# Inappropriate translation inhibition and P-body formation causes cold-sensitivity in tryptophan-auxotroph yeast mutants

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#### 1 ABSTRACT

2 In response to different adverse conditions, most eukaryotic organisms, including 3 Saccharomyces cerevisiae, downregulate protein synthesis through the phosphorylation 4 of eIF2 $\alpha$  (eukaryotic initiation factor 2 $\alpha$ ) by Gcn2, a highly conserved protein kinase. 5 Gcn2 also controls the translation of Gcn4, a transcription factor involved in the 6 induction of amino acid biosynthesis enzymes. Here, we have studied the functional 7 role of Gcn2 and Gcn2-regulating proteins, in controlling translation during temperature 8 downshifts of TRP1 and trp1 yeast cells. Our results suggest that neither cold-instigated 9 amino acid limitation nor Gcn2 are involved in the translation suppression at low 10 temperature. However, loss of TRP1 causes increased eIF2a phosphorylation, Gcn2-11 dependent polysome disassembly and overactivity of Gcn4, which result in cold-12 sensitivity. Indeed, knock-out of GCN2 improves cold growth of trp1 cells. Likewise, 13 mutation of several Gcn2-regulators and effectors results in cold-growth effects. 14 Remarkably, we found that Hog1, the osmoresponsive MAPK, plays a role in the 15 regulatory mechanism of Gcn2- eIF2 $\alpha$ . Finally, we demonstrated that P-body formation 16 responds to a downshift in temperature in a TRP1-dependent manner and is required for 17 cold tolerance.

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Keywords: Yeast, Low temperature, Polysomes, Gcn2 pathway, eIF2α, Hog1, Snf1

#### 1 1. Introduction

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3 Adaptation to temperature downshifts is a critical event for the growth and 4 survival of unicellular organisms. In the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, cold 5 influences, among others, the enzyme kinetics, increases the molecular order of 6 membrane lipids, and stabilizes the secondary structures of RNAs (Aguilera et al., 7 2007). This stabilization affects the transcriptional machinery, inhibits RNA 8 degradation and reduces adversely the ribosome function, compromising the global 9 translation (Phadtare and Severinov, 2010). Consistent with this, cold-shocked yeast 10 cells temporally reduce protein synthesis (Hofmann et al., 2012), and increase the 11 expression of transcription-related and ribosomal genes (Sahara et al., 2002; Schade et 12 al., 2004). Nevertheless, the cold-instigated arrest of protein translation could also 13 respond to additional mechanisms and have a protective role. Most types of stress 14 reduce global translation whereby they prevent further protein damage, re-allocate their 15 resources to repair processes and ensure cellular survival (Hofmann et al., 2012). The 16 physiological changes that cause the cold-mediated translational inhibition, the 17 signaling pathways involved and its consequences in the ability of yeast cells to face 18 with a downshift in temperature remain unclear.

19 In response to different adverse conditions, cells reduce protein translation 20 through the phosphorylation of the  $\alpha$  subunit of the eukaryotic initiation factor-2 21 (eIF2 $\alpha$ ) by Gcn2. The protein kinase Gcn2 is virtually present in all eukaryotes and 22 governs a regulatory module called the General Amino Acid Control (GAAC) pathway 23 in S. cerevisiae (Hinnebusch, 2014; Murguía and Serrano, 2012; Castilho et al., 2014). 24 When amino acid availability is low, uncharged tRNAs (tRNA<sup>deacyl</sup>) accumulates in the cell leading to the stimulation of the protein kinase catalytic domain of Gcn2 and 25 26 subsequent phosphorylation of  $eIF2\alpha$  at Ser51 (Hinnebusch, 2014). This modification 27 blocks the translation initiation and simultaneously favors the preferential translation of 28 specific mRNAs, such as that coding for Gcn4 (Hinnebusch, 2014), the transcriptional 29 activator of a large number of genes involved in amino acid biosynthesis (Natarajan et 30 al., 2001). Increased levels of uncharged tRNAs caused by amino acid depletion are 31 also proposed as the primary signal regulating Gcn2 in response to a variety of stress 32 conditions such as high salinity (Zaborske et al., 2009), oxidizing conditions (Shenton 33 et al., 2006; Mascarenhas et al., 2008) and weak acids stress (Hueso et al., 2012). For

example, it is well documented that both high Na<sup>+</sup> concentrations and downward shifts 1 2 in temperature, cause a strong inhibition of amino acid uptake (Abe and Horikoshi, 3 2000; Pascual-Ahuir et al., 2001; Vicent et al., 2015). A link between amino acid 4 limitation and translational inhibition might also be on the basis of the strong cold-5 sensitivity phenotype found in several amino acid transport and biosynthesis mutants 6 (Hampsey, 1997), a phenotype especially severe in tryptophan auxotrophic strains of S. 7 cerevisiae (Schmidt et al., 1994). Recently, it has been reported that cold stimulates the 8 Gcn2-mediated phosphorylation of eIF2a in mammals and S. cerevisiae cells, although 9 the cold-induced translational depression was found to be largely independent of this 10 event (Hofmann et al., 2012). Thus, a role of Gcn2 in controlling translation during 11 temperature downshift remains unclear. Whether the timing and duration of the cold-12 instigated translation arrest differs between prototrophic and auxotrophic yeast strains, 13 and how this influences the growth of yeast cells at low temperature needs to be 14 established.

15 The cold effects on protein translation may also be regulated by energy 16 depletion. In mammal cells, downshifts in temperature reduce mitochondrial function 17 leading to energy depletion and concomitant activation of AMP-activated protein 18 kinase, AMPK (Hofmann et al., 2012). It is also known that low temperature exposure 19 induces an increase in the fermentative/oxidative ratio in S. cerevisiae (Tai et al., 2007; 20 Ballester-Tomás et al., 2015) and that glucose starvation causes a rapid and robust 21 inhibition of translation initiation (Ashe et al., 2000), which is followed by mRNA P-22 bodies formation (Teixeira et al., 2005; Lui et al., 2014). The P-bodies (processing 23 bodies) consist of defined mRNA-containing granules that harbor much of the mRNA 24 decay machinery (Stoecklin and Kedersha, 2013; Pizzinga and Ashe, 2014). It has been 25 reported that Snfl, the yeast ortholog of AMPK, the central kinase of the catabolite 26 repression pathway (Conrad *et al.*, 2014), regulates the phosphorylation state of  $eIF2\alpha$ in response to either amino acid or glucose starvation (Cherkasova et al., 2010). 27 28 However, the mechanism involved in each case differs. Snf1 promotes the formation of 29 phospho-eIF2a by activating Gcn2 in histidine starved cells. Instead, Snf1 is required to 30 inhibit the eIF2 $\alpha$ -phosphatases Glc7 and Sit4, when cells are shifted from glucose to 31 galactose (Cherkasova et al., 2010). Thus, Snfl could play a role in regulating the 32 translation arrest induced by low temperature exposure, although no evidence of this 33 function has been reported. Whether cold promotes the formation of P-bodies and

whether this process is influenced by the limiting amino acid in auxotrophic strains are
 questions that need to be clarified.

Here, we have investigated the functional role of the Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$  signaling and its effector kinases and phosphatases in the cold-induced translation regulation of *TRP1* and *trp1* yeast cells. Our data suggest that energy depletion is the triggering signal of the translational arrest in response to a downshift in temperature and that cold sensitivity in tryptophan biosynthesis mutant yeast cells is linked to overactivity of the Gcn2-Gcn4 regulatory module.

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- 10 **2. Materials and methods**
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12 2.1. Media, culture conditions, and stress sensitivity tests

Previously described standard methods were followed for media preparation 13 14 (Guthrie and Fink, 1991). Yeast cells were cultured at 30, 15 or 12°C in YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone and 2% glucose) or SCD (0.67% yeast nitrogen base without amino 15 16 acids, DIFCO, plus 2% glucose) supplemented with the appropriate amino acid drop out 17 (ForMedium, England). Yeast transformants carrying the geneticin (kanMX4) and 18 nourseothricin (natMX4) resistant module were selected on YPD agar plates containing 19 200 mg/l of G-418 (Sigma) or 50 mg/l of nourseothricin (clonNAT, WERNER 20 Bioagents, Germany), respectively (Wach et al., 1994; Goldstein and McCusker, 1999). 21 Escherichia coli DH5a host strain was grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium (1% 22 peptone, 0.5% yeast extract and 0.5% NaCl) supplemented with ampicillin (50 mg/l). 23 All amino acids, sugars and antibiotics were filter-sterilized and added to autoclaved 24 medium. Solid media contained 2% agar. Yeast cells were transformed by the lithium 25 acetate method (Ito et al., 1983).

For plate phenotype experiments, cultures were diluted to  $OD_{600} = 0.8$  and 10-fold serial dilutions spotted (3 µl) onto SCD- or YPD-agar solid media. Unless otherwise indicated, colony growth was inspected after 2-4 days of incubation at 30°C. Coldgrowth experiments were carried out at 15 or 12°C for 8-12 days.

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31 2.2. Strains and plasmids

The *S. cerevisiae* strains, oligonucleotides and plasmids used in this study are listed in the supplementary material (Tables S1-S3). Tat1, Tat2 and Gap1 C-terminal 1 tagging with 13-Myc epitope was carried out by PCR-based gene tagging using plasmid 2 pFA6a-13Myc-His3MX6 (Table S3) as a template and appropriate target-gene specific 3 plasmid pairs (Table S2). The TRP1 and HOG1 deletion strains were constructed by 4 PCR-based gene replacement using the natMX4 cassette template (Table S3) and 5 synthetic oligonucleotides (Table S2). Detection of the correct gene disruption and 6 tagging was done by diagnostic PCR (Huxley et al., 1990), using a set of 7 oligonucleotides (Table S2), designed to bind outside of the replaced gene sequence and 8 within the marker module (data not shown).

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#### 10 2.3. Preparation of protein extracts and Western blot analysis

11 Proteins were extracted, separated and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Western blot 12 as previously described (Hernández-López et al., 2011). The proteins tagged with 13 13Myc were visualized by using a mouse monoclonal antibody against human c-Myc 14 (1:1,000; cat#sc-40; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, Texas). Anti-G6Pdh serum 15 (1:3,000; cat#8866; Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA) was used as a loading control. The 16 phosphorylation of eIF2 $\alpha$  was followed by using anti-phospho-S51 antibody (1:1,000; 17 cat#3597; Cell Signaling). Rabbit anti-phospho Rps6 (1:10,000; kindly provided by T. 18 Moustafa) and rabbit polyclonal against Rps6 (1:1,000; cat#ab40820; Abcam, 19 Cambridge, UK), were used to check the activity of TORC1. Phospho-AMPKa 20 (Thr172) rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1,000; cat#4188; Cell Signaling) was used to 21 follow the phosphorylation state of Snf1. Total Snf1 was revealed by using a polyclonal 22 rabbit antibody (1:1,000; kindly provided by F. Estruch). The secondary antibodies used 23 were horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit (1:2,000; cat#7074; Cell 24 Signaling) or rabbit anti-mouse (1:5,000, cat#P0260; Dako, Carpinteria, CA). Blots 25 were done and images were captured as described elsewhere (Hernández-López et al., 26 2011).

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28 *2.4. ATP assay* 

SCD-grown overnight seed cultures of the BY4741 wild-type and *trp1* mutant strain were refreshed at  $OD_{600} = 0.10$  in the same medium and cultivated at 30 °C for 3 h. Aliquots were withdrawn for their immediate analysis (control), and cultures were split 1:2 and incubated at 30 or 12 °C until the  $OD_{600}$  reached values around 1.2. At different times during growth, 100 µl samples were analyzed for ATP levels using the CellTiter-Glo® Luminescent Assay following the manufacturer's instructions (Promega). The ATP level in the cell suspensions was calculating after correcting for
 the reagent background using the signal produced by an ATP standard as reference.
 Values provided are expressed as nmol of ATP per OD<sub>600</sub> and represent the mean (±SD)
 of triplicate assays. ATP kinetics for each strain was repeated at least two times.

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#### 6 2.5. Polysomal analyses

For polysome profiling, 30°C-SCD-grown cells ( $OD_{600} = 0.5$ ) were incubated at 12°C and at the indicated times, 80 ml samples were withdrawn, chilled for 5 min on ice in the presence of cycloheximide (0.1 mg/ml final concentration). Then, cell extracts were prepared, applied to 10–50% sucrose gradients, centrifuged and analyzed as described previously (Garre *et al.*, 2012). Each polysome gradient analysis was repeated at least two times.

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14 2.6. Microscopy

15 Cells were grown in SCD medium to mid-log phase and then shifted to 15°C for 16 the indicated times. The cells were spun at 3,000 x g for 3 min and resuspended in 20 17 mM PBS, pH 7.4. Dcg2-GFP was observed under a Zeiss 510 Meta Confocal 18 microscope with a 63× Plan-Apochromat 1.4 NA Oil DIC objective lens (Zeiss). Image 19 processing was done with Image J (<u>http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/</u>).

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#### 21 2.7. Statistical analysis

22 Sample averages were compared using a Student's t-test. The samples denoted 23 with \* were significantly different with a p < 0.05.

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#### 26 **3. Results and discussion**

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3.1. The tryptophan biosynthetic capacity influences polysome disassembly and
eIF2α phosphorylation in cold-shocked yeast cells

30 Cold-shocked *TRP1* yeast cells showed the typical features of translation initiation 31 inhibition (Castilho *et al.*, 2014), including a decrease in the fraction of polysomes (Fig. 32 1A) and a rapid phosphorylation at Ser51 of eIF2 $\alpha$  (Fig. 1B), the specific amino acid 33 phosphorylated by the kinase Gcn2 (Hinnebusch, 2014). We also observed that there

1 was a relatively high level of remaining polysomes in cold-shocked cells (Fig. 1A; 2 h 2 at 12°C). In addition, the response was transient (Fig. 1A and B), suggesting that the 3 global protein synthesis is not fully suppressed under the conditions tested. Indeed, 4 previous reports have shown evidence of protein induction in cold-shocked cells of S. 5 cerevisiae (Kandror et al., 2004; Ballester-Tomás et al., 2016). Compared with this, the 6 repressive effect of a downshift in temperature on the bulk translation, as judged by 7 polysome disassembly and eIF2 $\alpha$  overphosphorylation, was more pronounced and 8 persistent in the *trp1* mutant strain (Fig. 1). The progressive polysome reassembly 9 during cold-adaptation also took longer, and even after 24 h at 12°C, the polysome profile was still altered in the tryptophan biosynthesis mutant (Fig. 1A). 10

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#### 3.2. Gcn2-dependent and –independent effects on polysome disassembly

13 The above results showed the activation of the Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$  signaling pathway in 14 response to cold, suggesting that amino acid starvation might be the primary signal to 15 induce the translation inhibition under this condition. Amino acid uptake is strongly 16 inhibited by cold-stress (Vicent et al., 2015) and amino acid depletion upregulates Gcn2 17 function (Hinnebusch, 2014). Thus, this regulatory mechanism might also explain the 18 stronger effects on translational regulation caused by loss of TRP1. Tryptophan 19 biosynthesis mutants depend exclusively on the external supply of tryptophan, and thus, 20 cold effects on amino acid transport could be expected to reduce further amino acid 21 intracellular levels. However, recent evidence in mammals, fission and budding yeast 22 cells suggest that under a variety of stress conditions the initial translational inhibition is 23 largely independent of GCN2 and eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation (Hofmann *et al.*, 2012; 24 Knutsen et al., 2015). In agreement with this, we found that knock-out of GCN2 did not 25 result in noticeable changes in the polysome profile of TRP1 yeast cells at either 30 or 26 12°C (compare Fig. 2A and Fig. 1A). However, the loss of Gcn2 in the trp1 strain 27 reduced the strong cold-instigated polysome disassembly caused by deletion of TRP1 28 (compare Fig. 2A and Fig. 1A; 2 h at 12°C). Hence, our results suggest that yeast cells 29 reduce protein synthesis in response to a downshift in temperature by pathways other 30 than the cold-instigated Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$ , yet this mechanism plays an important role in the 31 translational regulation of tryptophan biosynthesis mutant cells.

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#### 1 *3.3. Cold triggers the inhibition of TORC1*

2 Cold has been reported to cause energy depletion in mammal cells, which results 3 in the inhibition of mTOR activity (Hofmann et al., 2012). mTOR like the yeast TORC1 4 (the Target of Rapamycin Complex 1), are sensitive to the energy status of the cell 5 (Hindupur et al., 2015). It has also been suggested that mTOR inhibition under stress 6 conditions contribute to the fine-tuning of translation initiation by regulating the 7 phosphorylating state of 43S preinitiation complex factors (Richter and Sonenberg, 8 2005; Hoyle et al., 2007). Thus, we first analyzed whether S. cerevisiae TORC1 is 9 inhibited by cold. We followed the phosphorylation state in cold-shocked cells of the 10 40S ribosomal protein S6 (Rps6) at S232 and S233, a well stablished readout of 11 TORC1-dependent signaling, via its direct targets Ypk1/Ypk3 (González et al., 2015; 12 Yerlikaya et al., 2016). As it is shown in Fig. 2B, the phospho-Rps6 signal began to 13 decrease within 60 min after the transfer of yeast cells from 30 to 12°C and almost 14 disappeared at 120 min (Fig. 2B), suggesting that TORC1-Ypk1/Ypk3 signaling is 15 downregulated in response to low temperature. In addition, there were no major 16 differences in the dephosphorylation kinetics of Rps6 in TRP1 and trp1 yeast cells (Fig. 17 2B). Thus, the results are consistent with the idea that TORC1 inhibition upon cold-18 shock may drive the Gcn2-independent translation downregulation observed in either 19 TRP1 or trp1 yeast strains (Fig. 2A).

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#### 21 *3.4. The turnover of tryptophan transporters is insensitive to low temperature*

22 The finding that Gcn2 plays no major role as regulator of the translation initiation 23 in wild-type cells during temperature downshifts, suggested that cold stress does not 24 induces amino acid starvation. We sought to obtain further evidence of this by 25 analyzing how low temperature could influence amino acid permeases abundance. In S. 26 *cerevisiae*, the stability and sorting of the low and high affinity tryptophan permeases 27 Tat1 and Tat2, is controlled by amino acid availability, and regulated inversely to that 28 of the general amino acid permease Gap1 (Beck et al., 1999). As shown in Fig. S1, 29 myc-tagged Tat2 was clearly more abundant in 30°C-grown trp1 mutant yeast cells than 30 in TRP1 cells. On the contrary, the TRP1 prototroph strain displayed increased levels of 31 Tat1 (Fig. S1). Thus, S. cerevisiae appears to regulate the abundance of low and high 32 affinity transporters in response to its biosynthetic ability. On the other hand, cold 33 exposure caused a downregulation of Tat2 in both TRP1 and trp1 strains that was 34 evident 24 h after the shift of cells from 30 to 12°C (Fig. S1). Comparing with this, a

full degradation of Tat2 has been reported to occur in less than 60 min in rapamycin treated yeast cells (Beck *et al.*, 1999). Tat1 was also degraded at late time points, whereas Gap1 was induced in coincidence with the decrease in the level of tryptophan transporters (Fig. S1). Importantly, tryptophan auxotroph and prototroph strains showed again a similar kinetics of Tat1 and Gap1 regulation. Hence, a downshift in temperature does not seem to trigger a fast turnover of tryptophan transporters, even in the tryptophan biosynthesis mutant.

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#### 3.5. Amino acid uptake alone is not a limiting factor for growth at low temperature

10 We explored the effects of the overexpression of TAT2 on growth at low 11 temperature. The study by Vicent et al. (2015) demonstrated that a high-copy number 12 expression of TAT2 is able to maintain tryptophan uptake at 10°C to levels similar to the control strain at 28°C. As shown in Fig. 3, excess Tat2 had no effect on the cold-growth 13 14 of TRP1 yeast cells. Only in trp1 mutant cells, the overexpression of TAT2 stimulated 15 the growth at 15°C, yet the effect was limited and thus, growth differences between 16 auxotrophic and prototrophic cells were still important (Fig. 3). Altogether, the results 17 suggest that tryptophan uptake becomes a limiting factor for the cold growth of *trp1* 18 yeast cells, although this factor alone is not the main responsible for the extreme cold-19 sensitivity of this strain.

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# 3.6. P-bodies formation responds to a downshift in temperature and is required for cold tolerance

23 The above results suggested that amino acid limitation is not the main reason why 24 *trp1* cold-stressed yeast cells show a strong growth defect. To further explore this idea, 25 we analyzed the P-bodies formation after cold exposure. RNA processing bodies (P-26 bodies), which concentrate mRNA decay enzymes (Balagopal and Parker, 2009; 27 Buchan and Parker, 2009; Hoyle and Ashe, 2008), are induced in response to certain 28 stresses, including low glucose (Teixeira et al. 2005; Romero-Santacreu et al., 2009), 29 but not by amino acid starvation (Hoyle et al., 2007), and have been reported to play a 30 role in cell survival and adaptation (Balagopal et al., 2012). Accordingly, we examined 31 the localization of P-bodies marker Dcp2 tagged with green fluorescent protein (GFP), 32 in TRP1 and trp1 yeast cells exposed to low temperature (Fig. 4A). Dcp2 encodes a 33 catalytic subunit of the Dcp1-Dcp2 mRNA decapping complex in yeast (Dunckley and 34 Parker, 1999) and forms part of the decapping machinery that accumulates in P-bodies

1 (Teixeira and Parker, 2007; Buchan et al., 2010). As it is shown in Fig. 4A, P-bodies 2 increased in response to a downshift in temperature, suggesting again that amino acid 3 starvation is not the primary signal mediating the cold-induced inhibition in translation 4 initiation. We were unable to find significant differences in the number of P-bodies 5 raised in cold-shocked TRP1 and trp1 yeast cells (data not shown). However, the Dcp2-6 GFP fluorescence pattern showed by wild-type and *trp1* mutant strains differed. *TRP1* cells formed large foci after 30 min at 15°C (Fig. 4A). Instead, a more disperse 7 8 cytoplasmic GFP pattern with smaller foci was observed in *trp1* mutant cells (Fig. 4A). 9 Moreover, a number of Dcp2-GFP foci were still evident during prolonged cold 10 exposure of wild-type cells, whereas the reporter was hardly visible in the tryptophan 11 biosynthesis mutant.

12 Finally, we analyzed whether impaired P-body formation might induce cold 13 sensitivity. In E. coli, some of the main cold-shock proteins are RNA helicases and 14 exoribonucleases that stimulate RNA degradation at low temperature through their 15 RNA unwinding activity (Phadtare and Severinov, 2010). We examined the cold growth 16 of TRP1 cells lacking Pat1, Ccr4 or Pop2. The protein Pat1 is a conserved core 17 constituent of eukaryotic P-bodies that has been suggested to act as a scaffolding 18 molecule during the assembly process (Pilkington and Parker, 2008; Marnef and 19 Standart, 2010). Ccr4 and Pop2 form part of the major mRNA deadenylase complex in 20 S. cerevisiae (Tucker et al., 2002), and have been identified as enriched in yeast P-21 bodies (Nissan and Parker, 2008). In addition, ccr4 mutant cells have been reported as 22 showing increased cold sensitivity in the D273-10B yeast background (Betz et al., 23 2002). In agreement with this, BY4741 cells lacking Ccr4 displayed impaired growth at 24 low temperature (Fig. 4B). Likewise, knock-out of POP2 and PAT1 caused strong cold 25 sensitivity (Fig. 4B). Remarkably, growth of *pat1* mutant cells was slowed down by 26 cold-exposure at 15°C (data not shown) and completely stopped at the temperature of 27 12°C (Fig. 4B).

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#### 29 3.7. The activity of Gcn2 induces cold-sensitivity in trp1 yeast cells

Our study indicated that P-body assembly and disassembly is physiologically relevant for adaptation to low temperature in *S. cerevisiae*. We wonder whether the increased translation inhibition observed in cold-shocked *trp1* yeast cells (Fig. 1A and CA), could also contribute to their severe growth defect at low temperature. A previous study by Goossens *et al.* (2001) had identified Gcn2 in a screening for negative factors

1 in yeast salt stress tolerance. We found that lack of kinase activity provided by Gcn2 2 had no apparent effect on the cold growth of tryptophan prototroph wild-type cells (Fig. 3 4C). On the contrary, disruption of the GCN2 gene stimulated the growth of the trp1 4 mutant at 15°C, while no growth effects were observed at 30°C by loss of Gcn2 (Fig. 5 4C). Likewise, mutation of other components of this regulatory circuit such as GCN1. 6 GCN3 and GCN20 also resulted in improved cold growth (Supplementary material; Fig. 7 S2). Only, the absence of Gcn4 caused a strong growth defect independently of the 8 growth temperature tested (Fig. S2), a result also reported for salt exposed cells 9 (Goossens et al., 2001). Hence, the tryptophan biosynthesis mutant trp1 shows Gcn2-10 dependent effects on translation regulation, and this effect correlates with cold 11 sensitivity.

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#### 13 3.8. Overphosphorylation of $eIF2\alpha$ decreases the cold growth of yeast cells

14 We investigated whether mutations in regulators and effectors of the Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$ 15 signaling might alter the cold growth of wild-type cells. In S. cerevisiae, the GAAC 16 pathway is regulated by different kinases (see a schematic representation in Fig. 5A), 17 including TORC1, which inhibits Gcn2 activity in non-starved cells (De Virgilio and 18 Loewith, 2006; Dobrenel et al., 2016), and the Snf1 protein kinase, a member of the 19 AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) family (Conrad et al., 2014). Snf1 promotes the 20 phosphorylation of eIF2 $\alpha$  by stimulating the Gcn2 activity (Cherkasova *et al.*, 2010). In 21 addition, Snf1 acts as a negative regulator of two eIF2a phosphatases, Sit4, a PP2A-like 22 enzyme (Arndt et al., 1989), and Glc7, the protein phosphatase  $1\alpha$ , PP1 $\alpha$  (Cannon et 23 al., 1994), which in turn, is a negative regulator of the Snf1 kinase activity (Conrad et 24 al., 2014). As it is shown in Fig. 5B, loss of Snf1 reduced the growth of TRP1 wild-type 25 cells in SCD minimal medium at 30°C. The Snf1 protein kinase is a key regulator of the 26 transcriptional response to nutrient limitation (Conrad et al., 2014). However, a 27 downshift in temperature resulted in a progressive recovery of *snf1* growth rate (Fig. 28 5B). Conversely, deletion of SIT4 conferred cold-sensitivity (Fig. 5B). We also tested 29 the phenotype of an allele of GLC7 (glc7-127) which provides a phenotype of glucose repression insensitivity (Venturi et al., 2000). As expected, cells containing an 30 31 integrated copy of this allele at the GLC7 locus, showed increased abundance of 32 phospho-Snf1 (Fig. 5C). In addition, glc7-127 mutant cells displayed overphosphorylation of eIF2 $\alpha$  (Fig. 5C), and reduced growth at low temperature in 33

either minimal SCD or rich YPD medium (Fig. 5D). Again, our results support the idea
 that the aberrant activity of the Gcn2-eIF2α signaling module causes cold sensitivity.

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#### 3.9. Hog1 plays a role in the regulatory mechanism of Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$

5 Hog1, the MAPK of the High Osmolarity Glycerol (HOG) pathway (Saito and 6 Posas, 2012; Hohmann, 2015; de Nadal and Posas, 2015), is required for yeast cells to 7 adapt to low temperature (Panadero et al., 2006). On the other hand, Hog1 has been 8 found to be physiologically relevant in modulating the translational response to NaCl in 9 yeast cells (Bilsland-Marchesan et al., 2000). Nevertheless, Hog1 does not appear to be 10 involved in the initial inhibition of translation, but rather in reactivation of translation 11 under stress (Romero-Santacreu et al., 2009; Warringer et al., 2010; de Nadal and 12 Posas, 2015). Therefore, we were interested to investigate the importance of the MAPK 13 in the translational regulation in response to a downshift in temperature. Loss of Hog1 14 increased the phosphorylation level of eIF2 $\alpha$  in response to cold exposure (Fig. 6A), 15 and impaired cold growth in either liquid (Fig. 6B) or solid (Supplementary material; 16 Fig. S3) SCD medium. Thus, Hog1 appears to modulate directly or indirectly the 17 phosphorylation state of  $eIF2\alpha$  by increasing the activity of Gcn2 or downregulating 18  $eIF2\alpha$ -targeting protein phosphatases. Indeed, previous work by Rodriguez-Hernandez 19 et al. (2003), revealed the existence of a positive regulatory loop between Hog1 and 20 Gcn2 protein kinases contributing to cell sensitivity to osmotic stress. However, the role 21 of Hog1 in inhibiting eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation had no apparent effect on cold growth 22 since the single hogl and the double gcn2 hogl mutant strains displayed a similar 23 behavior at low temperature (Fig. 6B). Given that Hog1 appears to control the 24 expression of mitochondrial pyruvate carrier genes (Timón-Gómez et al., 2013), which 25 are important determinants of respiration rate, the role of the MAPK in cold tolerance 26 might be linked to the cell's energy status, which in turn, could affect the activity of 27 TORC1 and Gcn2- eIF2 $\alpha$ . More work is required to address this point and decipher the 28 interesting relationship between Gcn2 and Hog1 in the stress response to low 29 temperature.

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#### 31 3.10. Cold sensitivity is linked to overactivity of Gcn4 and energy stress

32 The above results suggested a role of energy-sensitive pathways in the 33 translational control during a cold shock. Amino acid biosynthesis mutant strains

1 depend exclusively on energy-dependent transport, making them highly sensitive to 2 energy stress. To analyze this possibility, we first measured ATP levels in TRP1 and 3 *trp1* yeast cultures incubated at low temperature. Aliquots of cells growing at 30°C were 4 transferred to 12°C and the levels of ATP were followed at both temperatures until 5 cultures reached an  $OD_{600} \sim 1.2$ . As can be seen in Fig. 7A, the ATP present in cells of 6 the BY4741 TRP1 strain gradually increased as growth at 30°C proceed, reaching a peak in coincidence with the mid-log-phase (OD<sub>600</sub>  $\sim$  0.7-0.8). The content of ATP in 7 8 cells of the *trp1* mutant showed a similar trend along the growth period analyzed, but 9 values were always lower (Fig. 7A), suggesting that the tryptophan auxotrophy has an 10 energetic cost for yeast cells. Comparing with this, cells exposed to low temperature 11 showed a quite different profile of ATP (Fig. 7A). Except for a short period after the 12 transfer to 12°C, where ATP levels appeared to increase transiently, the ATP content in 13 cold-shocked cells of the TRP1 strain were much lower than those found in control 14 cells. For example, at  $OD_{600} \sim 1.0$ , ATP levels at 12°C were <30% of those at 30°C (Fig. 15 7A). Likewise, *trp1* cells showed a continuous decrease in ATP content after their 16 transfer to cold conditions. Furthermore, the ATP levels were again lower than those 17 measured for the TRP1 counterpart at 12°C (Fig. 7A).

18 We then examined whether increased energy wasting may explain the specific 19 cold growth effects observed in trp1 cells. Indeed, trp1 yeast cells were more sensitive 20 to the presence of metabolic inhibitors such as 2-DOG and sodium arsenate than the 21 corresponding isogenic TRP1 strain (Fig. 7B). Given that the tryptophan biosynthesis 22 mutant shows overphosphorylation of  $eIF2\alpha$  (Fig. 1B), an energy consuming process 23 could be the Gcn4-dependent expression of, among others, amino acid biosynthetic 24 enzymes (Hinnebusch, 2014). Elevated GCN4 expression in salt-exposed yeast cells has 25 been suggested as the most likely reason explaining the salt-resistant phenotype of cells 26 lacking Gcn2 (Goossens et al., 2001). Using a GCN4-lacZ reporter (Mueller and 27 Hinnebusch, 1986), we observed that cold exposure activated the Gcn2-dependent 28 translational regulation of the GCN4 mRNA, and that the effect was larger (p < 0.05) in 29 *trp1* than in *TRP1* yeast cells (Fig. 7C). Then, we analyzed whether the harmful effect 30 of the loss of TRP1 on cold tolerance could be attributed to GCN4 overactivation. For 31 this, we used two different genetic approaches. First, we investigated the cold 32 phenotype of yeast cells lacking the eIF4E-associated protein Eap1 (Consentino et al., 33 2000). It has been proposed that upon TOR-inactivation, Eap1 attenuates the translation 34 of GCN4 mRNA via a mechanism independent of eIF4E-binding (Matsuo et al., 2005).

1 Thus, deletion of EAP1 enhances GCN4 translation (Matsuo et al., 2005), and as it is 2 shown in Fig. 7D, leads to cold sensitivity. In the second approach, wild-type yeast cells 3 were transformed with plasmid p235, which contains a derepressed allele of GCN4 4 (uORF1-GCN4) that leads to increased transcription of Gcn4-regulated genes (Grant et 5 al., 1994). Transformants containing empty and wild-type-Gcn4 expressing plasmids 6 were used as control. As shown in Fig. 7E, overexpression of regulated wild-type GCN4 7 had no effect on the growth of the wild-type strain at either 30 or 15°C. However, 8 increased Gcn4 activity (Fig. 7E) caused cold sensitivity. 9

#### 1 4. Concluding remarks

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3 Phosphorylation of eIF2 $\alpha$  by Gcn2 does not appear to cause effect on cold tolerance of tryptophan prototroph strains of S. cerevisiae. Neither the cold-instigated 4 5 activation of Gcn2 explains the translation inhibition under these conditions. Instead, 6 the cold-induced inhibition of TORC1 might account for the global downregulation of 7 protein translation, although its role in this regulatory mechanism needs to be 8 confirmed. The idea that alterations in the cell's energy status might be perceived as the 9 primary signal downregulating translation initiation was not confirmed in our work. 10 Indeed, we were unable to detect a sudden decrease of ATP levels in cold-shocked cells 11 of either TRP1 or trp1 strain. Nevertheless, it is clear from our study that cold exposure 12 causes ATP depletion and that this reduction in the cell's energy reserves might 13 influence also the activity of Gcn2 over the eIF2 $\alpha$  translation factor. It is well known 14 that protein translation is one of the most energy-demanding processes and that glucose 15 depletion, the preferred energy-producing carbon source by yeast cells, causes a 16 dramatic translation arrest. Our observation that Snf1/Glc7, central players in conveying 17 energy- and nutrient-derived signals, inputs the translational machinery in cold-shocked 18 cells indeed suggests an important role of the energetic metabolism in modulating the 19 phosphorylation state of eIF2 $\alpha$  and the level of translation initiation at low temperature.

20 Unlike prototroph strains, cells lacking TRP1 show Gcn2-dependent cold-21 sensitivity, inappropriate translation arrest and overactivity of the Gen4 transcriptional 22 factor. In addition, loss of Trp1 has an impact on the cold-induced formation of P-23 bodies. Both impaired P-bodies assembly/disassembly and energy-consuming Gcn4 24 activity appears to account for the extreme cold sensitivity phenotype of *trp1* cells. 25 Nonetheless, the mechanisms of translational regulation are very complex, and thus, 26 additional factors could be involved. Our finding that Hog1 plays a role in the activity 27 of the Gcn2-eIF2 $\alpha$ , stresses this idea and adds new actors in the regulatory mechanisms 28 of translation initiation.

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#### **Figure legends**

**Fig. 1.** Loss of *TRP1* increases polysome disassembly and eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation after a downshift in temperature. A) polysome profile of cold-shocked *TRP1* and *trp1* yeast cells of the BY4741 yeast background. SCD-cultures were incubated at 30°C (OD<sub>600</sub> ~ 0.5) and then transferred to 12°C for the indicated times. Cell extracts were prepared and analyzed as described in the Materials and Methods section. The positions in the gradient of polysomes and the ribosomal particle 80S (monosome) are indicated. The ratio of the area under the polysomal to 80S peaks is shown in brackets. B) Protein extracts from whole cells of the aforementioned strains were separated by SDS-PAGE and blots were probed with an antibody specific for phosphorylated (S51) eIF2 $\alpha$  (PeIF2 $\alpha$ ). The level of glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6Pdh) was used as loading control. Spot intensities were quantified as earlier described (Hernández-López et al., 2011). The graph shows the relative values of P-eIF2 $\alpha$  corrected with respect to that of G6Pdh. The highest relative signal for each strain, *TRP1* and *trp1*, and sample analyzed was set at 100. A representative experiment out of the three is shown.

**Fig. 2.** Cold triggers the inhibition of TORC1 and the Gcn2-independent polysome disassembly. A) Polysome disassembly was monitored in cold-shocked *gcn2* mutant cells of the *TRP1* and *trp1* BY4741 yeast background. Cell extracts were prepared and analyzed as described in the Fig. 1A. The positions in the gradient of polysomes and the ribosomal particle 80S are indicated. The ratio of the area under the polysomal to 80S peaks is shown in brackets. B) Cell cultures of the indicated strains were subjected to cold shock at 12°C for the indicated times, and total protein lysates were analyzed by Western blotting for phospho-Rps6 (P-Rps6) and total Rps6 as loading control. Relative signal levels (%) are shown. The highest relative signal for each strain was set at 100. A representative experiment out of the three is shown.

**Fig. 3.** *TAT2* overexpression effects on growth after a downshift in temperature. *TRP1* and *trp1* BY4741 yeast cells harboring empty (YEplac195; *URA3*) and *TAT2* (YEpTAT2) overexpressing plasmids were examined for growth at 30 and 15°C. Exponentially growing cultures were adjusted to  $OD_{600} \sim 0.8$ , diluted (1-10<sup>-3</sup>), spotted

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(3 μl) onto solid SCD-Ura medium, and incubated at the indicated temperature for 2 and 8 days, respectively. In all cases, representative experiments are shown.

**Fig. 4.** Inappropriate cold-instigated P-body formation and Gen2 activity cause cold sensitivity. A) P-bodies formation was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy of the marker protein Dcp2 tagged with green fluorescent protein (GFP), in *TRP1* and *trp1* yeast cells of the BY4741 wild-type (wt) strain exposed to low temperature. Cells were transformed with plasmid pRP1175 (Dcp2-GFP; Coller and Parker, 2005), cultured at 30°C and then transferred to 15°C for the indicated times. Aliquots of the cultures were withdrawn, and cells were visualized as described in the Materials and methods section. B) *pat1, pop2 and ccr4* mutant cells of the wild-type (wt) BY4741 strain were pregrown, spotted as mentioned in Fig. 3, and incubated at the indicated temperatures. C) *TRP1* and *trp1* derivatives of the BY4741 wild-type (wt) and *gcn2* mutant strains were examined for growth in SCD at 30 and 15°C, as mentioned in Fig. 3. In all cases, representative experiments are shown.

Fig. 5. The activity of different Gcn2 effectors influence cold-growth and  $eIF2\alpha$  phosphorylation. A) Schematic representation and functional role of some regulators of the GAAC pathway in S. cerevisiae. When amino acid availability is low, the protein kinase Gcn2 phosphorylates the  $\alpha$  subunit of the eukaryotic initiation factor-2 (eIF2 $\alpha$ ), a modification that blocks the translation initiation (Hinnebusch, 2014). The protein kinase Snf1 regulates the phosphorylation state of eIF2 $\alpha$  by stimulating the Gcn2 activity and inhibiting two eIF2α-phosphatases, Sit4 and Glc7 (Cherkasova et al., 2010). In addition the yeast TORC1 complex contributes to the fine-tuning of translation initiation by regulating the phosphorylating state of 43S preinitiation complex factors (Richter and Sonenberg, 2005; Hoyle et al., 2007). Available evidence from our study also indicates that the Hog1 MAPK participates in the regulation of Gcn2 activity and translation initiation. The red dot indicates a phosphate group. Positive effects are indicated by arrows, while inhibitory effects are denoted as T-bars. B) sit4 and snf1 mutant cells of the BY4741 strain were tested for growth at 30 and 12°C. Overnight SCD-grown cultures were adjusted and spotted onto solid SCD medium as mentioned in Fig. 3. C) Cell cultures of the wild-type KT1357 strain (*trp1*, GLC7) and its corresponding mutant BV451, which contains an integrated copy of the

mutant allele *glc7-127* at the *GLC7* locus, were subjected to cold shock at 15°C for the indicated times, and total protein lysates were analyzed by Western blotting for phospho-Snf1 (P-Snf1) and total Snf1 as loading control. Blots were also probed with an antibody specific for phospho-eIF2 $\alpha$  (P-eIF2 $\alpha$ ) and glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6Pdh) as described in Fig. 1B. D) The same strains as in panel C were tested for growth at 30 and 15°C. Cells were grown, diluted and spotted as described in Fig. 3. In all cases, representative experiments are shown.

**Fig. 6.** Hog1 plays a functional role in the translation initial inhibition in response to a downshift in temperature. A) Protein extracts from whole cells of wild-type (wt; *TRP1*) and *hog1* mutant strains of the BY4741 yeast background were separated by SDS-PAGE and blots were probed with phospho-eIF2 $\alpha$  (P-eIF2 $\alpha$ ) and glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6Pdh) antibodies as described in Fig. 1B. The graph shows the relative values of P-eIF2 $\alpha$  corrected with respect to that of G6Pdh, as described in Fig. 1B. B) Wild-type (wt), *hog1*, *gcn2* and *gcn2 hog1* mutant strains of the BY4741 yeast background were analyzed for growth in SCD liquid medium at 12°C. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean values of three independent experiments.

Fig. 7. Cold sensitivity is linked to overactivity of Gcn4 and energy stress. A) Overnight SCD-grown cultures of TRP1 and trp1 derivatives of the wild-type (wt) BY4741 strain were refreshed in the same medium at 30°C and after 3 h, a portion of the culture was transferred to 12°C. ATP levels were measured at different times during growth using a recombinant firefly luciferase-based kit as described in the Materials and Methods section. Values are expressed as nmol of ATP per unit of OD<sub>600</sub> and represent the mean (±SD) of triplicate assays. ATP kinetics for each strain was repeated at least two times. B) The same strains were examined for growth in SCD lacking or containing 2deoxyglucose (2-DOG) or Na<sup>+</sup>-arsenate. Overnight SCD-grown cultures were adjusted and spotted as mentioned in Fig. 3. C) The mentioned strains were tested for the transcriptional activity of the GAAC pathway reporter Gcn4::lacZ. SCD-grown cells at 30°C were cold-shocked at 12°C for 3 h and processed for β-galactosidase activity. The values for the cold-shocked samples were divided by those of the 30°C-samples and represented as the relative fold change. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean values of three independent experiments. Statistical significance was determined by using the two-tailed Student's t-test. (\*) were significantly different with

a p < 0.05. D) Wild-type (wt) and *eap1* mutant strains of the BY4741 yeast background were examined for growth at low temperature. E) BY4741 yeast cells harboring plasmids YCp50 (Control; *URA3*), p164 (*GCN4*) and p235 (uORF1-*GCN4*) were spotted on SCD-Ura plates and incubated at the indicated temperatures. Cells were pregrown and spotted as mentioned in Fig. 3. A representative experiment is shown.

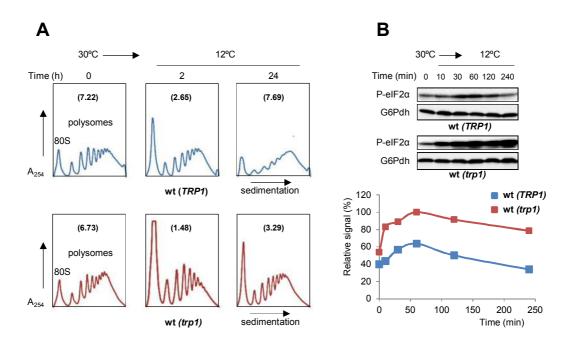


Figure 1

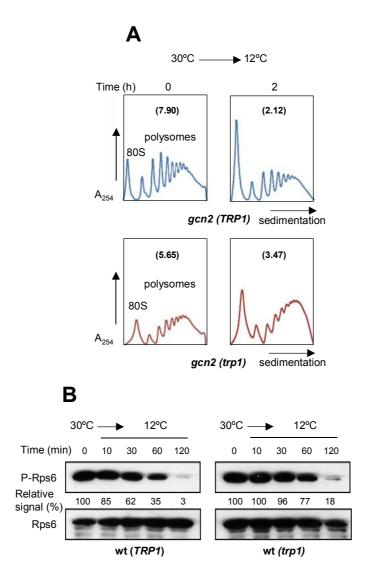


Figure 2

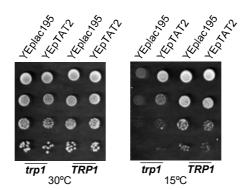
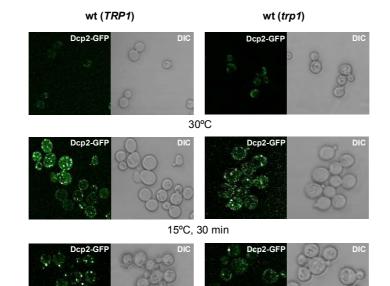


Figure 3



Α

15⁰C, 24 h

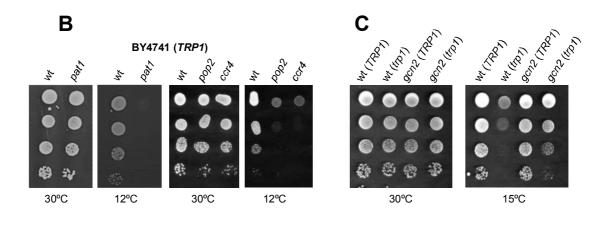
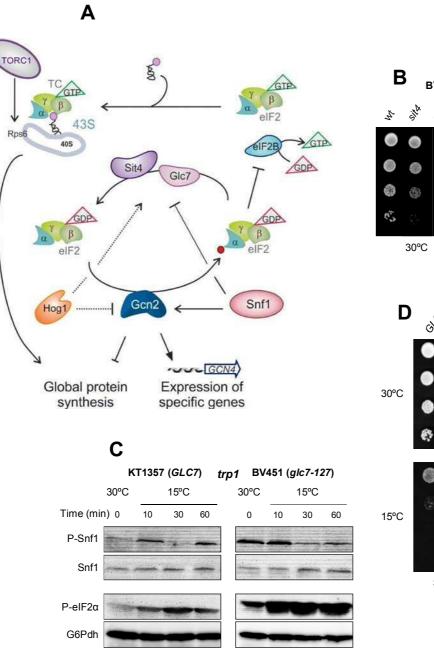
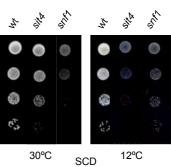


Figure 4

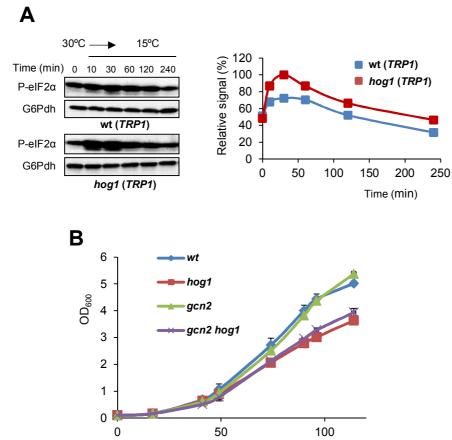


BY4741 (*TRP1*)



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Figure 5



Time (h)

Figure 6

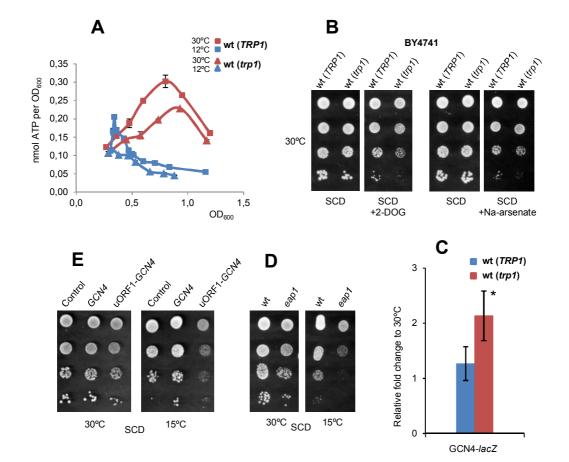


Figure 7

## **Supplementary material**

# Inappropriate translation inhibition and P-body formation

# causes cold-sensitivity in tryptophan-auxotroph yeast mutants

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Fig. S3. Lack of Hog1 causes cold-sensitivity independently of Gcn2.

Strain	Relevant genotype/phenotype	Source or reference
BY4741	$MATa\ his 3\Delta 1\ leu 2\Delta 0\ met 15\Delta 0\ ura 3\Delta 0$	EUROSCARF
BY4741 Tat1-myc	BY4741, TAT1-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 Tat2-myc	BY4741, TAT2-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 Gap1-myc	BY4741, GAP1-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 $trp1\Delta$	BY4741, <i>trp1</i> Δ:: <i>kanMX4</i>	EUROSCARF
BY4741 <i>trp1</i> ∆ Tat1-myc	BY4741, trp1A::kanMX4 TAT1-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 <i>trp1</i> ∆ Tat2-myc	BY4741, trp1 \chi:kanMX4 TAT2-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 <i>trp1</i> ∆ Gap1-myc	BY4741, trp1A::kanMX4 GAP1-13myc::HIS3MX6	This study
BY4741 gcn2Δ	BY4741, $gcn2\Delta$ :: $kanMX4$	EUROSCARF
BY4741 gcn2 $\Delta$ trp1 $\Delta$	BY4741, $gcn2\Delta$ :: $kanMX4$ trp1:: $natMX4$	This study
BY4741 gcn2 $\Delta$ hog1 $\Delta$	BY4741, $gcn2\Delta$ :: $kanMX4 hog1\Delta$ :: $natMX4$	This study
BY4741 <i>sit4</i> Δ	BY4741, sit4 $\Delta$ ::kanMX4	EUROSCARF
BY4741 snfl $\Delta$	BY4741, $snfl\Delta$ :: $kanMX4$	EUROSCARF
BY4741 $pat1\Delta$	BY4741, <i>pat1</i> ∆:: <i>kanMX4</i>	EUROSCARF
BY4741 $hogl\Delta$	BY4741, $hog1\Delta$ :: $kanMX4$	EUROSCARF
KT1357	$MATa ura3\Delta0 leu2\Delta0 his3\Delta1 trp1$	Frederick and Tatchell (1996)
BV451	MATa glc7-127 ura $3\Delta 0$ leu $2\Delta 0$ his $3\Delta 1$ trp1	Venturi et al. (2000)
RLK88-3C	MATa his4-260 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 ade2-1 trp1-HIII lys2 $\Delta BX$ can1 <sup>R</sup>	Lin and Keil (1991)
P1835	RLK88-3C, gcn1A::loxP-kanMX-loxP	Palmer et al. (2005)
P1837	RLK88-3C, $gcn2\Delta::loxP-kanMX-loxP$	Palmer et al. (2005)
P1023	RLK88-3C , $gcn3\Delta::loxP-kanMX-loxP$	Palmer et al. (2005)
P1026	RLK88-3C , $gcn4\Delta::loxP-kanMX-loxP$	Palmer et al. (2005)
P2289	RLK88-3C, gcn20A::URA3	Palmer et al. (2005)

Table S1. S. cerevisiae strains used in this study

Name	Sequence	Used for
TRP1-K1	ATGTCTGTTATTAATTTCACAGGTAGTTCTGGTCCATTGG CGTACGCTGCAGGTCGAC	Deletion TRP1
TRP1-K2	AACAAGGGAATAAACGAATGAGGTTTCTGTGAAGCTGCA ATCGATGAATTCGAGCTCG	Deletion TRP1
TRP1-V1	ACACCTCCGCTTACATCAAC	Verification deletion TRP1
KAN-S2	GTCAAGGAGGGTATTCTGG	Verification deletions
HOG1-K1	AAGGGAAAACAGGGAAAACTACAACTATCGTATATAATA CGTACGCTGCAGGTCGAC	Deletion HOG1
HOG1-K2	AAGTAAGAATGAGTGGTTAGGGACATTAAAAAAACACGT TTAATCGATGAATTCGAGCTCG	Deletion HOG1
HOG1-V1	GCTTCAACTGTTCTATTTTCTG	Verification deletion <i>HOG1</i>
TAT1-tag F2	TTCAAGAAAGTTTTTTAAGAGGATGACCAATTTCTGGTGC CGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA	C-terminal tagging <i>TAT1</i>
TAT1-tag R1	AAGCCCGATGAAGCCAAGCGGAAAATGAATGGAATTGCT GGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC	C-terminal tagging <i>TAT1</i>
TAT1-tag V1	AAGTTGACGATAACGATG	Verification tagging TAT1
TAT2-tag F2	TTCCCGTCCATGGTACGTGAGACAGTTCCATTTCTGGTGT CGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA	C-terminal tagging <i>TAT2</i>
TAT2-tag R1	AAATATTCTACAAAAATAAATTGAACTTGTTTCTTCGGTA GAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC	C-terminal tagging <i>TAT2</i>
TAT2-tagV1	GTCAAGCAAGAAATTGCC	Verification tagging TAT2
GAP1-tag F2	CACAAAGCCAAGATGGTATAGAATCTGGAATTTCTGGTG TCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA	C-terminal tagging GAP1
GAP1-tag R1	ATCTAAAAAATAAAGTCTTTTTTTGTCGTTGTTCGATTCA GAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC	C-terminal tagging GAP1
GAP1-tag V1	TACGGGTAGAAGAGAAGTCG	Verification tagging <i>GAP1</i>

# Table S2. Oligonucleotides used in this study

Table S3	. Plasmids	used in	this study
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Plasmid	Description	Source or reference
YCp50	E. coli – S. cerevisiae shuttle vector (CEN4, URA3)	Bonneaud et al. (1991)
p164	Centromeric plasmid expressing GCN4. URA3 marker.	Grant et al. (1994)
p235	Centromeric plasmid expressing <i>GCN4</i> with uORF1. <i>URA3</i> marker.	Grant et al. (1994)
p180	Plasmid containing GCN4 promoter and translation regulatory sequences fused to the <i>E. coli lacZ</i> gene.	Mueller and Hinnebusch (1986)
YEp195	<i>E.</i> $coli - S.$ <i>cerevisiae</i> shuttle vector (2µm, URA3)	Bonneaud et al. (1991)
pTAT2e	2.6-kb fragment containing <i>TAT2</i> promoter- <i>TAT2</i> in YEplac195	Abe and Horikoshi (2000)
pFA6a-13Myc-His3MX6	pFA6a-His3MX6-derived plasmid containing sequences encoding 13 tandem repeats of the Myc epitope	Longtine et al. (1998)
pAG25	pFA-yeast plasmid containing the <i>nat<sup>r</sup></i> gene, which provide resistance to the drug nourseothricin. natMX4 cassette template	Goldstein and McCusker (1999)
pDCP2-GFP	Centromeric plasmid for P-body marker. <i>URA3</i> marker. (pRP1175)	Coller and Parker (2005)

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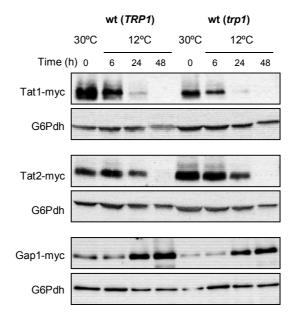
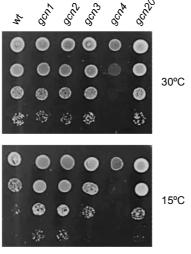
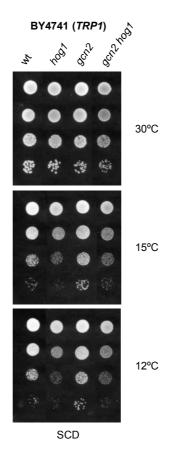


Fig. S1. Tryptophan permeases turnover after a downshift in temperature. Tat1-, Tat2- and Gap1-myc tagged cells of the *TRP1* and *trp1* BY4741 wild-type strain grown in SCD-medium ( $OD_{600} \sim 0.5$ ) were transferred from 30 to 12°C, aliquots were withdrawn at the indicated times, and proteins were processed for regular SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with monoclonal antibody against human c-Myc. The level of glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6Pdh) was used as loading control.



RLK88-3C (trp1)

Fig. S2. Mutation of components of the Gcn2 regulatory circuit affects cold growth. Cells of the *trp1* RLK88-3C wild-type (wt) strain and its corresponding derivatives lacking Gcn1 (*gcn1*), Gcn2 (*gcn2*), Gcn3 (*gcn3*), Gcn4 (*gcn4*) or Gcn20 (*gcn20*) were examined for growth at 30 and 15°C. Exponentially growing cultures were adjusted to OD600 ~ 0.8, diluted (1-10<sup>-3</sup>), spotted (3  $\mu$ l) onto solid SCD medium, and incubated at the indicated temperature for 2 and 8 days, respectively. A representative experiment is shown.



**Fig. S3. Lack of Hog1 causes cold-sensitivity independently of Gcn2.** Cells of the BY4741 wild-type (wt), *hog1*, *gcn2* and *gcn2 hog1* mutant strains were examined for growth onto solid SCD medium as described in Fig. S2, and incubated at the indicated temperature for 2 (30°C), 8 (15°C) or 12 (12°C) days, respectively. A representative experiment is shown.