

Chapter 4 Enzymes and Energy

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Enzymes

- Increase rate of chemical reactions.
- Most enzymes are proteins with diverse structure.
- Functionally are biological catalysts:
 1. Chemicals that increases the rate of a reaction.
 2. Are not changed at the end of the reaction.
 3. Do not change the nature of the reaction or final result.
 4. Lower the activation energy required.
 - Amount of energy required for a reaction to proceed.

Fig 4.1

Enzymes lower the activation energy required for the reaction. Reactants that can overcome the activation energy barrier can now participate in the reaction.

This increases the rate of the reaction.

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cbZsXjgPDLQ&feature=related>
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z8lG8X9ZvxQ&feature=related>

Mechanism of Enzyme Action

- Ability of enzymes to lower activation energy due to structure.
- Each type of enzyme has a highly-ordered, characteristic 3-dimensional shape (conformation).
 - Ridges, grooves, and pockets lined with specific amino acids.
 - Pockets active in catalyzing a reaction are called the **active sites** of the enzyme.
- Substrates have specific shapes to fit into the active sites (lock-and-key model):
 - Substrate fits into active sites in enzyme.
 - Perfect fit may be induced:
 - Enzyme undergoes structural change

- Enzyme-substrate complex formed, then dissociates.
- Products formed and enzyme is unaltered.

Fig 4.2

Naming of Enzymes

- Enzyme name ends with suffix “-ase.”
 - Classes of enzymes named according to their activity or “job category.”
 - May specify both the substrate of the enzyme and job category.
- Different organs may make different enzymes (**isoenzymes**) that have the same activity.
 - Differences in structure do not affect the active sites. But specific diagnostic tests can separate isoenzymes.

Ex: Creatinine phosphokinase (CPK)

MM form from diseased muscles

BB form from diseased brain

MB form from diseased heart

Control of Enzyme Activity

- Rate of enzyme-catalyzed reactions measured by the rate substrates are converted to products.
- Factors influencing rate of enzyme activity:

- Temperature.
- pH.
- [cofactors and coenzyme].
- [enzyme and substrate].
- Stimulatory and inhibitory effects of products of enzyme action.

Effect of Temperature

- Rate of reaction increases as temperature increases.
- Reaction rate plateaus, slightly above body temperature (37°C).
- Reaction rate decreases as temperature increases.
- Enzymes denature at high temperatures.

Fig. 4.3

pH

- Each enzyme exhibits peak activity at narrow pH range (pH optimum).
- pH optimum reflects the pH of the body fluid in which the enzyme is found.
- If pH changed, so it is no longer within the enzyme range, reaction will decrease.

Fig 4.4

Cofactors

- Needed for the activity of specific enzymes.
- **Cofactor:**
 - Attachment of cofactor causes a conformational change of active site.
 - Participate in temporary bonds between enzyme and substrate.
 - Ex: metal ions like Ca^+ and Mg^+

Fig 4.5

Coenzymes

- Like cofactors they are needed for the activity of specific enzymes.
- **Coenzymes:**
 - Organic molecules derived from H_2O soluble vitamins.
 - Transport H^+ and small molecules from one enzyme to another.
 - Ex: niacin and riboflavin

Enzyme Activation

- Enzymes may be produced in an inactive form.

- In **pancreas**, digestive enzymes are produced as inactive zymogens, which are activated in lumen of intestine.
 - This protects against self-digestion.
- In **liver** cells, enzyme is inactive when produced and is activated by addition of phosphate group.
 - Phosphorylation/dephosphorylation:
 - Activation/inactivation of an enzyme.
- Other cells need ligands to activate some inactive enzymes.
 - Ligands are small, intracellular regulatory molecules called secondary messengers.

Substrate Concentration

- At a specific [enzyme], rate of product formation increases as the [substrate] increases.
- Plateau of maximum velocity occurs when enzyme is saturated.
- Additional [substrate] does **not** increase reaction rate.

Fig 4.6

Reversible Reactions

- Some enzymatic reactions are reversible.
 - Both forward and backward reactions are catalyzed by same enzyme.

- $$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \xrightleftharpoons{\text{ca}} \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$$

ca = carbonic anhydrase
- Law of mass action:**

 - Principal that reversible reactions will be driven from the side of the equation where concentration is higher to side where concentration is lower.

Metabolic Pathways

Fig 4.7

- Sequence of enzymatic reactions that begins with initial substrate, progresses through intermediates and ends with a final product.

Fig 4.8

- A branched metabolic pathway.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z12KYhgZ_u8&feature=related

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2DRWqBld7XU&feature=related>

End-Product Inhibition

Fig 4.9

- Negative feedback inhibition.

- One of the final products in a divergent pathway inhibits the activity of the branch-point enzyme.
 - Prevents final product accumulation.
 - Results in shift to product in alternate pathway.

Inborn Errors of Metabolism

Fig 4.10

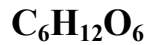
- Inherited defect in a gene for enzyme synthesis.
- Quantity of intermediates formed prior to the defect increases.
- Final product formed after the defect decreases, producing a deficiency.

Ex: Phenylketonuria (PKU)

Bioenergetics

- Flow of energy in living systems obeys:
 - **1st law of thermodynamics:**
 - Energy can be transformed, but it cannot be created or destroyed.
 - **2nd law of thermodynamics:**
 - Energy transformations increase **entropy** (degree of disorganization of a system).

- Only **free energy** (energy in organized state) can be used to do work.
 - Systems tend to go from states of higher free energy to states of lower free energy.
- As entropy \uparrow , free energy \downarrow .
- Glucose has a molecular formula of:



- Glucose has more free energy (less entropy) than six separate molecules each of water and carbon dioxide.
 - Plants use solar energy, in photosynthesis, to convert water and carbon dioxide to glucose.
- **Endergonic reactions** require energy **input**.
- Ex: $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$
 - Photosynthesis (plants)
- **Exergonic reactions** release energy.
- Ex: $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
 - Cellular respiration (mitochondria)

| | Energy input or Energy released | Free Energy | Entropy |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------|---------|
| Endergonic reactions | | | |
| Exergonic | | | |

| | | | |
|-----------|--|--|--|
| reactions | | | |
|-----------|--|--|--|

Review of Endergonic Reactions

- Endergonic:
 - Chemical reactions that require an input of energy to make reaction “go.”
 - Products must contain more free energy than reactants.

Review of Exergonic Reactions

- Exergonic:
 - Convert molecules with more free energy to molecules with less.
 - Release energy in the form of heat.
 - Heat is measured in calories.

Fig 4.13

Coupled Reactions: ATP

- Cells must maintain highly organized, low-entropy state at the expense of free energy.
 - Cells cannot use heat for energy.

Fig 4.14

- Energy released in exergonic reactions is used to drive endergonic reactions.

- Require energy released in exergonic reactions (ATP) to be directly transferred to chemical-bond energy in the products of endergonic reactions.

Formation of ATP

- Formation of ATP requires the input of a large amount of energy.
 - Energy must be conserved, the bond produced by joining P_i to ADP must contain a part of this energy.
- This energy is released when ATP is converted to ADP and P_i .
- ATP is the universal energy carrier of the cell.

Fig 4.15

Fig 4.16

Oxidation-Reduction

- Reduced:
 - Molecule/atom **gains** electrons.
- Reducing agent:
 - Molecule/atom that **donates** electrons.
- Oxidized:
 - Molecule/atom **loses** electrons.

- Oxidizing agent:
 - Molecule/atom that **accepts** electrons.
- Reduction and oxidation are **always** coupled reactions.
- May involve the transfer of H^+ rather than free electrons.
- Molecules that serve important roles in the transfer of hydrogen are NAD and FAD.
 - Coenzymes that function as hydrogen carriers in cellular respiration.

Fig 4.17a

(**NAD⁺** binds to one H and accepts the e^- of the other.)

Fig 4.17b

(**FAD** binds both H.)

Fig 4.18