

ENERGY METABOLISM

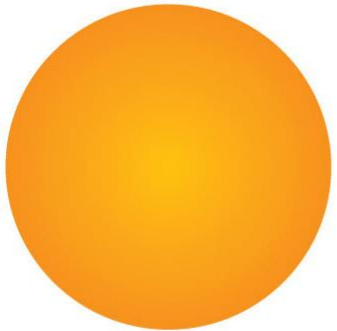
Lecture 1

Living cells and organisms must perform work to stay alive, to grow, and to reproduce

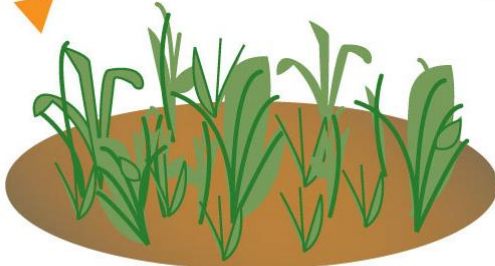
they require energy for

- maintaining their highly organized structures;**
- synthesizing cellular components,**
- generation of a concentration and electrical gradients**
- motion, heat production and many other processes.**

Bioenergetics is the quantitative study of energy relationships and energy conversions in biological systems

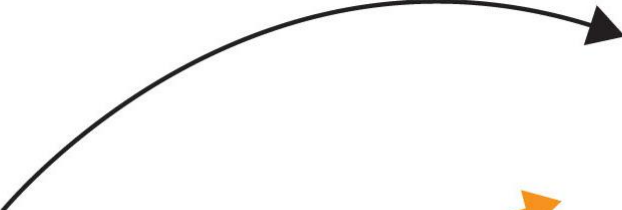


Solar energy



Plants use solar energy to produce carbohydrates, fats, and proteins

O_2 is required by animals to obtain energy from food



Chemical energy

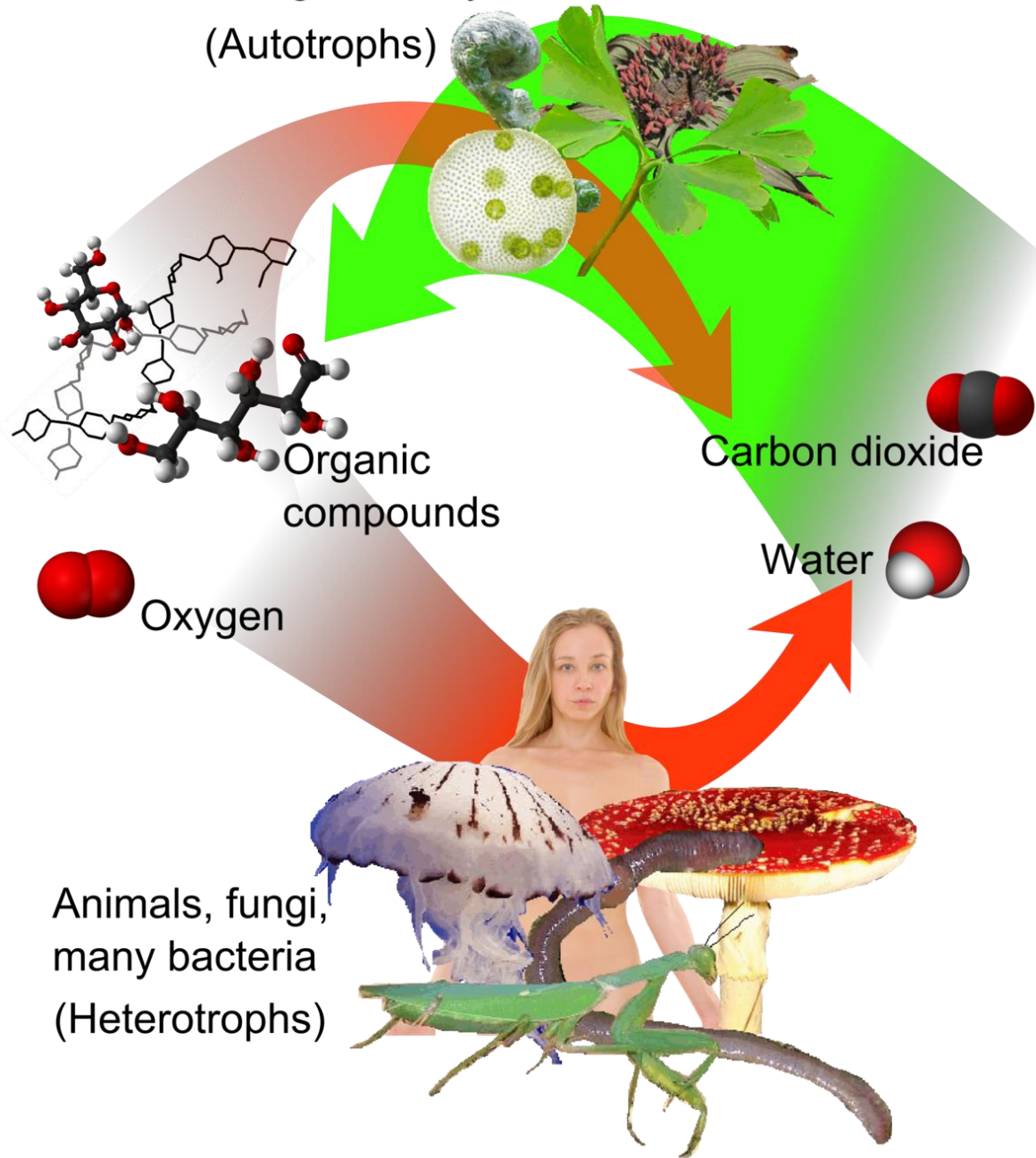


Animals obtain energy from the carbohydrates, fats, and proteins in plants

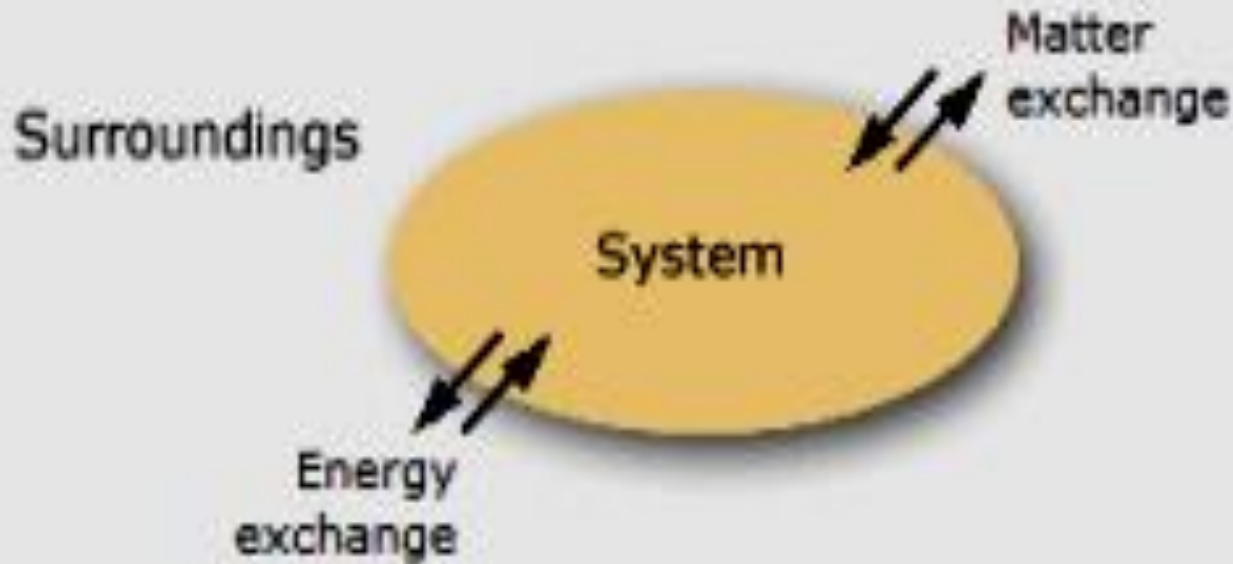
CO_2 is required by plants to form carbohydrates



Plants, algae, many bacteria
(Autotrophs)

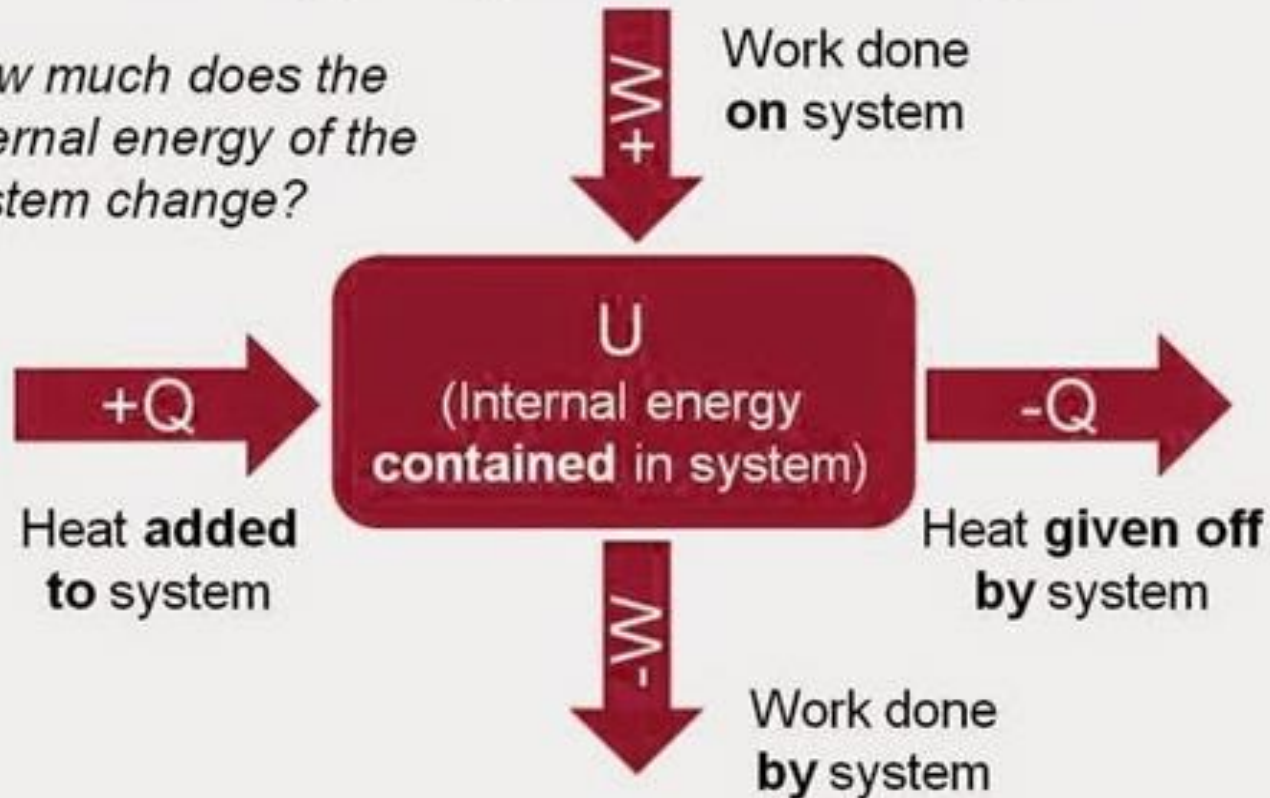


Living cells and organism are open systems exchanging both material and energy with their surroundings



Energy Inputs and Outputs

How much does the internal energy of the system change?



The change in internal energy of a system is equal to the heat added to the system minus the work done by the system.

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

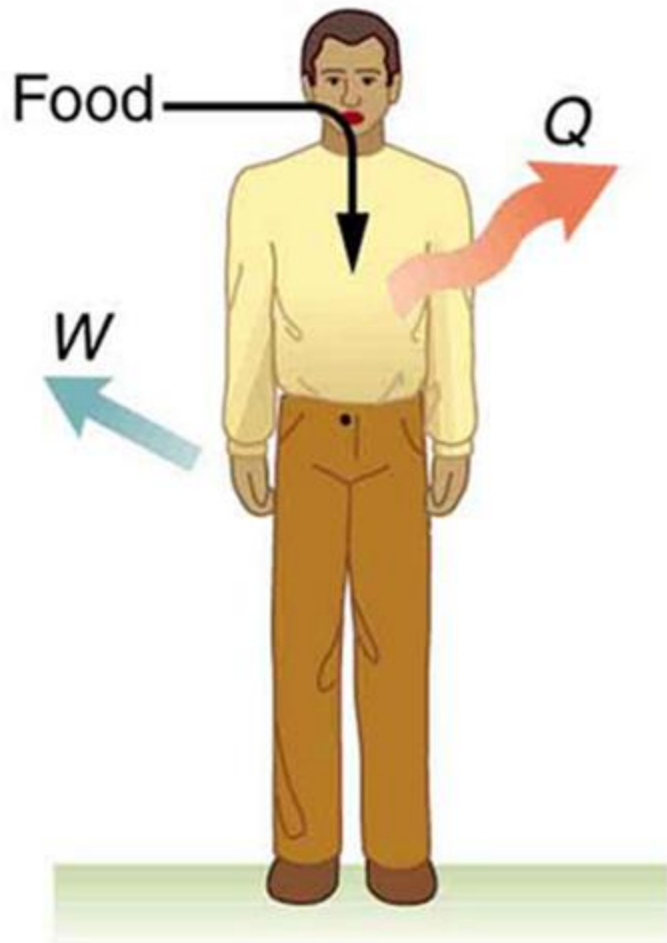
Change in
internal
energy

Heat added
to the system

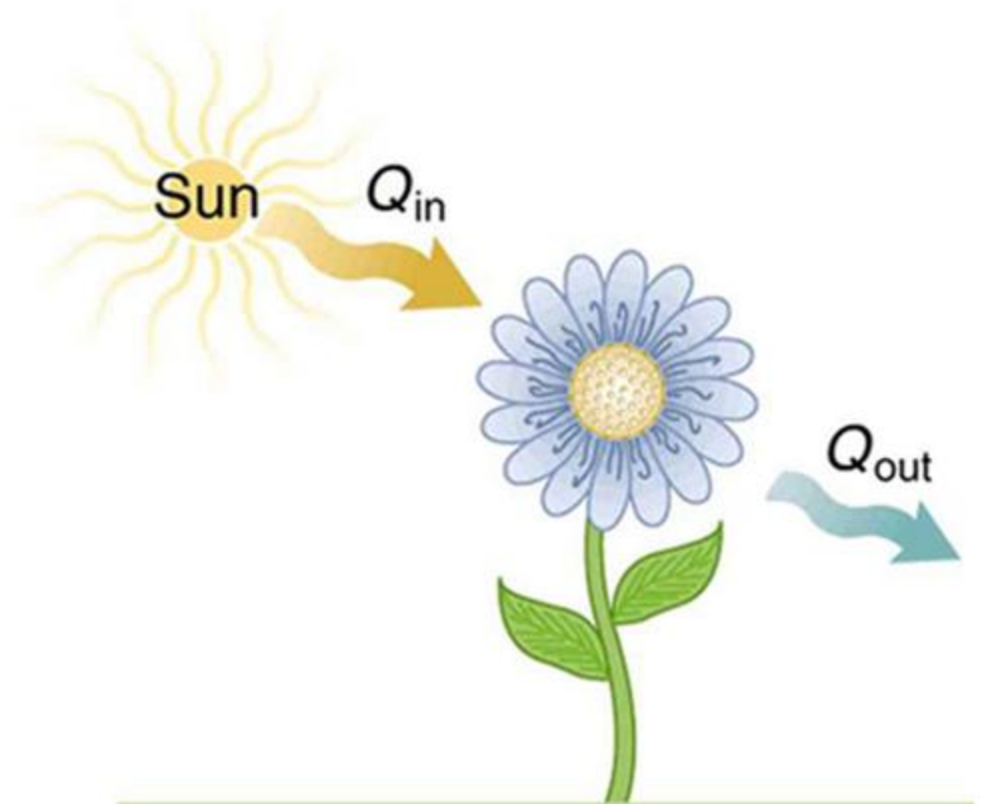
Work done
by the system

$$\Delta U = -Q - W + \text{food energy}$$

$$\Delta U = \text{stored food energy}$$



(a)



(b)

The energy changes occurring in a chemical reaction are described by three thermodynamic quantities

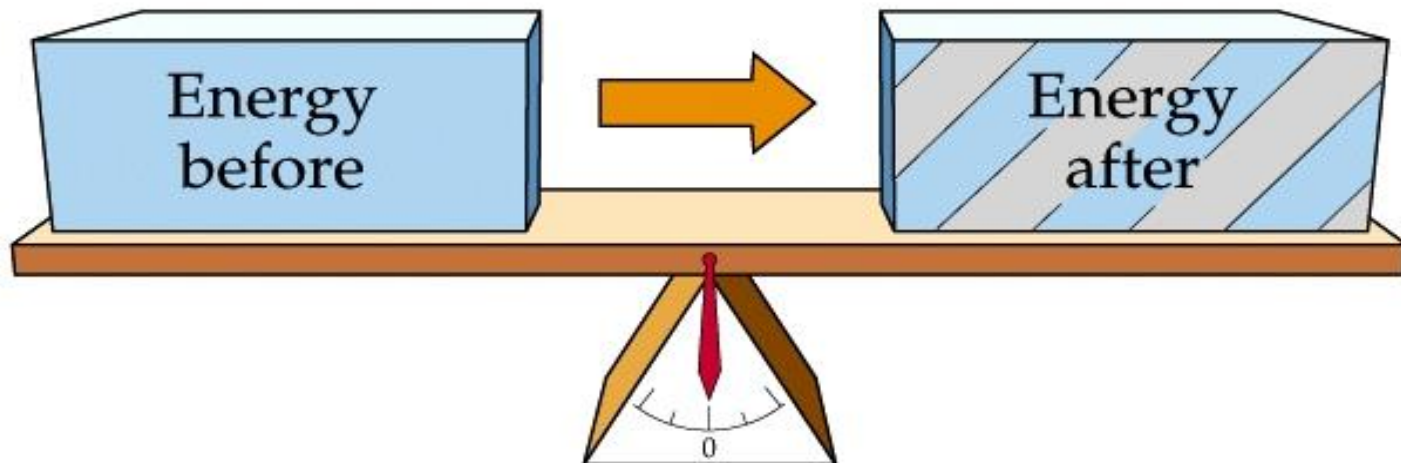
- Gibbs' free energy, (ΔG), expresses the amount of energy which **can be used to perform work** at the constant temperature and pressure.
- Enthalpy (ΔH), is the **total energy** (or heat content) which may be available from any system, or molecule, or chemical reaction.
- Entropy, (ΔS), is a quantitative expression for disorder in a system

The portion of energy which **cannot be converted to work** is called **bound energy** ($T\Delta S$)

**Biological energy transformations obey
the laws of thermodynamics.**

The first law is **the principle of the conservation of energy**:

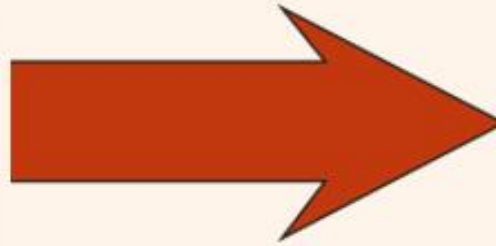
for any physical or chemical change, the total amount of energy in the universe remains constant; energy may change form or it may be transported from one region to another; but it cannot be created or destroyed.



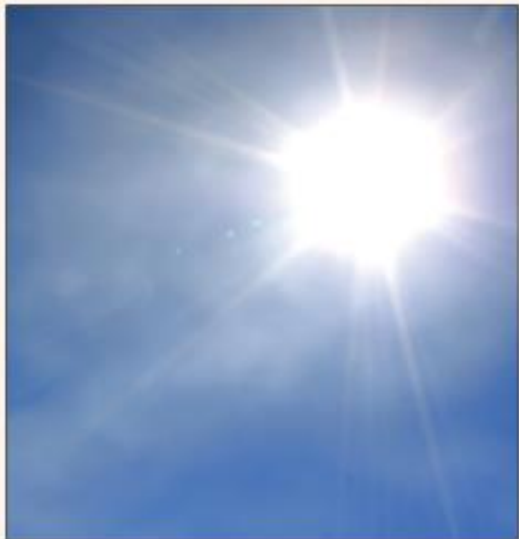
Energy transformations



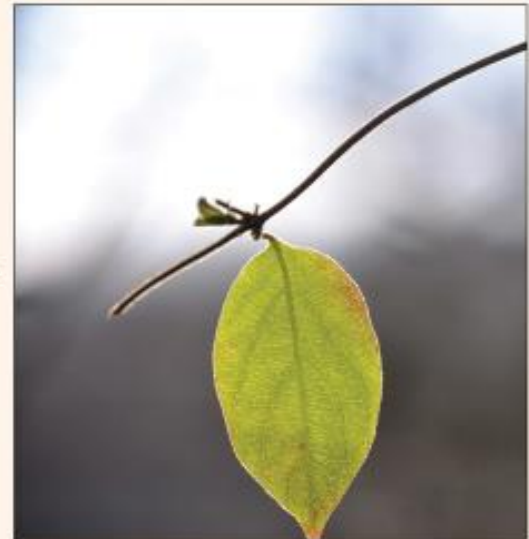
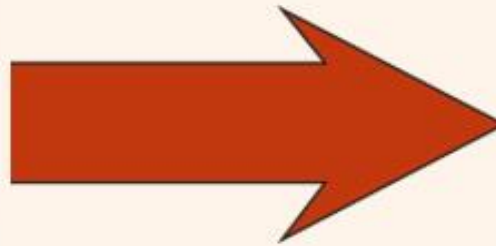
Chemical Energy



Kinetic energy



Light energy



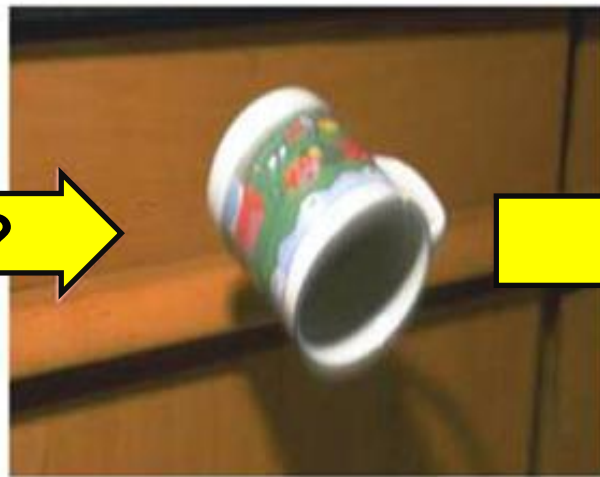
Chemical energy

The second law of thermodynamics says that the universe always tends toward increasing disorder:

in all natural processes, the entropy of the universe increases.



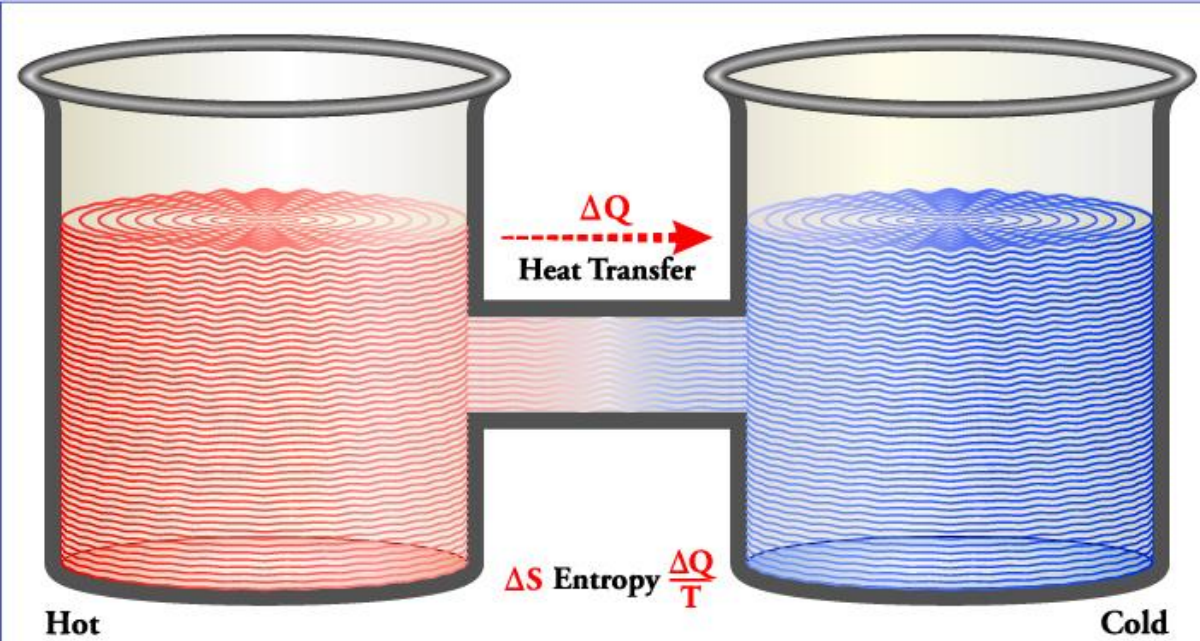
Initial state.



Later: cup reassembles and rises up.



Later still: cup lands on table.



Second Law of Thermodynamics

THIS HAPPENS

ICE MELTS

WATER COOLS DOWN

THIS DOES NOT HAPPEN

ICE DOES NOT FREEZE AGAIN

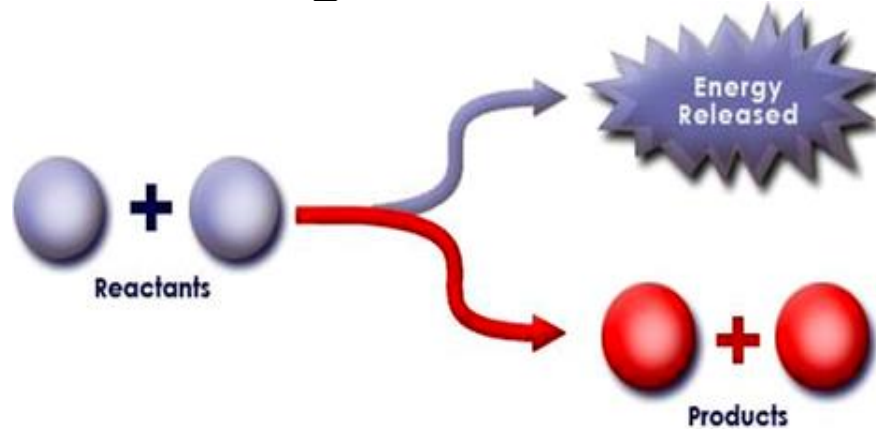
WATER DOES NOT BOIL MORE FURIOUSLY

The Second Law of Thermodynamics states that heat always flows from hot to cold, and not from cold to hot.

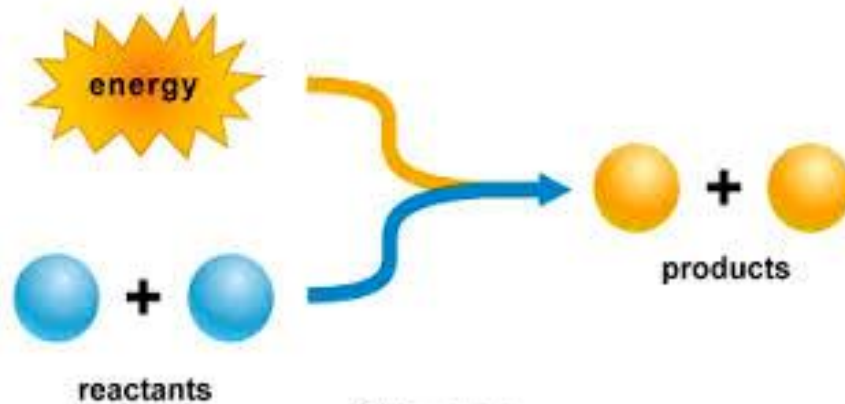
Under the conditions existing in biological systems (including constant temperature and pressure), changes in free energy, enthalpy, and entropy are related to each other quantitatively by the equation:

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

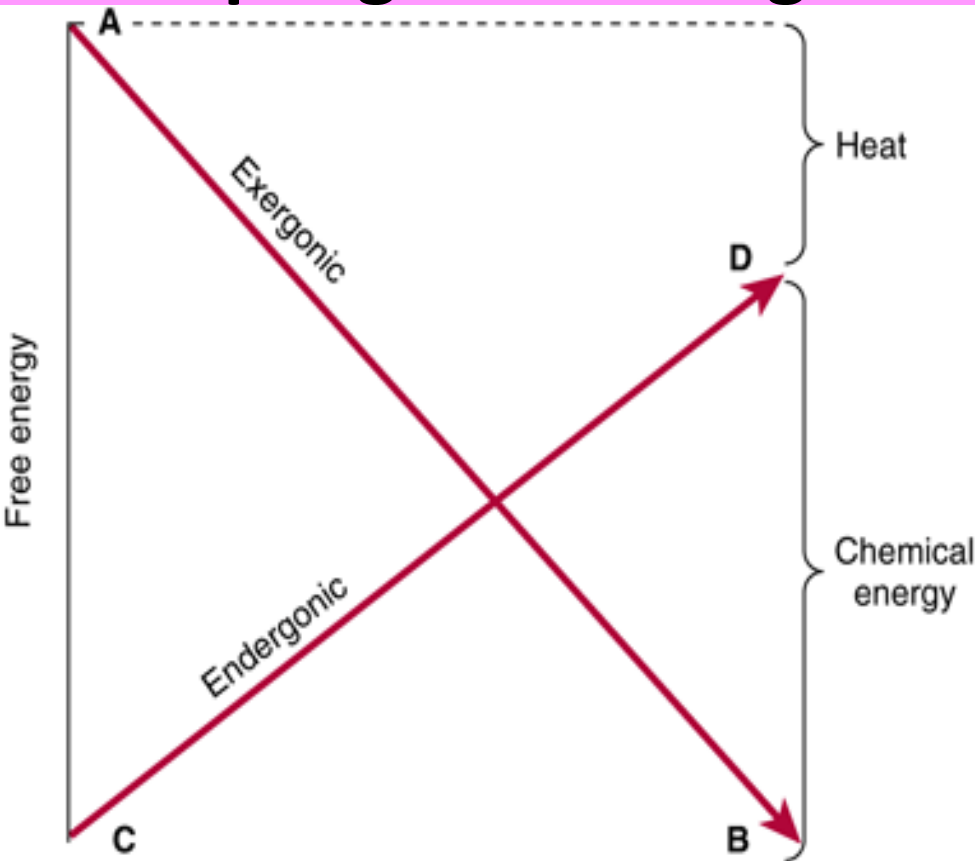
- If ΔG is **negative** ($-\Delta G$), the reaction will proceed spontaneously with the release of energy, and the reaction is called **exergonic** reaction.



- If ΔG is **positive** ($+\Delta G$), the reaction will not proceed spontaneously and has to be supplied with energy from outside; such a reaction is called **endergonic** reaction.

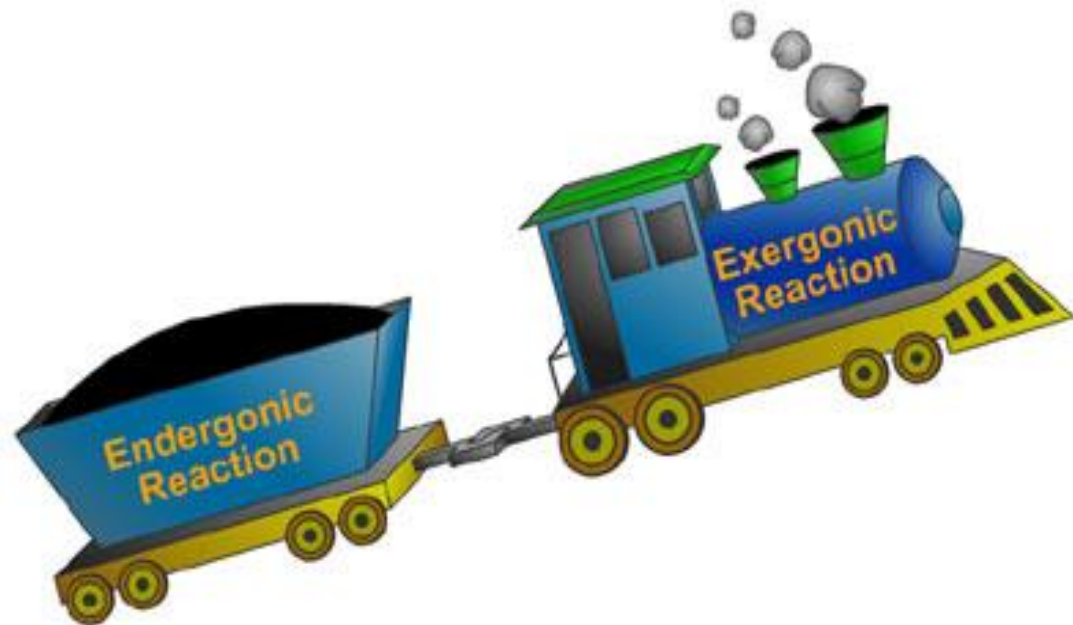


Coupling of an exergonic and endergonic reaction



Source: Murray RK, Bender DA, Botham KM, Kennelly PJ, Rodwe
Illustrated Biochemistry, 29th Edition: www.accessmedicine.com

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Living systems must transfer energy from one molecule to another without losing all of it as heat.

Some of the energy must be conserved in a chemical form in order to drive nonspontaneous biosynthetic reactions.

Exergonic reaction:

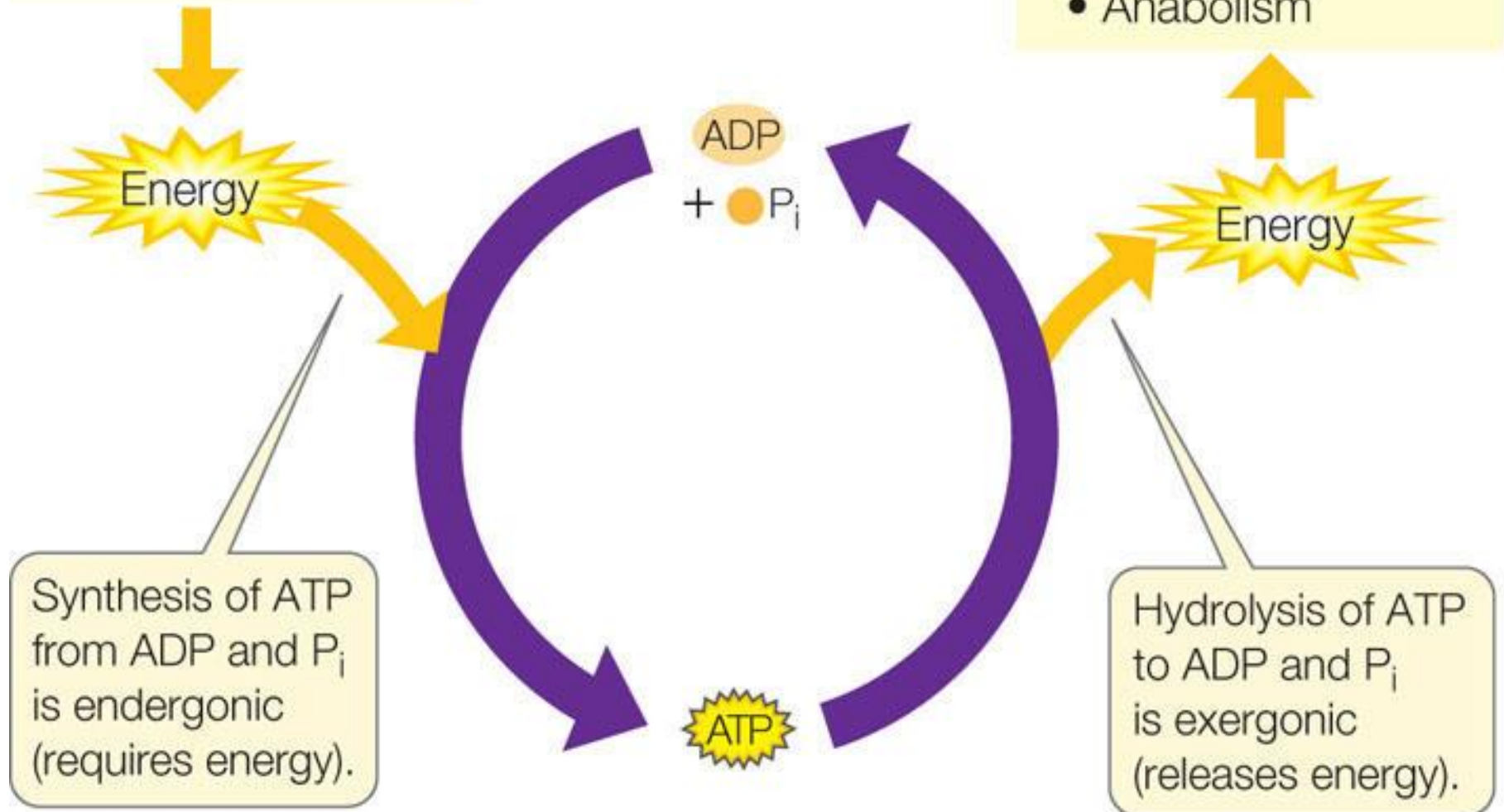
(releases energy)

- Cell respiration
- Catabolism

Endergonic reaction:

(requires energy)

- Active transport
- Cell movements
- Anabolism



High-energy compounds (macroergic compounds)

Macroergic compounds contain energy-rich chemical bond, or macroergic bond. Macroergic bond is the bond which hydrolysis is accompanied by the release of free energy ($-\Delta G$) greater than 5 kcal/mol (21 kJ/mol).

High-energy bond is designated as the sign “ ~ ” (tilda).

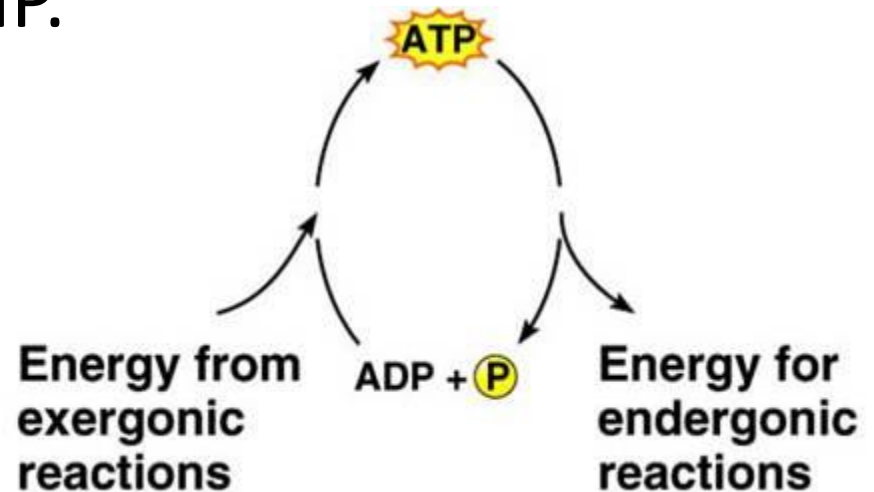
There are two types of macroergic compounds.

- **Phosphate-containing macroergic compounds:** creatine phosphate, 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate, phosphoenolpyruvate, carbamoyl phosphate, ATP.
- **Sulfur-containing macroergic compounds (thioesters):** acetyl CoA, acyl CoA, succinyl CoA

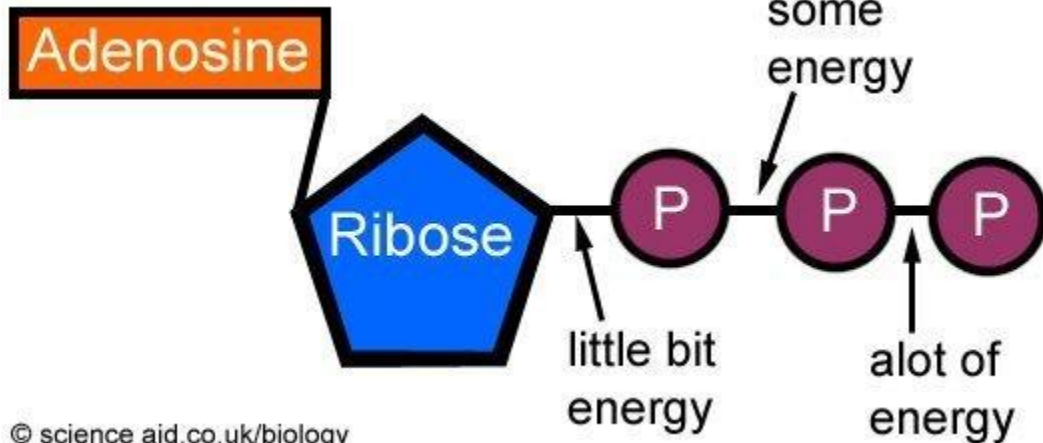
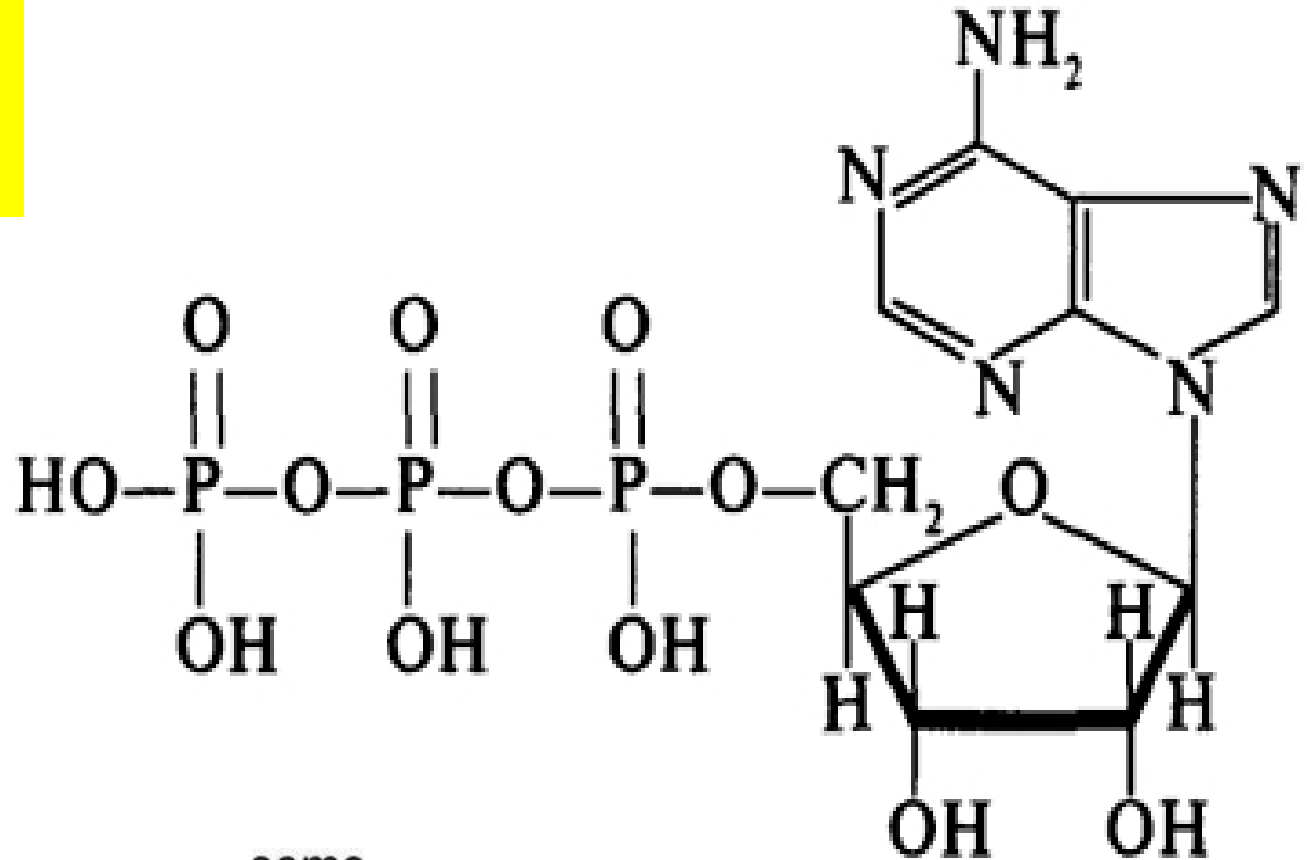
ATP

ATP is universal energy currency because only this compound can immediately give its energy (accumulated in the macroergic bond) for the performing any type of work in the living cell.

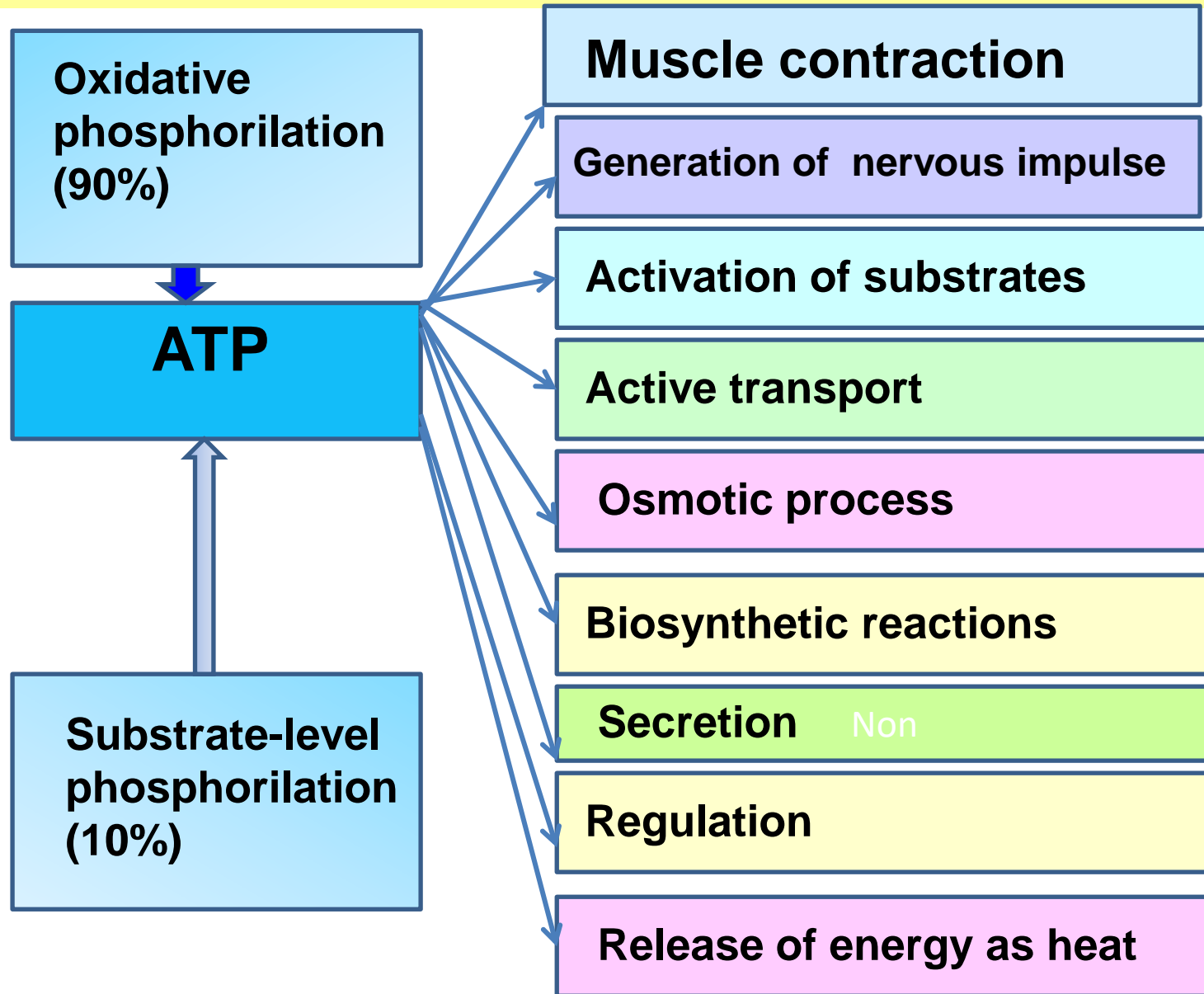
When ATP is used for metabolic work, high-energy bonds are broken and it is converted to ADP or to AMP.



ATP



Ways of the ATP formation and its use



Biological oxidation

is the cellular process in which the organic substances release energy (ATP), produce CO₂ and H₂O through oxidative-reductive reactions

Biological oxidation

- **It refers to cellular oxidation of various metabolic fuels by**
 - addition of oxygen
 - removal of electrons
 - removal of hydrogen
- **Usually takes place with the help of enzymes**

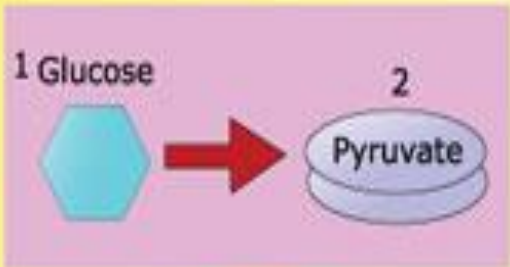
Cellular respiration

- is a set of metabolic reactions that take place in the cells to convert chemical energy from nutrients into ATP, and then release waste products.
- **oxidizing agent (electron acceptor) is oxygen**
- last stage occurs in mitochondria

Cellular Respiration

MITOCHONDRION

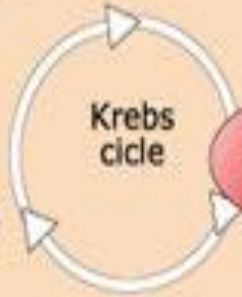
Glycolysis



2 ATP



Acetyl CoA

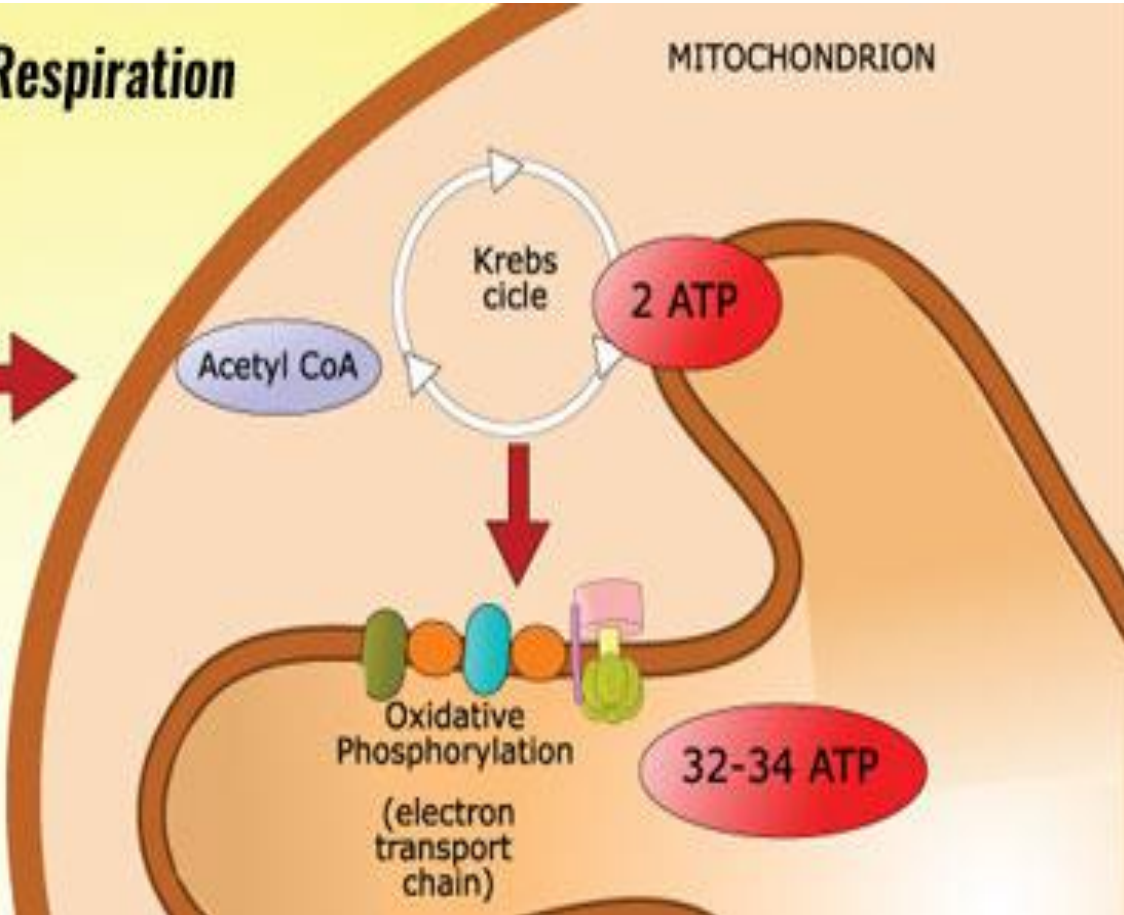


2 ATP

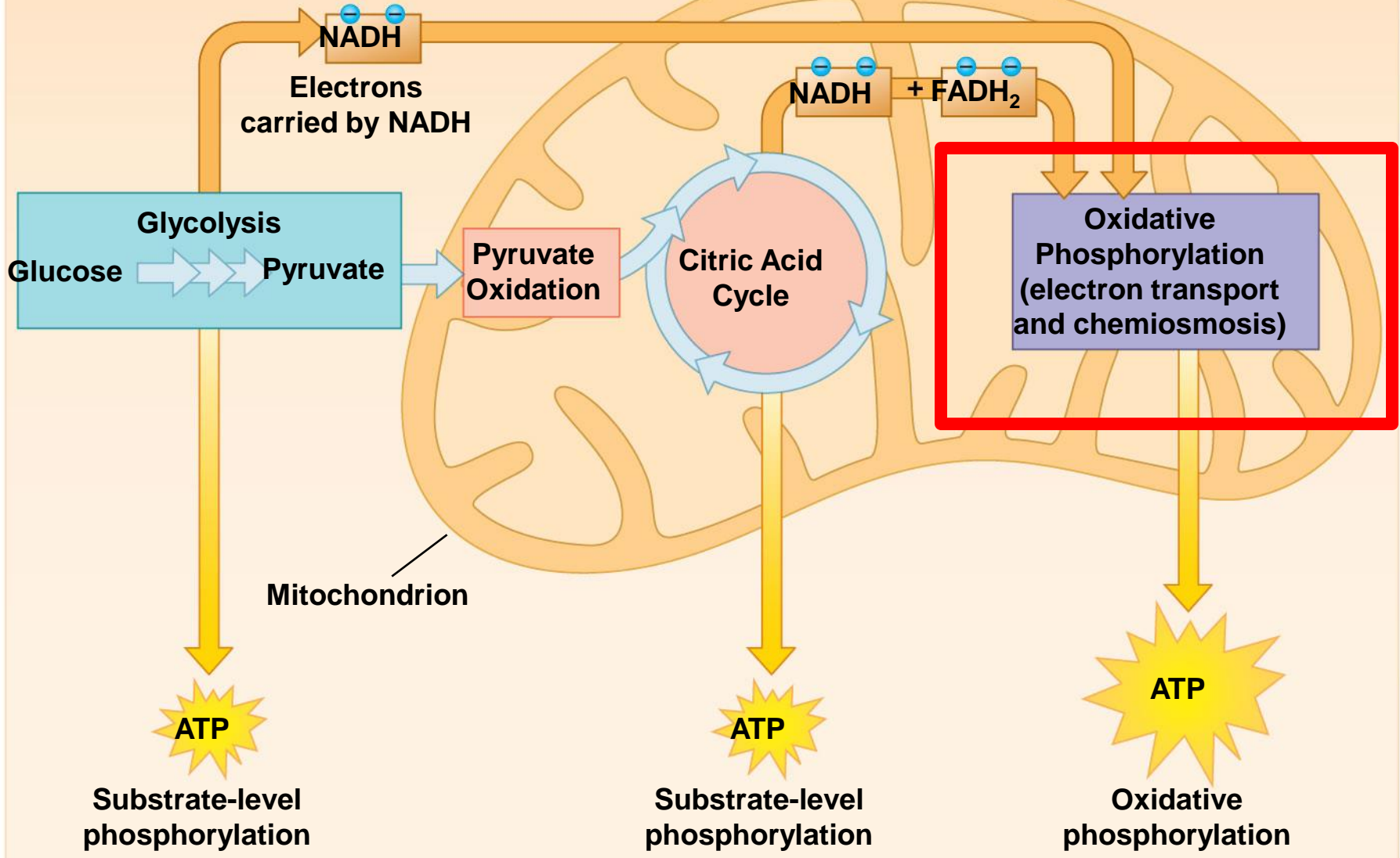


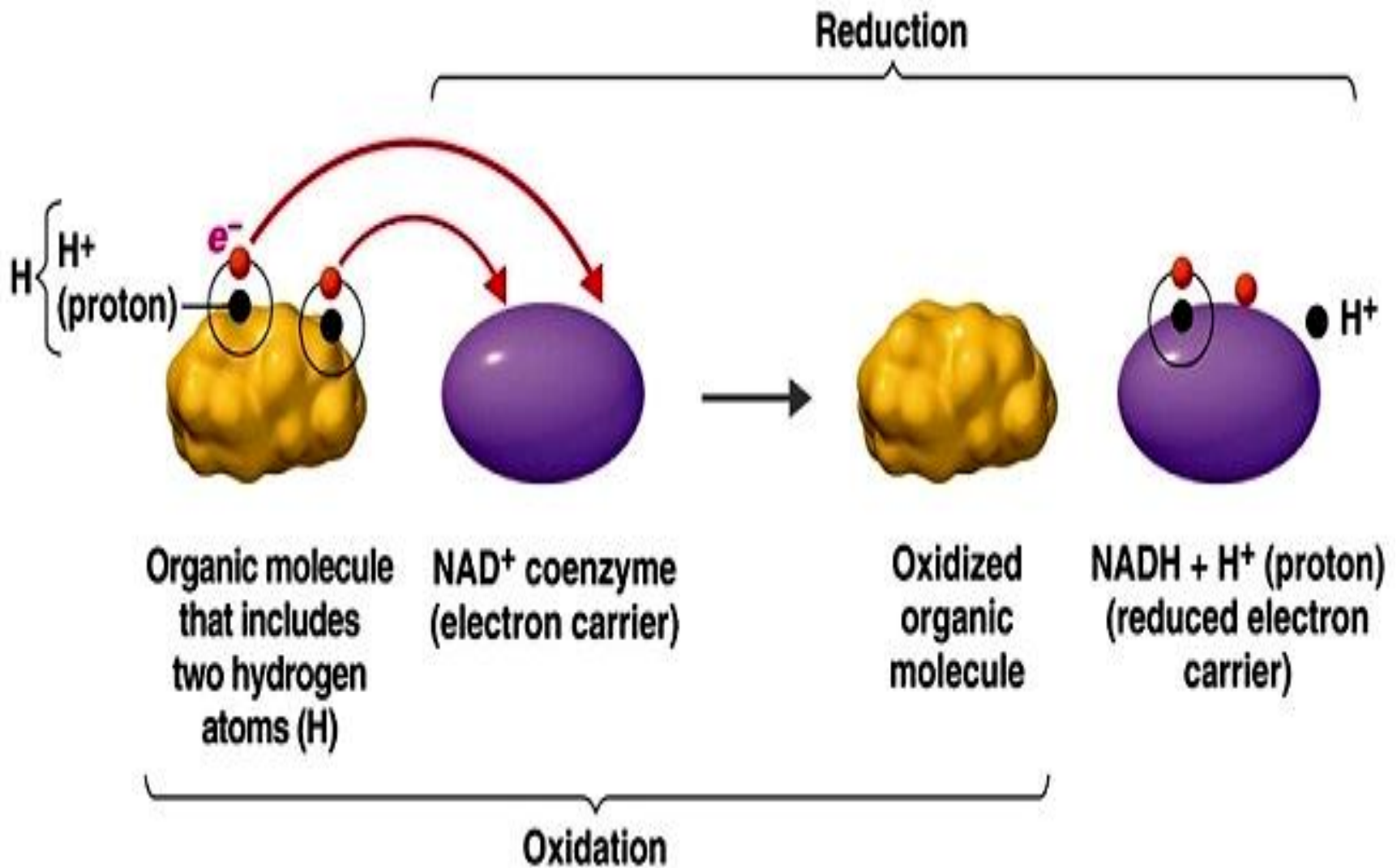
Oxidative Phosphorylation
(electron transport chain)

32-34 ATP



CYTOPLASM

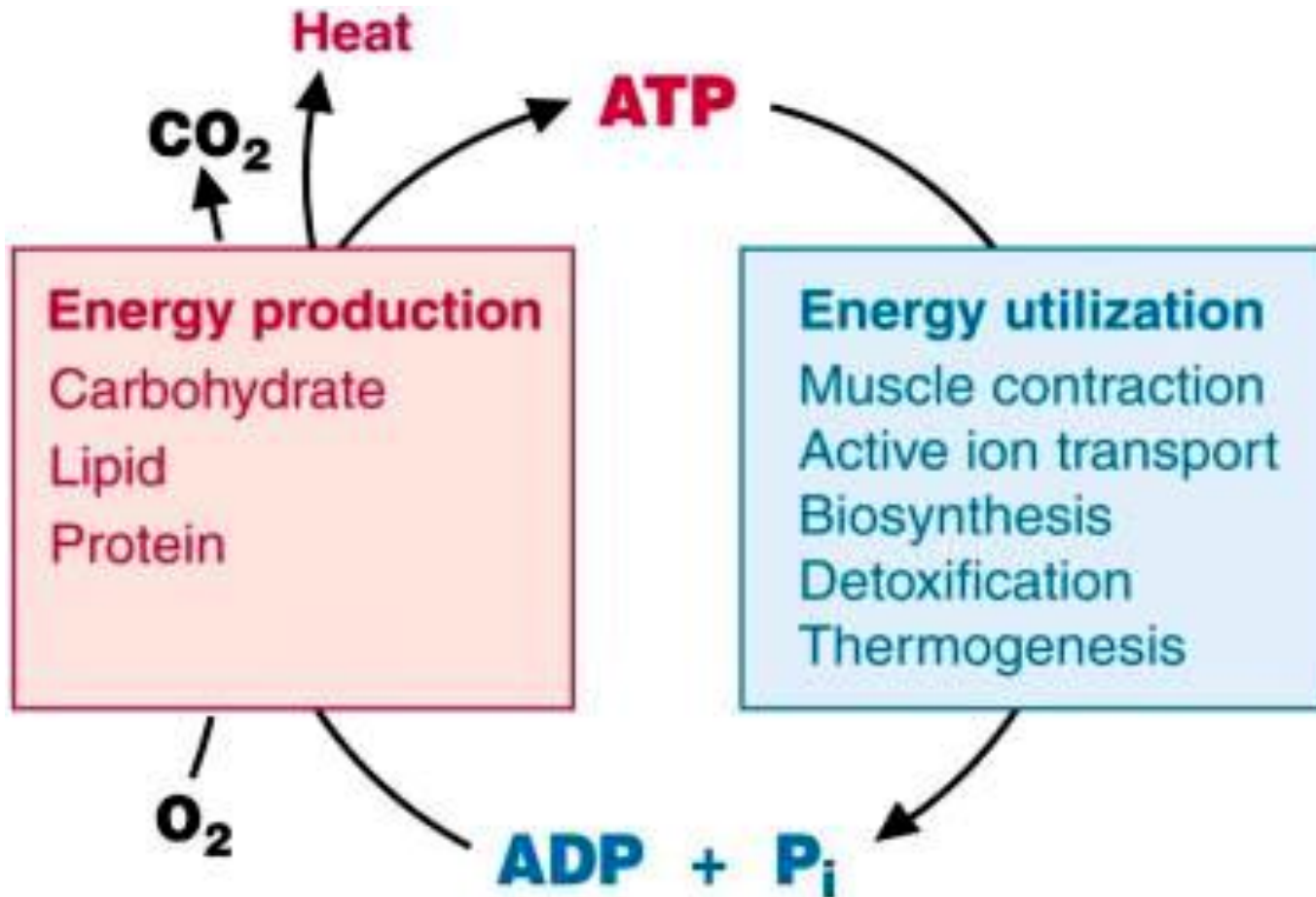


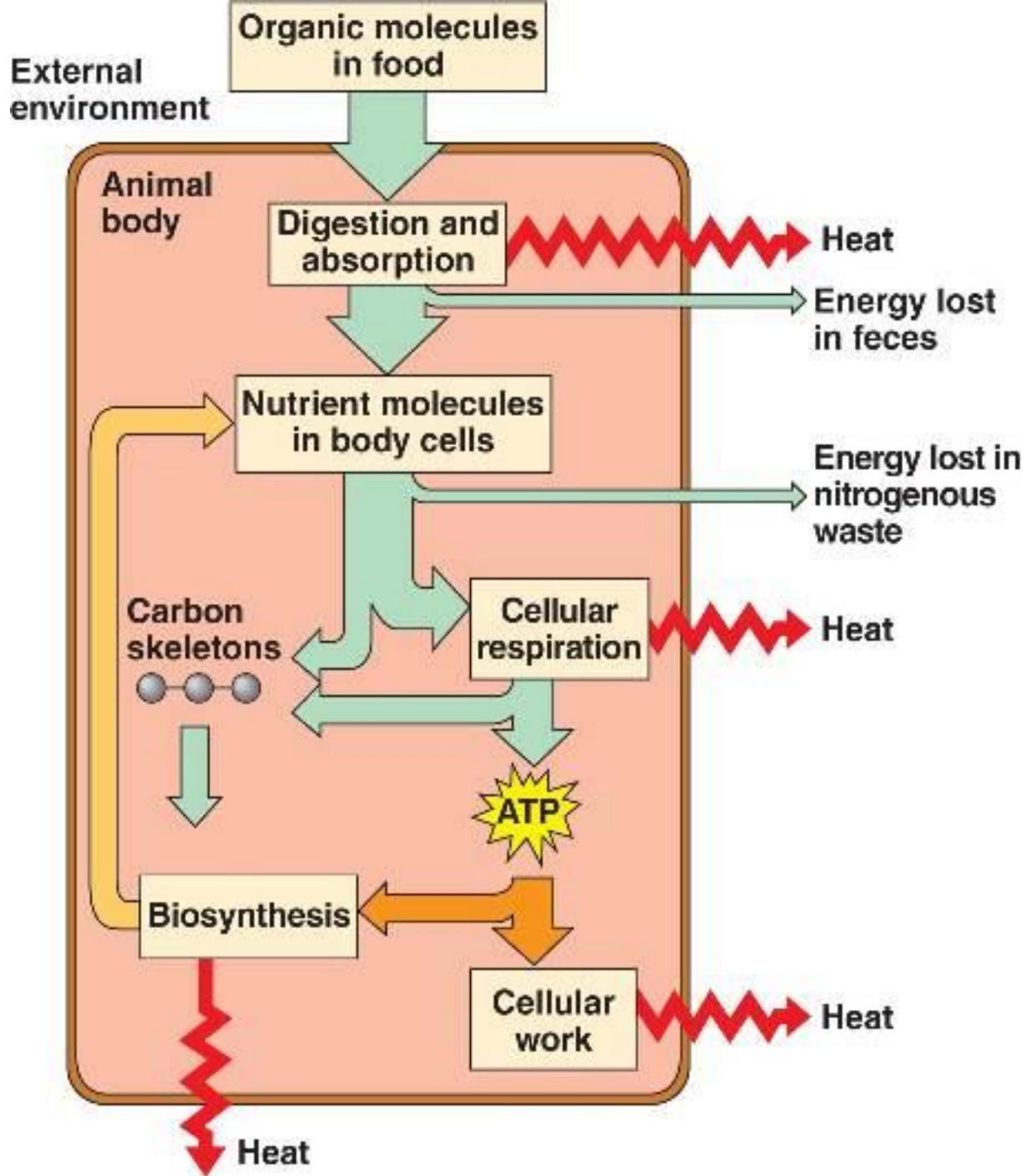


Oxidation is the loss of two electrons or two hydrogen atoms; reduction is the gain of them

Oxidation of metabolic fuels is essential to life

In higher organisms, fuels, such as carbohydrates and lipids are metabolized to carbon dioxide and water.





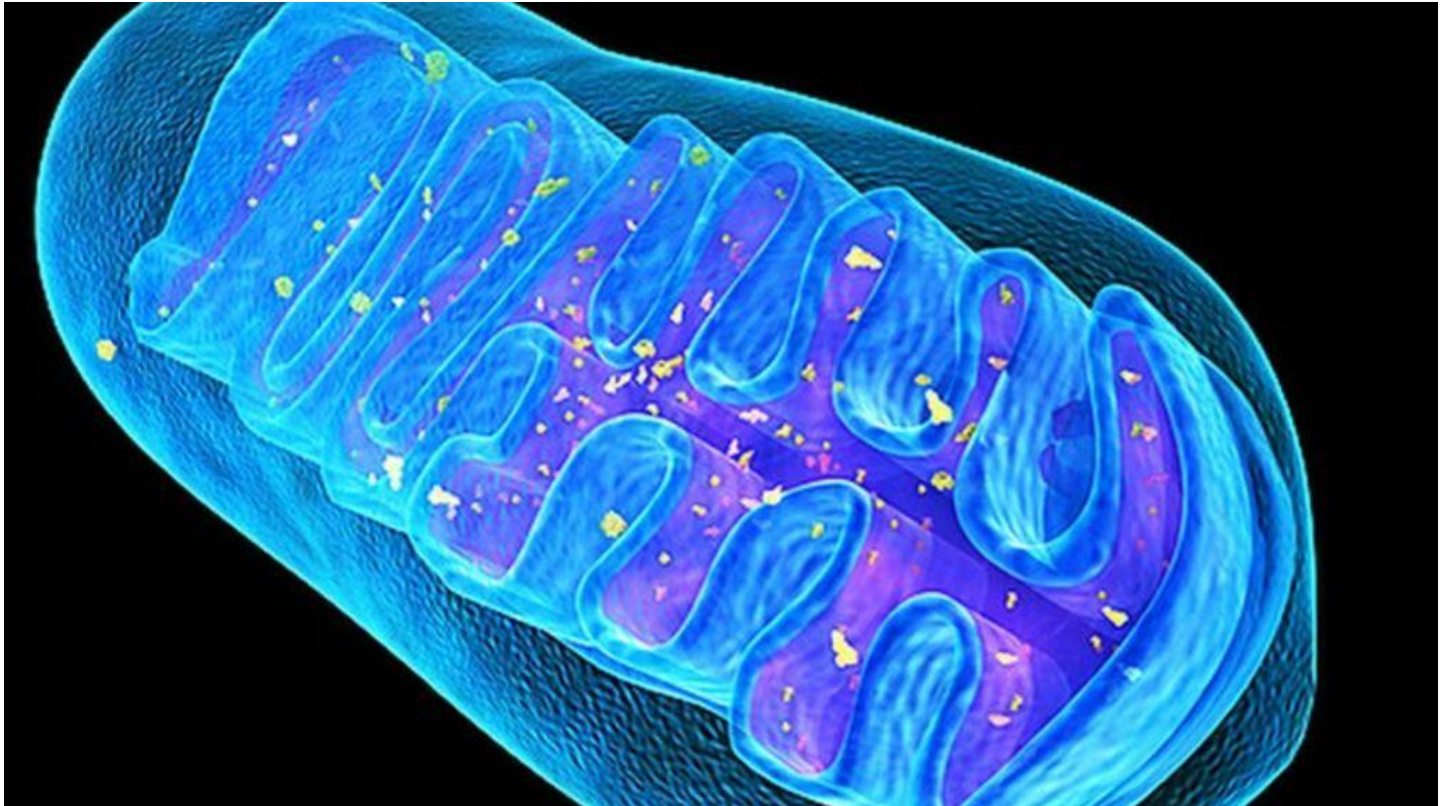
About **40%** of food energy is conserved as ATP, and the remaining **60%** is liberated as heat.

**Most metabolic energy is provided by
oxidation-reduction reactions in
mitochondria**

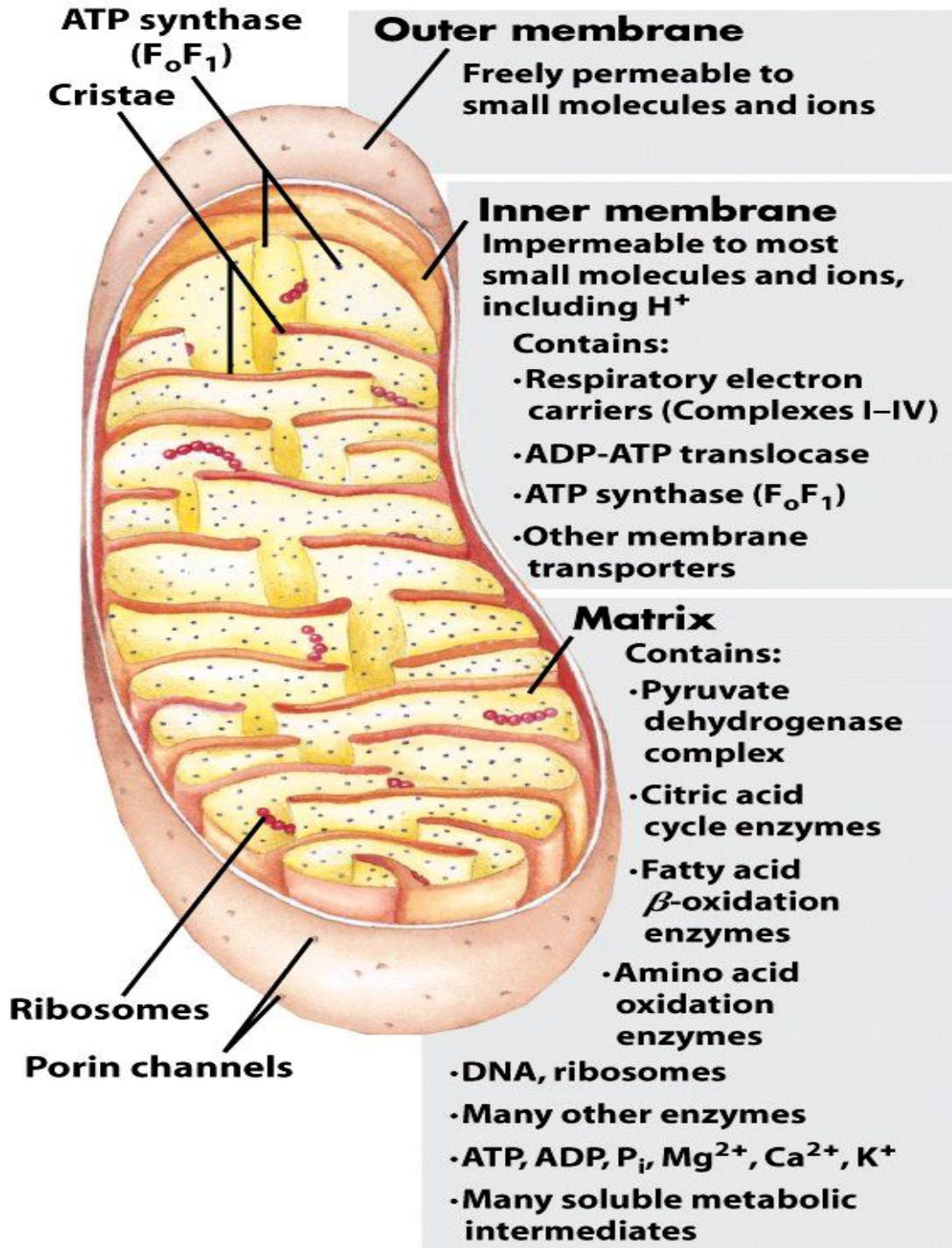


Mitochondria

Mitochondria are subcellular organelles, about the size of bacteria. They are essential for aerobic metabolism in eukaryotes. Their main function is to oxidize metabolic fuels and conserve free energy by synthesizing ATP



Mitochondrion



**Double membrane,
with inner
membrane very
impermeable**

**TCA occurs
in the matrix**

**ETC in the
inner membrane**

The ETC consists of several components (carriers) which follow one another in the definite sequence.

E'_0 (volts)

NADH

Electron Transport Chain

-0.32

NADH-Q
oxidoreductase

+0.03

Q

FADH₂

Succinate
dehydrogenase

+0.04

Q-cytochrome c
oxidoreductase

Cyt c

+0.23

Cytochrome c
oxidase

O₂

✦ Electrons flow from carriers with low to high reduction potential.

✦ This is energetically downhill.

Figure 20.10

The components of the ETC transfer protons and electrons (or only electrons) from reduced substrates (SH_2) or from reduced coenzymes (such as NADH or FADH_2) to oxygen (O_2) with the resultant formation of water.

Electron transport chain

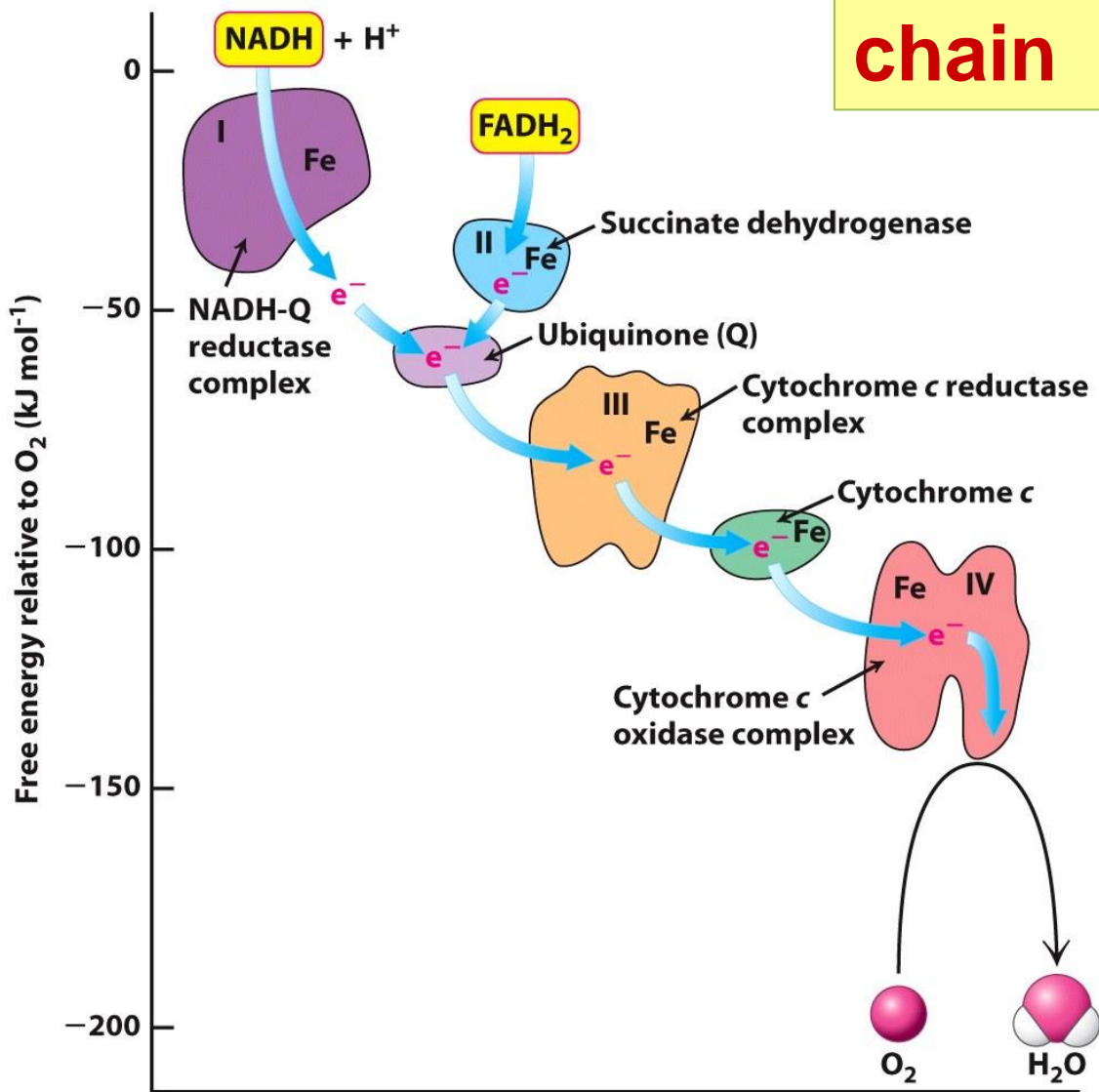
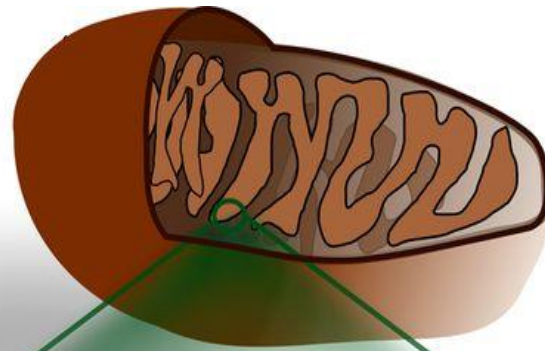
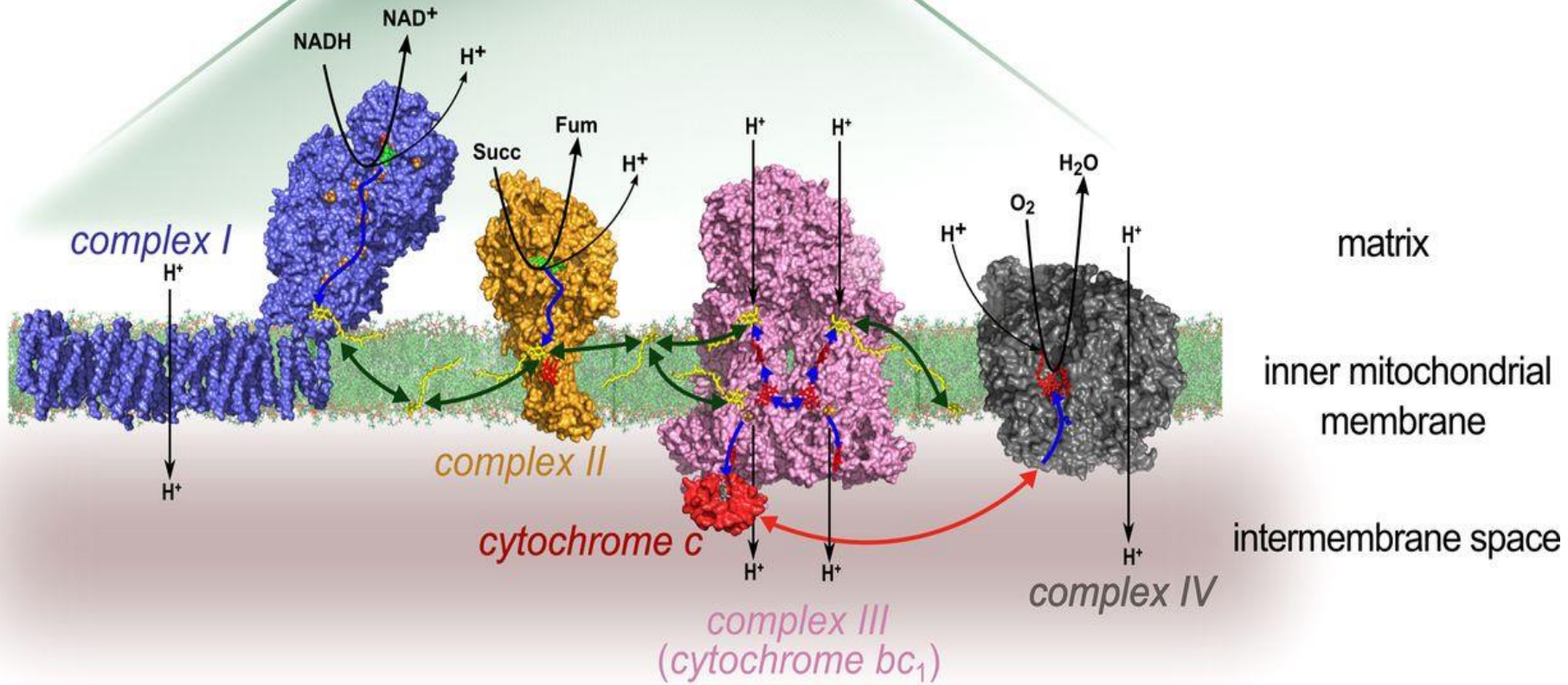


Figure 20.6
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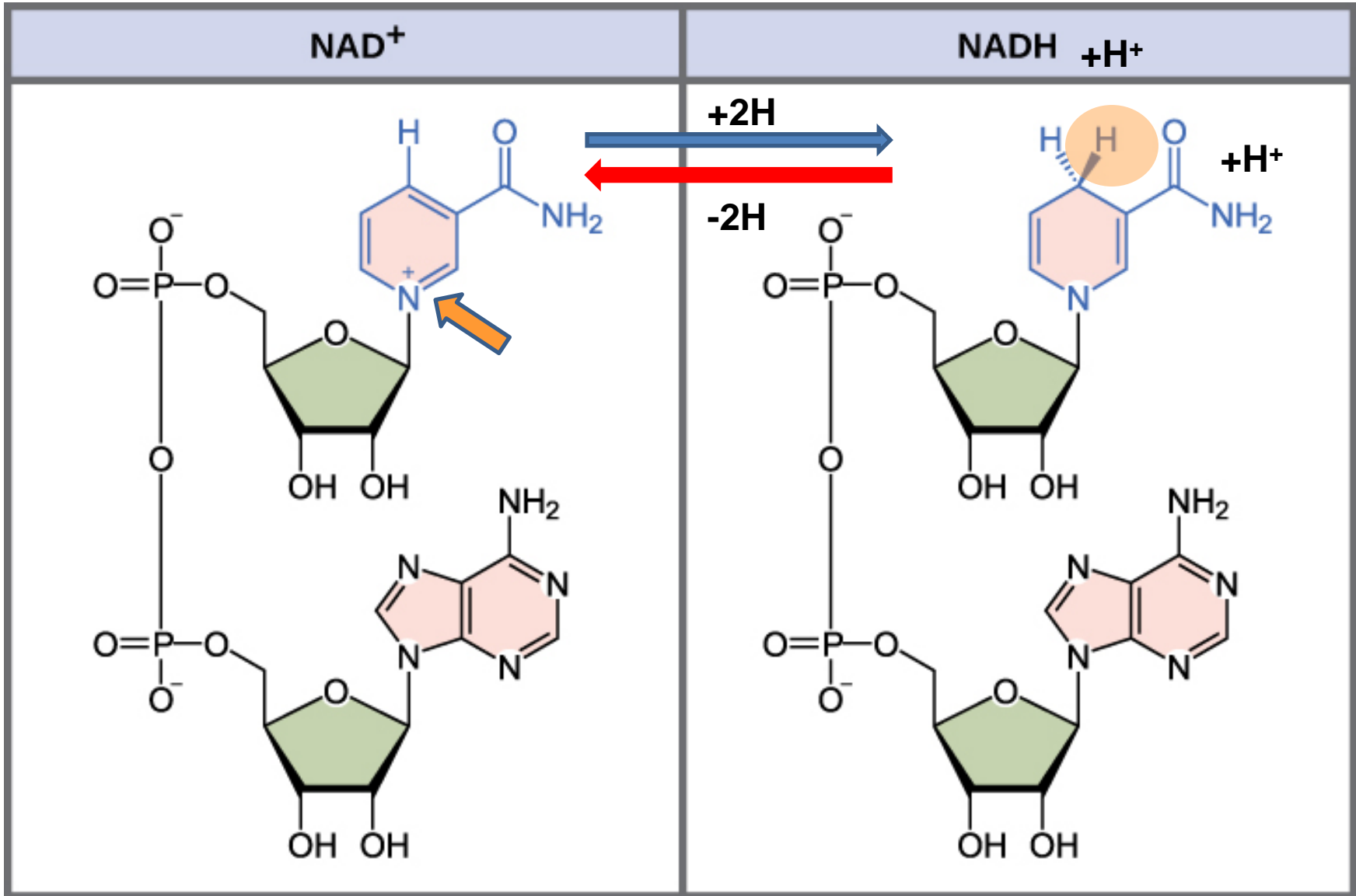
Thus, in the ETC, a number of oxidative-reduction reactions take place. (Oxidation is the loss of two electrons or two hydrogen atoms; reduction is the gain of them). Due to consecutive oxidation-reduction reactions in the ETC, free energy is produced. A portion of this energy (about 50-75%) is accumulated in the phosphate bonds of ATP, and the other portion of the free energy is released as heat.



Mitochondrion



ETC carriers: NAD



NAD (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide)

ETC carriers: FMN

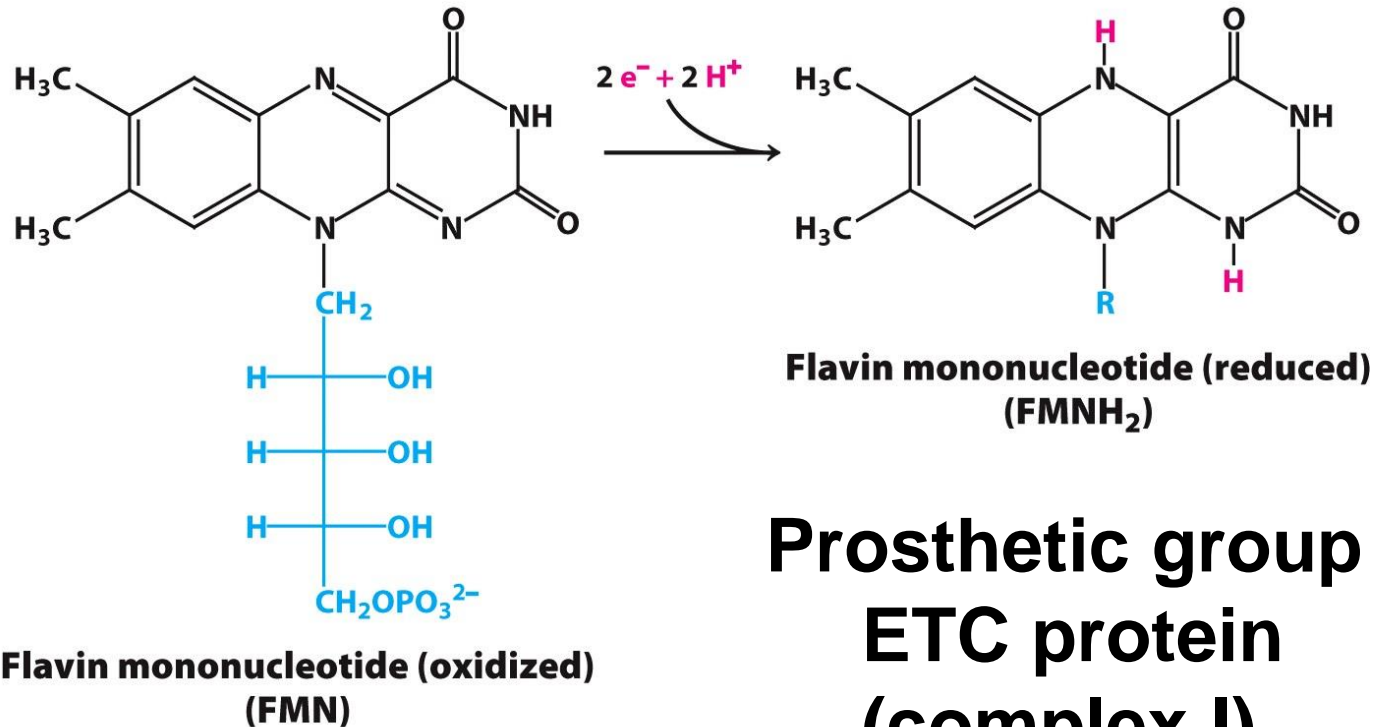
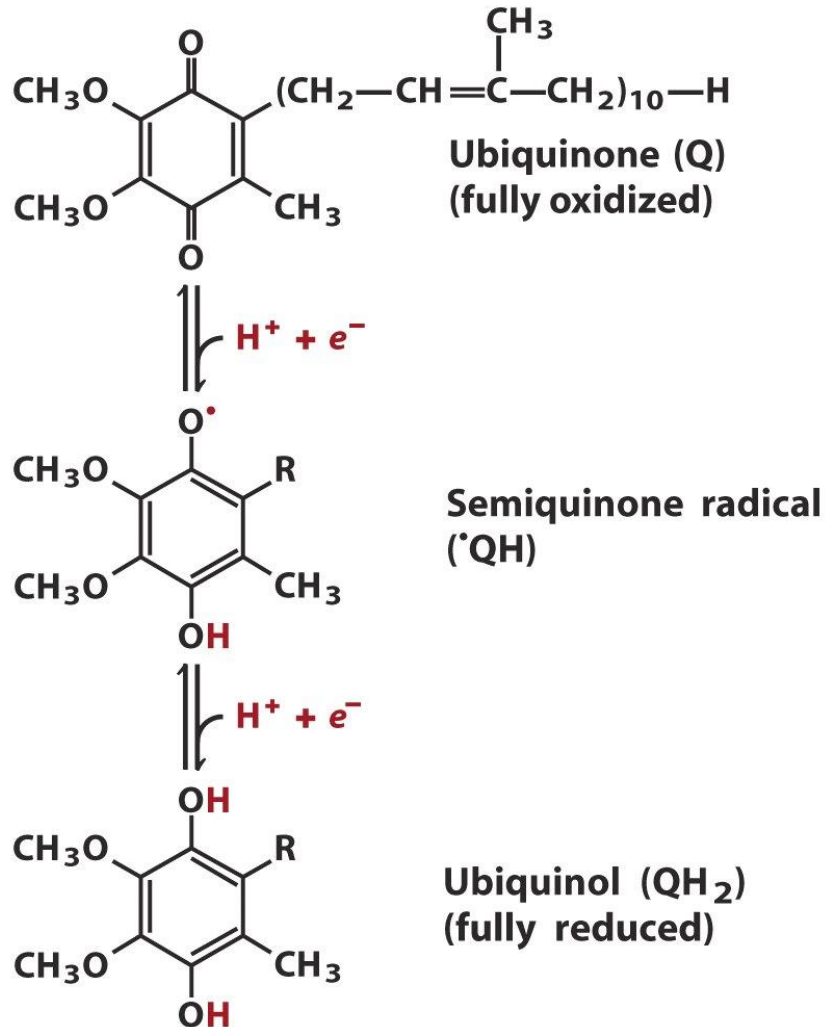


Figure 20.5
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ETC carriers: Coenzyme Q

Mobile electron carrier within the bilayer

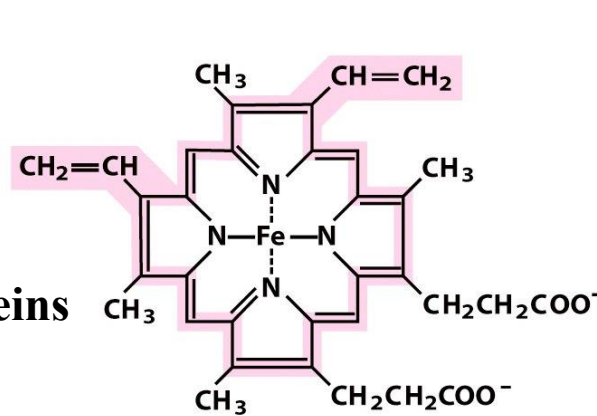
1- or 2-electron acceptor



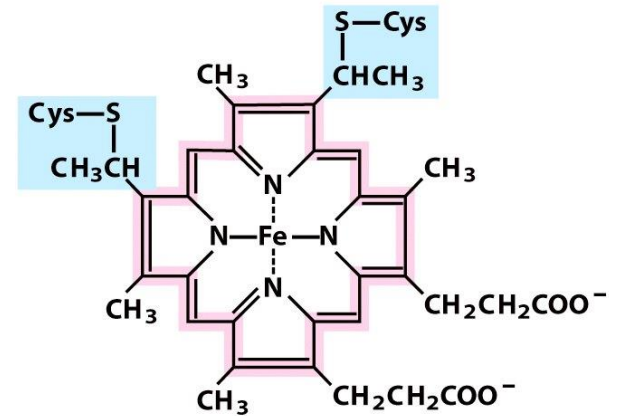
ETC carriers: Cytochromes

Heme proteins

Most are integral proteins

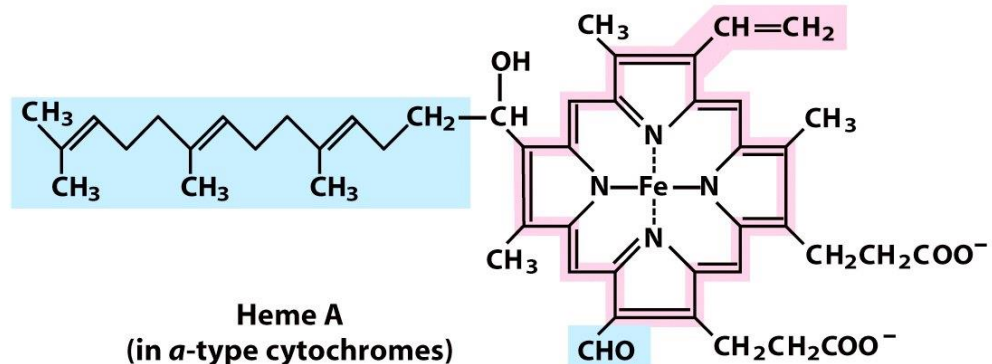


Iron protoporphyrin IX
(in *b*-type cytochromes)



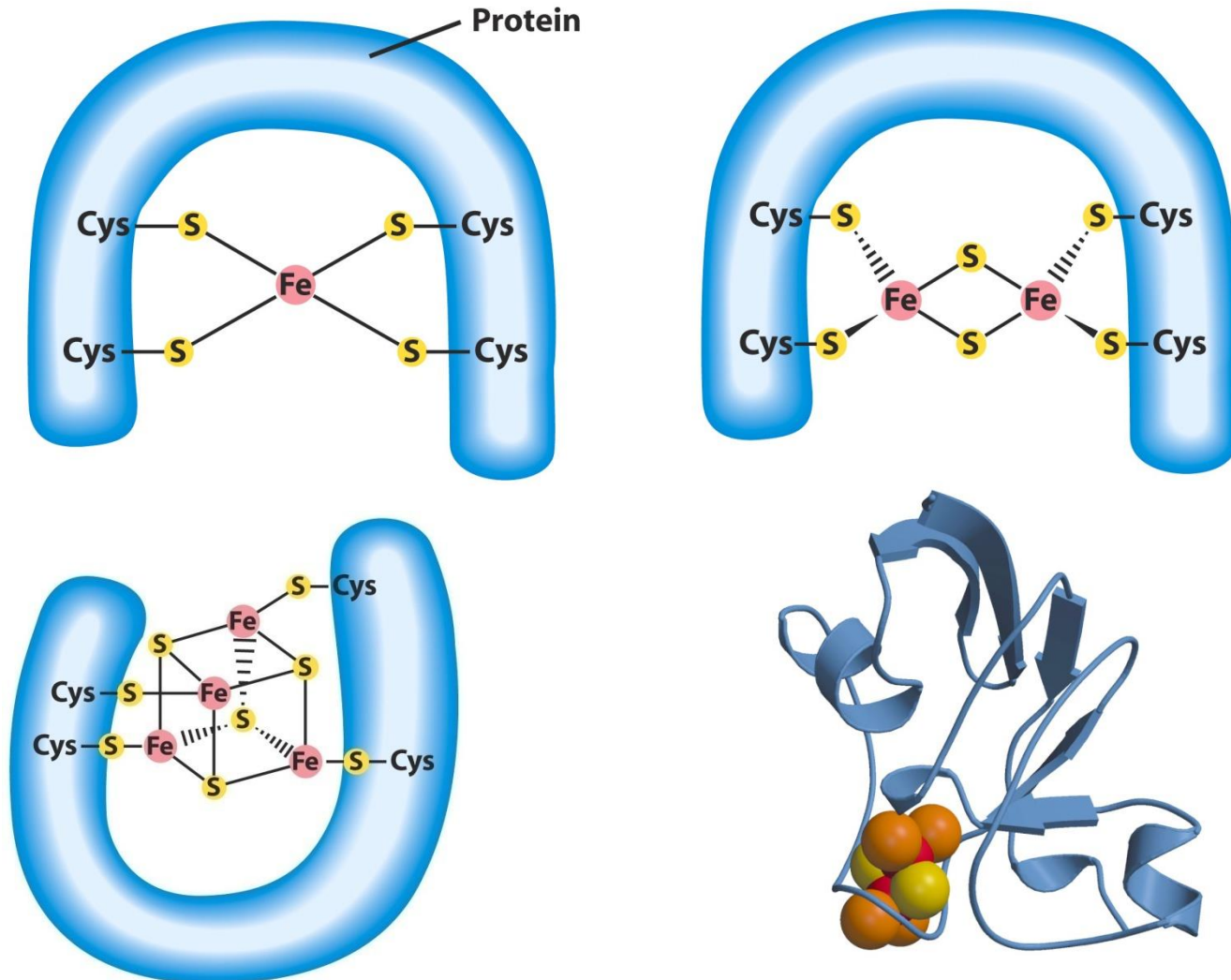
Heme C
(in *c*-type cytochromes)

Cytochrome c is a soluble peripheral protein

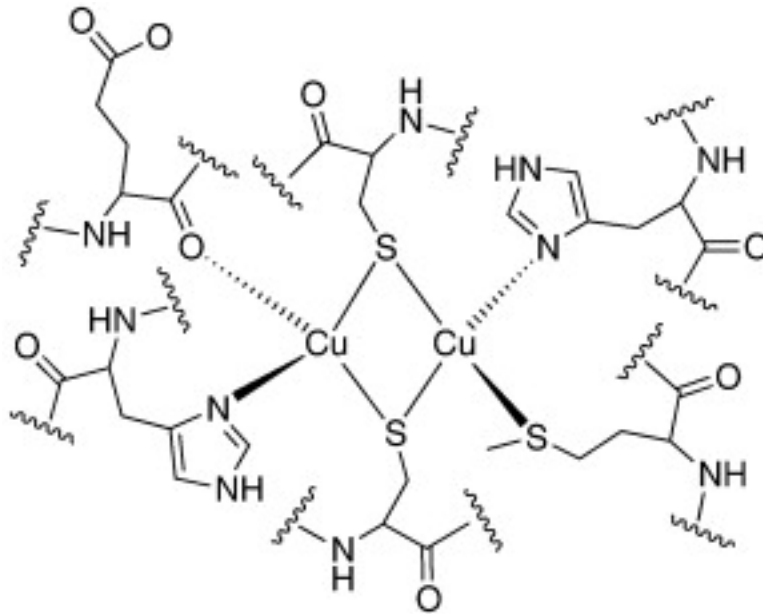


Heme A
(in *a*-type cytochromes)

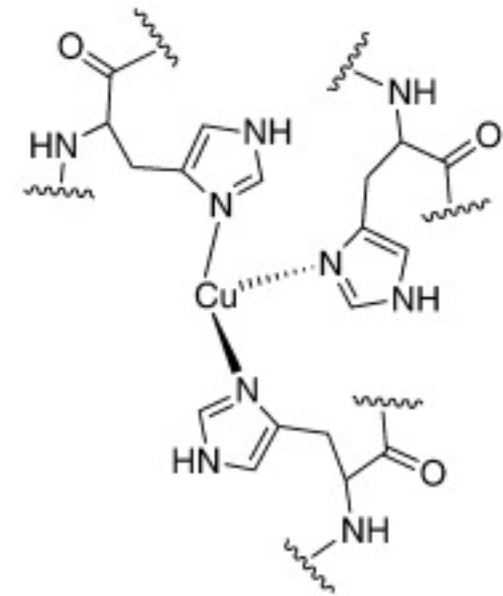
ETC carriers: Iron-sulfur proteins



ETC carriers: Copper centers



✦ Cu_A center



✦ Cu_B center

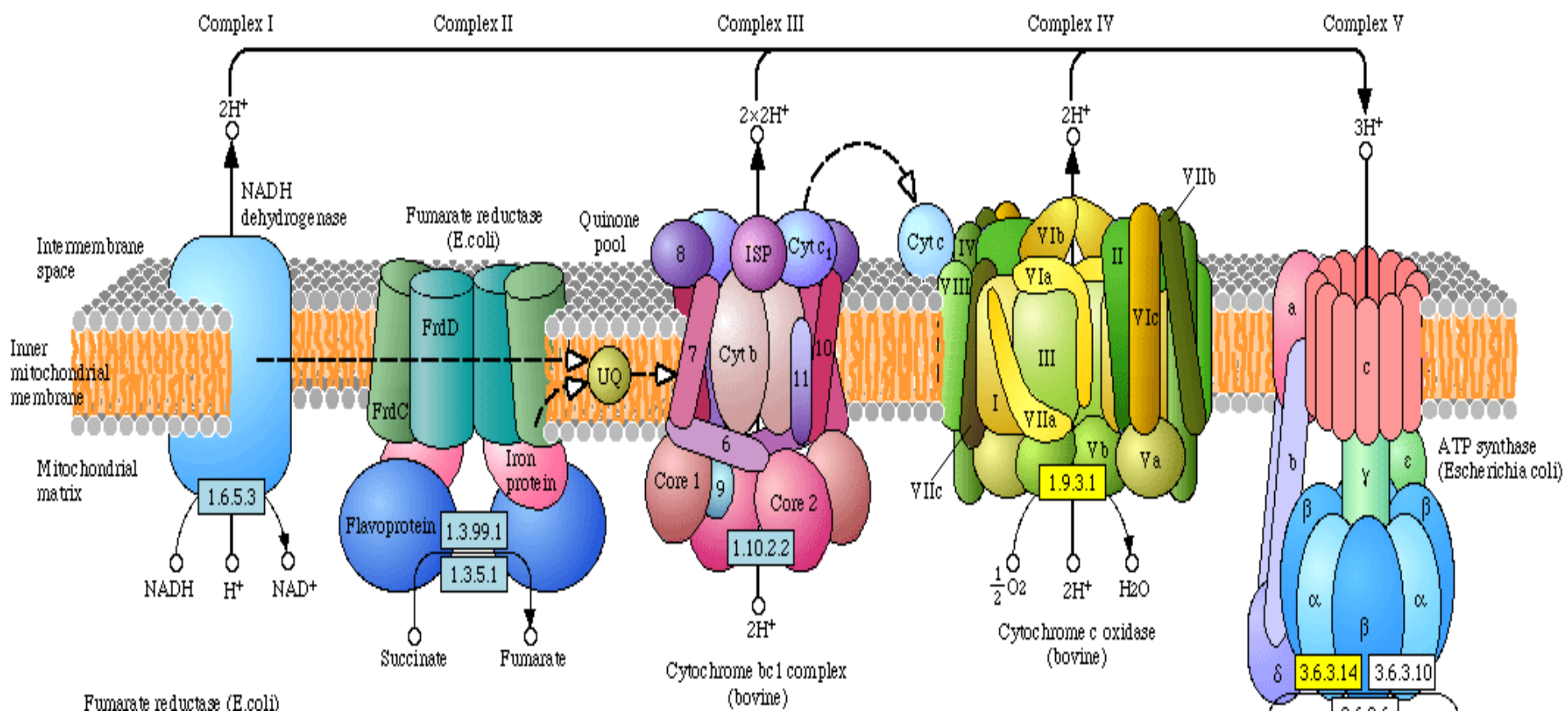
Electron Transport Chain: Proteins

TABLE 19-3 The Protein Components of the Mitochondrial Electron-Transfer Chain

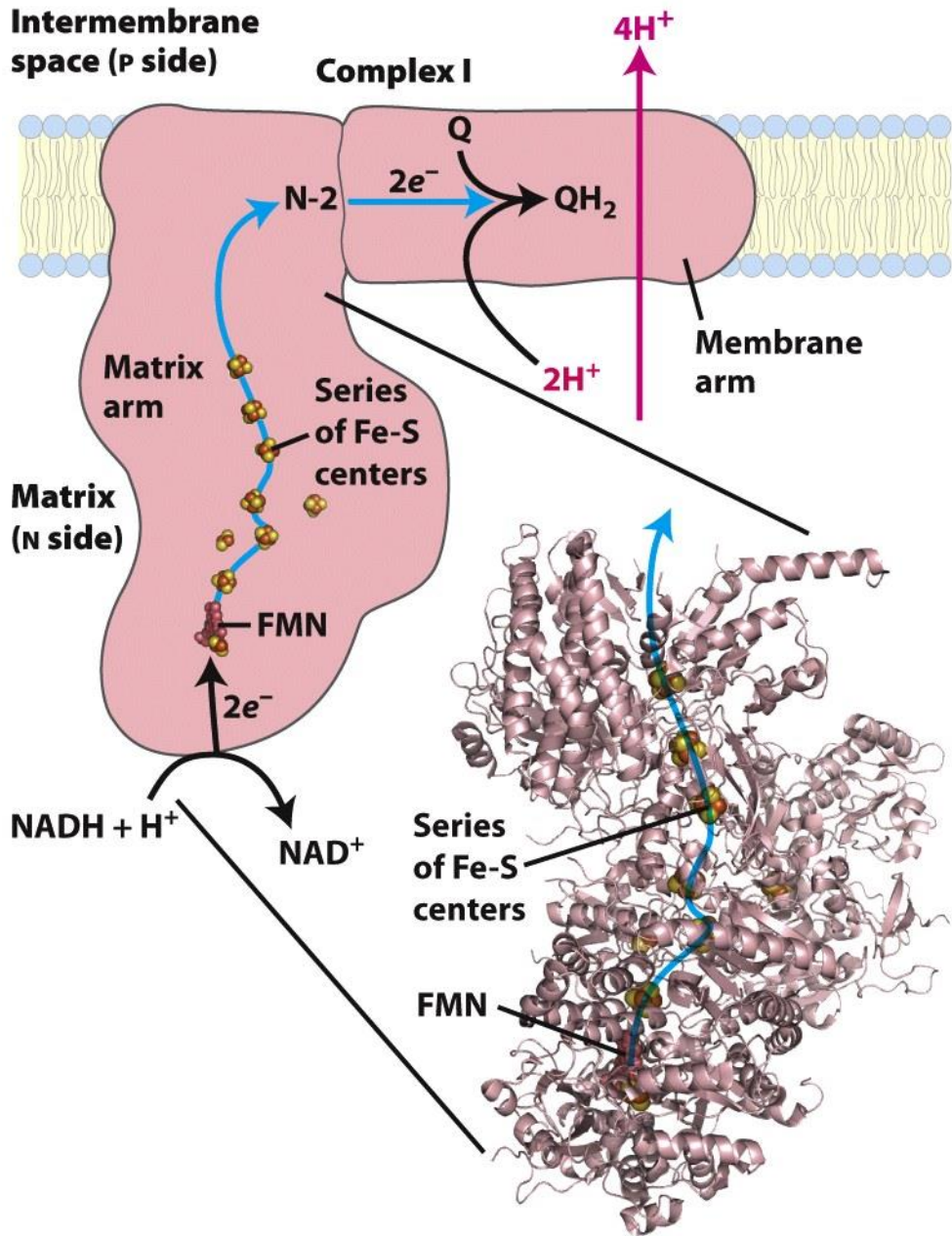
<i>Enzyme complex/protein</i>	<i>Mass (kDa)</i>	<i>Number of subunits*</i>	<i>Prosthetic group(s)</i>
I NADH dehydrogenase	850	43 (14)	FMN, Fe-S
II Succinate dehydrogenase	140	4	FAD, Fe-S
III Ubiquinone cytochrome c oxidoreductase	250	11	Hemes, Fe-S
Cytochrome c [†]	13	1	Heme
IV Cytochrome oxidase	160	13 (3-4)	Hemes; Cu _A , Cu _B

*Numbers of subunits in the bacterial equivalents in parentheses.

[†]Cytochrome c is not part of an enzyme complex; it moves between Complexes III and IV as a freely soluble protein.



Fumarate reductase (E.coli)



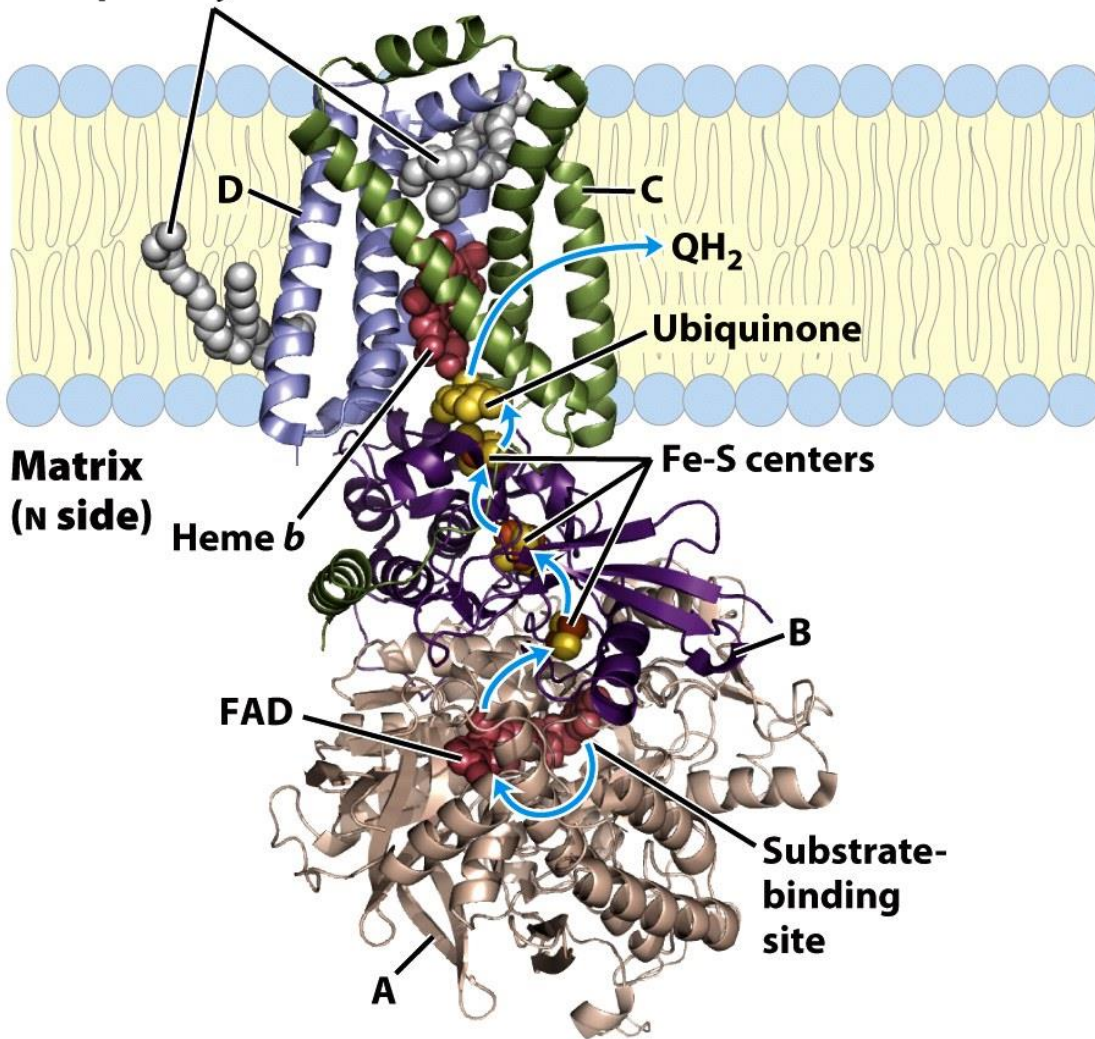
Complex I

NADH-CoQ oxidoreductase

Figure 19-9
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**Intermembrane
space (P side)**

Phosphatidylethanolamine



Complex II: succinate-CoQ oxidoreductase

✦ Complex II
(succinate
dehydrogenase)

Figure 19-10

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Complex III: CoQH₂-cyt c oxidoreductase

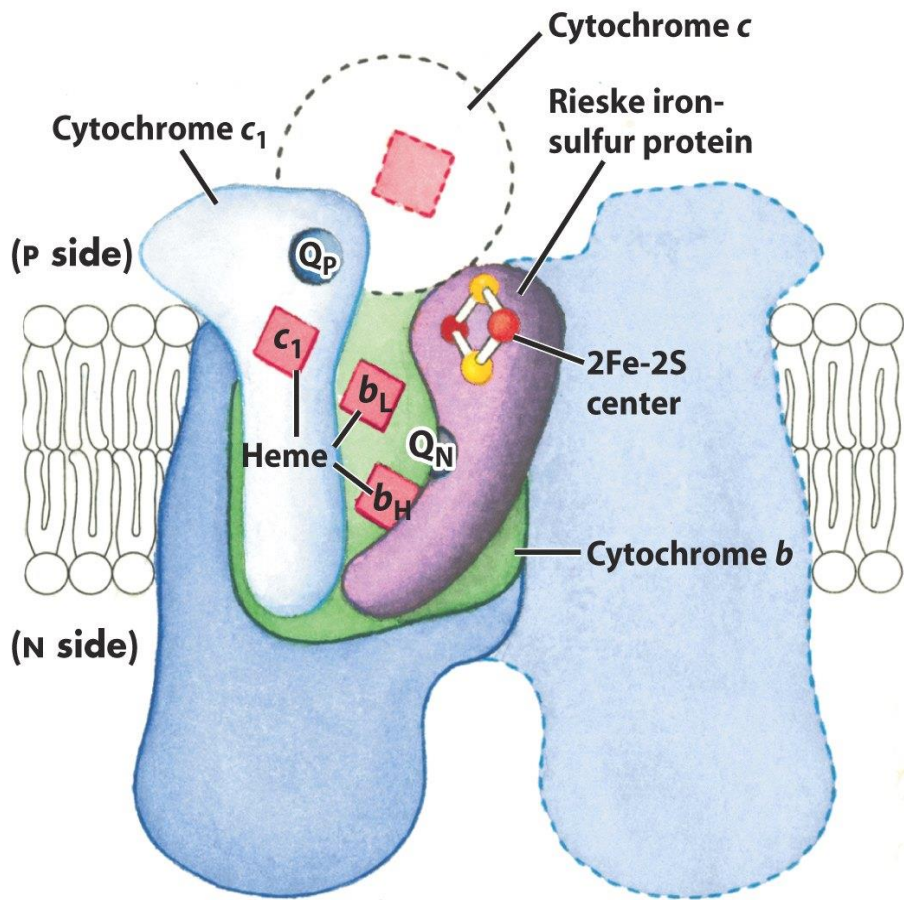
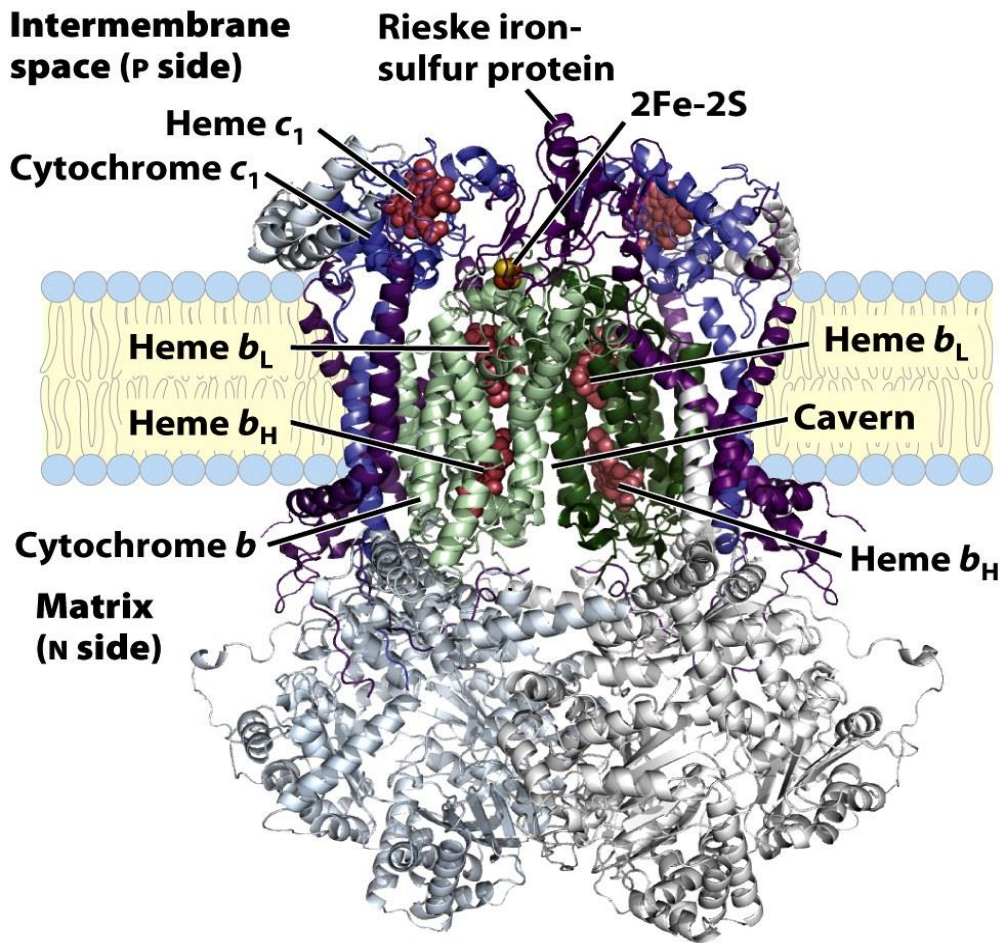
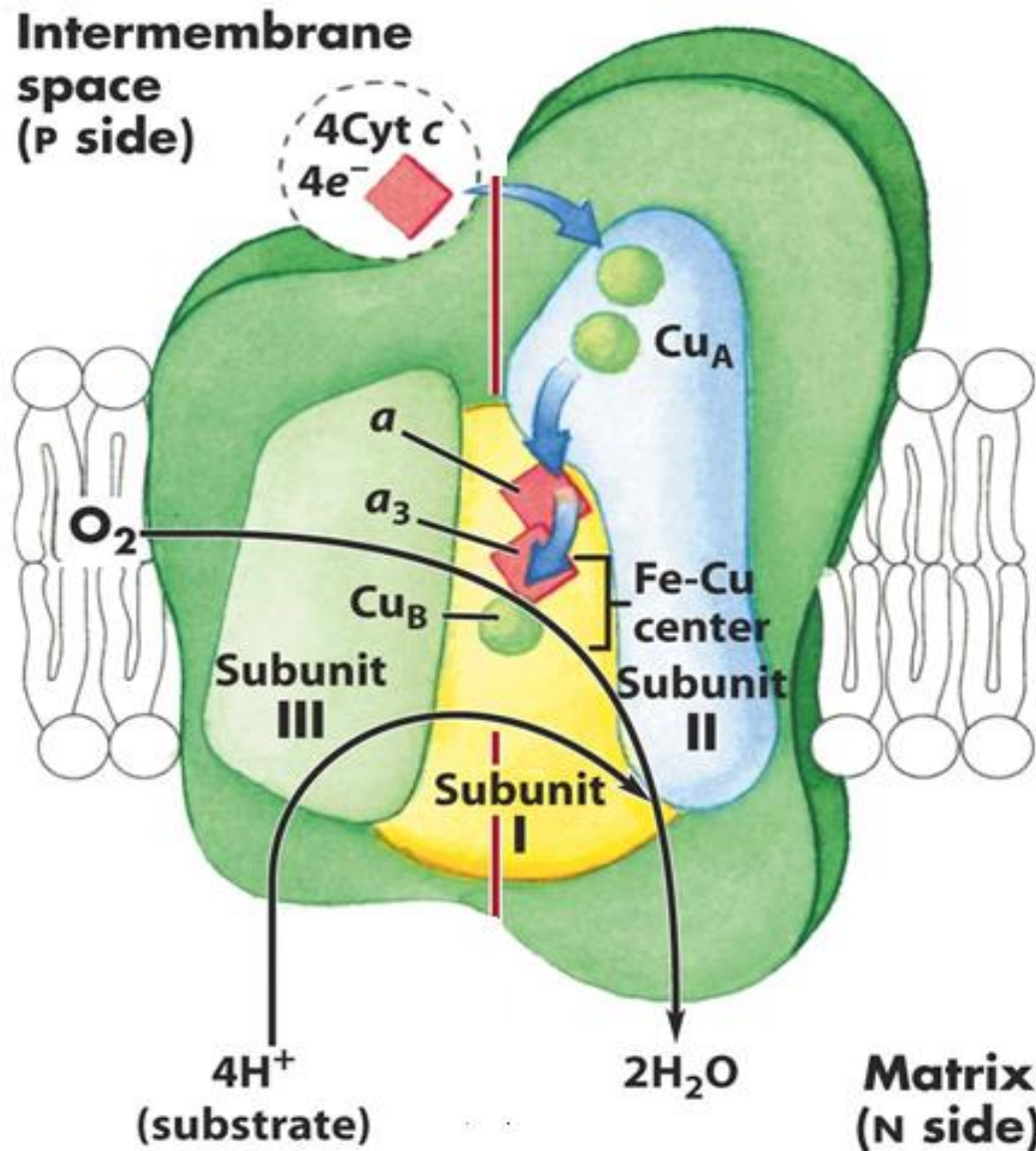


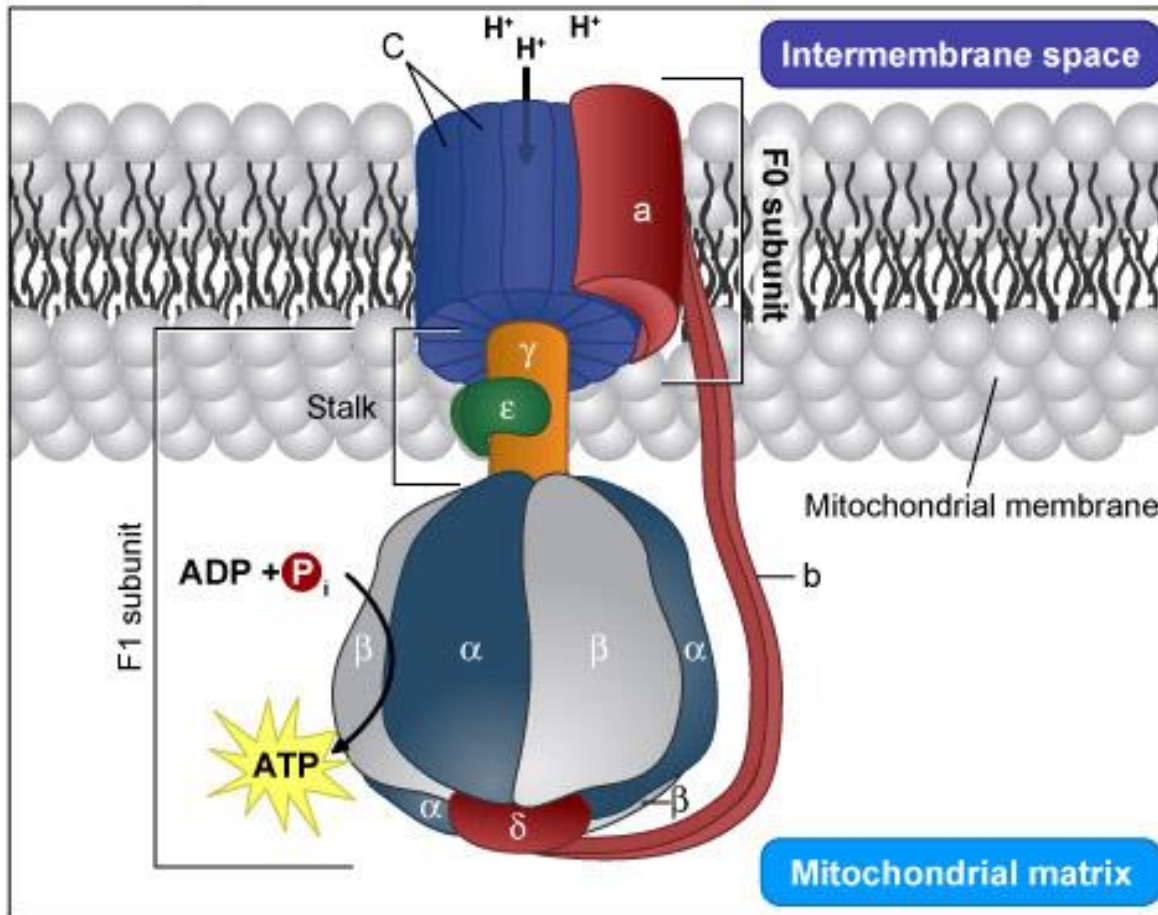
Figure 19-11a
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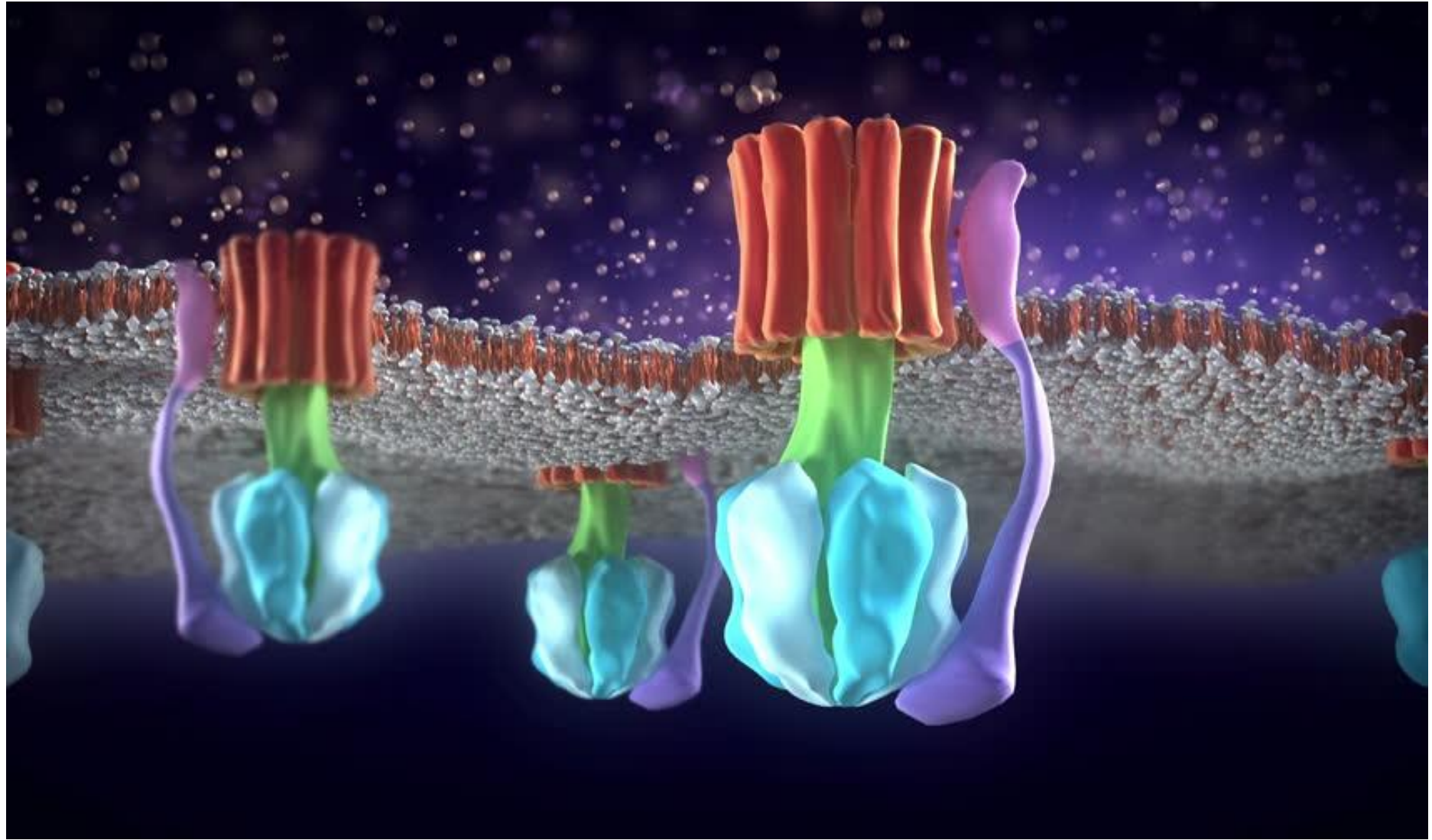
Complex IV: cyt c oxidase



Complex V: ATP synthase

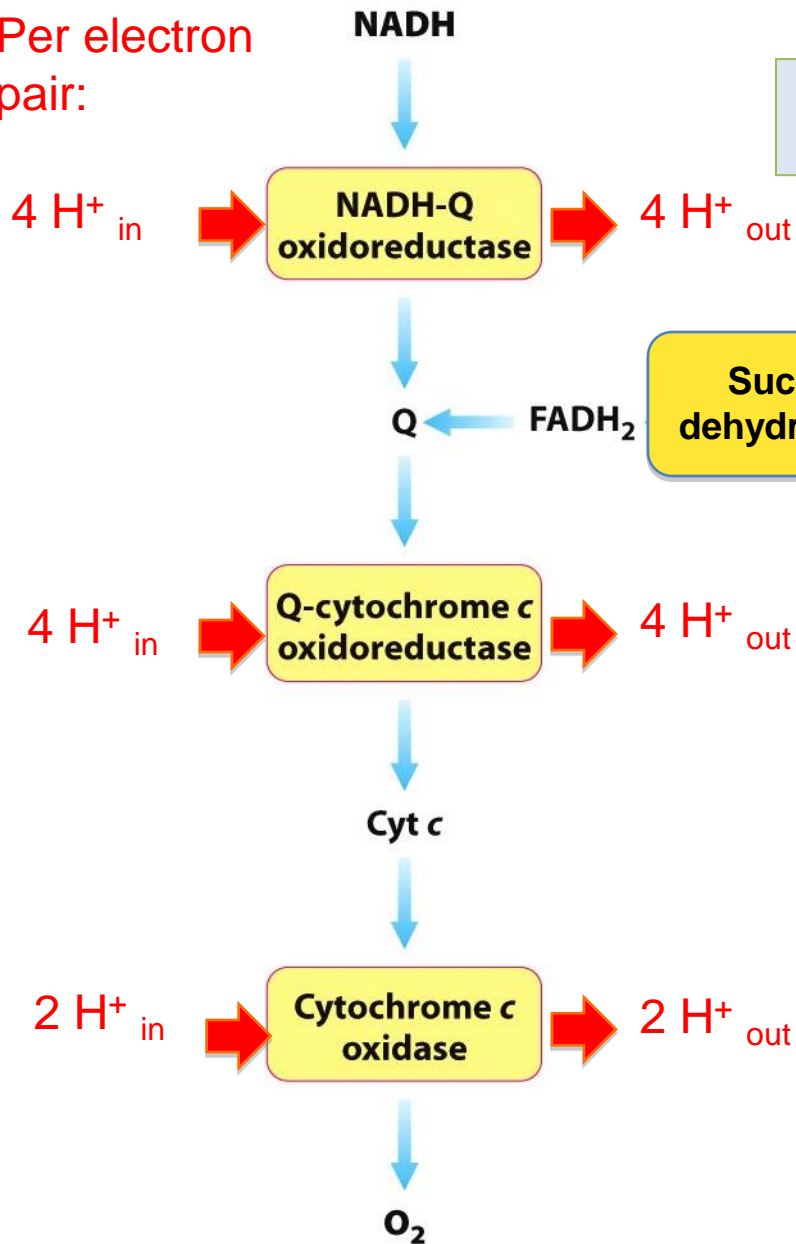
ATP Synthase



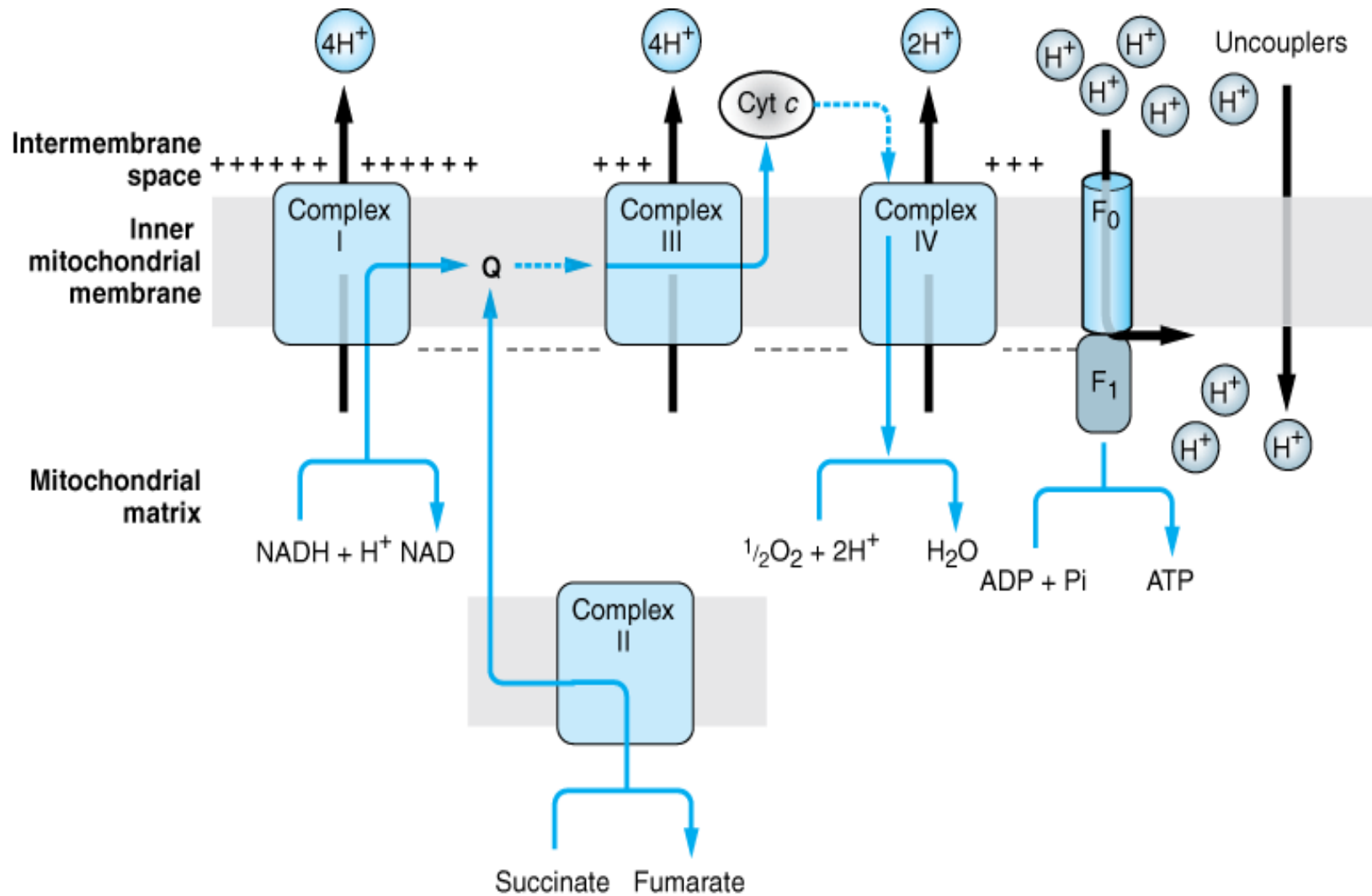


Electron Transport Chain

Per electron pair:



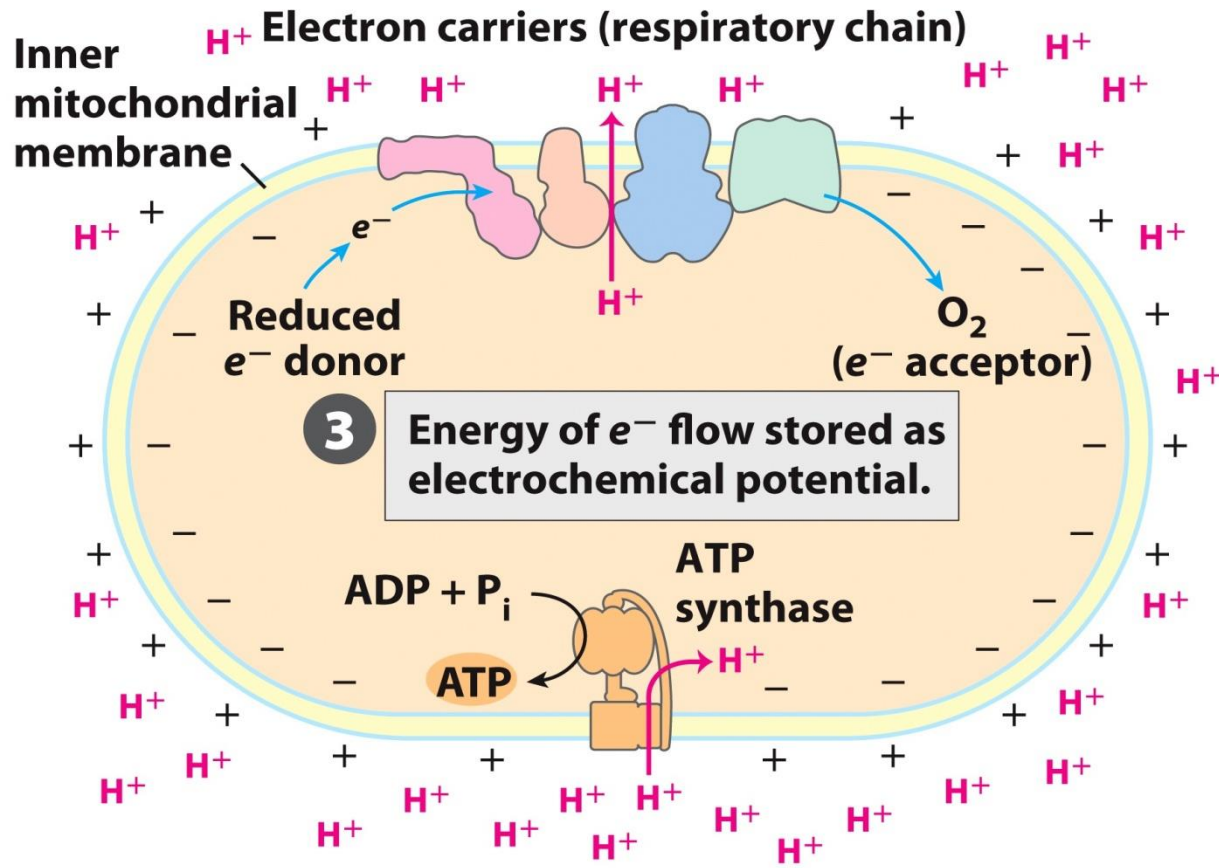
Some carriers pump protons



Mitochondrion

Chemiosmotic Mechanism

- 1 Reduced substrate (fuel) donates e^- .
- 2 Electron carriers pump H^+ out as electrons flow to O_2 .



3 Energy of e^- flow stored as electrochemical potential.

4 ATP synthase uses electrochemical potential to synthesize ATP.

Electron transport chain sets up an H^+ gradient (proton motive force).

Energy of the pmf is harnessed to make ATP.