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Characterization of *aliA* and *aliB* deletion mutants reveals a dominant role of

AliA in *Haloferax volcanii* lipoprotein lipidation

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ABSTRACT

Protein lipidation is a widespread strategy for anchoring proteins to cellular membranes across all domains of life, yet the mechanisms underlying this process in archaea remain poorly understood. Recently, the first archaeal enzymes involved in lipobox-containing protein (lipoprotein) biogenesis, AliA and AliB, were identified and characterized in the model archaeon *Haloferax volcanii*. Although these paralogs share significant sequence similarity, distinct deletion phenotypes suggest differences in their substrate specificity and function. Here, we employed large-scale Triton X-114 fractionation followed by quantitative proteomics and lipid-specific mass spectrometry to systematically analyze AliA- and AliB-dependent lipoprotein lipidation. Deletion of *aliA* affected substantially more lipoproteins in *Hfx. volcanii* than deletion of *aliB*, markedly diminishing their TX-114 enrichment—indicating reduced hydrophobicity—and abolishing thioether-linked archaeol modification. This establishes AliA as the primary enzyme responsible for archaeal lipoprotein lipidation. In contrast, deletion of *aliB* affected only a small subset of lipoproteins and did not significantly reduce thioether-linked archaeol levels. In addition to defining distinct and non-redundant roles for AliA and AliB, this study provides the first large-scale experimental validation of predicted archaeal lipoproteins and identifies candidate components of the archaeal lipoprotein biogenesis pathway, substantially advancing mechanistic understanding and enabling improved lipoprotein prediction in this previously underexplored field.

INTRODUCTION

Protein lipidation is a widely conserved phenomenon observed across all domains of life[1–4]. It significantly increases the hydrophobicity of proteins, thereby influencing their structures, stability, subcellular localization, enzymatic activities, and interactions with membranes and other proteins. Extensive studies in eukaryotes and bacteria have revealed a highly diverse landscape of lipidation types, each mediated by distinct enzymes and characterized by different conserved motifs, lipid anchors, biochemical properties, and biological functions[1–3,5]. In Archaea, a domain of life with important implications for eukaryogenesis[6–8], ecology[9,10], and biotechnology[11,12], protein lipidation exhibits distinct features compared to the other two domains. While two lipidation types commonly seen in eukaryotes and/or bacteria, GPI anchoring[13] and acylation[14–16], have also been reported in archaea, the predominant form of archaeal protein lipidation is

expected to be prenylation[17–24], the addition of isoprenoid-derived moieties to proteins. This preference is

likely attributed to the unique composition of archaeal membrane lipids, which are composed predominantly

of isoprenoid-based alkyl chains ether-linked to glycerol-1-phosphate backbones[25–27], in contrast to the fatty

acyl chains ester-linked to glycerol-3-phosphate backbones in eukaryotes and most bacteria[28–30].

Two major classes of prenylated proteins have been reported in archaea: the C-terminally lipidated ArtA

(archaeasortase A) substrates[20,21,23,24,31] and N-terminally lipidated proteins that contain a signature lipobox

motif ($[L/V/I]^{-3}$ $[A/S/T/V/I]^{-2}$ $[G/A/S]^{-1}$ $[C]^{+1}$)[4,32]. These lipobox-containing proteins are also widespread in

bacteria and are commonly referred to as bacterial lipoproteins in the literature[33,34]. In bacteria, lipoprotein

biogenesis begins with the transport of lipoprotein precursors to cell membranes either in an unfolded state

via the general secretory (Sec) pathway or in a folded state via the twin-arginine translocation (Tat)

pathway[35]. The maturation of bacterial lipoproteins is subsequently carried out through a highly conserved

three-step process. First, prolipoprotein diacylglyceryl transferase (Lgt) catalyzes the covalent attachment

of a membrane lipid moiety to the lipobox cysteine[36]. Next, the lipoprotein signal peptidase (Lsp) cleaves

the signal peptide N-terminal to the modified cysteine[37]. Finally, in some lipoproteins, the α-amino group of

the cysteine undergoes further lipidation by lipoprotein N-acyltransferase (Lnt)[38], lipoprotein *N*-acyl

transferase system A and B (LnsAB)[39], or lipoprotein intramolecular transacylase (Lit)[40]. A substantial

fraction of archaeal proteins contain a canonical lipobox motif with an essential cysteine and are therefore

considered to be archaeal lipoproteins[4,41]. However, despite this widespread genomic signature, only a

small number of predicted archaeal lipoproteins have been experimentally confirmed[4,42–44]. Moreover, no

homologs of the bacterial lipoprotein biosynthetic enzymes have been reported in archaea, consistent with

the substantial differences in membrane lipid composition between the two domains.

Recently, by combining bioinformatic analyses with biochemical characterization, we identified two

paralogous proteins, AliA and AliB, as the first known components of the archaeal lipoprotein biogenesis

pathway[43]. While AliB is restricted to Haloarchaea, AliA is widely conserved across archaeal species.

Deletion of *aliA* and/or *aliB* in the model archaeon *Haloferax volcanii* impaired lipoprotein biogenesis and

caused diverse physiological defects, including slower growth, decreased motility, and altered cell shape.

Deletion of both genes resulted in a complete loss of thioether-linked archaeol modification in lipoprotein

extracts, demonstrating AliA and/or AliB are essential for archaeal protein prenylation. Notably, ΔaliA

showed more severe defects than ΔaliB in both lipoprotein biogenesis and cell physiology, and the defect

of one could not be complemented by overexpressing the other, indicating different enzymatic activities of

the two paralogs. One possible explanation is that AliA serves as the primary enzyme for forming the

thioether-linked archaeol, similar to the case of model bacterium *Mycobacterium smegmatis*, where one

Lgt homolog is substantially more active than the other[45,46]. This is further supported by the observation

that two conserved arginine residues in AliA correlate with Lgt arginine residues known to be critical for

binding to negatively charged membrane lipids[47,48], as revealed by visual structural comparison[43], whereas

these positions are replaced by two histidines in AliB[43]. Alternatively, AliA may act on a broader set of

substrates than AliB, even if both possess comparable catalytic activity.

Here, we aimed to uncover mechanisms underlying the phenotypic differences between ΔaliA and ΔaliB.

Using large-scale Triton X-114 extraction and subsequent mass spectrometry (MS), we systematically

assessed the lipidation status of predicted lipoproteins in wild-type and mutant *Hfx. volcanii* strains. This

approach not only resolved the distinct substrate specificities of AliA and AliB, but also substantially

expanded the catalog of archaeal proteins experimentally validated as lipoproteins. In parallel, lipid-specific

mass spectrometry revealed a marked reduction in thioether-linked archaeol modifications in ΔaliA, but not

in ΔaliB. Together, these findings establish AliA as the dominant contributor to lipoprotein lipidation in *Hfx.*

volcanii.

RESULTS

Triton X-114 extraction enriched hydrophobic proteins in *Hfx. volcanii*

To determine substrate specificities of AliA and AliB in *Hfx. volcanii*, we set out to examine the lipidation

status of lipobox-containing proteins (i.e. predicted lipoproteins, hereafter referred to as lipoproteins) and

identify those with impaired lipidation in ΔaliA, ΔaliB, and ΔaliA/ΔaliB. Previously, we successfully used

Triton X-114 (TX-114), a detergent widely used for extracting hydrophobic proteins in eukaryotes[49–51] and

bacteria[52–54], to demonstrate lipidation of two archaeal lipoproteins[43]. TX-114 effectively separated the

lipidated proteoforms in the detergent phase (TX phase) from their non-lipidated counterparts in the

 aqueous phase (AQ phase). However, the efficiency of TX-114 for isolating archaeal lipoproteins in bulk

 has not been established so far. Therefore, we first performed TX-114 extraction in wild-type *Hfx. volcanii*

 (strain H53) and analyzed the proteome of the two phases via label-free, quantitative proteomics. About

 64% of the 4222 predicted proteins encoded by *Hfx. volcanii* were quantified across the TX and AQ phases,

 a coverage in line with the most comprehensive single dataset in the Archaeal Proteome Project (ArcPP)

 (see Supplementary Fig.1 for a comparison of peptide and protein identifications)[55,56].

Supplementary Fig. 1. Proteome coverage comparison between this study and datasets within the Archaeal Proteome Project. Venn diagrams illustrating the overlap between **(a)** protein and **(b)** peptide identifications for this study and for the Archaeal Proteome Project (ArcPP, v. 1.4.0)[55]. Bar plots showing the number of identified **(c)** proteins and **(d)** peptides for this study and for each dataset in the ArcPP. The same filtering criteria were applied for all datasets (≤1% PEP on the peptide spectrum match level (PSM), ≤1% FDR on the peptide level, ≤0.5% FDR on the protein level, and at least 2 PSMs for each level). Notably,

out of the 30 proteins that were uniquely identified in this study, 18 are predicted to have ≥2 TM domains,

and 2 are predicted to be processed by a prepilin peptidase. These results indicate that fractionation with

Triton X-114 is beneficial for achieving high proteome coverage, including a high coverage of membrane

proteins. The dataset with the second-highest number of protein identifications and highest number of

peptide identifications (PXD021874), published later than the original ArcPP study, used subcellular

fractionation (cytosol, membrane, and culture supernatant) and two different enzymes for protein digestion

(trypsin and GluC)[56]. It should also be noted that an additional large-scale proteomics study[57] was published

while this manuscript was in preparation, achieving the highest protein and peptide coverage to date using

a different protein extraction and mass spectrometry workflow; the implementation of this recent dataset

into the ArcPP is pending.

We next examined the distribution of specific protein groups in the TX and AQ phases by comparing their

relative abundances. As a positive control, proteins with two or more predicted transmembrane domains

(hereafter referred to as ≥2 TM) were highly enriched in the TX phase (median $\log_2$FC of 3.71, Fig. 1a,b).

In contrast, the vast majority of predicted cytoplasmic proteins (hereafter referred to as Cyt, defined as

proteins lacking predicted transmembrane domains and secretion signals), as a negative control, were

more abundant in the AQ phase (median $\log_2$FC of -1.1, Fig. 1a,b). Consistent with the overall high

proteome coverage, 81% (87) of the 108 lipoproteins predicted by SignalP 6.0 with ≥90% confidence

(Supplementary Data 1) were quantified and were highly enriched in the TX phase, in line with the

anticipated behavior. Specifically, 72 (83%) of the 87 quantified lipoproteins were more abundant in the TX

phase (Fig. 1a), of which 13 were detected exclusively in the TX phase while 59 were strongly enriched

(Supplementary Table 1). Among lipoproteins showing significant abundance differences between the two

phases, the median $\log_2$FC was 4.93 (Fig. 1b), which was significantly higher (p-value < 10^{-10}) than that of

Cyt proteins ($\log_2$FC = - 1.10) and even slightly higher (p-value = 0.055) than that of ≥2 TM proteins ($\log_2$FC

= 3.71). Together, these results establish TX-114 extraction as an effective method to enrich hydrophobic

proteins, providing a foundation for its application in analyzing lipoproteins across strains.

Fig. 1. TX-114 efficiently enriched hydrophobic proteins in wild-type *Hfx. volcanii* (strain H53). (a)
The stacked bar graph indicates the percentage of proteins that were quantified only in the TX-114 (TX) or
aqueous (AQ) phase, or enriched in either phase, or showing no significant difference between the phases.
Percentages for each predicted protein group are normalized to the total number of quantified proteins
within that group. ≥2 TM, proteins with at least two predicted transmembrane domains; Cyt, cytoplasmic
proteins; Lipo, lipoproteins. **(b)** Log$_2$ fold-changes (FC) of protein abundance in TX versus AQ phase in
wild-type *Hfx. volcanii* for different predicted protein groups are depicted as boxplots. Only proteins with
significant abundance differences between the two phases are represented in the figure. Boxplots show
the median (center line between boxes), interquartile range (boxes), as well as the range of data points
within 1.5x of the interquartile range (whiskers).

**Supplementary Table 1. Protein counts by predicted group and status in the mass spectrometry
analysis of detergent (TX) and aqueous (AQ) phase in wild-type *Hfx. volcanii* (strain H53).** The
numbers of proteins that were quantified only in the TX or AQ phase, or enriched in either phase, or showing
no significant difference between the phases are listed. "Total" corresponds to the numbers of proteins for
each predicted group within the whole theoretical proteome. ≥2 TM, proteins with at least two predicted
transmembrane domains; Cyt, cytoplasmic proteins; Lipo, lipoproteins.

Category	Total	Quantified	Only in TX	Enriched in TX	Only in AQ	Enriched in AQ	No significant difference
≥2 TM	784	384	147	187	5	5	40
Cyt	3112	2045	22	397	107	1190	326
Lipo	108	87	13	59	0	2	13

AliA deletion significantly reduced overall lipoprotein hydrophobicity

We next analyzed the protein profiles in the TX phase and AQ phase of ΔaliA, ΔaliB, and ΔaliA/ΔaliB.

Although the number of quantified lipoproteins was comparable across all strains (Fig. 2a, Supplementary

Table 2), the fraction of lipoproteins enriched or only quantified in the TX phase dropped from 82% (72 of

88) and 83% (73 of 88) in the wild type and ΔaliB, respectively, to 44% (39 of 88) in

ΔaliA/ΔaliB and ΔaliA, respectively (Supplementary Table 2). Accordingly, lipoproteins in the aliA deletion

strains were increasingly enriched in the AQ phase or showed no significant difference between the two

phases (Fig. 2a, Supplementary Table 2). While around 40% of lipoproteins remained associated with the

TX phase in aliA deletion strains, this distribution does not necessarily indicate lipidation, as non-lipidated

lipoproteins may still associate with the TX phase via the hydrophobic domain (H-domain) of their uncleaved

signal peptides. Indeed, the median $\log_2$FC of lipoproteins showing significant abundance differences

between the two phases decreased from 4.93 in the wild type to 1.02 in ΔaliA/ΔaliB and 1.10 in ΔaliA,

reflecting an approximately 16-fold reduction in TX phase enrichment relative to the AQ phase, and thus a

significant decrease in lipoprotein hydrophobicity (Fig. 2b, p-values < 10^{-10} for both strains compared to the

wild type). In contrast, ΔaliB showed no significant change in $\log_2$FC (5.34 versus 4.93 in wild type, p-value

= 0.84, Fig. 2b), suggesting that AliB has a much narrower substrate range than AliA or may function in

processes other than lipidation. It should also be noted that no significant change in the TX/AQ distribution

was observed for proteins with ≥2 TM domains in any of the mutant strains, indicating that the reduced

protein hydrophobicity in Δ*aliA* and Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* is specific to lipoproteins (Fig. 2b).

Fig. 2. Deletion of *aliA*, but not *aliB*, significantly reduced the number of TX-enriched lipoproteins.

(a) Number of lipoproteins quantified only in the TX-114 (TX) or aqueous (AQ) phase, or enriched in either

phase, or showing no significant difference between the phases, across different strains. "Not quantified

(this strain)" corresponds to the number of lipoproteins that have been quantified in other strains but not in

the respective strain. **(b)** Log$_2$ fold-changes (FC) of protein abundance in TX versus AQ phase in the

analyzed strains for lipoproteins and ≥2 TM proteins (having at least two predicted transmembrane

domains). Only proteins with significant abundance differences are represented in the figure. HVO_1705 is

a verified Tat-transported lipoprotein[43]. Boxplots show the median (center line between boxes), interquartile

range (boxes), as well as the range of data points within 1.5x of the interquartile range (whiskers).

Supplementary Table 2. Counts of *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins by enrichment status across strains.

The numbers of proteins that were quantified only in the TX or AQ phase, or enriched in either phase, or

showing no significant difference between the phases, or not quantified in the respective strain, are listed.

"Total" refers to the number of lipoproteins quantified across all strains. "Not quantified (this strain)" refers

to numbers of proteins that were detected in the whole MS dataset included in this study but were not

quantified in the specific strain shown.

Strains	Total	Quantified	Only in TX	Enriched in TX	Only in AQ	Enriched in AQ	No significant difference	Not quantified (this strain)

WT	88	87	13	59	0	2	13	1
ΔaliA/ΔaliB	88	83	8	31	2	11	31	5
ΔaliA	88	87	9	28	5	10	35	1
ΔaliB	88	88	17	56	0	1	14	0

Large-scale proteomic validation of the predicted *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteome

188 While several studies have predicted the prevalence and abundance of lipoproteins in archaea[4,41,43], only

189 a limited number of predicted lipoproteins have been experimentally validated[4,42–44]. To confirm additional

190 lipoproteins, we applied a three-step validation strategy. First, we selected predicted lipoproteins that, in

191 the wild-type sample, were significantly enriched in the TX phase compared to the AQ phase. From this

192 subset, we identified proteins showing a significant reduction (at least 1.5-fold) of TX phase abundance in

193 any of the three *ali* mutants compared to the wild type (defined as log2FC of $TX_{mut}:TX_{WT} < -0.58$). Third, we

194 excluded proteins that also exhibited reduced abundance in mutant AQ phase, thereby removing those

195 non-lipoproteins with globally decreased expression in *ali* mutants and minimizing false positives. Together,

196 this pattern was interpreted as indicative of reduced protein hydrophobicity in *ali* mutants and as supporting

197 evidence for lipoprotein identity.

198 To validate this approach, we first assessed how previously verified lipoproteins performed in this analytical

199 workflow. Four previously confirmed *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins met these criteria (Supplementary Data 2),

200 supporting the robustness of the method. This included HVO_1245, which is predicted as cytoplasmic by

201 SignalP 6.0 and would have been excluded based solely on prediction; however, our MS data supports its

202 lipoprotein identity, highlighting the potential of this method for improving prediction tools. In line with the

203 reliability of our approach, HVO_1808, a predicted Sec lipoprotein previously shown to be processed even

204 when its lipobox cysteine was mutated[4], did not pass the filter and displayed similar TX phase enrichment

205 across all strains, suggesting its SignalP 6.0 lipoprotein prediction is likely a false positive (Supplementary

206 Data 2).

207 Having validated the workflow, we applied it to all 88 predicted lipoproteins quantified across the dataset.

208 After applying the three selection criteria, 51 proteins remained, supporting their predictions as lipoproteins

(Fig. 3a). Most (40 out of 51) showed reduced hydrophobicity in strains lacking *aliA* ($\Delta aliA$ and $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$),

but not in $\Delta aliB$ (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Table 3), indicating that AliB is involved in the lipidation of

substantially fewer *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins than AliA. This group includes HVO_1705, a previously

characterized lipoprotein that showed impaired lipidation in $\Delta aliA$ and $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$ but remained largely

unaffected in $\Delta aliB$[43] (Fig. 2B). In addition, five lipoproteins were uniquely affected in $\Delta aliA$ and three in

$\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$ (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Table 3), suggesting minor differences between the two mutants. Of

the three AliB substrates identified, one was affected only in $\Delta aliB$ (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Table 3).

Because the three-step workflow required statistical comparisons between TX and AQ phases in the wild

type and between TX phases of wild type and mutant strains, proteins had to be quantified in all relevant

fractions to meet the significance criteria. Consequently, proteins with missing values in either the AQ phase

of the wild type or the TX phase of the mutant could not be evaluated in the initial analysis. However, such

missing values are themselves consistent with strong phase enrichment and therefore consistent with

lipoprotein behavior. We therefore applied extended criteria to capture these cases, resulting in the

identification of seven additional validated lipoproteins (Fig. 3b, Supplementary Table 3). In addition, one

protein included in Fig. 3b had already been identified in Fig. 3a, as it was detected in $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$ in the

first analysis but met the extended detection criteria only for $\Delta aliA$ in this subset (Supplementary Table 3).

Among the eight proteins, six exhibited reduced hydrophobicity in both $\Delta aliA$ and $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$, while two

were affected only in $\Delta aliA$ (Fig. 3b, Supplementary Table 3). Together, these results significantly expand

the set of validated *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins from fewer than ten to over fifty and further underscore the

marked difference in lipidation capacity between AliA and AliB.

Fig. 3. Large-scale identification of lipoproteins through their reduced TX-phase abundance in *ali* deletion strains. (a) Numbers of lipoproteins that were enriched in wild-type TX phase and exhibited at least a 1.5-fold reduction in TX phase abundance in Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, Δ*aliA*, or Δ*aliB* compared to the wild type, but were not significantly decreased in the corresponding AQ phase. These proteins are considered validated lipoproteins. **(b)** Numbers of lipoproteins identified using the extended criteria, including those not quantified in the wild-type AQ phase or the mutant TX phase.

Supplementary Table 3. Lipoproteins validated through their reduced TX-phase abundance in *ali* deletion strains. Predicted lipoproteins were considered validated if they were enriched in the TX phase of wild type and showed at least a 1.5-fold reduction in TX phase abundance in Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, Δ*aliA*, or Δ*aliB* compared to the wild type, but were not significantly decreased in the corresponding AQ phase. Proteins are grouped based on whether they were quantified in all relevant conditions for comparison (Fig. 3a) or showed missing values in either the wild-type AQ phase or the mutant TX phase (Fig. 3b). *HVO_B0034 was identified in both analyses but met the detection criteria only for Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* in the Fig. 3a analysis and only for Δ*aliA* in the Fig. 3b analysis.

Proteins quantified in all relevant conditions (Fig. 3a)		
Category	**Count**	**Proteins**
Decreased in ∆*aliA* and **∆*aliA*/∆*aliB***	40	HVO_0062, HVO_0447, HVO_0530, HVO_0628, HVO_1007, HVO_1240, HVO_1241, HVO_1242, HVO_1244, HVO_1401, HVO_1477, HVO_1603, HVO_1705, HVO_1888, HVO_2094, HVO_2153, HVO_2316, HVO_2375, HVO_2432, HVO_2607, HVO_2695, HVO_2798, HVO_A0181, HVO_A0283, HVO_A0324, HVO_A0362, HVO_A0428, HVO_A0611, HVO_A0619, HVO_A0620, HVO_A0623, HVO_A0627, HVO_B0021, HVO_B0047, HVO_B0082, HVO_B0093, HVO_B0138, HVO_B0292, HVO_B0328, HVO_C0075
Decreased in ∆*aliA* only	5	HVO_1673, HVO_1806, HVO_2651, HVO_B0106, HVO_B0198
Decreased in ∆*aliA*/∆*aliB* **only**	3	HVO_B0034, HVO_B0139, HVO_B0318
Decreased in ∆*aliA*/∆*aliB*, **∆*aliA*, and ∆*aliB***	2	HVO_0807, HVO_A0380
Decreased in ∆*aliB* only	1	HVO_B0184
Proteins missing in either WT AQ phase or the mutant TX phase (Fig. 3b)		
Category	**Count**	**Proteins**

Decreased in ∆*aliA* and ∆*aliA*/∆*aliB*	6	HVO_1119, HVO_1144, HVO_2286, HVO_A0549, HVO_B0144, HVO_B0228
Decreased in ∆*aliA* only	2	HVO_A0557, HVO_B0034*

Localization and abundance of the Tat lipoprotein HVO_1705 differ between ∆*aliA* and ∆*aliB*

Building on the global differences observed across the lipoproteome, we next focused on an individual

lipoprotein to further explore the distinct roles of AliA and AliB. Current proteomic data indicate that deletion

of *aliA*, but not *aliB*, significantly affects the lipidation of the lipoprotein HVO_1705 (Fig. 2B, Supplementary

Table 3). This is consistent with previous Western blot analyses, which suggest that deletion of *aliB* has

only a minor effect on HVO_1705 lipidation but a more pronounced effect on its signal peptide cleavage[43].

Together, these observations highlight HVO_1705 as a suitable model for dissecting AliA- and AliB-

dependent steps in lipoprotein biogenesis. We therefore attempted to purify HVO_1705 for direct MS

analysis of both peptides and lipid modifications. Although purification was limited by low protein abundance

and purity, during the process, we observed pronounced differences in its cellular localization among strains.

Cell fractionation of strains overexpressing HVO_1705 showed that the protein was predominantly

membrane-associated in the wild type (Fig. 4a). In contrast, in both ∆*aliA*/∆*aliB* and ∆*aliA* strains,

HVO_1705 was primarily detected in the cytoplasmic fraction and exhibited reduced overall abundance

(Fig. 4a,b). These observations suggest that *aliA* deletion either impairs membrane targeting of

overexpressed HVO_1705 or triggers the clearance of non-lipidated HVO_1705 from both the membrane

and cytoplasm via an unidentified quality-control mechanism. Conversely, in the ∆*aliB* strain, the majority

of HVO_1705 remained membrane-associated, including both the mature form and the presumed lipidated

but non-cleaved intermediate form previously reported[43]. This pattern further confirmed that AliB contributes

more prominently to signal peptide cleavage than to lipidation of HVO_1705. As a control, we examined

the Tat-translocated non-lipoprotein HVO_0844, which is membrane-anchored by a C-terminal

transmembrane segment rather than covalent lipid modification. Its membrane localization was unaffected

by deletion of *aliA* or *aliB* (Fig. 4c,d), confirming that the localization effect observed in the mutants is

specific to lipoproteins. Collectively, these results further highlight the distinct roles of AliA and AliB and

suggest that *aliA* deletion may additionally reduce lipoprotein abundance through a mechanism that

remains to be elucidated.

Fig. 4. Deletion of *aliA*, but not *aliB*, led to a significantly reduced amount of membrane-associated

HVO_1705, while the Tat-transported transmembrane protein HVO_0844 was unaffected by either

deletion. Western blot of overexpressed myc-tagged HVO_1705 in **(a)** wild type, Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, **(b)** Δ*aliA*, and

Δ*aliB* in different cell fractions across strains. Western blot of overexpressed myc-tagged HVO_0844 in **(c)**

wild type, Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, **(d)** Δ*aliA*, and Δ*aliB* in different cell fractions across strains. Std, SeeBlue Plus2 pre-

stained protein standard. W, whole cell lysates. M, membrane fraction. C, cytoplasmic fraction. Precursors

(p) and mature proteins (m) are labeled accordingly. The asterisk indicates a likely degradation product of

HVO_1705, as previously reported by Giménez et al[42]. The results are representative of two independent

experiments. The original blots for panels a-d are included in the Source Data file.

AliA is the main enzyme for thioether-linked archaeol modification of *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins

The results presented above focused on dissecting the differences between AliA and AliB using protein-

based readouts. To complement these findings, we next examined their roles by directly analyzing lipid

modifications across different strains. Previously, we showed that the TX-114 extract from the wild type

contained methylthio-archaeol, the cleavage product of thioether-linked archaeol following methyl iodide

treatment, whereas this modification was absent in $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$[43]. To determine which enzyme was

responsible for this phenotype, we performed liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis

of lipids isolated from TX-114 extracts of $\Delta aliA$ and $\Delta aliB$ strains. Deletion of $aliA$ alone resulted in the

complete absence of methylthio-archaeol, while deletion of $aliB$ did not reduce the level of thioether-linked

archaeol modification. This result correlates well with our observation that deletion of $aliA$ reduced the

hydrophobicity of substantially more *Hfx. volcanii* lipoproteins than deletion of $aliB$ (Fig. 3). Thus, the loss

of this lipid modification in the $\Delta aliA/\Delta aliB$ strain[43] is primarily attributable to $aliA$ deletion, underscoring the

essential role of AliA in mediating this lipid modification (Fig. 5a). Importantly, the absence of thioether-

linked archaeol modification in $\Delta aliA$ was not due to impaired archaeol synthesis, as total lipid profiles were

comparable across all strains, including the wild type (Fig. 5b).

Unexpectedly, while deletion of $aliB$ did not reduce the level of thioether-linked archaeol modification, it

resulted in a slight increase in methylthio-archaeol levels compared to the wild type (p-value = 0.077, Fig.

5a). To resolve this, we quantified the AliA abundance in the analyzed strains and detected an increased

AliA abundance in the absence of AliB. Quantitative PCR (Supplementary Fig. 2, p-value = 0.174) and

proteomics data both indicated increased AliA levels in $\Delta aliB$. Specifically, the $\log_2 FC$ of $\Delta aliB$ TX phase

versus wild-type TX phase was 1.11 (adjusted p-value = 0.07) and 1.60 in the AQ phase (adjusted p-value

= 0.04; see Data Availability for more raw data), pointing to potential functional crosstalk between AliA and

AliB.

Fig. 5. Deletion of *aliA*, rather than *aliB*, led to the complete absence of thioether-linked archaeol in
lipoprotein extracts. (a) Bar chart showing the average mass of methylthio-archaeol recovered from
methyl iodide treated lipoproteins per milligram of starting protein, based on three biological replicates.
Error bars represent standard deviations. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed unpaired
t-test assuming unequal variances (Welch's t-test) for comparison between the wild type and Δ*aliB* (p =
0.077). **(b)** As a control, the total lipids of each strain were analyzed. Representative merged extracted ion
chromatograms (EICs, m/z values listed in Methods) show comparable relative abundances of saturated
and unsaturated diether core lipids (archaeols) in base hydrolyzed biomass from the wild type, Δ*aliA*, Δ*aliB*,
and Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Quantitative PCR showed a slight but non-significant increase in *aliA*
expression in Δ*aliB* compared to the wild type (WT) (p-value = 0.174), Bar height represents the mean
gene expression ratio normalized to an internal control gene. Error bars indicate standard deviation from
three biological replicates. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed unpaired t-test assuming
unequal variances (Welch's t-test) for comparison between the log-transformed gene expression ratios of
wild type and Δ*aliB*.

Downstream effects of *aliA* and *aliB* deletion beyond lipoproteins

Given that lipoproteins participate in diverse cellular processes (Supplementary Data 1), disruption of
lipoprotein biogenesis is expected to exert pleiotropic effects extending beyond lipoproteins themselves.
Identifying non-lipoproteins whose abundance changes upon *aliA* or *aliB* deletion may therefore provide
insight into the molecular basis of the phenotypes observed in Δ*ali* mutants. Moreover, such proteins may
represent previously unrecognized components of the archaeal lipoprotein biogenesis pathway. We
therefore examined the impact of *aliA* and *aliB* deletion on non-lipoproteins associated with either the TX

phase or the AQ phase. TX-associated proteins were defined based on TX vs AQ comparisons within each

strain. Proteins exhibiting significant finite $\log_2$ fold enrichment in TX relative to AQ (i.e., detected in both

phases but enriched in TX) are shown in Fig. 6a–c (Supplementary Data 3-5). In contrast, proteins detected

exclusively in the TX phase—resulting in infinite $\log_2$ fold changes due to missing data in the AQ phase—

are shown in Fig. 6d–f (Supplementary Data 6-8). Because these latter comparisons rely on

presence/absence behavior and missing values, they are less quantitatively robust than finite enrichment

ratios, but they nevertheless highlight strongly phase-specific proteins.

Across all comparisons, a substantial set of non-lipoproteins exhibited significant abundance differences

between wild-type and mutant *Hfx. volcanii* strains (Fig. 6, Supplementary Fig. 3, Supplementary Data 3-

9). The most pronounced differences were observed in the TX phase (Fig. 6, Supplementary Data 3-8),

whereas the AQ phase displayed comparatively fewer and generally more moderate changes

(Supplementary Fig. 3, Supplementary Data 9). This pattern indicates that disruption of Ali-dependent

lipidation primarily perturbs the membrane-associated proteome rather than the soluble protein pool.

Among the TX-associated proteins, the archaellin subunit protein ArlA1 (HVO_1210) was enriched in the

detergent phase of all strains but showed reduced abundance in the TX phase of the mutants compared to

the wild type (Fig. 6a-c), providing a molecular explanation for their motility defects previously reported[43].

In addition, a large number of transport proteins were more abundant in the TX phase of the mutant strains

than in the wild type (Fig. 6), likely reflecting a downstream response to impaired lipidation of ABC substrate-

binding proteins, many of which are predicted to be lipoproteins (Supplementary Data 1).

Previously, we identified a comprehensive set of arCOGs (Archaeal Clusters of Orthologous Genes)[58,59]

that most frequently co-occur with lipoproteins as promising candidates for archaeal lipoprotein biogenesis

components, including arCOG02177 (*aliA*)[43]. We therefore assessed whether the top 25 arCOGs from the

list were differentially represented between mutant and wild-type strains. Among these, HVO_A0045

(arCOG01331), encoding an HtpX-like protease, showed reduced abundance in Δ*aliA* when taking only

finite $\log_2$ fold changes into account (Fig. 6b). When proteins that were only detected in the TX phase were

also considered, decreased abundance of HVO_A0045 was additionally observed in Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* and Δ*aliB*

strains (Fig. 6d,f). Bacterial HtpX homologs are implicated in the degradation of misfolded envelope proteins

and undergo self-cleavage upon membrane perturbation, suggesting that altered abundance of this

protease may reflect changes in envelope protein homeostasis following disruption of Ali-dependent

lipidation. Furthermore, when proteins only detected in the TX phase were included in the analysis,

HVO_2870 (arCOG02642), a predicted autoinducer-2 exporter (AI-2E) family protein, exhibited increased

abundance specifically in the Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* strain. Members of the AI-2E protein family have been reported

to function either in exporting the quorum sensing molecule autoinducer-2[60] or as Na$^+$ (Li$^+$)/H$^+$ antiporter[61].

Whether the altered abundance of these proteins reflects direct consequences of Ali pathway disruption,

indirect effects stemming from impaired lipoprotein maturation and associated cellular stress, or loss of

function of individual lipoproteins remains to be resolved. Finally, we analyzed the abundance of ArtA

substrates and ArtA itself in the mutants. No significant differences were detected for either, suggesting

that the ArtA-dependent prenylation pathway operates largely independent of the AliA/AliB-dependent

lipoprotein lipidation pathway in *Hfx. volcanii*.

Fig. 6. Deletion of *aliA* and *aliB* predominantly perturbs TX-associated non-lipoproteins. Volcano

plots show proteins in the TX phase of (a,d) Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, (b,e) Δ*aliA*, and (c,f) Δ*aliB* compared to wild-type

Hfx. volcanii. Panels a–c display proteins exhibiting significant finite $\log_2$ fold enrichment in TX relative to

AQ within each strain (i.e., detected in both fractions but enriched in TX). Panels d–f display proteins

detected exclusively in the TX phase of at least one strain, resulting in infinite $\log_2$ fold changes due to

absence from the AQ phase. Proteins with $|\log_2 FC| > 1$ and adjusted p-value < 0.05 are considered

significantly differentially abundant. Selected groups of differentially abundant proteins are highlighted in

distinct colors as indicated.

Supplementary Fig. 3. Deletion of *aliA* and *aliB* induces comparatively modest changes in AQ-

associated non-lipoproteins. Volcano plots show proteins in the AQ phase of (a,d) Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*, (b,e) Δ*aliA*,

and (c,f) Δ*aliB* compared to wild-type *Hfx. volcanii*. Panels a–c display AQ-associated proteins exhibiting

significant finite $\log_2$ fold enrichment in AQ relative to TX within each strain (i.e., detected in both phases).

Panels d–f display proteins detected exclusively in the AQ phase of at least one strain, resulting in negative

infinite $\log_2$ fold changes due to absence from the TX phase. Proteins with $|\log_2\text{FC}| > 1$ and adjusted p-

value < 0.05 are considered significantly differentially abundant. No significantly differentially abundant

proteins were detected in panels d-f. Selected functional groups of differentially abundant proteins are

highlighted in distinct colors as indicated.

DISCUSSION

Protein lipidation occurs across all domains of life, yet the underlying mechanisms in archaea remain poorly

understood. Recently, we identified AliA and AliB as the first archaeal enzymes involved in lipoprotein

biogenesis, and showed their involvement in archaeal lipoprotein lipidation[43]. Although the two proteins are

paralogs, their functions are not redundant. Deletion of *aliA* or *aliB* in *Hfx. volcanii* led to distinct phenotypes

in both lipoprotein biogenesis and cell physiology, and cross-complementation did not restore the defects,

indicating that the two enzymes possess different enzymatic activities.

In this study, we further explored the functional differences between AliA and AliB by analyzing the lipidation

status of predicted lipoproteins in Δ*aliA*, Δ*aliB*, and Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*. We employed a large-scale Triton X-114

extraction, which enabled efficient separation of hydrophobic (TX phase, detergent phase) and hydrophilic

(AQ phase, aqueous phase) proteins from large culture samples. Subsequent MS of both fractions yielded

high proteome coverage, comparable to the most comprehensive single dataset in the Archaeal Proteome

Project (Supplementary Fig. 1a,b), underscoring TX-114 extraction as a powerful method for archaeal

proteomic analysis, particularly for enhancing the identification of membrane proteins. Overall, TX-114

extraction resulted in the expected separation of hydrophobic and hydrophilic proteins (Fig. 1a,b),

supporting its suitability for large-scale archaeal proteomic analysis. At the same time, a subset of predicted

lipoproteins and transmembrane proteins showed enrichment in the AQ phase, while some predicted

cytoplasmic proteins were detected in the TX phase. Such fractionation patterns likely reflect a combination

of imperfect predictions, minor cross-contamination, protein–protein interactions influencing phase

partitioning, or lower-than-expected hydrophobicity of specific lipid modifications or signal peptide H-

domains.

This approach also enabled the large-scale validation of archaeal lipoprotein predictions for the first time.

In total, 51 of 88 predicted lipoproteins quantified across all strains showed reduced abundance in the TX

phase - but not in the AQ phase – in at least one mutant (Fig. 3a), verifying their identity as lipoproteins.

Three previously experimentally confirmed lipoproteins were included in this group (Supplementary Data

2). In addition, the MS data corroborated earlier experimental findings for the predicted lipoprotein

HVO_1808 (Supplementary Data 2), indicating that the lipobox prediction might be false positive and that

the protein likely is not a true lipoprotein, further demonstrating the robustness of this validation strategy.

Considering that current archaeal lipoprotein prediction program is trained on a very limited number of

experimentally verified lipoproteins[62], the large-scale lipoprotein validation presented here provides a

critical dataset for refining and expanding these predictive models. It should be noted, however, that

lipoproteins for which failed lipid attachment leads to protein instability are not captured by our analysis, as

the applied filtering criteria exclude proteins with strongly reduced overall abundance. Future studies that

directly identify lipid-modified peptides by mass spectrometry will further strengthen lipoprotein validation.

Consistent with our previous findings that Δ*aliA* exhibited more severe phenotypes in growth, morphology,

and motility than Δ*aliB*[43], deletion of *aliA* affected substantially more lipoproteins than deletion of *aliB* (Fig.

3). Specifically, 47 of 51 validated lipoproteins showed reduced TX phase abundance in Δ*aliA*, whereas

only three lipoproteins were affected in Δ*aliB*, confirming the dominant role of AliA in *Hfx. volcanii* lipoprotein

lipidation (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Table 3).

Complementing the whole-proteome analysis, we examined a Tat-transported lipoprotein HVO_1705 both

as proof of concept and as a model substrate to further dissect the roles of AliA and AliB. In Δ*aliA* and

Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* strains HVO_1705 abundance was significantly reduced and the protein localized

predominantly to the cytoplasmic fraction (Fig. 4a,b), suggesting impaired translocation or clearance of the

non-lipidated form from the membrane by an unidentified quality-control system. In contrast, HVO_1705

expressed in Δ*aliB* remained largely membrane-associated, including both the mature form and a presumed

lipidated but non-cleaved intermediate (Fig. 4b). These observations indicate that AliB is not essential for

membrane localization and lipidation of HVO_1705 and may instead be involved in signal peptide cleavage

of lipoproteins. Analysis showed that a Tat-transported transmembrane protein, HVO_0844, was unaffected

by the deletion of either *ali* gene (Fig. 4c,d), confirming that these effects are specific to lipoproteins.

Consistent with the functional distinction between AliA and AliB, LC-MS analysis of lipids isolated from TX-

114 extracts further confirmed the dominant role of AliA in mediating thioether-linked archaeol modification

in *Hfx. volcanii*. The cleavage product of this modification (methylthio-archaeol) was absent in both Δ*aliA*

and Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* (Fig. 5). In contrast, deletion of *aliB* did not abolish the modification and instead resulted in

a slight, though not statistically significant, increase in the levels of thioether-linked archaeol (Fig. 5). This

trend is consistent with the modest upregulation of *aliA* expression observed in Δ*aliB* by both qPCR and

MS, suggesting potential regulatory crosstalk between AliA and AliB.

Beyond the altered abundance of *aliA* in the Δ*aliB* mutant, we observed differential abundance of multiple

non-lipoproteins in *ali* deletion strains (Fig. 6a-c). A considerable number of non-lipoproteins exemplifies

differential abundance in *ali* deletion strains, especially in the TX phase (Fig. 6a-c). Among these were

HVO_A0045 and HVO_2870, which were previously identified as proteins that most frequently co-occur

with archaeal lipoproteins[43], although how their respective functions relate to the lipoprotein biogenesis

pathway remains unclear. For HVO_A0045, an HtpX-like protease, reduced abundance in the mutants may

reflect its involvement in downstream processes of the Ali pathway, such as releasing membrane-

associated lipoproteins to the extracellular environment or activation of its self-cleavage activity in response

to membrane stress. Although membrane instability has not been reported for *ali* deletion strains, increased

outer membrane permeability has been observed in an *Escherichia coli* Δ*lgt* strain[63]. In contrast, HVO_2870,

a predicted AI-2E family transporter, showed increased abundance in the double knockout strain. Given

that AI-2E family proteins have been reported to function as Na^+ (Li^+)/H antiporters[61], this increase may

represent a compensatory response aimed at maintaining intracellular pH homeostasis in response to

membrane perturbations associated with *ali* deletion. Additional proteins showing differential abundance in

the mutants likely reflect broader consequences of Ali pathway disruption beyond lipoproteins themselves,

including downstream effects of impaired lipoprotein lipidation. Among these, a large number of transport

proteins were affected (Fig. 6a-f). In addition, the archaellin subunit proteins HVO_1210 exhibited reduced

abundance in all mutants (Fig. 6a-c), providing a molecular explanation for the motility defects observed in

these strains[43].

In summary, by combining large-scale quantitative proteomics with LC-MS analysis of thioether-linked

archaeol modifications in wild-type and *ali* mutant strains, we demonstrate that the vast majority of archaeal

lipoprotein lipidation in *Hfx. volcanii* is mediated by AliA, with AliB acting in a partially distinct role, likely

downstream of lipidation and potentially linked to signal peptide cleavage. Beyond defining the dominant

contribution of AliA*,* our quantitative proteomic analysis revealed changes in the abundance of multiple non-

lipoproteins in *ali* mutants, which may point to candidate components or regulators of the archaeal

lipoprotein biogenesis pathway. Importantly, this work substantially expands the number of experimentally

validated archaeal lipoproteins from fewer than ten to over fifty, providing a robust experimental framework

for refining lipoprotein prediction algorithms. Together, these data offer a valuable community resource for

studying protein lipidation across archaea, where the underlying mechanisms have remained largely

elusive.

Supplementary Table 4. Plasmids, strains, and primers used in this study.

	Name	Relevant characteristic(s)	Source of reference
Plasmids	pYH7	pTA963 carrying C-terminally myc-tagged *hvo_1705*	[43]
	pYH9	pTA963 carrying C-terminally myc-tagged *hvo_0844*	[43]
Strains	H53	Δ*pyrE2*/Δ*trpA*	[64]
	YH_113	H53 Δ*aliA*	[43]
	YH_57	H53 Δ*aliB*	[43]
	YH_93	H53 Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB*	[43]
	YH_75	H53 containing pYH7	[43]
	YH_162	Δ*aliA* containing pYH7	[43]
	YH_83	Δ*aliB* containing pYH7	[43]
	YH_176	Δ*aliA*/Δ*aliB* containing pYH7	[43]
	YH_74	H53 containing pYH9	[43]
	YH_159	Δ*aliA* containing pYH9	[43]

	YH_82	ΔaliB containing pYH9	43
	YH_173	ΔaliA/ΔaliB containing pYH9	43
Primers	qPCR_aliA_F	CAACGGTAGCAGAGCGAATG	This study
	qPCR_aliA_R	TCCCCAGAAGTAGTGCAAGA	This study

METHODS

Growth conditions. Plasmids and strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4. *Hfx. volcanii* strains were grown at 45 °C in liquid (orbital shaker at 250 rpm with an orbital diameter of 2.54 cm) or on solid agar (containing 1.5% [w/v] agar) semi-defined Hv-Cab medium[65], supplemented with tryptophan (Fisher Scientific) and uracil (Sigma) at a final concentration of 50 μg ml^{-1} unless otherwise noted. Uracil was left out for strains carrying pTA963-based plasmids.

Triton X-114 extraction. A single colony of *Hfx. volcanii* was inoculated into 10 ml of liquid medium supplemented with 200 μg ml^{-1} tryptophan. When the culture reached an OD_{600} of 0.3-0.8, it was used to inoculate 1 l of secondary culture (starting OD_{600} = 0.004) in the same medium. Cells were harvested at OD_{600} = 0.75-0.85 by centrifugation at 7,000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C. The cell pellets were resuspended in 7 ml PBS (pH 7.4) supplemented with 150 μl RQ1 RNase-Free DNase and protease inhibitor, resulting in a final volume of approximately 10 ml. The cell suspensions were transferred to 15 ml Falcon tubes, vortexed thoroughly, and lysed by five freeze-thaw cycles, alternating between freezing in liquid nitrogen for 2 min and thawing at 37 °C for 20 min. Unlysed cells were removed by centrifugation at 9,000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C. Protein concentrations of the clarified lysates were determined using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific). Triton X-114 extraction was performed as previously described with slight modifications[43]. Briefly, 1 ml ice-cold 20% Triton X-114 was added to 9 ml of clarified lysate containing the desired amount of protein in a 15 ml Falcon tube. The mixture was gently mixed on a rotator at 4˚C for 3 h and then centrifuged at 9,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C to remove precipitates. The supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube and incubated at 37 °C for 20 min to induce detergent phase separation, followed by centrifugation at 9,000 × g for 10 min at room temperature. The resulting phase separation yielded approximately 9 ml of aqueous (AQ) phase and ~1 ml of detergent (TX) phase. The AQ phase was

transferred to a new 15 ml Falcon tube, and 889 ul of ice-cold 20% TX-114 was added for washing. The TX

phase was adjusted to a final volume of 10 ml with PBS for washing. Both samples were incubated on ice

for 10 min until clear and then at 37 °C for 20 min until the solution became turbid. Phase-separated

samples were centrifuged again at 9,000 × g for 10 min at room temperature. The washed AQ phase was

transferred to a new tube and stored at −80 °C for further use. For the washed TX phase, the supernatant

was removed, 10 ml methanol was added, and samples were stored at −80 °C overnight to precipitate

proteins. Protein precipitates were collected the following day by centrifugation at 10,000 × g for 10 min

and the pellet was stored at −80 °C for downstream analysis.

Mass spectrometry of proteins in TX and AQ phases. Triton X-114 extraction was performed as

described above, starting with cell lysates containing 60 mg of total proteins. Protein precipitates from the

TX phase were resuspended with 200 µl or 300 µl PBS buffer with protease inhibitor. The protein

concentration was measured using the BCA Protein Assay Kit. Mass spectrometry sample preparation was

performed as previously described[66]. Briefly, 50 µg of protein from each sample was reduced with DTT,

alkylated with iodoacetamide, and digested with trypsin overnight at 37 °C using S-trap mini spin columns

(ProtiFi) following manufacturer's instructions. Resulting peptides were eluted, dried in a vacuum centrifuge,

and desalted using C18 stage-tips as described previously[67]. Mass spectrometric analysis was performed,

as described in Schiller et al. (2024)[66], on an Orbitrap Eclipse™ after separation on a nanoEase M/Z Peptide

BEH C18 column.

Proteomics data processing and statistical analysis. Peptide identification and quantification with

statistical post-processing followed the same procedures as in Chatterjee et al. (2025)[68], except that a

newer version of the theoretical proteome was used, from March 28th, 2023

(https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7794769), containing 4222 proteins. Briefly, peptides were identified using

MSFragger, X!Tandem, and MS-GF+ via Ursgal[69] and quantified through FlashLFQ[70]. Peptide abundances

were further processed through MSstats[71], including log transformation, median normalization, integration

on protein level, and calculation of fold-changes (FCs) with corresponding p-values that were adjusted for

multiple testing. Log_2FCs were considered statistically significant if their associated adjusted p-value was

≤0.05.

To compare the distribution of different protein groups in the TX and AQ phases, the whole theoretical

proteome was used as an input for the prediction of lipoproteins (comprising lipoproteins processed through

the Sec as well as the Tat pathway) through SignalP (v. 6.0)[62], transmembrane domains through

DeepTMHMM (v. 1.0.44)[72], and type III signal peptides through FlaFind (v. 1.2)[73]. Proteins were assigned

to the predicted lipoprotein group, if SignalP results for LIPO(Sec/SPII) or TATLIPO(Tat/SPII) had a

confidence of ≥0.9, and if they were not FlaFind positive. The ≥2 TM protein group was defined by

DeepTMHMM results that predicted at least two TM regions, as long as these proteins were not FlaFind

positive or exhibited SignalP predictions different from "Other". All proteins that were FlaFind negative and

had "Other" as a SignalP prediction, which in combination means that they do not contain any of the

secretion signals and had no predicted TM regions, were designated as predicted cytoplasmic proteins.

MSstats results were grouped based on these predicted protein groups, and figures were generated using

custom Python scripts (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18783633), employing the following packages:

Pandas[74], SciPy[75], Plotly[76], and Matplotlib[77]. Comparisons between the groups were assessed for statistical

significance employing a one-way ANOVA test with Tukey's post-hoc test, using the SciPy stats package.

Protein groups were excluded from analyses downstream of MSstats if all constituent proteins were

quantified through proteotypic peptides.

Lipid processing and analysis. A single colony of *Hfx. volcanii* was inoculated into 5 ml of liquid medium

and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.3-0.8. This culture was then used to inoculate 25 ml of fresh medium at a

starting OD_{600} = 0.01. Cells were harvested at an OD_{600} = 0.65-0.75 by centrifugation at 7,000 × g for 20 min

at 4 °C. Core lipids were obtained from the harvested biomass by base hydrolysis as previously described[43].

For the methyl iodide treatment, lipoproteins were extracted from 80 mg total proteins using Triton X-114.

Following extraction, lipoprotein samples were treated with methyl iodide to release thioether bound lipids

as previously described[43].

Core lipids and compounds released from methyl-iodide treatment were analyzed on an Agilent 1260 Infinity

II series high-performance liquid chromatography instrument coupled to an Agilent G6125B single

quadrupole mass spectrometer. Samples were ionized with electrospray ionization and detected in positive

mode with the following parameters: 8.0 l/min drying gas flow rate, 35 psi nebulizer pressure,

3,000 V capillary voltage, and either a 300 °C drying gas temperature (for core lipids) or 250 °C drying gas

temperature (for methylthio-archaeol analysis). Core lipids were separated on a Kinetex 1.7 µm XB-C18

100 Å LC column (150 × 2.1 mm), and lipids released from methyl iodide treated lipoproteins were

separated on an Agilent Poroshell 120 EC-C18 column (1.9 µm, 2.1 × 150 mm) as described in our previous

work[43]. For quantification of the mass of methylthio-archaeol released from each sample, the peak areas

of m/z = 683.7, 700.8, and 705.7, (corresponding to the [M+H]+, [M+NH4]+, [M+Na]+ adducts of methylthio-

archaeol) were calculated and summed using Agilent MassHunter B.08.00 and inspected manually to

confirm the proper integration of extracted ion peaks. The peak area was converted to the mass of

methylthio-archaeol injected by the use of a 10-point standard curve as described in our previous work.

The methylthio-archaeol (diphytanylglyceryl methyl thioether) standard was synthesized by Pharmaron, Inc.

via a synthesis scheme previously described in Hong et al. (2025)[43].

Quantitative PCR analysis of *aliA* expression. Three biological replicates of Δ*aliB* and wild type were

collected at OD_{600} = 0.8 for each comparison, with 0.5 ml liquid cultures of each strain harvested and

pelleted at 4,900 × g for 6 min. RNA was extracted using the Qiagen RNeasy Plus Micro Kit (Qiagen) on

the QIAcube Connect automated platform (Qiagen), with lysates homogenized via QIAshredder Columns

(Qiagen). RNA extracts were subjected to DNase digestion using the RNase-Free DNase kit (Qiagen) and

further purified by RNeasy MinElute Cleanup Kit (Qiagen). RNA concentrations were measured with Qubit

RNA Broad Range Assay Kits (Invitrogen), and integrity assessed using RNA ScreenTape on a 4200

Tapestation (Agilent). All samples had RINe values between 8.4-8.8. cDNA was synthesized from 1 µg RNA

using the ProtoScript II First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (New England BioLabs) with random primers;

parallel negative controls without reverse transcriptase (-RT) were prepared. Primers for *Hfx. volcanii* gene

aliA (Supplementary Table 4) were designed using Primer3[78] and synthesized as RxnReady™ primers (IDT).

Primers for the internal reference gene *eif1a* from prior studies were used[79]. qRT PCR reactions (20 µl)

contained 2× iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad), 5% DMSO, 300 nM primers, and 8 µl of

1:25 diluted cDNA. No-template (NTC) and -RT controls were included; reactions were considered

acceptable if ΔCt ≤10 between sample and both controls. Efficiencies for *aliA* and *eif1a* primer sets were

determined via standard curves and were 93.0% and 88.7% respectively. Each reaction included three

biological replicates, each with three technical replicates, run on a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System

(Applied Biosystems). Thermal cycling conditions were: 95 °C for 2 min, then 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s

and 60 °C for 30 s. SYBR Green fluorescence (Rox normalized) was recorded at each cycle's end, and the

default melt curve program following the qPCR run verified primer specificity. Relative expression was

calculated in Excel using the Pfaffl method[80], normalizing to *eif1a*, and compared to wild-type controls to

determine differential expression.

Immunoblotting. A single colony was used to inoculate a 5 ml liquid culture. At an OD_{600} of 0.75-0.80, cells

from 4 ml liquid culture were harvested by centrifugation at 4,300 x g for 10 min at 4 °C. Cell pellets were

then resuspended in 200 µl PBS buffer with 1 mM AEBSF and lysed by freezing (with liquid nitrogen or

ethanol with dry ice) and thawing (at 37 °C) four times. 20 µl RQ1 RNase-Free DNase (Promega) was

added to cell lysates, and the mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 30 min to degrade DNA. Unlysed cells

were removed by centrifugation at 4,300 x g for 10 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant was transferred to a

new tube for subsequent fractionation. To fractionate the lysates, 200 µl of cleared supernatant was

subjected to ultracentrifugation at 81,000 rpm (231,472 × g) for 30 min at 4 °C using a TLA-100.2 fixed-

angle rotor in a Beckman Coulter Optima MAX-TL ultracentrifuge. The resulting supernatant (cytoplasmic

fraction) was transferred to a new ultracentrifuge tube, and the pellet (membrane fraction) was resuspended

in 200 µl ice-cold PBS with 1mM AEBSF. Both fractions were centrifuged again at 81,000 rpm for 30 min at

4 °C. Pellets were then resuspended in 200 µl PBS with 1mM AEBSF, while the cytoplasmic fraction was

transferred to a new tube.

10 µl of HVO_1705 samples and 21 µl of HVO_0844 samples were supplemented with 50 mM dithiothreitol

and 1x NuPAGE LDS Sample Buffer. PBS was added to adjust each sample to a final volume of 30 µl.

Samples were incubated at 70 °C for 10 min, after which 27 µl of each sample was loaded onto NuPAGE

10%, Bis-Tris mini gels (8 cm x 8 cm, 1.0 mm x 10 wells) with NuPAGE MOPS SDS Running Buffer. After

electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Millipore) using

a semi-dry transfer apparatus (BioRad) at 15 V for 30 min. Subsequently, the membrane was stained with

Ponceau S Staining Solution (Cell Signaling Technology) to verify the successful protein transfer. The

membrane was then washed for 10 min twice in PBS buffer and blocked for 1 h in 5% non-fat milk

(LabScientific) in PBST buffer (PBS with 1% Tween-20). After blocking, the membrane was washed twice

in PBST and once in PBS. For detection of the myc tag, anti-Myc antibody (9E10, UPenn Cell Center

Service) was diluted 1,000 times with PBS buffer containing 3% bovine serum albumin, which was then

used to incubate the membrane overnight at 4 °C. Subsequently, the membrane was washed twice in PBST

and once in PBS, followed by a 45-min incubation at room temperature with the secondary antibody solution

(Amersham ECL anti-mouse IgG, horseradish peroxidase-linked whole antibody, from sheep (Cytiva)

diluted 10,000 times in PBS containing 10% non-fat milk). After incubation, the membrane was washed

three times in PBST and once in PBS. HRP activity was assessed using the Amersham ECL Prime Western

Blotting Detection Reagent (GE). Membranes were imaged using an Amersham Imager 600, with image

analysis conducted using the Amersham Imager 600 Analysis software.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The LC-MS raw data and quantification for lipid analysis can be accessed through the Stanford Digital

Repository [https://purl.stanford.edu/nk164tn8116]. The MS raw files generated for the proteomic analysis

in this study have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner

repository with the dataset identifier PXD074718, and all identification and quantification results have been

included in the deposited dataset. Raw and processed qPCR data are available at

[https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18783633].

All other data supporting the findings of this study are provided within the paper and its supplementary

information files. Source data are provided with this paper.

CODE AVAILABILITY

All scripts for the identification and quantification of peptides and proteins from MS datasets are made

available through the Archaeal Proteome Project (http://archaealproteomeproject.org) and its associated

GitHub repository (https://github.com/arcpp/ArcPP v1.4.0). Custom Python pipelines used for data filtering

and figure generation is available at Zenodo under the identifier DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.18783632

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