The effects of rapid mitochondrial gene loss on organellar proteomes

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Abstract

Mitochondrial genomes retain only a tiny number of genes from their bacterial progenitors, including key components of protein translation machinery. The set of mitochondrially encoded tRNAs and ribosomal subunits is highly variable across angiosperms, with many examples of mitochondrial gene loss, replacement, and/or transfer to the nucleus. This dynamic history suggests large-scale remodeling of mitochondrial translation machinery in some lineages, but such conclusions are largely inferred from genomic sequence and protein targeting predictions. Here, we use proteomic (LC-MS/MS) analysis of purified mitochondria and chloroplasts from angiosperm species with major differences in mitochondrial gene content (*Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Silene conica*). Our analysis largely confirms the current understanding of subcellular localization for nuclear-encoded proteins involved in tRNA metabolism and ribosome function in *A. thaliana*, although some aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) may have more specialized subcellular roles than previously thought. In contrast, *S. conica* has undergone extensive mitochondrial gene loss and numerous associated changes in the composition of its mitochondrial proteome, including retargeting of aaRSs, replacement of ribosomal subunits, and loss of the glutamine amidotransferase (GatCAB) complex. Overall, this analysis illustrates how the complex network of molecular interactions necessary for mitochondrial translation are perturbed by gene loss, transfer, and replacement.

Introduction

Endosymbiotically derived organelles such as mitochondria and plastids evolved from free-living bacteria and still retain their own genomes after more than a billion years (Gould et al. 2008; Roger et al. 2017). Thus, protein synthesis occurs within each of these organelles, using machinery that is distinct from the translation system responsible for synthesizing nuclear-encoded proteins in the cytosol. One common theme in the evolution of obligate endosymbionts is extensive gene loss, functional replacement, and/or transfer to the nucleus (McCutcheon and Moran 2012; Sloan et al. 2018). As such, the gene content in ancient endosymbionts/organelles is whittled down to mostly just key components of the metabolic and biosynthetic functions they provide to the host cell, such as cellular respiration in mitochondria and photosynthesis in plastids. However, even the most ancient endosymbionts/organelles retain some of the genes involved in translation, including ribosomal rRNAs (rRNAs), ribosomal protein subunits, and/or transfer RNAs (tRNAs) (Timmis et al. 2004; Salinas-Giegé et al. 2015; McCutcheon et al. 2024).

Mitochondrial gene content has largely stabilized in some eukaryotic lineages. For example, most bilaterian animals retain the same set of 37 genes that were ancestrally present prior to the Cambrian Explosion (Boore 1999). In contrast, mitochondrial gene content is highly dynamic in angiosperms, often differing even among closely related species (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002). Angiosperm mitochondrial genomes (mitogenomes) can contain anywhere from 19 to 41 protein-coding genes and from 1 to 19 types of tRNA genes (excluding gene duplicates) (Richardson et al. 2013; Skippington et al. 2015; Yu et al. 2025).

Multiple evolutionary process can facilitate the loss of genes from the mitogenome. Recent losses of mitochondrial protein-coding genes in angiosperms are typically associated with transfer of those genes to the nucleus. Prior to the loss of the native mitochondrial gene copy, the transferred nuclear copy must be expressed, and the resulting protein must be imported back into the mitochondria (Adams et al. 1999; Sloan et al. 2018). In addition to mitochondrial-to-nuclear gene transfer, there are also cases where mitochondrial protein-coding genes are functionally replaced by homologs of plastid or nuclear origin (Adams, Daley, et al. 2002). Losses of mitochondrial tRNA genes appear to follow this latter route. Specifically, they are replaced by import of existing nuclear-encoded tRNAs from the cytosol (Salinas-Giegé et al. 2015; Warren et al. 2021). To our knowledge, there are no documented cases in which a mitochondrial tRNA gene was functionally transferred to the nucleus and targeted back for import into the mitochondria (although one example of plastid tRNA gene transfer was recently discovered in the lycophyte *Selaginella*; Berrissou et al. 2024).

A fundamental challenge in the field of cytonuclear coevolution is to understand the process by which functional gene replacements occur and whether they perturb the intimate and coevolved interactions among gene products encoded in two different genomes. For example, tRNAs must be

recognized by their cognate aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) to be charged with the correct amino

acid, and ribosomal proteins and rRNAs physically interact with dozens of subunits within a massive

enzyme complex. It is remarkable that functional replacement of a (bacterial-like) mitochondrial gene with

its (archaeal-like) nuclear counterpart is possible given that their divergence spans the very deepest split in

the tree of life and that even small sequence changes have the potential to disrupt these coevolved

interactions (Meiklejohn et al. 2013; Sloan et al. 2023).

The mitogenomes found in the angiosperm genus *Silene* are highly variable among species and

characterized by many unusual features. Perhaps the most extreme is found in *S. conica*. It has a highly

accelerated mutation rate, the largest size of any known angiosperm mitogenome (>11 Mb), and a

fragmented multichromosomal structure (Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak, et al. 2012; Broz et al. 2021).

Despite its large size, the *S. conica* mitogenome has an unusually small gene content with just 25 protein-

coding, 3 rRNA, and 2 tRNA genes (excluding gene duplicates). The near-complete loss of tRNA genes from

this mitogenome has been accompanied by extensive import of cytosolic-like tRNA counterparts (Warren

et al. 2021). Our previous analysis based on *in silico* targeting predictions and fluorescence microscopy

indicated that these tRNA replacement events in *S. conica* have had differing effects on coevolved

relationships with aaRSs (Warren et al. 2023). All plant aaRSs are nuclear-encoded, but they differ in where

they are localized within the cell. One of the most common patterns is that the plant expresses two aaRSs

for a given amino acid – one that functions in the cytosol and another that is dual-targeted and imported

into both the mitochondria and plastids (Duchêne et al. 2005). For half of the replaced tRNA genes in *S.*

conica, we found evidence that a corresponding cytosolic aaRS also gained targeting to the mitochondria.

Therefore, the ancestral pairing of a cytosolic tRNA and aaRS was apparently maintained in these cases

and simply relocated to an additional cellular compartment. In contrast, we did not find evidence of aaRS

retargeting for the other half of replaced tRNA genes, suggesting that (bacterial-like) organellar aaRSs are

responsible for charging the cytosolic-like tRNAs now being imported into the mitochondria. However,

these inferences have not been investigated by direct analysis of mitochondrial protein content, as the

mitochondrial proteome of *S. conica* remains entirely unexplored.

Here, we perform proteomic analysis of *S. conica* and the model angiosperm *Arabidopsis thaliana*

using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). The resulting datasets allow us to

directly investigate how the composition of the mitochondrial proteome and its translational machinery

have changed in association with the extensive gene loss from the *S. conica* mitogenome.

Results and Discussion

Purification of mitochondrial and chloroplast proteomes

We analyzed LC-MS/MS data from extracted protein content from two biological replicates of purified

mitochondria, purified chloroplasts, and total leaf tissue from both *A. thaliana* and *S. conica*. A similar

dataset was also generated for a third species (*Agrostemma githago*). However, preliminary analysis of the

A. githago dataset indicated that it had limited detection of the translation machinery that was the focus of

this study. Therefore, we have deposited data from all three species (see Data Availability), but only *A.*

thaliana and *S. conica* were analyzed in the present study.

We used peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) as a semi-quantitative metric of protein abundance.

Overall, we detected PSMs from 5599 and 5491different proteins in *A. thaliana* and *S. conica*, respectively

(Table 1). To verify the efficacy of our organelle purifications, we measured the enrichment of each

mitochondrial-encoded and plastid-encoded protein in the purified organelles relative to total leaf tissue

based on PSM counts. Although we did detect PSMs for mitochondrial-encoded proteins in chloroplast

samples and vice versa, we observed a strong quantitative difference between the sample types that

confirmed we had effectively enriched for mitochondrial and chloroplast subcellular fractions (Figure 1).

We also found this same pattern of strong enrichment using ion intensity (i.e., peak area) as a measure of

protein abundance instead of PSM counts (Figure S1).

Figure 1. Enrichment of proteins encoded by the organellar genomes in purified chloroplast fractions (x-axis) and mitochondrial fractions (y-axis). Enrichment ratios are quantified based on summed counts of PSMs from two replicates relative to counts in leaf tissue samples. Each point represents a protein, and point sizes are scaled proportionally to the total number of PSMs observed for the corresponding protein across all samples. Plastid-encoded proteins and mitochondrial-encoded proteins are represented by green circles and gold triangles, respectively.

Subcellular specialization of Arabidopsis aaRSs

Numerous studies have been conducted to catalog the subcellular localization of aaRSs in *A. thaliana*,

primarily by fusing putative organelle-targeting transit peptides from aaRSs to fluorescent proteins or other

reporters, which could be visualized within cells or tested for import into isolated organelles *in vitro*

(Mireau et al. 1996; Uwer et al. 1998; Souciet et al. 1999; Peeters et al. 2000; Duchêne et al. 2001; Duchêne

et al. 2005). Collectively, these studies established a consensus for the subcellular localization of all

aaRSs in *A. thaliana* (Table 2), which we will refer to as the Duchêne classification because the most

extensive sampling was performed by Duchêne et al. (2005), and the cumulative body of work was later

summarized by Duchêne et al. (2009). For most amino acids, *A. thaliana* expresses two different aaRSs –

one that is targeted to the cytosol (cyto-only) and another that is dual-targeted to both the chloroplasts

and mitochondria (chloro-mito). However, some aaRSs exhibit atypical patterns of subcellular

localization, such as dual targeting to both the cytosol and mitochondria (cyto-mito) or to all three cellular

compartments (Duchêne et al. 2009). One LeuRS enzyme (AT4G04350) was also found to be specific to the

chloroplasts (chloro-only).

116   Overall, our patterns of aaRS enrichment in mitochondrial and chloroplast fractions strongly

aligned with the Duchêne classification (Figure 2; Table 2). All aaRSs that had been previously described as

cyto-only showed little or no detection in our purified mitochondrial and chloroplasts samples from *A.*

thaliana. In contrast, all of these aaRSs were detected in total leaf tissue (except for four that presumably

had low overall expression due to the presence of close paralogs with higher expression; Table 2),

supporting the inference that their functional role is limited to the cytosol. Likewise, the four aaRSs

previously identified cyto-mito aaRSs (GlyRS, LeuRS, ValRS, ThrRS) were found at higher abundance in

mitochondria than all the cyto-only aaRSs and were not detected in chloroplasts. As expected, previously

identified chloro-mito aaRSs were generally detected at high abundance in both organelle fractions, and

the chloro-only LeuRS was found in high abundance in our chloroplast fractions but not detected in

mitochondria (Figure 2; Table 2). In addition, our data support previous inferences that one ArgRS enzyme

(AT4G26300) functions in all three cellular compartments. In prior GFP localization studies, this ArgRS

protein was only observed to be targeted to the chloroplasts (Duchêne et al. 2005), but it was predicted to

function in the cytosol and mitochondria as well because mutants lacking the only other known *A. thaliana*

ArgRS gene (AT1G66530) are still viable (Berg et al. 2005; Duchêne et al. 2009). Indeed, we detected

AT4G26300 in both mitochondrial and chloroplast fractions (Figure 2). In contrast, AT1G66530 was only

detected in total leaf samples and at very low abundance (only a single PSM in each replicate sample).

Therefore, it is likely that both ArgRS enzymes are expressed in the cytosol, but whether AT1G66530 makes

any contribution to cytosolic translation is not clear.

135   Despite the overall congruence between our proteomic analysis and the Duchêne classification,

there were some discrepancies that point to potential refinements in our current understanding of aaRS

targeting in *A. thaliana* (Table 2). First, a previous analysis has indicated that there is one chloro-mito AlaRS

(AT5G22800) and another AlaRS (AT1G50200) targeted to all three cellular compartments (Duchêne et al.

2005). However, we did not detect AT1G50200 in purified chloroplasts, and we did not detect AT5G22800

in purified mitochondria (Figure 2). Therefore, it is possible that AlaRSs follow a division of labor similar to

the pattern observed for LeuRSs, with distinct cyto-mito and chloro-only enzymes. This scenario would be

consistent with the finding that plastid tRNA-Ala is a poor substrate for the cytosolic AlaRS in spinach

(Steinmetz and Weil 1986) and that the fusion of the AT1G50200 transit peptide to β-glucuronidase (GUS)

failed to localize reporter activity to chloroplasts (Mireau et al. 1996). However, it is difficult to reconcile

with the lines of evidence supporting dual-organellar localization of both AlaRSs reported by Duchêne et

al. (2005), so it is possible that AT1G50200 and AT5G22800 are indeed present in chloroplasts and

mitochondria, respectively, but at levels we were unable to detect with our analysis.

148   Second, the ThrRS enzymes might offer yet another example of division of labor between cyto-mito

and chloro-only enzymes in *A. thaliana*, even though previous analysis has suggested two different ThrRSs

functioning in the mitochondria (one chloro-mito and one cyto-mito). Fusion of the transit peptide from the

putative chloro-mito ThrRS (AT2G04842) to reporter genes was previously shown to drive localization and

import into both chloroplasts and mitochondria (Duchêne et al. 2005), but we only detected this ThrRS in

chloroplasts. As expected, we did not detect the previously classified cyto-mito ThrRS (AT5G26830) in

chloroplasts. A third ThrRS gene (AT1G17960) has been identified in *A. thaliana* and presumed to have

cyto-only function due to the apparent lack of any transit peptide (Duchêne et al. 2005), but we did not

detect this protein in any of our samples.

157   Third, our results may provide insights into the unusual cases of GlyRS and ValRS function in *A.*

thaliana. Although there is a cyto-mito and a chloro-mito aaRS reported in each case, the cyto-mito aaRS

has been suggested to not function in aminoacylation within the mitochondria for both Gly (Duchêne et al.

2001) and Val according to a personal communication reported by Duchêne et al (2009). We detected the

chloro-mito GlyRS (AT3G48110) at substantial abundance in mitochondria (Figure 2), supporting the earlier

interpretation that it could be the sole or primary enzyme responsible for aminoacylation of mitochondrial

tRNA-Gly even though the cyto-mito GlyRS (AT1G29880) is also present in the mitochondrial fraction. In

contrast, we detected the putative chloro-mito ValRS (AT5G16715) at only very low abundance in *A.*

thaliana mitochondria (only a single PSM in one of the two replicate samples; Figure 2). Coupled with the

fact that there has been conflicting or inconsistent evidence for targeting of AT5G16715 to mitochondria

(Duchêne et al. 2005; Duchêne et al. 2009), this observation raises the possibility that ValRS represents a

fourth example (along with AlaRS, LeuRS, and ThrRS) where the division of labor is primarily between a

cyto-mito and a chloro-only enzyme.

Figure 2. Summary of mitochondrial and chloroplast enrichment of *Arabidopsis thaliana* aaRSs relative to total leaf samples based on ratios of PSM counts combined across two biological replicates. Color coding of points reflects whether the aaRS was previously classified as being targeted to the cytosol, chloroplasts, and/or mitochondria (Duchêne et al. 2005; Duchêne et al. 2009).

Changes in aaRS targeting and tRNA interactions associated with massive mitochondrial tRNA gene loss in

Silene conica

With only two tRNA genes (tRNA-Ile and tRNA-fMet), the *S. conica* mitogenome represents one of the most

extreme cases of mitochondrial tRNA gene loss in plants (Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak, et al. 2012), with

potential widespread effects on aaRS-tRNA interactions. Only six of the 20 aaRS types are not expected to

be affected by recent mitochondrial tRNA gene loss in the *Silene* lineage – either because *S. conica* has

retained the corresponding tRNA gene in its mitochondrial genome (IleRS) or because the corresponding

tRNA gene had already been lost prior to the most recent common ancestor of angiosperms (AlaRS, ArgRS,

LeuRS, ThrRS, and ValRS). Note that even though the *S. conica* mitogenome retains a gene for the initiator

tRNA-fMet, it has lost the elongator tRNA-Met gene, so interactions involving MetRS may still have been

perturbed. For four of these six aaRS types (AlaRS, ArgRS, IleRS, and LeuRS), mitochondria from *A. thaliana*

and *S. conica* exhibit the same bias with respect to cytosolic-like vs. organellar-like aaRSs (Figure 3).

However, the bias towards cytosolic-like ThrRS and ValRS in *A. thaliana* mitochondria (see preceding

section) is not shared by *S. conica*. In these cases, it is likely that *S. conica* has retained the ancestral state

(an organellar-like aaRS in the mitochondria) and that the *Arabidopsis* lineage has evolved to import a

cytosolic-like enzyme.

Figure 3. Summary of whether mitochondrial samples were biased towards containing organellar-like vs. cytosolic-like aaRSs based on proteomic analysis. The mitochondrial enrichment bias metric was calculated as described in the Methods. Note that there is no organellar-like GlnRS because mitochondria and plastids use GluRS and the indirect aminoacylation pathway for tRNA-Gln (Pujol et al. 2008). Therefore, enrichment bias for GlnRS was simply reported as "organellar" if the cytosolic-like GlnRS was not detected in mitochondria and cytosolic if the cytosolic-like GlnRS was detected in mitochondria. Overall, the results strongly align with previous predictions (Warren et al. 2023) for which cytosolic aaRSs were or were not retargeted to mitochondria with the exception of SerRS, which showed clear evidence for retargeting despite the lack of any predicted transit peptide.

The other 14 aaRS types are potentially affected by the large-scale loss/replacement of

mitochondrial tRNA genes in *S. conica*. Previous analysis based on *in silico* prediction and fusions of

putative transit peptides to GFP (Warren et al. 2023) found that a cytosolic-like aaRS likely gained targeting

to the mitochondria in seven of these 14 cases (GlnRS, GlyRS, LysRS, MetRS, ProRS, TrpRS, and TyrRS)

where a native mitochondrial tRNA gene was replaced by import of its cytosolic counterpart. Proteomic

data supported these predictions in all seven cases (Figure 3), indicating that the ancestral pairing of

cytosolic-like tRNAs and aaRSs has been preserved and simply retargeted to also function in the

mitochondria. Notably, cytosolic-like and organellar-like MetRS enzymes were both detected in *S. conica*

mitochondria (Figure 3), likely reflecting the contrasting pattern of loss/replacement of the elongator tRNA-

Met gene but retention of the initiator tRNA-fMet gene in the mitogenome (Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak,

et al. 2012).

The remaining seven aaRS types (AsnRS, AspRS, CysRS, GluRS, HisRS, PheRS, and SerRS) were not

previously predicted to show retargeting of the cytosolic-like aaRS in *S. conica* (Warren et al. 2023). Our

analysis here generally supported these predictions. However, SerRS was a notable exception, showing

clear evidence of retargeting of the cytosolic-like SerRS to the mitochondria (Figure 3). This finding resolves

a mystery because previous transit peptide analysis had suggested that the ancestral organellar-like SerRS

had lost targeting to mitochondria and was localized exclusively to chloroplasts in the *Silene* lineage,

making it unclear which enzyme was providing SerRS function in mitochondria (Warren et al. 2023). Our

proteomic results indicate that SerRS represents an eighth case of retargeting a cytosolic-like aaRS to the

mitochondria. Our analysis also detected a mix of both organellar-like and cytosolic-like GluRS proteins in

S. conica mitochondria (Figure 3). It is possible that the cytosolic-like protein is a truncated version of the

enzyme that was previously predicted based on full-length mRNA sequencing and *in silico* targeting

analysis (Warren et al. 2023). If so, it is not clear whether this protein would have a functional role in

aminoacylation in the mitochondria given that it lacks a substantial N-terminal portion (129 amino acids)

of the enzyme body.

Duplication and subfunctionalization of the organellar PheRS in Silene conica

PheRS is one of the aaRS types that shows no evidence of cytosolic enzyme retargeting despite the loss of

the mitochondrial tRNA-Phe and apparent functional replacement with its cytosolic counterpart (Figure 3)

(Warren et al. 2023). The persistence of the organellar-like PheRS in *S. conica* mitochondria follows a

broader evolutionary pattern, as this aaRS appears to be one of the very last to be functionally replaced in

the mitochondria even in cases of complete loss of all tRNA genes from the mitogenome (Pett and Lavrov

2015; DeTar et al. 2024). The recalcitrance of the organellar-like PheRS is thought to result from its

cytosolic counterpart being divided into two subunits, making it improbable for both subunits to

independently gain import into the mitochondria and serve as a viable functional replacement. In the

Silene lineage, the organellar-like PheRS gene has been duplicated, and fusion of putative transit peptides

to GFP suggested that the paralogs have subfunctionalized with one specializing on the mitochondria and

the other specializing on the chloroplasts (Warren et al. 2023). Our proteomic analysis supported this

subfunctionalization model, as the *S. conica* chloroplast fraction contained only the putative chloroplast

specialist, whereas the mitochondrial fraction was dominated by the putative mitochondrial specialist

(Figure 4A).

The organellar (mitochondrial) PheRS in humans has been found to have the capacity to charge

tRNA-Phe substrates from diverse organisms (Klipcan et al. 2012). If plant organellar PheRSs share this

capacity, it may have predisposed them to charge imported cytosolic tRNA-Phe in the mitochondria of *S.*

conica. In addition, the division of labor observed between the two organellar-like PheRSs in *S. conica*

could be a response to the challenges associated with a single organellar-like aaRS having to recognize

both a cyanobacterial-like tRNA-Phe in chloroplasts and a cytosolic-like tRNA-Phe imported into the

mitochondria.

To identify amino acid substitutions that might potentially have improved the ability of the *S. conica*

mitochondrial PheRS to charge cytosolic tRNA-Phe, we compared the *S. conica* organellar PheRS

sequences to each other and to orthologs from a broad sampling of species that represented angiosperms

(including eudicots, monocots, magnoliids, and *Amborella*), gymnosperms (*Ginkgo*), bryophytes

(*Physcomitrium*), and green algae (*Micromonas* and *Ostreococcus*). The enzyme bodies (i.e., after removal

of putative transit peptide sequences) of the *S. conica* mitochondrial and chloroplast PheRSs differed by

39 amino acid substitutions (out of 374 positions). Four of the substitutions in the mitochondrial PheRS

(I184V, S343T, A363G, and R411I) were at sites that were otherwise universally conserved across our

sampling of plant and algal taxa (Figure S2A). No substitutions were found at any such conserved sites in

the *S. conica* chloroplast PheRS sequence.

Figure 4. Duplication of organellar PheRS has led to subfunctionalized copies with specialized chloroplast and mitochondrial localization. (A) PSM counts in *Silene conica* samples (with A and B replicates shown separately for each sample type) indicate that the putative chloroplast PheRS was the only one present in the chloroplast fraction, whereas the putative mitochondrial type dominated the mitochondrial fraction, aligning with previous predictions (Warren et al. 2023). (B) AlphaFold3 model of the structural interaction between *S. conica* mitochondrial PheRS and cytosolic tRNA-Phe. Four substitutions at PheRS residues that are otherwise broadly conserved across green plants are labeled and highlighted with "sphere" representation. Two of those substitutions (I184V) and (R411I) are emphasized with a darker color because the exact same substitutions evolved in parallel in another angiosperm (*Sapria himalayana*) with an organellar-like PheRS that is expected to function exclusively in the mitochondria and charge imported cytosolic tRNA-Phe.

To further explore the potential relevance of these four substitutions, we compared the PheRS

sequence to a representative of the Rafflesiaceae (*Sapria himalayana*) because this family of parasitic

(non-photosynthetic) plants has also lost the native tRNA-Phe gene from its mitogenome, and it has lost its

plastid genome entirely (Molina et al. 2014; Smith and Asmail 2014; DeTar et al. 2024). Therefore, its

organellar PheRS is expected to function exclusively in the mitochondria (due to lack of translation in the

plastid) and likely charges imported cytosolic tRNA-Phe. Strikingly, the *S. himalayana* PheRS has

independently evolved the exact same amino acid substitutions at two of the four sites identified in the *S.*

conica mitochondrial PheRS (I184V and R411I; Figure S2A). The R411I substitution is at a residue predicted

to interact with the G37 position in cytosolic tRNA-Phe (Figure 4B), which is situated immediately adjacent

to the anticodon and represents the only sequence difference in the anticodon loop between cytosolic and

mitochondrial tRNA-Phe (Figure S2B). The I184V substitution is at a position abutting the 3′ side of the

tRNA-Phe acceptor stem (Figure 4B), which contains multiple nucleotide substitutions that distinguish

cytosolic and mitochondrial tRNA-Phe (Figure S2B). We also compared to the organellar PheRS from

another parasitic plant (*Balanophora fungosa*) that has lost the mitochondrial tRNA-Phe gene. The *B.*

fungosa organellar PheRS is expected to function in both the mitochondria and plastids because the

Balanophoraceae lineage still retains a plastid genome (Su et al. 2019; Ceriotti et al. 2021). However, this

plastid genome has also lost its copy of the tRNA-Phe gene, so the *B. fungosa* organellar PheRS is expected

to exclusively charge cytosolic tRNA-Phe. We found that *B. fungosa* PheRS also carried the R411I

substitution. It also had a substitution at residue 184, although it was an Ile-to-Thr change rather than the

Ile-to-Val substitution observed in *S. conica* and *S. himalayana*.

Given the recurrence of substitutions in *S. conica*, *S. himalayana*, and *B. fungosa* at these two sites

that are otherwise highly conserved in green plants, we speculate that they are involved in the

specialization of these enzymes to charging an imported cytosolic tRNA-Phe substrate. In the *S. conica*

lineage, it appears that these substitutions occurred prior to the divergence of multiple *Silene* species that

were previously sampled (Warren et al. 2023). However, another member of this family (*Agrostemma*

githago) shares the organellar PheRS paralogs with *Silene* (Warren et al. 2023), but it does not share these

two amino acid substitutions. Because *A. githago* independently lost the mitochondrial tRNA-Phe gene and

must use its imported cytosolic counterpart (Warren et al. 2021), the lack of these two substitutions in the

A. githago mitochondrial PheRS implies that they are not essential for charging cytosolic tRNA-Phe.

Likewise, it is possible that other amino acid substitutions distinguishing the *S. conica* mitochondrial and

plastid PheRSs might contribute to their specialization on different tRNA substrates even if they are not at

positions that are widely conserved in other taxa. Furthermore, it is possible this gene duplication has

occurred for reasons that are entirely unrelated to changes in tRNA substrates. Performing aminoacylation

assays with recombinantly expressed proteins (Gamper and Hou 2020) would be a promising route to

assess the effect of specific substitutions on charging efficiency with different tRNA substrates and to

distinguish among these alternative hypotheses.

Loss of the GatCAB complex in Silene conica mitochondria

Like most bacteria, plant mitochondria and plastids generally lack GlnRS activity and instead use an

indirect pathway in which GluRS indiscriminately charges tRNA-Gln with Glu followed by enzymatic

conversion of Glu to Gln by the glutamyl-tRNA amidotransferase enzyme complex (GatCAB) (Pujol et al.

2008). In *S. conica*, the loss of the mitochondrial tRNA-Gln gene has been associated with import of

cytosolic-like tRNA-Gln and GlnRS into the mitochondria (Figure 2). Therefore, we would predict that

GatCAB activity is no longer necessary in *S. conica* mitochondria because they now use the direct Gln

aminoacylation pathway typical of cytosolic translation (Rogers and Söll 1995). Our proteomic analysis

supported this prediction. All three GatCAB subunits were detected in both the mitochondria and

chloroplast fractions from *A. thaliana* but only in the chloroplast fraction from *S. conica* (Table S1).

Therefore, the GatCAB complex and the indirect Gln aminoacylation pathway appears to no longer

function in *S. conica* mitochondria.

Retention of other components of tRNA metabolism machinery in Silene conica mitochondria

The two remaining tRNA genes in the *S. conica* mitogenome (tRNA-fMet and tRNA-Ile) are noteworthy

because they both have distinctive bacterial-like features. Bacterial translation is initiated with an N-

formylmethionine (fMet), which is synthesized by the methionyl-tRNA formyltransferase (MTF). After tRNA-

fMet is initially charged with Met, the MTF enzyme formylates the amino group of the Met residue to

produce fMet (Ibba and Söll 2004). Meanwhile, a class of bacterial tRNA-Ile genes have a CAT anticodon,

which would typically correspond to an ATG (Met) codon. However, the C base in this anticodon is

modified to lysidine by tRNA-Ile lysidine synthetase (TilS), which results in decoding of Ile codons (Suzuki

and Miyauchi 2010). Homologs of bacterial MTF and TilS are both found in plant nuclear genomes and

expected to function in mitochondrial and plastid translation systems (Warren and Sloan 2020). Given the

retention of tRNA-fMet and tRNA-Ile genes in the *S. conica* mitogenome, we would predict that MTF and

TilS are also functional in *S. conica* mitochondria. Accordingly, we detected both proteins in the

mitochondrial fraction (Table S1). TilS was only supported by a single PSM in one of the *S. conica*

mitochondrial samples, which is likely due to low overall expression, as it was not detected in chloroplast

or total-leaf samples from *S. conica* or in any *A. thaliana* samples. Nonetheless, the detection of both of

these enzymes suggests that the bacterial-like translation features associated with tRNA-fMet and tRNA-

Ile have been retained in *S. conica* mitochondria, which contrasts with the functional loss of GatCAB and

many aaRSs.

Mitochondrial tRNA metabolism also relies on additional enzymes that are typically shared with

other subcellular compartments (von Braun et al. 2007; Canino et al. 2009; Gobert et al. 2010; Gutmann et

al. 2012; Salinas-Giegé et al. 2015), including those responsible for cleaving primary transcripts to remove

5′ ends (protein-only RNase P [PRORP]) or 3′ ends (tRNase Z) and for adding a 3′ CCA tail (CCAse). In

general, we had limited sensitivity to detect these enzymes with our dataset (Table S1). Although we did

confirm the expected presence of CCAse in *S. conica* mitochondria, the general lack of signal for PRORP or

tRNase Z enzymes across all samples precludes any interpretation of whether there has been retargeting

of these enzymes associated with loss of mitochondrial tRNA genes.

Mitochondrial ribosomal subunit gene loss, transfer, and replacement in Silene conica

The *S. conica* mitogenome has lost most of the genes that encode ribosomal protein subunits, retaining

only three (*rpl5*, *rps3*, and *rps13*) of the 15 that were present in most recent common ancestor of

angiosperms (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002; Kubo and Arimura 2010; Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak, et al.

2012). Although *rps3* was originally annotated as a pseudogene in the *S. conica* mitogenome due to the

apparent loss of the first exon and the presence of large indels (Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak, et al.

2012), we detected Rps3 peptides via LC-MS/MS, indicating that it remains an expressed, functional gene.

More generally, our proteomic dataset provides insights into how the extensive gene loss from the

mitogenome occurred without disrupting function of the mitochondrial ribosome (mitoribosome). Our

results point to diverse mechanisms by which these genes were replaced (Figure 5; Table 3).

Figure 5. Structure of *A. thaliana* mitoribosome (PDB accession 6XYW; Waltz et al. 2020). Ribosomal proteins are shown with surface renderings, and rRNAs are shown in blue with cartoon renderings. Subunits that were encoded by genes in the ancestral angiosperm mitogenome are highlighted and colored according to their evolutionary history in *S. conica*. Note that the Rps1 subunit is not pictured because it has been lost in *A. thaliana* (Skaltsogiannis et al. 2024) even though the gene is retained in most angiosperms, including the copy that has been transferred to the nucleus in *S. conica* (Table 3).

Nine of the twelve genes that have been lost (*rpl2*, *rps1*, *rps2*, *rps4*, *rps10*, *rps11*, *rps12*, *rps14*, and

rps19) have followed the typical route of intracellular gene transfer from the mitogenome to the nucleus

(Adams and Palmer 2003). In two of these cases (*rpl2* and *rps4*), the transfer appears to have occurred in

two pieces, resulting in different nuclear genes encoding separate, non-overlapping portions of each

subunit (Table 3).

Two more genes absent from the *S. conica* mitogenome (*rpl10* and *rpl16*) also appear to have been

functionally replaced through import of a nuclear-encoded protein. However, in these cases, the nuclear

gene is plastid-like rather than an intracellular transfer of the mitochondrial gene itself. The nuclear gene

encoding the plastid-targeted Rpl10 subunit in *S. conica* has been duplicated, with one copy now targeted

exclusively to the mitochondria based on our LC-MS/MS data. Although many angiosperms retain the *rpl10*

gene in the mitogenome, similar duplications and neofunctionalization of plastid-targeted homologs were

previously identified in monocots and in the Brassicaceae (Mower and Bonen 2009; Kubo and Arimura

2010). In the case of *rpl16*, the *S. conica* nuclear genome contains a plastid-like gene copy encoding a

protein that we exclusively detected in the mitochondrial fraction, and the *S. conica* plastid genome still

contains a typical *rpl16* gene. As such, it appears that a copy of the plastid *rpl16* gene was transferred to

the nucleus but gained targeting to the mitochondria, facilitating the loss of its mitochondrial homolog.

This scenario differs from the case of *rpl10* because there is no indication that the transferred *rpl16* gene

was ever targeted back to the plastid. Therefore, this evolutionary transition may have required overcoming

multiple barriers almost simultaneously. Specifically, the transferred nuclear gene would have had to gain

expression and targeting to the mitochondria but also adapt to function in the novel context of the

mitoribosome.

The one other ribosomal gene that has been lost from the *S. conica* mitogenome (*rps7*) has no

detectable homolog in the nuclear genome other than the distantly related family member that encodes a

subunit of the cytosolic ribosome (*RPS5*; Sconica_v3_48856-RA). The plastid *rps7* homolog is still retained

in the plastid genome itself. Across angiosperm diversity, the *rps7* gene has been subject to an unusually

large number of losses from the mitogenome (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002). Although there are cases where

loss of the mitochondrial copy of *rps7* appears to have been accompanied by transfer to the nucleus (Liu et

al. 2009), outright loss of the gene may also be common (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002). The *S. conica* cytosolic-

like homolog (Sconica_v3_48856-RA) was detectable in all three sample types. However, proteomic

detection in the mitochondrial fraction should not be taken as strong evidence for function within the

mitochondria given the extremely high abundance of cytosolic ribosomes and the propensity for these

ribosomes to adhere to outer mitochondrial membranes (Chang et al. 2024; Dimnet et al. 2024). Therefore,

it is not clear if or how the Rps7 subunit has been replaced in the mitoribosome.

Even in angiosperms that have retained a larger number of ribosomal genes in their mitogenomes

than *S. conica*, the majority of mitoribosome subunits are encoded by nuclear genes. The composition of

the *A. thaliana* mitoribosome has been thoroughly characterized (Rugen et al. 2019; Waltz et al. 2019;

Waltz et al. 2020; Skaltsogiannis et al. 2024), so we used proteomic data from the *S. conica* mitochondrial

fraction to infer whether these subunits are conserved in the *S. conica* mitoribosome. Of the 70 nuclear-

encoded subunits of the *A. thaliana* mitoribosome (Table S2), only bL32m (AT1G26740) lacks a detectable

ortholog among the annotated *S. conica* protein set, and this appears to be an annotation issue because

homologous sequence is detectable with a TBLASTN search against the *S. conica* nuclear genome. Only

three of the annotated proteins (bS21m, mS38, and bTHXm) were not detected in any of our samples, and

every one of the proteins that was detected had higher PSM counts in the mitochondrial fraction than in

chloroplast or total leaf samples. Indeed, more than 90% of these proteins were exclusively found in the

mitochondrial fraction (Table S2). Therefore, orthologous gene content and mitochondrial proteomes

suggest a high degree of stability in the ancestral nuclear-encoded components of the *S. conica*

mitoribosome, although confirming that they are assembled as part of the ribosome complex would

require purification and structural analysis of the mitoribosomes themselves.

Conclusions

The ongoing loss of angiosperm mitochondrial genes has been well characterized for more than two

decades, with especially pronounced effects on the genes encoding translational machinery such as

tRNAs and ribosomal proteins (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002; Richardson et al. 2013). However, direct proteomic

analysis of mitochondrial translation machinery has been lacking in species such as *S. conica* that show

extreme reductions in mitochondrial gene content. Our study details the extensive changes that

accompany mitochondrial gene loss, highlighting alternative evolutionary pathways for functionally

replacing genes and responding to perturbations in the network of tRNA-interacting enzymes.

For example, our work confirms that numerous cytosolic-like aaRSs have been retargeted to the

mitochondria in *S. conica* (Figure 3), thereby preserving ancestral charging relationships with cytosolic

tRNAs that are newly imported into the mitochondria (Warren et al. 2023). We found that this set of

retargeted cytosolic-like aaRSs includes SerRS even though *in silico* predictions suggested that it has not

gained an N-terminal extension that could serve as a mitochondrially targeting transit peptide (Warren et

al. 2023). This finding illustrates why direct proteomic analysis is an important complement to *in silico*

predictions and assays based on fusing reporters to N-terminal peptides (Mireau et al. 1996; Uwer et al.

1998; Souciet et al. 1999; Peeters et al. 2000; Duchêne et al. 2001; Duchêne et al. 2005; Warren et al.

2021). On the other hand, our work also shows that many cytosolic-like aaRSs were not retargeted to the

mitochondria despite import of their cognate cytosolic tRNAs. Therefore, organellar-like aaRSs are

presumably charging novel substrates (cytosolic-like tRNAs) in these cases.

Likewise, functional replacement of mitochondrial ribosomal protein genes appears to have

followed multiple pathways (Figure 5), including relocation of the gene to the nucleus, replacement by a

plastid-like counterpart, or (in the case of *rps7*) outright loss or replacement with a subunit lacking

detectable homology. Overall, the recent evolutionary changes in *S. conica* highlight that the composition

of plant mitochondrial translation machinery is still highly dynamic despite billions of years since the

establishment of mitochondria in the eukaryotic lineage.

Materials and Methods

Plant growth and organelle isolations

Arabidopsis thaliana Col-0 seeds were stratified at 4 °C in water for 3 days prior to sowing in 3-inch pots

with 5 seeds per pot. *Agrostemma githago* KEW0053084 (Warren et al. 2023) and *S. conica* ABR (Fields et

al. 2023) were sown in 4-inch pots with 6 seeds per pot. Pots contained Pro-Mix BX potting media and were

covered with clear plastic domes for ~1 week until seedlings emerged. All plants were grown on shelves

with fluorescent lighting (~100 µE m^{-2} sec^{-1}) at ~22-23 °C under short-day conditions (10-hr light / 14-hr

dark). Tissue for total leaf protein samples for all species was harvested at ~12 weeks after sowing.

Mitochondrial and chloroplast isolations were performed with tissue harvested either ~9 weeks after

germination (*A. thaliana* and *A. githago*) or ~12 to 13 weeks after germination (*S. conica*).

Two biological replicates were performed for each species. Mitochondrial and chloroplast

fractions were isolated with Percoll gradients. Mitochondrial isolations were performed as described

previously (Warren et al. 2021) based on a modified protocol from Meyer et al. (2009), using ~70 g of

rosette leaf tissue per replicate. Chloroplast isolations were performed using a modified version of

published protocols (van Wijk et al. 2007; Kley et al. 2010). Briefly, ~2 g of rosette leaf tissue was ground in

a prechilled mortar with 20 ml of ice-cold chloroplast grinding and wash buffer (cpGW: 50mM HEPES pH

7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 0.3 M sorbitol, 10 mM NaHCO3, 0.5 mM DTT), filtered through miracloth and centrifuged

at 1,300 rcf for 5 min at 4 °C. The resulting chloroplast pellet was resuspended in ~2 ml cpGW, applied to a

Percoll step gradient (40-80%) and centrifuged at 2,500 rcf in a swinging bucket rotor for 10 min at 4 °C. The

chloroplast band at the 40-80 interface was removed and washed three times with cpGW buffer.

Chloroplasts were resuspended in 1 ml of cpGW buffer containing 1X Halt protease inhibitor (Thermo

Scientific 78430), aliquoted and centrifuged at 1,000 rcf for 5 min at 4 °C. Detailed versions of the isolation

protocols are available via GitHub (https://github.com/dbsloan/silene_proteomics). Whole leaf tissue and

isolated mitochondrial/chloroplast pellets were flash frozen in liquid N$_2$ and stored at -80 °C before

shipment to the Proteome Exploration Laboratory at the California Institute of Technology for protein

extraction, digestion, and LC-MS/MS analysis.

Protein extraction and digestion

For leaf and purified chloroplast samples, 100 μl of lysis buffer from a PreOmics iST Kit was added and

followed by processing with a PreOmics BeatBox Tissue Homogenizer (Preomics, Germany) for 10 min on

the high setting. Samples were then centrifuged at 21,000 rcf for 2 min to remove the insoluble fraction.

Protein concentration was evaluated using Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit. Aliquots containing 100 μg of

protein from each sample were digested with ProtiFi S-trap according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Briefly, the protein was reduced and alkylated with tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine and chloroacetamide

and digested overnight with trypsin. Following elution, the resulting peptides were dried and resuspended,

using 2% acetonitrile, 0.2% formic acid in water.

For purified mitochondria samples, which were smaller and contained less protein content, pellets

were resuspended in 120 μl of 8 M urea with 50 mM HEPES. Samples were reduced with tris(2-

carboxyethyl)phosphine (10 min, 60 °C) and chloroacetamide (15 min, room temperature). Samples were

then treated with 2 μl 0.1 mg/ml LysC endopeptidase (Wako Pure Chemical) for 2 hr at 37 °C. Following

sample dilution with 360 μl of 50 mM HEPES, 5 μl of 100 mM $CaCl_2$ and 3 μl of the 0.1 mg/ml Trypsin

(Pierce) were added for overnight digestion at 37 °C. The digested peptides were desalted using Pierce C18

Spin Columns according to the manufacturer's protocol. The eluates were dried and resuspended using

2% acetonitrile, 0.2% formic acid in water.

LS-MS/MS

For each sample, 500 ng was loaded onto a Thermo Scientific EASY-nLC 1200 connected to an Q Exactive

HF Quadrupole-Orbitrap Hybrid Mass Spectrometer. Peptides were separated on an Aurora UHPLC

Column (25 cm × 75 μm, 1.6 μm C18, AUR2-25075C18A, Ion Opticks) with a flow rate of 0.35 μl/min for a

total duration of 160 min, including washing and re-equilibration. The gradient was composed of 2%

Solvent B from the start, 2-6% B for 3.5 min, 6-25% B for 97 min, 25-40% B for 19.5 min, 40-98% B for 2 min,

98% B for 3 min, and 98-2% B for 2 min. The gradient was followed by 3 "see-saw" cycles (2% B for 3 min, 2-

98% B for 2 min, 98% B for 3 min, and 98-2% B for 2 min) for cleaning, and the column was re-equilibrated

at 2% B for 3 min. Solvent A consisted of 97.8% H_2O, 2% acetonitrile, and 0.2% formic acid, and solvent B

consisted of 19.8% H2O, 80% acetonitrile, and 0.2% formic acid. Peptides were ionized via electrospray

ionization (NSI) at 2.0 kV. MS1 scans were acquired with a range of 350–1600 m/z at 60K resolution. The

maximum injection time was 15 ms with an AGC target of 3×10^6. MS2 scans were acquired at 30K

resolution with a scan range of 200-2000 m/z. The maximum injection time was 45 ms with a minimum

AGC target of 4.5×10^3. The isolation window was 1.2 m/z, collision energy was 28 NCE, and loop count

was set to 12. Mass spectrometer method modification and data collection were performed using Thermo

Scientific Xcalibur software.

Data analysis was performed using Proteome Discoverer 2.5, reference databases from the

respective species (see below), and Sequest HT with Percolator validation. Percolator FDRs were set at

0.01 (strict) and 0.05 (relaxed). Peptide FDRs were set at 0.01 (strict) and 0.05 (relaxed), with medium

confidence and a minimum peptide length of 6. Carbamidomethyl (C) was set as a static modification;

oxidation (M) was set as a dynamic modification; acetyl (protein N-term), Met-loss (Protein N-term M), and

Met-loss + acetyl (Protein N-term M) were set as dynamic N-Terminal modifications. PSM counts were not

reported separately by sample in our initial Proteome Discoverer run, so data were later reanalyzed with

Proteome Discover 3.1 to obtain these counts with equivalent settings as above except that Met-loss

modifications were not used, and minimum peptide confidence was set to high.

Sequence for the *A. thaliana* reference protein database were obtained from the 2023-10 release of

PeptideAtlas (van Wijk et al. 2021) and included the Araport11 (Cheng et al. 2017) nuclear-encoded protein

sequences (longest isoform only) combined with the mitochondrial-encoded and plastid-encoded

proteins curated by van Wijk et al. (2024). Loci in the large insertion of mitochondrial DNA in nuclear

chromosome 2 (Stupar et al. 2001; Fields et al. 2022) that are annotated as functional protein-coding

genes in the Araport11 database were removed from the reference to avoid ambiguity in mapping to the

true mitochondrial-encoded proteins. For *S. conica*, annotated protein sequences were taken from the

published nuclear (Fields et al. 2023), mitochondrial (Sloan, Alverson, Chuckalovcak, et al. 2012), and

plastid genomes (Sloan, Alverson, Wu, et al. 2012). As with *A. thaliana*, annotated genes found in recent

insertions of mitochondrial or plastid DNA into the nucleus were removed from the reference. We also

added three aaRS protein sequences that were previously identified with full-length RNA-seq transcripts

(Warren et al. 2023) but were not annotated in the published *S. conica* genome (Iso-Seq AspRS, HisRS, and

ValRS). Mitochondrial-encoded and plastid-encoded protein sequences for *A. githago* were taken from

published genomes (Sloan et al. 2014; Warren et al. 2021). Because no reference-quality annotation was

available for the *A. githago* nuclear genome (although one has since been published; Mian and Leitch

2024), we used previously published full-length RNA-seq transcripts (Warren et al. 2023) for nuclear-

encoded protein references. The longest open-reading frame for each transcript was identified with

TransDecoder v5.7.1, and the corresponding protein-coding sequences with >99% identity were collapsed

with CD-HIT v4.8.1 (Fu et al. 2012). This transcriptome reference for *A. githago* was then filtered to avoid

duplicating annotated proteins from the mitochondrial and plastid reference genomes.

Enrichment analysis of mitochondrial-encoded and plastid-encoded proteins

For each species, enrichment of mitochondrial-encoded and plastid-encoded proteins in the organellar

fractions was calculated as the PSM count ratio in the corresponding organellar sample relative to total

leaf tissue. PSM counts for the two biological replicates from each sample type were summed for these

calculations. Proteins with fewer than 5 PSMs in total across all samples from a species were excluded. In

cases where no PSMs were detected in the leaf tissue (but were detected in an organellar fraction), a

minimum count of 1 was applied for the leaf sample to avoid dividing by 0. Enrichment ratios were also

calculated based on ion intensity by using the reported abundance values from Proteome Discoverer. For

these calculations, proteins were only considered to be detected in a sample if they were assigned "high"

confidence based on identification of a corresponding PSM in that sample. Proteins that were only

identified in a sample based on comparisons of peak positions to other samples with detected PSMs were

treated as not found. Low or missing abundance values were set to a minimum floor value (0.1 percentile

in the corresponding sample), and all values were normalized to the median abundance in the sample.

Analysis of aaRSs and other tRNA metabolism enzymes

To investigate the subcellular localization of previously identified aaRSs (Duchêne et al. 2005; Duchêne et

al. 2009; Warren et al. 2023), PSM enrichment ratios were calculated as described above for the

organellar-encoded proteins. To assess how relative aaRS abundance within the mitochondria differed

between species, we calculated a metric of enrichment bias between organellar-like and cytosolic-like

counterparts. Specifically, the mitochondrial enrichment ratio (see above) for the cytosolic-like aaRS was

divided by the sum of the mitochondrial enrichment ratios for the organellar-like and cytosolic-like aaRSs.

Therefore, a value of 1 for this metric would indicate that only the cytosolic-like aaRS was found in the

mitochondria, whereas a values of 0 would indicate that only the organellar-like aaRS was found. When

both types were detected in the mitochondria, this metric produces an intermediate value that reflects the

relative bias of organellar-like vs. cytosolic-like types. By using the enrichment ratios in these calculations,

we were able to normalize to the total leaf samples and avoid directly comparing raw PSM counts between

different proteins. We summed PSM counts in cases where there were multiple proteins or subunits for the

same aaRS class. For some proteins, we found very low PSM counts in leaf tissue, resulting in large and

highly variable enrichment ratios. Therefore, we capped enrichment ratios at a value of 3 to avoid

obscuring signal of co-existing aaRS types based on these inflated values.

PheRS and tRNA-Phe sequences were obtained via SHOOT (Emms and Kelly 2022), BLASTP

searches of the NCBI RefSeq database (Pruitt et al. 2004), and previously curated datasets (Warren et al.

2021; Warren et al. 2023; DeTar et al. 2024). Alignments were performed with MAFFT v7.526 (Katoh and

Standley 2013) under default parameters and visualized with Geneious (Kearse et al. 2012). The structure

of the *S. conica* PheRS/tRNA-Phe complex was predicted using the AlphaFold3 Server (Abramson et al.

2024) under default parameters. The mitochondrial PheRS and cytosolic tRNA-Phe sequences were

obtained from previous studies (Warren et al. 2021; Warren et al. 2023). The first 49 amino acids were

removed from the PheRS sequence as a putative transit peptide.

The *A. thaliana* genes encoding GatCAB, MTF, TilS, PRORP, tRNase Z, and CCAse proteins were

previously identified (von Braun et al. 2007; Pujol et al. 2008; Canino et al. 2009; Gutmann et al. 2012;

Warren and Sloan 2020). We used reciprocal BLASTP searches against the annotated proteins sequences

from the *S. conica* genome to identify orthologs and inferred presence of the enzymes in organellar

fractions based on PSM counts as described above.

Analysis of mitoribosome subunits

The set of *A. thaliana* mitoribosome subunits was taken from the published structure (Waltz et al. 2020).

We also included the uL1m (AT2G42710) and bL12m (AT3G06040) subunits, which were not captured in

this structure presumably because they are located in highly mobile parts of the ribosome (Waltz et al.

2020). We used the mitochondrial-encoded Rps1 subunit from *Carica papaya* because this protein is

known to have been lost entirely from *A. thaliana* (Skaltsogiannis et al. 2024). Reciprocal BLASTP searches

were used to identify *S. conica* orthologs, and we inferred presence of subunits in the mitochondrial

fraction based on PSM data as described above. Some ribosomal subunits were encoded by two or more

closely related paralogs, and some reciprocal BLASTP searches failed due to this paralogy. In other cases,

no PSMs were detected in any sample for the named subunit in the *A. thaliana* mitoribosome structure. In

these cases, closely related paralogs were manually checked and substituted in where necessary. The

mitoribosome structure was visualized with PyMol v3.1.3, using Protein Data Bank accession 6XYW (Waltz

et al. 2020).

Data Availability

LC-MS/MS data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Pérez-Riverol et

al. 2024) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD071069. Code and processed data are available

via GitHub (https://github.com/dbsloan/silene_proteomics).

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Table 1. Detected proteins in LC-MS/MS dataset

	Detected Proteins[a]	
Sample Type	*Arabidopsis*	*Silene*
Mitochondria	2832	2494
Chloroplasts	2118	1974
Leaf Tissue	4371	4294
Total (any sample)	5599	5491

[a] Proteins were only included in counts if a corresponding PSM was identified in either or both replicates for that sample type. Identifications based solely on a peak position that matches a PSM from another sample type were not included.

Table 2. Comparison between aaRS detection in LC-MS/MS dataset and previous classification of subcellular localization (Duchêne et al. 2005; Duchêne et al. 2009)

Accession	Type	Duchêne Classification	Potential Refinements	Notes
AT5G22800	AlaRS	Chloro-Mito	Chloro-only	No mito localization detected
AT1G50200	AlaRS	Cyto-Chloro-Mito	Cyto-Mito	No chloroplast localization detected
AT4G26300	ArgRS	Cyto-Chloro-Mito(?)	Cyto-Chloro-Mito	Mito localization confirmed
AT1G66530	ArgRS	Cyto-only(?)	No change	
AT4G17300	AsnRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT5G56680	AsnRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT1G70980[a]	AsnRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT4G33760	AspRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT4G31180	AspRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT4G26870	AspRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT2G31170	CysRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT5G38830	CysRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT3G56300[a]	CysRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT1G25350	GlnRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT5G64050	GluRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT5G26710	GluRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT3G48110	GlyRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT1G29880	GlyRS	Cyto-Mito*	No change	
AT3G46100	HisRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT3G02760	HisRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT5G49030	IleRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT4G10320	IleRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT4G04350	LeuRS	Chloro-only	No change	
AT1G09620	LeuRS	Cyto-Mito	No change	
AT3G13490	LysRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT3G11710	LysRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT3G55400	MetRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT4G13780	MetRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT3G58140	PheRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT4G39280	PheRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT1G72550	PheRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT5G52520	ProRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT3G62120	ProRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT1G11870	SerRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT5G27470	SerRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT2G04842	ThrRS	Chloro-Mito	Chloro-only	No mito localization detected
AT5G26830	ThrRS	Cyto-Mito	No change	
AT1G17960[a]	ThrRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT2G25840	TrpRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT3G04600	TrpRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT3G02660	TyrRS	Chloro-Mito	No change	
AT1G28350	TyrRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT2G33840[a]	TyrRS	Cyto-only	No change	
AT5G16715	ValRS	Chloro-Mito	Chloro-only(?)	Only weak mito localization detected
AT1G14610	ValRS	Cyto-Mito*	Cyto-Mito(?)	May be functional in mito given low detection of AT5G16715 in mito

[a] Four aaRSs were not detected in our proteomic dataset (all predicted to be cyto-only and close paralogs of aaRSs that were detected).

Table 3. Genes encoding subunits of the mitoribosome that were ancestrally present in the angiosperm mitogenone

Protein	*Silene* gene ID[a]	*Arabidopsis* gene ID[a]	Mt1	Mt2	Cp1	Cp2	Leaf1	Leaf2
					Silene PSM Counts			
Rpl2 N-term (uL2m)	Chr03-anno2.g23183.t1	*mito rpl2*	6	7	0	0	0	0
Rpl2 C-term (uL2m)	Sconica_v3_41290-RA	AT2G44065	9	11	0	0	0	0
Rpl5 (uL5m)	*mito rpl5*	*mito rpl5*	6	2	0	0	0	0
Rpl10 (uL10m)	Sconica_v3_43288-RA[b]	AT3G12370[b]	6	3	0	0	0	0
Rpl16 (uL16m)	Sconica_v3_30744-RA[b]	*mito rpl16*	8	3	0	0	0	0
Rps1 (uS1)	Sconica_v3_17748-RA	Lost in *A. thaliana*	9	6	0	0	0	0
Rps2 (uS2m)	Sconica_v3_17930-RA	AT3G03600	13	7	0	0	0	0
Rps3 (uS3m)	*mito rps3*	*mito rps3*	24	17	0	0	0	0
Rps4 N-term (uS4m)	FUN_045851-T1/FUN_045790-T1	*mito rps4*	5	7	0	0	0	0
Rps4 C-term (uS4m)	Sconica_v3_40630-RA	*mito rps4*	10	3	0	0	0	0
Rps7 (uS7m)	Lost in *S. conica*	*mito rps7*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Rps10 (uS10m)	Sconica_v3_23770-RA	AT3G22300	7	5	0	0	0	0
Rps11 (uS11m)	Sconica_v3_11125-RA	AT1G31817	8	2	0	0	0	0
Rps12 (uS12m)	Sconica_v3_11465-RA	*mito rps12*	5	2	0	0	0	0
Rps13 (uS13m)	*mito rps13*	AT1G77750[b]	3	5	0	0	0	0
Rps14 (uS14m)	FUN_029269-T1	AT2G34520	2	5	0	0	0	0
Rps19 (uS19m)	Sconica_v3_16857-RA	AT5G47320	1	2	0	0	0	0

[a]Names in bold italics correspond to genes in the mitogenome. All others are in the nuclear genome.

[b]The genes encoding Rps13 in *Arabidopsis*, Rpl16 in *Silene*, and Rpl10 in both species are duplications of their plastid counterparts and not derived from the ancestral mitochondrial gene (Adams, Daley, et al. 2002; Mower and Bonen 2009; Kubo and Arimura 2010).

Figure S1. Enrichment of proteins encoded by the organellar genomes in purified chloroplast fractions (x-axis) and mitochondrial fractions (y-axis). Enrichment ratios are quantified based on summed abundance values (peak areas) from two replicates relative to abundances in leaf tissue samples. Each point represents a protein, and point sizes are scaled proportionally to the total number of PSMs observed for the corresponding protein across all samples. Plastid-encoded proteins and mitochondrial-encoded proteins and are represented by green circles and gold triangles, respectively.

Figure S2. PheRS and tRNA-Phe alignments. (A) Amino acid alignments showing four positions in the PheRS sequence that have a derived change in the *Silene conica* mitochondrial PheRS but are otherwise conserved across a diverse sampling of green plants/algae. In two of these cases (I184V and R411I), parallel substitutions are observed in the parasitic plant taxa *Sapria himalayana* and *Balanophora fungosa*. (B) Alignment of cytosolic, mitochondrial, and plastid tRNA-Phe.

Table S1. PSM counts by sample for additional enzymes involved in tRNA metabolism in mitochondria and other compartments

Enzyme	AGI ID	*Arabidopsis thaliana*						Gene ID	*Silene conica*					
		Mt1	Mt2	Cp1	Cp2	Leaf1	Leaf2		Mt1	Mt2	Cp1	Cp2	Leaf1	Leaf2
GatA	AT3G25660	6	7	7	2	6	3	Sconica_v3_10523-RA	0	0	6	10	3	2
GatB	AT1G48520	8	7	12	3	7	5	Sconica_v3_48968-RA	0	0	12	15	5	1
GatC	AT4G32915	4	3	2	1	0	0	Sconica_v3_42040-RA	0	0	0	5	0	0
CCAse	AT1G22660	0	0	0	0	0	0	FUN_019134-T1	3	2	0	1	1	0
MTF	AT1G66520	1	0	0	0	0	0	Sconica_v3_07812-RA	7	4	7	10	6	2
TilS	AT3G24560	0	0	0	0	0	0	Chr10-anno1.g29341.t1	1	0	0	0	0	0
tRNase Z1[a]	AT1G74700	0	0	0	0	0	0	FUN_038515-T1	2	0	0	0	0	0
tRNase Z2	AT2G04530	0	0	0	0	0	0	Chr03-anno1.g57321.t1	0	0	1	3	0	0
tRNase Z3	AT1G52160	0	0	0	0	0	0	Multiple	0	0	0	0	0	0
tRNase Z4	AT3G16260	0	0	0	0	0	0	Multiple	0	0	0	0	0	0
PRORP1	AT2G32230	0	0	1	0	0	0	FUN_011644-T1	0	0	2	1	0	0
PRORP2	AT2G16650	0	0	0	0	0	0	No gene found	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
PRORP3	AT4G21900	0	0	0	0	0	0	No gene found	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

[a]A second *S. conica* gene had a top BLAST hit to *A. thaliana* tRNase Z1, but no PSMs were detected for it.

Table S2. Genes encoding subunits of the *A. thaliana* mitoribosome (Waltz et al. 2020) and their counterparts in *S. conica*

Protein	*Silene* gene ID[a]	*Arabidopsis* gene ID[a]	*Silene* PSM Counts					
			Mt1	Mt2	Cp1	Cp2	Leaf1	Leaf2
uL1m	Sconica_v3_19193-RA	AT2G42710	15	11	1	0	0	0
uL2m N-term	Chr03-anno2.g23183.t1	*mito rpl2*	6	7	0	0	0	0
uL2m C-term	Sconica_v3_41290-RA	AT2G44065	9	11	0	0	0	0
uL3m	Sconica_v3_37834-RA	AT3G17465	8	8	0	0	0	0
uL4m	Sconica_v3_19156-RA	AT2G20060	8	5	0	0	0	1
uL5m	*mito rpl5*	*mito rpl5*	6	2	0	0	0	0
uL6m	Chr08-anno2.g6040.t1	AT2G18400	0	3	0	0	0	0
bL9m	FUN_038434-T1	AT5G53070	5	5	0	0	0	0
uL10m	Sconica_v3_43288-RA	AT3G12370	6	3	0	0	0	0
uL11m	Chr03-anno1.g57427.t1	AT4G35490	7	3	0	0	0	0
bL12m	Sconica_v3_40269-RA	AT3G06040	11	12	0	0	0	0
uL13m	Chr04-anno1.g50273.t1	AT3G01790	8	5	0	0	0	0
uL14m	FUN_046256-T1	AT5G46160	5	4	0	0	0	0
uL15m	Sconica_v3_17785-RA	AT5G64670	9	7	0	0	0	0
uL16m	Sconica_v3_30744-RA	*mito rpl16*	8	3	0	0	0	0
bL17m	Sconica_v3_10014-RA	AT5G09770	3	3	0	0	0	0
uL18m	Sconica_v3_57073-RA	AT5G27820	7	5	0	0	0	0
bL19m	FUN_019669-T1	AT1G24240	6	7	0	0	0	0
bL20m	Sconica_v3_23041-RA	AT1G16740	6	5	0	0	0	0
bL21m	Sconica_v3_47180-RA	AT4G30930	8	6	0	0	0	0
uL22m	Sconica_v3_06702-RA	AT1G52370	9	7	0	0	0	0
uL23m	Chr08-anno1.g34018.t1	AT4G39880	8	6	0	0	0	0
uL24m	Sconica_v3_17854-RA	AT5G23535	3	5	0	0	0	0
bL25m	Sconica_v3_43645-RA	AT5G66860	7	8	0	0	0	0
bL27m	Sconica_v3_22742-RA	AT2G16930	3	2	0	0	0	0
bL28m	Chr10-anno1.g32626.t1	AT4G31460	11	8	0	0	0	0
uL29m	Sconica_v3_24808-RA	AT1G07830	4	1	0	0	0	0
uL30m	Sconica_v3_42097-RA	AT5G55140	3	1	0	0	0	0
bL31m	Chr03-anno2.g23587.t1	AT5G55125	2	1	0	0	0	0
bL32m	Not annotated	AT1G26740	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
bL33m	Sconica_v3_46773-RA	AT5G18790	2	0	0	0	1	0
bL35m	Chr02-anno1.g23806.t1	AT5G45590	3	2	0	0	0	0
bL36m	Chr09-anno2.g40880.t1	AT5G20180	1	0	0	0	0	0
mL40	Chr04-anno1.g46970.t1	AT4G05400	3	3	0	1	0	0
mL41	FUN_023568-T1	AT5G40080	1	3	0	0	0	0
mL43	Chr10-anno1.g28670.t1	AT3G59650	4	2	0	0	0	0
mL46	Sconica_v3_41121-RA	AT1G14620	13	9	0	0	1	0
mL53	Sconica_v3_53235-RA	AT5G39600	8	3	0	0	0	0
mL59/mL64	Chr06-anno1.g19483.t1	AT4G22000	6	1	0	0	0	0
mL60	Sconica_v3_30462-RA	AT1G27435	1	3	0	0	0	0
mL80	Chr01-anno1.g62765.t1	AT1G73940	6	1	0	0	0	0
mL87	Sconica_v3_10159-RA	AT3G51010	3	2	0	0	0	0
mL101 (rPPR4)	Sconica_v3_25967-RA	AT1G60770	9	7	0	0	0	0
mL102 (rPPR5)	Sconica_v3_09229-RA	AT2G37230	27	23	0	0	0	0
mL104 (rPPR9)	Sconica_v3_02474-RA	AT5G60960	19	17	0	0	0	0
uS1	Sconica_v3_17748-RA	Lost in *Arabidopsis*	9	6	0	0	0	0
uS2m	Sconica_v3_17930-RA	AT3G03600	13	7	0	0	0	0
uS3m	*mito rps3*	*mito rps3*	24	17	0	0	0	0

uS4m N-term	FUN_045851-T1/FUN_045790-T1	*mito rps4*	5	7	0	0	0	0
uS4m C-term	Sconica_v3_40630-RA	*mito rps4*	10	3	0	0	0	0
uS5m	Sconica_v3_25633-RA	AT1G64880	18	20	0	0	0	0
bS6m	Sconica_v3_05402-RA	AT3G18760	3	2	0	0	0	0
uS7m	Lost in *Silene*	*mito rps7*	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
uS8m	Sconica_v3_37372-RA	AT4G29430	3	4	0	0	0	0
uS9m	Sconica_v3_19137-RA	AT3G49080	10	5	0	0	0	0
uS10m	Sconica_v3_23770-RA	AT3G22300	7	5	0	0	0	0
uS11m	Sconica_v3_11125-RA	AT1G31817	8	2	0	0	0	0
uS12m	Sconica_v3_11465-RA	*mito rps12*	5	2	0	0	0	0
uS13m	*mito rps13*	AT1G77750	3	5	0	0	0	0
uS14m	FUN_029269-T1	AT2G34520	2	5	0	0	0	0
uS15m	Sconica_v3_25605-RA	AT1G15810	19	14	0	0	0	0
bS16m	Sconica_v3_11133-RA	AT5G56940	10	5	0	0	0	0
uS17m	Sconica_v3_53755-RA	AT1G49400	11	8	0	0	0	0
bS18m	Chr02-anno1.g21175.t1	AT1G07210	10	9	0	0	0	0
uS19m	FUN_042562-T1	AT5G47320	9	6	0	0	0	0
bS21m	FUN_011913-T1	AT3G26360	0	0	0	0	0	0
mS23	Sconica_v3_11989-RA	AT1G26750	16	12	0	0	0	0
mS26	Sconica_v3_22695-RA	AT5G49210	4	6	0	0	0	0
mS29	Chr04-long_reads1.PB.1859.1	AT1G16870	19	14	0	0	0	0
mS33	Sconica_v3_48073-RA	AT5G44710	4	3	0	0	0	0
mS34	Chr02-anno1.g21262.t1	AT5G52370	7	8	0	0	0	0
mS35	Sconica_v3_02574-RA	AT3G18240	12	7	0	0	0	0
mS37	FUN_006674-T1	AT1G47278	5	4	0	0	0	0
mS38	Sconica_v3_12210-RA	AT5G63150	0	0	0	0	0	0
mS41	Sconica_v3_30872-RA	AT5G26800	2	1	0	0	0	0
mS45	Chr09-anno1.g45083.t1	AT5G62270	7	8	0	0	0	0
mS47	Chr08-anno1.g33382.t1	AT4G31810	15	7	0	0	0	0
mS80 (rPPR6)	Chr10-anno1.g29827.t1	AT3G02650	21	13	0	0	0	0
mS83 (rPPR10)	Sconica_v3_49004-RA	AT4G15640	6	6	0	0	0	0
bTHXm	Chr01-anno1.g64414.t1	AT2G21290	0	0	0	0	0	0

[a]Names in bold italics correspond to genes in the mitogenome. All others are in the nuclear genome.

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