RESEARCH ARTICLE



MKT1 alleles regulate stress responses through posttranscriptional modulation of Puf3 targets in budding yeast

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Abstract

MKT1 is a pleiotropic stress response gene identified by several quantitative trait studies with MKT1^{89G} as a causal variant, contributing to growth advantage in multiple stress environments. MKT1 has been shown to regulate HO endonuclease posttranscriptionally via the Pbp1-Pab1 complex. RNA-binding protein Puf3 modulates a set of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial transcripts whose expression was found to be affected by MKT1 alleles. This study attempts to relate the MKT1 allele-derived growth advantage with the stability of Puf3 targets during stress and elucidate the roles of Pbp1 and Puf3 in this mechanism. Our results showed that the growth advantage of the MKT1^{89G} allele in cycloheximide and H₂O₂ was PBP1dependent, whereas in 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide, the growth advantage was dependent on both PUF3 and PBP1. We compared the messenger RNA decay kinetics of a set of Puf3 targets in multiple stress environments to understand the allele-specific regulation by MKT1. In oxidative stress, the MKT1^{89G} allele modulated the differential expression of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes in a PBP1- and PUF3-dependent manner. Additionally, MKT1^{89G} stabilised Puf3 targets, namely, COX17, MRS1 and RDL2, in an allele and stress-specific manner. Our results showed that COX17, MRS1 and RDL2 had a stress-specific response in stress environments, with the MKT1^{89G} allele contributing to better growth; this response was both PBP1and PUF3-dependent. Our results indicate that the common allele, MKT1^{89G}, regulates stress responses by differentially stabilising Puf3-target mitochondrial genes, which allows for the strain's better growth in stress environments.

KEYWORDS

MKT1, oxidative stress response, posttranscriptional regulation, QTL, RNA-binding proteins

1 | INTRODUCTION

The environment, with its dynamic compositional changes, poses a consistent threat to the cellular homeostatic balance (Simpson & Ashe, 2012). Cells display an array of survival mechanisms to deal with these fluctuations by deploying environmental stress response (ESR), where the normal physiological course is transiently substituted with the synthesis of ESR-associated proteins (Buchan & Parker, 2009; Buchan et al., 2011; Causton et al., 2001; Lackner et al., 2012; Loll-Krippleber & Brown, 2017). Cellular regulation of gene expression during stress conditions predominantly employs posttranscriptional and translational controls to modulate their synthetic activity (Lackner et al., 2012; Martínez-Salas et al., 2013).

RNA-binding proteins associated with specific transcripts posttranscriptionally regulate their expression by modulating their localisation, degradation and translation (Gupta et al., 2014; Kechavarzi & Janga, 2014; Martínez-Salas et al., 2013; Saint-Georges et al., 2008). Members of the Pumilio-Fem3 binding factor (PUF) family of RNA-binding proteins exhibit this type of posttranscriptional regulation of sets of transcripts specific for each of five Puf protein subtypes (García-Rodríguez et al., 2007; Olivas, 2000; Wang et al., 2018). Puf3 targets a module of about 220 transcripts that majorly includes nuclear-encoded mitochondrial proteins, which differ in their expression patterns during stress conditions influencing mitochondrial biogenesis (Gerber et al., 2004; Saint-Georges et al., 2008). While utilising carbon sources that demand active respiration, the repressor-like activity of Puf3 binding to the 3'untranslated region (UTR) elements on the transcript decreases their expression by promoting degradation or preventing it (Miller et al., 2014; Olivas, 2000).

Various stress conditions, including osmotic, oxidative, nutritional deprivation, chemical, high temperature and so forth, were used to understand ESR in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Causton et al., 2001; Gasch & Werner-Washburne, 2002; Morano et al., 2012). Studies in yeast strains from clinical and natural environments have linked genetic diversity to varying stress responses (Liti et al., 2009).

Mapping studies in segregating populations to determine causal loci for stress responses identified MKT1, a pleiotropic stress response gene mediating high-temperature growth (Sinha et al., 2008; Steinmetz et al., 2002), sporulation efficiency (Deutschbauer & Davis, 2005), chemical stress (Ehrenreich et al., 2010) and high ethanol concentration (Swinnen et al., 2012) in different yeast strains. Besides being causal for stress responses. MKT1 is nonessential and alters mitochondrial stability, affecting stress response (Dimitrov et al., 2009; Wickner, 1987). At the molecular level, MKT1 facilitates mating-type switching in yeast mother cells by selective posttranscriptional regulation of HO endonuclease during budding. Mkt1 interaction with Pbp1, a protein binding to poly-A binding protein, Pab1, supports the role of Mkt1 in the posttranscriptional regulation of transcripts selectively based on the consensus sequence on 3'-UTR of transcripts (Tadauchi et al., 2004). While S288c has MKT1^{89A}, nonsynonymous single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) changes MKT1^{A89G} substituting D30G in the polypeptide is conserved among various natural isolates (Liti et al., 2009). Allele replacement studies between SK1 and S288c have shown that MKT1(D30G) increases sporulation efficiency (Deutschbauer & Davis, 2005). Furthermore, genome-wide RNA expression analysis hypothesised that MKT1^{A89G} SNP variation could be causal in altering the transcript stability of Puf3 module genes under stress conditions (Lee et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2016). Similarly, quantitative trait loci (QTL) coding for IRA2 was linked to regulating Puf4 activity and the causal polymorphisms were known to affect the transcripts encoding nucleolar ribosomal RNA-processing factors (Smith & Kruglyak, 2008).

While MKT1 as a QTL influences the Puf3 targets, another locus, Pop7, positively regulates Puf3 activity (Fazlollahi et al., 2014).

Take-away

- MKT1 alleles vary stress responses by posttranscriptional modulation of Puf3 targets.
- PBP1 and PUF3 influence the regulation of Puf3 target stability under stress.
- Nuclear-encoded mitochondrial Puf3 targets, COX17, MRS1 and RDL2, contribute to the growth advantage of MKT1^{89G} allele in oxidative stress.

Additionally, overlapping targets between the Puf family proteins and the mechanism of network rewiring in the absence of Puf3 influence the expression of specific deletion phenotypes (Lapointe et al., 2017). In the current study, we link the allelic effects of *MKT1* with the stress-specific stability of Puf3 targets and elucidate the roles of *PBP1* and *PUF3* in this mechanism.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Yeast strains and growth conditions

All the yeast strains used in the experiments are derivatives of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* S288c strain. The parental strains used were the 'S' strain (S288c-*MKT1*^{89A}) and the 'M' strain (S288c-*MKT1*^{89G}; Gupta et al., 2014). These strains were derived from the original strains obtained from Deutschbauer and Davis (2005). Briefly, the original strains were sequenced to confirm the allele replacements and then were backcrossed to the S288c strain for three generations to remove other mutations found in the strains. Gupta et al. (2015) used these backcrossed S and M strains for their whole-genome gene expression analysis.

Strains were grown in standard YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose) medium at 30°C. Plasmid-based drug cassettes amplified using pFa6A (kanMX4), pAG25 (natMx4) and pAG32 (hphMX4) as templates (Goldstein & McCusker, 1999) were transformed to generate gene deletions in parental strains (Gietz et al., 1995). The stocks of H_2O_2 (TCI; Cat#H1222) and cycloheximide (CYC; Sigma; Cat#18079) were prepared in the water, while carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP; TCI; Cat#C3463) and 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO; Sigma; Cat#N8141) stocks were made in dimethylsulphoxide. These chemicals were added to YPD and used for stress conditions. The final concentrations used for each assay are given below.

2.2 | Spot dilution assay

A saturated culture from a single colony was obtained for 5 mL of YPD after overnight incubation at 30°C. A dilution of 1:100 of saturated culture was used for cell counting using a haemocytometer.

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A serial dilution series ranging from 10^8 to 10^3 cells/mL was made for each strain. Five microliters of each dilution in the series were used to spot on YPD (control) and plates containing YPD along with stress agents (8% ethanol, 0.002% H₂O₂, 0.4 µg/mL 4NQO, 0.25 µg/mL CYC and 6 µg/mL FCCP). The plates were incubated for 4 days at 30°C, following which the growth was recorded. Stress resistance was measured by comparing the number of spots with growth. All strains used for this study were diploid except for growth kinetics experiments, which were haploid. All the strains used in this study are given in Table S1 and the primers in Table S2.

2.3 | Growth kinetics

Turbid culture of strains in YPD was obtained in 96-well cell culture plates after 24 h incubation at 30°C with 250 rpm. Experiments were performed in 96-well cell culture plates, with each sample represented in triplicates of 200 µL/well. Each strain was grown in YPD as a control for assays indicated with different chemicals CYC ($0.1 \mu g/mL$), 4NQO ($0.3 \mu g/mL$), H₂O₂ (0.01%) and FCCP ($1 \mu g/mL$). The plate was incubated for 42 h at 30°C at 355 cpm (orbital), and OD600 was recorded every 30 min using a BioTek EPOCH2 microplate reader. The growth curves were used to compute the growth rate and corresponding relative fitness. The relative fitness was defined as a ratio of the growth rate under the test condition to the growth rate in control (YPD) for the same strain.

2.4 | Fluorescence measurements

M and S strains with green fluorescent protein (GFP)-tagged MKT1 were used for fluorescence studies to compare the levels of native protein expression. The strains with C-terminal GFP tagging were generated using pYM25 and selected with a hygromycin marker (Janke et al., 2004). The overnight culture was used to inoculate fresh media and was grown till 1 OD absorbance at 600 nm. The culture was spun down and washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (pH 7.4). The pellet was resuspended in 2 mL fresh PBS, and the suspension was diluted to 1 OD. Three hundred microlitres of cell suspension was pipetted in each well in a black opaque 96-well plate as well as 96-well transparent tissue culture plate to measure fluorescence at Em/Ex 485/510 nm and absorbance at 600 nm, respectively, using BioTek multimode plate reader (Synergy H1). PBS was used as blank, and a strain without GFP was used as a negative control. The fluorescence intensity of each well is divided by the corresponding absorbance to get normalised fluorescence intensity, which was represented as the average of biological replicates.

2.5 | RNA extractions

To study the temporal degradation kinetics of a candidate messenger RNA (mRNA), 1,10-phenanthroline (Sigma; Cat#131377) was used as

a transcription inhibitor at a concentration of 200 μ g/mL in YPD and stress conditions. The overnight culture was measured at OD600 and inoculated to grow from 0.2 to 0.8 OD in YPD (control). For stress conditions, cultures were grown from 0.8 to 1.0 OD after adding stress-inducing agents to the required concentrations of CYC (3 μ g/mL), 4NQO (2 μ g/mL), H₂O₂ (0.15%) and FCCP (20 μ g/mL). Later, 1,10-phenanthroline was added to control and stress cultures. Samples were collected every 15 min after administration of the drug, for which 10 mL of culture corresponding to a particular time point was spun down at 8000 rpm for 30 s, and the pellet was snap-frozen using liquid nitrogen.

Frozen cell pellets transferred to 1.5 mL tubes were added with 50 µL of phenol-chloroform-isoamvl alcohol (25:24:1 ratio: PCI) (Sigma; Cat#71617), 50 µL of Lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7-7.4, 130 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 5% sodium dodecyl sulphate) and glass beads (approximately 2/3 of the pellet volume) was added to the tube. The tubes were then vortexed at maximum speed for 20 min at 4°C, followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C. The aqueous layer was transferred to precooled 0.5 mL tubes, and an equal volume of PCI was added. After vigorous mixing, the mix was centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. This step was repeated. The aqueous layer was extracted, and an equal volume of chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1 ratio) was added. After vigorous mixing, the mix was centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The step was repeated. The aqueous layer was removed and transferred to precooled Eppendorf tubes containing 1/20th volume of 3 M sodium acetate and two volumes of absolute ethanol. Total RNA was precipitated by inverting tubes and incubating them at -20°C for 30 min, followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 min. The pellet was washed using 200 µL of 80% ethanol and centrifuged for 2 min without disrupting the pellet. The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was air-dried on ice for 30 min.

The pellet was resuspended in a buffer containing TURBO DNase (Invitrogen; Cat#8167) following the manufacturer's instructions to remove genomic DNA contamination. The concentration of RNA in the resulting solution was measured using Nanodrop; a ratio of approximately 2.0 for 260/280 and 260/230 was considered suitable for further studies. One microgram of the sample was run on 2% agarose gel with ethidium bromide used to assess the integrity of the RNA sample.

2.6 | Quantitative gene expression studies

According to the manufacturer's instructions, $3.125 \mu g$ of RNA was used for complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis using random hexamers (Invitrogen; Cat#N8080127) for priming and enzyme Superscript III (Invitrogen; Cat#18080093). From which 25 ng of cDNA was used per quantitative PCR (qPCR) reaction of 10 μ L using KAPA SYBR FAST (Sigma; Cat#KK4618) master mix and primers. The reaction was carried out with Analytikjena qTOWER3 in a two-step cycle of denaturation at 95°C and annealing and elongation at 60°C for 35 cycles. The *C*t values from the experiments were used to

calculate the respective ΔC_t (Costa et al., 2013) and $\Delta \Delta C_t$ values, which were used for further analysis. ΔC_t was calculated as $C_{t(gene of interest)} - C_{t(endogenous control gene)}$, while $\Delta \Delta C_t$ was calculated as $\Delta C_{t(treated sample)} - \Delta C_{t(untreated control sample)}$. $\Delta \Delta C_t$ were obtained using ΔC_t of the initial time point as a control sample for all the time points in that series after adding 1,10-phenanthroline. ΔC_t values of tested genes were used in expression and linear regression analyses between *MKT1* allelic backgrounds. Temporal $\Delta \Delta C_t$ values were used in differential stability analysis using Chow's test (Chow, 1960).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | MKT1 alleles contribute differentially to growth phenotype during stress

The phenotyping using serial dilutions (Figure 1a) showed that while in control conditions (YPD), there was no difference between the M and S strains, under stress growth conditions—ethanol, H_2O_2 , FCCP, 4NQO and CYC, the M strain grew better than the S. A series of concentrations ranging from 2% to 10% ethanol, 0.005%–0.04% H_2O_2 , 0.2–0.8 µg/mL CYC and 4NQO and 0.1–10 µg/mL FCCP were tested for differences in growth phenotype. These phenotyping results were confirmed using haploids with growth kinetic assays where no difference was observed between the M and S strains in YPD; in stress, the M had better growth rate and relative fitness than the S strain (Figure 1b,c). In both the spot dilution and growth kinetics assays, the concentration of stress-inducing agents was optimised to provide observable phenotypic differences between M and S backgrounds. While spot dilution assays in media containing ethanol showed a prominent growth difference between M and S strains, it was omitted from further experimentation due to its volatility and prolonged doubling time induced by the lack of glucose.

The phenotypic assays of the M and S strains showed that MKT1 was dispensable in a stress-free environment, and the levels of MKT1 in both backgrounds showed no difference (Supporting Information S1: Figures S1 and S2). However, the M strain was advantageous for growth rate and relative fitness in stress conditions over the S strain. While spot dilution experiments inferred a better phenotype of the M strain in H_2O_2 and FCCP, the relative fitness of both allelic strains was similar due to the lower chemical concentrations used for liquid cultures.

3.2 | *PBP1* and *PUF3* affect the magnitude and direction of *MKT1*^{89G}-mediated growth advantage during stress

To understand the role of *PBP1* and *PUF3* in *MKT1*-mediated stress responses, *pbp1* Δ , *puf3* Δ and *pbp1* Δ *puf3* Δ deletions were generated in M and S backgrounds. Growth kinetics assays in YPD showed that deleting *pbp1* or *puf3* or both had no effect in M and S backgrounds (Supporting Information S1: Figure S3). Not surprisingly, the M-*pbp1* Δ strain had better relative fitness than S-*pbp1* Δ in CYC and 4NQO. However, the S-*pbp1* Δ strain showed better relative fitness than M-*pbp1* Δ in H₂O₂ and FCCP (Figure 2a).



FIGURE 1 Analysis of *MKT1* allelic variants for pleiotropic stress resistance. (a) Ten-fold serial dilution ranging from 10^8 to 10^3 cells/mL of S and M strains were spotted on YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose), 8% ethanol, 0.02% H₂O₂, 0.4 µg/mL 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO), 0.25 µg/mL cycloheximide (CYC) and 6 µg/mL carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP). Comparison of (b) growth rates and (c) relative fitness between M and S strains across YPD, 0.1 µg/mL CYC, 0.3 µg/mL 4NQO, 0.01% H₂O₂ and 1 µg/mL FCCP. The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the error bars represent SD. *p* Values were calculated using a *t*-test, and significance was indicated as ns, nonsignificant, **p* < 0.05, **0.001 and ****<0.00001 on the top of each comparison.



FIGURE 2 Role of *PBP1* and *PUF3* in *MKT1*-mediated stress responses. Relative fitness between M and S backgrounds with (a) $pbp1\Delta$, (b) $puf3\Delta$ and (c) $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ deletions across YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose), 0.1 µg/mL cycloheximide (CYC), 0.3 µg/mL 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO), 0.01% H₂O₂ and 1 µg/mL carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP). The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the error bars represent SD. *p* Values were calculated using a *t*-test, and significance was indicated as ns, nonsignificant, **p* < 0.05, **<0.001 and ***<0.0001 on the top of each comparison.

No difference in relative growth was observed between M- $puf3\Delta$ and S- $puf3\Delta$ strains in YPD, CYC, H₂O₂ and FCCP (Supporting Information S1: Figure S4). However, M- $puf3\Delta$ had higher relative fitness than S- $puf3\Delta$ in 4NQO (Figure 2b and Supporting Information S1: Figure S2B).

As expected, double deletion strains of $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ in M or S backgrounds showed no growth difference in all the environments tested (Figure 2c). Thus, the double deletion of pbp1 and puf3 affected M and S backgrounds similarly, masking any individual allelic effects observed in the stress environments.

Analysing the *MKT1* allele and gene interactions across the environments showed that *PBP1* affected growth in CYC and H_2O_2 , while *PBP1* with *PUF3* contributed to growth in 4NQO (Supporting Information S1: Figure S4). This indicated that *MKT1*-mediated stress responses could employ both *PUF3* and *PBP1* in an environment-dependent manner.

3.3 | MKT1 alleles control the expression levels of Puf3 targets using posttranscriptional machinery

We wanted to determine the expression levels of Puf3-target and Puf3-independent genes in each environment and background (M and S, Tables 1 and S3). These genes were chosen to encompass diverse functional ranges like transfer RNA (tRNA) synthesis, splicing, translation and ribosomal proteins to find their involvement in different stress conditions. Therefore, we analysed the expression differences using ΔC_t values of these genes at the initial time point between M and S backgrounds across multiple environments (Figure 3a). The initial differences in the expression of tested genes between M and S backgrounds across the environments are given in Table S4.

It was observed that some of the Puf3 targets, such as *MEF1*, *MRPL6*, *PET123* and *RSM24*, showed higher expression in M compared to the S strain across three or more environmental conditions. In YPD, even though *MKT1* alleles did not show any growth differences, a few of the Puf3-target genes *MSF1*, *RSM24*, *NAM2*, *MRS1* and *MEF1* were already differentially expressed at the

initial time point. However, in CYC, 4NQO, H_2O_2 and FCCP, while there was a growth difference between M and S strains, some of the Puf3-target genes were differentially expressed between the two strains, with M allele strains showing higher expression (Figure 3a). Furthermore, all genes with nonmitochondrial function had no expression difference between M and S strains in YPD (Table 2). The temporal ΔC_t plots of each gene for all the conditions tested were given in Supporting Information S1: Figures S5–S9.

In CYC and H_2O_2 , where growth differences were observed between *MKT1* alleles, more genes were differentially expressed compared to other stress conditions. From the tested environments, including YPD, the expression levels in all the genes that showed differential expression were higher in the M compared to the S strain. This indicated that the M allele contributed to the differential expression by overexpressing some Puf3 targets in all the environments.

Interestingly, we observed that a few of the Puf3-target mitochondrial ribosome protein genes, *MRPL6*, *PET123* and *RSM24*, showed differential expression and stability in stress environments (Figure 3a,b). Several reports (Genuth & Barna, 2018) indicate that ribosomal protein genes differentially translate a set of transcripts in a stress-dependent manner. Therefore, we did not analyse these genes further to avoid this ribosomal heterogeneity as a confounding factor.

It has been previously shown that *MKT1* activity depends on Pbp1 (Tadauchi et al., 2004). Furthermore, Lee et al. (2009) showed that *MKT1* played a role in the RNA stability of Puf3-dependent transcripts. To test if the differences described above depended on Puf3 and Pbp1, we deleted these genes in M and S backgrounds and measured expression levels at the initial time for a subset of Puf3-target genes (Figure 3b). This set of genes was selected based on the variable expression differences observed in wild type in different growth conditions (Table 2). To obtain an unbiased estimate of the phenomenon due to the deletion of Pbp1 and Puf3, the established Puf3 target *COX17* (Olivas, 2000) was omitted from this list of tested genes. As H_2O_2 showed the maximum number of differentially expressed genes relative to other stress conditions, we chose to study the roles of *PBP1* and



TABLE 1 List of genes analysed using RT-qPCR studies.

Puf3 affinity	Function	Gene	
Puf3 targets	Mitochondrial	ARG2, COX17, MEF1, MRF1, MRPL6, MRS1, MSD1, MSF1, MSS2, NAM2, PET123, RDL2, RSM24, SUV3, TIM44	
	Nonmitochondrial	CCC2, CTM1, HIR1, HOT1, IVY1, KEL2, MSB3, UBP16, YNG2	
Non-Puf3 targets	Mitochondrial	ECM10, RNR3	

Note: Candidate Puf3 targets were selected from Gerber et al. (2004), and non-Puf3 targets were selected from SGD (https://www.yeastgenome.org/). Abbreviation: RT-qPCR, real-time quantitative PCR.



FIGURE 3 Differential expression (ΔC_t) of Puf3 targets between M and S backgrounds at initial time point (a) wild type across multiple environments, (b) *pbp1*Δ, *puf3*Δ and *pbp1*Δ*puf3*Δ deletions across YPD and H₂O₂. Cells were grown in YPD (control), CYC (3 µg/mL), 4NQO (2 µg/mL), H₂O₂ (0.15%) and FCCP (20 µg/mL). The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the significant differences (p < 0.05) in ΔC_t between M and S backgrounds were reported. 4NQO, 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide; CYC, cycloheximide; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone; YPD, 1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose.

PUF3 in the H₂O₂ environment to compare against YPD control. In the *pbp1*∆ background, both in YPD and H₂O₂, for all the differentially expressed genes, the expression in M-*pbp1*∆ was higher than S-*pbp1*∆. However, in the *puf3*∆ background, differentially expressed genes were observed in YPD alone, but interestingly, the expression of these genes was higher in the S-*puf3*∆ than in the M-*puf3*∆ strain. This is similar to the previous observations where Puf3 facilitated degradation in YPD but not under stress conditions (Miller et al., 2014). Comparison of the results between single deletions, *pbp1*∆ and *puf3*∆, and double deletion *pbp1*∆*puf3*∆ backgrounds showed that the differential expression of the genes was Puf3-dependent. To understand if this differential expression of Puf3-target genes affected their transcript stability, the transcript levels were measured at regular intervals (15 min each till 60 min endpoint) after adding 1,10-phenanthroline. The ΔC_t slopes of temporal samples of each Puf3-target gene were calculated using linear regression in the M and S strains and were compared in different environments. This comparison was made to determine if there was a change in the stability of the transcripts of Puf3-target genes for both wild-type M and S strains in YPD and H₂O₂, Puf3-target gene slopes were highly correlated (R^2 = 0.83, p = 0.005) and (R^2 = 0.78, p = 0.013, respectively). This observation suggested that in wild-type strains, all the Puf3-target gene transcripts behaved similarly for both

TABLE 2List of genes showing differential expression oftranscripts between M and S strains under each growth condition.

Environment	Puf3 targets showing differential expression
YPD	MEF1, MRPL6, MRS1, MSF1, NAM2, PET123, RSM24
CYC	MRPL6, PET123, CTM1, HOT1, KEL2, UBP16
4NQO	PET123, RSM24, SUV3
H_2O_2	COX17, MEF1, MRF1, MRPL6, MSS2, NAM2, RSM24, UBP16, YNG2
FCCP	MEF1, PET123, RSM24, CTM1

Abbreviations: 4NQO, 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide; CYC, cycloheximide; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide *p*-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone; YPD, 1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose.

environments, that is, stabilised or degraded. For the $pbp1\Delta$ strain, in M and S backgrounds, Puf3-target gene slopes were only correlated in YPD ($R^2 = 0.66$, p = 0.03) and not H_2O_2 ($R^2 = 0.18$, p = 0.6). However, for the $puf3\Delta$ strain, in M and S backgrounds, only in H_2O_2 , Puf3-target gene slopes were correlated ($R^2 = 0.89$, p = 0.0005), whereas in YPD ($R^2 = 0.05$, p = 0.87) no correlation was observed. These results indicated that in H_2O_2 , Puf3-target gene transcripts were under Pbp1 regulation. The temporal ΔC_t plots of each of the genes analysed under the deletion backgrounds of $pbp1\Delta$, $puf3\Delta$ and $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ for all the conditions tested were given in Supporting Information: Figures S10–S12.

3.4 | PBP1 and PUF3 interact differentially with MKT1^{89G} allele to stabilise Puf3 targets

Therefore, to check if these accessory proteins differentially altered transcript stability in an MKT1 allele-specific manner in H₂O₂, we studied $pbp1\Delta$, $puf3\Delta$ and $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ in the M and S backgrounds and compared transcript degradation patterns with wild type using temporal RT-qPCR assay (Figure 4). Using the initial point sample as a control for the temporal gPCR data $\Delta\Delta C_t$ values were computed, and their median was used as a metric to measure the stability of Puf3 targets after the transcriptional stop. In the wild type for YPD (p = 0.99) and H₂O₂ (p = 0.23), there was no significant difference between the median $\Delta\Delta C_t$ of the M and S strains. However, when the median $\Delta\Delta C_t$ values of the M strain were compared between YPD and H₂O₂, it was observed that the Puf3 targets were preferentially stabilised in H_2O_2 ($p < 10^{-3}$; Figure 4a). This stabilisation of Puf3 targets was also observed in the S strain between YPD and H₂O₂ $(p < 10^{-3};$ Figure 4a). This indicated that the degradation rates of Puf3 targets in M and S strains were similar in YPD and H₂O₂. However, in YPD, between M-*pbp*1 Δ and S-*pbp*1 Δ strains, there was a significant difference in the degradation rates for most Puf3 gene transcripts ($p < 10^{-3}$; Figure 4b). The lower the median $\Delta\Delta C_t$ value, the more stabilised the Puf3 transcripts. In H_2O_2 , similarly, S-pbp1 Δ had more stabilised transcripts than the M-pbp1 Δ (p < 10⁻³; Figure 4b). However, when a comparison was made between M-pbp1∆ across

YPD and H_2O_2 , there was a significant difference in stability, with the transcripts in YPD being more stable than in H_2O_2 (p = 0.004; Figure 4b). This was not the case for transcripts across the two environments in S-pbp1 Δ (p = 0.24; Figure 4b). This observation indicated that the role of Pbp1 in transcript stabilisation was more prominent in the M than in the S strain. In the puf3^Δ deletion background, the observations were similar to the *pbp1*∆ background, with significant differences between the M and S backgrounds in YPD (p = 0.03) and H₂O₂ ($p < 10^{-3}$). Puf3 is a known regulator of Puf3 targets in nonstress conditions like YPD (Olivas, 2000). Therefore, we observed that in the absence of *puf3*∆ in the M background, the Puf3 transcripts were stabilised more than what was observed in the wildtype M background (Figure 4a,c). Finally, in the $pbp1 \Delta puf3 \Delta$ deletion strains in the M and S backgrounds, the patterns of the Puf3 transcript stability remained similar to what was observed in the $puf3\Delta$ and $pbp1\Delta$ backgrounds. However, in this case, the absence of $pbp1 \Delta puf3 \Delta$ in both backgrounds stabilised the Puf3 transcripts more than observed in the wild-type backgrounds (Figure 4a,d). These results indicated in YPD that Pbp1 had a stabilising effect while Puf3 had a destabilising effect on Puf3 target transcripts. However, the roles of Pbp1 and Puf3 were concordant in H₂O₂. Therefore, there was an environment-dependent stabilisation of Puf3-target genes in the M background, indicating that Pbp1 and MKT1 alleles regulate mRNA levels posttranscriptionally.

We wanted to test whether *MKT1* alleles differentially affect the stability of Puf3 targets across the environments. Temporal mRNA samples were analysed using transcript-specific RT-qPCR assay to monitor transcript decay rates for each transcript in the M and S backgrounds and across environments. The resulting temporal $\Delta\Delta C_t$ values of each transcript in both M and S backgrounds were compared, and Chows' test was used to determine significance. In YPD, all the genes except *HIR1*, *MSB3* and *MSD1* showed nonsignificant differences in the stability between the *MKT1* alleles. However, some Puf3-target gene transcripts showed significant variation in their stability rates between the *MKT1* alleles (Table 3). For example, in CYC, *COX17*, *MRS1*, *RDL2* and 4NQO, *PET123*, *RDL2*, and *YNG2* significantly varied in their stability rates between the two *MKT1* alleles. The differentially stabilised transcripts belonged to mitochondrial and non-mitochondrial Puf3-target genes.

3.5 | COX17, MRS1 and RDL2 are essential for the M strain to maintain growth advantage in stress environments

To understand the role of differentially expressed Puf3 targets in the pleiotropic stress response of MKT1 alleles, we curated a subset of Puf3 targets to study their roles by deleting them in both M and S backgrounds. Puf3 targets—*COX17*, *IVY1*, *MRF1*, *MRS1*, *MSD1* and *RDL2*—were selected based on their differential expression and varying stability between the *MKT1* alleles observed in qPCR assays. *COX17* and *MRS1* were observed to be both differentially expressed and differentially stabilised. *MRF1* represents differential expression



FIGURE 4 Analysis of temporal median $\Delta\Delta C_t$ values among Puf3 targets between M and S backgrounds in (a) wild type, (b) *pbp1* Δ , (c) *puf3* Δ and (d) $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ deletions across YPD and H₂O₂ (0.15%). The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the error bars represent SD. p Values were calculated using analysis of variance, and significance was indicated as ns, nonsignificant, *p < 0.05, **0.001, ***0.0001 and ****0.00001 on the top of each comparison. YPD, 1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose.

TABLE 3 List of genes showing differential degradation of transcripts between M and S strains under each growth condition.

	Genes showing differential degradation		
Environment	Puf3 targets	Non-Puf3 targets	
YPD	HIR1, MSB3, MSD1		
CYC	COX17, MRS1, RDL2,	RNR3	
4NQO	PET123, RDL2, YNG2		
H_2O_2	RSM24		
FCCP	PET123, SUV3	RNR3	

Abbreviations: 4NQO, 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide; CYC, cycloheximide; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide p-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone; YPD, 1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose.

alone. Similarly, MSD1 and RDL2 have shown differential degradation alone. IVY1 was selected as a nonmitochondrial gene with no differential expression between MKT1 alleles. COX17 acts as a copper metallochaperon in mitochondria (Heaton et al., 2000). Phospholipid-binding protein IVY1 regulates vacuole fission (Lazar et al., 2002). MRF1 is a mitochondrial translation release factor (Pel et al., 1992). RNA-binding protein MRS1 controls RNA processing via splicing Group I introns in mitochondria (Kreike et al., 1986). MSD1 is a mitochondrial aspartyl-tRNA synthetase (Gampel & Tzagoloff, 1989). RDL2 is a mitochondrial thiosulfate sulfurtransferase (Foster et al., 2009).

We grew these gene deletion strains in CYC (0.1 µg/mL), 4NQO $(0.3 \,\mu g/mL)$ and H₂O₂ (0.01%) and compared their growth between M and S across wild-type, $pbp1\Delta$, $puf3\Delta$ and $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ -WILEY-Yeast

backgrounds for each environment. The concentrations of these chemicals in these liquid culture assays, even within the range tested, were lower than those used in the spot dilution assays. Lower concentration was used in liquid culture to allow these wild-type and deletion strains to grow in liquid media. The phenotype difference between M and S in wild type was used to compare the effect of specific gene deletion in the respective environment.

In the wild type, as shown previously, the M strain grew better than the S in CYC (Figure 5a). When *PBP1* was deleted, the M strain was still better than the S. However, the fitness advantage for the M strain over the S was lost when either $puf3\Delta$ or $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ were deleted. This indicated that in CYC, the growth advantage of the M allele was *PUF3*-dependent, and *PUF3* was epistatic over *PBP1*. In 4NQO, in the wild type, the fitness advantage of the M strain over the S was independent of *PBP1* and *PUF3*, but when both these genes were deleted, no difference was observed (Figure 5e). This observation showed that in 4NQO, both *PBP1* and *PUF3* had an additive effect on growth. In the wild type, no significant growth differences were observed in H₂O₂ for any strain.

In the *cox17* Δ background in both the M and S strains, the roles of *PBP1* and *PUF3* were altered. Compared to the wild type, *PBP1* and *PUF3* were required in CYC for the growth advantage of the M allele (Figure 5b). Therefore, *PUF3* was no longer epistatic over *PBP1* in this background. Similarly, in 4NQO, compared to the wild type, no growth difference was observed in either *pbp1* Δ or *puf3* Δ (Figure 5f). This indicated that *COX17* was required for *PBP1* and *PUF3*- dependent growth advantage of the M strain in all three environments.

In the *mrs*1 Δ background, similar to the wild type, in CYC and 4NQO, the deletion of *pbp*1 Δ resulted in a growth advantage of the M strain over the S (Figure 5c,g). However, in contrast to the wild type, the deletion of *puf*3 Δ resulted in a reversal of the growth advantage, with the S strains growing better than the M. This reversed phenotype was also observed in the *pbp*1 Δ *puf*3 Δ double deletion background. This indicated that first, the growth advantage of the M allele was *PUF*3-dependent, and second, in the *mrs*1 Δ background, *PUF*3 was required for the activity of the M allele.

In the *rdl*2 Δ background, in CYC, the growth advantage of the M strain was dependent on *PBP*1, with *PBP*1 being epistatic over *PUF3* as the double deletion *pbp*1 Δ *puf3\Delta* was similar to *pbp*1 Δ alone (Figure 5d). In 4NQO, again, the effect of *RDL2* was *PBP*1-dependent (Figure 5h). Interestingly, in 4NQO, deletion *pbp*1 Δ resulted in the S strain having better growth than the M. Compared to the *MRS1* result, where better growth of the S strain was found to be dependent on *PUF3*, here in *RDL2*, it was dependent on *PBP1*. This indicated that in the same environment, the effects and roles of *PBP1* and *PUF3* are genetic background dependent.

In the H₂O₂ environment, there was no difference between the M and S strains in the wild type, even when $pbp1\Delta$ and $puf3\Delta$ were deleted singly or in combination (Figure 6a). Interestingly, in $cox17\Delta$, $mrs1\Delta$ and $rdl2\Delta$ backgrounds, the M strain was better than the S (Figure 6b-d). But, when in these backgrounds, either $pbp1\Delta$ or $puf3\Delta$



FIGURE 5 Effect of *COX17*, *MRS1* and *RDL2* on *MKT1* allelic response in cycloheximide (CYC) and 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO). Comparison of relative fitness between *MKT1* alleles in wild-type, *cox17Δ*, *mrs1Δ* and *rdl2Δ* backgrounds and the effect of wild type, *pbp1Δ*, *puf3Δ* and *pbp1Δpuf3Δ* for each deletion in (a–d) 0.1 µg/mL CYC and (e–h) 0.3 µg/mL 4NQO. The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the error bars represent SD. *p* Values were calculated using a *t*-test, and significance was indicated as ns, nonsignificant, **p* < 0.05, **0.001, ***0.0001 and ****0.00001 on the top of each comparison.



FIGURE 6 Effect of COX17, MRS1 and RDL2 on MKT1 allelic response in H₂O₂. Comparison of relative fitness between MKT1 alleles in wild type, $cox17\Delta$, $mrs1\Delta$ and $rdl2\Delta$ backgrounds and the effect of wild type, $pbp1\Delta$, $puf3\Delta$ and $pbp1\Delta puf3\Delta$ for each deletion in (a-d) 0.01% H₂O₂. The experiments were performed in triplicates, and the error bars represent SD. p Values were calculated using a t-test, and significance was indicated as ns, nonsignificant, *p < 0.05 and **0.001 on the top of each comparison.

or $pbp1 \Delta puf3 \Delta$ were deleted, the growth advantage of the M strain was lost. This indicated that the Puf3-dependent nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes were required for better growth of the S strain, meaning that the nonfunctional allele of MKT1 needed these genes for proper growth. This conclusion was further supported by deletion phenotypes of $msd1\Delta$ and $mrf1\Delta$, which showed a similar phenotype pattern as $cox17\Delta$ (Supporting Information S1: Figure S13F,I). For a nonmitochondrial gene, like *IVY1*, the deletion of $ivy\Delta$ was the same as wild-type phenotype, indicating that this phenotypic effect might be specific to Puf3-dependent mitochondrial genes only (Supporting Information S1: Figure S13C).

DISCUSSION 4

Our work was based on the hypothesis that MKT1 allele-mediated stress resistance relied on posttranscriptional modulation of mitochondrial activity via Puf3 targets. While establishing the individual roles of PBP1 and PUF3 as interacting genes, we attempted to provide mechanistic insights for these allelic interactions. From the tested environments ranging from oxidative, genotoxic, translational stress, cadmium chloride and high-temperature growth, we identified the diverse stress conditions where the wild-type M strain consistently grew better than the S strain (Figure 1 and Supporting Information S1: Figure S14).

Interestingly, Puf3 upregulated the expression of a few of its mitochondrial targets in stress conditions specific to the M strain, indicating the role of mitochondria in MKT1 allele-specific stress resistance (Figure 4). A few of these mitochondrial target genes were observed to be crucial for the M strain exhibiting better fitness in diverse stress conditions. This difference in fitness was dependent on PBP1 or PUF3 or both in an environment-specific manner (Figures 5 and 6). This indicated that the role of the MKT1 allele on fitness was both dependent on the environment and on the presence of PBP1 and PUF3.

The formation of the Mkt1-Pbp1-Pab1 complex facilitates posttranscriptional regulation by Mkt1. The growth phenotype of the S strain was different from S-pbp1 Δ in CYC and H₂O₂, indicating the formation of the Mkt1-Pbp1-Pab1 complex remains unaffected

between M and S alleles under stress (Supporting Information S1: Figure S4). As Pbp1 localise to stress granules regulating transcript deadenylation (Swisher & Parker, 2010), this particular association allows Mkt1 to control the stress-specific stability of mRNA. Mkt1, with its uncharacterised interaction with Puf3, was observed regulating Puf3 target degradation in an allele-specific manner. Puf3, while binding to its target mRNA, governed their access to translation machinery and was known to transiently repress nuclearencoded mitochondrial transcripts in oxidative stress (Rowe et al., 2014). Our analysis with Puf3 target deletion strains in diverse environments confirmed that the allele-specific phenotype of MKT1 was both Pbp1 and Puf3 dependent. This indicates that the ability of the M allele to stabilise stress-specific mitochondrial transcripts to modulate mitochondrial activity accounts for its better stress responses than the S allele. However, the nature of the interaction between the MKT1^{89G}-Pbp1-Pab1 complex and Puf3 to specify the fate of a transcript is unknown. From our results, it is evident that Mkt1-Pbp1-Pab1 complex formation is independent of the MKT1 allelic background and the environment. However, the higher expression level of a few Puf3 target genes in the M strain indicates that the interaction of the Mkt1-Pbp1-Pab1 complex with Puf3 might be restricted to the $MKT1^{89G}$ allele (Figure 3a).

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The possible mechanisms by which the Puf target transcript can be regulated include interactions from other Puf proteins exemplified in ZEO1 mRNA interacting with both Puf1 and Puf2 (Haramati et al., 2017), facilitating mRNA degradation by promoting deadenylation (Olivas, 2000) and mRNA localisation to mitochondria via Mdm12 and Tom20 (Miller et al., 2014).

Our growth experiments have established the qualitative effect of the M-allele's growth advantage compared to the S-allele across multiple stress conditions in wild type and most of the Puf3 target deletion backgrounds (Figures 5 and 6). However, the magnitude of growth advantage, that is, the difference between the fitness of M and S backgrounds, was variable with respect to each deletion across the environments (Supporting Information S1: Figure S15). For example, the effect of deletion of these mitochondrial genes COX17, MRS1 and RDL2 was variable with respect to the environment and the allelic background. The influence of these genes on the

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growth difference between the M and the S strains was higher in H_2O_2 compared to CYC and 4NQO. One of the interesting observations was that *IVY1*, as a nonmitochondrial Puf3 target, had a phenotype similar to the wild type in H_2O_2 .

Our results highlight another level of regulatory complexity where coding polymorphisms in QTL, like *MKT1*, can modulate multiple stress responses through posttranscriptional control in an environment-specific manner.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Koppisetty Viswa Chaithanya and Himanshu Sinha designed all the experiments and wrote the manuscript. Koppisetty Viswa Chaithanya performed all the experiments.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that supports the findings of this study are available in the Supporting Information of this article.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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