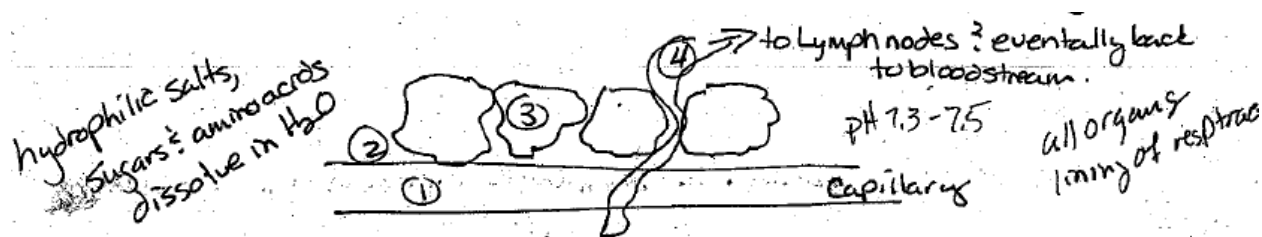


Biochemistry Notes

What is meant by the term **biochemistry**? study of compounds and chemical reactions of living organisms.

You will recall that organisms are made up of 70% water, and that water is an important solvent in living things. Even though water is found abundantly in organisms, it is an **inorganic** compound, meaning that it does not contain carbon. Review where you find water in organisms.

1) blood, 2) ICF (intercellular fluid) or tissue fluid, 3) cytosol w/in cytoplasm, 4) lymph fluids

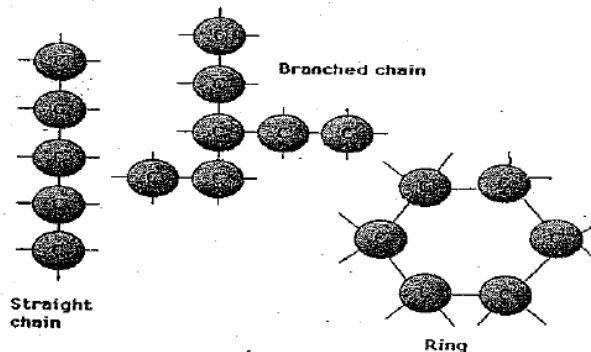


Besides for the 70% water, organisms are mostly made up of **simple and** complex **organic** compounds that contain both carbon and hydrogen. The reason organic compounds are often large and complex molecules has to do with the properties of the carbon atom. Can you explain this?

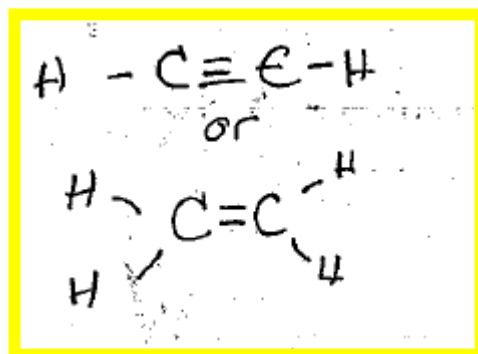
carbon must form 4 bonds to become stable – because its electron configuration has 4 e- and 4 vacancies in the valence level. It can therefore bond in a variety of 3D configurations with many different elements. (*recall HONC 1234)

Carbon atoms can join to form **long chains, branched chains, or ring structures.**

Examples:



Carbon can also form single, double, or triple bonds with other atoms.



IMPORTANT BIOLOGICAL ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

The 4 most important types of organic compounds found in living systems are:

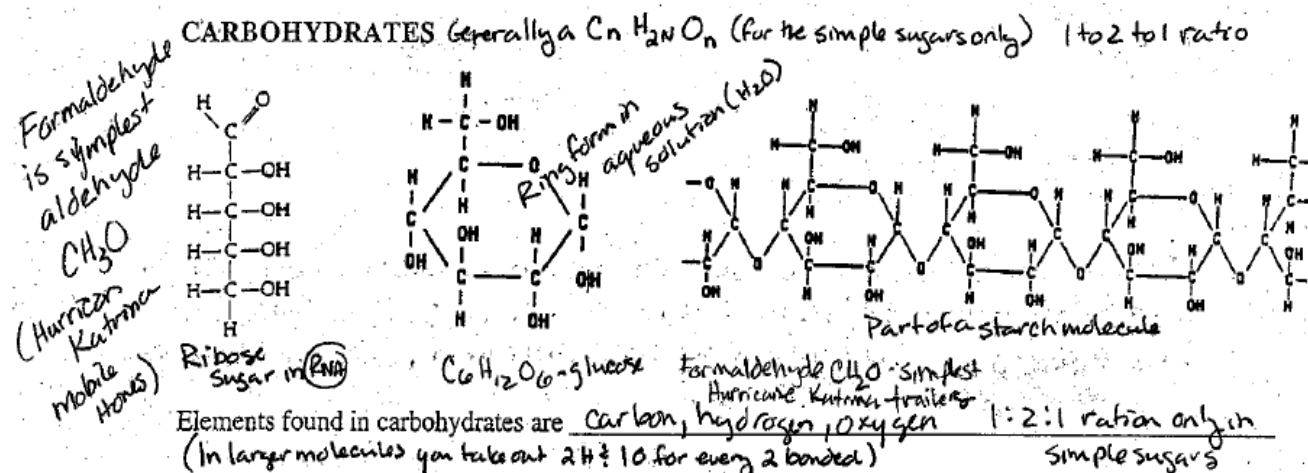
1. carbohydrates
2. lipids
3. proteins
4. nucleic acids

Nutrients - needed for normal body functioning. *can provide energy*

These organic compounds, along with other important substances that are needed by the body, are called **nutrients**. Can you name some other nutrients in addition to these four?

H₂O, vitamins, minerals such as Na⁺/Cl⁻ (needed for ion balance), Mg²⁺ (impt for enzymes), K⁺ (impt in blood clotting), Zn (insulin component), Fe (hemoglobin component), trace elements

Cells are three-dimensional structures that are made up of different chemical compounds arranged in various ways. When you look at a structural formula of a chemical compound, it looks two-dimensional, but in reality there is a three dimensional structure, similar to the structures you put together in lab. It makes sense that molecules are three-dimensional if the cells they make up are three-dimensional.

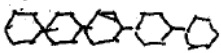


FUNCTIONS OF CARBOHYDRATES

1. Energy Storage molecules
2. Structural components of: plant cell walls, fungi cell walls, exoskeleton of insects, other organic molecules such as lipids, proteins, other carbs, nucleic acids

Where is the energy stored in the carbohydrate? in the bonds between atoms (potential chemical energy)

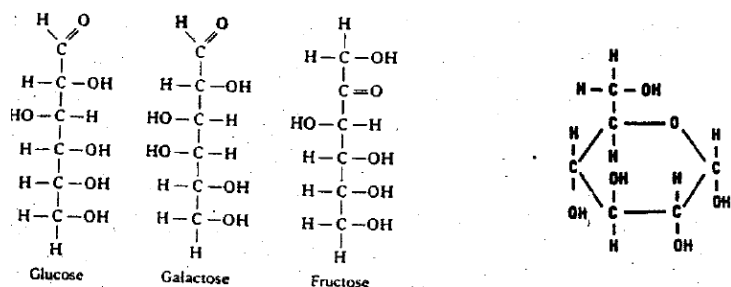
Kinds of carbohydrates:

1. monosaccharides (C_nH_{2n}O_n) - simple sugar - one unit of a carbohydrate) (monomer) 
2. disaccharides - two simple sugars bonded together (two units = dimer) 
3. polysaccharides - complex sugars (many monomers joined). 

Examples of monosaccharides:

1. glucose
2. fructose
3. galactose

*sweet in taste, polar covalent bonds allow these to dissolve easily in H₂O



Take a look at glucose molecule. Its chemical formula is C₆H₁₂O₆. Now look at fructose. What is its chemical formula? same – C₆H₁₂O₆

Glucose and fructose are isomers:

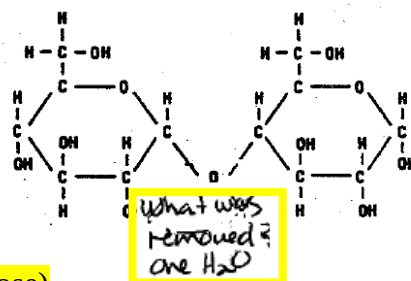
Isomers: molecules with the same chemical formulas, but with different structural formulas. Form leads to function – each will differ in its function.

Notice that galactose is an isomer of glucose and fructose. Because these three monosaccharides all have different structures, they will have slightly different functions in the cell.

Examples of disaccharides: (*note these three are also isomers C₁₂H₂₂O₁₁)

1. sucrose (table sugar) = 1 glucose + 1 fructose
2. lactose (milk sugar) = 1 glucose + 1 galactose
3. maltose (in plant seeds) = 1 glucose + 1 glucose

*small, sweet, still able to dissolve in H₂O.



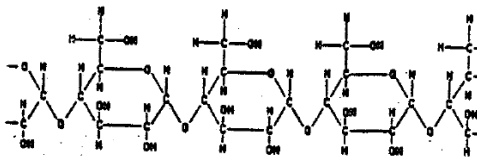
Examples of polysaccharides:

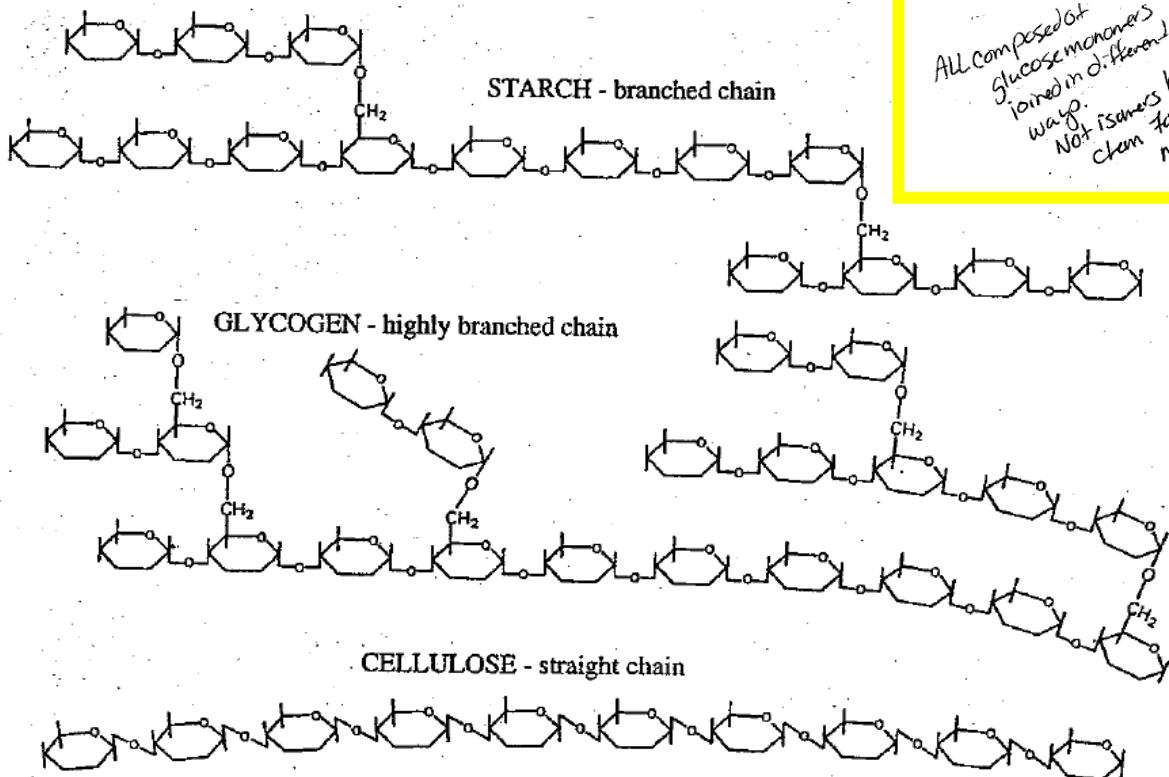
1. starch – energy storage molecule in plants (stores glucose)
2. glycogen – energy storage molecule in animals (humans) (stores glucose)
3. cellulose – “fiber” – makes up plant cell walls.

*4. Add: Others – like chitin in insect exoskeletons & fungi cell walls.

*Not sweet – too big to dissolve in H₂O.

*Note, all three of these are composed of glucose monomers.





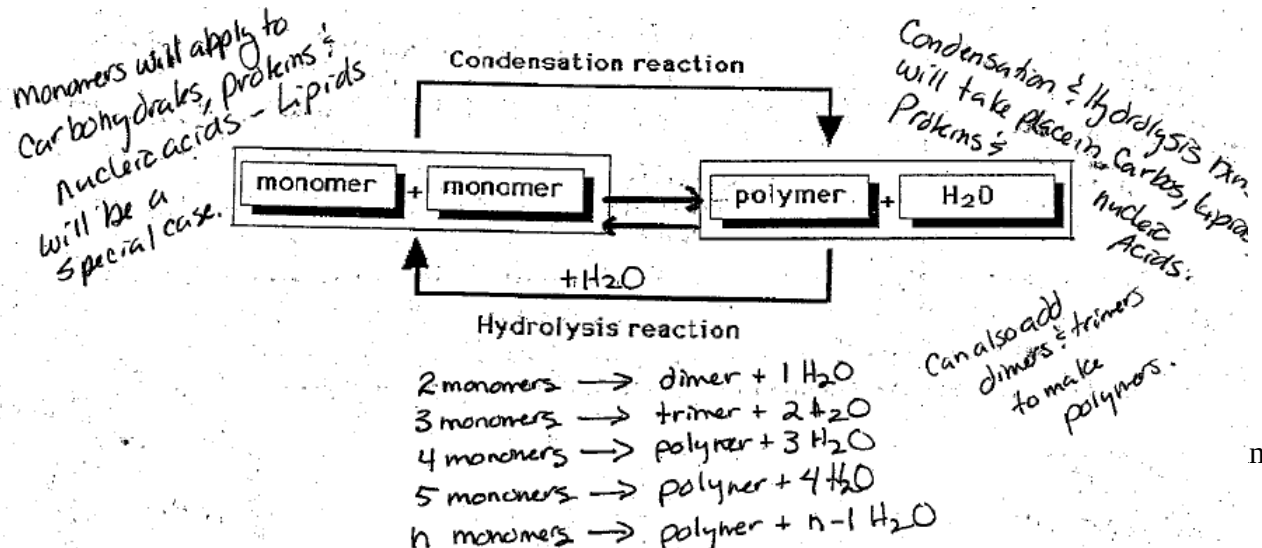
All composed of glucose monomers joined in different ways. Not isomers because chem formula not the same

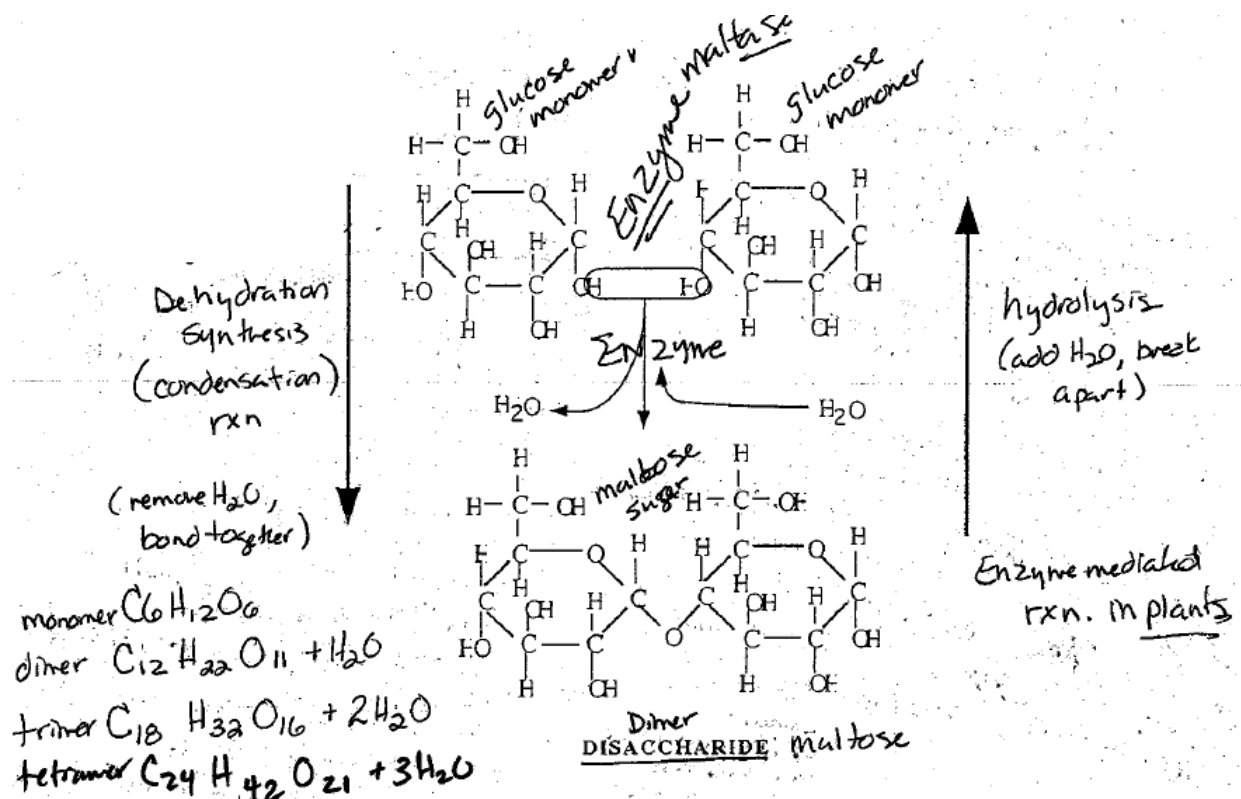
Although starch, glycogen, and cellulose are made of glucose, they have *different functions* because the glucose is arranged differently in each molecule, giving each molecule a *different overall structure*.

Monomer- a single unit of an organic compound. Can function on its own or be joined with other similar monomers to form polymers.

Polymer- many monomers bonded together. Large molecules with many different functions (ex, starch, cellulose, glycogen)

NOTE: The terms **monomer** and **polymer** are general terms used to also describe other compounds, as well as carbohydrates. (*Note: Dimer = 2 monomers bonded such as sucrose)





Dehydration synthesis __process of joining monomers chemically by removing water. Smaller molecules are joined to form larger molecules. Monomer $\rightarrow$ polymer. __
Example: __glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$) + glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$) $\rightarrow$ maltose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$) + H_2O __

Hydrolysis __process of separating monomers chemically by adding water. Large units are broken down into smaller ones. Polymers $\rightarrow$ monomers.
Example: __ H_2O + maltose $\rightarrow$ 2 glucose OR H_2O + sucrose $\rightarrow$ glucose + fructose

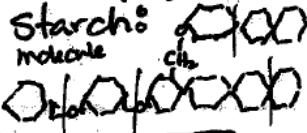
***These two reactions are not specific for carbohydrates; they are involved in producing and breaking down fats, proteins, and other organic compounds.**

Remember, we cannot produce our own carbohydrates. Only autotrophs can do this, in the process of photosynthesis. We obtain our carbohydrates in our diet.
What are some good sources of carbohydrates in the diet? __pasta, veggies, fruit, potatoes, dairy, wheat, grain, corn, rice, cereals. Sweet $\rightarrow$ starch. Simple vs. complex carbs.

Processing and Utilization of Carbohydrates in Our Bodies

Eat a Bagel

Consume a polysaccharide



Large polysaccharide molecules

In mouth:

1) mechanical digestion
mastrate food separates molecules

2) salivary amylase
enzyme in saliva
speeds hydrolysis of starch

breaks down into smaller bits
smaller polysaccharides

Stomach:

1) more mechanical digestion

2) chemical breakdown of proteins only

separates + SA for emulsification
smaller bits
smaller polys

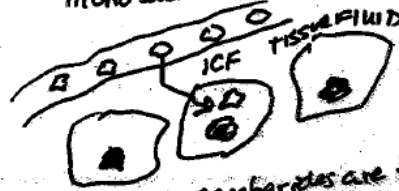
Small intestine:

1) More chemical + mechanical digestion (hydrolysis)

connective tissue, muscle tissue, nervous tissue
Lumen of small intestine
epithelial tissue

2) pancreatic amylase + enzymes from lining of the intestine
hydrolyze polysaccharides into monosaccharides

monosaccharides in blood are sent:



monosaccharides are transported to all cells of the body.

What does the cell do w/ glucose:

1) used as reactant in cell resp to help form ATP.

2) used to synthesize glycogen
Requires enzymes to help speed dehydration synthesis
In the process water mol. will be produced. Glycogen is a short-term energy storage molecule.

3) use to build cells:
build molecules like DNA, RNA, Amino acids etc. vitamins

4) Can convert to fat which is stored in fat cells in the adipose tissue.

What happens if your blood sugar drops?

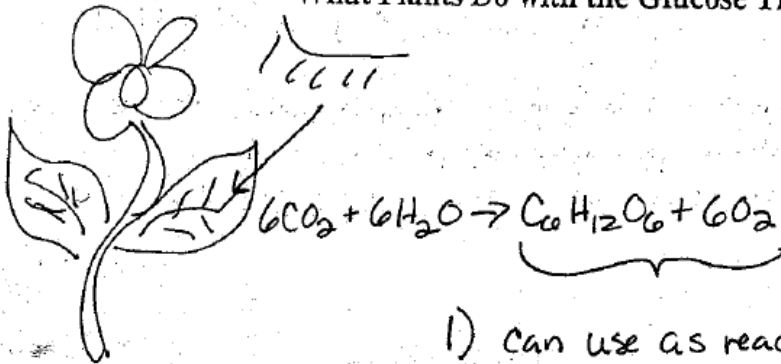
1) Hydrolyze glycogen to glucose by adding water + using an enzyme.

2) Hydrolyze fats, proteins to obtain molecules which can be used as energy

Lumen - center hollow space - Food is there

What Plants do with the Glucose They Produce

What Plants Do with the Glucose They Produce



- 1) Can use as reactants in cell resp to form ATP. Cell work or to build new plant parts $\frac{1}{2}$ of glucose $\rightarrow$ cell resp $\frac{1}{2}$ build cells

- 2) Convert glucose $\rightarrow$ cellulose to form plant cell walls provide structure & protection.



cellulose fibers

glucose monomers

Humans & mammals (including herbivores) cannot break down or hydrolyze cellulose. We lack the enzyme needed.

Some Bacteria do have the enzyme - in termite guts & cow innards.

Cellulose = Fiber - Lettuce, Celery, Grains
Irritates & cleans the bowel - used as lax.

- 3) Store as starch in leaves or in tubers & roots.
Can break down starch when needed
 $\text{Starch} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{glucose}$

- 4) Convert to ^{enzymes that speed rxns} proteins, amino acids, nucleic acids, chlorophyll, lipids (oils & waxes), vitamins etc. Carbs like fructose, ribose and deoxyribose - DNA RNA
- a) Proteins
 - b) lipids
 - c) other carbs

LIPIDS

Kinds of lipids:

1. fats _____ triglycerides _____
2. oils _____
3. waxes _____
4. steroids – cholesterol, testosterone, estrogen _____
5. phospholipids – in cell membrane _____

What elements are found in lipids? carbon, hydrogen, oxygen (not 1:2:1 – much less oxygen)

What do all lipids have in common? hydrophobic (don't dissolve in H₂O)

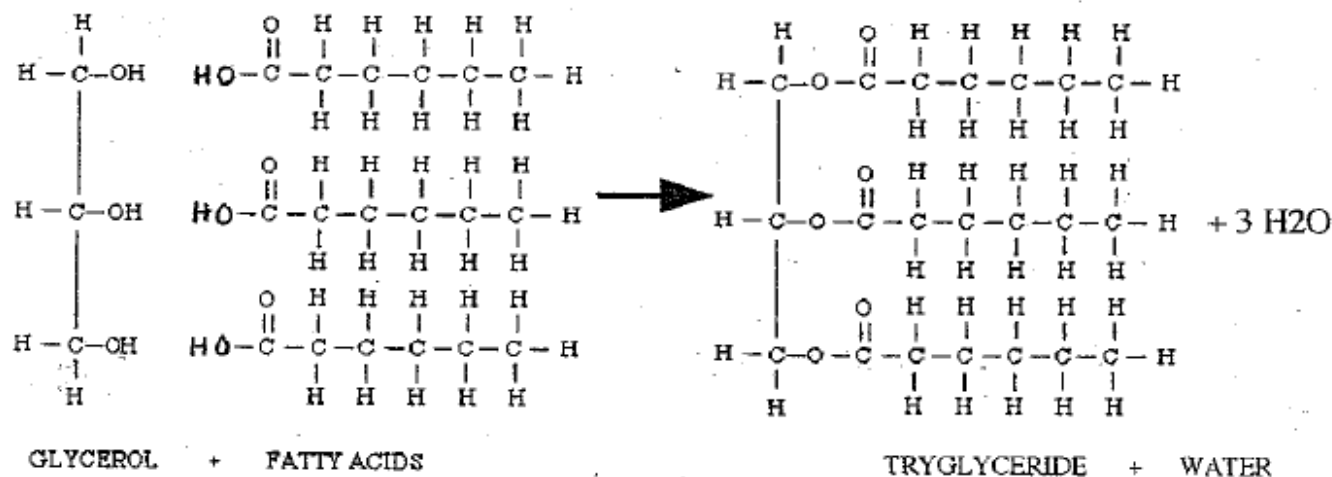
Function of lipids:

1. energy storage – gram for gram 2x as much energy compared to carbs – not quickly broken down _____
2. insulation & protection of internal organs (adipose = fat tissue) _____
3. structural components of cell membranes – phospholipids _____

A **triglyceride** is a large molecule made up of two types of smaller molecules:

1. glycerol (alcohol - hydrophilic)
2. fatty acid (hydrophobic & carb group)

Note: a triglyceride is not considered a polymer, because it is made of different types of molecules, and they are not long chains of repeating, similar units.



All fatty acids contain two chemical groups:

1. carboxyl group –COOH (hydrophilic)
2. hydrocarbon tail (hydrophobic) _____

What is the process involved when the glycerol is bonded to the fatty acid?

dehydration synthesis (condensation reaction – remove water, join subunits)

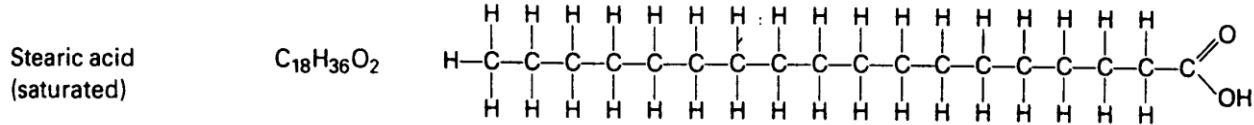
Which process is involved in the breakdown of a triglyceride into glycerol and fatty acids?

hydrolysis (add H₂O, break apart into subunits) _____

Saturated and Unsaturated Fat

Characteristics of Saturated Fats: (Called "FATS")

1. triglyceride that contains units of fatty acids that have no C to C double bonds.
Hydrocarbon tail is "saturated" with H's.

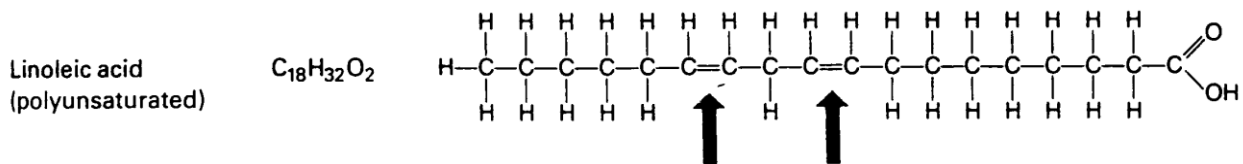


2. triglyceride that tends to be solid at room temperature
3. triglyceride that tends to be found in animal products

Examples of saturated fats: butter, animal fat, lard, dairy products, coconut oil.

Characteristics of Unsaturated Fats: (Called "OILS")

1. Triglycerides that contain units of fatty acids that have one or more C to C double bonds.



2. Triglyceride that tends to be liquid at room temperature
3. triglyceride that tends to be found in plant oil products

Examples of unsaturated fats: olive oil, corn oil, peanut oil, fish oil, canola oil

Unsaturated fatty acids can be **monounsaturated**, or **polyunsaturated**.
mono = 1 C to C double bond; **Poly** = more than one.

What makes a saturated fat solid at room temp and an unsaturated fat liquid at room temp?
 the double bonds in the unsaturated FA's make the molecules not "fit" together (they have a slightly "bent" shape) as nicely (saturated are more linear) into a solid repeating structure.
 Different melting points.

*Health importance – monounsaturated is best

NOTE: When a fat is unsaturated, such as olive oil, it contains mostly unsaturated fats but it will contain some saturated fats.

Phospholipids

1/2 FILIPPO'S BERIO

Nutrition Facts
 Serving Size 1 Tbsp (15 ml)
 Servings per Container 33

Amount Per Serving	% Daily Value*
Calories 120	Calories from Fat 120
Total Fat 14g	22%
Saturated Fat 2g	10%
Polyunsaturated Fat 2g	
Monounsaturated Fat 10g	
Cholesterol 0mg	0%
Sodium 0mg	0%
Total Carbohydrate 0g	0%
Protein 0g	

*Percent Daily Values are based on a 

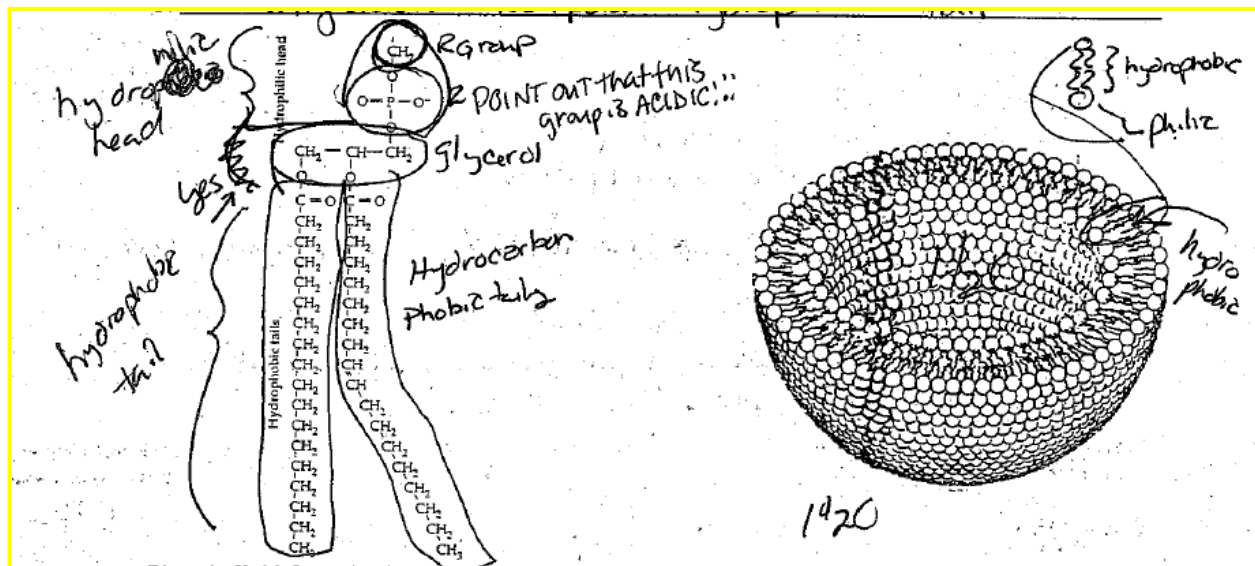
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Function of phospholipids important structure of cell membrane

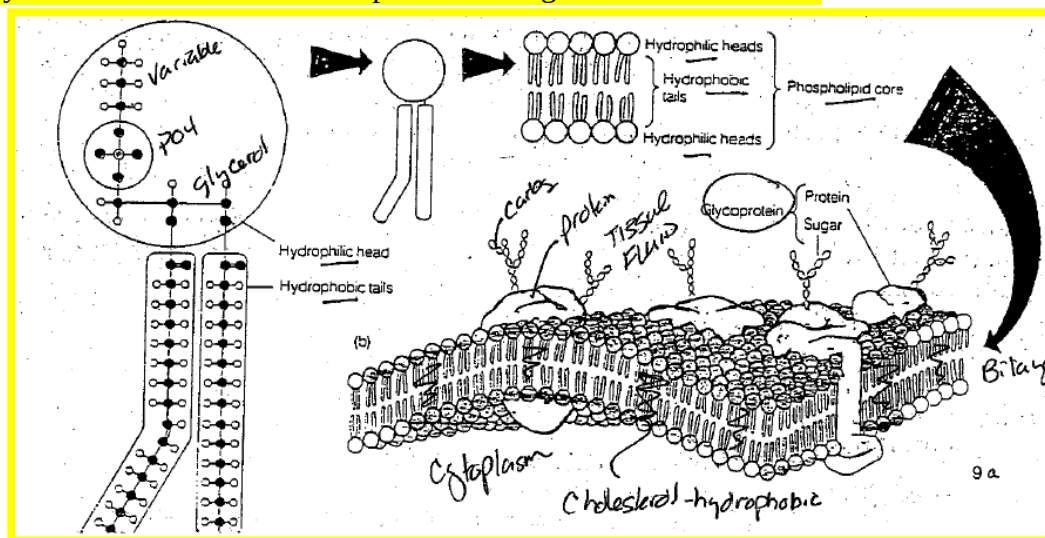
All phospholipids contain:

1. glycerol / hydrophilic "head"
2. phosphate group + R group /
3. 2 fatty acids – nonpolar & hydrophobic ("tail")

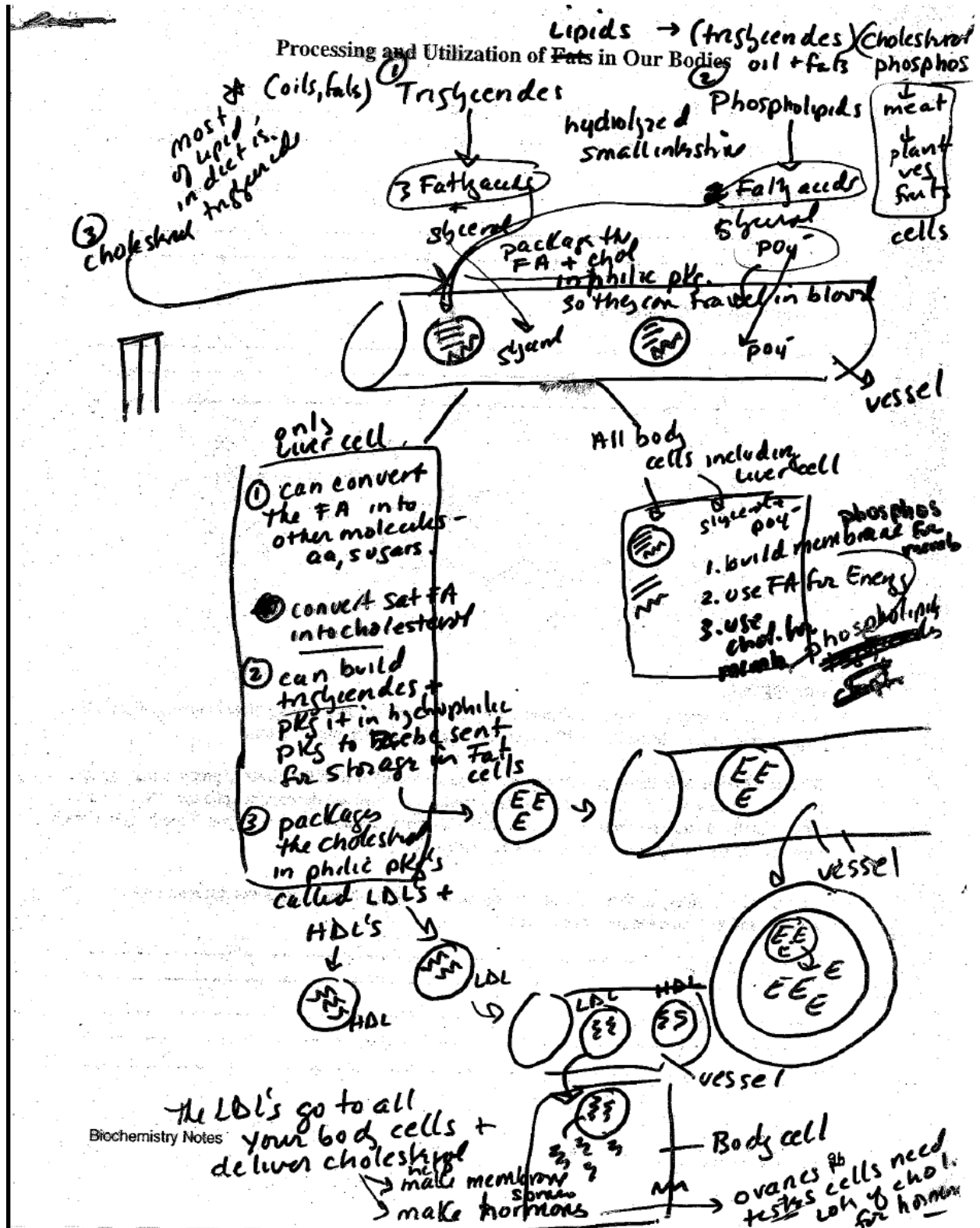


Phospholipid Organization in a Membrane

Phospholipids form a lipid bilayer where the hydrophilic head regions interact with the water in the cytosol and tissue fluid & the phobic tail regions face each other.



Processing and Utilization of Lipids in Our Bodies



Steroids

Structural characteristics of steroids ___ 4 interlocking carbon rings and other chemical groups (variable groups)_

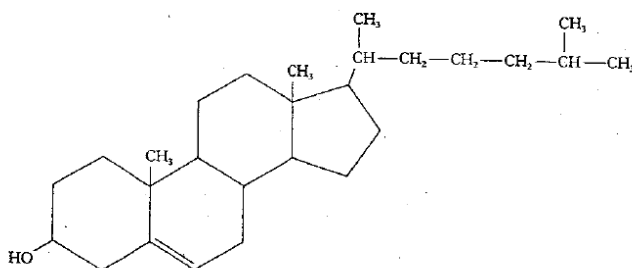
Types of steroids

1. ___cholesterol___ vitamin D – aids in calcium uptake ___
2. ___sex hormones___
3. ___cortisone___

Characteristics of **Cholesterol**

1. ___found in animal cell membranes (not plants) _
2. ___important in synthesis of steroid hormones, testosterone, estrogen___
3. ___in excess, can cause plaque formation in blood vessels and contribute to atherosclerosis and strokes. _

*Note, dietary cholesterol isn't main source of body cholesterol. Liver makes it from saturated FA's → that is why they are so bad for you!



PROTEINS

Proteins are some of the largest and most complex biological compounds. Most of an organism (70%) is made up of water. Most of the 30% that is remaining is made up of protein.

What makes you different from other organisms has a lot to do with the kinds of proteins making up your body. You will find out later on that the proteins you have are dependent upon the DNA in your cells. You have more proteins in common with your parents than you do with your friends, and more in common with your friends than you do with your pets.

There are thousands of different kinds of proteins in the human body, and there are billions of total proteins in every cell of your body. Proteins take on many different forms and functions in your body and in all living things. List some different types of proteins, and give an example of each type:

1. ___cell membrane proteins (receptor, transport, channel)_protective antibodies_
2. ___structural proteins___ enzymes___
3. ___contractile proteins___
4. ___storage___
5. ___transport

THE STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

The elements found in protein are: CHON

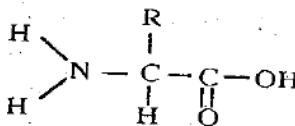
All proteins are made up of smaller molecules called amino acids

Therefore, proteins are considered to be polymers, and the amino acids are the monomers.

There are three chemical groups in all amino acids; what are they?

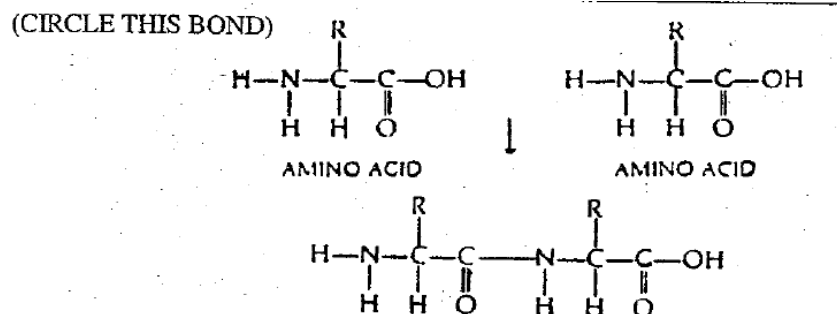
1. amino group – NH₂
2. carboxyl group -COOH
3. R group – variable group off central carbon – hydrogen

Circle these 3 groups in the diagram:



Two amino acids bonded together form a dipeptide

The bond that forms between them is called a peptide bond (covalent bond betw carboxyl group of one AA and amino group of next



When amino acids bond together to form a dipeptide or polypeptide, the process is called dehydration synthesis. If you break a peptide down into its separate amino acids, the process is called hydrolysis

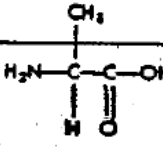
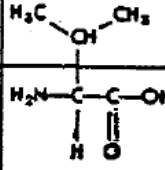
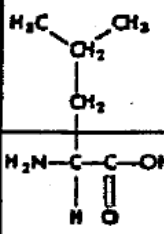
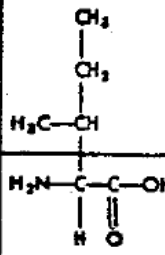
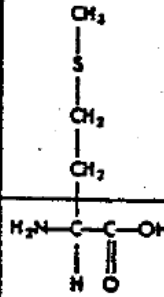
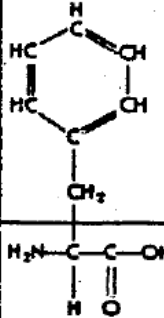
How many **different kinds** of amino acids occur in living things? ~20

Of these acids, there are 8 that are considered **essential amino acids**. What does this mean?

your body cannot synthesize the 8 essential aa's . they can synthesize all others from (17) other compounds like glucose and fats – the 8 essential must be consumed via foods. (TVTILLPM)

Complete Protein contains all the amino acids which you can't synthesize on your own (there's 8 or so your body can't make and therefore HAS to take in from food)

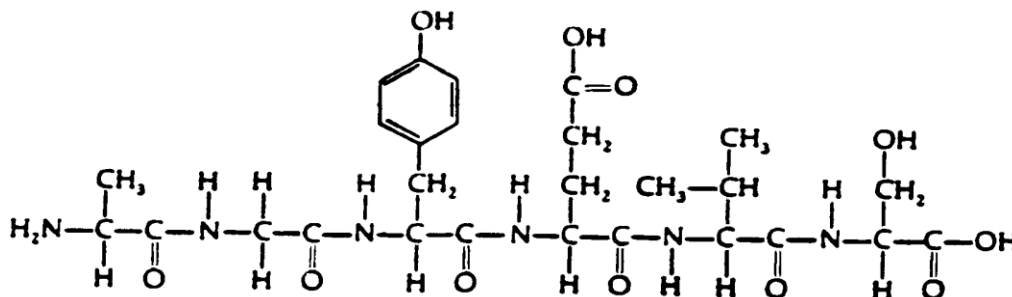
Examples of amino acids

					
ALANINE (Ala)	VALINE (Val)	LEUCINE (Leu)	ISOLEUCINE (Ile)	METHIONINE (Met)	PHENYLALANINE (Phe)

What do all amino acids have in common? amino, carboxyl, central C-H

How do the amino acids differ from one another? R group (variable group)

Many amino acids bonded together is called a polypeptide or protein (polymer)



How many *amino acids* are in this polypeptide? 6

How many *peptide bonds* are present? 5

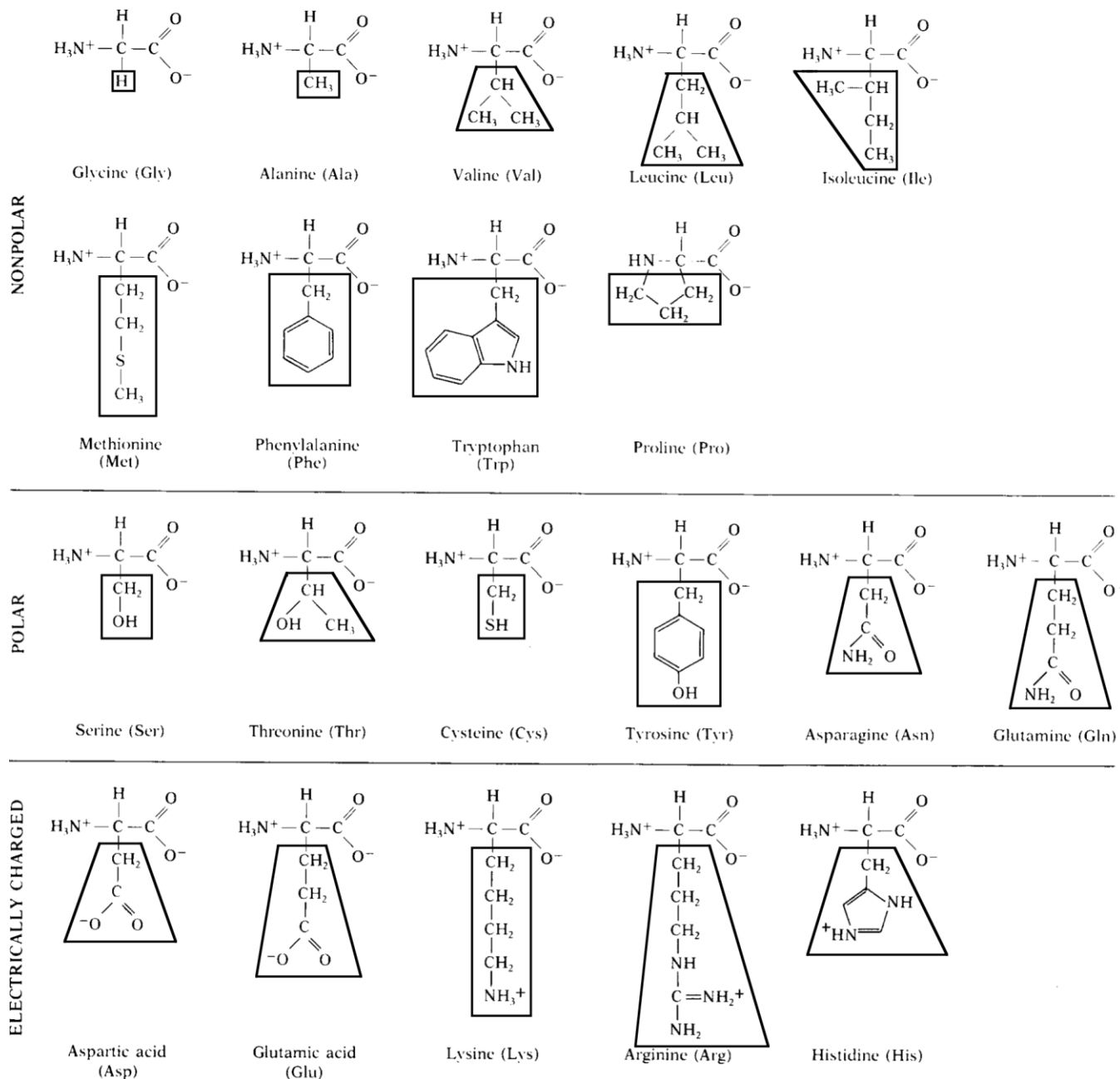
How many *water molecules* were removed to form this polypeptide? 5

Like the 26 letters of the alphabet which, when arranged in different ways can form many different words, the 20 amino acids, when arranged in different ways and in different numbers, can form many different types of proteins.

What differs from one protein to another? (below is hw)

- # amino acids (length of chain)
- types of amino acids (20 types)
- sequence of amino acids
- # of polypeptides used to form final protein (some composed of 2 or 3 poly's)

A closer look at the 20 amino acids



Amino acids can be grouped according to the chemical properties of their variable groups.

1. ___nonpolar (hydrophobic)
2. ___polar (hydrophilic)
3. ___electrically charged: - (acidic)
4. ___electrically charged: + (basic)

The Three-Dimensional Structure of Proteins

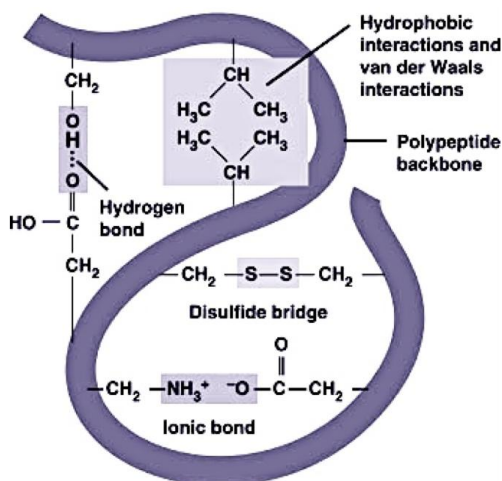
Proteins, like all organic molecules, have a three-dimensional structure. After the amino acids are bound by peptide bonds, they interact with each other, causing the molecule to fold up into a three-dimensional shape. Furthermore, a protein can be made up of one or several polypeptides. Take a look at the protein *hemoglobin*. It is made up of 4 polypeptide chains.

Primary structure ___single, straight chain of amino acids (straight chain polypeptide)

Secondary structure ___chain folds into helix (coil) due to hydrogen bonding between R groups.

Tertiary structure ___folding of helix into 3-d globular structure due to R group interactions.

Quaternary structure ___only occurs when >1 polypeptide joins to form protein



If just one amino acid is changed in a protein, this will usually result in a change in the protein's structure. If the structure is changed, what else may be changed? ___function!___

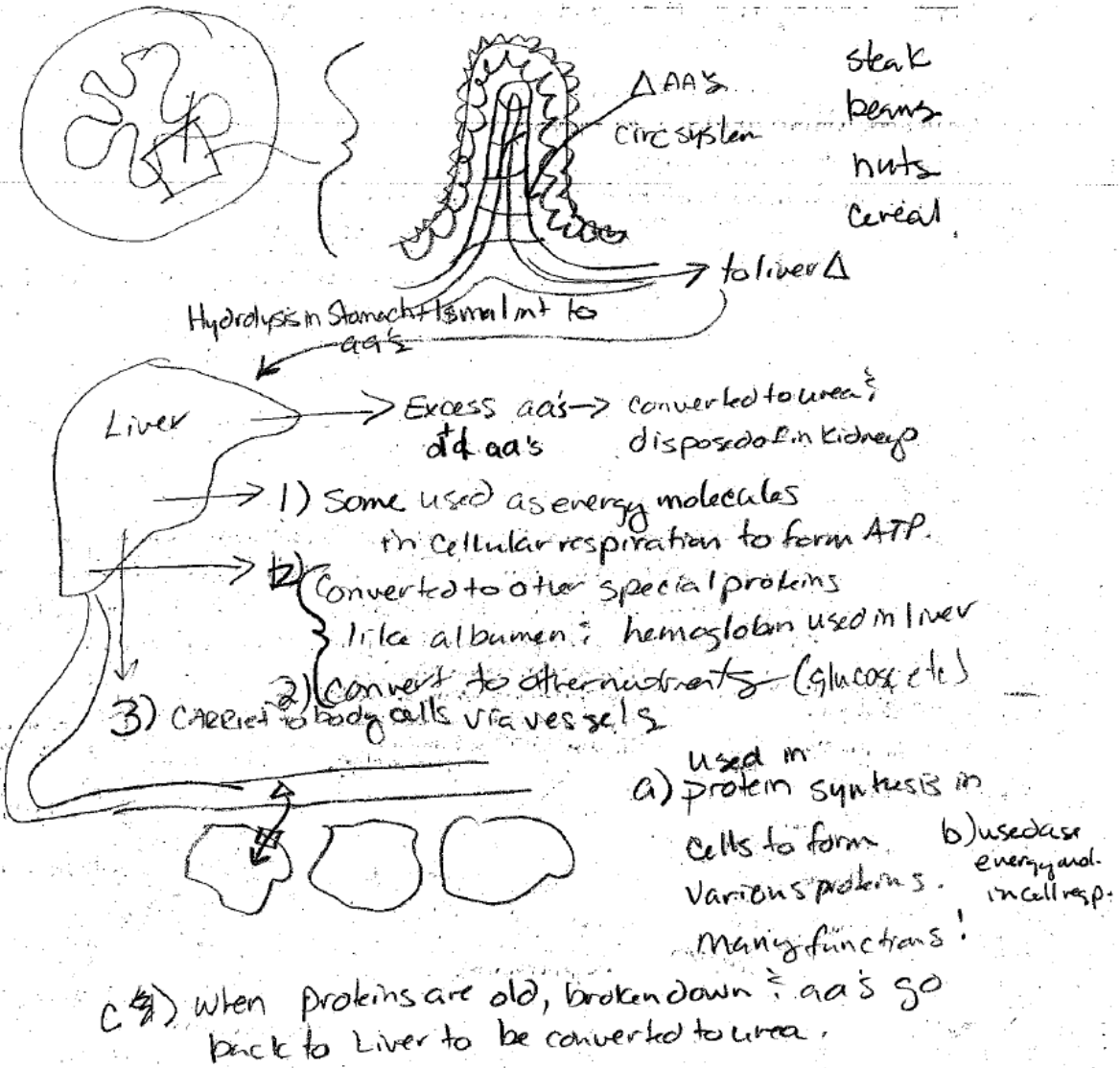
An example of this occurs in the protein hemoglobin, where one change in the amino acid sequence in the entire protein results in a disease called **sickle-cell anemia**.

Part of Regular hemoglobin:
___leu – thr – pro – glu – glu – lys

Part of Sickle-cell hemoglobin:
___leu – thr – pro – val – gly – lys

The function of hemoglobin is to bind to oxygen and carry it throughout the body. Each red blood cell contains millions of molecules of hemoglobin. If all of the hemoglobin molecules have an altered shape, and there are millions in each RBC, then the entire structure of the RBC tends to change into a “sickle” shape. This shape does not allow for easy movement through capillaries, so organs of the body are often deprived of oxygen.

Processing and Utilization of Proteins in Our Bodies



Denaturization ____ loss of proteins secondary, tertiary and/or quaternary structure

What factors might denature a protein? ____ heat, pH extremes, salt concentr. ____

How do these factors denature proteins?

interfere the hydrogen bonding and R-group interactions between one portion of the molecule and another, so they “unfold”

Why do you suppose that we could die from a temperature above 105° or 106° F?

denatures essential proteins. chem. rxns with enzymes slow or stop.

CHEMICAL REACTIONS IN CELLS: ENERGY AND ENZYMES

All chemical reactions in cells require the use of biological catalysts called **enzymes**.

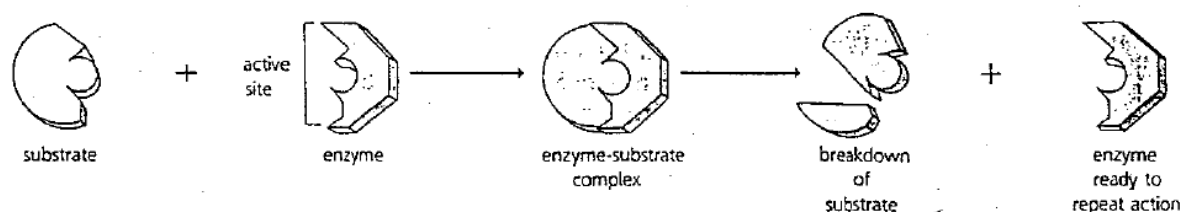
Without enzymes, chemical reactions would occur too slowly at the temperatures found in an organism. Higher temperatures would increase the rate of chemical reactions, but they harm or destroy the organism.

Characteristics of enzymes:

1. ____ all enzymes are protein (organic catalysts) ____
2. ____ help to speed reactions. specific to each reaction. one enzyme one reaction. reactions speeded a million to over a trillion times faster.
3. ____ the 3d shape of an enzyme (tertiary or quaternary struct) is specific for the reactants that are involved in the rxn

Substrate ____ reactants – temporarily bind to enzyme until reaction takes place

Active Site ____ the 3D surface on the enzyme that the substrate binds to.



4. Enzymes are often named after the substrate on which they act. Many enzymes also have **–ase** endings.

Examples: If sucrose is the substrate, sucrase is the enzyme.

If a peptide were the substrate, the enzyme would be peptidase

5. ____ Enzymes lower the activation energy (energy required to make rxn go) so rxn is more efficient and doesn't hurt cell. (also – not used up, like stage in theatre)

6. How Enzymes Speed Up Chemical Reactions

Active site critical. Doesn't actually break bonds. It helps to speed rxn.	<i>Hydrolysis reactions</i> Enzyme binds to substrates (Polymer + H₂O) and helps to stress or weaken the chemical bonds. Less energy is needed to break the bonds. (ATP, Thermal etc)	<i>Dehydration synthesis reactions</i> Enzyme binds to substrates (monomer + monomer). Once together, helps to weaken bonds so little energy is required to break them & form products (dimer + H₂O)
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In cells, enzymes often work in biochemical pathways.

Biochemical pathway A series of chemical rxns where the product of one reaction is the reactant of the next etc.

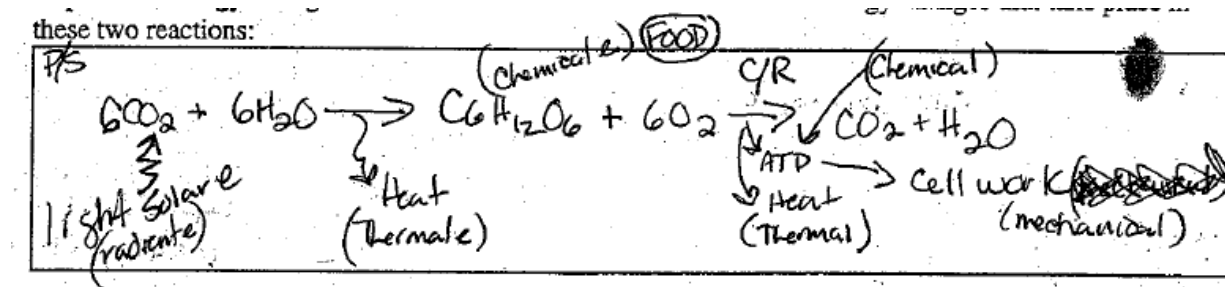
ENERGY

Cells all require energy to stay alive and perform their functions.

Energy can be defined as the ability to do work

FORMS OF ENERGY

Energy cannot be created or destroyed, but energy can and does change form. In photosynthesis and respiration, energy changes from one form into another. Review the energy changes that take place in these two reactions:



1. **Potential energy** stored energy in system

2. **Kinetic energy** energy of motion

Potential energy can be changed into kinetic energy

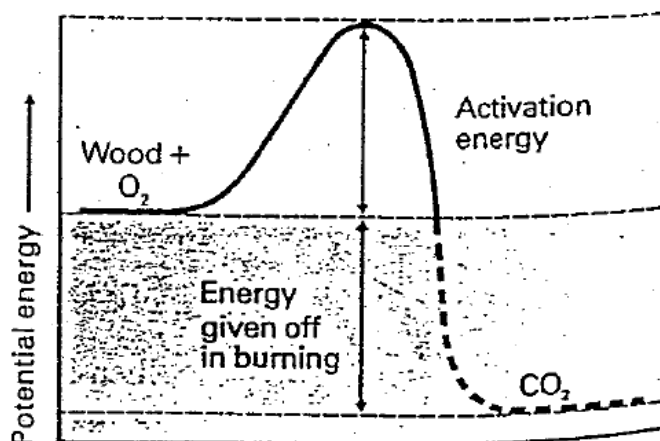
Examples of potential energy being changed into kinetic energy:

1. climb a slide (P) → slide down (K)
2. light energy (K) → glucose (P) → ATP (P) → cell work (K)
3. wood (P) → burn (K)

ENERGY IN CHEMICAL REACTIONS

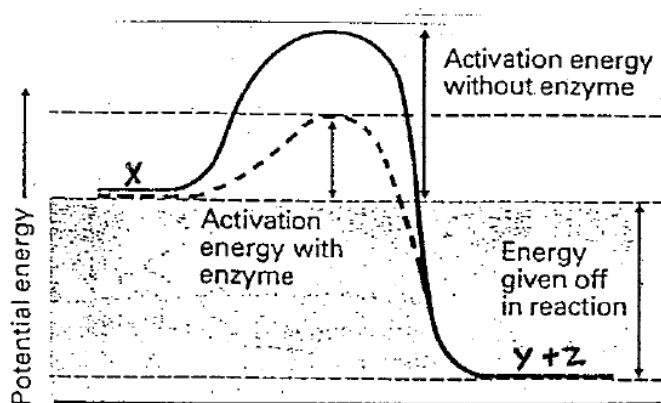
All chemical reactions require **activation energy**.

Activation energy — **Energy required to start a reaction – differs from reaction to reaction.**



In reactions that do not occur in organisms, activation energy is often in the form of **heat**. Heat makes the molecules move faster, so they have a better chance of colliding and reacting. It helps to destabilize bonds, so they can more easily break, and new bonds in the products can form. If that much heat were added to cells, the cells would die. The chemical reactions in our cells are designed to work best at 98.6°F, body temperature. How can we then overcome the activation energy barrier of chemical reactions so that they can proceed at the relatively low temperature of 98.6°F?

Enzymes form interactions with substrate(s) at the active site and stress the bonds of the substrate so less activation energy is needed to break bonds.



How do enzymes lower the amount of activation energy needed to start these 2 types of reactions?

Hydrolysis reactions: Enzymes bind with substrates (ex. Polymers and water) and stresses bonds, so that less A.E. is needed.

Synthesis reactions: Enzyme brings substrates close together. Enzyme binds with substrates (dimers or polymers & water) and stresses bonds so that less A.E. is needed.

There are many chemical reactions that take place in cells – as a matter of fact, all cell processes are a result of chemical reactions. Here we will be looking at two basic types of chemical reactions: **exothermic** reactions and **endothermic** reactions. ***Both of these types of reactions require activation energy.***

*Energy absorbed to break old bonds. Energy released when NEW bonds form!!

Characteristics of **exothermic** reactions:

- Overall or Net release of energy as reactants become products Ex. $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2 + \text{heat release}$
- Reactants have more PE than products. Reactants are less stable than products (easy to break bonds). Reactants are more organized (complex than products)
- Less energy is needed to start rxn (break bonds) (A.E.) than is released when new bonds form in products.

Example: Cell resp. –or– $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$ –or– hydrolysis such as dipeptide $\rightarrow 2 \text{AA's} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

Note: In organisms, exothermic reactions are also **exergonic**. These 2 terms are related but not exactly the same. The difference will be discussed in chemistry class.

Characteristics of **endothermic** reactions:

- Overall or net input of energy needed for reactants
- Reactants have less PE than products. Reactants are more stable, less complex/organized than products (hard to break bonds).
- More (activation) energy is needed to break bonds in reactants than is released when new bonds form.

Example: photosynthesis –or– dehydration synth such as amino acid + amino acid $\rightarrow$ dipeptide + H_2O .

Note: In organisms, endothermic reactions are also **endergonic**. These 2 terms are related but not exactly the same. The difference will be discussed in chemistry class.

Diagram of Exothermic and Endothermic Reactions

(Cell Respiration and Photosynthesis will be used as examples)

