

GLOBAL
EDITION



Biology

A Global Approach

ELEVENTH EDITION

Campbell
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Reece

 Pearson

Chapter 6

Energy and Life

Lecture Presentations by
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The Energy of Life

- The living cell is a miniature chemical factory where thousands of reactions occur
- Cellular respiration extracts energy stored in sugars and other fuels
- Cells apply this energy to perform work
- Some organisms even convert energy to light, as in bioluminescence

Figure 6.1



Figure 6.1a



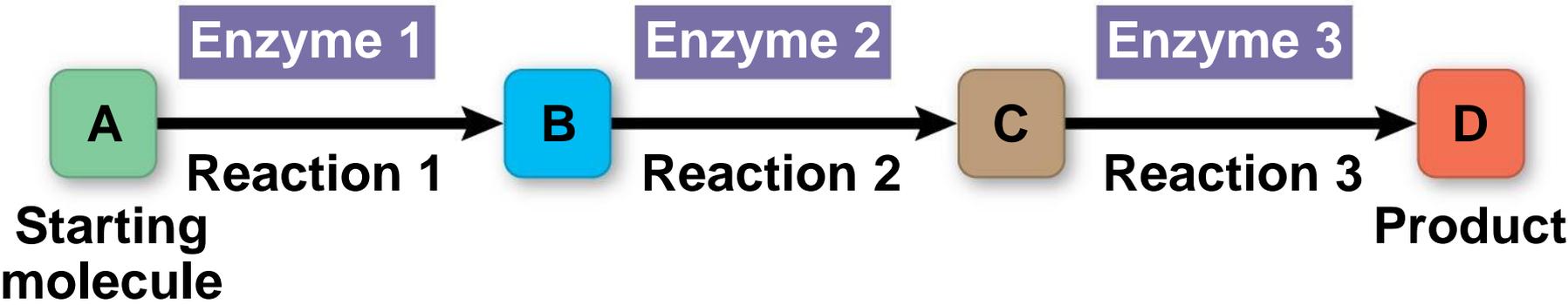
Concept 6.1: An organism's metabolism transforms matter and energy, subject to the laws of thermodynamics

- **Metabolism** is the totality of an organism's chemical reactions
- Metabolism is an emergent property of life that arises from orderly interactions between molecules

Organization of the Chemistry of Life into Metabolic Pathways

- A **metabolic pathway** begins with a specific molecule and ends with a product
- Each step is catalyzed by a specific enzyme

Figure 6.UN01



- **Catabolic pathways** release energy by breaking down complex molecules into simpler compounds
- Cellular respiration, the breakdown of glucose in the presence of oxygen, is an example of a pathway of catabolism

- **Anabolic pathways** consume energy to build complex molecules from simpler ones
 - For example, the synthesis of protein from amino acids is an anabolic pathway
- **Bioenergetics** is the study of how energy flows through living organisms

Forms of Energy

- **Energy** is the capacity to cause change
- Energy exists in various forms, some of which can perform work

- **Kinetic energy** is energy associated with motion
- **Thermal energy** is the kinetic energy associated with random movement of atoms or molecules
 - **Heat** is thermal energy in transfer between objects
- **Potential energy** is energy that matter possesses because of its location or structure
- **Chemical energy** is potential energy available for release in a chemical reaction
- Energy can be converted from one form to another

Figure 6.2

A diver has more potential energy on the platform than in the water.

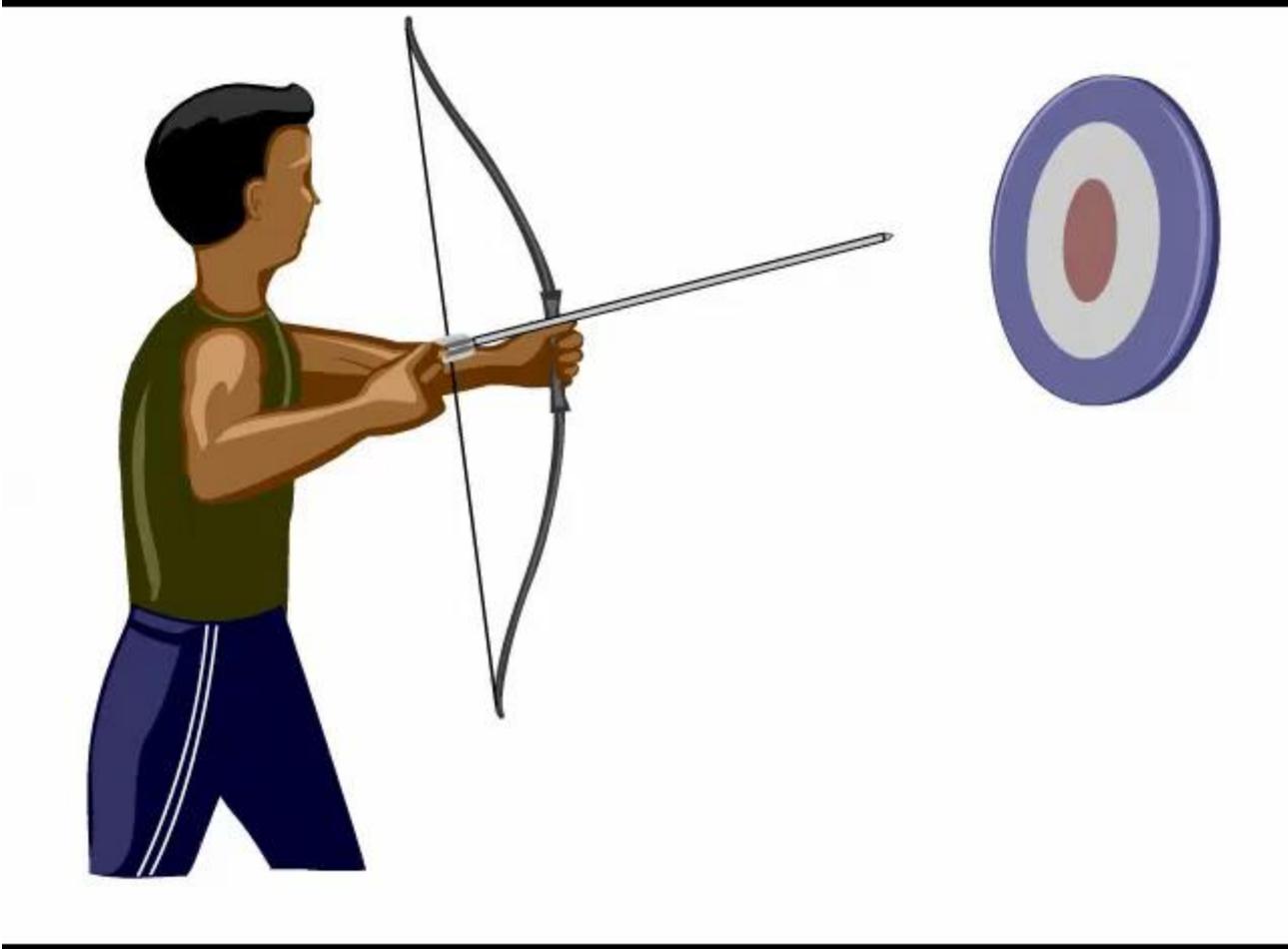
Diving converts potential energy to kinetic energy.



Climbing up converts the kinetic energy of muscle movement to potential energy.

A diver has less potential energy in the water than on the platform.

Animation: Energy Concepts



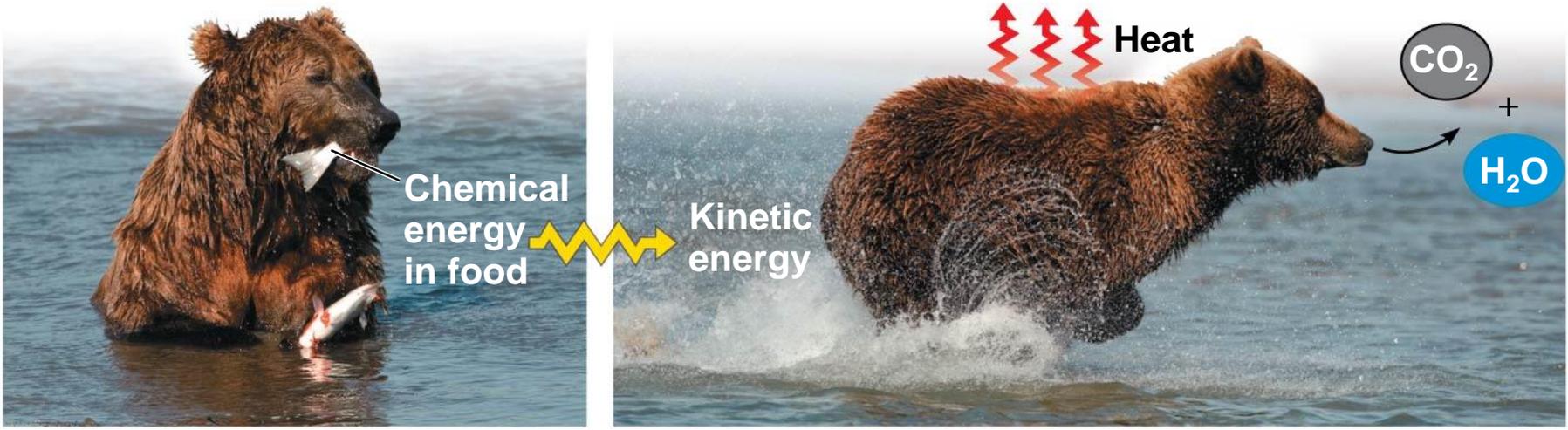
The Laws of Energy Transformation

- **Thermodynamics** is the study of energy transformations
- An isolated system, such as that approximated by liquid in a thermos, is unable to exchange energy or matter with its surroundings
- In an open system, energy and matter can be transferred between the system and its surroundings
- Organisms are open systems

The First Law of Thermodynamics

- According to the **first law of thermodynamics**, the energy of the universe is constant
 - Energy can be transferred and transformed, but it cannot be created or destroyed
- The first law is also called the principle of conservation of energy

Figure 6.3



(a) First law of thermodynamics

(b) Second law of thermodynamics

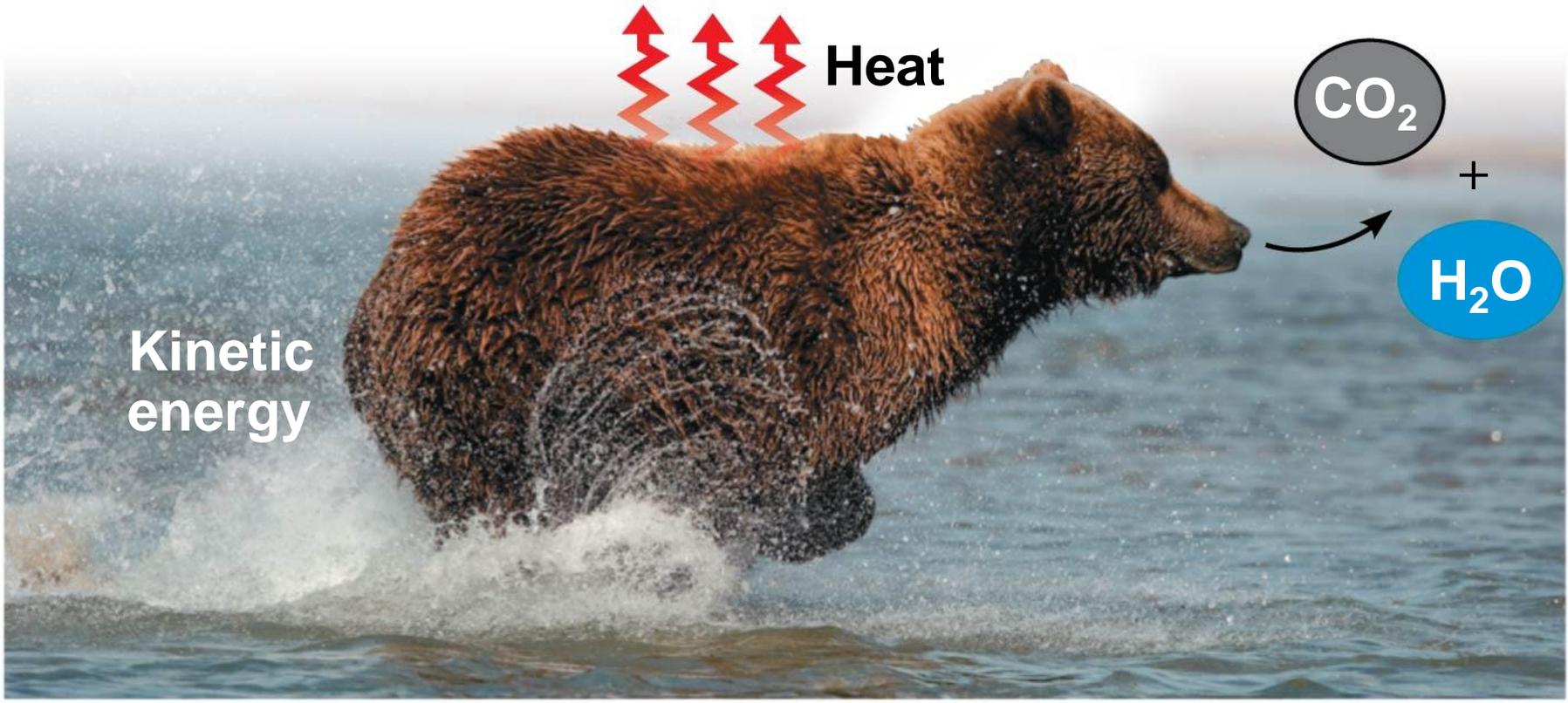


(a) First law of thermodynamics

The Second Law of Thermodynamics

- During every energy transfer or transformation, some energy is unusable and is often lost as heat
- According to the **second law of thermodynamics**,
 - Every energy transfer or transformation increases the **entropy** of the universe
 - Entropy is a measure of molecular disorder, or randomness

Figure 6.3b



(b) Second law of thermodynamics

- Living cells unavoidably convert organized forms of energy to heat, a more disordered form of energy
- **Spontaneous processes** occur without energy input; they can happen quickly or slowly
- For a process to occur spontaneously, it must increase the entropy of the universe
- Processes that decrease entropy are nonspontaneous; they will occur only if energy is provided

Biological Order and Disorder

- Organisms create ordered structures from less organized forms of energy and matter
- Organisms also replace ordered forms of matter and energy in their surroundings with less ordered forms
 - For example, animals consume complex molecules in their food and release smaller, lower energy molecules and heat into the surroundings

Figure 6.4

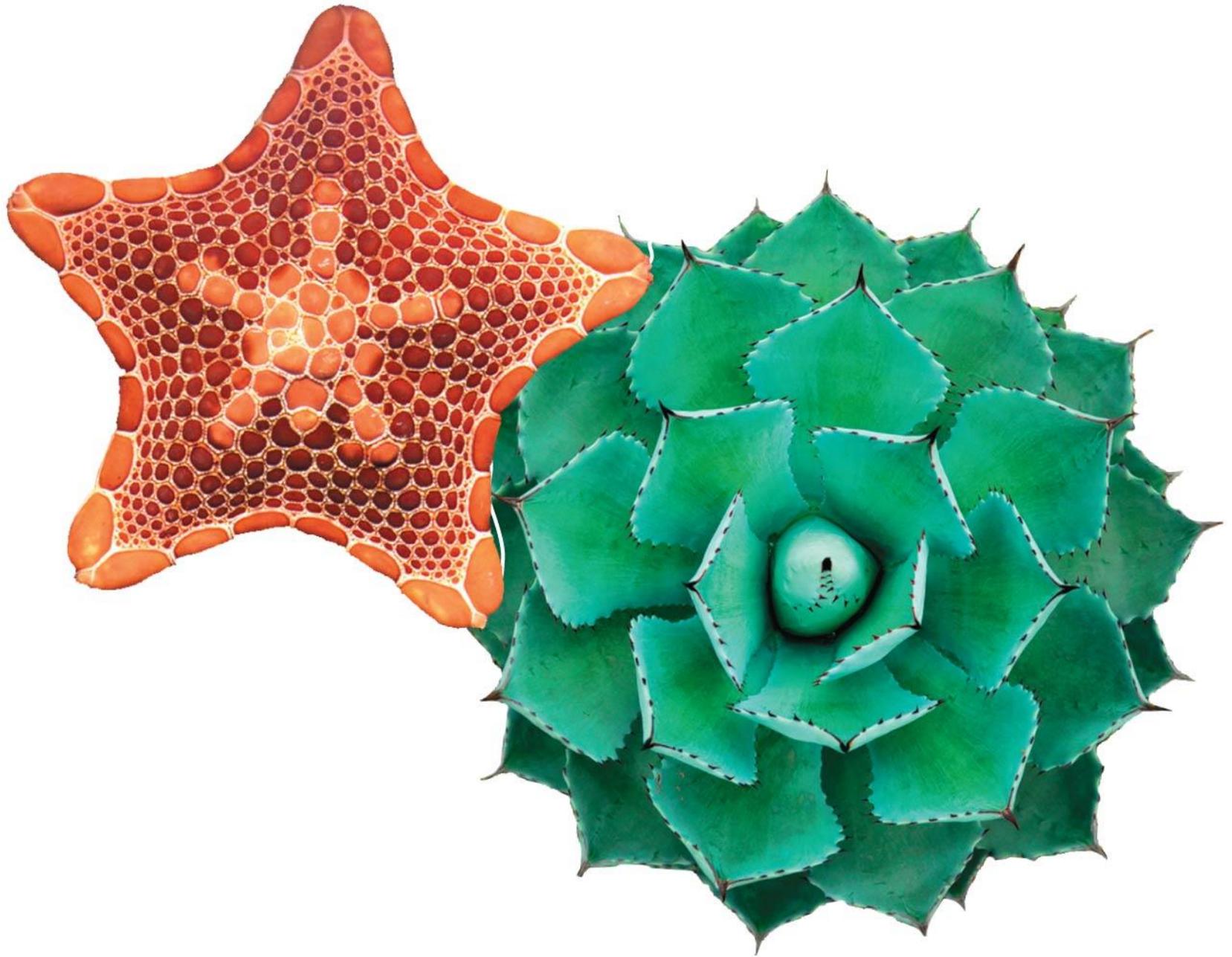


Figure 6.4a

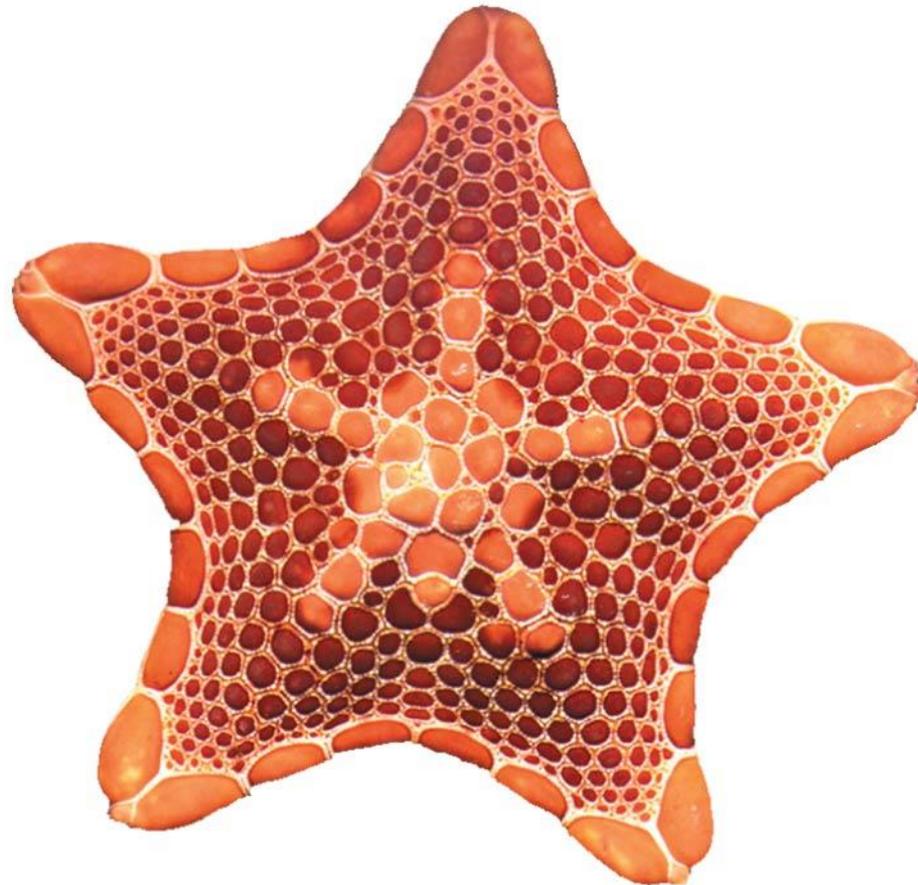
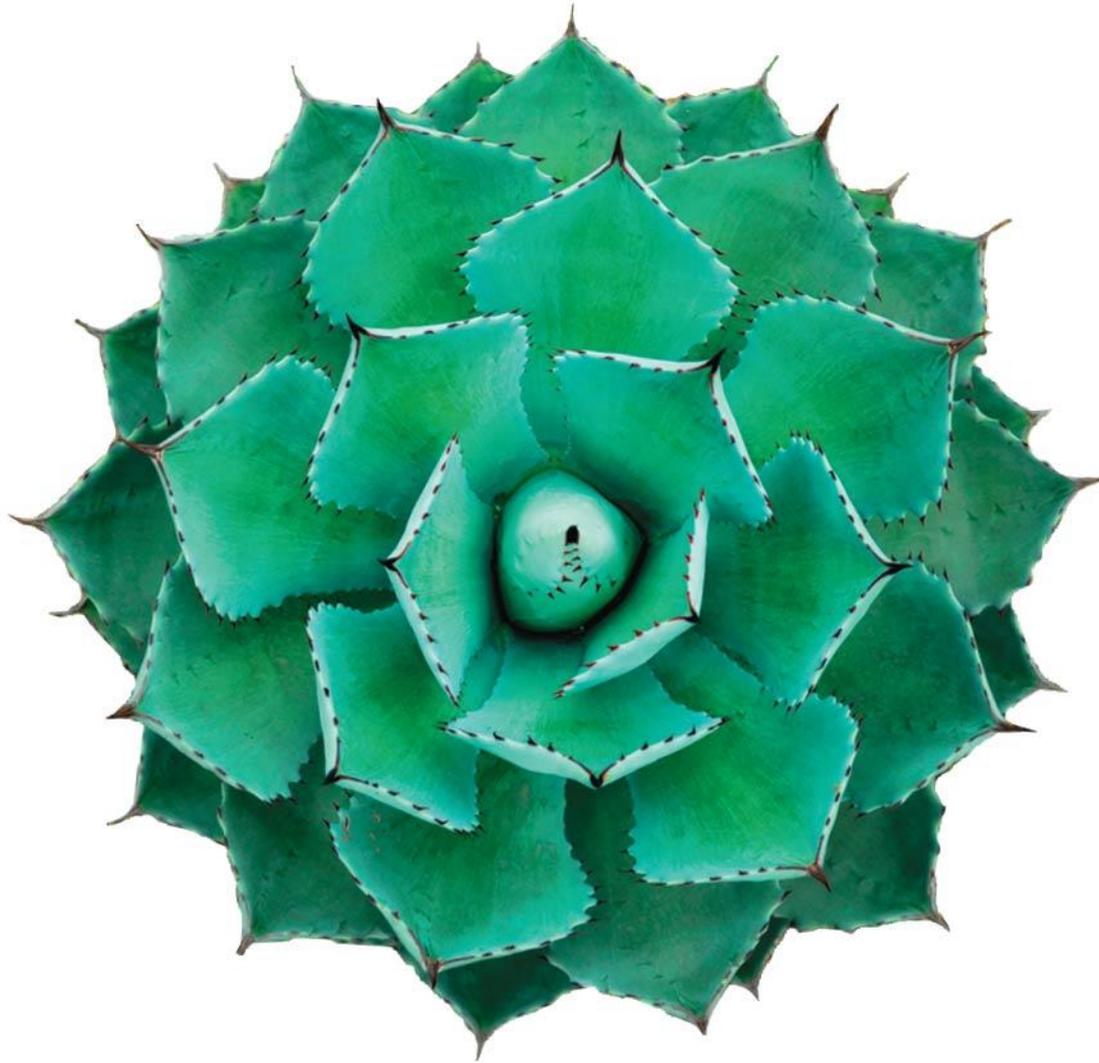


Figure 6.4b



- The evolution of more complex organisms does not violate the second law of thermodynamics
- Entropy (disorder) may decrease in a particular system, such as an organism, as long as the total entropy of the system and surroundings increases

Concept 6.2: The free-energy change of a reaction tells us whether or not the reaction occurs spontaneously

- Biologists want to know which reactions occur spontaneously and which require input of energy
- To do so, they need to determine the energy and entropy changes that occur in chemical reactions

Free-Energy Change, ΔG

- A living system's **free energy** is energy that can do work when temperature and pressure are uniform, as in a living cell

- The change in free energy (ΔG) during a process is related to the change in enthalpy—change in total energy (ΔH)—change in entropy (ΔS), and temperature in Kelvin units (T)

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

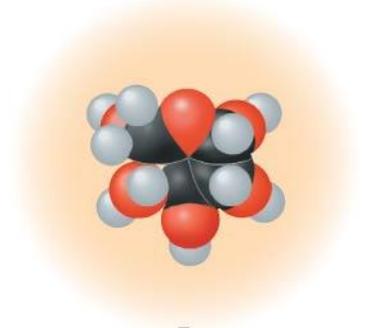
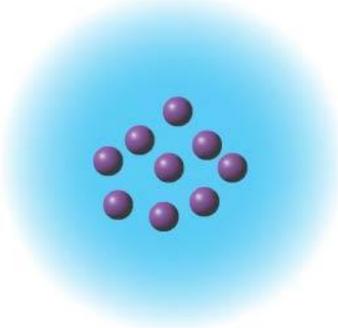
- ΔG is negative for all spontaneous processes; processes with zero or positive ΔG are never spontaneous
- Spontaneous processes can be harnessed to perform work

Free Energy, Stability, and Equilibrium

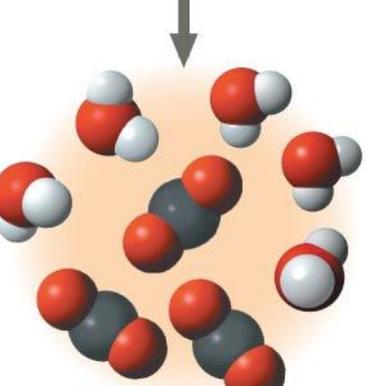
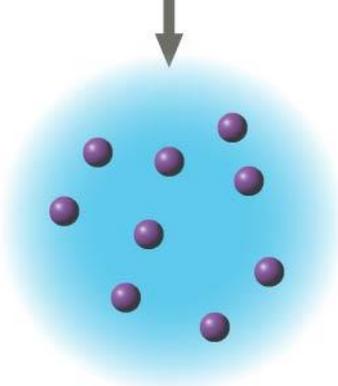
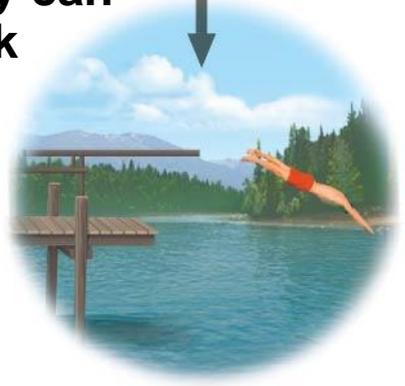
- Free energy is a measure of a system's instability, its tendency to change to a more stable state
- During a spontaneous change, free energy decreases and the stability of a system increases
- Equilibrium is a state of maximum stability
- A process is spontaneous and can perform work only when it is moving toward equilibrium

Figure 6.5

- **More free energy (higher G)**
- **Less stable**
- **Greater work capacity**



- In a spontaneous change**
- **The free energy of the system decreases ($\Delta G < 0$)**
 - **The system becomes more stable**
 - **The released free energy can be harnessed to do work**



- **Less free energy (lower G)**
- **More stable**
- **Less work capacity**

(a) Gravitational motion

(b) Diffusion

(c) Chemical reaction

- **More free energy (higher G)**
- **Less stable**
- **Greater work capacity**



In a spontaneous change

- **The free energy of the system decreases ($\Delta G < 0$)**
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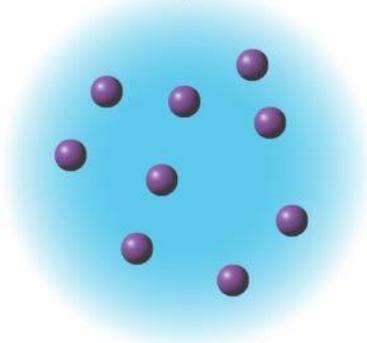
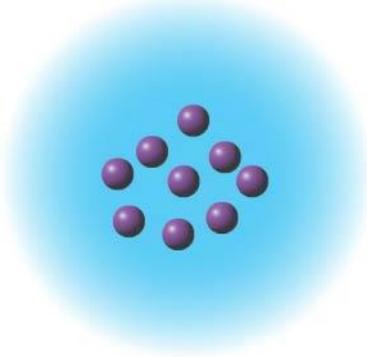


- **Less free energy (lower G)**
- **More stable**
- **Less work capacity**

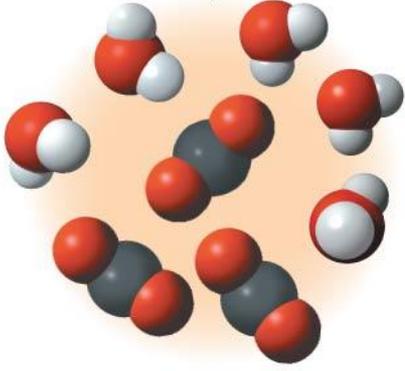
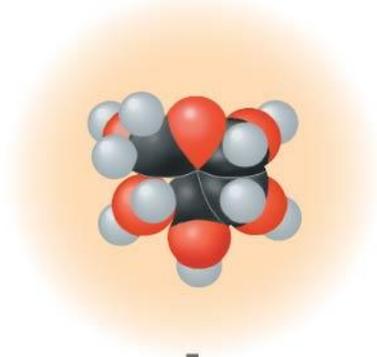
Figure 6.5b



(a) Gravitational motion



(b) Diffusion



(c) Chemical reaction

Free Energy and Metabolism

- The concept of free energy can be applied to the chemistry of life's processes

Exergonic and Endergonic Reactions in Metabolism

- An **exergonic reaction** proceeds with a net release of free energy and is spontaneous
- An **endergonic reaction** absorbs free energy from its surroundings and is nonspontaneous

Figure 6.6

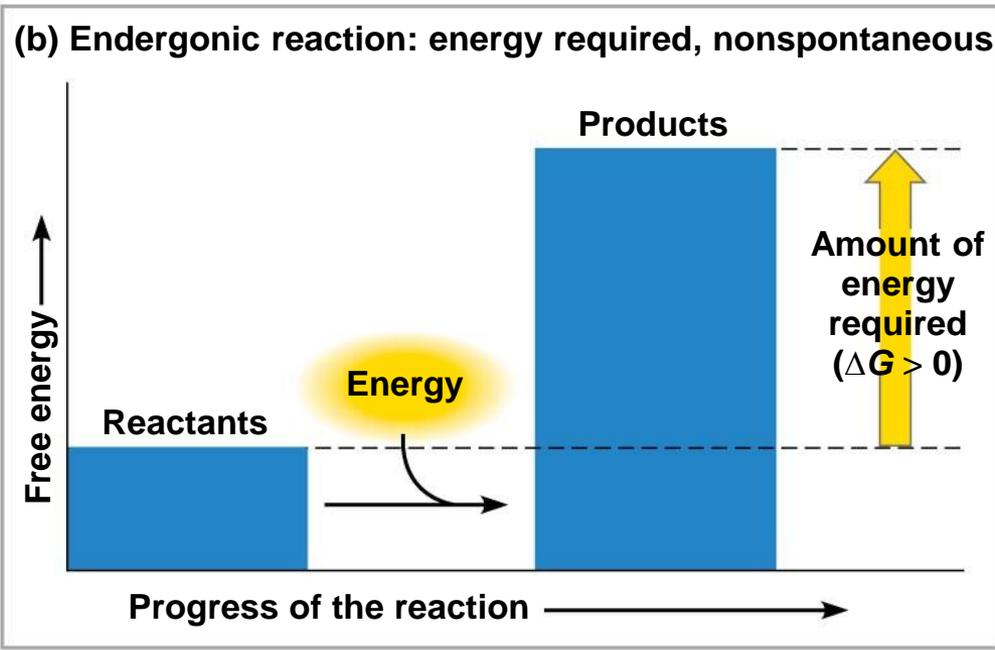
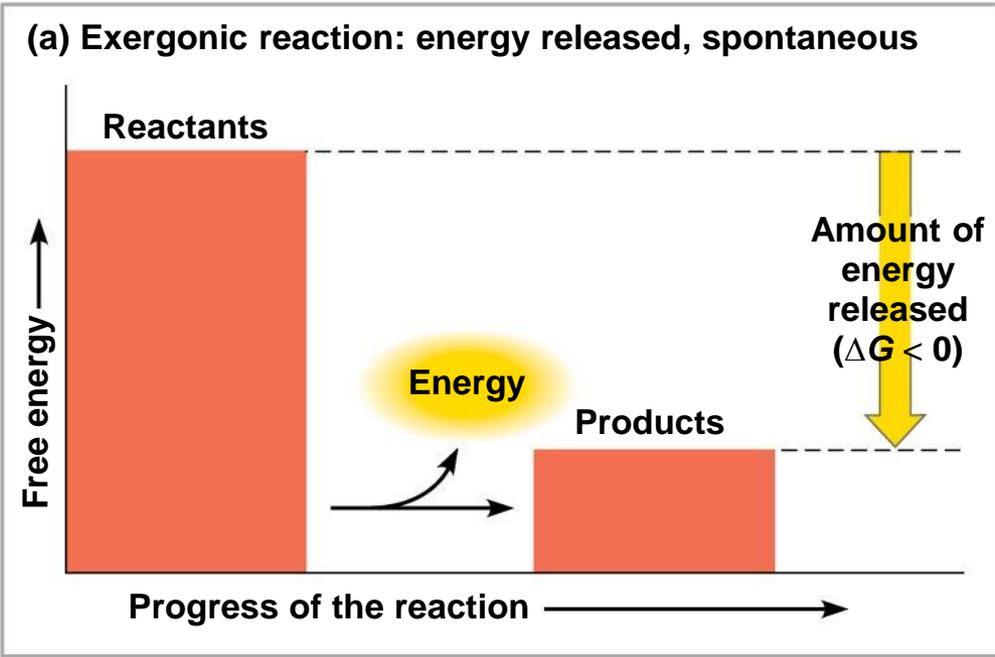


Figure 6.6a

(a) Exergonic reaction: energy released, spontaneous

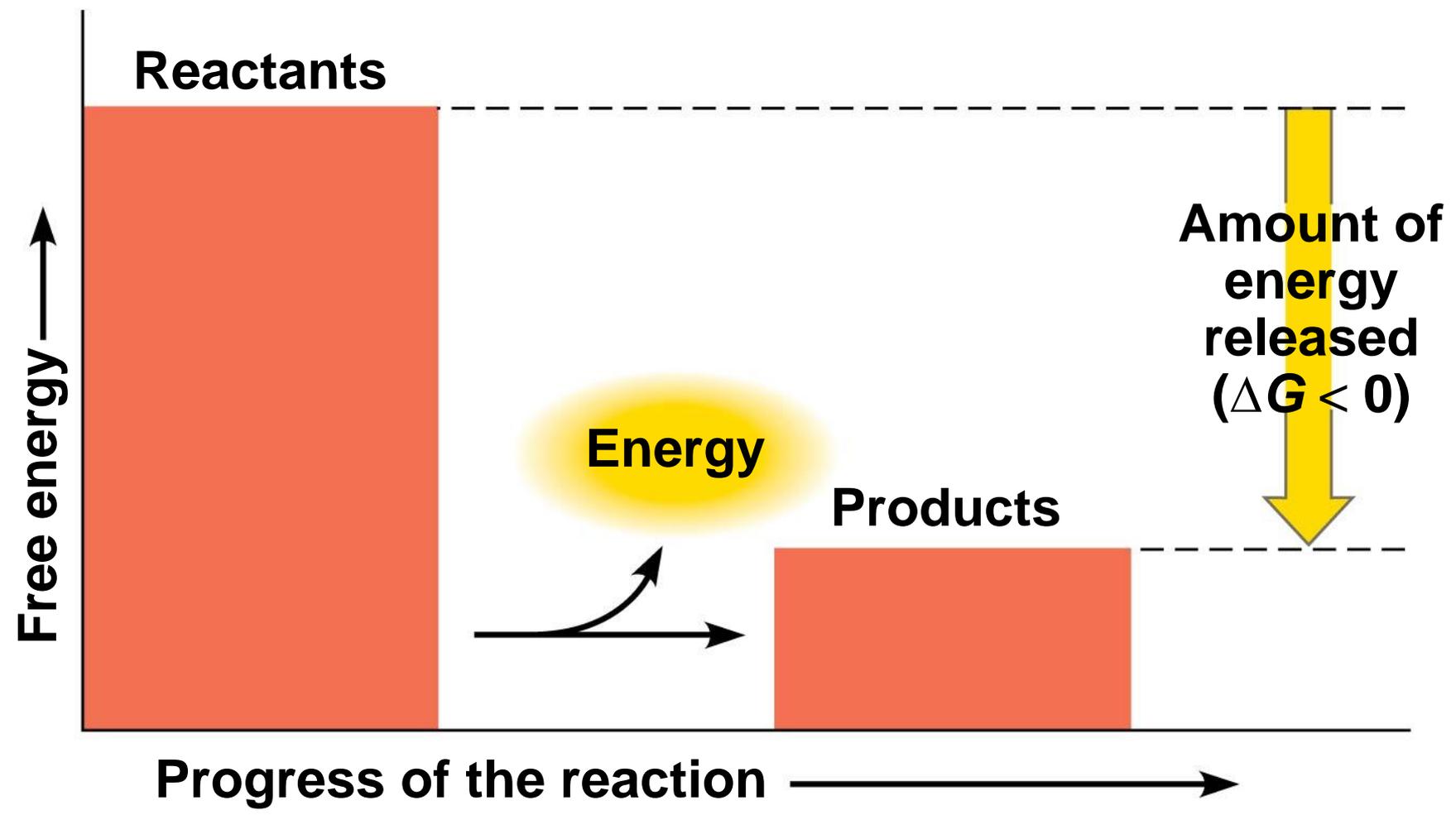
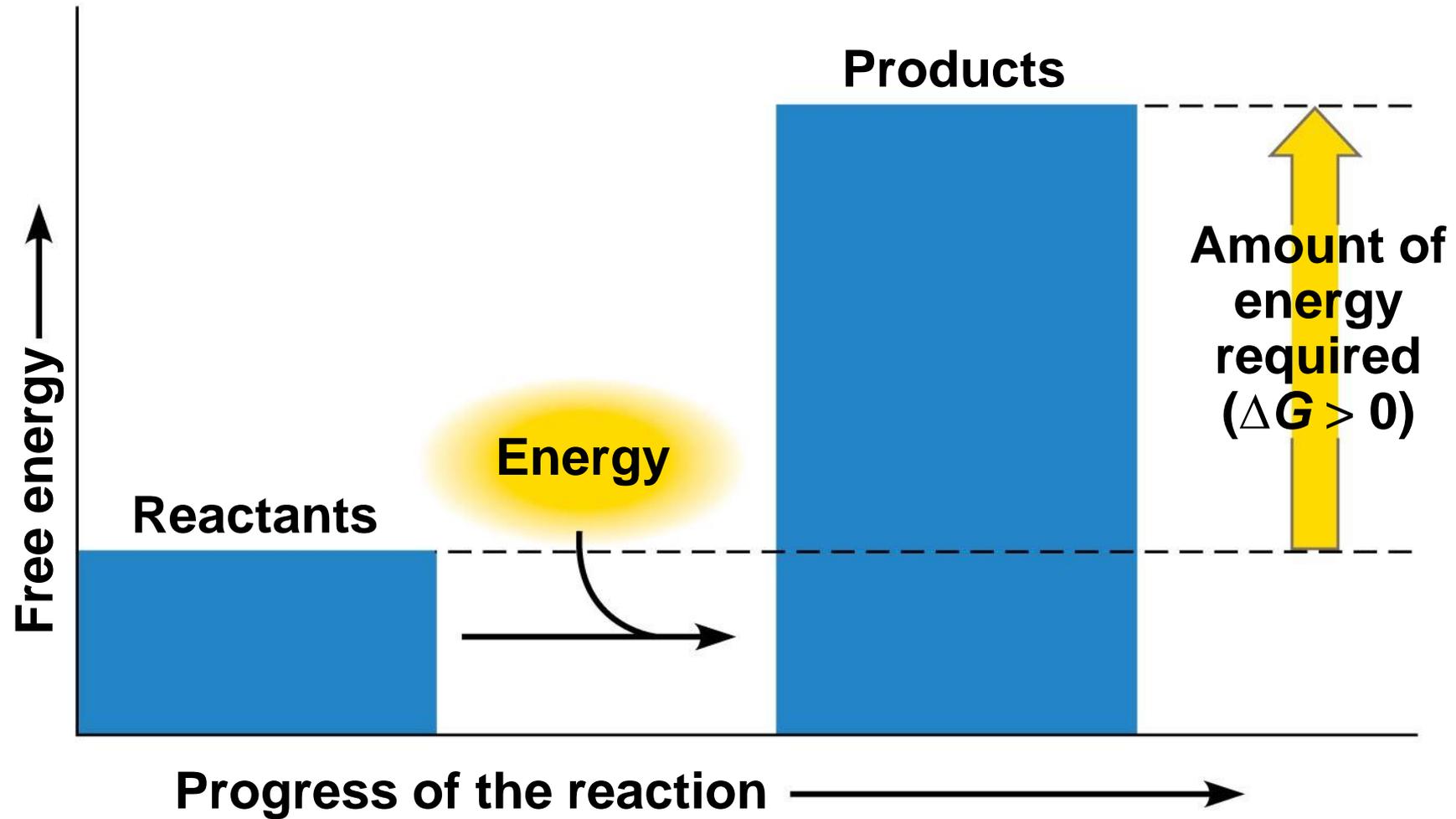


Figure 6.6b

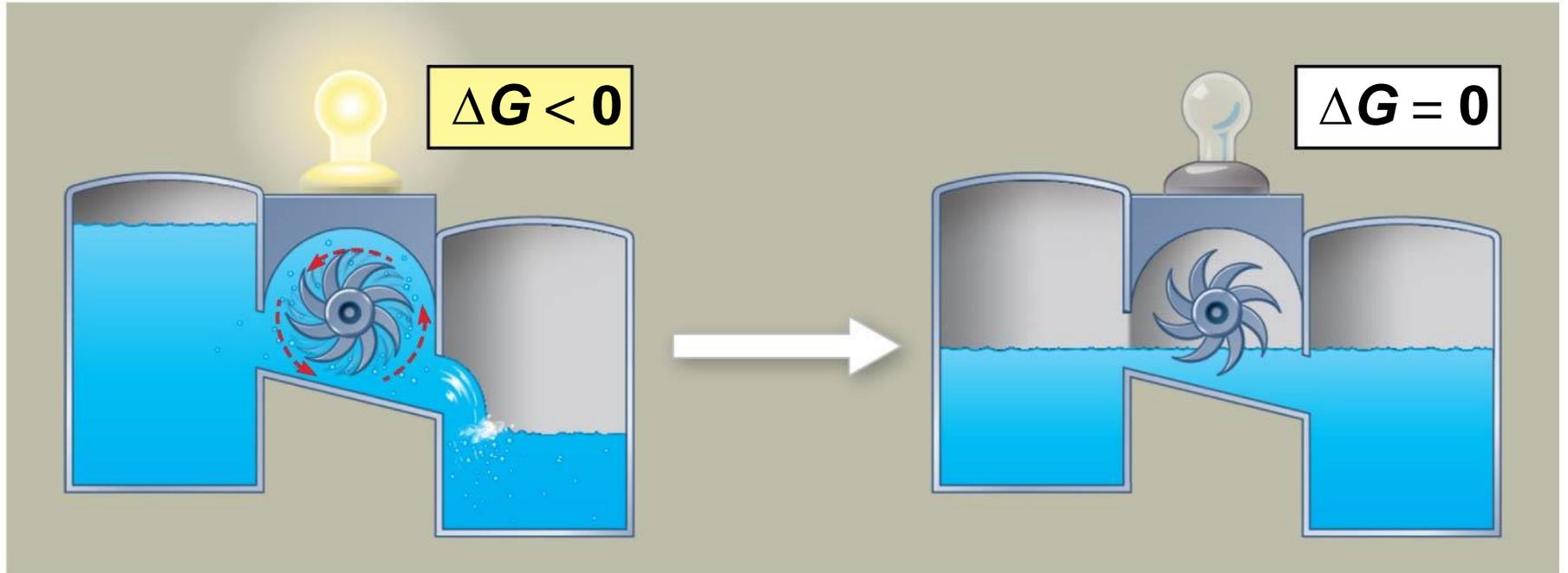
(b) Endergonic reaction: energy required, nonspontaneous



Equilibrium and Metabolism

- Reactions in a closed system eventually reach equilibrium and can then do no work

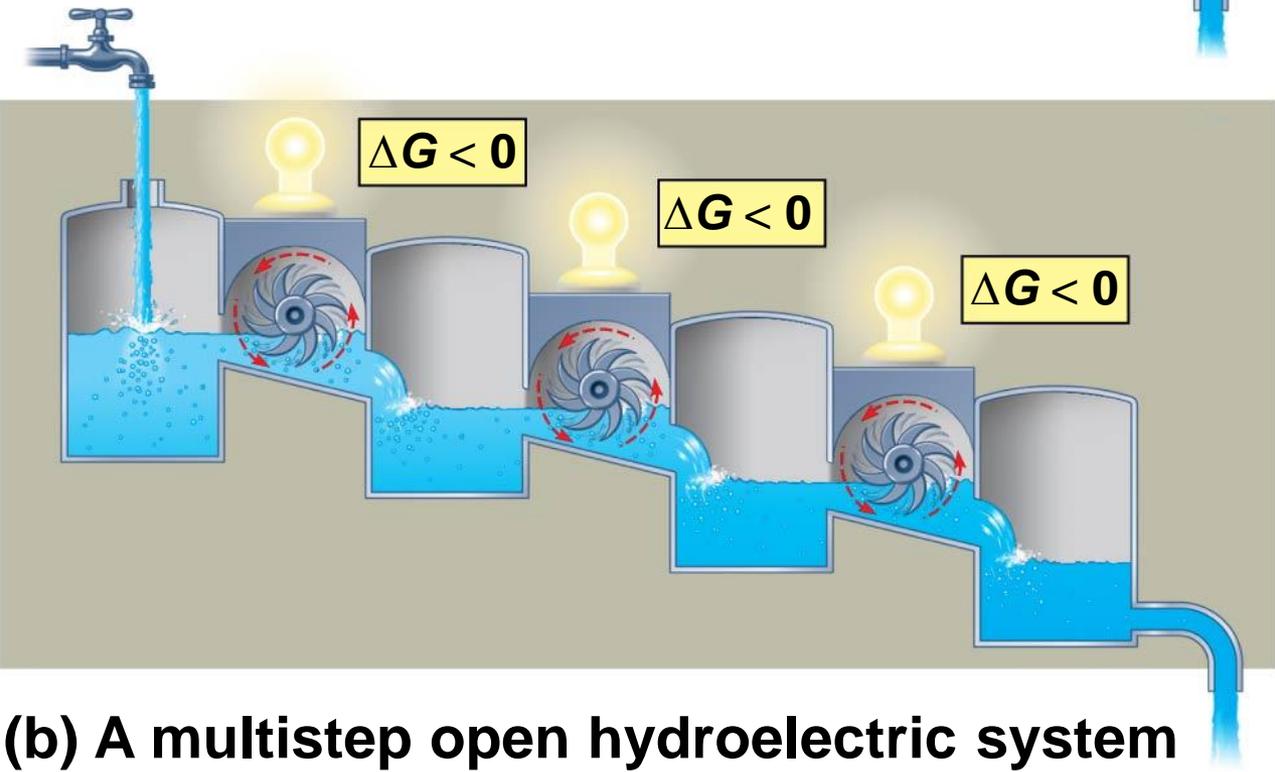
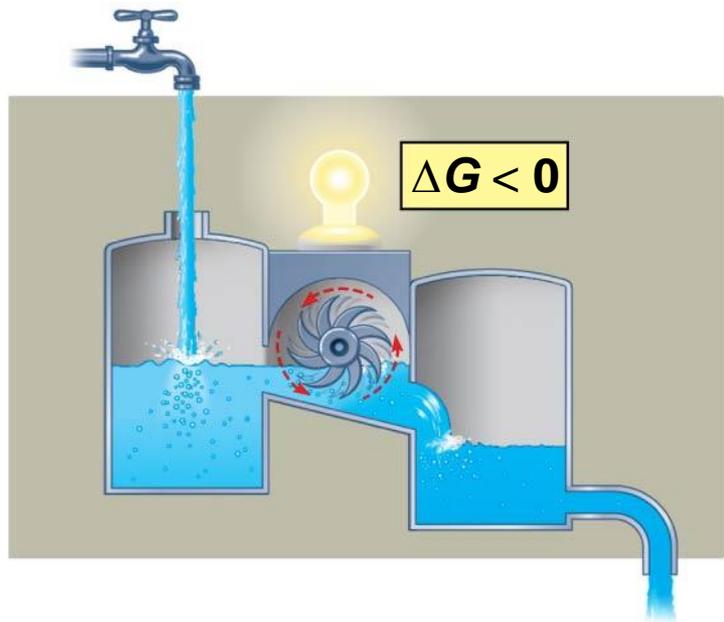
Figure 6.7



- Cells are not in equilibrium; they are open systems experiencing a constant flow of materials
- A defining feature of life is that metabolism is never at equilibrium
- A catabolic pathway in a cell releases free energy in a series of reactions

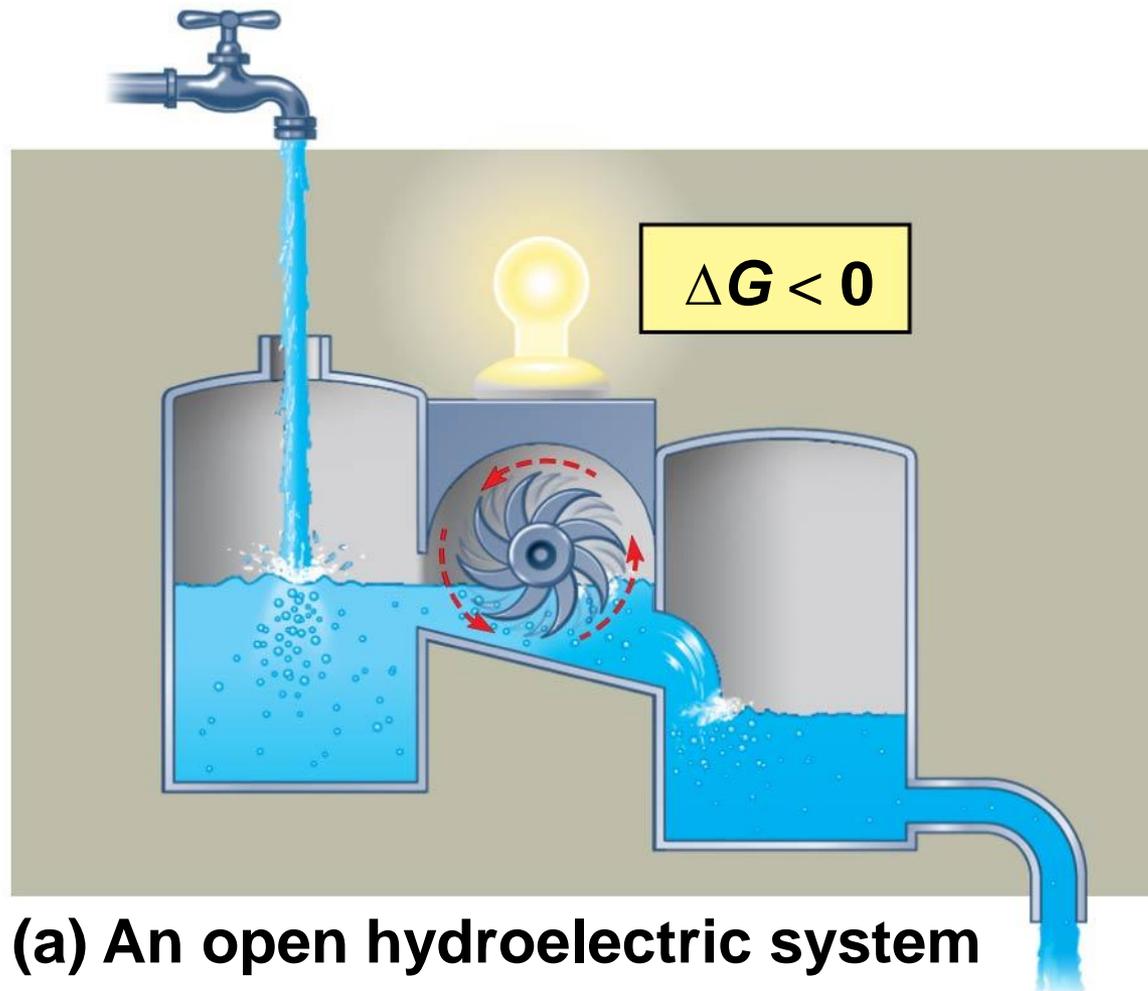
Figure 6.8

(a) An open hydroelectric system



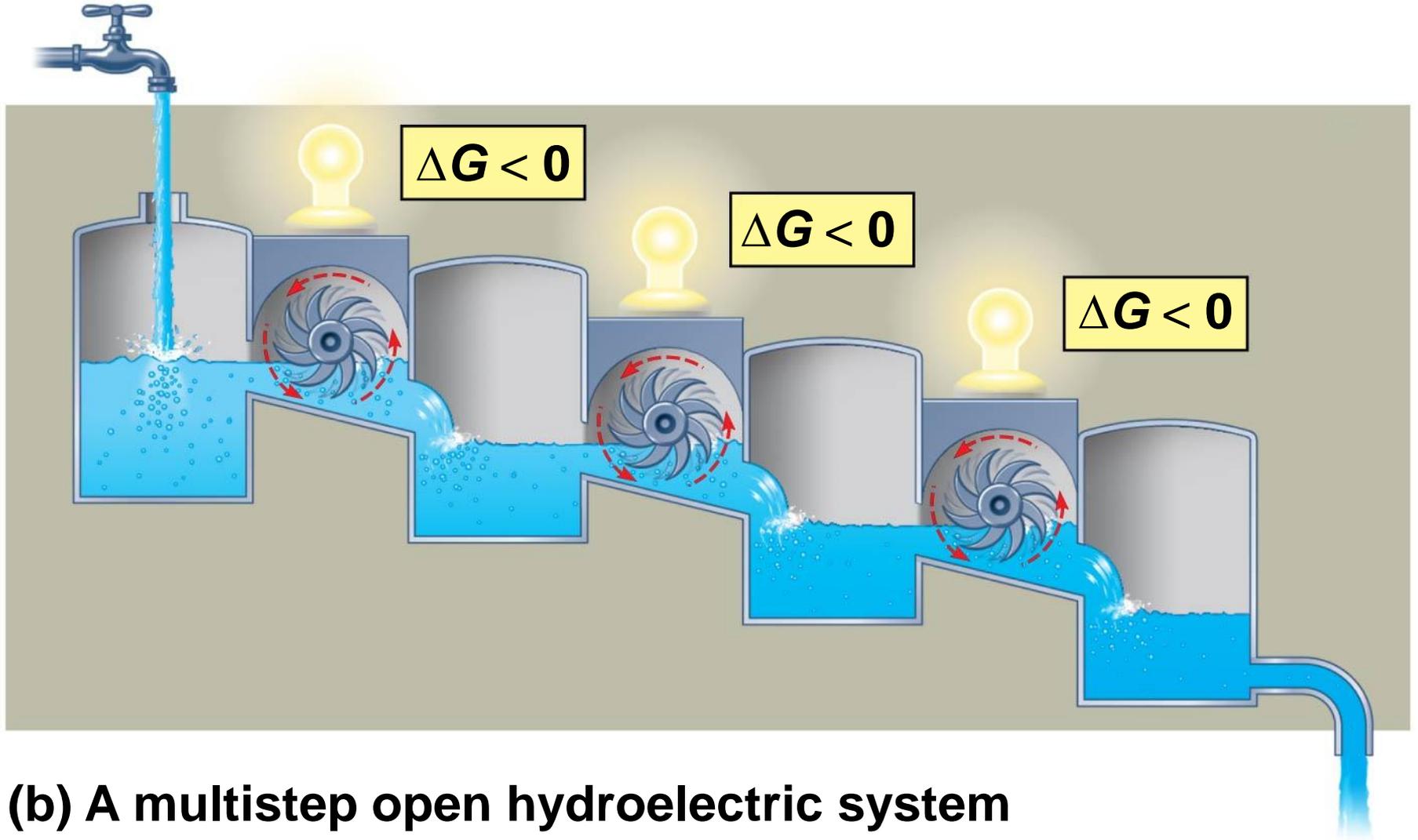
(b) A multistep open hydroelectric system

Figure 6.8a



(a) An open hydroelectric system

Figure 6.8b



(b) A multistep open hydroelectric system

Concept 6.3: ATP powers cellular work by coupling exergonic reactions to endergonic reactions

- A cell does three main kinds of work:
 - Chemical work—pushing endergonic reactions
 - Transport work—pumping substances against the direction of spontaneous movement
 - Mechanical work—such as contraction of muscle cells

- To do work, cells manage energy resources by **energy coupling**, the use of an exergonic process to drive an endergonic one
- Most energy coupling in cells is mediated by ATP

The Structure and Hydrolysis of ATP

- **ATP (adenosine triphosphate)** is the cell's energy shuttle
- ATP is composed of ribose (a sugar), adenine (a nitrogenous base), and three phosphate groups

Figure 6.9

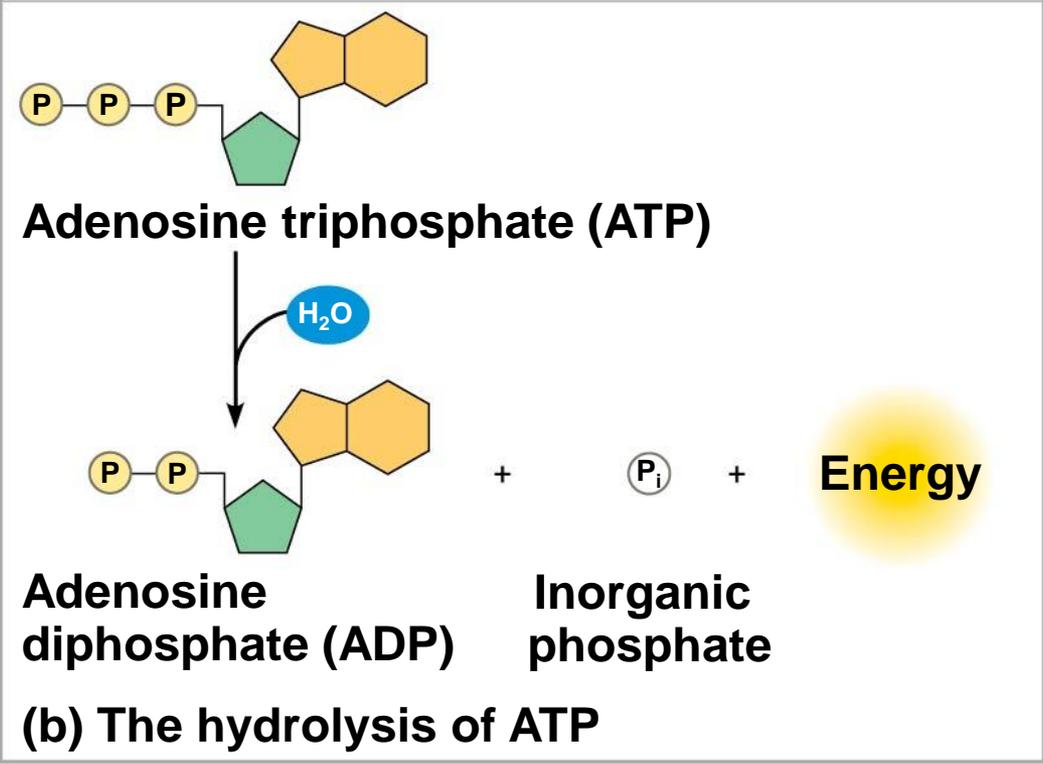
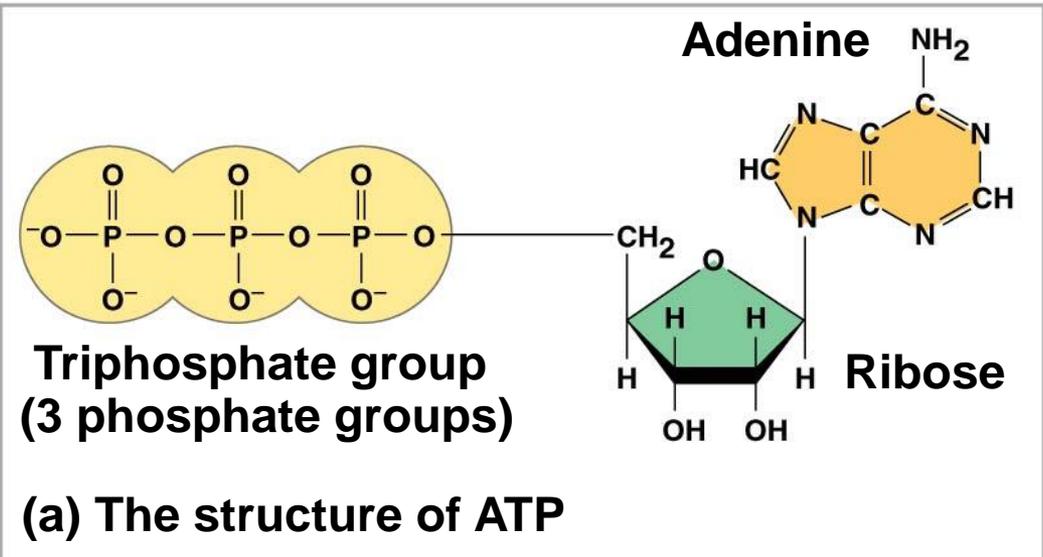
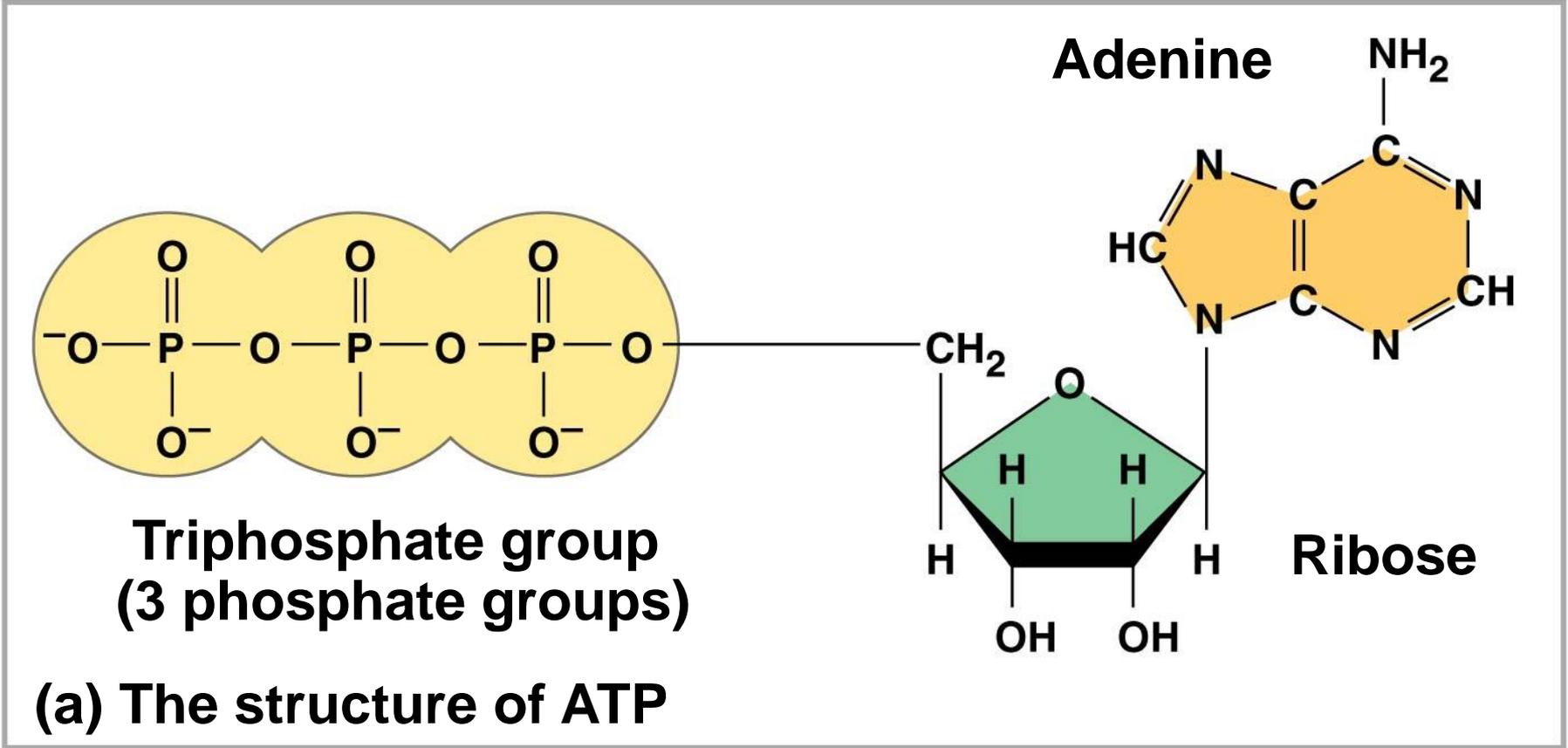
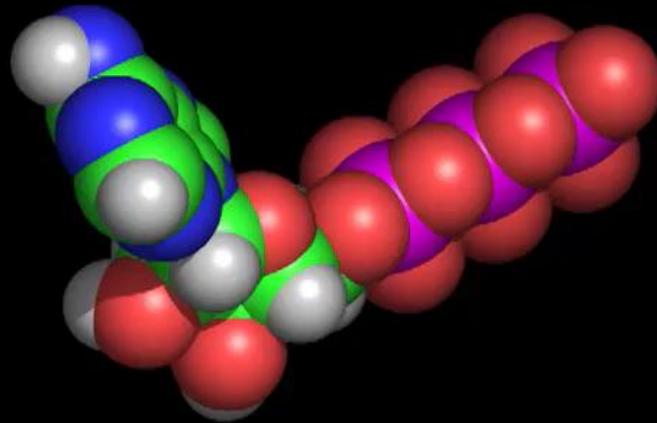


Figure 6.9a

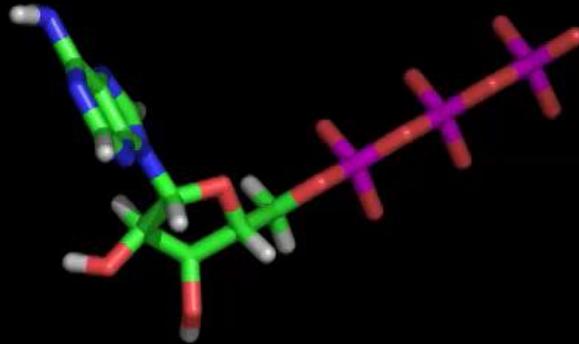


Video: Space-Filling Model of ATP



This movie shows phosphates in purple,

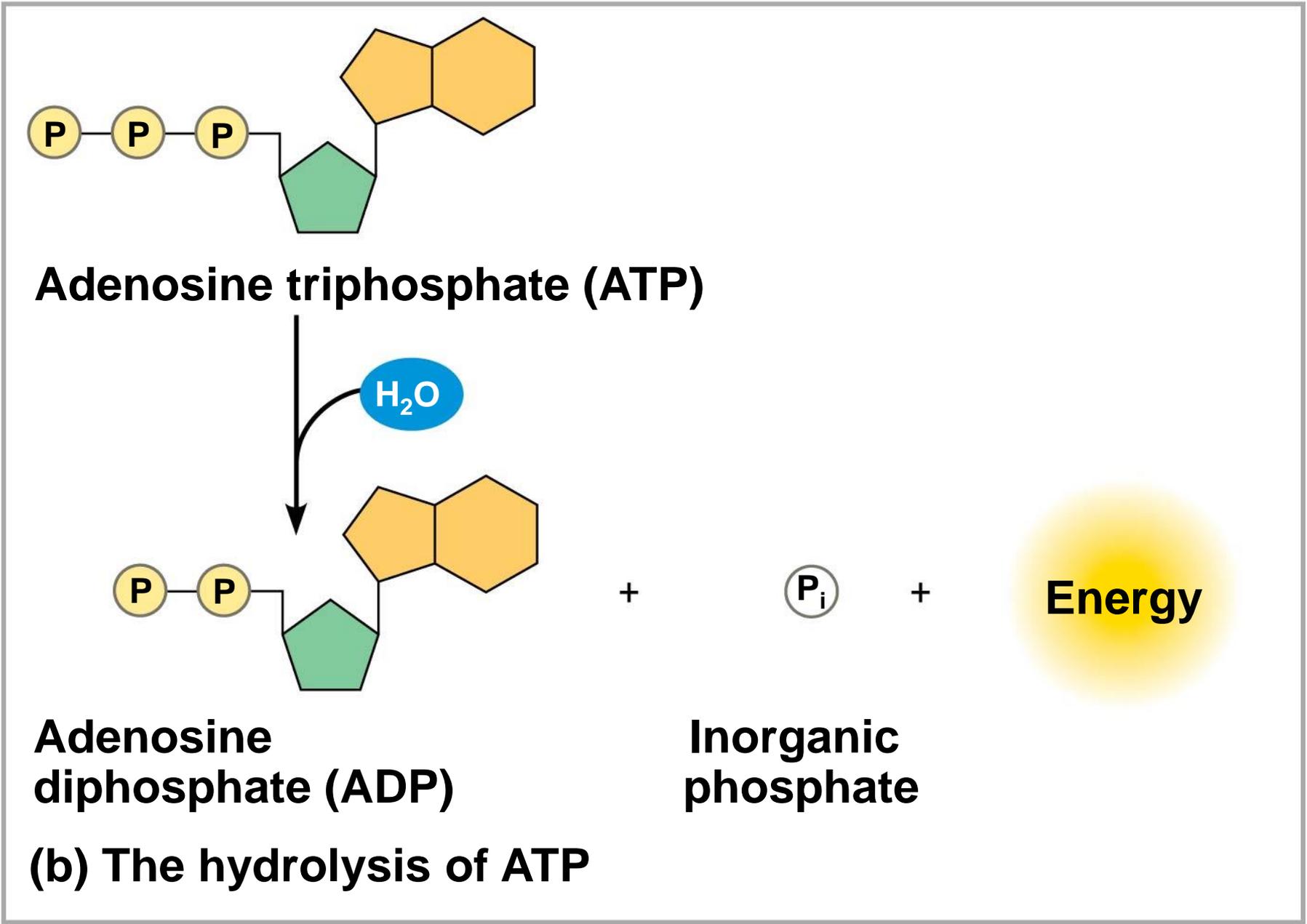
Video: Stick Model of ATP



In this video, phosphates are in purple,

- The bonds between the phosphate groups of ATP's tail can be broken by hydrolysis
- Energy is released from ATP when the terminal phosphate bond is broken
- This release of energy comes from the chemical change to a state of lower free energy, not from the phosphate bonds themselves

Figure 6.9b

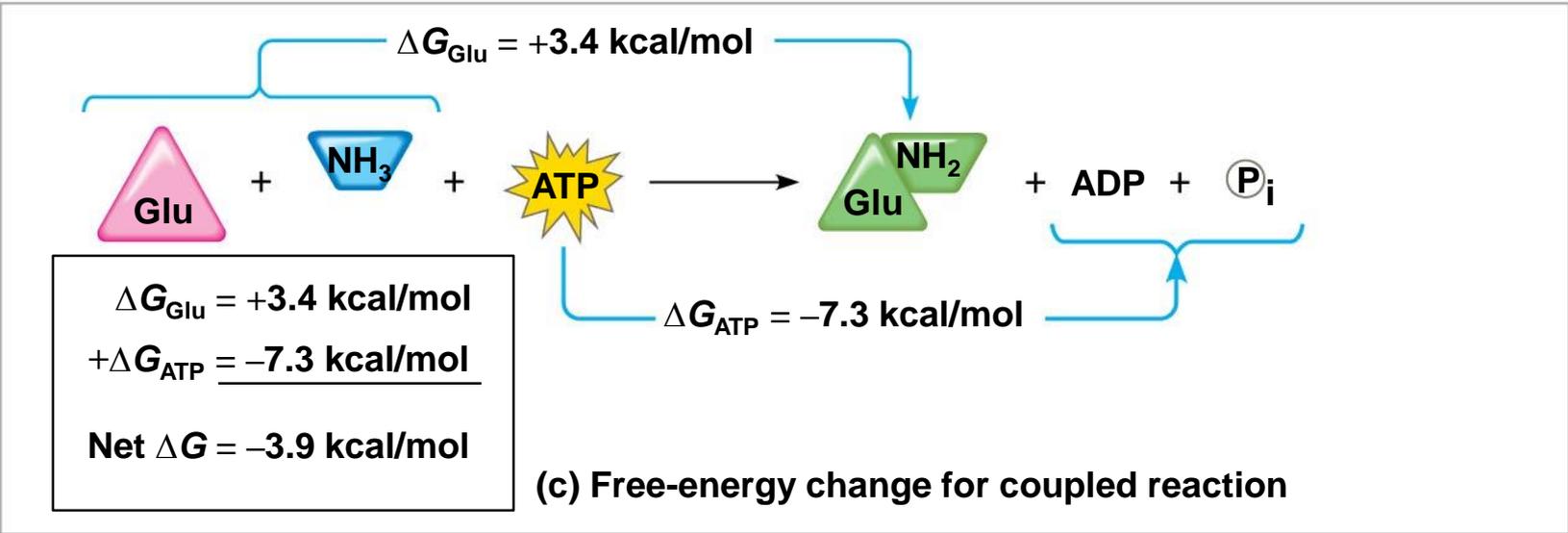
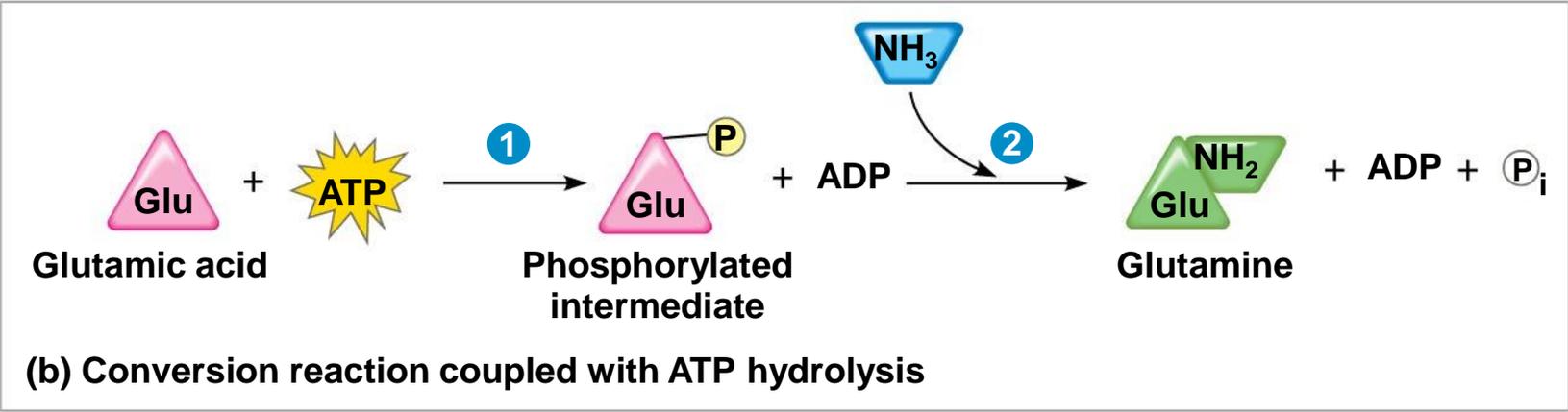
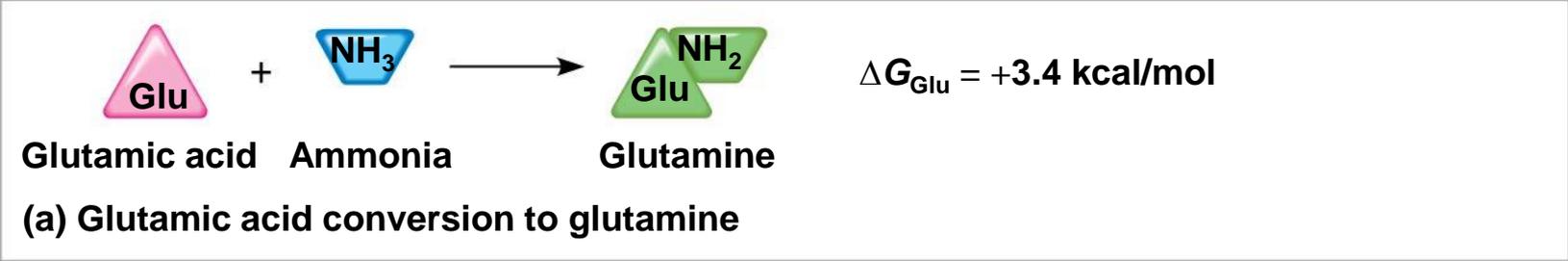


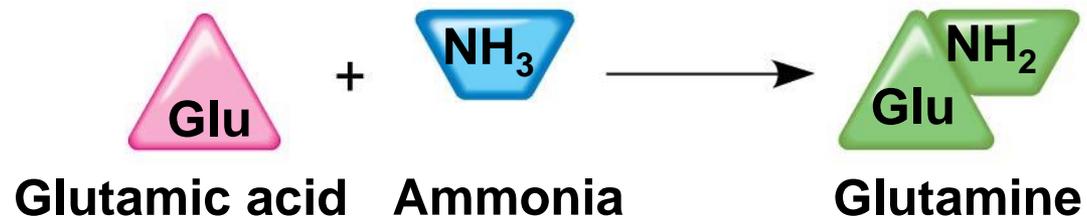
How the Hydrolysis of ATP Performs Work

- The three types of cellular work (mechanical, transport, and chemical) are powered by the hydrolysis of ATP
- In the cell, the energy from the exergonic reaction of ATP hydrolysis can be used to drive an endergonic reaction
- Overall, the coupled reactions are exergonic

- ATP drives endergonic reactions by phosphorylation, transferring a phosphate group to some other molecule, such as a reactant
- The recipient molecule is now called a **phosphorylated intermediate**

Figure 6.10

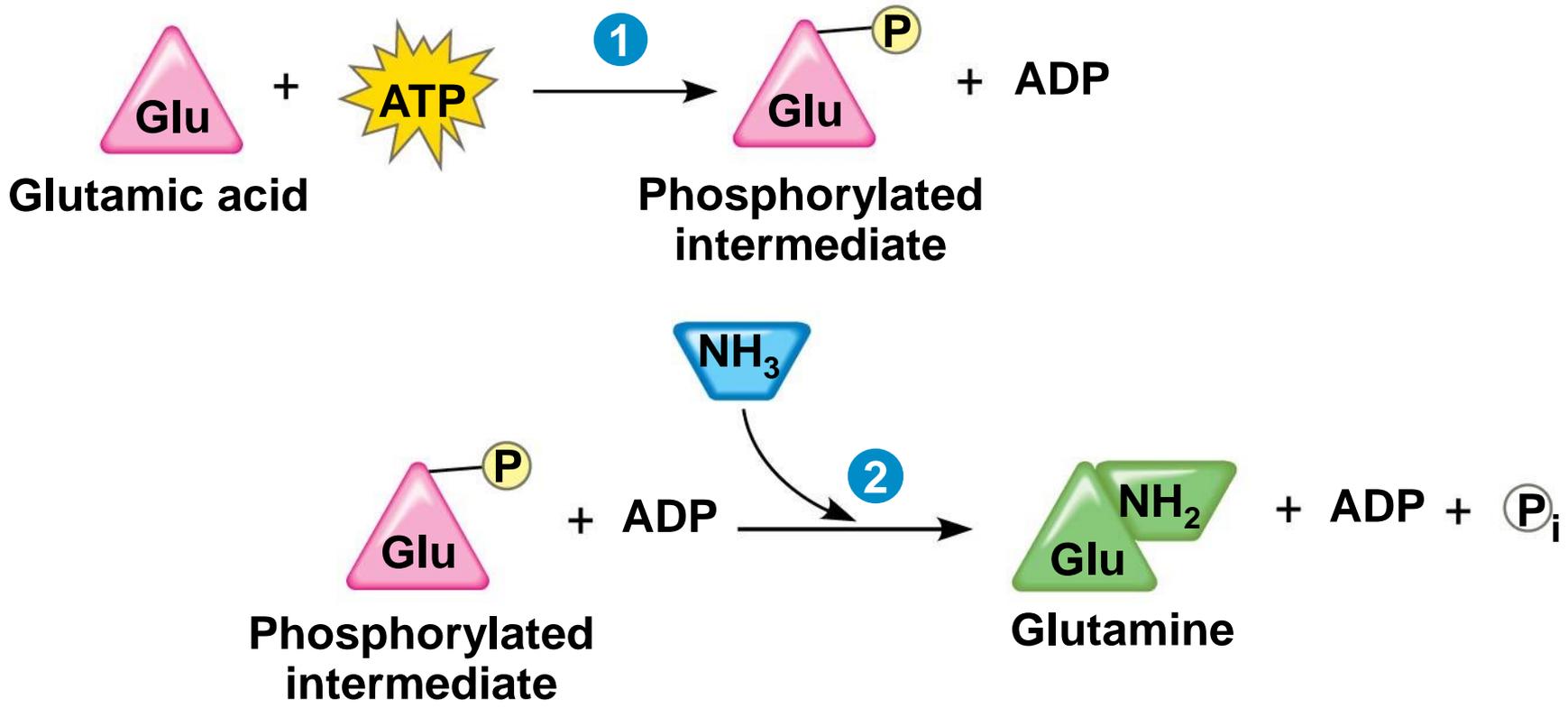




$$\Delta G_{\text{Glu}} = +3.4 \text{ kcal/mol}$$

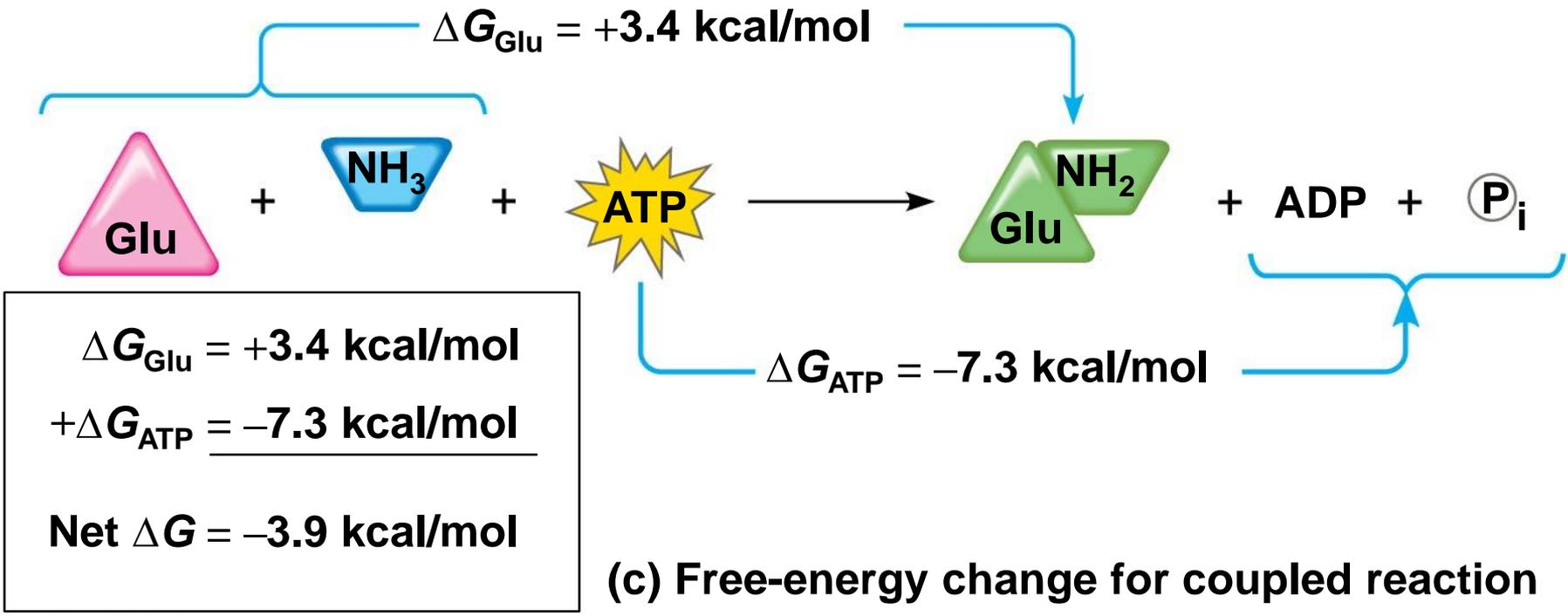
(a) Glutamic acid conversion to glutamine

Figure 6.10b



(b) Conversion reaction coupled with ATP hydrolysis

Figure 6.10c



- Transport and mechanical work in the cell are also powered by ATP hydrolysis
- ATP hydrolysis leads to a change in protein shape and binding ability

Figure 6.11

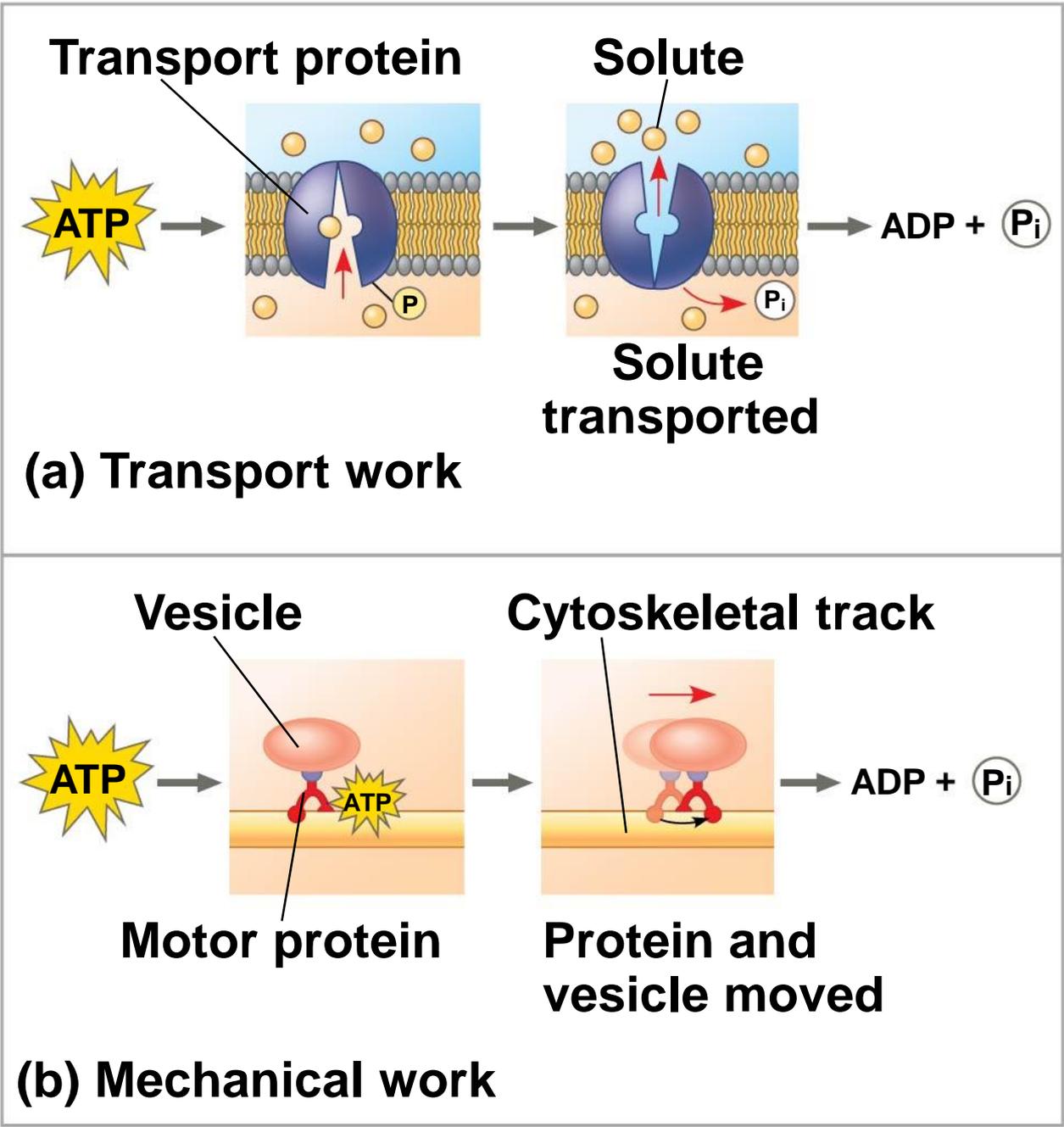


Figure 6.11a

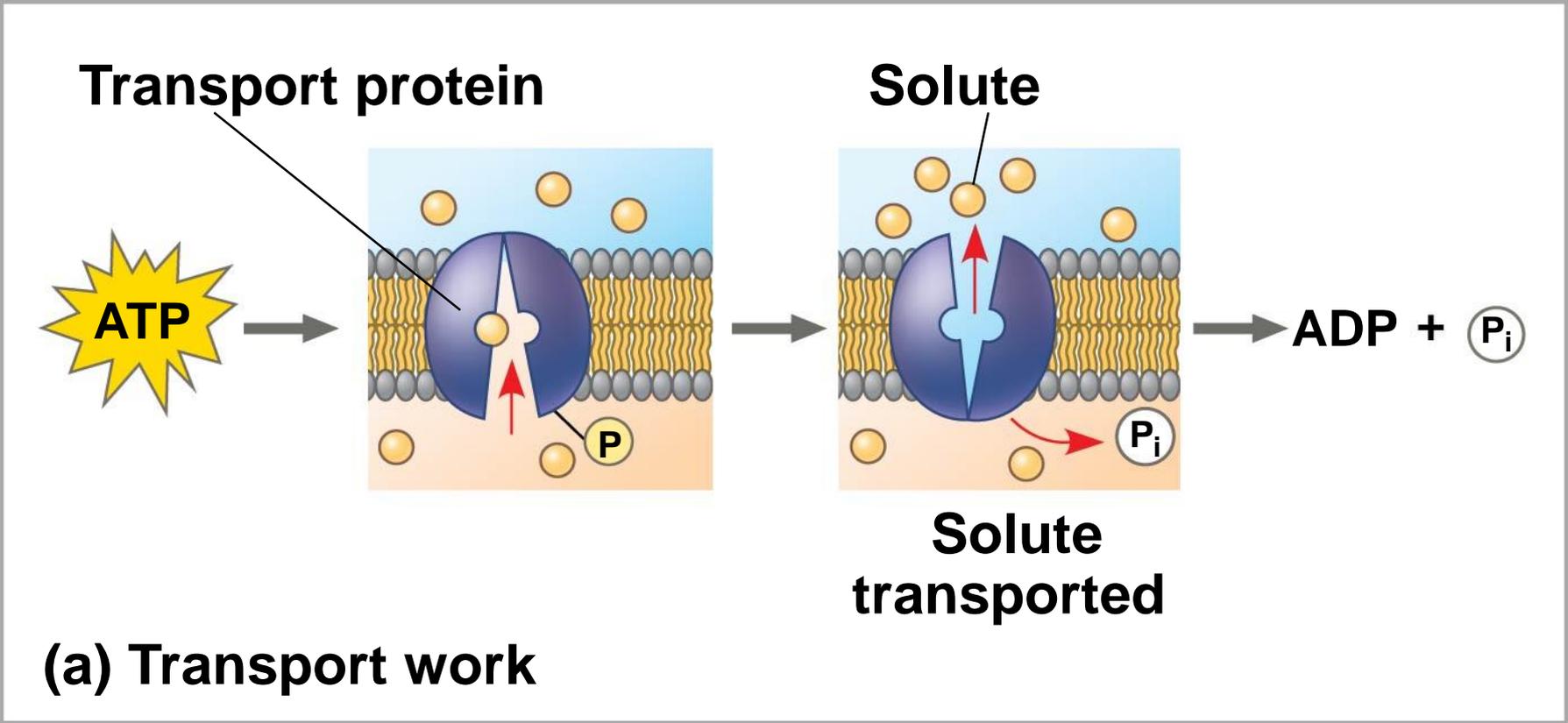
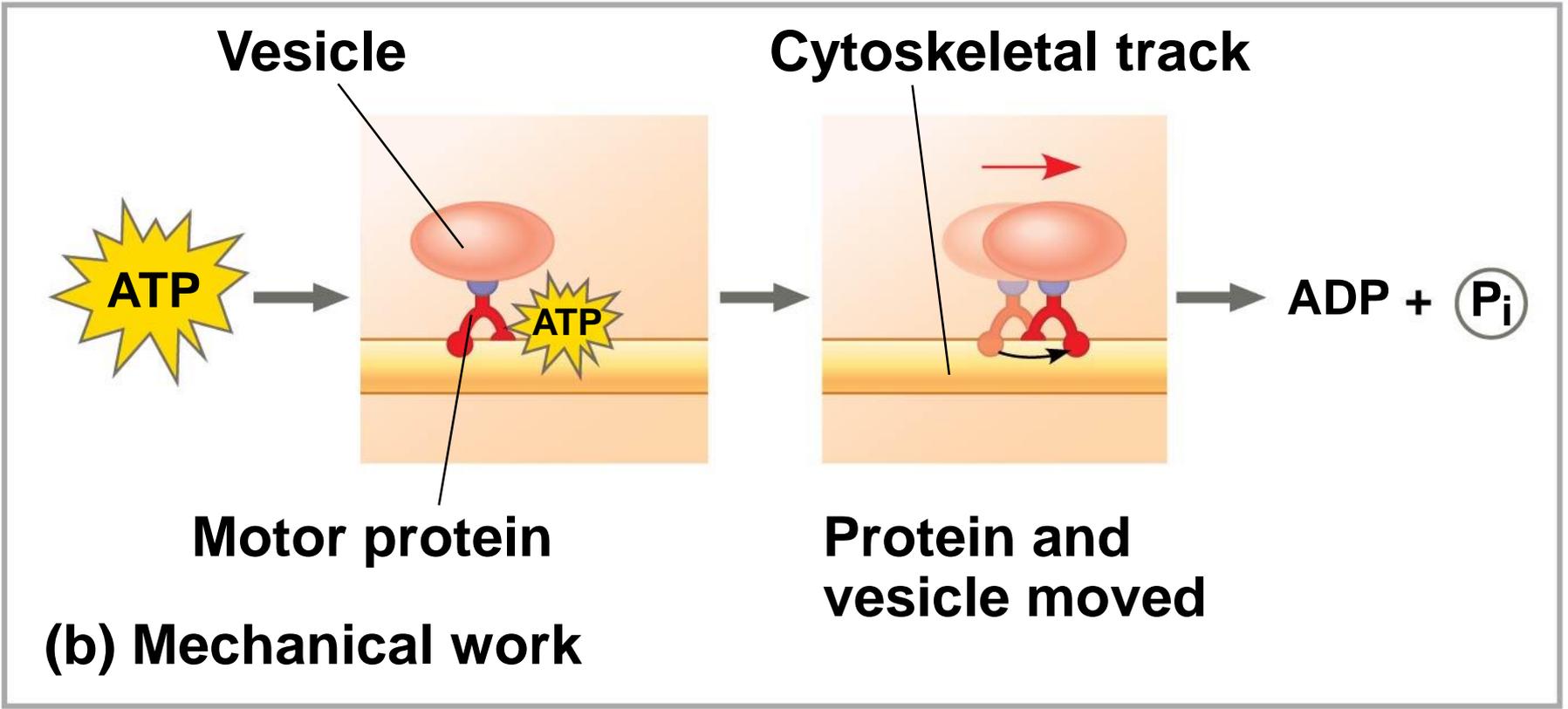


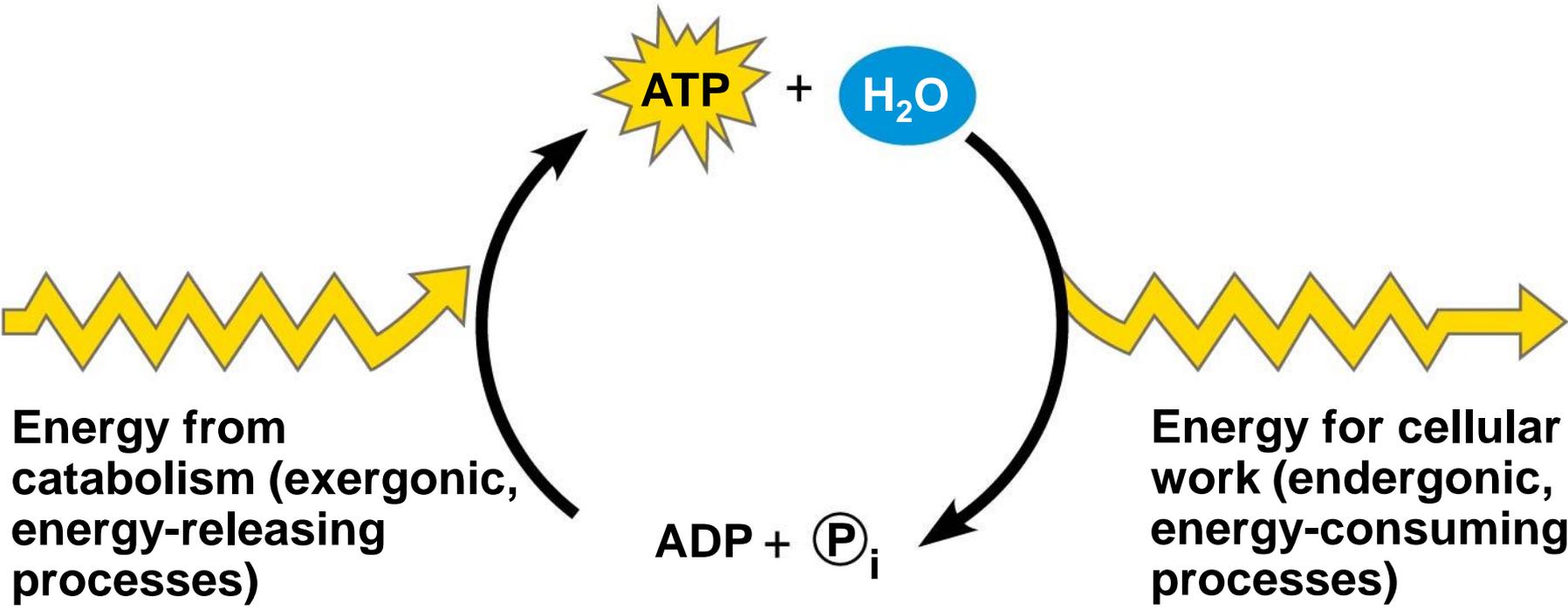
Figure 6.11b



The Regeneration of ATP

- ATP is a renewable resource that is regenerated by addition of a phosphate group to adenosine diphosphate (ADP)
- The energy to phosphorylate ADP comes from catabolic reactions in the cell
- The ATP cycle is a revolving door through which energy passes during its transfer from catabolic to anabolic pathways

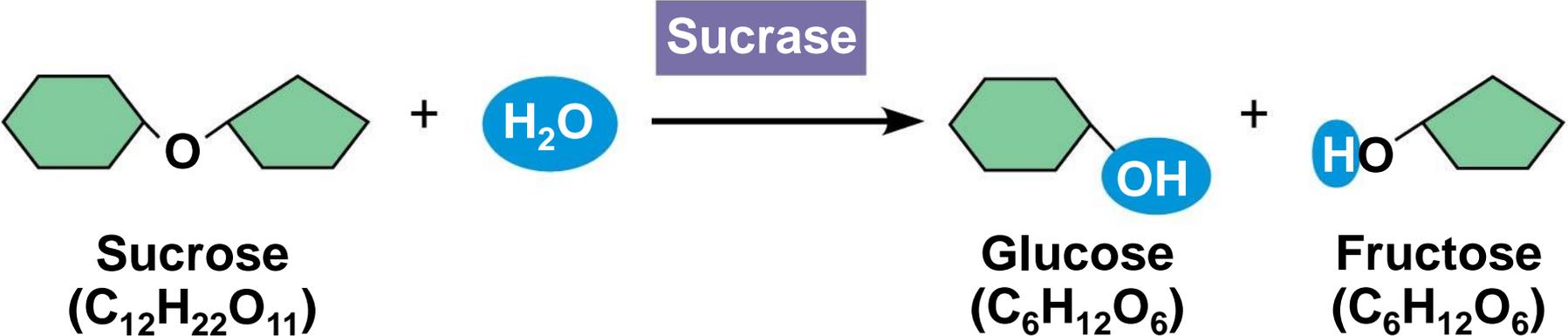
Figure 6.12



Concept 6.4: Enzymes speed up metabolic reactions by lowering energy barriers

- A **catalyst** is a chemical agent that speeds up a reaction without being consumed by the reaction
- An **enzyme** is a catalytic protein
 - For example, sucrase is an enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolysis of sucrose

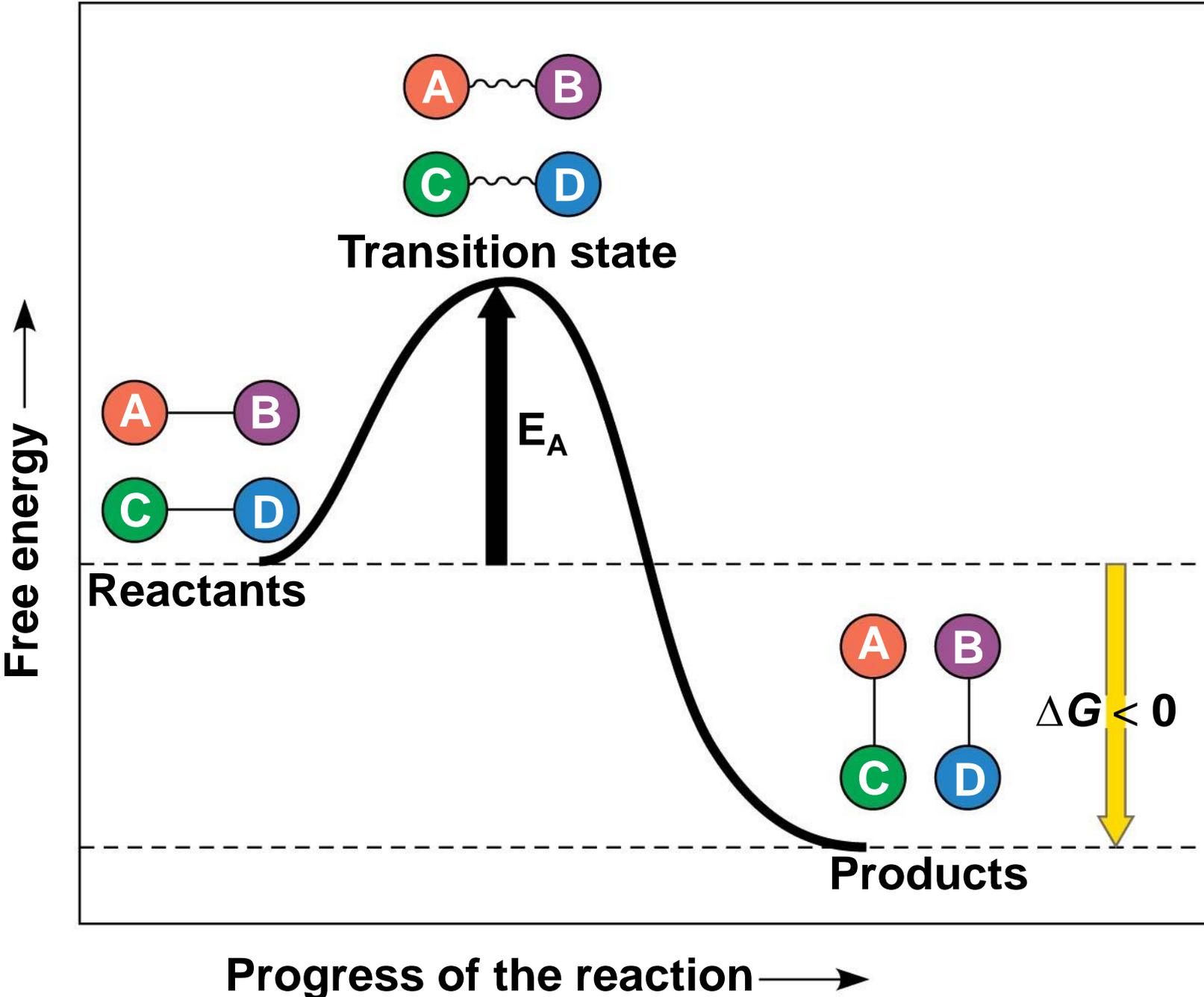
Figure 6.UN02



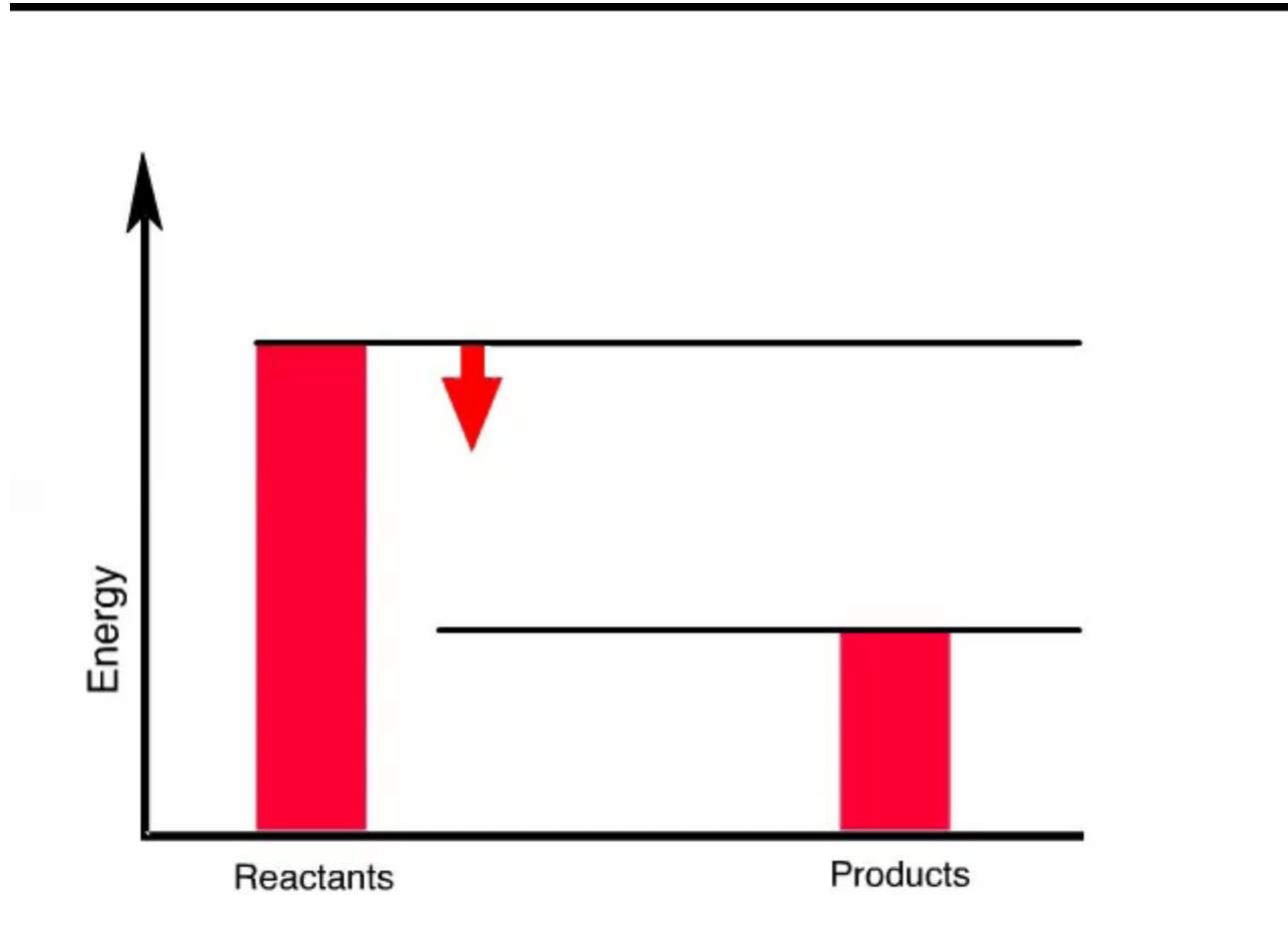
The Activation Energy Barrier

- Every chemical reaction between molecules involves bond breaking and bond forming
- The initial energy needed to start a chemical reaction is called the free energy of activation, or **activation energy** (E_A)
- Activation energy is often supplied in the form of thermal energy that the reactant molecules absorb from their surroundings

Figure 6.13



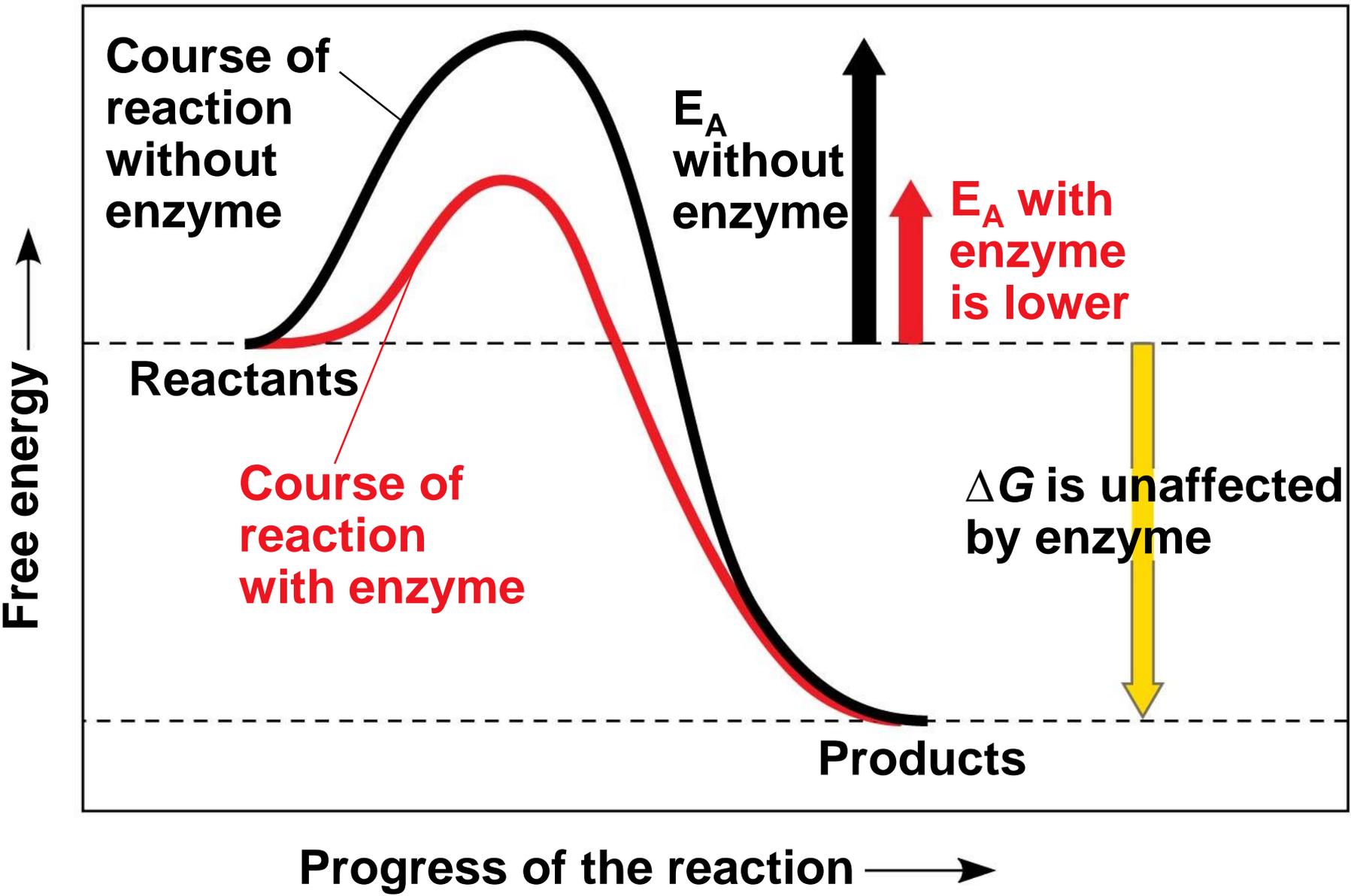
Animation: How Enzymes Work



How Enzymes Speed Up Reactions

- In **catalysis**, enzymes or other catalysts speed up specific reactions by lowering the E_A barrier
- Enzymes do not affect the change in free energy (ΔG); instead, they hasten reactions that would occur eventually

Figure 6.14

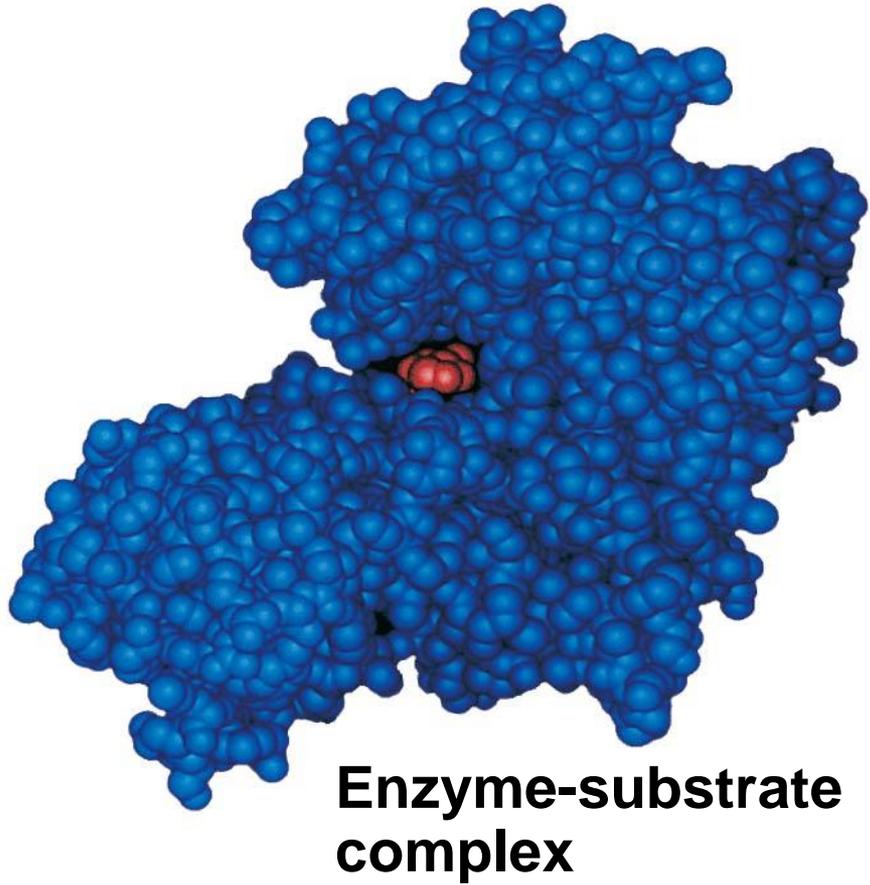
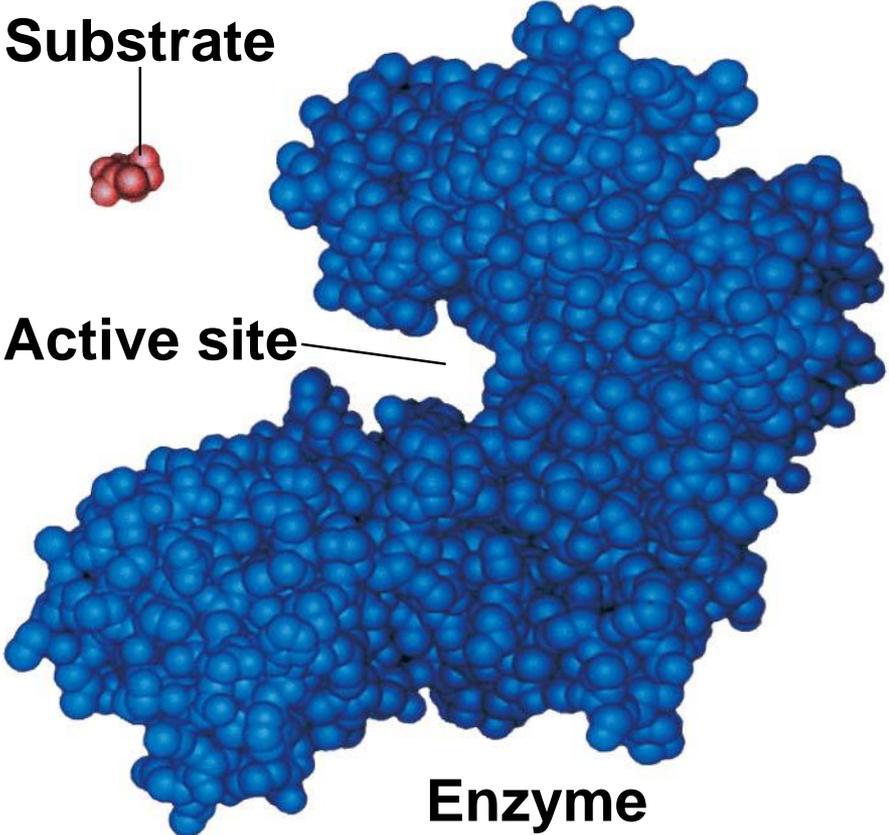


Substrate Specificity of Enzymes

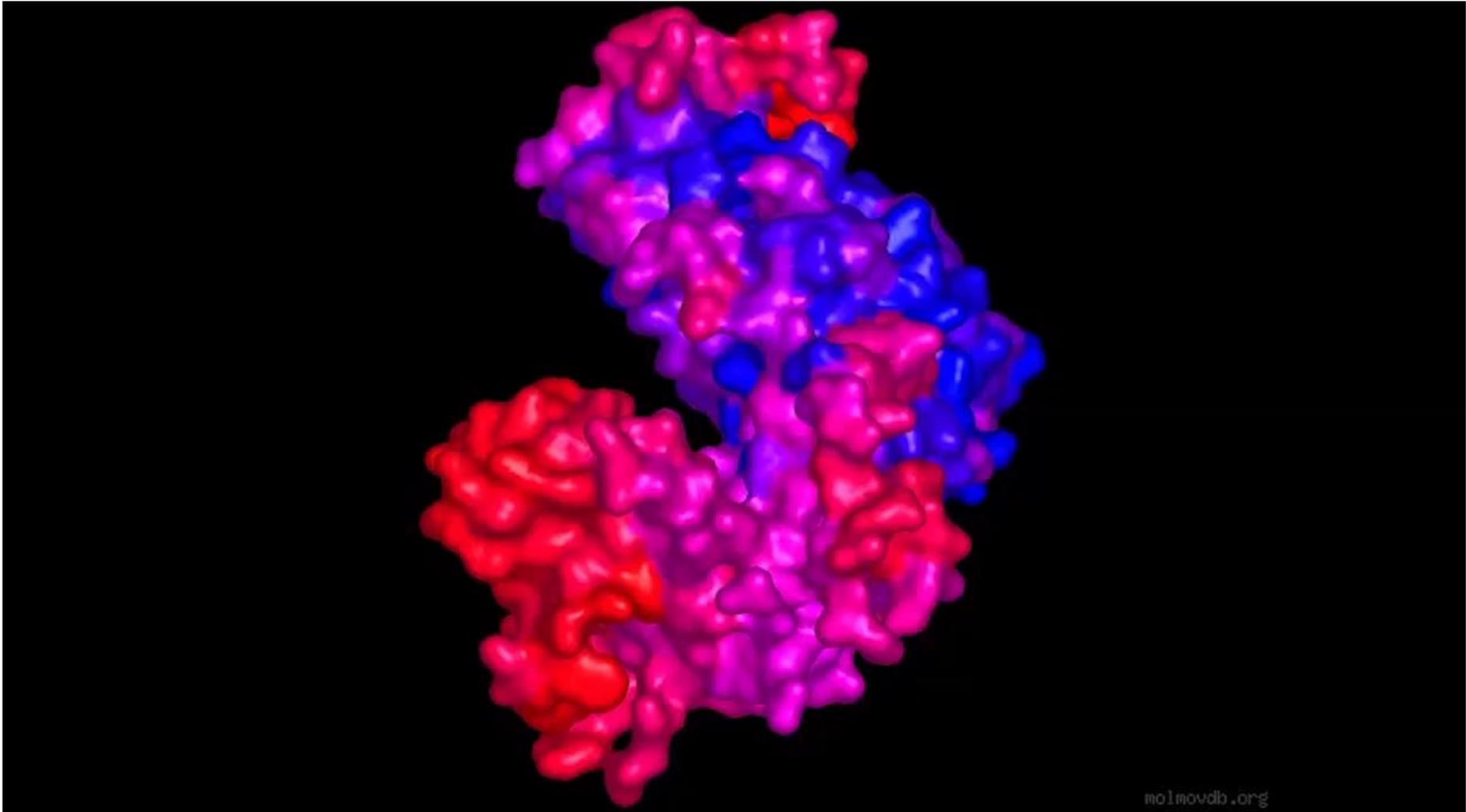
- The reactant that an enzyme acts on is called the enzyme's **substrate**
- The enzyme binds to its substrate, forming an **enzyme-substrate complex**
- While bound, the activity of the enzyme converts substrate to product

- The reaction catalyzed by each enzyme is very specific
- The **active site** is the region on the enzyme where the substrate binds
- **Induced fit** of a substrate brings chemical groups of the active site into positions that enhance their ability to catalyze the reaction

Figure 6.15



Video: Closure of Hexokinase Via Induced Fit



Catalysis in the Enzyme's Active Site

- In an enzymatic reaction, the substrate binds to the active site of the enzyme
- Enzymes are extremely fast acting and emerge from reactions in their original form
- Very small amounts of enzyme can have huge metabolic effects because they are used repeatedly in catalytic cycles

Figure 6.16_1

1 Substrates enter active site.

2 Substrates are held in active site by weak interactions.

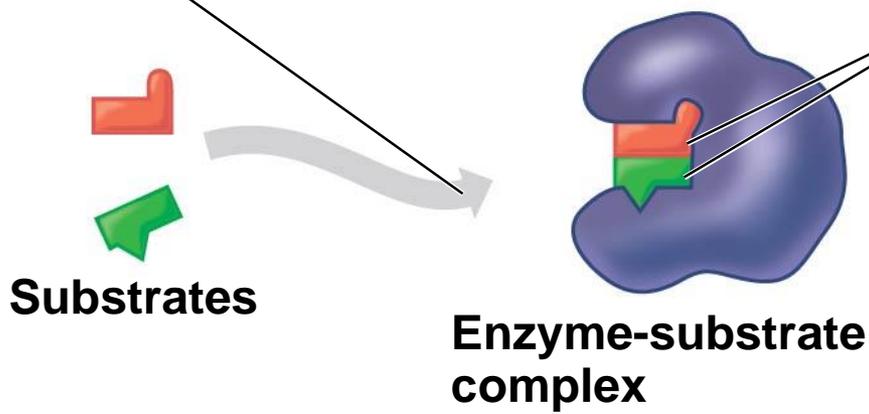
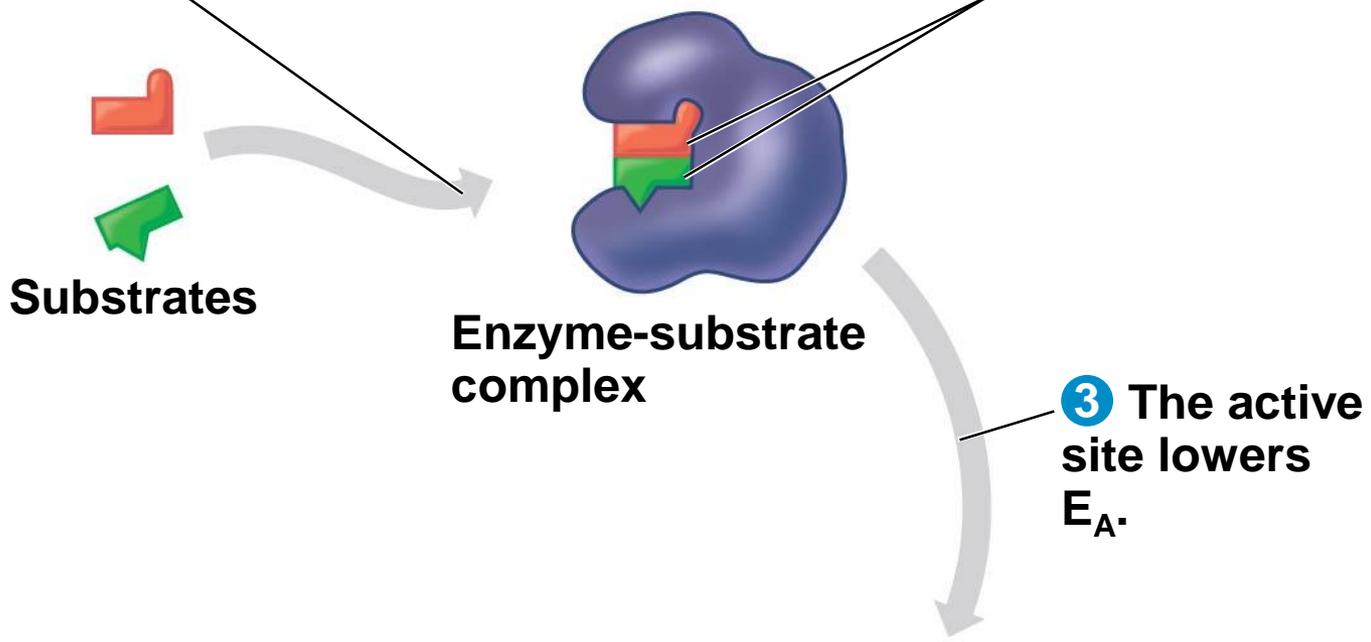


Figure 6.16_2

1 Substrates enter active site.

2 Substrates are held in active site by weak interactions.

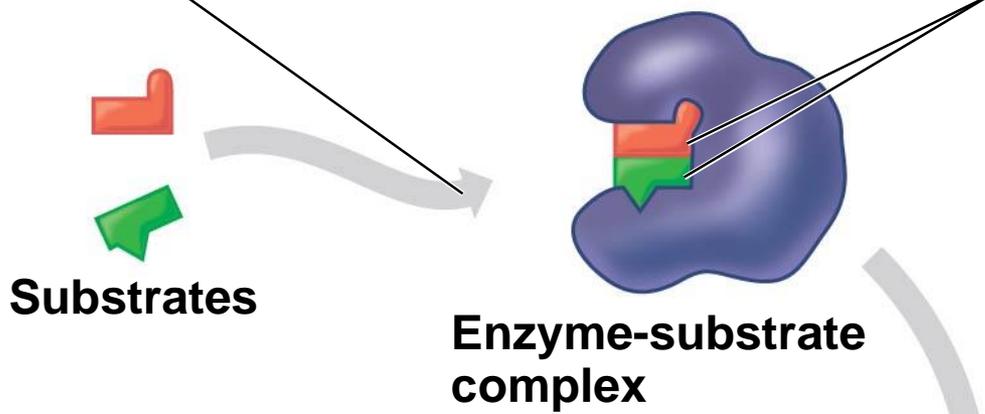


3 The active site lowers E_A .

Figure 6.16_3

1 Substrates enter active site.

2 Substrates are held in active site by weak interactions.



3 The active site lowers E_A .

4 Substrates are converted to products.

5 Products are released.

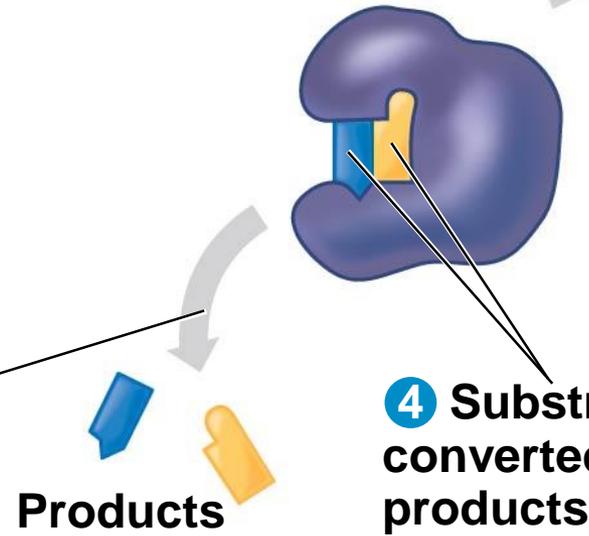
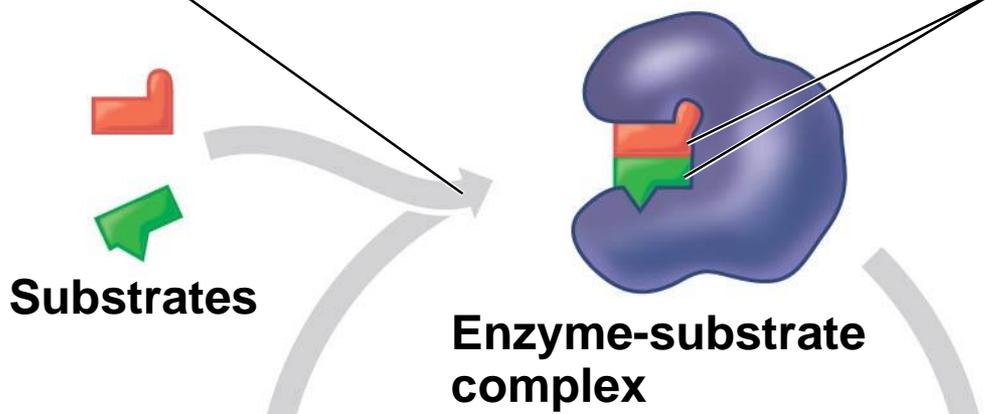


Figure 6.16_4

1 Substrates enter active site.

2 Substrates are held in active site by weak interactions.

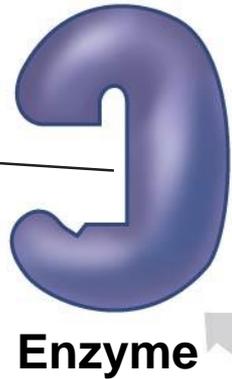


Substrates

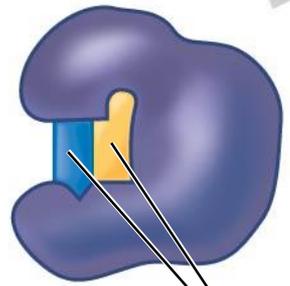
Enzyme-substrate complex

3 The active site lowers E_A .

6 Active site is available for new substrates.



Enzyme



4 Substrates are converted to products.

5 Products are released.



Products

- The active site can lower an E_A barrier by
 - orienting substrates correctly
 - straining substrate bonds
 - providing a favorable microenvironment
 - covalently bonding to the substrate

- The rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction can be sped up by increasing substrate concentration
- When all enzyme molecules have their active sites engaged, the enzyme is saturated
- If the enzyme is saturated, the reaction rate can only be sped up by adding more enzyme

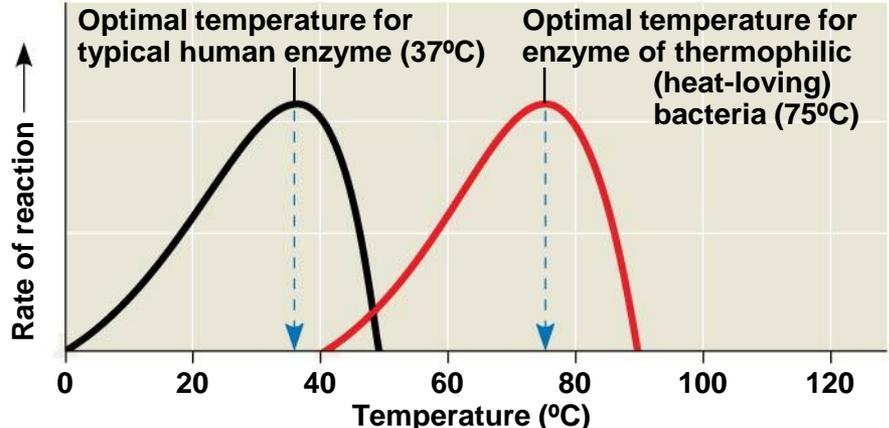
Effects of Local Conditions on Enzyme Activity

- An enzyme's activity can be affected by
 - general environmental factors, such as temperature and pH
 - chemicals that specifically influence the enzyme

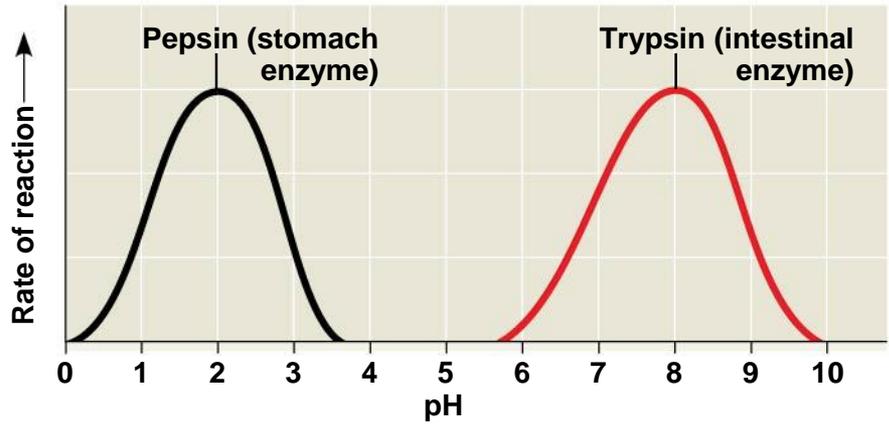
Effects of Temperature and pH

- Each enzyme has an optimal temperature in which it can function
- Each enzyme has an optimal pH in which it can function
- Optimal conditions favor the most active shape for the enzyme molecule

Figure 6.17



(a) Optimal temperature for two enzymes

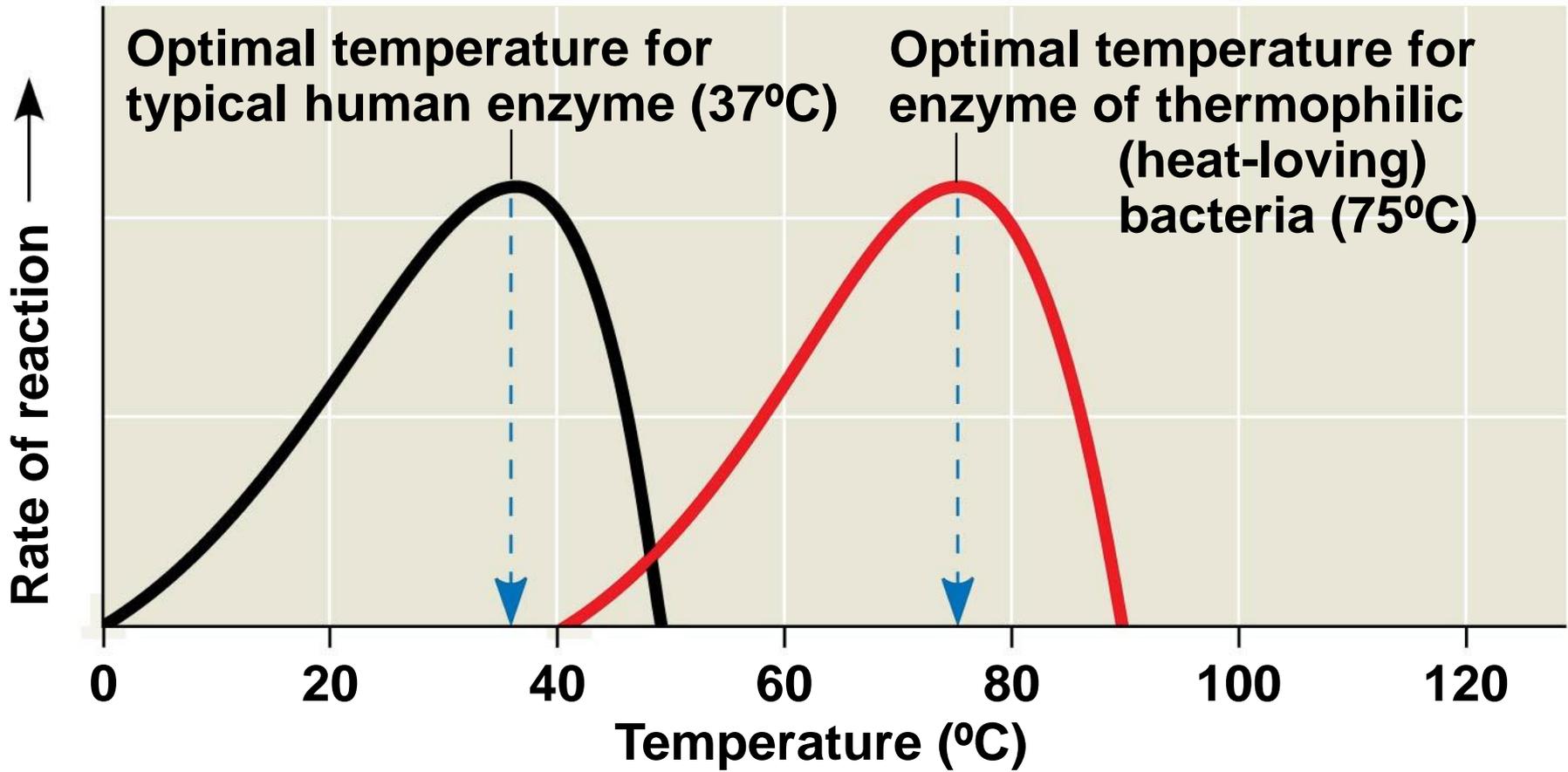


(b) Optimal pH for two enzymes

Figure 6.17a

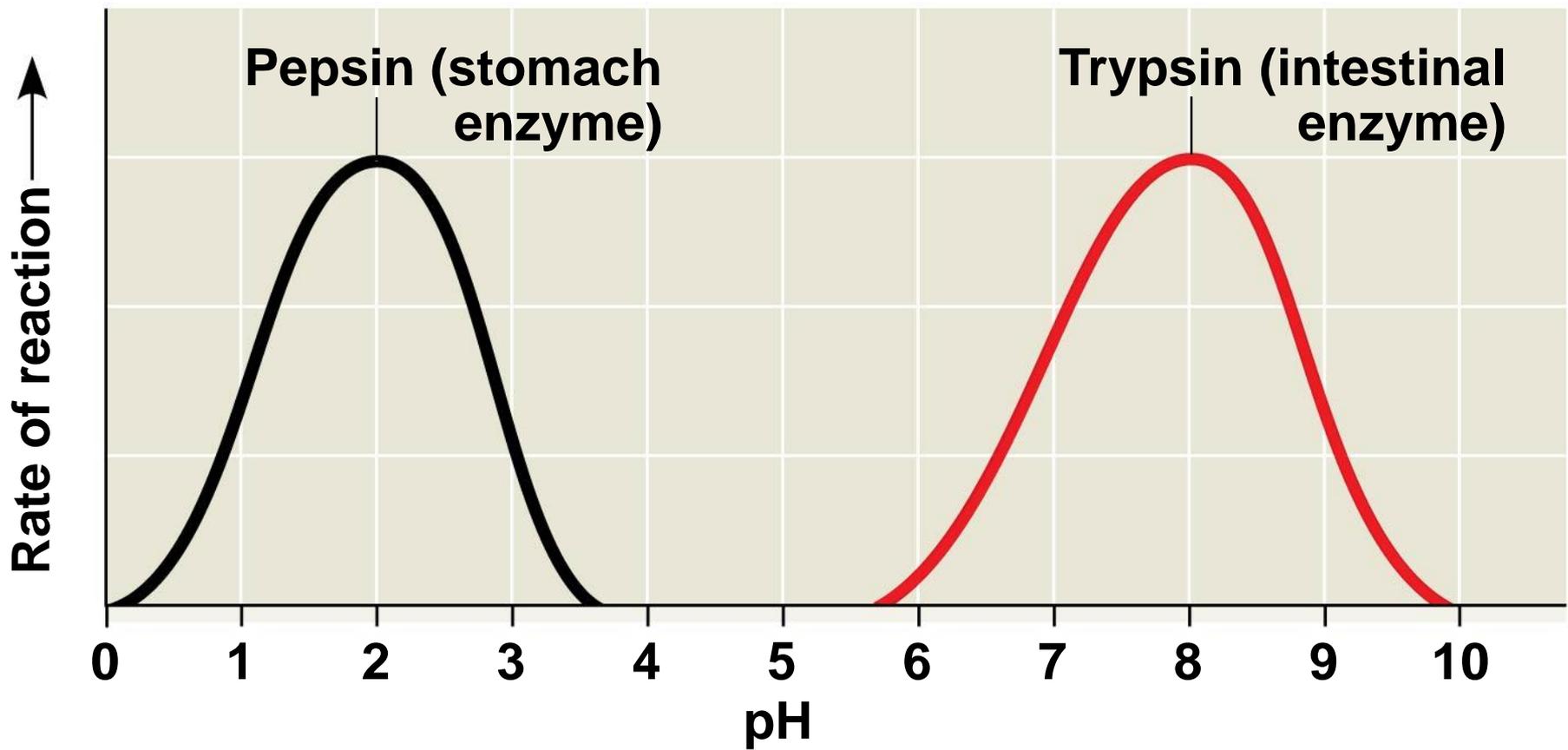


Figure 6.17b



(a) Optimal temperature for two enzymes

Figure 6.17c



(b) Optimal pH for two enzymes

Cofactors

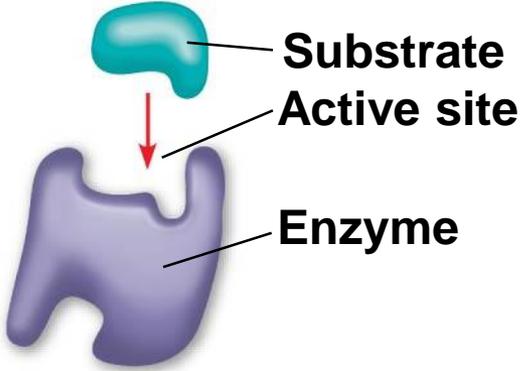
- **Cofactors** are nonprotein enzyme helpers
- Cofactors may be inorganic (such as a metal in ionic form) or organic
- An organic cofactor is called a **coenzyme**
- Coenzymes include vitamins

Enzyme Inhibitors

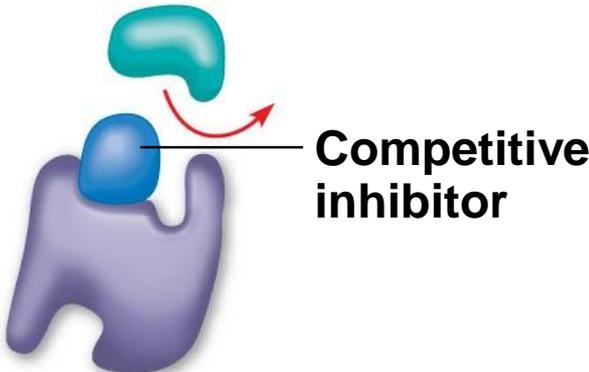
- **Competitive inhibitors** bind to the active site of an enzyme, competing with the substrate
- **Noncompetitive inhibitors** bind to another part of an enzyme, causing the enzyme to change shape and making the active site less effective
- Some examples of inhibitors are toxins, poisons, pesticides, and antibiotics

Figure 6.18

(a) Normal binding



(b) Competitive inhibition



(c) Noncompetitive inhibition



The Evolution of Enzymes

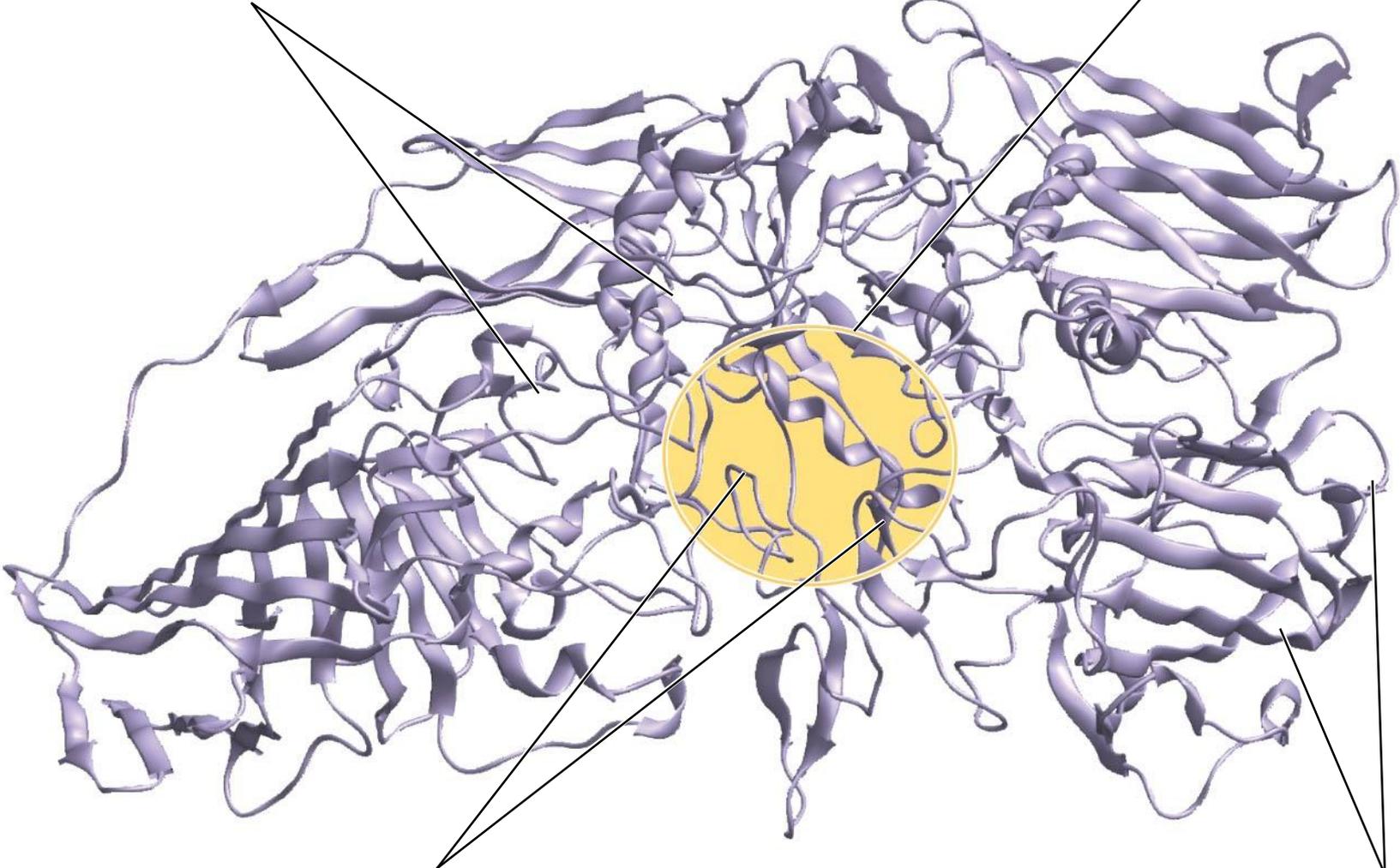
- Enzymes are proteins encoded by genes
- Changes (mutations) in genes lead to changes in amino acid composition of an enzyme
- Altered amino acids, particularly at the active site, can result in novel enzyme activity or altered substrate specificity

- Under environmental conditions where the new function is beneficial, natural selection would favor the mutated allele
 - For example, repeated mutation and selection on the β -galactosidase enzyme in *E. coli* resulted in a change of sugar substrate under lab conditions

Figure 6.19

Two changed amino acids were found near the active site.

Active site



Two changed amino acids were found in the active site.

Two changed amino acids were found on the surface.

Concept 6.5: Regulation of enzyme activity helps control metabolism

- Chemical chaos would result if a cell's metabolic pathways were not tightly regulated
- A cell does this by switching on or off the genes that encode specific enzymes or by regulating the activity of enzymes

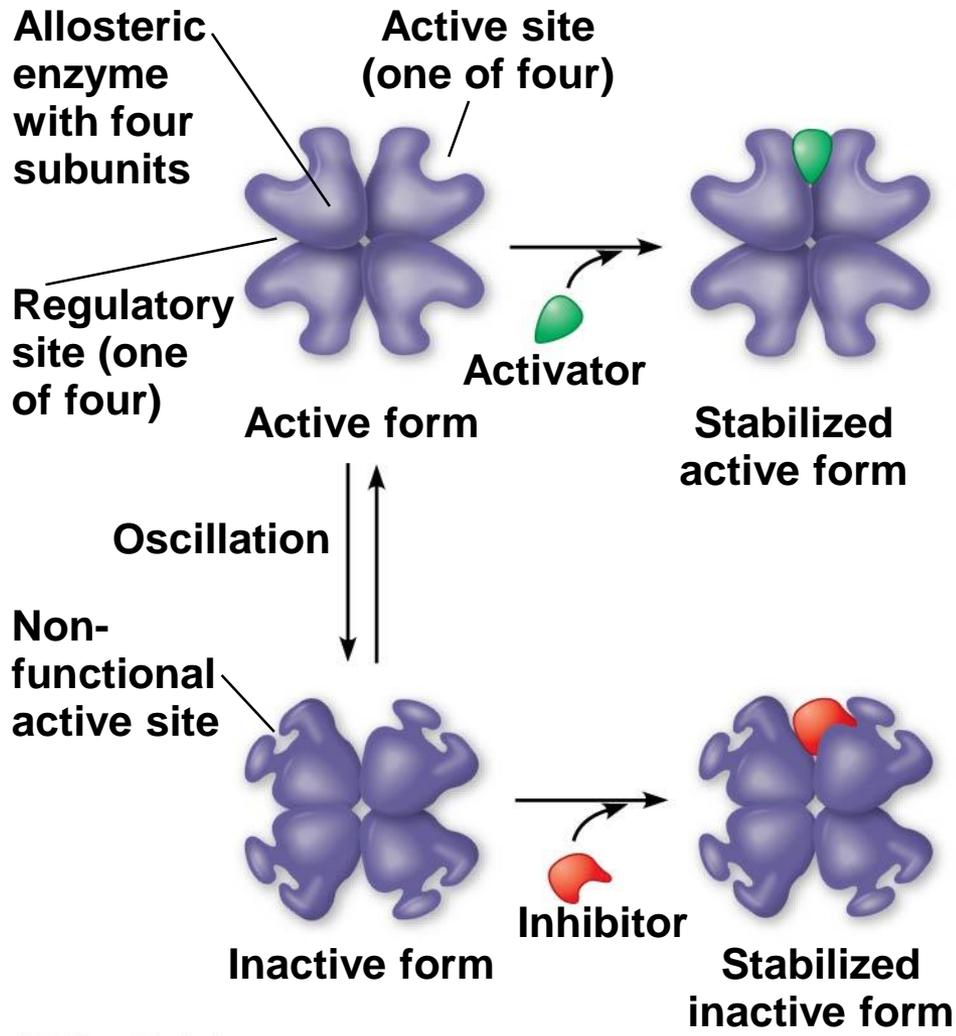
Allosteric Regulation of Enzymes

- **Allosteric regulation** may either inhibit or stimulate an enzyme's activity
- Allosteric regulation occurs when a regulatory molecule binds to a protein at one site and affects the protein's function at another site

Allosteric Activation and Inhibition

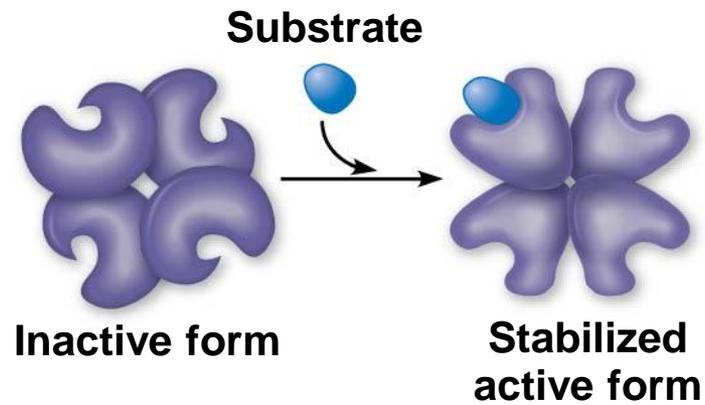
- Most allosterically regulated enzymes are made from polypeptide subunits, each with its own active site
- The enzyme complex has active and inactive forms
- The binding of an activator stabilizes the active form of the enzyme
- The binding of an inhibitor stabilizes the inactive form of the enzyme

(a) Allosteric activators and inhibitors



- **Cooperativity** is a form of allosteric regulation that can amplify enzyme activity
- One substrate molecule primes an enzyme to act on additional substrate molecules more readily
- Cooperativity is allosteric because binding by a substrate to one active site affects catalysis in a different active site

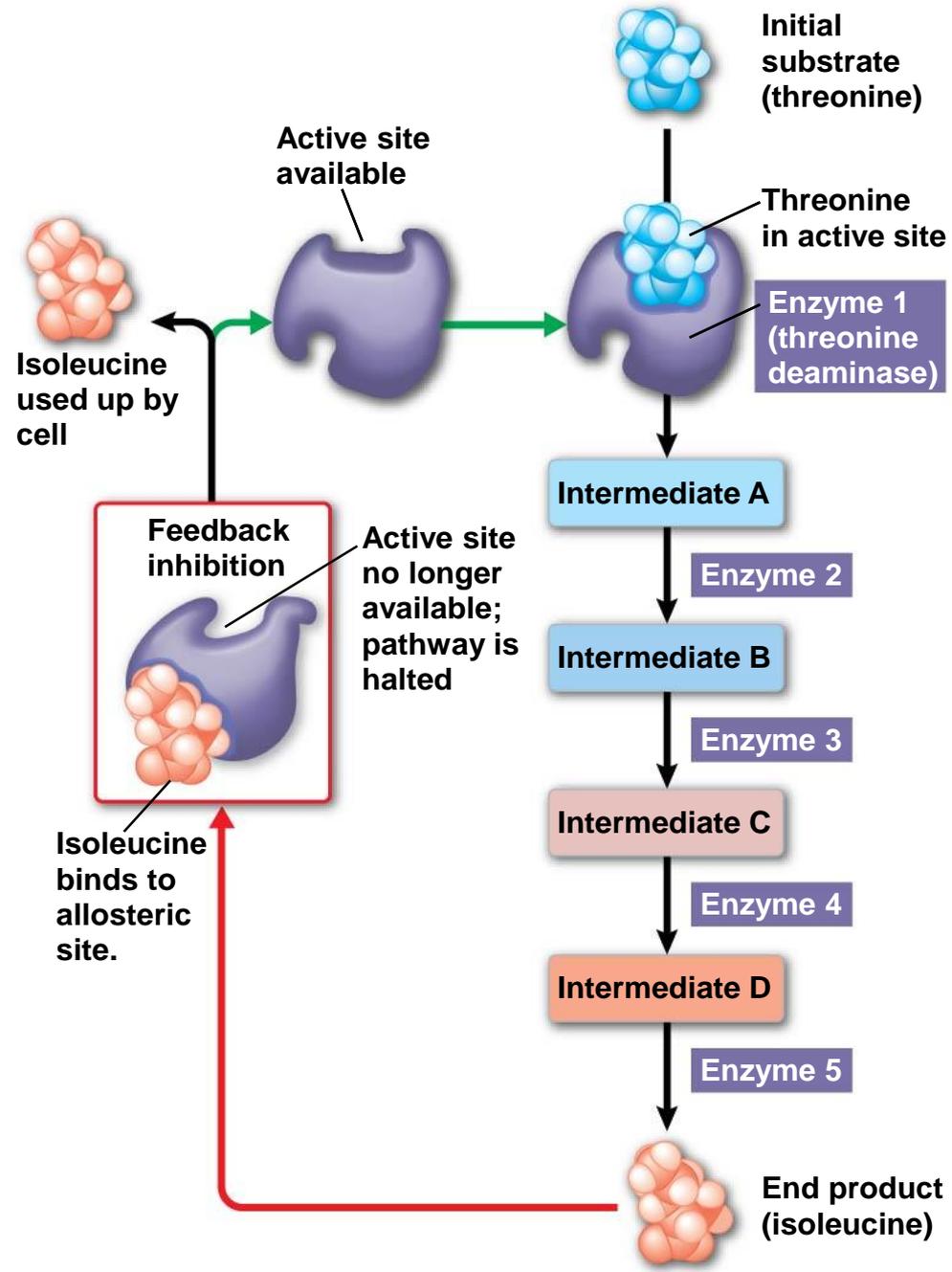
(b) Cooperativity: another type of allosteric activation



Feedback Inhibition

- In **feedback inhibition**, the end product of a metabolic pathway shuts down the pathway
- Feedback inhibition prevents a cell from wasting chemical resources by synthesizing more product than is needed

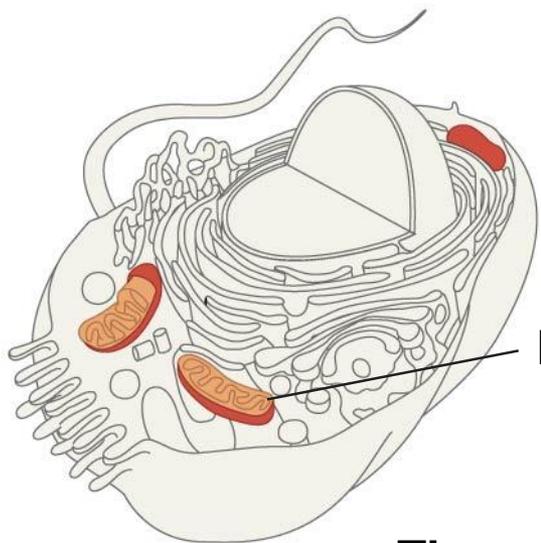
Figure 6.21



Localization of Enzymes Within the Cell

- Structures within the cell help bring order to metabolic pathways
- Some enzymes act as structural components of membranes
- In eukaryotic cells, some enzymes reside in specific organelles; for example, enzymes for cellular respiration are located in mitochondria

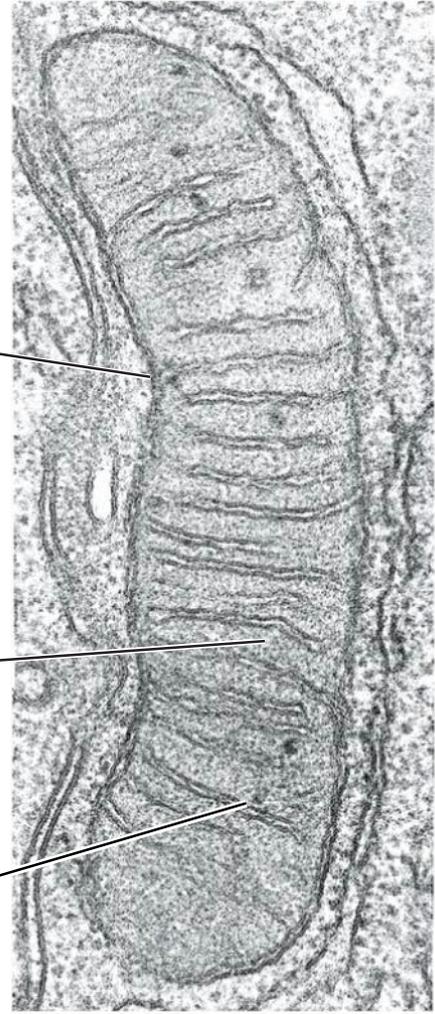
Figure 6.22



Mitochondrion

The matrix contains enzymes in solution that are involved in the second stage of cellular respiration.

Enzymes for the third stage of cellular respiration are embedded in the inner membrane.



1 μm

Figure 6.22a

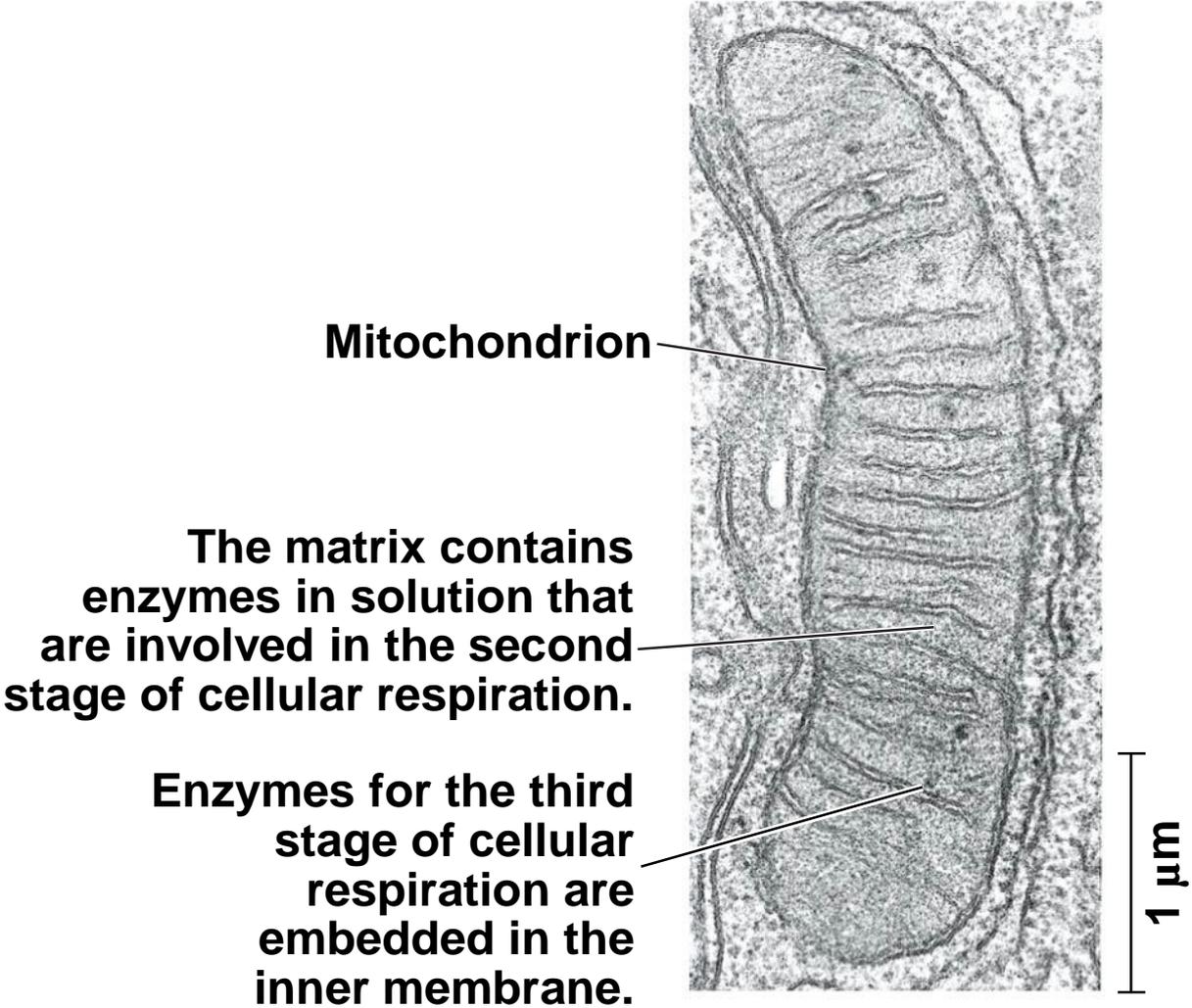


Figure 6.UN03a

Time (min)	Concentration of P_i ($\mu\text{mol/mL}$)
0	0
5	10
10	90
15	180
20	270
25	330
30	355
35	355
40	355

Data from S. R. Commerford et al., Diets enriched in sucrose or fat increase gluconeogenesis and G-6-Pase but not basal glucose production in rats, *American Journal of Physiology - Endocrinology and Metabolism* 283:E545–E555 (2002).

Figure 6.UN03b

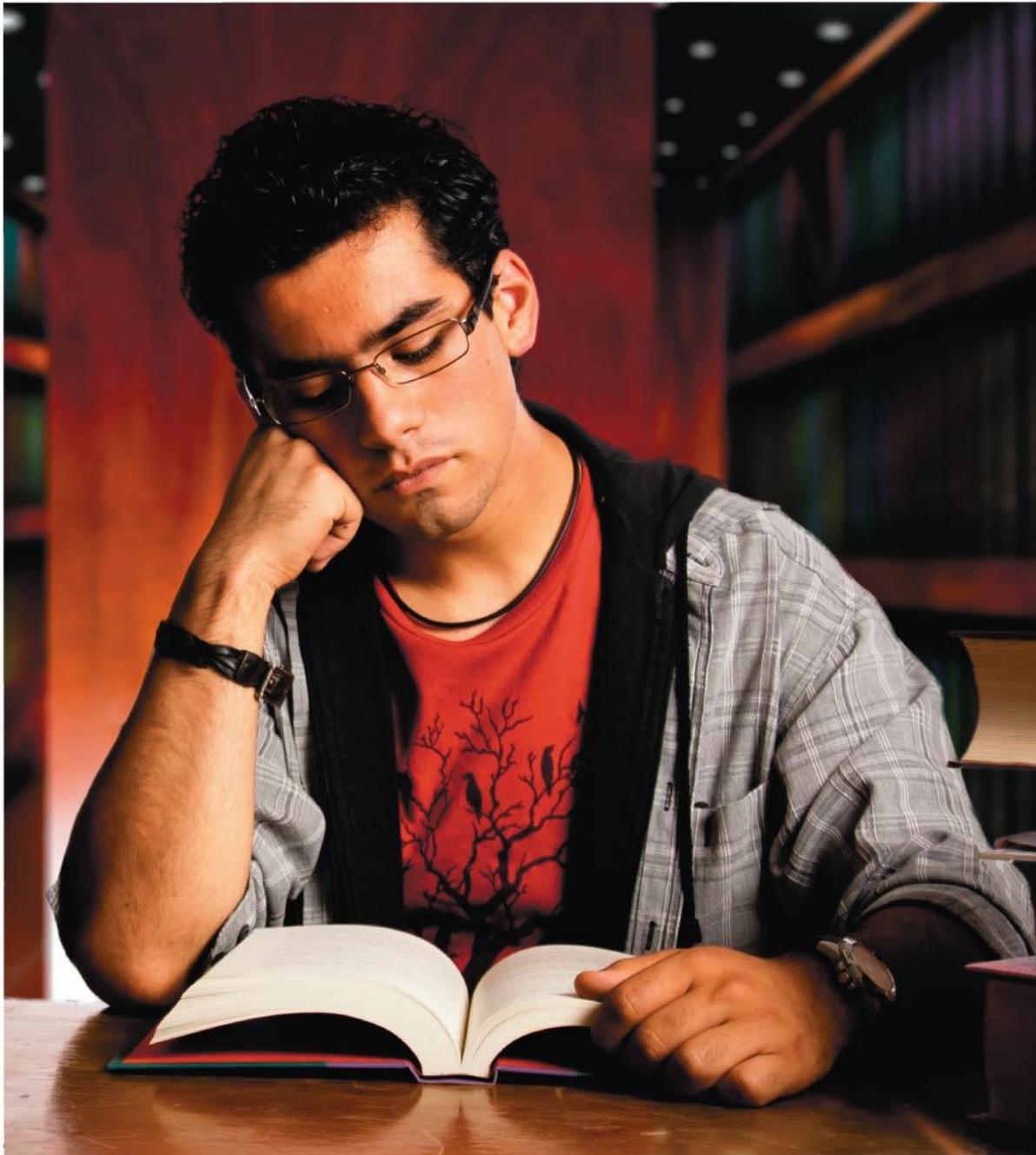


Figure 6.UN04

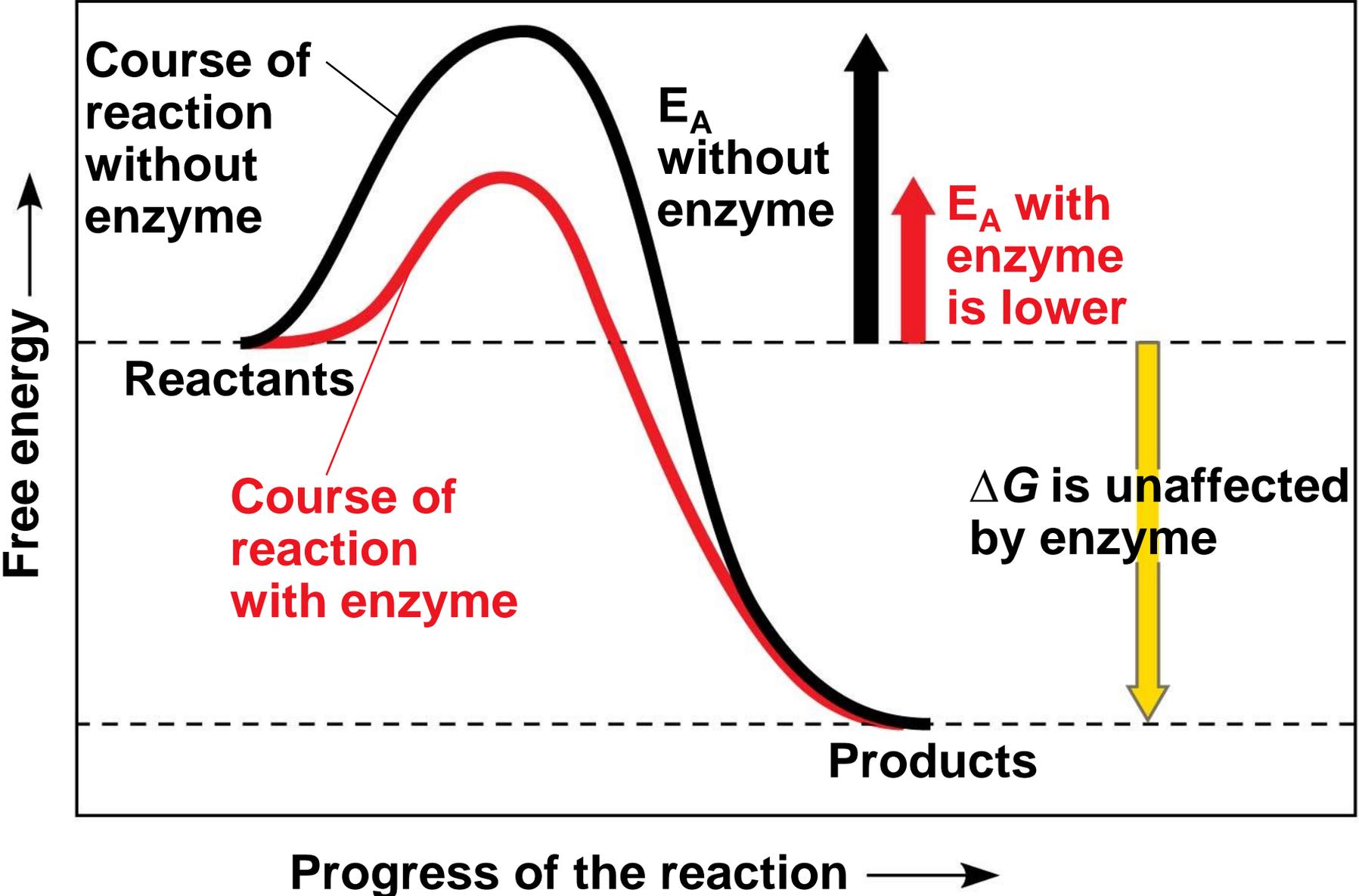


Figure 6.UN05

