FISH270

Lecture 4

Reminders

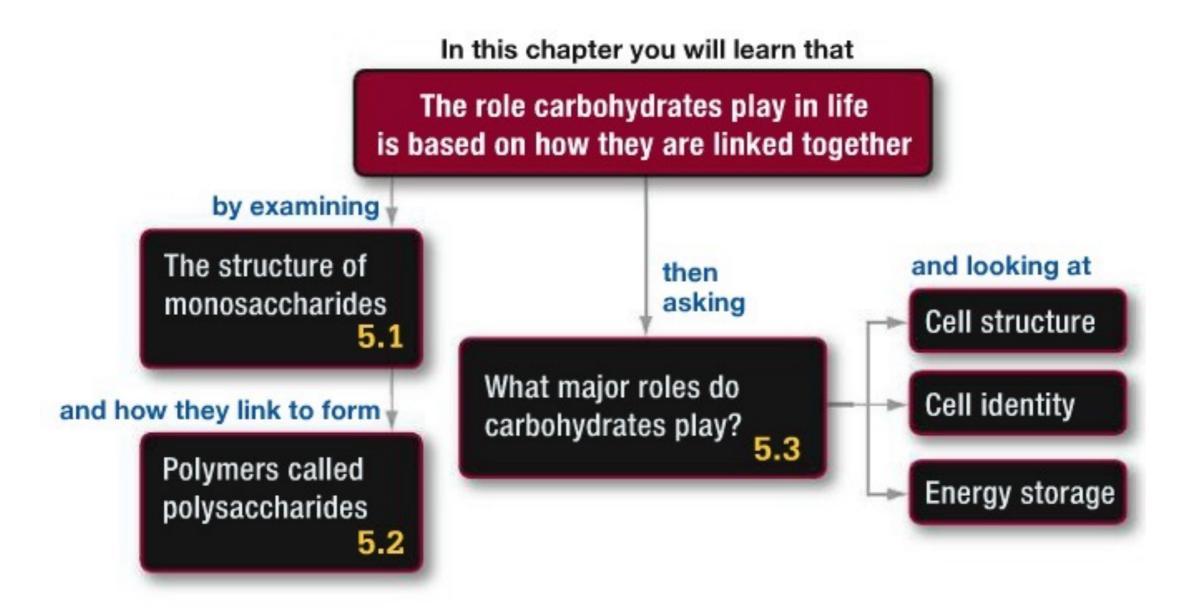
- Discussion Board
- Question Sets

Building blocks

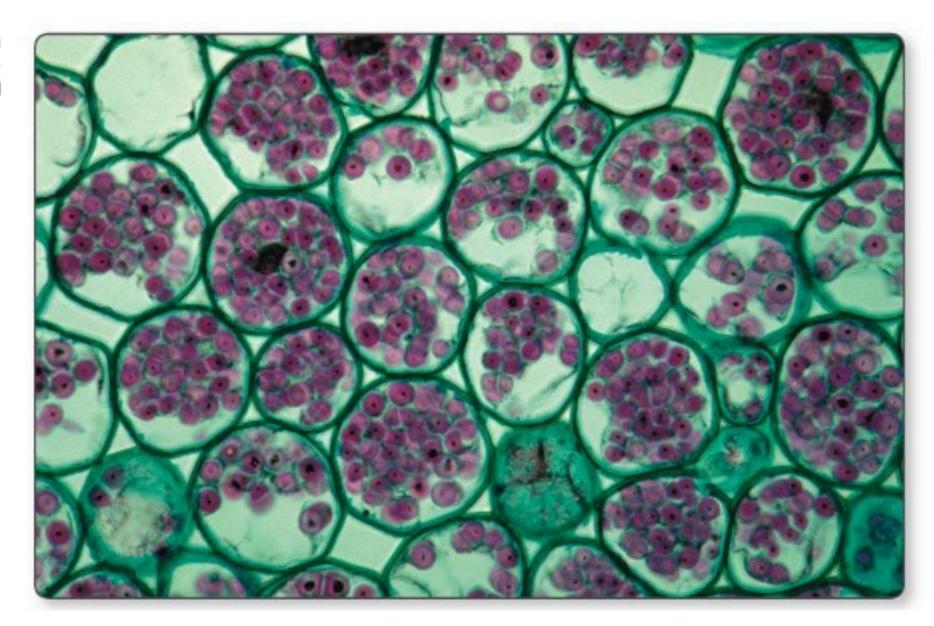
The week ahead

- Carbohydrates
- Animal Nutrition
- Photosynthesis

Carbohydrates



A cross section through a buttercup root. Cellulose-rich cell walls are stained green; starch-filled structures are stained purple. Cellulose is a structural carbohydrate; starch is an energy-storage carbohydrate.



Nucleic acids (DNA and RNA)



Deoxyadenosine, deoxycytidine, deoxyguanosine, deoxythymidine, adenosine, cytidine, guanosine, uridine



Fucose, galactose, glucose, glucuronic acid, mannose,

N-acetylgalactosamine, N-acetylglucosamine, neuraminic acid, xylose,
nononic acid, octulosonic acid, arabinose, arabinofuranose,
colitose, fructose, galactofuranose, galacturonic acid,
glucolactilic acid, heptose, legionaminic acid, mannuronic acid,
N-acetylfucosamine, N-acetylgalacturonic acid,
N-acetylmannosamine, N-acetylperosamine,
N-acetylgalacturonic acid,
N-acet

dA, dC, dG, dT, rA, rC, rG, rU

A, R, D, N, C, E, Q, G, H, I, L, K, M, F, P, S, T, W, Y, V
Fuc, Gal, Glc, GlcA, Man, GalNAc, GlcNAc, NeuAc, Xyl,
Kdn, Kdo, Ara, Araf, Col, Frc, Galf, GalUA, GlcLA, Hep,
Leg, ManUA, FucNAc, GalNAcUA, ManNAc, ManNAcUA,
MurNAc, PerNAc, QuiNAc, Per, Pse, Rha, Tal
Proteins
Fa, Gl, Glpl, Pk, Pl, Scl, Spl, Stl





Fatty acyls, glycerolipids, glycerophospholipids, polyketides, prenol lipids, saccharolipids, sphingolipids, sterol lipids

Alanine, arginine, aspartic acid, asparagine, cysteine, glutamic acid, glutamine, glycine, histidine, isoleucine, leucine, lysine, methionine, phenylalanine, proline, serine,

threonine, tryptophan, tyrosine, valine

Nucleic acids (DNA and RNA)



Deoxyadenosine, deoxycytidine, deoxyguanosine, deoxythymidine, adenosine, cytidine, guanosine, uridine

Glycans

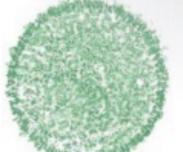


Fucose, galactose, glucose, glucuronic acid, mannose, N-acetylgalactosamine, N-acetylglucosamine, neuraminic acid, xylose, nononic acid, octulosonic acid, arabinose, arabinofuranose, colitose, fructose, galactofuranose, galacturonic acid, glucolactilic acid, heptose, legionaminic acid, mannuronic acid, N-acetylfucosamine, N-acetylgalacturonic acid, N-acetylmannosamine, N-acetylmannosaminuronic acid, N-acetylmuramic acid, N-acetylperosamine, N-acetylquinovosamine, perosamine, pseudaminic acid, rhamnose, talose

info replication evolution

dA, dC, dG, dT, rA, rC, rG, rU

A, R, D, N, C, E, Q, G, H, I, L, K, M, F, P, S, T, W, Y, V Fuc, Gal, Glc, GlcA, Man, GalNAc, GlcNAc, NeuAc, Xyl, Kdn, Kdo, Ara, Araf, Col, Frc, Galf, GalUA, GlcLA, Hep, Leg, ManUA, FucNAc, GalNAcUA, ManNAc, ManNAcUA, MurNAc, PerNAc, QuiNAc, Per, Pse, Rha, Tal **Proteins** Fa., Gl, Glpl, Pk, Pl, Scl, Spl, Stl

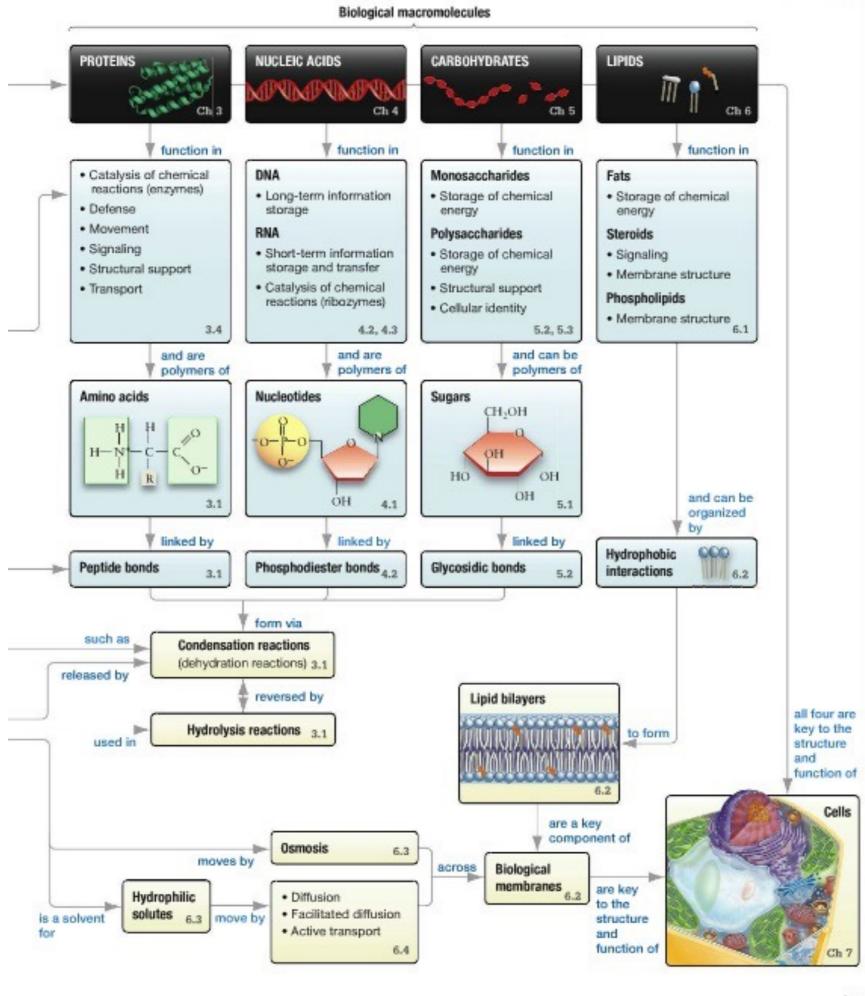


Alanine, arginine, aspartic acid, asparagine, cysteine, glutamic acid, glutamine, glycine, histidine, isoleucine, leucine, lysine, methionine, phenylalanine, proline, serine, threonine, tryptophan, tyrosine, valine

Lipids



Fatty acyls, glycerolipids, glycerophospholipids, polyketides, prenol lipids, saccharolipids, sphingolipids, sterol lipids



Big Picture

Monosaccharides Vary in Structure

- Monosaccharide monomers are simple sugars that structurally vary in four primary ways:
 - Location of the carbonyl group
 - Aldose: found at the end of the monosaccharide
 - Ketose: found in the middle of the monosaccharide
 - Number of carbon atoms present

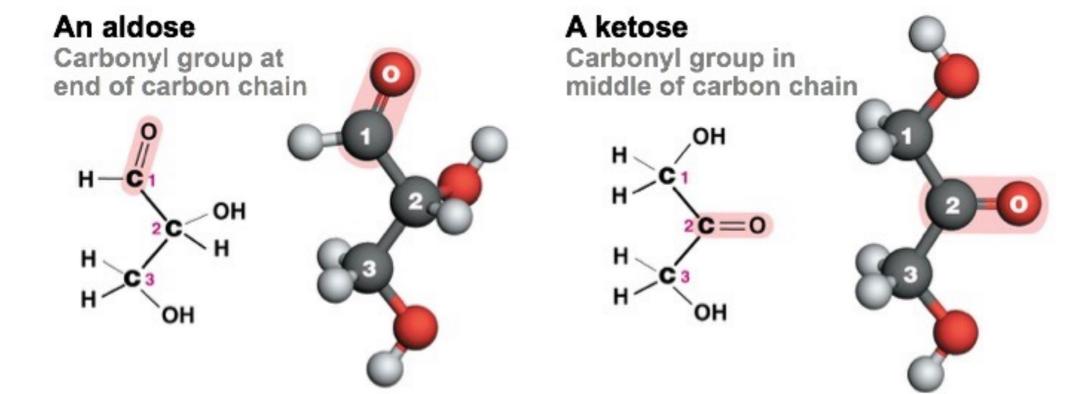
- Triose: three

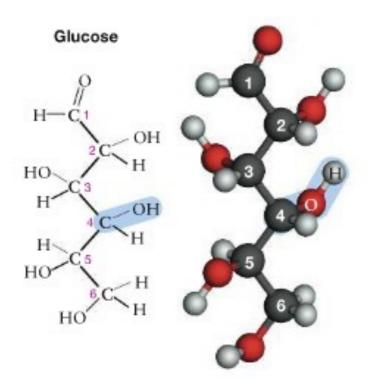
– Pentose: five

Hexose: six

Monosaccharides Vary in Structure

- Spatial arrangement of their atoms
 - Different arrangement of the hydroxyl groups
- Linear and alternative ring forms
 - Sugars tend to form ring structures in aqueous solutions





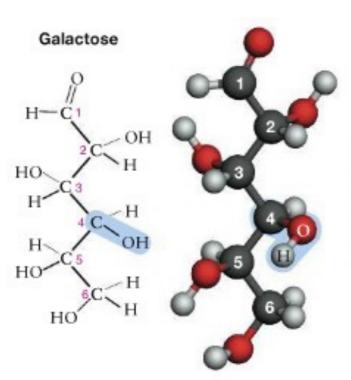
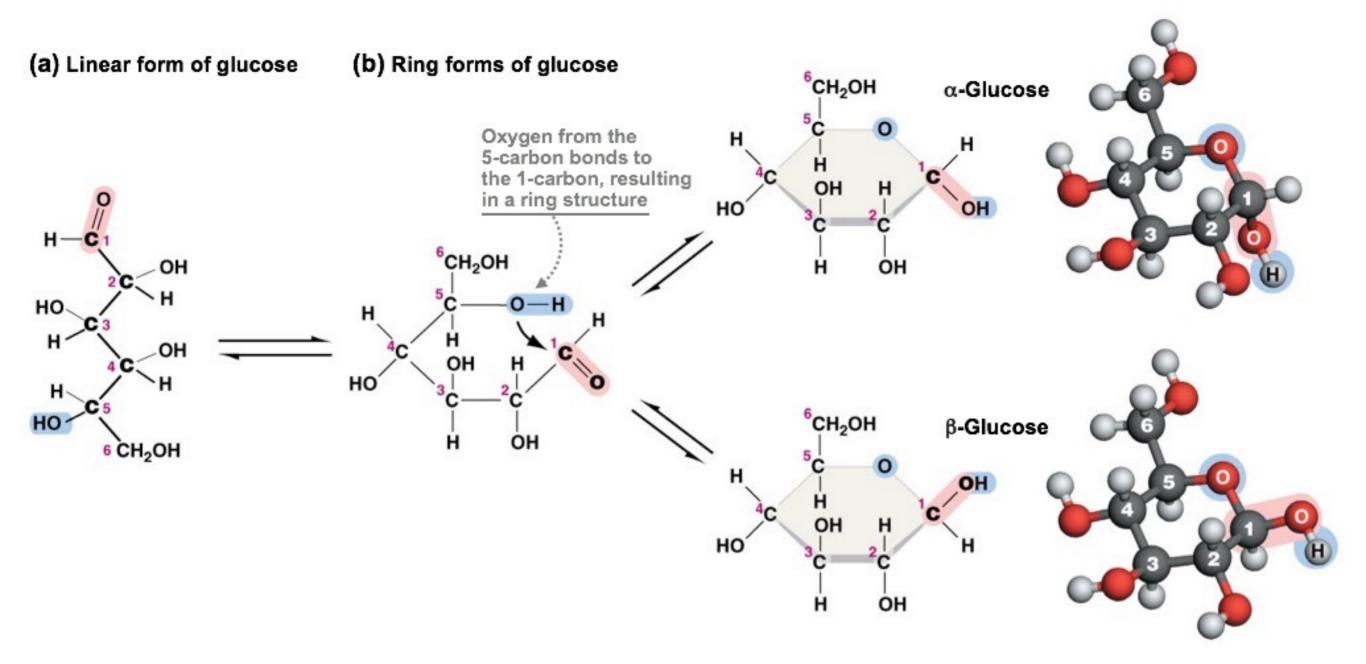


FIGURE 5.2 Sugars May Vary in the Configuration of Their Hydroxyl Groups. The two six-carbon sugars shown here vary only in the spatial orientation of their hydroxyl groups on carbon number 4.

✓ EXERCISE Mannose is a six-carbon sugar that is identical to glucose, except that the hydroxyl (–OH) group on carbon number 2 is switched in orientation. Circle carbon number 2 in glucose and galactose; then draw the structural formula of mannose.

catalyzed reaction. This example underscores a general theme: Even seemingly simple changes in structure—like the location of a single hydroxyl group—can have enormous consequences for function. This is because molecules interact in precise ways, based on their shape.



Summary of Monosaccharide Structure

- Distinct monosaccharides exist
- Because so many aspects of their structure are variable
 - Aldose or ketose placement of the carbonyl group
 - Variation in carbon number
 - Different arrangements of hydroxyl groups in space
 - Alternative ring forms
- Each monosaccharide has a unique structure and function

check your understanding



If you understand that . . .



- Simple sugars differ from each other in three respects:
 - 1. the location of their carbonyl group,
 - 2. the number of carbon atoms present, and



- the spatial arrangement of their atoms particularly the relative positions of hydroxyl (-OH) groups.
- ✓ You should be able to . . .

Draw the structural formula of a three-carbon monosaccharide (C₃H₆O₃) in linear form and then draw three other sugars that illustrate the three differences listed above.

Answers are available in Appendix A.

The Structure of Polysaccharides

- Polysaccharides, or complex carbohydrates, are polymers of monosaccharide monomers
- The simplest polysaccharides are disaccharides
 - Comprised of two monosaccharide monomers
 - The monomers can be identical or different
- Simple sugars polymerize when
 - A condensation reaction occurs
 - Between two hydroxyl groups
 - Resulting in a covalent bond called a glycosidic linkage

Polysaccarides

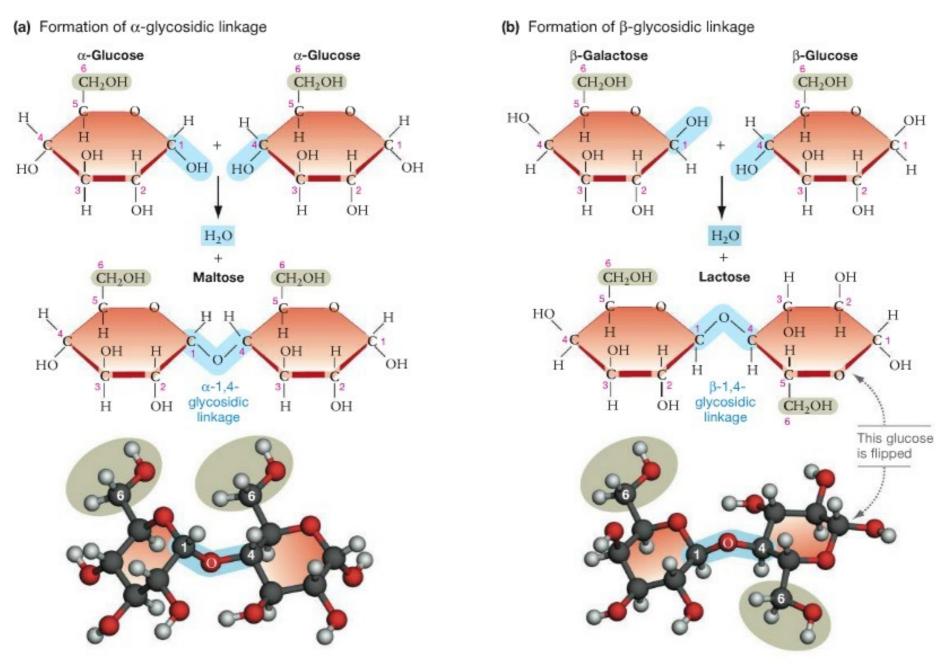


FIGURE 5.4 Monosaccharides Polymerize through Formation of Glycosidic Linkages. A glycosidic linkage occurs when hydroxyl groups on two monosaccharides undergo a condensation reaction. Maltose and lactose are disaccharides.

Types of Polysaccharides

- 1. Plants store sugar as starch
 - Mixture of branched (amylopectin) and unbranched (amylose) α-glucose polymer
- 2. Animals store sugar as glycogen
 - Highly branched α -glucose polymer
- 3. Cellulose: a structural polymer found in plant cell walls
 - Polymer of β-glucose monomers

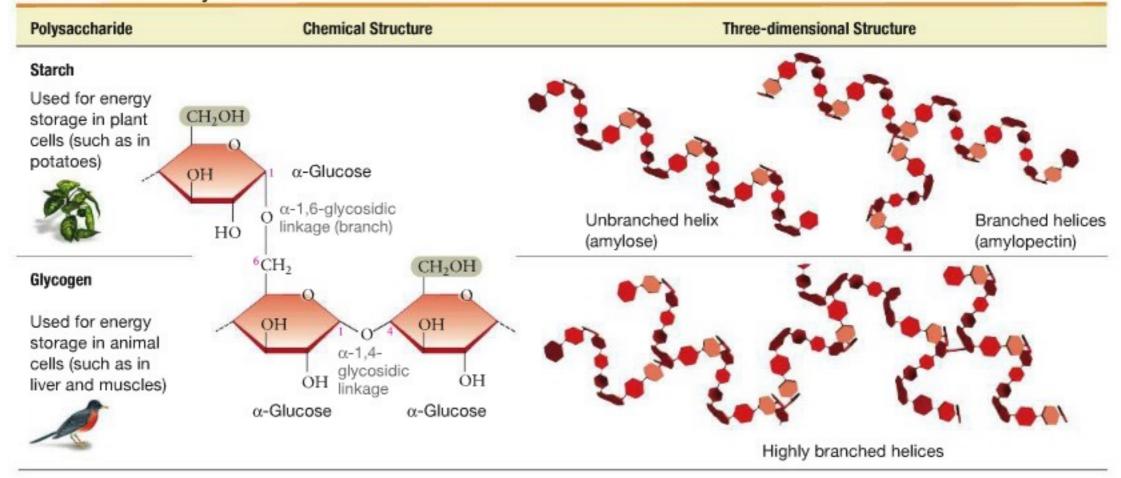
Types of Polysaccharides

- 4. Chitin: a structural polymer found in fungi cell walls, some algae, and many animal exoskeletons
 - Comprised of N-acetylglucosamine (NAc) monomers
- Peptidoglycan: structural support for bacterial cell walls
 - Backbones of alternating monosaccharides

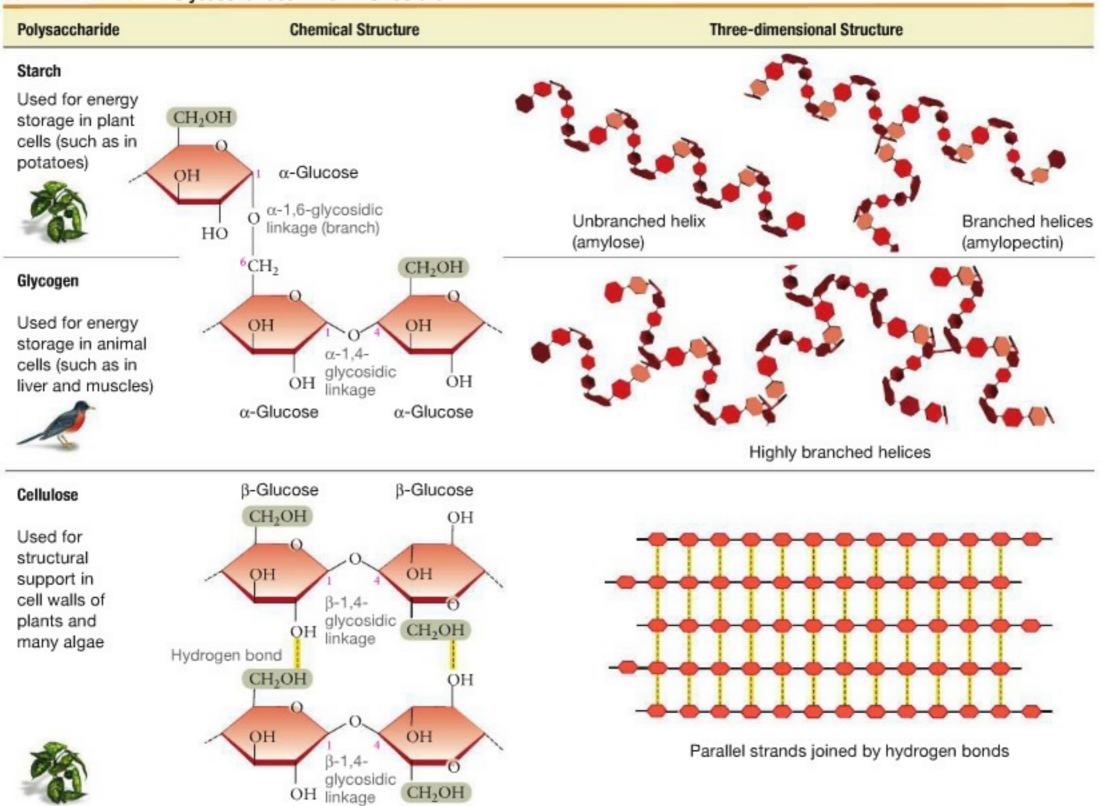
Polysaccharides

- Starch
- Glycogen
- Cellulose
- Chitin
- Peptidoglycan

SUMMARY TABLE 5.1 Polysaccharides Differ in Structure



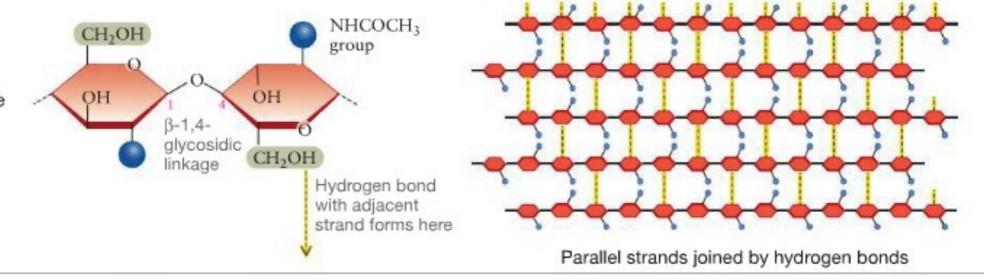
Polysaccharides Differ in Structure **SUMMARY TABLE 5.1**



CH₂OH

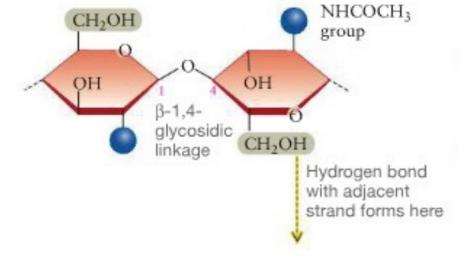
Chitin

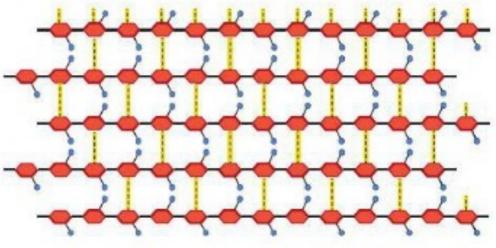
Used for structural support in the cell walls of fungi and the external skeletons of insects and crustaceans



Chitin

Used for structural support in the cell walls of fungi and the external skeletons of insects and crustaceans



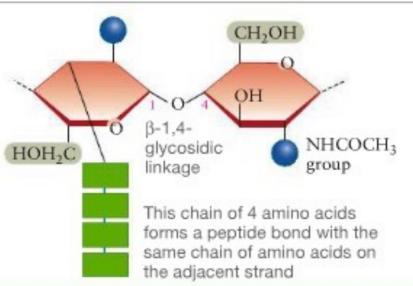


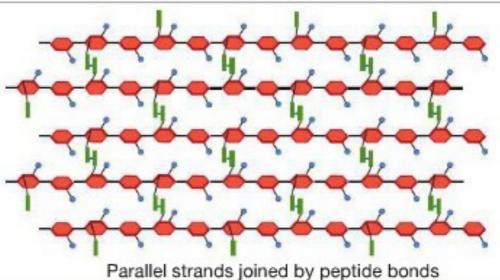
Parallel strands joined by hydrogen bonds

Peptidoglycan

Used for structural support in bacterial cell walls







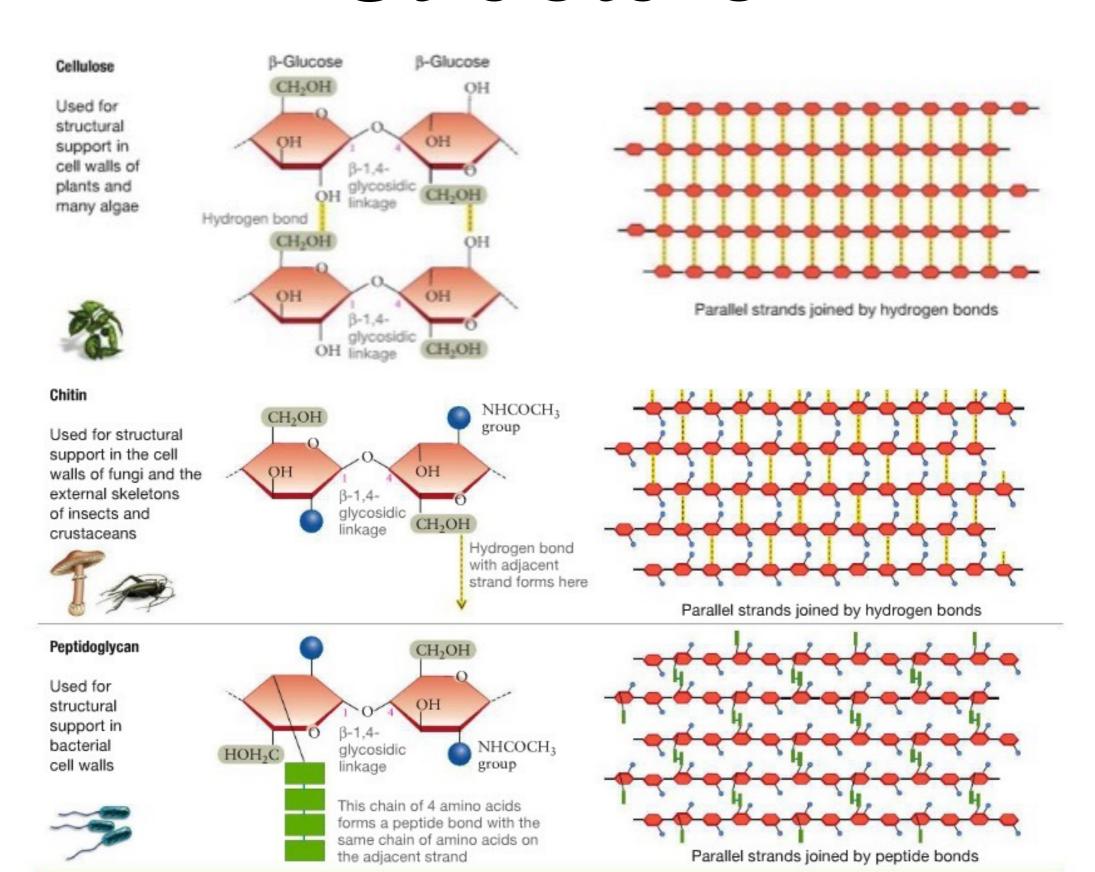
What Do Carbohydrates Do?

- Precursors to larger molecules
- Provide fibrous structural materials
- Indicate cell identity
- Store chemical energy

Carbohydrates Can Provide Structural Support

- They provide fibrous structural materials
 - Water is excluded and the fibers tend to be insoluble.
- Due to the strong interactions between strands consisting of β-1,4-glycosidic linkages
- The absence of water within these fibers makes their hydrolysis more difficult
- As a result, the structural polysaccharides are resistant to degradation and decay

Structure



Carbohydrates: Cell Identity

- Carbohydrates indicate cell identity
- Display information on the outer surface of cells in the form of glycoproteins
 - Proteins joined to carbohydrates by covalent bonds
- Glycoproteins are key molecules in
 - Cell–cell recognition
 - Each cell in your body has glycoproteins on its surface
 - Identify it as part of your body
 - Cell–cell signaling

Cell Identity

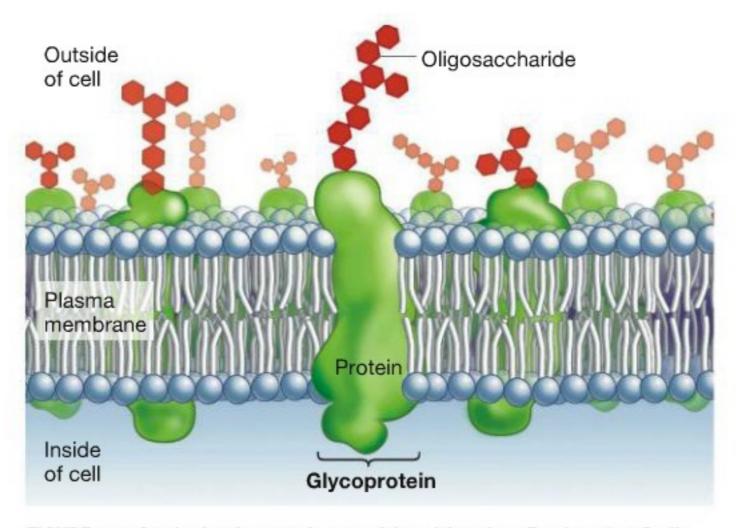


FIGURE 5.5 Carbohydrates Are an Identification Badge for Cells.

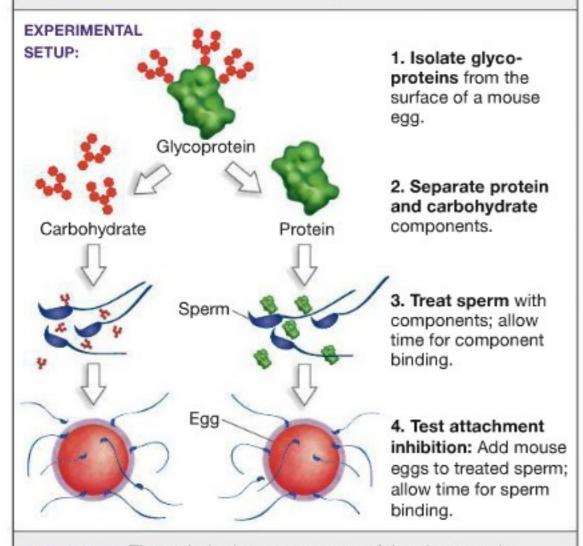
Glycoproteins contain sugar groups that project outside the cell from the surface of the plasma membrane enclosing the cell. These sugar groups have distinctive structures that identify the type or species of the cell.

RESEARCH

QUESTION: What part of surface glycoproteins do sperm recognize when they attach to eggs?

HYPOTHESIS: Sperm attach to the carbohydrate component.

NULL HYPOTHESIS: Sperm attach to the protein component.



PREDICTION: The carbohydrate component of the glycoprotein will bind to sperm and block their attachment to eggs.

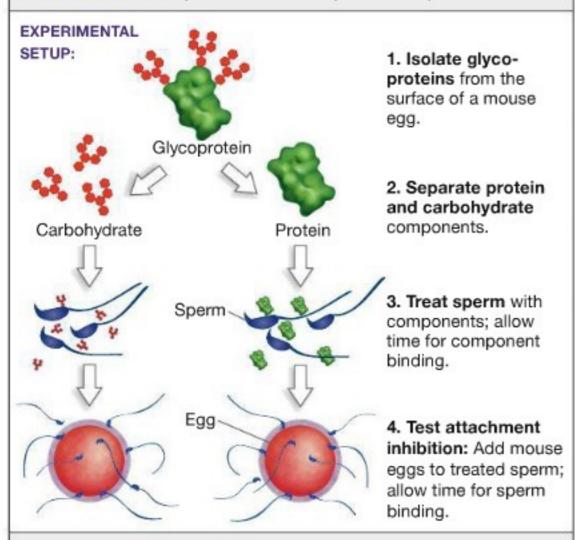
PREDICTION OF NULL HYPOTHESIS: The protein component of the glycoprotein will block sperm attachment to eggs.

RESEARCH

QUESTION: What part of surface glycoproteins do sperm recognize when they attach to eggs?

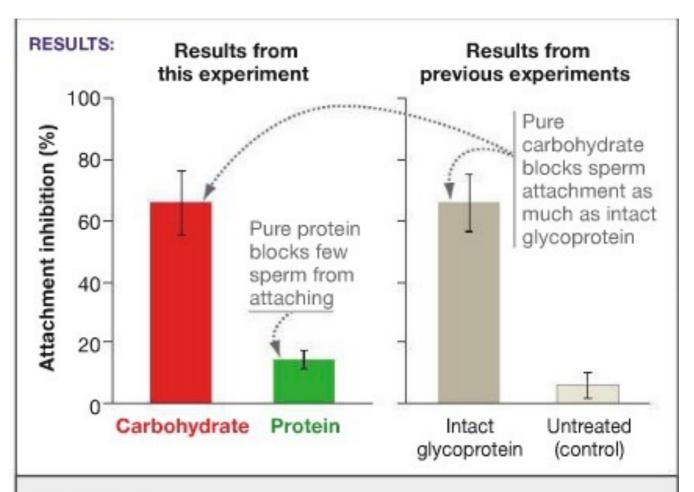
HYPOTHESIS: Sperm attach to the carbohydrate component.

NULL HYPOTHESIS: Sperm attach to the protein component.



PREDICTION: The carbohydrate component of the glycoprotein will bind to sperm and block their attachment to eggs.

PREDICTION OF NULL HYPOTHESIS: The protein component of the glycoprotein will block sperm attachment to eggs.



CONCLUSION: Sperm recognize and bind to the carbohydrates of egg-surface glycoproteins when they attach to egg cells.

FIGURE 5.6 Carbohydrates Are Required for Cellular Recognition and Attachment.

SOURCES: Florman, H. M., K. B. Bechtol, and P. M. Wassarman. 1984. Enzymatic dissection of the functions of the mouse egg's receptor for sperm. *Developmental Biology* 106: 243–255. Also Florman, H. M., and P. M. Wassarman. 1985. O-linked oligosaccharides of mouse egg ZP3 account for its sperm receptor activity. *Cell* 41: 313–324.

✓ QUANTITATIVE How would the bars change in the graph if sperm attachment required only the protein portion of egg glycoproteins?

Energy Storage

Carbohydrates and Energy Storage

- Carbohydrates store chemical energy
- They also provide chemical energy in cells
- In chemical evolution
 - Kinetic energy of sunlight and heat were converted into chemical energy stored in the bonds of H₂CO and HCN
 - Today, most sugars are produced via photosynthesis
 - A key process that transforms the energy of sunlight into the chemical energy of C–H bonds in carbohydrates

Carbohydrates and Energy Storage

- Carbohydrates have more free energy than CO₂
 - Electrons in C–H bonds and C–C bonds are shared more equally
 - Held less tightly than they are in C–O bonds

Energy Storage

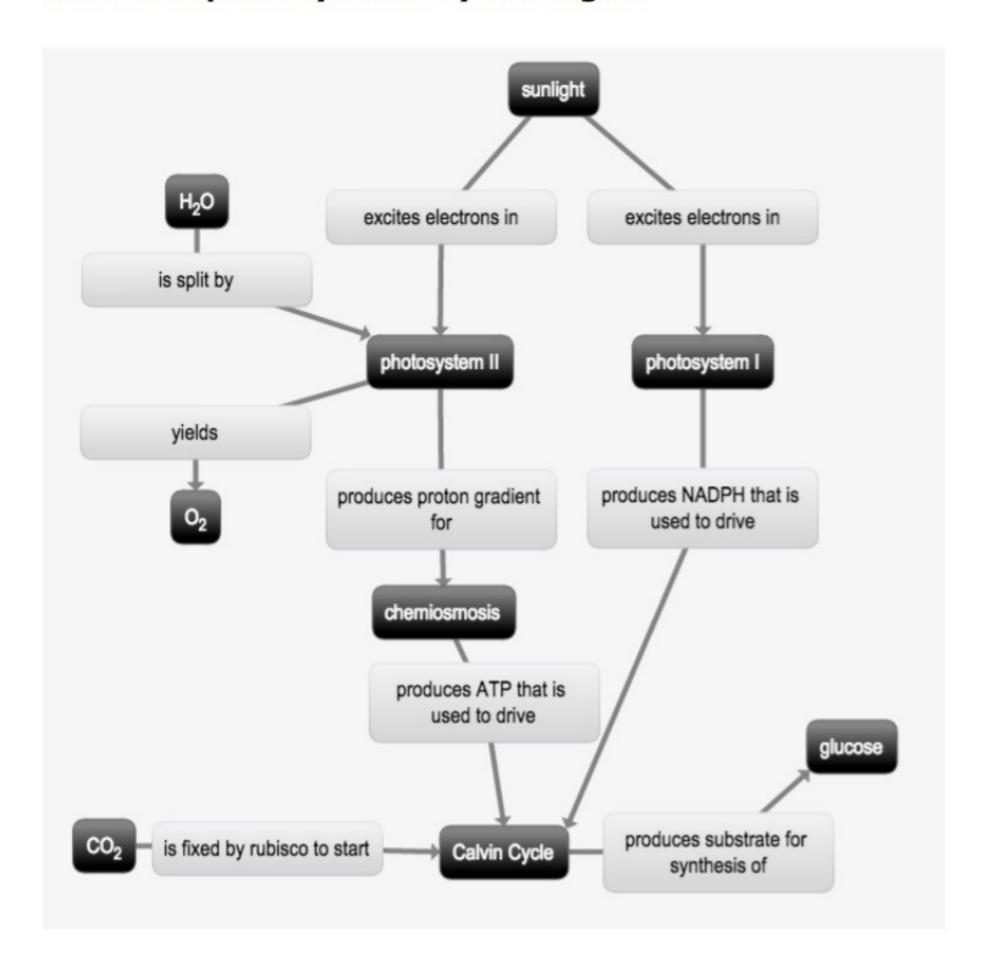
Photosynthesis

 $CO_2 + H_2O + sunlight \longrightarrow (CH_2O)_n + O_2$

where (CH₂O)_n represents a carbohydrate. The key to understanding the energy conversion that is taking place in this reaction is to compare the positions of the electrons in the reactants to those in the products.

- The electrons in the C=O bonds of carbon dioxide and the C=O bonds of carbohydrates are held tightly because of oxygen's high electronegativity. Thus, they have relatively low potential energy.
- The electrons involved in the C-H bonds of carbohydrates are shared equally because the electronegativity of carbon and hydrogen is about the same. Thus, these electrons have relatively high potential energy.
- Electrons are also shared equally in the carbon-carbon C-C bonds of carbohydrates—meaning that they, too, have relatively high potential energy.

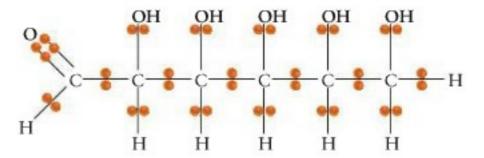
How does photosynthesis yield sugar?



(a) Carbon dioxide



(b) A carbohydrate



(c) A fatty acid (a component of fat molecules)

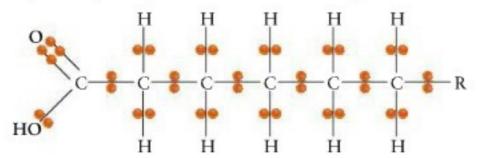


FIGURE 5.7 In Organisms, Potential Energy Is Stored in C-H and C-C Bonds. (a) In carbon dioxide, the electrons involved in covalent bonds are held tightly by oxygen atoms. (b) In carbohydrates such as the sugar shown here, many of the covalently bonded electrons are held equally between C and H atoms. (c) The fatty acids found in fat molecules have more C-H bonds and fewer C-O bonds than carbohydrates do. ("R" stands for the rest of the molecule.)

✓ EXERCISE Circle the bonds in this diagram that have high potential energy.

Because fats and other lipids contain more C-H bonds than do carbohydrates such as starch and sugars, fats provide over twice the energy per gram. Specifically, carbohydrates and proteins provide about 4 kcal/g, and fats provide about 9 kcal/g.

Starch and Glycogen Are Hydrolyzed to Release Glucose

- The hydrolysis of α-glycosidic linkages in glycogen is catalyzed by the enzyme phosphorylase
 - Most animal cells contain phosphorylase
 - They can readily break down glycogen to provide glucose
- The α-glycosidic linkages in starch are hydrolyzed by amylase enzymes
 - Amylases play a key role in carbohydrate digestion

Energy Stored in Glucose Is Transferred to ATP

- When a cell needs energy, carbohydrates participate in
 - Exergonic reactions that synthesize adenosine triphosphate (ATP):

$$CH_2O + O_2 + ADP + P_i \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O + ATP$$

- The free energy in ATP is used to drive endergonic reactions and perform cell work
- Carbohydrates contain a large number of C–H bonds
 - These bonds have high free energy
- Fatty acids have even more C–H bonds
 - They have more free energy than carbohydrates

How Do Carbohydrates Store Energy?

- Starch and glycogen are efficient energy-storage molecules
 - The α-linkages are readily hydrolyzed
- The β-linkages of structural carbohydrates resist enzymatic degradation
- The enzyme amylase catalyzes hydrolysis of α-glycosidic linkages in glycogen

How Do Carbohydrates Store Energy?

- The enzyme phosphorylase catalyzes hydrolysis of α-glycosidic linkages in starch
 - α-glycosidic linkages in glycogen and starch, respectively
- The released glucose subunits can then be used in the production of ATP

Energy Stored in Glucose Is Used to Make ATP

- When a cell needs energy
 - Reactions lead to the breakdown of the glucose
 - They also capture released energy through synthesis of the nucleotide adenosine triphosphate (ATP)
- The chemical energy stored in the C–H and C–C bonds of carbohydrate is transferred to a new bond linking a third phosphate group to ADP to form ATP
- Carbohydrates store chemical energy
- ATP makes chemical energy useful to the cell

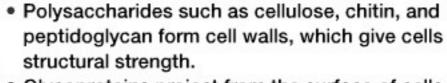
check your understanding



If you understand that . . .



 Carbohydrates provide building blocks for the synthesis of more complex compounds.



- Glycoproteins project from the surface of cells. They
 provide a molecular badge that identifies the cell's
 type or species.
- Starch and glycogen store sugars for later use in reactions that produce ATP. Sugars contain large amounts of chemical energy because they contain carbon atoms that are bonded to hydrogen atoms or other carbon atoms. The C-H and C-C bonds have high potential energy because the electrons are shared equally by atoms with low electronegativity.

✓ You should be able to . . .

- Identify two aspects of the structures of cellulose, chitin, and peptidoglycan that correlate with their function as structural molecules.
- Describe how the carbohydrates you ate during breakfast today are functioning in your body right now.

Answers are available in Appendix A.