Targeting presequence acquisition after mitochondrial gene transfer to the nucleus occurs by duplication of existing targeting signals

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We have cloned ^a gene for mitochondrial ribosomal protein S11 (RPS11), which is encoded in lower plants by the mitochondrial genome, in higher plants by the nuclear genome, demonstrating genetic information transfer from the mitochondrial genome to the nucleus during flowering plant evolution. The sequence sll-1 encodes an N-terminal extension as well as an organellederived RPS11 region. Surprisingly, the N-terminal region has high amino acid sequence similarity with the presequence of the β -subunit of ATP synthase from plant mitochondria, suggesting a common lineage of the presequences. The deduced N-terminal region of s11-2, a second nuclear-encoded homolog of rps11, shows high sequence similarity with the putative presequence of cytochrome oxidase subunit Vb. The sharing of the N-terminal region together with its ⁵' flanking untranslated nucleotide sequence in different proteins strongly suggests an involvement of duplication/recombination for targeting signal acquisition after gene migration. A remnant of ancestral rps11 sequence, transcribed and subjected to RNA editing, is found in the mitochondrial genome, indicating that inactivation of mitochondrial rpsll gene expression was initiated at the translational level prior to termination of transcription. anset from the minical
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Introduction

It is generally accepted that mitochondria are a descendant of a procaryote that entered into symbiosis with other cell types (reviewed in Gray, 1989). Sequence analyses of mitochondrial DNAs, including entire mitochondrial genomes, indicate that only a small percentage of total mitochondrial proteins are synthesized within the organelle and most mitochondrial proteins depend on nuclear genes (Hartl et al., 1989).

Comparison of entire mitochondrial genome sequences shows relatively conserved gene content among mammals, Xenopus, Drosophila and yeast (reviewed in Gray, 1992). Recently, however, many additional genes have been identified in lower plant (liverwort and chlorophyte alga) mitochondrial genomes (Oda et al., 1992; Wolff et al., 1994). A striking example is that none of the mitochondrial

ribosomal protein genes are encoded by the mitochondrial genome of mammals, Xenopus, Drosophila and fungi (reviewed in Gray, 1992), except for the yeast varI gene (Terpstra et al., 1979). In contrast, numerous ribosomal protein subunits are encoded by the lower plant mitochondrial genomes, with as many as 16 ribosomal protein genes identified in the liverwort mitochondrial genome. In addition, the gene order is similar to the organization of Escherichia coli ribosomal protein genes (Takemura et al., 1992; Wolff et al., 1994). This difference in mitochondrial gene content among these organisms results from translocation of genes from the endosymbiont to the nucleus. Thus, plant mitochondrial genomes retain a more primitive genetic content and gene transfer may be an active process in evolution (Brennicke et al., 1993).

In some cases, gene transfer to the nucleus has occurred relatively recently. They are cytochrome oxidase subunit II (coxII) from cowpea and soybean (Nugent and Palmer, 1991; Covello and Gray, 1992), Oenothera ribosomal protein subunit S12 (Grohmann et al., 1992) and Arabidopsis ribosomal protein subunit S10 (Wischmann and Schuster, 1995). By summarizing the recently identified variation of the mitochondrial gene content of different plant species, Brennicke et al. (1993) divide transfer of genetic information from mitochondria to the nucleus into several steps: gene translocation; adaptation and activation of the integrated nuclear sequence, such as acquisition of a presequence, promoter, poly(A) signal, etc.; mitochondrial gene inactivation and mitochondrial gene elimination. However, very little is known about the mechanisms for any of the above steps.

In this study, we report interesting evidence for the origin of targeting signals and for the machinery of mitochondrial gene inactivation, by analyzing a gene encoding mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit 811 (RPS11). In lower plants, the rpsll gene is present in the mitochondrial genome (Takemura et al., 1992; Wolff et al., 1994), but no information for rps11 has been available for higher plants. During identification of mitochondrial ribosomal protein genes in a higher plant, we found a mitochondrial pseudogene for rpsll and a functional nuclear $rps11$ gene (s11-1) from rice. A second nuclear copy (s 11-2) having 92% nucleotide sequence homology with sll-1 was also identified from rice. The deduced amino acid sequence of s11-1 showed an extended N-terminal region that was very similar to the presequence of the plant ATPase β -subunit peptide (ATPB), strongly suggesting that the RPS¹¹ and ATPB presequences have ^a common origin. The deduced N-terminal extension in s11-2 was very similar to the putative presequence for cytochrome oxidase subunit Vb peptide (COXVb).

Mitochondrial presequences diverge greatly in amino acid sequence in general. They are rich in basic residues and have few acidic residues and frequently are capable

Fig. 1. (A) Rice mitochondrial rps11 sequence similar to the liverwort mitochondrial rps11 gene. The amino acid sequence deduced from the DNA is denoted by the single letter abbreviations underneath the DNA sequence. The conceptual original ORF is truncated by an internal TAA stop codon (underlined). Positions and orientations of oligonucleotide primers ¹ and ² are indicated by arrows. RNA editing sites (C of genomic DNA to T of cDNA) are indicated by lower case and underlined. A termination codon resulting from the RNA editing event at nucleotide position ⁸² is indicated by an asterisk. The A of the initiation codon ATG is numbered 1. (B) Overview of RNA editing events in the rice mitochondrial rps11 transcripts. RNA editing sites are schematically indicated in the figure. White and black circles show silent alterations in amino acids and creation of ^a stop codon respectively. The number of clones examined is indicated in parentheses. Nucleotide positions of RNA editing events are shown above the circles.

of forming an amphiphilic helix (Hartl et al., 1989). Interestingly, however, common presequences were found to be used for different proteins. A scenario of rps11 gene transfer, inactivation of mitochondrial gene expression, acquisition of targeting presequences and evolutionary relationships of DNA sequences coding for mitochondrial presequences are discussed.

Results

A

Mitochondrially encoded rps11 is not functional in rice

The mitochondrial rps11 gene is located in the gene cluster rps8 rpl6 rps13 rps11 and rpl5 rpl6 rps13 rps11 in liverwort (Takemura et al., 1992) and chlorophyte alga mitochondrial genomes (Wolff et al., 1994) respectively. In the higher plant rice, most of the ribosomal protein genes were found to be scattered in the mitochondrial genome. This has been characterized by physical mapping using a contiguous rice mitochondrial library and liverwort ribosomal protein genes as probes (data not shown). During the study, a nucleotide sequence homologous with the liverwort *rps11* gene was identified, and a 3.3 kb Sall DNA fragment was cloned and sequenced. The rice mitochondrial rps11 copy had 57% nucleotide sequence identity and the deduced amino acid sequence showed 34% identity with liverwort mitochondrial rps11. However, ^a TAA stop codon existed at nucleotide position 229, which is located in the middle of the original open reading frame (ORF), suggesting that the rice mitochondrial rps11 is a pseudogene (Figure 1A). Exon d of the *nadl* and the rps4 genes were identified 758 bp upstream and 461 bp downstream of the rps11 sequence on the same strand and a sequence homologous with the liverwort $rps13$ gene was identified >5 kb downstream of the *rpsll* sequence.

Transcription of the mitochondrial $rps11$ sequence was analyzed by RNA gel blot analysis. A 3.3 kb transcript was observed in the mitochondrial RNA (Figure 4C), showing that the *rpsll* sequence was transcribed in mitochondria. The 3.3 kb transcript is much larger than the size of the mitochondrial rps¹¹ sequence. RT-PCR and subsequent DNA sequence analyses showed the presence

Fig. 2. Nucleotide sequence of the rice nuclear cDNA encoding mitochondrial RPS11. The cDNA and deduced amino acid sequences are shown. Three Met residues located upstream of the conserved rps/l region are framed. Two arrowheads indicate the positions of 382 and 93 bp intron sequences identified in ^a genomic DNA counterpart. The intron sequences are presented below the cDNA sequence.

of a transcript from nadl exon d to rps4 (data not shown). Thus the mitochondrial rps II sequence was co-transcribed with the upstream and downstream sequences.

RNA editing of rps11 transcripts was analyzed to determine whether reverse RNA editing (U to C conversion) may restore the stop codon to ^a sense codon. cDNAs were synthesized using random hexamers and reverse transcriptase on mitochondrial RNA treated with DNase I. $rps1\overline{1}$ cDNAs were amplified by the polymerase chain reaction using primers ¹ and 2 and cloned into a plasmid vector. Eight cDNA clones were randomly picked and their DNA sequences were determined. Four RNA editing sites were identified at nucleotide positions 6, 78, 82 and 354 (Figure iB). All of the cDNAs examined were edited, although the extent of RNA editing was different among the cDNAs. This result, together with RNA gel blot analysis, revealed that mitochondrial rps11 was transcribed and subjected to RNA editing. Editing events at nucleotide positions 6, 78 and 354 were silent changes (no change in amino acid) and the editing event at position 82 resulted in the creation of ^a termination codon. None of the RNA editing changed the internal stop codon to a sense codon. On the contrary, RNA editing introduced another stop codon at nucleotide position 82 in the transcripts. The above results indicate that mitochondrial rps11 is indeed a pseudogene.

The functional copy encoding mitochondrial RPS11 is encoded by the rice nuclear genome

To address the possibility that an rps11 gene had been transferred from the mitochondrion to the nucleus and expressed, cDNA clones were screened from ^a rice nuclear cDNA library using the isolated rice mitochondrial rpsll sequence as probe. Seven clones were isolated, and sequence analysis revealed that the largest clone contained an ORF of 254 amino acid residues with 73% nucleotide sequence identity to the rice mitochondrial rps11 pseudogene (Figure 2). At the 3'-end of the cDNA, an 18 nt poly(A) tract was identified. Deduced amino acid sequence comparison of the rice cDNA showed that 37 and 33% similarities were observed with liverwort mitochondrial RPS11 and E.coli RPS11 respectively. The C-terminal sequence, Arg-Arg-Val, of the nuclear-encoded RPS11 is the same as that of the liverwort mitochondrial and E.coli counterparts and the last 20 amino acids of the C-terminal end are well conserved (Figure 3A). On the other hand, an extension of >80 amino acids was observed at the N-terminus of the rice nuclear gene for RPS11, suggesting that the extended region is necessary for mitochondrial targeting. There are three Met codons in the N-terminal extension and the first Met codon was inferred as the probable start codon (see below).

Amino acid sequence deduction around the internal

Fig. 3. Comparison of amino acid sequences. (A) Amino acid sequences of RPS11 encoded in rice nuclei (this study), rice mitochondria (this study), liverwort mitochondria (Takemura et al., 1992), E.coli (Bedwell et al., 1985) and rice chloroplast (Hiratsuka et al., 1989) are aligned. Positions of two introns in the rice nuclear gene are indicated by arrowheads. The extents of amino acid identities are shown as percentages. The numbers of identical residues in total residues are shown in parentheses. (B) Amino acid sequence alignment of the N-terminal portion of the nuclear-encoded mitochondrial RPS11 from rice and ATPB from N.plumbaginifolia (Boutry and Chua, 1985), rubber plant (Chye and Tan, 1992), rice (Sakamoto et al., 1992), wheat (Abulafia and Breiman, 1993) and maize (Winning et al., 1990) from top to bottom. Residues identical to the rice RPS11 amino acid sequence are shown by reverse contrast. Similar residues, those with non-polar or uncharged polar groups, are indicated by halftone color. An arrow indicates the cleavage site of N.plumbaginifolia ATPB (Chaumont and Boutry, 1995). Basic amino acid residues of rice RPS11 are indicated by $+$ above the alignments.

stop codon TAA in the mitochondrial rps11 sequence shows Gly-Cys-Leu-Gly-X-Ile-Lys-Gly-Arg (X indicates that no amino acid is encoded by the TAA codon), while Gly-Cys-Leu-Glu-Asp-Arg-Lys-Gly-Arg was encoded by the corresponding nuclear gene (Figure 3A). This result suggests that the internal termination codon of the mitochondrial rps II copy resulted from nucleotide substitution, rather than a deletion or insertion.

A 1.3 kb transcript was observed by RNA gel blot analysis of $poly(A)^+$ RNA and is different in size from the mitochondrial rps11 transcript (Figure 4C). The 1.3 kb transcript is similar to the size of the rice nuclear rps11 cDNA (1172 nt). Thus, both the mitochondrial and nuclear rps11 sequences were transcribed.

The 5'-terminal extension of rps11 encodes a peptide similar to the plant ATPB presequence

The deduced N-terminal amino acid sequence of RPS11 was used to search for homology in the sequence databases. High similarity was found with presequences for the

Fig. 4. DNA and RNA gel blot analyses of the rice nuclear gene for mitochondrial RPS11. (A) Schematic representation of the rice nuclear rps11 cDNA and its physical map. An ORF is shown by an open box. Positions of two intron sequences in the genomic DNA are marked by filled triangles. Probe DNA indicated by a thick bar was prepared from the cDNA, hence intron sequences are not included. The 0.7 kb PvuII-XhoI fragment from the nuclear rps11 cDNA was used as probe. (B) Autoradiogram of nuclear and mitochondrial DNAs from rice. Lanes 1-3 show DNA digested with BamHI, EcoRI and DraI respectively. Arrowheads in the nuclear DNA indicate signals derived from the mitochondrial DNA contamination. Size markers in kb are indicated on the left. (C) Poly $(A)^+$ RNA (3.9 µg) (lane 1), 9.6 µg total RNA (lane 2) and 5.0 µg mitochondrial RNA (lane 3) were separated on a 1.5% agarose–formaldehyde gel. Sizes of transcripts are indicated in the figure.

 β -subunit of the ATP synthase (ATPB) from plants (Figure 3B). The N-terminal region of mitochondrial RPS11 encoded by the rice nuclear genome had 84% sequence identity (11 out of 13 amino acid residues) with ATPB presequences from Nicotiana plumbaginifolia and rubber plant (Boutry and Chua, 1985; Chye and Tan, 1992), provided that the extended region was translated from the first ATG codon (Figure 2A). All of the differences in the first 15 residues were conservative changes in N.plumbaginifolia. A second region of amino acid sequence similarity corresponded to the C-terminal portion of the ATPB presequence. The numbers of amino acids between the two blocks were different among the plants. These two blocks of amino acid sequence similarity with plant ATPB presequences may suggest that the N-terminal extension of rice RPS11 is a targeting presequence and that the first Met codon in the rps11 reading frame is a start codon. No negatively charged amino acid residue was found in the region homologous with the ATPB presequences.

The N-terminal portion of ATPB presequences from rubber plant and N.plumbaginifolia, dicotyledonous plants, had a slightly higher extent of amino acid sequence similarity to the rice RPS11 presequence than those from

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monocotyledonous plants. In contrast, higher similarity was observed near the processing site of ATPB presequences from monocotyledonous plants than those from dicotyledonous plants.

The nuclear rpsll gene has two intron sequences

The copy number of the nuclear sequence with homology to the mitochondrial rps11 sequence was determined by DNA gel blot analysis. An autoradiogram showed that two, two and three bands were observed in BamHI-, EcoRland Dral-digested nuclear DNA respectively (Figure 4B). This suggests the presence of multiple copies of a homolog in the nuclear genome. Bands of $~6.0$ kb in the EcoRIdigested mitochondrial DNA were due to incomplete digestion.

Rice genomic clones were screened with rpsll cDNA as probe. Two different genomic clones, sll-l and s11-2, were identified and their entire sequences were determined. The sizes of restriction fragments in ^a DNA gel blot (Figure 4B) were the same as the fragment sizes calculated from nucleotide sequences of $s11-1$ and $s11-2$, showing that the copy number of rps11 homologs in the rice nuclear genome is two.

Clone s11-1 contained an identical nucleotide sequence to the cDNA sequence except for two additional intron sequences of 382 and 93 bp (Figure 2). An intron (intron 2) was identified around the junction of the DNA sequence encoding the extended peptide sequence and the RPSI1 conservative sequence. The first intron (intron 1) was observed upstream of intron 2 and in the middle of the DNA sequence encoding the extended peptide. The two intron sequences have typical characteristics of nuclear exon-intron junctures (5'-GT/AG-3'), i.e. the first dinucleotide of the intron is GT and the last is AG (Breathnach and Chambon, 1981). The region homologous with the ATPB presequence was encoded only by exon ¹ of sll-l.

Amino acid and nucleotide sequence similarity searches with exon 2 of s11-1 have failed to detect any homologous sequence in the database. The origin of the exon 2 sequence is unknown.

Two independent copies similar to mitochondrial rpsl1 are present in the nuclear genome

Sequence analysis of clone s11-2 showed 92% nucleotide and 94% amino acid homology to sll-1 in the conserved $rps11$ region (the sequence of s11-2 is not shown, but is available in DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under accession No. D85195). s11-2 had nucleotide sequence homology with the region downstream of the junction of intron ¹ and exon 2 of s11-1 (Figure 5). The upstream sequence from intron 1 of s11-1, however, is totally different from that of s1 1-2. An intron-like sequence was present in s1 1-2 at the same position as intron 2 of s11-1 with 79% nucleotide sequence similarity. However, the junction of the exonintron sequence of s11-2 was 5'-GG/AG-3', a deviation from the consensus splicing motif 5'-GT/AG-3'. Nucleotide sequence similarity extends to 615 bp downstream of the TAG stop codon of sll-1 (Figure 5).

The ⁵' portion of s 11-2 encodes a peptide sequence similar to the putative presequence of COXVb

To examine whether the ⁵' portion of s11-2, upstream of the region homologous with $s11-1$, is present elsewhere

Fig. 5. Dot matrix comparison of the nucleotide sequences of s11-1 and sll-2. A series of ¹⁰ nt where ^a minimum of ⁹ nt match the other sequences are plotted. Along each axis, the structure of the gene is schematically illustrated. Boxes with different tones indicate exon regions. Broken thin lines indicate intron and intron-related regions. Solid thin lines indicate the 5' and 3' flanking regions. The entire nucleotide sequences of ^s 11-1 and s1 1-2 are registered in DDBJ, EMBL and GenBank under the accession Nos D85382 and D85195 respectively.

and transcribed in the rice nuclear genome, plaque hybridization was performed against ^a rice cDNA library using the 0.8 kb XhoI-NotI fragment of sl1-2 as probe. Three clones were isolated and their nucleotide sequences were determined. Nucleotide sequence comparison showed that the ⁵' portion of the cDNA clone had 81% nucleotide sequence identity with the 5' portion of s11-2 over 249 nt, but the downstream sequence had no similarity with the $rps11$ region of s11-2 (Figure 6). No cDNA clones with an rps₁₁-related sequence have been isolated using this probe.

The isolated cDNA clone encoded an ORF of 507 bp and had a 24 bp poly(A) tract (Figure 7). Amino acid sequence comparison showed that the ³' portion of cDNA encoded a polypeptide with 49 and 35% amino acid sequence identity with the mature portion of human cytochrome ^c oxidase subunit Vb (COXVb) (Zeviani et al., 1988) and yeast cytochrome oxidase subunit IV (COXIV) (Maarse et al., 1984), respectively (Figure 8). The human $\cos Vb$ is an analogous subunit to yeast $\cos IV$ (Zeviani et al., 1988). The corresponding gene structure in plant species has not been unraveled to date. Thus, we assigned this cDNA clone as a rice coxVb gene based on the amino acid sequence similarity.

The deduced rice COXVb amino acid sequence had an N-terminal extension $($ >50 amino acids) as well as a conserved COXVb portion, suggesting that the N-terminal region is a presequence for mitochondrial targeting. Human COXVb has ^a ³¹ amino acid extension, but the sequence was dissimilar to the presequence of rice COXVb (Figure

Common presequence for different proteins

322 CCCACTTCCTCAGTCTAAAACCGCTTCACGTATG 287 S A A A S G A A G P A S L A R A A P L S T A A A A A F R R T S P L L S G D K P

Fig. 6. The 5' portion of s11-2 has high nucleotide sequence similarity with a cDNA encoding the putative signal peptide of rice COXVb protein and its 5' flanking region. Nucleotide sequence from s11-2 is aligned with the 5' portion of rice coxVb cDNA. Nucleotide sequence identity is indicated by asterisks. Nucleotide sequence numberings are in relation to the 5'-end of cloned fragments at position 1. The region in s11-2 corresponding to exon 2 of s11-1 is shaded.

Fig. 7. Nucleotide sequence of the rice coxVb cDNA. Positions of intron sequences identified in the corresponding genomic DNA sequence are marked by open triangles. Intron sequences of intron 1 to intron 5 are 98, 124, 3160, 94 and 147 bp respectively. A possible poly(A) addition signal AATAAA is underlined. The entire genomic coxVb gene sequence is registered in DDBJ, EMBL and GenBank under the accession No. D85381.

8). The deduced amino acid sequence of the N-terminal portion of $s11-2$ had 83% amino acid sequence similarity over 46 amino acids with the putative presequence of rice COXVb. These high nucleotide and amino acid similarities strongly suggest that the 5' portion sequence of s11-2 shares an evolutionary origin with the rice COXVb presequence.

Structure of the rice coxVb gene and transcript analysis

Complete nucleotide sequence analyses for liverwort and chlorophyte alga mitochondrial genomes have revealed that the coxVb gene is absent from their mitochondrial genomes (Oda et al., 1992; Wolff et al., 1994). These results suggest that migration of the coxVb gene into the nuclear genome and subsequent sequence loss from the mitochondrial genome took place long before the evolution of flowering plants.

Unexpectedly, the plant coxVb gene was picked up from

the rice nuclear genome. This occurred because the 5' portion of the coxVb reading frame has a very similar nucleotide sequence to the 5' portion of s11-2. The nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of rice $\cos Vb$ are shown in Figure 7. A consensus polyadenylation signal ($AATAAA$) is present 84 nt upstream of the $poly(A)$ tail. A genomic coxVb DNA was isolated from the rice library using the $\cos Vb$ cDNA as probe and the genomic DNA structure was determined. Five intron sequences of 98, 124, 3160, 94 and 147 bp were identified in the genomic sequence and their respective positions are indicated in Figure 7 (the entire genomic DNA sequence is not shown, but is available in the DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank sequence databank under accession No. D85381). A putative presequence is encoded by the first exon of $\cos Vb$ genomic DNA and the conserved COXVb peptide is encoded by the other five exon sequences. The 5' flanking sequence of the coxVb gene had 86% nucleotide sequence homology with $s11-2$ over 145 nt.

Fig. 8. Alignment of the amino acid sequences deduced from rice coxVb cDNA (this study), human coxVb (Zeviani et al., 1988), yeast coxIV (Maarse et al., 1984) and rice s11-2 (this study). The intron 2-like sequence of s11-2 is not considered for translation. Amino acids identical to rice COXVb are highlighted by inverse contrast. Intron positions of the rice coxVb genomic sequence are marked by filled triangles. The processing site of human COXVb is indicated by an arrow. The position corresponding to the intron I-exon ² juncture of sll-I is indicated by an open triangle.

DNA gel blot analysis was carried out to determine the copy number of the $\cos Vb$ gene. Two, two and three major bands together with several minor bands were observed in BamHI-, EcoRI- and DraI-digested rice nuclear DNA respectively. No hybridization to rice mitochondrial DNA was detected (Figure 9B). DNA sequence analysis together with physical mapping of the genomic coxVb gene indicated a single copy of the coxVb gene in the rice nuclear genome. RNA gel blot analysis showed that $\cos Vb$ was transcribed as a single transcript of 1.1 kb (Figure 9C).

Computer analysis showed that the putative presequence of coxVb has the potential to fold into an amphiphilic α -helix with charged and hydrophobic amino acid residues distributed on opposite sides, which may be important for receptor recognition (Tamm, 1991). None of amino acid residues in the N-terminal extension are acidic, in either the COXVb or RPS ¹¹ presequence.

Discussion

RNA editing in the mitochondrial rps11 transcript

Four RNA editing sites were detected in the transcripts of the mitochondrial rps11 pseudogene; one site creates a stop codon and the other three are silent changes. None of the four editing events change the predicted amino acid to a more conserved amino acid. This observation is unusual, because editing frequently changes specified amino acids to a more highly conserved residue (reviewed in Walbot, 1991). Because rice has an rps11 pseudogene in mitochondria and a functional RPSI1 protein can be supplied by the nuclear genome, ^a functional RNA editing machinery for the mitochondrial rps11 sequence is not necessary and the specificity of RNA editing may be lost. Alternatively, the mitochondrial pseudo-rps11 may have sequence matches with some guide RNAs used for other mitochondrial genes.

Pathway of rpsll gene migration from mitochondrion to nucleus

The process of organelle to nucleus gene transfer is thought to be ongoing in plant mitochondria (Brennicke et al., 1992). We have used the rps11 gene to investigate a detailed pathway of the gene transfer event and to study

Fig. 9. DNA and RNA gel blot analyses of the rice coxVb gene. (A) Schematic representation of the $\cos Vb$ cDNA sequence and the region used as probe. Positions of five intron sequences in genomic $\cos Vb$ are shown by filled triangles. (B) A DNA gel blot of rice nuclear and mitochondrial DNAs was hybridized with 32P-labeled probe. Restriction enzymes BamHI (lane 1), EcoRI (lane 2) and DraI (lane 3) were used for digestion of nuclear and mitochondrial DNA. Molecular size markers are shown on the left. (C) An RNA gel blot of $poly(A)^+$ RNA (lane 1) and total RNA (lane 2) was hybridized with the labeled probe. The size of the rice coxVb transcript is given on the right.

the mechanism of presequence acquisition. A schematic representation for a scenario of mitochondrial rps11 gene migration to the nuclear genome is shown in Figure 10 and is explained as follows.

1. The rpsl3 rpsll gene order in E.coli (Bedwell et al., 1985) is also conserved in the liverwort mitochondrial genome (Takemura et al., 1992). In the higher plant rice,

Fig. 10. A proposed model for the gene migration pathway of the rpsll gene from the mitochondrion to the nucleus and the relationship among conceptual ancestral counterparts. Numbers in the figure correspond to the numbers in the text.

an rps11 pseudogene was identified downstream of *nad1* exon d and upstream of rps4. The mitochondrial rps13 gene was located >5 kb downstream of the *rpsll* sequence in the rice mitochondrial genome, suggesting a gene order rearrangement between rps13 and rps11 and a subsequent gain of the necessary transcription signals.

2. The *rps11* sequence migrated from the mitochondrion to the nucleus. Whether the transfer was DNA mediated or RNA (edited RNA) mediated is not clear in the case of rpsll, because of large nucleotide substitutions between the mitochondrial and the nuclear $rps11$ copies, the absence of intron sequences in the mitochondrial rps11 copy and a lack of information about gene structure (including editing) of rps11 from other higher plants.

3. The rps11 sequence that originated in the mitochondrion acquired exon 2 and intron 2 sequences from the nuclear genome. The mechanism for exon 2 and intron 2 sequence integration upstream of the mitochondrionderived *rpsll* sequence and the role of exon 2 are unknown.

4. The exon 2, intron 2 and rps11 sequence was duplicated in the rice nuclear genome. The fact that both s11-1 and s11-2 sequences contain exon 2 and intron 2 in the same position strongly suggests the occurrence of a duplication in the nuclear genome, rather than independent transfer events from mitochondrion to nucleus. s1 1-2 has a high extent of nucleotide sequence homology with downstream sequences from the poly(A) addition site of sll-l. In addition, both sequences retain intron 2. The

evidence suggests the duplication has taken place via a DNA molecule rather than an RNA molecule as an intermediate.

5. One of the duplicated copies acquired the exon ¹ and intron ¹ sequence, forming sll-1. The region homologous with the ATPB presequence is encoded only by exon ¹ of sll-1. In addition, the ⁵' flanking sequences to exon ¹ of sll-1 and rice atpB (Sakamoto et al., 1992) have 93% nucleotide sequence identity (13 out of 14 nt). The evidence suggests that the RPS11 presequence has a genetical relationship with the ATPB presequences, and the DNA sequence coding presequence and its flanking sequence seems to result from duplication and recombination.

The other duplicated copy obtained a sequence coding for a putative presequence of $\cos Vb$, forming s11-2. High nucleotide sequence similarity (86% over 145 nt) was observed between 5' flanking regions of the $\cos Vb$ gene and sl1-2. This also strongly suggests involvement of duplication and subsequent recombination of the coxVb presequence region in forming sl1-2.

Gene migrations of *atpB* and *coxVb* from mitochondrion to nucleus took place long before the evolution of flowering plants. Rice still retains an rps11 pseudogene in its mitochondrial genome, suggesting that translocation of the rps11 sequence to the nucleus was a relatively recent event. The above results suggest that the $atpB$ and $coxVb$ sequences were a template for the 5' portion of s11-1 and s11-2 respectively. After gain of the presequence, DNA encoding the internal part of the s11-1 presequence may have been deleted or there may be ^a common ancestral sequence for RPS11 and ATPB presequences. The mechanism of transfer by duplication and recombination of already existing targeting sequences to new genes is, as yet, unexplained.

Other explanations could be that ^s ^I I-1 was the primitive structure and s11-2 was produced by duplication of the s11-1 sequence. It is less likely that s11-2 was a primitive form and sll-1 was produced by duplication of si1-2 sequence because sll-1 is apparently more homologous to the liverwort rpsll gene than s11-2, in nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences.

In any case, it is highly likely that duplication of the rpsll sequence occurred in the nuclear genome and acquisition of the COXVb and the ATPB-related presequences were independent. In addition, both sll-1 and sll-2 have sequences highly homologous with the ⁵' flanking sequences of the $atpB$ and the $coxVb$ genes respectively. This suggests sequences necessary for transcription and regulation signals may have originated from an ancestral counterpart sequence. We could not detect transcription of sl1-2 by two kinds of independent RT-PCR analyses using two sets of specific primer pairs (data not shown). Nucleotide sequence homology of s11-2 extends to \sim 200 bp upstream of the coxVb gene, however, the sequence further upstream is dissimilar. This sequence divergence in the upstream region, as well as sequence differences in the 200 bp region in $s11-2$, may lack signals. necessary for transcription. However, it is possible that ^s 11-2 was functional in the past and became non-functional or that this copy is strictly regulated in a tissue-specific manner.

6. Both the mitochondrial $rps11$ and the nuclear $rps11$

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sequences are transcribed in rice. The nuclear copy, s11-1, is functional, while the mitochondrial copy is a pseudogene. These results suggest that RPS11 production by the mitochondrial copy was terminated by introduction of the stop codon in the original coding region. This would have to occur after the nuclear rps11 gene was activated and could supply appropriate protein product to the mitochondrion. The results also show that inactivation of rice mitochondrial rpsll gene expression was at the translational level rather than by elimination of transcription. This is in contrast to the case of soybean coxII, which has an intact ORF in the mitochondrial genome, but is not transcribed in mitochondria (Covello and Gray, 1992). In addition, most legumes have coxII-related sequences in both the nucleus and the mitochondrion, although there is no evidence for simultaneous coxII transcription in both compartments (Nugent and Palmer, 1993). There might be many switches for the inactivation of mitochondrial gene expression and for the transition of gene expression from the mitochondrion to the nucleus.

Origin of the targeting signal for the gene recently migrated from mitochondria

A number of amino acid sequences for the N-terminal extensions of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial proteins have been analyzed so far. A notable result is that no significant sequence homology has been detected among the primary sequences (Hartl et al., 1989). One example is the bovine mitochondrial ATP synthase proteolipid subunit gene, which has two isoforms that encode identical mature proteins with highly diverged signal sequences (Gay and Walker, 1985). However, the primary structures of mitochondrial presequences do exhibit several common features; they are rich in positively charged residues, lack acidic amino acid residues and fold in amphiphilic α -helices (Hartl et al., 1989).

Baker and Schatz (1987) have reported that mitochondrial precursor proteins could arise as ^a result of DNA rearrangements that place potential mitochondrial presequences at the N-terminus of existing ORFs. Vassarotti et al. (1987) have reported that point mutations in the N-terminus of mature ATPB can generate ^a functional mitochondrial import sequence.

These cases could represent possible mechanisms for creation of a presequence for a gene newly introduced from mitochondria to the nucleus in plants. However, what we have found in this study is,a mechanism different from the previous two. One of the *rpsll* sequences in the nucleus acquired a presequence that is related to the presequence of ATPB. The other rps11 sequence obtained ^a presequence that is related to the presequence of COXVb. Both presequences are in-frame with the evolutionarily conserved RPS¹¹ sequence. Random recombination or random exon shuffling would be less likely to produce s11-1 and s11-2. How the integrated mitochondrial copy recruited ^a DNA sequence encoding ^a mitochondrial targeting presequence remains an important question.

Our most notable findings are that highly conserved presequences are present in different mitochondrial proteins and that a presequence-information was used to isolate a new mitochondrial protein gene. Such common use of one targeting presequence for different proteins may accelerate functional reconstruction of ^a gene that has migrated from mitochondria. Thus, our results provide a plausible explanation for the origin of the targeting signal of a gene recently transferred from the mitochondrion to the nucleus.

Materials and methods

Plant material and nucleic acid extraction

Etiolated seedlings of rice (Oryza sativa L, cv Nipponbare) were used as the plant material. Mitochondrial DNA, mitochondrial RNA and nuclear DNA were prepared as described by Umbeck and Gengenbach (1983), Stern and Newton (1986) and Rivin et al. (1982) respectively. Total RNAs were extracted by the method of Logemann et al. (1987) and $poly(A)^+$ RNAs were subsequently enriched by Oligotex-dT30 \leq super $>$ according to the manufacturer's instructions (Takara Shuzo, Kyoto, Japan).

Construction of mitochondrial DNA, genomic DNA and cDNA libraries

SalI-digested rice mitochondrial DNA was ligated into the pBluescript vector (Stratagene, CA) and ^a mitochondrial DNA library was made. A rice cDNA library was constructed in the Uni-ZAP XR cloning vector (Stratagene) with oligo(dT) primer for first strand synthesis. Rice nuclear DNA was digested partially with Sau3AI and resultant DNA fragments were size fractionated. The DNA fragments were ligated into the λ DASH II cloning vector (Stratagene) and ^a rice genomic DNA library was prepared.

Screening of the recombinant library

DNA fragments used as probes were recovered from low melting point agarose after electrophoresis (Sambrook et al., 1989) and probe DNAs were labeled with $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dCTP using a multilabeling system according to the supplier's instructions (Amersham International, Little Chalfont, UK). Approximately 600 clones of a rice mitochondrial Sall DNA library were screened by colony hybridization with the liverwort $rps11$ gene as probe (Takemura et al., 1992). Isolated mitochondrial rps11 sequence was used as probe for screening for a nuclear rps11 cDNA on -5×10^5 clones from the cDNA library. Then the isolated rps11 cDNA was used as probe for screening against 1×10^6 clones of the genomic library. An XhoI-NotI fragment of 0.8 kb from sl1-2 was used for screening the cDNA library $(5 \times 10^5$ clones). The NotI-XhoI fragment from coxVb cDNA was used as ^a probe for screening the genomic library $(5 \times 10^5$ clones). Colony and plaque hybridizations were performed as described (Sambrook et al., 1989). The final washing condition was $2 \times$ SSC/0.1% SDS at 42°C.

DNA sequencing

DNA was sequenced using single-stranded templates and the fluorescent T7 primer according to the manufacturer's instruction (Applied Biosystems, CA) and analyzed with the Applied Biosystems model 373A sequencer.

Computer analysis

Nucleotide and deduced peptide sequences were analyzed by the computer software GENETYX (Software Development Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan). The survey of nucleotide and amino acid sequence similarities was performed by the FASTA program (Pearson and Lipman, 1988) and BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990) through the DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank database.

Oligonucleotides

The primers synthesized were: primer 1, 5'-ATTCGTCAACAGAATT-CACATAGG-3'; primer 2, 5'-AAAAGAGTAAGAGCGAATTCATGG-3'. The primers were designed according to the rice mitochondrial rps11 sequence (this study) to harbor an EcoRI recognition site (underlined) for convenient cloning. Positions and orientations of the oligonucleotides are indicated in Figure IA.

RNA editing analysis

cDNAs were prepared as described by Kubo et al. (1996). Subsequent PCR amplification was performed using primers ¹ and 2 by denaturation at 92 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 min and 30 cycles of 92 $^{\circ}$ C for 1 min, 58 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 min and 72°C for 2 min, with a final extension at 72'C for ⁵ min. The resultant fragment was subsequently subcloned and sequenced.

RNA and DNA gel blot analyses

Total RNA (9.6 μ g), poly(A)⁺ RNA (3.9 μ g) and mitochondrial RNA $(5.0 \mu g)$ were denatured at 65°C for 5 min and electrophoresed through ^a 1.5% agarose gel containing formaldehyde. Transfer of RNA onto ^a Hybond- N^+ membrane (Amersham) and subsequent hybridization was carried out by the conventional method (Sambrook et al., 1989).

Total DNA (2.5 μ g) and mitochondrial DNA (0.5 μ g) were digested with BamHI, EcoRI or DraI and separated on ^a 0.7% agarose gel and blotted onto Hybond- N^+ membrane by the conventional capillary method (Sambrook et al., 1989).

A PvuII-XhoI fragment of 0.7 kb from the rice rpsll cDNA and ^a Not -XhoI fragment of 0.7 kb from the rice $\cos Vb$ cDNA were used as probes for hybridization analyses. The final washing condition for the membrane was $0.1 \times$ SSC/0.1% SDS at 42°C.

Nucleotide accession number

The nucleotide sequences reported in this paper will appear in the DDBJ, EMBL and GenBank nucleotide sequence database under accession Nos D85128 (mitochondrial rps11 pseudogene), D85382 (s11-1 genomic sequence), D85195 (s11-2 genomic sequence) and D85381 (coxVb genomic sequence).

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