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Protein–Precursor tRNA Contact Leads to Sequence-Specific Recognition of 5′ Leaders by Bacterial Ribonuclease P

Kristin S. Koutmou[1]†, **Nathan H. Zahler**[1]†, **Jeffrey C. Kurz**[1], **Frank E. Campbell**[2,3], **Michael E. Harris**[2,3] and **Carol A. Fierke**[1,4]*

[1]*Department of Chemistry, University of Michigan, 930 North University Avenue, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA*

[2]*Center for RNA Molecular Biology, Case Western Reserve University, 10900 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, OH 44106-4973, USA*

[3]*Department of Biochemistry, Case Western Reserve University, 10900 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, OH 44106-4973, USA*

[4]*Department of Biological Chemistry, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA*

Bacterial ribonuclease P (RNase P) catalyzes the cleavage of 5′ leader sequences from precursor tRNAs (pre-tRNAs). Previously, all known substrate nucleotide specificities in this system are derived from RNA–RNA interactions with the RNase P RNA subunit. Here, we demonstrate that pre-tRNA binding affinities for *Bacillus subtilis* and *Escherichia coli* RNase P are enhanced by sequence-specific contacts between the fourth pre-tRNA nucleotide on the 5′ side of the cleavage site (N(−4)) and the RNase P protein (P protein) subunit. *B. subtilis* RNase P has a higher affinity for pre-tRNA with adenosine at N(−4), and this binding preference is amplified at physiological divalent ion concentrations. Measurements of pre-tRNA-containing adenosine analogs at N(−4) indicate that specificity arises from a combination of hydrogen bonding to the N6 exocyclic amine of adenosine and steric exclusion of the N2 amine of guanosine. Mutagenesis of *B. subtilis* P protein indicates that F20 and Y34 contribute to selectivity at N(−4). The hydroxyl group of Y34 enhances selectivity, likely by forming a hydrogen bond with the N(−4) nucleotide. The sequence preference of *E. coli* RNase P is diminished, showing a weak preference for adenosine and cytosine at N(−4), consistent with the substitution of Leu for Y34 in the *E. coli* P protein. This is the first identification of a sequence-specific contact between P protein and pre-tRNA that contributes to molecular recognition of RNase P. Additionally, sequence analyses reveal that a greater-than-expected fraction of pre-tRNAs from both *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* contains a nucleotide at N(−4) that enhances RNase P affinity. This observation suggests that specificity at N(−4) contributes to substrate recognition *in vivo*. Furthermore, bioinformatic analyses suggest that sequence-specific contacts between the protein subunit and the leader sequences of pre-tRNAs may be common in bacterial RNase P and may lead to species-specific substrate recognition.

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Corresponding author. Department of Chemistry, University of Michigan, 930 North University Avenue, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA. E-mail address: fierke@umich.edu.

† K.S.K. and N.H.Z. contributed equally to this work.

Present address: J. C. Kurz, Archemix Corp., 300 Third Street, Cambridge, MA 02142, USA.

Abbreviations used: RNase P, ribonuclease P; pre-tRNA, precursor tRNA; P protein, RNase P protein; PRNA, RNase P RNA; trFRET, time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer; $[Ca^{2+}]_f$, free Ca^{2+}; 2AP, 2-aminopurine; DAP, 2,6-diaminopurine; Mes, 4-morpholineethanesulfonic acid; NIH, National Institutes of Health.

Introduction

Throughout phylogeny, the 5′ leaders of precursor tRNA (pre-tRNA) molecules are endonucleolytically removed by ribonuclease P (RNase P) (for a review, see Smith *et al.*,[1] Kirsebom,[2] and Christian *et al.*[3]). In Bacteria, RNase P is comprised a single ~400-nucleotide RNase P RNA (PRNA) subunit that is catalytic *in vitro* and a single small (~120 amino acids) protein subunit (P protein) required for activity *in vivo*. The RNA and protein components function synergistically in both substrate recognition and catalysis, and exhibit a broad substrate

specificity.[4–9] In species such as *Bacillus subtilis* and *Escherichia coli*, RNase P recognizes and correctly processes the products of more than 80 pre-tRNA genes.[10,11] Intriguingly, the substrate pools in both of these species include pre-tRNAs that lack multiple known RNase P recognition elements, suggesting the possibility that additional recognition elements remain to be identified.[5,10–12]

Previous studies have established that both the PRNA subunit and the P protein subunit of RNase P contribute to molecular recognition of pre-tRNA substrates. PRNA contacts substrates through both base-pairing and backbone interactions, including interactions with 2′ hydroxyls in the acceptor stem and the D stem loop.[13] Proximal to the cleavage site, PRNA base pairs with the first pre-tRNA nucleotide on the 5′ side of the cleavage site (N (−1))[12,14] and the 3′ RCCA substrate motif,[15,16] and recognizes functional groups in the closing base pair of the tRNA acceptor stem.[2,12,17–20] These interactions contribute to efficient catalysis, cleavage site specificity, and high substrate binding affinity. Multiple lines of evidence indicate that the P protein subunit contacts the 5′ leader of pre-tRNA substrates.[5,17,19,21–23] Furthermore, the interaction between the *B. subtilis* P protein and the pre-tRNA leader increases the binding affinity for substrates with increasing leader length.[21,24] Biochemical investigations indicate that the leader contacts side chains located in a large cleft formed by the central β-sheet and an α-helix of P protein (Fig. 1a).[19,22–25] Time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer (trFRET) experiments, affinity-cleavage assays, and molecular modeling indicate that this cleft is proximal to the second through seventh positions on the 5′ side of the cleavage site (N(−2) through N(−7)).[19,24] Impor-

tantly, unlike PRNA, no specific interactions between P protein and pre-tRNA have been identified or characterized to date.

RNase P protein also modulates the cation requirements for RNase P function.[26,27] P protein enhances the apparent affinities of the RNase P holoenzyme for Mg^{2+} ions that contribute to substrate binding and catalysis[28] and alters the Mn^{2+} rescue of phosphorothioate substitutions in PRNA helix P4, a catalytically important divalent metal binding site.[3,29–32] Biochemical studies suggest that the effects on metal affinity are related to the role of P protein as a structural linchpin in the RNase P holoenzyme–substrate complex, interacting with the pre-tRNA leader, helping to organize the active site, and enhancing reactivity under physiological conditions.[19,33,34]

An additional function of P protein is to enhance the ability of RNase P to recognize a wide variety of naturally occurring, noncanonical pre-tRNA substrates.[5] For *E. coli* RNase P, interactions between P protein and the 5′ leader of pre-tRNA increase both substrate affinity and single-turnover cleavage rate constants in a sequence-dependent manner.[5,29,33] The binding and catalytic enhancements specific for a 5′ leader sequence are transferable between substrates, independent of the tRNA sequence.[5] Overall, these observations suggest that interactions between P protein and substrate leaders contribute to substrate specificity; however, the molecular basis for this discrimination remains to be determined.

Here, we investigate the sequence specificity of interactions between bacterial RNase P and the 5′ leaders of pre-tRNA substrates using a combination of biochemical and genomic analyses. These data demonstrate that both the *B. subtilis* and the *E. coli* RNase P holoenzymes display nucleotide preferences at position N(−4) of pre-tRNA^AsP that
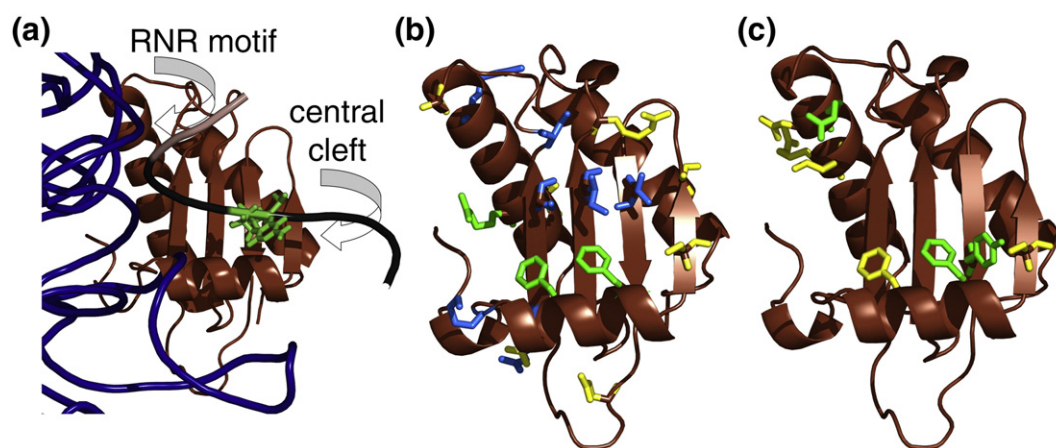

Fig. 1. Interaction of the 5′ leader of pre-tRNA with *B. subtilis* P protein in RNase P. (a) Modeled structure of the interface between the pre-tRNA leader and P protein based on affinity cleavage,[19] showing the backbone of PRNA (blue), P protein (red), the mature tRNA domain of the substrate (brown), and the pre-tRNA 5′ leader (black). The nucleotide at pre-tRNA position N(−4) is shown in green; P protein regions are labeled. (b) *B. subtilis* P protein crystal structure showing sites where single-cysteine mutations alter the value of $K_{d,obs}$ for pre-tRNA^AsP. The side-chain color reflects the magnitude of the effect of the mutation on the value of $K_{d,obs}$: yellow, ≤3-fold increase; blue, 3- to 25-fold increase; green, >25-fold increase. (c) The effect of alanine mutations on the binding selectivity for A(−4) relative G(−4) mapped onto the structure of the P protein. Alanine mutations that do not alter the binding specificity ratio are highlighted in yellow, and those that abolish the sequence preference at N(−4) are shown in green.

contribute to substrate molecular recognition. Analysis of modified adenosine analogs at N(−4) demonstrates that the sequence preferences of *B. subtilis* RNase P at this position result from positive interactions with the N6 exocyclic amine of adenosine and unfavorable interactions with the N2 amine of guanosine. Furthermore, binding studies with P protein mutants reveal that the hydroxyl group of amino acid residue Y34 is required for sequence-specific recognition in *B. subtilis* RNase P. The nucleotide preferences observed *in vitro* for *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* RNase P are reflected in the sequences of pre-tRNA genes in these species, consistent with nucleotide selectivity at N(−4) contributing to substrate recognition *in vivo*. Extrapolation from tRNA gene sequence analysis suggests that such preferences are present in the majority of bacterial species, but are likely variable between species.

Results

Pre-tRNA affinities of *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* RNase P depend on the nucleotide at N(−4)

There is growing evidence suggesting that sequence-specific interactions between the 5′ leader of pre-tRNA and bacterial P protein enhance substrate binding affinity and/or cleavage rates, although no specific contacts have yet been identified. Previously, the thermodynamics and kinetics of pre-tRNA associating with *B. subtilis* RNase P suggested that the fourth (N(−4)) and the fifth (N(−5)) nucleotides on the 5′ side of the cleavage site in the pre-tRNA leader interact with the P protein.[21,24] Consistent with this, structural models of the *B. subtilis* RNase P holoenzyme based on affinity cleavage and trFRET measurements place N(−4) and N(−5) near the central cleft of the protein (Fig. 1a).[19,24] For *B. subtilis* RNase P, interactions between the pre-tRNA[Asp] leader and P protein manifest primarily in substrate binding affinity.[21] Therefore, to evaluate sequence-specific interactions between *B. subtilis* RNase P and the pre-tRNA leader, we measured binding affinities

for pre-tRNA[Asp] with 4- and 5-nucleotide-long 5′ leaders with 2 mM free Ca^{2+} ($[Ca^{2+}]_f$) using centrifuge size-exclusion chromatography. Ca^{2+} was used in lieu of Mg^{2+} because it stabilizes RNase P folding and substrate binding with little activation of catalytic activity, allowing equilibrium measurements of substrate affinity.[21,35] In addition, this Ca^{2+} concentration approximates physiological concentrations of labile Mg^{2+} in Bacteria.[33,36,37]

The binding affinity of *B. subtilis* RNase P for pre-tRNA bearing 4-nucleotide leader sequences varies with the nucleobase at N(−4), suggesting a sequence-specific interaction at this position (Table 1). In contrast, mutations at N(−5) in substrates with 5-nucleotide leaders alter the binding affinity by less than 2-fold (data not shown). *B. subtilis* RNase P binds A(−4) pre-tRNA 20-fold more tightly than the G(−4) substrate, and binds the C(−4) and U(−4) substrates with intermediate affinity (Table 1; Fig. 2a). Similar measurements demonstrate that *E. coli* RNase P also exhibits a sequence preference at N(−4) of pre-tRNA[Asp] (Table 1); however, in this species, the observed preference engenders a higher binding affinity for A(−4) and C(−4) pre-tRNAs relative to that for G(−4) and U(−4), and the overall preference is 5-fold. Thus, recognition of the base at N(−4) contributes to substrate affinity in both species.

The affinity of RNase P for pre-tRNA is stabilized by multiple divalent cations, and the P protein subunit has been shown to enhance the apparent affinities of these cations.[28,29] Therefore, we examined whether the sequence-specific interaction between P protein and N(−4) is influenced by the divalent metal ion concentration. The affinity of *B. subtilis* RNase P for A(−4) pre-tRNA increases (4-fold) as the Ca^{2+} concentration increases from 2 mM to 5 mM (Fig. 2c). In contrast, the affinity for the G(−4) substrate increases 65-fold over the same range (Fig. 2c); the dependence of $K_{d,obs}$ on $[Ca^{2+}]_f$ is well-described by a cooperative binding isotherm (Eq. (1)), yielding a Hill coefficient (n_H) of 5.5 ± 0.5 and a midpoint for the transition ($K_{1/2,Ca}$) of 4.5 ± 0.5 mM. The modest increase in the Hill coefficient

Table 1. Effects of altering the nucleobase at N(−4) in *B. subtilis* pre-tRNA[Asp] on RNase P substrate affinity

Substrate	Leader Sequence[a]	*B. subtilis* $K_{d, obs}$ (nM)[b]		*E. coli* $K_{d, obs}$ (nM)[b]
		2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$	3.5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$	2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$
A(-4)	5′-**A**CAU	9±2	5±2	35±8
G(-4)	5′-**G**CAU	200±20	11±3	170±60
U(-4)	5′-**U**CAU	70±10	8±1	100±30
C(-4)	5′-**C**CAU	150±50	6±1	54±9
P(-4)	5′-**P**CAU	30±7	nd[c]	nd[c]
DAP(-4)	5′-**DAP**CAU	40±7	nd[c]	nd[c]
2AP(-4)	5′-**2AP**CAU	170±40	nd[c]	nd[c]

[a] Position N(−4) is highlighted.
[b] Conditions: 50 mM Mes and 50 mM Tris (pH 6.0) at 37 °C and indicated $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. [KCl] was adjusted to maintain ionic strength, as described in Materials and Methods.
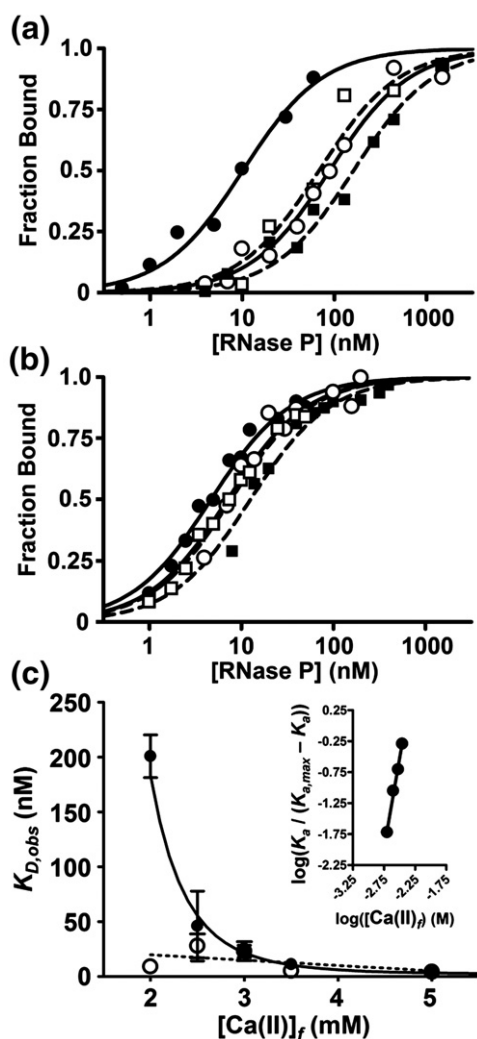[c] Not determined.

Fig. 2. Dependence of pre-tRNA binding affinity on both the nucleotide at N(−4) and calcium concentration. Representative binding isotherms for RNase P binding to pre-tRNA^{Asp} with varying sequences at N(−4) at 2 mM (a) and 3.5 mM (b) $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. Fraction substrate bound was measured using centrifuge gel-filtration chromatography in 50 mM Mes and 50 mM Tris (pH 6.0) at 37 °C, with KCl concentrations adjusted to maintain ionic strength at 410 mM. Data in (a) and (b) for A(−4) (filled circles; continuous line), U(−4) (open circles; continuous line), C (−4) (open squares; broken line), and G(−4) (filled squares, broken line) are fitted with a single binding isotherm. (c) $K_{d,obs}$ values for A(−4) (open circles) and G(−4) (filled circles) substrates as a function of $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. Error bars represent the standard deviation of at least three independent trials. The continuous line is the fit of Eq. (1) to the G(−4) data; a broken line shows the best linear fit to the A(−4) data. Inset: Hill plot of data for G(−4) between 2 mM and 5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$.

for the metal dependence of substrate affinity compared to previous measurements ($n_H = 4 \pm 1$ for pre-tRNA^{Asp} with 2- and 3-nucleotide leaders)[28] most likely results from differences in substrate structure and solution conditions (e.g., Mg^{2+} *versus* Ca^{2+}). These results indicate that the affinity of the G(−4) substrate is coupled to the binding of multiple

Ca^{2+} ions with dissociation constants in the millimolar range. If the same set of metal ions also stabilizes the binding of the A(−4) substrate, the affinity of the metal ions must be significantly higher. Functionally, this dependence leads to a significant reduction in sequence selectivity at higher divalent cation concentrations (10–25 mM) frequently used to measure RNase P activity (see Smith *et al.*,[1] Christian *et al.*,[3] and Harris and Christian[38] and references therein), although the overall pattern of nucleotide preference is retained (Fig. 2b). In Bacteria, the physiological concentration of available Mg^{2+} has been estimated at 2 mM or lower *in vivo*.[37] Thus, the coupling of sequence specificity with divalent metal binding results in sequence selectivity at physiological cation concentrations.

RNase P recognizes two functional groups in the N(−4) nucleobase

To define the interactions between *B. subtilis* RNase P and the N(−4) nucleobase that contribute to sequence selectivity, we prepared pre-tRNA with adenosine analogs incorporated at N(−4). These analogs systematically alter the presentation of exocyclic amines along the adenosine Watson–Crick face (for structures, see Fig. S1 in Supplementary Data), including the following: purine (P(−4)), 2-aminopurine (2AP(−4)), and 2,6-diaminopurine (DAP(−4)).[39] The binding affinity of *B. subtilis* RNase P for pre-tRNA-containing adenosine analogs at N(−4) indicates that recognition of adenosine involves two distinct functional groups (Table 1). Removal of the N6 exocyclic amine by incorporation of purine (P(−4)) decreases the binding affinity by 3-fold compared to A(−4) pre-tRNA, indicating a positive interaction likely caused by the formation of a hydrogen bond with the N6 amine. Additionally, the DAP substitution at N(−4) decreases the binding affinity by 4-fold, demonstrating an unfavorable interaction with the N2 amine of this modified base (such as a steric clash) and, by extension, with the N2 exocyclic amine of a guanosine at this position. The 2AP analog combines these two structural changes, removal of the N6 exocyclic amine and addition of the N2 exocyclic amine, leading to a decrease in the affinity of RNase P for 2AP(−4) pre-tRNA by 19-fold. The decrease in binding affinity for the 2AP substitution is consistent with the additive effect of each of the two individual interactions. Furthermore, the affinity of the 2AP(−4) substrate is comparable to that of G(−4) (Table 1), suggesting that the differential binding affinities for the A(−4) and G(−4) substrates can be accounted for by interactions with these two functional groups.

B. subtilis P protein side chains contribute to pre-tRNA affinity and sequence specificity

Structural models of the RNase P·pre-tRNA complex place nucleotides N(−2) through N(−7) of the pre-tRNA leader near the P protein central cleft and RNR motif[19,22,24] (Fig. 1a). To identify P protein

Table 2. Affinities of *B. subtilis* RNase P reconstituted with wild-type and mutant P proteins for A(−4) and G(−4) pre-tRNA[Asp]

Protein	$K_{d,obs}$ (nM) at 3.5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$ [a]		
	G(−4)	A(−4)	G(−4)/A(−4)
Wild type	11 ± 3	5 ± 1	2.2
F16A	380 ± 70	260 ± 90	1.5
F16C	285 ± 63	112 ± 54	2.5
F20A	39 ± 11	38 ± 13	1.0
S25A	43 ± 16	14 ± 5	3.1
Y34A	32 ± 11	57 ± 33	0.6
R60A	44 ± 13	68 ± 19	0.6
N61A	51 ± 21	35 ± 17	1.5
K64A	60 ± 21	33 ± 12	1.8
R65A	155 ± 40	73 ± 22	2.1

[a] Conditions: 50 mM Mes and 50 mM Tris (pH 6.0) at 37 °C and 3.5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. About 400 mM [KCl] was used to maintain ionic strength, as described in Materials and Methods.

side chains that potentially contact pre-tRNA, we measured the pre-tRNA binding affinity of RNase P reconstituted with a library of mutant P proteins. In a preliminary screen, we measured dissociation constants for a single pre-tRNA construct (G(−4)) under one set of assay conditions (3.5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$) using a previously prepared library of single-cysteine P protein mutants. This library includes mutations in the central cleft, RNR motif, and metal binding loop (Fig. 1b) of P protein that do not disrupt RNase P catalytic activity.[19,21] Although it is possible that some of these mutations, such as F16C and F20C, could alter the structure of the P protein in the holoenzyme complex, the unperturbed single-turnover cleavage rate constants[19,21] suggest that the structure of the RNase P·pre-tRNA complex is not significantly altered. Measurements using RNase P reconstituted with mutant P proteins (Table S1 in Supplementary Data) identified P protein residues that disrupt pre-tRNA affinity. Mapping the magnitude of the observed effects onto a structure of the P protein (Fig. 1b) reveals that mutations in the P protein central cleft (K12, A27, V32, R45, S49, S51, and I86) and the RNR motif (R62) decrease pre-tRNA binding affinity by 3- to 15-fold (Fig. 1b). Additionally, three mutations—F16C, F20C, and R68C—increase the $K_{d,obs}$ for G(−4) pre-tRNA by at least 25-fold. Both F16 and F20 are located on the α-helix that forms a portion of the central cleft and are positioned suitably to interact with the 5′ leader, as inferred by structural models (Fig. 1a).[19,24] The third highly perturbing mutation R68C is in the RNR motif and is proximal to PRNA and N(−2) in structural models.[19,24] Overall, these data indicate that residues in the central cleft and the RNR motif are important for pre-tRNA affinity, consistent with cross-linking, affinity cleavage, and trFRET studies that place the 5′ leader near these regions of the protein.[22,24]

To test the importance of interactions between side chains in the central cleft and the RNR motif with pre-tRNA, we prepared a series of alanine mutations in P protein and measured the binding affinities of the mutant RNase P enzymes for A (−4) and G(−4) pre-tRNAs (Table 2). Alanine mutations were incorporated into P protein sites identified by cysteine scanning mutagenesis (F16, F20), as well as into additional amino acids in the central cleft (S25 and Y34) and the RNR motif (R60, N61, K64, and R65). Pre-tRNA binding was evaluated in 3.5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$ to permit measurement of weak pre-tRNA affinities. However, under these conditions, the A(−4)/G(−4) pre-tRNA selectivity ratio $[K_{d,obs}^{G(-4)}/K_{d,obs}^{A(-4)}]$ is only 2-fold for wild-type RNase P (Fig. 2b), allowing only a qualitative analysis of mutations that affect selectivity.

All of the alanine point mutations in the P protein decrease the affinity of RNase P for both G(−4) and A(−4) pre-tRNAs (Table 2); the effect of these mutations on pre-tRNA affinity is equal to (F16) or less than (F20, S25) the decreases observed for cysteine substitutions at the same position (Fig. 1b). The affinity of RNase P for A(−4) pre-tRNA is decreased >10-fold by four mutations (F16A, Y34A, R60A, and R65A) and 5- to 8-fold by four other mutations (F20A, N61A, K64A). These data are consistent with the cysteine scanning study and confirm that the central cleft and the RNR motif of the P protein contribute to the pre-tRNA affinity of RNase P. Additionally, several P protein mutations alter the pre-tRNA substrate selectivity observed at N(−4). As expected for mutations that disrupt favorable contacts with adenosine at N(−4), three mutations (F20A, Y34A, and R60A) cause a 2- to 3-fold larger decrease in the affinity of A(−4) pre-tRNA compared to that of G(−4) pre-tRNA, causing the A(−4)/G(−4) selectivity ratio to decrease to ≤1. This loss in selectivity was confirmed by substrate affinity measurements at 2.0 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. Under these conditions, the A(−4)/G(−4) selectivity ratio decreases from a value of 22 for wild-type RNase P to a value of 2 for RNase P reconstituted with F20A and Y34A P protein (Table 3). The selectivity ratio at 3.5 mM calcium also decreases modestly (to 1.5) for two other mutations (F16A and N61A). However, changes in selectivity for these mutations are not confirmed by measurement of either the selectivity ratio of the F16C mutant (Table 2) or the affinity of the N61A mutant for DAP(−4) pre-tRNA in 3.5 mM Ca^{2+} (134 ± 43 μM). Mapping the magnitude of the

Table 3. Affinities of *B. subtilis* RNase P reconstituted with wild-type and mutant P proteins for pre-tRNA[Asp] with nucleotide substitutions at N(−4)

Protein	$K_{d,obs}$ (nM) at 2.0 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$ [a]			
	G(−4)	P(−4)	DAP(−4)	A(−4)
Wild type	200 ± 20	30 ± 7	40 ± 7	9 ± 2
F20A	400 ± 90	200 ± 30	210 ± 30	165 ± 25
Y34A	210 ± 70	100 ± 25	100 ± 25	140 ± 50
Y34F	110 ± 30	50 ± 5	50 ± 10	60 ± 15

[a] Conditions: 50 mM Mes and 50 mM Tris (pH 6.0) at 37 °C and 2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$. About 425 mM [KCl] was used to adjust/maintain ionic strength, as described in Materials and Methods.

selectivity ratios onto the P protein structure (Fig. 1c) reveals that the largest decreases in the selectivity ratio are caused by mutations in hydrophobic side chains located in the central cleft (F20 and Y34), presumably near the pre-tRNA leader,[19,34] and in a conserved side chain in the RNR motif (R60), a region of the protein distal to the 5' leader in structural models (Fig. 1a). These side chains may play a role in the nucleobase selectivity of RNase P for N(−4) pre-tRNA.

To identify the mechanism of sequence selectivity, we further characterized the properties of the mutations with the largest effects on N(−4) selectivity (F20A, Y34A, and R60A). Single-turnover assays catalyzed by saturating RNase P [0.5 mM $MgCl_2$ and 2 mM $Co[NH_3]_6 \cdot Cl_3$, pH 7] indicate that mutations in the central cleft (F20A, Y34A, and Y34F) of P protein alter the observed cleavage rate constant by ≤2-fold. Therefore, these mutations affect only the pre-tRNA binding affinity. However, the R60A mutation in the RNR motif decreases the observed single-turnover rate constant by 3-fold under these same conditions, suggesting that side chains in the RNR motif may contribute to pre-tRNA sequence specificity differently from side chains in the central cleft.

To examine whether residues in the RNR motif and the central cleft enhance pre-tRNA affinity by interacting with the 5' leader and/or tRNA, we measured the binding affinity of *B. subtilis* RNase P mutants for mature tRNA^{Asp}. Wild-type RNase P has a significantly weaker affinity for mature tRNA^{Asp}, compared to pre-tRNA^{Asp}, even at elevated calcium concentrations ($K_{d,obs} = 370 \pm 80$ nM at 3.5 mM Ca^{2+}).[21] This binding affinity is largely unperturbed by four mutations in the central cleft of P protein (V32C, S51C, Y34A, and I86C; $K_{d,obs} = 250–400$ nM), suggesting that the decrease in pre-tRNA affinity is due to disruption of an interaction with the pre-tRNA leader. Conversely, the R60A mutation in the RNR motif decreases the affinity of RNase P for mature tRNA by >8-fold (R60A, $K_{d,obs} > 1200$ nM; wild-type, $K_{d,obs} = 140 \pm 100$ nM, at 5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$). The fact that this decrease approaches the loss of A(−4) pre-tRNA affinity caused by the R60A mutation (14-fold; Table 2) suggests that the R60 side chain interacts mainly with the tRNA portion of the substrate, and not with the 5' leader. Overall, these data are consistent with amino acid residues in the central cleft of P protein contributing to affinity and N(−4) specificity through direct contacts with the 5' leader, while amino acids in the RNR motif likely influence selectivity through positioning of bound tRNA. These differential mechanisms are consistent with the locations of the two regions of the P protein in the structural model of the RNase P·pre-tRNA complex.[24,40]

Y34 and F20 contribute to the recognition of adenosine functional groups at N(−4)

To further probe the possibility of direct interactions between the side chains of P protein residues F20 and Y34 and the N(−4) nucleobase, we measured the binding affinities for RNase P reconstituted with F20A or Y34A P protein mutants for pre-tRNA-containing adenosine analogs at N(−4) (Table 3). As described above, the affinity of wild-type RNase P for A(−4) pre-tRNA is 3-, 4-, and 22-fold higher than that for P(−4), DAP(−4), and G(−4) pre-tRNA, respectively. Relative to the wild-type enzyme, the affinity of F20A and Y34A RNase P enzymes for P(−4) and DAP(−4) pre-tRNA decreases by 3- to 6-fold. The resulting affinities are comparable to that of A(−4) pre-tRNA (Table 3), indicating a loss of both favorable interactions with the N6 position and unfavorable interactions with an N2 exocyclic amine of an adenosine at N(−4). The F20 and Y34 side chains may contribute to these interactions either through a direct contact with the N(−4) nucleobase or by contributing to the correct positioning of the 5' leaders in the enzyme–substrate complex. To distinguish between these possibilities, we examined the role of the hydroxyl of Y34, a possible hydrogen-bonding partner for the N6 amine of an adenosine at N(−4). The Y34F mutation in P protein also decreases A(−4) pre-tRNA binding affinity, although to a smaller extent than the Y34A mutation (Table 3). Furthermore, removal of the Y34 hydroxyl group results in a loss of binding selectivity for A(−4) pre-tRNA compared to the P(−4), DAP(−4), and G(−4) pre-tRNA substrates (Table 3). Overall, the A(−4)/G(−4) selectivity ratio is decreased from 22- to 2-fold for this mutant (Fig. 3). This result suggests that Y34 may form a hydrogen bond with A(−4), perhaps as an acceptor for the N6 exocyclic amine, and that the energetic contribution of this contact may supersede the importance of any stacking interaction between the Y34 phenyl group and the A(−4) purine ring in conferring substrate specificity. Although RNase P is able to bind substrates with any nucleotide at position N(−4), the contact with Y34 confers an energetic preference for A over G at this position, which, in turn, is transduced into the recognition of certain pre-tRNAs. This contact is one of many
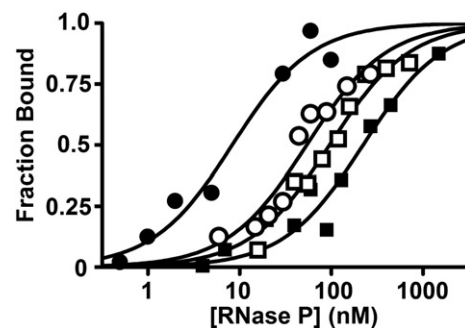

Fig. 3. Binding preferences at N(−4) of pre-tRNA depend on Tyr34 in the P protein subunit. Isotherms for the binding of *B. subtilis* RNase P to N(−4) pre-tRNA^{Asp} were measured as described in the legend to Fig. 2 at 2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$ for wild-type RNase P (closed symbols) and for the Y34F mutant of RNase P (open symbols) with A(−4) pre-tRNA (circle) and G(−4) pre-tRNA (square).

interactions that contribute to the specificity of RNase P for pre-tRNAs and a limited set of other substrates. However, if this sequence preference for A relative to G at N(−4) is also observed in pre-tRNA genes, then this interaction may be crucial for the specific recognition of pre-tRNA substrates by *B. subtilis* RNase P *in vivo*.

Analysis of nucleotide enrichments in pre-tRNA gene sequences

In the absence of conflicting evolutionary constraints, sequence-specific interactions between RNase P and pre-tRNA leaders could influence the nucleotide composition of pre-tRNA genes at contacted positions. Similarly, in the presence of multiple factors that influence the selection of pre-tRNA leader sequences, RNase P and pre-tRNA substrate populations may evolve in parallel. In this case, RNase P and pre-tRNA substrates from a given species may form a "matched set" with the molecular recognition properties of the enzyme tuned to a specific substrate population, and these nucleotide preferences may be observable in the sequences of pre-tRNA genes. Evidence indicating that this type of mechanism links RNase P substrate recognition and pre-tRNA gene sequences comes from the interaction between a conserved nucleotide in the J5/15 region of PRNA and the N(−1) position of pre-tRNA. *In vitro*, this interaction favors a U at N (−1), and the pre-tRNA genes from diverse Bacteria and Archaea show significant enrichment of U at this position.[14]

To explore the possibility that RNase P selectivity at N(−4) contributes to recognition of pre-tRNA substrates *in vivo*, we examined whether the nucleotide composition of pre-tRNA genes at N (−4) from *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* correlates with binding affinity preferences observed *in vitro*. Positions in pre-tRNA 5′ leaders from *B. subtilis* and *E. coli*, where one or more nucleotides are significantly enriched relative to the background nucleotide composition of the genome, were identified using background-corrected information analysis.[41–43] This method quantifies nucleotide enrichments in terms of information (expressed in bits). Results of this type of analysis are commonly represented as "sequence logo" plots, where the total bar height indicates the degree to which a position differs from background and where the relative heights of letters represent the nucleotide composition at the position.[41–43] Predicted tRNA genes were identified using tRNAscan SE,[10] and leader nucleotides N(−15) through N(−1) were determined. The background nucleotide composition in regions of the genome proximal to pre-tRNA genes was estimated from the combined nucleotide frequencies at positions N(−1) through N(−15) for all tRNA genes. Uncertainties in information content were calculated based on this background distribution,[42] and the statistical significance of observed nucleotide enrichments was determined using chi-square analysis.
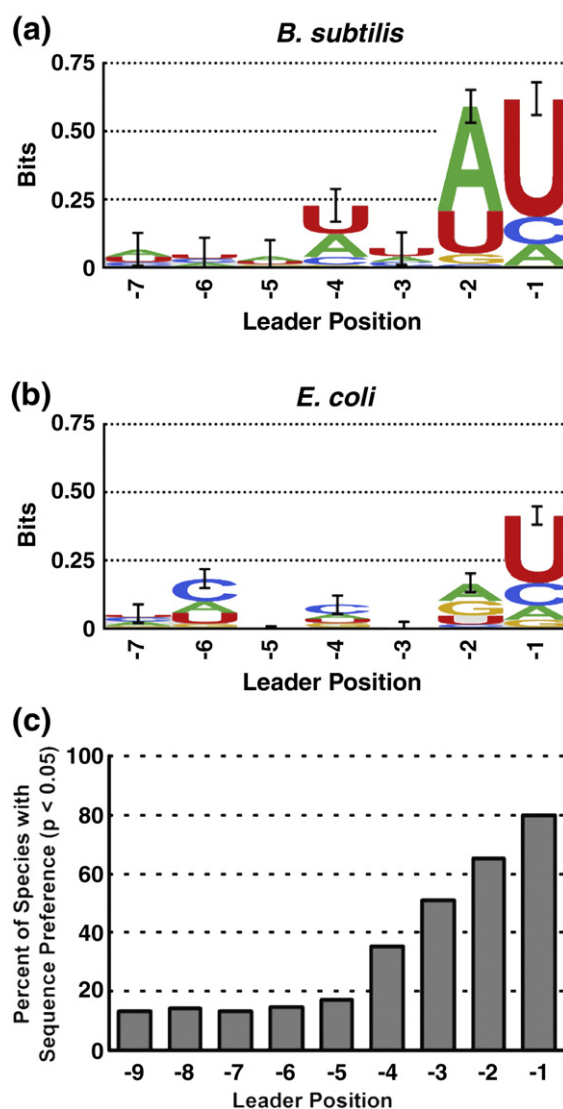

Fig. 4. Sequence preferences in genomic pre-tRNA Leaders. Sequence logos showing the information content of the 5′ leader in *B. subtilis* (a) and *E. coli* (b) pre-tRNA genes. Total bar height reflects increased information content relative to the background nucleotide content of the genome in the region of tRNA genes (see Materials and Methods). Error bars represent 1 SD of the total bar height.[42] (c) Percentage of 161 species examined with statistically significant ($p \le 0.05$) nucleotide enrichments at the indicated 5′ leader positions.

As shown in Fig. 4, pre-tRNA genes in *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* show statistically significant nucleotide enrichments at several positions, including N(−4). In *B. subtilis*, the base composition at position N(−4) is enriched in A and U with reduced C content and low G content [N(−4): 37% A, 5% G, 13% C, and 45% U; background: 33% A, 11% G, 22% C, and 34% U]. These changes are significant ($p = 0.02$), even when compared to the high A/U background nucleotide content characteristic of the *B. subtilis* genome. Qualitatively, increased A and U content and decreased G content are consistent with the relative binding affinities of *B. subtilis* RNase P for pre-tRNA

substrates with varying sequences at N(−4) (A>U>C>G; Table 1). In *E. coli*, a statistically significant ($p = 10^{-3}$) nucleotide enrichment that results primarily from an increase in C content to 44% compared to the background level of 26% is also observed in the pre-tRNA leader at N(−4). This increase leads to a combined composition of 64% A and C at N(−4), the two nucleotides that confer the highest pre-tRNA binding affinity for *E. coli* RNase P (Table 1). The information content at N(−4) for *E. coli* pre-tRNA ($R_{(−4)} = 0.1 \pm 0.04$ bit) is less than that observed at N(−4) for *B. subtilis* ($R_{(−4)} = 0.22 \pm 0.06$ bit). This difference indicates a reduced level of sequence conservation at N(−4) in *E. coli*, relative to *B. subtilis*, and is consistent with the overall weaker preference observed at N(−4) for *E. coli* RNase P *in vitro*.

The pre-tRNA genes from both *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* also show additional positions in the leader with significant nucleotide enrichment, suggesting the possibility of additional sequence-specific contacts (Fig. 4). As expected, both species show strong U enrichments at position N(−1) of pre-tRNA genes, which manifests as an information content of $R_{(−1)} = 0.61 \pm 0.06$ bit ($p = 10^{-10}$) for *B. subtilis* and $R_{(−1)} = 0.40 \pm 0.03$ bit ($p = 10^{-13}$) for *E. coli*. In *B. subtilis*, an additional enrichment is observed at position N(−2) in the leader, primarily due to an increase in A content to 65%. This enrichment leads to information content and statistical significance similar to those observed at N(−1) ($R_{(−2)} = 0.58 \pm 0.06$ bit, $p = 10^{-10}$), suggesting that selective pressure, such as recognition by RNase P, influences pre-tRNA sequences at this position. In addition to N(−1) and N(−4), *E. coli* shows statistically significant nucleotide enrichments at N(−2) and N(−6). The increased G and A content at N(−2) of *E. coli* pre-tRNA genes suggests a purine preference at this position, while the increased C content at N(−6) (47% compared to the 26% C content of the genome) suggests recognition at this position as well. Thus, while both *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* pre-tRNA genes display nucleotide enrichments at multiple positions, the observed patterns are markedly different, both with respect to the positions at which enrichments are observed and with respect to the specific nucleotide preferred. Like the preferences determined for substrate binding affinities, this result suggests the possibility of significant diversity in leader sequence recognition by RNase P from different species of Bacteria.

The observation of statistically significant nucleotide enrichments at several locations in the pre-tRNA leader sequences from *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* raises the intriguing possibility that sequence specificity in interactions with 5' leaders may be a common element of substrate recognition for bacterial RNase P. To explore this possibility, we extended the information content analysis to 161 species of Bacteria with completely sequenced genomes available from GenBank.[44] Overall, 96% of the species show one or more enriched nucleotides between N(−1) and N(−4) with $p < 0.05$, and 90% of the species contain at least one enrichment

with $p < 0.01$. These results suggest that sequence-specific interactions between RNase P and pre-tRNA leaders are likely to be widespread in Bacteria as a whole. Furthermore, the frequency with which nucleotide enrichments are observed at a given leader position increases with proximity to the RNase P cleavage site (Fig. 4c), increasing from 35% at N(−4) to 80% at N(−1). For positions farther from the cleavage site, the number of species with a significant enrichment plateaus at approximately 15%, likely representing a statistical background in this analysis. The increasing prevalence of nucleotide enrichments for positions near the RNase P cleavage site suggests that recognition and cleavage site selection by RNase P may play a role as a driving force in the selection of pre-tRNA leader sequences.

Unexpectedly, the analysis of bacterial tRNA genes suggests that sequence preferences for positions N(−1) through N(−6) in the 5' leaders of RNase P are diverse, varying in both the position and the identity of the enriched nucleotides. Specifically with regard to N(−4), 52 of the 161 species exhibit statistically significant nucleotide enrichments at this position ($p < 0.05$). The nucleotide compositions at N(−4) for pre-tRNA genes from 25 representative species with statistically significant enrichments at this position are shown in Fig. 5 and include species
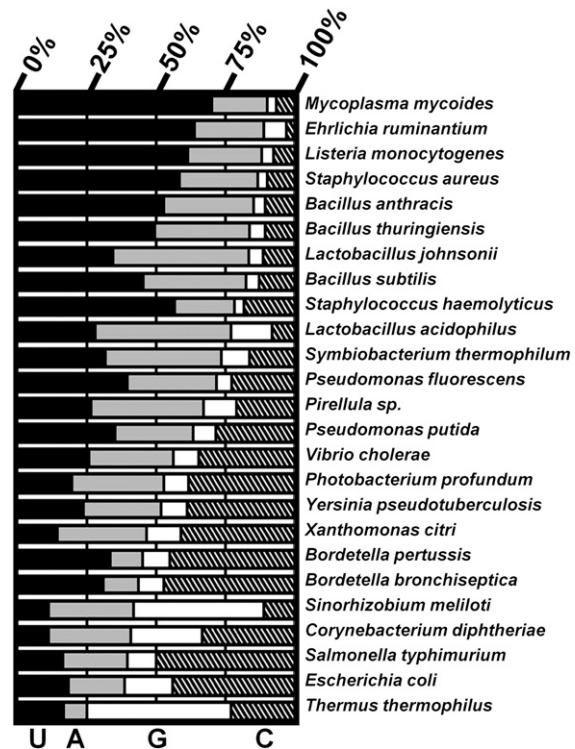

Fig. 5. Distribution of nucleotide preferences at N(−4). Nucleotide preferences at N(−4) for 20 representative bacterial species are shown. Bars show the fractional composition of U (black), A (gray), G (white), and C (cross-hatched). All species shown have statistically significant nucleotide enrichment ($p < 0.05$) preferences at N(−4) and are arranged by overall A/U content at N(−4).

that exhibit strong U (e.g., *Mycoplasma mycoides*), A (e.g., *Lactobacillus johnsonii*), C (e.g., *Salmonella typhimurium*), and G (e.g., *Thermus thermophilus*) enrichments. This diversity suggests that the interaction between N(−4) and RNase P is variable between species and is therefore likely to involve one or more nonconserved enzyme residues, such as Y34 of *B. subtilis* P protein. In contrast, the composition of N(−1), which interacts with a conserved nucleotide in PRNA, retains an enrichment of U (>25%) in 94% of the species examined. Overall, the diversity of nucleotide enrichments observed for pre-tRNA genes from diverse species suggests that sequence-specific interactions between RNase P and 5′ leaders likely vary markedly between species.

Discussion

Both *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* RNase P demonstrate selectivity for the nucleobase at the N(−4) position of the leader that contributes to molecular recognition of pre-tRNA substrates. For *B. subtilis* RNase P, this interaction results in a 1.9-kcal/mol binding preference for A(−4) over G(−4) pre-tRNA^{Asp} at 2 mM Ca^{2+} *in vitro*, while the *E. coli* enzyme shows a moderate preference (0.6–0.9 kcal/mol) for A and C at this position (Table 1). In *B. subtilis* RNase P, sequence selectivity at N(−4) is consistent with previous analyses suggesting that nucleotides N(−2) to N(−7) interact with the P protein subunit.[19,21,24] Furthermore, comparison of the $K_{d,obs}$ values for G(−4) and A(−4) pre-tRNAs (Table 1) reveals that the previously observed enhanced affinity of pre-tRNA substrates with a 5-nucleotide leader (5′-GACAU; G(−5)) relative to that of pre-tRNA substrates with a 4-nucleotide leader (5′-GCAU)[21] can be accounted for by the G-to-A change at N(−4), rather than by an increase in leader length. In fact, comparison of affinities measured for A(−4) and G(−5) pre-tRNAs[21] reveals that the addition of a G at N(−5) has a mild destabilizing—rather than a strong stabilizing—effect. Recognition of the nucleobase at N(−4) pre-tRNA by *B. subtilis* RNase P is therefore consistent with the results of previous studies.

Interactions with P protein subunit lead to specificity at N(−4)

Structure-probing studies have previously suggested that nucleotides N(−3) through N(−7) of the pre-tRNA leader interact with the central cleft of the P protein subunit in the *B. subtilis* RNase P–substrate complex.[5,19,21,24] Consistent with this, mutagenesis studies indicate that protein residues in the central cleft interact with the nucleotide at N(−4) of pre-tRNA (Fig. 1). In particular, three amino acids play an essential role in the preferential binding of pre-tRNA bearing an adenosine at N(−4): F20, Y34, and R60 (Tables 2 and 3; Fig. 1).

R60 is one of only two invariant residues in bacterial P proteins and is located in the most highly conserved region of the protein, the RNR motif (Table 2; Fig. 1).[45] The identification of R60 as important for the sequence-specific recognition of the N(−4) position is unexpected; structural models of the *B. subtilis* RNase P·pre-tRNA complex place R60 near the tRNA moiety, distal to the leader sequence, and near the P4 helix of PRNA (Fig. 1).[19,24] Consistent with this proposal, the R60A mutation decreases the affinity of RNase P for mature tRNA by more than 1.3 kcal/mol, accounting for the majority of the 1.6-kcal/mol decrease in pre-tRNA affinity. These biochemical data argue that R60 has an indirect influence on selectivity at N(−4). The side chain of R60 could either be important for aligning the 5′ leader in the RNase P·pre-tRNA complex such that the nucleobase at N(−4) is positioned to interact correctly with the P protein cleft or be important for stabilizing local PRNA or P protein structure that enhances recognition of pre-tRNA.

The amino acids F20 and Y34 are located on the second and third strands of the central β-sheet, with side chains oriented towards the central cleft that forms the binding pocket for the leader in the RNase P·pre-tRNA structural model (Fig. 1).[19,22,24] Alanine substitutions at these residues decrease the binding affinity of A(−4) pre-tRNA by ~1.7 kcal/mol while having a small effect on the affinity of the G(−4) substrate (<0.4 kcal/mol), thereby eliminating selectivity for the nucleobase at N(−4). These data suggest that the side chains of F20 and/or Y34 may form a direct contact with the N(−4) base (Fig. 1)[19] either by base stacking (Phe and Tyr) or by hydrogen bonding (Tyr). Substitution of Phe for Tyr34 has effects similar to those of the Y34A mutation, decreasing the binding affinity of A(−4) pre-tRNA substantially (1.1 kcal/mol) while slightly increasing the affinity of the G(−4) substrate. These data highlight the importance of the hydrogen-bonding potential of Y34 for sequence specificity at N(−4). Additionally, while F20 is conserved in most species, variability is observed at position 34, including a Leu substitution in *E. coli* RNase P,[45] perhaps contributing to the observed alterations in N(−4) specificity for this enzyme (Table 1).

Model of P protein–adenosine contacts

Substitution of adenosine analogs at N(−4) of pre-tRNA indicates that the A/G selectivity of *B. subtilis* RNase P involves interactions with two distinct functional groups (Table 1): a favorable interaction with the N6 exocyclic amine of adenosine (−0.7 kcal/mol), possibly due to the formation of a hydrogen bond with the hydroxyl group of Y34, and an unfavorable contact with the N2 exocyclic amine in guanosine (0.9 kcal/mol) (Table 1). Furthermore, RNase P containing the Y34F mutation binds A(−4) and P(−4) pre-tRNAs with comparable affinities, consistent with the loss of a hydrogen bond between the N6 amine and the hydroxyl of Y34. However, this mutation also abrogates the unfavorable interaction with the N2 exocyclic amine (Table 3), leading to an almost complete lack of specificity for the

nucleobase at this position. Therefore, removal of the hydroxyl group of Y34 presumably leads to repositioning of the N(−4) nucleobase and/or protein side chains in the RNase P·pre-tRNA complex, likely mediated by loss of a hydrogen-bond interaction. The F20 mutation also significantly disrupts recognition of the N(−4) nucleobase, since there is little difference between the binding affinities of RNase P containing this mutation for pre-tRNAs with adenosine, purine, or DAP at N(−4). These data indicate that the side chains of both F20 and Y34 are crucial for nucleobase recognition and suggest that both base stacking and hydrogen bonding contribute to selectivity.

One model that is consistent with these data is that the N6 amine of the base at N(−4) forms a hydrogen bond with the hydroxyl group of Y34, while the side chain of F20 orients the N(−4) base for maximal interaction with Y34, perhaps through stacking interactions. Alternatively, hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interactions may stabilize the P protein fold to optimize interactions with the pre-tRNA leader. In other RNP systems, such as the RNA recognition motif bound to the splicing protein Srp20,[46] sequence-specific recognition has been linked to a direct contact between adenosine and a protein side chain, similar to the model proposed for RNase P. In this case, the exocyclic amine of adenosine forms a hydrogen bond with the side chain of serine, and the base forms a stacking interaction with phenylalanine, leading to a preference for recognizing adenosine relative to guanosine.[46]

Metal dependence of N(−4) interaction with RNase P

The magnitude of the selectivity of RNase P for the nucleotide at N(−4) is highly dependent on the concentration of divalent metal ions (Fig. 2), indicating that metal binding and sequence selectivity are coupled. Previous studies have demonstrated that the affinity of the RNase P holoenzyme for pre-tRNA is cooperatively coupled to the binding of divalent cations with a Hill coefficient of ∼4.[28] Furthermore, the midpoint for this cooperativity has previously been shown to depend on the length of the leader sequence; pre-tRNA with a 2-nucleotide leader requires higher Mg^{2+} concentrations than a substrate with a 5-nucleotide leader.[28] Here the data indicate that the midpoint for activation by divalent cations also depends on the formation of favorable contacts between the nucleobase at N(−4) and P protein. Pre-tRNA association with RNase P occurs in two steps: diffusion-controlled association, followed by a conformational change stabilized by the leader–protein contact.[47] The current data suggest that this conformation change is also stabilized by sequence-specific interactions with the leader sequence. In this context, the steep dependence of the G(−4) pre-tRNA binding affinity on calcium could be explained by stabilization of a conformational change by divalent cations Hsieh *et al.*, manuscript in preparation).

In practical terms, the calcium dependence of substrate selectivity reduces sequence preference under conditions commonly employed in the study of the RNase P holoenzyme *in vitro* (i.e., 10–20 mM divalent metal ions).[3] However, the physiological concentration of available Mg^{2+} in Bacteria has been estimated at 2 mM or lower *in vitro*, concentrations where sequence selectivity is significant[37] (Table 1; Fig. 2). Thus, the coupling of sequence specificity with divalent metal binding results in sequence selectivity at physiological cation concentrations. This coupling leads to the possibility that the sequence selectivity of RNase P *in vivo* could be modulated by changes in the magnesium concentration. Currently, the regulation of cellular Mg^{2+} is not well understood.[48] However, intracellular concentrations of Mg^{2+} are affected by such factors as transport, sequestration in organelles, and binding, particularly to ATP.[49] Therefore, it is possible that the specificity of RNase P is coupled to cellular metabolic activity *via* Mg^{2+} concentration.

tRNA gene analysis

The correlation between genomic and biochemical data at the N(−4) and N(−1) positions in the leader of pre-tRNA for both *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* is consistent with binding affinity preferences observed *in vitro* playing a functional role *in vivo*.[14] The interesting observation that a number of pre-tRNAs possess nucleotides at N(−4), conferring reduced affinity (U, C, and G), while adenosine is preferred at N(−4) in the *B. subtilis* genome is consistent with previous observations and models of substrate recognition in this system. In bacterial RNase P, known interactions with the N(−1) nucleobase and 2′ hydroxyl, the terminal base pair of the acceptor stem, and the 3′-terminal substrate RCCA motif contribute to, but are not required for, recognition and processing.[5,10,13–15] Recently, Sun *et al.* suggested a model of thermodynamic compensation between the 5′ leader sequences and tRNA bodies of diverse substrates.[5] These investigations revealed that the observed uniform affinity of RNase P for an array of pre-tRNA substrates is maintained by variations in the energetic contributions between RNase P and the 5′ leader that compensate for alterations in the affinity of RNase P for varied tRNAs. Thus, the importance of nucleotide specificity at N(−4) may be variable for pre-tRNA substrates within a given species.

Agreement between *in vitro* selectivity and pre-tRNA sequence preferences also suggests that examination of pre-tRNA leader sequences is a facile method for developing testable hypotheses regarding the recognition requirements of RNase P from diverse species. In this regard, the 5′ leaders of tRNA genes from both *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* exhibit significant nucleotide enrichments at positions other than N(−1) and N(−4) (Fig. 4), consistent with the possibility of sequence-specific contacts involving additional leader nucleotides. Intriguingly, aside from the increased U content at N(−1), *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* differ with respect to all other statistically

significant leader nucleotide enrichments, suggesting that, like N(−4), molecular recognition of nucleotides at additional leader positions by RNase P differs between these species. Analysis of pre-tRNA leader sequences from 161 species further demonstrates that functionally important sequence-specific interactions between RNase P and pre-tRNA leaders may exist at positions other than N(−4) and N(−1). The possibility of widespread sequence preferences in 5′ leader interactions represents a novel paradigm for understanding RNase P specificity across multiple species. Systematic examination of the impact of potential interactions between RNase P and additional 5′ leader positions therefore remains a key goal for a better understanding of substrate recognition by RNase P *in vivo*.

When combined with previous results for naturally occurring *E. coli* substrates,[5] the correlation of biochemical and genetic data also suggests a model in which RNase P and its substrate population evolve in parallel. In this model, the enzyme and substrates from a given species form a matched set, optimized for uniform recognition and processing of a potentially diverse set of pre-tRNA and other substrates. The observation that species are more likely to have nucleotide enrichments in 5′ leader sequences near the RNase P cleavage site suggests that recognition by RNase P may be a driving force in leader sequence selection. However, this need not be the only driving force in parallel evolution, and additional constraints on leader sequences, such as selection to prevent recognition by other ribonucleases, could influence the composition of the pre-tRNA substrate set and thereby RNase P recognition requirements. An important implication of this model is that, in the absence of a single overarching leader recognition sequence for all Bacteria, useful information regarding enzyme–substrate interactions is most likely to be gained from investigations of cognate RNase P·pre-tRNA pairings using naturally occurring 5′ leader sequences.

Conclusion

Sequence preferences observed at N(−4) for substrate affinity are reflected in the composition of pre-tRNA genes from *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*, indicating that specificity at N(−4) likely contributes to substrate recognition *in vivo*. We propose a model for the interaction between *B. subtilis* RNase and N(−4) in which the hydroxyl group of the *B. subtilis* protein residue Y34 hydrogen bonds with the N6 exocyclic amine of adenosine at N(−4). This is the first demonstration of a sequence-specific interaction between the P protein and pre-tRNA that contributes to molecular recognition. The correlation of genomic and biochemical data presented here suggests that analysis of pre-tRNA genes is a viable method for formulating testable hypotheses regarding RNase P substrate recognition in diverse species.

Materials and Methods

RNA and protein preparation

B. subtilis PRNA, *E. coli* PRNA, and pre-tRNA substrates with 5′-terminal guanosine residues were prepared by *in vitro* transcription using linearized DNA templates and T7 RNA polymerase in accordance with standard procedures.[50] Substrates were 5′-end-labeled using [γ-^{32}P]ATP (MP Biomedical) and T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs).[17] Pre-tRNA substrates with 5′-terminal nucleotides other than guanosine were prepared by RNA ligation. Synthetic 5′ oligoribonucleotides (Thermo/Dharmacon) comprising the 5′ leader and positions +1 through +5 of pre-tRNA^{Asp} were 5′-end-labeled using [γ-^{32}P]ATP and T4 polynucleotide kinase, and ligated to a 3′ tRNA fragment encoding positions +6 through +77 using splinted ligation with T4 DNA ligase (Fermentas),[51–53] in accordance with standard protocols. Experiments were carried out using *B. subtilis* pre-tRNA^{Asp}, a widely used substrate that is canonical with respect to all known sequence-specific RNase P recognition elements.

P protein was expressed in *E. coli* (BL21(DE3) pLysS) and purified by CM-Sepharose ion-exchange chromatography in the presence of urea.[54] *E. coli* P protein was prepared using the Impact expression system (New England Biolabs), as described previously.[55] Variants of the *B. subtilis* P protein with site-specific cysteine, alanine, and phenylalanine mutations were prepared as described previously.[19,22] Prior to use, P proteins were dialyzed overnight against the appropriate reaction buffer, and the final concentrations were determined by absorbance (*B. subtilis* P protein: ε_{280} = 5120 M^{-1} cm^{-1}; *E. coli* C5 protein ε_{280} = 5500 M^{-1} cm^{-1}).[54]

PRNA and pre-tRNAs were renatured by heating to 95 °C for 3 min in a reaction buffer lacking divalent metal ions, then incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. Divalent metals were added to the appropriate final concentration, and RNAs were incubated for 30 min. To obtain correct [Ca^{2+}]$_f$ in the presence of high concentrations of PRNA, after renaturation, we diluted PRNA into the reaction buffer with the desired [Ca^{2+}]$_f$ and reconcentrated it using Amicon ultracentrifugal filter units (10,000 molecular weight cutoff; Millipore) for a minimum of three times. RNA concentrations were determined by absorbance. RNase P holoenzyme (0.5–10 μM) was formed by mixing equimolar concentrations of PRNA and P protein and incubating them at 37 °C for a minimum of 1 h.

Substrate affinity measurements

Substrate affinity measurements were carried out by centrifuge gel filtration using Sephadex G-75 resin (Sigma-Aldrich),[5,17] with total substrate concentrations ([S_{tot}]) maintained at <20% of the total enzyme concentration. Binding affinity was measured in the presence of Ca^{2+}, which supports RNase P substrate binding but decreases the rate at which substrate is converted into product.[56] Enzyme and substrate were renatured separately, mixed, and incubated at 37 °C for 5 min prior to loading onto preequilibrated columns. Columns were centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 30 s, and counts in the filtrate and retentate were measured. Dissociation constants were determined by fitting a single binding isotherm to the data. For [Ca^{2+}]$_f$ titration experiments, the combined contribution of CaCl$_2$ and KCl to ionic strength was held constant at 410 mM: at

2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$, [KCl] = 405 mM; at 5 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_f$, [KCl] = 396 mM. Reactions also included 50 mM 4-morpholineethanesulfonic acid (Mes) and 50 mM tris-(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (Tris) (pH 6.0). For the G(−4) substrate, midpoints of transition ($K_{1/2,Ca}$) and Hill coefficients (n_H) were determined by fitting $K_{d,obs}$ values with Eq. (1), where $K_{d,\infty}$ is the dissociation constant at saturating $[Ca^{2+}]_f$:

$$K_{d,obs} = K_{d,\infty} \left(1 + \frac{K_{1/2,Ca}^{n_H}}{[Ca(II)]_f^{n_H}} \right) \qquad (1)$$

Single-turnover kinetic measurements

Single-turnover experiments were performed in 2 mM $Co[NH_3]_6 \cdot Cl_3$, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 200 mM NH_4Cl, and 50 mM Mes–Tris buffer (pH 7.0) at 37 °C using saturating RNase P holoenzyme (2 μM), as previously described.[28] In 2 mM cobalt hexamine, PRNA folds, binds pre-tRNA and P protein, but does not catalyze pre-tRNA cleavage,[28] allowing for the measurement of the single-turnover rate constant for pre-tRNA cleavage at low $[Mg^{2+}]$. Substrate and product were separated by PAGE and quantified by PhosphorImager (Amersham Bioscience Corp., Piscataway, NJ); observed rate constants (k_{obs}) were determined by fitting a single-exponential equation to the data.

5' Leader sequence analysis of tRNA genes

Completely sequenced bacterial genomes were obtained from GenBank.[44] Predicted tRNA genes were located using tRNAscan SE,[10] and the first 15 nucleotides upstream of each tRNA (N(−15) through N(−1)) were identified and compiled using custom AWK scripts. (Scripts available upon request.) Results for species shown in Fig. 4 were adjusted to account for the 8-nucleotide acceptor stem of pre-tRNA^{His}. For each species, background nucleotide composition specific for the region of pre-tRNA genes was estimated from the total nucleotide composition of leader positions N(−1) to N(−15). The information content of individual leader positions relative to background, shown as sequence logos in Fig. 4, was calculated according to Eq. (2):[41,42]

$$R_{N(i)} = H_{bkgd} - H_{N(i)} - e_n \qquad (2)$$

where $R_{N(i)}$ is the information content at position i, H_{bkgd} is the background entropy from positions N(−1) through N(−15), $H_{N(i)}$ is the entropy of position i, and e_n is a sample size correction factor. e_n was calculated as a function of the number of sequences (n) using Eq. (3).[42] H_{bkgd} and $H_{(i)}$ were calculated (in bits) using Eq. (4), where f_b is the observed frequency of a given base at position for H_i or for the combination of all 15 positions for H_{bkgd}:

$$e_n = \frac{3}{2n\ln(2)} \qquad (3)$$

$$H = - \sum_{b\in\{A,G,C,U\}} f_b \log_2 (f_b) \qquad (4)$$

Error bars in Fig. 4, representing standard deviations for information content, were determined empirically using the CALHNB algorithm of Schneider *et al.*[42] The probabilities (p) that observed nucleotide frequencies appear due to random fluctuations in background nucleotide composition were determined for each position using standard chi-square analysis.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/ j.jmb.2009.11.039

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