

Photosynthesis and the Rise of Atmospheric Oxygen

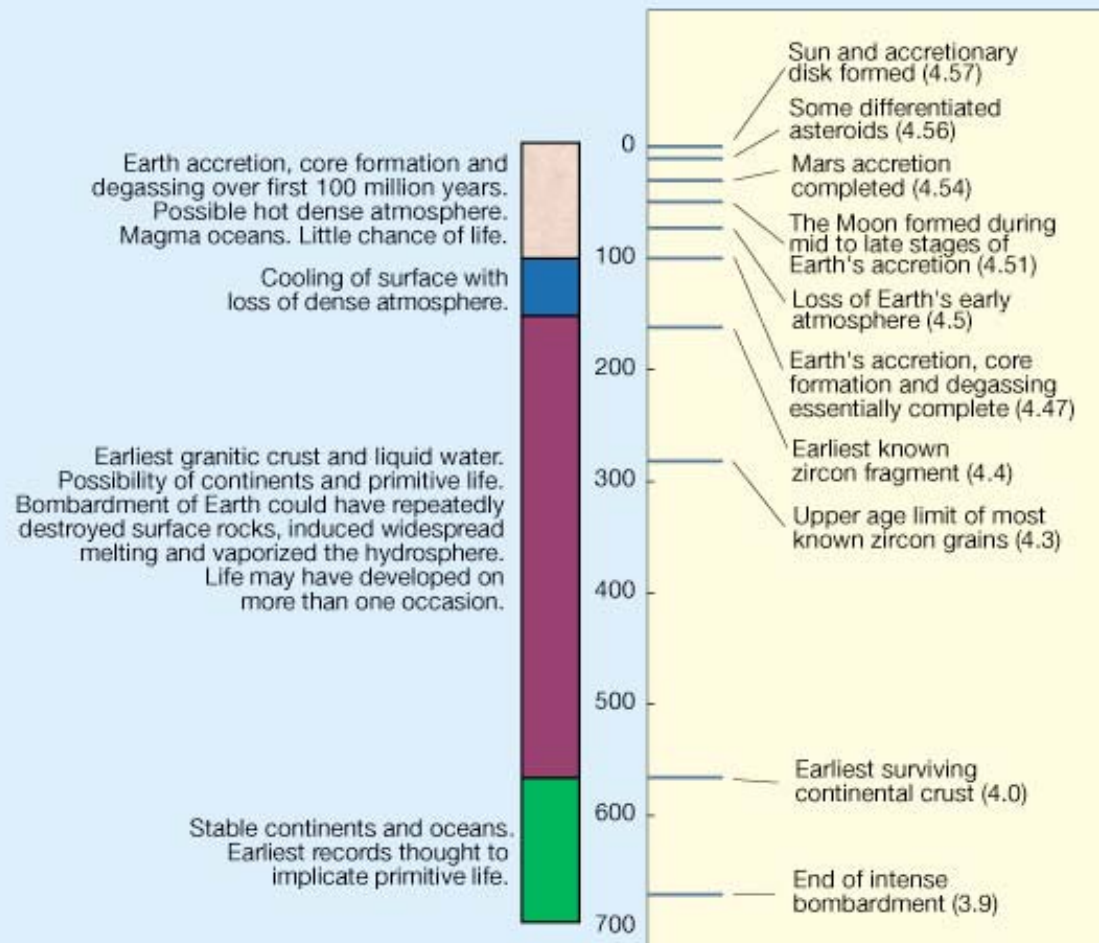
Assigned Reading

- Stanley: pp. 257-269, 323-325
- Catling D. C., Zahnle K. J., and McKay C. P. (2001) Biogenic methane, hydrogen escape, and the irreversible oxidation of early Earth. *Science* **293**, 839-843.
- Holland, H.D. (1999) When did the Earth's atmosphere become oxidic? A Reply. *Geochem. News*, **100**(July), 20-22.
- Kasting, J.F. (1993) Earth's Early Atmosphere. *Science*, **259**, 920-926.
- Kasting, J.F. (2001) The rise of atmospheric oxygen. *Science*, **293**, 819-820.

Suggested Reading:

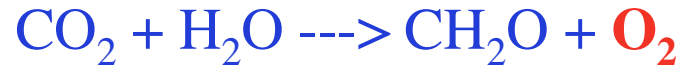
- Kasting, J.F., Egglar, D.H. & Raeburn, S.P. (1993) Mantle redox evolution and the oxidation state of the Archean atmosphere. *J. Geol.*, **101**, 245-257.
- Kump, L.R. & Holland, H.D. (1992) Iron in Precambrian rocks: Implications for the global oxygen budget of the ancient Earth. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, **56**, 3217-3223.

Early Earth History

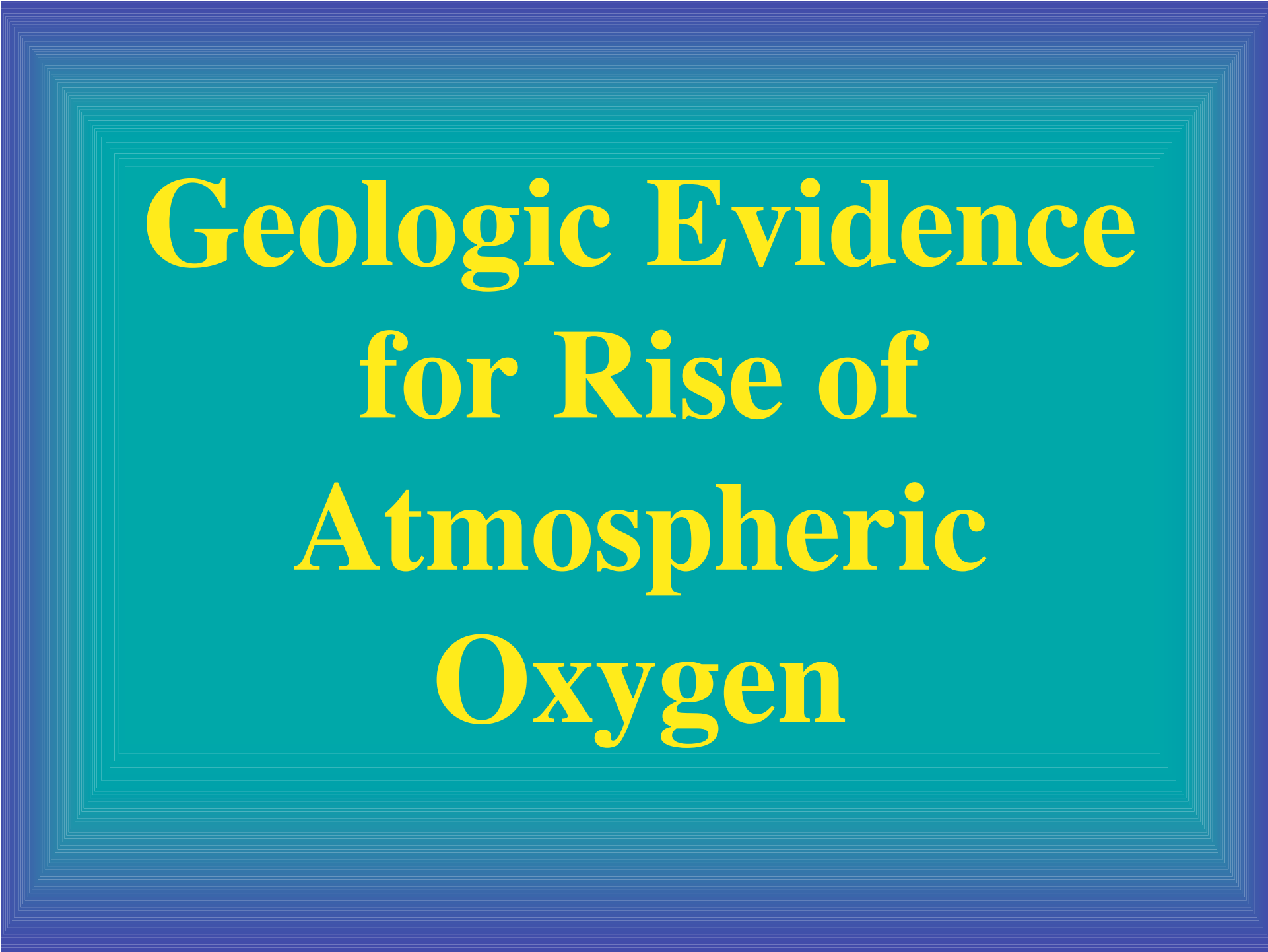


The Rise of Atmospheric Oxygen

- Photosynthesis by cyanobacteria began > 3.5-2.7 Ga



- No evidence for free O₂ before ~2.4 Ga
- Reduced gases in atmosphere & reduced crust consume O₂ produced during 1200-400 Myr
- Hydrogen escape irreversibly oxidizes atmosphere
- Mantle dynamics & redox evolution reduce O₂ sink over time
- Geologic & geochemical evidence for O₂ :
 - Oxidized Fe & Mn mineral deposits
 - Detrital uraninite & pyrite
 - Paleosols
 - Redbeds
 - Sulfur isotopes
 - Eukaryotes
- **Conclusion: Rapid rise of free O₂ 2.4-2.2 Ga**



**Geologic Evidence
for Rise of
Atmospheric
Oxygen**

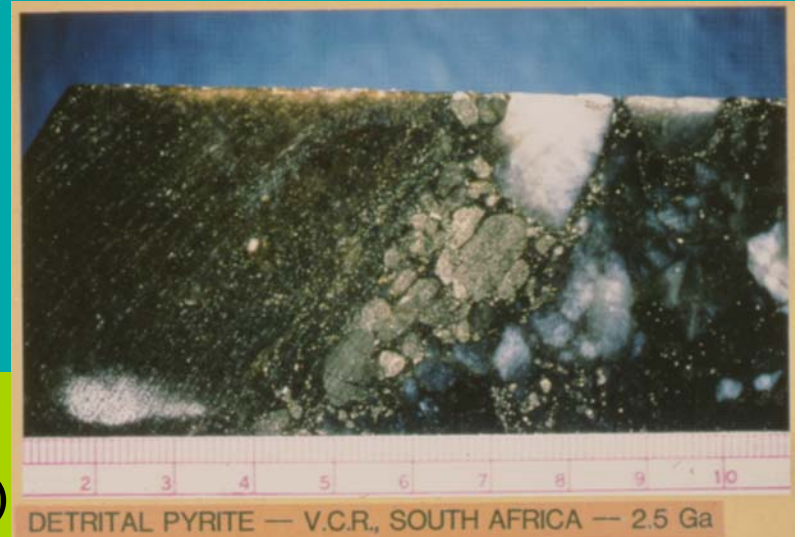
Detrital Uraninite & Pyrite



- Uraninite: UO_2
- Reduced U(IV)
- Highly radioactive
- Important ore of uranium & radium.



- Pyrite: FeS_2
- Reduced Fe(II)



- > 2.2 Ga, these *reduced* minerals existed as *detrital* minerals in Archean sedimentary rocks.
- In other words, they survived weathering process intact & were transported as solid particles. (I.e., not dissolved).
- Preservation of UO_2 and FeS_2 requires *anoxia*. They are unstable in the presence of free O_2 , which oxidizes & dissolves them.

Banded Iron Formations (BIFs)

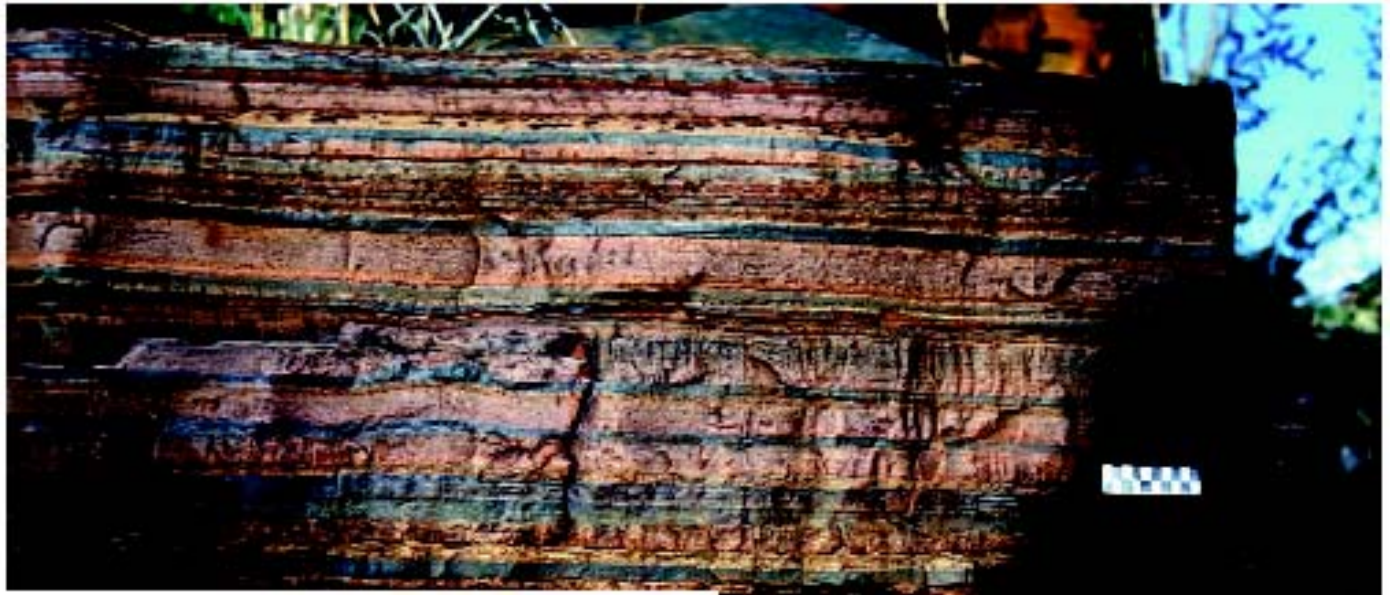
- Hematite (Fe_2O_3) & magnetite (Fe_3O_4) :



- Requires free O_2 to oxidize Fe(II)

• Most BIFs > 1.9 Ga;
indicates free O_2
existed by then

- Laminated
sedimentary rocks
- Alternating layers
of magnetite /
hematite & chert
(SiO_2)



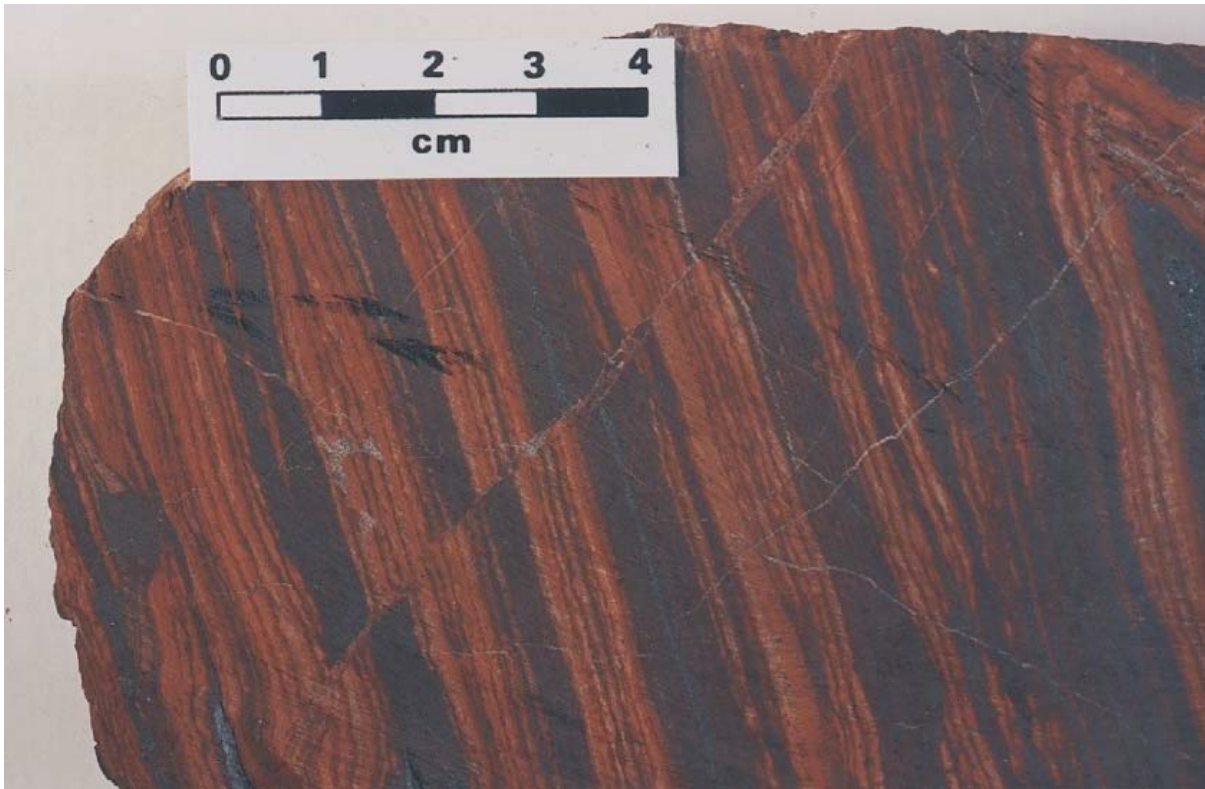
A Typical Banded Iron Stone



BIF — NEGAUNEE IRON FORMATION, MICHIGAN — 2.2 Ga



Black
Chert
vein



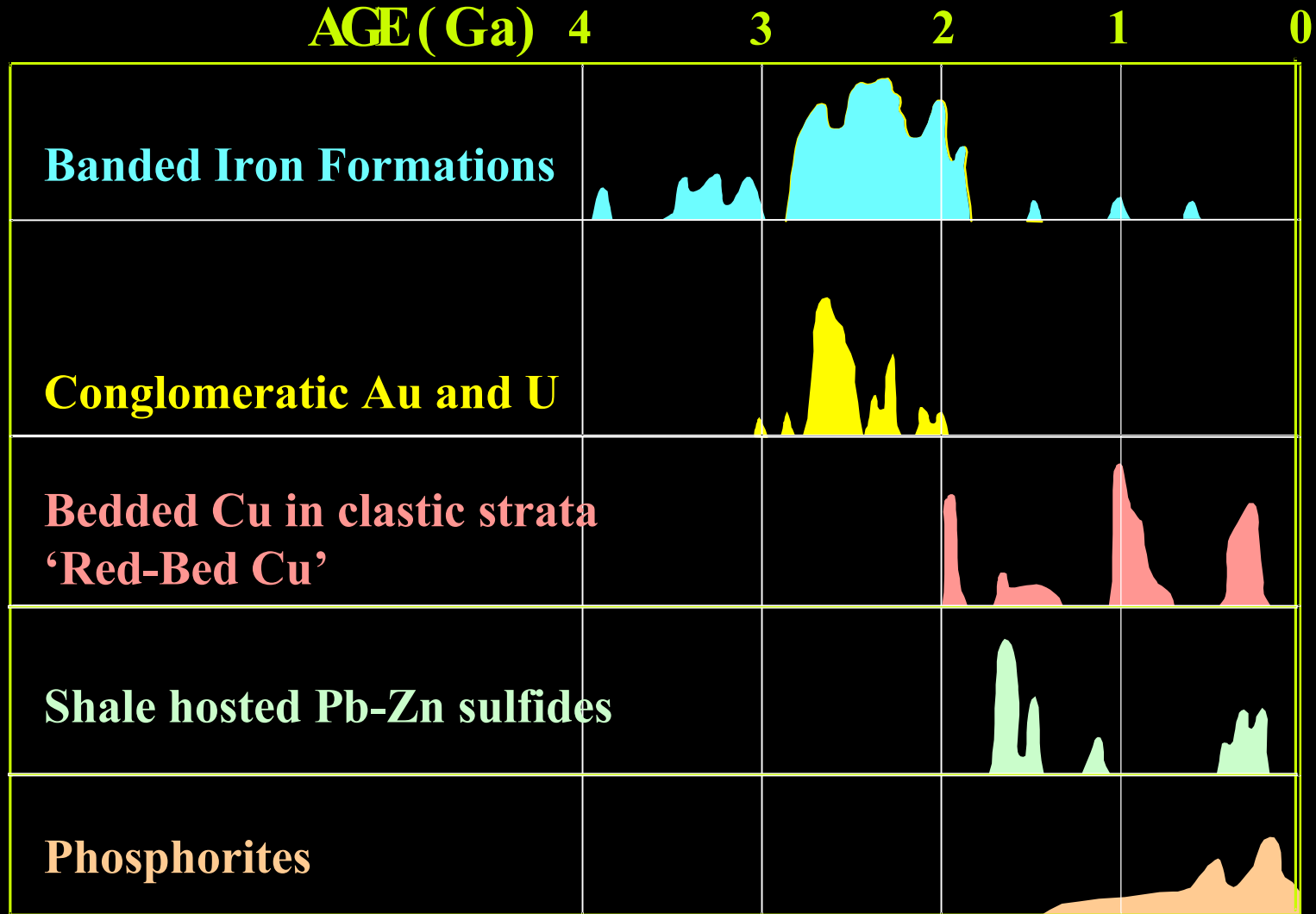
How did BIFs form?

•A big open question in geology!

One favored scenario:

- Anoxic deep ocean containing dissolved Fe(II)
- Seasonal upwelling brings Fe(II) to the surface where it is oxidized to Fe(III) by O₂ produced by cyanobacteria/algae.
- Insoluble Fe(III) precipitates out of seawater
- SiO₂ precipitated by algae during non-upwelling season

Mineralization Through Geologic Time

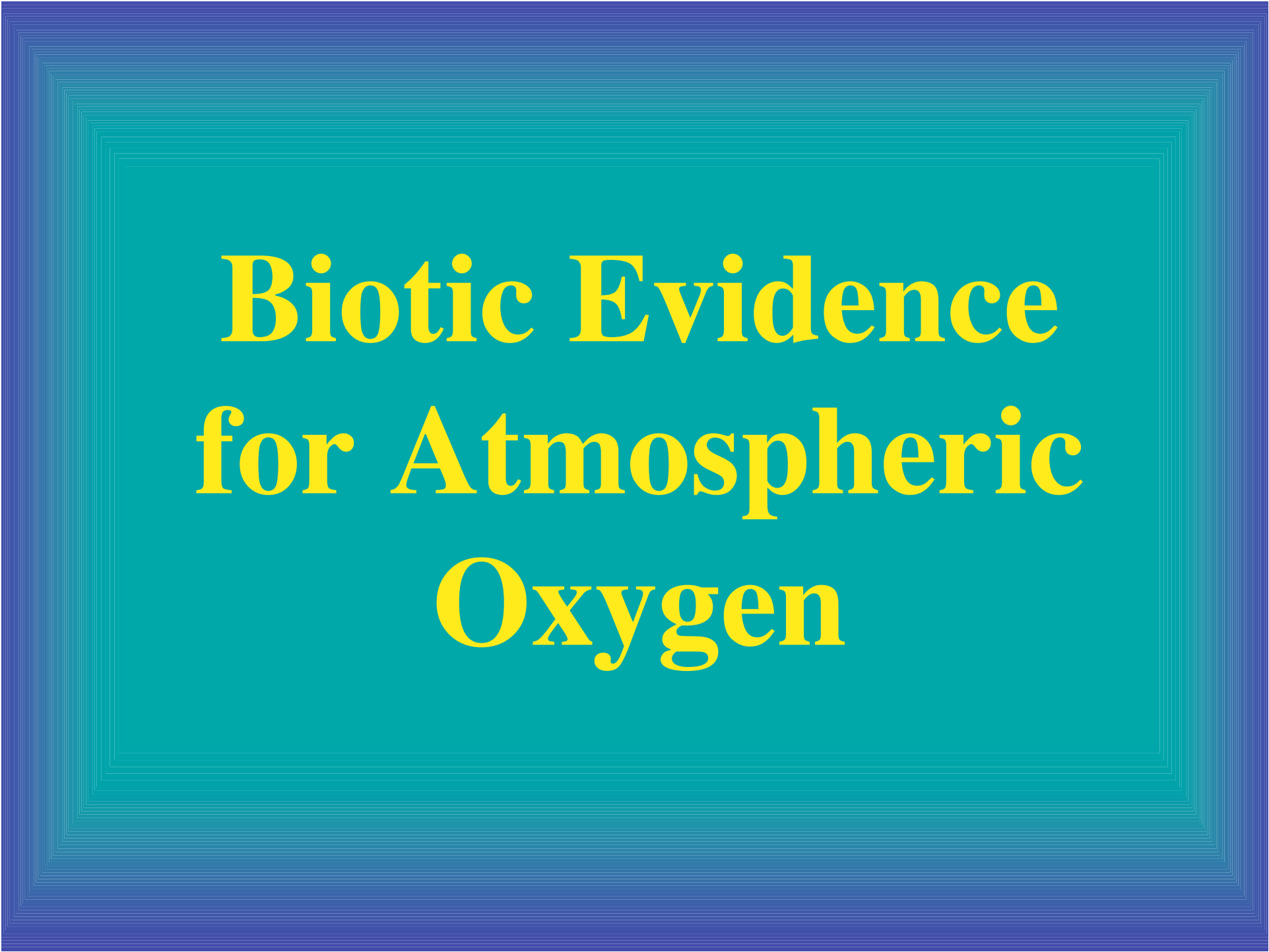


(adapted from Lambert & Groves, 1981)

Sulfur Isotopic Evidence for O₂-#1

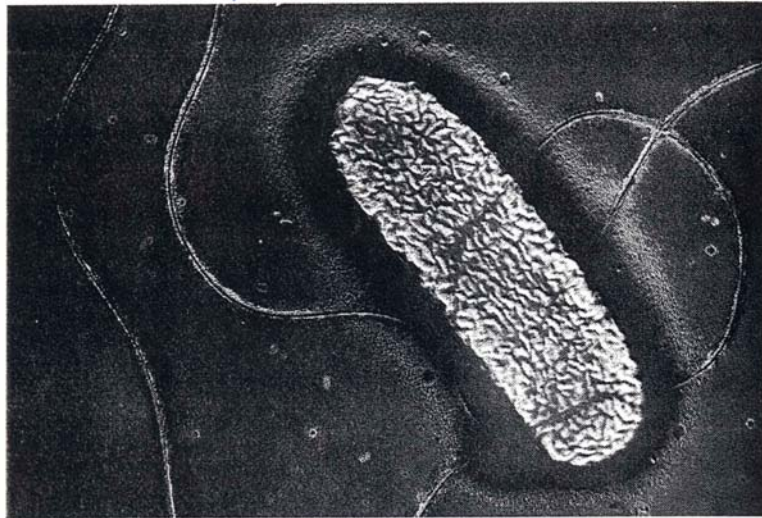
See the figure by J. Farquhar, H. Bao, M. Thiemens. *Science* **289** (2000): 756-758.

- Earth's S cycle > 2.3 Ga controlled by *mass-independent fractionation* of S
- Gas-phase photochemical reactions--e.g., photolysis of SO₂ in atmosphere
- Requires very low O₂ in atmosphere

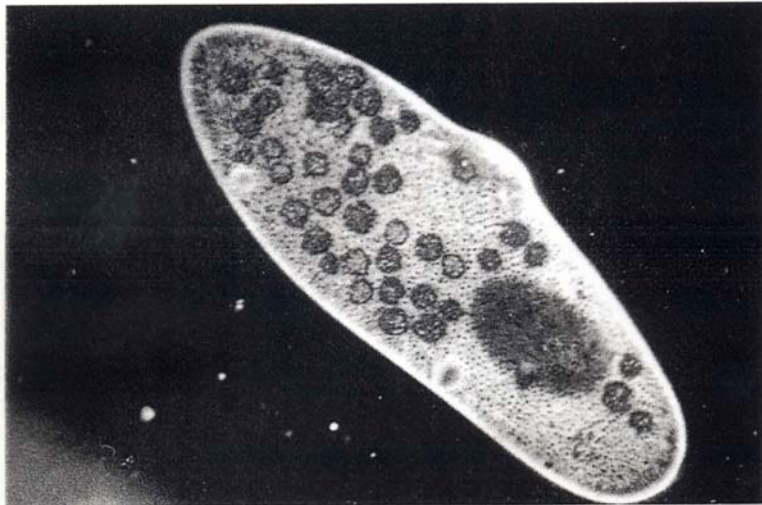


Biotic Evidence for Atmospheric Oxygen

Prokaryote



(a)



(b)

Eukaryote

Nucleus contains genetic material
 ≥ 0.001 PAL O_2 Required

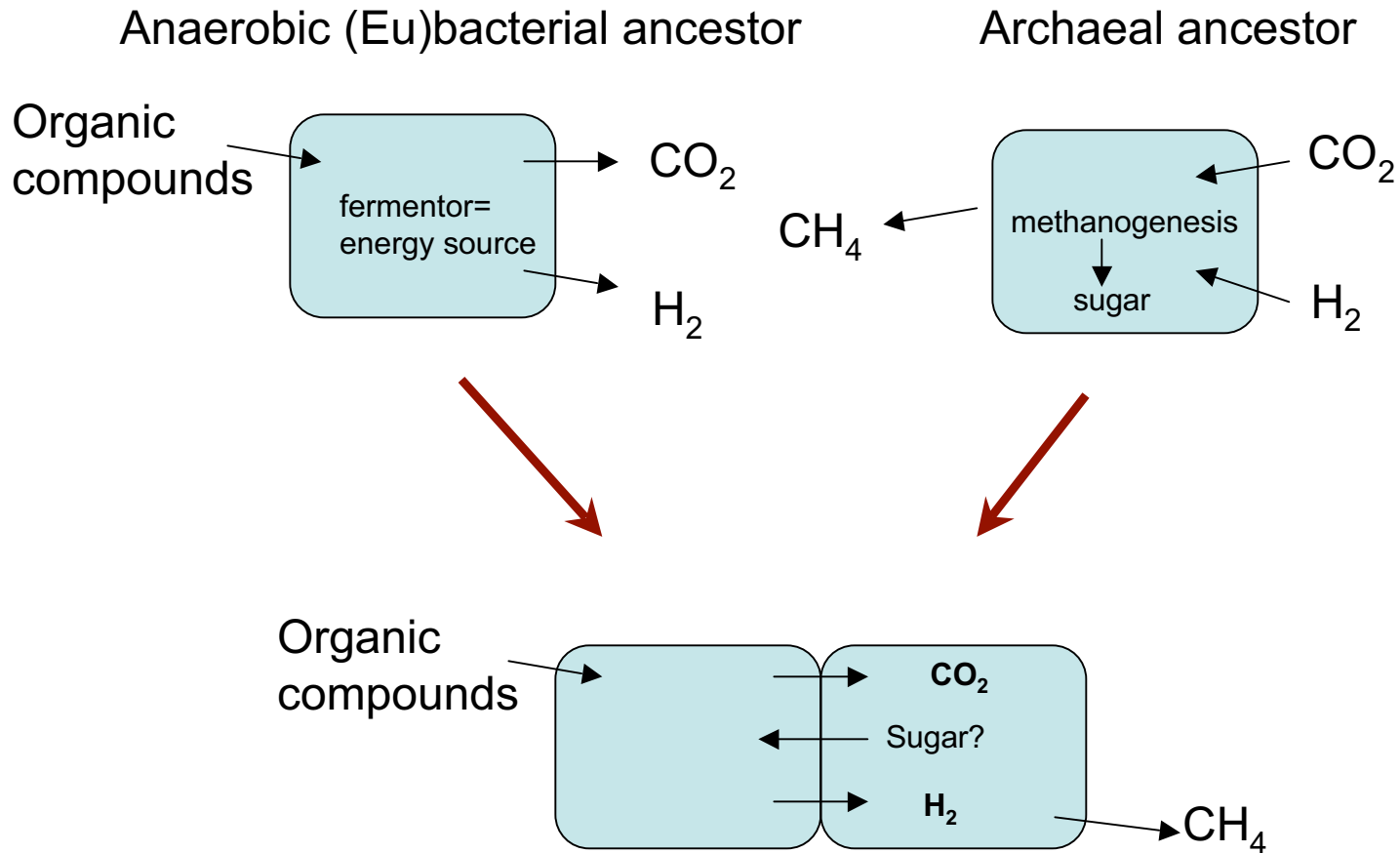
Rise of Eukaryotes

- Eukaryotes require free O_2 in excess of 1% PAL for respiration

Likely sequence of critical evolutionary events leading to multicellular forms

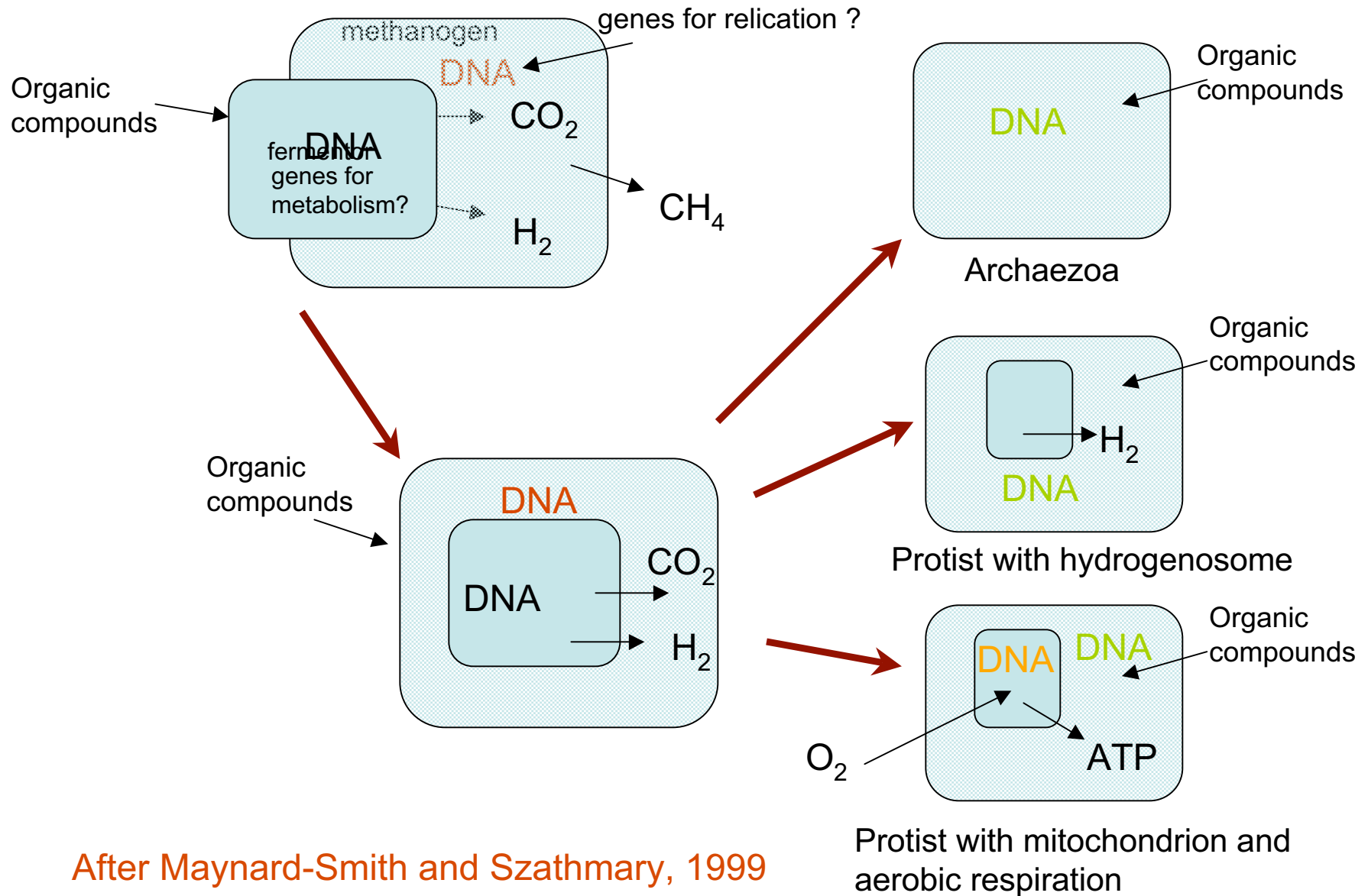
- Eukaryotes likely arose from union of two prokaryotic cells.
- Internalized cell became mitochondrion (where E from food derived by respiration).
- DNA & RNA in mitochondrion is different than in surrounding cells.
- Protozoan consumed & retained cyanobacterium that became chloroplast.
- Chloroplasts contain own DNA & RNA (like mitochondrion) and are remarkably similar to cyanobacteria.

Symbiosis leading to proto-eukaryote



After Maynard-Smith and Szathmary, 1999

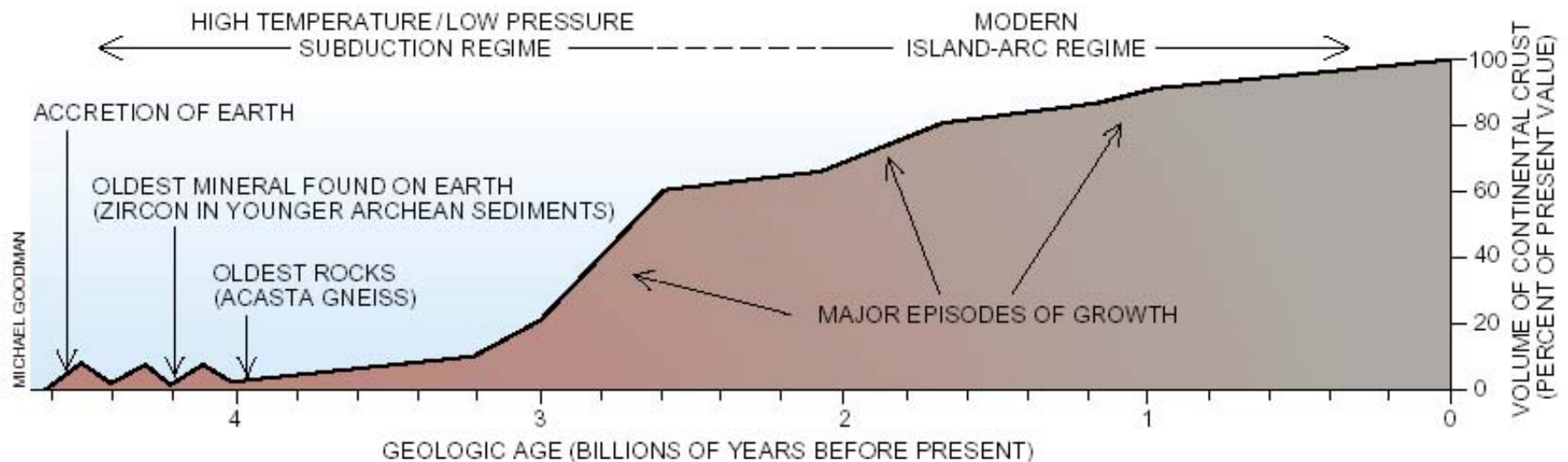
Symbioses leading to Eukaryotes



After Maynard-Smith and Szathmary, 1999

Origin and Early Evolution of Life

- The lost record of the origin of Life? Few crustal rocks from >3 Ga and half life of sediments 100-200Ma so most destroyed



CRUSTAL GROWTH has proceeded in episodic fashion for billions of years. An important growth spurt lasted from about 3.0 to 2.5 billion years ago, the transition between the Ar-

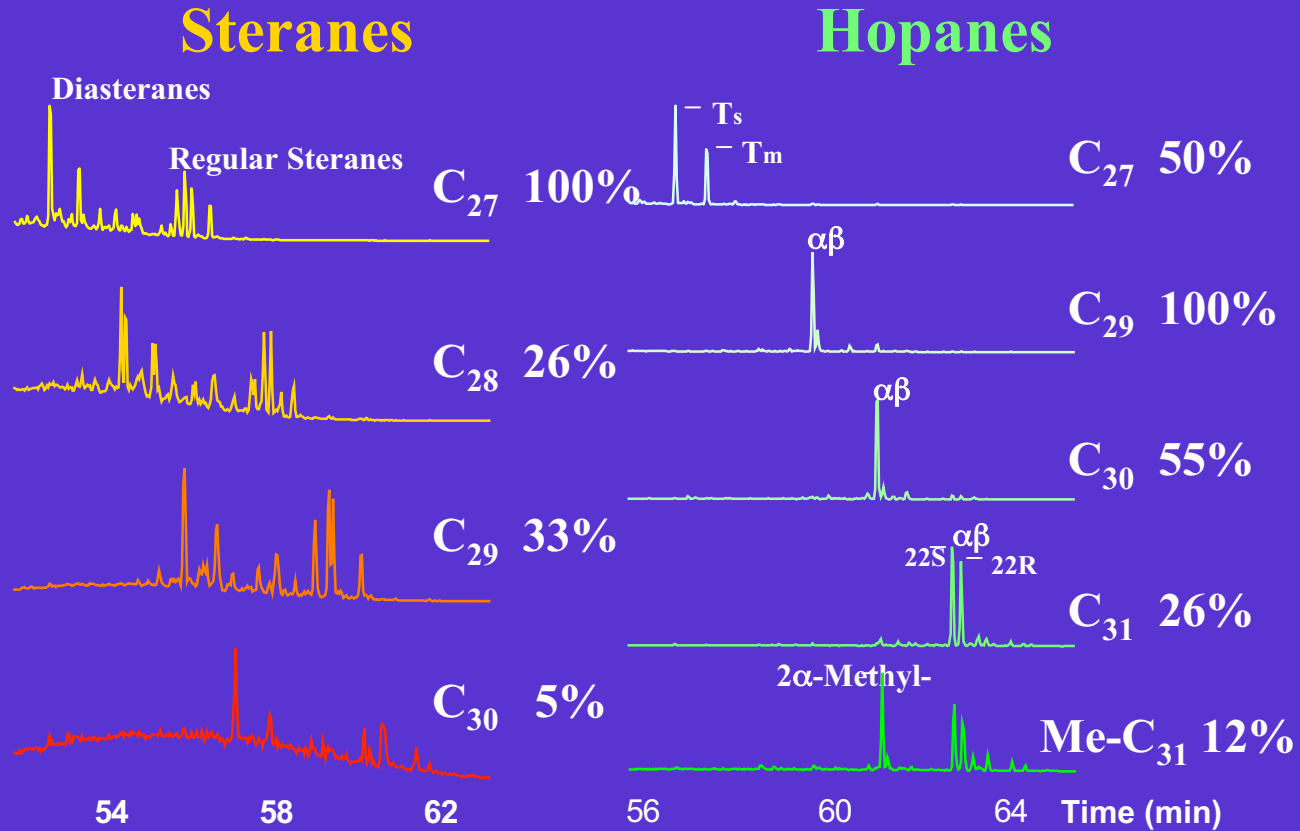
chean and Proterozoic eons. Widespread melting at this time formed the granite bodies that now constitute much of the upper layer of the continental crust.

The majority view seems to be that stromatolites are the first good evidence for life, placing its origin in the vicinity of 3.5 Ga.

By 3.47 Ga there is additional evidence for microbial life in the form of isotopically-depleted sulfur minerals....

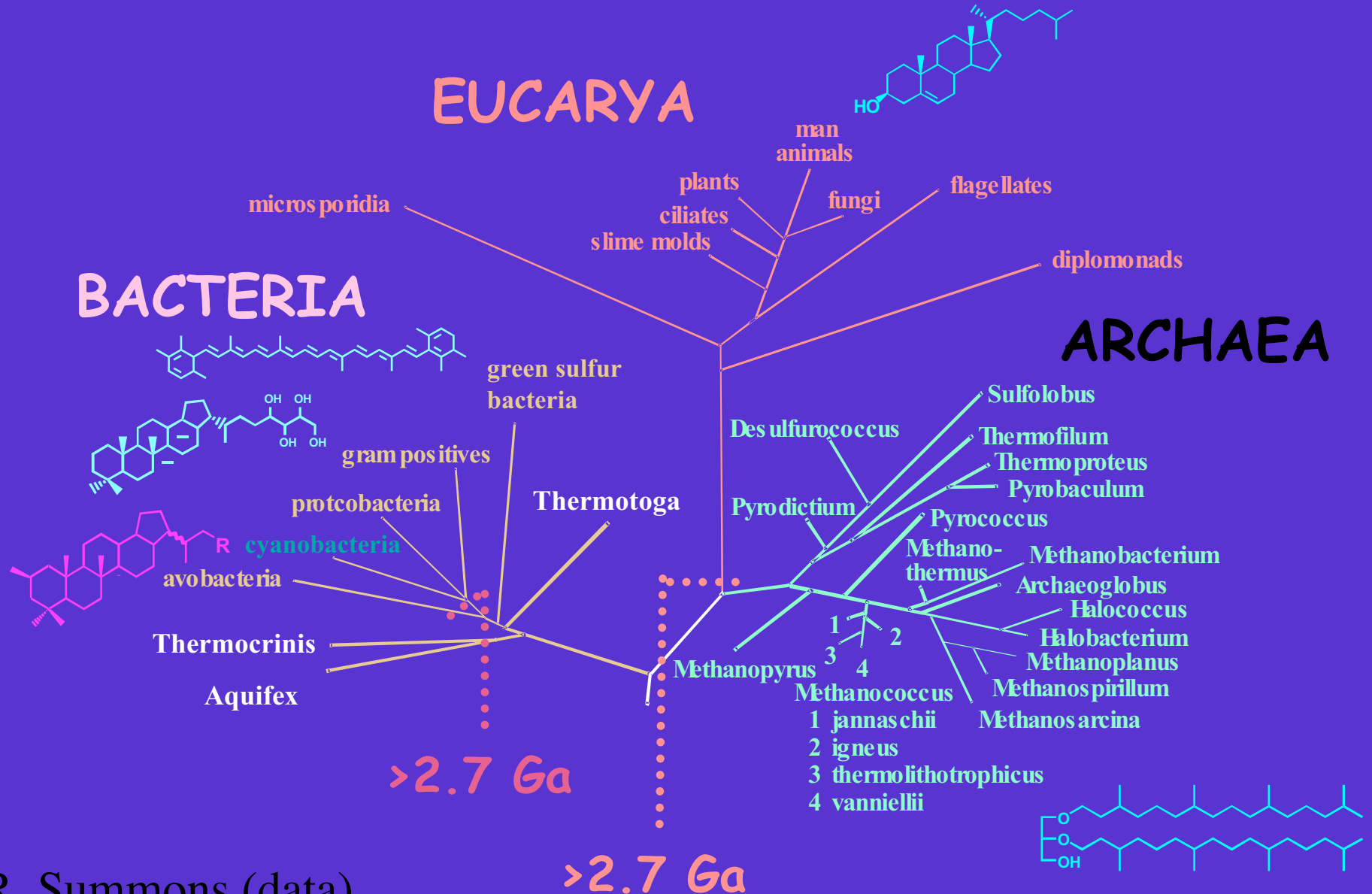
**By 2.7 Ga there is
excellent evidence for
both microbial life,
eukaryotes & oxygenic
photosynthesis from
*molecular fossils.***

Eukaryote & Prokaryote Biomarkers by 2.7 Ga



Summons, Brocks, et al.

Parallel Molecular Signatures



R. Summons (data)

Conundrum: If oxygen-producing photosynthesis was occurring by 3.5-2.7 Ga, why doesn't free O₂ appear until 2.3 Ga, a 1200-400 Myr delay?

What caused the atmosphere to become oxygenated 2.4-2.2 Ga?

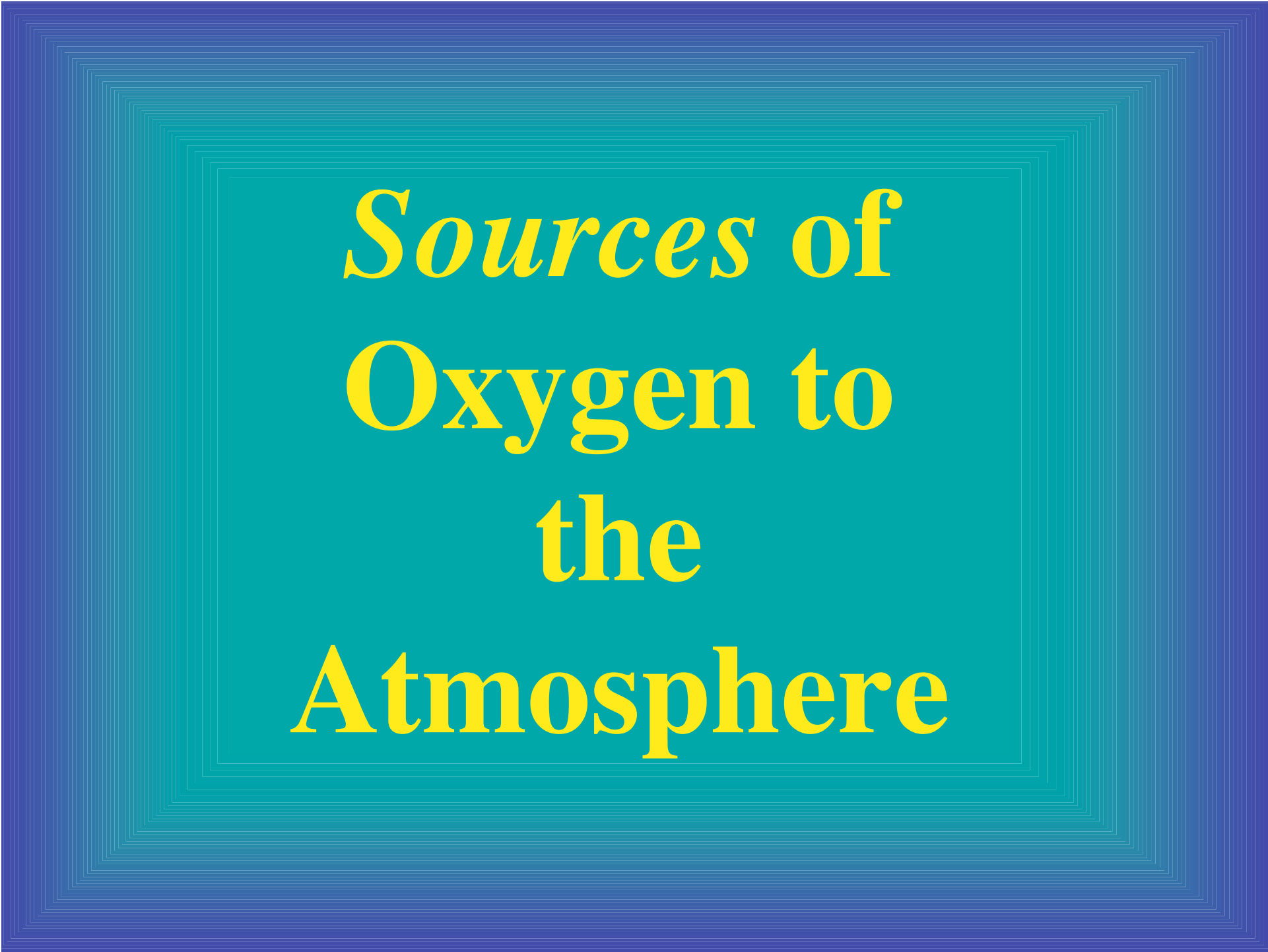
Sources

- Photosynthesis
- Hydrogen escape

Vs.

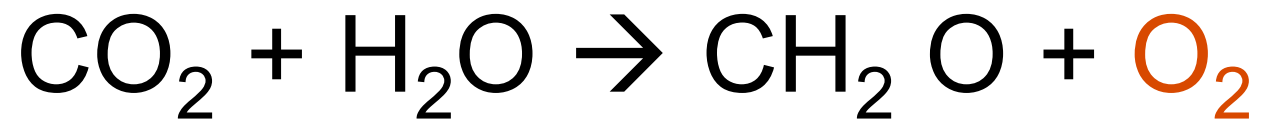
Sinks

- Respiration
- Reduced minerals in rocks
 - Reduced volcanic gases
- Reduced hydrothermal vent fluids

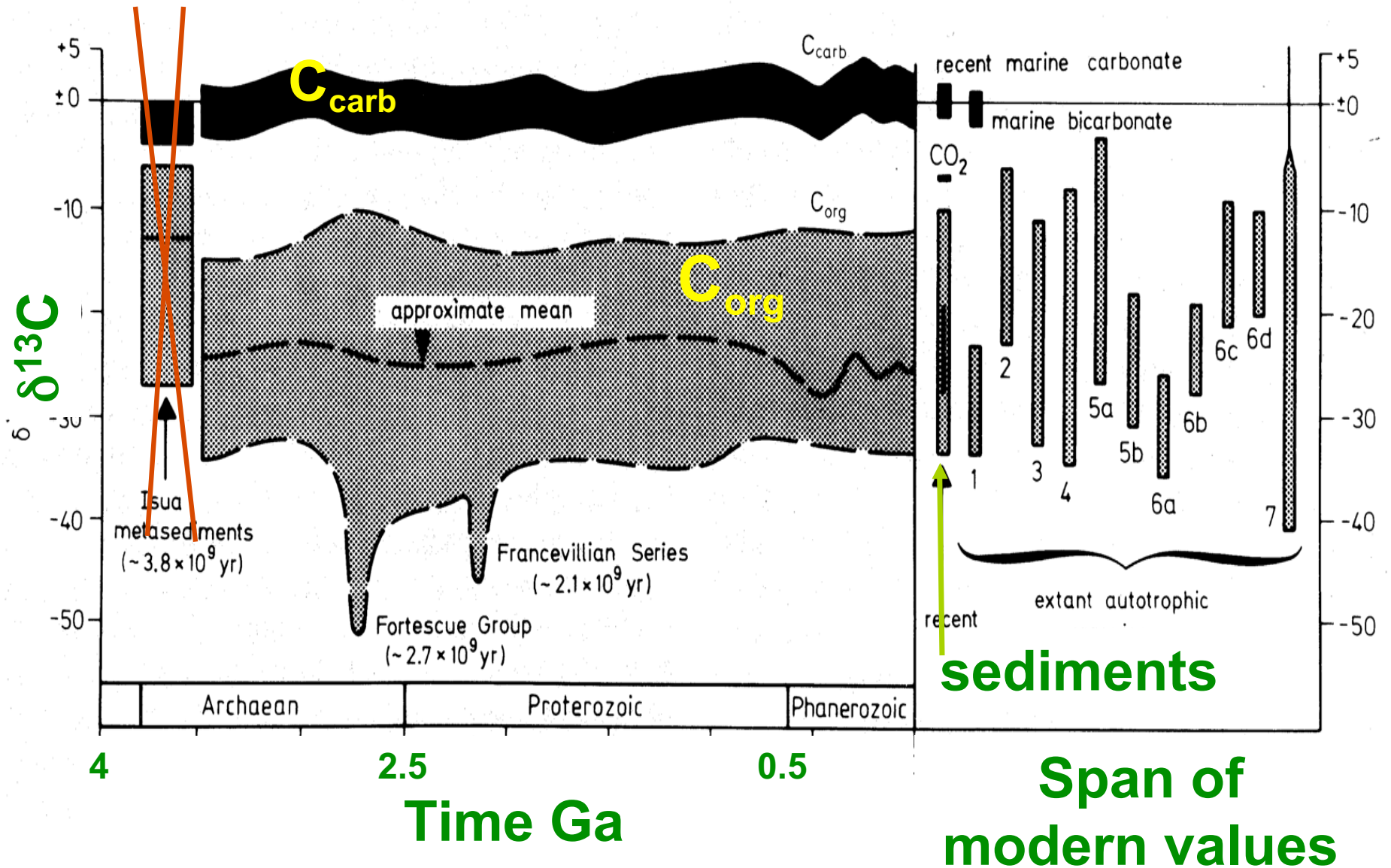


Sources of
Oxygen to
the
Atmosphere

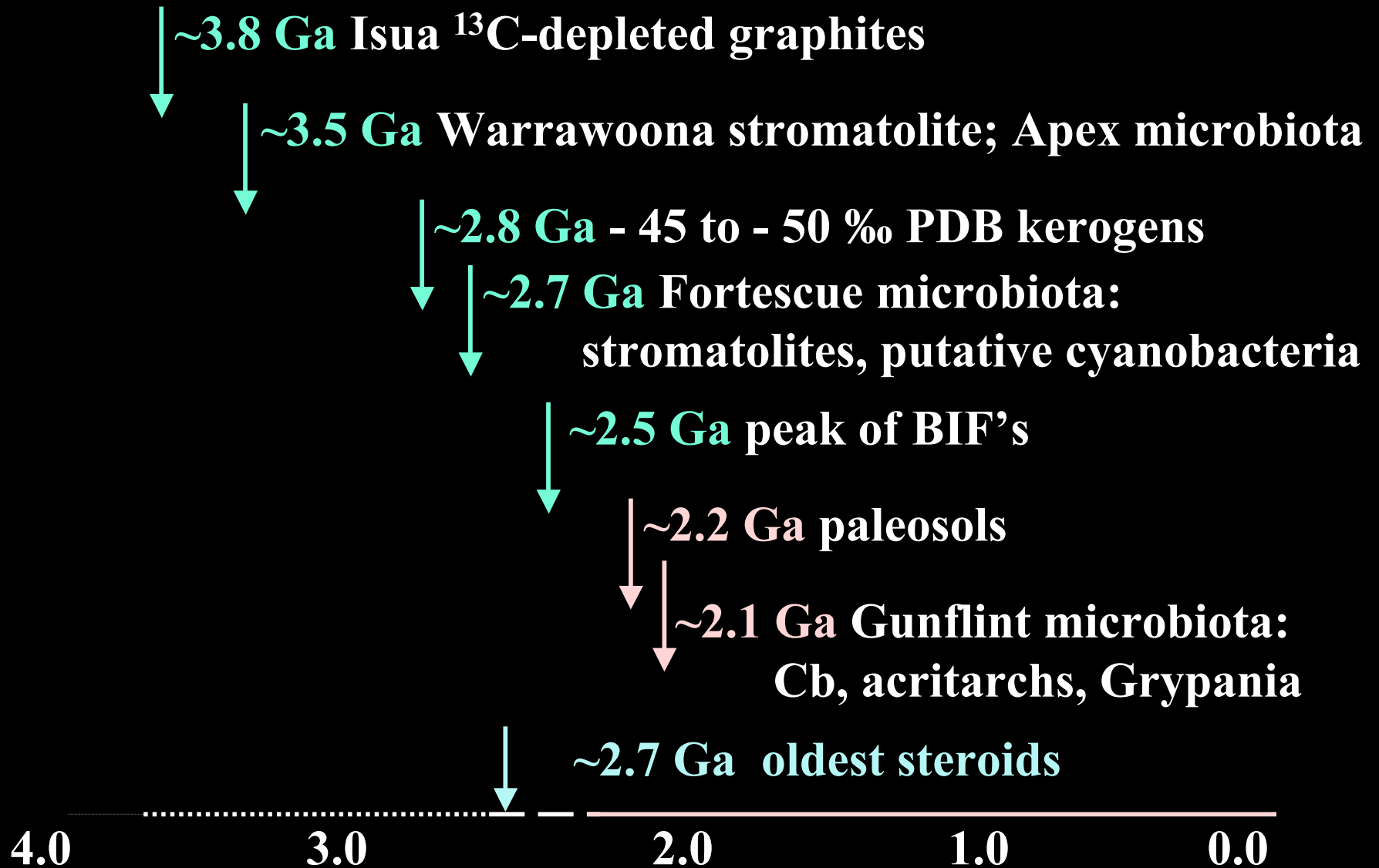
Oxygenic Photosynthesis



Revised C Isotope Evidence for Life's Antiquity



EVIDENCE FOR AUTOTROPY & OXYGENIC PHOTOSYNTHESIS



What is Photosynthesis?

APhotosynthesis.

#The transfer of energy from solar radiant energy to a molecule. (physics to chemistry).

#the fixation of 120 billion metric tons of carbon a year.

#the primary process by which energy enters the biosphere.

It was the evolution of oxygen evolving photosynthetic bacteria some 3×10^9 ya that ultimately created an atmosphere of 21% O₂ and set the stage for the evolution of all complex life forms, including ourselves!

General photosynthetic equation: (Fig. 1).



There are three basic steps in photosynthesis: (Fig. 2).

#Light reactions - energy capture: chemiosmosis generation of ATP from harvested sunlight.

#Dark reactions - fixation of carbon: enzyme catalyzed reactions using the energy of ATP formed in the light reactions to fix atmospherically derived carbon (CO₂) into sugars (CH₂O).

#Pigment regeneration - electron replacement from the splitting of H₂O in oxygenic photosynthesis.

The Transfer of Energy from Solar Radiant Energy to a Molecule (physics to chemistry)

Typically the frequencies at which electrons in bonds oscillate back and forth between various nuclei fall in the range 10^{14} - 10^{15} cycles/sec. These frequencies correspond to those of light with wavelengths in the range of 200-700 nanometers, the visible and ultraviolet regions of the solar spectrum. It is light of these wavelengths that are involved in photosynthesis. Shorter wavelengths are disruptive to molecules, causing photo-dissociation, the breaking of bonds between atoms. We saw this happen in the atmosphere with the photo-dissociation of oxygen and ozone by ultraviolet light. Light with wave lengths longer than 700 micrometers is absorbed by water, which makes up the bulk of living creatures. This absorption heats the water but does not effect electron energies. As we learned in week one, wavelengths between 200 and 700 micrometers is where the bulk of the sun's output is.

How does a light wave excite (increase the energy) of an electron? Imagine a light wave passing a stationary molecule. The wave causes electrical and magnetic disturbances in the region of space through which it travels. It turns out that the magnetic force on the electron is very weak compared to the electrical force so we can ignore it and think only of the electrical force. As the light wave passes, the electrons of the molecule experience an electrical disturbance caused by the repulsive and attractive forces of the light wave's undulating electric field. At any given point in the electron cloud, the electric field strength due to the light wave will vary as a function of time i.e., it may start at a value of zero, build up to an (attractive) maximum, decrease to a value of zero, and then begin to produce a field opposite to the previous one, build to a (repulsive) maximum, decrease to a value of zero, then start the cycle all over again. The degree to which interaction between the light wave and the electron cloud of a molecule occurs depends on the relation between the resonant frequency of the electron cloud and the frequency of the light wave. This is similar to the situation of a platoon of marching soldiers reaching a bridge. The platoon leader, if he has been well trained, will have his men fall out of step as they cross the bridge. This will avoid the unfortunate possibility of the platoon knocking the bridge down if the frequency of the soldiers marching is similar to the natural resonant frequency of the bridge. Another example is female opera singers who can sing at frequencies similar to wine glasses. They have been known to impress the guests at gala events by holding this critical note and breaking the (empty) wine glasses.

In the classical model of light absorption, the maximum rate of energy absorption from a light wave occurs at resonance. The frequency of the light wave is similar to the frequency of the electron cloud. Thus light absorption by a molecule is an all or nothing proposition. The net result of absorption is to create an oscillatory motion in the electron cloud. This motion contains energy that can be released or stored. This energy is available to move electrons in chemical reactions.

General Photosynthetic Equation

Photosynthesis



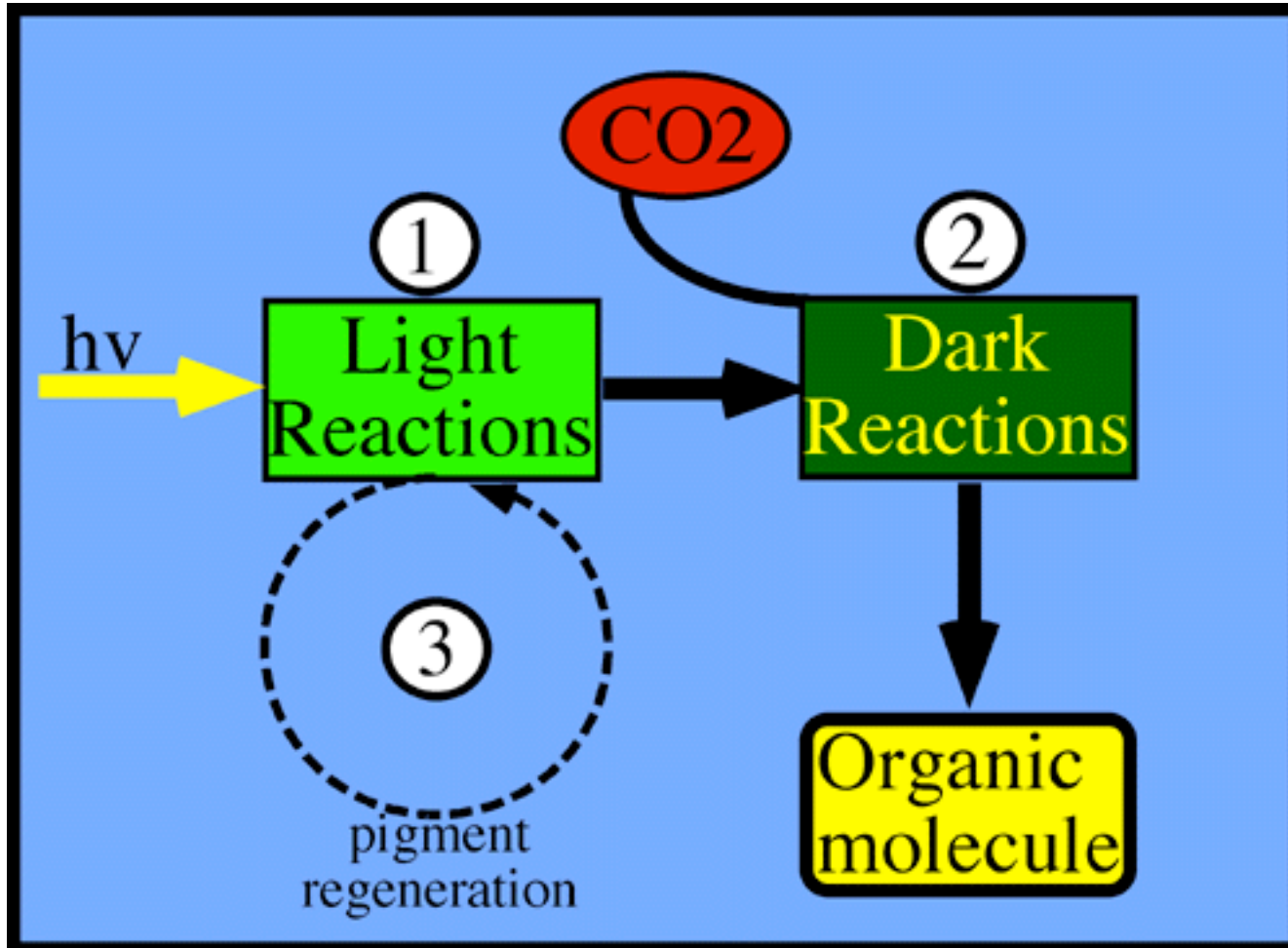
↑
ie. algae

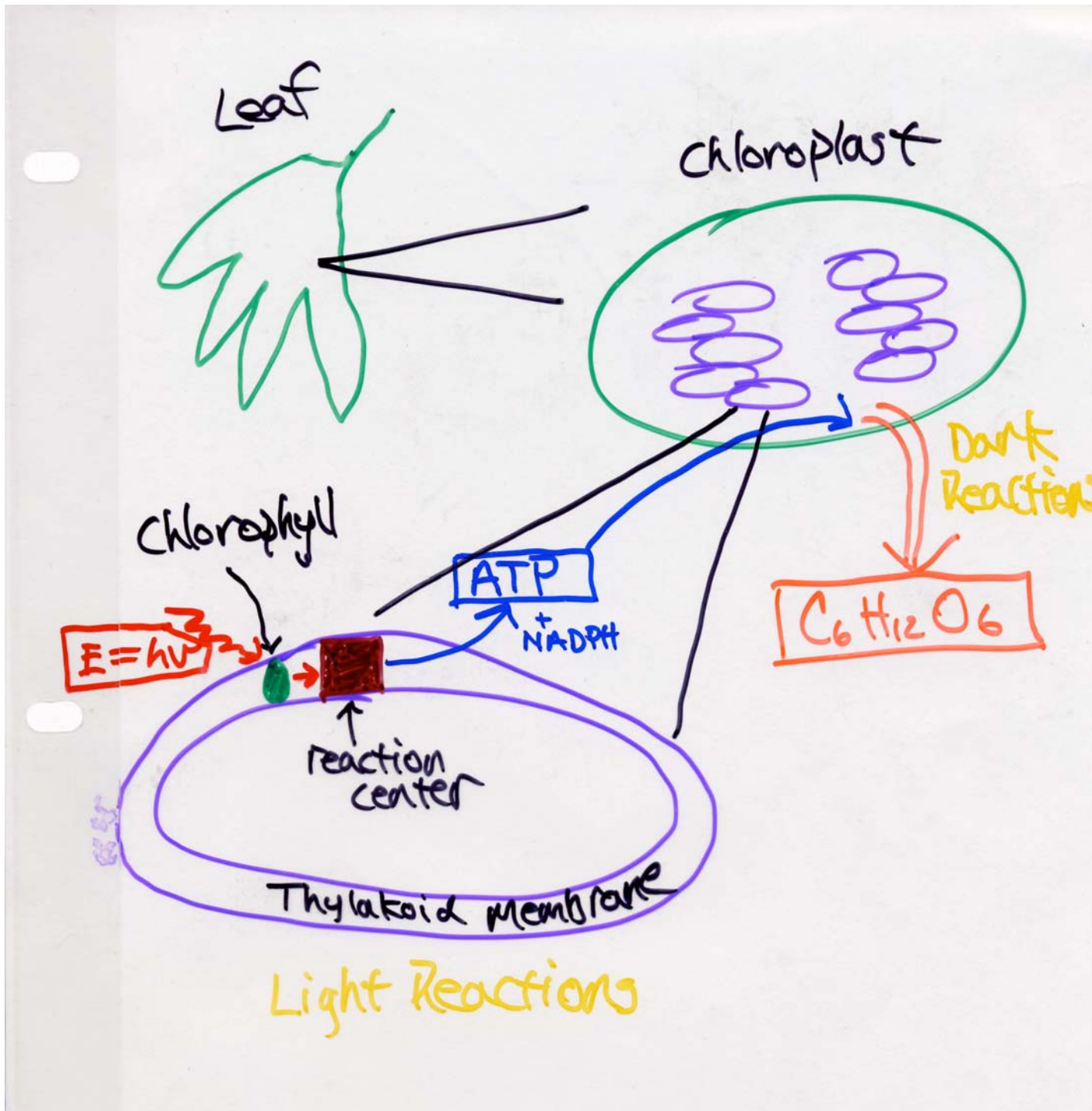
Carbohydrates + Oxygen as products

1 mole of CO_2 consumed
as 1 mole of O_2 produced

→ Controls surface water ocean chemistry of inorganic carbon and nutrients and, when combined with respiration, controls atmospheric CO_2 concentration.

3 Steps of Photosynthesis





Photosynthesis Schematic

Steps in Photosynthesis #1: The Light Reactions

- The Light Reactions: absorbing light energy

- Photosynthesis requires the input of energy in the form of light (photons). The light energy that reaches the surface of the Earth is made up of a continuous spectrum of various wavelengths and photons known as the electromagnetic spectrum, the energy in each being inversely proportional to its wavelength.

- A very specific energy is required for photochemistry since only photons of a certain critical wavelength can dislodge electrons from an object. Photosynthetic pigments are used to absorb light of precisely the right energy to facilitate electron transfer via the photoelectric effect. Photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) is adsorbed by chlorophylls, pigments that absorb in the red and blue spectra and reflect green.

- When the energy absorbed by the chlorophylls is released, some goes into the formation of chemical bonds (ATP, NADPH).

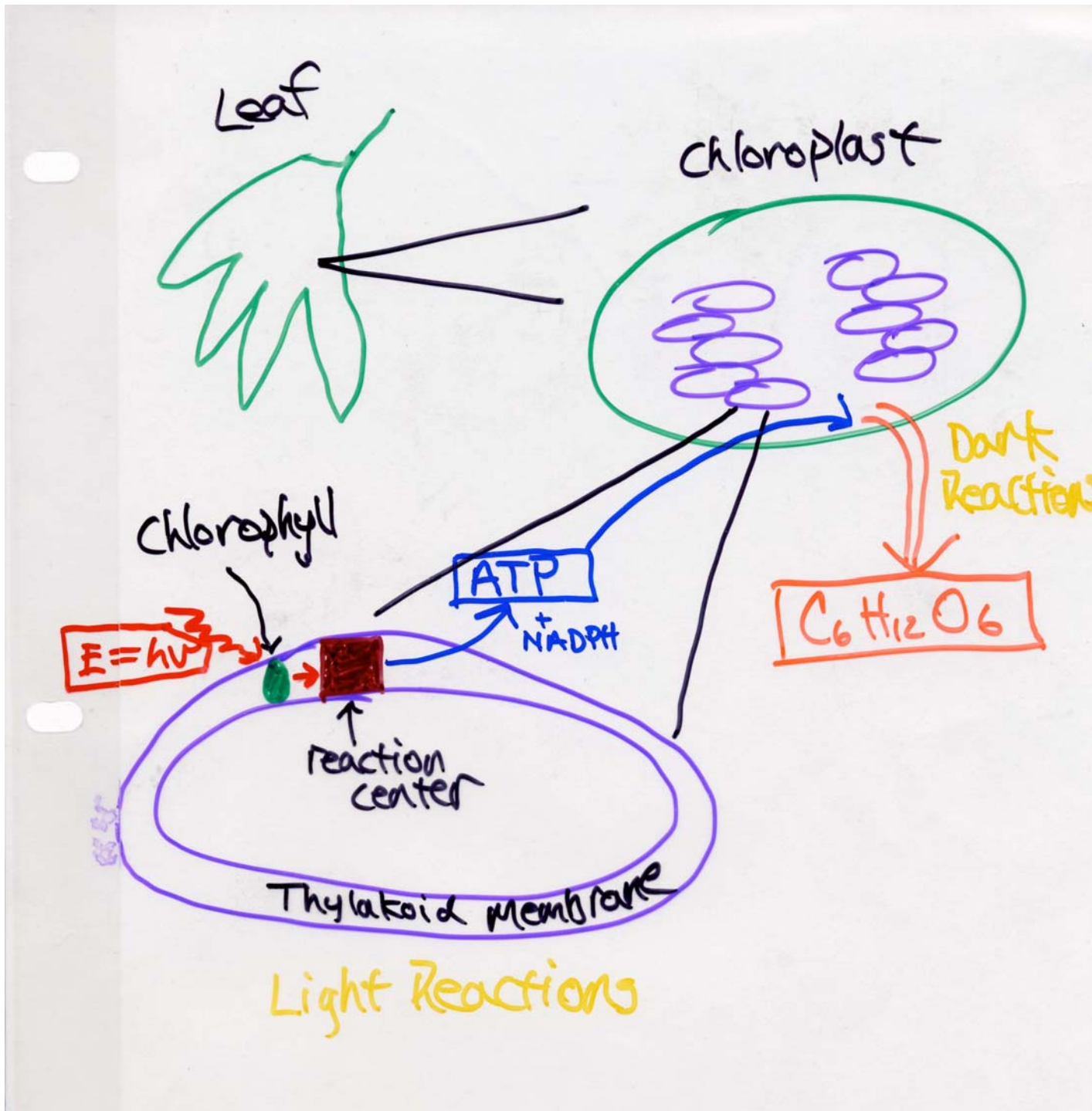
Steps in Photosynthesis #2: The Dark Reactions

- Dark Reactions: carbon fixation

The cellular energy source gained from the light reactions (ATP and NADPH), is subsequently used to build organic (carbon based) molecules. The steps that comprise the enzymatic fixation of carbon are known as the dark reactions since they can readily proceed in the absence of light, however don't be confused, these processes can just as easily proceed (and commonly do) in the light.

- Pigment Regeneration: water splitting

Light energy was adsorbed by chlorophyll, and an electron was sent to a higher energy state, as this electron decayed, it transferred its energy to form ATP which was then used make sugars. In order to obey the conservation of mass and energy, the transferred electron has to be replaced. This replacement comes from water, which is split releasing oxygen!



Photosynthesis Schematic

ATP (Adenosine triphosphate)

- ATP ATP is a nucleotide that performs many essential roles in the cell.

It is the major energy currency of the cell, providing the energy for most of the energy-consuming activities of the cell.

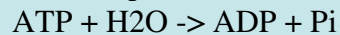
It is one of the monomers used in the synthesis of RNA and, after conversion to deoxyATP (dATP), DNA.

It regulates many biochemical pathways.

- Energy

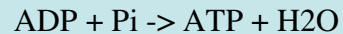
When the third phosphate group of ATP is removed by hydrolysis, a substantial amount of free energy is released.

The exact amount depends on the conditions, but we shall use a value of 7.3 kcal per mole.



ADP is adenosine diphosphate. P_i is inorganic phosphate.

- Synthesis of ATP



requires energy: 7.3 kcal/mole

occurs in the cytosol by glycolysis

occurs in mitochondria by cellular respiration

occurs in chloroplasts by photosynthesis

- Consumption of ATP

Most anabolic reactions in the cell are powered by ATP.

Examples:

assembly of amino acids into proteins

assembly of nucleotides into DNA and RNA

synthesis of polysaccharides

synthesis of fats

active transport of molecules and ions

beating of cilia and flagella

NADP

•Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) & its relative nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP) are two of the most important coenzymes in the cell. NADP is simply NAD with a third phosphate group attached as shown at the bottom of the figure.

•Because of the positive charge on the nitrogen atom in the nicotinamide ring (upper right), the oxidized forms of these important redox reagents are often depicted as NAD⁺ and NADP⁺ respectively.

•In cells, most oxidations are accomplished by the removal of hydrogen atoms. Both of these coenzymes play crucial roles in this. Each molecule of NAD⁺ (or NADP⁺) can acquire two electrons; that is, be reduced by two electrons. However, only one proton accompanies the reduction. The other proton produced as two hydrogen atoms are removed from the molecule being oxidized is liberated into the surrounding medium.

•For NAD, the reaction is thus:



•NAD participates in many redox reactions in cells, including those in glycolysis and most of those in the citric acid cycle of cellular respiration.

•NADP is the reducing agent produced by the light reactions of photosynthesis consumed in the Calvin cycle of photosynthesis and used in many other anabolic reactions in both plants and animals.

•Under the conditions existing in a normal cell, the hydrogen atoms shown in red are dissociated from these acidic substances.

Steps in Photosynthesis #3: Pigment Regeneration & Water-Splitting

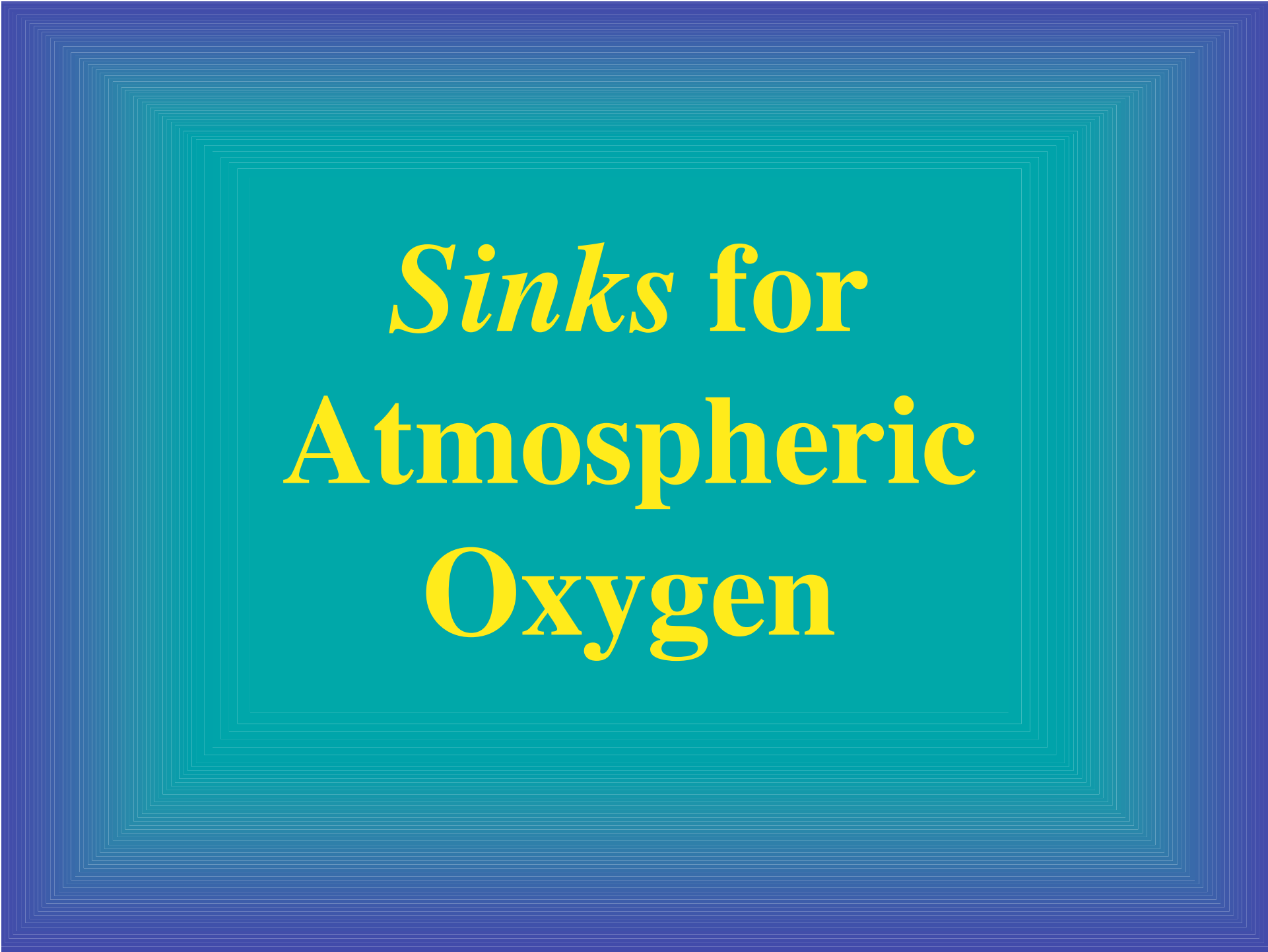
Pigment Regeneration: water splitting

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Nutrients

- Plants need more than C,O and H to make all of the organic compounds they need to live. This is why we fertilize our house and cultivated plants.
- Aquatic habitats, particularly the open ocean can be strongly nutrient limited. Nitrogen (N) is essential in the structure of all proteins and nucleic acids, Sulfur (S) is essential in the structure of most proteins and Phosphorus (P) is essential in the structure of nucleic acids and molecules involved in energy transfer (ATP).
- While nitrogen is always abundant as N₂ gas, most plants can only use "fixed" nitrogen (e.g. NO³⁻, NH⁴⁺). Only some micro-organisms are able to convert N₂ gas to a fixed (useable) form.
- In the ocean, there is always plenty of CO₂ and water, so plant growth is usually limited by N & P, and sometimes Iron (Fe), a trace nutrient important for photosynthesis.
- Nutrients are carried into the deep ocean with sinking biological debris.
- Respiration in the deep ocean releases the nutrients back into the water along with the carbon.

Elemental Abundance in Continental Crust		Elemental Abundance in the Atmosphere		Elements of Life
Element	General Abundance weight %	Element	Abundance wt. %	Elements
O	Both greater than 20%	N ₂	78	C
Si		O ₂	20	O
Al	Greater than 1 but less than 10 %	Ar	01	H
Fe		CO ₂	0.035	N
Ca		H ₂ O	variable	P
Na				
K				
Mg				
H	Between 0.1 and 0.9 %			
Ti				
Cl				
P				



Sinks for
Atmospheric
Oxygen

Respiration

- Cellular respiration is carried out by all eukaryotes & converts carbon compounds & O₂ into CO₂ & ATP.
- Acting as the counter point to photosynthesis, respiration keeps both autotrophs and heterotrophs alive.
- The trick is to extract high-energy electrons from chemical bonds and then use these electrons to form the high-energy bonds in ATP.
- Bacteria can also break down organic molecules in the absence of O₂ gas (anaerobic respiration).

Respiration



Carbon dioxide + water + Energy as products

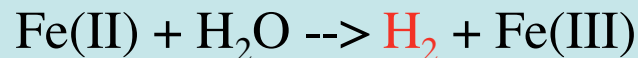
1 mole of O₂ consumed
as 1 mole of CO₂ produced

→ Controls Deep Water
Ocean Chemistry of O₂,
inorganic carbon and nutrients

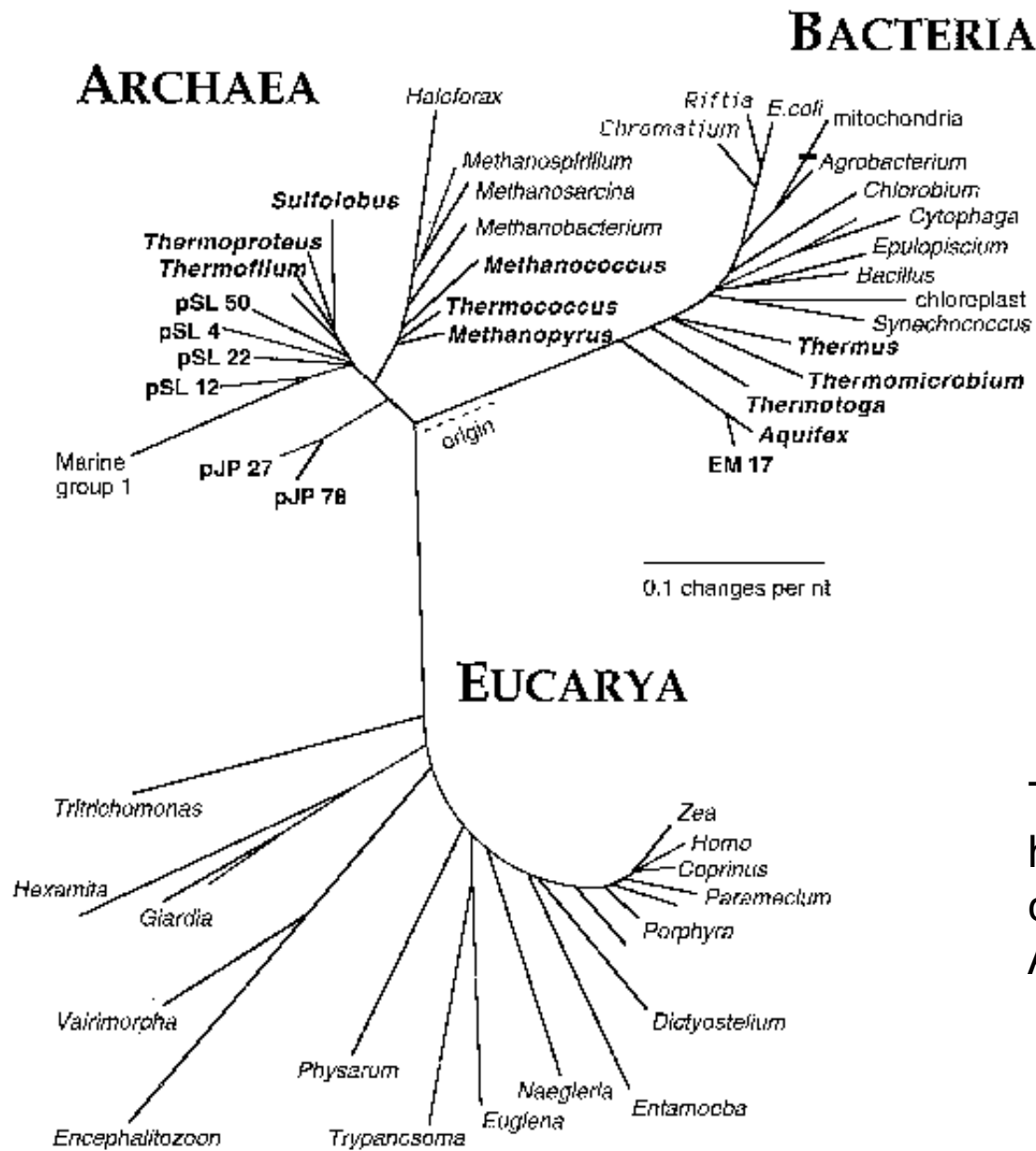
Other Archean O₂ Sinks #2

Archean mantle dynamics & redox evolution-2

- Ferrous iron in basalts erupted at mid-ocean ridges & on land



- H₂ escapes atmosphere or consumed by biota
- Oxidized (Fe(III)) oceanic lithosphere subducted
- Accumulates in ‘graveyard’ near core-mantle boundary
- Transfer of oxidized material to base of mantle caused “upside-down Earth,” with upper mantle reduced & lower mantle oxidized
- *Reduced* volcanic gases emitted from upper mantle continue to be large sink for atm. O₂
- Timing of O₂ Rise: Huge magmatic plume 2.47-2.45 Ga (Large Igneous Province (LIP)) brought some oxidized lower mantle to surface, resulting in decreased O₂ sink.



A hyperthermophilic Origin?

The rRNA phylogenetic tree has hyperthermophilic organisms clustered near the base of the Archaeal and Bacterial domains

Complexity of Extant Life

Species	Type	Approx. Gene Number
Prokaryotes E. Coli	typical bacterium	4,000
Protists O. Similis S. Cerevisiae Distyostelium discoideum	protozoan yeast slime mould	12,000-15,000 7,000 12,500
Metazoan C. Elegans D. melanogaster S. Purpuratas Fugu rubripes Mus musculus Homo sapiens	Nematode Insect Echinoderm Fish Mammal mammal	17,800 12,000-16,000 <25,000 50,000-10,0000 80,000 60,000-80,000

After Maynard-Smith and Szathmary, 1999

Major Transitions in Origin/Evolution of Life

replicating molecules	populations of molecules in protocells
independent replicators	chromosomes
RNA as a gene and enzyme	DNA genes, protein enzymes
prokaryotic cells	Cells with nuclei & organelles ie eukaryotes
asexual clones	sexual populations
single bodied organisms	fungi, metazoans and metaphytes
solitary individuals	colonies with non-reproductive castes
primate societies	human societies with language

After Maynard-Smith and Szathmary, 1999

Parallel Molecular Signatures

