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Sequence and expression of a fused mitochondrial gene, associated with *Petunia* cytoplasmic male sterility, compared with normal mitochondrial genes in fertile and sterile plants

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The mitochondrial genome of plants specifies the trait known as cytoplasmic male sterility (CMS). By comparing recombinant mitochondrial genomes present in Petunia CMS and fertile somatic hybrids, a mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) region associated with the sterility phenotype was identified. This CMS-associated mtDNA region carries a gene fusion (termed Pcf) which contains coding region homologous to an ATP synthase proteolipid gene (atp9), a cytochrome oxidase subunit II gene (coxII), and an unidentified reading frame, designated urf S. The 5' flanking sequences are identical to those of a normal atp9 gene in the CMS mtDNA; the source of the 3' flanking sequences has not been identified. S1 nuclease protection experiments have identified three Pcf gene transcripts, whose termini map to the same 5' locations as three transcripts of two normal atp9 genes in CMS and fertile plants. In a fertile Petunia line, an additional transcribed atp9 gene with a divergent 5' flanking region was identified. Although transcript abundance of homologous atp9 genes did not vary significantly between leaves and anthers in CMS and fertile lines, Pcf gene transcripts were four to five times higher in anthers than in leaves of the CMS plants.

1. MITOCHONDRIAL GENOMES SPECIFY CYTOPLASMIC MALE STERILITY (CMS)

In a small number of the plant species that exhibit cytoplasmically inherited male sterility, the mitochondrial genome rather than the chloroplast genome has been conclusively identified as the coding location of this trait. Somatic cell fusion was required to discover which organelle's DNA was associated with cytoplasmic male sterility, because the organelle genomes are inherited together through the maternal line in most plants.

Parental chloroplast genomes usually segregate and mitochondrial genomes recombine after protoplast fusion (reviewed in Hanson 1984; Hanson & Conde 1985; Hanson et al. 1985). Somatic hybrid plants regenerated after fusion of protoplasts from CMS and normal fertile plants may contain one or the other parental chloroplast genome and recombinant mitochondrial genomes. In Nicotiana, Petunia, and Brassica somatic hybrids, chloroplast genomes have been found to segregate independently of the CMS trait (Belliard et al. 1978; Pelletier et al. 1983; Clark et al. 1985). For example, in Petunia, fertile somatic hybrids were observed to carry the chloroplast genome from the CMS parent and CMS somatic hybrids carried the chloroplast genome from the fertile parent (Clark et al. 1985). These somatic hybridization experiments, along with studies of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and proteins

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of maize CMS-T plants (Dewey et al. (1985) and other authors this symposium), have resulted in general acceptance of the plant mitochondrial genome as the source of the CMS phenotype.

2. IDENTIFICATION OF A PETUNIA CMS-ASSOCIATED mtDNA REGION

The recombinant mitochondrial genomes present in somatic hybrid plants also provide a means to identify DNA regions that segregate with the CMS trait. Sufficient polymorphisms between the CMS and fertile parent's mitochondrial DNAs, as well as a number of CMS and fertile somatic hybrids, are required for use of this strategy. By examining a collection of CMS and fertile somatic hybrid *Petunia* plants produced by Shamay Izhar's laboratory (Izhar *et al.* 1983), two *BglI* mtDNA fragments were found to segregate with the CMS trait (Boeshore *et al.* 1985). This analysis was not simple, owing to the large size (at least 350 kilobases (kb)) of the *Petunia* mitochondrial genome, and required the use of a dozen restriction enzymes to produce enough parental-specific DNA bands whose presence or absence could be catalogued in the CMS and fertile plants.

For finer analysis of the two CMS-associated fragments, an mtDNA clone carrying both BglI fragments were isolated (Boeshore et al. 1985). Smaller fragments from this clone were used as probes to delineate the region that was consistently CMS-associated. From the fertile parent's mitochondrial DNA, a λ clone was obtained which was homologous to a portion of the CMS-associated DNA, but diverged in the vicinity of the BglI site that had originally distinguished the CMS and fertile plants' mtDNA (figure 1). Hybridization analysis of CMS and fertile somatic hybrids' mtDNA revealed that a particular DNA arrangement was present in stable CMS hybrids but not in fertile somatic hybrids (Boeshore et al. 1985). None of the probes identified a sequence that was unique to the CMS and not present in the fertile plants' mitochondrial DNA. Instead, restriction mapping could distinguish how certain sequences were arranged in the CMS compared with the fertile genome.

3. STRUCTURE OF THE CMS-ASSOCIATED mtDNA REGION AND RELATED REGIONS FROM THE FERTILE LINE'S mtDNA

Sequencing of the *Petunia* CMS-associated region (Young & Hanson 1987) has confirmed the unusual mitochondrial DNA arrangement originally detected by restriction mapping. The CMS-associated region carries a fused gene consisting of incomplete coding regions of *atp*9 (the ATP synthase proteolipid subunit gene), *coxII* (cytochrome oxidase subunit II), along with an unidentified reading frame (termed *urfS*). The *coxII* portion of the gene is fused in-frame to the preceding *atp*9 sequences. This gene has been designated *Pcf* (*Petunia* CMS-associated fused).

The homologous mtDNA clone selected from the fertile parent was sequenced near the point of divergence of this clone and the clone carrying the Pcf gene. Sequence analysis revealed a normal atp9 gene on the fertile mtDNA clone (Young $et\ al.\ 1986$), with a coding region of 231 base pairs (bp). The sequence of this atp9 gene from -600 to +104 is nearly identical to the Pcf gene sequence from -600 to +104 (Young & Hanson 1987). At +105, the Pcf gene sequence

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carries less than half of the normal atp9 coding region, owing to divergence in the middle and 3' portion of the coding region. In contrast, the 5' flanking region of the atp9 and Pcf genes are indistinguishable by restriction mapping for at least 8 kb (figure 1).

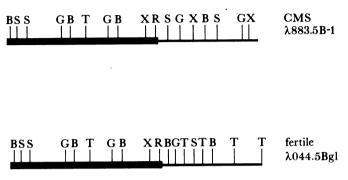


FIGURE 1. Restriction map of mtDNA regions in CMS and fertile lines. Clone \(\lambda 883.5B-1 \) carries the \(BglI \) fragments found to be CMS-associated. The clone λ044.5Bgl from the fertile line diverges near an EcoR1 (R) site present at the end of the homologous region (heavy bar). The map was derived from Boeshore et al. (1985). The EcoR1 site shown is the only one which has been mapped; additional EcoR1 sites may exist elsewhere on the clones. Clones were completely mapped with BamHI (B), BglI (G), SalI (S), SstI (S), and XhoI (X).

4. Comparison of Petunia atp9 genes and the Pcf gene

The presence of an abnormal atp9 gene in the CMS line's mitochondrial DNA makes it important to inquire into atp9-homologous sequences in the CMS line. Two additional atp9homologous regions have been detected in the CMS line's mtDNA (Rothenberg & Hanson 1987a). One of these regions has been sequenced and thereby found to carry a normal atp9 gene, which is absolutely identical to the Pcf gene from -568 to +104 (Rothenberg & Hanson 1988). This normal gene (now termed 88atp9-1) from the CMS line diverges slightly from the normal ath9 gene in the fertile line, but the predicted amino acid sequences are identical.

Further characterization of atp9 genes in the fertile parent's mitochondrial genome have revealed two hybridizing regions in addition to the 04atp9-1 gene previously described by Young et al. (1986). One of these additional homologous regions has been sequenced, revealing yet another atp9 gene (now termed 04atp9-2) carrying a normal coding region in the fertile mtDNA (Rothenberg & Hanson 1987b). All of the Petunia atp9 coding regions predict the same amino acid sequence; however, the second atp9 gene in the fertile genome diverges from 04atp9-1 at -162 and +252. The third atp9-homologous region in the fertile mtDNA and the second region in the CMS line still await cloning and analysis. The sequence homologies and divergence of all of the sequenced Petunia atp9 genes and the Pcf gene are summarized in figure 2. Table 1 compares two Petunia atp9 genes to tobacco (Bland et al. 1986) and maize (Dewey et al. 1985) atp9 genes.

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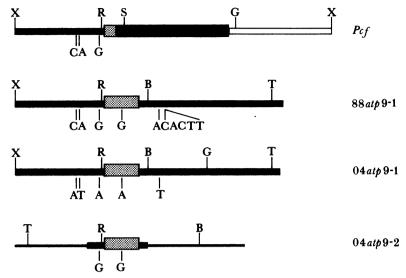


Figure 2. Restriction maps and sequence comparisons of Pcf and three Petunia atp9 genes. Letters above the bars are symbols for restriction sites (see legend to figure 1). Below the bars are shown the nucleotides that differ between the four genes in homologous regions. Heavy bar indicates homology between all four genes. The thin lines and open bar indicate non-homologous portions of Pcf and 04atp9-2, stippled area, atp9 coding region sequence; large black bar adjacent to atp9 sequences in Pcf, coxII and urfS portion of coding region.

Table 1. Comparison of Petunia atp9 genes with those of tobacco and maize

(Numbers indicate percentage homology. The tobacco-Petunia and Petunia-Petunia flanking-region comparisons include only 196 bases of the 5' transcribed regions because the reported tobacco sequence ends at this point. The 3' transcribed regions were compared up to the 3' transcript termini of 04atp9-1 and 88atp9-1.)

	flanking region homologies			coding region homologies		
	04atp9-1	04atp9-2	88atp9-1	04atp9-1	04atp 9 - 2	88atp9-1
tobacco	91	58	91	100	> 99	> 99
maize	< 20	< 20	< 20	91	91	91
04atp9-1		61	> 99		> 99	> 99
04atp9-2	61		61	> 99		100
88atp9-1	> 99	61		> 99	100	

5. Comparison of the Pcf gene with the maize coxII gene

The coxII-homologous sequences present on the Pcf gene do not resemble a normal coxII gene (Young & Hanson 1987). The coxII-homologous portion of the Pcf gene is composed of 159 codons, compared with the 260–274 codons of the maize gene. With respect to the maize coxII gene's coding region (Fox & Leaver 1981), Pcf carries three major deletions at the 5' and 3' end of the first exon and at the 3' end of the second exon. However, the intron present in the maize and two other monocotyledon's coxII genes is absent from the Pcf gene. Whereas other dicotyledons, such as pea and Oenothera, do not contain introns in the reported coxII sequences (Moon et al. 1985; Hiesel & Brennicke 1983), preliminary sequence data of Petunia coxII genes indicates that an intron is present (K. Pruitt & M. Hanson, unpublished results). For this reason, the maize gene is compared to Pcf in figure 3.

In addition to the three major coding region deletions and absence of the intron, the *Pcf* gene diverges from the second maize exon by a six-codon deletion and a ten-codon sequence

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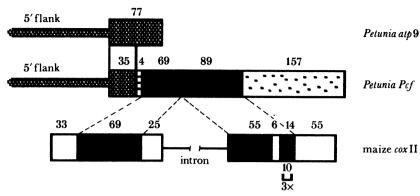


FIGURE 3. Diagram indicating homology of *Pcf* to *Petunia atp*9 and maize *cox*II. The number of codons in each segment is indicated above the bars. (Reprinted from Young & Hanson 1987; copyright Cell Press.)

tandemly repeated three times (figure 3). None of these abnormalities with respect to the maize gene has been found in the wheat, rice, pea or *Oenothera cox*II genes which have been sequenced (Bonen et al. 1984; Kao et al. 1984; Moon et al. 1985; Hiesel & Brennicke 1985). However, in wheat a 193 bp segment of the first coxII exon is repeated elsewhere in the mitochondrial genome (Bonen et al. 1984).

6. The unidentified portion of the Pcf gene

The remaining 157 codons of the *Pcf* gene consist of an unidentified reading frame, designated *urf* S. No significant sequence homologies have been found in the existing nucleic acid and protein databases. Whether the presence of *urf* S is due to the fusion of yet another gene's coding region to *atp* 9 and *cox* II sequences awaits sequencing of *urf* S-homologous regions not located in the *Pcf* gene. A clone of the fertile line's mtDNA selected by hybridization with a probe encompassing *urf* S and the 3' flanking region of *Pcf* is being subjected to mapping and sequence analysis (J. Rasmussen & M. Hanson, unpublished work).

7. Transcription of the Pcf gene

Because of the presence of atp9 and coxII sequences in the CMS line's mtDNA, a Pcf gene probe needed to be selected carefully for S1 protection analyses of transcription. Owing to the deletion in the coxII-homologous portion of Pcf as well as fusion with atp9 sequences, suitably stringent conditions for annealing could be chosen so that a probe end-labelled in the abnormal coxII region could not be protected by RNA from a normal coxII gene. Likewise, to provide an atp9-specific probe, a fragment could be end-labelled at a site not present in either the Pcf gene or the uncharacterized atp9-homologous region of the CMS mtDNA. End-labelled sites and probes could also be chosen to distinguish the three atp9-homologous regions in the fertile genome.

Use of these gene-specific probes in S1 protection experiments has resulted in the mapping of the 5' transcript termini of the Pcf gene, the CMS lines' 88atp9-1 gene, and the 04atp9-1 and 04atp9-2 genes from the fertile parent (Young et al. 1986; Young & Hanson 1987; Rothenberg & Hanson 1987b, 1988). Three transcript termini (at -522, -266, and -121 have been identified in three of the genes: Pcf, 88atp9-1, and 04atp9-1 (figures 4 and 5). The mapping

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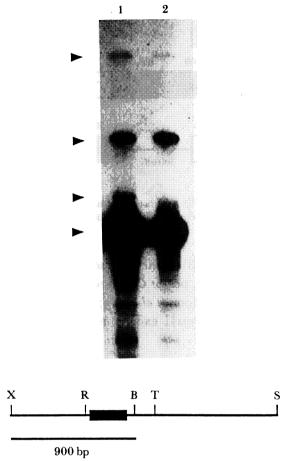


FIGURE 4. Determination of the 5' ends of the 88atp9-1 transcripts by S1 nuclease mapping. A 900 bp XhoI-BamHI fragment, ³²P-labelled at the BamHI site, was annealed to RNA from the fertile line (1) and RNA from the CMS line (2) at 50 °C and digested with S1 nuclease. The probe was protected by 3688 RNA (2) at -121, -266, and -522 (arrows). An additional protected fragment (-164) is observed when 3704 RNA is annealed to the 3688 probe. Nucleotide polymorphisms between the CMS and fertile lines' atp9 genes in this region permit some clipping by S1 nuclease.

of these transcripts to identical locations was not surprising because their 5' transcribed sequences are nearly identical. The 04atp9-2 gene also has a transcript terminus at -121; however, this gene diverges from the other three at -162, and three additional transcript termini have been mapped to -363, -301, and -252. The most abundant transcript from all four genes is the shortest transcript, which maps to -121.

The 3' transcript termini of the 04atp9-1 and 88atp9-1 genes have been mapped to a single site, 200 bases past the stop codon (Rothenberg & Hanson 1987b, 1988). The 04atp9-2 gene has a transcript terminus 229 bases downstream of the stop codon. One or more additional termini for transcripts of this gene may exist further downstream, but we cannot be sure because the probe used was protected for its entire length (Rothenberg & Hanson 1987b). A 3' transcript terminus has been detected approximately 1 kb downstream of the stop codon terminating urfS(Young & Hanson 1987).

At the 5' transcript termini of the Pcf gene and the three atp9 genes are found short sequences which may be involved in the regulation of transcription (Young et al. 1986; Rothenberg &

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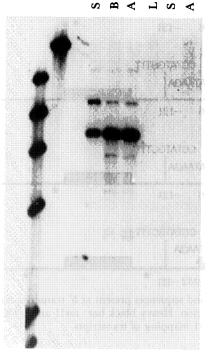


Figure 5. S1 nuclease protection of *Pcf*-specific probe by total RNA from CMS and fertile lines. Lanes 1-3: *Xho*I-SalI probe (see figure 2) protected with equal amounts of RNA from suspension cultures (S), anthers in young buds (B), and mature anthers (A) of CMS line. Lanes 4-6: same probe, not protected by RNA from leaves (L), suspension cultures (S) and anthers (A) of fertile line. M: *Alu*I-digested pBR322 molecular mass marker; P, full-length probe. (Reprinted from Young & Hanson 1987; copyright Cell Press.)

Hanson 1987 b). All four genes have identical sequences at the terminus of the most abundant transcript. In the divergent 04atp9-2 gene, the sequence at terminus -365 is homologous to the -121 terminus of all four genes, and the sequence at -301 is homologous to the -266 termini of the three other genes. Only one 5' transcript terminus in 04atp9-2 (at -252) does not map to a sequence with significant homology to plant or yeast transcript termini. However, near this site are two short inverted repeats that may serve as transcription-regulatory signals. The location and relations of the transcript termini of these four *Petunia* genes are clarified in figure 6.

Whether these putative regulatory sequences are signals for transcription initiation or processing is not known. The -266 consensus sequence has been found in a number of plant mitochondrial genes (Hiesel & Brennicke 1985; Schuster et al. 1986). At the time of writing, the Pcf gene and the two Petunia atp9 genes are the only plant mitochondrial genes that have transcripts mapping to the sequence ATATAGTA, which is nearly identical to the known yeast mitochondrial promoter sequence ATATAGTA (Biswas & Getz 1986). Successful capping of primary transcripts from plant mitochondria and the development of a transcription system in vitro is likely to shed light on these putative regulatory sequences.

Another unique aspect of *Petunia atp*9 is the finding of two different transcribed genes with normal coding regions in the same mitochondrial genome. Pseudogenes with coding region

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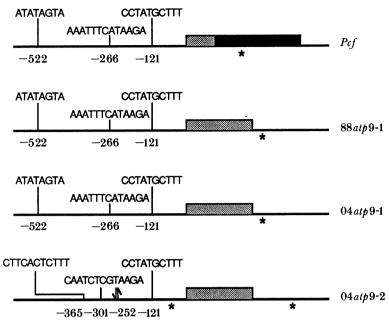


Figure 6 Diagram illustrating locations and sequences present at 5' transcript termini of Pcf and three Petunia atp9 genes. Stippled area: atp9 coding region. Heavy black bar: coxII and urfS coding regions. Asterisks indicate location of probe end-labelling for S1 mapping of transcripts.

abnormalities have been found in several plant mitochondrial genomes (Bonen et al. 1984; Schuster & Brennicke 1986). Although two or more copies of normal mitochondrial genes have been found in other plant mitochondrial DNAs, in these cases the multiple copies were identical (Isaac et al. 1985; Falconet et al. 1985), present within repeated sequences where recombination is thought to occur (Palmer & Shields 1984; Lonsdale et al. 1984). Hybridization data indicate that the sequenced Petunia atp9 genes in the fertile genome do not recombine at detectable levels (Rothenberg & Hanson 1987a).

8. Transcript abundance of atp9 and Pcf in vegetative and reproductive tissues

The relative levels of transcripts of the *Pcf* gene is different tissues of the plant are of interest because of the tissue-specificity of abnormal development. CMS plants of many species grow apparently normally in comparison to their fertile relatives; usually only the development of male reproductive tissue is impaired.

In order to compare transcript abundance of the *Pcf* gene in leaves and anthers, comparative S1 protection experiments were performed with total RNA obtained from leaves and anthers (Young & Hanson 1987). Comparable measures of transcript abundance for the CMS line's 88atp9-1 gene and the normal fertile line's 04atp9-1 gene were also undertaken, because these genes and *Pcf* share putative 5' regulatory sequences. Although suspension-culture mitochondrial RNA has also been isolated to analyse transcripts of the *Pcf* gene, in tissue comparisons total RNA was used rather than mitochondrial RNA because of the difficulty in obtaining sufficient quantities of *Petunia* anthers for isolation of mitochondria.

In Petunia CMS anthers, the amount of the shortest Pcf transcript (-121 terminus) is four

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to five times greater in steady state than in leaves (Young & Hanson 1987) (figure 5). The amounts of the -121~88atp9-1 and 04atp9-1 transcripts do not vary significantly between leaf and anther tissues.

To establish whether the increase in the abundance of the Pcf gene transcript has a causal relation to the specificity of cell death in the anther will require additional experiments, including studies of anthers at different stages of development. The abundance of the Pcf transcript in the tapetal layer of the anther will be of particular interest, because the first cytological abnormalities in CMS anthers are evident in this tissue, which contains only a small fraction of the cells in the anther (Bino 1985 a, b). Furthermore, the amount of the polypeptide gene product(s) of the Pcf gene must be examined carefully, because mitochondrial gene expression can be under translational control (Fox $et\ al.$, this symposium).

9. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The identification of a mitochondrial gene that segregates with the CMS phenotype in the dicotyledon *Petunia* opens new routes to understanding the molecular basis of this aberration in pollen development. Further studies of the fused genes found in CMS lines of two monocotyledonous species (Dewey *et al.* 1986; Bailey-Serres *et al.* 1986) may reveal whether abnormal intragenomic recombination events are a common theme in the generation of CMS. A key question for all the CMS systems under study is whether the presence of a fused gene's product actively works to disrupt microspores, or whether the absence of a critical gene product inhibits normal processes. In *Petunia*, sequence data concerning DNA regions homologous to *urf* S and *Pcf* flanking regions will be necessary to understand how this gene arose. Information concerning the predicted *Pcf* polypeptide product will be essential to determine why mtDNA-specified male sterility occurs.

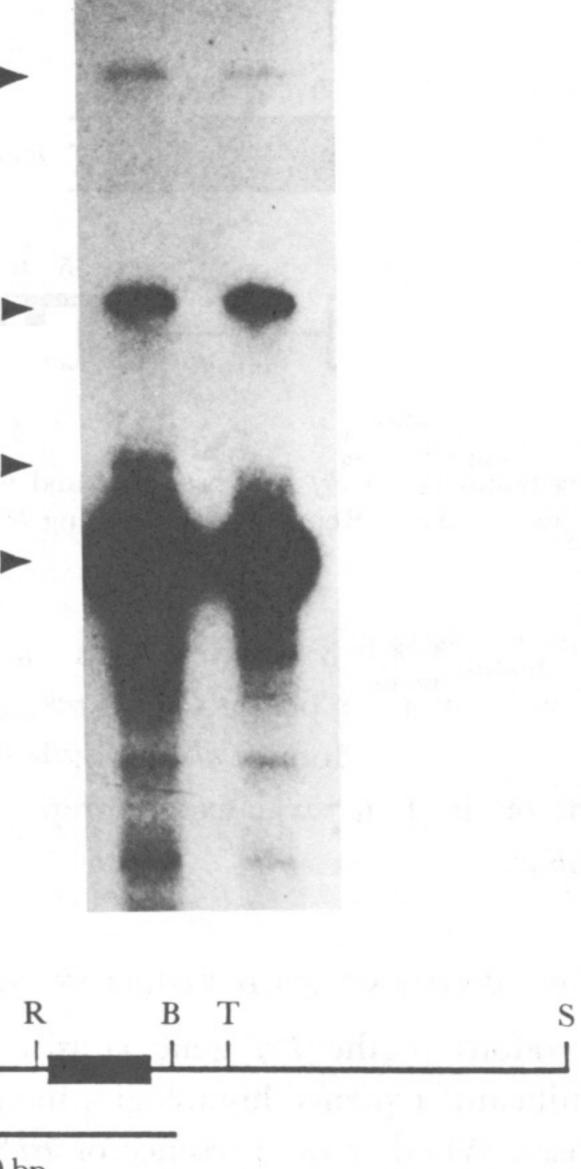
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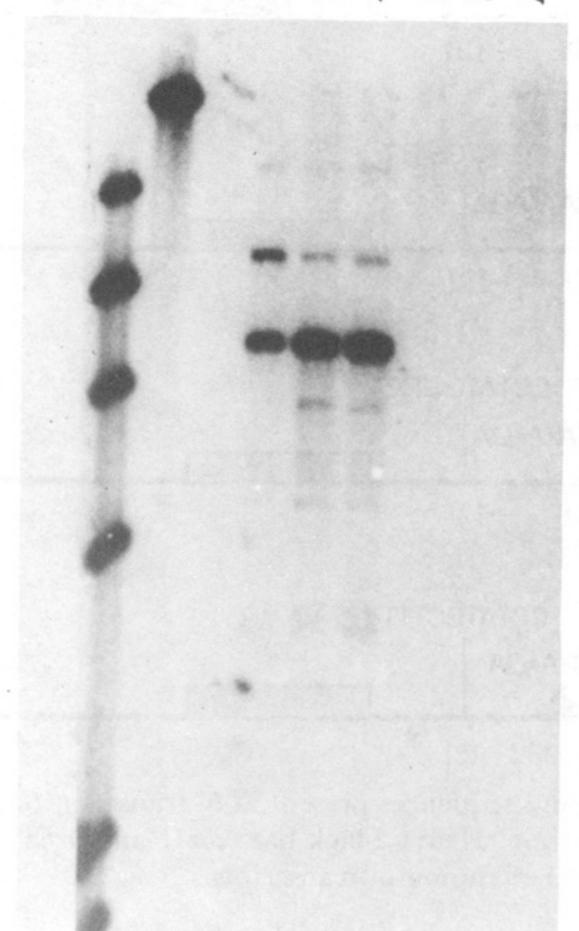
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900 bp

10 IGURE 4. Determination of the 5' ends of the 88atp9-1 transcripts by S1 nuclease mapping. A 900 bp XhoI-BamHI fragment, ³²P-labelled at the BamHI site, was annealed to RNA from the fertile line (1) and RNA from the CMS line (2) at 50 °C and digested with S1 nuclease. The probe was protected by 3688 RNA (2) at -121, -266, and -522 (arrows). An additional protected fragment (-164) is observed when 3704 RNA is annealed to the 3688 probe. Nucleotide polymorphisms between the CMS and fertile lines' atp9 genes in this region permit some clipping by S1 nuclease.



TWO HELD igure 5. S1 nuclease protection of Pcf-specific probe by total RNA from CMS and fertile lines. Lanes 1–3:

XhoI-SalI probe (see figure 2) protected with equal amounts of RNA from suspension cultures (S), anthers in young buds (B), and mature anthers (A) of CMS line. Lanes 4–6: same probe, not protected by RNA from leaves (L), suspension cultures (S) and anthers (A) of fertile line. M: AluI-digested pBR322 molecular mass marker; P, full-length probe. (Reprinted from Young & Hanson 1987; copyright Cell Press.)