochondrial enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.* 284:23954–23960.
 46. Mazaauric MH, Roy H, Kern D. 1999. tRNA glycylation system from *Thermus thermophilus*. tRNA^{Gly} identity and functional interrelation with the glycylation systems from other phyla. *Biochemistry* 38:13094–13105.
 47. Marechal-Drouard L, Small I, Weil JH, Dietrich A. 1995. Transfer RNA import into plant mitochondria. *Methods Enzymol.* 260:310–327.
 48. Whelihan EF, Schimmel P. 1997. Rescuing an essential enzyme-RNA complex with a non-essential appended domain. *EMBO J.* 16:2968–2974.
 49. Nawaz MH, Pang YL, Martinis SA. 2007. Molecular and functional dissection of a putative RNA-binding region in yeast mitochondrial leucyl-tRNA synthetase. *J. Mol. Biol.* 367:384–394.
 50. Sarkar J, Poruri K, Boniecki MT, McTavish KK, Martinis SA. 2012. Yeast mitochondrial leucyl-tRNA synthetase CP1 domain has functionally diverged to accommodate RNA splicing at expense of hydrolytic editing. *J. Biol. Chem.* 287:14772–14781.
 51. Thompson JD, Higgins DG, Gibson TJ. 1994. CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 22:4673–4680.