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Respiration predicted from an Enzyme
 Kinetic Model and the Metabolic Theory of
 Ecology in two species of marine bacteria

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16 Abstract

Respiratory oxygen consumption is the result of a cell's biochemistry. It 17 is caused by enzymatic activity of the respiratory electron transfer system 18 (ETS). However, in spite of this understanding, respiration models continue 19 to be based on allometric equations relating respiration to body size, body 20 surface, or biomass. The Metabolic Theory of Ecology (MTE) is a current 21 example. It is based on Kleiber's Law relating respiration (R) and biomass 22 (M) in the form, $R = C M^{\frac{3}{4}} e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$, where C is a constant, E_a is the Arrhenius 23 activation energy, k is the Boltzmann constant for an atom or molecule, and 24 T is the temperature in Kelvin. This law holds because biomass packages the 25 ETS. In contrast, we bypass biomass and model respiration directly from its 26 causal relationship with the ETS activity, R = f (ETS). We use a biochemical 27

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Enzyme Kinetic Model (EKM) of respiratory oxygen consumption based on 28 the substrate control of the ETS. It postulates that the upper limit of R is set 29 by the maximum velocity, V_{max} , of complex I of the ETS and the temperature, 30 and that the substrate availability, S, modulates R between zero and this 31 upper limit. Kinetics of this thermal-substrate regulation are described by 32 the Arrhenius and Michaelis-Menten equations. The EKM equation takes 33 the form $R = \frac{ETS [S] e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g T}}}{K + [S]}$ where R_g is the molar gas constant and K is the 34 Michaelis-Menten constant. 35

Here, we apply the EKM and the MTE to predict a respiration time-36 profile throughout the exponential, steady state, and nutrient-limited phases 37 of the marine bacteria Pseudomonas nautica and Vibrio natriegens in acetate-38 based cultures. Both models were tested by comparing their output with 39 the measured R_{O_2} time-profile. The MTE predicted respiration accurately 40 only in the exponential growth phase, but not during the nutrient limitation 41 part of the stationary phase. In contrast, the EKM worked well throughout 42 both physiological phases as long as the modelled substrates fall with the 43 declining carbon source. Results support the theoretical bases of the EKM. 44 We conclude that the EKM holds promise for predicting respiration at the 45 different physiological states and time-scales important to microbiological 46 studies. 47

48 Keywords: ETS, modeling respiration, MTE, Oxygen consumption

49 1. Introduction

50 First principles-based models of physiological processes are rare. For res-51 piration we have statistically based allometric equations relating respiration

to body size, body surface, or biomass (Weibel, 2002; Brown et al., 2004; 52 Allen and Gillooly, 2007). However, we have few models relating respiration 53 to the fundamental chemical principles and processes that control it. Equa-54 tions for respiration based on biochemical principles and properties such as 55 enzyme activities and substrate concentrations are not unreasonably difficult 56 to conceive, but have rarely been formulated as they have been for nitrogen 57 uptake and photosynthesis (Packard et al., 1971; Farquhar et al., 1980). Such 58 models would provide a means for calculating physiological rates when di-59 rect measurements are impractical. Here we present a biochemical model of 60 respiratory oxygen consumption based on the substrate control of the respi-61 ratory electron transport system. This model follows the equations designed 62 to calculate phytoplankton nitrate uptake (Packard et al., 1971), and bacte-63 rial respiration (Packard et al., 1996a,b; Roy and Packard, 2001). They are 64 conceptually similar to Farquhar's photosynthetic model (Farquhar et al., 65 1980). 66

The derivation of these equations is based on the assumptions that (1) respiration is the direct result of intracellular activity of the electron transport system (ETS) following a definable stoichiometry; (2) regulation of the ETS, and hence respiration (R_{O_2}) at the physiological level, is controlled by the NADH Dehydrogenase (EC 1.6.99.3.); and NADPH transferase (EC 1.6.1.1.) at the entrance to the ETS; and (3) that the reactions of these enzymes obey the rules of enzyme kinetics.

The Metabolic Theory of Ecology (MTE) provides an alternative model of respiration. Since the middle 90's articles proposing the MTE as a new unified theory for biology (Whitfield, 2005, 2006), based on the allometric

equation of Kleiber (1932), have appeared in key journals (Brown et al., 77 2000, 2004; Brown and West, 2000; Enquist et al., 1998, 2000; West et al., 78 1997, 2000, 2001). The proponents argue convincingly that anabolic and 79 catabolic metabolism are determined by biomass, temperature, and the flux 80 of elemental materials through an organism. They find parallel fractal scaling 81 in animal and plant distribution networks and circulatory systems as well as 82 similar thermodynamics and metabolic kinetics to explain the widespread 83 allometry with biomass. The MTE argues that respiration in all organisms, 84 including bacteria, can be calculated from biomass (M), temperature (T), 85 and a stoichiometric factor (C) that controls the uptake of minerals and 86 nutrients (Brown et al., 2004). The MTE algorithm is: 87

$$R = C M^{\frac{3}{4}} e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$$
(1)

The biomass (M), with an exponent $b = \frac{3}{4}$, is the core of Kleiber's law, 88 $R = aM^b$ (Kleiber, 1932, 1961; Whitfield, 2006), where a is a constant. In the 89 MTE this constant, a, is folded into the MTE constant, C. In Kleiber's law 90 when $M^b = 1$, a = R and thus the units of a and R are the same. Kleiber's 91 Law holds over a range of 10^{20} (Hochachka and Somero, 2002; Whitfield, 92 2006). The temperature dependency is based on the Boltzmann factor, $e^{\frac{-Ea}{kT}}$, 93 where E_a is the Arrhenius energy of activation (for respiration, $E_a \approx 0.65 \text{ eV}$ 94 (Allen and Gillooly, 2007)), k is the Boltzmann constant for an atom or 95 molecule $(0.33 \times 10^{-23} \text{ cal } \text{K}^{-1} \text{ or } 8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV } \text{K}^{-1}$ (Allen and Gillooly, 96 2007)), and T is the temperature in Kelvin. For the stoichiometric factor, or 97 nutrient availability, the MTE uses the constant, C (or b_0 , (Gillooly et al., 98 2006)). This MTE has been applied to secondary production, respiration 99

(Gillooly et al., 2001), growth, and developmental time (Gillooly et al., 2002,
2003), etc. in both plants and animals.

The Enzyme Kinetic Model (EKM) argues that each metabolic process is controlled by the maximum velocity (V_{max}) of the enzyme reaction that controls the process, the temperature (T), and the substrate availability (S). Focused on respiration (R_1) , at temperature T_1 , the EKM equation takes the form:

$$R_1 = \frac{ETS_0 [S] e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g(T_1 - T_0)}}}{K + [S]}$$
(2)

 ETS_0 is the potential respiration rate (in the same units as the physio-107 logical rate, R_1) but measured at another temperature, T_0 . ETS_0 is also the 108 in vitro activity of the respiratory electron transport system, its V_{max} (sensu 109 Michaelis-Menten). The expression $e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g(T_1-T_0)}}$ is from the Arrhenius Equa-110 tion where E_a is the Arrhenius energy of activation ($\approx 15 \text{ Kcal mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$), 111 R_g is the gas constant (1.987 cal mol⁻¹), and T_0 and T_1 are in Kelvin for the 112 measured potential rate (Φ or ETS_0) and the predicted rate (R_1), respec-113 tively. It is important to note here that the Arrhenius Equation uses molar 114 units whereas the Boltzmann Factor in the MTE uses atomic units. S is the 115 reactant (substrate) of the enzyme reaction, controlling respiration. K, for 116 a single-reactant reaction $(S \rightarrow P, \text{ where } P \text{ is the product of the reaction}),$ 117 is the Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m) . 118

In the case of a bisubstrate reaction, $(S_1 + S_2 \rightarrow P_1 + P_2)$, S becomes In $[S_1 S_2]$ and K becomes

$$K_{\beta} = K_{S_1} K_{ia} + K_{S_2} [S_1] + K_{S_1} [S_2]$$
(3)

where K_{ia} is the dissociation constant for the enzyme- S_2 complex (Packard et al., 1996a,b, 2004). Note that A, the frequency factor in the Arrhenius equation is eliminated algebraically because A is normally a constant for each reaction. In the case of physiological processes (respiration, photosynthesis, nitrogen fixation, etc.) we are assuming that A is a constant. Accordingly, A does not appear in Eq. (2). Furthermore if T_0 and T_1 are equal, as in this paper, then $e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g (T_1 - T_0)}}$ becomes 1 and Eq. (2) simplifies to:

$$R_0 = \frac{ETS_0 [S]}{K + [S]}$$
(4)

Note also the similarity between $e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g(T_1-T_0)}}$, in Eq. (2), and $e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$, in 128 Eq. (1). Both are derived from Maxwell's work in the 1850s and Boltz-129 man's work in the 1860s, but the application to chemical rates was explained 130 by Arrhenius in 1889 and the application to biological rates was again the 131 work of Arrhenius around the turn of the century (Arrhenius, 1889, 1915). 132 Boltzmann explained the distribution of molecular velocities and from that 133 derived the perfect gas law. He did not explain the effect of temperature 134 on chemical or biological reactions. That was entirely the work of Svant 135 Arrhenius. Accordingly, an important difference between the temperature 136 functions in the EKM and the MTE is the use of R_q (from Arrhenius) in 137 EKM's Eq. (2) and k (from Boltzmann) in the MTE's Eq. (1). Numeri-138 cally, with k in atomic units, the difference is enormous because $k = \frac{R_g}{N}$ where 139 N=Avogadro's number, 6.022×10^{23} atoms mol⁻¹. If k is in electron-volts, 140 it incorporates units that biologists, chemists, and biochemists rarely use and 141 even Richard Feynman, the Nobel laureate physicist, argued against using it 142 in the physics community (Feynman, 1998). Feynman thought it useful in 143

the atomic physics community, but not outside. For 100 years the biologicalchemical community has been measuring and using energy of activations,
gas constants, and the Arrhenius equation based on molar units, so a sudden
switch to electron-volt units is a major and unnecessary change.

The predictive capability of the EKM for respiratory CO_2 production 148 rates has been demonstrated in pyruvate-based cultures of the marine bac-149 terium, *Pseudomonas nautica* (Roy and Packard, 2001). In that experiment, 150 measurements of isocitrate dehydrogenase activity, provided a proxy for po-151 tential respiratory CO_2 production. For respiratory oxygen consumption 152 (R_{O_2}) , this model can predict rates in *P. nautica* from measurements of ETS, 153 kinetic constants from the literature, and modelled time courses of the two 154 main ETS electron donors (reactants), NADH and NADPH (Packard et al., 155 1996a). These reactants are represented by S_1 and S_2 in Eq. (3). Here we 156 show in a feasibility study that this model (Eq. (5)) can be used to predict 157 R_{O_2} in a culture grown on an entirely different carbon source. 158

$$R_0 = \frac{ETS_0 [S_1 S_2]}{K_{S_1} K_{ia} + K_{S_2} [S_1] + K_{S_1} [S_2] + [S_1 S_2]}$$
(5)

The model works for an acetate-based, temperature-controlled culture 159 of *Pseudomonas nautica* as well as for an acetate-based culture of another 160 marine bacteria, Vibrio natriegens. The laboratory experiments show time-161 profiles of R_{O_2} and *in vitro* activity of the ETS throughout the exponential 162 and stationary phases of both marine bacteria, *Pseudomonas nautica* and 163 *Vibrio natriegens.* It demonstrates the difference in the relationships between 164 the ETS and R_{O_2} in the exponential and stationary phases of the bacteria 165 cultures. Finally it shows how respiratory control is achieved by substrate 166

modulation of the ETS. The model presented here demonstrates this sub-167 strate control. It is based on the concept that the concentration of the ETS 168 substrates (NADH and NADPH) can be calculated from the concentration 169 of the carbon source (acetate) in the culture medium and the biomass of the 170 population. In addition, it is based on the assumption of bisubstrate kinetic 171 control of the ETS activity in the bacteria populations. The model is tested 172 by comparing its output, the respiration time-profile, with the measured R_{O_2} 173 time-profile in three experiments. Furthermore it is compared with the res-174 piration time-profile predicted by the MTE. We find that the MTE is not 175 useful for predicting bacterial respiration beyond the exponential phase of 176 growth. The EKM, on the other hand, predicts respiration in both the ex-177 ponential and the stationary phases. 178

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¹⁸⁰ 2. Material and Methods

181 2.1. Bacterial cultures

Pseudomonas nautica (strain 617 from Dr. P Bonin, Université de la 182 Méditerranée, Marseille, France) and Vibrio natriegens (ATCC 33788) were 183 adapted to the acetate media for at least 15 generations prior to the experi-184 ments. Exponential or early stationary phase cultures were used to inoculate 185 experiments. Cultures were continually shaken orbitally at 100 rpm at 22°C. 186 Growth was monitored spectrophotometrically at 550 nm (OD550). Reagents 187 for the culture media were obtained from Sigma. Pseudomonas nautica 188 was cultured according to Packard et al. (1996a). The medium for V. na-189 triegens was developed from the media of Niven et al. (1977); Baumann 190

and Baumann (1981); King and Berman (1984); Nissen et al. (1987) after 191 experiments in the laboratory established the optimal growth conditions. 192 It contained: 400 mM NaCl, 10 mM $MgS0_4$ 7H₂0, 10 mM CaCl₂ 2H₂0, 193 10 mM KCl, 25 mM NH₄Cl, 0.33 mM phosphate buffer, 0.01 mM FeSO₄ 7H₂0, 194 and 30 mM sodium acetate. All components (except $FeSO_4$ 7H₂0 and the 195 phosphate buffer) were dissolved in 0.22 μ m filtered deionized water. The pH 196 was adjusted to 7.5 with 1 N NaOH. The solution was filtered through a GF/F 197 glass fiber filter to remove particles, and autoclaved for 45 min. at 121° C . 198 To avoid precipitate formation during autoclaving, the phosphate buffer 199 (0.67 M, pH 7.5) and FeS0₄ 7H₂0 solution (0.1 mM) were prepared sepa-200 rately. The phosphate buffer was autoclaved, but the iron sulphate solution 201 was sterilized by filtration through 0.22 μ m acrodiscs. Both solutions were 202 kept frozen and added to the culture medium on the day of use. 203

The basic experimental design was a time-course. Bacteria cultures were grown in 25 cotton-plugged 500 ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 ml of media. Initial OD550 after inoculation was 0.1. At about 2 hr intervals, 207 2 flasks were chosen randomly, 25 ml of culture were transferred to the Oxymax flasks, and the respiration was measured. Afterwards, the corresponding Erlenmeyer flasks were sampled for OD550, protein, ETS activity and acetate (in duplicate).

Respiration was measured in a Micro-Oxymax respirometer (Columbus Instruments International Corporation, Columbus, OH, USA) by measuring O₂ changes in the head space of the experimental flasks with an oxygen detector based on the principle of an PbO₂ fuel cell. The respirometer featured a multiple sample chamber (for up to 20 channels), a reference chamber, and a computerized data acquisition and analysis system. A measurement was accomplished in 30 min. Aerobic conditions were assured because the Micro-Oxymax replenished the head-space air when O₂ levels fell below 19.3%. Respiration is reported as μ mol O₂ min⁻¹ l⁻¹ (Fig. 1). The oxygen detector was calibrated with high precision gas standards. Each R_{O_2} measurement represents the mean of duplicate analyses. The range of the duplicates was 10.0% of the mean (S.D. 9.4%, n=20).

For the acetate analysis 5 to 10 ml of culture were centrifuged at $10000 \times g$ 223 for 15 min at 4°C, the supernatant fluid was collected in an acid-rinsed 224 Corex tube, and stored in liquid nitrogen. Later, samples were thawed and 225 adjusted to pH 2 by adding 3 μ l of concentrated phosphoric acid. Acetate was 226 detected in its acid form by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) 227 system consisting of 2 pumps (Perkin-Elmer, Norwalk, CT, USA; Series 3B), 228 a 20 μ l sample loop injector (Rheodyne, model 7125), a standard 4.6 mm 229 I.D. reverse-phase CI8 column (Supelcosil LC 18, $d_{,=3}$ pm), a precolumn 230 (Supelcosil LC 18), and a UV-VIS variable wavelength detector (Perkin-231 Elmer LC-85 and the autocontrol module). The absorbance of acetate was 232 detected at 210 nm. Sodium acetate (Sigma, more than 99% pure) served 233 as the standard. Mobile phase was prepared using HPLC grade phosphoric 234 acid and deionized water. All chromatographic measurements were carried 235 out at 0.7 ml min^{-1} using 0.05 M phosphoric acid as the mobile phase. 236

For the ETS activity measurements, 5 to 10 ml of culture (depending on the biomass) were centrifuged at $10000 \times \text{g}$ for 15 min at 4°C. The pellets were stored in liquid nitrogen. Later they were resuspended in 2 ml of the homogenizing buffer at 0 to 4°C, and measured kinetically for ETS activity with a modification of the Packard and Williams (1981) method. Details are given in Packard and Christensen (2004). Results are converted from ETS units of μ mol e⁻ min⁻¹ l⁻¹ to potential respiration units in μ mol O₂ min⁻¹ l⁻¹ of culture by dividing by 4 (4e⁻ + 4H⁺ + O₂ \rightarrow 2H₂O).

For the protein analysis, pellet samples were taken, frozen, and stored as 245 in the ETS analysis. The pellets were later resuspended in 2 to 4 ml 1 N NaOH 246 (at 22°C) and mixed well. Protein analysis was performed on a 0.5 ml sample, 247 using the method of Lowry et al. (1951). The homogenates were diluted if the 248 absorbance at 750 nm exceeded 0.4, and analysed again. Bovine Serum Al-249 bumin (BSA) from Sigma Chemical Company was used as a standard. Mea-250 surements were made in duplicate. Their range around the average of these 251 duplicates decreased from 14% during stationary (after 15 hr) to 2% during 252 exponential growth. The mean of these ranges averaged 4.1%. 253

All measured time-courses of the culture biomass (protein), carbon source (acetate), potential respiration (*in vitro* ETS activity, (*ETS*)) and respiration presented here are listed in Tables 1, 2 and 3. The NADH and NADPH concentrations were calculated from the acetate and the protein as in Packard et al. (1996a), and as explained in the following section.

259 2.2. Respiration model

The conceptual idea of the model was originally developed from observations of declining respiration soon after pyruvate declined in a pyruvatelimited batch culture of *Pseudomonas nautica* (Packard et al., 1996a). Here, one can see a similar situation with acetate. In Fig. 1 the time course of R_{O_2} is characterized by low values of bacteria respiration after 20 hours during acetate limitation (stationary phase) at constant temperature. This suggests

that low levels of pyridine nucleotides (as ETS substrates), caused by low 266 levels of acetate, are throttling down the in vivo ETS activity from its V_{max} 267 to a much lower rate, its actual respiration rate. Based on the observation 268 that the respiration falls in parallel with the falling levels of acetate, one 269 can intuit that respiration can be described, mathematically, by an enzyme 270 kinetic model where substrate-dependent enzyme reactions that control the 271 ETS activity play a key role (Eq. (6)). The basis of this EKM has been 272 explained in the Introduction here and in Packard et al. (1996a); Roy and 273 Packard (2001); Packard et al. (2004); Packard and Gómez (2008). 274

Here, this type of model has been applied to temperature-controlled cultures of *P. nautica* and *V. natriegens* to test its ability to predict respiratory oxygen consumption (R_m) in both the exponentially growing phase and the nutrient-limited stationary phase. The model is based on the following equations:

$$R_m = \frac{ETS \ [NADH] \ [NADPH]}{K_\beta \ + \ [NADH] \ [NADPH]} \tag{6}$$

280 where

$$K_{\beta} = K_{NADH} K_{ia} + K_{NADPH} [NADH] + K_{NADH} [NADPH]$$
(7)

This is the equation for a bisubstrate enzyme controlled reaction (Segel, 1993). The concentration of the ETS substrates (NADH and NADPH) were modelled from the cell protein and the acetate concentration in the culture medium, both of the previous hour. Mathematically this means that the value of each of the pyridine nucleotides at any time was calculated from the time-averaged values of acetate (P) and cell protein (M) (Eqs. (8) and (9)) over the previous sampling period.

$$NADH = \delta P + \omega M \tag{8}$$

$$NADPH = \lambda P + \eta M \tag{9}$$

This use of a lag function in the calculations is an attempt to incorporate the role of cell history in determining metabolism (Roy and Packard, 2001). Accordingly, the intracellular NADP and NADPH time profiles were modelled as functions of the mean extracellular P and M (Eqs. (8) and (9)) during the previous intersampling period. The calculations of these midpoint values are shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3. All the equations used in the EKM are summarized in Table 4.

To evaluate the models, R_{O_2} for each experiment (Fig. 1) was modelled using the MTE and the EKM and contrasted with the measured time-profile of respiration. This way, each model's efficiency in reproducing the bacterial respiration time-course in the two different physiological states would be seen clearly. To make these calculations for a constant temperature with the MTE one needs to reduce Eq. (1) to:

$$R = C M^b \tag{10}$$

The data for M are listed in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

Note that, at a constant temperature, the Boltzmann factor in Eq. (1) is no longer involved. The values C and b, in Eq. (10), represent the stoichiometric factor or 'normalization constant' (Brown et al., 2004; Allen and

Gillooly, 2007) and Kleiber's Law scaling factor, respectively. For the value 305 of b, one can use 3/4 from Kleiber's Law or one can determine it from the 306 experimental data. Here, we have used the data from the exponential growth 307 phase of the culture with *P. nautica* (Experiment A) (Table 1) and the cul-308 ture with V. natriegens (Experiment B) (Table 2), and plotted $Log_{10} R$ 309 versus $Log_{10} M$. By this analysis C is equal to the antilogarithm of the in-310 tercept and b is the slope of the regression line. This procedure insures that 311 the MTE can make its best prediction; if all the data had been used there 312 would have been no useful relationship between R and M and the MTE pre-313 diction would have been worse. Accordingly, by using only the exponential 314 phase data to calculate those expressions, the r^2 was 0.986 and 0.999 for Ex-315 periment A and Experiment B, respectively. Because Experiment C was a 316 long-term study it had only three data points within the exponential growth 317 phase (Table 3). Using these three points would not have yielded a reliable 318 algorithm. Consequently, we have used the expression from Experiment B 319 (Eq. 12), which by having seven data points for the same species and carbon 320 source yielded a more robust equation. The resulting MTE algorithms for 321 the three experiments at constant temperature became: 322

$$R = 1.0359 \ M^{0.7963} \quad (Experiment \ A) \tag{11}$$

$$R = 0.7671 \ M^{0.7795}$$
 (Experiment B and C) (12)

The comparable calculation with the EKM at a constant temperature was made with Eq. (6) and Eq. (7).

325 2.3. Modeling computation

The initial calculations for this acetate-based model used the pyruvate-326 based model of the marine bacterium P. nautica (Packard et al., 1996a) for 327 all three experiments. Accordingly, for the ETS-substrates, NADPH and 328 NADH, we used the same algorithms (Eqs. (8) and (9)) as in Packard et al. 320 (1996a) with the same parameters (Table 5, Column 1). In all cases the 330 input consisted of smoothed time-course data following the Loess method 331 (Hutcheson, 1995). In optimizing the model for experiments with Vibrio 332 *natriegens*, we changed the parameters λ and δ . In VnAc1105, the parameters 333 λ and δ were reduced by a third using a factor of 0.3294 (Table 5, *Column 2*). 334 In VnAc2601 the same two parameters, λ and δ , were doubled using a factor 335 of 2.1782 (Table 5, Column 3). 336

³³⁷ The acetate-dependent part of the equations for NADH and NADPH ³³⁸ serves as the 'substrate throttle'. The cell-protein (biomass)-dependent part ³³⁹ of these equations serves as a base-line. To calculate this second part, we ³⁴⁰ assumed the pyridine nucleotide ratio to cell-protein to be the same in these ³⁴¹ acetate-based cultures as it was in the pyruvate-based ones of Packard et al. ³⁴² (1996a). In this way we were able to keep the same parameters ω and η ³⁴³ (Eqs. (8) and (9)) as previously used (Table 5).

The optimization of the parameters was done assuming the decrease of the ETS-substrates, NADH and NADPH, occurs in parallel as was predicted in Packard et al. (1996a). Hence, one can use the same factor to correct simultaneously both substrate-throttle parameters, λ and δ . Consequently, a loop that searched for the optimum correction factor was computed by calculating the NADH and NADPH time-courses that best predicted the

oxygen consumption during the experiment. This technique estimated the 350 output respiration from the EKM (Eq. (6)) by looking for the parameter 351 that provides a linear regression model with a slope close to 1. It used 352 the smoothed time-profile of R_{O_2} as the standard. This technique forced 353 the model towards the most realistic prediction as possible. The reliability 354 of the parameters found for the marine bacterium Vibrio natriegens was 355 judged on two criteria. First, their ability to generate declining time profiles 356 of NADH and NADPH within a biologically reasonable range (White et al., 357 1964; Lehninger, 1970; Walsh and Koshland Jr., 1984; Lehninger et al., 1993) 358 as the acetate diminished in the culture media. Second, their ability to 359 provide realistic respiration output data throughout the time-course of the 360 experiment. For the kinetic constants $(K_{ia}, K_{NADH} \text{ and } K_{NADPH} \text{ in Table 2})$ 361 we used those from Experiment B in Packard et al. (1996a). 362

363 3. Results and Discussion

Fig. (1) shows time-courses of the culture biomass (cell-protein), carbon 364 source (acetate), potential respiration (the *in vitro* ETS, A_{ETS}) and measured 365 respiration for one experiment with P. nautica and two experiments with V. 366 *natriegens.* In the beginning the cultures grew exponentially on the acetate; 367 they passed through a short stationary phase; and then, as the acetate was 368 exhausted, they fell into a senescent state. The experiments used this tran-369 sition between exponential growth and senescence to separate the enzymatic 370 capacity for respiration, the ETS activity, from the physiological expression 371 of this capacity, the measured oxygen consumption. This strategy enabled 372 us to challenge the predictive capability of the two models. It facilitated 373

the comparison of the EKM's output to the MTE's output during realistic 374 biological conditions. During the exponential growth phase, prediction from 375 either ETS activity or cell protein is not a challenge because respiration, 376 ETS activity and cell-protein trend in parallel. However, during senescence 377 cell-protein and ETS activity trend together, but respiration breaks away 378 and decreases rapidly. Thus in senescent phase predicting respiration from 379 either cell-protein or ETS activity requires causal-level understanding of the 380 respiratory mechanism. 381

Acetate was consumed rapidly as the respiration, ETS activity, and cell-382 protein increased. All cultures behaved similarly (Fig. 1). Shortly after the 383 acetate was exhausted the respiration declined to very low levels even though 384 the ETS activity and the bacterial biomass remained high. In this situation, 385 with the carbon source exhausted, the respiration appears uncoupled from 386 both the biomass and the ETS activity. In effect, within 7 hours the ratio of 387 both the respiration to cell-protein and the ratio of respiration to ETS activ-388 ity decreased to 0.2 and 0.25 of their value during exponential phase. This 380 can explain some of the error in respiration inherent in both Kleiber's law 390 and the R/ETS ratio used in oceanographic research. What is the cause of 391 this apparent uncoupling if the ETS is the causal basis of respiration? The 392 parallelism in the declining acetate and declining respiration rate (Fig. 1) 393 provides a clue. If the substrates for the electron transport complexes fall 394 as does the acetate, then the activity of these enzyme complexes would be 395 throttled down the way the reaction rate in an enzyme-catalyzed reaction is 396 modulated by substrate levels in a Michaelis-Menten equation (Fig. 2). Here, 397 these substrate declines were modelled from the acetate declines in the three 398

experiments (Fig. 1) using Eqs. (8) and (9). At this point it must be remem-399 bered that the ETS activity measured at any time in the bacteria cultures, 400 whether the cells are in exponential or in senescent growth, is the activity 401 measured in the presence of unlimited substrates. This condition forces the 402 ETS complexes to react with NADH and NADPH at the complexes' maxi-403 mum capacity regardless of how fast they were reacting in the living, intact 404 bacteria cell. Thus ETS in Eq. (6) is equivalent to a Michaelis-Menten V_{max} 405 as we have said in the Introduction. 406

We emphasize that the EKM is based on the observation that bacte-407 rial respiration declines in parallel with declining concentrations of carbon 408 source (acetate) in the culture medium suggesting that natural ETS sub-409 strates would also decline in parallel with the carbon source. Accordingly 410 a rectangular hyperbola from the Michaelis-Menten expression, describing a 411 declining reaction rate as a function of falling substrate, explains the decrease 412 in the *in vivo* ETS activity and hence the whole-cell respiration rate. Note 413 here, that the *in vivo* ETS activity is the unmeasured ETS activity in the 414 cell, not the ETS activity measured in a test tube. This later ETS activity 415 (in vitro) is the Michaelis-Menten V_{max} discussed above. The former ETS 416 activity in the cell is equivalent to the whole-cell respiration rate. Our entire 417 effort is an attempt to create a conceptual and mathematical bridge between 418 the later and the former ETS activities. This approach, as embodied in our 419 previous model (Packard et al., 1996a), successfully predicted respiration in 420 pyruvate-based cultures of Ps. nautica. Here, the same model predicts the 421 respiration in acetate-based cultures of both P. nautica and V. natriegens 422 (Fig. 3). The three respiration predictions from the original model are good, 423

especially for *P. nautica* (Fig. 4, Panel A), but because the predictions for 424 V. natriegens (Fig. 4, Panels B and C) were not optimum, parameters λ 425 and δ were modified again to produce the new pyridine nucleotide profiles 426 in Fig. 5 (Panels A and B) and new respiration predictions. These new 427 respiration predictions, as well as a replot of the original respiration predic-428 tion for the experiment with P. nautica are shown in Panel A of Figs. 6, 7 429 and 8. They do improve the prediction of respiration in experiments with 430 V. natriegens. It now falls on future laboratory measurements of the actual 431 NADH and NADPH time courses to verify both the concept of the EKM and 432 the parameters λ and δ . 433

In order to show the predictive capacity of the two respiration models 434 (EKM and MTE) in the different physiological phases of bacterial growth, 435 the modelled respiration and measured respiration are compared in Panels A-436 B and C-D, respectively, of Figs. 6, 7 and 8. These plots consider all the data 437 from the beginning of the three cultures to their ends, so all physiological 438 states are considered. The coefficients of determination, r^2 values, for the 430 EKM are all above 0.94 while for the MTE they would be meaningless and 440 so they were not calculated. In effect, the respiration time-courses predicted 441 by the MTE in Panel C of Figs. 6, 7 and 8 completely misrepresent the 442 measured respiration time-course during steady state and nutrient limitation 443 conditions. The MTE only models respiration well during the exponential 444 growth phase. In contrast, the EKM predicts the respiration all through the 445 different phases of bacterial growth. 446

447 4. Conclusions

Respiratory oxygen consumption in two species of marine bacteria, during 448 exponential growth, steady state and nutrient-limited stationary phases, can 449 be modelled from measurements of the *in vitro* respiratory electron transport 450 system activity (ETS), the cell protein, the carbon source (acetate). The 451 model's algorithm is based on Michaelis-Menten substrate kinetics. If the 452 predicted NADH and NADPH time courses are verified, future respiration 453 calculations will be made solely from measurements of ETS activity, [NADH] 454 and [NADPH] via Eq. (6). 455

This Enzyme Kinetic Model, besides having a better mechanistic basis, describes respiration better than does the Metabolic Theory of Ecology model under conditions of nutrient-limitation.

We argue that respiration modeling could be improved by recognizing that the respiratory electron transport system, and not biomass, is the causal base of respiration, that the ETS is regulated by the availability of reduced pyridine nucleotides, and that it responds to temperature changes via the impact of temperature on the Arrhenius energy of activation as described by the Arrhenius equation.

⁴⁶⁵ The model we propose is expressed as:

$$R_1 = \frac{ETS_0 [S] e^{\frac{-E_a}{R_g(T_1 - T_0)}}}{K + [S]}$$
(2)

where R_1 is the respiration rate measured at T_1 , ETS_0 is the potential respiration rate (the Michaelis-Menten V_{max} of the ETS), measured at another temperature (T_0) , K is a bisubstrate kinetics expression analogous to the Michaelis-Menten K_m , and S represents the substrates (see Introduction). 470 In this model when $T_0 = T_1$ the model equation reduces to:

471

$$R_0 = \frac{ETS_0 [S]}{K + [S]}$$
(4)

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576 List of Captions (Tables and Figures)

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Table 1. *Pseudomonas nautica*. Data from Experiment A (PnAc290693). Mid-Acetate and Mid-Protein are the time-averaged values of acetate (P) and cell protein (M) over the previous sampling period. These mid-points are used to model the intracellular NADP and NADPH time profiles for Eqs. (8) and (9). * The acetate beyond the lowest value (0,82) increased slowly to a value of 2,04, but for analytical reasons was considered unreliable. Consequently for modeling we assigned a value of 0,01.

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Table 2. Vibrio natriegens. Data from Experiment B (VnAc110593). Mid-Acetate and Mid-Protein are the time-averaged values of acetate (P) and cell protein (M) over the previous sampling period. These mid-points are used to model the intracellular NADP and NADPH time profiles for Eqs. (8) and (9). * The acetate beyond the lowest value (0) was not detectable, for modeling we assigned a value of 0,01.

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Table 3. Vibrio natriegens. Data from Experiment C (VnAc260193). Mid-Acetate and Mid-Protein are the time-averaged values of acetate (P) and cell protein (M) over the previous sampling period. These mid-points are used to model the intracellular NADP and NADPH time profiles for Eqs. (8) and (9). * The acetate beyond the lowest value (0) was not detectable, for modeling we assigned a value of 0,01.

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Table 4. Summary of equations used in the Enzyme Kinetic Model (EKM).

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Table 5. Kinetic constants and parameters that were used to model (EKM) the intracellular NADH and NADPH concentrations from Eqs. (8) and (9) and to predict the respiration rate from Eqs. (6) and (7). The units for the kinetic constants are μM . The units for the parameters are as follows: λ , μmol NADPH (mmol pyruvate)⁻¹; η , μmol NADPH (mg protein)⁻¹; δ , μmol NADH (mmol pyruvate)⁻¹; and ω , μmol NADPH (mg protein)⁻¹. *Column 1* lists kinetic constants and parameters used in Experiment B of Packard et al. (1996a) and in all three experiments of this work. All the values of λ and δ used in this work are numerically the same as in Packard et al. (1996a) but for acetate. The

⁶⁰⁷ results of their used are shown in Fig. 2. Column 2 and Column 3 list kinetic constants

and parameters (revised λ and δ) used for Experiment B and Experiment C, respectively,

in this work. The results of their use are shown in Fig. 5. Parameters in Column 2 and 3

- 610 have been changed as described in the text.
- 611

Figure 1: Original data (symbols) and interpreted (Loess method (Hutcheson, 1995)) timecourse data (lines) for three experiments with two species of marine bacteria growing in acetate-based batch cultures. Panel A: *Pseudomonas nautica* in Experiment A showing observations of ETS activity (*in vitro*), R_{O_2} , protein and acetate over 27h. Panel B: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment B showing the same observations as in Panel A (same legend) but over 34h. Panel C: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment C as in Panel A and B but for 500h.The physiological state of the cells shifts between hours 10 and 20 from a well-nourished condition to a nutrient-limited condition. Analytical errors are given in *Material and Methods*.

Figure 2: Simulated time-courses for intracellular NADH and NADPH as calculated from (Eqs. (8) and (9)) for each of the three experiments. Panel A: *Pseudomonas nautica* in Experiment A. Panel B: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment B. Panel C: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment C. These time-courses used the kinetic constants and parameters listed in Table 5 (*Column 1*) and served as input in modeling the respiration in Fig. 3.

Figure 3: EKM modeling results using the original model from Packard et al. (1996a), but with acetate-based cultures instead of pyruvate-based ones. Panel A: *Pseudomonas nautica*. Experiment A showing the time-courses of measured respiration and *in vitro* ETS and compared to the modelled (EKM) respiration (from (Eq. (6)). Panel B: *Vibrio natriegens*. Experiment B as in Panel A. Panel C: *Vibrio natriegens*. Experiment C as in Panel A and B.

Figure 4: Comparing modelled (Fig. 3) and measured (Fig. 1) respiration in all three experiments. In the linear regression equations the slope indicates the accuracy of the model. The coefficient of determination (r^2 values) indicates the fidelity of the modelled respiration to the shape of the measured respiration. Panel A: *Pseudomonas nautica*. Experiment A. Panel B: *Vibrio natriegens*. Experiment B as in Panel A. Panel C: *Vibrio natriegens*. Experiment C as in Panel A and B.

Figure 5: Simulated time-courses for intracellular NADH and NADPH, as before, but recalculated from (Eqs. (8) and (9)). Panel A: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment B. Panel B: *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment C. These time-courses used the kinetic constants and revised parameters listed in Table 5 (*Column 2* and *Column 3*) and served as input for the revised respiration models in Panel A of Figs. 7 and 8.

Figure 6: *Pseudomonas nautica* (Experiment A). Panel A: EKM modeling results as in Fig. 3 using the NADH and NADPH time courses shown in Panel B of Fig. 2. Panel B: Comparison between the measured and EKM modelled respiration shown in Panel A. Panel C: MTE modeling results based on measured cell-protein (M) and Eq. (11). Panel D: Comparison of measured and modelled respiration from the MTE.

Figure 7: *Vibrio natriegens* (Experiment B). Panel A: EKM modeling results as in Fig. 3, but using the NADH and NADPH time courses shown in Panel A of Fig. 5. Panel B: Comparison between the measured and EKM modelled respiration shown in Panel A. Panel C: MTE modeling results based on measured cell-protein (M) and Eq. (12). Panel D: Comparison of measured and modelled respiration from the MTE.

Figure 8: *Vibrio natriegens* (Experiment C). Panel A: EKM modeling results as in Fig. 3, but using the NADH and NADPH time courses shown in Panel B of Fig. 5. Panel B: Comparison between the measured and EKM modelled respiration shown in Panel A. Panel C: MTE modeling results based on measured cell-protein (M) for *Vibrio natriegens* in Experiment B and Eq. (12). Panel D: Comparison of measured and modelled respiration from the MTE.

Time	Acetate	Protein	ETS	R_{O_2}	Mid-Acetate	Mid-Protein
hours	${ m mM}$	$\mathrm{mg}~\mathrm{l}^{-1}$	$\mu \mathrm{mol}~\mathrm{O_2}~\mathrm{min^{-1}~l^{-1}}$	$\mu \mathrm{mol}~\mathrm{O_2~min^{-1}~l^{-1}}$	mM	$\mathrm{mg}\ \mathrm{l}^{-1}$
0	31,59	12,83	2,95	I	31,59	12,83
2,67	31,79	19, 49	1,80	6,10	31,69	16,16
5,50	28,41	35,14	26,99	14,08	30,10	27, 31
7,83	24,18	76,65	37, 77	33,19	26, 29	55,89
9,08	21,08	123,07	87,17	47, 13	22,63	99,86
11,50	15,88	177,56	121,95	52,90	18,48	150, 32
13,83	5,37	282, 49	216,00	47,32	10,63	230,03
16,75	0,82	322,06	283,58	46,06	3,10	302, 27
17, 83	* I	372, 28	224,62	27, 77	0,41	347, 17
19,00	* I	335, 81	195,06	5,60	0,01	354,04
21,75	* I	331,88	266,55	2,01	0,01	333,84
24,83	* I	344,50	274,70	1,13	0,01	338, 19
27,67	* I	338, 89	203,49	0,90	0,01	341,70

Table 1:

Time	Acetate	Protein	ETS	R_{O_2}	Mid-Acetate	Mid-Protein
hours	${ m mM}$	$\mathrm{mg}\ \mathrm{l}^{-1}$	$\mu \text{mol O}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ l}^{-1}$	μ mol O ₂ min ⁻¹] ⁻¹	mM	${ m mg}\;{ m l}^{-1}$
0	47,00	10,26	2,37	1	47,00	10,26
3,00	46,65	26,44	17,56	5,37	46,83	18, 35
4,83	42,60	43,73	50,40	12,66	44,63	35,09
5,83	42,40	63,98	39,54	15, 15	42,50	53,86
6,83	40,20	81, 36	50,72	22,80	41,30	72,67
8,17	34,60	156,41	122, 11	31,70	37,40	118,89
$9,\!25$	29, 20	157, 78	145,95	42,90	31,90	157, 10
10,25	25, 75	206,67	147, 84	45,03	27,48	182, 23
11,25	20,75	222,46	176,97	44,83	23, 25	214,57
14,50	8,10	268,08	193, 34	45,30	14,43	245, 27
18,75	*0	297,54	199,88	13,05	4,06	282, 81
19,75	* I	291,65	202,76	8,14	0,01	294,60
22,50	*1	334,55	217,48	6, 21	0,01	313,10
34,50	* I	312,97	149,87	1,83	0,01	323,76

Table 2:

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Time	Acetate	Protein	ETS	R_{O_2}	Mid-Acetate	Mid-Protein
ours	${ m mM}$	$\mathrm{mg}\ \mathrm{l}^{-1}$	$\mu \mathrm{mol}~\mathrm{O_2~min^{-1}~l^{-1}}$	$\mu \mathrm{mol}~\mathrm{O_2~min^{-1}~l^{-1}}$	$\mathrm{m}\mathrm{M}$	$\mathrm{mg}~\mathrm{l^{-1}}$
0	35,90	5,60	1,30	0,64	35,90	5,60
7,50	28,67	73,76	17,07	14,62	32, 29	39,68
10,50	*0	156, 70	24,74	13, 24	14, 34	115,23
34,00	* I	156,60	27, 37	2,67	0,01	156,65
38,50	* I	141,69	23,71	0,50	0,01	149,15
32,50	* I	126,46	16,80	0,33	0,01	134,08
96,50	* I	107,52	6,18	0	0,01	117,00

Table 4:

Eq.	N°
$R_m = ETS \text{[NADH]} \text{[NADPH]} / (K_\beta + \text{[NADH]} \text{[NADPH]})$	(6)
$K_{\beta} = (K_{NADH})(K_{ia}) + (K_{NADPH})[NADH] + (K_{NADH})[NADPH]$	(7)
$NADH = \delta P + \omega M$	(8)
$NADPH = \lambda P + \eta M$	(9)

For Eqs. (6) and (7) K_{ia} 6.7 K_{NADPH} 9.0 K_{NADH} 26.0 K_{NADH} 26.0 $Kor Eqs. (8)$ and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10^{-4} δ 2.60	1996 This work (Exp. B)	This work (Exp. C)
K_{ia} 6.7 K_{NADPH} 9.0 K_{NADH} 26.0 For Eqs. (8) and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10^{-4} δ 2.60		
K_{NADPH} 9.0 K_{NADH} 26.0 For Eqs. (8) and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10^{-4} δ 2.60	Same	\mathbf{Same}
K_{NADH} 26.0 For Eqs. (8) and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10^{-4} δ 2.60	Same	\mathbf{Same}
For Eqs. (8) and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10 ⁻⁴ δ 2.60	Same	\mathbf{Same}
For Eqs. (8) and (9) λ 0.882 η 5.90×10 ⁻⁴ δ 2.60		
λ 0.882 η 5.90×10 ⁻⁴ δ 2.60		
η 5.90×10 ⁻⁴ δ 2.60	0.3014	1.392
δ 2.60	1 Same	Same
	0.8884	4.1046
ω 5.20×10 ⁻²	Same	Same

Table 5:



















