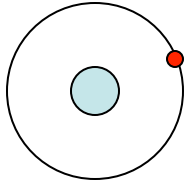
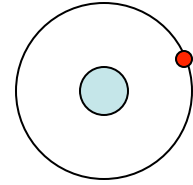


Bio 11

Chemistry



The Atom



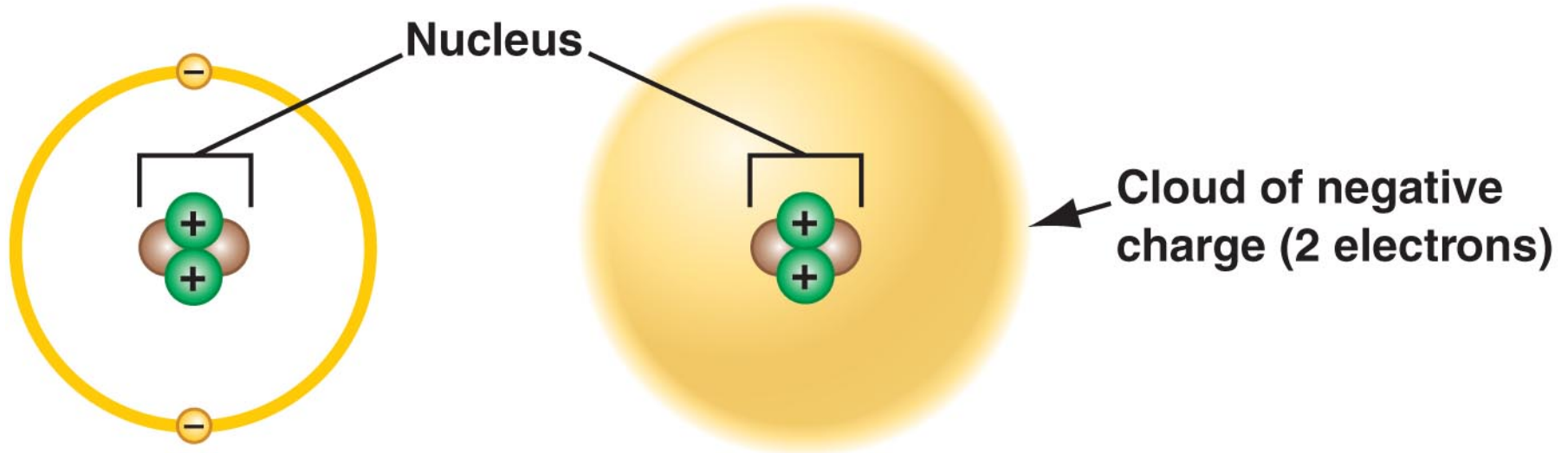
- The atom is the basic component of a molecule.
- It is composed of a nucleus which has positively charged protons and neutral neutrons.
- Orbiting around the nucleus are the electrons

2  Protons

2  Neutrons

2  Electrons

Nucleus



Definitions

- Atomic number-- number of protons
- Mass number--number of protons and neutrons
- Atomic mass -- approximately equal to the number of protons and neutrons
- Isotopes -- same number of protons different number of neutrons.

Proton

- Positive charge
- Determines element

Electron

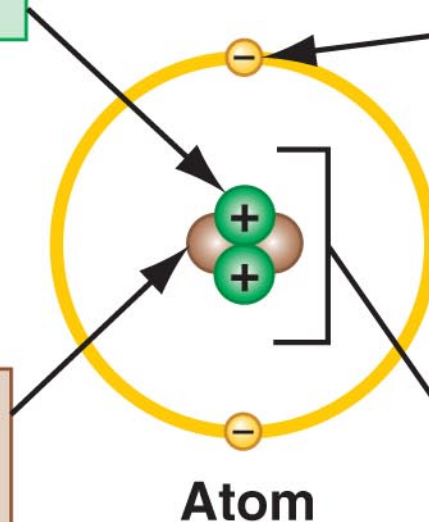
- Negative charge
- Participates in chemical reactions
- Outer-shell electrons determine chemical behavior

Neutron

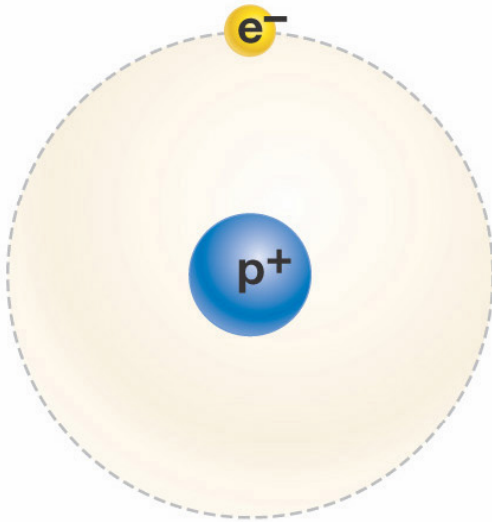
- No charge
- Determines isotope

Nucleus

- Consists of neutrons and protons

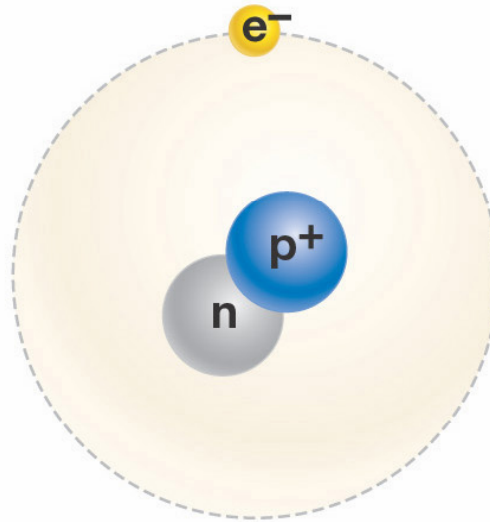


Hydrogen and some of its isotopes



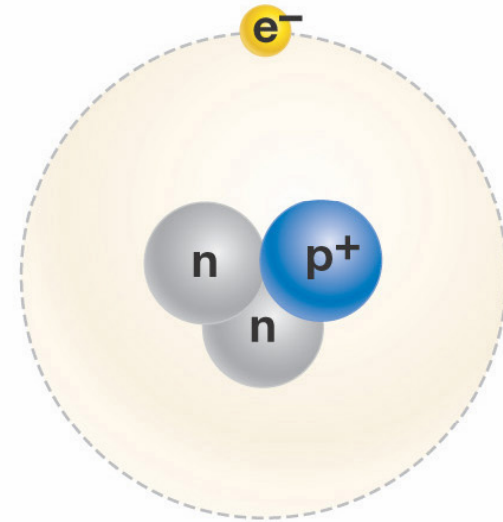
Hydrogen

1 proton
0 neutrons



Deuterium

1 proton
1 neutron



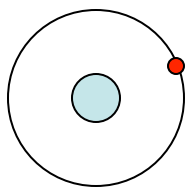
Tritium

1 proton
2 neutrons

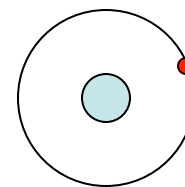
Table 2.1

Isotopes of Carbon

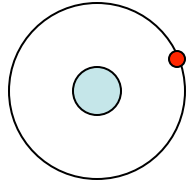
	Carbon-12	Carbon-13	Carbon-14
Protons	6	6	6
Neutrons	6	7	8
Electrons	6	6	6
	mass number 12	mass number 13	mass number 14



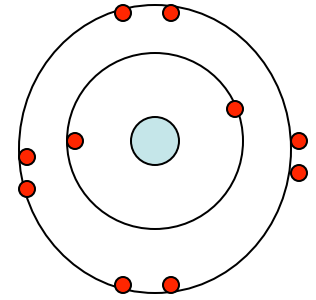
Periodic Table



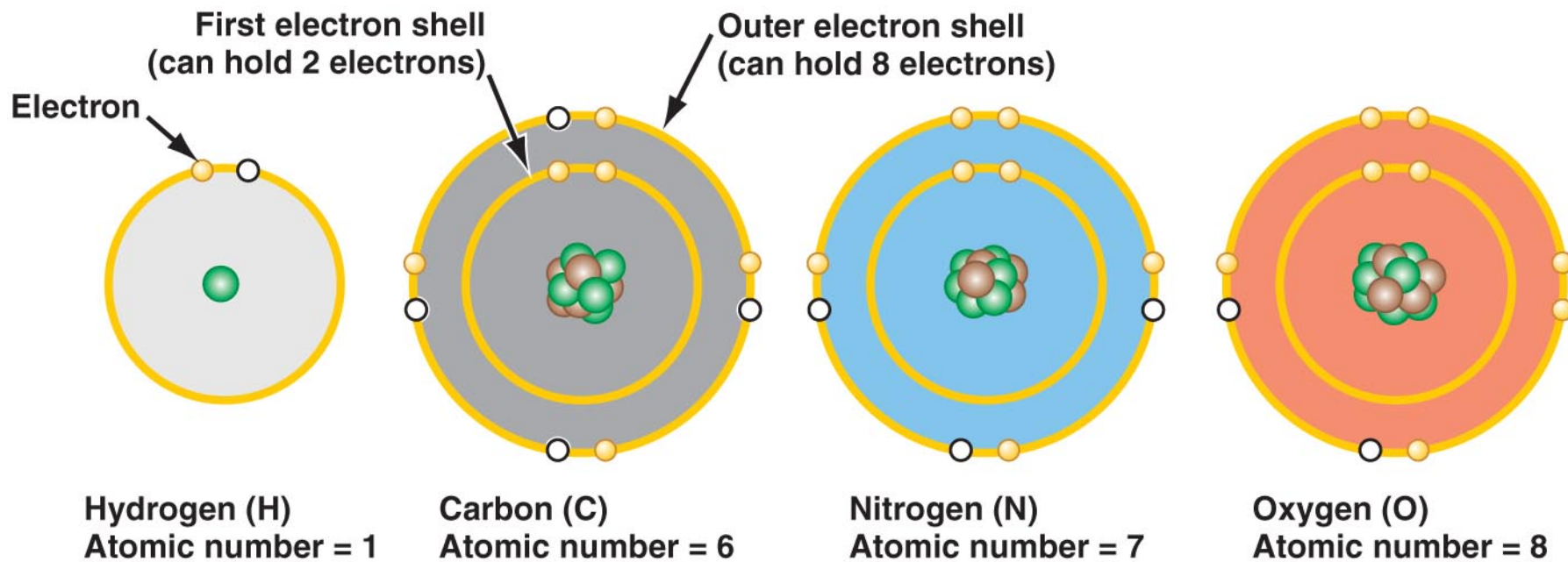
- Atoms are arranged on the periodic table by rows and columns.
- Where an atom is on a periodic table will tell you about how it will react chemically.

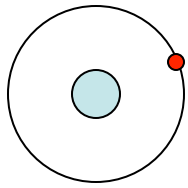


The Periodic Table

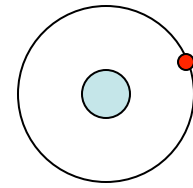


- The electrons in an atom are distributed into shells.
- The first shell or orbital can only hold two electron.
- The second shell or orbital can hold eight electrons.
- The third shell or orbital can hold eight electrons.





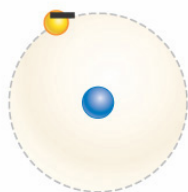
The Periodic Table



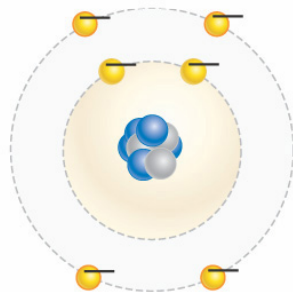
- The number of electrons in the outer shell determines how the atom will behave chemically.
- Also the number of electrons in the outer shell will determine which column the atom is in.
- The number of shells an electron has determines the row the atom is in.

Unstable, very reactive atoms

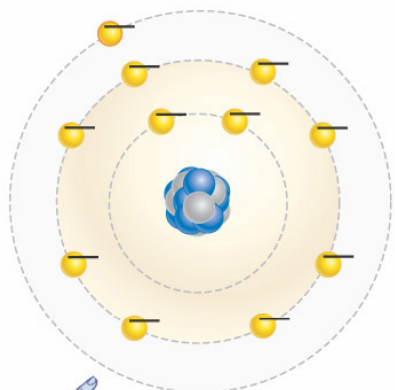
Stable, unreactive atoms



hydrogen (H)

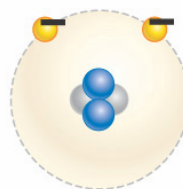


carbon (C)

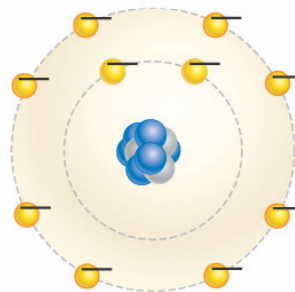


sodium (Na)

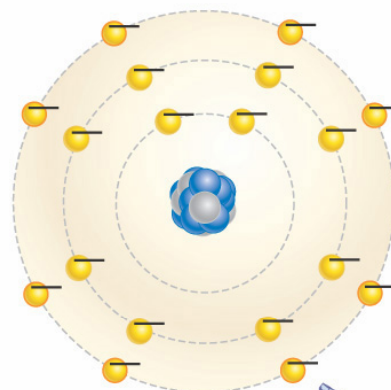
Outermost electron
shells unfilled



helium (He)

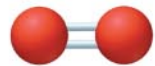
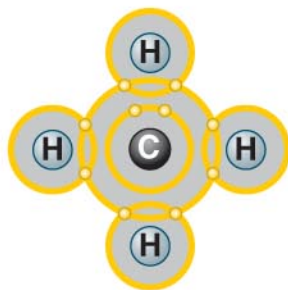


neon (Ne)



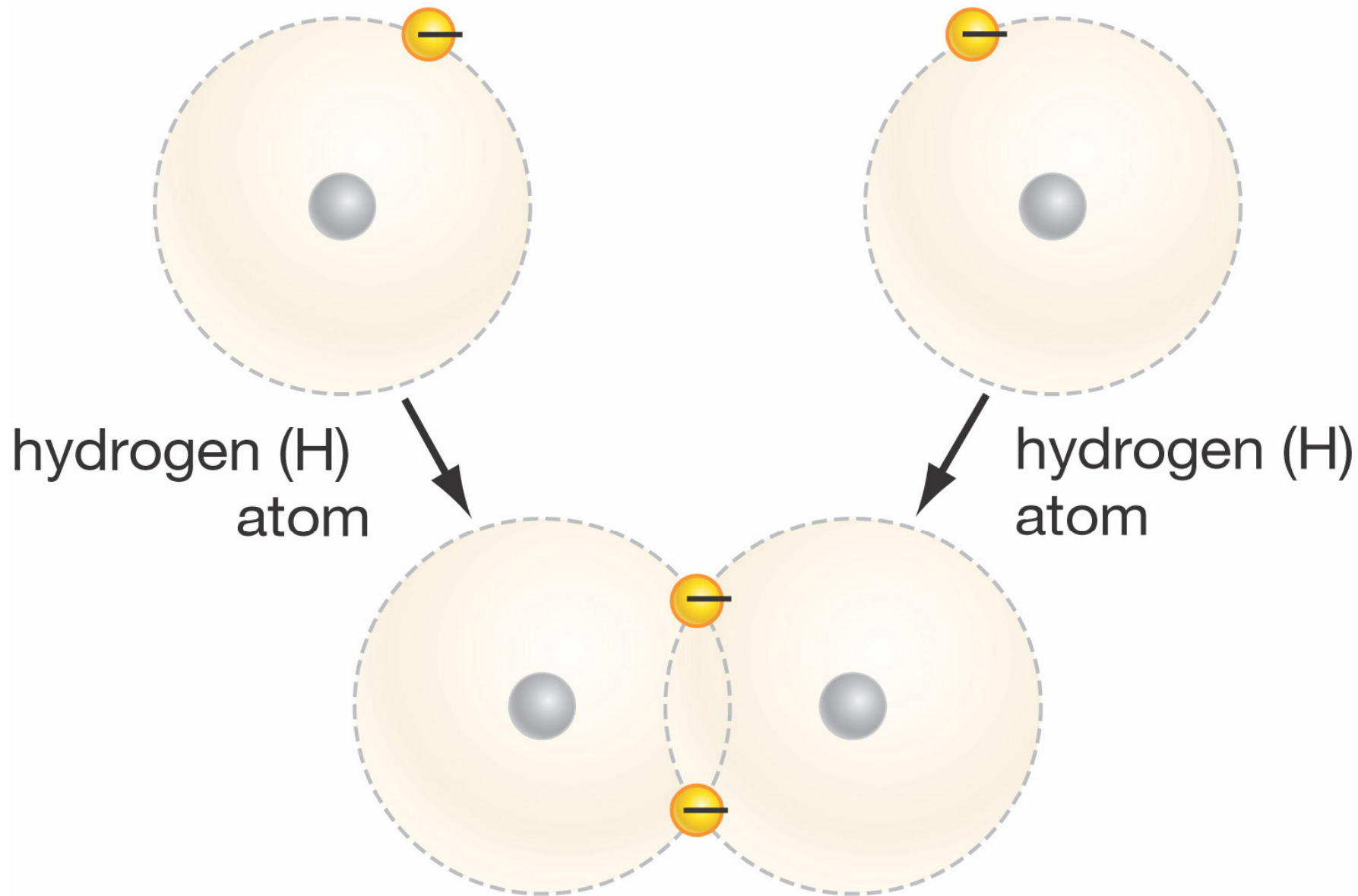
argon (Ar)

Outermost electron
shells filled

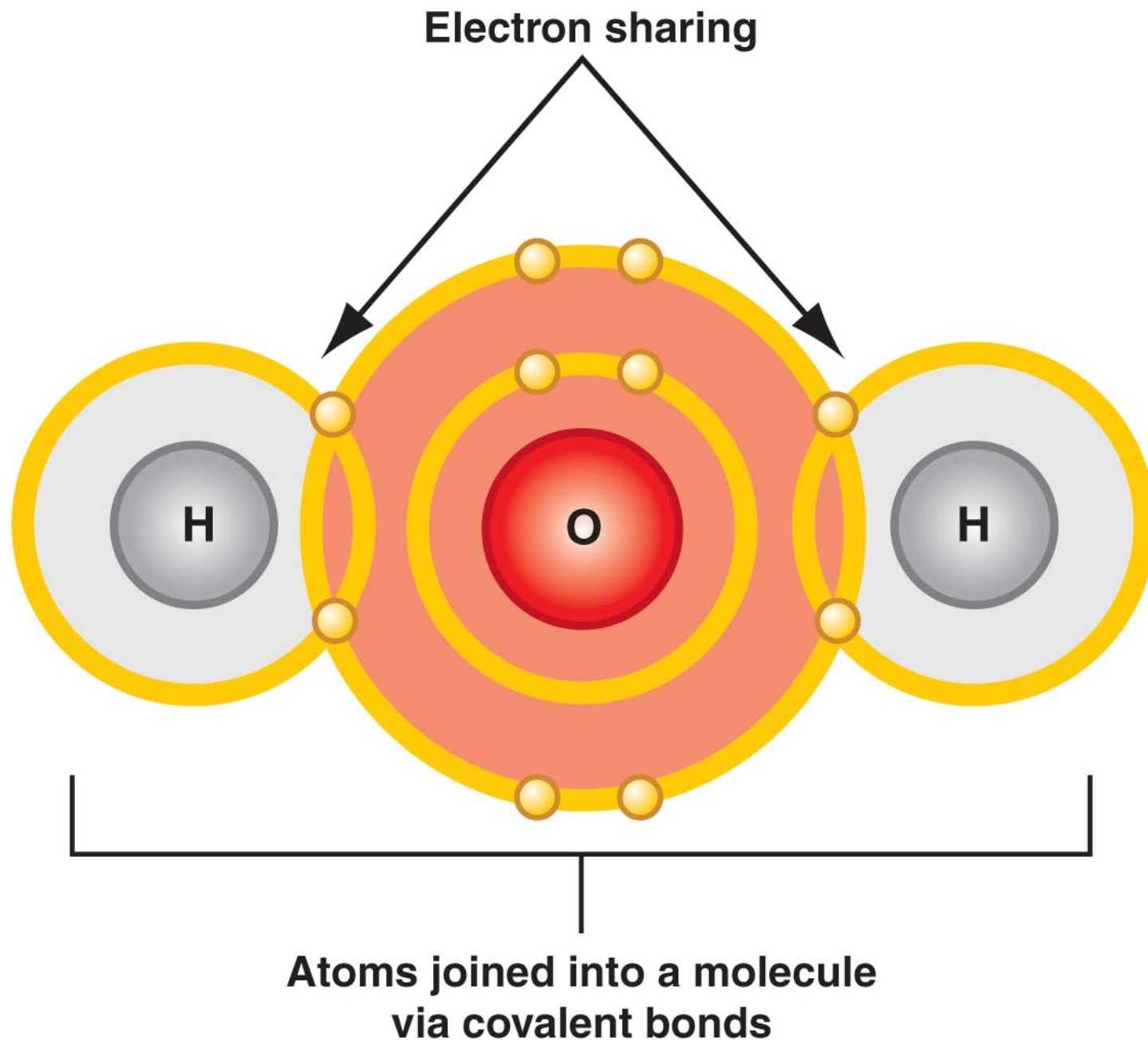
Name (molecular formula)	Electron configuration	Structural formula	Space-filling model	Ball-and-stick model
Hydrogen gas (H ₂)		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} - \text{H} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{Single bond} \\ \text{(a pair of shared electrons)} \end{array}$		
Oxygen gas (O ₂)		$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} = \text{O} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{Double bond} \\ \text{(two pairs of shared electrons)} \end{array}$		
Methane (CH ₄)		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array}$		

Polar vs. non-polar covalent bonds

- In covalent bonds electrons are evenly shared between the two nuclei.
- In a polar covalent bond the electrons are shared unevenly. The atom with more electrons in its outer shell will “hog” the shared electrons while the one with fewer electrons in its outer shell will have less of the shared electrons time.

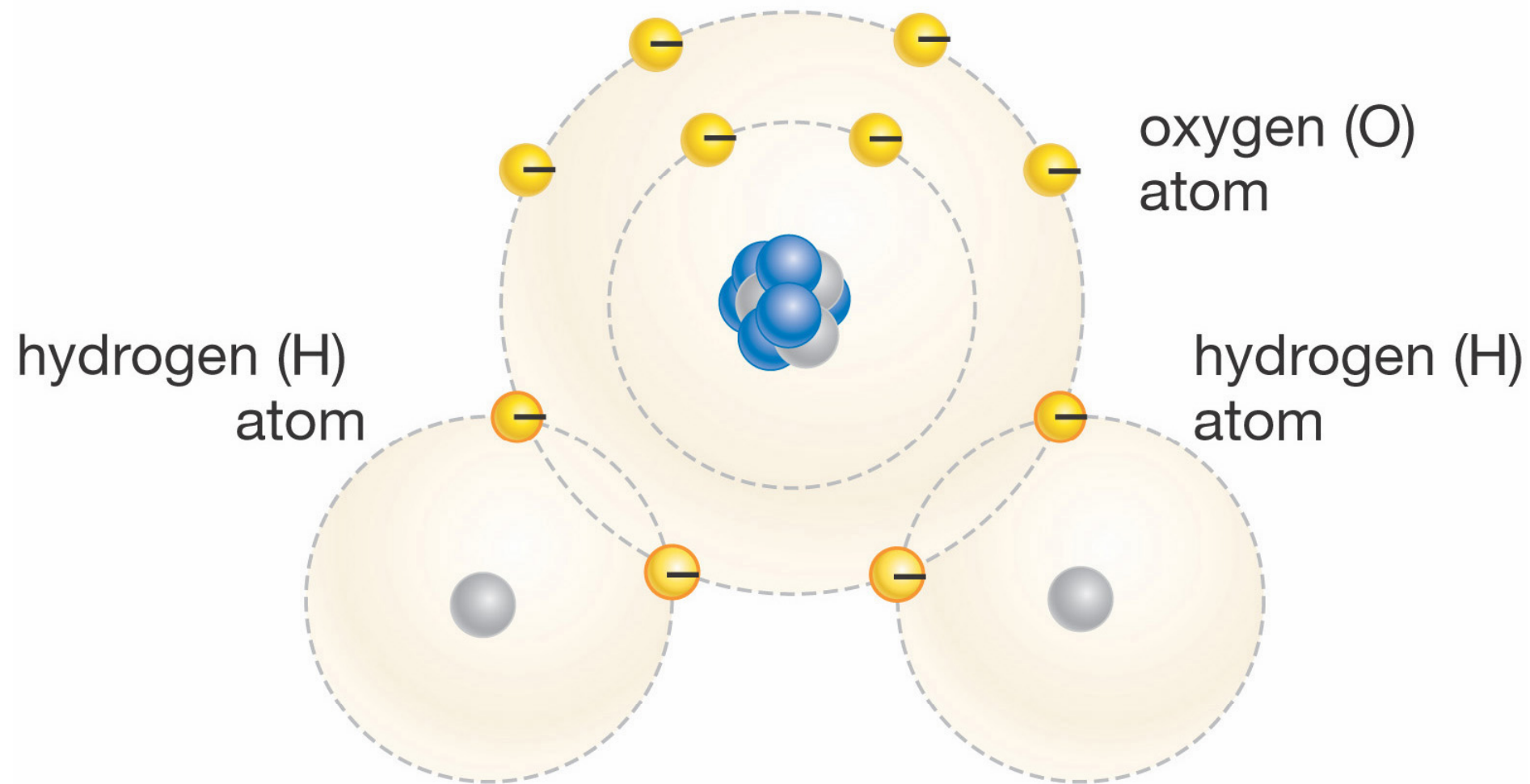


(a) Hydrogen molecule



Covalent bonds

- The number of bonds the atom can form is dictated by the number of valence (outer) electrons it needs to fill its outer orbital.

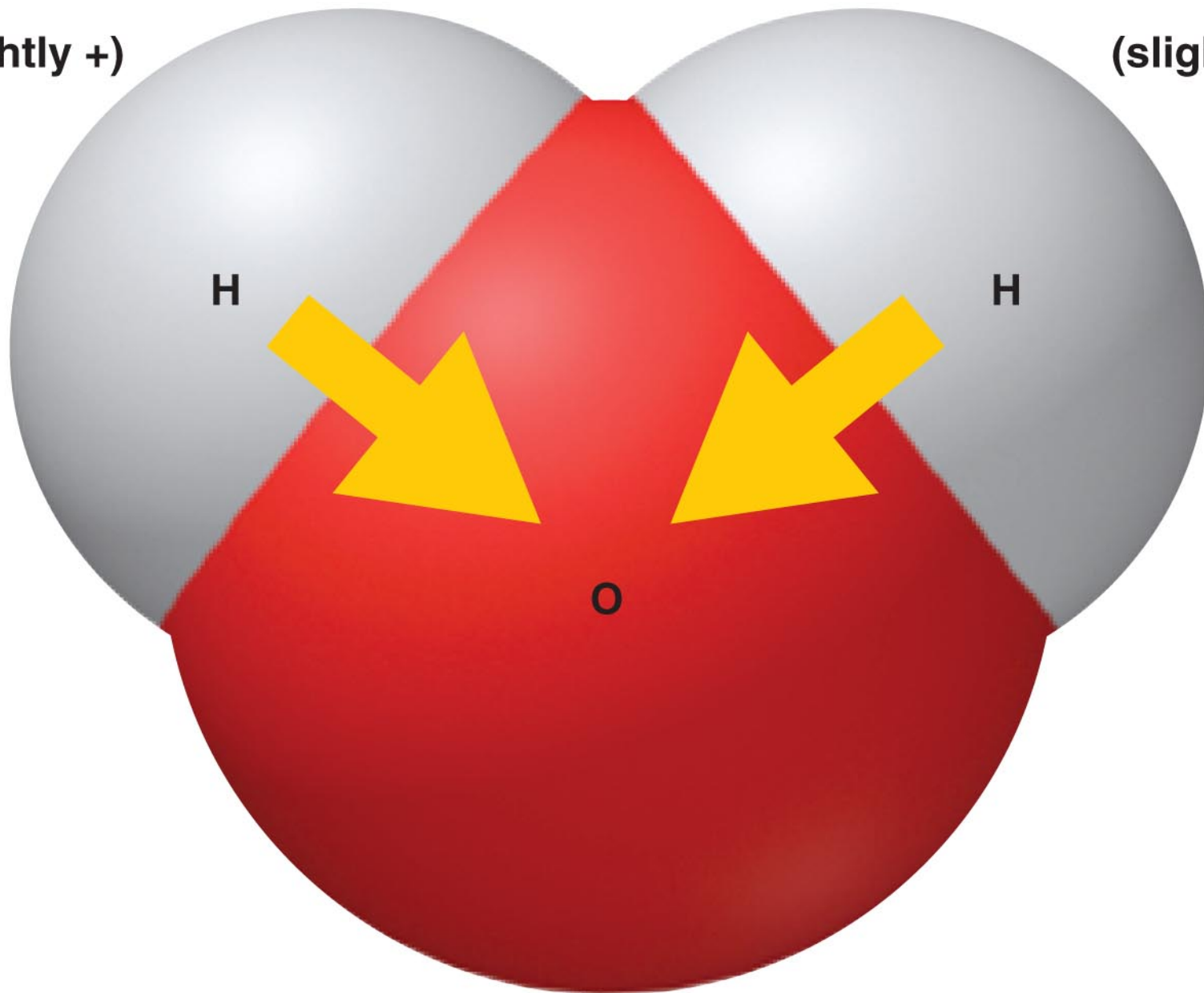


(b) Water molecule

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(slightly +)

(slightly +)

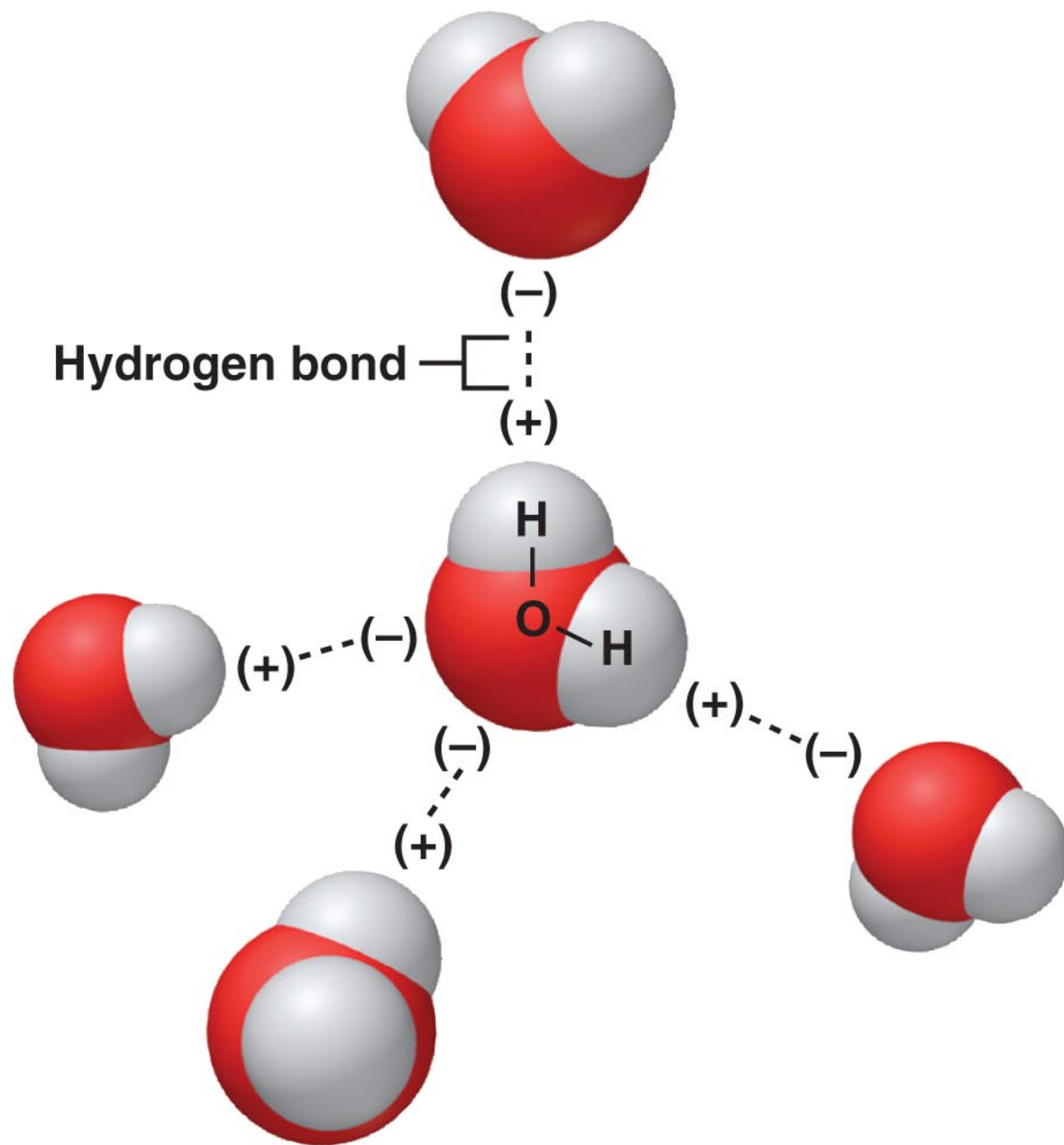


(slightly -)

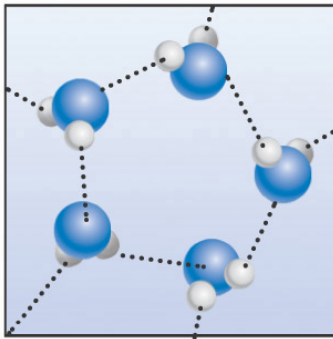
Hydrogen bonds

- When a partially positive hydrogen is attracted to a negatively charged oxygen or nitrogen.
- Water is a good example of hydrogen bonding.



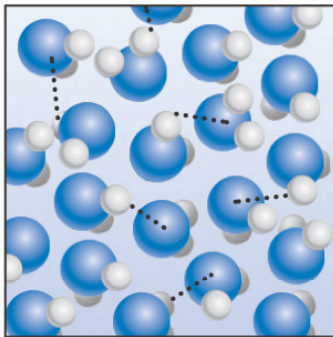


ice



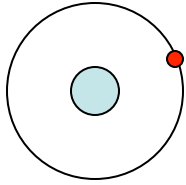
In ice, the maximum number of hydrogen bonds form, causing the molecules to be spread far apart.

liquid water

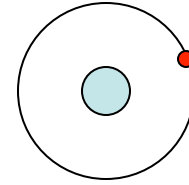


In liquid water, hydrogen bonds constantly break and reform, enabling a more dense spacing than in ice.

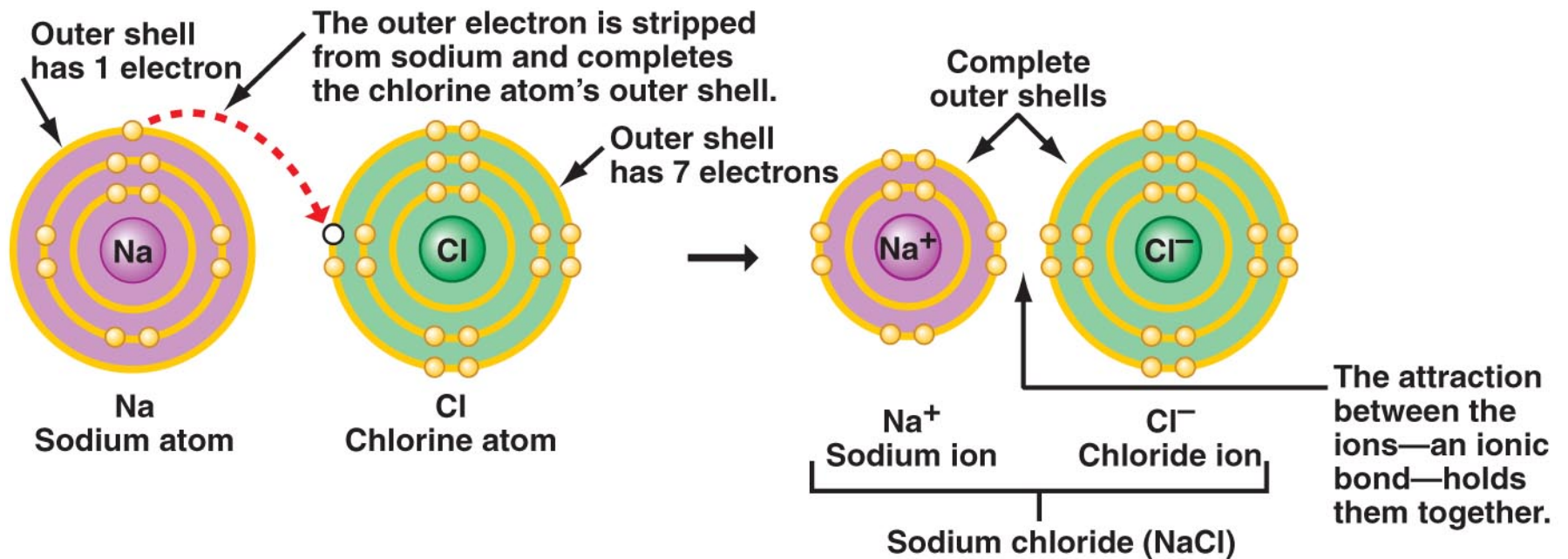




Ionic Bonds

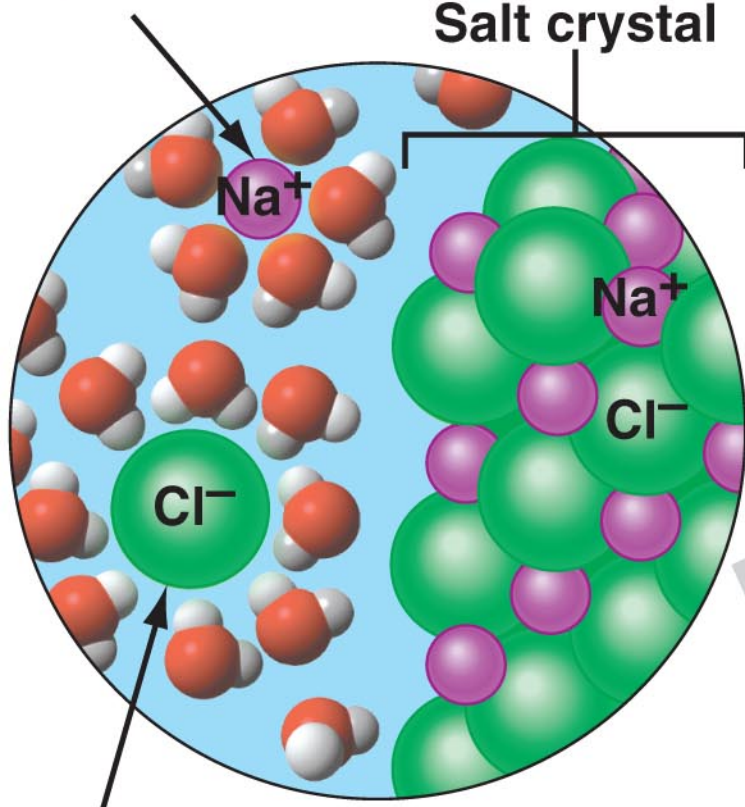


- No sharing of electrons one atom actually steals an electron from another atom.
- This leaves one atom positively charged and another atom negatively charged. Therefore they are attracted to each other.
- Solutions with ions (charged ions) can conduct electricity.



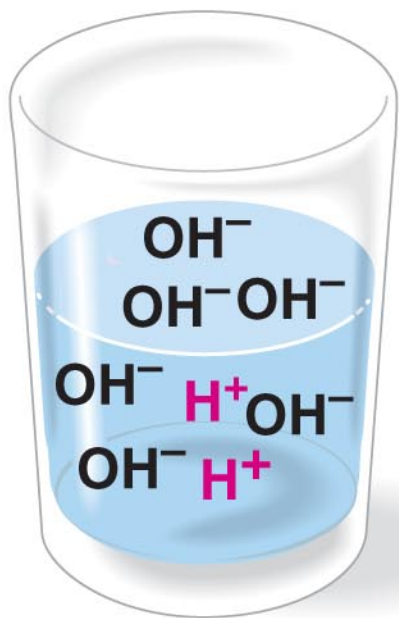
Sodium ion in solution

Salt crystal

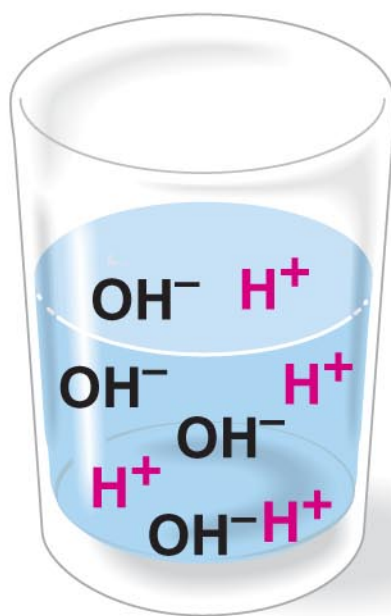


Chloride ion in solution

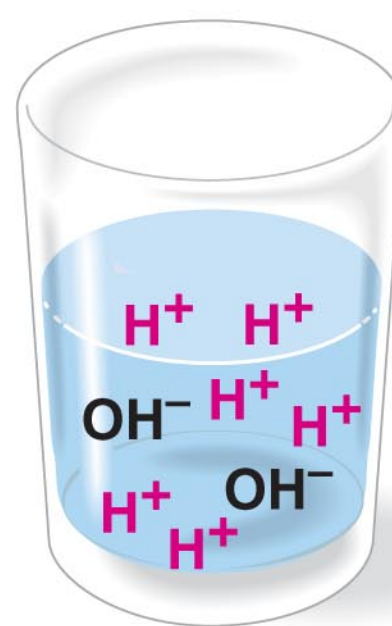




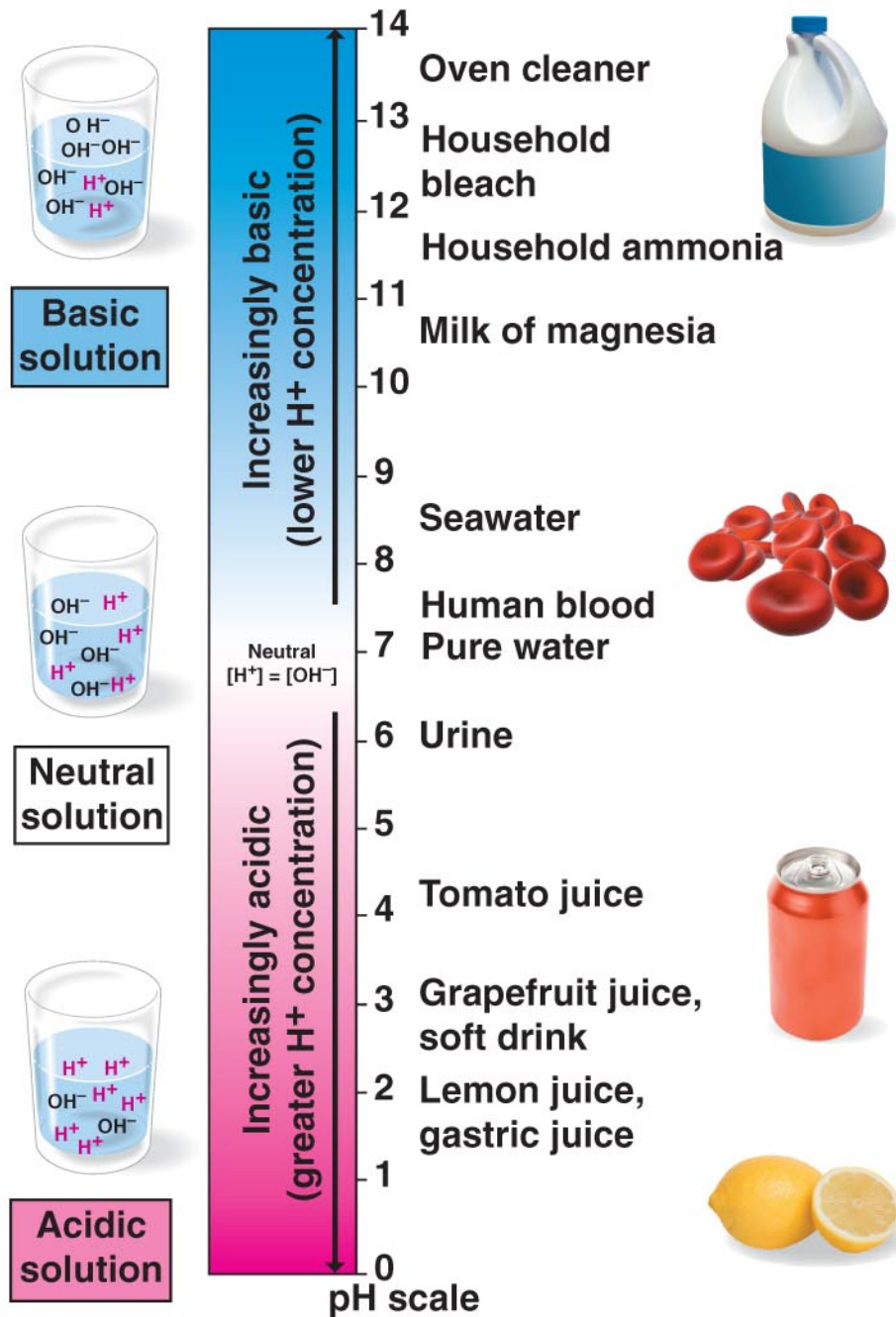
**Basic
solution**



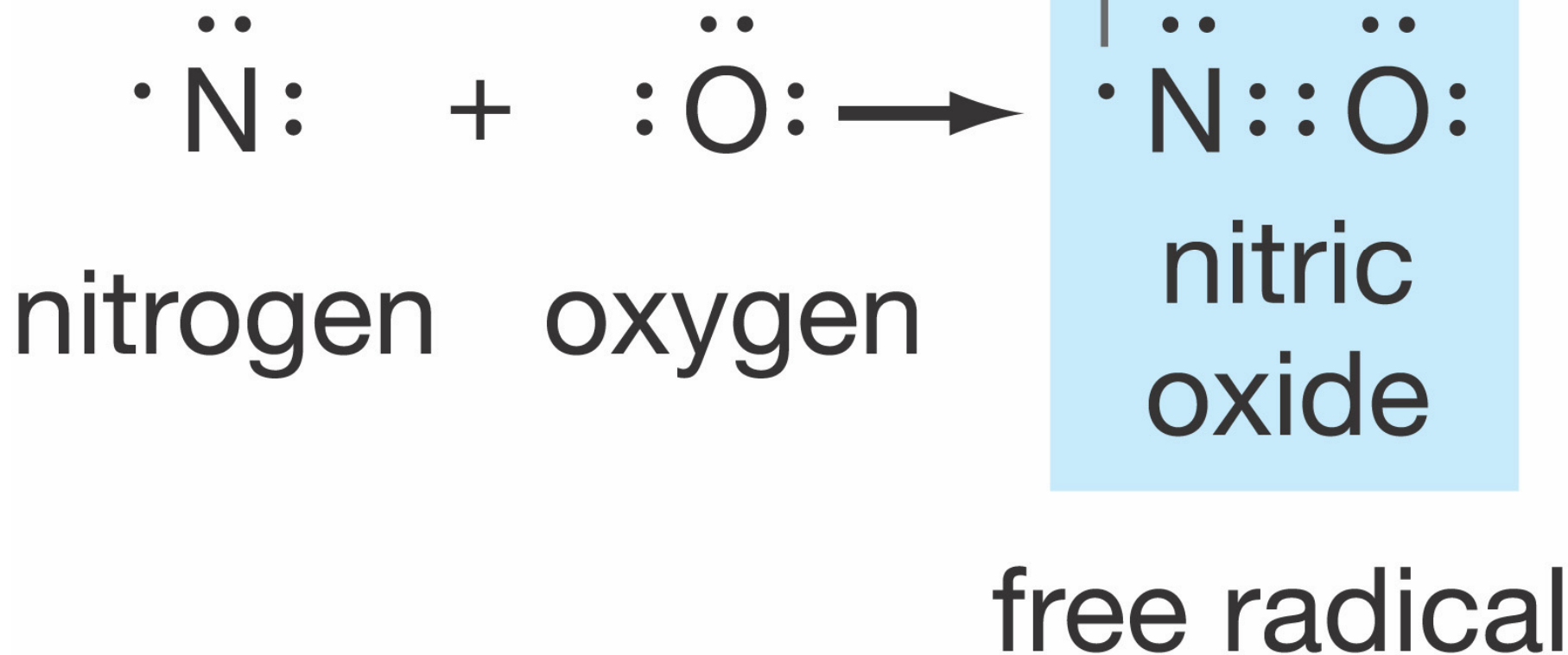
**Neutral
solution**



**Acidic
solution**



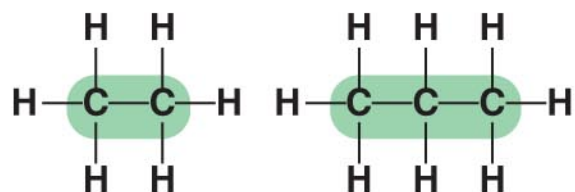
unpaired electron



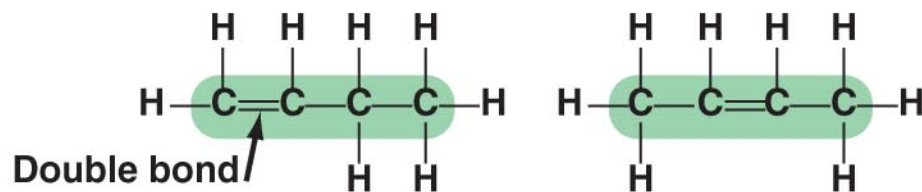
Important Biological Molecules

Vocabulary

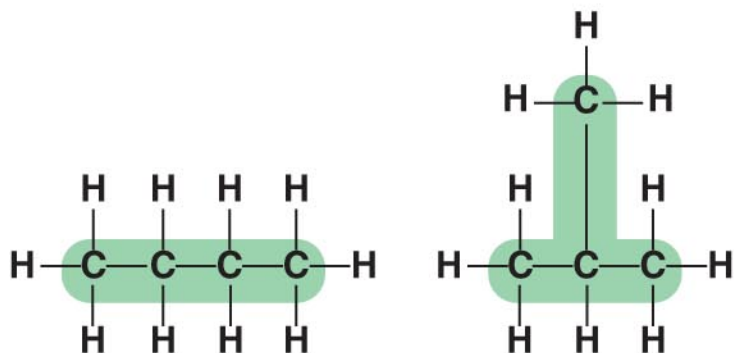
- Hydrocarbons (chains of C)
- Isomers (same molecular formula different shape)
- Functional groups
- Hydrophilic
- Hydrophobic



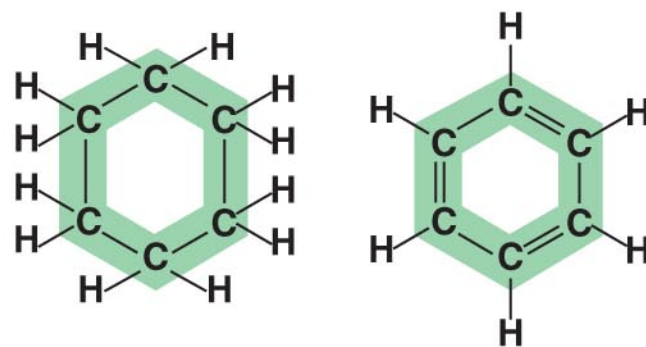
Carbon skeletons vary in length



Carbon skeletons may have double bonds, which can vary in location



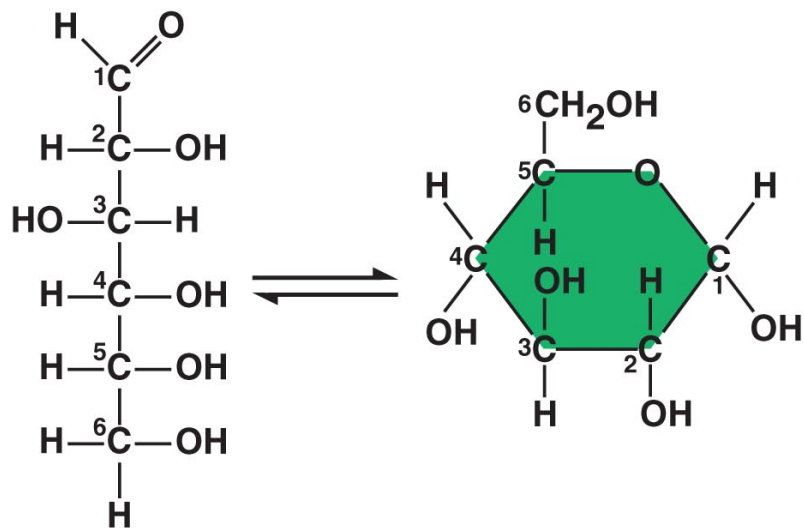
Carbon skeletons may be unbranched or branched



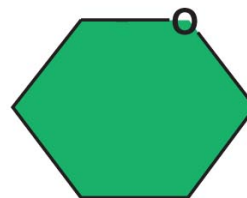
Carbon skeletons may be arranged in rings

Different versions of the energy molecule

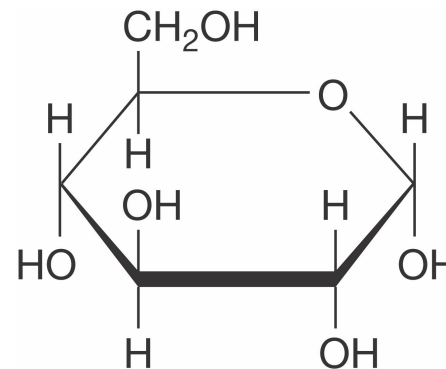
Glucose (a carbohydrate)



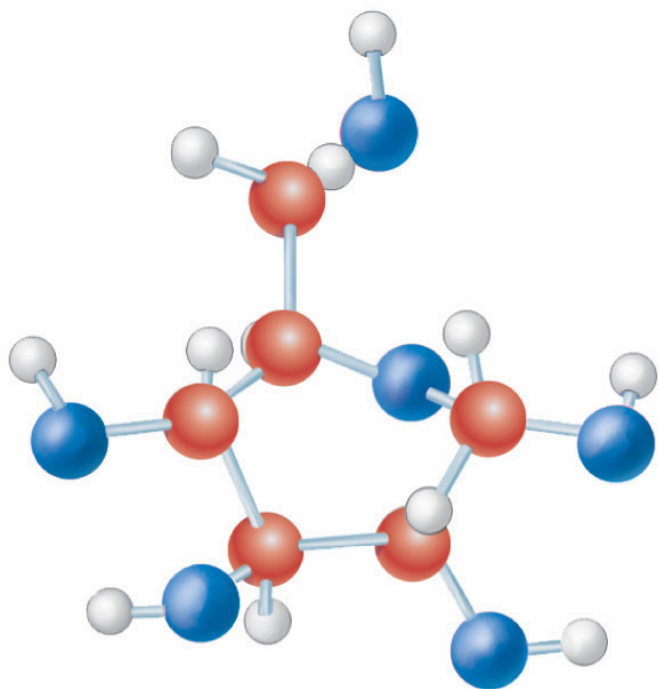
(a) Linear and ring structures



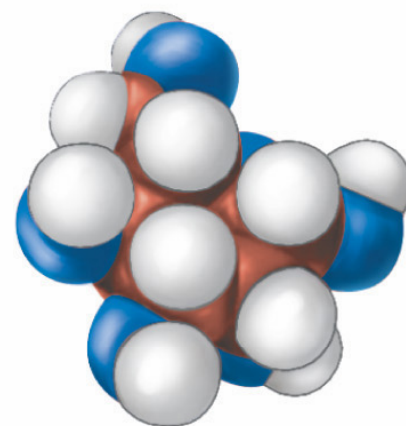
(b) Abbreviated ring structure



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ball-and-stick model of glucose

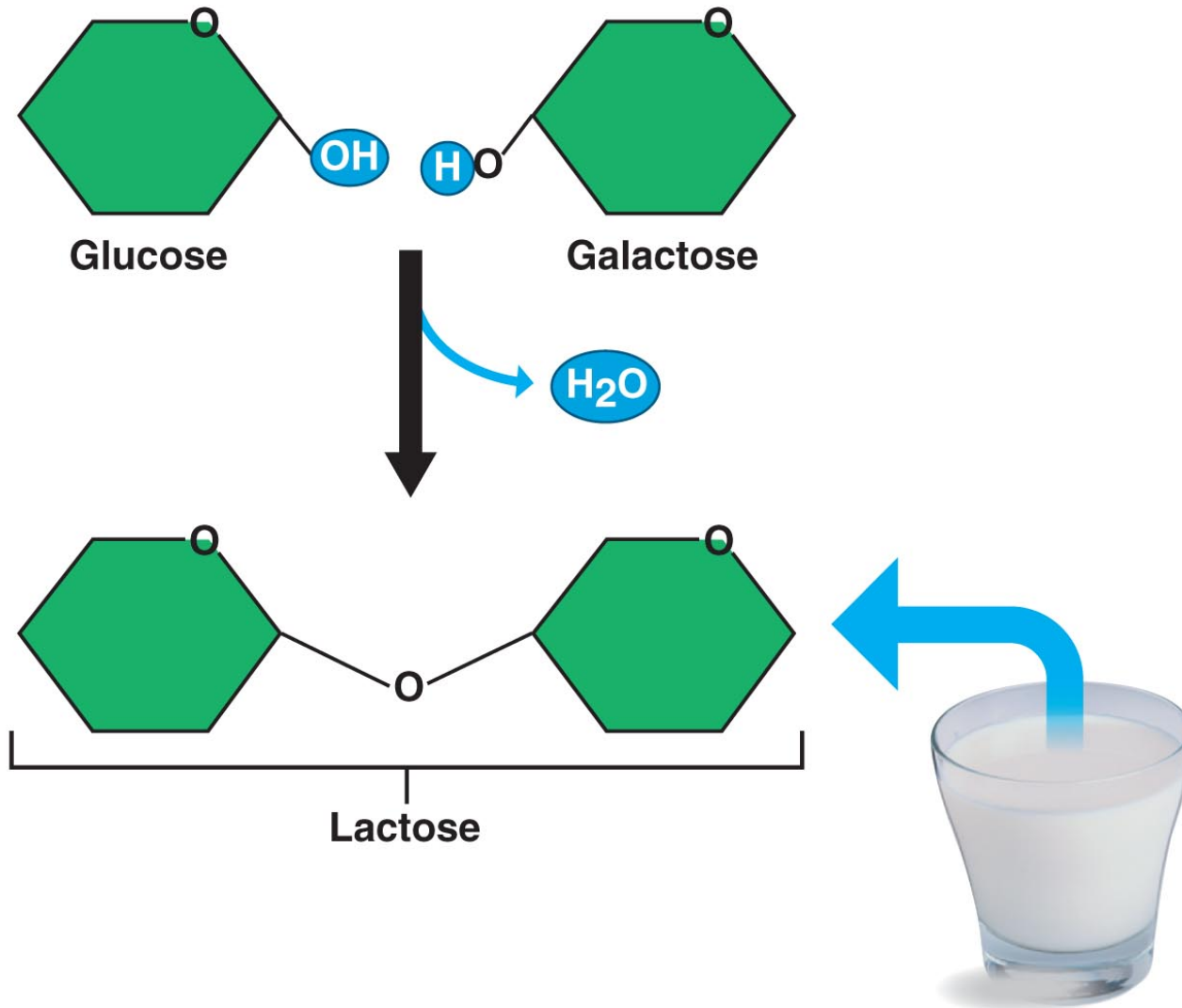


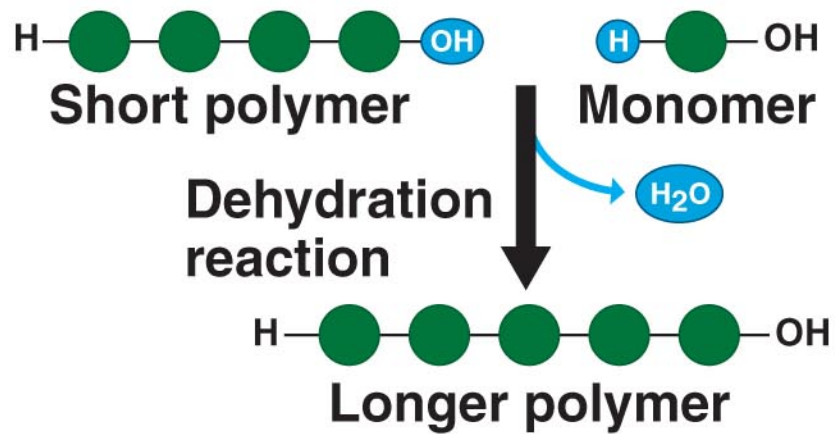
space-filling model of glucose

More vocabulary

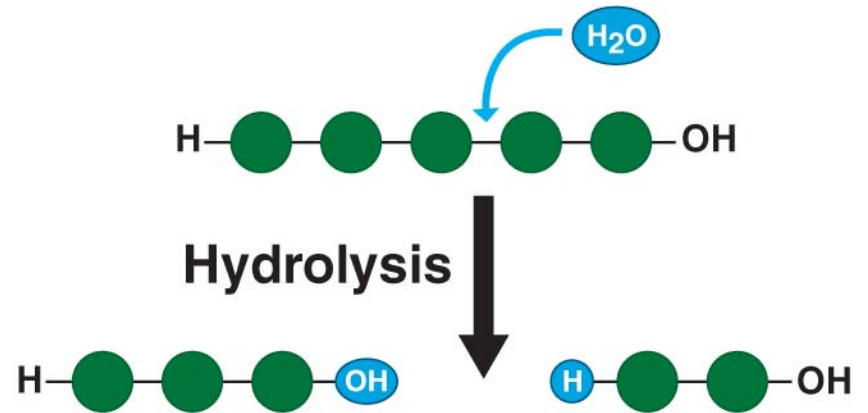
- Macromolecules
- Polymers
- Monomers
- Dehydration reaction
- Hydrolysis

Dehydration reaction

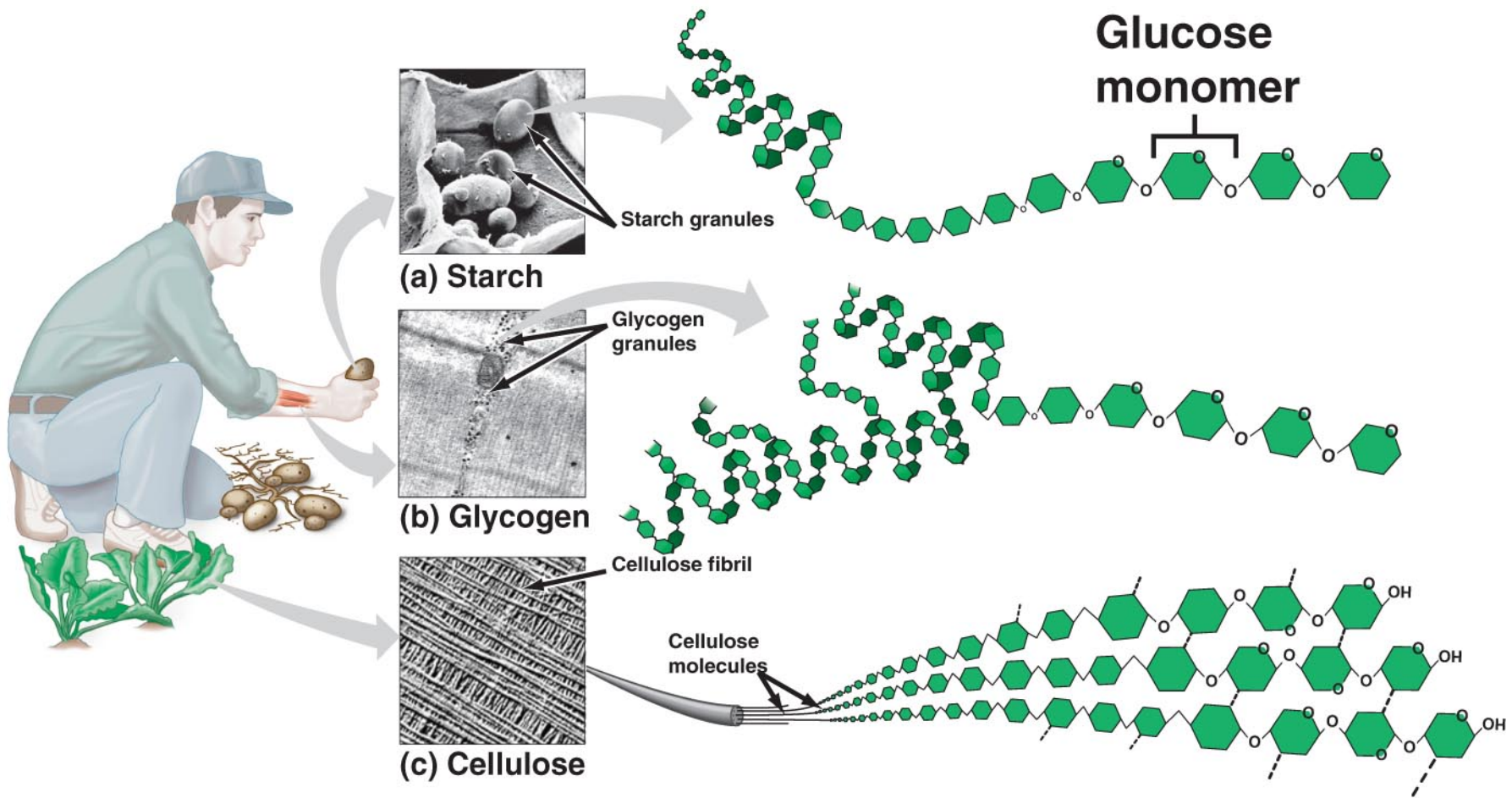


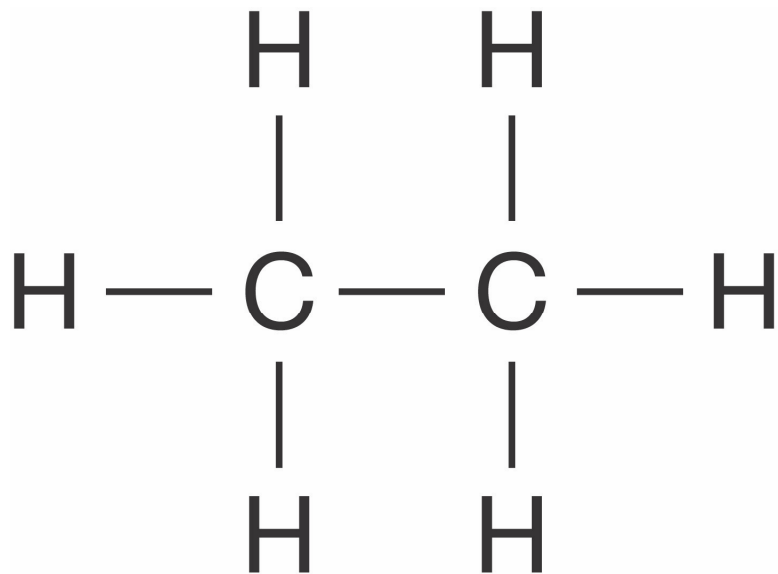


(a) Building a polymer chain



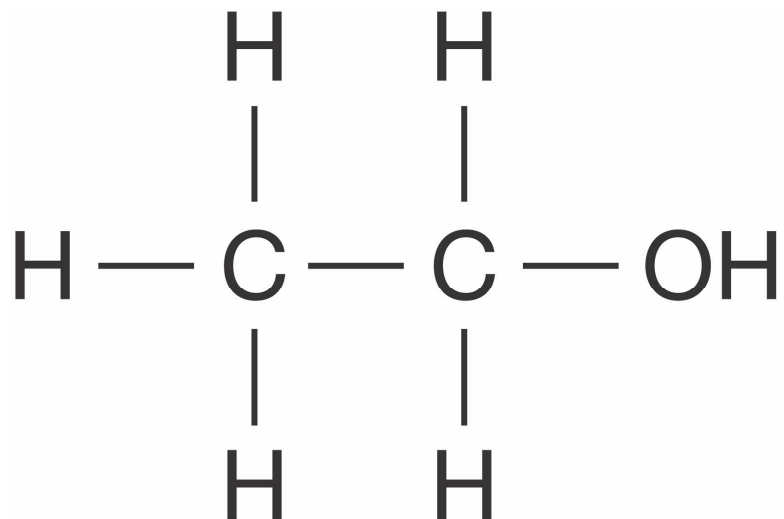
(b) Breaking a polymer chain





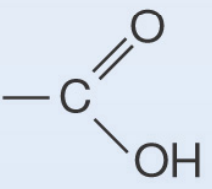
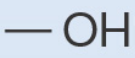
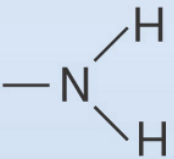
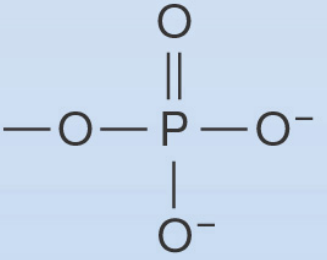
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Additions of Functional Groups

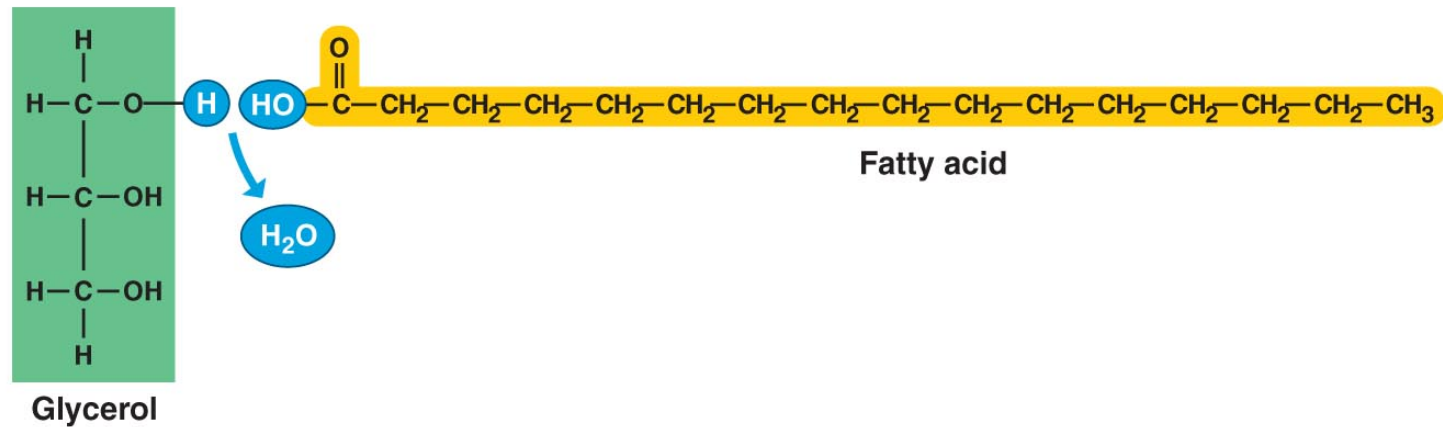


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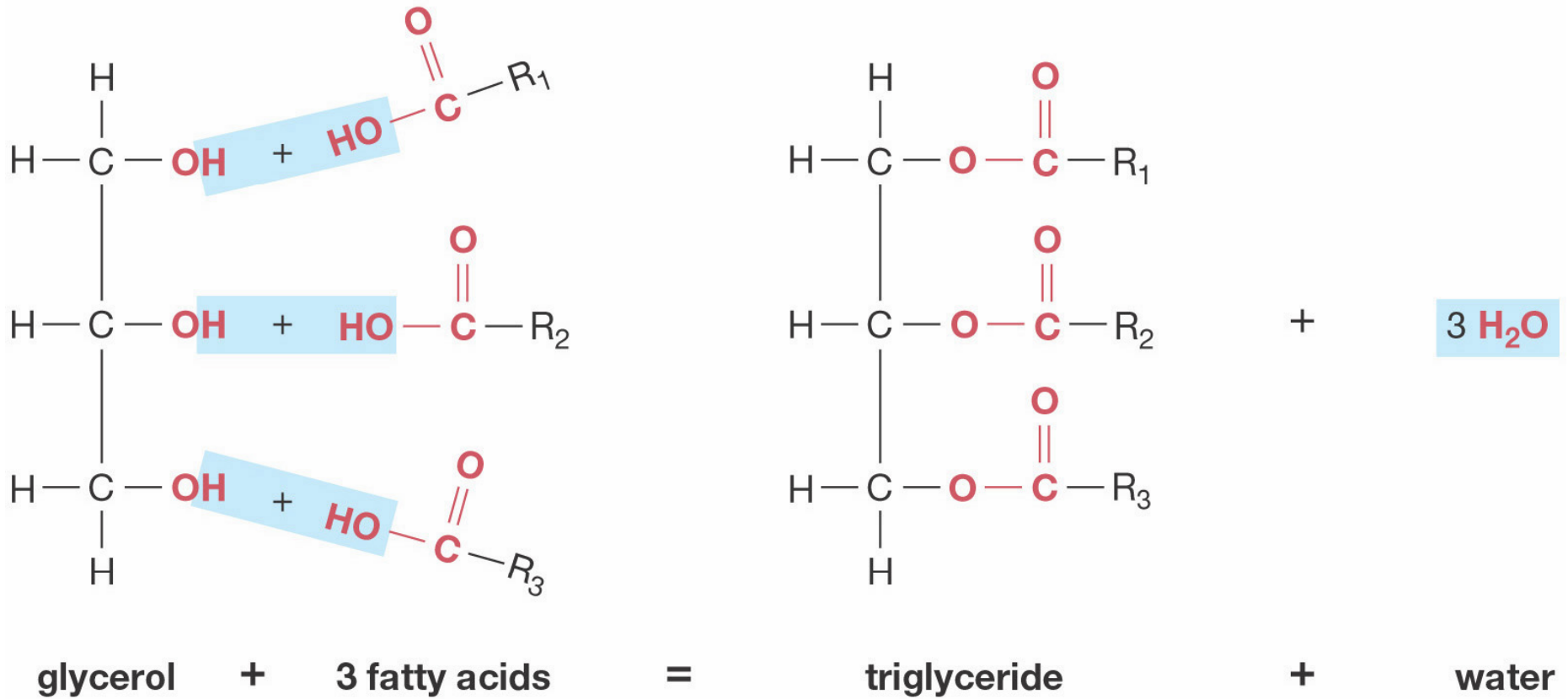
Table 3.1 Functional groups

Group:	Structural formula:	Found in:
Carboxyl (—COOH)		fatty acids, amino acids
Hydroxyl (—OH)		alcohols, carbohydrates
Amino (—NH ₂)		amino acids
Phosphate (—PO ₄)		DNA, ATP

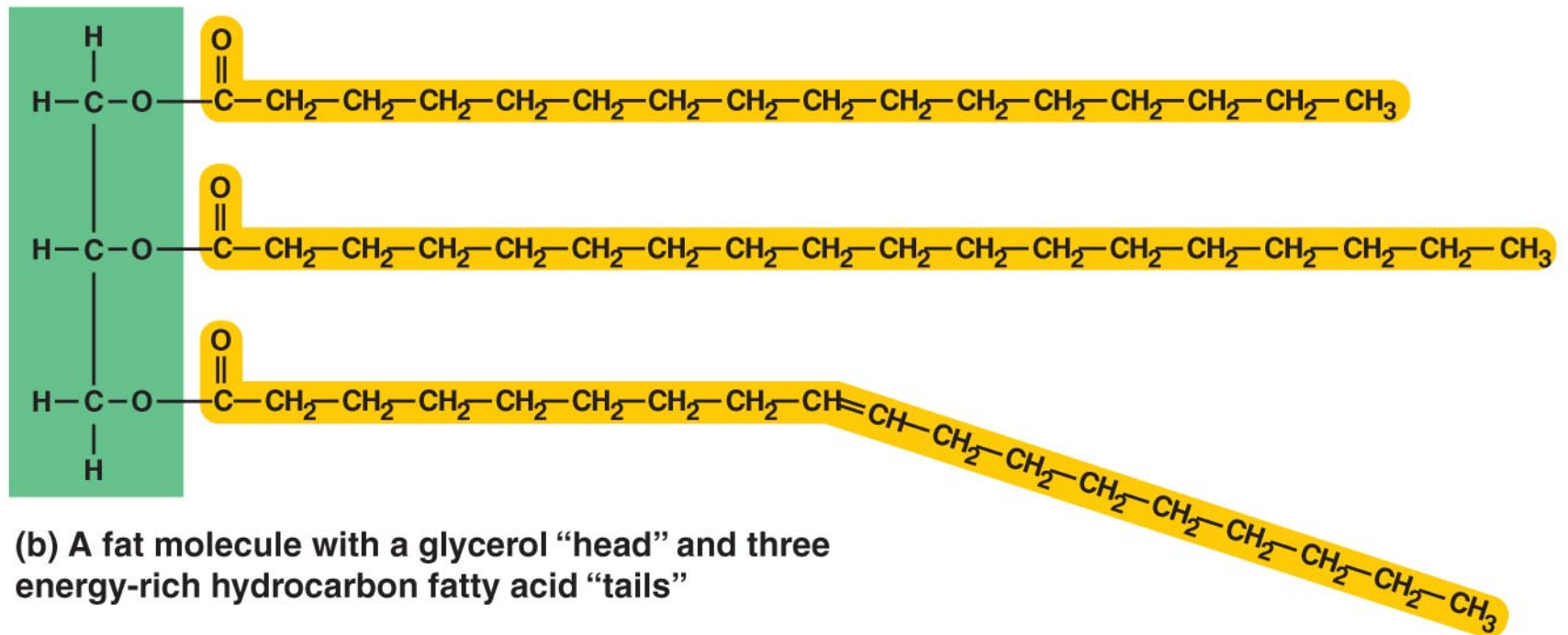
The makings of a Fatty Acid



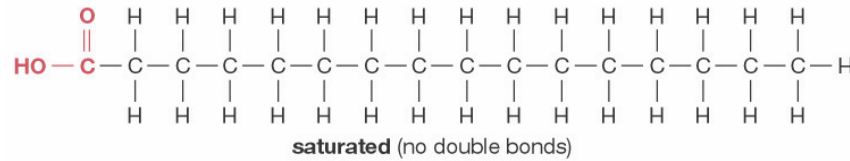
(a) A dehydration reaction linking a fatty acid to glycerol



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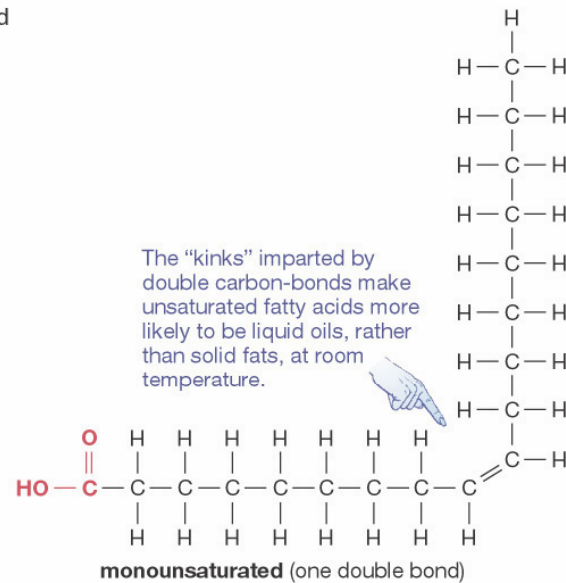


(a) Palmitic acid



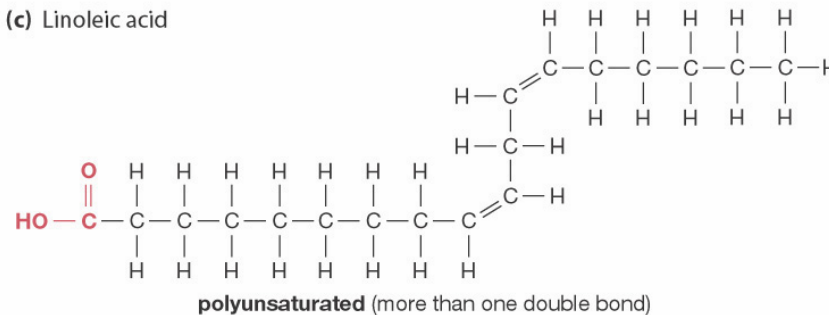
saturated

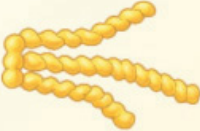
(b) Oleic acid



unsaturated

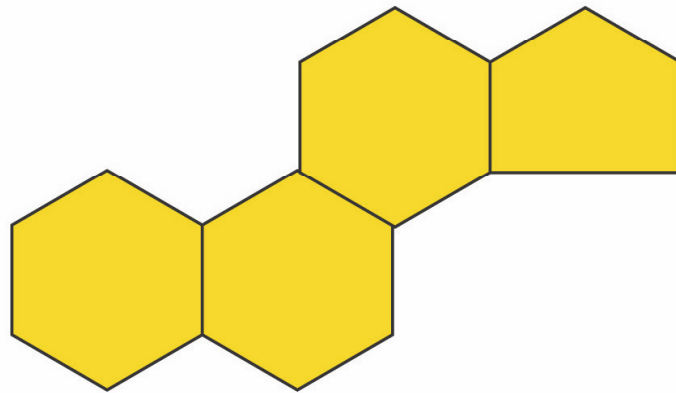
(c) Linoleic acid



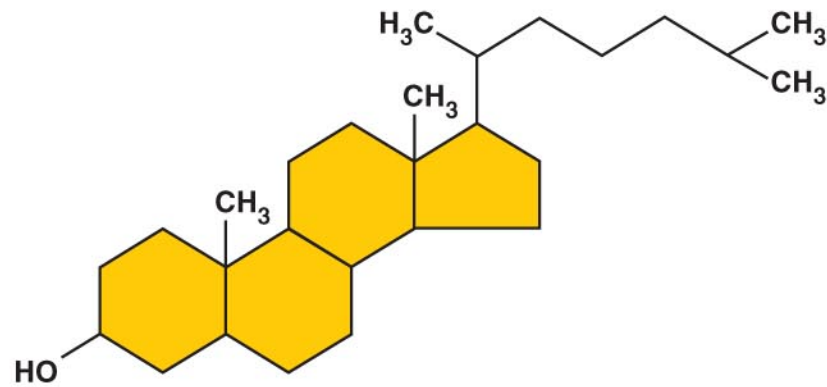
Food source	(a) Carbohydrates	(b) Fats
Energy stored	 The starch in carrots stores energy.	 The fat in cows stores energy.
Energy made available	 When we eat carrots, the starch is broken down into glucose.	 When we eat meat, the fat is broken down into glycerol and fatty acids.
Energy used	 Glucose can start serving as an energy source.	 Glycerol and fatty acids can start serving as an energy source.
Energy stored	 If the body doesn't need energy immediately, glucose will be converted into glycogen, which is stored in the liver for later use.	 If the body doesn't need energy immediately, glycerol and fatty acids will be converted into triglycerides, which are stored in fat cells for later use.

Basic structure for many hormones

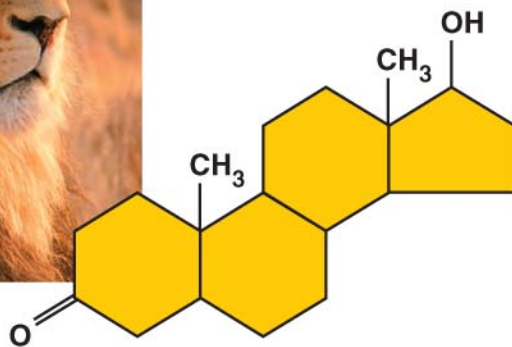
(a) Four-ring steroid structure



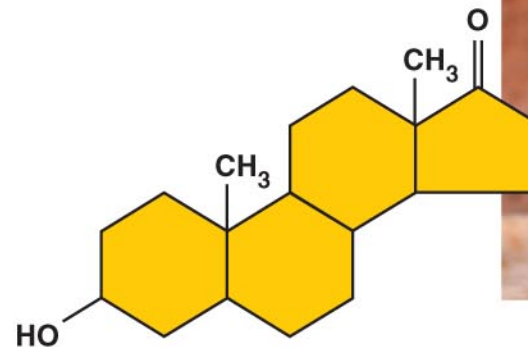
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Cholesterol

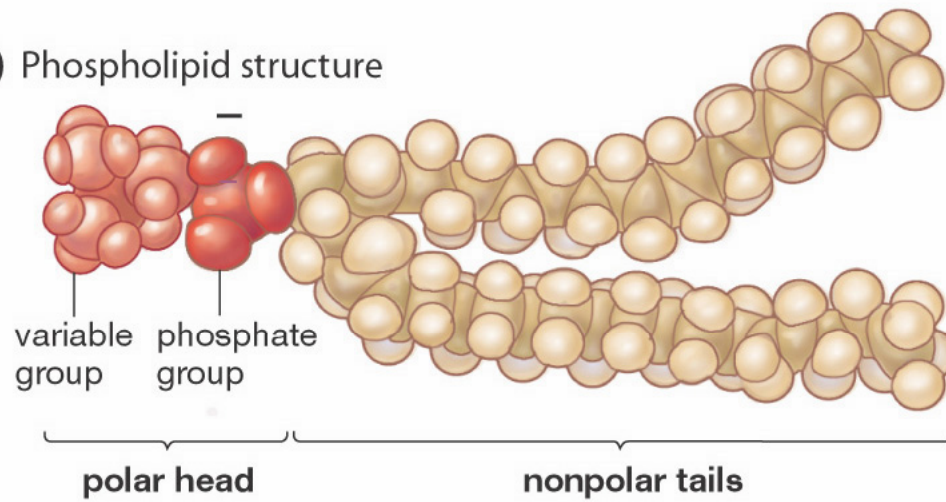


Testosterone

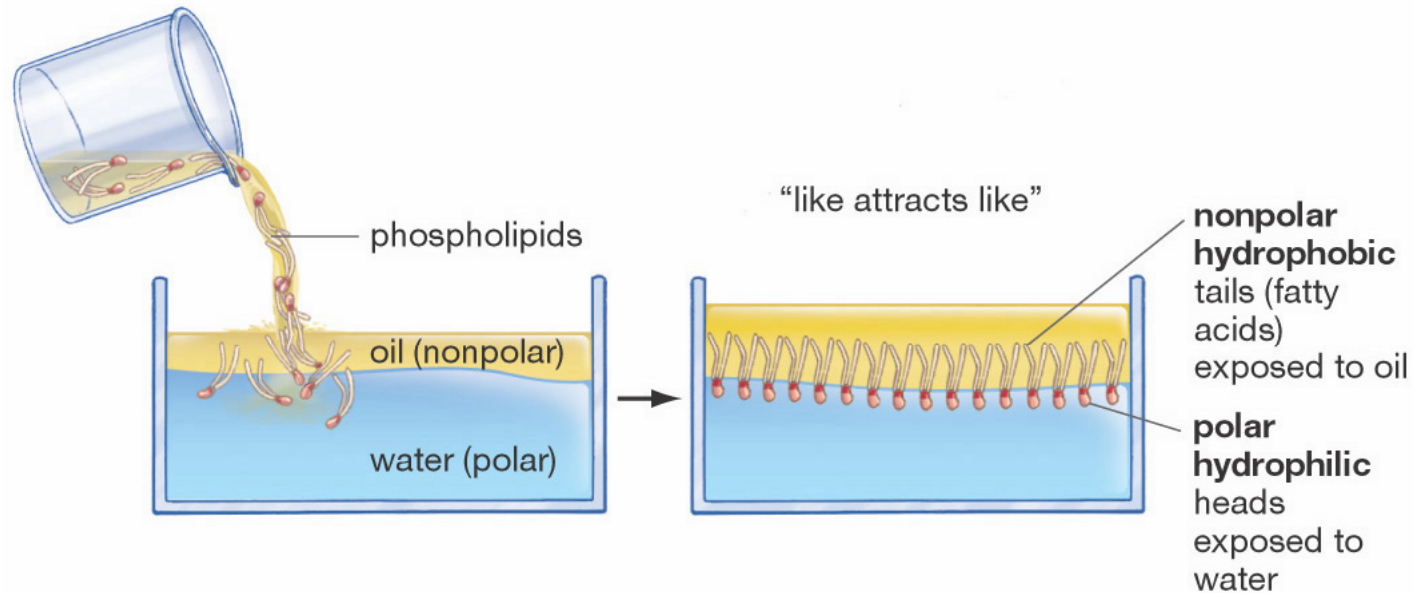


A type of estrogen

(a) Phospholipid structure

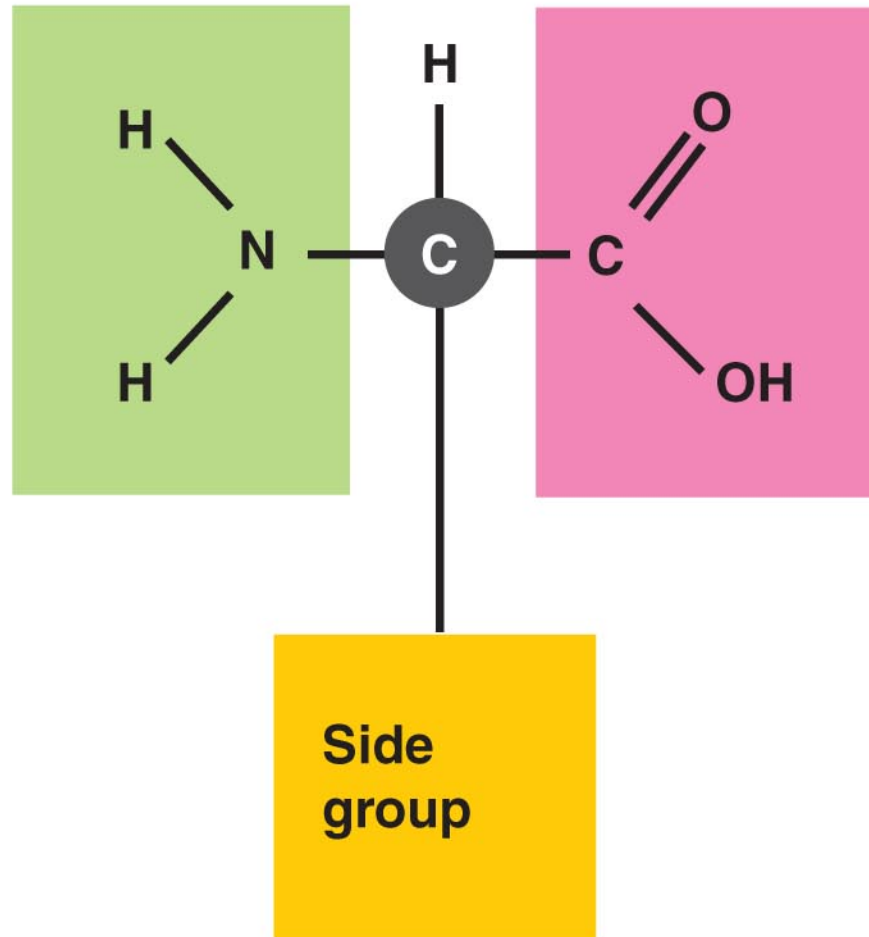


(b) Phospholipid orientation

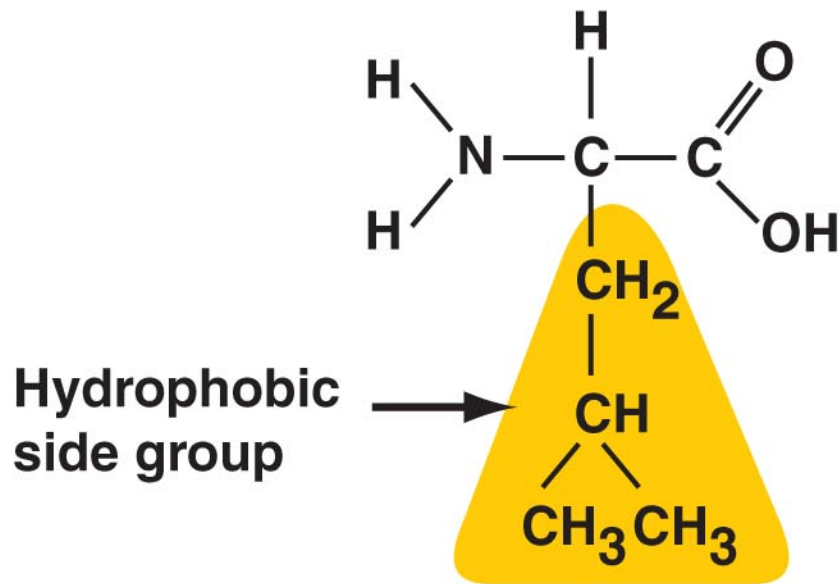


**Amino
group**

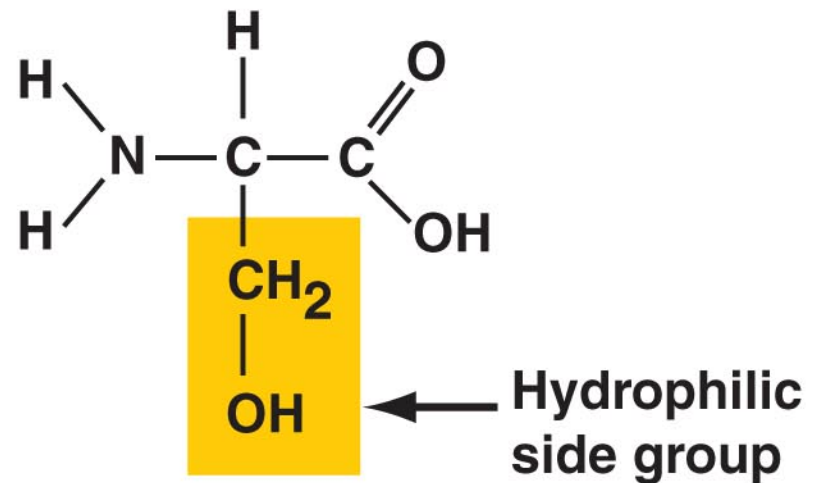
**Carboxyl
group**



(a) The general structure of an amino acid

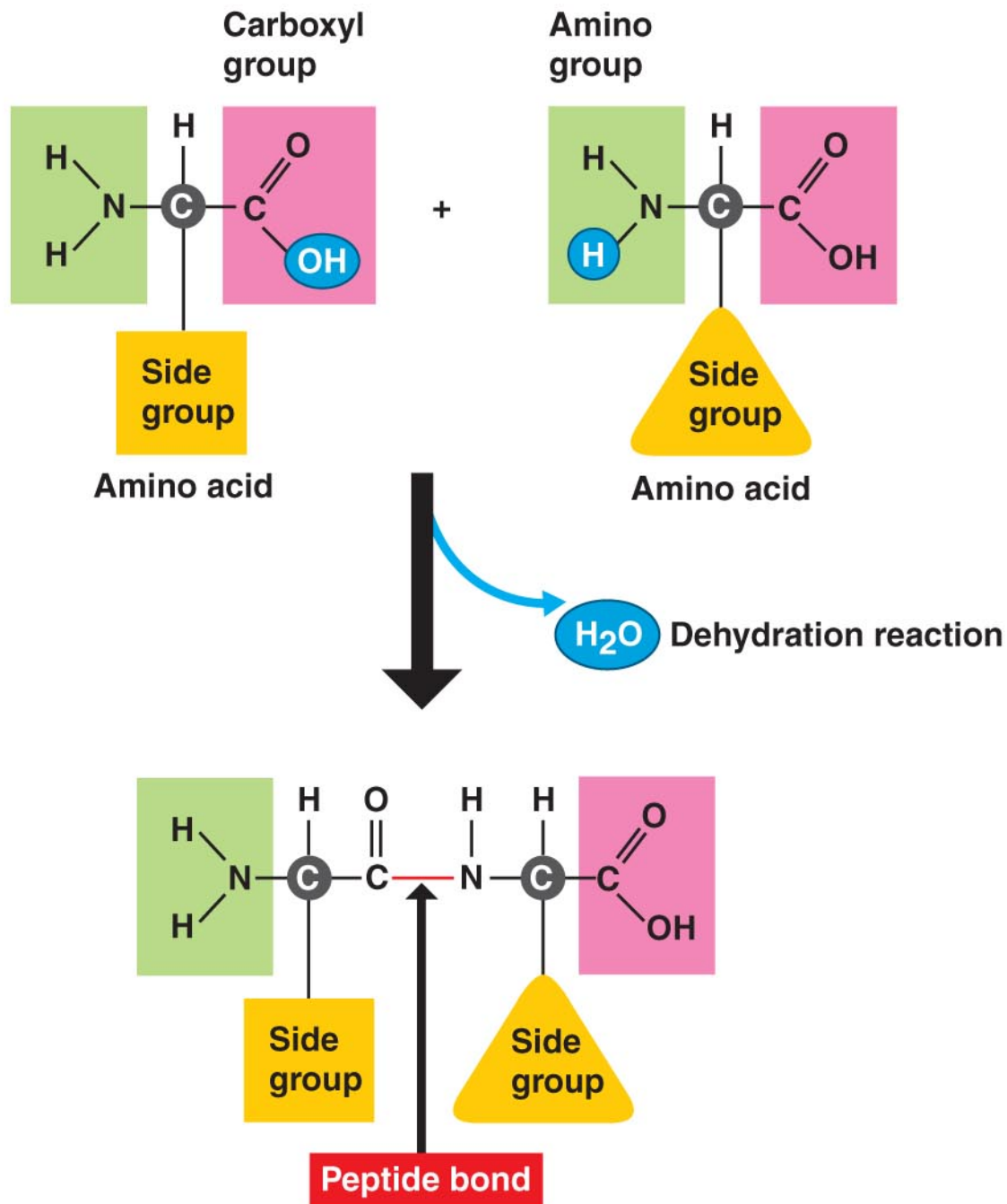


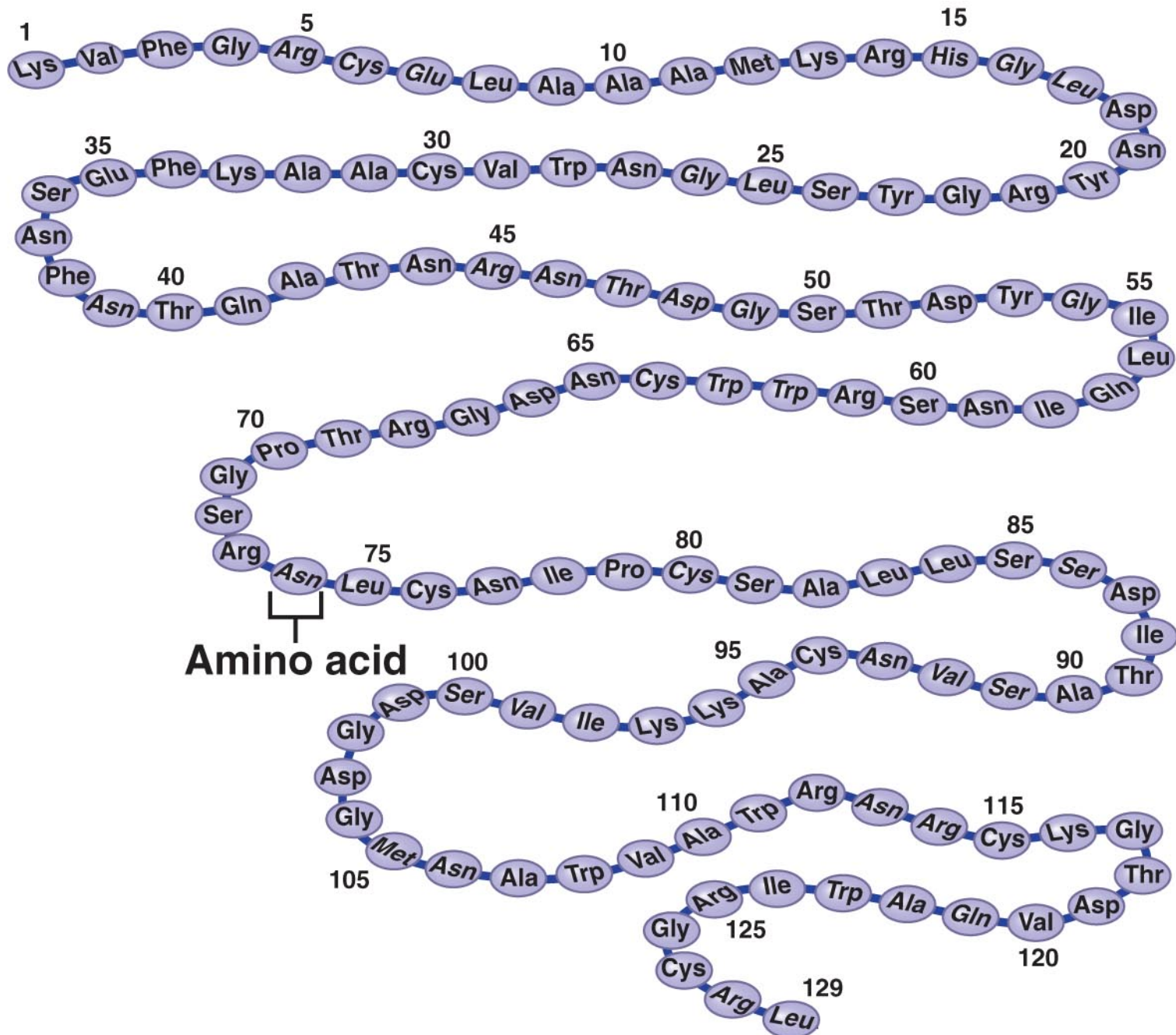
Leucine



Serine

(b) Examples of amino acids with hydrophobic and hydrophilic side groups



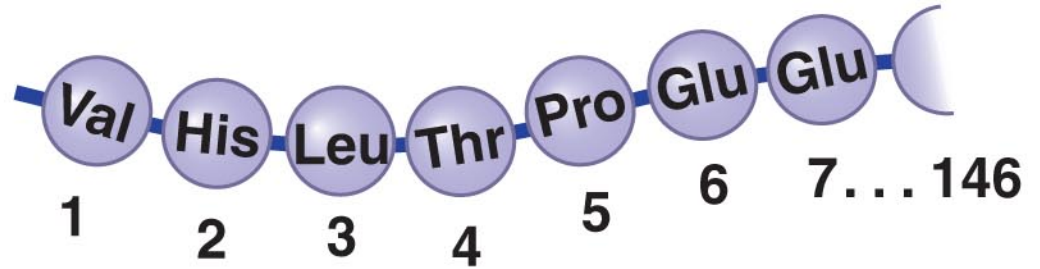


SEM



Normal red blood cell

(a) Normal hemoglobin



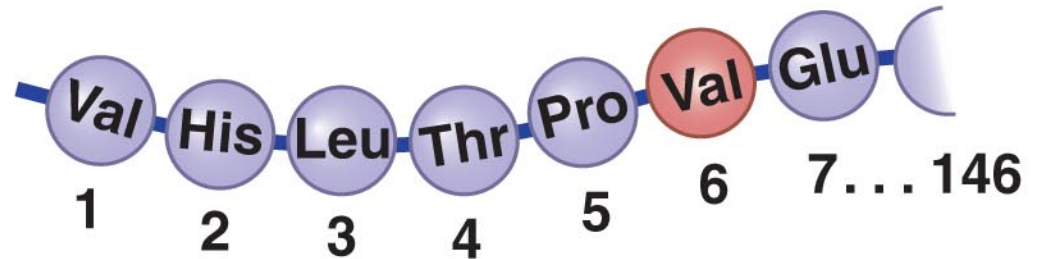
Normal hemoglobin

SEM

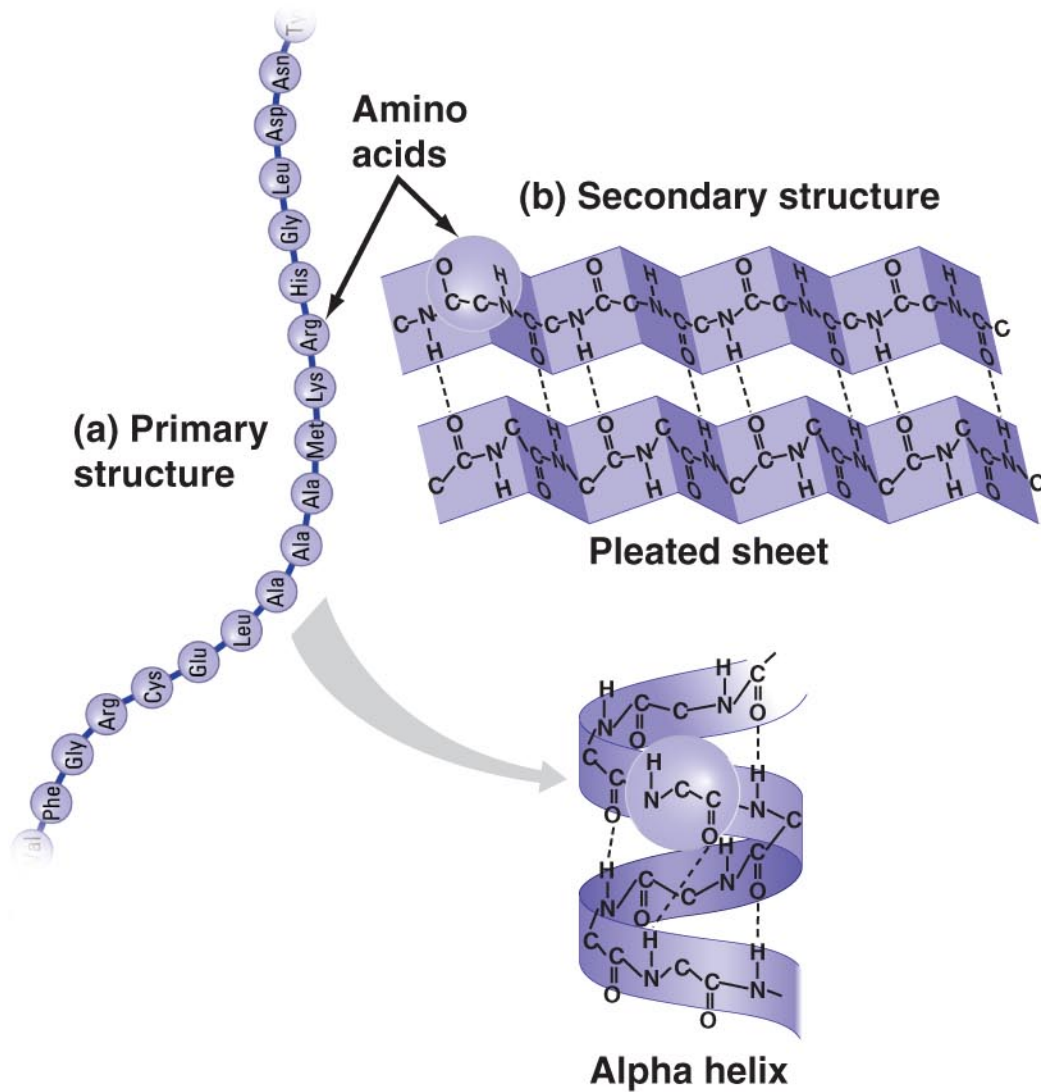


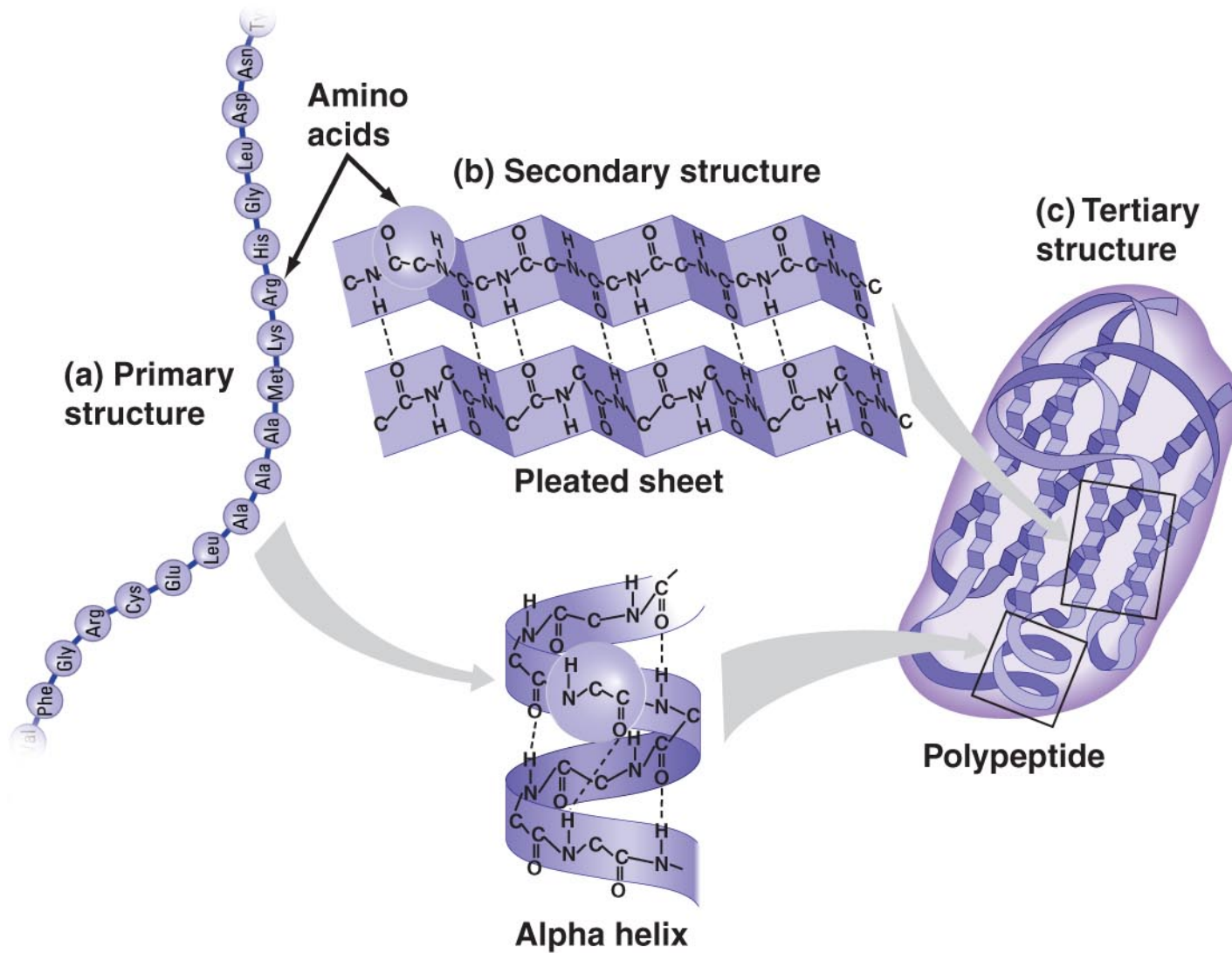
Sickled red blood cell

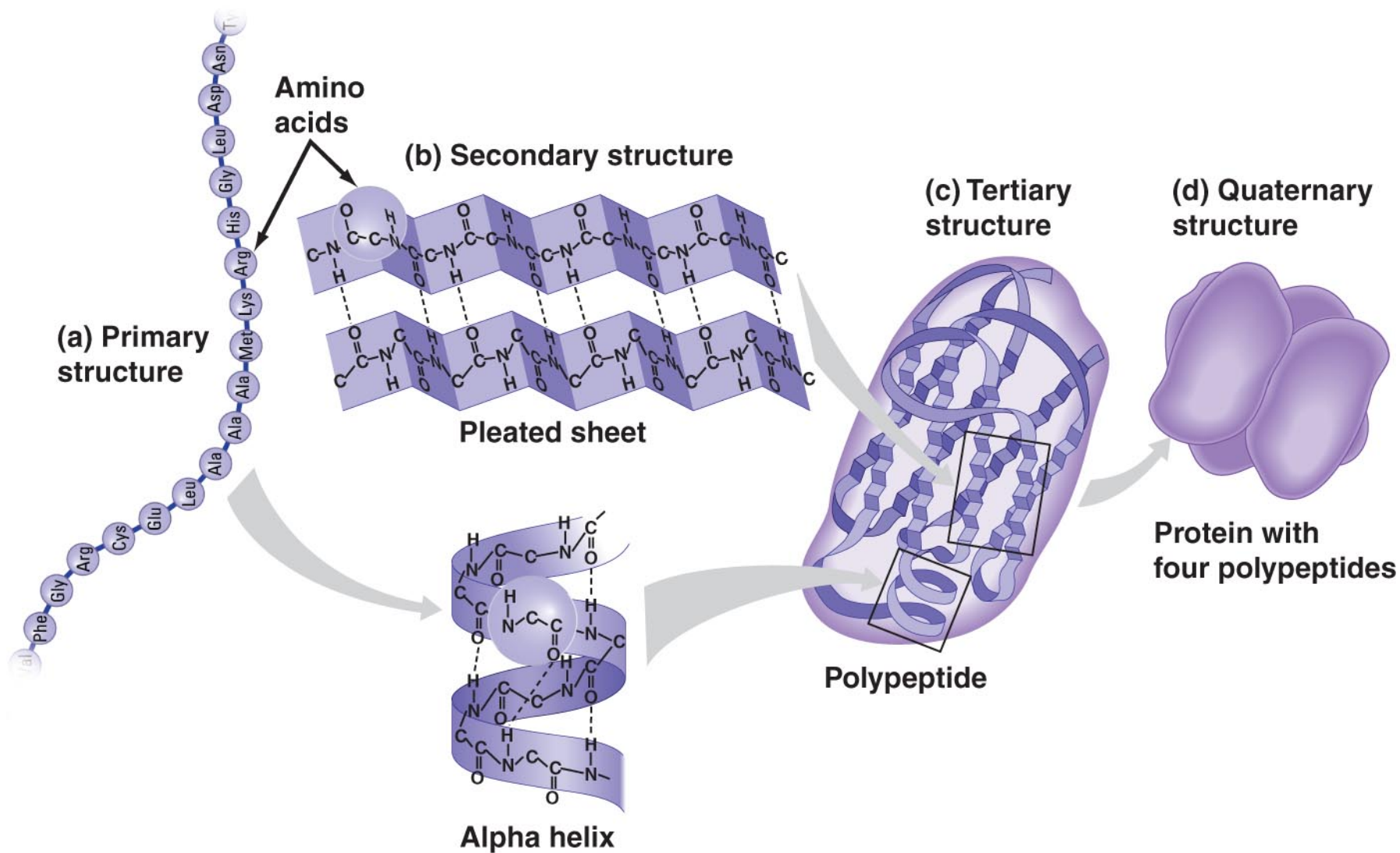
(b) Sickle-cell hemoglobin



Sickle-cell hemoglobin







MAJOR TYPES OF PROTEINS

Structural Proteins



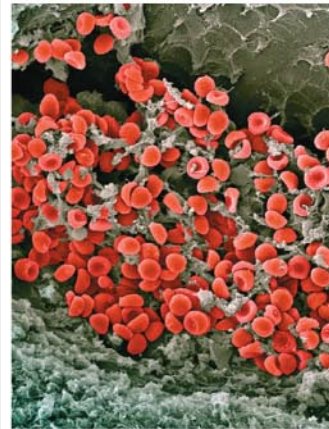
Storage Proteins



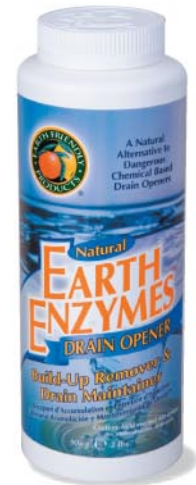
Contractile Proteins

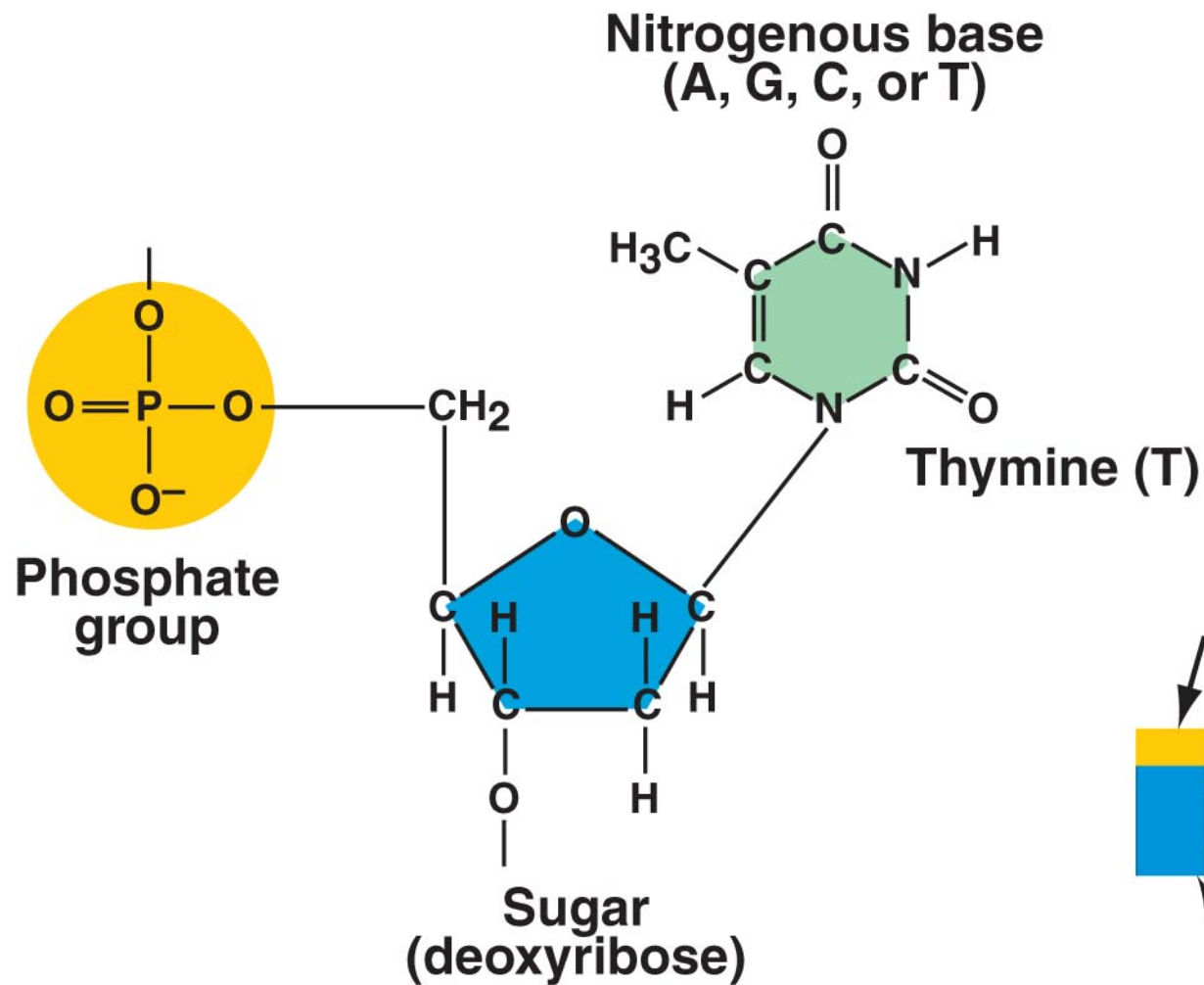


Transport Proteins

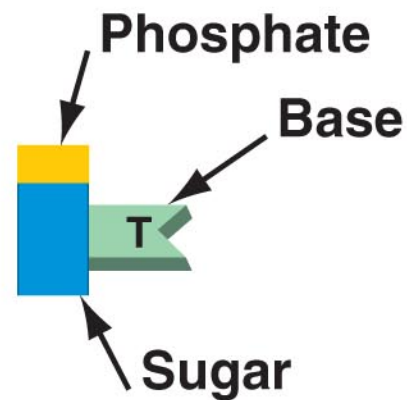


Enzymes

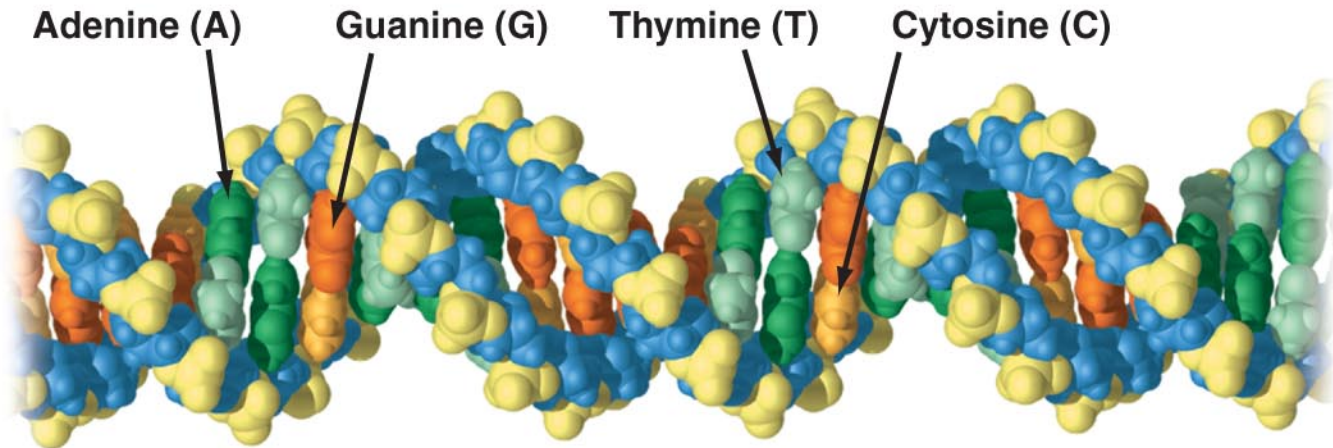
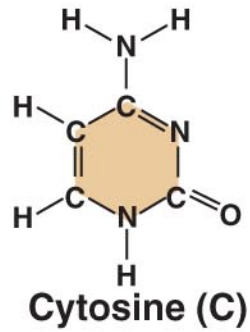
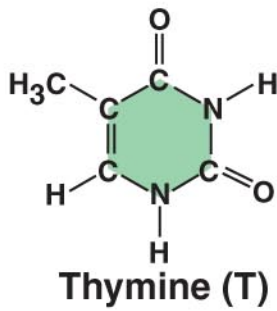
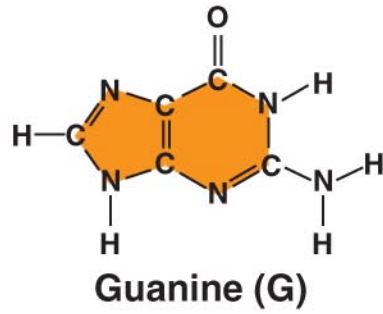
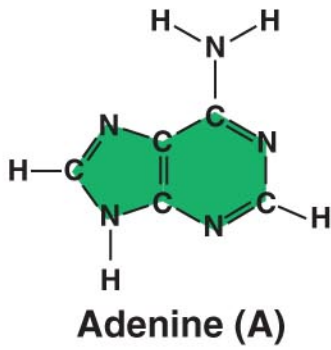




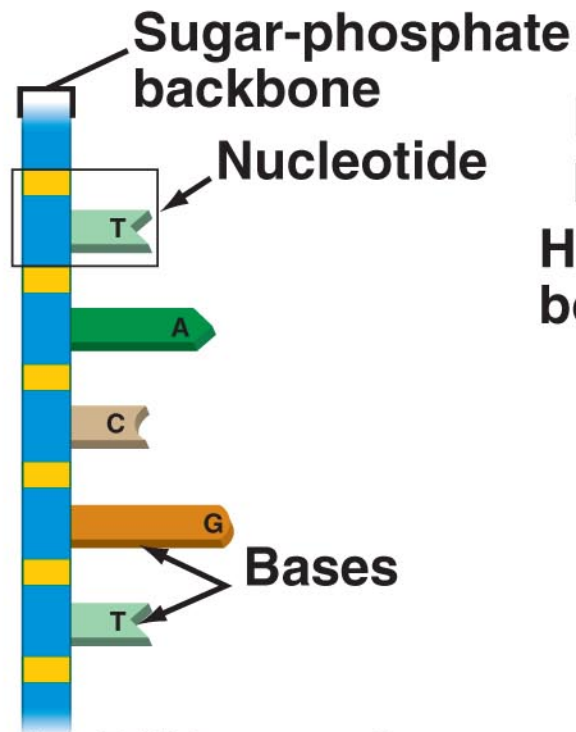
(a) Atomic structure



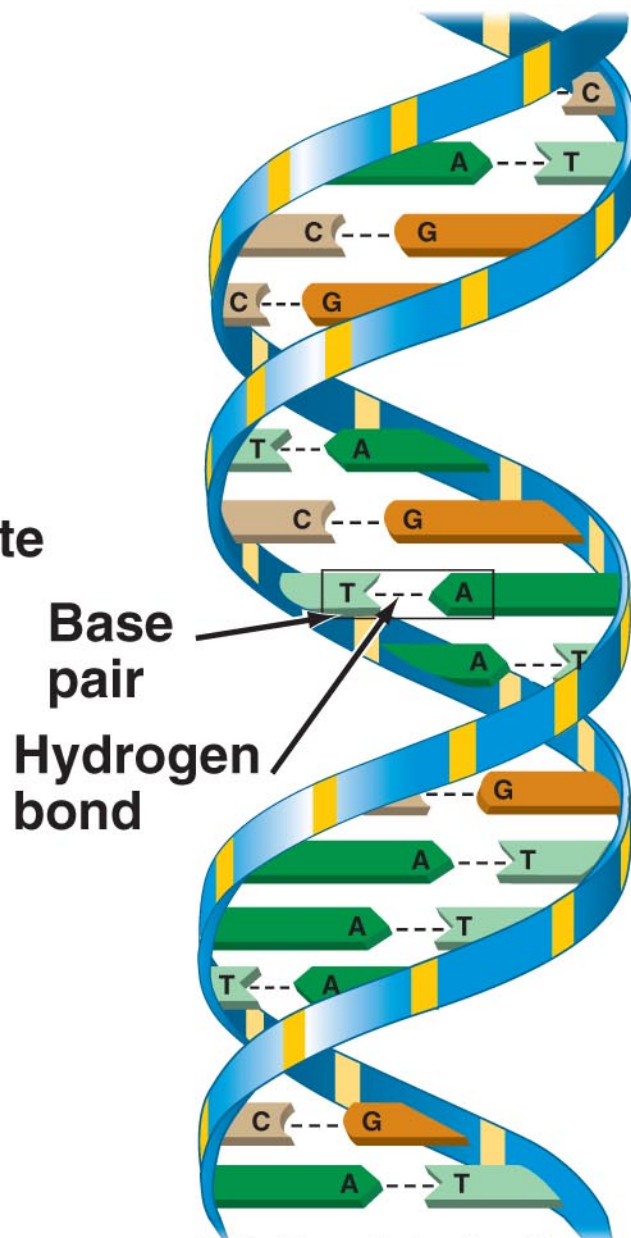
(b) Symbol used in this book



Space-filling model of DNA

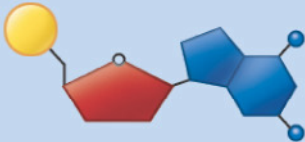
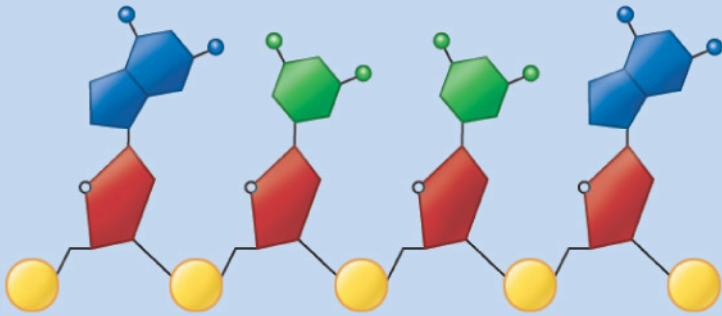


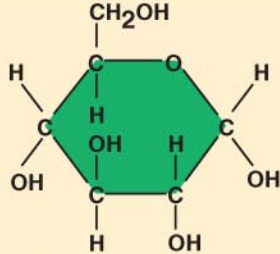
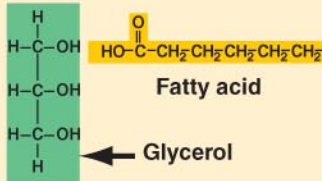
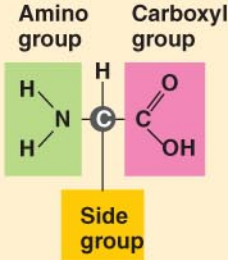
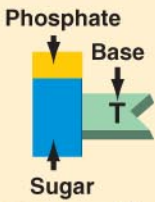
**(a) DNA strand
(polynucleotide)**



**(b) Double helix
(two polynucleotide strands)**

Table 3.2 Monomers, Polymers

If the monomer is...	The polymer is...
A monosaccharide (for example, glucose, fructose) 	A polysaccharide (for example, starch, glycogen, cellulose) 
An amino acid (for example, arginine, leucine) 	A polypeptide or protein (A- and B-chains of insulin are polypeptides and insulin is a protein) 
A nucleotide (sugar, phosphate, base in combination) 	A nucleic acid (for example, DNA, RNA) 

Large biological molecules	Functions	Components	Examples
Carbohydrates	Dietary energy; storage; plant structure	 Monosaccharide	Monosaccharides: glucose, fructose Disaccharides: lactose, sucrose Polysaccharides: starch, cellulose
Lipids	Long-term energy storage (fats); hormones (steroids)	 Components of a triglyceride	Fats (triglycerides); Steroids (testosterone, estrogen)
Proteins	Enzymes, structure, storage, contraction, transport, and others	 Amino acid	Lactase (an enzyme), hemoglobin (a transport protein)
Nucleic acids	Information storage	 Nucleotide	DNA, RNA