

Metabolism

Enzymes



Metabolism



- A cell's metabolism is all the organism's chemical reactions.
- Metabolism manages the material and energy resources of the cell.
- Energy is the capacity to do work.

Metabolism



- 2 types of Energy Pathways:
 - Catabolic Pathways
 - Anabolic Pathways

Metabolic Pathways - Catabolic

- Catabolic Pathways: metabolic pathways which **RELEASE** energy by breaking down complex molecules to simpler molecules
 - “downhill” metabolic pathway – energy is released from storage (glycogen to glucose)
 - Ex: Triglycerides are broken down into free fatty acids for energy usage

Metabolic Pathways - Anabolic

- Anabolic Pathways: metabolic pathways which **CONSUME/USE** energy to build complex molecules from simpler ones.
 - “uphill” metabolic pathway – energy used to drive uphill reactions.
 - Ex: synthesis of proteins from amino acids

Laws of Energy Transformations



- We live in open systems – energy is transferred from the organisms (the matter in a particular area) and their surroundings
- *First Law of Thermodynamics*
 - Energy can neither be created or destroyed
 - Energy can be transferred and transformed

Laws of Energy Transformations



- With every energy transfer or transformation some becomes unusable energy or unavailable to do work
- *Second Law of Thermodynamics*
 - Every energy transfer or transformation increases the entropy (randomness) of the universe
 - Organisms can increase their order, as long as the order of their surroundings decrease

Free Energy



- Organisms live at the expense of free energy and require a highly ordered system
 - Order is maintained by constant free energy input into the system
 - Loss of order or free energy flow results in death
 - Increased disorder and entropy are offset by biological processes that maintain or increase order

Free Energy



- Living systems do not violate the 2nd law of thermodynamics because
 - Order is maintained by coupling cellular processes that increase entropy (negative free energy change) with those that decrease entropy (positive free energy change)
 - Energy input must exceed free energy lost to entropy to maintain order and power cellular processes

Free Energy

- Gibb's Equation: $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$
 - ΔG = change in free energy
 - ΔH = change in system's enthalpy
 - T = temperature in Kelvin units
 - ΔS = change in system's entropy
- Systems will move toward greater stability (low ΔG) and eventually reach a point of equilibrium

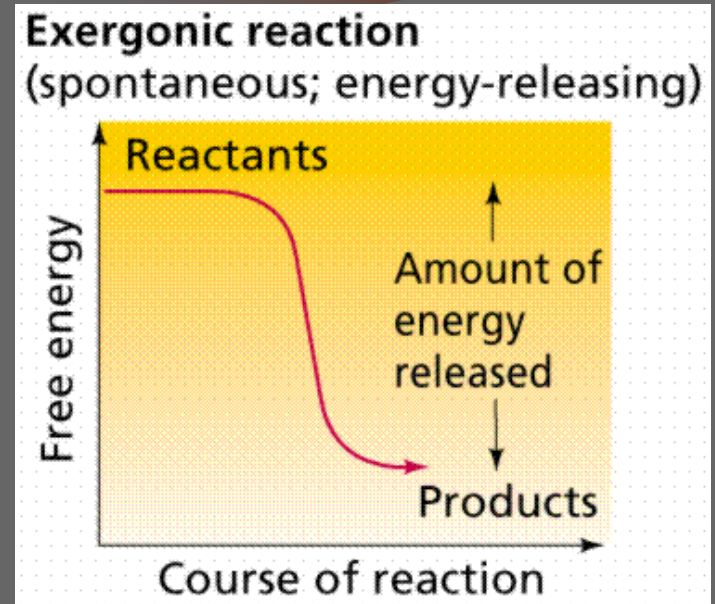
Metabolic Pathways



- Metabolic pathways are composed of MANY individual reactions.
- Two types of chemical reactions:
 1. Exergonic reactions
 2. Endergonic reactions

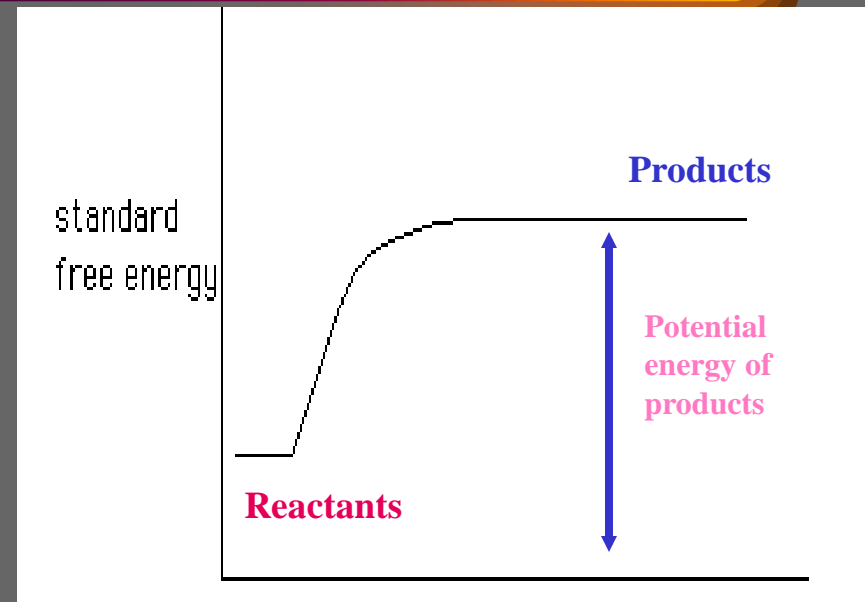
Exergonic Reactions

- **Definition:** Spontaneous chemical reaction in which there is a NET RELEASE of free energy ($\Delta G < 0$).
 - Total free energy of the products is less than the total free energy in the reactants (**ENERGY IS GIVEN OFF DURING REACTION**)
 - Occurs spontaneously and releases energy
 - REQUIRES activation energy
 - Example: food broken down and releases energy from chemical bonds



Endergonic Reactions

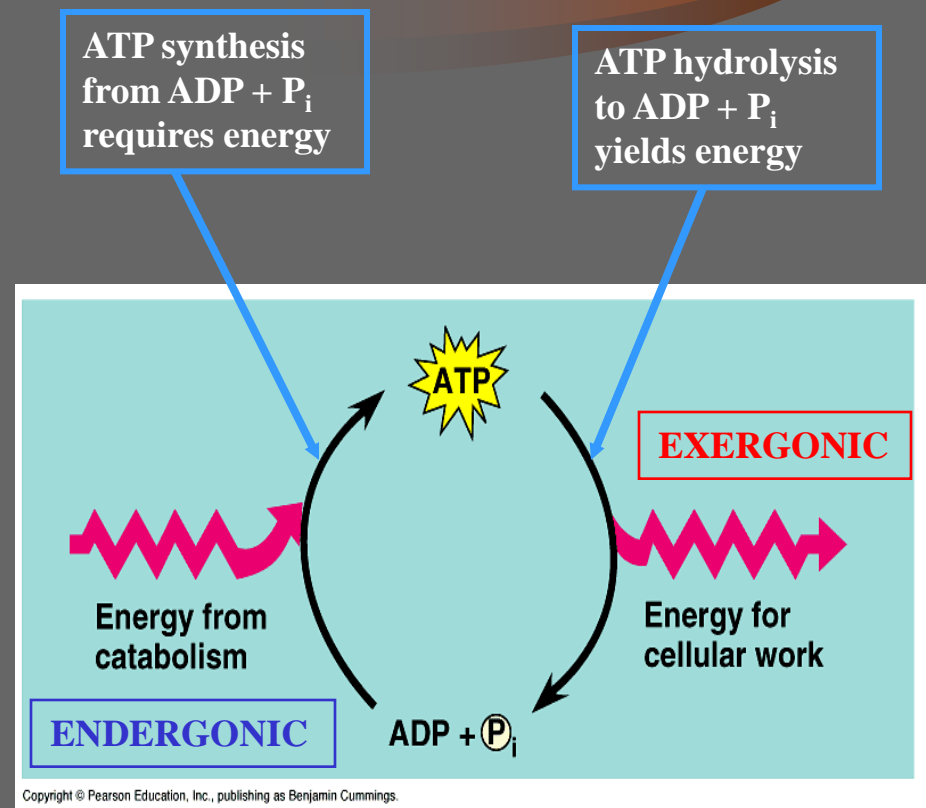
- **Definition** – Reactions that require the **INPUT** of energy ($\Delta G > 0$).
 - PRODUCTS have MORE energy than REACTANTS.
 - Absorb energy and are **NOT SPONTANEOUS**
 - Requires **LARGE AMOUNTS** of **ACTIVATION ENERGY**
 - **Ex**: plants use carbon dioxide and water to form sugars



Course of Reaction

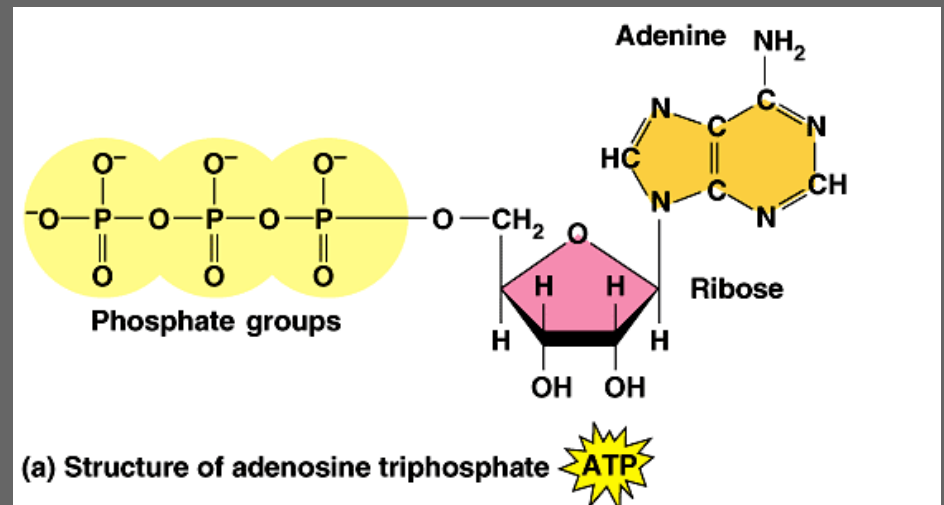
Energy Coupling

- Heat alone is an inefficient energy source
- **Energy Coupling**: the use of an exergonic reaction to drive an endergonic one.
 - Ex: the breakdown and formation of ATP
- ATP is responsible for MOST energy coupling in cells – ATP hydrolysis is coupled with endergonic reactions



Adenosine Triphosphate (ATP)

- ATP has 3 main components:
 - Nitrogen base – Adenine
 - Sugar molecule – Ribose
 - 3 Phosphate groups



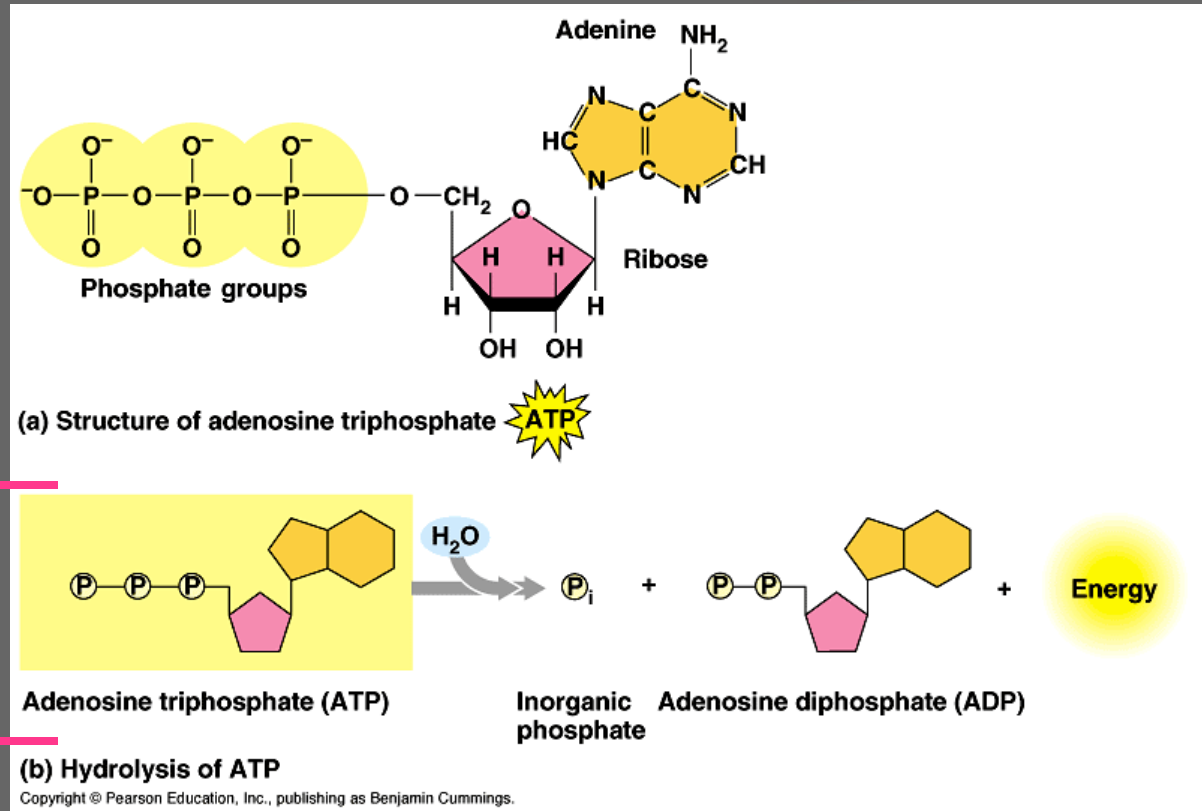
Adenosine Triphosphate (ATP)



- Bonds linking the phosphate groups may be broken by hydrolysis.
- At any given time there is a very high ratio of ATP to ADP
- ATP cannot be stockpiled for extended periods of time.
- Each second, ~ 10 million molecules of ATP are created and recycled.

HYDROLYSIS of ATP

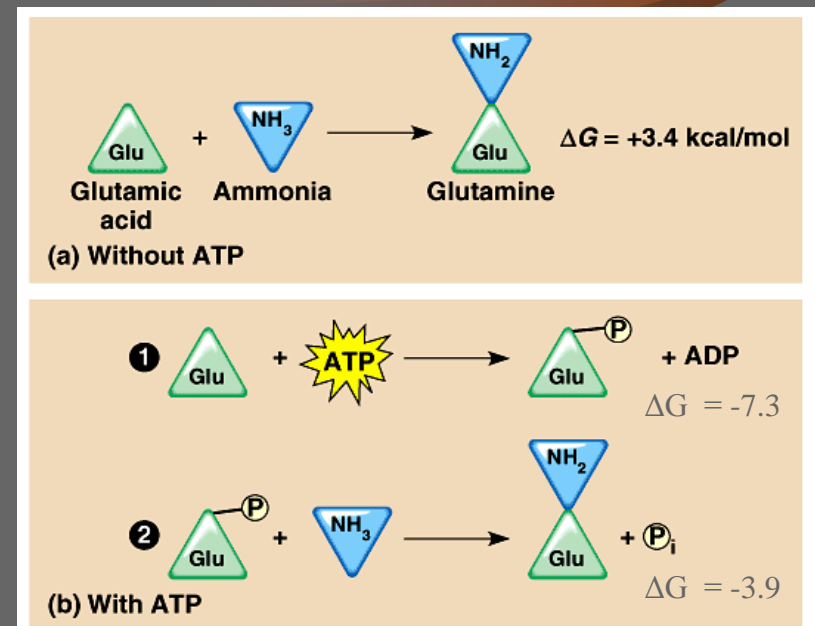
Energy released from this process is free to do work.



Exothermic
reaction:
releasing
energy

Breakdown (HYDROLYSIS) of ATP

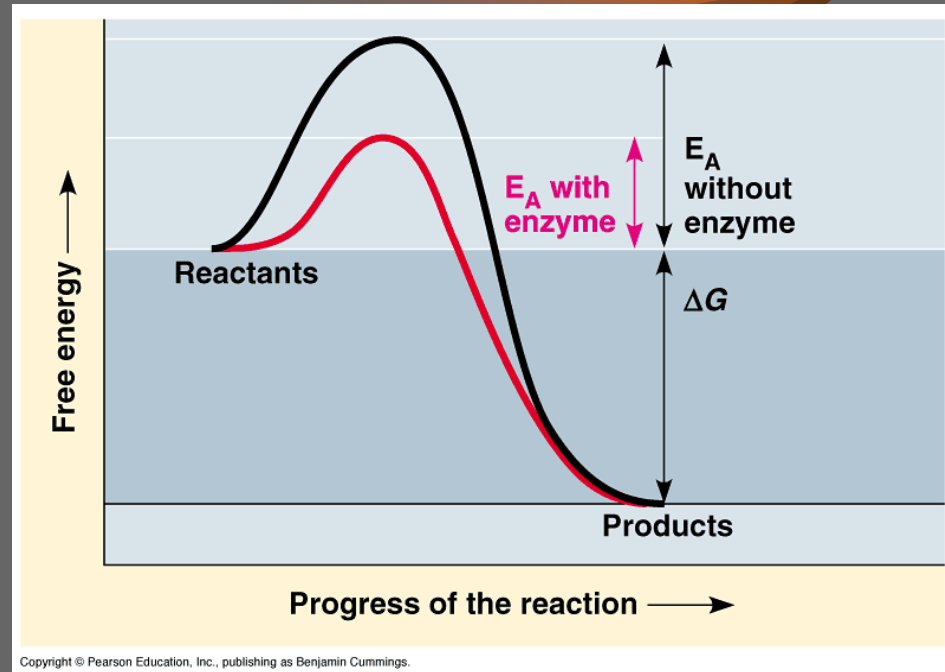
- Hydrolysis of ATP releases heat to surrounding environment.
- Heat alone is **INEFFICIENT** as an energy source
- Energy from ATP hydrolysis is coupled to endergonic reactions by transferring P_i from ATP to another molecule = **PHOSPHORYLATION**



Phosphorylated molecule is more reactive, therefore able to perform work.

ENZYMES

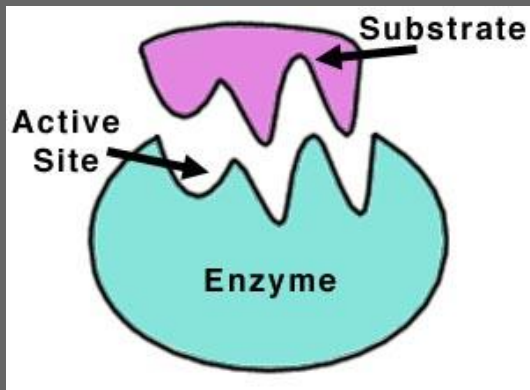
- CATALYSTS speed up the rate of chemical reactions without being used up in the process
- ENZYMES are proteins that act as biological catalysts
- Enzymes lower the activation energy of a reaction
- ACTIVATION ENERGY is the amount of energy needed to start a reaction



ENZYMES



- Have no effect on the overall free energy (G) of the reaction, they just force the reaction to occur faster.
- Reactants can only breakdown when they have absorbed enough energy to reach the **transition state**
- The specificity of an enzyme is due to its 3D shape and the levels of organization in the protein

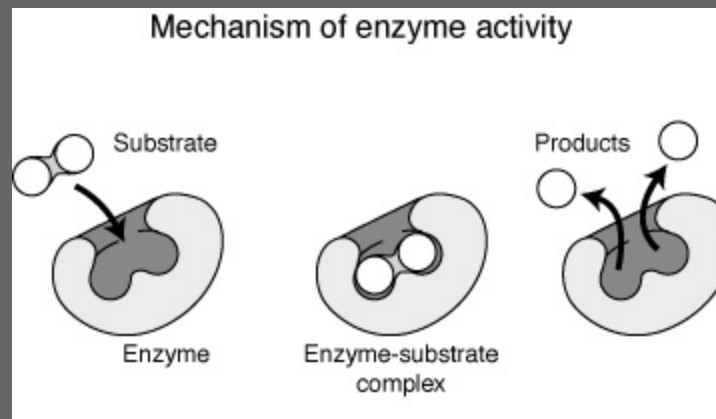


ENZYMES

- The reactant the enzyme acts on is referred to as the enzyme's SUBSTRATE
- Only a restricted region of the enzyme molecule actually binds to the substrate
 - This area is called the enzyme's ACTIVE SITE

Enzymes

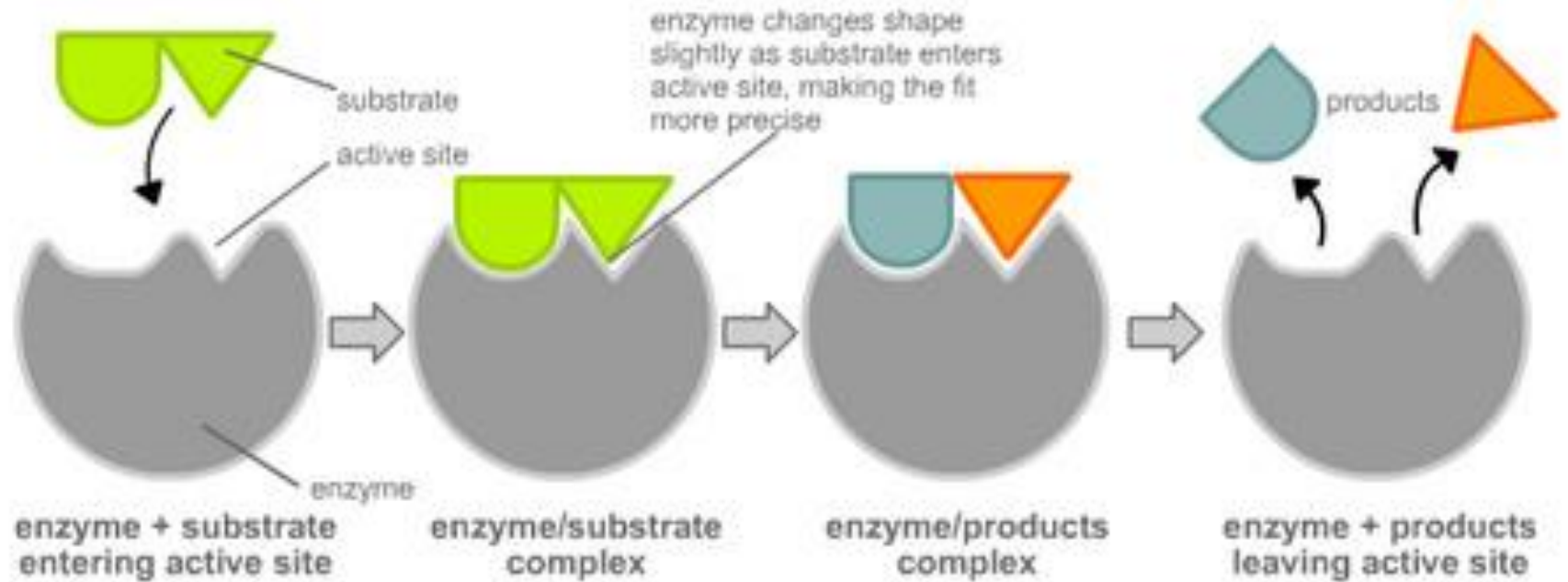
- The active site is usually a pocket or groove on the surface of the enzyme
- When the enzyme binds to the substrate, a temporary enzyme-substrate complex is created.



Enzymes



- The enzymatic cycle happens so fast that a single enzyme molecule typically converts about 1000 substrate molecules per second over to product.
- Enzymes emerge from the reaction in their original form.
- However, the Induced Fit Model refers to a slight change in shape to produce a tight fit around the substrate



Enzymes and Activation Energy



- How can enzymes lower the activation energy?
 - Allows reactants to get into the proper orientation to react
 - Stretches the substrate to cause bonds to break easier (helps reach the transition state faster)
 - Creates a microenvironment more conducive for the reaction to occur
 - Direct participation of the active site in the reaction – may bind to the substrate temporarily

Factors Affecting Enzymatic Activity



1. Temperature
2. pH
3. Salt concentrations (Salinity)
4. Cofactors
5. Enzyme inhibitors

Temperature & Enzymatic Activity

- Up to a certain point, the velocity of an enzymatic reaction **INCREASES** with increasing temperatures
- INCREASED TEMPERATURE = increase in molecular movement resulting in greater collisions between enzymes and molecules
- Temperatures that get TOO high result in thermal agitation of the enzyme molecule
 - This enzyme becomes **DENATURED**

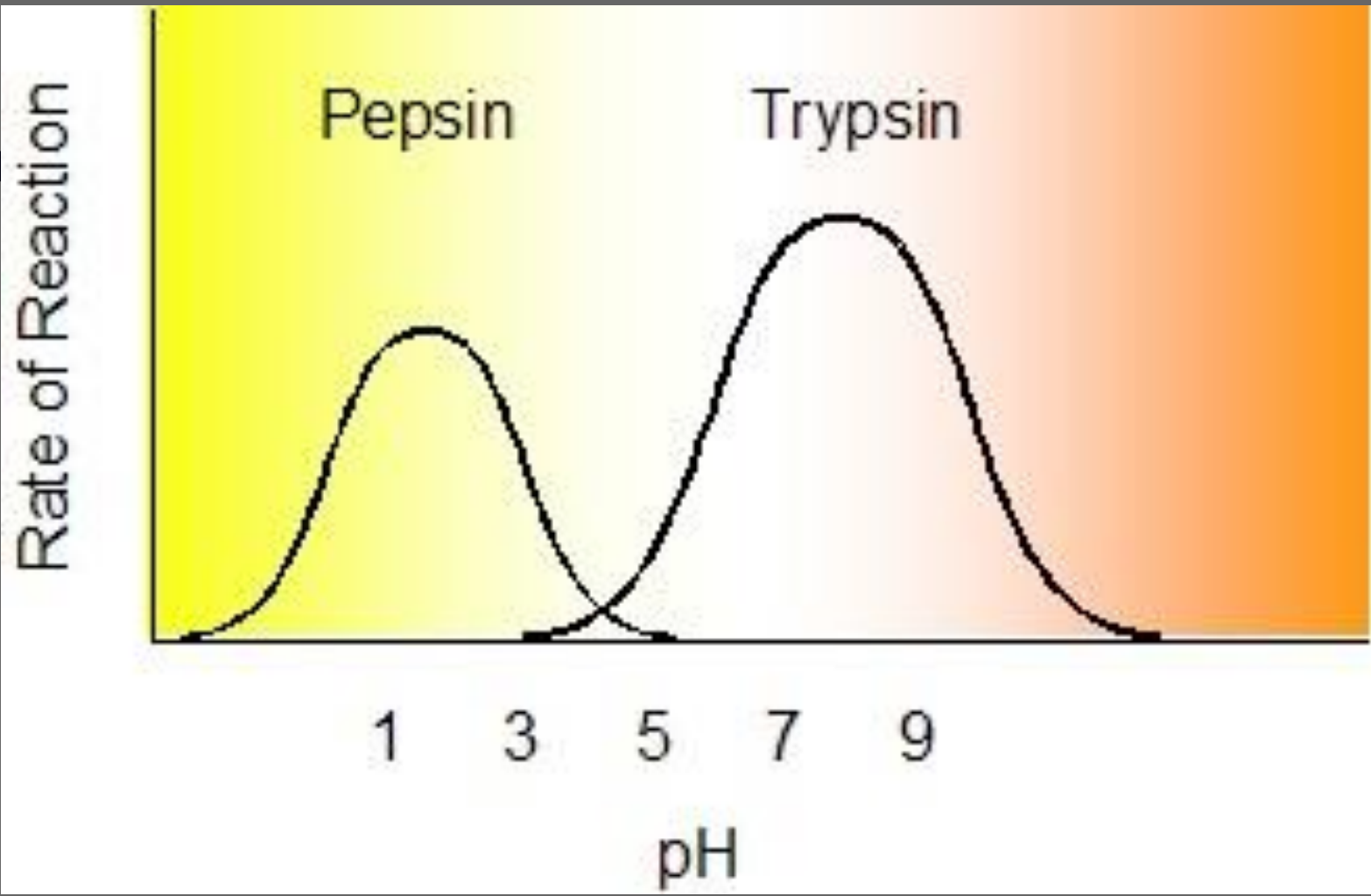
Draw a graph to show this trend

pH & Enzymatic Activity



- The optimal range for most enzymes is pH 6-8
- One EXCEPTION: Pepsin: digestive enzyme in the stomach – works best at pH 2
- An environment that is TOO ACIDIC or TOO ALKALINE can denature an enzyme

Draw a graph to show this trend



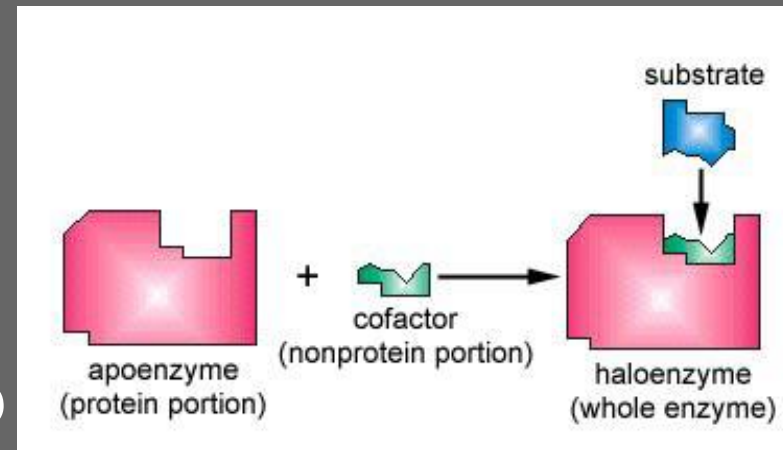
Salinity & Enzymatic Activity



- Most enzymes can't tolerate environmental conditions that are too SALINE (salty)
- This will also cause the enzyme to denature

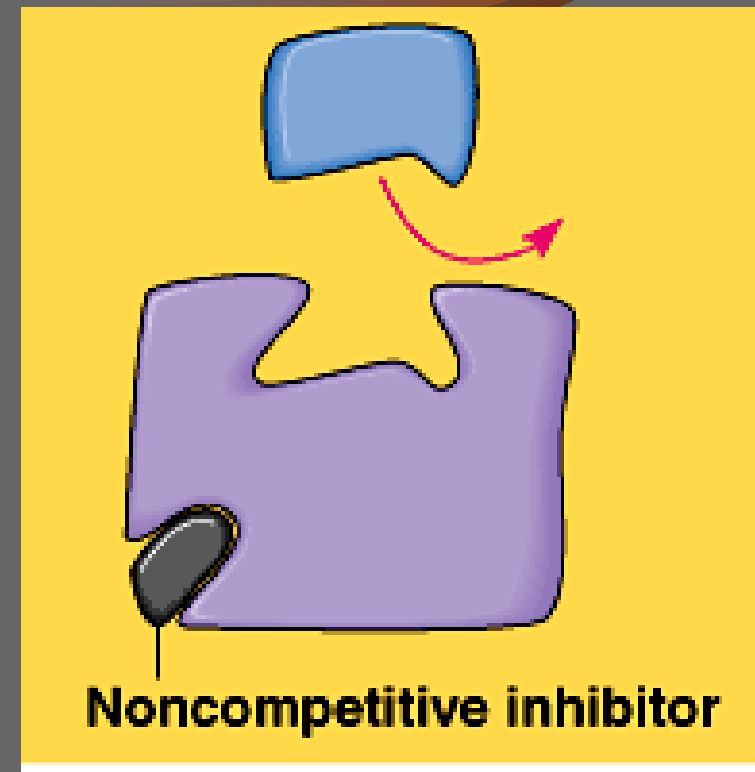
Cofactors & Enzymatic Activity

- Many enzymes require non-protein helpers for catalytic activity = COFACTORS
 - Inorganic cofactors include: Mg, Ca, Fe, Cu, Zn, & Mn.
- Organic cofactors are called COENZYMES
 - ATP, Vitamins, and Coenzyme A (CoA) are also coenzymes
- Cofactors can bind tightly to the active site of the enzyme permanently or they may bind loosely and release along with the substrate.



Inhibitors & Enzymatic Activity

- **Irreversible inhibition:**
 - If the inhibitor attaches to the enzyme by covalent bonds, inhibition is **USUALLY IRREVERSIBLE**
 - **Example:** penicillin blocks the active site of an enzyme that many bacteria use to make their cell walls
 - Example: sarin (nerve gas) and DDT (pesticide) can impact the nervous system by binding to acetylcholinesterase



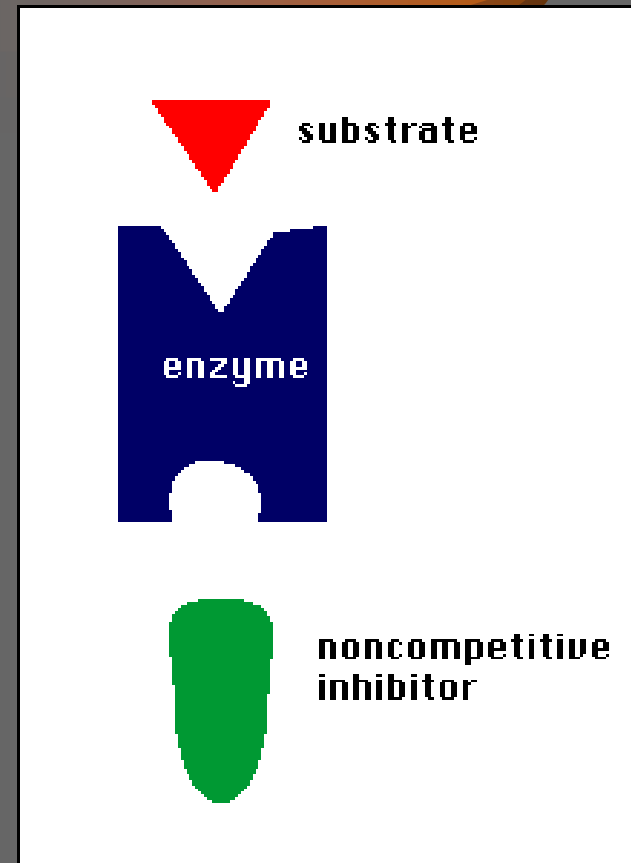
Inhibitors & Enzymatic Reactions



- **Reversible Inhibition:**
 - Inhibitor attaches to the enzyme using weak interactions
 - Reversible inhibition can be competitive or non-competitive

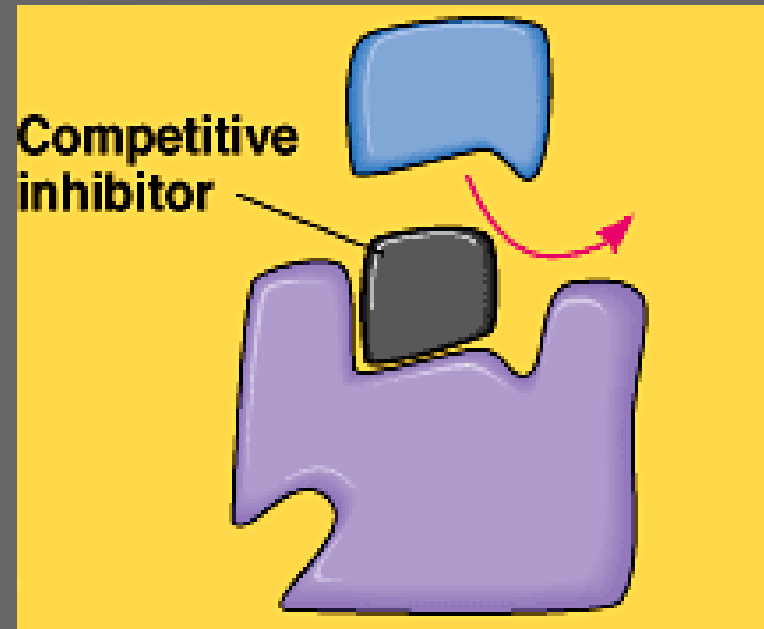
Inhibitors & Enzymatic Reactions

- **Non-Competitive Inhibitors:**
 - Impede the enzymatic reactions by binding to a part of the enzyme away from the active site
 - This causes the enzyme to change its shape rendering the active site unreceptive



Inhibitors & Enzymatic Reactions

- **Reversible – Competitive Inhibitors:**
 - Resemble the normal substrate molecule and compete for admission into the active site
 - They reduce the productivity of enzymes
 - Increasing the number of substrate molecules reduces the effectiveness of competitive inhibitors



Regulation of Enzyme Activity



- Allosteric regulation involves the binding of a molecule to an enzyme other than at its active site
- This causes the enzyme to be stimulated or inhibited depending on the molecule
- ATP can inhibit activity while ADP can stimulate activity on the same enzyme

Regulation of Enzyme Activity



- Cooperativity is an amplification of enzyme activity when one substrate binds to one active site and stimulates the other subunits

Regulation of Enzyme Activity



- Feedback inhibition is when a metabolic pathway is switched off by the inhibitory binding of the end product to an enzyme
- This stops the pathway from continuing
- Example: synthesis of amino acids

Location of Enzymes in Cell



- Some are grouped into complexes, some incorporated into membranes and others are contained inside organelles (lysosomes)
- Bacteria (prokaryotic cells) have enzymes located in the cytosol

Enzymes



- Animations