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This manuscript on 'The protonmotive force
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statement in the frame of COST Action
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Meetings and a <b>bottom-up</b> spirit of COST in
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scientists and students to join as co-authors, to provide a balanced view on mitochondrial
to provide a balanced view on mitochondrial
respiratory control, a fundamental
introductory presentation of the concept of
the protonmotive force, and a consensus
statement on reporting data of mitochondrial
respiration in terms of metabolic flows and Mitochondrial fitness mapping - Quality management network
fluxes. We plan a series of follow-up reports by the expanding MitoEAGLE Network, to increase
the scope of recommendations on harmonization and facilitate global communication and
collaboration.
Phase 2 - until October 12: We continue to invite comments and suggestions on the
MitoEAGLE preprint, particularly if you are an early career investigator adding an open
future-oriented perspective, or an established scientist providing a balanced historical basis.
Your critical input into the quality of the manuscript will be most welcome, improving our aims
to be educational, general, consensus-oriented, and practically helpful for students working in
mitochondrial respiratory physiology.
To join as a co-author, please feel free to focus on a particular section in terms of direct
input and references, contributing to the scope of the manuscript from the perspective of your
expertise. Your comments will be largely posted on the discussion page of the MitoEAGLE
preprint website.
If you prefer to submit comments in the format of a referee's evaluation rather than a
contribution as a co-author, I will be glad to distribute your views to the updated list of co-
authors for a balanced response. We would ask for your consent on this open bottom-up policy.
We organize a MitoEAGLE session linked to our series of reports at the MiPconference
Nov 2017 in Hradec Kralove in close association with the MiPsociety (where you hopefully will
attend) and at EBEC 2018 in Budapest.
» <u>http://www.mitoeagle.org/index.php/MiP2017_Hradec_Kralove_CZ</u>
I thank you in advance for your feedback.
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140 Abstract

141 Clarity of concepts and consistency of nomenclature are trademarks of a research field across 142 its specializations, facilitating transdisciplinary communication and education. As research and 143 knowledge of mitochondrial physiology expand, the necessity for harmonizing nomenclature 144 concerning mitochondrial respiratory states and rates has become apparent. Peter Mitchell's 145 concept of the protonmotive force establishes the links between electrical and chemical 146 components of energy transformation and coupling in oxidative phosphorylation. This unifying 147 concept provides the framework for developing a consistent terminology of mitochondrial 148 physiology and bioenergetics. We follow IUPAC guidelines on general terms of physical 149 chemistry, extended by concepts of open systems and irreversible thermodynamics. We align the nomenclature of classical bioenergetics on respiratory states with a concept-driven 150 151 constructive terminology to address the meaning of each respiratory state. Standards for 152 evaluation of respiratory states must be followed for the development of databases of mitochondrial respiratory function in species, tissues and cells studied under diverse 153 154 physiological and experimental conditions.

155

*Keywords:* Mitochondrial respiratory control, coupling control, mitochondrial
preparations, protonmotive force, chemiosmotic theory, oxidative phosphorylation, OXPHOS,
efficiency, electron transfer system, ETS; proton leak, LEAK, residual oxygen consumption,
ROX, State 2, State 3, State 4, normalization, flow, flux

162 163 164 165 166	Box 1:         In brief:         mitochondria         and Bioblasts    * Does the public expect biologists to understand Darwin's theory of evolution? * Do students expect that researchers of bioenergetics can explain Mitchell's theory of chemiosmotic energy transformation?
167	Mitochondria are dynamic organelles contained within eukaryotic cells, with a double
168	membrane. The inner mitochondrial membrane shows dynamic tubular and disk-shaped cristae
169	that separate the mitochondrial matrix, <i>i.e.</i> the internal mitochondrial compartment, and the
170	intermembrane space; the latter being enclosed by the outer mitochondrial membrane.
171	Mitochondria were described for the first time in 1857 by Rudolph Albert von Kölliker as
172	granular structures or 'sarkosomes'. In 1886 Richard Altman called them 'bioblasts' (published
173	1894). The word 'mitochondrium' (Greek mitos: thread; chondros: granule) was introduced by
174	Carl Benda (1898). Mitochondria are the oxygen consuming electrochemical generators which
175	evolved from endosymbiotic bacteria (Margulis 1970). The bioblasts of Richard Altmann
176	(1894) include not only the mitochondria as presently defined, but also symbiotic and free-
177	living bacteria. Mitochondria are the structural and functional elemental units of cell respiration,
178	where cell respiration is defined as the consumption of oxygen coupled to electrochemical
179	proton translocation across the inner mitochondrial membrane. In the process of oxidative
180	phosphorylation (OXPHOS), the reduction of $O_2$ is electrochemically coupled to conservation
181	of energy in the form of ATP (Mitchell 2011). As part of the OXPHOS system, these
182	powerhouses of the cell contain the transmembrane respiratory complexes (i.e. FMN, Fe-S and
183	cytochrome b, c, aa <sub>3</sub> redox systems), alternative dehydrogenases and oxidases, the coenzyme
184	ubiquinone (coenzyme Q) and ATP synthase together with the enzymes of the tricarboxylic
185	acid cycle and the fatty acid oxidation enzymes, ion transporters, including substrate, co-factor
186	and metabolite transporters as well as proton pumps, and mitochondrial kinases related to
187	energy transfer pathways. The mitochondrial proteome comprises over 1,200 proteins
188	(Mitocharta), mostly encoded by nuclear DNA (nDNA), with a variety of functions, many of

which are relatively well known (e.g. apoptosis-regulating proteins), are still under 189 190 investigation, or need to be identified (alanine transporter). Mitochondria maintain several 191 copies of their own genome (hundred to thousands per cell) which is maternally inherited and 192 known as mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA). mtDNA is 16.5 Kb in length, contains 13 protein-193 coding genes for subunits of the transmembrane respiratory Complexes CI, CIII, CIV and ATP 194 synthase, and also encodes 22 tRNAs and the mitochondrial 16S and 12S rRNA. The 195 mitochondrial genome is both regulated and supplemented by nuclear-encoded mitochondrial 196 targeted proteins. Evidence has accumulated that additional gene content is encoded in the 197 mitochondrial genome, e.g. microRNAs, smithRNAs, and even additional proteins. The inner 198 mitochondrial membrane contains the non-bilayer phospholipid cardiolipin, which is not present in any other eukaryotic cellular membrane. Cardiolipin promotes the formation of 199 200 respiratory supercomplexes, which are supramolecular assemblies based upon specific, though 201 dynamic, interactions between individual respiratory complexes (Lenaz et al. 2017). There is a 202 constant crosstalk between mitochondria and the other cellular components at the 203 transcriptional or post-translational level, and through cell signalling in response to varying 204 energy demands (Quiros et al. 2016). Mitochondrial morphology can change in response to 205 energy requirements of the cell via processes known as fusion and fission through which 206 mitochondria can communicate within a network, and in various pathological states which 207 cause swelling or dysregulation of fission and fusion. Mitochondrial dysfunction is associated with a wide variety of genetic and degenerative diseases. Therefore, a better understanding of 208 209 mitochondrial physiology will improve our understanding of the etiology of disease and the 210 diagnostic repertoire of mitochondrial medicine. Abbreviation: mt, as generally used in 211 mtDNA. Mitochondrion is singular and mitochondria is plural.

212 'For the physiologist, mitochondria afforded the first opportunity for an experimental
213 approach to structure-function relationships, in particular those involved in active transport,

vectorial metabolism, and metabolic control mechanisms on a subcellular level' (Ernster and
Schatz 1981).

216

#### 217 **1. Introduction**

Mitochondria are the powerhouses of the cell with numerous physiological, molecular, 218 219 and genetic functions (**Box 1**). Every study of mitochondrial function and disease is faced with 220 Evolution, Age, Gender and sex, Lifestyle, and Environment (EAGLE) as essential background 221 conditions characterizing the individual patient or subject, cohort, species, tissue and to some extent even cell line. As a large and highly coordinated group of laboratories and researchers, 222 223 the global MitoEAGLE Network's mission is to generate the necessary scale, type, and quality 224 of consistent data sets and conditions to address this intrinsic complexity. Harmonization of 225 experimental protocols and implementation of a quality control and data management system 226 is required to interrelate results gathered across a spectrum of studies and to generate a 227 rigorously monitored database focused on mitochondrial respiratory function. In this way, researchers within the same and across different disciplines will be positioned to compare their 228 229 findings to an agreed upon set of clearly defined and accepted international standards.

Reliability and comparability of quantitative results depend on the accuracy of 230 measurements under strictly-defined conditions. A conceptually clearly-defined framework is 231 232 also required to warrant meaningful interpretation and comparability of experimental outcomes 233 carried out by research groups at different institutes. With an emphasis on quality of research, collected data can be useful far beyond the specific question of a specific experiment. Vague or 234 235 ambiguous jargon can lead to confusion and may relegate valuable signals to wasteful noise. 236 For this reason, measured values must be expressed in standardized units for each parameter 237 used to define mitochondrial respiratory function. Standardization of nomenclature and 238 technical terms is essential to improve the awareness of the intricate meaning of divergent scientific vocabulary. The focus on coupling states in mitochondrial preparations is a first step 239

in the attempt to generate a harmonized and conceptually oriented nomenclature in
bioenergetics and mitochondrial physiology. Coupling states of intact cells and respiratory
control by fuel substrates and specific inhibitors of respiratory enzymes will be reviewed in
subsequent communications.

- 244
- 245

# **2.** Respiratory coupling states in mitochondrial preparations

- 'Every professional group develops its own technical jargon for talking about
  matters of critical concern ... People who know a word can share that idea with
  other members of their group, and a shared vocabulary is part of the glue that holds
  people together and allows them to create a shared culture' (Miller 1991).
- 250 *2.1. Definitions*

251 Mitochondrial preparations are defined as either isolated mitochondria, or tissue and 252 cellular preparations in which the barrier function of the plasma membrane is disrupted. The 253 plasma membrane separates the cytosol, nucleus and organelles (the intracellular compartment) 254 from the environment of the cell. The plasma membrane consists of a lipid bilayer, embedded 255 proteins and attached organic molecules which collectively control the selective permeability 256 of ions, organic molecules and particles across the cell boundary. The intact plasma membrane, 257 therefore, prevents the passage of many water-soluble mitochondrial substrates, such as 258 succinate or ADP, that are required for the analysis of respiratory capacity at kinetically saturating concentrations, thus limiting the scope of investigations into mitochondrial 259 260 respiratory function in intact cells. The cholesterol content of the plasma membrane is high 261 compared to mitochondrial membranes. Therefore, mild detergents, such as digitonin and 262 saponin, can be applied to selectively permeabilize the plasma membrane by interaction with 263 cholesterol and allow free exchange of cytosolic components with ions and organic molecules of the immediate cell environment, while maintaining the integrity and localization of 264 265 organelles, cytoskeleton and the nucleus. Application of optimum concentrations of these mild

detergents leads to the complete loss of cell viability, tested by nuclear staining, while 266 mitochondrial function remains unaffected, as shown by the lack of a respiratory response of 267 268 respiration of isolated mitochondria to the addition of such low concentrations of digitonin and 269 saponin. Mechanical or chemical permeabilization is applied in tissue homogenates containing 270 all components of the cell in the crude homogenate at highly diluted concentrations. Likewise, 271 in permeabilized tissues or cells the functional and structural integrity of mitochondria are 272 largely maintained. All mitochondria are retained in chemically permeabilized mitochondrial 273 preparations and crude tissue homogenates. In the preparation of isolated mitochondria the cells 274 or tissues are homogenized, and the mitochondria are separated from other cell fractions and 275 purified by centrifugation, entailing the loss of a significant fraction of mitochondria. The term 276 mitochondrial preparation does not include further fractionation of mitochondrial components, 277 as well as submitochondrial particles.

278 Control and regulation: The terms metabolic *control* and *regulation* are frequently used 279 synonymously, but are distinguished in metabolic control analysis: 'We could understand the 280 regulation as the mechanism that occurs when a system maintains some variable constant over time, in spite of fluctuations in external conditions (homeostasis of the internal state). On the 281 282 other hand, metabolic control is the power to change the state of the metabolism in response to 283 an external signal' (Fell 1997). Respiratory control may be induced by experimental control signals that *exert* an influence on: (1) ATP demand and ADP phosphorylation rate; (2) fuel 284 substrate, pathway competition and oxygen availability, e.g., starvation and hypoxia; (3) the 285 protonmotive force, redox states, flux-force relationships, coupling and efficiency; (4) Ca<sup>2+</sup> and 286 other ions including H<sup>+</sup>; (5) inhibitors, e.g., nitric oxide or intermediary metabolites, such as 287 288 oxaloacetate. *Mechanisms* of respiratory control and regulation include adjustments of (1) 289 enzyme activities by allosteric mechanisms and phosphorylation, (2) enzyme content, 290 concentrations of cofactors and conserved moieties (such as adenylates, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide [NAD<sup>+</sup>/NADH], coenzyme Q, cytochrome c); (3) metabolic channeling by 291

supercomplexes; and (4) mitochondrial density (enzyme concentrations and membrane area) 292 293 and morphology (cristae folding, fission and fusion). (5) Mitochondria are targeted directly by 294 hormones, thereby affecting their energy metabolism (Lee et al. 2013; Gerö and Szabo 2016; 295 Price and Dai 2016; Moreno et al. 2017). Evolutionary or acquired differences in the genetic 296 and epigenetic basis of mitochondrial function (or dysfunction) between subjects and gene 297 therapy; age; gender, biological sex, and hormone concentrations; life style including exercise 298 and nutrition; and environmental issues including thermal, atmospheric, toxicological and 299 pharmacological factors, exert an influence on all control mechanisms listed above (for reviews, 300 see Brown 1992; Gnaiger 1993a, 2009; 2014; Paradies et al. 2014; Morrow et al. 2017).

301 Respiratory control and response: There is a difference between control by a fixed 302 component of a metabolic system or module, e.g. ATP synthase, and the response to an 303 experimental variable, e.g., fuel substrate or ADP. Whilst lack of control by a metabolic 304 module, e.g. phosphorylation system, does mean that there will be no response to a variable 305 activating it, e.g. [ADP], the reverse is not true; *i.e.*, lack of response to [ADP] does not exclude 306 the phosphorylation system from having some degree of control. The degree of control of a 307 component of the OXPHOS system on an output variable of the system, such as oxygen flux, 308 will in general be different from the degree of control on other outputs, such as phosphorylation 309 flux, cytochrome redox states, protonmotive force, phosphorylation potential, and proton leak 310 flux (Box 2). As such, it is necessary to be specific as to which output is under consideration. 311 Respiratory control is insufficiently specific in the context of specific interpretations (Fell 1997). 312

Respiratory coupling control: Respiratory control is monitored in a mitochondrial preparation under conditions defined as respiratory states. When phosphorylation of ADP to ATP is stimulated or depressed, an increase or decrease is observed in electron flux linked to oxygen consumption in 'controlled' coupling states in intact mitochondria. Alternatively, coupling of electron transfer with phosphorylation is disengaged by disruption of the integrity

of the inner mitochondrial membrane or by uncouplers, functioning like a clutch in a 318 319 mechanical system. The corresponding coupling control state is characterized by high levels of 320 oxygen consumption without control by phosphorylation ('uncontrolled state'; classical 321 terminology). Energetic coupling is defined in **Box 3**. Respiratory control refers to the ability 322 of mitochondria to adjust oxygen consumption in response to external control signals by 323 engaging various mechanisms of control and regulation. Loss of coupling by intrinsic 324 uncoupling and decoupling, or pathological dyscoupling lowers the efficiency. Such 325 generalized uncoupling is different from switching to mitochondrial pathways that involve 326 fewer than three proton pumps ('coupling sites': Complexes CI, CIII and CIV), bypassing CI 327 through multiple electron entries into the Q-junction (Fig. 1). A bypass of CIII and CIV is provided by alternative oxidases, which reduce oxygen without proton translocation. 328 329 Reprogramming of mitochondrial pathways may be considered as a switch of gears (changing 330 the stoichiometry) rather than uncoupling (loosening the stoichiometry).

Pathway control states are obtained in mitochondrial preparations by depletion of endogenous substrates and addition to the mitochondrial respiration medium of fuel substrates (CHNO) and specific inhibitors, activating selected mitochondrial pathways (Fig. 1). Coupling control states and pathway control states are complementary, since mitochondrial preparations depend on an exogenous supply of pathway-specific fuel substrates and oxygen (Gnaiger 2014).

336

#### **Box 2: Metabolic fluxes and flows: vectorial and scalar**

In the mitochondrial electron transfer system (**Fig. 1**), vectorial transmembrane proton flux is coupled through the proton pumps CI, CIII and CIV to the catabolic flux of scalar reactions, collectively measured as oxygen flux. In **Fig. 2**, the scalar catabolic reaction, k, of oxygen consumption,  $J_{O2,k}$  [mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>], is expressed as oxygen flux per volume, V [m<sup>3</sup>], of the experimental chamber (the system). Fluxes are *vectors*, if they have *spatial* direction in addition to magnitude. A vector flux (surface-density of flow) is expressed per unit cross-sectional area,

A  $[m^2]$ , perpendicular to the direction of flux. If *flows*, I, are defined as extensive quantities of 344 the system, as vector or scalar flow, I or I [mol·s<sup>-1</sup>], respectively, then the corresponding vector 345 and scalar *fluxes*, J, are obtained as  $J=I \cdot A^{-1}$  [mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-2</sup>] and  $J=I \cdot V^{-1}$  [mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>], respectively, 346 347 expressing flux as an area-specific vector or volume-specific scalar quantity. Volume-specific scalar O<sub>2</sub> flux is coupled (Box 3) to vectorial translocation of protons across the inner 348 349 mitochondrial membrane, from the negative compartment (matrix space; N-phase) to the 350 positive compartment (inter-membrane space; P-phase; Fig. 2). The scalar or compartmental 351 direction of a chemical reaction,  $A \rightarrow B$ , is defined by assigning substrates and products, A and 352 B, as energetic 'compartments' ( $O_2$  is defined as a substrate in respiratory  $O_2$  consumption). In 353 direct analogy to  $A \rightarrow B$ , the compartmental direction of a vectorial translocation (e.g. diffusion) from the N-phase to the P-phase is defined by assigning the initial and final state as 354 355 energetic compartments,  $H^+_{in} \rightarrow H^+_{out}$ , respectively (Gnaiger 1993b). Vectorial transmembrane 356 proton flux,  $J_{H+,out}$ , is analyzed in a heterogenous compartmental system as a quantity with 357 directional but not spacial information. In order to establish a quantitative relation between the coupled fluxes, both  $J_{O2,k}$  and  $J_{H+,out}$  must be expressed in identical units ([mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>] or 358  $[C \cdot s^{-1} \cdot m^{-3}]$ , yielding the H<sup>+</sup>out/O<sub>2</sub> ratio (**Fig. 1**). The vectorial proton flux in compartmental 359 360 translocation has compartmental direction, distinguished from a vector flux with spatial 361 direction. Likewise, the corresponding protonmotive force is defined as an electrochemical potential difference between two compartments, which is different from a vector force or 362 363 gradient across the membrane with defined spatial direction.

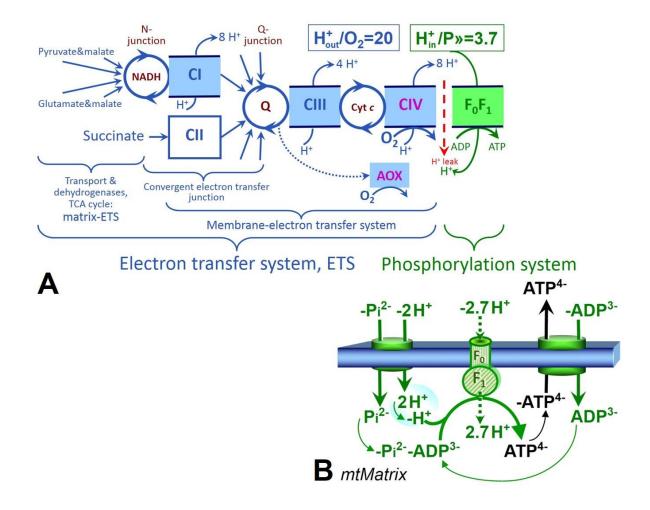
364

365 2.2. Three coupling states of mitochondrial preparations and residual oxygen consumption

366 **Coupling control states:** To extend the classical nomenclature on mitochondrial 367 coupling states (Section 2.3) by a concept-driven terminology that incorporates explicit 368 information on the nature of the respiratory states, the terminology must be general and not 369 restricted to any particular experimental protocol or mitochondrial preparation (Gnaiger 2009).

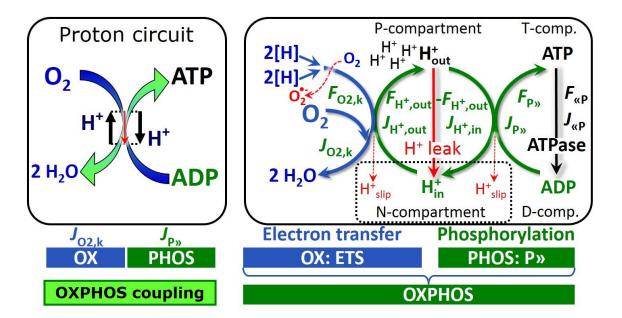
We focus primarily on the conceptual 'why', along with clarification of the experimental 'how'. 370 371 In the following section, the concept-driven terminology is explained and coupling states are 372 defined. The capacity of oxidative phosphorylation, OXPHOS, provides diagnostic reference 373 values for physiological respiratory capacities of defined pathways of core energy metabolism 374 and is, therefore, measured at kinetically saturating concentrations of ADP and inorganic 375 phosphate, P<sub>i</sub>. The *oxidative* capacity of the electron transfer system, ETS, reveals the limitation 376 of OXPHOS capacity mediated by the phosphorylation system. ETS capacity is measured as 377 noncoupled respiration by application of *external uncouplers*. The contribution of *intrinsically* 378 uncoupled oxygen consumption is most easily studied by not stimulating or arresting 379 phosphorylation, when oxygen consumption compensates mainly for the proton leak; the corresponding states are collectively classified as LEAK states (Table 1). Coupling states of 380 381 mitochondrial preparations can be compared in any defined mitochondrial pathway control state 382 (Fig. 1). Fuel substrates and ETS inhibitors are kept constant while (1) adding ADP or  $P_i$ , (2) inhibiting the phosphorylation system, and (3) performing uncoupler titrations. 383

384 Respiratory capacities and kinetic control: Coupling control states are established in the study of mitochondrial preparations to obtain reference values for various output variables. 385 386 Physiological conditions in vivo may deviate substantially from these experimentally obtained 387 states. Since kinetically saturating concentrations, e.g. of ADP or oxygen, may not apply to physiological intracellular conditions, relevant information is obtained in studies of kinetic 388 389 responses to conditions intermediate between the LEAK state at zero [ADP] and the OXPHOS 390 state at saturating [ADP], or of respiratory capacities in the range between kinetically saturating 391 [O<sub>2</sub>] and anoxia (Gnaiger 2001). We define respiratory capacities, comparable to channel 392 capacity in information theory, as the upper bound of the rate of respiration measured in defined coupling and pathway control states of mitochondrial preparations (Box 3). 393



395

396 Fig. 1. The mitochondrial respiratory system and oxidative phosphorylation. (A) The electron 397 transfer system, ETS, and coupling to the phosphorylation system. Multiple convergent electron transfer 398 pathways are shown from NADH and succinate; additional arrows indicate electron entry through 399 electron transferring flavoprotein, glycerophosphate dehydrogenase, dihydro-orotate dehydrogenase, 400 choline dehydrogenase, and sulfide-ubiquinone oxidoreductase. The branched pathway of oxygen 401 consumption by alternative quinol oxidase (AOX) is indicated by the dotted arrow. H<sup>+</sup>out/O<sub>2</sub> is the ratio of 402 outward proton flux from the matrix space to catabolic O<sub>2</sub> flux in the NADH-linked pathway. H<sup>+</sup><sub>in</sub>/P<sup>»</sup> is 403 the ratio of inward proton flux from the inter-membrane space to the flux of phosphorylation of ADP to 404 ATP. Due to proton leak and slip these are not fixed stoichiometries. (B) Phosphorylation system 405 consisting of the F<sub>1</sub>F<sub>0</sub> ATP synthase, adenine nucleotide translocase, and the inorganic phosphate 406 transporter. The H<sup>+</sup>in/P<sup>\*</sup> stoichiometry is the sum of the coupling stoichiometry in the ATP synthase 407 reaction (-2.7 H<sup>+</sup> from the intermembrane space, 2.7 H<sup>+</sup> to the matrix) and the proton balance in the translocation of ADP<sup>2-</sup>, ATP<sup>3-</sup> and Pi<sup>2-</sup>. See Eqs. 3 and 4 for further explanation. Modified from (A) 408 409 Lemieux et al. (2017) and (B) Gnaiger (2014).



411

412 Fig. 2. The proton circuit and coupling in oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS). Oxygen flux, Jo2,k, 413 in a catabolic reaction k is coupled to the phosphorylation of ADP to ATP,  $J_{P,v}$ , by the proton pumps of 414 the electron transfer system, ETS, pushing the outward proton flux, J<sub>H+,out</sub>, and generating the output 415 protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,out}$ . ATP synthase is coupled to inward proton flux,  $J_{H+,in}$ , to phosphorylate ADP 416 with inorganic phosphate to ATP, driven by the input protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,in}$ =- $F_{H+,out}$ . 2[H] indicates 417 the reduced hydrogen equivalents of fuel substrates that provide the chemical input force, Fo2,k [kJ/mol 418  $O_2$ , of the catabolic reaction k with oxygen (Gibbs energy of reaction per mole  $O_2$  consumed in reaction 419 k), typically in the range of -460 to -480 kJ/mol. The output force is given by the phosphorylation potential 420 difference (ADP phosphorylated to ATP),  $F_{P*}$ , which varies in vivo ranging from about 48 to 62 kJ/mol 421 under physiological conditions. Fluxes,  $J_{B}$ , and forces,  $F_{B}$ , are expressed in either chemical units, 422 [mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>] and [J·mol<sup>-1</sup>] respectively, or electrical units, [C·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>] and [J·C<sup>-1</sup>] respectively, per volume, 423 V [m<sup>3</sup>], of the system. The system defined by the boundaries shown as a full black line is not a black 424 box, but is analysed as a compartmental system. The negative compartment (N-compartment, enclosed 425 by the dotted line) is the matrix space, separated from the positive compartment (P-compartment) by 426 the inner mitochondrial membrane. ADP+Pi and ATP are the substrate- and product-compartments 427 (scalar D- and T-comp.), respectively. Chemical potentials of all substrates and products involved in the 428 scalar reactions are measured in the P-compartment for calculation of the scalar forces  $F_{O2,k}$  and 429  $F_{P}$  =- $F_{e}$ . Modified from Gnaiger (2014).

Phosphorylation, P. Phosphorylation in the context of OXPHOS is defined as 431 432 phosphorylation of ADP to ATP. On the other hand, the term phosphorylation is used generally 433 in many different contexts, e.g. protein phosphorylation. This justifies consideration of a 434 symbol more discriminating and specific than P as used in the P/O ratio (phosphate to atomic oxygen ratio), where P indicates phosphorylation of ADP to ATP or GDP to GTP. We propose 435 the symbol P» for the endergonic direction of phosphorylation ADP $\rightarrow$ ATP, and likewise the 436 437 symbol «P for the corresponding exergonic hydrolysis ATP $\rightarrow$ ADP (Fig. 2). ATP synthase is the proton pump of the phosphorylation system (Fig. 1B). P» may also involve substrate-level 438 439 phosphorylation as part of the tricarboxylic acid cycle (succinyl-CoA ligase) and 440 phosphorylation of ADP catalyzed by phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase, adenylate kinase, creatine kinase, hexokinase and nucleoside diphosphate kinase (NDPK). Kinase cycles are 441 442 involved in intracellular energy transfer and signal transduction for regulation of energy flux. In isolated mammalian mitochondria ATP production catalyzed by adenylate kinase,  $2ADP \leftrightarrow$ 443 444 ATP + AMP, proceeds without fuel substrates in the presence of ADP (Komlódi and Tretter 2017).  $J_{Pw}/J_{O2,k}$  (Pw/O<sub>2</sub>) is two times the 'P/O' ratio of classical bioenergetics. The effective 445 446  $P \gg O_2$  ratio is diminished by: (1) the proton leak across the inner mitochondrial membrane from 447 low pH in the P-phase to high pH in the N-phase (P, positive; N, negative); (2) cycling of other cations; (3) proton slip in the proton pumps when a proton effectively is not pumped; and (4)448 449 electron leak in the univalent reduction of oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>; dioxygen) to superoxide anion radical 450  $(O_2^{-}).$ 

451

# 452 Box 3: Coupling, power and efficiency, at constant temperature and pressure

453 Energetic coupling means that two processes of energy transformation are linked such that the 454 input power,  $P_{in}$ , is the driving element of the output power,  $P_{out}$ , and the out/input power ratio 455 is the efficiency. In general, power is work per unit time [J.s<sup>-1</sup>=W]. When describing a system 456 with volume *V* without information on the internal structure, the output is defined as the *external* 

work (exergy) performed by the *total* system on its environment. Such as system may be open 457 458 for any type of exchange, or closed and thus allowing only heat and work to be exchanged 459 across the system boundaries. This is the classical black box approach of thermodynamics. In 460 contrast, in a colourful compartmental analysis of *internal* energy transformations (Fig. 2), the system is structured and described by definition of internal compartments (with information on 461 the heterogeneity of the system; **Box 2**) and analysis of separate parts, *i.e.* a sequence of *partial* 462 energy transformations, tr. In general, power per unit volume,  $P_{tr}/V$  [W.L<sup>-1</sup>], is the product of a 463 volume-specific flux,  $J_{tr}$ , and its conjugated force,  $F_{tr}$ , and is closely linked to the dissipation 464 465 function using the terminology of irreversible thermodynamics (Prigogine 1967; Gnaiger 466 1993a,b). Output power of proton translocation and catabolic input power are (Fig. 2),

- 467 Output:  $P_{H+,out}/V = J_{H+,out} \cdot F_{H+,out}$
- 468 Input:  $P_k/V = J_{O2,k} \cdot F_{O2,k}$

469  $F_{O2,k}$  is the exergonic input force with a negative sign, and,  $F_{H+,out}$ , is the endergonic output 470 force with a positive sign (**Box 4**). Ergodynamic efficiency is the ratio of output/input power, 471 or the flux ratio times force ratio (Gnaiger 1993a,b),

472 
$$\varepsilon = \frac{P_{\text{H+,out}}}{-P_{\text{k}}} = \frac{J_{\text{H+,out}}}{J_{\text{O2,k}}} \cdot \frac{F_{\text{H+,out}}}{-F_{\text{O2,k}}}$$

The concept of incomplete coupling relates exclusively to the first term, *i.e.* the flux ratio, or 473 474 H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> ratio (**Fig. 1**). Likewise, respirometric definitions of the P»/O<sub>2</sub> ratio and biochemical coupling efficiency (Section 3.2) consider flux ratios. In a completely coupled process, the 475 476 power efficiency,  $\varepsilon$ , depends entirely on the force ratio, ranging from zero efficiency at an 477 output force of zero, to the limiting output force and maximum efficiency of 1.0, when the total power of the coupled process,  $P_t=P_k+P_{H+,out}$ , equals zero, and any net flows are zero at 478 479 ergodynamic equilibrium of a coupled process. Thermodynamic equilibrium is defined as the state when all potentials (all forces) are dissipated and equilibrate towards their minima of zero. 480 481 In a fully or completely coupled process, output and input fluxes are directly proportional in a 482 fixed ratio technically defined as a stoichiometric relationship (a gear ratio in a mechanical 483 system). Such maximal stoichiometric output/input flux ratios are considered in OXPHOS 484 analysis as the upper limits or mechanistic  $H^+_{out}/O_2$  and  $P \gg /O_2$  ratios (**Fig. 1**).

485

The steady-state: Mitochondria represent a thermodynamically open system functioning 486 as a biochemical transformation system in non-equilibrium states. State variables (protonmotive 487 488 force; redox states) and metabolic fluxes (rates) are measured in defined mitochondrial 489 respiratory *states*. Strictly, steady states can be obtained only in open systems, in which changes 490 due to *internal* transformations, e.g.,  $O_2$  consumption, are instantaneously compensated for by *external* fluxes *e.g.*, O<sub>2</sub> supply, such that oxygen concentration does not change in the system 491 492 (Gnaiger 1993b). Mitochondrial respiratory states monitored in closed systems satisfy the 493 criteria of pseudo-steady states for limited periods of time, when changes in the system 494 (concentrations of O<sub>2</sub>, fuel substrates, ADP, P<sub>i</sub>, H<sup>+</sup>) do not exert significant effects on metabolic fluxes (respiration, phosphorylation). Such pseudo-steady states require respiratory media with 495 496 sufficient buffering capacity and kinetically saturating concentrations of substrates to be 497 maintained, and thus depend on the kinetics of the processes under investigation. Proton turnover,  $J_{\infty H^+}$ , and ATP turnover,  $J_{\infty P}$ , proceed in the steady-state at constant  $F_{H^+,out}$ , when  $J_{\infty H^+}$ 498 499  $= J_{H+,out} = J_{H+,in}$ , and at constant  $F_{P*}$ , when  $J_{\infty P} = J_{P*} = J_{*P}$  (Fig. 2).

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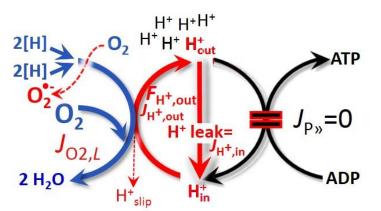
Table 1. Coupling states and residual oxygen consumption in mitochondrial preparations in relation to respiration and phosphorylation rate,  $J_{02,k}$  and  $J_{P,k}$ , and protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,out}$ . Coupling states are established at kinetically

State	J <sub>O2,k</sub>	$J_{\mathrm{P}*}$	F <sub>H+,out</sub>	Inducing factors	Limiting factors
LEAK	<i>L</i> ; low proton leak- dependent respiration;	0	max.	Proton leak, slip, and cation cycling	$J_{P}=0: (1)$ without ADP, $L_N; (2)$ max. ATP/ADP ratio, $L_T;$ or (3) inhibition of the ADP phosphorylation system, $L_{Omy}$
OXPHOS	<i>P</i> ; high ADP- stimulated respiration	max.	high	Kinetically saturating [ADP] and [P <sub>i</sub> ]	$J_{P*}$ by phosphorylation system; or $J_{O2,k}$ by electron transfer system
ETS	<i>E</i> ; max. noncoupled respiration	0	low	Optimal external uncoupler concentration for max. oxygen flux	$J_{O2,k}$ by electron transfer system
ROX	<i>Rox</i> ; min. residual $O_2$ consumption	0	0	$J_{O2,Rox}$ in non-ETS oxidation reactions	Full inhibition of ETS or absence of fuel substrates

510 saturating concentrations of fuel substrates and O<sub>2</sub>.

- 511
- 512
- 513 **LEAK state** (**Fig. 3**):

514 LEAK state is defined as a state mitochondrial respiration 515 of 516 when  $O_2$ flux mainly 517 compensates for the proton leak in the absence of ATP synthesis, 518 519 kinetically at saturating 520 concentrations of  $O_2$ and respiratory substrates. LEAK 521 522 respiration is measured to obtain



**Fig. 3. LEAK state:** Phosphorylation is arrested,  $J_{P*}=0$ , and oxygen flux,  $J_{O2,L}$ , is controlled mainly by the proton leak, which equals  $J_{H+,in}$ , at maximum protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,out}$  (See also Fig. 2).

in the absence of adenylates; (2) after depletion of ADP at maximum ATP/ADP ratio; or (3)
after inhibition of the phosphorylation system by inhibitors of ATP synthase, such as
oligomycin, or adenine nucleotide translocase, such as carboxyatractyloside.

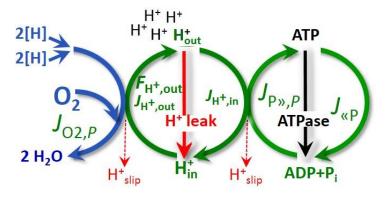
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527 Proton leak: Proton leak is the *uncoupled* process in which protons are translocated 528 across the inner mitochondrial membrane in the dissipative direction of the downhill 529 protonmotive force without coupling to phosphorylation (Fig. 3). The proton leak flux depends 530 on the protonmotive force, is a property of the inner mitochondrial membrane, may be enhanced due to possible contaminations by free fatty acids, and is physiologically controlled. In 531 532 particular, uncoupling mediated by uncoupling protein 1 (UCP1) is physiologically controlled, 533 *e.g.*, in brown adipose tissue. UCP1 is a proton channel of the inner mitochondrial membrane 534 facilitating the conductance of protons across the inner mitochondrial membrane. As 535 consequence of this effective short-circuit, the protonmotive force diminishes, resulting in 536 stimulation of electron transfer to oxygen and heat dissipation without phosphorylation of ADP. Mitochondrial injuries may lead to dyscoupling as a pathological or toxicological cause of 537 uncoupled respiration, e.g., as a consequence of opening the permeability transition pore. 538 Dyscoupled respiration is distinguished from the experimentally induced noncoupled 539 540 respiration in the ETS state. Under physiological conditions, the proton leak is the dominant 541 contributor to the overall leak current.

**Proton slip:** Proton slip is the *decoupled* process in which protons are only partially translocated by a proton pump of the ETS and slip back to the original compartment (Dufour *et al.* 1996). Proton slip can also happen in association with the ATP-synthase, in which case the proton slips downhill across the membrane to the matrix without contributing to ATP synthesis. In each case, proton slip is a property of the proton pump and increases with the turnover rate of the pump.

548 **Cation cycling:** Proton leak is a leak current of protons. There can be other cation 549 contributors to leak current including calcium and probably magnesium. Calcium current is balanced by mitochondrial Na/Ca exchange, which is balanced by Na/H exchange or K/H
exchange. This is another effective uncoupling mechanism different from proton leak and slip.
Small differences of terms, *e.g.*, uncoupled, noncoupled, are easily overlooked and may
be erroneously perceived as identical. Even with an attempt at rigorous definition, the common
use of such terms may remain vague (Table 2).

555 **OXPHOS** state (Fig. 4): 556 OXPHOS state is defined as the 557 respiratory state with kinetically 558 saturating concentrations of O<sub>2</sub>, 559 respiratory and phosphorylation 560 substrates, and absence of 561 exogenous uncoupler, which 562 provides an estimate of the maximal capacity of OXPHOS in 563 any given pathway control state. 564



**Fig. 4. OXPHOS state:** Phosphorylation,  $J_{P*}$ , is stimulated by kinetically saturating [ADP] and inorganic phosphate, [P<sub>i</sub>], and is supported by a high protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,out}$ . O<sub>2</sub> flux,  $J_{O2,P}$ , is highly coupled at a maximum P\*/O<sub>2</sub> ratio,  $J_{P*,P}/J_{O2,P}$  (See also Fig. 2).

Respiratory capacities at kinetically saturating substrate concentrations provide reference values or upper limits of performance, aiming at the generation of data sets for comparative purposes. Any effects of substrate kinetics are thus separated from reporting actual mitochondrial capacity for oxidation during coupled respiration, against which physiological activities can be evaluated.

As discussed previously, 0.2 mM ADP does not fully saturate flux in isolated mitochondria (Gnaiger 2001; Puchowicz *et al.* 2004); greater ADP concentration is required, particularly in permeabilized muscle fibres and cardiomyocytes, to overcome limitations by intracellular diffusion and by the reduced conductance of the outer mitochondrial membrane (Jepihhina *et al.* 2011, Illaste *et al.* 2012, Simson *et al.* 2016) either through interaction with tubulin (Rostovtseva *et al.* 2008) or other intracellular structures (Birkedal *et al.* 2014). In permeabilized muscle fibre bundles of high respiratory capacity, the apparent  $K_{\rm m}$  for ADP increases up to 0.5 mM (Saks *et al.* 1998), indicating that >90% saturation is reached only at >5 mM ADP. Similar ADP concentrations are also required for accurate determination of OXPHOS capacity in human clinical cancer samples and permeabilized cells (ref).

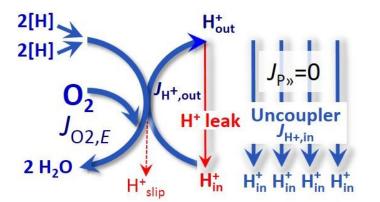
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#### 581 **Table 2. Distinction of terms related to coupling.**

Term	Respiration	P»/O <sub>2</sub>	Note
Fully coupled	P-L	Max.	OXPHOS capacity corrected for LEAK respiration ( <b>Fig. 6</b> )
Coupled	Р	High	Phosphorylating respiration with a variable component of intrinsic LEAK respiration ( <b>Fig. 4</b> )
Uncoupled, Decoupled	L	0	Non-phosphorylating respiration without added protonophore ( <b>Fig. 3</b> )
Noncoupled	Ε	0	Non-phosphorylating respiration stimulated to maximum flux at optimum uncoupler concentration ( <b>Fig. 5</b> )
Dyscoupled	Р	Low	Pathologically increased uncoupling, mitochondrial dysfunction

582

583 ETS state (Fig. 5): The 584 ETS state is defined as the 585 noncoupled state with kinetically saturating concentrations of  $O_2$ , 586 587 respiratory substrate and 588 optimum exogenous uncoupler 589 concentration for maximum O<sub>2</sub> 590 flux, as an estimate of oxidative 591 capacity. Inhibition ETS of



**Fig. 5. ETS state:** Noncoupled respiration,  $J_{O2,E}$ , is maximum at optimum exogenous uncoupler concentration and phosphorylation is zero,  $J_{P}$ =0 (See also Fig. 2).

respiration is observed at higher than optimum uncoupler concentrations. As a consequence of the nearly collapsed protonmotive force, the driving force is insufficient for phosphorylation and  $J_{P*}=0$ .

Besides the three fundamental coupling states of mitochondrial preparations, the 595 596 following respiratory state also is relevant to assess respiratory function:

597 **ROX:** Residual oxygen consumption (ROX) is defined as  $O_2$  consumption due to oxidative side reactions remaining after inhibition of the ETS. ROX is not a coupling state but 598 599 represents a baseline that is used to correct mitochondrial respiration in defined coupling states. 600 ROX is not necessarily equivalent to non-mitochondrial respiration, considering oxygen-601 consuming reactions in mitochondria not related to ETS, such as oxygen consumption in 602 reactions catalyzed by monoamine oxidases (type A and B), monooxygenases (cytochrome 603 P450 monooxygenases), dioxygenase (sulfur dioxygenase and trimethyllysine dioxygenase), 604 several hydoxylases, and more. Mitochondrial preparations, especially those obtained from liver, are contaminated by peroxisomes. This fact makes the exact determination of 605 606 mitochondrial oxygen consumption and mitochondria-associated generation of reactive oxygen 607 species complicated (Schönfeld et al. 2009). The dependence of ROX-linked oxygen consumption needs to be studied in detail with respect to non-ETS enzyme activities, 608 609 availability of specific substrates, oxygen concentration, and electron leakage leading to the 610 formation of reactive oxygen species.

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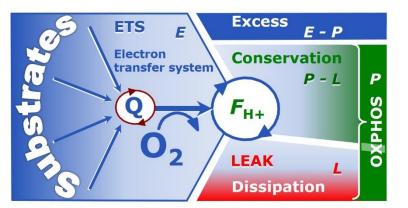
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#### 2.3. Coupling states and respiratory rates

It is important to distinguish metabolic systems or modules from metabolic states and the 613 614 corresponding metabolic rates; for example: electron transfer system, ETS (Fig. 6), ETS state 615 (Fig. 5), and ETS capacity, E, respectively (Table 1). The protonmotive force is high in the 616 OXPHOS state when it drives phosphorylation, maximum in the LEAK state of coupled 617 mitochondria, driven by LEAK respiration at a minimum back flux of protons to the matrix side, and very low in the ETS state when uncouplers short-circuit the proton cycle (Table 1). 618

619

620 Fig. 6. Four-compartment model 621 of oxidative phosphorylation. 622 Respiratory states (ETS, OXPHOS, 623 LEAK) and corresponding rates (E, 624 P, L) are connected by the 625 protonmotive force, F<sub>H+,out</sub>. Electron 626 transfer system capacity, E, is



partitioned into the dissipative LEAK respiration, *L*, partial conservation of the protonmotive exergy (**Box**4) as the phosphorylation exergy in net OXPHOS capacity, *P-L*, and the excess capacity, *E-P*. Modified
from Gnaiger (2014).

630

631 The three coupling states, ETS, LEAK and OXPHOS, are presented in a schematic 632 context with the corresponding respiratory rates, abbreviated as E, L and P, respectively (Fig. 633 6). This clarifies that E may exceed or be equal to P, but E cannot theoretically be lower than 634 P. E < P must be discounted as an artefact, which may be caused experimentally by: (1) loss of oxidative capacity during the time course of the respirometric assay, since E is measured 635 subsequently to P; (2) using too low uncoupler concentrations; (3) using high uncoupler 636 637 concentrations which inhibit the ETS (Gnaiger 2008); (4) high oligomycin concentrations applied for measurement of L before titrations of uncoupler, when oligomycin exerts an 638 639 inhibitory effect on E. On the other hand, the excess ETS capacity is overestimated if non-640 saturating [P<sub>i</sub>] or [ADP] (State 3) are used.

E>P is observed in many types of mitochondria, varying between species, tissues and cell types. It is the excess ETS capacity pushing the phosphorylation system (**Fig. 1B**) to the limit of its *capacity of utilizing* the protonmotive force. Within any type of mitochondria, the magnitude of E>P depends on (1) the pathway control state with single or multiple electron input into the Q-junction and involvement of three or fewer coupling sites determining the H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> *coupling stoichiometry* (**Fig. 1A**); and (2) the *biochemical coupling efficiency*  expressed as (E-L)/E, since an increase of *L* causes *P* to increase towards the limit of *E*. The excess *E*-*P* capacity, *E*-*P*, therefore, provides a sensitive diagnostic indicator of specific injuries of the phosphorylation system, under conditions when *E* remains constant but *P* declines relative to controls (**Fig. 6**). Substrate cocktails supporting simultaneous convergent electron transfer to the Q-junction for reconstitution of tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle) function establish pathway control states with high ETS capacity, and consequently increase the sensitivity of the *E*-*P* assay.

654 When subtracting L from P, the dissipative LEAK component in the OXPHOS state may be overestimated. This can be avoided by measuring LEAK respiration in a state when the 655 656 protonmotive force is adjusted to its slightly lower value in the OXPHOS state, e.g., by titration 657 of an ETS inhibitor. Any turnover-dependent components of proton leak and slip, however, are 658 underestimated under these conditions (Garlid et al. 1993). In general, it is inappropriate to use 659 the term ATP production for the difference of oxygen consumption measured in states P and L. The difference *P*-*L* is the upper limit of the part of OXPHOS capacity that is freely available 660 661 for ATP production (corrected for LEAK respiration) and is fully coupled to phosphorylation 662 with a maximum mechanistic stoichiometry (Fig. 6).

663

#### 664 2.4. Classical terminology for isolated mitochondria

665 'When a code is familiar enough, it ceases appearing like a code; one forgets that
666 there is a decoding mechanism. The message is identical with its meaning'
667 (Hofstadter 1979).

Chance and Williams (1955; 1956) introduced five classical states of mitochondrial respiration
and cytochrome redox states. Table 3 shows a protocol with isolated mitochondria in a closed
respirometric chamber, defining a sequence of respiratory states.

State	[O <sub>2</sub> ]	ADP level	Substrate level	Respiration rate	Rate-limiting substance
1	>0	low	low	Slow	ADP
2	>0	high	~0	Slow	Substrate
3	>0	high	high	Fast	respiratory chain
4	>0	low	high	Slow	ADP
5	0	high	high	0	Oxygen

Table 3. Metabolic states of mitochondria (Chance and Williams, 1956; Table V).

672

673

676 **State 1** is obtained after addition of isolated mitochondria to air-saturated 677 isoosmotic/isotonic respiration medium containing inorganic phosphate, but no fuel substrates 678 and no adenylates, *i.e.*, AMP, ADP, ATP.

679 State 2 is induced by addition of a high concentration of ADP (typically 100 to  $300 \,\mu$ M), which stimulates respiration transiently on the basis of endogenous fuel substrates and 680 681 phosphorylates only a small portion of the added ADP. State 2 is then obtained at a low respiratory activity limited by zero endogenous fuel substrate availability (Table 3). If addition 682 683 of specific inhibitors of respiratory complexes, such as rotenone, does not cause a further 684 decline of oxygen consumption, State 2 is equivalent to residual oxygen consumption (See 685 below). If inhibition is observed, undefined endogenous fuel substrates are a confounding factor 686 of pathway control by externally added substrates and inhibitors. In contrast to the original 687 definition, an alternative protocol is frequently applied, in which State 2 is induced by addition 688 of fuel substrate without ADP (LEAK state), followed by addition of ADP.

**State 3** is the state stimulated by addition of fuel substrates while the ADP concentration is still high (**Table 3**) and supports coupled energy transformation through oxidative phosphorylation. 'High ADP' is a concentration of ADP specifically selected to allow the measurement of State 3 to State 4 transitions of isolated mitochondria in a closed respirometric system. Repeated ADP titration re-establishes State 3 at 'high ADP'. Starting at oxygen concentrations near air-saturation (ca. 200  $\mu$ M O<sub>2</sub> at sea level and 37 °C), the total ADP concentration added must be low enough (typically 100 to 300  $\mu$ M) to allow phosphorylation

<sup>675</sup> 

to ATP at a coupled oxygen consumption that does not lead to oxygen depletion during the transition to State 4. In contrast, kinetically saturating ADP concentrations usually are an order of magnitude higher than 'high ADP', *e.g.* 2.5 mM in isolated mitochondria. The abbreviation State 3u is frequently used in bioenergetics, to indicate the state of respiration after titration of an uncoupler, without sufficient emphasis on the fundamental difference between OXPHOS capacity (*well-coupled* with an *endogenous* uncoupled component) and ETS capacity (*noncoupled*).

703 State 4 is a LEAK state which is obtained only if the mitochondrial preparation is intact 704 and well-coupled. Depletion of ADP by phosphorylation to ATP leads to a decline in oxygen 705 consumption in the transition from State 3 to State 4. Under these conditions, a maximum protonmotive force and high ATP/ADP ratio are maintained, and the P»/O2 ratio can be 706 707 calculated. State 4 respiration,  $L_{\rm T}$  (**Table 1**), reflects intrinsic proton leak and intrinsic ATP 708 hydrolysis activity. Oxygen consumption in State 4 is an overestimation of LEAK respiration if the contaminating ATP hydrolysis activity recycles some ATP to ADP,  $J_{\text{eP}}$ , which stimulates 709 710 respiration coupled to phosphorylation,  $J_{P} > 0$ . This can be tested by inhibition of the phosphorylation system using oligomycin, ensuring that  $J_{P}=0$  (State 40). Alternatively, 711 712 sequential ADP titrations re-establish State 3, followed by State 3 to State 4 transitions while 713 sufficient oxygen is available. However, anoxia may be reached before exhaustion of ADP 714 (State 5).

State 5 is the state after exhaustion of oxygen in a closed respirometric chamber.
Diffusion of oxygen from the surroundings into the aqueous solution may be a confounding
factor preventing complete anoxia (Gnaiger 2001).

In **Table 3**, only States 3 and 4 (and 'State 2' in the alternative protocol without ADP; not included in the table) are coupling control states, with the restriction that  $O_2$  flux in State 3 may be limited kinetically by non-saturating ADP concentrations (**Table 1**).

#### 722 **3. States and rates**

# *3.1. The protonmotive force and proton flux*

The protonmotive force across the inner mitochondrial membrane (Mitchell and Moyle 1967) was introduced most beautifully in the *Grey Book 1966* (see Mitchell 2011),

726

$$\Delta p_{\rm H+} = \Delta \Psi + \Delta \mu_{\rm H+}/F \tag{Eq. 1}$$

The protonmotive force consists of two partial forces: (1) The electrical part,  $\Delta \Psi$ , is the difference of charge (electric potential difference) and is not specific for H<sup>+</sup>. (2) The chemical part,  $\Delta \mu_{H^+}$ , is the chemical potential difference in H<sup>+</sup>, is proportional to the pH difference, and incorporates the Faraday constant (**Table 4**).

731

**Table 4. Protonmotive force and flux matrix.** Rows: Electrical and chemical isomorphic format (*e* and *n*). The Faraday constant, *F*, converts protonmotive force and flux from *isomorphic format e* to *n*. Columns: The protonmotive force is the sum of *partial isomorphic forces*  $F_{el}$  and  $F_{H+,d}$ . In contrast to force (state), the conjugated flux (rate) cannot be partitioned.

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State		Force		electric	+	chem.	Unit	Notes
	Protonmotive force, e	$\Delta p_{\mathrm{H}^+}$	=	$\Delta \Psi$	+	$\Delta \mu_{ m H+}/F$	$J \cdot C^{-1}$	1 <i>e</i>
	Chemiosmotic potential, n	$\Delta \widetilde{\mu}_{{}_{H}{}_{+}}$	=	$\Delta \Psi \cdot F$	+	$\Delta \mu_{\mathrm{H}^+}$	J·mol <sup>-1</sup>	1 <i>n</i>
State	Isomorphic force	$F_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/i}$	=	elout	+	$\mathbf{H}^{+}$ out,d		
	Electric charge, e	$F_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/e}$	=	$F_{\mathrm{el,out/e}}$	+	$F_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out,d/}e}$	J·C <sup>-1</sup>	2e
	Amount of substance, <i>n</i>	$F_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/n}$	=	$F_{\mathrm{el,out/}n}$	+	$F_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out,d}/n}$	J·mol <sup>-1</sup>	2 <i>n</i>
Rate	Isomorphic flux	$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/i}$	=	е	or	n		
	Electric charge, e	$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/e}$		$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/e}$			$C \cdot s^{-1} \cdot m^{-3}$	3 <i>e</i>
	Amount of substance, n	$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/n}$				$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/n}$	$mol \cdot s^{-1} \cdot m^{-3}$	3 <i>n</i>

738

1: The Faraday constant, *F*, is the product of elementary charge ( $e=1.602177 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot C$ ) and the Avogadro (Loschmidt) constant ( $N_A=6.022136 \cdot 10^{23} \cdot mol^{-1}$ ), *F*= $eN_A=96,485.3$  C/mol.  $\Delta \widetilde{\mu}_{H+}$  is the chemiosmotic potential difference. 1*e* and 1*n* are the classical representations of 2*e* and 2*n*. 2: The protonmotive force is  $F_{H+,out}$ , expressed either in isomorphic format *e* or *n*.  $F_{el/e} \equiv \Delta \Psi$  is the partial protonmotive force (el) acting generally on charged motive molecules (*i.e.* ions that are displaceable across the inner mitochondrial membrane). In contrast,  $F_{H+,d/n} \equiv \Delta \mu_{H+}$  is the partial protonmotive force specific for proton displacement (H+d). The sign of the force is negative for exergonic transformations in which exergy is lost or dissipated, and positive for endergonic transformations which conserve exergy from a coupled exergonic process (**Box 4**).

3: The sign of the flux depends on the definition of the compartmental direction of the translocation (**Fig.** 

**2**). Flux x force =  $J_{H+,out/e}$ :  $F_{H+,out/e}$  =  $J_{H+,out/n}$ :  $F_{H+,out/n}$  = Volume-specific power [J·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-3</sup>=W·m<sup>-3</sup>].

750

**Faraday constant**,  $F=eN_A$  [C/mol] (**Table 4**), enables the conversion between protonmotive force,  $F_{H+,out/e} \equiv \Delta p_{H+}$  [J/C], expressed per *motive charge*, *e* [C], and protonmotive force or electrochemical potential difference,  $F_{H+,out/n} \equiv \Delta \widetilde{\mu}_{H+} = \Delta p_{H+} \cdot F$  [J/mol], expressed per *motive amount of protons*, *n* [mol]. Proton charge, *e*, and amount of substance, *n*, define the units for the isomorphic formats. Taken together, *F* converts protonmotive force and flux from isomorphic format *e* to *n* (Eq. 2; see also **Table 4**, Note 2),

- $F_{H+,out/n} = F_{H+,out/e} \cdot eN_A$  (Eq. 2.1)
- 758

$$J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/n} = J_{\mathrm{H}+,\mathrm{out}/e} / (eN_{\mathrm{A}})$$
(Eq. 2.2)

In each format, the protonmotive force is expressed as the sum of two partial forces. The concept expressed by the complex symbols in Eq. 1 can be explained and visualized more easily by *partial isomorphic forces* as the components of the protonmotive force:

**Electrical part of the protonmotive force:** (1) Isomorph *e*:  $F_{el/e} \equiv \Delta \Psi$  is the electrical part of the protonmotive force expressed in units joule per coulomb, *i.e.* volt [V=J/C].  $F_{el/e}$  is defined as partial Gibbs energy change per *motive elementary charge*, *e* [C], not specific for proton charge (**Table 4**, Note 2*e*). (2) Isomorph *n*:  $F_{el/n} \equiv \Delta \Psi \cdot F$  is the electric force expressed in units joule per mole [J/mol], defined as partial Gibbs energy change per *motive amount of charge*, *n* [mol], not specific for proton charge (**Table 4**, Note 2*n*). Chemical part of the protonmotive force: (1) Isomorph *n*:  $F_{d,H+/n} \equiv \Delta \mu_{H+}$  is the chemical part (diffusion, displacement of H<sup>+</sup>) of the protonmotive force expressed in units joule per mole [J/mol].  $F_{d,H+/n}$  is defined as partial Gibbs energy change per *motive amount of protons*, *n* [mol] (Table 4, Note 2*n*). (2) Isomorph *e*:  $F_{d,H+/e} \equiv \Delta \mu_{H+}/F$  is the chemical force expressed in units joule per coulomb [V], defined as partial Gibbs energy change per *motive amount of protons expressed in units of electric charge, e* [C], but specific for proton charge (Table 4, Note 2*e*).

774 Protonmotive means that there is a potential for the movement of protons, and force is a 775 measure of the potential for motion. Motion is relative and not absolute (Principle of Galilean 776 Relativity); likewise there is no absolute potential, but (isomorphic) forces are potential 777 differences. An electric partial force expressed in the format of electric charge,  $F_{el/e}$ , of -0.2 V (**Table 5**, Note 5*e*) is equivalent to force in the format of amount,  $F_{el,H+/n}$ , of 19 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub> 778 779 (Note 5*n*). For a  $\Delta pH$  of 1 unit, the chemical partial force in the format of amount,  $F_{d,H+/n}$ , changes by 5.9 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> (Table 5, Note 6n) and chemical force in the format of charge  $F_{d,H+/e}$ 780 changes by 0.06 V (Note 6e). Considering a driving force of -470 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> O<sub>2</sub> for oxidation, the 781 thermodynamic limit of the  $H^+_{out}/O_2$  ratio is reached at a value of 470/19=24, compared to a 782 783 mechanistic stoichiometry of 20 (Fig. 1).

784

# 785 Box 4: Endergonic and exergonic transformations, exergy and dissipation

A chemical reaction, or any transformation, is exergonic if the Gibbs energy change (exergy) of the reaction is negative at constant temperature and pressure. The sum of Gibbs energy changes of all internal transformations in a system can only be negative, i.e. exergy is irreversibly dissipated. Endergonic reactions are characterized by positive Gibbs energies of reaction and cannot proceed spontaneously in the forward direction as defined. For instance, the endergonic reaction P» is coupled to exergonic catabolic reactions, such that the total Gibbs energy change is negative, *i.e.* exergy must be dissipated for the reaction to proceed (**Fig. 2**).

In contrast, energy cannot be lost or produced in any internal process, which is the key 793 794 message of the first law of thermodynamics. Thus mitochondria are the sites of energy 795 transformation but not energy production. Open and closed systems can gain energy and exergy 796 only by external fluxes, *i.e.* uptake from the environment. Exergy is the potential to perform work. In the framework of flux-force relationships (Box 3), the partial derivative of Gibbs 797 798 energy per advancement of a transformation is an isomorphic force,  $F_{tr}$  (**Table 5**, Note 2). In 799 other words, force is equal to exergy/motive unit (in integral form, this definition takes care of 800 non-isothermal processes). This formal generalization represents an appreciation of the 801 conceptual beauty of Peter Mitchell's innovation of the protonmotive force against the

background of the established paradigm of the electromotive force (emf) defined at the limit of
zero current (Cohen *et al.* 2008).

804

806

805 **Table 5. Power, exergy, force, flux, and advancement.** 

Expression	Symbol	Definition	Unit	Notes	
Power, volume-specific	$P_{V,tr}$	$P_{V,tr} = J_{tr} \cdot F_{tr} = \partial_{tr} G \cdot \partial t^{-1}$	W=J·s <sup>-1</sup> ·m <sup>-3</sup>	1	
Force, isomorphic	$F_{ m tr}$	$F_{\rm tr} = \partial_{\rm tr} G \cdot \partial_{\rm tr} \xi^{-1}$	$J \cdot x^{-1}$	2	
Flux, isomorphic	$J_{ m tr}$	$J_{\rm tr} = {\rm d}_{\rm tr} \boldsymbol{\xi} \cdot {\rm d} t^{-1} \cdot V^{-1}$	$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{s}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}^{-3}$	3	
Advancement, n	$d_{tr}\xi_{H+/n}$	$d_{tr}\xi_{H+/n} = d_{tr}n_{H+} \cdot v_{H+}^{-1}$	mol	4 <i>n</i>	
Advancement, e	$d_{tr}\xi_{H+/e}$	$\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{tr}}\boldsymbol{\xi}_{\mathrm{H}+/e} = \mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{tr}}\boldsymbol{e}_{\mathrm{H}+} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}_{\mathrm{H}+}^{-1}$	С	4 <i>e</i>	
Electric partial force, e	$F_{\mathrm{el}/e}$	$F_{\mathrm{el}/e} \equiv \Delta \Psi$	V	5 <i>e</i>	
Electric partial force, n	$F_{\mathrm{el}/n}$	$\Delta \Psi \cdot F = 96.5 \cdot \Delta \Psi$	kJ·mol⁻¹	5 <i>n</i>	
Chemical partial force, e	$F_{\mathrm{d,H+/}e}$	$\Delta \mu_{\rm H+}/F = - \ln(10) \cdot RT/F \cdot \Delta p \rm H$	V	6e	
at 37 °C		$= -0.06 \cdot \Delta pH$	$J \cdot C^{-1}$		
Chemical partial force, <i>n</i> at 37 °C	$F_{\mathrm{d},\mathrm{H}+/n}$	$\Delta \mu_{\rm H+} = -\ln(10) \cdot RT \cdot \Delta p H$ $= -5.9 \cdot \Delta p H$	J∙mol <sup>-1</sup> kJ∙mol <sup>-1</sup>	6 <i>n</i>	

807

808 1 to 4: An isomorphic motive entity or transformant, expressed in units x, is defined for any

transformation, tr. x=mol or C in proton translocation.

810 2:  $\partial_{tr} G[J]$  is the partial Gibbs energy change in the advancement of transformation tr.

- 811 3: For x=C, flow is electric current,  $I_{el}$  [A = C·s<sup>-1</sup>], vector flux is electric current density per area,  $J_{el}$ , 812 and compartmental flux is electric current density per volume,  $I_{el}$  [A·m<sup>-3</sup>].
- 813 4*n*: For a chemical reaction, the advancement of reaction r is  $d_r \xi_B = d_r n_B \cdot v_B^{-1}$  [mol]. The stoichiometric 814 number is  $v_{B}=-1$  or  $v_{B}=-1$ , depending on B being a product or substrate, respectively, in reaction r 815 involving one mole of B. The conjugated *intensive* molar quantity,  $F_{B,r} = \partial_r G / \partial_r \xi_B [J \cdot mol^{-1}]$ , is the 816 chemical force of reaction or reaction-motive force per stoichiometric amount of B. In reaction 817 kinetics,  $d_r n_{\rm B}$  is expressed as a volume-specific quantity, which is the partial contribution to the 818 total concentration change of B,  $d_r c_B = d_r n_B / V$  and  $dc_B = dn_B / V$ , respectively. In open systems with 819 constant volume V,  $dc_B=d_rc_B+d_ec_B$ , where r indicates the internal reaction and e indicates the 820 external flux of B into the unit volume of the system. At steady state the concentration does not 821 change,  $dc_{B}=0$ , when  $d_{r}c_{B}$  is compensated for by the external flux of B,  $d_{r}c_{B}=-d_{e}c_{B}$  (Gnaiger 822 1993b). Alternatively,  $dc_B=0$  when B is held constant by different coupled reactions in which B 823 acts as a substrate or a product.
- 4*e*: Scalar potential difference across the mitochondrial membrane. In a scalar electric transformation (flux of charge, *i.e.* volume-specific current, from the matrix space to the intermembrane and extramitochondrial space) the motive force is the difference of charge (**Box 2**). The endergonic direction of translocation is defined in **Fig. 2** as  $H^{+}_{in} \rightarrow H^{+}_{out}$ .
- 828 5*n*: *F*=96.5 (kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup>)/V.
- 829 6: The electric partial force is independent of temperature (Note 5), but the chemical partial force
  830 depends on absolute temperature, *T* [K].
- 831 6e: RT is the gas constant times absolute temperature.  $\ln(10) \cdot RT/F = 59.16$  and 61.54 mV at 298.15 832 and 310.15 K (25 and 37 °C), respectively.
- 833 6*n*:  $\ln(10) \cdot RT = 5.708$  and 5.938 kJ·mol<sup>-1</sup> at 298.15 and 310.15 K (25 and 37 °C), respectively.
- 834

#### 835 *3.2. Forces and fluxes in physics and irreversible thermodynamics*

According to its definition in physics, a potential difference and as such the protonmotive force,  $\Delta p_{H+}$ , is not a force per se (Cohen et al. 2008). The fundamental forces of physics are distinguished from motive forces of statistical and irreversible thermodynamics. Complementary to the attempt towards unification of fundamental forces defined in physics,

the concepts of Nobel laureates Lars Onsager, Erwin Schrödinger, Ilya Prigogine and Peter 840 841 Mitchell (even if expressed in apparently unrelated terms) unite the diversity of generalized or 842 'isomorphic' *flux-force* relationships, the product of which links to the dissipation function and 843 Second Law of thermodynamics (Schrödinger 1944; Prigogine 1967). A motive force is the 844 derivative of potentially available or 'free' energy (exergy) per isomorphic *motive* unit (Box 4). 845 Perhaps the first account of a *motive force* in energy transformation can be traced back to the 846 Peripatetic school around 300 BC in the context of moving a lever, up to Newton's motive force 847 proportional to the alteration of motion (Coopersmith 2010).

Vectorial and scalar forces, and fluxes: In chemical reactions and osmotic or diffusion 848 processes occurring in a closed heterogeneous system, such as a chamber containing isolated 849 850 mitochondria, scalar transformations occur without measured spatial direction but between 851 separate compartments (translocation between the matrix and intermembrane space) or between 852 energetically-separated chemical substances (reactions from substrates to products). Hence, the corresponding fluxes are not vectorial but scalar, and are expressed per volume and not per 853 854 membrane area (Box 2). The corresponding motive forces are also scalar potential differences 855 across the membrane (Table 5), without taking into account the gradients across the 6 nm thick 856 inner mitochondrial membrane (Rich 2003).

**Coupling:** In energetics (ergodynamics), coupling is defined as an exergy transformation fuelled by an exergonic (downhill) input process driving the advancement of an endergonic (uphill) output process. The (negative) output/input power ratio is the efficiency of a coupled energy transformation (**Box 3**). At the limit of maximum efficiency of a completely coupled system, the (negative) input power equals the (positive) output power, such that the total power approaches zero at the maximum efficiency of 1, and the process becomes fully reversible without any dissipation of exergy, i.e. without entropy production.

864 **Coupled versus bound processes:** Since the chemiosmotic theory describes the 865 mechanisms of coupling in OXPHOS, it may be interesting to ask if the electrical and chemical

parts of proton translocation are coupled processes. This is not the case according to the 866 867 definition of coupling. If the coupling mechanism is disengaged, the output process becomes independent of the input process, and both proceed in their downhill (exergonic) direction (Fig. 868 2). It is not possible to physically uncouple the electrical and chemical processes, which are 869 870 only theoretically partitioned as electrical and chemical components and can be measured separately. If partial processes are non-separable, *i.e.*, cannot be uncoupled, then these are not 871 872 coupled but are defined as bound processes. The electrical and chemical parts are tightly bound 873 partial forces of the protonmotive force, since a flux cannot be partitioned but expressed only 874 in either an electrical or chemical isomorphic format (Table 4).

875

# 876 **4. Normalization: fluxes and flows**

#### 877 *4.1. Flux per chamber volume*

878 The volume-specific *flux of a chemical reaction* r is the time derivative of the advancement of the reaction per unit volume,  $J_{V,B} = d_r \zeta_B / dt \cdot V^{-1}$  [(mol·s<sup>-1</sup>)·L<sup>-1</sup>]. The rate of 879 *concentration change* is  $dc_B/dt$  [(mol·L<sup>-1</sup>)·s<sup>-1</sup>], where concentration is  $c_B=n_B/V$ . It is helpful to 880 make the subtle distinction between  $[mol \cdot s^{-1} \cdot L^{-1}]$  and  $[mol \cdot L^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}]$  for the fundamentally 881 882 different quantities of volume-specific flux and rate of concentration change, which merge to a 883 single expression only in closed systems. In open systems, external fluxes (such as O<sub>2</sub> supply) 884 are distinguished from internal transformations (metabolic flux,  $O_2$  consumption). In a closed system, external flows of all substances are zero and O<sub>2</sub> consumption (internal flow), I<sub>O2</sub> 885 [pmol·s<sup>-1</sup>], causes a decline of the amount of O<sub>2</sub> in the system,  $n_{O2}$  [nmol]. Normalization of 886 these quantities for the volume of the system, V [L= $dm^3$ ], yields volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux, 887  $J_{V,O2}=I_{O2}/V$  [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>], and O<sub>2</sub> concentration, [O<sub>2</sub>] or  $c_{O2}=n_{O2}/V$  [nmol·mL<sup>-1</sup>=µmol·L<sup>-1</sup>=µM]. 888 Instrumental background O<sub>2</sub> flux is due to external flux into a non-ideal closed respirometer, 889 such that total volume-specific flux has to be corrected for instrumental background O<sub>2</sub> flux, 890 i.e.  $O_2$  diffusion into or out of the instrumental chamber.  $J_{V,O2}$  is relevant mainly for 891

methodological reasons and should be compared with the accuracy of instrumental resolution of background-corrected flux, *e.g.*  $\pm 1$  nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup> (Gnaiger 2001). 'Metabolic' or catabolic indicates O<sub>2</sub> flux, *J*<sub>O2,k</sub>, corrected for instrumental background O<sub>2</sub> flux and chemical background O<sub>2</sub> flux due to autoxidation of chemical components added to the incubation medium.

896

# 897 4.2. Extensive quantities and size-specific normalization

Application of common and generally defined units is required for direct transfer of reported results into a database. The second [s] is the *SI* unit for the base quantity *time*. It is also the standard time-unit used in solution chemical kinetics. **Table 6** lists some conversion factors to obtain *SI* units. The term *rate* is not sufficiently defined to be useful for a database (**Fig. 7**). The inconsistency of the meanings of rate becomes fully apparent when considering Galileo Galilei's famous principle, that 'bodies of different weight all fall at the same rate (have a constant acceleration)' (Coopersmith 2010).

Extensive quantities: An extensive quantity increases proportionally with system size.
The magnitude of an extensive quantity is completely additive for non-interacting subsystems,
such as mass or flow expressed per defined system. The magnitude of these quantities depends
on the extent or size of the system (Cohen *et al.* 2008).

909

910 Fig. 7. Different meanings of rate 911 may lead to confusion, if the 912 normalization is not sufficiently 913 specified. Results are frequently 914 expressed as mass-specific flux,  $J_m$ , 915 per mg protein, dry or wet weight 916 (mass). Cell volume, V<sub>cell</sub>, or mitochondrial volume, Vmt, may be 917 918 used for normalization (volume-

Rate Flow,  $I \text{ [mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}\text{] per system}$   $J_V \text{ [mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}\text{]}$  Method: per volume  $J_m \text{ [mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}\text{]}$  Results (specific): per massTurnover rate [s<sup>-1</sup>] Flux control ratio, *FCR*  $I_{\text{low}}/I_{\text{high}}$  or  $J_{\text{low}}/J_{\text{high}}$  921

922 **Size-specific quantities:** 'The adjective *specific* before the name of an extensive quantity 923 is often used to mean *divided by mass*' (Cohen *et al.* 2008). Mass-specific flux is flow divided 924 by mass of the system. A mass-specific quantity is independent of the extent of non-interacting 925 homogenous subsystems. Tissue-specific quantities are of fundamental interest in comparative 926 mitochondrial physiology, where *specific* refers to the *type* rather than *mass* of the tissue. The 927 term *specific*, therefore, must be further clarified, such that tissue mass-specific, *e.g.*, muscle 928 mass-specific quantities are defined.

929 Molar quantities: 'The adjective *molar* before the name of an extensive quantity 930 generally means divided by amount of substance' (Cohen et al. 2008). The notion that all molar quantities then become *intensive* causes ambiguity in the meaning of *molar Gibbs energy*. It is 931 932 important to emphasize the fundamental difference between normalization for amount of 933 substance in a system or for amount of motive substance in a transformation. When the Gibbs energy of a system, G [J], is divided by the amount of substance B in the system,  $n_{\rm B}$  [mol], a 934 935 size-specific molar quantity is obtained,  $G_{\rm B} = G/n_{\rm B} \, [\rm J \cdot mol^{-1}]$ , which is not any force at all. In 936 contrast, when the partial Gibbs energy change,  $\partial_r G$  [J], is divided by the motive amount of substance B in reaction r (advancement of reaction),  $\partial_r \xi_B$  [mol], the resulting intensive molar 937 quantity,  $F_{r,B} = \partial G / \partial_r \xi_B$  [J·mol<sup>-1</sup>], is the chemical motive force of reaction r involving 1 mol B 938 939 (**Table 5**, Note 4).

Flow per system, *I*: In analogy to electrical terms, flow as an extensive quantity (*I*; per system) is distinguished from flux as a size-specific quantity (*J*; per system size) (**Fig. 7**). Electric current is flow,  $I_{el}$  [A=C·s<sup>-1</sup>] per system (extensive quantity). When dividing this extensive quantity by system size (membrane area), a size-specific quantity is obtained, which is electric flux (electric current density),  $J_{el}$  [A·m<sup>-2</sup> = C·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-2</sup>].

Size-specific flux, J: Metabolic O<sub>2</sub> flow per tissue increases as tissue mass is increased. 945 946 Tissue mass-specific  $O_2$  flux should be independent of the size of the tissue sample studied in 947 the instrument chamber, but volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux (per volume of the instrument chamber, 948 V) should increase in direct proportion to the amount of sample in the chamber. Accurate 949 definition of the experimental system is decisive: whether the experimental chamber is the 950 closed, open, isothermal or non-isothermal system with defined volume as part of the 951 measurement apparatus, in contrast to the experimental *sample* in the chamber (Table 6). Volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux depends on mass-concentration of the sample in the chamber, but 952 953 should be independent of the chamber volume. There are practical limitations to increasing the 954 mass-concentration of the sample in the chamber, when one is concerned about crowding 955 effects and instrumental time resolution.

956 **Sample concentration**  $C_{mX}$ : Normalization for sample concentration is required for 957 reporting respiratory data. Consider a tissue or cells as the sample, X, and the sample mass,  $m_X$ 958 [mg] from which a mitochondrial preparation is obtained. The sample mass is frequently 959 measured as wet or dry weight ( $m_X \equiv W_w$  or  $W_d$  [mg]), or as amount of tissue or cell protein  $(m_X \equiv m_{\text{Protein}})$ . In the case of permeabilized tissues, cells, and homogenates, the sample 960 concentration,  $C_{mX}=m_X/V$  [mg·mL<sup>-1</sup>=g·L<sup>-1</sup>], is simply the mass of the subsample of tissue that is 961 962 transferred into the instrument chamber. Part of the mitochondria from the tissue is lost during preparation of isolated mitochondria, and only a fraction of mitochondria is obtained, expressed 963 as the mitochondrial yield (Fig. 8). At a high mitochondrial yield the sample of isolated 964 965 mitochondria is more representative of the total mitochondrial population than in preparations 966 characterized by low mitochondrial yield. Determination of the mitochondrial yield is based on 967 measurement of the concentration of a mitochondrial marker in the tissue homogenate,  $C_{\rm mte,thom}$ , 968 which simultaneously provides information on the specific mitochondrial density in the sample 969 (**Fig. 8**).

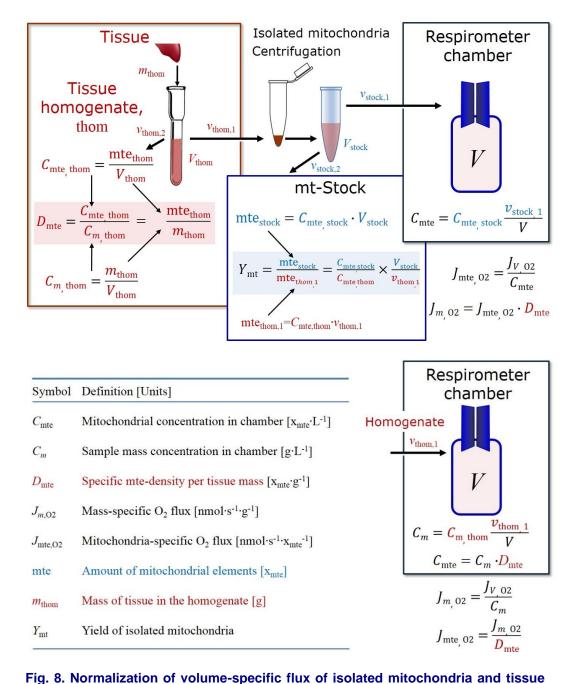
970 Tissues can contain multiple cell populations which may have distinct mitochondrial 971 subtypes. Mitochondria are also in a constant state of flux due to highly dynamic fission and fusion cycles, and can exist in multiple stages and sizes which may be altered by a range of 972 973 factors. The isolation of mitochondria (often achieved through differential centrifugation) can therefore yield a subsample of the mitochondrial types present in a tissue, dependent on 974 isolation protocols utilized (e.g. centrifugation speed). This possible artefact should be taken 975 976 into account when planning experiments using isolated mitochondria. The tendency for 977 mitochondria of specific sizes to be enriched at different centrifugation speeds also has the potential to allow the isolation of specific mitochondrial subpopulations and therefore the 978 979 analysis of mitochondria from multiple cell lineages within a single tissue.

980

# Table 6. Sample concentrations and normalization of flux with *SI* base units.

Expression	Symbol	Definition	<i>SI</i> Unit	Notes
Sample				
Identity of sample	X	Cells, animals, patients		
Number of sample entities X	$N_X$	Number of cells, etc.	Х	
Mass of sample <i>X</i>	$m_X$		kg	1
Mass of entity X	$M_X$	$M_X = m_X \cdot N_X^{-1}$	kg·x <sup>-1</sup>	1
Mitochondria				
Mitochondria	mt	X=mt		
Amount of mt-elements	mte	Quantity of mt-marker	X <sub>mte</sub>	
Concentrations				
Sample number concentration	$C_{NX}$	$C_{NX} = N_X \cdot V^{-1}$	x·m <sup>-3</sup>	2
Sample mass concentration	$C_{mX}$	$C_{mX} = m_X \cdot V^{-1}$	kg·m <sup>-3</sup>	
Mitochondrial concentration	$C_{\rm mte}$	$C_{\rm mte} = { m mte} \cdot V^{-1}$	$x_{mte} \cdot m^{-3}$	3
Specific mitochondrial density	$D_{\rm mte}$	$D_{\rm mte} = {\rm mte} \cdot m_X^{-1}$	x <sub>mte</sub> ·kg <sup>-1</sup>	4
Mitochondrial content, mte per entity $X$	mte <sub>X</sub>	$mte_X = mte \cdot N_X^{-1}$	$x_{mte} \cdot x^{-1}$	5
O <sub>2</sub> flow and flux				6
Flow	$I_{O2}$	Internal flow	mol·s <sup>-1</sup>	7
Volume-specific flux	$J_{V,\mathrm{O2}}$	$J_{V,O2} = I_{O2} \cdot V^{-1}$	mol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·m <sup>-3</sup>	8
Flow per sample entity X	$I_{X,O2}$	$I_{X,O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{NX}^{-1}$	mol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·x <sup>-1</sup>	9
Mass-specific flux	$J_{mX,O2}$	$J_{mX,O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{mX}^{-1}$	mol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·kg <sup>-1</sup>	
Mitochondria-specific flux	$J_{\rm mte,O2}$	$J_{\rm mte,O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{\rm mte}^{-1}$	$\text{mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}_{\text{mte}}^{-1}$	10

- The *SI* prefix k is used for the SI base unit of mass (kg=1,000 g). In praxis, various *SI* prefixes are
  used for convenience, to make numbers easily readable, *e.g.* 1 mg tissue, cell or mitochondrial mass
  instead of 0.000001 kg.
- 987 2 In case *X*=cells, the sample number concentration is  $C_{Ncell}=N_{cell}\cdot V^1$ , and volume may be expressed 988 in [dm<sup>3</sup>=L] or [cm<sup>3</sup>=mL]. See Table 7 for different sample types.
- 989 3 mt-concentration is an experimental variable, dependent on sample concentration: (1)  $C_{mte}=mte \cdot V^{-1}$ ; 990 (2)  $C_{mte}=mte_X \cdot C_{NX}$ ; (3)  $C_{mte}=C_{mX} \cdot D_{mte}$ .
- 991 4 If the amount of mitochondria, mte, is expressed as mitochondrial mass, then  $D_{mte}$  is the mass 992 fraction of mitochondria in the sample. If mte is expressed as mitochondrial volume,  $V_{mt}$ , and the 993 mass of sample,  $m_{X}$ , is replaced by volume of sample,  $V_X$ , then  $D_{mte}$  is the volume fraction of 994 mitochondria in the sample.
- 995 5 mte<sub>x</sub>=mte· $N_x^{-1}=C_{mte} \cdot C_{Nx}^{-1}$ .
- 996 6 Entity O<sub>2</sub> can be replaced by other chemical entities B to study different reactions.
- 997 7  $l_{02}$  and V are defined per instrument chamber as a system of constant volume (and constant 998 temperature), which may be closed or open.  $l_{02}$  is abbreviated for  $l_{02,r}$ , *i.e.* the metabolic or internal 999 O<sub>2</sub> flow of the chemical reaction r in which O<sub>2</sub> is consumed, hence the negative stoichiometric 1000 number,  $v_{02}$ =-1.  $l_{02,r}$ =d<sub>r</sub> $n_{02}$ /dt  $v_{02}$ -1. If r includes all chemical reactions in which O<sub>2</sub> participates, then 1001 d<sub>r</sub> $n_{02}$  = d $n_{02}$  - d<sub>e</sub> $n_{02}$ , where d $n_{02}$  is the change in the amount of O<sub>2</sub> in the instrument chamber and 1002 d<sub>e</sub> $n_{02}$  is the amount of O<sub>2</sub> added externally to the system. At steady state, by definition d $n_{02}$ =0, hence 1003 d<sub>r</sub> $n_{02}$ =-d<sub>e</sub> $n_{02}$ .
- 1004 8  $J_{V,O2}$  is an experimental variable, expressed per volume of the instrument chamber.
- 1005 9  $I_{X,O2}$  is a physiological variable, depending on the size of entity X.
- 1006 10 There are many ways to normalize for a mitochondrial marker, that are used in different experimental
- 1007 approaches: (1)  $J_{\text{mte},O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{\text{mte}}^{-1}$ ; (2)  $J_{\text{mte},O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{mX}^{-1} \cdot D_{\text{mte}}^{-1} = J_{mX,O2} \cdot D_{\text{mte}}^{-1}$ ; (3)  $J_{\text{mte},O2} = J_{V,O2} \cdot C_{NX}^{-1} \cdot \text{mte}_{X}^{-1} = I_{X,O2} \cdot \text{mte}_{X}^{-1}$ ; (4)  $J_{\text{mte},O2} = I_{O2} \cdot \text{mte}^{-1}$ .
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- 1010
- 1011
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- 1013



1016Fig. 8. Normalization of volume-specific flux of isolated mitochondria and tissue1017homogenate. A: Mitochondrial yield,  $Y_{mt}$ , in preparation of isolated mitochondria.  $z_{thom,1}$ 1018and  $z_{stock,1}$  are the volumes transferred from the total volume,  $V_{thom}$  and  $V_{stock}$ , respectively.1019mtethom,1 is the amount of mitochondrial elements in volume  $z_{thom,1}$  used for isolation. B:1020In respirometry with homogenate,  $z_{thom,1}$  is transferred directly into the respirometer1021chamber. See Table 6 for further explanation of symbols.

## 1025 Table 7. Some useful abbreviations

1026	of various sample types, X.	
1027		
1028	Identity of sample	X
1029		
1030	Mitochondrial preparations	mtprep
1031	Isolated mitochondria	imt
1032	Tissue homogenate	thom
1033	Permeabilized tissue	pti
1034	Permeabilized fibres	pfi
1035	Permeabilized cells	pce
1036	Cells	ce
1037		

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**Mass-specific flux**,  $J_{mX,O2}$ : Mass-specific flux is obtained by expressing respiration per 1039 1040 mass of sample,  $m_X$  [mg]. X is the type of sample, e.g., tissue homogenate, permeabilized fibres or cells. Volume-specific flux is divided by mass concentration of X,  $J_{mX,O2} = J_{V,O2}/C_{mX}$ ; or flow 1041 per cell is divided by mass per cell,  $J_{mcell,O2} = I_{cell,O2}/M_{cell}$ . If mass-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux is constant 1042 1043 and independent of sample size (expressed as mass), then there is no interaction between the subsystems. A 1.5 mg and a 3.0 mg muscle sample respires at identical mass-specific flux. 1044 Mass-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux, however, may change with the mass of a tissue sample, cells or isolated 1045 mitochondria in the measuring chamber, in which case the nature of the interaction becomes an 1046 issue. Optimization of cell density and arrangement is generally important and particularly in 1047 1048 experiments carried out in wells, considering the confluency of the cell monolayer or clumps of cells (Salabei et al. 2014). 1049

1050 **Number concentration**,  $C_{NX}$ : The experimental *number concentration* of sample in the 1051 case of cells or animals, *e.g.*, nematodes is  $C_{NX}=N_X/V$  [x·mL<sup>-1</sup>], where  $N_X$  is the number of cells 1052 or organisms in the chamber (**Table 6**).

Flow per sample entity,  $I_{X,O2}$ : A special case of normalization is encountered in 1053 1054 respiratory studies with permeabilized (or intact) cells. If respiration is expressed per cell, the 1055  $O_2$  flow per measurement system is replaced by the  $O_2$  flow per cell,  $I_{cell,O2}$  (**Table 6**).  $O_2$  flow can be calculated from volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux,  $J_{V,O2}$  [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>] (per V of the measurement 1056 chamber [L]), divided by the number concentration of cells,  $C_{Nce} = N_{ce}/V$  [cell·L<sup>-1</sup>], where  $N_{ce}$  is 1057 the number of cells in the chamber. Cellular O<sub>2</sub> flow can be compared between cells of identical 1058 1059 size. To take into account changes and differences in cell size, further normalization is required 1060 to obtain cell size-specific or mitochondrial marker-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux (Renner et al. 2003).

The complexity changes when the sample is a whole organism studied as an experimental 1061 1062 model. The well-established scaling law in respiratory physiology reveals a strong interaction 1063 of O<sub>2</sub> consumption and individual body mass of an organism, since *basal* metabolic rate (flow) 1064 does not increase linearly with body mass, whereas maximum mass-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux,  $\dot{V}_{O2max}$  or  $\dot{V}_{O2peak}$ , is approximately constant across a large range of individual body mass (Weibel and 1065 Hoppeler 2005), with individuals, breeds, and certain species deviating substantially from this 1066 general relationship.  $\dot{V}_{O2peak}$  of human endurance athletes is 60 to 80 mL O<sub>2</sub>·min<sup>-1</sup>·kg<sup>-1</sup> body 1067 mass, converted to  $J_{m,O2peak}$  of 45 to 60 nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·g<sup>-1</sup> (Gnaiger 2014; **Table 8**). 1068

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## 1070 *4.2. Normalization for mitochondrial content*

Normalization is a problematic subject and it is essential to consider the question of the 1071 1072 study. If the study aims to compare tissue performance, such as the effects of a certain treatment 1073 on a specific tissue, then normalization can be successful, using tissue mass or protein content, 1074 for example. If the aim, however, is to find differences of mitochondrial function independent of mitochondrial density (Table 6), then normalization to a mitochondrial marker is imperative. 1075 1076 However, one cannot assume that quantitative changes in various markers such as mitochondrial proteins necessarily occur in parallel with one another. It is important to first 1077 establish that the marker chosen is not selectively altered by the performed treatment. In 1078

1079 conclusion, the normalization must reflect the question under investigation to reach a satisfying
1080 answer. On the other hand, the goal of comparing results across projects and institutions
1081 requires some standardization on normalization for entry into a databank.

Mitochondrial concentration,  $C_{mte}$ , and mitochondrial markers: It is important that 1082 1083 mitochondrial content in the tissue and the measurement chamber be quantified, as a physiological output and result of mitochondrial biogenesis and degradation, and as a quantity 1084 1085 for normalization in functional analyses. Mitochondrial organelles comprise a cellular 1086 reticulum that is in a continual flux of fusion and fission. Hence the definition of an "amount" of mitochondria is often misconceived: mitochondria cannot be counted as a number of 1087 1088 occurring elements. Therefore, quantification of the "amount" of mitochondria depends on 1089 measurement of chosen mitochondrial markers. 'Mitochondria are the structural and functional elemental units of cell respiration' (Gnaiger 2014). The quantity of a mitochondrial marker can 1090 1091 be considered as the measurement of the amount of elemental mitochondrial units or mitochondrial elements, mte. However, since mitochondrial quality changes under certain 1092 stimuli, particularly in mitochondrial dysfunction, some markers can vary while other markers 1093 are unchanged. (1) Mitochondrial volume or membrane area are structural markers, whereas 1094 1095 mitochondrial protein mass is frequently used as a marker for isolated mitochondria. (2) 1096 Mitochondrial marker enzymes (amounts or activities) and molecular markers can be selected 1097 as matrix markers, e.g., citrate synthase activity, mtDNA; or inner mt-membrane markers, e.g., cytochrome c oxidase activity,  $aa_3$  content, cardiolipin, TOM20. (3) Extending the 1098 1099 measurement of mitochondrial marker enzyme activity to mitochondrial pathway capacity, measured as ETS or OXPHOS capacity, can be considered as an integrative functional 1100 1101 mitochondrial marker.

Depending on the type of mitochondrial marker, the mitochondrial elements, mte, are expressed in marker-specific units. Although concentration and density are used synonymously in physical chemistry, it is recommended to distinguish *experimental mitochondrial*  1105 concentration,  $C_{\text{mte}}=\text{mte}/V$  and physiological mitochondrial density,  $D_{\text{mte}}=\text{mte}/m_X$ . Then 1106 mitochondrial density is the amount of mitochondrial elements per mass of tissue. The former 1107 is mitochondrial density multiplied by sample mass concentration,  $C_{\text{mte}}=D_{\text{mte}}\cdot C_{mX}$ , or 1108 mitochondrial content multiplied by sample number concentration,  $C_{\text{mte}}=\text{mte}_X \cdot C_{NX}$  (**Table 6**).

1109 **Mitochondria-specific flux**, *J*<sub>mte,O2</sub>: Volume-specific metabolic O<sub>2</sub> flux depends on: (1) the sample concentration in the volume of the instrument chamber,  $C_{mX}$ , or  $C_{NX}$ ; (2) the 1110 1111 mitochondrial density in the sample,  $D_{\text{mte}}=\text{mte}/m_X$  or  $\text{mte}_X=\text{mte}/N_X$ ; and (3) the specific 1112 mitochondrial activity or performance per elemental mitochondrial unit,  $J_{\text{mte,O2}}=J_{V,O2}/C_{\text{mte}}$ 1113 (Table 6). Obviously, the numerical results for  $J_{mte,O2}$  vary according to the type of 1114 mitochondrial marker chosen for measurement of mte and  $C_{mte}=mte/V$ . Some problems are 1115 common for all mitochondrial markers: (1) Accuracy of measurement is crucial, since even a highly accurate and reproducible measurement of O<sub>2</sub> flux becomes inaccurate and noisy if 1116 1117 normalized for a biased and noisy measurement of a mitochondrial marker. This problem is acute in mitochondrial respiration because the denominators used (the mitochondrial marker) 1118 are often very small moieties whose accurate and precise determination is difficult. This 1119 problem can be avoided when O<sub>2</sub> fluxes measured in substrate-uncoupler-inhibitor titration 1120 1121 protocols are normalized for flux in a defined respiratory reference state, which is used as an 1122 internal marker and yields flux control ratios, FCRs (Fig. 7). FCRs are independent of any 1123 externally measured markers and, therefore, are statistically very robust. FCRs indicate qualitative changes of mitochondrial respiratory control, with highest quantitative resolution, 1124 1125 separating the effect of mitochondrial density or concentration on  $J_{mX,O2}$  or  $I_{X,O2}$  from that of 1126 function per elemental mitochondrial marker,  $J_{\text{mte,O2}}$  (Pesta *et al.* 2011; Gnaiger 2014). (2) If 1127 mitochondrial quality does not change and only the amount of mitochondria, defined by the 1128 chosen mitochondrial marker, varies as a determinant of mass-specific flux, then any marker is equally qualified and selection of the optimum marker depends only on the accuracy and 1129 1130 precision of measurement of the mitochondrial marker. (3) If mitochondrial flux control ratios

change, then there may not be any best mitochondrial marker. In general, measurement of
multiple mitochondrial markers enables a comparison and evaluation of normalization for a
variety of mitochondrial markers.

- 1134
- 1135 *4.3. Conversion: units and normalization*

Many different units have been used to report the rate of oxygen consumption, OCR 1136 1137 (Table 8). SI base units provide the common reference for introducing the theoretical principles (Fig. 7), and are used with appropriately chosen SI prefixes to express numerical data in the 1138 most practical format, with an effort towards unification within specific areas of application 1139 1140 (Table 9). For studies of cells, we recommend that respiration be expressed, as far as possible, as (1) O<sub>2</sub> flux normalized for a mitochondrial marker, for separation of the effects of 1141 mitochondrial quality and content on cell respiration (this includes FCRs as a normalization for 1142 1143 a functional mitochondrial marker); (2) O<sub>2</sub> flux in units of cell volume or mass, for comparison of respiration of cells with different cell size (Renner et al. 2003) and with studies on tissue 1144 preparations, and (3)  $O_2$  flow in units of attomole (10<sup>-18</sup> mol) of  $O_2$  consumed by each cell in a 1145 second [amol·s<sup>-1</sup>·cell<sup>-1</sup>], numerically equivalent to [pmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·10<sup>-6</sup> cells]. This convention allows 1146 1147 information to be easily used when designing experiments in which oxygen consumption must 1148 be considered. For example, to estimate the volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux in an instrument chamber that would be expected at a particular cell number concentration, one simply needs to multiply 1149 the flow per cell by the number of cells per volume of interest. This provides the amount of O<sub>2</sub> 1150 [mol] consumed per time [s<sup>-1</sup>] per unit volume [L<sup>-1</sup>]. At an O<sub>2</sub> flow of 100 amol·s<sup>-1</sup>·cell<sup>-1</sup> and a 1151 cell density of  $10^9$  cells·L<sup>-1</sup> ( $10^6$  cells·mL<sup>-1</sup>), the volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux is 100 nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup> (100 1152 pmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·mL<sup>-1</sup>). Although volume is expressed as  $m^3$  using the SI base unit, the litre [dm<sup>3</sup>] is the 1153 1154 basic unit of volume for concentration and is used for most solution chemical kinetics. If one multiplies  $I_{cell,O2}$  by  $C_{Ncell}$ , then the result will not only be the amount of O<sub>2</sub> [mol] consumed per 1155 time  $[s^{-1}]$  in one litre  $[L^{-1}]$ , but also the change in the concentration of oxygen per second (for 1156

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any volume of an ideally closed system). This is ideal for kinetic modeling as it blends with chemical rate equations where concentrations are typically expressed in mol·L<sup>-1</sup> (Wagner *et al.* 2011). In studies of multinuclear cells, such as differentiated skeletal muscle cells, it is easy to determine the number of nuclei but not the total number of cells. A generalized concept, therefore, is obtained by substituting cells by nuclei as the sample entity. This does not hold, however, for enucleated platelets.

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**ergometry.** e is the number of electrons or reducing equivalents.  $z_B$  is the charge number of entity B.

Table 8. Conversion of various units used in respirometry and

1 Unit	Х	x	Multiplication factor	SI-Unit	Note
ng.atom O·s <sup>-1</sup>	(2 e)		0.5	nmol O <sub>2</sub> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
ng.atom O·min <sup>-1</sup>	(2 e)		8.33	pmol O2·s <sup>-1</sup>	
natom O·min <sup>-1</sup>	(2 e)		8.33	pmol O <sub>2</sub> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
nmol O <sub>2</sub> ·min <sup>-1</sup>	(4 e)		16.67	pmol O <sub>2</sub> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
nmol $O_2 \cdot h^{-1}$	(4 e)		0.2778	pmol O <sub>2</sub> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
mL O <sub>2</sub> ·min <sup>-1</sup> at ST	$\mathbf{PD}^{a}$		0.744	µmol O₂·s <sup>-1</sup>	1
W = J/s at -470 kJ	/mol O <sub>2</sub>		-2.128	µmol O₂·s <sup>-1</sup>	
$mA = mC \cdot s^{-1}$	( <i>z</i> <sub>H+</sub> =1)		10.36	nmol $H^+ \cdot s^{-1}$	2
$mA = mC \cdot s^{-1}$	( <i>z</i> <sub>02</sub> =4)		2.59	nmol O2·s <sup>-1</sup>	2
nmol $H^+ \cdot s^{-1}$	( <i>z</i> <sub>H+</sub> =1)		0.09649	mA	3
nmol O <sub>2</sub> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	(z <sub>02</sub> =4)		0.38594	mA	3

1168

11691At standard temperature and pressure dry (STPD: 0 °C=273.15 K and 11170atm=101.325 kPa=760 mmHg), the molar volume of an ideal gas,  $V_m$ , and  $V_{m,O2}$ 1171is 22.414 and 22.392 L.mol<sup>-1</sup> respectively. Rounded to three decimal places, both1172values yield the conversion factor of 0.744. For comparison at NTPD (20 °C),1173 $V_{m,O2}$  is 24.038 L.mol<sup>-1</sup>. Note that the SI standard pressure is 100 kPa.

- 1174 2 The multiplication factor is  $10^{6}/(z_{\rm B}\cdot F)$ .
- 1175 3 The multiplication factor is  $z_{\rm B} \cdot F/10^6$ .
- 1176

# 1177 Table 9. Conversion for units with preservation of numerical values.

Name	Frequently used unit	Equivalent unit	Note
Volume-specific flux, $J_{V,O2}$	pmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·mL <sup>-1</sup>	nmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·L <sup>-1</sup>	1
	$\text{mmol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$	$\text{mol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$	•
Cell-specific flow, $I_{O2}$	pmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·10 <sup>-6</sup> cells	amol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·cell <sup>-1</sup>	2
	pmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·10 <sup>-9</sup> cells	zmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·cell <sup>-1</sup>	3
Cell number concentration, $C_{Nce}$	10 <sup>6</sup> cells⋅mL <sup>-1</sup>	$10^9$ cells·L <sup>-1</sup>	
Mitochondrial protein concentration, $C_{\rm mte}$	0.1 mg·mL <sup>-1</sup>	0.1 g·L <sup>-1</sup>	
Mass-specific flux, $J_{m,O2}$	pmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·mg <sup>-1</sup>	nmol·s <sup>-1</sup> ·g <sup>-1</sup>	4
Catabolic power, $P_{k,O2}$	µW·10 <sup>-6</sup> cells	pW·cell <sup>-1</sup>	1
Volume	1,000 L	m <sup>3</sup> (1,000 kg)	
	L	$dm^3$ (kg)	
	mL	$\mathrm{cm}^{3}(\mathrm{g})$	
	μL	mm <sup>3</sup> (mg)	
	fL	$\mu m^3$ (pg)	
Amount of substance concentration	$M = mol \cdot L^{-1}$	mol·dm <sup>-3</sup>	

1179 1 pmol: picomole =  $10^{-12}$  mol

- 1180 2 amol: attomole =  $10^{-18}$  mol
- **1181** 3 zmol: zeptomole =  $10^{-21}$  mol
- 1182 4 nmol: nanomole =  $10^{-9}$  mol
- 1183

1178

## 1184 4.4. Conversion: oxygen, proton and ATP flux

1185  $J_{O2,k}$  is coupled in mitochondrial steady states to proton cycling,  $J_{\infty H^+} = J_{H^+,out} = J_{H^+,in}$  (**Fig.** 1186 **2**).  $J_{H^+,out/n}$  and  $J_{H^+,in/n}$  [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>] are converted into electrical units,  $J_{H^+,out/e}$ 1187 [mC·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>=mA·L<sup>-1</sup>] =  $J_{H^+,out/n}$  [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>]·F [C·mol<sup>-1</sup>]·10<sup>-6</sup> (**Table 4**). At a  $J_{H^+,out}/J_{O2,k}$  ratio 1188 or H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> of 20 (H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>/O=10), a volume-specific O<sub>2</sub> flux of 100 nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup> would correspond 1189 to a proton flux of 2,000 nmol H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup> or volume-specific current of 193 mA·L<sup>-1</sup>.

1190 
$$J_{V,H+out/e} [mA \cdot L^{-1}] = J_{V,H+out/n} \cdot F \cdot 10^{-6} [nmol \cdot s^{-1} \cdot L^{-1} \cdot mC \cdot nmol^{-1}]$$
 (Eq. 3.1)

1191 
$$J_{V,H+out/e} [mA \cdot L^{-1}] = J_{V,O2} \cdot (H^{+}_{out}/O_2) \cdot F \cdot 10^{-6} [mC \cdot s^{-1} \cdot L^{-1} = mA \cdot L^{-1}]$$
(Eq. 3.2)

ETS capacity in various human cell types including HEK 293, primary HUVEC and fibroblasts
ranges from 50 to 180 amol·s<sup>-1</sup>·cell<sup>-1</sup>, measured in intact cells in the noncoupled state (see

Gnaiger 2014). At 100 amol·s<sup>-1</sup>·cell<sup>-1</sup> corrected for ROX (corresponding to a catabolic power 1194 of -48 pW·cell<sup>-1</sup>), the current across the mt-membranes,  $I_e$ , approximates 193 pA·cell<sup>-1</sup> or 0.2 1195 nA per cell. See Rich (2003) for an extension of quantitative bioenergetics from the molecular 1196 1197 to the human scale, with a transmembrane proton flux equivalent to 520 A in an adult at a 1198 catabolic power of -110 W. Modelling approaches illustrate the link between proton motive force and currents (Willis et al. 2016). For NADH- and succinate-linked respiration, the 1199 1200 mechanistic P»/O<sub>2</sub> ratio (referring to the full 4 electron reduction of O<sub>2</sub>) is calculated at 20/3.7 1201 and 12/3.7, respectively (Eq. 4) equal to 5.4 and 3.3. The classical P»/O ratios (referring to the 1202 2 electron reduction of 0.5 O<sub>2</sub>) are 2.7 and 1.6 (Watt et al. 2010), in direct agreement with the 1203 measured P»/O ratio for succinate of  $1.58 \pm 0.02$  (Gnaiger *et al.* 2000; for detailed reviews see 1204 Wikström and Hummer 2012; Sazanov 2015),

1205

$$P \gg O_2 = (H^+_{out}/O_2)/(H^+_{in}/P)$$
 (Eq. 4)

- 1206 In summary (**Fig. 1**),
- 1207  $J_{V,P*}$  [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>] =  $J_{V,O2}$ ·(H<sup>+</sup><sub>out</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>)/(H<sup>+</sup><sub>in</sub>/P\*) (Eq. 5.1)
- 1208

$$J_{V,P*}$$
 [nmol·s<sup>-1</sup>·L<sup>-1</sup>] =  $J_{V,O2}$ ·(P\*/O<sub>2</sub>) (Eq. 5.2)

1209 We consider isolated mitochondria as powerhouses and proton pumps as molecular machines to relate experimental results to energy metabolism of the intact cell. The cellular P»/O2 based 1210 1211 on oxidation of glycogen is increased by the glycolytic (fermentative) substrate-level phosphorylation of 3 P»/Glyc, *i.e.*, 0.5 mol P» for each mol O<sub>2</sub> consumed in the complete 1212 oxidation of a mol glycosyl unit (Glyc). Adding 0.5 to the mitochondrial P»/O2 ratio of 5.4 1213 1214 yields a bioenergetic cell physiological P»/O2 ratio close to 6. Two NADH equivalents are formed during glycolysis and transported from the cytosol into the mitochondrial matrix, either 1215 1216 by the malate-aspartate shuttle or by the glycerophosphate shuttle resulting in different theoretical yield of ATP generated by mitochondria, the energetic cost of which potentially 1217 1218 must be taken into account. Considering also substrate-level phosphorylation in the TCA cycle, 1219 this high P»/O<sub>2</sub> ratio not only reflects proton translocation and OXPHOS studied in isolation, but integrates mitochondrial physiology with energy transformation in the living cell (Gnaiger1993a).

1222

#### 1223 **5.** Conclusions

MitoEAGLE can serve as a gateway to better diagnose mitochondrial respiratory defects linked to genetic variation, age-related health risks, sex-specific mitochondrial performance, lifestyle with its effects on degenerative diseases, and thermal and chemical environment. The present recommendations on coupling control states and rates, linked to the concept of the protonmotive force (Part 1) will be extended in a series of reports on pathway control of mitochondrial respiration, respiratory states in intact cells, and harmonization of experimental procedures.

1231

## 1232 Box 5: Mitochondrial and cell respiration

Mitochondrial and cell respiration is the process of highly exothermic energy transformation in 1233 which scalar redox reactions are coupled to vectorial ion translocation across a semipermeable 1234 1235 membrane, which separates the small volume of a bacterial cell or mitochondrion from the larger volume of its surroundings. The electrochemical exergy can be partially conserved in the 1236 phosphorylation of ADP to ATP or in ion pumping, or dissipated in an electrochemical short-1237 1238 circuit. Respiration is thus clearly distinguished from fermentation as the counterpart of cellular core energy metabolism. Respiration is separated in mitochondrial preparations from the partial 1239 contribution of fermentative pathways of the intact cell. According to this definition, residual 1240 oxygen consumption, as measured after inhibition of the mitochondrial electron transfer system, 1241 does not belong to the class of catabolic reactions and is, therefore, subtracted from total oxygen 1242 consumption to obtain baseline-corrected respiration. 1243

1244

The optimal choice for expressing mitochondrial and cell respiration (Box 5) as  $O_2$  flow 1245 per biological system, and normalization for specific tissue-markers (volume, mass, protein) 1246 1247 and mitochondrial markers (volume, protein, content, mtDNA, activity of marker enzymes, respiratory reference state) is guided by the scientific question. Interpretation of the obtained 1248 1249 data depends critically on appropriate normalization, and therefore reporting rates merely as nmol·s<sup>-1</sup> is discouraged, since it restricts the analysis to intra-experimental comparison of 1250 1251 relative (qualitative) differences. Expressing O<sub>2</sub> consumption per cell may not be possible when 1252 dealing with tissues. For studies with mitochondrial preparations, we recommend that 1253 normalizations be provided as far as possible: (1) on a per cell basis as  $O_2$  flow (a biophysical 1254 normalization); (2) per g cell or tissue protein, or per cell or tissue mass as mass-specific  $O_2$ flux (a cellular normalization); and (3) per mitochondrial marker as mt-specific flux (a 1255 mitochondrial normalization). With information on cell size and the use of multiple 1256 1257 normalizations, maximum potential information is available (Renner et al. 2003; Wagner et al. 2011; Gnaiger 2014). When using isolated mitochondria, mitochondrial protein is a frequently 1258 applied mitochondrial marker, the use of which is basically restricted to isolated mitochondria. 1259 Mitochondrial markers, such as citrate synthase activity as an enzymatic matrix marker, provide 1260 1261 a link to the tissue of origin on the basis of calculating the mitochondrial yield, *i.e.*, the fraction 1262 of mitochondrial marker obtained from a unit mass of tissue.

1263

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