

# 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.

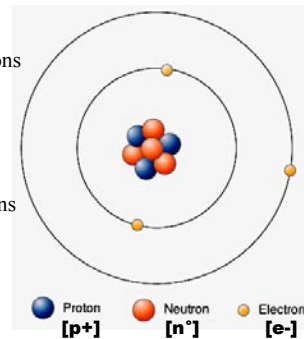
- Chemicals are constructed from atoms.
- Different types of matter, i.e., different elements, have different atoms.

## 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

<h1>Partial Periodic Table</h1>								
FIRST SHELL	Hydrogen $1H$ 	Helium $2He$ 						
	atomic number							
SECOND SHELL	Lithium $3Li$ 	Beryllium $4Be$ 	Boron $5B$ 	Carbon $6C$ 	Nitrogen $7N$ 	Oxygen $8O$ 	Fluorine $9F$ 	Neon $10Ne$ 
THIRD SHELL	Sodium $11Na$ 	Magnesium $12Mg$ 	Aluminum $13Al$ 	Silicon $14Si$ 	Phosphorus $15P$ 	Sulfur $16S$ 	Chlorine $17Cl$ 	Argon $18Ar$ 

Copyright © Pearson Education, Inc., publishing as Benjamin Cummings.

## 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  $H_2O$

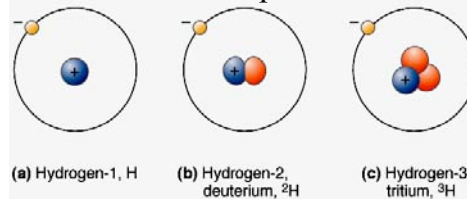
Table 2.1  
NATURALLY OCCURRING ELEMENTS IN THE HUMAN BODY

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

Trace elements (less than 0.01%): boron (B), chromium (Cr), cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), fluorine (F), iodine (I), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), selenium (Se), silicon (Si), tin (Sn), vanadium (V), and zinc (Zn).

\*Includes water.

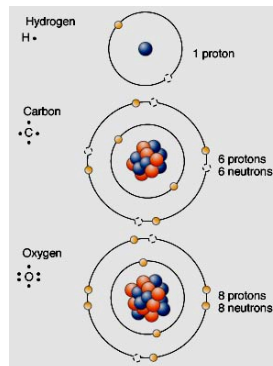
## Isotopes



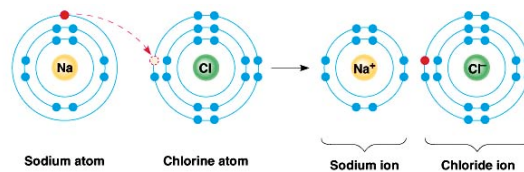
- Atoms of the same element (i.e., same atomic number) but with differing numbers of neutrons, have the same chemical identity but different atomic weights.
- These variations of an element are called **isotopes**.
- Some isotopes are unstable and emit radioactive energy. Such isotopes are **radioisotopes**.

## 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

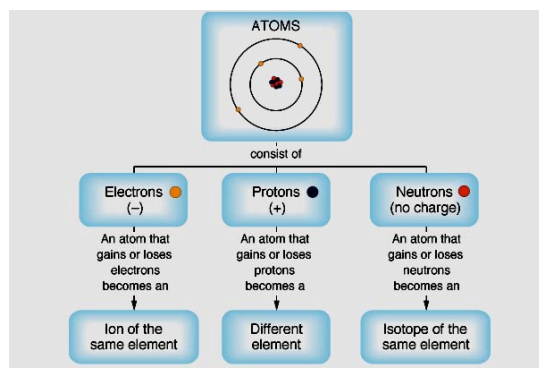


## Ions

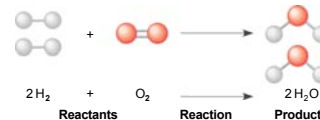


- If  $\#p^+ = \#e^-$ : neutral atom
- If  $\#p^+ \neq \#e^-$ : charged atom = **ion**
- If the valence shell loses an electron = positive ion (**cation**).
- If the valence shell gains an electron = negative ion (**anion**).

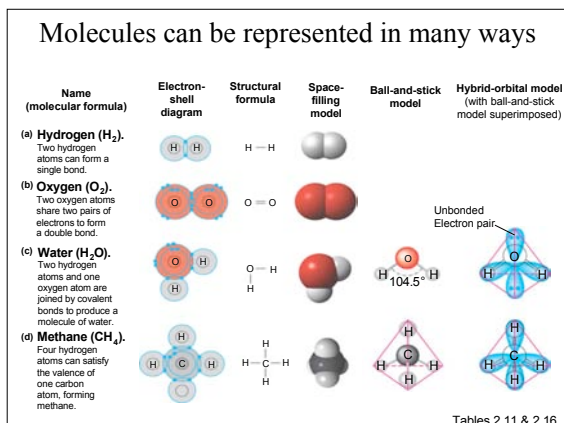
## Ions & Isotopes



Chemical reactions occur when bonds between atoms are formed or rearranged

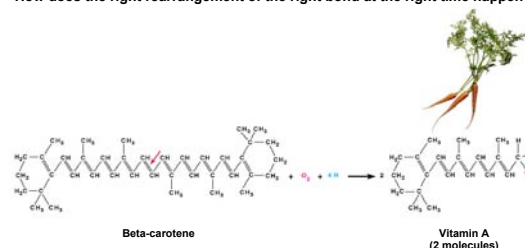


- Molecule: two or more atoms bonded together
- Compound: molecule constructed of more than one **kind** of atom.
- E.g.:  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  and  $H_2O$  are all **molecules**.
- But  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  are **elemental** molecules.
- And  $H_2O$  is a **compound** molecule.



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

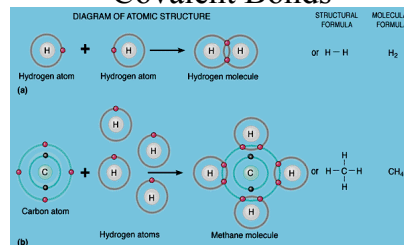
- Biological molecules have many atoms bound precisely in complex forms.
- How does the right rearrangement of the right bond at the right time happen?



## Types of Chemical Bonds

- Covalent Bonds
- Ionic Bonds
- Hydrogen Bonds

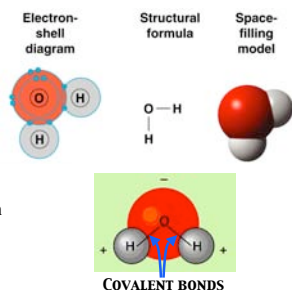
## Covalent Bonds



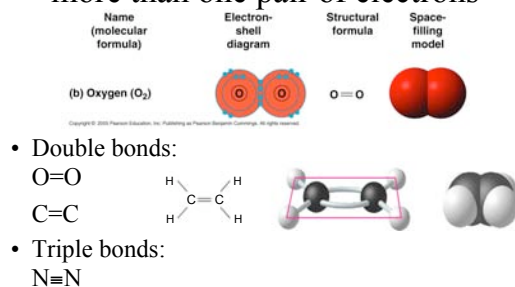
- Atoms share electrons to fill valence shell
- Electrons are shared in pairs
- Each pair forms one bond

## Example: Water ( $H_2O$ )

- 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



## Two atoms can share more than one pair of electrons

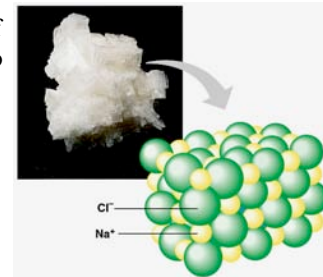


### Ionic Bonds

- 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 $\text{Na}^+$ and $\text{Cl}^-$ form NaCl, table salt

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

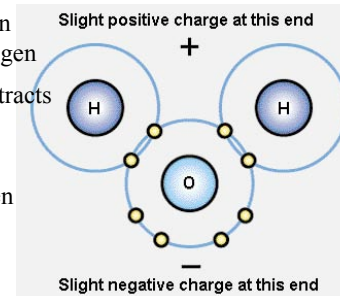


### Ions separate in presence of water

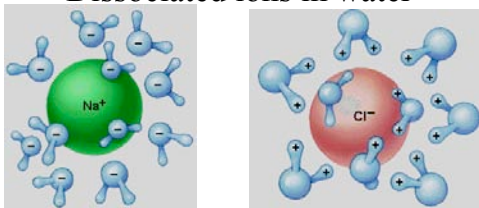
- Dissociation**: breaking of ionic bond
- Dissolve**: surrounding a molecule like NaCl with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- Why? Because water is a polar molecule.

### Water is a polar molecule

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

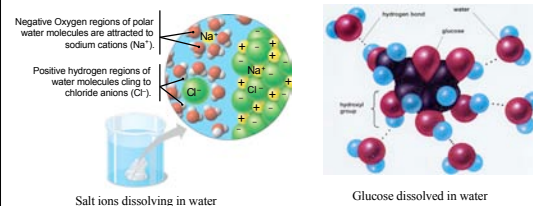


### Dissociated ions in water



$\text{Na}^+$  surrounded by oxygen side of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$      $\text{Cl}^-$  surrounded by hydrogen side of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$

### Water is a versatile solvent



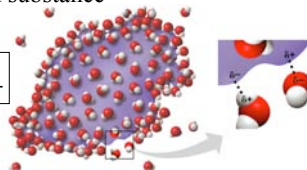
- Solutes** whose charges or polarity allow them to stick to water molecules dissolve in water
  - they form aqueous solutions

## 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

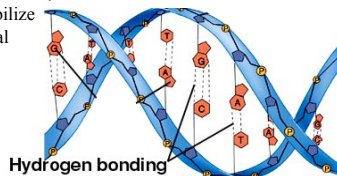


## Water: the “universal solvent”

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

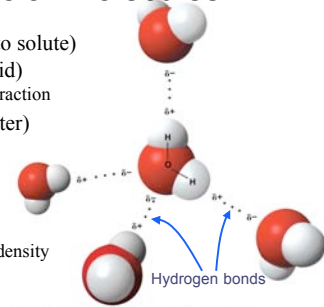
## Hydrogen bonds form between partial ( $\delta$ ) charges

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



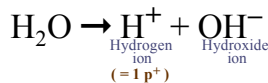
## Many of water's unique properties relate to hydrogen bonds formed among these small polar molecules

- 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

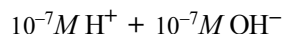


## Dissociation of Water

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



- =  $6 \times 10^{-16}$  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  $\text{H}^+$  to the solution. I.e., “ **$\text{H}^+$  donor**”
- Thus, an **acidic** solution has  $[\text{H}^+] > [\text{OH}^-]$   
**pH < 7** (0.00–6.99)
- A **Base** is a compound that **removes**  $\text{H}^+$  from the solution. I.e., “ **$\text{H}^+$  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!)

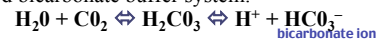
## Effects of pH on Bioactivity

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

## Buffers

- System of molecules and ions that act to prevent changes in  $[H^+]$ .  $\Rightarrow$  Stabilizes pH of a solution.

- Blood bicarbonate buffer system:



- Reaction can proceed in either direction depending upon the concentration of molecules and ions.

– Thus if  $\uparrow \text{H}^+$ :  $\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$   
 $\Downarrow \text{H}^+$

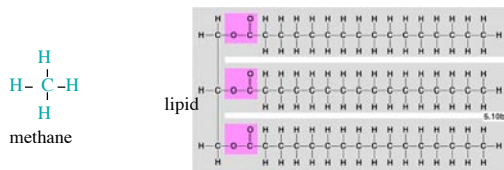
– But if  $\downarrow \text{H}^+$ :  $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$   
 $\quad \quad \quad \rightleftharpoons \uparrow \text{H}^+$

- Thereby maintaining normal blood pH range of 7.35 – 7.45
  - Acidosis: blood pH < 7.35 (Note: **not** acidic!)
  - Alkalosis: blood pH > 7.45

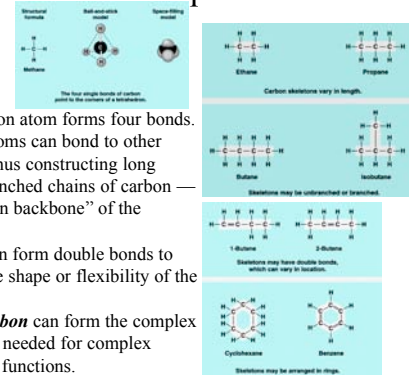
## Biological Molecules

## Some molecules are special in biology

- $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  - small, slightly polar molecule  $\rightarrow$  “universal solvent”
- Organic molecules are based on **carbon**.



## Carbon — a unique element

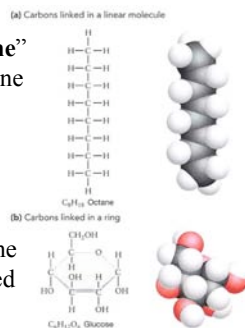


1. Each carbon atom forms four bonds.
2. Carbon atoms can bond to other carbons, thus constructing long and/or branched chains of carbon — the “carbon backbone” of the molecule.
3. Carbon can form double bonds to modify the shape or flexibility of the chains.

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

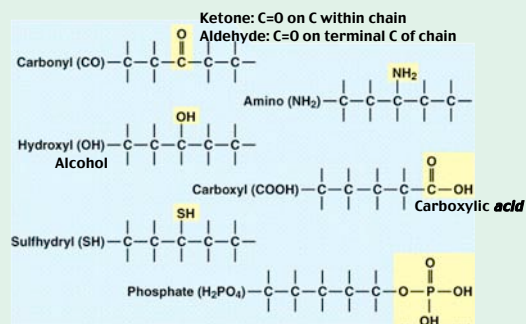
# Organic Compounds

- 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)



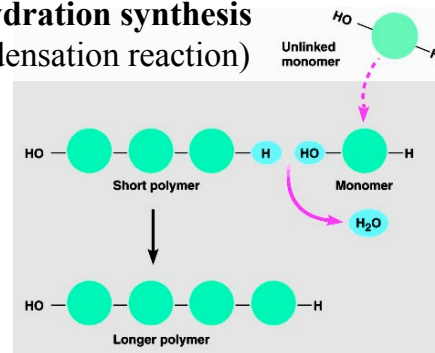


## Organic Macromolecules Forms & Features

Large macromolecules are constructed from smaller subunits.

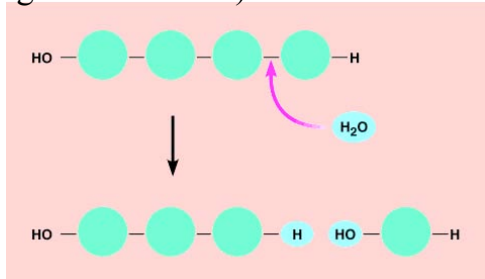
	Forms	Features
<b>Carbohydrates</b>	Sugars and starch	Energy source; Structural units
<b>Proteins</b>	Amino acids and Proteins	Enzymes; Structural units; Energy source
<b>Nucleic Acids</b>	Nucleotides, RNA, DNA	Genetic instructions; Cellular energy units
<b>Lipids</b>	Fats, oils, and steroids	Hydrophobic;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

## Dehydration synthesis (condensation reaction)



**Dehydration ("removing water") synthesis:**  
Forming polymers produces water as a byproduct.

## Hydrolysis (digestion reaction)



**Hydrolysis** ("water breaking") is opposite of dehydration synthesis.  
Breakdown of a polymer requires water

## Organic Macromolecules Monomers & Polymers

Large macromolecules are constructed from smaller subunits.

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

## 1. Carbohydrates

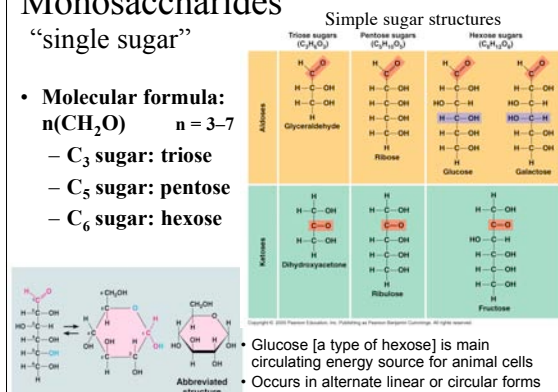
- Used for: Energy, structure
- Monomer: **Mono-saccharide** — "one sugar"
- Polymer: **Poly-saccharide** — "many sugars"



Bees with honey  
— a mix of 2  
monosaccharides

## Monosaccharides "single sugar"

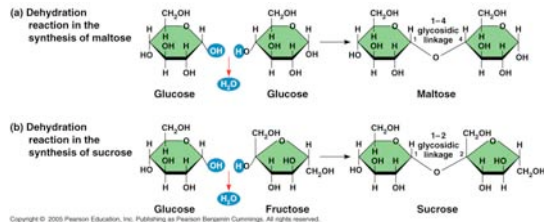
- Molecular formula:**  
 $n(\text{CH}_2\text{O})$   $n = 3-7$
- $\text{C}_3$  sugar: **triose**
- $\text{C}_5$  sugar: **pentose**
- $\text{C}_6$  sugar: **hexose**



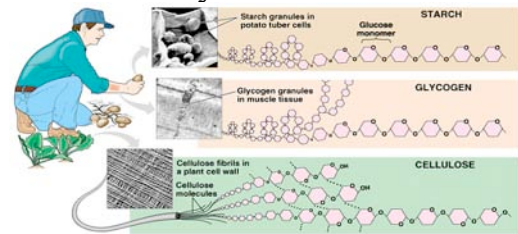
## Disaccharides

“double sugar”

- Cells link 2 single sugars to make 1 disaccharide



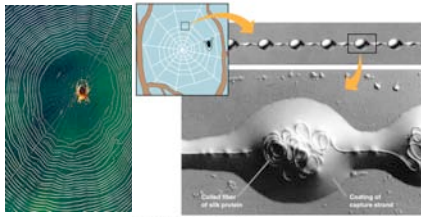
## Polysaccharides



- 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.

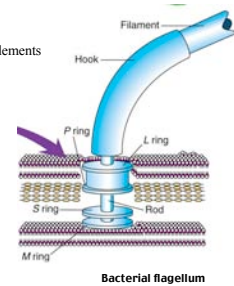
## 2. Proteins, Essential to Life

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



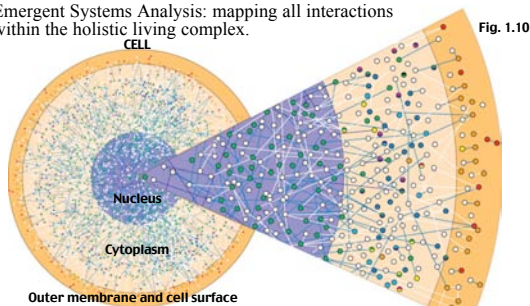
## 2. Proteins, Essential to Life

- 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

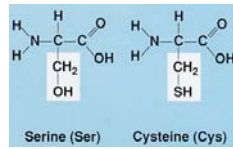
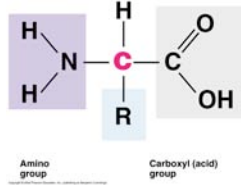


Hair made of keratin, a structural protein



## Proteins are made from Amino Acids

Amino acid structure



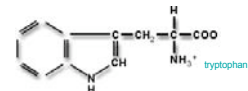
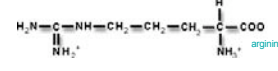
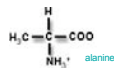
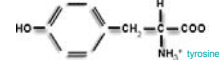
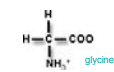
Different R-groups define different amino acids

- 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

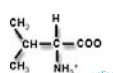
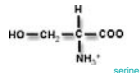
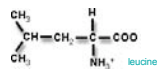
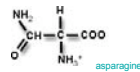
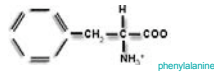
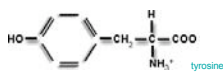


## amino acid R-groups may be

polar

or

nonpolar

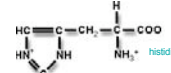
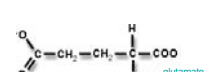
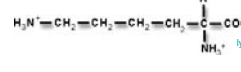
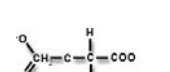
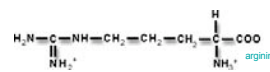


## amino acid R-groups may be

cationic

or

anionic



Charge is dependent upon pH

## 20 amino acids used in protein synthesis

Group I: nonpolar

Alanine (A)  
Isoleucine (I)  
Leucine (U)  
Methionine (M)  
Phenylalanine (F)  
Proline (P)  
Tryptophan (W)  
Valine (V)

Group II: polar

Asparagine (N)  
Cysteine (C)  
Glutamine (Q)  
Glycine (G)  
Serine (S)  
Threonine (T)  
Tyrosine (Y)

Group III: charged

Arginine (R)  
Aspartic Acid (D)  
Glutamic Acid (E)  
Histidine (H)  
Lysine (K)

## Stereo Isomers (Enantiomers)

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

Enantiomers:

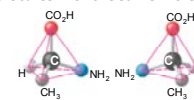
Non-superimposable mirror image molecules.

"Right-handed" [Dextro-]

&

"Left-handed" [Levo-]

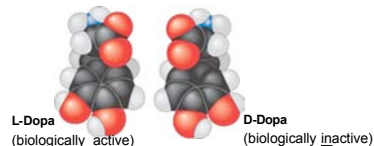
versions of the molecule.



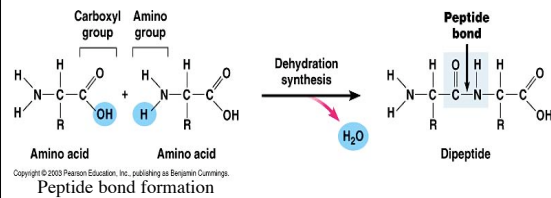
## Stereo Isomers (Enantiomers)

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!



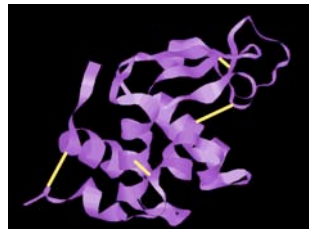
## Peptide Bonds Link Amino Acids



- 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

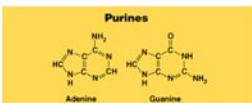
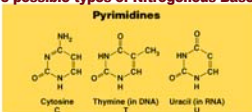
- Used for:
  - Information (DNA, RNA)
  - Cellular Energy (ATP)
- Monomer:
  - Nucleotide
- Polymer:
  - Nucleic acid



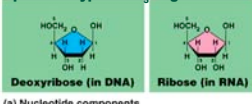
Human chromosomes

## Nucleotides

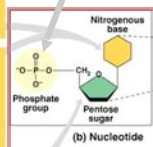
• 5 possible types of Nitrogenous Base



• 2 possible types of C<sub>5</sub> Sugar



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

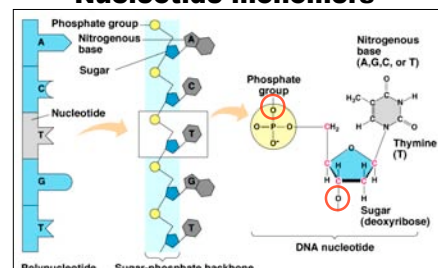


• Nucleotides to make **RNA** = Ribose sugar + A, G, C, or U base

• Nucleotides to make **DNA** = Deoxyribose sugar + A, G, C, or T base

(a) Nucleotide components

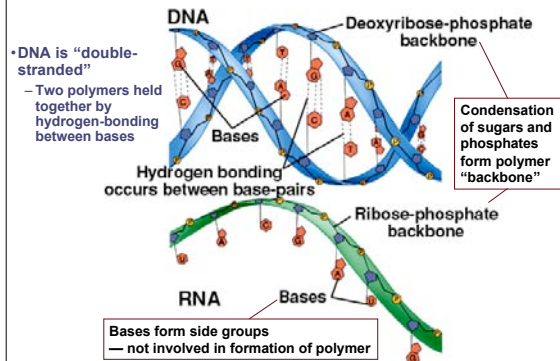
## Nucleic Acids are linear polymers of Nucleotide monomers



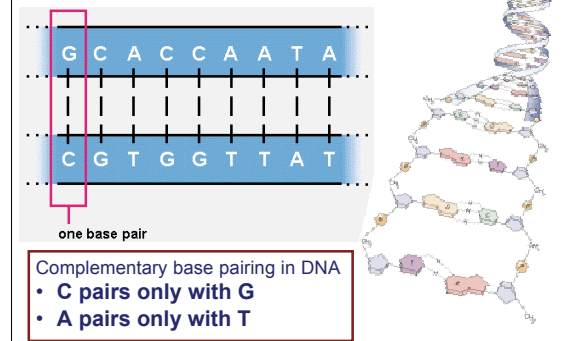
Condensation reaction between

- 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

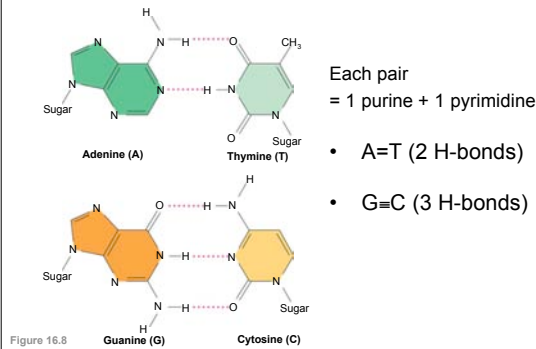
## Nucleic Acids — linear polymers



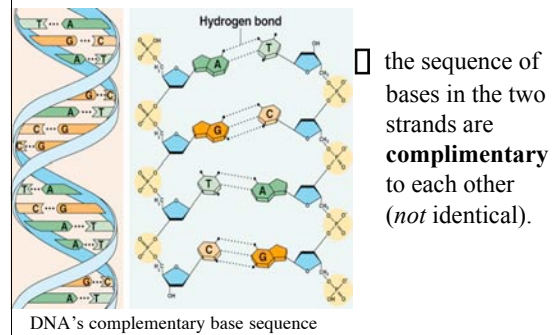
## complementary base pairing



## complementary base pairing



## dsDNA Structure



## 4. Lipids

— Include Fats and Cholesterol

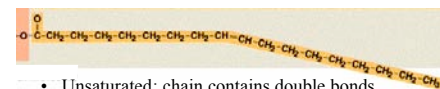
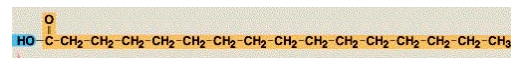
- **Used for:**
  - Energy storage, insulation, steroids, vitamins
- **Subunit:**
  - fatty acids
- **Macromolecule:**

(not a polymer — subunits attached to a different carbon backbone)

  - triglycerides & phospholipids
  - sphingolipids
  - waxes

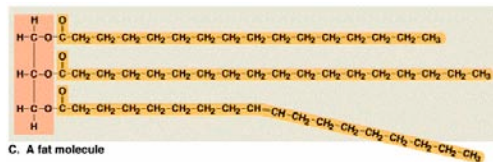
## Fatty Acids

- Long C<sub>8-16</sub> hydrocarbon “tail” = non-polar = hydrophobic = “fatty”
  - Carboxyl “head” = acid
- **“Fatty Acid”**

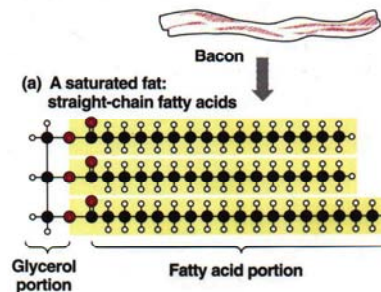


## Triglycerides

- 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

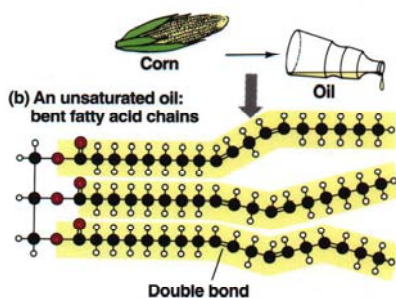


Saturated fat forms solids at room temp  
(animal fat)



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

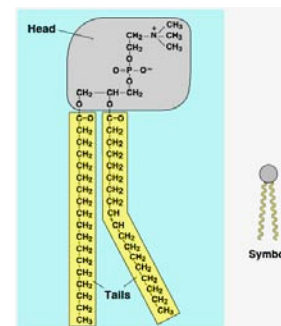
Unsaturated fats are liquid at room temp  
(vegetable oil)



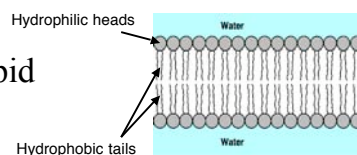
**Plant oil is a mixture of triglycerides with <15% of fatty acids saturated.**

## 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

