ENERGY METABOLISM

Lecture 2



Chemiosmotic Theory

- Peter Mitchell proposed that electron transport and ATP synthesis are coupled by a proton gradient across the inner mitochondrial membrane
- The transport of electrons through the respiratory chain leads to the pumping of protons from the matrix to the intermembrane space
- The H⁺ concentration becomes lower in the matrix, and an electrical field with the matrix side negative is generated
- Mitchell's idea, called the chemiosmotic hypothesis, was that this proton-motive force drives the synthesis of ATP by ATP synthase



Chemiosmotic Theory **Electron Transport** 2HSystem 4HCyt c 4HIntermembrane space ш п 120 FADH₂ $\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H$ Fumarate Succinate $ADP + P_i$ Fo NADH - H+ NAD⁺ **Ox Phos** Matrix F₁ ATP synthase ATP H complex Chemical ATP Electrical potential synthesis potential driven by ΔpH $\Delta \psi$ (inside (inside proton-motive alkaline) negative) force

Mitochondrion



Electron carriers pump H⁺ out as electrons flow to O₂.





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Electron transport chain sets up an H⁺ gradient (Proton **m**otive **f**orce)

Energy of the pmf is harnessed to make ATP

Figure 19-1a

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Figure 12-24 Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition © 2008 W. H. Freeman and Company

The P/O ratio is used for the characteristics of energy production in the ETC

The P/O ratio is a measure of the number of high-energy phosphates (*i.e.* amount of ATP) synthesized per atom of oxygen (½O₂) consumed.

The P/O ratio

The P/O ratio for oxidation of metabolites that yield NADH is about 3 and the ratio for those that yield FADH₂ is about 2.

In other words, if NADH undergoes oxidation in the ETC, 3 ATP is produced, and if FADH₂ -2 ATP is generated.

Oxidative phosphorylation is regulated by cellular energy needs

Conditions Limiting the Rate of Respiration	
State 1	Availability of ADP and substrate
State 2	Availability of substrate only
State 3	The capacity of respiratory chain itself, when all substrates and components are present in saturating amounts
State 4	Availability of ADP only
State 5	Availability of oxygen only

'Respiratory control' is the dependence of oxygen uptake by mitochondria on the availability of ADP The mechanism of respiratory control depends on the requirement for ADP and P_i binding to the ATP synthase complex: in the absence of ADP and P_i, protons cannot enter the mitochondrion through this complex, and oxygen consumption markedly decreases, because the proton pumps cannot transport protons.

Activators of ETC:

ADP, P_i, oxygen, and reduced substrates (SH₂)

Numerous toxins can severely impair the electron transport system, the ATP synthase and the translocase that exchanges ATP and ADP across the inner mitochondrial membrane.

The inhibitors of the ETC: sleeping-drugs (barbiturates, amytal, amobarbital, chloropromasin, etc.); antibiotics (antimycin); piericidin; such poisons as cyanine and carbon monoxide (CO).

Specific inhibitors of electron transport chain and ATP-synthase

Specific inhibitors of electron transport are invaluable in revealing the sequence of electron carriers.

Rotenone and *amytal* block electron transfer in Complex I.

Antimycin A interferes with electron flow thhrough Complex III.

Cyanide, azide, and *carbon monoxide* block electron flow in **Complex IV**.

ATP synthase is inhibited by oligomycin which prevent the influx of protons through ATP synthase.



Inhibitors of cellular respiration





Normally, the ETC and oxidative phosphorylation (i.e. synthesis of ATP) are **COUPLED**; when the ETC is functioning, synthesis of ATP takes place. A portion of energy produced in the ETC is accumulated in ATP, and the other portion of energy is lost as heat.

Mitochondria can become partially uncoupled if the inner membrane loses its structural integrity.

They are said to be 'leaky', because protons can diffuse through the inner membrane without involving ATP synthase.

This occurs if isolated mitochondria are treated with mild detergents that disrupt the inner membrane, or if they have been stored for a period of time.

Uncoupler agents uncouple the ETC and oxidative phosphorylation. As a result, the ETC keeps functioning but ATP production does not occur, and all the energy generated in the ETC is released as heat.

Symptoms of the uncoupler action are hyperthermia and muscle weakness.

Uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation dissipate the proton gradient by transporting protons back into mitochondria, bypassing the ATP synthase. Uncouplers are typically hydrophobic compounds.





Uncoupling proteins

The first discovered was uncoupling protein-1 (UCP1), formerly known as thermogenin, which is found exclusively in brown adipose tissue. The sole function of UCP1 is to provide body heat during cold stress. It accomplishes this by uncoupling the proton gradient, thereby generating heat (thermogenesis) instead of ATP.

Uncoupling proteins

4 additional uncoupling proteins are expressed by the human genome, UCP2, UCP3, UCP4 and UCP5. UCP2 is expressed ubiquitously, UCP3 is mainly expressed in skeletal muscle, and UCP4 and UCP5 are expressed in the brain.

The thyroid hormone has been shown to stimulate thermogenesis by promoting the synthesis of UCP3 in skeletal muscle.

The tricarboxylic acid cycle (the Krebs' cycle)

The tricarboxylic acid cycle is a common pathway for metabolism of all fuels. It oxidatively strips electrons from fat, carbohydrate and protein fuels, producing the majority of the reduced coenzymes that are used for the generation of ATP in the electron transport chain.



Krebs Hans Adolf (1900-1981)





Formation of Citric Acid from Acetyl-CoA and Oxaloacetic acid (OAA)



Citric acid + CoA-SH

An irreversible and an exergonic reaction.

- Acetyl group of acetyl-CoA is transferred to OAA, no oxidation or decarboxylation is involved.
- A molecule of H₂O is required to hydrolyse the "high energy" bond between the acetyl group and CoA, the energy released is used for citrate condensation.
- CoA-SH released is reutilised



Formation of cis-aconitic acid and isocitric acid from citric acid



This conversion takes place in two steps:

• Formation of cis-aconitic acid from citric acid as a result of *dehydration, and*

• Formation of isocitric acid from cis-aconitic acid as a result of *rehydration*.



Both processes are catalysed by the same enzyme



Formation of oxalosuccinic acid and α-ketoglutarate from isocitric acid



These two reactions are catalyzed by a single enzyme. It is believed that oxalosuccinate is not a free intermediate but rather exists bound to the enzyme.

Oxidative decarboxylation of α-ketoglutarate to succinyl-CoA



Enzyme is α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex. It requires next coenzymes and cofactors: TDP, Lipoic acid, CoASH, FAD, NAD⁺ and Mg⁺⁺.

The reaction is *irreversible*.

The release of free energy from oxidative decarboxylation of α-ketoglutarate is sufficient to generate a high energy bond in addition to the formation of NADH.

The succinyl-CoA synthetase reaction

Enzyme catalysing this reaction is *succinate thiokinase (also called as succinyl-*CoA synthetase).



Thus, **ATP is produced at substrate level without** participation of electron transport chain. *This is the only example of substrate level phosphorylation in TCA cycle.*



Reaction requires GDP, which is converted in presence of Pi to GTP. In presence of enzyme *nucleoside diphosphate kinase,* ATP is produced from GTP.



Oxidation of succinic acid to fumaric acid



It is a dehydrogenation reaction catalysed by the enzyme succinate dehydrogenase, hydrogen acceptor is FAD. The enzyme is Ferri-flavoprotein, containing FAD and Iron-sulphur. In contrast to other enzymes of TCA cycle, this enzyme is bound to the inner surface of the inner mitochondrial membrane.

Fumaric acid Fumarase

Oxidation of malic acid to oxaloacetate (OAA):

The reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme *Malate dehydrogenase* which requires NAD⁺ as H-acceptor.



PROCESS: CITRIC ACID CYCLE



ROLE OF VITAMINS IN TCA CYCLE Five vitamins are associated with TCA cycle essential for yielding energy

- **Riboflavin (B₂)**: In the form of flavin adenine dinuleotide (FAD)- a cofactor for succinate dehydrogenase enzyme.
- Niacin (PP): in the form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) the electron acceptor for isocitrate dehydrogenase, α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, and malate dehydrogenase.
- Thiamine (B_1): as "thiamine diphosphate"- required as coenzyme for decarboxylation in the α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase reaction.
- Lipoic acid: it is required as coenzyme for α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase reaction.
- Pantothenic acid (B₅): as part of coenzyme A, the cofactor attached to "active" carboxylic acid residues such as acetyl CoA and succinyl-CoA.

The functions of the TCA cycle

1. Catabolic

TCA cycle is the final common pathway for the oxidation of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins because glucose, fatty acids and most amino acids are metabolized to acetyl-CoA or intermediates of the cycle

The functions of the TCA cycle

2. Anabolic function

metabolites of the cycle may serve as substrates in a variety of biosynthetic reactions

Anabolic (synthetic) function of TCA



The functions of the TCA cycle

3. Energy production

the function of the cycle is the harvesting of electrons from carbon fuels

generates approximately 12 molecules of ATP per turn of the cycle



Company

Energy yield of TCA cycle



The functions of the TCA cycle

4. Integrating function

all types of metabolism (carbohydrate, lipid and amino acid metabolism) can be interrelated through the cycle by conversion of one types of substrate into others

TCA cycle has dual role: catabolic, and anabolic

Catabolic role: The two carbon compound acetyl-CoA produced from metabolism of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins are oxidized in this cycle to produce CO_2 , H_2O and energy as ATP.

Anabolic (synthetic role): Intermediates of the cycle are utilized for synthesis of various compounds.

Citric Acid Cycle is a **amphibolic** process

Regulation of TCA Cycle

1. As the primary function of TCA cycle is to provide energy, respiratory control via the ETC and oxidative phosphorylation exerts the main control.

2. In addition to this, several enzymes of TCA cycle are also important in the regulation.

There are several levels of control of the TCA cycle.

The overall activity of the cycle depends on the availability of NAD⁺ for the dehydrogenase reactions. This, in turn, is linked to the rate of NADH consumption by the electron transport system, which ultimately depends on the rate of ATP utilization and production of ADP by metabolism.

Thus, as ATP is used for metabolic work, ADP is produced, then NADH is consumed by the electron transport system for ATP production, and NAD⁺ is produced. The TCA cycle is activated, fuels are consumed, and more NADH is produced so that more ATP may be made.

Three Key enzymes are:

- Citrate synthase
- Isocitrate dehydrogenase
- α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase

These enzymes are responsive to the energy status as expressed by the ATP/ADP ratio and NADH/NAD⁺ ratio

- Major sites for regulation:
- Citrate synthase
 A: ADP
 I: ATP, long-chain acyl-CoA
- Isocitrate dehydrogenase
 A: ADP
 - I: ATP, NADH
- α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase
 - I: ATP, NADH



In addition to above, succinate dehydrogenase enzyme is inhibited by OAA and the availability of OAA is controlled by malate dehydrogenase, which depends on NADH/NAD⁺ ratio. Oxaloacetate is required for entry of acetyl-CoA into the TCA cycle but, at times, the availability of oxaloacetate appears to regulate the activity of the cycle. This occurs especially during fasting when levels of ATP and NADH, derived from fat metabolism, are increased in the mitochondrion.

The increase in NADH shifts the malate:oxaloacetate equilibrium toward malate, directing TCA cycle intermediates toward malate, which is exported to the cytosol for gluconeogenesis. Acetyl-CoA derived from fat metabolism is directed toward synthesis of ketone bodies because of the lack of oxaloacetate.

ANAPLEROTIC ('FILLING UP') REACTIONS

TCA cycle intermediates participate in biosynthetic processes, which all require anaplerosis.

For example, removal of succinyl-CoA for heme biosynthesis could gradually deplete mitochondrial oxaloacetate.

The TCA cycle would cease to function if the intermediates were not replenished, because acetyl-CoA cannot yield a net synthesis of TCA cycle intermediates. Anaplerotic reactions provide the TCA cycle with intermediates other than acetyl-CoA to maintain activity of the cycle.

- Pyruvate + HCO_3^- + ATP \leftrightarrow Oxaloacetate + ADP + P_i
- Phosphoenolpyruvate + CO₂ + GDP ↔
 Oxaloacetate + GTP
- Phosphoenolpyruvate + HCO₃⁻ ↔ Oxaloacetate + P_i (plants, yeast, bacteria)
- Pyruvate + HCO₃⁻ + NAD(P)H ↔ malate + NAD(P)⁺



- Pyruvate carboxylase converts pyruvate to malate, a precursor of oxaloacetate, which is required for initiation of the cycle.
- Malic enzyme in the cytoplasm also converts pyruvate to malate, which can enter the mitochondrion as a substrate for the TCA cycle.
- α-Ketoglutarate can be produced through an aminotransferase reaction from glutamate, as well as by the glutamate dehydrogenase reaction.
- Several other 'glucogenic' amino acids may also serve as sources of pyruvate or TCA cycle intermediates, guaranteeing that the cycle is never stalled because of a lack of intermediates.