

Modes of Nutrition

- Autotrophs "self-feeders"
 - Capture free energy from physical sources in the environment
 - Photosynthetic organisms = sunlight
 - Chemosynthetic organisms = small inorganic molecules (occurs in absence of oxygen)
 - Produce organic molecules from CO₂ and other inorganic raw materials from the environment
 - Are PRODUCERS of the biosphere

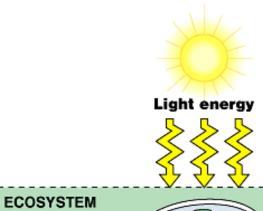
Modes of Nutrition

- Heterotrophs "consumers"
 - Captures free energy present in carbon compounds produced by other organisms
 - Metabolize carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins by hydrolysis as sources of free energy
 - CONSUMERS of the biosphere

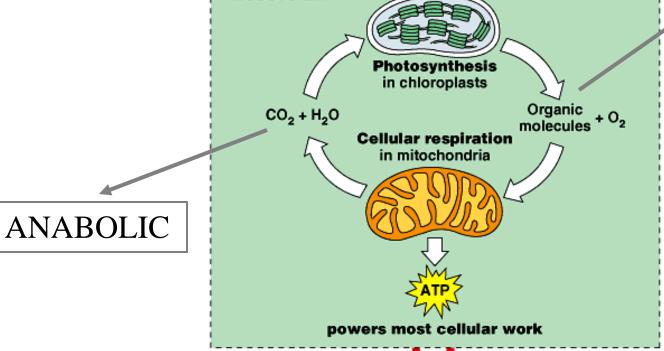
Photosynthesis & Cellular Respiration

 Photosynthesis is the conversion of <u>light</u> energy into <u>chemical energy</u>

 Cellular respiration is the harvesting of ENERGY in the chemical bonds of glucose



CATABOLIC

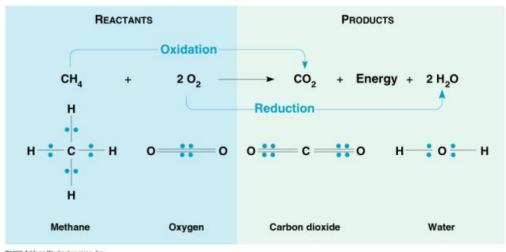




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Oxidation-reduction (Redox) Reactions

- Oxidation is electron loss; Reduction is electron gain
 - OIL RIG (adding electron reduces + charge)
- Reducing agent is electron donor and Oxidizing agent is electron acceptor



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Structure of a plant

- How they obtain the raw materials for photosynthesis:
 - Sunlight
 - Leaves = solar collectors
 - **CO2**
 - Stomata = gas exchange
 - **H2O**
 - Uptake from roots
 - Nutrients
 - Uptake from roots

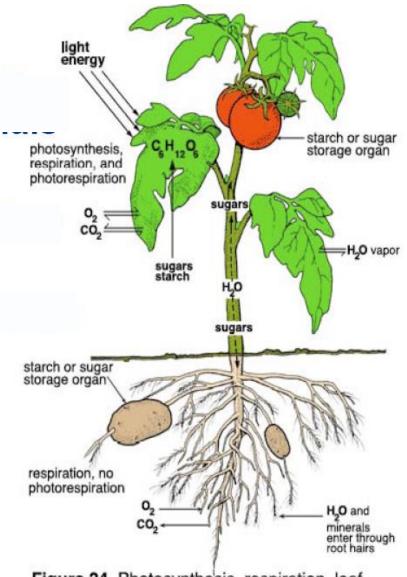
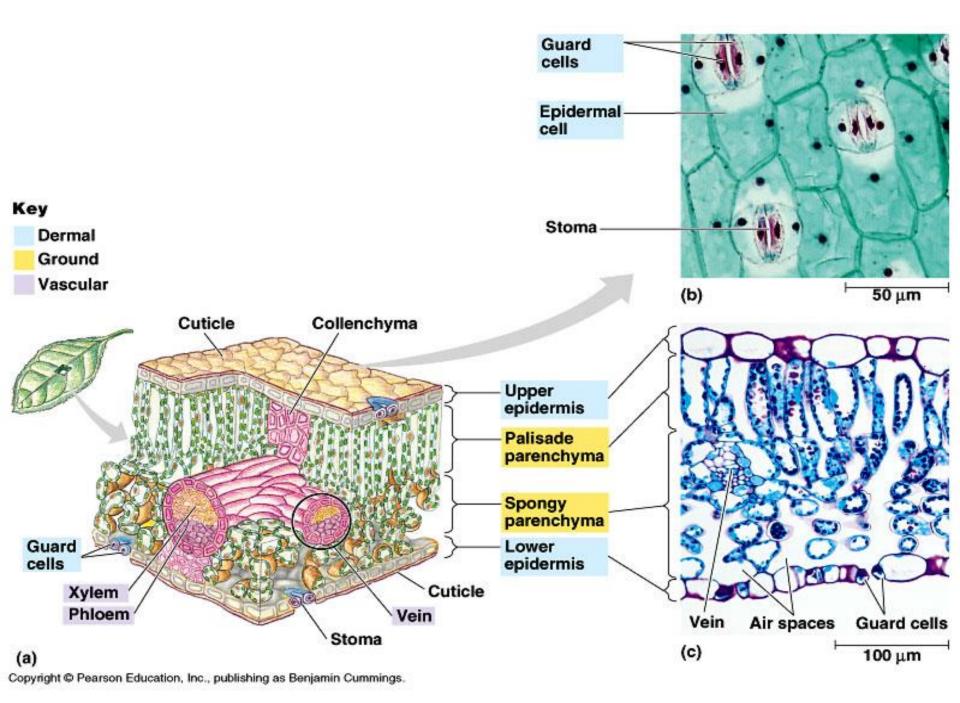


Figure 24. Photosynthesis, respiration, leaf water exchange, and translocation of sugar (photosynthate) in a plant.



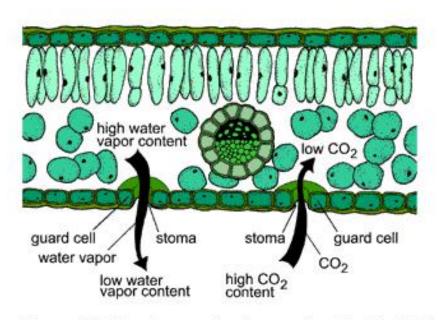
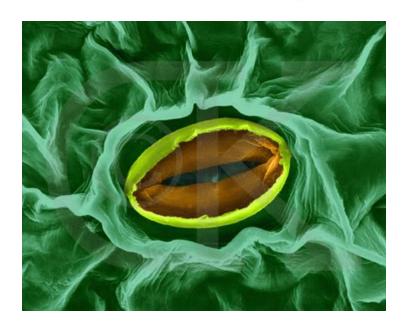
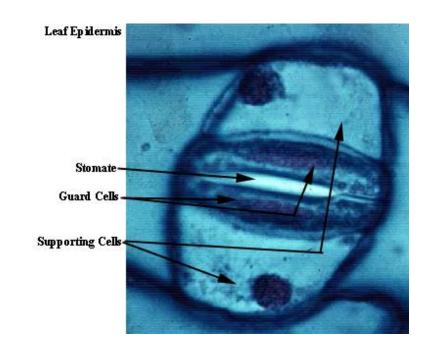
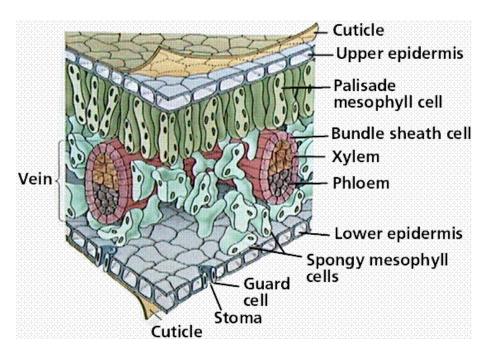


Figure 25. Stomata open to allow carbon dioxide (CO₂) to enter a leaf and water vapor to leave.







Plant Tissue Cell Types

Parenchyma

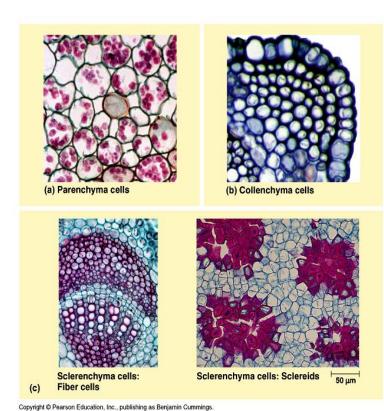
 primary walls thin and flexible; no secondary walls; large central vacuole; most metabolic functions of plant (chloroplasts)

Collenchyma

 unevenly thick primary walls used for plant support (no secondary walls; no lignin)

Sclerenchyma

 support element strengthened by secondary cell walls with lignin (may be dead; xylem cells); fibers and sclereids for support



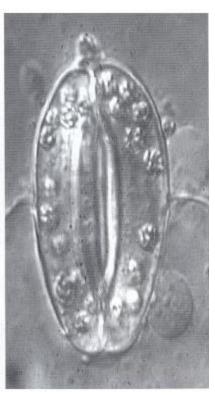
Primary Tissues of Leaves

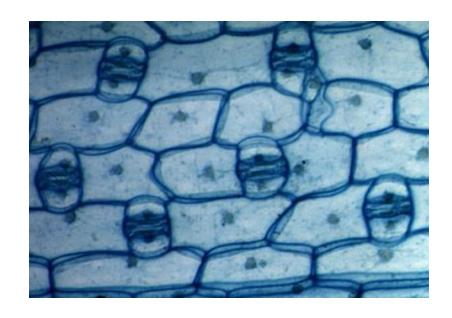
Epidermis/cuticle (protection; desiccation)

- Stomata (tiny pores for gas exchange and transpiration)/guard cells
- Mesophyll: ground tissue between upper and lower epidermis (parenchyma with chloroplasts);
 - palisade (most photosynthesis) and spongy (gas circulation)

STOMATA







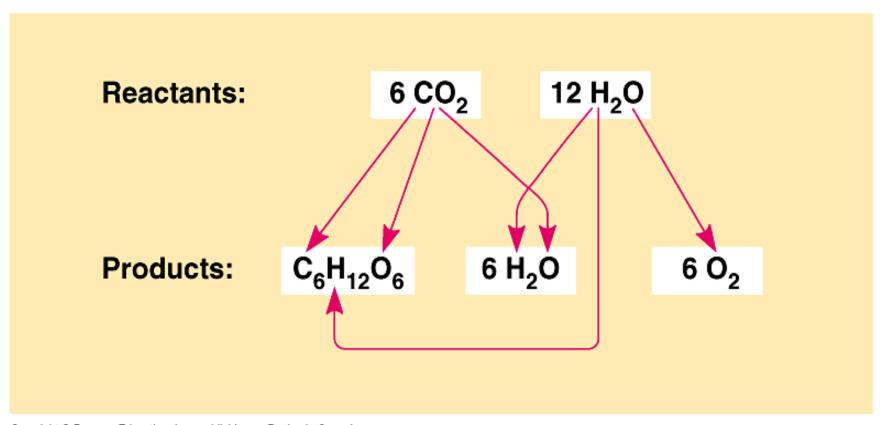
Overview

 Photosynthesis is the conversion of light energy into chemical bond energy

$$6 CO_2 + 12 H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6 O_2 + 6 H_2O_1$$

- This is the reverse of cellular respiration; thus, photosynthesis & cellular respiration are coupled reactions.
- It occurs in two stages:
 - Light Reactions in the thylakoid space
 - Calvin Cycle in the stroma

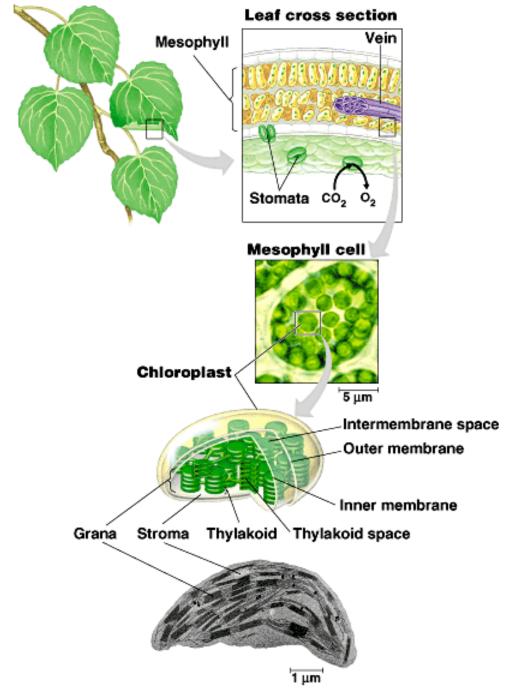
Tracking Atoms in Photosynthesis



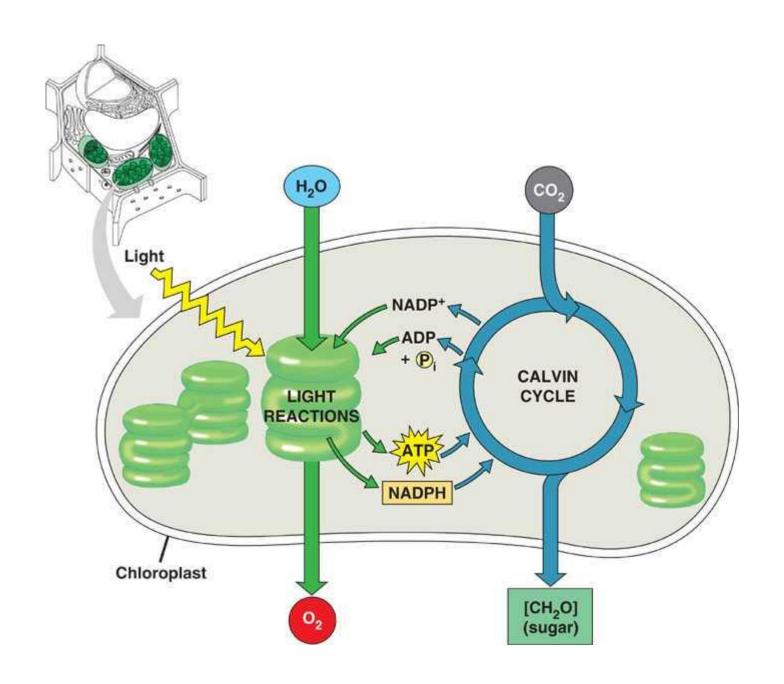
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Where does it occur?

- Chloroplasts photosynthetic organelles
 - All green parts of a plant contain chloroplasts
 - Divided into 3 distinct compartments:
 - Intermembrane space: separates the inner and outer chloroplast membrane
 - Thylakoid space: consists of stacks of thylakoids which are arranged in stacks called grana; location of chlorophyll
 - Light reactions occur here
 - **Stroma**: viscous (thick) fluid outside the thylakoids
 - Calvin cycle occurs here

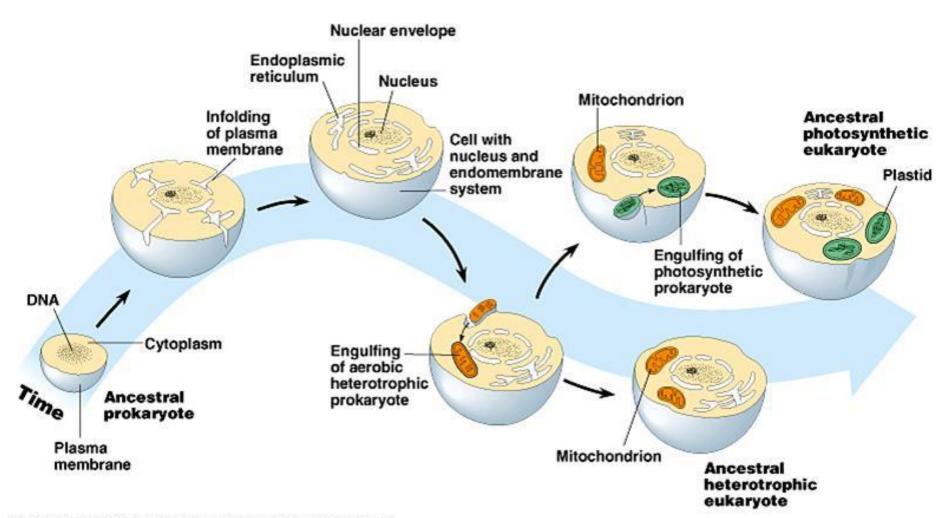


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How did chloroplasts and mitochondria get into the plant cell?

- Endosymbiotic Theory
 - The arise of eukaryotic cells from prokaryotic cells
 - First, nucleus was formed from infolding of plasma membrane
 - Second, aerobic heterotrophic bacteria was engulfed by another bacteria
 - Third, some of the cells engulfed photosynthetic bacteria
- Cells may have begun as prey or parasites, but a mutually beneficial relationship resulted



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Nature of Light

 Visible light's wavelength stretches from 380nm to 750nm.

 The visible range of light is the radiation that drives photosynthesis.

 Light consists of particles called PHOTONS which are fixed quantities of energy. What happens when chlorophyll & other pigments absorb photons?

- When a molecule of a pigment (color) absorbs a photon, one of the molecules' electrons is elevated to an orbital or energy level where it has more potential energy
 - Increase wavelength; decrease energy
 - Decrease wavelength; increase energy

Ground State vs Excited State Electrons

Ground State – electron is in its normal orbital

 Excited State – an electron in its higher energy orbital; occurs after the absorption of a photon; very unstable.

Light Reactions

- Reactions that convert light energy to chemical bond energy in ATP and NADPH.
 - Occur in the thylakoid membranes of chloroplasts
 - Reduce (gain electrons) NADP+ to NADPH
 - Give off O₂ as a by-product from the splitting of H₂0
 - Generate ATP through photophosphorylation

Photosystems

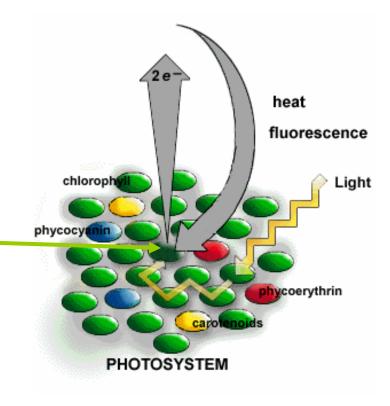
- Chlorophyll molecules are organized in the thylakoid membrane into photosystems
 - Photosystem structure:
 - Reaction center surrounded by light harvesting complexes
 - Reaction Center = protein complex that includes
 2 chlorophyll a molecules and a primary electron
 acceptor
 - In chlorophyll, the acceptor molecule functions as a dam, preventing the flow of electrons to plunge immediately back to their ground state

-Photosystem structure:

• <u>Light harvesting complex</u> = chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, & carotenoids bound to proteins

Acts as an antenna for the reaction center

to absorb light



REACTION CENTER

Photosystems I & II

 Thylakoid membrane has two photosystems (II and I) – named in order of discovery, but PHOTOSYSTEM II functions first followed by Photosystem I

Photosystem II:

 Reaction center = P680 chlorophyll a (functions best at wavelengths of 680nm of light)

Photosystem I:

 Reaction center = P700 chlorophyll a (functions best at wavelengths of 700nm of light)

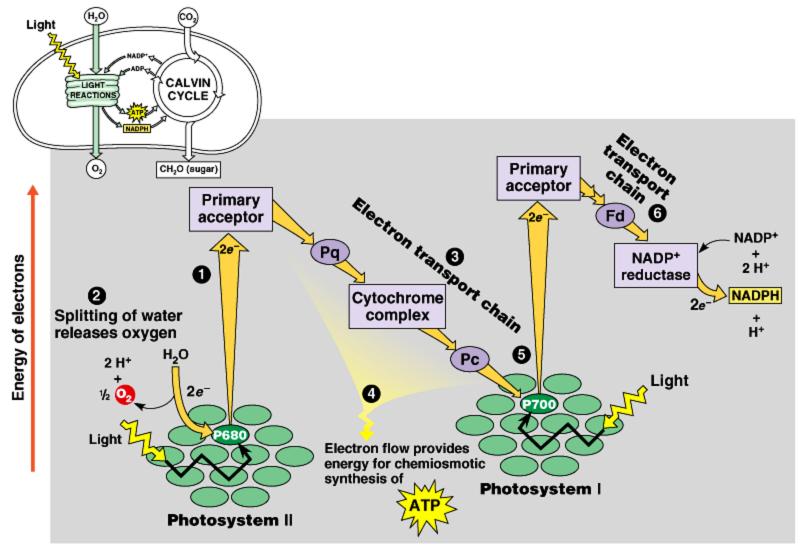
Photosystem II

 Non-cyclic electron flow – electrons pass continually from H₂0 and chlorophyll to NADPH

- P680 absorbs light with a wavelength best of 680nm and excites electrons in the chlorophyll
- Passes the electrons to protein chain

Photosystem II

- P680 gains back the electrons it lost by splitting H₂0 – this also creates O₂.
- As the excited electrons slide down the chain connecting photosystem II with photosystem I, the chain pumps H+ across the thylakoid membrane to the thylakoid space.
 - The build up of H+ can then drive ATP synthesis: Chemiosmosis



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Photosystem I

- P700 absorbs light with a wavelength of 700nm
- Light energy excites electron in the chlorophyll, which is passed along the more of the protein chain
- Electrons from Photosystem II are used to replace the lost electron
- 2 electrons are used to make NADPH

Photosystem I

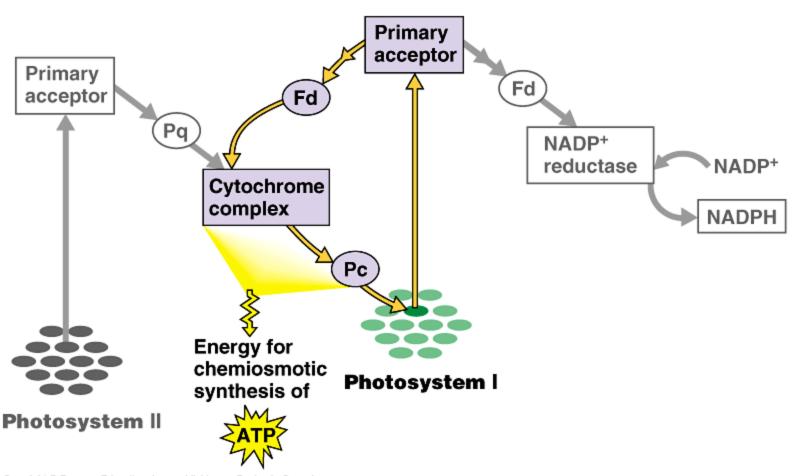
<u>Cyclic electron flow</u> – alternative pathway that just involves Photosystem I

- Simpler pathway of electron flow than Photosystem II
- electrons cycle back to cytochrome complex (proteins in the chain) continues back into Photosystem I
- Only ATP is generated NO NADPH or O₂ is harvested
- Only used when there is a build up of NADPH or more ATP is required for Calvin Cycle

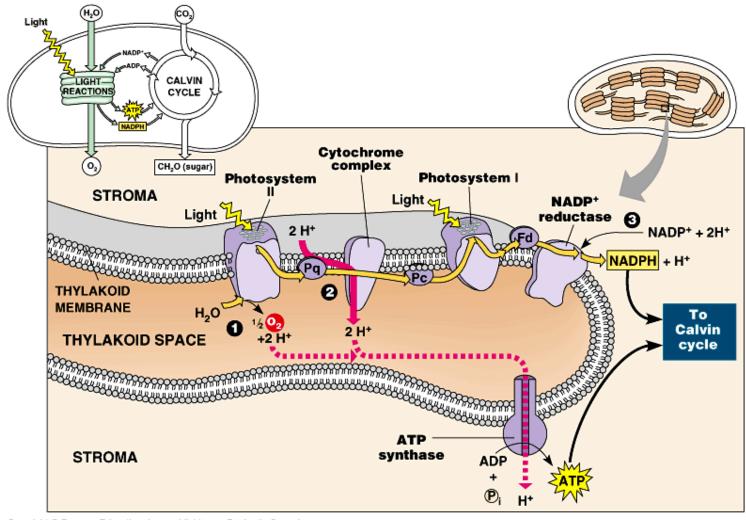
Summary Light Reactions

- Noncyclic electron flow = captures electrons from water and transfers to NADP+
 - low potential energy [water] to high potential energy [NADPH]
- Light reactions produce O₂ from splitting H₂O
- Electron transport chain in the thylakoid membranes generate ATP
 - ATP is released into the stroma for the DARK REACTION [Calvin cycle]
- ATP & NADPH are used in the Calvin cycle to produce carbohydrates and release O₂ as a byproduct.

Cyclic electron flow



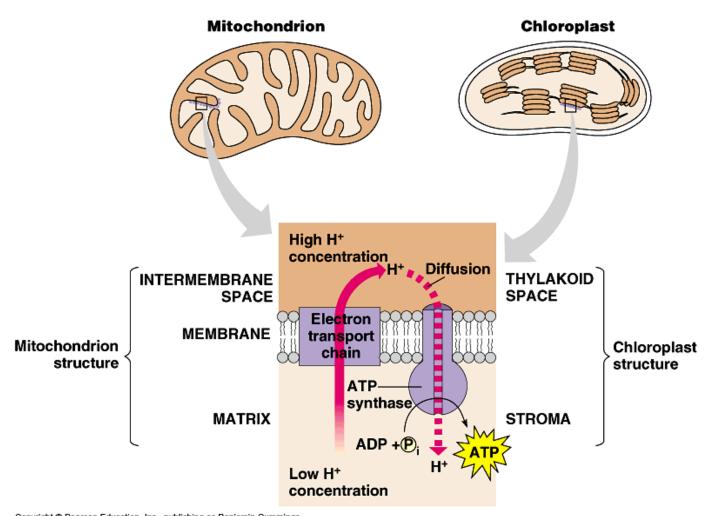
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Chloroplasts and Mitochondria both generate ATP by chemiosmosis

Chemiosmosis – Mitochondria vs. Chloroplast



Calvin Cycle

- CO₂ is reduced to carbohydrates by a series of reactions in the Calvin cycle.
 - Reactions occur in the STROMA
 - Incorporate CO₂ into existing organic molecules by a process called carbon fixation and then is reduced to a carbohydrate.
 - Does NOT require light directly
 - NADPH provides the reducing power
 - ATP provides the chemical energy

Calvin Cycle (Dark Reaction)

- Calvin cycle uses ATP and NADPH produced in the light reactions to convert CO₂ to sugar
- ATP is the energy source
- NADPH is the reducing agent that adds highenergy electrons to form sugar G3P (glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate)

 3 CO2 enter the Calvin Cycle to generate one G3P molecule

 G3P is the raw material, produced by the Calvin cycle, that is used to synthesize glucose and other carbs

Calvin Cycle

- Anabolic process that uses energy to build carbs from smaller molecules.
- Carbon enters the cycle in the form of CO2 and leaves as sugar
- Carbohydrate actually produced is not glucose but a 3C sugar, glyceraldehyde-3phosphate (G3P)

Phase 1 of Calvin Cycle: Carbon Fixation

- CO2 is added to a 5C sugar, ribulose bisphosphate (RuBP).
 - Added by enzyme, Rubisco
- Produces a 6C sugar that immediately splits in half (2 3C sugars) due to instability: 3-Phosphoglycerate (PGA)

Phase 2 of Calvin Cycle: Reduction

- Phosphate added to make a different 3 carbon molecule
- NADPH donates electrons to produce G3P sugar molecule

Phase 3 of Calvin Cycle: Regeneration of the CO2 Acceptor (RuBP)

- 5 molecules of G3P are rearranged by the last steps of the Calvin Cycle
 - Forms 3 molecules of RuBP
- For the NET synthesis of ONE G3P molecule, the Calvin cycle uses the products of the light reactions:
 - 9 ATP molecules
 - 6 NADPH molecules

