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Analysis of the Arabidopsis Polyadenylation Factors PAP1, CstF64 and CstF77 and their characteristic inter-relationship

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ABSTRACT OF THESIS

"Analysis of the *Arabidopsis* Polyadenylation Factors PAP1, CstF64 and CstF77 and their characteristic inter-relationship"

3'-end modification by polyadenylation is a ubiquitous feature of almost all eukaryotic mRNA species and is catalyzed by a consortium of enzymes, the polyadenylation factors. Poly(A) polymerase (PAP), the enzyme catalyzing the addition of adenosine residues during the polyadenylation stage, exists in four isoforms within *Arabidopsis*. *In silico* and yeast two-hybrid studies showed that PAP1 has unique expression and interaction pattern in *Arabidopsis*, suggesting non-canonical functions of PAP1. Its exclusive interaction with PAP4 has not been reported in other living systems until now and hints at a difference in polyadenylation in plants with respect to mammals and yeast. Cleavage Stimulation Factor (CstF), a heterotrimeric complex of the polyadenylation factors CstF50, CstF64 and CstF77, plays a role largely in cleavage of pre-mRNA. This study highlights some aspects of the *Arabidopsis* homologs of CstF64 and CstF77, central to various cellular processes other than nuclear polyadenylation. *In silico* studies showed an elevated expression of CstF64 in the pollen while that of CstF77 remained fairly low. Yeast two-hybrid assays indicated a novel kind of interaction of CstF64 with Fip1(V). It is also speculated from sub-cellular localization techniques by agroinfiltration in tobacco leaves that CstF64 localizes in the cytoplasm and CstF77 in the nucleus, as found for the orthologs of CstF77 in other systems.

Keywords: mRNA 3'-end processing, Poly(A) polymerase (PAP), Cleavage Stimulation Factor (CstF), Yeast two-hybrid, Agroinfiltration.

Amrita Bandyopadhyay

April 15, 2009

"Analysis of the *Arabidopsis* Polyadenylation Factors PAP1, CstF64 and CstF77 and their characteristic inter-relationship"

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THESIS

Amrita Bandyopadhyay

The Graduate School

University of Kentucky

2009

"Analysis of the *Arabidopsis* Polyadenylation Factors PAP1, CstF64 and CstF77 and their characteristic inter-relationship"

THESIS

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in the College of Agriculture at the University of Kentucky

By

Amrita Bandyopadhyay

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. Arthur G Hunt, Professor of Plant and Soil Sciences

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1.1 Introduction

Polyadenylation is the covalent linkage of a polyadenine tract to a messenger RNA (mRNA) molecule. It is part of the route to producing mature messenger RNA for translation, in the larger process of protein synthesis to produce proteins (Fig.1.1). It takes place in just about all eukaryotic organisms at the end of transcription, as a part of post-transcriptional modification, which is comprised of 5'-capping, RNA splicing and 3'-end polyadenylation. While in the nucleus, the product of transcription from RNA polymerase II, known as pre-mRNA, is associated with a variety of proteins in complexes known as heterogeneous ribonucleoprotein particles (hnRNPs) (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999). It is at this point that post-transcriptional modifications take place to give rise to mRNAs from pre-mRNAs. The only known exceptions to polyadenylation are mRNAs coding for replication-dependent histone proteins in metazoans, which undergo endonucleolytic cleavage, but unlike normal eukaryotic organisms have different set of factors for cleavage and subsequent absence of polyadenylate tail (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999; Davila Lopez and Samuelsson, 2008).

1.2 Functions of mRNA polyadenylation

Every biological process has some beneficial aspect, however small it might be it can have a huge impact on a much broader context. Likewise, polyadenylation plays a huge role at various phases of the mRNA function and metabolism. The primary function being enhancement of translation, since mRNA transcripts are used for the purpose of translation into proteins. It has been shown that the major targets of $poly(A)$ tails in mRNA translation in eukaryotes are the binding of 40S ribosomal subunit and subsequent joining with the 60S subunit in synergistic association with the 5'-cap (Sachs et al., 1997). Although not indispensable, it has been shown to affect translational efficiency through mutational studies in temperature sensitive strains in yeast cells (Proweller and Butler, 1994).

Besides translation, 3'-end processing also plays vital roles in transcription from the early steps of initiation to termination. On one end, transcription initiation is said to be closely monitored by the CPSF and CstF, initially through TFIID and then via CTD of pol II. On the other end, transcription termination is shown to be dependent on cleavage and polyadenylation. Termination of transcription at its final stage is important to minimize unnecessary polymerase activity and also avoid transcriptional interference at downstream promoters for closely spaced genes and chromosomal elements such as centromeres and origins of replication (Zhao et al., 1999). It has been shown that not only does the strength of the poly(A) site affect termination but also the presence and the effectiveness of downstream "pause sites" signal termination of pol II (Aranda et al., 1998; Nag et al., 2007; Glover-Cutter et al., 2008). Transcriptional run-on analysis on mutant yeast strains revealed that the CFIA and Yhh1p (mammalian CPSF 160) were indispensable for termination (Proudfoot, 2004).

 Another key component of regulation of gene expression in all eukaryotic organisms that is also influenced by polyadenyation is mRNA stability. At various points, mRNA stability is dependent on the amount of a certain mRNA transcript in the cytoplasm available for translation or on the translational capacity of the mRNA within the nucleus itself. In the former case it maintains the basal level of gene expression, by controlling turnover of mRNA transcripts from signals acquired from translational products. In the later case it detects and degrades aberrant mRNA transcripts either in the nucleus or the cytoplasm, thus controlling quality control of mRNA biogenesis (Tucker and Parker, 2000; Doma and Parker, 2007). Generally, the mRNA degradation machinery follows two pathways: in one the targeted mRNA undergoes shortening of $poly(A)$ tail (deadenylation) followed by decapping, both catalyzed by a set of proteins whereby leaving the transcript exposed for 5' to 3' exonuclease activity. In the second case, following deadenylation the target mRNA undergoes 3' to 5' cytoplasmic exonuclease activity (Parker and Song, 2004). While these two are the default pathways of mRNA degradations, there are evidences of other ways of mRNA degradation broadly classified as deadenylation-independent decay (Beelman and Parker, 1995). Although there might be multiple pathways of mRNA turnover, there seems to be a competition between the rate of normal reaction in the life of an mRNA and quality control event acting over the mRNA, marking it for degradation. A key point in this kind of kinetic competition is that any defect causing delay in normal forward reaction will trigger quality control (Doma and Parker, 2007). Within this, the decay rate of individual transcripts are again influenced by the susceptibility of the multiple turnover pathways that act on it (Beelman and Parker, 1995).

The mRNA poly(A) tail also serves to facilitate nucleocytoplasmic transport of the mRNA transcripts, although there have been mixed reports regarding this aspect. It was shown by Huang *et al* that mRNAs lacking the polyadenine tract were inefficiently exported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm. In fact, addition of the 90nt long poly (A) tail

immediately upstream to the ribozyme cleavage site was not sufficient to restore the export function in absence of the actual 3'-end processing (Huang and Carmichael, 1996). This indicated that the downstream events delineated by the 3'-end posttranscriptional events were equally important for mRNA export. Conversely, there have been reports in some cases of nuclear transport of mRNA lacking poly(A) tails in yeast by Duval et al, where the cleavage was also performed by hammerhead ribozyme, thus lacking proper cleavage/polyadenylation processes (Duvel et al., 2002). In mutational studies it has been particularly shown that certain pre-mRNA processing factors in yeast like the CFIA proteins, PAPI and Pab1p when mutated affect cleavage, termination and export, thus resulting in failure of nucleocytoplasmic transport and accumulation of mRNA transcripts in the nucleus (Brodsky and Silver, 2000; Hammell et al., 2002). Another study showed that faulty mRNA 3'-end processing leads to defective transcription termination which is responsible for disengaging mRNA export factors (Lei and Silver, 2002), indicating that 3'-end processing and nucleocytoplasmic export are mechanistically linked processes.

From earlier studies and later on from data supporting exon definition, polyadenylation machinery could be synergistically associated to splicing mechanism mainly found in the eukaryotic system. Depending on the situation, splicing factors can not only enhance or inhibit cleavage/polyadenylation and vice versa, but can also govern the decision of how or when to polyadenylate an mRNA precursor (Cooke et al., 1999; Zhao et al., 1999; Millevoi, 2006; Danckwardt, 2007). This kind of cross-talk between splicing and polyadenylation is further exemplified in the genes where alternative polyadenylation leads to the expression of more than one gene product (Lutz, 2008). Two such instances are the expression of the IgM heavy chain during B lymphocyte differentiation and the differential expression of the Calcitonin gene (Proudfoot et al., 2002). In case of the former, membrane-bound IgM is produced from the usage of a much stronger downstream poly(A) site where the weaker upstream one located in the intron is spliced off. After differentiation though, secretory-specific IgM is produced using the upstream $poly(A)$ site, resulting in two different kinds of IgM heavy chain in the development and maturation of B lymphocyte cells (Minvielle-Sebastia and Keller, 1999). In the later case of Calcitonin gene, a downstream enhancer element between exon 4 and 5, activates an weak internal poly(A)site in thyroid tissues, giving rise to calcitonin. But in neuronal cells this enhancer fails to act and the internal poly(A) site is spliced out resulting in CGRP using the poly(A) site downstream (Colgan and Manley, 1997; Proudfoot et al., 2002).

Polyadenylation has also been implicated to regulate translational levels of mRNA in the cytoplasm of cells during early development of some vertebrates and invertebrates. Most of the mRNAs in oocytes of vertebrates like *Xenopus* and mouse are translationally dormant with shorter $poly(A)$ tails. During maturation, these are activated as per use by increasing the length of the polyadenine tails to almost 150nt while existing mRNAs are de-activated or repressed by deadenylation. In case of invertebrates like *Drosophila* and *C. elegans*, regulation of the length of poly(A) tail in mRNAs is essential for correct embryonic patterning and sex determination. Although not much have been established with respect to cytoplasmic polyadenylation in adult tissues, reports show the possibility of it in the central nervous system due to the presence of CPEB, a factor that regulates cytoplasmic polyadenylation (Richter, 1999, 2007). Apart from CPEB, factors

that have been shown to participate in elongation of $poly(A)$ tail during translational activation of oocytes and embryos are CPSF and PAP. In fact, results from studies on translational activation of *X. laevis* oocytes demonstrate that untimely addition of PAP can cause early activation in dormant mRNAs without the putative CPSF interaction domain, suggesting the role of CPSF and / or CBEB merely as trasporters of PAP to the targeted mRNA (Dickson et al., 2001).

1.3 3'- end mRNA processing signal sequences

Certain sequences, flanking the site of the endonucleolytic attack within the mRNA precursors, regulate the 3'-end processing efficiency under certain cellular condition. Although much has been established about mammalian polyadenyalation signals, research in recent years have led to much better understanding of the same in yeast and plants. Highlights of each group are discussed briefly.

Mammalian polyadenylation signals are basically composed of 3 major elements: the AAUAAA motif, the downstream elements (DSE) and the poly(A) site (Fig. 1.2A). The hexanucleotide AAUAAA sequence is highly conserved among higher eukaryotes and found 10 to 30 nucleotides upstream of the cleavage site (Zhao et al., 1999). It is indispensable for both cleavage and polyadenylation. The only other frequent variant to this sequence is AUUAAA and all other mutations essentially cripple the whole process. The second sequence, which is often a U-rich / GU-rich element, is located around 30 nucleotides downstream of the cleavage site, although it can be functional even further downstream (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999). Mutational studies prove it to be more diffuse and poorly conserved if not possibly redundant. However, it was observed that the distance between the two sequence elements is important not only in defining the

cleavage site but also the strength of the poly(A) signal (Colgan and Manley, 1997). The third important element in the core polyadenylation signal sequence is the $poly(A)$ site itself. It is composed of a dinucleotide, adenine (A) followed preferably by a cytosine (C). Apart from these there have been reports of auxiliary sequence elements that can modify the efficiency of 3' end processing in a positive or negative manner (Zhao et al., 1999). Many viral and some cellular genes have such sequences as enhancers (USE) upstream of the AAUAAA motif. Unlike the USE, it is still not clear how the downstream auxiliary elements work due to the diverse nature of the downstream element.

Likewise mature mRNAs are also generated in yeast by cleavage and polyadenylation of pre-mRNA precursors, but unlike mammals the signal sequences are far too complex to define (Guo and Sherman, 1996). It also involves 3 core elements in the process but they are quite different from their mammalian counterparts (Fig. 1.2B). The first one is the efficiency element (EE), working to increase the efficiency of the 3' end formation as the name suggests. It is positioned at a variable distance upstream from the positioning element, although optimally it is located at a distance of 10 to 20 nts (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999). Mainly composed of alternating UA-dinucleotides or Urich stretches, it has been observed from various studies that a U-residue is critical at the first and the fifth position of the sequence. The following element is the positioning element (PE), which directs the positioning of the cleavage factors 20 nts. downstream of this sequence at the selected $poly(A)$ site. It consists of mainly 2 variants of A-rich sequences: AAUAAA and AAAAAA, although other related sequences have also shown equal function, excepting when a G-residue was at the start (Guo and Sherman, 1996).

Both the efficiency elements and the positioning elements are not only degenerate but also redundant. Typically in yeast they are followed downstream by a third kind of sequence known as the poly(A) site which can be more than one, that is in a cluster. Coincident with the mammals, cleavage preferably occurs 3' to an adenosine residue, thus most of them have a $T/C(A)$ _n sequence as poly(A) site (Wahle and Keller, 1996). The major difference between the mammalian and the yeast signaling system is the absence of any downstream element from the yeast $poly(A)$ site. This is maybe because of closely placed genes in yeast and the convergent nature of transcription, for which the polyadenylation signals can sometimes function in both orientation (Zhao et al., 1999).

Plants, introduced at a later stage in the study of 3' end processing, have shown a lot of commonality with respect to both higher eukaryotes and yeast, yet have their own distinction from both. The *cis*-acting elements, indispensable in the process of signaling, can be grouped in three classes: a far-upstream element (FUE), one or more nearupstream element (NUE) and the respective poly (A) site (CS) (Li and Hunt, 1997) (Fig. 1.2C). A FUE lies 13 to almost 150 nts. upstream of a NUE and is generally a UG-rich sequence, much like that of the DSE of the mammals. It is required for the efficient usage of the downstream poly(A) sites through interaction with proteins of the processing factors (Rothnie, 1996). FUEs of different plant poly(A) signals are interchangeable and a single FUE can have control over a number of downstream elements (Hunt, 1994; Rothnie, 1996). Mutational studies have indicated a high degree of functional redundancy; small deletions have hardly any effect on polyadenylation. The FUE is followed by one or more NUE, which is a 6 to 10 nucleotides sequence lying 10 to 40 nucleotides upstream to the associated $poly(A)$ cleavage site (Li and Hunt, 1997). It generally consists of AAUAAA or related sequences. Directed mutagenic studies revealed that although the NUE had apparent functional analogy to the mammalian AAUAAA-motif, yet they had much tolerance to point mutations, indicating the flexibility with regards to sequence as long as the location of the sequence was maintained with respect to other *cis*-acting elements. The assembly of the specific processing complex at the $poly(A)$ site was driven by the unique secondary structure resulting from the mutual interactions of the *cis*-elements, last but not the least of which is the polyadenylation site (CS) itself (Rothnie HM, 1994). It is generally situated in a Urich region of the $3'$ -UTR and has a consensus sequence of $Y(C, A)$ dinucleotide at the cleavage site. Mutations within this sequence changes the position of the $poly(A)$ site and also the efficiency in some cases suggesting the independence of the sequence as *cis*element (Li and Hunt, 1997). Also in plant genes there can be multiple cleavage sites, where the usage of a particular site is defined by the distance between the NUE and the CS, hence a particular CS can be used with more than one NUE when they are in a specified position (Hunt, 1994). In recent years some other features have also been shown to play a role in polyadenylation like, sequence composition and secondary structure of the pre-mRNA of yeast and plant genes (Rothnie, 1996). In general polyadenylation in mammals, yeast and plants, to this day optimally consists of an A-rich sequence, a U-rich element and a T/C(A) cleavage site (Zhao et al., 1999) although dissection of each group leads to unique differences among them.

1.4 Factors involved in the 3'- end processing

It is evident from the functional aspect that polyadenylation is a ubiquitous process in all eukaryotes and even in some prokaryotes however different their overall

function might be. Generally, 3' end processing takes place in a stepwise but tightly coupled manner where cleavage at the $poly(A)$ site is followed by subsequent addition and elongation of the polyadenine tract in a non-templated fashion (Fig. 1.1). The whole process is facilitated by a plethora of protein factors playing the basic two roles; yet their nuances in characteristics provide for the distinction in the process from organism to organism. This section individualy deals with the process of polyadenylation in a gross manner in the case of prokaryotes like *E.coli* and then eukaryotes like mammals, yeast and finally plants. Thus, this serves to bring forward to the reader the similarities and dissimilarities in the process of polyadenylation in different living organisms.

1.4.1 Polyadenyaltion in prokaryotes (bacteria): The presence of polyadenine tracts in case of some bacterial genes has definitely brought to light the importance of polyadenylation. On further investigation it was found to have functional and structural differences. Unlike eukaryotic mRNA transcripts, which tend to have long polyadenyalate tracts, bacterial mRNA transcripts have much shorter poly(A) tracts ranging from 14 to 60 adenine residues. Obviously, differences among the eukaryotes and the prokaryotes are the basis of such disparity in the structure and process of polyadenyaltion. For instance, translation of mRNA occurs co-transcriptionally in bacteria and the mRNAs are utilized very rapidly and efficiently, without any further modifications unlike eukaryotes. Since transcription occurs in a polycistronic fashion it obviates the need of long half-lives of the mRNAs, which is a must due to the spatial and temporal constraints of eukaryotic mRNAs (Sarkar, 1997). The lack of compartmentalization in prokaryotes also makes nucleocytoplasmic export of the transcribed mRNA unnecessary.

Analysis of mutant strains of *E.coli* lacking 3' exonucleases, revealed six different classes of mRNA polyadenylation in bacteria (Fig. 1.3). The monocistronic *lpp* transcripts correspond to class I and class II types (Cao and Sarkar, 1992; Sarkar, 1997). In the former case the $poly(A)$ tract was attached to the end of the primary transcript defined by the rho-independent transcription terminator. While in the later one, the mRNA was truncated at the stem-loop structure and the $poly(A)$ tract attached (Cao and Sarkar, 1992; Sarkar, 1997). In the *crp* locus encoding cyclic AMP receptor proteins, the polyadenylation site was found to be downstream of the translation termination site at the extreme end of the putative rho-dependent transcription terminator, giving rise to class III poly(A) mRNA (Sarkar, 1997). The much known *lacZYA* operon contains an intercistronic stem-loop structure resulting in termination in the *lacZY* region with a $poly(A)$ tail just distal to the intercistronic stem-loop structure. This is referred to as the class IV poly(A) mRNA (Sarkar, 1997). The *rpsO* mRNA encoding ribosomal protein S15 the polyadenine tail was attached to a truncated coding region distinctive of class V poly(A) mRNA (Sarkar, 1997). In the last group of class VI poly(A) mRNA, the *rho* gene encoding the transcription terminator is controlled by 2 attenuation sites in the untranslated leader region. Polyadenylation can occur at either of the sites giving rise to a transcript with poly(A) tail attached even to the *rho* promoter. Thus, from all these different classes of mRNA polyadenylation in *E.coli* it can be deduced that process is relatively indiscriminate and occurs at any unprotected 3'-end of a mRNA molecule, irrespective of sequence and secondary structure (Sarkar, 1997).

In all the above cases, however different as it might be, the protein factor that catalyzes the template independent sequential addition of adenylate residues to the 3'

hydroxyl termini of mRNA transcripts is a poly(A) polymerase or a member of the poly(A) polymerase family. Continued polyadenylation to some extent even in deletion mutant strains proved that more than one PAP existed. The major poly(A) polymerase (PAP I) of *E.coli* was found to be encoded by a region of *pcnB* locus and the product a 52 kDA protein with no significant homology with eukaryotic PAP. Any level of overexpression was deleterious to cells and deletion or disruption mutants of *pcnB* gene reduced growth rates by less than 50%. Besides polyadenylation, it had the unique property of controlling ColE1 plasmid copy number (Xu and Cohen, 1995; Sarkar, 1997). Another kind of poly(A) polymerase (PAP II) was also identified to be a relatively hydrophobic protein weighing approximately 36-kDA. It is encoded by *f310*, having sets of two paired cysteine and histidine residues resembling the RNA binding motif. The product has no significant sequence homology whatsoever to either *E.coli* PAP I or to any viral or eukaryotic poly(A) polymerase (Cao et al., 1996; Sarkar, 1997). This indicated that bacterial polyA) polymerases have evolved independently with convergent evolution with respect to function. The significant functional overlap between these two polymerases was likely in part to defend the cell against loss of a vital function. While eukaryotic PAPs are closely related proteins arising from a single gene undergoing alternative splicing or post-transcriptional modification, prokaryotic PAPs appears to originate from a single gene (Sarkar, 1997). Apart from *E.coli* there are a number of bacterial genes whose products have sequence homology to *E.coli* PAP I.

Some eukaryotic organelles like mitochondria and chloroplasts are believed to have originated from endosymbiotic prokarytes. Thus, polyadenylation of mRNA in these organelles were also a subject of interest in this field. Mitochondrial pre-mRNA

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transcripts undergo cleavage at the polyadenylation site followed by addition of the poly(A) tail. The sequence of events resembles the polyadenylation of the *E.coli lacZY* gene and hence mitochondrial mRNAs also look like class IV type bacterial mRNAs. Unlike eukaryotes, the major function of polyadenylation in mitochondrial genes is to complete the translation termination codon, in the absence of specific recognition sequence, indiscriminately at all mRNA ends (Sarkar, 1997; Nagaike et al., 2008). The average lengths of polyadenylate tracts in mitochondrial transcripts range from 35 to 55 nucleotides, very much like the prokaryotes. On the other hand in plant chloroplasts the poly(A) tract is several hundred nucleotides in length ranging somewhere between prokayotes and eukaryotes (Sarkar, 1997). In fact, unlike most $poly(A)$ tract sequence composition, chloroplastidial $poly(A)$ tails can often contain adenylate clusters interspersed with guanylate and even sometimes cytidylate and uridylate residues much like those in the bacteriophage T7 mRNA (Sarkar, 1997). Most of the mRNA in chloroplast have $poly(A)$ tail attached to truncated coding regions, corresponding to class V of bacterial poly(A) mRNA. It has been observed that in mitochondria and chloroplasts mRNAs which are polyadenyalated are degraded at a much faster rate than those which are not (Slomovic et al., 2006). This indicated an mRNA turnover mechanism by polyadenylate tails in chloroplasts, analogous to bacterial cells (Li and Hunt, 1997; Sarkar, 1997; Dreyfus and Régnier, 2002).

The functions of mRNA polyadenyalation in prokaryotes can be much different from that in eukaryotes. The poly(A) polymerase of *E.coli* is shown to control plasmid copy numbers as stated before (Sarkar, 1997). Polyadenylation of RNA I targets it for degradation by PNPase, thus inactivating the inhibitor of plasmid replication(Xu and

Cohen, 1995; Sarkar, 1997). There has been some ambiguity with regards to RNA stabilization. It has been observed that when the 3' terminus has a stem loop structure, polyadenylation acts synergistically with 3' exonucleases to promote degradation. On the other hand in a different set of conditions, when the 3' terminus of the RNA is not stabilized with secondary structures, polyadenylation competes with the same exonucleases as before to promote mRNA stability (Sarkar, 1997). Also the binding of the S1 protein to poly(A) tails during the mRNA recruitment to the 30S ribosome in *E.coli*, suggests a possible role of polyadenylation in the stimulation of translation initiation by S1 protein (Sarkar, 1997).

1.4.2 Polyadenylation in eukaryotes (mammals): Polyadenylation in mammals has been studied intensively for years. Hence, nowadays, studies on polyadenylation in other organisms are based on the basic knowledge of polyadenylation in mammals. In mammals there are many protein factors that can cause either the endonucleolytic cleavage or polyadenylation, but sometimes are required for both (Fig. 1.4). The cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor (CPSF), cleavage-stimulation factor (CstF), cleavage factor I_m and II_m (CFI_m and CFII_m), poly(A) polymerase (PAP) are involved in cleavage, while $poly(A)$ -binding protein II (PabII) along with PAP, CPSF are needed for the polyadenylation step. From earlier studies it was shown that the AAUAAA sequence was crucial in both the stages of polyadenylation. In the initial stages of cleavage this *cis*element was recognized by a plethora of *trans*-acting factors mainly by CPSF. The purified CPSF consists of four subunits weighing approximately about 160 KDa, 100 KDa, 73 KDa and 30 KDa out of which the 160 subunit is of primary activity. It was not only responsible for the sequence recognition but also cooperative interaction with other

cleavage and polyadenylation subunits to stabilize the whole assembly (Manley, 1995; Colgan and Manley, 1997; Zhao et al., 1999). The CPSF 100 and 73 subunits have shown close relatedness to each other, while the smallest subunit CPSF 30, although dispensible for the process, have shown quite interesting characteristics as the potential endonuclease for cleavage. But the best characterized one among these is CPSF 160. While CSPF recognizes and binds to AAUAAA sequence, another set of proteins, the CstF independently recognizes the downstream GU-rich sequences and binds to it through CstF 64. In fact the interaction of CPSF 160 with the upstream signal sequence is weak and tolerant to mutations (Colgan and Manley, 1997). The presence of other CPSF and the CstF subunits make it specific and thus strong. The CstF protein consists of CstF 50, CstF 64 and CstF 77. Out of these CstF 64 has the RNA recognition motif. CstF 77 makes all the connections among the other two CstF subunits and interacts with CPSF 160, thus stabilizing the initial cleavage complex through co-operative binding. Much of the properties of CstF will be discussed in some detail in chapter 3. CF Im and CF IIm are also factors that are important in establishing the stability of the cleavage complex through protein-protein interactions with other factors in the complex. In fact it has been thought that CF I_m prepares the pre-mRNAs for proper recognition by CstF complex. It consists of 72 kDa, 68 kDa, 59 kDa and 25 kDa subunits, of which 68 and 59 ones are closely related. CF II_m is an additional factor working in tandem with PAP in the formation of the cleavage-competent complex. Since it has yet to be purified and analyzed much remains unknown about its function. PAP plays a key role in both cleavage and polyadenylation. Cleavage efficiency is also affected by the presence of PAP in the cleavage complex either acting in cleavage or as a stimulatory factor. After

cleavage, addition of the adenylate residues at the 3' mRNA ends is catalyzed by PAP. There have been reports of various alternatively spliced variants of PAP, the largest and the catalytically active ones being 82 kDa and 77 kDa. Although PAP is very crucial in the cleavage and polyadenylation reaction, the protein has very little and unspecific affinity for RNA. Hence, the interaction with CPSF 160 tethers the protein to the mRNA substrates, without which it can add adenine residues to any random mRNA primer. Some of the crucial aspects of PAP in 3' end processing will be discussed in chapter 2. Although the presence of PAP with CPSF is sufficient in the synthesis of the poly (A) tail, the process is not only slow but also distributive. After about 10 A-residues in this manner, the addition of 33 kDa PAB II molecule changes the rate of the process by not only making it faster but also making it processive. PAB II has a high affinity for poly (A) and binds to the short tail to form a stable quaternary complex with CPSF, PAP and the RNA substrate (Colgan and Manley, 1997). But this property drastically changes again to distributive manner once the tract is 200 to 250 nts in length. The same PAB II molecule is said to measure and control the length of the growing poly(A) tract.

1.4.3 Polyadenylation in eukaryotes (yeast): As it has been already mentioned, there exists a major difference among the mammalian and yeast signal sequences, but the factors catalyzing the polyadenylation process has more or less similar functional aspects. Like mammalian polyadenylation, in yeasts too the process is divided in two stepsendonucleolytic cleavage and polyadenylation. Cleavage is carried out by cleavage factor IA (CF IA), cleavage factor IB (CF IB) and cleavage factor II (CF) and polyadenylation is catalyzed by polyadenylation factor I (PF I), $poly(A)$ -binding protein 1 (Pab 1), poly(A) polymerase 1 (Pap 1) along with CF IA and CF IB ($Fig. 1.5$). The primary components of the initiation complex in polyadenylation are CF IA and CF II since the factors have a high affinity for the signal sequences. The components of CF IA are Rna 14, Rna 15, Pcf 11, Pab1 and a 50 kDa polypeptide. Rna 14 is a 76 kDa polypeptide having 24% sequence homology to mammalian CstF 77. On the other hand Rna 15 is 38 kDa polypeptide having 43% homology in the RBD to mammalian CstF 64. Both the subunits are tightly bound to each other like their mammalian counterparts, but unlike the CstF units they are required in both cleavage and polyadenylation in yeast. Hence, they behave more like CPSF than CstF. Mutants in yeast are defective in both cleavage and polyadenylation. Pcf 11 is a 70 kDa polypeptide interacting with both Rna 14 and Rna 15. Extracts from mutants of Pcf 11 are similarly defective in cleavage and polyadenylation. Until now no mammalian homolog has been uncovered, although functionally it shares similarity to mammalian CPSF 160 (Shatkin and Manley, 2000). Yeast Pab1 is the major RNP in yeast which remains associated with the poly (A) tails in the cytoplasm and mediates mRNA translation and turnover. It is a 70 kDa polypeptide having nearest mammalian homology to PAB II (Zhao et al., 1999). It acts along with $poly(A)$ specific nuclease (PAN) and nuclear $poly(A)$ -binding protein (Nab2p) (Viphakone et al., 2008) to regulate the length of poly(A) tails, which is generally 50-90 nts long. Lastly, a 50 kDa subunit which is said to be a product of the Clp 1 gene, but not much has been known about it in yeast. The components of CF II are Cft1/Yhh1 (150 kDa), Cft2/Ydh1 (105 kDa), Brr5/Ysh1 (100 kDa) and Pta1 (90 kDa). The first subunit to be purified and identified was Yhh1 due to its sequence homology (24% identity and 51% similarity) to mammalian CPSF 160. Inactivation led to loss of both cleavage and polyadenylation, whereas reversal led to partial activation with revival of only cleavage

but not poly(A) addition (Zhao et al., 1999). Ydh1 had 24% identity and 43% similarity to Mammalian CPSF 100 and bind to pre-mRNA substrates either at the efficiency elements or at the poly(A) sequences in an ATP-dependent manner (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999; Zhao et al., 1999). The third subunit, Ysh1 is 23% identical and 48% similar to mammalian CPSF 73. A cold-sensitive mutant was shown to be defective in the in vivo splicing of the mRNA. The 90 kDa Pta1 polypeptide, shares limited similarity to mammalian protein symplekin, which recently have been implicated in to be a part of the CPSF complex. Pta1 is an essential gene playing a role in pre-tRNA processing and like symplekin helps in the assembly or stabilization of the polyadenylation complex (Zhao et al., 1999; Shatkin and Manley, 2000). The next important subunit for cleavage and polyadenylation is CF IB which is represented by the single 73 kDa polypeptide Hrp1/Nab4 (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999; Zhao et al., 1999). It is a shuttling protein and unlike mammalian export proteins, have possible roles in polyadenylation and subsequent nucleocytoplasmic transport. Although it is not essential for cleavage, yet the high affinity towards UA-rich polyadenylation sites in yeast plays a qualitative role by regulating the choice of cleavage site utilization (Zhao et al., 1999; Shatkin and Manley, 2000). Polyadenylation Factor I (PF I) has been purified from a co-purification of CF II-PF I and consists of Fip1, Pap1, Yth1, all the subunits of CF II, Pfs1 and Pfs2 (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999; Zhao et al., 1999). Factor Interacting with Pap1 (Fip1) interacts with Pap1 in yeast-two hybrid interactions and has a molecular weight of 35 kDa. Although for a long time there was no mammalian counterpart identified, but in 2004 sequence similarity showed that a human Fip 1 existed as an integral part of CPSF and acts in concert with CPSF 160 in RNA recognition (Shatkin and Manley, 2000; Kaufmann I et

al., 2004). Apart from interacting with Pap1 it also interacts with Yth1 and weakly with Rna14 (Zhao et al., 1999). Thus functionally it is similar to mammalian CPSF 160 subunit in linking the cleavage holoenzyme to the polyadenylation complex. Mutants are generally defective in polyadenylation but not in cleavage. The interacting protein, Yth1, similar to CPSF 30 in the mammals, is also shown to be a part of this complex. Any mutation within a zinc finger of the Yth1 reduces cleavage activity (Barabino et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 1999). Finally among Pfs1 and Pfs2 not much is known, except that Pfs1 has zinc knuckle while Pfs2 has seven WD-40 repeats and an N-terminal extension similar to mammalian CstF 50 and interacts with Rna14. The most important polyadenylation protein is Pap. In yeast it was the first factor to be elucidated due to its simplicity as a single 64 kDa polypeptide, 47% identical to its mammalian counterpart within its 400 amino acid residues. Similar to the mammalian PAP factor, it too, does not have any sequence specificity for the RNA substrates. As a part of the PF I holoenzyme, interaction with Fip 1 directs it towards the catalytic core (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999; Addepalli et al., 2004), but unlike the mammalian protein plays a role only in polyadenylation.

1.4.4 Polyadenylation in eukaryotes (plants): In comparison to the other mentioned organisms, study of the process of polyadenylation was quite recent but a rapidly growing area in plants. As mentioned earlier, plants shared similarities to mammals and also to yeast with respect to the *cis*- acting elements. Not only this, like mammals, plants also showed a great amount of alternative polyadenylation in its genome. For example, in rice more than 50% of the genes out of the 55,000 genes analyzed had more than one unique $poly(A)$ sites (Shen et al., 2008). Hence it was an obvious direction to delve deeper into the process and hypothesize a model for the polyadenylation machinery along with the *trans*- acting factors. The earliest component in this effort to be isolated, purified and elucidated was Poly (A) polymerase (PAP). Although there were differences in size and structure due to alternatively modified forms of this enzyme, all the PAP activities had not only similar biochemical properties among plants but also among mammals and yeast system. The primary role of PAP in mRNA production at all stages of development and translation regulation remains more or less conserved in all living organisms (Rothnie, 1996). The broader aspects of PAP in higher plants will be discussed in chapter 2. With further screening of the databanks and different libraries homologies among various mammalian / yeast and plant polyadenylation factors was also found. To date almost 28 subunits have been found to be expressed in *Arabidopsis* which are homologous to mammalian / yeast systems, excepting CFIm68 in mammals and HrpI in yeast. All of the CPSF and CstF protein factors are expressed from single genes while, PAP, Fip I, Clp I, Pcf I I, Pab and symplekin are expressed from multiple genes (Hunt et al., 2008). Further investigation with each gene product will elucidate the characteristics and properties of each, thus establishing a plant polyadenylation model.

Figure 1.1: The two steps of 3' end processing (Wahle and Ruegsegger, 1999)

Figure 1.2: Schematic diagram of polyadenylation signals in 3 different living systems. (A) mammals (B) yeast (*S.cerevisiae*) (C) plants (Zhao et al., 1999)

Class VI: 5'ppp - AAA...AAA-3'OH

Figure 1.3: Six classes of mRNA polyadenylation in bacteria (Sarkar, 1997).

Figure 1.4: Model for the polyadenylation machinery in mammals (Adapted from the Walter Keller Lab website)

Figure 1.5: Model for the polyadenylation machinery in yeast (Shatkin and Manley, 2000)

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Chapter 2: Interactions of PAP1 with the polyadenylation factors in *Arabidopsis*

2.1 Introduction

The process of polyadenylation involves two stages as mentioned in Chapter 1: an endonucleolytic cleavage of the pre-mRNA transcript at the signal sequence subsequently followed by the addition of a polymerized tail of adenine residues. The whole process engages a battery of proteins at various stages and one of the most important one being polynucleotide adenylyltransferase (EC 2.7.7.19). Polynucleotide adenylyltransferase, or poly(A) polymerase (PAP) as the name suggests, is an indispensable protein factor responsible for adding the adenine residues, thus resulting in the polymerized adenine tail at the 3' end of most mRNAs. This factor has been mentioned in some contexts in Chapter 1, but a detailed discussion will be presented in this chapter.

Poly(A) polymerase has been studied in great detail in living organisms and one of the first factors to be discovered in the study of polyadenylation. The work in $poly(A)$ polymerase characterization was pioneered as early as 48 years ago by Mary Edmonds (Edmonds and Abrams, 1960; Edmonds et al., 1976). It was initially observed that the enzyme polymerized AMP residues in a non-specific manner, which can then be added to any RNA primer (Edmonds, 1982; Raabe et al., 1991). Later on the discovery of polyadenine tails in mammalian mRNA precursors and their varied metabolic functions fueled the interest in this protein factor. With subsequent research it was found that the non-specific PAP behaved in a specific manner with mRNA precursors having a precleaved AAUAAA sequence at its 3' ends, while in the presence of other

polyadenylation specific factors (Christofori and Keller, 1988; Christofori and Keller, 1989; Raabe et al., 1991; Wahle, 1991).

In 1991 the primary structure of bovine PAP was elucidated by Raabe et al (Raabe et al., 1991). The general structure features 3 domains: the N-terminal catalytic domain, the central domain and the C-terminal RNA binding domain (Fig. 2.1). PAP is a member of the nucleotidyltransferase superfamily. It houses 3 aspartate residues in its catalytic domain, characteristic to the members of this superfamily. This is typically the binding sites for ATP and metal ions (Martin, 2000). It also possesses an RNA binding site (RBS), downstream of the catalytic domain. The N-terminal domain and the central domain are more or less conserved among mammals, yeast and plants (Fig. 2.3). PAP is unique among nucleotidyltransferases in that it possesses an RNA recognition and binding domain, distinct from the active site, near its C-terminal end (Martin, 2000). It is this domain which mediates the primer recognition in mRNA precursors undergoing nonspecific 3'-end processing.

Apart from RNA recognition and binding through interactions in a AAUAAAspecific manner, PAP engages in a host of protein-protein interactions. In mammals it has been shown that CPSF, PabN and CFI-25 interacts with PAP and aids in the assembly of the processing unit of mRNA polyadenylation (Keller and Minvielle-Sebastia, 1997; Kim and Lee, 2001). Not only this, but the very C-terminal regulatory domain also links polyadenylation to pre-mRNA splicing events via interactions with splicing factors like U1A and U2A (Fig. 2.1) (Gunderson et al., 1997; Forbes, 2005; Meeks, 2005). The Cterminal region also possesses 2 nuclear localization signals (NLS-1 and NLS-2) which efficiently localize PAP to the nucleus (Raabe et al., 1991; Raabe et al., 1994). Other than

nuclear localization, the C-terminal especially the NLS interacts with CPSF via its 160kDa subunit (Thuresson et al., 1994; Manley, 1995; Murthy and Manley, 1995). Most of the C-termini of PAPs are not evolutionarily conserved, but are generally very rich in serine and threonine residues (Fig. 2.3). The S/T-rich region lying in the C-terminal domain has multiple consensus and non-consensus sites for phosphorylation/ dephosphorylation (Raabe et al., 1994; Ballantyne et al., 1995; Colgan DF et al., 1998). Both specific and non-specific poly(A) polymerase activity is inhibited during phosphorylation, generally carried out by $p34^{cdc2}/c$ yclin B complex, also known as mitosis promoting factor (MPF) (Colgan et al., 1996). This activity was hypothesized to regulate the formation of polyadenylation complex at the initiation stage (Raabe et al., 1994). Thus, downregulation of gene expression by controlling the enzymatic activity of PAP, takes place during the G_2/M -phase in somatic cells and also during meiotic maturation of oocytes (Colgan et al., 1996). Apart from regulation of PAP via splicing and phosphorylation, hormones have also played a part in regulating PAP expression in mammals if necessary (Jacob et al., 1975; Orava et al., 1979; Raju and Reddy, 1983; Xu et al., 1983).

The study of cytoplasmic polyadenylation in *Xenopus* (Gebauer and Richter, 1995) provided some interesting insights into the functional variation of PAP. Cytoplasmic polyadenylation requires a cytoplasmic form of PAP. Most (about 70%) of this protein is homologous to mammalian PAP but it lacks the NLS at the C-terminal domain. The expression of the cytoplasmic PAP was developmentally regulated, thus the concentration of the mRNA declined as the oocytes matured. Regulation of PAP level is crucial for controlled cytoplasmic polyadenylation and cell viability (Juge et al., 2002).

Although the canonical function of cytoplasmic PAP is similar to the nuclear one, association with CPEB, a factor in the cytoplasm and / or other cytoplasmic factors closely resembling CPSF, hint at a possibly different mechanism of polyadenylation in the cytoplasm (Hake and Richter, 1994; Gebauer and Richter, 1995). For instance, unlike nuclear polyadenylation, association of cytoplasmic PAP with these additional cytoplasmic factors is necessary even for polyadenylation of mRNA already 25-75 nucleotides long. Even though PAP alone is sufficient for polyadenylation and stimulation of translation, its premature recruitment to resting oocytes may cause anomalies in maturation (Dickson et al., 2001). At this point the CPSF-like cytoplasmic polyadenylation factors act as signal receptors and transporters of PAP to the mRNA, for efficient polyadenylation and oocyte maturation.

Functionally active forms of PAP can vary not only according to the location of action but also due to alternative splicing, competition and choice of poly (A) sites on the PAP gene. PAP I and PAP II, products of alternative splicing of PAPOLA gene (Raabe et al., 1991; Wahle, 1991; Zhao and Manley, 1996), are the major poly(A) polymerases. PAP II $(\sim 83 \text{ kDa})$ is the most common isozyme found in the vertebrates. The other significant one, PAP I $(\sim 77 \text{ kDa})$, is less commonly found with comparison to PAP II. Both of the PAPs perform similar basic function of adenine residue polymerization, but differ only by their C-terminal end sequences (Raabe et al., 1991; Raabe et al., 1994). It was hypothesized that phosphorylation/dephosphorylation activities at the C-terminal domain sequences of these 2 PAPs gave rise to difference in interaction pattern for PAP and other processing factors, facilitating the switch between different phases of 3'-end processing (Thuresson et al., 1994).

Poly(A) polymerase in yeast $(PAP1p)$ is functionally similar to its mammalian counterpart (Fig. 2.1). It is a 64 kDa polypeptide and is a product of a single copy gene, *PAP I*. Structurally it is 47% identical to mammalian PAP within the first 400 amino acids (Fig. 2.3). This conserved region typically contains the catalytic domain with an amino terminus RNA Binding Site (N-RBS) and a carboxy terminus RBS (C-RBS) (Zhelkovsky et al., 1995; Zhao et al., 1999). Two specificity domains (SpD 1 and SpD 2) delineate both ends and confer protein-protein interactions with various factors of the polyadenylation machinery, like CF I and Fip1 (Kessler, 1995; Keller and Minvielle-Sebastia, 1997). Both of these domains are unique to yeast Pap1 and are required for enzyme activity (Zhelkovsky et al., 1995). Another distinction of Pap1p is that it is only essential during the polyadenylation phase but not during cleavage (Zhao et al., 1999). Although yeast Pap1 lacks the S/T-rich regions, it still undergoes regulation via phosphorylation and ubiquitination during cell cycle as control of enzymatic activity (Lingner and Kellerman, 1991; Mizrahi and Moore, 2000). Phosphorylation is mediated by a protein kinase different from Cdc28 homologue, during the S/G_2 -phase unlike in mammals, where it happens during the $G₂/M$ -phase (Colgan et al., 1996; Mizrahi and Moore, 2000). Phosphorylation generally precedes ubiquitination as a mode of yPAP1 regulation without involving proteolysis. Yeast Pap1 interacts, possibly via its N-terminal domain, with Uba2 and Ufd1 proteins that have been linked to the ubiquitin mediated protein degradation pathway (Dohmen et al., 1995; Johnson et al., 1995; del Olmo et al., 1997). Thus, Pap1p too undergoes post-translational modification like its mammalian counterpart but in ways that differ temporally and mechanistically.

Investigations in the recent past have lent much insight into the plant polyadenylation process. This includes the identification and characterization of the factors involved in this process, which bear an outstanding likeness to other eukaryotic polyadenylation factors. Plant Poly(A) polymerase is one of such factors which have been identified and characterized from a number of plant sources like wheat, pea, *Arabidopsis*, maize, and tobacco (Mans and Huff, 1975; Berry and Sachar, 1982; D'Alessandro and Srivastava, 1985; Dasgupta et al., 1995; Addepalli et al., 2004). In *Arabidopsis*, it is encoded by a family of 4 genes, with some predicted isoforms being very similar to their mammalian counterpart (Fig. 2.2). Although the plant PAPs so far isolated, have varying molecular weights ranging from 60-120 kDa, 3 PAPs out of 4 in Arabidopsis are ~83-95 kDa (Rothnie, 1996; Hunt et al., 2000). PAPS1, PAPS2 and PAPS4 (Fig. 2.2) (named according to their respective position in the chromosomes) are among the larger ones with ~ 800 amino acids, whereas PAPS3 (Fig. 2.2) has only 482 amino acids and is significantly shorter. Excepting PAPS3, all the 3 PAPs have Nterminal domain showing high degree of conservation with the mammalian PAP (Fig. 2.3), while their C-terminal domain differs even among themselves (Addepalli et al., 2004). Even though there is much sequence dissimilarity within the C-terminal domain, presence of S/T-rich regions within this domain suggests that phosphorylation/dephosphorylation phenomenon may exist in plants, much like yeast and mammalian PAP (Verma and Sachar, 1994; Hunt et al., 2000; Addepalli et al., 2004). Theoretically speaking, the conformational change brought about by the protein kinase (PK)/protein phosphatase (PP) acting upon the target protein, is a classic way of regulating enzymatic action (Sopory and Munshi, 1998). Plant PAPs also undergo similar

post-translational modification by their intrinsic PKs, although the spatio-temporal mechanism of such regulation in plants still needs to be explored (Sharma et al., 2002). Another distinctive feature of plant PAP is in its hormonal regulation during embryogenesis (Berry and Sachar, 1981; Berry and Sachar, 1982; Lakhani and Sachar, 1985; Rothnie, 1996). The four genes are expressed in a tissue specific manner (Addepalli et al., 2004). For example, PAPS1 is predominantly expressed in the roots, stem and flowers but not in the leaves where the predominant one is PAPS3 (Addepalli et al., 2004; Meeks, 2005). Like mammalian PAP genes, alternative splicing also has a high occurrence within *Arabidopsis* PAP genes (Zhao and Manley, 1996; Addepalli et al., 2004). But unlike mammals, the alternatively spliced products are highly truncated, and may retain some of the functionalities of the full-length catalytically-active enzyme (Addepalli et al., 2004; Meeks, 2005). Although much of the functional need for such novel mRNAs remains unknown, it has been suggested that the relative abundance of the mRNA and the PAP enzyme are controlled via stabilization of the alternatively spliced forms both at nuclear and cytoplasmic levels (Rothnie, 1996; Zhao and Manley, 1996; Addepalli et al., 2004).

It is quite noticeable from the facts outlined in this chapter and from the previous chapter that the plant 3'-processing machinery has similarities as well as differences with both the mammalian and yeast counterparts. Previous and recent studies have shown that PAP has non-specific distributive activity which is even true for plants. But in presence of other protein factors especially those implicated in the polyadenylation process, it becomes specific and progressive (Raabe et al., 1991). These protein interactions may have some similarities or some unique differences among the different organisms. For instance *Arabidopsis* PAP1 (Fig. 2.2) does not interact with Fip1, unlike mammalian or yeast PAP or for that matter the other isoforms of AtPAP, which have been shown to interact though yeast two-hybrid assays (Forbes et al., 2006). Thus, the difference in the polyadenylation process from mammals to plants is the manifestation of these characteristic interactions among the protein factors like PAP and other 3'-processing proteins.

It has been demonstrated earlier that PAP has a propensity to exist as multiple isoforms mostly as products of alternative splicing (Zhao and Manley, 1996; Sharma et al., 2002; Addepalli et al., 2004). The significance of this hasn't been fully unearthed, but one hypothesis suggests that PAP has functions beyond polyadenylation within and outside of the nucleus. For example, in *Arabidopsis* itself, the PAPS3 isoform (Fig. 2.2) has intriguing spatio-temporal expression levels (Addepalli et al., 2004). It dominates in PAP expression more within the foliar extremities, while the lack of NLS at the Cterminal domain clues at possible functions in cytoplasmic polyadenylation. PAPS2 protein (Fig. 2.2), on the other hand, has the canonical PAP activity within the nucleus, but has been also shown to associate with PNP, a chloroplastidial enzyme involved in RNA metabolism, thus suggesting at a non-canonical role of PAP (Hunt et al., 2000). Hence, it is tempting to hypothesize that PAPS1 may also have functions beyond polyadenylation, since structurally it shows an intron inclusion event in its alternatively spliced form. It has almost imperceptible or no expression within the leaves, but shows varying levels of presence in stems, roots and flowers of *Arabidopsis* (Addepalli et al., 2004) This chapter delineates some efforts in exploring and understanding the characteristics of PAPS1 in plants by conducting a systematic analysis of the microarray data obtained from NASC and protein-protein interactions among PAPS1 and other *Arabidopsis* polyadenylation factors. Through such basic studies, it will be possible to analyze the process of polyadenylation and fill the gaps in the web of interaction network involving *Arabidopsis* PAPS1.

2.2 Experimental procedures

2.2.1 In silico expression analysis for PAPS1, PAPS2, PAPS3 and PAPS4

The *in silico* gene expression analysis was performed using the data available in the Additional file 1: microarray keys and data from Hunt *et al* (Hunt et al., 2008), which was compiled from the NASC (Nottingham *Arabidopsis* Stock Centre) microarray database (Craigon et al., 2004). The datasets for *PAPS1, PAPS2, PAPS3 and PAPS4* were obtained from the 4 different experimental conditions (developmental stages, abiotic stress conditions, chemical and hormonal responses and biotic and differential light responses) (Appendix: A1). The data was plotted in a XY-scatter and also in a bar graph and analyzed.

2.2.2 Interaction assay for PAPS1 and other Arabidopsis polyadenylation factors in a GAL4 based two-hybrid system

A refined and elegant yeast-two hybrid assay was performed for the interactions between *Arabidopsis* PAPS1 (At1g17980) and the different *Arabidopsis* polyadenylation factors enlisted in Table 1. A Gal4-reporter based two-hybrid system with the yeast strain PJ69-4A (MATa *trp1-901 leu2-3*,*112 ura3-52 his3-200 gal4Δ gal80Δ LYS2::GAL1- HIS3 GAL2-ADE2 met2::GAL7-lacZ*) was used. The expression vectors were pGAD- $C(1)$ for the activation domain and $pGBD-C(1)$ for the binding domain (James et al., 1996; Forbes et al., 2006). The entire protein coding region or a part of it in question for the respective protein factors, were cloned firstly into pGEM-T™ vector system (Promega) and then excised with *BglII*. These fragments were then cloned in the pGAD- $C(1)$ and $pGBD-C(1)$ vectors and then sequenced to confirm the correct reading frames of the gene fusions thus created (Delaney et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). Competent yeast cells (PJ69-4A) were then transformed with the desired plasmid DNA using the polyethylene glycol and lithium acetate method (Gietz et al., 1992; Forbes et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2006). The transformants were plated in a synthetic complete medium containing glucose as the carbon source and lacking the nutritional supplements leucine (L) and tryptophan (W) (SC-LW) (Forbes et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2006). After a period of incubation at 30° C for approximately 4 days, the dual transformants from the colonies in SC-LW medium were plated in the selective synthetic growth medium lacking histidine (H) leucine (L) and tryptophan (W) along with the controls and incubated for 2-3 days approximately at 30°C. The analog 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT) was used in the case of the histidine-lacking media (SC-HLW) plates (Forbes et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). One of the empty plasmid DNA ("AD" and "BD") as well as one of the test plasmid DNA, were co-transformed with a complementary empty plasmid DNA and used as negative control, other than the empty AD and BD vectors. The co-transformation using *Arabidopsis* orthologue of CstF64 and CstF77 was used as positive control (Yao et al., 2002; Forbes et al., 2006). Positive interactions were those where 50-100% colonies from the dual transformants grew on the SC-HLW plated in comparison to the positive controls or else less than 10% were scored as negative.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Expression characteristics of Arabidopsis PAPS genes from the in silico expression analysis

It has been observed from earlier RT/PCR and Northern blot studies that that isoforms of *Arabidopsis* PAP shows difference in tissue-specific expression levels and also in the mode of alternative splicing of the mRNA within the tissues (Addepalli et al., 2004; Meeks, 2005). Thus, PAPS3 was the dominant form in the leaves, PAPS1, PAPS2 and PAPS4 were expressed in varying degrees in roots and PAPS1, PAPS2 and PAPS3 were the major species of mRNA in the stems of *Arabidopsis* (Addepalli et al., 2004). Hence, the expression levels of PAPS1 especially with respect to other PAP isoforms in *Arabiodopsis*, was a matter of interest here and investigated though *in silico* studies. Expression data sets were obtained for 4 kinds of experimental variations in *Arabidopsis*; developmental stage, response to abiotic stress, response to chemical stress and response to biotic stress and differential light conditions. The data were obtained from a previous compilation and plotted as described in the following (Appendix: A1). The results from the analysis give some novel facts about the expression of PAPS1 gene in *Arabidopsis* with respect to the other 3 PAP genes. For instance, Fig. 2.3 (A) shows that most of the PAP expression is normal excepting around the pollen development stage where PAPS3 is dominantly expressed and PAPS1 is rather repressed. This is highlighted more in Fig. 2.3 (B) which shows the ~ 60 fold increase in PAP3 expression and rather ~ 4 fold decrease in PAP1 expression, with normalized data. Fig.2.4 shows that wounding in seedling can cause a increase in PAP1 expression compared to other PAP isoforms in *Arabidopsis*. Cyclohexamide treatment to seedlings (Fig.2.5) can also cause a huge change in expression, almost a 6 fold increase. In the same experimental condition (Fig.2.5) imbibition in seeds, can also cause a gradual \sim 3 fold increase in PAPS1 with respect to other PAPs. The effect of different elicitors (Fig.2.6) on the expression of PAPS1 is also notable. With each 4h treatment the expression jumps by almost 2-3 folds from normal expression at 1h duration.

2.3.2 PAPS1 shows interactions only with PAPS4

Interactions among the polyadenylation factors are quite prevalent in other organisms, as it has been mentioned previously. Whether similar kind of interactions are also part of the plant polyadenylation complex is a matter of question. The ability of *Arabidopsis* PAPS1 homologue to interact with other *Arabidopsis* 3'-processing factors was tested using a yeast-two hybrid assay. In most cases the entire protein-coding region was fused to create an activation domain (AD) or a binding domain (BD) (James et al., 1996; Hunt et al., 2008). In some rare cases (eg. AtFip1(V)-NTD containing the first 137 amino acids and AtFip1(V)-CTD containing the last 500 amino acids) fused AD and BD plasmid DNA were made from partial protein-coding regions (Forbes et al., 2006). Negative controls were made from one of the "empty" AD or BD vectors and the fused gene product. The highly reproducible interaction between AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 was considered as a positive control in these tests (Yao et al., 2002). Co-transformation into yeast cells (PJ69-4A) gave rise to dual transformant colonies on the SC-LW plates, which were again plated on SC-HLW selection medium. Interactions for a pair in both combinations (eg.ADPAPS1+BDCstF64 and AD CstF64+BD PAPS1) were tested. In the case of proteins with an inherent activation domain (e.g. AtCPSF30), both the combinations were tested but only one set was scorable.

From previous studies in yeast and mammals, it has been observed that PAP interacts primarily with Fip1 (Preker et al., 1995; Kaufmann I et al., 2004). In yeast it has also been observed to have interactions with the CF I subunit (Kessler, 1995). On the other hand, in mammals it interacts positively with CPSF, CFI-25 and PabN (Thuresson et al., 1994; Murthy and Manley, 1995; Kim and Lee, 2001; Kerwitz et al., 2003). Even in plants like *Arabidopsis* interactions have been detected though a number of two-hybrid assays between PAP isoforms and CPSF100, CPSF30, Fip1(V), PabN and CFIS (Elliott et al., 2003; Forbes et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). But before now, no interactions have been reported within the different PAP isoforms in any animal or plant system. Hence, it was very surprising to find that out of the following 26 interactions (Table 2.1) tested PAPS1 had positive results only with PAPS4 (Fig. 2.7). Although the results here were not affirmed by a different test, it might not be too optimistic to add that the results of the protein-protein yeast-two hybrid assays performed here are authentic.

2.4 Discussion

The role of $poly(A)$ polymerase in 3'-end processing is pivotal and it is functionally conserved among a vast range of living organism. This kind of conservation leads to functional redundancy of the PAP protein resulting into multiple isoforms with a difference in their amino acid composition, especially at the C-terminal domain. Its functional importance and ubiquity can be testified in a number of living organisms (Niessing and Sekeris, 1974; Ryner et al., 1989; Zhao and Manley, 1996; Sharma et al., 2002). A similar picture is also present within *Arabidopsis* which also has 4 isoforms of the PAP (Addepalli et al., 2004). With respect to this, the tissue specific expression of each of the isoforms (PAPS1, PAPS2, PAPS3 and PAPS4) is remarkable. Thus, PAPS1

which has been largely expressed in stems, roots and flowers but not in leaves has some interesting connotation. *In silico* microarray studies show that its expression is comparably low in pollen (0.3535) compared with PAPS3 expression (35.435) (Fig. 2.3). This might suggest at a different mechanism of polyadenylation in pollen where PAPS3 is essential and PAPS1 is hence, dispensable, such as during spermatogenesis in mice where CstF64 is replaced functionally by τ CstF64 (Wallace et al., 1999). Hence, whatever function is played by PAPS1 in *Arabidopsis* is performed by PAPS3 in pollen or the process is non-active or absent from the pollen tissue, rendering PAPS1 unnecessary. On the other hand yeast two-hybrid test results show that PAPS1 interacts positively with PAPS4 only out of all polyadenylation protein factors (Table 2.1). In other living organisms, $poly(A)$ polymerase interacts with factors like Fip1, CPSF160, CFI-25m, and PabN (Thuresson et al., 1994; Murthy and Manley, 1995; Preker et al., 1995; Kim and Lee, 2001; Kerwitz et al., 2003; Kaufmann I et al., 2004) and in *Arabidopsis* other PAP isoforms interact mostly with FipS5, PabN, CPSF30, CFIS and CPSF100 (Elliott et al., 2003; Forbes et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). But to date, there have been no reports on self-interaction or interactions within the PAP isoforms themselves, even in plants. Hence, an obvious question is why PAPS1 shows this deviation from other PAPs and interacts only with PAPS4? Maybe, it can be hypothesized that PAPS1 is expressed only in the presence of PAPS4 along with other polyadenylation factors, thus controlling the expression of the whole PAPS1-PAPS4 subunit as a whole. But with this hypothesis a number of questions arise. Like, how is the property of PAPS4 altered by rendering PAPS1 non-functional and vice versa? Does this have any effect on the overall process of polyadenylation? The interactions of PAPS2, PAPS3 and PAPS4 with FipS5, reminiscent of the yeast system, facilitate the recruitment of the PAPs to the rest of the polyadenylation complex. Hence, altering one of the connections in this intricate network of interactions might have some effect on the overall process. This adverse effect has been demonstrated by insertional mutation and RNA interference studies on all 4 isoforms of PAP (Meeks, 2005). This study shows that, although gene duplication might have caused redundancy in the enzymatic properties of PAPs, the functional aspects of the genes have changed with evolution and now their expression is necessary for plant viability. Hence, each of the PAP isoforms have unique tissue or developmental stage specific expression pattern (this study; Addepalli et al, 2004), hinting at distinct sub-functions performed by each of the gene products, in its local realm. The various functions of these isoforms may overlap with each other or they may work in concert with other protein factor(s) to perform a greater task. This might be the case for PAPS1-PAPS4 interaction, although the physiological significance of this interaction has yet to be ascertained.

Most of these PAP isoforms differ biochemically from each other especially at their C-terminal end which undergoes phosphorylation, other than post-transcriptional modification of the whole gene product by alternative splicing. Alternative splicing may give rise to an altogether different gene product, whereas phosphorylation/dephosphorylation may cause structural/conformational changes in the protein. This might finally influence the interactions of PAP with the RNA substrate, ATP, polyadenylation factors or other factors within and out of the nucleus. Therefore, this might be how the isoforms are not only differentially expressed, but their specific functions are also regulated at different steps of the cell cycle according to their available

substrate. It has been observed that the differential phosphorylation activity at the Cterminal end causes the difference in substrate specificity of PAP in SRP RNA and hence, the difference in the polyadenylation mechanism (Perumal et al., 2001). On the other hand, PAP can also associate with factors outside the canonical 3'-end processing unit for polyadenylation of non-coding mRNAs (Vaňáčová et al., 2005). PAP has also been implicated to play a role in the metabolism of "cryptic" unstable mRNA transcripts (Wyers et al., 2005; Lykke-Andersen and Jensen, 2006). A variant of PAP in animals, known as star-PAP interacts with PIPK I, involved in mRNA splicing, export and other cell signaling processes (Mellman et al., 2008). Even in plants, a chloroplastidial form of PAP is shown to be involved in RNA degradation pathway, opening up the idea of PAP activity in cell processes other than 3'-end processing (Burkard and Keller, 1974; Dasgupta et al., 1995; Dasgupta et al., 1998). Hence, it is imperative to find out the binding partners for PAPS1, so as to acquire an idea about the possible functions of PAPS1 not only in polyadenylation of mRNA but also other nuclear and extra-nuclear activities.

2.5 Conclusion

The *in silico* expression analysis exhibits an intriguing expression profile for PAPS1 in *Arabidopsis*. While it is under expressed in pollen, it shows moderately higher levels of expression during different abiotic, chemical and biotic stresses. The functional significance of such an expression pattern is yet to be determined. The yeast two-hybrid interaction assay between PAPS1 and other *Arabidopsis* polyadenylation protein factors clearly depict that only PAPS4 interacts positively with PAPS1. These results give us an opportunity to explain and understand the possible role played by PAPS1 in various cellular processes in *Arabidopsis*, but also opens up an avenue of questions for further analysis and characterization of PAPS1. This might lay the basic foundation towards understanding an important aspect of polyadenyaltion and uncovering the mechanism of other cellular functions not only in *Arabidopsis*, but also the plant kingdom, in greater context.

Figure 2.1: Schematic representation of poly(A) polymerases from calf (bPAP I and II) and yeast (Pap1p). The numbers at the right denote approximate molecular weights of the polypeptides. N-RBS, amino terminus RNA binding site; C-RBS, carboxy terminus RNA binding site; SpD, specificity domain; NLS, nuclear localization site; RD, regulatory domain for splicing via U1A/polyadenylation activities. Adapted from (Raabe et al., 1991; Raabe et al., 1994; Zhelkovsky et al., 1995).

Figure 2.2: Schematic representation of the four poly (A) polymerases from *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The numbers at the right denote amino acid length of the polypeptides. Adapted from Addepalli *et al*, 2004.

PAP_ARATH 706 SLGKTNG<mark>K</mark> 713

Figure 2.3: Amino acid sequence alignment and comparison of poly (A) polymerases. The open reading frames encoded by calf (PAPOA_BOVIN, UniProt P25500), yeast (Pap_YEAST, UniProt P29468) and Arabidopsis (PAP_ARATH, UniProt Q9LMT2) are compared using ClustalW and formatted using Boxshade. Residues which are identical in all three polypeptides are shaded in black, with white uppercase lettering. Positions that are similar are shaded in grey, with white uppercase lettering.

(B)

Figure 2.4: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* PAP subunits during developmental stage. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective PAP subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axes. The samples (including some WT and mutants) that are represented along the X-axes in (A): 1-7, root 7-21 days; 8-10, stem 7-21 days; 11-27, leaf 7-35 days; 28-38, whole plant 7-23 days; 39-49, shoot apex 7-21 days; 50-71, flowers and floral organs 21+ days; 72- 79, 8 week seeds and siliques. The normalized expression in mature pollen is depicted in (B).

(A)

Figure 2.5: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* PAP subunits during different abiotic stress conditions. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective PAP subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The samples that are represented along the X-axis: 1-18, control; 19-30, cold; 31-42, osmotic; 43-54, salt; 55-68, drought; 69-80, genotoxic; 81- 92, oxidative; 93-106, UV-B; 107-120, wound; 121-136, heat; 137-141, cell culture control; 142-149, cell culture with heat. The arrow (\rightarrow) shows the expression of PAP due to wounding in seedlings.

Figure 2.6: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* PAP subunits during chemical and hormonal treatments. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective PAP subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The various samples for the chemical and hormonal treatments are represented along the X-axis. The arrows (\rightarrow) show the expression of PAP during cyclohexamide treatment in seedlings and imbibition in seeds.

Figure 2.7: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* PAP subunits during biotic stress and differential light conditions. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective PAP subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The samples that are represented along the X-axis: 1-16, control and *Pseudomonas syringae* infection; 17-22, control and *Phytophthora* infection; 23-36, control and other elicitors; 37-52, dark and different light conditions. Note the expression levels of PAPS1 (sample numbers 23-36) due to application of different elicitors at 1h and 4h durations.

Table 2.1: results from the yeast two-hybrid interactions between Arabidopsis PAPS1 (At1g17980) and other Arabidopsis polyadenylation factors. 'N'= negative interaction, 'Y'= positive interaction. '*' mark denotes incidence of self-activation which have been taken into account.

Figure 2.8: Pairwise protein-protein interaction plates. The AD fusion protein and the BD fusion protein were co-transformed and dual transformants from SC-LW plates (not shown) were grown on SC-HLW selection medium (as seen) with controls. The positive control $(+ve)$ is the interaction between CstF64 + CstF77 with 200% colony growth, negative controls $(-ve)$ are the interaction between empty $AD + BD$ vectors or $AD-Test$ Gene + empty $BD /$ empty $AD + BD$ -Test Gene with almost 0% colony growth. Positive interaction plates are scored as "Y" and negative as "N". '*' mark denotes incidence of self-activation which have been taken into account. $1 - 4$ indicate number of samples tested.

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Chapter 3: Characteristics of Cleavage Stimulation Factors 64 and 77 (CstF64 and CstF77) in *Arabidopsis*

3.1 Introduction

3'-end processing has sparked interest in the scientific world and has been investigated for more than 40 years now. This interest has been broadly generated for the diverse roles played by cleavage and polyadenylation process in all living organisms. Although much has been uncovered now, a cornucopia of facts regarding 3'-end processing is yet to be discovered.

It is now known that the process is catalyzed by a cumulative co-operation of a group of protein factors, working either as a sole subunit or a group of subunits (multimeric complex). Cleavage and polyadenylation can be uncoupled, *in vitro*, and hence has been studied in great detail. From these studies, it has been repeatedly observed that a consortium of protein factors, in mammals, is the key to the recognition of the DSE and subsequent stimulation of the cleavage process in the mRNA precursors. Thus, this key subunit came to be known as 'Cleavage stimulation Factor (CstF)' in mammals. From then on functionally conserved homologs of mammalian CstFs have been found in other organisms, some of which will be covered in this chapter.

Mammalian CstF subunit was the first to be studied in detail with respect to other organisms. In fact, the CstF64 protein factor was the second to be researched about, after PAP (discussed in Chapter 2)(Wilusz and Shenk, 1988; Takagaki et al., 1992). Besides the 64kDa polypeptide, mammalian CstF subunit also consists of 77kDa and 50kDa protein factors (Takagaki et al., 1990; Gilmartin and Nevins, 1991). UV-crosslinking studies led to the detection of a protein, which later was proved to be the 64kDa subunit of mammalian CstF by immunoprecipitation by monoclonal antibodies raised against CstF64 (Moore CL, 1988; Wilusz and Shenk, 1988; Takagaki et al., 1990). Later on cloning and characterization of this subunit by Takagaki et al (Takagaki et al., 1992) shed light on the broad structural features (Fig. 3.1). The amino terminus, approximately 80 residue region, contains a ribonucleoprotein type RNA binding domain (RBD). It was hypothesized and later proven that the N-terminal RBD was necessary (Pérez Cañadillas JM, 2003) and sufficient (Takagaki and Manley, 1997) to bind mRNA precursors at their downstream element (DSE). The binding of CstF64, more so by the N-terminal RBD at the G/U-rich sequences at DSE, was corroborated by mutational studies (Takagaki et al., 1992) of AAUAAA and RasH (MacDonald et al., 1994) mapping later on. The Nterminal RRM domain (RBD) is followed by a stretch of about 100 residues known as the "hinge domain" (Takagaki et al., 1992; Takagaki and Manley, 2000; Qu et al., 2007). Next to this, the protein is composed of a stretch of 5-amino acid repeats (MEARA/G consensus sequence) which is repeated in a helical fashion 12 times in most mammalian CstF64. This region is embedded typically within a flexible proline-glycine rich region (Takagaki et al., 1992; Zhao et al., 1999). Much of the functional aspect of this region is unkown and the variable nature is the cause of the differential characteristics of CstF64 and its homologs in other organisms (Richardson et al., 1999; Hatton et al., 2000). The Cterminal region of about last 100 residues are much more conserved (Fig. 3.2) than the Nterminal RBD. Apart from protein-protein interactions for the 3'-end processing system, it plays a vital role in RNA termination and transcription (Aranda and Proudfoot, 2001; Qu et al., 2007).

Another important subunit of the cleavage stimulation factor complex is CstF77, which shares a surprising homology to *Drosophila* $\frac{su(f)}{g}$ (suppressor of forked protein) gene (Takagaki and Manley, 1994). Takagaki et al showed that a 717-residue protein not only interacted with the 160kDa subunit of CPSF complex but also established links with CstF50 and CstF64, which themselves did not interact (Murthy and Manley, 1992; Takagaki and Manley, 1994). In the same study, they also showed that all 3 components of CstF complex were essential for activity and CstF77 acted as the bridging subunit (Takagaki and Manley, 1994). Structurally, (Fig. 3.3) CstF77 consists of amino terminus "Half a TPR" domain, otherwise known as HAT domain which closely resembles the tetratricopeptide (TPR) repeat (Preker and Keller, 1998; Bai et al., 2007). This region is followed by a proline rich domain spanning roughly 70 residues towards the carboxy terminus end of the protein. Embedded within the 9 repeat of the HAT domain is a bipartite nuclear localization signal (NLS), which is of considerable significance since CstF77 is the only CstF subunit having a NLS (Takagaki and Manley, 1994). Although the protein contains 2 hydrophobic regions, the overall protein is hydrophilic in nature (Takagaki and Manley, 1994).

The CstF50 subunit plays a vital role by interacting with CstF77 and Pol II-CTD, thus linking 3'-end processing machinery with transcription (McCracken et al., 1997). It contains 7 transducin or WD-40 repeats which are thought to mediate important proteinprotein interactions (Takagaki and Manley, 1992; Manley, 1995). Other than 3'-end processing, CstF50 also interacts with BARD1 protein, associated to BRCA1 in DNA repair and tumor suppression (Kleiman and Manley, 1999, 2001).

CstF plays a very vital role in 3'-end processing by binding to the DSE and defining the poly (A) site for cleavage (Takagaki et al., 1989). It has been extrapolated to signal the end of cleavage by dissociating after its completion and before the start of polyadenylation, hence playing almost no role in the later stage of 3'-end processing (Zhao et al., 1999). In the initial stages of cleavage, CstF interacts with CPSF to form a multi-protein complex before binding to the mRNA-precursors at the polyadenylation signal. The CPSF160 subunit is sufficient for binding to the upstream AAUAAA signal sequence (Takagaki et al., 1992), but this otherwise weak binding is stabilized and strengthened by the co-operative binding of CstF through its 77kDa subunit and the RNA-binding 64kDa subunit (Wilusz et al., 1990; Murthy and Manley, 1992). Thus CstF77 not only interacts with the CPSF160 subunit (Murthy and Manley, 1995) via its HAT domain, but also acts as a bridge of sorts for CstF64 and CstF50 (Takagaki and Manley, 1994, 2000; Bai et al., 2007). The interactions within the CstF protein complex are of special significance. Firstly, the self-association activity of CstF77 via sequences just N-terminal to the proline rich C-terminal domain hint at possible dimerization of the subunit which have been further narrowed down to the HAT-C domain (Takagaki and Manley, 2000; Benoit et al., 2002; Bai et al., 2007). Secondly, the interaction between CstF64 and CstF77 is hypothesized to be crucial for the functioning of the former subunit in RNA recognition. This crucial interaction was first stated by Tagakaki in 1994 and later on substantiated by many (Takagaki and Manley, 1994, 2000; Bai et al., 2007). The 100 residues of the hinge domain of CstF64 interact with the proline rich region of CstF77. This interaction has far reaching implications in the overall assembly of the cleavage complex. The RRM of the CstF64 remains occluded by the C-terminal helix

situated close to the hinge domain and this prevents CstF64 from binding at the G/Usequence downstream (Pérez Cañadillas JM, 2003; Qu et al., 2007). Following interaction with CstF77, at the hinge domain the C-terminal helix is unfolded and destabilized due to the conformational change, facilitating the binding of CstF64 to the DSE. It has been explained by Bai et al (Bai et al., 2007) through a model (Fig. 3.5) that the CstF77 homodimer associated by their HAT-C domain interacts with another set of CstF64 and CstF50 subunits, thus forming the CstF cleavage complex with 2 copies of each subunit (Legrand et al., 2007). This may explain how G/U-sequences with more than 10 nucleotides are recognized stably by the RRM of CstF64 that has a binding capacity of only 4 to 5 nucleotides (Pérez Cañadillas JM, 2003; Bai et al., 2007).

The CstF77 subunits simultaneously bind to the large CPSF160 monomer. This model is in line with the biochemical evidence provided to show that the CPSF-CstF subunits physically associate and organize themselves before the poly(A) signal recognition as already mentioned before. Thus once the initial cleavage complex of CPSF-CstF forms, the bipartite signal sequences are read in one single interaction (Takagaki and Manley, 2000). This helps to lower the chances of false recognition; fine tuned all the more by sequences within the RRM of CstF64 and also expedites the processing efficiency of the 3'-end machinery (Pérez Cañadillas JM, 2003).

As it has been mentioned earlier, apart from nuclear polyadenylation, CstF complex also has functions in other cellular processes like transcription termination, splicing, alternative polyadenylation, nucleo-cytoplasmic transport, cytoplasmic polyadenylation and so on.

 The role of CstF50 in transcription termination has already been discussed before (McCracken et al., 1997). Although CstF64 or CstF77 does not directly interact with RNA polymerase II, the association of CstF with CPSF, PC4 (a transcriptional coactivator) and assembly of the cleavage complex at the recognition sequence all signal the completion of the formation of a pre-mRNA transcript and disengages RNA pol II (McCracken et al., 1997; Calvo and Manley, 2001). In mammals, termination does not require pre-mRNA cleavage, but the assembly of the cleavage multiprotein complex is a pre-requisite for efficient transcription termination and 3'-end processing (Zorio and Bentley, 2004). As a consequence of faulty cleavage mechanism and subsequent aberration in transcription termination, nucleo-cytopalsmic transport may be suspended. This results in retention of mRNA transcripts in the nucleus, poor release from the site of transcription, failure of the exporting factors to engage and even degradation by the nuclear exosome (Brodsky and Silver, 2000; Lei and Silver, 2002, 2002; Libri et al., 2002; Torchet et al., 2002). This has been mentioned in some detail in chapter 1.

Niwa et al showed that 3'-end processing and splicing were also related in some cases (Niwa et al., 1992). In case of terminal exons, presence of a 5'-splice site 300 nucleotides or closer to 3'-site caused a depression of polyadenylation and also reduced the binding of CstF64 to mRNA. In some instances, splicing went hand in hand with alternative polyadenylation. Apart from the 64kDa protein, another form of CstF64 was reported in mouse and rat tissues, especially in the male gametic cells and to a lesser extent in brain cells (Wallace et al., 1999; Wallace et al., 2004; Huber et al., 2005). The 70kDa protein, named as τCstF64, was expressed from an autosomal chromosome (chromosome 19 in mouse) only at the meiotic and post-meiotic phases (Dass et al., 2001). This difference in expression of an important gene in 3'-end processing suggested a different mode of polyadenylation during spermatogenesis showing a high prevalence of alternative polyadenylation and non-AAUAAA site usage (Monarez et al., 2007). A possible outcome of this characteristic is that τCstF64 has a differential and more nonspecific binding affinity in comparison to CstF64 (Monarez et al., 2007). Another well researched instance, which has been mentioned in Chapter 1, is that of the IgM gene expression during the B-lymphocyte cell maturation. A distal, stronger poly (A) site is chosen over a weaker, proximal poly (A) site before maturation, but this reverses during the secretory stage after the B-cells are fully differentiated (Edwalds-Gilbert and Milcarek, 1995; Takagaki et al., 1996). The fact that the level of CstF64 is the limiting factor for the shift in poly (A) site usage has been a matter of controversy (Martincic et al., 1998; Takagaki and Manley, 1998), but it has been shown that CstF64 increases dramatically in differentiated cells and is vital for cell viability at initial stages.

Alternative polyadenylation has also been observed with the gene that codes for the *Dropsophila* homolog of CstF77, *su(f)*. In keeping with the function of CstF77 in 3' end processing of pre-mRNAs so far, any mutation in *su(f)* gene similarly affects polyadenylation efficiency and mRNA stability (Mitchelson et al., 1993; Takagaki and Manley, 1994). The protein shows high homology (56.2% identity, 69.4% similarity) overall to CstF77 and conservation of 14 out of 15 pro-rich residues in the region implicated in many of the protein-protein interactions (Takagaki and Manley, 1994). It has 9 exons from which 3 transcripts are generated by alternative polyadenylation. The shortest transcript utilizes a poly(A) site within an intron and hence is a 1.3kb in length, and encodes a polypeptide lacking much of the HAT domain (Mitchelson et al., 1993). It
has been proposed that *su(f)* mRNA accumulation is autoregulated by CstF77 in a tissue specific manner (Audibert and Simonelig, 1998; Juge et al., 2000). Surprisingly, a similar kind of intronic $poly(A)$ site has also been discovered in vertebrates and, although, they are not aberrantly degraded, their expression and functional characterization are yet to be investigated (Pan et al., 2006).

CstF77, an indispensable subunit in nuclear polyadenylation, has been also seen to have some function in cytoplasmic polyadenylation. It remains associated with cytoplasmic polyadenylation factors CPEB, CPSF 100, XGLD2 and eIF4E and helps to stabilize the cytoplasmic cleavage unit, much like the nuclear cleavage unit (Rouget et al., 2006). Although, it is not essential for cytoplasmic polyadenylation, impairement of *Xenopus* homologue of CstF77 function accelerates oocyte maturation and protein synthesis without modifying polyadenylation *in vivo*, while *in vitro* it represses mRNA translation. Thus, it was concluded that *Xenopus* CstF77 plays a role in mRNA masking (Rouget et al., 2006).

Research in the 3'-end processing system in yeast progressed in parallel as that of their mammalian counterparts. Initially cleavage/polyadenylation factor I (CFI) was identified and later on separated into CFIA and CFIB for the purpose of cleavage and polyadenylation in yeast (Chen and Moore, 1992; Kessler et al., 1996). CFIA consists of 4 polypeptides, 2 of which will be discussed to some detail in here since they have homologs in the mammalian CstF subunit. The 38kDa Rna15 polypeptide has a 42.5% identity and 62.5% similarity to its mammalian CstF64 counterpart (Fig. 3.2), especially within its RRM-type RBD at the amino terminus (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991; Takagaki and Manley, 1994). The 76kDa Rna14 polypeptide is the yeast homolog of mammalian CstF77 (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1994). It shares moderate homology (Fig. 3.4) to its mammalian counterpart (24.3% identity, 37.2% similarity). Although there are certain differences in the polyadenylation signal sequences and their respective transacting factors, functional and to some extent, the structural homology evidently proves that 3'-end processing is conserved from yeast to mammals (Takagaki and Manley, 1994).

Rna15 is considerably shorter than CstF64 and the structural homology ends at the amino terminal RBD and the hinge domain, 100 residues upstream of the carboxy terminus of the mammalian CstF64 protein. The RBD of Rna15 is followed by a stretch of glutamines and asparagines at the C-terminal end (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991; Zhao et al., 1999) (Fig. 3.1). The RRM-type RBD, although can be UV-crosslinked to substrate RNA, behaves differently from that of CstF64 since the substrate RNAs do not interact with the RBD of mammalian CstF64 (Takagaki and Manley, 1997). This deviation might stem from the difference in the positions of the recognition sequences described in Chapter 1, in the yeast system with respect to the mammals. The UA-rich efficiency element (EE) which is functionally analogous to the DSE in mammals is placed upstream of the cleavage site, 10 nucleotides upstream to the A-rich positioning element (PE). Unlike CstF64, it was observed that Rna15, in the presence of Rna14 and Hrp1, specifically bound to the A-rich PE (Kessler et al., 1997; Gross and Moore, 2001). The strong interaction between Rna15 and Rna14 is conserved in yeast (Kessler et al., 1996; Kessler et al., 1997), but the interacting domains are slightly different from their mammalian counterpart due to differences in the structural motifs (Fig. 3.1 and Fig. 3.3) (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991; Noble et al., 2004). The protein encoded by Rna14 (Fig. 3.3) contains 6 HAT domains roughly divided into the N-terminal HAT and the Cterminal HAT domains, but lacks the proline rich carboxy-terminal domain (Noble et al., 2004; Legrand et al., 2007). About 100 residues towards the C-terminal end are indispensable for interaction with Rna15 and other proteins in the 3'-end processing complex (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1994; Gross and Moore, 2001; Noble et al., 2004; Legrand et al., 2007). A NLS is embedded within the C-HAT domain, but occasionally Rna14 is also localized in the cytoplasm especially in the mitochondria (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991). This suggests a possible role of Rna14 in mitochondrial metabolism (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991; Rouillard et al., 2000). In 2004, Noble et al performed *in vitro* experiments to show that Rna14-Rna15 not only form heterodimers but also has a penchant to form tetramers (Noble et al., 2004). This was later confirmed to be the property of the C-HAT domain which do form stable heterotetramers (Bai et al., 2007). The dimerization not only helps in Rna15-RNA binding by increasing the number of RRMs available per PE, but also exposes an area of conserved residues for a number of protein-protein interactions (Bai et al., 2007; Legrand et al., 2007). Thus Rna14 plays a very important role in assembling the cleavage complex by bringing together Hrp1 and Rna15, bridging the various components of CFIA and PFI (through Pcf11 and Pfs2) and signaling the end of cleavage to the awaiting polyadenylation complex by interacting with Fip1 (Gross and Moore, 2001; Helmling et al., 2001). On the other hand it was observed by deletion mutation that unlike CstF64, the residues C-terminal to the hinge domain in Rna15 was responsible for the interaction with Rna14 and also crucial for interactions with some transcriptional activators and co-activators (Aranda and Proudfoot, 2001; Calvo and Manley, 2001). The C-terminal approximately 50 residues

form unique helical structures which are important for various protein-protein interaction in 3'-end processing and transcription termination (Birse et al., 1998; Aranda and Proudfoot, 2001). Disruption in this region causes defects in RNA processing and loss of interaction with Pcf11, an important subunit in the 3'-processing complex having interactions with RNA polymerase II (Meinhart et al., 2005; Qu et al., 2007). Hence, this region is indispensable for 3'-end maturing but also is important for transcription termination, through interactions with transcription specific factors (Proudfoot and O'Sullivan, 2002). Mutational studies led to the conclusion that Rna15, Rna14 and the other protein factors of CFIA are vital at both the steps of 3'-end processing in yeast (Minvielle-Sebastia et al., 1991). This feature of CFIA deviates much from the mammalian CstF subunit, which is important only for cleavage and in this vein rather mimics the CPSF subunit to some extent, having roles in both cleavage and polyadenylation.

Scientific investigations in animals and yeast system have always paved the path for further studies in other living systems like plants. Although the process of acquiring knowledge for plant system had a late start, yet it never lagged behind, for long. This has also been the case for the study in cleavage and polyadenylation machinery in plants. The subtle similarities and dissimilarities in the recognition sequences have already been discussed in Chapter 1. Now that the Pandora's box of trans-acting factors related to the process are being discovered, structural and functional uniqueness in plants, compared to the mammalian and yeast systems, are also being disclosed. Some of these features relating to *Arabidopsis* homolog of PAP have been discussed in Chapter 2. Experiments in the recent past showed that the *Arabidopsis* orthologs of CstF64 and CstF77 (AtCstF64

and AtCstF77, respectively) interacted very strongly, *in vitro* (Yao et al., 2002). Thus it can be safely assumed that this interaction is one of the most important interactions within the cleavage/polyadenylation machinery and conserved from yeast to mammals to plants. But from the same experiments it was found that the Arabidopsis ortholog of CstF50 (AtCstF50) does not interact with the remaining CstF subunits in *Arabidopsis*, which deviates from the mammalian CstF50. Extensive two-hybrid studies later on corroborated this and also showed that a possible interaction rather exists between AtCstF50 and AtCPSF100 (Forbes et al., 2006). The *Arabidopsis* homolog of Fip1 [AtFip1(V)] shows a moderate $(26\%$ identity, 40% similarity) similarity to hFip1, but more closely resembles to yFip1 (38% identity, 56% similarity) within its conserved domains (Forbes et al., 2006). In addition to RNA-binding and its interaction with PAP, CstF77 and a number of other 3'-end processing factors, $AtFip1(V)$ interacts with AtCstF64; this interaction is unique to plants since it is absent in yeasts and human Fip1 homologs (Hunt et al., 2008). These facts raise a curious question as to the structural and functional characterization of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 and their potential binding partners so far discovered. Detailed studies through *in silico* analysis, two hybrid system, *in vitro* and expression in plant system, *in vivo* brought to surface other features that give distinctiveness to the 3'-end processing in plants and abolishes the direct comparison of the system to yeast and mammals. This chapter largely focuses on some of the characteristic features of the *Arabidopsis* homologs of CstF64 and CstF77 (AtCstF64 and AtCstF77) through *in silico*, *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies.

3.2 Experimental procedures

3.2.1 In silico expression analysis for AtCstF64 and AtCstF77

The *in silico* gene expression analysis was performed using the data available in the Additional file 1: microarray keys and data from Hunt *et al* (Hunt et al., 2008), which was compiled from the NASC (Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre) microarray database (Craigon et al., 2004). The datasets for AtCstF64, AtCstF77 and AtCstF50 were obtained from 4 different experimental conditions (Developmental stages, Abiotic stress conditions, Chemical and hormonal responses and Biotic and differential light responses) (Appendix: A2). The data was plotted in a XY-scatter graph in most cases for analysis. In case of the developmental stages, the data was also depicted in bar diagrams especially with the comparative expression values at the pollen developmental stage for ease of analysis.

3.2.2 Interaction assay for AtCstF 64 and AtFip1(V) in a GAL4 based two-hybrid system

A Gal4-reporter based two-hybrid system with the yeast strain PJ69-4A was used for this interaction assay. The expression vectors were $pGAD-C(1)$ for the activation domain and pGBD-C(1) for the binding domain (James et al., 1996; Forbes et al., 2006). For a detailed description of the system refer to Chapter 2, section 2.2 Experimental procedures. For cloning the 3 portions of AtCstF64, the cDNA sequence information for AtCstF64 (At1g71800) was downloaded from "The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR)" (http://arabidopsis.org/index.jsp). Based on the sequence information, oligonucleotides (Table 3.1) were designed with the intention of amplifying the Nterminal 450bp $(\sim 150$ amino acid residues), the hinge region 250bp $(\sim 85$ amino acid residues) and the C-terminal 300bp (~100 amino acid residues) of the cDNA for AtCstF64. The amplified parts were cloned firstly into $pGEM-T^{TM}$ vector system (Promega) and then excised with *Bgl II*. These fragments were then cloned in the pGAD- $C(1)$ and $pGBD-C(1)$ vectors and then sequenced to confirm the correct reading frames of the gene fusions thus created. The pGAD and pGBD clones for AtFip1, AtCstF77 were obtained from Dr. Kevin P. Forbes (Forbes et al., 2006). The AtFip1 was cloned into 2 portions. The N-terminal 161 residues and the C-terminal 263 residues were individually tested for interactions (Forbes et al., 2006). Procedures for transformation and subsequent incubation into competent yeast cells were similar to the one used in Chapter 2, section 2.2 Experimental procedures. The process of choosing the controls for this study and the criteria for the observation of the positive interactions was also same to the one that was followed in Chapter 2, section 2.2 Experimental procedures.

3.2.3 Agrobacterium mediated infiltration of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77

Sequence information for AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 was downloaded from "TAIR" (http://arabidopsis.org/index.jsp) and the whole coding regions for each were amplified using the designed primers (Table 3.1) by standard PCR methods. Each of the PCR products were subcloned into pGEM-T™ vector system (Promega). AtCtF64 was excised with *Bgl II* and *Hind III* and AtCstF77 was excised with *Sal I*. Both were individually cloned into pGD-GFP (pGDG) and pDG-DsRed (pGDR) vectors. The clones were confirmed by sequencing. The controls for the experiment were the empty pGDG and pDGR vectors along with a nuclear signal cloned into the pGDG and pGDR (Nu_{GFP}) and Nu_{DSR}) vectors. All the controls were kindly contributed by Dr. Michael M. Goodin from his work (Goodin M M et al., 2002). The C58C1 strain of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* was transformed with the pGDG-64 (64_{GFP}) , pGDR-64 (64_{DSR}) , pGDG-77

 (77_{GFP}) and pGDR-77 (77_{DSR}) plasmids using freeze-thaw method described by An et al (An et al., 1988). They were incubated on LB^{RifTetKan} (LB + 100µg/ml Rifampicin + 5µg/ml Tetracycline + 100µg/ml Kanamycin) media plates at 28°C for 2 days. For the infiltration suspension, 2 day old transformed cells were mixed in MES buffer (10mM MES, pH 5.6, 10mM $MgCl₂$) and the $OD₆₀₀$ was adjusted (generally 0.6-0.7) to the desirable limit. 100mM acetosyringone was added to this final suspension $(1.5 \mu L/m)$ of suspension solution) and the bacterial preparation was incubated, undisturbed at RT (28°C) for 2-3 hrs. *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants were propagated under described greenhouse conditions (Martins et al., 1998) and used as plant material for all further agroinfiltrations. Normally 2-3 leaves (2-3 cm wide at mid-leaf) per plant were chosen for infiltration. Using 1 ml disposable syringe the bacterial cell suspension was gently infiltrated from the abaxial side of the chosen leaves. When correctly infiltrated, the leaves looked darker and water-soaked. It is a good idea to demarcate the region of infiltration with light pin-pricks. After the completion of infiltration the plants were kept under observation at 25°C, 8h/16h light/dark photoperiod for approximately 60 hrs before microscopic observations were performed. The infiltrated parts of the *N. benthaminana* plants were mounted in water and observed under epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioplan2 HB100) using the GFP (ex: D470/40; em: D535/40; beamsplitter 500 DCLP) and DsRed (ex: HQ545/30X; em: HQ610/75M, Q570LP) filter sets. Images of the required frames were captured using the attached camera (Zeiss AxioCam MRc5) and adjusted with the provided software (AxioVision).

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Characteristics of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 from the in silico expression analysis

The expression of certain genes may vary according to various states in organisms especially in plants. Whether the expression of polyadenylation factors in *Arabidopsis* is also variable was explored by analyzing microarray data. Expression data sets were obtained for 4 kinds of experimental variations in *Arabidopsis*: developmental stages, responses to abiotic stress, responses to chemical and hormonal treatment, and responses to biotic stress and differential light conditions. The data were downloaded from a public domain for microarray data (NASC) and plotted (Appendix: A2). Out of the 4 experimental conditions, results shown in Fig. 3.6 are the most remarkable. This figure shows that around the pollen development stage there is a gross difference in the expression of CstF64 and CstF77. This differential expression is emphasized in Fig. 3.6C, showing that the expression of CstF64 in pollen increases by almost 6 fold while the expression for CstF77 drops by almost 10 fold. Also noticeable to some extent (Fig 3.6B) is the increase in CstF77 expression in the seeds during embryo development by almost 3 fold. The expression data for the abiotic stress (Fig 3.7) shows a 2-3 fold increase in the expression of CstF64 during cold shock treatment to young seedlings. The expression data for the chemical and light conditions (Fig 3.8) shows a dramatic 8 fold increase in CstF77 expression in seeds undergoing imbibition, but gradually decreases with the concomitant increase in CstF64 (almost 4 fold) with time. The expression data for biotic stress (Fig 3.9) induced by pathogen and other elicitors in the leaf show no significant change in CstF64 and CstF77 expression.

3.3.2 C-terminal domain of AtCstF64 does not interact with AtFip1(V)

Few facts about the interaction between CstF64, CstF77 and Fip1 have already been brought out from past research (Table 3.2). For example, the conserved interaction between the hinge domain of CstF64 and pro-rich C-terminus of CstF77 has been established from yeasts to mammals (Takagaki and Manley, 1994; Kessler et al., 1996; Hatton et al., 2000; Takagaki and Manley, 2000; Bai et al., 2007). Also Forbes *et al* showed through another two-hybrid assay that the N-terminal domain of Fip1(V) does not interact with AtCstF64 but does so with the C-terminal domain of AtCstF77 (Forbes et al., 2006). So by filling in the gaps from these facts the interaction between the CTD of Fip1(V) with all the 3 parts of AtCstF64 is a matter of interest. Also to analyze in this process is the interaction between AtCstF64 and Fip1(III), another possible Arabidopsis homolog of Fip1 on the $3rd$ chromosome. All these interaction studies may give us a cursory insight into an important interaction "hub" in *Arabidopsis* polyadenylation machinery and hence can be extrapolated to the plant kingdom as well.

The C-terminal 300bp (100 residues) of the AtCstF64 coding region was introduced into the AD and BD vectors for use in two-hybrid assays. Fip $1(V)$ clones (Forbes et al., 2006) were obtained for this study. The standards for positive and the negative controls for the assays were the same ones used in Chapter 2. After transformation into competent yeast PJ69-4A cells and subsequent plating, the plates were scored for positive interactions in the selective medium (SC-HLW). The results (Table 3.2) showed that there were no interactions between the C-terminal end of CstF64 and N-terminal domain of $Fip1(V)$, C-terminal domain of $Fip1(V)$, full length $Fip1(III)$ and full length CstF77 (Fig 3.10). These results are preliminary, as controls that show that the CstF64 individual domains are expressed in yeast and can interact with some other protein were not done. However, tentatively, we may conclude that the interactions of AtCstF64 do not involve the C-terminal part of the protein.

3.3.3 The subcellular localization of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77

Functional characterization is an important part in the delineation of a gene and its product. Determining the cellular targeting signals and regions of subcellular accumulation can hence play a major role in this direction. Specifically, co-localization studies can provide potential insights into the behavior of one protein in close association with another. With the growing list of genes, the need for quick, simple and cost-effective analytical methods are in high demand and widely used. One such novel system of studying protein localization in plants is through infiltration of *N.benthamiana*, mediated by *A.tumefaciens*, transformed with suitable desired vectors. This system has been successfully used for studying different kinds of protein localization and interaction (Goodin M M et al., 2002) and hence was the choice system for studying the localization of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 in plants too. The controls that were used in this study were nuclear signal targeted pGD-GFP and pGD-DsRed (Nu_{GFP}, Nu_{DSR}) vectors and their respective empty vectors without any targeting sequences. Both AtCstF64 and AtCstF77 were individually cloned into the pGD vectors (pGDG and pGDR). All the controls and the test genes were tested in individual plant system. Expression of Nu_{GFP} and both the empty vectors (pGDG and pGDR) could easily be seen (Fig. 3.11) whereas the Nu_{DSR} construct yielded very poor expression (not shown). Readily-detectable levels of pGDR-64 (64_{DSR}) and pGDR-77 (77_{DSR}) could be seen as well (Fig. 3.12 and Fig. 3.13A). Interestingly, 64_{DSR} distribution was indistinguishable from pGDR alone (Fig. 3.12),

which might be due to the absence of any targeting sequence as predicted from its structural features. 77_{DSR} seems to accumulate in the nuclei (Fig. 3.13B, C, D), in accordance with the predicted nuclear targeting sequence present at the C-terminal end of the protein, much like that in other living systems (Bonneaud et al., 1994; Takagaki and Manley, 1994; Rouget et al., 2006). This was confirmed by co-expressing 77_{DSR} and Nu_{GFP}; the results showed a coincidence of distribution of the nuclear marker and 77_{DSR} (Fig. 3.13D).

3.4 Discussion

From the results described in this study, the functions of the CstF64 and CstF77 subunits of the CstF complex in 3'-end processing in plant pre-mRNAs, are starting to look intriguing. The *in silico* expression analysis has yielded some curious facts regarding the expression in pollen and seeds during the developmental phase. The first one that demands notice is the \sim 6 fold increase in CstF64 expression and \sim 10 fold decrease in CstF77 expression in pollen development. The comparatively higher expression of CstF64 is quite expected considering the major role of CstF64 in RNA binding and establishment of stability of the cleavage complex. But the drop in the expression of an equally important factor like CstF77 is an indication of an alternative mode of 3'-end processing in the male germ cells (pollen) much like the novel processing factor during spermatogenesis in mice (Wallace et al., 1999; Monarez et al., 2007). The same can be predicted about the sudden increase of CstF77 expression during embryonic development in seeds, where mobilization of seed storage proteins calls for heavy duty mRNA transcription and translation machinery. This might have some likeness to the role played by CstF77 during *Xenopus* oocyte maturation (Rouget et al., 2006), where the

cytoplasmic CstF77 masks the available mRNA till they are needed for translation. These facts necessitate the investigation of CstF77 and its function especially relating to pollen and seed development in plants.

The importance of CstF64 as a cleavage/polyadenylation factor has been established through various studies in other living systems, as already mentioned in the introducing literature. It not only affects cleavage complex assembly, stability and processivity, but also plays roles in other nuclear processes like transcription termination, nuclear transport, and stability of mRNA. The binding of CstF64 and its homologs in other organisms to RNA precursors and also interactions with other protein factors contribute to the functioning of the cellular processes. One such contact that seems unique to plants is with the Arabidopsis homolog of Fip1 $[Fig1(V)]$ protein. Fip1 is one of the major proteins which harbors a great deal of protein interactions and links cleavage to polyadenylation. In some cases, its major interaction with poly(A) polymerase (PAP) has been assumed to go so far as to increase the RNA binding affinity of PAP by itself binding to mRNA precursors (Kaufmann I et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006). But the rationale behind the interaction between AtFip1(V) and AtCstf64 has gone unexplained. Hence, it was imperative to gather an idea about the interaction domains responsible for this contact. Previous similar experiments have shown that the N-terminal 137 residues of Fip1 had interactions with PAP and AtCstF77 (Forbes et al., 2006; Hunt and Addepalli, 2008), whereas the remainaing C-terminal 789 residues interact with AtCstF64 and bind to RNA (Forbes et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). On the other hand, studies in two-hybrid system in here, show that the C-terminal $(\sim 100 \text{ residues})$ region of AtCstF64 failed to interact with not only the amino and carboxy end of $Affip1(V)$, but also $Affip1(III)$ and

AtCstF77. This brings us down to only 2 regions for interaction in AtCstF64 – the Nterminus RRM domain (\sim 150 residues) and the hinge region (\sim 85 residues), the latter of which have already been implicated to interact with CstF77 (Takagaki and Manley, 1994; Kessler et al., 1996; Hatton et al., 2000). Once solved, this will lend us some idea in defining the interaction pattern among these protein factors and bring forth one of the working models for it. Multiple interactions within the same domain will vote for a sequential model, where the factors interact at different stages of the process. Conversely, situation devoid of overlapping interaction domains will be more suggestive of a concurrent model, where the proteins exist in a multimeric complex and function at the same time as a unit.

One question that arises from the reported binding of AtFip1(V) to FUE (Forbes et al., 2006), is the possible candidate for binding at NUE and the endonuclease for the $poly(A)$ site. Binding of AtFip1(V) to precursor RNA and its interaction with AtCstF77 is analogous to that of hFip1, but binding at the GU-rich FUE sequence of pre-mRNA mimics the binding of Hrp1 at the PE in yeasts (Kessler et al., 1997; Gross and Moore, 2001; Kaufmann I et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006). These diverse interaction properties add to the uniqueness of the processing unit in plants. But how does the interaction between AtFip1(V) and AtCstF64 fit in the bigger puzzle? This might be answered with future endeavors in detailed characterization of AtCstF64 and one of its major interacting partners, AtCstF77.

The other question that is very crucial to the functioning of the whole CstF unit in plants is the binding of CstF64 to the available signal sequences especially NUE or other sequences within the pre-mRNA via its RRM-like RBD. Although there are numerous

candidates having the RNA-binding property, functional and sequence comparison with other organisms predict CstF64 to be the likely occupant of NUE (MacDonald et al., 1994; Hatton et al., 2000; Gross and Moore, 2001). Since, it is known from other sources that CstF64 binds RNA only in close interaction with other protein factors, it was necessary to find out the likely binding partners for it and their possible mechanism of interaction. One of such factors which have a conserved interaction with CstF64 and its homologs is CstF77 (Yao et al., 2002). But other than AtCstF64, AtCstF77 also interacts with AtFip1(V), AtCPSF30, AtPCF1, and AtPCF5 (Forbes et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2008). This indicates at possible role for AtCstF77 in controlling the endonuclease activity of AtCPSF30 with respect to its interaction with $Affip1(V)$. It might be an optimistic guess to assume that the interaction of $Affip1(V)$ with $AtCstF77$ releases its inhibitory effect on AtCPSF30 (Barabino et al., 1997; Tacahashi et al., 2003; Delaney et al., 2006; Forbes et al., 2006; Addepalli and Hunt, 2007) and thus, activates the nuclease property of the later for the cleavage action in times of need. Biochemical assays, *in vitro*, like EMSA could produce some probable answers to this type of interaction and also other interacting partners.

While *in vitro* studies say much about the canonical aspects of the proteins studied in here, experiments performed *in vivo* also demonstrate the actual functional aspects of AtCstF64 and AtCstF77. CstF64 lacks any organelle targeting sequence like NLS, but is nonetheless found in the nucleus (near Cajal bodies) in mammals (Schul et al., 1996). CstF77, which has a NLS, has been shown to be targeted to the nucleus in case of mammals and yeast (Rouget et al., 2006). In this study localization of AtCstF77 was

also found to be in the nucleus (Fig. 3.13). The Arabidopsis CstF64, expressed by itself (Fig 3.12), is located in the cytoplasm.

3.5 Conclusion

The dearth of knowledge about the cleavage/polyadenylation complex in plants opened a doorway to vast information resources. Scientists from then on have been working on unearthing these facts and building a coherent description of the mechanism behind the processing complex. From what has been known till now, it would be grossly wrong to draw a parallelism between the plant and the animal system. Studies in this discourse about *Arabidopsis* homologs of CstF64 and CstF77 add all the more to that existing uniqueness. Since the CstF complex, especially the CstF64 and CstF77 subunits, play a central role in 3'-end processing, any difference in their structural and/or functional characteristics suggests possible differences in the architecture of the processing unit in plants. Although the results in here are far from being conclusive, the discoveries made during the course of this study are pieces of a jigsaw puzzle that might help to unravel the 3²-end processing machinery within the plant kingdom. Even though the overall function of the system might be conserved in plants, structural differences starting from the cis-acting sequences to the trans-acting protein factors make cleavage and polyadenylation processes distinct in their own sense.

Figure 3.1: Schematic representation of CstF64 (A) from human and Rna15 (B) from yeast (*S.ceravisea*). The respective domains are depicted in the legend (for detailed functions of the domains refer to preceding text).

Figure 3.2: Amino acid sequence alignment and comparison of CstF64 and its homologs. The open reading frames encoded by human (C64_HUMAN, UniProtKB/TrEMBL P33240), yeast (RNA15_YEAST, UniProtKB/TrEMBL P25299) and Arabidopsis (C64_ARATH, UniProtKB/TrEMBL Q9M9G6) are compared using ClustalW and formatted using BoxShade. Residues which are identical in all three polypeptides are shaded in black, with white uppercase lettering. Positions that are similar are shaded in grey, with white uppercase lettering.

Figure 3.3: Schematic representation of CstF77 (A) from human and Rna14 (B) from yeast (*S.ceravisea*). The respective domains are shown in the legend (for details into the functional aspect of the domains refer to text).

Figure 3.4: Amino acid sequence alignment and comparison of CstF77 and its homologs. The open reading frames encoded by human (C77_HUMAN, UniProtKB/TrEMBL Q12996), yeast (RNA14_YEAST, UniProtKB/TrEMBL P25298) and Arabidopsis (C77_ARATH, UniProtKB/TrEMBL Q8GUP1) are compared using ClustalW and formatted using BoxShade. Residues which are identical in all three polypeptides are shaded in black, with white uppercase lettering. Positions that are similar are shaded in grey, with white uppercase lettering.

Figure 3.5: Schematic representation of the CstF subunit assembly with relation to other cleavage/polyadenylation factors and the pre-mRNA (detailed explanation to be found within text). CstF77 forms a dimer and bridges one unit each of CstF64 and CstF50 via its pro-rich domain and also makes contacts with the CPSF160 subunit via the HAT-C domain. (Adapted from Murthy and Manley, 1995; Takagaki and Manley, 2000; Bai *et al*, 2007).

Table 3.1: DNA oligonucleotides used in this study.

(B)

(A)

Figure 3.6: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* CstF subunits during developmental stage. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective CstF subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axes. The samples (including some WT and mutants) that are represented along the X-axes in (A) and (B): 1-7, root 7-21 days; 8-10, stem 7-21 days; 11-27, leaf 7-35 days; 28-38, whole plant 7-23 days; 39-49, shoot apex 7-21 days; 50-71, flowers and floral organs $21+$ days; 72-79, 8 week seeds and siliques. The normalized expression in mature pollen exclusively is depicted in (C).

Figure 3.7: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* CstF subunits during different abiotic stress conditions. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective CstF subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The samples that are represented along the X-axis: 1-18, control; 19-30, cold; 31-42, osmotic; 43-54, salt; 55-68, drought; 69-80, genotoxic; 81- 92, oxidative; 93-106, UV-B; 107-120, wound; 121-136, heat; 137-141, cell culture control; 142-149, cell culture with heat.

Figure 3.8: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* CstF subunits during chemical and hormonal treatments. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective CstF subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The various samples according to the chemical and hormonal treatments are represented along the X-axis. The arrows (\rightarrow) show the expression of CstF77 during imbibition of seeds.

Figure 3.9: Expression data analysis for *Arabidopsis* CstF subunits during biotic stress and differential light conditions. The data obtained from NASC was plotted as shown. The respective CstF subunits are color-coded in the legend. The expression values are represented along the Y-axis. The samples that are represented along the X-axis: 1-16, control and *Pseudomonas syringae* infection; 17-22, control and *Phytophthora* infection; 23-36, control and other elicitors; 37-52, dark and different light conditions.

Table 3.2: Results from the yeast two-hybrid interactions between CstF64 (N, H, C) and other *Arabidopsis* polyadenylation factors. 'X'= negative interaction, ' $\sqrt{ }$ '= positive interaction, '?'= interaction not yet performed. 'N'= N-terminal 150 amino acid residues, 'H'= Hinge domain 85 amino acid residues and 'C'= C-terminal 100 amino acid residues. Fip1(V)-N= N-terminal 161 amino acid residues, Fip1(V)-C= C-terminal 263 amino acid residues. (**Interaction with full length CstF64**, Adapted from Hunt *et al*, 2008)

Figure 3.10: Pairwise protein-protein interaction plates. The AD fusion protein and the BD fusion protein were co-transformed and dual transformants from the SC-LW plates (not shown) were grown on SC-HLW selection medium (as seen) with controls. The positive control $(+ve)$ is the interaction between CstF64 + CstF77 with 200% colony growth, negative control $(-ve)$ is the interaction between empty $AD + BD$ vectors with 0% colony growth. Positive test interactions are scored as **'√'** and negative interactions are scored as 'X' with respect to the controls.

Figure 3.11: Epifluorescence micrographs showing Agrobacterium mediated infiltration of N.benthamiana leaves with control plasmids expressing autofluorescent proteins GFP and DsRed. The controls are: (A) GFP expression in whole cell from pGDG (100X magnification). (B) DsRed expression in whole cell from pGDR (100X magnification). (C) Nuclear GFP expression from NuGFP (100X magnification).

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(B)

(A)

Figure 3.12: Epifluorescence micrographs showing Agrobacterium mediated infiltration of N.benthamiana leaves with 64_{DSR} plasmids expressing autofluorescent protein DsRed. (A) DsRed expression in whole cell from 64_{DSR} (100X magnification). (B) DsRed expression in whole cell from 64_{DSR} (200X magnification).

(A)

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Figure 3.13: Epifluorescence micrographs showing Agrobacterium mediated infiltration of N.benthamiana leaves with 77_{DSR} plasmids expressing autofluorescent protein DsRed. (A) DsRed expression in nucleus of cell from 77_{DSR} (100X magnification) (B) Nuclear GFP expression from NuGFP (100X magnification) (C) Nuclear DsRed expression from 77_{DSR} (100X magnification) (D) superimposed frame of (B) and (C). All of the snapshots are at the same frame.

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Appendices

A1: NASC keys and data for figures 2.4 – 2.6 in Chapter 2

Microarray sample key - developmental stage sample #tissue clutissue genotypeage **NASC sarPAPS1** PAPS2 PAPS3 PAPS4 1 root roots Wt 7 davs ATGE 3 1.0134 0.6095 0.3756 1.0743 17 days ATGE_9 1.3867 2 root roots Wt 1.015 0.7526 0.3654 3 root 15 days ATGE_93 0.6668 0.4334 0.3925 1.0022 root Wt 8 days ATGE_94 1.0379 1.2001 0.3715 2.252 4 root Wt root 5 root 8 days ATGE 95 0.9438 0.9815 0.4202 1.5959 root Wt 21 days ATGE 98 1.0742 1.0463 0.3799 1.9449 6 root root wt 21 days ATGE_99 0.9308 0.959 0.392 1.6232 7 root root Wt hypocotyl Wt 7 days ATGE_2 0.8437 0.4119 0.9013 8 stem 0.8686 9 stem 1st node Wt 21+ days ATGE 28 1.1237 0.9983 0.3901 1.1831 21+ days ATGE_27 10 stem stem, 2nd Wt 1.2069 1.7407 0.4504 1.7788 11 leaf cotyledon: Wt 7 days ATGE 1 1.2172 0.834 0.5054 0.6504 12 leaf leaves 1 +Wt 7 days ATGE₅ 0.9753 0.5587 0.4864 0.5509 13 leaf rosette le: Wt 10 days ATGE_10 0.6634 0.5674 0.4825 0.5833 14 leaf rosette leagl1-T 10 days ATGE_11 0.7655 0.7371 0.4801 0.6112 15 leaf 17 days ATGE 12 0.7036 rosette le: Wt 1.8177 1.1156 0.4672 16 leaf 17 days ATGE_13 1.1229 rosette le: Wt 1.7425 0.4589 0.6718 17 leaf rosette le: Wt 17 days ATGE 14 1.6258 1.1201 0.5119 0.6037 18 leaf rosette le: Wt 17 days ATGE_15 1.4995 0.9529 0.46 0.6269 19 leaf rosette le: Wt 17 days ATGE 16 0.5483 1.0384 1.0069 0.5134 17 days ATGE 17 20 leaf rosette le:Wt 0.787 0.8328 0.4789 0.5355 21 leaf rosette le: gl1-T 17 days ATGE_18 0.7534 0.9798 0.4785 0.6903 22 leaf leaf 7, pet Wt 17 days ATGE_19 0.9997 0.936 0.4652 0.5839 leaf 7, prc Wt 23 leaf 17 days ATGE 20 1.2746 1.1624 0.5508 0.585 24 leaf leaf 7, dis Wt 17 days ATGE_21 0.6579 1.9226 1.3592 0.4928 25 leaf leaf Wt 15 days ATGE 91 0.6827 0.9428 0.5731 0.7812 26 leaf senescing Wt 35 days ATGE 25 1.4141 2.2325 0.4002 1.9512 27 leaf cauline le: Wt 21+ days ATGE_26 1.6881 1.7299 0.4712 1.1133 28 whole plarseedling, Wt 7 days ATGE_7 0.9601 0.9348 0.4433 0.9245 29 whole plarseedling, Wt 8 days ATGE 96 1.2678 1.5137 0.4291 0.7952 30 whole plarseedling, Wt 8 days ATGE 97 0.8415 0.9607 0.7609 0.437 31 whole plarseedling, Wt 21 days ATGE_100 1.1608 1.2561 0.4571 0.9728 32 whole plarseedling, Wt 21 days ATGE_101 1.0088 1.2567 0.4734 1.001

Microarray sample key - abiotic stress

Microarray sample key - chemical and hormonal treatment

Microarray sample key - biotic stress and light conditions

A2: NASC keys and data for figures 3.6 – 3.9 in Chapter 3

Microarray sample key - abiotic stress

Microarray sample key - chemical and hormonal treatment

Microarray sample key - biotic stress and light conditions

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