Atomic resolution structures of key enzyme MCR in anaerobic

methanotrophy reveal novel and extensive post-translational modifications.

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Abstract

Anaerobic methanotrophic archaea (ANME) are crucial to planetary carbon cycling. They

oxidise methane in anoxic niches by transferring electrons directly to nitrate or metal oxides

and alternatively to sulfate-reducing bacteria. Due to their physiological complexity, none of

the ANME species have been isolated, hampering the biochemical investigation of the

enzymatic processes involved in anaerobic methane oxidation. Here, we deciphered the

methane-capturing enzyme through native purification directly from microbial enrichments.

Freshwater ANME-2d reducing nitrate, grown in bioreactors, and marine microbial enrichment

containing ANME-2c, along with its bacterial syntrophic partners, were used as model systems.

The crystal structures of the Methyl-Coenzyme M Reductases (MCRs), refined to true atomic

resolution, captured its most precise image to date. Despite their physiological differences,

these ANMEs have extremely conserved MCR structures, similar to homologs from

methanogenic *Methanosarcinales,* rather than the phylogenetically distant MCR of ANME-1

isolated from Black Sea mats. An exceptional content of seven post-translational modifications

was observed *in cristallo*. Among them was a novel 3(S)-methylhistidine on the γ-chain of the

ANME-2d MCR. Krypton gassing did not lead to the detection of an internal channel that

would facilitate alkane diffusion to the active site, contrary to the ethane-activating homologue.

Our results corroborate that MCRs from freshwater ANME-2d and marine ANME-2c should

follow the conserved radical reaction mechanism of the methane-generating counterpart. The

described pattern of post-translational modifications, different to ANME-1, highlights the

importance of native purification as an unbiased approach to discovering intrinsic enzymatic

features in uncultivated microorganisms existing in nature.

Introduction

In light of climate change, studies about planetary methane fluxes have become increasingly important due to the global impact of the greenhouse gas. In anoxic marine sediments, 71 % of biogenic methane is transformed into the less potent greenhouse gas CO_2 through the process of anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM)[1]. The same is true in terrestrial and freshwater systems where AOM can account for up to 50 % reduction in methane emissions in wetlands[2]. The only microorganisms capable of performing AOM without the use of oxygen as a methane-activating agent are anaerobic methanotrophic archaea (ANME)[3, 4]. To date, all ANMEs described so far have been found habiting marine systems at the exception of ANME-2d[5, 6]. Electrons retrieved over the complete methane oxidation to CO_2 can be transferred to sulfate-reducing *Deltaproteobacteria*, most likely by direct interspecies electron transfer (DIET) through nanowires[7, 8]. Reports proposed that some ANMEs performed non-syntrophic AOM by coupling methane oxidation to Fe(III) or Mn(IV) reduction in marine and brackish environments[9]. In addition, freshwater ANME-2d reduce nitrate[10] or can colonise electrodes and generate electricity[11].

Despite their common ability to turn methane into CO_2, ANME-1 and ANME-2/ANME-3 are phylogenetically far apart. To understand their physiological distinctions, it is of utter importance to investigate the fundamental molecular mechanism of AOM. Despite extensive efforts, the gathered biochemical information on ANMEs is scarce due to the absence of an axenic culture. Nevertheless, some laboratories have succeeded in obtaining enrichments of microbial consortia[12-14], a strenuous process due to the extremely low doubling times of ANME. This achievement can represent a turning point in deciphering how microbes catabolise methane and inspire biotechnological applications.

Methane activation, the first reaction in AOM, has been proposed to be carried out by the Methyl-coenzyme M reductase (MCR). Accordingly, the reaction would follow the reverse direction of methanogenesis[15]. In the proposed mechanism, the heterodisulfide, made of Coenzyme M (HS-CoM) and Coenzyme B (CoB-SH), would react with methane to generate methyl-S-CoM and free CoB-SH through a radical mechanism catalysed by the Ni-containing tetrapyrrole cofactor F_{430}[16, 17]. Methane conversion to methyl-S-CoM was previously proved in the methanogen *Methanothermobacter marburgensis*[18] despite its unfavourable thermodynamics (Gibbs free energy change of +30 kJ.mol^{-1} of transformed methane)[4]. To perform this difficult process, ANMEs produce considerable quantities of MCR, which represents by far the most abundant cellular enzyme[15, 19, 20]. In addition, a thermodynamic

pull allowing an immediate conversion of methyl-S-CoM should proceed, leading to
subsequent transformation to CO_2.

MCR consists of a dimer of heterotrimers $(\alpha\beta\gamma)_2$ harbouring the cofactor F_{430} in each active
site(17). The catalytic chamber and its close surroundings contain many post-translational
modifications (PTMs) that vary in different methanogens and are carried on the α-subunit. No
correlation has so far been observed between the PTMs and phylogeny. While the installation
machinery of some of them has been reported, their physiological functions remain elusive(21-
23). Structures of ten methanogenic MCRs have yielded considerable information, highlighting
conserved overall features(16, 24). In contrast, the unique MCR structure from ANME-1
revealed unique traits, including a modified methylthio-F_{430} cofactor, a cysteine-rich patch, and
two different PTMs (*i.e.*, a C7-hydroxy-tryptophan and a methionine sulfoxide)(25),
corroborated by biochemical studies(15, 19).

The unique traits hint towards the presence of other unexpected features in ANME MCRs.
Acquiring snapshots of the phylogenetically different counterparts in ANME-2/ANME-3
would stimulate applied research in methane mitigation. Attempts have been made to facilitate
structural studies of ANME MCRs, including successful recombinant expression of ANME-1
MCR and the ethyl-CoM reductase specialised to activate ethane from '*Candidatus*
Ethanoperedens thermophilum'(26). However, this approach is biased as the machinery for
generating and installing native F_{430} variants, species-specific PTMs, and dedicated chaperones
required for correct folding are absent in the recombinant host. Moreover, artefactual chimeric
assemblies have been observed between the native MCR from the methanogenic host and the
recombinant ANME-2 MCR-γ. Similarly, the cultivation-independent approach of
computational protein structure modelling exhibits biases as the process is guided by extracted
data from known models but cannot predict the physiological cofactor, PTMs, and other
unknown traits such as water networks and gas channels. As an illustration, the structure of the
Ethyl-Coenzyme-M Reductase (ECR, proposed to catalyse the first reaction in anaerobic
ethane oxidation) harbours a dimethylated-F_{430} cofactor, a widened active site and unique
PTMs (N^2-methylhistidine and a 3-methylisoleucine) that scaffold a gas channel connecting
the active site to the solvent to favour alkane diffusion(20). Therefore, to explore the specific
features of alkane-capturing enzymes, the investigation of native systems still prevails, which
is a challenge in the case of non-isolated microbes such as ANMEs.

In this study, we purified MCRs directly from microbial enrichments dominated by ANME-2
and compared them to the ANME-1 structure. The native structures obtained at (sub)atomic
resolution depict the architecture of the methane-capturing enzyme, with the discovery of a
novel PTM on the γ-subunit. These findings expand the knowledge about this crucial enzyme
in these fascinating organisms, highlighting the importance of studying the natural microbial
diversity.

<u>Results</u>

Isolation of the core catabolic enzyme MCR from marine and freshwater ANME-2

Cultures containing high enrichments of ANME are rare due to the laborious enrichment
procedures and the long division time of these organisms. Successive breakthroughs in the
cultivation of ANME-2 species have allowed us to access marine and freshwater
representatives to study differences among their MCRs through native protein purification
(Figure 1 and Supplementary Fig. S1). In all presented cases, the native protein isolation was
based on MCR tracking by following its intrinsic properties: the absorption signature from the
F_{430} cofactor and the typical pattern on denaturing gels (SDS-PAGE, Supplementary Fig. S2).

Investigations were started on a relatively simplified system in which ANME-2d grew
independent of sulfate-reducing partners. Biological samples were retrieved from Ooijpolder
(Netherlands)(27, 28), and Vercelli rice fields (Italy)(11, 14) and cultivated in bioreactors for
>5 years, significantly enriching ANME-2d with nitrate as electron acceptor. Metagenomic
analysis of the Ooijpolder enrichment samples showed a read-based relative abundance of 20-
40 % *Ca.* Methanoperedens(29) with main strain '*Ca.* Methanoperedens' BLZ2(30) (further
referred to as ANME-2d^O).

In comparison, metagenomic analysis of the Vercelli rice field enrichment sample showed a
read-based relative abundance of 15 % '*Ca.* Methanoperedens', with main strain '*Ca.*
Methanoperedens' Vercelli Strain 1(31) (further referred to as ANME-2d^V). Both samples were
separately processed for protein purification, starting from 17.5 g and 12.5 g of ANME-2d^O
and ANME-2d^v containing biomass and yielding 114 mg and 14 mg of the major MCR,
respectively (Figure 1).

Furthermore, the purification setup was tested on microbial enrichment from a marine system.
Here, material was sampled at Amon Mud Volcano in the Mediterranean Sea at a depth of

1,120 m and a temperature of 14 °C. The microbial enrichment, grown at 20 °C in batch serum

bottles since 2003, gathered mostly ANME-2a/b and ANME-2c species and their microbial

partners Seep-SRB1 and Seep-SRB2 based on 16S rRNA gene sequencing[7](Supplementary

Fig. S1). The limited processed biomass of 3.21 g contained the microbial mixture as well as

inorganic particles, and a final quantity of 4.9 mg of the major MCR could be extracted.

In all cases, the final purified MCR fractions subjected to UV/Vis spectroscopy presented a

peak at 425 nm due to the F_{430} cofactor in accordance with previous reports for methanogenic

MCRs (Supplementary Fig. S2b-c)[20, 32]. While the final SDS-PAGE suggests a high sample

homogeneity in solution, we could not exclude a mixture of MCRs from different subspecies.

Therefore, we used the selective crystallisation process to isolate and identify a single variant

by X-ray crystallography.

MCR shows a well-conserved overall architecture

All MCR samples crystallised in a relatively short time (i.e., less than a week), which was

unexpected based on the heterogeneity. X-ray diffraction data was collected, and models were

refined to a final resolution of 0.98 and 0.94 Å (Table 1) for the MCR from ANME-2d^O and

ANME-2d^V, respectively. Both MCRs crystallised in a monoclinic space group with similar

unit cell dimensions. Despite the differences in the organisms and the slight deviations in the

crystallisation solution (see methods), both MCR models shared the same crystalline packing

(Supplementary Fig. S3). This suggests a very close sequence identity that would maintain the

contacts on the surface to establish the same crystal lattice. This was confirmed after

sequencing the MCR from the initial electron density following the molecular replacement,

presenting an average deviation of only 3-5 % in sequence identity (*i.e.*, with an amino acid

sequence identity of 95.4, 97.2, and 95.6 % for α, β, and γ, respectively), resulting in an almost

identical structural superposition (root mean square deviations (rmsd) of 0.09 Å with an overall

of 2,186 aligned Cα).

The dataset obtained for the ANME-2c enrichment was also of sufficiently high quality to

unequivocally determine the sequence from the electron density map of the initial model,

refined to a resolution of 1.34 Å. The derived sequence perfectly matched the one of ANME-

2c MCR from the metagenomic data (Supplementary Fig. S4). Based on the crystal structure,

MCR from ANME-2c seems to form stable dimers (Supplementary Fig. S3), as pointed out by

the PISA server analyses (the dimer exhibiting a ΔG^{int} of -617.2 kcal.mol^{-1} and a ΔG^{diss} of

26.8 kcal.mol^{-1}, with analyses performed on the 25th of November 2024). The dimeric interface

is exclusively formed by the interaction of the α-subunits presenting many interactions with

the C-terminal extension. The dimeric state does not disturb the access to the active site. Due

to the low quantities of MCR obtained at the end of the purification and the slow growth of the

consortium, we could not test if this dimeric arrangement reflects a crystallisation artefact or a

stable entity in solution, and more studies will have to be carried out. On the other hand, the

predicted trimeric arrangement of the MCR from ANME-2d^O observed in blue native

PAGE[30] was not detected in the crystal structure. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude that the

purification and crystallisation process might have disrupted a trimeric organisation.

Despite the different environmental niches, the marine ANME-2c and freshwater ANME-2d

derived MCR share relatively high amino acid sequence identity (*i.e.*, with an identity of 63.6,

61.5, and 71.4 % for α, β, and γ, respectively, based on MCR from ANME-2d^V, Supplementary

Fig. S5-6). The three MCRs from ANME-2 share a matching overall structure with previously

structurally studied methanogenic MCRs as well as the methanotrophic ANME-1 MCR and

ECR from *Ca.* E. thermophilum (Figure 2, Supplementary Fig. S5-6), the closest homolog

being the MCR from *Methermicoccus shengliensis*[32]. Besides the overall similarity,

structural differences are notable and summarised in Figure 2. The electrostatic profile of the

surface is also similar to previously studied MCRs, with both ANME-2d members exhibiting

more pronounced positive charges at the entrance leading to the active site than a typical

methanogenic MCR (Supplementary Fig. S7).

A sealed, strictly conserved catalytic chamber is covered by seven post-translational
modifications

The active site of the three ANME-2 MCRs is highly conserved with the described MCRs from

methanogenic archaea and contains a canonical F$_{430}$ cofactor in accordance with previous

studies[19] (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S8). The subatomic resolution of both ANME-2d

structures allows the visualisation of the majority of hydrogen atoms and depicts the accurate

position of each atom of the ligands. Both MCRs from ANME-2c and ANME-2d^O contain

reduced coenzymes trapped in the active site. However, MCR from ANME-2d^V exhibits a

mixture of reduced and oxidised coenzymes (i.e., heterodisulfide). The ligand coordinating

residues are almost perfectly conserved (Fig. 3a-b, Supplementary Fig. S9).

The discovery of a gas channel in the ethane-capturing enzyme motivated us to explore whether
ANME-2 MCR has a similar accession system for methane. Analysis of the internal cavities in
all three models revealed tunnels protruding from the active site with small diameters
comparable to the methanogenic counterparts (Supplementary Fig. S10). Their positions and
diameters differ from those of the ECR from *Ca.* E. thermophilum. Therefore, we used Krypton
instead of Xenon to mimic the sterical hindrance of methane and performed high-pressure
gassing for a few minutes on the MCR of ANME-2c, which presented one of the largest
protrusions. Based on the anomalous signal of the dataset collected at the Krypton K-edge, no
signals were observed in the active site or tracking in a hydrophobic tunnel (Fig. 3c,
Supplementary Fig. S11). Krypton atoms are rather positioned on the outer shell of the protein,
trapped in hydrophobic pockets, as previously observed for the methanogenic enzyme from *M.*
marburgensis(20, 33). The absence of a dedicated gas tunnel reinforces the proposed scenario
that only ethane-specialized enzymes evolved this strategy through the introduction of loop
extensions and dedicated PTMs.

In the case of the three ANME-2 MCRs, a surprising number of seven PTMs were observed in
the electron density (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. S12 and S13). ANME-2c MCR includes the
conserved N^1-methylhistidine and thioglycine, as well as the common 5(*S*)-methylarginine,
2(*S*)-methylglutamine, and the rarer S-methylcysteine, didehydro-aspartate and 6-
hydroxytryptophane. The same PTMs are present in both ANME-2d MCRs, with the exception
of 2(*S*)-methylglutamine. Instead, the histidine 159 from the γ chain harbours a methyl group
on its β-carbon in a *S* configuration (i.e., 3(*S*)-methylhistidine). The histidine is highly
conserved and positioned at a distance of 3.5 Å to the F_{430} cofactor, with atom ND1 forming a
hydrogen bond to F_{430}. However, the modified methyl group is distanced at ~5.7 Å and directed
away from the cofactor without disturbing the positioning of surrounding residues
(Supplementary Fig. S14).

Discussion

Anaerobic methanotrophic archaea have a major effect on the global carbon cycle due to their
important role as a biological methane filter. The efficiency of their catabolism could be
employed in microbial-driven technology, as illustrated by ANME-2d producing an electrical
current from methane oxidation when grown on electrodes(11) or methane sink in
wastewater(34). Therefore, efforts are carried by the scientific community to decipher their

metabolisms and find out why some MCRs are specialized into methane capture rather than
generation. Here, by directly exploiting microbial consortia, we isolated and structurally
characterised the catabolic enzymes from ANME representatives, expanding the available pool
of methanotrophic MCR structural models from one to four, and offering prospect in the
mechanistic of methane activation.

Compared to active MCR retrieved from hydrogenotrophic methanogens, it is currently not
feasible to obtain reactivated ANME enzymes. Still, our structural insights showed that
compared to the ECR system from *Ca.* E. thermophilum (belonging to a sister group of ANME-
2d), no specific gas channels connecting the core of the enzyme to its surface could be
detectable by Kr pressurization. This confirms that while the enzyme closure upon
heterodisulfide binding still allows ethane diffusion in ECR, the methane specialized enzyme
should first trapped methane in the catalytic chamber(16), a mechanistic that should be shared
among ANME MCRs.

Structural differences exist between MCR from ANME-2 and ANME-1 isolated from Black
Sea mats that are more likely linked to taxonomy than to adaptation to ecological niches, as
illustrated by the MCRs from freshwater and marine anaerobic methanotrophic archaea
investigated in this study. Based on proposed evolutionary scenario supporting that
methanotrophy in ANME-1 originates from alkanotrophy, while it rather evolved from
methanogenesis in *Methanosarcinales* (e.g., ANME-2)(35), the perceived structural
organization of MCR from both clades are most likely a result of convergent evolution rather
than sharing the same evolutionary basis. Behind the differences in cofactors (e.g., methylthio-
F_{430} versus classic F_{430}) and structural particularities (e.g., presence or absence of a cysteine-
rich path), the PTM gallery are divergent (Supplementary Fig. S13) except from three structural
positions that seem to be of importance for methanotrophy: the conserved N^1-methylhistidine
and thioglycine, and the 5(*S*)-methylarginine in ANME-2/methanogens compensated by S-
oxymethionine/7-hydroxy-L-tryptophan in ANME-1.

With seven PTMs, ANME-2 MCRs gather the most complete repertoire of modifications
reported across methanogens, which is contrasting with its closest structural relative, *M.
shengliensis*(36) belonging to the same order, harbouring the most reduced gallery with three
PTMs. A rational explanation for the extravagant large number of PTMs would be the kinetic
limitation of methane activation compared to methane release reaction. Indeed, when
considering the appK_m value of ≈10 mM obtained from the MCR isoform I of

Methanothermobacter marburgensis, then the catalytic rates of ANME MCRs would be
restricted under physiological conditions where methane would be lower than the mM. If, as
postulated by other groups(22, 23), PTMs stabilise the active site and ligands, it might be
beneficial for the microbe to invest in equipping its core catabolic machinery to enhance, even
slightly, its kinetic properties (i.e., by further decreasing the appK_m). Further studies of other
ANME MCRs will be necessary to observe a correlation between the increased PTM amount
and methanotrophy. On the same line, future studies could investigate how common the 3(*S*)-
methylhistidine is and if it exists in other *Methanosarcinales*. To our knowledge, this is the
first report of a 3(*S*)-methylhistidine in a natural protein and the first PTM identified on the γ-
chain of any characterised MCR. While the methylation occurs on a residue coordinating the
F_{430} cofactor, it appears to have no immediate effect on the surrounding active site, raising
questions about its role, in line with the so far mostly unresolved functions of the majority of
PTMs observed in MCRs(16, 24). However, since all crystallographic structures are mere
snapshots of a single state, we cannot exclude a role during catalysis or enzyme assembly.
Located on a loop at the surface of the γ-subunit, the 3(*S*)-methylhistidine could be installed
before the oligomeric assembly by a dedicated methyl-transferase. Due to the low
nucleophilicity of the β-carbon, the reaction should occur similarly to the installation of a
methylarginine (installed by the Mmp10 methyltransferase(23)) or methylglutamine rather
than the N^1-methylhistidine in which an S-adenosylmethionine dependent methyltransferase
would substitute a hydrogen of the imidazole ring nitrogen with a methyl group. ANME-2d
encodes an Mmp10 homolog upstream of the MCR operon that could potentially fill the role.

The sub-atomic resolution datasets, detailing the active site, cofactor, and coenzymes to
unprecedented levels, represent an important step for future studies in understanding the
molecular mechanisms of methane activation. For instance, assigning protonation states of
active site residues accessible by Neutron diffraction would be an important asset. Moreover,
with its high yield/high purity, rapid micro-crystal formation and excellent diffraction quality,
MCR of ANME-2d$^{O/V}$ are well suited for time-resolved crystallography.

By delivering these accurate models, our work emphasises the need to understand how the
native systems operate through an unbiased approach. Highlighting which type of cofactor
should be inserted or which PTMs would be appropriate to install would guide the design of
efficient heterologous methane capture systems for mitigating greenhouse gas emissions and
moving towards a zero-carbon emission society.

Material and Methods

Biomass acquisition and microbial enrichments.

ANME-2c cultivation: Sediment was sampled by multicore at Amon Mud Volcano, Nile deep-sea fan, Mediterranean Sea at 032° 21.70 N, 031° 23.40 E at a water depth of 1,120 m and 14 °C with the research vessel RV L'Atalante NAUTINIL cruise in 2003. Onboard samples were transferred into gas-tight bottles. In the home laboratory, sediment slurries were set up with a synthetic marine sulfate reducer medium at pH 7.4 (Widdel and Bak, 1992[37]) and methane headspace at 20 °C. Incubated slurries showed methane-dependent sulfate reduction within a few days. To remove sediment debris, cultures were continuously incubated with methane as the sole electron donor and sulfate as the electron acceptor. The activity-based doubling time for both cultures, monitored by sulfide measurements, was about 4-6 months. Consecutive dilution and further incubation resulted in debris-free cultures of detached flocks essentially composed of AOM-performing methane-oxidizing archaea and sulfate-reducing bacteria consortia. For more detailed cultivation methods, see Laso-Pérez *et al*., 2018[38].

ANME-2d^O bioreactor cultivation from Ooijpolder sample: Granular biomass was obtained from a highly enriched bioreactor culture[30]. The culture was maintained in an anaerobic 15 L sequencing fed-batch reactor (30 °C, pH 7.3 ± 0.1 controlled with $KHCO_3$, stirred at 200 rpm, with a working volume between 8 and 11 L). The reactor was continuously sparged with 15 mL.min^{-1} CH_4/CO_2 (95:5) and fed with medium (flow rate 2-2.5 L.day^{-1}), as described in Kurth *et al.* 2019[28]. Medium contains nitrate (15-25 mM) with an adaptation of the KH_2PO_4 concentration to 0.05 g.L^{-1}. Once a day, the biomass settled for 5 min, after which the excess liquid in the reactor was pumped off to a volume of 8 L. Metagenome data from the time of sampling showed a read-based relative abundance of 20 – 40 % '*Ca*. Methanoperedens'[29], with as main strain '*Ca*. Methanoperedens BLZ2'[30] and nearly 50 different bacterial species[28].

ANME-2d^V bioreactor cultivation from Vercelli rice fields sample: Granular biomass was obtained from a freshwater N-DAMO bioreactor enrichment culture first described by Vaksmaa *et al.* 2017[14]. The culture was maintained in an anaerobic 15 L sequencing-fed batch reactor (room temperature, pH 7.3 ± 0.1 controlled with $KHCO_3$, stirred at 200 rpm) with a working volume between 8 and 11 L. The reactor was continuously sparged with 10 mL.min^{-1} CH_4/CO_2 (95:5) and fed with medium (flow rate 1.5-2 L.day^{-1}) containing sodium nitrate (5-8

mM). Once a day, the biomass settled for 5 min, after which the excess liquid in the reactor
was pumped off to a volume of 8 L.

The medium contained 0.07 g.L^{-1} MgSO$_4$.7H$_2$O, 0.1 g.L^{-1} CaCl$_2$.2H$_2$O, 0.05 g.L^{-1} K$_2$HPO$_4$,
0.5 mL.L^{-1} of trace element solution, 0.3 mL iron solution (54 g.L^{-1} FeCl$_3$.6H$_2$O and 114.6
g.L^{-1} nitrilotriacetic acid), and 0.1 mL.L^{-1} of Wolin's vitamin solution (DSMZ 141). The trace
element solution contained per liter: 0.12 g CeCl$_3$.7H$_2$O, 0.6 g CoCl$_2$.6H$_2$O, 4.0 g CuSO$_4$, 0.07
g H$_3$BO$_3$, 1.0 g MnCl$_2$.4H$_2$O, 0.35 g Na$_3$MoO$_4$.2H$_2$O, 0.1 g Na2WO$_4$.2H$_2$O, 0.95 g
NiCl$_2$.6H$_2$O, 0.14 g SeO$_2$, 1.44 g ZnSO$_4$.7H$_2$O.

Metagenome sequencing

<u>ANME-2c:</u> The metagenomic reads were assembled using SPAdes v. 4.0.0 with default
parameters (39). We performed automatic binning with the software SemiBin (v. 2.1.0) on the
de novo assembly using the *single_easy_bin* pipeline(40). We obtained three bins affiliated
with ANME-2 according to GTDB (v. 2.1.1) classification (41). We annotated them using
prokka v. 1.14.6(42), and extracted the corresponding MCR proteins.

<u>ANME-2d:</u> Genomes were retrieved from GTDB-Tk v2.4.0 for ANME-2D^O, '*Ca.*
Methanoperedens sp.' BLZ2 under accession number GCA_002487355.1 and ANME-2D^V,
'*Ca.* Methanoperedens' Vercelli Strain 1 under accession number GCA_905339155.1.

MCR sequences from '*Ca.* Methanoperedens sp.' BLZ2 correspond to WP_097300250.1,
WP_097300253.1, and WP_097300251.1 for the α, β, and γ subunits, respectively. MCR
sequences from '*Ca.* Methanoperedens' Vercelli Strain 1 correspond to MCX9030096.1,
MCX9030093.1, and MCX9030095.1, for the α, β, and γ subunits, respectively.

DNA extraction and sequencing of ANME-2d^O and ANME-2d^V were performed as described
in Wissink et al. 2024(29). Microbial taxonomic profiles of ANME enrichments were
determined using SingleM(43) against the GTDB-Tk database version 2.4.0. Read quality was
assessed using FASTQC v0.11.9. The ANME-2c sample consisted of 83 million reads of 150
bp, which resulted in a 2367× profile coverage, while the ANME-2d^O and ANME-2d^V samples
consisted of 6.6 and 5.5 million reads of 300 bp, respectively, resulting in 572× and 574×
profile coverage.

Sample treatment and lysis

<u>ANME-2c:</u> Two anaerobic 150 mL AOM enrichment cultures were used as starting material.

Particles were settled overnight at RT, followed by the removal of ~130 mL of clear

supernatant. H_2S in the culture headspace was replaced with N_2 gas before transfer to an

anaerobic chamber. Cell lysis and preparation of extracts were performed in a N_2/CO_2

atmosphere (90:10 %) at 31 °C. Both samples were pooled and centrifuged at $8,000 \times g$ for 5

min. The supernatant was carefully removed, resulting in a pellet of ~ 3.21 g (wet weight). The

aggregates were resuspended in 30 mL IEC-A buffer (50 mM Tricine/NaOH pH 8 and 2 mM

dithiothreitol (DTT)) and lysed via two rounds of sonication interceded with a French Press

treatment at 1,000 PSI (6.895 MPa). The French press cell was flushed with N_2 gas before use

to ensure anoxic conditions. Unfortunately, 7.5 mL of the lysed sample was lost in the airlock

due to an accidental break of the serum flask. The leftover total extract was then diluted to 60

mL with IEC-A, followed by centrifugation at $45,000 \times g$ for 30 min at 18 °C. 100 µL was

withdrawn at each step for SDS-PAGE analysis (Supplementary Fig. S2).

<u>ANME-2d^O:</u> Frozen biomass containing 'Ca. Methanoperedens' BLZ2 (17.5 g of cells) was

transferred to an anaerobic chamber containing an N_2/CO_2 atmosphere (90:10 %) and

resuspended in 3x30 mL buffer IEC-A. Cells were first lysed via two rounds of sonication

(SONOPULSE Brandelin, 75 % power, 30 sec, 1st round: 4 cycles, 2nd round: 3 cycles)

interceded with a French Press treatment at 1,000 PSI (6.895 MPa). The French press cell was

previously flushed with N_2 to ensure anoxic conditions. After the second round of sonication,

the sample was centrifuged at $45,000 \times g$ for 30 min at 18 °C. The supernatant was collected

and subjected to ultracentrifugation at $100,000 \times g$ for 1.5 hours at 4 °C (rotor used: 70Ti,

Beckman Coulter). 100 µL of the total cell extract and soluble fraction were withdrawn for the

Bradford assay and SDS-PAGE.

<u>ANME-2d^V:</u> 12.47 g of frozen biomass was resuspended in 60 mL buffer IEC-A. Cells were

processed the same way as ANME-2d^O except for the following variation. The supernatant

from ultracentrifugation was sonicated for 4 extra cycles, and 40 mL of filtered supernatant

was obtained before injection on the HiTrap Q HP column.

MCR purification

<u>ANME-2c:</u> Protein purification was performed under anoxic conditions in an anaerobic Coy

tent with an N_2/H_2 atmosphere (97:3 %) at 20 °C under yellow light. Before every injection

onto a chromatography column, the sample was filtered using a 0.2 µm nitrocellulose filter

(Sartorius, Germany). Proteins were tracked via multi-wavelength absorbance monitoring (λ

280, 415 and 550 nm) in combination with SDS-PAGE. The 60 mL of filtered soluble extract (20.7 mg protein) was loaded on a 1 mL HiTrap Q HP column equilibrated with IEC-A. The proteins were eluted with a two-step protocol, reaching 0.5 M and then 1 M at a flow rate of 0.7 mL.min^{-1}. MCR was eluted at 0.5 M NaCl, and the pool (~13 mL) was diluted ~1:4 (protein sample: buffer) with IEC-A buffer. The filtered sample was loaded on a 0.982 mL MonoQ column. The elution was performed at a gradient of 100 to 700 mM NaCl at 0.5 mL.min^{-1}. The pooled MCR fractions were diluted ~1:4 (protein sample: buffer) with HIC-B buffer (25 mM Tricine/NaOH pH 7.6, 2 M (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$, and 2 mM DTT). The pool was filtered and passed on a 1.622 mL Source15ϕ column. Proteins were eluted by applying a gradient of 1.5 to 0 M (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$ at 0.6 mL.min^{-1}. The final MCR pool was washed by dilution (1:1000) with storage buffer (25 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.6, 10 % v/v glycerol, and 2 mM DTT) using a 30 kDa cut-off concentrator to remove salts. Finally, the sample was concentrated to 200 µL. The protein concentration estimated via the Bradford method was 24.6 mg.mL^{-1}. Purification with three chromatography steps yielded a pure MCR fraction displaying the typical three-subunit pattern on SDS-PAGE with molecular weights of ~65, 39, and 34 kDa (Supplementary Fig. S2).

ANME-2d^O: Purification was performed under the previously described conditions, and fractions of interest were followed at λ 280. The soluble extract (90 mL at 7.82 mg.mL^{-1}) could not be filtered due to the large particulate size and was directly injected into the 10 mL HiTrap Q HP column pre-equilibrated with IEC-A buffer. After washing the column, the elution was performed with a gradient of 0 to 650 mM NaCl for 10 column volumes (CV) at a 2 mL.min^{-1} flow rate. The pool of interest was diluted 1:1 with HIC-B buffer, filtered, and loaded on the 1.622 mL Source 15ϕ column. A gradient from 80 % to 0 % (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$ for 10 CV at a 1.5 mL.min^{-1} flow rate was applied. The final MCR fractions were pooled and concentrated on a Vivaspin centrifugation concentrator with a cut-off of 30 kDa. The buffer was exchanged by ultrafiltration for the storage buffer (25 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0, 10% v/v glycerol, 2 mM DTT, and 100 mM NaCl) containing NaCl to prevent the spontaneous formation of microcrystals. Around 2 mL of purified MCR were recovered at 57 mg.mL^{-1}, aliquoted into 50 µL, and stored at 4 and −80 °C.

ANME-2d^V: Purification was performed under the previously described conditions, and fractions of interest were followed at λ 280. The filtered soluble extract (40 mL) was injected into the 10 mL HiTrap Q HP column pre-equilibrated with IEC-A buffer. After washing the column, the elution was performed with a gradient of 0 to 650 mM NaCl for 16 column volumes (CV) at a 2 mL.min^{-1} flow rate. The pool of interest was diluted 1:2 (protein sample: buffer)

425 with HIC-B buffer, filtered, and loaded on a 5 ml HP Phenyl Sepharose column. A gradient

426 from 1.3 M to 0 M of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ for 12 CV at a 1.0 mL.min^{-1} flow rate was applied. The final

427 MCR fractions were pooled and concentrated on a Vivaspin centrifugation concentrator with a

428 cut-off of 30 kDa. Ultrafiltration exchanged the buffer for storage buffer. Around 0.35 mL of

429 purified MCR were recovered at 40 mg.mL^{-1} and stored at 4 and -80 °C.

UV-visible spectrophotometry

431 UV-visible absorption spectra were recorded with a Cary 60 (Agilent Technologies)

432 spectrophotometer on a TrayCell with a 1 mm path.

Phylogeny analyses

We concatenated the three MCR subunits from each MAG and used them to calculate a

phylogenetic tree, including the sequences of the crystallised MCRs from ANME-2c and

ANME-2d of this manuscript and the sequences of previously crystallised MCRs. The

concatenated MCR sequences were aligned using MUSCLE v3.8.1551(44). The aligned

concatenated sequences were used to calculate a phylogenetic tree with RAxML v.8.2.12(45)

using a partition file to calculate differential models for each gene and the following parameters

'-m PROTGAMMAAUTO -f a -N autoMRE -k'.

Crystallisation

ANME-2c: The fresh preparation of MCR was immediately crystallised. Crystals were

obtained using the sitting drop method on 96-Well MRC 2-Drop Crystallization Plates in

polystyrene (SWISSCI, Switzerland), containing 90 µL of crystallisation solution in the

reservoir: 0.5 µL protein sample with 0.5 µL crystallisation solution were spotted. The

crystallisation was performed under anaerobic conditions via an OryxNano (Douglas

Instrument, UK) at 18 °C in a tent filled with 100 % N_2. Then, plates were transferred in a Coy

tent (N_2/H_2 atmosphere 97:3 %) at 20 °C. Crystals were formed following the first 24 hours.

The most successful condition (30 % v/v 2-Methyl-2,4-pentanediol, 100 mM Tris pH 8, 500

mM NaCl and 8 % w/v Polyethylene glycol 8,000) was replicated on a Junior Clover plate

(Jena Bioscience, Germany) under oxic conditions with 90 µL of the crystallisation solution in

the reservoir and 2 µL protein sample with 2 µL crystallisation solution in the well. Crystals

with yellow square or rectangular morphology appeared over the next two weeks.

<u>ANME-2d^O</u>: Following an initial screening on a 96-well MRC 2-Drop Crystallization Plates in
polystyrene done oxically at 18 °C, MCR crystals were reproduced using the sitting drop
method on the Junior Clover plate. The best crystals were obtained with a reservoir filled with
100 µL of the following crystallisation condition: 20 % w/v polyethylene glycol 3,350, 50 mM
Tris pH 8.0 and 200 mM potassium nitrate and by spotting 5 µL protein at a concentration of
2.19 mg.mL^{-1} with 2 µL crystallisation solution. Thick yellow brick-shaped crystals appeared
within 24-48 hours.

<u>ANME-2d^V</u>: Following an initial screening on a 96-well MRC 2-Drop Crystallization Plates in
polystyrene done oxically at 18 °C, MCR crystals were reproduced using the sitting drop
method on the Junior Clover plate. Here, the reservoir was filled with 100 µl of 20 % w/v
Polyethylene glycol 3,350 and 200 mM sodium thiocyanate pH 6.9, and the crystallisation well
contained 3 µL protein at a concentration of 40 mg.mL^{-1} with 2 µL mother liquor.

Kr pressurisation

ANME-2c MCR in solution was shipped to the High-Pressure Freezing Laboratory for
Macromolecular Crystallography (HPMX)(46) of the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility
(ESRF). The best crystallisation hit was repeated, and the crystals obtained were used for the
Krypton-pressurization experiment. Here, crystals were pressurised at 214 bars Krypton for 2
min before flash freezing in liquid nitrogen. X-ray crystallographic data were collected on
ID23-1 at 14.4 KeV, close to the Krypton fluorescence K-edge.

X-ray data collection, processing, modelling and validation.

MCR crystals were soaked in the crystallisation solution supplemented with 20 % v/v glycerol
for ANME-2d^O and 20 % v/v ethylene glycol for ANME-2d^V for 5-10 seconds before being
transferred to liquid nitrogen.

X-ray diffraction for ANME-2c crystals was collected at SOLEIL (Optimized Light Source of
Intermediate Energy to LURE) synchrotron, Saint-Aubin, France, at the beamline PROXIMA-
1. Crystals for both ANME-2d were collected at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility
(ESRF), Grenoble, France, on the beamline BM07-FIP2.

The datasets were processed and scaled with *autoPROC* (Version 1.0.5, Global Phasing
Limited, Cambridge, UK)(47), except for the Krypton gassed sample that was integrated with
XDS and scaled with aimless from the CCP4 package. The structures were solved by molecular
replacement with *PHASER* from the *PHENIX* package (Version 1.19.2-4158)(48). For

molecular replacement, we used an AlphaFold 2(49) model based on the metagenome derived amino acid sequence for MCR of ANME-2c, then the ANME-2c MCR model for ANME-2d^O MCR and finally, the ANME-2d^O MCR model was used for molecular replacement for ANME-2d^V MCR.

All models were then refined with *COOT* (Version 0.8.9.2)(50) and *PHENIX* refine. Because of the high resolution, all atoms were considered anisotropic (except for the Krypton-pressured structure), and hydrogens in riding mode were added. Since only anomalous data were interesting for the Krypton-gassed crystal, a rigid body, followed by three cycles of *PHENIX* refine, was performed to generate Fig. 3c and Supplementary Fig. S11. The models were validated by the MolProbity server (http://molprobity.biochem.duke.edu). Figures of MCR structures were generated with PyMOL (V. 2.2.0, Schrödinger, LLC). Sequence alignments were generated with MAFFT 7(51) and visualised with ESPript 3.0(52). All models from Table 1 have only hydrogens modelled on the protein (*e.g.*, not on ligands and solvents). Internal channels connecting the active site to the surface were generated by Caver(53).

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Author contributions

Enrichment of ANME-2c was done by G.W., enrichments of ANME-2d were done by M.W. and C.W. Treatment of metagenomic data for ANME-2c and ANME-2d was done by R.L. and M.W., respectively. Purification and crystallisation of ANME-2c MCR were performed by M.-

C.M. and N.v.P, purification and crystallisation of ANME-2d^O MCR was done by P.M. and M.W., purification and crystallisation of ANME-2d^V were done by M.W. and T.W., data collection was done by S.E, and T.W. X-ray data processing, model refinement and analysis were done by M.-C.M. *in cristallo* spectrophotometry and Kr pressurisation were done by S.E. and P.C. The manuscript was written by M.-C.M. and T.W. Manuscript edition and correction was done by all authors.

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ANME-2d^V   **ANME-2d^O**   **ANME-2c**

Figure 1. Comparison of the ANME-2 samples investigated in this study and procedure
of protein isolation by native purification and crystallisation. Images of the bioreactor and
flasks containing the respective freshwater and marine ANME-2 are presented. Close-ups of
granular biomass of ANME-2d reducing NO_3^- and fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation labelled
micrographs of the marine methanotrophic consortium (red for the archaeon and green for the
sulfate-reducing partner, using specific probes) are shown. Biological samples were used to
purify the major MCR fraction, as shown on the SDS-PAGE gel at the bottom of the figure.
For ANME-2c, the sample passed on SDS-PAGE corresponds to dissolved crystals, and a
picture of the purification procedure can be examined in Supplementary Fig. S2. L stands for
ladder.

Figure 2. Comparison of ANME-2 MCR structures with previously structurally characterised MCRs. Superposition of the α-, β-, and γ-subunits of MCR. The panels on the right are close-ups of structural deviations. In each panel, the corresponding chain is coloured, while the remaining chains are shown (greyed out) for ANME-2d^V. MCR structures are coloured according to the microorganism, with *M. marburgensis* (PDB code: 5A0Y) in light blue, *M. shengliensis* (7NKG) in deep blue, ANME-1 from Black Sea mats (3SQG) in cyan, *Ca.* E. thermophilum ECR (7I1BS) in marine, ANME-2c in dark green, ANME-2d^O in green and ANME-2d^V in light green. N- and C-termini are shown as spheres and ligands as sticks.

Figure 3. ANME-2 MCR active sites. Stereo-view of the MCR active site in (**a**) ANME-2c
and (**b**) ANME-2d^v. Coordinating residues are shown as lines, and non-interacting side- or
main chains were omitted. Polar contacts are depicted as black dashes. (**c**) Anomalous map for
Krypton position shown as pink surfaces and contoured at 5 σ. Xenon position from *Ca*. E.
thermophilum are teal spheres. Proteins are in cartoons, and ligands are shown as sticks
coloured according to atom (red for O, blue for N, orange for P, yellow for S).

Figure 4. ANME-2 MCR post-translational modifications. PTMs in the active site of (**a**) ANME-2c and (**b**) ANME-2d^V. The main chain is shown as a cartoon, with ligands and PTMs shown as sticks coloured according to atom (red for O, blue for N, orange for P, yellow for S). Close-ups of PTMs flank the central picture, highlighting electron densities. The $2F_o−F_c$ map (grey mesh) is contoured at 1 σ, and the $F_o−F_c$ map (green mesh) is contoured at 3 σ. The latter highlights the experimental hydrogen positions. The 3(*S*)-methylhistidine is on the γ-chain.

707 **Table 1: X-ray analysis statistics for ANME-2 MCR**

	ANME-2c from microbial enrichment	ANME-2c (Kr pressurized)	ANME-2d^O from bioreactor	ANME-2d^V from bioreactor
Data collection				
Synchrotron and beamline	SOLEIL, PROXIMA-1	ESRF, ID23-1	ESRF, BM07-FIP2	ESRF, BM07-FIP2
Wavelength (Å)	0.97856	0.86100	0.97980	0.97930
Space group	$P2_1$	$P2_12_12_1$	$P2_1$	$P2_1$
Resolution (Å)	127.16 – 1.34 (1.50 – 1.34)	59.40 – 1.80 (1.83 – 1.80)	76.67 – 0.98 (1.04 − 0.98)	96.94 – 0.92 (1.04 − 0.92)
Cell dimensions				
a, b, c (Å)	156.87, 157.46, 215.42	153.48, 153.67, 212.88	81.58, 189.30, 84.11	81.64, 189.89, 83.96
α, β, γ (°)	90, 90.34, 90	90, 90, 90	90, 114.27, 90	90, 114.36, 90
R_{merge} (%)[a]	16.8 (167.1)	12.7 (162.3)	11.9 (116.8)	6.8 (96.2)
R_{pim} (%)[a]	7.3 (73.7)	5.1 (64.6)	4.5 (46.8)	2.6 (38.1)
$CC_{1/2}$ [a]	0.991 (0.560)	0.999 (0.768)	0.996 (0.667)	0.998 (0.684)
I/σ_I[a]	6.6 (1.6)	14.1 (1.8)	9.4 (1.7)	13.0 (1.7)
Spherical completeness[a]	66.2 (12.2)	/	84.4 (24.4)	62.6 (10.4)
Ellipsoidal completeness[a]	96.2 (66.6)	100.0 (100.0)	96.5 (70.9)	84.7 (58.5)
Redundancy[a]	6.3 (6.0)	13.8 (14.2)	7.8 (7.1)	7.6 (7.2)
Nr. unique reflections[a]	1,527,343 (76,367)	461,593 (22,707)	1,130,261 (56,513)	988,467 (49,423)
Refinement				
Resolution (Å)	98.93 – 1.34		41.78 – 0.98	41.72 – 0.94
Number of reflections	1,527,209		1,130,120	986,474
R_{work}/R_{free}[b] (%)	11.30/14.81		10.32/11.90	11.21/13.06
Number of atoms				
Protein	152,083		38,640	38,408
Ligands/ions	912		283	289
Solvent	9452		3203	3,075
Mean B-value (Å^2)	15.86		10.40	11.95
Molprobity clash score	1.28		1.42	1.18
Ramachandran plot				
Favoured regions (%)	97.31		97.16	97.08
Outlier regions (%)	0.07		0.08	0.12
rmsd[c] bond lengths (Å)	0.010		0.010	0.010
rmsd[c] bond angles (°)	1.235		1.298	1.321

708 [a] Values relative to the highest resolution shell are within parentheses. [b] Rfree was calculated
709 as the Rwork for 5 % of the reflections that were not included in the refinement. [c] rmsd, root
710 mean square deviation.

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