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 apparent 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.

Keywords

Significance Statement

Plant mitochondrial genomes exhibit exceptional diversity in gene content across species due to ongoing processes of gene loss, transfer, and functional replacement. However, our understanding of the consequences of these genomic changes on the mitochondrial proteome remain limited. Here, we compare organellar (mitochondrial and chloroplast) proteomes across species of flowering plants, revealing a large-scale rewiring of mitochondrial protein synthesis machinery has coincided with loss of tRNA and ribosomal protein genes from the mitochondrial genome.

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 processes 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 likely cases of plastid tRNA gene transfer were recently discovered in the lycophyte *Selaginella* and parasitic angiosperms in the family Balanophoraceae; Berrissou et al. 2024; Ceriotti et al. 2026).

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 of these mitogenomes 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 two (semi-)quantitative metrics of protein abundance: peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) and normalized MS1 ion intensity (i.e. peak area). 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. We used these proteins because they are not expected to be exported to other cellular compartments and, therefore, represent the most reliable available markers for their respective organelles. Although we did detect signal from both ion intensity (Figure 1) and PSMs (Figure S1) 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. Our purified mitochondrial fractions from *A. thaliana* exhibited an average enrichment in cumulative mitochondrial-encoded peptide ion intensity of 18-fold relative to total leaf tissue and 554-fold relative to purified chloroplasts. Likewise, *S. conica* mitochondrial fractions showed 15-fold enrichment relative to leaf tissue and 157-fold relative to purified chloroplasts (Figure 1A). These patterns were mirrored by separation of the sample types at the level of individual proteins (Figure 1B). We also saw clear separation among sample types based on PSM counts. Enrichment ratios calculated based on PSMs tended to be lower (Figure S1), which was expected because "dynamic exclusion" settings during LC-MS/MS data-dependent acquisition lead to intentional downsampling of highly abundant PSMs to increase overall peptide detection.

In *A. thaliana*, we also made use of the SUBA5 consensus classification (August 2022 release) to assess the effectiveness of our mitochondrial and chloroplast purifications (Hooper et al. 2014). Of the 5599 proteins we detected in *A. thaliana*, SUBA5 identifies 980 and 1477 of them as targeted to mitochondria and plastids, respectively. As expected, the purified mitochondrial and chloroplast samples showed large and opposite shifts in composition with respect to these proteins (Table S1).

We also performed correlation analyses among samples within each species to test for consistency between pairs of biological replicates. As expected, replicate mitochondrial samples and replicate chloroplast samples all exhibited high correlation coefficients (0.78 to 0.93; Figures S2-S5). In contrast, mitochondrial samples had low correlation coefficients (≤ 0.33) with the other two sample types.

136   Chloroplast and total leaf samples showed intermediate levels of correlation with each other (Figures S2-

137   S5). This correlation likely reflects the fact that chloroplasts account for the majority of the total proteome

138   in leaf cells (Heinemann et al. 2021), which also sets a limit to the maximum proportional enrichment that

139   can be obtained for chloroplast proteins relative to total leaf tissue.

Figure 1. Enrichment of proteins encoded by the mitochondrial and plastid genomes in purified organelle fractions. (A) Each point in this panel represents an individual biological sample, showing its cumulative ion intensity across all plastid-encoded proteins (x-axis) and mitochondrial-encoded proteins (y-axis) expressed as a proportion of all protein abundance in the sample with each biological replicate shown separately. (B) Each point in this panel represents a mitochondrial-encoded or plastid-encoded protein. Enrichment in chloroplast samples (x-axis) or mitochondrial samples (y-axis) is calculated by dividing the ion intensity for that protein from the respective purified organelles by the corresponding ion intensity from total leaf samples. Point size is scaled based on total abundance of the protein across all samples. Only proteins represented by at least 5 unique peptides in the dataset are shown, and enrichment/depletion values were capped at 100-fold for visualization purposes. The two biological replicates are averaged for this panel. In both panels, point shape indicates species identity (circle: *A. thaliana*; triangle: *S. conica*), and ion intensities were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins or if they were identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not validated in that sample with an MS2 spectrum. An equivalent analysis based on PSMs is available in Figure S1.

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. One LeuRS enzyme (AT4G04350) was also found to be specific to the chloroplasts (chloro-

only; Duchêne et al. 2009).

154   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 or detectability 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

previously identified cyto-mito aaRSs (GlyRS, LeuRS, ValRS, and 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.

173   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), implying that they exist at low abundances in these organelles.

Therefore, it is possible that AlaRSs follow a division of labor similar to the pattern observed for LeuRSs,

with effectively 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, the lines of evidence reported by Duchêne

et al. (2005) supporting dual-organellar localization of both AlaRSs suggest that AT1G50200 and

AT5G22800 are indeed present in chloroplasts and mitochondria, respectively, but likely at low levels we

were unable to detect with our analysis. Accordingly, some other proteomic studies have detected

AT1G50200 at low levels in *A. thaliana* chloroplasts (van Wijk et al. 2021), and as we report below, mining

other mitochondrial proteomic datasets from *A. thaliana* also supports this conclusion.

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). A similar analysis based on ion intensity is available in Figure S6.

Second, the ThrRS enzymes might offer yet another example of an effective 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. Instead, the most abundant ThrRS in mitochondria was the previously

classified cyto-mito ThrRS (AT5G26830), and as expected, we did not detect this ThrRS 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.

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 GlyRS

has been suggested to not function in aminoacylation within the mitochondria (Duchêne et al. 2001).

Likewise, the cyto-mito ValRS might not be active in mitochondrial aminoacylation 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), as expected if it truly is 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.

To further investigate the degree of aaRS subcellular specialization, we analyzed data from two

previously published studies that obtained deeper and more quantitative coverage of the *A. thaliana*

mitochondrial proteome than our own analysis (Fuchs et al. 2020; Rugen et al. 2024). Both studies

detected nearly every aaRS in the mitochondrial proteome (Figure 3A), including ones that have been

characterized as cyto-only. The fact that these cyto-only aaRSs were generally detected at low

abundances makes it difficult to interpret whether there truly is ubiquitous (albeit low-level) import of

these enzymes into mitochondria or whether some detection simply reflects small amounts of

contamination in purified mitochondrial fraction. Regardless, these studies provide high-quality

quantitative estimates that are in good agreement with our observations. Data from both studies support

the conclusion that the three aaRSs discussed above (AlaRS, ThrRS, and ValRS) have the lowest

mitochondrial abundance of any of the previously classified mito-chloro aaRSs. Indeed, some estimates

from Fuchs et al. (2020) for these three were lower than many aaRSs that have been previously classified

as cyto-only (Figure 3A). Overall, mitochondrial abundances for alternative aaRSs from the same amino-

acid family exhibit a strong negative correlation that is spread across a wide continuum (Figure 3B).

Therefore, these data reveal a spectrum in the extent to which *A. thaliana* mitochondria contain aaRSs that

are shared with the chloroplasts, aaRSs that are shared with the cytosol, or a mixture of both. Our findings

indicate that ThrRS, ValRS, and (to a lesser extent) AlaRS are closer to the end of the spectrum of sharing

between mitochondria and the cytosol than previously appreciated (Figures 2-3, Table 2).

Figure 3. Summary of aaRS abundance from published *A. thaliana* mitochondrial proteome studies. (A) Quantifications from two previous LC-MS/MS datasets (Fuchs et al. 2020; Rugen et al. 2024) generally show strong association between measured abundance in mitochondria and whether the enzyme was previously classified as mitochondrial-targeted as indicated by 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). However, the AlaRS, ThrRS, and ValRS enzymes classified as chloro-mito show very low mitochondrial findings consistent with our findings (Figure 2). Note that the chloro-only LeuRS and the cyto-only GlnRS and TyrRS were not detected in either study, but their points are slightly offset in the plot for visibility. (B) aaRS families exhibit a negative correlation in mitochondrial abundance between enzymes that are shared with the cytosol and those that are shared with the chloroplasts. Each point represents an aaRS family, where the x- and y-values indicate the mitochondrial abundances from Fuchs et al. (2020) for members of that family that are (also) found in the chloroplasts or cytosol, respectively. ArgRS is excluded from this plot because the highly expressed enzyme (AT4G26300) in this family is shared between all three compartments, and GlnRS is excluded because there is only a single enzyme (AT1G25350) in the family due to the use of the indirect tRNA-Gln aminoacylation pathway in mitochondria and plastids (see main text). The AlaRS localized to all three compartments (AT1G50200) was treated as cytosolic for the purposes of this analysis due to its low abundance in the chloroplasts (Figure 2).

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. The functional replacement of mitochondrial
tRNA genes via import of their cytosolic counterparts raises the possibility that *S. conica* mitochondria
also import the corresponding cytosolic aaRSs rather than rely on the ancestral organellar aaRSs (Warren
et al. 2023). To assess whether *A. thaliana* and *S. conica* differ in their usage of organellar-like vs cytosolic-

like aaRSs in their mitochondria, we devised a metric that represents the balances between these aaRS

types on a 0 (all organellar) to 1 (all cytosolic) scale based on PSM counts in the mitochondrial fraction

(see Figure 4 and Methods, as well as Figure S7 for an equivalent analysis based on ion intensities).

241   Only six of the 20 aaRS families 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 families

(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 based on the aforementioned metric (Figure 4). 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.

253   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 4), indicating that the ancestral pairing of

cytosolic-like tRNAs and aaRSs has likely 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 4), which might reflect 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). As such, we would speculate that the organellar-like MetRS charges the tRNA-

fMet that is still encoded in the *S. conica* mitogenome, whereas the cytosolic-like MetRS charges a tRNA-

Met that is imported from the cytosol to functionally replace the mitochondrially encoded elongator tRNA-

Met gene.

267   The remaining seven aaRS families (AsnRS, AspRS, CysRS, GluRS, HisRS, PheRS, and SerRS) were

not previously predicted to show retargeting of the cytosolic-like aaRS in *S. conica* despite importing the

cytosolic tRNA counterparts (Warren et al. 2023). Our analysis here generally supported these aaRS

targeting predictions (Figure 4), implying that these organellar-like aaRSs are now responsible for charging

the imported cytosolic-like tRNAs. However, SerRS was a notable exception, showing clear proteomic

evidence of retargeting of the cytosolic-like SerRS to the mitochondria (Figure 4). 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 4). 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. For the remaining five of these aaRSs (AsnRS, AspRS, CysRS, HisRS, and PheRS), it is

likely that ancestral organellar enzyme remains primarily or solely responsible for aminoacylation in the

mitochondria, although we cannot fully rule out a role of their cytosolic counterparts despite little or no

detection of them in the *S. conica* mitochondrial fractions.

Figure 4. 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. A similar analysis based on ion intensity is available in Figure S7.

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 4)

(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 only yielded PSMs for the putative

chloroplast specialist, whereas the mitochondrial fraction was dominated by PSMs from the putative

mitochondrial specialist (Figure 5A). Ion intensities mirrored this pattern and showed a significant

difference in the relative abundance of the two duplicates between the mitochondrial and chloroplast

fractions (p = 0.0029; Table S2).

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 S8A). No substitutions were found at any such conserved sites in

the *S. conica* chloroplast PheRS sequence.

Figure 5. 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 S8A). The R411I substitution is at a residue predicted

to interact with the G37 position in cytosolic tRNA-Phe (Figure 5B), 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 S8B). The I184V substitution is at a position abutting the 3′ side of the

tRNA-Phe acceptor stem (Figure 5B), which contains multiple nucleotide substitutions that distinguish

cytosolic and mitochondrial tRNA-Phe (Figure S8B). 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 S3).

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

function in *S. conica* mitochondria. However, it is possible that the GatCAB complex is still targeted to *S.*

conica mitochondria at low levels that were difficult to detect in our analysis but are nonetheless

biologically relevant.

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 *S. conica*

mitochondrial fraction (Table S3). 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 we did not detect it in chloroplast

or total-leaf samples from *S. conica* or in any *A. thaliana* samples. A previous deep proteomic analysis of *A.*

thaliana mitochondria did detect TilS, albeit at very low abundance (Rugen et al. 2024). Therefore, the

detection of both these enzymes in *S. conica* mitochondria suggests that the bacterial-like translation

features associated with tRNA-fMet and tRNA-Ile have been retained, which contrasts with the apparent

functional loss of GatCAB and many aaRSs.

391   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 S3). 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 potential 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 6; Table 3).

Figure 6. 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*. Mitochondrial localization of these subunits in *S. conica* is supported by our LC-MS/MS data (Tables 3 and S4). However, we have not directly tested for assembly of these *S. conica* proteins into the mitoribosome itself. 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 likely 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). In the case of *rpl2*, the splitting of the gene and transfer of the portion encoding the

C-terminal end of the protein were ancient events that appear to have occurred in a common ancestor of

the core eudicots (Adams et al. 2001). Whereas the gene encoding the N-terminal portion of the protein is

retained in the *A. thaliana* mitogenome, it too has been transferred to the nucleus in the *S. conica* lineage

(Table 3), in addition to independent transfers in multiple other eudicot lineages (Adams et al. 2001).

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 S4), 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 based on PSM counts, and even with only two biological replicates, the majority of these putative mitoribosome subunits showed significant enrichment in the *S. conica* mitochondrial fraction relative to total leaf tissue based on normalized ion intensities (Table S4). Therefore, orthologous gene content and mitochondrial proteomes suggest a high degree of stability in the ancestral nuclear-encoded components of the *S. conica* mitoribosome. However, confirming that these ancestral components, as well as subunits resulting from inferred gene transfers and replacements, are actually assembled as part of the ribosome complex will require purification and structural analysis of the mitoribosomes themselves.

Limitations of this study

This study offers the first direct characterization of the *S. conica* mitochondrial and chloroplast proteomes, which had only previously been inferred from genomic/transcriptomic analysis, *in silico* predictions, and use of fluorescent reporters fused to putative transit peptides. However, the study has multiple limitations that can be addressed with future efforts to provide a more comprehensive characterization of these proteomes. First, we were only able to incorporate two biological replicates into the design, limiting statistical power for tests of enrichment and differential proteome composition. Second, tissue collection and sample preparations were spread out across multiple days (see Methods) to facilitate large scale organelle purification steps, but it would be preferable to obtain more precise pairing of sample types for comparative purposes. Third, we only used trypsin digests, whereas parallel analyses with multiple proteases has been found to increase representation of plant mitochondrial proteomes (Rugen et al. 2024). Fourth, numerous dimensions of proteome variation remain unexplored in this study, including variation among tissues, cell types, environmental conditions, developmental stages, organelle types (e.g., proplastids vs mature chloroplasts), and sub-organellar fractions (e.g., nucleoids, ribosomes, thylakoids, etc) – all of which represent interesting areas for future investigation.

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 4), presumably 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.

2023). On the other hand, our work also shows that many cytosolic-like aaRSs were likely 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 6), 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. Although the processes of mitochondrial gene

loss, transfer, and replacement have been unusually extensive and recent in the *S. conica* lineage, they are

all common themes in angiosperms (Adams, Qiu, et al. 2002; Warren and Sloan 2020) that have also

contributed to variation in mitochondrial translation machinery more broadly across the tree of life.

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

sowing (*A. thaliana* and *A. githago*) or ~12 to 13 weeks after sowing (*S. conica*). Tissue samples for total leaf

protein extraction from each species were harvested shortly before (within 1 week) the respective

organelle isolations.

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.

LC-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 Optics) 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 3.1 (Service Pack 1), reference databases

from the respective species (see below), and Sequest HT with Percolator validation. Minora Feature

Detector was used to detect chromatographic peaks. Feature mapping was carried out allowing a

maximum retention time shift of 10 minutes, with minimum signal-to-noise ratio of 5. Precursor ions were

quantified according to feature area and normalized by using all peptides. Precursor mass tolerance was

set to 10 ppm, and peptide fragment mass tolerance was set to 0.02 Da. 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 minimum peptide

confidence set to high and a minimum peptide length of 6. High-confidence peptide matches were

therefore controlled at a 0.01 FDR. Carbamidomethyl (C) was set as a static modification; oxidation (M)

was set as a dynamic modification; dynamic N-Terminal modifications included: acetyl (protein N-term),

met-loss (M), and met-loss+acetyl (M). The "Trypsin (Full)" protease settings were used, allowing for 2

missed cleavages. Sample-specific PSM counts were retrieved from a separate analysis in the same

version of Proteome Discoverer that made use of only the SequestHT search engine and did not include

met-loss dynamic modifications.

We further processed PSM and ion intensity data with custom scripts to exclude peptides that were

shared between multiple protein groups. In addition, the normalized ion intensity estimates from Proteome

Discoverer include contributions from peptides identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not

validated in the same sample with an MS2 spectrum. Because these estimates (flagged as "Peak Found")

have the potential to unreliably assign ion intensities to proteins, we also performed some analyses of

intensities after removing these estimates with custom scripts (see text and figure legends).

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, peptides were only included if they were assigned "High" confidence based on

identification of a corresponding PSM in that sample (i.e., not "Peak Found") and were not shared with

other protein groups.

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. We also repeated these

analyses using ion intensity rather than PSM account as the measure of abundance.

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.

659   We further compared our results against other studies with deeper sampling of the *A. thaliana*

mitochondrial proteome. Specifically, we used estimates of protein copies per mitochondrion in Dataset

S1 from Fuchs et al. (2020) and the quantification from the All_Proteases_Average_(>0) column in Table S2

from Rugen et al. (2024). For Figure 3B, estimates of protein copies per mitochondrion were summed in

cases of paralogs for the same enzyme, and they were averaged for the two subunits of the heteromeric

cytosolic PheRS complex. See the Figure 3 legend for description of how special cases in the AlaRS, ArgRS,

and GlnRS families were handled. The statistical significance of the relationship in Figure 3B was tested

with the cor.test function with data that were log-transformed after adding 1 to each value to avoid log-

transformation of 0 values.

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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the National Science Foundation (MCB-2048407) and an HHMI Hanna H. Gray Fellowship.

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

Sample Type	Detected Peptides[a]		Detected Proteins[a]	
	Arabidopsis	*Silene*	*Arabidopsis*	*Silene*
Mitochondria	17547	18360	2832	2494
Chloroplasts	13907	12833	2118	1974
Leaf Tissue	23287	23945	4371	4294
Total (any sample)	40464	41100	5599	5491

[a] Proteins/peptides 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 datasets from this study and others (Fuchs et al. 2020; van Wijk et al. 2021; Rugen et al. 2024) and previous classification of subcellular localization (Duchêne et al. 2005; Duchêne et al. 2009)

Accession	Type	Duchêne Classification	Notes on Potential Refinements[c]
AT5G22800[a]	AlaRS	Chloro-Mito	No mito localization detected; may effectively function as chloro-only
AT1G50200	AlaRS	Cyto-Chloro-Mito	No chloroplast localization detected; may effectively function as cyto-mito
AT4G26300	ArgRS	Cyto-Chloro-Mito(?)	Mito localization confirmed
AT1G66530	ArgRS	Cyto-only	
AT4G17300	AsnRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT5G56680	AsnRS	Cyto-only	
AT1G70980[a]	AsnRS	Cyto-only	
AT4G33760	AspRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT4G31180	AspRS	Cyto-only	
AT4G26870	AspRS	Cyto-only	
AT2G31170	CysRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT5G38830	CysRS	Cyto-only	
AT3G56300[a]	CysRS	Cyto-only	
AT1G25350	GlnRS	Cyto-only	
AT5G64050	GluRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT5G26710	GluRS	Cyto-only	
AT3G48110	GlyRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT1G29880	GlyRS	Cyto-Mito[b]	
AT3G46100	HisRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT3G02760	HisRS	Cyto-only	
AT5G49030	IleRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT4G10320	IleRS	Cyto-only	
AT4G04350	LeuRS	Chloro-only	
AT1G09620	LeuRS	Cyto-Mito	
AT3G13490	LysRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT3G11710	LysRS	Cyto-only	
AT3G55400	MetRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT4G13780	MetRS	Cyto-only	
AT3G58140	PheRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT4G39280	PheRS	Cyto-only	
AT1G72550	PheRS	Cyto-only	
AT5G52520	ProRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT3G62120	ProRS	Cyto-only	
AT1G11870	SerRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT5G27470	SerRS	Cyto-only	
AT2G04842	ThrRS	Chloro-Mito	No mito localization detected; may effectively function as chloro-only
AT5G26830	ThrRS	Cyto-Mito	
AT1G17960[a]	ThrRS	Cyto-only	
AT2G25840	TrpRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT3G04600	TrpRS	Cyto-only	
AT3G02660	TyrRS	Chloro-Mito	
AT1G28350	TyrRS	Cyto-only	
AT2G33840[a]	TyrRS	Cyto-only	
AT5G16715	ValRS	Chloro-Mito	Low mito localization detected; may effectively function as chloro-only
AT1G14610	ValRS	Cyto-Mito[b]	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).

[b] The cyto-mito GlyRS and ValRS enzymes have previously suggested to not function in mitochondrial aminoacylation despite localization to the organelle (Duchêne et al. 2001; Duchêne et al. 2009).

[c] References to no detected mitochondrial/chloroplast localization are based on the absence of any PSMs from our samples. Other studies have detected these proteins at low levels (see main text and Figure 3).

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

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	***ATMG00560***	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***	***ATMG00210***	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]	***ATMG00080***	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***	***ATMG00090***	24	17	0	0	0	0
Rps4 N-term (uS4m)	FUN_045851-T1/FUN_045790-T1	***ATMG00290***	5	7	0	0	0	0
Rps4 C-term (uS4m)	Sconica_v3_40630-RA	***ATMG00290***	10	3	0	0	0	0
Rps7 (uS7m)	Lost in *S. conica*	***ATMG01270***	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	***ATMG00980***	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 mitochondrial and plastid genomes in purified organelle fractions. (A) In this panel, each point represents an individual biological sample, showing its cumulative number of PSMs across all plastid-encoded proteins (x-axis) and mitochondrial-encoded proteins (y-axis) expressed as a proportion of all PSMs in the sample with each biological replicate shown separately. (B) In this panel, each point represents a mitochondrial-encoded or plastid-encoded protein. Enrichment in chloroplast samples (x-axis) or mitochondrial samples (y-axis) is calculated by dividing the PSM count for that protein from the respective purified organelles by the corresponding PSM count from total leaf samples. Point size is scaled based on total number of PSMs for that protein across all samples. Only proteins represented by at least 5 unique peptides in the dataset are shown, and enrichment/depletion values were capped at 10-fold for visualization purposes. The two biological replicates are averaged for this panel. In both panels, point shape indicates species identity (circle: *A. thaliana*; triangle: *S. conica*), and PSMs were excluded for peptides shared between multiple proteins.

Arabidopsis thaliana PSMs

Figure S2. Pairwise correlation matrix among the six *A. thaliana* samples based on PSMs for each identified protein. Each point in the scatterplots below the downward diagonal represents a protein. The highlighted subplots show the three pairs of biological replicates of the same sample type that are expected to have high correlations. The correlation coefficients (Pearson's *r* and Spearman's ρ) corresponding to each subplot are shown above the downward diagonal. The downward diagonal itself shows the univariate distribution (density kernel) for PSM counts in each of the six samples. PSMs were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins. A baseline value of 1 was added to all values prior to log-transformation and visualization.

Arabidopsis thaliana Ion Intensities

Figure S3. Pairwise correlation matrix among the six *A. thaliana* samples based on ion intensity for each identified protein. Each point in the scatterplots below the downward diagonal represents a protein. The highlighted subplots show the three pairs of biological replicates of the same sample type that are expected to have high correlations. The correlation coefficients (Pearson's *r* and Spearman's ρ) corresponding to each subplot are shown above the downward diagonal. The downward diagonal itself shows the univariate distribution (density kernel) for ion intensities in each of the six samples. Ion intensities were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins or that were identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not validated in that sample with an MS2 spectrum. A baseline value of 1e6 was added to all values prior to log-transformation and visualization.

Figure S4. Pairwise correlation matrix among the six *S. conica* samples based on PSMs for each identified protein. Each point in the scatterplots below the downward diagonal represents a protein. The highlighted subplots show the three pairs of biological replicates of the same sample type that are expected to have high correlations. The correlation coefficients (Pearson's *r* and Spearman's ρ) corresponding to each subplot are shown above the downward diagonal. The downward diagonal itself shows the univariate distribution (density kernel) for PSM counts in each of the six samples. PSMs were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins. A baseline value of 1 was added to all values prior to log-transformation and visualization.

Silene conica Ion Intensities

Figure S5. Pairwise correlation matrix among the six *S. conica* samples based on ion intensity for each identified protein. Each point in the scatterplots below the downward diagonal represents a protein. The highlighted subplots show the three pairs of biological replicates of the same sample type that are expected to have high correlations. The correlation coefficients (Pearson's *r* and Spearman's ρ) corresponding to each subplot are shown above the downward diagonal. The downward diagonal itself shows the univariate distribution (density kernel) for ion intensities in each of the six samples. Ion intensities were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins or that were identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not validated in that sample with an MS2 spectrum. A baseline value of 1e6 was added to all values prior to log-transformation and visualization.

Figure S6. Summary of mitochondrial and chloroplast enrichment of *Arabidopsis thaliana* aaRSs relative to total leaf samples based on ratios of ion intensity averaged across two biological replicates. Ion intensities were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins or if they were identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not validated in that sample with an MS2 spectrum. 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).

Figure S7. Summary of whether mitochondrial samples were biased towards containing organellar-like vs. cytosolic-like aaRSs based on proteomic analysis. This is the same representation as Figure 4 except that enrichment bias was calculated using ion intensity rather than PSM counts as the quantification metric. ion intensities were excluded for peptides that were shared between multiple proteins or if they were identified solely based on an MS1 peak that was not validated in that sample with an MS2 spectrum. See Methods and Figure 4 legend for more information.

Figure S8. 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. Abundance of SUBA5-classified mitochondrial and plastid proteins in *A. thaliana* LC-MS/MS samples. The reported percentages reflect the total ion intensity or PSMs for proteins in the respective SUBA5 category divided by the total ion intensity or PSM signal for all identified proteins.

Arabidopsis Sample	SUBA5 Mitochondrial Proteins			SUBA5 Plastid Proteins		
	# Detected	Ion Intensity	PSMs	# Detected	Ion Intensity	PSMs
Mitochondrial 1	835	73.96%	59.93%	459	9.79%	14.21%
Mitochondrial 2	783	73.16%	61.25%	363	10.15%	13.27%
Leaf 1	459	6.79%	11.29%	1110	70.07%	41.58%
Leaf 2	449	8.18%	12.48%	1090	69.65%	43.07%
Chloroplast 1	176	2.06%	5.25%	1314	96.21%	91.55%
Chloroplast 2	161	1.78%	4.74%	1138	95.54%	86.56%

Table S2. Normalized MS1 ion intensities for PheRS enzymes in *S. conica*.

| Sample | PheRS Type | | | Ratio of Mito to Chloro Types[b] |
	Cytosolic (Sconica_v3_11405-RA)	Chloroplast (Sconica_v3_09891-RA)	Mitochondrial (Chr01-anno1.g64625.t1)	
Mt1	1.03e8	6.25e8	1.83e9	2.93
Mt2	9.70e7	5.21e8	1.39e9	2.67
Cp1	2.77e8	2.35e9	1.28e8	0.05
Cp2	5.51e8	3.35e9	3.19e8	0.10
Lf1	1.45e9	2.81e9	1.87e8	0.07
Lf2	1.58e9	2.37e9	5.30e8	0.22

[a] Reported values exclude contributions from shared peptides but do include intensities reported only as "Peak Found" without PSM support. The identified differences would be even larger if these were excluded, as the putative mitochondrial PheRS produced no PSMs outside of the mitochondrial samples.

[b] The mitochondrial samples have a significantly higher ratio of mitochondrial to chloroplast PheRS types than the chloroplast samples (one-sided Student's *t-test* of log-normalized ratios; $p = 0.0029$).

Table S3. 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 S4. 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]	Mt1	Mt2	Cp1	Cp2	Leaf1	Leaf2	Mito-Enriched[b]
					Silene PSM Counts				
uL1m	Sconica_v3_19193-RA	AT2G42710	15	11	1	0	0	0	*
uL2m N-term	Chr03-anno2.g23183.t1	*ATMG00560*	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*	*ATMG00210*	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	*ATMG00080*	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*	*ATMG00090*	24	17	0	0	0	0	*

uS4m N-term	FUN_045851-T1/FUN_045790-T1	*ATMG00290*	5	7	0	0	0	0	
uS4m C-term	Sconica_v3_40630-RA	*ATMG00290*	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*	*ATMG01270*	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	*ATMG00980*	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.

[b] Asterisks in the Mito-Enriched column indicate significantly greater ($p < 0.05$) normalized MS1 ion intensities in the mitochondrial fraction than in total leaf samples based on a Student's t-test (with log-transformed values). Values used in these tests exclude contributions from shared peptides but do include intensities reported only as "Peak Found" without PSM support. The identified differences would be even larger if these were excluded. Missing ion intensity values (i.e., proteins that were not detected at all in a sample) were imputed as values of 1e6, approximating the low end of detection reported for these samples.

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