

Rescuing a Dysfunctional Homologue of a Yeast Glycyl-tRNA Synthetase Gene

Shun-Jia Chen, Chih-Ying Lee, Szu-Ting Lin, and Chien-Chia Wang*

Department of Life Sciences, National Central University, 300 Jung-da Rd., Jung-li 32001, Taiwan

ABSTRACT: The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* contains two distinct nuclear glycyl-tRNA synthetase (GlyRS) genes, *GRS1* and *GRS2*. *GRS1* is dual functional in that possesses both cytoplasmic and mitochondrial activities, whereas *GRS2* is pseudogene-like. GlyRS1 and GlyRS2 are highly similar on the whole but are distinguished by a lysine-rich insertion domain of 44 amino acid residues, present only in GlyRS1. We herein present evidence that whereas the insertion domain is dispensable for the complementary activity of *GRS1 in vivo*, deletion of this domain from GlyRS1 reduced its aminoacylation activity by up to 9-fold. On the other hand, fusion of a constitutive *ADH* promoter to *GRS2* failed to confer a functional phenotype to the gene, but further fusion of *ARC1* (a yeast gene encoding a tRNA-binding protein, Arc1p) to this hybrid gene successfully rescued its



activity. Most intriguingly, purified GlyRS2 retained a substantial level of aminoacylation activity. Fusion of Arc1p to this enzyme further enhanced its activity and stability. These findings highlight not only the structural integrity of the pseudogene-encoded enzyme but also the necessity of obtaining an auxiliary tRNA-binding domain for functioning of a yeast tRNA synthetase.

Faithful decoding of mRNA into protein depends on accurate aminoacylation of tRNA by aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) and specific codon/anticodon base pairings. AaRSs are a structurally diverse group of enzymes, each of which catalyzes the attachment of a specific amino acid to its cognate tRNA. The resultant aminoacyl-tRNA is then delivered to ribosomes for protein translation. Typically, there are 20 aaRSs in prokaryotes, one for each amino acid. $^{1-3}$ In contrast, eukaryotes, such as yeast, possess two distinct sets of aaRSs, one localized to the cytoplasm and the other to mitochondria. Each set aminoacylates the isoaccepting tRNAs within its respective cellular compartment and is sequestered from isoacceptors confined in other compartments. Cytoplasmic and mitochondrial forms of a given tRNA synthetase are nearly always encoded by two distinct nuclear genes, regardless of the cellular compartment in which they are active. However, four Saccharomyces cerevisiae genes, ALA1 (which encodes alanyl-tRNA synthetase),⁴ GRS1 (which encodes glycyl-tRNA synthetase (GlyRS)),⁵ HTS1 (which encodes histidyl-tRNA synthetase),⁶ and VAS1 (which encodes valyltRNA synthetase),⁷ specify both the mitochondrial and cytosolic forms through alternative initiation of translation from two inframe initiator codons.

Many yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs possess an N- or C-terminal polypeptide extension, known as an appended domain, which is absent from their prokaryotic counterparts.⁸ Many of these domains are rich in lysine residues and are involved in tRNA binding, examples of which include glutaminyl-,⁹ arginyl-,¹⁰ and valyl-tRNA synthetases.¹¹ These domains act in *cis* as an auxiliary tRNA-binding domain and enhance the tRNA-binding affinity of

the enzymes. In contrast, appended domains of some yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs participate in protein-protein interactions, examples of which include glutamyl-, methionyl-, and seryl-tRNA synthetases. Glutamyl- and methionyl-tRNA synthetases form a ternary complex with an aaRS cofactor, Arc1p (a nonspecific tRNA-binding protein encoded by ARC1), through their N-terminal appended domains,¹² while seryl-tRNA synthetase forms a binary complex with the peroxisome biogenesis-related factor, Pex21p, through its C-terminal appended domain.¹³ These interactions were also shown to enhance the tRNAbinding and aminoacylation activities of the associated enzymes. Moreover, many of the appended domains contain one or more nuclear localization signals,¹⁴ which are believed to target synthetases to the nucleus. It was shown that nuclear aminoacylation serves as a functional checkpoint for the maturation or integrity of tRNAs to be exported to the cytosol.^{15,16}

Pseudogenes are dysfunctional homologues of functional genes that have lost their protein-coding ability or are otherwise no longer expressed in cells.¹⁷ Some pseudogenes are devoid of an active promoter and introns, while others have mutations in their coding sequences leading to stop codons or frameshifts. In *S. cerevisiae*, two distinct nuclear GlyRS genes were identified. The first, *GRS1*, is dual functional in that encodes both cytoplasmic and mitochondrial forms of GlyRS through alternative initiation of translation, whereas the second, *GRS2*, is dispensable

Received:	July 13, 2011					
Accepted:	August 30, 2011					
Published:	August 30, 2011					

ACS Chemical Biology



122 LKGDQEARGLVEDANAAAKDDAEKKKRKKKVKQIKAVKLDDDV 165

Figure 1. Comparison of various eukaryotic GlyRS sequences. Although the catalytic cores of GlyRS1 and GlyRS2 were considerably similar to each other, an insertion domain of 44 amino acid residues was present in GlyRS1 but not in GlyRS2 or other eukaryotic homologues. Relative positions of the class II-defining sequence motifs are marked at the top of the schematic: motifs 1 (amino acid residues 48–80), 2 (amino acid residues 251–279), and 3 (amino acid residues 503–522). Embedded inside the insertion domain of yeast GlyRS1 is a highly conserved sequence motif, KKKRKKK (<u>underlined</u>). ScGlyRS1, GlyRS1 of *S. cerevisiae*; HsGlyRS, GlyRS of *Homo sapiens*; AtGlyRS, GlyRS of *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

for growth.^{5,18,19} Both genes encode an α_2 -type protein. *GRS1* is constitutively expressed, whereas *GRS2* is essentially silent under normal growth conditions. It was thus hypothesized that *GRS2* is a pseudogene.¹⁸ These findings prompted us to ask whether this dysfunctional gene can be converted to a functional copy *via* certain genetic modifications or recombinations. Results presented herein show that *GRS2* is poor in both transcription and translation and therefore cannot act as a functional gene even under the control of a constitutive *ADH* promoter. However, fusion of *ARC1* to this *ADH* promoter-driven gene successfully rescued its activity. Surprisingly, the purified recombinant GlyRS2 was fairly active *in vitro*. These data suggest that, like GlyRS1, GlyRS2 contains a functional active site for aminoacylation. The biological relevance of this finding to discovery of the true functions of a hypothetical pseudogene is further discussed.

Results and Discussion. A Yeast-Specific Insertion Domain. Despite obvious differences in functional potentials, yeast GlyRS1 and GlyRS2 share considerable sequence similarity on the whole (64.3% identity), and both possess a class II-defining architecture. Further analysis of these two proteins revealed an insertion domain of 44 amino acid residues (N-terminal amino acid residues 122–165), which was present in GlyRS1 but not in GlyRS2. Moreover, this domain appeared to be yeast-specific. It was conserved in almost all yeast GlyRS sequences, such as those from Candida albicans, Schizosaccharomyces pombe, and Yarrowia *lipolytica*, but was absent from other eukaryotic GlyRS sequences, such as those from human and Arabidopsis (Figure 1). This domain was highly enriched in charged amino acid residues (\sim 50%), including 10 negatively charged (7 aspartate and 3 glutamate residues) and 13 positively charged residues (2 arginine and 11 lysine residues). In particular, lysine residues contributed up to 25% of its total amino acid composition. As a result of the high density of lysine residues, the insertion domain is expected to act as an auxiliary tRNA-binding domain. Embedded inside this insertion domain was a short motif, KKKRKKK, which was highly conserved in the insertion domains of yeast GlyRSs. In contrast to the yeast glycine enzymes, cytoplasmic GlyRSs of human and Arabidopsis possessed an N-terminal appended domain, instead of an insertion domain (Figure 1).

	Construct				Tangat gana			Cloni	Co	Complementing			
				Target gene			c	vector		_	Cyt	Mit	_
	1	pAD	н	H None				pAD		-	-		
	2	pKJ	111	GRS1				pAD		+	+		
	3	pSJ4	133		GRS2			pAD		-	-		
	4	pBC	94		GRS1(ΔID)			pAD		+	+		
_	5	pSJ4	171		GRS2(ID)			pAD		-	-		
	6	pSJ4	135		ARC1-GRS2			pAD		+	-		
	7	pSJ5	SJ517 MTS-ARC1-GRS2						2 pADH			+	
	8	8 pSJ530 MTS-GRS				2	pADH			-	-		
	9	9 pSJ436 ID-G				GRS2		pADH			-	-	
d	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9						L	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9					
u	Gly	rs {	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	-] -]	
		I	50	-	50	-	50	50	50	50		7	
	PGF											-	
			50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	(µg)	

Figure 2. Complementation assays for yeast GlyRS genes and their derivatives. Constructs bearing yeast GlyRS genes were transformed into a *grs1*⁻ strain of *S. cerevisiae*, and the ability of the transformants to grow on 5-FOA and YPG was tested. (a) Summary of constructs and their complementary activities. The symbols "+" and "-" denote positive and negative complementation, respectively. *mit*, mitochondrial; *cyt*, cyto-plasmic. (b) Complementation assays for cytoplasmic activity on a 5-FOA plate. (c) Complementation assays for mitochondrial activity on a 5-FOA plate. (d) Assay of protein expression by Western blotting. Upper panel, GlyRS; lower panel, PGK (as a control). Indicated at the bottom of the blots are the amounts of protein extracts loaded into the gel (2 µg for GlyRS1 and GlyRS1(Δ ID); 50 µg for GlyRS2 and its derivatives). The numbers 1–9 (circled) in panels b–d represent the constructs shown in panel a.

Converting GRS2 into a Functional Gene. As GRS2 is essentially silent under the control of its native promoter,¹⁸ all GlyRS genes and their derivatives used in this assay were cloned in a pADH vector (a high-copy-number yeast shuttle vector with a constitutive ADH promoter and a short sequence coding for a His₆ tag) and expressed under the control of a constitutive ADH promoter. To investigate whether the insertion domain is essential for the complementary activity of GRS1 in vivo, a DNA sequence encoding this domain was deleted from GRS1, and the ability of the resultant construct to rescue growth defects of a grs1⁻ strain of S. cerevisiae, RJT3/II-1, was tested. Figure 2 shows that deletion of the insertion domain from GRS1 had little effect

Я



Figure 3. Analysis of the cellular localization of GlyRS2-GFP and MTS-GlyRS2-GFP by fluorescence microscopy. *GRS2-GFP* and *MTS-GRS2-GFP* were first transformed into INVSc1. The resultant transformants were then treated with a mitochondrial tracker dye or DAPI and visualized under fluorescence microscopy. A mitochondrial tracker and DAPI were used to label mitochondria and nuclei, respectively.

on its complementary activity. The deletion construct rescued the growth defects of the knockout stain on both 5-FOA and YPG with an efficiency comparable to that of the wildtype (see $GRS1(\Delta ID)$). Thus, regardless of whether the insertion domain is actually involved in tRNA binding, removal of this domain did not eliminate the enzyme's aminoacylation activity. On the other hand, insertion of this domain into the corresponding position or the 5' end of GRS2 (see GRS2(ID) and ID-GRS2) failed to convert the pseudogene into a functional gene. Neither hybrid constructs supported the growth of the knockout strain on 5-FOA or YPG. Note that because a yeast cell cannot survive on glycerol, a nonfermentable carbon source, without functional mitochondria, the cotransformants did not grow on the YPG (yeast extract-peptone-glycerol) plates unless a functional mitochondrial GlyRS was generated from the test plasmid.

We next tested whether ARC1, a yeast gene encoding a nonspecific tRNA-binding protein, Arc1p, could rescue the complementary activity of GRS2. Pursuant to this objective, ARC1 was fused in-frame to the 5' end of GRS2, and the complementary activity of the resultant construct was assayed. Remarkably, ARC1-GRS2 successfully rescued the growth defect of the knockout strain on 5-FOA, albeit to a lesser extent than that of GRS1 (see ARC1-GRS2 in Figure 2). This result argues that GlyRS2 per se retained a competent core active site, and its activity could somehow be enhanced by fusion to Arc1p. Just as remarkable was the finding that the ARC1 fusion construct could rescue the growth defect of the knockout strain on YPG upon further fusion of a sequence encoding a mitochondrial targeting signal (see *MTS-ARC1-GRS2*). Taken together, these data suggest that Arc1p-GlyRS2 can recognize both cytoplasmic and mitochondrial isoaccepting tRNAs^{Gly}. As Arc1p is itself a nonspecific tRNA-binding protein, it is conceivable that the GlyRS2 moiety determined the tRNA specificity (k_{cat} discrimination) of the fusion enzyme.

To examine the relative protein expression levels of *GRS1* and *GRS2* under the control of a constitutive *ADH* promoter, a Western blotting analysis was carried out. The aforementioned constructs were first transformed into a *S. cerevisiae* strain, INVSc1, and protein extracts were prepared from the resultant transformants and analyzed by Western blotting using an anti-His₆ tag antibody. As shown in Figure 2d, the protein expression level of *ARC1-GRS2* was slightly higher (~1.5-fold) than that of *GRS2* but much lower (~16-fold) than that of *GRS2*, but only to a relatively limited level. Overall, *GRS2* and its fusion constructs had protein expression levels 16- to 25-fold lower than that of *GRS2* could rescue the growth defect of the null allele with such a low level of protein expression (Figure 2b and c).

Cellular Localization of GlyRS2. To explore the cellular localization of GlyRS2 and MTS-GlyRS2, a DNA sequence encoding the green fluorescence protein (GFP) was inserted in-frame at the 3' end of GRS2 and MTS-GRS2, resulting in GRS2-GFP and MTS-GRS2-GFP, respectively. Note that these constructs were also expressed by a constitutive ADH promoter. The resultant constructs were transformed into INVSc1, and the cellular localization of these two fusion proteins was examined under fluorescence microscopy. As shown in Figure 3, GlyRS2-GFP was exclusively localized in the cytoplasm, while MTS-GlyRS2-GFP was colocalized with a mitochondrial tracker dye in mitochondria. Thus, GlyRS2, when expressed, existed in the cytoplasm but could be targeted to mitochondria by fusion to a mitochondrial targeting signal. This result is essentially consistent with the observation that ARC1-GRS2 and MTS-ARC1-GRS2 complemented the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial defects, respectively, of the null allele (Figure 2b and c).

Protein Stability of GlyRS2 and Arc1p-GlyRS2. To investigate whether Arc1p enhanced the protein stability of GlyRS2, which in turn increased its steady-state level and complementary activity, a cycloheximide-chase assay was performed. GRS2 and ARC1-GRS2 were first 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 were transformed into INVSc1, and cultures of the transformants were then induced with galactose for 2 h, followed by the addition of cycloheximide to terminate protein synthesis. Cells were harvested at various intervals following cycloheximide treatment and prepared for Western blotting analyses using an anti-His₆ tag antibody. As shown in Figure 4a, Arc1p-GlyRS2 was much more stable than GlyRS2. Protein levels of GlyRS2 dropped sharply after cycloheximide treatment compared to those of the Arc1p fusion protein under similar conditions. Up to \sim 50% of GlyRS2 was degraded after 4 h of cycloheximide treatment, but only 10% of Arc1p-GlyRS2 was degraded within the same time period. Thus, Arc1p significantly enhanced the protein stability of GlyRS2, which may at least partially account for the positive complementary activity of Arc1p-GlyRS2.

The protein stability of GlyRS1 and GlyRS1(Δ ID) was analyzed following a similar approach. As shown in Figure 4a, GlyRS1 was more stable than GlyRS1(Δ ID). In fact, GlyRS1 was



Figure 4. Degradation and aminoacylation assays for GlyRS1, GlyRS2, and their derivatives. a) Degradation assay. T_0 , T_1 , T_2 , T_4 , and T_8 denote 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, and 8 h, respectively, after the addition of cycloheximide. Upper panel, GlyRS; lower panel, PGK (as a loading control). Quantitative data for relative levels of GlyRSs are shown as a separate diagram below the Western blots. (b) Aminoacylation assay. Aminoacylation activities of the purified recombinant GlyRSs were determined by measuring the relative amounts of ³H-glycine that were incorporated into tRNA using a liquid scintillation counter. The final concentration of GlyRS used in the reactions was 50 nM.

the most stable one among the four proteins examined. Its protein levels remained almost constant (~90%) throughout the entire time period tested. In contrast, GlyRS1(Δ ID) was considerably stable in the early hours (0–4 h) but became less stable at later time points (8–12 h). This result suggests that deletion of the insertion domain impaired the protein stability of GlyRS1 to some extent. Nonetheless, such a deletion had little effect on the enzyme's complementary activity *in vivo* (Figure 2).

Aminoacylation Activity of Purified GlyRSs. To compare the aminoacylation activity of these enzymes, His_6 -tagged GlyRS1, GlyRS1(Δ ID), GlyRS2, and Arc1p-GlyRS2 were purified to homogeneity using Ni-NTA column chromatography¹¹ or in

combination with SP-Sepharose column chromatography. To this end, the aforementioned pGAL1-based constructs were individually transformed into INVSc1, and cultures of the resultant transformants were then induced with galactose for 4 h. After induction, cells were harvested, and His₆-tagged enzymes were purified according to standard protocols. As shown in Figure 4b, deletion of the insertion domain from GlyRS1 significantly reduced its aminoacylation activity (~9-fold) (compare GlyRS1 and GlyRS1(Δ ID)). Surprisingly, GlyRS2, which was expected to lose all or at least the majority of its biochemical activity, retained a substantial level of aminoacylation activity *in vitro*, ~20% relative to that of GlyRS1. Moreover, GlyRS2 appeared to have aminoacylation activity slightly higher than that of GlyRS1(Δ ID) when they were tested at the same enzyme concentration *in vitro* (compare GlyRS2 and GlyRS1-(Δ ID)). Conceivably, GlyRS2 is not as "inactive" as previously anticipated, and the "pseudogene-like" phenotype of *GRS2* is actually caused by its poor protein expression *in vivo*. Consistent with our assumption, fusion of Arc1p to GlyRS2 enhanced its aminoacylation activity by ~2-fold (compare GlyRS2 and Arc1p-GlyRS2). Thus, Arc1p increased the protein stability and also the catalytic activity of GlyRS2 (Figure 4), which might provide a rational basis for the positive complementary activity of *ARC1-GRS2 in vivo* (Figure 2).

Many yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs contain an N- or C-terminal appended domain. These domains act through different mechanisms to help the synthetases recruit tRNA to their vicinity for aminoacylation. Although GlyRS1 lacks such a domain, it contains a lysine-rich insertion domain (Figure 1). As this domain is located at a position that was predicted to interact with the acceptor stem of its cognate tRNA,²⁰ it might help the enzyme overcome differences between the acceptor stems of mitochondrial and cytoplasmic isoaccepting tRNAs^{Gly} by providing more electrostatic interactions. Evidence presented here suggests that the insertion domain is important, but not essential, for the catalytic activity of the enzyme (Figure 4b). It remains unclear whether this deletion impaired recognition of the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial tRNAs^{Gly} to similar extents. Paradoxically, deletion of such an important domain had little effect on the enzyme's complementary activity in vivo. The deletion mutant rescued the growth defects of the knockout strain with a fairly high efficiency (Figure 2). It appears that a relatively low level of glycylation activity is sufficient to confer a near wild-type growth phenotype to the null allele. A similar scenario was observed for yeast *ALA1*¹¹ and *VAS1* genes,²¹ indicative of a common feature of yeast aaRSs. Such a feature may also account for the observation that ARC1-GRS2, while expressed at a considerably low level, could rescue the growth defect of the knockout strain (Figure 2). These and other findings led us to propose that GRS2 is defective in both transcription and translation under normal conditions.

E. coli glutaminyl-tRNA synthetase per se cannot substitute for its yeast homologue in vivo, but can do so when it is fused to a nonspecific tRNA-binding domain, such as Arc1p or the appended domain of yeast glutaminyl- or valyl-tRNA synthetase.^{9,11,22} Likewise, E. coli valyl-tRNA synthetase can be converted into a functional yeast enzyme.²¹ In these instances, Arc1p and the appended domains act as an auxiliary tRNA-binding domain and enhance the tRNA-binding affinity of the associated enzymes. It appears that acquiring a cis-acting auxiliary tRNA-binding domain is crucial for functioning of yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs.^{21,23} In accordance with this hypothesis, nearly all yeast cytoplasmic aaRSs possess an appended or insertion domain. It is noteworthy that while E. coli enzymes used in these studies poorly recognized yeast tRNA, they are fully functional wild-type enzymes responsible for protein translation in their native host. From this perspective, results presented herein are of particular interest. GRS2, as a pseudogene, can be readily converted to a functional copy via a similar approach (Figure 2). Most intriguingly, the protein product encoded by this otherwise silent gene retained a substantial level of aminoacylation activity in vitro (Figure 4b). Perhaps, GRS2 is not as inactive as previously anticipated and plays a role under certain special conditions.

METHODS

Plasmid Construction. Cloning of the wild-type *GRS1* and *GRS2* genes of *S. cerevisiae* 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) followed a protocol described earlier.⁵ Briefly, a DNA sequence containing the open reading frame of *GRS1* (-75 to +2001 bp relative to ATG1) was amplified by a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as an EagI-SaII fragment (\sim 2100 bp) using a pair of gene-specific primers. The forward primer (with an inserted EagI site) was annealed to -90 to -60 bp of this gene, while the reverse primer (with an inserted *SaII* site) was annealed to +1986 to +2015 bp. After restriction enzyme digestion, the PCR fragment was cloned into the EagI/*SaII* site of pADH. Cloning of *GRS2* followed a similar protocol.

To delete the insertion domain from GlyRS1, the DNA sequences flanking the insertion domain of GRS1 were amplified as two independent fragments (an EagI-SpeI fragment containing -75 to +366 bp and an SpeI-SalI fragment containing +493 to +2001 bp) and were cloned together into pADH, resulting in $GRS1(\Delta ID)$ (pBC69). To introduce the insertion domain of GlyRS1 into the corresponding position in GlyRS2, a SpeI site was first created in GRS2 between +369 and +370 bp, resulting in GRS2-SpeI. The DNA sequence encoding the insertion domain of GlyRS1 (+364 to +495 bp) was then amplified by PCR as a SpeI-SpeI fragment and cloned into the SpeI site of GRS2-SpeI, resulting in GRS2(ID) (pSJ471). To fuse the DNA sequence coding for Arc1p, the mitochondrial targeting signal of yeast valyl-tRNA synthetase (+1 to +138 bp of VAS1), or the insertion domain (+364 to +495 bp of GRS1) to the 5' end of GRS2, these sequences were independently amplified by PCR as EagI-EagI fragments and cloned into the EagI site at the 5' end of GRS2, resulting in ARC1-GRS2 (pSJ435), MTS-GRS2 (pSJ530), and ID-GRS2 (pSJ436), respectively.

To fuse the green fluorescence protein (GFP) to GlyRS2, a DNA sequence encoding the GFP was PCR-amplified as a *SalI-SalI* fragment and isolated. After restriction enzyme digestion, the PCR-amplified DNA fragment was inserted in-frame at the 3' end of *GRS2*, resulting in *GRS2-GFP*. Construction of *MTS-GRS2-GFP* followed a similar approach. GFP assays followed a protocol described elsewhere.¹² Western blotting followed a protocol described earlier.¹¹ Complementation assays for the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial functions of *GRS1* were previously described.⁵

Degradation Assay. To determine the turnover of proteins of interest, GRS2 and ARC1-GRS2 were first cloned in pGAL1 (a highcopy-number yeast shuttle vector with an inducible GAL1 promoter and a short sequence coding for a His₆ tag), and the resultant constructs were then transformed into INVSc1 (*MATa*, $his3\Delta 1$, leu2, trp1-289, ura3-52, $MAT\alpha$, his $3\Delta 1$, leu2, trp 1-289, and ura 3-52) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Transformants containing these constructs were grown in medium lacking leucine with 2% raffinose to a cell density of $\sim 1.0 A_{600}$ and were then induced with 2% galactose for 2 h. Afterward, cells were washed twice and then grown in medium containing 2% glucose and $100 \,\mu \text{g mL}^{-1}$ cycloheximide but lacking leucine. Cells were harvested at 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, and 8 h after the addition of cycloheximide and lysed. Samples (40 μ g) of the cell extracts were resolved on 10% polyacrylamide and electrophoresed at 100 V for \sim 1 h, and the proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane and immunoblotted with a horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-His₆ tag antibody (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). Quantitative data were obtained from three independent experiments and normalized by phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK).

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⁻¹ bovine serum albumin (BSA), 100 μ M unfractionated yeast tRNA (Boehringer

Mannheim, Germany), and 20 μ M glycine (4 μ M ³H-glycine; Moravek Biochemicals, Brea, CA). The specific activity of ³H-glycine used was 35.0 Ci mmol⁻¹. Purification of His₆-tagged GlyRS or its derivatives was as previously described.²⁴ Determination of active protein concentrations by active site titration was as previously described.²⁵ Reactions were quenched by spotting 10- μ L aliquots of the reaction mixture onto Whatman filters (Maidstone, U.K.) soaked in 5% trichloroacetic acid and 1 mM glycine. Filters were washed three times for 15 min each in icecold 5% trichloroacetic acid before liquid scintillation counting. Data were obtained from three independent experiments and averaged. Error bars indicate ($\pm 2 \times$ standard deviation).

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: dukewang@cc.ncu.edu.tw.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by grants (NSC97-2311-B-008-003-MY3 to C.-C.W. and L.S.Y. and NSC98-3114-B-008-002 to C.C.W.) from the National Science Council (Taipei, Taiwan).

REFERENCES

(1) Burbaum, J. J., and Schimmel, P. (1992) Amino acid binding by the class I aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases: role for a conserved proline in the signature sequence. *Protein Sci.* 1, 575–581.

(2) Carter, C. W., Jr. (1993) Cognition, mechanism, and evolutionary relationships in aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 62, 715–748.

(3) Giegé, R., Sissler, M., and Florentz, C. (1998) Universal rules and idiosyncratic features in tRNA identity. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 26, 5017–5035.

(4) Tang, H. L., Yeh, L. S., Chen, N. K., Ripmaster, T., Schimmel, P., and Wang, C. C. (2004) Translation of a yeast mitochondrial tRNA synthetase initiated at redundant non-AUG codons. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279, 49656–49663.

(5) Chang, K. J., and Wang, C. C. (2004) Translation initiation from a naturally occurring non-AUG codon in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279, 13778–13785.

(6) Natsoulis, G., Hilger, F., and Fink, G. R. (1986) The *HTS1* gene encodes both the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial histidine tRNA synthetases of *S. cerevisiae. Cell* 46, 235–243.

(7) Chatton, B., Walter, P., Ebel, J. P., Lacroute, F., and Fasiolo, F. (1988) The yeast *VAS1* gene encodes both mitochondrial and cytoplasmic valyl-tRNA synthetases. *J. Biol. Chem.* 263, 52–57.

(8) Mirande, M. (1991) Aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase family from prokaryotes and eukaryotes: structural domains and their implications. *Prog. Nucleic Acid Res. Mol. Biol.* 40, 95–142.

(9) Wang, C. C., and Schimmel, P. (1999) Species barrier to RNA recognition overcome with nonspecific RNA binding domains. *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 16508–16512.

(10) Frugier, M., Moulinier, L., and Giegé, 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.

(11) Chang, C. P., Lin, G., Chen, S. J., Chiu, W. C., Chen, W. H., and Wang, C. C. (2008) Promoting the formation of an active synthetase/ tRNA complex by a nonspecific tRNA-binding domain. *J. Biol. Chem.* 283, 30699–30706.

(12) Simos, G., Segref, A., Fasiolo, F., Hellmuth, K., Shevchenko, A., Mann, M., and Hurt, E. C. (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.

(13) Godinic, V., Mocibob, M., Rocak, S., Ibba, M., and 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. (14) Schimmel, P., and Wang, C. C. (1999) Getting tRNA synthetases into the nucleus. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 24, 127–128.

(15) Lund, E., and Dahlberg, J. E. (1998) Proofreading and aminoacylation of tRNAs before export from the nucleus. *Science 282*, 2082– 2085.

(16) Sarkar, S., Azad, A. K., and Hopper, A. K. (1999) Nuclear tRNA aminoacylation and its role in nuclear export of endogenous tRNAs in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 96*, 14366–14371.

(17) Vanin, E. F. (1985) Processed pseudogenes: characteristics and evolution. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* 19, 253–272.

(18) Turner, R. J., Lovato, M., and 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.

(19) Chen, S. J., Lin, G., Chang, K. J., Yeh, L. S., and Wang, C. C. (2008) Translational efficiency of a non-AUG initiation codon is significantly affected by its sequence context in yeast. *J. Biol. Chem.* 283, 3173–3180.

(20) Logan, D. T., Mazauric, M. H., Kern, D., and Moras, D. (1995) Crystal structure of glycyl-tRNA synthetase from *Thermus thermophilus*. *EMBO J.* 14, 4156–4167.

(21) Chiu, W. C., Chang, C. P., and Wang, C. C. (2009) Evolutionary basis of converting a bacterial tRNA synthetase into a yeast cytoplasmic or mitochondrial enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.* 284, 23954–23960.

(22) Whelihan, E. F., and Schimmel, P. (1997) Rescuing an essential enzyme-RNA complex with a non-essential appended domain. *EMBO J.* 16, 2968–2974.

(23) Chiu, W. C., Chang, C. P., Wen, W. L., Wang, S. W., and Wang, C. C. (2010) *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* possesses two paralogous valyl-tRNA synthetase genes of mitochondrial origin. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 27, 1415–1424.

(24) Chen, S. J., Ko, C. Y., Yen, C. W., and Wang, C. C. (2009) Translational efficiency of redundant ACG initiator codons is enhanced by a favorable sequence context and remedial initiation. *J. Biol. Chem.* 284, 818–827.

(25) Fersht, A. R., Ashford, J. S., Bruton, C. J., Jakes, R., Koch, G. L., and Hartley, B. S. (1975) Active site titration and aminoacyl adenylate binding stoichiometry of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases. *Biochemistry* 14, 1–4.