

## Chapter 10

# Cell Respiration

Lecture Presentations by  
Nicole Tunbridge and  
Kathleen Fitzpatrick

# Life Is Work

- Living cells require energy from outside sources to do work
- The work of the cell includes assembling polymers, membrane transport, moving, and reproducing
- Animals can obtain energy to do this work by feeding on other animals or photosynthetic organisms

Figure 10.1

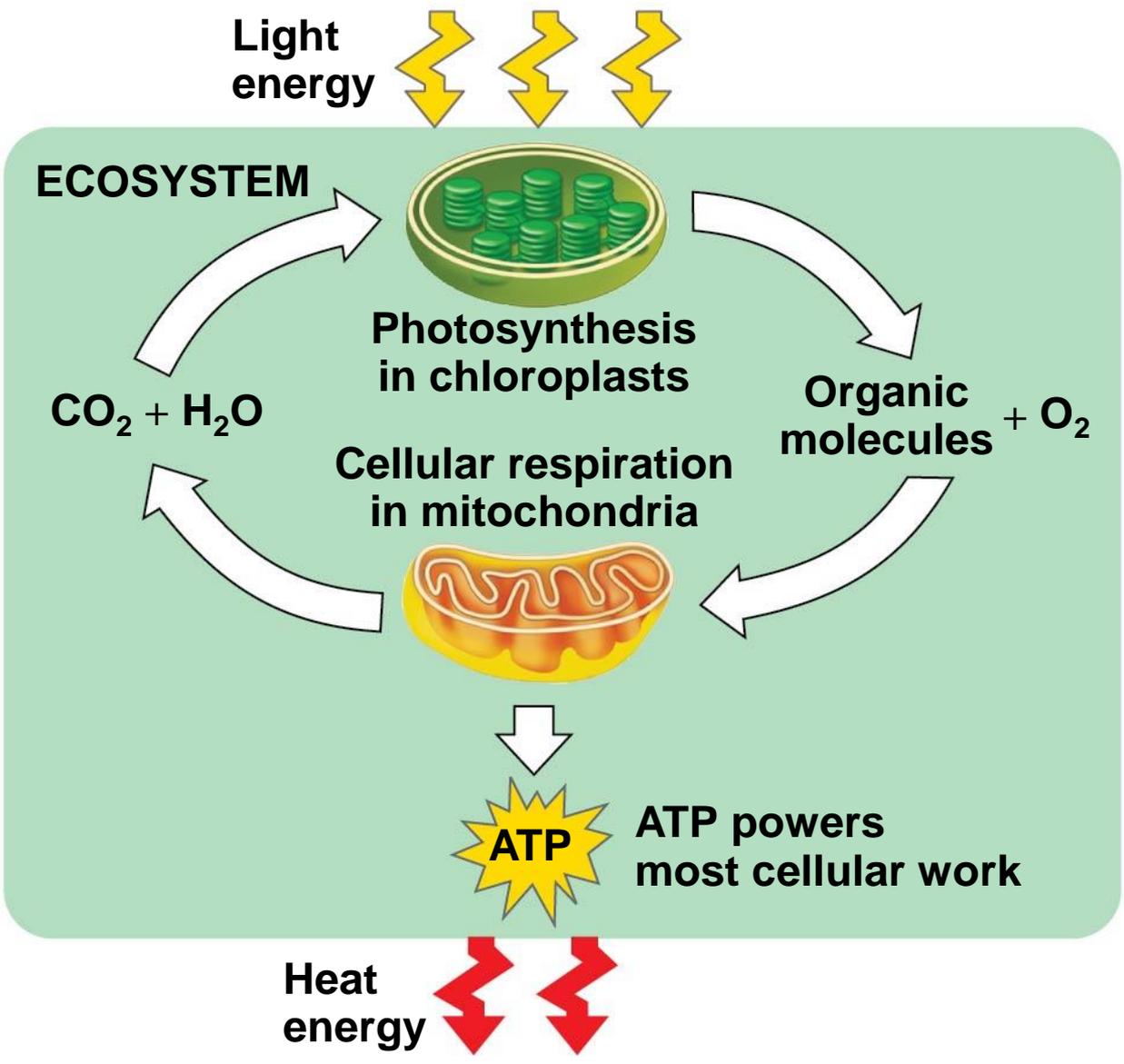


Figure 10.1a



- Energy flows into an ecosystem as sunlight and leaves as heat
- The chemical elements essential to life are recycled
- Photosynthesis generates  $O_2$  and organic molecules, which are used in cellular respiration
- Cells use chemical energy stored in organic molecules to generate ATP, which powers work

Figure 10.2



# BioFlix: The Carbon Cycle



# Concept 10.1: Catabolic pathways yield energy by oxidizing organic fuels

- Catabolic pathways release stored energy by breaking down complex molecules
- Electron transfer plays a major role in these pathways
- These processes are central to cellular respiration

# Catabolic Pathways and Production of ATP

- The breakdown of organic molecules is exergonic
- **Fermentation** is a partial degradation of sugars that occurs without  $O_2$
- **Aerobic respiration** consumes organic molecules and  $O_2$  and yields ATP
- Anaerobic respiration is similar to aerobic respiration but consumes compounds other than  $O_2$

- **Cellular respiration** includes both aerobic and anaerobic respiration but is often used to refer to aerobic respiration
- Although carbohydrates, fats, and proteins are all consumed as fuel, it is helpful to trace cellular respiration with the sugar glucose

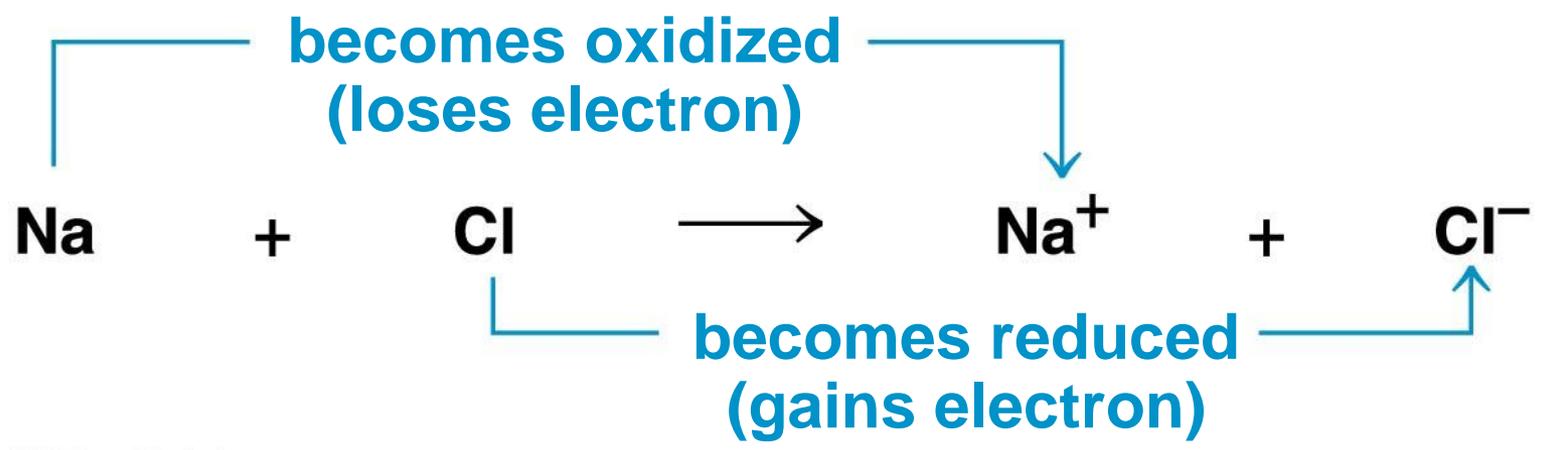


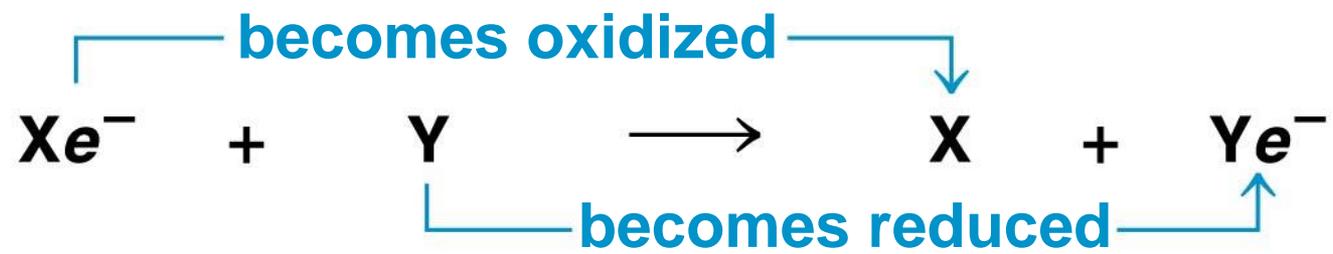
# Redox Reactions: Oxidation and Reduction

- The transfer of electrons during chemical reactions releases energy stored in organic molecules
- This released energy is ultimately used to synthesize ATP

# *The Principle of Redox*

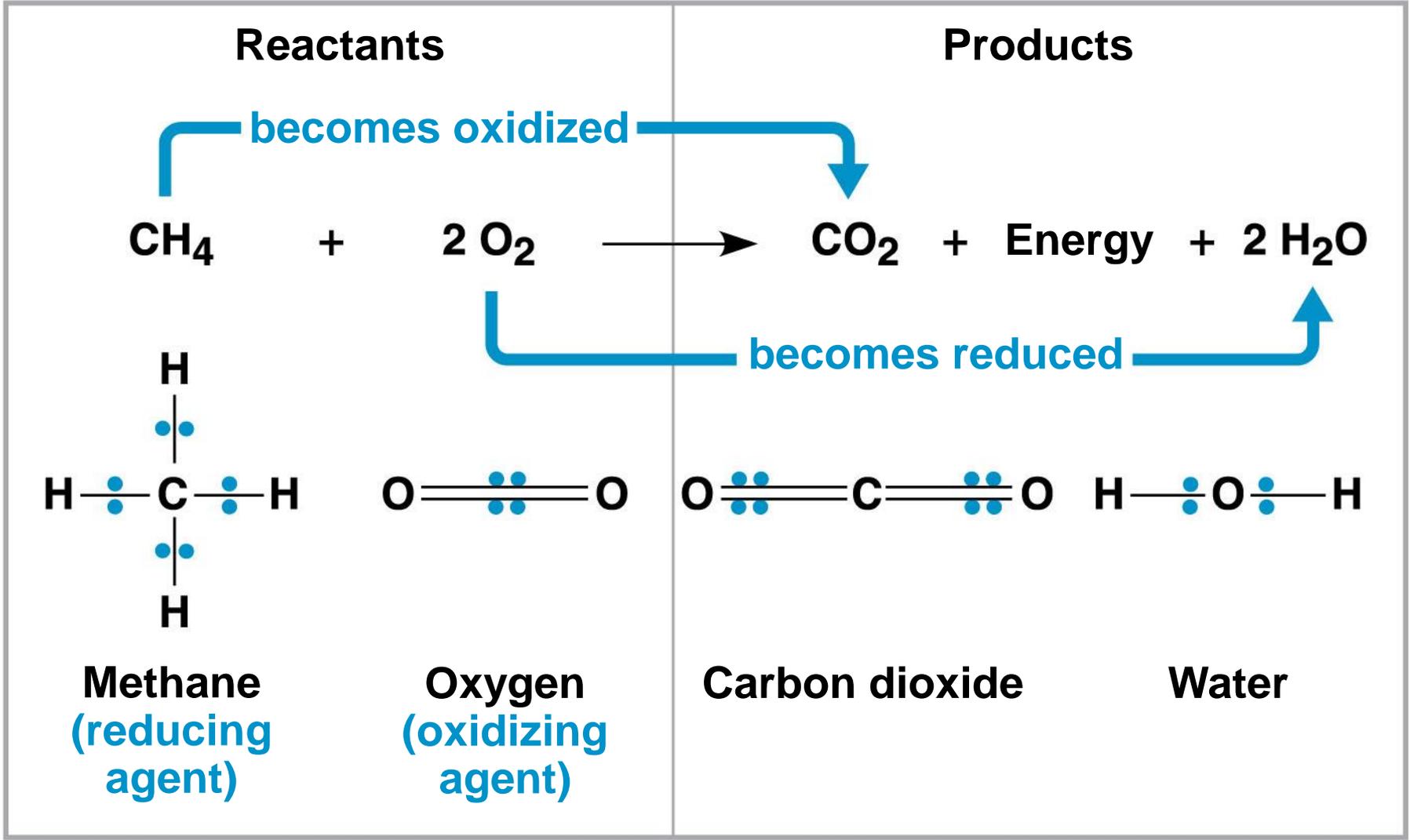
- Chemical reactions that transfer electrons between reactants are called oxidation-reduction reactions, or **redox reactions**
- In **oxidation**, a substance loses electrons, or is oxidized
- In **reduction**, a substance gains electrons, or is reduced (the amount of positive charge is reduced)





- The electron donor is called the **reducing agent**
- The electron receptor is called the **oxidizing agent**
- Some redox reactions do not transfer electrons but change the electron sharing in covalent bonds
- An example is the reaction between methane and  $O_2$

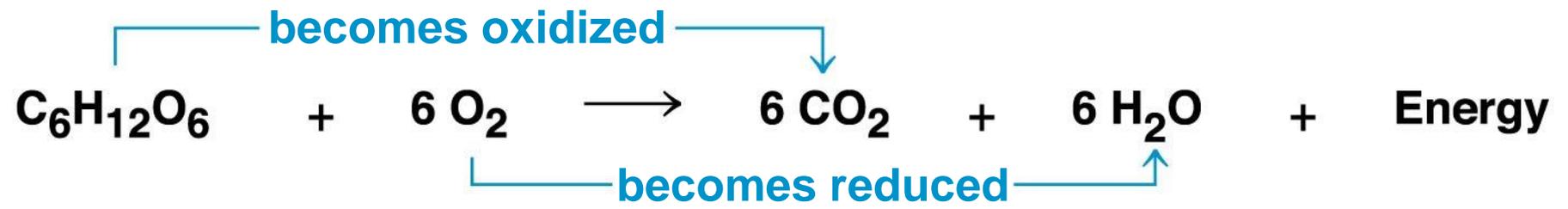
Figure 10.3



# ***Oxidation of Organic Fuel Molecules During Cellular Respiration***

- During cellular respiration, the fuel (such as glucose) is oxidized, and  $O_2$  is reduced
- Organic molecules with an abundance of hydrogen are excellent sources of high-energy electrons
- Energy is released as the electrons associated with hydrogen ions are transferred to oxygen, a lower energy state

Figure 10.UN03



# ***Stepwise Energy Harvest via NAD<sup>+</sup> and the Electron Transport Chain***

- In cellular respiration, glucose and other organic molecules are broken down in a series of steps
- Electrons from organic compounds are usually first transferred to **NAD<sup>+</sup>**, a coenzyme
- As an electron acceptor, NAD<sup>+</sup> functions as an oxidizing agent during cellular respiration
- Each NADH (the reduced form of NAD<sup>+</sup>) represents stored energy that is tapped to synthesize ATP

Figure 10.4

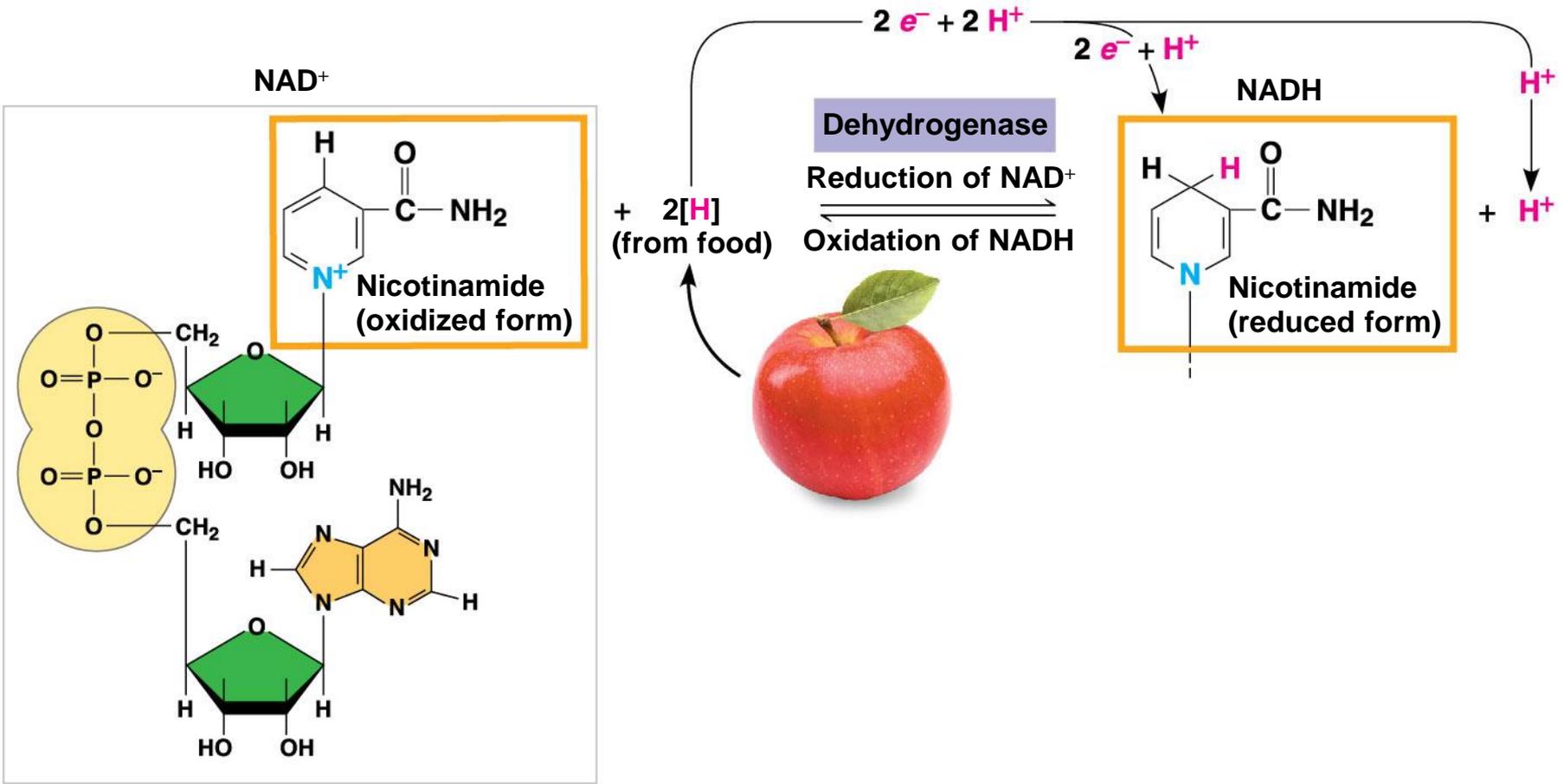


Figure 10.4a

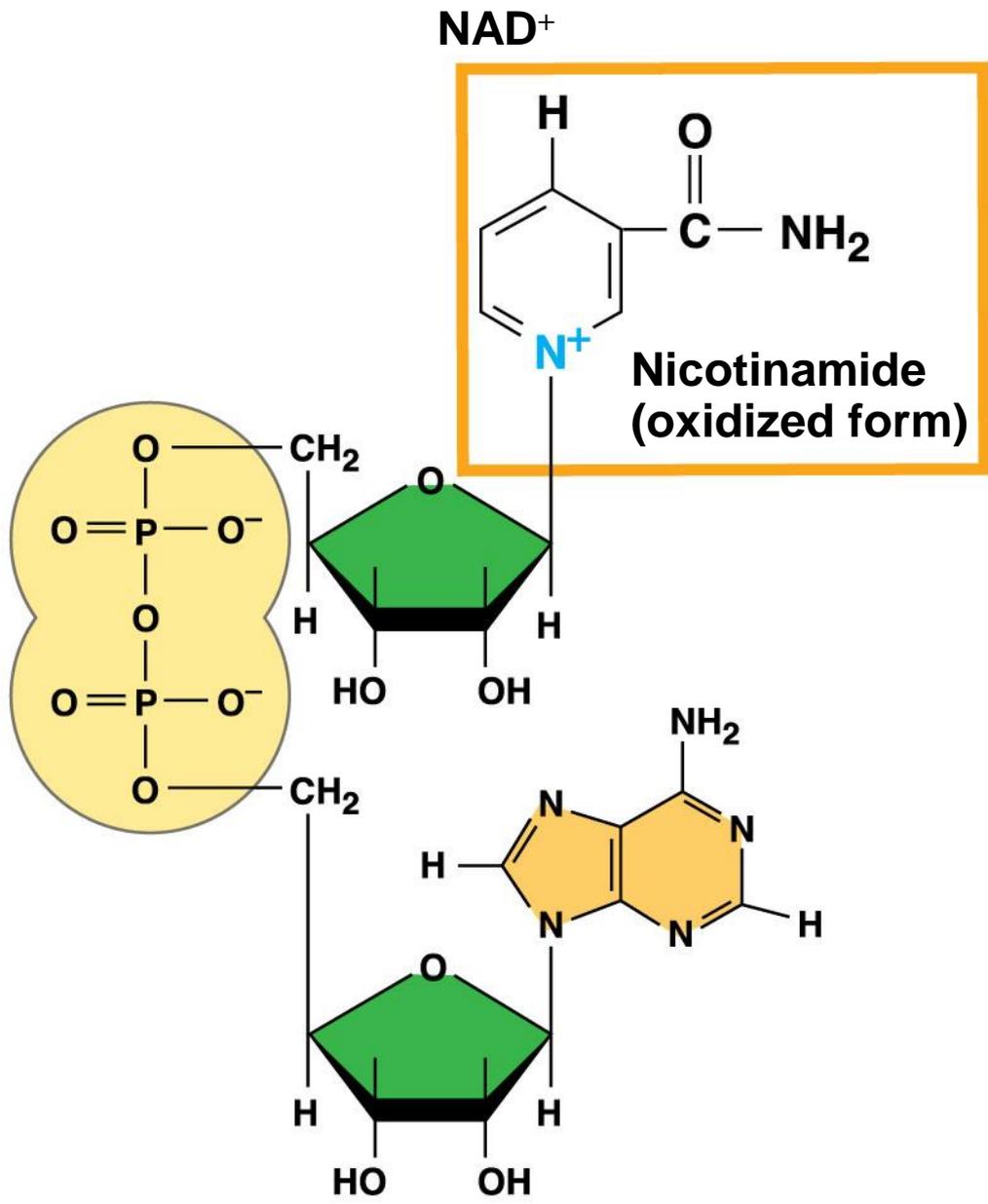
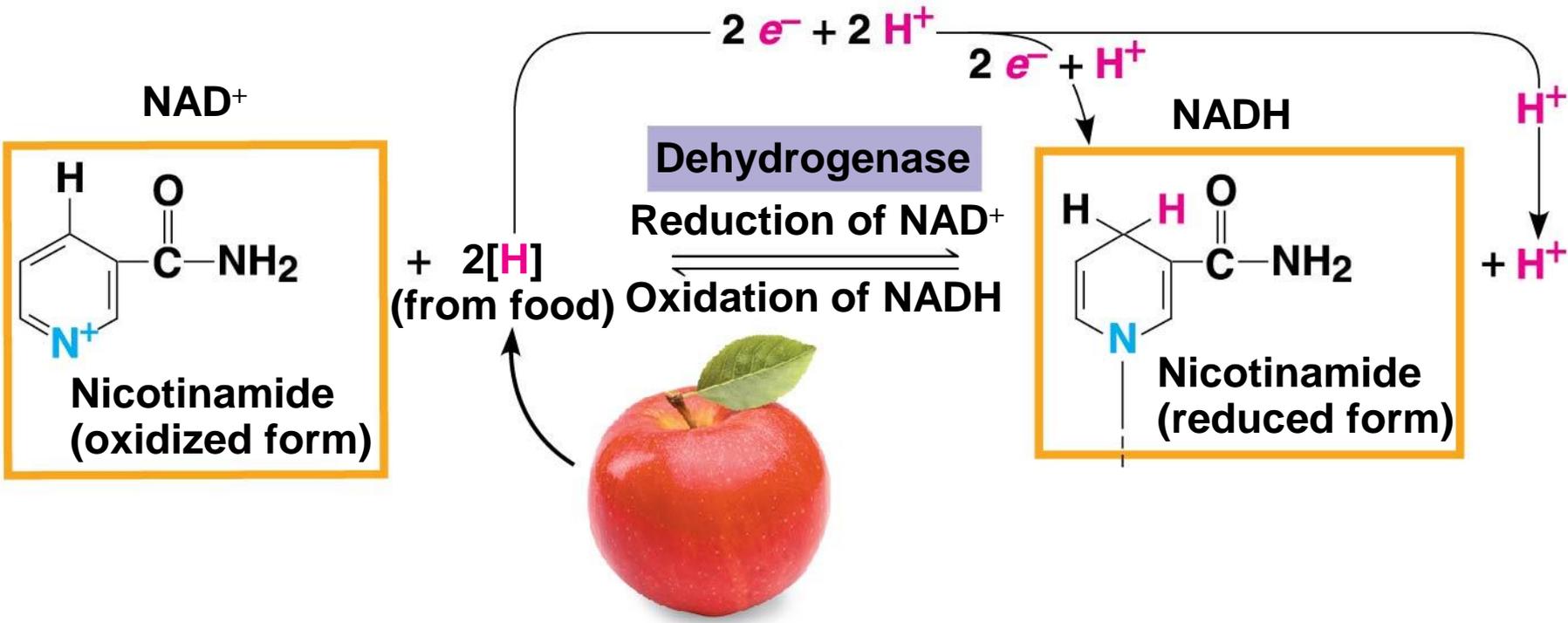


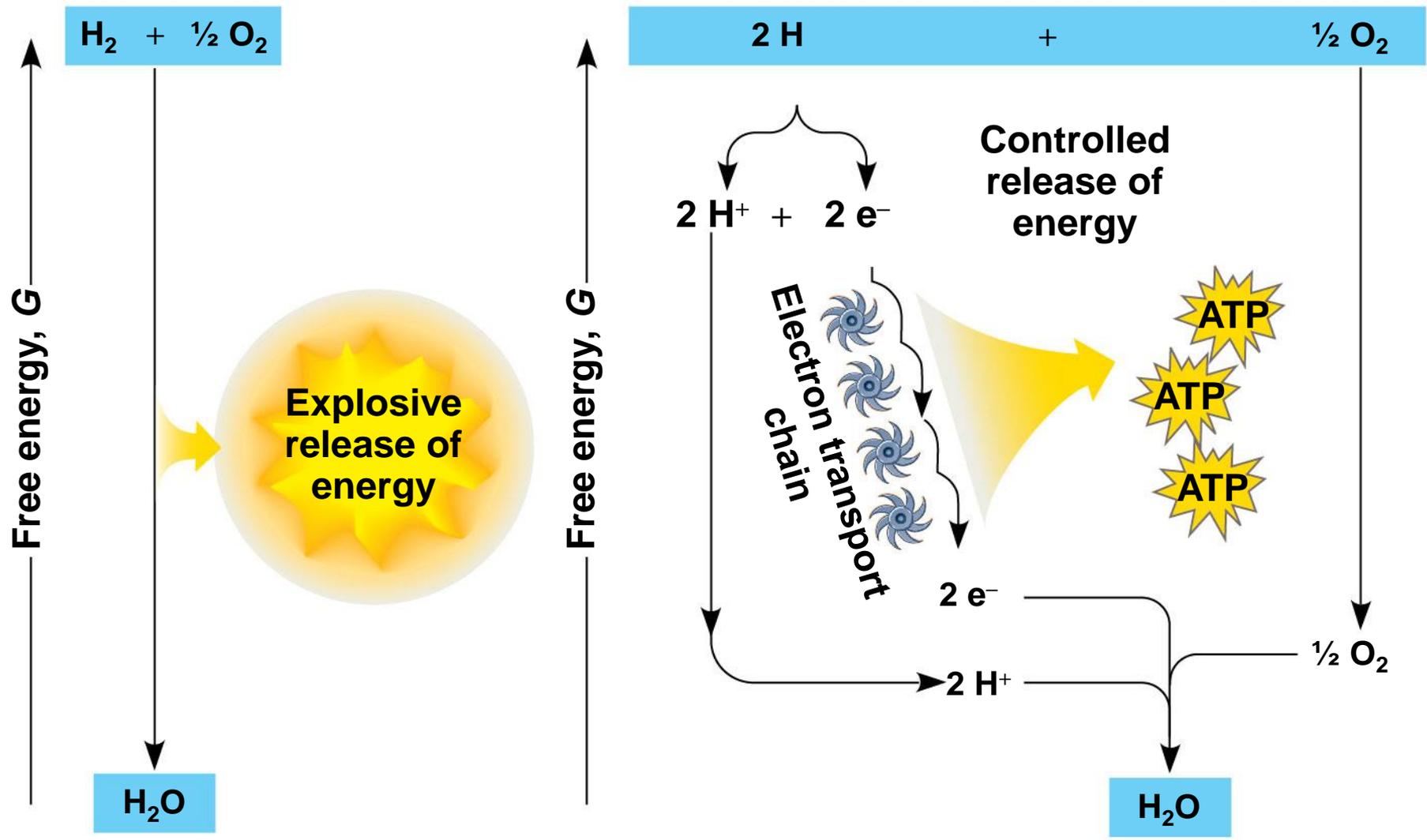
Figure 10.4b





- NADH passes the electrons to the **electron transport chain**
- Unlike an uncontrolled reaction, the electron transport chain passes electrons in a series of steps instead of one explosive reaction
- $O_2$  pulls electrons down the chain in an energy-yielding tumble
- The energy yielded is used to regenerate ATP

Figure 10.5



(a) Uncontrolled reaction

(b) Cellular respiration

# The Stages of Cellular Respiration: *A Preview*

- Harvesting of energy from glucose has three stages
  1. **Glycolysis** (breaks down glucose into two molecules of pyruvate)
  2. The **citric acid cycle** (completes the breakdown of glucose)
  3. **Oxidative phosphorylation** (accounts for most of the ATP synthesis)

- 1. GLYCOLYSIS (color-coded blue throughout the chapter)**
- 2. PYRUVATE OXIDATION and the CITRIC ACID CYCLE (color-coded light orange and dark orange)**
- 3. OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION: Electron transport and chemiosmosis (color-coded purple)**

Figure 10.6\_1

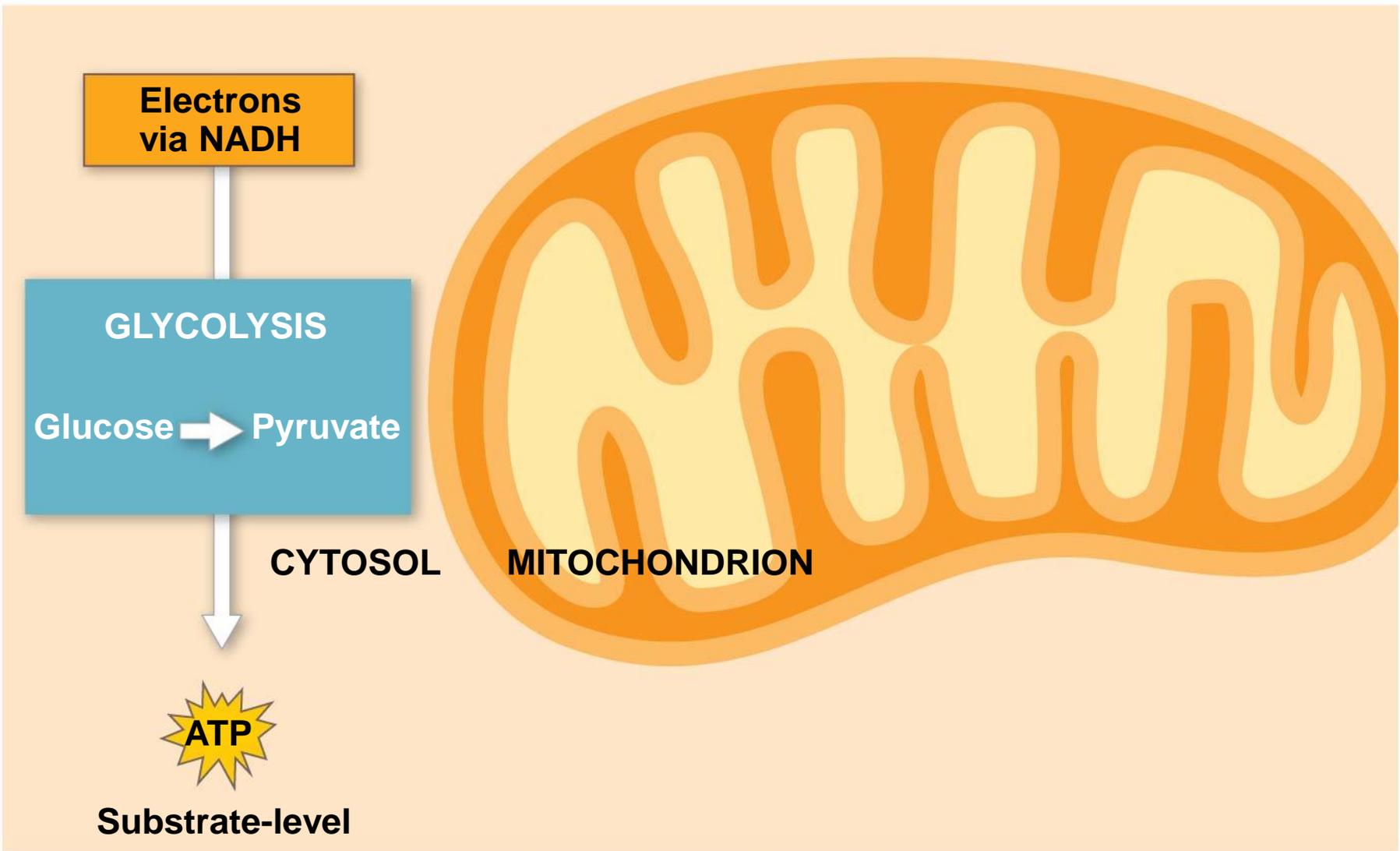


Figure 10.6\_2

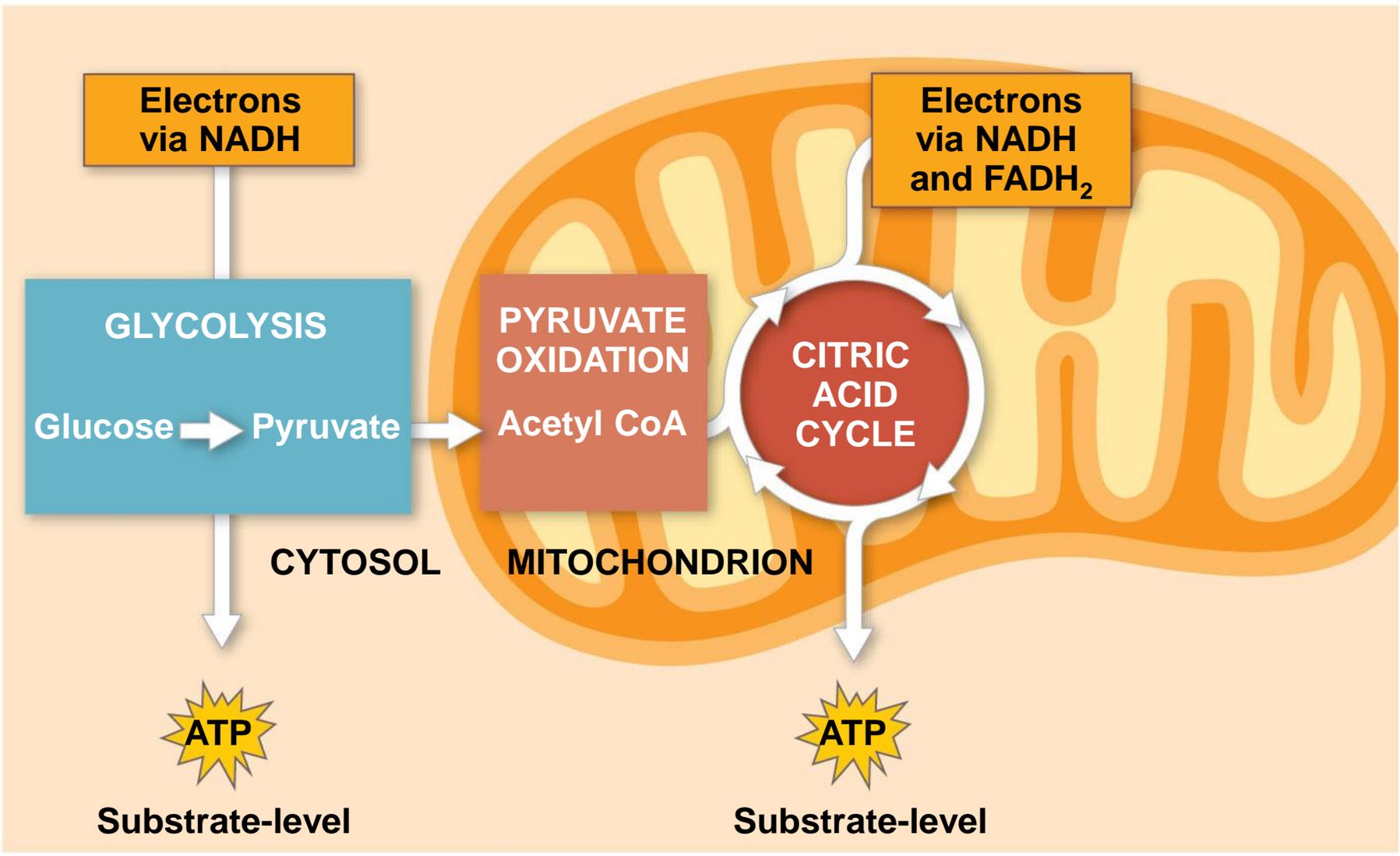
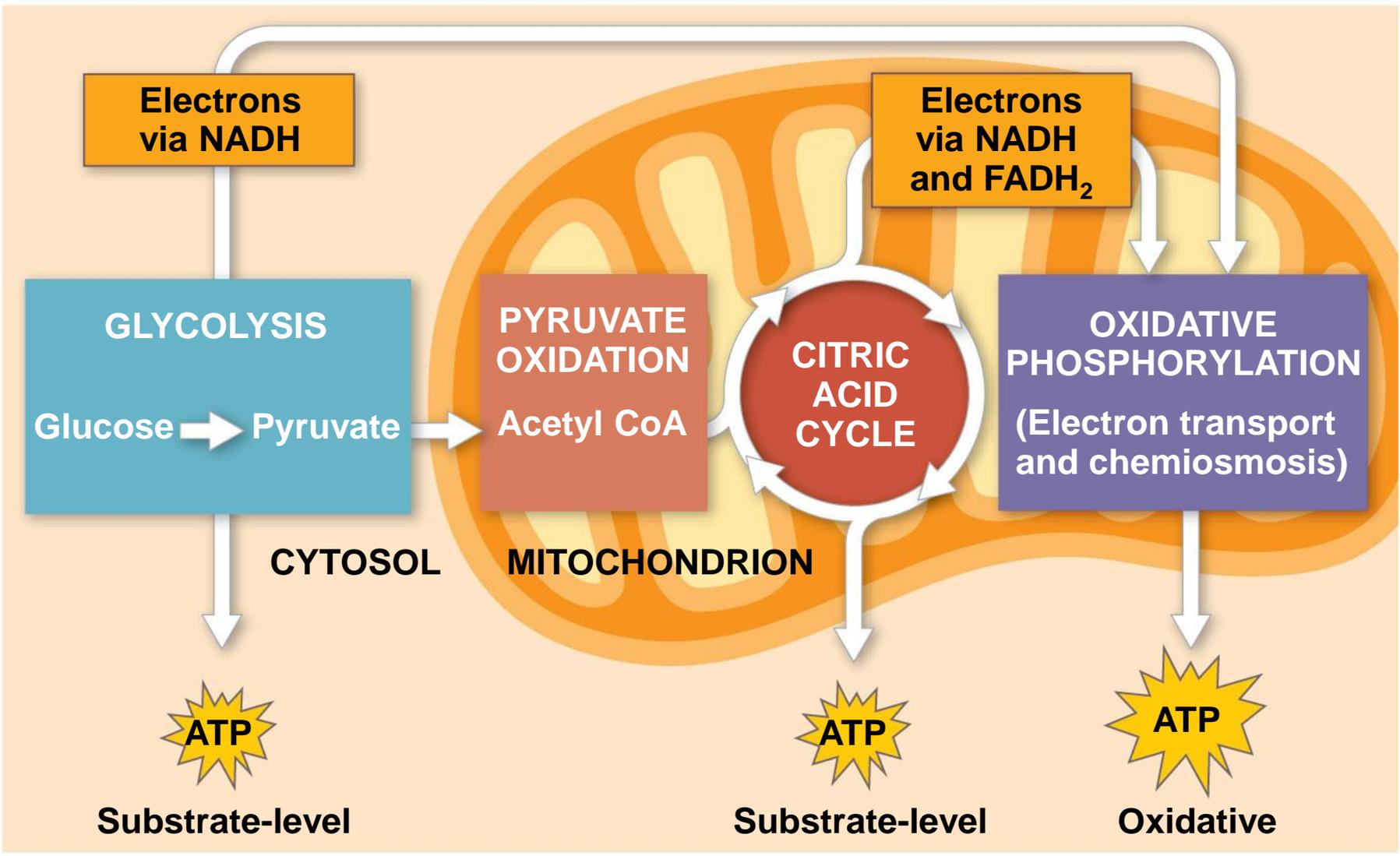
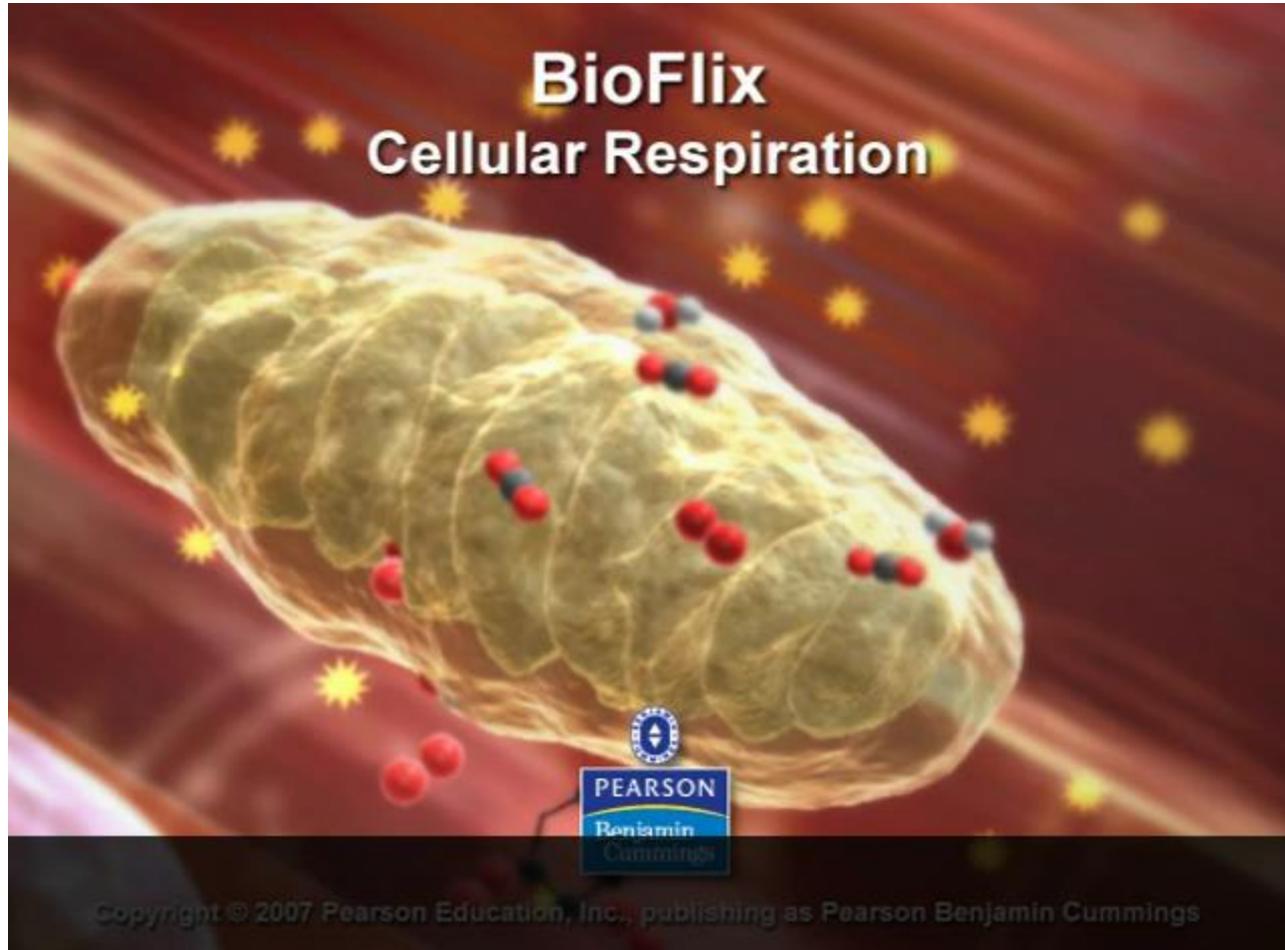


Figure 10.6\_3

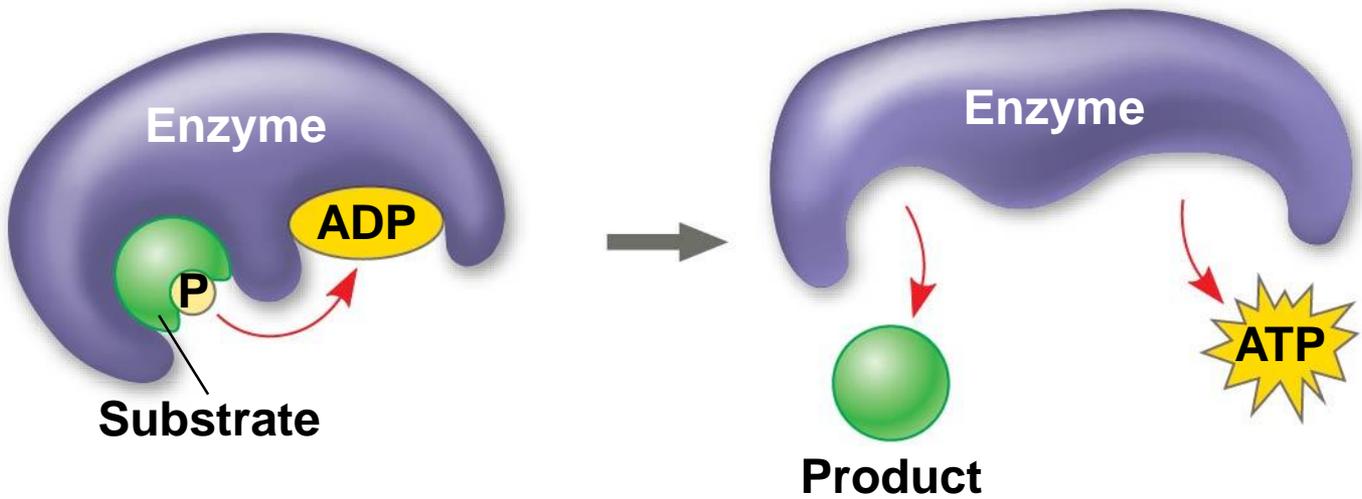


# BioFlix: Cellular Respiration



- The process that generates almost 90% of the ATP is called **oxidative phosphorylation** because it is powered by redox reactions
- A smaller amount of ATP is formed in glycolysis and the citric acid cycle by **substrate-level phosphorylation**

Figure 10.7



- For each molecule of glucose degraded to CO<sub>2</sub> and water by respiration, the cell makes up to 32 molecules of ATP

- We can use money as an analogy for cellular respiration:
  - Glucose is like a larger-denomination bill—it is worth a lot, but it is hard to spend
  - ATP is like a number of smaller-denomination bills of equivalent value—they can be spent more easily
  - Cellular respiration cashes in a large denomination of energy (glucose) for the small change of many molecules of ATP

# Concept 10.2: Glycolysis harvests chemical energy by oxidizing glucose to pyruvate

- Glycolysis (“sugar splitting”) breaks down glucose into two molecules of pyruvate
- Glycolysis occurs in the cytoplasm and has two major phases
  - Energy investment phase
  - Energy payoff phase
- Glycolysis occurs whether or not  $O_2$  is present

Figure 10.UN06

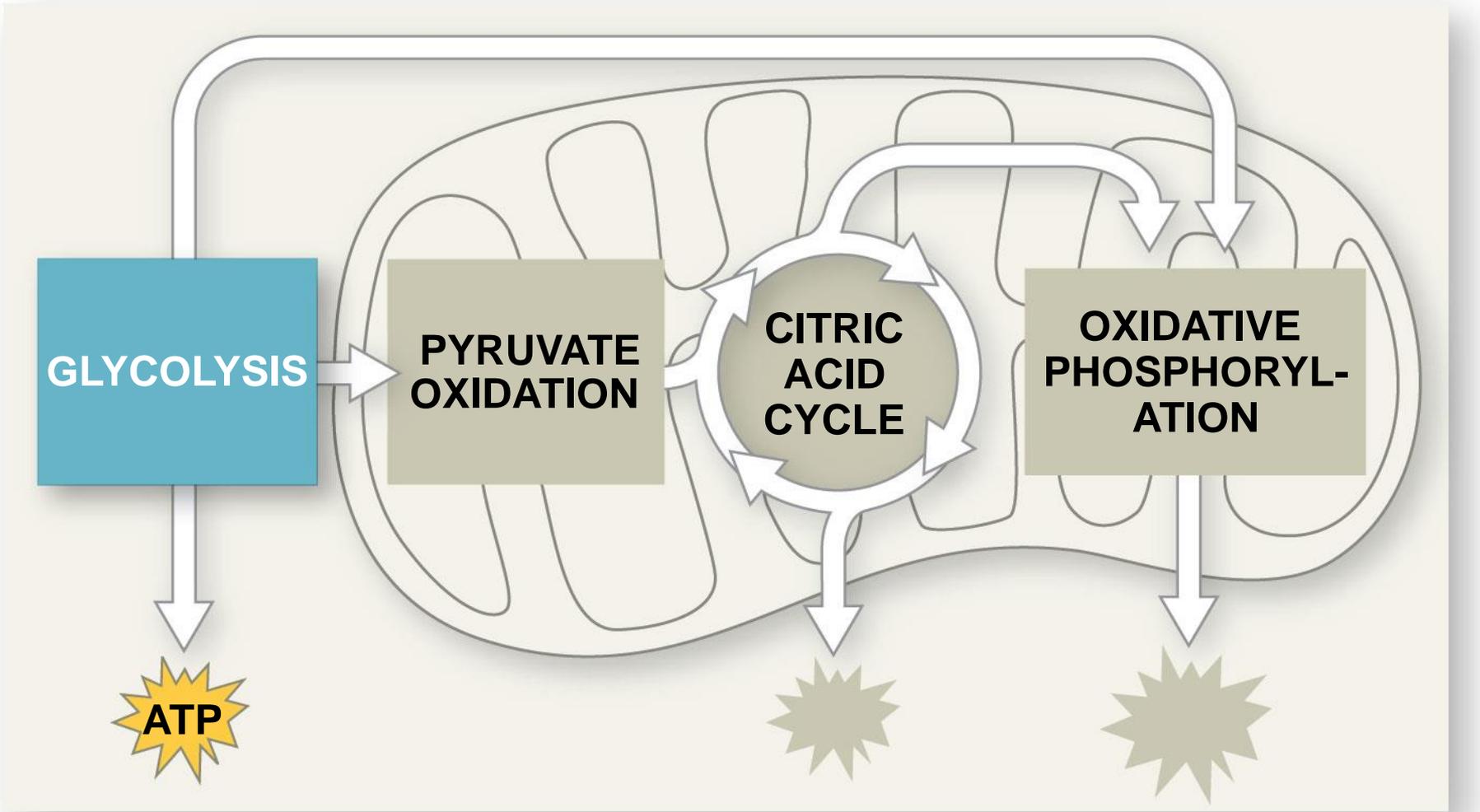


Figure 10.8

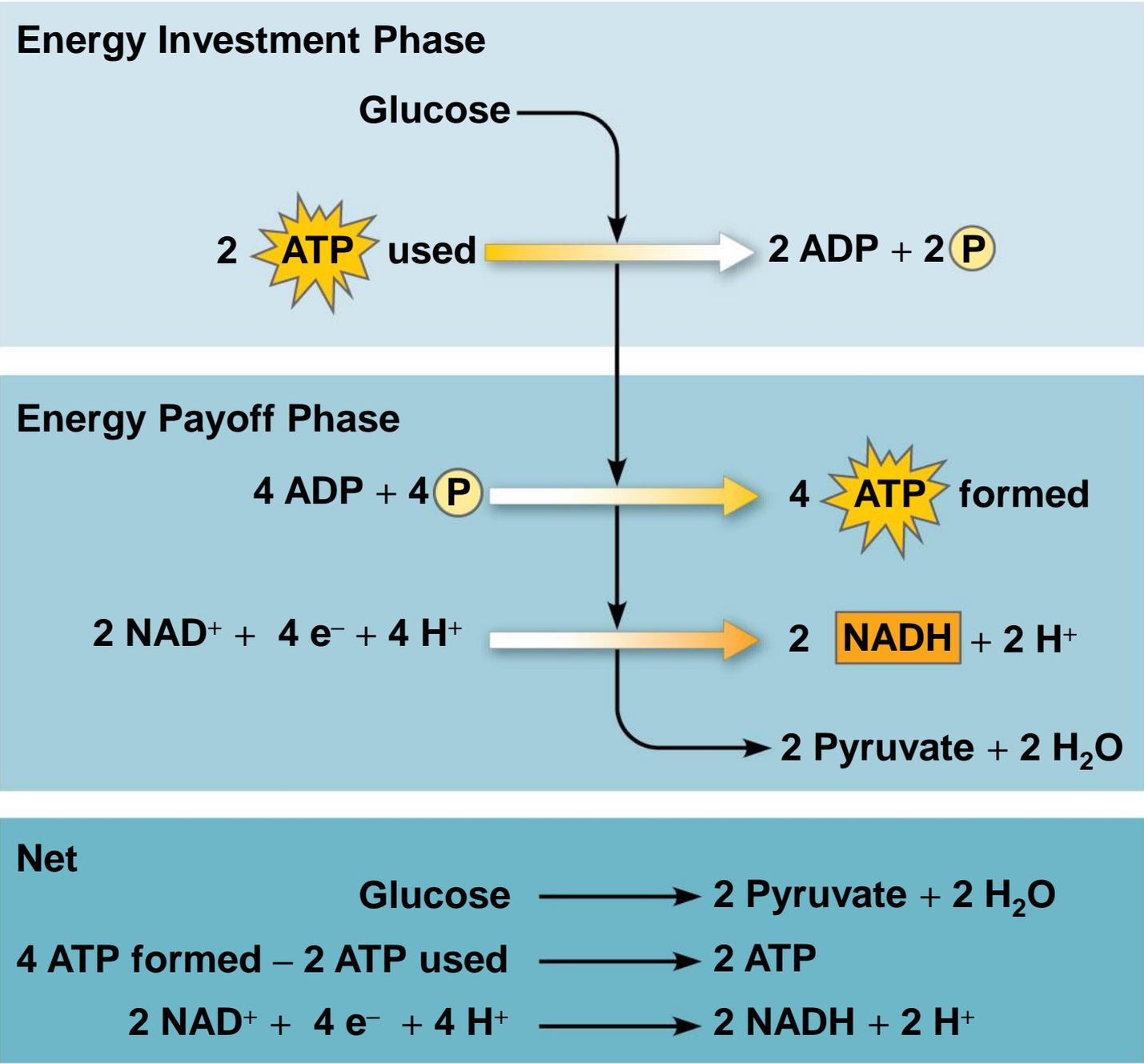
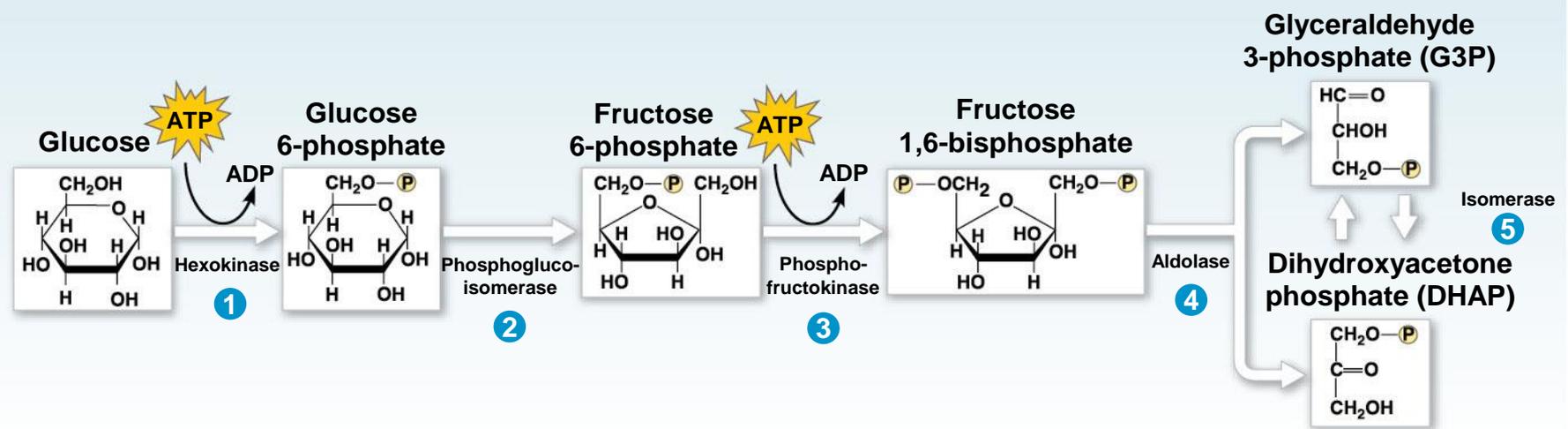


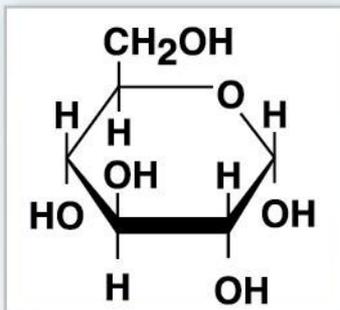
Figure 10.9a

### GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Investment Phase



## GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Investment Phase

### Glucose



## GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Investment Phase

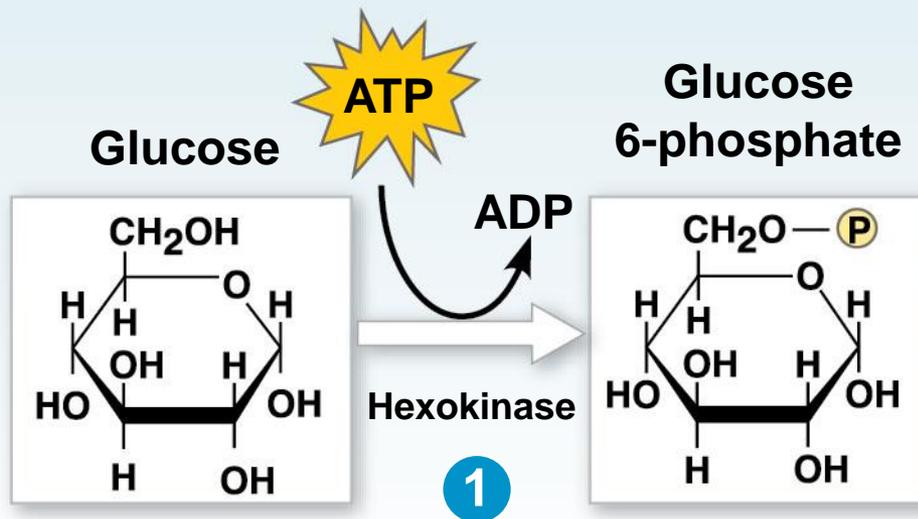
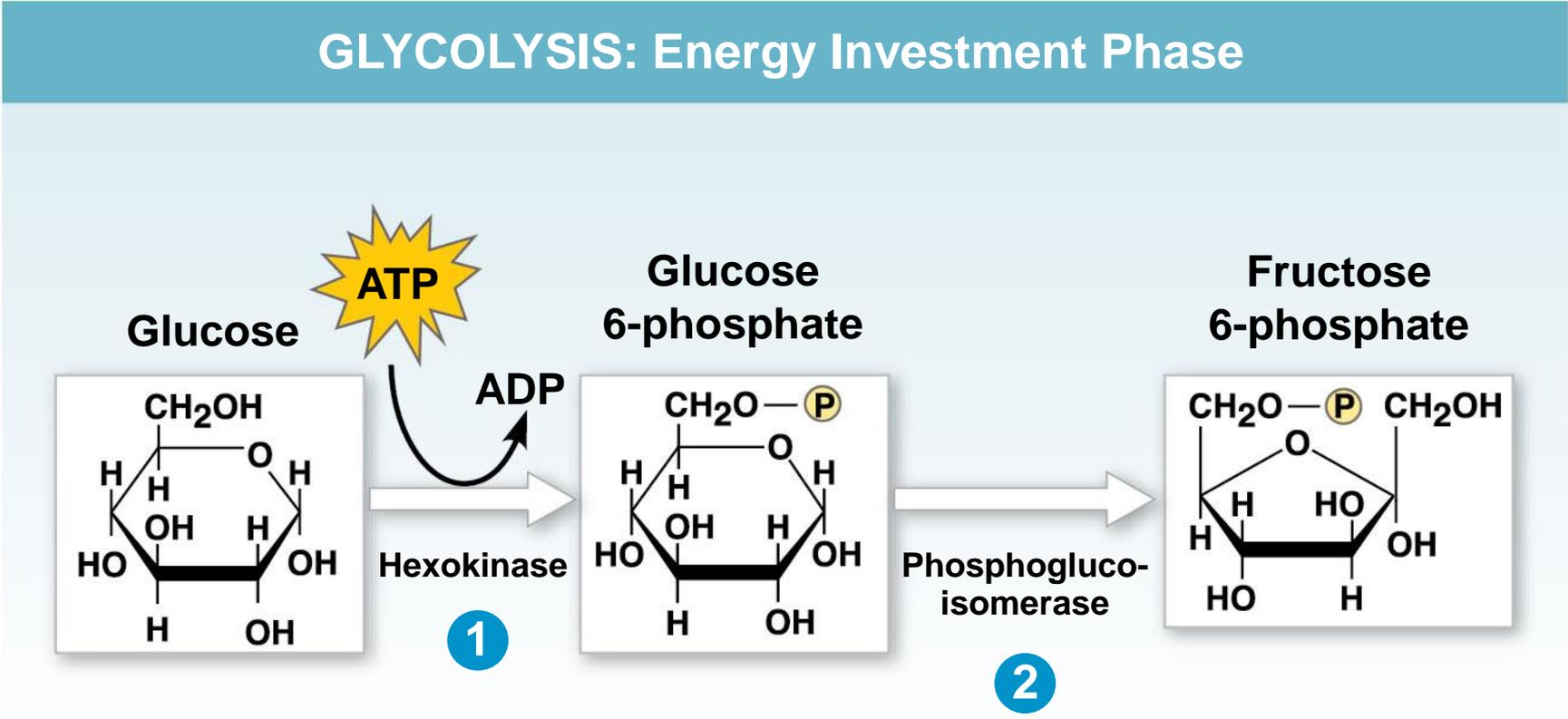


Figure 10.9aa\_3



## GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Investment Phase

### Fructose 6-phosphate

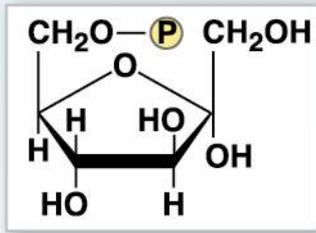


Figure 10.9ab\_2

# GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Investment Phase

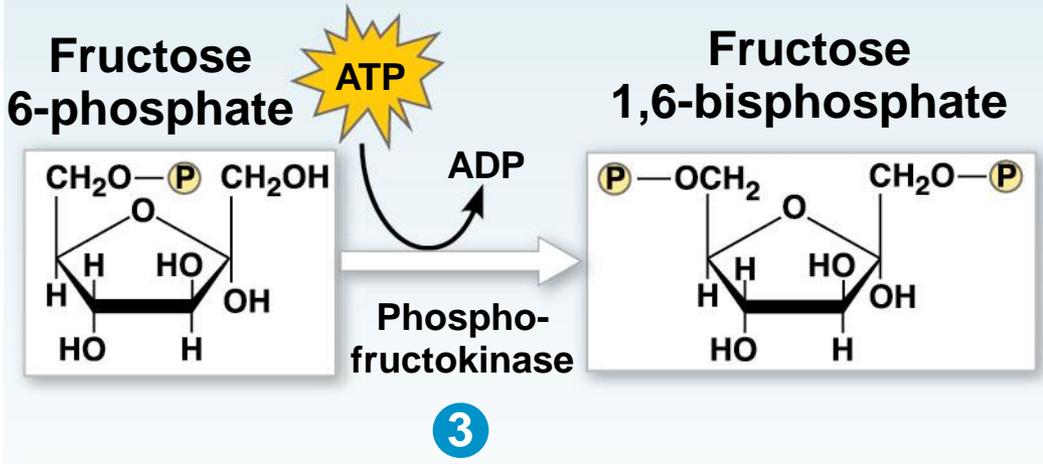


Figure 10.9ab\_3

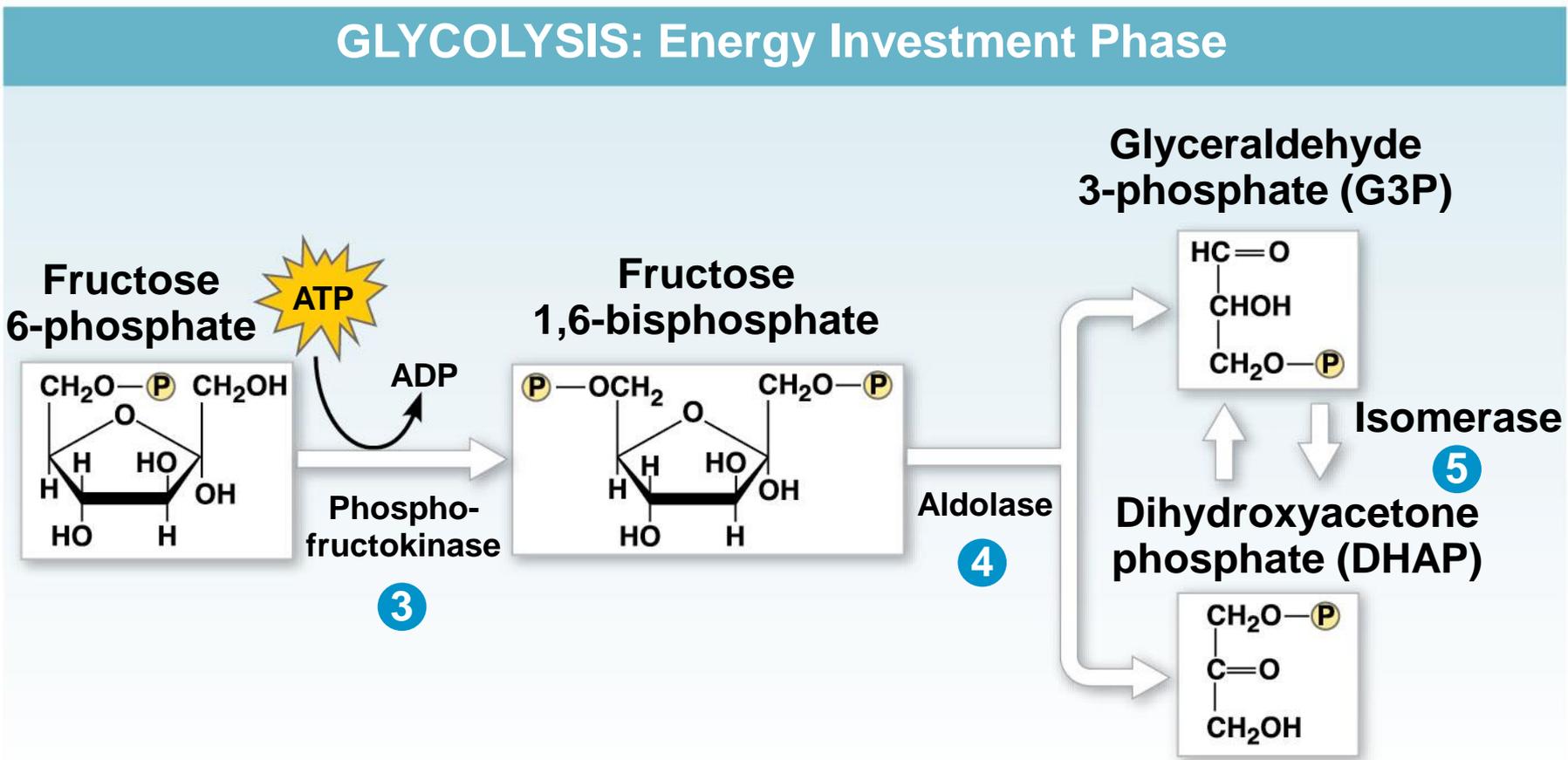


Figure 10.9b

### GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Payoff Phase

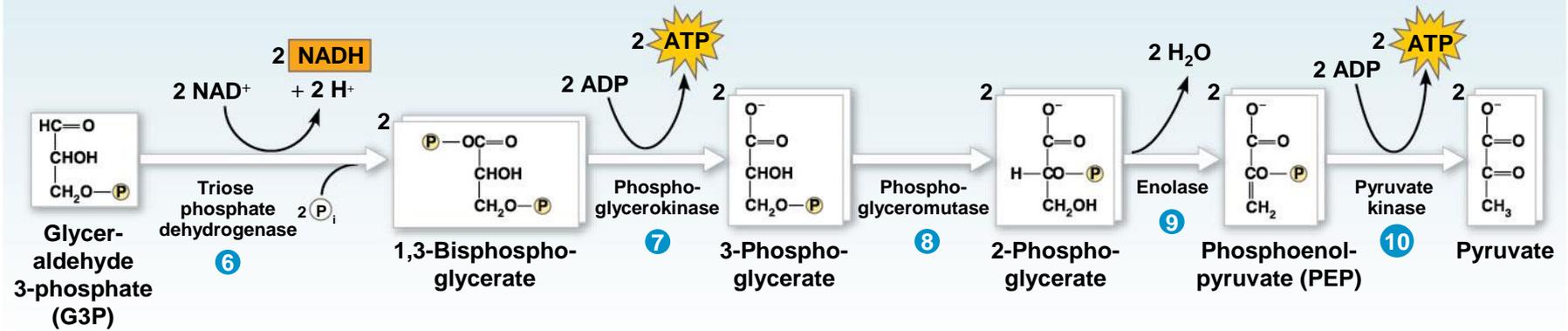


Figure 10.9ba\_1

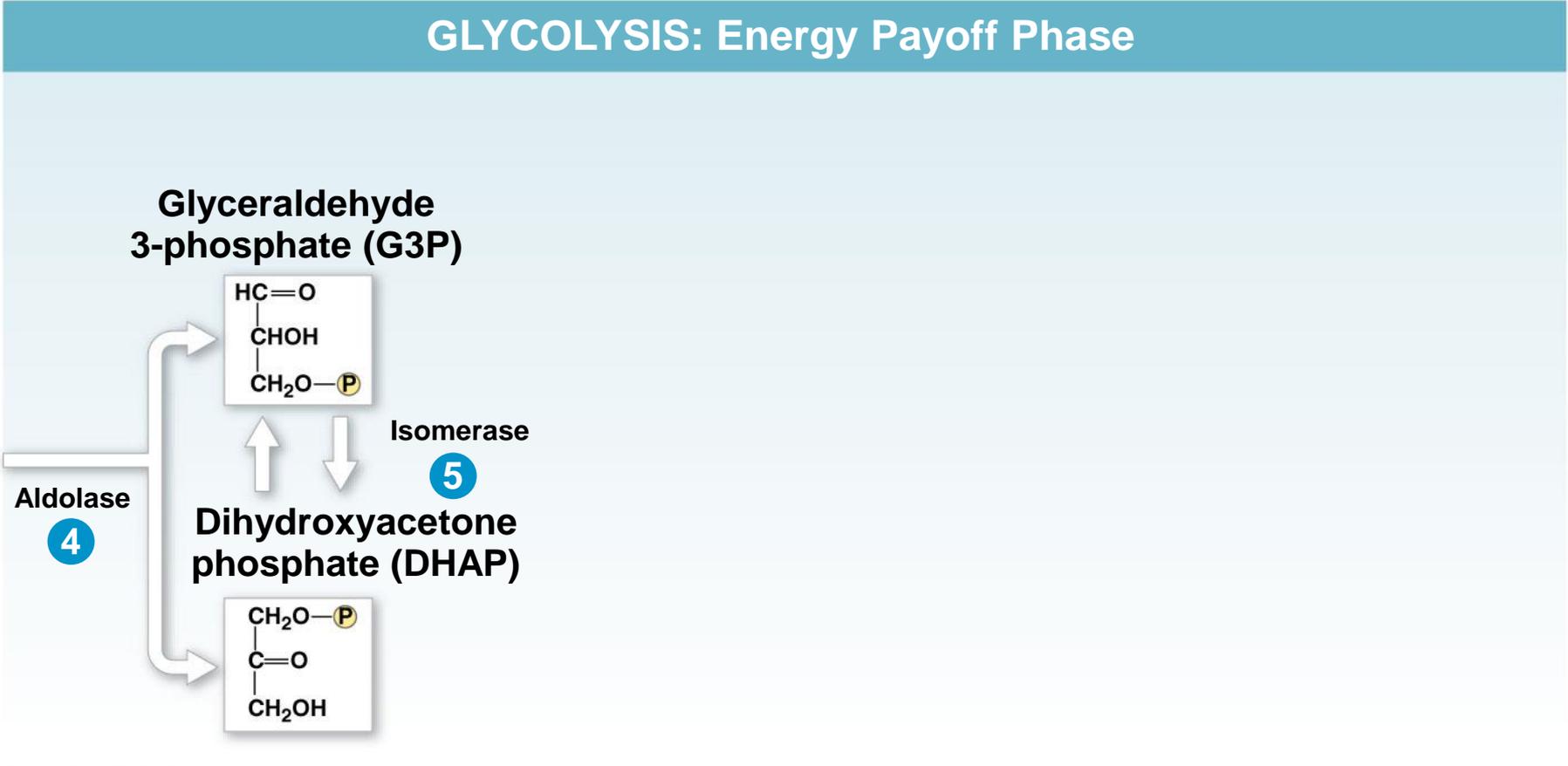


Figure 10.9ba\_2

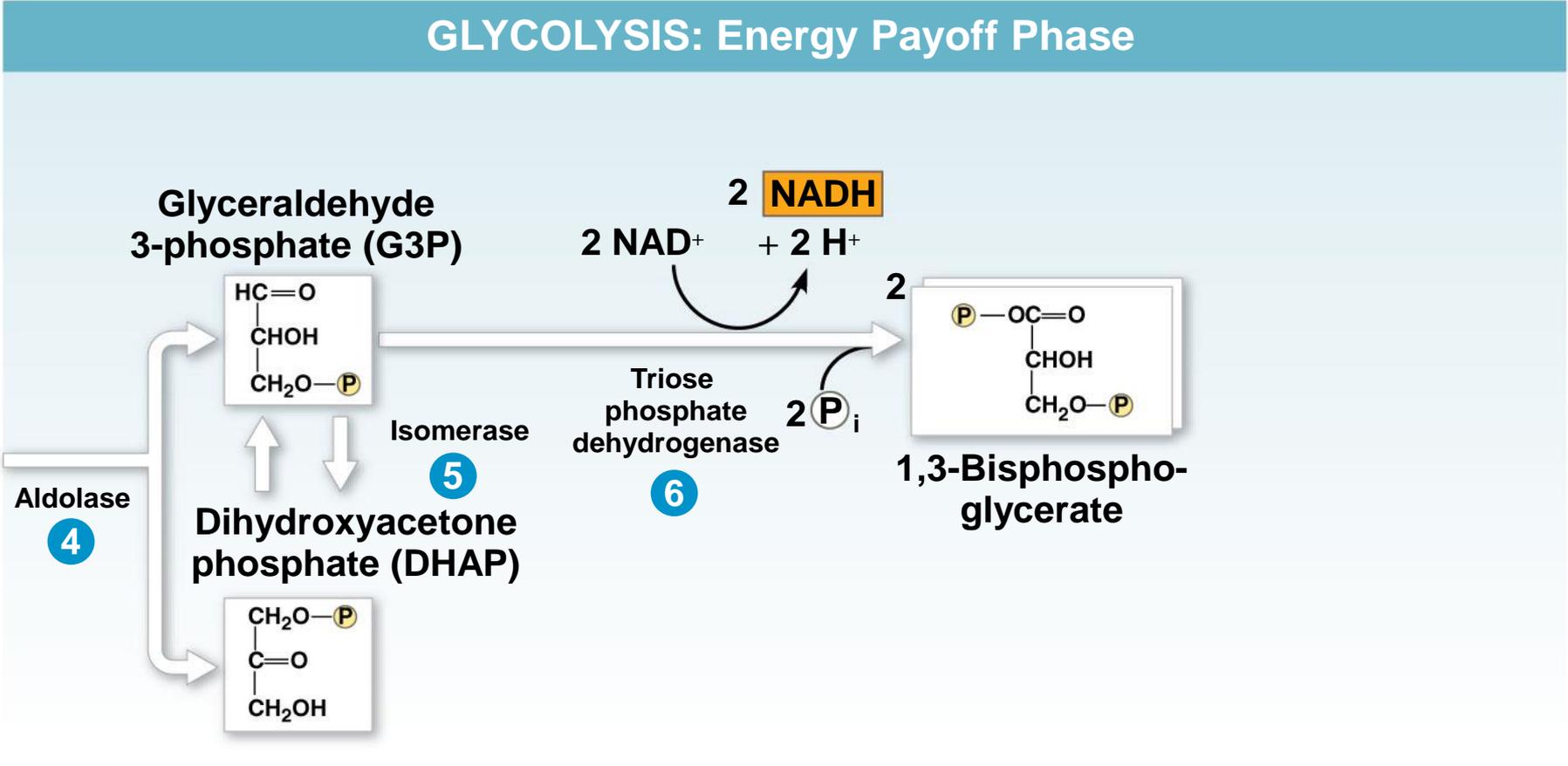
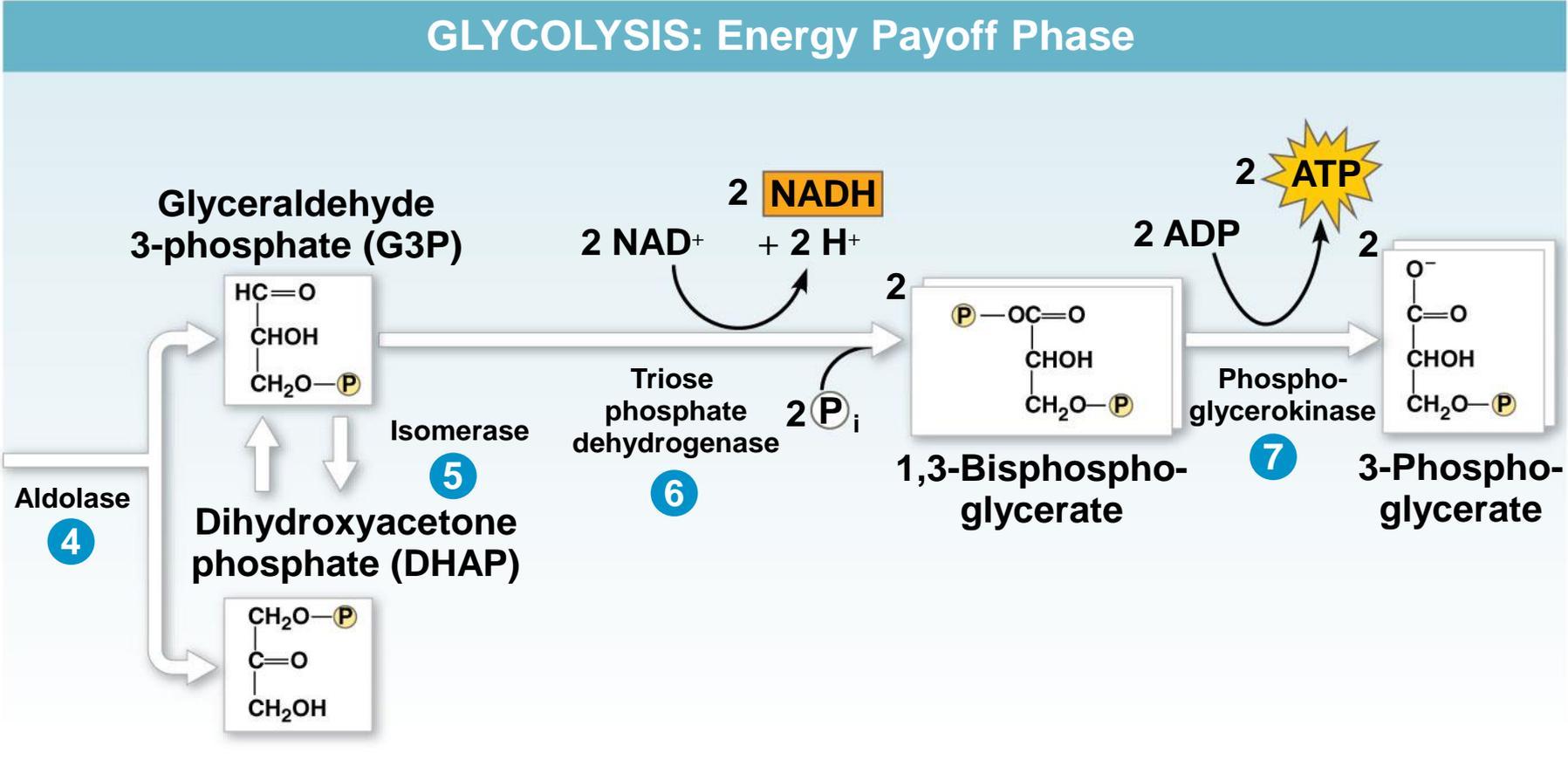
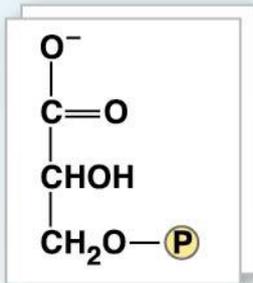


Figure 10.9ba\_3



## GLYCOLYSIS: Energy Payoff Phase

2



**3-Phospho-  
glycerate**

Figure 10.9bb\_2

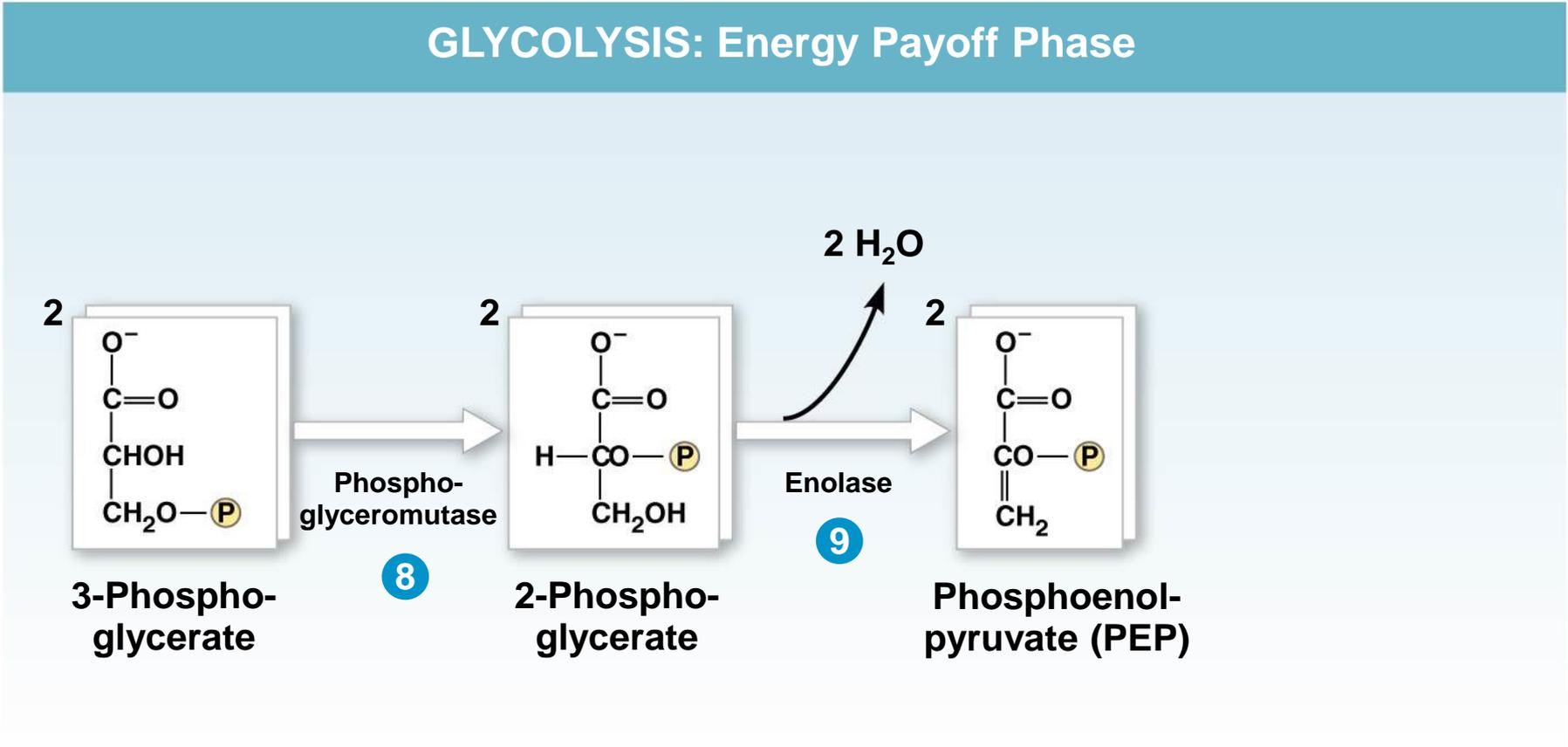
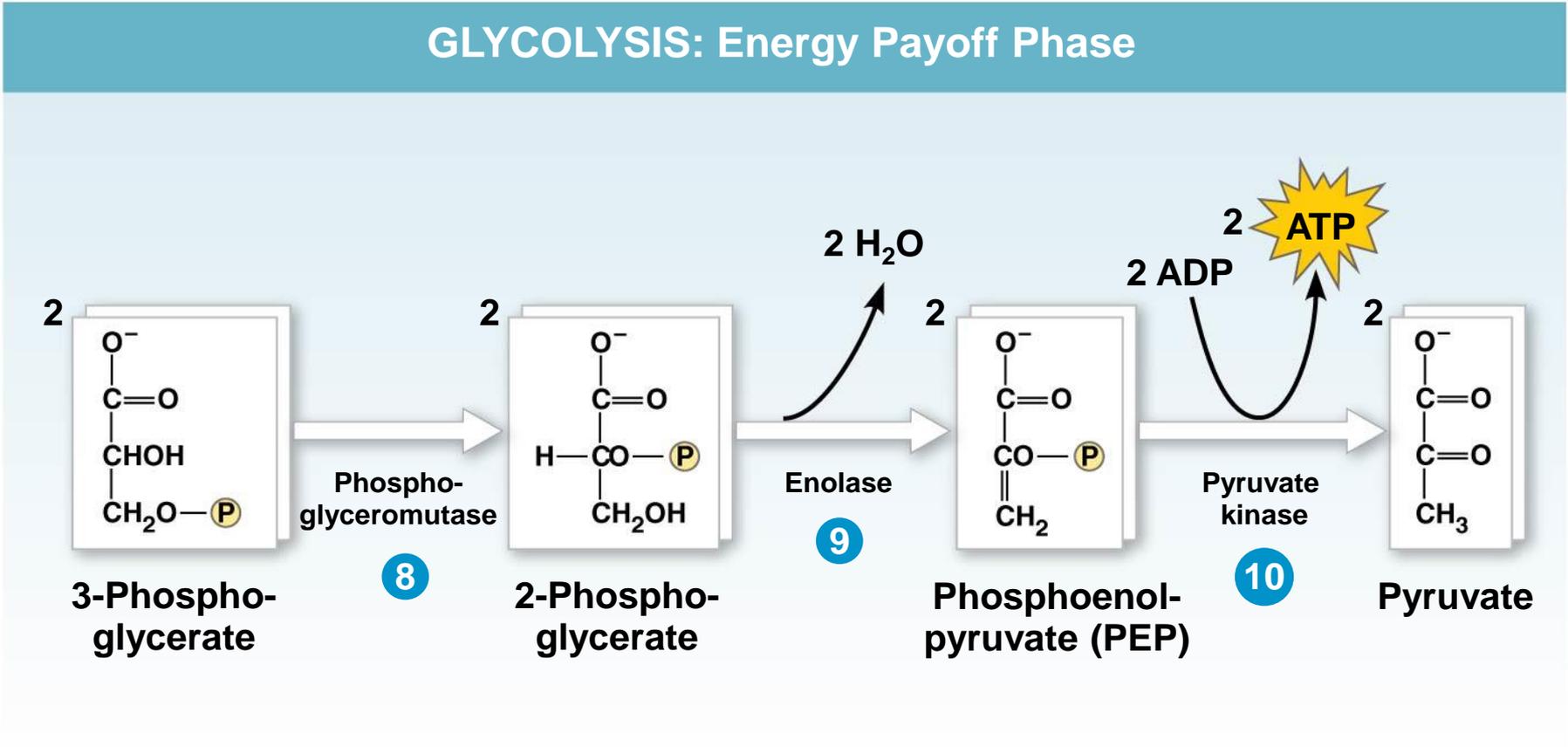


Figure 10.9bb\_3



# **Concept 10.3: After pyruvate is oxidized, the citric acid cycle completes the energy-yielding oxidation of organic molecules**

- In the presence of  $O_2$ , pyruvate enters a mitochondrion (in eukaryotic cells), where the oxidation of glucose is completed

# Oxidation of Pyruvate to Acetyl CoA

- Before the citric acid cycle can begin, pyruvate must be converted to acetyl coenzyme A (**acetyl CoA**), which links glycolysis to the citric acid cycle
- This step is carried out by a multienzyme complex that catalyzes three reactions
  1. Oxidation of pyruvate and release of  $\text{CO}_2$
  2. Reduction of  $\text{NAD}^+$  to  $\text{NADH}$
  3. Combination of the remaining two-carbon fragment and coenzyme A to form acetyl CoA

Figure 10.UN07

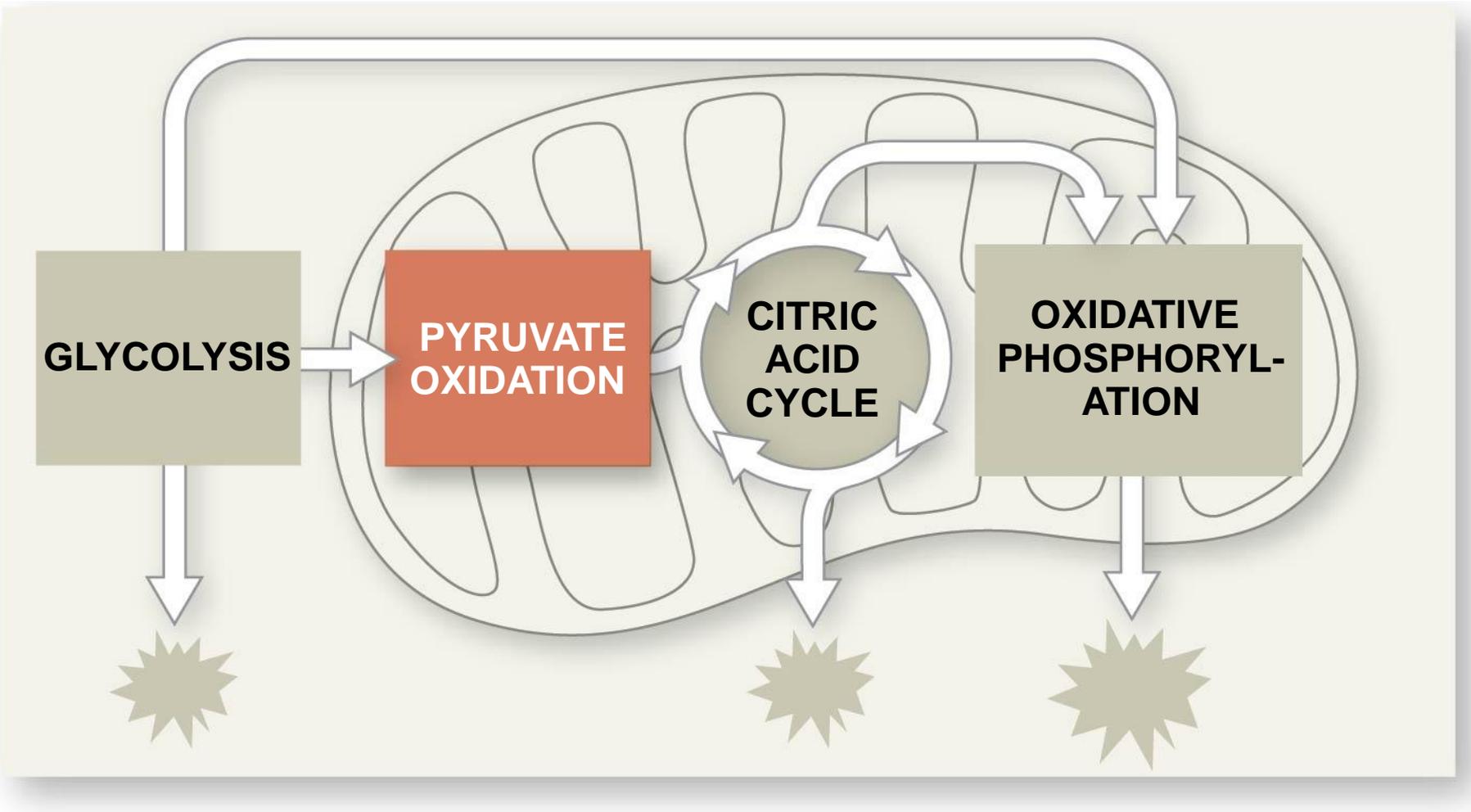
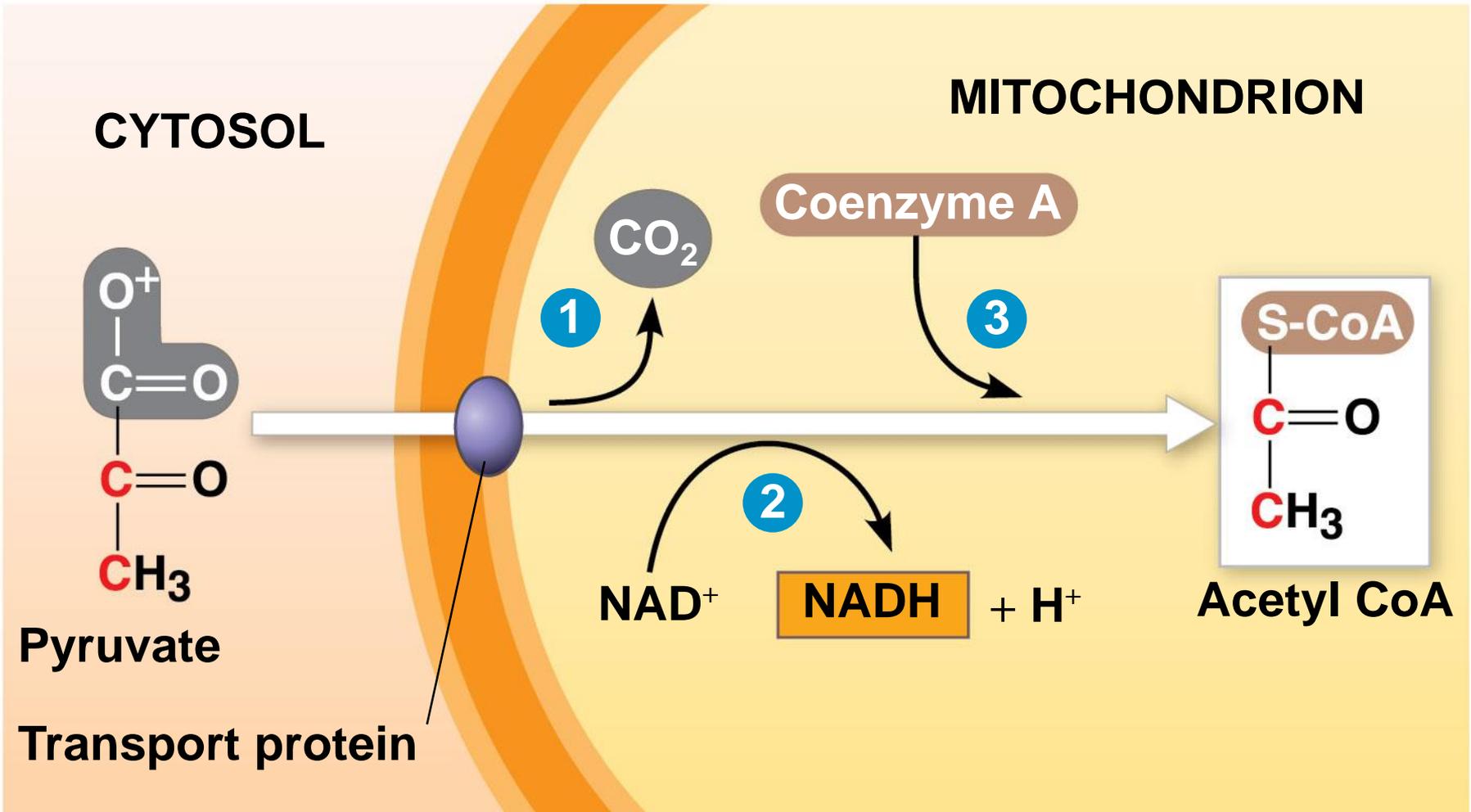


Figure 10.10



# The Citric Acid Cycle

- The citric acid cycle, also called the Krebs cycle, completes the breakdown of pyruvate to  $\text{CO}_2$
- The cycle oxidizes organic fuel derived from pyruvate, generating 1 ATP, 3 NADH, and 1  $\text{FADH}_2$  per turn

- The citric acid cycle has eight steps, each catalyzed by a specific enzyme
- The acetyl group of acetyl CoA joins the cycle by combining with oxaloacetate, forming citrate
- The next seven steps decompose the citrate back to oxaloacetate, making the process a cycle
- The NADH and FADH<sub>2</sub> produced by the cycle relay electrons extracted from food to the electron transport chain

Figure 10.UN08

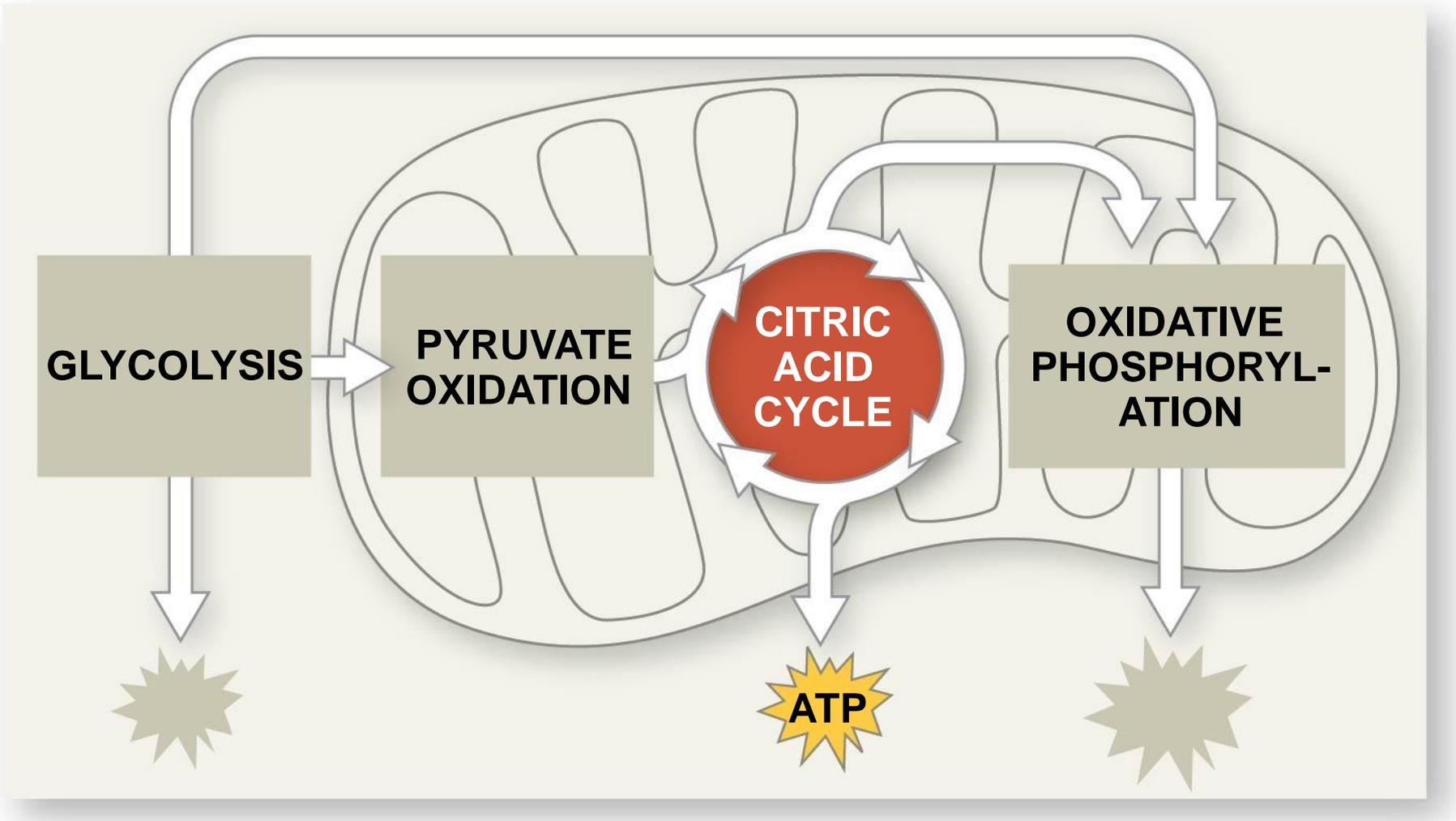


Figure 10.11

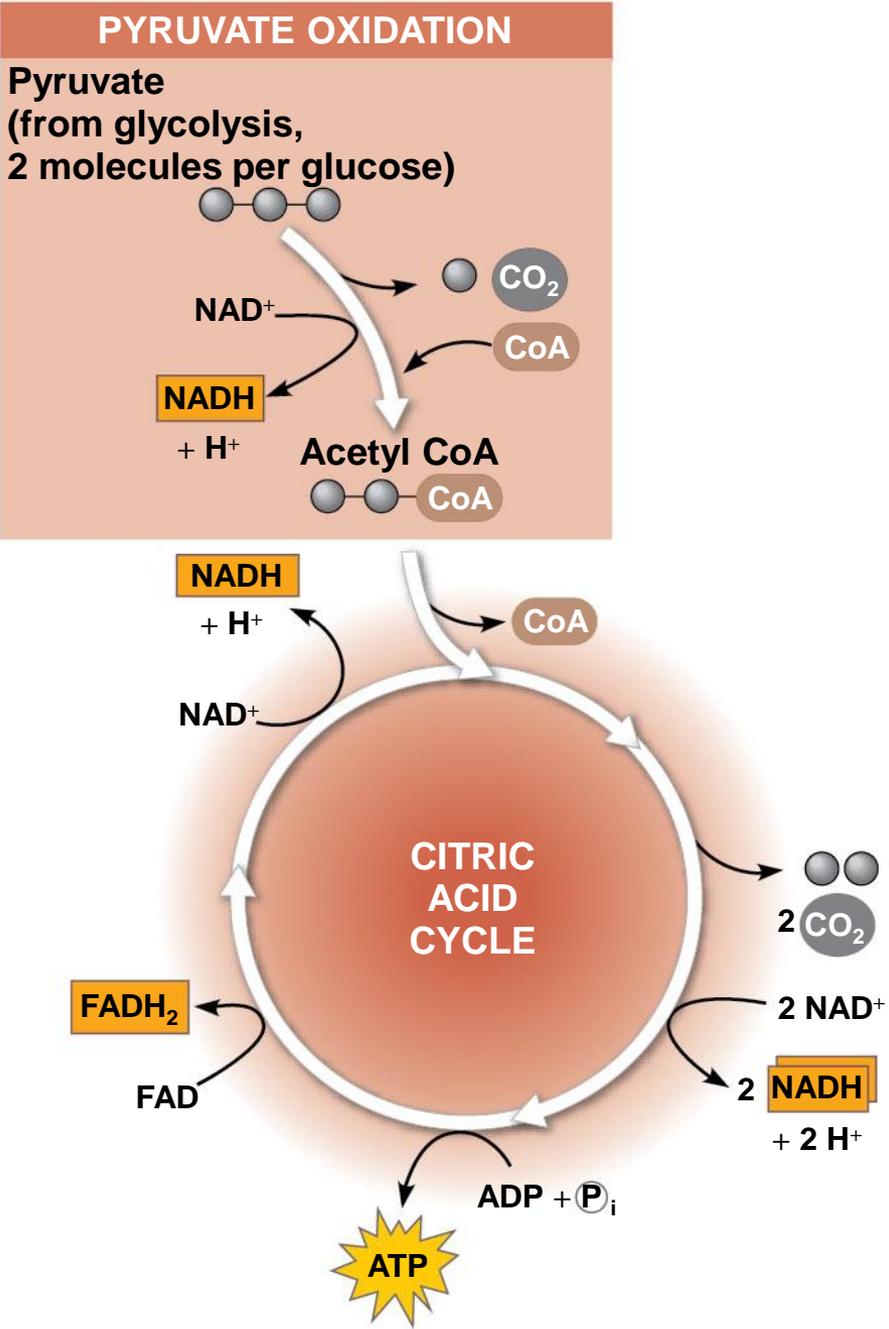


Figure 10.11a

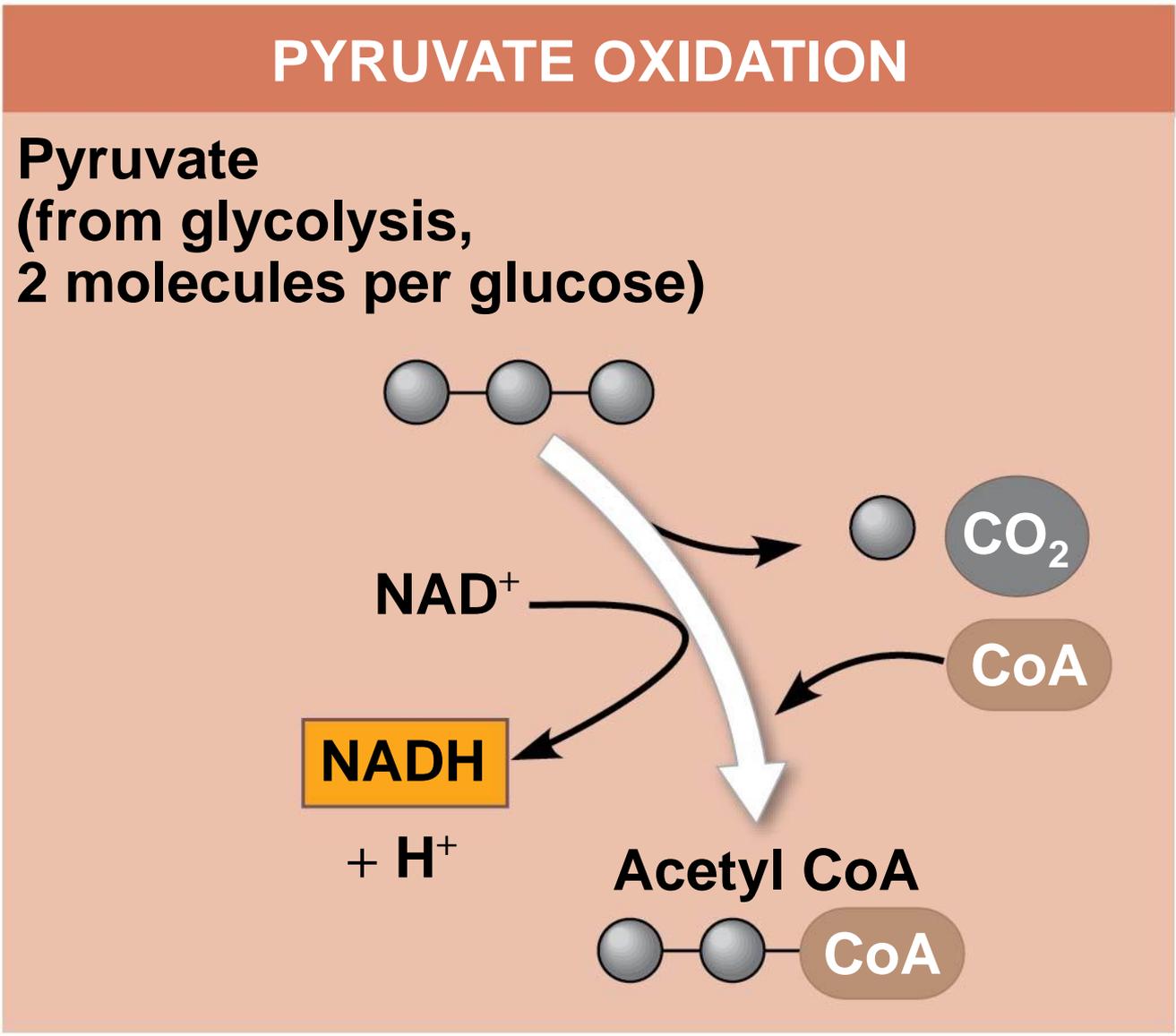


Figure 10.11b

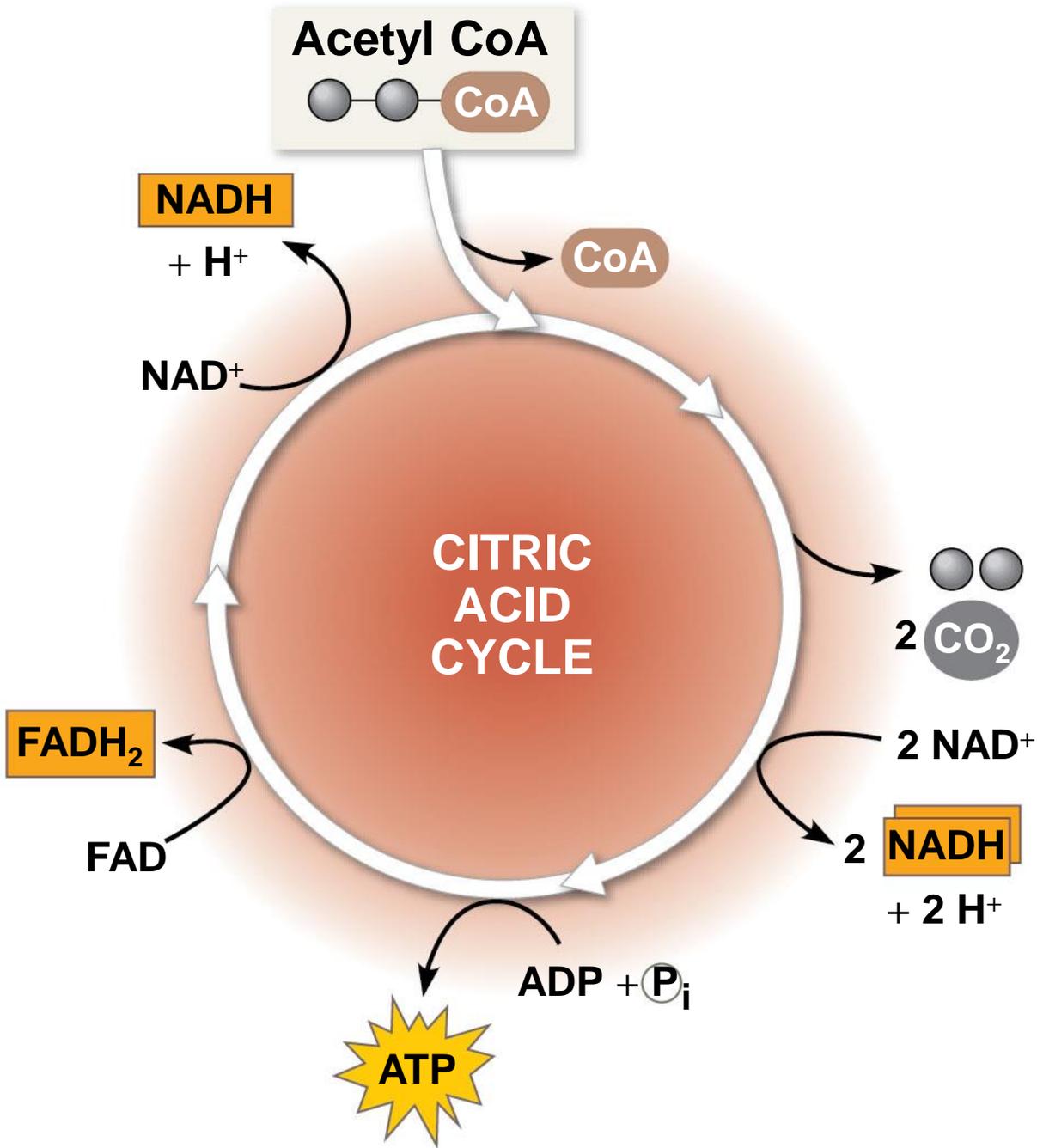


Figure 10.12\_1

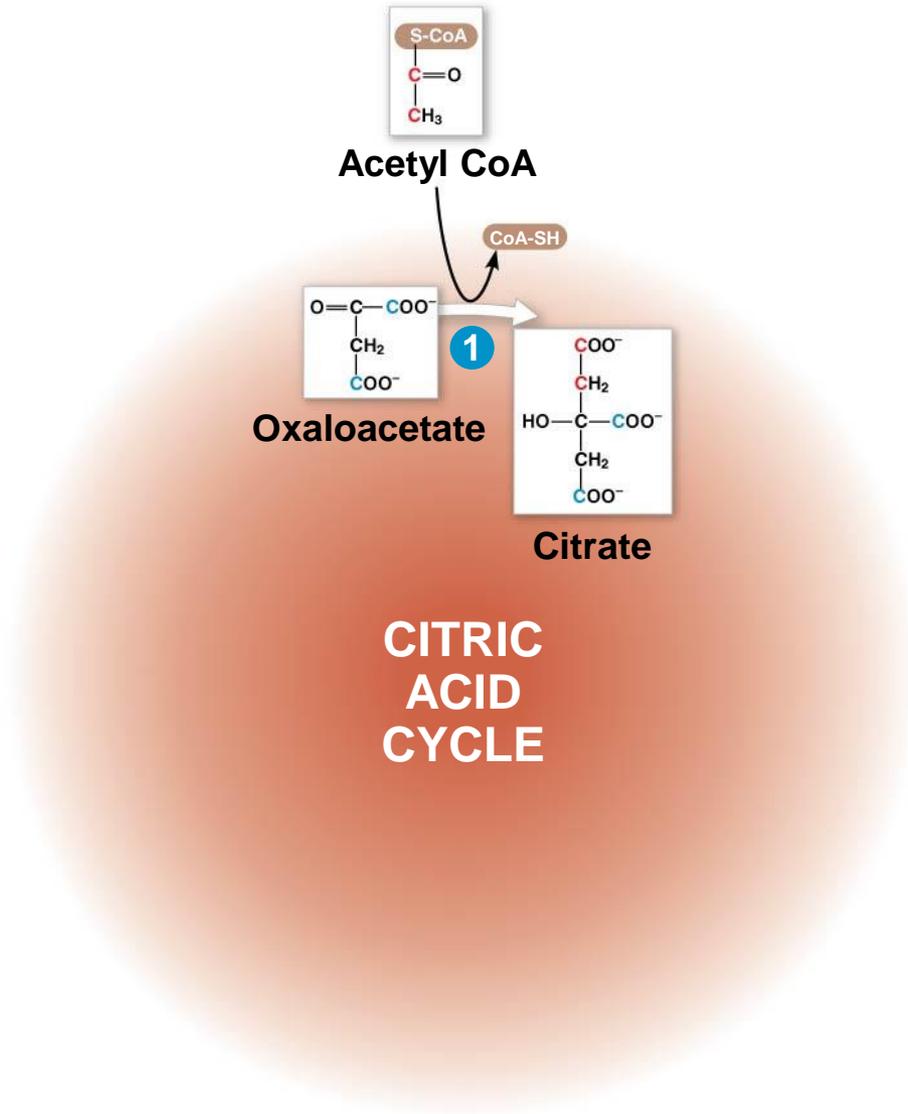


Figure 10.12\_2

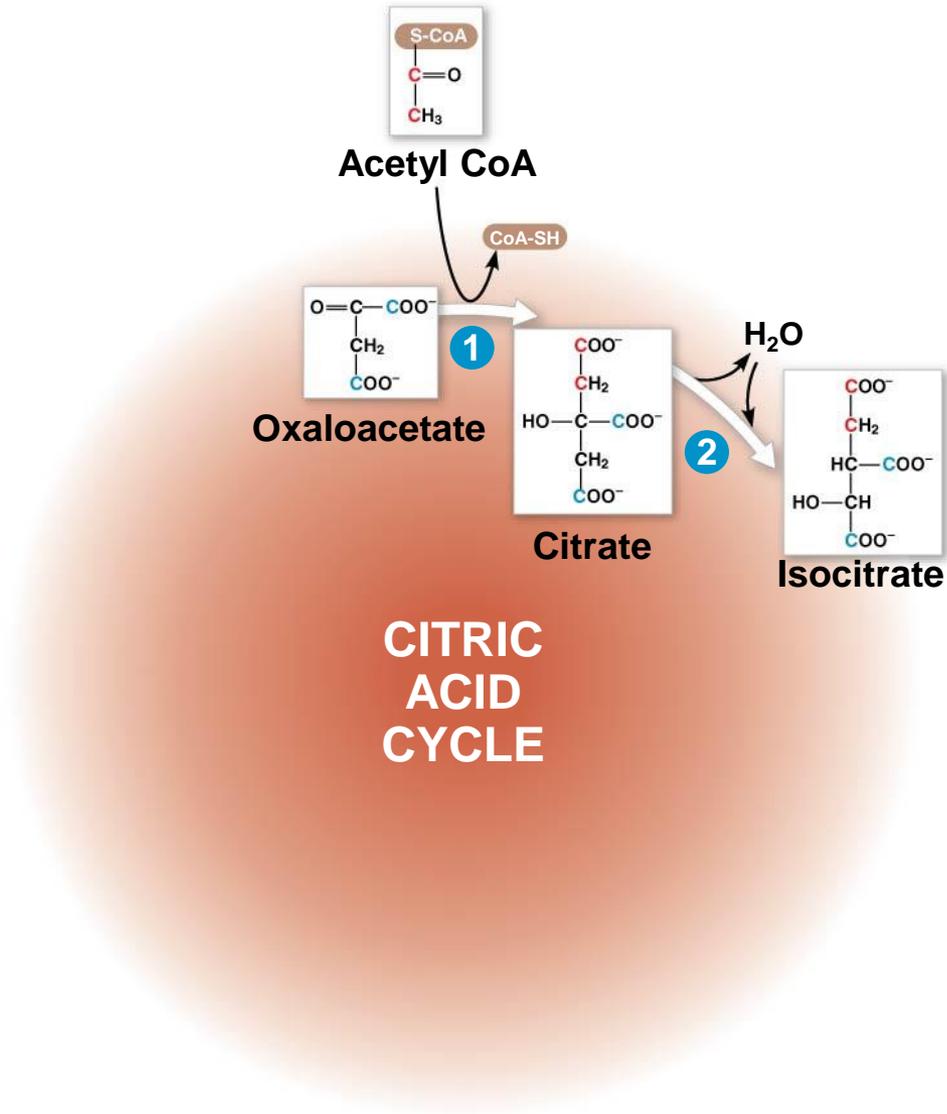


Figure 10.12\_3

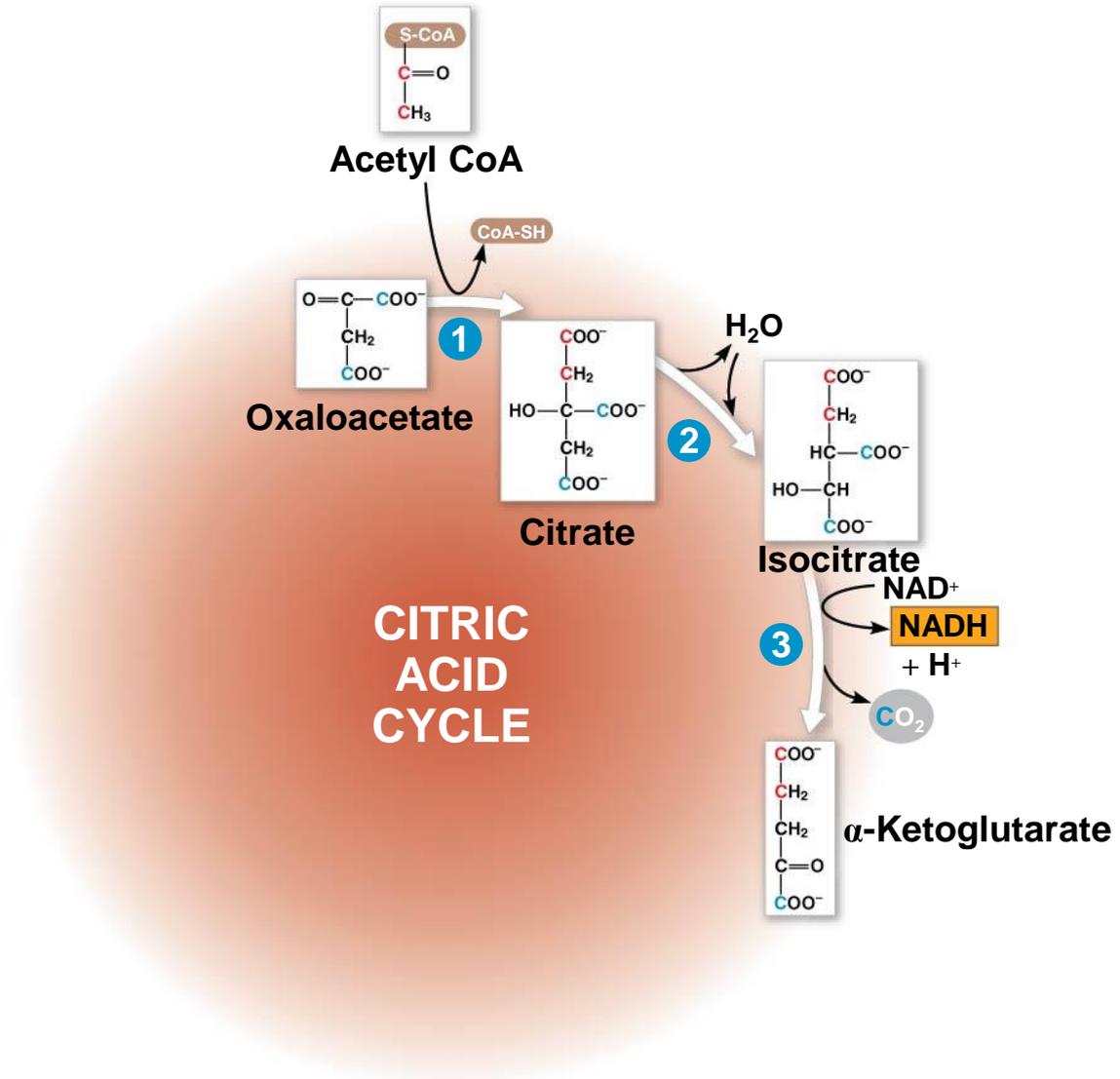


Figure 10.12\_4

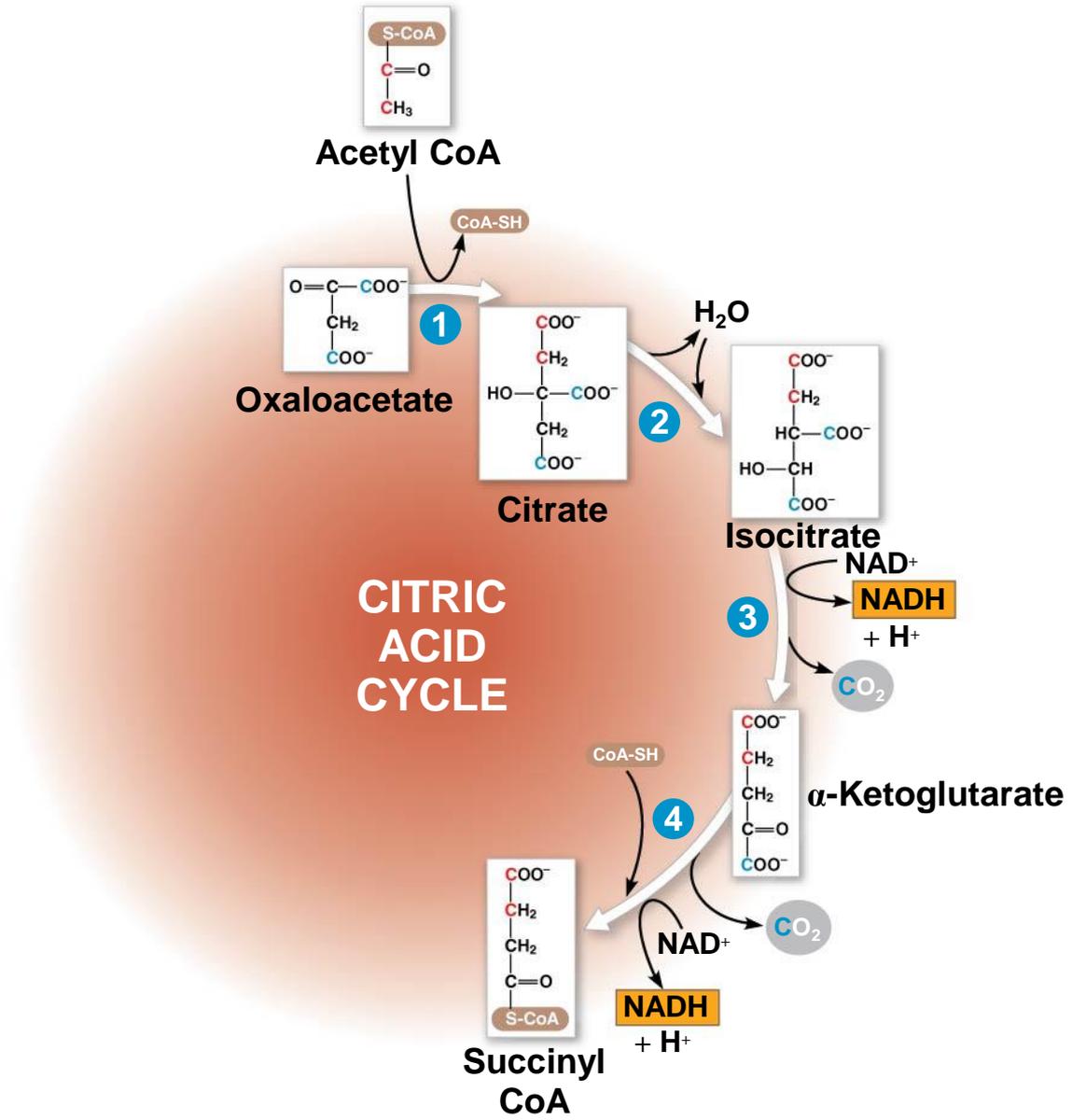


Figure 10.12\_5

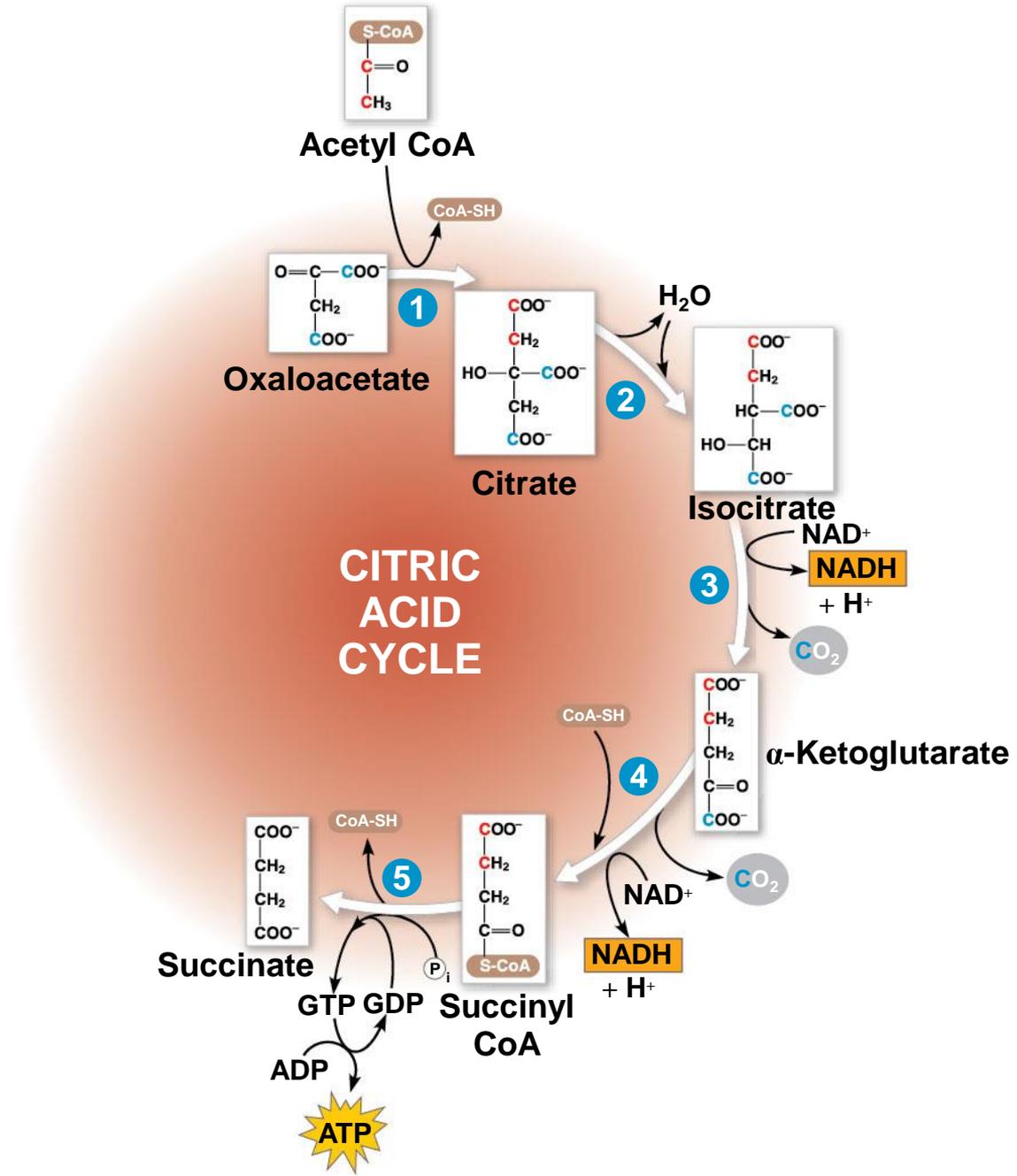


Figure 10.12\_6

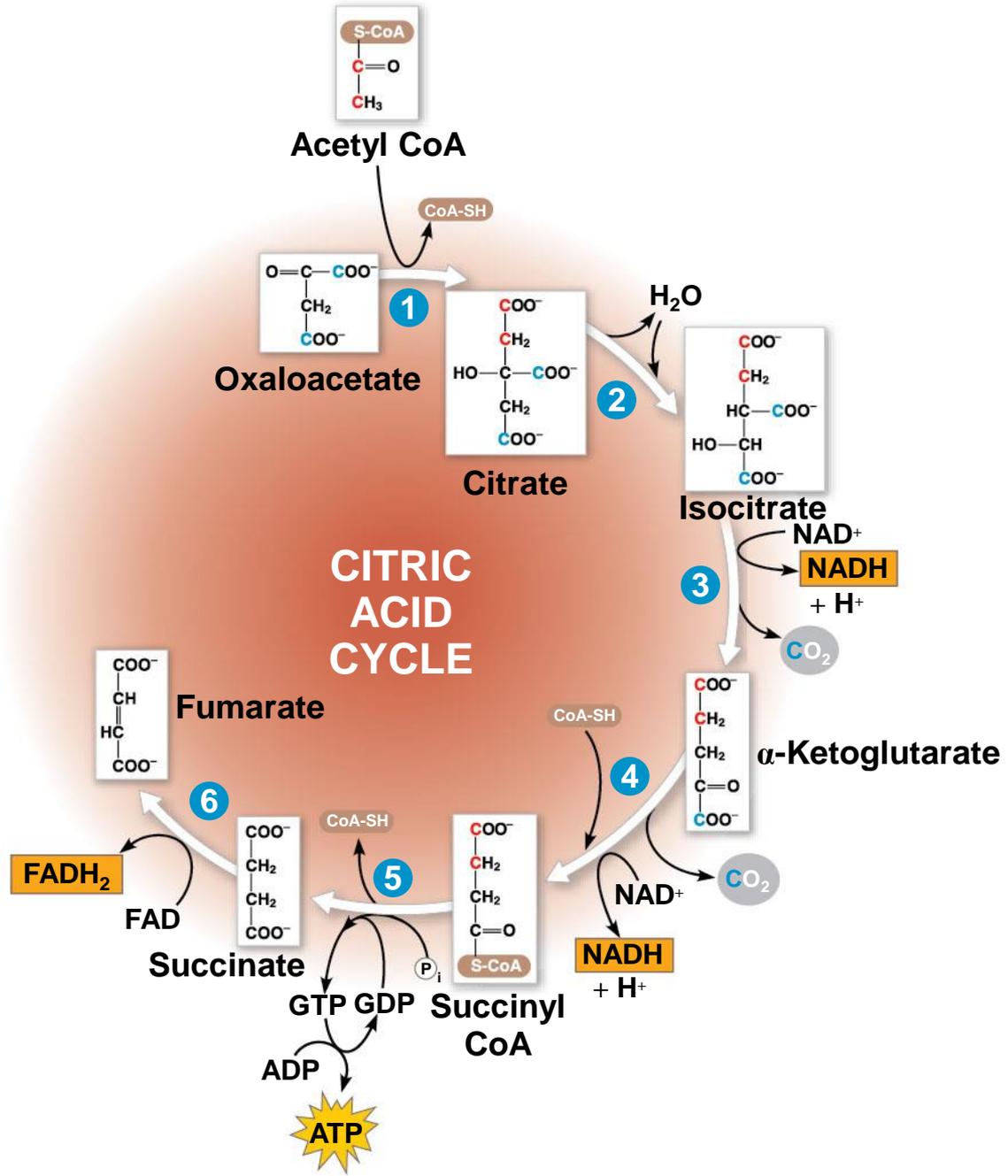


Figure 10.12\_7

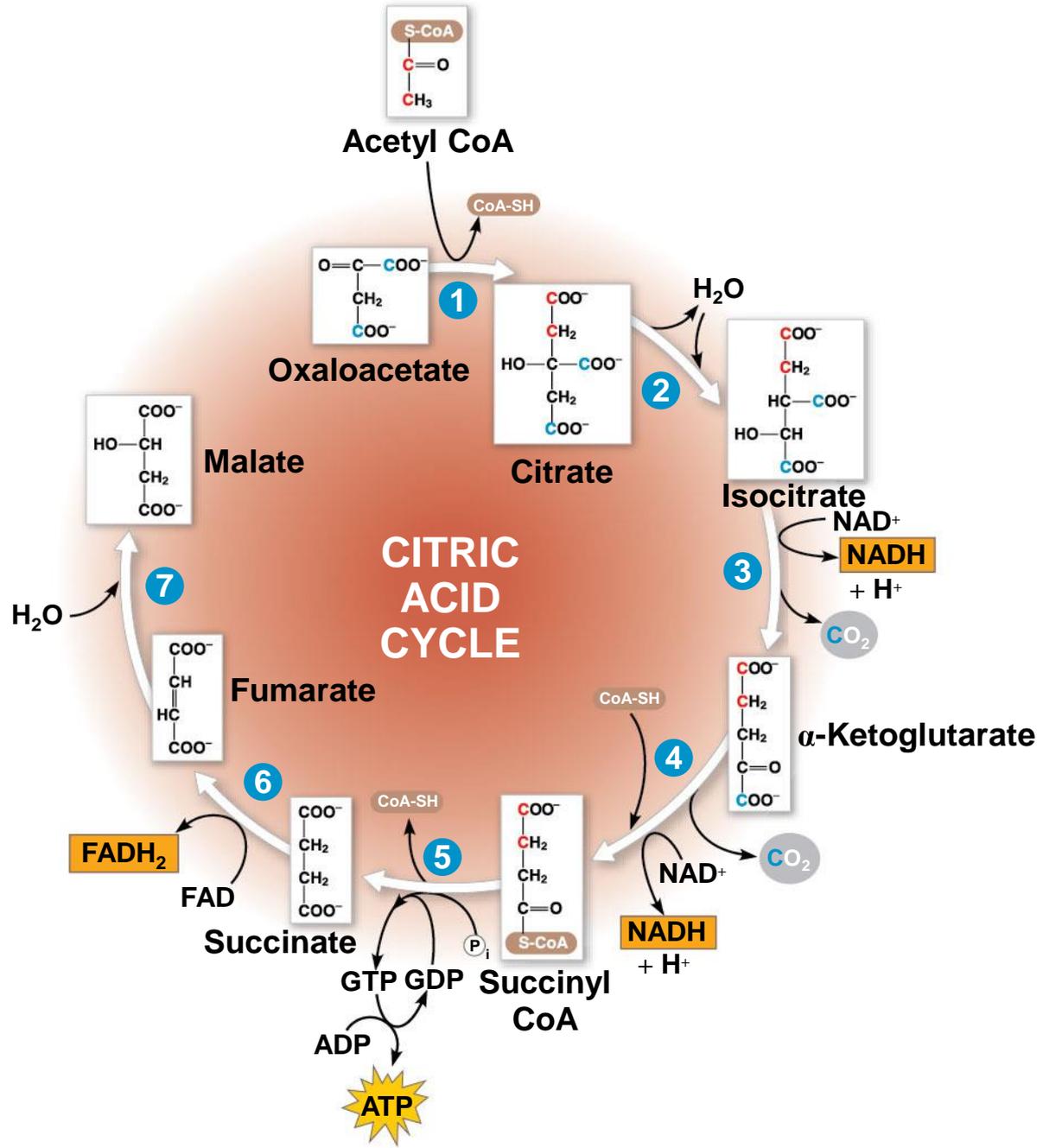


Figure 10.12\_8

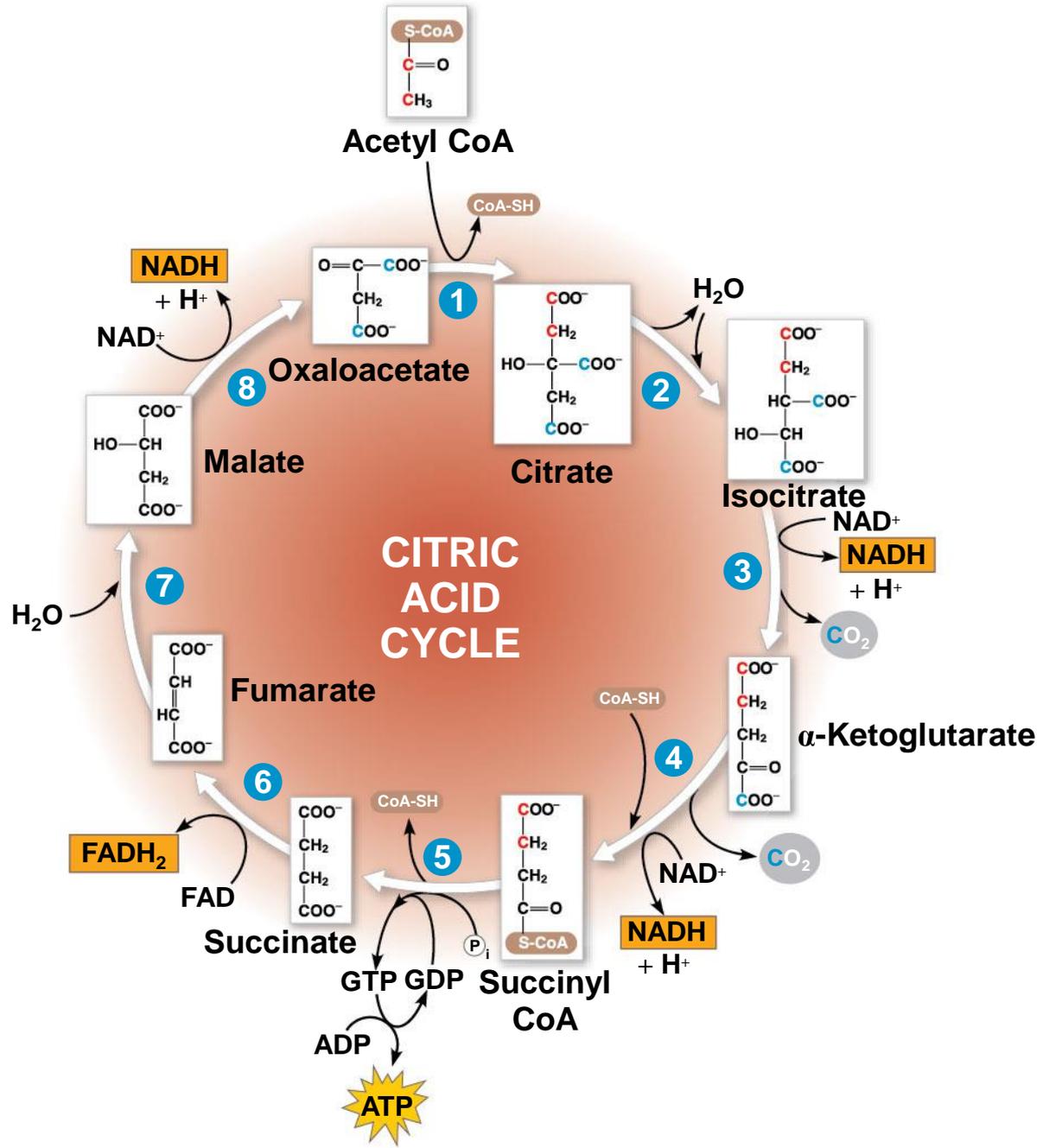


Figure 10.12a

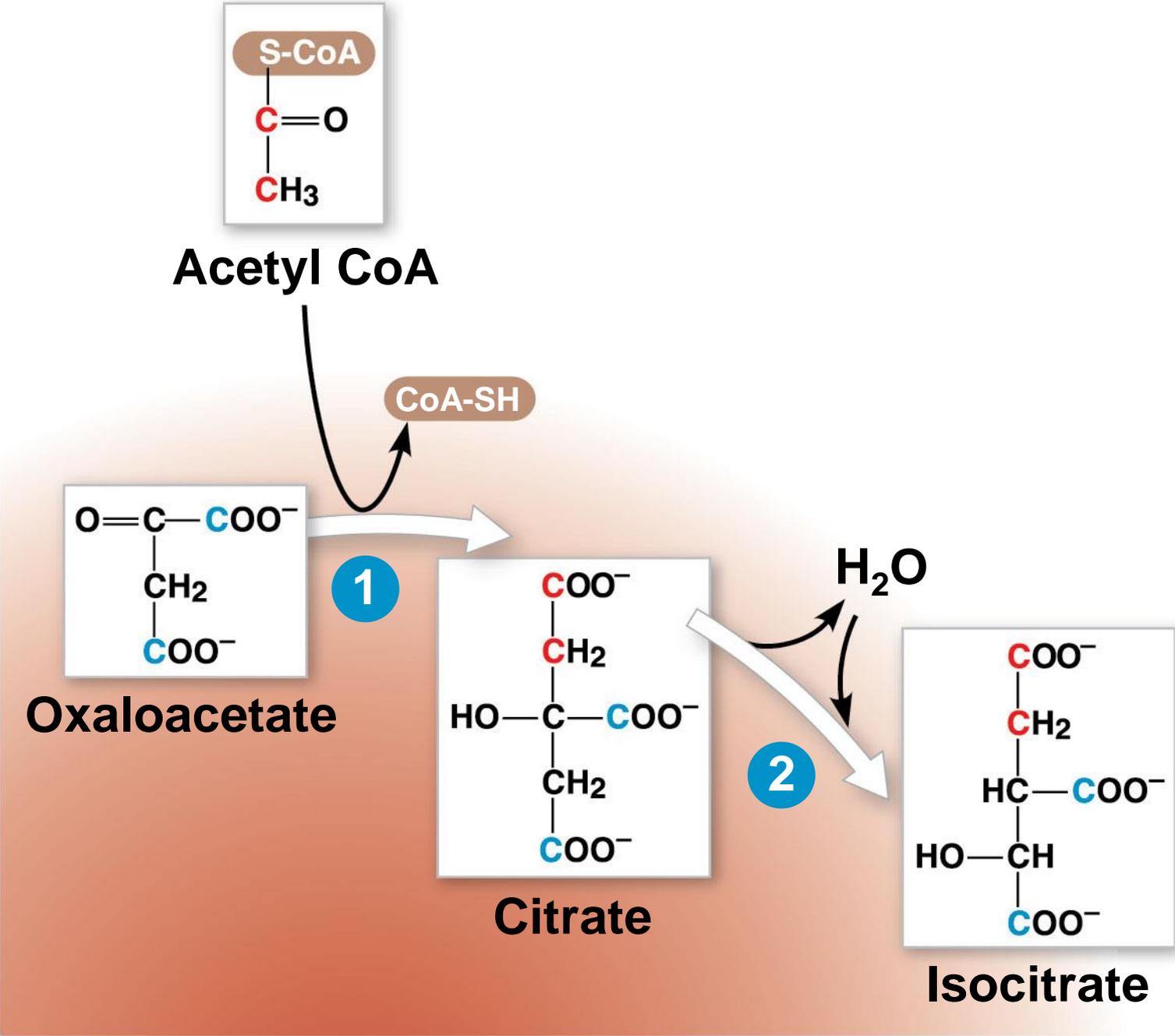


Figure 10.12b

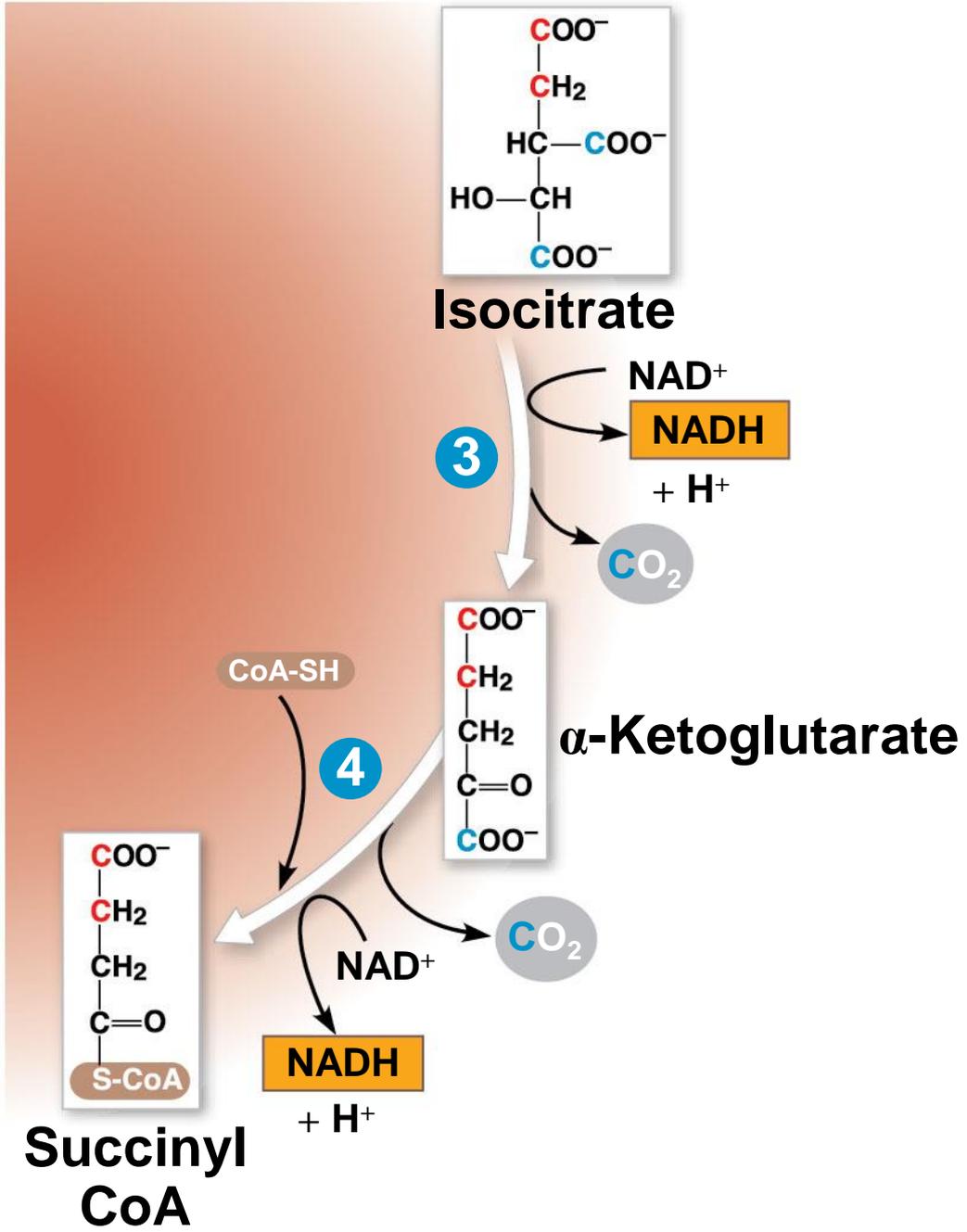


Figure 10.12c

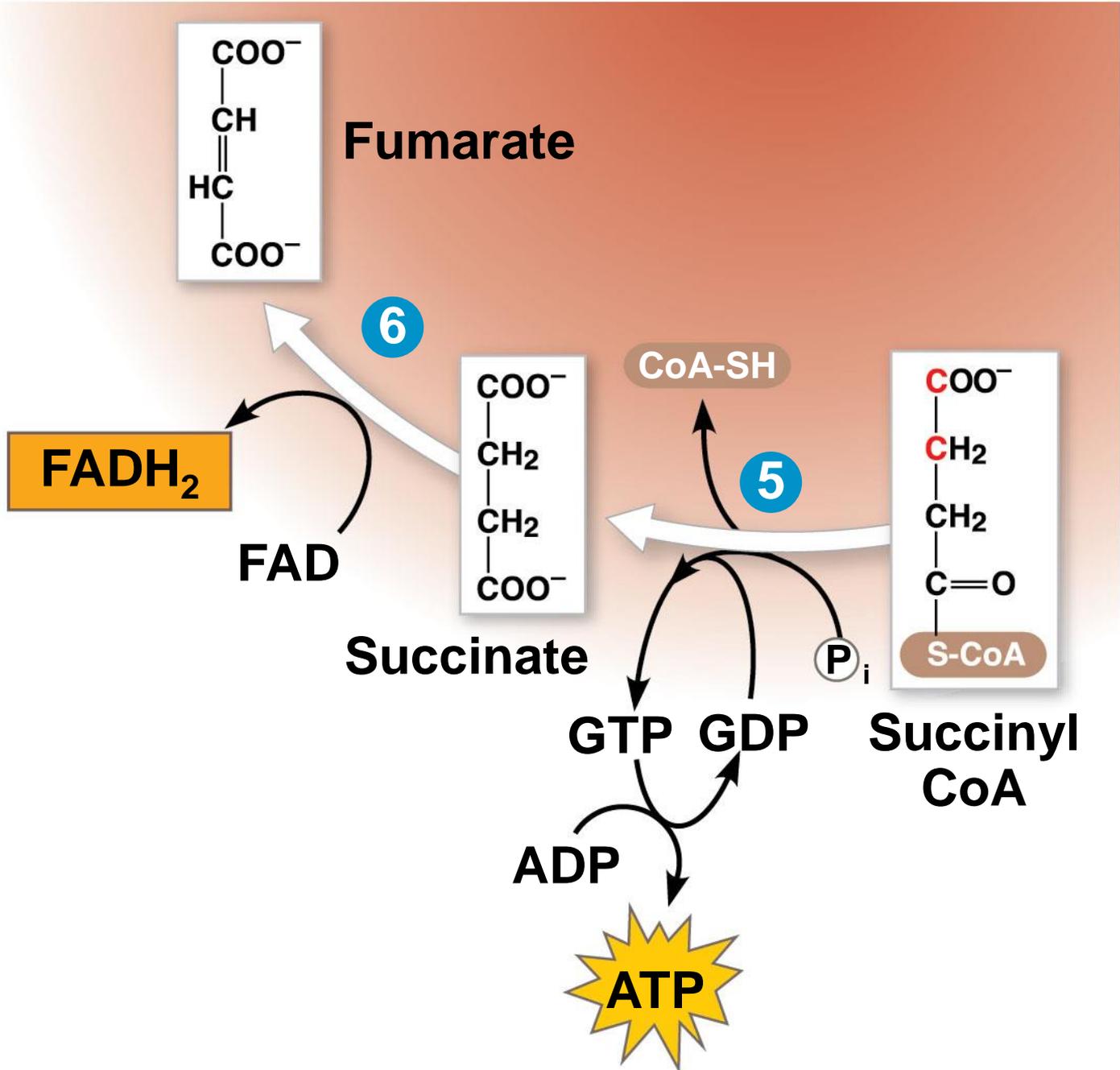
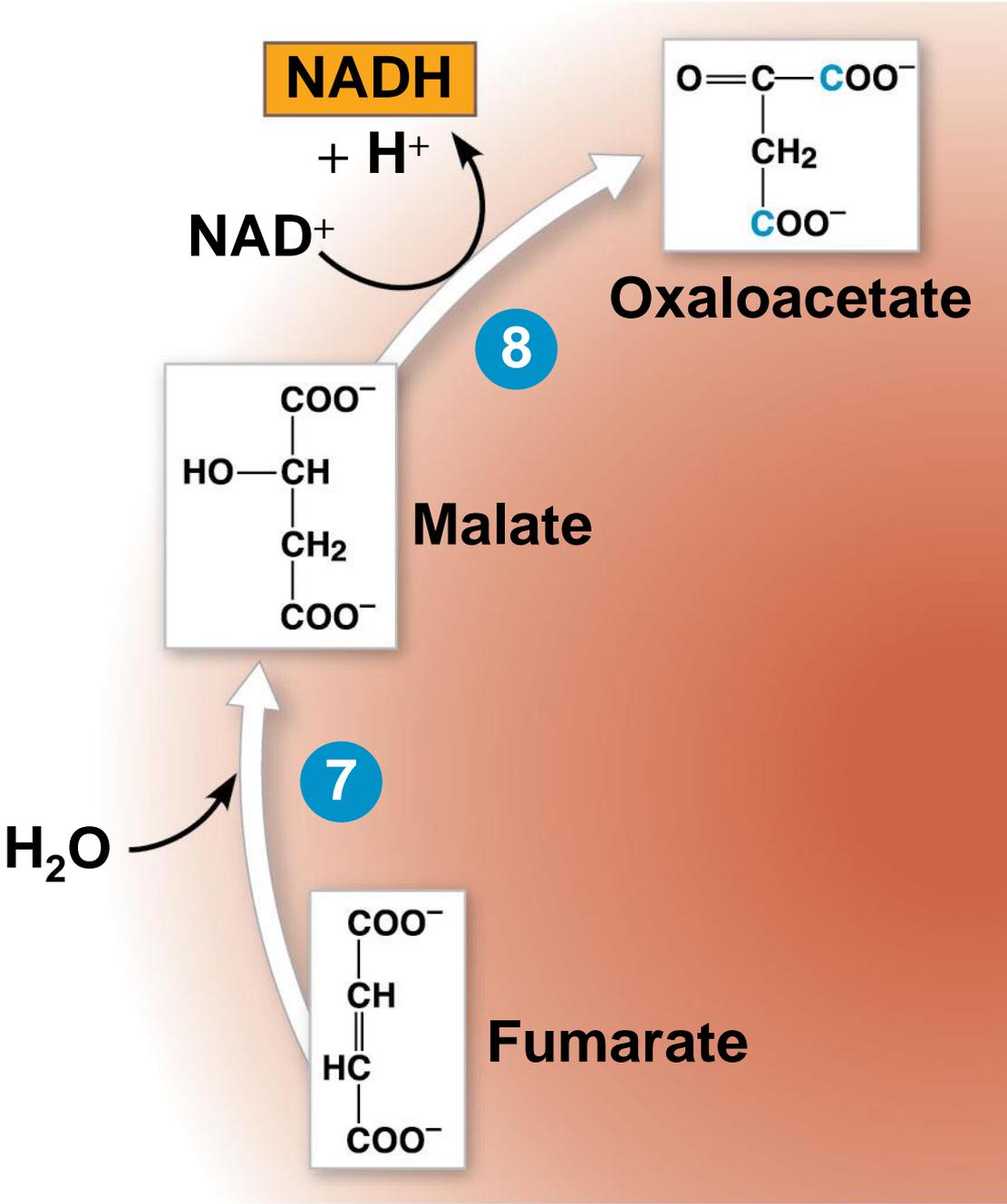


Figure 10.12d



# Concept 10.4: During oxidative phosphorylation, chemiosmosis couples electron transport to ATP synthesis

- Following glycolysis and the citric acid cycle, NADH and  $\text{FADH}_2$  account for most of the energy extracted from food
- These two electron carriers donate electrons to the electron transport chain, which powers ATP synthesis via oxidative phosphorylation

# The Pathway of Electron Transport

- The electron transport chain is in the inner membrane (cristae) of the mitochondrion
- Most of the chain's components are proteins, which exist in multiprotein complexes
- Electrons drop in free energy as they go down the chain and are finally passed to  $O_2$ , forming  $H_2O$
- Electron carriers alternate between reduced and oxidized states as they accept and donate electrons

- Electrons are transferred from NADH or FADH<sub>2</sub> to the electron transport chain
- Electrons are passed through a number of proteins including **cytochromes** (each with an iron atom) to O<sub>2</sub>
- The electron transport chain generates no ATP directly
- It breaks the large free-energy drop from food to O<sub>2</sub> into smaller steps that release energy in manageable amounts

Figure 10.UN09

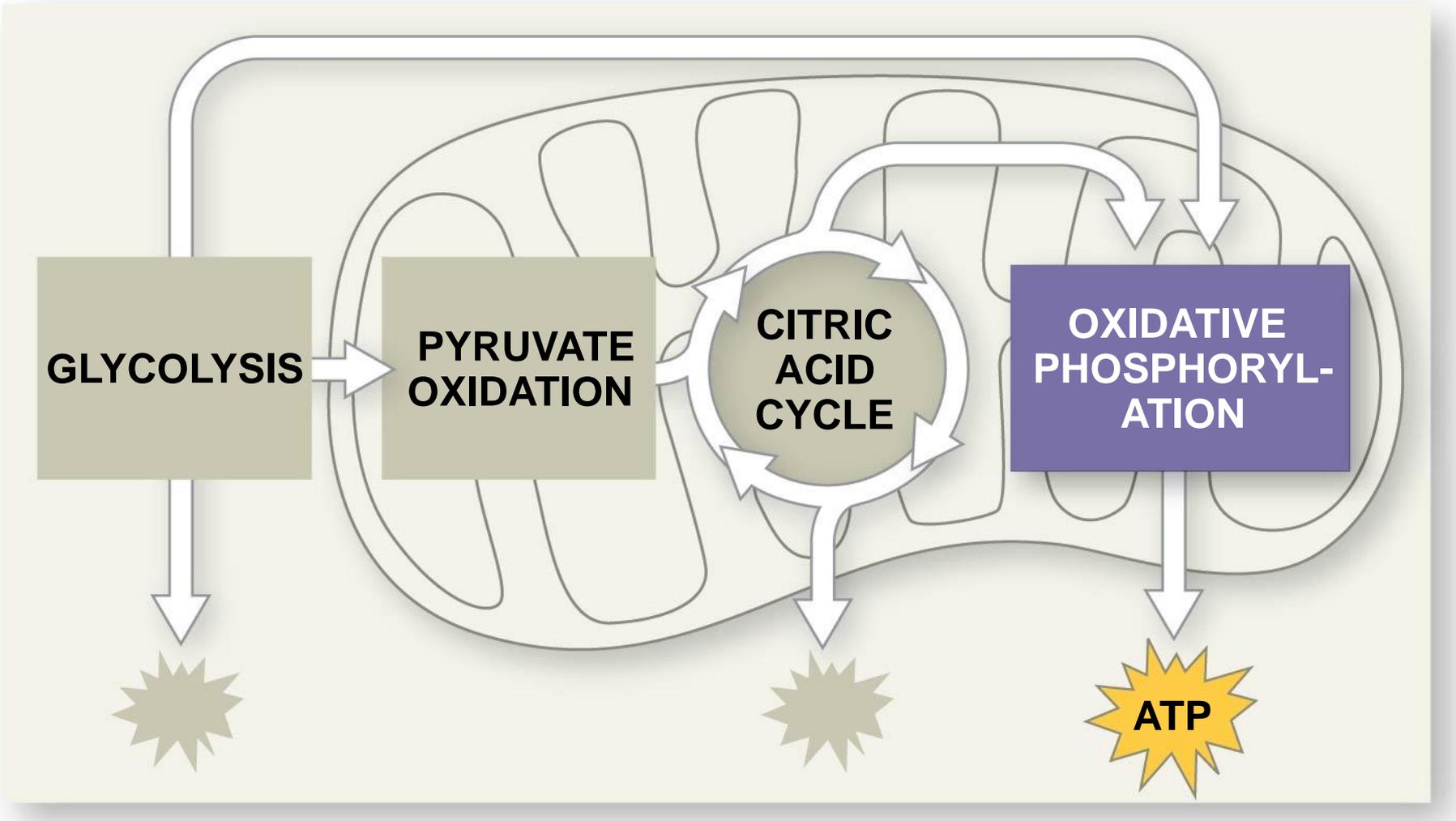


Figure 10.13

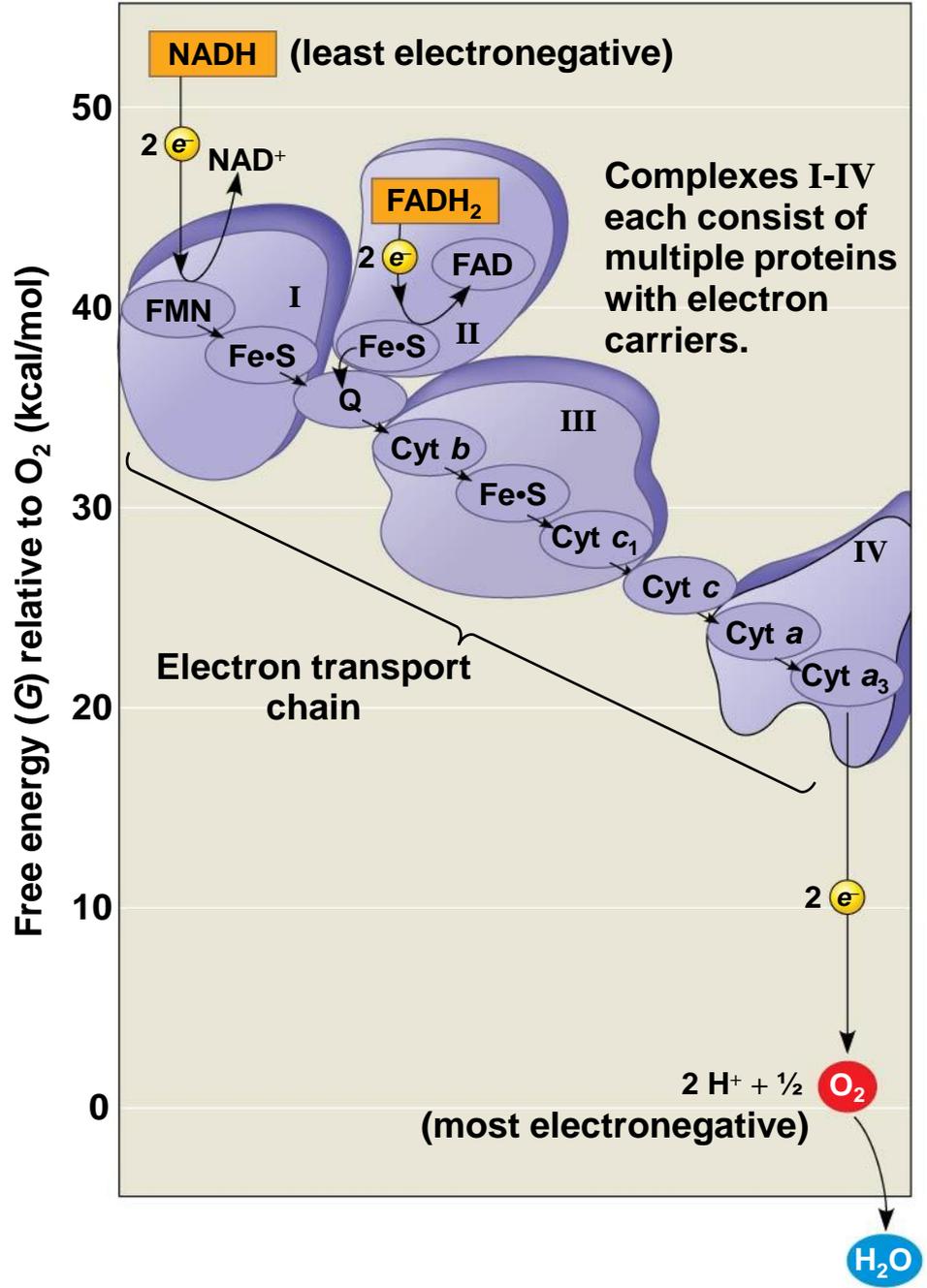


Figure 10.13a

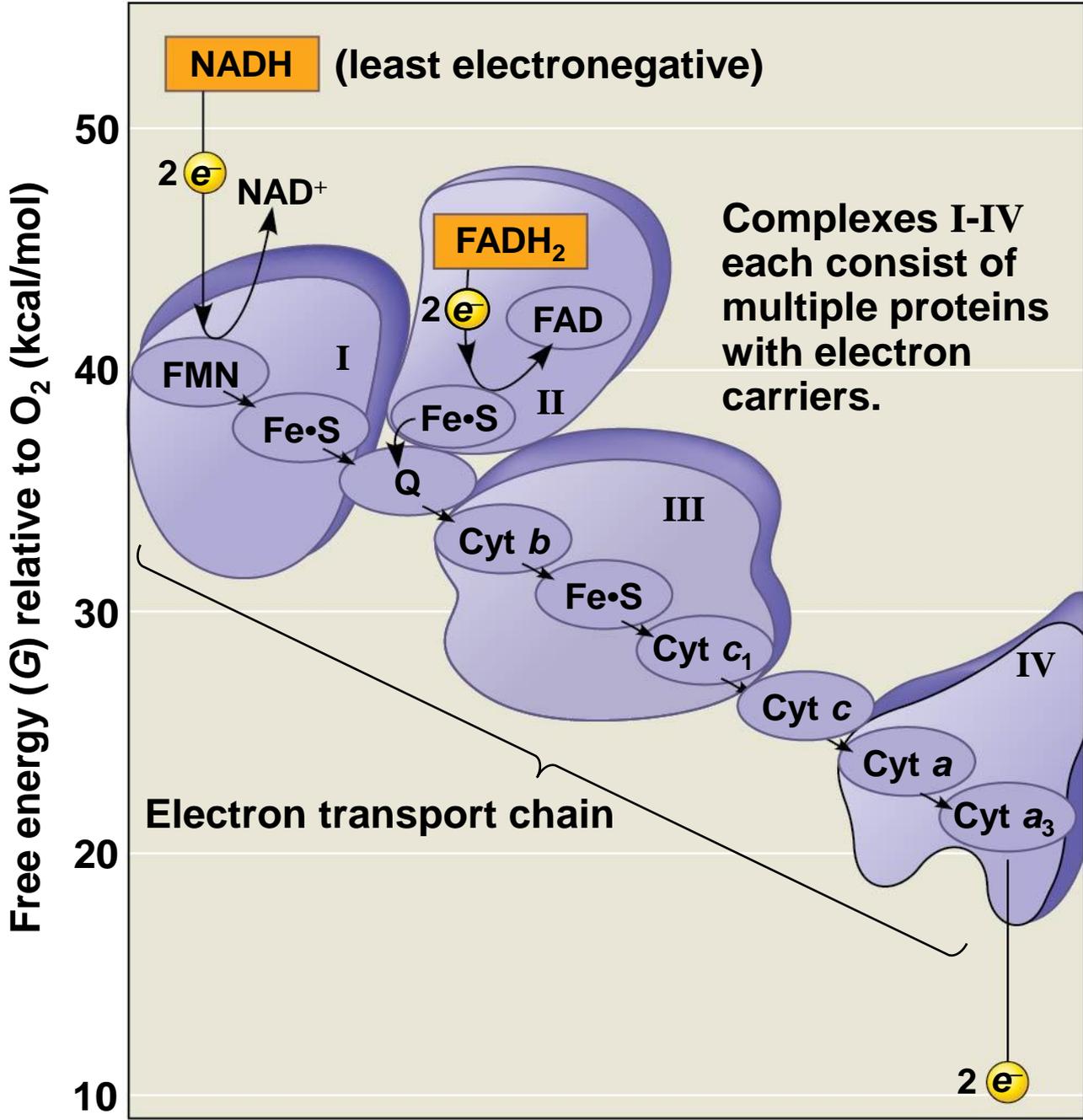
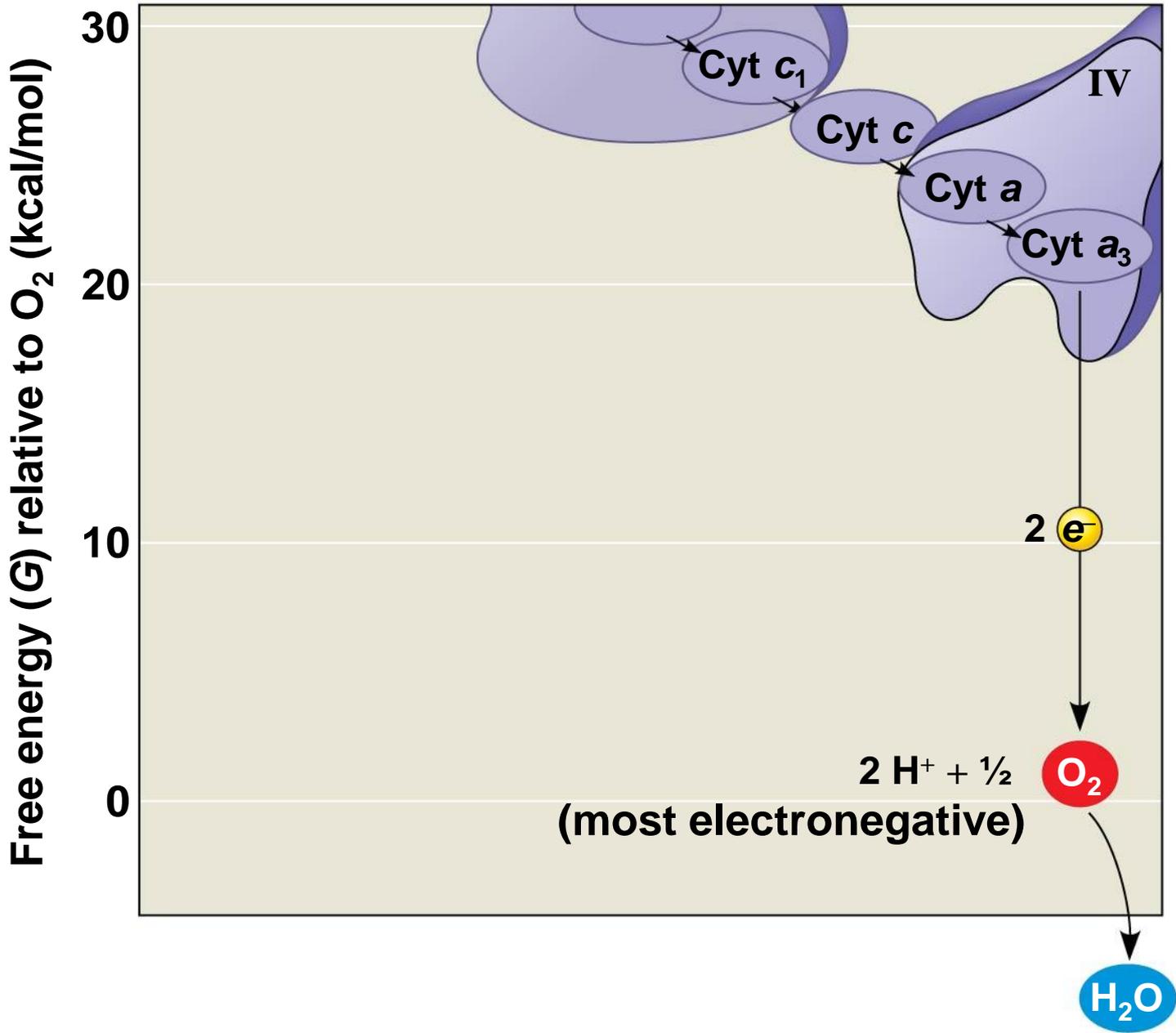


Figure 10.13b

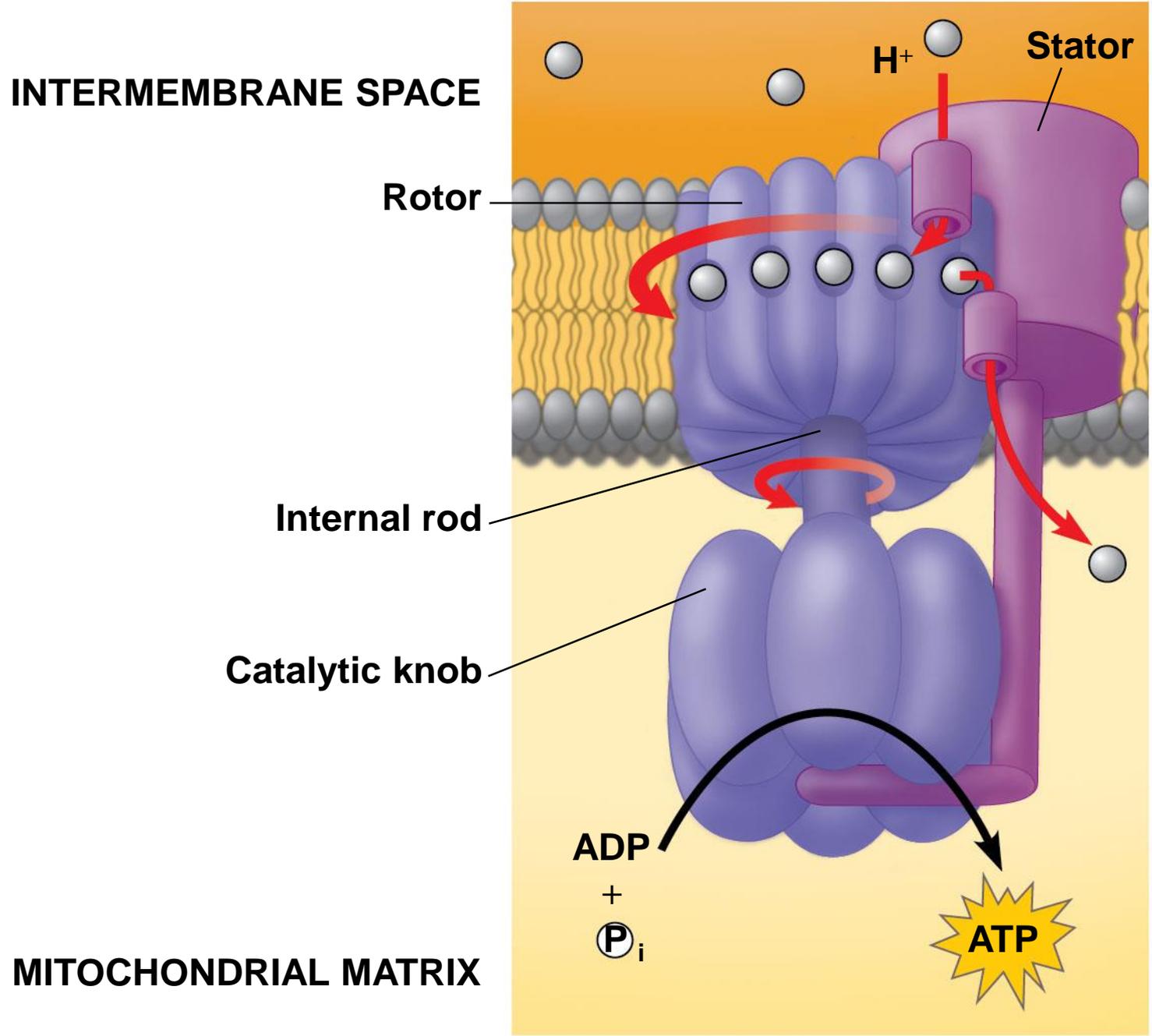


# Chemiosmosis: The Energy-Coupling Mechanism

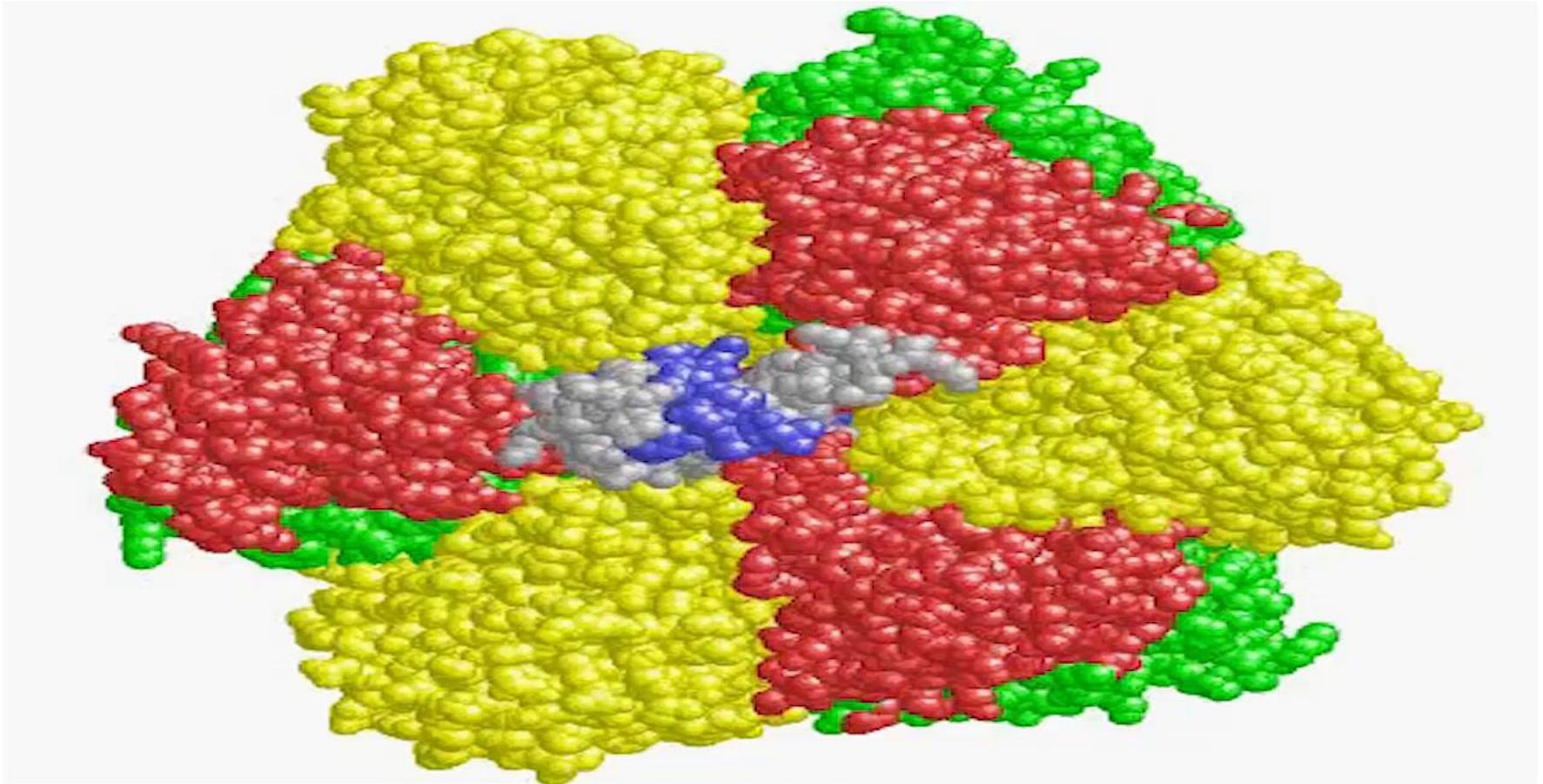
- The energy released as electrons are passed down the electron transport chain is used to pump  $H^+$  from the mitochondrial matrix to the intermembrane space
- $H^+$  then moves down its concentration gradient back across the membrane, passing through the protein complex **ATP synthase**

- $H^+$  moves into binding sites on the rotor of ATP synthase, causing it to spin in a way that catalyzes phosphorylation of ADP to ATP
- This is an example of **chemiosmosis**, the use of energy in a  $H^+$  gradient to drive cellular work

Figure 10.14

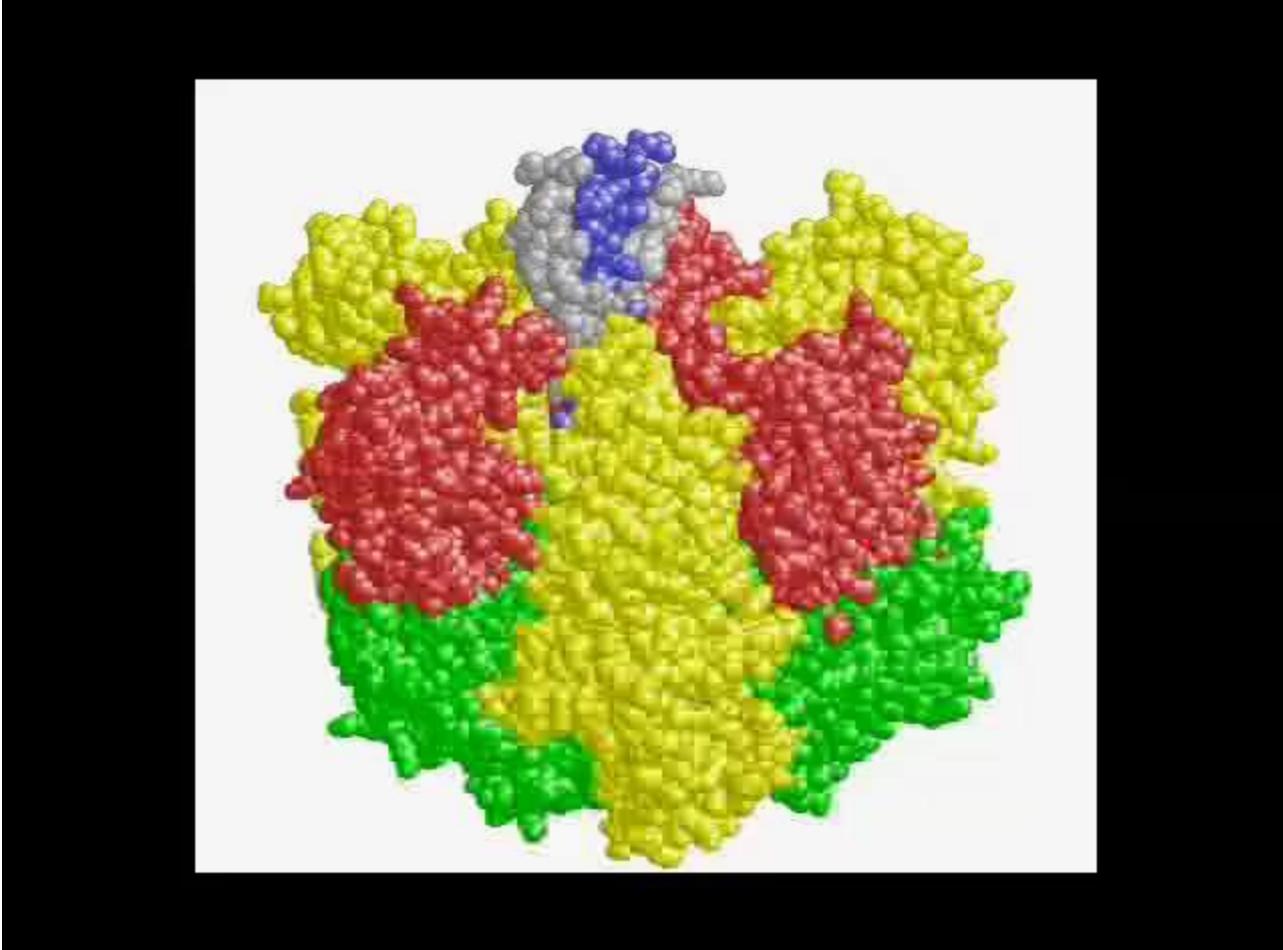


# Video: ATP Synthase 3-D Structure, Top View



**A top view of alpha3-beta3-gamma  
By Hongyun Wang & George Oster, U.C. Berkeley**

# Video: ATP Synthase 3-D Structure, Side View



- Certain electron carriers in the electron transport chain accept and release  $H^+$  along with the electrons
- In this way, the energy stored in a  $H^+$  gradient across a membrane couples the redox reactions of the electron transport chain to ATP synthesis
- The  $H^+$  gradient is referred to as a **proton-motive force**, emphasizing its capacity to do work

Figure 10.15

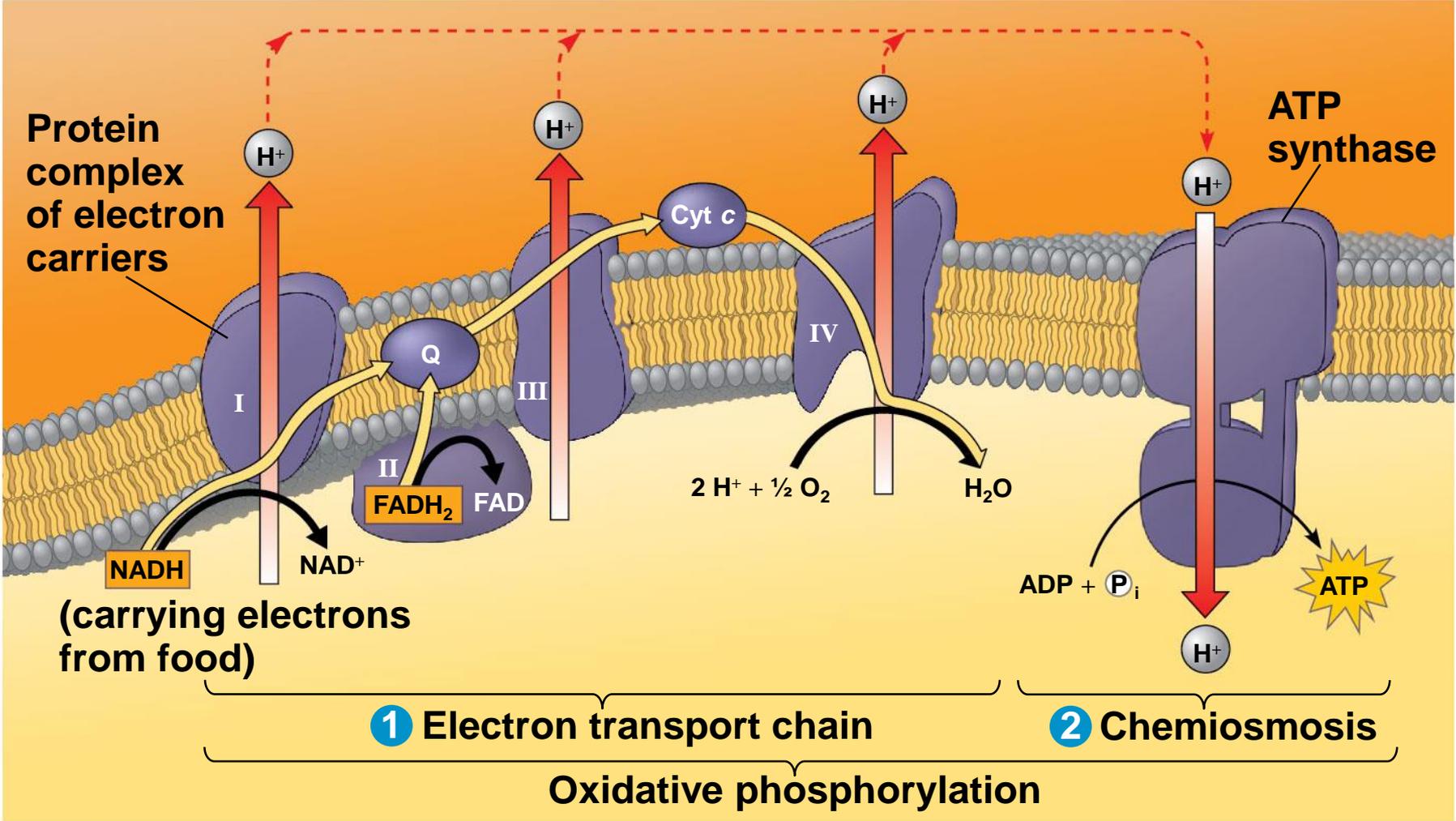


Figure 10.15a

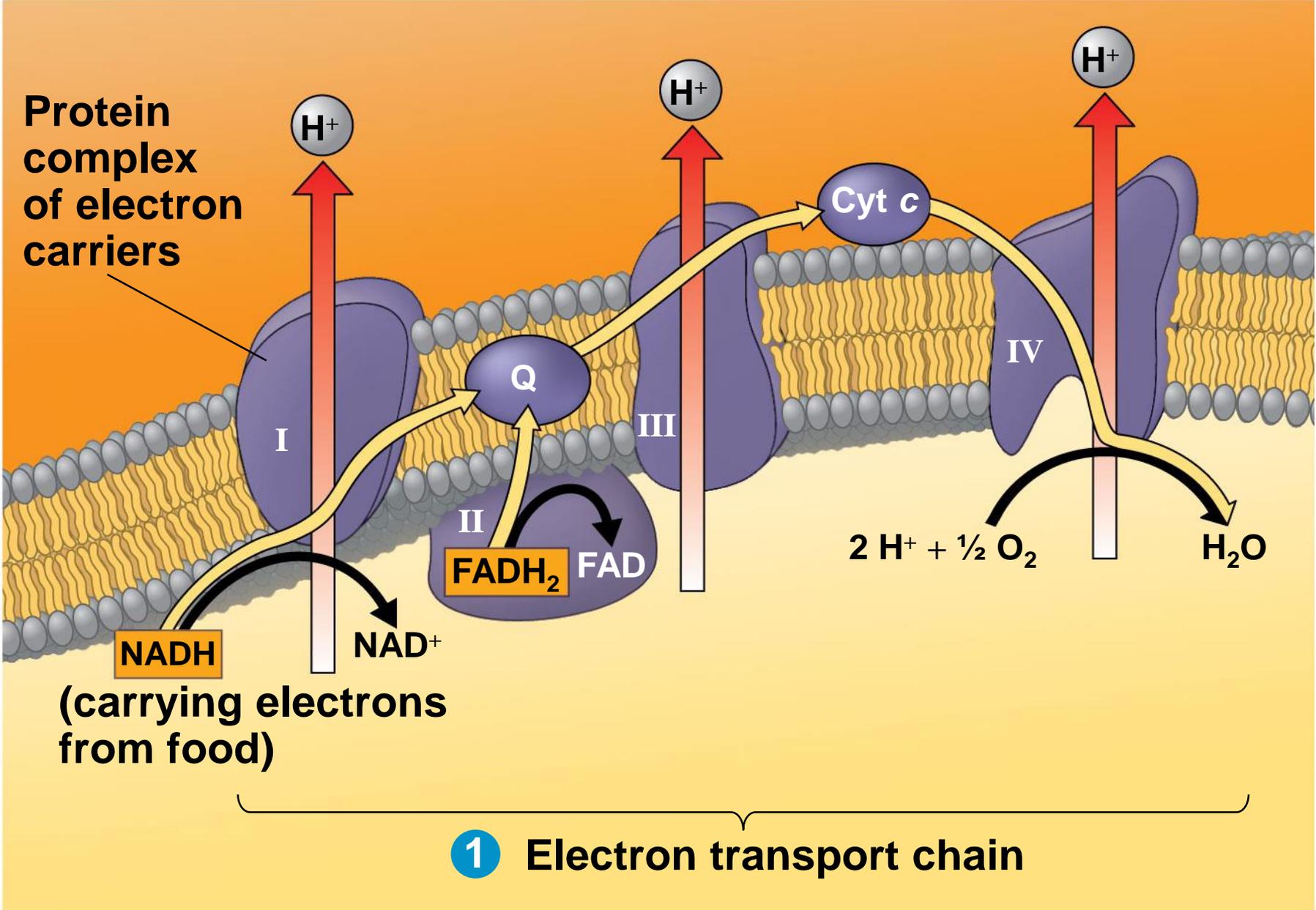
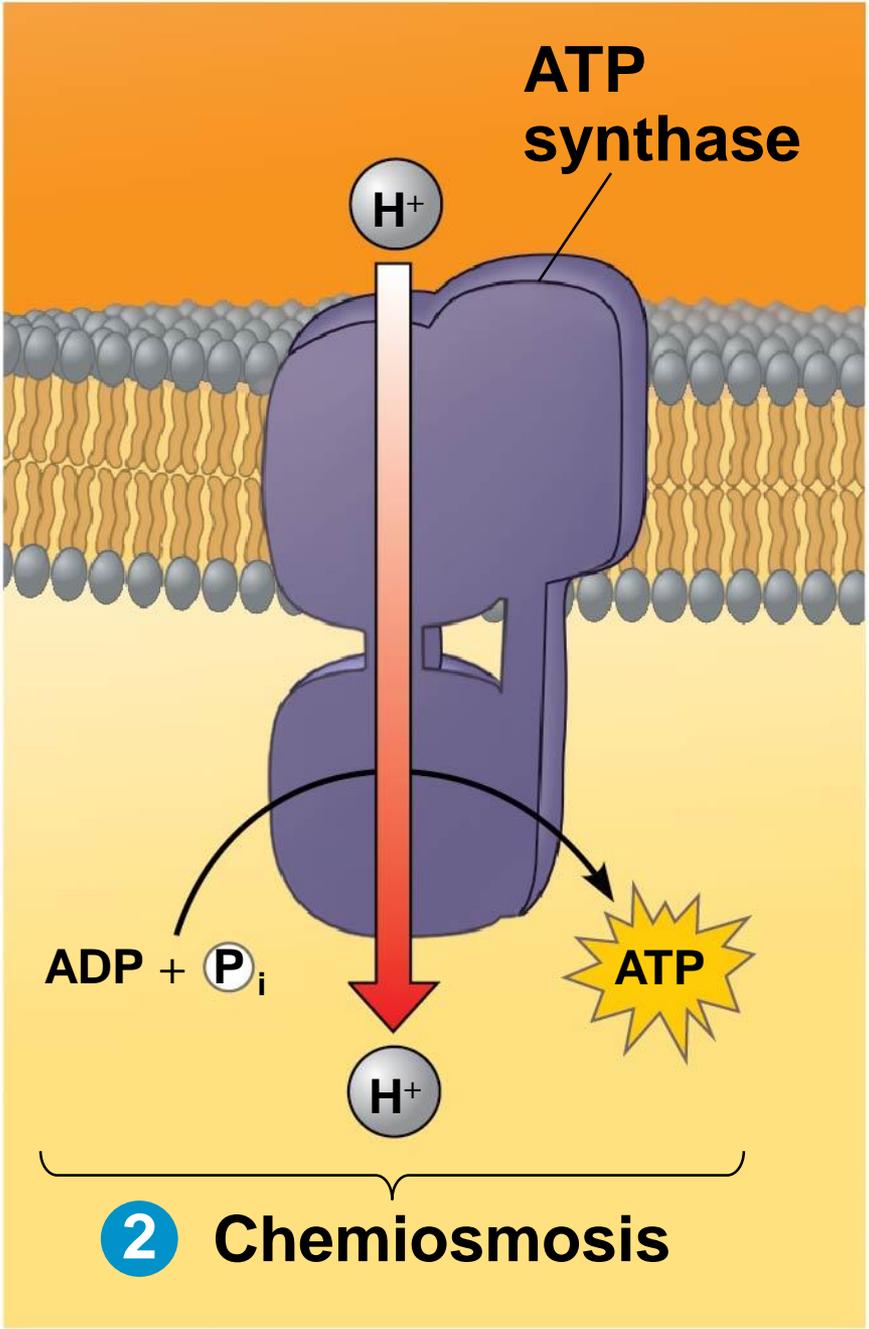


Figure 10.15b



# An Accounting of ATP Production by Cellular Respiration

- During cellular respiration, most energy flows in this sequence:  
glucose → NADH → electron transport chain → proton-motive force → ATP
- About 34% of the energy in a glucose molecule is transferred to ATP during cellular respiration, making about 32 ATP
- The rest of the energy is lost as heat

Figure 10.16

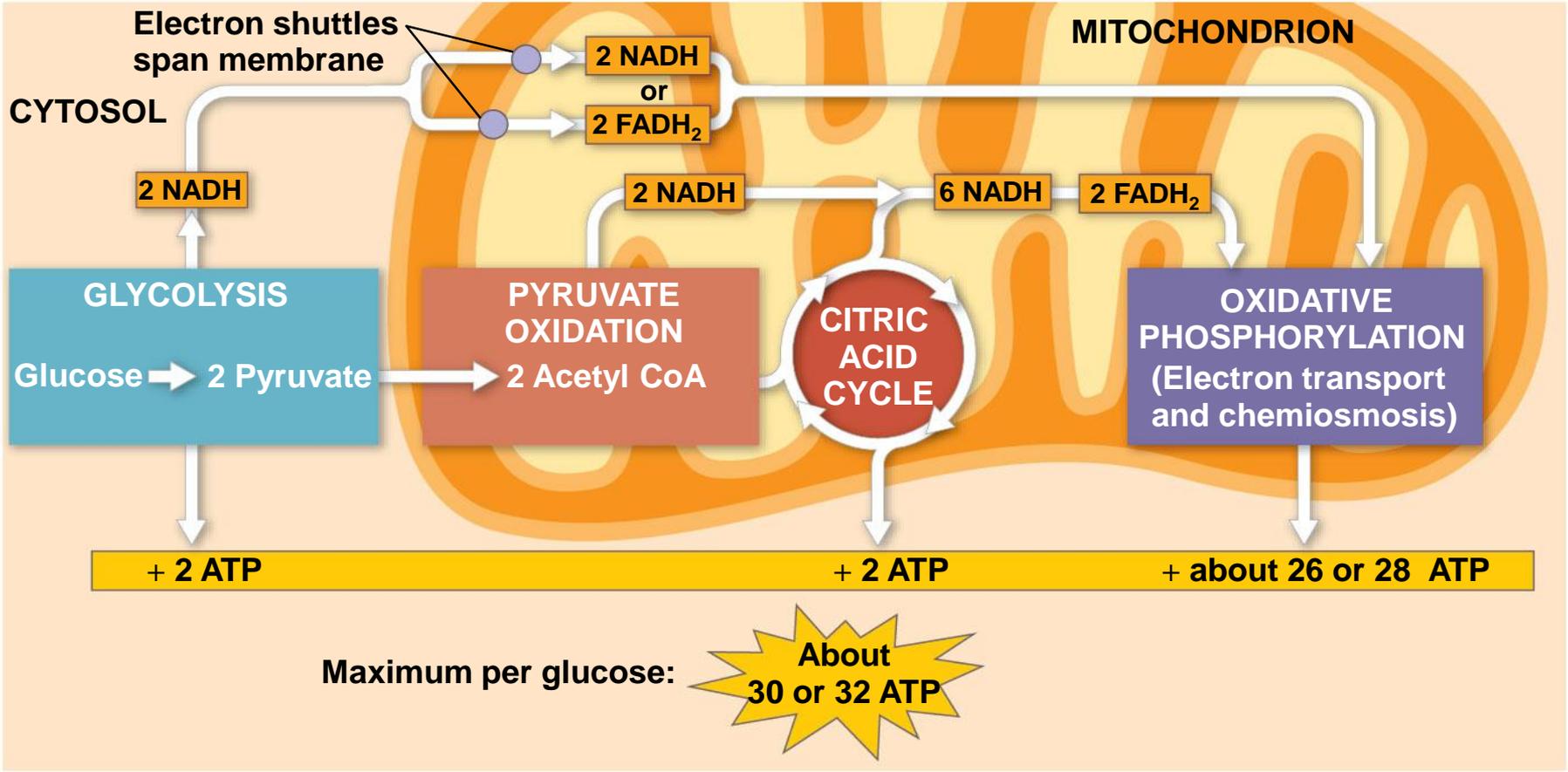


Figure 10.16a

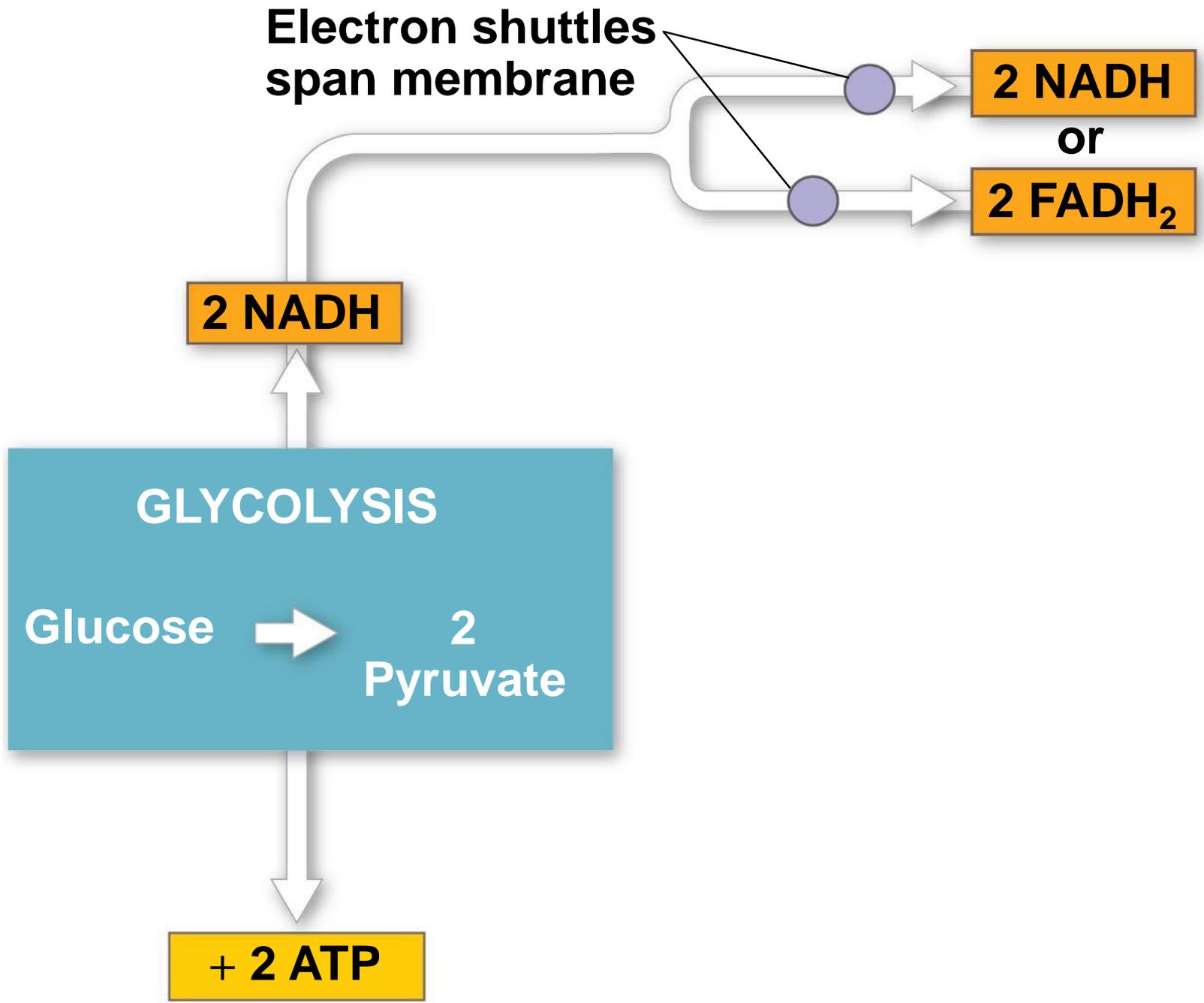


Figure 10.16b

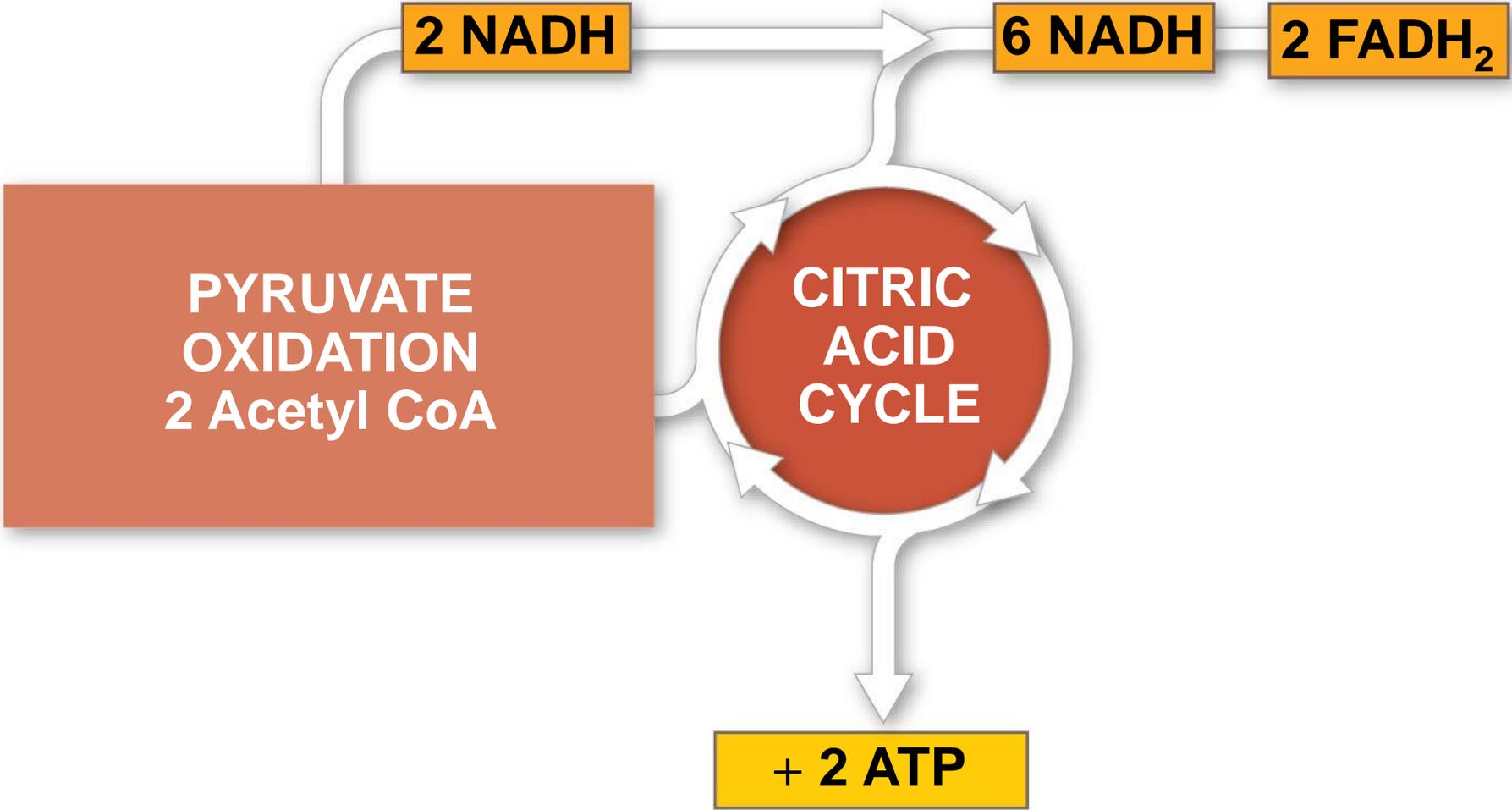
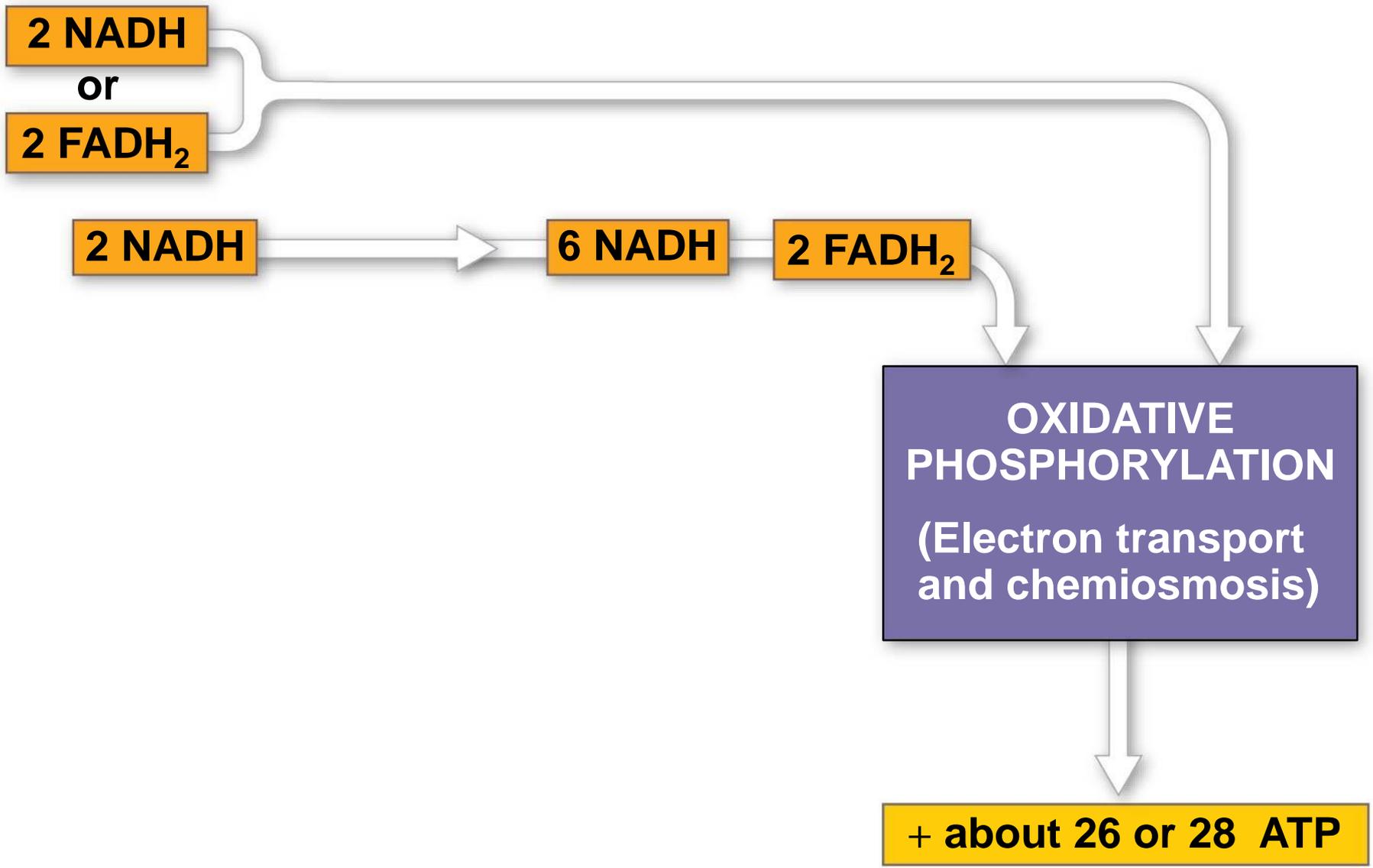


Figure 10.16c



**Maximum per glucose:**

**About  
30 or 32 ATP**

A yellow starburst graphic with a black outline, containing the text 'About 30 or 32 ATP' in bold black font.

- There are three reasons why the number of ATP is not known exactly
  1. Photophosphorylation and the redox reactions are not directly coupled; the ratio of NADH to ATP molecules is not a whole number
  2. ATP yield varies depending on whether electrons are passed to  $\text{NAD}^+$  or FAD in the mitochondrial matrix
  3. The proton-motive force is also used to drive other kinds of work

# Concept 10.5: Fermentation and anaerobic respiration enable cells to produce ATP without the use of oxygen

- Most cellular respiration depends on electronegative oxygen to pull electrons down the transport chain
- Without oxygen, the electron transport chain will cease to operate
- In that case, glycolysis couples with anaerobic respiration or fermentation to produce ATP

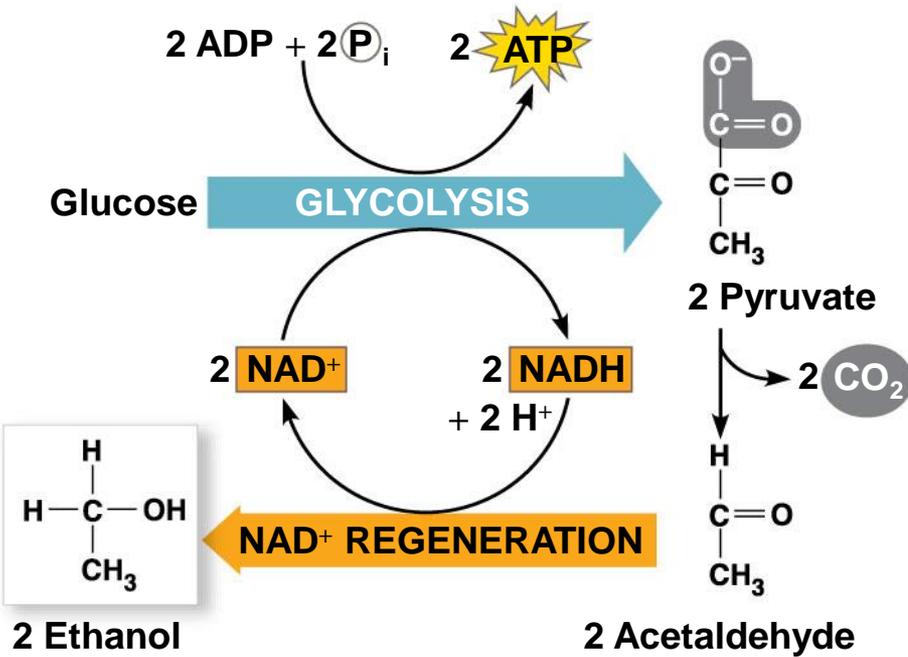
- Anaerobic respiration uses an electron transport chain with a final electron acceptor other than oxygen, for example, sulfate
- Fermentation uses substrate-level phosphorylation instead of an electron transport chain to generate ATP

# Types of Fermentation

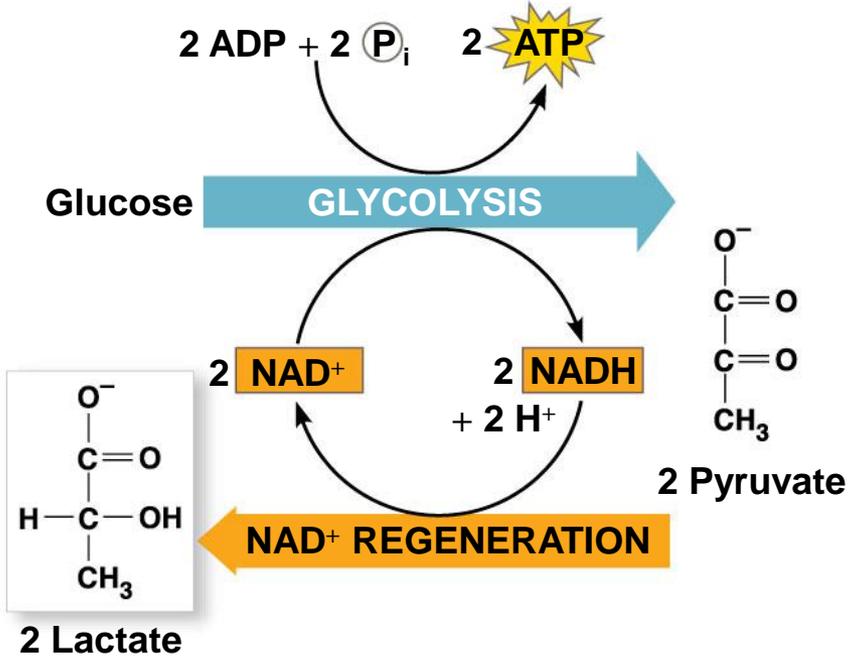
- Fermentation consists of glycolysis plus reactions that regenerate  $\text{NAD}^+$ , which can be reused by glycolysis
- Two common types are alcohol fermentation and lactic acid fermentation

- In **alcohol fermentation**, pyruvate is converted to ethanol in two steps
  - The first step releases  $\text{CO}_2$  from pyruvate
  - The second step produces  $\text{NAD}^+$  and ethanol
- Alcohol fermentation by yeast is used in brewing, winemaking, and baking

Figure 10.17

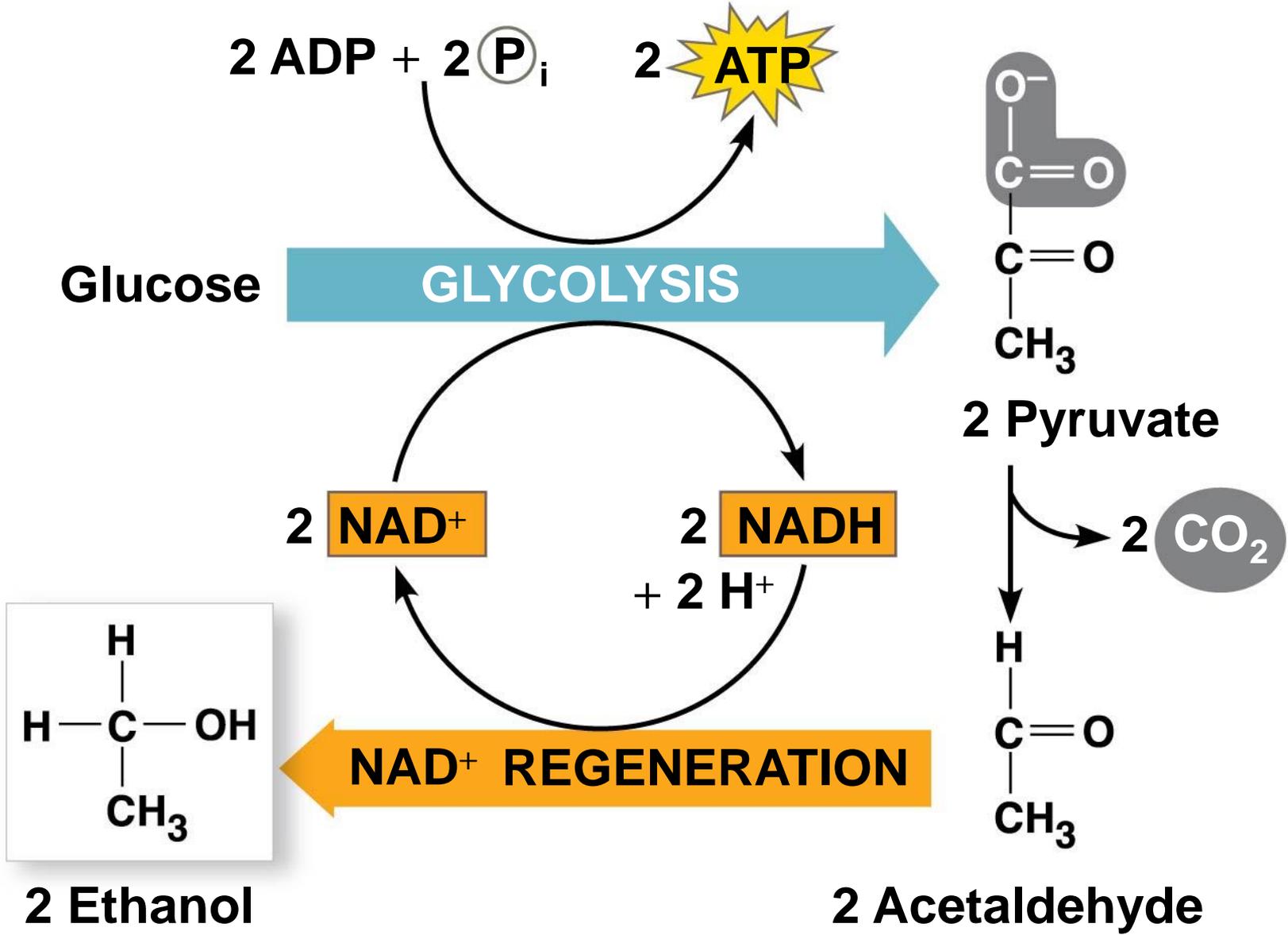


(a) Alcohol fermentation



(b) Lactic acid fermentation

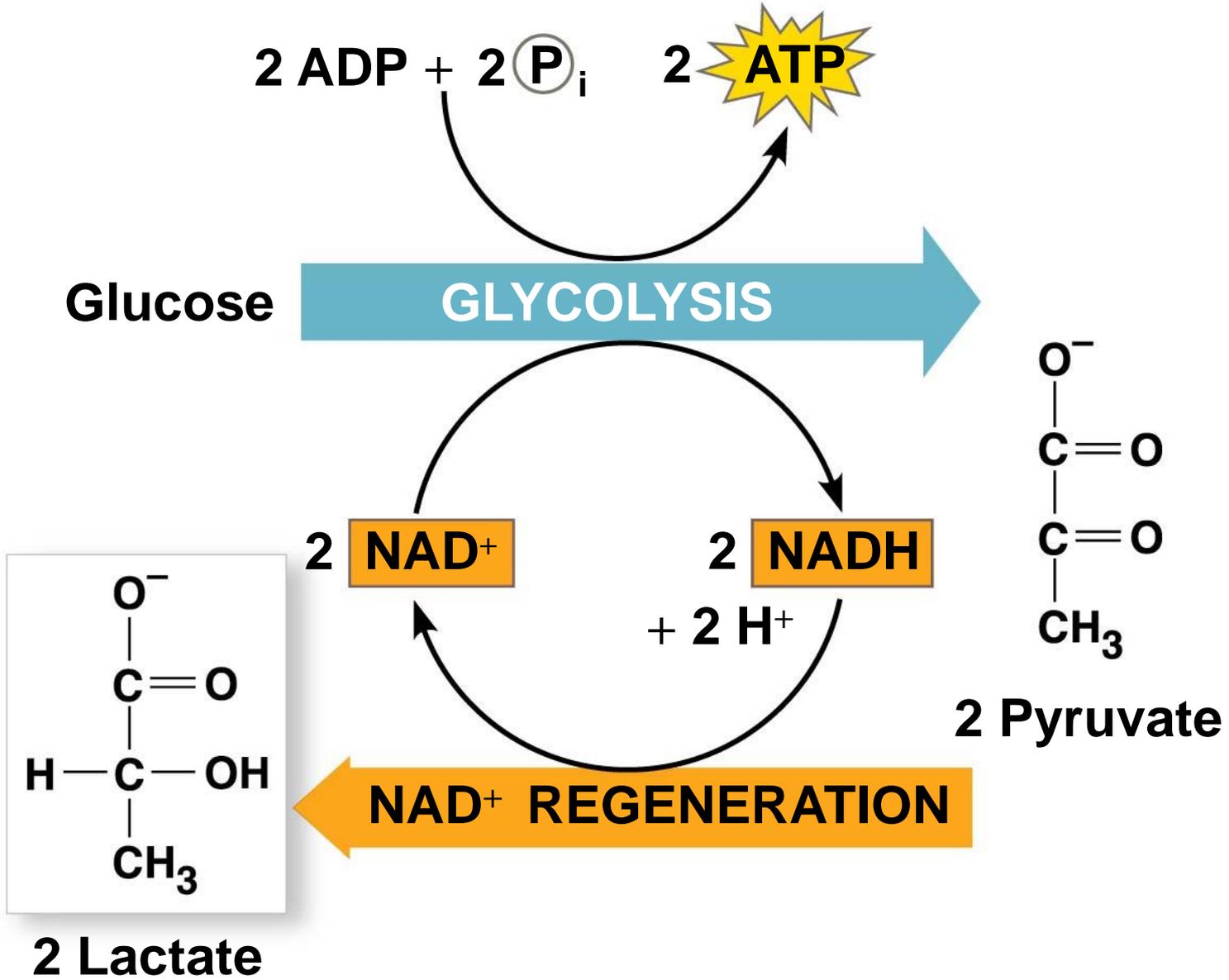
Figure 10.17a



(a) Alcohol fermentation

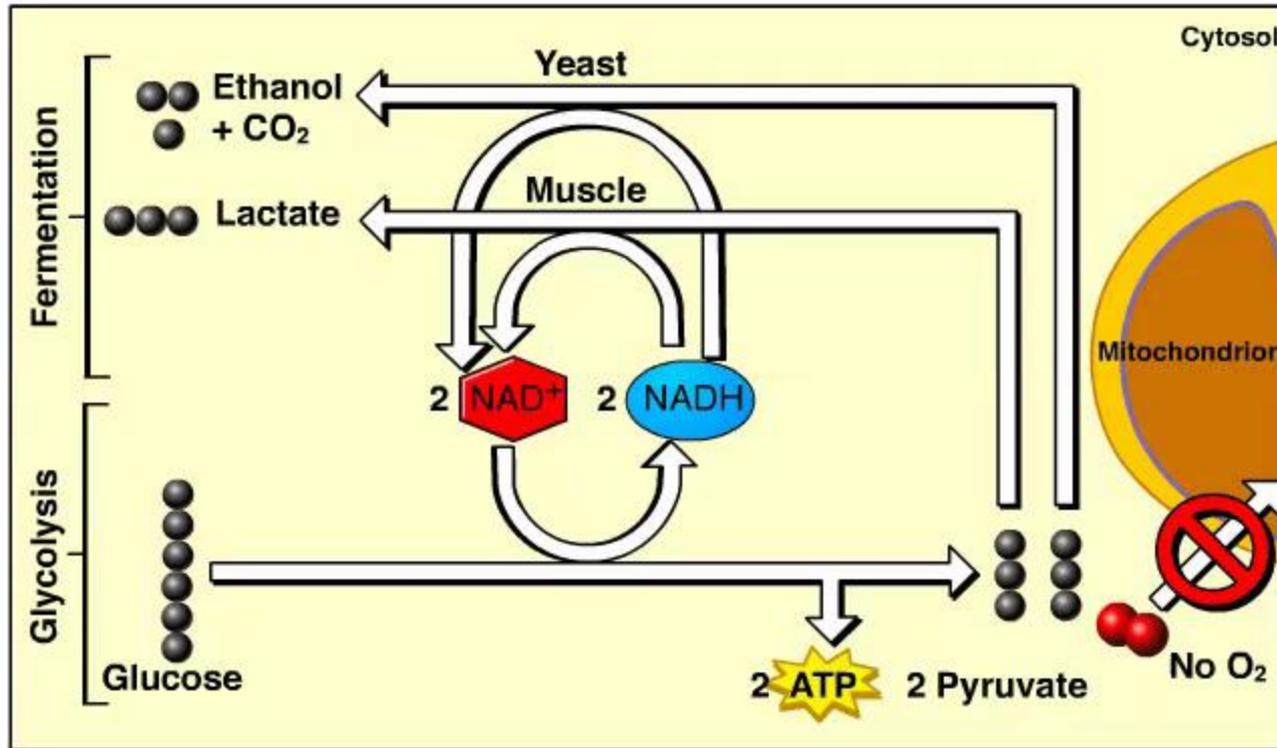
- In **lactic acid fermentation**, pyruvate is reduced by NADH, forming  $\text{NAD}^+$  and lactate as end products, with no release of  $\text{CO}_2$
- Lactic acid fermentation by some fungi and bacteria is used to make cheese and yogurt
- Human muscle cells use lactic acid fermentation to generate ATP during strenuous exercise when  $\text{O}_2$  is scarce

Figure 10.17b



**(b) Lactic acid fermentation**

# Animation: Fermentation Overview



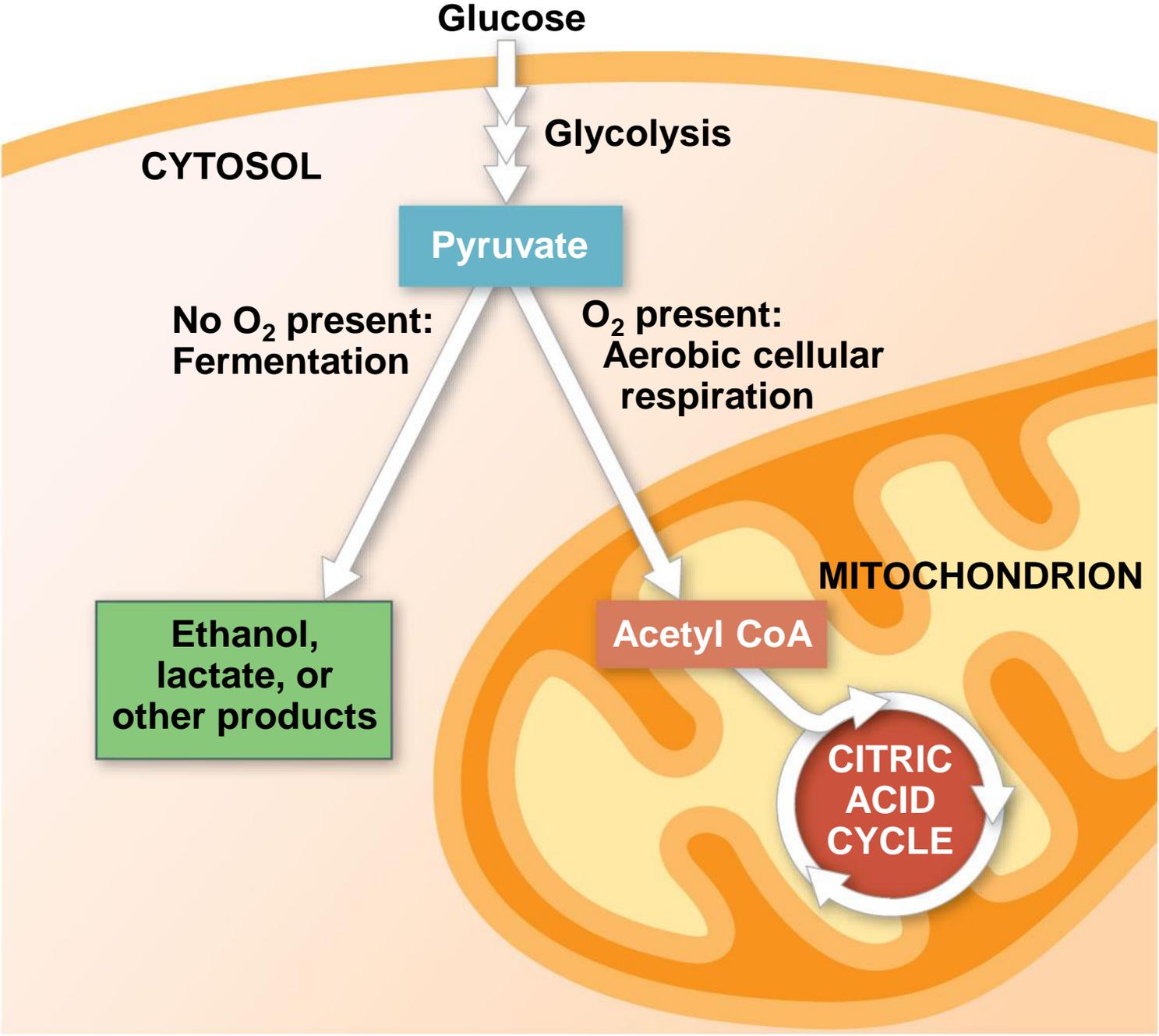
# Comparing Fermentation with Anaerobic and Aerobic Respiration

- All use glycolysis (net ATP = 2) to oxidize glucose and harvest the chemical energy of food
- In all three, NAD<sup>+</sup> is the oxidizing agent that accepts electrons during glycolysis

- The processes have different mechanisms for oxidizing NADH to NAD<sup>+</sup>:
  - In fermentation, an organic molecule (such as pyruvate or acetaldehyde) acts as a final electron acceptor
  - In cellular respiration, electrons are transferred to the electron transport chain
- Cellular respiration produces 32 ATP per glucose molecule; fermentation produces 2 ATP per glucose molecule

- **Obligate anaerobes** carry out fermentation or anaerobic respiration and cannot survive in the presence of O<sub>2</sub>
- Yeast and many bacteria are **facultative anaerobes**, meaning that they can survive using either fermentation or cellular respiration
- In a facultative anaerobe, pyruvate is a fork in the metabolic road that leads to two alternative catabolic routes

Figure 10.18



# The Evolutionary Significance of Glycolysis

- Glycolysis is an ancient process
- Early prokaryotes likely used glycolysis to produce ATP before O<sub>2</sub> accumulated in the atmosphere
- Used in both cellular respiration and fermentation, it is the most widespread metabolic pathway on Earth
- This pathway occurs in the cytosol so does not require the membrane-bound organelles of eukaryotic cells

# **Concept 10.6: Glycolysis and the citric acid cycle connect to many other metabolic pathways**

- Glycolysis and the citric acid cycle are major intersections to various catabolic and anabolic pathways

# The Versatility of Catabolism

- Catabolic pathways funnel electrons from many kinds of organic molecules into cellular respiration
- Glycolysis accepts a wide range of carbohydrates including starch, glycogen, and several disaccharides
- Proteins that are used for fuel must be digested to amino acids and their amino groups must be removed

- Fats are digested to glycerol (used to produce compounds needed for glycolysis) and fatty acids
- Fatty acids are broken down by **beta oxidation** and yield acetyl CoA, NADH, and FADH<sub>2</sub>
- An oxidized gram of fat produces more than twice as much ATP as an oxidized gram of carbohydrate

Figure 10.19\_1

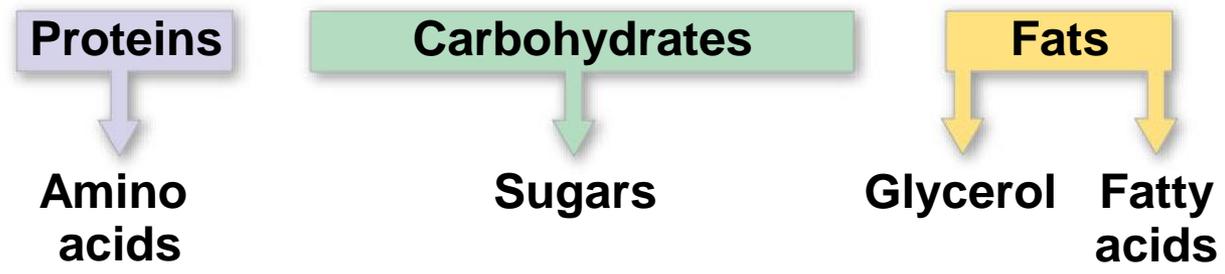


Figure 10.19\_2

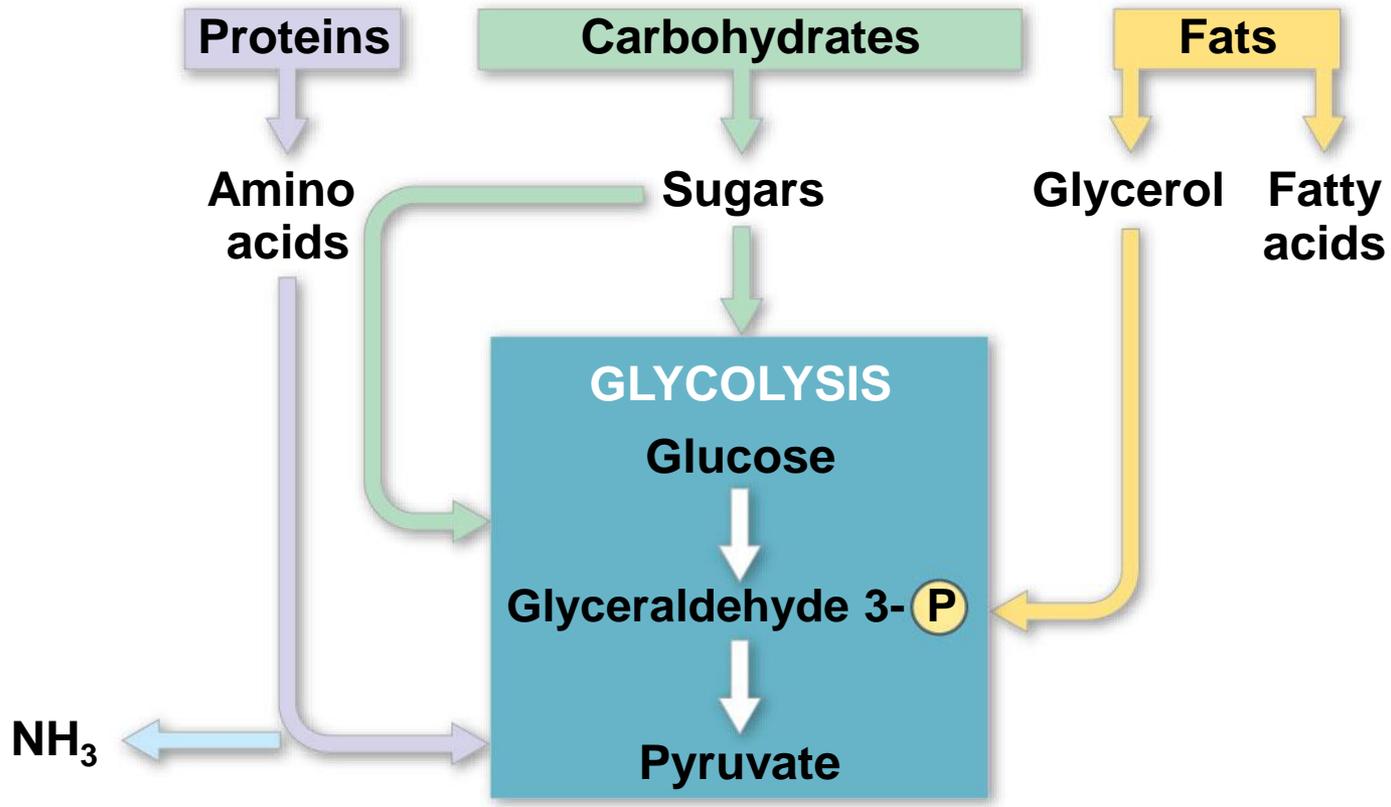


Figure 10.19\_3

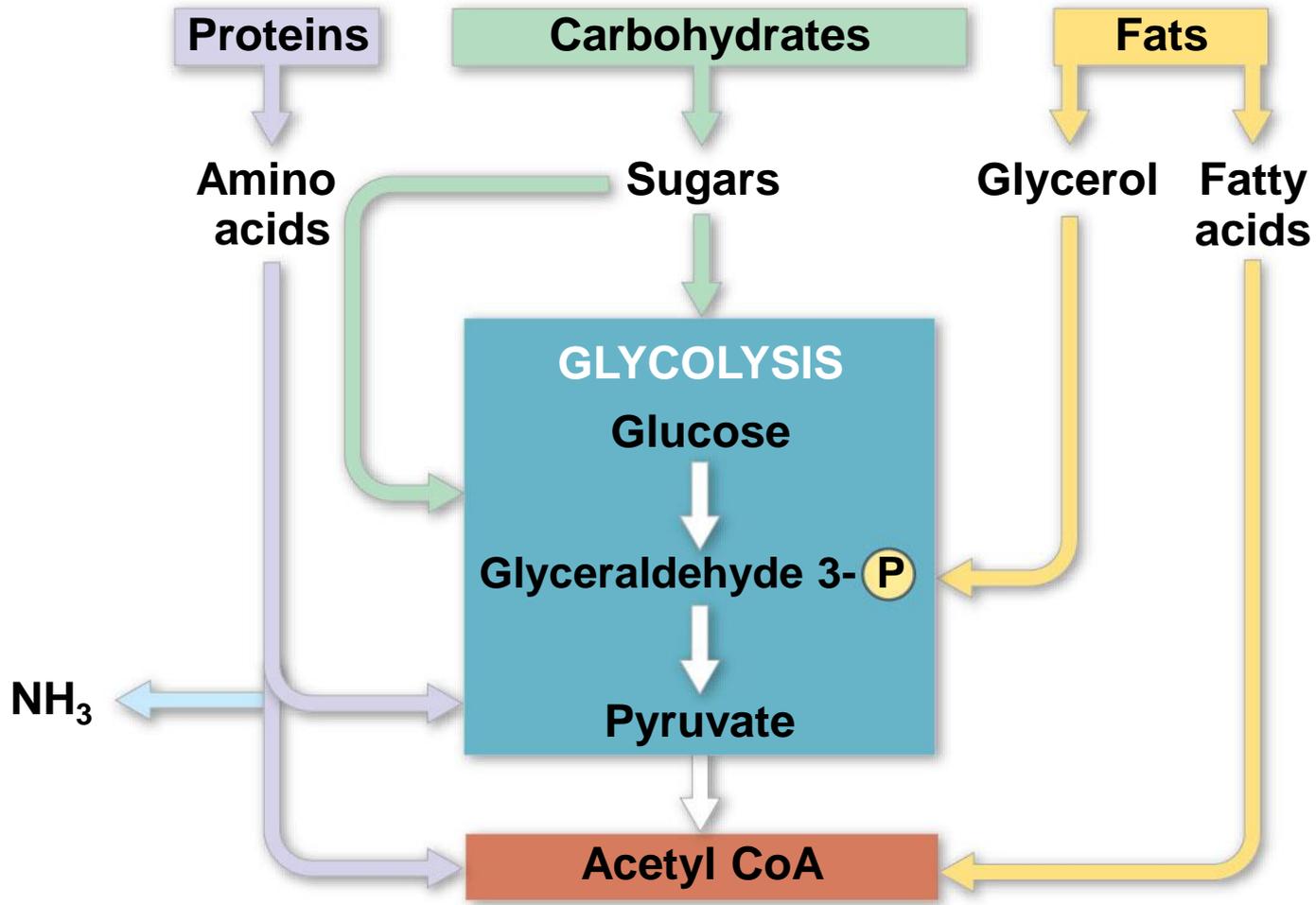


Figure 10.19\_4

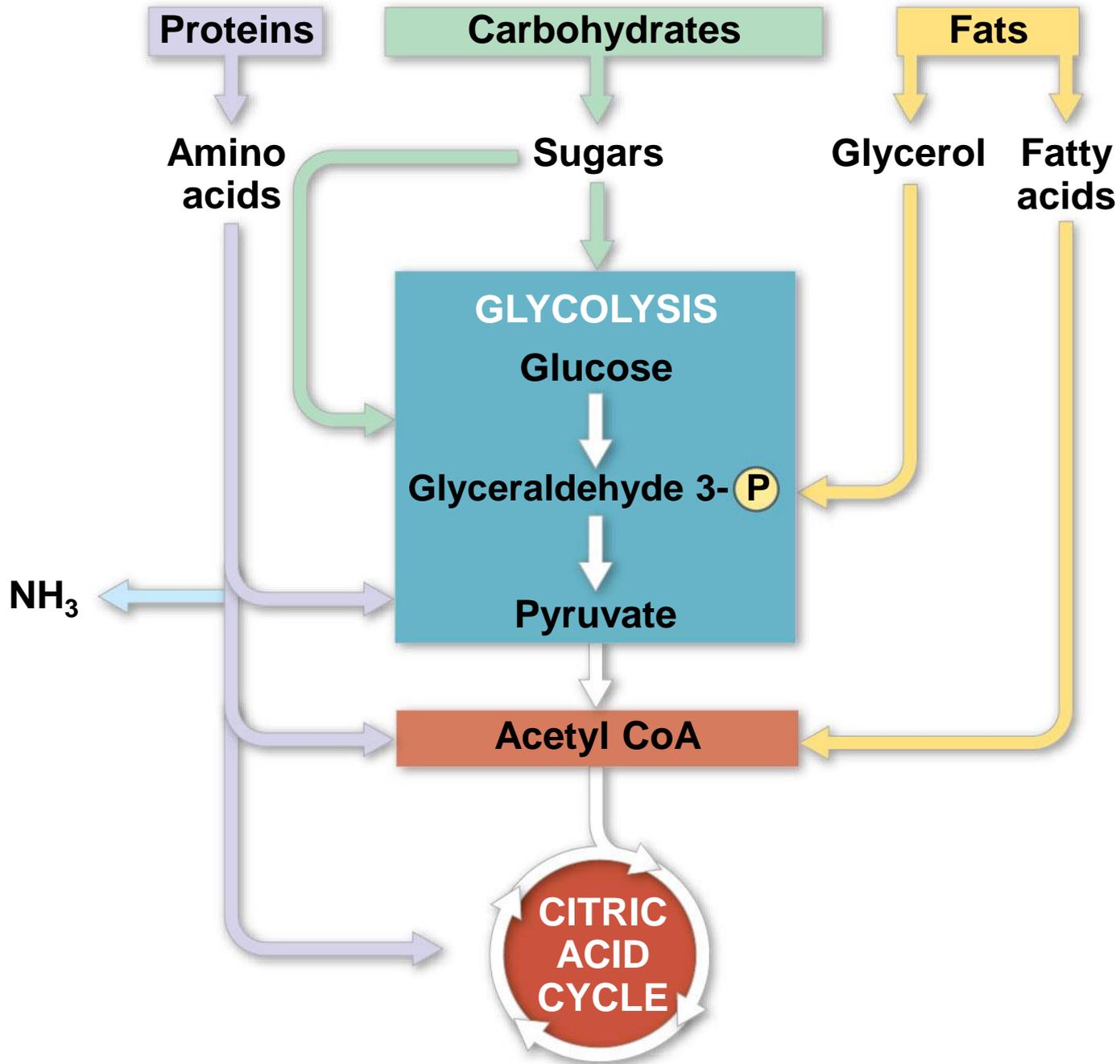
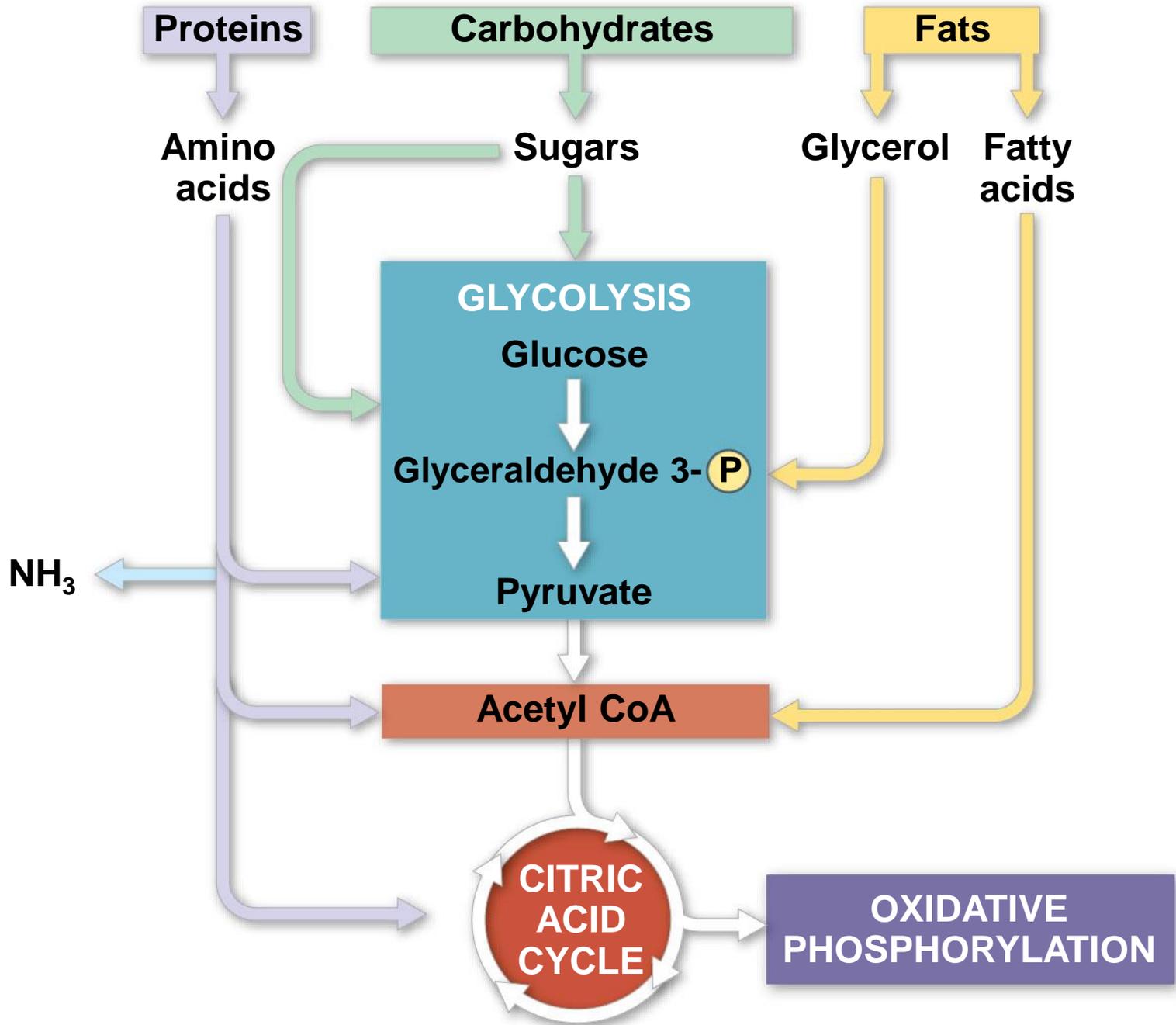


Figure 10.19\_5



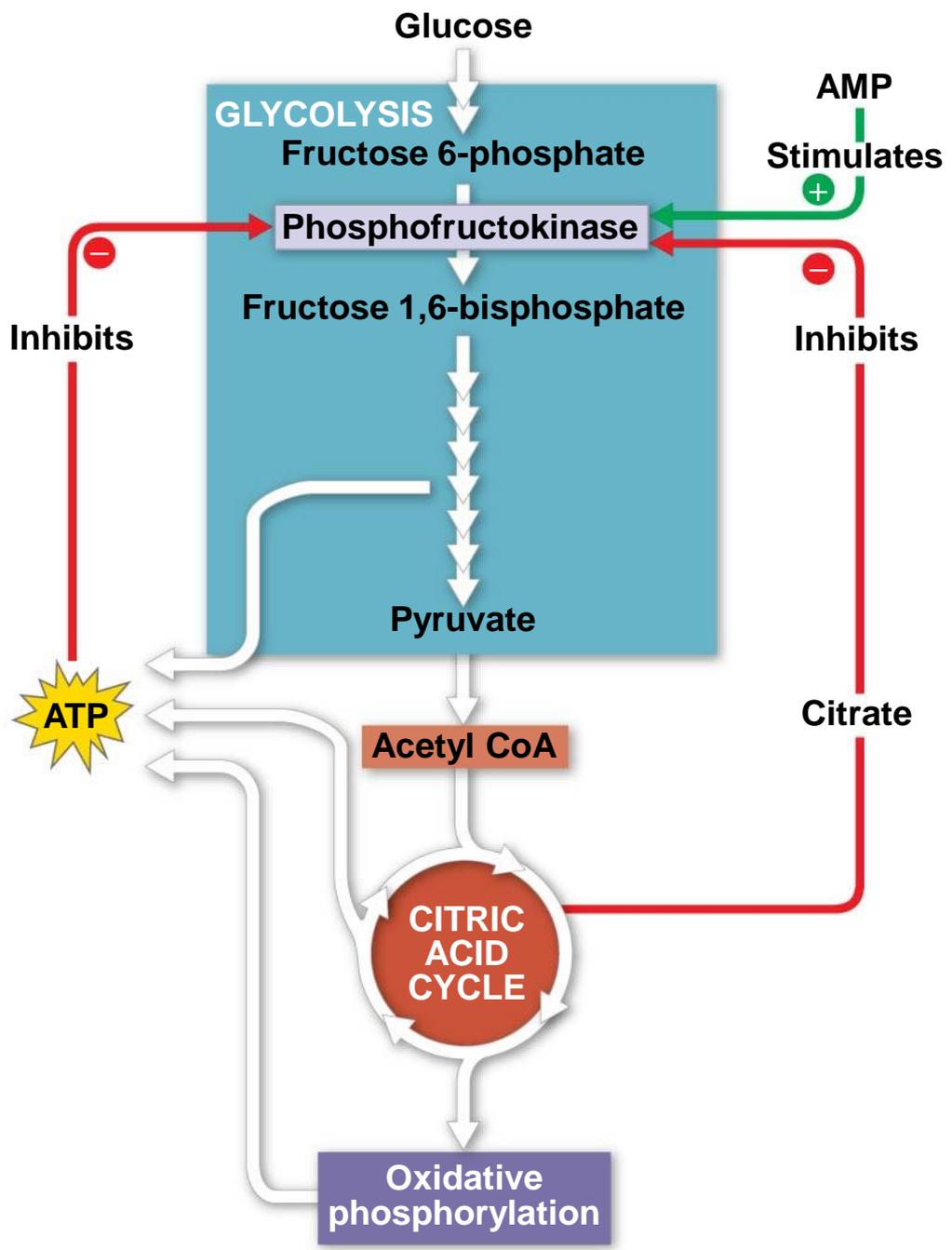
# Biosynthesis (Anabolic Pathways)

- The body uses small molecules from food to build other their own molecules such as proteins
- These small molecules may come directly from food, from glycolysis, or from the citric acid cycle

# Regulation of Cellular Respiration via Feedback Mechanisms

- Feedback inhibition is the most common mechanism for metabolic control
- If ATP concentration begins to drop, respiration speeds up; when there is plenty of ATP, respiration slows down
- Control of catabolism is based mainly on regulating the activity of enzymes at strategic points in the catabolic pathway

Figure 10.20



## Data from the Experiment

Thyroid Hormone Level	Oxygen Consumption Rate [nmol O <sub>2</sub> /(min · mg cells)]
Low	4.3
Normal	4.8
Elevated	8.7

**Data from** M. E. Harper and M. D. Brand, The quantitative contributions of mitochondrial proton leak and ATP turnover reactions to the changed respiration rates of hepatocytes from rats of different thyroid status, *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 268:14850–14860 (1993).

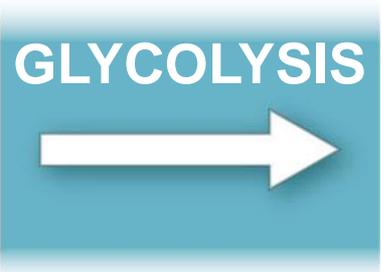
Figure 10.UN10b



Figure 10.UN11

Inputs

**Glucose**



Outputs

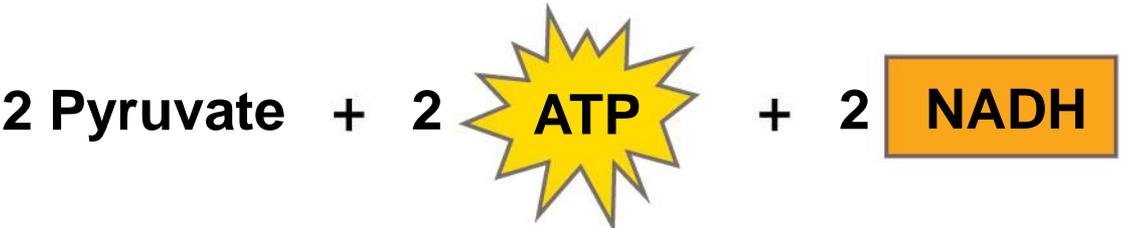


Figure 10.UN12

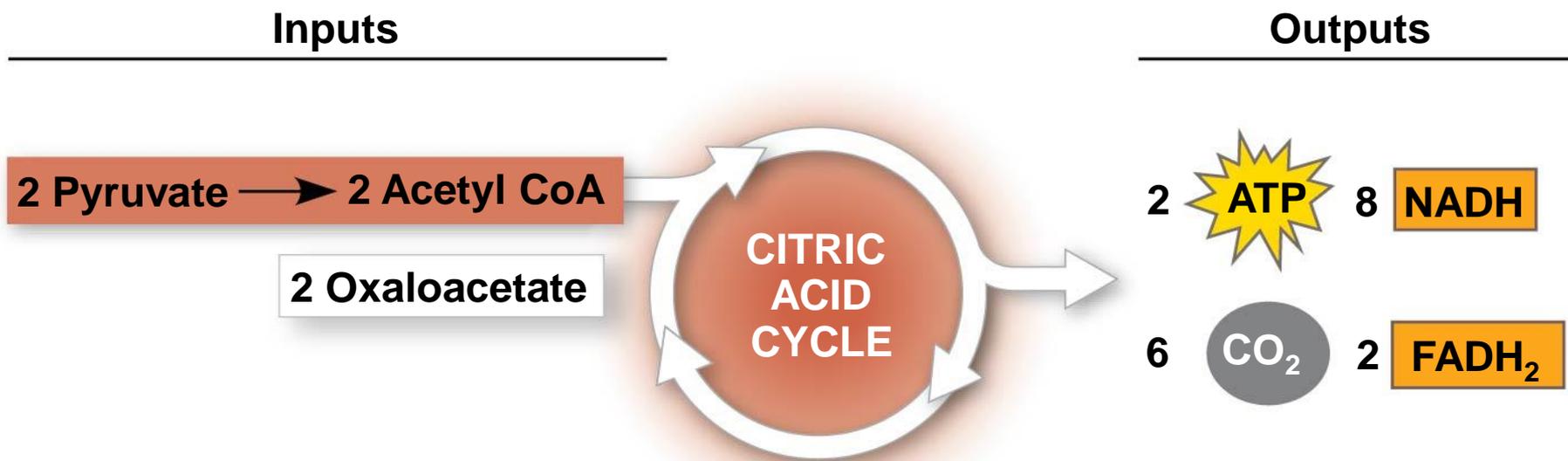


Figure 10.UN13

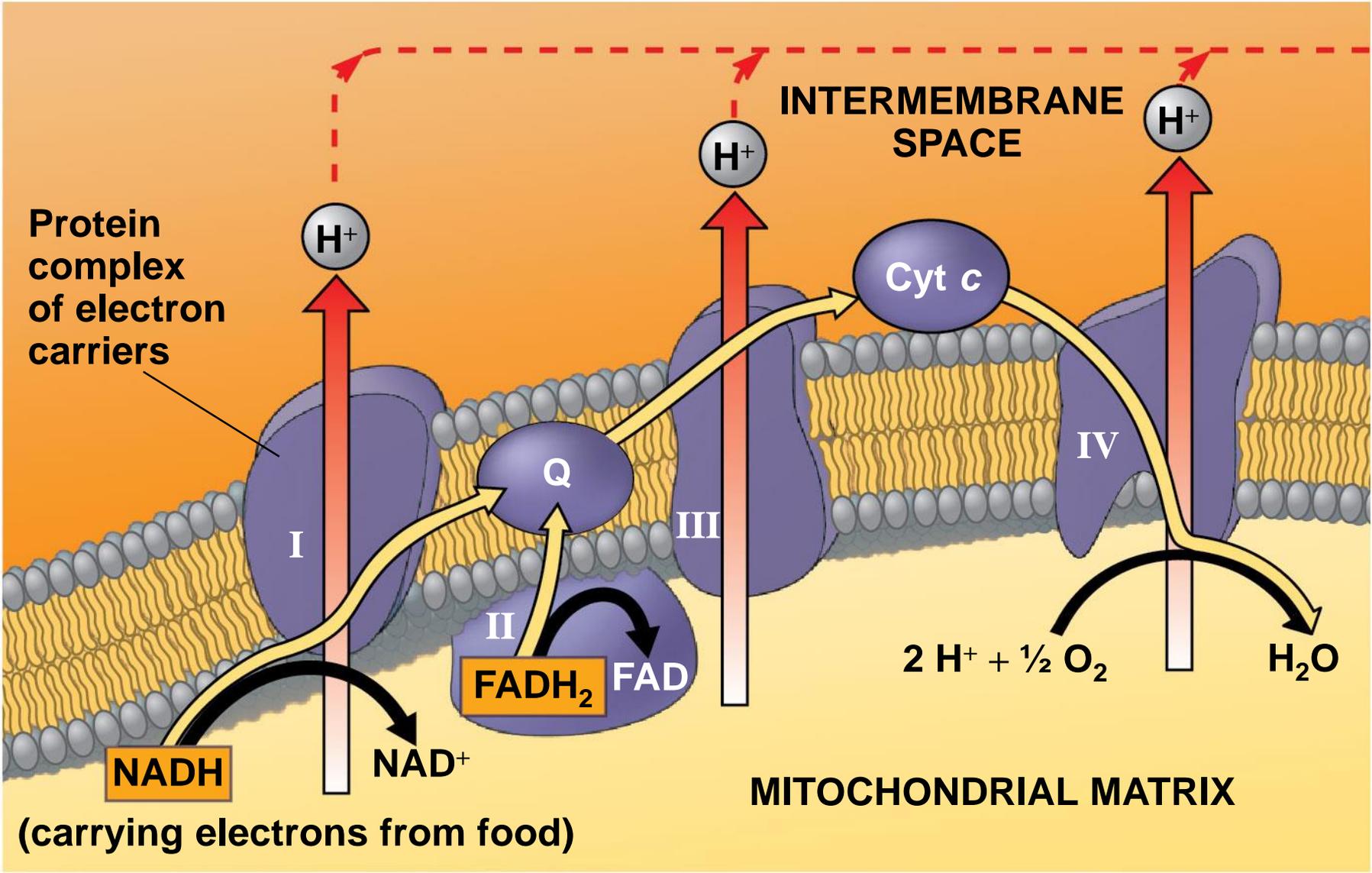


Figure 10.UN14

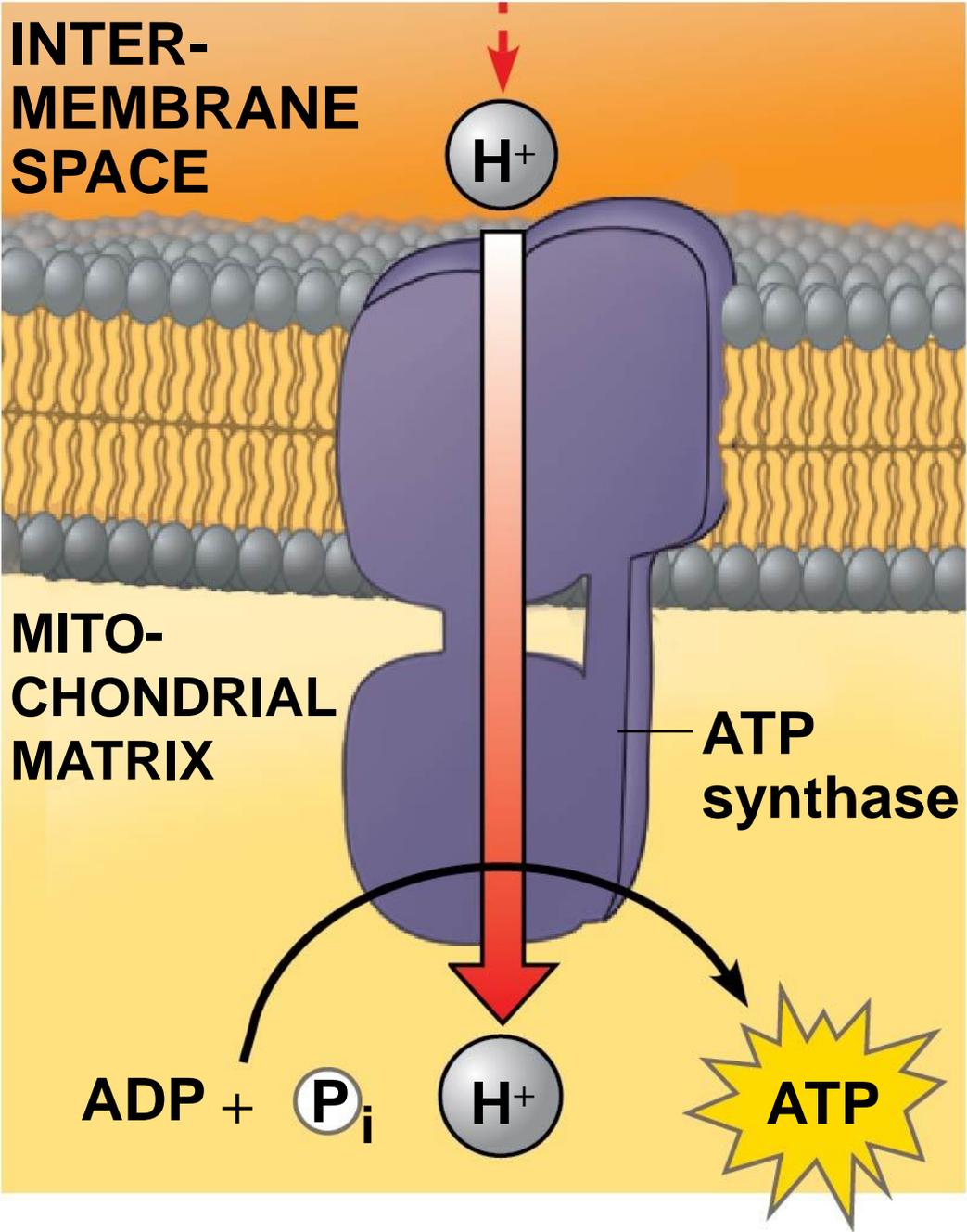


Figure 10.UN15

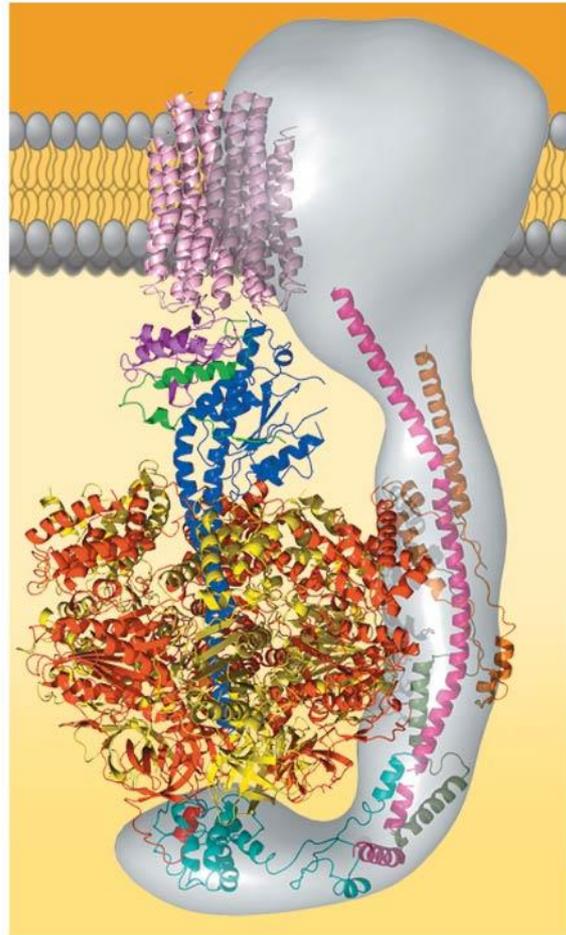


Figure 10.UN16

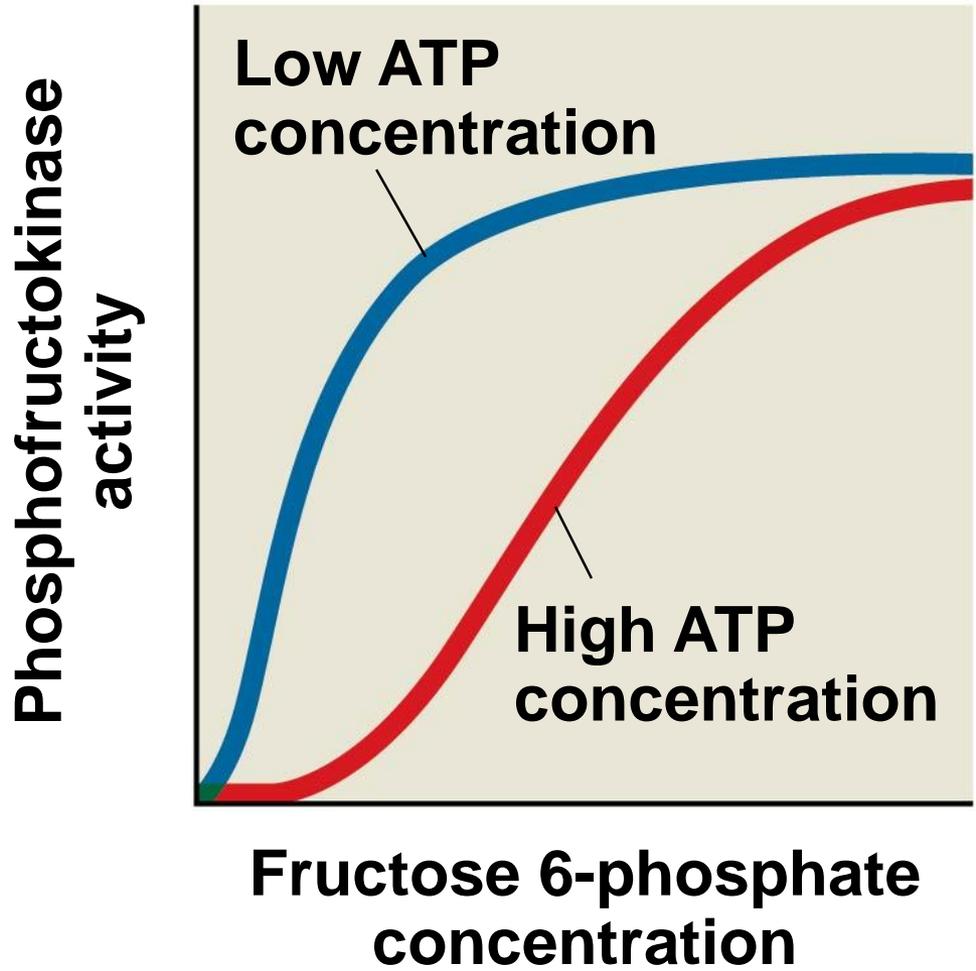


Figure 10.UN17

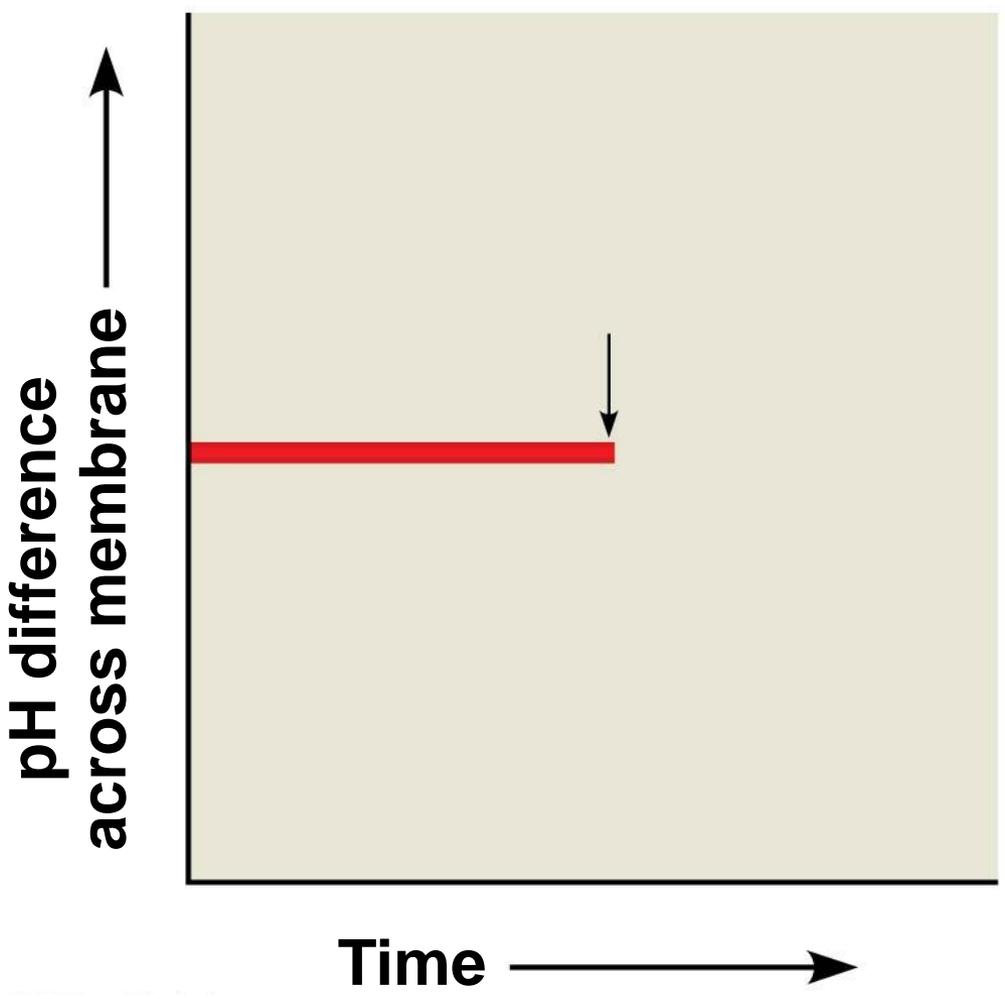


Figure 10.UN18

