# Deciphering the "OPR code" to further assess the physiological role of OPR proteins 

Domitille Jarrige

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# Thèse de doctorat de Sorbonne Université <br> Préparée au Laboratoire de Biologie du Chloroplaste et Perception de la Lumière chez les Microalgues. UMR7141 CNRS/Sorbonne Université Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique 

École doctorale Complexité du vivant (ED515)
Présentée par DOMITILLE JARRIGE
Pour l'obtention du grade de docteur en Biologie

# DÉCHIFFRER LE «CODE OPR » POUR UNE MEILLEURE COMPRÉHENSION DU RÔLE PHYSIOLOGIQUE DES PROTÉINES OPR. 

## DECIPHERING THE "OPR code"

## TO FURTHER ASSESS THE PHYSIOLOGICAL ROLE of OPR PROTEINS.

Dirigée par Yves Choquet

Soutenue le 12 décembre 2019
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## Nomenclature

In Chlamydomonas reinhardtii

- NUCLEAR GENES
- CYTOSOLIC PROTEINS
- chloroplast genes
- Chloroplast proteins
are written this way.


## Abbreviations

ADP: adenosine diphosphate
AMP: antimicrobial peptide
ATP: adenosine triphosphate
CDS: coding sequence
CES: Control by Epistasis' of Synthesis
DFHBI: 3,5-difluoro-4-hydroxybenzylidene imidazolinone
DNA: deoxyribonucleic acid
cpDNA: chloroplast DNA
EGT: Endosymbiotic gene transfer
GFP: green fluorescent protein
LGT: Lateral gene transfer
LUCA: last universal common ancestor
NEP: Nucleus encoded polymerase
OPR: Octotricopeptide repeat
OTAF: Organellar Trans-Acting Factor
PBS: Phosphate-buffered saline (buffer)
PEP: Plastid encoded polymerase
PPR: Pentatricopeptide repeat
PS: photosystem
RC: reaction centre
RNA: ribonucleic acid
mRNA: messenger RNA
tRNA: transfer RNA
rRNA: ribosomal RNA
RuBisCO: ribulose biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase
TIC: translocon at the inner envelope of chloroplast
TOC: translocon at the outer envelope of chloroplast
TP: transit peptide
UTR: untranslated region
WT: wild type

## Introduction

The ocean floors 4 billion years ( Ga ) ago, by an oceanic ridge... Seawater seeping deep through the fractured oceanic crust encounter the molten upper mantle rocks. This mineral enriched water is then ejected as a high temperature hydrothermal plume, a "black-smoker". Those vents have a transient lifetime (a few years or decades) and a hellish temperature unsuitable for life emergence.

However, seawater percolating through cracks in the oceanic crust further away from the ridge or in hotspot volcanoes or islands arcs, can react exothermically with peridotites and produces serpentine and dihydrogen (H2). This creates, as in the modern hydrothermal field of Lost City in the Atlantic Ocean, warm (around $80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), alkaline ( $\mathrm{pH} 9-10$ ) and $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ depleted hydrothermal vents (Kelley et al., 2001), called "white-smoker" (Corliss, 1990). Those systems are not only more hospitable but also longer lived, as less prone to eruptions. The Lost City field is more than 120000 years old (Ludwig et al., 2011). Crucially, abiotic formation of organic compound has been observed in the Lost City system (Proskurowski et al., 2008). Similar hydrocarbon discharge might have occurred in the ancient effluents.

Mixing with the ambient cold and $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ rich seawater the white smokers form microporous calcium carbonate precipitates that present pH , thermic and redox gradients, from the vent aperture toward the sea. Those small compartments located at a source of organic compounds and $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ have been suggested as one of the many possible starting points for life. They could help concentrate those molecules and provide a niche for primitive endolithic chemosynthetic organisms (Baross, 1985; Nisbet, 1995; Lane et al., 2010; Sleep et al., 2011; Sousa et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2018).

Thanks to the $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ present in the plume, an abundant electron donor source, autotroph organisms could have performed $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ fixation to produce organic matter by the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway. This pathway is unique because it is exergonic and does not need ATP. (Fuchs, 2011; Sousa et al., 2013; Sousa et al., 2018). This theory is supported by phylogenetic data suggesting that the last universal common ancestor (LUCA) was a thermophilic autotroph relying on the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway (Weiss et al., 2016).

To shift toward photosynthesis those ancient organisms obviously needed light. The famous "prebiotic soup" theory, which suggests the apparition of life in surface waters, under the action of UV irradiation or lighting, does provide a very luminous niche, maybe a too luminous one. The high sunlight exposure would pose a serious threat to early life. While high-light induced formation of chlorophyll triplets, does not produce much damage in absence of oxygen, as when photosynthesis began, the high UV radiations could severely damage the DNA and proteins of the organisms, rendering the evolution of early photosynthesis difficult without some kind of protective measures, or a protected niche.

Hydrothermal plumes can attain several hundred degrees Celsius and emit infrared radiation, but an intriguing very low visible light has been reported from black smokers (Van Dover et al., 1996). It has been suggested long ago (Nisbet, 1995) that such dim light might have favoured infrared phototaxis, allowing the organisms to locate and move toward the smokers and indirectly induced a shift toward photosynthesis, without exposing early life to dangerous UV radiation that could photo-oxidise chlorophyll (Martin et al., 2018). The isolation of an obligate phototrophic green sulphur bacterium from a deep ocean black smoker(Beatty et al., 2005) gives credence to this hypothesis. Hydrothermal areas combining white and black smokers could have been compelling niches to evolve light sensing and transition to photosynthesis.

Another, possibility could lie in shallow hydrothermal vents on continental shelves (Arndt and Nisbet, 2012). But the probable very low levels of dissolved organic matter and plankton in the ancient water compared to today coastal areas, would not let only visible light but also UV radiation penetrate deep in the water column (Tedetti and Sempéré, 2006) exposing the cell to potential damage.

3.3 Ga ago much closer to the ocean surface, in the euphotic zone. Sun light penetrating the warm waters shines on a photosynthetic microbial mat laid on a shallow littoral (Tice, 2004; Westall et al., 2006; Westall et al., 2011). By harnessing this energy, the interwoven microbes became able to perform anoxygenic photosynthesis.

Current anoxygenic bacteria are scattered in highly diverse groups (Fischer et al., 2016). Lateral gene transfer (LGT) probably played an essential role in granting photo-autotrophy to multiple phyla. For example, a whole photosystem I gene cluster has been found in marine bacteriophages (Sharon et al., 2009). Photosynthetic reaction centres are complicated membrane embedded protein complexes. When their special pair of chlorophyll absorbs a photon, it generates a charge separation and an electron is transmitted to successive acceptors. RCI reduce ferredoxin as a terminal acceptor, while RCII reduce quinones. Those electrons then go to a complex III, which shuttles protons and generate a proton gradient across a membrane. This gradient is then used to produce ATP (Hohmann-Marriott and Blankenship, 2011) with a protein stemming from the last universal ancestor: the ATP synthase.


Figure 1: Cartoon of membrane cross-sections showing proton relocation and electron transport and ATP generation. A. Type II reaction centre B. Type I reaction centre C.ATP synthase

About 2.6 Ga ago an emerging class of Cyanobacteria the Oxyphotobacteria have assembled RCII and RCI in series. Among several competing hypotheses, it has been suggested that by LGT the ancestral cyanobacteria, which would have not been photosynthetic, acquired the two photosystems stemming from different lineages in a fusion process (Fischer et al., 2016; Shih et al., 2017; Soo and Fischer, 2017).

The Oxyphotobacteria are able to use light energy to split water, stripping electrons from it and to produce organic matter from $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$. This innovation made them highly successful. However, this mechanism releases oxygen as a by-product. The Earth atmosphere, which was previously practically devoid of oxygen, soon saw its oxygen level shoot up (Figure 2). This event known as the GOE (Great oxidising Event), occurred 2.4 Ga ago. The oceans oxidised far slower (Lyons et al., 2014; Sahoo et al., 2012). This abundant oxygen induced a strong selective pressure on exposed organisms (its strong oxidative power and its reactive species block enzymes and damage proteins and DNA). But it also provided a new energy source as an electron acceptor. This paved the way for the advent of respiration.


Figure 2: A. Diagram suggesting a rough estimate of global inorganic carbon fixation, or primary production, throughout Earth history. B. Relative atmospheric partial pressure of $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ relative to present atmospheric level, data taken from Lyons et al, 2014, Nature.

## 1. ENDOSYMBIOSIS AND THE CHLOROPLAST EMERGENCE

DAWN OF THE ENDOSYMBIOTIC THEORY
Constantin Mereschkowsky, a Russian botanist, noticed the physiological similarities between what were called at the time cyanophyceae (cyanobacteria) and chromatophores (chloroplasts). He noted that both had round shapes, simple structures, green pigments, no true nucleus and that they were both able to assimilate $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ in the light. In 1905, drawing from previous studies describing chloroplast proliferation by division, their hereditary transmission in plant cells and their ability to survive transiently outside of the cytoplasm, he established the endosymbiotic theory. He suggested that chloroplasts derive from ancestral cyanobacteria following an endosymbiotic process [(Mereschkowski, 1905) English translation by (Martin and Kowallik, 1999)]. However, his hypothesis encountered fierce detractors and was progressively forgotten.

About sixty years later multiple microscopic and biochemical studies revealed the existence of DNA in the chloroplast of various organisms (Ris and Plaut, 1962; Gibor and Izawa, 1963) and the endosymbiotic theory was remembered (Ris and Plaut, 1962). It was brought back to the forefront by Lynn Margulis (Sagan, 1967) and has been since then largely accepted.

The advance of biochemistry built up the body of evidence for a cyanobacterial origin of the chloroplast. For instance, the composition of the plastid membranes is very different from that of all the other cells compartments. Unlike them, the chloroplast envelopes are composed mostly of galactolipids (Wintermans, 1960), produced in part from the stroma, as the cyanobacterial thylakoid (Holzl and Dormann, 2007). The chloroplast gene expression machinery was shown to derive from a bacterial one, with a 70s ribosome, whose rRNAs are encoded in the plastid genome (Miller and McMahon, 1974), and a PEP (Plastid encoded Polymerase) RNA polymerase (Sijben-Muller et al., 1986). This is illustrated by the chloroplast sensitivity to bacterial transcription and translation inhibitors (rifampicin, spectinomycin and chloramphenicol).

Early phylogenetic trees illustrated how the evolutionary histories of mitochondria and plastid were distinct from that of their hosts (Schwartz and Dayhoff, 1978; Gray et al., 1984; Giovannoni et al., 1988). The organisation and composition of the ATP synthases from cyanobacteria and chloroplast were found to be related (Cozens and Walker, 1987) for instance. Then, the rise of genomics further cemented the endosymbiotic theory. Among many examples: hundreds of genes originating from cyanobacteria were found in Arabidopsis thaliana genome (Martin et al., 2002).

## THE ANCESTRAL CYANOBACTERIUM

To this day, there is still no definite consensus on which cyanobacterial clade is the most closely related to modern plastids. Some phylogenies propose a very early branching of the chloroplast ancestor in the oxygenic cyanobacteria, others on the contrary a late branching with nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria (Deusch et al., 2008; Dagan et al., 2013; Ochoa de Alda et al., 2014). This uncertainty might be explained in part by an uncomplete view of Cyanobacteria diversity and the extent of cyanobacterial evolution since the plastid was formed (de Vries and Archibald, 2017). Moreover, extensive intraphylum and interphylum LGT have been reported in cyanobacteria (Zhaxybayeva et al., 2006), further complicating phylogenomic studies.

The discovery of the Gloeomargarita genus (Couradeau et al., 2012), introduced another potentially closely related group to primary plastids. The Gloeomargarita described so far are confined to fresh waters, with a preference for hot springs, and form biofilms. This kind of context, where microbes form inter-species communities, to benefit from oxygen production for example, could be an alluring melting pot to initiate endosymbiosis. Phylogenetical data based on plastid and nuclear genes support this hypothesis by placing Gloeomargarita as the sister group of the primary chloroplast ancestor (Ponce-Toledo et al., 2017; Sanchez-Baracaldo et al., 2017).

Both nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria and Gloeomargarita are found in freshwater. This could perhaps mean that the plastid endosymbiosis occurred in a freshwater system. Molecular clocks (Parfrey et al., 2011) and geochemical studies (Sahoo et al., 2012) suggest that this primary endosymbiosis occurred before the slow oxygenation of the oceans. Possibly, the gain of a symbiont producing $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ in the host, for the respiratory mitochondria, would allow them to venture into the anoxic oceans (Dagan et al., 2013). And so, Rhodophyta and Chloroplastida progressively colonised the oceans, while glaucophytes kept to freshwater niches.


Figure 3: Simplified cladogram of cyanobacterial diversity from (de Vries and Archibald, 2017). Two possible origins for plastids are indicated.

## CURRENT VIEWS ON ENDOSYMBIOSIS

Host nuclear genomes are a patchwork of genes from numerous origins. LGT and endosymbiotic gene transfer (EGT) in photosynthetic organisms seem to have occurred massively in a relatively short period and since then slowed down considerably. While the implication of viruses as vectors for LGT and EGT could be crucial in algal and bacterial communities (Derelle et al., 2008), links between phagocytosis and gene transfer have also been suggested (Ford Doolittle, 1998; Keeling and Palmer, 2008). Digestion of preys is a great opportunity for organisms to integrate exogenous DNA of various sources. One could imagine that eukaryotes feeding on cyanobacteria could have over time started to accumulate significant amounts of cyanobacterial genes. Then, a prey could have become able to escape digestion in some way, and the symbiotic relationship would have started to evolve (Larkum et al., 2007). As the host became fully autotroph, thanks to its new organelle, phagocytosis would cease and so, the opportunity for gene transfer would recede.


Figure 4: Primary chloroplast endosymbiosis. A possible history of chloroplast emergence is suggested.

Crucial steps in establishing endosymbiosis are first the ability of the prey to survive in the host, then the possibility for them to beneficially interact, the synchronisation of the endosymbiont proliferation and the host divisions to ensure its inheritance in both daughter cells, and lastly the ability to integrate the two organisms by importing proteins back into the organelle.

One theory to explain this rare event, based at first on the observation of chlamydial LGT in plants (Brinkman et al., 2002), is that a chlamydial pathogen could have entered the eukaryote cell at the same time as a cyanobacterium and shielded it from digestion into an inclusion vesicle. This hypothesis dubbed ménage à trois also suggests that essential proteins of chlamydial origins were implicated in the metabolic connexion between the chloroplast and its host, thru glycogen metabolism (Ball et al., 2013; Cenci et al., 2017).

A complementary theory posits that the captured cyanobacteria developed a mechanism to protect themselves from antimicrobial peptides (AMP) produced by the host by importing them then degrading them. This mechanism closely resembles the import mechanism of nucleus-encoded proteins into the organelles (Wollman, 2016). It was proved recently that a subclass of helical amphipathic AMP can target proteins into the chloroplast or the mitochondria and conversely, that targeting peptides have retained some antibacterial activity (Garrido et al, submitted). Both theories are currently studied in our laboratory.

## A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE DIVERSE PHOTOSYNTHETIC EUKARYOTES:

Photosynthetic organisms are spread across the tree of Eukarya (Figure 5). Nearly all of them stem directly or indirectly from a single primary endosymbiotic event (Paulinella is a notable exception that we will talk about later). Many of them are unicellular algae. The increasing number of algal genomes published (reviewed in (Blaby-Haas and Merchant, 2019)) provides a great opportunity to elucidate the origin of the various eukaryotic algae.



Figure 5: Distribution of photosynthetic organisms in the tree of eukaryotes. Full lines are primary endosymbiotic organisms, dashed lined secondary or tertiary ones. Grey organisms are not photosynthetic. Modified from (PonceToledo et al., 2019)

## The Archaeplastida

Archaeplastida derive from a single primary endosymbiotic event, when an ancestral cyanobacterium was absorbed by a primitive eukaryote approximately 1.5 billion years ago (Parfrey et al., 2011). Their plastid genomes contain inverted repeats around the rRNA operon (Palmer, 1985; Keeling, 2010). The common origin of their chloroplasts, which have two membranes of cyanobacterial origin, has been reinforced by phylogenetical data (Rodriguez-Ezpeleta et al., 2005). The monophylly of the Archaeplastida is also supported by mitochondrial DNA phylogenies (Burger et al., 1999). Studies have shown for instance the common origins of the subunits of the chloroplast import machinery TIC-TOC (translocon at the inner envelope of chloroplast, translocon at the outer envelope of the chloroplast) (McFadden and van Dooren, 2004; Price et al., 2012).

## Glaucophyta:

Glaucophytes are unicellular algae living in fresh water. Their blue tinged plastids have been historically called cyanelles. Their resemblance with cyanobacteria led old studies to classify the cyanelles as symbiotic cyanophyceae (Hall and Claus, 1963). This small group is often viewed as a witness of the chloroplast ancestry as the cyanelle does not only superficially look like a cyanobacterium. In fact, it bears a peptidoglycan layer between its membranes (Pfanzagl et al., 1996). It also uses phycobilisomes as light-harvesting antenna complexes, much like its cyanobacterial ancestor. For a recent review on glaucophytes see (Jackson et al., 2015).

## Rodophyta

Rhodophytes are unicellular and multicellular algae. They are found either in fresh or seawater. They possess phycobilisomes associated with their PSII and a Light Harvesting Complex (LHC) associated with their PSI (Durnford et al., 1999). They express chlorophyll c. Their genomes underwent considerable gene losses (Qiu et al., 2015) that deprived them of cilia for example. Cyanidiophytes gained many new functions from LGT with bacteria or archaea, allowing them to adapt to extreme environments. In contrast their chloroplast kept a slightly higher number of genes (Green, 2011).

## Viridiplantae

Viridiplantae comprise unicellular and multicellular organisms, aquatic and terrestrial ones, green algae and land plants. Their photosynthetic apparatus is different from the cyanobacterial one, they lost the phycobilisomes and rely solely on LHCs (LHCI and LHCII). They produce chlorophyll b, their chloroplast stocks polysaccharides as starch. Their thylakoids are appressed. Multicellular forms have evolved separately several times in the green algae. One ancestral alga gave rise to the terrestrial plants and their elaborate architecture (De Clerck et al., 2012).

## SECONDARY PHOTOSYNTHETIC EUKARYOTES

Many eukaryotic groups have acquired photosynthesis independently by engulfing primary endosymbiotic organisms in a secondary endosymbiosis. Euglena absorbed a green alga. Cryptophytes, dinoflagellates, diatoms, haptophytes have absorbed red algae (Keeling, 2010; Ponce-Toledo et al., 2019). Some might even have arisen after tertiary endosymbiosis, as the secondary red plastids appear to be monophyletic (Munoz-Gomez et al., 2017) but their hosts are not. Their origins are for some still quite hotly debated. The complex systems of 3 or 4 membranes around their chloroplast have been a strong argument of their acquisition by phagocytosis. The existence of relict of the primary eukaryotic host genome, the nucleomorph, found in the complex chloroplast of cryptomonads or chlorarachniophytes, is also proof of their origin (Gilson et al., 1997). In my thesis I will not focus on secondary endosymbionts.

## Independent primary endosymbiosis

Nearly all known plastids descend from the unique event of cyanobacterial capture in the primary endosymbiosis 1.5 Ga ago, whether from direct inheritance or thru secondary absorption. This paucity suggests that successful and durable endosymbiosis must be difficult to establish. One famous exception is the thecamoeba Paulinella chromatophora and its sister lineage Paulinella micropora. They recently ( $\sim 100$ Million years ago) engulfed a $\alpha$-cyanobacterium and potentially reflect early endosymbiotic stages. P. chromatophora was discovered at the turn of the $19^{\text {th }}$ century by Robert Lauterborn, and its blue chromatophore led scientists of the time to think that this organism was parasitized by a cyanobacteria [(Mereschkowski, 1905) English translation by (Martin and Kowallik, 1999)]. Their photosynthetic organelle is called chromatophore, is surrounded by a peptidoglycan wall, and has similarly to the chloroplast undergone genome reduction of about two thirds, but kept almost all subunits of its photosynthetic machinery (Nowack et al., 2008). P. chromatophora is phototrophic and does not use phagocytosis anymore, unlike its close relatives, such as Paulinella ovalis. This independent endosymbiotic event is an interesting model to compare to plastid evolution.

## 2. Chlamydomonas reinhardtiI

## A FLEXIBLE MODEL ORGANISM

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii is a unicellular green alga of the Chlorophyceae class. The Chlamydomonas genus is spread worldwide and in a wide variety of ecosystems; from tropical to artic zones, from sea-water to fresh water, damp soils or polluted sewages (Salome and Merchant, 2019)... C. reinhardtii and some of its "sociable" multicellular relatives such as Gonium pectorale and Volvox carteri were described in 1838 by Christian Ehrenberg.
C. reinhardtii has the advantages of microbial models: it can be cultivated either in liquid or solid media, grows fairly fast (about 8 hours between vegetative divisions) and rare events can be easily studied, as very large populations can be screened. $C$. reinhardtii can grow heterotrophically if supplied with acetate. The cell contains a single large chloroplast that can be readily transformed by biolistic means, DNA integrates by homologous recombination. However, the plastome is highly polyploid, present in about 80 copies per cell. So, after transformation, mutations need to undergo homoplasmisation: each copy of the chloroplast genome must bear the mutated allele. This is achieved by successive selective rounds of sub-cloning on selective medium over several generations. This process can take about 2 months, depending on the growth rate of the strain. The nuclear genome can also be modified but transforming DNA inserts randomly. Recently, CRISPR tools have been adapted to C. reinhardtii (Shin et al., 2016). However, our laboratory has not mastered its use yet. Thankfully, the nuclear genome is haploid, so random extinction of genes can be produced relatively easily. Lastly, it is also possible to transform the small mitochondrial genome of $C$. reinhardtii with a biolistic approach (Remacle et al., 2006).


Figure 6: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, with its three genomes.
All of them can be transformed.

Under nitrogen starvation C. reinhardtii produces gametes that can fecund the other mating type (either + or -). This allows classical genetic studies (Harris, 2001). Genetic inheritance is Mendelian for the nuclear genome, and uniparental for the chloroplast and mitochondrial genomes (Figure 7). The mating type $+\left(\mathrm{mt}^{+}\right)$parent transmit its chloroplast genome to the progeny, while the $\mathrm{mt}^{-}$progenitor transmits its mitochondrial genome. A small percentage of zygotes can fail to perform meiosis and generate stable diploid vegetative cells. They can be used to determine if mutations are dominant or recessive.


Figure 7: Genome segregation in sexual reproduction of $C$. reinhardtii.

So, in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, all genetic compartments can be transformed, this gives great possibilities to use elaborate reverse genetic techniques. Classical genetic approaches can be used as well, thanks to its ability to reproduce sexually and the possibility to recover stable diploid vegetative cells. Its microbial nature allows screening millions of cells at once to hunt rare genetic events. Spontaneous mutations in the nucleus can produce phenotypes more readily, since the genome is haploid...

All those properties make Chlamydomonas reinhardtii an invaluable eukaryote model to study both photosynthesis and respiration, but also the relationship between the organelles and the nucleus, among many processes. Cilia biogenesis and function, for example, are studied in C. reinhardtii.

## Structural properties

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii cells measure about $10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter, are surrounded by a cell wall made of glycoproteins and have two cilia of equal length at their anterior pole, allowing them to swim toward or away from light (this phenomenon is called phototaxis). Those cilia are also necessary for the gamete agglutination in the reproductive cycle; cells with no cilia are sterile.


Figure 8: Transmission electron micrograph of a $C$. reinhardtii ( $\mathrm{y}-1$ mutant) cell. Originally published (Ohad et al., 1967) made available by I. Ohad (2012) CIL:37252, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.
CIL.
Dataset.
https://doi.org/doi:10.7295/W
9CIL37252
M: mitochondrion
N : nucleus
P: pyrenoid
T: Thylakoids

The single chloroplast of $C$. reinhardtii is "cup" shaped and is nested at the posterior side of the cell with its three lobes pointing toward the anterior side. It contains a structure rich in pigments called eyespot, that senses light and allows phototaxis. Long membrane structures, the thylakoids, form well defined appressed and non-appressed domains. Thylakoids are the sites where the photochemical part of photosynthesis takes place. A large pyrenoid is present at the centre of the base of the chloroplast. This liquid-like structure is composed of a multitude of RuBisCOs aggregated and bound by EPYC1 (Mackinder et al., 2016) and forming a fluid matrix. The pyrenoid is surrounded by a starch sheath, potentially implicated in containing the matrix in a single pyrenoid (Itakura et al., 2019). The high $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ concentration of the pyrenoid enhances the enzymatic efficiency of the RuBisCO to fix more inorganic carbon. The pyrenoid is crossed by thin thylakoids (Engel et al., 2015). As the lumen is enriched in $\mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-}$and as a carbonic anhydrase (CAH3) is present in those intersecting thylakoids, dehydration of $\mathrm{HCO}_{3}{ }^{-}$might supply the necessary $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ to the pyrenoid.

## Photosynthesis in the Thylakoids

The major photosynthetic complexes of the electron transfer chain (PSII, cyt. $b_{6} f$ and PSI) are embedded in the membrane along the ATP synthase. LHCs, mobile pigments complexes, collect the light energy. Then this excitation energy is transmitted to the special pairs of chlorophylls of PSII (chlorophylls P680) and PSI (chlorophylls P700). The excited chlorophylls release an electron, which goes through multiple acceptors out of the photosynthetic complexes. The PSII transmits its electrons to the membrane soluble plastoquinones (PQ). PQs transmit the electrons to the cyt. $b_{6} f$ which donates it to the plastocyanin (PC). The PC shuttles the electrons to the special chlorophylls of the PSI, replacing the electrons released by the photondriven charge separation. The PSI transfer the electrons to ferredoxin (Fd), then lastly to ferredoxin-NADP ${ }^{+}$reductase (FNR) that reduce an NADP ${ }^{+}$to produce NADPH that can be used in carbon fixation. To replenish the lost PSII electrons, the water-oxidising complex split two water molecules in $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ and $4 \mathrm{H}^{+}$and $4 \mathrm{e}^{-}$. The cyt. $b_{6} f$ complex also perform the Q cycle, which transport more protons into the lumen. All those reactions generate a proton gradient across the thylakoid membrane. This proton motive force is exploited by the ATP synthase to produce ATP. The ATP synthase will be further described from p50.


## LUMEN

Figure 9: Schematic cross-section of the photosynthetic chain in the thylakoid membrane of $C$. reinhardtii.

## 3. THE CHLOROPLAST GENOME: EXPRESSION AND REGULATIONS

## The Chloroplast genome structure reflects its history <br> Chloroplast genomes underwent drastic size reduction

Compared to their related free-living cyanobacteria, chloroplasts have much smaller genomes. Gloeomargarita lithophora has a genome of 3 Mb , while primary chloroplasts tend to have genomes of around 0.10 to 1.15 Mb . The number of genes encoded also dropped down in plastids from potentially 3000 in the ancestral cyanobacteria to about 100. In captive life, many genes of the cyanobacterial ancestor certainly were obsolete, for instance those implicated in motility, and could be lost without consequence for the cyanobacterium survival. Other genes became redundant, therefore dispensable, when the host and plastid integrated, such as those encoding DNA polymerase. Last, many genes were transferred to the nucleus of the host cell (Martin et al., 1998; Dyall et al., 2004; Timmis et al., 2004). Interestingly, genome reduction occurs independently of lineages, it has also happened in the chromatophore of $P$. chromatophora and in mitochondria.

Those transfers have slowed down throughout evolution but can still occur in plant cells. For example; numerous chloroplast sequences transferred to the spinach nucleus have been found already decades ago (Timmis and Scott, 1983). The relative recent nature of those transfers is indicated by the fact that the sequences duplicated from the chloroplast to the nucleus are still quite similar. Another example is a study on the rice genome (Oriza sativa). The author observed that very large fragments of cpDNA (chloroplast DNA) integrate frequently in the nuclear genome, where they rapidly get shuffled around. Those cpDNA sequences predominantly integrate directly in the nucleus and not via retro-transcription of RNA, as genes are not transferred more frequently that intergenic DNA (Matsuo et al., 2005). Interestingly, DNA transfers from chloroplast to mitochondria were also observed. Studies of mitochondrial EGT illustrated that the mechanism of integration in the nuclear genome relied on doublestrand break repair events (Hazkani-Covo et al., 2010).

Recent gene transfers in some organisms are rarer. In C. reinhardtii (Lister et al., 2003) the transfer rate is extremely low compared to tobacco in artificial gene transfer experiments. C. reinhardtii lone, unique chloroplast might be the cause. Indeed, organisms with only one or two plastid apparently barely endure EGT nowadays. Perhaps it is because a ruptured chloroplast is a relatively common opportunity for gene transfers to happen; in cells with many chloroplasts this would not induce much trouble for the cell. However, when the cell has very few (or even one) chloroplasts to its disposal, dispensing of one of them could have dramatic consequences (Bock, 2017).

But why are those gene relocations favoured by evolution? A first explanation is that the integration of new DNA in the host genome creates opportunities for evolutionary innovations; thru chimerisation, or simply by providing the cell with gene duplicates that can evolve and diverge to create new functions. Hence, hosts where those events took place would gain an evolutionary edge over others.

Another discussed hypothesis is based on population genetics. Genomes of the isolated endosymbiotic Buchnera bacterial lineages, with small populations, no recombination and no sexual reproduction, diverge faster by accumulating mildly deleterious mutations, in a phenomenon called Muller's ratchet (Moran, 1996).

Interestingly, those bacteria also undergo a diminution of their GC contents, as is observed in modern chloroplast genomes that are AT rich. If slight reduction of fitness in sheltered organisms might not impact much their short-term persistence in the host, they could become problematic for the host-endosymbiont consortium. The relocation of organelle genes in the "sexually active" nuclear genome could protect them from this degeneration (Martin and Herrmann, 1998). However, contrary to metazoan mitochondria, which fit this view, chloroplasts tend to have fairly low substitution rates (Smith, 2015), maybe thanks to efficient repair mechanisms or to their high polyploidy. So attributing gene transfer mainly as a strategy to alleviate Muller's ratchet would be farfetched.

Yet another potential reason could be to relinquish the regulatory functions to the nucleus, to better control organelle expression and harmonise the cell functions. Altogether, reasons for gene relocation are probably numerous and complex. However, as we will see later, there seems to be common pressures that discourage transfer of certain genes.

Notwithstanding the varying frequency of those recent EGT, all chloroplast genomes (bar the peculiar recent chromatophore of P. chromatophora) transferred the genes encoding many essential subunits of photosynthetic complexes to the nucleus. Many of those gene handovers to the nucleus proceeded independently. Subunits are encoded in different compartments across species (Figure 10). But there is striking convergence of which subunit remained in the plastid. Two salient theories, not mutually exclusive, were proposed to explain this hypothesis.

One is called the CoRR (Co-location for Redox Regulation) hypothesis. It posits that the subunits retained in both chloroplast and mitochondria are key components in the electron transport chain and that their expression is regulated following redox fluctuations (Allen and Raven, 1996; Allen, 2017). An argument in favour of this hypothesis is that hydrogenosomes and mitosomes, former mitochondria that do not perform respiratory electron transport, have completely lost their genomes, presumably because they did not have to regulate themselves other redox sensitive functions. However, some key redox proteins such as the Rieske iron-sulphur protein have been transferred to the nucleus in many organisms, and so this sole theory is unlikely to fully explain the pattern of gene relocation from organelles to nucleus.

The other theory is based on the fact that proteins presumed difficult to import tend to stay in the chloroplast. Highly hydrophobic proteins with more than 3 transmembrane helices seem mostly confined to their organelle genome, mitochondrial or chloroplastic (Popot and de Vitry, 1990). Additionally, some proteins might require concerted translation and membrane integration to be functional. It was observed long ago in Chlamydomonas that part of the chloroplast ribosomes associate with the unstacked thylakoid membranes (Chua et al., 1973; Chua et al., 1976) and that this membrane bound fraction increases with light exposure, suggesting that those ribosomes are implicated in the synthesis of photosynthetic transmembrane proteins. In maize around half of the thylakoid membrane proteins integrate in the membrane co-translationally, as soon as the first transmembrane segment protrudes from the ribosome (Zoschke and Barkan, 2015). The short trans-membrane proteins, whose transmembrane domain does not exit the ribosome before translation is finished, are targeted post-translationally.

based on $\sim 100$ chloroplast genome sequences of plants and green algae
Figure 10: Cartoon of the photosynthetic complexes in the thylakoid membrane, genome origins of the subunits across Viridiplantae are indicated in colours.

## GEnome organisation And composition

Plastid genomes are quite diversified in their structure; they tend to be circular, can sometimes oligomerise and can take up a linear form. They often have large inverted repeats comprising the rRNA operon inherited from the cyanobacterial ancestor (Palmer, 1985; Keeling, 2010). Their size varies from 0.15 to 1.35 Mb , but this is not necessarily correlated with chloroplast gene number, as it can be imputed to variations of intergenic region length. Plastome size variation can also stem from the length of the inverted repeats (IR); in longer ones more genes will be found and so the genome size will increase with two copies of the IR genes.

In C. reinhardtii, as in other Chlorophyceae, short dispersed repeats are particularly prominent (Maul et al., 2002). A putative transposon, Wendy, acquired by C. reinhardtii (Fan et al., 1995) might have induced gene shuffling of the genome by homologous recombination. In C. reinhardtii synteny has been mostly lost compared to plant chloroplasts. This caused the ancestral operons to be completely modified: genes are still transcribed in polycistronic units but irrespective of their functions.


Figure 11: Gene shuffling: Left: Genes organised in operons (bacteria, plant chloroplasts to some degree) right: the polycistronic expression of genes (Chlamydomonas). Colours schematise the function of the gene products.

Rhodophyta and Glaucophyta have generally retained more genes in their plastome than Viridiplanta (Green, 2011; Jackson et al., 2015) but still have compact genomes of small sizes.

The core set of plastid genes conserved across the Viridiplantae encodes: the core subunits of a bacterial type RNA polymerase, a full set of tRNAs and rRNAs, some of the ribosomal proteins of both of the small and large subunit, and subunits of the photosynthetic apparatus: the large subunit of RuBisCO ( $r b c L$ ), many of the subunits of the thylakoid membrane electron transfer chain: PSI (psaA, psaB, psaC, psal), PSII (psbA, psbB, psbC, psbD, psbE, psbF, psbH, psbl, psbJ, psbK, psbL, psbN, psbT), cytochrome $b 6 f$ (petA, petB, petD, petG) and half of the subunits of the ATP synthase (atpA, atpB, atpE, atpF, atpH). The following part will be focused mainly on Chlamydomas reinhardtii.

## EXPRESSION OF THE CHLOROPLAST GENOME

## EXPRESSION MACHINERY

Chloroplast genomes retain characteristics of their cyanobacterial ancestor. The gene expression machinery is one of the key functions that the plastid keeps, at least in part, encoded in its genome. Their ribosome is of bacterial type, with 30s and 50s subunits. Ribosomal rRNAs are preserved in the plastid genome and are quite conserved across lineages. But the chloroplast ribosome includes a mix of chloroplast and nucleus encoded ribosomal proteins. Land plant chloroplasts contain two types of RNA polymerases: one of bacterial type; the plastid encoded polymerase (PEP), and one or two of phage type; the nucleus encoded polymerases (NEP)(Allison et al., 1996). In contrast, C. reinhardtii chloroplast only has a plastid encoded RNA polymerase of bacterial type, with a single nucleus encoded sigma factor (Surzycki and Shellenbarger, 1976). Plastids also have a full set of tRNAs.

While most of the gene expression machinery of the chloroplast is at least partially inherited from the cyanobacterial ancestor, the DNA replication system is not. Plastids do not encode a DNA polymerase (except some rare case of acquisition by LGT like in one cryptophyte (Khan et al., 2007)), and depend on the nucleus genome for their replication. Plant organellar polymerases (POP), encoded in the nucleus and found both in the mitochondria and plastid of most bikonts, are not related to bacterial polymerases (Moriyama et al., 2008). This could suggest that neither the DNA polymerase from the mitochondria or the chloroplast were successfully transferred to the nucleus, and that they were completely lost. This implicates that a DNA polymerase was recruited to replicate both the mitochondrial and chloroplast genomes. Surprisingly, no POP orthologue was found in Chlamydomonas, which instead targets a v-type polymerase to its organelles. Altogether, the loss of the probably redundant DNA polymerases of the organelle, suggests a great dependency of their genomes to the host.

## Transcription, RNA Editing, splicing and decay

Some chloroplast transcripts have a dedicated promotor and are directly expressed in a monocistronic form. However, many mature transcripts in the plastome are produced from polycistronic transcription units. In C. reinhardtii particularly, the genes of a polycistron do not generally contribute to the same function nor are co-regulated; gene regulation is accordingly expected to occur mostly at a post-transcriptional level (Rochaix, 1996; Choquet and Wollman, 2002).

Chloroplast mRNAs, both in algae and plants, much like their prokaryotic counterparts do not have a protective $5^{\prime}$ cap. The stroma contains exonucleases that degrade transcripts from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime} \rightarrow 5^{\prime}$ directions. To accumulate the transcripts are protected in their $3^{\prime}$ end by a stem-loop (Drager et al., 1996) and in the 5'end by specific factors that we will later study in detail (Drager et al., 1998; Pfalz et al., 2009). Those protective mechanisms prevent the progression of exonucleases on the mRNA; thus, they also define the boundaries of the mature mRNA.

In land plants, organellar mRNAs undergo cytidine to uridine editing, and sometimes U to C editing, often to restore a conserved amino acid or prevent a STOP codon (Smith et al., 1997; Green, 2011). Defective unedited transcripts usually produce impaired or non-functional products. Editing is organelle specific; as mitochondrial sequences could not be edited in chloroplasts and vice versa. In fact editing is site specific and the editing machinery depends on specific nucleus-encoded factors, the first one was identified in 2005 (Kotera et al., 2005). No RNA editing occurs in C. reinhardtii chloroplast.

Cis-splicing of plastid genes is quite rare in C. reinhardtii plastome; only two introns containing gene are present: psbA and rrnL, while 20 exist in A. thaliana plastome. A few cases of trans-splicing happen in chloroplasts, one example exists in $C$. reinhardtii: the $p s a A$ gene is transcribed from three exons at three distant loci. Those three transcripts are then trans-spliced together in two independent reactions that require several nuclear products (Choquet et al., 1988).

Like their prokaryote relatives and unlike their cytosol counterparts, chloroplast mRNA are destabilised by the addition of poly(A) tails in their $3^{\prime}$ end, those tails are partially heteropolymeric, meaning that they are composed of all four nucleotides but enriched in Adenosine (Schuster and Stern, 2009). Poly(A) tails are found both in the CDS and 3'UTR of chloroplast genes in C. reinhardtii, indicating that they are implicated in active degradation of mRNA (Bell et al., 2016).

## TRANSLATION

Plastid mRNA are long-lived compared to bacterial ones; they persist in the order of hours compared to the minutes of prokaryotic transcript lifetime. Experiments artificially decreasing the number of copies of the plastid genome in C. reinhardtii proved that gene dosage impacted mRNA transcription but not significantly translation (Hosler et al., 1989; Eberhard et al., 2002). Moreover, direct inhibition of chloroplast transcription with rifampicin in cells grown in mixotrophic conditions (with both light and acetate) did not affect much the chloroplast transcripts levels, while cells grown in phototrophic conditions displayed for many genes much lower levels of mRNAs, suggesting that they were more degraded. But even in those low mRNA conditions, translation remained stable and strong. This showed that there is no direct correlation between the level of transcript and the rate of translation, algae were able to bypass abnormal low transcript accumulation to translate normal levels of plastid protein (Eberhard et al., 2002). This could also imply that translation actively depletes the mRNA stocks, and that it is unsustainable with limited mRNA levels. This decorrelation between transcript abundance and translation seems to be less pronounced in steadystate and was shown to be stronger in plants plastids than in C. reinhardtii (Trosch et al., 2018). However, it appears that in many cases of mutations leading to diminished accumulation of a given transcript, translational regulations allow $C$. reinhardtii to cope with defect in gene expression.

Unlike in prokaryotes, transcription and translation do not massively co-occur in plastids, particularly in C. reinhardtii. Polycistronic transcripts in C. reinhardtii are accumulated at very low levels and are quickly processed in monocistronic mRNAs (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). Unlike in plants, translation of polycistronic transcripts appears rare. Considering the extent of operon shuffling in this alga this makes functional sense; genes found on a same polycistronic transcript might need to be expressed at very different rates. By being separately matured they can be translated and accumulated independently.

And so, mRNAs in the plastid are transcribed in excess and are "stored" without being translated. Control of gene expression in the chloroplast accordingly happen mostly post-transcriptionally (Rochaix, 1996; Choquet and Wollman, 2002; Germain et al., 2013). A simplified comparative model of gene expression in bacteria and $C$. reinhardtii is drawn in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Bacterial model of gene expression versus the C. reinhardtii plastid one. In bacteria transcription and translation occur at the same time for each protein of the operon. In chloroplasts the transcripts are processed from the polycistron are longer lived and are translated independently.


Bacterial gene expression


Plastid gene expression in $C$. reinhardtii

An interesting property of translation in C. reinhardtii is that some plastid encoded genes are translated in localised areas of the chloroplast, presumably for an easier assembly or targetting, (Uniacke and Zerges, 2009; Sun and Zerges, 2015). For example, the large subunit of RuBisCO (encoded by the plastid $r b c L$ ) is translated next to the pyrenoid, and it appear that this targetting depend on the rbcL mRNA sequence and not on the polypeptide itself. As we saw before, in chloroplats, some of photosynthetic transmembrane proteins translation is initiated in the stroma, then on the thylakoids membranes where they integrate co-translationnally as soon as their first trans-membrane domain is exposed out of the ribosome (Chua et al., 1973; Chua et al., 1976; Zoschke and Barkan, 2015)

## Protein degradation

Misfolded and damaged proteins in the chloroplast stroma can aggregate and become problematic for the cell. The major actor of the degradation of those proteins is the Clp (caseinolytic protease) protease complex (reviewed in (RodriguezConcepcion et al., 2019)). FtsH is a major thylakoid membrane protease complex (reviewed in (Kato and Sakamoto, 2018)), implicated in the quality control of the membrane embedded photosynthetic complexes, notably PSII or cyt. $b_{6} f$, and its activity is strengthened under high light by a redox activated mechanism (Wang et al., 2017). For a comprehensive review on chloroplast proteases see (Nishimura et al., 2017).

Nucleus-encoded subunits of the photosynthetic complexes that over accumulate in the plastid are degraded, for example the small subunit of the RuBisCO is rapidly degraded in the chloroplast in absence of the large subunit (Schmidt and Mishkind, 1983).

But chloroplast localised proteins are not only degraded when they are damaged or unassembled. For example: under sulphur (Malnoe et al., 2014; De Mia et al., 2019) or nitrogen starvation (Wei et al., 2014) photosynthetic complexes are degraded by FtsH and Clp to recover nutrients.

## NuCLEUS AND CHLOROPLAST, INTERACTIONS AND REGULATIONS

## IMPORT OF NUCLEUS-ENCODED PROTEINS

Since so many genes chloroplast genes have been transferred to the nucleus, import mechanisms had to be established to allow the essential gene products back into their original compartment. Most proteins targeted to the plastid need to bear a chloroplast targeting peptide (cTP) at their $N$ terminus. Those cTP are not conserved at the sequence level but share chemical properties that cause them to form an amphipathic helix. The hydrophobic part of the helix comes into contact with the chloroplast outer envelope, then the helix is pulled in the stroma by the TOC-TIC complex, the protein following along. The targeting peptide is then cleaved by the SPP (stromal processing peptidase) and degraded (Jarvis and Soll, 2001). The Hsp90 and Hsp70 cytosolic chaperones may be involved in the delivery of unfolded cytosolic preproteins to the TOC system (Paila et al., 2015). The TOC-TIC import complex is composed partly of proteins of cyanobacterial origin and other that arose from the host cell (Price et al., 2012). In vitro experiments suggest that the cTP interact preferentially with the chloroplast outer envelope thanks to its unique composition, as the only cytosol-exposed cell membrane containing galactolipids (Pinnaduwage and Bruce, 1996). Moreover, chloroplasts isolated from an Arabidopsis mutant deficient in production of digalactosyldiacylglycerol were defective in protein import (Chen and Li, 1998).

Proteins imported to the thylakoid lumen, have a second TP that similarly docks on the thylakoid membrane, then get imported in the lumen (Smeekens et al., 1986).

## RETROGRADE SIGNALLING

The nucleus/chloroplast interaction is not a one-way street. Retrograde signalling is a process of intracellular communication from the organelles to the nucleus. It is the counterpart of anterograde signalling, from the nucleus to the organelles. Retrograde signalling was suspected ever since it was discovered that nuclear encoded protein synthesis was modified following impairment of chloroplast translation (Bradbeer et al., 1979), and has been studied mostly in plants. The chloroplast can be submitted to different types of stresses: Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production under high light conditions, high temperatures, pathogen infection, drought or starvation... Those stresses induce damages in the DNA, membranes and proteins of the chloroplast. And necessitate the production of emergency products from the nucleus: ROS scavenger or chaperones for instance (Rea et al., 2018; Rochaix and Ramundo, 2018). Chloroplast sensors can detect those adverse conditions and transmit a signal either to the nucleus, for a transcriptional response, or to the cytosol for a post-transcriptional modulation. I will mention here two of the several known retrograde signals.

$$
\text { - }{ }^{1} \mathrm{O}_{2}
$$

Under high light, excited chlorophylls cannot transmit their electron to the saturated electron transfer chain, already reduced. Carotenoids in the LHC can partially quench this excitation energy, and chlorophylls can dissipate the excess energy by emitting heat or fluorescence. However, they are susceptible of reacting with oxygen, particularly the P680 of the PSII, near the water oxidising system. In this case, singlet oxygen, a highly reactive species, is produced. This ${ }^{1} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ damage the photosystem and can cause lipid peroxidation (Dogra et al., 2018). $\beta$-carotene and the nucleus encoded EXECUTER1 protein in Arabidopsis, or PSBP2 in Chlamydomonas (Brzezowski et al., 2012) are two separate singlet oxygen sensors in the chloroplast. Oxidised $\beta$-carotene derivatives are volatile and induce acclimation to high light stress in Arabidopsis (Ramel et al., 2012) and could also be implicated in Chlamydomonas (Ledford et al., 2007).

## - Linear tetrapyrroles: bilins

Phototropins, Flavin-based blue light receptors, modulate the expression of light harvesting proteins through the bilin pathway in C. reinhardtii (Im et al., 2006). Studies of a mutant of the heme oxygenase (hmox1) in C. reinhardtii, which cannot produce biliverdin (a bilin) showed that those molecules were critical for photo acclimation. Addition of ectopic biliverdins partially rescued the hmox1 phenotype (Duanmu et al., 2013). Transcriptomic analyses revealed that numerous nuclear genes were expressed differently in response to the bilin signalling pathway and were implicated in the dark-light transition (Wittkopp et al., 2017; Duanmu et al., 2013). Interestingly, the synthesis of tetrapyrroles and photoreceptors is not regulated by this pathway. This could allow the cells to always be ready to detect light changes.

## CES OF ORGANELLE COMPLEXES

Another process implicated in protein complexes assembly in organelle is the CES (Control by Epistasy of Synthesis) process (reviewed in (Choquet and Wollman, 2009)). CES subunits undergo a modulation of their translation according to their assembly state. This causes a sequential order in subunits synthesis that parallels their sequential assembly into a complex. Dominant subunits are necessary for the translation of the CES subunits. All photosynthetic complexes in C. reinhardtii chloroplast display at least one CES subunit (Figure 13).


Figure 13: Every photosynthetic complex in C. reinhardtii displays some form of CES mechanism. Black arrows indicate the hierarchy of subunit assembly, CES subunits are at the receiving end of dominant subunits.

The most common form of CES described so far is a negative autoregulation: when over accumulating, an unassembled subunit prevents its own translation. When all the subunits assemble properly that inhibition is lifted, and translation can resume. The inhibition is exerted on the $5^{\prime}$ UTR of the mRNA and can be studied thru chimeric genes. This mechanism has been observed for Cyt. $f$ translation, unassembled Cyt. $f$ embedded in the membrane induces the degradation of MCA1, the stabilisation factor of its mRNA, which is also implicated in its translation activation, thus in turn, less petA mRNA is accumulated and less of it is translated (Choquet et al., 1998; Choquet et al., 2001; Boulouis et al., 2011). Other auto-negative controls have been observed for PsaA and PsaC (Wostrikoff et al., 2004), D1 and apoCP47 (Minai et al., 2006), $\beta$ (Drapier et al., 2007), the LS subunit of RuBisCO in tobacco (Wostrikoff and Stern, 2007) and in C. reinhardtii (Khrebtukova and Spreitzer, 1996).

CES can also sometimes rely on activating interactions, a rare example is the synthesis of the $\alpha$ subunit of the ATP synthase, which is stimulated in trans by the $\beta$ subunit (Drapier et al., 2007).

CES was not only observed in chloroplasts of tobacco or C. reinhardtii but also in yeast mitochondria (eg:(Calder and McEwen, 1991; Zambrano et al., 2007; Bietenhader et al., 2012)).

## Organellar Trans Acting factors

Historically, nuclear mutations, outside of photosynthetic subunits, affecting the photosynthetic complexes have been isolated and characterised (Kuchka et al., 1988; Lemaire and Wollman, 1989; Drapier et al., 1992; Monod et al., 1992). They specifically impair the expression of one or a few chloroplast-encoded subunits, either at the mRNA, or translation stages. A wider picture soon emerged: transcripts in the chloroplast stroma but also the mitochondria need nuclear gene products (Barkan and Goldschmidt-Clermont, 2000) to be stabilised, matured and translated: the organellar trans-acting factors (OTAF). Those crucial factors can recognise and act on specific mRNA and as such are gene specific factors. I will call those specifically recognised mRNA: target mRNA in this manuscript. The OTAFs can be classified into big functional groups:

## - M factors

They are necessary for the Maturation and stabilisation of their target mRNA. They specifically bind on the 5'UTR of an mRNA and protect it from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases. Without its dedicated $M$ factor a transcript cannot accumulate. The addition of an artificial structure called polyG track, which we will also use in our studies, in the 5'UTR allows the constitutive stabilisation of downstream sequences, even in the absence of the cognate M factor (Drager et al., 1998). This illustrates the protective function of $M$ factors against $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases. In polycistronic transcript of land plants the binding of a single $M$ factor on the intergenic space can define the mature boundaries of both the 3'UTR of the upstream transcript, and the 5'UTR of the downstream transcript (Pfalz et al., 2009). However, this has not been observed in C. reinhardtii.

## - T factors

They are necessary for the translation of a specific mRNA. Their mode of action is poorly understood. Some of them act by opening secondary structures to uncover a sequestrated translation initiation signal, like TAB1 for psaB (Stampacchia et al., 1997) or RBP40 for psbD (Schwarz et al., 2007) both in C. reinhardtii, or PPR10 for atpH in maize (Prikryl et al., 2011). Some of them might interact with ribosomes or mRNA as they are translated and have been found to be associated with polysomes (as we will see in ARTICLE 3). T factors could be implicated in ribosome recruitment, as interactions between helical repeat proteins and ribosome have been previously observed. An atypical generic PPR translation factor rPPR1 is part of the ribosome machinery in Arabidopsis mitochondria, along with 9 other rPPR (ribosomal PPR) (Uyttewaal et al., 2008 ; Waltz et al., 2019). The PPR proteins KRIPP1 and KRIPP8, also associated with the mitochondrial ribosome, have selective translation activation properties in Trypanosoma brucei (Aphasizheva et al., 2016).

## - Editing factors

Editing factors define the specific sites where edition of organellar RNA will occur. They recognise specific target sequences a few nucleotides upstream of the RNA editing site. They are prevalent in plants, but obviously not in green algae where editing does not occur. They are mainly represented by PPR proteins of a special subtype: PLS that I will present further below (Kotera et al., 2005; Kobayashi et al., 2012; Barkan and Small, 2014). This PPR-PLS group has expended in parallel to the expansion of editing in plants (Schmitz-Linneweber and Small, 2008).

## - Splicing factors

These factors are required for the splicing of organellar mRNA. PPR5 is involved in the tRNA trnG-UCC splicing in maize chloroplasts (Williams-Carrier et al., 2008) RAA1, RAA3, RAA8, RAT2, are 4 OPR proteins implicated in the trans-splicing of the psaA mRNA in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (Merendino et al., 2006; Marx et al., 2015).

## - Endonucleolytic factors

Putative endonucleolytic factors have been found both among PPR and OPR. They bear in their C terminal region domains related to endonucleolytic ones described in other organisms: a RNA Binding Abundant in Apicomplexa (RAP) domain (Lee and Hong, 2004; Boehm et al., 2017) or small MutS-related (SMR) domain (Zhou et al., 2017). But other factors devoid of such domains could also recruit endonucleases like RPF5 (Hauler et al., 2013) RFL9 (Arnal et al., 2014) and RFL2 (Fujii et al., 2016), PPR proteins in Arabidopsis mitochondria.

protects RNA and defines its boundarie(s)


Cleaves with a C ter domain recruits endonucleases


Figure 14: The many roles of OTAF proteins in organelles RNA metabolism.

OTAF PROTEINS BELONG TO MANY INDEPENDENT PROTEIN FAMILIES
OTAF belong to many different protein families of various origins, with different preferred families in different lineages. Many of those families belong to the superfamily of $\alpha$-solenoid proteins (Kobe and Kajava, 2000), a type of super helical protein formed by tandem repeats of $\alpha$ helices hairpins stacked together and held by van der Waals interactions. Their extended groove can accommodate long biomolecules, like proteins, DNA or RNA strands. Those atypical proteins, contrary to globular proteins, are quite flexible, and can fold and unfold rapidly without dissipating much energy, some of them have even been dubbed biological springs (Kim et al., 2010). These $\alpha$-solenoid proteins, formed of repeated motifs, can evolve rapidly, because of unequal crossing over, duplication or losses of the similar repeat sequences in the genome. However, repeats of different families are usually not found in a same protein, because of their different stacking properties (Kajava, 1998). And so, residues critical to the overall super helical structure are preserved, while the other can vary because of the large pool of duplicated repeats. This gave rise to the convergent evolution of independent protein families with similar super-structures and physiological roles, which cannot intermingle but evolve dynamically on their own.

I will give a brief overview of some of the OTAF protein families in the next few pages. This super-group embodies the convergence of regulatory mechanisms that arose from endosymbiosis, and the crucial nature of gene expression control from the nucleus to the organelles.

## TPR and HAT

TPR are $\alpha$-solenoid proteins with a defining repeat of 34 amino acids, the tetratricopeptide repeat, folding into two antiparallel $\alpha$-helices. TPR have mainly been described for their role in protein/protein interactions and are present in all the tree of life (Blatch and Lassle, 1999). But a derivative of the TPR, the HAT (half a tetratricopeptide repeat) had been proposed to bind RNA (Preker and Keller, 1998) and rightly, some of them do. For instance, in the chloroplast of $C$. reinhardtii: MAC1, a factor stabilising psaC mRNA (Douchi et al., 2016), NAC2, which stabilises psbD mRNA (Boudreau et al., 2000), or MBB1 which stabilises the psbB and psbH transcripts (Vaistij et al., 2000; Loizeau et al., 2014), and has an orthologue in Arabidopsis HCF107 that acts on the same genes (Sane et al., 2005) and is also implicated in translation by uncovering the translation initiation signal of psbH (Hammani et al., 2012).

## mTERF

The mTERF family, whose first example was a transcription termination factor observed in human mitochondria (Daga et al., 1993), is characterised by a motif of 30 amino acids. Those $\alpha$-solenoid proteins are found in animals and plants (Roberti et al., 2009). mTERF6 is required for the maturation of Arabidopsis trnl. 2 in the plastid (Romani et al., 2015), mTERF4 for the splicing of type II introns in maize plastids (Hammani and Barkan, 2014).

## PPR

The PPR (pentatricopeptide) protein family is a subgroup of OTAF, which was defined twice independently twenty years ago (Aubourg et al., 2000; Small and Peeters, 2000) The PPR family is spread across the tree of eukaryotes but has expanded massively in plants (more than 450 in Arabidopsis versus 15 in yeast or 6 in human) probably because the plastome needs many factors to cater to its expression, while other organisms, like metazoans, with only a mitochondria with a small genome, have less organellar genes to regulate. But PPR are also rare in green algae (14 in Chlamydomonas for instance; (Tourasse et al., 2013)), where other OTAF families are more abundant. And so, PPR have been extensively studied in land plants (Lurin et al., 2004; Schmitz-Linneweber and Small, 2008; Barkan and Small, 2014). PPR are mostly targeted to the organelles, either plastid or mitochondria, or sometimes both (Colcombet et al., 2013; Lurin et al., 2004).

The PPR proteins bear degenerate 35 amino acids motifs (Figure 17), which fold into two antiparallel $\alpha$ helices. Those tandem repeats stack into a solenoid super helix, with the first helix of each repeat inside the groove. This motif has been predicted to interact with the mRNA thanks to positive residues forming a continuous surface inside the groove (Small and Peeters, 2000).


Figure 15: Crystal structure of a designer PPR bound to its cognate RNA, from (Shen et al., 2016), the PPR wraps around the RNA. Red areas are positively charged, the blue ones negatively charged.


Figure 16: Crystal structure of PPR10 bound to one of its psaJ target mRNA, from (Yin et al., 2013). A. The bases of the psaJ mRNA are inserted between bulky residues of the internal helices of the PPR repeats. B. Interactions of the $5^{\text {th }}$ residue (in cyan) of PPR10 repeats with the bases of psaJ. The dotted red lines represent hydrogen bonds.

Further understanding of the mRNA/PPR motif interactions was achieved by molecular, computational and structural studies in the past decade (Prikryl et al., 2011; Yin et al., 2013; Ban et al., 2013; Gully et al., 2015) and a PPR recognition code was established in several studies (Barkan et al., 2012; Kobayashi et al., 2012; Yagi et al., 2013; Kobayashi et al., 2019) and demonstrated in vitro on the maize PPR10 protein by recoding it to recognise modified RNAs (Barkan et al., 2012). This PPR code links the nature of residues at specific positions in the PPR repeat with the affinity for a specific nucleotide. Notably residues in position 5 and 35 ( 6 and $1^{\prime}$ following the authors nomenclature) were proved to be essential to recognise specific bases. Crystal structures of this same PPR10 with one of its cognate mRNA psaJ, revealed that the bases of the mRNA are "locked" in place by bulky residues at the $2^{\text {nd }}$ position of the PPR motif, and that the $5^{\text {th }}$ residue forms hydrogen bonds with the base (Yin et al., 2013). Electrostatic forces, with succession of positive residues at the $13^{\text {th }}$ position on the PPR attracting the negative RNA, and a succession of negatively charged residues repulsing it, seem crucial to establish the PPR/mRNA interaction (McDermott et al., 2018).

Two main classes of PPR proteins have been defined according to their type of PPR repeats (Figure 17):

- The P-type with proteins containing successive canonical PPR motifs. They are implicated in a variety of physiological role; maturation and stabilisation of mRNA, translation or splicing... around 240 have been found in A. thaliana.
- The PLS type with proteins containing a distinctive trio of PPR derived motifs: one canonical $\mathbf{P}$ repeat, then a Long PPR motif (about 35-36 amino acids), then a Short one (average of 31 amino acids). This class of PPR is implicated in RNA editing. About 200 are present in A. thaliana.


Figure 17: Consensus amino acid sequence of canonical P PPR motif, and its variants: L (long) and S (short). Cyan arrows indicate the key residues for establishing the recognition specificity of the repeat. The grey bars indicate where the two $\alpha$-helices of the canonical PPR motif lie. Modified from (Barkan and Small, 2014)

Some PPR proteins also have more conserved additional domains in their C terminal region (Aubourg et al., 2000; Lurin et al., 2004; Rivals et al., 2006) . The PLS class PPR have most of the time an E domain, plus often an $\mathrm{E}^{+}$one, in turn regularly followed by a DYW domain. The DYW domain (named after its 3 last residues) has a motif homologous to cytidine deaminases, which is necessary for RNA editing (Boussardon et al., 2014). PPR editing factors devoid of DYW domains interact with nonspecific edition factors (Guillaumot et al., 2017). For example, CRR4 interacts with DYW1 (a protein devoid of PPR repeats) to edit ndhD in Arabidopsis chloroplast (Boussardon et al., 2012). E (extended) motifs might rather be implicated in nucleotide recognition (Ruwe et al., 2019). A few of P-class PPR protein bear in their C terminus a small MutS-related (SMR) domain, which might have an endonucleolytic activity (Zhou et al., 2017).

PPR proteins are implicated in all steps of organellar RNA expression, to cite only a few examples; transcription (Ikeda and Gray, 1999) stabilisation and maturation (Meierhoff et al., 2003; Loiselay et al., 2008; Beick et al., 2008; Pfalz et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2010), editing (Kotera et al., 2005; Okuda and Shikanai, 2012), splicing (Williams-Carrier et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2018), translation initiation (Prikryl et al., 2011) and cleavage (Zhou et al., 2017).
$80 \%$ of PPR genes in Arabidopsis do not have introns (Lurin et al., 2004), and so it is probable that they were transposed and spread around the genome by a retrotransposition mechanism. While most PPR proteins are quite conserved across terrestrial plants species, where they accomplish crucial roles on the often conserved target RNAs, clusters of PPR proteins that are highly variable between species have been described. Those clusters of paralogous PPR genes, stemming from duplications, undergo diversifying selection across species and thus gain new RNA targets (Fujii et al., 2011). Those restorers of fertility like PPR (RFL-PPR), in part counteract mitochondrial RNAs causing cytoplasmic male sterility in plants but can also play subtle roles in other mitochondrial mRNAs maturation (Dahan and Mireau, 2013). Altogether, this fast-evolving subgroup of PPR forms a reservoir of mitochondrial factors that can duplicate and acquire random new targets to respond to new CMS developed by the mitochondria, in a form of "arm-race".

## 4. The OPR: A SUbFamily of OTAF

As we just saw, PPR are quite scarce in chlorophytes (only 14 PPR in C. reinhardtii). While algae do not edit their organellar transcripts, dispensing for the need of specific editing factors, their chloroplast genomes are of the same length and complexity that those of terrestrial plants. About a hundred genes must be controlled in the chloroplast but only a few in the mitochondria. To do so Chlorophyceae rely on another family of OTAF factors: the octotricopeptide repeat (OPR) proteins.

The octotricopeptide repeat is a degenerated motif of around 38 amino acids that folds in a pair of antiparallel $\alpha$-helices in a structure reminiscent of PPR (Figure 18), as confirmed by the recent structure of the OPR protein ASA2 (see below). OPR repeats, when stacked together, form an $\alpha$ solenoid structure. However, PPR and OPR seem to have arisen from different origins separately by convergent evolution, as no similarity can be detected between the two motifs. In contrast to PPR that are highly abundant in land plants, OPR are mostly found in Chlorophyceae, and are very scarce in plants: only one lone OPR is found in Arabidopsis, Physcomitrella, rice or maize (Kleinknecht et al., 2014). This suggest that both OPR and PPR were present in the Viridiplantae ancestor and that one of the two groups subsequently exploded independently in streptophytes and chlorophytes to fill the same roles of organelles control.


Figure 18: The consensus sequence of the OPR repeats found in photosynthetic organisms. The taller the residue, the most abundant it is. The positions of the two putative $\alpha$-helices are indicated under the consensus. The red arrow indicates the $6^{\text {th }}$ amino acid, which is expected to be crucial for the specific interaction with nucleotides of the target mRNA.

The PPPEW conserved motif described in (Eberhard et al., 2011; Rahire et al., 2012), based on subsets of respectively 42 and 43 OPR proteins of Chlamydomonas is less prominent in our LOGO stemming from a larger OPR proteins sample (originating both from C. reinhardtii and other organisms). Our definition of the OPR repeat instead of only 43 proteins, recover 127 in C. reinhardtii. In this LOGO drawn from a larger set of OPR repeats, another motif seems more conspicuous than PPPEW, the LWALA at the end of the first $\alpha$ helix.

The OPR families defined in (Eberhard et al., 2011; Rahire et al., 2012) were based on and contain mostly T and splicing factors. The difference with our newer LOGO could originate from differences between the T factors, that seem to interact briefly with RNA, and the numerous M factors included in our sample, which bind stably on RNA. It is conceivable that this difference in function results from variations in the first helix, which is believed to interact with the nucleotide (Figure 19).


OPR T factors from Chlamydomonas


OPR splicing factors from Chlamydomonas


## OPR M factors from Chlamydomonas

Figure 19: LOGOs of OPR repeats from different functional factors in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii show a divergence in sequence. The LOGOs were obtained with MEME suite (Bailey et al., 2009), note that MEME finds motifs of 37 amino acids, with an offset of several residues. The M factor LOGO was adjusted to align with the T and splicing factors LOGOs.

As PPR proteins (Lipinski et al., 2011), OPR proteins evolve rapidly in different clades. The LOGO in Figure 18 was mostly drawn from photosynthetic organisms but may differ in others. The two LOGOs in Figure 20 illustrate this divergence between clades, even if both are photosynthetic: in diatoms for instance the LWALA motif becomes AWAFA, and the tryptophan in the $29^{\text {th }}$ position is replaced by another aromatic amino acid: phenylalanine. Thus, one can consider the OPR proteins, the HeptatricoPeptide Repeat (HPR) proteins, recently identified in Plasmodium (Hillebrand et al., 2018), and the human FASTK proteins (Boehm et al., 2017), as distant members of a same polymorphic family. Indeed, using our OPR motif to scan the HPR proteins found in Chlamydomonas we recover nearly all of them (33 out of 36) as OPR proteins (see Annex 4). In addition, this extended OPR/HPR/FASTK family is characterised by the possible addition at the C-terminus of a RNA Binding Abundant in Apicomplexa (RAP) domain, possibly implicated in RNA cleavage.


Figure 20: LOGOs of OPR repeats in Chlorophyceae and diatoms differs. The LOGOs were obtained with MEME suite (Bailey et al., 2009), note that MEME finds motifs of 37 amino acids, with an offset of several residues.

OPR proteins have mostly been studied in C. reinhardtii where they thrived, with more than 120 OPR factors. Much like other OTAF, they are implicated in every possible post-transcriptional step of organelle gene expression, such as RNA stabilisation and maturation (Drager et al., 1998; Murakami et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015; Viola et al., 2019; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017) (ARTICLE 1 and Article 3), splicing (Rivier et al., 2001; Merendino et al., 2006; Balczun et al., 2006; Jacobs et al., 2013; Marx et al., 2015), translation initiation (Zerges and Rochaix, 1994; Stampacchia et al., 1997; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Eberhard et al., 2011; Rahire et al., 2012; LefebvreLegendre et al., 2015; Cline et al., 2017), and possibly RNA degradation as well (Drapier, 2002; Boulouis et al., 2015).

Recently a single particle cryo-electron microscopy structure at a resolution of 2.7 to $2.8 \AA$ of the ASA2 (ATP Synthase Associated) OPR protein, containing 8 OPR repeats and a degenerated RAP domain, confirmed that OPR repeats fold into helical hairpins that stack on each other to form a "half a donut" structure (Murphy et al., 2019) (Figure 21).

The first helix of the OPR repeat lays in the groove of the super-helix. This first helix is more conserved than the second one, hinting that it is more important for the function of the motif (Figure 18). However, specific positions in this conserved helix are highly variable. Those variable residues, notably the sixth one, protrude at the inner face of the groove and are predicted to be crucial for the specific recognition of a given nucleotide.

However, ASA2 is a peculiar OPR that does not bind RNA whose position is occupied by the N-terminal arm of the ASA7 protein. It is associated with Polytomella sp. mitochondrial ATP synthase, as part of the atypical stator-stalk found in the mitochondria of Chlorophyceae (Vazquez-Acevedo et al., 2006). Interestingly a PPR protein is associated with the CF1 of Trypanosoma brucei mitochondrial ATP synthase (Montgomery et al., 2018). Whether this parallel just stems from random conversion
of available organelles proteins to assume other functions or whether $\alpha$-solenoid proteins bring useful structural properties to the ATP synthase complex remain to be elucidated.


Figure 21: Cryo-electron microscopy structure of ASA2 from (Murphy et al., 2019). The $6^{\text {th }}$ residue of each OPR motif is indicated in red. Note the helical shape of the protein.

A preliminary recognition code (Table 1) based on confirmed OPR proteins/mRNA pairs has been drafted by Yves Choquet but remains putative and incomplete (as we will see from Chapter III). OPR proteins have been less studied than PPR proteins so far, and so, only a few of them have been characterised. Consequently, few validated OPR/mRNA pairs are available, making a recognition code more difficult to establish. Conversely, the absence of a confirmed molecular recognition code precludes the prediction of potential targets for many cryptic OPRs and hamper their study.

| Position | Residue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | x | x | x | x | R, K | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 4 | x | P | x | x | x-P | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 5 | x | Q | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{X} \\ -\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{~K} \end{gathered}$ | R, K | x | R | X-R | R, Q | x | R | R |
| 6 | E | G | D | D | D | Q | Q | A | H | S | N |



Table 1: The draft OPR recognition code, established by Yves Choquet.
Similarly to PPR proteins, most OPR proteins have conserved orthologues across chlorophyceae (or at least within the same order) and act on conserved sequences within their target mRNA (see alignments in Articles 1 and 3).

An intriguing subfamily of OPR-RAP proteins dubbed the NCL (NCC-like) was found in C. reinhardtii. Two dominant mutants, ncc1 and ncc2 (Drapier, 2002; Boulouis et al., 2015) with point mutations in the sixth OPR repeats of NCC1 and NCC2, respectively induced the degradation of the atpA and petA transcripts. This degradation signal is borne by two specific small RNA sequences in atpA or petA CDS, respectively. The mutations in those two OPR proteins are expected to modify their specificity and thus provide them these two new targets.

Indeed, the point mutation in NCC1 changes $\mathrm{D}_{6 \text { th }}$ to $\mathrm{A}_{\text {6th }}$ in its sixth OPR motif and is expected to modify the nucleotide recognised by this OPR motif. The point mutation in NCC2 changes $\mathrm{S}_{8 \text { th }}$ to $\mathrm{R}_{8 \text { th }}$ in its sixth OPR motif and somehow appears to change the recognition of the OPR protein.

NCC1 and NCC2 belong to a family of 38 paralogues, the NCL proteins for NCC-Like, stemming from local gene duplication. Most of them lie together in a cluster on chromosome 15. Similar NCL clusters were found in Chlamydomonas debaryana (17), Chlamydomonas asymetrica (5), Chlamydomonas spheroides (20), Tetrabaena socialis (34) and Gonium pectorale (9) but not in some other closely related species such as Volvox carteri, Yamagishiella unicocca, Eudorina species or Chlamydomonas applanata. This suggests either a recent formation of those clusters or a secondary loss in some organisms. Interestingly, it appears that the more the organism displays a "social" organisation, with progressively more complex colonies, the more the NCL cluster tends to shrink and finally disappears as in Volvox carteri, Eudorina species, or Yamagishella unicocca. This might be a coincidence, but the OPR-RAP could perhaps become dispensable upon transition to multicellularity (Figure 22).


Figure 22: There could be an inverse correlation between the number of NCL proteins and the transition to multicellularity.

The function of the NCL family remains cryptic. It is likely, like the RFL-PPR, a reservoir under diversifying selection pressure for evolving OPR factors with new targets. Their association with a RAP domain suggests that they might directly cleave mRNA. Perhaps could they be involved in pathogen resistance by destroying intruding RNAs?

Many aspects of the OPR protein family function remain understudied for now. This family holds certainly many more secrets. In this thesis, I contributed to the growing knowledge of OPR proteins, by studying the physiological roles of some of them and by grappling with their specific RNA binding activity to try to understand how it is established.

## 5. The ATP Synthase

The ATP synthase is a very complex protein machinery that is ubiquitous across the tree of life. It is thought to have been present in LUCA (Weiss et al., 2016). How such a complicated molecular motor, with its many subunits, came to be so early in evolution remains mysterious. But leaving aside its origins, the ATP synthase is an invaluable complex for life. Embedded in a membrane this motor acts as a selective channel to dissipate $\mathrm{H}^{+}$or $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$gradients while generating ATP, the major chemical energy source for most biological processes. The proton or sodium motive force creates a rotation of the ATP synthase "rotor" (Junge et al., 1997). The central stalk, part of the rotor, then rotates into the catalytic head of the CF1 (Sabbert et al., 1996), at the exterior of the membrane, inducing conformational changes in the $\alpha$ and $\beta$ subunits that catalyse the production of ATP from ADP and inorganic $\mathrm{PO}_{4}{ }^{2-}$ (Elston et al., 1998). A peripheral stalk stabilises the stator by connecting Atpl to the catalytic head of CF1, thereby preventing fruitless rotation of the CF1. The ATP synthase can also work in reverse and consume ATP to equilibrate cations gradients.

In eukaryotes, the ATP synthase is present in mitochondria as in the plastids of photosynthetic organisms. In mitochondria, this molecular motor forms quite stiff dimers that induce folds in the mitochondrial membrane (Giraud et al., 2002; Dudkina et al., 2005). Interestingly, the stator-stalks of mitochondrial ATP synthase from land plant and green algae are very different (Vazquez-Acevedo et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 2019), the chlorophycean one includes notably an OPR! It seems that available proteins imported to the mitochondria could see their role tweaked to integrate protein complexes, and that this phenomenon is quite adaptive; since the mitochondria is an ancient endosymbiont it is fascinating to witness such differences in an absolutely key protein complex.

In the chloroplast, ATP synthases are monomeric and flexible (Hahn et al., 2018; Kuhlbrandt, 2019). In spinach kept in the dark, the proton gradient is null across the thylakoid membrane and the ATP synthases are blocked by a redox control switch in their central stalk. Thus, they do not consume ATP to pump proton back into the lumen (Junesch and Gräber, 1987; Hahn et al., 2018). This is an efficient mechanism to prevent wasteful hydrolysis of ATP at night.

Another intriguing property of the ATP synthase is how the number of subunits c (AtpH in C. reinhardtii) varies a lot across different phyla. The bovine mitochondrial ATP synthase has a ring of $8 \mathrm{c}\left(\mathrm{c}_{8}\right)$. The mitochondrial ATP synthase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae has a $\mathrm{c}_{10}$ ring. The ATP synthases from Hyobacter tartaricus have a $\mathrm{c}_{11}$ ring, from Caldalkalibacillus thermarum a $\mathrm{c}_{13}$ ring, from spinach chloroplast a $\mathrm{c}_{14}$ ring and from the cyanobacterium Spirulina platensis a $\mathrm{c}_{15}$ ring. The biggest found so far is a $\mathrm{c}_{17}$ ring in


Figure 23: Structures of C-rings in the rotor of varuous ATP synthases, from (Walker, 2013)
an ATP synthase of Burkholderia pseudomallei (Schulz et al., 2017), a human pathogen. As a c-ring needs as many $\mathrm{H}^{+}$(or $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$) as it contains subunits to make a full rotation, and since a $360^{\circ}$ rotation is needed for CF1 to produce 3 ATP, the cation cost to produce one ATP is the number of c-subunits divided by 3 (Walker, 2013). The more c subunits, the less ATP is produced per cation. In other terms, bigger barrels should be less efficient but are strangely widespread in bacteria and chloroplasts.
The number of subunits in the c-ring could instead be linked to other functions than primarily producing ATP, for optimal growth or to adapt to the physiological environment (Kuhlbrandt, 2019). The $\mathrm{c}_{17}$ ring of B. pseudomallei for instance, could allow the ATP synthase to function as a high throughput proton pump by consuming ATP, to help this pathogen cope inside the acidic phagosome of macrophages (Schulz et al., 2017). $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$ATP synthases could also be used to endure salt stress.
Nucleus encoded subunits
Chloroplast encoded subunits
Figure 24: C. reinhardtii ATP synthase

In C. reinhardtii the chloroplast ATP synthase is composed of: CF1: $3 \alpha: 3 \beta: 1 \gamma: 1 \delta: 1 \varepsilon$ and CFo: 14 AtpH: 1 Atpl: 1 AtpF: 1 ATPG. As for all photosynthetic complexes, the subunits are encoded in part in the nucleus genome, while others have been retained in the chloroplast one (Figure 24).

The CFo contains 14 AtpH subunits and 1 Atpl, their interface constitutes the two hemichannels of the proton channel, one open on the lumenal side and one on the stromal side. After entering from the lumen, the proton is accepted by a glutamic acid that does a near complete rotation along the AtpH barrel to reach the exit channel. The high pH of the stroma deprotonates the glutamic acid, the proton is released.

The catalytic "head" of the ATP synthase is formed by $3 \alpha$ and $3 \beta$ subunits, they are similar in their structure and both have a central nucleotide-binding domain. The $\beta$ subunits are pushed by the asymmetrical $\gamma$ stalk as it rotates and undergo conformational changes that change their catalytic properties. They go thru three states: an open one where the newly produced ATP is released, a loose state allowing the binding of ADP and Pi , and a tight one where ATP is formed from ADP and Pi. The $\alpha$ subunits do not exhibit an open state, and are not thought to directly catalyse ATP formation (Walker, 2013).

Aside from those mechanical properties, it is interesting to note that those subunits: AtpH, Atpl, $\alpha$ and $\beta$, are influenced by the redox potential and are still encoded in the chloroplast, following CoRR hypothesis. But in contrast, $\gamma$, which exhibit a redox-switch property to stop the ATP synthase at night is now encoded in the nucleus, seemingly in contradiction with CoRR theory. Another sticking point is that while AtpH and Atpl are also both hydrophobic transmembrane proteins, following the difficulty of import hypothesis in C. reinhardtii, in some species atpl has been transferred to the nucleus... Altogether, explaining why some subunits are now expressed in the nucleus while other stayed anchored in the chloroplast genome is quite a difficult task.

## 6. Main objectives of This thesis:

While I also contributed to the study of mutants not affected in OPR factors (see Article 2), the bulk of my work has been the study of OPR proteins in C. reinhardtii, to better grasp their biological roles and their RNA-binding activities. To do so, I focused on two OPR factors implicated in the expression of the chloroplast ATP synthase: MDB1 and MTHI1.

As we saw previously, the OPR protein family has not been studied as extensively as the PPR protein family and many aspects of their functions remain shrouded in mystery. The range of their physiological roles has yet to be completely explored. This thesis aimed to improve our knowledge and broaden our understanding of the physiological functions of those OPR factors.

- In the first chapter, I will develop the functional study of the M factor: MDB1 and its chloroplast target mRNA atpB.
- In the second chapter, I will describe the study of MTHI1, a peculiar OPR protein targeting two mRNAs, atpH and atpl, with, for both genes, a dual role in mRNA stabilisation and translation initiation.

Those parts focusing on the physiological roles of $M$ factors revealed unsuspected properties of the OPR protein functions in the chloroplast of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, which led us to start reconsidering our previous theories on those proteins.

Considering the OPR potential as modular RNA binding proteins, the OPR repeat is a motif of great interest to design or modify proteins. It could be used for the production of designer OPR proteins to bind desired targets, as has begun with PPR (Filipovska and Rackham, 2013; Coquille et al., 2014; Yagi et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2016; Spahr et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2019; Rojas et al., 2019). But to capitalise on this flexible motif, it is crucial to first uncover its primary property: its capacity to recognise specific nucleotides. This ability might follow a recognition code and a hypothetic one was drafted prior to this thesis.

This preliminary "OPR code" remains putative and uncomplete; no target prediction is possible for T factors; whose mode of action remains quite nebulous. Indeed, T factors seem to interact only transiently with their target mRNA and their footprints are not easily recoverable. Moreover, they tend to show a bias for OPR motifs that are not widespread in the better-characterised M factors. This creates a situation where the preferred OPR repeats of T factors stay "unreadable". Similarly, for the NCL family whose function might be subtle we can barely predict a target for a few of them.

Altogether, the study of the molecular recognition code of OPR proteins would be greatly beneficial to improve our understanding of OPR factors, and to allow the study of the many uncharacterised OPR proteins of Chlamydomonas, or other organisms. In addition, it would pave the way for designing OPR proteins. The main objective that I pursued in the three years of this thesis was to decipher this potential "OPR code" in vivo.

- In the third chapter, I will present our initial work on the OPR/RNA interaction in vivo, and how it turned on its head our view of $M$ factors.
- In the fourth chapter, I will explain and detail the system I developed in vivo to "crack" the OPR recognition code.

My thesis underpins how the functional landscape of OPR protein in vivo is far more complex than anticipated. And was a watershed point in our understanding of OTAF in C. reinhardtii chloroplast.

## I. FUNCTIONAL STUDIES OF THE MDB1/ATPB EXPRESSION SYSTEM

## INTRODUCTION

## atpB

$\operatorname{atp} B$ is the chloroplast gene encoding the $\beta$ subunit of the plastid ATP synthase (Figure 25). In C. reinhardtii, unlike in plants, $a t p B$ is not co-expressed with atpE in a polycistron, atpE is more than 100 kb away, sitting at the opposite side of the plastid genome. $a t p B$ has its own promotor and is expressed as a monocistron. The two genes are controlled independently. Like most plastid genes $a t p B$ does not have any intron, simply a CDS of 1446 nt. A secondary structure in atpB $3^{\prime}$ UTR is implicated in transcript stability and $3^{\prime}$ end maturation but not in transcription efficiency (Stern et al., 1991). 3' end maturation of atpB transcript also appears to stimulate its translation (Rott et al., 1998a), a topic that


Figure 25: The $\beta$ subunits of the chloroplast ATP synthase. we will further explore in this chapter.
$\operatorname{atpB} 3$ 'end maturation proceeds by two successive steps; first an endonucleolytic cleavage 10 nt downstream of the secondary structure, then the trimming of the remaining 10 nucleotides in a $3^{\prime} \rightarrow 5^{\prime}$ degradation. (Stern and Kindle, 1993), meanwhile the residual transcript fragment cleaved downstream of the endonucleolytic cleavage site is rapidly degraded by $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases (Hicks et al., 2002). This $3^{\prime}$ UTR secondary structure defines the $3^{\prime}$ boundary of atpB mature mRNA, but as we saw previously (Introduction p33) the $5^{\prime}$ end of $C$. reinhardtii plastid mRNAs is defined by specific factors, that bind and protect the mRNA from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases. In ARTICLE 1 (attached at the end of this manuscript) we studied this specific factor and the maturation process of the $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ end.


## MDB1

A nuclear mutant: thm24, isolated by Schmidt in 1977 was later identified as a chloroplastic ATP synthase mutant (Piccioni et al., 1981). It was found to translate neither of the chloroplastic ATP synthase subunits $\alpha$ (AtpA) or $\beta$ (AtpB) (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989). Further studies revealed that in this mutant no atpB mRNA accumulated (Drapier et al., 1992) and that the defective translation of subunit $\alpha$ was due to a CES control by subunit $\beta$ of subunit $\alpha$ synthesis (Drapier et al., 2007): in absence of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA, subunit $\beta$ is not synthesised and cannot activate the translation of the atpA mRNA.

Another mutant, obtained by Laura Houille in an insertional mutagenesis campaign (Houille-Vernes et al., 2011), called L35a, was found to have the same phenotype, as we will see in Article 1.

Both thm 24 and $L 35 a$ are affected in the same gene identified by whole genome sequencing, which encodes an OPR protein, and was named MDB1 (Maturationstabilisation of complex $\underline{\mathbf{D}}$ (ATP synthase) atp $\underline{B}$ transcript) (Figure 27). thm24 displays a single deletion of one A in MDB1 exon 5 that transforms a BstXI restriction site into a Bsrl site and leads to the formation of a premature STOP codon and to translation abortion. This mutant will be dubbed mdb1-1 in the following manuscript. L35a, bears a large deletion of 30 kb encompassing MDB1 and six other genes, L35a will be named mab1-2.


Figure 27: The L35a (mdb1-2) and thm24 (mdb1-1) mutants

MDB1 (Cre14.g614550) is a nuclear gene of 7127 nt on chromosome 14 (Figure 28.A). It contains 10 introns and encodes a protein of 1137 amino acids, which is predicted to be addressed to the chloroplast by the Wolf PSort (Horton et al., 2007), Predotar (Small et al., 2004) and ChloroP (Emanuelsson et al., 1999) programs. This protein has disordered regions in its N terminus and C terminus and 13 OPR motifs in its central region. The OPR motifs are separated in two groups of seven and six continuous repeats by a "hinge" of three $\alpha$-helices (Figure 28.B). We suspect that this "hinge" could relieve tensions exerted when binding on the cognate atpB mRNA. Indeed, interaction of a long continuous PPR protein with mRNA induces a contraction of the PPR protein helical structure (Shen et al., 2016) that probably creates a strain on the mRNA. Addition of "breathing" structures between extended helical repeat stacks might help alleviate those tensions, or inversely some nucleotides in the centre of the target could also be "ignored" by the repeats, to loosen the interaction in the middle, like might happen with PPR10.



Figure 28: A. MDB1 gene on chromosome 14. B. Right: a prediction of MDB1 structure by the program I-Tasser, Left: A cartoon of MDB1 OPR domains.

Crosses between mdb1-1 and strains carrying chimeric transcripts under the control of the atpB 5'UTR, revealed that this 5'UTR was sufficient to induce an MDB1dependant accumulation of chimeric mRNAs. Moreover, immunoprecipitation proved that tagged MDB1 interacts specifically, indirectly or directly, with the atpB mRNA 5' UTR (figure 2 from Article 1). The addition of a polyG track a sequence of 18 successive G, that forms a strong and voluminous secondary structures in RNA, effectively blocking the path of exonucleases, (Drager et al., 1998) in atpB 5’UTR, rescued the transcript accumulation in absence of MDB1, in the mdb1-1 mutant (figure 4 from Article 1).

Chloroplast small RNA sequence data has been used previously to look for the accumulation of footprints, short nucleotide sequences protected from degradation by a stably bound protein, to identify the putative sites of RNA binding proteins (Ruwe and Schmitz-Linneweber, 2012; Loizeau et al., 2014; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). Sequencing of natural small RNAs in WT or mdb1-2 performed by Marina Cavaiuolo revealed the accumulation of a 22 nt MDB1 dependant footprint in the atpB mRNA 5'UTR, one nucleotide downstream of the matured 5'extremity (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017) (figure 3 from $\operatorname{ARTICLE} 1$ ). This footprint comprises a sequence essential to atpB 5'UTR-driven mRNA stability (Blowers et al., 1990; Anthonisen et al., 2001). Considering that MDB1 has 13 OPR repeats, we assume its target sequence to be 13 nt long, it encompasses a sequence defined by Anthonisen and colleagues as essential for the stable accumulation of the transcript (Anthonisen et al., 2001). I have studied the binding sequence of MDB1 in great details as we will see later (Chapters III and IV).

My main contributions to the studies presented in ARTICLE 1 (attached at the end of this manuscript) have focused on the maturation and degradation dynamics of atpB mRNA and the impact of $5^{\prime}$ end maturation on protein expression.

## Results

ATPB MRNA STABILITY AND MATURATION
Addition of a poly $G$ track in atpB 5'UTR recovers another shorter form of atpB transcript, even when MDB1 is present. This shorter form is more abundant than the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA in the wild type. This suggests that much of atpB mRNA is still exposed to $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases when its M factor is normally expressed. Thus, atpB mRNA is transcribed in excess amounts and MDB1 is a limiting factor for atpB mRNA accumulation (see figure 4 from ARTICLE 1). Unprotected atpB transcripts should be rapidly degraded.

In addition, the $\operatorname{atpB}$ transcript accumulates in two forms in the chloroplast: a precursor one, from the transcription start-site, tri-phosphorylated, and an abundant mono-phosphorylated one, trimmed by 27 nucleotides (Woessner et al., 1986; Blowers et al., 1990; Anthonisen et al., 2001; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). The extremity of this second matured form corresponds to the footprint of MDB1 on atpB 5'UTR. A primer extension experiment on $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR performed by Blandine Rimbault on a WT strain, revealed the low abundance of the precursor form relative to the mature one. In the mdb1-1 mutant, the mature atpB mRNA form was not present anymore (figure 5 from Article 1). This indicates that MDB1 is necessary for both atpB mRNA stabilisation and 5'end maturation. By blocking the path of $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases it protects the downstream mature atpB transcript.

The maturation of the atpB 3' end had been studied previously (Stern et al., 1991). It was defined at the downstream boundary of a protective stem-loop secondary structure. By using the circular Reverse-transcription PCR (cRT-PCR) technique we wanted to confirm this $3^{\prime}$ end and to study the phosphorylation state of $a t p B$ transcript 5'end experimentally as primer extension do not give any indication on this parameter. As summarised in Figure 29, the cRT-PCR consists in:

- Ligating extracted RNAs in circular molecules. This can only occur on monophosphorylated RNAs. By treating half of the samples with RPP (RNA 5' Polyphosphatase) prior to circularisation, tri-phosphorylated RNAs, stemming directly from transcription start sites, are converted in mono-phosphorylated forms that can be self-ligated.
- Circularised mRNAs of interest are then retrotranscribed with a specific primer
- This cDNA is then used as a matrix to amplify the junction between the $3^{\prime}$ and $5^{\prime}$ end by PCR amplification.
- Lastly, the amplicons are purified and sequenced, if the junctions are heterogenous the sequence signal become ambiguous from the divergence point.


Figure 29: cRT-PCR procedure, mock and RPP samples were treated and analysed in parallel.

I set out to work with this protocol to study the occurrence of 5' and 3' ends and their phosphorylation state in a WT atpB mRNA.


Figure 30: $\mathbf{2}$ of several attempts of cRT-PCR amplification of atpB with the very distant B-FW and $B-R V$ primers.

I had difficulties to amplify a long amplicon covering the junction, and this in several independent attempts, with different polymerases, different temperatures and several independent circularisations and retro-transcriptions (Figure 30).

By designing and using primers closer to atpB extremities 1 could recover a fragment of the expected size (Figure 32), with as expected: a mature 5 ' end in the Mock sample, and surprisingly, a clear precursor $5^{\prime}$ end in the RPP sample. This suggest that far more precursor mRNAs than mature ones are recovered by the cRT-PCR experiment than in the primer extension performed by Blandine Rimbault (figure 5 from Article 1), where the processed 5'UTR form was far more abundant than the precursor one in the WT . But if primer extension experiments are quantitative, they do not reveal the $3^{\prime}$ processing state of the $a t p B$ transcript. Here, looking at the sequencing data of the Mock amplicon, it appears that while the 5 ' extremity is clear, the $3^{\prime}$ extremity has a very low-quality sequence, with seemingly many different signals mixed together. It is possible, considering the difficulties to amplify a long complete fragment of circularised $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA, that the $a t p B$ transcript endures $3^{\prime}$ end degradation. This degradation would produce junctions with widely different $3^{\prime}$ extremities, as is suggested by our sequencing data.

## cRT-FW1 RPP



GTATTATTCACTAACGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTATATATATTATAATG
 CATAATAAGTGATTGCGAATAAAAAATCAAAAAAGTAAATTGATATATATAATATTAC


Figure 31: Sequence data of the RPP and Mock samples of a PCR amplification by B-RV and cRT-atpB FW1, the corresponding sequence of the expected precursor 5' and complete 3' junction of a circularised atpB mRNA is indicated below.

To get a clearer picture of the atpB state in my experiments, I tried to design primers progressively farther away from the junction. One of those experiments is depicted in Figure 32. The more the primers were distant, the less amplicons of the predicted size I recovered. In some reactions I recovered a faint "ladder" of amplicons of various sizes, while with very distant primers couples I only observed diffuse smears. While this could be caused by experimental issues, RNAs are sensitive to degradation and PCRs can be capricious, the repetition of strange PCR patterns over several independently treated samples with various primers and polymerases was suspicious.


Figure 32: Amplification of cRT-PCR reactions with progressively more distant primers.

Moreover, in separate cRT-PCR experiments, Marina Cavaiuolo, after cloning cRTPCR products, recovered amplicons in a range of variable sizes. Notably, after sequencing, the $3^{\prime}$ extremities of the mature but not of the precursor atpB mRNA appear to be of a highly different lengths in our mRNA samples. Some were also polyadenylated, which suggested that they are atpB mRNA committed to degradation (Schuster et al., 1999; Schuster and Stern, 2009). This suggests that atpB mRNA is degraded from $3^{\prime} \rightarrow 5^{\prime}$, even in WT samples. Such a degradation of atpB transcripts from this direction was unexpected, previous in vitro and in vivo studies had suggested that $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNAs remained stable after 3'end trimming in contrary to the downstream RNAs (Stern and Kindle, 1993; Hicks et al., 2002). However, atpB mRNAs have previously been shown to have a longer life span when translation is inhibited (Kato et al., 2006), suggesting that translation of the $a t p B$ mRNAs might destabilise them.

Following this question, considering that precursor $a t p B$ mRNAs did not appear to endure degradation from their 3 'end, we can wonder whether the precursor transcripts are translatable. If not, this might explain the absence of $3^{\prime}$ degradation if translation was linked to this instability. But it is conceivable that $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ end might interact together and influence the processing of the other end. Alternatively, $5^{\prime}$ processing, if very fast, might always occurs before the 3 ' end degradation might start.

Altogether, our data suggests that the mature atpB mRNA might endure a rapid $3^{\prime} \rightarrow 5^{\prime}$ degradation in the wild type, when it is translated. To assess this last point, we could look whether degradation also occurs when the atpB transcript is rendered untranslatable by a stop codon, or perhaps with the untranslatable $d B_{\text {WT }} g f p$.Spix 3 $3^{\prime} a t p B$ chimera that I developed in Chapter IV.

## ATPB 5'UTR AND TRANSLATION

To learn more on the role of MDB1 in atpB expression, we wondered whether $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ end maturation is also necessary for its translation. In this case, MDB1 could be in some respect be both a M and T factor for $a t p B$. PolyG atpB transcripts were not translated in previous experiments, but this happened irrespective of MDB1 absence. Presumably, the polyG track next to the translation initiation signals hampered translation directly. And so, no clues on MDB1 influence on translation could be gathered.

## ImPaCt of atp B 5'UTR maturation on translation

To assess which part of $a t p B$ are needed for transcript processing and translation, chimeric transcripts were built. Various combinations of CDS and 3'UTR were associated with the $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ UTR. Some chimeric transcripts could still be matured at their $5^{\prime}$ end, but it appeared that transcripts bearing the rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR together with the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR, irrespective of the CDS between them, could not be matured, whether MDB1 was present or not (Table 2). In contrast, a chimera built with the atpA 5'UTR and the rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR could be matured normally (figure 7 from ARTICLE 1).

| chimera | $B K F$ | $B B R$ | $B F R$ | $B R R$ | $B K R$ | $A K R$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $5^{\prime}$ maturation? | yes | no | no | no | no | yes |

Table 2: Maturation of chimeric 5'atpB driven transcripts, data gathered by Blandine Rimbault and Marina Cavaiuolo. The nomenclature is as follow: ( $B=a t p B, A=a t p A, F=p e t A$, $R=r b c L$ and $K=a a d A$ ) the first letter is the $5^{\prime}$ UTR, the second the CDS, the third the $3^{\prime}$ UTR.

This specific impairment of the $5^{\prime}$ processing could be caused by a secondary structure formed between the rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR and the atpB 5'UTR according to RNABows, a secondary structure prediction program (Markham and Zuker, 2008). This putative structure would not prevent MDB1 binding its target on atpB 5'UTR, nor would it constitutively stabilise the transcript, as the BKR chimera does not accumulate in mab1-1 cells (figure 2 from Article 1).

5'atpB-3'rbcL
$+1$
$\downarrow$
AUAUAUAUAGUUAAAUGAAAAAACUAAAAA

- |||| |||||


33:- Predicted secondary structure forming between atpB 5'UTR and rbcL 3'UTR, obtained with the RNABows program (Markham and Zuker, 2008).

- 5'UTR

Considering that those precursor chimeric transcripts were still stabilised by MDB1 (figure 6 from Article 1) but not matured, the next question was: are those transcripts translatable? The fact that the aadA chimeric mRNAs conferred spectinomycin resistance even without being matured indicated that some translation should still occur. aadA encodes an aminoglyside 3' adenyl transferase, and confers spectinomycin resistance to C. reinhardtii cells (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991). To ascertain that the precursor transcripts could be translated, I performed immunoblots after extracting whole cell proteins.


Figure 34: Immunoblot, anti-cyt. $f$, OEE2 and $\beta$ (CF1) primary antibodies were used. OEE2 serve as loading control.
Corresponding regions of the filter in Ponceau red stain are under the chemiluminescent signals. The band above the $\beta$ (CF1) signal, appearing even in the $\triangle a t p B$ lane, is the cross reacting mitochondrial ATP synthase $\beta$ subunit. The faint band just below is an unrelated cross-reacting contaminant.
Fud50 is a chloroplast mutant with a partially deleted atpB.
Protein levels were quantified with the Image Lab program, and are normalised to the accumulation of the OEE2 protein and expressed as ratio of the wild-type

Note that the accumulation of the ATP synthase $\beta$ subunit in these quantifications is not null as predicted for the Fud50 BFR transformants, because of the presence of a contaminating polypeptide, also present in the $\operatorname{atp} B$ deletion strain.

The mature BFF chimeric transcript could be translated as evidenced by Cyt. $f$ accumulation. Both the BFR and BBR transcripts, that cannot be matured could also be translated, Cyt. $f$ and the ATP synthase $\beta$ subunit accumulated, indicating that $5^{\prime}$ end maturation is not a prerequisite for $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR-driven translation. However, the levels of $\beta$ subunit in the $\{F u d 50\}$ strain (a chloroplast mutant with a partial deletion of $a t p B$ ) transformed with $B B R$ were about $30 \%$ lower than in the WT. The accumulation level of Cyt. $f$ in the $\{F u d 50$ BFR $\}$ was about $20 \%$ lower than in the WT.

This suggests that either the maturation states of atpB 5'UTR slightly affect translation, or maybe that the rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR is inherently a weaker $3^{\prime} U T R$ to induce translation than the atpB $3^{\prime} U T R$, but not much weaker than the petA $3^{\prime} U T R$. The observation that rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR reduces the translation of $a t p B$ was also made previously (Rott et al., 1998b).

I also performed immunoblots of aadA chimeric transformants, but our anti-AadA antibodies gave so strong cross-reactions (red asterisk) that clear conclusions could not be drawn so far on aadA accumulation. A very faint band (red arrow), absent in the WT could be AadA, as it can be observed only in the $A K R$ and $\triangle a t p B$ strains, this could be coherent as this deletion of $a t p B$ was created by replacing it with an 5'psaA-driven aadA recycling cassette. Obviously, this immunoblot should be retried with a better anti-AadA antibody. However, all strains are spectinomycin resistant, thus AadA should be at least slightly translated from the chimeric transcripts.

Fud 50


Figure 35: Immunoblots, two technical repeats, anti-AadA, OEE2 and $\beta$ (CF1) primary antibodies were used. OEE2 serve as loading control. * indicate cross reactions of the anti-AadA antibody, $\rightarrow$ a possible specific AadA signal.

## IDENTIFICATION OF A NEW MUTANT OF MDB1

While working on establishing an efficient CRISPR edition protocol of $C$. reinhardtii nuclear genome, Catherine de Vitry, Marcio Rodrigies-Azevado, and Frédéric ChauxJukic obtained new ATP synthase mutants in a screen for photosensitive mutants. I helped them characterise those by performing RNA blots and took part in the genomic analysis. We notably identified a mutant of ATPG, interrupted by a TOC1 retrotransposon. This gene was to our knowledge never mutated previously in $C$. reinhardtii. This side project is described in Article 2, whose draft is attached in the annexes of this manuscript.

Using the methods described in this article I also studied with Frédéric Chaux-Jukic a mutant obtained independently by Katia Wostrikoff while she was also trying to set up the CRISPR protocol. She found it with a negative screen on minimum media; it could not grow photo-autotrophically.


Figure 36: A. Growth phenotype of K4.20+. B. Kinetic of PSII fluorescence saturation in K4.20+ versus WT.T222+. Obtained with a SpeedZen camera. C. Immunoblot of K4.20 and other mutants of ATP synthase hybridised with anti AtpB, AtpH and PsaD antibodies. D. RNA blots of $K 4.20$, filters were hybridised with $a t p B$ and $a t p H$ dig-dUTP labelled probes.

It also displayed a photosensitive phenotype under strong illumination ( $120 \mu \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{m}^{-}$ ${ }^{2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 36.A) and its photosensitivity makes it grow slower than a WT under moderate illumination ( $25 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ ). Fluorescence kinetics of PSII revealed that the PSII yield decreased with time under constant illumination, which is a typical phenotype of ATP synthase defective mutants. PSII becomes progressively completely reduced, the photosynthetic process gradually interrupted by the excessive proton gradient that cannot get consumed by the ATP synthase as it would in a WT.

Immunoblots revealed that this $K 4.20$ mutant did not accumulate the chloroplast ATP synthase $\beta$ subunit (Figure 36.C). This blot also illustrates the concerted accumulation of the chloroplast ATP synthase in C. reinhardtii: when the CF1 is absent the CFo does not accumulate either.

After extracting RNAs from K4.20 we blotted them and assessed the accumulation of several chloroplast transcripts. While both atpA, atpE and atpH transcripts accumulated, $a t p B$ mRNA was undetectable, as in mdb1 mutants (Figure 36.D).

Whole genome Illumina sequencing of $K 4.20$ was performed by the Eurofins company. While screening candidate genes implicated in the chloroplast ATP synthase biogenesis, I found, in the MDB1 first intron of the K4.20 strain but not in the WT, a suspicious accumulation of reads with mates pairing on other chromosomes. This suggested a sequence mapping on several chromosomes, i.e. present in numerous copies in the genome (Figure 37.A). By aligning those promiscuous sequences, I found that they corresponded to the Transposon of Chlamydomonas 1 (TOC1) retrotransposon, abundant in the nuclear genome of C. reinhardtii (Day et al., 1988). The stress induced by the transformation treatment probably induced the spontaneous jump of the retrotransposon in MDB1. While insertions in introns do not necessarily impair the expression of genes, this recently inserted, whole, functional TOC1 did prevent MDB1 expression. A reconstructed probable map of MDB1 of K4.20, interrupted by TOC1, is included in Figure 37.B.


Figure 37: A. Insertion site of TOC1 in MDB1 in the K4.20 mutant, Illumina paired end whole genome sequencing visualised with IGV. Reads pairing with mates on other chromosomes are indicated in pastel colours. Analysis of the mates' sequences with BLAST revealed TOC1 sequences B. Reconstructed map of MDB1 in the K4.20 mutant.

To further confirm the presence of this insertion in $K 4.20$ and its link to the ATP synthase deficiency I crossed $K 4.20^{+}$with WT.S24 ${ }^{-}$. Descendants were selected on photosynthetic deficiency and their DNA extracted.

PCR amplification with a probe specific to MDB1 exon 3 and one specific to TOC1 yielded a specific amplicon in $K 4.20$ and its non-photoautotrophic descendants, not in the wild type (Figure 38). Probes specific to MT+ and MT- were added in the same reaction, both as a control of the DNA quality and to make sure that both mating types were represented in the progeny, as we should expect from a successful cross.


Figure 38: PCR amplification of the junction between TOC1 and exon3 of MDB1 in $K 4.20^{+} \mathbf{x}$ WT.S24 non-photosynthetic progeny. Mating type PCR amplification was done in the same reaction as a DNA quality control.

Therefore, the mutant phenotype and genotype are congruent. I characterised a new mutant of MDB1, further cementing its importance in atpB mRNA stabilisation. This $K 4.20$ mutant could be now called mdb1-3.

This spontaneous mutant with no antibiotic resistance linked to its MDB1 deficiency could be useful in other studies but did display phenotypic reversion when millions of cells were plated on minimum media (data not shown). I recently also found out that some of the descendants of the cross became photoautotroph. This is probably because the retrotransposon can sometimes get inactivated. This instability renders the strain perilous to work with.

## DISCUSSION

## MDB1 A TRUE MATURATING FACTOR CONTROLLING ATPB EXPRESSION

MDB1 is required for the stabilisation of atpB transcript. A specific footprint of MDB1 (figure 3 from ARTicle 1), and the pull down of atpB mRNA in immunoprecipitation experiments (figure 2 from ARTICLE 1) strongly suggests that this OPR protein directly binds on $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR. Addition of a voluminous and stable polyG track in atpB 5'UTR produces the same protective effect. However, the 5' end maturation of this artificially protected $a t p B$ is different (figure 4 from ARTICLE 1). This suggests that the bound MDB1 on the mRNA protects it from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases and is used to define the $5^{\prime}$ boundary of $a t p B$ mRNA. Moreover, in mutant of MDB1 the trace amounts of $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript that can be observed correspond only to the precursor transcript, the form that is produced directly from transcription. The polyG addition allowed the recovery of higher levels of atpB mRNAs than in the WT, recovering $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript otherwise doomed to degradation even when MDB1 is present. This indicates that this $M$ factor is present in limiting amounts in the chloroplast. A similar situation has been observed previously for petA mRNA stabilisation by MCA1, another M factor (Loiselay et al., 2008).

MDB1 expression (RPKM)


Figure 39: MDB1 expression along the day-night cycle, transcriptomic data redrawn from (Zones et al., 2015).

Time (h)

MDB1 is more expressed at the end of the night until the onset of light in circadian experiments (Zones et al., 2015) (Figure 39) probably to prepare the photosynthetic apparatus in prevision of the day. Moreover, MDB1 appear to be activated under light by the bilin signalling pathway, in the hmox1 mutant, unable to use the bilin signals, the expression of MDB1 was not modified by light, addition of biliverdin partially rescued a stronger expression under light. (Duanmu et al., 2013; Wittkopp et al., 2017). This could imply that the nucleus senses the state of the chloroplast thanks to the bilin retrograde signals and adjust the production of this $M$ factor to tune the accumulation of ATP synthase $\beta$ CF1 according to the chloroplast needs.

COULD ATPB MATURATION BE INFLUENCED BY ITS 3'UTR?
Surprisingly, atpB mRNA maturation might also involve secondary structures and 5'/3' end interactions as chimeric transcripts bearing atpB 5'UTR and rbcL 3' UTR were not properly processed and accumulated only as precursor mRNAs. However, this was not noted for other transcripts bearing petA 3'UTR in conjunction with atpB 5'UTR, nor with chimeras based on atpA 5'UTR and rbcL 3'UTR. This impairment of maturation could be caused by a specific incompatibility of atpB 5'UTR and rbcL 3' UTR. If this interaction modulates MDB1 activity it should not affect it dramatically, as the unmatured BKR transcript could still accumulate in a MDB1-dependant fashion (figure 2 from Article 1). The maturation status of atpB transcript 5'UTR does not seem to significantly affect translation, as un-matured reporter constructs based on aadA are spectinomycin resistant. Moreover, immunoblots proved that un-matured transcripts BFR and BBR still allowed translation and accumulation of around 70-80\% of Cyt. $f$ and the ATP synthase $\beta$ subunit.

## $A T P B$ MRNA ENDURES RAPID DEGRADATION

The rapid maturation of $a t p B 5^{\prime} U T R$ and the apparent large portion of $a t p B$ transcripts stabilised by the polyG track, indicate that atpB mRNA is transcribed in large excess and that most the transcripts are fated to be rapidly degraded by $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases. But not only $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ degradation of the transcript seems to occur. Indeed, our cRT-PCR experiments suggest that mature atpB mRNAs are also progressively degraded from their 3' end. Considering that it has previously been observed that the $a t p B$ transcripts appear longer lived when chloroplast translation is interrupted (Kato et al., 2006), we ponder whether this effect is connected to translation, to test this hypothesis further cRT-PCR experiment with untranslatable transcripts, with an initiation codon replaced by a STOP one for instance, would be insightful. Alternatively, cRT-PCR experiments could be repeated for comparison on strains expressing chimeras treated with lincomycin. For now, it is impossible to conclude with certainty on this matter.

## InACTIVATION OF MDB1 BY TOC1 InsERTION

We identified and characterised a new mutant of MDB1 interrupted by a TOC1 retrotransposon in its first intron. The fact that this insertion prevents MDB1 expression is not trivial. It was previously observed that an insertion of a full transposon in PSB1 (encoding OEE1) prevents the expression of the PSB1 mRNA and that a spontaneous partial deletion of the transposon partially restores the accumulation of the PSB1 transcript and OEE1 synthesis. This suggests that the partial transposon allows the transcription and splicing of PSB1 (Mayfield et al., 1987) The situation in mdb1-3 could be similar, considering its propensity for reversion. Indeed, the consensus splicing sequences of the intron 1 are preserved by the retrotransposon insertion, and so, the mRNA could in theory be properly spliced. But maybe the MDB1 transcript is not properly transcribed because of the conflicting transcription termination signals of TOC1 that is inserted in the same orientation as MDB1. We could answer this question by performing a RT-PCR of the of the MDB1 mRNA between exon 1 and 2.

However, even if transcription was not prevented by the transposon, introns are involved at many steps of eukaryotic gene expression (Le Hir et al., 2003; HernandezGarcia and Finer, 2014). They can affect transcription; notably promotor-proximal introns may enhance transcription by re-initiation of RNA polymerase. Introns can also affect nuclear export; consensus splice sites serve as signals to prevent the export of unspliced transcripts out of the nucleus. But splicing can also actively stimulate mRNA export by recruiting export factors. Introns can also modulate RNA degradation or translation. It has been reported that the introns of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii nuclear genes can be crucial for gene expression. Expression of a transformed endogenous ALS (acetolactase synthase) was proved to be improved when all introns were preserved (Kovar et al., 2002). The introns of RBCS2 have a positive effect on post-transcriptional expression of foreign genes: ble (Bleomycin resistance protein) (Lumbreras et al., 1998), of aph7" (aminoglycoside phosphotransferase) (Berthold et al., 2002) or of the Renilla-luciferase gene (Eichler-Stahlberg et al., 2009) among others. Furthermore, the first intron of RBCS2 contains a transcriptional enhancer (Lumbreras et al., 1998; Baier et al., 2018). It is thus also conceivable that a critical enhancing sequence might be interrupted by the insertion of TOC1 in MDB1 first intron.

## II. FUNCTIONAL STUDIES OF THE MTHI1 FACTOR

## INTRODUCTION

## Expression systems of ATP synthase CFo in C. reinhardtil

The chloroplast ATP synthase is composed of two domains: the soluble domain CF1 catalyses the formation of ATP from ADP and Pi and comprises five subunits, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon$ in a 3:3:1:1:1 stoichiometry. The membrane-embedded domain, CFo, is a selective proton channel made of four subunits, AtpF, ATPG, AtpH and Atpl (formerly called Subunits, I, II, III, IV) in a 14:1:1:1 stoichiometry. The plastid genome of $C$. reinhardtii still encodes six of the nine ATP synthase subunits: $\alpha(a t p A), \beta(a t p B)$ and $\varepsilon$ (atpE) of the CF1 domain and AtpF, AtpH and Atpl of the CFo domain. ATPC ( $\gamma$ ), ATPD ( $\delta$ ) and ATPG (subunit II) have been transferred to the nucleus as in the rest of Viridiplantae. However, unlike most Archaeplastida which have largely kept the two original cyanobacterial operons, in Chlorophyceae, ATP synthase genes have been shuffled around the chloroplast genome (Figure 40).

## ATP synthase operon :



Figure 40: ATP synthase operons in cyanobacteria and chloroplasts
There is nearly no trace left of ATP synthase operons in C. reinhardtii. Only atpA and $\operatorname{atpH}$ on one hand and $a t p H$ and atpF on the other hand can be transcribed together in polycistrons but they are still quite far apart on the genome and are even intercepted with unrelated genes in the case of atpA and atpH (Figure 41.B). atpl is about 40 kb apart from atpH and is transcribed in a polycistronic unit with genes of unrelated functions.

To be correctly assembled the CFo subunits need to accumulate at the right stoichiometry. Since the subunits are not expressed in operon like in bacterial systems, with common promotors, and are not even synthesised in the same compartment, novel regulatory mechanisms are necessary in the chloroplast.

This control, as we saw previously (Introduction), can occur either dynamically:

- By degradation of surplus subunits, as is often the case for nucleus-encoded subunits when they accumulate unassembled in the chloroplast.
- By CES, an assembly-dependant regulation of translation, via a reduction of the translation of surplus subunits, or stimulation of the translation of depleted subunits.
Or in a constitutive manner: a control mechanism may link the expression of the different subunits thru a common regulator in limiting amount. If the regulator level fluctuates, the expression of the subunits would fluctuate together, therefore keeping a lock on the systems. If the nucleus is to control the chloroplast function, we would expect this factor to be nucleus encoded.

The question of how CFo assembly is regulated had not been studied previously. I contributed to the description of this regulation by working on atpH, atpl and on an OTAF: MTHI1. Most of this work has been included in ARTICLE 3 (attached at the end of this manuscript).
atpH
$a t p H$ is a small gene encoding subunit AtpH of the plastid ATP synthase CFo. It can be transcribed from atpA promotor but is expressed mainly from its own promotor (Figure 41.B). atpH CDS is only 249 nt long and its 5'UTR is also very short, 41 nt . Small RNA sequencing revealed a very abundant 22 nt footprint specific of MTHI1 mapping to the triphosphorylated 5'end of the atpH mRNA (Figure 41.A). atpH is the third most abundant mRNA in the chloroplast of C. reinhardtii (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017).

## A



## atpl

atpl encodes the subunit Atpl of ATP synthase CFo. Its CDS is 717 nt long and its extensive 5'UTR is 493 nt long, its $3^{\prime}$ UTR has not been precisely described but is probably around 100 nt long. (Figure 42.A). atpl does not have a dedicated promotor. It is exclusively transcribed as a polycistronic transcript starting at the promotor of $p s b D$ that undergoes several endonucleolytic cleavages (Figure 42.B).

A


B


## MTHI1

The ac46 mutant, for acetate requiring mutant, isolated in 1960 (Levine, 1960), is a nuclear mutant which does not express AtpH nor Atpl. It does not accumulate the atpH monocistronic mRNA (Majeran et al., 2001), thus doesn't translate AtpH and barely translate Atpl, but still translates AtpF (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989). The nuclear factor affected in ac46 mutant has been named MTHI1 (Maturation and Iranslation of $a t p \underline{H}$ and $a t p I)$. For the rest of this study ac46 will be dubbed mthi1-1. Another MTHI1 mutant was later characterised: CAL014.01.38 (mthi1-2), which displays the same phenotype as mthi1-1, no atpH monocistronic mRNA and a strongly reduced translation of Atpl.

MTHI1 is erroneously mapped on chromosome 17 in v 5.5 of $C$. reinhardtii genome. It is 6019 nt long and contains 10 introns. It encodes a protein of 828 amino acids, predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by the Predalgo software (Tardif et al., 2012). It bears 9 OPR contiguous motifs at its N-terminal region and a bulky disordered domain at its C-terminal. Orthologues of MTHI1 in Chlorophyceae and Ulvales show conservation of the OPR domain but not of the C-terminal one (see figure S 6 from Article 3).


Figure 43: A. the MTHI1 gene. B. Left: Predicted structure of MTHI by I-Tasser, right:
Cartoon of the OPR domain of MTHI1
The double phenotype displayed by MTHI1 mutants has long been intriguing; it could either imply a CES relationship between AtpH and AtpI: when AtpH is absent Atpl translation would be halted. Or it could imply a dual action of MTHI1 on both atpl and atpH mRNA. It was later proved in the article that Atpl is translated normally even in absence of AtpH while AtpH is translated at wild-type levels in the absence of Atpl (see figure 2 from Article 3). This disproves a CES relationship between AtpH and Atpl and reinforces our view that the MTHI factor has a double function.

MTHI1 is an OPR protein with 9 OPR repeats, that most probably binds tightly on atpH 5'UTR (as revealed by a footprint, see Figure 41.A and figure 10 of Article 3), but only weakly on atpl mRNA (since not footprint have been recovered so far). The specific footprint of MTHI1 on atpH transcript is recovered only in RNA 5' Polyphosphatase (RPP) treated samples. RPP converts tri-phosphorylated RNAs, which cannot be sequenced otherwise, in mono-phosphorylated RNAs. This proves that MTHI1 interacts directly at the 5'end of atpH monocistronic transcript which is only expressed from its dedicated promotor. A 9 nucleotides sequence at the very beginning of atpH mRNA, GGUUGUUAU, well conserved in other Chlorophyceae, Ulvales and Pedinophyceae (see figure S8 from Article 3), likely corresponds to the target of this 9 OPR motif factor.

A sequence nearly identical to the binding site of MTHI1 in the atpH mRNA, GGUUAUUAU, was found in the 5'UTR of the atpl mRNA. Interestingly, in an otherwise evolutionary poorly conserved atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTR, this sequence is in a conserved region. These putative target sequences are shown in Figure 44.


Figure 44: MTHI1 and its two putative target sequences, one is at the very $5^{\prime}$ extremity of the atpH monocistronic mRNA, the other within the atpl 5'UTR, about 60 nt upstream of the initiation codon. Note the difference of the $5^{\text {th }}$ nucleotide between the two chloroplast genes.

Mutation of the putative target sequence in a chimera driven by the atp/ 5'UTR results in a similar phenotype as mthi1-1, lower transcript accumulation and halted translation, confirming that this sequence is necessary for atpl expression (see figure 13 of Article 3).

These observations spurred us to investigate how exactly MTHI1 influences atpl and atpH expression.

## Results

## SWAPPING ATPH AND ATPI MTHI1 TARGET

One of the most striking features of MTHI1 is that it acts specifically on two targets. This is very rare for an OTAF in C. reinhardtii, as they usually target a single gene. MTHI1 is thus doubly indispensable to the ATP synthase CFo synthesis. Moreover, atpH and atpl are not expressed at similar levels. Indeed, the atpH mRNA is 10 times more abundant than the atpl mRNA (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). The stoichiometry of the two subunits is also vastly unbalanced: 1 Atpl for 14 AtpH (Figure 45). Therefore, if both share a same key factor, and if that factor is limiting, how is the proper stoichiometry established? Small RNA sequencing (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017) only revealed a MTHI1 footprint on the atpH mRNA 5' end, but none along the atpl mRNA, suggesting that the binding of this MTHI1 to the atpl transcript could be transient or weak. This could be caused by the difference of one nucleotide in the middle


14 AtpH 1 Atpl
Figure 45: C. reinhardtii chloroplast ATP synthase, Atpl/AtpH stoichiometry is indicated of MTHI1 target sequences: GGUUGUUAU for atpH, GGUUAUUAU for atpI. In fact, if the affinity of MTHI1 for atpl sequence is weaker, we could expect less and weaker interactions with this mRNA, explaining why this OPR is an M factor of atpH, tightly binding to its mRNA, while it would only act transiently on the atpl transcript, to initiate translation. To test whether the different functions of MTHI1 result from this variation in the target sequence, we swapped them.

Chimeric constructs (Figure 46) bearing either atpH 5'UTR or atpl 5'UTR, mutated or not in their MTHI1 target, followed by petA coding sequence, were generated by Shin-Ichiro Ozawa and Yves Choquet and transformed in place of petA. petA is a good reporter gene in the chloroplast: it is a stable protein whose accumulation faithfully reflects the rate of synthesis and it is easy to monitor both at the mRNA and protein level. Moreover, the use of such chimeras allowed us to monitor the impact of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR on expression, without the possible influence from the CDS or $3^{\prime}$ UTR.


5'atpH:petA $=\mathbf{d H f}$


## $5^{\prime}$ atp $_{A}:$ pet $A=d H_{A} f$



PpsaA:5'atpl:petA = dlf  presentation of the two chimeric constructs. The psaA promotor (white rectangle) was added in front of atpl 5'UTR

All the transformants were photoautotroph, indicating that petA could be expressed at least partially from all constructs. I extracted the RNA from several independent transformants for each of the four constructs and assessed the accumulation levels of the petA transcript by RNA blots (Figure 47). The samples were blotted twice independently. The $d l f$ and $d l_{G} f$ chimeras displayed the same transcript accumulation in the two technical repeats, as did the $d H f$ and $d H_{A} f$ chimeras.


Figure 47: RNA blot of the chimeric constructs, filters were hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ petA and $\operatorname{atp} B$ (loading control) radioactive probes.

As seen on Figure 47, the chimeric mRNAs with the 5'atpH were shorter than the endogenous petA mRNA, while those with the atpl 5'UTR were longer. Stronger expression levels were obtained from atpH 5'UTR. The difference in the target sequences apparently did not have significant effect on transcript accumulation, when comparing dlf and $d l_{G} f$, or $d H f$ and $d H_{A} f$ chimeras. And so, transcript accumulation seems to rely on other properties of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR rather than on small variations in the target.

I also compared a mutant strain, $5^{\prime}{ }_{A} \alpha t p H$, where the MTHI1 target in the endogenous $a t p H$ gene has been modified to GGUUAUUAU with an atpH control strain. In this case an influence of the CDS or 3'UTR might emerge. As shown on Figure 48, atpH mRNA accumulation was not affected by the modification of its MTHI target. This result again suggested that the one nucleotide difference in the target sequence was not essential for MTHI atpH stabilisation mechanism.


Figure 48: RNA blot of $5^{\prime}$ atpH transcripts. Filters were hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ labelled petA and atpH probes.


Figure 49: Immunoblots of
the chimeric transformants.
Whole cell protein extracts were separated under denaturising conditions, transferred, and incubated with Cyt. $f$ and OEE2 (loading control) primary antibodies.

We also wondered whether the variation in the target sequence influenced protein accumulation, MTHI1 being also a translation activator. Whole cell protein extracts from the various transformants were blotted (Figure 49). The target sequence does not modulate strongly the accumulation of the Cyt. $f$ reporter protein. Altogether, it appears that the MTHI1 target sequences alone are not sufficient to induce an atpl or $a t p H$-like expression pattern of petA chimeras. The remainder of the 5'UTR is visibly essential in establishing mRNA stability and its subsequent translation.

Is MTHI1 THE ONLY LIMITING FACTOR FOR ATPI AND ATPH EXPRESSION?
The use of chimeric genetic constructs revealed interesting aspects of atpl and atpH expression systems. If MTHI1 is present in a limiting amount, and because the expression of both genes relies on MTHI1, we expected that atpH or atpl deletion strains would allow more MTHI1 to interact with the other transcript, which would be therefore more expressed. And this proved true (see figures 4 and 5 from Article 3).

But a surprising effect was observed with the atpl constructs. The atpH mRNA is 10 times more abundant than the atpl transcripts. Furthermore, MTHI1 binds stably to the 5'end of the atpH transcript (as revealed by its footprint) but probably only transiently to the atpl mRNA. As such, we would expect far more MTHI1 being sequestrated on the atpH mRNA and that lifting this constraint would free many MTHI1 factors to act on atpl. Conversely, the deletion of atpl should only moderately lighten MTHI1 functional burden. Unexpectedly, more dlf transcripts were accumulated in a $\Delta a t p l$ strain than in a $\Delta a t p H$ strain. This implies that other limiting factor(s) could act specifically on the atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTR and become available for the expression of the chimera when the endogenous atpl is absent. This could well be some still unknown atpl M factor.

I contributed to those observations by comparing the expression of dlf and $d l_{G} f$ chimeras in presence of the endogenous atpl 5'UTR, or in its absence using instead the aAdl construct that places atpl expression under the control of psaA promoter and 5'UTR. As shown in Figure 50, irrespective of the putative MTHI1 target sequence, the chimeric dlf transcripts were far more accumulated when no other atpl 5’UTR could compete.


Figure 50: RNA blot of dlf transcripts. Filters were hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ labelled petA, atpl and atpA (loading control) probes.

This experiment and those discussed in article 3 (attached at the end of this manuscript) proved that some unknown factors act on the atpl 5'UTR, possibly a dedicated atpl M factor.

Moreover, a new factor, which has not been discussed in the article, seems to be implicated in atpH expression.

## MTH2, A PUTATIVE FACTOR IMPLICATED IN ATPH STABILISATION

L63a, a nuclear mutant generated by insertional mutagenesis by Laura Houille, previously characterised by Dominique Drapier and Shin-Ichiro Ozawa, displayed a lower atpH mRNA accumulation, about one tenth compared to a WT strain. But this mutant remained photoautotroph, indicating that the mutated factor was dispensable for AtpH translation. The mutant was crossed, and its atpH phenotype segregated with the insertion, proving a genetic link. The strain was sequenced, and the nuclear gene Cre10.g461700 was found to be interrupted by the insertion. Thus, the putative protein product affected in this mutant was named MTH2 and the mutant mth2-1.


Figure 51: MTH2 (Cre10.g461700) gene model, its 27 exons are indicated by pink arrows, 26 introns are present in this gene.

MTH2 (Cre10.g461700) is a massive gene encoded in chromosome 10; it contains 27 exons and encodes MTH2, a big protein of 3219 amino acids, with no discernible domains. It is not a helical repeat protein and we do not know if it is able to bind to RNA. It is predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by WoLF Psort (Horton et al., 2007) and ChloroP (Emanuelsson et al., 1999). MTH2 has orthologues in other Chlamydomonaceae (see alignment in ANNEX).

To ensure that this putative factor was really implicated in atpH expression, I characterised another mutant of MTH2. We obtained it from the clip library of insertional mutant (Li et al., 2019). This mth2-2 was also photoautotroph but displayed a slower growth on minimum medium than a WT strain. After RNA extraction and blotting, I confirmed that the phenotype of mth2-2 was congruent with that of mth2-1: $12 \%$ of atpH transcript accumulated, compared to a WT strain (Figure 52). The mthi1-2 strain, as expected, did not accumulate any atpH monocistronic mRNA. Unlike MTHI1, required for $a t p H$ mRNA stabilisation, MTH2 seems to be an auxiliary M factor of atpH, whose action on atpl expression remains to be studied

A


B mth2-2 mthi1-2 WT


12\% 0\% 100\%
atpB
atpH
Normalised
atpH/atpB:

Figure 52: A. Growth phenotypes of WT.T222+ and mth2-2 B. RNA blot of the mth2-2 and mthi1-2 mutants, filter was hybridised with atpB and atpH dig-dUTP labelled probes. Quantified ratio of atpH on atpB transcripts normalised on WT levels is indicated below. The quantification was performed with ImageLab.

Could this factor act on MTHI1 and help it stabilise the atpH transcript? As AtpH is translated in the absence of MTH2, MTH2 seems dispensable for the translation activation mechanisms. Maybe it could then be also dispensable for atpl translation. Atpl must be at least slightly translated in the mth2-1 and mth2-2 strains since the cells are photoautotroph. But we still do not know whether MTH2 is implicated in atpl expression or not.

On the other hand, MTH2 may be a true specific factor for atpH expression, which can interact specifically with the atpH mRNA or perhaps with another yet unknown factor that can recognise specifically the atpH mRNA. Because we do not currently know if MTH2 can bind RNA or proteins, it is for now impossible to distinguish between those hypotheses.

## OTHER FACTORS IMPLICATED IN ATPH ACCUMULATION?

While working on the main project of my thesis (see Chapter IV), I inadvertently discovered some strange property in one strain. My aim was to look at a gfp chimeric transcript accumulation versus $\operatorname{atpB}$ (see Chapter IV), and I probed atpH mRNA as a loading control, its small size making it a convenient control when looking at several transcripts on a same blot. Surprisingly, we noticed than in a mdb1-2 background atpH levels appeared higher, but quantification was impossible, due to the absence of another independent loading control. However, in all mdb1-2 transformants probed over several blots, the accumulation of the atpH transcript appeared stronger (Figure 53).


Figure 53: Two fragments of RNA blots, presented in detail in chapter IV. Filters were hybridised with atpB, gfp and atpH dig-dUTP labelled probes. atpH was intended as a loading control but was surprisingly more accumulated in a mdb1-2 background

Unfortunately, I could not test yet if this is also the case in the simple mdb1-2 strain. Data from Dominique Drapier (Figure 54) seems to suggest so. However, no interconnection between atpH and $a t p B$ transcript levels has ever been observed so far. The difference would be difficult to attributes to the chimeric insertion, which is in a neutral locus of the chloroplast genome, near petA, and has no atpl or atpH related sequence. Moreover, this strong accumulation of $a t p H$ transcript did not seem to occur in mdb11::gfp chimera transformants in several technical repeats.


Figure 54: RNA blot from Dominique Drapier, unpublished.

I thus wonder whether the difference in the mdb1-2 background might be caused by its large deletion in chromosome 14. Indeed, this strain lacks six genes around MDB1 (Cre14.g614708, Cre14.g614667, Cre14.g614650, Cre14.g614600, Cre14.g614500, Cre14.g614450 and Cre14.g614400) (Figure 55). 5 of them have an unknown function, and of those, 3 are predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by WolF Psort (Horton et al., 2007): Cre14.g614450, Cre14.g614600 and Cre14.g614667.


Figure 55: Genes deleted in mdb1-2, genes in green are predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by WoLF Psort.

Those genes could potentially be linked to atpH, perhaps by acting in atpH transcript degradation. Or they might instead be linked to atpl expression. In this case, their absence might indirectly free more MTHI1 for atpH mRNA stabilisation. To answer those questions a first step would be to look in detail at atpl and atpH transcripts accumulation patterns in this mdb1-2 strain. Then if a difference with the mdb1-1 strain is confirmed, mutants of the putative genes could be looked at, to assess whether they are implicated in atpH or atpl expression.

## MTHI1 IS IMPLICATED IN ATPI MRNA STABILITY

We knew that MTHI1 was necessary for atpl translation, and that atpl mRNA was also less accumulated in its absence. From there two main hypotheses were drawn (Figure 56). Either:

- The atpl mRNA is protected from degradation by the ribosomes when translated, as occurs in bacteria.
- Or, much like MCA1 and TCA1 (Loiselay et al., 2008; Boulouis et al., 2011), the M and T factors would co-stabilise the mRNA in a ternary complex.


To determine whether the destabilisation of the atpl mRNA is due to the lack of translation or directly to the absence of MTHI1, we rendered atpl untranslatable even in the presence of this later by creating an atpl construct where the start codon was replaced by a stop codon (Figure 57). A drop in atpl mRNA would infer that translation is directly implicated in the transcript stability.


Figure 57: Mutation of the ATG start codon of atpl, replaced by the TAG stop codon.

This construct was transformed into the $\Delta a t p l$ strain. As expected, the atpl $l_{c t}$ control transformants (carrying the selection marker without the atpl mutation) recovered phototrophy whereas the atpl ${ }_{s t}$ transformants did not, suggesting they cannot translate the atpl mRNA (Figure 58, B). No significant difference in atpl transcript accumulation was observed between the control and atpl $l_{s t}$ constructs (Figure 58.A).


Figure 58: A. RNA blot of the atpl $I_{c t}$ and atpl $I_{s t}$ mutants, filters were hybridised with dig-dUTP labelled $a t p l$ and $p e t B$ probes. Three independent transformants were analysed. B. corresponding growth tests (two droplets were made for each transformant).
Thus, lack of translation of the atpl transcript was not responsible for its destabilisation. We thus infer that MTHI1 is directly implicated in the stabilisation of this mRNA, perhaps by contributing to a complex with some presently unknown atp/ M factor.

## MTHI1 IS IMPLICATED IN ATPH TRANSLATION

The more we studied MTHI1 the more it seemed implicated in several functions. Considering its dual partial stabilising effect on atpl mRNA and its necessity for translation, a potential implication of MTHI1 in atpH translation needed to be investigated. To assess whether MTHI1 is a T factor for atpH, a first hurdle needed to be passed: the absence of the atpH transcript in absence of its M factor. To this end, a polyG track, was used. PolyG tracks are voluminous structures that block the path of exonucleases on RNA (Drager et al., 1998). By putting one in atpH 5'UTR the transcript could become constitutively stable, even in the absence of MTHI1.


Figure 59: Insertion of a polyG track in atpH 5'UTR, directly before the MTHI1 target.
This construct (Figure 59), followed by an excisable 5'psaA-aadA cassette (Fischer et al., 1996; Wostrikoff et al., 2004) was transformed in the WT.T222 ${ }^{+}$, mthi1-1 and mthi1-2 strains. However, the mthi1-1 mutants proved to be prone to phenotypic reversion, and I worked only with the mthi1-2 mutant. Initial analysis of the transformants by RNA blot showed that atpH transcript accumulation was restored in the mthi1-2 strain (Figure 60.A). However, the accumulation of AtpH in immunoblots was very weak, even in the WT \{atpH $\mathrm{ct}_{\mathrm{t}}$ \} transformants (Figure 60.B). We suspected that this could be due to the disruption, caused by the aadA cassette, of the expression of the downstream located atpF gene, co-transcribed with atpH. Indeed, CFo subunits accumulate in a concerted fashion. If Atpl or AtpF are absent, unassembled AtpH cannot accumulate.


Figure 60: Expression of atpH in the strains prior to aadA cassette excision. A. RNA blot, filter was hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ atpH and atpA (loading control) radioactive probes. B. Immunoblots of whole cell extracts, anti AtpH and OEE2 (loading control) primary antibodies were used.


Figure 61: atpH expression after aadA cassette excision A. cartoon of the aAdl construct B. Growth test C. RNA blot, filters were hybridised with dig-dUTP labelled atpl, petB, atpH and psbD DNA probes. D. Immunoblot, anti-tubulin and AtpH primary antibodies were used. Corresponding regions of the filter in Ponceau red stain are under the chemiluminescent signals.

We attempted to check atpF mRNA accumulation in RNA blots, but it proved very difficult to observe, owing to its low accumulation and to its smeary distribution. And so, we decided to excise the selection cassette.

After excision of the cassette, I extracted once more the mRNA and proteins from the mutant strains and monitored $a t p H$ expression. As can be seen in Figure 61, AtpH accumulated in both the control $\mathrm{WT}\left\{a t p H_{c t}\right\}$ and $\mathrm{WT}\left\{a t p H_{p G}\right\}$ mutants, whereas it still was under detection level in mthi1-2 $\left\{a t p H_{p G}\right\}$.

However, another problem to overcome to study atpH in absence of MTHI1 lies in atpl expression. As previously explained, Atpl is not synthesised in absence of MTHI1. And so, we cannot infer from the previous results whether AtpH is not translated or if it is degraded in absence of its partner subunit Atpl. ${ }^{14} \mathrm{C}$ pulse labelling experiments of the strains were done but were inconclusive due to the tendency of AtpH to comigrate with chlorophylls, muddling the signals.

We then decided to produce Atpl independently from MTHI1; using the aAdl construct (Figure 61.A). Both WT $\left\{a t p H_{p G}\right\}$ and mthi1-2 $\left\{a t p H_{p G}\right\}$ were transformed with aAdl at the atpl endogenous locus. aAdl permitted Atpl synthesis in the control transformants and in mthi1-2 (Figure 61.B). RNA blot analysis confirmed the expression of $a A d l$ in both strains, detected as shorter forms of atpl mRNA (Figure 61.C). In the mthi1-2 background, $a t p H_{p G}$ transcripts still accumulated but AtpH was not detected in immunoblots, confirming the absence of phototrophy of the strain in growth tests (Figure 61.D)

Thus, AtpH is not synthesised in the absence of MTHI1, even when the atpH transcript does accumulate while the Atpl and AtpF subunits are synthesised. Therefore, MTHI1 appears essential for atpH translation, and is both an M and a T factor for $a t p H$.

Most of the aforementioned work has been included in a wider study of the MTHI1 factor: ARTICLE 3, an article under review, which is attached at the end of this manuscript.

## DISCUSSION

## MTHI1, A KEYSTONE TO BOTH ATPI AND ATPH EXPRESSION

Altogether, we confirmed that MTHI1 is truly a bifunctional factor, essential for both atpH and atpl expression.


## $\Delta \mathrm{G}=-16,76{\mathrm{kCaI} . \mathrm{mol}^{-1}}$

Figure 62: The lowest energy structure calculated at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by RNA Folding Form (M-Fold: (Zuker, 2003)) of atpH 5'UTR and the first 25 nt of its CDS. The footprint of MDH1 is grey-shaded, while the atpH initiation codon is pink-shaded

It is necessary both to atpH mRNA stabilisation and to its translation. Structure prediction program M-Fold (Zuker, 2003) proposes that a secondary structure sequestrating the initiation codon of atpH might exist (Figure 62). MTHI1 might act by opening this secondary structure when binding to its target sequence. Most interestingly, a similar mechanism has been described in maize (Prikryl et al., 2011) for PPR10, a PPR factor, also stabilising and activating the translation of atpH mRNA (Figure 63). This convergent evolution of proteins from evolutionary distinct family could indicate that this mechanism is especially suited to atpH expression. As AtpH is needed in great quantities for the ATP synthase assembly, perhaps this mechanism could allow the chloroplast to produce rapidly a large amount of AtpH when the need arise, with the induction of a single nuclear protein.

(Prikryl et al, 2011. PNAS)


Figure 63: A. Mode of action of maize PPR10, redrawn from (Prikryl et al., 2011).
B. Putative mode of action of MTHII.

MTHI1 is also important for atpl mRNA translation and directly implicated in its stability. This is effectively a way for the cell to activate the expression of both subunits together. MTHI1 is strongly expressed at the beginning of the day in circadian gene expression studies (see figure 14 from ARTICLE 3), certainly to prepare the biogenesis of the photosynthetic apparatus (Zones et al., 2015). Accordingly, MTHI1 is more expressed at the onset of light that in the dark, a pattern that is attenuated in a hmox1 null mutant, deficient in bilin biosynthesis. That mutant barely grow under a diurnal 12 h dark/12h light cycle (Duanmu et al., 2013; Wittkopp et al., 2017). MTHI1 could be among key nuclear genes that are upregulated by a retrograde signalling mediated by bilins. MTHI1 appears to be a true regulator, implicated in chloroplast/nucleus cross talks.

## MTHI1 MIGHT WORK WITH OTHER FACTORS

The different functions of MTHI1 do not seem established thru the differences of the target sequences of MTHI1. No variations in expression of the transcripts, either in stabilisation or translation, could be detected after swapping the targets. Moreover, in the chloroplast transcriptome the GTTGTTAT sequence is found 3 times (atpH, rpoC2 and rpoC1) GGTTATTAT is found 2 times (atpl and rps3), and of all those sequences, only the atpH one is recovered in a MTHI1 footprint. No other sRNA than atpH was recovered either in MTHI1-RIP experiments.

It appears that the 5'UTRs of the mRNAs bear additional signals that control their expression and induce the strong affinity of MTHI1 for atpH and its effects on atpl. Competition between chimeric reporter constructs and endogenous genes revealed that MTHI1 was not the only limiting factor for atpl expression. While tweaking the MTHI1 target sequence did not affect the stability of the chimeric mRNA, the absence of a concurrent atpl 5'UTR increased the accumulation of 5'atpl-petA chimeras, much more than the absence of $a t p H$. This suggests that at least one other specific factor acts on atpl mRNA 5'UTR, presumably a specific M factor, as a foot-print is found at the beginning of the mature atpl transcript (figure 10 from ARTICLE 3). But this factor probably relies on MTHI1 quite a bit to stabilise atpl mRNA, since MTHI1 is truly implicated in the stabilisation process.

As for $a t p H$, we characterised other mutants in a putative MTH2 protein, which display a drop in atpH mRNA accumulation to about $10 \%$ of the WT level but are still photoautotrophic. Such a factor could be an auxiliary M factor of MTHI1. Alone, MTH2 is not able to rescue any accumulation of atpH mRNA, but its presence could help stabilise MTHI1 on atpH mRNA. In fact, we do not know if MTH2 can bind RNA. It could well be a specific factor recognising a sequence in atpH mRNA or it might instead interact with yet another factor(s), specific to atpH mRNA.

The case for multifactor complexes has been strengthened biochemically. MTHI1 was found in high molecular weight fractions in size exclusion chromatography experiments (figure 9 from Article 3). The action of RNases on the samples dissociated the complexes and produced monomeric MTHI1, certainly tethered to its mRNA footprints. The MTHI1 complexes of high molecular weight could form in presence of either atpH or atpl transcripts but shifted to even larger fractions in absence of both, presumably because MTHI1 aggregates. Those complexes formed upon atpl or $\operatorname{atpH}$ mRNA could involve MTHI1 and a suite of partner factors. Possible candidates were uncovered in the mdb1-2 strain and could perhaps be implicated in atpl or $a t p H$ expression. Further studies are required to determine if they are linked or not to MTHI1 functions.

## TOWARD A GENERAL MODEL OF OPR PROTEINS ACTION?

The present results point toward the implication of several actors to induce the expression of $a t p H$ and atpl. MTHI1 seems to have a relatively weak affinity for its targets but the implication of other specific factors could anchor MTHI1 on atpH mRNA and induce its actions on atpl mRNA. Such models have been described previously for other OTAF; MCA1 and TCA1 that interact together in a ternary complex on petA mRNA. When MCA1 is absent no stabilisation of the transcript is possible, but even if the transcript is artificially stabilised, its translation is drastically reduced. And when TCA1 is absent, petA mRNA is partially destabilised and only accumulates to about 15\% of its normal level (Wostrikoff et al., 2001; Raynaud et al., 2007; Loiselay et al., 2008; Boulouis et al., 2011). When its partner is absent the other factor must rely only on its own specificity for the target sequence and thus induce a weaker action on the mRNA. Other described ternary complexes include MDA1 with TDA1 on atpA mRNA (Viola et al., 2019) and MBD1 (NAC2) with Rp40 on the petD 5'UTR (Schwarz et al., 2007).

The case of MTH2 is even more subtle than those ternary M/T/mRNA complexes; it is auxiliary to atpH expression and its action, not well characterised as of now, could be to act on MTHI1. It would be very interesting to study this MTH2 factor in more details and find out whether it interact with MTHI1 or even if it might, after all, bind RNA, or maybe act in a completely different way. As this protein does not contain evident domains, the search for this kind of factor in C. reinhardtii genome would be very difficult. Furthermore, such auxiliary factors are expected to induce subtle phenotypes when mutated, rendering their discovery even more complicated. It is impossible to say for now if those auxiliary factors are rare or common partners of OTAFs.


Figure 64: Models of OTAFs interaction on mRNA. A. Ternary complex of $M$ and T factors on mRNA B. Higher order complexes could be common in the organelles.

Ternary or higher order multi-factor systems, relying on different proteins with modest affinity for a target mRNA could, when assembled together, display a strong specificity for the transcript and a higher resilience. Small mutations in one factor could be compensated by the others. But nonetheless it still appears that some factors are vital for expression and their absence cannot be compensated by auxiliary factors. Another important step would be to study the non-OPR domains of OPR proteins to understand how they might interact with other proteins, or how they activate translation.

We will see in the next chapters how those complicated complexes might greatly influence the specificity of OPR factors. And how studying mRNA/OPR interactions in vivo brought valuable new data on $M$ factors and led us to radically rethink their roles in a wider scheme.

# III. Initial studies of MDB1 and MTHI1 Interactions WITH THEIR TARGET MRNA IN VIVO 

## INTRODUCTION

## The "OPR code"

To better understand how the OPR factors establish their specificity in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii we set out to study the "OPR code". Starting from the amino acid sequence of an OPR repeat, the OPR code would predict which nucleotide should be recognised, much like the PPR code established seven years ago (Barkan et al., 2012; Kobayashi et al., 2012; Yagi et al., 2013; Kobayashi et al., 2019).

Improving target sequence prediction would allow the study of cryptic OPR proteins, which might have subtle roles, difficult to spot in phenotypic characterisation, notably auxiliary factors or factors acting on non-essential chloroplast products. It would ease particularly the study of T factors; not only are they difficult to recover in footprint experiments, they appear to be enriched in certain repeats that are currently "unreadable". It could also make it possible to assign some OPR factors to essential genes that are lethal when not expressed. This could also create opportunities to design and build artificial OPR protein as has been discussed and started with PPR proteins (Filipovska and Rackham, 2013; Coquille et al., 2014; Yagi et al., 2014; Spahr et al., 2018).



Figure 65: The consensus sequence of the OPR repeats found in photosynthetic organisms. The taller the residue, the most abundant it is. Position of the two putative $\alpha$-helices is indicated under the consensus. The red arrow indicates the 6th amino acid, which is expected to be crucial for the specific interaction with nucleotides of the target mRNA.

A preliminary version, a "draft" OPR code, based on known OPR/mRNA pairs had been established by Yves Choquet before I joined our laboratory. When looking at the variability of residues in the repeat and at the predicted structure, it appeared that the sixth residue, which should be exposed in the groove of the super helix, could be critical to establish specificity. The occurrence of amino acids at this sixth position was then linked to corresponding nucleotides in available characterised binding sites. This residue is most often polar which could allow the formation of hydrogen bounds with the Watson-Crick face of the bases, as has been observed with PPR motifs. Alternatively, if the $6^{\text {th }}$ residue is apolar, it tends to be a small one: glycine or alanine, which would leave enough space to fit even pyrimidine (A or G) without inducing steric clashes. The nature of the residues in the $3^{\text {rd }}, 4^{\text {th }}$ and $5^{\text {th }}$ position could also be implicated in the recognition mechanism. Prolines in position 4, for instance, create a turn, tweaking the structure quite differently.

But this draft code remains theorical and uncomplete. This is due in part to the relative "secrecy" of OPR factors. Only few laboratories have studied OPR proteins so far, making the sample size of validated mRNA/OPR pairs quite small. As can be noticed in Table 3 the observation of known OPR/mRNA could not resolve which combination should recognise C. Moreover, while some combinations show quite a robust correlation with precise nucleotides, some combinations have not been attributed a preferred nucleotide, as the characterised OPR/nucleotide sample had several equally represented bases. Those "unreadable" repeats are abundant in T factors, which make their study even more difficult. Overall, we needed to gather molecular data to substantiate this draft OPR code.

| Position | Residue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | x | x | x | x | R, K | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 4 | x | P | x | x | X-P | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 5 | x | Q | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{X} \\ -\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{~K} \end{gathered}$ | R, K | x | R | X-R | R, Q | x | R | R |
| 6 | E | G | D | D | D | Q | Q | A | H | S | N |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Recognised nucleotide | U | A | G | U | U | U | ? | A | ? | A | ? |

Table 3: The draft OPR code

To study the affinity of an OPR repeat for a nucleotide, a strong interaction should be favoured. More subtle interactions could prove difficult to untangle at first. Following this line of though, M factors, which are known to bind strongly on their target mRNA are a safer choice that T factors for which footprints have never been recovered so far, and which might interact only transiently or weakly with their target transcript. And so, to study this recognition code I worked with two M factors that have been presented at length in the first and second chapters: MDB1 and MTHI1.

To exemplify how the draft OPR code works, here I used it on MDB1 and MTHI1 OPR motifs, to try to predict their binding sequence (Table 4). When the draft OPR code does not have enough examples of a specific combination to draw a robust correlation, the combination was excluded. In consequence this version of the draft code is restrictive, notably for the recognition of adenine.

|  |  | Residues: | Prediction: | Actual target seq | ences: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 123456789... |  |  |  |
|  | OPR1 | NYDS ${ }^{\text {NDTTL }}$ | G | G |  |
|  | OPR2 | IFKPVDCAN | G | G |  |
|  | OPR3 | DYAPGEVCQ | U | U |  |
|  | OPR4 | GYGTQELGM | U | U | Table 4: Prediction of the recognised |
| MTHI1 | OPR5 | HMAP ${ }^{\text {d }}$ IAI | G | G/A | nucleotide for each OPR |
|  | OPR6 | KCRSSELCS | U | U | motif of MTHI1 and |
|  | OPR7 | GLSHHEVAT | U | U | MDB1 following the |
|  | OPR8 | SFSPQGLAM | A | A | the $6^{\text {th }}$ residue, deemed |
|  | OPR9 | AFKPLELSQ | U | U | crucial, in orange the residues modulating the |
|  | OPR1 | QPPPSSLLQA | a | A | recognition. |
|  | OPR2 | VYHSCAALS | a | A | Predicted nucleotides in |
|  | OPR3 | ELHPRAVVV | A | A | lesser known repeats |
|  | OPR4 | ALQPRGLAS | a | A | which have a well |
|  | OPR5 | RFAPREVST | U | U | characterised $6^{\text {th }}$ |
|  | OPR6 | SFCGRSLSN | A | A | $5^{\text {th }}$ residue. |
| MDB1 | OPR7 | AFSPQGLTQ | A | A |  |
|  | OPR8 | PYNGLDLST | G | G |  |
|  | OPR9 | RLEANQLCN | ? | C |  |
|  | OPR10 | YFKPVILSQ | G | G |  |
|  | OPR11 | MFSPVEVAN | U | U |  |
|  | OPR12 | SFKPQELCS | U | U |  |
|  | OPR13 | SMSGWCLAT | ? | A |  |

As C. reinhardtii is a great model where both nuclear and plastid genomes are transformable, this study was performed in vivo. Less was known at the time on the collaborative nature of OTAF factors in $C$. reinhardtii and the impact they might have on mRNA stabilisation. The strong specificity of the M factors for their target and their essential nature implied a stringent relationship, based on precise molecular properties. But while working in vivo entails unexpected difficulties to decipher the interaction of the M factor with its target, in abstentia of the other interacting factors, it brings a lot of information on how these factors work physiologically. Moreover, OPR proteins tend to aggregate when overexpressed and their purification remains laborious so far, which further spurred us to tackle this question directly in vivo.

How to "CRACK" THE CODE
The directive idea of our strategy is similar to that developed in (Barkan et al., 2012). First: modify the target mRNA and look at its interaction with the M factor, second: modify the M factor following the putative code and look again to see if the interaction is restored (Figure 66).

This project is thus based first on chloroplast transformation to introduce a mutated RNA target. As we work with subunits of the chloroplast ATP synthase, the interruption of the M factor/transcript interaction should render the cells non-photo autotrophic. Then nuclear transformation would be used to introduce the modified $M$ factor. If it can restore the accumulation of the mRNA and rescue phototrophy of the chloroplast mutant strains, the recognition combination would be validated. Our in vivo proxy to assess the strength of the interaction will be the accumulation level of the target transcript, which depends on its stabilisation and so on the binding affinity of the OPR factor for the RNA sequence. Looking at the effective stabilisation of mutant transcripts by mutated OPR repeats we could draw conclusions for their preference: which nucleotides are stably recognised by the modified repeat? Is this specificity the one expected from the putative code?


Figure 66: Our initial strategy to study the interaction of the OPR M factor MDB1 with its cognate atpB binding sequence in vivo.

In this chapter we will focus on the first step of this approach, where we discovered previously unsuspected properties of OPR protein/mRNA interactions.

## Results

## Mutagenesis of atpB MDB1 target sequence

The first attempt: moderate mutations
At the start of the project, I begun by transforming four mutated targets of MDB1 at $a t p B$ endogenous locus, together with a spectinomycin resistance cassette to select the transformants. Since the $\triangle a t p B$ strain that was available at the time was already spectinomycin resistant, the constructs were transformed by biolistic in the WT.T222 strain. After homoplasmisation by successive sub-cloning, the presence of the mutations and the absence of the WT version of the target were checked by PCR and sequencing (Eurofins). Three independent transformants were selected for each version of the target.


Figure 67: RNA blot of the first atpB MDB1 target sequence variants, filter were hybridised with ${ }^{33}$ P-labelled $a t p B$ and $a t p A$ radioactive probes. On top are depicted the mutated target sequences with the respective mutation black shaded.

The atpB transcript accumulation levels were then checked by RNA blots (Figure 67). To our surprise the mutations had almost no effect on atpB mRNA accumulation, except for the $d B с т$ one, which straddle the target sequence corresponding to the "hinge" of MDB1, i.e. an intervening sequence between two blocks of adjacent OPR repeats. This junction could be implicated in the relaxation of tensions in the MDB1 target sequence; indeed, it is possible that stretches of more than nine successive OPR repeat could inflict a strong tension on a substrate RNA. Perhaps this more flexible part of MDB1 is important for the efficient binding of the atpB transcript? In any case, it still does not fully prevent the binding of MDB1 to the atpB mRNA.

Considering how MDB1 is so crucial to atpB mRNA stabilisation and maturation and how it is specific to this transcript, we were quite baffled by the apparent resilience of the interaction. Could this predicted target sequence be accessory? To test this hypothesis, we decided to retry this strategy with another series of mutations.

## Exploring the whole target

Mutations spanning the whole putative target were designed. Some were still quite small, with only two nucleotides modified, other were much larger with four consecutive nucleotides altered. When a pyrimidine ( U or C) was replaced with a purine (A or G) a stronger impact on the binding of MDB1 was expected, as puric bases are bulkier than pyrimidic ones, and could induce steric clashes. Those mutations were generated by two steps PCR mutagenesis and integrated into the $\mathrm{pK}^{\top} a t p B$ plasmid. As the spectinomycin cassette had been excised from the $\Delta a t p B$ strain in the meantime, the constructions were transformed into this strain, to accelerate the sub-cloning phase.

After several rounds of sub-cloning, the $a t p B$ regions of the strains were sequenced, and three independent transformants by target variant picked. Growth test of the strains suggested that only $d B 12$ was severely affected (Figure 68.A).
Again, the $a t p B$ transcript levels were monitored by RNA blots, no great differences were observed between transformants of the same constructs. A blot with one transformant for each target variant is presented in Figure 68.B. The mRNA levels were normalised on the $d B c t$ control strain.

A

| WT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dBCt | dB1 | dB2 | dB3 | dB4 | dB5 | dB6 | dB7 |
| dB8 | dB10 | dB11 | dB12 | $\mathrm{dBCC}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{dBTT}_{1}$ | dBGG ${ }_{1}$ | $\mathrm{dBCT}{ }_{1}$ |
| DatpB1 |  |  |  | K4.20 |  |  |  |



Figure 68: A. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table aside shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media and grown for 12 days under $55 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ illumination. B. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p B$ strains transformed with the mutated atpB MDB1 target sequence. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. $a t p B$ and petA (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on dBCt levels. The ratio of $\operatorname{atpB}$ on petA transcripts is depicted under the blot.

The first, blaring conclusion to draw from those experiments was that atpB mRNA stability was barely altered by most mutations. The target sequence was still bound by MDB1 and the transcript protected, even when four nucleotides were modified in the $5^{\prime}$ part of the sequence, as in strains $d B 2$ and $d B 3$. Overall, mutations in the $3^{\prime}$ half of the target induced somewhat stronger effects, but this observation also seems to correlate with the amount of steric clashes induced, so it is difficult to conclude from this experiment whether it is the specific position or the steric clashes that induce this difference. We again noticed a stronger effect of mutations in the centre of the target where the MDB1 hinge lies, despite the absence of induced steric clashes. This part seems truly important for the interaction. Maybe the two groups of OPR repeats in MDB1 "clamp" down independently on each side of the target, and the junction is crucial to "lock" MDB1 in a stable interaction?

Nonetheless, the only mutant lacking $a t p B$ transcript was $d B 12$, with four modified nucleotides and three steric clashes. This mutant proves that MDB1 is not completely insensitive to changes in the target sequence. However, this mutant would be quite impractical to study the code. An MDB1 with four mutated OPR repeats would have to be introduced and it could be difficult to identify the independent participation of each of the four repeats.

The surprising resilience of the MDB1/atpB mRNA interaction prompted us to assess whether it was an interesting but unfortunate (for our goal of studying the OPR code) exception or perhaps a more general property of OPR M factors.

Mutagenesis of the MTHI target sequence at the 5' end of the ATPH MRNA.

## INITIAL MUTAGENESIS

MTHI1, as an M factor with a well-defined binding sequence in atpH mRNA (see Chapter II), was thus picked to observe the effect of nucleotide modifications in its target sequence in vivo. We already saw that swapping the central nucleotides of the MTHI1 targets within the atpH and atpl 5'UTRs (see Chapter II from p78) had seemingly no effect on mRNA stability, pointing toward a tolerance for point mutations. Nonetheless, this could also be due to a putative ability of the $5^{\text {th }}$ OPR repeat to recognise both $A$ and $G$, even if the draft code point to a strong preference for $G$. Or perhaps the middle of this short binding sequence is less critical for the establishment of the interaction than the extremities.

Three target variants of $a t p H$ were designed. They were generated by two step PCR mutagenesis and inserted in the $\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{Kr}}$ atpH plasmid, then transformed in $\Delta a t p H$ cells at the atpH locus. Transformants were selected for spectinomycin resistance and subcloned on selective media until they reached homoplasmy. Three independent transformants were selected for each mutation. At this step, growth tests revealed that, of the three mutants, only one was non-phototrophic, $\Delta d H 3$ (Figure 69.A). Then, as usual, total RNAs were extracted from the transformants, blotted, and the accumulation of the $a t p H$ mRNA estimated (Figure 69.B).


Figure 69: A. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table on the left shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media under $55 \mu \mathrm{E}$ illumination for 8 days. B. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p H$ strains transformed with the mutated atpH MDB1 target sequence. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. $a t p H$ and $p s b D$ (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on $\Delta d H C t 2$ levels. The ratio of atpH on $p s b D$ transcripts is depicted under the blot.

The levels of atpH mRNA in the $\Delta d H 1$ and $\Delta d H 2$ mutants were quite sizeable and sufficient to allow some expression of AtpH and thus photo-autotrophy. In contrary atpH transcript levels were very low in $\triangle d H 3$. Quantifications here are probably biased by the smear of the strong $p s b D$ signal: indeed, in all three technical repeats the $\Delta d H 3$ levels were of the same order than mthi1-2 strain that should be null. The atpH mRNA probably does not accumulate in $\Delta d H 3$ transformants, in coherence with the fact that they are non-photo autotrophic.

This suggests that MTHI1, much like MDB1, binds quite resiliently to its target RNA. It is resistant to changes in its target sequence in the atpH 5'UTR, even when steric clashes are induced, only a large mutation covering more than of half the sequence could prevent its binding. It seems that, like MDB1, MTHI1 does not exert a stringent recognition of its target sequence. This apparent low specificity of OPR M factors is paradoxical considering that their only observed specific footprints are found at the 5' end of their cognate chloroplast mRNA and that mutations in M factors usually affect the expression of one single chloroplast gene (Trosch et al., 2018), but is consistent with the weak affinity of MTHI1 for its target as discussed in Chapter II.

## TARGET SEQUENCE MODIFICATIONS In ABSENCE OF MTH2

As suggested for MTHI1 in the second chapter, other factors could play a crucial role in establishing the specificity of M factors. For MTHI1 a putative auxiliary factor had been identified: MTH2. And so, we decided to assess if MTHI1 would be more easily dissociated from atpH transcript in absence of MTH2.

The plasmids containing the $d H C t$ and $d H 2 a t p H$ variants were transformed in mth22 cells. After sub-cloning, homoplasmy was tested by PCR amplification. Growth tests (Figure 70.A) indicated that the mth2-2 \{dHct\} transformants grew as the mth2-2 recipient strain: more slowly on minimum media than the WT but they were still photo-autotrophic. In contrast, the mth2-2 \{dH2\} transformants could barely grow with photosynthesis alone, but still survived on minimum medium. Moreover, they did not display a photosensitive phenotype like the $\Delta a t p H$ strain on TAP media, suggesting that AtpH was still produced at trace levels, enough to allow some photosynthesis and some dissipation of the proton gradient.

RNA blot of the transformants (Figure 70.B) revealed that the effect of MTH2 deficiency and of the dH 2 mutation were cumulative. Trace amounts of $a t p H$ transcript must accumulate in the mth2-2 $\{\mathrm{dH} 2\}$ transformants since they are phototrophic but were under detection level in this blot.

MTH2 does not seem to be the only factor anchoring MTHI1 on atpH 5'UTR: even in its absence and with a mutated target sequence, MTHI1 still manages to bind the atpH transcript.

## A

| WT |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct}}{ }^{2}$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{2} 1$ | $\begin{gathered} m t h 2-2 \\ \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct} 1} 1 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} m t h 2-2 \\ \mathrm{dH}_{2} 2 \end{gathered}$ |
| $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct}} 3$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{2} 3$ | $\begin{aligned} & m t h 2-2 \\ & \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct}} 2 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} m t h 2-2 \\ \mathrm{dH}_{2} 3 \end{gathered}$ |
| $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}$ |  | mth2-2 |  |



TAP medium

min medium

B


Figure 70: A. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table on the left shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media under $55 \mu \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{m}^{-}$ ${ }^{2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ illumination. B. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p H$ and $m t h 2^{-}$strains transformed with the mutated atpH MTHI1 target sequences. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. atpH and $\operatorname{atpB}$ (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on $\triangle d H C t 2$ levels. The ratio of atpH on $a t p B$ transcripts is depicted under the blot.

## DISCUSSION

## A paradigm shift on OPR M Factor specificity

Both of the OPR M factors that we tested displayed a "lenient" recognition for their chloroplast mRNA target: mutations in the binding sites sequences, corresponding to the specific footprints of these M factors, did not affect strongly the accumulation of either the $a t p B$ or $a t p H$ transcripts. Those resilient interactions seem contradictory with the reported specificity of OPR factors for their target in C. reinhardtii and came as a surprise for us at the time. But when substantial modifications in the targets were made, a near complete loss of the mRNA could be achieved, confirming that OPR factors do recognise their target. And when M factors cannot bind at all their target mRNA, no mechanism can alleviate the loss of this interaction.

As we saw in Chapter II, some OTAF factors are suspected to act together in complexes on their specific mRNAs. We suspect that those unknown factors could be critical for the compensation of defects in the target sequence of the M factors. The collaborative interaction between specific factors with moderate affinity could create a stronger affinity for the mRNA.

Another putative mechanism could rely on other parts of the mRNA itself. Indeed, as we saw in Chapter I, putting rbcL 3'UTR in a chimeric construct based on atpB 5'UTR can affect the 5'end maturation of the transcript. Perhaps secondary structures formed between the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ UTR of a chloroplast mRNA could also impact the interaction of the M factor with its binding site.

## The Search for MTHI1 partners continues?

Combining the dH 2 mutation in the absence of MTH2 did not completely prevent the accumulation of the $\operatorname{atpH}$ mRNA. The effects on transcript accumulation of both mutations appeared rather cumulative, suggesting either than the MTH2-mediated stabilisation is independent from the MTHI1-mediated one or that MTH2 forms only a part of the "rescue" mechanism tethering MTHI1 on the atpH mRNA. And so, yet another partner factor(s) likely contributes to the interaction of MTHI with the atpH transcript. We do not have enough data to counter or confirm these theories for now. Analysing the super complexes formed with atpH mRNA and MTHI1 (described in Article 3) is required to answer this question.

## INSIGHTS ON MDB1 FROM ANOTHER STUDY

Our results for $a t p B$ and MDB1 appeared even more surprising when compared to those of an older study (Anthonisen et al., 2001). The authors made point mutations in the target sequence of MDB1 in the atpB 5'UTR and witnessed clear effects on transcript accumulation (Figure 71). While their results did not include loading controls, potentially lessening their observations, the differences between our results appeared striking enough to warrant further consideration. Smaller mutations led to a strong impairment of the MDB1/target sequence interaction, as depicted in Figure 72.A.

Figure 71: Northern blot adapted from (Anthonisen et al., 2001), uidA mRNA (GUS) compared to the control (C), on top are depicted the mutations inserted by Anthonisen and colleagues in the $\operatorname{atpB}$ MDB1 target sequence. Note the absence of loading control.


Transcript levels [\% of control]

They did also work in C. reinhardtii; but used a reporter construct based on uidA, an exogenous gene, and on the $p s a B 3^{\prime} U T R$. Only a small part of the mature $\operatorname{atp} B$ $5^{\prime}$ UTR (31 nt) was put in front of uidA CDS. We suspect that the parts of atpB that were deleted are implicated in tethering MDB1 on its target (Figure 72.B). Their absence effectively "isolated" MDB1, allowing its study without interference of other factors. And so, we decided to design a similar construct, as we will see in the next chapter.


Figure 72: A. Comparison between some of our mutants and Anthonisen and colleagues' ones. B. Hypothesis to explain the differences observed: unknown factor(s) recognising a part of $\operatorname{atpB}$ transcript deleted in the uidA chimera can stabilise MDB1 on its target sequence.

## IV. Building a chimeric SYSTEM TO VALIDATE THE "OPR CODE"

## INTRODUCTION

## Implications of SWITCHING TO A CHIMERIC REPORTER

Following our previous results (Chapter III) and the observations of Anthonisen and colleagues (Anthonisen et al., 2001), we continued our study of the OPR code on the MDB1/atpB pair, using an exogenous sequence instead of the atpB CDS and only a short fraction of the $\operatorname{atpB}$ 5'UTR, which does not contain the translation initiation signals. This thus deprived us from a convenient screen based on the restoration of phototrophy or on expression of a reporter gene. Selecting and analysing transformants would require monitoring the accumulation of the chimeric transcript in each transformant without prior selection. This would render the reporter construct unsuitable to design future experiments with larger scale randomised RNA target variants for instance.

We used a part of the exogenous CDS encoding Azotobacter vinelandii GFP (green fluorescent protein) as a reporter transcript to lower as much as we could the possibilities of interactions with OTAFs. We also decided to keep our chimera as similar as possible to the one from (Anthonisen et al., 2001) to get similar results. Indeed, the whole $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ UTR is strongly suspected to interact with other factors that would tether MDB1 on its target (Chapter III). We did not add translation initiation signals from other chloroplast genes as they could be the target of some OTAFs, defeating our purpose of looking at the sole interaction between MDB1 and its atpB target.

The chimera was built as follow: a 144 bp fragment of the atpB 5' region, containing the $\operatorname{atpB}$ promoter (Klein et al., 1992) up to the first 34 nt of the $\operatorname{atpB}$ mature 5'UTR, thus including the MDB1 target and the whole MDB1 footprint, was placed in front of the gfp sequence. The construct was terminated by a short version of the rbcL 3'UTR, as stem loops are critical for mRNA 3'end stability (Figure 73). Funnily enough (or rather not), at that time, we did not know the impact of the rbcL 3'UTR on the maturation of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR (Chapter I) ...

MDB1 binding


Figure 73: The gfp chimeric construct at scale.

## Design of an additional reporter with the Spinach 2 aptamer

Since translation was not possible in our chimeric system, I looked at possible RNA reporter systems, enabling us to screen transformants for stable transcript accumulation without extracting RNA from every one of them. I found a good potential reporter: Spinach (Paige et al., 2011). Spinach is an RNA aptamer, a sequence that folds into a secondary structure, able to interact with specific substrates. Its structure is formed of planar layers, among which two G quadruplexes. The space between two of the layers allows a flat molecule to enter the structure (Figure 74.B). Spinach is a light-up aptamer, as it can bind the fluorophore 3,5-difluoro-4-hydroxybenzylidene imidazolinone (DFHBI) and strongly increases its fluorescence emission (Figure 74.A). DFHBI is not toxic for the cells and membrane permeant, making its use possible in vivo. In its free state, DFHBI dissipates the excitation energy by rotation of its cycles (Figure 74.C). When DFHBI interact with Spinach it is locked in a stiff state and cannot dissipate energy by conformational changes. Therefore, when excited by light of the appropriate wavelength ( 469 nm ) it emits fluorescence at 501 nm .(Paige et al., 2011; Bouhedda et al., 2017).

A


C



DFHBI stuck in a planar conformation in Spinach

 501 nm 501 nm

This reporter system had been used previously in C. reinhardtii (Guzman-Zapata et al., 2017) to image living cells and assess the accumulation of a transcript, making this system seemingly suited to our needs.

I thus developed in parallel of the streamlined chimera, a Spinach-based reporter. As Spinach/DFHB1 fluorescence is rather faint in part because of poor folding properties in cells (Han et al., 2013; llgu et al., 2016), we used Spinach2 a 95 nt long optimised version of Spinach, that is more thermostable and folds better in vivo (Figure 75) (Strack et al., 2013).


Spinach


Spinach2
Figure 75: Mutations introduced by Strack and colleagues In Spinach2 improve thermostability and folding, Stem1 and Stem loop 3, in blue, were modified. From (Strack et al., 2013).

We also tried to add several consecutives Spinach2 in our reporter, to enhance the fluorescence emission of a transcript. The Spinach2 were put between the gfp sequence and the $3^{\prime}$ UTR (Figure 76). As the Spinach2 sequences were inserted at specific restriction sites, the $g f p$ CDS had to be trimmed at various lengths in its 3 ' end. This should be inconsequential since the reporter is not intended to be translatable.


## Results

Comparing the two reporter systems
Part of the work described in this chapter was done with Julia lo Turco an undergraduate student in a training internship.

## Designing the reporters

The construction of the simple $d B_{w T} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ chimera was achieved as described in Materials and Methods p145. The construction of the Spinach2 reporters, derived from the $d B_{w_{T}} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ chimera, is described p146 and illustrated in Figure 76. All chimeras are embedded in plasmids containing the excisable 5'psaA-aadA cassette for selection of the transformants (Wostrikoff et al., 2004).

We transformed the $d B_{w T} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ construct in the WT T222+ or $\Delta a t p B$ strains, while the $d B_{w T} g f p$ Spix2-3'rbcL and $d B_{w T} g f p$ Spix3-3'rbcL constructs were introduced in the WT.T222+, mdb1-2 and $\Delta a t p B$ backgrounds. After sub-cloning, homoplasmy was tested by PCR amplification. Total RNAs were extracted from the transformants and blotted.

## Reporter accumulation, competitions with atp $B$ mRNA

## Spinach2 tagged transcripts accumulate in a MDB1 dependant manner

We worried whether the Spinach2 aptamer, a dense and stable structure, reminiscent of a polyG track, could stabilise the chimeric transcript, irrespective of the MDB1 binding. The reporter being designed to assess the MDB1-mediated stabilisation, such an intrinsic effect of Spinach2 on mRNA stability could be highly misleading.

The chimeric transcript accumulated in WT or $\Delta a t p B$ strains (Figure 77). However, transformants lacking MDB1 did not accumulate it at all, indicating that Spinach2 in the 3 'end of the transcript does not constitutively stabilise it. Moreover, the presence of two or three copies of Spinach2 did not increase the accumulation of the gfp chimeric mRNA in the WT, when compared to the version devoid of the aptamer. Those results confirmed that the missing $3^{\prime}$ part of the atpB 5'UTR is not necessary for MDB1-mediated stabilisation, as could be expected from the study of (Anthonisen et al., 2001).


Figure 77: RNA blot of the Spinach2 tagged chimeric transcripts, filter was hybridised with atpB, gfp and $a t p H$ dig-dUTP labelled DNA probes.

Note that $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix2-3'rbcL and $d B_{w_{T}} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ migrate similarly in the gel, while $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix3-3'rbcL is retarded. In the $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix2-3'rbcL construct, part of the $g f p$ CDS was trimmed (Figure 76). This explains the fast migration of the transcripts, similar to that of the $d B_{W T} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ chimeric mRNA (Figure 77).

## Chimeric transcripts compete with atpB mRNA

This RNA blot also revealed that the chimeric Spinach $2 \times 3$ construct is far more accumulated in the $\triangle a t p B$ background than in a WT background (Figure 77), probably because more MDB1 is available in absence of its endogenous target transcript. Similarly, the accumulation of the simple chimeric gfp mRNA was increased about tenfold in the absence of the endogenous $a t p B$ transcript (Figure 78). In contrast, atpB mRNA accumulation was only slightly affected by the presence of the chimera and remained at $\sim 75 \%$ of its level in the wild-type strain.


Those results indicate that $a t p B$ is preferentially stabilised in a competition with the chimera. $a t p B$ could either be transcribed at higher levels than the chimeric transcripts, even if the promoter fragment retained in our construct is as efficient as the full length atpB promoter (Klein et al., 1992) and would sequester more of the MDB1 stock, or, based on the results in ARTICLE 1, the rbcL 3'UTR could prevent the maturation of 5 'atpB-driven transcripts and indirectly destabilise the chimeric transcript. However, the most likely explanation is that the missing sequences of the atpB 5'UTR, participate in its stabilisation. These could include the binding sites of other specific factors, anchoring MDB1 on its mRNA (Figure 79).


Figure 79: Two main hypotheses to explain how the mutated transcripts could be less destabilised in the presence of the whole $\operatorname{atpB}$ sequence. A. Other regions of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript such its 3 'end could be physically implicated in the stabilisation process. B. Auxiliary factors might limit atpB transcript destabilisation by maintaining MDB1 on its target sequence.

## Effects of atpB 3'UTR on chimeric transcript levels

To test those hypotheses, the chimeric $d B_{\text {wT }}$ gfp.Spix $3-3^{\prime} r b c L$ construct was modified to replace the rbcL 3'UTR by the atpB 3'UTR. Again, the construction was transformed into WT.T222+, mdb1-2 and $\triangle a t p B$ strains. After homoplasmisation, total RNAs were extracted and blotted (Figure 80).


Figure 80: RNA blot of Spinach2 tagged chimeric constructs, with either atpB or rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR, gfp, atpB and $\operatorname{atpH}$ (loading control) transcripts levels were probed. mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on either \{ $\triangle a t p B d B W T g f p$ Spix3-3'rbcL\} 1 for $g f p$ or WT levels for $a t p B$. Reference levels are underlined. The ratios of $g f p$ and $a t p B$ on $a t p H$ transcripts are depicted under the blot.

Firstly, this blot confirmed that the chimeric transcript accumulates in a MDB1 dependant manner, and is in competition with the endogenous atp $B$ transcript for its stabilisation: there is about ten times more $g f p$ signal in the $\Delta a t p B$ background that in the WT. Surprisingly, the levels of the $d B W T g f p$.Spix $3-3^{\prime} a t p B$ transcript were slightly lower than those of the $d B W T g f p . S p i x 3-3^{\prime} r b c L$ transcript in the $\triangle a t p B$ background! atpB 3'UTR seems to have a slight negative impact on transcript accumulation. It is quite possible that the rbcL $3^{\prime} U T R$ inherently protects more efficiently the transcript from exonucleases that the $\operatorname{atp} B 3^{\prime} U T R$, because of a stronger stem loop structure. However, we did not observe a stronger accumulation of a chimeric BKR (atpB $5^{\prime} U T R: a a d A: r b c L 3^{\prime} U T R$ ) transcript compared to a BKB (atpB 5'UTR:aadA:atpB 3'UTR) one (see Figure 97 p 131 ). Admittedly, our $d B_{W T} g f p$.Spix3 chimeras are different because they only bear a small part of atpB 5'UTR. So a difference in secondary structure formation between the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends is possible, as further explored in the discussion (p130). But a direct weak negative effect of atpB 3'UTR on transcript stability is also conceivable. This effect could appear when the 5'UTR is not complete, maybe because auxiliary stabilising factors would not mitigate it.

Moreover, the endogenous atpB transcript is more accumulated when in competition with the $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$.Spix3-3'atpB transcript than with the $d B_{w T} g f p$.Spix3$3^{\prime} r b c L$ one. The chimeric transcript levels appear a bit stronger with atpB 3'UTR but only in the presence of the atpB transcript. This slightly higher accumulation of $d B_{w T}$ gfp.Spix3-3'atpB in the presence of $a t p B$ is not detrimental to $a t p B$ endogenous transcript accumulation and probably does not indicate an improved recruitment rate of MDB1.

From this blot, I suggest that a low abundance specific endonuclease might target the $a t p B 3^{\prime} U T R$, whose presence in the chimera exposes it more to degradation than $r b c L$ 3'UTR. When both the atpB and the $d B_{w T}$ afp Spix3-3'atpB transcripts are present together they both draw part of the specific endonucleases, thus sharing this burden, and diminishing the degradation rate of the $a t p B$ endogenous transcript.

I suggest that atpB 3'UTR is not really significantly implicated in MDB1 stabilisation process but mostly in the degradation of the atpB transcript. Chimeras with the $a t p B$ $5^{\prime}$ UTR and petA $3^{\prime}$ UTR are matured at their $5^{\prime}$ end while those with the atpB $5^{\prime}$ UTR and rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR are not (as seen in article 1), the effect on maturation could be specifically caused by rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR. The natural process of atpB $5^{\prime}$ end maturation might not implicate the 3'UTR normally.

## A Look at the Spinach 2 Reporter fluorescence

Since the Spinach2-tagged transcripts accumulated in our cells, I tried to observe their fluorescence in vivo. Following the (Guzman-Zapata et al., 2017) protocol, C. reinhardtii cells of various strains were incubated in $200 \mu \mathrm{M}$ DFHB1 (in PBS) for 10 min at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and washed three times. Afterward, the cells were deposited in poly-lysine coated chambered microscopy slides and observed with a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 microscope with various green filters. No difference in green fluorescence could be observed between strains accumulating or not the Spinach2 tagged transcripts. Figure 81 shows the fluorescence of the $\triangle a t p B:: d B_{w_{T}} G f p-S p i x 3-3^{\prime} r b c L$ strain, which accumulates the most Spinach2 tagged mRNAs, yet does not display any detectable differential green fluorescence when incubated with DFHBI.


Figure 81: Chlorophyll auto-fluorescence and green fluorescence of cells treated or not with DFHBI, no difference in green fluorescence could be observed between the two treatments. The bright spots of green fluorescence correspond to the carotenoid-rich eyespots of the cells.

Subsequent tests performed with Julien Sellés using several biophysical systems of our laboratory could not detect any differential signal either. We suspect that the weak DFHBI fluorescence is masked by the broad and strong carotenoid fluorescence in C. reinhardtii. Unfortunately, time was running short and I did not have enough time to optimise this fluorescence reporter system.

Since the Spinach2 reporters do not provide any added value for screening, we decided to use the simpler $d B g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ reporter to study the OPR code. From this point onward, all chimeras are based on dBgfp-3'rbcL unless otherwise specified.

STUDYING MDB1 BINDING WITH THE CHIMERIC SYSTEM
Considering the previous results from Anthonisen and colleagues, we opted for small mutations of two nucleotides, predicting that, in the absence of the rest of the atpB 5'UTR, they should disturb MDB1 binding on its target sequence. Following the apparent importance of the 3 ' half of the target (see Chapter III Figure 68), we decided to test and compare mutations in both sides of the target sequence. MDB1 target variants were generated by PCR mutagenesis or recovered from the $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ atpB $\mathrm{WT}, \mathrm{CC}_{1}$, $\mathrm{UU}_{1}$ or $\mathrm{GG}_{1}$ plasmids and integrated in the dBgfp-3'rbcL construct. After transformation in the WT.T222+ or $\Delta a t p B$ strains, and several rounds of sub-cloning, homoplasmy was tested by PCR and three independent transformants were selected for each sequence variant. After RNA extraction, the samples were blotted.

## Binding affinity of MDB1 for The Target variants

In $\Delta a t p B$ transformed cells the control transcript accumulated strongly; in comparison the levels of the target variants constructs were far weaker (Figure 82). Overall those results confirm our first observations, the $5^{\prime}$ half of the target sequence is less important than the 3' one for the MDB1/atpB mRNA interaction, moreover, this effect is also observed for the $\mathrm{dBCC}_{2}$ variant that does not have steric clashes.


Figure 82: RNA blot of $\Delta a t p B$ transformants chimeric constructs bearing atpB MDB1 target variants. Filter was hybridised with gfp and atpH dig-dUTP labelled probes. Transcript quantifications were done with ImageLab, and normalised on $\Delta a t p B:: d B_{w T} g f p 3$ levels. Ratio of $g f p / a t p H$ transcripts is depicted under the corresponding lanes, the mutations are on top. Two technical repeats were made and give the same results.

The peptide sequence of corresponding OPR repeats (number 6, 7 for the mutations in the 5'part of the target and 11 and 12 for the mutations in the 3'part of the target) of MDB1 are depicted in Figure 83.


Figure 83: Beginning of the amino acid sequence of the tested OPR motifs in MDB1, the probably crucial sixth residue of the repeat is highlighted in red.

As the repeat 6 and 7 of MDB1 have different residues in position 6, drawing conclusion on their individual affinity for nucleotides is not possible; however, they broadly follow the putative code. They do bind far better AA than UU or GG and seems to tolerate CC slightly more. For the repeats 11 and 12 , stronger conclusions can be made, as they both have a glutamate at their sixth position. From this RNA blot we can say that repeats 11 and 12 that have a $E$ in $6^{\text {th }}$ position both recognises preferentially: U>>A>C $\geq$ G. Interestingly, it appears in this case that pyrimidines are strongly differentiated by those two repeats. This is quite different from what was observed for the PPR code (Barkan et al., 2012), in which some residues combinations binding $U$ or C were "promiscuous" for the other pyrimidine. It remains to be seen if this is a general rule for the other OPR repeats or if the other recognises pyrimidines more loosely. Table 5 summarises our observations, so far, they go along the predictions of the putative OPR recognition code. But to validate the importance of the $5^{\text {th }}$ and $6^{\text {th }}$ residues, we need to modify just them in repeats to see the impact on nucleotide recognition.

| Position | Residue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | x | x | x | x | R, K | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 4 | $x$ | P | x | $x$ | X-P | x | x | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | x |
| 5 | $\times$ | Q | $\underset{-R, K}{x}$ | R, K | x | R | X-R | R, Q | x | R | R |
| 6 | E | G | D | D | D | Q | Q | A | H | S | N |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Recognised nucleotide | U | A | G | U | U | U | ? | A | ? | A | ? |Not tested yet

Coherent

Table 5: The draft OPR code: what is predicted and what we know so far.

## Combining competition and SEQUENCE VARIATIon

By comparing the levels of the $g f p$ chimeric transcript in a WT versus a $\Delta a t p B$ context, we witnessed a drop in the accumulation of the target variant transcript under detection levels in presence of the concurrent endogenous atpB (Figure 84); only the chimeric gfp transcript with the WT target sequence could be detected. The combination of the target mutations and the competition for MDB1 with atpB mRNA completely prevents the accumulation of the reporter transcript, even if recognition by MDB1 remains possible as seen in Figure 82.


Figure 84: Two RNA blots showing the difference of $d B_{M} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ transcript in WT or $\Delta a t p B$ genetic background. Filters were hybridised with $a t p B$, $g f p$ and $a t p H$ dig-dUTP labelled probes. Four technical repeats displayed the same patterns.

The WT situation is more complicated than the $\Delta a t p B$ one because we encounter the competition effects. Because of this competition, we could not see a difference of accumulation between different variants, nor assess their relative importance for the binding affinity. To study the code, a system with MDB1 entirely dedicated to the stabilisation of the reporter is more powerful: it is closer to an "in vitro" system, with MDB1 isolated from its partner factors and able to interact with the sole chimeric transcript. Thus, we decided to validate the code in the $\triangle a t p B$ strain.

I will now describe the introduction of mutated MDB1 proteins in C. reinhardtii, and our strategy to confront the various mutated OPR with each target variant.

## VALIDATION OF THE OPR CODE

## MDB1 mutagenesis:

Mutations in MDB1 sequence were introduced to modify the putative key residues at the fifth and sixth positions in the OPR repeat 6 and 7 or 11 and 12 according to the draft OPR recognition code (Figure 85). Since, no specificity conferring residues have been linked so far to C recognition we used residues similar or close to those found in the $9^{\text {th }}$ OPR repeat of MDB1 that is predicted to interact with $C$, but are more generally found in "unreadable" repeats.


Figure 85: Modification inserted in MDB1, $6^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ or $11^{\text {th }}$ and $12^{\text {th }}$ OPR motif, they were chosen following the draft OPR code, for the CC1 and CC2 variant, one of the "unreadable" residue combination was picked at random.

The mutations were introduced in vectors containing a partially spliced MDB1 sequence, tagged with either an HA tag, or with both HA and Strep tags (Figure 86). The vectors also bear a paromomycin resistance gene for transformants selection.


Figure 86: The MDB1mut chassis construct, with the aphVIII paromomycin resistance gene for selection of transformants.

## NuCLEAR TRANSFORMATION

As the aim was to study the interaction of the modified MDB1 as isolated as possible on their target sequence, care was needed to make sure that the endogenous MDB1 would not interfere. The modified MDB1 genes were transformed into mdb1-1 (mt-) cells by electroporation. The transformants were selected on paromomycin resistance, then for restoration of photo-autotrophy. Indeed, the mdb1-1 strain is incapable of photosynthesis, as it cannot accumulate at all atpB mRNA. Moreover, as we saw in Chapter III, MDB1 binding on a modified target atpB is quite resilient. And so, we expected that conversely, modified MDB1 might also be able to bind to some degree the endogenous WT atpB target sequence. Transformant plates were screened with a SpeedZen camera, to find partially rescued ATP synthase phenotypes.

| WT 222+ | mabl-1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| TAP | TAP |
|  |  |

$0.03 \square 0.44$ ゆPSII


| $\begin{gathered} \text { MDB1. } \\ \text { HA } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} M D B 1 . \\ C C_{2} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} M D B 1 . \\ A_{2} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TAP | TAP | TAP |
|  | b |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Figure 87: Photosynthetic activity of MDB1mut transformants, PSII fluorescence of cells on TAP media, $\phi$ PSII, which reflect the proportion of open centres, was measured at the end of the continuous illumination phase.

Several independent candidates for each mutated MDB1mut variant were plated on minimum medium, to assess their ability to grow from photosynthesis alone. The three photo-autotrophic transformants with the best restoration of WT fluorescence kinetics were selected for each MDB1mut variant, for further characterisation.

| WT.T222+ |  | mdb1-1 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TAP | Minimum | TAP | Minimum |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |


| mdb1-1::MDB1.HA |  | mdb1-1::MDB1.CC 2 |  | mdb1-1::MDB1.AA ${ }_{2}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TAP | Minimum | TAP | Minimum | TAP | Minimum |
|  | 0 | f. | $b$ |  |  |
|  |  <br> 18 |  | $4$ | $\cdots$ |  |
|  |  |  |  | $14$ |  |

Figure 88: Growth phenotypes of mdb1-1::MDB1mut transformants.
Cells were grown for seven days under $\quad 55 \mu \mathrm{E} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$.s on minimum or TAP media.

DNA integration in the nuclear genome is random, so we finally had to monitor MDB1mut expression. Proteins were extracted from three photoautotrophic transformants for each mutation. The levels of $\beta$ CF1, and HA-tagged MDB1mut protein was assessed by immunoblot, an example is shown in Figure 89. The transformants expressing the highest level of the tagged MDB1mut were selected for subsequent work.


Figure 89: Characterisation of three photoautotrophic independent transformants for the MDB1-HA, MDB1.CC 2 and MDB1.AA M $_{2}$ variants by immunoblots. Primary antibodies against HA, $\beta$ CF1 (AtpB), tubulin and cyt. $f$ were used. Underlined transformants were selected for the subsequent crosses.

During this process I noted an interesting property of the MDB1.CC ${ }_{1}$ transformants: recovering photo-autotrophic cells was far more difficult. Most of the transformants still had a deficient ATP synthase phenotype, even if they were resistant to paromomycin. After selection on minimum media I could recover a few transformants able to perform photosynthesis. And after looking at their MDB1.CC ${ }_{1}$ expression levels on immunoblots (Figure 90), all three of them were accumulating far more mutated MDB1 than the transformants of the other constructs. While this might be simply due to chance, I suspect that it might indicate that the introduced mutations: Q in position 6 , in repeat 6 and 7 lower considerably the binding affinity of MDB1 for WT atpB target sequence.


Figure 90: Characterisation of three photoautotrophic independent transformants for the MDB1-CC ${ }_{1}$, MDB1. UU $_{1}$ and MDB1.GG ${ }_{1}$ variants by immunoblots. Primary antibodies against HA, $\beta$ CF1 (AtpB), tubulin and cyt. $f$ were used. Underlined transformants were selected for the subsequent crosses.

## Confronting the OPR variants to each target mRNA By crosses

To test the OPR recognition code, the different MDB1 mutants, with their modified OPR repeats, must be confronted with each mutated chloroplast target sequence. One of the difficulties with nuclear mutations, as we do not yet master the CRISPR system, is that insertions are random. Therefore, the expression levels of insertions vary widely in independent transformants, as can be seen in (Figure 89 and Figure 90). This would prevent us from comparing the accumulation of the reporter transcript in independent $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{M} g f p\right\}$ transformed strains. Moreover, if we had decided to first recover nuclear mutants then transform their chloroplast, it would have been very long to first delete $\operatorname{atp} B$, excise the cassette, and then insert our chimeras in a neutral locus. I thus performed crosses, as the expression level of a transgene is similar in the progeny of a cross to that observed in the transgenic parent (Raynaud et al., 2007; Boulouis et al., 2011).

I crossed the mdb1-1::MDB1mut transformants previously selected with the $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{M} g f p\right\}$ strains. Since the MDB1/target sequence interactions seemed more affected in target variants modified in the $3^{\prime}$ half of the target sequence: $C_{2}, \mathrm{AA}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$, we decided to work first with the series of mutant affected in the second part of the target: mdb1-1::MDB1-HA-strep (the control MDB1), mdb1-1::MDB1.CC 2 mdb1$1:: M D B 1 . A A_{2}$, mdb1-1::MDB1.GG ${ }_{2}$ on one hand and \{ $\left.\Delta a t p B:: d B_{w T} g f p\right\}$, $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{c c 2} g f p\right\}$, $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{A A 2} g f p\right\}$ and $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{G G 2} g f p\right\}$ on the other hand. Following the rule of genetic segregation in C. reinhardtii, where the mt+ parent transmits uniparentally its chloroplast genome to the whole progeny, while nuclear genes follow Mendelian inheritance, and assuming independence of the MDB1mut insertion with the MDB1 locus, the descendant strains should be as described in Table 6.


Table 6: Expected descendants from a [mt+ \{ $\Delta a t p B:: d B_{M} g f p$ SpecR\}] X [mt- MDB1mut-ParoR] cross. Grey shaded strains are sensitive to either spectinomycin or paromomycin and should not survive our double selection screen.

I crossed each MDB1 variant strain with each $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{M} g f p\right\}$ variant. After 10 days of maturation, zygotes were exposed to light in TAP medium to induce germination and plated on double selective medium (containing spectinomycin and paromomycin) to kill any surviving vegetative cell. The spectinomycin kills the MDB1mut parent and the paromomycin kills the $\left\{\Delta a t p B:: d B_{M} g f p\right\}$ parent as well as the progeny that did not inherit the MDB1mut allele (Table 6). Descendant colonies started emerging after about 10 days.

The whole procedure is described in Materials and Methods p144, it is quite time consuming, and unfortunately my first attempt was unsuccessful; none of the 16 crosses had worked. I had to restart the whole process with barely any time left. Thankfully, my second attempt worked for every single cross, and I recently analysed the descendants.

## Analysing the descendants

As can be seen in Table 6, cells resistant to both antibiotics may contain, in addition to the mutated MDB1 transgene, either the wild type MDB1 allele or the mutant mdb1-1 allele. In progeny expressing both the MDB1mut and MDB1 alleles, any conclusions on the code would be completely wrong. And so, we carefully checked the absence of the functional MDB1 allele in the descendants. In strain mdb1-1, the deletion of a single $A$ in exon 5 creates a new Bsrl restriction site while removing the BstXI site present in the WT sequence. The regions of MDB1 surrounding the mutations (Figure 91.A) of 8 descendants for each cross were amplified by PCR. MDB1mut sequences were not amplified since the primers hybridise to introns 3 and 5 respectively that were not kept in the MDB1mut artificial construct (Figure 86). Amplicons were digested by Bsrl. A subset of the tested descendants is presented in Figure 91.B and reveals a random distribution of the MDB1 ${ }_{W T}$ and mdb1-1 alleles among the 8 descendants analysed for each cross, as expected from Mendelian segregation of the two MBD1 alleles. mdb1-1 descendants could be recovered from each cross.




Figure 91: A. PCR amplification of MDB1 exon 5, B. a Bsrl restriction site is induced by the deletion of one $\mathbf{A}$ in mdb1-1. C. Digestion of subsequent amplicons with Bsrl. the mdb1-1 allele $\mathbf{A}$ insertion creates a Bsrl site that does not exist otherwise in MDB1 $5^{\text {th }}$ exon.

## Could a preliminary experiment hold promises?

We recently extracted and started to analyse on RNA blots those descendants. Due to time constraints, a few of the biological replicates are missing but overall, we managed to obtain RNAs for each combination. Preliminary blots showing one descendant of each cross are presented in Figure 92.


Figure 92: Preliminary RNA blots showing the first descendant of each of the MDB1mut $\mathbf{x}$ $d B_{M} g f p$ cross. A. Filter was hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ labelled $g f p$ and $p s a B$ (loading control) probes. B. Filter was hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ labelled $\operatorname{atpB}$ and $\operatorname{aadA}$ probes. P are the MDB1mut parents.

Do take notice that in Figure 92.A the relative levels of $g f p$ mRNA between the different MDB1mut do not directly reflect the stabilising properties of the different OPR motifs, but probably rather the accumulation level of the modified MDB1 proteins. Reporter transcript levels must be compared in the same cross, and even then, we need to be careful, as unfortunately I could not yet assess the protein expression levels of each descendant. I extracted the proteins but ran out of time to perform immunoblots. These blots should allow us to check whether the accumulation of the MDB1mut proteins is the same in the descendants, as should be expected. Therefore, it is for now impossible to rule out that variations in the chimeric transcripts accumulation could stem from variations in the MDB1mut levels.

Another caution to keep in mind is that our reference $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ RNA, seems affected by degradation. The long RNAs like psaB, which are more sensitive to degradation, are probably underestimated in our reference. This probably induces a bias in our quantification, by lowering the ratio of detected $g f p$ of the descendant strains. A new RNA extract of $d B_{\text {wT }} g f p$ for a proper reference must be added in our future experiments. However, while keeping these limitations in mind, we could tentatively draw preliminary conclusions on the recognition of nucleotides by the different OPR motifs from this blot.

First: the absence of atpB mRNA accumulation in the strains was verified, to ensure that the descendants are really $\triangle a t p B$ (two samples were inverted while loading the gel). Similarly, as expected, the MDB1mut parents and the WT did not express any gfp mRNA (Figure 92.B).

The descendants stemming from MDB1-HA-Strep, our control MDB1, crosses with the various $d B_{M} g f p$ chloroplast variants displayed the same pattern of chimeric transcript accumulation than in our previous experiments (Figure 82). The $\mathrm{UU}_{2}$ mRNA is best recognised by the wild type MDB1 $11^{\text {th }}$ and $12^{\text {th }}$ OPR repeats. The $A A_{2}$ mRNA is slightly stabilised, while the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ mRNA are not stabilised at all. The low levels of $g f p$ mRNA in this progeny, probably stem from a lower expression of our transformed MDB1 in the parent strain than the endogenous MDB1. Alternatively, the Strep or HA tags could hinder the MDB1 stabilisation ability. But this does not seem in line with the relatively strong accumulation of the chimeric transcripts allowed by our other MDB1mut, which also bear a HA and Strep tag.

MDB1. $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$ in contrast appears to be able to stabilise to some extent all the target variants. It appears to stabilise a bit less efficiently the $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ mRNA than the $\mathrm{UU}_{2}, \mathrm{CC}_{2}$ and $A A_{2}$. Nonetheless, it appears able to bind the four different targets. Moreover, it does not seem to favour $C_{2}$ compared to ${A A_{2}}$ and $U_{2}$.
$M D B 1 . A A_{2}$ seems to stabilise the $A A_{2} m R N A$, manages to stabilise $C C_{2}$ but barely UU2 and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$.

MDB1. $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ appears not to stabilise the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{AA}_{2}$ transcripts but stabilises the $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ and slightly the $\mathrm{UU}_{2}$ ones.

Altogether this blot (Figure 92) shows that modifying the fifth and sixth residues of the OPR repeats change which target variant is best stabilised, and thus should reflect modifications in the specific recognition of nucleotides by MDB1.

However, there is a caveat. In addition to these two RNA blots we performed three more, with biological replicates Figure 93, and our story becomes considerably more complicated... And our results unreliable for now.

Biological replicates point to difficult and Risky interpretations...
Several descendants of the same crosses display highly different chimeric RNA accumulation. To be able to draw any information from these, we need first to understand the reason for this discrepancy. Is it technical? We had little time to perform the RNA extraction and RNA blots, so mistakes might have occurred. But the problem might be biological: is the protein level the same in all descendants? Did some genetic recombination or unsuspected genetic determinant induce a bias in our process? Unfortunately, I am not able to answer these questions for now.

Some of the crosses appear consistent, MDB1.CC2 has a low affinity for the reporter $m R N A$ in all the $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ descendants. MDB1.AA $A_{2}$ has a low affinity for both the $\mathrm{UU}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ chimeric RNA and slightly more for the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$. MDB1. $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ does not bind at all the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{AA}_{2}$ transcripts, but a bit the $\mathrm{UU}_{2}$ ones. But if we intend to draw real and reliable conclusions on the OPR recognition code it is of the utmost importance to analyse the MDB1mut protein levels. And if the immunoblots revealed incongruence in protein accumulation we will need to amend these analyses.

I hope to succeed in formally validating or infirming the OPR code in the coming months. This study of the OPR code is described in ARTICLE 4, an article in preparation, attached at the end of this manuscript.


Figure 93: Preliminary RNA blots of the MDB1.CC 2 MDB1.AA 2 $_{2}$ and MDB1.GG 2 descendants. Filters were hybridised with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$ labelled $g f p$ and $p s a B$ (loading control) probes. $P$ are the $d B_{M} g f p$ parents, $1 ; 2$ and 3 the descendants of a same cross.

## DISCUSSION

CHIMERIC SYSTEMS AND COMPETITION WITH ATPB MRNA
All chimeric reporter transcripts, either with added Spinach2 aptamers or not, are dramatically less stabilised in presence of the competing atpB mRNA. Could we completely exclude that this is caused by a more active transcription of the atpB mRNA? When present in greater quantities, it would mechanically and passively sequester much of MDB1, leaving very few for the lowly transcribed chimeric transcript.


Figure 94: RNA blot of a chimeric construct bearing the entire atpB 5' UTR, from Yves Choquet. The highest band hybridised with the 5'atpB probe is the endogenous $a t p B$ transcript, the lower one the chimeric one. Lincomycin prevents chloroplast translation.

## IS THE GFP MRNA LESS TRANSCRIBED THAN $A T P B$ MRNA? <br> Looking at another chimeric transcript like $B K R$ (atpB 5'UTR:aadA:rbcL 3'UTR), whose

 transcription is driven by a complete atpB 5'UTR and inserted in a locus upstream of petA, it appears that the endogenous $a t p B$ is not more accumulated than the chimera (Figure 94).In this blot the cells were treated or not with lincomycin before RNA extraction. Lincomycin stops the chloroplast translation. This treatment was needed because the aadA CDS is cleaved in 5' from transcripts when translated and that irrespective of the 5'UTR used. This is possibly caused by a specific endonuclease recognising a sequence in the beginning of aadA CDS, maybe an NCL protein? In any case, in classical RNA blots, the chimeric $a a d A$ constructs are very difficult to observe and lincomycin treatment allows to recover the full length aadA mRNA.

This blot suggests that neither the rbcL 3'UTR, nor an insertion locus different from the endogenous atp $B$ region significantly impact the accumulation and probably the transcription of
the $B K R$ chimera.

Moreover, experiments from nearly 30 years ago (Blowers et al., 1990) revealed that the transcription rate of an atpB 5'UTR:uidA fusion was the same as for the endogenous $\operatorname{atp} B$, and that the promoter fragment retained in our construct should be as efficient as the full-length atpB 5'UTR (Blowers et al., 1990; Klein et al., 1992). Altogether, this suggests that transcription of our $g f p$ chimera and the endogenous atp $B$ are probably similar, and that differences in accumulation of the gfp chimeras are not caused by a transcriptional defect in comparison of $a t p B$.

Alternatively, instead of a modified transcription rate, I suggest that additional specific sequences in the $a t p B$ transcript favour its stabilisation.

A putative secondary structure formed by an interaction between the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ UTR could maybe modify the stability of the transcripts, as the $3^{\prime} r b c L$ seems to hinder the $5^{\prime}$ end maturation of atpB (Chapter I). However, this model (Figure 95) seems unlikely.


Figure 95: A tentative model based on a specific $5^{\prime}{ }_{s h}$ atpB/3'rbcL UTR destabilising interaction, does not seems likely as both atpB and rbcL 3' UTR gfp chimeric transcript are destabilised.

Indeed atpB $3^{\prime}$ UTR by itself is unlikely to stabilise transcripts much better than rbcL 3'UTR, as Spinach2 chimeric transcripts bearing that atpB 3'UTR in place of rbcL 3'UTR are less stabilised, even in a $\triangle a t p B$ context. Moreover, those reporter transcripts did not accumulate significantly more when in competition with the atpB mRNA (Figure 80). Unlike the $B K R$ transcripts, that as we just saw compete well with the endogenous atpB mRNA, both the dB $B_{\text {wT }}$ gfp.Spix3-3'rbcL and dB wTg $^{\prime}$ fp.Spix3-3'atpB transcript accumulated weakly when $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript was present. If the 3 'end was a crucial actor of the stabilisation mechanism, we would have expected the chimeric transcripts bearing the $a t p B 3^{\prime}$ UTR to be as stabilised as the $a t p B$ mRNA. Moreover, if the $3^{\prime}$ UTR played a role in the competition for stabilisation factors, the \{WT::dB $B_{W T} g f p$.Spix $3-$ 3'atpB\} transformants should accumulate less atpB mRNA and more gfp transcript. Surprisingly, we witnessed instead an increased accumulation for both transcripts.

Altogether, I suggest that specific sequences in the 5'UTR part that was deleted in the gfp chimera are important for transcript stabilisation. This stabilisation could be linked to the MDB1-mediated one, as the chimeric BKR transcript, driven by the complete $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR accumulates at about the same level than the endogenous atpB transcript in a competition (Figure 94). This could mean that unknown factor(s) could either recruit MDB1 on atpB transcript or anchor MDB1 by improving its affinity for its target RNA in a ternary complex for instance (Figure 96). This observation is also coherent with the lower resilience of the MDB1/atpB target when the end of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR is absent


Figure 96: A more probable model explaining the different competitiveness of the BKR and $d B_{w T} g f p . S p i x 3-3^{\prime} r b c L$ chimera. The short atpB 5'UTR lacks specific sequences that improve atpB MDB1-mediated stabilisation.

## ATPB 3'UTR MIGHT MEDIATES A DIMINUTION OF TRANSCRIPT ACCUMULATION

The surprising negative effect of $a t p B$ $3^{\prime}$ UTR on the levels of $d B_{\text {wT }}$ gfp.Spix 3 $3^{\prime}$ atp $B$ chimeric transcripts, suggests either that the rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR stabilises better the $d B_{\text {wT }}$ gfp.Spix3-3'rbcL chimera or that a specific endonuclease might target the $3^{\prime}$ UTR of $\operatorname{atpB}$, and that its presence in the chimera exposes it more to degradation than rbcL 3'UTR.

A look at the accumulation of chimeric transcripts bearing complete atpB $5^{\prime}$ UTR with either the atpB, petA or rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR (Figure 97), reveals that, in absence of translation, the $\operatorname{atp} B 3^{\prime}$ UTR chimera is more accumulated that the others. This would suggest that rbcL 3'UTR might not really stabilise more efficiently our chimera. In addition, replacing atpB 3'UTR by petA or rbcL 3'UTR in another study (Rott et al., 1998b) did not recover as much atpB transcript than in the WT.


Figure 97: RNA blot of a chimeric constructs bearing the entire atpB 5' UTR, from Yves Choquet. The highest band hybridised with the 5'atpB probe is the endogenous atpB transcript, the lower one the chimeric one. Lincomycin prevents chloroplast translation.

Moreover, atpB half-life increases when translation is interrupted (Kato et al., 2006). This effect does not transpire in Figure 94, where we look at the accumulation of the atpB mRNA. But this RNA accumulation reflects a combination of the transcription and decay rate of the transcript. Similarly, the authors had observed a stable level of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript when translation was stopped, but an increased level in a pulse-chase experiment. This suggests that atpB transcription rate might adjust when a certain stock of mRNA is present.

I propose that a low abundance or low activity specific endonuclease might cleave open atpB $3^{\prime}$ UTR and allow the degradation of atpB mRNA from its $3^{\prime}$ end (Figure 98). The putative degradative $3^{\prime} \rightarrow 5^{\prime}$ process occurring in mature atpB mRNA $3^{\prime}$ end described in Chapter I might be linked to this one. A family of putative specific endonucleases factors known in C. reinhardtii is the NCL (NCC-like), with 38 proteins. One of them might be responsible for the $a t p B 3^{\prime} U T R$-mediated destabilisation.


Figure 98: Putative model explaining the variation in accumulation of atpB mRNA in presence of the $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix3-3'atpB or $d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix3-3'rbcL transcripts. A specific endonuclease of $\operatorname{atp} B 3^{\prime}$ UTR would be distributed between the endogenous $3^{\prime} a t p B$ and the chimeric one.

CHIMERIC REPORTER CONSTRUCTS MIMIC AN "IN VITRO" SYSTEM
We confirmed that the use of a reporter chimeric transcript, with only a short part of $\operatorname{atpB} 5$ 'UTR allowed us to study the interaction of MDB1 with its target sequence. The differences, compared to a control construct, in transcripts stabilisation of the variant versions between the $d B$ and $d B g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ series was striking. By putting mutated target sequences in the chimeric reporter, we could confirm that the $3^{\prime}$ half of the sequence was more critical for MDB1 binding. Moreover, we saw that the draft OPR code was coherent with the repeats studied so far: OPR repeats 11 and 12 of MDB1, with notably a glutamate in position six, recognise preferentially: $U U \gg A A>C C \geq G G$. From this it also emerges that the steric clash effect of purine versus pyrimidine might not be that crucial to the molecular recognition mechanism.


Figure 99: Comparison between some of our initial mutants (Chapter III) versus our mutated chimeric transcripts. The cartoon on top depicts a putative model of MDB1 interaction with the studied transcripts. Below are the relative accumulation levels of $a t p B$ MDB1 target variants compared to a control target.

## VALIDATION OF THE OPR RECOGNITION CODE REMAINS ELUSIVE

Finally, we successfully established a strategy to test the molecular properties of the OPR code. Based on crosses, it should allow us to compare the accumulation of chimeric reporter genes in strain expressing a modified MDB1 at the same rate. After nuclear transformation by electroporation, our screens based first on the associated paromomycin resistance, then on the rescue of photosynthesis, let us select candidates transformants expressing sizeable level of MDB1mut. The expression of the HA-tagged MDB1 mutants was then directly checked by immunoblots. One strain expressing the highest amount of MDB1mut for each variant was selected for the subsequent crosses.

The chimeric gfp reporter, being linked to spectinomycin resistance, and MDB1mut, being linked to paromomycin resistance, allowed us to directly select the progeny on double selective media. Lastly, I was able to pick up those descendants expressing no endogenous MDB1 in addition to the mutated MDB1.

Unfortunately, time constraints prevent me to formally finish the validation of the OPR code for now. We performed RNA blots but many combinations remain unclear. I hope to be able to verify some of our observations on some combinations of the code by assessing the MDB1mut protein levels in the next months.

If the protein accumulation proves to be consistent, RNA blots should show the differences in nucleotide recognition induced by changes in the fifth and sixth residues of the $11^{\text {th }}$ and $12^{\text {th }}$ OPR repeats... Unless some unpredictable genetic effect complicates our observations, for instance: double insertions of the MDB1mut segregating independently in the descendants, or silencing of MDB1mut by epigenetic marks...

We need first to ascertain that no technical problems occurred in our RNA analysis. RNA blots must be remade; some RNA should maybe also be extracted again in case they were confusions in handling the many strains at once.

| Position | Residue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | x | $x$ | x | x | R, K | x | $x$ | x | x | x | x |
| 4 | x | P | $x$ | $x$ | x-P | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | x | $x$ | x |
| 5 | x | Q | $\underset{-R, K}{x}$ | R, K | x | R | x- | R, Q | x | R | R |
| 6 | E | G | D | D | D | Q | Q | A | H | S | N |
| Recognised | U | A | G | U | U | U | N | A | ? | A | ? |

$\square$
$\square$
$\square$Not tested yet $\square$ Still unclear Coherent $\quad \square$ Novel observation

Table 7: The OPR code: where we stand.

Nonetheless if I were to discuss the more coherent apparent nucleotide specificities of the OPR repeat combinations we observed so far in RNA blots I would say: that $U$ are recognised to some degree by the four MDB1mut. This is not too surprising considering that the MDB1mut transformants were selected on phototrophy recovery. Accordingly, they should be able to stabilise at least partially the endogenous atpB with the wild type MDB1 binding sequence, which contains UU. As was suggested by our previous experiments with the endogenous MDB1, an E in sixth position does appear to create a stronger affinity for $U$ then $A$ and barely any for $C$ and $G$, more biological replicates must be tested to ascertain this claim.

The consistent biological replicates in our new blots suggests that having a $D$ in the sixth position of the repeat prevents interaction with C or A . But the affinity of this motif for $G$ remains unclear.

The use of TQ in the fifth and sixth positions of the repeats was a bit of a gamble as no clear correlation could be observed in known OPR/RNA example. And our results are similarly not clear cut; this TQ combination seems to bind any nucleotide, but to prefer $U$ and $A$, rather than $C$ and has less affinity for $G$. Obviously all those results need to be reproduced to draw solid conclusions.

It is very frustrating that some of our most anticipated combinations; MDB1.AA2 with dBAA2gfp, and MDB1.GG2 with dBGG2gfp are inconclusive. We cannot reject the predictions of the draft "OPR code" neither validate them for the time being.

From the experiments done so far, I would say that we did not find an OPR motif displaying a preference for C . It remains to be seen if a H or N in the sixth position induce a strong affinity for C. Otherwise, OPR proteins might bind only loosely on cytosines. Moreover, while U was tolerated by the motif with a D in sixth position (with no R or K in vicinity) C was not tolerated at all. And here, more than a question of size of the nucleotide (puric versus pyrimidic), the main determinant for the molecular interaction of this OPR motif might instead be the position of acceptor or donor atoms to form hydrogen bonds.

Another sticking point is that apparently the TQ residues combination does not show any clear preferences for certain nucleotides and appears to tolerate any of them to a large extent. This combination is found mainly in T factors. From this, I suggest that this kind of "looser" OPR motif in T factor OPR tracks might lower the binding specificity of the protein and induce the transient or light interaction of the $T$ factor with its target mRNA.

## Discussion and Conclusion

MDB1 is critical for atpB expression. It is a bona fide M factor of $a t p B$; it does not only stabilise it but is also necessary for its 5 ' end maturation. This maturation appears to be accessory for chimeric transcripts translation. In plants $a t p B$ and $a t p E$ are expressed in the same polycistronic transcript, but in Chlamydomonas, it appears that both are expressed independently. No factor in common necessary for their expression has been found so far.

MTHI1, as a common essential factor controlling both atpl and atpH, ties their expression together, in the absence of a regulatory CES mechanism between those two critical subunits of the ATP synthase. The question of how the right stoichiometry of AtpH:Atpl is achieved has still not been elucidated yet. It likely does not derive directly from MTHI1 differential affinity for atpH and atpl transcripts but rather from other specific interacting factors.


Figure 100 MDB1 and MTHI1 are part of the cross-talks between the chloroplast and the nucleus.

When the electron transport chain works at a high pace, an excessive proton concentration start building up inside the lumen. This excessive gradient needs to be dissipated by the ATP synthase.

Both factors are more expressed when the cells are exposed to light, this activation seems to rely on the bilin retrograde pathway. Following the circadian cycle, MDB1 and MTHI1 are expressed at night. Their transcript levels attain a pic just at light onset, then their expressions diminish until the next night. This expression pattern is similar to that of the nucleus-encoded ATP synthase subunits, to allow the harmonious assembly of all of ATP synthase subunits (Zones et al., 2015).

## THE "OPR CODE" AND IN VIVO REVELATIONS:

By designing a reporter construct, based on an exogenous sequence, driven by only a short part of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR, we could look more closely at the specificity of MDB1 for its target sequence. An observation that we made is that the $5^{\prime}$ half of MDB1 target sequence on $\operatorname{atp} B$ appears less crucial for the binding of the M factor. This difference could stem from:

- Lower affinity of MDB1 for this part of the sequence, rendering MDB1 less sensitive to mutations in this area. As the chloroplast genome is very AT rich, the presence of A stretches, like in this part of the target sequence, is quite common. If MDB1 had a strong affinity for such sequences this might cause it to stall on other mRNA. As no other footprints of MDB1 could be observed so far (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017), a lower affinity for the first part of the sequence is probable and could prevent such sterile interactions.
- Structural and functional properties of MDB1. The first OPR track of MDB1 could for instance be involved in "scanning" the mRNA, and the second track would lock on the specific sequence in the $3^{\prime}$ part of the target. Interestingly, the part of the target recognised by the OPR motifs adjacent to the "hinge" seems quite important for the physical interaction.
- Some influences from the very upstream part of atpB $5^{\prime}$ UTR. Could yet another factor modulates the binding of the first OPR track of MDB1?


Figure 101: Observations of the importance of parts of atpB target sequence for MDB1 binding.

To rule out the influence of yet other unpredictable in vivo factors in the MDB1/atpB interaction, it would be illuminating to perform in vitro experiments, with purified MDB1 and the mutated atpB variants. Those results would be great to contrast with the in vivo results.

Similar experiments with MTHI1 and atpH target variants would also help pinpointing the specificity of OPR M factors and mRNAs interactions.

Unfortunately, I could not yet gather the final data to assess whether the "OPR code" is consistent with in vivo molecular interactions. While the fifth and sixth residues of the OPR repeat appear implicated in the specificity of interaction, no conclusive observations on the OPR recognition code could be made so far. Unexpected variations in biological replicates considerably complicate our analyses.

But, had we not looked at the OPR protein/RNA interaction in vivo, but directly in vitro, we probably would not have discovered the truly resilient nature of those interactions. Those observations, that first baffled us, widened our understanding of OTAFs in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. While organellar gene expression depends on crucial factors, those do not work alone and the expression of organellar mRNAs probably relies on a suite of factors, influencing each other, the M factors being the corner stones of these resilient expression edifices. Considering the growing number of M and T factors co-stabilising mRNAs in $C$. reinhardtii, those tripartite or higher order
complexes might be widespread in the chloroplast. One advantage of such a system would be to compensate moderate mutations in one of the target sequences, the other factor with its own recognised sequence would help to anchor its partner on the transcript.

This resilient nature of OPR M factors/RNA interaction in vivo might not be a lone case. Indeed, large scale in vivo studies of previously characterised PPR proteins of maize revealed unsuspected binding sites, which cannot be simply explained by the code established in vitro and in silico. This illustrates that PPR/mRNA recognition mechanisms can be more complicated than expected and that PPR interaction with mRNA are quite flexible (Rojas et al., 2018). Considering that those characterised PPR have many PPR repeats (19 PPR motifs for PPR10 and 28 PPR motifs for PGR3) the fact that they do not show a stronger affinity might appear counter intuitive. But their recognition of several divergent targets might be caused by a higher tolerance for mismatches, as was observed for long designer PPR (Miranda et al., 2018). Interestingly, in this study the authors observed a seemingly lower affinity of the PPR motifs at the $3^{\prime}$ end that those at the $5^{\prime}$ end, in contrary to our observations with MDB1. Perhaps the structure of MDB1, with its peculiar "hinge" allows its two OPR tracks to act as two short and semi-independent RNA binding units that do not display this weaker affinity in $3^{\prime}$, quite the contrary. Moreover, both PPR10 and PGR3 collaborate with another factor, ATP4, to stabilise the $3^{\prime}$ end of psaJ and of rpl14. It might turn out that to some extent, PPR proteins also interact with secondary factors, which would either enhance their action or tether them to transcripts that have less optimal binding sequences. This ATP4 PPR factor is implicated in various expression mechanisms (translation initiation or stabilisation) of various chloroplast mRNA: atpA, atpB, atpE, atpF, psaJ and rpl14 (Zoschke et al., 2012; Rojas et al., 2018) but at various degrees: for example: its absence only reduces the accumulation of $a t p F, r p l 14$ or $p s a J$, diminishes $a t p A$ translation, but is dramatic for the translation of $a t p B$. Those striking multiple functions illustrate how ATP4 probably interacts with several other OTAF, like PPR10 and PGR3, and explain the observed functional redundancy of some processes. This suggests that in some cases, when a protein is absent, another one can rescue part of the function.

However, a directly redundant system is unlikely to exist in both of our OPR cases, as deletion of MTHI1 or MDB1 yield a total loss of atpH and atpB transcripts. Furthermore, extended mutation of the biding sites of those two M factor does prevent mRNA stabilisation. If the other factors were truly redundant, they would either bind on the same target, which is impossible considering that in absence of MDB1 or MTHI1 they do not, or bind on another target sequence and singlehandedly sustain some transcript accumulation, which does not seem to occur here. So, our putative secondary factors would need the M factor to exert their influence on the mRNA.

Even in vitro, the well-studied PPR10 was shown to perform non canonical interactions, impossible to predict following the current PPR code, with one of its target sequence, on atpH mRNA (Miranda, 2017). This complicates the prediction of target sequences in vivo. Moreover, PPR10 was found to be incapable of opening even weak secondary structures in its atpH target in vitro (McDermott et al., 2018). This
could imply that other factors, such as RNA chaperones or helicases could open the secondary structure of $a t p H$ sequestrating the PPR10 target sequence.

## OPR PROTEINS, ADVOCATES OF TEAMWORK?

The emerging picture of OPR action in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii is a network of actors cooperating for the expression of their chloroplastic target. For atpH expression, we found a secondary factor MTH2. This protein does not seem to have any discernible known domains and it is for now impossible to say whether it interacts directly with atpH mRNA or MTHI1. The probable implication of such a pioneer protein opens the door to unsuspected interactants implicated in chloroplast gene expression.

The search for the partners bound to MTHI1 would surely help to untangle those interactive $a t p H$ and atpl expression systems.

With our strep tagged MDB1 it would also be informative to immunoprecipitate it to pull down and characterise its putative partners. And to do that, either in the presence of the endogenous $a t p B$ or of our $g f p$ chimeric construct, to assess whether the difference in resilience of MDB1 does stem from secondary factors or not. If so, I expect we would recover partners factors with the endogenous atpB mRNA. And in contrast, I assume we would not to find them with the chimeric transcript.


Figure 102: What we might find by immunoprecipitation of our tagged MDB1 and MTHI1.

Many of the OPR proteins of $C$. reinhardtii have not been characterised so far. Much mystery still surrounds them. In addition to their RNA binding activity they might also bear domains to interact with other proteins, other OTAFs to modulate their functions or perhaps to recruit ribosomes.

MTHI1 C terminal domain appears non-essential for its functions in vivo, both for atpl and atpH expression. mthi1-1 deficient cells can be complemented with truncated MTHI1 (see ARTICLE 3). This seems logical for the stabilisation function, as it is carried out by the OPR track. However, the association of MTHI1 with polysomes, and its implication in atpl translation even if does not bind stably on it, suggest that it might interact directly or indirectly with ribosomes. Maybe the OPR track bears by itself the ability to interact with ribosomes or other secondary factors, such as MTH2.

As the TPR proteins are $\alpha$-solenoid proteins that are mostly implicated in protein/protein interactions, we could imagine that the OPR domains could interact with proteins. Therefore, OPR proteins might be implicated in unsuspected mechanisms.

## OPR: AN OPPORTUNITY FOR EVOLUTIONARY PROTOTYPES

The resilience of chloroplast expression networks could allow a drift in OPR sequences. Acting as a "safety net", it would foster the emergence of new functions by ensuring that the chloroplast genes keep being expressed sufficiently. Auxiliary factors could then shift their activity.

ASA2, an OPR protein implicated in the mitochondrial ATP synthase complex of Chlorophyceae (Vazquez-Acevedo et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 2019) is an example of a "strange" function. Interestingly, a PPR protein (p18) is also associated with the mitochondrial ATP synthase of Trypanosoma brucei (Montgomery et al., 2018). Is this a simple coincidence that reflects the random recruitment of those abundant proteins in the organelles to perform other functions? Or is it a true evolutionary convergence? It is conceivable that the $\alpha$-solenoid structure of these proteins families, with its flexible properties could have a structural advantage in the function of the motile ATP synthase.

Finally, the NCL family (Drapier, 2002; Boulouis et al., 2015) is the epitome of the dynamic evolutionary trajectory of OPR proteins. While their functions remain nebulous, their potential as rapidly evolving endonucleases could play a part in cell immunity for instance, by cleaving intruding viral RNA. Alternatively, they could have an impact in the speciation of chlamydomonales by acting as a barrier to sexual reproduction, by destroying the mRNAs of organelles genes with different alleles, leading to unviable descendants.

Considering that similar proteins, the HPR (Hillebrand et al., 2018) and FASTK (Boehm et al., 2017) exist in distantly related eukaryotes, like metazoans, this extended family of proteins with a RAP domain might have ancient origins.

OPR proteins have not been found so far in archaea or bacteria, except in pathogen bacteria like the intracellular Coxiella burnetii, Parachlamydia acanthamoebae or Orientia tsutsugamushi, which possibly acquired them from their host. The OPR family might take root in early eukaryotes before the divergence in bikonts and unikonts. This ancient family could have expended so much in green algae to ensure the expression of the chloroplast genome. In streptophytes the PPR proteins instead would have prospered.

It is intriguing to see so many parallels between those two protein families that appear unrelated. They seem to have emerged from convergent evolution. As the knowledge of PPR and OPR protein continues to expend, we might be able to compare them more closely and try to determine whether their different destinies in photosynthetic lineages reflects some of their differing specificities and properties or whether they expended by chance.

## Materials and Methods

## Materials

Strains

| Strain | Mating type | Genotype |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WT.T222 | + | Wild type |
| WT.S24 | - | Wild type |
| $\Delta a t p B$ | + | Deletion of $a t p B$ and its 5'UTR |
| $\Delta a t p H$ | + | Deletion of $a t p H$ and its 5'UTR |
| $\Delta a t p I$ | + | Deletion of atpl and its 5'UTR |
| $\Delta p e t A$ | + | Deletion of petA and its 5'UTR |
| mthi1-1 (ac46) |  | MTHI1 mutant |
| mthi1-2 (II 174) | + | MTHI1 mutant |
| mth2-1 (L63a) | + | Insertion in MTH2 (Houille-Vernes et al., 2011) |
| mth2-2 | + | MTH2 insertional mutant from Clip library (Li et al., 2019) |
| mdb1-1 (thm24.2) | - | Deletion of one A in MDB1 causing a frameshift |
| mdb1-2 (L35a) | + | Deletion of MDB1 and 6 other genes(Houille-Vernes et al., 2011) |
| mdb1-3 (K4.20) | + | TOC1 into MDB1 first intron |

Plasmids
Some of the plasmids used in this work are listed in AnNex 1.

PCR PRIMERS
The PCR primers used in this work are listed in AnNex 2.

## Methods

## CULTURE CONDITIONS

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii cells were grown in Tris-acetate-phosphate medium (TAP), pH 7.2 at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, under constant illumination at 5 to $10 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$.

## Crosses

Crosses were performed according to (Harris, 1989). Strains were plated on N10 media to induce gametogenesis by nitrogen starvation. After 5 days, the cells were suspended in sterile water and the parental strains were mixed together. The cells were left to mate under high light. After 1 hour, 3 hours and 20 hours, aliquots of the crosses were deposited on TAP30 plates, then kept in the dark around 10 days for zygote development. Then, the zygotes were recovered after elimination of the vegetative cells with chloroform vapours and inoculated in TAP medium for two days under moderate light, to induce germination. Finally, those cultures were plated either on double selective media (spectinomycin and paromomycin) for the MDB1mut crosses, to kill any surviving vegetative cell, or on permissive media for the $K 4.20$ cross. Descendant colonies started emerging after about 10 days.

K4.20 progeny was selected on ATP synthase deficiency, then the presence of TOC1 and the mt were assessed by PCR. The presence of the mdb1-1 allele was assessed by PCR amplification of the MDB1 locus with MDB1 bFW and MDB1 aRV and subsequent digestion by Bsrl.

## Рнотоtrophy test

Droplets of liquid culture at about $1 * 10^{6}$ cells $/ \mathrm{mL}$ are put on TAP and minimum media and grown for at least 7 days under $55 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ illumination. Growth phenotypes are then compared between the two media.

## FLUORESCENCE LIVE-IMAGING

Fluorescence of live cells on plates was measured with a SpeedZen camera (Beambio). PSII maximal yield (Fv/Fm) is calculated from variable fluorescence ( $\mathrm{Fv}=\mathrm{Fm}$ $F_{0}$ ) in dark-adapted cells using weak excitation pulses before ( $F_{0}$ ) and after ( Fm ) a saturating flash

## CLONING

## TARGET MUTAGENESIS

Mutated atp $B$ target fragments were generated first by PCR mutagenesis amplification of two mutated fragments with the primers listed in ANNEX2, then assembly and amplification of the two fragments together with dBExt_RV and atpB5'FWx. The purified fragments were then digested with Xhol and BseRI and inserted in the $p^{\mathrm{Kr}}$ atpB plasmid at the same sites.

Mutated atpH target fragments were similarly produced with cemAFW and Mut-atpH-xRV, atpHext-RV and Mut-atpH-xFW. Assembled and amplified with cemAFW and atpHext_RV. The resulting fragments were digested with EcoRV and $E c o R I$ and integrated in the $p^{\mathrm{Kr}}$ atpH plasmid at the same sites.

## GFP CHIMERIC CONSTRUCTS

The paAKX plasmid (Wostrikoff et al, 2004) was digested by Apal and Alel to retrieve a 2509 bp fragment containing a spectinomycin resistance cassette (the aminoglyside $3^{\prime}$ adenyl transferase coding sequence: aadA (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991) driven by the psaA 5'UTR and followed by rbcL $3^{\prime}$ UTR. This cassette is also flanked by two direct repeats (a fragment of the tet gene conferring resistence to tetracycline (Fischer et al., 1996)) of 485 bp, to create a recycling aadA cassette selfexcising by spontaneous homologous recombination as described in (Fischer et al., 1996). After a Klenow treatment, this fragment was inserted into the pWF plasmid (which contains chloroplastic sequences targeting the insertion in a neutral locus, next to petA) at the Hincll site, giving the pWFaAKX plasmid.

A 756 bp Azotobacter vinelandii green fluorescence protein sequence was amplified by PCR from pGFP with the GFP-CDS_FW and GFP_CDS_RV2 primers (see primers table in AnNex2). This DNA fragment was digested by Pstl and EcoRI and integrated into the corresponding sites in the paAKRaA plasmid (Fu et al., 2017) to place the $g f p$ sequence in front of the rbcL 3'UTR, giving the pgfpRaA plasmid.
pgfpRaA was then digested by BamHI and Xhol , the 946 bp fragment was inserted into pWFaAKX at the Xhol and Bg/ll sites, this yielded the pWFaAKXgfpR plasmid.

Fragments of atpB 5'UTR with the mutated target were obtained either: by PCR amplification of previously used plasmids $p^{k r}$ atpB, patpB ${ }_{c c}, \operatorname{patpB}_{T T}$, patpB ${ }_{G G}$ with the atpB-Anton_FW and atpB_Anton_WT_RV primers, or by PCR mutagenesis with primers atpB-Anton_FW and atpB-Anton-M1_RV, atpB-Anton-M2_RV, atpB-Anton-M3_RV using p147 as template. All those 144bp amplifications products were then digested by Xmal and Xhol and inserted at the corresponding sites in pWFaAKXgfpR. The final pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfpR, pWFaAKX-dB(CC ${ }_{1}$ )gfpR, pWFaAKX-dB(TT $\left.{ }_{1}\right) g f p R, \quad p W F a A K X-$ $\mathrm{dB}\left(\mathrm{GG}_{1}\right) g f p R, p W F a A K X-\mathrm{dB}\left(\mathrm{CC}_{2}\right) \operatorname{gfpR}, \mathrm{pWFaAKX}-\mathrm{dB}\left(\mathrm{AA}_{2}\right) g f p R$, $\mathrm{pWFaAKX}-\mathrm{dB}\left(\mathrm{GG}_{2}\right) g f p R$ were thus obtained.

## Spinach 2 constructs

A triplet of consecutive Spinach2 aptamers (Strack et al., 2013) sequences, separated by restriction sites, was ordered from GenScript and cut with Mfel and Pstl and inserted in pgfpRaA to give pgfp-Spinach2x3-RaA. This plasmid was subjected to the same cloning procedure as previously described for pgfpRaA to obtain pWFaAKX$\mathrm{dB}(\mathrm{WT}) \mathrm{gfp}$-Spinach2x3-R. To obtain the construct with 2 spinach2, pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-R was digested with EcoRl and Hpal, and after a Klenow treatment to fill in the overhangs, was ligated. This yielded the plasmid pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x2-R.

To design the chimeric construct with atpB 3'UTR instead of rbcL 3'UTR, a synthetic sequence was ordered and introduced into the pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-R giving the $\mathrm{pWFaAKX}-\mathrm{dB}(\mathrm{WT}) \mathrm{gfp}$-Spinach2x3-B (GenScript).

## MDB1 variants

Synthetic DNA sequences were ordered from GenScript and inserted either in the vector MDB1-HA-pJFL between the Xhol and $\mathrm{Bg} / \mathrm{Il}$ sites for MDB1-CC ${ }_{1}$-HA, MDB1-GG ${ }_{1-}$ HA , and MDB1-UU ${ }_{1}-\mathrm{HA}$ or in the vector pMDB1 -HA-Strep-JHL between the Nsil and SnaBI sites for MDB1-CC2-HA-Strep, MDB1-GG ${ }_{2}$-HA-Strep and MDB1-AA ${ }_{2}$-HA-Strep (GenScript) (see AnNex 5).

## CHLOROPLAST TRANSFORMATION

Chloroplast transformation by tungsten microbeads bombardment (Boynton et al., 1988) was conducted essentially as described (Kuras and Wollman, 1994) except that the cells were directly transformed on TAP-spectinomycin ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) plates. Resulting transformants were sub-cloned on TAP-spec $(500 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL})$ for several generations. Homoplasmy was assessed by PCR amplification of the construct sequence and disruption of the recipient loci.

RNA ExTRACTION and RNA-BLot
RNA extraction and RNA blots were performed as in (Drapier and Wollman, 1998), some with radioactive labelled probes as described. The others were performed with digoxigenin (DIG) labelled DNA probes generated by PCR (Roche) and hybridised on the nylon filter bound RNA. The probes were then bound by anti-DIG antibodies and incubated with CDP-Star (Roche), chemiluminescence was then detected with a Chemidoc. Transcript quantification was done using the image lab software.

## Protein extraction and Immuno-blot

Immunoblots were performed on exponentially growing cells ( $2 \times 10^{6}$ cells $/ \mathrm{mL}$ ) according to (Kuras and Wollman, 1994). Cell extracts were loaded in 8-16\% acrylamide gels (Biorad) or in constant $18 \%$ acrylamide 8 M urea gels, on an equal chlorophyll basis. Anti-tubulin, anti-cytochrome $f$, anti- $\beta$-CF1, anti AtpH, anti-PsaD, anti-OEE2, anti-HA antibodies were used, and detected either by anti-mouse IgG or anti-rabbit $\lg G$ antibodies.

## GENOMIC ANALYSIS

For each strain, we ordered a Illumina sequencing technology based NGSelect DNA data package from Eurofins, comprising the generation of a standard genomic library (DNA fragmentation, adapter ligation, size selection and amplification) and a data package of $>5$ million pair reads ( $2 x 150 b p$ ). From this raw data, we generated genomic sequences using open-source platform Galaxy (usegalaxy.org) as follows. Paired end reads raw data was converted to appropriate fastq format using FASTQ groomer and their quality was confirmed using FASTQC (maximum quality scores were well maintained all over the 150bp, not shown). The genome sequences were reconstructed using the published workflow "SNP calling on paired end data" for the mapping of the paired reads against a reference $C$. reinhardtii genome sequence (our WT strain T222+ genome was generated by Olivier Vallon). We visualized the genomes using IGV (software.broadinstitute.org).

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## Annexes

1) PlaSmids
2) Primers
3) Alignment of MTH2
4) Overlapping HPR and OPR proteins in C. reinhardtil
5) Synthetic MDB1 Fragments

Article 1: preliminary draft
Article 2: preliminary draft
Article 3: SUBMITTED
Article 4: preliminary draft

## 1) Plasmids





2) Primers

| Application | Name | Sequence (5'->3') |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| atpH MTHI1 <br> target mutagenesis | cemAFW | GCGAATTCCGGAAAGTCAAACAGGTATTTTCTT |
|  | atpHext-RV | GCGTTAGCCAATACCAAACAGC |
|  | Mut-atpH-1FW | ATTCTTTGGAAGTTATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-1RV | TCGATAACTTCCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
|  | Mut-atpH-2FW | CTTTGGTTGAAATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-2RV | AAAATCGATTTCAACCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
|  | Mut-atpH-3FW | ATTCTTTGGAACAAATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-3RV | AAAATCGATTTGTTCCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
| atpB MDB1 target mutagenesis | atpB5'FW1 | GCGCTCGAGCTTAAGTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW2 | GCGCTCGAGGCTAGCTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW3 | GCGCTCGAGAGATCTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW4 | GCGCTCGAGAGGCCTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW5 | GCGCTCGAGGGGCCCTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW6 | GCGCTCGAGCCTAGGTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW7 | GCGCTCGAGACGCGTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | dB1FW | ACTAAAAAAGGGGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB1RV | TCACTAACGCCCCTTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB2FW | ACTAAAAAGCGGGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB2RV | TCACTAACGCCCGCTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTAT |
|  | dB3FW | ACTAAGGGGTAAGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB3RV | TCACTAACGCTTACCCCTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTATAT |
|  | dB4FW | ACTAAAGGATAAGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB4RV | TCACTAACGCTTATCCTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTATA |
|  | dB5FW | ACTAAAAAATACTAGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB5RV | TCACTAACTAGTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB6FW | ACTAAAAAATACTTGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB6RV | TCACTAACAAGTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB7FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGAATTAGTGAATAATACTTTTTata |
|  | dB7RV | TCACTAATTCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB8FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCAATAGTGAATAATACTTTTTata |
|  | dB8RV | TCACTATTGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB10FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGAAAAAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB10RV | TCACTTTTTCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB11FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCGGGAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB11RV | TCACTCCCGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB12FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCGAAAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB12RV | TCACTTTCGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dBExt_RV | TTTGAAATAAGAACCTCCTCCTTCC |
|  | atpB_Anton_FW | cgcCTCGAGAAGATGCTTTGCATCTCTAA |
|  | atpB_Anton_WT_RV | gcgCCCGGGCCCATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTAAC |
|  | atpB_Anton_M1_RV | gcgCCCGGGAATTCAATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTGGCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |
|  | atpB_Anton_M2_RV | gcgCCCGGGATCCATATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTCCCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |
|  | atpB_Anton_M3_RV | gcgCCCGGGAGATCTATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTTTCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |


| MDB1 target verification | atpB_TT_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCAA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | atpB_GG_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCCC |
|  | atpB_CC_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCGG |
|  | atpB_CT_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGAG |
|  | atpB_FW | ACCTCGAGTTCAAAATTCTC |
|  | atpB_WT_FW | AGTTAAATGAAAAAACTAAAAAATAA |
|  | atpB_RV | ATTCTTACGTATAAACCCCG |
|  | atpBCDS_RV | TGCTGAGTTTTTAGCACGAATA |
|  | atpBSeqRV | AAATCCACCGTTTTGTGGAA |
|  | atpBSeqFW | GGAGACCTTCAAGCCGTACA |
| gfp chimeric construct | GFP-CDS-FW | CGCGAATTCGCGCTCGAGGCGCCCCGGGCCATGGGTAAAGG AGAAGAACTTTTCACTGG |
|  | GFP-CDS-RV2 | GCGCTGCAGTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGCCATGTG |
| thm24.2 phenotyping | MDB1 bFW | CTGCACTCAGGTCTTAGTCTGGC |
|  | MDB1 aRV | CGCATCTCTTCTTTCCACGACTC |
| $K 4.20$ <br> phenotyping | TOC1 FW | CGCTACACGGCAGTAAGGAG |
|  | MDB1 ex3 RV | GCGCCGTTTGAGCTATTTGA |
| atpl Stop mutagenesis | atpl Stop FW | AGAATTTTATTACATTTTTTTAGATCTCTTTATTAGAAATTGCTG AAGTATCTGTA |
|  | atpl Stop RV | TCAGCAATTTCTAATAAAGAGATCTAAAAAATGTAATAAAATT CTTACCA |
|  | atpl 5' FW | ACTGGTCATTATTTATAGTGGT |
|  | atpl ext RV | GCCCTTATCAAGCTTCCACATAGCGT |
| atpH pG homoplamy verification | atpH pG FW | CGTTCATCGCCAGCTACAGTTGC |
|  | atpH ext RV | GCGTTAGCCAATACCAAACAGC |
|  | cemA FW | GCGAATTCCGGAAAGTCAAACAGGTATTTTCTT |
| aAdl verification | aAdl test FW | GTGAAGTTTGGAAAGAAATT |
|  | aAdl test RV | TTTGTGTTTTTGCTAAATCA |
| Labelling of digoxigenin PCR probes | atpH-dig-FW | AACCCTATCGTAGCTGCTGC |
|  | atpH-dig-RV | ACTAGACCGTAAATTGTTAA |
|  | atpB-dig-FW | CACGGTGGTGTTTCTGTATT |
|  | atpB-dig-RV | TTACGCTTTGTGCAGAATCA |
|  | gfp-dig-FW | TTGAATTAGATGGTGATGTT |
|  | gfp-dig-RV | CAATTGGAGTATTTTGTTGA |
|  | petB-dig-FW | GCTGTTATTTTAGGTATGGC |
|  | petB-dig-RV | GATGCGTTGTAAATAGTGTT |
|  | psbD FW | GAGCTAAACCTACAACACCA |
|  | psbD RV | CAGTATGGCTCACTCTCTTC |
|  | atpE-dig FW | TTTCTATTTTAACACCAGAG |
|  | atpE-dig RV | AAGTACTTTTACAACTTGGT |
| atpB CRT-PCR characterisati on | B_RT | ACATTGTGGCTTTACTTTCA |
|  | B_FW | GGGAAGGAGGAGGTTCTTAT |
|  | B_RV | CACCTTTAACTGAGAGTGTAAC |
|  | cRT_atpB_FW0 | GTAAAGCTGCTTCATTAAAA |
|  | cRT_atpB_FW1 | GTTTCTTATCACAACCATTC |
|  | cRT_atpB_FW2 | TAGCTGCTAAAGGTATTTAC |
|  | cRT_atpB_FW3 | CATTGATAACATTTTCCGTT |
|  | atpB_dig FW | CACGGTGGTGTTTCTGTATT |

3) Alignment of MTH2




| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | SGRAVSTGYLTPELLLLPPDQLEERLTQLWMDTGSVQKINSHSNHACDRLEMLADAGWLGPPAVAAAAPRGRGDNRAGLAA----AEAAVRAAQ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | -------- ${ }^{\text {MMDESLLLLPVEQMQAVLADKWANLGDKLKASTEAREANRRLLELSQAAL---------IPG--GPKSLELAARLKAVEAARAAAHAAIKGE }}$ |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | ALDTKARVPSRDQLLGLPPDAMQPELAREFRAHCST------VGNLRARFDRAVAAL-REL----AQQE--GLPEVELQQRLETLESARREVQ- |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% |  |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% |  |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | TLPAVEAASDSEEEADAEPASDAVDAASLE---PAKAGP |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% |  |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | AAPQF---------LQPPQDAPGLASSPPPPPLPAAPQHSRLAQDAASAAASLPLPAARTLVTLRQGMPHSRGGAAVARAVAPVLTMESSVTAAAICA |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | AAGGGY-------ALPVPEVELSKRLYKINYMTLELLMGP-----------------------VAELEAKMVEWWSGLETPLKLMRHKAE- |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | -ARRHRRAPPSTLSYLTNDLLLLNATELKASVQSAKGAICIAVASWERALWARAAALLEEWCALPSERH- |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | -QLELLPVLTRRE-LLEGPP----------------------AELQALCEEHMRGRLIPVRELAAAAERELQGLI |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% |  |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | ---ADNRLRALEAAGWFSASAGGSSGSRRGIGSRGIRSTIQSAGGSGAAGQAQLGQLTPADLEERLNVLHRVCRPLRA |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | --TKHASVARSRLRTLSEERTIPCGSRGT-----------------------ARARAVAEAEAAA------------RD |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | ARADHPAPQQLPEQVTAARCAAASRQLEALLLPWQDGGREPLNAAAV-------------------------2ALEAQ-------------FGKNQHT |
|  | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | -V---IRHAREATTRLRGWASAGQLPAEGPDL-------------------------ADRLAAVERASLRAQ-AA---VTLRNG- |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% |  |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
|  | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | RFTISDPETDPEADAAAGDAAADVVDDNDGDDGDDDDV--PAGGNAVASKPL---AMRQLA-----AAQSGAGQAEQAAHLQMVRGDGYVLDRQRRSGGII |
|  | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | VFRSAAEGPT----------------STGDDDVAQ-----KAAAEEPEAEPAGRPTAVPLT------------------AAAAPPQSEPRAGSQ |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | VERAASKAEAVLLAAF------------RTGAIDRSLLLSRLKTVAAAKVAYVSMRSAAAADEEADAGDGDGEGEGE-------PS-----YES----- |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | -HHTNPAEPQLL-------------------------------------RPQQ-PA--K--RVGEDPGGGE-------PA-AAVEYNRSTQGQ |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | VWKASNKAKKCLE---------------------------------------RPAV-TL--GRPRRGCGPGPPP-------PGTAAAVSPRRVGGQ |
|  | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | FVPVGTAYLTKSWLLAACGEPLSVEEEGPEA----------------------------ADARLAAAAS--NIVAMAAAA |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | ETVTQTAYMIREVLLSGTPQSLRDALALGMRRNC----RSVARIVEHYRRAVKLLDDLVAEGRLSLAQAAKRKAAAMEARTQAR--------------- |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | RYTGATAYIULSLVLE-PPEAVRSAVAYGVLNSAGWNGRFTQRSIGYHCRMIRPLAERAVAEGLIDPTAAQELYDSLDGITRDMLRQLAGAPPAEAAATQ |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | FVAFSTTYLKPDFLAS-PPEQLREAMMTEMRQRC----TSEHSIKFHGAKAGKMLQTLVDEGRLDDEGLQQRLAAVQEARRQAGRWLEV--------- |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | EVPELTAYMEELLLS-PPEVVSERV島AAMRRQC----ASLDSTRYHQDKATKMXQALVSAGRLDEQGLQQRMAALLEAVRRVRRWLDV---------- |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | ATAAARG--GPSC---------------PGLAVALVE |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% |  |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | ASLQRETAPEAASQAARSEPSPQEAGGFMGSRKSAKSPT-SYLNEALLMLPAKELQEALTEVWSRMAELKALRHAATAKQRLLELASVELLAGGEDGHEV |
|  | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
|  | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | APQLLGLEPGSGAGLGSGFGAGLGPA -LNRPGR-------------------------------------------PGTRQ |
|  |  | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |


|  | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | RVICPTKDSVCFEH-----SRKARKLLTELGQAR----GWAPEVR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% |  |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | TSRLWAVKAAAAAATSSAANAQLAGQAAAAAVEAGSSASSASTGDQAGCLSQDTLLVQPTQVLRAELARWFRHGSGTVKGLQRNHAKAVELLRVMAQREG |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | RTHFED-------------------SEEAEVGAVAASGVEAERAGVVAEAAAAAAAED---EE-------------EEEEYEDAVEAVGIG |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | AARDAAAVES-RRISSLALEAYQAASPELAGLQPRQLAAHLRVAWREKFAATVQRLVPIVEERLRGMAAAGSHPAPHLLEAQVAAVRLLPL--QW |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | -FRMEVEAVLTPAAIAEPPEQLAARLVVTWSLRKDL--DGYASATTDHLNELAAAGNHPAPHHLEEQLYVVQHVVLGALK |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | LPGPELQQRLWAVEGARLEARLRLELLPLLSRELLEGPPVALQAALQELWRFEHAPMQ-QLAAAAEEELHDRVARGEHPAPQQLPEQVTAARCAAA--AV |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | -LEAALHTAWRAKRIQGVQDAAATAAQVLQHLVATGTHPAPELLAEQQEALRFVVL--QR |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | GPGAAS------EEGGVSRPSSSPSSYTSGGLVGACPEVMMLALQEANRTRHLK--------------------------- |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | LPLEQLMTGSLPPTPAAAAPALTGKGKAARKAASRSTKSGSSAGAVGDEAAEAE---------------ADRDRE---------QLLQLLRGLSGSEL |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | QPGALLL\#PALSAPAKPE---PST-----------RRDEARGA-----------------------------2AAPGPAEPEPQTPPIAESRCLELA |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | RQSEALLLP-------------------------------------------------------------------------WPDDGGQPLEAEAV |
|  | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% |  |
|  | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | SPVEMLLQTDLGTDP--D---LGS------------SSPENRNPDLD-PFEGL----------QEQQQQEEEGKEE-----------GEGSRRRRRWL |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% | -MLLQTAVEEGEEEE---EGQ----------EGGDGGVDGEELLEAAVRRQATEAETSATEEDEEEDEEDGVGAAA ---AVSRGPGRRRRRWL |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | LELLEAKISDWQLKILCLAESEAEAALLTAFKEGRCSQEQLRDRLSVLSTAKWRLLCQPGSSSSGTSGSNGSEA----PAPLADATGAVVEGVVSDSYDS |
|  | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | QAALAALWSSRTYRYVQGVANELDKALLAALNSGQLNASGLLARLRVVASAKQTALAAGAAAEAAPSQTAAASAHDAADATAGEADAAASAGAGA-GADV |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | RAALEMRWRGSGLRRVMDGADELEGMLLTAFRSGRIDRSLLLSRLKTIASAKVAAVRGRAAAAAAAGEDS---D-----------AGSG---------- |
|  | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | TALLAAQWRGRTIRGIGNGAAEVEEMLLAAFESGAMDRKTTELRLQVAATAKSQAIAGAALSA ------------------ DG--DVAAPEG |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | TALLAAQWRGRAVRGIGIAATELEDAVLDAFRSGTLDRASLELRLKIIADAKIQAVRAEVAAAPPKG--------------DG--GGESEGG-------- |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% |  |
|  | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | EEDN-EDEDGDEDELE-EGEAEGGG----KRGSPLVGLELALRPPQEVVAAVRAACVE-------QPLVSWRTHAQRVRLQAYRAQAA-GLLSEQQCEA |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | DADVDADPAGSGAEADDEAEAGCVGSPTAPGSSVGYMSAWLVTQPPEEVVAALDQATRHIVV----RRKNNLSIHASRLTDLAKQLSDA-GVVTSTHVAA |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | -------GGGKEGDESRVTGATAYITLSLVLEPPETVCAAVVSAVLSSVDPDDRRAQRSIAYMRRRAVLLAQRAVAE-GLIDEAAAQQ |
|  | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | ----DAEGESAGCDYNGRTAYITAWMTLQPVDEVRRAVAAAVAG------RGGYVLRYHIRRRVKEAAQQVHRA -GLLGQRQLDE |
|  | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | --ESAGS-----SKGQRSAGGGGGSRADYTGRVAYVTLWLVLQPPAAVCRAVAEAVAG------RGEVVLRFHRRWVKESAHRAHGPG-LLStG---- |
|  | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% | -DVEEE-----ERQQGSDSDSDGSAGDYNGRVSYVTMWLVLQPPEVVCRAVATAVEG------RGHMVLGFHRRWIKEVSKRAAGAGGVLSDHULAE |
|  | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | LRKALAKAFRKKK |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | LSRALDDFVTGGPVGVSGPRPLRWGESYYREDVLLGPPDELRTTLEAAWRGLSREQIRSRWRSVQNRLLRLHDALSVAAGGDATDEREGEGEAAGMSSDV |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | LHASLDGITRT---------------------------LRQVA------------------------------------ |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | LQEVLDRMKPDG--------------------------VISADEQ-------------------------- |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% |  |
| 6 | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% | LHRALDELTPQN-------------------------LRAVL------------------------------- --- |
| 1 | Cr | 100.0\% | 100.0\% | TKKP----SPLSRAAWLTPQLLALPPPQLVGALREGLLVFIN |
| 2 | Cd | 76.0\% | 18.0\% | EGASEDDGEGEGGGSSSAVAAANGSPALAASLQAAEAAMKAGVAEYWAEYRRTRSMAVAKAPPAGP-TSKLTSDYLTRELLLSPPEQLRAKLEAIW--VG |
| 3 | Cs | 76.5\% | 17.7\% | ----VEPPGPPGRKVSATAYLSRELLMQHPEQLAAALQAAW--VG |
| 4 | Yu | 65.1\% | 21.5\% | VATSSS----------------------------------------ATGTVPP----PVTAYLSDELLRQPPEQLRAALLEVVW--SS |
| 5 | Vc | 70.8\% | 19.0\% | --QLEDLKREW--QG |
|  | Eu | 63.9\% | 22.4\% | AEGGGG-----------------------------------------GGPGRP----GTTAYLTPELLGLPEQLRTALVEW--RG |



GSSLEGAGGQEPGDGSPAIDGEZ
TQDEGEAEAEPGPGPAALSTSSPPPSPTPEAR TQDEGEAEAEPGPGPAALSTSSPPPSPTPEAR GAPNEGAGAPAE
－DVDADS－SEGET
－EIAGG－AGSGG
 －－－－－SESAEA－－－－－－－－－－－－EADQRQRWAATAVEAGLVCDLQELPAAELAEVLGLPGK－－－－QELPNELRDPMVQAVLRTDLQPYDRAHRLALFLG - －LERLQEPLLREVLRRDLDEYTRACCLADYLR －MDD PPALLDPVVGEVLRNDLDELTRTTQLADYMG

##  <br> AQA－－SGRALGA <br>  <br> $--\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{AVAAAAESAES}-$


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EFDDRCTVIASATRAARIARGDVAHRRGPMPFASRPSKSKGKHGG－
GYKERLAALMAA EYSLRLDAMATASRHARLRRGDPLIKAGPKAR－－－－－－－VGDEAAGQD

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GGFAAAVAADAAD－SGVVAAESPMASLEVLQQRAEALRVKRERAGDAAPSAHAEPAAEPAAGV－－VASGEAGGQYEFVLTAVLGMEPESLLRRWAALPYR


PAN－－－－－－－－－－－VPTGEPWLTAALGLKPERAMRAWAALSYR
EQFKATAKEARLALKAEVGRNRSP－ALVVPM－－－－TLPAAA－－FAAAAAPPAAA－－－－－－－－－－－－－－－－－－－PGLEEPWLAATLGLNPERVLRIWATVQWR
ESEKARAKAERLEVKGVVGRNKSP－ALIVPL－－－－ALPPGA－－LAAAAPPPSLHAAAAPAATPAQEGGGGSIGGGGSWLEAALGMSAERALRVWATVQWR －－EPPLELLTQAQLAVAKLELDLWNEMAKV －－SDDAASHLSADQLAAAELELEAWYQEAVS

 LRKDIASVALSRSVSARANARREEGAVQGP－
 LRKDIGLVALSRSRTGTALHSRRPASLDGSGSDADSEEDGDSAALQPTLQLLAYVRLSDKQQELFRLALRGRLAAAGRDLSEPDSSGGEGEEAQS－ LRKELHQLAMSKCRGERKKAA－－AAAVE－SRADGDAGD－－－－－AAVAAASRSKIPRLSVKQQALEVAALQGRLAAAGIDLTEPAEVPV－－－－EL LRSQMHHVAMSISGALKKKLR－－GVGPT－GG－DGGSGG－GNCGGGGGGRTGARIPRLGIKQQLQEVAALRGRLAAAGVDLTEPTELPR－－－－EW－


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ETSGYAAASAAASAAGGVYAAGLTGRRLNQLRNLSRATMPTTSPAGGT

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 -SGGAAA-AVIAKEAAAAAGSAPSNGSGSAIVSRARRSKGQQAAEA GAEAGVLLGADGGAAAL GDGDAFURTGLSSGAVV-------TSR

 GwHPSRTAPA ${ }^{\text {LA }}$ $\begin{array}{r}\text { R } \\ { }^{2} \\ { }^{2} \\ \hline\end{array}$






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[^0]4) Overlapping HPR and OPR proteins in C. reinhardtiI

Proteins identified as HPR in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii from (Hillebrand et al., 2018)

| Accession | Name | OPR? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 20686 | NCL 69 | YES |
| 20689 | NCL 90 | YES |
| 21996 | NCL 75 | YES |
| 22494 | NCL 79 | YES |
| 35878 | OPR107 | YES |
| 144190 | OPR48 | YES |
| 147277 | OPR100 | YES |
| 148806 | OPR9 | YES |
| 151373 | OPR119 | YES |
| 152682 | - | NO |
| 167067 | OPR23 | YES |
| 170988 | NCL 20 | YES |
| 178853 | OPR68 | YES |
| 179193 | NCL 98 | YES |
| 180625 | NCL 112 | YES |
| 180839 | NCL 84 | YES |
| 181188 | NCL 91 | YES |
| 191389 | OPR10 | YES |
| 196763 | NCL 111 | YES |
| 196765 | NCL 106 | YES |
| 287603 | NCL 78 | YES |
| $\underline{287613}$ | NCL 88 | YES |
| 288887 | OPR104 | YES |
| $\underline{296752}$ | OPR31 | YES |
| 306518 | OPR23 | YES |
| 390299 | OPR35 | YES |
| 402283 | OPR28 | YES |
| 403175 | NCL 110 | YES |
| 403647 | NCL 93 | YES |
| $\underline{405879}$ | OPR2 | YES |
| 406560 | - | NO |
| 416539 | OPR5 | YES |
| 417156 | OPR8 | YES |
| 419975 | OPR15 | YES |
| 420894 | OPR47 | YES |
| 422092 |  | NO |

5) Synthetic MDB1 Fragments

## Synthetic MDB1 FRagments



| CDS | 4659..4772 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | /gene="02" |
| CDS | 4773.4886 |
|  | /gene="03" |
| CDS | 4887..5003 |
|  | / gene="04" |
| CDS | 5004..5117 |
|  | /gene="05" |
| CDS | 5298..5411 |
|  | /gene="06" |
| CDS | 5412..5525 |
|  | /gene="07" |
| CDS | 5526. 5636 |
|  | /gene="08" |
| CDS | 5637. 5760 |
|  | /gene="09" |
| CDS | 5763. 5876 |
|  | /gene="010" |
| CDS | 5877. 5993 |
|  | /gene="011" |
| CDS | 6000..6113 |
|  | /gene="012" |
| misc_feature | 6342..6553 |
|  | /gene="i2" |
| CDS | 6554..7197 |
|  | /gene="ex3' |
| CDS | 7196. 7197 |
|  | /gene="3HA'" |
| CDS | 7320..7324 |
|  | /gene="'ex3" |
|  | /codon_start=3 |
| misc_feature | complement (7324..7944) |
|  | /gene="PSAD_ter" |
|  | /product="nt 2465-2470 differ from genomic sequence" |
| CDS | complement(9194..10054) |
|  | /gene="bla" |

ORIGIN
1 ctaaattgta agcgttaata ttttgttaaa attcgcgtta aatttttgtt aaatcagctc

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121 gatagggttg
181 caacgtcaaa
241 ctaatcaagt
301 cccccgattt
361 agcgaaagga
421 cacacccgcc
481 caactgttgg
541 gggatgtgct
601 taaaacgacg
661 cttcaaatac
721 aaccaacaaa
781 aaacggggag
841 tcgtcagggg
901 cccaacgtcc
961 tcaggtccct
1021 cgccccatcc
1081 ccacgggtcc
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1261 agtccgctcc
1321 atcctccaag
1381 gagactgcga
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Two fragments possible: $\quad$ XhoI-BglII $(535 \mathrm{bp})$ T_6, A_7, A_8, G_9
$>$ WT
CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT CGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT
$>$ AA $\rightarrow$ GG1
СTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCAGG АССТСТССААСGTGGTСТАСТСGСTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCTCAGGATG TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT Creation of PpuMI and Bsu36I

## $>\mathrm{AA} \rightarrow$ TT1

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCG АGСТСТССААСGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGAGC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT Loss of BanII and creation of SacI
$>\mathrm{AA} \rightarrow \mathrm{CC} 1$
CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGAACC AGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGACGCAGC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT No RFLP marker; creation of a PvuII site

## $>\mathrm{AG} \rightarrow \mathbf{C T} 1$

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT CGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGACGCAGC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCGAGATCT
Loss of XbaI
WT

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & E & V & S & T & L & L & W & G & L & A & R & L & H & Y & K & V & A & P & A\end{array}$

CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllll}R & L & R & \text { Q } & L & E & H & S & \text { Q } & \text { Q } & \text { M } & \text { S } & F & C & G & R & S\end{array}$

CGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC L S N V V Y S L A L S Q Q

TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC A A A Q A R A V A L

TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllll}T & Q & A & W & L & A & K & L & C & P & P & T & S & A & L \\ L & D\end{array}$

ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC


TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG

AgGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\text { V } & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{K} & \mathrm{Q}\end{array}$ AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT

```
Q Q Q Q Q P P R R R P
```


## AA $\rightarrow \mathbf{G G 1}$

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & E & V & S & T & L & L & W & G & L & A & R & L & H & Y & K & V & A & P & A\end{array}$ CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & L & R & Q & L & L & E & H & S & \text { Q } & A & \text { Q } & M & G & S & F & C & G & \text { Q }\end{array}$ CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCAGG EGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\mathrm{L} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{V} & \mathrm{V} & \mathrm{Y} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{L} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{L} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{H} & \mathrm{P} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{W} & \mathrm{L}\end{array}$ ACCTCTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC

TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllll}\text { A } & \text { A } & \text { A } & \text { Q } & \text { A } & R & A & V & A & L & G & P & S & A & F & S & P & Q & D\end{array}$ TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCTCAGGATG

TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}T & Q & M & A & W & G & L & A & K & L & G & C & P & P & T & S & A & L & L & D\end{array}$ TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG

ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}M & V & C & A & H & A & A & A & R & L & P & R & S & A & E & E & R & R & R & L\end{array}$ TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\mathrm{L} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{L} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{L} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{D} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{F} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{D} & \mathrm{D} & \mathrm{E}\end{array}$ AgGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC


AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT $\mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{L} \quad \mathrm{A} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{Y}$

## $\mathbf{A A} \rightarrow \mathbf{T T 1}$

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG


CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & L & R & Q & L & L & E & H & S & Q & A & Q & M & G & S & F & C & G & R & 1\end{array}$ CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCG ЄGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}L & S & N & V & V & Y & S & L & A & L & S & Q & Q & H & P & G & E & E & W & L\end{array}$ AGCTCTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC A A A Q A R A V A TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGAGC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}T & Q & M & A & W & G & L & A & K & L & G & C & P & P & T & S & A & L & L & D\end{array}$ TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG

ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC


TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG

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    L Q L L Q A L R R D R R S S G F F
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AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}V & E & A & E & G & A & A & A & A & S & S & S & G & S & R & S & G & R & K & Q\end{array}$
AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT
$\mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{L} \quad \mathrm{A} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{Y} \quad \mathrm{N} \quad \mathrm{G} \quad \mathrm{L} \quad \mathrm{D}$

## $\mathbf{A A} \rightarrow \mathbf{C C 1}$

CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG


CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGEGCT
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & L & R & Q & L & L & E & H & S & \text { Q } & A & Q & M & G & S & F & C & G & N & \text { Q }\end{array}$ CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGAACC

ЄGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC

$$
\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}
\mathrm{L} & \mathrm{~S} & \mathrm{~N} & \mathrm{~V} & \mathrm{~V} & \mathrm{Y} & \mathrm{~S} & \mathrm{~L} & \mathrm{~A} & \mathrm{~L} & \mathrm{~S} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{H} & \mathrm{P} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{~W} & \mathrm{~L}
\end{array}
$$ AGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC

TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\text { A } & A & A & Q & A & R & A & V & A & L & G & P & S & A & F & S & P & T & Q & L\end{array}$ TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGACGCAGC

TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}T & Q & M & A & W & G & L & A & K & L & G & C & P & P & T & S & A & L & L & D\end{array}$ TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG

ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}M & V & C & A & H & A & A & A & R & L & P & R & S & A & E & E & R & R & R & L\end{array}$ TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG
 AgGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllll}V & E & A & E & G & A & A & A & A & S & S & S & G & S & R & S & G & R & K & Q\end{array}$ AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT $\mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{R}$

AG $\rightarrow$ CT1
CTCGAGAGGTGAGCACGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGGCGCGGCTGCACTACAAGGTGGCGCCGG

| $R$ | $E$ | $V$ | $S$ | $T$ | $L$ | $L$ | $W$ | $G$ | $L$ | $A$ | $R$ | $L$ | $H$ | $Y$ | $K$ | $V$ | $A$ | $P$ | $A$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

CGCGGCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGGAGCACTCGCAGGCCCAGATGGGCTCTTTCTGCGGGCGCT $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}R & L & R & Q & L & L & E & H & S & \text { Q } & A & \text { Q } & M & G & S & F & C & G & R & S\end{array}$ ЄGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC
 AGCTGTCCAACGTGGTCTACTCGCTCGCGCTGTCTCAGCAGCACCCGGGGGAGGAGTGGC TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGCAGGGTC A A A Q A $\quad$ A $A$ TGGCGGCGGCGCAGGCGCGCGCGGTGGCCCTCGGTCCCAGCGCCTTCTCGCCGACGCAGC TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG
 TGACCCAGATGGCCTGGGGCCTGGCCAAGCTGGGCTGCCCGCCCACCTCCGCCCTGCTGG

ACATGGTGTGCGCACACGCGGCGGCGCGGCTGCCGCGCAGCGCCGAGGAGCGCCGCCGGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}M & \mathrm{~V} & \mathrm{C} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{H} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{L} & \mathrm{P} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{L}\end{array}$

TGCTGCAGCTGCAGGCGCTGCGGGACCGCTCCGGCTTCAGCTCGTCGAGCGAAGACGACG
 AGGTCGAGGCGGAGGGCGCTGCAGCCGCTTCCTCTTCGGGGAGTAGGAGCGGCCGCAAGC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\mathrm{V} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{K} & \mathrm{Q}\end{array}$

AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCTAGATCT $\mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{R} \quad \mathrm{R}$ AACAGCAGCAGCAGCAGCCGCGGCGGCCGCTGGCGCCCTACAACGGTCGAGATCT

GG2
ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGGTGGACGTCGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGC̄̄GAḠGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAACCTCAGGACCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGAGTGGACḠGCCGAGTTCCTCAAGGT TACGTA

Creation of AatII, EcoO109I, PpuMI, BsaHI sites
AA 2
ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGCAGGGNGTTGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGCGGAGGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAAECCCAGGGCCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGA $\bar{G} T G G A \overline{C G G C C G A G T T C C T C A A G G T ~ T A C G T A ~}$

Loss of AgeI, and Bsu36I Creation of PasI and EcoO109I sites
CC2
ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGACCCAGGTTGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGCGGAGGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAACCTACGCAGCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGAGTGGACGGCCGAGTTCCTCAAGGTTACGTA

Loss of AgeI, and of one AlwNI of 2 and of a Bsu36I site

CC2
ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG

CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC
TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGACNCAGGTTGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG CC $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllll}\mathrm{L} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{H} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{F} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{P} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{V} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{W} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{L}\end{array}$ CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGCGGAGGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG

CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAACCTACNCAGCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC CC $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllll}A & T & D & R & R & L & S & S & F & K & P & T & \text { Q } & L & C & S & M & V & W & A\end{array}$ TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGAGTGGACGGCCGAGTTCCTCAAGGT TACGTA

AA2
ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC

TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGCAGGGNGTTGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG AA $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllll}\mathrm{L} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{H} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{F} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{P} & \mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{G} & \mathrm{V} & \mathrm{A} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{W} & \mathrm{A}\end{array} \mathrm{L}$

CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGCGGAGGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG
CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAAECCCAGGGCCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC AA $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllll}\text { A } & T & D & R & R & L & S & S & F & K & \bar{P} & Q & G & L & C & S & M & V & W & A\end{array}$

TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGAGTGGACGGCCGAGTTCCTCAAGGTTACGTA

## GG2

ATGCATCCTACCGCCAGCTTCCCTACTTCAAGCCCGTGGACCTGAGCCAGTCGCTGTGGG CGCTGGCGCGGCTGGGCGCGGCGCCGCCGGAGGCGTGGCTGGGCGGCGCGCTGAACCGGC

TGCAGCACACAGCCAGCATGTTCTCACCGGTGGACGTCGCCAACACCATGTGGGCGCTGG GG


CGAAGATGGGCGTGCGCGGCGAGCGGCTGCCGGCGGAGGTGCTGGCGCTGTTCTTCATCG
CCACGGACCGCCGGCTCAGCTCGTTTAAACCTCAGGACCTGTGCTCCATGGTGTGGGCGC GG


TGGCGCACATGCGGCGGCGGCCCGACAAGGAGTGGACGGCCGAGTTCCTCAAGGT TACGTA

## Article 1

## "Determinants for 5' processing and stability of the chloroplast atpB mRNA in Chlamydomonas."

This is a draft version of an article devoted to the study of the role of MDB1 in the stabilisation and maturation of the atpB $m R N A$. Some experiments should be performed again (e.g. The B Northern fig $6 A$ ), and complementary experiments have still to be done.

# Determinants of $\mathbf{5}^{\mathbf{\prime}}$ processing and stability of the chloroplast atpB mRNA in Chlamydomonas. 

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Running title: atpB mRNA 5' processing in Chlamydomonas

## Character count:

Keywords: RNA-RNA interaction/ mRNA processing/ mRNA stability / 5'-3' UTR interactions / chloroplast/ Chlamydomonas reinhardtii

## Abstract (~200 words)

In chloroplasts, every post-transcriptional step of gene expression, from maturation to translation and degradation of mRNAs, is controlled by a combination of cis-acting RNA elements, among which RNA secondary structures, and gene-specific trans-acting factors. Here, we report the characterization of MDB1, a nucleus-encoded OctotricoPetpide Repeat (OPR) protein required for the stabilization of the chloroplast atpB mRNA in Chlamydomonas. MDB1 binds the 5 'end of the mature $a t p B$ mRNA as revealed by primer extension, cRT-PCR and small RNA sequencing. The atpB gene is transcribed as a tri-phosphorylated precursor, whose decay is initiated by the conversion of the 5' triphosphate to a monophosphate, thereby becoming a substrate for $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exonucleolytic degradation, blocked, in the wild-type, by MDB1. We show that interactions between the 5 ' and 3' UTRs of the mRNA control the correct processing of chimeric transcripts driven by the $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ UTR. ?We propose a model for $a t p B$ gene expression that involves the concerted action of MDB1 and interactions between 5' and 3' UTRs.?

## Introduction

Chloroplasts originated through endosymbiosis from a cyanobacterial ancestor (Keeling, 2010). Modern chloroplasts only retained from their ancestor a limited set of genes (Maul et al., 2002), whose expression is governed by nucleus-encoded Organelle Trans-Acting factors (OTAFs). These factors, identified by genetic screens of photosynthetic mutants, interact with cis-acting RNA sequences present in the 5'- and/or 3'-UTRs of their chloroplast targets to control their maturation, translation and decay (for reviews: (Barkan and Goldschmidt-Clermont, 2000; Choquet and Wollman, 2002; Woodson and Chory, 2008; Barkan and Small, 2014). In the model unicellular green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, M factors (for maturation/stability) govern the stable accumulation of their target mRNAs while T factors (for translation) control their translation. According to an emerging consensus, $M$ factors bind the 5 'UTR of their target mRNA, where they act as a barriers against $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exoribonucleases, thereby stabilising the transcripts and determining mature 5'ends (Drager et al., 1998; Vaistij et al., 2000; Pfalz et al., 2009; Yoon, 2009; Loizeau et al., 2014), reviewed in (Barkan, 2011; Barkan and Small, 2014). Most OTAFs belong to helical repeat protein families -e.g. the TPR, PPR and OPR (Tetra-, Penta- and Octo-tricoPeptide Repeat) protein families- respectively defined by the presence of tandem repeats of a degenerate motif of 34,35 and 38 residues, each repeat interacting with a specific nucleotide, thus allowing a sequence-specific recognition of the RNA target (reviewed in: (Barkan and Small, 2014; Hammani et al., 2014).

Chimeric genes expressed in the chloroplast genome, made of $5^{\prime}$ or 3 ' UTRs fused to reporter coding sequences have been instrumental to identify the target and the mode of action of these OTAFS. However, in Chlamydomonas chloroplasts, reporter genes did not always fully mimic the accumulation and translation patterns of the endogenous mRNA, whose 5'UTR they borrow (Ishikura et al., 1999; Kasai et al., 2003; Minai et al., 2006) others rbcL): regulatory elements may also reside in coding regions and/or 3' UTRs. Regulation of chloroplast gene expression would therefore rely on several factors and sequence elements, the interaction of which, although possibly pivotal for understanding chloroplast gene expression, is still poorly known yet.

While nuclear-encoded mRNAs harbour a 5' cap (a 7-methylguanylate connected to the mRNA by a triphosphate) that protects them from $5^{\prime}->3^{\prime}$ exonucleolytic degradation (Furuichi et
al., 1977; Hsu and Stevens, 1993), prokaryote and organelle mRNAs do not: primary transcription products only harbour a tri-phosphorylated nucleotide at their 5'end. Moreover, at variance with bacterial mRNAs, most chloroplast RNAs undergo intercistronic cleavage and 5'end processing that release shorter mono-phosphorylated mature transcripts.

Secondary structures in the ${ }^{\prime}$ 'UTRs of chloroplast mRNAs also are important determinants for maturation and stability (Germain et al., 2013). 3' stem-loops protect mRNAs against 3' $\rightarrow$ 5' exoribonucleases and determine the position of mature 3'ends (Stern and Gruissem, 1987; Stern et al., 1989; Stern et al., 1991; Drager et al., 1996): deletion of the inverted repeat in the Chlamydomonas $\operatorname{atp} B 3$ 'UTR led to drastically reduced amounts of $a t p B$ transcripts that became heterogeneous in size, and to a $\sim 60 \%$ decreased protein level (Stern et al., 1991). While 3' UTRs may also contain regulatory elements since the proper processing of $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA 3'end stimulates its translation (Rott et al., 1998), they have long been thought as constitutive cis elements: their thermodynamic stability certainly contributes to set the accumulation level of a transcript, but OTAFs specifically targeting the 3'UTR of a given gene have not been identified so far in Chlamydomonas, in contrast to the numerous identified OTAFs targeting the 5'UTR of chloroplast genes.

In a previous study we described a nuclear mutant of Chlamydomonas lacking accumulation of the atp $B$ mRNA, encoding the chloroplast ATP synthase subunit $\beta$ (Drapier et al., 1992). Here, we identified the mutated gene. While studying its role in the expression of the $\operatorname{atp} B \mathrm{mRNA}$, we observed that interactions between $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ UTRs affect the $5^{\prime}$ end processing of the $a t p B$ transcripts.

## Results

## Accumulation of the chloroplast $\boldsymbol{a t p B}$ mRNA is controlled by the OPR MDB1 protein

The non-phototrophic thm 24 mutant lacks accumulation of the atpB mRNA (Drapier et al., 1992). More recently, we isolated, in an insertional mutagenesis campaign with an aphVIII cassette (Houille-Vernes et al., 2011), a second mutant, L35a, displaying the same phenotype. In 10 parental di-type tetrads from a back-cross of this latter mutant with the wild type, the mutant phenotype segregated with the resistance to paromomycin suggesting a tight linkage of the mutation with the locus of aphVIII insertion. Whole genome sequencing of the L35a and thm24 strains revealed that, in the $L 35 a$ strain, the insertion of the cassette in chromosome 14 was associated with a 30 kb deletion (from position 1029641 to position 1060055), encompassing 7 genes models, out of which one, Cre14.g614550, encodes an OPR protein (Fig. 1A). In the thm 24 mutant strain, this region was retained but a 1 bp deletion in gene model Cre14.g614550 leads to premature translation abortion after codon 406 (Suppl. Fig. S1). That we actually identified the gene responsible for the phenotype of the two strains was confirmed as we could complement both mutants either with cosmids encompassing the deleted region or with a minigene version of Cre14.g614550 (Suppl. Fig. S2, see M\&M for details on the midigene). Cre14.g614550 was thus renamed MDB1, according to the gene nomenclature for Chlamydomonas OTAFs, for
 be hereafter referred to as $m d b 1-1$ and $m d b 1-2$, respectively. The $M D B 1$ gene contains 11 exons and encodes a protein of 1137 residues (Fig. 1A), predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by the Predotar (Small et al., 2004), Predalgo (Tardif et al., 2012) and TargetP (Emanuelsson et al., 2001) softwares. Analysis with the FTrep program (Rahire et al., 2012) identified 13 OPR repeats within the MDB1 protein (Suppl. Fig. S3).

## MDB1 binds the mature $5^{\prime}$ 'end of the atpB mRNA to protect it from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ exonucleases.

Because most OTAFs act on the 5'UTR of their target mRNA, we tested whether MDB1 interacts genetically with the 360 bp long $\operatorname{atpB}$ 5'UTR (Woessner et al., 1986). To this aim, we used two strains, BFFF (named $d B f$ in (Drapier et al., 2007)) and BKR (named ATG12 in (Rimbault et al., 2000)), that respectively express the 5 'atpB-petA-3'petA (BFFF) and 5 'atpB-
aadA-3'rbcL (BKR) chimeras (Fig. 2A; see Table I for the description of the chimeras used in this work), in which the petA coding sequence and $3^{\prime}$ UTR or the $a a d A$ coding sequence fused to the $r b c L$ 3'UTR are respectively expressed under the control of the $a t p B$ promoter and 5'UTR. After transformation in the chloroplast genome of C. reinhardtii, the BFFF chimera replaced the endogenous petA gene, while the $B K R$ chimera was inserted downstream of the petA gene ( Fig . $2 \mathrm{~A})$. These strains were crossed with the mdbl-1, mt- mutant. In tetrad progeny from both crosses, all members inherited the chimeric genes uniparentally transmitted by the $m t+$ parent. The two members that inherited the wild-type MDB1 allele, as they accumulated the atpB mRNA, also accumulated the chimeric transcripts. The two other members inherited the mdbl-1 allele: they failed to accumulate both the atpB mRNA and the chimeric transcripts (Fig. 2B). Thus, the $a t p B 5$ ' UTR is sufficient to confer an MDB1-dependent stability to a downstream coding sequence.

To assess whether the MDB1 factor protein is physically associated in vivo with its genetically identified RNA target, we generated by complementation of the mdbl-1 mutant, a strain expressing an HA-tagged version of MDB1 (MDB1-HA; see M \& M for details), for immuno-detection or -precipitation with antibodies directed against the HA tag. The tag was inserted in a region of the protein poorly conserved among Chlamydomonadales species (Suppl. Fig S4). After immuno-precipitation of this tagged version of MDB1, RNAs, extracted from the pellet, were analysed by dot-blots, using probes against the $\operatorname{atp} B$ (and $\operatorname{atp} A$ as a negative control) 5'UTRs (Fig. 2C). A specific signal, observed in the complemented strain, but not in the wild type, with the $\operatorname{atpB}$ probe, but not with the atpA probe, indicated that the tagged MDB1-HA protein indeed interacts specifically, directly or indirectly, with the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR in vivo.

The stable interaction between a M factor and its target mRNA often leads to the accumulation of a footprint, a cluster with a sharp 5 'end of small RNAs protected from degradation by the bound protein (Ruwe and Schmitz-Linneweber, 2012; Zhelyazkova et al., 2012; Cavaiuolo et al 2017). These footprints usually map at the 5 ' ends of the mature chloroplast mRNAs, thus pinpointing the binding sites of M factors. A small RNA of 20 bp mapping to the mature 5 'end of the $\operatorname{atpB}$ mRNA, previously identified in sRNA-seq datasets (Cavaiuolo et al 2017), likely corresponds to the footprint of MDB1. Indeed, its accumulation was drastically reduced in the mdbl-2 mutant, compared to the wild type (<1\% of WT level: Fig. 3). By contrast, sRNAs generated from other regions of the atpB mRNA, which correspond to degradation
products of the $5^{\prime}$ destabilized transcript, were less severely affected. Thus, MDB1, alone or associated with other proteins, interacts with the mature $5^{\prime}$ end of its target mRNA.

Poly(G) cages form highly stable tertiary structures that impede the progression of exoribonucleases and have been instrumental to show that, in Chlamydomonas chloroplasts, M factors protect their target transcript from 5' $\rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases (Drager et al., 1998; Drager et al., 1999; Vaistij et al., 2000; Yoon, 2009). We thus inserted 18 consecutive $G$ residues in the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR at position -32 relative to the start codon (Fig. 4A). This modified atpB gene, associated with a spectinomycin resistance cassette (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991) for the selection of transformants, replaced, after transformation, the endogenous $a t p B$ gene of the $m d b 1-$ 1 strain. The resulting transformants accumulated a shorter version of the transcript (fig. 4B). We mapped its 5' end by sRNA-Seq and found a peak of sRNAs overlapping the polyG cage (fig. 4C).

One of these transformants was then crossed to our reference strain S24 mt. Zygotes were germinated on TAP medium and hatched progeny spread on TAP plates. 5 progeny, randomly picked up from the plates, all contained the polyG and were resistant to spectinomycin, as expected from the uniparental inheritance of the chloroplast genome of the $m t+$ parent. Two of them were similar to their $m d b 1-1\{\mathrm{pG} a t p B\}$ parent. The other three progeny accumulated the short $a t p B$ transcript and, in addition, a transcript slightly larger than the endogenous $a t p B$ mRNA due to the insertion of 37 bp in the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR. They inherited the wild-type MDB1 allele, as confirmed by the restoration of the MDB1 footprint, but also show a peak overlapping the polyG tract. They were nonetheless unable of phototrophic growth probably because the insertion of the polyG tract 32 nt upstream of the initiation codon impedes the translation of the $p G-a t p B$ mRNA. The shorter transcript, present in both wild-type and mutant background, was 1.5 fold more abundant than the endogenous $a t p B$ mRNA in the wild type or than the full-length $p G-a t p B$ in wild-type progeny, suggesting that only a fraction of the transcribed atpB mRNA is actually stabilized by MDB1, while most $a t p B$ transcription products are rapidly degraded.

We thus concluded that the atpB mRNA is degraded by $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exonucleases, unless protected by the bound MDB1 factor, present in limiting amount.

## MDB1 is required for the processing of the $a t p B$ transcript

Chloroplast primary transcription products are often $5^{\prime}$ or $3^{\prime}$ processed to yield shorter mature mRNAs. The atpB mRNA, as many other chloroplast transcripts, harbour two 5' ends, a minor one, tri-phosphorylated and mapping to the transcription start site (TSS: +1 ), and a major one, trimmed up to position +27 (in the following, positions will be given with respect to the transcription start site, unless otherwise specified) and mono-phosphorylated (Blowers et al, 1990; Woessner et al, 1986; Anthoninson et al, 2001; Cavaiuolo et al, 2017). The atpB 3'end was mapped at the end of an inverted repeat (Stern et al, 1991). Because M factors often stabilise the processed form of their target transcript, we mapped the atpB mRNA 5' end(s) by primer extension and circular RT-PCR (cRT-PCR) in the wild-type and mdb1-1 strains (Fig. 5).

Primer extension experiments revealed both previously mapped $5^{\prime}$ ends of the precursor $(+1)$ and mature ( +27 ) transcripts in the wild type, the mature form being by far the most abundant (Fig. 5A). By contrast, only the precursor transcript was detected in the mdbl-1 mutant, indicating that the MDB1 protein is required for the processing and/or the stabilization of the mature transcript, as confirmed by S1 protection assay (Suppl. Fig S4). Despite a twice higher input of mutant vs. wild-type RNA, the precursor band remained of lower intensity, suggesting that MDB1 also stabilises somehow the precursor transcript.

Primer extension provides an estimation of the relative amount of RNA species, but not of their 5' phosphorylation state, nor of their length, downstream of the primer used for reverse transcription. By contrast, cRT-PCR, although not quantitative, discriminates between mono- and tri phosphorylated 5 'ends, since only mono-phosphorylated mRNAs can self-ligate and circularize. Tri-phosphorylated transcripts cannot, unless first converted to a monophosphorylated form by treatment with 5'RNA polyphosphatase (RPP). cRT-PCR also allows the simultaneous determination of the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ 'ends of individual RNA molecules, whether originating from intact or degraded transcripts. We used a specific primer on atpB CDS (+1196/TSS; see Suppl. Table ST1 for the oligonucleotides used in this study) for retrotranscription of circularized mRNAs from wild-type and mdb1-1 strains, either mock- or RPPtreated, and the resulting cDNAs were amplified with outward-directed primers towards the 5 , and 3' termini as diagrammed in Fig 5B. Because the primary and mature 5'ends of atpB mRNA only differ by 27 nt , cRT-PCR products are not easily sized-discriminated on a gel. Indeed, PCR yielded products of similar size ( $\sim 650-\mathrm{bp}$ ) in both RPP- and mock-treated samples (Fig 5B).

In the mdbl-1 mutant, where only the primary transcript should be present, no amplification was expected from the mock-treated sample. Surprisingly, a PCR product was amplified from the mock-treated sample, although of low abundance. Sequencing of gel-purified amplicons revealed only primary $\operatorname{atp} B 5$ 'ends ( +1 ), even in the mock-treated sample. Thus the $\operatorname{atp} B$ precursor is present as two mRNA species that differ by the phosphorylation state of the same 5 ' end. The presence in the $m d b 1-1$ mutant of a mono-phosphorylated precursor mRNA, in addition to the tri-phosphorylated transcription product, suggests that 5' triphosphate removal occurs in the chloroplast, maybe as a prerequisite for further maturation in the wild type, or, in the absence of MDB1, for degradation.

Sequences of the wild-type amplicons identified a processed 5 'end ( +27 ) in the mock sample. Unexpectedly, we only detected a primary 5 'end ( +1 ) in the RPP sample. Indeed, sequencing of cRT-PCR products mostly detects the shortest ends of a transcript: downstream of the processed 5 'end, the sequence of the precursor should be superposed, and, based on the relative abundance of the precursor vs. processed transcripts detected in primer extension analysis, overwhelmed by that of the atpB 3'UTR. Would this later be heterogeneous, the sequence may become unreadable. Nonetheless, the sequence of the precursor $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA was unambiguously red (Suppl. Fig S5).

To understand the origin of this apparent discrepancy, we repeated the cRT-PCR experiment on the wild-type samples, using that time a forward primer (atpBFW2: +749/TSS) located upstream of the primer used for reverse transcription. In that way, the reverse transcriptase has to amplify the circularised mRNA more than once before a PCR product can be amplified (Suppl. Fig. S6A for a schematic representation), allowing all degradation products of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA ending downstream of the primer used for retro-transcription (TSS +1196 ) to contribute to PCR amplification. By contrast, in the previous PCR, only the degradation products ending downstream of the forward primer, i.e. after position TSS +1656 , contributed to the 650 bp amplicon. Amplicons were separated on a gel and those extracted from a broad band of the RPP-treated sample (Suppl. Fig. S6B) were cloned and sequenced. 11 clones, out of 20 (Suppl. Fig. S6C), displayed a precursor 5'end, a proportion again much higher than expected from the relative amount of the precursor and processed transcripts in primer extension experiments, but incompatible with the detection of only the precursor form in our first cRT-PCR experiment. The other 9 mapped to position +27 (the processed mRNA). Surprisingly, the 3 ' end of only 6 clones
mapped close to the previously published 3 'end (Stern et al, 1991): all but 1 show a precursor 5'end. The other 14 clones ended within the atp $B$ CDS, two of which being also poly-adenylated, which suggested that they are degradation products of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA. Most importantly, 13 of these truncated clones mapped upstream of the 3 ' primer used in our first cRT-PCR experiment (fig. 6) and would not have contributed to the sequenced 650 bp amplicon in our first cRT-PCR experiment. Among the 7 others, 6 had their 5 'end at position +1 and only one originated from a processed mRNA, which explains why only the precursor transcript was found in our first cRTPCR experiment. The 20 clones, however, and also others more severely truncated, should contribute to primer extension, explaining the discrepancy between the results of the two experimental approaches. That degradation of the $a t p B$ mRNA had happened during the RNA extraction or manipulation prior to ligation appears unlikely as such unspecific degradation would have targeted similarly the precursor, half of which are full-length, and the processed $m$ RNA, all truncated in the $\operatorname{atp} B$ CDS.
$5^{\prime}$, processing of $\operatorname{atpB}$ is not the primary function of MDB1, but a consequence of its binding to the $\mathbf{5}^{\prime} \mathbf{U T R}$.

We wondered whether the CDS and/or 3'UTR could interfere with the action of MDB1 and participate to this 5' processing event. We thus used the above described BFFF and BKR chimeras, this latter being also introduced in the Fud50 recipient strain, where the $\operatorname{atpB}$ gene is partially deleted (Woessner et al. 1984).

We first analysed the levels of the chimeric mRNAs by RNA blots and compared their amount to that of the endogenous $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript in the wild type (Fig 6A). As already observed (Fig. 2B), the accumulation of the BFFF transcript was lower than that of the atpB transcript. Compared to BFFF mRNA levels, the accumulation of $B K R$ chimeric transcript in the wild type was even lower and hardly detectable, as previously reported (Rimbault et al., 2000). However it accumulated to a higher level in the Fud50 context, suggesting a competition, released in the absence of the endogenous $a t p B \mathrm{mRNA}$, between the endogenous and chimeric atpB 5'UTRs for some stabilisation factors, MDB1 being an obvious candidate. In strains carrying the $B K R$ chimera, as in other strains expressing $a a d A$ chimeras (see below), hybridization with probes specific for the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR or for the $a a d A$ coding sequence identified two bands (Fig. 6A, B). The higher one, detected with both probes, corresponds to the full-length chimeric mRNA. The
lower ones are typical of $a a d A$ chimeras and correspond to degradation products generated, upon translation of aadA chimeras, by an endonucleolytic cleavage, shortly after the aadA initiation codon (Y. Choquet, unpublish. observations, see also Fig. 2 in (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991)). This releases the $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ 'UTR fused to the very beginning of the aadA CDS, of similar size for all chimeras (indicated by an asterisk *), and to the aadA coding sequence fused to the downstream 3'UTR, whose size varies depending on the UTR (indicated by diamonds $\diamond$ ). Indeed, the levels of the chimeric aadA-based mRNA were much increased, while the lower bands ( $*$ and $\diamond$ ) almost completely disappeared when chloroplast translation was blocked with lincomycin for 4 hr . This cleavage was observed irrespective of the $5^{\prime}$ or 3 'UTRs present in the chimeras and was thus an intrinsic property of the aadA coding sequence. After lincomycin treatment, the level of the BKR mRNA became comparable to that of the chimeric BFFF transcript. Still, $B K R$ mRNA level remained higher in the Fud50 context than in the wild-type background (Fig. 6B).

We then characterized the $5^{\prime}$ 'ends of the $B F F F$ and $B K R$ chimeric transcripts by primer extension and cRT-PCR (Fig. 7). Both precursor and processed 5 'ends of the chimeric transcript were detected in the BFFF strain by primer extension analysis, the mature form being by far the most abundant, as for the endogenous $a t p B$ (Fig 7A). cRT-PCR yielded a single PCR product of the expected size ( 500 bp , Fig 7B). At variance with the result observed on the $a t p B \mathrm{mRNA}$ itself, sequencing of the amplicon identified only the processed 5'end in both RPP and mock samples, as expected from the relative abundance of the two mRNA species in primer extension (Fig 7B).

Surprisingly enough, for the $B K R$ chimera in the wild-type, as in the Fud50 genetic context, primer extension revealed a small amount of the primary mRNA but no processed form, despite the presence of the wild-type MDB1 allele (Fig. 7B). cRT-PCR experiments identified an amplicon of the expected size ( $\sim 600-\mathrm{bp}$ ), irrespective of the RPP treatment or of the genetic background. After sequencing, only primary 5 'ends were found, even in mock-treated samples, indicating again that the triphosphate can be removed in vivo. In both wild-type and Fud50 backgrounds the 3 'end of the chimeric transcripts mapped at position +84 with respect to the $r b c L$ stop codon, i.e. at the major $r b c L$ 3' end identified by (Goldschmidt-Clermont et al., 2008). Sequencing of amplicons with another set of primers led to the same results (not shown). Defective $5^{\prime}$ processing of the $5^{\prime} a t p B-a a d A-3$ 'rbcL transcript did not prevent its translation since the two strains were resistant to Spectinomycin. Moreover, the accumulation of the chimeric
transcript still relied on the MDB1 factor (Fig 2). Therefore, 5 ' end processing is not a prerequisite for the expression of 5 ' $a t p B$-driven transcripts, strongly suggesting that it is not the primary action of MDB1 but rather a consequence of its binding to the atpB mRNA.

Together these experiments showed that the correct $5^{\prime}$ processing of atpB mRNA, being facilitated in the BFFF strain, compared to that in the wild type, and impaired in the BKR strain, should involve other sequence elements in the $3^{\prime}$ UTR or CDS, alone or in combination.

## The nature of 3' UTR determines 5' processing of atpB chimera transcripts

To further investigate this latter point, we generated alternative chimeras, always based on the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR, fused to different CDS (from the petA, atpB or $r b c L$ genes) followed by the $r b c L$ 3'UTR (respectively the $B F R, B B R$ and $B R R$ chimeras, Fig. 8A). As a control we used the 5'atpA-aadA-3'rbcL chimera (AKR chimera, (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991). The BRR and BFR chimeras respectively replaced the endogenous $r b c L$ gene in the wild type and the petA gene in the Fud50 strain. The BBR chimera restored a full-length $\operatorname{atpB}$ coding sequence in strain $F u D 50$ while the $A K R$ chimera was introduced in the wild-type chloroplast genome at a neutral site downstream of the petA gene.

The accumulation of these transcripts, comprising chloroplast coding sequences, was higher than that of chimeras based on the heterologous aadA coding sequence, as expected from their translation-induced cleavage (Fig. 6). The BFR mRNA was highly abundant in the Fud50 deletion strain, MDB1 being fully available to stabilize the chimeric mRNA. The $B B R$ was much less accumulated than the endogenous $\operatorname{atp} B \mathrm{mRNA}$, but at a still significant level. The $B R R$ transcript accumulated to only $\sim 10 \%$ of the wild-type level of $r b c L$ mRNA. Note that because of size similarity, the $a t p B$ and $B R R$ transcript cannot be discriminated using a probe against the $a t p B 5$ ' UTR. The $B R R$ gene was not translated (Suppl Fig. S7), as a dialog between the rbcL 5'UTR and CDS seems to be required for efficient rbcL mRNA expression (Salvador et al, 1993; other refs). With the exception of the BRR strain, the accumulation of the $r b c L$ mRNA was not significantly affected in strains expressing chimeric transcripts stabilised at their 3'end by the rbcL 3'UTR, excluding a strong competition for putative 3 'rbcL binding factors (fig. 6A). Besides $B R R$, all other chimeras were expressed, as the BFFF and BBR strains were phototrophic and respectively accumulated the cytochrome $f$ and ATP synthase subunit $\beta$ (Fig. 6C), while the

AKR strtain was, as previously reported (ref), resistant to Spectinomycin. Again 5'processing is not a prerequisite for gene expression.

We determined the 5 'ends of these chimeric mRNAs, either mock or RPP-treated, by cRTPCR (Fig 8B). In all cases, amplicons of the expected size ( 350 bp for the $B F R, B R R$ and $A K R$ chimeric genes, $450-\mathrm{bp}$ for the $B B R$ chimera) were obtained. Additional shorter PCR products, likely corresponding to degradation intermediates were also observed. Sequencing of the amplicons revealed the presence of only a primary 5 'end for the three $\operatorname{atp} B$-driven chimeras in both RPP- and mock-treated samples (Fig 8B, left), as previously observed for the $B K R$ transcript. For all amplicons, 3 'end mapped to position +84 with respect to the $r b c L$ stop codon. Impaired 5 'processing in the presence of the $r b c L$ 3'UTR seems specific to the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime} \mathrm{UTR}$, since, at variance with the $B K R$ transcript, the $A K R$ transcript (Fig 8B, right) harboured a processed 5' end (+36 / TSS; (Viola et al., 2019) in both RPP- and mock-treated samples, while its 3 ' end mapped to position +84 . These results clearly reveal a specific incompatibility between the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR and the $r b c L 3$ 'UTR for the correct 5 ' processing of 5 ' $a t p B$-driven transcripts, even in the presence of MDB1, and irrespective of the CDS between them.

To challenge the role of the rbcL 3'UTR, we constructed the $B K B$ and $B K F$ chimeras made of the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR fused to the $a a d A$ coding sequence, followed by the $a t p B$ or petA 3' UTR (Fig 9A). These chimeras were introduced in the chloroplast genome of the Fud50 recipient strain, downstream of the petA gene. Even in the Fud50 genetic context, the BKB and BKF mRNAs were poorly accumulated, much less than the $B K R$ mRNA (fig. 6) and even almost below detection threshold for the BKF mRNA, but regained accumulation upon lincomycin treatment (Fig. 6B). In untreated cells expressing these $5^{\prime}$ atpB-aadA cassettes, the reduced transcript accumulation, caused by the translation induced cleavage, did not prevent translation, assessed indirectly by the level of resistance of the strains to antibiotics. When plated on TAP medium supplemented with increasing concentrations of spectinomycin and streptomycin, the $\{F u d 50$ BKR \}, $\{F u d 50$ BKF $\}$, $\{F u d 50$ BKB $\}$, and $\left\{F u d 505_{\mathrm{M}} \mathrm{BKB}\right\}$ (see below) strains all grew on antibiotic concentrations as high as $1000 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ of spectinomycin plus $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}$-1 of streptomycin (data not shown). Since poorly expressed aadA cassettes did not allow growth of strains on antibiotic concentrations as low as $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ of spectinomycin plus $7.5 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ of streptomycin (Choquet et al, 1998; Minai et al, 2005), we concluded that all chimeras were efficiently translated, which explains their active degradation.
cRT-PCR of the $B K B$ mRNAs revealed the presence of primary and processed $5^{\prime}$ 'ends in the RPP- and mock-samples respectively (Fig 10C), as already observed for the wild-type atpB gene. The 3' end mapped to position +89 , as in the wild-type. Waiting for Marina's cRT-PCR results.

## $\mathbf{5}^{\prime}$-3' UTR interactions may be involved in maturation of $\boldsymbol{a t p} B$ chimera transcripts

Since $r b c L$ and petA 3 'UTRs respectively affect the 5 ' processing of 5 'atp $B$-driven transcripts, we assessed the role of the $\operatorname{atp} B 3^{\prime}$ UTR in this processes and looked for potential base-pairing between the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ and 3' UTRs. Interestingly, the 5' and 3' UTRs of atpB could base pair over 18 nt with nt 17-27 of the atpB 5'UTR pairing with nt $1-10$ of the $3^{\prime}$ UTR and nt $1-13$ of the $5^{\prime}$ UTR pairing with the 13 -nt just downstream the stem loop in the $3^{\prime}$ UTR, that encompass the $\operatorname{atp} B 3$ 'ends and end just before the endonuclease site mapped by Stern and Kindle, (1993) (Fig 10A). To assess if disruption of this putative secondary structure would impact 5, processing or decrease transcript stability, we mutated nucleotides $+2,+4,+6,+8,+10,+19$ and +20 of the atpB 5'UTR (Fig 10B). The wild-type and mutated 5'UTRs, fused to the $a a d A$ CDS and followed by the $a t p B 3$ 'UTR ( $B K B$ and $5_{\mathrm{M}} B K B$ chimeras respectively) were inserted by transformation in the Fud50 chloroplast genome, downstream of the petA gene.

RNA blot analysis did not evidence a significant decrease in the accumulation of the $5_{M} B K B$ transcript, compared to the $B K B$ mRNA (Fig. 6B). cRT-PCR of the $5_{M} B K B$ mRNA revealed the presence of primary and processed 5 'ends in the RPP- and mock-samples respectively (Fig 10C), as for the BKB and $a t p B$ mRNAs, indicating that this putative secondary structure does not play a significant role in 5 'end maturation. However, at the 3 'end, we observed a different cleavage site of the precursor mRNA: in the $5_{\mathrm{M}}$ BKB RPP sample the 3 'end was found at position +198 with respect to atp $B$ stop codon, $\sim 100-\mathrm{nt}$ downstream of the mature 3'end as mapped here and by Stern (Stern et al, 1991).

Although we do not fully understand the molecular basis for these processing differences, mutations in the atpB 5'UTR alter transcript maturation of 3'ends highlighting some requirement of $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ UTR communication for proper gene expression. Together, our results indicated that lack of 5' processing does not prevent the accumulation and translation of chimeric transcripts, even if different combination of UTRs and CDS induce differences in the mRNA levels, as already documented (many refs).

To our knowledge, the only other example of communication between the 5' and 3' UTRs of a chloroplast gene reported to date concerns the $p s b A$ mRNA. The $p s b A$ 3'UTR, although devoid by itself of affinity for the protein complex that activates $p s b A$ mRNA translation, increases the affinity of this complex for the psbA 5' UTR, when fused in cis to it (Katz and Danon, 2002). In both cases this could provide the basis for a quality control mechanism by favouring correctly processed mRNA over the numerous transcripts that are under degradation and lack a full-length CDS.

## Discussion

In our previous study of the nuclear control of the subunit $\beta$ expression, we identified a nucleus-encoded factor, MDB1, required for the stable accumulation of the $a t p B$ mRNA. Here, we cloned the gene and further characterized the role of its protein product in atpB mRNA stabilisation and processing. MDB1 is an OPR protein, which further illustrates the prevalent role, in C. reinhardtii, of this family of nucleus-encoded helical repeat proteins in the posttranscriptional control of chloroplast gene expression.

## The OPR protein MDB1 stabilises the $\boldsymbol{a t p} \boldsymbol{B} \mathbf{m R N A}$ by targeting its $\mathbf{5}^{\prime} \mathbf{\prime}$ UTR.

When chimeras made of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5$ 'UTR fused to various coding sequences and 3'UTRs (e.g. the BFFF and BKR chimeras) were introduced in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type and $m d b l$ recipient strains, the chimeric mRNAs accumulated in the wild type, but not in the $m d b l$ backgrounds. MDB1, thus, genetically interacts with the 5' UTR of its target gene, as do all M factors studied up to now in Chlamydomonas. RNA immunoprecipitation experiments further showed that it associates in vivo with the atpB 5'UTR. While this method does not allow to discriminate direct or indirect interactions with the $\operatorname{atp} B \mathrm{mRNA}, \mathrm{OPR}$ proteins being RNAbinding proteins, we favour a direct interaction. sRNA-Seq experiments further precise the binding site of MDB1: a small RNA footprint mapping to the first 20 nt of the atpB transcript whose accumulation almost vanishes in $m d b 1$ mutant. A point mutagenesis study (Anthonisen et al 2001) previously identified nucleotides 5-8 and 10-16 within this footprint as critical for the stability of reporter transcript made of the beginning of the atpB 5 'UTR fused to the uidA reporter sequence. Moreover while the $\operatorname{atpB} 5$ 'UTR is generally not conserved through evolution,, neither in sequence nor in length, even between closely related species, two short regions, one just upstream the translation initiation codon and the other surrounding this footprint, are conserved among Chlamydomonadales (Suppl. Fig. S9), further highlighting the role of this specific region. MBB1 by binding to the very 5 ' end of the mature atpB transcript would protect it from the action of $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exonucleases, particularly active in the chloroplast, thereby stabilising it, as do other M factors (Loiselay et al, 2008; Drager et al 1998; Loizeau et al, 201?; Pfalz et al, 2011). However, as also observed in other strains defective for a M factor (Cavaiuolo et al 2017; Wang et al 2015), this footprint was not totally abolished in the mdb1 mutant. This could be due to off-target effects: chloroplasts contain a plethora of helical repeat proteins that, in virtue of their RNA binding properties, may transiently bind sequences similar to
their own target (Hammani et al., 2009), thereby protecting to some extent the footprint of MDB1, even if this interaction is stable enough to significantly to stabilise the whole transcript.

In the absence of MDB1, the $a t p B$ mRNA can also be protected from 5' $\rightarrow$ 3' exoribonucleases by a polyG tract, which generates new 5 ' ends at the 5 ' border of the "G cage", in both wild-type and $m d b l$ strains. In the wild type these pG-mRNA intermediates are more abundant than the full-length mRNA. As other chloroplast-encoded genes (Loiselay et al, 2008), the $a t p B$ gene is transcribed in excess over what can be stabilised by MDB1, and a significant fraction of the newly transcribed transcript is destined to degradation, as shown by the many 3'ends mapping within the $\operatorname{atp} B$ coding sequence in cRT-PCR analysis of the $a t p B \mathrm{mRNA}$ in the wild type (Suppl. Fig S6).

## MDB1 more specifically stabilises the processed form of the atpB mRNA.

Primer extension and cRT-PCR analyses indicated that the mature $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcript is a processed mRNA (this work; (Blowers et al, 1990; Woessner et al, 1986; Anthoninson et al, 2001; Cavaiuolo et al, 2017), whose accumulation depends on MDB1. Low amounts of the primary mRNA were detected in the wild type as in the mutant, while the abundant processed form was only found in the wild type. Similar results were observed with other stabilisation factors e.g. the MBB1 and NAC2 proteins, that respectively control the accumulation of the $p s b B / p s b H$ and $p s b D$ processed mRNAs (Vaistij et al 2000a; Nickelsen et al. 1994).

However, our 5'end mapping experiments of the $B K R, B B R, B R R$ and $B F R$ mRNAs revealed the absence of processing of the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR even in the presence of MDB1. The accumulation of the $B K R$ transcript nevertheless relies on MBD1, while the accumulation of the endogenous precursor transcript is much reduced in the $m d b 1$ mutant, compared to the wild type. The atpB precursor transcript also is thus stabilized by MDB1, whose role in transcript stabilization is not limited to the mature mRNA, but concerns also the precursor.

## A 5'-end-dependent pathway for degrading primary transcript in chloroplast

In these 5'processing defective strains, as in the $m d b l$ mutant, we could detect the precursor transcript by cRT-PCR on mock-treated samples, showing that the triphosphorylated transcription product can be converted in vivo to a monophosphorylated form. Similar results were also obtained for petA (Suppl. fig S8) and rbcL mRNAs (Johnson et al., 2010) in

Chlamydomonas and for some chloroplast and mitochondrial transcripts in Arabidopsis (Kuhn et al., 2005; Zhelyazkova et al., 2012), suggesting that this conversion step is a general feature of organelle gene expression. It could be the first step of a 5 '-end degradation pathway, as observed in bacteria (Richards et al., 2011; Luciano et al., 2012; Foley et al., 2015). In E. coli and B. subtilis, this conversion is carries out by the NUDIX hydrolase RppH (Deana et al., 2008; Richards et al., 2011), in prelude to RNA cleavage by the endonucleases RNaseE and RNaseY, respectively, and subsequent exonucleolytic trimming (Mudd et al., 1990; Shahbabian et al., 2009). mRNA decay triggered by $5^{\prime}$ pyrophosphate removal is functionally similar to mRNA decapping in eukaryotes, which leads to mono-phosphorylated mRNAs degraded by $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exoribonucleases (Muhlrad et al., 1994; Muhlrad and Parker, 1994). In Arabidopsis, 9 of the 28 encoded Nudix hydrolases are predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast. They exhibit pyrophosphohydrolase activity toward various substrates, such as ADP-Ribose, ADP-Glucose, CoA, and NADH but whether one of them can act on triphosphorylated mRNAs is still unknown (Ogawa et al., 2008; Yoshimura and Shigeoka, 2015). Chlamydomonas also contains 26 genes encoding putative Nudix hydrolases, out of which three to six, depending on the prediction software used, could be chloroplast localised. Future work will help elucidate if these and/or other Nudix hydrolases dephosphorylate primary transcripts $5^{\prime}$ ends. However, this pyrophosphatase activity should remain low in Chlamydomonas chloroplast, as several chloroplast transcripts, including some highly abundant (e.g. rbcL, atpH, petA, psaA), are constitutively triphosphorylated (Loiselay et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017)(Ozawa et al, 2020), with only a tiny fraction in a mono-phosphorylated state.

## Impact of 3'UTRs on processing of atpB 5' chimeric mRNAs

In this work, we studied the behaviour, in terms of stability and $5^{\prime}$ processing, of a series of chimera, in which the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR was combined with various coding sequences and 3 ' UTRs and showed that 3 'UTRs can impact the $5^{\prime}$ processing of these chimeric transcripts. The rbcL 3'UTR, in combination with four different coding sequences ( $a t p B$, rbcL, petA, aadA), prevented the processing of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime} \mathrm{UTR}$, but not of the atpA $5^{\prime} \mathrm{UTR}$. Conversely, the petA 3 'UTR still allowed the 5' processing of the $B K F$ and BFFchimeric transcript. Processing defects were specific to 5 'atp $B$-driven chimeras, as the AKR mRNAs were normally processed. We prove here that $5^{\prime}$ processing can be controlled by 3 ' UTR sequences. In eukaryotes as in prokaryotes,
interactions between the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends of a given mRNA are often used for post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression, and govern mRNA stability, translation and degradation (Filbin and Kieft, 2016; De los Mozos et al, 2013). Circularization of the mRNA through physical bridges between $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends can regulate translation in eukaryotes and virus (Gallie, 1998; Filbin and Kieft, 2016). To our knowledge, the only other example of communication between the $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ UTRs of a chloroplast gene reported to date concerns the $p s b A$ mRNA. The $p s b A$ 3'UTR, although devoid by itself of affinity for the protein complex that activates $p s b A$ mRNA translation, increases the affinity of this complex for the $p s b A 5^{\prime}$ UTR, when fused in cis to it (Katz and Danon, 2002). In both cases this could provide the basis for a quality control mechanism by favouring correctly processed mRNA over the (numerous) transcripts undergoing degradation and lacking a full-length CDS.

The different 3 'UTRs in our chimeric mRNAs would change the overall RNA folding of the transcripts in a way that would disrupt or favour the formation of new RNA-RNA interactions that could eventually interfere whit mRNA processing. RNA folding predictions suggested a possible complementarity between the $\operatorname{atpB}$ 5' and 3'UTRs. Mutagenesis of the 5 'UTR sequence involved in this base pairing did not affect 5'processing, but altered the maturation of its 3 'end. The mature 3' end of the atpB mRNA is generated by a two step-process which involves an endonuclease cleavage downstream of a stabilising stem-loop structure followed by 3 ' $\rightarrow 5$ ' trimming up to this stem-loop (Stern and Kindle 1993). The UCA endonuclease target site $\sim 13 \mathrm{bp}$ downstream the stem loop (Stern and Kindle 1993) is partially involved in this putative basepairing (Fig 10A-B). We postulate that the substitutions, by destabilising this structure could prevent or attenuate the activity of the endonuclease.

Both RNA folding predictions and experimental assay revealed the presence of secondary structure in the $5^{\prime}$ UTR of $\operatorname{atpB}$ (Anthonisen et al., 2001). In bacteria, the presence of such hairpin structure at the $5^{\prime}$, ends of mRNA extends the half-life of transcripts by preventing $5^{\prime}$ attacks by RppH and 5'->3' degradation (Emory et al., 1992; Arnold et al., 1998), other ref). Here, sequestering the tri-phosphorylated $5^{\prime}$ end of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA in a secondary structure could possibly render it less accessible to an RppH-like enzyme. Binding of MDB1 could open such terminal structure making the primary 5 'end of $\operatorname{atp} B$ accessible to the nucleolytic attack. Similarly, the $r b c L 3$ 'UTR can base-pair with the processed $a t p B 5$ 'UTR and possibly inhibit
triphosphate removal by an RppH -like enzyme, a prerequisite for $5^{\prime}->3^{\prime}$ for efficient $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ degradation.

## Material and methods

## Strains, growth conditions and crosses.

WT-t222, WT S24, Fud50 (Woessner et al 1984), ), mdbl-thm24 (Drapier et al 1992), mdb1-L35a (Houille-Vernes et al., 2011), L35a.011- +MDB1-HA complemented strain, and transformed strains of Chlamydomonas, all derived from 137 c , were grown at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP) medium ( pH 7.2 ) (Harris, 1989) under continuous low light ( 5 to $10 \mu \mathrm{E}$ $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ). Crosses were performed according to Harris (1989).

## Plasmid constructions and chloroplast transformation

Standard nucleic acids manipulations were performed according to (Sambrook et al., 1989). Details of DNA constructs are provided in the Supplementary Materials section. Primers used in this study are listed in Supplemental Table ST2. All constructs were sequenced before transformation into Chlamydomonas.

## Genomic DNA preparation, whole genome sequencing and data analysis

were performed as in (Boulouis et al., 2015).

## Transformation

Chloroplast transformation was performed by tungsten particle bombardment (Boynton et al., 1988) as described in (Kuras and Wollman, 1994). Transformants were either selected on TAP medium supplemented with spectinomycin ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ ) under continuous low light ( 5 to $\left.10 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}\right)$ or on Minimum medium $\left(60 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}\right)$ for the restoration of phototrophy. They were sub-cloned on selective medium (TAP medium supplemented with $500 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ of spectinomycin in darkness or Minimum medium under $120 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) until they reached homoplasmy, assessed by restriction fragment length polymorphism or sequencing of specific PCR products. At least three independent transformants were analysed for each transformation and proved to be nearly identical.

Nuclear transformation by electroporation was performed as described in Raynaud et al, 2008 using the following electrical parameters: 25 mF and $1000 \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{~cm}^{-1}$. Transformants were selected on Mimimum medium for the restoration of phototrophy.

## RNA extraction and analysis.

Total RNA was extracted from 200 mL cultures ( $2-3 \times 10^{6}$ cells $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) according to (Drapier et al., 1998). For sRNA-Seq and cRT-PCR assays, Arintricarboxylic acid was omitted in the AQE extraction buffer and RNA was subsequently treated with DNAse I (NEB). A fraction of the RNA sample was treated with RNA 5' Polyphosphatase (RPP, Epicentre) to convert 5' triphosphates to mono-phosphorylated 5' ends, then phenol-chloroform extracted. Mock-treated RNA samples went through the same process without addition of the RPP enzyme.
sRNA-Seq datasets were produced and analysed as described in (Cavaiuolo et al, 2017) and deposited in the Short Read Archive (SRA) database under the BioProject PRJNA379963.

For cRT-PCR $10 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of RPP and mock-treated total RNAs were self-ligated using T4 RNA ligase (Fisher Scientific) for 2 h at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, then ethanol precipitated. RNAs were reversetranscribed with Superscript III (Invitrogen) using gene-specific primers ( 2 pmol ). The cDNA was PCR-amplified with Taq PCR Core Kit (Qiagen) or Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific) using outward-directed primers against the 5 ' and 3 ' ends of the transcript. Amplicons were gel purified and sequenced, or eventually cloned into the pCR Blunt-TOPO ${ }^{\mathrm{TM}}$ Vector using the TOPO ${ }^{\mathrm{TM}}$ zero Blunt Cloning Kit (Invitrogen).

Primer extension was performed as described in (Sturm et al., 1994). $15 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of total RNA, mixed with 1.5 pmol of the $5^{\prime 3}{ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$-phosphorylated oligonucleotide, denatured at $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 4 min were then rapidly cooled down in ethanol-dry ice. Reverse transcription was performed at $54^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 min with Avian Myeloblastosis Virus Reverse Transcriptase (AMV RT). After LiCl precipitation, the reaction was run on $5 \%$ sequencing gel alongside a sequencing reaction of the same region.
RNA blots was carried out as described in (Drapier et al., 1998), using PCR-generated DNA probes labeled with digoxigenin (Sigma) or with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$-labeled DNA probes. Probes, if not otherwise specified were prepared by PCR with the oligonucleotides indicated in (Maul et al., 2002).

Ribonuclease protection experiments were performed as described in (Drapier et al., 1992) to determine the 5 'end of $\operatorname{atp} B$ using the 575 bp HindIII/HinfI fragment as a probe ( 5 ' region of $\operatorname{atp} B$ ), while primer extensions were performed on total RNA extracts as in (Sturm et al, 1994).

RNA immunoprecipitation was done according to Boulouis et al, 2011.

## Protein Preparation, Separation, and Analysis

Protein isolation, separation, and immunoblot analyses were performed on exponentially growing cells ( $2-3 \quad 10^{6}$ cells $\cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) as described (Kuras and Wollman, 1994). All immunoblots were repeated at least twice and performed on three independent transformants. Cell extracts, loaded on equal chlorophyll basis, were analysed by SDS-PAGE (12-18\% acrylamide gradients and 8 M urea). At least three biological replicas were performed for each experiment. Proteins were detected by ECL. Primary antibodies, diluted 100,000-fold (antibody cytochrome $f$ ), 50,000-fold (CF1 $\beta$ ), 10 000-fold (OEE2) were revealed by horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibodies against rabbit IgG (Promega). Antibodies against the $\beta$-subunit of F1/CF1, the OEE2 subunit from the photosystem II oxygen-evolving complex, and cytochrome $f$ have been described (de Vitry et al., 1989; Lemaire and Wollman, 1989; Kuras and Wollman, 1994). MDB1-HA was detected by ECL using monoclonal anti HA. 11 (Covance) antibodies, and horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibody against mouse IgG (Promega). Protein accumulation (normalized to that of OEE2, as an internal standards) was, when required, quantified from ChemiTouch (Bio-Rad) scans of the membrane, using the ImageLab (v3.0) software.

## Figure legends

## Figure 1: Structure of the MDB1 gene.

A) The top line shows a schematic map of the MDB1 genomic region on chromosome 14, with the relevant genes models. That encoding an OPR protein is shown in blue. The red rectangle indicates the region deleted in the $\Delta m d b 1-L 35$ mutant strain. The position of the BAC sequences (PTQ4126 Chr14:1039373-1097235 and PTQ4327 Chr14:995949-105714) able to complement the $m d b 1$ mutations are shown as dashed lines. A diagram of the MDB1 gene is shown below, with exons represented as blue boxes. The position of the mutation in the thm 24 strain with respect to the nucleotide sequence is indicated.
B) Schematic representation of the MDB1 protein, with the position of the OPR motives shown as blue arrows. The green rectangle indicate portions of the proteins conserved in other Chlamydomonadaceae algae, while grey rectangles point to region specific to C. reinhardtii. The predicted secondary structure of the protein as determined by Jpred (http://www.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/ipred/) is shown below.

## Figure 2: The $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ UTR is the target of the MDB1 protein.

A) Schematic map of the BFFF and BKR chimeric genes.
B) RNA blot analysis of transcript accumulation among the progeny of BFFF ( $\mathrm{mt}+$ ) or BKR (mt+) crosses with the mdbl-1 (mt-) mutant. Two members of each tetrad lacked the atpB and chimeric mRNAs. The asterisk indicate a co-transcript initiated at the petA promoter that extends up to the rbcL 3'UTR. The petD and petA mRNAs provide loading controls.
C) RNA immunoprecipitation analysis. Schematic representation of the atpB 5'UTR: the position of the transcription start site (TSS) and of the $5^{\prime}$ post-transcriptional processing site (5PTP) are shown. The probe used for dot-blot hybridization is depicted as a blue line from position +27 to 321 of the 5 'UTR. The results from HA-RIP from $m d b 1-2$ ::MDB1-HA and WT cells expressing MDB1 with or without an HA tag respectively are shown on the right. RNA was extracted before (I, input) and after immunoprecipitation with HA-antibodies (P, pellet) and hybridized with the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ UTR probe. Hydridisation with a probe on the atpA $5^{\prime}$ UTR provides a negative control.

## Figure 3: A small RNA mapping to the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ 'end is reduced in the absence of MDB1.

Distribution of small RNAs (11-44-nt) along the atpB gene in mutant strain mdb1-2 (red) compared to the wild type (blue). The horizontal arrow indicates the atpB coding sequence and its orientation on the Cp genome. The vertical arrows point to the position of the mature 5 'end $(+27)$ and transcription start site $(+1)$. The sequence of the small RNA is displayed below. The box marks the region important for transcript stability determined by (Anthonisen et al.) from position +31 to 42 of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR. sRNA-Seq coverage is expressed in reads per million (RPM) and averaged over two biological replicates for each strain.

## Figure 4: Binding of MDB1 to the $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR of $\boldsymbol{a t p} B$ protects from $5^{\prime}>\mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ ' exonucleases

A) Scheme of the $\mathrm{pG}-a t p B$ gene cassette construction. The $\mathrm{pG}(18)$ was inserted 32 nt upstream of the ATG. The pG-atpB was inserted along with a selectable marker cassette, in place of the endogenous $\operatorname{atp} B$. B) pG-atpB mRNA accumulation. Two bands were detected, which correspond to the pG transcript and to a degradation intermediate that accumulate as a result of exoribonuclease activity (scheme is shown on the left, with the polyG cage symbolized by a red hexagon). Samples marked with an asterisc * were subjected to small RNA sequencing. C) Coverage of small RNAs in the wild-type (left) and mutant mdb1-1 strains (right) along the atpBpG 5 'UTR. Vertical arrows point to the 5 'ends at position +1 and +27 . The two horizontal arrows indicate the poly $(\mathrm{G})$ tract and the first 100 nt of the $a t p B$ coding sequence. Coverage is expressed in RPM and averaged over two biological replicates for each strain.

## Figure 5: Determination of $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ 'ends in the wild type and in the $m d b 1-1$ strain.

A) Primer extension analysis. An end-labeled primer was annealed to total RNA from $m d b 1-1$ and wild type and then extended with reverse transcriptase. The extension products were run on a $6 \%$ polyacrylamide/ 8 M urea gel alongside a DNA sequence ladder obtained with the same primer. The positions of the mapped 5 ' ends in WT and mutant are indicated by arrow on the $5^{\prime}$ UTR sequence. In A and B the -10 box of the promoter is underlined.
B) cRT-PCR analysis. Schematic representation of the $a t p B$ gene structure with the position of the primers used: the vertical black arrow indicates the position of the transcription start site; the blue left oriented dashed arrow indicates the primer used for reverse transcription of circularized $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA, while left and right-directed black arrows correspond to the PCR primers. Agarose gels showing the resulting amplicons, with a molecular weight marker on the right. RPP and mock respectively indicate RNA samples treated or not with RPP, to distinguish precursors from processed transcripts. The positions of the mapped $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends in wild type and $m d b 1-1$ along the $5^{\prime}$ UTR or $3^{\prime}$ UTR sequences are indicated with arrows on the right panel (for the 3' end, nucleotides are numbered from the last nucleotide of the stop codon). The 3'ends of $a t p B$ are underlined (Stern et al, 1991).

## Figure 6: Expression of chimeric transcripts.

A) Accumulation of the chimeric mRNA assessed by RNA blots

Total RNAs from the indicated strains were hybridized with probes specific to the $a t p B 5^{\prime}$ UTR, or the $a a d A, r b c L$ and petA coding sequences. For the three blots the nucleusencoded cblp2 transcript provides a loading control. Histograms indicate mRNA levels of 5'atpB chimera, $r b c L$ and petA as ratio of the amount of RNA in mutant or chimeric strains over that observed in the wild type (both amount being normalised to the accumulation of the cblp2 transcript to correct for variations in loading).
B) Accumulation of the chimeric aadA transcripts is affected by the translation of the mRNA.

Total RNA of the indicated strains, treated (+) or not (-) with lincomycin for 4 hr , were hybridised with the probes indicated on the left. The position of the chimeric transcript cleavage products $(*$ and $\diamond)$ is indicated. The red asterisk * points to a transcript recognised by the petA probe initiated at the petA promoter and ending at the $y c f 2$ 3'UTR, included in the promoter and $5^{\prime}$ UTR fragment of atpB. The AKR strain, expressing a $5^{\prime} a t p A-a a d A-3^{\prime} r b c L$ cassette, was included as a control to show that the translation-induced cleavage of the chimeric mRNA does not depend on the $a t p B 5$ 'UTR but on the $a a d A$ CDS. The vertical line separates non-contiguous lanes of the same gel, in order to remove irrelevant intervening samples.
C) Accumulation of the translation products of the $B F F, B F R$ and $B R R$ chimeric genes.

Whole cell proteins extracts from the indicated strains were separated by electrophoresis, blotted on nitrocellulose membrane and immuno-decorated with antibodies against the proteins indicated on the left. Three independent transformants are shown for each chimeric context. The OEE2 subunit of PSII and the Ponceau red staining of the membrane provide loading controls.

## Figure 7: Determination of the $5^{\prime}$ '- and $3^{\prime}$ ends of the BFR, BBR, BRR and AKR chimeric transcripts.

A) Schematic representation of the chimeras with the positions of the primers used for cRTPCR. Dashed arrows shows the primers used for reverse transcription of the circularized RNAs. Same conventions than in Fig. 2A. The position of the insertion of the recycling 5'psaA-aadA3 'rbcL cassette is shown, with an arrow indicating the sense of transcription. For the $B B R$ chimera the thick arrow represents the inverted repeat. Bs: BseRI, E: EcoRI; X: XhoI; K: KpnI; RV: EcoRV.
B) cRT-PCR results. See Fig.5C for details

## Figure 8: Determination of the ends of the $B K F$ chimeric transcripts.

Schematic representation of the chimeric gene structure and cRT-PCR results of BKF in A and AFFF in B. See Fig.5C for details.

## Figure 9: Putative RNA:RNA interactions between the 5'UTR and 3'UTR of atpB.

A) RNA secondary structure predictions of the 5 ' $a t p B-3$ ' $a t p B$ UTR pair. The positions of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ 5'ends are indicated by arrows. The endonuclease cleavage sites detected by (Stern and Kindle 1993) are highlighted by a pink rectangle and black arrows point to the 3 'ends mapped by (Stern 1991). The grey arrow indicates the major 3'end mapped in this study.
B) Schematic representation of the chimeric gene structure BKB and $5^{\prime}$ BKB and primer used for cRT-PCR. The individual single base changes introduced into the $5^{\prime}$ UTR sequence of the 5 'BKB are shown in red.
C) cRT-PCR results. See Fig.5C for details

## Supplemental Material:

Supplementary Methods: DNA constructs

## Supplementary Figures:

Suppl. Fig. S1: complementation of the mdb1 mutants by either BACs or midigene
Suppl. Fig. S2: The OPR repeats within MDB1
Suppl. Fig S3: Conservation of MDB1 among Chlamydomonadales.
Suppl; fig. S4: S1 mapping of the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ 'ends in the wild-type and mdb1-1 strains.
Suppl. Fig. S5: Sequence analysis of the RPP-treated sample from wild type.
Suppl. Fig. S6: Alternative determination of the $a t p B 5$ ' end by cRT-PCR.
Suppl. Fig. S7: Characterisation of the BRR transformants
Suppl. Fig S8: Determination of petA 5' and 3' ends in the Fud50 strain.
Suppl. Fig S9: Conservation of the MDB1 binding site among Chlamydomonadales

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Table I: chimeras used in that work:

| Name of the chimera | $5^{\prime}$ UTR | CDS | $3^{\prime}$ UTR | Insertion locus | ref |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A K R$ | atpA | aadA | rbcL | petA (EcoRV) | 1 |
| $p G a t p B$ | $a t p B(p G)$ | atpB | atpB | atpB | This work |
| $B F F F$ | $a t p B$ | petA | petA | petA | 2 |
| $B F R$ | $a t p B$ | petA | rbcL | petA | This work |
| $B R R$ | $a t p B$ | rbcL | rbcL | rbcL | This work |
| $B B R$ | atpB | atpB | rbcL | atpB | This work |
| $B K R$ | atpB | aadA | rbcL | petA (EcoRV) | 3 |
| $B K F$ | atpB | aadA | petA | petA (EcoRV) | This work |
| $B K B$ | atpB | aadA | atpB | petA (EcoRV) | This work |
| $5_{M} B K B$ | ${ }^{\prime}$ atpB | aadA | atpB | petA (EcoRV) | This work |

1: Kuras et al, 1997 ; 2: Drapier et al, 2008; 3: Rimbault et al, 2000

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Figure 1. Structure of the MDB1 gene.
A) The top line shows a schematic map of the MDB1 genomic region on chromosome 14, with the relevant genes models. That encoding an OPR protein is shown in blue. The red rectangle indicates the region deleted in the $\triangle m d b 1-L 35$ mutant strain. The position of the BAC sequences (PTQ4126 Chr14:1039373-1097235 and PTQ4327 Chr14:995949-105714) able to complement the mdb1 mutations are shown as dashed lines. A diagram of the MDB1 gene is shown below, with exons represented as blue boxes. The position of the mutation in the thm 24 strain with respect to the nucleotide sequence is indicated.
B) Schematic representation of the MDB1 protein, with the position of the OPR motives shown as blue arrows. The green rectangle indicate portions of the proteins conserved in other Chlamydomonadaceae algae, while grey rectangles point to region specific to $C$. reinhardtii. The predicted secondary structure of the protein as determined by Jpred (http://www.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/ipred/) is shown below.

Figure 2
A


Figure 2. The $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime} U T R$ is the target of the MDB1 protein.
A) Schematic map of the BFFF and BKR chimeric genes. Thick rectangle symbolizes the coding sequences, thins rectangles the UTRs. Bent arrows represents promotters. Relevant restriction sites are indicated (RV: EcoRV)
B) RNA blot analysis of transcript accumulation among the progeny of BFFF ( $\mathrm{mt}+$ ) or BKR ( $\mathrm{mt}+$ ) crosses with the mdb1-1 ( mt -) mutant. Two members of each tetrad lacked the $\operatorname{atp} B$ and chimeric mRNAs. The asterisk indicate a co-transcript initiated at the petA promoter that extends up to the rbcL 3'UTR. The petD and petA mRNAs provide loading controls.
C) RNA immunoprecipitation analysis. Schematic representation of the atpB 5 'UTR: the position of the transcription start site (TSS) and of the 5 ' posttranscriptional processing site (5PTP) are shown. The probe used for dot-blot hybridization is depicted as a blue line from position +27 to 321 of the 5 'UTR. The results from HA-RIP from mdb1-2 ::MDB1-HA and WT cells expressing MDB1 with or without an HA tag respectively are shown on the right. RNA was extracted before (I, input) and after immunoprecipitation with HA-antibodies ( P , pellet) and hybridized with the atpB 5 'UTR probe. Hydridisation with a probe on the atpA 5'UTR provides a negative control.



Figure 3. A small RNA mapping to the $\operatorname{atp} B 5$ 'end is reduced in the absence of MDB1.
Distribution of small RNAs (11-44-nt) along the $a t p B$ gene in mutant strain $m d b l-2$ (red) compared to the wild type (blue). The horizontal arrow indicates the $a t p B$ coding sequence and its orientation on the Cp genome. The vertical arrows point to the position of the mature 5 'end $(+27)$ and transcription start site $(+1)$. The sequence of the small RNA is displayed below. The box marks the region important for transcript stability determined by (Anthonisen et al.) from position +31 to 42 of the atpB 5' UTR. sRNA-Seq coverage is expressed in reads per million (RPM) and averaged over two biological replicates for each strain.

c


Figure 4. Binding of MDB1 to the $5^{\prime}$ UTR of atpB protects from $5^{\prime}>3^{\prime}$ exonucleases
A) Scheme of the $\mathrm{pG}-a t p B$ gene cassette construction. The $\mathrm{pG}(18)$ was inserted 32 nt upstream of the ATG. The pG-atp $B$ was inserted along with a selectable marker cassette, in place of the endogenous $a t p B$. B) pG- $a t p B$ mRNA accumulation. Two bands were detected, which correspond to the pG transcript and to a degradation intermediate that accumulate as a result of exoribonuclease activity (scheme is shown on the left, with the polyG cage symbolized by a red hexagon). Samples marked with an asterisc * were subjected to small RNA sequencing. C) Coverage of small RNAs in the wild-type (left) and mutant mdb1-1 strains (right) along the atpB-pG 5'UTR. Vertical arrows point to the 5 'ends at position +1 and +27 . The two horizontal arrows indicate the poly( G$)$ tract and the first 100 nt of the $a t p B$ coding sequence. Coverage is expressed in RPM and averaged over two biological replicates for each strain.

## Figure 5



Figure 5: Determination of $a t p B$ 5'ends in the wild type and in the $m d b 1-1$ strain.
A) Primer extension analysis. An end-labeled primer was annealed to total RNA from $m d b 1-1$ and wild type and then extended with reverse transcriptase. The extension products were run on a $6 \%$ polyacrylamide $/ 8 \mathrm{M}$ urea gel alongside a DNA sequence ladder obtained with the same primer. The positions of the mapped 5 ' ends in WT and mutant are indicated by arrow on the 5 'UTR sequence. In A and B the -10 box of the promoter is underlined.
B) cRT-PCR analysis. Schematic representation of the $a t p B$ gene structure with the position of the primers used: the vertical black arrow indicates the position of the transcription start site; the blue left oriented dashed arrow indicates the primer used for reverse transcription of circularized atp $B$ mRNA, while left and right-directed black arrows correspond to the PCR primers. Agarose gels showing the resulting amplicons, with a molecular weight marker on the right. RPP and mock respectively indicate RNA samples treated or not with RPP, to distinguish precursors from processed transcripts. The positions of the mapped $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ ends in wild type and $m d b 1-1$ along the $5^{\prime}$ UTR or $3^{\prime}$ UTR sequences are indicated with arrows on the right panel (for the 3' end, nucleotides are numbered from the last nucleotide of the stop codon). The 3'ends of atpB are underlined (Stern et al, 1991).

Figure 6A
A

B


Fig. 6: Accumulation of chimeric transcripts assessed by RNA blots. Total RNAs were separated on a $1.2 \%$ agarose-formaldehyde gel were hybridized with probes specific to the atpB 5'UTR, or the aadA, rbcL and petA coding sequences. For the three blots the nucleus-encoded $c \beta l p 2$ transcript provides a loading control. Histrograms indicate mRNA levels of 5 'atp $B$ chimera, $r b c L$ and $p e t A$ as ratio of the mutant /chimeric strains versus WT after normalisation to the accumulation of the $\mathrm{c} \beta \mathrm{lo} 2$ transcrint.
Linco:




Figure 6B: Accumulation of the chimeric aadA transcripts is affected by the translation of the mRNA.
Total RNA of the indicated strains, treated $(+)$ or not $(-)$ with lincomycin for 4 hr , were hybridised with the probes indicated on the left. The position of the chimeric transcript cleavage products (* and $\diamond$ ) is indicated. the red asterisk * points to a transcript initiated at the petA promoter and terminated at the $y c f 23^{\prime} \mathrm{UTR}$, included in the promoter and $5^{\prime}$ UTR fragment of atpB. The AKR strain, expressing a $5^{\prime}$ atpA-aadA- $3^{\prime} r b c L$ cassette, was included to shown that the translation-induced cleavage of the chimeric mRNA does not depend on the atpB 5'UTR but on the aadA CDS. The vertical line separates non contiguous lanes of the same gel, in order to remove irrelevant intervening samples.

Figure 6C


Figure 6C: Accumulation of the translation products of the chimeric genes.
Whole cell proteins extracts from the indicated strains were separated by electrophoresis, blotted on nitrocellulose membrane and immuno-decorated with antibodies against the proteins indicated on the left. Three independent transformants are shown for each chimeric context.

## A




5'UTR atpA


Figure 7: Determination of the 5'- and 3 -ends of the $B F R, B B R, B R R$ and $A K R$ chimeric transcripts:.
A) Schematic representation of the chimeras with the positions of the primers used for cRT-PCR. Dashed arrows shows the primers used for reverse transcription of the circularized RNAs. Same conventions than in Fig. 2A. The position of the insertion of the recycling 5'psaA-aadA-3'rbcL cassette is shown, with an arrow indicating the sense of transcription. For the BBR chimera the thick arrow represents the inverted repeat. Bs: BseRI, E: EcoRI; X: Xhol; K: Kpnl; RV: EcoRV.
B) cRT-PCR results. See Fig.5C for details

## To be done

Figure 8. Determination of the 5' and 3'ends of the BKF chimeric transcript.
Schematic representation of the chimeric gene structure and cRT-PCR results of BKF. See Fig.3C for details.


Figure 9. Putative RNA:RNA interactions between the 5'UTR and 3'UTR of atpB.
A) RNA secondary structure predictions of the 5'atpB-3'atpB UTR pair. The positions of the atpB 5'ends are indicated by arrows. The endonuclease cleavage sites detected by (Stern and Kindle 1993) are highlighted by a pink rectangle and black arrows point to the 3'ends mapped by (Stern 1991). The grey arrow indicates the major 3'end mapped in this study.
B) Schematic representation of the chimeric gene structure BKB and 5' BKB and primer used for cRT-PCR. The individual single base changes introduced into the 5' UTR sequence of the 5'BKB are shown in red.
C) cRT-PCR results. See Fig.3C for details

## Supplemental Materials

## Supplementary Methods

## DNA constructs

Plasmids AFFF (Choquet et al, 1998), AKR, BKR and BFFF have been already described. AKR, BKR and BFFF were respectively called pWFA in (Kuras et al., 1997), pKdBrf in (Drapier et al., 2007) and pWFB ATG123 in (Rimbault et al., 2000).

## Construction of chimeras:

BKB: To construct the BKB plasmid ( $5^{\prime}$ 'atpB-aadA-3'atpB) a PCR fragment was amplified from the template plasmid pcp270 (Rochaix, 1978) encompassing the whole atpG gene with primers atpB3'cod and atpB3'REV, digested with PstI and XbaI and colned into vector pWFB ATG123 (Rimbault et al., 2000) digested with the same enzymes to yield plasmid pWFAUG123B3'. Vector pWFB ATG123 was digested with NotI and the 1985 bp fragment (encompassing the sequences downstram of the petA gene up the the vector polylinker) was cloned into plasmid pWFBAUG123 linearized with NotI. This yield, after checking the right orientation of the insert, plasmid pBKB .

BFR: The pBFR plasmid ( 5 'atpB-petA-3'rbcL) was created by a two-step megaprime PCR procedure (Higuchi, 1990): two pairs of primers, petA_FW1/petA_RV and rbcL_FW1/rbcL_RV, were used to amplify two partially overlapping fragments from templates pWF (Kuras and Wollman, 1994) and pBKR respectively. Amplicons were mixed and used as templates in a third PCR with the external primers petA_FW1 and rbcL_RV. The final amplicon was digested by BsrGI and StuI, and cloned into plasmid pBFFF digested with the same enzymes.

BKF: The pBKF plasmid ( $5^{\prime}$ atpB-aadA-3'petA) was created by cloning a 386 -bp PstIBamHI fragment amplified from plasmid pWF (Kuras and Wollman, 1994) with primers petA_FW2/petA_RV2 into vector pBKB, digested by PstI and BamHI.
$\mathbf{5}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B K} \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{B}$ : The p 5 mBKB plasmid ( 5 matpB -aadA-3'atpB) was constructed by a two-step megaprime PCR strategy from template plasmid pBKB with primer pairs petA_FW1/5B_RV1 and 5B_FW1/dBExt_RV. The 978-bp amplicon resulting from the final PCR was digested with EcoRI and BseRI and cloned into vector pBKB digested by the same enzymes to create plasmid p5mBKB.

BRR: To generate the pBMet2R plasmid, the $\operatorname{atpB}$ promoter and 5'UTR regions was first fused to part of rbcL CDS sequence by overlapping PCR using the following primers: AtpBPromPmlSmaI.F/atpB-rbcL b.R and atpB-rbcL b.F/RbcL EcoNI.R, using the pWBKB1
and R15 Bam plasmid templates with the Phusion Taq polymerase (NEB) for the first PCR reactions. The resulting 814 bp fragment was further amplified using the IP-atpB Prom.F and IP-rbcL EcoNI primers, and assembled into the R15 backbone (carrying a 4.4 kb region encompassing the $r b c L$ gene and its flanking sequences), previously amplified by the IP-R15 BseRI.R and IP-R15 EcoNI.F2 primers using the In-Fusion PCR Cloning kit (Clontech). Insertion of the recycling $5^{\prime} p s a A-a a d A-3^{\prime}$ atpB cassette (a KpnI-SacI blunted fragment of the paAXdB plasmid described in Wietrzynski et al., in preparation) was then inserted at the BseRI restriction site, yielding the pKrBRRR plasmid in which the aadA marker is in opposite orientation compared to $r b c L$.
$\boldsymbol{B B R}$ : To construct the pBBR plasmid ( $5^{\prime}$ atpB-atpB-3'rbcL) a 741 bp fragment (containing the last 505 bp of the $a t p B$ coding sequence and the $r b c L 3^{\prime}$ UTR) flanked by the ClaI and KpnI sites at the $5^{\prime}$ and 3' ends respectively, was synthetized by Genescript and cloned into the p112 vector (Woessner et al., 1986), digested with the same enzymes.. The resulting plasmid was digested with SacI and XhoI to insert a 5'psaA-driven recycling resistance cassette excised with the same enzyme from plasmid p 5 ' ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{AA}-\mathrm{aadA}_{485}$ (Boulouis et al., 2015).
$\boldsymbol{a t p B}-\boldsymbol{p o l y} \boldsymbol{G}$ : To construct plasmid patpB-pG, plasmid patpB-EP1.8 (An EcoRI-PstI fragment of the chloroplast genome of 1.8 kb encompassing the atpB 5'region, sub-cloned into PUC XX), was digested by StyI which cuts 27 bp upstream of the $a t p B$ translation initiation codon. It was ligated with annealed oligonucleotides DatpBG and RatpBG. The 1737 bp EcoRIClaI fragment of plasmid pDAAD (Rott et al., 1996) was then replaced by the EcoRI-ClaI fragment of patpB-pG containing the 18 guanosine $G$ stretch to yield plasmid pDAADG, which also contains a 5'petD-aadA-3'rbcL selection marker inserted into the first KpnI site downstream of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ gene.

MDB1 minigene: We recovered from the Kazusa DNA Research Institute an EST clone (AV644102) for gene model Cre14.g614550. Sequencing of the clone confirmed the structure of the gene as shown on the Phytozome 12 browser (V56.5), but revealed that the clone lacked the first 2 exons and part of the third exon. To get a minigene version of the MDB1 gene, cosmid PTQ4126 was digested with SbfI and the 4419 bp fragment was cloned into the AV644102 EST clone digested with the same enzyme. After verification of the correct orientation of the cloned fragment, the resulting plasmid was digested with BamH1 and AclI, filled with Klenow and religated on itself to yield pMiniMDB1 that contains 1287 bp upstream of the translation initiation codon.

Tagged version of the MDB1 gene: To allow the immune-detection of the MDB1 protein, a HA-tag was inserted after codon 95 , in a coil region highly variable among species.

A PCR fragment was amplified using a two steps Megaprime procedure with the external primers MDB1XFW and MDB1XRV and the mutagenic primers MDB1_HA_FW and MDB1_HA_RV. The resulting 1578 bp amplicon was digested with BstEII and SbfI and cloned into plasmid pMiniMDB1digested with the same enzymes to create plasmid pMDB1-HA.

## Legends of Supplementary Figures:

Suppl. Fig. S1: complementation of the mdb1 mutants by either BACs or minigene
A) Structure of the midigene
B) Complementation of the $m d b 1$ mutants by BACs (left, $m d b 1-2$ panel, right $m d b 1-1$ ) or by the minigene restores the accumulation of the $a t p B m R N A$ and of the b subunit of chloroplast ATP synthase. The b subunit of the mitochondrial ATP synthase and the petD mRNA provide the respective loading controls.

Suppl. Fig. S2: The OPR repeats within MDB1
Alignment of the OPR repeats with the residues obeying the OPR consensus highlighted in grey.

Suppl fig. S3: S1 mapping of the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ ends in the wild-type and mdb1-1 strains.

Suppl. Fig. S4: Conservation of MDB1 among Chlamydomonadales
DNA regions encoding MDB1 orthologues were retrieved from the NCBI database by TBLASTN searches, using CrMDB1 as a query. Gene models were then predicted with the GreenGenie2 software (http://stormo.wustl.edu/GreenGenie2/; (Kwan et al., 2009)) and manually edited to include missing obvious regions of similarity, if required. Alignment of MTHI1 orthologues was performed with the MUSCLE software using default options and manually edited to improve the alignment. The position OPR repeats of the protein from $C$. reinhardtii are shown above the alignments. In the sequence from C. reinhardtii, residues highlighted in yellow were replaced by the HA tag. Additional OPR repeats found in the species-specific insertions are highlighted in yellow or green. Residues conserved in more than half of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Cheus: Chlamydomonas eustigma; Chchl: Chlamydoimonas chlamydogama; ; Cheur: Chlamydomonas euryale; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Chsp3 Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 3112; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3; EuspN: Eudorina sp. 2006-703-Eu-15; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Vocar: Volvox carteri; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Duter: Dunaliella tertiolecta; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca.

Suppl. Fig. S5: Sequence analysis of the RPP-treated sample from wild type.
The position of the matured (5PTE) and precursor 5'end of the $a t p B$ mRNA are shown. The poor resolution of the sequence downstream of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ precursor mRNA 5' end suggests heterogeneity of the $\operatorname{atp} B 3$ 'end.

Suppl. Fig. S6: Alternative determination of the $\operatorname{atp} B 5^{\prime}$ end by cRT-PCR.
A) Schematic representation of the two PCR strategies. The position of the various primers used are shown. The red segment at the beginning of the $a t p B \mathrm{mRNA}$ represents the processed part of the transcript, only found in the precursor transcript. A hypothetical atpB transcript under degradation is also shown by a blue dot. It doesn't contribute to the final amplicon with the classical cRT-PCR strategy (left), but it does with the second cRT-PCR strategy (right).
B) Agarose gels showing the amplicons resulting from the second cRT-PCR strategy, with a molecular weight marker on the right. RPP and mock respectively indicate RNA samples treated or not with RPP, to distinguish precursors from processed transcripts. The band used for cloning experiment is shown as a red rectangle.
C) Schematic representation of the results from the sequence analysis of the 20 clones (details in Suppl. Table ST2). A red segment at the 5'end of the atpB mRNA indicates a precursor transcript, while a blue segment at the 3 'end of the transcript symbolizes the presence of a polyA tail. The left part shows the contribution of the clones to the amplicon in the two cRT-PCR strategies. In the classical strategy, 7 clones ( 6 precursors and one processed) would have contributed to the final amplicon, a proportion explaining why its sequence revealed only the precursor form. In the second strategy, 11 precursor and 9 processed transcripts participate to the final amplicon. In the primer extension experiment, one can expect many more partially degraded $a t p B$ mRNA to contribute to the extension product (all those whose 3 'end lies between the primers used for reverse transcription and primer extension - primer PE, above the $a t p B$ transcript-), resulting in a high representation of the processed form.

## Suppl. Fig. S7: Characterization of the BRR transformants

A) Accumulation of Rubisco LSU subunit in the BRR transformants compared to a dilution series of wild-type proteins. Cytochrome f accumulation is shown as loading control. DR is a strain bearing a deletion of the chloroplast $r b c L$ gene.
B) rbcL RNA accumulation in the BRR transformants compared to WT strain. psaB hybridization and ethidium bromide stained gel provide loading controls.

Suppl. Fig S8: Determination of petA 5'ends in the Fud50 strain.

Supplemental Fig. S9: Conservation of the MDB1 target in atpB 5'UTRs.
A) Alignment of atpB 5'UTRs

Available chloroplast genomes of Chlorophyceae were scanned for occurrences of the putative MDB1 binding site AAATAAGNGTTAG. In the reported species this sequence was found in the intergenic region upstream of atpB (and almost always only here), at a variable distance (ranging from 152 in Dunaliella salina to 1468 in Palmellopsis texensis; mean size 550) from the translation initiation codon. Sequences were aligned with the MUSCLE software, using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than half sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. A putative - 10 Pribnow box found upstream of the putative MDB1 binding site in some species is written in bold and underlined. It was always found at more than 10 nt of the MDB1 binding site, suggesting that the mature $a t p B$ mRNA is a processed transcript in these species as well.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostrac; Voafr: Volvox africanus; Chacu: Chariaciochoris aciminata; Chtat: Chlorococcum tatrense; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Phlen: Phacotus lenticularis; Plsta: Pleodorina starrii; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Eu_sp: Eudorina sp.; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; ChspU: Chlamydomonas sp. UWO 241; Botex: Borodinellopsis texensis; Loseg: Lobochlamys segnis; Mimon: Micronegla monida; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp3212; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Chsti: Chlorosarcina stigmatica; Prbot: Protosiphon botryoides; Chper: Chloromonas perforata; patex: Palmellopsis texensis.
All species belong to the Chlamydomonadale order.

Supplemental Table ST2: The ends of the clone circularized atpB transcripts from Suppl. Fig S6

| Clone number | $5^{\prime}$ end/TSS | $3^{\prime}$ end/TSS | length | Remarks |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 1 | +27 | +1448 | 1065 |  |
| 2 | +3 | +1905 | 1522 |  |
| 3 | +3 | +1602 | 1219 |  |
| 4 | +27 | +1314 | 931 |  |
| 5 | +27 | +1465 | 1082 | polyadenylated |
| 6 | +27 | +1293 | 910 | polyadenylated |
| 7 | +1 | +1905 | 1522 |  |
| 8 | +27 | +1570 | 1187 |  |
| 9 | +1 | +1397 | 1014 |  |
| 10 | +27 | +1905 | 1522 |  |
| 11 | +1 | +1330 | 947 |  |
| 12 | +27 | +1396 | 1013 | polyadenylated |
| 13 | +1 | +1927 | 1544 |  |
| 14 | +1 | +1330 | 947 |  |
| 15 | +1 | +1886 | 1503 |  |
| 16 | +27 | +1502 | 1119 |  |
| 17 | +1 | +1905 | 1522 |  |
| 18 | +1 | +1697 | 1314 |  |
| 19 | +27 | +1192 | 809 |  |
| 20 | +1 | +1386 | 1003 |  |

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## Cavaiuolo et al, Suppl. Fig. S1



Suppl. Fig. S1: complementation of the mdb1 mutants by either BACs or minigene
A) Structure of the midigene
B) Complementation of the mdb1 mutants by BACs (left, mdb1-2 panel, right mdb1-1) or by the minigene restores the accumulation of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ mRNA and of the $\beta$ subunit of chloroplast ATP synthase. The $\beta$ subunit of the mitochondrial ATP synthase and the petD mRNA provide the respective loading controls.

Cavaiuolo et al, Suppl. Fig. S2
3

```
VYHSCAALSRVLALHRRGLs-- PrESRLFKEGCSTLQSVLR
ELHPRAVVVAAYSLARLEL----PDRELLAGLAAAVEPQLP
ALQPRGLASLLWAFARQGHq---PPPKWMDAFLSCCAAELP
RFAPREVSTLLWGLARLHYk---VAPARLRQLLEHSQAQMG
SFCGRSLSNVVYSLALSQQh---PGEEWLAAAQARAVALGP
AFSPQGLTQMAWGLAKLGCp-- - PTSALLDMVCAHAAARLP
PYNGLDLSTLMYALGSWGAq---PRPEVGRRLLLALEWELP
RLEANQLCNCVWACARLRLY---PSRSWLRDFYDASYRQLP
YFKPVDLSQSLWALARLGAa---PPEAWLGGALNRLQHTAS
MFSPVEVANTMWALAKMGVrgerLPAEVLALFFIATDRRLS
SFKPQELCSMVWALAHMRRr---PDKEWTAEFLKVTYHKLG
SMSGWCLATLAWSLAELQLS-- -PPPAWTYSFVNAARALAE
QPPPPAAAAPTSALHQPGAe---PPLRSLRDLSPSASASPS
```

Suppl. Fig. S2: The OPR repeats within MDB1
Alignment of the OPR repeats with the residues obeying the OPR consensus highlighted in grey.


Suppl fig. S4: S1 mapping of the atpB 5'ends in the wild-type and mdb1-1 strains.

## Suppl. Fig. S4: Conservation of MDB1 among Chlamydomonadales

Chzof Chasy Cheus Chchl Cheur Tesoc Chsph Gopec CHSP3 Chdeb ChspW EuspN Chrei Vocar Yauni Dusal Dtert Cappl Chlei cons.

Chzof Chasy Cheus Chchl Cheur Tesoc Chsph Gopec CHSP3 Chdeb ChspW EuspN Chrei Vocar Yauni Dusal Dtert Cappl Chlei cons.


Chzof Chzof Chasy Cheus Chchl Cheur Tesoc Chsph Gopec CHSP3 Chdeb ChspW EuspN Chrei Vocar Yauni
Dusal
Dtert
Cappl
Chlei cons.

Chzof
Chasy
Cheus
Chchl
Cheur
Tesoc
Chsph
Gopec
CHSP 3
Chdeb
ChspW
EuspN
Chrei
Vocar
Yauni
Dusal
Dtert
Cappl
Chlei
cons.
--------------------------QQGTQQPAAQGSRSRPPAAIRPQHDGKFQRRLTAKIKHAKDLYAIRELMHIHEGCLNHIHVNAIITHVAQLADSR-QLRP--

## $/ / \quad \rightarrow \quad$ OPR1 $\quad \rightarrow \quad \rightarrow \leftarrow \quad / /$

 136 MQLLPALL-PSILDLVVQQI - - PNY---DRSIANTLHALARLELEERALVSKLLAAAEPLLQTFSSQGLANTAWALAKMSYVPSSGICGLLFTMSGYHMVHFNPQE--- 237 ARLLYNTV-PRVMALVRSLAAAGAL--DTRSIPQTAYLLARLDMYDREAIAALEAAAEPLMGAMAPPGLASLLWALAKLDHAPPARWMEALITAAFIKLQSFKPKE---144 ARVASSRVLPALITRAKENL--PRL--QARSLATVAHCVGAYEYKDKELMAELAKISEQEFANFQPQGLSNLIWSFARLEVQPSQRWMDAFLQACVSSLGTFKPQE---127 ARIISSQTIPNLITLVRPRV--QEL--NARAVSTVAHCLGVVEHRDRDLMSDLGQRAEAIMADFTTQGLANTIWGFAKVGVQPSARWMDSFLGMVHTKLHDFRPQE----
 226 SRLFRDGC-SAMQAILRRQL--PEL--SPRCVVVAAHCLAKLQLADRELLPGLAAAVEDQLSLLQPQGLVSLLWSFAAQGHPPSPRWMQLALGTAMGRLGAYSPAD---269 ARLFKEGC-SAVQSALRRLV--GEL--EPRSVVAVAYGLARLELPDRELLAGLLEASQQQLSKMKPQGLASLLWSFSRLNVQPPAKWMDAFLSACASELDGFGPRD---185 ARLFKEGC-SALQGVLRRQLQQSEL--HPRAVVVAAHSLAKLELPDRELLAGLAGAVEPQLHVLQAQGLSSLLWSFARQGHQPPPRWMESFLACCAADLPAFAPHH---228 ARLFKEGC-STLQTVLRRQV--PDL--SPRAIVVAAHALAKLELPDRELLPALAAAVEPQLRALQPQGLSTLLWAFAAQGHQPPPKWMDSYLAAAAATLPGWGDRD---228 ARLFKEGC-STLQTVLRRQV--PDL--SPRAIVVAAHALAKLELPDRELLPALAAAVEPQLRALQPQGLSTLLWAFAAQGHQPPPKWMDSYLAAAAATLPGWGDRD---307 SRLFKEGC-STLQAIMRRQL--PEL--QPRALVVAAYSLARLELPDRELLAGLASATEPHLSALKPQGLCSLLWAFARQNHQPSPKWMDGALSACAADLDAFAPRD---306 SRLFKEGC-STLQSVLRRQL--TEL--HPRAVVVAAYSLARLELPDRELLAGLAAAVEPQLPALQPRGLASLLWAFARQGHQPPPKWMDAFLSCCAAELPRFAPRE---258 SRLFKEGC-SMLQTILRRQV--SEL--QPRALVVAAYSLARLELPDRELLGGLAAAVEPHLSALQPQGLSSLLWAFARQSHQPSPKWMDALLSAAAADLATFSPRD---227 SRLFKEGC-STMQTILRRQL--PEL--QPRAVVMAAYSLARLELPDRELLAGLAAAVEPHLSALKPQGLSSLIWAFARQGHQPSPKWMDALLSAVAADLEAFGPRD---168 ARMITGALLPLLTSELQALM--PNLANQPRVVASIAHSLGCLDVRDRDLLGGLAALAQGCMPEMSTQGLSNILWAFARCEYQPSAGWMSAYVCACRARIASFRPQE---169 ARMITGALLPLLTSELQTLM--PDLANQPRVVTSIAHSLGCLDVRDRDLLGGLAALAQGCMPELSTQGLANILWAFARCEYQPSAGWMSAYVCACRARIAAFRPQE---210 ARVVTGQILPLLLAEVRNMM--QLL--QPRAIATIVYSLGSLDVRDRELLVELAQRAEPQLADFTTQGLSNMLWAFARCGYQPPARWMDGFVTVVHAKRTRLAPQE---154 SRIISGQILPLLVSDVRNRM--ALF--KARGVATVAHALGSLDVRDKELFSSLASQAERQLPDFTPQGLSNMLWAFARCGYQPPTRWMDAYVSTCHAKLAQFGXAGAVHS 331 arl r gc l tllr qi el prai ah larlel drellaalaaa ep l m pqgl sllwafar ghqp rwmdafl a a 1 fap e

Chzof Chasy Cheus Chchl Cheur Tesoc
Chsph
Gopec
CHSP3
Chdeb
ChspW
EuspN
Chrei
Vocar
Yauni
Dusal
Dtert
Cappl
Chlei cons.

Chzof
Chasy
Cheus
Chchl
Cheur
Tesoc
Chsph
Gopec
CHSP 3
Chdeb
ChspW
EuspN
Chrei
Vocar
Yauni
Dusal
Dtert
Cappl
Chlei
cons.

236 --L-TLGWAVATLRLRPPNAWVNDWLVQVHRCLGKLTPQGLSNVLWVCVTIDCKPPKDWLLRFEQE--TARQLSQLNSQALSTIMW-MARLGHKP-QPPWIQAALERSFM 340 --QSQLLWAISRLHYKLAPARLQTVLDVVHTTLPSHTGRTLSNVLYSLALTDQAPSEHFLAAVQQRL-ASVPLTQLTPQGMTQALWALAKLGAPPLQPDLLALSHKHISA 246 --LSIVMWSLAKLKFRLTSGKLLDFLSLVQARLPSYCSHSISNVLWSLSTSEHRPEDTWLHAVAYEMAKPKKLATFTPQGLSQSLWALATFKYQP-SQEFKQLVAARVSH 229 --LSLVVWSLVKLNFKVAPAKLDELLQHVSASLDSYSAQSLSMLLWSLACLGHNPGQAWLDDAVAQF-QGAKLRSFTPQGTTQALWALSKLGYQP-HQRFWDSMLHHISS
288 --MATLLWALAKLHYKVAPARLNMLLAHAQAHMGDYSGRCLSNCLYALALSQQHPGQEWLAAAQQHA-RQLGPDAFTPQ-

329 --LATLLWALARLHYKAAPAKLQLLLNHAESQLGGFSGRSLSNGVYALALSQQHPGEAWLRAAQARA-EELGPGAFTPQGLTQMVWGMARLGYSP-SPAFTQLVFDHAEA 329 - - LATLLWALARLHYKAAPAKLQLLLDHAESQLGGFSGRSLSNGVYALALSQQQPGEAWLRAAQARA-AELGPGAFTPQGLTQMAWGMARLGCSP-SPAFTQLVLDHAEA 408 --IATVLWALSRLRYKVAPERLRQLLDLSQARMGSFCGRSLSNLVYSLALSQQHPGAEWLAAAQARA-VALGPDGFSPQGITQLAWGLAKLGATP-SPALVNLLLEHASE 407 --VSTLLWGLARLHYKVAPARLRQLLEHSQAQMGSFCGRSLSNVVYSLALSQQHPGEEWLAAAQARA-VALGPSAFSPQGLTQMAWGLAKLGCPP-TSALLDMVCAHAAA 359 - - MATLLWALARLHYKVAPARLKQLLEHAQNTMGSYSGRSLSNVVYSLALSQQHPGEPWLEAAQRRA-VELGPEAFTPQGITQMAWGIAKLGSPP-SPAFLELVLEHASQ 328 - -MATVIWALARLHYKVAPTRLNQLMEHVKAQMGGFCGRSLSNVVYSLALSQQHPGDEWLVAAQARA-VALGPATFTPQGLTQMTWGLAKLGGSP-TPEFLDLVQDHAAA 272 -- LAMMIWALSKLKYKLSPDMQHDFLARARALFPVTSPQALCMVVYALSMTGHHPGEEWLESFVDAALQPPGLQRFSPQGFSQMLWALARIGYNP-GPKLTVATEEHLTL 273 - - LAMMIWALSKLKYKLSPDMQQDFLARARALFPVTSPQSLCMVMYALSMTGHHPGEEWLESFVEAALQPPGLRRFSPQGLSQLLWALSRIGHKP-GPDLTAAIEEHFLK 312 - - LANILWSLSKLKYKVSADKQQDFLAQVLQALPRFNSQALSMLAYALGSMDQHPSDAWLNAFVQSITTSPGLRRFTPQGLSLTAWALARMGYVP-TPTFQHLITRHVSR 260 DVLSTVMWSLSRIKYKVSADKQRDFLSQALQHLPQYTGQGLSMLLYALGATEQDPGPEWTSSLMAFLQTSPGLNRFNSQGLALVLWALARMGYEP-TPRFTSMVHTHLMR 441 latllwalarlryklaparl ll h lg ytgrslsnvly lalt qkpgedwl a q ra vg ftpqgltqi walarlg p sp $\quad \mathrm{lv} \mathrm{h}$

## $/ / \rightarrow$

339 QL-

353 IL-
 41 433 RLRALPPGTPLLSRQLDDAAAARAGPAALARAAAARADAAARAGGSAAAEDMVSPAVVSGRSPHVARLAWQRGEADAEAVGAAATRPVFESSWAAVAAKRRAAAAPGAPA 76 RTPRRGDST




465 RLPLSPQERQEKEILQQQEGREGADDGGSSDVGAARSSSGG-
434 RLPLSPQER -LRERE
379 YS-
380 HS -
419 GG-
 551 1

|  |  | $\leftarrow$ OPR7 7 OPR8 | $1 /$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Chzof | 341 | -GTCNAHDLSTLLVALAVMDFRP--GSTWHRAVMLRAKALLPMFTIRQVSNIFWACARE- | -ITPQEL |  |
| Chasy | 463 | RGAQRAAAPRHRVQRYTGIDISTALYALAKLGQSPLLPHQTLVGVLRALVQMMPTMAPNHLANVTWALARSN | AW |  |
| Cheus | 355 | -LSCNSIDLATLTYAYAALRMPP--DEQLFLRLQKASLKQMHELLPSHLAKTTWAFAKLG | VPSDAI |  |
| Chchl | 337 | -RSYKGIDLATALYAFARLDVHP--SPKVRALLEHTSRQEMWHLEGAHLANILWAFAKLD | TLPSKR |  |
| Cheur | 41 |  |  |  |
| Tesoc | 81 |  |  |  |
| Chsph | 543 | DPAFPAFTRGPLLPAYNGVDLVILLYAMALWGCPP--QPLLARRVLLRLELELPSLGVQHLAMCLWSVARL | PS |  |
| Gopec | 510 | RQLRGPYGRSKWVAAYKGMDLAVLLYVLAVWGVRL--QPAFGRQLLAAVQMKLPELEPNQLCNCLWACARL | FPTRSW |  |
| CHSP3 | 64 | -MEMPRMESNQICNCLWACARL | -vQPPA |  |
| Chdeb | 475 | Q-------RRSAQRYNSQDLSMLLYSLAVWGAAP--PAALARKLMLAVQYALPRLETHQLCNCLwSCARLG | -LYPSAS |  |
| Chspw | 473 | Q--------RRSAQRYNGQDLSTLLYSLAVWGAAP--PAALARRLMLAVQYALPRLETHQLCNCIWSCARLG | LYPSASW |  |
| EuspN | 557 | GVAAGKR--PRARGRYTGVDLSTLMYVLACFGARP--PAELGRRLLSAVQWALPSLEPNGMCNCLWACARLR | -LYPYKMW |  |
| Chrei | 562 | RKQQQQQQPRRPLAPYNGLDLSTLMYALGSWGAQP--RPEVGRRLLLALEWELPRLEANQLCNCVWACARLR | -LYPSRS |  |
| Vocar | 506 | ----SHLQQRRRRERYSGLDLATLLYSLASLGAQP--RADLGRRLLAAVQWELPTLEANGMCNCLWACARLR | IFPTKM |  |
| Yauni | 448 | QQREGGEGRRRRLGRYNGVDLSTFMYSLASLGAQP--RVDLSRKLLAALQWELPSMEANQMCNCLWACARLR | -LYPHKTW |  |
| Dusal | 381 | --RMKGYKSIDVATTLYAVARMQLPM--SRNLLRLLLDQVDKHMFSFQPSQLANVGWALARLQ | -LRQYRQWQQSVHQREEQ | QRQQQQQQQQQAA |
| Dtert | 382 | --RMQGYKSIDVSTTLYAMARMQLPM-- SRNLLRLFLDQVEKHMFSFQPSQLANIGWALARLQ | -LRQLRQWQQSAHODTEQ | QQQQQQQQQQQQ |
| Cappl | 421 | -LQAFKPIDVATMVYAMARMGMPL--SKELHASFQQALQGAAGGMQPNQLANSTWALAHFY | ERAPRTSL |  |
| Chlei | 378 | PPPRIAACNGIDVATIMYGMGRMHMHV--TPNLLTALLIKLKHEVPGLDPAQMSNVVWALAQFQ | LLRVHPSE |  |
| cons. | 661 | y gidl tllyala mg p l r ll al lp le ql n lwa arl | l p w |  |
|  |  |  |  | OPR9 // |
| Chzof | 04 |  | IARALRKIYHGLQDTN | LANSLWALAHLNV |
| Chasy | 543 |  | -VAVLLAAVANHMAQLR | LSQLGWALASLGI |
| Cheus | 419 |  | -LRNLLSCSFQLMDIFN | LSMFGWGLAKLGV |
| Chehl | 401 |  | -MLKALTVIYTIMPSLK | LAMVGWALAKLRV |
| Cheur | 41 |  | -LYRLLSESYRCLPAFE | VAMLAWALATMRV |
| Tesoc | 87 |  | --------------- | --//WALARLRA |
| Chsph | 620 |  | --LVHAYDATYRQLHAFK | LSMTLWALARLQA |
| Gopec | 587 |  | -LVVFFHASFRSLRLFK | LAQCLWALGRLQS |
| CHSP3 | 393 |  | -LRTFFDASYRQLPFFK | LSQSLWALARLGV |
| Chdeb | 544 |  | --LREWYDASYRQLPYFK | LSQSLWGLARLSA |
| Chspw | 542 |  | -LRDWYDASYRQLPYFK | LSQSLWGLARLSA |
| EuspN | 632 |  | -LSVFFDASYRQLPYFK | LSQTLWALARLGA |
| Chrei | 639 |  | --LRDFYDASYRQLPYFK | LSQSLWALARLGA |
| Vocar | 579 |  | -LSAFFDASYRQLPYFK | LSQTLWALARLQA |
| Yauni | 525 |  | --LKAFFDASYRQLPYFK | LSQSLWALARLQA |
| Dusal | 475 | YSTDQEQQNWQGHAHYEQQHLQHVVASQSPETLLDLNQQHHPSSSSTEVHSLPSSGQQQQQQQQQQQQQQDF | ALIRKYLAACYGSLDRFT | LSMTCWSMATMRV |
| Dtert | 476 | QASQLLDQEEQQQKLQGQMHHEQQHLLHMDVSGSPEKLINSRQYNDYSSSSSSSSSTAAHSVPTAGQQQLDY | SILKRYLAACYASLDRFT | LSMTCWALATMRV |
| Cappl | 491 |  | -LSRILHASYVRMDRFS | LSQLAWALAKMEV |
| Chlei | 453 |  | LAQFFSMAYLRLDRFT | LAMTSWALAKMRV |
| cons. | 771 |  | 1 fy asyr l fk | dsqslWalarl v |

436 HPSAGWMSLFSAQAQAIAGQFKSQEIANTIWAYARLRTKPKA----LLSALFQGANHRLSAFKPAELSSLMWALAKLHIVPSKEWKEEFLQASYHKIGAMSPQSLSNVIW 575 APPAPWLRAYEARVATSARLFAPREVAAVVWALSRLG---GELPGEVLAEFFDATDRRLSSFSGPELGCMVTSLARLRVQPHKEWMDEFIKVTFHKLAAMGPQELANIGW 451 VLPESFAQRYVRRIEAVAGEFPPQEVANTLWALACFNIRPSS---VLVAHFFDATDQRLSSFKASELSHMLWALADRRCVLDAQWINEYLKVSFLRMAEFSPQGLANMIW 433 QPPRTLLLAYVRRVEVLAGEFKPQEVANTVWALARFGLQPSS---SLLVEFFVATDQRLSSFKPVELNQMLWALAKVRTTPDKPWVEEFLKVTFHKLPDFSGQGLANMCW
73 SLPDAFVKPLVARAEALAEEFPPQEVANTLWAFSRLGVEPSH---ALLEHFFESTDHRLSEFKPMELSQVLWALGRSRSQLERAWVNELLQVLLVRLPELSPHGLSSVVW 104 APPDPWLGAALHRLQSSASMFSPVEVASTMWALAKLDVSGERLPSEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELCCMAWALARMRRRPDKEWTAEFLKVSYHKLSSMNGWCLATLSW 652 VPPTPWLAAAVSRVEAVATMFNPVEVANTLWALASLGVRGESLPGEMLALFFMATDRRLSSFKQQELSSMIWALATMMRRPDKEWAAEFLKVTYVRLPSMGGWSLATIAW 619 HPPAEWLAAVLTRLQLTASMFSPVEVATTMWALAALGVRGQQLPGEVLALWFIATDRRLSSFRPAELVSMVWALARMGRRPDKEWSAELLKVTYHKLGAMNGWCLGVLAW 425 APPGPWLTAAMTRLQQTASMFQPVEVSQTMWALARLGVRGEALPSEALALFFIATDRRLSGFKPQELCAMAWALARMRRRPDKEWAAEFLKVTYHKVPSMGGWCLATLAW 576 VPPQPWLAAALTRLQHAASMFTPVEVASCLWALAKLGVAGERLPGEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELCSMLWALARMRRRPDKEWTAEFLKASFHKLPSMSGWCLGTLAW 574 VPPQPWLAAALTRLQHAASMFTPVEVASCLWALAKLGVAGERLPGEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQQ-
664 APPRAWMASVITRLHRSASEFSPVEVATTLWALARLGVRAEQLPTEVMVLFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELSSMVWGLARMRWRPDKEWTAELLKVTYHKLGTMSGRCLATIAW 671 APPEAWLGGALNRLQHTASMFSPVEVANTMWALAKMGVRGERLPAEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELCSMVWALAHMRRRPDKEWTAEFLKVTYHKLGSMSGWCLATLAW 611 APPPAWVASVMVRLQHSATMFSPVEVATTMWALAKLGVRGRQMPGEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELCSMILALAHMRRRPDKEWAAEFLKVTYHRLASMSGWCLATVAW 557 LPPDPWVAAVLTRLQHTASMFTPVDVASTMWALARLGVRGDRLPAEVLALFFIATDRRLSSFKPQELCSMIWALAHMRRRPDKEWTAEFLKVTYHKLATMNGWCLATLAW 585 TPPPSFLSVFLRRVEQ ----------------586 APPPSFLSVFLRRVEQVGAEFAPQEVANTLWALARLGAKPPA--- PVMAEFFSATDRRLSSFKPHELSSMVWALAKMGFTPDKAWTEEFLHATFHKLPGLGSQGLTNVIW 523 QLPPPFLALFERRVEQVGANFLPQEVSNTLWAFARFGAVPSA---SVLVEFFEATDRRLSNFKTQELANMIWALAKVRSTPDKRWCEEFFKATYYRLAEFERVGLCNTIW 485 QPPAPFLSAFLRRVEQAGAEFSPQEVSNTIWSLARFGVAPSS---GLMVEFFVATDKRLSSFKPQELSAMAWALARGGHKPDRRWSEEFLHATFHKLPEFSQQGLCNMIW $881 \mathrm{pp} w l g a \mathrm{v}$ r aslf pvevantiwalarlgvkg lp evlalffvatdrrlssfkpqel mmwalakmr rpdkew eflkvtyhkl m g la v w

## // OPR12 $\rightarrow \quad$ OPR13

542 SVTE---LHLQPPPA-LYHWVHASRQCLL-
682 GLAE---LSCHPPGGWLYAYANAARAALP-

180 GFVR---MGIVPPPAWQYAYVNVCRRHMG-
214 SIAE---LALAPPPAWIYSYVNAVRALAEATPMPPPAAAA-----------SDAAAAEARRREWLQTGDAEEGVEAVEMEPQLEGPLDVFLAQAGGMVAAPMPAALAAAQ
762 SLAE---LELTPPPAWTYALVNAARGLMAAAAPQPT------------------PAGGAA
729 SLAE---LGLAPPPAWVYSFVNAARALLEATPLPAAQAAAEGQPQELPQEQPAEAEPKNRRERRRLRQQAVAAATARRLEHEKLELAGAAYDLLSLPPLSPSPQPVVAAA

 640 ---------PTPP
774 SLSE---LSLVPPPAWLYSFVNATRALMNASAASQQ



635 ALAI---MPIRPPPAWLYAFVKVVSADKA- $\qquad$




Chzof Chasy Cheus
Chchl
Cheur Tesoc
Chsph
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Chzof Chasy Cheus
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Tesoc
Chsph
Gopec
CHSP3
Chdeb
ChspW
EuspN Chrei
Vocar
Yauni
Dusal
Dtert
Cappl
Chlei cons.
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-AGQLSQRDSRIMLSCLARVN- - - - - GG- - SPMLAKVD- - - - AFCVE- - - - - - - LAGASDGGVGECTV
GVSQGSQPAAGLAAAASATDSFTFAVGGLPQAGGGLTALDLGQIILGLRRLNSRS---GA--G--LAKVD----AFLEEAEARLR--EMEAGGGLYAAGOLRAFLRMNCK
SDGEGWGAGEAGEAEGAGA------AVGAGSMVGSLSVLDLGQVITALRTLNE-----KA--Q--LSKVE----DFIRDAEDALR--GAEERNAAFASRQVGAFLAMGQA
---------------- PPAAALDGPAAPSTGANAPLSALDLAQLILGLRRLSAV---- CG--G--LAKVD----DWLREAEGALA--EAEARSGAFAEQQVRALLAMGPR


SPSASASPSSTGSALTYPALSVAAGAADAAGSGSGLSAIDLGQIITGLRKLNS-----VQ--G--LAKVD----DFIGEAEERLR--ALEAGSGAYAAQQVGHFLSMSRK
------------ - VEAGAAPQGEDTESVAGTAVASLSAMDLGQIITALRRLNGG----GG--GGGLAKVD----EFLREAEERLA- - AMEAGSGAYARQQLGAFLAMSPE
-------TAPPQGAGVGPETTAKAVGSSQGQDAAGLSAMDLGQIITALRRLNGSGGSGGG--G--LTKVE----DFLKEAEQRLG--AVEAGSGAYARQQVGVFLAMSPG




g lsavdlgqvi alrrlna a g l kvd dfl ea l eaa gayg qi lam
 SVAYGALHA------------ETRRRAGDTAAAREGAQALL------RNVRSRCSSSTDVSGCNAGVKRKRNSQQQQRQDDEVYVEVRAAWLAAEQQQRRQQRQEQQQQQ


 405 QAGLGLGGQATPE-------GGKQAAAVPATEGGGSESESDRE---SEGSSRESGSEDEGGSGSNAAGGVRQGTAGAGPLQVAVAATPTGADAAPGVEAVVCAGRRPPA






 839 QASQSGTAGARVLVPPMVSELGDGSGGGGVGSDLGGREPATAAGVSDGGGGGGSGGGGRAGLKGPRVKRRRQRLAAAL---DPDQSQLLHHGERRRRGGLSGPRGKKRVA



 680 EEA-AQQGPEQAPD------GTRLGSSSSAGLVGALANDG------SSSRQQQAEAASTAQAGAASAAGAAVAAAAAVAAQRAAQASRAGAGGAWGLDQRPVRAPVAAT 1211 a 9 a 9


DNA regions encoding MDB1 orthologues were retrieved from the NCBI database by TBLASTN searches, using CrMDB1 as a query. Gene models were then predicted with the GreenGenie2 software (http://stormo.wustl.edu/GreenGenie2/; (Kwan et al., 2009)) and manually edited to include missing obvious regions of similarity, if required. Alignment of MTHI1 orthologues was performed with the MUSCLE software using default options and manually edited to improve the alignment. The position OPR repeats of the protein from C. reinhardtii are shown above the alignments. In the sequence from C. reinhardtii, residues highlighted in yellow were replaced by the HA tag. Additional OPR repeats found in the species-specific insertions are highlighted in yellow or green. Residues conserved in more than half of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Cheus: Chlamydomonas eustigma; Chchl: Chlamydoimonas chlamydogama; ; Cheur: Chlamydomonas euryale; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Chsp3 Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 3112; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3; EuspN: Eudorina sp. 2006-703-Eu-15; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Vocar: Volvox carteri; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Duter: Dunaliella tertiolecta; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca.


Suppl. Fig. S5: Sequence analysis of the RPP-treated sample from wild type.
The position of the matured (5PTE) and precursor 5'end of the atpB mRNA are shown. The poor resolution of the sequence
downstream of the $\operatorname{atp} B$ precursor mRNA 5' end suggests heterogeneity of the atpB 3'end.


Suppl. Fig. S6: Alternative determination of the atpB 5' end by cRT-PCR.
A) Schematic representation of the two PCR strategies. The position of the various primers used are shown. The red segment at the beginning of the $a t p B$ mRNA represents the processed part of the transcript, only found in the precursor transcript. A hypothetical atpB transcript under degradation is also shown by a blue dot. It doesn't contribute to the final amplicon with the classical cRT-PCR strategy (left), but it does with the second cRT-PCR strategy (right).
B) Agarose gels showing the amplicons resulting from the second cRT-PCR strategy, with a molecular weight marker on the right. RPP and mock respectively indicate RNA samples treated or not with RPP, to distinguish precursors from processed transcripts. The band used for cloning experiment is shown as a red rectangle.
C) Schematic representation of the results from the sequence analysis of the 20 clones (details in Suppl. Table ST2). A red segment at the 5 'end of the atpB mRNA indicates a precursor transcript, while a blue segment at the 3 'end of the transcript symbolizes the presence of a polyA tail. The left part shows the contribution of the clones to the amplicon in the two cRT-PCR strategies. In the classical strategy, 7 clones ( 6 precursors and one processed) would have contributed to the final amplicon, a proportion explaining why its sequence revealed only the precursor form. In the second strategy, 11 precursor and 9 processed transcripts participate to the final amplicon. In the primer extension experiment, one can expect many more partially degraded atpB mRNA to contribute to the extension product (all those whose 3'end lies between the primers used for reverse transcription and primer extension - primer PE, above the atpB transcript-), resulting in a high representation of the processed form.


## Suppl. Fig. S7: Characterization of the BRR transformants

A) Accumulation of Rubisco LSU subunit in the BRR transformants compared to a dilution series of wild-type proteins. Cytochrome $f$ accumulation is shown as loading control. $\Delta R$ is a strain bearing a deletion of the chloroplast rbcL gene. B) rbcL RNA accumulation in the BRR transformants compared to WT strain. psaB hybridization and ethidium bromide stained gel provide loading controls.

Suppl. Fig S8 Determination of petA 5'ends in the Fud50 strain


Chlei
Phlen
Chapp
Loseg
Botex
Chacu
Chsti
Mimon
Prbot
ChspU
HaspN
Chtat
Chper
Chrei
Tesoc
Yauni
Voafr
Plsta
EuspN
Gopec
Chdeb
Dusal
Patex
Chsp3
Chsph


Chlei
Phlen Chapp Loseg Botex Chacu Chsti Mimon Prbot Chspu HaspN Chtat Chper Chrei --GAATAATACT---------TTTTAT - AATAAATTCTACCACTAATTATGTAACT------ - GAATAATACT-- - - - - - - TTTTATTTATAGCATCTAACGATACAAGTACGGT-- - - - -

Voafr
Plsta --AAATAATGGTTAATATTAATATTATTAATAGCTTCTAACAATAC------------------
EuspN --GAATAATACT---------TATTATTAATAACTTCTAACAATCTCCGTTAGTT------
Gopec --GAATAATACT---------TTTTATTTATAAATTCTAACTATACTTCTTCTCT------
Chdeb --GAATATCATA---------TAATATTATAAATTCTAATTTTTCTTTGTCTAAT-------
Dusal --GAATTTTAAT--------------TCCATAACTTTTAGAAATAAAAAAAAAAAAA----
Patex --GAAAAA------------- ACTTATAAAAAAGGATTATTTGCCGTATAATA---------
Chsp3 --AAATTTTAC----------TTTTAAAAATACAGTCAATTTAAAATACACGTAAA-----
Chsph --GAATATTACT---------TTATATTCAAAAAATGAGGTTATAGATGAGCAAT------
Cons. aaata ta ttttatt ataaa t ta aatg a

## Supplemental Fig. S9: Conservation of the MDB1 target in atpB 5'UTRs.

## A) Alignment of atpB 5 'UTRs

Available chloroplast genomes of Chlorophyceae were scanned for occurrences of the putative MDB1 binding site AAATAAGNGTTAG. In the reported species this sequence was found in the intergenic region upstream of atpB (and almost always only here), at a variable distance (ranging from 152 in Dunaliella salina to 1468 in Palmellopsis texensis; mean size 550) from the translation initiation codon. Sequences were aligned with the MUSCLE software, using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than half sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. A putative - 10 Pribnow box found upstream of the putative MDB1 binding site in some species is written in bold and underlined. It was always found at more than 10 nt of the MDB1 binding site, suggesting that the mature atpB mRNA is a processed transcript in these species as well.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostrac; Voafr: Volvox africanus; Chacu: Chariaciochoris aciminata; Chtat: Chlorococcum tatrense; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Phlen: Phacotus lenticularis; Plsta: Pleodorina starrii; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Eu_sp: Eudorina sp.; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; ChspU: Chlamydomonas sp. UWO 241; Botex: Borodinellopsis texensis; Loseg: Lobochlamys segnis; Mimon: Micronegla monida; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp3212; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Chsti: Chlorosarcina stigmatica; Prbot: Protosiphon botryoides; Chper: Chloromonas perforata; patex: Palmellopsis texensis.
All species belong to the Chlamydomonadale order.

## Article 2:

## "Photosensitive mutants of the peripheral stalk of the chloroplast ATP synthase in Chlamydomonas reinhardtil."

This is a draft version of an article devoted to the study of ATP synthase mutants. Some complementary experiments have still to be done and some parts of the article have yet to be written.

## DRAFT ARTICLE:

## PHOTOSENSITIVE MUTANTS OF THE PERIPHERAL STALK OF THE CHLOROPLAST ATP SYNTHASE IN CHLAMYDOMONAS REINHARDTII

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Keywords: ATP synthase, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, ATPG, AtpF

## Abstract:

## Results

## Forward genetic screen on high light Sensitivity

Proteases are major maintenance factors of the photosynthetic complexes embedded in the thylakoid. Among them, previous investigations of ftsh1 deficient mutants (Malnoe et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017) showed that hetero-oligomeric protease FtsH1/2 is of prime importance, especially for PSII repair, the mutant ftsh1-1 accumulating inactive FtsH 1 being highly photosensitive.

After insertional mutagenesis, transformants were screened for ftsh1-1-like light sensitive phenotype. Wild-type (WT) strain T222+ was electroporated in the presence of the hygromycin resistance cassette, and cells were plated on selection medium (TAP hygromycin $20 \mathrm{mg} \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ ). To assess putative altered protease activity of transformants, we set a fast screening procedure by imaging chlorophyll fluorescence on plates with a time-resolved wide-angle camera (Johnson et al., 2009) aimed at measuring the ability to maintain PSII function upon short photo-inhibitory treatment. About 2000 random transformants were transferred to fresh TAP plates and grown for one week in permissive conditions ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ). As a control of how FTSH1 protease defect impacts fluorescence yields, we introduced the ftsh1-1 mutant and the complemented strain C17 (ftsh1-1(pSL18-FTSH1), (Malnoe et al., 2014)) as well as the untransformed WT.

Using the method of weak detection pulses and saturating flash (reviewed in(Baker, 2008)), we measured on each plate (i) the basal fluorescence $F_{0}$ and the maximal fluorescence $F_{M}$ in the so-called dark-adapted state, as well as (ii) transient fluorescence $F^{\prime}$ and maximal fluorescence $F_{M}$ after 5 seconds low light. The ratio $F_{V} / F_{M}$, where $F_{v}=F_{M}-F_{0}$ is the so-called maximum PSII yield and depends almost solely on PSII function (e.g. PSII deficient mutants show $F_{V} / F_{M}$ close to 0 ); in contrast, the PSII (operating) yield $Y(I I)$, defined as $\left(F_{M^{\prime}}-F^{\prime}\right) / F_{M}{ }^{\prime}$, decreases when photosynthetic electron flow is limited downstream PSII (e.g. PSI deficient mutants show Y (II) close to 0 even under low light). Figure 1 exemplifies our screening procedure with $F_{V} / F_{M}$ pictures of the plate where the mutant E236 was isolated. Under the permissive conditions of growth (left panel: TAP, low light), the ftsh1-1 mutant shows $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ and $\mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{II})$ (not shown) similar to $\mathrm{WT}(\approx 0,65)$. We hence discarded clones with $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ or $\mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{II})$ close to 0 under these permissive conditions to focus on "ftsh1-1-like" phenotypes. To trigger the processes of damage and repair, the photo-inhibitory treatment then consisted in an exposure to $1000 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ for 1 h . This resulted in a drastic decrease of $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ in ftsh1-1 $(\approx 0,05)$ mutant as compared to the moderate decrease in WT, C17 and most of the plated strains $(\approx 0,30)$ (Fig. 1, central panel). Moreover, $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ recovered to pre-treatment values after 3 h back in low light (recovery period) in $\mathrm{WT}, \mathrm{C} 17$ and most of the plated strains but not in ftsh1-1 (Fig. 1, right panel). These changes were expected due to the central role of FtsH1 protease in PSII repair (Malnoe et al., 2014) and allowed us to identify $\approx 20$
photosensitive clones altered in the maintenance of photosynthesis, such as the mutant E236 (Fig. 1, white circle).

To identify the most robust mutant strains, selected clones were grown in liquid TAP to assess their photosensitivity several times in more controlled conditions (exponential phase, similar cell concentration, homogeneous light intensity ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ), etc). We thus selected 6 mutant strains which reproducibly exhibited decreased tolerance to high light, as exemplified in Figure 2A. Mutant strains E236, E271, F28N and F292 showed $F_{V} / F_{M}$ values similar to WT under the permissive growth conditions ( $\mathrm{T}_{0}$ ), but upon a 30 min photoinhibitory treatment ( $1000 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ values decreased more drastically than the WT, reaching values similar to ftsh1-1. However, when cells were moved back to low light, $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ values recovered faster than the ftsh1-1, the mutant E236 being even about twice faster than the three others (E271, F28N and F292). The two other mutant F280 and E113 showed similar trends, except that $F_{V} / F_{M}$ values were already respectively more or less lower than the WT under growth conditions $\left(\mathrm{T}_{0}\right)$, suggesting that their photosynthetic apparatus is already under pressure in low light.

Interestingly, while WT strain rapidly reaches a low level of steady-state fluorescence ( $F_{S}$ ) under low light, four strains (E236, E271, F28N and F292) exhibited a similar phenotype of rising fluorescence almost up to $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ (Fig. 2B). We attributed it to the gradual appearance of a bottleneck in the use of photosynthetic electron and the build-up of very high proton gradient which downregulated PSII, as previously reported in ATP synthase mutants (Johnson et al., 2014).

Mutants defective in the chloroplast ATP synthase are highly sensitive to light (Majeran et al., 2001). We hence compared the growth of the mutants E236, E271, F28N and F292 to that of the ATP synthase mutant mdb1, which lacks ATP synthase because the maturation factor MDB1 is required for the maturation of atpB transcript (Drapier et al., 1992). To decipher how phototrophic growth and tolerance to high light are impacted in these mutants, they were grown either in minimal medium (MIN) or in the presence of acetate as a reduced carbon source (TAP medium), and exposed to increasing light intensities (Fig. 2C). In TAP, the E271, F28N, F292 and mdb1 mutants grew slightly less than WT strain under moderate light ( $25 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) and they almost did not grow under saturating light ( $120 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) while they were able to grow in the dark (Suppl. Fig. 2), further confirming the photosensitive phenotypes. In MIN however, these four mutants (E271, F28N, F292 and mdb1) were not able to grow at all. This holds true even under weaker intensities (not shown). This suggests that photosensitivity in E271, F28N and F292 mutants originate from strong impairments of photosynthesis itself similar, to that of the mdb1 mutant. In contrast with E271, F28N, F292 and mdb1 mutants, the mutant E236 was less impacted under moderate light (similar to WT in TAP, moderate growth in MIN) and growth
phenotype became obvious under saturating light (decreased growth in TAP as compared to WT, no growth in MIN).

Similarities between our four mutants and mdb1 were further observed in fluorescence kinetics from the dark-grown cells (Suppl. Fig. 2). Although all five mutants had the same growth (Suppl. Fig. 2A) and same $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ as WT (Suppl. Fig. 2C), PSII yield under low light was slightly lower than WT after 30s (Suppl. Fig. 2D) and reached almost zero after 3 min (Suppl. Fig. 2E), similar to PSII yield time-course in Figure 2B.

Altogether, these preliminary characterizations indicated that four mutants isolated by screening on photosensitivity were putatively deficient in ATP synthase. Some differences however existed: E271, F28N and F292 were obligate heterotrophs similar to mdb1 while E236 can grow photo-autotrophically but is intolerant to high light.

## Evidence for impairments of ATP synthase complex biogenesis

To gain insight on these mutants at the molecular level, we investigated the accumulation of ATP synthase by immunodetection. As controls, we used deletion mutants of chloroplastic ATP synthase genes ( $\Delta a t p B, \Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p l$ ) as well as mda1, mdb1 and $m r l 1$ nuclear mutant strains, which lack RNA-binding factors required for the maturation of chloroplast transcripts atpA, atpB (Drapier et al., 1992; Viola et al., 2019)(Cavaiuolo et al in preparation) and rbcL (Johnson et al., 2010), respectively. The levels of all four detected ATP synthase subunits were overall much lower in all four mutants than in the WT (Fig. 3), although in distinct patterns of accumulation which may reflect distinct impairments in the biogenesis of ATP synthase. Note that the subunits $\alpha, \beta$ and $\varepsilon$ are parts of the soluble fraction $\left(\mathrm{CF}_{1}\right)$, which can assemble in the stroma (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989a), while subunits III is part of the membrane fraction $\left(\mathrm{CF}_{0}\right)$.

First of all, no subunit III was detected in all four mutants (Fig. 3B), suggesting that none of these strains can complete the assembly of the full $\mathrm{CF}_{1}-\mathrm{CF}_{0}$ ATP synthase complex. However, as compared to WT levels, all four mutants accumulated about $1 / 5$ of $\beta$ (Fig. 3C), and $\alpha$ was detected only in F28N and F292 in about the same range ( $1 / 5$ of WT level; Fig. 3A); this suggests that F28N and F292 do produce the catalytic hexameric head $\alpha_{3} \beta_{3}$ while impairment in E236 and E271 impacts assembly prior to this step. Nevertheless, E236 together with F292 were the only mutants were $\varepsilon$ can be detected (Fig. 3B). This suggests that F292 can probably advance the furthest in ATP synthase assembly (likely with a full CF $_{1}$ sub-complex) as compared to other mutants. Also $\alpha$ and $\varepsilon$ can be accumulated in absence of each other (in F28N and E236 respectively) while $\beta$ is a pre-requisite for both $\alpha$ and $\varepsilon$ (in E271; see also (Drapier et al., 2007).

We then investigated whether ATP synthase impairment in our strains may be due to mutations of RNA-binding factors controlling expression of chloroplast-encoded genes. Indeed, the expression of many plastid-encoded genes relies on specific nucleus-encoded
factors to stabilize, maturate and/or translate target transcripts (Barkan and GoldschmidtClermont, 2000). We hence ran northern blots against transcripts of the ATP synthase plastid genes: we were able to detect $a t p A, \operatorname{atpB}, a t p E, a t p H$ and atpl transcripts (Suppl. Fig. 2) but not atpF. In contrast with the controls (mda1 strain and the deletion mutants $\Delta a t p B, \Delta a t p H$ and $\Delta a t p l$ ), no significant change in accumulation and no shift between monocistronic and polycistronic forms was detected in mutants F28N, F292, E236 and E271 as compared to the WT.

## ATP SYNTHASE DEFECTS SEGREGATE INDEPENDENTLY OF THE ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE.

Looking for the causal mutations in our mutants ( $\mathrm{mt}+$ ), we first tested if their phenotype was genetically linked to the insertions of hygromycin resistance cassette. Hence we backcrossed them to the WT strain S1D2 (mt-) and followed in their progeny the segregation of growth abilities: (i) phototroph versus obligate heterotroph and (ii) hygromycin resistance versus sensitivity. We generated progenies in batches (random progeny analysis). For each mutant, instead of isolating pre-meiotic zygotes from one another as for tetrad dissection, we induced germination in a batch liquid culture and plated their progenies on TAP.

When colonies appeared, we tried to sort the progeny in advance on their ATP synthase deficient phenotype based on their different fluorescence kinetics (e.g. Fig. 2B), and we transferred them on TAP (control), MIN and hygromycin-containing TAP plates to analyse their phototroph or obligate heterotroph growth and their antibiotic resistance (Suppl. Fig. S4). Our prediction worked almost perfectly on the cross F28NxWT (Suppl. Fig. S4, top panels), yet the weakness of the fluorescence signals on small colonies partially hindered our guess for other crosses. Most importantly, in the progeny of all four crosses, we observed the presence of a significant number of clones which were (i) both non-phototrophic and hygromycin-sensitive (indicated by thick red circles) or (ii) phototrophic and hygromycinresistant (indicated by thin blue squares). Note that phototrophic growth under moderate light was not fully impaired in E236 (dashed circle), in good agreement with other results (Fig. 2C), yet a significant decrease in growth was readily observable in about half of the progeny from the backcross with S1D2. Altogether, backcrosses show that in all four mutants the impairment of ATP synthase was genetically independent from the insertion of the antibiotic resistance cassette but rather due to other mutations. This independence precluded mutation identification by flanking sequence analysis and required other approaches for the molecular characterization of the mutations.

## Genes atpg and atpF encoding the two peripheral stalk SUBUNITS ARE RESPECTIVELY ALTERED in E236 and FUD18 mutants

We performed whole genome sequencing to identify the nuclear mutations. The whole genomes of mutant strains E236, F28N, F292 and E271 as well as the WT strain were obtained by paired-end sequencing and mapped on the latest genome assembly (see

Material \& Methods for detail). We first looked for candidate mutations in the few genes knowingly related to ATP synthase, namely nuclear-encoded subunits, assembly factors and regulators of organellar genome expression (ROGEs) dedicated to chloroplast-encoded ATP synthase genes (Ruhle and Leister, 2015). The mutant E236 (Fig. 4) harboured several features of interest in the ATPG gene (locus Cre11.481450): (i) only few grey rectangles as compared to the WT, indicating a decrease in read coverage, (ii) a series of coloured bars indicating wrong nucleotides as compared to WT sequence and (iii) more than twenty reads one end of which maps in Cre11.481450 and the other end at distinct genomic locations (e.g. chromosomes 5, 6, 7, 12, 16 as shown by coloured rectangles in mutant E236 in Figure 4A), more specifically in TOC1 transposons. Overall, this suggests a TOC1 insertion in the 3'-UTR of ATPG, about 30 bp downstream the stop codon. We confirmed this large rearrangement by PCR amplification (Fig. 4B), showing no product in mutant E236 when using a primer pair spanning the whole locus (pair A), while the end of the CDS can be well amplified in both WT and E236 mutant. In the other mutants, we found no mutations in known ATP synthaserelated genes, so we will implement a genome-scale analysis in the future and decided to focus on mutant E236.

The flexible peripheral stalk of the chloroplast ATP synthase has two protein subunits often named b and b' (Hahn et al., 2018), respectively named in Chlamydomonas CFo subunit I which is encoded by chloroplast gene atpF and CFo subunit II which is encoded by nuclear gene ATPG. Having identified an ATPG mutant (E236), we searched for an atpF mutant. On the base of the absence of CFO subunit I synthesis, mutant Fud18 had been previously proposed to be altered in the atpF chloroplast gene (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989b). To further identify Fud18 mutation, we amplified and sequenced the atpF gene region in mutant Fud18. We confirmed Fud18 is an atpF mutant and identified the mutation as a deletion of one $T$ after the start codon of atpF which causes a frameshift and an abortive Stop codon (Fig. 4C). This atpF mutant is photosensitive (Fig. 5A) and accumulates some $\alpha$ subunit of the hydrophilic fraction (CF ${ }_{1}$ ) but no detectable ATPG (Fig. 5B).

To investigate ATPG impairment in mutant E236, we aimed at complementing it with a WT gene version (native promoter and terminator sequences). Mutant cells were electroporated in the presence of the 2.5 kb PCR product obtained in the WT (Fig. 4B) or in absence of DNA (negative transformation control) then plated on MIN medium and grown under low light (positive growth control) or high light (selection). Cells from both transformations grew under low light but only transformation in the presence of ATPG yielded clones under high light. Some clones were randomly picked up and grown in TAP low light to analyse complementation at physiological, biochemical and functional levels (Fig. 5).

Cells from WT, mutant E236 and three complemented clones E236::ATPG (C1-C3) as well as two ATP synthase mutants atpF (Fud18) and $\Delta a t p H$ were plated either on TAP or MIN media and exposed to low, moderate and high light (Fig. 5A). All strains readily grew on TAP under
low light ( $2 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ). On MIN under moderate light ( $60 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ), E236 grew very slowly whereas the growth of all three complemented clones was similar to that of the WT. Even under excess light ( $200 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ), complemented clones were able to grow as well as the WT, in contrast with mutant E236, atpF and $\Delta a t p H$ strains, suggesting that ATPG transformation restored photosynthetic performance in mutant E236 under moderate and high light.

At the biochemical level (Fig. 5B), both ATPG, for which we raised an antibody, and AtpB proteins accumulated significantly more in complemented strains than in the mutant E236, although much less than the WT. Moreover, ATP synthase function was further characterized using chlorophyll fluorescence kinetics as in Fig. 2B on cells grown in TAP under low light. Under moderate light (Fig. 5C), complemented strains exhibited kinetics similar to the WT, in contrast with mutant E236 where fluorescence increased due to the bottleneck in the use of light. However, under saturating light (Fig. 5D), complemented strains displayed fluorescence levels intermediate between that of the WT and mutant E236. This suggests that the ATP synthase level restored in complemented strains (i) allows efficient photosynthetic electron and proton transfers under light-limited conditions where E236 is already mildly affected, but (ii) becomes slightly limiting under excess light, yet not detrimental to growth (Fig. 5A). Altogether, this suggests an only limited restoration of ATP synthase accumulation by complementation with WT version of ATPG, which is usual in Chlamydomonas under native promoters but sufficient to assume that E236 strain is an ATPG mutant.

## Material and methods

## Strains, Growth conditions and transformation procedure

We electroporated the hygromycin resistance cassette in the presence of the CRISPR Cas 9 enzyme and RNA guides to edit genes coding for thylakoid proteases FtsH2 and EGY1. Mutants were plated on selective medium; colonies were then transferred to fresh TAP medium and grown mixotrophically in low light ( $10 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) for 7 days before chlorophyll fluorescence analysis and photo-inhibitory treatment ( 1 h at $1000 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ).

Depending on the gene targeted by the CRISPR-Cas9 transformations, namely FTSH2 or EGY1, these mutants were analysed by Western Blot or PCR. FtsH2 (lower band), as well as FtsH1 (upper band), was readily detected by the Anti-Var2 antibody in all mutants (Suppl. Fig.1A), suggesting normal accumulation of the thylakoid FtsH protease. Likewise, the targeted EGY1 region was readily amplified in all mutants (Suppl. Fig.1B), suggesting absence of alteration at this locus.

## Genomics

For each strain, we ordered an Illumina sequencing technology-based NGSelect DNA data package (Eurofins, Germany), comprising the generation of a standard genomic library (DNA fragmentation, adapter ligation, size selection and amplification) and a data package of $>5$ million pair reads ( $2 \times 150 \mathrm{bp}$ ). From these raw data, we generated genomic sequences using open-source platform Galaxy (usegalaxy.org) as follows. Paired-end reads raw data were converted to appropriate fastq format using FASTQ groomer and their quality were confirmed using FASTQC (maximum quality scores were well maintained all over the 150bp, not shown). The genome sequences were reconstructed using the published workflow "SNP calling on paired end data" for the mapping of the paired reads against a reference $C$. reinhardtii genome sequence (that of our WT strain T222+ was generated by Olivier Vallon (personal communication) as described in ref Merchant 2017). We visualized the genomes using IGV (software.broadinstitute.org).

## BIOCHEMISTRY

Whole-cell proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE 8M urea. Proteins were electrotranferred onto nitrocellulose membranes in a semi-dry blotting transfer apparatus. Heme $f$ peroxidase activity was detected on blot membranes by using the chemiluminescence. For immunodetection, the blot membranes were incubated separately in primary antibodies against ATP synthase subunits, FtsH1/2 subunits, and loading control proteins as RNAse J (RNJ) and cytochrome $f$, and revealed by secondary antibody conjugated with HRP by the chemiluminescence method. WT was loaded in decreasing amount as indicated by fractions. The mutant strains $\triangle a t p B, \Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p l$ were obtained by homologous recombination
(deletion of 5'-UTR and CDS); the nuclear mutations mdb1 and mrl1 impair AtpB and RbcL accumulation, respectively

## RNA

Total RNA were extracted in phenol-chloroform, separated on agarose, transferred to membrane by capillarity and UV-crosslinked. Probes were produced by PCR in the presence of digoxigenin-UTP. After hybridization, membrane was incubated in the presence of antidigoxigenin antibody conjugated to alkaline phosphatase and revealed by chemiluminescence in the presence of CDP-Star.

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Figure 1. Mutants affected by short photoinhibitory treatment can be isolated by screening on chlorophyll fluorescence.
After transformation, colonies were transferred to fresh TAP medium and grown mixotrophically in low light ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) for 7 days. Chlorophyll fluorescence analysis was performed before (left) and after (centre) photoinhibitory treatment of 1 h at $1000 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. Immediately after this, plates were put back to $5 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ for 3 h (recovery period) before fluorescence was assessed again (right). Depicting evolution of PSII function throughout these treatments, shown are the maximum quantum efficiency of PSII photochemistry Fv/Fm (false-colour scale) for the plate from which the mutant E236 was isolated (white circle). Were introduced as controls the wild-type (WT), the ftsh1-1 mutant and C17, the complemented strain ftsh1-1(pSL18-FTSH1).


Figure 2. Fluorescence kinetics and growth tests point to ATP synthase defects in four mutants.
Cells were grown in low light ( $5 \mu$ mol photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) in liquid TAP. A: Time course of PSII maximal yield $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{V}} / \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{M}}$ upon photoinhibitory treatment ( $30 \mathrm{~min} 1000 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$, red hatched box) and recovery (grey box). B: Chlorophyll fluorescence kinetics were monitored in the transition from dark (black box) to low light (grey box). Saturating pulses (red triangles) were applied to estimate PSII yield in the light. C: Cells were spotted onto plates containing TAP (top panels) and minimal (MIN, bottom panels) and grown for 6 days under moderate light ( $25 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$, left panels) or saturating light ( $120 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$, right panels). As a control, the $m d b 1$ mutant was introduced, which lacks ATP synthase because the maturation factor MDB1 is required for the maturation of $a t p B$ transcript.


Figure 3. Western blot analysis suggests that the mutations impair ATP synthase accumulation/assembly at distinct steps
Whole-cell protein extracts were separated by SDS/urea-PAGE (A: 16\%; B and C: 12-18\%) and analysed by immunodetection using antibodies against ATP synthase subunits. Transfers were checked by Ponceau staining; heme $f$ (from cytochrome. $f$ ) was detected by its peroxidase activity as a loading control. Controls were loaded in decreasing amount as indicated by fraction numbers.


B PCR amplification (genomic DNA) Primer pair: A B

C

Fud18


Figure 4. Genome sequencing reveals transposon insertion in the $3^{\prime}$-UTR of ATPG and the one nucleotide deletion leading to a frame-shift in atpF.

Paired-end sequencing reads were mapped on WT T222+ genome. A: Read mapping in WT (top) and E236 (bottom) centred on the Cre11.481450 locus (ATPG). In grey, reads with both ends mapping in neighbouring areas (red and blue reads denote interspace that are longer or shorter than the expected range, respectively); in light colours, reads with ends mapping on distinct chromosomic areas, in this case both chromosome 11 (Chr 11) and TOC1 transposon sequences. Below are shown the gene model for ATPG ( $5^{\prime}$-untranslated region (UTR), coding sequence (CDS) and $3^{\prime}-\mathrm{UTR}$ ) and the map of primers used for PCR amplification (numbers stand for the distance upstream ATG start codon (-) and downstream $3^{\prime}-$ UTR end ( + ). B: PCR products obtained on WT and E236 genomic extracts were separated on agarose. C: The Fud18 mutant has a deletion of one $T$ after the start codon of atpF which causes a frameshift and an abortive Stop codon.


Figure 5. Growth phenotype in mutant E236 is complemented by WT version of ATPG, although only partially restoring ATP synthase accumulation and photosynthetic electron flow.

E236 mutant cells were electroporated in the presence of WT ATPG and grown on MIN in high light. Three transformants were randomly selected (C1-C3) and grown in liquid TAP under low light for the following analyses. A: Cells were plated on TAP medium (control, very low light: $2 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) and on MIN medium for growth under non-saturating light ( 60 $\mu \mathrm{mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) or excess light ( $200 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ). B: Whole-cell protein extracts were separated by SDS-PAGE and detected by immunoblot. C: and D: Fluorescence was recorded upon illumination under moderate ( $C$ : $135 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) or high (D: $800 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) levels of green actinic light. Saturating flashes (red arrows) were given before (black boxes) and during illumination (grey boxes).


## Supplemental Figure 1. Selected mutants were analysed at molecular level.

Black characters denote strains demonstrating strong and robust fluorescence phenotypes in contrast with dark grey characters. A: Western blot analyses using anti-Var2 (FtsH1/2) and anti-NTH (as a loading control) antibodies on whole-cell protein extracts. Photosensitive control strain ftsh1-1 accumulates a mutated version (R420C) of FtsH1. B: PCR products in the CRISPR-targeted area of EGY1. Mutants m1-m7 were pale green clones which yielded very few DNA (when re-analyzed, they exhibited WT-like PCR products (not shown)).


Supplemental Figure 2. Fluorescence kinetics of dark-grown cells illustrates phenotypic similarities between selected mutants and mdb1.

Cells were grown in low light ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~mol}$ photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) in liquid TAP then spotted onto TAP plates and grown in the dark. As a control was introduced the mdb1 mutant, which lacks ATP synthase because the maturation factor MDB1 is required for the maturation of $a t p B$ transcript. A: plate after 6 days of growth. B: Diagram of strains on the plate. C: PSII maximal yield $F_{V} / F_{M}$. $D$ and $E$ : Chlorophyll fluorescence kinetics were monitored in the transition from dark to low light (green actinic light: $120 \mu$ mol photon $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ). PSII yield $\mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{II})$ after $30 \mathrm{~s}(\mathrm{D})$ and $3 \mathrm{~min}(E)$ of green light.


Supplemental Figure 3. Northern blot analysis reveals no defect in atpA, atpB, atpH, atpE nor atpl transcript levels in F28N, F292, E236 and E271mutants. Three separate blots were hybridised with digoxigenin labelled probes.

Total RNA extracts were separated on agarose gels and analysed by immunodetection in the presence of specific digoxigenin-UTP probes.


Supplemental Figure 4. Absence of co-segregation between non-phototroph phenotype and hygromycin resistance in the progeny from backcrosses of ATP synthase mutants with WT. Mutants were backcrossed to the WT strain S1D2 and the progeny were plated in the same order on TAP (control), MIN medium (obligate phototrophic growth) and TAP $+20 \mathrm{mg} . \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ hygromycin (resistance cassette required for growth). Clones growing on MIN are identified by squares while obligate phototrophs are in circles (dashed lines for clones in-between). Clones growing or not on TAP + hygromycin are identified by thin or thick lines, respectively. The clone count is summarized in the tables on the left of each cross. As supplementary controls, we also plated on TAP and MIN medium some ATP synthase mutants, located in the dashed semi-circle (top panels) and reported in the top right inset.

## Article 3:

"The OPR protein MTHI1 controls the expression of two different subunits of atP synthase CFo in Chlamydomonas reinhardtil."

This article is under review

# The OPR protein MTHI1 controls the expression of two different subunits of ATP synthase CFo in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii 

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Running title: Post transcriptional control of CFo biogenesis
One sentence summary: The OPR protein MTHI1 is a major actor in the biogenesis of the chloroplast ATP synthase that co-regulates the expression of AtpH and AtpI, the two subunits of the proton channel.

## Keywords: Nucleus-encoded trans-acting factors; Chloroplast biogenesis, ATP synthase; OPR proteins; translation activation; Chlamydomonas.

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#### Abstract

: In Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, chloroplast gene expression is tightly regulated posttranscriptionally by gene-specific trans-acting protein factors. Here we report the identification of an OctotricoPeptide Repeat (OPR) protein, MTHI1, critical for the biogenesis of chloroplast ATP synthase CFo. At variance with most trans-acting factors characterised so far in C. reinhardtii that control the expression of a single gene, MTHI1 targets two distinct transcripts: it is required for the accumulation and the translation of the atpH mRNA, encoding a subunit of the selective proton channel but it also enhances the translation of the atpI mRNA, which encodes the other subunit of the channel. MTHI1 targets the 5'UTR of both $\operatorname{atpH}$ and atpI genes. Co-immuno-precipitation and small RNA sequencing revealed that MTHI 1 binds specifically a sequence highly conserved among Chlorophyceae and the Ulvale clade of Ulvophyceae at the 5 'end of the tri-phosphorylated atpH mRNA. A very similar sequence, located about 60 nt upstream of the atpI initiation codon, was also found in some Chlorophyceae and Ulvale species and is essential for atpI mRNA translation in C. reinhardtii. Such a dual targeted trans-acting factor, thus provides a mean to co-regulate the expression of the two proton hemi-channels.


## Introduction:

In chloroplasts, photosynthetic energy conversion is performed by oligomeric protein complexes made of subunits of dual genetic origin. Indeed, due to the extensive gene transfer from the cyanobacterial ancestor of chloroplasts to the nucleus of the host cell, only some subunits of the photosynthetic apparatus are still organelle-encoded, whereas others are expressed in the nucleo-cytosol, then imported into organelles. Thus, assembly of photosynthetic protein complexes requires a tight cooperation between two genetic compartments to avoid the wasteful or even deleterious accumulation of unassembled subunits. A first level of coordination between the two genetic compartments is brought by a plethora of nucleus-encoded factors that tightly control each post-transcriptional step of chloroplast gene expression (processing, trimming, splicing, editing, stabilisation, translation activation and decay of chloroplast RNAs; reviewed in (Barkan and Goldschmidt-Clermont, 2000; Schmitz-Linneweber and Small, 2008; Woodson and Chory, 2008; Germain et al., 2013; Zoschke and Bock, 2018). Thanks to this nuclear control of chloroplast gene expression that emerged after endosymbiosis, gene expression remains commensurate in the chloroplast and nucleo-cytosol, despite a huge imbalance in gene copy number that may differ by as much as four orders of magnitude. In the unicellular green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, nucleus-encoded factors mostly belong to two major functional classes: the M factors involved in chloroplast mRNA maturation and stabilisation and the T factors required for mRNA translation activation (Choquet and Wollman, 2002). Most of these factors pertain to helical repeat protein families, such as PPR (PentatricoPeptide Repeat), HAT (Half A Tetratricopeptide repeat), mTERF (mitochondrial TERmination Factor) or OPR (OctatricoPeptide Repeat) proteins (reviewed in Barkan and Small, 2014; Hammani et al., 2014). These proteins comprise tandem repeats of simple structural motives that fold into antiparallel $\alpha$-helices and stack on each other to form a concave surface, well suited to interact with RNA molecules. Each repeat contacts, though amino acids at determined position, one specific nucleotide thereby allowing sequence specific recognition. While the PPR family has greatly expanded in land plants, with more than 450 members in Arabidopsis or rice, it remained limited in green algae (14 PPR proteins in C. reinhardtii (Tourasse et al., 2013), which instead expresses numerous OPR proteins (>125 in C. reinhardtii vs. only 1 in Arabidopsis).

Beside this nuclear control on chloroplast gene expression, other fine-tuning regulations set the synthesis of the individual subunits of a photosynthetic protein to the
stoichiometry required for their functional assembly, as shown by the pleiotropic loss of all subunits of a complex in any mutant lacking expression of one of its major subunits. Two major mechanisms account for this concerted accumulation in C. reinhardtii (reviewed by (Choquet and Vallon, 2000). Some subunits, particularly those encoded in the nucleus, are expressed normally but rapidly degraded when they cannot assemble, while many chloroplastencoded subunits of the photosynthetic apparatus show an assembly-dependent regulation on their synthesis, called "control by epistasy of synthesis" or CES process (Choquet and Wollman, 2009). In absence of their assembly partners the rate of synthesis of CES subunits is dramatically reduced. In most cases, the CES process relies on a negative feedback mediated by the unassembled CES subunit on its own translation (Choquet et al., 1988; Choquet et al., 2003; Wostrikoff et al., 2004; Minai et al., 2006; Wostrikoff and Stern, 2007; Choquet and Wollman, 2009). However, the CES processes that control the biogenesis of the CF1 sector of ATP synthase, present atypical features, which account for the 3:3:1 uneven stoichiometry in the synthesis of the $\alpha, \beta$ and $\gamma$ subunits (Drapier et al., 2007).

The mechanisms ensuring the 1:1:14:1 accumulation of the AtpF, AtpG, AtpH and AtpI subunits of the CFo sector have not been investigated so far. The acetate-requiring ac46 mutant, isolated by Levine more than half-a-century ago (Levine, 1960), was latter characterised as defective for photosynthesis, because of a single nuclear mutation (Levine and Goodenough, 1970). It does not express the chloroplast-encoded AtpH subunit (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989a), because it does not accumulate the monocistronic atpH mRNA (Majeran et al., 2001). Beside defective expression of AtpH, this mutant also shows a strongly reduced synthesis of AtpI, another chloroplast-encoded CFo subunit (Lemaire and Wollman, 1989a), which, together with the tetra-decameric ring of AtpH subunits, forms the membraneembedded proton channel. The mutation thus affects the MTHI1 gene whose product is required for the $\underline{\mathbf{M}}$ aturation/stability and $\underline{T}$ ranslation of the $\operatorname{atp} \underline{\boldsymbol{H}}$ and $\operatorname{atp} \underline{\boldsymbol{I}} \mathrm{mRNAs}$ and the ac46 mutation was renamed mthi1-1. The coupled expression of AtpH and AtpI was possibly indicative of a CES relationship. In the mitochondria of the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, mutants lacking expression of Atp9p, the mitochondrion-encoded counterpart of AtpH, show reduced synthesis of Atp6p and Atp8p, the former being the mitochondrial equivalent of AtpI (Jean-Francois et al., 1986; Ooi et al., 1987; Payne et al., 1991; Bietenhader et al., 2012). Together, these results prompted us to investigate the expression of the $a t p H$ and $a t p I$ genes in mthi1 mutants.

## Results:

Lack of MTHI1 leads to a reduced accumulation and translation of the atpI mRNA.

We recovered a photosynthetic mutant, kindly provided by Rachel Dent, generated by insertional mutagenesis with a paromomycin resistance cassette (Dent et al., 2005), originally called CAL014.01.38). It shows the same phenotype than mthi1-1, lacks the atpH mRNA, hence $\operatorname{AtpH}$ synthesis (Fig. 1C) and accumulation of all subunits of the ATP synthase complex (Fig. 1B). In addition, it shows a strongly reduced synthesis of AtpI in $-{ }^{14} \mathrm{C}$ pulse labelling experiments (Fig. 1C) and was renamed mthi1-2.

The reduced synthesis of AtpIt prompted us to monitor the accumulation of its transcript in mthi1 mutants. The atpI gene belongs to a polycistronic transcription unit, which comprises $p s b D$, the second exon of $p s a A, p s b J, a t p I, p s a J$, and rps12 (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017 and Fig. 1A). As previously reported (Liu et al., 1989; Rymarquis et al., 2006; Jalal et al., 2015) and illustrated in Fig. 1A,C, the wild type displays four major atpI transcripts, respectively the psbJ-atpI-psaJ-rps12, atpI-psaJ-rps12, atpI-psaJ and atpI tetra-, tri-, di- and mono-cistronic transcripts. The tri and di-cistronic transcripts account for $75 \%$ of the atpI-containing mRNAs. In mthi1 mutants, the accumulation of atpI transcripts was reduced by $\sim 60 \%$, the diand mono-cistronic transcripts being the most reduced, by $\sim 85 \%$ and $\sim 75 \%$, respectively (Fig. 1C,D).

To understand whether this reduced transcript level was responsible for the reduced synthesis of AtpI in mthi1 mutants, we compared the loading of atpI transcripts on polysomes in the wild type and in three strains lacking expression of $\operatorname{AtpH}: \Delta a t p H$, an $a t p H$ deletion strain (see Table I for strains constructed in that study) and mthi1-1, -2 (Fig. 2A). Free mRNAs and dissociated 50S and 30S ribosome subunits are found in "light" fractions (10 to 6) of sucrose gradients, while transcripts found in "heavy" fractions (5 to 1) correspond to polysomes of increasing sizes (Minai et al., 2006; Eberhard et al., 2011). The distribution of the $p s b D$ mRNA, whose expression is unrelated to ATP synthase biogenesis, was unchanged in the three mutant strains and the wild type, with a peak centred on fractions 4-5. The distribution of the four atpI transcripts was similar in the wild-type and $\Delta a t p H$ strains, with a peak centred on fraction 4. In mthi1 mutants, the distribution of the tetra- and tri-cistronic transcripts, were similar to that in the wild type, probably because these transcripts respectively comprise 3 and 2 open reading frames in addition to the $a t p I$ coding sequence. In stark contrast, the two smaller transcripts were virtually absent in fractions 1-5 and mostly


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Figure 1: Phenotype of mthi1 mutants
A) Schematic representation of the atpH (top) and atpl (bottom) transcription units. Coding sequences are shown as thick rectangles, while 5'UTRs are depicted as thin rectangles. Bent arrows represent promoters. The major transcripts detected in panel C with probes specific to atpH or atpl are indicated. (0) stand for a precursor transcript that cannot be observed in the wild type because it is efficiently processed, but can be detected in psaA trans-splicing mutants (Choquet et al, 1988). Scissors indicate the position of processing events, whose efficiency symbolised by their size.
B) Pleiotropic loss of ATP synthase subunits in mthi1 mutants.

Total cell extracts of wild-type (a dilution series is shown) and of the two mthi1 mutants strains were probed with antibodies against the proteins indicated on the left. The accumulation of all ATP synthase subunits was dramatically decreased in the two mutant strains, while that of cyt. $f$, PsaA, D1 and OEE2, respectively used as proxies of the abundance of the cytochrome $b_{6} f$ complex, photosystem I (PSI) and PSII was unaffected. The red asterisk points to a cross-reaction of the antibody, preserved in the mutant strains, against the $\gamma$ subunit of mitochondrial ATP synthase.
C) (Top) Accumulation of the atpH and atp/ transcripts in the same strains. The psaB transcript provides a loading control.
(Bottom) Rate of translation of ATP synthase subunits in the same strains, assessed by $5^{\prime}$ pulse labelling experiments in the presence of ${ }^{14} \mathrm{C}$ acetate $\left(5 \mu \mathrm{Ci} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}\right)$ and of the cycloheximide inhibitor of cytosolic translation $\left(10 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}\right)$. The positions of the Atpl and AtpH subunits are indicated.
D) Quantification of atp/ transcripts amount in wild-type and mutant strains.
(Left) Relative accumulation of the four atpl-containing transcript in the wild type, expressed as the percentage of the total amount of atp/ transcript. (Right) Relative abundance of each atp/ transcript, and of the sum of them, reported to that of the same band in the wild-type (set to 100, symbolised by a grey dashed line) in the two mutants (dark grey mthit-1; light grey mthit-2; $\mathrm{n}=4$ ).


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Figure 2: The MTHI1 factor controls the translation of the atpl mRNA
A) Loading of atp/ mRNAs on polysomes.

Solubilized whole-cell extracts ( T ) from wild-type, $\Delta$ atpH and the two mthi1 mutant strains, pre-treated for 10 min with CAP $\left(200 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}{ }^{-1}\right)$ were loaded on sucrose gradients. After ultracentrifugation, ten fractions were collected and the transcripts present in each fraction were analysed by RNA blots using the probes indicated on the left.
B) Defective atp/ mRNA translation is not responsible for its decreased abundance in mthi1 mutants.
(top) Schematic representation of the changes introduced into the atp/ gene: mutated nucleotides are shown in bold: they change the initiation codon (written in red) to a stop codon and introduced a BgNI RFLP marker (underlined).
(middle) Phototrophic growth of the atpl $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{St}}$ and atpl $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{t}}$ strains assessed on minimum medium (devoid of acetate) under $75 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. Three independent transformants are shown. The growth of the strain on TAP medium ( $15 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ), as well as the growth of the wild type and of the $\Delta \mathrm{atp} /$ strain are shown as controls.
(bottom) Accumulation of atp/ transcripts, schematically depicted in panelA, in a control strain bearing the aadA cassette alone and in strains bearing the aadA cassette associated with the untranslatable $\mathrm{atp}_{\mathrm{St}_{\mathrm{t}}}$ gene. Three independent transformants are shown for each construct. Because of the polar effect of aadA cassette, co-transcripts with atpJ and/or rps12 cannot be observed. The origin of the transcripts indicated by an aterisk (*) is unknown. petB provides a loading control.C) atpH and atpl gene expression in the wild-type, $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}, \Delta \mathrm{atpl}$ and mthit-1 strains.
C) $\operatorname{atpH}$ and atpl gene expression in the wild-type, $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}, \Delta$ atpl and mthit-1 strains.
(top) accumulation of the atpH and atp/ transcripts. psaB provides a loading control.
(bottom) Rate of translation of the atpH and atpl transcripts in the same strains, assessed as in Fig. 1B by pulse labelling experiments. The positions of the Atpl and AtpH subunits are indicated.
to an increased and rapid proteolytic disposal of AtpI in the absence of its assembly partner, AtpH. Rather, the translation of atpI transcripts is severely impaired in mthi1 mutants.

To further assess the relationship between atpI transcript accumulation and translation, we constructed an untranslatable version of the $a t p I$ gene, $\operatorname{atpI}_{\mathrm{St}}$, whose initiation codon was replaced by an amber codon (Fig. 2B). This mutated atpI gene was, as all chimera and mutated genes used in this study (Table I), associated with an aadA cassette to select transformants for spectinomycin resistance. After transformation it replaced the endogenous atpI gene. Because not synthesising the AtpI subuni, transformants were unable of phototrophic growth (Fig. 2B). However, the mutated atpI transcripts accumulated to the same levels than in control strains transformed with an unmodified atpI gene, just associated with the aadA cassette (Fig. 2B): the reduced accumulation of atpI mRNA in mthi1 mutants is not due to impaired translation but to the lack of MTHIl that therefore does not only activate the translation of the atpI mRNA but also contributes to its stabilisation.

## AtpI and AtpH are synthesised independently

The reduced translation of atpI transcripts in mthi1 mutants could be explained in two ways: either MTHI1 is a bi-functional protein required for the stable accumulation of the atpH mRNA and for the translation of the atpI transcript or AtpI is a CES subunit, requiring the presence of AtpH to be synthesised at sustained rates, as in yeast. The similar loading of atpI transcripts on polysomes in wild-type and $\Delta a t p H$ strains (Fig. 2A) strongly argues against the latter hypothesis. As a further challenge, we compared the translation of the atpH and atpI mRNAs by pulse labelling experiments in strains mthi1-1, $\Delta a t p H$ and $\Delta a t p I$. While the synthesis of AtpI was strongly reduced in the mthi1-1 strain, it was similar in the $\Delta a t p H$ and wild-type strains (Fig. 2C). Conversely, AtpH was synthesized at the same level in the wildtype and $\Delta a t p I$ strains. The two subunits are thus synthesized independently, ruling out a CES relationships and showing that MTHI1 controls the expression of two different genes, at variance with most M or T factors studied so far in Chlamydomonas.

## The MTHI1 factor targets the atpI 5'UTR.

We studied the role of MTHI1 in atpI gene expression using chimeric genes. We first constructed a chimeric atpI gene, in which the atpI 5'UTR was replaced by the promoter and $5^{\prime}$ UTR of the psaA gene (Fig. 3A). After transformation, this aAdI chimera (see footnote ${ }^{8}$ of Table 1 for chimeras nomenclature) replaced the endogenous atpI gene in the wild-type and mthi1-1 recipient strains. In a wild-type background, it was expressed at a level sufficient to


Fig. 3: the MTHI1 factor targets the atpl 5'UTR.
A) Schematic representation of the aAdl chimera, where the atpl 5'UTR had been replaced by the promoter and $5^{\prime}$ untranslated regions of the psaA gene. The position of the recycling aadA cassette ( $K^{\top}$ ), inserted in reverse orientation with respect to $a t p H$, is shown.
B) Photoautotrophic growth of the aAdl strain, assessed as in panel 2B.
C) (Left) atpH and atpl transcript accumulation in the wild-type and mthi1-1 strains transformed by the aAdl construct, whose transcript is shorter than the endogenous atpl transcript, because of the small size of the psaA 5'UTR. The recipient strains are shown as well as the $\Delta a t p H$ and $\Delta a t p /$ strains for controls. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic background. The psaB transcript provides a loading control. (Right) rate of AtpH and Atpl synthesis in the wild-type and mthi1-1 strains and in the corresponding strains transformed by the aAdl construct, assessed as in Fig. 1B by pulse labelling experiments.

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sustain phototrophy (Fig. 3B). When introduced in the mthi1-1 recipient strain, it did not restore phototrophy in transformants that still lack accumulation of the atpH mRNA. However, pulse labelling experiments showed a restored synthesis of the AtpI subunit (Fig.

3C). The down regulation of atpI mRNA translation in absence of MTHI1 thus depends on the atpI 5'UTR.

In another chimera, dIf, the atpI 5'UTR region was fused in frame to the petA coding sequence, previously shown to be a convenient reporter gene (Wostrikoff et al., 2004). The atpI 5'UTR being uncharacterized so far, we first determined its length (493 nt) by 5'RLMRACE (Suppl. Fig. S1A). Furthermore, as the atpI gene is part of a polycistronic unit, with no indication for a dedicated promoter (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017, Suppl. Fig. S1B), we placed the psaA promoter upstream of the atpI $5^{\prime}$ UTR (Fig. 4A). After transformation, the dIf chimera replaced the endogenous petA gene in the wild-type, mthi1-1, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I$ and $\Delta a t p H / I$ strains.

Transformants derived from the wild-type strain grew on minimum medium (Fig. 4B): the atpI 5'UTR can drive cytochrome $f$ synthesis at levels sufficient to sustain phototrophic growth. However, the accumulation of both the chimeric transcript and its cytochrome $f$ gene product were lower than those of the endogenous petA gene. When introduced in the mthil-1 strain, the accumulation of the chimeric transcript was further reduced, but cytochrome $f$ only accumulated to trace amount: the atpI 5'UTR thus confers an MTHI1-dependant rate of translation to a reporter coding sequence. Similar results were obtained using the heterologous $\operatorname{aadA}$ coding sequence as a reporter (Suppl. Fig. S2).

Most interestingly, the expression of the 5'atpI-petA chimera was increased in the deletion strains $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I, \Delta a t p H / I$ (Fig. 4C,D;F). In the $\Delta a t p H$ strain, the accumulation of the chimeric transcript was increased 1.5 -fold, compared to the wild-type background, but remained lower than that of the endogenous petA gene, while the accumulation of its gene product became higher than that of the endogenous cytochrome $f$. The expression of the atpH and atpI genes thus relies on a common factor present in limiting amount, possibly MTHI1. The accumulation of the chimeric mRNA was further increased (by 2.5 fold) when the atpI gene was deleted as it was in a strain deleted for both $a t p H$ and $a t p I$ genes. The chimeric and endogenous atpI transcripts compete for the binding of some factors in limiting amount.

## The MTHI1 factor targets the $a t p H$ 5'UTR to stabilise the transcript and activate

## its translation.

We similarly identified the target of MTHI1 within the atpH mRNA. The $d H f$ chimeric gene, made of the atpH promoter and $5^{\prime}$ UTR fused in frame to the petA coding sequence (Fig. 5A) was introduced by transformation in the chloroplast genome of the wildtype, mthi1-1, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I$ and $\Delta a t p H-a t p I$ recipient strains. In a wild-type background,

A
A $\overleftarrow{k^{r}}$


D


E


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Fig. 4: the atpl 5'UTR is sufficient to confer a MTHI1-dependant translation to a reporter gene.
A) Schematic map of the dlf construct inserted instead of the endogenous petA gene. The red rectangle indicates the $p s a A$ promoter region placed upstream of the $p s b J$-atpl intergenic fragment (in light blue) that was chosen long enough to include the atpl processing site. The scissors above the intergenic region indicate the position of the 5'end of the processed atpl mRNA. The position of the recycling selection cassette, upstream of the chimeric petA gene and in reverse orientation with respect to this latter, is shown.
B) Photoautotrophic growth of the $d H f$ (see Fig. 5) and dlf chimeric strains (three independent transformants) assessed as in fig. 2B. The growth of the wild type and of the mthi1-2 strains are shown as controls.
C) Accumulation of the petA transcript, either endogenous or chimeric, in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type, mthit-1, $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}, \Delta \mathrm{atpl}$, and $\Delta \mathrm{atpH} / \mathrm{l}$ recipient strains, shown aside, as well as a $\Delta p e t A$ strain for comparison. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic context. The accumulation of the atpH mRNA in the same strains is also shown, while that of the psaB mRNA provides a loading control.
D) Accumulation of cytochrome $f$ in the same strains (loading control: OEE2).
E) Quantification of the pet $A$ transcript (left) and cytochrome $f$ (right) in transformed strains shows a competition between the chimera and the endogenous atpl gene for the expression of 5'atpl-driven genes. Value for the dlf transcript in the wild type recipient strain is set to $1 ; n=6$.


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Fig. 5: the MTHI1 factor targets the atpH 5'UTR.
A) Schematic representation of the $d H f$ chimera, with the position of the recycling aad $A$ cassette (in reverse orientation with respect to the petA gene) shown. The blue thick rectangle represents the first 25 nt of the atpH coding sequence fused in frame with the petA coding sequence, added to the construct to improve the expression of the chimera.
B) Accumulation of the atpH and petA transcripts in the wild type, mthit-1, $\Delta$ atpH, $\Delta a t p l$ and $\Delta a t p H / a t p l$ strains carrying the $d H f$ chimera instead of the endogenous petA gene. Unstransformed wild-type, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p l, \Delta p e t A$ and mthi1-1 strains are shown as controls. Asterisk indicates the position of the $a t p H$ mRNA, while the double asterisk points to a cross-reaction of the probe that comprises the atpH 5'UTR with the dHf chimeric transcript. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic context. The psaB transcript provides a loading control.
C) Cyt. $f$ accumulation in the same strains, with OEE2 as a loading control.
D) Quantification of the relative accumulation of the petA transcript (Left) and of cyt. $f$ (Right) in the same strains. Values for $d H f$ transformed in the wild-type strain are set to 1 ; $\mathrm{n}=6$
$4 \mathrm{~B})$. The $d H f$ chimeric transcript accumulated to $150 \%$ of the endogenous petA transcript
level, but its protein product was twice less abundant than the endogenous cytochrome $f$ (Fig. 5B,C,D). In the mthi1-1 background, the chimeric petA mRNA did not accumulate and cytochrome $f$ was totally absent (Fig. 5B,C).

Deletion of the $a t p H$ gene increased the expression of the chimera at the transcript and cytochrome $f$ levels by 3 and 1.5 fold respectively, compared to the wild-type background (Fig. 5B,C,D). The chimeric transcript competes with the endogenous atpH mRNA for MTHI1 binding. Deletion of the atpI gene increased only moderately the accumulation of the chimeric transcript but stimulated its translation, while the simultaneous deletion of the two genes increased the accumulation of both the chimeric transcript and its cytochrome $f$ gene product. Again, these observations were confirmed using the aadA coding sequence as a heterologous reporter gene (Suppl. Fig. S3). We noted that a dicistronic petA-aadA transcript accumulated to the same level in the four progeny but was not expressed in the mthi1 offspring (Suppl. Fig. S3 B,C), suggesting that MTHI1 could also be required for the translation of the $\operatorname{atpH}$ mRNA.

To address this point, we constructed a modified atpH gene, whose transcript is stabilised independently of the presence of MTHI1 thanks to the insertion, immediately after the $a t p H$ transcription start site, of a polyG cage, a very stable secondary structure impeding the progression of $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exoribonucleases (Vreken and Raue, 1992; Drager et al., 1996; Drager et al., 1998). This modified pGatpH gene (Fig. 6A) replaced the endogenous atpH gene in wild-type and mthi1-2 strains and we monitored its expression in transformants. Those recovered from the wild-type strain were phototrophic (Fig. 6B) and accumulated similar amounts of the atpH transcript (Fig. 6C) and of AtpH (Fig. 6D) as the control strain: the polyG cage at the beginning of the atpH transcript did not prevent its translation. Transformants derived from the mthi1-2 strain recovered, although reduced, accumulation of the atpH mRNA but were nevertheless unable of phototrophic growth. They lacked accumulation of the AtpH subunit (Fig. 6D), probably because the synthesis of the AtpI subunit was still impaired in the mthil background. To overcome this issue, we replaced the atpI gene of the mthi1-2 $\{p G a t p H\}$ strain by its chimeric aAdI version, whose expression does not depend on the presence of MTHI1 (Fig. 2B,C). Despite the restored expression of AtpI, the mthi1-2 \{aAdI, pGatpH\} transformants were still unable of photosynthetic growth and lacked accumulation of the AtpH subunit (Fig. 6B,D). Thus, MTHI1 beside stabilising the $a t p H \mathrm{mRNA}$, is also required for its translational activation.

Characterisation of the MTHI1 protein.


Fig. 6: MTHI1 is required for the translation of the atpH gene
A) Schematic map of the pGatpH construct with a zoom to the region surrounding the atpH transcription start site, indicated by a vertical arrow, where the polyG tract was inserted. The atpH promoter is underlined, and the position of the recycling $\operatorname{aad} A$ cassette is shown. A construct carrying the selection cassette at the same position but devoid of the polyG insertion was used as control $\left(a t p H_{c}\right)$. To avoid any polar effect on the expression of the downstream located atp $F$ gene (co-transcribed with atpH), all experiments were performed after excision of the recycling aadA cassette.
B) Phototrophic growth of the pGatpH, mthit-2 \{pGatpH\}, \{aAdl pGatpH\} and mthit-2 \{aAdl pGatpH\} strains (two independent transformants each) assessed as in Fig. 2B. Growth of the wild type and of the mthit-2 and $\Delta \mathrm{atp} /$ strains are shown as controls.
C) Accumulation of the atpH and $a t p /$ transcripts in the wild-type strain transformed by the $a t p H_{C t}$ and pGatpH constructs and in the mthit-2 strain transformed with the pGatpH gene. The $a A d l$ construct then replaced the endogenous atpl gene in the resulting pGatpH and mthit-2 $\{\mathrm{pGatpH}\}$ strains. Two independent transformants are shown for each genetic background. The petB transcript provides a loading control.
D) Accumulation of the AtpH subunit in strains expressing the polyG construct. Tubulin provides a loading control.
an indexed library of cosmids (see Suppl. Fig. S4 for details). Evidence that the MTHI1 gene actually corresponds to gene model Cre17.g734564 came from the complementation of both mthi1-1 and mthi1-2 mutations by an EST clone (AV629671) obtained from Kazusa DNA Research Institute. Sequencing of the MTHI1 region revealed that the translation initiation codon was substituted by an AUU codon in strain mthi1-1, while insertion of a C residue after codon 138 yielded to premature translation abortion after codon 188 in strain mthi1-2 (Suppl. Fig. S5B).

The MTHI1 gene encodes a protein of 828 residues (Fig. 7A, suppl. Fig. S5C), predicted to be targeted to the chloroplast by the Predalgo and TargetP programs (Tardif et al., 2012; Almagro Armenteros et al., 2019). Prediction of secondary structure by the Scratch protein predictor software (http://scratch.proteomics.ics.uci.edu) suggested that the mature MTHI1 protein potentially comprises two different domains. Following a predicted chloroplast targeting peptide of 48 residues, the N-terminal domain (up to residue 566) contains pairs of $\alpha$-helices (Fig. 7A; Suppl. Fig. S5C), 9 of which are typical OPR repeats (Fig. 7B). The C-terminal domain harbours mainly coiled-coil or intrinsically disordered sequences with no obvious motifs, but several stretches of A and Q residues (Suppl. Fig. S5C), as in other Chlamydomonas M and T factors (Boudreau et al., 2000; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Raynaud et al., 2007).

BLAST searches found orthologues of MTHI1 in green algae (Suppl. Fig. S6). The region of similarity was restricted to the N -terminal, OPR-containing part of the protein, while the C-terminal tail was highly variable in length and sequence, even between the most closely related species. Thus, fusing a HA tag for immuno-detection at the C-terminus of MTHI1 should not be deleterious for its function. Indeed, we could still complement the mthi1-1 mutation with a tagged version of MTHI1, was the tag inserted in genomic ( g transformants) or cDNA (c transformants) constructs (Fig. 8A). The tagged genomic construct, including 4280 bp upstream of the translation initiation codon, i.e. presumably the whole MTHI1 promoter, allowed a higher accumulation of the tagged protein than the tagged cDNA construct (compare clones g6 and g9 with clones c in Fig. 8B).

We over-expressed the MTHI1 protein and raised an antibody against the mature protein to compare the accumulation of the tagged protein in transformants with that of the endogenous protein in the wild type. Despite the higher accumulation of MTHI1 in clones transformed with the genomic construct, the atpH mRNA was not more accumulated than in wild type (Fig. 8B,E). Either the C-terminal tag somehow decreases protein activity, or other factors limit the abundance of the $a t p H$ mRNA. As expected from the requirement of MTHI1

A


B NYDSWDTTLSLWAYAQLDH--YDEGALRALCDAAVEVAP IFKPVDCANAVVAFAHLDY--VHPELLRQIVQTVLDTLD DYAPGEVCQVLWGFARLGVh-PGPAFLAEVVDAVQWRLQ GYGTQELGMVLWALVRLGYk-PGPRFLRDVESVLLARLP HMAPGDIAITVWSFARLRY--KAVRFLDEVPAAVGPQLH KCRSSELCSLISGFATAHH--YHKSLLDAVADVLLSRLD GLSHHEVATALWTFGTFRHrPaHPDFAKQVAAALYARMR SFSPQGLAMVVKALAQLQW--RSEPLMEQLIAAAEAKLN AFKPLELSQLLWGLTALQC--RDLHIYYAVVRRCIAILK


Fig. 7: the MTHI1 protein.
A) Schematic representation of the MTHI1 protein. The brown rectangle depicts the chloroplast transit peptide as predicted by the ChloroP program. The green rectangle indicates the region of the protein conserved in other Chlorophyceae species (see Supp. Fig S9), while the pink rectangle points to a rapidly evolving and disordered region. The position of the two mthi1 mutations is shown. Blue arrows represent the OPR repeats, whose sequence is shown in panel (B), with the amino acid residues obeying the OPR consensus shaded in grey. The lower scheme shows the predicted secondary structure of this region.

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291 for the accumulation of the $\operatorname{atpH}$ mRNA, the levels of MTHI1 and of the atpH mRNA were
with the antibody against the whole protein (Fig. 8B), but detectable with that against the HA


Fig.8: complementation of the mthi1-1 mutant strain.
A) complementation of the mthi1 strain with a tagged version of the MTH11 gene, either the tagged cDNA (c clones) or the genomic construct (g clones) restores phototrophy, assessed by plating the cells on Minimum medium plates as in Fig. 2B. The growth of the wild-type and of the $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}$ and mthit-2 strains is shown as control.
B) Accumulation of the MTHI1 protein (red arrow), either endogenous or tagged, of the AtpH subunit (top) and of the atpH and atpl transcripts (bottom) detected in the same strains with an antibody against the MTHI21 protein. Note the larger size of the tagged protein, compared to the endogenous one, due to the insertion of the triple HA tag. CGE1and cyt. for petA mRNA are shown as the respective loading controls in protein and RNA blots. The name of the clone used for further analysis of MTHI1 in the next figures is written in red. (asterisk: cross-contaminant).
C) MTHI1 is a soluble protein

Cellular extract (I) from the complemented strain 99 was separated into soluble ( S ) and insoluble (pellet: $P$ ) fractions by ultracentrifugation and equal volumes of each fraction were probed with antibodies against the HA tag and against $\operatorname{GrpE}$ and cytochrome $f$ as controls for the purity of the fractions.
D) The C-terminal domain of MTH11 is dispensable for its function

Accumulation of the tagged MTHI1 protein, probed with an antibody against the HA tag, and of the atpH and atpl transcripts in mthit-1 strain complemented with the tagged versions of the MTHII gene, either the tagged cDNA (cclones), the genomic construct (g clones) or its C-terminally truncated version ( $\Delta \mathrm{Cg}$ clones). All transformants were selected for recovery of phototrophy on Minimum medium plates. Overaccumulation of the truncated MTH11 protein does not lead to an increased abundance of the atpH transcripts. Cyt. $f$ and $p s a B$ are shown as the respective loading controls in protein and RNA blots. The name of the clones used for further analysis of MTHI1 in the next figures is written in red.
E) Deletion of the C-terminal domain results in higher abundance of MTHI1.
(top) Accumulation of MTHI1 protein (red arrow) in mthi1-1 strains complemented with either the tagged MTHI1 CDNA (c), the tagged genomic construct $(g)$ or its C-terminally truncated version $(\Delta \mathrm{Cg})$, probed with an antibody against the MTHI1 protein. The name of the clones used for further analysis of MTHI1 is written in red. (asterisk: cross-contaminant).
(bottom) quantification of MTHI1 accumulation, in the strains shown in top panel, normalised to that of cytochrome $f$ and reported to the accumulation of MTH11 in wild-type cells, set to 1 (symbolised by a dashed line). Error bars represent SD, $\mathrm{n}=3$.
F) The C-terminal domain of MTH11 contributes to its high turn-over.

Stability of full-length MTHI1 or of its C-terminally truncated version, assessed by immunoblots of cells treated with cycloheximide for the indicated times. Accumulation of OEE2 in the same samples is shown as a loading control.
G) Differential solubility of the full-length MTHI1 protein and of its C -ter truncated version.

Cellular extracts of transformants expressing the full-length (") and the truncated (") versions of the tagged MTHI1 protein, treated with cycloheximide for 0 or 4 hours (Input panel, left), were fractionated into soluble $(\mathrm{S})$ and membrane $(\mathrm{P})$ fractions and analysed as in panel F . Distribution of CGE1 and cyt. fare shown to assess the purity of the fractions.

They were however able of phototrophic growth (Fig. 8A), confirming some restoration of ATP synthase.

We used one clone complemented with the tagged genomic construct (g9) to study MTHI1 intra-organelle localisation and found it exclusively soluble (Fig. 8C).

## The C-terminal tail is dispensable for the main function of the MTHI1 factor.

The poor conservation of the C-terminal domain raised the question of its function. We thus constructed a truncated version of the gene, lacking residues 573-797, i.e. most Cterminal domain, but still containing the HA tag. This truncated MTHI1 could still complement the mthi1-1 mutation. As shown on Fig. 8D,E, it accumulated to much higher levels than the full-length protein, but did not proportionally increase the abundance of the atpH or atpI mRNAs: either part of the truncated MTHI1 protein was not involved in mRNA stabilisation or other factors became limiting. To understand the origin of this differential accumulation, we compared the stability of the full-length and truncated MTHI1 by following their decay in complemented strains incubated with cycloheximide, an inhibitor of cytosolic translation (Fig. 8F). MTHI1 was short-lived, with a half-life of about 1 hour. Most interestingly, its truncated version remained stable over the 8 hr of the experiment: the Cterminus tail apparently controls the half-life of the whole protein. We repeated fractionation experiments on these complemented strains, treated with cycloheximide for 4 hr . In total cell extracts, the level of MTHI1-HA was strongly reduced upon cycloheximide treatment, while that of its truncated version was insensitive to the antibiotic. After fractionation into soluble and insoluble fractions, the full-length MTHI1 was almost exclusively found in the soluble fraction. By contrast, its truncated version was significantly found in the pellet, most probably as large aggregates that fell down during ultracentrifugation. Both the aggregated and soluble populations were stable over 4 hr (Fig. 8G).

## MTHI1 belongs in vivo to a large complex that also contains the atpH and/or atpI MRNA

We used size exclusion chromatography to investigate whether MTHI1 belongs to a high molecular mass complex, as do almost all trans-acting factors studied so far (Boudreau et al., 2000; Vaistij et al., 2000b; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Dauvillee et al., 2003; Perron et al., 2004; Schwarz et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2010; Boulouis et al., 2011). Soluble extract from clone g 9 was fractionated on a Superose 6 column, optimal for separating protein complexes in the 5 to $5,000 \mathrm{kD}$ range. As shown in Fig. 9A, MTHI1 belongs to complexes ranging from


Fig. 9: MTHI1 belong to a high molecular weight complex that interacts with the atpH and atpl transcripts.

Soluble extracts from strains listed at the left of the figure were fractionated on a Superose 6 10/300 HR column and probed with an antibody against the HA tag. Molecular masses of the complexes found in each fraction were estimated by comparison with standards of the HMW gel filtration calibration kit (GE Healthcare).

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75 (fraction 10) to $>700 \mathrm{kD}$ (fraction 5), peaking in fractions 8-9 (150 to 450 kD ). As no special care was taken to preserve the integrity of the RNA moiety, RNAs, if retained by MTHI1, were probably restricted to fragments closely surrounding its binding site and only account for a minor increase in molecular mass. When the supernatant was treated with

RNase, prior to loading on the column, MTHI1 presented a sharper distribution in slightly lighter fractions 9 and 10, consistent with a monomeric state. Thus, mRNAs appear responsible for the distribution of MTHI1 in high molecular mass ribonucleoprotein complexes. We analysed the distribution of MTHI1 in complemented strains lacking the atpH mRNA, the atpI mRNA or both. Upon deletion of either atpH or atpI the distribution of MTHI1 remained unchanged and centred on fractions 8-10, the deletion of both atpH and atpI genes shifted the distribution of MTHI1 to larger complexes, centred on fraction 8, but extending to still heavier fractions. In the absence of its two RNA targets, MTHI1 undergoes conformational changes, possibly making aggregates. A similar behaviour had been already reported for MCA1 and TCA1 in the absence of their petA mRNA target (Boulouis et al., 2011). This behaviour, however, is opposite to that observed upon RNase treatment. Aggregation of MTHI1 in the absence of its RNA target was corroborated by the distribution pattern of the truncated MTHI1. Partially found in the pellet after ultracentrifugation, it presented a bimodal distribution with a first peak in fraction 11-12, likely corresponding to monomers and a broad peak in fractions 8 to 2 , with a maximum in fraction 8 .

## MTHI1 interacts with the atpH mRNA.

To investigate the interaction of MTHI1 with the atpH and atpI transcripts, we sequenced the small RNA fraction (size range: 11-44 nt, sRNA-Seq) of RNA samples prepared from the wild type or mthi1-1 strains, since the interaction of an $M$ factor on its target transcript tends to generate of a footprint that pinpoints its binding site (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017; Ruwe and Schmitz-Linneweber, 2012; Zhelyazkova et al., 2012). Fig. 10A shows the normalized coverage of RNAs along the atpH and atpI loci. Fig. 10B shows the coverage of sRNAs (11-44 nt) over the same loci. A prominent peak of small RNAs of about 19-21 nt in length with a sharp 5 'end was found in the wild type at the very beginning of the atpH mRNA. This peak was only seen after treatment of the RNA samples with RNA PolyPhosphatase (RPP), an enzyme that removes the pyrophosphate moiety of triphosphorylated transcription products. Most, if not all, monocistronic atpH mRNA is thus transcribed from the atpH promoter and does not result from the processing of the large precursor transcribed from the atpA promoter. In the mthi1-1 mutant, the amplitude of that peak was reduced by more than 5 -fold (Fig. 10B).

We used the g9 strain complemented with the tagged version of MTHI1 to immunoprecipitate it with an antibody against the HA tag (Fig. 11A). RNAs, extracted from the pulled-down material, were analysed by dot-blots (Fig.11B). We observed a signal with a


Fig. 10: Transcriptional profile of the atpH and atpl genes.
A) Coverage, normalised as RPM (log scale) of pooled bi-directional and directional wild type WTSS along the atpH and atpl loci. Positions of relevant genes and 5'UTRs are shown below. The black bar in the atpl 5'UTR shows the position of the MTHI1 target (see below). Redrawn from the data in Cavaiuolo et al, 2017.
B) sRNA mapping at the 5'end of the atpH mRNA are the footprint of MTHI1.

Coverage, normalised as RPM, of pooled sRNA-Seq along the same loci: mock(green) versus RPP-treated (blue) wild type sRNA-Seq libraries compared to RPP-treated libraries of the mthi1-1 mutant (red). Coverage is averaged over two biological replicates. Only reads mapping to the coding strand are shown. The inset for atpH shows a zoom to the $\operatorname{atpH} 5^{\prime}$ UTR and the sequence of the footprint is shown at the bottom. For atpl a zoom to the 5'UTR region (coding strand only) is shown in Suppl. Fig. S7A. Note the very different values on $y$-axes of the two graphs.
probe specific for atpH 5'UTR, but not with rrnS or 5'petA probes used as specificity controls, nor when the same procedure was applied to the the wild type, devoid of HA-tagged MTHI1. Thus MTHI1 interacts specifically, directly or indirectly, with the atpH 5’UTR. By contrast, no signal could be detected with an 5'atpI probe.


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## Fig. 11: The MTHI1 protein interacts specifically with the atpH $5^{\prime} U T R$.

A) The full-length and truncated MTHI1 proteins were immuno-precipitated from a soluble cellular extract with an antibody against the HA tag (I: input; U: unbound; IP: immuno-precipitate). Immunoprecipitation of a cellular extract from the wild-type strain is shown as a negative control. The apparent slower migration of the immuno-precitated proteins in due to a "smiling" effect in the migration of the gel from which the composite figure (indicated by a vertical line) was made, in order to remove irrelevant samples.
B) RNAs extracted from immuno-precipitates were analysed by dot-blot hybridised to the probes indicated on the rigth. The lower panel shows the disposition of the samples on the filter. Top line: RNA extracted from the wild type, $\Delta$ atpH, and $\Delta$ atp/ strains (without immuno-precipitation), as a control for the specificity of the probes. Bottom line: immuno-precipitated RNA from the wild type, and from complemented strains expressing the tagged MTH11 (99).
C) Fractions from size exclusion chromatography of a cellular extract from a strain expressing the full-length MTHI1 (first line in fig. 9), indicated by the bars $A$ (fractions 4 to 8 ) and $B$ (9 to 11), were pooled, immuno-precipitated with an antibody against the HA tag and analysed with the same antibody for the MTHI1 content of the immuno-precipitated fractions. Their RNA content was extracted and analysed by dot blot with a probe specific of the atpH $5^{\prime}$ UTR, which detected a (weak) signal in pooled fractions A, further analysed by deep sRNA-Seq.
D) Ratio of normalised sRNA coverage in MTHI1 RIP samples along the chloroplast genome.

Differential enrichment was calculated as the ratio of the coverage of sRNAs at each nucleotide position in the above-defined fraction A of the MDFH1-HA sample to (that in the wild-type control sample +1 ). Blue curve: sRNAs mapping to the + strand, red curve sRNA mapping to the - strand. Most enriched genome positions are shown on the graph, as well as the positon of the atpH and atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTRs. A zoom to the inverted repeat is shown in Suppl. Fig S7C.
E) Coverage of immuno-precipitated RNA (normalized as RPM) over the atpH and atpl loci, schematically depicted at the bottom of the panel. Blue curve: MTHI1-RIP sample; red curve: WT-RIP sample (negative control). A zoom to the atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTR is shown in supplemental Fig. S7B. Note the very different values of the $y$ axes in the two graphs.


Figure 12: MTHI1 interacts with polysomes.
Distribution of MTHI1, Rps12 and RbcL proteins and of atpH, psaB and rrnS (16S rRNA) transcripts in wild-type cells along a sucrose gradient. For the gradient in the presence of MgCl 2 , an overexposed blot immuno-decorated with the antibody against the MTHI1 protein is shown. T represents the total protein and RNA extracts, $P$ the pellet fraction. The top panel shows the UV absorbance profile along the gradient, and the lower panel, the distribution of the same proteins and transcripts in samples treated with EDTA to dissociate the ribosomes. Note that the atpH mRNA, encoding a short polypeptide, is not heavily loaded with ribosomes and does not penetrate deep in the gradient. (red asterisk: cross-contamination).

MTHI1 complexes were first purified by size exclusion chromatography. MTHI1-HA was then immuno-precipitated independently from pooled fractions 3-8 and 9-10 (Fig. 9). Only RNAs extracted from fractions 3-8 gave rise to a 5 'atpH signal in dot-blot experiment (Fig. 11 C ) and were used for library construction. The atpH mRNA being tri-phosphorylated
(Cavaiuolo et al., 2017; Fig. 10B), all samples were RPP-treated before construction of the library. Fig. 11D displays the ratio of normalised sRNA coverage (expressed as RPM) in the strain complemented with the tagged MTHI1 versus that in the wild type, plotted along the chloroplast genome. In the MTHI1-HA sample, sRNAs were strongly enriched at the 5'end of the $a t p H 5^{\prime}$ 'UTR, as better shown in Fig. 11E. By contrast, sRNAs were not enriched around the atpI $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR when compared to the wild type sample (Fig. 11D,E), in agreement with the absence of atpI signal in RIP experiments (Fig. 11B). However, at variance with the lack of signal in dot-blots hybridized to a rrnS probe, sRNA mapping to the ribosomal operon were somehow enriched in the MTHI1-HA RIP library (Suppl. Fig. S7C). To solve this discrepancy, we looked to the possible association of MTHI1 to ribosomes along a sucrose gradient (Fig. 12). Being a short CDS, atpH only accommodates a limited number of ribosomes and does not migrate deep in the gradient. The distribution of MTHI1 parraleled that of the $\operatorname{atpH}$ mRNA: both were found in polysomal fractions 4 to 8 , as shown by the UV absorbance profile and by their dissociation upon EDTA treatment. Thus MTHI1 remains bound to the $a t p H$ transcript when engaged in translation.

## Identification of the targets of MTHI1.

To gain more information on the target of the 9 OPR repeats-containing MTHI1 protein, we looked at the conservation of the small ( 40 bp ) atpH 5'UTR, well conserved among green algae: the 9 first nucleotides (GGTTGTTAT) of the $a t p H$ transcript were strongly conserved in almost all Chlorophyceae, in Pedinophyceae and in the Ulvale clade of Ulvophyceae (Suppl. Fig. S8A and Dataset DS1), but not in Trebouxiophyceae nor in Prasinophytes. To test whether this sequence, often localised downstream of a putative Pribnow -10 box, corresponds to the target of MTHI1, we mutated it into the poorly related GGAACAAAT sequence (Fig. 13A). After introduction of this mutated gene into the chloroplast genome, transformants lost phototrophy and failed to accumulate the atpH transcript (Fig 13B), suggesting that MTHI1 could not bind and protect the transcript anymore.

MTHI1 also targeting the atpI transcript, we searched for occurrence of this motif in the atpI 5'UTR. At variance with the atpH $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR, the long atpI 5'UTR (493 bp in C. reinhardtii) is not conserved in Chlorophyta, except, in some Chlorophyceae, Pedinophyceae and in the Ulvale clade, for a stretch of $\sim 60 \mathrm{nt}$ upstream of the initiation codon (Suppl. Fig. S8B and Dataset DS1). Strikingly, this conserved stretch starts by GGTT(A/G)TTAT motif. We tested its significance by introducing deletions or mutations in the atpI 5'UTR (Fig. 13C). To facilitate the characterisation of the resulting mutants, mutations were introduced in the


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Fig. 13: Validation of the putative MTH11 targets.
A) Schematic map of the $d H_{\underline{M}}$ construct with a zoom to the region of the MTHI1 binding site, highlighted in a yellow box. Mutated nucleotides are written in red. The atpH transcription start site is indicated by a vertical arrow. The atpH promoter is underlined, and the position of the recycling aadA cassette is shown. The control construct ( $\mathrm{atp}_{\mathrm{C} \text { t }}$ ) carries the selection cassette but no mutation in the $\operatorname{atp} \mathrm{H}$ gene.
B) (Left) Phototrophic growth of the $d H_{M}$ strain (two independent transformants), assessed as in Fig. 2B. Growth of the wild type is shown as a control. (Right) Accumulation of the atpH transcript in the wild-type transformed by the $d H_{C t}$ and $d H_{M}$ constructs. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic background. The petD transcript provides a loading control.
C) Schematic representation of the $5^{\prime} \mathrm{atp} / 5^{\prime}$ UTR region in the mutant dlf series.

The red rectangle represents the $p s a A$ promoter region and the blue line shows the psbJ-atpl intergenic fragment inserted in the construct (larger than the atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTR, to allow the processing of the chimeric transcript). The blue rectangle symbolises the processed atpl $5^{\prime}$ UTR, with the target of MTHI1 shown in black. Relevant restriction sites $B u$ (Bsu36I), Bm, (Bsml), S (SnaBI), P (PfMI), Hc (Hincll, where the selection cassette was inserted) are indicated. Arrows above the map indicate the position of the deletions, while the lower insert shows the mutation introduced in the MTHI1 binding site (underlined) in the $d l_{M} f$ strain, with mutated nucleotides shown in red. A Pvull site introduced as a RFLP marker is boxed.
D) Accumulation of the chimeric petA transcript in the $\{a A d\}$ strain transformed with the indicated dlf variants. Three independent transformants are shown for each construct. The psaBmRNA is shown as a loading control.
E) Accumulation of the chimeric cytochrome $f$ in the same strains, and in the $\{a A d /\}$, mthit-1 $\{d / f\}$ and $\triangle$ petA strains as controls. Immuno-detection of OEE2 provides a loading control.

5'UTRs of the endogenous atpI gene and of the chimeras, the latters were introduced in the chloroplast genome of the $\{a A d I\}$ strain, devoid of the atpI 5’UTR (Fig. 3A). A deletion of 168 bp in the atpI $5^{\prime}$ UTR ( $\Delta 1$ ) strongly decreased the accumulation of the chimeric transcript (Fig. 13D) and of its cytochrome $f$ gene product (Fig. 13E). The deletion of the next 129 bp , either alone ( $\Delta 2$ ) or together with the upstream $168 \mathrm{nt}(\Delta 3)$, did not alter the accumulation of the chimeric mRNA nor of its gene product (Fig. 13D,E), suggesting that antagonistic regulatory elements at the beginning and in the middle of the atpI 5'UTR fine-tune the expression of the atpI gene, as already observed in other 5'UTRs (Costanzo and Fox, 1993; Sakamoto et al., 1994). Deletion of 86 bp encompassing the GGTTATTAT motif ( $\Delta 4$ ) decreased the accumulation of the chimeric transcript that remained, however, more abundant than in strains carrying the $\Delta 1$ deletion, but totally abolished its translation. Mutation of this motif to TCAGCTGCA, leaving the rest of the UTR unaltered, led to the same decreased accumulation of the chimeric transcript than in mthi1 mutants, and prevented cytochrome $f$ expression, confirming its importance for atpI mRNA translation.

## Discussion

## MTHI1, a major actor of CFo biogenesis.

Here we show that MTHI1 has a dual role in controlling the expression of AtpH and AtpI, the two subunits of the selective proton channel and, therefore, is a major actor in the biogenesis of the CFo sector of chloroplast ATP synthase.

MTHI1 is required for the stable accumulation of the monocistronic atpH mRNA. Being an OPR protein, it likely binds directly its RNA target, as was shown for the OPR factor TAB1 (Rahire et al., 2012). As do PPR proteins in plants (reviewed in (Barkan and Small, 2014), in Chlamydomonas, OPR proteins are involved in all post-transcriptional steps of chloroplast gene expression: Maturation/stabilisation (Murakami et al., 2005; Kleinknecht et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017; Viola et al., 2019), translation activation (Auchincloss et al., 2002; Eberhard et al., 2011; Rahire et al., 2012; LefebvreLegendre et al., 2015), splicing (Rivier et al., 2001; Balczun et al., 2005; Merendino et al., 2006; Marx et al., 2015; Reifschneider et al., 2016). As other M factors (Loiselay et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2015; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017), MTHI1 binds to the very 5 'end of its target mRNA to protect it from $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3$ ' exonucleases, whose action can alternatively be impaired by addition of a polyG cage at the beginning of the transcript. The 9 OPR repeats-containing MTHI1 protein interacts with the first nine nucleotides (GGTTGTTAT) of the atpH mRNA, highly conserved among Chlorophyceae, Pedinophyceae, Nephroselmidophyceae and in the Ulvale clade of the polyphyletic (Sun et al., 2016) Ulvophyceae class and whose mutation prevents $a t p H$ mRNA accumulation. This interaction results in a specific footprint, co-immuno-precipitated with the MTHI1 protein and highly reduced, although not totally abolished, in the mthi1-1 mutant. Whether this is due to the leakiness of the mthi1-1 mutant, which reverts to some extent when platted on Minimum medium, to a low affinity of other OPR proteins for atpH mRNA or to an intrinsic stability of tri-phosphorylated transcripts that are poor substrates for $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases (Richards et al., 2011; Luciano et al., 2012; Foley et al., 2015) remains to be determined. The monocistronic atpH mRNA, transcribed from its own promoter, does not result from the processing of precursors transcribed from the atpA promoter. Although accumulating to wild-type level in mthi1 mutants, they could not translate the AtpH subunit in the absence of the MTHI1 atpH translation activator. In the wild type, the AtpH subunit is probably not synthesised either from these precursors despite the presence of MTHI1, as the target of MTHI1 is sequestered within a stable secondary structure (Fig. 14A), probably preventing the binding of OPR proteins, as do secondary structures for
A

$\Delta \mathrm{G}=\mathbf{- 2 5 . 2}{\mathrm{kcal} . \mathrm{mol}^{-1}}^{-1}$
C


Fig. 14: Modulation of MTHI1 action.
A) Secondary structure sequestering the MTHI binding site in the precursor RNA transcribed from the atpA promoter.

The lowest energy structure calculated at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by RNA Folding Form (M-Fold: http://frontend.bioinfo.rpi.edu/applications/mfold/cgi-bin/rna-form1.cgi; Zuker, 2003) for the region surrounding the $\operatorname{atpH} 5^{\prime}$ end in the precursor transcript initiated at the $\operatorname{atpA}$ promoter. The MTHI1 binding site is yellow-shaded.
B) Secondary structure of the $\operatorname{atpH} 5^{\prime}$ UTR in the $d H f$ chimera, sequestering the initiation codon.

The lowest energy structure calculated at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by M -Fold for the transcribed region of atpH inserted upstream of the petA gene in chimera $d H f$. The footprint of MDH1 is grey-shaded, while the atpH initiation codon is pink-shaded and the Shine-Dalgarno yellow-shaded.
C) Variations of MTHI1 transcript and protein accumulation over the circadian cycle.

Redrawn from the data in Strenkert et al, 2019. The dark period is indicated by the shaded area. Blue line shows the accumulation of the MTHI1 transcript over time (expressed as Fragments Per Kilobase Million (FPKM), the red dots show the accumulation of the MTHI1protein at the indicated time points (expressed as Peakmaxintensity).
al., 2018).
The fate of trans-acting factors during translation remains poorly known. Most of those that have been studied are not found in polysomal fractions (Boudreau et al., 2000; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Dauvillee et al., 2003; Schwarz et al., 2007; Viola et al., 2019). Either their association does not resist the polysome preparation procedure or they dissociate from their target mRNA upon translation, raising the question of the stability of translated mRNAs (Kato et al., 2006; Viola et al, 2019). MTHI1, however, remains associated with the atpH mRNA loaded on polysomes, while sRNAs derived from the ribosomal cluster were enriched in MTHI1 RIP samples (even if rrnS signal was not observed in dot-blots). This unique behaviour may favour the re-initiation of $a t p H$ mRNA translation, whose rate of translation in exponentially growing cells is higher than that of most other photosynthetic transcripts.

MTHI1 also contributes to the stabilisation of the atpI mRNA, while strongly enhancing its translation. However, we did not detect any specific footprint within the atpI 5’UTR, nor did we find evidence for a binding of MTHI1 that would resist RIP experiments, whether analysed by dot-blot or deep sequencing. We previously failed similarly to observe a footprint diagnostic of an interaction of the translation activator TCA1 with its petA 5' UTR target (Cavaiuolo et al, 2017), despite experimental evidence for TCA1 interaction with this RNA region (Loiselay et al., 2008; Boulouis et al., 2011). T factors, here MTHI1, probably interact only transiently with their target transcript, here the atpI 5 'UTR, to promote translation. However, mutating the putative MTHI1 binding site within the atpI $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR destabilised the 5'atpI-petA chimeric transcript as in mthi1 mutants, and totally prevented the synthesis of a reporter protein, highlighting its importance for the expression of the atpI gene.

## PPR10 and MTHI1: an example of convergent evolution.

The mode of action of CrMTHI1 strikingly resembles that of ZmPPR10, even though the two proteins are not evolutionary related, as they belong to different protein families (OPR vs. PPR). The maize PPR10 protein targets the atpI-atpH intergenic region to stabilise the transcripts of these adjacent and co-transcribed genes, by respectively protecting them from 3' $\rightarrow 5^{\prime}$ and $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases (Pfalz et al., 2009). The binding of PPR10 generates a footprint matching the overlapping ends of the atpI and atpH transcripts (Zhelyazkova et al., 2012). In addition, PPR10 activates the translation of the atpH mRNA by opening a secondary structure that would otherwise sequester the Shine-Dalgarno sequence (Prikryl et al., 2011). MTHI1 may similarly activate the translation of the atpH mRNA by opening a
secondary structure sequestering the $\operatorname{atpH}$ initiation codon (Fig. 14B). However, at variance with MTHI1, PPR10 is not involved in atpI mRNA translation activation (Zoschke et al., 2013).

## The two target genes of MTHI1 are widely separated on the chloroplast genome

By targeting two genes, widely separated on the chloroplast genome, MTHI1 appears unusual when compared to other factors characterised so far in C. reinhardtii. They target a single chloroplast transcript to allow its stable accumulation (Kuchka et al., 1989; Drapier et al., 1992; Drager et al., 1998; Boudreau et al., 2000; Loiselay et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017) or activate its translation (Rochaix et al., 1989; Stampacchia et al., 1997; Wostrikoff et al., 2001; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Dauvillee et al., 2003; Raynaud et al., 2007; Schwarz et al., 2007; Eberhard et al., 2011; LefebvreLegendre et al., 2015; Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). A recent genome-wide ribosome profiling study performed on the Chlamydomonas nac2 (mbd1-nac2) mutant, defective for the accumulation of the $p s b D$ mRNA, only detected very limited changes in chloroplast gene expression, most of which were attributed to PSII deficiency, rather than to the absence of NAC2 per se (Trosh et al, 2018). The only exception so far is the MBB1 factor, required for the stable accumulation of the $p s b B$ mRNA, coding for the CP47 core antenna of PSII, as for the correct processing and translation of the co-transcribed $p s b H \mathrm{mRNA}$, encoding another PSII subunit (Monod et al., 1994; Vaistij et al., 2000b; Vaistij et al., 2000a; Loizeau et al., 2014). In both cases, these bifunctional factors target two subunits in tight interaction in the assembled complex (Komenda et al., 2005; Boehm et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2019), whose synthesis is highly interdependent in other organisms (Jean-Francois et al., 1986; Ooi et al., 1987; Payne et al., 1991; Komenda, 2005; Bietenhader et al., 2012). Such bifunctional factors would thus provide a mechanism alternative to the CES process for a co-regulated expression of closely interacting subunits.

The landscape of the nuclear control of chloroplast gene expression in Chlamydomonas appears widely different from that in vascular plants. Land plants trans-acting factors show a looser specificity. When targeting a polycistronic transcript, they may define both the 3 'end of the upstream transcript and the overlapping 5'end of the downstream transcript (Pfalz et al., 2009; Zhelyazkova et al., 2012). Moreover, they often bind similar sequences in different transcription units, often coding for subunits of different protein complexes. The maize protein CRP1 activates the translation of both petA and psaC transcripts and is also required for the processing of petB and petD monocistronic RNAs in maize as in Arabidopsis (Barkan
et al., 1994; Fisk et al., 1999; Schmitz-Linneweber et al., 2005; Ferrari et al., 2017). The maize PPR10 protein, in addition to its role in atpI and atpH expression, also controls the accumulation of the monocistronic transcripts of the adjacent rpl23 and psaJ genes (Pfalz et al., 2009; Prikryl et al., 2011; Zhelyazkova et al., 2012). A recent genome-wide ribosome profiling study revealed an even more complex situation by highlighting the unexpected versatility of several PPR proteins in plants, since PPR10 also stabilises the monocistronic psaI mRNA, while PGR3 binds to the rpl14-rps8 intergenic region to stabilise the rpl14 mRNA at its 3 'end and to stimulate rps8 translation (Rojas et al., 2018).

## The paradoxical specificity of trans-acting factors in C. reinhardtii.

The high specificity of trans-acting factors in C. reinhardtii appears paradoxical, as, for example, the GTT(G/A)TTAT target of MTHI1 is not restricted to the atpH or atpI mRNAs but is found several times (3 times for GTTGTTAT, in $\operatorname{atpH}$, rpoC2 and rpoC1 transcripts; twice for GGTTATTAT, in atpI and rps3 transcripts; 11 times for the more degenerated GGTTNTTAT motif) in the chloroplast transcriptome of $C$. reinhardtii. These extra motives do not lead, however, to footprints nor to sRNAs enrichment in MTHI1-RIP samples, which suggests that the affinity of MTHI1 for its GGTTGTTAT target remains moderate and requires additional determinants, presently unknown, for its strong interaction with the atpH 5'UTR. This interaction leads to the formation of an abundant footprint, whereas that with a very similar motif in the atpI 5'UTR does not. This is unlikely to result from a differential affinity of MTHI1 for the GGTTGTTAT vs. GGTTETTAT sequence: changing one for the other in the $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR of the $d H f$ and dIf chimeras did not lead to noticeable changes in cytochrome $f$ expression, while changing GGTTGTTAT to GGTTATTAT in the atpH transcript did not modify its expression, neither at the RNA nor at the protein levels (D. Jarrige, Y. Choquet, unpublish. res.).

The correlated abundances of MTHI1 and atpH mRNA in a series of transformants argues for MTHI1 being limiting for the expression of $a t p H$. The stimulated expression of the $d H f$ and dIf chimera in the absence of the atpI or atpH genes, respectively, suggests that the two genes share some common factors, MTHI1 being a likely candidate. However, the deletion of the abundant $a t p H \mathrm{mRNA}$, stoichiometrically bound to its stabilisation factor, should release much more MTHI1 protein than the deletion of the atpI gene, whose mRNA, 10-fold less abundant (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017), interacts only transiently with its translation activator. Still, deleting the atpI gene stimulates much more the expression of the dIf chimera
than deleting $a t p H$ : other factor(s) specific to the 5 'UTR of the atpI mRNA should be limiting for atpI expression.

The interaction of several factors assembled in a complex on a target $5^{\prime}$ UTR may, despite a moderate specificity/affinity of each of them for its target, lead to a strong cooperative interaction, much more stable than that between any two components taken separately. An $a t p H$-specific factor interacting with both the $a t p H 5^{\prime}$ 'UTR and MTHI1 could tether it on the $\operatorname{atpH} 5^{\prime}$ end, but not on other occurrences of the same motif. A weak affinity of an atpI-specific factor for MTHI1 may similarly results in a transient, but still specific, interaction with the atpI 5'UTR. Such cooperative interactions prevail for the few chloroplast genes whose expression has been studied in detail in C. reinhardtii. MCA1 and TCA1 are respectively strictly required for the accumulation and translation of the petA transcript, whose translation is nevertheless reduced 10 fold in the absence of MCA1, while its stability is decreased by $85 \%$ in the absence of TCA1 (Wostrikoff et al., 2001; Raynaud et al., 2007; Loiselay et al., 2008). The two factors form a ternary complex with the petA mRNA (Boulouis et al., 2011) and the absence of any of them weakens the interaction between the other two. Similarly, the NAC2 stabilisation factor of the psbD transcript recruits the RB40 protein to activate the translation of the $p s b D$ mRNA, despite the poor specificity of this later for U-rich regions (Schwarz et al., 2007). Last, MDA1 and TDA1, respectively required for the accumulation and translation of the atpA mRNA, also form a complex assembled onto the atpA mRNA (Viola et al., 2019).

Such a "dually footed" mechanism could favour the high plasticity of nucleochloroplastic interactions observed in Chlorophyceae: despite a mutation in its target, a transacting factor would, through its interaction with other factors, remain in contact with it, allowing the selection of compensatory mutations over time. It also helps to understand the recycling of M factors: once the target mRNA degraded, the complex will dissociate, and because of the moderate affinity of the M factor for its target, the footprint sRNA will be released, rather than trapped, allowing the protein to interact with newly synthesised mRNAs.

## The co-regulation of atpH and atpI: an ancestral situation

The joint control of atpH and atpI expression can be traced back during evolution. In Escherichia coli, the unc operon organisation facilitates the concerted expression of ATP synthase subunits, even if additional translational controls are required to set their contrasted stoichiometry. Cyanobacteria, including Gloeomargarita lithophora, the extant free-living cyanobacterium most closely related to the ancestor of chloroplasts (Ponce-Toledo et al.,
2017), partially retained this gene organisation, with ATP synthase subunits now encoded by two distinct operons: atpI-atpH-atpG-atpF-atpD-atpA-atpC and atpB-atpE (for the sake of clarity, cyanobacterial genes are named here as their chloroplast counterparts, rather than by their true name: e.g. the atpE locus of Gloeomargarita encoding subunit $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{AtpH})$ is nevertheless named $a t p H$ ). This ancestral organisation was largely preserved in Archeplastidia: while the genes encoding subunits $\gamma, \delta$, AtpI and ATPG may have been relocated to the nucleus in some species, those remaining in the chloroplast still belong to two transcription units (atpI)-atpH-(atpG)-atpF-(atpD)-atpA and atpB-atpE. A noticeable exception are the Chlorophyceae in which atp genes are shuffled around the chloroplast genome (Dataset DS1), raising the question of their co-regulation.

In the Ulvale clade of Ulvophyceae and in Pedinophyceae, the atpI and atpH genes, although adjacent on the chloroplast genome, share in their $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR a sequence similar to the MTHI1 binding site (Dataset DS1 and Suppl. Fig. 8A,B). This suggest an ancestral situation that placed the expression of the two genes under the control of an orthologue of MTHI1, paving the way for their separation in Chlorophyceae. This sequence possibly appeared early during evolution in the common ancestor of Pedinophyceae, Ulvales and Chlorophyceae, together with the appearance of an efficient processing system that generates, in green algae chloroplasts, independent monocistronic transcripts from the polycistronic transcription units that are remnants of the ancestral cyanobacterial operons.

## MTHI1 is conserved in Chlorophyceae

In Chlorophyceae, the conservation of the MTHI1 target goes along with the conservation of the MTHI1 protein, since all sequenced genomes, with the exception of Coelastrella, encode an orthologue of MTHI1. The region of similarity is restricted to the OPR-containing N-terminal part of the protein. Even this "conserved" region evolves rapidly, with multiple species-specific insertions, some of which interrupt the OPR repeats (Suppl. Fig. S6). Strikingly, the two Ulvale genomes presently available each encode an OPR protein with 9 OPR repeats (Suppl. Fig. S6), which are the mutual best hits of CrMTHI1 and are predicted, based on a preliminary version of the OPR code (Manuscript in preparation), to recognise the GGTTGTTAT sequence. These OPR are shorter than their Chlorophycean orthologues as they lack the disordered C-terminal extension.

Downstream of this conserved region, all chlorophycean MTHIl orthologues possess a C-terminal tail, rich in stretches of identical residues, mostly $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{Q}$, and R , predicted to be essentially a random coil. These tails are not conserved in sequence nor in length and do not
show similarity to other proteins in databases, suggesting that they have no specific functions. Indeed, in C. reinhardtii, the tail appears dispensable for the major function of the protein, as are also the N-terminal tails of TCA1 (Raynaud et al., 2007), NAC2 (Boudreau et al., 2000), RAA1 (Merendino et al., 2006) and TDA1 (Eberhard et al, 2011) or the C-terminal tail of MRL1 (Johnson et al., 2010). These tails could result from the introduction of "junk" GC-rich DNA within permissive regions of the genes or from the loss of Stop codons upon mutations in GC rich regions, extending progressively the coding sequence. However, while the fulllength MTHI1 factor is short-lived with a half-life of about 1 hr , its C-ter truncated version is stable over 8 hr . Possibly, these tails, a common feature of trans-acting factors in Chlorophyceae, modulate the stability of the proteins, althrough the proteolytic process controlled by these tails is unknown.

The accumulation of the short-lived full-length MTHI1 protein thus depends on changes in the abundance of the MTHI1 transcript, as occurs over the circadian cycle (Fig. 14C). MTHI1, being limiting for the expression of atpH and atpI, would couple the expression of these genes to that of the nucleus-encoded ATP synthase subunits, whose transcripts show a similar pattern of expression (Fig. 8F in Zones et al., 2015). Thus it behaves as genuine regulator of ATP synthase biogenesis.

## METHODS

## Strains, Media, Culture Conditions, and Chemicals

Wild-type $\mathrm{t} 222^{+}$(derived from 137c: nit1 nit2), mutants, and transformed strains of $C$. reinhardtii, were grown at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in Tris-acetate-phosphate (TAP) medium, pH 7.2 (Harris, 1989), under continuous light ( $5-10 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$; white LED, whose emission spectrum is shown in Suppl. Fig. S9), unless otherwise specified. Crosses were performed according to (Harris, 1989).

## Constructs and Nucleic Acid Manipulations

Standard nucleic acid manipulations were performed according to (Sambrook et al., 1989). Primers used in that study are listed in Suppl. Table ST1. All DNA constructs were sequenced before transformation in Chlamydomonas. Details of the DNA constructs are given in the Suppl. Method section.

## RNA Isolation and Analysis

RNA extraction and RNA gel blot analysis were performed as described (Drapier et al., 2002) with ${ }^{33} \mathrm{P}$-labelled probes derived from coding sequences (Eberhard et al., 2002). Transcript accumulation was quantified from PhosphorImager scans of the blots, as described by (Choquet et al., 2003). In Figs. 2B and 6C, probes amplified with primers listed in Table ST1 were digoxigenin-labelled, using DIG-dUTP, the antidigoxigenin Fab fragment and CDP Star reagent (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). Signal was acquired in ChemiTouch (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) and analysed with the ImageLab software (v 3.0, BioRad). Transcriptomic analyses were performed as described in (Cavaioulo et al, 2017). In Fig. 2, polysome analyses were performed as described in (Minai et al., 2006; Eberhard et al., 2011). In Fig. 12 we used a modified protocol adapted from (Trosch et al., 2018): Cell cultures were grown to mid-logarithmic phase (2-3 $\times 10^{6}$ cells $\mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ ) and supplemented with $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ chloramphenicol 15 min before harvesting. Cell pellets were resuspended in polysome buffer ( 20 mM Tris $\mathrm{pH} 8.0,25 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 50 \mathrm{mM} \beta$-mercaptoethanol, $0.5 \mathrm{mg} \mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ heparin, $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{ml}{ }^{-}$ ${ }^{1}$ chloramphenicol, 0.2 M sucrose, $1 \%(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v})$ Triton X-100, 1 x Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche)), with or without $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}(25 \mathrm{mM})$. Cells were broken with a French Press and cell lysates were centrifuged at $10,000 \mathrm{~g}$ for 15 min at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to remove cell debris. EDTA samples were prepared without $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$ and supplemented with 20 mM EDTA. $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$ and EDTA supernatants were loaded on a $20-50 \%(\mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v})$ continuous sucrose gradient. The $20 \%$ and $50 \%$ sucrose solutions were prepared in a buffer containing 20 mM Tris $\mathrm{pH} 8.0,25 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}$,
$5 \mathrm{mM} \beta$-mercaptoethanol, $0.5 \mathrm{mg} \mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ heparin and $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{ml}{ }^{-1}$ chloramphenicol and either supplemented with $25 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl}{ }_{2}$ or 1 mM EDTA. Sucrose gradients were centrifuged at $38,000 \mathrm{rpm}$ for 150 min in a SW41 Ti rotor (Beckman). 11 fractions were collected and the pellet was resuspended in 1.1 ml solution containing 5 mM EDTA and $0.1 \%$ SDS.

## Transformation Experiments (listed in Table I)

Chloroplast transformation was achieved by tungsten particle bombardment (Boynton et al., 1988) as described in (Kuras and Wollman, 1994) using a home-made helium gun. Transformants were selected on TAP-Spec ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}{ }^{-1}$ ) and subcloned on TAP-Spec (500 $\mu \mathrm{g} \mathrm{mL}{ }^{-1}$ ) until they reached homoplasmy, assessed as described in Table 1. For each transformation, at least four independent transformants were analysed. Phenotypic variations between independent transformants proved negligible.

Nuclear transformation of mthi1 strains was performed by electroporation, as described by (Raynaud et al., 2007), with the following parameters: $10 \mathrm{mF} / 1200 \mathrm{~V} \cdot \mathrm{~cm}^{-1}$. Transformants were selected for phototrophy on minimum medium (Harris, 1989) under high light (150 $\left.\mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{~s}^{-1}\right)$.

## Protein Preparation, Separation, and Analysis

${ }^{14} \mathrm{C}$ pulse-labelling experiments in the presence of cycloheximide $(10 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}$ - $)$, protein isolation, separation, and immunoblot analyses were performed on exponentially growing cells (2-3 $10^{6}$ cells $\cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) as described (Kuras and Wollman, 1994). Immunoblots were repeated at least twice and performed on three independent transformants. Cell extracts, loaded on equal chlorophyll basis, were analysed by SDS-PAGE (12-18\% acrylamide gradients and 8 M urea). At least three biological replicas were performed for each experiment. Proteins were detected by ECL. Primary antibodies, diluted 100,000 -fold (antibodies against cytochrome $f, \mathrm{D} 1$, and PsaA), 50,000 -fold (CF1 $\beta$, tubulin subunit $\alpha$ ), 10 000 -fold (AtpH, CGE1, RbcL, Rps 12 and ATP synthase subunit $\gamma$ ), 5000 -fold ( ATP synthase subunits $\delta, \varepsilon$, and AtpI), 2500 -fold (AadA) were revealed by horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibodies against rabbit IgG (\#W401B, Promega). Antibodies against the OEE2 subunit from the photosystem II oxygen-evolving complex, the $\beta$-subunit of F1/CF1, cytochrome $f$, and CGE1 have been respectively described in (de Vitry et al., 1989; Atteia et al, 1992; Lemaire and Wollman, 1989b; Kuras and Wollman, 1994; Schroda et al., 2001). Antibody against Rps12 was kindly provided by S. Ramundo (Ramundo et al., 2013), antibodies against D1 (\#AS05 084), PsaA (\#AS06 172), RbcL (\#AS03 037), AadA
(\#AS09 580) and the ATP synthase subunits $\gamma$ (AS08 312), $\delta$ (\#AS10 1590), $\varepsilon$ (\#AS10 1586), AtpH (\#AS09 591), and AtpI (\#AS10 1583) were purchased from Agrisera and used according to manufacturer's instructions. Antibody against the $\alpha$ subunit of tubulin was purchased from Sigma (\#MABT868). MTHI1-HA was detected by ECL using monoclonal anti HA. 11 (\# MMS-101R, Covance) antibodies, and horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibody against mouse IgG (\#W402B, Promega). Protein accumulation (normalised to that of OEE2 or $\beta$ F1, as internal standards) was, when required, quantified from ChemiTouch (BioRad) scans of the membrane, using the ImageLab (v3.0) software. For immuno-chase, cytosolic translation was arrested by supplementing cells grown in TAP medium (2-3 $\times 10^{6}$ cells $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) with cycloheximide (final concentration $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~mL}$ ) at $\mathrm{t}=0$ and aliquots were taken at the indicated time points.

## Gel Filtration Experiments on Soluble Cellular Extracts

Size exclusion chromatography was performed according to (Boulouis et al., 2011) with minor modifications. Cells from a $600-\mathrm{mL}$ culture (2-3 $10^{6}$ cells $\cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) were centrifuged, resuspended in 3 mL of breaking buffer ( 5 mM HEPES-KOH, $\mathrm{pH} 7.8,20 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 10 \%$ glycerol, $0.5 \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~L}^{-1}$ heparin, and 5 x Roche protease inhibitors in DEPC treated water), broken with a French press at 6,000 p.s.i. and centrifuged at $346,000 \mathrm{~g}$ for 20 min to pellet membranes, debris and unbroken cells. $500 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of the supernatant were loaded on a Superose 6 10/300 HR column (GE healthcare, USA). Chromatography was performed on Biologic DuoFlow (Biorad) chromatography system and protein elution, monitored on UV channel of the QuadTec device, was performed at a rate of $200 \mu \mathrm{~L} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$, at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, with a buffer containing 80 mM Tricine-KOH, pH 7.8, $200 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 20 \mathrm{mM} \varepsilon$-aminocaproic acid, and $0.1 \times$ Roche protease inhibitors. Sixteen 1 mL fractions, eluted 16 mL after void volume ( 8 mL ), were collected and concentrated by centrifugation on Amicon Ultra-15 filter units (cutoff: 30 kD ) at $4,500 \mathrm{~g}$ for 20 min . Fraction volumes were adjusted to $100 \mu \mathrm{~L}$, out of which $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ were loaded on $8 \%$ acrylamide gels containing 8 M urea. Fraction 16 (lower molecular mass) lacked protein and was not loaded on the gels. For RNase treatments, stromal preparations, prepared in breaking buffer lacking heparin, were incubated at $4{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $2500 \mathrm{U} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of RNase I and $625 \mathrm{U} \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of RNaseI for 45 min under gentle and continuous shaking, prior to loading on the column. For further analysis by co-immunoprecipitations, the indicated fractions were pooled, concentrated on Amicon Ultra-15 filter and adjusted to 1 mL with Lysis buffer before co-IP.

## Coimmunoprecipitations

were performed according to (Boulouis et al., 2011) with minor modifications. Cells from a $400-\mathrm{mL}$ culture ( $210^{6}$ cells $\cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) were centrifuged, resuspended in 2 mL of lysis buffer ( 20 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.2, $150 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 10 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 1 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2,10 \%$ glycerol, and $2 \times$ Roche protease inhibitors in DEPC treated water), broken by a French press at 6,000 p.s.i and centrifuged at $34,000 \mathrm{~g}$ for 30 min to pellet membranes and debris. $500 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of supernatant, supplemented with $0.2 \%$ Tween 20 were incubated for 1 h at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in the presence of $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of anti-HA-tag magnetic beads (Medical Biological Laboratories international, Japan), pre-equilibrated with Lysis buffer supplemented with $0.2 \%$ Tween 20. Beads were then washed three times with washing buffer ( $150 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 20 \mathrm{mM}$ HEPES$\mathrm{KOH}, \mathrm{pH} 7.2,10 \%$ glycerol, $0.2 \%$ Tween $20,1 \times$ Roche protease inhibitors) and twice more with 10 mM Tris- $\mathrm{HCl}, \mathrm{pH} 7.5$. Bound proteins were detached by boiling the beads for 2 min in the presence of $2 \%$ SDS, while for RNA purification, immunoprecipitation beadswere resuspended in $250 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ AE buffer ( 50 mM Na-acetate $\mathrm{pH} 5.2,10 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA) and extracted with phenol/ chloroform/IsoAmyl Alcohol (25:24:1) before ethanol precipitation in the presence of $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ GlycoBlue (Invitrogen, USA).

## Two-Step Centrifugation Procedure

Cells from $400-\mathrm{mL}$ culture ( $2-310^{6}$ cells $\cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ ) were centrifuged, resuspended in breaking buffer (final volume of 4 mL ), broken by French press ( 6,000 p.s.i.) and centrifuged at $2,100 \mathrm{~g}$ for 5 min to remove unbroken cells, starch, and large debris. One mL of the supernatant (Input I) was ultracentrifuged at $272,000 \mathrm{~g}$ for 30 min . The supernatant (S) was recovered and the pellet $(\mathrm{P})$ was resuspended in 1 mL of breaking buffer. After spectroscopic determination of chlorophyll concentration in the input fraction, equal volumes of the $S$ and $P$ samples were loaded on gel and analysed by immunoblot.

Accession Numbers: Sequence data from this article can be found in the NCBI Dabases under the accession numbers indicated in Dtaset DS1 for atpH and atpI 5'UTRs and for MTHI1 coding sequences; petA, FJ423446.1; psbD, X04147.1; OEE2, M15187.1; atpA, X60298.1; CGE1: AAK96224.1; Rps12: AAC16329.1; RbcL: ASF83644.1; PsaB: P09144.4; rrnS: J01395.1; MG052656.1. atpB: M13704.1; PsaA: 1310243A; PsbA: 1102190A.

## Figure legends:

## Figure 1: Phenotype of mthi1 mutants

A) Schematic representation of the atpH (top) and atpI (bottom) transcription units. Coding sequences are shown as thick rectangles, while 5'UTRs are depicted as thin rectangles. Bent arrows represent promoters. The major transcripts detected in panel C with probes specific to $\operatorname{atpH}$ or $\operatorname{atpI}$ are indicated. (0) stand for a precursor transcript that cannot be observed in the wild type because it is efficiently processed, but can be detected in psaA transsplicing mutants (Choquet et al, 1988). Scissors indicate the position of processing events, whose efficiency symbolised by their size.
B) Pleiotropic loss of ATP synthase subunits in mthi1 mutants.

Total cell extracts of wild-type (a dilution series is shown) and of the two mthi1 mutants strains were probed with antibodies against the proteins indicated on the left. The accumulation of all ATP synthase subunits was dramatically decreased in the two mutant strains, while that of cyt. $f$, PsaA, D1 and OEE2, respectively used as proxies of the abundance of the cytochrome $b_{6} f$ complex, photosystem I (PSI) and PSII was unaffected. The red asterisk points to a cross-reaction of the antibody, preserved in the mutant strains, against the $\gamma$ subunit of mitochondrial ATP synthase.
C) (Top) Accumulation of the $a t p H$ and $a t p I$ transcripts in the same strains. The $p s a B$ transcript provides a loading control.
(Bottom) Rate of translation of ATP synthase subunits in the same strains, assessed by $5^{\text {' }}$ pulse labelling experiment in the presence of ${ }^{14} \mathrm{C}$ acetate $\left(5 \mu \mathrm{Ci} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}\right)$ and of the cycloheximide inhibitor of cytosolic translation $\left(10 \mu \mathrm{~g} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}\right)$. The positions of the AtpI and AtpH subunits are indicated.
D) Quantification of atpI transcripts amount in wild-type and mutant strains.
(Left) Relative accumulation of the four atpI-containing transcript in the wild type, expressed as the percentage of the total amount of atpI transcript. (Right) Relative abundance of each atpI transcript, and of the sum of them, reported to that of the same band in the wildtype (set to 100 , symbolised by a grey dashed line) in the two mutants (dark grey mthi1-1; light grey mthi1-2; $n=4$ ).

## Figure 2: The MTHI1 factor controls the translation of the atpI mRNA

A) Loading of atpI mRNAs on polysomes.

Solubilised whole-cell extracts (T) from wild-type, $\Delta a t p H$ and the two mthi1 mutant strains, pre-treated for 10 min with CAP $\left(200 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~m}^{-1}\right)$ were loaded on sucrose gradients. After ultracentrifugation, ten fractions were collected and the transcripts present in each fraction were analysed by RNA blots using the probes indicated on the left.
B) Defective atpI mRNA translation is not responsible for its decreased abundance in mthi1 mutants.
(top) Schematic representation of the changes introduced into the atpI gene. Mutated nucleotides are shown in bold: they change the initiation codon (written in red) to a stop codon and introduced a BglII RFLP marker (underlined).
(middle) Phototrophic growth of the $a t p I_{\mathrm{St}}$ and $a t p I_{\mathrm{Ct}}$ strains assessed on minimum medium (devoid of acetate) under $75 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. Three independent transformants are shown. The growth of the strain on TAP medium $\left(15 \mu \mathrm{E} \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}\right)$, as well as the growth of the wild type and of the $\Delta a t p I$ strain are shown as controls.
(bottom) Accumulation of atpI transcripts, schematically depicted in panelA in a control strain bearing the aadA cassette alone and in strains bearing the aadA cassette associated with the untranslatable $a t p I_{\mathrm{st}}$ gene. Three independent transformants are shown for each construct. Because of the polar effect of aadA cassette, co-transcripts with atpJ and/or rps12 cannot be observed. The origin of the transcripts indicated by an aterisk $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ is unknown. petB provides a loading control.
C) $a t p H$ and $a t p I$ gene expression in the wild-type, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I$ and $m t h i 1-1$ strains.
(top) Accumulation of the $\operatorname{atpH}$ and atpI transcripts. psaB provides a loading control. (bottom) Rate of translation of the atpH and atpI transcripts in the same strains, assessed as in Fig. 1B by pulse labelling experiments. The positions of the AtpI and AtpH subunits are indicated.

## Fig. 3: the MTHI1 factor targets the atpI 5'UTR.

A) Schematic representation of the $a A d I$ chimera, where the atpI $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR had been replaced by the promoter and 5' untranslated regions of the psaA gene. The position of the recycling aadA cassette ( $\mathrm{K}^{\mathrm{r}}$ ), inserted in reverse orientation with respect to $a t p H$, is shown.
B) Photoautotrophic growth of the $a A d I$ strain, assessed as in panel 2B.
C) (Left) atpH and atpI transcript accumulation in the wild-type and mthi1-1 strains transformed by the aAdI construct, whose transcript is shorter than the endogenous atpI transcript, because of the small size of the psaA $5^{\prime}$ UTR. The recipient strains are shown as well as the $\Delta a t p H$ and $\Delta a t p I$ strains for controls. Three independent transformants are shown
for each genetic background. The psaB transcript provides a loading control. (right) Rate of AtpH and AtpI synthesis in the wild-type and mthi1-1 strains and in the corresponding strains transformed by the $a A d I$ construct, assessed as in Fig. 1B by pulse labelling experiments.

## Fig. 4: the atpI 5'UTR is sufficient to confer a MTHI1-dependant translation to a reporter

 gene.A) Schematic map of the dIf construct inserted instead of the endogenous petA gene. The red rectangle indicates the psaA promoter region placed upstream of the psbJ-atpI intergenic fragment (in light blue) that was chosen long enough to include the atpI processing site. The scissors above the intergenic region indicate the position of the 5 'end of the processed atpI mRNA. The position of the recycling selection cassette, upstream of the chimeric petA gene and in reverse orientation with respect to this latter, is shown.
B) Photoautotrophic growth of the $d H f$ (see Fig. 5) and $d I f$ chimeric strains (three independent transformants) assessed as in fig. 2B. The growth of the wild type and of the mthi1-2 strains are shown as controls.
C) Accumulation of the petA transcript, either endogenous or chimeric, in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type, mthi1-1, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I$, and $\Delta a t p H / I$ recipient strains, shown aside, as well as a $\Delta p e t A$ strain for comparison. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic context. The accumulation of the atpH mRNA in the same strains is also shown, while that of the $p s a B \mathrm{mRNA}$ provides a loading control.
D) Accumulation of cytochrome $f$ in the same strains (loading control: OEE2).
E) Quantification of the petA transcript (left) and cytochrome $f$ (right) in transformed strains shows a competition between the chimera and the endogenous atpI gene for the expression of 5'atpI-driven genes. Value for the dIf transcript in the wild type recipient strain is set to $1 ; n=6$.

## Fig. 5: the MTHI1 factor targets the atpH 5'UTR.

A) Schematic representation of the $d H f$ chimera, with the position of the recycling aadA cassette (in reverse orientation with respect to the petA gene) shown. The blue thick rectangle represents the first 25 nt of the $a t p H$ coding sequence fused in frame with the petA coding sequence, added to the construct to improve the expression of the chimera.
B) Accumulation of the atpH and petA transcripts in the wild type, mthi1-1, $\Delta a t p H$, $\Delta a t p I$ and $\Delta a t p H / I$ strains carrying the $d H f$ chimera instead of the endogenous petA gene. Unstransformed wild-type, $\Delta a t p H, \Delta a t p I, \Delta p e t A$ and $m t h i 1-1$ strains are shown as controls.

Asterisk indicates the position of the $a t p H$ mRNA, while the double asterisk points to a crossreaction of the probe that comprises the $a t p H$ 5'UTR with the $d H f$ chimeric transcript. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic context. The $p s a B$ transcript provides a loading control.
C) Cyt. $f$ accumulation in the same strains, with OEE2 as a loading control.
D) Quantification of the relative accumulation of the petA transcript (left) and of cyt. $f$ (right) in the same strains. Values for $d H f$ transformed in the wild-type strain are set to $1 ; \mathrm{n}=6$.

## Fig. 6: MTHI1 is required for the translation of the atpH gene

A) Schematic map of the pGatpH construct with a zoom to the region surrounding the atpH transcription start site, indicated by a vertical arrow, where the polyG tract was inserted. The atpH promoter is underlined, and the position of the recycling aadA cassette is shown. A construct carrying the selection cassette at the same position but devoid of the polyG insertion was used as control $\left(a t p H_{C t}\right)$. To avoid any polar effect on the expression of the downstream located $a t p F$ gene (co-transcribed with $a t p H$ ), all experiments were performed after excision of the recycling aadA cassette.
B) Phototrophic growth of the pGatpH, mthi1-2 $\{\mathrm{pGatpH}\},\{$ aAdI pGatpH$\}$ and mthi12 \{aAdI pGatpH\} strains (two independent transformants each) assessed as in Fig. 2B. Growth of the wild type and of the mthi1-2 and $\Delta a t p I$ strains are shown as controls.
C) Accumulation of the atpH and atpI transcripts in the wild-type strain transformed by the $a t p H_{\mathrm{Ct}}$ and pGatpH constructs and in the mthi1-2 strain transformed with the pGatpH gene. The aAdI construct then replaced the endogenous atpI gene in the resulting pGatpH and mthi1-2 $\{\mathrm{pGatpH}\}$ strains. Two independent transformants are shown for each genetic background. The petB transcript provides a loading control.
D) Accumulation of the AtpH subunit in strains expressing the polyG construct. Tubulin provides a loading control.

## Fig. 7: the MTHI1 protein.

A) Schematic representation of the MTHI1 protein. The position of the two mthi1 mutations is shown. The brown rectangle depicts the chloroplast transit peptide as predicted by the ChloroP program. The green rectangle indicates the region of the protein conserved in other Chlorophyceae species (see Suppl. Fig S6), while the pink rectangle points to a rapidly evolving and disordered region. The lower scheme shows the predicted secondary structure of
the conserved region. Blue arrows represent the OPR repeats, whose sequence is shown in panel (B), with the amino acid residues obeying the OPR consensus shaded in grey.

## Fig.8: complementation of the mthi1-1 mutant strain.

A) Complementation of the mthi1 strain with with a tagged version of the MTHI1 gene, either the tagged cDNA (c clones) or the genomic construct ( g clones), restores phototrophy, assessed by plating the cells on Minimum Medium plates as in Fig. 2B. The growth of the wild-type, $\Delta a t p H$ and mthi1-2 strains is shown as control.
B) Accumulation of the MTHI1 protein (red arrow), either endogenous or tagged, of the AtpH subunit (top) and of the atpH and atpI transcripts (bottom) detected in the same strains with an antibody against the MTHI21 protein. Note the larger size of the tagged protein, compared to the endogenous one, due to the insertion of the triple HA tag. CGE1and cyt. $f$ or petA mRNA are shown as the respective loading controls in protein and RNA blots. The name of the clone used for further analysis of MTHI1 in the next figures is written in red. (asterisk: cross-contaminant).
C) MTHI1 is a soluble protein.

Cellular extract (I) from the complemented strain g9 was separated into soluble (S) and insoluble (pellet: P) fractions by ultracentrifugation and equal volumes of each fraction were probed with antibodies against the HA tag and against GrpE and cytochrome $f$ as controls for the purity of the fractions.
D) The C-terminal domain of MTHI1 is dispensable for its function

Accumulation of the tagged MTHI1 protein, probed with an antibody against the HA tag, and of the atpH and atpI transcripts in mthi1-1 strain complemented with the tagged versions of the MTHI1 gene, either the tagged cDNA ( $c-H A$ ), the genomic construct $(g-H A)$ or its C-terminally truncated version ( $\Delta C-H A$ ). All transformants were selected for recovery of phototrophy on MM plates. Overaccumulation of the truncated MTHI1 protein does not lead to an increased abundance of the $a t p H$ transcripts. Cyt. $f$ and $p s a B$ are shown as the respective loading controls in protein and RNA blots. The name of the clones used for further analysis of MTHI1 in the next figures are written in red.
E) Deletion of the C-terminal domain results in higher abundance of MTHI1.
(top) Accumulation of MTHI1 protein (red arrow) in mthi1-1 strains complemented with either the tagged MTHI1 cDNA (c), the tagged genomic construct ( $g$ ) or its C-terminally truncated version $(\Delta \mathrm{Cg})$, probed with an antibody against the MTHI1 protein. The name of the clones used for further analysis of MTHI1 is written in red. (asterisk: cross-contaminant).
(bottom) quantification of MTHI1 accumulation, in the strains shown in top panel, normalised to that of cytochrome $f$ and reported to the accumulation of MTHI1 in wild-type cells, set to 1 . Error bars represent $\mathrm{SD}, \mathrm{n}=3$.
F) The C-terminal domain of MTHI1 contributes to its high turn-over.

Stability of full-length MTHI1 or of its C-terminally truncated version, assessed by immunoblots in a culture treated with cycloheximide for the indicated times. Accumulation of OEE2 in the same samples is shown as a loading control.
G) Differential solubility of the full-length MTHI1 protein and of its C-ter truncated version.

Cellular extracts of transformants expressing the full-length $\left(^{*}\right)$ and the truncated $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ versions of the tagged MTHI1 protein, treated with cycloheximide for 0 or 4 hours (Input panel, left), were fractionated into soluble (S) and membrane (P) fractions and analysed as in panel D. Distribution of CGE1 and cyt. $f$ are shown to assess the purity of the fractions.

## Fig. 9: MTHI1 belong to a high molecular weight complex that interacts with the atpH and atpI transcripts.

Soluble extracts listed at the left of the figure were fractionated on a Superose $610 / 300$ HR column and probed with an antibody against the HA tag. Molecular masses of the complexes found in each fraction were estimated by comparison with standards of the HMW gel filtration calibration kit (GE Healthcare).

## Fig. 10: Transcriptional profile of the atpH and atpI genes.

A) Coverage, normalised as RPM (log scale) of pooled bi-directional and directional wild type WTSS along the atpH and atpI loci. Positions of the relevant genes and 5'UTR are shown below. The black bar in the atpI 5'UTR shows the position of the MTHI1 target (see below). Redrawn from the data in Cavaiuolo et al, 2017.
B) sRNA mapping at the $5^{\prime}$ end of the atpH mRNA are the footprint of MTHI1.

Coverage, normalised as RPM, of pooled sRNA-Seq along the same loci: mock- (green) versus RPP-treated (blue) wild type sRNA-Seq libraries compared to RPP-treated libraries of the mthi1-1 mutant (red). Coverage is averaged over two biological replicates. Only reads mapping to the coding strand are shown. The inset for atpH shows a zoom to the atpH 5'UTR and the sequence of the $a t p H$ footprint is shown. For $a t p I$ a zoom to the 5 'UTR region (coding strand only) is shown in Suppl. Fig. S9A. Note the very different values on y-axes of the two graphs.

Fig. 11: The MTHI1 protein interacts specifically with the atpH 5'UTR.
A) The full-length and truncated versions of the MTHIl protein were immunoprecipitated from a soluble cellular extract with an antibody against the HA tag (I: input; U: unbound; IP: immuno-precipitate). Immunoprecipitation of a cellular extract from the wildtype strain is shown as a negative control. The apparent slower migration of the immunoprecitated proteins in due to a "smiling" effect in the migration of the gel from which the composite figure (indicated by a vertical line) was made.
B) RNA extracted from immuno-precipitates were analysed by dot-blot hybridised to the probes indicated on the rigth. The lower panel shows the disposition of the samples on the filter. Top line: RNA extracted from the wild type, $\Delta a t p H$, and $\Delta a t p I$ strains (without immuno-precipitation), as a control for the specificity of the probes. Bottom line: immunoprecipitated RNA from the wild-type and from a complemented strain expressing the tagged MTHI1 (g9).
C) Fractions from size exclusion chromatography of a cellular extract from a strain expressing the full-length MTHI1 (first line in fig. 9), indicated by the bars A (fractions 4 to 8 ) and $\mathrm{B}(9$ to 11 ), were pooled, immuno-precipitated with an antibody against the HA tag and analysed with the same antibody for the MTHI1 content of the immuno-precipitated fractions. Their RNA content was extracted and analysed by dot blot with a probe specific of the atpH 5'UTR, which detected a (weak) signal in pooled fractions A, further analysed by deep sRNA-Seq.
D) Ratio of normalised sRNA coverage in MTHI1 RIP samples.

Differential enrichment was calculated as the ratio of the coverage at each nucleotide position in the MTHI1-HA sample to (that in the wild-type control sample +1 ). Blue curve: sRNAs mapping to the + strand, red curve sRNA mapping to the - strand. Most enriched genome positions are shown on the graph, as well as the position of the atpH and atpI 5'UTRs.
E) Coverage of immuno-precipitated RNA (normalized as RPM) over the atpH and atpI loci, schematically depicted at the bottom of the panel. The black bar in the atpI 5'UTR shows the position of the MTHI1 target (see below). Blue curve: MTHI1-RIP sample; red curve: WT-RIP sample (negative control). A zoom to the atpI 5'UTR is shown in supplemental Fig. S7B. Note the very different values of the $y$ axes in the two graphs.

Figure 12: MTHI1 interacts with polysomes.

Distribution of MTHI1, Rps12 and RbcL proteins and of atpH, psaB and rrnS (16S rRNA) transcripts in wild-type cells along a sucrose gradient. For the gradient in the presence of $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$, an overexposed blot immuno-decorated with the antibody against the MTHI1 protein is shown. T represents the total protein and RNA extracts, P the pellet fraction. The top panel shows the UV absorbance profile along the gradient, and the lower panel, the distribution of the same proteins and transcripts in samples treated with EDTA to dissociate the ribosomes. Note that the $a t p H$ mRNA, encoding a short polypeptide, is not heavily loaded with ribosomes and does not penetrate deep in the gradient. (red asterisk: crosscontamination.

## Fig. 13: Validation of the putative MTHI1 targets.

A) Schematic map of the $d H_{M}$ construct with a zoom to the region of the MTHI1 binding site, highlighted in a yellow box. Mutated nucleotides are written in red. The atpH transcription start site is indicated by a vertical arrow. The atpH promoter is underlined, and the position of the recycling aadA cassette is shown. The control construct $\left(a t p H_{C t}\right)$ carries the selection cassette but no mutation in the $a t p H$ gene.
B) (left) Phototrophic growth of the $d H_{M}$ strain (two independent transformants), assessed as in Fig. 2B. Growth of the wild type is shown as a control. (right) Accumulation of the $a t p H$ transcript in the wild-type transformed by the $d H_{\mathrm{Ct}}$ and $d H_{\mathrm{M}}$ constructs. Three independent transformants are shown for each genetic background. The petD transcript provides a loading control.
C) Schematic representation of the $5^{\prime}$ atpI $5^{\prime}$ UTR region in the mutant dIf series.

The red rectangle represents the psaA promoter region and the blue line shows the psbJatpI intergenic fragment inserted in the construct (larger than the atpI 5'UTR, to allow the processing of the chimeric transcript). The blue rectangle symbolises the processed atpI 5’UTR, with the target of MTHI1 shown in black. Relevant restriction sites Bu (Bsu36I), Bm, (BsmI), S (SnaBI), P (PflMI), Hc (HincII, where the selection cassette was inserted) are indicated. Arrows above the map indicate the position of the deletions, while the lower insert shows the mutation introduced in the MTHI1 binding site (underlined) in the $d I_{\mathrm{M}} f$ strain, with mutated nucleotides shown in red. A PvuII site introduced as a RFLP marker is boxed.
D) Accumulation of the chimeric petA transcript in the $\{a A d I\}$ strain transformed with the indicated dIf variants. Three independent transformants are shown for each construct. The $p s a B m R N A$ is shown as a loading control.
E) Accumulation of the chimeric cytochrome $f$ in the same strains, and in the \{aAdI\}, mthi1-1 $\{d I f\}$ and $\Delta p e t A$ strains as controls. Immuno-detection of OEE2 provides a loading control.

## Fig. 14: Modulation of MTHI1 action.

A) Secondary structure sequestering the MTHI binding site in the precursor RNA transcribed from the atpA promoter.

Lowest energy structure calculated at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by RNA Folding Form (M-Fold: http://frontend.bioinfo.rpi.edu/applications/mfold/cgi-bin/rna-form1.cgi; Zuker, 2003) for the region surrounding the $\operatorname{atpH} 5^{\prime}$ end in the precursor transcript initiated at the atpA promoter. The MTHII binding site is yellow-shaded.
B) Secondary structure of the $a t p H 5$ 'UTR in the $d H f$ chimera, sequestering the initiation codon.

Lowest energy structure calculated at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by M-Fold for transcribed atpH sequences inserted upstream of the petA gene in chimera dHf. The footprint of MDH1 is grey-shaded, while the $a t p H$ initiation codon is pink-shaded and the Shine-Dalgarno yellow-shaded.
C) Variations of MTHI1 transcript and protein accumulation over the circadian cycle.

Redrawn from the data in Strenkert et al, 2019. The dark period is indicated by the shaded area. Blue line shows the accumulation of the MTHI1 transcript over time (expressed as Fragments Per Kilobase Million (FPKM), the red dots show the accumulation of the MTHI 1protein at the indicated time points (expressed as Peakmaxintensity).

Supplemental Fig. S1: in support of the cloning strategy in Fig. 4A.
Supplemental Fig. S2: MTHI1 is required for the translation of 5'atpI-driven genes. (In support of Fig. 4)

Supplemental Fig. S3: MTHI1 targets the atpH 5'UTR. (In support of Fig. 5)
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Supplemental Fig. S5: the MTHI1 locus (In support of Fig. 7)
Supplemental Fig. S6: Conservation of the MTHI1 sequence among Chlorophyceae.
Supplemental Fig. S7: SRNAs coverage (normalised as RPM) over the atpI 5'UTR and along the inverted repeat (In support of Figs. 10B and 11E).

Supplemental Fig. S8: Conservation of the MTHI1 target in atpH and atpI 5'UTRs.
Supplemental Fig. S9: Emission spectrum of the white led used to grow C. reinhardtii. (In support of the M\&M section).

Supplemental Fig. S10: Sequence of the recoded MTHI1 gene. (In support of the M\&M section).
Supplemental Fig. S11: Purification and quantification of the recombinant EcMTHI1. (In support of the M\&M section).

Dataset DS1: Chlorophyta species analysed for conservation of the atpH and atpI 5'UTRs (xls file).
Supplemental Table ST1: oligonucleotides used in this work

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.C. designed research. S.-I. O., M. C., D. J., R. K., M. R., S. E., D. D. and Y. C. performed research, M. C. contributed to bioinformatics analysis. F.-A. W., S.-I. O. and Y. C. analysed data. S.-I. O., F.-A.W., and Y.C. wrote the article.

| A: chloroplast transformation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| plasmid | Recipient strain ${ }^{1}$ | Transformed strain ${ }^{2}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ datpH | wild type | $\Delta a t p H^{3,5}$ |
|  | mthi1-1 | $\Delta H$ mthi1 ${ }^{3,7}$ |
|  | mthi1-2 | $\Delta H$ mthi1-2 ${ }^{7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ $\Delta a t p \mathrm{I}$ | wild type | $\Delta a t p I^{3,5}$ |
|  | mthi1-2 | $\Delta$ Imthi1 $^{6}$ |
|  | MTHI1-HA | $\Delta I$ MTHI1-HA ${ }^{3}$ |
|  | $\Delta \mathrm{atpH}{ }^{4}$ | $\Delta H / I^{3,6}$ |
|  | $\Delta H_{\text {m }}{ }^{\text {a }} 1^{4}$ | $\Delta H / I$ mthi1 $^{3,6}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} 5^{\prime}$ 'psaA-atpI | wild type | $a A d I^{3,6}$ |
|  | mthi1-2 | mthi1-2 \{aAI $\}^{1,7}$ |
| patpI $I_{\text {St }}{ }^{\text {r }}$ | wild type | atpISt $^{4,7}$ |
| patpI $I_{C T} \mathrm{~K}^{\mathrm{r}}$ | wild type | $\operatorname{atpI}_{C t}^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dIf | wild type | $d i f^{4,6}$ |
|  | mthi1-1 | mthi1-1 $\{\text { dIf }\}^{4,6}$ |
|  | $\Delta a t p H^{4}$ | $\{\Delta H, d I f\}^{4,6}$ |
|  | $\Delta a t p I^{4}$ | $\{\Delta I, d I f\}^{4,6}$ |
|  | $\Delta H / I^{4}$ | mthi1-1 $\{\Delta H / I, d I f\}^{4,6}$ |
|  | $a A d I^{4}$ | $\{a A d I, d I f\}^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dIf $\Delta 1$, | $a A d I^{2}$ | $\Delta 1^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dIf $\Delta 2$, |  | $\Delta 2^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dIf $\Delta 3$ |  | $\Delta 3^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dIf $\Delta 4$ |  | $\Delta 4^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d I f \Delta \mathrm{~T}$ |  | $\Delta T^{4,7}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d H f$ | wild type | $d H f^{4,6}$ |
|  | mthi1- | mthi1-1 $\{d H f\}^{4,7}$ |
|  | $\Delta a t p H^{4}$ | $\{\Delta H, d H f\}^{4,7}$ |
|  | $\Delta a t p I^{4}$ | $\{\Delta I, d H f\}^{4,7}$ |


| A: chloroplast transformation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| plasmid | Recipient strain ${ }^{1}$ | Transformed strain ${ }^{2}$ |
| $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d H f$ | $\Delta H / I^{4}$ | $\{\Delta H / I, d H f\}^{4,78}$ |
| pWFdHK | wild type | $d H K^{4,7}$ |
| pWFdIK | wild type | $d I K^{4,7}$ |
| pGatpH $\mathrm{K}^{\text {r }}$ | wild type | pGatpH ${ }^{3,4,7}$ |
|  | mthi1-2 | mthi1 $\{\text { pGatpH }\}^{3,4,7}$ |
|  | aAdI ${ }^{4}$ | \{aAdI, pGatpH $\}^{3,74}$ |
|  | mthi1 $\{\text { aAdI }\}^{4}$ | mthi1 $\{\text { aAdI, pGatpH }\}^{3,4,7}$ |
| patpH ${ }_{\text {Ct }}$ | wild type | $a t p H_{\mathrm{Ct}}{ }^{3,4,7}$ |

## B: nuclear transformation

| Plasmid $^{9}$ | Recipient strain $^{10}$ | Transformed strain $^{10}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gMTHI1-HA | $m t h i 1-1$ | MTHI1-HA (g clones) |
|  | $m t h i 1-2$ | MTHI1-HA |
| cMTHI1-HA | $m t h i 1-1$ | MTHI1-HA (c clones) |
|  | $m t h i 1-2$ | MTHI1-HA |
| gMTHI1-HA_$\Delta \mathrm{C}$ | $m t h i 1-1$ | $\Delta$ Cg clones |

${ }^{1}$ All recipient strains were spectinomycin sensitive. Transformed strains were selected for resistance to spectinomycin ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL} \_1$ ) under low light ( $5 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m} \_2 \cdot \mathrm{~s} \_1$ ) and subcloned in darkness on TAP-spectinomycin $\left(500 \mu \mathrm{~g} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}\right)$ until they reached homoplasmy.
${ }^{2}$ Transformed strains are named by their genotype. By convention, the chloroplast genotype is indicated between accolades for strains containing more than one mutation and follows, when required, the nuclear genotype.
${ }^{3}$ These strains were initially selected for spectinomycin resistance due to the presence of the recycling spectinomycin resistance cassette $(\mathrm{Kr})$. Once homoplasmic with respect to the ATP synthase mutation, they were grown on TAP medium for several generations to allow the spontaneous loss of the recycling cassette, according to Fischer et al (1996), but not that of the ATP synthase transgene.
${ }^{4}$ They, therefore, became spectinomycin sensitive again and could be used as a recipient strain in a new round of transformation experiments based on selection for spectinomycin resistance.
${ }^{5}$ Homoplasmy was deduced from the loss of phototrophic growth capacity.
${ }^{6}$ Homoplasmy was assessed by RNA gel blot experiments.
${ }^{7}$ Homoplasmy was assessed by RFLP of specific PCR products.
${ }^{8}$ Chimeras are named as follows: the first two letters indicate the origin of the 5 'UTR, based on the nomenclature for chloroplast genes in C. reinhardtii (the first letter indicates the complex: A for PSI - psta-, B for PSII - pstb-, C for $\underline{\mathbf{c}} \boldsymbol{y}$ tochrome $b_{6} f$, D for ATP synthase, R for $\underline{\text { RuBisCO }}$, the second letter indicates the gene whose $5^{\prime}$ 'UTR was borrowed: i.e. for $a A$ for the $5^{\prime}$ UTR of $p s \underline{a A}$ ). The next two letters indicate the CDS used in the chimera, based on the same nomenclature. For historical reasons, the petA CDS is designed as $f$ for cytochrome $\boldsymbol{f}$, instead of $c A$, the aadA CDS is designed as K . Unless required, the $3^{\prime}$ 'UTR is not mentioned and is usually that following the CDS, or the $3^{\prime} r b c L$ UTR downstream of the aadA CDS.

Thus the full description of the $d H f$ chimera would be atpH $5^{\prime}$ UTR-petA CDS-petA 3'UTR, inserted at the petA locus, in replacement of the endogenous petA gene. The aAdI chimera comprises the psaA 5'UTR-atpI CDS-atpI 3UTR chimera, substituting the endogenous atpI gene at the atpI locus. A schematic map of all chimeras is also provided in the figures.
${ }^{9}$ Plasmid DNA was linearised before transformation upstream of the MTHI1 gene by Xba.
10 All recipient strains were nonphotosynthetic, and transformants were selected for photoautotrophy on minimum medium (Harris, 1989) under high light ( $100 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ).

## Supplemental Material

## Supplementary figures:

Supplemental Fig. S1: in support of the cloning strategy in Fig. 4A.
Supplemental Fig. S2: MTHI1 is required for the translation of 5'atpl-driven genes. (In support of Fig. 4)
Supplemental Fig. S3: MTHI1 targets the atpH 5'UTR. (In support of Fig. 5)
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Supplemental Fig. S8: Conservation of the MTHI1 target in atpH and atpl 5'UTRs.

## Supplemental Methods:

## DNA constructs

Deletions
Deletion of the atpH gene.
Deletion of the atp/ gene
Construction of reporter genes
5'atpH-driven reporter genes
pGatpH
5'atpl-driven reporter genes
Construction of reporter genes driven by modified atp/ 5'UTRs
5'psaA-driven atpl
Atplst
MTHI1 constructs.
MTHI1 recoding.

MTHI1 overexpression, purification and immunisation.

Supplemental Fig. S9: Emission spectrum of the white led used to grow C. reinhardtii. (In support of the M\&M section).

Supplemental Fig. S10: Sequence of the recoded MTHI1 gene. (In support of the M\&M section).

Supplemental Fig. S11: Purification and quantification of the recombinant EcMTHI1. (In support of the M\&M section).

Supplemental Dataset DS1: Chlorophyta species analysed for conservation of the atpH and atpl 5'UTRs (xIs file).

Supplemental Table ST1: oligonucleotides used in this work


Supplemental Fig. S1: (in support of the cloning strategy in Fig. 4A)
A) Length of $5^{\prime}$ UTRs within the atp/polycistronic unit.
(left) Sequence of the PCR amplicons from 5'RLM-RACE using the gene-specific primers (see Suppl. Table S2), schematically depicted by arrowheads, led to the size of 5'UTRs indicated in panel. (right) Schematic map of the atp/ transcription unit. CDS are shown as thick rectangles, while 5'UTRs are represented by thin rectangles. The PCR amplicons detected in panel A are indicated with the length of the corresponding 5'UTRs indicated (in bp) between parentheses.
B) The atp/ gene does not have a strong dedicated promoter
(left) Schematic representation of the atp/ transcription unit, with a zoom to the $p s b D-10$ promoter region mutated in the G64 mutant strain. As a result, psbD transcription is reduced 10 fold (Klinkert et al., 2005). (right) Accumulation of the psbD, atpl, and rps 12 transcripts in the G64 mutant strain. The mutation of the $p s b D$ promoter impacts the accumulation of the $p s b D$ mRNA but also that of the atp/ mRNA, which is decreased 5 fold, compared to the wild type strain. This shows that this latter doesn't have a strong dedicated promoter. The rps 12 mRNA accumulates to $40 \%$ of the wild type level, probably because of RNA-stabilization effects compensate to some extent the reduction of transcription.


Supplemental Fig. S2: MTHI1 is required for the translation of 5'atpl-driven genes (in support of Fig. 4).
A) Map of the 5'atpl-aadA-3'rbcl cassette (dIK), inserted in a neutral site downstream of the petA gene and introduced by biolistic transformation in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type ( mt ) strain. Bent arrows symbolise promoters. The red rectangle represents the psaA promoter region inserted upstream of the psbJ-atp/ intergenic region shown as a pale blue rectangle. The black line within this region indicates the processed atpl 5'end. Transcripts detected with the aadA specific probe are schematically depicted.
B) $d / K$ transformants were recovered on TAP-spectinomycin plates and crossed with the mthi1$1(m t)$ strain. Thanks to the uniparental inheritance of the chloroplast genome from the $m t+$ parent, all progeny inherited the chimeric gene, while the mthi1 mutation showed mendelian segregation. Two progeny (members 1 and 2 in the representative tetrad shown in panel B-D) inherited a wild-type nuclear genome, grew phototrophically (B) and accumulated wild-type levels of the atpH mRNA (C) and of the AtpH subunit (D). They were resistant to spectinomycin (B) because they accumulated the monocistronic chimeric transcript ( $b$ in panel $A$ ) and expressed immuno-detectable amount of the AadA protein (D). psaB mRNA and OEE2 are shown as loading controls in panels C and D, respectively. The other two members of the tetrads ( 3 and 4 ) inherited the mthi1 mutation, as shown by the lack of atpH transcript and by their failure to grow on minimum medium. These two progeny accumulated increased levels of the monocistronic form of the chimeric 5'atpl-aadA transcript. Indeed the translation of the aadA cassette, severely impaired in the mthi1 background, leads to the cleavage of the chimeric transcript, shortly after the aadA initiation codon (transcript c, $\sim 800 \mathrm{bp}$ ) (Y. Choquet, unpublish. res., see also Fig. 2 in Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991). These two progeny, nevertheless, fail to synthesise significant amounts of the AadA protein (D) and were sensitive to spectinomycin (B). Together these results demonstrate that the 5'UTR of the atp/ gene is sufficient to confer an MTHI1dependent expression to 5'atpl-driven transcripts.


Supplemental Fig. S3: MTH11 targets the atpH 5'UTR (in support of Fig. 5).
A) The $5^{\prime}$ atpH-aadA-3'rbcL chimera (A) was inserted at a neutral site downstream of the petA gene and introduced by biolistic transformation in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type $\left(m t^{+}\right)$strain. Bent arrows symbolise promoters. The blue rectangle represents the atpH promoter and 5'untranslated regions, fused in frame to the aadA coding sequence. Transcripts detected with an aadA specific probe are schematically depicted.
B) $d H K$ transformants were recovered on TAP-spectinomycin plates and crossed with the mthit-1 ( $m t$ ) strain. Two members of the resulting tetrad (progeny 1 and 3 in the representative tetrad shown in panel B-D) inherited the wild-type MTHI1 allele, grew photoautotrophically (B) and accumulated wild-type levels of the $\operatorname{atpH} m R N A(C)$ and of the AtpH subunit (D). They were resistant to spectinomycin because they accumulated the monocistronic chimeric dHK transcript (transcript (b) in panel A) and expressed immuno-detectable levels of the AadA protein (D). The other two members of the tetrad (2 and 4) inherited the mthi1 mutation, as shown by the lack of atpH transcript (C) and by their failure to grow on minimum medium (B). These two progeny also failed to accumulate the monocistronic form of the chimeric 5'atpH-aadA transcript (C) and were sensitive to spectinomycin (B). This demonstrates that the 5'UTR of the atpH gene is sufficient to confer an MTHI1-dependent stability to a 5'atpH-driven transcript.

However, a dicistronic petA-aadA transcript (transcript (a) in panel A), most likely stabilised by the petA stabilisation factor MCA1 (Raynaud et al., 2007; Loiselay et al., 2008), accumulated to the same level in the four members of the tetrad. The aadA coding sequence present in this dicistronic transcript was nevertheless not expressed in the mthi1 progeny as those were sensitive to spectinomycin and lacked accumulation of immuno-detectable AadA protein (D).


Ozawa et al, Suppl. Fig. S4

## Supplemental Fig. S4: Cloning of the MTHI1 gene.

A) The MTHI1 gene was cloned as in (Raynaud et al, 2007) by complementation of a mthi1-1, arg7, cw15 mutant strain with an indexed library of cosmids (Depège et al 2003) kindly provided by Pr J.-D. Rochaix. The cosmid vector backbone (Purton et al, 1994) included the Arg7 gene (Debuchy et al, 1989). Phototrophic colonies, selected on minimal medium ( $120 \mu \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ ), became visible after $\sim 2$ weeks. Selection for arginine prototrophy provided a control of transformation efficiency. One pool yielded $\sim 10$ photoautotrophic transformants. From this pool, cosmid 21 H 4 was isolated that complemented the mthi1 phototrophic defect. Its $\sim 33.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ genomic insert corresponded to nt 4917085-4950512 from chromosome 17. Complementation with cosmid digests with restriction enzymes listed on the right ( + : complementation of the muitation; -: absence of complementation) further restricted the region required for complementation to that corresponding to gene model Cre17.g734564, as only the EcoRI, HindllI, BamHI restriction enzymes (written in red) cutting within this gene model prevented the complementation of the mutant phenotype. This chromosomic localisation, however, is erroneous. Indeed the ac46 mutant (mthi1-1) has been previously mapped to the complementation group XVI/XVII, which was later shown to correspond to chromosome 15 (Dutcher et al, 1991, Kathir et al, 2003). Crosses confirmed that the mthi1-1 mutation was linked to the CytC1 molecular marker on chromosome 15. It is of note that the MTHI1 gene was localised on chromosome 15 in the version 4.0 of the Chlamydomonas genome and was moved to chromosome 17 in version 5.5.

We constructed from cosmid 21H4 the pgMTHI1 plasmid with a 10679 bp genomic insert (chromosome17:4933979-4944653), encompassing Cre17.g734164 (see Material and methods) capable to restore the phototrophic growth of both mthi1-1 and mthit-2 mutant strains.
B) One EST clone (AV629671) of this gene model was obtained from Kazusa DNA Research Institute and sequenced using appropriate primers. It contained the full-length coding sequence for MTHI1, as an in-frame stop codon is located 6 nucleotides upstream of the initiation codon. Sequence comparison with the genomic scaffold showed that MTHI1 is composed of 11 exons. A polyA tail was found 424 bp downstream of the stop codon and 15 nt downstream of the TGTAA poly-adenylation consensus signal (Silflow, 1998)


Supplemental Fig. S5: the MTHI1 locus (in support of Fig. 6)
A) Schematic representation of the MTHI1 protein showing its three major domains, as well as the position of the two mutations.
B) The mutation in strain mthit-2 results in premature translation abortion.

Partial sequence of the MTHI1 cDNA (with translation) in the wild-type and mthi1-2 strains, with nucleotides numbered from the first $A$ of the initiation codon. The inserted nucleotide is written in red.
C) Sequence of the MTHI1 protein.

The predicted chloroplast transit peptide is written in blue, the residue encoded by the mutated codon is written in red. The OPR repeats listed in Fig. 6B are alternatively underlined and boxed. The $C$. reinhardtii-specific sequence is written in grey, with stretches of identical residues shaded.




1
 31

Ulmut
Ulpro
Ullac
Moneg2
Rasub
Teobl
Scacu
Chzof
Moneg1
Chasy
Chsp3
Tesoc
Chsph
Chdeb
ChWS 3
Vocar
Eusp
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Cheur
ChKRBP
Ooamb1
Duter Chmoe
Chlei
Chapp Halac
Ooamb2
Cheus
Chaci
/ /
OPR1
$\rightarrow \leftarrow$
OPR2
$\rightarrow$
PR3 / /
QPYDIAISLWSMATL----DL-EDGPLFEELSQLALSKVHRLNATDMAMAMWACARMR---VTSDPLCEHLTTA---AIRRIA----DFKSCELSMFVWGMCR-----TK 25 QPYDLSISLWCMATL----QL-QDEQLFQALIGRIGTMVQRLKATDMAMTMWSCGRLR---CGNTMLCGQLTVA---AIGRVS----EFKTCELSTFVWGMCH-----TG
205 QPYDLAISLWCMATL----QL-QDDELFEVLTKSTSTMVKRMNATDMAMAMWACGRMR---SGSTMLCSQLTVA---GISRVA----QFKTCELSTFVWGMCH-----TG
9 DPWGVSLSMWAYGVL----GR-QAEPVLTALCRRGAAVMRGFTPVDCAAALAGWARLRARAARHREFLDALMAH---ALDALSGAPRDWEPRELAQSAWGLSRVGV--GG
176 DPMGVALGFWSLGTL----DC-HHAPALDALCRRAGGALRGFAPIDCAQALVGWARLRVRTRPQRELVDALIAH---TLDTLSGAAGEWRPQELASVAWALSRVGV--AG
143 DAWGVAISFWAYGKL----QC-SDEAAFAALCERGLAIMDEFNAVDCASTLVGIARLRVRPRCQREFLEHLLAHTADLLSHVD----AWSSQEVANVLWGLSKIGA--AG
184 DAWAVSISFWAYGNL----QC-SDEAVFAALCERGLNIMNDFSAVDCASTLVGIAKLRVRPRCQREFLDHLLAHTADLLASVD----AWTSREVANVLWGLSKIGA--AG
110 DAQDVSTALWAYGGL----QH-TDDAILQALCKRGAQLMGTFKPIDCATALVGLAKLRIKPRCQREFVDALLHR---TLETLQ-YHNKWASRELANVAWALGKLGA--GG
1 -
71 DGWGASMSLWALGSL----NH-DDAAVFDALAKVLINQQRRLLPVDCANAIHGFARVG---RMHKPLFNMLMQG---LLNNLE----SCKPHEVSTVLWSFAAL----NY
130 SAWDVSISLWSFAQL----GW-HDEATLQSLCEAALQLTPTFKPADCAQTVIAFTQIG---YVHPELLRHIVTS---MLDTLD----DFRPAEVAQVLWGMARL----GV 105 QSWDVTQSLWAYAGL----GY-KDEAVMHTLCSAAMRLAAFFRPVDCANVVVAFARLD---YTNQQLLRQIIST---VLDAID----DFRPGELSQLLWGFARL----GC
146 DTWGMTSSLWAYAQL----GWDHDEAALRALCDIAREAVPLFKPADCANAVVAFAQLD---FTHEELLRSIVTT---TLDTLE----DFSPGEVAQLLWGFGRL----GC
158 DSWGTSQSLWAYAEL----EWGHDELALRTLCEAALEVAPIFKPADCANAMKAFAKLD---YVHEELLRQLVTT---VLDTLN----EFSPGEVAQVLWGFGRL----RC
108 DSWGASQSLWAYAEL----GWGHDELALRTLCEAALEVAPIFKPADCANAMMAFAKLD---YVHEELLRQLVTT---VLDTLN----EFSPGEVAQVLWGFGRM----RC
160 DSWDVTLSLWSYAQL----GY-HDEHALRALCDAALAVAPLFKPVDCANSVVAFAYLD---YLHTELLRQIVAV---MLDSMD----DFQPGEVCQVLWGFAKL----GC

170 DSWDTTLSLWAYAQL----DH-YDEGALRALCDAAVEVAPIFKPVDCANAVVAFAHLD---YVHPELLRQIVQT---VLDTLD----DYAPGEVCQVLWGFARL----GV
161 DSWDTSLSLWSYGQL----GH-HDEAALRALCDAALGVAPIFKPADCANTLVAFANLD---FMHRELLKQLVVT---VLDTLD----DFQPGELAQVLWGFARV----GC
159 DSWDATMSLWAYSQL----GH-HDEAALRALCDVALEVAPIFKPADCANAVVAFAYLD---FLHTGLLRQIVTT---MLDTME----DFQPGEICQVLWGFAKL----GC 300 DSRDVSTCLWALSALPRTVSR-AHAGTFEVLCRRGRQVAVLMKPADCAMYMQAFGRLG---TYDTELLHAIPQV---MLQELD----RTDMQNVRAVLWGFAHLGPDHPQ 428 DAWGVSSCLWALSLL----DH-WDRQLFDVLCSRALQLTASLTPTDCANILVAFGRWG---HYHPELLHTLPQV---LLDHMY----DAKPTEISQSLWGLARLRV--PG 169 EAWDTALSLWSMSVL----NH-FDRAVFIALCHRSCQLAGFMKTSDCAMIMLAFGRFQ---NMHPELLRLIPQV---MLKELD----RAKPQDVSAVLWGFARLGA--GC 208 GARDVASSLWACAAI----GH-YDRALFDMLCNKAVALLPEMKPVDCANMMVAFARFG---HYHPEVIRMIPQV---LLVQIY----ETKPHELSQVLWGYGRLRV--PG 187 EARDAALCLWALSLM----GS-FEPEPFHALCQRASQLAVEMNSADCTMVMLAFGRFQ---RMYPDLLQQIPQT---LFLCLD----ATKPHELSSVLWGFARLGP--SC 171 EAWDVAMSLYAYALM----DH-YDRSVFDALCSRACVLAPSFKPVDCANIMYAFGRFG---HYHPELLRAIPQV---LLYHMY----DAKPGELSQVLWGYGRLRV--PG 157 EPRDVAGALWAYGAL----DA-YDKPVFDALCGRAAGQAPAFKPVDCANVMSAFGRFG---HYHPEVLKSIPQV---MLYHMY----DAKHVELATVLWGYARLRV--PG 118 EPRDIASALWAYGAL----NA-YDKPLFDALCSRAAAQVAGFKPVDCANVMSAFGRFG---HYHPEVLKSIPQV---LLYHMY----DAKPLELACVLWGFARLRV--PG

1 ---------------------------------------------------MSAFARFG---HYNSELLRAVPAA---LLRQLR----SARAREVSQVCWGFAKLEI--PQ
171 DMWGISSCLWAMSTL----KT-YDKEVFDSLCKRGAHLSALMRPADCNMIMIAFARFG---HYHPELLRVIPQV---MLMFLD----QSTPSDIASVMWGFAKLSL--PH 194 DMWGISSCLWAMSTL----KT-YDKEVFDSLCKRGAHLSALMRPADCNMIMIAFARFG---HYHPELLRVIPQV---MLMFLD----QSTPSDIASVMWGFAKLSL--PH

$/ /$ OPR1 $\rightarrow$ OPR2 $\rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow$

Ulmut
Ulpro
Ullac
Moneg2
Rasub
Teobl
Scacu
Chzof
Moneg1
Chasy
Chsp3
Tesoc
Chsph
Chdeb
ChWS 3
Vocar
Eusp
usp.
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Cheur

Ooamb
Duter
Chmoe
Chle
Chap
chap
Halac
Ooamb2
Cheus
Chaci
consensus

## / /

115 QQSPEILRAAARRMV -ERPGDFASEELVRLLWS------------FTRMRWREARH--S
295 QQSPEILRGAACRML -ESPEEFASEELVRLLWS
-FTRMRWREARQ--N
242 PSRRSLLEGLLEMTL-WKLDAFNVQELTTLVY -YARMHHRMPSALLR
-WRLGDFTMQELSNIVYG------------YARMHYRVPQHLAC1 -







399 APSTMFMFAICDHIT -WSMEQCSNQALTNCLWAXREAGPSPAXXXXKLGHRPSPGLLR


264 APGKV $\perp E A M C D T$ LH-------------
50 APGKVFLEAVCDTLA -HSLSSCGPRETSTTMWS

$\qquad$
-LARLQHHPGRALLQ
 LARLQHHPGRALLQ
551 pg fl al d m




Ulmut
Ulpro
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Ooamb2
Cheus Chaci consensus

OPR7
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$/ / \rightarrow \leqslant$



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383 EAAAQVIVNRVP--QMSHQDVVMALWVFGIFGH-QLKIPNIAVTSGANSFQKCQSFAKTENVTVEQSELMLK-----GQRTNLTDAEQNQRRQISVAEGQFPVAMKRDKG
406 EAAAQVIVNRVP--QMSHQDVVMALWVFGIFGH-QLKIPNIAVTSGASSFQKSQSFAKTENVTVEQSELILKRSLLKGQRTNLTDAEQNQRRQISVAEGQFPVAMRRDKG 991 eava vll rl ls qel m lw ygmf h r





Chzof Moneg1
Chasy
Chsp3
Tesoc
Chsph
Chdeb
ChWS 3
Vocar
Eusp
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Cheur ChKRBP Ooamb1 Duter Chmoe Chlei Chapp Halac Ooamb2 Cheus Chaci Chaci consensus

Ulmut
Ulpro
Ullac
Moneg2
Rasub
Teobl
Scacu
Chzof
Moneg1
Chasy
Chsp3
Tesoc
Chsph
Chdeb
ChWS 3
Vocar
Eusp
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Cheur ChKRBP Ooamb1
Duter
Chmoe
Chlei
Chapp
Halac Ooamb2
Cheus
Chaci consensus 1651

Ulmut
Ulpro
Ullac
Moneg2
Rasub
Teobl
Scacu
Chzof
Moneg1
Chasy
Chsp3
Tesoc
Chsph
Chdeb
ChWS 3
Vocar
Eusp
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Cheur ChKRBP Oomb1

Duter
Chmoe

Chapp
Halac Ooamb2
Cheus
Chaci

718 --PGAGPNSAAALATDARTLLQQRQQQQQQQQQRQPPTVLRSNGRAYGAPAARLWGSG
742 QAPQLQQHLHKQQQVGSSSYSPQQQQQQQQQQQQLRLSLLQPPRRMPQQQQHLPGVT
--------

388 --RPLPVSLSLHQWNHQAQLAQHQSRQQLHSQGGDGHPAAAAAAAAAAAAGAAWRPS
30 LGQPLGQQQAQEPV
69 AGAGAHSGQGQGQQLQQDTLRSHPLPHDDSSDGPVRVQLSVGEAQLLLEPQSQPQQQ-----
69 SSNGAGVRRSLKEGAGGRAPRQRQQRQAEGEGPAPPLQRREDIRELSELDSPEGVAA
660 RIPAGQQPLGSRGAVSVSAAANYRQAAPAAAARSNGATNGLHGHAADELNGHHDGDA
$\qquad$











826 --------------------------VDGGVVDGGALKGVSFGRTAPPMLHVAGPGSV-
890 SPLAKGLGSPVWVGTGGGGDARAFADQGGGVVPVVADPHELAGMMRVRGAMRGEGEGLVEQPVVMGPKTRRAGGGRLYFRPMQGHMPRAVNAGGTGLSVGRVREGLARRM







## Supplemental Fig. S6: Conservation of MTHI1 among green algae.

A) DNA sequences encoding MTHI1 orthologues were retrieved from the JGI phytozome (v12), the NCBI databases, and the MMETSP re-assemblies database (Keeling et al., 2014) by tBLASTn using CrMTHI1 as a query. Gene models were then predicted using the Greengenie2 software (http://stormo.wustl.edu/GreenGenie2/; (Kwan et al., 2009)) and manually edited to include obvious missing regions of similarity, if required. Alignment of MTHI1 orthologues performed with the MUSCLE software using default options and manually edited to improve the alignment. OPR repeats of the protein from $C$. reinhardtii are shown above the alignment. Residues conserved in more than half of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Ulmut Ulva mutabilis; Ulpro: Ulva prolifera; ULLac: Ulva lactuca; Moneg: Monoraphidium neglectum; Rasub: Raphidocelis subcapitata; Teobl: Tetradesmus obliquus; Scqua: Scenedesmus acutus; Scqua: Scenedesmus quadricauca; Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 32112; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3; Vocar: Volvox carteri; EuspN: Eudorina sp.; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Cheur: Chlamydomonas euryale; ChKRBP: ; Ooamb: Oophila amblystomatis; Duter: Dunaliella tertiolecta; Chmoe: Chlamydomonas moewusi; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Cheus: Chlamydomonas eustigma; Chaci: Chlamydomonas acidophila.
B) Phylogeny of MTHI1 orthologues.

The phylogenic tree was constructed on the Phylogeny.fr platform (Dereeper et al., 2008), including the following steps: Sequences were aligned with MUSCLE (v3.7) (Edgar, 2004) configured for highest accuracy (MUSCLE with default settings) and cured with Gblocks (v0.91b), using relaxed parameters. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using the maximum likelihood method implemented in the PhyML program (v3.0) (Guindon et al., 2010) with reliability for internal branch assessed using the aLRT test (SH-Like) (Anisimova and Gascuel, 2006) and visualized using TreeDyn (v198.3) (Chevenet et al., 2006). The OPR protein TDA1 (Eberhard et al., 2011) was taken as outgroup.


## Supplemental Fig. S7: sRNAs coverage (normalised as RPM) over the atpl 5'UTR

 and along the inverted repeat (in support of Figs. 10 and 11).A) Coverage of sRNAs mapping to the coding strand along the atpl 5'UTR, schematically depicted at the bottom. The red bar symbolises the putative MTHI1 binding site. Blue line: RPP-treated wild-type sample; red line: RPP-treated mthi1-1 sample.
B) Coverage of sRNAs immuno-precipitated with the MTHI1 protein over the atp/ 5'UTR. Red line: sRNA coverage in the wild-type negative control; blue line sRNA coverage in the MTHI1-RIP sample. All samples were RPP-treated. Note the absence of coverage in correspondence of the MTHI1 putative binding site.
C) sRNA coverage of RPP-treated MTHI1 sample within the inverted repeat. Blue line: sRNAs mapping to the plus strand; Red line: sRNAs mapping to the minus strand. The position of genes within the inverted repeat is shown. The blue peak corresponds to the $p s b A 5^{\prime} U T R$.

## A Alignment of $\boldsymbol{a t p H} \mathbf{5}^{\mathbf{\prime}} \mathbf{U T R}$

Prcol
Sthel
Spsim
Neast
Syret
Cacer
Cacru
Pemin
Ursp3
Sclei
Psmar
Chacu
Jemin
Igtet
Psame
Caful
Habas
Hacap
Psaki
Trmuc
Glpla
Glsar
Olvir
Chorb
Ulfas
Ul_sp
Ullin
Ulfle
Ulper
Ulpro
Ullac
MispL
Patra
Petub
Elvir
Etpse
Chbre
Mo_sp

-------TAAAATTATTCAATTTTTTATG---CTAGTGGTTGTTAT--A-AGTTA----A---------TAACAGAAGAAT---------AAAGGAGAAA------AAATTATG
俭
-------TAAAAAAACACTT---TAAAC--TAAAATAAAGTTGTTAT--A-ATTCTATTGA---------TTAAATTTT--AT--AC------------------ATAACATATG
-------CCGACTGGTAGAA---AATTA--ATTTATTTGGTTGTTACAAAAATTTTTGAAA---------AAAACTATT--TT--TT----A-------------ATT-CCTATG
------TTTTATTATTAATA---TATAAT---TAATATGGTTGTTTT--T-ATTAAA---A---------TTGAAAAAT--AA--AAAACAAAGGGAGGTT----AAA-ATCATG


-----CGTGCGGGTTTAGCG---CGCAC----TTGGTTGGTTGTTAT--T-ACTTAAATTA---------ATAATTTTT--TT--------AATGGAGGAA-----TTTATCATG

-------AAAACCAAACGTC---AATAA--AAAAATATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTTA----A---------TTAATTAAA--AA--ATTTAACTCGGAGGAG-----TTTATTATG


-     -         - TTTTCA
-------TAATAAAAAAGGG---GGTAA--GTAAAAATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTAA----A---------TTATTTACT--AA--ATTTAAATCGGAGGAT-----TTTATTATG
-------TACTAGGTAACTG---GGTAA--TTAAAAATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTGA----A---------TTATTTACT--AA--ATTTAAATCGGAGGAT-----TTTATTATG
------TTATTAAAAAATGA---TAAAA--TAAAAATTGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTGT----A---------TAAATCTTA--TT---TTTAAAAAGGAGGTA-----TTTATCATG
-------TAATTTATAAATAAATTATAA-----ATAATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTATT---A---------TACACTATA--TA--ACTTTTA--GGAGATT----ATTAATTATG

----TAATTTATAAATAAAT---TATAA-----ATAATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTATT---A---------TACACTATA--TA--ACTTTTA--GGAGATT----ATTAATTATG
-ATTAAAA--AAATTTAAAT---TA-AATA------ATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTATT---A---------TACACTATA--TA--ACTTTTA--GGAGATT----ATTAATTATG
-----AATTTATAAATAAAT---TATAA-----ATAATGGTTGTTAT--T-ATTATT---A---------TACACTATA--TA--ACTTTTA--GGAGATT----ATTAATTATG
-     -         -             - -TCAATTTTTTGCTT---TATAATA--GCTTTTGGTTGTTAT--A-ATTTTAAAAA---------TTAAAAACT-------------- GGAGGAT----ATT-CTCATG

(
------TCAAAAAATTACAA---TATAATAT---TATTGGTTGTTAT--A-ATTTT----A---------CTGAATATC--TA--CT--------CATTAC----ATT-TATATG

Chniv
Chros
Halae Rasub Moneg Scqua Kiape Oeang Oecard Oecaro Oogig Myhom Myjur Chper chtat Prbot Stplu Chere Chlei Chapp Dusal Dusas Cosp1 Cosp2 Cosai Teobl Haret Haspm Pepec Neaqu Chinc Peang Hyret Pedup Sttet Lagra Pssch Ps-sp Psint Psbor PsspC Chzof


Halac
Ooamb
Golon
Chcap1
Botex
Chsti
Ca_sp
Loseg
Locul
Patex
Chsph
Chasy
Chpet
Tesoc
Vocar
Plsta
Chrei
Gopec
Yauni
Voafr
Chrad
Fobot
Trtri
Trhys
Ch_sp
Chspu
Chacu
Phlen
Braer
Brmin
Anjud




Rōrot AACTGGTGAAAAGAAACCATATTTTAATAACATTTAAAATTCAATATATACATATAAAATATAAAAAAATTATG














Teobl TAATAAAATATAATAA---------AGTAG---TTATTCAAAAATTT----------------------------ATG



















## Supplemental Fig. S8: Conservation of the MDH1 target in atpH and atpI 5’UTRs.

## A) Alignment of the atpH 5'UTRs

The $\sim 100$ nts upstream of the $a t p H$ initiation codon (accession numbers listed in Suppl. Table S1) were recovered in the NCBI databases and searched for the occurrence of the TGGTTGTTAT motif. Only the sequences showing at least 8 matches with this motif within a range of 70 nt from the atpH AUG codon were retained for the alignment performed with the MUSCLE software, using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than 79 sequences (out of 113) are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. A putative -10 Pribnow box found a few nucleotide upstream of the putative MDH1 binding site (written in bold and underlined) in many species suggest that this later corresponds the 5'end of the atpH transcript, as it does in C. reinhardtii. A putative Shine-Dalgarno sequence ( $6-10 \mathrm{nt}$ upstream of the initiation codon) is also well conserved in most species. The sequence of $C$. reinhardtii atpH 5'UTR is highlighted in yellow.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Syret: Symbiochloris reticulata; Sclei: Schizomeris leibleinii; Sthel: Stigeoclonium helveticum; Prcol: Prasinoderma coloniale; Neast: Nephroselmis astigmatica; Ulfas: Ulva fasciata; Ul_sp: Ulva sp. UNA000 71828; Ullin: Ulva linza; Ulper: Ulva pertusa; Ulpro: Ulva prolifera; Ulfle: Ulva flexuosa; Ullac: Ulva lactuca; Cacer: Carteria cerasiformis; Cacru: Carteria crucifera; Jemin: Jenufa minuta; Etpse: Ettlia pseudoalveolaris; Igtet: Ignatius tetrasporus; Psame: Pseudocharacium americanum; Ooamb: Oophila amblystomatis; Chper: Chloromonas perforata; Stplu: Stephanosphaera pluvialis; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Halae: Hafnomonias laevis; Chbre: Chlorosarcina brevispinosa; Olvir: Oltmannsiellopsis viridis; Mo_sp: Monoraphidium-species; Chniv: Chlamydomonas nivalis; Oecard: Oedogonium cardiacum; Oecaro Oedocladium carolinianum; Pssch: Pseudomuriella schumacherensis; Oogig: Oogamochlamys gigantea; Myhom: Mychonastes homosphaera; Myjur: Mychonastes jurisii; Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Golon: Golenkinia longispicula; Cosp1: Coelastrella sp. M60; Cosp2: Coelastrella sp. UTEX B 3026; Haret: Hariotina reticulata; Teobl: Tetradesmus obliquus; Pepec: Pectinodesmus pectinatus; Neaqu: Neochloris aquatica; Chinc: Chlorotetraedron incus; Hyret: Hydrodictyon reticulatum; Pedup: Pediastrum duplex; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Loseg: Lobochlamys segnis; Locul: Lobochlamys culleus; Chcap1: Chlorogonium capillatum; Phlen: Phacotus lenticularis; Chrad: Chloromonas radiata; Braer: Bracteacoccus aerius; Brmin: Bracteacoccus minor; Anjud: Ankyra judayi; Brgig: Bracteacoccus giganteus; Ca-sp: Carteria sp. SAG 8-5; Trtri: Treubaria triappendiculata; Moneg: Monoraphidium neglectum; Scqua: Scenedesmus
quadricauca; Kiape: Kirchneriella aperta; Chaci: Chlamydomonas acidophila; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Chpet: Chlamydomonas peterfii; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Vocar: Volvox carteri; Plsta: Pleodorina starrii; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Psmar: Pseudoneochloris marina; Chcap2: Chamaetrichon capsulatum; Chbas: Chamaetrichon basiliensis; Psaki: Pseudendoclonium akinetum; Trmuc: Trichosarcina mucosa; Glpla: Gloeotilopsis planctonica; Glsar: Gloeotilopsis sarcinoidea; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Eu_sp: Eudorina sp.; Tuaki, Tupiella akineta; Hacap, Hazenia capsulata; Peang: Pediastrum angulosum; Petub: Pedinomonas tuberculata; Pemin: Pedinomonas minor; Sttet: Stauridium tetras; Rasub: Raphidocelis subcapitata; Psint: Pseudopediastrum integrum; Psbor: Pseudopediastrum boryanum; Haret: Hariotina reticulata; Lagra: Lacunastrum gracillimum; Chacu: Characiochloris acuminata; Botex: Borodinellopsis texensis; Chtat: Chlorococcum tatrense; Chros: Chloromonas rosae; Chere: Chlorosarcinopsis eremi; Chsti: Chlorosarcina stigmatica; Patex: Palmellopsis texensis; Prbot: Protosiphon botryoides; MispL: Microspora sp. UTEXLB472; Patra: Parallela transversalis; Elvir: Elakatothrix viridis; Trhys: Trochiscia hystrix; Chorb: Chaetopeltis orbicularis; Oeang: Oedogonium angustistomum; Ursp3: Uronema sp. CCAP334/1; Cosai: Coelastrella saipanensis; PsspC: Pseudopediastrum sp. CL0201VA; Voafr: Volvox africanus; Caful: Capsosiphon fulvescens; HaspM: Hariotina sp. MMOGRB0030F; Fobot: Follicularia botryoides; ChspU: Chlamydomonas sp. UWO 241, Spsim: Spermatozopsis similis; EuspN.: Eudorina sp. NIES-3984; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 3112; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3
B) Alignment of the atpI $5^{\prime}$ UTRs

The $\sim 200$ nt upstream of the atpI initiation codon (accession numbers listed in Suppl. Table ST1) were recovered in the NCBI databases and searched for the occurrence of the TGGTT(G/A)TTAT motif. Only sequences showing at least 7 matches with this motif within a range of 100 nt from the atpI AUG codon were retained for the alignment, performed with the MUSCLE software using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than $60 \%$ of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. Same abbreviations of species name than in panel A.

## Legend of Supplementary Figures

Supplemental Fig. S1: (In support of the cloning strategy in Fig. 4A)
A) Length of 5'UTRs within the atp/ polycistronic unit.
(Left) Sequencing of PCR amplicons from 5'RLM-RACE using the gene-specific primers (see Suppl. Table ST2), schematically depicted by arrowheads, led to the size of 5' UTRs indicated in panel. (Right) Schematic map of the atp/transcription unit. CDS are shown as thick rectangles, while 5'UTRs are represented by thin rectangles. The PCR amplicons detected in panel A are indicated with the length of the corresponding 5 'UTRs indicated (in bp) between parentheses.
B) The atp/ gene does not have a strong dedicated promoter
(Left) Schematic representation of the atpl transcription unit, with a zoom to the $p s b D-10$ promoter region mutated in the G64 mutant strain. As a result, $p s b D$ transcription is reduced 10 fold (Klinkert et al., 2005). (Right) Accumulation of the psbD, atpl, and rps 12 transcripts in the G64 mutant strain. The mutation of the psbD promoter impacts the accumulation of the $p s b D$ mRNA but also that of the atp/ mRNA, which is decreased 5 fold, compared to the wild type strain. This shows that this latter doesn't have a strong dedicated promoter. The rps 12 mRNA accumulates to $40 \%$ of the wild type level, probably because of RNA-stabilization effects compensate to some extent the reduction of transcription.

Supplemental Fig. S2: MTHI1 is required for translation of 5'atpl-driven genes. (In support of Fig. 4)
A) Map of the 5'atpl-aadA-3'rbcl cassette (dIK), inserted in a neutral site downstream of the petA gene and introduced by biolistic transformation in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type ( $\mathrm{mt}^{+}$) strain. Bent arrows symbolise promoters. The red rectangle represents the psaA promoter region inserted upstream of the psbJatp/ intergenic region shown as a pale blue rectangle. The black line within this region indicates the processed atpl 5'end. Transcripts detected with the aadA specific probe are schematically depicted.
B) $d / K$ transformants were recovered on TAP-spectinomycin plates and crossed with the mthi1-1 ( mt ) strain. Thanks to the uniparental inheritance of the chloroplast genome from the $m t+$ parent, all progeny inherited the chimeric gene, while the mthi1 mutation showed mendelian segregation. Two progeny (members 1 and 2 in the representative tetrad shown in panel B-D) inherited the wild-type MTHI1 allele, grew phototrophically (B) and accumulated wild-type levels of the atpH mRNA (C) and of the AtpH subunit (D). They were resistant to spectinomycin (B) because they accumulated the monocistronic chimeric transcript ( $b$ in panel $A$ ) and expressed immuno-detectable amount of the AadA protein (D). psaBmRNA and OEE2 are shown as loading controls in panels $C$ and $D$, respectively. The other two members of the tetrads (3 and 4) inherited the mthi1 mutation, as shown by the lack of atpH transcript and by their failure to grow on minimum medium. These two progeny accumulated increased levels of the monocistronic form of the chimeric 5'atpl-aadA transcript. Indeed the translation of the $\operatorname{aad} A$ cassette, severely impaired in the mthi1 background, leads to the cleavage of
the chimeric transcript, shortly after the aadA initiation codon (transcript c, $\sim 800 \mathrm{bp}$ ) (Y. Choquet, unpublish. res., see also Fig. 2 in Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991). These two progeny, nevertheless, fail to synthesise significant amounts of the AadA protein (D) and were sensitive to spectinomycin (B). Together these results demonstrate that the 5'UTR of the atpl gene is sufficient to confer an MTHI1-dependent expression to 5'atpl-driven transcripts.

## Supplemental Fig. S3: MTHI1 targets the atpH 5'UTR. (In support of Fig. 5)

A) The 5'atpH-aadA-3'rbcL chimera (A) was inserted at a neutral site downstream of the petA gene and introduced by biolistic transformation in the chloroplast genome of the wild-type ( $m t^{+}$) strain. Bent arrows symbolise promoters. The blue rectangle represents the atpH promoter and 5'untranslated regions, fused in frame to the aadA coding sequence. Transcripts detected with an aadA specific probe are schematically depicted.
B) $d H K$ transformants were recovered on TAP-spectinomycin plates and crossed with the mthi1-1 (mt) strain. Two members of the resulting tetrad (progeny 1 and 3 in the representative tetrad shown in panel B-D) inherited the wild-type MTHI1 allele, grew photophically (B) and accumulated wild-type levels of the atpH mRNA (C) and of the AtpH subunit (D). They were resistant to spectinomycin because they accumulated the monocistronic chimeric dHK transcript (transcript (b) in panel A) and expressed immuno-detectable levels of the AadA protein (D). The other two members of the tetrad (2 and 4) inherited the mthi1 mutation, as shown by the lack of atpH transcript (C) and by their failure to grow on minimum medium (B). These two progeny also failed to accumulate the monocistronic form of the chimeric 5'atpH-aadA transcript (C) and were sensitive to spectinomycin (B). This demonstrates that the 5'UTR of the atpH gene is sufficient to confer an MTHI1-dependent stability to a 5'atpH-driven transcript.

However, a dicistronic petA-aadA transcript (transcript (a) in panel A), most likely stabilised by the petA stabilisation factor MCA1 (Raynaud et al., 2007; Loiselay et al., 2008), accumulated to the same level in the four members of the tetrad. The aadA coding sequence present in this dicistronic transcript was nevertheless not expressed in the mthi1 progeny as those were sensitive to spectinomycin and lacked accumulation of immuno-detectable AadA protein (D).

Supplemental Fig. S4: Cloning of the MTHI1 gene. (In support of Fig. 7).
A) The MTHI1 gene was cloned as in (Raynaud et al, 2007) by complementation of a mthi1-1, arg7, cw15 mutant strain with an indexed library of cosmids (Depège et al 2003) kindly provided by Pr J.-D. Rochaix. The cosmid vector backbone (Purton et al, 1994) included the Arg7 gene (Debuchy et al, 1989). Phototrophic colonies, selected on minimal medium ( $120 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ ), became visible after $\sim 2$ weeks. Selection for arginine prototrophy provided a control of transformation efficiency. One pool yielded $\sim 10$ photoautotrophic transformants. From this pool, cosmid 21 H 4 was isolated that complemented the mthi1 phototrophic defect. Its $\sim 33.5 \mathrm{~kb}$ genomic insert corresponded to nt 4917085-4950512 from chromosome 17. Complementation with cosmid digests with restriction enzymes listed on the right (+: complementation of the
mutation; -: absence of complementation) further restricted the region required for complementation to that corresponding to gene model Cre17.g734564, as only the EcoRI, HindllI, BamHI restriction enzymes (written in red) cutting within this gene model prevented the complementation of the mutant phenotype. This chromosomic localisation, however, is erroneous. Indeed the ac46 mutant (mthi1-1) has been previously mapped to the complementation group XVI/XVII, which was later shown to correspond to chromosome 15 (Dutcher et al, 1991). Crosses confirmed that the mthi11 mutation was linked to the CytC1 molecular marker on chromosome 15. It is of note that the MTHI1 gene was localised on chromosome 15 in the version 4.0 of the Chlamydomonas genome and was moved to chromosome 17 in version 5.5.

We constructed from cosmid 21 H 4 the pgMTHI1 plasmid with a 10679 bp genomic insert (chromosome17:4933979-4944653), encompassing Cre17.g734564 capable to restore the phototrophic growth of both mthi1-1 and mthi1-2 mutant strains.
B) One EST clone (AV629671) of this gene model was obtained from Kazusa DNA Research Institute and sequenced using appropriate primers. It contained the fulllength coding sequence for MTHI1, as an in-frame stop codon is located 6 nucleotides upstream of the initiation codon. Sequence comparison with the genomic scaffold showed that MTHI1 is composed of 11 exons. A polyA tail was found 424 bp downstream of the stop codon and 15 nt downstream of the TGTAA poly-adenylation consensus signal (Siflow, 1998).

Supplemental Fig. S5: the MTHI1 locus. (In support of Fig. 6).
A) Schematic representation of the MTHI1 protein showing its three major domains, as well as the position of the two mutations.
B) The mutation in strain mthi1-2 results in premature translation abortion.

Partial sequence of the MTHI1 cDNA (with translation) in the wild-type and mthi12 strains, with nucleotides numbered from the first $A$ of the initiation codon. The inserted nucleotide is written in red. The mutation in strain mthi1-2 results in premature translation abortion.
C) Sequence of the MTHI1 protein.

The predicted chloroplast transit peptide is written in blue, the residue encoded by the mutated codon is written in red. The OPR repeats listed in Fig. 7B are alternatively underlined and boxed. The C. reinhardtii-specific C-ter tail is written in grey, with stretches of identical residues shaded.

Supplemental Fig. S6: Conservation of MTHI1 among green algae. (In support of Figs. 7 and 8D,E,F)
A) DNA sequences encoding MTHI1 orthologues were retrieved from the JGI phytozome (v12), the NCBI databases, and the MMETSP re-assemblies database (Keeling et al., 2014) by tBLASTn using CヶMTHI1 as a query. Gene models were then predicted using the Greengenie2 software (http://stormo.wustl.edu/GreenGenie2/; (Kwan et al., 2009)) and manually edited to include obvious missing regions of similarity, if required. Alignment of MTHI1 orthologues performed with the MUSCLE software using default options and manually edited to improve the alignment. OPR
repeats of the protein from $C$. reinhardtii are shown above the alignment. Residues conserved in more than half of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Ulmut Ulva mutabilis; Ulpro: Ulva prolifera; ULLac: Ulva lactuca; Moneg: Monoraphidium neglectum; Rasub: Raphidocelis subcapitata; Teobl: Tetradesmus obliquus; Scqua: Scenedesmus acutus; Scqua: Scenedesmus quadricauca; Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 32112; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Chdeb: Chlamydomonas debaryana; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3; Vocar: Volvox carteri; EuspN: Eudorina sp.; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Cheur: Chlamydomonas euryale; ChKRBP: ; Ooamb: Oophila amblystomatis; Duter: Dunaliella tertiolecta; Chmoe: Chlamydomonas moewusi; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Cheus: Chlamydomonas eustigma; Chaci: Chlamydomonas acidophila.
B) Phylogeny of MTHI1 orthologues.

The phylogenic tree was constructed on the Phylogeny.fr platform (Dereeper et al., 2008), including the following steps: Sequences were aligned with MUSCLE (v3.7) (Edgar, 2004) configured for highest accuracy (MUSCLE with default settings) and cured with Gblocks (v0.91b), using relaxed parameters. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using the maximum likelihood method implemented in the PhyML program (v3.0) (Guindon et al., 2010) with reliability for internal branch assessed using the aLRT test (SH-Like) (Anisimova and Gascuel, 2006) and visualized using TreeDyn (v198.3) (Chevenet et al., 2006). The OPR protein TDA1 (Eberhard et al., 2011) was taken as outgroup.

## Supplemental Fig. S7: sRNAs coverage (normalised as RPM) over the atpl 5'UTR

 and along the inverted repeat. (In support of Figs. 10B and 11C,D).A) Coverage of sRNAs mapping to the coding strand along the atpl 5'UTR, schematically depicted at the bottom. The red bar symbolises the putative MTHI1 binding site. Blue line: RPP-treated wild-type sample; red line: RPP-treated mthi1-1 sample.
B) Coverage of sRNAs immuno-precipitated with the MTHI1 protein over the atpl 5'UTR. Red line: sRNA coverage in the wild-type negative control; blue line sRNA coverage in the MTHI1-RIP sample. All samples were RPP-treated. Note the absence of coverage in correspondence of the MTHI1 putative binding site.
C) sRNA coverage of RPP-treated MTHI1 sample within the inverted repeat. Blue line: sRNAs mapping to the plus strand; Red line: sRNAs mapping to the minus strand. The position of genes within the inverted repeat is shown. The blue peak corresponds to the psbA 5'UTR.

Supplemental Fig. S8: Conservation of the MDH1 target in atpH and atpI 5'UTRs.
A) Alignment of the atpH 5'UTRs

The $\sim 100 \mathrm{nt}$ upstream of the atpH initiation codon (accession numbers listed in Suppl. Table S1) were recovered in the NCBI databases and searched for the occurrence of the TGGTTGTTAT motif. Only the sequences showing at least 8 matches with this motif within a range of 70 nt from the atpH AUG codon were retained for the alignment performed with the MUSCLE software, using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than 79 sequences (out of 113) are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. A putative -10 Pribnow box found a few nucleotide upstream of the putative MDH1 binding site (written in bold and underlined) in many species suggest that this later corresponds the 5'end of the atpH transcript, as it does in C. reinhardtii. A putative Shine-Dalgarno sequence (6-10 nt upstream of the initiation codon) is also well conserved in most species. The sequence of $\mathcal{C}$. reinhardtii atpH 5'UTR is highlighted in yellow.

Abbreviations of species names are as follows:
Syret: Symbiochloris reticulata; Sclei: Schizomeris leibleinii; Sthel: Stigeoclonium helveticum; Prcol: Prasinoderma coloniale; Neast: Nephroselmis astigmatica; Ulfas: Ulva fasciata; Ul_sp: Ulva sp. UNA000 71828; Ullin: Ulva linza; Ulper: Ulva pertusa; Ulpro: Ulva prolifera; Ulfle: Ulva flexuosa; Ullac: Ulva lactuca; Cacer: Carteria cerasiformis; Cacru: Carteria crucifera; Jemin: Jenufa minuta; Etpse: Ettlia pseudoalveolaris; Igtet: Ignatius tetrasporus; Psame: Pseudocharacium americanum; Ooamb: Oophila amblystomatis; Chper: Chloromonas perforata; Stplu: Stephanosphaera pluvialis; Chlei: Chlamydomonas leiostraca; Chapp: Chlamydomonas applanata; Dusal: Dunaliella salina; Halae: Hafnomonias laevis; Chbre: Chlorosarcina brevispinosa; Olvir: Oltmannsiellopsis viridis; Mo_sp: Monoraphidium-species; Chniv: Chlamydomonas nivalis; Oecard: Oedogonium cardiacum; Oecaro Oedocladium carolinianum; Pssch: Pseudomuriella schumacherensis; Oogig: Oogamochlamys gigantea; Myhom: Mychonastes homosphaera; Myjur: Mychonastes jurisii; Chzof: Chromochloris zofingiensis; Golon: Golenkinia longispicula; Cosp1: Coelastrella sp. M60; Cosp2: Coelastrella sp. UTEX B 3026; Haret: Hariotina reticulata; Teobl: Tetradesmus obliquus; Pepec: Pectinodesmus pectinatus; Neaqu: Neochloris aquatica; Chinc: Chlorotetraedron incus; Hyret: Hydrodictyon reticulatum; Pedup: Pediastrum duplex; Halac: Haematococcus lacustris; Loseg: Lobochlamys segnis; Locul: Lobochlamys culleus; Chcap1: Chlorogonium capillatum; Phlen: Phacotus lenticularis; Chrad: Chloromonas radiata; Braer: Bracteacoccus aerius; Brmin: Bracteacoccus minor; Anjud: Ankyra judayi; Brgig: Bracteacoccus giganteus; Ca-sp: Carteria sp. SAG 8-5; Trtri: Treubaria triappendiculata; Moneg: Monoraphidium neglectum; Scqua: Scenedesmus quadricauca; Kiape: Kirchneriella aperta; Chaci: Chlamydomonas acidophila; Chsph: Chlamydomonas sphaeroides; Chasy: Chlamydomonas asymetrica; Chpet: Chlamydomonas peterfii; Tesoc: Tetrabaena socialis; Vocar: Volvox carteri; Plsta: Pleodorina starrii; Chrei: Chlamydomonas reinhardtii; Gopec: Gonium pectorale; Psmar: Pseudoneochloris marina; Chcap2: Chamaetrichon capsulatum; Chbas: Chamaetrichon basiliensis; Psaki: Pseudendoclonium akinetum; Trmuc: Trichosarcina mucosa; Glpla: Gloeotilopsis planctonica; Glsar: Gloeotilopsis sarcinoidea; Yauni: Yamagishiella unicocca; Eu_sp: Eudorina sp.; Tuaki, Tupiella akineta; Hacap, Hazenia capsulata; Peang: Pediastrum angulosum; Petub: Pedinomonas tuberculata; Pemin: Pedinomonas minor; Sttet: Stauridium tetras; Rasub: Raphidocelis subcapitata; Psint:

Pseudopediastrum integrum; Psbor: Pseudopediastrum boryanum; Haret: Hariotina reticulata; Lagra: Lacunastrum gracillimum; Chacu: Characiochloris acuminata; Botex: Borodinellopsis texensis; Chtat: Chlorococcum tatrense; Chros: Chloromonas rosae; Chere: Chlorosarcinopsis eremi; Chsti: Chlorosarcina stigmatica; Patex: Palmellopsis texensis; Prbot: Protosiphon botryoides; MispL: Microspora sp. UTEXLB472; Patra: Parallela transversalis; Elvir: Elakatothrix viridis; Trhys: Trochiscia hystrix; Chorb: Chaetopeltis orbicularis; Oeang: Oedogonium angustistomum; Ursp3: Uronema sp. CCAP334/1; Cosai: Coelastrella saipanensis; PsspC: Pseudopediastrum sp. CL0201 VA; Voafr: Volvox africanus; Caful: Capsosiphon fulvescens; HaspM: Hariotina sp. MMOGRB0030F; Fobot: Follicularia botryoides; ChspU: Chlamydomonas sp. UWO 241; Spsim: Spermatozopsis similis; EuspN.: Eudorina sp. NIES-3984; Chsp3: Chlamydomonas sp. 3112; ChspW: Chlamydomonas sp. WS3
B) Alignment of the atpl 5'UTRs

The ~200 nt upstream of the atpl initiation codon (accession numbers listed in Suppl. Dataset DS1) were recovered in the NCBI databases and searched for the occurrence of the TGGTT(G/A)TTAT motif. Only sequences showing at least 7 matches with this motif within a range of 100 nt from the atp/ AUG codon were retained for the alignment, performed with the MUSCLE software using default options, and then manually edited to improve the alignment. Residues conserved in more than 60 \% of the sequences are written in red, while conservative substitutions are written in blue. Same abbreviations of species name than in panel A.

## Supplementary methods

## DNA constructs

Plasmids p-520 and P-70, respectively containing a 7.8 Pstl fragment of the chloroplast genome encompassing the 3'end of atpA, psbl, cemA, atpH, atpF and rps11 cloned in Bluscript pBSKS+ vector or a 4.9 kb EcoR1 fragment of the chloroplast genome encompassing the psbJ, atpl, psaJ and rps12 genes cloned into Puc8, were obtained from the Chlamydomonas Resource Center (http://chlamycollection.org/).

## Deletion of the atpH gene.

To remove unwanted restriction sites, plasmid P-520 was first digested by Sacl and Ncol, blunted with T4 DNA pol and religated on itself, then digested with Pacl and Xhol, blunted with T4 DNA pol and religated on itself to yield plasmid p-520Sh that only contains a 4916 bp insert.

A 789 DNA fragment upstream of the atpH coding sequence was amplified from template p520 using primers cemA_RI and atpHDel, digested by EcoRI and EcoRV and cloned into plasmid $\mathrm{p}-520$ Sh digested by the same enzymes to create plasmid $\mathrm{p} \Delta$ atpH. The recycling psaA-driven aadA cassette (Boulouis et al, 2015), excised from plasmid p5'aA-aad $A_{485}$ by digestion with Sacl and Xhol, was cloned into plasmid p $\Delta a t p H$, digested by the same enzymes (restriction sites introduced when designing primer atpH_del) to yield plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} \Delta \mathrm{atpH}$.

## Deletion of the atpl gene

A 1013 bp DNA fragment was amplified by two step megaprime PCR (Higuchi, 1990): primers psbJ_FW/atpIDel_RV and atpl_RV/atpIDel_FW allowed the amplification from plasmid p-70 of two partially overlapping amplicons that were mixed and used as templates in a third PCR with the external primers psbJ_FW and atpI_RV. In the final amplicon, the whole atpl 5'UTR and CDS were deleted and replaced by a short MCS. After digestion by Clal and Hpal, this amplicon was cloned into plasmid P70 digested with the same enzymes, yielding plasmid $p \Delta a t p l$. The recycling $p s a A$-aad $A$ cassette, excised from plasmid $p 5^{\prime} a A-a a d A 485$ by digestion with Sacl and Xhol, was cloned into plasmid psatpl, digested by the same enzymes (resriction sites introduced when designing primer atpIDel_FW and atpIDel_RV) to yield plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} \Delta$ atpl.

## Construction of reporter genes

## 5'atpH-driven reporter genes

The atpH promoter and 5'UTR regions, PCR-amplified from the template plasmid P-520 using primers atpH ${ }_{\text {prom }}$ and atpH $\mathrm{H}_{\text {ATG }}$, were digested by EcoRV and Ncol and cloned into the pWFaAK vector digested by the same enzymes to yield plasmid pWFdHK.

The promoter and a slightly extended 5'UTR region of atpH were similarly amplified using primers PCR atpH ${ }_{\text {prom }}$ and atpH $\mathrm{Atg}^{2}$, digested by Hincll and Ncol and cloned into plasmid paAf (Wostrikoff et al., 2004), digested by the same enzyme to yield plasmid pdHf. The recycling psaA-driven aadA cassette, excised from plasmid $p 5$ 'a $A$-aad $A_{485}$ by digestion with Sacl and Kpnl and blunted with T4 DNA Polymerase, was cloned into plasmid pdHf digested with Hincll to yield plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d H f$.

pGatpH

The pGatpH construct was created by a two-step PCR procedure, using the external primers cemA-FW and atp_RV and template plasmid p520sh. The final amplicon, carrying the poly(G) track (909 bp), was digested with EcoRI and EcoRV and cloned into plasmid p520Sh digested with the same enzymes to create plasmid patpH-pG. The recycling 5'aA-aadA485 was then cloned into plasmid patpH-pG digested with EcoRV to yield plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ atpH-pG.

## 5'atpl-driven reporter genes

The atpl 5'UTR was amplified from the template plasmid P-70 using oligonucleotides atplatg and atpI5'FW prom. The resulting 637 bp amplicon was digested by Nsil and Ncol and cloned into vectors paAf or pWFaAK digested with the same enzymes to yield plasmid pdlf or pWFdIK, respectively. In these constructs, the ClalNsil fragment from the psaA 5'UTR and promoter regions provides a promoter to drive the expression of the promoter-less atpl 5'UTR. The recycling psaA-aadA cassette, excised from plasmid p5'aA-aadA485 by digestion with Sacl and Kpnl and blunted with T4 DNA Polymerase, was then cloned into plasmid pdlf digested with Hincll to yield plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dlf.

Plasmid pKrdlf was digested with either Bsu96I and Bsml, Bsml and SnaBI, Bsu96l and SnaBI, or SnaBI and PfMII, blunted by T4 DNA Pol treatment and religated on itself to yield respectively plasmids pKrdlf $\Delta 1$, $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d l f \Delta 2$, $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d l f \Delta 3$, and $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} d l f \Delta 4$. The putative target of MTHI1 within the atp/ 5'UTR was also modified by megaprime PCR: primers atpl5'_FW/atpltar_RV and atpITar_FW/atpI5'_RV allowed the amplification from plasmid p-70 of two partially overlapping amplicons that were mixed and used as templates in a third PCR with the external primers atpI5'_FW and atpI5’_RV. This 996 bp final amplicon was digested with SnaBl and Pml and cloned into the $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{dlf}$ vector digested by the same enzymes to create plasmid $\mathrm{pK}^{\mathrm{r}}$ dlf $\Delta \mathrm{T}$.

## 5'psaA-driven atpI

To remove unwanted restriction sites, the P-70 vector was cut with Clal and Ndel, blunted with Klenow enzyme and religated on itself to yield plasmid p70_CN. This plasmid was then digested with EcoRI and SexAI, filled with Klenow and religated on itself to generate plasmid P70sh.
The atpl 5'UTR was then deleted from this plasmid by two steps megaprime PCR procedure: primers psbJ_FW/atp/Chim_RV and atpl-Chim_FW/atp/5'_RV allowed the amplification from plasmid P-70 of two partially overlapping amplicons that were mixed and used as templates in a third PCR with the external primers psbJ_FW and atp/5'_RV. This 743 bp amplicon was digested with Kpnl and BstBI and cloned into the $P 70$ sh vector digested with the same enzymes to create plasmid patpI $\Delta 5^{\prime}$.

To generate plasmid p5'psaA-atpl_Kr, the promoter and 5'UTR regions of the psaA gene were then amplified from the template plasmid ps1A1 (Kuck et al, 1987) using primers psaA prom and psaAAtg. The resulting 270 bp fragment amplicon was digested with Clal and Ncol and cloned into vector patpl $155^{\prime}$, digested with the same enzymes to yield plasmid p5'psaA-atpl. This plasmid was digested with Smal (a restriction site introduced in the psaA prom primer) and ligated with the recycling 5'a $A$ aadA cassette to yield plasmidepK ${ }^{\prime}$ 'psaA-atpl.

[^3]1069 bp amplicon was digested with Kpnl and Bsu361 and the resulting 654 bp fragment was cloned into p520Sh digested with the same enzymes to create patplst. The recycling 5 'a $A$-aadA resistance cassette was the cloned into the Hpal site of this vector to yield plasmid patp/st $K^{r}$.

## MTHI1 constructs.

We constructed a vector encompassing the genomic sequence of the MTHI1 gene by digesting the 21 H 4 cosmid by EcoRV and Xhol, isolating the 10679 bp subfragment that was cloned into pBluescriptlI SK- digested by Xhol and Alel to create plasmid pgMTHI1. A triple HA tag was fused to the C-terminus of the protein by megaprime PCR, using the mutagenic primers MTHI1 наFW and MTHI haRV and the external primers MTHI1FW5 and MTHI1RV5. The resulting 1252 bp amplicon was digested with Sfr and Spel and cloned into the pgMTHI1 vector digested by the same enzymes to create plasmid pgMTHI1-HA. To remove most of the C-terminal domain of the protein, but keep the triple HA tag, a 921 bp PCR product was amplified from template pgMTHI1-HA with primers MTHI1DeIC_FW and MTHI1DeIC_RV, digested by Hindlll and Srfl, and cloned into plasmid pgMTHI1 digested by the same enzymes to generate plasmid pgMTHI1 C .

The AV629671 EST clone containing a full length cDNA cloned into the pBluescriptll SK- vector, was obtained from the Kazusa DNA Research Institute (Asamizu et al, 2000). The triple HA tag was introduced in this plasmid by cloning the 350 bp fragment recovered from the digestion of the above mentioned 1252 bp PCR fragment with FspAI and Bst1107I into the AV629671 vector digested by the same enzymes to yield plasmid pcMTHI1-HA.

## MTHI1 recoding.

The MTHI1 CDS (Cre17.g734564.t1.1) was codon optimised for expression in $E$. coli (Ec) and synthesised by GeneCust (Suppl. Fig. S10). The synthesized EcRDH1 gene lacks the first 147 bp and contains instead 5'-ATGGCGATTGCAATTGGAATTCAT-3' which derives from the bacterial araB gene (ECK0064). EcRDH1 was cloned into vector pET28a (Novagen) using the Ncol and HindllI restriction sites to yield plasmid pET28a-EcRDH1. To introduce the hexahistidine tag at the N-terminus, primers ecRDH1-F and ecRDH1-R were used to amplify a 573-bp DNA fragment from plasmid pET28a-ecRDH1, digested with Ncol
and Agel, and cloned into pET28a-ecRDH1 digested with the same enzymes using the NEBuilder HighFidelity DNA Assembly Cloning (New England Biolabs) strategy resulting in pET28a-6His-ecRDH1.

## MTHI1 overexpression, purification and immunisation.

For antibody generation, MTHI1 was overexpressed in E. coli BL21 for 16h at $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and purified by nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid agarose under denaturing conditions as described earlier (Muranaka et al., 2016) (Suppl. Fig S11). After elution, fractions were concentrated on Amicon Ultra 50 kDa filters units and washed several times with 6 M urea and 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8. For antibody generation, 0.5 mg of purified protein was used for an 88-days rabbit immunization protocol (Covalab, France).

Supplemental Fig. S9: Emission spectrum of the white led used to grow $C$. reinhardtii. (In support of the M\&M section)

Measured with a S2000 Fibber Optics spectrophotometer (Ocean Optics, Inc).
Supplemental Fig. S10: Sequence of the recoded EcMTHI1 gene. (In support of the M\&M section)

Restriction sites introduced for cloning purpose are written in colour.
Supplemental Fig. S11: Purification and quantification of the recombinant EcMTHI1. (In support of the M\&M section)
A) Purification of EcMTHI1: I: whole cell lysate; S: supernatant after centrifugation to remove cell debris; FT: Flow Through across the Nickel column; W: wash fraction; $\mathrm{E} 1 \rightarrow$ E5 elution fraction. The right panel show the immuno-detection of MDH1 in the $\mathrm{E} 2 \rightarrow$ E4 fraction with an antibody against the HA tag.
B) Quantification of EcMTHI1, by comparison with known amounts of a BSA standard


Supplemental Fig. S9: Emission spectrum of the white led used to grow C. reinhardtii. Measured with a S2000 Fiber Optics spectrophotometer (Ocean Optics, Inc).

CTCGAGCCATGGCGATTGCAATTGGAATTCATGGTGCGCGTCGCGGCGTTCATAACGGTGCAGCTGCTGT TCACCCGGGCGGTCTGGACCTGCTGGATACTGCGGAATCTTCTGCAGAACAGCTGACCCCGCGCCGTCTG CTCAACCGTCGTATCAAATCTTGCCTGTCCCCGGCGCAGCTGGCGGGTCTGGTGCTGAGCGAAGTTGGTA AСTTCGATCAGCAGAATGCTTCCCACGCTCTGTCTCGCCTCGCCAAAATGTACCGCGGCCGTCGTCGTAA СТСТСАTCAGCACAGCCGTGGTAGCGACGTAGACCGTGCGCGTGCTGCGGCCGAGTTGCGCCCGGCTGTA GAAGCGTTAACTAAACGTATGCACCAACTGATCGGTAACTACGATTCCTGGGATACCACTCTGTCGCTCT GGGCTTATGCTCAGCTCGATCACTATGACGAAGGTGCTCTGCGTGCTCTGTGCGACGCGGCGGTTGAAGT TGCGCCGATTTTCAAACCGGTCGATTGTGCGAACGCTGTTGTTGCCTTCGCGCATCTGGACTACGTTCAC CCGGAACTGCTGCGCCAGATTGTTCAGACCGTGTTGGACACGCTGGACGATTACGCGCCTGGTGAAGTGT GCCAGGTGCTCTGGGGCTTTGCCCGTCTGGGCGTTCATCCGGGACCGGCGTTCCTGGCGGAAGTCGTTGA TGCGGTACAGTGGCGTCTGCAAGGCTACGGAACCCAGGAGCTGGGGATGGTGCTGTGGGCATTAGTCCGC CTGGGTTACAAACCGGGCCCGCGTTTCCTGCGTGACGTTGAATCCGTGCTGCTCGCACGTCTGCCGCACA TGGCACCGGGCGATATCGCGATTACCGTGTGGTCGTTTGCTCGTCTGCGTTACAAAGCAGTACGCTTCCT GGATGAAGTGCCGGCGGCCGTGGGTCCGCAGCTGCACAAATGCCGTTCAAGCGAACTGTGCTCTCTGATC TCCGGTTTCGCTACAGCTCACCACTATCACAAGTCTCTGCTGGACGCTGTGGCTGACGTTCTGCTGTCTC GCCTGGATGGCCTGAGCCACCACGAAGTTGCGACTGCTCTCTGGACCTTCGGCACCTTCCGCCACCGTCC GGCGCACCCGGATTTCGCGAAACAGGTTGCGGCAGCGCTGTACGCACGCATGCGCAGCTTTAGCCCGCAG GGCCTGGCGATGGTGGTTAAAGCGCTGGCTCAGCTGCAGTGGCGCTCCGAGCCGCTGATGGAACAGCTGA TCGCAGCTGCCGAGGCGAAGCTGAACGCCTTCAAACCGCTGGAACTCTCTCAGCTGCTGTGGGGCCTGAC TGCACTGCAGTGCCGTGATCTGCATATCTACTACGCCGTGGTTCGTCGCTGCATCGCGATCCTGAAGGAT CCGGCCCACCCGCACTATCGCACCATGACCCACCACCGCGTTGTGAACAGCGTGCTGGGCTCTTGTCAGC AGCTGGGTTATGTTCCGTGGACCCTGATCGATTTCGCAGAATCTAAAGGGATCCGCGTACGTCAGCCAGA САTССТGTCTTCCCGTGATGAAGATGACGAAGGCGTACCATACTCCCATCAGCAGCAACAGCACGCGGAT GCGGTGGAAGGCTGTGGCCACGATCGCGCGGAACAGCCGTGGGGCGCGTCTACCGGGTCCTCATCCTCTT СTTCCCGCCGTCACCAGCGTTGTGCGGAAGAAGAAGCGCTGTGGGCTGAGGCGGAGCGCGCCCACTCACA GCAGGTCGCGGCAGGCAACTCTAGCAGCGATGCTGCAATGGCGTCTGCTCCAGATGCGGTGGTGCTTCTG GAACAGGGTCTTATCCCGCACGTTTCCTCTAGCGCTGCAGCCGACGCATCTCATGAAGCGGCTGCGGTTC ACGCAGCCGCTCAGGGTGAATACCGCGCGCTGCAGCAACCGAAGCCGCAGCCGCTGGCGATGCTGACCGA GCGTGGCTCTCGTCACGCCACCGGCATGATTGTTCTGGCAGGAGCAGCGGCCGTTGTTGCGGGTGAGGGT GTGTCTGCAGGCGACGCAGAACAGCAATCCGCTATGTCTGCTCCGAACGTGGCCCAGCTGCAGGAAAGCG CGCCGGCCGCTGCGGCACTGGACGGCAGCAACAGCGGGTCTAACGGGGCAAAAGTTCTGTCTCCGCGTCC GCGTCTGGGCTCCGCCCGTCGTGGCGGCCCGGTTGTTGCAGGTGACGCGTCCCCGAAAGGCGCCTCTGCT CACGTTGCAGTGCCGGTAGATTCCGCGGCGCCGTCTGGTGCCCGTGCGCGCGCTCTGTTTTCTGACCCGC GCCGTGACAGCCCGTACAACGTGGGTATGGTTGCCGCGACCCCGCTGACCTTTCAGCGTTATCCGTATGA CGTTCCGGACTATGCGTACCCGTACGACGTGCCGGACTACGCCAGCTACCCGTACGATGTTCCGGACTAC GCGTAAAGCTTACTAGTCTCGAG

Supplemental Fig. S10: Sequence of the recoded EcMTHI1 gene. Restriction sites introduced for cloning purpose are written in colour.


Supplemental Fig. S11: Purification and quantification of the recombinant EcMTHI1
A) Purification of $\mathrm{EcMTHI1}$ : I: whole cell lysate; S: supernatant after centrifugation to remove cell debris; FT: Flow Through across the Nickel column; W: wash fraction; E1 $\rightarrow$ E5 eluted fraction. The right panel shows the immuno-detection of MDH1 in the E2-E4 fractions with an antibody against the HA tag.
B) Quantification of EcMTHI1, by comparison with known amounts of a BSA standard.

## Supplemental Table ST1: Oligonucleotide used during that study.

| name | Sequence ${ }^{1}$ | note |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Oligonucleotides used for DNA constructs, listed by order of appearance in the DNA construct section |  |  |
| cemA_RI | ACAGCGTGTTATTGGTGCAA |  |
| $\operatorname{atpH}_{\text {Del }}$ | CGCGATATCGAGCTCGCGCTCGAGTCCTCCTAAATGAATCAATAAAATCGA |  |
| psbJFW | CAGTTGGCTATGCCTCAACTCAC |  |
| atpIDel_RV | GCATGCTCGAGTATGAGCTCCATGGTCATATCCTATGGATTGATGCAAAAGTCT |  |
| atpIDel_FW | ATGACCATGGAGCTCATACTCGAGCATGCTGAAGCTTTAGCAGATCACCACTAATCTT |  |
| atpl_RV | GCGGAATTCAGCAATTACAGGTGCTGTTGA |  |
| atpH ${ }_{\text {prom }}$ | GCGGTTGACATGCATTACTTTAAATGGGAATCCTTTC |  |
| $\operatorname{atpH}_{\text {ATG }}$ | GCGCCATGGAAGTTGCAGCTACGATAGGGTTCAT |  |
| atpH ${ }_{\text {ATG }}$ 2 | GCGCCATGGTCATTGTATTTCCTCCTAAATGA |  |
| cemAFW | GCGAATTCCGGAAAGTCAAACAGGTATTTTCTT |  |
| atpH_RV | GCGTTAGCCAATACCAAACAGC |  |
| pGatpH_FW | TTGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGTTGGTTGTTATCGATTTTATTGATTCA |  |
| pGatpH_RV | AACCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCAAAGAATATTATATTCTTTGGTTGTTTCA |  |
| atpl $_{\text {ATG }}$ | CTACCATGGATACTTCAGCAATTTCTAATAAAGG |  |
| atpl5'_FW | GCGATGCATGCCCTTATCAAGCTTCCACATA |  |
| atpl ${ }_{\text {Tar_ }}$ FW | TCATTATTTATAGTTCAGCTGCAGAAAAATATTAATATCTTTCCAATAATTGGTAAGA |  |
| atpl ${ }_{\text {Tar_RV }}$ | AGATATTAATATTTTTCTGCAGCTGAACTATAAATAATGACCAGTTATTATCT |  |
| atpl5'_RV | CCAAAAAGTCGGAAGCTTAATG |  |
| atpl $_{\text {Chim_FW }}$ | AGCAGTATCGATATCCCATGGTTATGAATCCTTTATTAGAAATTGCTGAAG |  |
| atpl $_{\text {Chim_RV }}$ | TCATAACCATGGGATATCGATACTGCTATTTTCATAACAAATATATAA |  |
| psaAProm | CGCATCGATACCCGGGTACGAATACACATATGGTAAAAAAT |  |
| psaA ${ }_{\text {aUg }}$ | GCGCCATGGTCATGGATTTCTCCTTATAATAACA |  |
| atpl_FW | GCCCTTATCAAGCTTCCACATAGCGT |  |
| atpl_RV2 | ACGCCGCTGGTTCTACATAGCG |  |
| atplSt_FW | AGAATTTTATTACATTTTTTAGATCTCTTTATTAGAAATTGCTGAAGTATCTGTA |  |
| atplSt_RV | TCAGCAATTTCTAATAAAGAGATCTAAAAAATGTAATAAAATTCTTACCA |  |
| MTHI1 ${ }_{\text {HA_FW }}$ | TACGATGTCCCCGACTACGCTAGCTACCCTTATGATGTTCCTGATTATGCTTGAAGGCAGCTCCCAGGTTGACA |  |
| MTHI1HA_RV | TAGCTAGCGTAGTCGGGGACATCGTACGGGTACGCGTAGTCCGGAACGTCGTAGGGATAGCGTTGAAACGTTAGCGGCGTGG |  |
| MTHI1_RV5 | TCACCGCCCTCCAGCAGCTCCG |  |


| name | Sequence ${ }^{1}$ | note |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Oligonucleotides used for DNA constructs, listed by order of appearance in the DNA construct section |  |  |
| MTHI1_FW5 | CAAGTGGCGGCGGGCAACAGCA |  |
| MTHI1 ${ }_{\text {DelC_F }}$ FW | GATCGCGGCGGCCGAGGCCAAGC |  |
| MTHI1 ${ }_{\text {Delc_R }}$ RV | GCCCGGGCTCCCTGCTGCTGTTGGTGCGAGTACGGCACG |  |
| ecMTHI1-FW | ACTTTAAGAAGGAGATATACCATGGGCAGCAGCCATCACCATCATCACCACAGCGCGATTGCAATTGGAATTCATG |  |
| ecMTHI1-RV | AACAGCGTTCGCACAATCGACCGGTTTGAAAATCGGCG |  |
| Oligonucleotides used to sequence the MTHI1 cDNA and the MTHI1 gene in mthi1 the mutants |  | position / initiation codon |
| MTHI1_FW1 | AGGTTTCAGCACGCGGAATGTGGG | -1416 |
| MTHI1_RV1 | AGACAGCGTCGTGTCCCAGGAGTC | +769 |
| MTHI1_FW2 | TACGCCACGGCGCCTGTTAAATCG | +439 |
| MTHI1_RV2 | GTATGGAGCATTCGAGACGCCCGC | +2422 |
| MTHI1_FW3 | GCGCATCACTACCACAAGGTGCGT | +2328 |
| MTHI1_RV3 | CTGCCGAGGAAGACACATGGGGGA | +4188 |
| MTHI1_FW4 | TCGGACACTCATCCACCCCCACAC | +3712 |
| MTHI1_RV4 | TTGCGCCACCTTACCCTACTCCCC | +5745 |
| MTHI1_FW5 | CAAGTGGCGGCGGGCAACAGCA | +4014 |
| MTHI1_RV5 | TCACCGCCCTCCAGCAGCTCCG | +5250 |
| Oligonucleotides used for the 5'LRM-RACE identification of the 5'ends of the genes from the atpl transcription unit |  |  |
| psbJ-5'-RACE | CAACAAGCCATAGAGGGATACGTCCAGTA |  |
| psbJ_nested-GSP | AAACGCTCTCCAATTGATTTACAACCTTGC |  |
| psbJ_L | GAAAGGGGAAGAGAACGTCCTTCGGAGAAT |  |
| atpl-5'-RACE | CCTAATTCCCAGTAATAGTGCTGACCTACA |  |
| atpl_nested-GSP | GATACTTCAGCAATTTCTAATAAAGGATTC |  |
| atpl_L | GAGACACTCAAATATGGAGTTCCTAATACTGC |  |
| psaJ-5'-RACE | CACCGTGAGGGTAAATAAATGTGACTGA |  |
| psaJ_nested-GSP | ACCAAATAGTAGCAATTACAGGTGCTGTTG |  |
| psaJ_L | GCATTAAGCAATTCACTCTTTACGCATAACT |  |
| rps12-5'-RACE | CCCTAGCAACTTTACGAAGTGCAGAGTTTG |  |
| rps12_nested-GSP | ACGAATTAATTGTTGAATTGTAGGCATAAAAGC |  |

${ }^{1}$ : restriction sites added in the oligonucleotide sequence for cloning or RFLP analysis purposes are written in Bold or underlined. In the mutagenic oligonucleotides, nucleotides that differ from the WT Chlamydomonas sequence are indicated in red.

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## Article 4:

"In vivo studies of the OPR recognition code reveal the resilient nature of M factor and mRNA interactions in the chloroplast of Chlamydomonas reinhardtil."

This is a draft version that will be completed when the final MDB1mut x dBMgfp3'rbcL experiment are done. We hope to submit it in the coming months.

## DRAFT ARTICLE:

In vivo studies of the OPR RECOGnition code reveal the RESILIENT NATURE OF M FACTOR AND MRNA INTERACTIONS IN THE CHLOROPLAST OF ChLAMYDOMONAS REINHARDTII.

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Keywords: Nucleus-encoded trans-acting factors; OPR proteins, recognition code, mRNA stability, chloroplast, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, protein/RNA

Abstract to be written once the MDB1mut $x d^{\prime} B_{M} g f p-3^{\prime} r b c L$ blots are done.

## InTRODUCTION

Following endosymbiosis around 1.5 billion years ago, the cyanobacterial ancestor of the chloroplast underwent deep modifications. Obsolete gene loss and extensive gene transfer events to the host nucleus led to a drastic reduction of the plastid genome (Martin et al., 1998; Timmis et al., 2004; Moustafa and Bhattacharya, 2008). Many genes remaining in the chloroplast are still expressed in polycistronic transcription units, but the original cyanobacterial operon organisation of the genes has been largely lost. In the green alga Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, the chloroplast genome has been completely shuffled and the genes encoding the subunits of a same photosynthetic protein complex are most often separated (Maul et al., 2002), while genes co-transcribed in polycistrons may contribute to different functions. To tune the expression of the various subunits of the plastid complexes, the chloroplast relies on post-transcriptional mechanisms (Rochaix, 1996; Choquet and Wollman, 2002). Moreover, due to gene transfer, many essential chloroplast polypeptides are now encoded in the nuclear genome and imported back into the plastid. To ensure the chloroplast viability the expression of chloroplast and nucleus encoded subunits needs to be synchronised.

Transcripts in the chloroplast stroma are subjected to a high exonuclease activity. To be stabilised, matured and translated plastid transcripts need nuclear gene products (Barkan and Goldschmidt-Clermont, 2000) the organellar trans acting factors (OTAF). OTAF are gene specific factors, able to recognise and bind specific organellar mRNA to promote their expression, either by maturation, stabilisation, editing, splicing, translation initiation... Among OTAFs the PPR (pentatricopeptide) protein family, which was defined twice independently twenty years ago (Aubourg et al., 2000; Small and Peeters, 2000), has been extensively studied in land plants (Lurin et al., 2004; Colcombet et al., 2013; Barkan and Small, 2014) PPR proteins bear tandem repeats of a degenerate 35 amino acids motif, which fold into two antiparallel $\alpha$-helices (Ringel et al., 2011) and stack into a super helix, with the first helix of each repeat inside the groove. This motif was predicted to interact with the mRNA thanks to positive residues forming a continuous surface inside the groove (Small and Peeters, 2000). Further understanding of the mRNA/PPR motif interactions was achieved by molecular, computational and structural studies in the past decade (Prikryl et al., 2011; Kobayashi et al., 2012; Yagi et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2013; Ban et al., 2013; Gully et al., 2015) and a PPR recognition code was established in vitro and in silico (Barkan et al., 2012; Yagi et al., 2013), linking the nature of residues at specific positions in the first helix with the affinity for a specific nucleotide. This code was demonstrated experimentally (Barkan et al., 2012), by introducing mutations at key positions of the $6^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ repeats of the maize protein PPR10 and looking in vitro at its binding affinity for a range of target RNA varying at the $6^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ nucleotides. Specific nucleotide recognition was thus established for several combinations of key residues.

In Chlamydomonas reinhardtii most OTAFs are octotricopeptide repeat (OPR) proteins. Those proteins are characterised by tandem repeats of a degenerated 38 amino-acid motif. OPR proteins are scarce in land plants and have been mostly studied in C. reinhardtii. They are implicated in translation initiation (Zerges and Rochaix, 1994; Stampacchia et al., 1997; Auchincloss et al., 2002; Eberhard et al., 2011; Rahire et al., 2012), RNA stabilisation and maturation (Drager et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2015; Viola et al., 2019) and possibly RNA degradation (Boulouis et al., 2015). While the OPR motif is not homologous to the PPR motif, OPR repeats are predicted to fold similarly into two antiparallel $\alpha$-helices and to form an $\alpha$ solenoid structure when stacked together. This has been confirmed by a recent singleparticle cryo-electron microscopy analysis of Polytomella sp. mitochondrial ATP synthase, which revealed the structure of ASA2, an OPR protein (Murphy et al., 2019). As for the PPR repeat, the first helix of the OPR repeat also lay in the groove of the super-helix. This first helix is more conserved than the second one, hinting that it is more important for the function of the motif. However, specific positions in this conserved helix are highly variable. By comparing the occurrence of those variable residues with the known target nucleotides of OPR proteins, we have established a draft OPR recognition code. In the present study, we took advantage of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii suitability to mutagenesis both in nucleus and chloroplast to decipher the OPR recognition code in vivo, with all the potentials physiological factors that may play a role in the OPR protein/mRNA interaction.

We worked with two OPR stabilisation factors: MDB1, an 1137 amino-acid protein, bearing 13 OPR motifs, required for the stabilisation of the chloroplast atpB mRNA, encoding subunit $\beta$ of the chloroplast ATP synthase (Drapier et al., 1992). Moreover, the addition of a poly-G track at the $5^{\prime}$ end of $a t p B$ mRNA restored its accumulation in absence of MDB1, suggesting that this OPR factor is implicated in atpB transcript stabilisation by preventing its degradation by $5^{\prime} \rightarrow 3^{\prime}$ exonucleases (Cavaiuolo et al, in preparation). A foot-print in atpB mRNA 5' region, showing a specific protection from nucleases, disappeared in a mutant devoid of MDB1 (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017). The 13 nucleotides putative binding site of MDB1 in that atpB transcript foot-print will be called the target sequence in this study.

We also studied the MTHI1 factor, a 9 OPR repeat protein described in much detail in (papier Shin). MTHI1 is a dual stabilisation and translation factor of the plastid atpH mRNA. MTHI1 9 nucleotides target sequence on atpH mRNA was also revealed by a foot-print (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017).

[^4]Point mutations were introduced in the MDB1 target sequence of atpB (fig 1). The aim was to test the importance of different parts of the target as well as the effect of steric clashes; when a pyrimidine is replaced with a larger purine. Those mutated targets were then inserted at the $a t p B$ locus along a spectinomycine resistance cassette in the chloroplast of $\Delta a t p B_{1}$ cells, to avoid recombination of the target with the endogenous atpB. After homoplasmisation, all variants were still phototrophic, bar dB12. Accumulation levels of the mutated atpB mRNA in transformed cells were assessed by RNA blot. 3 independent transformants analysed for each target variant proved almost identical. A representative transformant for each variant is shown in fig1. Most variants kept a high accumulation of $\operatorname{atpB} \mathrm{mRNA}$, compared to the control construct ( dBct ). Whether big or small ( 4 to 2 nucleotides), mutations in the $5^{\prime}$ half of the target did not strongly destabilise the $a t p B$ mRNA, which accumulated to roughly 60-75 \% of the control level. Mutations in the central region had a stronger effect but still did not prevent $a t p B$ mRNA accumulation. Mutations in the $3^{\prime}$ half of the target had also weak effects, except for the dB12 mutant ( 4 contiguous nucleotides substituted, with the introduction of three steric clashes), which saw a sharp drop in $a t p B$ transcript accumulation ( $1 \%$ of the dBct level), in agreement with the loss of phototrophic growth.

Thus, the MDB1-mediated stabilisation of the atpB transcript was quite resilient, paradoxically suggesting that the $\operatorname{atp} B m R N A / M D B 1$ interaction is poorly sequence specific. However, in previous studies of mdb1 mutants (Drapier et al., 1992) MDB1 absence had no effect on the expression of other chloroplast genes and alternative MDB1 footprints could not be identified (Cavaiuolo et al., 2017).

Comparisons between a previous study (Anthonisen et al., 2001) and our results did confirm the relative importance of the $3^{\prime}$ half of the target compared to the 5' part (fig2). But strikingly, the effects of our point mutations on transcript accumulation were far weaker than those observed by the authors. In that study, a chimeric construct was used, instead of the whole atpB, bearing only the first 72 nt of the atpB 5' UTR (i.e. including MDB1 footprint), fused to the bacterial uidA coding sequence and followed by the psaB 3' UTR. Those major differences might indicate that other regions of the atpB transcript are implicated in its stabilisation. This could perhaps involve other unknown auxiliary factors, specific to $\operatorname{atp} B$, able to interact with $\operatorname{atpB}$ mRNA and to enhance MDB1 binding specificity on its target transcript in a tripartite complex.

## Mutated atpH transcripts remained stable in most cases

To determine whether atpB resilient stabilisation was a lone case in C. reinhardtii we decided to attempt similar experiments on $a t p H$. Point mutations were created in atpH MTHI1 target sequence (fig3), a spectinomycin selection cassette was added and the constructions were transformed into a $\Delta a t p H$ strain in place of the deleted atpH locus.

Transcript accumulation of the MTHI1 atpH target variants was estimated by RNA blot (fig3). The control target sequence strains $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct}}$, accumulated the atpH transcript stably and could perform photosynthesis. While both $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{1}$ and $\Delta \mathrm{dH} H_{2}$ transformed strains did accumulate less atpH transcripts than the WT or the control strain, they were still able to grow photoautotrophically. The mutation in the $5^{\prime}$ part of the atpH target seemed to cause more effect on atpH recognition by MTHI1 than the mutation in the 3'part. The $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{3}$ transformed strains, in which the target is nearly unrecognisable, accumulated very low levels of atpH mRNA, equivalent to that of the mthi1-2 strain, and were not phototrophic. As in atpB case, to disrupt atpH transcript stabilisation by its M factor, large mutations were needed.

## MTH2 an auxiliary factor of MTHI1?

MTH2 (Cre10.g461700) is a dispensable gene implicated in atpH mRNA stabilisation; it encodes a putative protein of 3219 amino acids, with no discernible domains. This protein has orthologues in closely related Chlamydomonaceae. In an insertional mutant of MTH2 L63a atpH mRNA accumulated to about one tenth of its wild-type level. In another independent insertional mutant of MTH2: mth2-2, similarly the atpH transcript accumulated also to $10 \%$ of the WT.T222+ level (fig4). Those mutants managed to grow on minimum media, indicating that translation of atpH could still occur even in absence of MTH2. This dispensable MTH2 could be an auxiliary factor of MTHI1. To investigate further this possible involvement in the interaction between the MTHI1 OPR factor and its target atpH mRNA, mth2-2 strains were transformed with either the $\Delta d H_{c t}$ or the $\Delta d H_{2}$ constructs. After achieving homoplasmy, growth test of the strains were done, on TAP or minimum medium. All the tested strains were still able to grow on minimum medium, albeit very slowly for the $m t h 2-2\left\{\mathrm{dH}_{2}\right\}$ strains. Total RNA was extracted from the strains and loaded on RNA blots (fig4). The mth2-2 $\left\{d H_{c t}\right\}$ accumulated similar levels of $a t p H$ transcript as mth2-2, highlighting the implication of MTH2 in atpH stabilisation. Surprisingly considering their ability to grow photo-autotrophically, no detectable amount of atpH mRNA was found in the mth2-2 \{dH $\left.{ }_{2}\right\}$ transformants, the accumulation level was probably under the detection threshold in this blot. (Blot to be remade)

## A new strategy to study the code with MDB1: a chimeric approach Chimeric mRNA bearing MDB1 target sequence are far more easily destabilised

To see whether we could achieve similar results by alleviating the influence of potential auxiliary factors of MDB1, we designed a new chimeric reporter, made of the same 72bp of the $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR than in (Anthoninsen et al, 2001), fused to the coding sequence of Azotobacter vinelandii green fluorescence protein (GFP) and followed by the rbcL 3'UTR. As described in Fig.5, different point mutations were introduced in the MDB1 target sequence. These chimeras, associated with an aadA cassette for the selection of transformants, were
inserted in a neutral site, downstream of the petA gene, and introduced in the chloroplast genome of the WT and/or $\Delta a t p B$ strains.

Because the chimera does not contain the $a t p B$ sequences required for translation initiation, the gfp sequence could only be used to probe transcript levels in RNA-blot experiments. Constructs bearing three consecutive Spinach2 (Strack et al., 2013) light-up aptamers between the $g f p$ CDS and the $3^{\prime} r b c L$ were constructed, to try to visualise in vivo the chimeric RNA in the cells. However, while the mRNA did accumulate similarly as the simple $g f p$ chimera, the fluorescence signals proved too low to detect in cells (data not shown).

When introduced in the chloroplast genome of the $\Delta a t p B$ recipient strain, the control constructs (with or without Spinach2) with a wild-type target sequence were strongly accumulated, showing that the missing part of atpB 5'UTR is not necessary for MDB1mediated stabilisation. And as expected, Spinach2 constructs failed to accumulate in an mdb1 mutant context. (Fig.7).

By comparison, mRNA levels of mutated chimeras were quite decreased (Fig.5). Compared to the control transformed strain, the $\mathrm{CC}_{1}, \mathrm{TT}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{1}$ point mutations led to a $70-80 \%$ decrease of transcript accumulation, while the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}, \mathrm{AA}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ mutations induced a drastic drop in transcript abundance. In the $\mathrm{CC}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{2}$ variants, accumulation of the $g f p$ mRNA was nearly abolished, at around $3-4 \%$. Again, mutations in the 3 'part of the MDB1 target sequence had a stronger effect than those in the 5 ' part. The absence of most of atpB sequence had a sizeable impact on MDB1-mediated transcript stability.

## Effects of atpB presence on the chimeric RNA accumulation levels

The control reporter was also transformed in a WT.T222+ strain, to assess the impact of the presence of the endogenous atpB mRNA on the gfp reporter accumulation. As shown in Fig. 6 and Fig.7, the accumulation of the chimeric gfp mRNA was reduced about ten-fold in the presence of the endogenous $a t p B$. In contrast, atp $B$ mRNA accumulation was only slightly affected by the presence of the chimera, and remained at $\sim 75 \%$ of its level in the wild-type strain. Those results could indicate that $a t p B$ was more stabilised in a competition with the chimera.

We then transformed the $\mathrm{CC}_{1}, \mathrm{TT}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{GG}_{1}$ chimeric variants into the WT.T222+ stain. Strikingly, at variance with the control chimera, the mutated chimeric transcript could not be detected (fig.8). Upon competition with the endogenous atpB mRNA, mutations in the target completely abolished the interaction with MDB1, hence the absence of accumulation of the chimeric transcripts.

Two main hypotheses (fig.9) could explain why MDB1 is more sensitive to modifications of its specific target sequence in absence of the whole atp $B$ sequence. The first hypothesis would be that auxiliary factors recognising other regions of atpB mRNA could be implicated in maintaining MDB1 on its target, possibly by forming a ternary complex with atpB mRNA
and MDB1. This could also explain why the endogenous atpB is favoured by MDB1: this factor might also recruit MDB1 on atpB transcript or keep MDB1 sequestrated on its canonical target. Another hypothesis is that other regions of the atpB transcript are directly implicated in the stabilisation process. It was shown that the 3'UTR of C. reinhardtii chloroplastic mRNA could be implicated in its translation (Rott et al., 1998) and the maturation of its 5'UTR (cf Cavaiuolo article atpB). Notably, rbcL 3'UTR prevented the 5'terminus maturation of 5'atpB chimeric constructs, leading to a reduced accumulation and expression of the chimeric transcripts.

## Effects of the $3^{\prime}$ end of atpB

To test whether the 3 'end was responsible for MDB1 destabilisation on the $g f p$ reporters, another construct containing as previously described: $5^{\prime}$ atp $B_{S H}$, then the $g f p$ CDS, three Spinach2 and terminated by atpB 3'UTR was designed. The construct was transformed into the WT.T222+ and $\triangle a t p B_{1}$ strains. Accumulation of atpB and gfp transcripts was assessed by RNA blot (Fig.7). The gfp construct bearing the $3^{\prime} a t p B$ was not significantly more stabilised when in competition with the endogenous atpB transcript. This suggests that the 3'end is not the crucial part granting more stability to $a t p B$ mRNA in a competition. Surprisingly, the chimeric transcript in the $\triangle a t p B_{1}$ strain accumulated slightly less when it was terminated by a $3^{\prime} a t p B$ instead of a $3^{\prime} r b c L$. Moreover, atpB mRNA was even more accumulated (to nearly wild-type levels) when the chimera in competition had a $3^{\prime} a t p B$. Those results suggest that the $3^{\prime}$ end of atpB mRNA might instead be a target for specific degradation and that the presence of a chimeric transcript with the same $3^{\prime}$ end might alleviate that pressure on the endogenous transcript.

## MDB1 mutagenesis

Mutations in MDB1 sequence were introduced to modify the putative key residues at the fifth and sixth positions in the OPR repeat 6 and 7 or 11 and 12 according to the draft OPR recognition code (Fig.10). To confront those modified MDB1 proteins with the various target mRNA we transformed those mutations into the nucleus genome of thm24.2 a knockout strain of MDB1. Transformants were tested for the recovery of photo-autotrophy by fluorescence imaging and the levels of tagged MDB1 protein was assessed by immunoblot, as the insertion was random the expression levels of tagged MDB1 in independent transformants were highly different. A transformant expressing the highest amount of MDB1 was picked for each mutation. Those MDB1 mutants were then crossed with the $\Delta a t p B_{1}{ }^{+}$ strains carrying the chloroplastic chimeras. As the chloroplast genome in C. reinhardtii is only transmitted by the mating type + parent, the progeny was plated and selected on paromycin and spectinomycin resistance, to kill parental cells and checked for the presence of MDB1 knock-out allele thm24.2.

## RNA blots

To be performed

DISCUSSION<br>Conclusions on OPR code<br>To be written once the MDB1mut x dBMgfp-3'rbcL blots are done.

## Conclusion on potential secondary factors

Specific sequences in the 5’UTR part that was deleted in the gfp chimera are important for the transcript stabilisation. This stabilisation could be linked to the MDB1-mediated one, as the chimeric transcripts, driven by the complete atpB 5'UTR accumulates at about the same level than the endogenous $a t p B$ transcript in a competition (ref article1). This could mean that unknown factor(s) could either recruit MDB1 on atpB transcript or anchor MDB1 by improving its affinity for its target RNA in a ternary complex for instance. This observation is also coherent with the lower resilience of the MDB1/atpB target when the end of the 5’UTR is absent. While organellar gene expression depends on crucial factors, those do not work by themselves and organellar mRNA are probably expressed by a suite of factors, influencing each other, the $M$ factors being the corner stone of those resilient expression systems. Considering the growing number of M and T factors co-stabilising mRNA in $C$. reinhardtii (ref), those tripartite or higher order complexes might be widespread in the chloroplast.

## Methods

## Strains, media and growth conditions

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii wild-type, mutant and transformed strains, derived from 137c, were grown in Tris-acetate-phosphate medium (TAP), pH 7.2 at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, under constant illumination at 5 to $10 \mu \mathrm{E} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. Strains are listed in the (table)

## Crosses

Crosses were performed according to (Harris, 1989). Descendants were selected on paromycin ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) supplemented TAP plates, and then on TAP-spectinomycin plates $(500 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL})$. The presence of the thm24.2 MDB1 allele was assessed by PCR amplification of MDB1 with MDB1 bFW and MDB1 aRV and subsequent digestion by Bsrl.

## Nucleic acid manipulations and plasmid construction

Standard nucleic acid manipulations were performed according to (Sambrook et al., 1989). Primers and plasmids used in this study are listed in the Supplementary materials section. Every DNA construct was sequenced before transformation in C. reinhardtii.

## Target variants of atpH

Three steps PCR mutagenesis was performed on patpHKX with the cemAFW and Mut-atpH*RV primers (see table) on one hand and atpHext-RV and Mut-atpH-*FW on the other. The two products were gel purified and combined by mega priming with cemAFW and atpHextRV. A cemAFW and atpHext-RV PCR was also performed on patpHKX to recover the wild-
type MTHI1 target. Final products were digested with EcoRv and EcoRI and integrated back into the patpHKX vector at the same sites. The final plasmids were then used for chloroplast transformation.

## Target variants of atpB

Three steps PCR mutagenesis was performed on p147 with on one hand dBExt-RV and $d B^{*} F W$ and on the other atpB5'FWx and $d B^{*} R V$. The two different PCR products were then purified and put together for mega priming with dBExt-RV and atpB5'FWx. The final product was then digested by Xhol and BseRI and cloned into p147 at the same sites. Those constructions were targeted to the endogenous $a t p B$ locus.

## gfp chimeric constructs

The paAKX plasmid (Wostrikoff et al, 2004) was digested by Apal and Alel to retrieve a 2509 bp fragment containing a spectinomycin resistance cassette (the aminoglyside 3' adenyl transferase coding sequence: aadA (Goldschmidt-Clermont, 1991) driven by the psaA 5'UTR and followed by rbcL 3'UTR. This cassette is also flanked by two direct repeats (a fragment of the tet gene conferring resistence to tetracyclin (Fischer et al., 1996)) of 485 bp , to create a recycling $\operatorname{aadA}$ cassette self-excising by spontaneous homologous recombination as described in (Fischer et al., 1996). After a Klenow treatment this fragment was inserted into the pWF plasmid (which contains chloroplastic sequences targeting the insertion in a neutral locus, next to petA) at the Hincll site, giving the pWFaAKX plasmid.

A 756 bp Azotobacter vinelandii green fluorescence protein sequence was amplified by PCR from pGFP with the GFP-CDS_FW and GFP_CDS_RV2 primers (cf tab primers). This DNA fragment was digested by Pstl and EcoRI and integrated into the corresponding sites in the paAKRaA plasmid (Fu et al., 2017) to place the gfp sequence in front of the rbcL 3'UTR, giving the pgfpRaA plasmid.
pgfpRaA was then digested by BamHI and Xhol, the 946bp fragment was inserted into pWFaAKX at the Xhol and BgIII sites, this yielded the pWFaAKXgfpR plasmid.

Fragments of $\operatorname{atpB} 5^{\prime}$ UTR with the mutated target were obtained either: by PCR amplification of previously used plasmids $p^{K r}$ atpB, patp $B_{C C}$, patp $B_{T T}$, patp $B_{G G}$ with the atpBAnton_FW and atpB_Anton_WT_RV primers, or by PCR mutagenesis with primers atpBAnton_FW and atpB-Anton-M1_RV, atpB-Anton-M2_RV, atpB-Anton-M3_RV using p147 as template. All those 144bp amplifications products were then digested by Xmal and Xhol and inserted at the corresponding sites in pWFaAKXgfpR. The final pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfpR, pWFaAKX-dB $\left(C C_{1}\right) \operatorname{gfpR}$, pWFaAKX-dB( $\left.T_{1}\right) \operatorname{gfpR}$, pWFaAKX-dB $\left(G_{1}\right) \operatorname{gfpR}$, pWFaAKX$d B\left(C_{2}\right) g f p R, p W F a A K X-d B\left(A A_{2}\right) g f p R, p W F a A K X-d B\left(G_{2}\right) g f p R$ were thus obtained.

A triplet of consecutive Spinach2 aptamers (Strack et al., 2013) sequences, separated by restriction sites, was ordered from Genscript and cut with Mfel and Pstl and inserted in pgfpRaA to give pgfp-Spinach2x3-RaA. This plasmid was subjected to the same cloning
procedure as previously described for pgfpRaA to obtain pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-R. To obtain the construct with 2 spinach2, pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-R was digested with EcoRI and Hpal, and after a Klenow treatment to fill in the overhangs, was ligated. This yielded the plasmid $\mathrm{pWFaAKX}-\mathrm{dB}(\mathrm{WT}) \mathrm{gfp}$-Spinach $2 \times 2$-R.

To design the chimeric construct with atpB 3'UTR instead of rbcL 3'UTR, a synthetic sequence was ordered and introduced into the pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-R giving the pWFaAKX-dB(WT)gfp-Spinach2x3-B (GenScript).

## MDB1 variants

Synthetic DNA sequences were ordered from Genscipt and inserted either in the vector MDB1-HA-pJFL between the Xhol and Bglll sites for MDB1-CC1-HA, MDB1-GG1-HA, and MDB1-UU1-HA or in the vector pMDB1 -HA-Strep-JHL between the Nsil and SnaBI sites for MDB1-CC2-HA-Strep, MDB1-GG2-HA-Strep and MDB1-AA2-HA-Strep (GenScript).

## Chloroplast transformation

Chloroplast transformation by tungsten microbeads bombardment (Boynton et al., 1988) was conducted essentially as described (Kuras and Wollman, 1994) except that the cells were directly transformed on TAP-spectinomycin $(100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL})$ plates. Resulting transformants were sub-cloned on TAP-spec $(500 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL})$ for several generations. Homoplasmy was assessed by PCR amplification of the construct sequence and disruption of the recipient loci.

## Nucleus transformation

After linearization of the transformation plasmids by Scal or Ahdl, nucleus transformation was conducted in CHES buffer as described (Onishi and Pringle, 2016) with the following parameters: $600 \mathrm{~V}, 25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ and $1000 \Omega$. Transformants were selected on paromycin ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) supplemented TAP plates.

## RNA analysis

RNA extraction and RNA gels were performed as in (Drapier and Wollman, 1998). Digoxigenin (DIG) labelled DNA probes were generated by PCR (Roche) and hybridised on the nylon filter bound RNA. The probes were then bound by anti-DIG antibodies and incubated with CDP-Star (Roche), chemiluminescence was then detected with a Chemidoc. Transcript quantification was done using the image lab software.

## Protein analysis

Immunoblots were performed on exponentially growing cells ( $2 \times 10^{6}$ cells $/ \mathrm{mL}$ ) according to (Kuras and Wollman, 1994). Cell extracts were loaded in $8-16 \%$ acrylamide gels (Biorad), on an equal chlorophyll basis. Anti-tubulin, anti-cytochrome $f$, anti- $\beta$-CF1, anti-HA antibodies were used. And detected either by anti-mouse IgG or anti-rabbit IgG antibodies.

## Fluorescence live-imaging

Fluorescence of live cells on plates was measured with a SpeedZen camera (Beambio). 2

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| Position | Residue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | x | x | x | x | R,K | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 4 | x | P | x | x | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{x} \\ -\mathrm{P} \end{gathered}$ | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 5 | x | Q | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{X} \\ -\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{~K} \end{gathered}$ | R, K | x | R | X-R | R, Q | x | R | R |
| $\begin{gathered} 6 \\ \text { (\% occurrence) } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{(22,24)}{\mathbf{E}}$ | $\underset{(15,36)}{\mathbf{G}}$ | $\underset{(14,66)}{D}$ |  |  | $\underset{(10,02)}{\mathbf{Q}}$ |  | $\underset{(9,11)}{\mathbf{A}}$ | $\underset{(7,68)}{\mathbf{H}}$ | $\underset{(7,34)}{S}$ | $\underset{(7,09)}{\mathbf{N}}$ |


| Recognised <br> nucleotide | $\mathbf{U}$ | $\mathbf{A}$ | $\mathbf{G}$ | $\mathbf{U}$ | $\mathbf{U}$ | $\mathbf{U}$ | $\boldsymbol{?}$ | $\mathbf{A}$ | $\boldsymbol{?}$ | $\mathbf{A}$ | $\boldsymbol{?}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Table 1: Draft OPR recognition code.

## A



## 5＇atpB M $^{\text {：atpB：3＇atpB }}$

B

| WT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dBCt | dB1 | dB2 | dB3 | dB4 | dB5 | dB6 | dB7 |
| dB8 | dB10 | dB11 | dB12 | $\mathrm{dBCC}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{dBT}_{1}$ | dBGG ${ }_{1}$ | $\mathrm{dBCT}_{1}$ |
| $\triangle a t p B 1$ |  |  |  | K4．20 |  |  |  |



TAP medium

min medium

C


Steric clash


WTAatpB dBct dB4 dB3 dB2


Figure 1: A. Cartoon of the $5^{\prime} a t p B_{M}: a t p B: 3^{\prime} a t p B$ construct, transformed into the chloroplast of the $\Delta a t p B 1$ strain. B. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table aside shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media and grown for 12 days under $55 \mu \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ illumination. C. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p B$ strains transformed with the mutated atpB MDB1 target sequence. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. atp $B$ and pet $A$ (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on dBct levels. The ratio of $\operatorname{atp} B$ on pet $A$ transcripts is depicted under the blot.

$5^{\prime} a t p B_{M}: a t p B: 3^{\prime} a t p B$


5'atp shm :uidA: $3^{\prime \prime}$ psaB

| Target sequence |  | Target sequence |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AAAAUAA GCGUUA | 100\% | AAAAUAA GCGUUA | 100\% |
| AGGAUAA GCGUUA | 75\% | AAAGUAA GCGUUA | 23\% |
| GGGGUAA GCGUUA | 73\% |  |  |
| AAAGCGG GCGUUA | 70\% | AAAACAA GCGUUA | 18\% |
| AAAAGGG GCGUUA | 60\% | AAAAUCA GCGUUA | 41\% |
| AAAAUUU GCGUUA | 62\% |  |  |
| AAAAUCC GCGUUA | 75\% | AAAAUAC GCGUUA | 15\% |
| AAAAUGG GCGUUA | 67\% | AAAAUAA AcGUUA | 325\% |
| AAAAUAC UCGUUA | 39\% |  |  |
| AAAAUAC UAGUUA | 16\% | AAAAUAA GGGUUA | 5\% |
| AAAAUAC UUGUUA | 17\% | AAAAUAA GCAUUA | 1\% |
| AAAAUAA GAAUUA | 49\% |  |  |
| AAAAUAA GCAAUA | 45\% | AAAAUAA GCGCUA | 0\% |
| AAAAUAA GCGGGA | 62\% | AAAAUAA GCGUCA | 9\% |
| AAAAUAA GCGAAA | 75\% |  |  |
| AAAAUAA GAAAAA | 1\% | AAAAUAA GCGUU¢ | 2\% |


$5^{\prime} a t p B_{\text {shm }}: g f p: 3^{\prime} r b c L$

| Target sequence |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| AAAAUAA GCGUUA | $100 \%$ |
| AAAAUCC GCGUUA | $29 \%$ |
| AAAAUUU GCGUUA | $22 \%$ |
| AAAAUGG GCGUUA | $22 \%$ |
| AAAAUAA GCGCCA | $4 \%$ |
| AAAAUAA GCGAAA | $11 \%$ |
| AAAAUAA GCGGGA | $3 \%$ |

From (Anthonisen et al., 2001)
Figure 2 : Comparison of the accumulation levels of atpB transcripts bearing mutations in the MDB1 target and those of chimeras either from (Anthonisen et al., 2001) or the present study with similar mutations. Cartoon depicting the corresponding mRNA used are above the target mutations.

## A

 5'atpH atpH 3'atpH
## 5'atpH $_{M}:$ atpH:3'atpH

B

| WT |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{Ct} 2}$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{1} 2$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{2} 1$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{3} 1$ |
| $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{\mathrm{ct}} 3$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{1} 3$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{2} 3$ | $\Delta \mathrm{dH}_{3} 3$ |
| $\Delta a t p H 1$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |



## C

## GGUUGAAAU.



Figure 2: To be redone A. Cartoon of the $5^{\prime}$ atpH $H_{M}:$ atpH:3'atpH construct, transformed into the chloroplast of the $\Delta a t p H$ strain. B. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table on the left shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media under $55 \mu \mathrm{E}$ illumination for 8 days. C. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p H$ strains transformed with the mutated atpH MDB1 target sequence. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. $a t p H$ and $p s b D$ (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on $\triangle \mathrm{dHCt}$ mean levels. The ratio of atpH on $p s b D$ transcripts is depicted under the blot.


Figure 3: To be redone A. Cartoon of the $5^{\prime} \mathbf{a t p H}_{M}:$ atpH:3'atpH construct, transformed into the chloroplast of the $\Delta a t p H$ and mth2-2 strains. B. Growth phenotypes of the mutants, a table on the left shows the placement of the strains. Droplets of liquid culture of the strains were put on TAP and minimum media under $55 \mu \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{m}^{-2} . \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ illumination. C. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p H$ and $m t h 2^{-}$strains transformed with the mutated atpH MTHI1 target sequences. Corresponding mutations are depicted on top of each blot lane. Mutated nucleotides are depicted in black squares. An orange dot denotes the introduction of a steric clash in the mutant target. atpH and $\operatorname{atpB}$ (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software and normalised on $\Delta \mathrm{dHCt} 2$ levels. The ratio of $\operatorname{atpH}$ on $\operatorname{atp} B$ transcripts is depicted under the blot.


Figure 4: A. Cartoon of the chimeric construct $d B_{M}: g f p: 3^{\prime} r b c L$, transformed into the chloroplast of $\triangle a t p B$ cells. B. RNA blot of $\Delta a t p B$ transformants chimeric constructs bearing atpB MDB1 target variants. Filter was hybridised with gfp and atpH dig-dUTP labelled probes. Transcript quantifications were done with ImageLab, and normalised on $\triangle a t p B:: d B_{w r} g f p 3$ levels. Ratio of $g f p / a t p H$ transcripts is depicted under the corresponding lanes, the mutations are on top. Two technical repeats were made and give the same results.


Figure 5: RNA blot of chimeric constructs transformed either in WT.T222+ or $\Delta a t p B$ strains. gfp, atpB and atpH (loading control) mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software, and normalised on either $\Delta \mathrm{dBWTgfp} 3$ for $g f p$ or WT levels for atpB. Reference levels are underlined. The ratios of $g f p$ and $\operatorname{atpB}$ on $a t p H$ transcripts are depicted under the blot.


Figure 6: RNA blot of wild-type target sequence chimeric constructs transformed either in WT.T222+ or $\Delta a t p B$ or mdb1-2 strains. gfp, atpB and atpH (loading control) transcripts levels are probed. mRNA quantifications were performed with the image lab software, and normalised on either $\Delta a t p B d B_{w_{T}} g f p$ Spix3-3'rbcL 1 for gfp or WT levels for $a t p B$. Reference levels are underlined. The ratios of $g f p$ and $a t p B$ on $a t p H$ transcripts are depicted under the blot.


Figure 7: RNA blot of chimeric constructs transformed either in WT.T222+ or $\Delta a t p B$ strains. Filter was hybridised with $\operatorname{atp} B, g f p$ and $a t p H$ dig-dUTP labelled probes. Four technical repeats displayed the same patterns.


Figure 8: Two main hypotheses to explain how the mutated transcripts could be less destabilised in the presence of the whole atpB sequence. Auxiliary factors might limit atpB transcript destabilisation by maintaining MDB1 on its target sequence or other regions of the atpB transcript such its 3 'end could be implicated in the stabilisation process.


Figure 9: Modification inserted in MDB1, $6^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ or $11^{\text {th }}$ and $12^{\text {th }}$ OPR motif, they were chosen following the draft OPR code, for the CC1 and CC2 variant, one of the "unreadable" residue combination was picked at random.

| Application | Name | Sequence ( $5^{\prime}->3^{\prime}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| atpH MDH1 <br> target mutagenesis | cemAFW | GCGAATTCCGGAAAGTCAAACAGGTATTTTCTT |
|  | atpHext-RV | GCGTTAGCCAATACCAAACAGC |
|  | Mut-atpH-1FW | ATTCTTTGGAAGTTATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-1RV | TCGATAACTTCCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
|  | Mut-atpH-2FW | CTTTGGTTGAAATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-2RV | AAAATCGATTTCAACCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
|  | Mut-atpH-3FW | ATTCTTTGGAACAAATCGATTTTATTGATTCATTTAG |
|  | Mut-atpH-3RV | AAAATCGATTTGTTCCAAAGAATATTATATTCTT |
| atpB MDB1 target mutagenesis | atpB5'FW1 | GCGCTCGAGCTTAAGTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW2 | GCGCTCGAGGCTAGCTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW3 | GCGCTCGAGAGATCTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW4 | GCGCTCGAGAGGCCTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW5 | GCGCTCGAGGGGCCCTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW6 | GCGCTCGAGCCTAGGTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | atpB5'FW7 | GCGCTCGAGACGCGTTTCAAAATTCTCCACCAGCT |
|  | dB1FW | ACTAAAAAAGGGGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB1RV | TCACTAACGCCCCTTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB2FW | ACTAAAAAGCGGGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB2RV | TCACTAACGCCCGCTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTAT |
|  | dB3FW | ACTAAGGGGTAAGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB3RV | TCACTAACGCTTACCCCTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTATAT |
|  | dB4FW | ACTAAAGGATAAGCGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB4RV | TCACTAACGCTTATCCTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACTATA |
|  | dB5FW | ACTAAAAAATACTAGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB5RV | TCACTAACTAGTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB6FW | ACTAAAAAATACTTGTTAGTGAATAATACTTTTT |
|  | dB6RV | TCACTAACAAGTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB7FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGAATTAGTGAATAATACTTTTTata |
|  | dB7RV | TCACTAATTCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB8FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCAATAGTGAATAATACTTTTTata |
|  | dB8RV | TCACTATTGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB10FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGAAAAAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB10RV | TCACTTTTTCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB11FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCGGGAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB11RV | TCACTCCCGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dB12FW | ACTAAAAAATAAGCGAAAGTGAATAATACTTTTTATATA |
|  | dB12RV | TCACTTTCGCTTATTTTTTAGTTTTTTCATTTAACT |
|  | dBExt_RV | TTTGAAATAAGAACCTCCTCCTTCC |
|  | atpB_Anton_FW | cgcCTCGAGAAGATGCTTTGCATCTCTAA |
|  | atpB_Anton_WT_RV | gcgCCCGGGCCCATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTAAC |
|  | atpB_Anton_M1_RV | gcgCCCGGGAATTCAATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTGGCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |
|  | atpB_Anton_M2_RV | gcgCCCGGGATCCATATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTCCCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |
|  | atpB_Anton_M3_RV | gcgCCCGGGAGATCTATATAAAAAGTATTATTCACTTTCGCTTA TTTTTTAGTTTTTTCAT |
| MDB1 target verification | atpB_TT_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCAA |
|  | atpB_GG_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCCC |
|  | atpB_CC_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGCGG |


|  | atpB_CT_RV | AAAGTATTATTCACTAACGAG |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | atpB_FW | ACCTCGAGTTCAAAATTCTC |
|  | atpB_WT_FW | AGTTAAATGAAAAAACTAAAAAATAA |
|  | atpB_RV | ATTCTTACGTATAAACCCCG |
|  | atpBCDS_RV | TGCTGAGTTTTTAGCACGAATA |
|  | atpBSeqRV | AAATCCACCGTTTTGTGGAA |
|  | atpBSeqFW | GGAGACCTTCAAGCCGTACA |
| gfp chimeric construct | GFP-CDS-FW | CGCGAATTCGCGCTCGAGGCGCCCCGGGCCATGGGTAAAGG AGAAGAACTTTTCACTGG |
|  | GFP-CDS-RV2 | GCGCTGCAGTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGCCATGTG |
| thm24.2 phenotyping | MDB1 bFW | CTGCACTCAGGTCTTAGTCTGGC |
|  | MDB1 aRV | CGCATCTCTTCTTTCCACGACTC |
| Labelling of digoxigenin PCR probes | atpH-dig-FW | AACCCTATCGTAGCTGCTGC |
|  | atpH-dig-RV | ACTAGACCGTAAATTGTTAA |
|  | atpB-dig-FW | CACGGTGGTGTTTCTGTATT |
|  | atpB-dig-RV | TTACGCTTTGTGCAGAATCA |
|  | gfp-dig-FW | TTGAATTAGATGGTGATGTT |
|  | gfp-dig-RV | CAATTGGAGTATTTTGTTGA |
|  | petB-dig-FW | GCTGTTATTTTAGGTATGGC |
|  | petB-dig-RV | GATGCGTTGTAAATAGTGTT |
|  | psbD FW | GAGCTAAACCTACAACACCA |
|  | psbD RV | CAGTATGGCTCACTCTCTTC |

Table 2: Primers used in this study

| Strain | Mating type | Genotype |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WT.T222 | + | Wild type |
| WT.S24 | - | Wild type |
| $\Delta a t p B$ | + | Deletion of $a t p B$ and its 5'UTR |
| $\Delta a t p H$ | + | Deletion of atpH and its 5'UTR |
| mthi1-2 (II 174) | + | MTHI1 mutant |
| mth2-2 | + | MTH2 insertional mutant from Clip library (Li et al., 2019) |
| mdb1-1 (thm24.2) | - | Deletion of one A in MDB1 causing a frameshift |
| mdb1-2 (L35a) | + | Deletion of MDB1 and 6 other genes(Houille-Vernes et al., 2011) |

Table 3: Strains used in this study.





Anthonisen, I. L., Salvador, M. L. and Klein, U. (2001) Specific sequence elements in the 5' untranslated regions of rbcL and atpB gene mRNas stabilize transcripts in the chloroplast of Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. RNA (New York, N.Y.), 7, 1024-1033.
Yagi, Y., Hayashi, S., Kobayashi, K., Hirayama, T. and Nakamura, T. (2013) Elucidation of the RNA recognition code for pentatricopeptide repeat proteins involved in organelle RNA editing in plants.

PloS one, 8, e57286.

## RÉSUMÉ

Depuis sa capture par un organisme eucaryote hétérotrophe ancestral et son évolution endosymbiotique de cyanobactérie à organelle, le chloroplaste a perdu de nombreux gènes (redondants ou transférés vers le génome nucléaire de la cellule hôte). Cependant, certains sont encore exprimés par le chloroplaste, notamment ceux impliqués dans la photosynthèse. Les sous-unités des complexes photosynthétiques sont ainsi codées en partie dans le noyau de la cellule et pour une autre partie dans le chloroplaste. Pour aboutir à la stœchiométrie nécessaire à l'assemblage et au bon fonctionnement de l'appareil photosynthétique, il est impératif que l'expression génétique des différents compartiments soit coordonnée. Pour ce faire, des facteurs spécifiques codés par le noyau contrôlent l'expression des gènes des organites: les OTAF (Organellar Trans-Acting Factors). Chez l'algue unicellulaire Chlamydomonas reinhardtii, ceux-ci appartiennent à une grande famille de protéines à répétitions hélicoïdales ou protéines $\alpha$-solénoïdes : les protéines OPR (O्ctotricoPeptide Repeat). Ces protéines OPR sont constituées d'une succession de répétitions OPR dégénérées, chacune de ces répétitions de 38 résidus liant spécifiquement un nucléotide donné, grâce à certains acides aminés à des positions précises. La succession de répétitions permet ainsi la reconnaissance modulaire d'un ARNm spécifique. Le facteur OPR peut donc s'y fixer et permettre :

- Sa stabilisation, ou maturation (facteur M), le stroma du chloroplaste est riche en exonucléases, le facteur M bloque leur accès au messager. L'absence d'un facteur M provoque la perte totale de son ARNm cible.
- Sa traduction (facteur T ), par un mécanisme qui reste mal connu.

Lors de ma thèse je me suis intéressée au rôle physiologique de deux facteurs OPR: MTHI1 et MDB1. À l'aide de mutagenèse dirigée dans le chloroplaste de $C$. reinhardtii j'ai pu étudier combien ces facteurs sont essentiels à l'expression de gènes du chloroplaste. J'ai caractérisé un nouveau mutant de MDB1 et confirmé le rôle crucial de cette protéine pour la stabilisation de l'ARNm chloroplastique atpB, codant la sous-unité $\beta$ de I'ATP synthase chloroplastique. J'ai aussi montré que la protéine MTHI1 était non seulement impliquée dans la stabilisation, mais également dans la traduction de l'ARNm d'atpH, et qu'elle jouait également un rôle actif dans la stabilisation et la traduction d'un autre transcrit atpl, ces deux gènes codant les deux hémi-canaux à protons de I'ATP synthase. Plus largement, mes travaux s'inscrivent dans une étude approfondie du facteur MTHI1, qui suggère l'existence de facteurs auxiliaires spécifiques interagissant avec MTHI1 et renforçant son action sur atpH ou atpl. Globalement ces observations nous ont conduit à considérer un modèle peut être universel d'interaction d'OTAF en un complexe multimoléculaire assemblé autour de l'ARNm cible, chaque facteur renforçant la stabilité et l'affinité de l'interaction.

Figure 103: Modèle de l'interaction tripartite entre facteurs OTAF M et T sur leur ARNm cible, pourrait s'appliquer à MTHI1 et MDB1.

L’axe principal de ma thèse concernait l'étude des bases moléculaires des interactions protéine OPR/ARN, et notamment l'étude du « code OPR », qui permet de déduire à partir de la séquence d'une répétition OPR le nucléotide qu'elle reconnaitra préférentiellement. Une version préliminaire de ce code a été établie au laboratoire, par l'observation de la corrélation entre certains résidus à des positions précises du motif OPR et le nucléotide reconnu dans des cibles bien caractérisées moléculairement. Le résidu en position six semble être crucial pour l'interaction avec le nucléotide, il est le plus souvent polaire, permettant probablement la formation de liaisons hydrogènes avec la base, ou de petite taille, tolérant la présence de bases pyrimidiques volumineuses (A ou G). Mon objectif était de tester ce code théorique in vivo.

| Position | Résidu |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | X | x | X | x | R, K | X | x | x | x | X | x |
| 4 | x | P | x | x | X-P | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 5 | X | Q | $\begin{array}{\|c} \mathrm{X} \\ -\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{~K} \end{array}$ | R, K | X | R | X-R | R, Q | X | R | R |
| 6 | E | G | D | D | D | Q | Q | A | H | S | N |
| Nucléotide reconnu | U | A | G | U | U | U | ? | A | $?$ | A | ? |

Table 8: « Code OPR» préliminaire : le nucléotide reconnu est indiqué en bas; le résidu en position 6 de la répétition OPR, capital pour la spécificité de reconnaissance, en grands caractères. X dénote un acide aminé quelconque, - des exclusions.

Les facteurs de stabilisation se fixent de façon stable sur leur ARN cible et génèrent une empreinte $A R N$, un petit ARN protégé par son interaction avec le facteur $M$ de la dégradation par des exonucléases). Les facteurs $M$ ne génèrent qu'une seule empreinte. De plus, leur délétion n'entraine des effets que sur un ARNm chloroplastique unique. Ces facteurs étant ainsi de toute évidence spécifiques et se liant solidement avec leur ARNm cible ont été choisis pour tester le code in vivo. La stratégie consistait à réaliser des mutations dans la séquence cible d'un ARNm pour perturber la fixation de son facteur M OPR et donc déstabiliser l'ARNm. Puis, de tenter de restaurer l'accumulation du messager muté en transformant dans les cellules une version de la protéine OPR mutée de manière complémentaire (en suivant le «code OPR» préliminaire (Table 8), modifiant spécifiquement les résidus 5 et 6 des répétitions OPR correspondant à la zone mutée dans la séquence ARN cible. Ainsi le code OPR préliminaire pourrait être confirmé ou infirmé pour différentes combinaisons.

Ces travaux, réalisés sur les transcrits atpB et atpH, et leur facteur de stabilisation spécifique, MDB1 et MTHI1, ont révélé une importante résilience de l'interaction des facteurs M et de leur transcrits chloroplastiques attitrés. Malgré les mutations dans les séquences cibles sur lesquelles se fixent ces facteurs $M$, peu d'effets sur la stabilisation du messager étaient observés (Figure 104 et Figure 105). Ce qui se traduit par la capacité de ces facteurs $M$ à se lier à leur ARNm cible malgré des changement importants dans leur cible. Ces résultats sont d’autant plus surprenants que les facteurs M sont très spécifiques de leur cible.


Figure 104: Gel d'ARN. Des mutations (surlignées en noir) réalisées dans la cible de MDB1 sur le $5^{\prime}$ d'atp $^{\prime}$ ne conduisent qu'à une faible diminution de l'accumulation et donc de la stabilité du transcrit atpB. MDB1 parvient à s'y lier dans tous les cas, sauf pour la mutation dB 12 , très étendue. pet $B$ sert de contrôle de charge.


Figure 105: Gel d'ARN présentant l'accumulation du transcrit d'atpH. Les mutations (surlignées en noir) introduite dans la cible de MTHI1 sur le 5' d'atpH, n'empêchent pas la fixation de la protéine. psbD sert de contrôle de charge.

Seules des mutations très étendues parviennent à empêcher l'interaction facteur M/ARNm. Pour expliquer cette contradiction apparente et à la lumière de travaux antérieurs (Anthonisen et al., 2001), nous avons émis l'hypothèse qu'in vivo d'autres facteurs auxiliaires contribuent à stabiliser le facteur $M$ sur sa cible chloroplastique, renforçant encore l'hypothèse de complexes multimoléculaires suggérée plus haut. Pour tester cette hypothèse, j'ai réalisé des chimères ne comprenant qu'une petite portion de l'extrémité 5 ' non traduite du gène $a t p B$ (réduite à la séquence cible de MDB1), suivie d'une séquence exogène (codant pour une GFP), puis de l'extrémité 3 ' non traduite (NT) du gène chloroplastique rbcL (codant la grande sous-unité de la RuBisCO). Si un facteur secondaire interagit sur une autre région de I'ARNm $\operatorname{atpB}$ il ne devrait pas interagir avec cette séquence chimérique exogène.

En observant les niveaux d'accumulation de notre transcrit chimérique en présence ou absence du messager $a t p B$ endogène, nous avons constaté que la chimère souffrait considérablement de la compétition. Le transcrit atp $B$ endogène devait manifestement accaparer la majeure partie des facteurs MDB1. Or ceci n'avait pas été observé précédemment pour d'autres chimères placées sous le contrôle du $5^{\prime}$ NT atpB, où la répartition de MDB1 entre ARNm atpB et ARNm chimérique paraissait équivalente. En outre, ayant réalisé également des chimères similaires, avec un 5' NT d'atpB tronqué, mais porteuses du $3^{\prime}$ NT d'atpB, nous n'avons pas observé d'amélioration de l'accumulation du transcrit en compétition, suggérant que le $3^{\prime}$ NT n'est pas lié à cette meilleure propension à la stabilité. Au regard de ces résultats, nous pensons que des facteur(s) secondaire(s) interagissent avec la portion 3' du 5' NT d'atpB, absente dans les chimères au 5' NT court, et stabilisent MDB1 sur le transcrit. Ce complexe permettrait ainsi de former un système spécifique, reposant sur deux séquences d'atpB, mais résilient, des mutations modérées dans l'une des cibles pouvant être compensées en partie par la présence de l'autre facteur, pour contrôler l'expression de MDB1.


Construction chimérique
Par la suite, j'ai intégré des séquences cibles de MDB1 mutées dans nos chimères au 5'NT tronqué. Comme attendu, l'interaction entre MDB1 et l'ARN devient plus sensible aux mutations dans la séquence cible, que lorsque ces mêmes mutations sont introduites dans I'ARNm endogène (Figure 106). L'effet est d'autant plus marqué qu'ici nos chimères n'ont pas de compétiteurs, tous les facteurs MDB1 peuvent en théorie se consacrer à leur stabilisation, mais pour autant le niveau d'accumulation des transcrits chimériques est très faible. Cette expérience semble refléter l'affinité de MDB1 pour sa séquence cible. Elle nous a permis d'établir que la seconde portion de la séquence cible, côté $3^{\prime}$, est reconnue plus spécifiquement par MDB1 que la portion en 5'.


Figure 106: Gel d'ARN présentant l'accumulation du transcrit chimérique gfp. Les mutations (surlignées en noir) de la cible MDB1 entrainent cette fois une baisse plus importante du niveau de transcrit.

Grâce à ces résultats j'ai pu entrer dans la phase de validation du code. Nous avons dessiné des plasmides contenant la séquence de la protéine nucléaire MDB1 avec des mutations dans les répétitions OPR 6 et 7 ou 11 et 12 , correspondant à la position des mutations dans la cible ARN, modifiant les résidus 5 et 6 en suivant le code préliminaire. J'ai transformé ces plasmides dans une souche déficiente en MDB1. J'ai pu récupérer des transformants exprimant bien le facteur MDB1 muté, puis les ai croisés avec les souches aux mutations dans les cibles chloroplastiques. Ceci nous a permis d'obtenir des descendants présentant le même niveau d'expression de la protéine MDB1 mutée. Cette confrontation entre facteur OPR et cible devrait nous permettre de valider ou d'infirmer le code de reconnaissance préliminaire. Ces travaux sur le code, non encore complètement achevés font partie d'un article en préparation.

## Travaux complémentaires :

En plus de ces travaux sur les protéines OPR, j'ai également participé à des études de cRT-PCR sur atpB pour mieux comprendre sa dynamique de maturation et de dégradation, en lien avec MDB1 et son 3'UTR. Ces travaux aussi s'inscrivent dans un article.

J'ai aussi eu l'occasion de contribuer à la caractérisation de mutants de l'ATPsynthase et identifié un mutant de la sous-unité ATPG de l'ATP-synthase pour laquelle on ne possédait pas de mutants chez Chlamydomonas, et dont la caractérisation fera l'objet d'une publication.

## ABSTRACT

During the post-endosymbiotic evolution of the chloroplast, its genome shrunk dramatically. Nowadays the various sub-units of the photosynthetic protein complexes are encoded partly in the nucleus, partly in the plastid genome. To achieve their correct assembly, the expression of the two genomes needs to be coordinated. Organellar Trans-Acting Factors (OTAF), encoded in the nucleus, are proteins which can bind specifically an organellar mRNA and control its expression. Among the several classes of OTAF factors the two that I studied were: the maturation and stabilisation $(\mathrm{M})$ factors that stabilise and protect their cognate mRNA from exonucleases. And the translation ( $T$ ) factors which are needed to initiate translation of a specific organellar mRNA. Among those OTAFs, the octotricopeptide repeat protein (OPR) family is abundant in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. The OPR repeat is a degenerate motif of 38 amino-acids, folding into a tandem of antiparallel $\alpha$-helices which can bind RNA. An individual OPR repeat is predicted to interact with one given nucleotide thanks to specificity-conferring residues at defined positions within the repeat. OPR proteins contain tracks of successive OPR motifs, each of them recognising one nucleotide, thus they can bind a specific RNA "target" sequence.

We aimed to study this specificity, called the "OPR code" starting with a draft code based on known OPR protein/mRNA pairs. A reliable code would enable the study of the many OPR factors with unknown targets. It could also be used to design and build proteins able to interact with specific RNAs. To confirm the draft "OPR code", I mutated in vivo the chloroplast targets of some OPR factors to disrupt the OPR/RNA interaction, and then tried to restore it by mutating the specificity-conferring residues in the corresponding repeats. Surprisingly, OPR/RNA interactions seem very resilient, challenging our view of how the specificity is established in vivo. Complementary functional studies that I performed on the OPR factors MDB1 and MTHI1 revealed how the control of chloroplast gene expression might rely on a network of OTAFs, with the M factor being the keystone of the expression system. Complexes of factors with moderate affinity for close RNA target sequences would cooperate to strengthen the interaction and anchor themselves on the mRNA. By cooperating, the overall affinity of the complex for the mRNA would be stronger, and the reliance on two or more RNA target sequences could allow compensating partly moderate mutations affecting one of them. Therefore, those putative systems would be both more specific and more resilient.


[^0]:    
    
    ED---GGA----GSADEQ---GEEDDKGKDAEADSAAVDLKALREKKFAAIPP---------PAVLQKSRAAPGPAAGRDGWARTRREGAVL---------
    AS---GTAGG--DAHQAP---GEEEVPGAAGGSGEGAVDLAALRRKFFLGGAAAAQQPAPLPQQLQRKR------TRQQWKRPGQQGAGTATASSSALT

    ## GGGSGAGGPRVAGNKAPQPKRRP <br> GTGGRGQ

    -GGAGEGGLRQMGRGSSRGPGNMQQQTGQRGRGQ*
    ------------------------RGGYSGGVRPQQRQ-QSRRRYLEREEVER--EDPVVQ-
    
    
    
    $\begin{array}{lllll}\circ & 6 & \bullet & 0 & m \\ 0 & \wedge & 6 & 6\end{array}$
    U U U U J U J T
    $\sim$

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[^3]:    Atplst
    An untranslatable version of the atpl gene was constructed by a two-step megaprime PCR procedure, using the external primers atpl_FW and atpl_RV2 and the mutagenic primers atplst_FW and atplst_RV on the template plasmid p70sh. The final

[^4]:    Results
    Establishment of a draft OPR code
    To be expended upon (table1)
    Mutated atpB transcripts still accumulated except in one mutant strain

