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Key Terms

Photop- hosphoryl- ation	Synthesis of ATP from ADP and and Pi (inorganic phosphate) using light energy.
Transd- ucers	Change energy from one form into another
Absorption Spectrum	A graph that shows how much light energy is absorbed at different wavelengths .
Action Spectrum	A graph that shows the rate of photosynthesis at different wavelength .
Antenna Complex	An array of protein and pigment molecules in the thylakoid membranes with chlorophyll a at the reaction centre. It transfers energy from light of a range of wavelengths to chlorophyll a .
Limiting Factor	A factor that limits the rate of a physical process by being in short supply .

Overview of Photosynthesis

The overall equation for photosynthesis is:

```
6CO2 + 6H2) -> C6H12O6 + 6O2
```

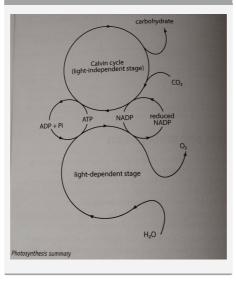
Photosynthesis involves two stages:

1. Light-dependent stage where light energy is converted into chemical energy as the photolysis of water releases protons and electrons which produce ATP via photophosphorylation and reduce the co-enzyme NADP.

Overview of Photosynthesis (cont)

2. Light-independent stage or Calvin cycle where ATP and NADPH from the light-dependent reaction reduce carbon dioxide to produce glucose.

Photosynthesis Summary



Structure of the leaf

The leaf is adapted for gas exchange and photosynthesis by having a large surface area allowing the leaf to capture light, and having pores called stomata through which gases diffuse.

Air spaces between cells allow for carbon dioxide to diffuse to the photosynthesising cells.

The highest concentration of chloroplasts is found in the palisade mesophyll on the leaf's upper surface.

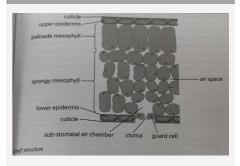
The palisade cells are arranged vertically, which allows more light to be absorbed by chloroplasts than if they were stacked horizontally, as light only has to pass through the cuticle, epidermal cells and one palisade cell wall.

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Leaf structure



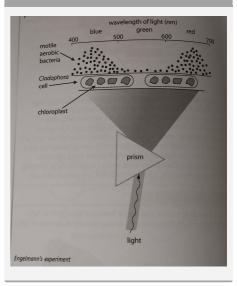
Chloroplasts as transducers

The site of photosynthesis was detected by Engelmann in 1887. In his experiment, he shone a light through a prism to separate the different wavelengths of light, and exposed this to a suspension of algae with evenly distributed, motile, aerobic bacteria.**

After a period of time, he noticed that the **bacteria congregated** around the algae exposed to **blue and red wavelengths**.

This was because this algae photosynthesised more and so produced more oxygen, attracting the motile bacteria.

Transducers



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Photosynthetic pigments

In flowering plants there are 2 main types of pigments:

1. Chlorophylls which absorb red and blueviolet regions of the spectrum, e.g. chlorophyll a and chlorophyll b.

2. Carotenoids which absorb light energy from the blue-violet region of the spectrum, e.g. B-carotene and xanthophylls, and act as accessory pigments.

The presence of **several pigments** allows the plant to **absorb** a **wider range** of **wavelengths** of **light** than a **single pigment**.

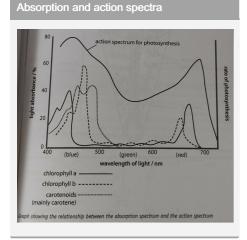
Absorption and action spectra

The absorption spectrum shows how much light energy a particular pigment absorbs at different wavelengths, for example chlorophyll a which absorbs red and blue-violet regions of the spectrum.

It does not indicate whether the particular wavelength is used in photosynthesis.

An action spectrum shows the rate of photosynthesis at different wavelengths, by measuring the mass of carbohydrate synthesised by plants.

There is a **close correlation** between the **2**.





Light Harvesting

The **chlorophylls** and **accessory pigments** are found lying in the **thylakoid membranes**, grouped into **structures** called **antenna complexes**.

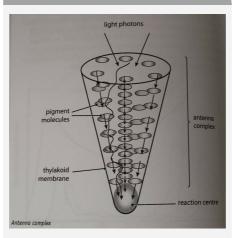
With the aid of **special proteins** associated with these **pigments**, **light energy** (photons) is funnelled towards the **reaction centre** at the base, containing **chlorophyll a**.

There are 2 types of reaction centre:

1. Photosystem 1 (PS1) chlorophyll a, with an absorption peak of 700nm, also called P700.

2. Photosystem 11 (PS11) chlorophyll a, with an absorption peak of 680nm also called P680.

Antenna Complex



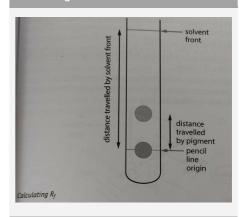
Identifying different photo pigments from chloro

Pigments can be extracted by grinding plant material in a suitable solvent, e.g. propanone, and separated by paper chromatography.

By dividing the distance travelled by the pigment by the distance travelled by the solvent front, the Rf value can be calculated.

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Calculating the Rf value



The light-dependent stage of photosynthesis

Occurs on the thylakoid membranes.

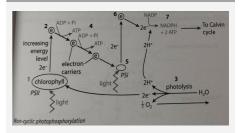
Photophosphorylation occurs via 2 pathways:

1. Non-cyclic photophosphorylation, which involves both photosystems 1 and 11, generating 2 ATP molecules and reduced NADP.

Photolysis generates oxygen.

The **electrons** take a **linear pathway** which is referred to as the **'Z scheme'**.

Non-cyclic photophosphorylation



Non-cyclic photophosphorylation

1. Light energy (photons) strikes chlorophyll (PS11) exciting its electrons, boosting them to a higher energy level.

2. Electrons are accepted by an electron carrier in the thylakoid membrane.

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Non-cyclic photophosphorylation (cont)

3. The oxidised chlorophyll removes electrons from water, producing protons and oxygen (photolysis). This occurs in the thylakoid space.

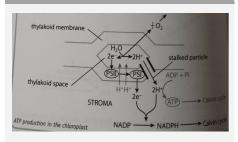
4. As electrons pass from carrier to carrier, electron energy is lost, which pumps protons from the stroma into the thylakoid space. As protons flow back through the stalked particle, ADP is phosphorylated; 2 ATP are made in total.

5. Electrons enter **photosystem 1** where **light excites them**, boosting them to an even **higher energy level**.

6. Electrons enter a final electron carrier.

7. Electrons and protons reduce NADP to reduced NADP which pass to the Calvin Cycle with the 2 ATP made.

ATP production in the chloroplast



Cyclic Phosphorylation

Involves only **photosystem 1**, producing **1 ATP** molecule only.

As photolysis does not occur, no oxygen is released.

Electrons take a cyclical pathway.

If there is **no NADP** available, then **electrons** fall back into the **electron transport chain** (at an intermediate energy level) and **generate 1 ATP**.

This cycle continues until NADP is available.



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Cyclic Phosphorylation (cont)

The ATP produced can be used in the Calvin Cycle, in the stomatal opening mechanism, or for other cellular processes.

ATP is produced in the chloroplast when protons are pumped across the thylakoid membrane using energy from the electrons and accumulate with protons generated from photolysis of water in the thylakoid space generating an electrochemical (proton) gradient.

The **H+ ions** diffuse back into the **stroma** through **stalked particles** generating **ATP**. The protons and electrons **reduce NADP**, which **removes H+ ions** from the **stroma**, further contributing to the **H+ gradient**.

The movement of protons is referred to as chemiosmosis.

Cyclic Phosphorylation



Calvin Cycle - light indep stage of photosynthesis

This stage occurs in the stroma.

ATP and reduced NADP from the light-dependent reaction are used to fix carbon from carbon dioxide with the help of the enzyme RuBisCO.

The sequence was first worked out by **Calvin** and his team using a **radioactive isotope** of **carbon** (14C) present in **hydrogen carbonate**.

At regular intervals, Calvin removed samples into hot methanol to kill the chlorella algae used and to stop all enzyme reactions.

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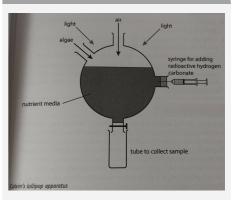
Calvin Cycle - light indep stage of photosynthesis (cont)

He then performed **chromatography** to **identify** the **products**.

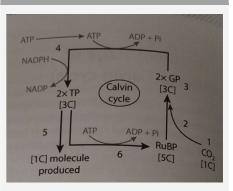
He exposed his **chromatogram** to piece of **x-ray film** which would **detect radiation** emitted from **14C** used.

This identified products containing 14C in the order they were produced: first was hydrogen carbonate ions, then glycerate 3phosphate (GP), triose phosphate (TP), ribulose bisphosphate (RuBP) and finally glucose.





Calvin Cycle



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Stages in the Calvin Cycle

1. CO2 diffuses into leaf via stomata, dissolving in the water surrounding palisade mesophyll cells before diffusing into the cells.

2. CO2 combines with the 5 carbon compound ribulose bisphosphate (RuBP) using the enzyme RuBisCO to form an unstable 6C compound.

 Unstable 6C compound immediately breaks down into 2 molecules of glycerate
 3-phosphate (GP).

4. Using one ATP molecule from the light reaction, GP is reduced to triose phosphate (TP) using hydrogen atoms from reduced HADP.

5. Triose phosphate molecules combine in pairs to form hexose sugars.

6. 5 out of every 6 triose phosphate
molecules produced are used to regenerate
RuBP (via the intermediate ribulose
phosphate) using ATP from the light-dependent reaction to supply energy and
phosphate. This allows the cycle to
continue.

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Stages in the Calvin Cycle (cont)

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Product Synthesis

Plants must **produce** all the **carbohydrates**, **fats and proteins** they need from the **products** of the **Calvin Cycle**.

Fructose phosphate formed from the 2 molecules of triose phosphate can be converted to glucose, or combined with glucose to produce sucrose.

Sucrose is then translocated in the phloem to the growing regions of the plant.

Some a glucose is stored as starch, B glucose forms cellulose in cell walls.

Fatty acids can be formed from glycerate 3phosphate, and glycerol from triose phosphate, the building blocks of triglycerides.

Proteins can be formed from glycerate 3phosphate, but the amino group requires nitrogen from nitrate ions.

Other compounds, e.g. **chlorophyll**, require additional ions e.g. **Mg2+**, and the **middle lamella** of **cell walls** needs **Ca2+**.

A lack of nitrogen results in stunted growth in plants, as plants cannot synthesise proteins due to lack of nitrogen, whereas a lack of magnesium causes chlorosis, the yellowing of the leaves, as chlorophyll cannot be synthesised.

This can be shown **experimentally** by placing **plants in soils** with **different nutrient** contents and **observing growth**.

Limiting factors in photosynthesis

The rate of photosynthesis is controlled by a number of factors including the concentration of CO2, light intensity, and temperature.

The **limiting factor** is the one which is in **shortest supply** which **controls** the **rate-l-imiting step**, and therefore an **increase** in it **increases** the **rate of photosynthesis**.

Limiting Factors Table

Factor	Explanation
Facior	Explanation
Carbon	At low concentrations, CO2
Dioxide	concentration is limiting, but
	above 0.5%, the rate plateaus,
	showing that something else
	must be limiting. Above 1% the
	stomata close, preventing the
	uptake of carbon dioxide.
Light	As light intensity increases the
intensity	rate of photosynthesis increases
	up to about 10,000 lux (SI unit if
	illuminance) when sone other
	factor becomes limiting. At very
	high light intensities the rate
	decreases as chloroplast
	pigments become bleached.
	Different plants have evolved to
	be most efficient at light intens-
	ities found in their environment,
	e.g. sun and shade plants.

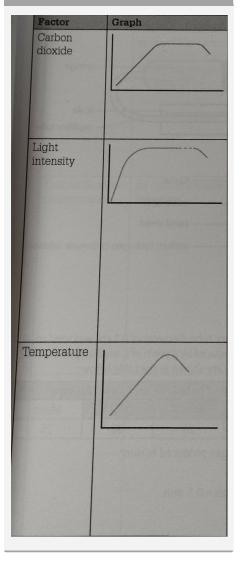
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Limiting Factors Table (cont)

Temper Temperature increases the ature kinetic energy of the reactants and enzymes involved in photosynthesis. Unlike other factors, a plateau is not reached as enzymes, e.g. RuBisCO, begin to denature so the rate of photosynthesis decreases above the optimum temperature. This will be higher in species adapted to hot, dry environments.

Limiting Factor Graphs





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Measuring the rate of photosynthesis

Aquatic plants are a good subject to use when investigating how different factors affect photosynthesis.

Temperature and CO2 concentration are more easily controlled than with terrestrial plants, by using a water bath and controlling hydrogen carbonate concentration.

It is also easy to collect and accurately measure the oxygen produced in a capillary tube.

The **volume** of the **bubble** collected is **calculated** by the formula:

Volume = pi r2 x length of bubble

Where pi = 3.14 and r = radius or diameter/2

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