



Biochemistry Department



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم



King Saud University College of Science Department of Biochemistry



General Biochemistry-I (BCH 201)

Chapter 1: Introductory Biochemistry

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http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/75112



BCH 201 General Biochemistry-1

- Course Symbol & No. : BCH 201
- Credit Hours
- Prerequisite
- Class schedule
- Class location
- Examinations

- : 3 (3+0)
- : CHEM103
- : Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday
- 1:00 pm to 1:50 pm.
- : AA35 building No. 5
- : Continuous Assessment Tests (CAT)
- First (30 Marks) Sun, 10/05/1436h 01/03/2015
- Second (30Marks) Tues, 07/6/1436h 26/4/2015
- Final (40 Marks)



• To familiarize students with knowledge of:

- i. basic biochemistry needed for higher level courses
- ii. chemical concepts with particular reference to chemical process found within living cells (chemical bonds, functional groups, equilibrium, and energy)
- iii. structure and properties of water and buffers
- iv. building blocks of cellular components
- v. structure and properties of amino acids, peptide bond
- vi. structure and properties of proteins and structural & functional classification of proteins
- vii. introduction to enzymes and metabolism
- viii. Introduction to sugars and carbohydrates
- ix. Introduction to fatty acids and lipids



Course Description (1_cont.)

Topics	Weeks	Lectures
Definition and Introduction: General introduction to Biochemistry Elements: Atoms (C, O, H, etc) and essential elements (Mg, Ca, etc), versus earth composition. Biomolecules: H ₂ O, amino acids, saccharides, nucleic acids, lipids, vitamins, and heme) Assembly of molecules (proteins, DNA, RNA, carbohydrates, membranes) Biochemistry pathways: information (molecular biology) versus Structural (chemistry); Living versus nonliving Organelles, cells and organisms	2	1-6
Chemical Concepts- importance to biochemistry: Chemical bonds: Covalent, ionic, hydrogen bond, hydrophobic interactions, Van der Waals interactions. Functional groups. Chemical Equilibrium Free Energy	2.66	7-14
Structure and Properties of water: Structure of water. Hydrogen bonding and solubility of molecules. Surface tension. Expansion upon freezing. High boiling point. Ionization of H ₂ O Weak acids and bases (pH and pK and Handerson Hasselbalch equation Buffer systems	1.66	15-19
1 st Continuous Assessment Test	0.33	20



Course Description (2_cont.)

Topics	Weeks	Lectures
Amino acids:	2	21-26
Definition and types of amino acids		
Function of amino acids		
Functional groups in amino acids		
Structure and classification of standard amino acids		
Properties of amino acids (polarity; stereoisomerism; light absorption; ionization)		
Modification (hydroxylation; phosphorylation; methylation; disulfide bridges etc)		
Proteins:	2	27-32
Peptide Bonds (formation, structure and properties) and terminology; Amino acids residues versus		
polypeptide and proteins.		
Protein structure (primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary)		
Protein folding (amino acids \rightarrow secondary elements \rightarrow motifs \rightarrow domains \rightarrow subunits)		
Protein denaturation		
Structural classification of proteins (fibrous and globular proteins: representatives of all-alpha, all-		
beta and alpha/beta proteins)		
Functional classification of proteins: enzymes, immunoglobulins; transport $(O_2, fatty acids)$,		
regulatory (hormones etc), structural and movement, with examples		
Simple and complex proteins (metal ions, cofactors, lipids, carbohydrates etc)		
Introduction to enzymes and metabolism		
2 nd Continuous Assessment Test	0.33	33



Course Description (3_cont.)

Topics	Weeks	Lectures
Carbohydrates:	2	34-39
Definition and types of sugars		
Structure of monosaccharides and disaccharides		
Differences between polysaccharides (starch, glycogen and cellulose)		
Lipids:	1	40-42
Structure of fatty acids (saturated vs unsaturated f.a.)		
Types of lipids		
Chemical properties of fatty acids		
Physical properties of fatty acids		
Structure of cell membrane		
Final exam		



Books

• Biochemistry by Stryer

(latest edition)

• Lehninger: Principles of Biochemistry

by DL. Nelson and MI. Cox (latest edition)

• Biochemistry.

by D. Voet and J. Voet (latest edition)









What is Biochemistry?

• Biochemistry is the chemistry of the living cell.

- It describes in molecular terms the structures, mechanisms, function and chemical processes shared by all living organisms.
- It provides fundamental understanding of the molecular basis for the function of living things.
- It provides a broad understanding of the molecular basis of life.
- It explains what goes wrong to produce a disease.
- Examples:
 - The chemical structures of biomolecules.
 - Interactions leading to formation of supermacro-molecules, cells, multicellular tissues, and organisms.
 - Bioenergetics of the reactions in the cell.
 - Storage and transmission of information.
 - Chemical changes during reproduction, aging, and death of cells.
 - Regulation of chemical reactions inside living cells.



Structure-function relationship:

- Structural Chemistry for proteins, carbohydrates, DNA/RNA, lipids, and every other component in the cell.
- Functions of these components
- Relationship between structure and function.

Metabolism:

- Catabolism: Pathways of chemical reactions leading to the breakdown of molecules
- Anabolism: pathways of chemical reactions leading to synthesis of molecules.
- Bioenergetics of reaction as well as management of cellular Energy.

Cellular communication

- Storage, transmission, and expression of genetic information
 - DNA replication and protein synthesis.
- Cell-cell communication & interaction
- Signal transduction



History of Biochemistry





- **The matter** is anything that has mass and volume (occupies space). -In chemical point of view matter is made up of atoms.
 - -Atoms are formed from nucleus (having protons and neutrons) and circulating negatively charges electrons.
 - -Atoms having specific numbers of protons form elements
 - -There are 118 elements on the periodic table 92 of them are natural.
 - -All living and non-living matter are made of elements.
 - -Group of elements can form molecules of compounds.

In biochemistry, we are interested in the chemical structure and reactions in living cells.

So, the introduction for biochemistry is the study of the living cell.



The origin of Life

- Living matter consists of some chemical elements.
- Those elements bind together to form molecules.
- Most of compounds in Biological systems are organic compounds (have Carbon)
- Chemical compounds have reactive functional groups that participate in biological structure and biochemical reactions.
- Polymerization of organic molecules form more complex structure by the mean of condensation reaction with the removal of water.
- The key of origin of living matter is the formation of membranes that separate the critical molecules required for replication and energy capture.
- Larger polymers of molecules form macromolecules that all together provide biological specificity of the living matter. E.g. carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, genetic material (DNA and RNA) etc.



Biological Hierarchy: Simple Molecules are used to Build Complex Structures

Elements \rightarrow Molecule \rightarrow Cell \rightarrow Tissue \rightarrow Organ \rightarrow Organism \rightarrow Population \rightarrow Species \rightarrow Biosphere

- Relative sizes (or ranges) for some biological things, and the resolving power of available tools!
- •Note that the scale is logarithmic.
- •Remember: $1 \text{ m} = 10 \text{ dm} = 100 \text{ cm} = 1000 \text{ mm} = 10^{6} \text{ \mu m} = 10^{9} \text{ nm} = 10^{10} \text{ A}^{\circ}$





Cell Theory

The cell theory is proposed and developed in the 1600-1800s. The main parts of the cell theory today are:

- Cell is the smallest unit of living matter.
 - Don't confuse this with electrons, protons, atoms, proteins, DNA, etc. These are lifeless molecules
- Cell is the structural & functional unit of all organs and/or organisms.
- All organisms are composed of one or more types of cells.
- All cells come from pre-existing cells by division.
 - Spontaneous generation <u>does not occur</u>.
 - Cell is capable of reproduction.
- Cells contains hereditary information which is passed from cell to cell during cell division.
- All energy flow (metabolism & biochemistry) of life occurs within cells.



- Cells from different organisms have different shapes, structures, and sizes.
- All cells have protoplasm.
- They are usually divided into two broad groups: Eukaryotes and Prokaryotes.
 - Eukaryotic cells (Eu = true; kary = nucleus): have a membrane-bound nucleus and a variety of organelles and internal membranes.
 - Prokaryotic cells (Pro = before) are smaller (a general rule) and lack much of the internal compartmentalization and complexity of eukaryotic cells; No membrane-bound nucleus or other organelles.
 - Viruses do not always conform to cell theory:
 - one or more of the basic cell components is missing.
 - Inside the host cell, viruses are living matters.



Sizes and Shapes of Cells

Notice: Cells in the figure is represented according to the proportion of its size using the suitable scale.





Prokaryotes

- Prokaryotes; all in one!!
 - It shows a limited range of morphologies but very diverse metabolic capabilities.
- Prokaryotes are often single-celled organisms.
 - Do NOT have true nucleus or organelles.
 - Most have circular or "looped" DNA
 - lack much of the internal membranous compartmentalization
 - Mainly unicellular organisms
 - Prokaryotes are divided into two major lineage:
 - Eubacteria (true bacteria): inhabit soils, surface waters, and the tissues of other living or decaying organisms. Most of the well studied bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*, are eubacteria.
 - Archeabacteria (Greek *arche-*, "origin"): most inhabit extreme environments—salt lakes, hot springs, highly acidic bogs, and the ocean depths. It includes:
 - Methanogens (oxygen-free milieus)
 - Halophiles (require high concentrations of salt)
 - Thermophiles (live in hot regions, 80°C, in a pH< 2)



Prokaryotic Cells

Prokaryotes have different shapes:

- Rode-like (Bacillus)
- Round (Coccus)
- Thread-like (Spirillum)

The typical model of prokaryotes has:

- cell wall (capsule or pili),
- cell membrane,
- nucleoid region, Contains a single, simple, long circular DNA.
- Ribosomes (site of protein synthesis)
- Flagella (for movement)



Bacillus-

Coccus-









Eukaryotic Cells

- Eukaryotes are found in Animal, Plant, Protists, and Fungi kingdoms
 - Few eukaryotes are single-cell but the majority are multicellular organisms
 - So, not all unicellular organisms are eukaryotes because bacteria are unicellular prokaryotic organisms
 - On contrary, all multicellular organisms are eukaryotes
- Eukaryotic cells are complex cells (different sizes, shapes, and structures) and specialized but they all have:
 - Membrane-bound nucleus which contains the cell's genetic material; DNA
 - Organelles, each is surrounded by a membrane or two like lysosome, Golgi bodies, endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, etc
 - Eukaryotic DNA is organized in linear structures (chromosomes), associated with proteins (histones)



Generic Animal Cell (cont.)

Animals have a variety of cells that differ in shapes, structures, and sizes.A model structure is shown as follow:





- The animal cell is surrounded by lipid bilayer plasma membrane.
 The content inside the plasma membrane is called protoplasm. It contains many organelles and subcellular structures as:
 - Nucleus: contain the genetic materials and surrounded by porous nuclear membrane. It contains liquid called neucleoplasm.
 - **Ribosome:** the site of protein synthesis. It is a group of protein subunits and ribosomal RNA.
 - **Mitochondria:** the site of energy production. It is a double –walled organelle having many enzymes for energy production (The Power House). The inner membrane is highly folded to increase the area of energy production. The number of mitochondria increases as the energy needs increases.
 - Lysosome: the site of removal of cell degraded waste substances. It contains many digestive enzymes and it is known as suicide bag as it burst and its contents release to lyse the cell when the cell die.
 - Golgi Bodies, a membranous structure. It packages proteins into membrane-bound vesicles inside the cell before the vesicles are sent to their destination.
 - Endoplasmic reticulum (ER); a network of membranes that may carry ribosomes or not. It share in the synthesis and export of proteins and membrane lipids.
 - Centrosome; It presents only in animal cells and serves as the main microtubule organizing center of the animal cell as well as a regulator of cell-cycle progression.



Generic Plant Cell

A PLANT CELL

Ribosomes

Golgi

Nucleus

apparatus

0.5 µm

Plasmodesmata

25 nm

Free

-Rough endoplasmic

ribosomes

Plant cells is larger that animal cells and have some similarity with animal cells and differ in some specific plant structures like:

Organelles that present in plant cells but not in animal cells:

- External cell wall
- Chloroplast (for photosynthesis)
- Vacuoles (instead of lysosomes)
- Starch granules
- Thylakoids for ATP synthesis and
- Glyoxysome for glyoxylate cycle
- It DOESN'T have centrosome

reticulum 0.5 um Vacuole Compare and contrast between animal and ← Smooth plant cells (Similarities and differences) endoplasmic reticulum Compare and contrast between prokaryotes Cell wall Chloroplast Plasma and eukaryotes (Similarities and differences) 0.5 µm Mitochondrion membrane Peroxisome





Cell, tissue, organ https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HBvfBB_oSTc



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=B_zD3NxSsD8&x-yt-ts=1422411861&x-ytcl=84924572

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g4L_QO4WKtM









http://quizlet.com/10449142/st	tudy-guide-exam-2-cells-flas	<u>h-cards/</u>	
contains plastids	b- contain cell wall	c- contain cellulose	d- all of the above
Which organelle will use up or	xygen and give off carbon d	ioxide AND water?	
a) lysosome	b) Golgi	c) mitochondria	d) chloroplasts
Which organelle will give off o	oxygen and use up carbon d	ioxide?	
a) chloroplasts	b) rough ER	c) lysosomes	d) mitochondria
 c) an elongated bacterium that b d) groups of prokaryotic cells be Which organelle forms a memory 	became attached to a host egin to live in a small group s	haring products of metabolism	ort?
a) ER	b) mitochondria	c) golgi apparatus	d) lysosome
The will mostly pro a) rough ER	oduce vesicles: b) lysosome	c) mitochondria	e) Golgi
The eukaryotic cell is differen a) the amount of DNA present in c) in the production of daughter	t from prokaryotic cell divis n the cells cells	sion in all the following ways b) how the DNA is package d) the involvement of micro	except: ed otubules



Mitochondria are/synthezise:

A) structures involved in the breakdown of ATP C) involved in producing ATP for cellular energy

Lysosomes:

B)organelles involved in the synthesis of proteinsD) synthesize proteins for use outside the cell

A)have a highly alkaline internal environmentB) are used mainly for the cell to "commit suicide"C) contain digestive enzymes used to break down pathogens, damaged organelles, and whole cells

The major functions of the endoplas	smic reticulu	ım are	
A) hydrolysis, osmosis		B) detoxy, packaging	
C) synthesis, storage, transport		D) pinocytosis, phagocytosis	
According to cell theory:A) all organisms are composed of tisC) animals, not plants, are composed ofE) new cells arise only from preexisting	ssues. of cells. ng cells.	B) the smallest unit of life is a nucleus.D) multicellular organisms hve many cells.	
Compared with a eukaryotic cell, a A) lacks organelles	prokaryotic B) is larger.	cell: C) does not require energy.	D) is not alive
Which of the following is a prokary A) plant cell	otic cell? B) liver cell	C) muscle cell	D) bacterium
Which structure regulates passage of A) plasma membrane	of molecules B) nucleus	into and out of the cell? C) mitochondria	D) chloroplast

Organisms, Organs, & Organelle

Organism is a complete living entity

- Unicellular organisms such as Bacteria, Protists, etc (mostly prokaryotic).
- Multicellular organisms such as all animals and most plants. These organisms have different Levels of Cellular Organization, (mostly eukaryotic).
- The Level of Cellular Organization is arranged from lower to higher level as follows:
 - 1. Cells

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- 2. Tissues (Epithelia, Connective, Muscle, Nerve Tissue)
- ^{3.} Organs (Heart, skin, kidney, etc.)
- 4. Organ systems (circulatory, respiratory, digestive, etc)
- 5. Organisms (Human, bovine, etc)



There are 6 main Characteristics:

- 1- The highly organized Cells
- 2- Relation with energy
- 3- Grow and Reproduce with high fidelity
- 4- Interact with environment
- 5- Movement
- 6- Homeostasis



1-The highly organized Cells

- The cell is the building block of the living organisms.
- It is structurally complicated and highly organized.
- Cell group together to form tissue or organ to perform specific function.
 - Cell intricate internal structures like:
 - Biological structures that serve functional purposes, e.g.:
 - Nucleus:
 - Ribosome:
 - Mitochondria:
 - Iysosome:

State the function of each organelle.

- Many kinds of complicated chemical molecules like:
 - Proteins, DNA, RNA, carbohydrates, lipids, etc.



Properties of living Organisms

2- Relation with energy

Living organisms operate within the same laws of Thermodynamics that apply to physics and chemistry

All living organisms have the ability to:

Extract, Transform, Store, and Use ENERGY.

- First Law of Thermodynamics: "Energy can not be created or destroyed, but can be transformed".
 - Sun is the ultimate source of energy for all living things.
 - The energy in the sunlight is transformed into usable form by autotrophs (photosynthesis).
 - Other living things extract energy from autotrophs, directly or indirectly (herbivores, carnivores or omnivores).
 - Energy is stored in chemical bonds: e.g. ATP, GTP, NADH, etc. and releases when these bonds are broken,
- Second Law of Thermodynamics Spontaneous processes are characterized by an increase in the entropy of the universe by the conversion of order and disorder.





3- Grow and Reproduce with high fidelity

- All living organisms grow and undergo development
- The most characteristic attribute is the near- perfect fidelity of self- replication and self assembly
 - Cells divide to produce new cells.
 - Organisms reproduce to produce new generations.





Properties of living Organisms

4- Interact with environment

- Living organisms interact with their environments.
- It undergoes accommodation, hibernation and/or adaptation.
- Ecology is the study of
 - interaction between organisms
 - Interaction between organisms and their environment









5- Movement

- Movement Living systems and their parts can have precise and controlled movements.
- Movements are required for:
 - Extraction of energy from their environments.
 - Responses to stimuli
 - Reproduction
 - Growth
 - Development in multicellular organisms
- On contrary, the nonliving matter often needs external forces to be moved and is Not precisely controlled by the moving objects.



6- Homeostasis

- Homeostasis is a characteristic of living organisms in which the internal conditions remain stable and relatively constant and regulated regardless the different biological and environmental factors affecting the organism.
- Examples of homeostasis include the regulation of temperature and the balance between acidity and alkalinity (pH).





1. All organisms are composed of one or more types of cells	()
2. Living cells can be generated spontaneously	()
3. Ribosomes contains hereditary information which is passed from cell to cell	()
4. Prokaryotes are often single-celled organisms	()
5. Mitochondria is responsible for cytoplasmic protein synthesis	()
6. Living organisms operate within the same laws that apply to physics and chemistry	r ()
7.Angestrom is larger than micrometer	()
8.Lysosome is an cellular organelle responsible for digestion of cell component and		
is called Suicide Bag	(

For more training visit <u>http://quizlet.com/10449142/test</u>



- The matter is anything that has mass and volume (occupies space).
 - There are 118 elements on the periodic table 92 of them are natural.
 - An element consists of atoms of the same kind.
 - Any element consist of atoms. The atom is formed from nucleus (having protons and neutrons) and circulating negatively charges electrons.
 - The atomic number of each element represent the number of protons in its nucleus.

For example,
the element that has 6 protons in its atom is CARBON
The atom that has 7 protons is NITROGEN
The atom that has 8 protons is OXYGEN
Molecule is a group of two or more elements.



Periodic table of elements




Chemical elements of cell

Chemical elements of a living cell are the same as in the Earth's crust, but in different proportions.





Elements in living cells

There are many classifications of elements regarding its distribution in living cells. The most used one is as follow:

- Macronutrients are elements that are most abundant in the cell, (C, H, N, O, P, S)
- Essential elements are found in small amounts, but essential (Na, Mg, K, Ca, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Zn, Cu, Cl, I).
- Trace Possibly Essential elements: some are common, others are less common (V, Cr, Mo, B, Al, Si, As, Se, Br).



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• C H N O P S: are the most abundant elements in cell.

- They account for more than 99% of atoms in the human body
- H, O, N and C have common properties that are important to the chemistry of life.
 - They all:
 - have relatively low atomic numbers
 - capable of forming one, two, three and four bonds (for H, O, N and C, in order).
 - form the strongest covalent bonds in general.

Write the atomic number and the atomic mass of each element (CHNOPS)







Living organisms operate within the same laws that apply to physics and chemistry:

Conservation of mass, energy
Laws of thermodynamics
Laws of chemical kinetics
Principles of chemical reactions



- There are 5 major forces that maintain the structure of biomolecules:
 - Only one is a strong force: The covalent bond
 - The others are considered weak forces:
 - 1. The ionic bond
 - 2. The hydrogen bond
 - 3. Hydrophobic interaction (not chemical bond)
 - 4. Van Der Waals attraction (not chemical bond)



Ionic bond (Cont.)

- Formed by complete transfer of valence electrons between two atoms $F = K^* \frac{\vee_1 \vee}{\mathbb{R}^n * \mathbb{D}}$
- Strength is governed by a general law:

Qs are charges, R is distance between them, D = dielectric of the medium, k =constant, and n=1 or 2, depending on the nature of interaction.

D = 1 in vacuum, 2-3 in grease, and 80 in water

Electrostatic interaction is responsible for ionic bonds, salt linkages or ion-pairs, and hydrogen bonding





Ionic bond



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IODqdhxDtHM



- The strongest bond in biochemistry
- Does not dissociate or break in H_2O
- Formed by sharing of valence electrons
 - If partners are unequal, asymmetrical distribution of electrons creates partial electrical charges and therefore polar molecules







https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=20AbmhCk-RI https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MlgKp4FUV6I https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X9FbSsO_beg



The Hydrogen Bond (Cont.)

- The hydrogen bond is weak, but very important in biochemistry
- The general formula for H-bond is



- (D) is the donor atom
- (A) is the acceptor atom which must have at least one-pair of free electrons
 - Important atoms in Biochemistry are O and N
 - Carbon can neither donate nor accept H-bonding

The Hydrogen Bond

Ling Saud On



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lkl5cbfqFRM



- H-Bond is a type of dipole-dipole interaction, but can be considered as a weak ionic bond: $F = K^*$
 - Distance (R3) is a major factor
 - D is also a major contributor in biological systems
 - Very strong angle dependence





Non- polar groups cluster together $\Delta G = \Delta H - T \Delta S$

- The most important parameter for determining the stability of proteins, membrane, nucleic acids
- Very important consideration for many biochemical methods and interactions
- Entropy order- disorder. Nature prefers to maximize entropy "maximum disorder"
- Structure formations are driven by water interactions



Non-specific attractions (induced dipole-induced dipole) most effective near the contact distances. F ~ $1/R^6$

Atom	contact Distance	Atom	contact Distance
Η	1.2 Å	С	2.0 Å
Ν	1.5 Å	Ο	1.4 Å
S	1.85 Å	Р	1.9 Å

Weak interaction; About 1.0 kcal/mol

 Becomes important when many atoms come in contact as in steric complementarities as in:

- a) antibodies
- b) enzyme substrate



Protein structure

Example of macromolecule having different types of bonds



DNA structure



Dimensions

Dimensions in Biochemistry are often expressed as angstrom (Å), nanometer (nm), or micrometer (µm).

You must know this and be comfortable using them. 1 Å = 10^{-10} m, 1 nm=10 Å 1 µm=10,000 Å

Length is very important!!

- C C bond is
- Hemoglobin
- Ribosome
- Viruses
- Cells

1.54 Å $1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$ 65\AA $1 \mu \text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$ 300\AA $1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$ $100 - 1000 \text{\AA}$ $1 \text{ Å} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$ $1-10 \mu \text{m}$ or 10,000 - 100,000 Å

Information about structure come from: light microscope: range of 2000 Å or 0.2µm X-ray crystallography, electron microscope or NMR: 1 Å \Rightarrow 10⁴ Å range



Life is in Constant Flux

- Substrates to products in 10⁻³ sec (ms)
- Unwinding of DNA in 10⁻⁶ sec (μs)

10 ⁻¹⁵	10^{-12}	10-9	10-6	10^{-3}	1	10^{3}	10^{6}	10^{9}	10^{12}
femto	pico	nano	micro	milli	e Unit	kilo	mega	giga	tera
f	р	n	μ	m	Base	Κ	Μ	G	Т

- femto fs
- pico ps
- nano ns
- micro μs
- milli ms
- 10³
- 2.3 x 10⁹ sec

excitation of chlorophyll charge separation in photosynthesis hinge protein action DNA unwind enzymatic reactions generation of bacteria average human life span



Energy

- Ultimate source of energy is the sun: E = hv
- where E is the energy of a bit of light called a quantum or photon of light.
- h is a very small constant called "Planck's constant" (6.626068 \times 10⁻³⁴ J s) and
- "n" is the frequency of the radiation.
 - photons of green light have E of 57 Kcal/mol
- 1 cal = 4.184 joules or 1 J = 0.239 cal; You must know this.
- Covalent interactions are stronger than noncovalent ones
 - The carbon skeleton of a molecules is thermally stable
 - e.g. C C bond = 83 Kcal/mol or 346 KJ/mol
- The shape and interactions of molecules are governed by noncovalent interactions
 - Biomolecules shape can be modified by thermal energy.
 - Boil an egg, fry a steak or get a sunburn.





Basic Materials in Cell

All cells have these basic common materials:

- H₂O: The solvent of life. All cellular reactions are carried out in aqueous environment.
 - All chemical reactions in a cell make up its METABOLISM.
- And 4 Major macromolecules:
 - 1. Proteins (the cell work horses)
 - 2. Nucleic Acids (genetic materials)
 - 3. Carbohydrates (many functions)
 - 4. Lipids (membrane and energy source and depot)

Notice that all macromolecules are organic compounds (i.e. contain carbon).

Plus ions & metabolites (small amounts)





There are 4 major macromolecules (polymers) in the cell formed by condensation of smaller building blocks (monomers) by the removal of H_2O (dehydration):

Macromolecule (polymers)	Building blocks (monomers)	Name of bond
Carbohydrate	Monosaccharides	Glycosidic bond
Proteins	Amino acids	Peptide bond
Nucleic acids	Nucleotides	Phospho diester bond
Lipids	Fatty acids + alcohol	Ester bond







- All macromolecules have a "Sense" or Directionality
 - DNA : -ATC- \neq -CTA-
 - Protein: -Gly-ser- \neq -Ser-Gly-
 - Carbohydrate: -Glu-Gal ≠ -Gal-Glu-
- Macromolecules are Informational:
 - Examples: AUC=Ile; ACU=Thr; UAC=Tyr
- Macromolecules Have Characteristic Three-Dimensional Architecture
- Weak forces maintain biological structure and determine biomolecular interactions









The Solvent of Life

■ We are ~ 70% Water

• H_2O is key to the behavior of macromolecules.

- All life transformations occur in aqueous media
- Most biochemical reactions take place in water
- Water is a reactant in a number of reactions, usually in the form of H⁺ and OH⁻.
- Even water insoluble compounds such as lipid membranes derive their structure and function by interaction with H₂O
 - Biomolecules assume their shapes in response to the aqueous medium

Structure of Water



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- The difference between O and H in electronegativity creates polar bonds
 - -OH is a very polar bond
 - H₂O can donate and accept hydrogen bonds
 - H₂O can function as an acid or a base
- Structure: water is a bent molecule (geometry & polarity)

Geometry Determines Polarity



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While both bonds O-H and C-O are polar, the sum of vectors in CO_2 is zero, and therefore, CO_2 is nonpolar molecule while H₂O is polar molecule

Hydrogen Bonding in Water

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- Partial charges cause electrostatic attractions between O and H
- Each H_2O can bind 4 other H_2O 's.
- H-bonding among its molecules gives water:
 - a) high boiling point
 - b) high surface tension or capillary action
 - d) expansion upon freezing
 - e) solvent for polar molecules



Water: Ice, Liquid, and Vapor



Water As a Solvent: Ionic Interactions



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- Water can solvate charged molecules (both cations & anions)
- Water projects its partially positive hydrogens towards negatively charged ions.
- Water projects its partially negative oxygen towards positively charged ions
 - Notice the opposite orientation of water molecules around a cation versus anion.
 - This type of interaction is called iondipole interactions.

King Soan Diversity

Water as a solvent: H-bonding



Based on their interaction with H₂O, Molecules are divided into two types:

- **Hydrophobic molecules:** do not interact with H_2O
- Hydrophilic molecules: able to
 interact with H₂O via polar
 functional groups or charged groups

Which chemical groups are hydrophilic????

- All charged groups are hydrophilic
- Uncharged polar molecules have functional groups that form H-bonds with H₂O.
- Examples: Alcohols, amines, carbonyls (aldehydes & ketones)





Answer by marking true (T) or False (F)

The most abundant elements in cell are C H N O P S)
Molybdenum, bromide and boron are examples of trace elements)
Water represents 50% of the living cell ()
Covalent bond is the strongest bond in biochemistry)
Hydrogen bond can be dissociated by heating or changing pH)
The difference between O and H in electronegativity creates covalent bonds ()
Most of the water soluble compounds have polar or charged groups ()
Each H_2O molecule can bind 3 other H_2O to form complex of $4H_2O$ (
The Oxygen in water molecule has one partial negative charge)
	The most abundant elements in cell are C H N O P S(Molybdenum, bromide and boron are examples of trace elements(Water represents 50% of the living cell(Covalent bond is the strongest bond in biochemistry(Hydrogen bond can be dissociated by heating or changing pH(The difference between O and H in electronegativity creates covalent bonds(Most of the water soluble compounds have polar or charged groups(Each H ₂ O molecule can bind 3 other H ₂ O to form complex of 4H ₂ O(The Oxygen in water molecule has one partial negative charge(



Examples from biochemistry

R-OH Alcohol	— <mark>OH</mark> Hydroxyl		Example: amino acid (serine)	COO^{-} H_{3} $\overset{+}{N}$ $-C$ $-H$ $CH_{2}OH$
R-SH Thiol	—SH Sulfahydryl		Example: amino acid (cysteine)	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{SH} \\ \mathbf{CH}_2 \\ \mathbf{CH} - \mathbf{NH}_3 \\ \mathbf{COO^-} \end{array}$
O II R·C-OH Carboxylic acid	O II -C-OH Carbox	O $ $ $R \cdot C - O$ ylate	Example: fatty acid (Palmitic acid) CH ₃ (CH	H ₂) ₁₆ COOH

Functional Groups in Biochemistry (Cont.)

Examples from biochemistry



Functional Groups in Biochemistry (Cont.)

Examples from biochemistry







Alcohols:

- Any molecule having –OH group (Hydroxyl) bound to an alkyl chain.
 - Primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols based on what's bound to the C-OH group.
- Important in many biological molecules
 - Some Amino acids, carbohydrates, and certain lipids
- Phenols
 - A hydroxyl group bound to an aryl or aromatic group (e.g., phenyl)

#


- The -OH in alcohols has properties like H_2O
 - Can participate in H-bonding (acceptor & donor)
 - Polar group
 - Water soluble

 $\delta^ \delta^+$ δ^- -O-H · · · · · · · · A -

- but long carbon chain reduces solubility: R-OH
 - C₁ C₅ Highly soluble
 C₅ C₇ Moderately soluble
 C₈ and above Slightly soluble/insoluble



Reactions of alcohols

Dehydration: removal of a water



• Remember OIL RIG

- Oxidation Is Loss of electron (before, the gain of oxygen)
- Reduction Is Gain of electron (before, the loss of oxygen)



Phenols

- Compounds with hydroxyl group bound to a benzene ring
- They are weak acids
 - Can lose a proton to strong bases.
 - Aliphatic alcohols do not act as acids.
 - The anion formed is not stable.



- The ring of phenol is easily oxidized.
 - In vivo, special enzymes can accomplish this.
 - In vivo means "in life" or "in a living cell"
 - In vitro means "in glass"



Thiols

- Similar to alcohols but contain S instead of O
 = R-S-H
 - The -SH can be called the thiol, mercaptan, or sulfhydryl group.
- **S** is less electronegative than $O \rightarrow$
 - Less polar than alcohols
 - Weaker H-boding capability
 - Less water solubility

• Have some of the strongest & unpleasant odors



Amines

- Many biological molecules contain amino groups.
 - amino acids, DNA, RNA bases, alkaloids (e.g., caffeine, nicotine)



- Can be considered as substituted ammonia molecules.
- Amines are basic groups and can accept protons to become acidic.





Properties of Amines

- Nitrogen is very electronegative
 - but not quite as electronegative as oxygen.

Thus:

- Amino group are polar groups
- Can participate in H-bonding (acceptor & donors)



- Amines can also share H bonds with water, so they are more soluble in water than alkanes.
- H bonds are not as strong as in alcohols
- Weak bases (similar to ammonia, a common weak inorganic base).



Carboxylic acids

- Many biological molecules contain carboxylic group or one of its derivatives.
 - Proteins, amino acids, fatty acids, lipids, sugar, carbohydrates, and many others.
- General Formula: -COOH (carboxyl)
- Any R possible: H, alkyl or aromatic chain



- -Cl (Acid chloride)
- -OR, -OAr (Ester)
- $-NH_2$, -NHR (Amide)







- The carboxylic group is one of the most polar groups in biochemistry
- Both parts of the group are polar
 - **-**C=O
 - **-**O-H
 - –O-H is so polar, it is nearly ionic bond
- Presence of carboxylic group:
 - increases the solubility in water
 - Solubility decreases rapidly as MW increases.
 - Adds acidic character



All carboxylic acids are weak acids.

$R - COOH \iff R - COO^{-} + H^{+}$

- They can ionize into H⁺ and an anion.
 - Strong acids drive the reaction to the right
- Carboxylic acids occur largely as their anions in living cells and body fluids.
- The carboxylates are salts, example, sodium acetate .



Amides

- One of the important bonds in Biochemistry

 Amides are derivatives of carboxylic acids.
 General formula:
 Can be prepared from acids
 - + ammonia \rightarrow simple amides
 - + amine \rightarrow Substituted amides
 - Peptide bond is an amide bond between amino acids

NH-

- The C-N bond is the amide bond.
 - One of the strongest bonds in biochemistry .
 - It can be broken but require strong acid or base + high temperatures.



- Amide molecules are polar.
 - They can participate in H-bonding as donor or acceptor
 - The forces among simple amides are so great that all except are solids at room temperature, except methanamide (formamide).

Amides are NOT basic molecules.

- The amine group of amide can not accept protons or get ionized
- They are neutral in an acid-base sense.





$H_2O \Leftrightarrow H^+ + OH^-$ H⁺ (proton), HO⁻ (hydroxide), H₃O⁺ (hydronium ion)

$$K_a = \frac{[H+][OH-]}{[H_2O]}$$

 $\cdot K_a$ is a dissociation constant, and the brackets represent the concentrations of the species.

•[H_2O] is constant by definition, so the equation simplifies to:

$$K_{a}(w) = [H][OH] = 10^{-14} At + 25^{\circ} C$$



Ionization of Water: pH Scale



• Pure water has equal concentrations of H⁺ and HO⁻

 $[H^+]=[HO^-]=10^{-7} M$ for a neutral solution

If $[H^+] > 10^{-7}$ M, then the solution is acidic

If $[H^+] < 10^{-7}$ M, then the solution is basic

 $pH = -log[H^+]$





$$HA + H_2O \implies H_3O^+ + A^-$$

- An acid is a substance that can donate a proton
- A base is a substance that can accept a proton
- In the above equation, HA is the acid and H_2O is the base
- $-A^{-}$ is the conjugate base of HA, and $H_{3}O^{+}$ is the conjugate acid of $H_{2}O$

$CH_3COOH \longleftarrow H^+ + CH_3COO^-$ Acid Conjugate base





Answer by marking true (T) or False (F)1.H2O can function as an acid or a base()2.The structure of H2O is a linear molecule()3.Phenols act as a weak acid as it gives protons to a strong base()4.Sulpher is less electronegative than Oxygen()5.An acid is a substance that can accept a proton()



تعريف بالحموض والقواعد وثوابت التفكك الخاصة بها

Definition of acids and bases and its dissociation constants



تعريف الأحماض والقلويات

تعريف أرهينيوس (1884) Arrhenius
 الأحماض هي المركبات التي تأين في المحاليل المائية لتعطي أيونات هيدروجين +H.
 القواعد هي المركبات التي تأين في المحاليل المائية لتعطي أيونات هيدروكسيل-OH.

Bronsted-Lowry (1923) (1923) (1





(مستمر): الأحماض والقويات كل من الحمض والقاعدة مرافق للآخر Conjugate ${
m BH}$ هي القاعدة المرافقة للحمض ${
m BH}$ و BH هو الحمض المرافق للقاعدة -B. قاعدة (B1) + حمض (A2) _____ قاعدة (B2) (A1) جمض + - H_3O^+ $NH_{4}^{+} +$ H_2O NH₃ += H_3O HCl + **H**₂**O** Cl-+

 $HSO_4 + H_2O = H_3O + SO_4$

HBr + H_2O \longrightarrow H_3O^+ + Br



(مستمر): الأحماض والقويات

يمكن للماء أن يتأين ذاتياً ليعمل كحمض وكقاعدة في نفس الوقت

- $H_2O + H_2O H_3O^+ + OH^-$
- قاعدة (A1) + حمض (A2) = قاعدة (B2) + حمض (A1)

- الأحماض الضعيفة تتأين (تتفكك) بدرجة ضعيفة لأن القاعدة المرافقة قوية فترتبط بقوة مع الهيدروجين
 - الأحماض القوية تتأين كلياً فهي تتميز بميلها الشديد لإعطاء (فقد) بروتونات نظراً لضعف القاعدة المرافقة
 - القواعد القوية تتميز بميلها الشديد لاستقبال بروتونات



(مستمر): الأحماض والقويات

 $\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{a}}$ وبحساب ثابت التأين للحمض

HA \implies H+ + A-

$$K_{a} = \frac{[H^{+}][A^{-}]}{[HA]}$$
$$K_{a} = \frac{[H_{3}O^{+}][OH^{-}]}{[H_{2}O]}$$
$$K_{a} = \frac{[10^{-7}][10^{-7}]}{[55.56]}$$
$$K_{a} = 1.8 \times 10^{-16}$$



(مستمر): الأحماض والقويات

تعتمد قوة الحمض أو القاعدة على قدرة المذيب solvent على الارتباط بأيون الهيدروجين. فممكن لحمض أن يكون قوياً في أحد المذيبات وضعيفاً في مذيب آخر.

فمثلاً حمض الأسيتيك (الخليك) يكون ضعيفاً في الوسط المائي ويكون قوياً في محلول الأمونيا.

القاعدة المرافقة للحمض القوي تكون ضعيفة والعكس صحيح. فمثلاً الماء حمض ضعيف ولكن قاعدته المرافقة قوية (الهيدروكسيل OH) أحماض HCl, HBr, HNO₃هى أحماض قوية (سريعة التأين) وقواعدها المرافقة ضعيفة -Cl⁻, <u>Br-' NO₃.</u>

pH + pOH = 14.00

 $pOH = -log [OH^-]$

بالمثل يمكن تعريف الـ pOH

 $pH = -log [H^+] = -log 10^{-7} = -(-7) = 7.0$

وعند درجة حرارة ٢٥ °م تكون pH للماء النقي = ٧

 $\mathbf{pH} = -\mathbf{log} \ [\mathbf{H}^+]$

وتكتب غالباً بالصيغة التالية

 $\mathbf{pH} = -\mathbf{log} \ [\mathbf{H}_{3}\mathbf{O}^{+}]$

هو اللوغاريتم السالب للتركيز الجزيئي لأيون الهيدرونيوم $[H_3O^+]$





معادلة هندرسون - هاسلبالخ Henderson-Hasselbalch Equation

وضعت هذه المعادلة للتعبير عن الأحماض والقواعد الضعيفة وليس الأحماض القوية المخففة إن الأحماض والقواعد الضعيفة لا تتأين كلياً، وتوجد في حالة اتزان بين تركيز الحمض الغير متأين وأيوناته (البوتون + القاعدة المرافقة)

يمكن حساب ثابت الاتزان كما يلي:





$$-\log[H^+] = -\log K_a - \log \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} H^+ \end{bmatrix} = K_a \bullet \frac{\begin{bmatrix} HA \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} A^- \end{bmatrix}}$$

 $\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\left[\mathbf{H}^{+}\right]\left[\mathbf{A}^{-}\right]}{\left[\mathbf{H}\mathbf{A}\right]}$

$$pH = pK - log \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]}$$

$$\log[H^+] = \log(K_a \bullet \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]})$$

$$pH = pK + log \frac{[A^-]}{[HA]}$$

$$\log[\mathrm{H}^{+}] = \log \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{a}} + \log \frac{[\mathrm{HA}]}{[\mathrm{A}^{-}]}$$

$pH = pK + \log \frac{\left[A^{-}\right]}{\left[HA\right]} = pK + \log \frac{1}{1} = pK + 0 = pK$ pH = pK

$\left[A^{-}\right] = \left[HA\right]$

عندما يكون الحمض نصف متأين (يتساوى تركيز الحمض مع تركيز قاعدته المرافقة) يكون: pH = pK

(مستمر): معادلة هندرسون - هاسلبالخ





المحاليل الحيوية المنظمة

تعريف المحلول المنظّم Buffer:

هي محاليل تتغيّر قيمة الرقم الهيدروجيني لها تغيراً طفيفاً عند إضافة حمض أو قاعدة إليها بكميات قليلة.

(أي أنها محاليل تقاوم التغيرات في قيمة pH عند إضافة حمض أو قاعدة إليها).

ممّ يتكوّن المحلول المنظّم؟

يتكون من حمض ضعيف وقاعدته المرافقة (ملح الحمض) أو قاعدة ضعيفة وحمضها المرافق (ملح القاعدة)

أمثلة المحاليل المنظمة:

CH₃COO⁻), (CH₃COOH

 $NaCN_{)}$, $HCN_{)}$ ($NH_{4}Cl$, (NH_{3}

NaHCO₃) , H₂CO₃) (KNO₂ , (HNO₂



آلية عمل المحاليل المنظمة

يحتوى المحلول المنظم على مواد تتفاعل مع أيونات +H ومواد أخرى تتفاعل مع أيونات -OH المضافة أو النابحة من أي تفاعل وبذلك يقل تأثير تلك الأيونات على الوسط

مثال: المحلول المتكون من حمض الأستيك + أسيتات صوديوم – يقاوم التغير في الـ pH إذا أضيف إليه حمض قوي مثل HCl لأن الحمض المضاف يتحلل إلى أيونات [–]Cl و +H - ترتبط أيونات -Cl مع الصوديوم مكوناً ملح الطعام NaCl لا يؤثر في الـ pH - ترتبط أيونات الأسيتات مع +H فيتكون حمض الأستيك ضعيف التحلل الذي لا يغير بدوره الـ pH

Buffering Capacity السعة التنظيمية



تتناسب قدرة المحلول المنظم على مقاومة التغير في الـ pH طردياً مع تركيز مكوناته وتبلغ السعة التنظيمية أقصاها عندما يتساوى تركيز الحمض مع قاعدته المرافقة مثال acetate buffer

$$pH = pK_a = -\log K_a$$
$$\log K_a = -\log 1.8 \ge 10^{-5}$$
$$= 4.74$$

هذا معناه أن السعة القصوى لهذا المحلول تقع عند pH = 4.74 وتقل القدرة على مقاومة التغير كلما بعدنا عن هذا الرقم في حدود <u>+</u> ۱

أهمية المحلول المنظم



أمثلة للكواشف على درجة الـ pH

لونه في الوسط الحمضي	لونه في الوسط القاعدي	الكاشف
عديم اللون	وردي	فينول فثالين Phenol phthaline
أحمر	أصفر	الميثيل البرتقالي Methyl orange
أحمر	أصفر	المثيل الأحمر Methyl red
أحمر	أزرق	دوار الشمس Litmus paper



أمثلة على pH لبعض السوائل

الأس الهيدروجيني pH	المادة أو المحلول
2.40–2.2	-عصير الليمون
3.0	_ الخل
4.0	- عصير الطماطم
6.4-4.8	_ الجبنة
8.0 - 5.5	 ماء الشرب
8.3	- ماء البحر
8.4-4.8	- بول الانسان
6 .6 – 6.3	 حليب الأبقار
7 .5 . 6 .5	- لعاب الانسان
7.5 - 7.3	۔ دم الانسان