

How to Make a Living by Exhaling Methane

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Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 2010. 64:453–73

First published online as a Review in Advance on
June 7, 2010

The *Annual Review of Microbiology* is online at
micro.annualreviews.org

This article's doi:
10.1146/annurev.micro.112408.134051

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0066-4227/10/1013-0453\$20.00

Key Words

Archaea, anaerobic, energy conservation, electron transport carbon cycle

Abstract

Methane produced in the biosphere is derived from two major pathways. Conversion of the methyl group of acetate to CH₄ in the aceticlastic pathway accounts for at least two-thirds, and reduction of CO₂ with electrons derived from H₂, formate, or CO accounts for approximately one-third. Although both pathways have terminal steps in common, they diverge considerably in the initial steps and energy conservation mechanisms. Steps and enzymes unique to the CO₂ reduction pathway are confined to methanogens and the domain *Archaea*. On the other hand, steps and enzymes unique to the aceticlastic pathway are widely distributed in the domain *Bacteria*, the understanding of which has contributed to a broader understanding of prokaryotic biology.

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INTRODUCTION

Most of the human population exhales traces of CH₄ that, like the CO₂ of mitochondria, are the product of respiration, albeit anaerobic, by gut methanogens inhaling H₂ and CO₂ (95). H₂ and CO₂ are produced by other anaerobes decomposing complex organic matter in the gut, where CH₄ is absorbed into the bloodstream and exchanged in the lungs (117).

Like humans, Earth's biosphere can be considered a single living-breathing organism (70) where gases including CH₄ play an essential role (**Figure 1**). The chief organs are the domains *Eukarya*, *Bacteria*, and *Archaea*, the balanced interactions of which are essential to sustain Earth's life. Each year the biosphere inhales ~70 gigatons of CO₂ transformed by photosynthesis into complex organic matter while exhaling O₂. Microbes in aerobic environments, primarily from *Bacteria*, digest the organic matter consuming O₂ and producing

CO₂. The organic matter also enters diverse O₂-free habitats such as the lower intestinal tract of humans, wetlands, rice paddy soils, and the rumen of livestock, where anaerobic microbes digest the organic matter, exhaling CO₂ and CH₄. In freshwater anaerobic environments, the process involves three metabolic groups of anaerobes from *Bacteria* and *Archaea*. The fermentative group digests the complex organic matter primarily to butyrate, propionate, acetate, formate, H₂, and CO₂. The acetogenic group digests the butyrate and propionate to formate, acetate, CO₂, and H₂. The third group consists of methane-producing species (methanogens) from *Archaea* and is subdivided into two groups. The CO₂-reducing group obtains energy for growth by oxidizing formate or H₂ and reducing CO₂ to CH₄. Acetotrophic methanogens split acetate in the aceticlastic pathway, oxidizing the carbonyl group and reducing the methyl group to CH₄. Formation of CH₄ from acetate accounts for approximately two-thirds of the approximately one gigaton Earth's biosphere exhales each year (108), with the remaining one-third derived mostly from the reduction of CO₂ with H₂ or formate and smaller amounts from the methyl groups of methanol, methylamines, and dimethylsulfide. The CH₄ from anaerobic habitats diffuses into aerobic zones where O₂-requiring methanotrophic microbes oxidize it to CO₂. Consortia of anaerobic microbes that convert CH₄ to CO₂ while reducing either sulfate, nitrate, manganese, or iron have been described (8, 90, 110).

Human intervention in the natural process of methanogenesis influences the ecology of Earth in both detrimental and beneficial ways. Increases in livestock, rice cultivation, and other human activities in recent decades have enhanced the amount of atmospheric CH₄ that is severalfold more effective than CO₂ in radiating energy back to Earth's surface. However, the process also holds promise for conversion of waste and renewable photosynthate to CH₄, contributing to the growing need for alternatives to fossil fuels with no net release of CO₂ to the atmosphere. Finally, growing

Methanogen: a microorganism that produces methane

Anaerobe: a microorganism with energy-yielding metabolism independent of O₂ proliferating in anaerobic O₂-free environments

Archaea: one of the three highest taxonomic classifications of life to which methane-producing species belong

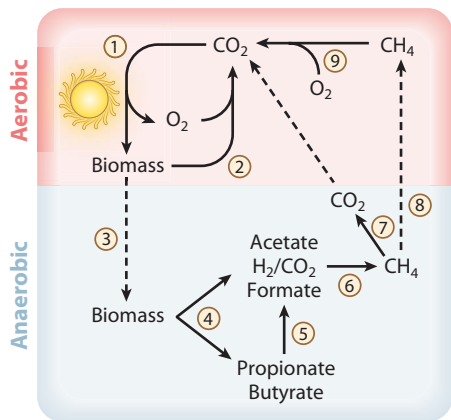


Figure 1

The global carbon cycle. Aerobic O_2 -requiring conversions are shown in the top panel and anaerobic conversions in the bottom panel. Step 1: Fixation of CO_2 into organic matter. Step 2: Decomposition of organic matter to CO_2 by O_2 -requiring microbes. Step 3: Deposition of organic matter into anaerobic environments. Step 4: Decomposition of complex biomass by fermentative microbes. Step 5: Conversion of volatile fatty acids by obligate H_2 - and formate-producing syntrophic acetogens. Step 6: H_2 - and formate-dependent reduction of CO_2 to CH_4 and conversion of the methyl group of acetate to CH_4 by methanogens. Step 7: Anaerobic oxidation of CH_4 . Step 8: Diffusion of CH_4 into aerobic zones. Step 9: Aerobic oxidation of CH_4 by O_2 -requiring methylotrophs.

evidence suggests methanogenic microbes evolved close to the time of the origin of life, providing a window to the early evolution of Earth's biosphere (7, 112). Furthermore, the finding of CH_4 on Mars has prompted speculation of a biological source with implications for extraterrestrial origins of methanogenic microbes (23, 80). This review presents the biochemistry and molecular biology underpinning the energy-yielding metabolism of acetotrophic and CO_2 -reducing methanogens responsible for biologically produced CH_4 with corresponding influence on the evolution and contemporary ecology of Earth's biosphere.

MICROBIOLOGY

Methanogens are exclusive to the domain *Archaea*, the kingdom *Euryarchaeota*, and

the five orders *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanococcales*, *Methanomicrobiales*, *Methanosarcinales*, and *Methanopyrales*. Further descriptions of the systematics and characteristics of methanogen taxa have been recently reviewed (21, 69). *Methanosarcinaceae* is the most metabolically versatile of the two families that compose the *Methanosarcinales*. All species in the *Methanosarcinaceae* obtain energy for growth by producing CH_4 from dismutation of the methyl group of methanol and methylamines. Members of the genus *Methanosarcina* also obtain energy by the reduction of CO_2 with H_2 or CO as the electron donor and by the conversion of acetate to CH_4 and CO_2 . The other family, *Methanosaetaeaceae*, is composed of three species within the single genus *Methanosaeta* that only convert acetate to CH_4 and CO_2 for growth. *Methanosarcina* and *Methanosaeta* are the only genera that grow and produce CH_4 from acetate, although at least two-thirds of CH_4 in the biosphere is derived from this substrate. The other four orders obtain energy for growth only by the reduction of CO_2 to CH_4 referred to as obligate CO_2 -reducing species. An exception is the genus *Methanosphaera*, which reduces the methyl group of methanol to CH_4 with H_2 (26). A sixth order, *Methanocellales*, was recently proposed based on an isolate from a rice paddy soil bacteria, *Methanocella paludicola*, that obtains energy for growth only by the reduction of CO_2 with H_2 or formate (94).

REACTIONS COMMON TO ALL METHANOGENIC PATHWAYS

Two major energy-yielding pathways account for all but a fraction of CH_4 produced by Earth's anaerobic biosphere. Approximately one-third originates from the reduction of CO_2 with electrons derived from oxidation of either H_2 , formate, or CO in the CO_2 reduction pathway (Equations 1a–c). At least two-thirds derives from the methyl group of acetate by the acetate pathway, in which acetate is cleaved into methyl and carbonyl groups, with the latter oxidized to provide the electron pair for reduction of the former to CH_4 (Equation 2).

Fermentative

species: an anaerobe obtaining energy for growth by oxidizing substrates and reducing metabolic intermediates to formate, H_2 , acetate, or other end products

Acetotrophic: refers to a microorganism able to utilize acetate as an energy source

Aceticlastic pathway: pathway in which acetate is split into methyl and carbonyl groups, with the former reduced to methane

HS-CoM: coenzyme M

HS-CoB: coenzyme B

H₄SPT: tetrahydro-sarcinapterin

H₄MPT: tetrahydro-methanopterin

In environments where H₂-, formate-, or CO-utilizing acetogenic anaerobes proliferate, the great majority of CH₄ is produced by the acetoclastic pathway. In some anaerobic habitats, methanol or methylamines are minor substrates for methanogens obtaining energy by dismutation of the substrate in which methyl groups are oxidized to CO₂, providing electrons for reduction of methyl groups to CH₄ (Equation 3).

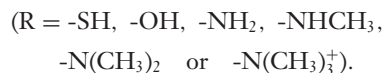
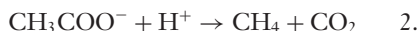


Figure 2 is a composite overview of all methanogenic pathways. Reactions 2, 3, and 4 involving coenzyme M (HS-CoM) and coenzyme B (HS-CoB) (**Figure 3**) are common to the acetoclastic and CO₂ reduction pathways that differ in reactions that generate the methyl group attached to the coenzyme tetrahydro-sarcinapterin (H₄SPT) in the former pathway or the functional analog tetrahydro-methanopterin (H₄MPT) (**Figure 3**) in the latter pathway. The H₄S(M)PT cofactors have structural and functional similarities to tetrahydrofolate, albeit only to the extent that they are C-1 carriers. The ⁵N-methyl-H₄M(S)PT intermediate is formed in the acetoclastic and CO₂ reduction pathways by a series of reactions represented in Reactions 1 and 5, respectively. The methyl group of ⁵N-methyl-H₄M(S)PT is transferred to HS-CoM (Reaction 2) followed by reductive demethylation of CH₃-S-CoM to CH₄ with electrons donated from HS-CoB (Reaction 3). The heterodisulfide CoM-S-S-CoB, a product of the demethylation reaction, is reduced to the corresponding sulfhydryl forms of the coenzymes in Reaction 4. Reactions 3 and 4 are also shared with the methylotrophic pathway, in which CH₃-S-CoM is generated from the substrate methyl

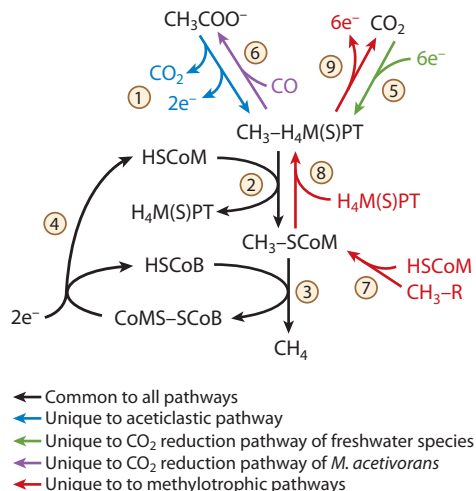


Figure 2

Composite overview of methanogenic pathways. Reactions 2, 3, and 4, which are common to all pathways, are in black. Step 1, unique to the acetoclastic pathway, is in blue. Step 5, unique to the CO₂ reduction pathway of freshwater species, is in green. Step 6, unique to the CO₂ reduction pathway of the marine isolate *Methanosarcina acetivorans*, is in purple. Steps 7, 8, and 9, unique to methylotrophic pathways, are in red, where R = -SH, -OH, -NH₂, -NHCH₃, -N(CH₃)₂, or -N(CH₃)₃⁺. Enzymes catalyzing Reactions 2–4, common to all pathways, are methyl-tetrahydro-methano(sarcina)-pterin:coenzyme M methyltransferase for Step 2; methyl-coenzyme M reductase for Step 3; and heterodisulfide reductase for Step 4. Adapted from Reference 18a.

group in Reaction 7. Thus, all methanogenic pathways that are coupled to electron transport pathways share Reactions 3 and 4, generating a proton gradient that drives ATP synthesis. The pathways also differ by the source of electrons reducing CoM-S-S-CoB to HS-CoB and HS-CoM (Reaction 4). In the acetoclastic pathway the electron pair derives from oxidation of the carbonyl group of acetate, and in the CO₂ reduction pathway the electron pair derives from oxidation of either H₂ or formate (Equations 1a and 1b). In the methylotrophic pathway, electrons for Reaction 4 derive from oxidation of CH₃-H₄SPT via reactions in Reaction 9, a reversal of reactions in Reaction 5 of the CO₂

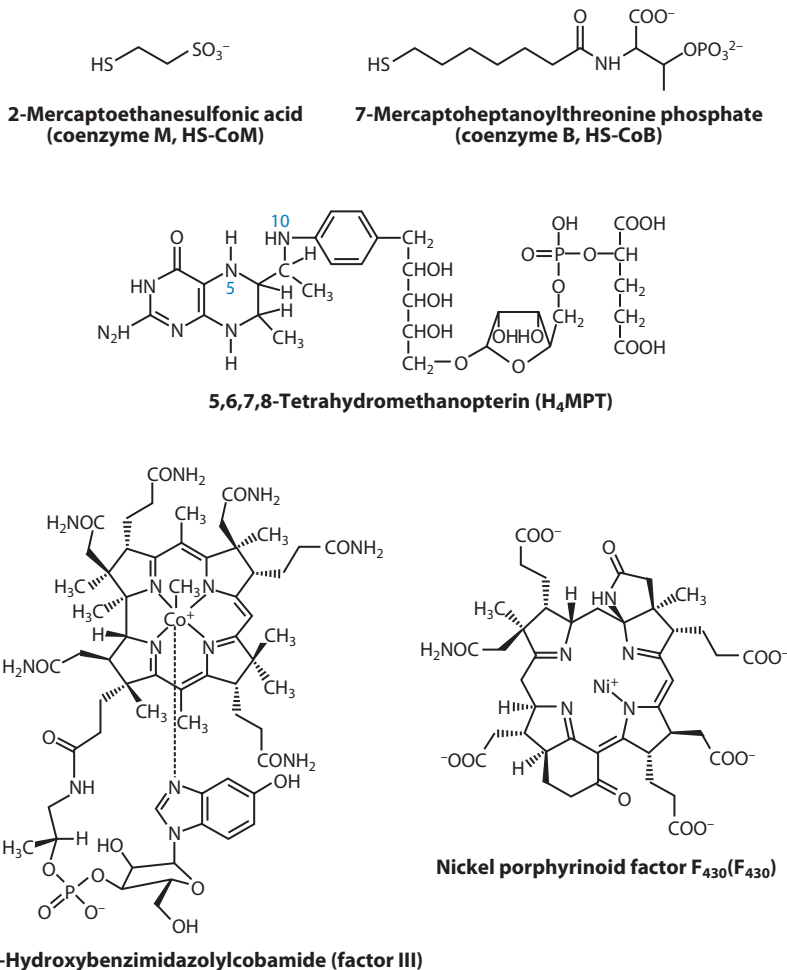


Figure 3

Coenzymes and cofactors participating in reactions common to all methanogenic pathways. *Methanosarcina* species synthesize tetrahydrosarcinapterin (H₄SPT), which serves the same function as tetrahydromethanopterin (H₄MPT) and has a similar structure except for a terminal α -linked glutamate (113).

reduction pathway. The CH₃-H₄SPT is generated by Reaction 8 catalyzed by the same enzyme catalyzing Reaction 2.

Methyl-H₄M(S)PT:coenzyme M methyltransferase (Mtr) catalyzes Reaction 2 (Figure 2) and its reverse (Reaction 8), which is unique to the methylotrophic pathway. The eight nonidentical subunits (MtrABCDEFGH) of the membrane-bound complex couple the exergonic methyl transfer to generation of a sodium ion gradient (high

outside) in all methanogenic pathways, except the methylotrophic pathway, for which a sodium gradient (high outside) drives the endergonic Reaction 8 (Figure 2) (41). The MtrA subunit contains cofactor Factor III (Figure 3), which is predicted to extend into the cytoplasm, where the MtrH subunit catalyzes transfer of the methyl group of CH₃-H₄M(S)PT to Factor III of MtrA to form a carbon-cobalt bond in the upper axial position. The MtrE subunit is proposed to

transfer the methyl group from Factor III to HS-CoM, resulting in loss of the lower axial ligand and thus inducing a conformational change in MtrA that is transmitted to the MtrE subunit driving the translocation of sodium (32).

Methyl-CoM reductase (Mcr) catalyzes the reductive demethylation of $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM}$ to CH_4 with electrons donated by HS-CoB (Figure 2, Reaction 3). The heterodisulfide CoM-S-S-CoB is also a product of the reaction that is reduced to the corresponding active sulfhydryl forms of the coenzymes in Reaction 4 (Figure 2). The crystal structure of the homodimeric Mcr from *Methanothermobacter marburgensis* (*Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* strain Marburg) reveals two active site F_{430} cofactors (Figure 3) separated by 50 Å and embedded between interlinked subunits $\alpha\alpha'\beta\gamma$ and $\alpha'\alpha\beta'\gamma'$, indicating two independent active sites (18). Two mechanisms have been proposed that diverge in how the C-S bond of $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM}$ is cleaved. In mechanism I, the nickel of $\text{Ni}^{\text{I}}\text{F}_{430}$ attacks the sulfur atom of $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM}$, producing a $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ radical and $\text{CoM-S-Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$ (14, 88). The methyl radical then abstracts a hydrogen from HS-CoB, producing $\bullet\text{S-CoB}$ and CH_4 . The $\bullet\text{S-CoB}$ radical reacts with $\text{CoM-S-Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$, producing the anion radical $\text{CoM-S-S}^{\bullet}\text{-CoB}^-$ that donates the extra electron to $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$, regenerating the active $\text{Ni}^{\text{I}}\text{F}_{430}$ species and yielding CoM-S-S-CoB . In mechanism II, a nucleophilic attack of nickel in $\text{Ni}^{\text{I}}\text{F}_{430}$ on $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM}$ generates $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni}^{\text{III}}\text{F}_{430}$ and HS-CoM. Transfer of an electron from HS-CoM to $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni}^{\text{III}}\text{F}_{430}$ produces the $\bullet\text{S-CoM}$ radical and $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$. In the final step, protonolysis of $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$ produces CH_4 . The $\bullet\text{S-CoM}$ thiol radical is coupled with $^- \text{S-CoB}$ to form the radical anion $\text{CoM-S-S}^{\bullet}\text{-CoB}^-$ and is followed by one-electron transfer to $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\text{F}_{430}$ to yield active $\text{Ni}^{\text{I}}\text{F}_{430}$ and CoM-S-S-CoB .

Heterodisulfide reductase (Hdr) is essential to all methanogenic pathways catalyzing Reaction 4 (Figure 2), which is the terminal step in electron transport coupled to generation of a proton gradient that drives ATP syn-

thesis. A two-subunit enzyme (HdrDE) that functions in the methylotrophic pathway of *Methanosarcina* species (47, 60) and a three-subunit enzyme (HdrABC) that functions in obligate CO_2 -reducing methanogens (43) have been biochemically characterized. The HdrDE type has been identified and characterized from acetate-grown cells of the freshwater isolates *Methanosarcina thermophila* (98) and *M. barkeri* (46) and the marine isolate *M. acetivorans* (65), and the results are consistent with a role for HdrDE in the aceticlastic pathway. Cytochrome *b*, present in the HdrE subunit of the *M. barkeri* enzyme (47), is proposed to transfer electrons to the catalytic subunit HdrD (40). Sequence analysis of the HdrABC iron-sulfur flavoprotein identifies motifs for binding the FAD and 4Fe-4S clusters in HdrA and the 4Fe-4S clusters in HdrC (45). Sequence conservation of HdrD with HdrBC is consistent with these subunits harboring the catalytic site. It was concluded from spectroscopic investigations of HdrDE and HdrABC that a novel 4Fe-4S cluster is the active site reducing CoM-S-S-CoB in two one-electron steps (44). In the mechanism, a thiol radical generated by the initial one-electron reduction of CoM-S-S-CoB is stabilized through reduction and coordination of the thiol to the 4Fe-4S cluster. The specific subunit harboring the active site cluster was not identified; however, an investigation of heterologously produced HdrB from *M. marburgensis* (40) revealed a 4Fe-4S cluster with spectroscopic properties similar to the previously proposed active site iron-sulfur cluster (44). Site-directed mutagenesis of HdrB located the four cysteine ligands of the 4Fe-4S cluster in a unique $\text{CX}_{31-39}\text{CCX}_{35-36}\text{CXXC}$ motif that is also conserved in HdrD (40). Finally, the iron-sulfur clusters in the HdrC subunit are proposed to shuttle electrons from HdrA to HdrB.

Figure 4 contrasts reactions unique to the aceticlastic and CO_2 reduction pathways that converge on the common intermediate methyl- $\text{H}_4\text{M(S)PT}$, which is further metabolized to CH_4 by reactions universal to both pathways (Figure 2).

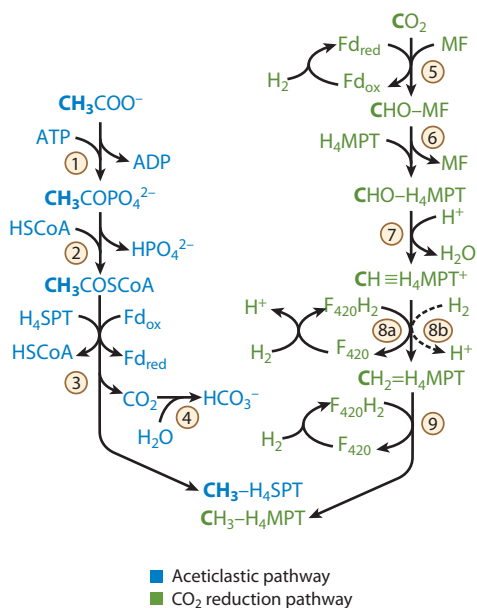


Figure 4

Comparison of reactions leading to $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{M(S)PT}$ in the aceticlastic and CO_2 reduction pathways. Enzymes catalyzing the reactions are acetate kinase for Reaction 1; phosphotransacetylase for Reaction 2; CO dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase for Reaction 3; carbonic anhydrase for Reaction 4; formyl-methanofuran dehydrogenase for Reaction 5; formyl-methanofuran:tetrahydromethano(sarcina)pterin formyltransferase for Reaction 6; cyclohydrolase for Reaction 7; methylene-tetrahydromethano(sarcina)pterin dehydrogenase for Reaction 8; and methylene-tetrahydromethano(sarcina)pterin reductase for Reaction 9.

THE ACETICLASTIC PATHWAY

Reactions Leading to $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{SPT}$

Methyl- H_4SPT is synthesized by Reactions 1–4 (**Figure 4**) in the aceticlastic pathway of *Methanosarcina* species, and this is consistent with proteomic and transcriptomic analyses showing upregulation of genes encoding the associated enzymes when cultured with acetate versus methanol (50, 64). Understanding the enzymes catalyzing these reactions has broad significance outside of acetotrophic methanogens, as homologs are widespread in diverse anaerobes from *Bacteria*. Indeed,

homologs of acetate kinase and phosphotransacetylase catalyzing Reactions 1 and 2 (**Figure 4**) function in the primary energy-yielding pathways of fermentative and acetogenic species converting acetyl-CoA to ATP and producing acetate, which is the major intermediate in anaerobic microbial food chains (**Figure 1**). Investigations of acetate kinase from *Escherichia coli*, discovered in 1944 by Fritz Lipmann, were among the earliest mechanistic studies of enzymes (67). The first crystal structure was from the acetotrophic methanogen *M. thermophila* and revealed features suggesting acetate kinase is the founding member of the acetate and sugar kinase/Hsc70/actin (ASKHA) superfamily of phosphotransferases (13). The structure of the homodimeric enzyme cocrystallized with ADP, acetate, Al^{3+} , and F^- shows a linear array of ADP-AlF_3 -acetate in the active site cleft that supports a direct in-line transfer mechanism in which AlF_3 mimics the meta-phosphate transition state (31, 77).

Phosphotransacetylase catalyzes Reaction 2 (**Figure 2**) in the aceticlastic pathway of *Methanosarcina* species, which together with acetate kinase is also the primary energy-yielding pathway in fermentative and acetogenic anaerobes from *Bacteria*. The crystal structure of the enzyme from *M. thermophila* complexed with HS-CoA reveals the active site supporting a catalytic mechanism wherein nucleophilic attack of $^-\text{S-CoA}$ on the carbonyl carbon of acetyl phosphate yields acetyl-CoA (51, 62).

The enzyme central to aceticlastic pathways cleaves the C-C and C-S bonds of acetyl-CoA, transferring the methyl group to H_4SPT and oxidizing the carbonyl group to CO_2 with transfer of electrons to a $2x[4\text{Fe-4S}]$ ferredoxin (22, 105, 106) (**Figure 4**, Reaction 3). The enzyme was first named CO dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase (Cdh) because of the bifunctional character catalyzing synthesis or cleavage of acetyl-CoA and oxidation of CO derived from the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA. The same complex is also referred to as acetyl-CoA decarbonylase/synthase (ACDS) and therefore in this

Cdh: carbon monoxide dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase

ACDS: acetyl-CoA decarbonylase/synthase

EPR: electron paramagnetic resonance

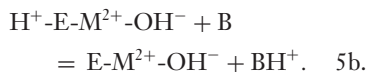
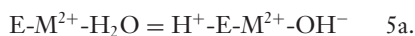
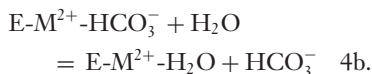
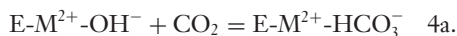
review is designated Cdh/ACDS. A diversity of anaerobes from *Bacteria* and *Archaea* synthesize Cdh/ACDS homologs that function in acetate-utilizing, energy-yielding pathways and pathways for generating acetyl-CoA from a methyl group and CO₂ for cell biosynthesis (35). Of ancient origin, primitive ancestors of Cdh/ACDS likely played a central role in the early evolution of life (20, 66, 73).

A two-subunit CO dehydrogenase has been purified and characterized from an acetate-utilizing species of the genus *Methanosaeta* (formerly *Methanotrix*) (10) that catalyzes the exchange of CO with the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA, similar to the Cdh/ACDS of *Methanosarcina* species supporting acetyl-CoA cleavage activity (17, 53–55); however, the majority of mechanistic investigations have been on the five-subunit ($\alpha\beta\gamma\delta\epsilon$) CdhABCDE complexes from the acetate-utilizing species *M. thermophila* and *M. barkeri* that are resolvable into three components (1, 37, 107). The $\alpha\epsilon$ subunits compose the CdhAE component, the $\gamma\delta$ subunits compose the CdhDE component, and the β subunit composes the CdhC component. The CdhC component contains the A cluster, which catalyzes acetyl-CoA cleavage to yield a methyl and a carbonyl group (27, 29, 36, 81). The crystal structure has not been reported; however, various spectroscopic analyses suggest the A cluster is composed of a 4Fe-4S center bridged to a binuclear Ni-Ni site (27, 38) similar to the homolog from *Moorella thermoacetica*, an acetate-producing species from *Bacteria* (91). The CdhDE component contains a corrinoid cofactor accepting the methyl group from the CdhC component with transfer to H₄SPT (33, 34, 52, 74). Sequence analyses and characterization of the CdhD and CdhE subunits overproduced independently in *E. coli* identified an iron-sulfur cluster located in the CdhE subunit. Both the CdhD and CdhE subunits bind a corrinoid cofactor (74). However, it has yet to be determined which of the two subunits interacts with H₄SPT. The CdhAE component oxidizes CO derived from the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA by the CdhC component and re-

duces ferredoxin (1). The crystal structure of the CdhAE component from *M. barkeri* (30) reveals a $\alpha_2\epsilon_2$ configuration with 4x[4Fe-4S] clusters and a Ni-Fe-S C cluster in the α subunit consistent with previous EPR spectroscopic results (58). Two of the 4Fe-4S clusters are proposed to function in electron transport from the active site C cluster to ferredoxin. The C cluster is a pseudocubane NiFe₃S₄ cluster bridged to an exogenous iron atom. A gas channel is also identified in the structure extending from the C cluster to the protein surface in a direction that has potential to transport CO from the CdhC component.

The conversion of acetate to CH₄ and CO₂ provides only a marginal amount of energy available for growth ($\Delta G^{of} = -36$ kJ/CH₄). A calorimetric and thermodynamic analysis of acetate-grown *M. barkeri* indicates that transfer of CH₄ and CO₂ into the gaseous phase adds to the driving force of growth (68). A carbonic anhydrase (Cam) characterized from *M. thermophila* is postulated to be outside the cell membrane, where it converts CO₂ to membrane-impermeable HCO₃⁻ (Figure 4, Reaction 4), facilitating removal of CO₂ from the cytoplasm (3). Cam is the archetype of an independently evolved class of carbonic anhydrases (γ class) with a novel left-handed β -helical fold (111). Homologs are widely distributed in *Bacteria* and *Archaea*, suggesting functions in prokaryotes in addition to that for acetotrophic methanogens (101). Homologs of Cam are also found in the mitochondria of plants, further underscoring the importance of this novel class of carbonic anhydrase in biology (87). Contrary to all prokaryotic carbonic anhydrases that contain zinc, Cam from *M. thermophila* contains Fe²⁺ in the active site, establishing it as the physiologically relevant metal, the first for any carbonic anhydrase (72, 111). Crystal structures and kinetic analyses of the wild-type and site-specific amino acid replacement variants have identified active site residues and a hydrogen bonding network essential for catalysis, leading to a proposed mechanism (118). The two-step ping-pong mechanism is shown in Equations 4a,b

and 5a,b, where E represents enzyme residues, M is metal, and B is buffer.



In step 1 (Equations 4a, 4b), a lone pair of electrons on the metal-bound hydroxide attack carbon dioxide producing metal-bound bicarbonate that is displaced by water. In step 2 (Equations 5a, 5b), a proton is extracted from the metal-bound water that is transferred to buffer. The reader is referred to a recent review on the γ class of carbonic anhydrases in all three domains of life (19).

The genomic sequence of *Methanosaeta thermophila* (100) indicates that core reactions converting the methyl group of acetate to CH_4 are similar to those of freshwater and marine *Methanosarcina* species, except for activation of acetate to acetyl-CoA, which is catalyzed by AMP-forming acetyl-CoA synthetase. The synthetase has a severalfold-lower K_m for acetate than for acetate kinase, which is the basis for *Methanosaeta* species dominating *Methanosarcina* species in environments where acetate concentrations are low (100).

Electron Transport and Energy Conservation

All acetotrophic methanogens obtain energy for growth by coupling electron transfer from ferredoxin to CoM-S-S-CoB with translocation of ions, generating a gradient (high outside) that drives ATP synthesis by the proton-translocating archaeal A_1A_0 -type ATP synthase abundant in acetate-grown *Methanosarcina* species (50, 64, 65, 89). Ferredoxin donates electrons to a membrane-bound hydrogenase (Ech) evolving H_2 and translocating protons in the freshwater isolate *M. barkeri* (Figure 5a)

(42, 76). Isolation of a H_2 :CoM-S-S-CoB oxidoreductase complex from acetate-grown *M. barkeri* is consistent with a role for Ech and H_2 as intermediates in electron transport (46). The Vho hydrogenase oxidizes H_2 and donates electrons to a quinone-like electron carrier methanophenazine (Figure 6) that mediates electron transfer to the heterodisulfide reductase HdrDE while translocating protons that contribute to the gradient (Figure 5a). The VhoAG subunits of the Vho hydrogenase catalyze the oxidation of H_2 , whereas the VhoC subunit contains a *b*-type heme proposed to donate electrons to methanophenazine (16). An additional two protons are translocated by the Vho hydrogenase, resulting in four protons translocated by the H_2 :CoMS-SCoB oxidoreductase system.

The sodium gradient generated in the exergonic Reaction 2 in Figure 2 ($\Delta G^{\circ} = -30$ kJ) by the membrane-bound methyltransferase Mtr could drive ATP synthesis in conjunction with a sodium/proton antiporter and the proton-translocating A_1A_0 -type ATP synthase (89). Yet without Mtr, the proposed electron transport pathway from H_2 to CoM-S-S-CoB (Figure 5a) features three proton-translocating segments with an obligatory two protons translocated by methanophenazine; however, it is unlikely that the amount of available energy ($\Delta G^{\circ} = -36$ kJ) can support all three coupling sites. Thus, a soluble electron transport chain originating with ferredoxin that supplies methanophenazine or HdrDE with electrons may be necessary to bypass membrane-bound electron transport in order to adjust thermodynamic efficiency in response to fluctuating levels of growth substrate and available energy, particularly when acetate is limiting as is likely the case in the native environment. Indeed, the finding that a *ech* deletion mutant of *M. barkeri* retains a portion of the wild-type ferredoxin:CoM-S-S-CoB oxidoreductase activity supports this idea (116). Furthermore, deletion of the coenzyme F_{420} -dependent Frh hydrogenase and the F_{420} dehydrogenase prevents growth of *M. barkeri* with acetate, suggesting an alternative electron

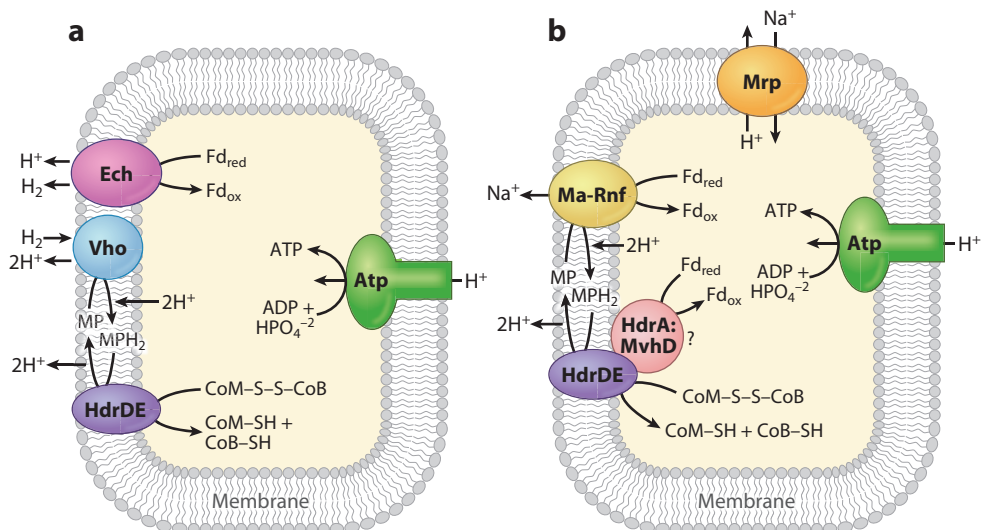


Figure 5

Electron transport pathways in acetotrophic *Methanosarcina* species. (a) Freshwater species. (b) Marine species. In both pathways, reduced ferredoxin (Fd_{red}) is the product of the oxidation of the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA catalyzed by the CO dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase (Figure 4). Fd_{ox} , ferredoxin; HS-CoM, coenzyme M; MP, methanophenazine; HS-CoB, coenzyme B; Ech, H_2 -evolving hydrogenase; Vho, H_2 -uptake hydrogenase; Ma-Rnf, *M. acetivorans* Rnf; HdrDE, heterodisulfide reductase; HdrA:MvhD, heterodisulfide reductase subunit A:hydrogenase subunit D fusion protein; Mrp, multiple resistance/pH regulation Na^+/H^+ antiporter; Atp, H^+ -translocating A_1A_0 ATP synthase.

transport pathway involving coenzyme F_{420} and either of these two enzymes (Figure 6) (59).

M. acetivorans, the only acetotrophic methanogen isolated from a marine environment, evolved a different strategy (Figure 5b) for oxidizing ferredoxin and reducing CoM-S-S-CoB (102). The genome does not encode a functional Ech, and biochemical and genetic evidence suggests H_2 is not an obligatory intermediate (28, 39, 82). It has been suggested that avoiding H_2 is advantageous for *M. acetivorans* because sulfate-reducing species that dominate the marine environment outcompete methanogens for H_2 , potentially disrupting electron transport (65).

Proteomic analyses (65) indicate that acetate-grown *M. acetivorans* preferentially synthesizes subunits encoded by a six-gene cluster with sequence identity to the Rnf complex (first described in *Rhodobacter capsulatus*), where it supplies reduced ferredoxin to nitrogenase (93, 97). Gene knockouts confirm

that the complex is essential for growth of *M. acetivorans* on acetate (12). The six-gene cluster is cotranscribed with a gene encoding a cytochrome *c* prominent in membranes of acetate-grown cells (65). It is proposed that ferredoxin donates electrons to the *M. acetivorans* Rnf complex containing cytochrome *c*, and that methanophenazine mediates electron transfer between the cytochrome and HdrDE, translocating a pair of protons outside the cell membrane (Figure 5b). Another potential role for the Rnf complex is the generation of a sodium gradient (high outside) analogous to that proposed for Rnf homologs in some species from *Bacteria* (9, 11). A multisubunit sodium/proton antiporter (Mrp) abundant in acetate-grown *M. acetivorans* could exchange the sodium gradient for a proton gradient that drives ATP synthesis by the proton-translocating A_1A_0 ATP synthase (Figure 5b).

Genetic analyses support that HdrDE is essential for acetotrophic growth of

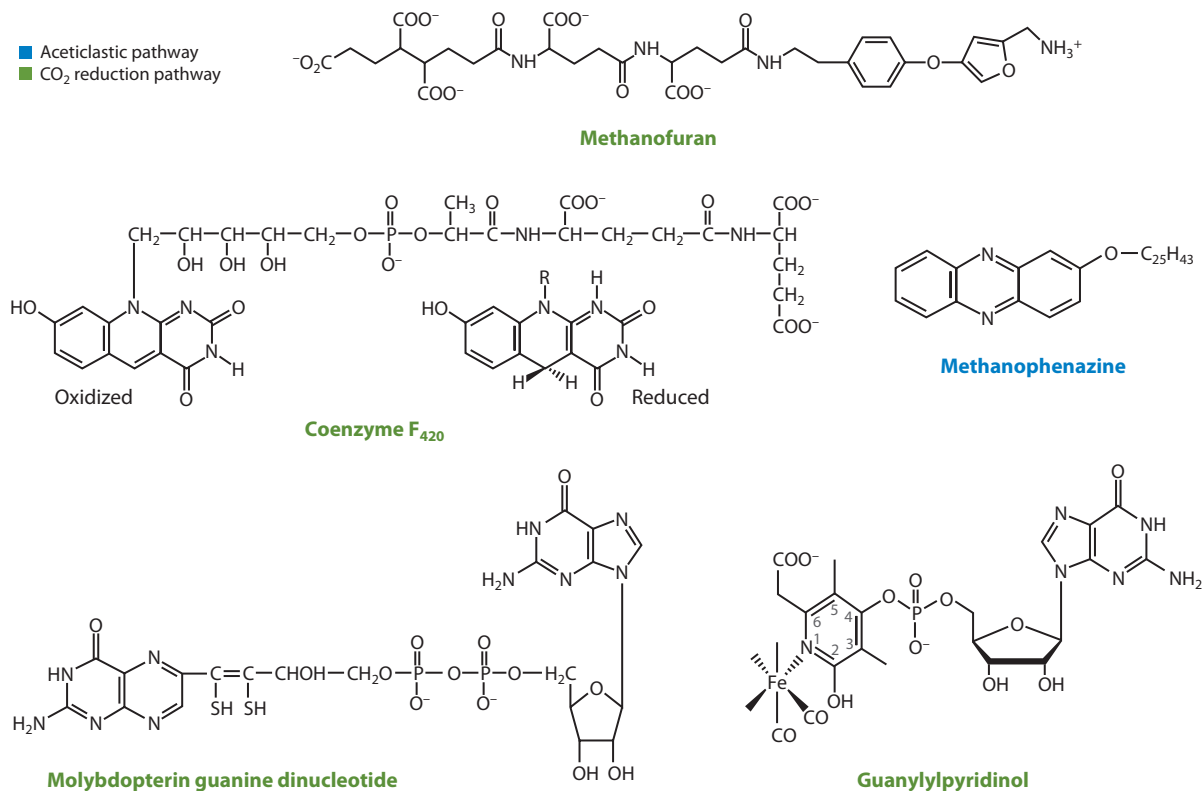


Figure 6

Coenzymes and cofactors unique to either the aceticlastic or the CO₂ reduction pathway.

M. acetivorans (12); however, the authors also present genetic evidence that a HdrA homolog of the HdrA subunit is involved in the soluble HdrABC-type heterodisulfide reductase operable in obligate CO₂-reducing methanogens. The HdrA subunit from obligate CO₂ reducers interfaces with, and accepts electrons from, the MvhD subunit of the MvhAGD hydrogenase, delivering electrons to the catalytically active HdrBC subunits. The HdrA homolog in *M. acetivorans* is a fusion of HdrA and MvhD (HdrA:MvhD) homologs of obligate CO₂-reducing species that is also abundant in acetate-grown *M. acetivorans*, supporting a role in acetotrophic growth (64). The HdrA:MvhD of *M. acetivorans* is encoded monocistronic and distant from genes encoding HdrBC, consistent with HdrA:MvhD functioning independently from

HdrABC. What then could be the function of HdrA:MvhD in the aceticlastic pathway of *M. acetivorans*? An attractive possibility is that HdrA:MvhD associates with HdrDE, the functional equivalent of HdrBC, coupling oxidation of ferredoxin and reduction of CoM-S-S-CoB in a soluble system that bypasses membrane-bound ion-translocating pathways (**Figure 5b**). Similar to electron transport in freshwater *Methanosarcina* species, multiple coupling sites for generating ion gradients in *M. acetivorans* are doubtful given the marginal amount of energy available for converting acetate to CH₄ and CO₂. The branched electron transport could allow for adjusting the thermodynamic efficiency, particularly when acetate is limiting as in the natural environment. Genes encoding Ech and Rnf are absent in the genome of the freshwater isolate *Methanosaeta thermophila*,

CO₂-reducing

pathway: pathway in which CO₂ is reduced to CH₄ with electrons derived from oxidation of a reduced substrate such as H₂ or formate

suggesting an unknown alternative electron transport pathway and mechanism for energy conservation in this species (100).

THE CO₂ REDUCTION PATHWAY

Reactions Leading to CH₃-H₄M(S)PT

The reactions in the pathway converting CO₂ to CH₃-H₄MPT for obligate CO₂-reducing species are shown in **Figure 4** (Reactions 5–9). The reactions are similar for freshwater *Methanosarcina* species, except H₄SPT is used in place of H₄MPT and the mechanism for Reaction 5 is distinct. The oxidation of either H₂, CO, or formate provides the three electron pairs required for Reactions 5, 8, and 9. In freshwater species, CO is first oxidized to H₂ and CO₂ (83), whereas the marine isolate *M. acetivorans* evolved a unique CO₂-reducing pathway to avoid H₂ as an intermediate (63). Formate is not a substrate for *Methanosarcina* species, and the only formate dehydrogenases that have been characterized are from the obligate CO₂-reducing species *Methanobacterium formicicum* (96) and *Methanococcus vannielii* (57) that reduce coenzyme F₄₂₀. F₄₂₀ is a flavin analog (**Figure 6**) with a carbon replacing the N⁵ atom of the isoalloxazine ring that donates and accepts a hydride ion similar to NAD(P)H. Formic hydrogenlyase systems from obligate CO₂-reducing species are composed of formate dehydrogenase and F₄₂₀-dependent hydrogenase converting formate to H₂ and CO₂; however, whether formate is first oxidized to H₂ during growth on formate has not been resolved (6, 48, 71). The formate dehydrogenase from *M. formicicum* contains at the active site a molybdopterin cofactor (**Figure 6**) (56, 75) that is also required for Reaction 5 (2) (**Figure 4**).

In Reaction 5 (CO₂ + methanofuran + 2Fd_{red} + 2H⁺ → 2Fd_{ox} + formyl-methanofuran + H₂O), CO₂ attaches to methanofuran (MF) (**Figure 6**) and then is reduced to formyl-MF catalyzed by formyl-MF dehydrogenase with ferredoxin (Fd) as the electron donor. Reaction 5 is endergonic, requiring an input of energy, particularly with

the low partial pressures of H₂ encountered in the native environment (109). The mechanisms for reduction of ferredoxin with H₂ are different between obligate CO₂-reducing species (103) and freshwater *Methanosarcina* species (16). In freshwater *Methanosarcina* species, ferredoxin is reduced by the membrane-bound Ech complex dependent on the proton gradient (high outside) generated by electron transport from H₂ to CoM-S-S-CoB (42). The 4Fe-4S clusters of the Ech from *M. barkeri* were assigned to subunits EchC and EchF (24) for which the EPR signals are pH dependent (61), consistent with a role in proton translocation. The mechanism for reducing ferredoxin in Reaction 5 for obligate CO₂-reducing species has not been established, although a hypothesis has been advanced wherein the exergonic H₂-dependent reduction of CoM-S-S-CoB by the soluble MvhAGD hydrogenase-HdrABC heterodisulfide reductase complex is coupled to reduction of ferredoxin (2H₂ + CoM-S-S-CoB + Fd_{ox} = HS-CoM + HS-CoB + Fd_{red}²⁻ + 2H⁺, ΔG^{o'} = -39 kJ mol⁻¹) (109). In the mechanism, bifurcation of the electrons occurs at the flavin of the HdrA subunit accepting electrons from the Mvh hydrogenase. If H₂ is not an intermediate during growth with formate as the electron donor, a flavin-containing F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase could be required for flavin-mediated electron bifurcation, for which a candidate has yet to be identified. The high demand for CO₂ by formyl-MF dehydrogenase in the CO₂ reduction pathway suggests a mechanism for transport and conversion of bicarbonate to CO₂ that is analogous to photosynthetic prokaryotes and plants that require carbonic anhydrase (CO₂ + H₂O = HCO₃⁻ + H⁺) for this function (15, 79). Genes encoding carbonic anhydrases are found in all genomes sequenced from CO₂-reducing species, and a β type has been characterized from *Methanothermobacter thermoautotrophicus* (formerly *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum*), consistent with the proposed role (99, 104).

Reaction 6 (formyl-MF + H₄MPT → N⁵-formyl-H₄MPT + MF) is catalyzed

by formylmethanofuran:tetrahydromethanopterin formyltransferase, and Reaction 7 (N^5 -formyl- $H_4MPT + H^+ \rightarrow N^5, N^{10}$ -methenyl- $H_4MPT^+ + H_2O$) is catalyzed by methenyltetrahydromethanopterin cyclohydrolase. Reaction 8 is catalyzed by two mechanistically distinct methylenetetrahydromethanopterin dehydrogenases. The F_{420} -dependent enzyme (Mtd) catalyzes Reaction 8a (N^5, N^{10} -methenyl- $H_4MPT^+ + F_{420}H_2 \rightarrow N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- $H_4MPT + F_{420} + H^+$), and the enzyme (Hmd) catalyzing Reaction 8b (N^5, N^{10} -methenyl- $H_4MPT^+ + H_2 \rightarrow N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- $H_4MPT + H^+$) utilizes H_2 as the electron donor. The reduction of F_{420} by H_2 that supplies Mtd is catalyzed by hydrogenases with properties distinct from the Ech hydrogenase (4, 5, 25, 59, 114). Hmd is a homodimeric hydrogenase containing an iron atom in a cofactor (Figure 6) that is a derivative of pyridone (49, 84). The enzyme catalyzes the stereospecific transfer of a hydride ion from H_2 into the methylene carbon of the product (115). The enzyme contains no iron-sulfur clusters or nickel, in contrast to all known hydrogenases, and therefore may be of increasing importance in cells growing under nickel-deficient conditions. Reaction 9 (N^5, N^{10} -methylene- $H_4MPT + F_{420}H_2 \rightarrow N^5$ -methyl- $H_4MPT + F_{420}$) is catalyzed by methylenetetrahydromethanopterin reductase.

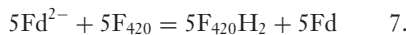
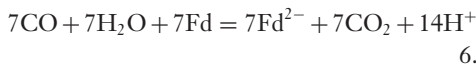
Electron Transport and Energy Conservation in Freshwater *Methanosarcina* and Obligate CO_2 -Reducing Species

The reactions yielding the greatest energy for ATP synthesis in freshwater species are the H_2 :CoM-S-S-CoB oxidoreductase systems (-39 kJ mol^{-1}), which differ between *Methanosarcina* and obligate CO_2 -reducing species. In *Methanosarcina mazei* the system is the same as that functioning in the acetate pathway pumping protons that drive the proton-translocating A_1A_0 -type ATP synthase (Figure 5a). However, obligate CO_2 -reducing species do not contain cytochromes

or methanophenazine with no obvious mechanism for generating an ion gradient coupled to electron transport. The H_2 :CoM-S-S-CoB oxidoreductase system instead comprises the cytoplasmic F_{420} -nonreducing hydrogenase MvhAGD tightly bound to the soluble HdrABC type of heterodisulfide reductase (103). There is no obvious mechanism for energy conservation by this complex and conclusive evidence has yet to be reported. Thus, the only recognizable mechanism for ATP synthesis is the sodium gradient generated by the membrane-bound methyl- H_4MPT :coenzyme M methyltransferase complex (Figure 2, Reaction 2) driving a sodium-translocating A_1A_0 -ATP synthase (109).

Electron Transport and Energy Conservation in the Marine Species *M. acetivorans*

On the basis of biochemical and quantitative proteomic analyses, a CO_2 reduction pathway (Figure 7) for the marine isolate *M. acetivorans* has been proposed that is similar to that of other *Methanosarcina* and obligate CO_2 -reducing species but with novel exceptions in electron transport and ATP synthesis (63). The only electron donor for reduction of CO_2 to CH_4 by *M. acetivorans* is CO. In the proposed pathway, CO is oxidized by the Cdh/ACDS complex that reduces ferredoxin (Equation 6), a portion of which is reoxidized with transfer of electrons to coenzyme F_{420} (Equation 7).



The reduction of $2CO_2$ to $2CH_3$ - H_4SPT with $2Fd^{2-}$ and $4F_{420}H_2$ (Figure 7) involves enzymes and coenzymes identical to those of the pathway of freshwater methanogens except for the first step (Figure 4, Reaction 5), where electrons for reduction of ferredoxin derive directly from CO rather than from the Ech hydrogenase or the MvhAGD-HdrABC heterodisulfide complex as is the case for freshwater *Methanosarcina* or obligate CO_2 -reducing

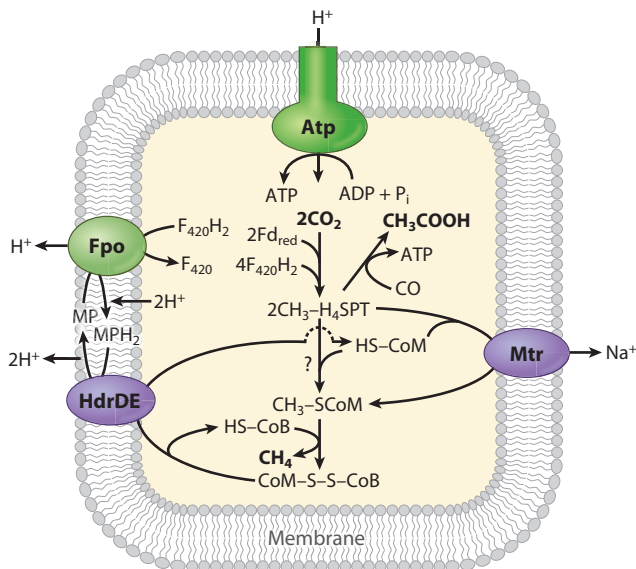


Figure 7

Electron transport and energy conservation during CO-dependent growth of *Methanosarcina acetivorans*. **Reactants and products are in bold**. Fd_{red}, reduced ferredoxin; Fpo, F₄₂₀ dehydrogenase; F₄₂₀, coenzyme F₄₂₀; H₄SPT, tetrahydroscarinapterin; HS-CoM, coenzyme M; Mtr, CH₃-H₄SPT:coenzyme M methyltransferase; MP, methanophenazine; HS-CoB, coenzyme B; HdrDE, heterodisulfide reductase; Atp, proton-translocating A₁A₀ ATP synthase.

species. Unlike all other CO₂-reducing pathways, a combination of quantitative proteomic and biochemical evidence (63) supports that a F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase complex (FpoA-O) functions to supply electrons to the heterodisulfide reductase in CO-grown *M. acetivorans* (Figure 7). The F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase complex was first discovered in the electron transport pathway of methanol conversion to CH₄ in *Methanosarcina* species (21), including *M. acetivorans* (64), wherein methanophenazine mediates electron transfer between F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase and HdrDE pumping protons the same as during acetotrophic growth of *Methanosarcina* species (Figure 7). Thus, it is proposed that methanophenazine functions similarly in CO-grown *M. acetivorans* (Figure 7). The F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase complex in methanol-grown *Methanosarcina* species pumps protons, suggestive of the F₄₂₀H₂ dehydrogenase complex and further contributing to the electrochemical potential that drives

ATP synthesis in CO-grown *M. acetivorans* (Figure 7) (63). The participation of F₄₂₀ as an electron carrier requires an enzyme for the transfer of electrons from ferredoxin to F₄₂₀ (Equation 7) that has yet to be identified.

The membrane-bound, sodium-translocating methyltransferase (Mtr) complex that transfers the methyl group from CH₃-H₄SPT to HS-CoM is downregulated in CO-grown *M. acetivorans*, whereas it is upregulated in methanol- and acetate-grown cells, suggesting a reduced involvement of this enzyme (63). On the other hand, three genes annotated to encode corrinoid-containing proteins are upregulated in CO-grown versus methanol- and acetate-grown *M. acetivorans*, consistent with a role during growth with CO (63). The predicted proteins contain two domains, one with a corrinoid-binding motif and the other with sequence identity to HS-CoM-dependent methyltransferases, suggesting a role in the transfer of a methyl group to HS-CoM. Thus, it is postulated (63) that the upregulated corrinoid proteins participate in transfer of the methyl group from methyl-H₄SPT to HS-CoM via a soluble sodium-independent pathway. The proposal does not rule out that both pathways function simultaneously or that either is essential. Assuming the sodium gradient drives ATP synthesis, an attractive hypothesis is that both the membrane-bound, sodium-translocating and soluble reactions function to adjust thermodynamic efficiency in response to fluctuating levels of growth substrate. Under laboratory conditions where cells are routinely cultured with greater than 0.5 atmosphere of CO and abundant available energy, the postulated soluble methyl transfer may be dispensable, explaining normal growth of mutants deleted of genes encoding the corrinoid proteins (85).

The formation of acetate as an end product (Figure 7) is yet another novel feature of energy conservation in the CO₂ reduction pathway in *M. acetivorans* (63, 86, 92). Quantitative proteomic analyses (63) indicate a role for the Cdh/ACDS complex in the synthesis of acetyl-CoA from the methyl group of CH₃-H₄SPT,

CO, and CoA-SH. The acetyl group of acetyl-CoA is further converted to acetate by phosphotransacetylase and acetate kinase catalyzing the synthesis of ATP. Thus, ATP is synthesized via both substrate-level and chemiosmotic mechanisms. Formate and dimethylsulfide are also produced in minor amounts with no obvious pathway for ATP synthesis (78, 86).

Notably, H₂ is not an intermediate in either the acetoclastic or the CO₂ reduction pathway for methanogenesis by the marine isolate *M. acetivorans*, in contrast to freshwater *Methanosarcina* species. It has been suggested (63, 65) that *M. acetivorans* evolved pathways in this manner to avoid loss of reductant to H₂-utilizing, sulfate-reducing microbes that outcompete methanogens for H₂ in marine environments (119).

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

Clearly, considerable information has accumulated in the recent past regarding the energy-yielding metabolism of acetotrophic and CO₂-reducing methanogenic species; however, much remains to be learned. In particular, a basic understanding of the mechanism of energy conservation in freshwater CO₂-reducing species is ripe for investigation. Note that no identifiable electron transport mechanism

for energy conservation has been identified for obligate CO₂-reducing species, although evolved in *Methanosarcina* species. However, it has been argued that nature evolved different energy conservation mechanisms in response to the concentration of electron donors (e.g., H₂) in the environment that maximized either growth rate or efficiency (109). Nonetheless, only hypotheses for electron transport and energy conservation in obligate CO₂-reducing species have been advanced, and they have yet to be tested. On the other hand, identification of enzyme complexes that function in energy-yielding pathways of *Methanosarcina* species has opened clear avenues of investigation with implications for further understanding of electron transport and energy conservation in species from *Bacteria*. Advances in determining the crystal structures of membrane proteins will certainly facilitate discovery. The recent genomic sequencing of several methanogenic species has revealed hypothetical proteins of unknown function, some of which are likely to be involved in energy-conserving functions. Robust genetic systems recently developed for methanogenic species will surely accelerate the discovery of novel proteins and their function. Another understudied area is the regulation of genes in energy-conserving pathways, particularly regulatory proteins, which will benefit from genetic approaches now within reach.

Substrate-level ATP synthesis: transfer of phosphate to ADP, forming ATP involving an activated intermediate

Chemiosmotic ATP synthesis: transfer of phosphate to ADP, forming ATP catalyzed by ATP synthase driven by an ion gradient

SUMMARY POINTS

1. Methane-producing microbes are terminal organisms of an anaerobic microbial food chain, converting complex biomass in diverse anaerobic environments that is integral to the global carbon cycle.
2. Methane is a product of the energy-yielding metabolism of species restricted to *Archaea*.
3. At least two-thirds of the methane produced derives from the methyl group of acetate and the remaining one-third derives primarily from the reduction of CO₂. Both pathways have in common the reductive demethylation of methyl-coenzyme M to CH₄, which is the most exergonic.
4. Methane-producing species are divided according to their mechanism for energy conservation, which is exclusively dependent on electron transport in all but one species.

5. The metabolically diverse genus *Methanosarcina* generates an ion gradient coupled to electron transport in the reductive demethylation reaction of both pathways that energize ATP synthase.
6. The mechanism of energy conservation in species only reducing CO₂ is largely unknown, although hypotheses have been advanced.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

The author is not aware of any affiliations, memberships, funding, or financial holdings that might be perceived as affecting the objectivity of this review.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Research in the laboratory of J.G.F has been supported by the NIH, DOE, NSF, and NASA.

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