

LIFE, THE UNIVERSE, AND EVERYTHING

The universe is composed of **energy** and **matter**.

- At the beginning of the universe, energy was converted into matter. Big Bang!
- Only in rare circumstances, like inside stars and atomic blasts, matter is converted back into energy.
- Energy is often converted from one form into another: (e.g., light energy into chemical energy; chemical energy into kinetic energy; kinetic energy into heat energy; etc.) but it is neither created nor destroyed.
- But matter, with rare exceptions, stays the same type of matter.

Matter is in the form of chemicals.

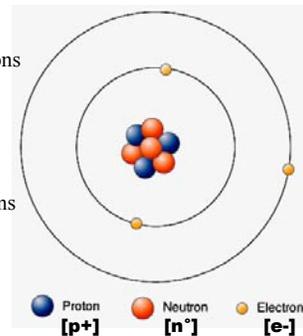
- Chemicals are constructed from atoms.
- Different types of matter, i.e., different elements, have different atoms.

The Atom

- A single unit of matter
- Composed of three types of subatomic particles
 - Neutrons (n^0): mass = 1 atomic mass unit
no electrical charge (neutral)
 - Protons (p^+): mass = 1 atomic mass unit
positive electrical charge (+1)
 - Electrons (e^-): mass is trivial
negative electrical charge (-1)

Atomic Structure

- Neutrons and protons form the nucleus
- **Atomic Mass (Atomic Weight)**
= number of protons and neutrons combined
- Electrons orbit around the nucleus



Atomic Number

- A chemical reaction is the interaction of electrons from different atoms.
- The number, distribution and activity of electrons around an atom's nucleus is determined by the number of protons in that nucleus.
- **The “chemical identity” (type of element) for any atom is determined by the number of protons in its nucleus!**
of p^+ = the **Atomic Number** for that atom.
E.g.: Any atom that has 6 p^+ in its nucleus (atomic number = 6) is defined as **carbon**, no matter how many e^- or n^0 it has!

Partial Periodic Table

	Hydrogen $1H$						Helium $2He$	
FIRST SHELL	atomic number							
	Lithium $3Li$	Beryllium $4Be$	Boron $5B$	Carbon $6C$	Nitrogen $7N$	Oxygen $8O$	Fluorine $9F$	Neon $10Ne$
SECOND SHELL								
	Sodium $11Na$	Magnesium $12Mg$	Aluminum $13Al$	Silicon $14Si$	Phosphorus $15P$	Sulfur $16S$	Chlorine $17Cl$	Argon $18Ar$
THIRD SHELL								

96% of body mass is composed of four different elements

- Oxygen (65%)
- Carbon (18%)
- Hydrogen (10%)
- Nitrogen (3%)

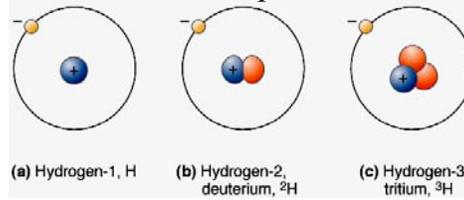
Remember: 65-75% of total body weight is H₂O

Table 2.1
NATURALLY OCCURRING ELEMENTS IN THE HUMAN BODY

Symbol	Element	Wet Weight Percentage*
O	Oxygen	65.0
C	Carbon	18.5
H	Hydrogen	9.5
N	Nitrogen	3.3
Ca	Calcium	1.5
P	Phosphorus	1.0
K	Potassium	0.4
S	Sulfur	0.3
Na	Sodium	0.2
Cl	Chlorine	0.2
Mg	Magnesium	0.1

*Includes water.

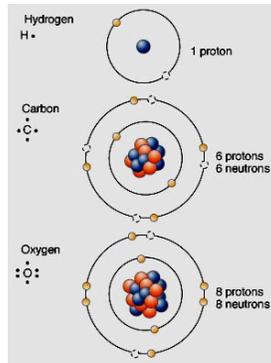
Isotopes



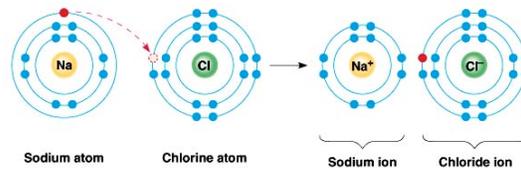
- Atoms of the same element (i.e., same atomic number) but with differing numbers of neutrons, have the same chemical identity but different atomic weights.
- These variations of an element are called **isotopes**.
- Some isotopes are unstable and emit radioactive energy. Such isotopes are **radioisotopes**.

Electron shell

- Electrons have different levels of energy
- Each energy level is called an electron shell
- Outer shell called **valence shell**
- Only valence shell electrons participate in chemical reactions

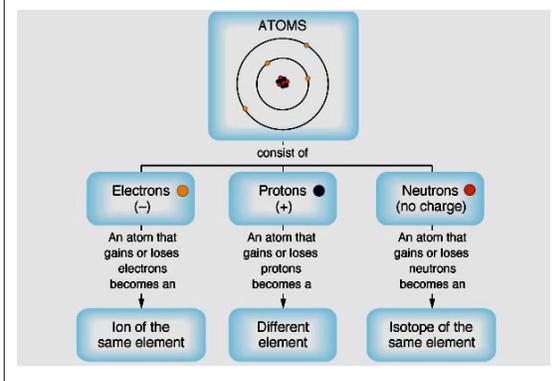


Ions

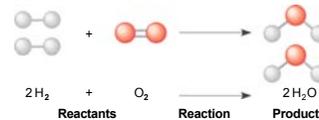


- If # p⁺ = # e⁻: neutral atom
- If # p⁺ ≠ # e⁻: charged atom = **ion**
- If the valence shell loses an electron = positive ion (**cation**).
- If the valence shell gains an electron = negative ion (**anion**).

Ions & Isotopes



Chemical reactions occur when bonds between atoms are formed or rearranged



- Molecule: two or more atoms bonded together
- Compound: molecule constructed of more than one *kind* of atom.
- E.g.: H₂ and O₂ and H₂O are all **molecules**.
- But H₂ and O₂ are **elemental** molecules.
- And H₂O is a **compound** molecule.

Molecules can be represented in many ways

Name (molecular formula)	Electron-shell diagram	Structural formula	Space-filling model	Ball-and-stick model	Hybrid-orbital model (with ball-and-stick model superimposed)
(a) Hydrogen (H₂) . Two hydrogen atoms can form a single bond.		H—H			
(b) Oxygen (O₂) . Two oxygen atoms share two pairs of electrons to form a double bond.		O=O			
(c) Water (H₂O) . Two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom are joined by covalent bonds to produce a molecule of water.		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array}$			
(d) Methane (CH₄) . Four hydrogen atoms can satisfy the valence of one carbon atom, forming methane.		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array}$			

Tables 2.11 & 2.16

Living cells carry out millions of chemical reactions that rearrange matter in significant ways

- Biological molecules have many atoms bound precisely in complex forms.
- How does the rearrangement of the right bond at the right time happen?

Beta-carotene → Vitamin A (2 molecules)

Types of Chemical Bonds

- Covalent Bonds
- Ionic Bonds
- Hydrogen Bonds

Covalent Bonds

DIAGRAM OF ATOMIC STRUCTURE

(a) Hydrogen atom + Hydrogen atom → Hydrogen molecule

STRUCTURAL FORMULA: H—H or H—H

MOLECULAR FORMULA: H₂

(b) Carbon atom + Hydrogen atoms → Methane molecule

STRUCTURAL FORMULA: $\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ | \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ | \\ \text{H} \end{array}$ or H—C—H

MOLECULAR FORMULA: CH₄

- Atoms share electrons to fill valence shell
- Electrons are shared in pairs
- Each pair forms one bond

Example: Water (H₂O)

- Oxygen: 6 valence e⁻
 - Needs 2 e⁻ to fill shell
 - Gets 1 e⁻ from each hydrogen atom
- Hydrogen: 1 valence e⁻
 - Each needs 1 e⁻ to fill shell
 - Each gets 1 e⁻ from oxygen

COVALENT BONDS

Two atoms can share more than one pair of electrons

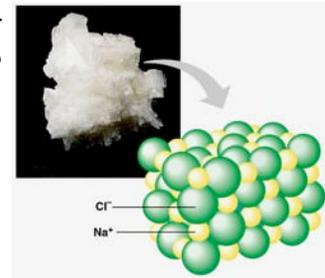
Name (molecular formula)	Electron-shell diagram	Structural formula	Space-filling model
(b) Oxygen (O ₂)		O=O	
Double bonds:		O=O	
		C=C	
Triple bonds:		N≡N	

Ionic Bonds

- Based on electromagnetic attraction between ions of opposite charge
- Ions: charged atoms
 - Loss of e^- : positive charge on atom
 - Gain of e^- : negative charge on atom
- **Salts**: two ions of opposite charge bonded together

Ionic bond between Na^+ and Cl^- form NaCl, table salt

- Regular stacking of atoms cause salts to form crystals in absence of water

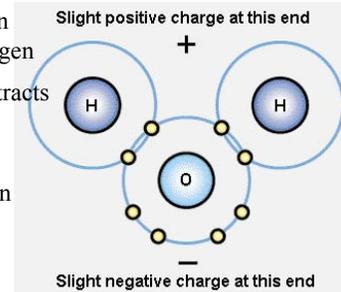


Ions separate in presence of water

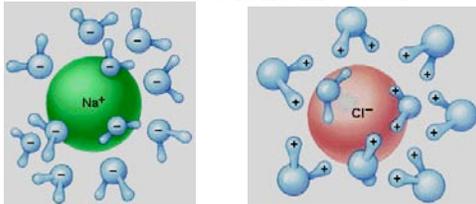
- **Dissociation**: breaking of ionic bond
- **Dissolve**: surrounding a molecule like NaCl with H_2O
- Why? Because water is a polar molecule.

Water is a polar molecule

- Nucleus of oxygen bigger than hydrogen
- Bigger nucleus attracts e^- better
- Distribution of electrons is uneven around molecule

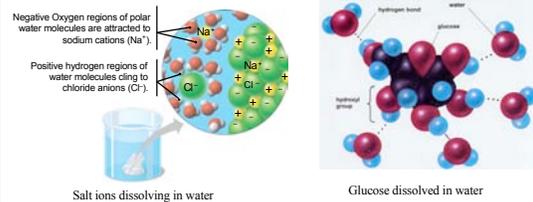


Dissociated ions in water



Na^+ surrounded by oxygen side of H_2O Cl^- surrounded by hydrogen side of H_2O

Water is a versatile solvent



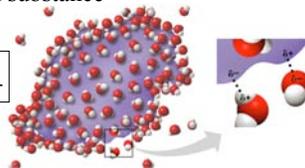
- **Solutes** whose charges or polarity allow them to stick to water molecules dissolve in water
 - they form aqueous solutions

Aqueous Solutions

Polar or ionic molecule dissolved in water forms a solution

- **Solution**: solutes dissolved by a solvent
- **Solvent** = water
- **Solutes** = dissolved substance

A protein solution = protein dissolved in water

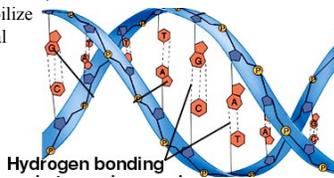


Water: the “universal solvent”

- Many substances dissolve in water
- Examples of water soluble substances:
 - Salts (ions, or electrolytes)
 - Sugars and other nutrients
 - Vitamins
 - Hormones

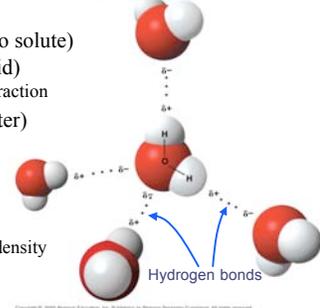
Hydrogen bonds form between partial (δ) charges

- Both intermolecular and intramolecular
 - **H** of amino & alcohol side groups are δ^+
 - **O** of carbonyl groups are δ^-
- Individual H-bond is very weak, but many combine to stabilize 3-D structure of biological macromolecules
 - Important for protein shape, DNA, etc.



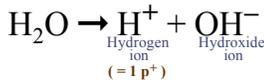
Many of water’s unique properties relate to hydrogen bonds formed among these small polar molecules

- Solvent power (water to solute)
- Cohesion (water to solid)
 - Wetting & capillary attraction
- Adhesion (water to water)
 - Surface tension & column tension
 - High heat capacity & heat of vaporization
 - Liquid density > solid density

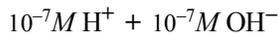


Dissociation of Water

- 1 out of 500,000,000 water molecules ionizes:



- = 6×10^{16} per liter of water = 10^{-7} moles per liter
- Hence, neutral water contains:



- And $[\text{H}^+] = [\text{OH}^-]$
- $\text{pH} = -\log [\text{H}^+] = -\log (10^{-7} \text{M}) = 7$

Acids & Bases

- So, in a **neutral** solution, $[\text{H}^+] = [\text{OH}^-]$; **pH = 7.00**
- An **Acid** is a compound that **adds** extra H^+ to the solution. I.e., “**H⁺ donor**”
- Thus, an **acidic** solution has $[\text{H}^+] > [\text{OH}^-]$
pH < 7 (0.00–6.99)
- A **Base** is a compound that **removes** H^+ from the solution. I.e., “**H⁺ acceptor**”
- Thus, an **basic** (alkaline) solution has $[\text{H}^+] < [\text{OH}^-]$
pH > 7 (7.01–14.00)
- $\downarrow \text{pH} = \uparrow \text{acidity}$ & $\uparrow \text{pH} = \downarrow \text{acidity}$

(Note: normal blood pH is 7.35–7.45 — slightly basic!)

Effects of pH on Bioactivity

- Relative amount of H⁺ in solution (i.e., the pH) can alter the charge and polarity of other solutes.
- ➔ Δ ionic or hydrogen bonds ➔ Δ folding & 3-dimensional shape of large organic solutes (esp. proteins)
- ➔ Δ 3-dimensional shape ➔ Δ biological activity of those organic molecules.
- ➔ even small ΔpH can have major impacts on biological activity.

Buffers

- System of molecules and ions that act to prevent changes in [H⁺]. ➔ Stabilizes pH of a solution.
- Blood bicarbonate buffer system:

$$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$$

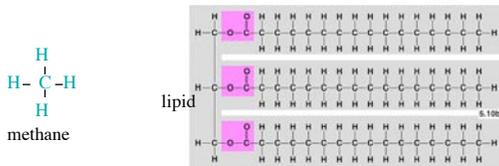
bicarbonate ion

 - Reaction can proceed in either direction depending upon the concentration of molecules and ions.
 - Thus if ↑H⁺: $\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
 ➔ ↓H⁺
 - But if ↓H⁺: $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$
 ➔ ↑H⁺
- Thereby maintaining normal blood pH range of 7.35 – 7.45
 - Acidosis: blood pH < 7.35 (Note: *not* acidic!)
 - Alkalosis: blood pH > 7.45

Biological Molecules

Some molecules are special in biology

- H₂O - small, slightly polar molecule ➔ “universal solvent”
- Organic molecules are based on **carbon**.



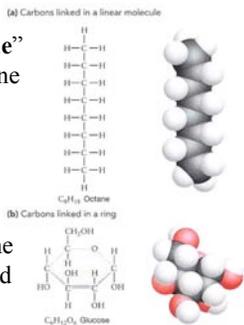
Carbon — a unique element

1. Each carbon atom forms four bonds.
2. Carbon atoms can bond to other carbons, thus constructing long and/or branched chains of carbon — the “carbon backbone” of the molecule.
3. Carbon can form double bonds to modify the shape or flexibility of the chains.

Thus **only carbon** can form the complex molecules needed for complex biological functions.

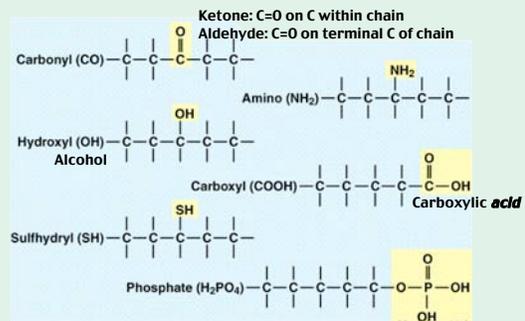
Organic Compounds

- Have a “**carbon backbone**” — a chain of more than one carbon.
- “**Organic**” originally meant “made by organisms.”
 - (Most still are. But some are synthetically derived from those that are.)



Functional Groups of Organic Molecules

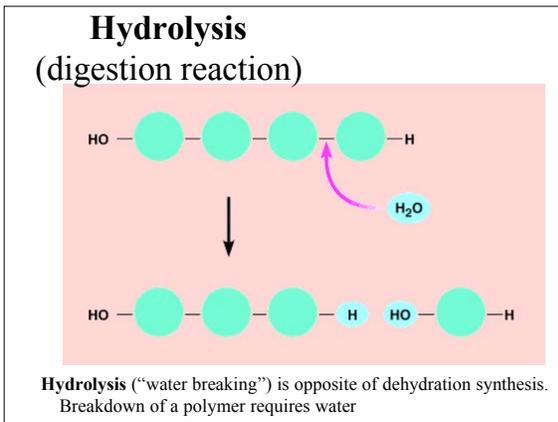
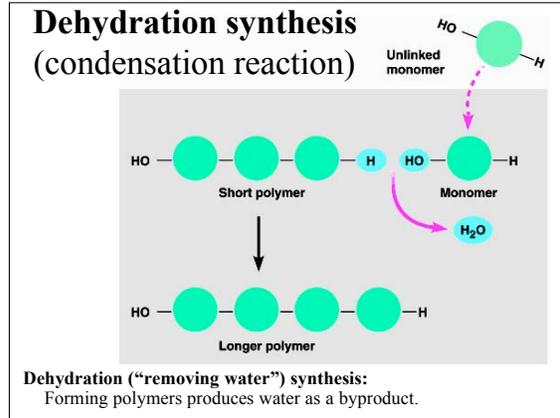
(“R groups” = reactive side groups)



Organic Macromolecules Forms & Features

Large macromolecules are constructed from smaller subunits.

	Forms	Features
Carbohydrates	Sugars and starch	Energy source; Structural units
Proteins	Amino acids and Proteins	Enzymes; Structural units; Energy source
Nucleic Acids	Nucleotides, RNA, DNA	Genetic instructions; Cellular energy units
Lipids	Fats, oils, and steroids	Hydrophobic; Energy source



Organic Macromolecules Monomers & Polymers

Large macromolecules are constructed from smaller subunits.

	Subunit	Macromolecule
Carbohydrates	Monosaccharide	Polysaccharides
Proteins	Amino acid	Polypeptide
Nucleic Acids	Nucleotides	RNA, DNA
Lipids	Fatty acids + glycerol or other carbon backbone	Triglyceride, wax, phospholipid

1. Carbohydrates

- Used for: Energy, structure
- Monomer: **Mono-saccharide** — “one sugar”
- Polymer: **Poly-saccharide** — “many sugars”

Bees with honey
— a mix of 2
monosaccharides

Monosaccharides “single sugar”

Simple sugar structures

	Triose sugars (C ₃ H ₆ O ₃)	Pentose sugars (C ₅ H ₁₀ O ₅)	Hexose sugars (C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆)	
Aldehydes	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Glyceraldehyde} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Ribose} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Glucose} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \\ \text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Galactose} \end{array}$
Ketones	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{C}=\text{O} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Dihydroxyacetone} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{C}=\text{O} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Ribulose} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{C}=\text{O} \\ \\ \text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{Fructose} \end{array}$	

Molecular formula:
 $n(\text{CH}_2\text{O}) \quad n = 3-7$

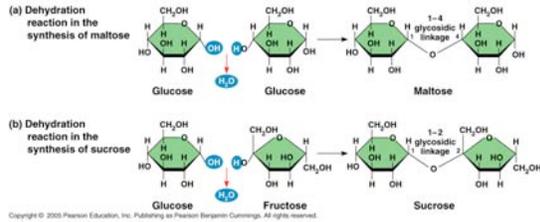
- C₃ sugar: **triose**
- C₅ sugar: **pentose**
- C₆ sugar: **hexose**

Abbreviated structure

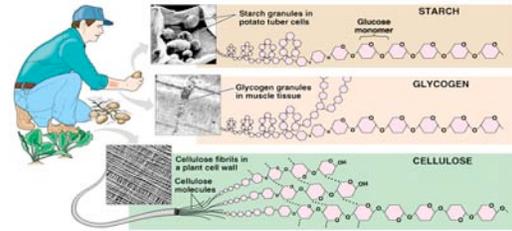
- Glucose [a type of hexose] is main circulating energy source for animal cells
- Occurs in alternate linear or circular forms

Disaccharides “double sugar”

- Cells link 2 single sugars to make 1 disaccharide



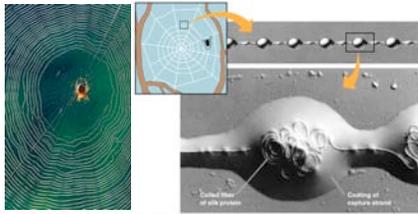
Polysaccharides



- Glycogen is the main polysaccharide in animals, but plants make many varieties (“dietary fiber”).
- Glycogen, starch, and cellulose are all poly-glucose.
- But very different bioactivity (and digestibility) varies because of different chain branching.

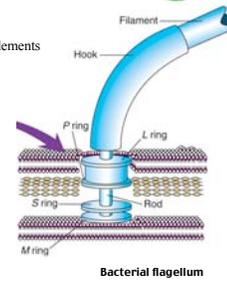
2. Proteins, Essential to Life

- proteios*: “primary”
- Important for the operation and regulation of all life processes!
- “Proteins run everything!”



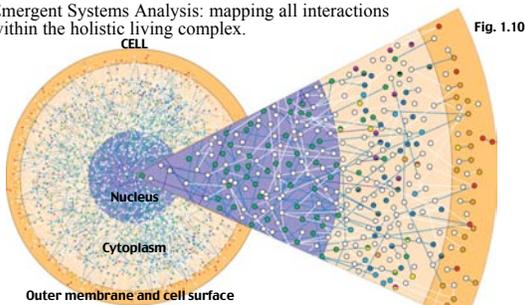
2. Proteins, Essential to Life

- Structural
 - E.g., collagen & keratin
- Transport
 - E.g., hemoglobin
- Movement
 - E.g., muscle filaments & cytoskeletal elements
- Communication messengers
 - E.g., insulin & growth hormone
- Communication receivers
 - E.g., hormone and neural receptors
- Selective cellular permeability
 - E.g., membrane gates & pumps
- Defense
 - E.g., antibodies
- Enzymes
 - E.g., RNA-polymerase
 - Regulate all biochemical reactions



Proteomics and Emergent Systems

- Proteomics: deducing the structure of **all** proteins from an organism.
- Emergent Systems Analysis: mapping all interactions within the holistic living complex.



A systems map of known interactions among 3500 proteins in a fly cell

2. Proteins, Essential to Life

- Monomer: **Amino Acid**
 - 20 different amino acids used to make proteins
- Polymer: **Polypeptide**
 - The precise sequence of amino acids in the polypeptide determines the function of the protein



Hair made of keratin, a structural protein

Proteins are made from Amino Acids

Amino acid structure

NC(C(=O)O)R

Amino group Carboxyl (acid) group

Serine (Ser) **Cysteine (Cys)**
 Different R-groups define different amino acids

- All amino acids have an amino group, a carboxyl group, and an R group
- R groups define a specific amino acid

amino acid R-groups may be

small/simple or large/complex

NC(C(=O)O)R

glycine tyrosine alanine arginine tryptophan

amino acid R-groups may be

polar or nonpolar

tyrosine phenylalanine
 asparagine leucine
 serine valine

amino acid R-groups may be

cationic or anionic

arginine lysine histidine aspartate glutamate

Charge is dependent upon pH

20 amino acids used in protein synthesis

Group I: nonpolar	Group II: polar	Group III: charged
Alanine (A)	Asparagine (N)	Arginine (R)
Isoleucine (I)	Cysteine (C)	Aspartic Acid (D)
Leucine (U)	Glutamine (Q)	Glutamic Acid (E)
Methionine (M)	Glycine (G)	Histidine (H)
Phenylalanine (F)	Serine (S)	Lysine (K)
Proline (P)	Threonine (T)	
Tryptophan (W)	Tyrosine (Y)	
Valine (V)		

Stereo Isomers (Enantiomers)

Isomer ("same unit"): two molecules with the same molecular formula, but arranged differently.

Enantiomers: Non-superimposable mirror image molecules.

"Right-handed" [Dextro-] & "Left-handed" [Levo-] versions of the molecule.

L isomer D isomer

L-Dopa D-Dopa

Stereo Isomers (Enantiomers)

One of the great mysteries of the origin of living cells –

- All non-biological synthesis reactions of organic molecules produce **both** D- and L- isomers in equal yield.
- And all non-biological reactions using organic molecules as reactants react with **both** D- and L- isomers equally.
- Yet, living cells are constructed **only** of D-sugars and their derivatives, and **only** L-amino acids and their derivatives!

L-Dopa (biologically active) D-Dopa (biologically inactive)

Peptide Bonds Link Amino Acids

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Peptide bond formation

- Amino acids linked by dehydration synthesis
 - “peptide bond”
- Polymer of amino acids = polypeptide
- Different polypeptides have different amino acid sequences

Protein Shape Determines Function

- Specific 3-D shape
- Shape is critical to function**
- Denaturation** = loss of shape and function

Ribbon model of lysozyme protein

3. Nucleic Acids — Information & Energy Carrying Molecules

- Used for:
 - Information (DNA, RNA)
 - Cellular Energy (ATP)
- Monomer:
 - Nucleotide
- Polymer:
 - Nucleic acid

Human chromosomes

Nucleotides

- 5 possible types of Nitrogenous Base
 - Pyrimidines**: Cytosine (C), Thymine (in DNA) (T), Uracil (in RNA) (U)
 - Purines**: Adenine (A), Guanine (G)
- 2 possible types of C₅ Sugar
 - Deoxyribose (in DNA)**
 - Ribose (in RNA)**

• 1, 2, or 3 phosphates off #5 carbon of sugar

(b) Nucleotide

- Nucleotides to make **RNA** = Ribose sugar + A, G, C, or U base
- Nucleotides to make **DNA** = Deoxyribose sugar + A, G, C, or T base

(a) Nucleotide components

Nucleic Acids are linear polymers of Nucleotide monomers

Condensation reaction between

- phosphate on #5 carbon of the sugar in one nucleotide, and
- the hydroxyl on #3 carbon of the sugar in the other nucleotide

Polymer forms sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate-... linear chain with nitrogenous bases to the side

Nucleic Acids — linear polymers

• DNA is "double-stranded"
 – Two polymers held together by hydrogen-bonding between bases

• RNA is "single-stranded"
 – Bases form side groups — not involved in formation of polymer

complementary base pairing

one base pair

Complementary base pairing in DNA

- C pairs only with G
- A pairs only with T

complementary base pairing

Each pair = 1 purine + 1 pyrimidine

- A=T (2 H-bonds)
- G=C (3 H-bonds)

Figure 16.8

dsDNA Structure

the sequence of bases in the two strands are **complementary** to each other (*not* identical).

DNA's complementary base sequence

4. Lipids

— Include Fats and Cholesterol

- Used for:
 - Energy storage, insulation, steroids, vitamins
- Subunit:
 - fatty acids
- Macromolecule:
 - (not a polymer — subunits attached to a different carbon backbone)
 - triglycerides & phospholipids
 - sphingolipids
 - waxes

Cholesterol, a modified fatty acid

Fatty Acids

- Long C₈₋₁₆ hydrocarbon "tail" = non-polar = hydrophobic = "fatty"
- Carboxyl "head" = acid

□ "Fatty Acid"

Saturated: all C-C single bonds

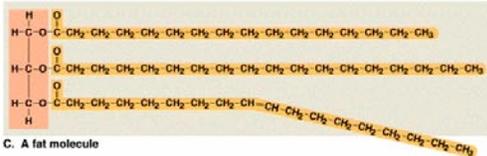
- Two hydrogens on each carbon

Unsaturated: chain contains double bonds

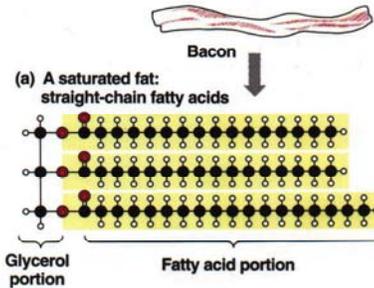
- Causes rigid kinks in chain

Triglycerides

- Tri = three; glyceride = on glycerol
- Formed by dehydration synthesis of fatty acid side-chains linked onto glycerol
 - One fatty acid on the glycerol = monoglyceride = acyl-glycerol
 - Two fatty acids on the glycerol = diglyceride = diacyl-glycerol [DAG]
 - Three fatty acids on the glycerol = triglyceride = triacyl-glycerol [TAG]
- Storage form of lipids

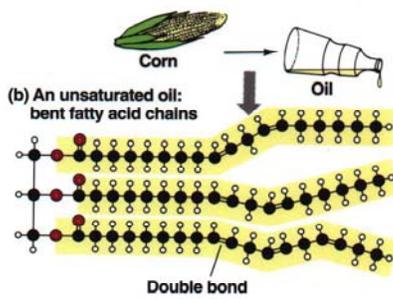


Saturated fat forms solids at room temp (animal fat)



Animal fat is a mixture of triglycerides with >50% of fatty acids saturated.

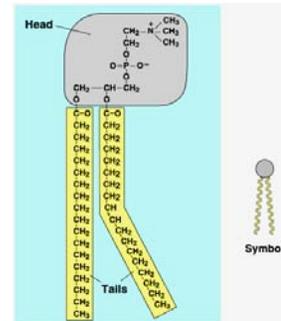
Unsaturated fats are liquid at room temp (vegetable oil)



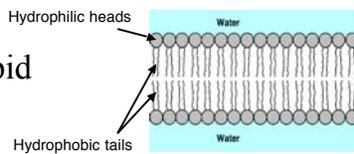
Plant oil is a mixture of triglycerides with <15% of fatty acids saturated.

Phospholipids

- Used to make cell membranes
 - Plasma membrane
 - Cell membranes
- Phosphate:
 - Hydrophilic "head"
- 2 Fatty acid chains:
 - Hydrophobic "tail"



Phospholipid Bilayer



- Hydrophilic "heads" associate together
 - Form outer layer of cell membrane
- Hydrophobic "tails" associate together
 - Form inner layer of cell membrane
 - Keep water soluble molecules from crossing membrane
- Form **double layer** of cell membranes

Isolated activity compartments

