

Life with CO or CO₂ and H₂ as a source of carbon and energy

HARLAND G. WOOD

Department of Biochemistry, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, Ohio 44106, USA

ABSTRACT An account is presented of the recent discovery of a pathway of growth by bacteria in which CO or CO₂ and H₂ are sources of carbon and energy. The Calvin cycle and subsequently other cycles were discovered in the 1950s, and in each the initial reaction of CO₂ involved adding CO₂ to an organic compound formed during the cyclic pathway (for example, CO₂ and ribulose diphosphate). Studies were initiated in the 1950s with the thermophilic anaerobic organism *Clostridium thermoaceticum*, which Barker and Kamen had found fixed CO₂ in both carbons of acetate during fermentation of glucose. The pathway of acetyl-CoA biosynthesis differs from all others in that two CO₂ are combined with coenzyme A (CoASH) forming acetyl CoA, which then serves as the source of carbon for growth. This mechanism is designated the acetyl CoA pathway and some have called it the Wood pathway. A unique feature is the role of the enzyme carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (CODH), which catalyzes the conversion of CoASH, CO, and a methyl group to acetyl CoA, the final step of the pathway. The pathway involves the reduction of CO₂ to formate, which then combines with tetrahydrofolate (THF) to form formyl THF. It in turn is reduced to CH₃-THF. The methyl is then transferred to the cobalt on a corrinoid-containing enzyme. From there the methyl is transferred to CODH, and CO and CoASH bind with the enzyme at separate sites. Acetyl CoA is then synthesized. CODH would more properly be called carbon monoxide dehydrogenase-acetyl CoA synthase as it catalyzes oxidation of CO to CO₂ and the synthesis of acetyl CoA. The solution of the mechanism of this pathway required more than 30 years, in part because the intermediate compounds are bound to enzymes, the enzymes are extremely sensitive to O₂ and must be isolated under strictly anaerobic conditions, and the role of a corrinoid and CODH was unprecedented. It is now apparent that this pathway occurs (perhaps with some modification) in many bacteria including the methane and sulfur bacteria. In some humans this pathway is catalyzed by the bacteria of the gut and acetate is produced rather than methane; it is calculated that 2.3 × 10⁶ metric tons of acetate are formed daily from CO₂. A similar synthesis occurs in the hind gut of termites. It is becoming apparent that the acetyl CoA pathway plays a significant role in the carbon cycle. The direct combination of two CO₂ to form acetate may have been used by the earliest forms of life rather than the more complicated cyclic mechanisms of autotrophism. — Wood, H. G. Life with CO or CO₂ and H₂ as a source of carbon and energy. *FASEB J.* 5: 156–163; 1991.

Key Words: autotrophism • acetate synthesis from CO or CO₂ and H₂ • acetyl CoA pathway • corrinoid enzyme • CO dehydrogenase • *Clostridium thermoaceticum*

METABOLIC ESSENTIALS

It is a great honor to receive the William C. Rose Award. Rose carried out his outstanding investigations in the 1930s and 1940s. I began graduate studies in 1931 and remember Rose and his work very well. In the 1930s biochemical research provided exciting findings that explained nutritional observations, and in particular it identified the roles of vitamins in metabolism, such as that thiamine pyrophosphate is a cofactor of pyruvate decarboxylase (1). Nicotinamide was identified as a cofactor of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (2). Some enzymatic roles of vitamins remained unexplained for another 2 decades. In 1961 Lynen and co-workers showed that biotin is a cofactor of enzymes that fix carbon dioxide (3), and in 1963 I and others demonstrated directly the role of biotin in enzymes (4–6).

Side by side the biochemical rationale for the requirement for certain amino acids in the diet was worked out by Rose, first with rats and then with humans. Healthy male graduate students served as experimental subjects on a diet of cornstarch, sucrose, melted butterfat, corn oil, inorganic salts, and vitamins, that were baked by Rose's wife into wafers. The list of amino acids essential for the diets of rats and graduate students was not quite the same. For optimum growth rats require histidine and arginine, which graduate students did not (7).

TOTAL SYNTHESIS OF ACETATE

Now I want to describe an investigation we started in 1952 and has occupied my attention to this very day.

As background, let me point out that the great Russian microbiologist, Winogradsky, had shown in 1891 (8) that certain bacteria can grow with CO₂ as the sole source of carbon; long before that photosynthetic plants were known to use CO₂ as the sole source of carbon. However, no one had the slightest idea how these organisms were able to totally synthesize a multicarbon compound from CO₂. The only known mechanisms for utilization of CO₂ in the 1940s were those occurring in heterotrophs which require organic compounds for growth (9). The typical heterotroph such as you and I uses CO₂ in certain synthetic reactions that play an essential role in our metabolism, but these reactions involve addition of CO₂ to a pre-existing organic compound, such as CO₂ combining with pyruvate to form oxalacetate. They do not involve the total synthesis of an organic compound from CO₂.

However, in the late 1940s, it began to appear that there might be exceptions to the general rule that heterotrophs cannot totally synthesize an organic compound from CO₂.

An organism named *Clostridium thermoaceticum* was isolated at the University of Wisconsin in 1942 (10), which in an anaerobic fermentation of glucose formed 3 mol of acetate

per mol of glucose. It seemed possible the glucose was converted to 2 mol of acetate and two CO₂ and then the two CO₂ were reduced to the third mol of acetate as shown in Fig. 1. If so, this would represent a total synthesis of an organic compound from CO₂.

Martin Kamen at Berkeley had discovered how to prepare long-lived ¹⁴C-radioactive carbon in the cyclotron. Along with H. A. Barker (11), he examined this question in one of the first experiments done with ¹⁴C. They fermented glucose in the presence of ¹⁴CO₂, isolated the acetate, and degraded it. They found that ¹⁴C was present in both the methyl and carboxyl positions, and presented the equations shown in Fig. 1.

I was excited by these results. I thought if this fermentation involves the total synthesis of acetate, if we determine the mechanism of this synthesis, we might provide clues to how plants and autotrophic bacteria can grow and totally synthesize all material from CO₂.

There remained some doubt, at least in my mind, that there was a total synthesis of acetate. Barker and Kamen (11) found much more ¹⁴C in the carboxyl group of acetate than in the methyl group. Thus it was evident that there was some method of converting CO₂ to acetate that did not involve a total synthesis of acetate from CO₂. There remained the possibility that the mechanism involved formation of the methyl group from CO₂ by one reaction, and by a separate, independent reaction, CO₂ was converted to the carboxyl group of acetate and no molecules were totally synthesized from CO₂. I thought a conclusive experiment could be done with ¹³CO₂ to prove whether the fermentation of glucose by *C. thermoaceticum* truly involved a total synthesis of acetate from CO₂.

We conducted fermentations of glucose in the presence of ¹³CO₂ so that we could weigh the carbon 13 in the resulting acetate using our mass spectrometer (12). We found (as indicated in Fig. 2) that acetate was formed that had a mass of 62. Thus it was evident, as acetate containing only unlabeled ¹²C carbons has a mass of 60, that both of its carbons had arisen from ¹³CO₂. From the mass ratios, it was calculated that about 33% of the acetate was totally synthesized from CO₂ as had been proposed by Barker and Kamen. However, molecules of mass 61 were also present which therefore contained only one ¹³C. It was calculated from the mass ratios that about 33% of the molecules were of this type. The remaining one-third of the acetate was made up of molecules that had a mass of 60 and contained no ¹³C. The latter were clearly made from the carbon of the unlabeled [¹²C]glucose.

At first the results were puzzling. However, it was found when the bacteria were incubated in the presence of acetate and ¹⁴CO₂ in the absence of glucose, that the acetate became radioactive (12). It thus became evident the bacteria could catalyze a secondary exchange reaction with the carboxyl of acetate, and this was how the singly labeled acetate was formed. You will see that the use of this exchange reaction came in handy much later on.

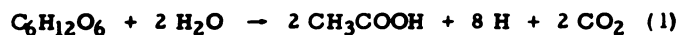


Figure 1. Barker-Kamen equations of the fermentation of glucose to acetate by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*.

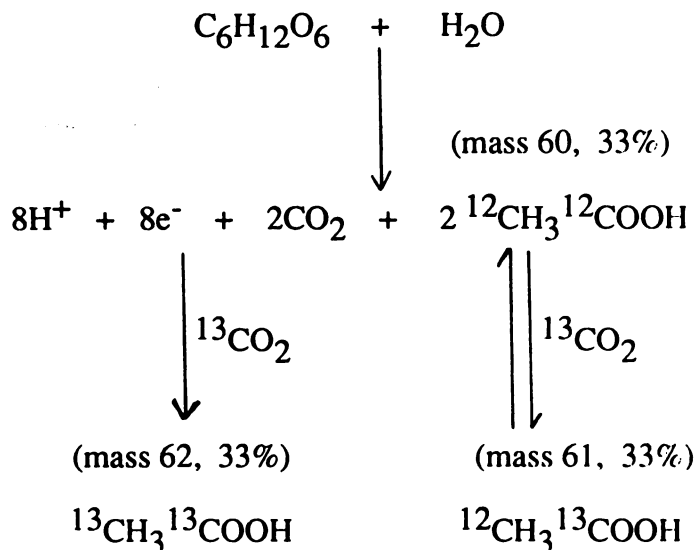


Figure 2. Evidence by mass analysis that there is total synthesis of acetate from ¹³CO₂ by *C. thermoaceticum*.

The ¹³C experiments were crucial because it was possible to prove acetate was totally synthesized from CO₂.

In these days of sophisticated biochemistry these results may not seem very exciting, but they were to me. It was evident that if an autotrophic bacterium could generate protons and electrons from hydrogen by the enzyme hydrogenase, it could replace the glucose as an electron donor and totally synthesize acetate from CO₂ and grow on the resulting acetate. It also was evident that a plant could photolytically cleave water to generate the electrons for the reduction, and that it might synthesize acetate and from it synthesize its cellular material. With these thoughts in mind, we undertook the task of determining how bacteria totally synthesize acetate from CO₂.

Melvin Calvin and his colleagues and others at about the same time began investigations with ¹⁴CO₂ to determine how algae grow photosynthetically using light. By pulse labeling and the clever use of paper chromatography, they identified ¹⁴C-labeled intermediates of the reductive pentose cycle and showed that CO₂ is utilized initially by combination with ribulose-diphosphate yielding 2 mol of phosphoglycerate, one of which is used for growth and the other is recycled (13).

We, on the other hand, did not solve our problem for a long time. The intermediate compounds of the acetate pathway are enzyme-bound. Thus pulse labeling with ¹⁴CO₂ gave us little information concerning the intermediate compounds. Formate was highly labeled and [¹⁴C]formate was converted to the methyl group of acetate more rapidly than was ¹⁴CO₂ (14). Thus, there was a hint that formate might be a precursor of the methyl group of acetate.

The first real break concerning this pathway did not come from us, but from Earl Stadtman's laboratory (15). They knew that *C. thermoaceticum* contains many corrinoids (vitamin B₁₂ derivatives) and reasoned the corrinoids might be used by the bacteria in their metabolism. They tested the effect of intrinsic factor on the metabolism. This is the compound that combines with B₁₂ in the gut and aids in the transport of B₁₂. Its deficiency in humans is the cause of pernicious anemia. They found intrinsic factor inhibited the formation of acetate from CO₂. They then synthesized and used [¹⁴C]methyl B₁₂ as a substrate and found the methyl

group was converted to the methyl group of acetate (Reaction 1).



When this information became available, it was clear that the $\text{CH}_3\text{-B}_{12}$ intermediate might be enzyme-bound and that we had not detected it because we had looked for compounds in the deproteinized solutions. Therefore, Lars Ljungdahl and Eckart Irlon, in our laboratory, using large quantities of *C. thermoaceticum*, again conducted pulse labeling for 15 s with $^{14}\text{CO}_2$. They isolated the corrinoids from the bacteria and found they were present in abundance (16). In Fig. 3, the rectangle represents the tetrapyrrol of the corrinoid ring in which the cobalt is coordinated to the tetrapyrrol much as is Fe in heme or Mg in chlorophyll. The ^{14}C was entirely in the CH_3 linked to the cobalt, and was very radioactive.

With these results in hand, in 1966 we proposed the scheme shown in Fig. 4 as a working hypothesis for the formation of acetate from CO_2 (17). We proposed that two pyruvates are converted to two acetates and two CO_2 , then one CO_2 is reduced to formate, which in turn is converted to formyltetrahydrofolate and by a series of reactions is reduced to methyltetrahydrofolate ($\text{CH}_3\text{-THF}$). The methyl is then transferred to the cobalt on the corrinoid enzyme represented by the cobalt in brackets. We proposed that the second CO_2 combines with this methyl group to form acetate, and the unmethylated corrinoid enzyme is thus regenerated and the cycle is repeated.

There was precedence for this proposal based on what was known about methionine synthesis. Warwick Sakami and Robert Greenberg in our department, as well as John Buchanan at MIT, were investigating the metabolism of C_1 (one-carbon) compounds. They had shown that C_1 compounds are converted to $\text{CH}_3\text{-THF}$. Furthermore, Weissach and Taylor (18) had shown in methionine synthesis that the methyl of $\text{CH}_3\text{-THF}$ is transferred to a corrinoid enzyme and the methyl is then transferred to homocysteine to form methionine. What was new about our scheme was the proposal that CO_2 combines with a methyl linked to the cobalt to form acetate. In those days, we synthesized our own carboxyl-labeled acetic acid by the Grignard Reaction, using CO_2 and a methyl Mg salt, so it was quite natural to think the CO_2 might react with a methyl attached to cobalt.

THE ACETYL CoA PATHWAY

In our more recent studies, Harold Drake and Shou-Ih Hu (19), using procedures to strictly avoid any exposure of the

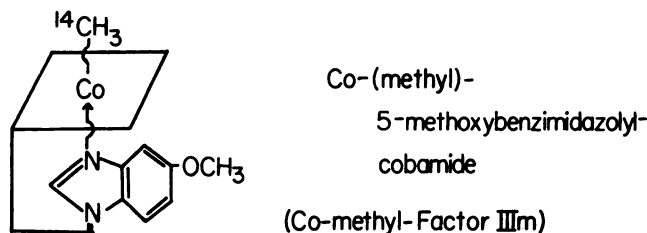


Figure 3. The CH_3 -cobalt corrinoid isolated from *C. thermoaceticum* after pulse labeling with $^{14}\text{CO}_2$. The rectangle represents the tetrapyrrole of the corrinoid.

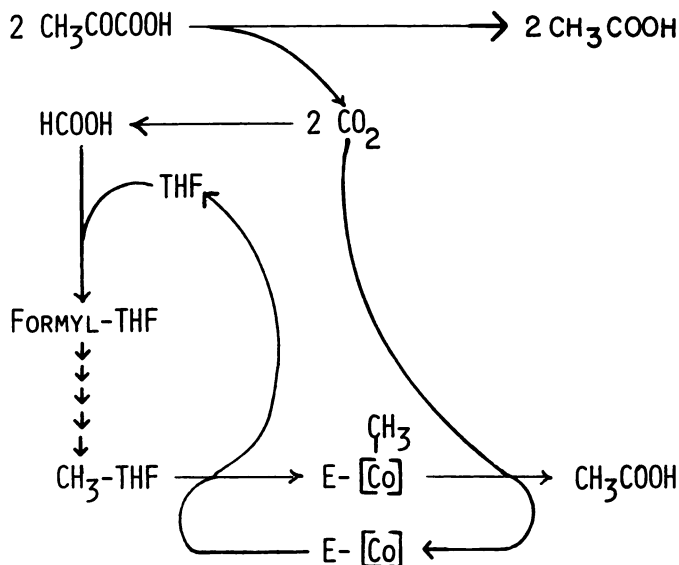
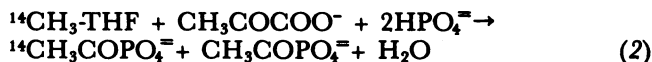


Figure 4. Scheme proposed in 1966 for the total synthesis of acetate from CO_2 during fermentation of pyruvate by *C. thermoaceticum*. THF is tetrahydrofolate and E-[Co] is the corrinoid enzyme.

enzymes to oxygen, isolated from *C. thermoaceticum* five fractions that catalyzed the conversion of $\text{CH}_3\text{-THF}$ and pyruvate to acetylphosphate, four of which were pure enzymes. For years, no one had been able to purify the enzymes of this pathway because they are extremely sensitive to oxygen.

Drake had worked with sulfur bacteria that contain oxygen-sensitive enzymes. It is a great advantage to have young people in your laboratory with fresh ideas. This development eventually opened the way for purification of all the enzymes of the system that catalyze the conversion of CO_2 and H_2 to acetyl-CoA. Figure 5 illustrates the type of procedure that is required. The hood is filled with N_2 , and a trace of H_2 is added and a catalyst is present to convert any traces of O_2 with the H_2 to H_2O . All the purifications of the enzyme are done in this hood. It is not Drake and Hu (see Fig. 5), but Steve Ragsdale and Ewa Pezacka whose work we will consider later.

The enzymes purified were pyruvate ferredoxin oxidoreductase, ferredoxin, methyltransferase, phosphotransacetylase, and a fifth fraction that was impure and contained three or four proteins (19). These combined fractions catalyzed the conversion of $^{14}\text{CH}_3\text{-THF}$ and pyruvate to two acetylphosphates, one of which contained ^{14}C in the methyl group (Reaction 2). If CoA was substituted for the phosphate, acetyl-CoA was the product and the phosphotransacetylase could be omitted.



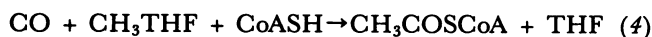
Luck is important in scientific discovery. I remember Fritz Lipmann asking about a postdoctoral fellow I was recommending. He asked, is he lucky? Curiosity is an important part of luck. We were lucky at this point.

About that time, Rolf Thauer and co-workers in Marburg, Germany, found that *C. thermoaceticum* contains the enzyme carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (20). This enzyme converts CO to CO_2 (Reaction 3).



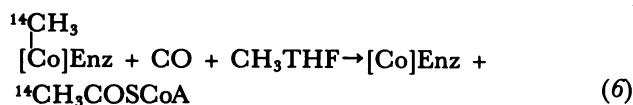
It is easily assayed using methyl viologen as an electron acceptor. We will see that this is a key enzyme in catalysis of the conversion of CO, CH₃THF, and CoA to acetyl-CoA. I had no idea that this enzyme had anything to do with the synthesis of acetate, but out of curiosity I asked Drake and Hu to determine if the impure fraction that contained three or four proteins contained carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (CODH).¹

Drake and Hu (21) found the impure fraction was loaded with CODH and showed it is a Ni metalloenzyme (22). The luck continued. No one had been able, in the absence of pyruvate, to obtain synthesis of acetyl-CoA with CH₃-THF, CO₂, and CoA. Hu and Drake reasoned that the pyruvate might be required as an electron donor in the synthesis of [¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA from ¹⁴CH₃THF, CO₂, and CoA. Therefore, they set up an experiment in which they left out pyruvate and replaced the pyruvate with CO. They found with CO present, pyruvate was no longer required. Furthermore, they found that the presence of CO₂ was not required, that CO per se was the source of the carbonyl group of acetyl-CoA as shown in Reaction 4 (22).



These results were indeed exciting: it was evident that *C. thermoaceticum* could catalyze an autotrophic type synthesis.

Hu, as part of his Ph.D. research, was able to isolate the corrinoid enzyme (23). With the corrinoid enzyme available and using the methyltransferase, he methylated the corrinoid enzyme as shown in Reaction 5 in which [Co]Enz is the corrinoid enzyme. From its properties, it was evident that the methyl is linked to the cobalt of the corrinoid. With the methylated corrinoid enzyme, he was able to synthesize methyl-labeled acetyl-CoA from CO and CoA (Reaction 6).



The methyltransferase enzyme and CH₃THF were no longer required for the synthesis as the methyl corrinoid enzyme served as a direct source of the methyl of acetyl-CoA. These



Figure 5. Steve Ragsdale and Ewa Pezacka isolating oxygen-sensitive enzymes from *C. thermoaceticum* by use of an anaerobic hood.

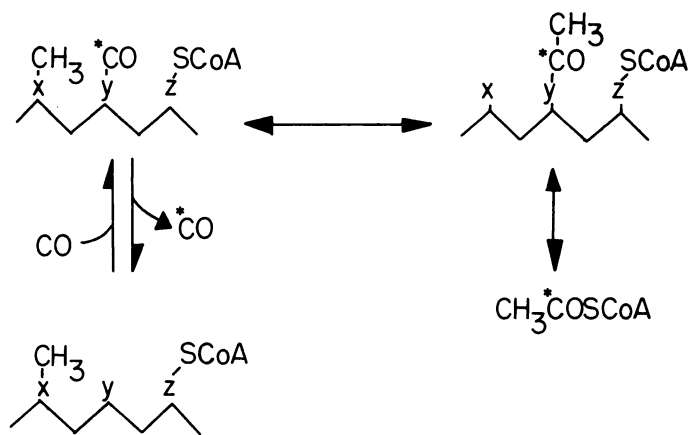


Figure 6. Illustration of the mechanism of the exchange of CO with the carbonyl group of [¹⁻¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA as catalyzed by CO dehydrogenase (CODH). The zigzag line represents the CODH and X, Y, Z, three binding sites, respectively, for methyl, carbonyl, and CoA groups of the CODH.

results provided clear evidence that the methyl of CH₃-THF is converted to the methyl of acetyl-CoA via the methylated corrinoid enzyme. More recently, Ragsdale et al. (24), purified the corrinoid enzyme to homogeneity and showed that it contains an [4Fe-4S]¹⁺² cluster (see also ref 25).

Ragsdale, in Ljungdahl's laboratory at the University of Georgia, had isolated CO dehydrogenase from *C. thermoaceticum*. He came to our laboratory as a postdoctoral fellow. During the mass spectrometer studies in 1952, I had found that *C. thermoaceticum* catalyzes an exchange of ¹⁴CO₂ with the carboxyl of acetate. I wondered if the isolated enzyme system could catalyze such an exchange. When Ragsdale investigated this exchange, he found that only CO dehydrogenase was required and adding the corrinoid enzyme had no effect on the exchange. The results were revolutionary (26). We concluded CO dehydrogenase is the central enzyme of the pathway of acetyl-CoA synthesis instead of the corrinoid enzyme as we had considered previously. Our interpretation of the results of the experiments is presented in Fig. 6. In this scheme, the zigzag line represents CODH and X, Y, Z represent three sites on the protein of CODH. The experiment consists of incubating in a closed system [¹⁻¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA and unlabeled CO. The observed results are that the CO becomes radioactive and the acetyl-CoA loses ¹⁴C but there is no decrease in its concentration. For unlabeled CO to acquire ¹⁴C from the [¹⁻¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA, the carbon-carbon bond of the acetyl-CoA and also the carbon sulfur bond must be cleaved. It is proposed that the CoA binds to the Z site of the CODH and the acetyl group to the Y site, and then the methyl is transferred to the X site. Then the ¹⁴CO dissociates from the Y site and mixes with the unlabeled CO. As no acceptors are added to bind the resulting methyl or CoA group, there apparently are sites on the CO dehydrogenase per se for binding the methyl and CoA in addition to that for the CO. Therefore, the three sites were proposed for CODH (26). As the unlabeled CO acquired ¹⁴C and the acetyl-CoA lost ¹⁴C and there was no decrease in the amount of acetyl-CoA, it was clear that unlabeled carbon from the pool of unlabeled CO had entered acetyl-CoA.

¹Abbreviations: CODH, carbon monoxide dehydrogenase; THF, tetrahydrofolate; CoA, coenzyme A.

Thus, it was evident the reaction is reversible. These results showed that CO dehydrogenase catalyzes two reactions: 1) the reversible oxidation of CO to CO₂ (Reaction 3), and 2) the synthesis of acetyl-CoA from methyl, CO, and CoASH groups (Reaction 4). A more proper name for the enzyme would be the CO dehydrogenase-acetyl-CoA synthetase.

Let us now consider the overall pathway of acetyl-CoA synthesis. An outline of the proposed pathway of autotrophic growth via synthesis of acetyl-CoA is shown in Fig. 7. This is a greatly oversimplified scheme. The object is to present the general concept of the pathway. The CO₂ enters via two routes. In one, the CO₂ is reduced via formate to CH₃THF. H₂ via hydrogenase or CO by oxidation to CO₂ via CODH serves as the source of electrons in these reductions. Ljungdahl and his colleagues have isolated from *C. thermoaceticum* all enzymes required for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₃THF (27, 28). The methyl of CH₃THF is transferred to the cobalt on the corrinoid enzyme by the methyltransferase. The methyl is then transferred to the X site on the CODH.

The second CO₂ is reduced to CO via CODH, with H₂ serving as the source of electrons via hydrogenase. The CO is bound to the Y site of CODH. If CO is the source of carbon, it combines directly with the Y site of CODH. CoA combines with the Z site and then acetyl-CoA is formed by the CODH. This conversion is facilitated by carbon monoxide dehydrogenase disulfide reductase, which was isolated by Pezacka in our laboratory (29). The acetyl-CoA is used in the anabolic reactions or is converted via acetylphosphate to acetate, after which the cycle is repeated. For anabolism, the acetyl-CoA is converted to pyruvate by CO₂ fixation and from pyruvate, oxalacetate is made by CO₂ fixation; by an additional series of reactions the bacteria are able to synthesize their cellular components. The energy requirements of this pathway have been investigated by Lars Ljungdahl and colleagues. Using membranes of *C. thermoaceticum*, they (28, 30, 31) obtained evidence of a proton pump that promotes the synthesis of ATP. The protons generated from H₂ by hydrogenase or from CO by CODH drive this reaction.

A more complete representation of the pathway has been presented (28), but for our purpose it is not essential to consider each of the individual steps.

It is gratifying after all these years to have been able to isolate the enzymes that catalyze the synthesis of acetyl-CoA from CH₃THF, CoASH, CO or CO₂, and H₂ and thereby to work out the broad details of this pathway. I am pleased

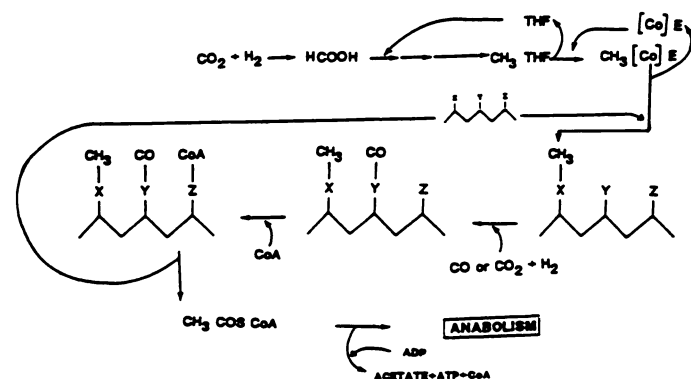


Figure 7. A simplified scheme of the mechanism of growth with CO or CO₂ and H₂ as the source of carbon and energy. THF is tetrahydrofolate, [Co]E is corrinoid enzyme, X Y Z is CO dehydrogenase with its three binding sites.

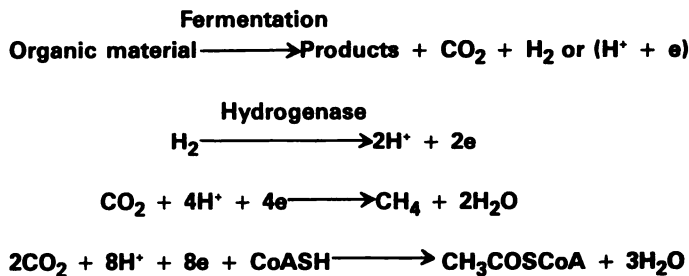


Figure 8. Examples of CO₂ serving as the electron acceptor (electron sink) for anaerobic fermentations.

some investigators have chosen to call this the Wood pathway (25, 27, 32, 33); the acetogenic pathway (or pathways) joins the Calvin cycle as a major means of autotrophic growth.

Although the details of this pathway have been derived largely from studies with *C. thermoaceticum*, more and more bacteria that produce acetate from CO₂ are being described, particularly in recent years. It is becoming apparent now that this pathway may play a significant role in the overall carbon cycle. Let us consider the findings in general terms.

Anaerobes, which grow in the absence of O₂, must use some electron acceptor in place of the O₂ for oxidation to obtain energy for growth. The acceptor is sometimes called the electron sink. The lactic acid bacteria use pyruvate as the electron sink and form lactate; yeast uses acetaldehyde and forms ethanol. Some anaerobes use CO₂ for this purpose. In Fig. 8 two examples are shown in which CO₂ itself serves as the electron sink. In one, CO₂ is reduced to methane. The methane bacteria thrive in the sludges of swamps and lake bottoms, and if you are a duck hunter you have seen bubbles of methane rising to the surface of the swamp. For that reason, methane has sometimes been called swamp gas.

In the second type, the CO₂ is reduced to acetyl-CoA. The mechanism of this reduction is considered to be by the pathway we have been discussing.

A recent exciting development is that it is becoming apparent that CO₂ is reduced to acetate in humans. Meyer J. Wolin and co-workers at the New York Department of Health have analyzed methane in the breath of humans. Some do not produce methane. Wolin and co-workers found that in people who do not produce methane, the microflora of the gut catalyze the conversion of CO₂ to acetate, whereas the microflora of the gut of humans that form methane convert CO₂ and H₂ to methane (34), Wolin (private communication) estimates 13,000 metric tons of acetate are produced per day by bacteria in the gut by the world's total human population.

John Breznak and M. D. Kane (35) have shown that in the gut of termites there are bacteria that reduce CO₂ to acetate rather than to methane. Termites use acetate that is produced by fermentation as the principal source of carbon for growth. The reduction of CO₂ to acetate provides these insects with about one-third of their total acetate. It is very efficient metabolism. Breznak and Kane estimate 2.3 × 10⁶ metric tons of acetate are produced in the hind gut of termites per day. Acetogens are found in the guts of many animals; ref 34 and 35 summarize the literature.

Wouldn't it be marvelous if the microflora of the cow's stomach could be altered from methanogens to acetogens? Carbon would not be wasted in the form of methane and the resulting acetate could be used as a source of energy by the cows. Such cows would be a boon to farms.

CARBON MONOXIDE DEHYDROGENASE

CODH is the central enzyme of the acetyl-CoA pathway and the enzyme from *C. thermoacetikum* has separate binding sites for CO, the CH₃ group, and CoASH.

CODH is made up of an α subunit of molecular weight 78,000 and a β subunit of 71,000. Each dimer of the hexamer contains 1 zinc, 2 nickels, 11 irons, and 15 inorganic sulfurs. CO binds at a Ni, Fe site of CODH. The evidence is based on electron spin resonance. This is a special subject in itself, which we cannot consider in detail. The investigations have been done largely by Ragsdale and Ljungdahl and co-workers. They first showed that when the enzyme is treated with CO, a novel ESR signal is observed, and when the cells are grown on ⁶¹Ni there is a hyperfine broadening of the signal, thus indicating that a Ni-carbon complex is formed (36).

The effect of ⁵⁷Fe and ¹³CO on the electron spin has been determined and there is hyperfine broadening of the ESR spectrum with either ⁵⁷Fe or ¹³CO. These results are taken to indicate CO reacts at the Ni, Fe center of CODH (37). Recently, Ragsdale and co-workers (38, 39) have reported detailed studies of this center using electron spin resonance and Mossbauer spectroscopy.

Shanmugasundaram and Kumar (40), in our laboratory, have presented evidence that a tryptophan is involved at the CoA site. They used the fluorescent probe, 2,4-dinitrophenyl-sulfenyl chloride, to label the tryptophans of CODH in the presence and absence of CoA (41). In the presence of CoA, one of the tryptophan peptides is not labeled and is apparently at the CoA site. The amino acid sequence of the peptide from this site is: Ile His Asp Phe Ile Asn Tyr Gly Glu Gly Leu Trp His Thr Gly Gln Arg.

There also is evidence that an arginine residue is involved in the binding of CoA to CODH (26, 42). Phenylglyoxal, an arginine-specific reagent, inactivates CODH and CoA gives 80–85% protection against this inactivation. It was observed (42) that of a series of CoA analogs, only 3'-dephospho-CoA and adenine caused quenching of the tryptophan fluorescence of the CODH (not pantothenic acid, cysteamine, ribose, or inorganic pyrophosphate). This is taken as evidence that it is the adenine of the CoA that interacts with the tryptophan of CODH. In addition, of the analogs of CoA, only 3'-phospho-CoA and inorganic pyrophosphate protected CODH against the inactivation by phenylglyoxal. Therefore it was proposed that the pyrophosphate bridge of the CoA binds to arginine and the inorganic pyrophosphate protects against inactivation by phenylglyoxal by binding to the functional arginines.

Pezacka (43), of our laboratory, recently investigated the binding of the methyl group to CODH. She prepared ¹⁴CH₃-corrinoid enzyme and transferred the methyl to CODH and isolated the methylated CODH. She then demonstrated that the ¹⁴CH₃-CODH, when incubated with CO and CoA, yields ¹⁴CH₃-acetyl-CoA. Thus, there is no doubt CODH per se can catalyze the synthesis of acetyl-CoA.

By hydrolysis of the ¹⁴CH₃-CODH to amino acids with HCl, she showed that ¹⁴C is obtained as an S-¹⁴CH₃ cysteine. Furthermore, after formation of [¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA with CO and CoA, and the CH₃-CODH, she showed that S-¹⁴CH₃ cysteine was no longer formed when the remaining CODH was hydrolyzed to amino acids with HCl.

These results appeared to present clear evidence that the X site involves formation of S-CH₃ cysteine. However, by enzymatic hydrolysis with proteases, we have been unable to isolate S-¹⁴CH₃-cysteine or ¹⁴CH₃ labeled peptides. Ragsdale who is now at the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee,

along with Lu and Harder (44) have shown that the methylation of CODH is greatly facilitated by a low potential (–400 mV). They consider this evidence that the metal site of CODH is involved in the binding of methyl to CODH, and they suggest that formation of S-¹⁴CH₃-cysteine may be a dead-end side reaction. Time will tell.

The gene cluster containing CODH, the corrinoid enzyme, and methyltransferase has been cloned but only the methyltransferase was active (32). More recently, the α and β subunits of CODH have been cloned by Ragsdale, Ljungdahl and colleagues, and their sequences have been determined (45). So far, expression of monomers, which are active in reconstituting enzymatically active CODH, has not been accomplished. We hope to identify amino acid sequences at the active sites of CODH and then in collaboration with Ragsdale and Ljungdahl to make deletions and point mutations and explore the amino acid sequences that are required for catalysis by this intriguing enzyme, CODH.

Many investigations of other acetogenic bacteria have been done by Rolf Thauer and Georg Fuchs of Germany and Terry Stadtman of the U.S., especially with the methane and sulfur bacteria (see refs 28, 46–49) for reviews and references). All these organisms contain requisite enzymes such as the corrinoid enzyme and CODH, but in none has the acetyl-CoA pathway been demonstrated with purified enzymes. The biggest problem is that no one has demonstrated that CODH from these organisms catalyze the reversible exchange of CO with [1-¹⁴C]acetyl-CoA (49). It may be that a second protein is required in addition to the CODH of these organisms for the exchange reaction to occur and for synthesis of acetyl-CoA. But the scheme presented here forms the basis for consideration of possible pathways. Perhaps the pathways occur with some modification.

Lipmann once said in a review (50), "A search of bacteria might uncover fossils of the earliest forms of life." The conversion of two CO₂ to acetyl-CoA is the most direct pathway possible for autotroph growth. It avoids all the complex reactions of the Calvin cycle. On the earth's crust, CO, Ni, Fe, tungsten, and selenium were all present. These are present in the metalloenzymes that catalyze the acetyl-CoA pathway.

In studies with the propionic acid bacteria, we found that inorganic pyrophosphate and inorganic polyphosphate are used by certain enzymes in place of ATP (51). Perhaps we are uncovering some reactions used by primitive forms of life before the use of ATP was developed and before CO₂ was used by the Calvin cycle.

The results I have presented are those of a large group. I owe much of my success to my collaborators. There have been too many collaborators during the 40 years we have investigated this pathway to consider each individual, so I cannot give them the credit they deserve. I still try to contribute by working at the lab bench with my own hands. We expect to apply the powerful tools of molecular biology now that we have some idea about the mechanism and enzymes and where best to attack the problems. [EJ]

REFERENCES

1. Lohmann, K., and Schuster, Ph. (1937) Untersuchungen über die carboxylase. *Biochem. Z.* **294**, 188–214
2. Warburg, O., Christian, W., and Griese, A. (1935) Wasserstoffübertragendes Co-Ferment, seine Zusammensetzung und Wirkungsweise. *Biochem. Z.* **282**, 157–205
3. Lynen, F., Knappe, J., Lorch, E., Jutting, G., Ringelmann, E., and Lachance, J. P. (1961) Zur Biochemischen Funktion des Biotins II. Reinigung und Wirkungsweise der β -Methylcrotonylcarboxylase. *Biochem. Z.* **335**, 123–167

4. Knappe, J., Wenger, B., and Wieland, U. (1963) Zur Konstitution der carboxylierten β -Methyl-crotonyl-carboxylase (CO₂-Biotin-enzym). *Biochem. Z.* **337**, 232-246
5. Lane, M. D., and Lynen, F. (1963) Biochemical function of biotin. VI. Chemical structure of the carboxylated active site of propionyl carboxylase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **49**, 379-385
6. Wood, H. G., Lochmüller, H., Reipertinger, C., and Lynen, F. (1963) Transcarboxylase IV. Function of biotin and structure and properties of the carboxylated enzyme. *Biochem. Z.* **337**, 247-266
7. Rose, W. C. (1949) Amino acid requirements of man. *Federation Proc.* **8**, 546-552
8. Winogradsky, S. (1891) Recherches sur les organismes de la nitrification. *Annales de l'Institut Pasteur Paris* **5**, 577-646
9. Wood, H. G. (1989) Past and present of CO₂ utilization. In *Autotrophic Bacteria* (Schlegel, H. G., and Bowien, B., eds) pp. 33-52, Springer Verlag, New York
10. Fontaine, F. E., Peterson, W. H., McCoy, E., Johnson, M. J., and Ritter, G. J. (1942) A new type of glucose fermentation by *Clostridium thermoaceticum* NSP. *J. Bacteriol.* **43**, 701-715
11. Barker, H. A., and Kamen, M. D. (1945) Carbon dioxide utilization in the synthesis of acetic acid by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **31**, 219-225
12. Wood, H. G. A study of carbon dioxide fixation by mass determination of the types of ¹³C acetate. *J. Biol. Chem.* **194**, 905-931
13. Bassham, J. A., Benson, A. A., Kay, L. D., Harris, A. Z., Wilson, A. T., and Calvin, M. (1953) The path of carbon in photosynthesis. XXI. The cyclic regeneration of carbon dioxide acceptor. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **76**, 1760-1770
14. Lentz, K., and Wood, H. G. (1955) The synthesis of acetate from formate and CO₂ by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **215**, 645-654
15. Poston, J. M., Kuratomi, K., and Stadtman, E. (1964) Methyl-vitamin B₁₂ as a source of methyl groups for the synthesis of acetate by cell free extracts of *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* **112**, 804-806
16. Ljungdahl, L. G., Irion, E., and Wood, H. G. (1965) Total synthesis of acetate from CO₂. I. Co-methylcobric acid and Co-(methyl)-5-benzimidazolyl-cobamide as intermediates with *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Biochemistry* **4**, 2771-2779
17. Ljungdahl, L., Irion, E., and Wood, H. G. (1966) Role of corrinoids in the total synthesis of acetate from CO₂ by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Federation Proc.* **25**, 1642-1648
18. Weissbach, H., and Taylor, R. (1966) Role of vitamin B₁₂ in methionine synthesis. *Federation Proc.* **25**, 1649-1656
19. Drake, H. L., Hu, S.-I., and Wood, H. G. (1981) Purification of five components from *Clostridium thermoaceticum* which catalyzes synthesis of acetate from pyruvate and methyltetrahydrofolate. Properties of phosphotransacetylase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **256**, 11137-11144
20. Diekert, G. B., and Thauer, R. K. (1978) Carbon monoxide oxidation by *Clostridium thermoaceticum* and *Clostridium formicoaceticum*. *J. Bacteriol.* **136**, 597-606
21. Drake, H. L., Hu, S.-I., and Wood, H. G. (1980) Purification of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase, a nickel enzyme from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **255**, 7174-7180
22. Hu, S.-I., Drake, H. L., and Wood, H. G. (1982) The synthesis of acetyl coenzyme A from carbon monoxide, methyltetrahydrofolate, and coenzyme A by enzymes from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Bacteriol.* **149**, 440-448
23. Hu, S.-I., Pezacka, E., and Wood, H. G. (1984) Acetate synthesis from carbon monoxide by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. Purification of the corrinoid protein. *J. Biol. Chem.* **259**, 8892-8897
24. Ragsdale, S. W., Lindahl, P. A., and Münck, E. (1987) Mossbauer, EPR and optical studies of the corrinoid/iron-sulfur protein involved in the synthesis of acetyl coenzyme A by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **262**, 14289-14297
25. Harder, S. R., Lu, W.-B., Feinberg, B. A., and Ragsdale, S. W. (1989) Spectroelectric studies of the corrinoid/iron-sulfur protein involved in acetyl-CoA synthesis by *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Biochemistry* **28**, 9080-9087
26. Ragsdale, S. W., and Wood, H. G. (1985) Acetate biosynthesis of acetogenic bacteria. Evidence that carbon monoxide dehydrogenase is the condensing enzyme that catalyzes the final steps of the synthesis. *J. Biol. Chem.* **260**, 3970-3977
27. Ljungdahl, L. G. (1986) The autotrophic pathway of acetate synthesis in acetogenic bacteria. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **40**, 415-450
28. Wood, H. G., and Ljungdahl, L. G. (1991) Autotrophic character of the acetogenic bacteria. In *Variation in Autotrophic Life* (Barton, L. L., and Shivley, J., eds) pp. 201-250, Academic, New York
29. Pezacka, E., and Wood, H. G. (1986) The autotrophic pathway of acetogenic bacteria. Role of CO dehydrogenase disulfide reductase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **263**, 1609-1615
30. Ivey, D. M., and Ljungdahl, L. G. (1986) Purification and characterization of the F-ATPase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Bacteriol.* **165**, 252-257
31. Hugenholtz, J., and Ljungdahl, L. G. (1989) Electron transport and electrochemical proton gradient in membrane vesicles of *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Bacteriol.* **171**, 2873-2875
32. Roberts, D. L., James-Hagstrom, J. E., Garvin, D. K., Gorst, C. M., Runquist, J. A., Baur, J. R., Haase, F. C., and Ragsdale, S. W. (1989) Cloning and expression of the gene cluster encoding key proteins involved in acetyl-CoA synthesis in *Clostridium thermoaceticum*: CO dehydrogenase, the corrinoid/Fe-S protein and methyltransferase. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **80**, 32-36
33. Stravropoloulos, P., Carrie, M., Muetterties, M. C., and Holm, R. H. (1990) Reaction sequences related to that of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase (acetyl coenzyme A synthase): thioester formation mediated at structurally defined nickel centers. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **112**, 5385-5387
34. Lajoie, S. F., Bank, S., Miller, T. L., and Wolin, M. J. (1988) Acetate production from hydrogen and [¹⁴C]carbon dioxide by the microflora of human feces. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **54**, 2723-2727
35. Breznak, J. A., and Kane, M. D. (1991) Microbial H₂/CO₂ acetogenesis in animal guts. Nature and nutritional significance. In *6th International Symposium on Microbial Growth* Bowien, B. U., and Andreesen, J. R., eds) *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* In press.
36. Ragsdale, S. W., Ljungdahl, L. G., and DerVartanian, D. V. (1983) ¹³C and ⁶¹Ni isotope substitutions confirm the presence of a nickel-III-carbon species in acetogenic CO dehydrogenase. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **115**, 658-665
37. Ragsdale, S. W., Wood, H. G., and Antholine, W. E. (1985) Evidence that an iron-nickel-carbon complex is formed by reaction of CO with the CO dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Biochemistry* **24**, 6811-6814
38. Lindahl, P. A., Münck, E., and Ragsdale, S. W. (1990) CO dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*, EPR and electrochemical studies in CO₂ and argon atmospheres. *J. Biol. Chem.* **265**, 3873-3879
39. Lindahl, P. A., Ragsdale, S. W., and Münck, E. (1990) Mossbauer study of CO dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **265**, 3880-3868
40. Shanmugasundaram, T., Kumar, G. K., and Wood, H. G. (1988) Involvement of tryptophan residues at the coenzyme A binding site of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Biochemistry* **27**, 6499-6503
41. Shanmugasundaram, T., Kumar, G. K., Haase, F. C., and Wood, H. G. (1988) Characterization of the coenzyme A binding site of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Cell Biol.* **107**, 855 (abstr.)
42. Shanmugasundaram, T., Kumar, G. K., Shenoy, B. C., and Wood, H. G. (1989) Chemical modification of the functional arginine residues of carbon monoxide dehydrogenase from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *Biochemistry* **28**, 7112-7116
43. Pezacka, E., and Wood, H. G. (1988) Acetyl-CoA pathway to autotrophic growth: identification of the methyl binding site of the CO dehydrogenase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **263**, 16000-16006
44. Lu, W. P., Harder, S. R., and Ragsdale, S. W. (1990) Controlled potential enzymology of methyl transfer reactions involved in acetyl-CoA synthesis by CO dehydrogenase and the corrinoid iron-sulfur protein from *Clostridium thermoaceticum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **265**, 3124-3133

45. Morton, T. A., Runquist, J. A., Ragsdale, S. W., and Ljungdahl, L. G. In *6th International Symposium on Microbial Growth on C₁ Compounds* p. 341 (abstr.)
46. Fuchs, G. (1986) CO₂ fixation in acetogenic bacteria: variations on a theme. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **39**, 181-213
47. Fuchs, G. (1989) Alternative pathways of autotrophic CO₂ fixation. In *Autotrophic Bacteria*, pp. 365-382, (Schlegel, H. G., and Bowien, B., eds) Springer, Berlin
48. Thauer, R. K., Moller-Zinkhan, D., and Spormann, A. M. (1989) Biochemistry of acetate catabolism in anaerobic chemotrophic bacteria. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **43**, 43-67
49. Grahamme, D. A., and Stadtman, T. C. (1987) Carbon monoxide dehydrogenase from *Methanosarcina barkeri*. Degradation, purification and physicochemical properties of the enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.* **262**, 3706-3712
50. Lipmann, F. (1965) Projecting backward from the present stage of evolution of biosynthesis. In *Origins of Prebiologic Systems: Their Molecular Matrices*, pp. 259-280, Academic, New York
51. Wood, H. G. (1988) Squiggle phosphate of inorganic pyrophosphate and polyphosphates. In *The Roots of Modern Biochemistry* (Kleinkauf, H., von Dohren, H., and Jaenicke, L., eds) Walter de Gruyter and Co. New York, pp. 581-602