

The enzymatic basis of energy-generation Lecture 3: Respiration of inorganic compounds

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Lecture 3: Respiration of inorganic compounds

- I. Prokaryotic versatility
- II. Nitrification / denitrification
- III. Aerobic H₂ respiration
- IV. Anaerobic H₂ respiration

Prokaryotes inhabit every environment

 Prokaryotes (bacteria, archaea) are present in large cell numbers in every environment on earth: from animal guts to hot springs to deep-sea sediments. They can flourish in such environments because of their metabolic flexibility. Three I'm currently studying:

Robinson Ridge (Antarctic desert) Mariner Trench (deep-sea vents) Mount Ngauruhoe (volcanic crater)



Mitochondria are efficient but inflexible

 Mitochondria have very limited flexibility. Their e⁻ donors are all derived from organic carbon compounds and their sole e⁻ acceptor is O₂. Energy is transduced through highly efficient but inflexible linear electron transport chains.



 In many ecosystems, the available electron donors (organic carbon sources), acceptors (O₂), and physical conditions are insufficient to sustain animal life.

Prokaryotes are highly metabolically diverse

- Microorganisms can prosper in almost all ecosystems due to their respiratory flexibility:
 - They can substitute organic e^{-} donors for inorganic e^{-} donors (e.g. H_2)
 - They can substitute O_2 for anaerobic e^- acceptors (e.g. NO_3^{2-})
 - Employ branched electron transport chains that can use multiple donors and acceptors



 In addition to respiration, most microorganisms can sustain energy-conservation by fermentation (substrate-level phosphorylation) in the absence of exogenous e⁻ acceptors. Many organisms also capture light and/or fix inorganic carbon.

Alternative e⁻ sources and sinks

Redox couple	E°'		
CO ₂ / CO	-0.492 V		
CO ₂ / Formate	-0.432 V		
2H+/H ₂	-0.414 V		
CO_2 / CH_4	-0.239 V		
SO ₄ ²⁻ / H ₂ S	-0.218 V		
CoM-S-S-CoB / CoM-SH + CoB-SH	-0.140 V		
Fumarate / Succinate	+0.030 V		
NO ₂ -/NH ₃	+0.340 V		
NO ₃ ⁻ / NO ₂ ⁻	+0.431 V		
Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}	+0.770 V		

Alternative e⁻ sources and sinks

Redox couple	E°'	Primary dehydrogenase
CO ₂ / CO	-0.492 V	Carbon monoxide dehydrogenase
CO ₂ / Formate	-0.432 V	Formate dehydrogenase
2H ⁺ / H ₂	-0.414 V	Hydrogenotrophic hydrogenase
CO_2 / CH_4	-0.239 V	Methane monooxygenase
SO ₄ ²⁻ / H ₂ S	-0.218 V	Various inc. sulfide oxidoreductase
CoM-S-S-CoB / CoM-SH + CoB-SH	-0.140 V	N/A
Fumarate / Succinate	+0.030 V	Succinate dehydrogenase
NO ₂ ⁻ / NH ₃	+0.340 V	Ammonia monooxygenase
NO ₃ ⁻ / NO ₂ ⁻	+0.431 V	Nitrite oxidoreductase
Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}	+0.770 V	Iron oxidase

Alternative e⁻ sources and sinks

Redox couple	E°'	Primary dehydrogenase	Terminal reductase	
CO ₂ / CO	-0.492 V	Carbon monoxide dehydrogenase	N/A	
CO ₂ / Formate	-0.432 V	Formate dehydrogenase	N/A	
2H ⁺ / H ₂	-0.414 V	Hydrogenotrophic hydrogenase	Hydrogenogenic hydrogenase	
CO_2 / CH_4	-0.239 V	Methane monooxygenase	Methanogenesis pathways	
SO ₄ ²⁻ / H ₂ S	-0.218 V	Various inc. sulfide oxidoreductase	Various inc. sulfite reductase	
CoM-S-S-CoB / CoM-SH + CoB-SH	-0.140 V	N/A	Heterodisulfide reductase	
Fumarate / Succinate	+0.030 V	Succinate dehydrogenase	Fumarate reductase	
NO ₂ ⁻ / NH ₃	+0.340 V	Ammonia monooxygenase	Nitrite reductase	
NO ₃ ⁻ / NO ₂ ⁻	+0.431 V	Nitrite oxidoreductase	Nitrate reductase	
Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}	+0.770 V	Iron oxidase	Iron reductase	

Directionality depends on environment

 Microorganisms can effectively mix-and-match the electron donors and acceptors they use depending on what is available in the environment.

Term	e ⁻ donors	e ⁻ acceptor
Aerobic organotrophy	Organic: sugars, amino acids, formate, methane, acetylene, lignin, TNT, etc.	O ₂
Aerobic lithotrophy	Inorganic: H_2 , CO, NH_3 , NO_2^- , Fe^{2+} , etc.	O ₂
Anaerobic organotrophy	Organic: sugars, amino acids, formate, methane, etc.	NO_3^{-} , NO_2^{-} , SO_4^{2-} , Fe^{3+} , CO_2 , fumarate, H ⁺ , etc.
Anaerobic lithotrophy	Inorganic: H ₂ , CO, H ₂ S, etc.	NO ₃ ⁻ , NO ₂ ⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻ , Fe ³⁺ , CO ₂ , etc.

 In oxic environments, a wide range of compounds can be used as fuel sources for aerobic respiration (e.g. NH₃, H₂, H₂S, CH₄). In anoxic environments, the same compounds can be produced as electron sinks during anaerobic respiration. All down to simple energetics.

If there's a negative ΔG ...

A golden rule in microbial energetics is that, if an e⁻ donor and an e⁻ acceptor are available for a thermodynamically-favourable reaction to occur, some organism will be able to mediate it. This is even the case when the free energy released is very low. Some examples:

Process	Half-equations	E ° '	Δ <i>E</i> °'	ΔG°'
Aerobic organotrophy	NAD ⁺ + H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ \rightarrow NADH $\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2O$	-0.320 V +0.816 V	+1.136 V	-219 kJ mol ⁻¹
Aerobic lithotrophy	$Fe^{3+} + 1e^{-} \rightarrow Fe^{2+}$ $\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^{-} \rightarrow H_2O$	+0.770 V +0.816 V	+0.046 V	-8.8 kJ mol ⁻¹
Anaerobic organotrophy	$CO_2 + H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow Formate$ 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ → H ₂	-0.432 V -0.414 V	+0.018 V	-3.5 kJ mol ⁻¹
Anaerobic lithotrophy	$2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2$ NO ₃ ⁻ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ \rightarrow NO ₂ ⁻ + H ₂ O	-0.414 V +0.431 V	+0.845 V	-163 kJ mol ⁻¹

The approaches used greatly vary both within and between organisms. Some prokaryotes have specialist metabolism that enables them to dominate certain niches, whereas others are highly versatile and can adapt to a wide range of environments.

The redox tower of e⁻ acceptor utilisation

In environments where there is more than one e⁻ acceptor available (e.g. O₂, NO₃⁻), the highest potential acceptor (O₂) will be used over the others (NO₃⁻). The lowest potential e⁻ acceptors (i.e. protons) are only used in the most energy-poor environments.



Regulation:

Metabolically flexible organisms (e.g. facultative aerobes such as *E. coli*) sense e⁻ acceptor availability. If multiple acceptors are available, they upregulate the reductases of high-energy acceptors (e.g. cytochrome c oxidase) and downregulate the others (e.g. nitrate reductase).

Competition:

Metabolically inflexible organisms reliant on low-potential e⁻ acceptors (e.g. obligate anaerobes such as sulfate-reducers) are outcompeted in energy-rich environments. Their ETCs yield less energy per organic molecule oxidised (lower H⁺/2e⁻ ratios) than e.g. *E. coli*. They in turn grow much slower.

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Nitrogen cycle



Nitrification: N compounds as e⁻ donors

 Nitrification is a two-step process which oxidizes ammonia and nitrite as fuel sources. Due to high potential of the e⁻ donors, O₂ is required as an e⁻ acceptor.

 $2 \text{ NH}_{3} + 3 \text{ O}_{2} \rightarrow 2 \text{ NO}_{2}^{-} + 2 \text{ H}_{2}\text{O} + 2 \text{ H}^{+}$ $2 \text{ NO}_{2}^{-} + \text{ O}_{2} \rightarrow 2 \text{ NO}_{3}^{-}$ $\Delta E^{\circ'} = +0.816 - +0.340 = + 0.476 \text{ V}$ $\Delta E^{\circ'} = +0.816 - +0.431 = + 0.385 \text{ V}$

- Despite the biogeochemical significance of nitrification, only a few organisms can mediate the process. Those that do are specialist lithotrophs that grow on few other fuel sources.
- Classically thought different organisms living in symbiosis mediate NH₃ oxidation (e.g. Nitrososphaera) and nitrite oxidation (e.g. Nitrobacter). However, complete nitrifiers (e.g. Nitrospira) were recently identified through high-throughput sequencing (Nature 2015).



Electron transport chains in nitrification

Specialised primary dehydrogenases, ammonia monooxygenase and nitrite oxidoreductase (structures not solved), input electrons into ETC. Electrons transferred *via* cytochrome *c* to proton-translocating cytochrome *c* oxidase. Δp drives F₁F₀ ATP synthase.



Reversed electron flow in nitrification

- All organisms generate reductant (e.g. NADH) to sustain biosynthetic processes. Oxidation of organic compounds, H₂, and CO can be favourably coupled to NAD⁺ reduction. However, it is thermodynamically impossible to couple NH₃ and NO₂⁻ oxidation to NAD⁺ reduction.
- Reversed electron flow is the solution. Δp can be consumed to drive a reversed endergonic e⁻ transfer pathway: nitrite → cytochrome $c \rightarrow$ Complex III → UQ → Complex I → NAD⁺.



Denitrification is a form of anaerobic respiration

Denitrification is a form of anaerobic respiration. Nitrogen oxides (i.e. nitrate, nitrite) are reduced to either N₂ or NH₃ depending on the organism through a series of enzymatic steps. Electrons can be derived from various from organic or inorganic sources.

NADH + $NO_3^- + H^+ \rightarrow NAD^+ + NO_2^- + H_2O$ 3 NADH + $NO_2^- + 4 H^+ \rightarrow 3 NAD^+ + NH_3 + 2 H_2O$ $\Delta E^{o'} = +0.431 - -0.340 = + 0.771 V$ $\Delta E^{o'} = +0.340 - -0.320 = + 0.680 V$

Whereas nitrification is mediated by a few specialist organisms, denitrification is performed by a wide range of facultative denitrifiers. This is because nitrate is a dependable e⁻ acceptor for anaerobic respiration: it is a highly electropositive and is available in most ecosystems.

Electron transport chains in denitrification

• In *Paracoccus denitrificans*, NO_3^- is sequentially reduced by dedicated complexes to NO_2^- (Nar), NO(Nir), N_2O (Nor), and N_2 (Nir). Electrons transferred to reductases via mitochondria-like electron transport chain: NADH \rightarrow Complex I \rightarrow UQ \rightarrow Complex III \rightarrow cyt $c \rightarrow$ reductase.



Nitrate reductase is a molybdoenzyme

 Nitrate is bound and reduced by a specialised molybdenum-containing organometallic cofactor (Mo-MGD). Electrons are funnelled from ubiquinone *via* two *b*-type hemes and five iron-sulfur clusters to active site. Protons are translocated by redox-loop mechanism.



Nitrite reductase contains a unique heme

The active site of nitrite reductase contains a unique heme, heme d₁, that is more electronwithdrawing than standard heme. It is electrochemically well-adapted to bind NO₂⁻ and release NO. Also contains a cytochrome c domain that receives electrons from ETC.



Hierarchical regulatory control





Low O_2 (+0.82 V, 6H⁺/2e⁻) Microaerobic respiration



High Nitrate (+0.42 V, 6H⁺/2e⁻) Nitrate respiration Cytochrome bo oxidase

Cytochrome bd oxidase

Nitrate reductase

High Fumarate (+0.03 V, 6H+/2e⁻) *Fumarate respiration*

No Respiratory Acceptors (SLP) *Fermentation*

Fumarate reductase

Formate hydrogenlyase

Regulation of denitrification

• Denitrification is less energetically efficient than aerobic respiration in terms of both ΔG released and H⁺/2e⁻ ratios. Hence, denitrifying organisms only express nitrate reductase and nitrite reductase when O₂ is absent. Two main sensory mechanisms.

ArcB: redox-sensing repressor

ArcB is a membrane protein that senses Q/QH_2 ratio. In anoxic conditions, quinol accumulation leads to reduction of the disulfide bond of ArcB. Reduced ArcB activates transcription factor ArcA. Leads to downregulation of cyt *c* oxidase.

Fnr: oxygen-sensing activator

Fnr is a cytosolic FeS protein that senses O_2 . In oxic conditions, oxygen causes destruction of the iron-sulfur cluster and deactivation of Fnr. In anoxic conditions, intact Fnr binds DNA and activates transcription of nitrate reductase.



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H₂ is a desirable energy reservoir

Hydrogenases are metalloenzymes that catalyze the reversible heterolytic cleavage of H₂:

$H_2 \rightleftharpoons [H^+ + H^-]^{\ddagger} \rightleftharpoons 2H^+ + 2e^-$

- H₂ has the highest energy density of any molecule and is rapidly diffusible. As a result, a majority of microorganisms have evolved the capacity to metabolise this compound (Greening et al, ISME 2016). Organisms metabolise H₂ through three main processes:
 - 1. Hydrogenotrophic respiration: H₂ is the low-potential e⁻ donor in diverse respiratory processes
 - 2. Hydrogenogenic respiration: H₂ is the endproduct of anaerobic proton respiration
 - **3.** Hydrogenogenic fermentation: H₂ is a dissipatable endproduct in many fermentation processes



Marjory Stephenson (1885 – 1948): Discoverer of H_2 metabolism

Convergent evolution of two metalloenzymes

[NiFe]-hydrogenases

Mainly involved in respiration processes Include O_2 sensitive and tolerant variants Present in a wide variety of bacteria and archaea



Convergent evolution of two metalloenzymes

[NiFe]-hydrogenases

Mainly involved in respiration processes Include O_2 sensitive and tolerant variants Present in a wide variety of bacteria and archaea



[FeFe]-hydrogenases

Mainly involved in fermentation processes Faster-acting but irreversibly destroyed by O₂ Restricted to anaerobic bacteria and eukaryotes



Hydrogenase synthesis is complicated

- Note that [NiFe] and [FeFe] hydrogenases are matured in multistep mechanisms involving rich organometallic and radical chemistry.
- CN and CO ligands are synthesized from organic precursors. Specific chaperones mediate metal cofactor insertion, protein folding, and complex assembly.
- Cutting-edge field subject of multiple Nature and Science papers in last few years. Not necessary to know any details.



Mechanism of [NiFe]-hydrogenase

 Following hydrogenase reaction mechanism has been proposed based on extensive EPR and FTIR spectroscopy, protein film voltammetry, and X-ray crystallography studies.



H₂ heterolysis observed at subatomic resolution

 0.89 Å resolution structure of anoxically-isolated [NiFe]-hydrogenase from the sulfatereducing *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* confirmed Ni-R structure. A hydride ion (H⁻) bridges the Ni and Fe atoms. A proton (H⁺) attaches to the thiol of one of the Ni-ligating cysteine residues.



Ogata et al., Nature 2015

Hydrogenotrophic aerobic respiration

Aerobic soil bacteria such as *Ralstonia eutropha* can grow using H₂ as the sole e⁻ donor, O₂ as the sole e⁻ acceptor, and CO₂ as the carbon source. This depends on two hydrogenases: one that inputs electrons into ETC, another that generates NADH for CO₂ fixation.



An oxygen-tolerant [NiFe]-hydrogenase

 Oxygen binds the [NiFe] centre of most hydrogenases leading to irreversible competitive inhibition. However, amperometric measurements show that *R. eutropha* membrane-bound hydrogenase rapidly reactivated following inactivation with O₂.



Red = Oxygen-sensitive MBH (e.g. *Desulfovibrio vulgaris*)

Black = Oxygen-tolerant MBH (e.g. *Ralstonia eutropha*)

Structural basis of oxygen-tolerance

Structure of *R. eutropha* membrane-bound hydrogenase very similar to that of *D. vulgaris*.
 However, the small subunit contains a unique 6Cys[4Fe3S] cluster proximal to active site.



Fritsch et al., Nature 2011

[4Fe3S] cluster can undergo 2e⁻ chemistry

 Nearly all FeS clusters can only undergo 1e⁻ chemistry. However, the [4Fe3S] cluster is stable following 1e⁻ and 2e⁻ oxidations due to extensive structural rearrangements.



A dual H₂ oxidase and O₂ reductase

 In its H₂-bound form, *R. eutropha* oxidizes H₂ and transfers the two electrons one-by-one via FeS clusters to ETC. In O₂-bound form, four electrons are transferred via FeS clusters and the O₂ is rapidly reduced to H₂O. Only possible through the 2e⁻ chemistry of the [4Fe3S] cluster.



High-affinity oxygen-tolerant hydrogenases

 My work has shown that a majority of soil bacteria encode a novel class of oxygen-tolerant hydrogenase with a nanomolar affinity for H₂. These enzymes are upregulated when organic carbon sources are depleted and enhance survival by scavenging H₂ from the atmosphere.

Hydrogenase upregulation



Glucose depletion





Greening et al., PNAS 2014 Greening et al., PNAS 2015

A minimalistic strategy for long-term survival

 While atmospheric H₂ is insufficient to sustain growth, consumption of this ubiquitous, diffusible trace gas provides the maintenance energy needed for microorganisms to survive chemically and physically challenging soil conditions.



Growth: oxidation of exogenous organic carbon sources:

Persistence: oxidation of atmospheric H₂



H₂ as a source of primary production



Phototrophy

Energy sources: Sunlight Carbon sources: CO₂

Primary producers: Phototrophs (e.g. plants, cyanobacteria) Ecosystems supported: Nearly all ecosystems directly or indirectly



Geothermal chemotrophy

Energy sources: H_2 , H_2S , S_0 derived from tectonic activity Carbon sources: CO_2 , CH_4

Primary producers: Obligate anaerobes (e.g. methanogens) Ecosystems supported: Hydrothermal vents, aquifers Chapelle et al, Nature 2002; Kelley et al, Science 2005



Atmospheric chemotrophy

Energy sources: H_2 , CO, CH_4 Carbon sources: CO_2 , CO, CH_4 Primary producers: Obligate aerobes (e.g. actinobacteria) Ecosystems supported: Hyperarid deserts Our latest work soon to be published...

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Hydrogenotrophic anaerobic respiration

- As H₂ is such a low-potential donor, its oxidation can also be coupled to the reduction various anaerobic e⁻ acceptors, including sulfate (below), nitrate, fumarate, and CO₂.
- Membrane-bound [NiFe]hydrogenases input electrons into electron transport chain via a b-type cytochrome. These are subsequently transferred to a quinone carrier to a terminal reductase. Δp is generated through charge displacement.



Methanogenesis is a hydrogenotrophic process

- Methanogens are anaerobic archaea that produce the potent greenhouse gas methane as an endproduct of their metabolism. Full methanogenesis pathways are complicated and outside scope of this course, but some points still worth touching on.
- H₂ provides the reductant for these organisms to reduce CO₂. Two main [NiFe]-hydrogenases:
 - F₄₂₀-reducing hydrogenase (Frh): Reduces the central catabolic cofactor F₄₂₀
 - Electron-bifurcating hydrogenase (Mvh): Simultaneously reduces ferredoxin and heterodisulfide



Rudolf Thauer (1939 -): Pioneer in methanogenesis and anaerobic metabolism

F_{420} is a central catabolic cofactor

 F₄₂₀ is a special microbial redox cofactor. It is structurally similar to FAD, but functionally akin NAD. It is low-potential (-0.34 V) cofactor and a obligate 2e⁻ carrier.



Greening et al., MMBR 2016

F₄₂₀ is reduced by the cytosolic hydrogenase Frh. F₄₂₀H₂ is used to progressively reduced CO₂.
 In some methanogens, F₄₂₀H₂ can also be respired using a proton-translocating ancestor to Complex I. This depends on the use of heterodisulfide as an e⁻ acceptor.

Ferredoxin is reduced by electron-bifurcation

 Ferredoxins are low-potential iron-sulfur clusters. They serve a central role in methanogenesis as the electron donors to several H⁺- and Na⁺-translocating primary pumps.



 As ferredoxin has a lower redox potential than H₂, it can only be reduced through electronbifurcation. In this process, the electrons from H₂ (-0.41 V) are simultaneously passed to the higher-potential heterodisulfide (-0.14 V) and lower-potential ferredoxin (-0.50 mV).

Electron-bifurcation in bacterial metabolism

 In electron-bifurcation, electrons from a 2e⁻ donor (e.g. H₂) are simultaneously passed to higher-potential (e.g. heterodisulfide, NAD) and lower-potential (ferredoxin) donors. This makes the endergonic reduction of ferredoxin thermodynamically favourable.



 Once thought to be a quirk of Complex III. However, work led by Thauer over last five years has shown electron-bifurcation is a dominant mechanism of energy-conservation in anaerobic bacteria, including in methanogenesis, acetogenesis, and fermentation.

Formate-coupled proton respiration

It was recently discovered that the deep-sea thermophilic archaeon *Thermococcus* onnurineus can grow by respiring formate (-0.432 V) as the sole e⁻ donor and protons (-0.414 V) as the sole e⁻ acceptor resulting in H₂ evolution.



While formate-coupled H₂ production is central in fermentation, it wasn't thought to support respiration as energy change between donor and acceptor is so low (+0.018 V, -3.5 kJ mol⁻¹). Only worthwhile for those organisms living in the most deprived environments.

Respiratory minimalism

- *Thermococcus onnurineus* is able to conserve energy of formate-proton couple with a highly efficient complex that serves as minimalistic respiratory chain. Three main components:
 - Fdh module: oxidises the e^{-} donor formate to CO_2
 - Mfh module: oxidises the e^- acceptor H⁺ to H₂
 - Mrp module: uses conformational changes of e⁻ transfer to generate electrochemical gradient



Sodium-motive force

• Many anaerobes, including *T. onnurineus*, use Na⁺ instead of H⁺ as the coupling ion to drive ATP synthesis. Like Δp , sodium-motive force ($\Delta \mu Na^+$) is a transmembrane electrochemical gradient that is the sum of the membrane potential ($\Delta \Psi$) and [Na⁺] gradient (ΔpNa^+).



• The primary pumps used to generate $\Delta\mu Na^+$ differ from those of standard respiration. The ATP synthase used is also modified so that the *c* ring translocates Na⁺ instead of H⁺.

Lecture summary

- Microorganisms are highly flexible in their metabolism, with capacities to oxidise organic and inorganic fuel sources, respire aerobically and anaerobically, and ferment persistently.
- Respiratory flexibility allows microbes to prosper in every environment. Primary production in deep-sea vents and hyperarid deserts is driven by microbial chemotrophy.
- Nitrification is a specialist metabolism in which ammonia and nitrite are aerobically oxidised.
 The reverse pathway denitrification is a widespread mechanism of anaerobic respiration.
- Hydrogenases are metalloenzymes that catalyse the reversible heterolysis of H₂. While all hydrogenases are inactivated by O₂, some can reactivate using a unique FeS cluster.
- Anaerobic respiration is made possible by a range of unusual adaptations, including electron-bifurcation, minimalistic respiratory chains, and use of sodium-motive force.

Recommended reading

Recommended reading:

Nicholls DG & Ferguson SJ (2015). Bioenergetics 4. Elsevier Press.

Comprehensive, up-to-date textbook on bioenergetics.

Schwartz E, Fritsch J, Friedrich B (2013). H₂-metabolizing prokaryotes. In The Prokaryotes.

An excellent review on the biochemistry and microbiology of H_2 metabolism.

All available for download at greeninglab.com

Essay Question

Describe how transmembrane complexes use redox reactions to generate electrochemical gradients