Title: A diversified, widespread microbial gene cluster encodes homologs of methyltransferases involved in methanogenesis.

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Abstract: Analyses of microbial genome sequencing data have revealed unexpectedly wide distributions of enzymes from specialized metabolic pathways, including enzymes from methanogens, providing exciting opportunities for discovery. Here, we identify a family of gene clusters (the type 1 *mlp* gene clusters (MGCs)) that encodes homologs of the soluble coenzyme M methyltransferases (SCMTs) involved in methylotrophic methanogenesis and is widespread in bacteria and archaea. Type 1 MGCs are expressed and regulated in a number of medically, environmentally, and industrially important organisms, making them likely to be physiologically relevant. Enzyme annotation and analysis of genomic context suggests these gene clusters are likely to play a role in methyl-sulfur and/or methyl-selenide metabolism in numerous anoxic environments, including the human gut microbiome. Notably, we propose that type 1 MGCs could participate in selenium and methionine salvage pathways that could impact sulfur and selenium cycling in diverse, anoxic environments.

Introduction

Other the past 50 years, biochemists and microbiologists have made much progress in elucidating the enzymology of methanogenesis. The canonical methanogenic pathways are now well understood (1,2), and the vast majority of the central catabolic enzymes have been purified and at least partially characterized, and their genes identified and sequenced. This reservoir of biochemical knowledge presents the opportunity to identify homologs of methanogen specific enzymes in organisms that are categorically not methanogens. In doing so, we may discover previously unappreciated metabolic

pathways that could have global or ecological relevance. Moreover, studying homologs

of methanogen-specific enzymes in non-methanogenic organisms could shed light on the

evolution of methanogenic pathways and organisms as well as the potential adaptation

of methanogen genes to perform novel functions.

Methanogenesis can be regarded as a specialized metabolism—its pathways are

biochemically quite distinct from those of most organisms and not expected to interface

well with other metabolic processes when horizontally transferred. It is therefore

interesting to note that methanogen cofactors and homologs of methanogen enzymes are

indeed found in non-methanogens. Examples include the use of methanofuran- and

methanopterin-dependent enzymes in aerobic methylotrophy (3), the use of deazaflavin

redox cofactor F_{420} in bacterial metabolism (4), the use of coenzyme M in alkene

catabolism (5), and the use of heterodisulfide reductase-like enzymes in various

metabolisms, including sulfate reduction (6), acetogenesis (7), and the degradation of

benzoate (8). In each case the "methanogen" enzymes are performing an interesting,

novel, and important function.

We wondered if this occurrence of methanogen enzymes in non-methanogenic

organisms extends to the soluble coenzyme M methyltransferases (SCMTs) from

methylotrophic methanogenesis. SCMTs are corrinoid-dependent methyltransferases

that are responsible for transferring a methyl group from a methylated corrinoid-binding

protein (corrinoid protein) to coenzyme M to form methyl-coenzyme M, the immediate

precursor of methane (Fig. 1) (9). SCMTs belong to the very large and sequence-diverse

uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase (UroD) superfamily, which includes uroporphyrinogen

decarboxylase, cobalamin-independent methionine synthase, epoxide coenzyme M

transferase, and a variety of corrinoid methyltransferases including *O*-, *S*-, and halogen-

demethylases (10–16). However, we focused our attention on proteins having greater

than 25% amino acid identity to a characterized SCMT. We will refer to such enzymes as

MtaA-like proteins, or Mlps, after MtaA, the methanol-specific SCMT in *Methanosarcina*

species (16). To our knowledge, these Mlps have not been assigned a role outside of

methanogens.

Fig. 1   Searching genomes for the soluble coenzyme M methyltransferase (SCMT) MtaA involved in methylotrophic methanogenesis identifies related enzymes in non-methanogens. Overview of genome mining strategy used in this work. The methanol-specific methanol:corrinoid methyltransferase MtaB transfers the methyl group of methanol to the cognate corrinoid protein MtaC (the corrinoid cofactor is represented by a square containing a cobalt ion). The SCMT MtaA then transfers to the methyl group from MtaC to coenzyme M (CoM). The methyl group incorporated onto CoM is then disproportionated into methane and carbon dioxide or solely reduced to methane, depending on the organism and environmental conditions.

Here, we propose a prospective role for Mlps in a wide range of microorganisms by identifying a diverse, widespread, and homologous set of microbial gene clusters that encode multiple Mlps, as well as a corrinoid protein and a corrinoid reductive activase (Ram/RACE enzyme). Gene cluster annotation, bioinformatic analysis, and biochemical logic suggests that the encoded enzymes have two functions—methyl-selenide recycling and/or methionine salvage—depending on the organism. These results illustrate the utility of using known enzymes involved in metabolisms of interest to discover uncharacterized microbial gene clusters that likely have intriguing and ecologically important functions.

Materials and methods

General methods and procedures

Manipulations and visualizations of genomic data were performed using Geneious Prime 2020.0.4 software (17). BLASTP searches were conducted through the Geneious interface using either National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) nr/rt database

or custom databases generated by the user. In all cases we used the BLOSUM62 matrix

and a gap opening penalty of 11 and a gap extension penalty of 1. Protein alignments we

performed using MUSCLE (18).

Identification of *mlp* gene clusters

To identify homologs of soluble coenzyme M methyltransferases (SCMTs) in *C.*

ljungdahlii, we generated a protein database of all the predicted proteins encoded in the

C. ljungdahlii DSM 13528 genome, and performed at BLASTP search of this database

using the *Methanosarcina barkeri* MtbA protein sequence (Swiss-Prot ID: O30640) as a

query. We then inspected the genomic context of the all the hits with E-values less than

1.0e-10.

To identify additional *mlp* gene clusters (MGCs), we performed BLASTP searches

against NCBI's nr/nt database using *C. ljungdahlii* Mlp1, Mlp2, and Mlp3 (locus tags in

Table S1) as queries. We collected the top 1000 hits from each BLAST search. For the

Mlp1 search, this yielded hits with as low as 19.8% amino acid identity to the query. For

the Mlp2 and Mlp3 searches, the minimum percent identities of the hits were 28.0% and

24.9%, respectively. We then manually inspected the genomic context of each hit to

determine whether they were found in true MGCs. A "true" MGC met the following criteria:

1) it encodes at least two Mlps, a corrinoid protein, and a Ram protein, 2) each of these

components are predicted to be transcribed in the same direction with no intervening

divergently-transcribed genes, 3) there is no more than 2 kb of DNA in between the genes

noted in 1, and 4) the gene cluster encodes no homologs of tetrahydrofolate methylases

within 20 kb of any of the genes noted in 1. Using these methods and definitions, we

identified 367 MGCs.

<u>SSN analysis of MGC proteins</u>

We generated all SSNs using the Enzyme Function Initiative Enzyme Similarity Tool

(EFI-EST) webtool (19). For each SSN, we first compiled the sequences of characterized

superfamily members and superfamily members that are encoded in the 367 MGCs

identified above, generating a superfamily-specific "preliminary input list". We then pruned

each list to ensure that only quality sequences (those lacking frameshifts or internal stops)

within a certain length window were included. For the Mlp SSN, length window was 200

to 470 amino acids. The resulting sequence list was termed the "input list". We next input

both the appropriate superfamily and input list into the EFI-EST web server. For the Mlp

SSN, the superfamily was IPR027980, for the Ram/RACE SSN, it was IPR027980, and

for the corrinoid protein SSN it was IPR006158. We selected alignment score thresholds

such that most MGC proteins fell into common network clusters, but were still as

separated as possible from non-MGC proteins. We selected node representation percent

identities to the highest that consistent with efficient use of the Cytoscape GUI on an

ordinary laptop MacIntosh computer. For each SSN, we used the UniRef90 option and

otherwise default parameters. Once generated, the SSNs were visualized with Cytoscape

software (version 3.8.0) using the "preferred" layout (20).

<u>Phylogenetic analysis of *mlp* gene cluster proteins</u>

We compiled proteins encoded by type I MGCs and sequences of related

characterized proteins and then aligned the resulting protein sequences using MUSCLE

with default parameters, and trimmed the alignments manually. All trees were generated

using FastTree (approximately-maximum likelihood method) with default parameters

(21).

We generated the rooted phylogenetic tree of the Mlps as follows. We first compiled

the sequences of Mlps1, Mlps2, and Mlps3 from type I MGCs included in the above SSN.

We added the SCMTs identified in the unrooted tree to this list, as well as the known

phenolic *O*-demethylases OdmB and VdmB (UniProt IDs: O87604 and Q6W001,

respectively). The SCMTs were identified as the smallest set of branches containing the

characterized SCMTs MtaA, MtbA, and MtsA (all from *Methanosarcina barkeri* Fusaro),

but excluding the Mlps3. The SCMTs were identified as the smallest clade in the unrooted

tree which contained the known SCMTs MtaA, MtbA, and MtsA. The tree was rooted on

the branch connecting the *O*-demethylases to the rest of the sequences, based on the

hypothesis that they serve as an appropriate outgroup.

Phylogenetic membership of type I MGC-encoding organisms

We analyzed the phylogenic composition of type I MGC-encoding bacteria and

archaea according to the Genomes Taxonomy Database (GTDB) taxonomic system (22).

Construction of homology models

Clostridium ljungdahlii DSM 13528 Mlps 1, 2, and 3 were submitted to the SWISS-

MODEL webserver (23) using *Methanosarcina mazei* MtaA (PDB ID: 4AY7) (24).

Results

While manually inspecting the genome of *Clostridium ljungdahlii* DSM 13528, a

bacterium that has received attention as a potential producer of biofuels, we noticed that

this organism encodes multiple members of the UroD superfamily. To see if these genes

are closely related to SCMTs, we performed BLASTP searches of the SCMT MtbA

(*Methanosarcina barkeri* Fusaro, *Mb*MtbA) against the predicted *C. lungdahlii* DSM 13528

proteome. We identified seven hits with an E value lower than 1e-09 (Table S1). The

highest hit was CLJU_RS09375, which showed 32.5% amino acid (aa) identity to

*Mb*MtbA. It is worth noting that the SCMTs MtbA, MtaA, and MtsA (all from *M. barkeri*

Fusaro) show only about 30% aa identity to each other, suggesting that CLJU_RS09375

could be a close relative of the SCMTs. CLJU_RS09375's amino acid sequence identity

to the UroD superfamily phenolic *O*-demethylases OdmB and VdmB was only 17.6% and

17.0%, respectively.

To obtain clues as to the physiological role of CLJU_RS09375, we next examined

this gene's genomic context. CLJU_RS09375 is encoded in a gene cluster that includes

genes encoding a corrinoid protein (CLJU_RS09370), a "bacterial-type" corrinoid protein

reductive activase (Ram/RACE protein) (CLJU_RS09380), and two additional Mlps

(CLJU_RS09360 and CLJU_RS09365) (Fig. 2a). This gene cluster has been

independently predicted to form an operon by OperonDB, an automatic operon prediction

database (25). Because this gene cluster encodes multiple Mlps, we named it the *mlp*

gene cluster (MGC). We named the three Mlps in the gene cluster Mlp1, Mlp2, and Mlp3,

(specifically, *Cl*Mlp1, 2, and 3) in order of their appearance in the gene cluster from the

presumed transcriptional start site (see Fig. 2a).

Fig. 2 Type I MGCs encode orthologous proteins. a The MGC from *C. ljungdahlii.* **b** Representative

type I MGC. Coloring of the core MGC genes is the same as in a, but non-core genes are colored grey. **c**

A protein SSN of the UroD superfamily (IPR000257) showing the clustering of Mlps1, 2, and 3. Nodes

representing MtsA, MtbA, and MtaA (all from *M. barkeri* Fusaro) are shown in dark blue. The alignment

score cutoff was 40 and the node representation percent cut was 50 % aa identity. The SSN shown is a

trimmed version of the full SSN, with all nodes removed that are neither directly or indirectly connected to

the Mlps1, 2, or 3.

Given the relatively high sequence similarity of the MGC Mlps to SCMTs, it seems

reasonable to hypothesize that these enzymes are corrinoid methyltransferases. This is

consistent with the presence of genes encoding a corrinoid protein and a Ram/RACE

protein in the MGC. The former is a methyl group carrier (26), while the latter is an ATP-

dependent corrinoid protein reductase that reductively activates the corrinoid protein to

its catalytically-active Co(I) state (27,28). Corrinoid methyltransferases, corrinoid

proteins, and Ram/RACE proteins are frequently found colocalized in gene clusters (29–

31). In bacteria, gene clusters encoding components of corrinoid methyltransferase

pathways are involved in methylotrophic metabolism and participate in transferring a

methyl group from a donor substrate to tetrahydrofolate (H_4folate) via a methyl-corrinoid

protein intermediate, a reaction catalyzed by a methyl-corrinoid protein:H_4folate

methyltransferase (15,29). In most of the bacterial methyltransferase pathways examined

to date, the H_4folate methylase is encoded in the same gene cluster as the corrinoid

protein and methyl donor methyltransferase (29,30). It is therefore surprising that H_4folate

methyltransferase is missing from the *C. ljungdahlii* MGC. While it is possible that a

H_4folate methyltransferase encoded elsewhere in the *C. ljungdahlii* genome could

cooperate with the MGC methyltransferase system, it is also possible that H_4folate is not

involved in the MGC methyltransferase pathway or that one of the MGC Mlps is an

undiscovered H_4folate methyltransferase.

In parallel with the identification of the *C. ljungdahlii* MGC, we located similar gene

clusters in *C. sporogenes* DSM 795 and *Hungateiclostridium* (*Clostridium*) *thermocellum*

DSM 1313. Like the MGC from *C. ljungdahlii*, the gene clusters in *C. sporogenes* and *H.*

thermocellum encode multiple Mlps (each with about 30% identity to the SCMTs), a

corrinoid protein and a Ram/RACE protein (Fig. 2b). The gene clusters from *C.*

sporogenes and *H. thermocellum* also lack a H$_4$folate methylase. However, unlike *C.*

ljungdahlii, which encodes H$_4$folate methylases elsewhere in its genome, homologs of

H$_4$folate methylases are absent from sequenced *C. sporogenes* and *H. thermocellum*

genomes, suggesting that H$_4$folate might not be involved in the presumptive

methyltransferase pathways encoded by these gene clusters. Because of the similarity of

the *C. sporogenes* and *H. thermocellum* gene clusters to the *C. ljungdahlii* MGC, we refer

to these gene clusters as the *Cs*MGC, *Ht*MGC, and *Cl*MGC, respectively.

We next wondered if related MGCs are found in organisms other than *C. ljungdahlii*,

C. sporogenes, and *H. thermocellum*. To address this, we BLASTed *Cl*Mlp1, 2, and 3

against the NCBI non-redundant protein database. We notice that many of the organisms

that had high alignment score hits for *Cl*Mlp1 also encoded high alignment score hits for

*Cl*Mlp2 and 3. When we examined the genomic contexts of these hits, we found that they

are indeed colocalized in gene clusters that resemble the *C. ljungdahlii* MGC (see Fig. 2b

for examples).

We next asked if these MGCs are homologous or analogous. Because components

of a corrinoid methyltransferase pathway are commonly encoded in gene clusters

(14,15,29–31), it would not be surprising to find that evolutionary pressure to colocalize

corrinoid methyltransferase genes resulted in MGCs that appear only superficially similar,

but share no evolutionary relationship. Alternatively, the common appearance and genetic

content of the MGCs could suggest that these gene clusters are descended from a

244 common ancestor (i.e. are homologous), which would also suggest they likely have a

245 shared function in diverse organisms. To address this question, we first compiled a list of

246 367 organisms encoding likely MGCs (see materials and methods). To preliminarily

247 assess the similarity of the proteins encoded by these MGCs, we constructed several

248 protein sequence similarity networks (SSNs) (19). We reasoned that if MGCs are

249 homologous, each conserved component of the identified MGCs should preferentially

250 form its own cluster in an SSN of the protein family to which that component belongs. For

251 instance, in an SSN of the corrinoid protein superfamily, the MGC corrinoid proteins

252 should form their own cluster within the SSN. The same should be true for the Ram/RACE

253 proteins in an SSN of their superfamily. Because there are multiple *mlp* genes in each

254 MGC, there are two SSN analysis outcomes that are consistent with the homology

255 hypothesis. First, all of the Mlps from the MGCs could be grouped within a single cluster

256 in the SSN. This would be expected to be the case if the multiple *mlp* genes in each MGC

257 arose from gene duplication. Second, the MGC Mlps could each represent different

258 lineages, and could therefore likely form distinct clusters within an SSN.

259  We first constructed an SSN (Fig. 2c) of the IPR000257 superfamily, which includes

260 the Mlps. We found that 80.9% of the MGC Mlps localized into one of three sub-clusters

261 within a larger cluster (Fig. 2c, three clusters of magenta-colored nodes). Interestingly,

262 these three sub-clusters correspond to the three Mlps from the *C. ljungdahlii* MGC, with

263 *Cl*Mlp1, 2, and 3 being grouped into one of each of the sub-clusters. Inspection of other

264 MGCs reveal that almost of these clusters encode Mlps from clusters 2 and 3, while a

265 gene encoding an Mlp from cluster 1 was present a majority of the time, but often absent.

We denote the proteins in the sub-cluster containing *Cl*Mlp1 as Mlps1, and those from

network sub-clusters containing *Cl*Mlp2 and 3 as Mlps2, and Mlps3, respectively.

Altogether, this analysis shows that a large number of MGCs encode at least an Mlp2

and an Mlp3. We designate such gene clusters as "type 1 MGCs".

Because the overwhelming majority (>95%) of MGCs examined here appear to be

type 1 MGCs, we selected the type I MGCs for further study. The fact that the type 1 MGC

Mlps fall into three separate clusters in the SSN hints that they might represent three

distinct Mlp lineages, rather than a single lineage within the UroD superfamily that arose

from recent gene duplication events. To solidify this inference, we constructed a

phylogenetic tree of the Mlps and other members of the UroD superfamily that are close

relatives of known corrinoid methyltransferases (Figure 3a). The phylogenetic tree

showed that the Mlps 1, 2, and 3 are situated in a large branch that includes the SCMTs,

to the exclusion of other known UroD superfamily corrinoid methyltransferases such as

the aromatic *O*-demthylases (13). When rooted (Figure 3b), we found that the Mlps 1, 2

and 3 formed distinct, well-supported clades. Interestingly, the Mlps2 form a sister clade

to the clade containing the SCMTs and the Mlps1 and Mlps3. Within this clade, the Mlps1

and Mlps3 form sister clades emerging from the SCMTs, which therefore appear to be

paraphyletic.

Fig. 3 Type I MGCs encode orthologous proteins. a An approximately-maximum likelihood (FastTree)

phylogenetic tree of members of the UroD superfamily methyltransferases. The FastTree support values

for the Mlps1, 2, and 3 clades are 0.95, 0.94, and 1.00, respectively. Scale bar: branch length corresponding

to an average of one change per position. **b** A rooted approximately-maximum likelihood (FastTree)

phylogenetic tree of selected protein sequences. Shown are the soluble coenzyme M methyltransferases

(SCMTs), the Mlps1, 2 and 3, and the phenolic *O*-demethylases OdmB and VdmB (outgroup). Each branch

is labeled with the branch's FastTree support value. The number of sequences in each clade are as follows.

O-demethylases: 2; Mlps2: 267; Misc. SCMT clade: 20; MtbA clade: 85; Mlps1: 147; Mlps3: 233; MtaA +

MtsA clade: 252. **c** An approximately-maximum likelihood (FastTree) phylogenetic tree of members of the

methyltransferase corrinoid protein family. The type I MGC proteins are shown in red. The FastTree support

value for the type I MGC proteins is 0.92. Selected characterized family members are shown: MtbC1,

MtmC1, and MttC1 (all from *M. acetivorans* C2A); *Dh*MtgC from *Desulfitobacterium hafniense* Y51; MtqC

from *Eubacterium limosum* ATCC 8486; MtsB from *M. barkeri* Fusaro; OdmA and VdmA from

Acetobacterium dehalogenans DSM 11527. **d** An approximately-maximum likelihood (FastTree)

phylogenetic tree of members of the Ram/RACE protein family. The type I MGC proteins are shown in

orange. The FastTree support value for the type I MGC proteins is 0.98. A clade containing the corrinoid

iron-sulfur protein reductive activases is labeled "AcsVs". The locations of the activases RamQ (*E. limosum*

ATCC 8486) and OdmC (*A. dehalogenans* DSM 11527) are shown. Scale bars for all tree represent

respective branch length corresponding to an average of one change per position.

To further explore the sequence similarity relationships between MGCs, we first

generated SSNs for the corrinoid protein (IPR006158) and Ram/RACE protein

(IPR027980) superfamilies. These SSNs were similar: each contained a cluster

consisting of proteins from MGCs (Fig. S2). The only exceptions amongst corrinoid

proteins were found in cases where two corrinoid proteins were present in the MGC, one

of which was located outside of the type I MGC network cluster. We refer to this second

corrinoid protein as an "auxiliary." A comparatively small number (13 in total) of type I

MGC Ram/RACE proteins were found outside the main network cluster. Interestingly, all

but two of these non-canonical Ram/RACE proteins were found in MGC that also

encoded a non-pyrrolysine homolog of the methylamine methyltranasferase, MtmB. Ten

of these MGCs encoded an auxiliary corrinoid protein. These data are consistent with

the hypothesis that type 1 MGCs are homologous to each other, but not confirmatory, as

they do not use phylogenetic algorithms. To further test this hypothesis, we generated

two additional phylogenetic trees: one containing the type 1 MGC corrinoid proteins and

other monomeric methyltransferase corrinoid proteins (Fig. 3c and 3d, respectively), and

the other containing the type 1 MGC Ram/RACE proteins and other Ram/RACE proteins

(Fig. S4). In each case, the type 1 MGC proteins were found in the same branch, with a

handful of exceptions. These exceptions could be the result of gene conversion or the

replacement of a "canonical" type 1 MGC gene with an isofunctional gene from outside

of the MGC.

Together, the data from the SSN and phylogenetic analyses suggests that type 1

MGCs are homologous in that they encode mutually orthologous proteins (i.e. the

conserved type 1 MGC Mlps are all orthologs, the type 1 MGC corrinoid proteins are all

orthologs, and the type 1 MGC Ram/RACE proteins are all orthologs.) The simplest

explanation for the homology of the type 1 MGCs is that they are preserved and

horizontally transferred as a unit. However, we cannot rule out more complicated

scenarios such as one in which the type 1 MGC genes are transferred individually into

different regions of the genome and then brought together by selective pressure. This

latter possibility gains some credence when we note the lack of conserved synteny in type

1 MGCs.

Having established that type 1 MGCs are homologous, we sought to analyze the

phylogenetic distribution of these gene clusters (Fig. 4). To date, we have identified over

one hundred genera (all of them prokaryotes) containing at least one strain encoding a

type 1 MGC. Of these genera, only three (*Methanococcus*, *Methanothermococcus*, and

Methanotorris) are archaeal. These three archaeal genera are of methanogens belonging

to the Methanococcales order. This is noteworthy because members of the

Methanococcales are not known to be methylotrophic and therefore would not be

expected to encode SCMTs. Of genera that encode type I MGCs, all but two

(*Rhodoblastus* and *Rhodovastum*) contain only obligate anaerobes, with the majority

(73%) belonging to the Firmicutes phylum and a minor contribution from the

Desulfobacterota phylum (composing 11% of the type I MGC-encoding genera). Although

type 1 MGCs are found largely in a limited number of phyla, they are widely distributed in

those phyla at the order level, as type 1 MGCs are found in at least 35 orders of bacteria

and archaea. The two most well represented orders are the *Peptostreptococcales* and

Clostridiales, which contain 14 and 13 identified type 1 MGC-encoding genera,

respectively. From this analysis, we conclude that type 1 MGC are phylogenetically

widespread and are associated with microorganisms that are restricted to anoxic

environments. Individual species encoding type 1 MGCs include a number of interesting

organisms, such as toxigenic clostridia (*Clostridium botulinum*, *Paeniclostridium sordelii*,

certain strains of *Clostridioides difficile*) and industrially-relevant clostridia

(*Hungateiclostridium* (*Clostridium*) *thermocellum*, *Clostridium ljungdahlii* and its close relatives).

Firmicutes (74)
Desulfobacterota (11)
Synergistota (4)
Methanobacteriota (4)
Spirochaetota (3)
Fusobacteriota (2)
Planctomycetota (2)
Proteobacteria (1)

Fig. 4   Type I MGCs are found in several prokaryotic Phyla. Phylum composition of genera encoding type I MGCs. 101 genera are represented. The number of type I MGC-encoding genera within each phylum is enclosed in parentheses.

Many of the organisms encoding type I MGCs are either known acetogens or encode the proteins necessary for acetogenesis. These include the acetogenic *Clostridium* spp., *Sporomusa* spp., certain *Clostridioides difficile* strains, and acetogenic *Treponema* strains. It should be emphasized, however, that many known acetogens do not encode MGCs and many of the organisms that encode MGCs lack the critical *acsA* and *acsB* (genes encoding bacterial anaerobic carbon monoxide dehydrogenase and bacterial acetyl-CoA synthase, respectively) that are required for acetogenesis in all known instances.

We next turned our attention to analyzing additional components of the type 1 MGCs

and proposing a biochemical function for these genes. The UroD superfamily includes

corrinoid methyltransferases that (de)methylate several heteroatoms including halogens,

sulfur atoms, and aryl oxygens (10,12,14,15,32). Several lines of evidence suggest that

the type 1 MGCs encode a corrinoid *S*- or *Se*-methyltransferase system. First, the closest

relationship between known UroD superfamily proteins and the type 1 *mlp* cluster Mlps is

with the SCMTs (Fig. a and b), which are *S*-methyltransferases. Additional evidence

comes from examination of the enzyme's Zn^{2+}-binding site. This Zn^{2+} cofactor coordinates

the heteroatom of a substrate, activating it for (de)methylation (24,32,33). The primary

coordination sphere of the Zn^{2+} cofactor is His-Cys-Cys in *S*-methyltransferases from the

UroD superfamily and beyond, while in *O*-methyltransferases, one or both of the Cys

ligands are substituted by carboxylates (Glu or Asp) or are substituted for non-

coordinating residues (15,24,32,33). The His-Cys-Cys coordination environment favors

the binding of a soft ligand such as a selenium or sulfur atom to the Zn^{2+} center, while

substitution of Cys for a carboxylate favors binding of an oxygen atom. The coordination

sphere of the type 1 MGC Mlps is (with the exception of a few of the Mlps1) invariably

His-Cys-Cys, suggesting that these proteins are *S*- or *Se*-methyltransferases. We

constructed homology models of each of the *C. ljungdahlii* Mlps in order to confirm that

the His-Cys-Cys triads are likely appropriately positioned to coordinate Zn^{2+} (Fig. S3).

Finally, examination of the non-core components of type I MGCs (genes that are found in

type I MGCs, but do not encode Mlps, corrinoid proteins, or Ram/RACE proteins)

consistently reveals genes involved in sulfur metabolism, including methionine

aminotransferases, sulfurtransferases, methionine transporters, and close homologs of

the recently-described MarHDK enzyme that catalyzes C–S bond cleavage in the

production of ethylene from methylthioethanol (34). These observations suggest a

potential role for type I MGCs in methyl-sulfur metabolism.

However, consideration of additional evidence suggests that most type I MGCs

function in methyl-selenium metabolism. For instance, type 1 MGCs commonly contain

genes provisionally linked to selenium metabolism, such as the recently characterized

"dicubane cluster protein" (35–37). Several type 1 MGCs (Fig. 5) contain genes encoding

authentic machinery for selenocysteine synthesis, encoding, and decoding (SelABCD),

as well as the enzymes of the glycine reductase system, two of which have

selenocysteine residues (38,39). A strikingly high percentage (87%) of sequenced

species that encode type I MGCs also encode selenocysteine biosynthesis machinery

within the same genome. For comparison, a recent study found that only about 21.5% of

bacteria contain the requisite genes for selenocysteine biosynthesis, and even in the

selenocysteine-rich Clostridia, only 42% of 184 genomes surveyed encoded

selenocysteine biosynthesis machinery (35). Not all organisms that make use of selenium

encode selenocysteine biosynthetic machinery—some organisms that use the selenium

cofactor only encode selenide-water dikinase (SelD) (35). We therefore manually

inspected genomes that contain a type I MGC, but lack SelAB or C, finding that several

genomes lacked *selABC*, but had *selD* as well as selenium cofactor-dependent enzymes.

As noted below, type 1 MGCs from *C. ljungdahlii* and *C. drakei* are upregulated during

autotrophic growth on H_2 + CO_2, a condition where there is increased demand for

selenoprotein biosynthesis (40). The Cys-Cys-His coordination of the active site Zn^{2+}, in

addition to being suggestive of binding a sulfur nucleophile/methyl-sulfur methyl donor,

could also be compatible with a selenium nucleophile/methyl-selenide methyl donor. Most

importantly, during the preparation of this manuscript, we became aware of a 2004

publication that used proteomic and genetic methods to implicate three type I MGC-

encoded proteins (the corrinoid protein and two Mlps2) in the utilization of dimethyl-

selenide as a selenium source in the hydrogenotrophic methanogen *Methanococcus*

voltae (41). The authors suggested that the Mlps might demethylate (di)methyl-selenide

and transfer the methyl group onto the MGC corrinoid protein, liberating selenide for

incorporation into biological macromolecules. While the authors did not biochemically

characterize the Mlps in this study, their data strongly support a role for the type I MGCs

in methyl-selenol utilization.

Fig. 5 Type I MGCs often encode genes involved in selenium metabolism. Selenium metabolism gene show are either close homologs of genes with experimentally-confirmed roles in selenium metabolism ("Selenium metabolism (known)") or have been associated with selenium metabolism by bioinformatic methods ("Selenium metabolism (putative)") (35,36). The positions of selenocysteine codons are make with "TGA." "TGA*" indicates a selenocysteine codon that has been bioinformatically predicted, but not experimentally confirmed (36). Sec lyase: selenocysteine lyase. DCCP: dicubane cluster protein. DCCPR: dicubane cluster protein reductase. grdA: glycine reductase subunit A. grdH: glycine betaine reductase subunit H. selA: *L*-seryl-tRNA(Sec) selenium transferase. selB: selenocysteine-specific translation elongation factor. selD: selenide water dikinase. selR: putative selenium transcriptional regulator (35). Sao: putative "selenocysteine-assisted organometallic operon genes.

Because type 1 MGCs are present in several model organisms that have been the

subjects of proteomic and transcriptomic studies, we examined the expression of these

genes in existing datasets for *C. botulinum*, *C. ljungdahlii*, and *H. thermocellum* to gain

additional information regarding their functions. In all three organisms, the MGCs are

expressed at a detectable level under all conditions examined. First, we found that the *C.*

botulinum MGC is upregulated during growth at the organism's optimal growth

temperature of 37 °C compared to growth at 15 °C (transcripts 5.27-68.6 fold upregulated

at 37 °C) (42). In *C. ljungdahlii*, we found that the type 1 MGC is transcriptionally

upregulated roughly 3-5 fold during autotrophic growth on H_2 + CO_2 or CO versus

heterotrophic growth on fructose (43–45). The same pattern is found in *C. drakei* (6 to13

fold transcriptional upregulation on H_2 + CO_2 compared to fructose) (40). In *H.*

thermocellum, the type 1 MGC is upregulated during growth with supplemental acetate in

a strain from which the FeFe hydrogenase maturation enzyme *ΔhydG* had been deleted

(46). These findings imply that type 1 MGCs are expressed, indicating their physiological

relevance, and respond to environmental and genetic perturbations in industrially and

medically significant organisms.

Discussion

Methylotrophic methanogenesis is a unique mode of metabolism restricted to a subset

of the archaea, so it is surprising to find homologs of enzymes from this pathway in non-

methanogens. Here, we identify a diversified, widespread set of gene clusters—type 1

MGCs—that encode homologs of the SCMTs involved in methylotrophic

methanogenesis. Type I MGCs are found exclusively in anaerobes, and are most

common in the Firmicutes phylum. In these organisms, there is a strong tendency for type

I MGCs to be found in genomes that also contain selenocysteine biosynthesis and

decoding machinery.

What reactions do the enzymes encoded by type 1 MGCs catalyze and what is the

physiological function of those reactions? The presence of a corrinoid protein, a corrinoid

reductive activase, and homologs of corrinoid methyltransferases (Mlps) implies that the

type 1 MGCs encode components of a corrinoid methyltransferase pathway. Protein

sequence comparisons indicate that the Mlps are likely *S*- or *Se*-methyltransferases that

(de)methylate thiol and selenol metabolites.

The potential physiological roles of such reactivity may be explored through

considering features of the organisms that possess type I MGCs. It seems clear from

earlier studies that type I MGCs can function in methyl-selenol valorization (39). However,

those authors implicated only the corrinoid protein and two closely-related Mlps2 in

dimethyl-selenide utilization—the more distantly related *M. voltae* Mlp1 and Mlp3 (which

are also present in the *M. voltae* type I MGC) appear to have gone unnoticed. It seems

likely that the full type I MGC contains methyltransferases for demethylation of several

methyl-selenium compounds. While the genetic data in Ref. 39 implicates dimethyl-

selenide and/or methyl-selenol as substates of the type I MGC Mlps2, we propose that

the Mlps1 and Mlps3 may be responsible for demethylation of other methyl-selenium

compounds such as methyl-selenocysteine and selenomethionine and concomitant

methylation of the gene clusters' encoded corrinoid proteins. The methylated corrinoid

protein must be demethylated and the methyl group transferred to a methyl-accepting

metabolite if the pathway is to continue to operate. Accordingly, we propose that the

methyl-selenide-derived methyl group is subsequently transferred from the methylated

corrinoid protein to a thiol containing compound such as sulfide. The resulting methyl-

sulfur metabolite could then be excreted or recycled into methionine (or, in the type I MGC

encoders from the Methanococcales, Mlp3 could methylate coenzyme M, making a

presumably small contribution to methane production). Methyl-selenium of various forms

are present in various environments, including (based on dietary considerations) the

human gut (47). It may be that most type I MGCs function to valorize these methyl-

selenium compounds. Nonetheless, we believe an additional explanation is required, as

many organisms (such as *C. ljungdahlii* and *M. voltae*) upregulate their type I MGCs even

when methyl-selenium compounds are not added to growth media. This observation

suggests that there may be an endogenous source of methyl-selenium compounds.

Indeed, it has been suggested and evidentially supported that the selenide generated as

an intermediate in selenoprotein biosynthesis can react non-enzymatically with *S*-

adenosyl-methionine (SAM) (48). This presents a problem for a cell that has a high

demand for selenium metabolism: methyl selenide formation from SAM both wastes

valuable selenium and leads to a potentially toxic dead-end metabolite. The enzymes

encoded by type I MGCs could hypothetically solve this quandary by recycling the methyl

selenide into methionine.

Some organisms, such as *H. thermocellum* encode and express type I MGCs, but lack

genes encoding known selenoenzymes or other indicators of selenium metabolism. On

further inspection, we found that all of the selenium-trait deficient organisms have Mlps3

that fall into a single clade of the Mlp phylogenetic tree (Fig. 3b). We refer this this clade

as the "non-selenium" clade, and suggest that the corresponding type I MGCs are

involved in methyl-sulfur metabolism. In fact, interrogation of the Mlp3 sequences from

Sporomusa ovata indicates that this organism encodes two separate type I MGCs, one

with an Mlp3 from the "non-selenium" clade, and one with an Mlp from elsewhere in the

Mlp phylogenetic tree. It therefore seems that type I MGCs have at least two presumably

distinct functions. One group, which makes up more than 90% of the type I MGCs profiled

in this study, is likely involved in methyl-selenium metabolism, while the other, which

encodes Mlps3 from the non-selenium clade, probably has a different, selenium-

independent function.

At present, evidence from genomic context suggests that the non-selenium MGCs

could be involved in a methionine salvage pathway, defined as a metabolic pathway that

converts methylthio-adenosine (MTA) into methionine (49). MTA is a toxic by-product of

the biosynthesis of key metabolites derived from *S*-adenosylmethionine (SAM) including

polyamines, *N*-acyl serine homolactones, and secondary metabolites (50). Methionine

salvage pathways therefore support sulfur metabolism both by detoxifying a by-product

and preserving the metabolically expensive methylthiol group of MTA (51). The so-called

"universal" methionine salvage pathway is O_2-dependent, and methionine salvage

pathways that operate under anaerobic conditions have only recently begun to be

discovered (49). The anaerobic methionine salvage pathway from *Rhodospirillum rubrum*

was recently shown to dependent on the methylthio-alkane reductase MarHDK system,

homologs of the nitrogenase subunits NifHDK, respectively (34). *MarHDK*-like genes

belonging to the nitrogenase superfamily IV-A group are remarkably prevalent in or near

type I MGCs from the non-selenium clade and when not present in the type I MGC itself,

they are invariably present elsewhere in the genome in question (Fig. 6A). Although the

enzymatic activity of the IV-A group nitrogenase superfamily members is not known

(genetically characterized MarDK are in the IV-C group), the relatively high sequence

identity (~40-50% amino acid identity) of proteins from group IV-A to those in IV-C could

suggest a similar function in the reduction of carbon-sulfur bonds. This is consistent with

their typical genomic context, which usually includes various genes putatively involved in

sulfur metabolism. This suggests that the non-selenium type I MGCs encode enzymatic

machinery for either methionine salvage, sulfur valorization from methyl-sulfide

compounds, or both. This inference is further supported by the c. The *Clostridium*

algoriphilum DSM 16153 MGC (which encodes an Mlp3 from the non-selenium clade)

includes three predicted SAM riboswitches upstream of the MGC, as well as genes

predicted to encoded homocysteine synthase, cysteine synthase, a methionine ABC

transporter, and a *S*-ribosylhomocysteine lyase. *Clostridium* sp. CF012 possesses

another highly suggestive non-selenium MGC, which contains five SAM riboswitches, a

T-box leader, and a near-complete methionine biosynthetic pathway, including a

cobalamin-dependent methionine synthase (MetH).

a

Dendrosporobacter quercicolus DSM 1736

Methylthio-xylulose-1-P methylsulfurase

metY

Geobacter daltonii FRC-32

cysK

Heliobacterium chlorum DSM 3682

Sulfate assimilation　　**Sulfate transporter**

cysI　*cysC*　*aprA*　*aprB*　*cysD*　*cysN*

Hungateiclostridium mesophilum N2K1

metY　　*cysK*　　*ridA-like*　*metC*　*patB*

Moorella thermoacetica DSM 21394

cysK　　*cysK*

Treponema azotonutricium ZAS-9

cysK

Group IV-A Nitrogenase Superfamily

MtaA-like protein (Mlp)　Corrinoid protein　Ram/RACE protein　Sulfur metabolism　MarH-like　MarD/K-like

▬ 1 kb

b

Clostridium sp. CM027

Methionine-γ-lyase

Clostridium aciditolerans DSM 17425

Met salvage

ald2　*mtnK*　*mtnA*

Clostridium algoriphilum DSM 16153

Met transporter　*metY*　　　**Cystine transporter**　　*metB*　*luxS*　*cysK*

SAM riboswitch　*SAM riboswitch*　*SAM riboswitch*　*SAM riboswitch*　　*T-box Leader*

Clostridium sp. CF012

metA　*metF*　　*mccA*　*metH*　*metY*　*hom*

3x SAM riboswitch　*T-box Leader*

MtaA-like protein (Mlp)　Corrinoid protein　Ram/RACE protein　▬ 1 kb

Sulfur metabolism　Transporter

Fig. 6 Type I MGCs from encoding an Mlp3 from the non-selenium clade also encode putative sulfur

and methionine metabolism genes. a Non-selenium type I MGCs associated with group IV-A nitrogenase

superfamily genes and other genes involved in sulfur metabolism. Methylthioribulose-1-P methylsulfurase

is a methionine salvage enzyme originally described in *Rhodospirillum rubrum* (52). **b** Other non-selenium

type I MGCs associated with methionine metabolism. MetY: *O*-acetyl-homoserine sulfhydrylase. CysK:

cysteine synthase. CysI: assimilatory sulfite reductase. CysC: adenylyl-sulfate kinase. AprAB:

phosphoadeninosine-phospho-sulfate reductase subunits A and B. CysND: sulfate adenylyltransferase

subunits 1 and 2. MetC cystathionine beta-lyase. PatB: alternate cystathionine beta-lyase. Ald2: methylthio-

ribulose-1-phosphate aldolase. MtnK: methylthio-ribose kinase. MtnA: methylthio-ribose-1-phosphate

isomerase. MetB: cystathionine gamma-synthase. LuxS: *S*-ribosyl-homocysteine lyase. MetA: homoserine-

O-succinyltransferase. MetF: methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase. MccA: *O*-acetyl-serine dependent

cystathionine beta-synthase. MetH: cobalamin-dependent methionine synthase. Hom: homoserine

dehydrogenase. SAM: *S*-adenosyl-methionine.

As noted above, the sequences of the Mlps (in particular their Zn^{2+}-binding sites) are

compatible with (de)methylation of both methyl-sulfur compounds and of methyl-selenium

compounds. Additionally, the sporadic distribution of type I MGCs across phylogenetic

trees is potentially consistent with a role in methionine salvage, as such pathways are

dispensable under many growth conditions (51) and are known to be not strictly

conserved even in closely related strains. Indeed, many organisms lack a methionine

salvage pathway, and in *E. coli*, methionine salvage is a strain-specific feature (53).

We propose how a type I MGC-encoded methionine salvage pathway could operate

in Fig. 7, considering the simpler case of a type I MGC that encodes only two Mlps, such

as the gene cluster from *H. thermocellum*. We suggest that MTA is metabolized to an

unknown intermediate (R^1-SCH$_3$). One of the Mlps then catalyzes methyl transfer from

R^1-SCH$_3$ to the corrinoid protein. The second Mlp then transfers the methyl group from

the methylated corrinoid protein to a second metabolite, R^2-SH. The sulfur atom of R^1-SH

might be recycled into R^2-SH by an unknown pathway. R^2-SCH_3 could be converted into

methionine, or perhaps might be methionine. The MarHDK-like enzymes may have a role

in such a pathway, generating methyl-sulfide that might serve as the methyl donor for the

MGC methyltransferase system (R^1-SCH_3 with R^1 = H). Alternatively, the MarHDK-like

proteins might serve as part of a second, parallel methionine salvage pathway, or even

as a branch of a topologically bifurcating pathway with two routes to methionine.

Intriguingly, this proposed methionine salvage pathway uses a distinct biochemical

logic from related pathways. Characterized methionine salvage pathways all incorporate

the methylthiol group of MTA intact into methionine (34,49,50,53). In the proposed

methionine salvage pathway involving the type 1 MGCs, the methylthio-ether of MTA is

dismantled into a methyl group which is carried by the corrinoid protein, leaving the free

thiol behind. This pathway architecture theoretically avoids production of volatile methyl-

sulfur intermediates that could be more readily lost from the cell. The proposed role of a

corrinoid cofactor in methionine salvage is also novel. Ultimately, biochemical

characterization of the enzymes encoded by type I MGCs will be required to test this

proposal.

Fig. 7 Type I MGCs likely encode components of corrinoid-dependent selenium salvage or methionine salvage pathways. The vast majority of type I MGC encoders likely use these methyltransferase systems to recycle methylated selenides formed from the non-enzymatic reaction of SAM

with selenol compounds, potentially recycling the methyl group into methionine. A smaller subset of type I

MGC encoders in the ref seq database (about 10%) lack known selenium metabolism traits. We propose

that these MGCs have evolved to participate in a methionine salvage pathway. MTA: 5'-methylthio-

adenosine. His: histidine. A: adenine.

In summary, we have identified a class of widespread gene clusters encoding

components of probable corrinoid *S*- and *Se*-methyltransferase pathways. The type I

MGCs are found in phylogenetically and metabolically diverse microorganisms

encompassing >100 microbial genera. Bioinformatic analyses suggest roles for type I

MGCs in methyl-selenide metabolism and/or methionine salvage, setting the stage for

experimental characterization. Ultimately, this previously unappreciated example of

methanogen specific enzymes encoded outside of the archaea could provide insights into

the vitally important fields of sulfur and selenium cycling.

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