

The Process That Feeds the Biosphere

- Plants and other photosynthetic organisms contain organelles called **chloroplasts**
 - Photosynthesis** is the process that converts solar energy into chemical energy within chloroplasts
 - Directly or indirectly, photosynthesis nourishes almost the entire living world
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- Autotrophs** are “self-feeders” that sustain themselves without eating anything derived from other organisms
 - Autotrophs are the producers of the biosphere, producing organic molecules from CO_2 and other inorganic molecules
 - Almost all plants are photoautotrophs, using the energy of sunlight to make organic molecules
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Figure 11.1

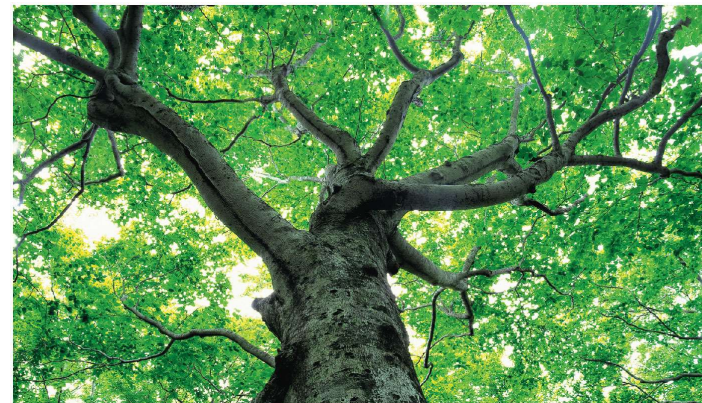


Figure 11.1a



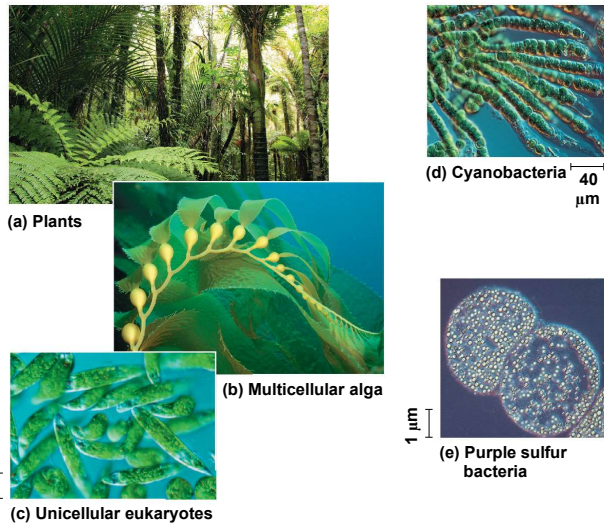
Other organisms also benefit from photosynthesis.

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- Photosynthesis occurs in plants, algae, certain other unicellular eukaryotes, and some prokaryotes

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Figure 11.2



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- Heterotrophs** obtain organic material from other organisms
- Heterotrophs are the consumers of the biosphere
- Some eat other living organisms; others, called decomposers, consume dead organic material or feces
- Almost all heterotrophs, including humans, depend on photoautotrophs for food and O_2

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- Earth's supply of fossil fuels was formed from the remains of organisms that died hundreds of millions of years ago
- Fossil fuels are being consumed faster than they are being replenished
- Researchers are exploring methods of using the photosynthetic process to produce alternative fuels

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Figure 11.3



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Concept 11.1: Photosynthesis converts light energy to the chemical energy of food

- Chloroplasts are structurally similar to photosynthetic bacteria
- The structural organization of these organelles allows for the chemical reactions of photosynthesis

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Chloroplasts: The Sites of Photosynthesis in Plants

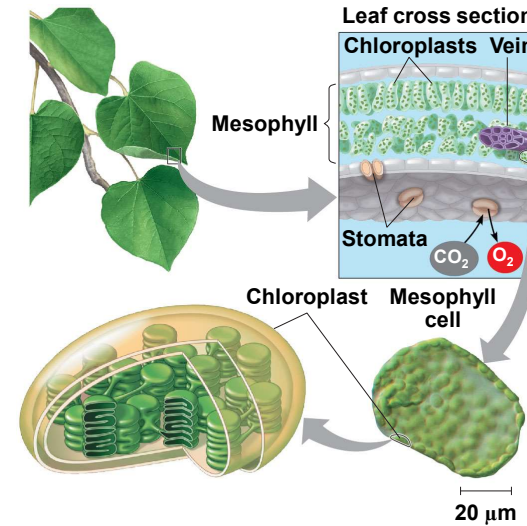
- Leaves are the major locations of photosynthesis in plants
- Chloroplasts are found mainly in cells of the **mesophyll**, the interior tissue of the leaf
- Each mesophyll cell contains 30–40 chloroplasts
- CO₂ enters and O₂ exits the leaf through microscopic pores called **stomata**

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- A chloroplast has an envelope of two membranes surrounding a dense fluid called the **stroma**
- **Thylakoids** are connected sacs in the chloroplast that compose a third membrane system
- Thylakoids may be stacked in columns called grana
- **Chlorophyll**, the pigment that gives leaves their green color, resides in the thylakoid membranes

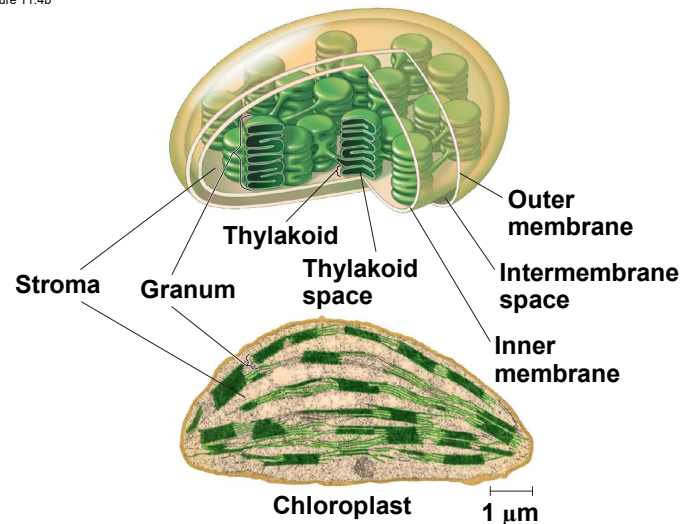
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Figure 11.4a



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Figure 11.4b



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Tracking Atoms Through Photosynthesis: *Scientific Inquiry*

- Photosynthesis is a complex series of reactions that can be summarized as the following equation:



- The overall chemical change during **photosynthesis** is the **reverse** of the one that occurs during **cellular respiration**

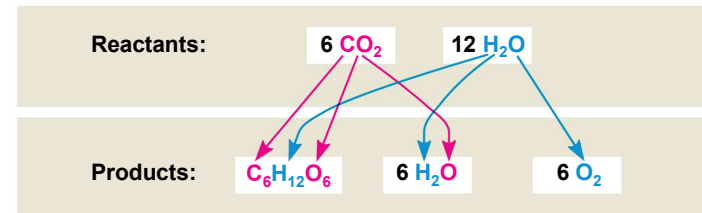
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The Splitting of Water

- Chloroplasts split H_2O into hydrogen and oxygen, incorporating the electrons of hydrogen into sugar molecules and releasing oxygen as a by-product

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Figure 11.5



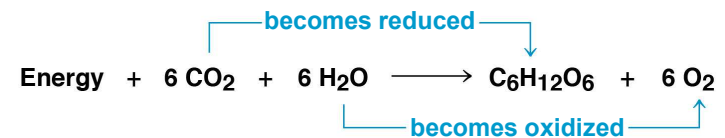
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Photosynthesis as a Redox Process

- Photosynthesis reverses the direction of electron flow compared to respiration
- Photosynthesis is a redox process in which H_2O is oxidized and CO_2 is reduced
- Photosynthesis is an endergonic process; the energy boost is provided by light

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Figure 11.UN01



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The Two Stages of Photosynthesis: A Preview

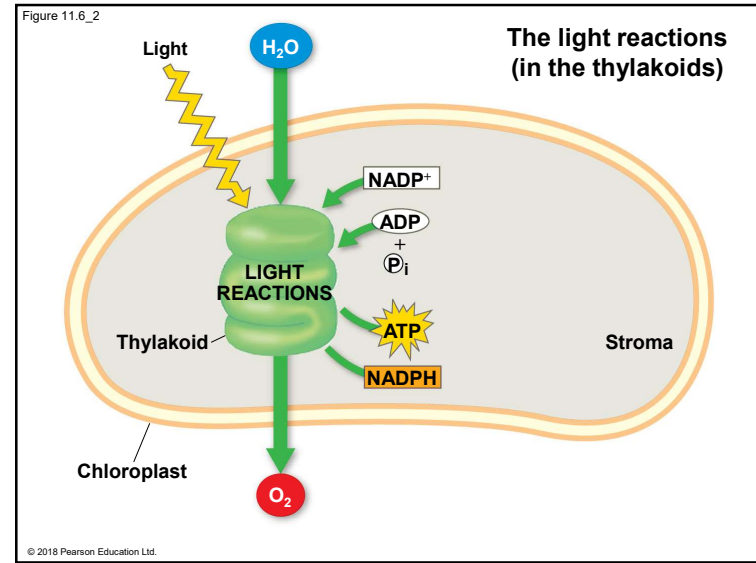
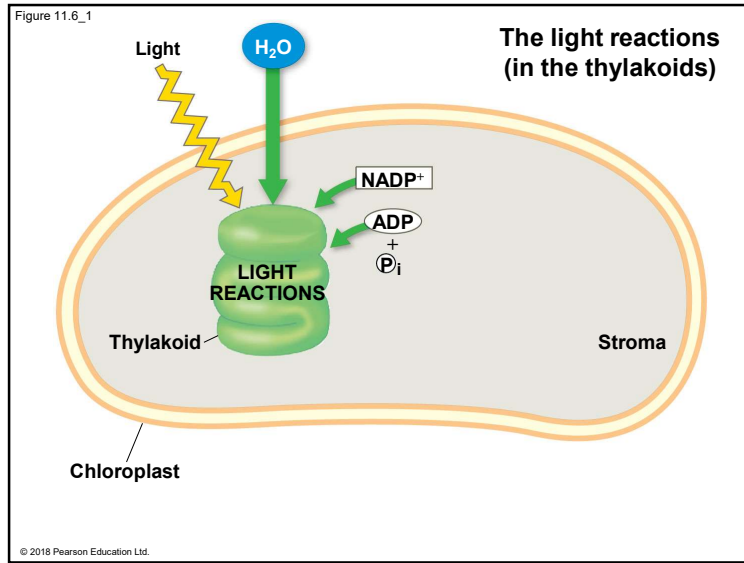
- Photosynthesis consists of two parts:
 - light reactions** (the photo part)
 - Calvin cycle** (the synthesis part)

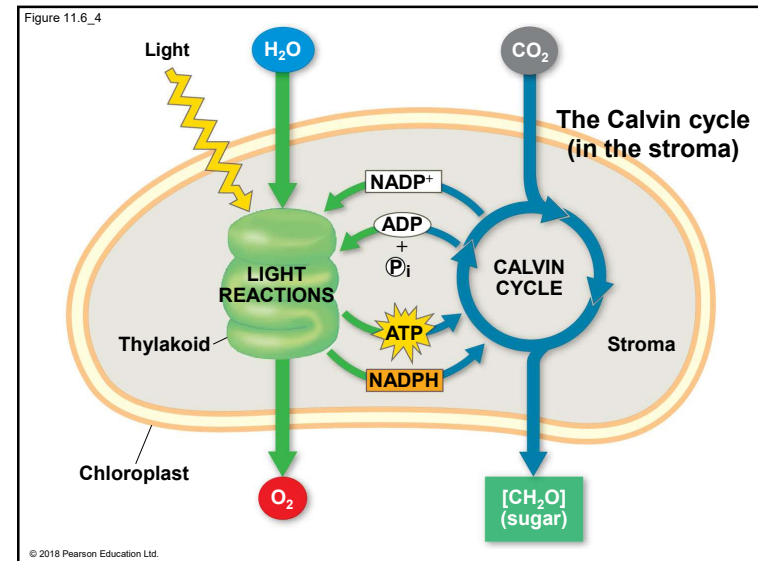
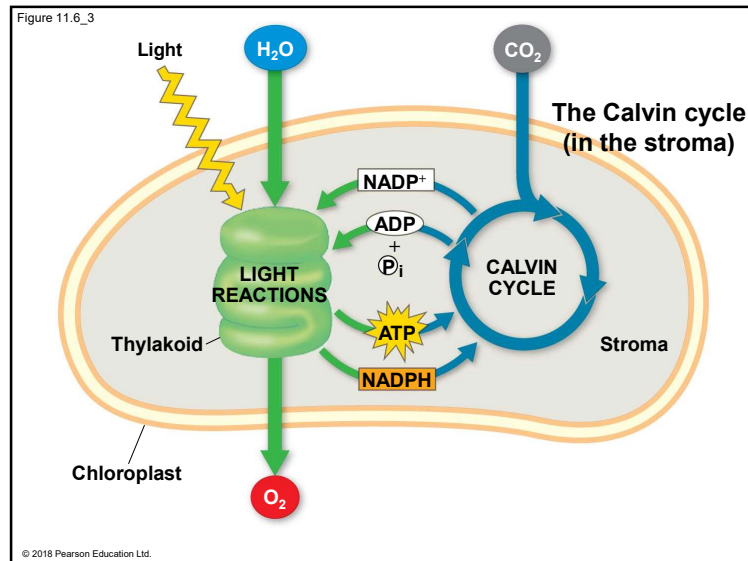
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The Two Stages of Photosynthesis: A Preview

- The light reactions (in the thylakoids)**
 - Split H_2O
 - Release O_2
 - Reduce the electron acceptor **NADP⁺** to **NADPH**
 - Generate ATP from ADP by **photophosphorylation**
- The Calvin cycle (in the stroma)**
 - forms sugar from CO_2 , using ATP and NADPH
 - The Calvin cycle begins with **carbon fixation**, incorporating CO_2 into organic molecules

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Concept 11.2: The light reactions convert solar energy to the chemical energy of ATP and NADPH

- Chloroplasts are solar-powered chemical factories
- Their thylakoids transform light energy into the chemical energy of ATP and NADPH

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The Nature of Sunlight

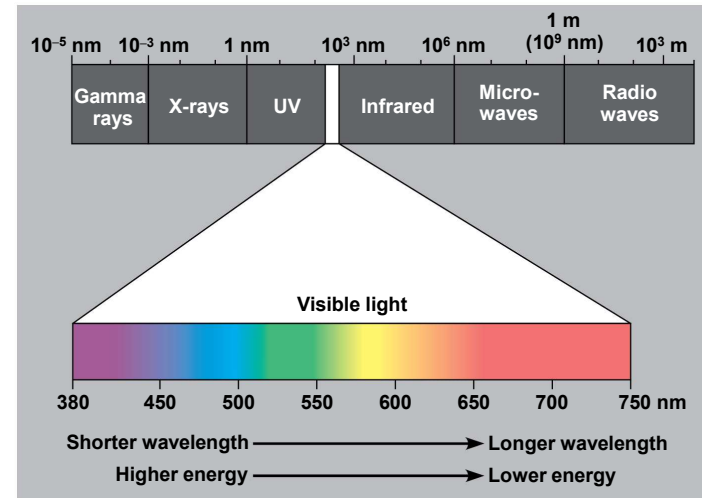
- Light is electromagnetic energy, also called electromagnetic radiation
- Electromagnetic energy travels in rhythmic waves
- **Wavelength** is the distance between crests of electromagnetic waves
- Wavelength determines the type of electromagnetic energy

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- The **electromagnetic spectrum** is the entire range of electromagnetic energy, or radiation
- **Visible light** consists of wavelengths (380 nm to 750 nm) that produce colors we can see
- Visible light also includes the wavelengths that drive photosynthesis
- Light also behaves as though it consists of discrete particles, called **photons**

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Figure 11.7



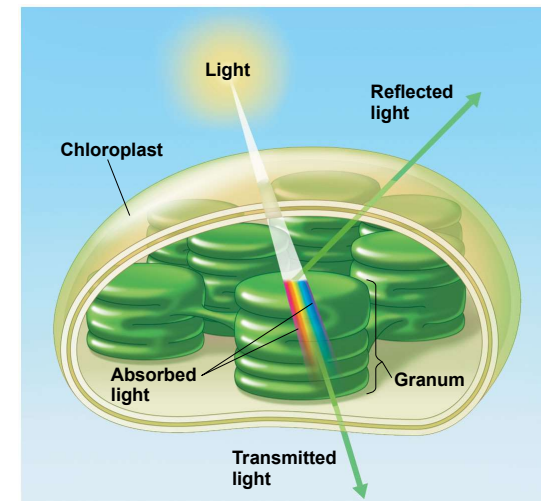
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Photosynthetic Pigments: The Light Receptors

- Pigments are substances that absorb visible light
- Different pigments absorb different wavelengths
- Wavelengths that are not absorbed are reflected or transmitted
- Leaves appear green because chlorophyll reflects and transmits green light

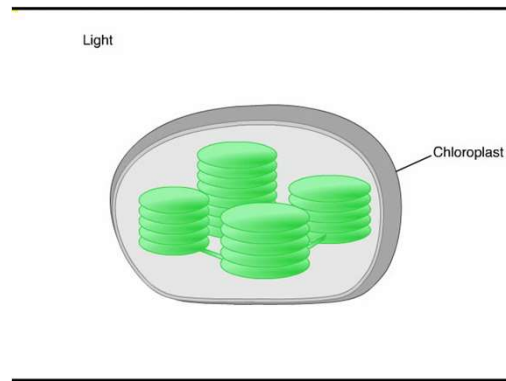
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Animation: Light Energy and Pigments



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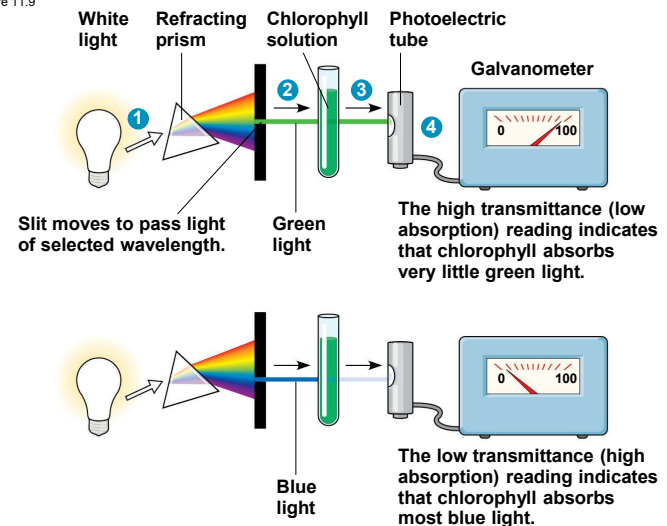
- A **spectrophotometer** measures a pigment's ability to absorb various wavelengths
- This machine sends light through pigments and measures the fraction of light transmitted at each wavelength

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- An **absorption spectrum** is a graph plotting a pigment's light absorption versus wavelength

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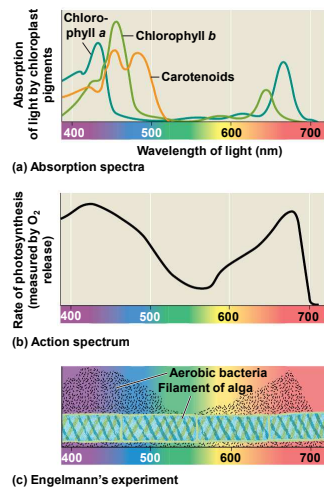
- There are three types of pigments in chloroplasts:
 - **Chlorophyll a**, the key light-capturing pigment
 - **Chlorophyll b**, an accessory pigment
 - Carotenoids, a separate group of accessory pigments

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- The absorption spectrum of chlorophyll a suggests that violet-blue and red light work best for photosynthesis
- An **action spectrum** profiles the relative effectiveness of different wavelengths of radiation in driving a process

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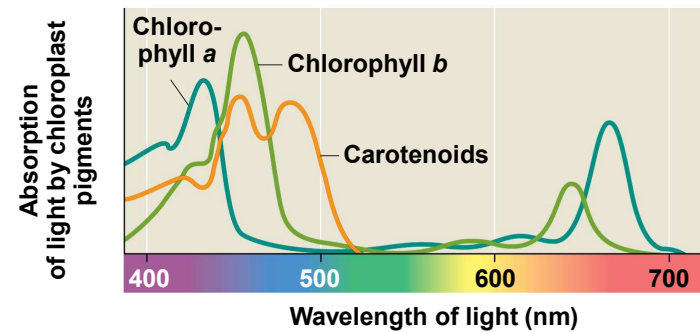
Figure 11.10



Data from T. W. Engelmann, *Bacterium photometricum*. Ein Beitrag zur vergleichenden Physiologie des Licht- und Farbensinnes, *Archiv. für Physiologie* 30:95–124 (1883).

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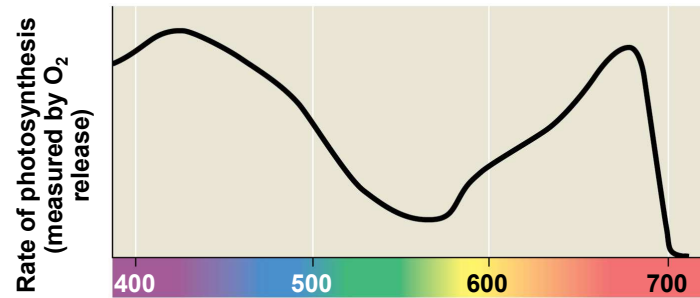
Figure 11.10a



Data from T. W. Engelmann, *Bacterium photometricum*. Ein Beitrag zur vergleichenden Physiologie des Licht- und Farbensinnes, *Archiv. für Physiologie* 30:95–124 (1883).

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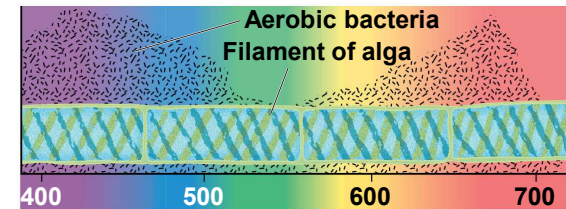
Figure 11.10b

**(b) Action spectrum**

Data from T. W. Engelmann, *Bacterium photometricum*. Ein Beitrag zur vergleichenden Physiologie des Licht-und Farbensinnes, *Archiv. für Physiologie* 30:95–124 (1883).

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Figure 11.10c

**(c) Engelmann's experiment**

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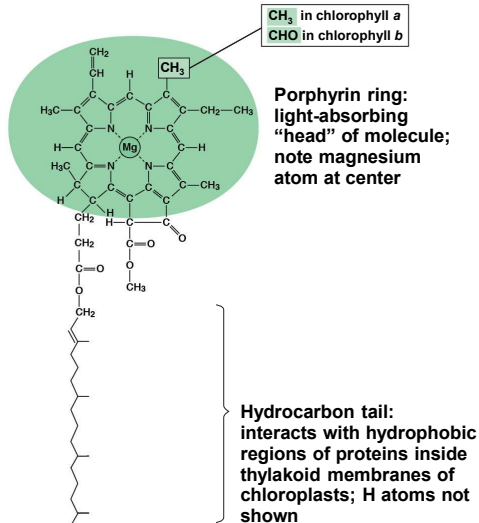
- The action spectrum of photosynthesis was first demonstrated in 1883 by Theodor W. Engelmann
- In his experiment, he exposed different segments of a filamentous alga to different wavelengths
- Areas receiving wavelengths favorable to photosynthesis produced excess O_2
- He used the growth of aerobic bacteria clustered along the algae as a measure of O_2 production

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- The action spectrum for photosynthesis is broader than the absorption spectrum of chlorophyll
- Accessory pigments, such as chlorophyll *b*, broaden the spectrum used for photosynthesis
- The difference in the absorption spectrum between chlorophyll *a* and *b* is due to a slight structural difference between the pigment molecules

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Figure 11.11



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- Accessory pigments called **carotenoids** may broaden the spectrum of colors that drive photosynthesis
- Some carotenoids function in photoprotection; they absorb excessive light that would damage chlorophyll or react with oxygen

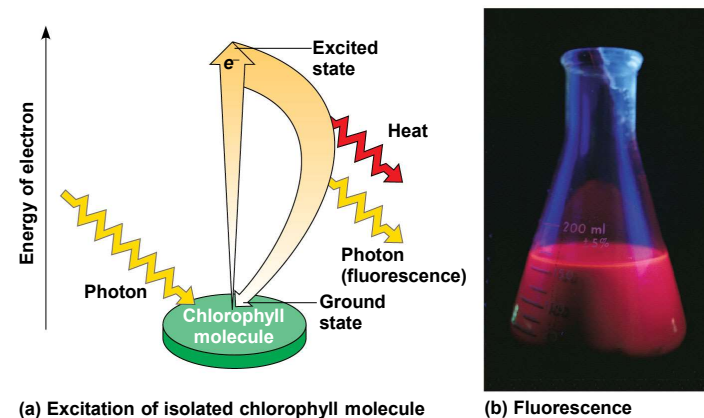
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Excitation of Chlorophyll by Light

- When a pigment absorbs light, it goes from a ground state to an excited state, which is unstable
- When excited electrons fall back to the ground state, excess energy is released as heat
- In isolation, some pigments also emit light, an afterglow called fluorescence

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Figure 11.12



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A Photosystem: A Reaction-Center Complex Associated with Light-Harvesting Complexes

- A **photosystem** consists of a reaction-center complex surrounded by light-harvesting complexes
- The **reaction-center complex** is an association of proteins holding a special pair of chlorophyll *a* molecules and a primary electron acceptor

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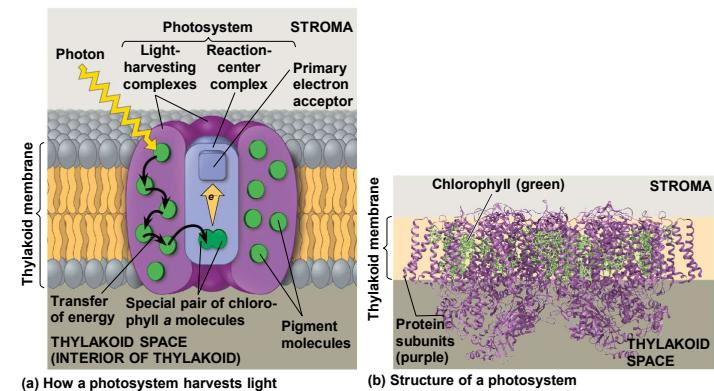
- The **light-harvesting complex** consists of pigment molecules bound to proteins
- Light-harvesting complexes transfer the energy of photons to the chlorophyll *a* molecules in the reaction-center complex
- These chlorophyll *a* molecules are special because they can transfer an excited electron to a different molecule

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- A **primary electron acceptor** in the reaction center accepts excited electrons and is reduced as a result
- Solar-powered transfer of an electron from a chlorophyll *a* molecule to the primary electron acceptor is the first step of the light reactions

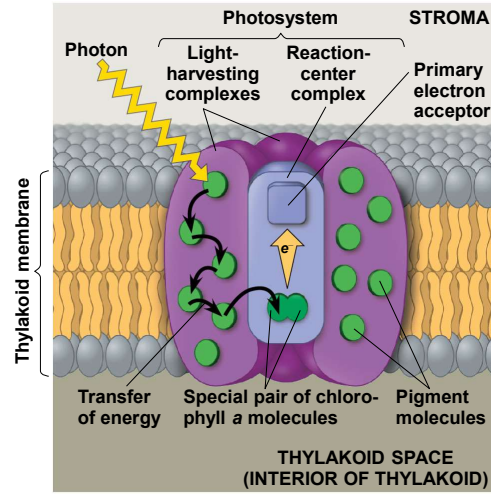
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Figure 11.13



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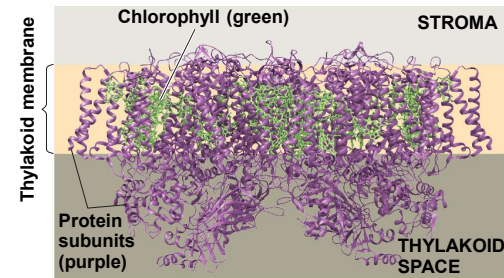
Figure 11.13a



(a) How a photosystem harvests light

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Figure 11.13b



(b) Structure of a photosystem

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- There are two types of photosystems in the thylakoid membrane
- **Photosystem II (PS II)** functions first (the numbers reflect order of discovery)
- The reaction-center chlorophyll *a* of PS II is called P680 because it is best at absorbing a wavelength of 680 nm

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- **Photosystem I (PS I)** is best at absorbing a wavelength of 700 nm
- The reaction-center chlorophyll *a* of PS I is called P700

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Linear Electron Flow

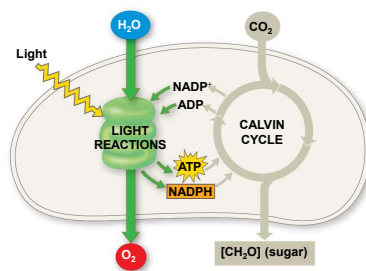
- During the light reactions, there are two possible routes for electron flow: cyclic and linear
- Linear electron flow**, the primary pathway, involves both photosystems and produces ATP and NADPH using light energy

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- There are eight steps in linear electron flow:
 - A photon hits a pigment in a light-harvesting complex of PS II, and its energy is passed among pigment molecules until it excites P680
 - An excited electron from P680 is transferred to the primary electron acceptor (we now call it P680⁺)

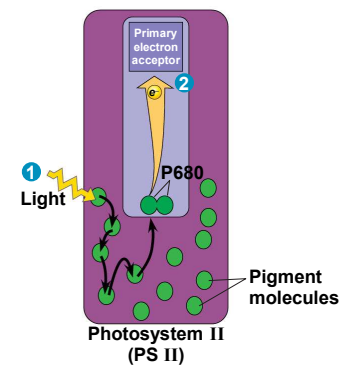
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Figure 11.UN02



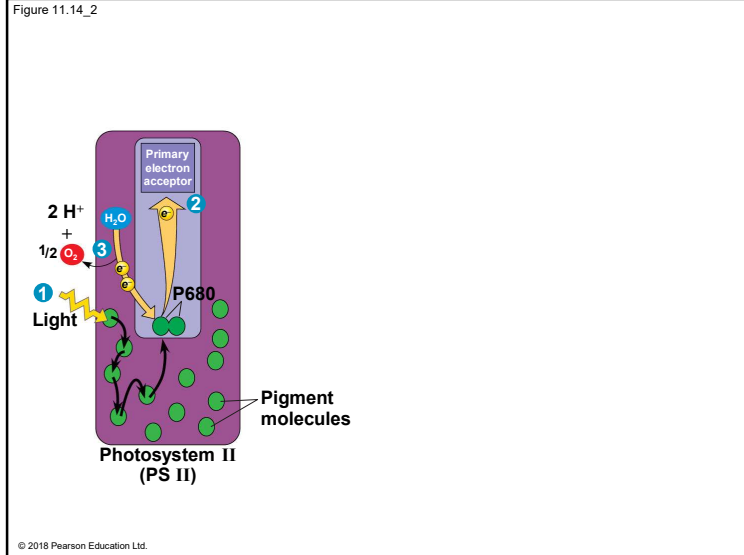
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Figure 11.14_1



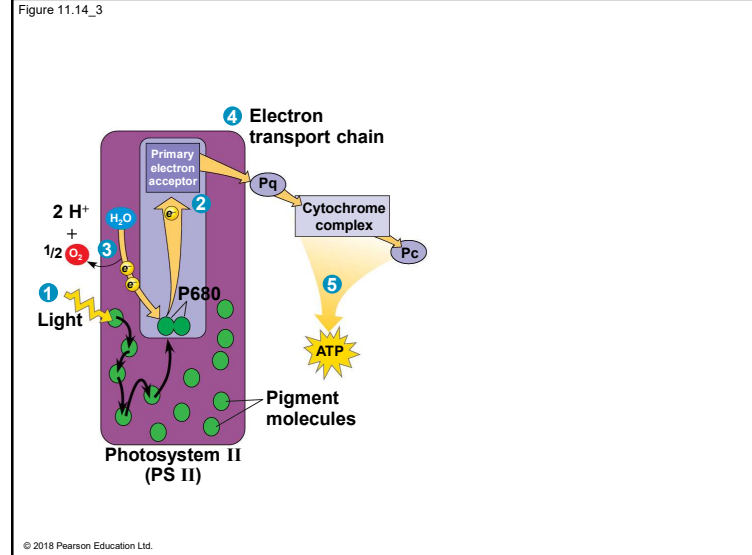
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Figure 11.14_2



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Figure 11.14_3

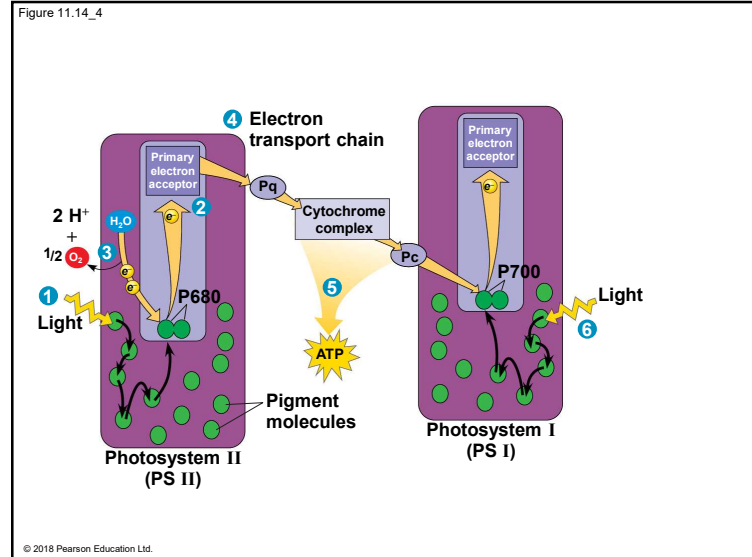


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3. H₂O is split by enzymes, and the electrons are transferred from the hydrogen atoms to P680⁺, thus reducing it to P680
 - P680⁺ is the strongest known biological oxidizing agent
 - The H⁺ are released into the thylakoid space
 - O₂ is released as a by-product of this reaction

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Figure 11.14_4



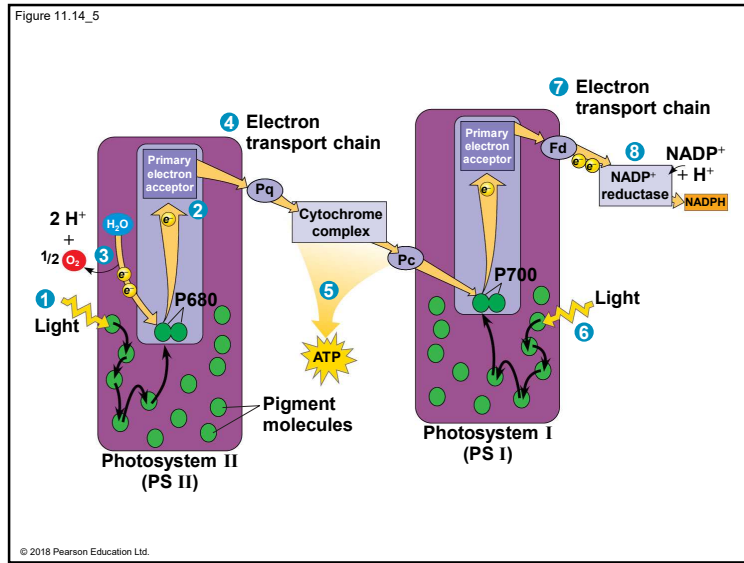
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4. Each electron “falls” down an electron transport chain from the primary electron acceptor of PS II to PS I. Energy released by the fall drives the creation of a proton gradient across the thylakoid membrane
5. Potential energy stored in the proton gradient drives production of ATP by chemiosmosis

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6. In PS I (like PS II), transferred light energy excites P700, which loses an electron to the primary electron acceptor
 - P700⁺ (P700 that is missing an electron) accepts an electron passed down from PS II via the electron transport chain

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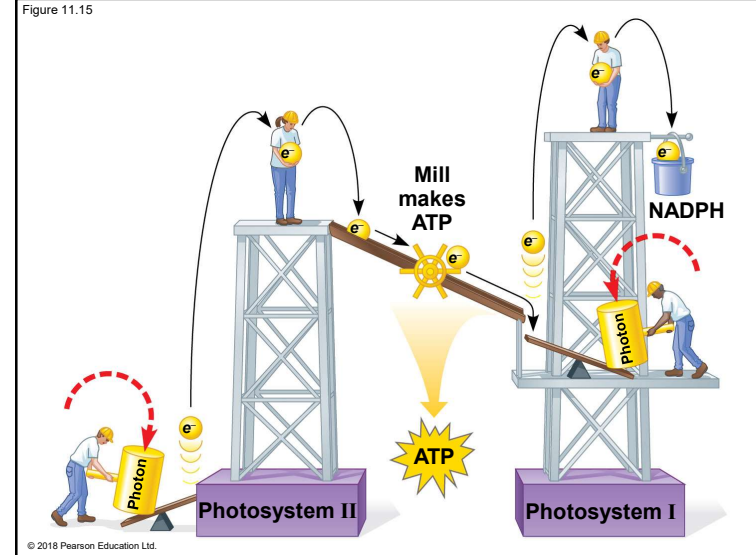
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7. Each electron “falls” down an electron transport chain from the primary electron acceptor of PS I to the protein ferredoxin (Fd)
8. NADP⁺ reductase catalyzes the transfer of electrons to NADP⁺, reducing it to NADPH
 - The electrons of NADPH are available for the reactions of the Calvin cycle
 - This process also removes an H⁺ from the stroma

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- The energy changes of electrons during linear flow through the light reactions can be shown in a mechanical analogy

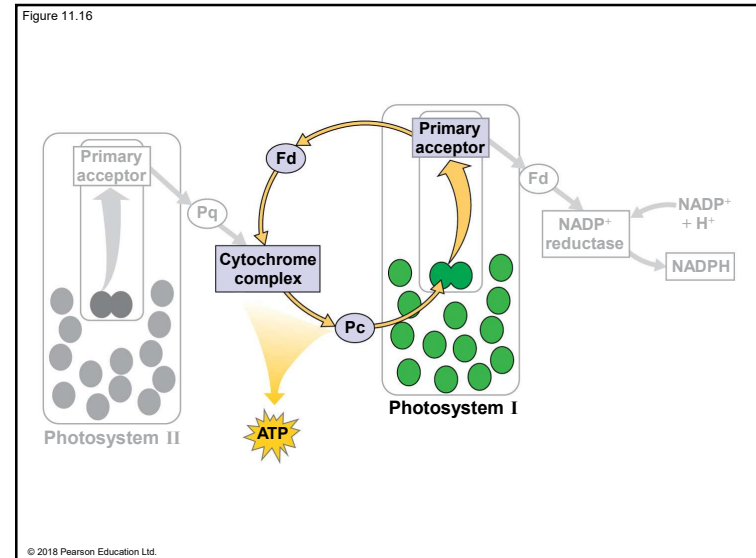
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Cyclic Electron Flow

- In **cyclic electron flow**, electrons cycle back from Fd to the PS I reaction center via a plastocyanin molecule (Pc)
- Cyclic electron flow uses only photosystem I and produces ATP, but not NADPH
- No oxygen is released

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- Some organisms such as purple sulfur bacteria have PS I but not PS II
- Cyclic electron flow is thought to have evolved before linear electron flow
- Cyclic electron flow may protect cells from light-induced damage

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A Comparison of Chemiosmosis in Chloroplasts and Mitochondria

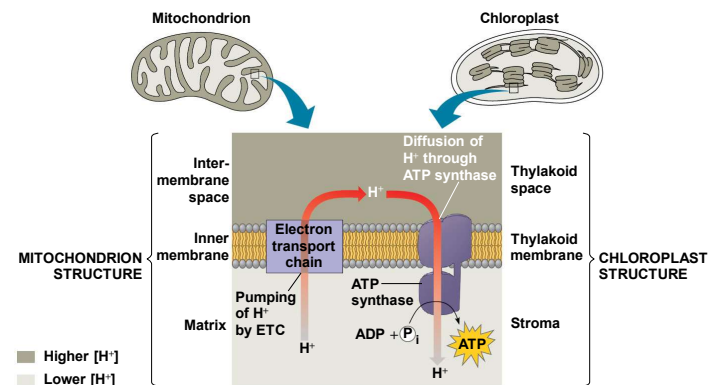
- Chloroplasts and mitochondria generate ATP by chemiosmosis, but use different sources of energy
- Mitochondria transfer chemical energy from food to ATP; chloroplasts transform light energy into the chemical energy of ATP
- Spatial organization of chemiosmosis differs between chloroplasts and mitochondria but also shows similarities

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- In mitochondria, protons are pumped to the intermembrane space and drive ATP synthesis as they diffuse back into the mitochondrial matrix
- In chloroplasts, protons are pumped into the thylakoid space and drive ATP synthesis as they diffuse back into the stroma

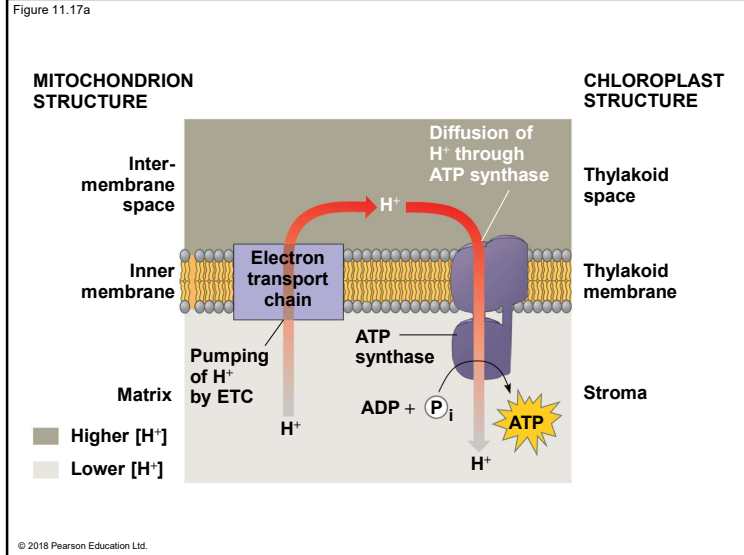
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Figure 11.17



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Figure 11.17a



- ATP and NADPH are produced on the side facing the stroma, where the Calvin cycle takes place
 - In summary, light reactions generate ATP and increase the potential energy of electrons by moving them from H_2O to NADPH
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Figure 11.UN03

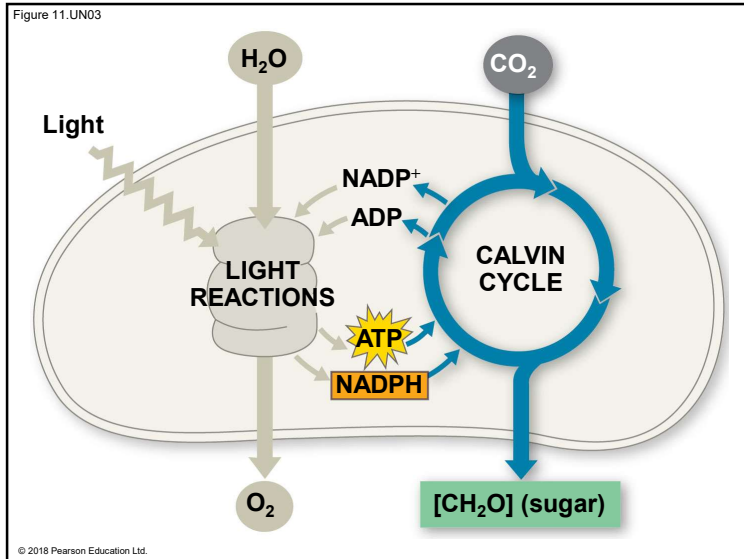
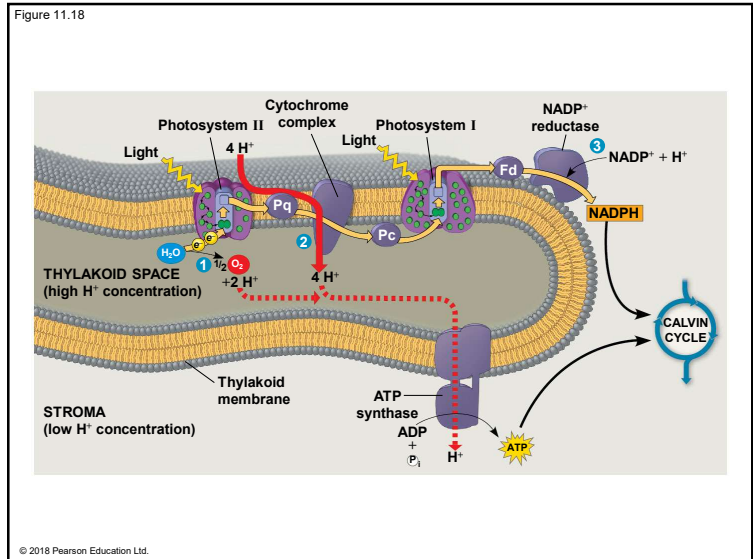
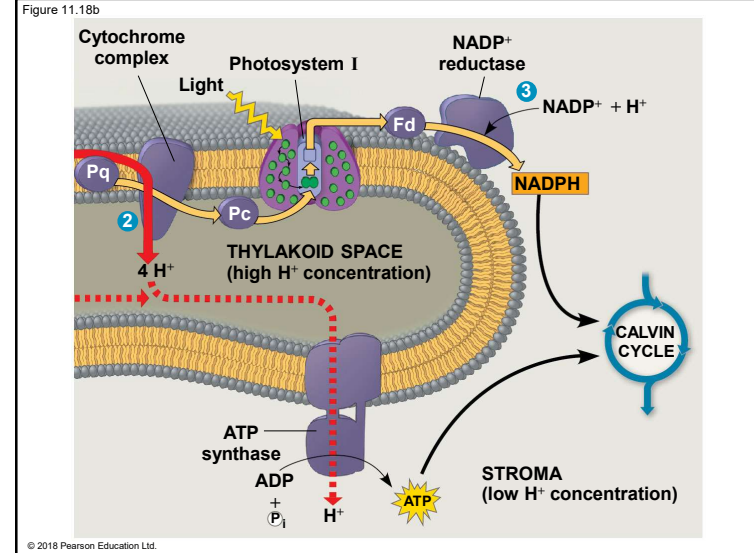
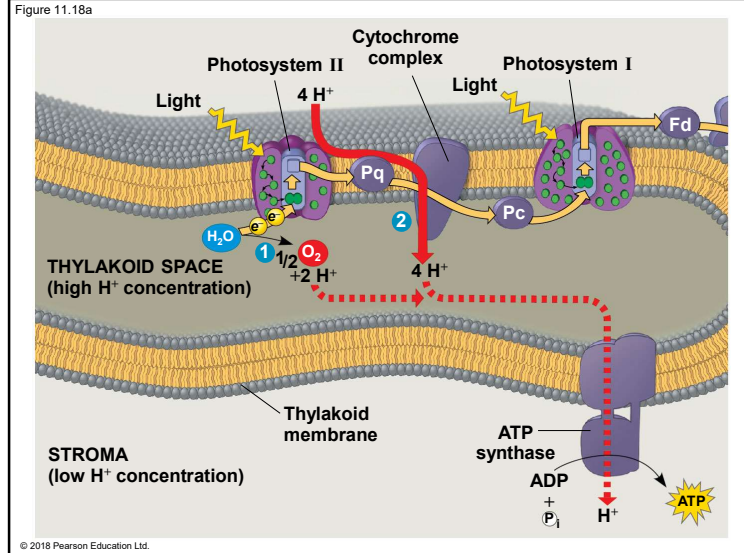


Figure 11.18





Concept 11.3: The Calvin cycle uses the chemical energy of ATP and NADPH to reduce CO_2 to sugar

- The Calvin cycle, like the citric acid cycle, regenerates its starting material after molecules enter and leave the cycle
- The Calvin cycle is anabolic; it builds sugar from smaller molecules by using ATP and the reducing power of electrons carried by NADPH

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- Carbon enters the cycle as CO_2 and leaves as a sugar named **glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (G3P)**
- For net synthesis of one G3P, the cycle must take place three times, fixing three molecules of CO_2
- The Calvin cycle has three phases:
 1. **Carbon fixation** (catalyzed by **rubisco**)
 2. **Reduction**
 3. **Regeneration of the CO_2 acceptor (RuBP)**

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Figure 11.19_1

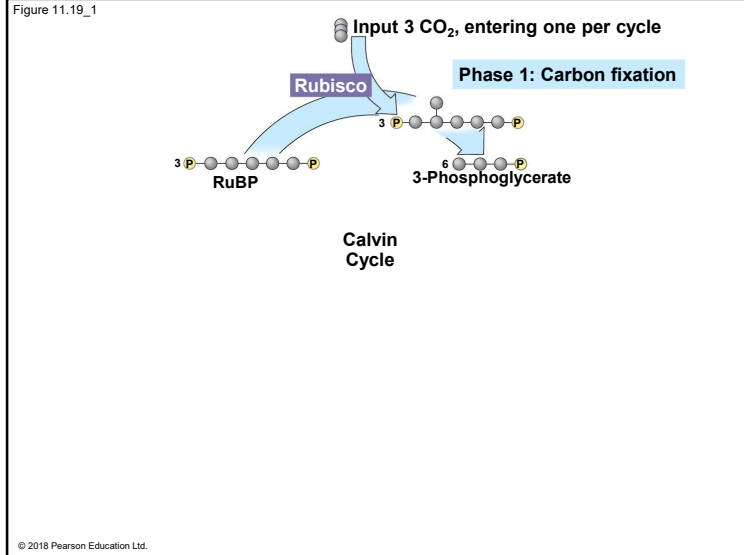


Figure 11.19_2

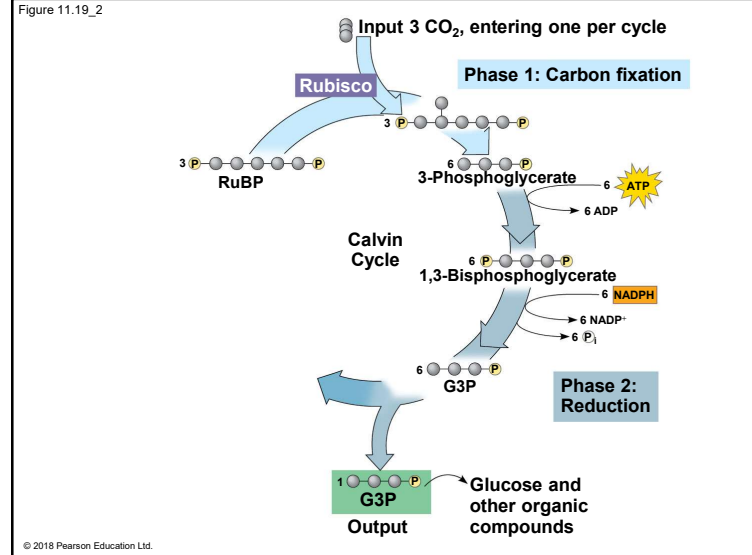
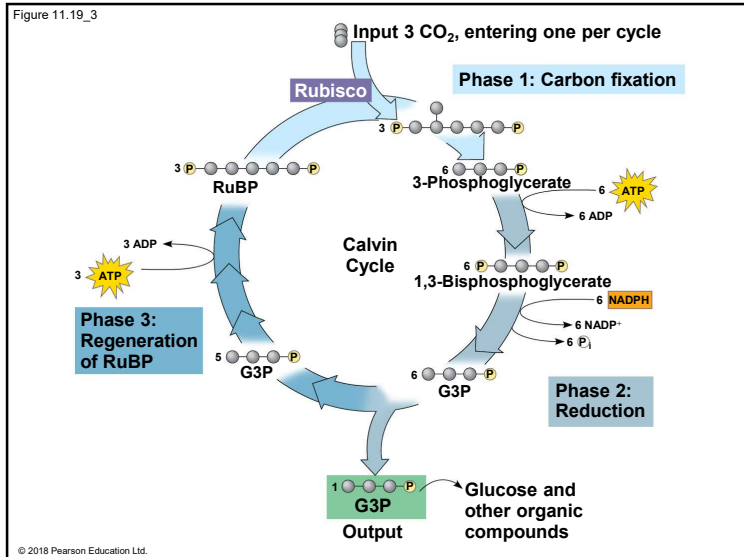


Figure 11.19_3



Concept 11.5: Life depends on photosynthesis The Importance of Photosynthesis: A Review

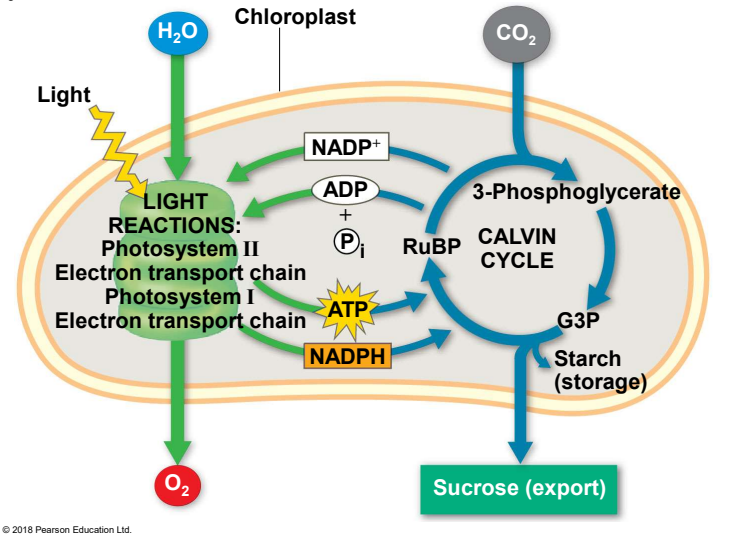
- The energy entering chloroplasts as sunlight gets stored as chemical energy in organic compounds
- Sugar made in the chloroplasts supplies chemical energy and carbon skeletons to synthesize the organic molecules of cells
- Plants store excess sugar as starch in chloroplasts and other structures such as roots, tubers, seeds, and fruits

Figure 11.22a



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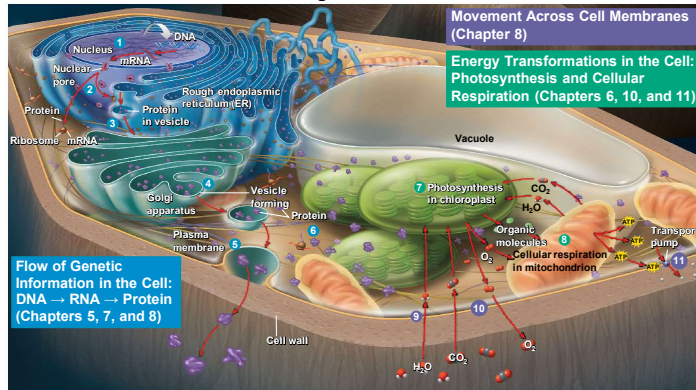
Figure 11.22b



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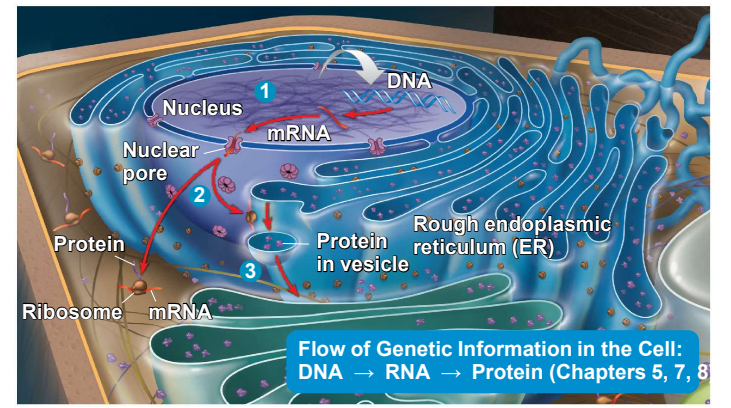
Figure 11.23

MAKE CONNECTIONS: The Working Cell



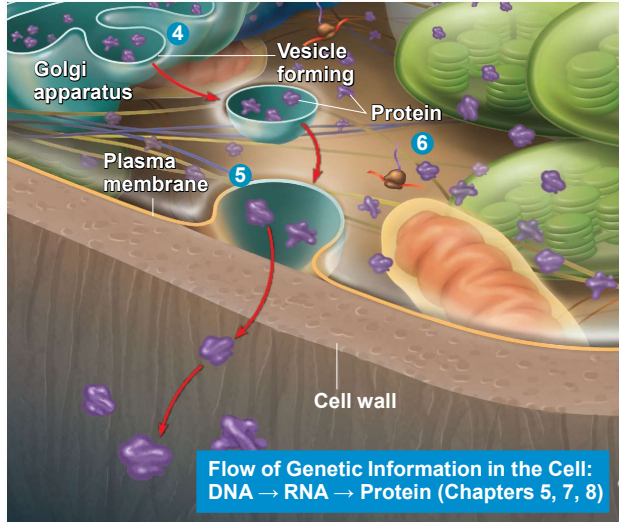
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Figure 11.23a



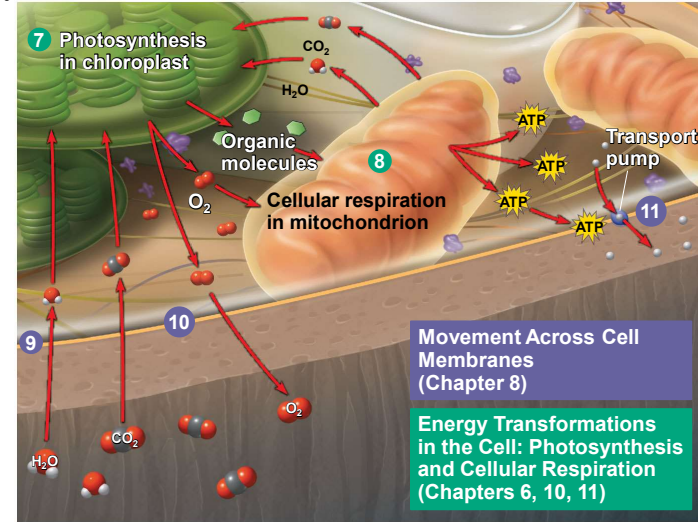
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Figure 11.23b



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Figure 11.23c



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