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#### **Chapter 9**

## **Cellular Respiration and Fermentation**

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#### **Overview: Life Is Work**

- Living cells require energy from outside sources
- Some animals, such as the chimpanzee, obtain energy by eating plants, and some animals feed on other organisms that eat plants

#### Figure 9.1



- Energy flows into an ecosystem as sunlight and leaves as heat
- Photosynthesis generates O<sub>2</sub> and organic molecules, which are used in cellular respiration
- Cells use chemical energy stored in organic molecules to regenerate ATP, which powers work



# **Concept 9.1: Catabolic pathways yield energy by oxidizing organic fuels**

 Several processes are central to cellular respiration and related pathways

#### **Catabolic Pathways and Production of ATP**

- The breakdown of organic molecules is exergonic
- Fermentation is a partial degradation of sugars that occurs without O<sub>2</sub>
- Aerobic respiration consumes organic molecules and O<sub>2</sub> and yields ATP
- Anaerobic respiration is similar to aerobic respiration but consumes compounds other than O<sub>2</sub>

- 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

 $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6 O_2 \rightarrow 6 CO_2 + 6 H_2O + Energy (ATP + heat)$ 

#### **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<sub>2</sub>



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

During cellular respiration, the fuel (such as glucose) is oxidized, and O<sub>2</sub> is reduced



## 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 9.UN04



- 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<sub>2</sub> pulls electrons down the chain in an energyyielding tumble
- The energy yielded is used to regenerate ATP



## The Stages of Cellular Respiration: A Preview

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

Figure 9.UN05

- 1. Glycolysis (color-coded teal throughout the chapter)
- 2. Pyruvate oxidation and the citric acid cycle (color-coded salmon)
- 3. Oxidative phosphorylation: electron transport and chemiosmosis (color-coded violet)

Figure 9.6-1



Figure 9.6-2



Figure 9.6-3



 The process that generates most of the ATP is called oxidative phosphorylation because it is powered by redox reactions



**BioFlix: Cellular Respiration** 

- Oxidative phosphorylation accounts for almost 90% of the ATP generated by cellular respiration
- A smaller amount of ATP is formed in glycolysis and the citric acid cycle by substrate-level phosphorylation
- For each molecule of glucose degraded to CO<sub>2</sub> and water by respiration, the cell makes up to 32 molecules of ATP



## **Concept 9.2: Glycolysis harvests chemical energy by oxidizing glucose to pyruvate**

- Glycolysis ("splitting of sugar") 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<sub>2</sub> is present
































# **Concept 9.3: After pyruvate is oxidized, the citric acid cycle completes the energy-yielding oxidation of organic molecules**

 In the presence of O<sub>2</sub>, pyruvate enters the 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 catalyses three reactions



#### The Citric Acid Cycle

- The citric acid cycle, also called the Krebs cycle, completes the break down of pyruvate to CO<sub>2</sub>
- The cycle oxidizes organic fuel derived from pyruvate, generating 1 ATP, 3 NADH, and 1 FADH<sub>2</sub> per turn

Figure 9.11



- 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 9.12b







## **Concept 9.4: During oxidative phosphorylation, chemiosmosis couples electron transport to ATP synthesis**

- Following glycolysis and the citric acid cycle, NADH and FADH<sub>2</sub> 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
- The carriers alternate reduced and oxidized states as they accept and donate electrons
- Electrons drop in free energy as they go down the chain and are finally passed to  $O_2$ , forming  $H_2O$

Figure 9.13



- 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

## **Chemiosmosis: The Energy-Coupling Mechanism**

- Electron transfer in the electron transport chain causes proteins to pump H<sup>+</sup> from the mitochondrial matrix to the intermembrane space
- H<sup>+</sup> then moves back across the membrane, passing through the proton, ATP synthase
- ATP synthase uses the exergonic flow of H<sup>+</sup> to drive phosphorylation of ATP
- This is an example of chemiosmosis, the use of energy in a H<sup>+</sup> gradient to drive cellular work

Figure 9.14





- The energy stored in a H<sup>+</sup> gradient across a membrane couples the redox reactions of the electron transport chain to ATP synthesis
- The H<sup>+</sup> gradient is referred to as a protonmotive force, emphasizing its capacity to do work

### An Accounting of ATP Production by Cellular Respiration

 During cellular respiration, most energy flows in this sequence:

glucose  $\rightarrow$  NADH  $\rightarrow$  electron transport chain  $\rightarrow$  proton-motive force  $\rightarrow$  ATP

- About 34% of the energy in a glucose molecule is transferred to ATP during cellular respiration, making about 32 ATP
- There are several reasons why the number of ATP is not known exactly


## **Concept 9.5: Fermentation and anaerobic respiration enable cells to produce ATP without the use of oxygen**

- Most cellular respiration requires O<sub>2</sub> to produce ATP
- Without O<sub>2</sub>, the electron transport chain will cease to operate
- In that case, glycolysis couples with fermentation or anaerobic respiration to produce ATP

- Anaerobic respiration uses an electron transport chain with a final electron acceptor other than O<sub>2</sub>, 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 NAD<sup>+</sup>, 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, with the first releasing CO<sub>2</sub>
- Alcohol fermentation by yeast is used in brewing, winemaking, and baking



Animation: Fermentation Overview Right-click slide / select "Play"





#### (a) Alcohol fermentation

- In lactic acid fermentation, pyruvate is reduced to NADH, forming lactate as an end product, with no release of CO<sub>2</sub>
- 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 when O<sub>2</sub> is scarce



#### (b) Lactic acid fermentation

## **Comparing Fermentation with Anaerobic and Aerobic Respiration**

- All use glycolysis (net ATP = 2) to oxidize glucose and harvest chemical energy of food
- In all three, NAD<sup>+</sup> is the oxidizing agent that accepts electrons during glycolysis
- The processes have different final electron acceptors: an organic molecule (such as pyruvate or acetaldehyde) in fermentation and O<sub>2</sub> in cellular respiration
- 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



### The Evolutionary Significance of Glycolysis

- Ancient prokaryotes are thought to have used glycolysis long before there was oxygen in the atmosphere
- Very little O<sub>2</sub> was available in the atmosphere until about 2.7 billion years ago, so early prokaryotes likely used only glycolysis to generate ATP
- Glycolysis is a very ancient process

# **Concept 9.6: Glycolysis and the citric acid cycle connect to many other metabolic pathways**

 Gycolysis 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
- Proteins must be digested to amino acids; amino groups can feed glycolysis or the citric acid cycle

- Fats are digested to glycerol (used in glycolysis) and fatty acids (used in generating acetyl CoA)
- Fatty acids are broken down by beta oxidation and yield acetyl CoA
- An oxidized gram of fat produces more than twice as much ATP as an oxidized gram of carbohydrate



#### **Biosynthesis (Anabolic Pathways)**

- The body uses small molecules to build other substances
- 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 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 9.UN10



