

# **Chemistry Review:** Organic Components— Carbohydrates and Proteins

Lecture 4

# Objectives 1 of 2

## *Understand/know/focus on/note*

- the meaning of hydrolysis, condensation, polymer
- chemical features of carbohydrates and names of a few monosaccharides: glucose and its isomers mannose, galactose
- names of disaccharides and monosaccharides composing them: sucrose, lactose
- glucose is stored as polymers: glycogen, starch
- what makes these glucose polymers and that they are branched

# Objectives 2 of 2

## *Understand/know/focus on/note*

- oligosaccharides (branched monosaccharide polymers) are attached to proteins and membrane lipids to make glycoproteins and glycolipids, respectively
- basic atomic features of the amino acid
- what peptide bonds are and how they are formed
- the four levels of protein structure
- the chemical bonding discussed previously applies to how proteins fold and amino acids bond with each other: H-bonding, ionic, hydrophobic
- what enzymes are (catalysts made of protein) and the special structural features they have

# Terms / Definitions / Descriptions

- Hydrolysis ("cutting with water")

A chemical reaction in which  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is used in the bond breaking of a molecule into two distinct molecules, one taking an H atom and the other the OH atom

- Condensation

in chemistry, it refers to the opposite of hydrolysis: joining two chemicals in a way that  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is released

both hydrolysis and condensation happen a lot in biochemistry

- Polymer

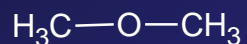
A molecule made up of many repeating smaller molecules ("monomers") bonded together in a chemical reaction (polymerization). Polymeric forms of biochemicals are ubiquitous in biological organisms

# Terms / Definitions / Descriptions

- Isomer

A form of a molecule that can have many different structures while the number of the kinds of atoms is identical

$C_2H_5O$ : diethyl ether is an isomer of ethanol



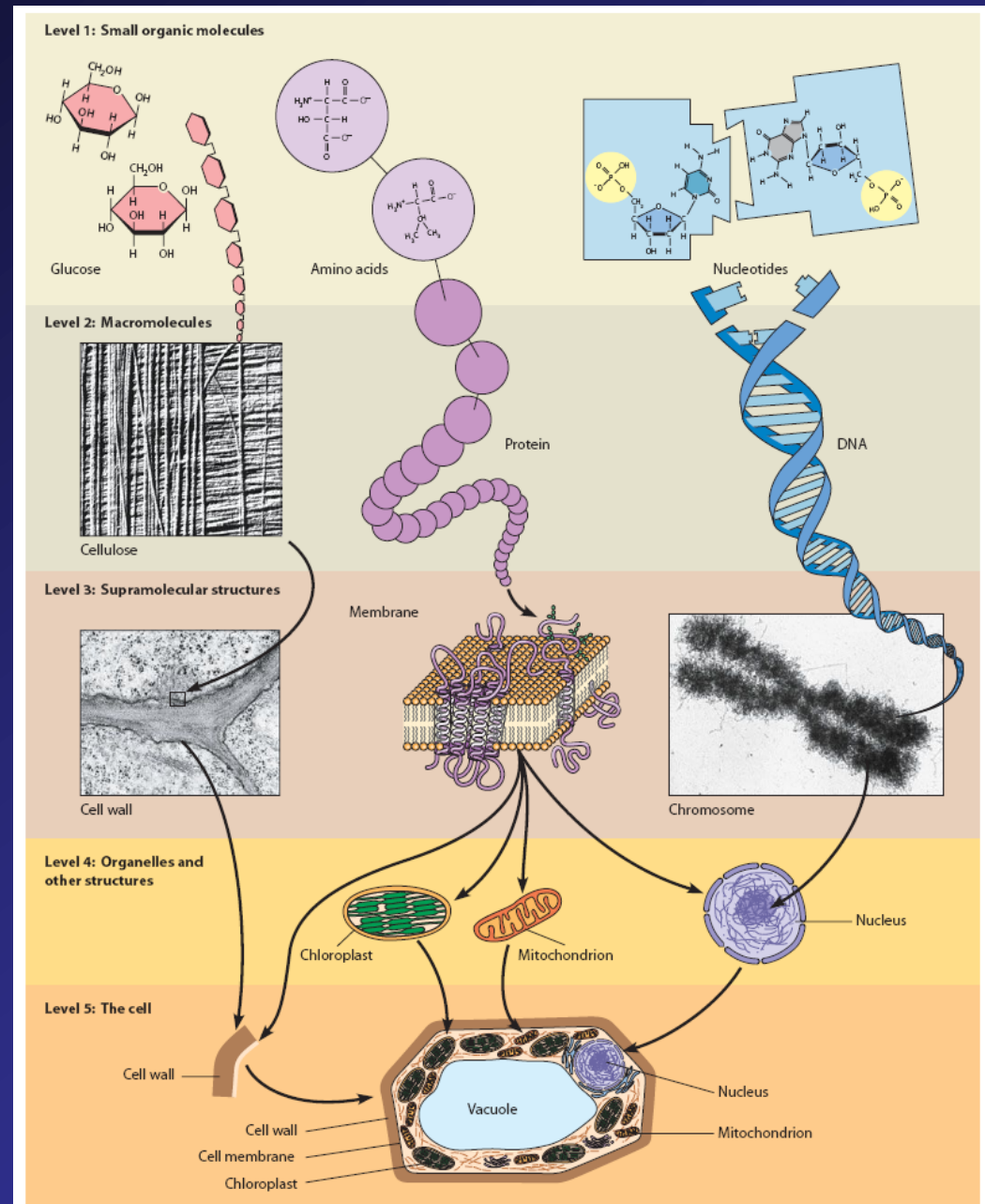
diethyl ether



ethanol

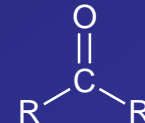
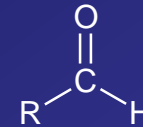
## *From molecular to cellular*

- polymerization of the small molecule monomer to a macromolecule
- macromolecular assembly
- supramolecular interaction to an organelle



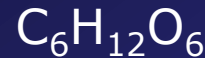
# Carbohydrates

- Have the simple empirical formula  $\text{CH}_2\text{O}$
- 1:2:1 C:H:O
- Carbohydrates are "sugars"
  - polyhydroxy (poly  $-\text{OH}$ ) aldehydes (aldoses)
  - aldehydes have this structure:  
R groups are usually rest of molecule,  
where next bonded atom is C
  - polyhydroxy ketones (ketoses)
  - ketones have this structure:
- Monosaccharides refer to the simplest molecules of carbohydrates that can be used to make up repeating chains (polymers)
- Monosaccharide molecules range from 3-carbon molecules to 7-carbon sugar molecules

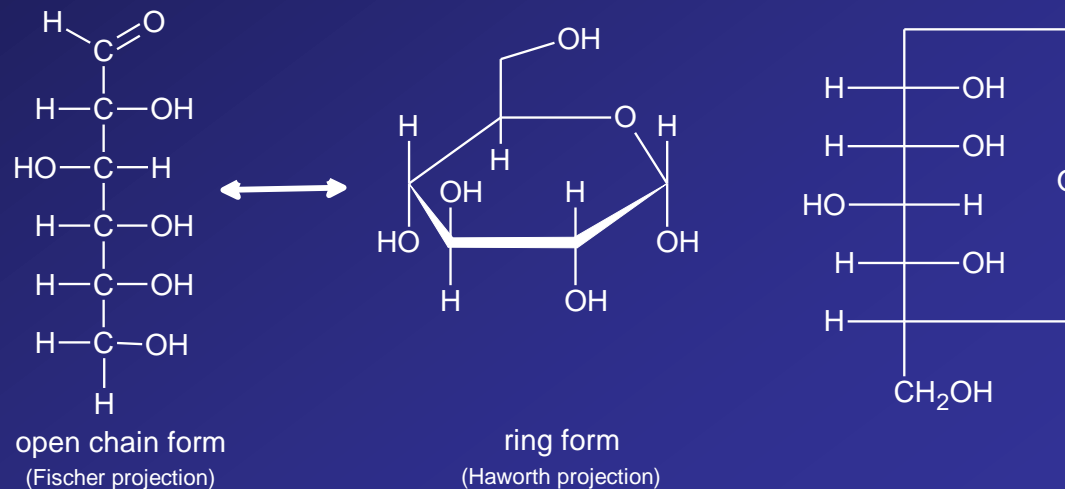


# Glucose

- Glucose is a 6-carbon monosaccharide (sugar) which is all-important in biology



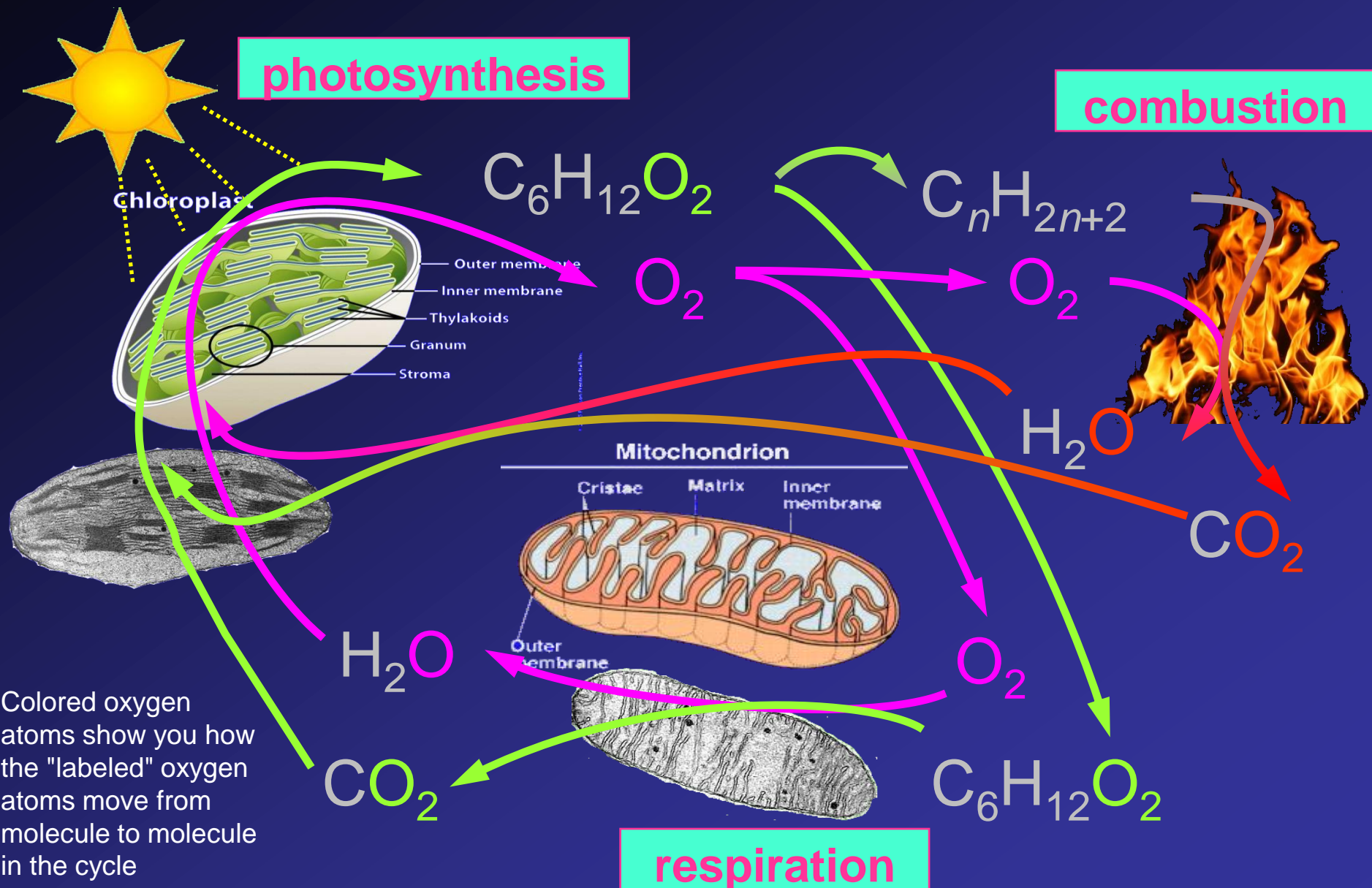
- Made in photosynthesis by leaves of plants
  - $6 \text{ CO}_2 + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + \text{sunlight} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6 \text{ O}_2$
- Broken down in respiration by eukaryote cells to get energy/calories
  - $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6 \text{ O}_2 \rightarrow 6 \text{ CO}_2 + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + \text{energy (stored as ATP)}$



D-glucose



# A Combined Carbon & Oxygen Cycle in Biology

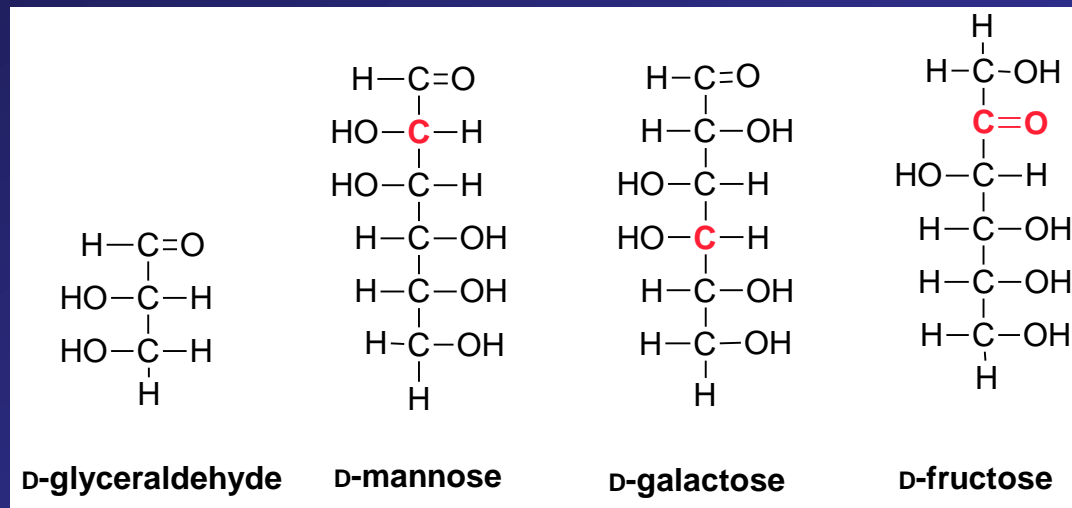


# Other Monosaccharides

- The monosaccharides range in molecular size from the 3-carbon glyceraldehyde to 7-carbon heptuloses
- **Galactose** combines with glucose to form the disaccharide lactose ("milk sugar")
- **Fructose** combines with glucose to form the disaccharide sucrose (table sugar)
- Monosaccharides can condense to form polymeric forms (polysaccharides)
- In cells, mono- and polysaccharides occur in the ring form

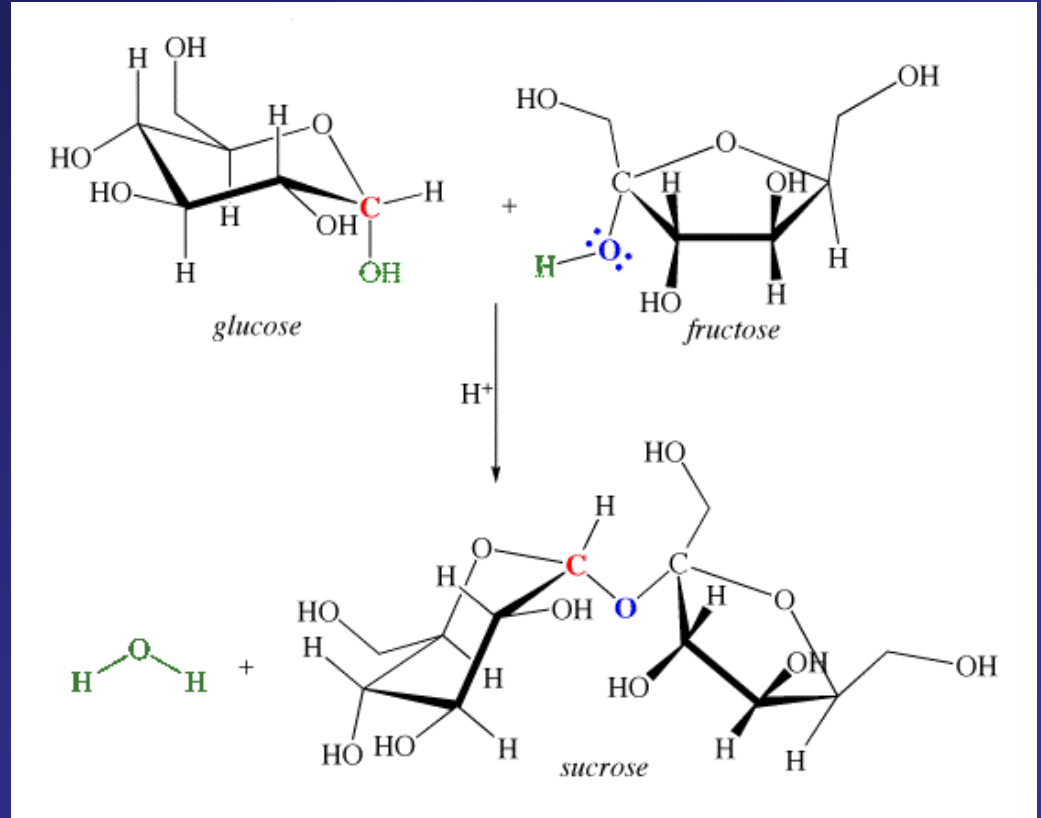
# Some Monosaccharide Structures

- Galactose is a C-4 epimer of glucose
- An epimer is an isomer in which two of the groups attached to a chiral carbon are switched stereochemically
- Mannose is a C-2 epimer of glucose: it is particularly important in forming glycoprotein oligosaccharides
- Fructose is a 2-keto isomer of glucose (ketohexose)
- The 3-phospho form of glyceraldehyde is an intermediate in the most vital of metabolic pathways: glycolysis



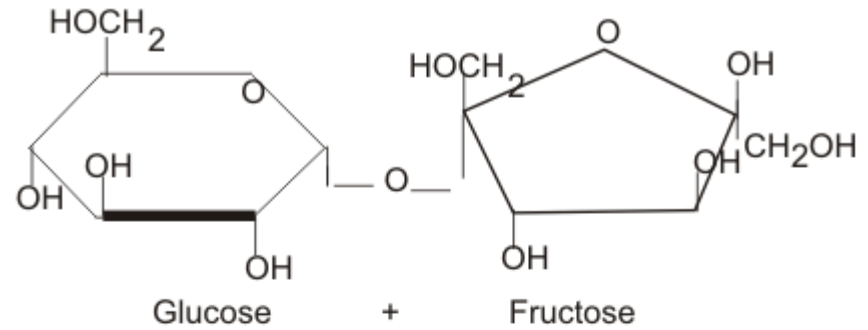
# Forming Disaccharides

- Two monosaccharides come together by a condensation reaction to form a glycosidic bond
- Note the removal of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to form the bond

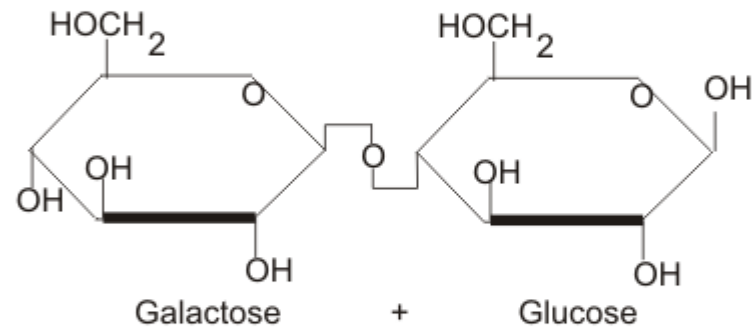


# Disaccharides

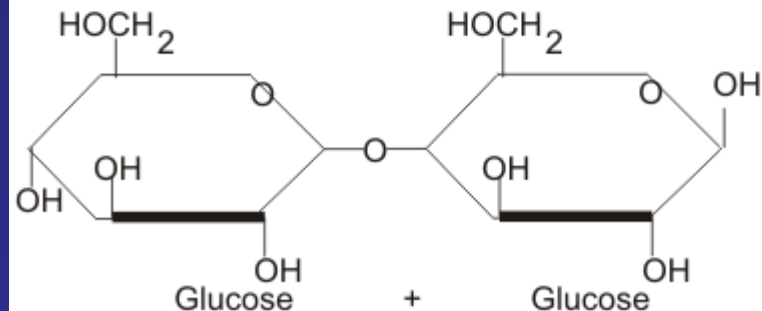
- Sucrose is the synthesis (condensation) of glucose + fructose
- Lactose synthesizes galactose + glucose
- Maltose is the synthesis of two glucoses
- Note that sucrose = glucose + fructose in that order  
not fructose + glucose



Sucrose



Lactose



Maltose

# Glucose As A Polymer

- Glucose is how the cell gets the energy it needs to survive. It is transported in the blood as the monosaccharide and then imported into the cell
- When glucose is not immediately utilized, it is stored as a polymer (polysaccharide)
- The polymeric forms of glucose have different names, depending on what type of organism is making and storing them
  - glycogen: poly-glucose as a storage form in animals
  - starch: poly-glucose as a storage form in plants
    - digestible by animals
  - cellulose: poly-glucose used for cell walls by plants
    - not digestible by animals



# Glycogen

- When glucose is not utilized in metabolism, it needs to be stored
- In animals, the best storage form is glycogen
- **Glycogen** is a highly branched polymeric form of glucose
- Glycogen is stored in liver & skeletal muscle typically

the detail of the molecular structure of the linear polymer and its branch point, as well as the size of the molecule

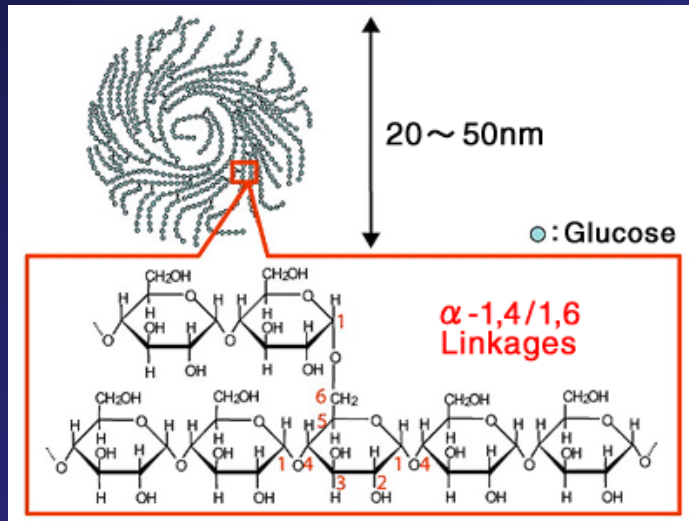


image shows large molecule of glycogen



# Starch

- Starch is just like glycogen in that it is a polymer of glucose used as a storage form for glucose
- Starch is a branched form of glucose polymer, although less branched than glycogen
- Starch is the storage form for plants
- Since animals consume plants, they have evolved a set of digestive (hydrolytic) enzymes that allow them to be able to break down starch into its separate monomers (monosaccharides) of glucose and use it



# Cellulose

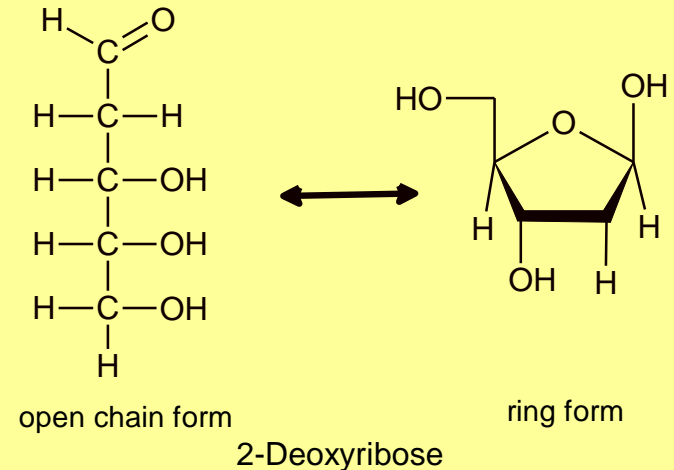
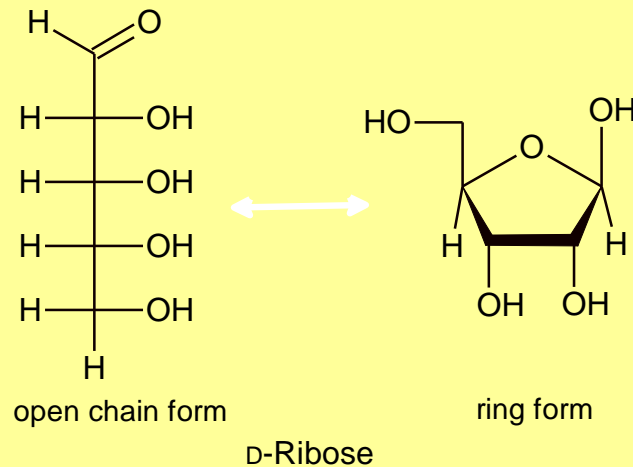
- Cellulose is also a polymeric form of glucose (a polysaccharide)
- But it is not a source of energy for most animals because animals do not have the enzymes to break cellulose down to its glucose monomers (monosaccharides)

When cows eat grass/hay/weeds, they get glucose from cellulose only because they have bacteria in one of their stomachs that have the enzymes to break it down, but many animals do not have those bacteria

- Cellulose is what plants use to form the "skeletons" for their leaves, stems, roots, and flowers

# Special Mention: Ribose & 2-Deoxyribose

- Ribose is a 5-carbon sugar (aldose)
- Ribose is used in the backbone of RNA
- Its 2-deoxyribose form is used in the backbone of DNA



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# Polysaccharide Significance

Polysaccharides are important for a variety of functions other than being a storage form for glucose

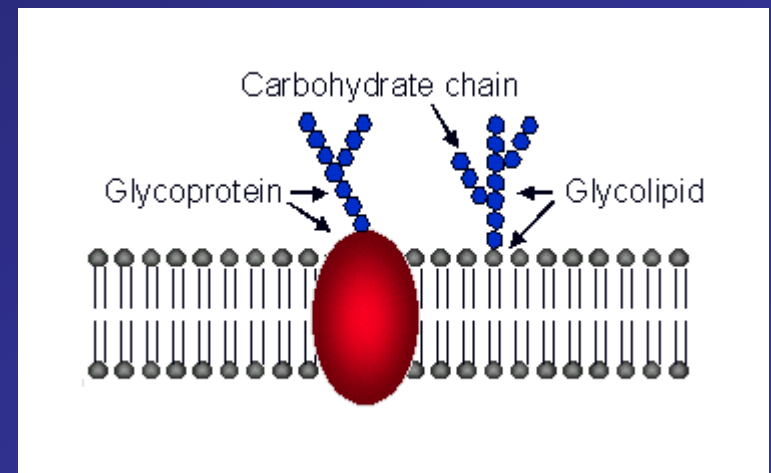
- In plants they form much of the cell wall that is part of the skeleton for the plant (cellulose + lignin)
- Arthropods bodies (exoskeletons) are formed from polysaccharides (chitin)
- Animal cartilage is a polysaccharide matrix (hyaluronic acid)

# Glycoproteins

- Oligosaccharides are attached to polypeptides to form glycoproteins
- There are *N*- and *O*-glycoproteins, which indicate the amino acid side chain atom to which the oligosaccharide is attached
  - *N*-glycoproteins attach to the  $-NH_2$  group of the amino acid asparagine (Asn)
  - *O*-glycoproteins attach to the  $-OH$  group of the hydroxyl amino acids serine (Ser) and threonine (Thr)
- Purposes of glycosylating proteins
  - required for particular folding
  - resist degradation, particularly when protein exported
  - indicate destination for the glycoprotein location

# Glycolipids

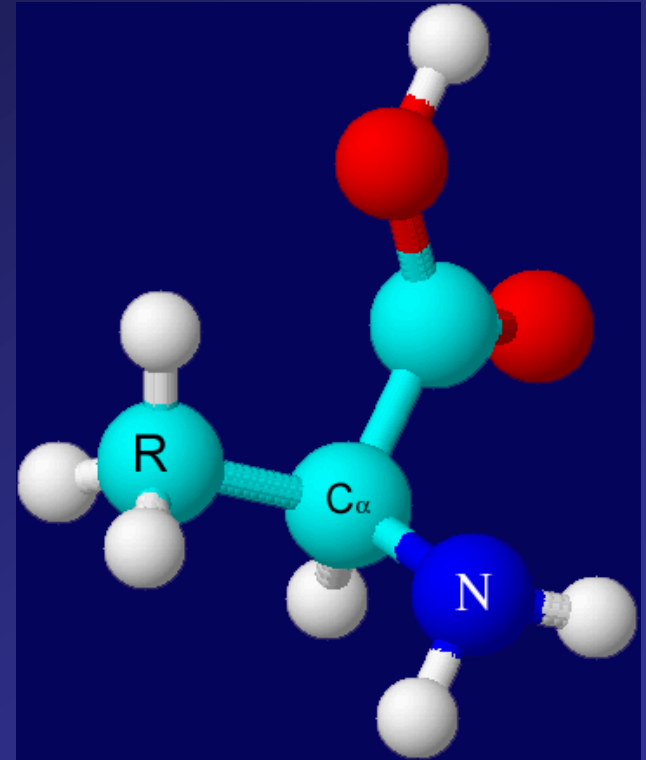
- Oligosaccharides are attached to lipids particularly those that form the cell membrane
- Glycolipids are particularly important for a cell identifying itself to another cell (cell-cell recognition)
- They can also be utilized in metabolism to produce energy



# The Amino Acid

Has four basic parts in the chemical structure

1. The "central" alpha-carbon  
this carbon is "chiral," meaning it is bonded to 4 different groups and thus has stereochemistry
2. The amino ( $-\text{NH}_2$ ) group  
this group will bond with the  $-\text{COOH}$  group to form the peptide bond
3. The carboxyl ( $-\text{COOH}$ ) group  
this group will bond with the  $-\text{NH}_2$  group to form the peptide bond
4. The side ("R") group/chain  
this has 20 different possible groupings of atoms



The amino acid L-alanine  
in 3D (*R*-configuration)

# The Natural Amino Acids

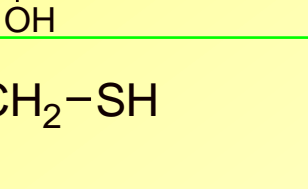
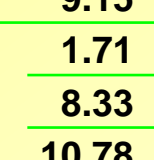
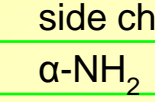
- There are 20 natural amino acids in eukaryotes
- The side chain of the amino acid gives it its special chemistry and name
- Because amino acids make up the sequences of polypeptides, biologists/biochemists have created special 1- and 3-letter abbreviations used when discussing proteins
- The chemistry of the side chain allows amino acids to be classed differently
  - ionic/electrostatic
  - polar
  - non-polar, hydrophobic

# The Amino Acid

	3-letter abbr.	1-letter abbr.	MW	Side-chain structure	pK <sub>a</sub>
<i>Non-polar Amino Acids</i>					
Alanine	Ala	A	89.1	—CH <sub>3</sub>	2.35 α-COOH 9.69 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Valine	Val	V	117.1	—HC(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	2.32 α-COOH 9.62 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Leucine	Leu	L	131.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> —CH(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	2.36 α-COOH 9.6 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Isoleucine	Ile	I	131.2	—CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )—CH <sub>2</sub> —CH <sub>3</sub>	2.36 α-COOH 9.68 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Phenylalanine	Phe	F	165.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> —C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub>	1.83 α-COOH 9.13 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Tryptophan	Trp	W	204.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> —Indole	2.38 α-COOH 9.39 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Methionine	Met	M	149.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> —CH <sub>2</sub> —S—CH <sub>3</sub>	2.28 α-COOH 9.21 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Proline	Pro	P	115.1	—C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>9</sub> N—	1.99 α-COOH 10.6 α-NH-



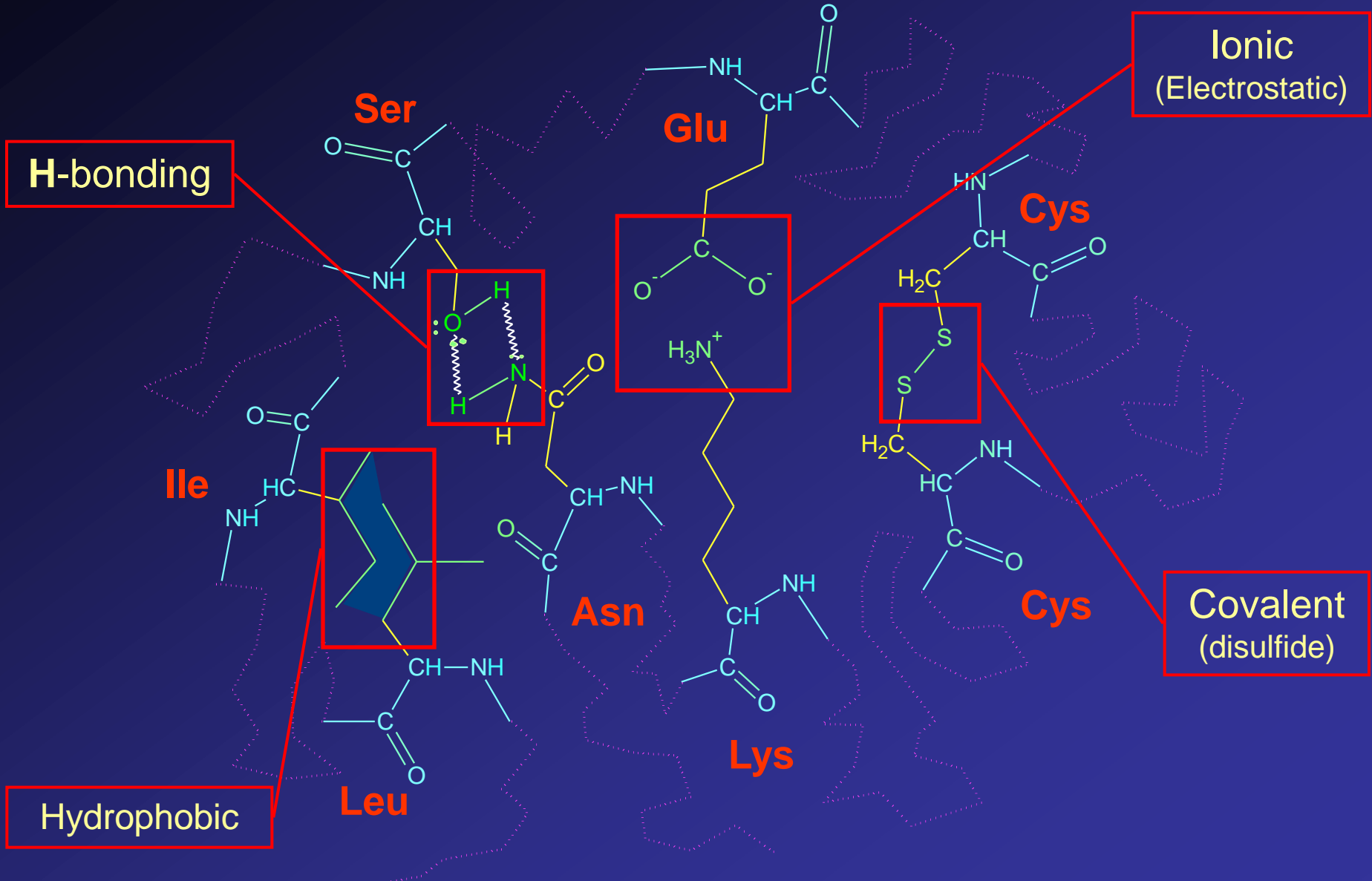
# The Amino Acid

	3-letter abbr.	1-letter abbr.	MW	Side-chain structure	pK <sub>a</sub>
<i>Polar Amino Acids</i>					
Glycine	Gly	G	75.1	—H	2.34 α-COOH 9.6 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Serine	Ser	S	105.1	—CH <sub>2</sub> -OH	2.21 α-COOH 9.15 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Threonine	Thr	T	119.1	—CH—CH <sub>3</sub>   OH	2.63 α-COOH 9.15 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Cysteine	Cys	C	121.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> -SH	1.71 α-COOH 8.33 side chain 10.78 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y	181.2	—CH <sub>2</sub> - 	2.2 α-COOH 9.11 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Asparagine	Asn	N	132.1	—CH <sub>2</sub> - 	2.02 α-COOH 8.8 α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Glutamine	Gln	Q	146.1	—CH <sub>2</sub> -CH <sub>2</sub> - 	2.17 α-COOH 9.13 α-NH <sub>2</sub>

# The Amino Acid

	3-letter abbr.	1-letter abbr.	MW	Side-chain structure	pK <sub>a</sub>
<i>Ionic Amino Acids</i>					
Aspartic Acid	Asp	D	133.1	$\text{—CH}_2\text{—C}\begin{matrix} \text{=O} \\ \text{O}^- \end{matrix}$	<b>2.09</b> α-COOH
					<b>3.86</b> side chain
					<b>9.82</b> α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Glutamic Acid	Glu	E	147.2	$\text{—CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{C}\begin{matrix} \text{=O} \\ \text{O}^- \end{matrix}$	<b>2.19</b> α-COOH
					<b>4.25</b> side chain
					<b>9.67</b> α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Lysine	Lys	K	146.2	$\text{—CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_3^+$	<b>2.18</b> α-COOH
					<b>10.53</b> side chain
					<b>8.95</b> α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Arginine	Arg	R	174.2	$\text{—CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}\text{C}\begin{matrix} \text{=NH} \\ \text{NH}_3^+ \end{matrix}$	<b>2.17</b> α-COOH
					<b>12.48</b> side chain
					<b>9.04</b> α-NH <sub>2</sub>
Histidine	His	H	155.2	$\text{—CH}_2\text{—}\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{N}^+$	<b>1.82</b> α-COOH
					<b>6.00</b> side chain
					<b>9.17</b> α-NH <sub>2</sub>

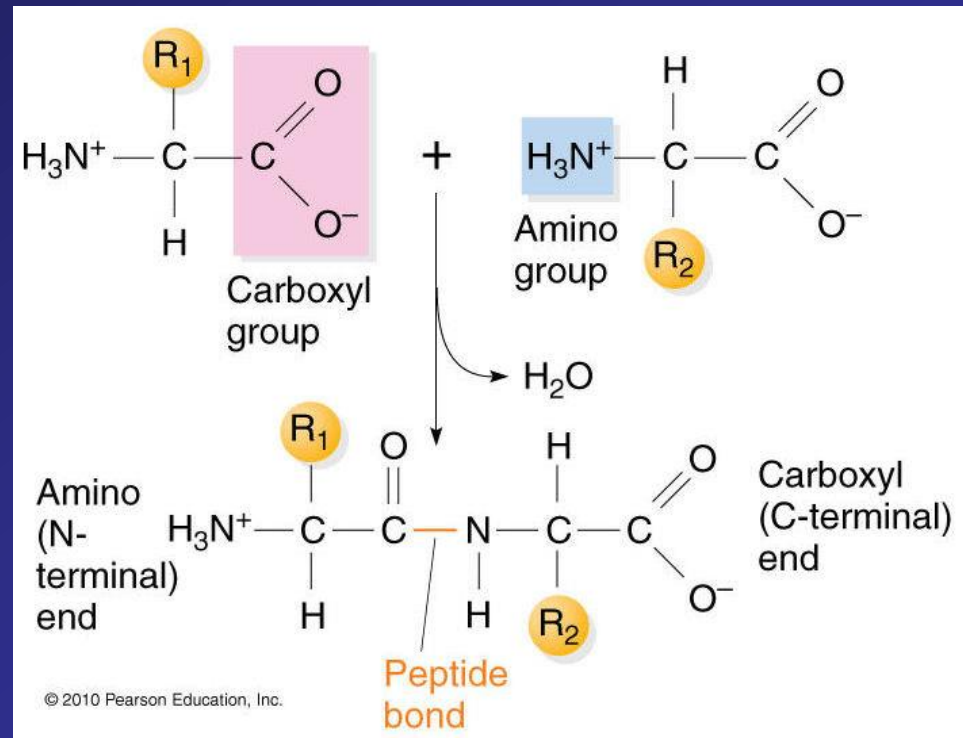
# Chemical Bonding In The Polypeptide



# The Peptide Bond

- The peptide bond is the name of the link that describes the amino acid polymer (polypeptide)
- Chemically it is an amide (covalent) bond
- It forms as a result of the condensation between the  $\text{-COOH}$  group of one amino acid ( $N$ ) and the  $\text{-NH}_2$  group of the next amino acid ( $N+1$ )
- Note the loss of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in forming the bond

The details of how the cell actually produces the peptide bond will be discussed later in the protein synthesis lecture



# Polypeptides

- Polypeptides are the single molecule that represents the polymer of amino acids
- They have a directionality
  - an amino terminus
    - also often written as N-terminus or  $\text{NH}_2$ -terminus
  - a carboxyl terminus
    - also often written as C-terminus or  $\text{COOH}$ -terminus
  - usually sequences are written left to right where the left end is the N-terminus and the right is the C-terminus
- Polypeptides are synthesized from the N-terminus to the C-terminus as well

# Protein Structure

Proteins have four levels of structure

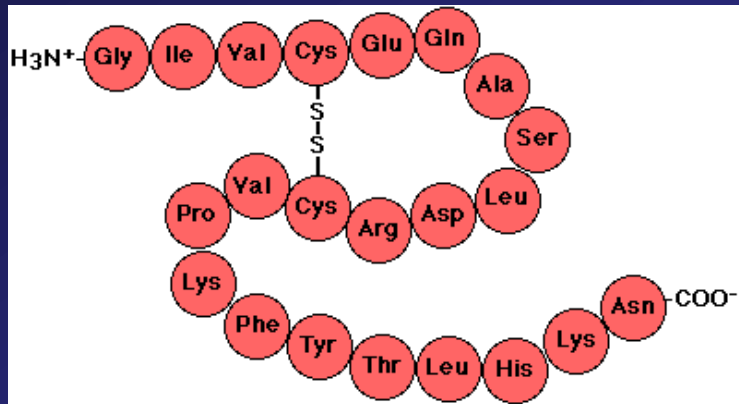
- Primary (1°)
- Secondary (2°)
- Tertiary (3°)
- Quaternary (4°)

# Primary Structure of Proteins

- This is the amino acid sequence itself
- The amino acids and the order they appear have most, if not all, the information to direct the folding of the polypeptide to its higher levels of structure

the amino acid sequence of  $\alpha_2$ -macroglobulin shown with its 1-letter abbreviations

amino acids of a short peptide shown with their 3-letter abbreviations



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1 mgknkllhps  lvllllvllp  tdasvsgkpq  ymvlvpsllh  tettekcvl  lsylnetvtv
61 saslesvrng  rslftdleae  ndvlhcvafa  vpksssnvee  mfltvqvkp  tqefkkrttv
121 mvknedslvf  vqtdksiykp  gqtvkfrvvs  mdenfhplne  liplyviqdp  kgnriaqwqs
181 fqlegglkqf  sfplssepfq  gsykvvvqkk  sggртеhpft  veefvlpkfe  vqvtvpkiit
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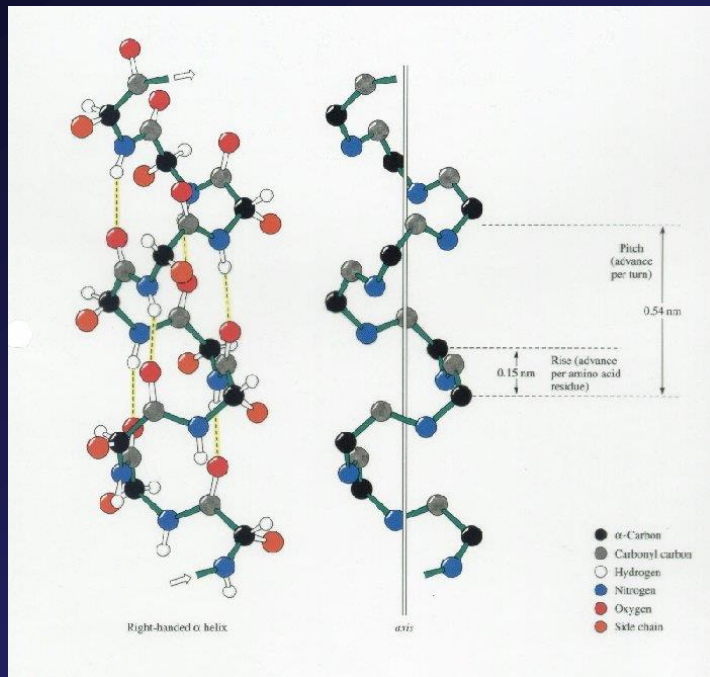
# Secondary Structure of Proteins

- These are special structural formations of the polypeptide that are created by atoms in the backbone of the polymer (polypeptide) forming hydrogen bonds with other atoms in the backbone
- **alpha ( $\alpha$ ) helix**  
the polypeptide forms a helical twist using the atoms in the "backbone," which form hydrogen bonds (H-bonds) with each other
- **beta ( $\beta$ ) sheet**  
the polypeptide forms long linear tracks with atoms in the "backbone," which form H-bonds in a way that forms a flat sheet; the polypeptide also forms loops or turns at the end so that it can do this; when the backbone has the same N $\rightarrow$ C directionality, they form parallel sheets, whereas if the directionality is opposing, they form less-strained antiparallel sheets



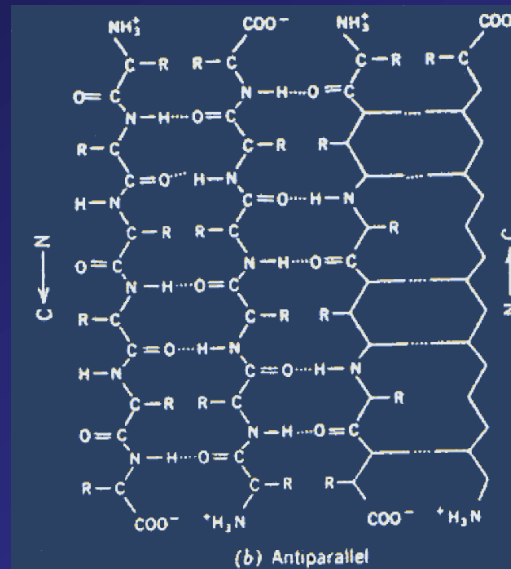
# 2° Structures

$\alpha$ -helix

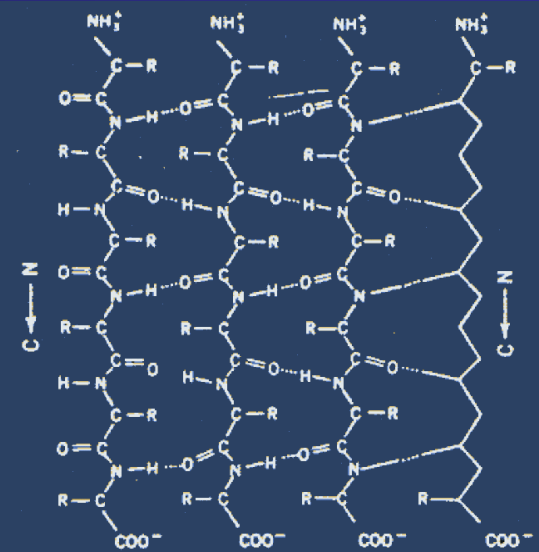


$\beta$ -sheet

anti-parallel



parallel



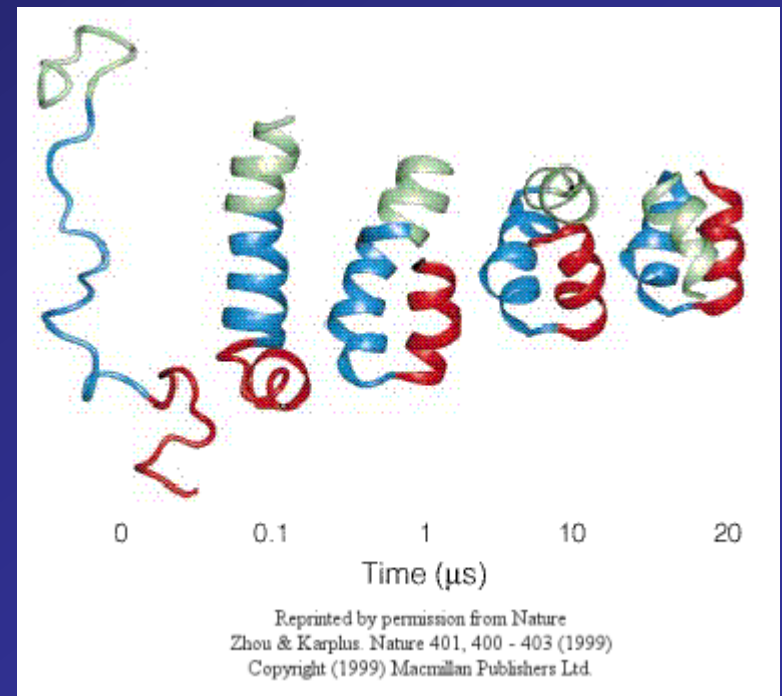
**Expected learning:** you should know that polypeptides have secondary structure and that this is alpha helix and beta sheet, and that atoms of the backbone form them by hydrogen bonding. You do not need to know the two forms of beta sheet or be able to diagram their chemical structures.

# Tertiary Structure of Proteins

Tertiary ( $3^\circ$ ) structure is created by a number of bond/interaction types (ionic, hydrophobic, H-bond, even covalent) that cause the polypeptide to fold, coil, curl, etc. The  $2^\circ$   $\alpha$ -helices and  $\beta$ -sheets are preserved

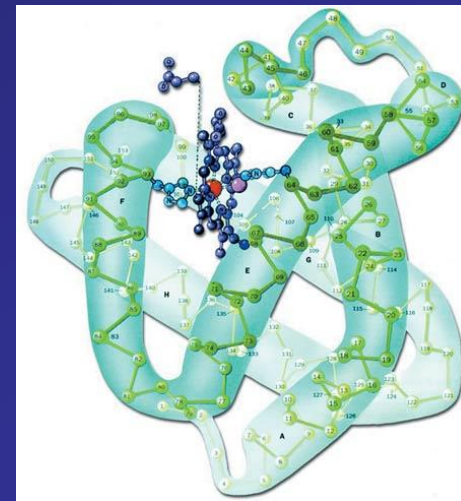
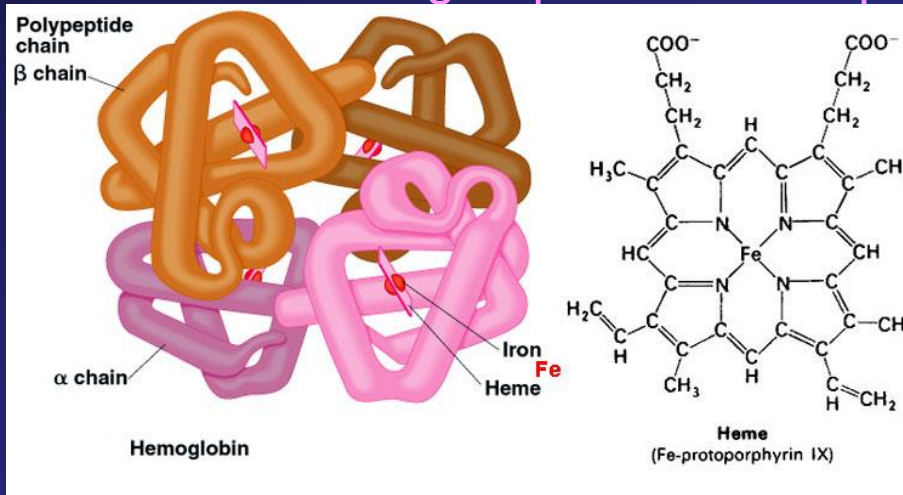
In the figure at right, molecular dynamics computations are used to show the formation of the tertiary structure of the villin polypeptide.

For a half century, scientists have been working on predicting  $3^\circ$  structure (folding) from  $1^\circ$  structure (the amino acid sequence)



# Quaternary Structure of Proteins

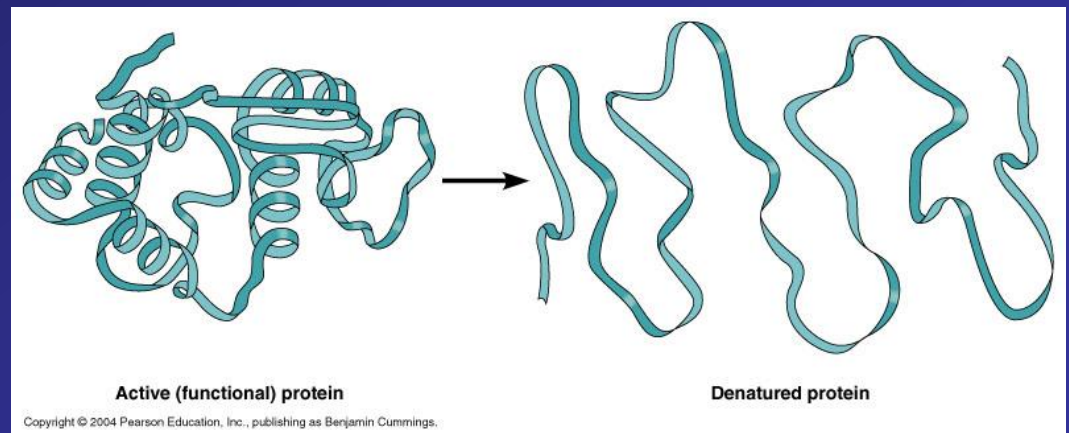
- After the polypeptide completes its three levels of structure, it may associate with other polypeptides that are identical to it or different from it
- These are multi-subunit proteins: that is, polypeptides that associate with identical or different polypeptides have 4° structure
- Hemoglobin (Hb) has 4° structure: two  $\alpha$  and two  $\beta$  subunits, each binding a heme group that coordinates  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$
- Myoglobin (Mb) [lower right] is an oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ )-binding protein like Hb with  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ -heme group but has no quaternary structure



# The Complete Protein

- Remember, the protein represents a single functional entity
- It might be composed of a single polypeptide or it might be composed of multiple subunits
- It also may be composed of other ions and/or molecules that are not proteinaceous (amino acid oligo- or polymers), such as metal cation cofactors or coenzymes
- Proteins must be folded into their "native" functional, active structure to work (see figure)
- When heated in boiling water for just a few minutes, proteins unfold into a "denatured" form that may not reform to the active

when you cook eggs,  
the formation of the whites  
is protein denaturation



# Various Functions (Purposes) of Proteins

- Enzymes
- Structural Proteins
- Membrane Proteins
  - receptors
  - channels
  - transporters
  - exchangers

# Enzymes

- Catalyze (perform) biochemical reactions
- Essential proteins in every metabolic pathway
  - biosynthesis
  - catabolism
- As catalysts, they lower the activation energy of the reaction
- Enzymes bind substrates (the reactants)
- Enzymes provide the products



# Enzyme Structure

- Substrate-binding site(s)

The amino acids that are involved with positioning the substrates in the enzyme for catalysis

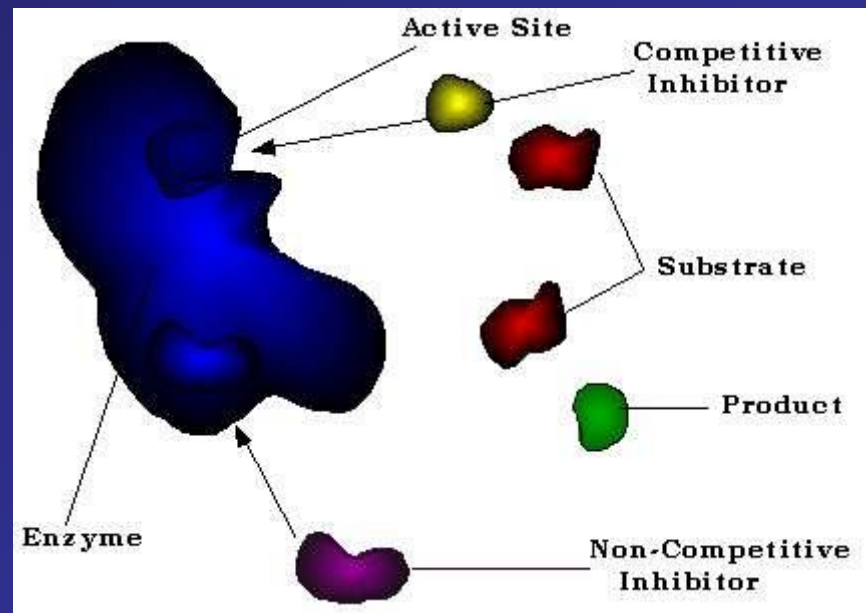
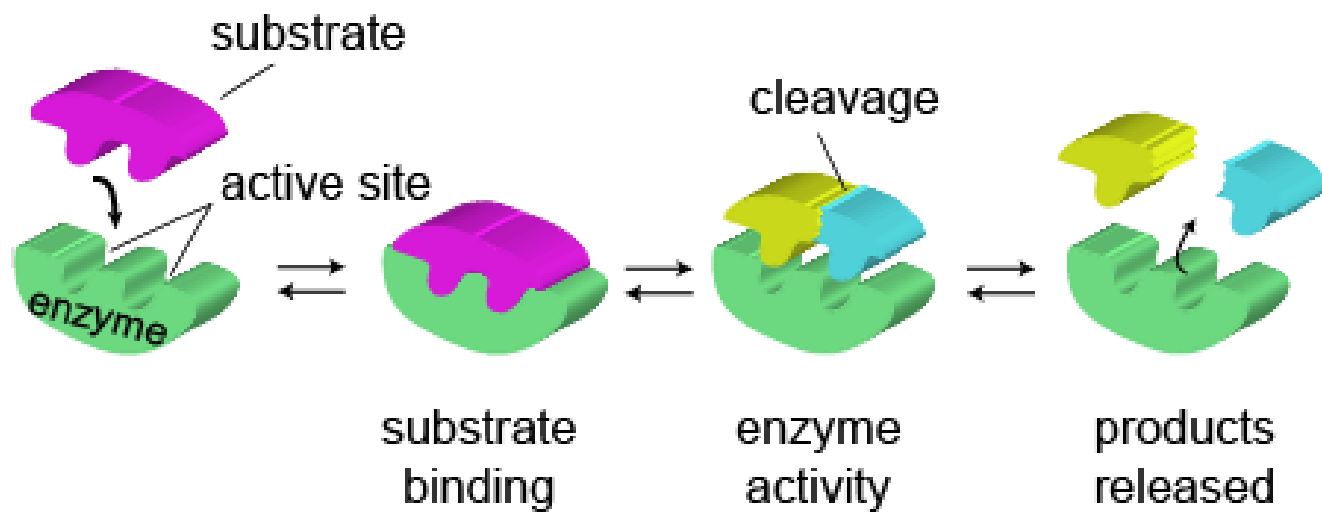
- Active site

This is the catalytic center, where the reaction takes place  
The amino acids that are involved in the reaction form the active site

- Regulatory sites

- Inhibitory: the amino acids that bind metabolites to stop or reduce the rate of enzyme's activity (negative feedback)
- Activating: the amino acids that bind metabolites that increase the rate of enzyme's activity (positive feedback)

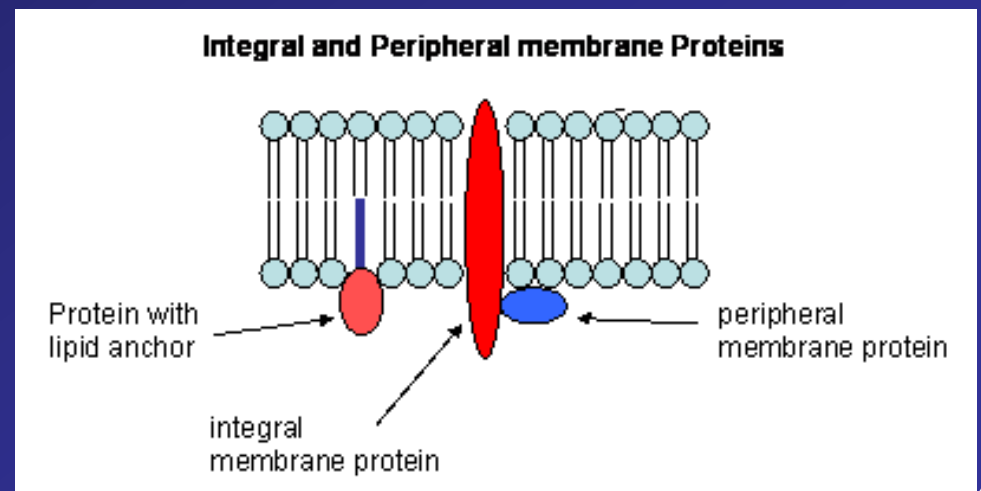
- Enzyme kinetics studies the rates of catalysis, the concentrations of all components, and the regulation by inhibitors and activators





# Membrane Proteins

- Proteins attached to ("peripheral") or embedded in ("integral") the cell membranes
- Integral membrane proteins that span the membrane include many types
  - Receptors
  - Transporters + Exchangers
  - Channels
- We'll talk about these protein types later



# Reading (Sources)

- Marieb: Chapter 2, pp 43-45, 49-53
- Becker's WotC: pp 41-53, 60-65
- Raven: Chapter 3.2, 3.4