# **Cell Reports**

# Regulation of translation by methylation multiplicity of 18S rRNA

## Graphical Abstract



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## In brief

Ribosome heterogeneity has become increasingly evident. Liu et al. report an example in the form of rRNA methylation. They show two conserved adenosines in the 18S rRNA are modified with varying numbers of methyl groups. Differentially methylated ribosomes translate differently, suggesting methylation multiplicity as a mechanism to regulate translation.

## **Highlights**

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- Two conserved adenosines in the 18S rRNA can be modified as either m $^6$ A or m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A
- $\bullet$  m<sup>6</sup>A levels increase under sulfur starvation in yeast and mammalian cell lines
- m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes translate distinctly from  $m^6$ <sub>2</sub>Abearing ribosomes
- Loss of methylation impairs translation fidelity and ribosome pausing/stalling



# **Cell Reports**

# **Regulation of translation** by methylation multiplicity of 18S rRNA

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 $N^6$ -methyladenosine (m $^6$ A) is a conserved ribonucleoside modification that regulates many facets of RNA metabolism. Using quantitative mass spectrometry, we find that the universally conserved tandem adenosines at the 3' end of 18S rRNA, thought to be constitutively di-methylated (m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A), are also mono-methylated (m<sup>6</sup>A). Although present at substoichiometric amounts, m<sup>6</sup>A at these positions increases significantly in response to sulfur starvation in yeast cells and mammalian cell lines. Combining yeast genetics and ribosome profiling, we provide evidence to suggest that m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes carry out translation distinctly from m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A-bearing ribosomes, featuring a striking specificity for sulfur metabolism genes. Our work thus reveals methylation multiplicity as a mechanism to regulate translation.

RNA, despite its simple composition, is ornamented with more than 150 distinct modifications ([Boccaletto et al., 2018\)](#page-12-0). Curiously,  $\sim$ 40% of them involve methylation [\(https://iimcb.](https://iimcb.genesilico.pl/modomics/) [genesilico.pl/modomics/\)](https://iimcb.genesilico.pl/modomics/), an alkylation reaction that covalently adds a methyl group to a ribonucleoside. Methylation is an energetically expensive process, requiring an energy input equivalent to the hydrolysis of  ${\sim}13$  ATP molecules ([Atkinson, 1977](#page-12-1)). From an evolutionary perspective, this implies that methylation likely confers functional importance. However, except for a few wellcharacterized examples, many RNA methylation events remain functionally enigmatic ([Motorin and Helm, 2011](#page-13-0)).

Of all methylated ribonucleosides, only a handful have been conserved across all three domains of life [\(Motorin and Helm,](#page-13-0) [2011\)](#page-13-0), two prime examples of which are mono-methylated *N*<sup>6</sup> methyladenosine (m<sup>6</sup>A) and di-methylated N<sup>6</sup>-methyladenosine (m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A). Despite their structural resemblance (one versus two methyl groups at the N<sup>6</sup> position of the adenine ring), m<sup>6</sup>A and  $\textsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A are distinct modifications with respect to their spatial distribution and synthesis. The m<sup>6</sup>A modification was initially discovered in mammalian mRNA [\(Desrosiers et al., 1974](#page-12-2)) and subsequently in other RNA species, including rRNA, tRNA, and small nuclear RNA (snRNA) ([Yue et al., 2015](#page-14-0)). In accordance with its promiscuous residencies, several m<sup>6</sup>A methyltransferases targeting different RNA substrates have been identified and characterized ([Bokar et al., 1994,](#page-12-3) [1997;](#page-12-4) [Clancy et al.,](#page-12-5) [2002;](#page-12-5) [Liu et al., 2014](#page-13-1); [Ma et al., 2019](#page-13-2); [Pendleton et al., 2017;](#page-14-1) [van Tran et al., 2019\)](#page-14-2), which enabled the functional interrogation

of m<sup>6</sup>A. At the molecular level, m<sup>6</sup>A is known to regulate many facets of RNA metabolism, such as mRNA stability and translation efficiency (TE) ([Wang et al., 2014,](#page-14-3) [2015](#page-14-4); [Zhou et al., 2015\)](#page-14-5), microRNA (miRNA) processing and maturation (Alarcó[n et al.,](#page-12-6) [2015a](#page-12-6), [2015b](#page-12-7)), RNA-protein interaction ([Liu et al., 2015\)](#page-13-3), and phase separation ([Ries et al., 2019\)](#page-14-6). At the cellular level, m<sup>6</sup>A has been implicated in pluripotency ([Geula et al., 2015\)](#page-12-8), heat shock response [\(Zhou et al., 2015\)](#page-14-5), viral infection ([Gokhale](#page-13-4) [et al., 2016;](#page-13-4) [Kennedy et al., 2016\)](#page-13-5), and development [\(Clancy](#page-12-5) [et al., 2002](#page-12-5); [Zhao et al., 2017](#page-14-7)). These findings reinforce the notion that addition of a simple methyl group can profoundly affect RNA metabolism and cellular physiology.

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In contrast to m<sup>6</sup>A, m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A has an extremely confined distribution. With a few exceptions, it is found universally at two adjacent adenosines (A1781 and A1782 in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) near the 3' end of the small subunit (SSU) rRNA [\(Rife, 2009;](#page-14-8) [Van Knippenberg et al., 1984](#page-14-9)). This region forms a highly conserved hairpin loop (helix 45), and the tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications reside at the apex of this loop, which situates them close to the ribosome decoding site (DCS) [\(Sharma and Lafontaine,](#page-14-10) [2015\)](#page-14-10). Despite their remarkable conservation and occupation of a structurally important position within the ribosome, the functional importance of these tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications remains incompletely understood.

Here, we report our serendipitous discovery that the  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A methyltransferase Dim1p is capable of modifying the conserved tandem adenosines with a single methyl group (i.e., m<sup>6</sup>A). Although present at low stoichiometry, m<sup>6</sup>A increases significantly during sulfur starvation in yeast cells and mammalian





<span id="page-2-0"></span>

Figure 1. m<sup>6</sup>A is a bona fide modification located at A1781 and/or A1782 of 18S rRNA

(A) Detection of m6 A in total RNA from vegetatively growing haploid *S. cerevisiae*.

(B) m<sup>6</sup>A is detected in 18S rRNA of vegetatively growing haploid *S. cerevisiae* (strain: CEN.PK).

(C) m<sup>6</sup>A is located in the last 22 nucleotides of 18S rRNA. ac<sup>4</sup>C, N<sup>4</sup>-acetylcytidine; m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A, N<sup>6</sup>, N<sup>6</sup>-dimethyladenosine. See [Data S1](#page-11-0) for other regions of 18S rRNA surveyed using the MBN protection assay.

cell lines. Ribosome profiling experiments further indicate that m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes carry out translation distinctly from  $\textsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A-bearing ribosomes, featuring a striking specificity for sulfur metabolism genes. Our work thus suggests that methylation multiplicity of these tandem adenosines functions as a mechanism to regulate translation.

## Identification of m-A as a bona fide modification at<br>A1791/A1792 in voort 198 rDNA

Contrary to its prevalence in mammalian cells [\(Yue et al., 2015\)](#page-14-0), m<sup>6</sup>A in budding yeast cells is present only in mRNA from sporulating diploid cells [\(Agarwala et al., 2012;](#page-12-9) [Bodi et al., 2010;](#page-12-10) [Clancy et al., 2002\)](#page-12-5). Accordingly, one might expect little m<sup>6</sup>A in the sporulation-deficient haploid cells. Surprisingly, using quantitative liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry, we could readily detect m<sup>6</sup>A in total RNA isolated from haploid cells grown in a synthetic defined (SD) medium [\(Fig](#page-2-0)[ures 1](#page-2-0)A and [S1](#page-11-0)A). Consistent with previous studies ([Agarwala](#page-12-9) [et al., 2012](#page-12-9); [Bodi et al., 2010;](#page-12-10) [Clancy et al., 2002\)](#page-12-5), poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA was essentially devoid of m<sup>6</sup>A ([Figure S1](#page-11-0)B), except in sporulating diploid cells [\(Figure S1](#page-11-0)C). Subsequent RNA fractionation revealed the presence of m<sup>6</sup>A in 18S rRNA ([Figures 1B](#page-2-0) and [S1D](#page-11-0)), 25S rRNA ([Figure S1E](#page-11-0)), and small RNA [\(Figure S1F](#page-11-0)). However, m<sup>6</sup>A from the latter two sources is likely derived from N<sup>1</sup>-methyl-adenosine (m<sup>1</sup>A) via Dimroth rearrangement ([Engel, 1975;](#page-12-11) [Macon and Wolfenden, 1968](#page-13-6)), because loss of the corresponding m<sup>1</sup>A methyltransferase or methyltransferases eliminated both m<sup>1</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup>A [\(Figures S1E](#page-11-0) and S1F). Therefore, only m<sup>6</sup>A detected in 18S rRNA appears to be a bona fide modification. m<sup>6</sup>A is a substoichiometric modification, with  $\sim$ 4% of 18S rRNA on average harboring one m<sup>6</sup>A in haploid yeast cells grown in SD medium.

To precisely map m<sup>6</sup>A in 18S rRNA, we performed a mung bean nuclease (MBN) protection assay [\(Figure S2A](#page-11-0)). As validation, we isolated a fragment of yeast 18S rRNA corresponding to the region from 601 to 660 and detected the expected 2'-Omethyladenosine  $(A_m)$  ([Figure S2B](#page-11-0)). We next scanned the entire 18S rRNA and found that m<sup>6</sup>A was located within the last 22 nucleotides (nt) ([Figure 1C](#page-2-0); [Data S1](#page-11-0)). Using a DNA oligo that only partially protects this 22-nt region [\(Figure 1](#page-2-0)C), we pinpointed m<sup>6</sup>A to A1781 and/or A1782 of 18S rRNA ([Figure 1](#page-2-0)D). However, due to technical difficulties, we could not further distinguish between these two positions. Nevertheless, an <sup>15</sup>N-tracing experiment showed that m<sup>6</sup>A in 18S rRNA was derived from cultured yeast, not from contamination during sample preparation [\(Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S2](#page-11-0)C). Altogether, these results indicate that m<sup>6</sup>A is a bona fide modification that maps to A1781 and/or A1782 of 18S rRNA, a site also known to accommodate the conserved tandem m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A modifications.



The co-occupation of m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A prompted us to speculate that the m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A methyltransferase Dim1p ([Lafontaine et al.,](#page-13-7) [1994\)](#page-13-7) might also be responsible for installing  $m^6A$ . To test this hypothesis, we created a mutant Dim1p by changing the glutamic acid at 85 (E85) to alanine, which reportedly abolishes its methyltransferase activity [\(Pulicherla et al., 2009\)](#page-14-11). As expected, we found little m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A in 18S rRNA from the E85A mutant, but surprisingly, we could still detect m<sup>6</sup>A, albeit at slightly reduced amounts [\(Figure S2D](#page-11-0)). In the structure of the Dim1 homolog from *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii*, the glutamic acid at 59 (equivalent to E85 in *S. cerevisiae* Dim1p) is within hydrogenbonding distance to the substrate *S*-adenosyl-*L*-methionine (SAM) ([Figure S2E](#page-11-0)) ([O'Farrell et al., 2010\)](#page-13-8). Substitution of glutamic acid with alanine might destabilize, but might not eliminate, SAM binding. By contrast, swapping glutamic acid with a bulkier residue might be more effective at disrupting SAM binding through physical hindrance. Indeed, changing the glutamic acid to tryptophan resulted in complete loss of  $\mathsf{m^6}_2\mathsf{A}$  and  $\mathsf{m^6} \mathsf{A}$ [\(Figure 1E](#page-2-0)), confirming that Dim1p is responsible for both modifications. Furthermore, a highly conservative change of glutamic acid to glutamine inactivated Dim1p, because no m $^6$ A or m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A was detected in 18S rRNA of the E85Q mutant ([Figure 1E](#page-2-0)).

## m A levels increase specifically and significantly in<br>response to sulfur startation

The unexpected presence of m<sup>6</sup>A in yeast 18S rRNA raises the question of its biological significance. To this end, we first tested whether m<sup>6</sup>A levels might change according to growth conditions. Deprivation of carbon, nitrogen, or phosphate had little impact on m<sup>6</sup>A levels [\(Figure 2A](#page-4-0)). By contrast, sulfate starvation caused a significant increase of m<sup>6</sup>A [\(Figure 2](#page-4-0)A), without eliciting apparent changes in amounts of other methylated nucleosides in 18S rRNA ([Figure S3A](#page-11-0)). These observations indicate that m<sup>6</sup>A levels respond specifically to sulfate availability, a notion that is reinforced by the periodic changes of m $^6$ A in response to sulfate fluctuations ([Figure 2](#page-4-0)B). A stable isotope-tracing experiment further demonstrated that under sulfate starvation, most m<sup>6</sup>A was derived from *de novo* synthesis ([Figure 2](#page-4-0)C), whereas only a minority of m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A was newly synthesized [\(Figure S3](#page-11-0)B). Moreover, this starvation response is not specific for sulfate, because deprivation of methionine or SAM, two reduced sulfur sources, also increased m<sup>6</sup>A levels [\(Figures 2D](#page-4-0) and 2E). Supplying cells with *S*-adenosyl-*L*-homocysteine (SAH), a product formed following transfer of the methyl group from SAM, was sufficient to increase m<sup>6</sup>A levels even in the presence of sulfate ([Figure 2F](#page-4-0)). Without a sulfur source, the impact of SAH on  $\sf m^6$ A levels was even more pronounced [\(Figure 2G](#page-4-0)). Lastly, using the MBN protection assay, we found that HeLa, HEK293T, and 3T3 cells cultured with methionine contained very low levels of m<sup>6</sup>A, only slightly above our detection limit, compared with yeast cells [\(Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S3C](#page-11-0)). By contrast, methionine starvation led to a significant

(E) m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A methyltransferase Dim1p is responsible for the m $^6$ A modification in yeast 18S rRNA. p > 0.05 (n.s.).

CPS, counts per second.

<sup>(</sup>D) m $^6$ A is located at A1781 and/or A1782 of 18S rRNA. The peak area of m $^6$ A was first normalized to that of m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A, and the m $^6$ A/m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A ratio was then normalized to the fragment protected by oKL204. Mean ± SD (n = 7 biological replicates). The p value was calculated using unpaired two-tailed Student's t test, assuming equal variances.

See also [Figures S1](#page-11-0) and [S2](#page-11-0) and [Data S1.](#page-11-0)





<span id="page-4-0"></span>

#### Figure 2. Sulfur starvation increases m<sup>6</sup>A levels in 18S rRNA in yeast cells and mammalian cell lines

(A) m<sup>6</sup>A levels in 18S rRNA increase specifically under sulfate starvation. com, complete medium;  $-C$ , carbon starvation;  $-N$ , nitrogen starvation;  $-P$ , phosphate starvation;  $-S$ , sulfate starvation. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 biological replicates).

(B) Changes in m<sup>6</sup>A levels in response to sulfate availability. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 2-3 biological replicates).

(C) Increased m $^6$ A under sulfate starvation is synthesized de novo. Cells were fully labeled in [<sup>15</sup>N] SD and starved in [<sup>14</sup>N] sulfur-free medium + 50 mg L $^{-1}$  adenine  $(I^{14}NJ - S + A)$  for 2 h. Peak areas of [U-<sup>14</sup>N] and [U-<sup>15</sup>N] ac<sup>4</sup>C were combined to normalize the differentially labeled m<sup>6</sup>A. Normalized abundance was further divided by that of preswitch samples. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 biological replicates).

(D and E) Starvation of methionine (D) and SAM (E) increases m<sup>6</sup>A levels in 18S rRNA. Mean ± SD (n = 3 biological replicates). Methionine (D) and SAM (E) were supplemented at 1 and 0.5 mM, respectively. Data for  $-S + SAM$  in (E) were also used in (G).

(F) SAH increases m<sup>6</sup>A levels in 18S rRNA. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 2 biological replicates).

(G) SAH enhances the impact of SAM starvation on increasing m<sup>6</sup>A levels in 18S rRNA. SAM and SAH were used at 0.5 mM. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 biological replicates).

(H) Methionine starvation increases m<sup>6</sup>A levels at the 3′ end of mammalian 18S rRNA. MBN protection assay was performed to specifically examine m<sup>6</sup>A in the last 37 nucleotides of mammalian 18S rRNA. Top panels are representative chromatograms, and bottom panels are quantification results. Mean ± SD (n = 3-7 biological replicates). Chromatograms were normalized to the peak area of ac<sup>4</sup>C to allow comparison between samples. The peak area of m<sup>6</sup>A was first normalized to that of ac<sup>4</sup>C and to samples with methionine.

Ordinary one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett's multiple comparison test with a single pooled variance were performed to calculate the p values for (A) and (B), and unpaired two-tailed Student's t test, assuming equal variances, was used for (D)–(H).  $p > 0.05$  (n.s.),  $\gamma p < 0.05$ ,  $\gamma p < 0.01$ ,  $\gamma \gamma p < 0.001$ ,  $\gamma \gamma p < 0.$ 0.0001.

See also [Figure S3](#page-11-0).

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increase of m<sup>6</sup>A in all three cell lines ([Figure 2](#page-4-0)H), suggesting that both yeast and mammalian cells sense sulfur starvation to increase m<sup>6</sup>A in their 18S rRNA. These observations also imply that m<sup>6</sup>A might be functionally important under sulfur starvation.

## m"A and m<sub>12</sub>A in 18S rRNA are not functionally<br>equivalent

Investigating the functional role of m<sup>6</sup>A necessitates a mutant Dim1p that ideally installs only m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A, but not m<sup>6</sup>A. Sequence alignment from 20 phylogenetically diverse species revealed two universally conserved residues, E85 and D87, in Dim1 homologs, as well as the GAA triplet in SSU rDNA (18S rDNA or 16S rDNA), in which the two adenosines are modified as  $\mathsf{m}^6\mathsf{A}$  or m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A [\(Figure 3A](#page-5-0)). Inspired by the E85A mutant ([Figure S2](#page-11-0)D), we sought to systematically mutate the glutamic acid to encompass all possible changes at the 85 position. Substitution with small amino acids, e.g., glycine and serine, eliminated  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A but largely spared m<sup>6</sup>A ([Figure 3](#page-5-0)B). By contrast, replacement with bulky amino acids inactivated Dim1p [\(Figure 3](#page-5-0)B). Surprisingly, a conservative change of glutamic acid to aspartic acid led to an approximately nine-fold increase of m<sup>6</sup>A and a commensurate decrease of  $\rm m^6$ <sub>2</sub>A ([Figures 3B](#page-5-0)–3D). A reciprocal change at the 87 position (D87E) resulted in even more pro-nounced elevation of m<sup>6</sup>A ([Figures 3C](#page-5-0) and 3D). Simultaneous introduction of the E85D and D87E substitutions appeared to convert Dim1p into a mono-methyltransferase [\(Figures 3C](#page-5-0) and 3D). None of these mutants were able to boost  $m^6A$  levels in response to sulfate starvation ([Figure S3D](#page-11-0)). Collectively, these observations suggest that the E85 and D87 residues of Dim1p are critical for determining methylation multiplicity at A1781/ A1782 of 18S rRNA and for relaying a deficiency in sulfur availability to an increase in m<sup>6</sup>A levels.

Although our search for an  $\mathsf{m^6}_2$ A-only Dim1p was unsuccessful, we found the E85D and D87E mutants useful for inferring the functions of m<sup>6</sup>A at A1781/A1782. The remarkable conservation of E85 and D87 in Dim1 homologs suggests that these two residues are so crucial that few changes were tolerated during evolution. Consistent with this idea, mutating these two residues, even in the form of conservative changes such as E85D and D87E, invariably reduced cellular fitness ([Figure 3E](#page-5-0)). Because the abundance of Dim1p was not obviously affected by these mutations [\(Figure S3](#page-11-0)E), one likely explanation for the preservation of E85 and D87 is to maintain high stoichiometry of  $\mathsf{m}^6_2\mathsf{A}$ and to relay sulfur availability to m<sup>6</sup>A levels. This interpretation

would further imply that m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A at A1781/A1782 may not be functionally equivalent.

**Regulation of translation by m1A in 18S rRNA**<br>Given the proximity of m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A to the ribosome peptidyl site (P site) [\(Figure S4](#page-11-0)A) ([Hussain et al., 2014;](#page-13-9) [Tesina et al.,](#page-14-12) [2019\)](#page-14-12) and the DCS ([Sharma and Lafontaine, 2015](#page-14-10)), we speculated that the number of methyl groups might affect translation differentially. To test this hypothesis, we first verified that m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes are translation competent [\(Figures 3](#page-5-0)F and [S4](#page-11-0)B). Next, we performed polysome profiling to qualitatively examine translation under methionine-replete and methionine-starvation conditions. Three strains were compared: wild type (WT) ( $\sim$ 3% m<sup>6</sup>A with methionine and  $\sim$ 10% m<sup>6</sup>A without methionine), the D87E mutant ( $\sim$ 80% m $^6$ A irrespective of methionine availability), and the E85Q mutant (no detectable m<sup>6</sup>A or m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A under either condition). With methionine, the D87E mutant was highly similar to WT, whereas the E85Q mutant accumulated higher levels of the large subunit (LSU) [\(Figure S5](#page-11-0)A), a manifestation of defective SSU biogenesis. Consistently, the E85Q mutant accumulated slightly less SSU [\(Figure S5B](#page-11-0)) and showed mild defects in rRNA processing [\(Figures S6A](#page-11-0) and S6B). Dim1p is reportedly required for early pre-rRNA processing at A1 and A2, and its depletion reduces 20S and 27SA pre-rRNA but increases 33/32S and 22S prerRNA [\(Lafontaine et al., 1995](#page-13-10)). Although the E85Q mutant bore resemblance to Dim1p depletion in rRNA processing, it accumulated rather than decreased 20S pre-rRNA ([Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S6B](#page-11-0)). This observation would argue against the notion that the E85Q mutation impairs cleavage at A1 and/or A2, because inhibition at either site or both is expected to severely reduce the 20S pre-rRNA. Moreover, it illustrates the challenges in uncoupling the methyltransferase activity of Dim1p from its rRNA processing functions (see [Discussion\)](#page-10-0). Nevertheless, without methionine, all three strains exhibited reduced polysomes and concomitant increase of monosomes ([Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S5](#page-11-0)A), indicative of global repression of translation under methionine starvation. Lastly, both yeast and mammalian cells appeared to restrict ribosome biogenesis when methionine is deficient ([Figures S6](#page-11-0)C and S6D), consistent with a previous report [\(Wejksnora and Haber, 1974](#page-14-13)).

We next performed ribosome profiling [\(Ingolia et al., 2009\)](#page-13-11) to quantitatively examine translation in the three strains under methionine-replete and methionine-starvation conditions

Figure 3.  $m^6$ A and  $m^6$ <sub>2</sub>A in 18S rRNA are not functionally equivalent

(F) m $^6$ A-bearing ribosomes participate in active translation. The peak area of m $^6$ A was normalized to that of ac<sup>4</sup>C. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 5–6 biological replicates).  $*$ <sup>\*</sup>p < 0.01,  $*$ <sup>\*</sup> $p$  < 0.001,  $*$  $*$  $p$  < 0.0001.

See also [Figures S3,](#page-11-0) [S4](#page-11-0), and [S8](#page-11-0).

<sup>(</sup>A) Partial sequence alignment of Dim1 homologs and 18S (16S) rDNA. Highlighted are E85 and D87 of *S. cerevisiae* Dim1p and the two adenosines modified as m<sup>6</sup>A or m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A.

<sup>(</sup>B) E85 is a key determinant of the catalytic activity and methylation multiplicity of Dim1p. Data were acquired from the MBN protection assay using oKL204. Peak areas were normalized to that of ac<sup>4</sup>C. Chromatograms of E (WT), W (E85W), Q (E85Q), and A (E85A) were also presented in [Figures 1](#page-2-0)E and [S2](#page-11-0)D.

<sup>(</sup>C) E85D and D87E mutations alter the methylation multiplicity of Dim1p. Chromatograms from the MBN protection assay using oKL204 were normalized to the peak area of ac<sup>4</sup>C to allow comparison between samples.

<sup>(</sup>D) Quantification of m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A in 18S rRNA from *dim1* mutants. Mean ± SD (n = 3–7 biological replicates). The p values were calculated using ordinary one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's multiple comparison test with a single pooled variance. Data were also used for plotting [Figure S3](#page-11-0)D (prestarvation).

<sup>(</sup>E) Dim1p E85D, D87E, and E85Q mutants have lower fitness than WT. Mean ± SD (n = 4–6 biological replicates). The p values were calculated using one-sample Student's t test.



We next calculated TE (see [STAR methods\)](#page-15-0) to quantitatively examine translation in the three yeast strains. With methionine, 10 genes showed significantly altered TE in the E85Q mutant compared with WT (higher TE: *CST9*, FIG2, *STR3*, and *YBR191W-A*; lower TE: *CHA1*, *FIT2*, *FIT3*, *KDX1*, *MAL31*, and *YER186C*) [\(Figure 4A](#page-8-0); [Table S2](#page-11-0)). In the D87E mutant, we identified 16 significantly changed genes (lower TE: *AGP3*, *FIT2*, *FIT3*, *GRX8*, *JLP1*, *MET2*, *MET3*, *MET28*, *MET32*, *MMP1*, *OPT1*, *PDC6*, *SOA1*, *SUL1*, *SUL2*, and *YCT1*) ([Figure 4A](#page-8-0); [Table S2\)](#page-11-0). Remarkably, 12 genes (underlined) are involved in sulfur metabolism, and none of them were significantly changed in the E85Q mutant [\(Figures 4](#page-8-0)A–4C; [Table S2\)](#page-11-0). This observation suggests that m<sup>6</sup>A at A1781/A1782 of 18S rRNA functions differently from m $^6$ <sub>2</sub>A, with a striking specificity for sulfur metabolism genes. It also argues strongly against the notion that the presence of m<sup>6</sup>A at these two conserved adenosines is a fortuitous phenomenon.

These translational differences between the D87E mutant and the WT disappeared under methionine starvation [\(Figures 4A](#page-8-0) and 4B; [Table S2\)](#page-11-0). Although methionine deprivation generally decreased TE of these sulfur metabolism genes in WT and the E85Q mutant, most of them were translated with higher TE in the D87E mutant [\(Figure 4D](#page-8-0)). The only significantly changed gene in the D87E mutant under methionine starvation is *JIP5*, which encodes an essential LSU biogenesis factor [\(Li et al.,](#page-13-13) [2009\)](#page-13-13) [\(Figure 4](#page-8-0)A; [Table S2\)](#page-11-0). Methionine starvation drastically reduced TE of *JIP5* in all three strains [\(Table S3\)](#page-11-0), but the reduction was significantly more pronounced in the D87E mutant [\(Figure 4A](#page-8-0); [Table S2](#page-11-0)). However, methionine starvation led to



significantly more TE changes in the E85Q mutant compared with WT, with 114 genes showing altered TE (55 with higher TE and 59 with lower TE) [\(Figure 4A](#page-8-0); [Table S2](#page-11-0)). Of the genes with lower TE, approximately half (29/59) encode the ribosome SSU and LSU ([Table S2](#page-11-0)).

## The E85Q mutant that lacks methylation at A1781/ methionine starvation

Lastly, we observed that methionine starvation led to strong pausing/stalling at cysteine codons within the ribosome aminoacyl site (A site) in WT and the D87E mutant, which strikingly was absent from the E85Q mutant that lacks both m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A [\(Figures 5A](#page-9-0) and 5B). Surprisingly, no pausing at the methionine codon was observed in any of the three strains. Methionine starvation is expected to lower many sulfurous metabolites, including cysteine, which may result in lower cysteinyl-tRNA amounts to cause ribosome pausing/stalling at cysteine codons. Indeed, many sulfurous metabolites plummeted under methionine starvation, but surprisingly, the E85Q mutant was able to maintain higher levels of cysteine, homocysteine, cystathionine, reduced glutathione (GSH), and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) [\(Figure 5C](#page-9-0)). Other amino acids were not necessarily increased in the E85Q mutant, suggesting that the higher levels of sulfurous metabolites are not simply due to its slower growth rate [\(Figures](#page-5-0) [3E](#page-5-0), [S8](#page-11-0)A, and S8B). Nevertheless, although the slightly increased  $\,$ cysteine amounts ( $\sim$ 60%) might increase cysteinyl- $\,$ t $\,$ RNA to alle- $\,$ viate pausing/stalling, the E85Q mutant still exhibited a substan-tial reduction of cysteine under methionine starvation ([Figure 5C](#page-9-0)), which led us to consider additional explanations for its lack of pausing/stalling at cysteine codons.

Given that the tandem  $m_{2}^{6}$ A modifications reside close to the DCS, we speculated that loss of methylation might render ribosomes less sticky at cysteine codons despite limited cysteinyltRNA. Perhaps the unmethylated ribosomes are intrinsically prone to errors and could decode cysteine codons using their near-cognate aminoacyl-tRNAs, whose availability is unlikely to be limited by methionine starvation [\(Figure S8](#page-11-0)B). To test this hypothesis, we used a luciferase reporter ([Figure 5D](#page-9-0)) ([Salas-Marco](#page-14-15) [and Bedwell, 2005\)](#page-14-15) in which a histidine codon (CAC) critical for Firefly luciferase activity is mutated to an arginine encoded by its near-cognate codon CGC. This change severely reduces Firefly luciferase activity, which can be restored if the CGC codon is decoded by histidinyl-tRNA<sup>GUG</sup>. With this reporter, we found that the E85Q mutant exhibited significantly higher decoding errors than WT and the D87E mutant [\(Figure 5E](#page-9-0)), similar to the previously reported E85A mutant [\(Ghalei et al., 2017\)](#page-12-13). As an important control, we found that disruption of *RPS22B* or *RPS9A* did not increase decoding errors ([Figure 5F](#page-9-0)). Moreover, we deleted the *TSR3* gene, which encodes the aminocarboxypropyl transferase for the *N*<sup>1</sup> -methyl-*N*<sup>3</sup> -aminocarboxypropyl-pseudouridine (m<sup>1</sup>acp<sup>3</sup>ψ) modification in yeast 18S rRNA (<mark>[Meyer](#page-13-14)</mark> [et al., 2016](#page-13-14)). Its deletion causes rRNA processing defects ([Li](#page-13-13) [et al., 2009\)](#page-13-13) reminiscent of those observed in the E85Q mutant [\(Figure S8](#page-11-0)C). The *tsr3*D mutant showed similar decoding fidelity compared with WT cells [\(Figure 5G](#page-9-0)). Collectively, these results suggest that the increased decoding errors in the E85Q mutant likely stem from the absence of methylation at A1781/A1782,

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

#### Figure 4. Translational regulation of sulfur metabolism genes via methylation multiplicity

(A) Change of translation efficiency (TE) under methionine-replete and methionine-starvation conditions. A 10% false discovery rate (FDR) ( $-$ log<sub>10</sub>(P<sub>adi</sub>)  $\geq$  1) and 2-fold change of TE (log<sub>2</sub>(TE fold change)  $\geq 1$  or log<sub>2</sub>(TE fold change)  $\leq -1$ ) are considered significant, and genes with significantly changed TE are highlighted in black.

(B) Representative tracks of ribosome footprint (RFP) and mRNA for *JLP1*, *YCT1*, *MET3*, and *RPN10*. Two biological replicates for each genotype are shown, and tracks are comparable only within each RFP or RNA group.

(C) Simplified schematic of yeast sulfur metabolism. Highlighted are proteins whose transcripts are translated with significantly lower TE in the D87E mutant under methionine-replete conditions.

(D) Impact of methionine starvation on TE and mRNA levels of sulfur metabolism genes listed in (C).

The p values were calculated using two-sided Mann-Whitney test. \*\*\*\* $p < 0.0001$ .

See also [Figures S5–S7](#page-11-0) and [Tables S1](#page-11-0), [S2,](#page-11-0) and [S3.](#page-11-0)

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rather than rRNA processing defects. Loss of methylation at these tandem adenosines may facilitate decoding of cysteine codons at the cost of translation fidelity to alleviate pausing/stalling under methionine starvation. This interpretation might also explain the attenuated pausing/stalling at CCG (proline) and CGA (arginine) codons in the E85Q mutant ([Figure 5](#page-9-0)A), because both are rare codons without their cognate tRNAs ([Tuller et al.,](#page-14-16) [2010](#page-14-16)).

### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**DISCUSSION**

## Methylation multiplicity as a mechanism to diversify

Ribosomes have long been perceived as a homogeneous population. However, it has become evident that they may exist as a group of heterogeneous entities, with respect to not only their protein subunit composition but also modifications of these subunits and rRNA [\(Byrgazov et al., 2013;](#page-12-14) [Dinman, 2016;](#page-12-15) [Genuth](#page-12-16) [and Barna, 2018](#page-12-16)). Here, we present another example of ribosome heterogeneity in the form of rRNA methylation via methylation multiplicity. The presence of m $^6$ A at the conserved tandem adenosines in 18S rRNA, together with  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A, increases the complexity of the SSU. By conducting a comprehensive mutagenesis analysis, we were able to increase m<sup>6</sup>A levels in bulk by introducing an E85D or D87E mutation to Dim1p ([Figures](#page-5-0) [3](#page-5-0)B–3D). Such conservative changes by a single methylene group  $(-CH<sub>2</sub>-)$  minimize perturbations that could be inadvertently introduced to the cell. Analyses of polysome and ribosome subunit profiles ([Figures S5](#page-11-0)A and S5B), rRNA processing ([Figure S6](#page-11-0)B), the transcriptome ([Figure S7](#page-11-0)D), intracellular metabolites ([Figures](#page-9-0) [5](#page-9-0)C and [S8](#page-11-0)B), and 18S rRNA modifications ([Figure S8D](#page-11-0)) indicate that the D87E mutant is virtually indistinguishable from WT. Still, this mutant bearing more m<sup>6</sup>A in its ribosomes carries out translation distinctly compared with WT cells, featuring a striking specificity for sulfur metabolism genes and a peculiar depen-dency on sulfur availability ([Figures 4A](#page-8-0)-4C). It is unclear how this specificity is determined, although all of these genes are heavily induced at the transcriptional level by methionine starvation ([Figure 4](#page-8-0)D; [Table S3\)](#page-11-0). Perhaps a *cis*-regulatory element is embedded in their transcripts to confer the specificity, as re-ported previously [\(Xue et al., 2015](#page-14-17)). However, ongoing bioinformatic investigation has yet to identify promising candidates. In addition, *trans*-acting factors (e.g., RNA-binding proteins) might assist in determining the specificity ([Leppek et al., 2018](#page-13-15)).

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With respect to the sulfur dependency, two outstanding questions remain. The first concerns how sulfur metabolism transcripts are translated with higher TE in the D87E mutant under methionine starvation [\(Figure 4](#page-8-0)D), when global translation is repressed [\(Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S5](#page-11-0)A). One possible explanation is that m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing SSU might function more efficiently using non-canonical translation pathways, e.g., internal ribosome entry site (IRES)-mediated translation, which is known to operate under stress conditions [\(Gilbert](#page-13-16) [et al., 2007](#page-13-16); [Holcik and Sonenberg, 2005](#page-13-17); [Spriggs et al., 2008](#page-14-18)). Under methionine-replete conditions, m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing SSU might be inefficient at translating sulfur metabolism transcripts using the canonical cap-dependent pathway, perhaps because of the presence of IRES in their 5' untranslated regions. Under methionine starvation, cap-dependent translation may be inhibited because of methionine scarcity. m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing SSU, perhaps with assistance from IRES *trans*-acting factors[\(King et al., 2010;](#page-13-18) [Komar](#page-13-19) [and Hatzoglou, 2011\)](#page-13-19), might be able to efficiently recognize IRES within these sulfur metabolism transcripts to support their translation during methionine starvation.

The second question concerns the dependency of the TE differences between the WT and the D87E mutant on methionine availability [\(Figure 4](#page-8-0)A). Because translation of these sulfur metabolism transcripts is seemingly recalcitrant to methionine depri-vation in the D87E mutant ([Figure 4](#page-8-0)D), we speculate that they might be translated predominantly by m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes in WT under methionine starvation. A single yeast cell is estimated to contain  $\sim$ 200,000 ribosomes ([von der Haar, 2008;](#page-14-19) [Warner, 1999](#page-14-20)), and a stoichiometry of  $\sim$ 10% would equal  $\sim$ 20,000 m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes in methionine-starved WT cells. If the yeast transcriptome comprises  $\sim$  60,000 mRNA mol-ecules [\(Zenklusen et al., 2008](#page-14-21)), there should be sufficient m<sup>6</sup>Abearing ribosomes for these sulfur metabolism transcripts.

### Functional importance of the tandem  $m^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications

2000 metambra many control of the manufacture of the control of the control of the many of them reside in structurally important positions within the ribosome [\(Sloan et al., 2017](#page-14-22)), it is perhaps not surprising that rRNA modifications have been shown to play key roles in maintaining translation efficiency and translation accuracy [\(Baudin-Baillieu](#page-12-17) [et al., 2009](#page-12-17); [Jack et al., 2011](#page-13-20); [King et al., 2003](#page-13-21); [Lafontaine et al.,](#page-13-22) [1998](#page-13-22); [Liang et al., 2009;](#page-13-23) [Ma et al., 2019](#page-13-2); [Schosserer et al.,](#page-14-23) [2015](#page-14-23)). rRNA modifications can also be selectively impactful, because some appear to regulate translation of only a subset of mRNAs, such as rRNA pseudouridylation [\(Bellodi et al., 2010a,](#page-12-18)

Figure 5. The E85Q mutation abolishes pausing/stalling at cysteine codons under methionine starvation

<sup>(</sup>A) Relative enrichment of ribosomes at each codon under methionine-replete and methionine-starvation conditions. Reads were mapped to the ribosome aminoacyl site (A site). Two biological replicates for each genotype are shown (two circles per genotype), with their average being represented by a solid line. The p values were calculated using unpaired two-tailed Student's t test, assuming equal variances for comparison between WT and the E85Q mutant. (B) Representative tracks showing enrichment of ribosomes at two cysteine codons of the *MET30* transcript following methionine starvation.

<sup>(</sup>C) Changes in sulfurous metabolites under methionine-replete and methionine-starvation conditions. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 2 biological replicates).

<sup>(</sup>D) Schematic of the dual luciferase reporters.

<sup>(</sup>E) E85Q mutant has higher decoding errors. Mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 6 biological replicates).

<sup>(</sup>F) Loss of *RPS22B/snR44* or *RPS9A* does not affect decoding fidelity. Mean ± SD (n = 5–11 and n = 7–11 biological replicates for the control and the H245R reporter, respectively).

<sup>(</sup>G) rRNA processing defects due to loss of *TSR3* do not increase decoding errors. Mean ± SD (n = 3 biological replicates).

The p values were calculated using ordinary one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's multiple comparison test with a single pooled variance for (C) and (E)–(G). p > 0.05 (n.s.),  $np < 0.05$ ,  $*^{*}p < 0.01$ ,  $*^{**}p < 0.001$ ,  $*^{***}p < 0.0001$ .

See also [Figures S7](#page-11-0) and [S8.](#page-11-0)

[2010b](#page-12-19); [Yoon et al., 2006](#page-14-24)) and 2'-O-methylation ([Basu et al., 2011;](#page-12-20) [Erales et al., 2017](#page-12-21); [Marcel et al., 2013](#page-13-24)) in IRES-mediated translation. Moreover, a recent study suggests that m6 A in *C. elegans* 18S rRNA is important for translating an mRNA involved in lipid oxidation ([Liberman et al., 2020\)](#page-13-25).

Among all known rRNA modifications, the tandem  $\mathsf{m^6}_2$ A modifications are remarkably conserved; they are found almost uni-versally at the 3' end of SSU rRNA ([Rife, 2009;](#page-14-8) [Van Knippenberg](#page-14-9) [et al., 1984\)](#page-14-9), which situates them close to the ribosome P site [\(Fig](#page-11-0)[ure S4](#page-11-0)A) and the DCS [\(Sharma and Lafontaine, 2015\)](#page-14-10). Despite their conservation and occupation of a structurally important location, the functional importance of the tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications remains incompletely understood. One obstacle is that Dim1p (and its homologs) is a dual-function protein required for both m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A methylation and rRNA processing ([Connolly et al.,](#page-12-22) [2008;](#page-12-22) [Lafontaine et al., 1995;](#page-13-10) [Zorbas et al., 2015](#page-14-25)), and a *dim1* mutant that completely uncouples these two functions has hitherto been elusive (see [Limitations of study\)](#page-11-1). A previous study showed that cellular extract from a *dim1-2* mutant was incompetent at translating reporter genes [\(Lafontaine et al., 1998\)](#page-13-22). Although some defects may result from the loss of  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A, effects of impaired rRNA processing in the *dim1-2* mutant have not been excluded. In our work, some changes in the E85Q mutant in the ribosome profiling and RNA-seq experiments [\(Figures 4](#page-8-0)A and [S7](#page-11-0)D), as well as the growth assays ([Figures 3E](#page-5-0) and [S8](#page-11-0)A), may stem from rRNA processing defects. However, we have performed important controls to rule out defects in SSU biogenesis and rRNA processing as an explanation for the increased decoding errors in the E85Q mutant ([Figures 5](#page-9-0)F and 5G). Therefore, minimally, we conclude that the tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications are important for maintaining translation fidelity and possibly for pausing/stalling at cysteine codons under methionine starvation.

## <span id="page-11-1"></span>Limitations of study Challenges in uncoupling the methyltransferase activity of Dim1p from its rRNA processing functions

<span id="page-11-0"></span>Functional interrogation of the tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$ <sub>2</sub>A modifications necessitates a *dim1* mutant that uncouples its methyltransferase activity from its rRNA processing functions. Despite significant efforts in previous studies [\(Connolly et al., 2008](#page-12-22); [Lafontaine et al., 1998\)](#page-13-22) and our work, such a mutant has yet to be found. An early study in yeast constructed a temperature-sensitive *dim1-2* mutant that is reportedly defective in methylation [\(Lafontaine et al., 1998\)](#page-13-22). However, this *dim1-2* mutant, containing six substitutions, still exhibits rRNA processing defects and retains some methyltransferase activity for m $^6$ 2A and perhaps for m $^6$ A as well (primer extension may not effectively distinguish between m $^6$ A and A). Similar efforts in *E. coli* were also unsuccessful ([Connolly et al., 2008](#page-12-22)): the tested KsgA<sup>E66A</sup> (equivalent to Dim1p<sup>E85A</sup>) might still be partially active based on our findings with Dim1p<sup>E85A</sup> ([Figures 3](#page-5-0)B and [S2](#page-11-0)D), and importantly it leads to defects in SSU biogenesis and rRNA processing ([Connolly et al., 2008\)](#page-12-22). Here, we introduced a highly conservative E85Q mutation to eliminate the methyltransferase activity of Dim1p [\(Figure 1E](#page-2-0)), but unfortunately, this E85Q mutant is still defective in SSU biogenesis ([Figures S5](#page-11-0)A and S5B) and rRNA processing [\(Figure S6B](#page-11-0)). Recent structural work reveals that the E85A mutation has little impact on the overall conformation of human DIMT1 [\(Shen et al., 2020](#page-14-26)), and conceivably, the E85Q mutation



would be expected to be even less disruptive. Still, even such a conservative change leads to rRNA processing defects. With the aforementioned early findings, this led us to speculate that the methyltransferase activity of Dim1p might be involved in rRNA processing, as proposed previously ([Connolly et al., 2008\)](#page-12-22).

Therefore, the difficulty in uncoupling the dual functions of Dim1p may limit our interpretation of the ribosome profiling and RNA-seq experiments [\(Figures 4A](#page-8-0) and [S7D](#page-11-0)) and of the growth as-says [\(Figures 3E](#page-5-0) and [S8A](#page-11-0)), because some changes may not stem directly from the loss of methylation. However, we have included important controls to rule out defects in SSU biogenesis and rRNA processing as an explanation for the increased decoding errors in the E85Q mutant [\(Figures 5F](#page-9-0) and 5G). In closing, the tandem  $\mathsf{m}^6$   $_{\mathsf{2}}$ A modifications are important for ensuring translational fidelity and possibly for pausing/stalling at cysteine codons under methionine starvation. Nonetheless, these and other phenotypes of the E85Q mutant, such as changes in transcript levels or translational efficiency, could be secondary and compensatory because of defects in rRNA processing and/or SSU biogenesis.

### STAR+METHODS

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#### **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

This study was conceived by K.L. and B.P.T. K.L. conducted all genetics, molecular biology, and mass spectrometry experiments. D.A.S. performed ribosome profiling and RNA-seq, D.A.S. and K.L. analyzed the sequencing data, J.A.H. performed metacodon analysis, Y.W. performed experiments with mammalian cell lines, and B.M.S. performed western blots. K.L. led and conducted all other experiments in this study. Funding support was provided by B.P.T. and J.S.W. The manuscript was written by K.L. and B.P.T. All authors have read and approve the manuscript.

#### **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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The following references appear in the supplemental information: [Calvo et al.](#page-12-23) [\(1999\);](#page-12-23) [Gueldener et al. \(2002\);](#page-13-26) [Keeling et al. \(2004\)](#page-13-27); [Miller et al. \(2013\);](#page-13-28) [Taoka](#page-14-27) [et al. \(2016\);](#page-14-27) [Voth et al. \(2001\)](#page-14-28).

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# **Cell Reports**<br>Report



## <span id="page-15-0"></span>STAR+METHODS

## <span id="page-15-1"></span>KEY RESOURCES TABLE



(*Continued on next page*)

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#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>Lead contact

Lead contact Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Benjamin Tu ([benjamin.tu@utsouthwestern.edu\)](mailto:benjamin.tu@utsouthwestern.edu).

#### **Materials availability**

materials available upon request from the Lead Contact.

All sequencing data have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus with the accession number GEO: GSE142528.

### <span id="page-16-1"></span>**EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**

Yeast strains and growth conditions Prototrophic CEN.PK *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [\(van Dijken et al., 2000\)](#page-14-29) was used for strain construction ([Table S4](#page-11-0)), using the lithium acetate based transformation protocol ([Longtine et al., 1998](#page-13-30)). Unless otherwise stated, yeast strains were grown in SD medium containing 20 g L<sup>-1</sup> glucose and 6.7 g L<sup>-1</sup> yeast nitrogen base without amino acids (BD Difco) at 30°C and 300 rpm. For nutrient starvation experiments, medium formulas are listed in [Table S5.](#page-11-0) Plasmids were constructed using the Gibson assembly protocol ([Gibson et al.,](#page-12-24) [2009](#page-12-24)) and site directed mutagenesis was performed using Phusion HF polymerase (NEB) with primers bearing the desired mutations ([Table S4\)](#page-11-0), followed by DpnI (NEB) digestion and subsequent transformation into *E. coli* DH5a. All the plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing.

mammalian cell lines and grown conditions<br>All cell lines (HeLa, HEK293T, and 3T3, see [Key resources table](#page-15-1) for details) were cultured in a Heracell humidified incubator (Thermofisher, HERAcell 150i) at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. HeLa cells were maintained in RPMI-1640 (GIBCO A14517-01), and 3T3 and HEK293T cells in DMEM (GIBCO 21013-024). Both media were supplemented with the required amino acids and 5% fetal bovine serum (Sigma F6178). When confluency reached  $\sim$ 80%, cells were washed with PBS twice and subsequently cultured in either RPMI-1640 (GIBCO A14517-01) or DMEM (GIBCO 21013-024) with or without methionine. After six hours, cells were harvested and total RNA was isolated using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher), as described below.

#### <span id="page-16-2"></span>**Total RNA isolation**

Yeast cell pellet stored at  $-80^\circ$ C was thawed on ice and washed with ice-cold sterile water once. TES (10 mM <u>T</u>ris-HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0, and 0.5% SDS) was added to resuspend the cell pellet followed by addition of an equal volume of acidic phenol (pH 4.3). Cells were lysed using acid-washed glass beads on a bead beater (two cycles of one-minute beating followed by one-minute cooling on ice). Cell debris and glass beads were removed by centrifugation. The aqueous phase was transferred into a clean centrifuge tube and extracted with an equal volume of acidic phenol, followed by a third extraction with chloroform to remove the residual phenol. RNA was ethanol precipitated, washed with 70% ethanol, and dried before finally being dissolved in nuclease-free water. Purified RNA was examined electrophoretically and quantified spectrophotomically.

Mammalian RNA was isolated using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher). Briefly, 2 mL TRIzol was dispensed into 15-cm dish and cell suspension was collected by pipetting. Cell pellet was either stored at -80°C or processed immediately. To 1 mL TRIzol cell suspension, 250 µL chloroform was added. The mixture was vortexed vigorously and centrifuged. The aqueous phase was transferred to a clean centrifuge tube with 600 µL isopropanol and precipitated on ice. RNA was pelleted by centrifugation and washed with 70% ethanol once to remove salts. RNA was then resuspended in nuclease-free water and digested with DNase I to remove



DNA. DNase I was subsequently removed using phenol (pH 4.3):chloroform (1:1) extraction and RNA was recovered by ethanol precipitated. RNA was washed once with 70% ethanol and resuspended in nuclease-free water.

### **RNA fractionation**

mall RNA was purified using the PureLink miRNA isolation kit (Invitrogen) and polyA<sup>+</sup> RNA was isolated using the Dynabeads mRNA purification kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturers' instructions. To isolate 18S and 25S rRNA, we mixed total RNA with an equal volume of 2 x RNA loading solution (95% formamide, 0.02% SDS, 0.02% bromophenol blue, and 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0) and denatured RNA samples at 75°C for five minutes followed by rapid chilling on ice. Denatured RNA was loaded onto a 1.3% TAE low melting agarose gel. The 18S and 25S rRNA were visualized by ethidium bromide staining, excised using a clean scalpel, and purified using the NuceloSpin Gel and PCR clean-up kit (Takara) following the manufacturer's instructions.

**Estimation of stoichiometry of m°A in yeast 18S rRNA**<br>We used HeLa 18S rRNA as the standard, since it is modified with a single m<sup>6</sup>A at A1832 to ~98% ([Liu et al., 2013](#page-13-31)). Yeast and HeLa 18S rRNA were digested and ribonucleosides were quantified as described below. The abundance of m $^6$ A was normalized to each of the four ribonucleosides (A, G, C, and U). These ratios were further corrected to account for the differences in the abundance of each ribonucleoside between yeast and HeLa cells. The stoichiometry of m<sup>6</sup>A in yeast 18S rRNA was then estimated by comparing the normalized m<sup>6</sup>A (e.g., m<sup>6</sup>A/A) between yeast and HeLa cells. Normalization by each of the four ribonucleosides gave similar results, averaging between 4%–5% of m<sup>6</sup>A per 18S rRNA.

mang bean nuclease (man, protection assay<br>This assay was performed as described previously ([Andersen et al., 2004;](#page-12-25) [Peifer et al., 2013](#page-14-30); [Sharma et al., 2013](#page-14-31)) with some modifications. A total of  $\sim$ 1000 pmole DNA oligo was mixed with 200  $\mu$ g total RNA. After ethanol precipitation and wash, the nucleic acid mixture was resuspended in 40  $\mu$ L 1 x hybridization buffer (40 mM PIPES pH 6.4, 400 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 20% formamide) and heated at 85 $\degree$ C for ten minutes followed by incubation at 35 $\degree$ C for three hours. The hybridization mixture was then mixed with 497 µL nuclease-free water, 60 µL 10  $\times$  RNA digestion buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 3 M sodium acetate pH 5.2, 50 mM EDTA pH 8.0), and 3  $\mu$ L 5 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> RNase A (Epicenter), and incubated at 37°C for one hour. The digestion mixture was then extracted with an equal volume of acidic phenol (pH 4.3):chloroform (1:1) and ethanol precipitated. The nucleic acid pellet was washed, resuspended in 100  $\mu$ L 1  $\times$  MBN buffer (30 mM NaCl, 50 mM sodium acetate, 1 mM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, pH 5.0) supplemented with 4.5  $\mu$ L 10 U  $\mu$ l<sup>-1</sup> MBN (NEB), and incubated at 30°C for one hour. The digestion mixture was then extracted with an equal volume of acidic phenol (pH 4.3): chloroform (1:1) and ethanol precipitated. The precipitated nucleic acid was loaded onto a 15% polyacrylamide gel and the RNA:DNA hybrid was visualized by ethidium bromide staining and excised using a clean scalpel. The gel slice was transferred to a clean microcentrifuge tube, crushed, and soaked in 200 µL elution buffer containing 300 mM sodium acetate (pH 5.3), 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), and 0.1% SDS. The eluted RNA:DNA fragment was ethanol precipitated, washed, and resuspended in nucleasefree water. Alternatively, the RNA:DNA hybrid was extracted using D-Tube Dialyzer Mini (MWCO 6-8 kDa) (EMD Millipore) by electroelution following the manufacturer's instructions.

RNA digestion and nucleoside detection were performed essentially as described by [Laxman et al. \(2013\)](#page-13-32). Briefly, RNA was resuspended in 102 µL of ultrapure water and 7 µL of acidic buffer (0.1 M sodium acetate, 20 mM ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, pH 6.8) was added, followed by the addition of 5 µg RNase A (Epicenter) and 1.5 U nuclease P1 (Sigma). Digestion was carried out at 37°C for four hours before 7 µL of basic buffer (0.3 M sodium acetate, pH 7.8) was added. The digestion mixture was further treated with 10 U alkaline phosphatase (calf intestinal, NEB) and 5  $\mu$ L 8 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> snake venom phosphodiesterase I (Sigma) overnight to maximize digestion and dephosphorylation efficiency.

The digested samples were separated on a Synergi Fusion-RP column (4  $\mu$ m particle size, 80 Å pore size, 150 mm  $\times$  2 mm, Phenomenex) using a Shimadzu high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) machine and simultaneously detected under positive mode by a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (3200 QTRAP, ABSCIEX). The total run time was 25 minutes at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, with 5 mM ammonium acetate (pH 5.5) in water as solvent A and 5 mM ammonium acetate in methanol as solvent B. The following gradient elution was performed: 0.01 min, 0% B, 4 min, 0% B, 5 min, 0.2% B, 6 min, 1% B, 7 min, 3% B, 8 min, 5% B, 14 min, 25% B, 16 min, 50% B, 18 min, 100% B, 22 min, 100% B, 23 min, 0% B, 25 min, 0% B. Ribonucleosides were quantified using the Analyst software package 1.6.2 or 1.6.3 by calculating the total peak area. For each experiment, authentic standards were injected and analyzed alongside samples.

#### **LC-MS/MS detection of metabolites**

Le metabolites accounts of metabolities<br>The extraction protocol comprised two sequential steps: quenching and extraction, as described in [Castrillo et al. \(2003\)](#page-12-26) and [Gon](#page-13-33)[zalez et al. \(1997\),](#page-13-33) respectively. To quench cells, one volume of cell culture was mixed with three volumes of methanol-water solution (60% v/v, buffered with 10 mM Tricine to pH 7.4) kept at  $-40^{\circ}$ C. Quenched cells were centrifuged and resuspended in extraction buffer containing ethanol-water solution (75% v/v, 0.1% formic acid to minimize oxidation of thiols) and heated at 80°C for three



minutes. Cell extraction was immediately chilled on ice and subsequently centrifuged at maximum speed at  $0^\circ C$  to remove cell debris. The supernatant was vacuum dried and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until analysis.

Samples were analyzed using reversed-phase HPLC coupled to tandem mass spectrometry as described previously ([Tu et al.,](#page-14-32) [2007](#page-14-32)). Metabolites were separated on a Synergi Fusion-RP column (4  $\mu$ m particle size, 80 Å pore size, 150 mm  $\times$  2 mm, Phenomenex) using a Shimadzu HPLC machine and simultaneously detected by a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (3200 QTRAP, AB SCIEX). The total run time was 22 minutes at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, with 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in water as solvent A and 0.1% (v/ v) formic acid in methanol as solvent B. The following gradient elution was performed: 0.01 min, 0% B, 4 min, 0% B, 11 min, 50% B, 13 min, 100% B, 17 min, 100% B, 18 min, 0% B, 22 min, 0% B. Metabolites were detected by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) with transitions listed in [Table S6](#page-11-0). Metabolites were quantified using the Analyst software package 1.6.2 or 1.6.3 by calculating total peak area.

Competition assay Competition between various strains was performed as described previously ([Sankar et al., 2016\)](#page-14-33), with some modifications. To distinguish between *dim1* and WT, the *E. coli lacZ* gene controlled by the *TEF1* promoter and *CYC1* terminator was inserted into an intergenic region between *NCA3* and *ASF1*. This site was selected according to [Mikkelsen et al. \(2012\)](#page-13-34), who reported that a similar integration in this region supports robust *lacZ* expression and does not noticeably impact growth. To control for the impact of *lacZ* expression on fitness, the *lacZ* cassette was integrated into both *dim1* mutants and WT. For example, for competition between WT and the E85Q mutant, two experiments (*a* and *b*) were performed in parallel with the following combinations: WT-*lacZ* versus E85Q and WT versus E85Q-*lacZ*. Cells were first acclimated in complete medium and then grown in fresh complete medium to log phase. To start the competition, two competitors were mixed at a ratio of 1:1, with each having an initial OD<sub>600</sub>  $\sim$ 0.01. Cells were grown to saturation ( $\sim$ 7-8 doublings) and were diluted into fresh complete medium in 1:200 after approximately 24 hours. This was then repeated for a minimum of four times and the first round of competition was typically excluded for fitness calculation as cells were just beginning to adapt to the new environment. Nevertheless, cells were plated onto synthetic defined agar plates (6.7 g  $L^{-1}$ yeast nitrogen base without amino acids (BD Difco), 0.79 g L<sup>-1</sup> CSM (Sunrise Science), 20 g L<sup>-1</sup> glucose, and 20 g L<sup>-1</sup> agar), supplemented with 80  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-ß-D-galactopyranoside (X-gal) and BU salts (26.1 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> and 25 mM NaH2PO4, pH 7.0). Blue (competitor expressing *lacZ*) and white colonies were counted in duplicate to minimize counting errors. Fitness was calculated relative to WT using the following equations:

$$
f_a^i = \frac{T_{\text{dim1}-\text{lacZ}}^i}{T_{\text{DIM1}}^i}
$$

 $f_b^i = \frac{T_{dim1}^i}{T_{DIM1-lacZ}^i}$ 

$$
\overline{f_a} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{1}^{n} f_a^i
$$

$$
\overline{f_b} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{1}^{n} f_b'
$$

$$
\overline{f} = \sqrt{\overline{f_a} \times \overline{f_b}}
$$

, where  $f_a^i$  and  $f_b^i$  are the relative fitness of *dim1-lacZ* to WT and *dim1* to WT-*lacZ* in the *i*th round of competition, respectively;  $T_{genotype}^i$ is the number of doublings of a particular strain during a 24-hour competition and *i* is the *i*th round of competition;  $\overline{f_a}$  and  $\overline{f_b}$  are the arithmetic mean fitness of *dim1*-*lacZ* to WT and *dim1* to WT-*lacZ*, respectively. *f* is the geometric mean fitness of *dim1* relative to WT, which was reported in [Figure 3](#page-5-0)E.

Dual-luciferase assay The dual-luciferase assay was performed as described previously [\(Ghalei et al., 2017;](#page-12-13) [Salas-Marco and Bedwell, 2005](#page-14-15)), using the Dual Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) with some modifications. When cells reached log phase, one mL of culture was collected by centrifugation and cell pellets were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until analysis. Cell pellets were first thawed on ice and washed once with ice-cold water to remove the residual medium. Cells were then lysed in 100 µL passive



lysis buffer at room temperature for one minute and 10 µL was added to 30 µL Luciferase Assay Reagent II to measure Firefly luciferase activity, followed by the addition of 30 µL Stop & Glow Reagent to measure Renilla luciferase activity. Luminescence was recorded for ten seconds in a 96-well flat-bottom black polystyrene plate (COSTAR) on a Synergy 2 plate reader (BioTek) at room temperature and reported in relative luminescence units (RLU). Background-subtracted Firefly luciferase activity was subsequently normalized to background-subtracted Renilla luciferase activity.

**Congles for polysome profiling were prepared as described with some modifications (**[Ma](#page-13-35)š[ek et al., 2011](#page-13-35)). When cells were ready, cycloheximide (dissolved in 100% ethanol) was added to a final concentration of 0.1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> and frozen ice at  $-20^{\circ}$ C (2 g per 10 mL culture) was added to rapidly chill cells. After further incubation on ice for five minutes, cells were centrifuged at  $4^{\circ}$ C, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until processing. Frozen cell pellets were thawed on ice and washed twice in polysome extraction buffer (PEB) (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 140 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> cycloheximide, 1% Triton X-100, and 0.5 mM DTT). Cells were subsequently lysed in PEB with glass beads on a bead beater following three rounds of beating (30 s beating and two-minute cooling on ice). Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 8000  $\times$  g for five minutes at 4°C and supernatant was collected and measured spectrophotometrically at 260 nm. A 10%–50% (w/v) sucrose gradient was prepared using BIOCOMP Gradient Station *ip* in 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 140 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> cycloheximide, and 0.5 mM DTT. Approximately one A<sub>260</sub> unit of cell lysates was carefully loaded onto the top of the sucrose gradient and centrifuged at 41,000  $\times$  g for two hours at 4C. Polysome profiles were recorded using BIOCOMP Gradient Station *ip* by measuring absorbance at 260 nm.

### **Western blot**

--------------<br>Samples for western blot were quenched in 10% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) for ten minutes on ice and then stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until analysis. Cell pellets were washed once in cold acetone to remove the residual TCA, before bead-beating in urea lysis buffer containing 6 M urea, 1% SDS, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 10 µM leupeptin, 5 mM pepstatin A, and 1 x protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Lysates were heated for five minutes at  $75^{\circ}$ C and then centrifuged at maximum speed for five minutes. Protein concentration was estimated using the bicinchoninic acid assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and equal amounts of proteins were separated by electrophoresis using 4%–12% NuPAGE gels. Proteins were then transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane and blotted with the corresponding antibodies. Blocking was performed in 5% dry milk/TBST, while antibody incubation was in 1% dry milk/TBST. Antibodies were used at the following dilutions: a-FLAG 1:3,000 (Sigma F1804), a-Rpn10p 1:40,000 (Abcam ab98843), a-G6pdhp 1:20,000 (Sigma A9521).

Northern blot Northern blot was performed as described previously [\(Josefsen and Nielsen, 2011](#page-13-36); [Tafforeau et al., 2013\)](#page-14-34), with minor modifications. Briefly, total RNA of equal amounts was separated on a 1.2% denaturing formaldehyde agarose gel and transferred to a nylon membrane (Hybond-N<sup>+</sup>, GE healthcare). RNA was crosslinked to the membrane using a UV-cross linker (Stratagene) and stained with methylene blue (0.02% in 0.3 M sodium acetate, pH 5.0). Membrane was washed in nuclease-free water a few times to remove the dye and images were taken using the ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad). Membrane was pre-hybridized in hybridization solution containing 50% deionized formamide,  $5 \times$  SSPE,  $5 \times$  Denhardt's solution, and 1% SDS at 65°C for one hour. The hybridization solution was discarded and fresh solution with 10 pM biotinylated DNA probe was added. Membrane was incubated at 65°C for another hour and then at 37°C overnight. Membrane-bound biotinylated DNA probes were detected using the Chemiluminescent Nucleic Acid Detection Module (Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Images were taken using the ChemiDoc MP Imaging System and processed using Image Lab 6.0 (Bio-Rad). Biotinylated DNA probes were stripped from the membrane in 50% deionized formamide and  $2 \times$  SSPE at 65°C for one hour to allow for subsequent hybridization.

Yeast cells were grown in sulfur free (see formula in [Table S5\)](#page-11-0) + 1 mM methionine (SFM) to saturation and diluted into 20 mL SFM with a starting OD $_{600}$   $\sim$ 0.1. Cells were grown to log phase and diluted into 320 mL SFM with a starting OD $_{600}$   $\sim$ 0.005. When OD $_{600}$  reached  $\sim$ 0.5-0.6, cells were harvested according to [Santos et al. \(2019\).](#page-14-14) Briefly, 200 mL pre-starvation culture was transferred into a prewarmed (30 $^{\circ}$ C) vacuum filtration apparatus and cells were collected onto a 0.45  $\mu$ m cellulose nitrate membrane filter (Whatman). Before the medium was completely drained, cell pellet was rapidly scraped using a clean metal spatula and transferred into liquid nitrogen. The remaining culture was spun down at 4000  $\times$  g for one minute and washed once with an equal volume pre-warmed (30 $^{\circ}$ C) SF medium once. Washed cells were resuspended in an equal volume pre-warmed (30 $^{\circ}$ C) SF. After two hours, cells were collected exactly as described above and cell pellets were stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until analysis.

Frozen cell pellets were cryogenically pulverized on a SPEX 6870 Freezer/Mill for one minute at 15 cycles per minute and frozen droplets of lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 140 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 100 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> cycloheximide, 1% Triton X-100, and 0.025 U  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup> Turbo DNase) were added. The cell lysate was thawed, and cell debris was removed by two sequential centrifugation steps at  $4^{\circ}$ C: first at 3000  $\times$  *g* for five minutes and then at 20,000  $\times$  *g* for ten minutes.

Libraries for ribosome profiling and RNA-seq were constructed essentially as described by [McGlincy and Ingolia \(2017\)](#page-13-37). Briefly, ribosome-protected RNA fragments ranging from  $\sim$ 15-34 nt were isolated after RNase I digestion and denaturing PAGE separation.



Cloning linkers with 3' barcode sequences were ligated to RNA footprints and samples of unique barcodes were pooled together post-ligation whenever possible. rRNA was depleted sequentially using Ribo-Zero Gold for Yeast (Illumina) and biotinylated anti-sense oligos against rRNA species that co-migrate with ribosome footprints as described by [Brar et al. \(2012\).](#page-12-27) For RNA-seq, RNA was extracted from the clarified lysates using TRIzol (Invitrogen) and rRNA was depleted using Ribo-Zero Gold for Yeast (Illumina). The processed RNA was then used to generate TruSeq Stranded libraries (Illumina) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Libraries of ribosome profiling and RNA-seq were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 in single read 50-base mode. Each set of matched ribosome profiling and RNA-seq data are derived from a single biological sample (two biological replicates in total for each strain under each condition).

FASTX-clipper and -barcode splitter [\(http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx\\_toolkit/\)](http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/) were used to remove the linker sequences and demultiplex ribosome profiling data, respectively. Unique molecular identifiers and sample barcodes were subsequently removed using a custom Python script. Reads corresponding to rRNAs and tRNAs were excluded using Bowtie v1.1.2 [\(http://bowtie-bio.](http://bowtie-bio.sourceforge.net/) [sourceforge.net/](http://bowtie-bio.sourceforge.net/)) and the remaining reads were aligned to *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genome using tophat v2.1.1 [\(https://ccb.](https://ccb.jhu.edu/software/tophat/) [jhu.edu/software/tophat/](https://ccb.jhu.edu/software/tophat/)). We then used the plastid *cs* program [\(Dunn and Weissman, 2016\)](#page-12-28) to calculate counts per gene and normalized counts per gene (in reads per kilobase per million mapped reads, or RPKM), with counts assigned to the ribosome Psite determined by the plastid *psite* program. Genome regions that could not be uniquely mapped from a 26-base read with two mismatches were identified by the plastid *crossmap* program, which, together with the first 30 and last five codons of each coding sequence (CDS), were excluded from count assignments and RPKM calculations. RNA-seq data were analyzed similarly. However, because of the TruSeq Stranded chemistry, the reads had to be reverse-complemented prior to plastid analysis, and counts were assigned to the 5'-most aligned base. We used the plastid *make wiggle* program to generate Wiggle files from genome alignments for subsequent data visualization in the IGV browser ([http://software.broadinstitute.org/software/igv/\)](http://software.broadinstitute.org/software/igv/). For visualization purposes, Wiggle counts were assigned to the ribosome P-site for ribosome profiling, or equally apportioned across reads for RNA-seq. Dubious ORFs listed in the *Saccharomyces* Genome Database (SGD, <https://www.yeastgenome.org/>) were not considered for analysis.

Translation efficiency (TE) is defined as the ratio of normalized ribosome footprint counts to normalized mRNA counts. TE and mRNA fold changes and adjusted p values were calculated from raw counts with DESeq2 ([Love et al., 2014](#page-13-38)). TE changes were calculated using the design formula  $\sim$ sample + sample:assay, where the sample interaction term denotes the growth condition and genotype (e.g., SFM\_E85Q) and the assay interaction term specifies whether counts are derived from RNA-seq or ribosome profiling. mRNA changes were calculated from RNA-seq counts using the design formula  $\sim$ sample.

Ribosome profiling data were processed to produce mean relative enrichment values for each codon as described in [Hussmann et al.](#page-13-12) [\(2015\).](#page-13-12) Briefly, footprint sequencing reads were trimmed of adaptor sequence, aligned to the yeast genome and spliced transcrip-tome with TopHat2 [\(Kim et al., 2013\)](#page-13-39), and assigned to the codon positioned in the A-site of the footprint as in [Ingolia et al. \(2009\)](#page-13-11). For each gene, the raw counts of uniquely mapped footprints with their A-site over each codon were normalized by dividing by the average count for all codons in that gene to produce a relative enrichment value for each codon. The mean relative enrichment for each codon type was then calculated by averaging the relative enrichment value at every occurrence of that codon type located at least 90 codons away from the start or stop codon of its gene. To reduce noise, genes with less than 0.1 mean footprints per codon were excluded from averaging.

## <span id="page-20-0"></span>QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

All statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism (versions 6, 7, 8, and 9), with details provided in the corresponding figure legends, such as statistical tests employed, values and definition of n, and definition of center and dispersion. No methods were used to determine whether the data met assumptions of the statistical approach.

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## Supplemental information

## Regulation of translation

## by methylation multiplicity of 18S rRNA

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Figure S1. Detection of m<sup>6</sup>A in 18S rRNA from vegetatively growing haploid yeast cells. Related to Figure 1. (A) Standard curves for m<sup>6</sup>A, m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A, and ac<sup>4</sup>C. (B) m<sup>6</sup>A is not detected in polyA<sup>+</sup> RNA from vegetatively growing haploid yeast  $(CEN.PK)$ .  $(C)$  m<sup>6</sup>A levels in polyA<sup>+</sup> RNA increase during sporulation. KL139 (CEN.PK diploid) was induced to sporulate as described exactly by Agarwala et al. (Agarwala et al. 2012). Samples were collected, immediately (0 h), three (3 h), and six hours (6 h) after cells were resuspended in sporulation medium (0.3% potassium acetate). Total RNA was isolated as described in STAR METHODS and polyA<sup>+</sup> RNA was purified from total RNA using the Dynabeads mRNA kit (Invitrogen). Approximately 1 μg polyA<sup>+</sup> RNA was digested and analyzed by LC-MS/MS. Each chromatogram was normalized by the abundance of adenosine to allow for comparison between time points. Scale bar =  $5 \mu$ m. **(D)** m<sup>6</sup>A is detected in 18S rRNA isolated from vegetatively growing haploid yeast cells (strains: S288C and W303). m<sup>6</sup>A detected in 25S (E) and small RNA (F) is likely derived from m<sup>1</sup>A via Dimroth rearrangement. OE: overexpression.  $m^1A$  and  $m^6A$  can be detected by the same MRM transition (282/150), but are eluted at different times. Each chromatogram was normalized by the abundance of adenosine to allow for comparison between different conditions. The essential tRNA m<sup>1</sup>A methyltransferase Gcd14p becomes dispensable when the initiator methionyl tRNA gene *IMT4* is overexpressed (Calvo O, et al. 1999).



## Figure S2. Validation of m<sup>6</sup>A in yeast 18S rRNA. Related to Figure 1.

(A) Schematic of the mung bean nuclease (MBN) protection assay. **(B)** Detection of the expected 2'-O-methyladenosine( $A_m$ ) at 619 in 18S rRNA. oKL169 is not complimentary to any yeast RNA and thus did not yield a RNA/DNA hybrid after digestion by RNase A and MBN. (C) m<sup>6</sup>A and m<sub>2</sub>A are derived from growing yeast cells, not from contamination during sample processing. WT cells were grown from a single colony in  $\rm l^{15}N$ ] SD (1.7 g L<sup>1</sup> yeast nitrogen base without ammonium sulfate and amino acids (BD Difco), 2% glucose, and 5 g  $L^1(^{15}NH)_{2}SO_4$  (ISOTEC). Cells were diluted in the same medium with a starting OD<sub>600</sub> ~0.01 and grown to saturation. Cells were then diluted in the same medium with a starting  $OD_{600}$  ~0.1 and grown to log phase before harvest. Total RNA was isolated and the 3' fragment of 18S rRNA was isolated using the MBN protection assay with oKL204 and analyzed by LC-MS/MS. **(D)** The Dim1p (E85A) mutant is still able to synthesize m<sup>6</sup>A, but not m<sup>6</sup><sub>2</sub>A. **(E)** Active site of *Methanocaldococcus jannaschi* Dim1. The structure was adapted from PDB#3GRY (O'Farrell et al. 2010) and prepared using Pymol (https://pymol.org). The number in parentheses corresponds to the position in *S. cerevisiae* Dim1p.



**Figure S3. Examination of rRNA modifications in yeast and mammalian cell lines.** Related to Figures 2 and 3. **(A)** Sulfate starvation does not result in obvious changes in other methylated nucleosides in 18S rRNA. Cells were grown in complete medium to log phase and starved in sulfur free medium (-S) for 2 h. Total RNA was isolated and 18S rRNA was purified, digested, and analyzed by LC-MS/MS. Peak area of each modified nucleoside was first normalized to that of ac<sup>4</sup>C and to that of complete medium. Mean  $\pm$  s.d. (n = 14 biological replicates). (B) Synthesis of m<sup>6</sup>A under sulfate starvation. Cells were grown from a single colony in [<sup>5</sup>N] SD (1.7 g L<sup>1</sup>yeast nitrogen base without amino acids and ammonium sulfate (BD Difco), 5 g L<sup>1</sup>(<sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (ISOTEC), and 2% glucose) to saturation and the next day cells were diluted into fresh [<sup>3</sup>N] SD with a starting  $OD_{600} \sim 0.01$ . Cells were allowed to grow to saturation again, diluted to  $[{}^5N]$  SD with a starting OD<sub>600</sub> ~0.1, and then were grown to log phase. Cells were shifted to pre-warmed  $\int_0^4 N$ ] sulfur free (-S) medium supplemented with 50 mg L<sup>1</sup> adenine (A) and were collected before and 2 h after the switch. Peak areas of [U-<sup>14</sup>N] and [U-<sup>15</sup>N] labeled ac<sup>4</sup>C for each condition were summed and used to normalize differentially labeled m<sub>2</sub>A. Normalized abundance was further divided by that of  $[^{15}N]$  SD samples. Mean  $\pm$  s.d. (n =3 biological replicates). (C) In the presence of sulfur, yeast cells bear more m<sup>6</sup>A in the last 37 nucleotides of 18S rRNA than mammalian cell lines. Total RNA was isolated and the 3' end of 18S rRNA was isolated using oKL204 by the MBN protection assay, digested, and analyzed by LC-MS/MS. Chromatograms were normalized by the peak area of  $m_2^6A$  to allow for comparison between samples. (D) Changes in modified nucleosides in 18S rRNA of *dim1* mutants under sulfate starvation. Cells were grown in complete medium and shifted to sulfur free medium (-S) for 2 h. Cells were collected and 18S rRNA was isolated, digested, and analyzed by LC-MS/MS as described in STAR METHODS. Peak area of modified nucleosides was first normalized to that of  $ac$ <sup>4</sup>C, and to WT grown in complete medium. Mean ± s.d. (n = 3-7 biological replicates). **(E)** Abundance of Dim1p is not discernibly impacted by the E85D, E85Q, or D87E mutations. 15



## Figure S4. m<sup>6</sup>A-bearing ribosomes engage in active translation. Related to Figure 3.

(A)  $m^6A/m^6A$  resides close to the ribosome P-site. Structures of initiation and elongation complexes were adapted from PDB#3J81 (Hussain et al. 2014). and PDB#6Q8Y (Tesina et al. 2019), respectively, and prepared using Pymol (https://pymol.org). tRNA (P) and tRNA (E) occupy the P- and E-sites of the ribosome, respectively. **(B)** 20S rRNA is absent from polysome fractions under sulfate-replete and -starvation conditions. Cells were grown in complete medium to log phase and starved of sulfate for two hours. Samples were collected for polysome profiling as described in STAR METHODS. Sucrose fractions were extracted with an equal volume of phenol (pH 4.3)/chloroform and nucleic acids were precipitated with an equal volume of isopropanol. Northern blot was performed as described in STAR METHODS.



**Figure S5. Analysis of ribosome biogenesis in** *dim1* **mutants.** Related to Figure 4.

**(A)** Polysome profiling. SSU: small subunit (40S); LSU: large subunit (60S). Cells were grown in SFM and starved of methionine in SF for 2 h. Samples were collected for polysome profiling as described in STAR METHODS. **(B)** Ribosome subunit profiling. Cells were grown in SFM and collected without cycloheximide (CHX), and were lysed in the absence of magnesium to separate the two subunits.



## **Figure S6. Analysis of rRNA processing in yeast and human cell lines.** Related to Figure 4.

**(A)** Simplified schematic of rRNA processing in yeast. Only relevant processing intermediates and cleavage sites were shown. Probes used for Northern blot were also indicated. The 22S pre-rRNA is thought to arise from cleavage at A3 of the 33S pre-rRNA, observed when Dim1p is depleted (Lafontaine et al., 1995). **(B)** The E85Q mutation, but not the D87E mutation causes rRNA processing defects. **(C)** Examination of rRNA processing in WT yeast cells grown with methionine and without methionine (2 h) using Northern blot. **(D)** Examination of rRNA processing in mammalian cell lines grown with and without methionine (6 h) using Northern blot.





**(A)** Schematic of ribosome profiling experiment. Cells were grown in SFM and starved of methionine in SF for 2 h. Samples were collected by rapid filtration followed by immersion in liquid nitrogen. See STAR METHODS for details. **(B)** Size distribution of ribosome-protected RNA fragments. One replicate is shown for each strain. **(C)** RP and RNA-seq data are highly reproducible between replicates. WT is shown as an example. **(D)** Impact of *dim1* mutations on the transcriptome under methionine-replete and -starvation conditions. Shown are relative mRNA changes compared to WT. A 10% false discovery rate  $(-\log_{10}(P_{\text{adj}}) \ge 1)$  and 2-fold change were considered significant (highlighted in black). **(E)** Transcripts of *RPS22B*/*snR44* and *RPS9A* are lower in the E85Q mutant. Shown are RNA-seq tracks under methionine-replete conditions (two replicates for each genotype). **(F)** Rps22Bp and Rps9Ap are lower in the E85Q mutant. Cells were grown in SFM and collected for Western blot as described in STAR METHODS. The *rps22B/snR44*∆ mutant **(G)** and *rps9A*∆ mutant **(H)** exhibit defects in SSU biogenesis. Cells were grown in SFM and collected for polysome profiling as described in STAR METHODS. **(I)** Examination of rRNA processing in *rps9A*∆ and *rps22B/snR44*∆ using Northern blot. Cells were grown in SFM and collected for Northern blot as described in STAR METHODS.





**(A)** The E85Q mutant grows slightly more slowly under nutrient replete condition. Cells were grown in SFM medium to log phase and washed with sterile water. Cells were adjusted to a final  $OD_{600}$  of 0.5 and serially diluted in water, before being plated onto an SD agar plate. **(B)** Levels of amino acids in *dim1* mutants under methionine-replete and -starvation conditions. Mean ± s.d. (n = 2 biological replicates). **(C)** Examination of rRNA processing in *tsr3*Δ mutant using Northern blot. Cells were grown in SFM and collected for Northern blot as described in STAR METHODS. **(D)** Changes in modified nucleosides in 18S rRNA. Cells were grown in SFM and shifted to SF for 2 h. 18S rRNA was isolated, digested, and analyzed by LC-MS/MS as described in STAR METHODS. Peak area of modified nucleosides was first normalized to that of adenosine and to WT with methionine. m<sup>6</sup>A and  $m_2^6A$  from the E85Q mutant were at background levels and thus not shown. Mean  $\pm$  s.d. (n = 2 biological replicates).











**Data S1. Chromatograms of MBN protection assay targeting**  $m^6A(A), G_m(B),$  ac<sup>4</sup>C (C),  $A_m(D), m_2^6A(E), m^7G(F),$  and  $U_m(G)$ . Related to Figure 1. All the modified nucleosides were detected in the expected regions of 18S rRNA according to Taoka et al. (2016). It should be noted that the  $A_m$  modification at 541 was not detected in oKL213-protected region (541..600), but in oKL212-protected region (481..540) and oKL281-protected region (540..579). This discrepancy is likely due to the imprecise trimming of the corresponding RNA/DNA ends in MBN protection assay.















## b [btn]GACTCTCCATCTCTTGTCTTCTTGCCCAGTAAAAGCTCTCATGCTCTTGC yeast 20S pre-rRNA c [btn]CTCTGGGCCCCGATTGCTCGAATGCCCAAAGAAAAAGTTGCAAAGATATG yeast ITS1 (A2&<br>d [btn]GTTACTAAGGCAATCCCGGTTGGTTTCTTTTCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC yeast 25S rRNA d [btn]GTTACTAAGGCAATCCCGGTTGGTTTCTTTTCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC veast 25S rR<br>
e [btn]CCTCGCCCTCCGGGCTCCGTTAATGATCCT e [btn]CCTCGCCCTCCGGGCTCCGTTAATGATCCT

<sup>a</sup>This strain was used throughout this work except when mutant *dim1* strains were investigated.

<sup>b</sup>This strain was used only for comparison with mutant *dim1* strains.

<sup>c</sup>The  $x^2$  site is the integration site for the *E. coli*  $lacZ$  gene on chromosome X, between *NCA3* and  $ASFI$ , precisely

encompassing from 605 to 646 nucleotides upstream of the *NCA3* start codon*.* It was previously examined by Mikkelsen et

al., who reported that ectopic expression at this site did not cause growth defects (Mikkelsen et al., 2012).

<sup>d</sup>Numbers correspond to nucleotide positions in yeast 18S rRNA.

eThe mutated codon is underlined in the forward primer. (f): forward primer; (r): reverse primer

	complete	$-C$	-N	$-P$	-S (sulfur free)			
salts $(g L^{-1})$								
CaCl <sub>2</sub> •2H <sub>2</sub> O	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1			
<b>NaCl</b>	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1			
MgCl <sub>2</sub> •6H <sub>2</sub> O	0.412	0.412	0.412	0.412	0.412			
$(NH_4)_2SO_4$	5	5	$\boldsymbol{0}$	5	$\boldsymbol{0}$			
Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	5.4	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$			
NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	$\overline{0}$	$\overline{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\theta$	4.05			
KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	1	1	1	$\theta$	1			
<b>KCl</b>	$\overline{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	0.55	$\mathbf{0}$			
metals (mg $L^{-1}$ )								
boric acid	0.5							
CuCl <sub>2</sub> •2H <sub>2</sub> O	0.0273							
KI	0.1							
FeCl <sub>3</sub> •6H <sub>2</sub> O	0.2							
MnCl <sub>2</sub> •4H <sub>2</sub> O	0.4684							
$Na2MoO4•2H2O$	0.2							
$ZnCl_2 \cdot H_2O$	0.1895							
vitamins (mg $L^{-1}$ )								
biotin	0.002							
calcium pantothenate	0.4							
folic acid	0.002							
inositol	$\overline{2}$							
niacin	0.4							
4-aminobenzoic acid	0.2							
pyridoxine HCl	0.4							
riboflavin	0.2							
thiamine-HCl	0.4							

**Table S5. Medium formula .** Related to STAR METHODS. **<sup>a</sup>**

a Formula is based on Miller et al. (Miller et al., 2013) with sulfate ions replaced by chloride ions.

Compounds	Q1	Q <sub>3</sub>	$[U^{-15}N]$ -Q1	$\overline{[U}$ - <sup>15</sup> N]-Q3
$N^6$ -methyladenosine (m <sup>6</sup> A)	282	150	287	155
$N^4$ -acetylcytidine (ac <sup>4</sup> C)	286	154	289	157
$N^6$ , $N^6$ -dimethyladenosine (m <sup>6</sup> <sub>2</sub> A)	296	164	301	169
$N^1$ -methyladenosine (m <sup>1</sup> A)	282	150		
2'-O-methyladenosine $(Am)$	282	136		
2'-O-methylguanosine $(Gm)$	298	152		
2'-O-methyluridine $(U_m)$	259	113		
$N^7$ -methylguanosine (m <sup>7</sup> G)	298	166		
adenosine	268	136		
cytidine	244	112		
uridine	245	113		
guanosine	284	152		
cysteine	122	59		
methionine	150	104		
homocysteine	136	90		
cystathionine	223	134		
<b>SAM</b>	399	250		
<b>SAH</b>	385	136		
<b>GSH</b>	308	179		
GSSG	613	355		
proline	116	70		
arginine	175	116		
histidine	156	110		
serine	106	60		
threonine/homoserine	120	74		
isoleucine	132	69		
(iso)leucine	132	86		
valine	118	55		
tryptophan	205	188		
phenylalanine	166	103		
tyrosine	182	136		

**Table S6. MRM transitions for nucleosides and metabolites.** Related to STAR METHODS.