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Biochemistry of methanogenesis: a tribute to Marjory Stephenson

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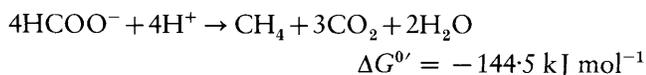
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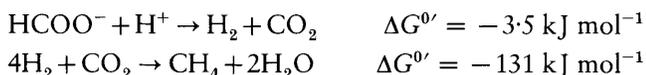
Keywords: methanogenesis and methanogenic archaea, methyl-coenzyme M reductase and its crystal structure, coenzyme F₄₃₀, coenzyme M, coenzyme B

Historical overview

In 1933, Stephenson & Stickland (1933a) published that they had isolated from river mud, by the single cell technique, a methanogenic organism capable of growth in an inorganic medium with formate as the sole carbon source.



Methane formation from formate was shown to occur in a stepwise manner, by the preliminary decomposition of formic acid into CO₂ and H₂ followed by a reduction of CO₂ by H₂, suggesting that formate was not an intermediate in the reduction of CO₂ to methane.



Cell suspensions of the micro-organism catalysed the reduction of methylene blue with H₂, indicating that the methanogen contained an enzyme which activates molecular hydrogen.



This enzyme had been discovered by Stephenson & Stickland (1931a) 2 years before in a number of bacterial species and was named by them 'hydrogenase'.

The paper by Stephenson & Stickland (1933a) is considered to mark the beginning of the modern era for study of methanogenesis (Wolfe, 1993). It is the first

report on the isolation in pure culture of a methanogen and the first study of an enzyme and of reactions involved in methanogenesis.

Besides CO₂, the cell suspensions of the methanogen isolated by Stephenson & Stickland (1933a) catalysed the reduction of carbon monoxide, formaldehyde (added as hexamethylenetetramine) and methanol to methane with H₂, albeit at much lower rates than the reduction of CO₂. It is significant that the cell suspensions did not yield methane from compounds of two or more carbon atoms. The cell suspensions did, however, slowly reduce sulphate with H₂ to H₂S, a property not encountered by any other methanogen isolated since then. It therefore seems possible that, in spite of all efforts to purify it, the culture obtained by Stephenson & Stickland (1933a) was contaminated with one of the sulphate reducers abundantly present in the river mud (Stephenson & Stickland, 1931b) from which the methanogen was isolated (Elsden & Pirie, 1949).

The following review summarizes what we presently know about the biochemistry of methanogenesis, emphasis being put on the enzyme methyl-coenzyme M reductase catalysing the methane-forming reaction proper. It is a tribute to Marjory Stephenson, who discovered hydrogenase in these micro-organisms. Marjory Stephenson died 50 years ago on 12 December 1948 at the age of only 63 (Elsden & Pirie, 1949; Robertson, 1949; Woods, 1950; Elsdén, 1981). She had worked for 30 years in the Cambridge Biochemical Laboratory headed by Frederick Gowland Hopkins (Stephenson, 1948) on various aspects of the chemistry of bacteria (Stephenson, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1935). The 3rd edition of her book on *Bacterial Metabolism* (Stephenson, 1949) is a treasury of knowledge very worth reading even today, 50 years later. Marjory Stephenson was the second woman to be elected to the Royal Society of London (Mason, 1992, 1996) and a cofounder of the Society for General Microbiology, of which she was the second president (Postgate, 1995).

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Except when otherwise noted, the free energy changes given for methanogenic reactions were calculated from the free energies of formation from the elements of the substrates and products with non-gaseous compounds at 1 M aqueous solution and gaseous compounds in the gaseous state at 1 atmosphere pressure (101 kPa). The free energy changes of formation were taken from Thauer *et al.* (1977).

In this review, with the exception of a few papers describing discoveries, only publications on the biochemistry of methanogenesis are cited that have appeared since 1993: these contain reference to earlier and often more important papers, many of which have come from the laboratories of A. J. Kluyver (Kamp *et al.*, 1959), H. A. Barker (Barker, 1956), T. Stadtman (Stadtman, 1967; Grahame & Stadtman, 1993), R. Wolfe (Wolfe, 1991, 1996), J. D. Ferry (Ferry, 1993b, 1995, 1997a), G. Gottschalk (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1996), A. Klein (Sorgenfrei *et al.*, 1997a), J. Reeve (Reeve *et al.*, 1997) and G. Vogels (Keltjens & Vogels, 1993). A historical overview of methanogenesis has recently been published by Wolfe (1993). The reader is also referred to the book on *Methanogenesis: Ecology, Physiology, Biochemistry & Genetics* edited by Ferry (1993a), to the review by Daniels (1993) and by Blaut (1994) and three more recent reviews by the author (Weiss & Thauer, 1993; Thauer *et al.*, 1993; Thauer, 1997).

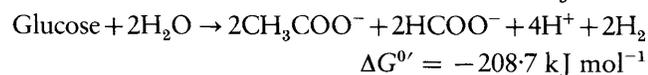
Methanogens: where they live, what they do and who they are

Methane is an end product of the microbial decomposition of organic matter in anaerobic freshwater environments such as lake sediments and the intestinal tract of animals. Estimates are that presently about 1% of the plant material formed per year by photosynthesis from CO₂ is remineralized via methane, more than 10⁹ tons of the combustible gas being intermediately generated. Roughly two-thirds of the methane diffuses into aerobic zones, where it is oxidized by methanotrophic bacteria. A few per cent is buried, leading to the formation of methane deposits, but most of the rest escapes to the atmosphere where it is photochemically converted to CO₂. The concentration of atmospheric methane has increased steadily during the last 300 years from 0.7 p.p.m. to 1.7 p.p.m., owing probably in large part to the expanded cultivation of rice and ruminant life stock (Conrad, 1996). This is of concern since methane is a potent greenhouse gas.

In anaerobic freshwater sediments, plant material such as glucose from cellulose is completely decomposed to CO₂ and CH₄.

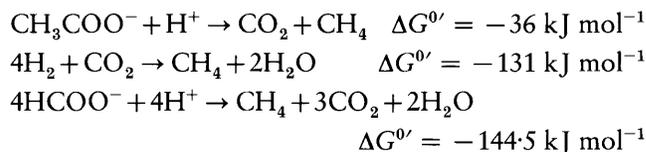


This reaction is not catalysed by single micro-organisms but by syntrophic associations of micro-organisms. First the glucose is fermented to acetate, CO₂ and H₂ or to acetate, formate and H₂:

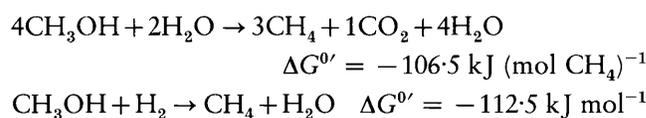


These fermentations are brought about by strictly anaerobic bacteria and/or protozoa. In a second step, the products of glucose fermentation are then converted

to methane, the rate of conversion being such that the concentrations of acetate (<1 mM), formate (<0.1 mM) and H₂ (<1 μM) in the anaerobic sediments remain very low (Zinder, 1993).



The organisms mediating these methane-forming reactions were originally thought to be bacteria, but are now recognized as belonging to a separate phylogenetic domain, the *Archaea*. Methanoarchaea are highly specialized. They can only use acetate, H₂ and CO₂, formate and/or other C₁ compounds such as methanol, methylthiols and methylamines as energy substrates, the C₁ compounds being either disproportionated to CO₂ and CH₄ or reduced to methane with H₂ as exemplified for methanol:



Methanogenesis is the only way that methanogenic archaea can obtain energy for growth and these are the only organisms known to produce methane as a catabolic end product.

Despite the high specialization, not all methanogens are phylogenetically closely related. This is reflected, for example, in differences in cell wall composition (Sprott & Beveridge, 1993; Kandler & König, 1998). Methanogens can also have very different optimal growth conditions; thus some thrive optimally at temperatures below 20 °C and others at or near the temperature of boiling water (Boone *et al.*, 1993).

Methanogens taxonomically all belong to the archaeal kingdom of *Euryarchaeota*. They are classified in five orders each phylogenetically related to another as distantly as the *Cyanobacteriales* to the *Proteobacteriales*. The five orders are: *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanococcales*, *Methanomicrobiales*, *Methanopyrales* and *Methanosarcinales*. Of these, only the *Methanosarcinales* can ferment acetate to CO₂ and CH₄ and grow on methanol, methylthiols or methylamines as sole energy source. In turn, hyperthermophilic species are only found among the *Methanobacteriales*, *Methanococcales* and *Methanopyrales* (Boone *et al.*, 1993).

The DNA sequence of the total genome has, until now, been determined for two methanoarchaea, for *Methanococcus jannaschii* (Bult *et al.*, 1996) and for *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* (strain ΔH) (Smith *et al.*, 1997). Recently, the sequence for *Archaeoglobus fulgidus* has also been published (Klenk *et al.*, 1997). This sulphate-reducing archaeon is phylogenetically most closely related to the *Methanosarcinales* with which it has many biochemical features in common

Table 1. Reactions and enzymes known to be involved in methane formation from acetate in the *Methanosarcinales* (Ferry, 1993b, 1995, 1997a)

H-S-CoM, coenzyme M; H-S-CoB, coenzyme B; H₄SPT, tetrahydrosarcinapterin, which is the modified tetrahydromethanopterin (for structures see Fig. 3) present in the *Methanosarcinales* (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994).

Reaction*	Enzyme (gene)	Most recent literature
Acetate + CoA → acetyl-CoA + H ₂ O ΔG ^{0'} = +35.7 kJ mol ⁻¹ †	Acetate kinase (<i>ack</i>) and phosphotransacetylase (<i>pta</i>) in <i>Methanosarcina</i> spp. or acetate thiokinase (<i>acs</i>) in <i>Methanosaeta</i> spp.	Latimer & Ferry (1993); Singh-Wissmann & Ferry (1995); Eggen <i>et al.</i> (1991a)
Acetyl-CoA + H ₄ SPT → CH ₃ -H ₄ SPT + CO ₂ + CoA + 2[H] E ₀ ' = -200 mV‡ ΔG ^{0'} = +41.3 kJ mol ⁻¹ ‡§	Carbon-monoxide dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA synthase (<i>cdhABCXDE</i>)	Grahame (1993); Sowers <i>et al.</i> (1993); Lu <i>et al.</i> (1994); Grahame & DeMoll (1995, 1996); Eggen <i>et al.</i> (1991b, 1996); Grahame <i>et al.</i> (1996); Maupin-Furlow & Ferry (1996a, b)
CH ₃ -H ₄ SPT + H-S-CoM → CH ₃ -S-CoM + H ₄ SPT ΔG ^{0'} = -30 kJ mol ⁻¹ ¶	Methyl-H ₄ SPT:coenzyme M methyltransferase# (energy conserving) (<i>mtrEDCBAFGH</i>)	Fischer <i>et al.</i> (1992); Lu <i>et al.</i> (1995); Lienard <i>et al.</i> (1996); Lienard & Gottschalk (1998)
CH ₃ -S-CoM + H-S-CoB → CoM-S-S-CoB + CH ₄ ΔG ^{0'} = -45 kJ mol ⁻¹ **	Methyl-coenzyme M reductase†† (<i>mcrBDCGA</i>)	Thauer <i>et al.</i> (1993); Springer <i>et al.</i> (1995)
CoM-S-S-CoB + 2[H] → H-S-CoM + H-S-CoB E ₀ ' = -200 mV** ΔG ^{0'} = -40 kJ mol ⁻¹ §	Heterodisulphide reductase‡‡ (<i>hdrDE</i>)	Heiden <i>et al.</i> (1993); Peer <i>et al.</i> (1994); Kunkel <i>et al.</i> (1998)

* ΔG^{0'} values add up to -38 kJ mol⁻¹, which is very similar to the ΔG^{0'} = -36 kJ mol⁻¹ calculated for CH₃COO⁻ + H⁺ → CH₄ + CO₂ from free energy of formation data (Thauer *et al.*, 1977). See also the first footnotes to Tables 2 and 3.

† From Thauer *et al.* (1977).

‡ From Thauer (1990); CO₂ in the gaseous state at 10⁵ Pa. E₀' was determined by Grahame & DeMoll (1995) to be -270 mV and ΔG^{0'} to be +28 kJ mol⁻¹, values not consistent with the overall thermodynamics of methanogenesis from acetate (see first footnote), from CO₂ (Table 2) and from methanol (Table 3). At first sight, a ΔG^{0'} = +41.3 kJ mol⁻¹ appears unrealistically endergonic. Note, however, that in the reaction four products are formed from two substrates. ΔG' is thus highly concentration dependent. At 0.1 mM concentrations of all substrates and products (pH₂ = 10 Pa), ΔG' = -2.6 kJ mol⁻¹ and E' = -430 mV (Thauer, 1990).

§ Calculated for 2[H] = 1H₂ at 10⁵ Pa.

|| The nickel iron-sulphur corrinoid enzyme is isolated from *Methanosarcina* spp. as a multienzyme complex composed of five different subunits (Grahame & DeMoll, 1996; Maupin-Furlow & Ferry, 1996a, b); ferredoxin appears to be the physiological electron acceptor (Fischer & Thauer, 1990; Peer *et al.*, 1994; Ferry, 1995, 1997a). The encoding genes in *Methanosarcina thermophila* are organized in a transcription unit, *cdhABCXDE*, X being an open reading frame of unknown function (Maupin-Furlow & Ferry, 1996b). CdhA and CdhC are predicted to be nickel iron-sulphur proteins and CdhD and CdhE to harbour the corrinoid prosthetic group.

¶ From Weiss *et al.* (1994).

Membrane-associated multienzyme complex composed of eight different subunits MtrA-H, MtrA harbouring a corrinoid prosthetic group (Lienard & Gottschalk, 1998). Energy conservation proceeds via an electrochemical Na⁺ potential (Lienard *et al.*, 1996).

** From Thauer *et al.* (1993).

†† The enzyme is isolated as a multienzyme complex of three different subunits, McrABG, in an α₂β₂γ₂ configuration.

‡‡ Membrane-associated enzyme purified from methanol-grown *Methanosarcina barkeri* is a complex of two different subunits, HdrDE (Kunkel *et al.*, 1997), and from acetate-grown cells is a complex of eight different subunits, HdrDE and EchABCDEF, Ech being an *E. coli* hydrogenase-3-type hydrogenase (Kunkel *et al.*, 1998). HdrE is a b-type cytochrome (Kunkel *et al.*, 1997, 1998).

(Schwörer *et al.*, 1993a; Kunow *et al.*, 1993, 1994, 1995; Thauer & Kunow, 1995; Vorholt *et al.*, 1995, 1997a).

Noteworthy is a recent hypothesis for the origin of eukaryotic cells from strictly hydrogen-dependent autotrophic methanoarchaea (Martin & Müller, 1998; see also Vogel, 1998).

Energy metabolism of methanoarchaea

The reactions and enzymes known to be involved in methane formation from acetate, from CO₂ and from methanol are summarized in Tables 1-3.

The energy metabolism of methanogens can be viewed

Table 2. Reactions and enzymes known to be involved in methane formation from CO₂ (Thauer *et al.*, 1993)

MFR, methanofuran; H-S-CoM, coenzyme M; H-S-CoB, coenzyme B; H₄MPT, tetrahydromethanopterin, which is a tetrahydrofolate (H₄F) analogue found instead of H₄F in the *Methanobacteriales* (for structures see Fig. 3). In the other orders, modified forms of H₄MPT are present: tetrahydrosarcinapterin in the *Methanosarcinales* and *Methanococcales* and tatiopterin and/or theropterin in the *Methanomicrobiales* (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994). F₄₂₀ is a 5' deazaflavin derivative found in relatively high concentrations in methanogenic archaea (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994). See also the legend to Table 4.

Reaction*	Enzyme (gene)	Most recent literature
CO ₂ + MFR + 2[H] → formyl-MFR E ₀ ' = -530 mV† ΔG ^{0'} = +16 kJ mol ⁻¹ ‡	Formylmethanofuran dehydrogenase (<i>fwdHFGDACB</i> and <i>fmdECB</i>)§	Schmitz <i>et al.</i> (1994); Bertram & Thauer (1994); Bertram <i>et al.</i> (1994a, b); Wasserfallen (1994); Hochheimer <i>et al.</i> (1995, 1996); Vorholt <i>et al.</i> (1996, 1997b); Vorholt & Thauer (1997); Holm & Sander (1997)
Formyl-MFR + H ₄ MPT → formyl-H ₄ MPT + MFR ΔG ^{0'} = -4.4 kJ mol ⁻¹	Formylmethanofuran:H ₄ MPT formyltransferase (<i>ftt</i>)	Shima <i>et al.</i> (1995, 1996); Lehmacher (1994); Ermler <i>et al.</i> (1997a); Kunow <i>et al.</i> (1996)
Formyl-H ₄ MPT + H ⁺ → methenyl-H ₄ MPT ⁺ + H ₂ O ΔG ^{0'} = -4.6 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methenyl-H ₄ MPT cyclohydrolase (<i>mch</i>)	Klein <i>et al.</i> (1993a); Vaupel <i>et al.</i> (1996, 1998)
Methenyl-H ₄ MPT ⁺ + F ₄₂₀ H ₂ → methylene-H ₄ MPT + F ₄₂₀ + H ⁺ ΔG ^{0'} = +5.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	F ₄₂₀ -dependent methylene-H ₄ MPT dehydrogenase (<i>mtd</i>)	Klein <i>et al.</i> (1993b); Kunow <i>et al.</i> (1993); Klein & Thauer (1995, 1997); Mukhopadhyay <i>et al.</i> (1995)
Methenyl-H ₄ MPT ⁺ + H ₂ → methylene-H ₄ MPT + H ⁺ ΔG ^{0'} = -5.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	H ₂ -forming methylene-H ₄ MPT dehydrogenase (<i>hmd</i>)	Schwörer <i>et al.</i> (1993b); Schleucher <i>et al.</i> (1994, 1995); Klein <i>et al.</i> (1995a, b); Berkessel & Thauer (1995); Hartmann <i>et al.</i> (1996a, b); Thauer <i>et al.</i> (1996)
Methylene-H ₄ MPT + F ₄₂₀ H ₂ → CH ₃ -H ₄ MPT + F ₄₂₀ ΔG ^{0'} = -6.2 kJ mol ⁻¹	F ₄₂₀ -dependent methylene-H ₄ MPT reductase (<i>mer</i>)	Vaupel & Thauer (1995); Nölling <i>et al.</i> (1995a); Kunow <i>et al.</i> (1993)
CH ₃ -H ₄ MPT + H-S-CoM → CH ₃ -S-CoM + H ₄ MPT ΔG ^{0'} = -30 kJ mol ⁻¹ ¶	Methyl-H ₄ MPT:coenzyme M methyl-transferase (energy conserving)# (<i>mttEDCBAFGH</i>)	Stupperich <i>et al.</i> (1993); Gärtner <i>et al.</i> (1993, 1994); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1994); Harms <i>et al.</i> (1995); Harms & Thauer (1996a, 1997, 1998)
CH ₃ -S-CoM + H-S-CoB → CoM-S-S-CoB + CH ₄ ΔG ^{0'} = -45 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methyl-coenzyme M reductase (<i>mcrBDCGA</i> and <i>mrtBDGA</i>)**	Bonacker <i>et al.</i> (1993); Goubeaud <i>et al.</i> (1997); Shima <i>et al.</i> (1997); Ermler <i>et al.</i> (1997b); Becker & Ragsdale (1998)
CoM-S-S-CoB + 2[H] → H-S-CoM + H-S-CoB E ₀ ' = -200 mV ΔG ^{0'} = -40 kJ mol ⁻¹ ††	Heterodisulphide reductase (<i>hdrA</i> , <i>hdrBC</i>)‡‡	Hedderich <i>et al.</i> (1994); Setzke <i>et al.</i> (1994)

* ΔG^{0'} values from Thauer *et al.* (1993). They add up to -130.7 kJ mol⁻¹, which is almost identical to the ΔG^{0'} = -131 kJ mol⁻¹ calculated for 4H₂ + CO₂ → CH₄ + 2H₂O from free energy of formation data (Thauer *et al.*, 1977).

† From Bertram & Thauer (1994); determined at 60 °C; CO₂ in the gaseous state at 10⁵ Pa.

‡ Calculated for 2[H] = 1H₂ at 10⁵ Pa. The direct electron donor is probably a polyferredoxin (Vorholt *et al.*, 1996). The endergonic reduction of CO₂ with H₂ to formylmethanofuran is driven by the electrochemical Na⁺ potential involving reversed electron transport (Kaesler & Schönheit, 1989a, b).

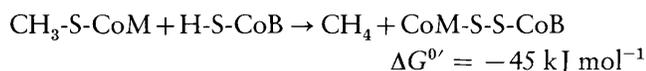
§ *fwd* denotes the genes encoding the tungsten enzyme and *fmd* the molybdenum enzyme in *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* (Hochheimer *et al.*, 1996). The latter enzymes are isolated from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* as multi-enzyme complexes composed of the subunits FwdABC and FwdA + FmdBC, respectively. FwdB and FmdB contain bound molybdopterin-guanine dinucleotide and tungsten and molybdenum, respectively (Hochheimer *et al.*, 1996).

|| H₂ + F₄₂₀ → F₄₂₀H₂; ΔG^{0'} = -11 kJ mol⁻¹; the E₀' of the F₄₂₀/F₄₂₀H₂ couple is -360 mV (Thauer *et al.*, 1993) and that of the H⁺/H₂ couple is -414 mV (Thauer *et al.*, 1977).

to consist of two parts (Fig. 1): an oxidative part in which coenzyme M (H-S-CoM, 2-thioethanesulfonate) and coenzyme B (H-S-CoB, 7-thioheptanoylthreonine-phosphate) (for structures see Fig. 4) are oxidized to the heterodisulphide CoM-S-S-CoB; and a reductive part in which the heterodisulphide of coenzyme M and coenzyme B is re-reduced.

Oxidative part

In this part, methyl-coenzyme M is a central intermediate (Taylor & Wolfe, 1974a, b; Shapiro & Wolfe, 1980; Lovley *et al.*, 1984). It is formed from coenzyme M and acetate, CO₂ or reduced C₁ compounds such as methanol, methylthiols and methylamines via the pathways shown in Fig. 2. Methyl-coenzyme M is subsequently reduced with coenzyme B to methane with the concomitant formation of the heterodisulphide of coenzyme M and coenzyme B (Bobik *et al.*, 1987; Ellermann *et al.*, 1988).



As far as known the exergonic reaction, which is catalysed by methyl-coenzyme M reductase and which proceeds essentially irreversibly, is not coupled with energy conservation (Thauer *et al.*, 1993).

In methanogenesis from CO₂ (Escalante-Semerena *et al.*, 1984) and from acetate (Fischer & Thauer, 1989), N⁵-methyltetrahydromethanopterin (CH₃-H₄MPT) or N⁵-methyltetrahydrosarcinapterin (CH₃-H₄SPT) is an intermediate in methyl-coenzyme M formation (Fig. 2). [Tetrahydromethanopterin (H₄MPT) is the tetrahydrofolate (H₄F) analogue found instead of H₄F in the *Methanobacteriales* (for structures see Fig. 3). In the other orders, modified forms of H₄MPT are present: tetrahydrosarcinapterin in the *Methanosarcinales* and *Methanococcales* and tatiopterin and/or theropterin in the *Methanomicrobiales* (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994; see also White, 1998).] The methyl group of CH₃-H₄MPT is transferred to coenzyme M in an exergonic reaction ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = -30 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) coupled with energy conservation via an electrochemical sodium potential across the cytoplasmic membrane (Becher *et al.*, 1992a, b; Becher & Müller, 1994; Müller & Gottschalk, 1994; Lienard *et al.*, 1996; Lienard & Gottschalk, 1998). Despite this fact, methyl-coenzyme M formation from acetate or CO₂ is most probably not associated with a

net phosphorylation of ADP since the first step in methanogenesis from acetate (Table 1) and that from CO₂ (Table 2) are endergonic reactions which in order to proceed are predicted to consume more energy than is conserved in the methyl transfer reaction.

Reductive part

Since the generation of the heterodisulphide in the oxidative part of the energy metabolism apparently is not coupled with net ATP formation, the energy required for growth of methanogens must be generated in the reductive part, the exergonic reduction of the heterodisulphide (Fig. 1), and indeed it has been shown that the reduction of the heterodisulphide is coupled with phosphorylation of ADP via the chemiosmotic mechanism involving an electrochemical H⁺ potential as intermediate (Peinemann *et al.*, 1990; Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1990a, b, 1991; Sparling *et al.*, 1993). Dependent on the methanogenic growth substrate, the electrons for the reduction derive from the oxidation of either H₂, the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA, formate, ethanol or 2-propanol or of one of the reduced C₁ compounds methanol, methylthiols or methylamines. Under standard conditions, the free energy change associated with heterodisulphide reduction with H₂ is -40 kJ mol^{-1} , with formate is $-43.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, with ethanol (acetate as product) is -35 kJ mol^{-1} and with methanol (CO₂ as product) is -34 kJ mol^{-1} , which is sufficient to drive the phosphorylation of 1 mol ADP ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = +31.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) (Thauer *et al.*, 1977). The reduction of the heterodisulphide with acetyl-CoA ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = \pm 0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) (calculated from E'_0 values given in Table 1) and with 2-propanol ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = -15 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) is much less exergonic. Under the conditions in the cell, the free energy change ΔG is, however, probably considerably more negative since the reduction is 'pushed' by irreversible formation of the heterodisulphide from methyl-coenzyme M and coenzyme B. Such a coupling is not unusual: e.g. in the arginine dihydrolase pathway operative in many bacteria and archaea, the energy-conserving formation of ornithine, CO₂ and NH₄⁺ from citrulline ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = -19 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) is also 'pushed' by the preceding reaction, the irreversible hydrolysis of arginine to citrulline and NH₄⁺ ($\Delta G^{\circ'} = -37.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) (Thauer *et al.*, 1977). There is evidence that heterodisulphide reduction with H₂ is coupled with the synthesis of more than 1 mol ATP (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1996).

¶ From Weiss *et al.* (1994).

Membrane-associated multienzyme complex composed of eight different subunits, MtrA-H, MtrA harbouring a corrinoid prosthetic group (Harms *et al.*, 1995). Energy conservation proceeds via an electrochemical Na⁺ potential (Gärtner *et al.*, 1994). For literature on the enzyme complex from *Methanosarcina* spp., see Table 1.

** *mcr* denotes the genes encoding the isoenzyme I and *mrt* the isoenzyme II. Both isoenzymes are isolated as multienzyme complexes composed of three different subunits, McrABG or MrtABG, in an $\alpha_2\beta_2\gamma_2$ configuration. For literature on the enzyme complex from *Methanosarcina* spp., see Table 1.

†† Calculated for 2[H] = H₂ at 10⁵ Pa.

‡‡ The enzyme is purified from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* in a complex with the F₄₂₀-non-reducing hydrogenase (Setzke *et al.*, 1994).

Table 3. Reactions and enzymes known to be involved in methane and CO₂ formation from methanol in *Methanosarcina* spp. (Keltjens & Vogels, 1993)

Only methanogens of the family *Methanosarcinaceae* are capable of methanol disproportionation to CH₄ and CO₂. For abbreviations, see Tables 1 and 2.

Reaction*	Enzyme (gene)	Most recent literature
1. Methane formation		
CH ₃ OH + H-S-CoM → CH ₃ -S-CoM + H ₂ O ΔG ^{0'} = -27.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methanol:coenzyme M methyltransferase (<i>mtaA + mtaBC</i>)	Sauer <i>et al.</i> (1997); Sauer & Thauer (1997, 1998)
CH ₃ -S-CoM + H-S-CoB → CoM-S-S-CoB + CH ₄ ΔG ^{0'} = -45 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methyl-coenzyme M reductase (<i>mcrBDCGA</i>)	See Table 1
CoM-S-S-CoB + 2[H] → H-S-CoM + H-S-CoB E ₀ ' = -200 mV ΔG ^{0'} = -40 kJ mol ⁻¹ †	Heterodisulphide reductase (<i>hdrDE</i>)	Heiden <i>et al.</i> (1994); Kunkel <i>et al.</i> (1997)
2. CO₂ formation		
CH ₃ -OH + H-S-CoM → CH ₃ -S-CoM + H ₂ O ΔG ^{0'} = -27.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methanol:coenzyme M methyltransferase (<i>mtaA + mtaBC</i>)	Sauer <i>et al.</i> (1997); Sauer & Thauer (1997, 1998)
CH ₃ -S-CoM + H ₄ SPT → H-S-CoM + CH ₃ -H ₄ SPT ΔG ^{0'} = +30 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methyl-H ₄ SPT:coenzyme M methyltransferase (energy conserving) (<i>mtrEDCBAFGH</i>)	See Table 1
CH ₃ OH + H ₄ SPT → CH ₃ -H ₄ SPT + H ₂ O ΔG ^{0'} = +2.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	Enzyme has not yet been identified unambiguously	Keltjens & Vogels (1993)
CH ₃ -H ₄ SPT + F ₄₂₀ → methylene-H ₄ SPT + F ₄₂₀ H ₂ ΔG ^{0'} = +6.2 kJ mol ⁻¹ ‡	F ₄₂₀ -dependent methylene-H ₄ SPT reductase (<i>mer</i>)	Ma & Thauer (1990); Te Brömmelstroet <i>et al.</i> (1991)
Methylene-H ₄ SPT + F ₄₂₀ + H ⁺ → methenyl-H ₄ SPT ⁺ + F ₄₂₀ H ₂ ΔG ^{0'} = -5.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	F ₄₂₀ -dependent methylene-H ₄ SPT dehydrogenase (<i>mtd</i>)	Enßle <i>et al.</i> (1991); Te Brömmelstroet <i>et al.</i> (1991)
Methenyl-H ₄ SPT ⁺ + H ₂ O → formyl-H ₄ SPT + H ⁺ ΔG ^{0'} = +4.6 kJ mol ⁻¹	Methenyl-H ₄ SPT cyclohydrolase (<i>mch</i>)	Te Brömmelstroet <i>et al.</i> (1990); Vaupel <i>et al.</i> (1998)
Formyl-H ₄ SPT + MFR → formyl-MFR + H ₄ SPT ΔG ^{0'} = +4.4 kJ mol ⁻¹	Formylmethanofuran:H ₄ SPT formyltransferase (<i>ptr</i>)	Kunow <i>et al.</i> (1996)
Formyl-MFR → CO ₂ + MFR + 2[H] E ₀ ' = -530 mV ΔG ^{0'} = -16 kJ mol ⁻¹ §	Formylmethanofuran dehydrogenase (<i>fmdEFACDB</i>)	Vorholt <i>et al.</i> (1996)

* ΔG^{0'} values from Thauer *et al.* (1993) and Keltjens & Vogels (1993). They add up to ΔG^{0'} = -319 kJ mol⁻¹ for 4CH₃OH + 2H₂O → 3CH₄ + 1CO₂ + 4H₂O, which is very close to ΔG^{0'} = -319.5 kJ mol⁻¹ calculated from free energy of formation data (Thauer *et al.*, 1977).

† Calculated from 2[H] = 1H₂ at 10⁵ Pa.

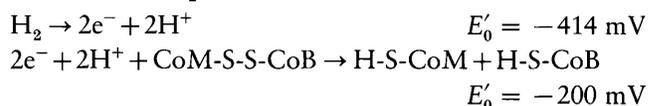
‡ F₄₂₀H₂ → F₄₂₀ + H₂; ΔG^{0'} = +11 kJ mol⁻¹; the E₀' of the F₄₂₀/F₄₂₀H₂ couple is -360 mV (Thauer *et al.*, 1993) and that of the H⁺/H₂ couple is -414 mV (Thauer *et al.*, 1977).

§ The direct electron acceptor is probably a polyferredoxin (Vorholt *et al.*, 1996). The exergonic dehydrogenation of formylmethanofuran is coupled with energy conservation via an electrochemical Na⁺ gradient (Kaesler & Schönheit, 1989a, b). See also Table 2.

Heterodisulphide reduction with H₂

The reduction of the heterodisulphide with the primary electron donors involves at least two enzymes, a dehydrogenase and a heterodisulphide reductase, and an electron transport chain connecting the two enzymes as

schematically exemplified for heterodisulphide reduction with H₂.



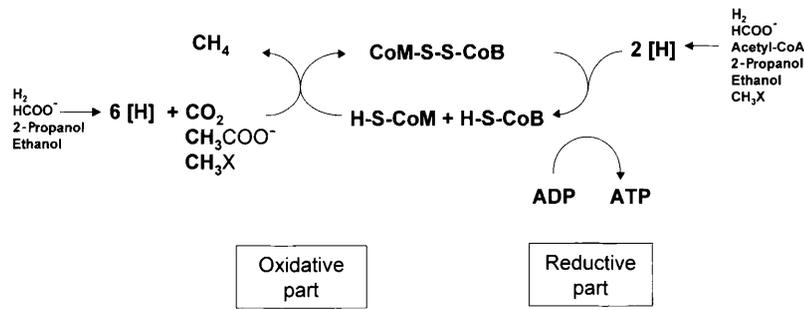


Fig. 1. Energy metabolism of methanogenic archaea. In the oxidative part, coenzyme M (H-S-CoM) and coenzyme B (H-S-CoB) are oxidized to the heterodisulphide CoM-S-S-CoB by CO_2 , acetate or reduced C_1 compounds ($\text{CH}_3\text{-X}$) such as methanol, methylthiols and methylamines, which in turn are reduced to CH_4 ; in the reductive part, the heterodisulphide is reduced to coenzyme M and coenzyme B, the electron transport from the electron donors being coupled with phosphorylation.

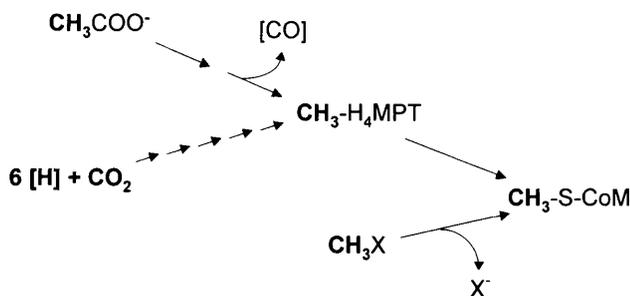


Fig. 2. Pathways of methyl-coenzyme M ($\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM}$) formation from acetate, CO_2 and reduced C_1 compounds ($\text{CH}_3\text{-X}$) such as methanol, methylthiols and methylamines. H-S-CoM, coenzyme M; $[\text{CO}]$, enzyme-bound CO; $\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{MPT}$, N^5 -methyltetrahydromethanopterin. Tetrahydromethanopterin (H_4MPT) is a tetrahydrofolate (H_4F) analogue found instead of H_4F in the *Methanobacteriales* (for structures see Fig. 3). In the other orders, modified forms of H_4MPT are present: tetrahydrosarcinapterin in the *Methanosarcinales* and *Methanococcales* and tatiopterin or thermopterin in the *Methanomicrobiales* (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994).

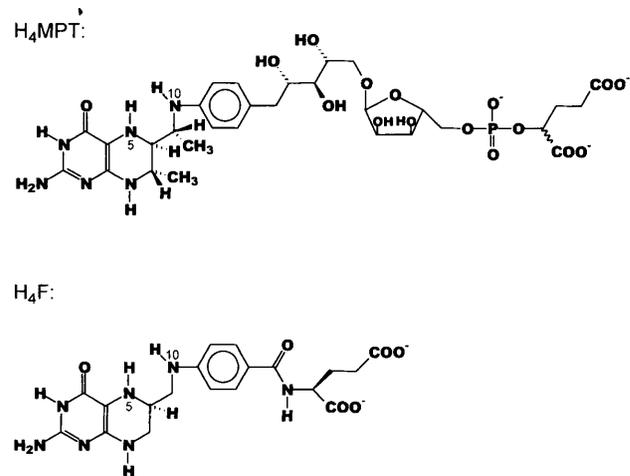


Fig. 3. Structures of tetrahydromethanopterin (H_4MPT) (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994; Schleucher *et al.*, 1994) and of tetrahydrofolate (H_4F). The functionally most important difference between H_4MPT and H_4F is that H_4MPT has an electron-donating methylene group conjugated to N^{10} via the aromatic ring whereas H_4F has an electron-withdrawing carbonyl group in this position. As a consequence, the redox potential $E'_0 = -390 \text{ mV}$ of the N^5, N^{10} -methylene- $\text{H}_4\text{MPT}/N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- H_4MPT couple is by 90 mV more negative than the $E'_0 = -300 \text{ mV}$ of the N^5, N^{10} -methylene- $\text{H}_4\text{F}/N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- H_4F couple and the redox potential $E'_0 = -320 \text{ mV}$ of the N^5, N^{10} -methylene- $\text{H}_4\text{MPT}/N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- H_4MPT couple is by 120 mV more negative than the $E'_0 = -200 \text{ mV}$ of the N^5, N^{10} -methylene- $\text{H}_4\text{F}/N^5, N^{10}$ -methylene- H_4F couple (Thauer *et al.*, 1996). Tetrahydrosarcinapterin (H_4SPT) is a H_4MPT derivative with a glutamyl group attached to the hydroxyglutaryl group in the side chain.

The heterodisulphide reductase (Hdr), first discovered by Hedderich & Thauer (1988), is a novel type of disulphide reductase catalysing the reduction of the heterodisulphide in two successive one-electron steps and probably involving thiol radical intermediates (Künkel *et al.*, 1997; Heim *et al.*, 1998). The enzyme complex, composed of at least two different subunits, has been characterized from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* (Hedderich *et al.*, 1990, 1994; Setzke *et al.*, 1994), from *Methanosarcina barkeri* (Heiden *et al.*, 1993, 1994; Künkel *et al.*, 1997, 1998) and from *Methanosarcina thermophila* (Peer *et al.*, 1994). Heterodisulphide reductase HdrDE from *Methanosarcina* spp. is a cytochrome *b* (HdrE)-containing enzyme (Heiden *et al.*, 1993, 1994; Künkel *et al.*, 1997); methanophenazine is most probably the direct electron donor, the oxidation of reduced methanophenazine with heterodisulphide being coupled with energy conservation (Abken *et al.*, 1998a, b; Bäumer *et al.*, 1998). The enzyme HdrABC from *Methanobacterium* spp. is an iron-sulphur protein (Hedderich *et al.*, 1994; Setzke *et al.*, 1994). The direct electron donor is not yet known (see Nölling *et al.*, 1995c).

Hydrogenotrophic methanogens can contain up to four different types of hydrogenases and of each type, several isoenzymes (Thauer *et al.*, 1993; Sorgenfrei *et al.*, 1997a, b; Künkel *et al.*, 1998; for topology see Braks *et al.*, 1994): (i) F_{420} -reducing Ni/Fe-hydrogenase (Vaupel & Thauer, 1998); (ii) F_{420} -non-reducing hydrogenase of unknown physiological electron acceptor – in *Methanosarcina* spp., one of the subunits from the enzyme is a cytochrome *b* (Deppenmeier, 1995; Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1995; Kumazawa *et al.*, 1994; Kemner & Zeikus, 1994a, b) and in *Methanobacterium* spp., which are devoid of cytochromes, the electron acceptor is possibly either a 44 kDa polyferredoxin (Reeve *et al.*, 1989;

Table 4. Dehydrogenases catalysing the reduction of F_{420} and the oxidation of $F_{420}H_2$ in the energy metabolism of methanogenic archaea

F_{420} is a 5' deazaflavin derivative found in relatively high concentration in methanogenic archaea (Gorris & van der Drift, 1994). F_{420} in methanogens is converted to inactive F_{390} by adenylation and F_{390} to F_{420} by deadenylation in response to different growth conditions (Vermeij *et al.*, 1994, 1995, 1996)

Enzyme	Organism	Most recent literature
1. Reduction of F_{420}		
F_{420} -reducing hydrogenase	All hydrogenotrophic methanogens	Sorgenfrei <i>et al.</i> (1997a, b); Vaupel & Thauer (1998)
F_{420} -dependent formate dehydrogenase	Methanogens growing on formate	Nölling & Reeve (1997); Grahame & Stadtman (1993)
F_{420} -dependent methylene- H_4 MPT dehydrogenase	Methanogens growing on methanol, methylthiols or methylamines	Keltjens & Vogels (1993)
F_{420} -dependent methylene- H_4 MPT reductase	Methanogens growing on methanol, methylthiols or methylamines	Keltjens & Vogels (1993)
H_2 -forming methylene- H_4 MPT dehydrogenase plus F_{420} -dependent methylene- H_4 MPT dehydrogenase	Most hydrogenotrophic methanogens of the orders <i>Methanobacteriales</i> , <i>Methanococcales</i> and <i>Methanopyrales</i>	Thauer <i>et al.</i> (1996); Afting <i>et al.</i> (1998)
F_{420} -dependent alcohol dehydrogenase	<i>Methanogenium liminatans</i> , <i>Methanoculleus thermophilicus</i>	Klein <i>et al.</i> (1996); Widdel & Frimmer (1995); Berk <i>et al.</i> (1996)
NADP-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase plus F_{420} -dependent NADP reductase	<i>Methanogenium organophilum</i> , <i>Methanobacterium palustre</i> , <i>Methanocorpusculum</i> spp.	Berk <i>et al.</i> (1996); Berk & Thauer (1997); Widdel & Frimmer (1995)
2. Oxidation of $F_{420}H_2$		
F_{420} -dependent methylene- H_4 MPT dehydrogenase	Methanogens reducing CO_2 to methane	See Table 2
F_{420} -dependent methylene- H_4 MPT reductase	Methanogens reducing CO_2 to methane	See Table 2
$F_{420}H_2$ dehydrogenase complex	<i>Methanosarcina mazei</i> , <i>Methanolobus tindarium</i>	Haase <i>et al.</i> (1992); Abken & Deppenmeier (1997); Abken <i>et al.</i> (1998a, b)
F_{420} -dependent hydrogenase	Methanogens of the orders <i>Methanococcales</i> and <i>Methanobacteriales</i> growing on formate and lacking $F_{420}H_2$ dehydrogenase complex	Vaupel (1993)

Hedderich *et al.*, 1992; Nölling *et al.*, 1995c) or a 45 kDa flavoprotein (Wasserfallen *et al.*, 1995; Nölling *et al.*, 1995c); (iii) *Escherichia coli* hydrogenase-3-type Ni/Fe-hydrogenase of unknown physiological electron acceptor (Künkel *et al.*, 1998); and (iv) a metal-free hydrogenase, the H_2 -forming methylenetetrahydro-methanopterin dehydrogenase, which together with the F_{420} -dependent methylenetetrahydro-methanopterin dehydrogenase catalyses the reduction of F_{420} with H_2 (Thauer *et al.*, 1996; Reeve *et al.*, 1997). Both enzymes are induced during growth under conditions of nickel deprivation (Afting *et al.*, 1998).

There are indications that at least two of the hydrogenases can be involved in heterodisulphide reduction with H_2 : with inside-out vesicles from *Methanosarcina mazei* it has been shown that both F_{420} -dependent (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1990a, b) and F_{420} -independent (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1991) reduction of the heterodisulphide with H_2 are coupled with the phos-

phorylation of ADP (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1996; Abken *et al.*, 1998a, b).

Heterodisulphide reduction with $F_{420}H_2$

Cell extracts of *Methanosarcina mazei* and of *Methanolobus tindarius* catalyse the reduction of heterodisulphide with reduced F_{420} , the coenzyme of many dehydrogenases in methanogenic archaea (Table 4). (F_{420} is a 5' deazaflavin derivative with an $E'_0 = -360$ mV present in relatively high concentrations in these organisms; Gorris & van der Drift, 1994.) For the reduction of the heterodisulphide with $F_{420}H_2$, besides heterodisulphide reductase an additional enzyme is required: *Methanosarcina* spp. (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1990a, b; Abken & Deppenmeier, 1997) and *Methanolobus tindarius* (Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1990b; Haase *et al.*, 1992) have been shown to contain a membrane-associated $F_{420}H_2$ dehydrogenase complex catalysing

the reduction of methanophenazine with $F_{420}H_2$, the reduction being coupled with phosphorylation of ADP (Abken *et al.*, 1998a, b; Bäumer *et al.*, 1998). Such an $F_{420}H_2$ dehydrogenase complex is also found in *Archaeoglobus* sp. (Kunow *et al.*, 1993, 1994; Klenk *et al.*, 1997), but is apparently lacking in *Methanococcus* spp. (Bult *et al.*, 1996) and *Methanobacterium* sp. (Smith *et al.*, 1997) as deduced from the genome sequences. In methanogens lacking the $F_{420}H_2$ dehydrogenase complex and not growing on H_2 and CO_2 , heterodisulphide reduction with $F_{420}H_2$ probably proceeds via H_2 as intermediate (Vaupel, 1993).

Coupling with ATP synthesis

As indicated, methyl transfer from N^5 -methyltetrahydromethanopterin to coenzyme M in the oxidative part of the energy metabolism is coupled with the build-up of an electrochemical Na^+ gradient (Becher *et al.*, 1992a, b; Lienard *et al.*, 1996). In turn, the reduction of the heterodisulphide in the reductive part is coupled with electrogenic H^+ translocation (Peinemann *et al.*, 1990; Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1990a, b, 1991; Sparling *et al.*, 1993). *Methanosarcina* spp. have been shown to contain an H^+ -translocating A_1A_0 ATPase (Wilms *et al.*, 1996; Inatomi, 1996; Ruppert *et al.*, 1998) and there is indirect evidence also for the presence of an Na^+ -translocating F_1F_0 ATPase (Becher & Müller, 1994). *Methanobacterium* spp. and *Methanococcus* spp. harbour only one A_1A_0 ATPase as deduced from the genome sequences (Bult *et al.*, 1996; Smith *et al.*, 1997). It is not known whether this ATPase is Na^+ - or H^+ -translocating. There is evidence for both (Chen & Konisky, 1993; Sparling *et al.*, 1993; Smigan *et al.*, 1994). Methanogens contain an Na^+/H^+ antiporter capable of interconversion of the electrochemical H^+ and Na^+ potentials (Schönheit & Beimborn, 1985; Deppenmeier *et al.*, 1996).

The stoichiometry of coupling of methanogenesis with ADP phosphorylation appears not to be constant. Evidence is available that during growth of methanogens on H_2 and CO_2 the growth yield [g (mol CH_4) $^{-1}$] increases with decreasing H_2 concentrations (Schönheit *et al.*, 1980; Morgan *et al.*, 1997; for regulation see Pihl *et al.*, 1994; Nölling *et al.*, 1995a, b; Nölling & Reeve, 1997), indicating that at low H_2 concentrations coupling of heterodisulphide reduction with ADP phosphorylation is tighter than at high H_2 concentrations. With decreasing H_2 concentrations the free energy change associated with CO_2 reduction to methane decreases from -131 kJ mol $^{-1}$ at 10^5 Pa H_2 to only approximately -30 kJ mol $^{-1}$ at the H_2 concentrations prevailing in methanogenic ecosystems where the H_2 partial pressure is only between 1 and 10 Pa.

Other heterodisulphide-generating reactions

Methyl-coenzyme M reduction with coenzyme B is not the only reaction in which the heterodisulphide is regenerated. Most methanogens contain a fumarate

reductase which catalyses the reduction of fumarate with H-S-CoM and H-S-CoB to succinate and CoM-S-S-CoB (Bobik & Wolfe, 1989; Heim *et al.*, 1998). This reaction is involved in the biosynthesis of 2-oxoglutarate, which, in the methanogens containing the fumarate reductase, is synthesized via reductive carboxylation of succinyl-CoA (Tersteegen *et al.*, 1997; Thompson *et al.*, 1998).

Analogy between heterodisulphide reduction and sulphur reduction

Many anaerobic bacteria and archaea can grow with elemental sulphur as terminal electron acceptor in the energy metabolism (Schauder & Kröger, 1993). Sulphur reduction to H_2S is coupled with energy conservation as evidenced by growth on H_2 and S^0 . In elemental sulphur, which at room temperature is S_8 , the sulphur atoms are connected via S-S bonds just as the two sulphurs in heterodisulphide. The redox potential of the S^0/H_2S couple and that of the heterodisulphide/H-S-CoM + H-S-CoB couple are both in the order of -200 mV (Thauer *et al.*, 1977). Methanogens and sulphur-reducing micro-organisms thus have in common that they both live at the expense of S-S bond reduction. Methanogens differ, however, from sulphur reducers in that they are independent of an external sulphur source as electron acceptor since they can reoxidize the 'reduced sulphur' with CO_2 or one of the other methanogenic carbon substrates, which themselves are concomitantly reduced to methane.

Methyl-coenzyme M, an intermediate unique to methanogenesis

Coenzyme M and methyl-coenzyme M have, until now, only been found in methanogenic archaea (Balch & Wolfe, 1979). The same holds true for the enzymes catalysing the formation of methyl-coenzyme M (Table 5) and for methyl-coenzyme M reductase. All the other enzymes and coenzymes involved in methanogenesis, maybe with exception of coenzyme B, are also present in sulphate-reducing archaea (Vorholt *et al.*, 1995, 1997a; Klenk *et al.*, 1997). Recently, tetrahydromethanopterin and tetrahydromethanopterin-dependent enzymes were even found in a methylotrophic α -proteobacterium (*Chistoserdova et al.*, 1998), indicating that some of the methanogenic enzymes and coenzymes are not as unique to the archaeal kingdom as previously thought. Also of interest is the recent finding that several non-methanogens, including *Bacillus subtilis*, contain genes encoding a putative heterodisulphide reductase, the function of which remains to be elucidated (Heim *et al.*, 1998).

Coenzyme M is the smallest coenzyme known to date. The enzymes catalysing its methylation and reductive demethylation are highly specific for its structure. 2-Selenoethanesulphonate and 3-thiopropionate can in part substitute for H-S-CoM in its function, 3-thio-propanesulphonate cannot (Gunsalus *et al.*, 1978; Wackett *et al.*, 1987; Tallant & Krzycki, 1996, 1997).

Table 5. Reactions and enzymes known to be involved in the formation of methyl-coenzyme M (Keltjens & Vogels, 1993)

For abbreviations, see Table 2.

Reaction	Enzyme system	Most recent literature
$\text{CH}_3\text{-H}_4\text{MPT} + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + \text{H}_4\text{MPT}$ $\Delta G^{0'} = -30 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1*}$	N^5 -Methyl- H_4MPT :coenzyme M methyltransferase (energy conserving) (MtrA-H)	Stupperich <i>et al.</i> (1993); Gärtner <i>et al.</i> (1993, 1994); Weiss <i>et al.</i> (1994); Harms <i>et al.</i> (1995); Harms & Thauer (1996a, 1997, 1998); Lu <i>et al.</i> (1995); Lienard <i>et al.</i> (1996); Lienard & Gottschalk (1998)
$\text{CH}_3\text{-OH} + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ $\Delta G^{0'} = -27.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	Methanol:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MtaA + MtaBC)†	Sauer <i>et al.</i> (1997); Sauer & Thauer (1997, 1998)
$\text{CH}_3\text{-NH}_3^+ + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + \text{NH}_4^+$ $\Delta G^{0'} = -5.1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}\ddagger$	Monomethylamine:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MtbA + MtmBC)†	Burke & Krzycki (1995, 1997); Burke <i>et al.</i> (1998)
$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}_2^+ + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3^+$ $\Delta G^{0'} = -2.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}\ddagger$	Dimethylamine:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MtbA + MtbB + ?)	Wassenaar <i>et al.</i> (1996, 1998)
$(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{NH}^+ + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + (\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}_2^+$ $\Delta G^{0'} = -6.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}\ddagger$	Trimethylamine:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MtbA/MtaA + MttBC)†	Ferguson & Krzycki (1997); Wassenaar <i>et al.</i> (1996)
$(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{N}^+ + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + (\text{CH}_3)_3\text{NH}^+$ $\Delta G^{0'} = ?$	Tetramethylamine:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MtqA + MtqB + MtqC)†	Asakawa <i>et al.</i> (1998); Tanaka (1994)
$\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CH}_3 + \text{H-S-CoM} \rightarrow$ $\text{CH}_3\text{-S-CoM} + \text{CH}_3\text{-S-H}$ $\Delta G^{0'} \approx 0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	Methylthiol:coenzyme M methyltransferase§ (MtsAB)†	Paul & Krzycki (1996); Tallant & Krzycki (1996, 1997)

* From Weiss *et al.* (1994).

† For activity in cell extracts the presence of a methyltransferase-activating protein (MAP), reduced ferredoxin and ATP are additionally required (Daas *et al.*, 1993, 1994, 1996a, b). MtaA (= MT2-M), MtbA (= MT2-A), MtqA and MtsA exhibit methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase (MT2) activity (Grahame, 1989; Yeliseev *et al.*, 1993; Ferguson *et al.*, 1996; Wassenaar *et al.*, 1996) and show sequence similarity (LeClerc & Grahame, 1996; Harms & Thauer, 1996b; Paul & Krzycki, 1996; Asakawa *et al.*, 1998). MtaA and MtaB are zinc enzymes (Sauer & Thauer, 1997); MtaC, MtmC, MttC, MtqC and MtsB have been shown to be corrinoid proteins harbouring 6-hydroxybenzimidazolyl cobamide as prosthetic group.

‡ Obtained from $\Delta G^{0'}$ for methylamine reduction to methane with H_2 calculated from the free energies of formation from the elements tabulated in Thauer *et al.* (1977) and from $\Delta G^{0'}$ of -85 kJ mol^{-1} for methyl-coenzyme M reduction with H_2 to CH_4 and coenzyme M (Thauer *et al.*, 1993).

§ Also catalyses the methylation of coenzyme M with methylmercaptopropanol (95%), methylmercaptopropionate (80%), mercapto-methanol (10%), methylmercaptoethanol (8%) and methyl iodide (170%) (Tallant & Krzycki, 1997) and the methylation of mercaptoethanol (27%) and 2-mercaptopropanol (66%) (Tallant & Krzycki, 1996).

Methyl-coenzyme M reductase, its substrate and inhibitors

Methyl-coenzyme M and coenzyme B are the substrates of methyl-coenzyme M reductase, methane and hetero-disulphide its products (Bobik *et al.*, 1987; Ellermann *et al.*, 1988) (Fig. 4). From the methyl-coenzyme M analogues tested in cell extracts of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum*, only 2-(methylthio)propionate ($K_m = 1.3 \text{ mM}$; $V_{\max} = 1.3 \text{ mU mg}^{-1}$), ethyl-coenzyme M ($K_m = 1.3 \text{ mM}$; $V_{\max} = 7.4 \text{ mU mg}^{-1}$), methyl-seleno-coenzyme M ($K_m = 0.3 \text{ mM}$; $V_{\max} = 35 \text{ mU mg}^{-1}$) and difluoromethyl-coenzyme M ($K_m = 2.5 \text{ mM}$; $V_{\max} = 20 \text{ mU mg}^{-1}$) were reduced (methyl-coenzyme

M: $K_m = 0.1 \text{ mM}$; $V_{\max} = 11 \text{ mU mg}^{-1}$) (Wackett *et al.*, 1987). Interestingly, trifluoromethyl-coenzyme M and trifluoromethyl-seleno-coenzyme M (Wackett *et al.*, 1987) and 2-(dimethylsulphonium)ethanesulphonate (Gunsalus *et al.*, 1978) were not reduced, neither were 2-(methoxy)ethanesulphonate, propyl-coenzyme M and 3-(methylthio)propanesulphonate; these compounds were even inhibitors (Gunsalus *et al.*, 1978; Wackett *et al.*, 1987). Other inhibitors based on the methyl-coenzyme M structure are 2-bromoethanesulphonate ($K_i = 8 \mu\text{M}$) and 2-chloroethanesulphonate ($K_i = 70 \mu\text{M}$) (Gunsalus *et al.*, 1978), 3-bromopropanesulphonate ($K_i = 50 \text{ nM}$), 4-bromobutanesulphonate ($K_i = 6 \mu\text{M}$) and 2-azidoethanesulphonate ($K_i = 1 \mu\text{M}$)

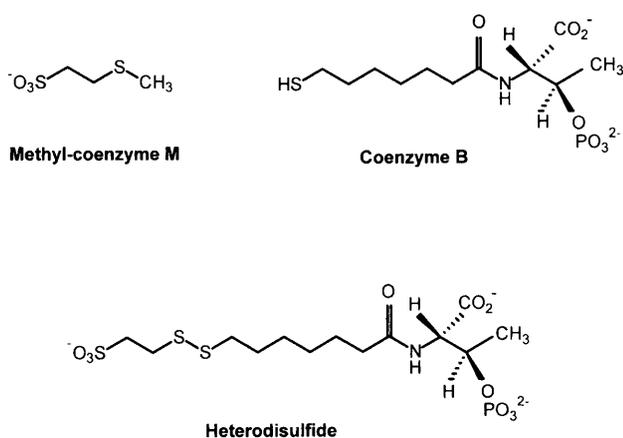


Fig. 4. Structures of methyl-coenzyme M (Taylor & Wolfe, 1974a,b), coenzyme B (Noll *et al.*, 1986) and of the heterodisulfide CoM-S-S-CoB (Ellermann *et al.*, 1988). For biosynthesis of coenzyme M and coenzyme B, see White & Zhou (1993), White (1994) and Howell *et al.* (1998).

(Ellermann *et al.*, 1989), allyl-S-coenzyme M ($K_i = 20 \mu\text{M}$) and cyano-S-coenzyme M ($K_i = 30 \mu\text{M}$) (Wackett *et al.*, 1987) and bromomethanesulphonate ($K_i = 1.5 \mu\text{M}$) (Olson *et al.*, 1992). Note that the apparent K_m and the K_i values have been determined with enzyme preparations with very low specific activity (apparent V_{max} values). There is evidence, however, that they should pertain also for the fully active enzyme (Brenner *et al.*, 1993).

Methyl-coenzyme M reductase is also highly specific for coenzyme B, the aliphatic armlength of the coenzyme apparently being crucial to its function. *N*-6-Thiohexanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine (1%) can only to a minor extent and *N*-8-thiooctanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine (0%) not at all substitute for the *N*-7-thioheptanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine (100%) as electron donor; rather both compounds are inhibitors ($K_i = 0.1 \mu\text{M}$ and $15 \mu\text{M}$, respectively). This is also true for 7-bromoheptanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine ($K_i = 5 \mu\text{M}$) and 7-(methylthio)heptanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine ($K_i = 7 \mu\text{M}$) (Ellermann *et al.*, 1988) and 6-(methylthio)hexanoyl-*O*-phospho-L-threonine ($K_i = 9 \mu\text{M}$) (Olson *et al.*, 1992). Dephospho-coenzyme B and the *D*-epimer are neither active nor inhibitors (Ellermann *et al.*, 1988).

It has been proposed and evidence has been reported that the physiological electron donor for methyl-coenzyme M reduction could possibly be a larger molecule which contains coenzyme B covalently bound through a mixed anhydride linkage to a sugar moiety (Sauer *et al.*, 1990; Sauer, 1991). This is presently no longer considered to be very likely. Recently, methyl-coenzyme M reductase was isolated from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* under very mild conditions and then crystallized. The purified enzyme contained coenzyme B bound in its active site. In the crystal structure, the threonine phosphate moiety of coenzyme B could clearly

be resolved. The phosphate group of the threonine phosphate moiety was not covalently bound to any other molecule (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

Molecular properties of methyl-coenzyme M reductase and of its isoenzyme

Methyl-coenzyme M reductase (MCR) has an apparent molecular mass of approximately 300 kDa. It is composed of three different subunits, α (McrA), β (McrB) and γ (McrG), in an $\alpha_2\beta_2\gamma_2$ arrangement (Gunsalus & Wolfe, 1980). The enzyme contains 2 mol of tightly but not covalently bound coenzyme F_{430} mol⁻¹ (Ellefson *et al.*, 1982), which is a nickel porphyrinoid, the structure of which is shown in Fig. 5. The enzyme as purified generally also contains 2 mol H-S-CoM (Hartzell *et al.*, 1987) and 2 mol H-S-CoB (Noll & Wolfe, 1986). The enzyme can be reconstituted from its subunits in the presence of coenzyme F_{430} , albeit with very low specific activity (Hartzell & Wolfe, 1986).

Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum, *Methanothermus fervidus* and *Methanococcus jannaschii* (probably all members of the *Methanobacteriales* and *Methanococcales*) have been shown to contain besides MCR a genetically distinct isoenzyme of methyl-coenzyme M reductase designated MRT (Rospert *et al.*, 1990; Brenner *et al.*, 1993; Lehmacher & Klenk, 1994; Bult *et al.*, 1996; Nölling *et al.*, 1996). The expression of the two isoenzymes is differentially regulated by the growth conditions (Bonacker *et al.*, 1992; Pihl *et al.*, 1994; Reeve *et al.*, 1997; Pennings *et al.*, 1997).

The genes encoding the three subunits of the isoenzyme I (MCR) form a transcription unit (*mcrBDCGA*) which additionally contains two open reading frames encoding two polypeptides, McrC and McrD, of molecular masses below 20 kDa (Cram *et al.*, 1987; Bokranz & Klein,

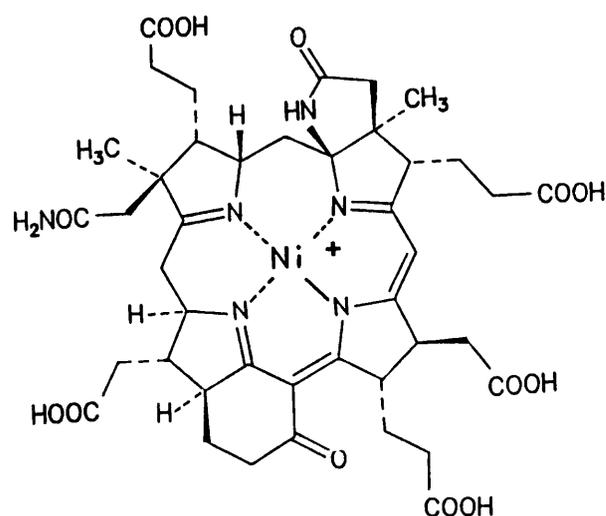


Fig. 5. Structure of coenzyme F_{430} in the Ni(II) oxidation state (Pfaltz *et al.*, 1982; Färber *et al.*, 1991). For the biosynthesis of coenzyme F_{430} , see Thauer & Bonacker (1994).

1987; Bokranz *et al.*, 1988). McrD, which can be detected in cell extracts (Sherf & Reeve, 1990) and which is associated with MCR from *Methanococcus vannielii* (Stroup & Reeve, 1993a, b), appears not to be required for MCR activity (Ellermann *et al.*, 1989; Rospert *et al.*, 1991; Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997). In members of the *Methanobacteriales*, the genes encoding the three subunits of the isoenzyme II (MRT) also form a transcription unit (*mrtBDGA*) which, however, contains additionally only one open reading frame encoding a protein with sequence similarity to McrD (Nölling *et al.*, 1996). In *Methanococcus jannaschii*, *mrtD* is separated from the *mrtBGA* operon by approximately 37 kbp. The function of the *mcrC*, *mcrD* and *mrtD* gene products is not known (Reeve *et al.*, 1997). A possibility could be that they are involved in post-translational modification of the α subunit, which, in the native enzyme, is extensively modified as revealed by crystal structure analysis: an arginine (4-methyl-Arg²²⁷¹), a histidine (1-N-methyl-His²²⁵⁷), a cysteine (S-methyl-Cys²⁴⁵²) and a glutamine (2-methyl-Gln²⁴⁰⁰) are methylated and instead of a glycine there appears to be a thioglycine (Gly²⁴⁴⁵) (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

Coenzyme F₄₃₀, the prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M reductase

The first report on coenzyme F₄₃₀ (Fig. 5) is by Gunsalus & Wolfe (1978), who observed in cell extracts of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* a low-molecular-mass non-fluorescent compound with an absorption maximum at 430 nm. In 1979, Schönheit and others discovered that growth of methanogens is dependent on nickel. Diekert *et al.* (1980a) and Whitman & Wolfe (1980) then showed that the nickel was in part required for the synthesis of F₄₃₀, in which it was incorporated, and that F₄₃₀ contained mol⁻¹ 1 mol nickel. In the same year, biosynthetic evidence was provided by Diekert *et al.* (1980b) that F₄₃₀ is a nickel tetrapyrrole, the structure of which was subsequently elucidated in collaboration with the group of A. Eschenmoser at the ETH Zürich (Pfaltz *et al.*, 1982; Färber *et al.*, 1991). Finally, in 1982 it was found that F₄₃₀ is the prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M reductase (Ellefson *et al.*, 1982). Until now, coenzyme F₄₃₀ has been found only in methanogenic archaea in which it is always present (Diekert *et al.*, 1981) and in which its only function appears to be the prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M reductase.

The presence of a ligand nickel atom is the striking feature of coenzyme F₄₃₀. Nickel brings up to five the number of different metals found in the centre of biological cyclic tetrapyrroles. Up to the discovery of F₄₃₀, the different metals known to occur were iron in haems and in sirohaem, magnesium in chlorophylls, cobalt in corrinoids and copper in turacin, the pigment of turaco bird feathers. Another striking feature is the state of reduction of the pyrrole ring system. One encounters the interesting fact, possibly related to its anaerobic evolution and function, that coenzyme F₄₃₀ is by far the most highly reduced or saturated amongst all

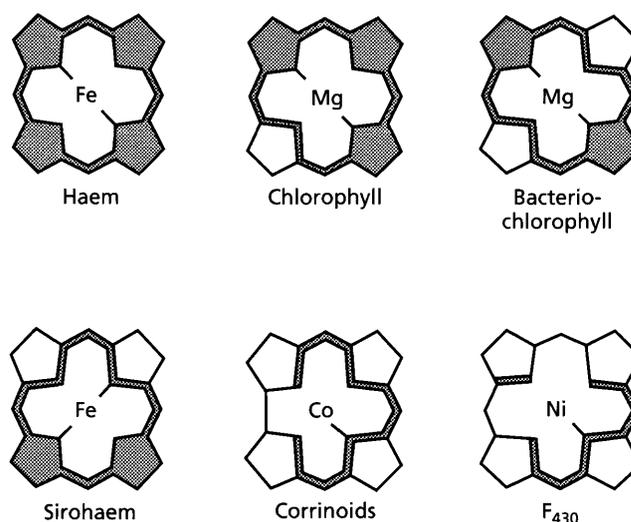


Fig. 6. Degree of unsaturation and conjugation in various macrocyclic tetrapyrroles. Shaded areas show double bonds or resonating conjugated bond systems. Upper line (from left to right): haems, plant-type chlorophylls, bacteriochlorophylls a and b; lower line (from left to right): sirohaem, corrinoids, coenzyme F₄₃₀ (Eschenmoser, 1988).

known tetrapyrroles (Fig. 6). Coenzyme F₄₃₀ has only five double bonds, of which two pairs are conjugated, but they are separated by two single bonds and so do not form a larger conjugated bond system. The yellow colour of coenzyme F₄₃₀, in contrast to the red colour of porphyrins and corrinoids, is no doubt related to this low degree of conjugation (Friedmann *et al.*, 1991).

Biosynthetically, coenzyme F₄₃₀ is derived from dihydro-sirohydrochlorin, which is also the biosynthetic precursor of sirohaem and B₁₂ (Thauer & Bonacker, 1994; Hungerer *et al.*, 1996).

Coenzyme F₄₃₀, properties relevant to the catalytic mechanism of methyl-coenzyme M reductase

Coenzyme F₄₃₀ is released from methyl-coenzyme M reductase upon denaturation with perchloric acid or trichloroacetic acid. In the released coenzyme, nickel is in the Ni(II) oxidation state. For the understanding of the function of coenzyme F₄₃₀ in methyl-coenzyme M reductase, the following properties of the non-protein-bound cofactor are considered to be of importance (Jaun, 1993; Won *et al.*, 1993; Telser, 1998; see also Stolzenberg & Zhang, 1997; Pandiyan *et al.*, 1997; Schmid *et al.*, 1996, 1997; Jäger & Rudolph, 1997). They are discussed in comparison to those of cobalamin (B₁₂) (Kräutler *et al.*, 1998) (Fig. 7).

F₄₃₀ as isolated in the Ni(II) oxidation state can be reduced to the Ni(I) oxidation state. In aqueous solution, the standard redox potential E'_0 of the Ni(II)/Ni(I) couple is between -600 mV and -700 mV (Jaun & Pfaltz, 1986; Holliger *et al.*, 1993) and is thus in the same

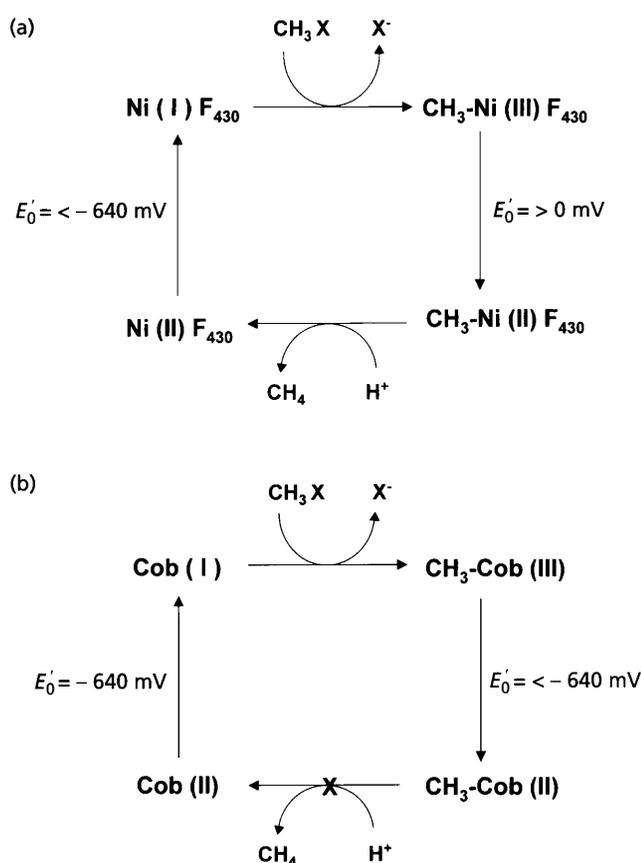


Fig. 7. Properties of protein-free coenzyme F_{430} (a) and of cobalamin (b) explaining why the former is a good methyl group reduction catalyst and cobalamin a good methyl group transfer catalyst. CH_3X , methyltosylate, methylhalides or methylsulphonium ions (Jaun & Pfaltz, 1988; Lin & Jaun, 1992).

order as that of the cob(II)alamin/cob(I)alamin couple, which is -640 mV (Lexa & Saveant, 1983; Daas *et al.*, 1995).

Ni(I) in F_{430} can be methylated with methyl iodide, methyltosylate or methylsulphonium ions (but not with methylthioethers) (Jaun & Pfaltz, 1988; Lin & Jaun, 1992), yielding a methyl-Ni(II) metalloorganic compound (Lin & Jaun, 1991). With methyltosylate, primarily methyl-Ni(III) F_{430} must be formed (Jaun, 1993), just as methylcob(III)alamin is formed upon methylation of cob(I)alamin. Methyl-Ni(III) F_{430} is, however, a very labile compound which is predicted to be almost instantaneously reduced to methyl-Ni(II) F_{430} by any electron donor available (Jaun, 1993). Upon methylation of Ni(I) F_{430} , only methyl-Ni(II) F_{430} rather than methyl-Ni(III) F_{430} can be detected (Lin & Jaun, 1991). Based on the E'_0 of the Ni(III) F_{430} /Ni(II) F_{430} redox couple (Jaun, 1990), the E'_0 of the methyl-Ni(III)/methyl-Ni(II) couple is estimated to be much more positive than 0 V. In this property, F_{430} differs significantly from cobalamin, the methylated form of which [methylcob(III)alamin] is stable and resistant towards reduction to methyl-

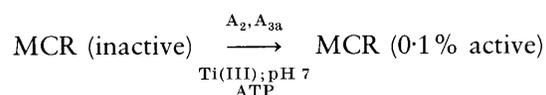
cob(II)alamin with electron donors more positive than -650 mV. Methylation of Ni(I) F_{430} to methyl-Ni(III) F_{430} is a nucleophilic substitution which is predicted to proceed with inversion of stereoconfiguration (Lin & Jaun, 1992).

Methyl-Ni(II) F_{430} spontaneously protonolyses to yield CH_4 and Ni(II) F_{430} (Lin & Jaun, 1991). It is an electrophilic substitution which is predicted to proceed with retention of stereoconfiguration. To the contrary, methylcob(II)alamin dissociates to a methyl radical and cob(I)alamin rather than to protonolyse to methane and cob(II)alamin.

These properties of F_{430} indicate that the nickel porphyrinoid is a good methyl group reduction catalyst and differs in this property from cobalamin, which is a good methyl transfer catalyst. They are probably relevant to the catalytic mechanism of methyl-coenzyme M reductase: there is evidence that the enzyme only becomes active upon reduction of its prosthetic group from the Ni(II) to the Ni(I) oxidation state (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, there is evidence that methyl-coenzyme M reductase catalyses the reduction of the methyl group of methyl-coenzyme M to methane with inversion of stereoconfiguration, consistent with Ni(I) F_{430} methylation and methyl-Ni(II) F_{430} protonolysis as steps in the catalytic cycle (Ahn *et al.*, 1991).

Activation of methyl-coenzyme M reductase by reduction to the Ni(I) oxidation state

Methyl-coenzyme M reductase isolated from cells of methanogenic archaea is more or less inactive (Gunsalus & Wolfe, 1980; Brenner *et al.*, 1993). The enzyme purified from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* ΔH requires the addition of at least two proteins, designated A2 and A3a, of ATP and of Ti(III) citrate for activation *in vitro*. Even in their presence, however, only less than 0.1% of the specific activity *in vivo* is reached.



The sequence of *atw*, the A2-encoding gene, predicts that A2 is a 59 kDa ATP-binding protein related to the ABC family of proteins that participates in energy-dependent transport processes (Kuhner *et al.*, 1993).

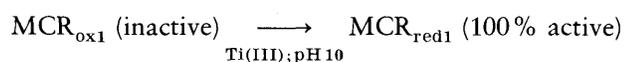
It was mentioned above that MCR as isolated in its inactive form contains tightly bound 2 mol coenzyme M (Hartzell *et al.*, 1987). When in the presence of the activating system (A proteins, ATP and an electron donor), the inactive enzyme was incubated with [3H , ^{35}S]methyl-coenzyme M and component B, the coenzyme M moiety of methyl-coenzyme M was found to slowly exchange into the enzyme-bound coenzyme M during turnover, 150–160 mol CH_4 (mol enzyme) $^{-1}$ having to be formed before the exchange into the 2 mol bound coenzyme M was complete (Hartzell *et al.*, 1987). In the absence of the activating system and of component

B or in the presence of 2-bromoethanesulphonate, neither an exchange nor methane formation was observed. Apparently exchange was dependent on enzyme turnover. The finding of complete exchange indicates that all the MCR molecules present must have been activated under the assay conditions. The finding that only 0.1% of the maximal possible specific activity was reached (see above) and that it took more than 100 turnovers for complete exchange indicates that the MCR molecules present were not all activated at the same time and that they lost activity again after several turnovers.

The enzyme purified from the Marburg strain of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* shows residual activity (0.1 U mg⁻¹) in the absence of A2, A3a and ATP (Ankel-Fuchs & Thauer, 1986). In the presence of an appropriate reductant, the specific activity even increases to 1 U mg⁻¹, which is 2% of that expected from *in vivo* data (Ellermann *et al.*, 1989). EPR spectroscopic analysis revealed that these enzyme preparations were essentially EPR silent, as were the cells from which the enzyme was purified. This indicates that the inactive methyl-coenzyme M reductase preparations contained F₄₃₀ in the Ni(II) oxidation state.

A first breakthrough was the finding that the specific activity of methyl-coenzyme M reductase was much higher in extracts prepared from cells of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* reduced with 100% H₂ prior to harvest. Such reduced cells and the methyl-coenzyme M reductase enriched from such cells exhibited a nickel-based EPR spectrum designated MCR_{red1} and the spin concentration of the signal correlated with the specific activity. The highest spin concentration reached was between 10 and 20% and the highest specific activity was between 10 and 20 U per mg purified methyl-coenzyme M reductase (Rospert *et al.*, 1991; Bonacker *et al.*, 1993).

The final breakthrough was the finding that purified methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{ox1} state (see below) can be activated to a specific activity of 100 U mg⁻¹ by reduction with Ti(III) citrate at pH 10. The reduced enzyme exhibited an axial MCR_{red1} signal with a spin concentration near to 100% (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997).



Methyl-coenzyme M reductase with a specific activity of 100 U mg⁻¹ shows an EPR spectrum very similar and a characteristic UV/visible spectrum almost identical to that of non-protein-bound coenzyme F₄₃₀ in the Ni(I) oxidation state (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997). From this finding, it is concluded that the MCR_{red1} signal of methyl-coenzyme M reductase is derived from its Ni(I) reduced prosthetic group. From the correlation of the specific activity with the MCR_{red1} spin concentration it is deduced that the prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M reductase has to be in the Ni(I) oxidation state for the enzyme to be active.

EPR-signal-exhibiting forms of methyl-coenzyme M reductase: MCR_{red1}, MCR_{red2}, MCR_{ox1} and MCR_{ox2}

As already indicated, active methyl-coenzyme M reductase exhibits the EPR spectrum MCR_{red1}. The signal is induced in cells of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* growing on 80% H₂/20% CO₂ by switching to gassing with 100% H₂. The axial signal builds up within 10 min. Upon further gassing with 100% H₂, a second methyl-coenzyme M reductase derived signal appears, designated MCR_{red2}, which is rhombic rather than axial [Albracht *et al.*, 1988; for a Ni(I) macrocyclic complex exhibiting a rhombic EPR spectrum see Suh *et al.*, 1996]. Cell extracts of such reduced cells also show a high specific activity and also exhibit the MCR_{red2} signal. Upon addition of coenzyme M to the cell extracts, the MCR_{red2} signal increases; upon addition of methyl-coenzyme M, the MCR_{red2} signal is converted to the MCR_{red1} signal (Rospert *et al.*, 1991, 1992).

When gassing of growing *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* cultures is switched from 80% H₂/20% CO₂ to 80% N₂/20% CO₂, a methyl-coenzyme M reductase derived EPR signal is induced which differs significantly from the MCR_{red1} and MCR_{red2} signals and which was designated MCR_{ox1} (Albracht *et al.*, 1986, 1988). This signal is also induced when the cultures of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* growing on 80% H₂/20% CO₂ are supplemented with Na₂S (50 mM) (Becker & Ragsdale, 1998). The methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{ox1} form can be purified. The pure enzyme shows only very low specific activity but can be activated by reduction with Ti(III) citrate at pH 10 to the MCR_{red1} form (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997) (see above).

When cultures of *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* growing on 80% H₂/20% CO₂ are supplemented with Na₂SO₃ (10 mM) or Na₂S₂O₄ (10 mM), a methyl-coenzyme M reductase derived novel EPR signal is induced which is designated MCR_{ox2}. The enzyme in this form can be isolated but is inactive. It cannot be activated by reduction with Ti(III) (Becker & Ragsdale, 1998).

EPR-silent forms of methyl-coenzyme M reductase: MCR_{silent}, MCR_{red1-silent}, MCR_{red2-silent}, MCR_{ox1-silent} and MCR_{ox2-silent}

Different EPR-silent forms of methyl-coenzyme M reductase have to be discriminated. These forms all have in common that they show only very little activity and are not susceptible to activation by reduction with Ti(III) at pH 10 to the MCR_{red1} form. (Residual activity may be due to the presence of traces of EPR active forms.)

The methyl-coenzyme M form referred to as MCR_{silent} is the one obtained by isolation from cells of *Meth-*

anobacterium thermoautotrophicum harvested without prior gassing with 100% H₂ or 20% CO₂/80% N₂. The forms designated MCR_{red1-silent}, MCR_{red2-silent}, MCR_{ox1-silent} and MCR_{ox2-silent} are generated spontaneously from the respective EPR active forms when stored under strictly anaerobic conditions at 4 °C: the spin concentration of the different EPR signals decreases by 50% within only a few hours. In the presence of traces of O₂, the MCR_{red1} and MCR_{red2} signals are instantaneously quenched (Rospert *et al.*, 1991, 1992) whereas the decay rate of the MCR_{ox} signals is similar under anaerobic and aerobic conditions (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997; Becker & Ragsdale, 1998). The latter finding suggests that the MCR_{ox} forms of methyl-coenzyme M reductase could contain F₄₃₀ in the Ni(III) oxidation state. Interestingly, the two MCR_{ox} forms exhibit a UV/visible spectrum more closely related to that of Ni(II) F₄₃₀ than to Ni(I) F₄₃₀ or Ni(III) F₄₃₀ (Jaun, 1990, 1993).

Crystal structure of methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{ox1-silent} state

First crystals of methyl-coenzyme M reductase were obtained in 1991 by Rospert (1991) for the isoenzyme I from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* (Marburg). From this time on the enzyme from various methanogens and from various different preparations was crystallized and tested for diffraction. Beginning 1996, the first good crystals were obtained from a highly purified preparation of methyl-coenzyme M reductase isoenzyme I in the MCR_{ox1} state from *Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum* (Marburg strain) (Shima *et al.*, 1997). The crystal structure was solved in the MCR_{ox1-silent} state to 1.4 Å resolution (1 Å = 0.1 nm) (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b; see also Ferry, 1997b; and Cammack, 1997). The primary structure of the enzyme had previously been resolved by Bokranz *et al.* (1988).

Methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{ox1-silent} state contains bound 2 mol coenzyme F₄₃₀, 2 mol reduced coenzyme M and 2 mol reduced coenzyme B as revealed by the X-ray structure.

Overall structure

It is characterized by a series of α helices arranged in a compact form with an ellipsoidal shape of about 120 by 85 by 80 Å. The subunits are mutually tightly associated, as indicated by extended interface areas, particularly between subunits α and α' and subunits β and β' , and by the fact that, except for subunits γ and γ' , each subunit contacts all other subunits of the multisubunit complex (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

Two independent active sites

There are two binding sites, roughly 50 Å apart, for coenzyme F₄₃₀, coenzyme M and coenzyme B, forming two separated structurally identical active sites. In each binding site the three coenzymes are embedded inside a

narrow channel, 30 Å long, and at the narrowest part 6 Å in diameter, extending from the protein surface deeply into the interior of the protein complex (see the diagram in Fig. 11). The channel and the coenzyme-binding sites are formed by residues of subunits α , α' , β and γ (and equivalently α' , α , β' and γ'), indicating that one trimer is not sufficient to accomplish the enzymic reaction (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

Binding of coenzyme F₄₃₀

F₄₃₀ is bound at the bottom of the 30-Å-long channel such that its tetrapyrrole plane points with its front face (reduced pyrrole rings A, B, C and D clockwise) (see Fig. 5) roughly towards the mouth of the channel, whereas its rear face points to the channel bottom. Thus only the front face is accessible to the substrate. Interestingly, in sulphite reductase the prosthetic group sirohaem, which as F₄₃₀ is biosynthetically derived from dihydrosirohydrochlorin, is only accessible from the rear face (Crane *et al.*, 1995, 1997a, b). The tetrapyrrole ring of coenzyme F₄₃₀ is bound in a rather flat conformation to the enzyme as predicted for the free coenzyme F₄₃₀ in the hexagonally coordinated Ni(II) state (Färber *et al.*, 1991; Jaun, 1993). The Ni atom present as Ni(II) sits almost exactly in the tetrapyrrole plane and is coordinated to six ligands arranged in a nearly optimal octahedral configuration. The four equatorially located nitrogen atoms of the tetrapyrrole ring have distances to the nickel of 2.14 Å for ring A, 2.11 Å for ring B, 2.10 Å for ring C and 1.99 Å for ring D (Fig. 8). As the fifth ligand the side chain oxygen of Gln ^{α 147} protrudes from a long loop to the rear face of F₄₃₀ and approaches the Ni(II) atom to 2.3 Å (Fig. 9). The 1.45 Å electron density map demonstrates that the oxygen and not the nitrogen of the side chain Gln ^{α 147} is the axial ligand (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b) as to be expected thermodynamically and as seen also in other proteins (Roach *et al.*, 1997). Gln ^{α 147} is embedded in the protein matrix such that it will probably not be able to move away when F₄₃₀ is reduced from the Ni(II) to the Ni(I) oxidation state in which the Ni(I) is preferentially tetraplanar coordinated (Jaun, 1993; Telser *et al.*, 1997). By the enforced axial fifth ligand the nucleophilicity of the Ni(I) in F₄₃₀ is predicted to be increased, facilitating the nucleophilic substitution of the methyl group of coenzyme M.

Binding of coenzyme M

In MCR_{ox1-silent} the sixth coordination site of nickel, located in front of the tetrapyrrole ring plane of F₄₃₀, is occupied by the thiol group of coenzyme M, which is positioned almost parallel to the tetrapyrrole plane in contact with its front face (Fig. 9). The thiol group binds axially to the nickel (2.42 Å distance) and interacts with the hydroxyl group of Tyr ^{α 333} and Tyr ^{β 367} and a water molecule that bridges coenzyme M and B. The ethyl moiety is embedded between the lactam ring of the Ni porphyrinoid and the phenyl ring of Phe ^{α 443}. Coenzyme M is anchored to the polypeptide chain by its negatively charged sulphonate group, forming a salt bridge to the

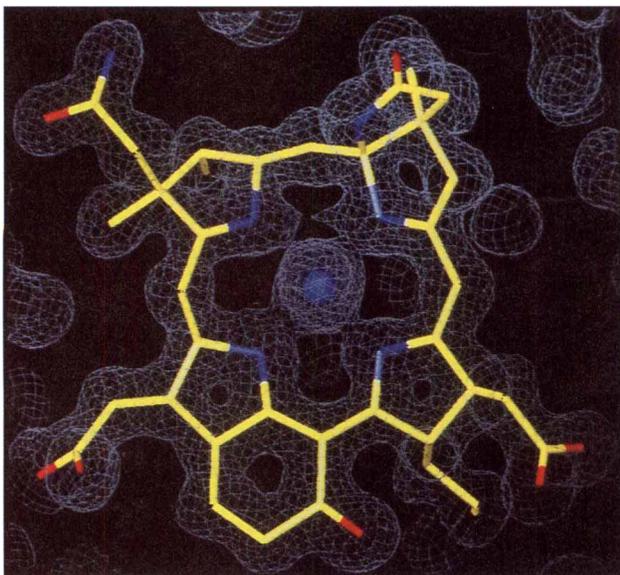


Fig. 8. Coenzyme F_{430} in the Ni(II) oxidation state as viewed by looking from outside through the 30-Å-long channel into the active site pocket of methyl-coenzyme M reductase ($MCR_{ox1-silent}$). The front face (reduced pyrrole rings A, B, C and D clockwise) is seen. Structure at 1.45 Å resolution.

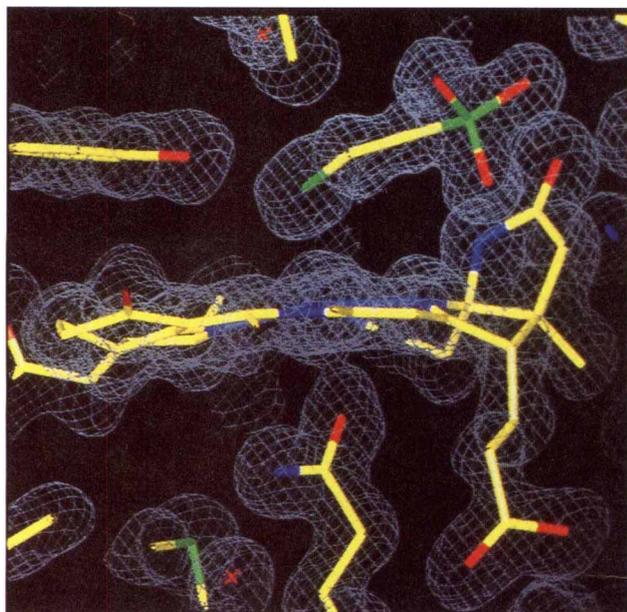


Fig. 9. Coenzyme M located in front of the tetrapyrrole ring plane of F_{430} with its thiol group bound to Ni(II) in the active site of methyl-coenzyme M reductase ($MCR_{ox1-silent}$). Structure at 1.45 Å resolution. The oxygen of Gln^{2147} is seen to approach the Ni from the rear face of F_{430} to 2.3 Å.

guanidinium group of Arg^{7120} , a hydrogen bond to the peptide nitrogen of Tyr^{2444} and a hydrogen bond to a water molecule connected to the peptide oxygen of His^{3364} (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

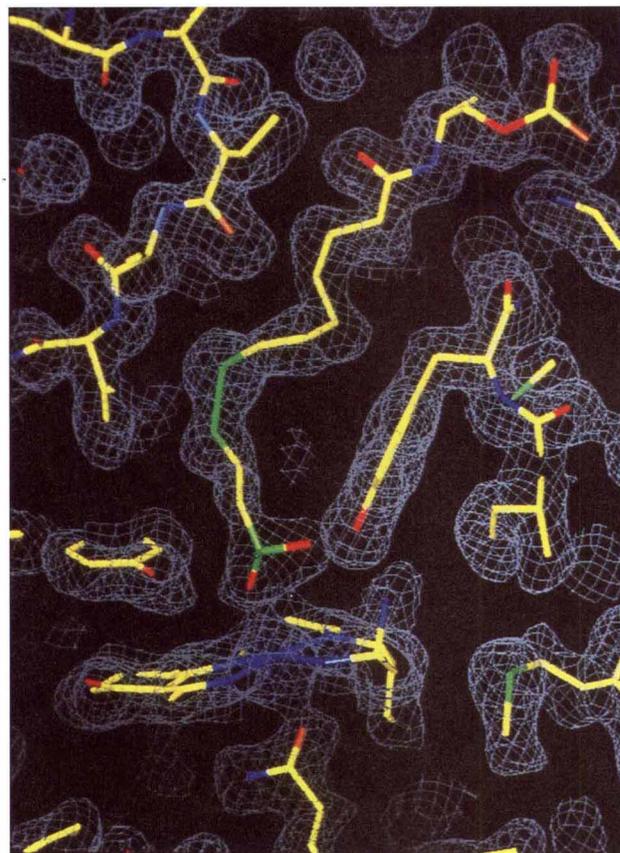


Fig. 10. Heterodisulphide of coenzyme M and coenzyme B bound via an oxygen of its sulphonate group to Ni(II) in the active site of methyl-coenzyme M reductase (MCR_{silent}). Structure at 1.75 Å resolution.

Binding of coenzyme B

With its elongated conformation, coenzyme B fits accurately into the most narrow segment of the channel formed by residues of subunits α , α' and β (see also the diagram in Fig. 11a). Coenzyme B is anchored to the protein mainly by salt bridges between the negatively charged L-threonine phosphate moiety and five positively charged amino acids. The heptanoyl arm is in van der Waal's contact with several hydrophobic residues. The thiol group of coenzyme B is positioned at a distance of 8.7 Å from the nickel of F_{430} and 6.2 Å from the coenzyme M thiol sulphur. It interacts with the side chain of nitrogen of Asn^{2481} , the main chain peptide nitrogen of Val^{2482} and the bridging water molecule mentioned above. Asn^{2481} is within hydrogen bond distance of the sulphur that is presumed to replace the backbone carbonyl oxygen of the modified Gly^{2445} (see below).

Five modified amino acids in the active site region

The electron density map revealed five modified amino acids located in subunits α and α' at or very near the active site region, 1-N-methyl-His²⁵⁷, 4-methyl-Arg²⁷¹, 2-methyl-Gln²⁴⁰⁰, S-methyl-Cys⁴⁵² and Gly²⁴⁴⁵, where

the carbonyl oxygen appears to be substituted by sulphur (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

Exclusion of bulked water from the active site

When coenzyme B is bound to the enzyme the active site is shielded from bulk solvent. The sole water molecule found in the active site region of MCR_{ox1-silent} between coenzyme M and coenzyme B should be displaced after binding of the more bulky methyl-coenzyme M. The active site is lined up by an annular arrangement of Phe^{α330}, Tyr^{α333}, Phe^{α443}, Phe^{β361} and Tyr^{β367} flanked further by hydrophobic and aromatic residues (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b). These amino acids are completely conserved in all methyl-coenzyme M reductases (Nölling *et al.*, 1996). Methane formation from methyl-coenzyme M and coenzyme B thus takes place in a greasy pocket and probably does not involve water molecules. These conditions would allow for radical intermediates. Solvent-inaccessible active sites coated by non-polar aromatic residues and attainable by a channel have been observed in several radical-based enzymes such as galactose oxidase (Ito *et al.*, 1991), prostaglandin H₂ synthase 1 (Picot *et al.*, 1994) and methylmalonyl-CoA mutase (Mancia *et al.*, 1996).

Crystal structure of methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{silent}, MCR_{red2-silent} and MCR_{ox2-silent} states

The structure of the MCR_{silent} state was refined in the resolution range 2.0–10.0 Å with the use of the MCR_{ox1-silent} structure for initial phase determination (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b). The two enzyme states exhibit nearly identical overall structures. The model of the MCR_{silent} structure is mainly distinguished from that of MCR_{ox1-silent} by binding of the oxidized instead of the reduced forms of coenzyme M and coenzyme B (Fig. 10). A superposition of the structures reveals that the reduced coenzyme B in MCR_{ox1-silent} and the coenzyme B moiety of the heterodisulphide in MCR_{silent} align perfectly except that the sulphur is turned slightly towards coenzyme M. In contrast to coenzyme B, coenzyme M has moved more than 4 Å away from its position in the MCR_{ox1-silent} state. The thiol group is shifted perpendicular and the sulphonate group parallel to the tetrapyrrole plane of F₄₃₀, resulting in a 90° rotation of coenzyme M. In this position, one oxygen atom of the sulphonate is axially coordinated with the nickel and contacts the hydroxyl group of Tyr^{α333}. The distance between nickel and oxygen is 2.1 Å. The second oxygen atom is hydrogen bonded to the lactam ring of F₄₃₀ and to the hydroxyl group of Tyr^{β367} and the third to a water molecule located at the former binding site of the sulphonate.

The structures of methyl-coenzyme M reductase in the MCR_{red2-silent} and MCR_{ox2-silent} states have, in the meantime, also been resolved but have not yet been completely refined. Available information indicates that

in the MCR_{red2-silent} state, the active site of methyl-coenzyme M reductase is probably devoid of both coenzyme M and coenzyme B. The 30-Å-long channel leading into the active site pocket is more open and the residues of the α-, α', β- and γ-subunits forming the channel are more flexible. In the MCR_{ox2-silent} state, methyl-coenzyme M reductase appears to contain bound coenzyme B but not coenzyme M (W. Grabarse, unpublished results).

Catalytic mechanism proposed for methyl-coenzyme M reductase

The crystal structures display inactive states of methyl-coenzyme M reductase with coenzyme F₄₃₀ in the Ni(II) oxidation state. Nevertheless, the arrangement of the coenzymes and the protein environment, combined with the catalytic properties of the enzyme and the chemical properties of free coenzyme F₄₃₀, allow for conclusions about the active site and the catalytic mechanism (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

First the structure of the enzyme–substrate complex and of the enzyme–product complex and their formation and dissociation, respectively, will be discussed. Then two alternative mechanisms for the conversion of the enzyme–substrate to the enzyme–product complex will be proposed.

Enzyme–substrate/product complex

In Fig. 11, diagrams of the enzyme–substrate complex and of the enzyme–product complex are given. The prosthetic group is shown in the Ni(I) oxidation state. This is deduced from the finding that methyl-coenzyme M reductase only exhibits activity when assayed in its Ni(I) F₄₃₀ reduced form (either MCR_{red1} or MCR_{red2} state) (Rospert *et al.*, 1991, 1992; Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997).

The diagram in Fig. 11 shows that the prosthetic group of methyl-coenzyme M is accessible only through a narrow channel and only by methyl-coenzyme M (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b). Through this channel methyl-coenzyme M must enter before coenzyme B binds since upon coenzyme B binding the channel is completely locked. This is consistent with an ordered ternary complex kinetic mechanism displayed by the enzyme (Bonacker *et al.*, 1993).

Coenzyme B is able to penetrate the 30-Å-long channel only with its aliphatic arm and its arm is not long enough for its thiol group at the end to reach the Ni of F₄₃₀. A distance of 8.7 Å remains. A direct reaction of the coenzyme B thiol group with nickel, as has previously been proposed (Jaun, 1990; Berkessel, 1991), can therefore be excluded. Methyl-coenzyme M is, however, anchored in the active site to the protein matrix with its sulphonate group relative to the prosthetic group such that both the methyl group and the thioether sulphur could directly interact with the Ni(I). In the MCR_{ox1-silent} structure, coenzyme M probably mimics the binding position of methyl-coenzyme M with respect to the binding mode of the sulphonate moiety but

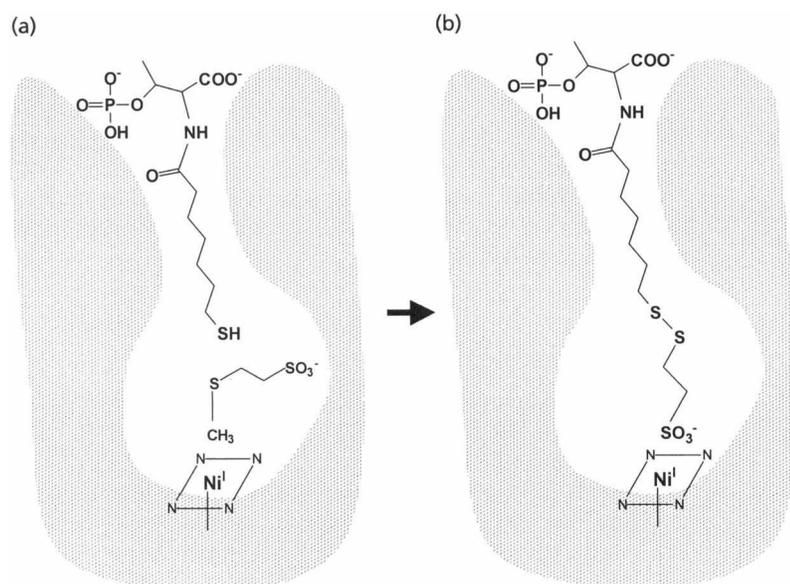


Fig. 11. Diagrams of the enzyme-substrate complex (a) and of the enzyme-product complex (b) of active methyl-coenzyme M reductase containing F_{430} in the Ni(I) oxidation state.

presumably not with respect to the binding mode of the thiol group. A Ni-S-CoM intermediate in the catalytic cycle is not attractive because of the long distance of 6.2 Å between the sulphurs of coenzyme M and coenzyme B. Model building studies indicate, however, that the two sulphurs of coenzyme M and coenzyme B come in van der Waal's contact when the methyl group of methyl-coenzyme M is placed in van der Waal's distance of the potentially attacking nickel (Fig. 11a) (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b). Therefore, a Ni-CH₃ intermediate proposed from free coenzyme F_{430} studies (Lin & Jaun, 1991; Jaun, 1993) appears to be compatible with the steric requirements of the active site.

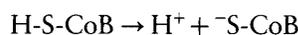
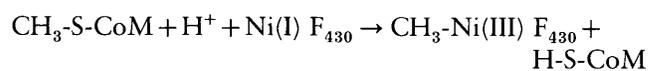
From the structure of the enzyme-substrate complex shown in Fig. 11(a) it is evident that the H⁺ required for methane formation from methyl-coenzyme M is lastly provided by coenzyme B. The MCR_{ox1-silent} structure reveals an interaction between the thiol group of coenzyme B and two hydrogen donors, the amide and peptide nitrogen of Asn²⁴⁸¹ and Val²⁴⁸², which would facilitate the cleavage of the H⁺ and permit the presence of a thiolate anion. However, the coenzyme B sulphur is probably too far away from the methyl group of methyl-coenzyme M for direct hydrogen transfer. Tyr²³³³ and Tyr²³⁶⁷ are positioned in the active site such that they could mediate this transfer (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

The structure of the enzyme-product complex shown in Fig. 11(b) considers that the heterodisulphide cannot leave the enzyme when the sulphonate oxygen of the coenzyme M moiety binds to the Ni(II) atom of F_{430} as in the MCR_{silent} state. Coordination of the sulphonate oxygen to nickel is prevented when nickel is present as nucleophilic Ni(I) (Jaun, 1993; Telser *et al.*, 1997). The repulsion between Ni(I) and the sulphonate oxygen might even be used as a driving force to push the heterodisulphide out of the channel. It is not evident at present when, where and how the methane gets out (Ermler *et al.*, 1997b).

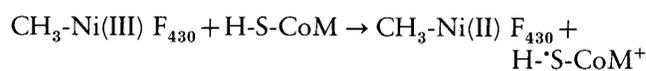
Both mechanisms of the conversion of the enzyme-substrate complex (Fig. 11a) to the enzyme-product complex (Fig. 11b) in the following to be discussed are based on the assumption that the methyl group of methyl-coenzyme M is transferred to Ni(I) of the prosthetic group before being reduced to methane and that the methyl group of methyl-coenzyme M has to be somehow activated in order that the transfer to Ni(I) F_{430} can proceed (Jaun, 1993).

Mechanism 1

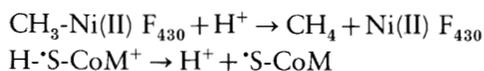
It is assumed that methyl transfer from methyl-coenzyme M to Ni(I) yields CH₃-Ni(III) F_{430} involving protonation of methyl-coenzyme M by Tyr²³³³ or Tyr²³⁶⁷ to the sulphonium cation in the transition state. [A precedent for such a protonation is found in the crystal structures of *ortho*-hydroxyphenyl- or *ortho*-hydroxybenzyl thioethers, giving rise to 5- and 6-membered rings, respectively, but also in the crystal structures of 3,4-dihydro-6-hydroxy-4,4,5,7,8-pentamethyl-2H-1-(benzothio)pyran (*d* S-H = 2.55 Å, O-H-S = 148 °) (Burton *et al.*, 1985) and 2,3,7,8-tetrahydroxythianthrene (*d* S-H = 2.53 Å, O-H-S = 167 °) (Mansel & Klar, 1992).] The H⁺ would be replenished by the dissociation of coenzyme B.



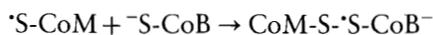
The CH₃-Ni(III) F_{430} formed by methylation of Ni(I) F_{430} with methyl-coenzyme M is a strong one-electron oxidant and is therefore predicted to oxidize the protonated leaving group to the coenzyme M thiyl radical cation.



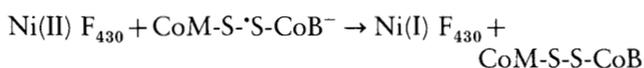
$\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni(II) F}_{430}$ spontaneously protonolyses to CH_4 and Ni(II) F_{430} . The H^+ could be provided by the coenzyme M thiy radical cation, which is more acidic than coenzyme M.



Protonolysis is essentially irreversible and thus probably pulls the preceding reactions and pushes the successive reactions. The coenzyme M thiy radical could react with the thiolate of coenzyme B, generating a disulphide radical anion.



A prerequisite is a loosening of the interaction between the sulphonate moiety of coenzyme M and the protein matrix, enabling a shift of coenzyme M towards coenzyme B. The disulphide radical anion has a redox potential (Lenz & Giese, 1997) negative enough for the reduction of Ni(II) F_{430} to Ni(I) F_{430} .



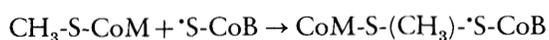
Electron transport from the disulphide radical to the nickel could be via the modified Gly²⁴⁴⁵, a thioglycine, which interacts with the thiol group of coenzyme B via the side chain nitrogen of Asn²⁴⁸¹, which is in hydrogen bond interaction with both the coenzyme B sulphur and the presumed sulphur of the modified Gly⁴⁴⁵. A thioketyl radical could be considered as intermediate (Buckel & Keese, 1995; Buckel, 1996). Reduction of a thioketone to the corresponding thioketyl with the disulphide radical anion should be thermodynamically feasible.

Mechanism 1 has several features in common with that proposed for ribonucleotide reductase (Lenz & Giese, 1997).

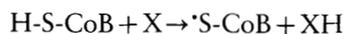
An argument against mechanism 1 is that it predicts that methyl-coenzyme M in the absence of coenzyme B should quench the MCR_{red1} EPR signal rather than stabilize it (Rospert *et al.*, 1992; Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997).

Mechanism 2

One can hypothesize alternative catalytic mechanisms that are also consistent with most of the findings. Only one alternative is discussed here. It considers that Ni(I) F_{430} with its unpaired electron is a radical and is most reactive in radical reactions (Jaun, 1993). Methylation of Ni(I) F_{430} with most methyl donors thus directly yields $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni(II) F}_{430}$ rather than $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni(III) F}_{430}$ (Lin & Jaun, 1991; Jaun, 1993). For methyl-coenzyme M to react with Ni(I) F_{430} in this manner, it has to be activated such that a homolytic cleavage of the S-methyl bond is favoured, e.g. by reaction of methyl-coenzyme M with the coenzyme B thiy radical to the $\text{CoM-S(CH}_3\text{)}\cdot\text{S-CoB}$ sulphuranyl radical (Jaun, 1990; Berkessel, 1991; Tada & Masuzawa, 1997).

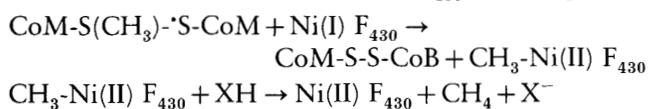


The catalytic cycle in the alternative mechanism is therefore assumed to start with the formation of the coenzyme B thiy radical by one electron oxidation of coenzyme B.

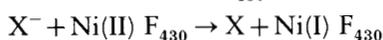


The electron acceptor X cannot be Ni(II) F_{430} as has been proposed since the enzyme is only active in its Ni(I) F_{430} reduced form (Goubeaud *et al.*, 1997). Therefore, there must be a second redox active group capable of oxidizing coenzyme B to the coenzyme B thiy radical, and indeed there is evidence for two independent redox active groups in methyl-coenzyme M reductase (Rospert, 1991; Rospert *et al.*, 1992). This group could be the modified Gly²⁴⁴⁵, a thioglycine, which interacts with the thiol group of coenzyme B via the side chain nitrogen of Asn²⁴⁸¹ and which could be susceptible to reduction to the thioketyl radical X^- (Buckel & Keese, 1995; Buckel, 1996). Probably the protonated thioketone would be reduced to the protonated thioketyl (XH) since this reaction is energetically more favourable as deduced from the thermodynamics of the reduction of ketones to ketyls in the protonated and unprotonated forms (Lenz & Giese, 1997).

The coenzyme B thiy radical would react with methyl-coenzyme M, generating the above-mentioned sulphuranyl radical. From the sulphuranyl radical, the methyl radical would be transferred to Ni(I) F_{430} , generating the heterodisulphide and $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni(II) F}_{430}$, which would protonolyse to Ni(II) F_{430} and CH_4 .



The catalytic cycle would be closed by electron transfer from X^- to Ni(II) F_{430} .



Via endergonic XH dissociation to $\text{X}^- + \text{H}^+$, the two last reactions could be thermodynamically tightly coupled.

The salient feature of mechanism 2 is that it involves transient methyl radical intermediates and does not involve $\text{CH}_3\text{-Ni(III) F}_{430}$ as intermediate in the catalytic cycle. Transient methyl radical intermediates could possibly account for the presumed methylation of His²⁵⁷, Arg²⁷¹, Gln⁴⁰⁰ and Cys⁴⁵².

Future studies will have to show which of the proposed catalytic mechanisms is correct or whether both are wrong. Unfortunately, one can only disprove but not prove a catalytic mechanism (Stinson, 1995).

From hydrogenase to methyl-coenzyme M reductase

It has been a long way from the first demonstration of an enzyme, of hydrogenase, in methanogens in 1933 by Stephenson & Stickland (1933a) to the crystal structure of methyl-coenzyme M reductase in 1997 and there is still a good way to go until the biochemistry of methanogenesis is completely understood. Many ques-

tions remain to be answered. For methyl-coenzyme M reductase, the most pertinent questions are, what functions do the five amino acid modifications in the enzyme have and how are these modifications brought about? The answers to these questions could be the key to the understanding of the catalytic mechanism of the methane-forming enzyme. Fortunately, recently a genetic system for archaea of the genus *Methanosarcina* has become available (Metcalf *et al.*, 1997) now allowing these problems to be also tackled with genetic methods.

The work of my group on the biochemistry of methanogenesis started with growth experiments and the discovery that growth of methanogens is dependent on nickel (Schönheit *et al.*, 1979). This led to the finding that coenzyme F₄₃₀ is a nickel porphyrinoid (Diekert *et al.*, 1980a, b), that carbon monoxide dehydrogenase from methanogens contains nickel (Hammel *et al.*, 1984) and that the hydrogenases first described by Marjory Stephenson (Stephenson & Stickland, 1931a) are nickel enzymes (Graf & Thauer, 1981; Albracht *et al.*, 1982; Albracht, 1994) (for recent reviews on nickel enzymes including methyl-coenzyme M reductase see Cammack & van Vliet, 1998; Maroney *et al.*, 1998). Later we found that methanogens also contain a metal-free hydrogenase (Zirngibl *et al.*, 1990; Thauer *et al.*, 1996) and just recently that methanogens contain a fourth type of hydrogenase (Kunkel *et al.*, 1998) that shows sequence similarity to hydrogenase 3 (Sauter *et al.*, 1992) and 4 (Andrews *et al.*, 1997) of the formate hydrogenlyase from *E. coli*, an enzyme complex first studied in detail in the laboratory of Marjory Stephenson now almost 70 years ago (Stickland, 1929; Stephenson & Stickland, 1932, 1933b; Woods, 1936). With respect to my research, I, therefore, feel myself in the scientific tradition of Marjory Stephenson. And there is even a genealogical connection: I learned to grow methanogens from Greg Zeikus when he was in Marburg for a sabbatical (Zeikus *et al.*, 1977). He himself had obtained his training from Ralph Wolfe in Urbana (Zeikus & Wolfe, 1972), who discovered methyl-coenzyme M reductase (Wolfe, 1991). The first work of Ralph Wolfe on methanogens is together with Sidney Elsdon (Knight *et al.*, 1966), who had been a student of Marjory Stephenson in the Cambridge Biochemistry Laboratory (Wolfe, 1991) where in 1933 the modern era of methanogenesis began (Wolfe, 1993). I am therefore very much indebted to the Society for General Microbiology for having chosen me to give the 1998 Marjory Stephenson Lecture.

Acknowledgements

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