# Disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway reveals a hierarchy of selenoprotein gene expression in the archaeon *Methanococcus maripaludis*

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**Summary** 

Proteins containing selenocysteine are found in members of all three domains of life, Bacteria, Eukarya and Archaea. A dedicated tRNA (tRNAsec) serves as a scaffold for selenocysteine synthesis. However, sequence and secondary structures differ in tRNAsec from the different domains. An Escherichia coli strain lacking the gene for tRNAsec could only be complemented with the homologue from Methanococcus maripaludis when a single base in the anticodon loop was exchanged demonstrating that this base is a crucial determinant for archaeal tRNAsec to function in E. coli. Complementation in trans of M. maripaludis JJ mutants lacking tRNAsec, O-phosphoseryl-tRNAsec kinase or O-phosphoseryl-tRNAsec:selenocysteine synthase with the corresponding genes from M. maripaludis S2 restored the mutant's ability to synthesize selenoproteins. However, only partial restoration of the wild-type selenoproteome was observed as only selenocysteine-containing formate dehydrogenase was synthesized. Quantification of transcripts showed that disrupting the pathway of selenocysteine synthesis leads to downregulation of selenoprotein gene expression, concomitant with upregulation of a selenium-independent backup system, which is not re-adjusted upon complementation. This transcriptional arrest was independent of selenophosphate but depended on the 'history' of the mutants and was

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inheritable, which suggests that a stable genetic switch may cause the resulting hierarchy of selenoproteins synthesized.

#### Introduction

Proteins containing the 21st proteinogenic amino acid selenocysteine are present in members of all three domains of life, Bacteria, Eukarya and Archaea. It is one of the few amino acids synthesized in a tRNA-dependent fashion. The selenocysteine-specific tRNA, tRNAsec, is the largest known tRNA and the major identity determinant for selenocysteine biosynthesis and insertion appears to be the 13-bp-long extended acceptor arm (Commans and Böck, 1999). Initially, tRNAsec is acylated with serine by seryl-tRNA synthetase before seryl-tRNA sec is converted to selenocysteinyl-tRNAsec. This conversion is catalysed in a single step by selenocysteine synthase in bacteria (Forchhammer and Böck, 1991), while eukaryotes and archaea employ a two-step mechanism. Both in vitro and in vivo analyses demonstrated that phosphoseryl-tRNAsec kinase (PSTK) phosphorylates seryl-tRNAsec to Ophosphoseryl-tRNAsec, before phosphoseryl-tRNAsec: selenocysteine synthase (SepSecS, also called SecS) converts this unusual intermediate into selenocysteinyl-tRNAsec (Carlson et al., 2004; Kaiser et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2007; Aeby et al., 2009; Hohn et al., 2011). Despite the occurrence of a phosphorylated aminoacyl-intermediate genetic analysis further demonstrated that selenophosphate is the *in vivo* selenium donor during selenocysteine synthesis in archaea (Stock et al., 2010). Interestingly, the enzyme generating selenophosphate from ATP and a reduced selenium species, selenophosphate synthetase (SPS), is a selenoprotein itself in eukaryotes and in archaea (Guimaraes et al., 1996; Stock et al., 2010).

Translation of selenocysteine involves recoding of UGA, normally a termination codon, and is brought about by a dedicated translation factor (SelB in prokaryotes, eSelB or eEFsec in eukaryotes), which transfers selenocysteinyl-tRNAsec to the ribosome, and by a secondary structure on the selenoprotein mRNA, the SECIS (selenocysteine insertion sequence) element, which in bacteria

is located directly adjacent to the UGA (Heider et al., 1992), while in eukaryotes and archaea it is found in the nontranslated region (Berry et al., 1991; Rother et al., 2001).

Within the Archaea, only Methanococcus, Methanocaldococcus and Methanopyrus species were found to synthesize selenoproteins. These strictly anaerobic organisms grow by reducing CO<sub>2</sub> (with H<sub>2</sub> as the electron donor) or formate to methane, which is coupled to conservation of energy via a chemiosmotic mechanism (Thauer et al., 2008), Interestingly, eight of the 10 selenoproteins deduced from the genome sequence of Methanococcus maripaludis S2 (Hendrickson et al., 2004). namely two isoforms of subunits of formate dehydrogenase (FdhA1 and FdhA2), two isoforms of subunits of formyl-methanofuran dehydrogenase (FmdB and FwuB), a subunit of heterodisulphide reductase (HdrA), as well as of F<sub>420</sub>-dependent (FruA) and F<sub>420</sub>-independent hydrogenase (VhuD and VhuU), are directly involved in this essential energy conserving pathway. The genome also encodes distinct isoforms containing cysteine at the respective position of selenocysteine of all the selenoproteins involved in methanogenesis, except of formate dehydrogenase (Hendrickson et al., 2004). The consequential prediction that the organism's selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway is dispensable during growth with  $H_2 + CO_2$  turned out to be true only if the stringent selenium-dependent (and probably also H<sub>2</sub>-dependent) regulation of expression of the cysteine-encoding isogenes had been relieved (Hohn et al., 2011). A closely related strain to M. maripaludis S2, M. maripaludis JJ (Jones et al., 1983), for which no genome sequence is available, does apparently not require such measures as the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway of this organism could be readily disrupted resulting in strains no longer synthesizing selenoproteins and no longer growing with formate as the sole energy source (Rother et al., 2003; Stock et al., 2010).

As bacterial and archaeal tRNAsec share most identity determinants for selenocysteine biosynthesis and insertion we addressed the functionality of archaeal tRNAsec in Escherichia coli by complementation analysis. The archaeal homologue did not support selenoprotein synthesis in E. coli unless a base in the anticodon loop was altered. Subsequent complementation of a M. maripaludis JJ mutant lacking tRNAsec showed that in this organism the respective base of tRNAsec is not crucial for function. Surprisingly, we also found that complementing mutants whose selenocysteine synthesis pathway had been previously disrupted no longer synthesized all of their selenoproteins, but only selenium-dependent formate dehydrogenase. Quantification of transcripts for selenoproteins and for their cysteine-containing isoforms suggests that this hierarchy of selenoproteins synthesized is caused by arrest of expression of the selenoprotein genes and of the cysteine-encoding isogenes in the mutant situation even though the ability to synthesize selenocysteine was restored. As this phenomenon depended on the strain's history and was inheritable a potential genetic switch established by a self-enforcing feedback loop is discussed.

#### Results

A G37-A variant of archaeal tRNAsec is functional in E. coli

It has been previously shown that a fraction of heterologously expressed tRNAsec of Methanocaldococcus jannaschii can be aminoacylated with selenocysteine in vitro when purified factors from E. coli were used in excess (Rother et al., 2000). To address heterologous as well as homologous functionality of archaeal tRNAsec in vivo, M. maripaludis strain JJ was used as model organism, because of its mesophilic lifestyle, the genetic methodology developed for this organism, and the fact that its selenoprotein synthesis machinery is not required when growing with H<sub>2</sub> + CO<sub>2</sub> (Rother et al., 2003; Stock et al., 2010). As no genome sequence is available for this strain the gene encoding tRNA<sup>sec</sup>, henceforth designated selC in accordance with bacterial nomenclature (Leinfelder et al., 1988), was sequenced after its amplification by PCR and found to be identical to that of M. maripaludis strain S2 (Fig. 1) for which a genome sequence is available (Hendrickson et al., 2004). To test whether this tRNAsec is also a substrate for the E. coli selenoprotein synthesis machinery in vivo, the E. coli strain WL81460 (Table 1), which lacks tRNAsec, was transformed with a plasmid containing the tRNAsec gene from M. maripaludis, or with a plasmid encoding a variant in which the guanine at position 37 (numbering according to Sprinzl et al., 1989) had been changed to adenine. Transformants were tested qualitatively for their ability to anaerobically produce gas from glucose (see Experimental procedures) which is an indirect assessment of their ability to synthesize selenoproteins: the selenoprotein formate dehydrogenase H is part of the formate:hydrogen lyase complex catalysing formation of H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> from formate produced during mixed acid fermentation (Gest, 1954). Thus, glucose-dependent gas production is indicative of a functional system for selenoprotein synthesis. As previously shown, the parental strain of WL81460, FM433, produced substantial amounts of gas from glucose and the selC mutant WL81460 did not (Fig. 2, vials 1 and 2). While the M. maripaludis tRNAsec did not lead to gas formation (Fig. 2, vial 3) the tRNAsec G37-A variant was able to complement the phenotype of the selC lesion of E. coli (Fig. 2, vial 4), which shows that this base is crucial for tRNAsec function in E. coli.

M. maripaludis

Fig. 1. Secondary cloverleaf structures of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> from *E. coli* (A) and *M. maripaludis* (B); *E. coli* tRNA<sup>sec</sup> adopts a 8/5 conformation in the 13-base-pair aminoacyl/T-stem helix (Baron *et al.*, 1993) while a 9/4 conformation is proposed for tRNA<sup>sec</sup> of *M. maripaludis*; bases at position 37 are circled; filled circles indicate non-Watson-Crick base pairing.

*tRNA*<sup>sec</sup> is required for selenoprotein synthesis in M. maripaludis

E. coli

As no known tRNAsec from archaea contains an adenine at position 37 we wanted to see if the G37→A variant of M. maripaludis tRNA sec is still functional in its natural host. To address this question, a mutant strain, JSC8, was constructed which carries the tRNAsec gene disrupted by the pacN cassette (see Experimental procedures). Genotypic verification via Southern hybridization showed that the tRNAsec encoding locus was altered in the mutant and that it carried a single chromosomal insertion of the pacN cassette (Fig. S1). Since JSC8 lacked only a 54 bp portion of the tRNAsec gene, which is difficult to detect via Southern hybridization, absence of the gene product rather than absence of the encoding gene was addressed. To this end, crude tRNA was prepared from the wild type and JSC8, and subjected to Northern blot analysis using a digoxigenin labelled oligonucleotide complementary to the first 32 bases of tRNAsec as the probe (see Experimental procedures). While M. maripaludis JJ contains a tRNA hybridizing with the probe (Fig. 3, lane 1) JSC8 contains no tRNAsec transcript (Fig. 3, lane 2), which, together with the Southern analyses, confirms that this strain is a tRNAsec mutant. JSC8 was unable to synthesize any selenoproteins, as evidenced by in vivo labelling of the strain with [75Se]-selenite (Fig. 4A and B, lanes 2), which demonstrates that tRNAsec is essential for selenoprotein synthesis in M. maripaludis. As expected from the phenotypic analysis of other M. maripaludis mutants lacking trans-active factors involved in selenoprotein synthesis (Rother et al., 2003; Stock et al., 2010), JSC8 was unable to grow with formate as the sole energy source due to the dependence of formate dehydrogenase of this organism on selenium (Fig. S4).

Restoring the path of selenoprotein synthesis only partially restores the selenoprotein pattern

Next, JSC8 was transformed with self-replicating plasmids containing either the *M. maripaludis* wild-type tRNAsec gene (pWLJCwt) or that of the G37→A variant (pWLJCg37a). Both strains specifically incorporated radioactive selenium into a protein of c. 72 kDa (Fig. 4A, lanes 4 and 5; Fig. 4B, lane 3), which strongly suggests that the pathway of selenoprotein synthesis in these strains was restored. The molecular mass of the labelled selenoprotein corresponds to that deduced for FdhA1 and FdhA2 (MMP1298 and MMP138 in strain S2), the large subunit of formate dehydrogenase isoforms. The conclusion that the labelled selenoprotein is indeed FdhA is further supported by the ability of both strains to again grow with formate at a rate and to a final optical density very similar to that of the wild type (Fig. S4). Occurrence of selenocysteine-containing FdhA was irrespective of whether the wild-type tRNAsec or its G37→A variant was expressed in JSC8 (lanes 4 and 5, Fig. 4A), which strongly suggests that both forms of tRNAsec are equally functional in M. maripaludis. The empty vector did not restore the capacity of JSC8 to synthesize selenoproteins (Fig. 4A, lane 3).

Very much to our surprise, only selenium-containing FdhA but none of the other selenoproteins apparent in the wild type were synthesized after complementing JSC8 with its own tRNA<sup>sec</sup> (or a variant of it). Northern analysis in complemented JSC8 cells showed significant increase of the level of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> transcripts as compared with the wild type (compare lanes 4 and 5 with lane 1, Fig. 3), possibly due to the increased copy number of the gene provided in *trans*, or due to lack of *cis*-acting regulatory elements on the plasmid constructs. Such increased abundance of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> could possibly lead to experimental

Table 1. Plasmids and strains used in this study.<sup>a</sup>

Plasmids/strains	Relevant genotype/description/construction <sup>b</sup>	Reference
Plasmids pUC19	Cloning vector, plac promoter	Yanisch-Perron et al.
p19JJC	BamHI/HindIII PCR (primers B13.MM-T7-selC and oMjcT7-2) fragment encoding	(1985) This study
p19JJCGA	M. maripaludis selC cloned into pUC19 p19JJC, product of inverse PCR (primers B33-MmselC and B32-MmselCG37-A) to	This study
pNPAC	generate G37→A variant of <i>M. maripaludis selC</i> Contains <i>pacN</i> cassette ( <i>pac</i> gene from <i>Streptomyces alboniger</i> codon optimized for <i>M. voltae</i> )	Sun and Klein (2004)
pIJA03+neo	Contains neo cassette	Lie et al. (2007)
pCRPrtneo	Plasmid to create markerless deletions in <i>M. maripaludis</i>	Moore and Leigh (2005)
pdownSC	Nhel/BamHI PCR fragment (primers odownSC/5' and odownSC/3') of downstream selC cloned into pNPAC	This study
pKoSC	Spel/Mlul PCR fragment (primers oupSC/5' and oupSC/3') of upstream selC cloned into pdownSC	This study
pMSec1	HindIII/AscI PCR fragment (primers oMP1490up/5' and oMP1490up/3') of upstream pstK and BamHI/AscI PCR fragment (primers oMP1490down/5' and oMP1490down/3') of downstream pstK cloned into pCRPrtneo	This study
pMSec2	Kpnl/Ascl PCR fragment (primers oMP0595up/5' and oMP0595up/3') of upstream spcS and BamHl/Ascl PCR fragment (primers oMP0595down/5' and oMP0595down/5' and oMP0595down/3') of downstream spcS cloned into pCRPrtneo	This study
pupKoSec1	Stul/Ascl fragment of pMSec1 blunted and ligated into Nrul cut pNPAC	This study
pKoSec1	Ascl/BamHI fragment of pMSec1 blunted and ligated into HincII cut pupKoSec1; for disruption of pstK	This study
pupKoSec2	Kpnl/Ascl fragment of pMSec2 blunted and ligated into Nrul cut pNPAC	This study
pKoSec2	Ascl/BamHI fragment of pMSec2 blunted and ligated into HincII cut pupKoSec1; for disruption of spcS	This study
pNMmselCWT	M. maripaludis selC (including 5' and 3' regions) cloned via assembly of osecsynt1-6 and ligation into Spel/BgIII-restricted pNPAC	This study
pNMmselCG37A	Like pNMmselCWT, only osecsynt2 and osecsynt5 replaced with MmselcG37A+ and MmselcG37A-	This study
pNpacpstK	Ndel/BgIII PCR (primers oMmPSTK-For and oMmPSTK-rev) fragment encoding M. maripaludis S2 pstK cloned into pNPAC	This study
pNpacspcS	Ndel/BgIII PCR (primers oMmSepSecS-For and oMmSepSecS-Rev) fragment encoding <i>M. maripaludis</i> S2 <i>pstK</i> cloned into pNPAC	This study
pWLG40NZ-R	Contains <i>neo</i> cassette; self-replicating in <i>M. maripaludis</i>	Lie and Leigh (2003)
pWLJCwt	Contains M. maripaludis selC; Spel/BglII fragment of pNMmselCWT cloned into pWLG40NZ-R	This study
pWLJCg37a	Encodes G37→A variant of <i>M. maripaludis selC</i> ; Spel/BglII fragment of pNMmselCG37A cloned into pWLG40NZ-R	This study
pWLmmpstK	Psl-pstK fusion of pNpacpstK cloned via Spel/Bglll into pWLG40NZ-R Psl-spcS fusion of pNpacspcS cloned via Spel/Bglll into pWLG40NZ-R	This study
pWLmmspcS pTSpstK	Spel/Bglll psl-pstK fragment of pNpacpstK cloned into Xbal/Bglll-restricted plJA03+neo	This study This study
pTSpstK-selD	AfIII/BamHI PCR (primers oRBSselDfor and oselD-Rev) fragment encoding <i>E. coli</i> selD and ribosome binding site from psl cloned into pTSpstK	This study
pWLpstK-seID	Xhol/BamHI fragment of pTSpstK-selD cloned into Xhol/BglII-restricted pWLG40NZ-R	This study
pTS0904 Strains	For disruption of sps in M. maripaludis	Stock et al. (2010)
E. coli		
DH10B	General cloning	Invitrogen
FM433	rpsL <sup>+</sup> rpsE13 Δ(srl-recA)306::Tn10	Zinoni <i>et al</i> . (1990)
WL81460	FM433, ∆( <i>selC</i> )400:: <i>Kan</i>	Zinoni <i>et al.</i> (1990)
M. maripaludis	AAMILLA AA AA AA AA	
JJ	Wild type; type strain	Jones <i>et al.</i> (1983)
S2	Wild type	Whitman et al. (1986)
JSC8 JJ/pWLJCwt/KOC	JJ, $\triangle selC::pacN$ (pKoSC) Isogenic to JSC8 carrying pWLJCwt, only constructed in different order	This study
JA1	JJ, Δ <i>pstK::pacN</i> (pKoSec1)	This study This study
JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK	Isogenic to JA1 carrying pWLmmpstK, only constructed in different order	This study This study
JA2	JJ, Δ <i>spcS::pacN</i> (pKoSec2)	This study
JJ/pWLmmspcS/KOS	Isogenic to JA2 carrying pWLmmspcS, only constructed in different order	This study
TS1	JJ, Δ <i>sps::pacN</i> (pTS0904)	Stock et al. (2010)
JJ/pWLpstK-seID/KOK	Isogenic to JA1 carrying pWLpstK-seID, only constructed in different order	This study

a. Primers used are listed in Table S1.

b. DNA sequences and maps of all plasmids are available upon request.

Fig. 2. Anaerobic gas production from glucose. *E. coli* strains (Table 1) were cultivated as described in *Experimental procedures* and gas accumulation in the Durham vials was qualitatively scored after 4 days. vial 1, FM433; vial 2, WL81460; vial 3, WL81460/pUC19JJC; vial 4, WL81460/pUC19JJCGA.

artefacts; in *E. coli*, the *in vivo* stoichiometry of SelB, tRNA<sup>sec</sup> and SECIS is known to have a profound influence on the efficiency of co-translational selenocysteine insertion (Tormay *et al.*, 1996). Still, other possibilities such as differences between the mechanism of selenocysteine translation for the *fdhA* transcript and the other selenoprotein mRNAs, or differentially regulated selenoprotein gene expression, could also cause the observed phenomenon.

To address this question, a strain isogenic to JSC8 complemented with pWLJCwt, only constructed in a different order of the genetic manipulations, was generated: *M. maripaludis* JJ was initially transformed with pWLJCwt, and subsequently the chromosomal copy of *selC* was disrupted. The resulting strain, JJ/pWLJCwt/KOC, which is

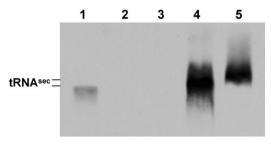
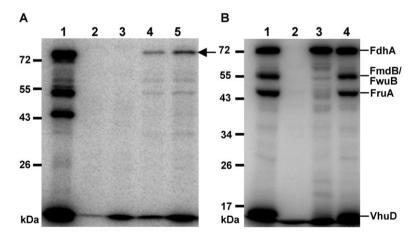


Fig. 3. Abundance of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> in strains of *M. maripaludis*. For detection of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> in crude tRNA preparations (see *Experimental procedures*) a DIG-labelled oligonucleotide complementary to the first 32 bases of *M. maripaludis* tRNA<sup>sec</sup> was used as the probe; the migration position of tRNA<sup>sec</sup> is indicated on the left; lane 1, *M. maripaludis* JJ; lane 2, JSC8; lane 3, JSC8 transformed with pWLG40NZ-R (vector control); lane 4, JSC8 transformed with pWLJCg37a (G37—A variant of tRNA<sup>sec</sup>).

genetically identical to JSC8 complemented with pWLJCwt (with respect to intended genetic alterations), synthesized selenoproteins like the wild type (Fig. 4B, lane 4). These data rule out experimental artefacts caused by the constructs used for the genetic manipulations, but instead show that the inability of *M. maripaludis* JSC8 complemented with pWLJCwt to synthesize most of its selenoprotein is a consequence of disrupting its pathway of selenocysteine synthesis. The pattern of selenoproteins did not change after six consecutive transfers (c. 25 generations) of the culture in to fresh medium containing various amounts of selenium (0.1–10  $\mu$ M) prior to radioactive labelling (data not shown). Thus, the effect leading to only selenocysteine-containing FdhA being synthesized by



**Fig. 4.** tRNA<sup>sec</sup>-dependent selenoprotein synthesis in *M. maripaludis*. Autoradiographs of sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gels (SDS-PAGs) (Laemmli, 1970) after electrophoresis of <sup>75</sup>Se-labelled cell lysates, which had been treated with RNase A to remove selenium-containing RNA; the arrow depicts the migration position of selenocysteine-containing FdhA; the identity of the other main selenoproteins, according to Rother *et al.* (2001), is shown on the right; migration positions of standard proteins (in kDa) are indicated on the left. A. Incorporation of <sup>75</sup>Se into proteins of *M. maripaludis* JJ (lane 1), JSC8 (lane 2), JSC8 transformed with pWLJCwt (lane 4), JSC8 transformed with pWLJCg37a (lane 5); lysates were separated on a 10% SDS-PAG. B. Order of genetic manipulation affects synthesis of <sup>75</sup>Se-labelled proteins in *M. maripaludis*. Lanes 1 and 2, same as (A); lane 3, JSC8 transformed with pWLJCwt; lane 4, JJ/pWLJCwt/KOC (see Table 1); lysates were separated on a 12.5% SDS-PAG.

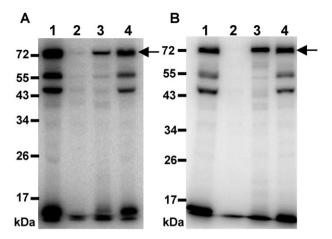


Fig. 5. PSTK, SepSecS and synthesis of selenoproteins in M. maripaludis. Autoradiographs of 12.5% SDS-PAGs after electrophoresis of 75Se-labelled cell lysates, which had been treated with RNase A to remove selenium-containing RNA; the arrows depict the migration position of selenocysteine-containing FdhA; for the likely identity of other selenoproteins, see Fig. 4; migration positions of standard proteins (in kDa) are indicated on the left. A. Lane 1, M. maripaludis JJ; lane 2, JA1; lane 3, JA1 transformed with pWLmmpstK; lane 4, JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK (see Table 1). B. Lane 1: M. maripaludis JJ; lane 2, JA2; lane 3, JA2 transformed with pWLmmspcS; lane 4, JJ/pWLmmspcS/KOS (see Table 1).

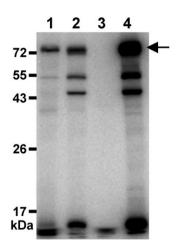
JSC8 complemented with pWLJCwt is stable, i.e. inheritable, and independent of the selenium supply.

To test if this hierarchy in selenoprotein synthesis, with selenium-dependent FdhA being the only selenoprotein synthesized, after disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway, is a phenomenon only attributed to tRNAsec, analogous deletion/ complementation analyses were conducted with pstK (encoding PSTK, O-phosphoseryl-tRNAsec kinase) and spcS (encoding SepSecS, O-phosphoseryl-tRNAsec: selenocysteine synthase). Mutants carrying deletions in each of the two genes, respectively, were created (see Experimental procedures), and their genotype was verified by Southern hybridization (Figs S2 and S3). Like JSC8, M. maripaludis strains JA1 (pstK disrupted) and JA2 (spcS disrupted) were unable to synthesize selenoproteins (Fig. 5A and B, lanes 2), which shows that in M. maripaludis JJ, like in the M. maripaludis S2 derivative Mm900 (Hohn et al., 2011), PSTK and SepSecS are strictly required for selenoprotein synthesis. After transformation of each of the mutants with a plasmid containing the corresponding gene previously disrupted on the chromosome, each complemented strain synthesized of its selenoproteins again only selenocysteine-containing FdhA above background level (Fig. 5A and B, lanes 3). Consistent with the pattern of selenoprotein synthesis in the strains, JA1 and JA2 were unable to grow with formate as the sole energy source but regained this capacity after complementation with the plasmid containing the corresponding gene previously disrupted (Fig. S4).

The data presented clearly show that the phenomenon of only partial restoration of the selenoproteome upon disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway is not restricted to tRNAsec but also occurs when other *trans*-acting factors are affected, which further argues against experimental artefacts. This notion was again confirmed by analysing the selenoproteins of strains isogenic to the complemented mutants with only the order of the genetic alterations changed, i.e. transformation of M. maripaludis JJ with the complementing plasmid prior to disruption of the respective chromosomal gene. The strains JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK (isogenic to JA1 complemented with pWLmmpstK with respect to intended genetic alterations) and JJ/pWLmmspcS/KOS (isogenic to JA2 complemented with pWLmmspcS with respect to intended genetic alterations) synthesized the full set of selenoproteins found in the wild type (Fig. 5A and B, lanes 4 respectively). To further minimize the possibility that genetic peculiarities of the individual clonal populations analysed (JSC8, JA1, JA2) were responsible for the observed phenomenon, other selC, pstK and spcS mutant clones (eight clones for each mutation) were complemented like JSC8, JA1 and JA2 (see above); in every case was the same phenotype of only partial restoration of the selenoprotein pattern observed (data not shown).

The hierarchy of selenoproteins synthesized in M. maripaludis is not caused by selenophosphate depletion

It was previously shown that selenophosphate synthetase of M. maripaludis is itself a selenoprotein (Stock et al., 2010). Therefore, disruption of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway may lead to the absence of this enzyme, and, thus, elimination of selenophosphate. We hypothesized that it may not be possible for the complemented M. maripaludis mutants to fully recover from selenophosphate deprivation resulting in the preferential synthesis of selenium-dependent FdhA. To address this question, a plasmid was constructed containing an artificial operon of pstK and selD (encoding selenophosphate synthetase from E. coli). In this construct, designated pWLpstK-selD, both genes are preceded by a ribosome binding site and transcribed from a Methanococcus promoter upstream of pstK (Fig. S5). The M. maripaludis pstK mutant JA1 was transformed with pWLpstK-selD and the pattern of selenoproteins was analysed by in vivo by labelling of the strain with radioactive selenium. As can be seen in Fig. 6, JA1/pWLpstK-selD only synthesized selenium-containing FdhA like JA1 carrying pWLmmpstK (compare lane 1, Fig. 6 and lane 3, Fig. 5A). Experimental artefacts caused by the plasmid were again ruled out by analysing a strain isogenic to JA1/pWLpstK-selD, for the generation of which the wild type was first transformed with pWLpstK-



**Fig. 6.** Influence of selenophosphate availability on selenoprotein synthesis in *M. maripaludis*. Autoradiograph of a 12.5% SDS-PAG after electrophoresis of <sup>75</sup>Se-labelled cell lysates, which had been treated with RNase A to remove selenium-containing RNA; lane 1, JA1 transformed with pWLpstK-selD; lane 2, JJ/pWLpstK-selD/KOK; lane 3, TSI; lane 4, TSI transformed with pWLpstK-selD; the arrow depicts the migration position of selenocysteine-containing FdhA; for the likely identity of other selenoproteins, see Fig. 4; migration positions of standard proteins (in kDa) are indicated on the left.

seID before *pstK* was disrupted (Fig. 6, lane 2). As a further control, the *sps* mutant TS1 (Table 1) was transformed with pWLpstK-seID and shown to have wild-type capabilities to synthesize selenoproteins (Fig. 6, lane 4), which demonstrates that *seID* is functionally expressed from this artificial construct. These data strongly suggest that the observed hierarchy of selenoproteins synthesized by *M. maripaludis* upon disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway is not caused by depletion of the cells for selenophosphate.

# The hierarchy in selenoprotein synthesis is caused by differential transcription

The observed phenotype in the mutants, i.e. the hierarchy in selenoprotein synthesis upon disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway, could be caused by differences in selenoprotein gene expression or by differences in selenocysteine translation. To address this question, quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) was employed to determine the mRNA abundances of selected selenoprotein mRNAs and of those of the corresponding cysteine-encoding isoforms. We chose the genes for the large subunit of the selenium-containing  $F_{420}$ -dependent hydrogenase (encoded by fruA), of the corresponding selenium-free isoform (encoded by  $hdrA_0$ ), the corresponding selenium-free isoform (encoded by  $hdrA_0$ ), the corresponding selenium-free isoform (encoded by

hdrA<sub>C</sub>), and of selenium-containing FdhA. M. maripaludis S2 encodes two isoforms of FdhA (encoded by fdhA1 and fdhA2 respectively (Wood et al., 2003). To test if the same is true for M. maripaludis JJ, its genome was probed by PCR and found to also encode two isoforms of FdhA with almost identical sequences to their counterparts in strain S2 (data not shown). The genes were therefore also designated fdhA1 and fdhA2 respectively. Abundances of the selected mRNAs were determined in the wild-type strain JJ. the pstK mutant JA1. JA1 complemented with pWLmmpstK, and its isogenic strain JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK (Table 1). As a control, the sps mutant TS1 and the complemented TS1 strain carrying pWLSTselD (Table 1) was also analysed. From these strains total mRNA was isolated and subjected to gRT-PCR as described in Experimental procedures. The mRNA abundance data were normalized to that of mcrB (see Experimental procedures). The results of this analysis are summarized in Fig. 7.

While the M. maripaludis wild-type strain JJ (Fig. 7, black bars) contained c. 300 times more fruA transcript than frcA transcript, abundance of the former dropped by c. 40-fold and that of the latter increased by c. 200-fold upon pstK deletion resulting in c. 30-fold higher abundance of frcA than fruA in strain JA1 (Fig. 7, dark green bars). Similar results were obtained when analysing hdrA expression: hdrAu was c. 100-fold more abundant in the wild type than hdrAc and disruption of pstK led to a decrease of hdrAu by c. 30-fold, while hdrAc abundance increased c. 40-fold resulting in a hdrAc/hdrAu ratio of c. 20. This apparent downregulation of selenoprotein gene expression concomitant to upregulation of the cysteine-encoding isogenes is fully consistent with a role of the selenium-independent system in substituting for the selenoproteins when the path of selenoprotein synthesis is disrupted or when selenium is limiting as proposed for this organism (Rother et al., 2003) and for Methanococcus voltae (Sorgenfrei et al., 1997). Strikingly, mRNA abundances neither of the selenoprotein genes nor of the cysteine-encoding isogenes changed much when JA1 was complemented with pstK (Fig. 7, light green bars), which suggest that the organism was unable to re-adjust its gene expression after its capacity to synthesize selenoproteins had been restored. The strain JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK, isogenic to JA1 complemented with pWLmmpstK, contained levels of the mRNAs for the selenoproteins and the cysteinecontaining isoforms very similar to those of the wild type (Fig. 7, hatched green bars).

Interestingly, abundance of fdhA1 mRNA, which was as least 100-fold higher than that of fdhA2 under any condition analysed, did not change when pstK was deleted or when JA1 was complemented with pstK. This finding strongly suggests that in M. maripaludis JJ fdhA expression is not regulated by the selenium supply but

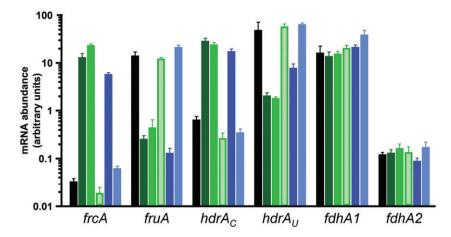


Fig. 7. Abundance of mRNAs encoding selenoproteins and their cysteine-containing isoforms. mRNA from M. maripaludis JJ (black bars), JA1 (dark green bars), JA1 transformed with pWLmmpstK (light green bars), JJ/pWLmmpstK/KOK (hatched green bars), TS1 (dark blue bars) and TSI transformed with pWLSTselD (light blue bars) was isolated and subjected to gRT-PCR as described in Experimental procedures to quantify the abundance of frcA (encoding a subunit of selenium-independent F420-reducing hydrogenase), fruA (encoding a subunit of selenocysteine-containing F<sub>420</sub>-reducing hydrogenase), hdrA<sub>C</sub> (encoding a subunit of selenium-independent heterodisulphide reductase), hdrA<sub>U</sub> (encoding a subunit of selenocysteine-containing heterodisulphide reductase), fdhA1 (encoding a subunit of selenocysteine-containing formate dehydrogenase 1) and fdhA2 (encoding a subunit of selenocysteine-containing formate dehydrogenase 2); mRNA abundance values were normalized to that of mcrB (encoding a subunit of methyl-coenzyme M reductase), which was set to 100 (arbitrary units); shown are mean values and standard deviations of three independent experiments.

constitutive. This conclusion is in full agreement with a previous immunological analysis addressing FdhA synthesis (Rother et al., 2003). The differences in fdhA1 and fdhA2 expression levels further indicate that Fdh2 plays only a minor, if any, role in the energy metabolism of M. maripaludis JJ.

When the sps mutant TS1 was analysed, the reduction of selenoprotein gene expression and the increase in expression of the cysteine-encoding isogenes observed upon deletion of sps (Fig. 7, dark blue bars) reverted to the wild-type situation when the mutant was complemented with selD (Fig. 7, light blue bars), which shows that unlike JA1, TS1 is able to re-adjust expression of the selenoprotein genes and of their cysteine-encoding isoforms when the pathway of selenoprotein synthesis is restored.

# Discussion

Synthesis of selenocysteine requires a number of dedicated trans-active factors and although the respective pathways are principally similar in members of the domains Bacteria, Archaea and Eukarya, peculiar differences remain, one of which regards the selenocysteine-specific tRNA. Comparison of the primary and the (predicted) secondary structure of bacterial and archaeal tRNAsec (Fig. 1) indicated two major differences, an 8/5 (bacterial, Baron et al., 1993) versus 9/4 (archaeal) conformation in the 13-base-pair aminoacyl/T-stem helix (Itoh et al., 2009), and the presence (bacterial) or absence (archaeal) of the adenine base at position 37 (A37). Here, we show that archaeal tRNAsec is functional in E. coli when the base following the anticodon was changed to adenine, which is invariant in bacterial elongator tRNAs (Dirheimer et al., 1995). All other determinants of archaeal tRNAsec evolved to ensure the stringency of selenocysteine insertion into growing polypeptides (Commans and Böck, 1999) appear to be sufficiently conserved for the archaeal species to function in bacteria. Notably, the proposed 9/4 aminoacyl/ T-stem helix conformation experimentally validated for eukaryal, and proposed for archaeal tRNAsec is no obstacle for its functionality in bacteria, a notion fully consistent with the observations made using tRNAsec from Xenopus laevis, with A37 and a 9/4 aminoacyl/T-stem helix conformation (Baron et al., 1994), and tRNAsec from Gram-positive bacteria (Tormay et al., 1994). In E. coli, A37 in tRNAsec is modified to N<sup>6</sup>-isopentenyl-adenosine (i<sup>6</sup>A, Schön et al., 1989). It is therefore very likely that this base is likewise modified in the heterologously synthesized molecule. tRNAs carrying i6A 3' of the anticodon (i6A37) often recognize UNN codons and the modification both enhances the rather weak A36-U interaction (anticodon-codon) (Vacher et al., 1984) and prevents non-cognate base recognition (Jukes, 1973). However, i6A37 was so far not identified in Archaea (Björk, 1995). In fact, N¹-methyl-guanosine (m¹G) and N<sup>6</sup>-threonylcarbamoyl-adenosine (t<sup>6</sup>A) are the only modifications known to occur at position 37 in archaeal tRNAs (Phillips and de Crecy-Lagard, 2011). Unlike in E. coli, position 37 in archaeal tRNA sec appears to play no significant role in the fidelity of codon/anticodon recognition during translation of UGA with selenocysteine. Whether the base at this position of tRNAsec is modified

(e.g. with m¹G in the wild-type tRNA<sup>sec</sup> or t<sup>6</sup>A in the tRNA<sup>sec</sup> variant) remains to be elucidated.

unexpected outcome during the complementation analysis of the tRNAsec-encoding gene, which we subsequently extended to pstK and spcS. was that in M. maripaludis JJ, complementation of genetic lesions affecting selenoprotein synthesis did not always restore the wild type's phenotype. Genetic analysis of methanogens is laborious both due to the organism's strict requirement to maintain anaerobic conditions and due to the still limited number of genetic tools available, as compared with classical genetic model organisms (Leigh et al., 2011). While complementation analysis is state of the art in E. coli genetics for over 30 years method development established this standard in Methanococcus only in the last few years (Sarmiento et al., 2011). The unexpected observations reported here illustrate the usefulness of such an analysis.

From the data presented it seems clear that the observed hierarchy in selenoprotein synthesis upon disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine synthesis pathway is based, at least mainly, on mRNA abundances, i.e. is a result of differential transcription of the selenoprotein genes. The expression pattern in the complemented pstK and spcS mutants seems to be 'arrested' in the mutant situation even when the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway is restored. This transcriptional arrest is inheritable and depends on the strain's own history, i.e. the order in which the genetic manipulations occurred, which suggests that a bistable genetic switch may be responsible. However, the possibility that a secondary mutation causing arrest of expression of most of the selenoprotein genes occurred cannot be completely ruled out. Still, disrupting the pathway of selenocysteine synthesis does not create much of a selection pressure because the organism contains a full complement of cysteine-containing isoenzymes allowing growth on  $H_2 + CO_2$  very similar to that of the wild type (Fig. S4). Further, such a mutation would have to have occurred independently thrice, while creating the mutants JSC8 (selC deleted), JA1 (pstK deleted) and JA2 (spcS deleted), and in each of the eight clones analysed for each mutation.

Although speculative, a plausible mechanism causing the inheritable transcriptional arrest observed here would be to obviate the ability of the complemented mutants to perceive that the capacity to synthesize selenoproteins was restored. If the amount or the activity of a sensor of the cellular selenium status required selenocysteine or one of its biosynthetic intermediates, disruption of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway would eliminate the sensor. If expression of the sensor-encoding gene(s) required presence of the sensor the situation would be locked-in, irrespective of whether the capacity to synthe-

size selenoproteins was restored. Regulation of the lac operon in E. coli is an example for such a positive feedback loop (Casadesus and D'Ari, 2002), Alternatively, a double-negative feedback loop involving two negative effectors is also feasible. For example, if M. maripaludis contained a repressor negatively effecting the sensorencoding gene(s), they would remain repressed upon disruption and complementation of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway, if the sensor or its activity in turn negatively controlled said repressor. An example for such a switch was dissected in Bacillus subtilis, where the fate of cells, motile or sessile, is governed by a bistable genetic switch, realized through a double-negative feedback loop involving two repressor proteins; one, SinR, represses the gene for the other, sIrR, and SIrR titrates SinR via direct binding, thus preventing SinR from repressing sIrR (Chai et al., 2010). A similar mechanism could be operative downstream of a potential selenium sensor in such a signal transduction cascade, for example affecting a repressor of selenoprotein gene expression. However, no such regulator is known in *M. maripaludis*. Alternatively, disruption of the selenocysteine biosynthesis pathway could generate an RNA-based signal, e.g. a small regulatory RNA, which could directly or indirectly prevent transcription of most of the selenoprotein genes; small regulatory RNAs appear to be as abundant in archaea as in bacteria (Jäger et al., 2009; Soppa et al., 2009). Finally, aberrant epigenetic effects could also be responsible for the transcriptional arrest of most of the selenoprotein genes observed here. It is well established in mammals that aberrant gene regulation by epigenetic mechanisms, like DNA hypermethylation, can be the cause for cancer development. Interestingly, among numerous dietary compounds influencing DNA methylation in tumorigenesis, selenium deficiency was found to cause global methylation defects and in addition, promoter methylation of cancer-related genes (Li and Tollefsbol, 2010). However, no link of trace elements and epigenetic effects has thus far been unravelled for any archaeon. Consequentially, our current research is focused on exploring these possibilities.

Although we clearly show by coexpressing *selD* from *E. coli* that deprivation of selenophosphate is not the cue leading to the arrest of selenoprotein gene expression in the complemented *pstK* mutant, the endogenous SPS might still be key to this phenomenon. First, being itself a selenoprotein it is a suitable candidate to sense the cellular selenium status as proposed in eukaryotes (Guimaraes *et al.*, 1996). Furthermore, it was recently shown that in the absence of selenium eukaryal selenium-dependent SPS synthesizes thiophosphate, which is incorporated as cysteine into selenoproteins via the selenoprotein synthesis machinery (Xu *et al.*, 2011). While UGA codons on selenoprotein mRNAs of *M. maripaludis* are most

probably not translated with cysteine derived from this pathway due to the presence and the concerted expression of a whole set of cysteine-containing backup proteins, thiophosphate synthesized by the endogenous SPS could still be an effector leading to the transcriptional switch observed here and could also explain why the selD-complemented SPS mutant synthesized selenoproteins like the wild type (Stock et al., 2010). Clearly, further studies are warranted to clarify this issue.

The pathway for selenocysteine biosynthesis appears to be dispensable to different degrees among very closely related M. maripaludis strains. While it can be disrupted easily in strain JJ, we were previously not successful to do so in strain S2, where several attempt to disrupt the selenophosphate synthetase-encoding gene failed (Stock et al., 2010). In fact, we used a heterozygous sps mutant strain to show that the cellular ratio of wild-type and mutant sps alleles depends on the selection pressure and that the absence of selection leads to very fast equalization of genome copies in M. maripaludis S2, probably via a gene conversion mechanism (Hildenbrand et al., 2011). In a derivative of M. maripaludis S2, strain Mm900, deletion of pstK was possible only when either SPS or the transcriptional repressor HrsM, which suppresses expression of the selenium-free hydrogenases Frc and Vhc (Sun and Klein, 2004), were absent (Hohn et al., 2011). Interestingly, the amplitude of H<sub>2</sub>-dependent regulation of methanogenesis genes, including that of most of the organism's selenoprotein genes and the genes for the selenium-independent isoforms is markedly reduced in strain Mm900 as compared with other M. maripaludis strains (Xia et al., 2009). Thus, stringency of gene control, obviously affected in Mm900, appears to be different between M. maripaludis JJ and S2 and induction of the selenium-free back-up system is more easily achieved in the former strain than in the latter strain.

The only selenoprotein genes apparently not affected by the transcriptional arrest found here are those encoding FdhA, which is constitutively synthesized. It is not clear why M. maripaludis JJ synthesizes formate dehydrogenase when growing on  $H_2 + CO_2$ , but the same was observed in M. maripaludis S2 (Wood et al., 2003). Still, from a physiological standpoint it would be beneficial to downregulate fdhA expression only if an alternative, selenium-independent, system was present to compensate. Such a system is apparently absent in M. maripaludis because mutants unable to synthesize selenoproteins do not grow on formate. Thus, downregulating expression of the other selenoprotein genes while constitutively expressing fdhA at a high level would be advantageous for the organism because it ensures preferential incorporation of selenium into formate dehydrogenase, even when this trace element is scarce.

In summary, the present analysis extends with tRNAsec the list of factors shown to be required in vivo for archaeal selenoprotein synthesis and suggests that a stable genetic switch in M. maripaludis JJ leading to seleniumindependent transcriptional arrest may exist, which obviates synthesis of all but one of the selenoproteins involved in the organism's energy metabolism. Investigating the molecular basis of this switch, which causes a hierarchy in selenoprotein synthesis with formate dehydrogenase on top, will be a challenging task and promises novel insights into the biology of these unique and important prokaryotes.

## Experimental procedures

Strains and growth conditions

For growth and transformation of *E. coli* strains (Table 1) standard conditions were used (Sambrook et al., 1989). Where appropriate, 100 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> ampicillin was added to the medium for selection of strains carrying the bla gene. Anaerobic gas production from glucose, i.e. the activity of the formate-:hydrogen lyase, was qualitatively determined employing a previously described method (Stager et al., 1983) with modifications. E. coli was cultivated semi-anaerobically in 20 ml glass tubes with inverted Durham vials using 10 ml of Lysogenv Broth (Bertani, 2004) containing 0.8% glucose. Gas formation (i.e. gas accumulation in the Durhams) was scored after 4 days of non-agitated incubation at 37°C.

Methanococcus maripaludis JJ (DSMZ 2067: Jones et al... 1983) and its derivatives (Table 1) were cultivated at 37°C in McSe medium (Rother et al., 2003) containing casamino acids (Whitman et al., 1986) and 1 µM sodium selenite. A total of  $2 \times 10^5$  Pa of  $H_2:CO_2$  (80:20) served as the sole energy source. For growth on sodium formate (2%, w/v),  $0.5 \times 10^5$  Pa of N<sub>2</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> (80:20) was applied and 80 mM morpholinepropanesulphonic acid, pH 6.8, added to keep the pH constant. Growth was monitored photometrically at 578 nm (OD<sub>578</sub>). Transformation of *M. maripaludis*, plating on solid media, and selection for resistance towards puromycin and/or neomycin was conducted as described previously (Tumbula et al., 1994; Stock et al., 2010). In vivo labelling of M. maripaludis with [75Se]-selenite and analysis of the selenoproteome was conducted as described (Stock et al., 2010).

## Construction of plasmids and mutant generation/complementation

Standard molecular methods were used for manipulation of plasmid DNA from E. coli (Ausubel et al., 1997). Chromosomal DNA of M. maripaludis was prepared by a modified Cetyl trimethylammonium bromide/NaCl (CTAB) method (Pritchett et al., 2004). All DNA fragments derived from PCR, which were used for cloning, were sequenced by SRD (Bad Homburg) using the BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing protocol (Applied Biosystems). The plasmids and strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Detailed description of plasmid construction, plasmid sequences and plasmid maps are available upon request. As no genome sequence for *M. maripaludis* JJ is available, the DNA fragments used for gene disruptions in *M. maripaludis* JJ were amplified by PCR using genomic DNA from *M. maripaludis* S2 (Hendrickson *et al.*, 2004) as template. The oligonucleotides employed (Table S1) were also used to amplify the respective regions of the *M. maripaludis* JJ chromosome, which were subsequently sequenced to ensure sufficient similarity of the DNA of the two strains for homologous recombination. If the sequences from strain S2 compared with those of strain JJ were > 98% identical they were deemed suitable for use.

Generally, for disruption of a gene in M. maripaludis, the pacN cassette of pNPAC [encoding a codon-optimized variant of the pac gene, which confers resistance towards puromycin (Sun and Klein, 2004)] was flanked by c. 900 bp sequences comprising the up- and downstream regions of the target loci. The DNA fragments were generated by PCR thereby introducing suitable restriction sites for cloning. All resulting plasmids (Table 1) were linearized and transferred into M. maripaludis JJ, obtained from the DSMZ (Braunschweig, Germany) and stored as glycerol stock at -80°C, where target loci were replaced by the pacN cassette through a double recombination event. The genotype of mutants was analysed by Southern hybridization employing a previously described protocol (Pritchett et al., 2004) using digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled DNA fragments as probes (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). For each target locus three probes were used, one specific for the pacN cassette, one specific for the target gene, and one specific for either the up- or the downstream region of the target gene. Comparison of the hybridization pattern of the wild type with that of a mutant verified the genotype of the latter.

For complementation of M. maripaludis, the structural genes pstK and spcS were amplified by PCR thereby introducing Ndel recognition sites at the 5' ends overlapping with the annotated translation start codons and BgIII sites at the 3' ends. The fragments were cloned into pNPAC, thus creating fusions of the genes with the strong constitutive psl promoter (Kansy et al., 1994). The respective fusions were moved into the E. coli/M. maripaludis shuttle vector, pWLG40NZ-R (Lie and Leigh, 2003), likewise restricted, giving rise to pWLmmpstK and pWLmmspcS respectively (Table 1). To create an artificial operon of M. maripaludis pstK and E. coli selD, the selD gene was amplified by PCR, whereby the ribosome binding site of the psl promoter (see above) was introduced 5' of the translational start site, as well as suitable restriction sites at both ends of the fragment. This PCR fragment was placed downstream of pstK, which resulted in pTSpstK-selD (Table 1). The encoded artificial transcriptional unit was moved into pWLG40NZ-R, resulting plasmid in pWLpstKselD (Fig. S5).

The gene for *M. maripaludis* tRNA<sup>sec</sup> (*selC*) and for the G37→A variant was synthesized via the assembly of six overlapping oligonucleotides (Table S1) introducing restriction sites 3' and 5' of the coding region (Meinnel *et al.*, 1988). Because expression signals for archaeal *selC* gene were unknown, *c.* 50 bp of its 5' region (potentially containing a promoter) and *c.* 60 bp of its 3' region (potentially containing a terminator and processing signals) were also included. The resulting fragments were cloned into pWLG40NZ-R, resulting in pWLJCwt and pWLJCg37a respectively (Table 1).

To complement *E. coli* with *M. maripaludis selC*, The gene was amplified by PCR, introducing a BamHI site at the 3' end and a HindIII at the site and 5' end of the fragment, and cloned into pUC19, resulting in p19JJC (Table 1). Inverse PCR using p19JJC as template was conducted to introduce the G37→A mutation and the BamHI/Hind III fragment of the PCR product was again cloned into pUC19 to generate p19JJCGA (Table 1).

#### Northern analysis of crude tRNA

For Northern blot analysis of crude tRNA from *M. maripaludis*, cells harvested from 250 ml of cultures were pressed five times through a syringe with a 0.8 mm gauge needle to enhance cell lysis. tRNAs were isolated as described (Chomczynski and Sacchi, 1987). The isolated tRNAs were separated on a 12% acid-urea polyacrylamide gel [acrylamide/bisacrylamid (29:1) containing 7 M urea], transferred onto a nylon membrane, and cross-linked (Köhrer and Rajbhandary, 2008). The membrane was probed using an oligonucleotide complementary to the first 32 bases of tRNAsec which was labelled with the DIG Oligonucleotide Tailing Kit 2nd Generation (Roche) following the manufacturer's instructions.

#### gRT-PCR with M. maripaludis JJ RNA

As no genome sequence for *M. maripaludis* JJ is available, portions of the respective genes were amplified by PCR using this strain's genomic DNA and primer oligonucleotides deduced from the known *M. maripaludis* S2 genome sequence (Hendrickson *et al.*, 2004). The sequence of the resulting PCR fragments was determined and used to deduce the oligonucleotides for the qRT-PCR analysis. One criterion for the oligonucleotides (Table S1) was to bind at portions of the respective mRNA most dissimilar to the respective portion of the corresponding isogene. The specificity of the oligonucleotides was ensured by extensive PCR and sequencing analysis.

Quantification of M. maripaludis RNA was conducted as described (Rother et al., 2011). Briefly, cultures of M. maripaludis grown on  $H_2 + CO_2$  to late exponential phase were harvested by centrifugation. Total RNA was isolated from the cells using the High Pure RNA isolation Kit (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and following the manufacturer's instructions, except omitting the on-column DNase digestion step but treating the eluted RNA three times (for 2 h each) with RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega, Mannheim, Germany). The RNA preparation was treated with the Nucleospin RNA Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren) to remove digested DNA and DNase and absence of DNA was confirmed via qPCR.

One gene-specific oligonucleotide was used for first-strand (cDNA) synthesis from each of the individual mRNAs to be analysed (Table S1). For cDNA synthesis from up to 12 mRNAs in one reaction, a 48  $\mu l$  reaction mixture containing reaction buffer (provided with the enzyme), 2  $\mu g$  of RNA, 10 pmol (of each) oligonucleotide, 0.5 mM dNTPs was combined. The sample was denatured at 70°C for 5 min and incubated at 55°C for 5 min for annealing of the

oligonucleotide(s). cDNA synthesis was started by addition of 2 μl of Moloney murine leukaemia virus (M-MLV) reverse transcriptase RNase H Minus, point mutant (200 U µl-1, Promega). The reaction was allowed to proceed for 1 h at 55°C before the enzyme was inactivated by incubation at 80°C for 5 min. For every mRNA to be analysed two additional oligonucleotides were deduced (Table S1), both annealing within the cDNA for second-strand synthesis and amplification. This measure further increased the overall specificity of the analysis by reducing the amount of DNA amplified via unspecific priming. For the subsequent gPCR analysis, 1 µl of 1:10 diluted cDNA, 2 pmol of each oligonucleotide and 12.5 µl of Absolute QPCR SYBR Green Mastermix (Thermo Scientific, Dreieich, Germany) were combined in a 25 µl reaction. For the amplification a Rotor-Gene RG-3000 gPCR cycler (Corbett Research, Cambridge, UK) employing a 'hot start' protocol to activate the thermostable DNA polymerase contained in the Mastermix was used. The data were analysed using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C}_T$  method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001) and normalized to the expression of the mcrB gene (MMP1555 in the genome of strain S2) encoding the β-subunit of methyl-coenzyme M reductase, which is not transcriptionally regulated in M. maripaludis S2 (Xia et al., 2006; Hendrickson et al., 2007).

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