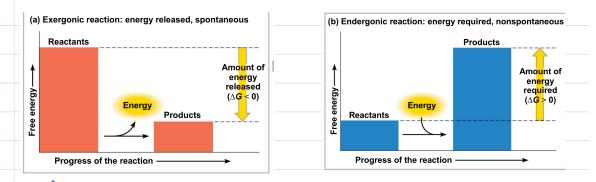
Energy & life CH-6 universe = system + surroundings Gibbs defined a very useful function called Gibbs free energy of system without considering its surroundings. free energy is the portion of energy that can perform work when temperature & pressure are uniform throughout the system. (measure of a system's stability AG=AH-TAS change in entropy (Sf-Si) k = c +273 Change Free energy in enhalpy Change (Total energy) depends on pli, tempreture, consentration of reactants & products 🖕 🛆 G 🗳 negative 🚄 spontaneous 🚗 🛛 🗚 must be negative the system gives up Enthalpy and H decreases or TAS must be positive the system gives up order and S increase) process involves loss of energy more stables because it has less free energy The released free energy can be hardnessed to do work

chemical	Equiliprium
	proceed to a point at which the forward and
	backward reactions on the same rate
	As a reaction proceeds toward equilibrium the
	mixture of reactants and products decreases
	G is at its lowest possible value
	A cell that has reached metabolic
	equilibrium is dead

Chemical reactions(based on their free energy changes) classified into exergonic reaction (energy outward) occur spontaneously endorgonic (energy inward),



ex for exergonic reaction C6H12O6 + 6O2 → 6CO2 + 6H2D AG= - 686 Kcal/mol - -2870 KJ/mol

The reverse of process of cellular respiration must be endergonic with

 $\Delta G = +686$  Kcal/mol

## Concept. 6.3

A cell does three main kinds of work:-

*Chemical work* : The pushing of endergonic reactions that would not occur spontaneously such as synthesis polymers from monomers

Transport work: the pumping of substances across membranes agonist the direction of spontaneous movement

*Mechanical work* : such as beating in cillia , the contraction of muscle cells, the movement of chromosomes during cellular reproduction.

Energy Coupling -- The use of an exergonic process to drive an endergonic one.

 It is the key feature in the way cells manage their energy resources to do this work

• ATP is responsible for mediating most energy coupling in cells.

 $A \uparrow P \rightarrow$  contains suger ribose, nitrogenous base (adenine ) and chain of phosphate groups (the triphosphate group)

the bond between groups ATP can be broken By hydrolysis ATP one of the nucleoside triphosphates used to make RNA

ATP \_\_\_ P + ADP \$ AG = -7.3 Keal/mol = -30.5 kJ/mol (under standared condition) when ATP hydrolysis occurs under cellular conditions the actual SG is about -13 Kcal Imol. = 78%, greater than ... p: abbreviation for in organic phosphate (HOPO\_) the relase of energy during the hydrolysis of Atp comes from the chemical change of the system to a state lower free energy (ADP+P) not from the phosphate bonds themselves. (a) The structure of ATP. In the cell, most hydroxyl groups of  $\mathbb{P}_{i}$ Inorganic phosphate Adenosine diphosphate (ADP) (b) The hydrolysis of ATP. The reaction of ATP and water yields inorganic phosphate  $(\underline{\mathbb{P}}_i)$  and ADP and releases energy. Cytoskeletal track Transport protein Solute 0/0 ADP + (P) ADP + P ► (P) Solute transported Motor protein Protein and vesicle moved (a) Transport work: ATP phosphorylates transport proteins, causing (b) Mechanical work: ATP binds noncovalently to motor proteins and then is hydrolyzed, causing a shape change that walks the motor protein forward. shape change that allows transport of solutes

phosphorylation: The transfer of phosphate group from ATP to some other molecule such as reactant.

Glu + 1 -

Glu + ATP -

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

+  $\Delta G_{ATP} = -7.3 \text{ kcal/mol}$ Net  $\Delta G = -3.9 \text{ kcal/mol}$ 

Glu

Glutamic acid Ammonia

The 'molecule recipient with the phosphate group covalently bonded to it is then called phosphorylated intermediate which is the key for coupling exergonic & endergonic reactions

→ Glu NH<sub>2</sub>

Glutamir

ΔGATE

Phosphorylatec intermediate

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

1 + ATP

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

Glu + ADP + P

Glutamine

+ ADP + 🕑

(a) Glutamic acid conversion to glutamine. Glutamine synthesis from glutamic acid (Glu) by itself is endergonic (ΔG is positive), so it is not spontaneous.

(b) Conversion reaction coupled with ATP hydrolysis. In the cell, glutamine synthesis occurs in two steps, coupled by a phosphorylated intermediate (Glu- PD). ① ATP phosphorylates glutamic acid, making it less stable, with more free energy. ② Ammonia displaces the phosphate group, forming glutamine. Glutamic acid

(c) Free-energy change for coupled reaction. ΔG for the glutamic acid conversion to glutamine (+3.4 kad/mol) plus ΔG for ATP hydrolysis (-7.3 kad/mol) gives the free-energy change for the overall reaction (-3.9 kcal/mol). Because the overall process is exergonic (net ΔG is negative), it occurs spontaneously.

▼ Figure 6.12 The ATP cycle. Energy released by breakdown reactions (catabolism) in the cell is used to phosphorylate ADP, regenerating ATP. Chemical potential energy stored in ATP drives most cellular work.

ATP hydrolysis **ATP** synthesis ATP + from ADP + P to ADP + (P) yields energy. Energy from Energy for cellular catabolism (exergonie work (endergonic, ADP + P energy-releasing energy-consuming processes) processes) Mastering Biology Animation: Metabolism Overview

IF ATP could not be regenerated by The phosphorylation of ADP humans would use up nearly their body weight in ATP each day

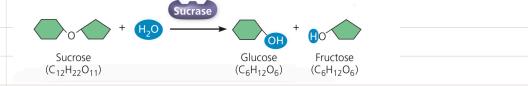
 $ADP + P: \rightarrow ATP + H_{2}O$ 

AG = +7.3 Kcal/mol (+30.5 kg/mol) cellular respiration provide the energy for the endergonic process of making ATP The release of Energy during the hydrolysis of ATP comes from the chemical change of the system to a state of lower file energy, not from the phosphate

## Concept 6.4

Enzymes speed up metabolic reactions by lowering energy barriers.

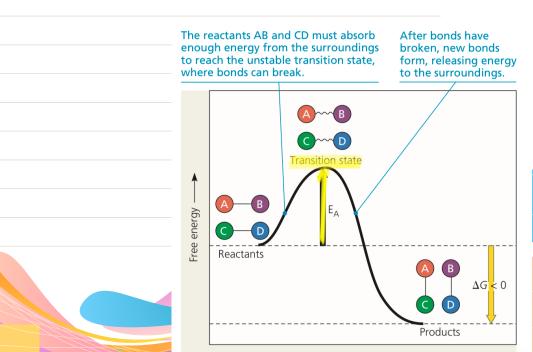
hydrolysis of sucrose is exergonic occuring spontaneously with a release of free energy  $\Delta G = -7 \text{ kcal/mol}$ .



enzyme is a macromolecule that acts as a catalyst most of enzymes are proteins (some RNA molecules called ribozymes)

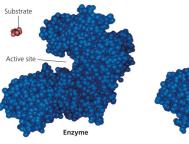
changing one molecule into another generally involves contorting the starting molecule into a highly unstable state before the reaction can proceed [transetion state ]

the initial investment of energy for starting a reaction the energy required to contort the reactant molecules so the bonds can be break is known as the free energy of activation or activation energy EA The amount of energy needed to push the reactants to the top of an energy barrier



Secouse: 1)high temperature	re denatures proteins & kill cells
2)heat would speed	d up all reactions not just those that are needed
Instead of heat, organisms ca	arry out catalysis. by lowering the EA barrier
	e delta G, it can not make an endergonic ely hasten reactions that would eventually
	Course of reaction without enzyme E <sub>A</sub> without enzyme is lower
	Reactants Course of $\Delta G$ is unaffected by enzyme with enzyme
	Products Progress of the reaction
substrate; The reactant an substrate complex: The enzy sustrates	
The reaction catalyzed by eac very specific	ch Enzyme is
he specificity of an enzyme r	results from its shape
he specificity of an enzyme r hich is a result of amino acid active site is typically a pock	ds

Figure 6.15 Induced fit between an enzyme and its substrate.



(a) In this space-filling model of the enzyme hexokinase (blue), the active site forms a groove on the surface. The enzyme's substrate is glucose (red). (b) When the substrate enters the active site, it forms weak bonds with the enzyme, inducing a change in the shape of the protein. This change allows additional weak bonds to form, causing the active site to enfold the substrate and hold it in place.

The substrate is held in the active site by weak interactions such as hydrogen bonds and ionic bond.

Most metabolic reactions are reversible and an enzyme can catalyze either the forward or the reverse reactions.

Enzymes use variety of mechanisms that lower activation energy and speed up a reaction.

proper orientation

• stretch the substrate molecedes toward

their transition state form

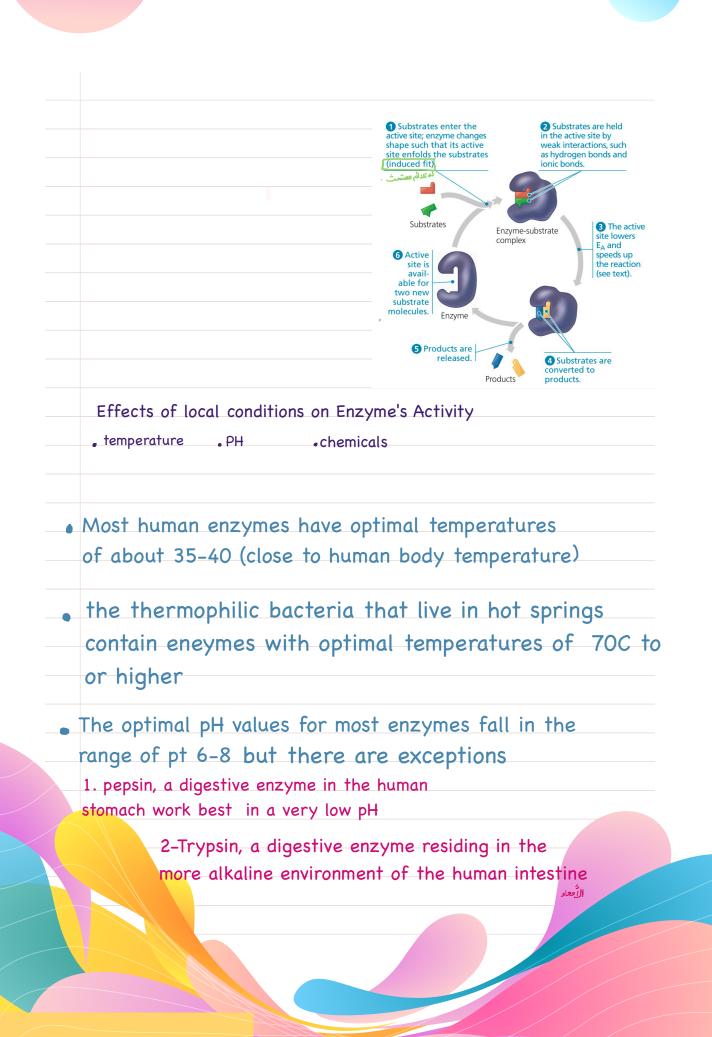
provide a microenvironment that is more

conducive to a certain reaction

Amino acids in the active site participate in the chemical reaction

The rate in which a particular amount of enzyme converts substrate to product is partly a function of the initial concentration of substrate but there is a limit to how fast reaction can be

> when it reach saturation state the only way to increase the speed is to increase the number of enzymes.mm

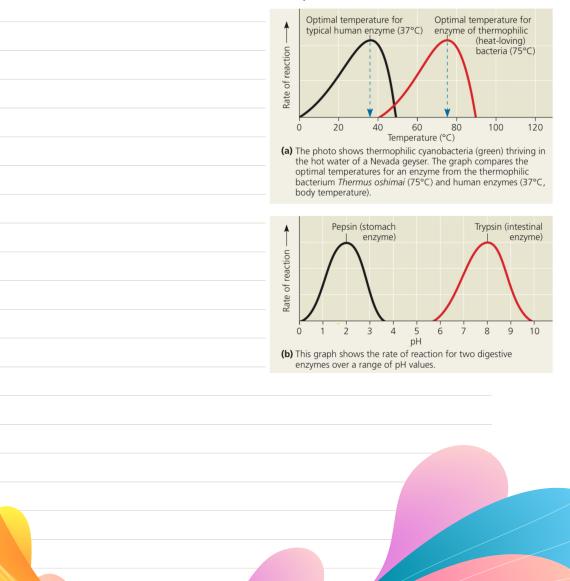


### cofactors

non-protein helpers for catalytic activity often to chemical process like electron transfers that can not easily be carried out by the amino acid

Maybe bond tightly to the enzyme as permanent residents or may bind loosely and reversible along with the substrate

inorganic such as metal atoms zinc iron and copper in ionic form
organic molecule coenzyme-Most vitamins are important in nutrition



Enzyme	Inhibitors	
--------	------------	--

•The inhibitor attaches to the enzyme by covalent bonds in which case the inhibition is usually irreversible

Many inhibitors bind to the enzyme by weak interactions the inhibition is reversible

## competitivenon-competitivethey resemble the shape of<br/>the normal substrate..the shape does not matter,<br/>they don't bind to the<br/>active site instead, they<br/>bind to another sites on<br/>the enzyme (change in

Example

Figure 6.18 Inhibition of enzyme activity.

Toxins & poisons, Irreversible enzyme
 Inhibitors.

# (a) Normal binding Substrate an binding A substrate can bind normally to the active site of an enzyme. Substrate an enzyme. Competitive inhibition A competitive inhibition A competitive inhibition A competitive site. Competitive inhibition A competitive site. Competitive inhibitor Competitive inhibition Competitive inhibition</

sarin (nerve gas) binds covalently to the R group on the amino acid serine which found in the active site the (acetylcholinesterase)
pesticides DDT & parathion
Antibiotics (inhibitors of specific ienzymes in bacteria)

3D structure.)

 penicillin blocks the active site of an enzyme that many bacteria ase use to make cell wall

Noncompetitive inhibitor

Enzyme Inhibitores are not alwages abnormal & harmful molecules often regulate enzyme's aactivityby acting as inhibitors like cellular metabolism

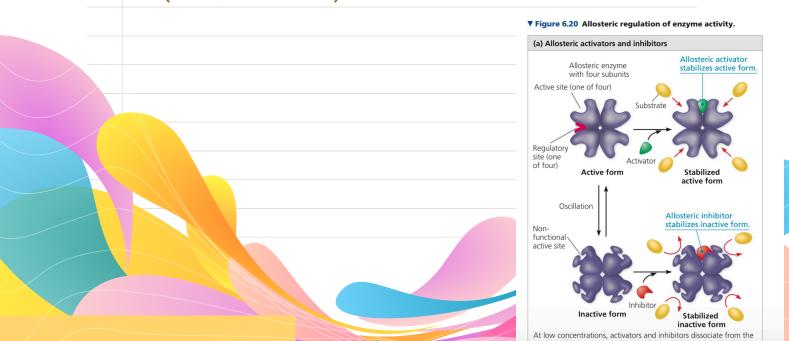
## Concept 6.5

Conrolling when & where its various enzymes are active by 1) switching on and off the genes that encode specific enzymes 2)regulating the activity of enzymes once they are made

o molecules that regulate enzyme activity behaves like reversible non-competitive inhibitors.

Allosteric regulation: describe any case in which a protein's function at one site is affected by the binding of a regulatory molecule to separates site. It may result in either inhibition or stimulation of enzyme activity

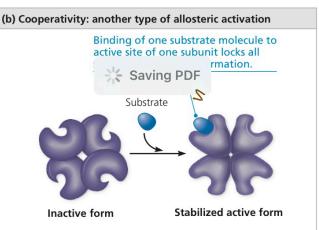
Ex. ATP binds to several catabolic enzymes allosrtrically
 lowering their affinity for substrate and thus inhibiting their activity
 ADP (function as activator)



Coperativity : this machanism amplifies response of enzymes to substrates . one substrate molecule primes an enzyme to act on additional supbstartes molecules more rabidly

Ex. Hemoglobin

have elucidated the principle of cooperativity. Hemoglobin is made up of four subunits, each with an  $O_2$ -binding site (see Figure 5.18). The binding of an  $O_2$  to one binding site increases the affinity for  $O_2$  of the remaining binding sites. Thus, where  $O_2$  is at a high level, such as in the lungs or gills, hemoglobin's affinity for  $O_2$  increases as more binding sites are filled. In  $O_2$ -deprived tissues, however, the release of each  $O_2$  molecule decreases the  $O_2$  affinity of the other binding sites, resulting in the release of  $O_2$  where it is most needed. Cooperativity works similarly in multisubunit enzymes that have been studied.



The inactive form shown on the left oscillates with the active form when the active form is not stabilized by substrate.

