Initiator methionine tRNA is essential for Tyl transposition in yeast

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ABSTRACT The yeast retrotransposon Ty) transposes through an RNA intermediate by ^a mechanism similar to that of retroviral reverse transcription and integration. Tyl RNA contains a putative minus strand primer binding site $(-PBS)$ that is complementary to the ³' acceptor stem of the initiator methionine tRNA (tRNA^{Met}). Here we demonstrate that the $tRNA_i^{Met}$ is used as a primer for Tyl reverse transcription. Mutations in the Tyl element that alter 5 of 10 nucleotides that are complementary to the $tKNA_i^{max}$ abolish Tyl transposition, even though they are silent with regard to Tyl protein coding. We have constructed a yeast strain lacking wild-type tRNA^{met} that is dependent on a mutant derivative of tRNA^{Met} that has an altered acceptor stem sequence, engineered to restore homology with the Ty 1 -PBS mutant. The compensatory mutations made in the $tRNA_i^{Met}$ alleviate the transposition defect of the Ty 1 -PBS mutant. The mutant and wild-type $tRNA_i^{Met}$ are enriched within Tyl virus-like particles irrespective of complementarity to the Ty I -PBS. Thus, complementarity between the Ty I -PBS and tRNA $_{i}^{\text{Met}}$ is essential for transposition but is not necessary for packaging of the tRNA inside virus-like particles.

The Tyl retrotransposon in Saccharomyces cerevisiae transposes through an RNA intermediate by ^a mechanism similar to that of retroviral reverse transcription and integration (1). In several retroviral systems that have been examined, reverse transcription of minus strand DNA is initiated using a cellular tRNA as a primer. These elements typically have an 18-nucleotide region located adjacent to the ⁵' long terminal repeat (LTR) that is complementary to a cellular tRNA (2). This region is called the minus strand primer binding site $(-PBS)$. The initiation of reverse transcription by a cellular tRNA presumably involves packaging of the tRNA in the viral particle, formation of the primer-template complex, and extension of the primer by reverse transcriptase. For avian retroviruses, reverse transcriptase appears to be necessary for packaging of the primer tRNA into the viral particle. Avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase forms a stable complex with its cognate $tRNA^{Trp}$ primer (3). Murine retrovirus reverse transcriptases bind tRNAs, but without any obvious specificity [reviewed by Varmus and Swanstrom (4). The human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) reverse transcriptase specifically binds its primer, tRNALYS, through the anticodon stem (5). For Rous sarcoma virus, HIV-1, and murine leukemia virus, the nucleocapsid proteins, encoded by the *gag* gene and containing a structure that may be related to a Zn^{2+} finger, are required to position primer tRNA on genomic RNA (5, 6).

The Tyl element has a putative $-PBS$, a 10-nucleotide region complementary to the ³' acceptor stem of the initiator methionine tRNA (tRNA^{Met}) (7). Several retrotransposons contain shorter putative -PBSs with complementarity to various tRNAs (8) but there is no direct evidence that these sites actually serve as regions for priming by tRNAs. However, for some Drosophila elements there is biochemical evidence consistent with ^a tRNA-sized RNA primer (9). For the Drosophila copia element, the 5' half-molecule of tRNAMet appears to prime reverse transcription (10). Here we demonstrate that the tRNA $_i^{\text{Met}}$ is essential for Tyl transposition.

The Tyl retrotransposon of the yeast S. cerevisiae provides a uniquely accessible system in which to study these processes. The yeast initiator methionine tRNA genes (IMT genes) are cloned and mapped (11, 12) and can be manipulated in vitro and in vivo. Furthermore, the transposition frequency of a Ty) element marked with a genetic marker such as neo can be quantitated in vivo (13, 14). Transposition of Tyl-neo elements fused to the GALI promoter can be induced to high levels by growth on medium containing galactose as the sole carbon source. Transposition of Tyl-neo elements into the host genome confers resistance to G418, allowing transposition events to be quantitated by a genetic assay.

Here we demonstrate genetically that the tRNA^{Met} is essential for Tyl transposition. Mutations made in the tRNA^{Met} that allow for viability in the absence of wild-type tRNA^{Met} abolish Tyl transposition in vivo. Transposition is restored by the introduction of compensatory mutations in the $-PBS$ of the TyI element.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and Media. All yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Media were prepared as described (15).

RNA Isolation and Blotting. Total RNA preparation from whole cells and RNA blotting from polyacrylamide gels was carried out as described (16). TyJ virus-like particles (VLPs) were isolated from 500-ml cultures on $20\%/30\%/70\%$ sucrose step gradients as described (17) except for the experiment in Fig. $1B$, in which they were subsequently recentrifuged on a 20-50% linear sucrose gradient. To extract VLP RNA, pelleted VLPs were resuspended in 0.3 ml of RNA buffer [100 mM NaCI/100 mM Tris base/30 mM EDTA/1% N-lauroylsarcosine (adjusted to pH 8.9 with HCl)], 0.15 ml of phenol, and 0.15 ml of CHCl₃ followed by brief agitation in a Vortex and centrifugation. The aqueous phase was extracted with phenol/chloroform and precipitated with 0.1 M NaOAc (pH 5.5) and 2.5 volumes of ethanol. RNA pellets were resuspended in 100 μ l of distilled H₂O and quantitated by absorbance at 260 nm. Five to 10 μ g of RNA was ethanol precipitated, resuspended in formamide loading buffer, and heated to 65°C prior to electrophoresis on 5% polyacrylamide/8 M urea gels.

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Abbreviations: 5-FOA, 5-fluoroorotic acid; -PBS, minus strand primer binding site; tRNA^{Met}, initiator methionine tRNA; VLP, virus-like particle; LTR, long terminal repeat; r, resistant; HIV-1, human immunodeficiency virus type 1.

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Genotype of all strains listed is $MAT\alpha$ ura3-52 trp1 Δ 1 leu2-3,112 imtl::TRPI imt2::TRPI imt3::TRPI imt4::TRPI

Construction of Mutants. The TvI -PBS mutant and the imt4-9 mutant were constructed using the method of Kunkel (18). To construct the Tyl -PBS mutation, a 2.6-kilobase (kb) EcoRI-Sal ^I fragment from plasmid pJEF724 (19) was cloned into M13mp8 digested with $EcoRI$ and Sal I, generating plasmid mp8-724-3. The -PBS mutation was made with oligonucleotide JB33: 5'-CGAAGCACACGCCGACCCAT-GAGAATT-3', generating plasmid KCf1. To generate the imt4-9 mutation, the 0.2-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment from plasmid pBY140 (20) containing the IMT4 gene was cloned into M13mp18 digested with BamHI and HindIlI. The imt4-9 mutant was made using two mutagenic oligonucleotides: JB37, 5'-AGAAATGAAAAATGTCGGCGGCTCGGTTTC-³', and JB38, 5'-CTGCGCCACCGCCGATAGCCAACTTG-³', generating KCflO. Two additional mutations, imt44 and imt4-5, bearing substitutions only on the 5' side (oligonucleotide JB38) and the ³' side (JB37), respectively, of the acceptor stem, were also constructed.

Plasmid Constructions. Plasmid pKC66 was constructed by ligating a 7.3-kb Kpn I-Xba I fragment from plasmid pJEF1105 with a 6.9-kb Kpn I-Xba I fragment from pKC7, which contains the $-PBS$ mutation. Plasmid $pKC7$ was constructed by a three-piece ligation: a 2.6-kb EcoRI-Sal ^I fragment from KCf1 (described above), a 4.6-kb Sal I-BamHI fragment from pX3 (21), and a 6.7-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment from pX3. Plasmid pKC10 was constructed by ligating the 0.2-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment from plasmid KCf10 (described above) with vector Yep351 (22) digested with BamHI and HindIII. Plasmid pKC35 was constructed by ligating a 0.2-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment containing the wild-type IMT4 gene from plasmid pBY140 with vector Yep351 digested with BamHI and HindIII.

Hybridization Probes. The wild-type tRNA^{Met} probe is a 0.2-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment from plasmid pKC35. The mutant tRNA^{Met} probe is a 0.2-kb $BamHI-HindIII$ fragment from plasmid pKC10. The tRNA^{Tyr} probe is a 0.8-kb BamHI fragment containing the SUP11 gene from plasmid p355 (kindly provided by Philip Hieter, Johns Hopkins University). Probes were made by random hexamer priming (23).

Transposition Assay. Yeast strains KC149, KC150, KC151, and KC152 contain either plasmid pJEF1105 or its derivative, pKC66; both of these plasmids contain a TyJ-neo element fused to the GALI promoter. This marked TyI element is on a high-copy-number, $2-\mu m$ vector marked with URA3 (13). Transposition of TyJ-neo into the host genome can be detected by the acquisition of a G418-resistant phenotype in plasmid-free derivatives of the host cell. Transposition was quantitated as follows. Yeast strains KC151 (harboring the mutant TyJ element on pKC66) and KC152 (harboring the wild-type Tyl element on pJEF1105) were grown as a patch on SC-Ura medium (synthetic complete medium lacking uracil) containing 2% galactose at 22°C for ⁵ days. Growth on medium containing galactose as the sole carbon source induces transcription of the marked TyJ element from the GALI promoter. These cells were replica-plated to nonselective medium, YPD, to allow for plasmid loss. To select for cells that have lost the plasmid, these patches were replica-

plated to SC medium containing ¹ mg of 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA) per ml. The 5-FOA selects against cells expressing the URA3 gene on the plasmid (24). Following ¹ day of growth at 30'C, these plates were again replica-plated to SC plus 5-FOA and grown at 30'C overnight. For a qualitative estimate of transposition frequency, this plate is replicaplated to YPD medium containing 75 μ g of G418 per ml; cells that have undergone a transposition event will papillate as G418-resistant (G418^r) colonies. To quantitate transposition frequencies in these strains, cells from the 5-FOA plate were scraped into water, plated on YPD medium, and allowed to form single colonies. These plates were replica plated to SC-Ura and YPD plus G418. Transposition frequency is calculated as the number of $Ura^-/G418^r$ colonies divided by the total number of Ura^- colonies.

RESULTS

A Putative tRNA Primer. Initiation of retroviral minus strand synthesis involves the utilization of a cellular tRNA as ^a primer for DNA synthesis. Reverse transcription initiates from the ³' OH of the tRNA primer, which base pairs to the -PBS, located adjacent to the ⁵' LTR. This initiation event results in the synthesis of minus strong stop DNA, a molecule consisting of the primer tRNA covalently attached to the newly synthesized complementary-strand DNA; specifically, the U5 and R sequences of the ⁵' LTR. We have directly examined Tyl transposition intermediates for the presence of minus strong stop DNA. Such a molecule is predicted to have ⁹⁶ nucleotides of DNA covalently attached to ^a tRNA primer 75 nucleotides in length.

To examine Tyl transposition intermediates, TyJ VLPs were purified from strain JB224, a strain in which high levels of transposition and transposition intermediates (VLPs) can be induced by growth on galactose (19, 25). Nucleic acid transposition intermediates were labeled in vitro in two ways. In the first, $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dTTP was added to preparations of VLPs under conditions that allowed for reverse transcription. Since the first nucleotide on the TyJ transcript that is adjacent to the -PBS is an adenosine, incubation of VLPs in the presence of TTP as the only nucleotide triphosphate should result in the addition of a single T residue to the putative tRNA primer. As predicted for a tRNA-sized primer, we observe a labeled species of the appropriate size (76 nucleotides) that is sensitive to RNase A $(Fig. 1A)$.

In the second labeling experiment, all four deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates were included, as well as $\lceil \alpha^{-32}P \rceil dTTP$. The full-length minus strong stop has a predicted length of 171 nucleotides. We observe such ^a molecule, which is sensitive to RNase A. In the RNase-treated reaction products, we observe a product of 96 nucleotides, the expected size of the minus strong stop DNA without the 75-nucleotide tRNA primer. These observations are consistent with a tRNA-sized RNA primer for reverse transcription of Tyl minus strand. End-labeled minus strong stop molecules have also been treated with sequence-specific ribonucleases and have patterns of nuclease sensitivity similar to those of purified tRNA^{Met} (A.S.B. and Gerald R. Fink, unpublished data).

The tRNA^{Met} Is Localized to Tyl VLPs. Tyl RNA contains a putative $-PBS$ that is complementary to the tRNA $_{1}^{Met}$. If the tRNA^{Met} is used as a primer for reverse transcription, we would expect to observe preferential packaging of this tRNA in Tyl VLPs. We have directly examined Tyl VLPs for the presence of tRNA^{Met}. Tyl VLPs were purified as described (17) and RNA was extracted. This RNA was fractionated on an 8% polyacrylamide gel, electrophoretically transferred to a membrane, and probed with radioactive tRNAM_{et} DNA (Fig. 1B). The tRNA^{Met} is detectable in Tyl VLPs and total RNA. A control tRNA, tRNATYr, is present in total RNA but is not readily detectable in the VLP RNA. Densitometric

FIG. 1. A putative tRNA primer for Tyl reverse transcription. (A) Tyl reverse transcription reaction identifies a tRNA-sized primer. Ty/ VLPs were incubated with $\left[\alpha^{-3/2}P\right]$ TTP [reaction 1 (1)] or $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ TTP plus all four unlabeled nucleotide triphosphates [reaction] 2 (2)]. Reaction products were deproteinized, half of the sample was treated with RNase A, and the reaction products were run on ^a DNA sequencing gel. Size markers (M; sizes indicated in nucleotides) derive from an Msp ^I digest of pBR322 labeled by treatment with Klenow fragment plus $[\alpha^{-3/2}P]dCTP$. (B) tRNA^{met} is localized in Tyl VLPs. Total RNA was extracted from whole cells or Tyl VLPs; the indicated amount of RNA was electrophoresed on an 8% polyacrylamide gel and transferred to ^a membrane. RNA blot analysis was carried out using the tRNA^{Met} probe; the same blot was stripped and probed with the tRNA^{Tyr} probe.

scanning of these autoradiograms indicates that the tRNA^{Met} is enriched 44-fold relative to tRNA^{Tyr} in Tyl VLPs.

A Mutation in the -PBS Eliminates Transposition of Tyl. To investigate the role of the $-PBS$ sequence in the mechanism of Ty) transposition, we have introduced specific nucleotide changes in the -PBS that do not disrupt protein coding but that change 5 of 10 nucleotides of complementarity with the tRNA^{Wet} (Fig. 2). This -PBS mutation was incorporated in a GAL-Tyl element marked with neo to quantitate transposition. Transposition of TyJ-neo into the host genome confers resistance to G418. As shown in Fig. 3, cells containing the wild-type Tyl-neo element (KC152; wt Tyl -PBS) exhibit a high level of Tyl transposition; growth on YPD/G418, which indicates transposition, is nearly confluent. In contrast, cells containing the $-PBS Tyl$ mutant $(KC151; mut TvI - PBS)$ are markedly reduced in the number of G418r colonies, suggesting that transposition of the mutant Tyl-neo element was either greatly reduced or abolished. The transposition frequency of the mutant Tyl element is reduced by at least 30-fold (Table 2). These results suggest that the nucleotide sequence of the $-PBS$ region in Tyl is essential for transposition.

Mutation of the Acceptor Stem of tRNAMet Results in a Functional tRNA. To investigate the role of the tRNA^{Met} in Ty) transposition, we have introduced specific nucleotide changes in the portion of the IMT gene that encodes the ³' acceptor stem of the tRNA. These changes disrupt complementarity with the wild-type TvI -PBS (diagrammed sche-

FIG. 2. Construction of a mutant TyI -PBS and compensatory mutations in the tRNA^{Met}. Tyl RNA contains 10 nucleotides of complementarity (the $-PBS$) to the 3' acceptor stem of the tRNA $_{\rm i}^{\rm Met}$. The mutations in the Ty I -PBS do not disrupt TYA protein coding The mutations in the $1yI - F$ by an intervals of T and F but disrupt 5 of 10 base pairs of complementarity with the span a Met μ μ RNA transferred transferred in the 3' acceptor stem of the tRNA μ ⁻¹
restore base-pairing to the mutant -PBS; 4 nucleotide changes in the ⁵' end of the tRNA restore base-pairing of the acceptor stem. Boxed tRNA^{Met} triangles, LTR sequences; open box, coding region of Tyl; vertical
lines, boundaries of LTR domains 113, R, and LIS: beaux lines, RNA: lines, boundaries of LTR domains U3, R, and U5; heavy lines, RNA; plain letters, wild-type sequences; shaded letters, mutant sequences. Drawing is not to scale.

matically in Fig. 2). In addition, the 5' end of the $tRNA_i^{Met}$ was mutated to restore complementarity with the ³' side of the acceptor stem. This mutant $tRNA₁^{Met}$ gene (imt4-9) was cloned on a high-copy-number $(2 \mu m)$ plasmid marked with LEU2 to derive plasmid pKC10.

Wild-type yeast strains typically contain four or five copies of the IMT gene (12). At least one copy of the IMT gene is essential for viability. To test the role of the tRNA $_{1}^{Met}$ in Tyl transposition, we sought to construct a yeast strain that expressed the mutant tRNA in the absence of wild-type tRNA^{Met}. A yeast strain, ASB217-32C, was constructed in which all four genomic INT genes are deleted and a wild-type IMT4 is present on a high-copy-number plasmid marked with URA3 (20). To replace the wild-type $IMT4$ with the mutant, imt4-9, contained on pKC10, a plasmid shuffle technique (26) was used (diagrammed in Fig. 4). Yeast strain ASB217-32C was transformed with pKC10 or pKC35 (containing the wild-type $IMT4$ in Yep351), selecting Leu⁺ transformants. Ura⁻ derivatives were obtained by selection on 5-FOA. The Leu⁺ Ura⁻ derivatives represent cells that have lost the URA3 marked plasmid containing the wild-type $tRNA_i^{Met}$ and are surviving on either the mutant tRNA supplied by pKC10 (yeast strain KC78) or the wild-type $tRNA_i^{met}$ supplied by pKC35 (yeast strain KC79). When the same tRNA^{Met} muta-

FIG. 3. Transposition defect of $TyI - PBS$ mutant is alleviated by compensatory mutations in the $tRNA_i^{met}$. The transposition phenotype of yeast strains containing various combinations of wild-type (wt) or mutant (mut) TyI -PBS and $tRNA_i^{Met}$ is shown on YPD plates containing 75 μ g of G418 per ml. Transposition of GAL-Tylneo was induced by growth on SC-Ura galactose medium; cells were then replica-plated to YPD to allow for plasmid loss. These replicas were replica-plated to SC medium containing ¹ mg of 5-FOA per ml for two successive rounds of growth, selecting for cells that have lost the GAL-Ty plasmid, which contains the URA3 marker. Cells were finally replica-plated to YPD containing 75 μ g of G418 per ml in order to identify colonies that had undergone transposition of TyJ-neo.

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ASBX215-33B ASBX216-2A

imt3::TRP1 (imt1::TRP1 IMT3 imt3::TRP1 IMT1imt4::THP1 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\nX & \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathcal{P} & \mathcal{M}^{\mathsf{T4}}\n\end{array}\n\end{array}$ $IMT₂$ $\qquad \qquad$ $\$ diploid transformation $\frac{\overline{DBY16}}{URA3/2}$ sporulation, dissection transformation

FIFC 10 $ABBX217-32C$ $\overline{imt4-9}$ KC141 ASBX217-32C ($\frac{limit-9}{print::TRP1}$ KC141
imt1::TRP1 imt3::TRP1 $\frac{bin1-9}{F12/20}$ $\frac{limit::TRP1}{f11}$ $\mathcal{L}_{\left[\frac{[MT4]}{\text{pBY161}}\right]}$ $\mathcal{L}_{\left[\frac{[MT4]}{\text{pBY161}}\right]}$ $\mathcal{L}_{\left[\frac{[MT4-3]}{\text{pKC10}}\right]}$ $\left(\frac{\overline{pBY161}}{\overline{pRV24}}\right)$ Plasmid $\left(\frac{\overline{p}V}{mZ\cdots TRP1}\right)$ $\left(\frac{\overline{pKClO}}{\overline{pKClZ}}\right)$ imt2::TRP1 \overline{V} FRA3/2µ shuffling 5-FOA

FIG. 4. Construction of a yeast strain expressing exclusively mutant tRNA^{Met}. The four chromosomal IMT genes were deleted by the procedure illustrated and described in detail elsewhere (20). Strain ASBX217-32C has all four copies of the IMT gene disrupted by TRPI; wild-type tRNA^{met} is supplied by the IMT4 gene on plasmid pBY161. To construct yeast strain KC78, ASBX217-32C was transformed with plasmid pKC10 containing a mutant IMT4 gene $(imt4-9$, Fig. 2). Leu⁺ transformants were selected. Ura⁻ derivatives were selected by replica-plating to medium containing 5-FOA, resulting in strain KC78, which is expressing exclusively the mutant $tRNA₁^{Met} encoded by *imt4-9*.$

tions were introduced on one side of the acceptor stem only (disrupting the stem structure) the resulting mutant tRNAs were not able to substitute for the wild-type $tRNA_i^{\text{met}}$, as evidenced by the lack of any Leu⁺ Ura⁻ derivatives in the plasmid shuffle assay. Interestingly, these extensive nucleotide changes introduced in the acceptor stem of the $tRNA_i^{Met}$ do not appear to be deleterious as long as complementarity of the acceptor stem is maintained; we do not observe any growth defect in yeast strain KC78, which survives exclusively on the mutant tRNAMet.

Mutation of the Acceptor Stem of tRNAM⁴⁴ Eliminates Tyl **Transposition.** To investigate the role of the tRNA^{Met} in TvI transposition, we assayed transposition of wild-type TyJ in yeast strain KC78, which expresses exclusively the mutant $tRNA_i^{Met}$ that lacks extensive complementarity to the Tyl -PBS. This yeast strain was transformed with plasmid pJEF1105, which contains a wild-type GAL-Tyl-neo element to assay transposition frequency. The resultant strain (KC150) has at least a 78-fold reduction of transposition frequency relative to wild type (Fig. 3 and Table 2), demonstrating that the $tRNA_i^{Met}$ is essential for transposition.

Mutant t $\text{RNA}_{i}^{\text{met}}$ Complements Transposition Defect of Ty*I* -PBS Mutant. To unambiguously demonstrate that this complementarity between the TvI -PBS and the tRNA^{Met} is essential for transposition, the Ty l -PBS mutant was combined with the mutant $tRNA_i^{Met}$, restoring 10 base pairs of

Table 2. Transposition frequencies

Strain	TvI $-PBS$		Neo ^r Ura ⁻ colonies/Ura ⁻ colonies		Transposition
		tRNAMet	Exp. 1	Exp. 2	frequency, $%$
KC152	wt	wt	157/789	64/615	15.7
KC151	mut	wt	0/459	6/875	< 0.5
KC150	wt	mut	1/775	1/875	< 0.2
KC149	mut	mut	29/965	7/411	2.6

wt, Wild type; mut, mutant.

perfect complementarity in the $-PBS$ region. Either the Tyl $-PBS$ mutation or the tRNA^{Met} mutation alone virtually abolishes transposition (Fig. 3 and Table 2). However, in strain KC149, which combines the Tyl -PBS mutation with the mutant $t\bar{R}NA_i^{\text{Met}}$, transposition is restored (Fig. 3). The level of transposition is reduced (2.6% compared to 15.7% in wild type) but still readily detectable at >5-fold above background (Table 2). These results demonstrate that complementarity between the $tRNA_M^{Met}$ and the Tyl -PBS is essential for transposition. Furthermore, the ability of the mutant tRNA^{Met} to complement the Tyl $-PBS$ mutation suggests that the mutant tRNA^{Met} is packaged in the T_vI VLPs.

The tRNA^{Met} Is Packaged in Tyl VLPs in the Absence of Extensive Complementarity to the TvI -PBS. The ability of the mutant tRNA^{Met} to suppress the Tyl -PBS mutation suggested that the mutant tRNA is packaged in Tyl VLPs. We have directly examined the packaging of mutant and wild-type tRNA in VLPs containing either wild-type Tyl RNA or the Tyl $-PBS$ mutant. Tyl VLPs were isolated from strains KC149, KC150, KC151, and KC152. Nucleic acids were extracted from the VLPs and were fractionated on a 5% polyacrylamide gel. The RNA species were transferred to ^a membrane and hybridized to probes for the wild-type and the mutant tRNA^{Met} (Fig. 5). The mutant tRNA^{Met} probe only detects a signal in VLPs derived from KC149 and KC150, the strains that express exclusively the mutant tRNAMet. Interestingly, there is no detectable difference in the amount of $tRNA_i^{met}$ in KC149 and KC150 VLPs, even though KC150 harbors exclusively wild-type TyJ, which does not share extensive complementarity with the mutant tRNAMet. In addition, similar amounts of wild-type tRNA^{Met} are detected in strains KC151 and KC152, which harbor the mutant and the wild-type TyI -PBS, respectively. These results suggest that packaging of the primer tRNA is by a mechanism that is independent of sequence complementarity to the $-PBS$.

DISCUSSION

The use of a cellular tRNA as a primer for reverse transcription is an integral aspect of the retroviral life cycle. Here, this type of priming mechanism is extended to the yeast retrotransposon Tyl. Unlike retroviruses, which have 18 base pairs of perfect complementarity between the $-PBS$ and priming tRNA, the Ty I element contains a $-PBS$ that shares only 10 nucleotides of complementarity to tRNA^{Met}. Recent experiments with HIV-1 indicate that -PBS mutants with less extensive com-

FIG. 5. Packaging of wild-type (wt) and mutant (mut) tRNA^{Met} in TyJ VLPs occurs irrespective of homology with the Tyl primer binding site. VLP RNA extracted from the indicated strains was analyzed by RNA blotting with ^a wild-type IMT4 probe or the mutant imt4-9 probe. Yeast strains KC149 and KC150 express exclusively the mutant tRNA^{met}. Strain KC149 harbors the mutant Tyl -PBS, which base-pairs to the mutant $tRNA_i^{met}$; strain KC150 harbors the wild-type Tyl. Yeast strains KC151 and KC152 are expressing exclusively wild-type $tRNA_i^{Met}$. KC151 has the mutant Tyl -PBS, whose RNA lacks substantial complementarity to the wild-type $tRNA_i^{Met}$; strain KC152 harbors the wild-type Tyl element.

plementarity have a severe impact on the kinetics of viral infection (27) . The ability to alter the $tRNA₁^{Met}$ genes and the Tyl element provides a unique opportunity to examine this priming mechanism in yeast.

The ability to introduce specific nucleotide changes in the acceptor stem of the tRNAM_{et} that retain the ability to function in translation has allowed the construction of a yeast strain expressing exclusively an altered tRNAM_{et}. Although many tRNAs are recognized by their synthetases in the aminoacyl stem (28, 29), there is evidence that the initiator tRNA in Escherichia coli is recognized primarily, if not exclusively, in the anticodon (30, 31). Nevertheless, we were surprised that a tRNAM₁^{Met} with five altered base pairs in the acceptor stem shows no growth defect.

The nucleotide changes in the altered tRNA^{Met} disrupt 5 of the 10 base pairs of complementarity to the Ty I -PBS. These nucleotide changes are sufficient to abolish detectable levels of Tyl transposition in vivo, demonstrating that tRNA^{Met} is an essential host gene product for Tyl transposition. Compensatory mutations made in the Tyl $-PBS$, which restore 10 base pairs of complementarity to the mutant tRNA^{Met}, also restore Tyl transposition, demonstrating that complementarity between Tyl and its primer tRNA is an essential aspect of Ty) transposition.

Interestingly, restoration of transposition to the Tyl -PBS mutant by the compensatory mutations in the tRNAMet results in transposition frequency at a reduced level as compared to the wild-type frequency. Although it is conceivable that this reduced frequency of transposition is due to inefficient packaging of mutant tRNA^{Idet} in Tyl VLPs, this possibility seems unlikely as the mutant $tRNA_i^{Met}$ is readily detected in Tyl VLPs. It remains possible that additional steps in the formation of the active priming complex-i.e., the melting of the tRNA acceptor stem or the positioning of the tRNA on the -PBS-may involve the formation of specific interactions with sequence or base-composition specificity. One A-T base pair in the wild-type/wild-type combination is exchanged for a G-C base pair in the mutant/ mutant combination, potentially resulting in more stable acceptor stem and tRNA/-PBS interactions. Alternatively, these differences in frequency could be due to differences in expression, modification, or stability of the two forms of the tRNA. Among 11 tRNA^{met} mutants studied (20), most had normal levels of tRNA, and a few had slightly elevated levels, suggesting that mutant tRNAs can readily be expressed at normal levels in yeast.

The observation that nine base changes in the acceptor stem of the tRNA do not appear to have an impact on packaging into VLPs suggests that the macromolecule(s) responsible for this packaging has recognition determinants outside of the acceptor stem region. Perhaps, as in the case with methionyl tRNA synthetases and also apparently with HIV-1 reverse transcriptase (5), a special sequence or structure around the anticodon is recognized. Reverse transcribing elements from yeast (Tyl), insects (10), a plant virus (32), and plant retrotransposons (33, 34) are all thought to use tRNAMet as primers. Perhaps, as in the case of the synthetases, the tRNAs are recognized and packaged in a similar fashion in these diverse systems.

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