Retracing the evolution from antimicrobial to targeting peptides

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Abstract

We experimentally challenged the endosymbiotic hypothesis that organelle-targeting peptides derive from antimicrobial amphipathic peptides delivered by the host cell, to which organelle progenitors became resistant. To explore the molecular changes required to convert such antimicrobial peptides into *bona fide* organelle-targeting peptides, we expressed a set of 13 antimicrobial peptides of various origins in the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* that serves as a model for both mitochondrial and chloroplast import. The peptides were modified to match distinctive features of mitochondrial and chloroplast targeting peptides, and we assessed their targeting potential by following the intracellular localization and maturation of a Venus fluorescent reporter used as cargo protein. We present a temporal evolutionary scenario that emphasizes the early contribution of exchanging Lysines with Arginines in the sequence of the antimicrobial peptide, the evolution of a processing site followed by the addition of unstructured sequence and protein interaction sites that allow the selective targeting to the chloroplast.

Introduction

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have recently been proposed to be at the evolutionary origin of N-terminal targeting peptides (TPs) that direct proteins into mitochondria and chloroplasts[1,2]. Part of the innate immune system, AMPs are produced by virtually all types of cells in a bid to kill or control microbial adversaries[3,4]. The proposed evolutionary scenario posits that early during endosymbiosis, the host used AMPs to attack the bacterial proto-endosymbiont.

A bacterial resistance mechanism, whereby the AMP is imported into the

bacterial cytoplasm, would have generated a pathway for host proteins to reach

the bacterial cytosol – a plausible first step in the evolution of a protein import

machinery. Cationic, Helical-Amphipathic Ribosomally-produced AMPs (HA-

RAMPs) and TPs share key physico-chemical properties and they were shown, in

some instances, to retain cross-functionality[5]: several TPs showed antimicrobial

activity and five HA-RAMPs, fused to a cleavage-site containing TP element, were

shown to promote the import of a Venus fluorescent protein into either the

mitochondria or the chloroplast of the model green alga *Chlamydomonas*

reinhardtii.

The main part of mTPs and the central element of cTPs appear derived from HA-

RAMPs on account of a shared cationic, amphipathic helical structure that often

encompasses the entire length of the HA-RAMPs[2] and mTPs[6,7]. Although plant

cTPs have been described as unstructured[8], algal cTPs more closely resemble

mTPs in being helical[9]. Helices were observed by NMR in membrane-mimetic

environments in both algal and plant cTPs[10–14], and signatures of amphipathic

helices can be detected in a majority of cTPs[5].

In addition to the helices, both mTPs and cTPs contain recognition sites at the C-

terminus where processing peptidases in the mitochondrial matrix (MPP) and

the chloroplast stroma (SPP) cleave off the cargo protein[15]. These recognition

sites encompass some 10 residues upstream of the cleavage site and are

structurally distinct from the rest of the TPs, even showing a weak sequence

conservation[6,16,17]. While targeting information is usually contained within mTP

sequences upstream of the cleavage site, targeting by cTPs shorter than ca. 60

amino acids often requires downstream unstructured sequence stretches in the

N-terminal domain of the mature protein[18,19]. Besides the amphipathic helical

module and the C-terminal cleavage module shared between mTPs et cTPs, it has

been argued that distinct features at their N-termini conferred organelle

specificity to each set of targeting peptides [6,16,20–26].

In this study, we systematically introduced modifications into candidate HA-

RAMPs to retrace likely steps along the evolution of TPs that improved

targeting[1,2]. We thus retrace the evolutionary switches from HA-RAMPs to TPs

by adding N- and C-terminal TP elements to 13 HA-RAMP sequences, chosen for

their similarity to TPs, in a bid to generate targeting to the mitochondria or

chloroplast in the model green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Besides

providing a guide to the most likely evolutionary sequence of events, this dataset

also provides new insights into how different TP elements contribute to

differential targeting and to the efficiency of protein import. We show that some

HA-RAMPs natively contain such sequence elements, with some HA-RAMPs

being prone to chloroplast targeting while others show a preference for the

mitochondria. Furthermore, we provide evidence for a critical evolutionary

contribution of a substitution of cationic residues from Lysine (K) in HA-RAMPs

to Arginine (R) in TPs.

Results

Figure 1 shows the major sequence features of the 13 HA-RAMPs used in the

present study (Fig. 1A) together with those of a typical cTP and a typical mTP

(Fig. 1B). On the right-hand side, these peptides are represented according to

their proportion of α-helical amphipathic structure. Three HA-RAMPs (Magainin

II, Brevinin 1B and Dermaseptin S4) were chosen based on a manual comparison

with TP sequences, and a further ten were chosen based on scoring as highly

similar to TPs in a recent analysis[5], such that different AMP families would be

represented.

To explore targeting, the 13 HA-RAMPs were systematically modified (Fig. 2),

notably by adding non-helical TP elements from the N- and/or C-terminal

domains of Chlamydomonas Rubisco activase (RBCA) cTP, or a C-terminal

domain of similar length from mitochondrial γ-carbonic anhydrase 2 (CAG2)

mTP (Fig. 1B, Fig. 2). Peptides carrying the 15 amino-acid long cTP N-terminus

(cTP-N) will be denoted ^{c}P. Similarly, peptides with C-terminal elements from

RBCA-cTP (cTP-C) or CAG2-mTP (mTP-C) will be denoted P^c or P^m respectively.

Micrographs for three biological replicates per construct are displayed on Sup.

Figs. 1-18.

In the absence of any modifications, only Brevinin-2I (B2I) and Magainin 2 (MII)

out of the set 13 HA-RAMPs were capable of organelle-targeting visible in

fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 2A). When equipped with B2I, the fluorescent

reporter Venus shows mitochondrial localization: the Venus signal is observed as

a characteristic network pattern that co-localizes with MitoTracker fluorescence

(Fig. 3). By contrast, in the case of MII only a small fraction of fluorescence signal

in the Venus channel shows co-localisation with the mitotracker dye, signifying

that targeting is only partial (Fig. 3).

K/R content contributes to functional divergence between HA-RAMP and TP

We looked for differences in primary sequence that might impede the ability of

the remaining 11 HA-RAMPs to target. As illustrated on Supp. Fig. 19, extant HA-

RAMPs and organellar TPs display a few differences in their amino-acid content.

HA-RAMPs are richer in helix-breaking Glycines (G) but poorer in Prolines (P),

whereas TPs are enriched in Serines (S) compared to HA-RAMPs. Most of the

other amino acid frequencies are broadly similar between the two sets of

peptides and within range of the uniprot average. As expected, both HA-RAMPs

and TPs are poor in acidic residues (D, E) but enriched in basic residues (K or R).

However, their complement in basic residues is markedly different (Fig. 4A):

HA-RAMPs are rich in Lysines (K) whereas TPs are rich in Arginines (R).

In order to see whether these contrasting differences in K/R ratio contributed to

the functional divergence between HA-RAMPs and TPs, we substituted all

instances of R by K in TPs and of K by R in HA-RAMPs. In the rest of the text, the

basic amino acid mostly present in a given peptide P will be indicated by a

subscript as P_R or P_K. HA-RAMPs with K→R transition showed reduced

antimicrobial activity, as illustrated on Fig. 4B by the increased minimum

inhibitory concentrations for MII, Dermaseptin S4 (DS4) or Brevinin 1E (B1E).

Conversely, when the natively R-rich Chlamydomonas Rubisco activase (RBCA)

cTP ($^cCH_R{}^c$) and mitochondrial γ-carbonic anhydrase 2 (CAG2) mTP ($MH_R{}^m$)

underwent systematic R→K substitutions ($^cCH_K{}^c$, $MH_K{}^m$), their ability to target

the chloroplast and the mitochondria were reduced or abolished (Fig. 4C). Note

that TP helical fragments, devoid of N- and C-terminal domains, are denoted as

MH for mTP and CH for cTP (Fig. 1B). These experiments demonstrate the

respective functional contributions of K and R residues to antimicrobial and

organelle targeting activity. We then systematically re-examined the organelle

targeting ability of the set of 13 HA-RAMP that had undergone K→R

substitutions (Fig. 2B). MII_R now shows full mitochondrial targeting, and $R2G_R$

(Ranatuerin 2G) as well as CP3$_R$ (Cecropin P3) show partial targeting, as

evidenced by significant overlap of Venus and mitotracker fluorescence (Fig. 4D).

Targeting peptide elements contribute to targeting

C-termini matter for targeting

Addition of mTP-C, the cleavage-site containing C-terminal element of CAG2-

mTP (Fig. 1B) enabled mitochondrial targeting for ES1$_R$ (Esculentin 1S) and

R2G$_K$ and improved the targeting already observed for R2G$_R$ and CP3$_R$, in

addition to continued targeting by B2I and MII (Fig. 2CD). The impact of adding

cTP-C, the C-terminal element derived from RBCA-cTP (Fig. 1B) is even more

important: cTP-C significantly enabled chloroplast targeting (Fig. 2E,F, Fig. 5B),

which could be seen in 9 HA-RAMP constructs involving EHF (Enterocin HF),

B15 (Bacillocin 1580), LCA (Leucocin A), S1D (Sarcotoxin 1D) and CP3$_R$. The

addition of cTP-C to the helical part of the CAG2-mTP (MH$_R^c$) even partially

retargets the construct to the chloroplast (Fig. 5C), and deletion of cTP-C

abolishes chloroplast targeting by RBCA-cTP (^{c}CH$_R$). By comparison, deletion of

mTP-C reduces but does not totally abolish mitochondrial targeting of CAG2-

mTP (MH$_R$), and addition of mTP-C fails to rescue ^{c}CH$_R$ (^{c}CH$_R^m$). Note that the

addition of cTP-C was also compatible with mitochondrial localization by B2I

and MII and the addition of mTP-C also enabled chloroplast localization by EHF$_R$

(Fig. 2D-F, Fig. 5A,B).

N-termini matter for chloroplast targeting

The sole addition of cTP-N generated at least partial chloroplast targeting (Fig.

2G,H, Fig. 5D) in 6 HA-RAMP constructs, notably by SI Moricin (SIM) as well as

EHF$_R$, B15$_R$, E1S$_R$ and CP3$_R$. However, cTP-N also enabled mitochondrial

targeting (Fig. 2G,H, Fig. 5E) in three HA-RAMPs that had not previously shown

mitochondrial localization, B1E, S1D and DDM_R (Dermadistinctin M).

The importance of cTP-N as a chloroplast determinant becomes most evident

when combined with a C-terminal element: addition of cTP-N to constructs

equipped with mTP-C (Fig. 2I,J) resulted in 10 HA-RAMP constructs targeting the

chloroplast (EHF, B15, SIM, E1S, LCA_K, $CP3_K$) as well as 6 constructs showing

dual targeting to the chloroplast and the mitochondria (S1D, B1E, MII_R, $B2I_R$).

Combining cTP-N with cTP-C (Fig. 2KL) generates at least partial chloroplast

targeting in 22 out of 26 HA-RAMP constructs (including 1 instance of dual

targeting by $R2G_R$); only Dermaseptin S4 (DS4) fails to show any chloroplast

targeting. Consider B2I with cTP-N (^cB2I, Fig. 2G-La) as an example of the effect

of combining cTP-N with C-termini, shown in Fig. 5F. Equipped with mTP-C,

$^cB2I_K{}^m$ targets the mitochondria whereas addition of cTP-C ($^cB2I_K{}^c$) generates

partial targeting to the chloroplast. Upon K→R, the presence of mTP-C ($^cB2I_R{}^m$)

now supports dual targeting and full chloroplast targeting is observed in the

presence of cTP-C ($^cB2I_R{}^c$).

Finally, Fig. 5G shows that while addition of cTP-N to the CAG2-mTP abolished

mitochondrial targeting ($^cMH_R{}^m$), the cTP-N/cTP-C combination also retargets

MH to the chloroplast, and enables partial chloroplast targeting of a control in

which the central element is composed of a poly-Alanine tract ($^cAA^c$) devoid of

amphipathic properties and of a no peptide control (^{c}-^{c}). The two latter

experiments demonstrate that there are enough determinants for recognition of

the chloroplast translocon dispersed between the Nter and Cter of a cTP, to

target Venus to the chloroplast, albeit with a lower efficiency than when an

amphipathic helix is present in between.

To further explore the role of the N-terminal cTP domain, we performed some *in*

silico comparisons of the studied peptides. In Principal Component Analyses (on

ACC Z-scales[5]) comparing TP N- and C-termini with our 13 HA-RAMPs (Sup. Fig.

20), cTPs and mTPs could be differentiated much better by N- compared to C-

termini, supporting N-termini as important specificity determinants.

Furthermore, even though algal cTP N-termini are more charged, less

hydrophobic and more disordered than higher plant cTPs (Sup. Fig. 21) (in line

with algal cTPs being more mTP-like[9]), Chlamydomonas cTP N-termini are

recognized as chloroplast-targeting in a model trained on Arabidopsis TP and

vice versa (Sup. Fig. 21), confirming that essential physico-chemical features of

chloroplast determination in cTP N-termini are maintained in both lineages.

HA-RAMPs dominate targeting specificity

Considering Fig. 2 by columns reveals that organelle specificity is, to a large

extent, determined by HA-RAMPs. Only 3 HA-RAMPs (B2I, R2G, MII; referred to

hereafter as the mt-set) account for >70% of all constructs where mitochondrial

targeting is seen. Similarly, 5 HA-RAMPs (E1S, LCA, SIM, B15, EHF; referred to as

the cp-set) account for the majority (∼57%) of all chloroplast targeting, and for

two thirds when excluding the cTP-N/cTP-C combination that generates

chloroplast targeting across most HA-RAMPs. In some instances, a set of peptide

modifications may switch targeting from the mitochondria to the chloroplast, yet

the major effect of modifications, i.e. exchanging K→R (Fig. 4, Sup. Fig. 22) or

adding TP elements (Fig. 5, 6), is to enhance the targeting ability to an organelle

determined by the HA-RAMP primary sequence properties (Fig. 2).

Chloroplast targeting involves longer, less helical peptides

To understand what differentiates mt-set from cp-set HA-RAMPs, we examined the sequence characteristics of our 13 HA-RAMPs with those of well-characterized Chlamydomonas targeting peptides (Fig. 6). In Chlamydomonas, mTPs are *ca.* 35 residues in length (Fig. 6A). By contrast, most cTPs are significantly longer (p=0.0017). The difference is even greater than shown here given that many cTPs require a contribution from post-cleavage site residues for successful targeting[5,18,19]. Consistently, cp-set HA-RAMPs (in green, Fig. 6A) are longer than mt-set HA-RAMPs (in orange; p=0.0184) and require further elongation by addition of TP elements before targeting can be observed (Fig. 2). Most mTPs fold into an amphipathic helix for most of the sequence (~80% on average, Fig. 6B) starting directly from their N-terminus (Fig. 6C). The fraction dedicated to amphipathic helix formation in cTPs is significantly lower (Fig. 6B, p<0.0001), with a longer stretch of non-helical sequence at the N-terminus (Fig. 6C, p<0.0001). A PCA analysis based on these properties, plus the fraction of R and K, recapitulates the combined properties within each peptide (Sup. Fig. 23). The PCA shows that cp-set HA-RAMPs are localized with cTPs in the upper left area of the graph, consistent with a lower helix fraction (Fig. 1, Fig. 6B) due to longer sequence stretches upstream of the main helix than in the mt-set HA-RAMPs (Fig. 1, Fig. 6C, p=0.0199). Consistent with the importance of these helical features, LCA, the most helical among cp-set HA-RAMPs also shows the highest fraction of only partial chloroplast targeting (3 out of 5 targeting constructs, Fig. 2j rows E,F,K). Furthermore, SIM and E1S, the two cp-set HA-RAMPs with the shortest pre-helix segments (Fig7C), both require addition of cTP-N for chloroplast targeting (Fig. 2i,k).

 cTPs are predicted to be more prone to protein interaction than mTPs

cTPs appear more likely to interact with proteins than mTPs (Sup. Fig. 24), just

like cp-set HA-RAMPs. 'FGLK' motifs that are reportedly TOC interaction sites in

plant cTPs[20] appear shortened to 'GLK' motifs in Chlamydomonas but they are

associated with an increased protein interaction potential in cTPs compared to

mTPs (p<0.0001), including within cTP-N and cTP-C elements. However, Hsp70-

interaction sites[23], which are commonly found at cTP N-termini[20], also occur at a

high frequency in mTP sequences and HA-RAMPs (Sup. Fig. 24, 25).

Probing cleavage of HA-RAMP-driven reporter constructs by immunobloting

To characterize the maturation of HA-RAMP–targeted proteins upon organellar

import, we performed immunoblotting experiments (Fig. 7). Indicative examples

were selected for clarity; a more comprehensive overview is provided in Sup.

Fig. 26.

In the absence of a dedicated cleavage site (Fig. 7A), we found some cleavage did

occur but preproteins are also maintained: two bands are observed in constructs

that were localized in an organelle by fluorescence imaging (lanes d,f-j). The

upper band corresponds to unprocessed Venus, which is a fusion of the reporter

with the HA-RAMP construct and migrates at varying positions depending on the

length of the presequence. The lower band corresponds to the processed form

migrating closer to the "free" Venus position (lane c) depending on the exact site

of cleavage. The cTP and mTP controls (lanes a,b) contain 23 residues between

cleavage site and Venus (Venus+23), and maintain very little preprotein

migrating above. In HA-RAMP constructs by contrast, the majority of Venus

remained in the unprocessed top band for constructs targeting the mitochondria

(lanes f-j). Nonetheless, the presence of a faint processed form in the lower band

just above free Venus shows that some cleavage occurs. The proportion of

processed versus unprocessed Venus preprotein is much higher in partially

chloroplast-targeted ^{c}SIM$_K$ (lane d), hinting at more efficient degradation of the

unprocessed form in the chloroplast (see also Sup. Fig. 26).

Addition of cleavage sites improves cleavage across organelles: In the presence

of either cTP-C (Fig. 7B, Blot 1) or mTP-C (Fig. 7B, Blot 2), which contain the

RBCA-cTP and CAG2-mTP cleavage sites respectively, targeting constructs

appear to be cleaved at a site corresponding to TP controls (Venus+23).

Constructs equipped with either of the two cleavage sites deliver a processed

Venus of similar size, independently of whether the mitochondria or the

chloroplast are targeted (Fig. 7B). These results indicate that mTP and cTP

cleavage sites are recognized in both organelles. We note that in the case of HA-

RAMP constructs equipped with mTP-C, cleavage appears to occur not at the

cleavage site previously identified for CAG2 (Fig. 7B Blot 2 lane a, top band,

corresponding to Venus+23), but instead at or near a second site closer to "free"

Venus (compare Fig. 7B Blot 2 lane a, bottom band to lanes b-g), implying

processing within ten residues upstream of Venus. Unlike mTP-C (Fig. 7B Blot 2

lane h), cTP-C appears to be processed in the absence of targeting (Fig. 7B Blot 1

lanes a,b) at a site different to the one used in organelles (Fig. 7B Blot 1 lanes c-

h).

A switch from K to R (Fig. 7C), which improved targeting, also increased the

amount of processed form relative to that of the unprocessed form in all cases,

whether due to a gain of targeting (lanes f-i) or an increase in efficiency (lanes b-

e), suggesting that cleavage can serve as a proxy for targeting. Indeed, there is a

remarkable correlation between which constructs show cleavage, as observed in

immunoblots, and which constructs show targeting, as judged from microscopy

(Sup. Fig. 26). We note that faint processed bands can be seen for several

unmodified HA-RAMPs (Sup. Fig. 26), suggesting further peptides in addition to

B2I$_K$ and MII$_K$ (Fig. 2) may be able to support some amount of targeting that is,

however, too partial to be seen in fluorescence microscopy.

Discussion

How TPs may have evolved from HA-RAMPs

In an assessment of the hypothesis that extant TPs are derived from a subclass of

antimicrobial peptides that harbor an amphipathic helix, the HA-RAMPs[1,2], we

studied a systematic series of HA-RAMP constructs. This dataset allows us to

propose an evolutionary scenario (Fig. 8) for the conversion of such peptides

from antimicrobial to *bona fide* targeting peptides whose properties allow

differential targeting between mitochondria and chloroplasts. We showed that a

K to R switch reduces cytotoxicity of HA-RAMPs, while increasing targeting. This

dual effect must produce a strong selection pressure favoring this exchange at an

early step of the endosymbiosis process (Fig. 8A). The underlying mechanism

warrants further research, but the finding is in line with the fact that Arginines

provide a better uptake efficiency than other cationic residues because of the

guanidinium group forming bidentate hydrogen bonds with membrane

phosphate groups[27,28]. Differences in bulkiness or in pKa[29,30], or trans-acting

factors such as regulation of targeting through ubiquination of K[31], may also play

a role. Mitochondria appear able to tolerate the presence of HA-RAMP-

containing preproteins, suggesting mTPs could have evolved relatively easily

from HA-RAMPs. Even unaltered HA-RAMPs can in some cases deliver cargo,

providing a plausible starting point for protein import. Thus addition of cleavage

sites would likely have come as a second step (Fig. 8B), allowing presequences to

be degraded separately from the cargo protein[32]. Interestingly, Arginines feature

prominently in Chlamydomonas cleavage site consensus sequences[17], thus

cleavage sites may be generated by the K→R switch, potentially accounting for

increased chloroplast-localization among cTP-N bearing constructs (Fig. 2GH).

Since cTPs evolved in a cell that already had mTPs, additional discriminating

elements were needed to avoid large scale mistargeting. We found that N-

terminal elements interact with suitable C-termini to determine chloroplast

targeting. The ~15 N-terminal residues have been suggested as specificity

determinants in the literature before[20-22], however, the contribution of this

element to chloroplast targeting has remained under debate. Our data suggests

that rather than providing an absence of Arginines[21,33] (Sup. Fig. 21) or a

difference in Hsp70 binding sites[20,25,26] (Sup. Fig. 24), cTP N-termini appear to

contribute unstructured sequence upstream of the amphipathic helix. Thus HA-

RAMPs that intrinsically contained relatively unstructured N-termini proved

most able to support chloroplast targeting even in the absence of cTP-N. The

need to contain unstructured sequence[8] as well as the increased length of cTPs,

even extending beyond the cleavage site in many cases[5,18,19], appear

mechanistically related to the import system. Whereas mitochondrial import

makes use of the proton gradient across the inner membrane to power uptake of

positively charged presequences[34,35], energized chloroplast import requires the

cTP to be elongated enough to reach across both TOC and TIC and contact the

translocation motor[20,36]. Highly structured sequence elements such as a helix at

the Venus N-terminus[37] can thus impede chloroplast targeting in the absence of a

sufficiently long presequence. HA-RAMPs with suitably unstructured C-termini,

such as SIM in this study, were thus most likely to generate chloroplast targeting

even in the absence of an added TP C-terminus. Similarly, higher chloroplast

targeting among cTP-C constructs may be due to mTP-C being more structured,

containing a long predicted amphipathic helix. Unstructured elements at N- and

C- termini may also contribute to chloroplast targeting by enabling interactions

with protein receptors associated with TOC. In basal algal lineages, a conserved F

at cTP N-termini appears to play a role in contacting TOC through an interaction

with cytoplasmic POTRA domains of TOC75[38–40], mimicking Omp85-interactions

in the bacterial cytoplasm mediated by C-terminal sequence motifs[41], which may

make a TOC-interacting N-terminus an ancient feature of cTPs. In the green

lineage, TOC-interaction has instead been attributed to semi-conserved 'FGLK'

motifs[25,42–44], although the requirement for F appears to be relaxed in

Chlamydomonas (Fig. 5G)[45]. The presence of GLK sites with high predicted

interactivity in cTP-N and cTP-C may explain the high chloroplast targeting

potential of constructs equipped with both elements. Thus the evolution of the

chloroplast import machinery and chloroplast-specific TPs likely went hand in

hand. To generate unstructured, protein interactive N- and C-termini, cTPs may

have evolved from HA-RAMPs that already contained unstructured sequence

elements (Fig. 8C), as seen for cp-set HA-RAMPs. Alternatively, cTPs may have

co-opted existing mTPs that already contained R and a cleavage site, yet were

still recognized by cyanobacterial HA-RAMP importers which were part of their

resistance mechanism to antimicrobial attack. In this case, the key innovation

that generated cTPs may simply have been the addition of an unstructured,

possibly TOC-interacting N-terminus to mTPs (Fig. 8D), which we showed here
to be sufficient to retarget mt-set HA-RAMPs equipped with TP C-termini at least
partially to the chloroplast.

The legacy of HA-RAMPs: Amphipathic helices and membrane interaction

A direct interaction with the membrane bilayer, rather than protein receptors, would provide a basic mechanism for a first step in organelle targeting and could explain how TPs can be functionally specific whilst diverse in sequence. Core components of the outer membrane translocons, such as the translocation pores TOM40 and TOC75 are widely conserved, and both yeast TOM40 and plant TOC75 retain the ability to interact with TPs in the absence of dedicated receptor proteins[46-48]. In contrast to the core components, dedicated TP receptor proteins are not conserved between the key eukaryotic lineages and should be regarded as later addition to translocation machineries[49,50]. Where receptor interactions are required for targeting, binding sites need to be restored when using heterologously expressed proteins, e.g. a leading F needs to be added to plant cTPs to generate cyanelle-targeting in glaucophytes[51] (see previous paragraph). Yet for the most part, heterologous expression of TPs across even large phylogenetic distances generates reliable targeting in both plastids and mitochondria[52-54], such as ophistokont mTPs in trypanosomes and cyanelle cTPs in plant chloroplasts. Most strikingly, chromatophore targeting peptides from *Paulinella chromatophora*, an amoeba that has undergone a primary endosymbiosis with an α-cyanobacterium ca. 1 Mya, target tobacco chloroplasts[55]. TP-enabled targeting must therefore use a universally shared mechanism. In HA-RAMPs, amphipathic helices serve to insert into target

membranes. Individual mTPs and cTPs have also been shown to interact with membrane bilayers[6,14]. Our finding that targeting specificity is largely determined by the sequence of the HA-RAMPs points to amphipathic helical elements being directly involved in determining target specificity. While N- and C-terminal elements aid specificity determination, particularly for chloroplast import, their influence fails to explain why some HA-RAMPs target preferentially the mitochondria or exclusively the chloroplast. In analogy to Rubisco small subunit cTP interacting with chloroplast-mimetic membranes only in presence of the chloroplast-specific galactolipid MGDG[56], we suggest amphipathic helices may interact specifically with the membranes of the targeted organelle[3]. Further understanding of lipid interactions, the relationship between extant translocons and bacterial resistance importers, as well as of the peptidases involved in the degradation of TPs, should shed new light on the evolutionary process that allowed the stable integration of proto-organelles through endosymbiosis.

Materials and Methods

Construct generation

Venus expression constructs were designed in SnapGene (v4.3.11) and generated by integrating PCR-amplified (Q5 hot start high-fidelity, #M0515, New England Biolabs) DNA fragments into plasmid pODC53[57] upstream of Venus using Gibson assembly (NEBuilder HiFi DNA assembly, #E5520S, New England Biolabs). Chlamydomonas TP sequences were amplified from genomic DNA extracted from strain T222+ (CC-5101). Templates for codon optimized HA-RAMP, RP and R→K modified TP sequences were obtained by gene synthesis

(Eurofins Genomics). Correct assembly was verified by sequencing (Eurofins

Genomics). Linear transformation cassettes were generated through restriction

digest with *Eco*RV (New England Biolabs).

Transformation and fluorescence screen conditions

Constructs were transformed into wild-type strain T222+ (CC-5101) using the

protocol described previously[58], except using 4µl of DNA at 2µg/µl.

Transformants selected for Paromomycin resistance were grown in 200µl TAP in

96-well plates under 50µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-2} for 3-5 days and then screened for

Venus expression in a fluorescence plate reader (CLARIOstar, BMG Labtech) as

described previously[57].

Microscopy

Cells were grown in 96-well plates and epifluorescence microscopy was carried

out as described before[5]. Strains with suspected mitochondrial targeting were

subjected to 0.1 µM MitoTracker Red CMXRos (ThermoFisher) in growth

medium for 30 min in the dark and washed with TAP prior to taking

epifluorescence images with the same settings as before[5], using a white light LED

and a beam splitter at 535nm (423052-0104-000, Zeiss) in combination with a

custom-made filter set (559/34 BrightLine HC, Beamsplitter T 585 LP, 607/36

BrightLine HC; AHF Analysentechnik AG) for detecting the MitoTracker signal.

Images were adjusted in Fiji[59] (ImgageJ version 2.0.0) as described before[5], and

final figures assembled in PowerPoint (Microsoft PowerPoint for Mac 2011,

Version 14.6.3).

Western Blots

Cells were grown up in 10ml TAP Erlenmeyer Flasks under 30µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}, shaken at 160RPM until late mid-log phase. 2ml Aliquots were harvested by centrifugation at room temperature in a tabletop centrifuge, resuspended in 30µl storage buffer (1× Roche cOmplete™ Mini proteinase inhibitor cocktail, 10 mM NaF, 0.2 M DTT, 0.2 M NaCO$_3$) and kept at -20°C. 20µl boiling buffer (1× Roche cOmplete™ Mini proteinase inhibitor cocktail, 10mM NaF, 50 g/L SDS, 200 g/L sucrose) was added to thawed aliquots, which were then boiled for 50 seconds. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation (tabletop centrifuge, maximum speed, 15 minutes, 4°C). Chlorophyll content of 5 µl supernatant in 1 ml water was estimated as 1 µg chlorophyll µl^{-1} = 0.11 × (OD$_{680}$ − OD$_{770}$), with Absorbances at 680 nm (OD$_{680}$) and 770nm (OD$_{770}$) recorded in a spectrophotometer. Samples were diluted to load identical volumes, and a constant 10 µg chlorophyll were loaded onto large gels (35×27cm; resolving gel: 12% Acrylamide, 0.32% Bisacrylamide, 0.25 µl/ml Tetramethylethylenediamine, 250 mg/L Ammonium Persulfate, 375 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.8; stacking gel: 5% Acrylamide, 0.133% Bisacrylamide, 0.666 µl/ml Tetramethylethylenediamine, 666 mg/L Ammonium Persulfate, 125 mM Tris/HCl pH 6.8) alongside a molecular size marker (Precision Plus Dual Extra Prestained Protein Standards, BioRad), and gels run overnight at room temperature at 18 A. Proteins in the size range <25 kDA to >75 kDa were transferred onto 0.1 µm nitrocellulose membranes for 1h at 0.8 A cm^{-2}, using 5 layers of 3 mm filter paper (Whatman) soaked in transfer buffer 1 (40 mM Aminocaproic acid, 20% Isopropanol, 25 mM Tris/HCl pH 9.4) between at the cathode, followed by gel, membrane and 2 filter papers soaked in transfer buffer 2 (20% Isopropanol, 25 mM Tris/HCl pH 10.4), and finally 3 filter papers

soaked in transfer buffer 3 (20% Isopropanol, 300 mM Tris/HCl pH 10.4) at the

anode. Proteins were fixed and visualized by Ponceau Red staining, incubated for

1h at room temperature in block (30 g/L skimmed milk powder, 0.1% tween-20,

1x PBS: 140 mM NaCl, 30 mM KCl, 100 mM Na_2HPO_4, 15 mM KH_2PO_4) and

immunolabelled overnight at 4°C using an α-FLAG 1° antibody (Sigma Aldrich

F1804, diluted 1:10 000 in block). Membranes were thoroughly washed (0.1%

tween-20, 1x PBS), treated for 1h at room temperature with horseradish

peroxidase-conjugated α-mouse 2° antibody (diluted 1:10 000 in block), washed

again and revealed using ECL recorded on a ChemiDoc (Biorad). Blots were

analyzed and converted into TIFF format using the Image Lab software (Version

6.0.0 build 26, BioRad), final figures were assembled in PowerPoint (Microsoft).

Antimicrobial activity assay

Minimum inhibitory concentration assays were performed as described before[5].

Sequence Data Set

TPs with experimentally-confirmed cleavage sites were recovered from

proteomic studies: *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cTP (Terashima 2011), mTP

(Tardif 2012); *Arabidopsis thaliana* cTP (Ge 2008, Rowland 2015), mTP (Huang

2009). For each peptide, we recovered the full-length protein sequence from

NCBI and UNIPROT. Cytoplasmic control sequences were generated by taking N-

terminal sequence stretches of random length, matching the distribution of

peptide lengths observed in our Chlamydomonas TP dataset, from a random

subset of Chlamydomonas proteins with a validated cytoplasmic location in

UNIPROT. For calculating amino acid frequencies, the same HA-RAMP sequences

were used as before[5].

Amphipathic helix prediction

Amphipatic α-helices are predicted as described previously[5], following the principle of the Heliquest algorithm[60]. Briefly, the approach aims to establish the longest sequence stretch that contains identifiable hydrophilic and hydrophobic faces. The algorithm is iterated such that multiple non-overlapping helices can be found within a given peptide (Fig. 1). Consequently, helix fractions are calculated as number of residues within all predicted helices divided by the total number of residues in the peptide; for evaluating the number of upstream residues, only the longest helix was considered (Fig. 7, Sup. Fig. 23).

ACC terms

In order to evaluate the physicochemical properties of our peptides we used the approach we previously described[5]. Briefly, each amino acid is described in terms of 3 'Z-scale' values[61] that can be interpreted as representing a residue's hydrophobic, steric and electronic properties. Auto-cross-covariances (ACC) between nearby residues are calculated up to a distance of four amino acids, generating a quantitative representation of a given peptide in terms of 36 ACC terms.

Visualization

We performed a principal component analysis (PCA) to visualize the relationships between peptides as described by their 36 ACC terms (Sup. Fig. 20) or by their 5 salient TP properties (Sup. Fig. 23) using python package sklearn v0.22.1[62].

Analysis of TP N-termini

TP N-termini, defined as the N-terminal 15 amino acids, were analysed (Sup. Fig.

21) as follows: Charge profiles were generated as described in the literature[25].

Hydrophobicity of TP N-termini was estimated using the Heliquest standalone

application[60]. To evaluate disorder, we used IUpred2A, a software that calculates

the probability for each residue of being in a disordered region[63]. We used the

default 'Long' setting, which has been reported to be more accurate than the

alternative 'Short' setting[64]. The disorder of a given sequence was taken as the

mean of the probability values for each residue (average residue disorder

probability).

Statistical prediction

To evaluate the predictive power of ACC terms[5] obtained for 15 residue-long TP

N-termini with regards to localization (Sup. Fig. 21) we used a binomial logistic

regression classifier. We performed one hundred 5-fold cross validation runs. In

each set of one hundred runs, we randomly selected sequences such that the

same number of mTPs and cTPs were used. For *C. reinhardtii* we used 33 mTP

and 33 cTP and for *A. thaliana* we use 29 mTP and 29 cTP sequences. We used an

elastic net penalty in a saga solver with an l1-ratio (a-parameter) of 0, which is

equivalent to using only ridge penalty, where all features take part in the model,

and a C parameter $(1/\lambda)$ of 0.1. The a and $1/\lambda$ parameters were optimised with

10-fold cross validation. Firstly, when $1/\lambda = 1$, the best accuracy (0.82) was

obtained with a between 0 and 0.09. Secondly, with a = 0, the best accuracy

(0.82) was obtained with $1/\lambda = 0.1$. Custom scripts were written in python

(v3.7.6).

Interaction site prediction

Values for the Boman index, a quantitative proxy for whether a peptide is more likely to interact with proteins (high values) or lipids (low values), were calculated as described in the literature[65]. Anchor2 interactivity values, a second proxy for protein interaction potential developed for disordered sequences[66], were calculated using the IUPred2A standalone application and webserver[63,67]. Interaction sites for Hsp70 were predicted as described by Ivey and coworkers[23] based on experimental affinity values for individual amino acids. Putatively TOC-interacting 'FGLK' sites were established by searching for presence of F and [P or G] and [K or R] and [A or L or V], and absence of [D and E], within each 8-residue window of a sequence, corresponding to rule 22 by Chotewutmontri and co-workers[25] that was recommended by the authors in personal communication. 'FGLK-1' sites were established the same way, but requiring the presence of only three of the four positive determinants. Custom scripts were implemented in R[68] (v3.6.1) using RStudio[69] (v1.2.1335).

Statistical analysis

Chlamydomonas TP distributions (Fig. 6, Sup.Fig. 24) were compared using two-sided t-tests ($n=34$ for mTPs and $n=85$ for cTPs), and associated mt-set and cp-set HA-RAMPs were compared using one-sided t-tests based on the trends set by TPs ($n=3$ for mt-set and $n=5$ for cp-set HA-RAMPs) in R[68] using RStudio[69]. Multiple Kruskal statistical tests are performed (same Chlamydomonas mTPs and cTPs as above, plus $n=382$ HA-RAMPs) to evaluate the distribution of amino acids (Fig. 4A, Sup. Fig. 19) in the different groups, followed by Dunn post-hoc tests (scipy v1.4.1).

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Competing interest statement

The authors declare no competing interests. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to publish the results.

Data availability statement

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article and its supplementary materials.

Code availability statement

Custom code generated in the course of this project will be made available without restrictions upon request to the authors.

Materials availability statement

All constructs and an informative subset of expressing strains will be made available through the Chlamydomonas resource centre.

Author contributions

FAW, IL and YC conceptualized the project and acquired funds. ODC devised, conducted and visualized the wet-lab experimental part of the investigation, and was chiefly responsible for assigning subcellular localization interpretations based on microscopic evidence. CG carried out the dry-lab/bioinformatic part of the investigation and associated visualization under the supervision of IL, writing custom software to do so (ODC contributed to the analysis of FGLK and Hsp70-binding sites). ODC wrote the original draft of the manuscript. FAW, IL, ODC and YC reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors approved the final manuscript.

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Figure 1. Peptide sequences under study. Amino acid sequences are shown using the one-letter code. Positively charged residues are highlighted in red. The fraction of the sequence predicted to fold into amphipathic helices (see Methods) is provided by a pie-chart to the right of the sequence; for TPs in (B) this was

calculated up to the cleavage site indicated by a downward arrow. Predicted

amphipathic helices are highlighted using a cylinder cartoon, with residues

contributing to the hydrophilic/hydrophobic face indicated on the top/bottom.

No helix could be predicted within RBCA-cTP, and thus the indicated helix is

taken from a published NMR-structure obtained in membrane-mimetic

conditions[11]. Note that the two helices of E1S are at an angle to each other and

therefore cannot form a single continuous amphipathic helix. Abbreviations: **A)**

B2I: Brevinin 2ISb, R2G: Ranatuerin 2G, MII: Magainin 2, B1E: Brevinin 1E, DS4:

Dermaseptin S4, DDM: Dermadistinctin M, CP3: Cecropin P3, S1D: Sarcotoxin 1D,

E1S: Esculentin 1S, LCA: Leucocin A, SIM: SI Moricin, B15: Bacillocin 1580, EHF:

Enterocin HF; **B)** TP – targeting peptide, cTP: chloroplast TP, mTP: mitochondrial

TP, RBCA: Rubisco activase, CAG2: γ-carbonic anhydrase, cTP-N: cTP N-terminal

element, CH: cTP helix, MH: mTP helix, cTP-C: cTP C-terminal element, mTP-C:

mTP C-terminal element; **C)** RP: random peptide.

Figure 2. TP modifications enable HA-RAMP targeting. Chimeric constructs

were generated by combining TP elements with HA-RAMPs (see Fig. 1 for

sequences; in the ᶜAAᶜ construct in column s, all residues of the helical element

"CH" within RBCA-cTP are replaced by Alanines). The overview graph shows in

each column (a-s) one of the peptides with a cartoon indicating the position of

the predicted amphipathic helices within the sequence; and in each row (A-L) a

combination of peptide, K/R modification and TP-element indicated by a cartoon

and the following shorthand: P = peptide, $_K$ = contains mostly Lysines, $_R$ =

contains mostly Arginines, ^{m} = mTP element, ^{c} = cTP element (^{c}P = cTP-N, P^c =

cTP-C). In each case, an overview of observed targeting is provided by a colour

code (see figure legend). Images for all constructs are shown in Supplementary

Fig. 1-18. Note that the present results for B2I$_K^c$, MII$_K^c$, S1D$_K^c$, B15$_K^c$ and EHF$_K^c$

(row E, columns a,b,h,l,m) confirmed our previous report on these strains[5].

Figure 3. Unmodified HA-RAMPs can target the mitochondria. Indicated

peptides were inserted upstream of a Venus fluorescent protein reporter in a

bicistronic expression system for Chlamydomonas[57]. AR^P: hybrid *HSP70a-RBCS2*

promoter, i1: *RBCS2* intron 1, i2: *RBCS2* intron 2, FLAG: FLAG-tag, |: stop codon,

*: bicistronic bridge sequence tagcat, AphVIII^R: Paromomycin resistance gene,

R2^T: *RBCS2* terminator. Epifluorescence microscopy images of selected examples

are shown. False-coloured yellow fluorescence from the Venus channel reports

on the subcellular localization of the fluorescent reporter. MitoTracker

fluorescence, false-coloured in cyan, indicates the position of mitochondria

(although parts of the cell exterior are sometimes also stained), with salient

features highlighted with orange arrows to indicate co-localisation with the

Venus channel. Chlorophyll autofluorescence, shown in magenta, indicates the

location of the chloroplast. Scale bars are 5μm. Refer to Fig. 1 for sequences and

 Where a construct was interpreted as

819   generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated

820   by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics

821   for partial targeting.

Figure 4. K is for killing, R is for targeting. A) Lysine (K) and Arginine (R)

frequencies for Chlamydomonas TPs and HA-RAMPs are shown as boxplots

(center line: median; box limits: upper and lower quartiles; whiskers: min/max

values within 1.5x interquartile range). To give a baseline for comparison, their

average across the Uniprot database is given as red horizontal line. Statistically

significant differences are indicated with stars: (Multiple Kruskal-Wallis tests

followed by Dunn post-hoc tests, ***$p < 0.0001$). See Sup. Fig. 19 for all amino

acids. **B)** Grayscale photos of antimicrobial activity growth assays in the

presence of dilutions of three selected antimicrobial peptides against *E. coli*

strain BW25113 show reduced activity when natively K-rich sequences (K, left

hand columns) are altered by replacing all Ks by Rs (R, right hand columns). **C**

and D) Epifluorescence images of selected chimeric TP control (C) or HA-RAMP

(D) constructs are shown as in Fig. 3. MH: mTP helical fragment, CH: cTP helical

fragment. Orange arrows highlight co-localisation of Venus signal with the

MitoTracker dye, demonstrating mitochondrial localisation; green arrows

highlight the presence of Venus signal in the pyrenoid, demonstrating

chloroplast localization. Where a construct was interpreted as generating

reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an

orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively.

Figure 5. TP N- and C-termini enable chloroplast targeting by HA-RAMPs.
Exemplary epifluorescence images are shown as in Fig. 3; same convention as in Fig. 4 for Venus localisation. Note that cTP-C contains a pyrenoid localization motif[70], explaining the particularly pronounced Venus accumulation in the pyrenoid in constructs carrying this element. The result for $B2I_K^c$ in (B) confirms our previous report on this construct[5].

Figure 7. Chloroplast and mitochondrial targeting HA-RAMPs match cTPs and mTPs respectively. For salient properties, Chlamydomonas mTPs and cTPs are compared to our 13 HA-RAMPs. TP distributions are shown as boxplots (center line: median; box limits: upper and lower quartiles; whiskers: min/max values within 1.5x interquartile range), coloured points represent individual peptides. The position of the CAG2-mTP and RBCA-cTP is circled in each graph. The non-zero value for RBCA-cTP in (B) and the single circle in (C) report on the amphipathic helix established by an NMR-study[11], since no helix could be predicted by our approach. HA-RAMPs are colour-coded by preferred targeting: orange = mt-set; green = cp-set (cf. Fig. 2). **A)** cTPs are significantly longer than mTPs (p=0.0017), and cp-set are longer than mt-set HA-RAMPs (p=0.0184). **B)** Helices make up a significantly smaller fraction of cTPs than mTPs (p<0.0001), and HA-RAMPs show a similar trend (0.1122). **C)** cTPs contain significantly longer sequence stretches upstream of the longest predicted helix than mTPs (p<0.0001), as do cp-set compared to mt-set HA-RAMPs (p=0.0205). Reported p-values were obtained through two-way t-tests for TPs and one-way t-tests for HA-RAMPs.

A) **Cleavage can occur without a TP cleavage site**

B) **TP cleavage sites are recognized in both organelles**

Blot 1: cTP-C   Blot 2: mTP-C

C) **Increase in targeting upon K→R is visible in cleavage**

Figure 8. Import is associated with maturation of the preprotein. Western Blots used an α-FLAG antibody on selected constructs as indicated above blots. Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization by fluorescence microscopy (cf. Fig. 2, Sup. Fig. 1-18) in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. In A) some lanes were spliced for clarity; the uncropped blot is provided in Sup. Fig. 26.

Figure 9. A proposed progression for the evolution of targeting peptides from antimicrobial origins. A) HA-RAMPs would have first changed K to R and **B)** acquired a cleavage site to become mTPs. To generate cTPs, either **C)** more unstructured HA-RAMPs were recruited directly to become cTPs by undergoing a K to R shift and acquiring a cleavage site separately, or **D)** mTPs acquired an N-terminal non-helical domain. Early cTP N-termini likely interacted with TOC75 POTRA domains via a motif starting with F[39,40]. **E)** Further evolution would have reinforced the differences between cTPs and mTPs to limit mis-targeting.

Supplementary Fig. 1. Microscopy for biological replicates of Brevinin 2ISb.

Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each

combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand

description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter

localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a

green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting.

Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Microscopy for biological replicates of Magainin 2. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5µm.

Supplementary Fig. 3. Microscopy for biological replicates of Ranatuerin 2G. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 4. Microscopy for biological replicates of Brevinin 1E. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 5. Microscopy for biological replicates of Dermaseptin

S4. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each

combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand

description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter

localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a

green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting.

Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 6. Microscopy for biological replicates of Dermadistinctin M. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 7. Microscopy for biological replicates of Cecropin P3. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 8. Microscopy for biological replicates of Sarcotoxin 1D.
Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5µm.

Supplementary Fig. 9. Microscopy for biological replicates of Esculentin 1S. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 10. Microscopy for biological replicates of Leucocin A.

Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each

combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand

description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter

localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a

green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting.

Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 11. Microscopy for biological replicates of SI Moricin. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 12. Microscopy for biological replicates of Bacillocin 1580. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 13. Microscopy for biological replicates of Enterocin HF. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 14. Microscopy for biological replicates of negative control Random Peptide 1. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-F), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 15. Microscopy for biological replicates of negative control Random Peptide 2. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 16. Microscopy for biological replicates of TP control Rubisco activase cTP helical element (CH). Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 17. Microscopy for biological replicates of TP control mitochondrial γ-carbonic anhydrase 2 mTP helical element (MH). Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of modifications (A-L), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

Supplementary Fig. 18. Microscopy for biological replicates of no-peptide and Alanine-screen controls. Three independent transformant lines (Strains 1-3) are shown for each combination of elements (A-G), represented by a cartoon and a shorthand description (cf. Fig. 2). Where a construct was interpreted as generating reporter localization in mitochondria or chloroplast, this is indicated by an orange 'm' or a green 'c' respectively, in bold for full targeting or in italics for partial targeting. Scale bars are 5μm.

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Supplementary Fig. 19. Comparison of amino acid frequencies reveals K/R

shift. A) Amino acid frequencies are shown as boxplots (center line: median; box

limits: upper and lower quartiles; whiskers: min/max values within 1.5x

interquartile range) for Chlamydomonas cTPs in green, Chlamydomonas mTPs in

orange and HA-RAMPs in blue. To give a baseline for comparison, the average

across uniprot is given for each amino acid as red horizontal line. For each

residue, different letters underneath distributions indicate a significant

difference: groups that share the same letter are significantly different at p<0.05

(Multiple Kruskal Wallis tests followed by Dunn post-hoc tests) from groups

attributed a different letter.

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Supplementary Fig. 20. Principal component analyses reveal that N- but not

C-termini differ between cTPs and mTPs. Principal component (PC) analyses

of auto-cross-correlated Z-scale values[5] for **A)** N-termini (15 residues) and **B)** C-

termini (33 residues, encompassing -10 to +23 relative to the cleavage site for

TPs) respectively of Chlamydomonas cTPs (in green) and mTPs (in orange) as

well as the 13 HA-RAMPs under study (in blue; crosses denote HA-RAMPs after

K→R).

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Supplementary Fig. 21. Unusual algal cTP N-termini share physicochemical differences against mTP N-termini with plant counterparts. A) Plots detailing the percentage of uncharged residues[25] (i.e. excluding K/R and D/E) for window sizes ranging from 5 to 17 residues (refer to legend for colour code) show that Chlamydomonas cTPs (on the left) are less uncharged at the N-terminus than Arabidopsis cTPs (on the right)**.** Dashed grey lines indicate the average value for randomized sequences (including mature proteins), to provide an estimate of what would be expected by chance. **B)** Equivalent graphs (as in A) for mTPs show a similar charge profile across Chlamydomonas and Arabidopsis. **C-E)** Distributions of salient values as boxplots (center line: median; box limits: upper and lower quartiles; whiskers: min/max values within 1.5x interquartile

range) for mTPs in orange and cTPs in green with *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Cr) on the left and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At) on the right show that: C) Chlamydomonas cTP N-termini contain R at almost the same frequency as mTP N-termini, whereas Arabidopsis cTP N-termini contain fewer R; D) Chlamydomonas TP N-termini are less hydrophobic than Arabidopsis TP N-termini, with plant cTP N-termini showing the highest hydrophobicity; E) Chlamydomonas cTP N-termini are more disordered than mTP or Arabidopsis cTP N-termini. Points represent individual peptides (note that for integer values, point positions are randomized within ±0.5 in y as well as in x to increase point separation), population means are shown as black diamonds. **F)** Binomial logistic regression classifier separating TPs using auto-cross-covariance of Z-scales[5] of the N-terminal 15 residues for *C. reinhardtii*. The left-hand graph shows the distribution of cTPs in green and mTPs in orange over the model output 'mTP score'. Black bars at the bottom of the graph represent scores for cTPs of Arabidopsis, showing that plant cTPs are recognized as cTPs by the model trained on algal cTP N-termini (89% recognized as cTPs, with an mTP score <0.5). Values for our 13 HA-RAMPs are given below the graph. The right-hand graph shows receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves, plotting the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR), where the area under the curve (AUC) serves as estimate of the model quality with values above 0.5 indicating that the model is better than random. **G)** Equivalent model (as in F) trained on *A. thaliana* TPs, with black bars now representing Chlamydomonas cTPs showing that the majority of algal cTPs are recognized as cTPs by the plant model (75% recognized as cTPs, with an mTP score <0.5).

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Supplementary Fig. 22. K→R generally improves HA-RAMP targeting. A) An

overview graph showing how many, out of 13 HA-RAMPs studied, show

targeting to either mitochondria (mt) or chloroplast (cp), or both (dual) before

and after K→R represented. **B-E)** Epifluorescence microscopy images of selected

examples are shown as in Fig. 3; same convention for Venus localization as in Fig.

4.

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Supplementary Fig. 23. HA-RAMP properties determine their targeting propensities. PCA analysis of cTPs (green dots), mTPs (orange dots), cp-set HA-RAMPs (green crosses), mt-set HA-RAMPs (orange crosses) and other HA-RAMPs (dark crosses) based on their length (Peptide Length: PL), number of residues before the longest predicted amphipathic helix (Long Helix Start: LHS), fraction of residues forming the predicted amphipathic helix (Helix Fraction: HF) and fraction of K (Lysine Fraction: KF) and R residues (Arginine Fraction: AF). Arrows on the graph represent the eigenvalues of the individual variables. The first principal component explains 43% of the variance and distinguishes peptides principally according to KF, PL, LHS (pointing left) and RF residues (pointing right). The second principal component explains 24% of the variance and distinguishes peptides principally according to HF. The cp-set HA-RAMPs

1113   group with the most distinguishable cTPs, being longer, with a higher LHS and a

1114   lower HF compared to mt-set HA-RAMPs and mTPs.

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Supplementary Fig. 24. Higher protein interactivity predicted for cTPs than

mTPs. A, B and F) For salient properties, Chlamydomonas mTPs and cTPs are

compared to HA-RAMPs (cp-set in green, mt-set in orange). Distributions are

shown as boxplots (center line: median; box limits: upper and lower quartiles;

whiskers: min/max values within 1.5x interquartile range), coloured points

represent individual peptides **A)** cTPs show increased protein interactivity

(p=0.0003), as do cp-set HA-RAMPs (p= 0.0355), as estimated through Boman

values[65], a proxy developed for AMPs where a value of ca. >2 indicates increased

protein interaction potential, and <2 points to membrane interaction. **B)** cTPs

show increased protein interactivity (p<0.0001), and cp-set HA-RAMPs show a

similar tendency (p=0.0638), as estimated with Anchor2[67], developed to predict

the protein interaction potential of disordered sequences. **C)** Both cTPs and

mTPs show a high fraction of peptides (~50%) that have an Hsp70 interaction

site over a 6-residue window at any given position along the sequence in the top

graph, with a peak towards the N-terminus. HA-RAMP constructs shown in the

bottom graph also display a peak in predicted Hsp70-binding sites at the N-

terminus, independently of construct localisation. The value obtained after

randomizing the position of residues is given as dashed grey line to provide an

estimate of how often sites would be expected to occur given amino acid

frequencies (~50%). Randomization was done over the entire sequence

including the cargo protein. **D)** For Arabidopsis cTPs in the top graph, the

percentage of peptides that have a full 'FGLK' site[25] (black curve; presence of F

and G/P and L/V/A and K/R and absence of D/E within an 8-residue window)

far exceeds the value obtained after randomizing the position of residues

(dashed black line for full 'FGLK' sites), a proxy for the frequency of the motif

expected at random, for most positions along the sequence up to ~60 residues.

Randomization was done over the entire sequence including the cargo protein.

Reduced 'FGLK'-1 sites containing three out of four elements appear to occur

mostly in the context of full FGLK sites, except for 'GLK' sites for which

randomization is also shown (dashed red line). Arabidopsis mTPs (bottom

graph) also contain 'FLGK' sites at a frequency higher than expected at random

between residues 20-40, and 'GLK' sites upstream of residue 40, but motifs are

less prevalent than in cTPs. **E)** Equivalent graphs (as D) for Chlamydomonas

show that full 'FGLK' sites (black lines) are rare in cTPs (top graph) and actually

more common in mTPs (bottom graph) upstream of residue 40. Reduced 'GLK'

sites (red lines) by contrast far exceed the prevalence expected at random

(dashed red line) ca. up to residue 40. **F)** Protein interactivity, estimated through

Boman values, for only those parts of peptides that correspond to FGLK-1 sites is

increased for cTPs ($p < 0.0001$), and cp-set HA-RAMPs show a similar tendency

($p = 0.0627$). Note that cTP-C and cTP-N, but not mTP-C, contain 'FGLK-1' sites

with predicted protein interactivity. *DS4 contains no 'FGLK-1' sites. Reported p-

values were obtained through two-way t-tests for TPs and one-way t-tests for

HA-RAMPs.

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Supplementary Fig. 25. Hsp70 and (F)GLK sites are present in HA-RAMPs.

Predicted Hsp70 binding sites are underlined in blue. Putative TOC interaction

sites are overlined in green: 'FGLK' sites in dark green and 'GLK' sites in light

green. See Fig. 1 for detailed annotations. Notably, both TOC and Hsp70-

interaction sites are contained within native HA-RAMPs (A) and within our TP

controls (B).

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Supplementary Fig. 26. Western Blots for K-bearing constructs. Samples were immunolabelled using an α-FLAG primary antibody. Constructs representing different combinations of TP-element additions are shown in A-F, as indicated by a shorthand description and a cartoon (cf. Fig. 2). HA-RAMPs are consistently arranged in lanes a-m. Note that the order of HA-RAMPs differs from the one in Fig. 2. Control constructs in lanes o-r carry the R→K modification. Additional technical controls are present in lanes labeled with greek letters. Sections containing HA-RAMPs, control constructs and technical controls are separated by dotted black lines. Technical controls (cf. Fig. 1): – is no peptide,

^{c}CH$_R$^{c} is Rubisco activase cTP, MH$_R$^{m} is mitochondrial γ-carbonic anhydrase 2

mTP, ^{c}– is Rubisco activase cTP N-terminal element (15 residues), –^{c} is Rubisco

activase cTP C-terminal element (33 residues, -10 to +23 relative to cleavage

site), e.v. is empty vector (no Venus expression). Constructs that generated

chloroplast and/or mitochondrial localization are marked with a green 'c' and/or

an orange 'm' respectively, in bold for full or in italics for partial targeting. Note

that E) contains two separate blots for the left-hand section up to lane i and the

right-hand section following lane j.