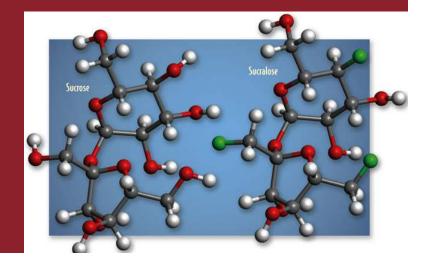
3

Macromolecules and the Origin of Life



3 Macromolecules and the Origin of Life

- 3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?
- 3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins?
- 3.3 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Carbohydrates?
- 3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?
- 3.5 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Nucleic Acids?
- 3.6 How Did Life on Earth Begin?

3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Molecules in living organisms: proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, nucleic acids

Most are **polymers** of smaller molecules called **monomers**.

Macromolecules: polymers with molecular weights >1000

TABLE 3.1

The Building Blocks of Organisms

MONOMER	COMPLEX POLYMER (MACROMOLECULE)
Amino acid	Polypeptide (protein)
Monosaccharide (sugar)	Polysaccharide (carbohydrate)
Nucleotide	Nucleic acid

3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Functional groups: groups of atoms with specific chemical properties and consistent behavior; it confers those properties when attached to large molecules

Figure 3.1 Some Functional Groups Important to Living Systems (Part 1)

Functional group	Class of compounds	Structural formula	Example
Hydroxyl OH or HO—	Alcohols	R — OH	H H H - C - C - OH H H Ethanol
Aldehyde — CHO	Aldehydes	R-CH	H -C + C H Acetaldehyde
Keto	Ketones	R C R	H O H I C H C H H H Acetone
Carboxyl — COOH	Carboxylic acids	R-C OH	H C C OH Acetic acid

Figure 3.1 Some Functional Groups Important to Living Systems (Part 2)

Functional group	Class of compounds	Structural formula	Example
Amino — NH ₂	Amines	R H	H H H H H Methylamine
Phosphate -OPO32-	Organic phosphates	R - 0 - P - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0	TO O O C H—C—OH O H—C—O—P—O—H—O—S-Phosphoglycerate
Sulfhydryl —SH	Thiols	R — SH	H H I I HO —C — C — SH I H H Mercaptoethanol

3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Isomers: molecules with the same chemical formula, but atoms are arranged differently

Structural isomers: differ in how their atoms are joined together

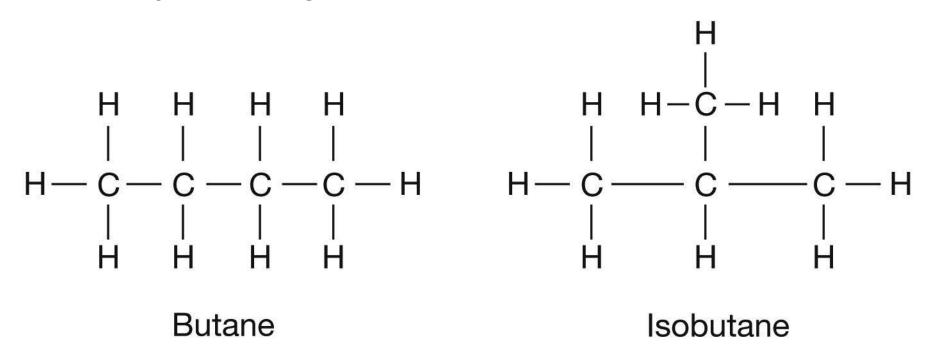
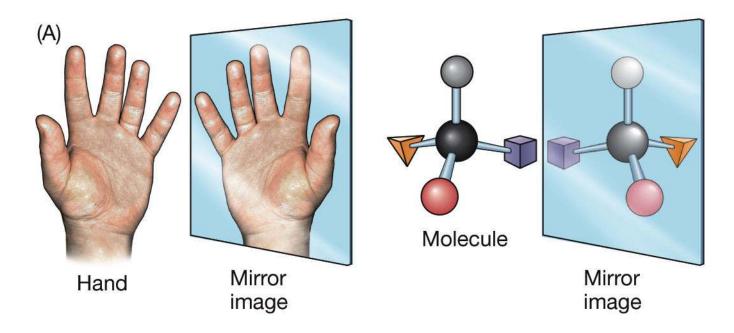
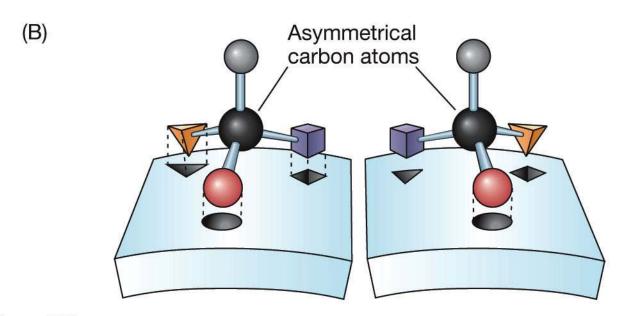


Figure 3.2 Optical Isomers



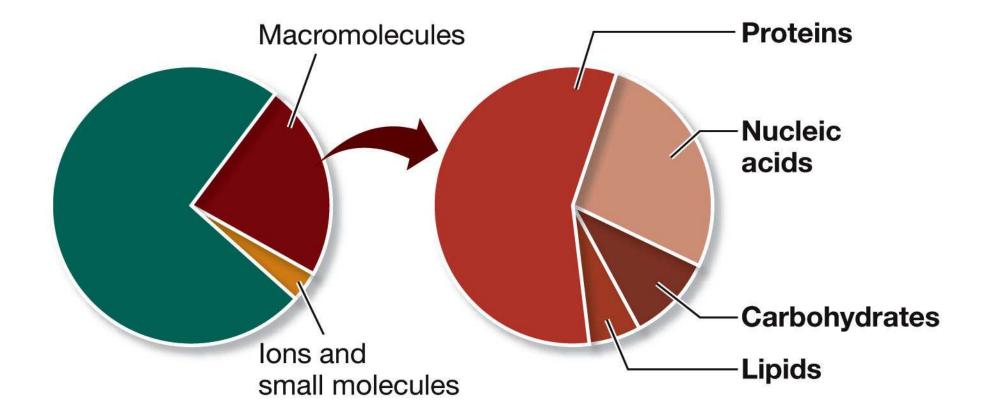


3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Biochemical unity—organisms can obtain required macromolecules by eating other organisms.

One macromolecule can contain many different functional groups—determines shape and function.

Figure 3.3 Substances Found in Living Tissues



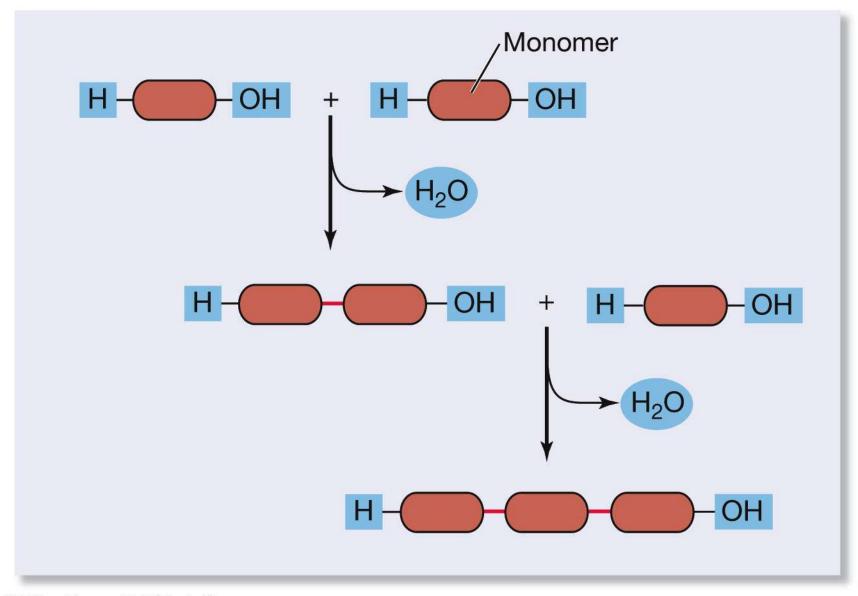
3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Polymers are formed in **condensation reactions**.

Monomers are joined by covalent bonds.

A water is removed—also called dehydration reaction.

(A) Condensation

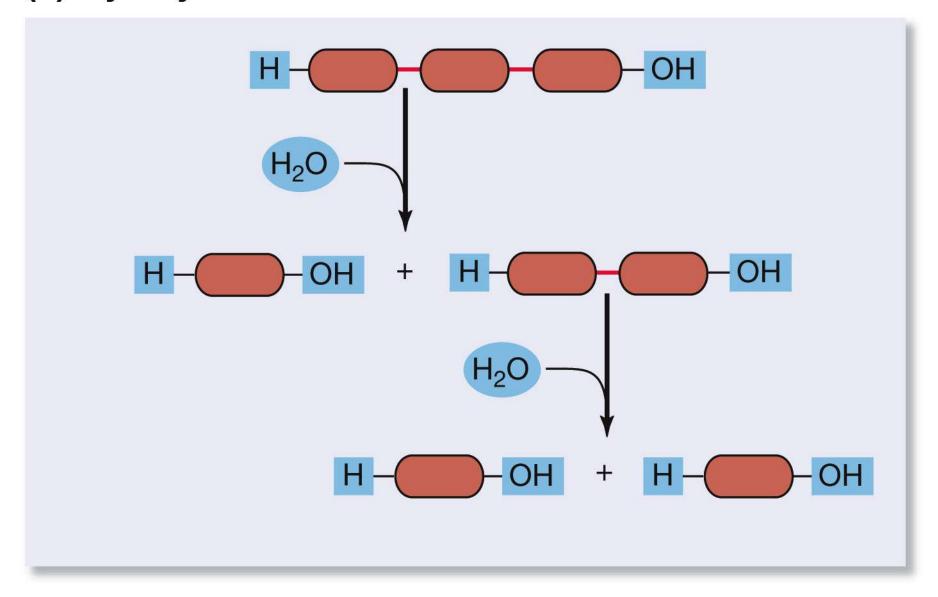


3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things?

Polymers are broken down into monomers in hydrolysis reactions.

(hydro, "water"; lysis, "break")

(B) Hydrolysis



Functions of proteins:

- Structural support
- Protection
- Transport
- Catalysis
- Defense
- Regulation
- Movement

Proteins are made from 20 different amino acids (monomeric units)

Polypeptide chain: single, unbranched chain of amino acids

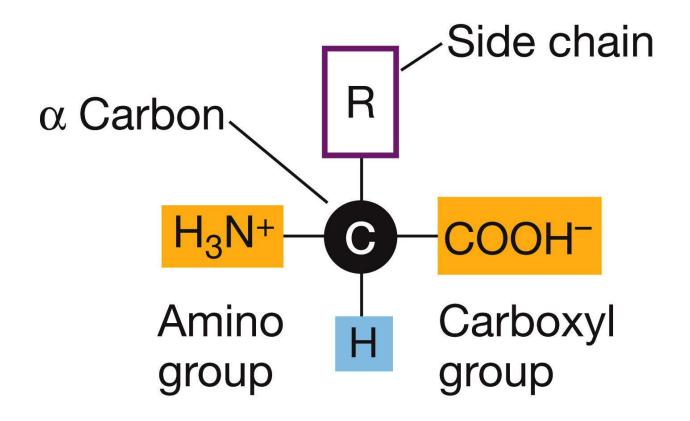
The chains are folded into specific three dimensional shapes.

Proteins can consist of more than one type of polypeptide chain.

The *composition* of a protein: relative amounts of each amino acid present

The sequence of amino acids in the chain determines the protein structure and function.

Amino acids have carboxyl and amino groups—they function as both acid and base.



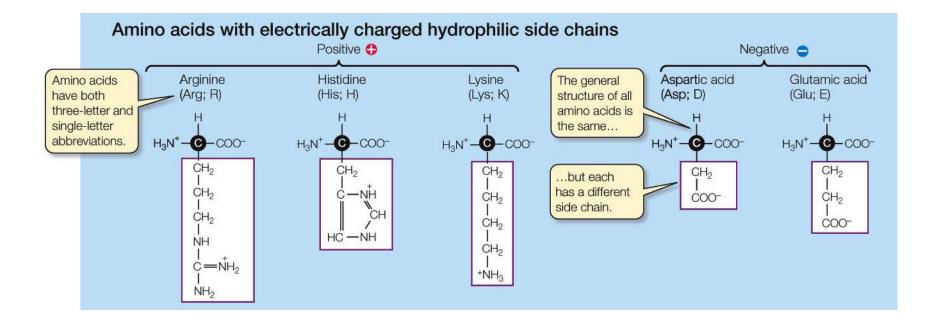
The α carbon atom is asymmetrical.

Amino acids exist in two isomeric forms:

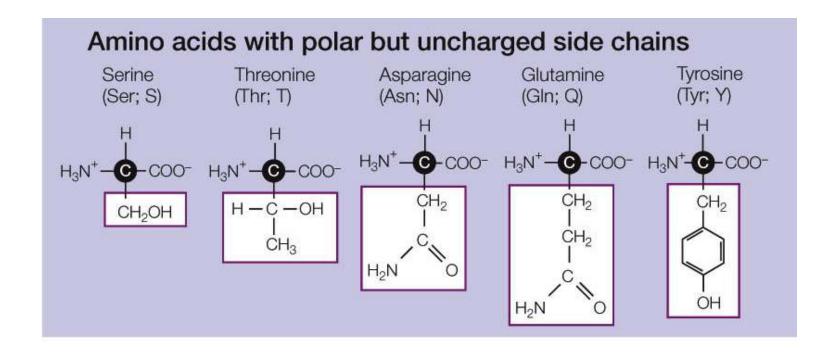
- D-amino acids (dextro, "right")
- L-amino acids (*levo*, "left")—this form is found in organisms

The side chains or R-groups also have functional groups.

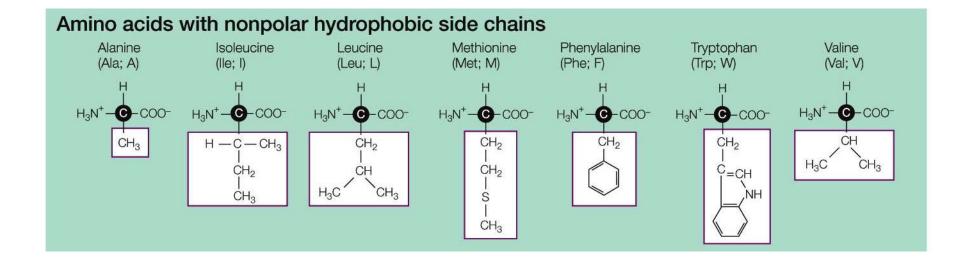
Amino acids can be grouped based on side chains.



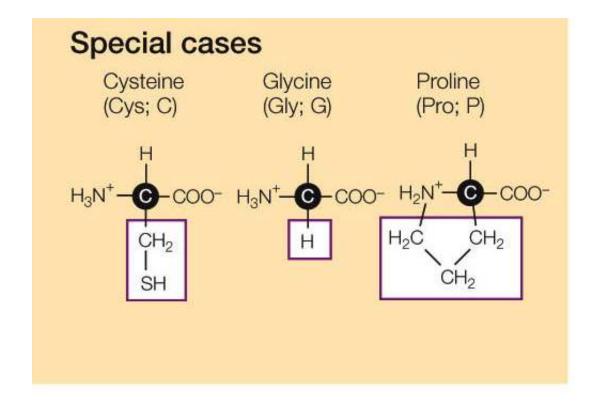
These hydrophylic amino acids attract ions of opposite charges.

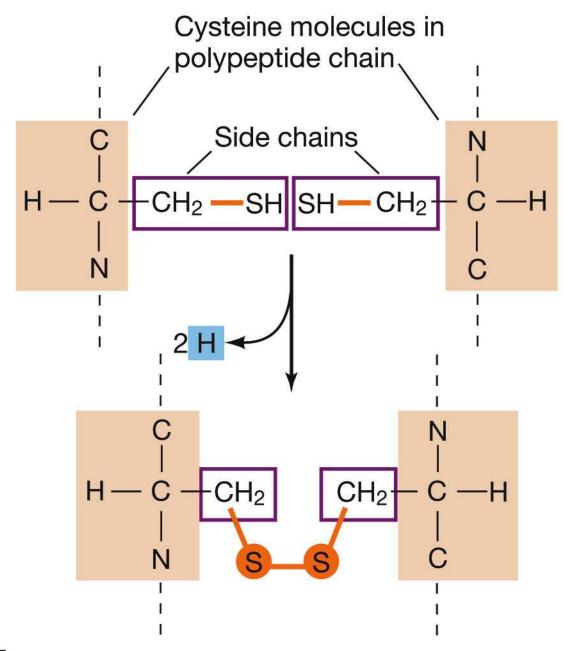


Hydrophylic amino acids with polar but uncharged side chains form hydrogen bonds



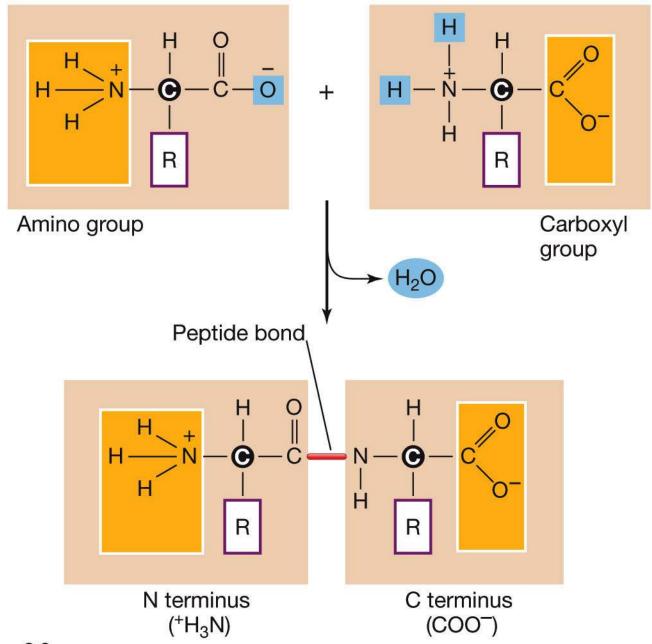
Hydrophobic amino acids





Amino acids bond together covalently by **peptide bonds** to form the polypeptide chain.

Figure 3.6 Formation of Peptide Bonds



LIFE 8e, Figure 3.6

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A polypeptide chain is like a sentence:

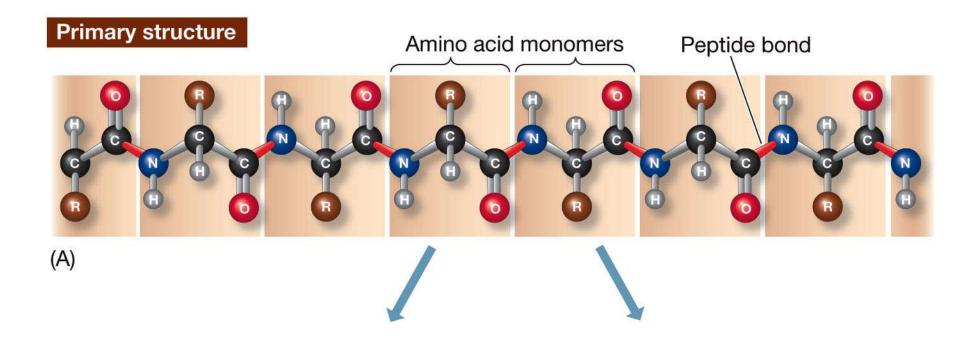
- The "capital letter" is the amino group of the first amino acid—the N terminus.
- The "period" is the carboxyl group of the last amino acid—the *C terminus*.

The **primary structure** of a protein is the sequence of amino acids.

The sequence determines secondary and tertiary structure—how the protein is folded.

The number of different proteins that can be made from 20 amino acids is enormous!

Figure 3.7 The Four Levels of Protein Structure (A)

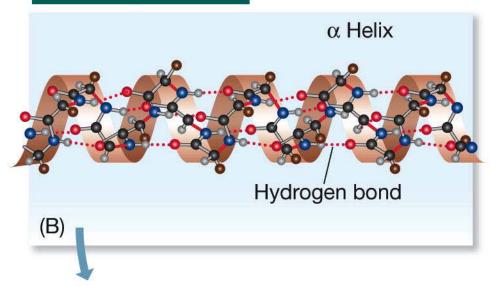


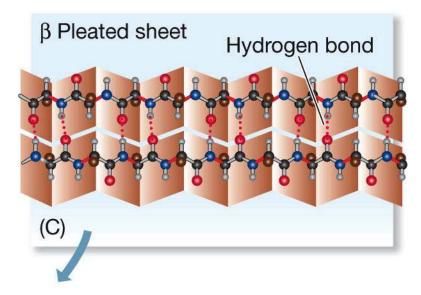
Secondary structure:

- α helix—right-handed coil resulting from hydrogen bonding; common in fibrous structural proteins
- β pleated sheet—two or more polypeptide chains are aligned

Figure 3.7 The Four Levels of Protein Structure (B, C)

Secondary structure

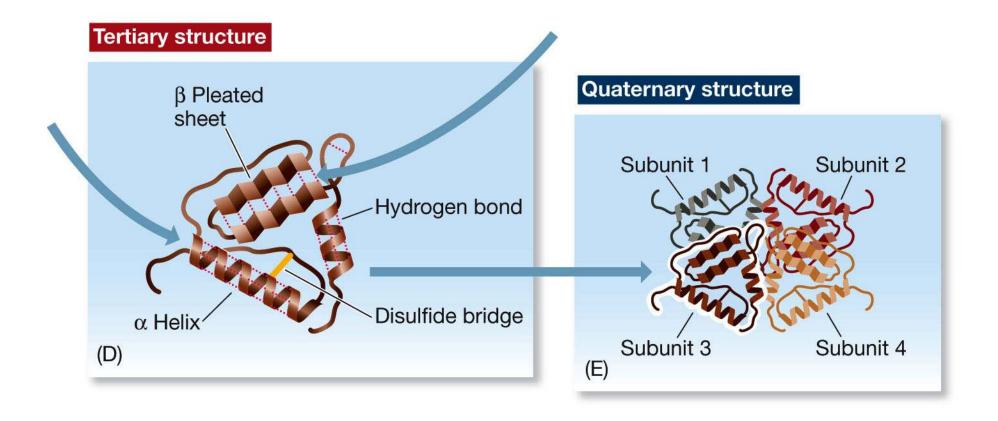




Tertiary structure: Bending and folding results in a macromolecule with specific three-dimensional shape.

The outer surfaces present functional groups that can interact with other molecules.

Figure 3.7 The Four Levels of Protein Structure (D, E)



Tertiary structure is determined by interactions of R-groups:

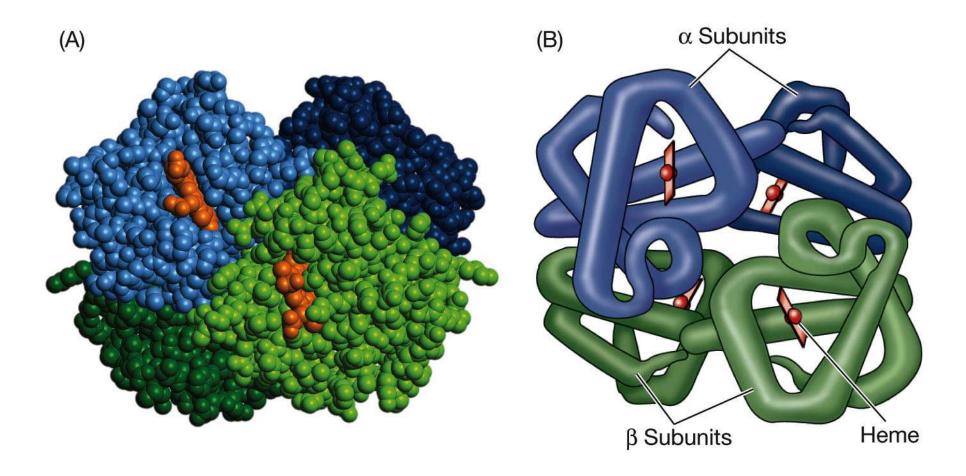
- Disulfide bonds
- Aggregation of hydrophobic side chains
- van der Waals forces
- Ionic bonds
- Hydrogen bonds

(A) Space-filling model (B) Stick model (C) Ribbon model α Helix β Pleated sheet α Helix β Pleated sheet

3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins?

Quaternary structure results from the interaction of *subunits* by hydrophobic interactions, van der Waals forces, ionic bonds, and hydrogen bonds.

Figure 3.9 Quaternary Structure of a Protein

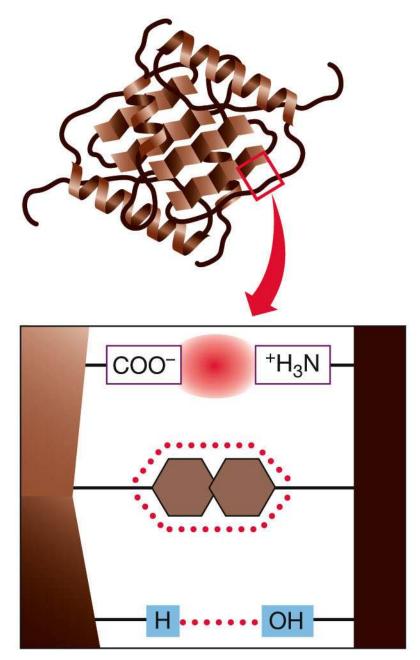


3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins?

The specific shape and functional groups of a protein determines function and allows it to bind non-covalently with another molecule (the **ligand**).

Enzyme-substrate reactions, chemical signaling, antibody action, etc.

Figure 3.10 Noncovalent Interactions between Proteins and Other Molecules



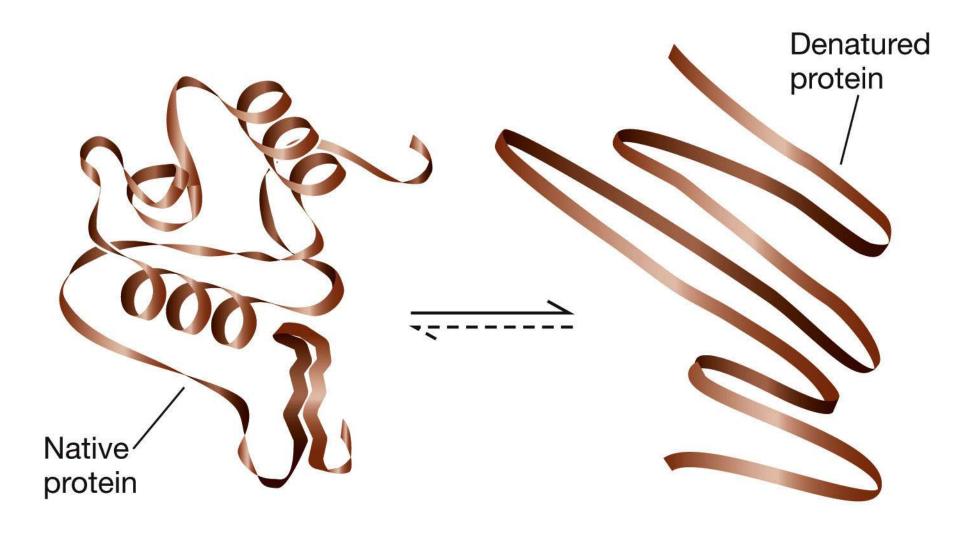
3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins?

Conditions that affect secondary and tertiary structure:

- High temperature
- pH changes
- High concentrations of polar molecules

Denaturation: loss of 3-dimensional structure and thus function of the protein

Figure 3.11 Denaturation Is the Loss of Tertiary Protein Structure and Function

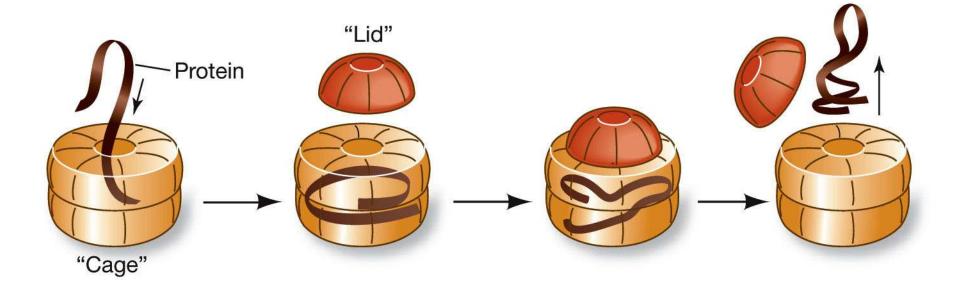


3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins?

Proteins can sometimes bind to the wrong ligands.

Chaperonins are proteins that help prevent this.

Figure 3.12 Chaperonins Protect Proteins from Inappropriate Binding



Carbohydrates: molecules in which carbon is flanked by hydrogen and hydroxyl groups.

H—C—OH

Energy source

Carbon skeletons for many other molecules

Monosaccharides: simple sugars

Disaccharides: two simple sugars linked by covalent bonds

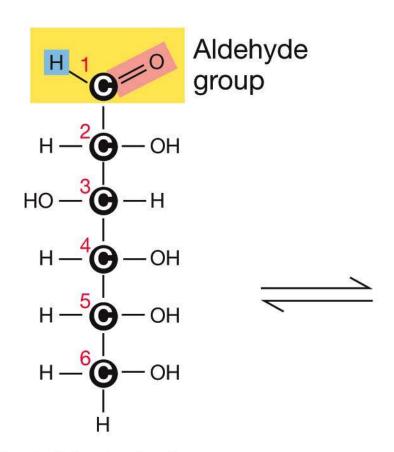
Oligosaccharides: three to 20 monosaccharides

Polysaccharides: hundreds or thousands of monosaccharides—starch, glycogen, cellulose

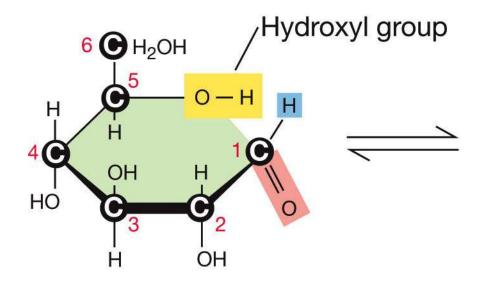
Cells use **glucose** (monosaccharide) as an energy source.

Exists as a straight chain or ring form. Ring is more common—it is more stable.

Figure 3.13 Glucose: From One Form to the Other (Part 1)

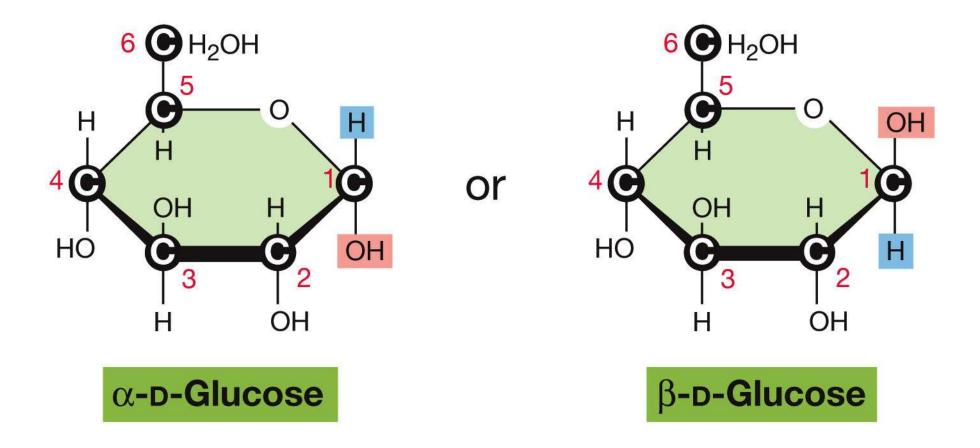


Straight-chain form



Intermediate form

Figure 3.13 Glucose: From One Form to the Other (Part 2)



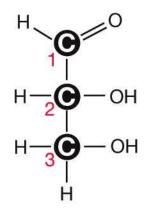
Monosaccharides have different numbers of carbons.

Hexoses: six carbons—structural isomers

Pentoses: five carbons

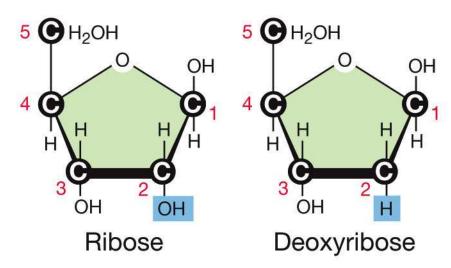
Figure 3.14 Monosaccharides Are Simple Sugars (Part 1)

Three-carbon sugar



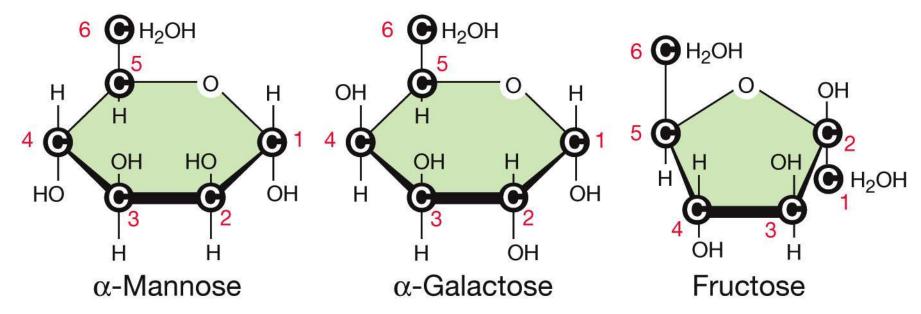
Glyceraldehyde

Five-carbon sugars



LIFE 8e, Figure 3.14 (Part 1)

Six-carbon sugars



Monosaccharides bind together in condensation reactions to form glycosidic linkages.

Glycosidic linkages can be α or β .

Figure 3.15 Disaccharides Are Formed by Glycosidic Linkages (Part 1)

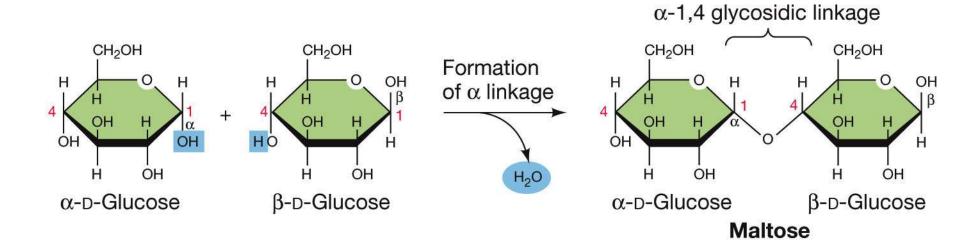


Figure 3.15 Disaccharides Are Formed by Glycosidic Linkages (Part 2)

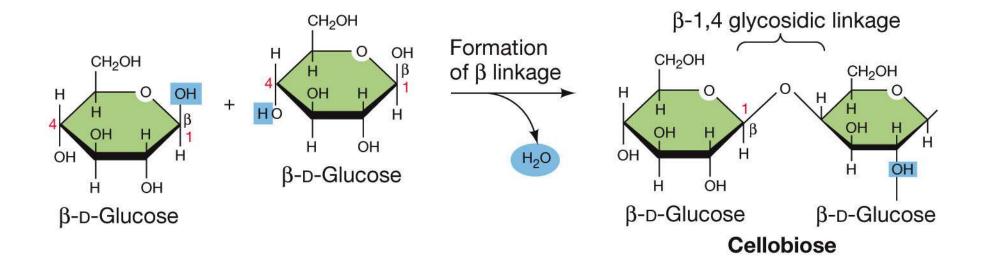
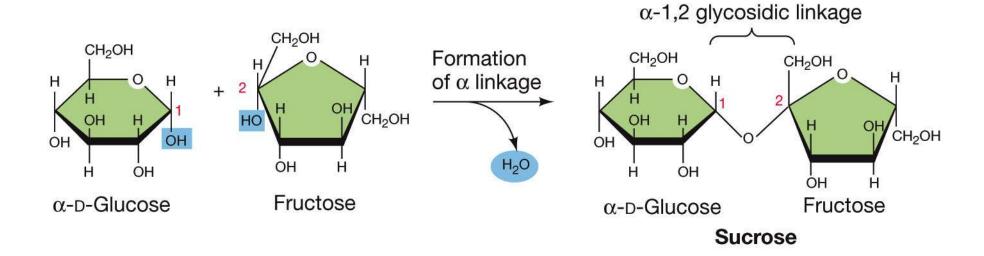


Figure 3.15 Disaccharides Are Formed by Glycosidic Linkages (Part 3)



Oligosaccharides may include other functional groups.

Often covalently bonded to proteins and lipids on cell surfaces and act as recognition signals.

ABO blood groups

Polysaccharides are giant polymers of monosaccharides.

Starch: storage of glucose in plants

Glycogen: storage of glucose in animals

Cellulose: very stable, good for structural components

Figure 3.16 Representative Polysaccharides (A)

(A) Molecular structure

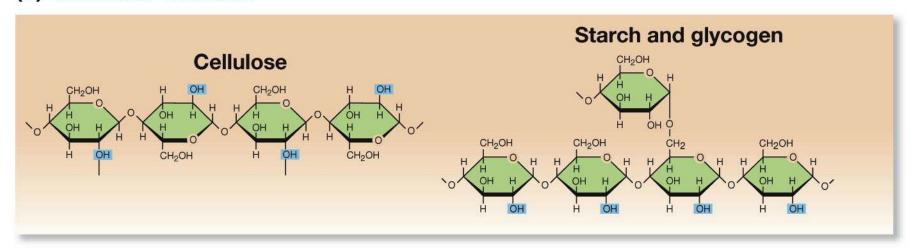


Figure 3.16 Representative Polysaccharides (B)

(B) Macromolecular structure

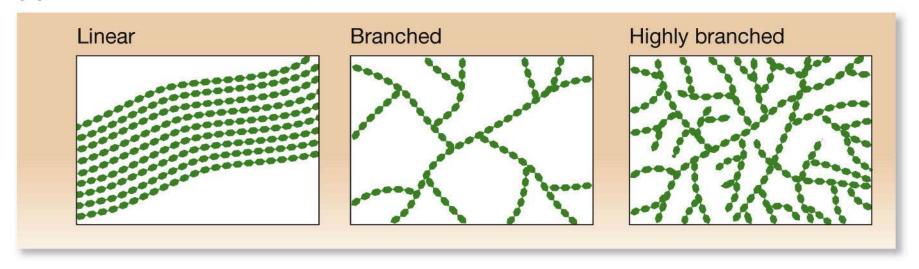
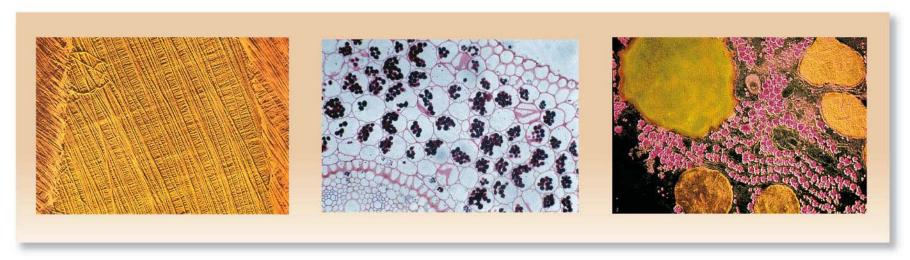


Figure 3.16 Representative Polysaccharides (C)

(C) Polysaccharides in cells



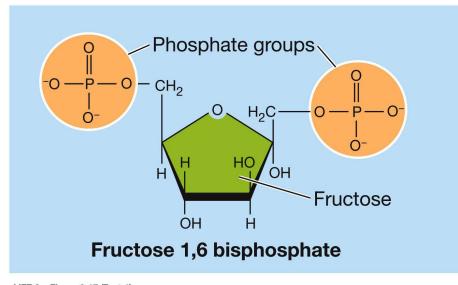
Carbohydrates can be modified by the addition of functional groups.

Sugar phosphates

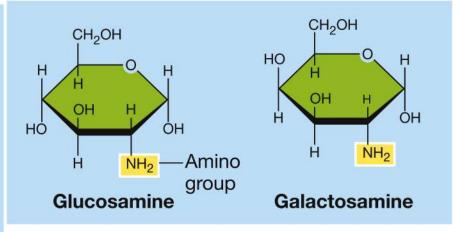
Amino sugars

Figure 3.17 Chemically Modified Carbohydrates (A, B)

(A) Sugar phosphate



(B) Amino sugars



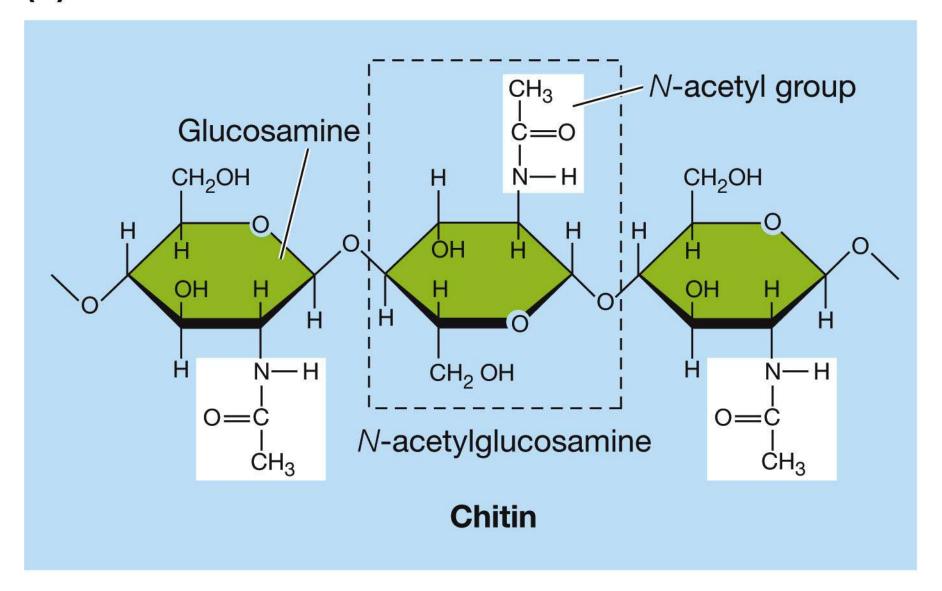
LIFE 8e, Figure 3.17 (Part 2)

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LIFE 8e, Figure 3.17 (Part 1)

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(C) Chitin



3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

Lipids are nonpolar hydrocarbons:

- Fats and oils—energy storage
- Phospholipids—cell membranes
- Carotenoids
- Steroids
- Waxes

Fats serve as insulation in animals, lipid nerve coatings act as electrical insulation, oils and waxes repel water, prevent drying.

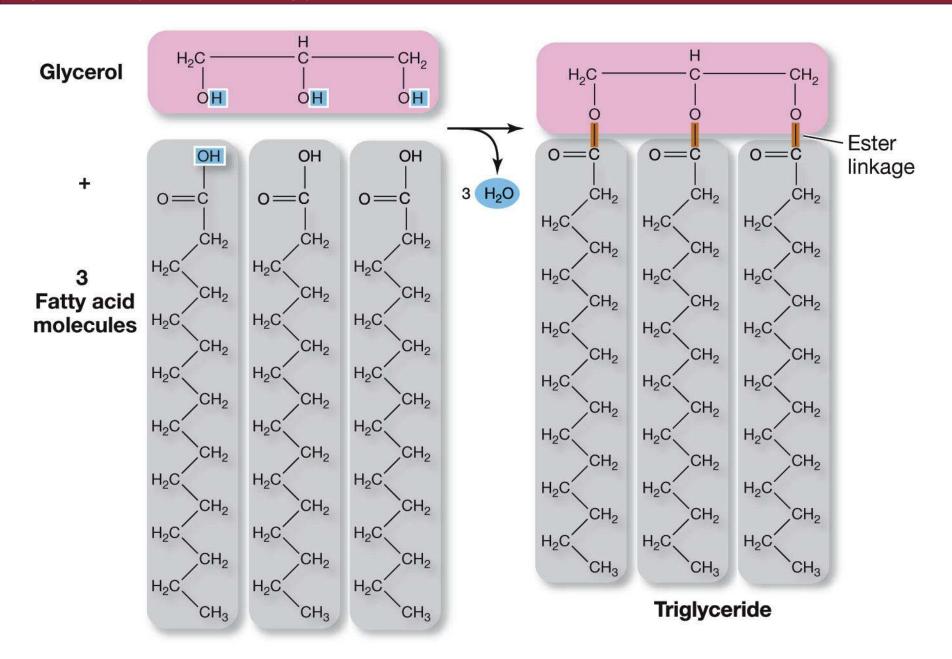
3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

Fats and oils are **triglycerides**—simple lipids—made of three fatty acids and 1 glycerol.

Glycerol: 3 —OH groups—an alcohol

Fatty acid: nonpolar hydrocarbon with a polar carboxyl group—carboxyl bonds with hydroxyls of glycerol in an **ester linkage**.

Figure 3.18 Synthesis of a Triglyceride



3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

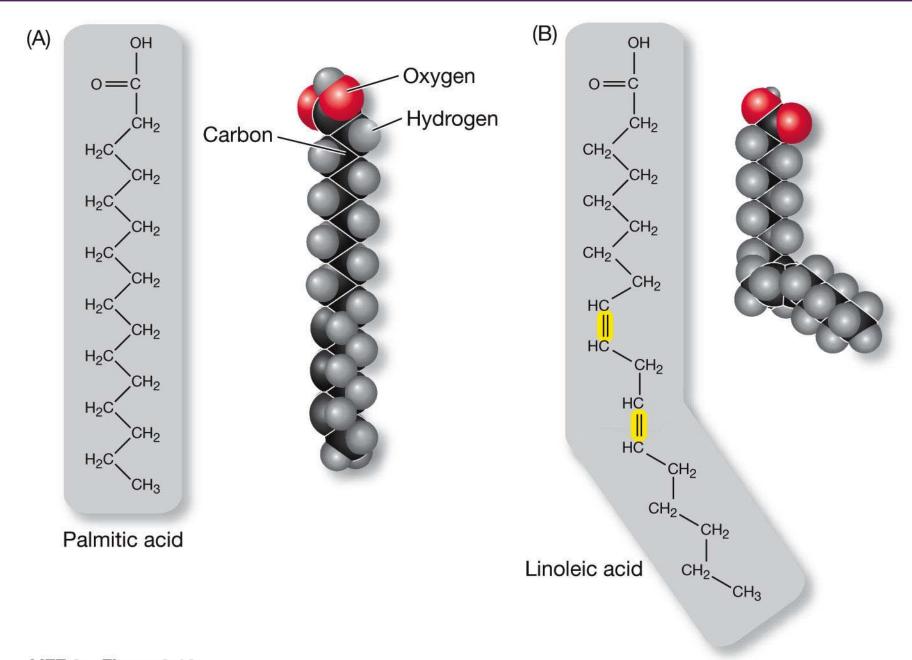
Saturated fatty acids: no double bonds between carbons—it is saturated with hydrogen atoms.

Unsaturated fatty acids: some double bonds in carbon chain.

monounsaturated: one double bond

polyunsaturated: more than one

Figure 3.19 Saturated and Unsaturated Fatty Acids

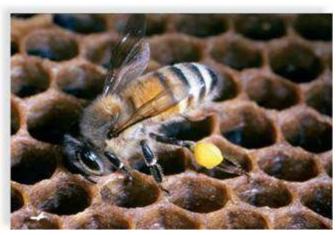


3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

Animal fats tend to be saturated—packed together tightly—solid at room temperature.

Plant oils tend to be unsaturated—the "kinks" prevent packing—liquid at room temperature. Waxes.





3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

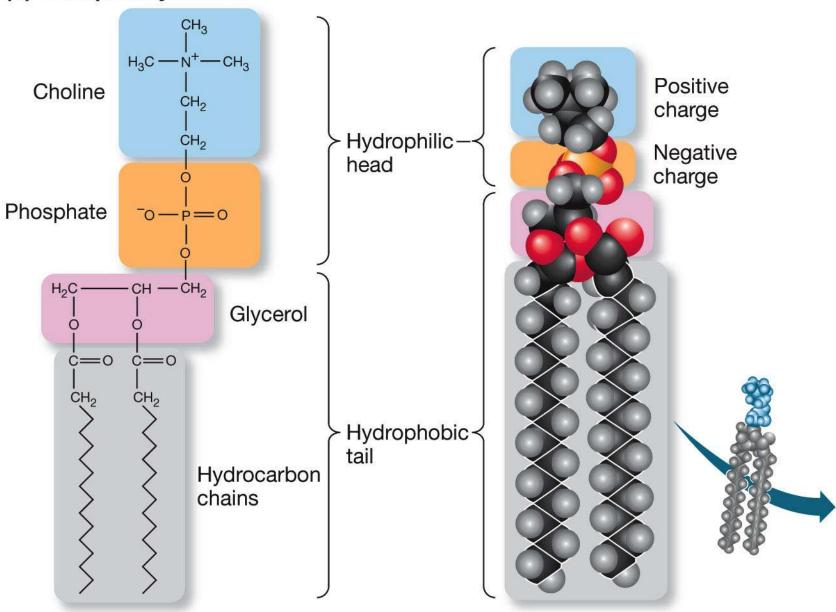
Phospholipids: fatty acids bound to glycerol, a phosphate group replaces one fatty acid.

Phosphate group is hydrophilic—the "head"

"Tails" are fatty acid chains—hydrophobic

Figure 3.20 Phospholipids (A)

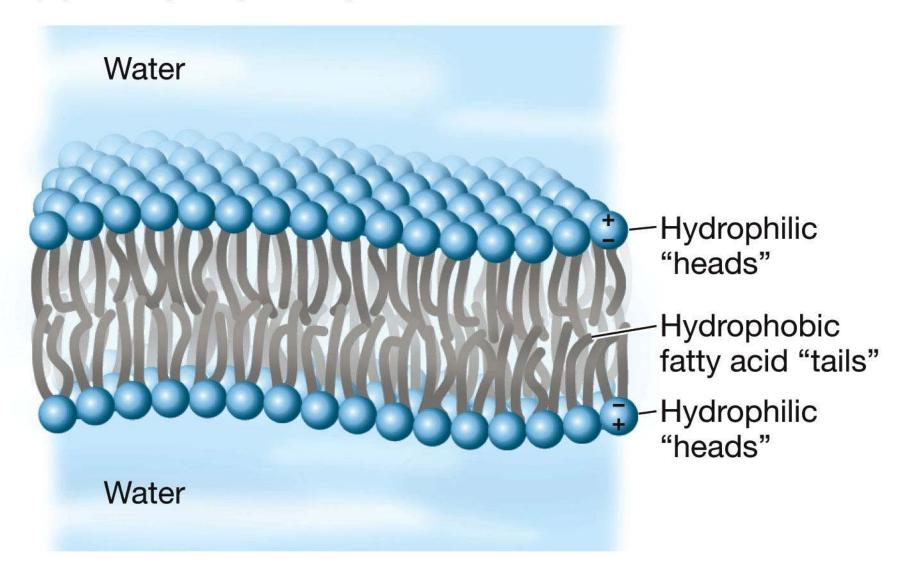
(A) Phosphatidylcholine



LIFE 8e, Figure 3.20 (Part 1)

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(B) Phospholipid bilayer



Carotenoids: light-absorbing pigments

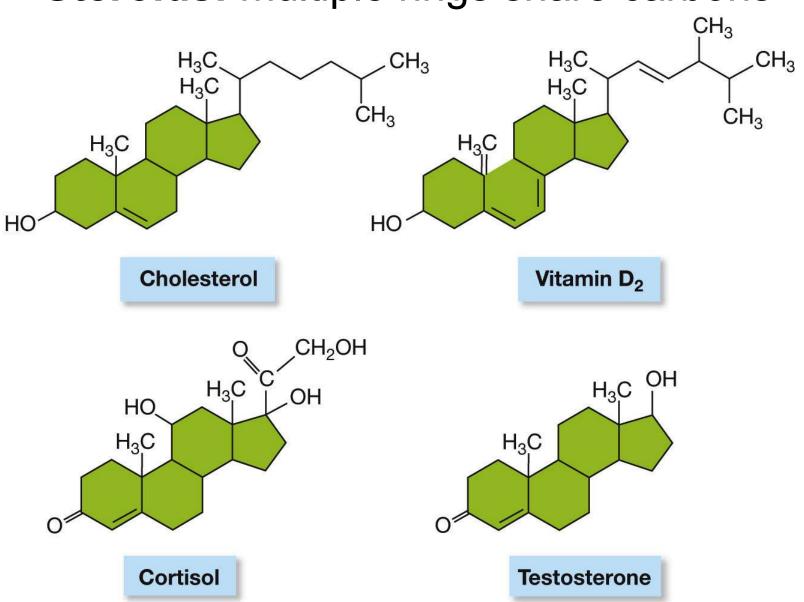
$$H_3C$$
 CH_3
 CH_3

β-Carotene

$$H_3$$
C
 CH_3
 H_3 C
 CH_3
 H_3 C
 CH_3

Vitamin A Vitamin A

Steroids: multiple rings share carbons



3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids?

Vitamins—small molecules not synthesized by the body—must acquire in diet.

Waxes—highly nonpolar

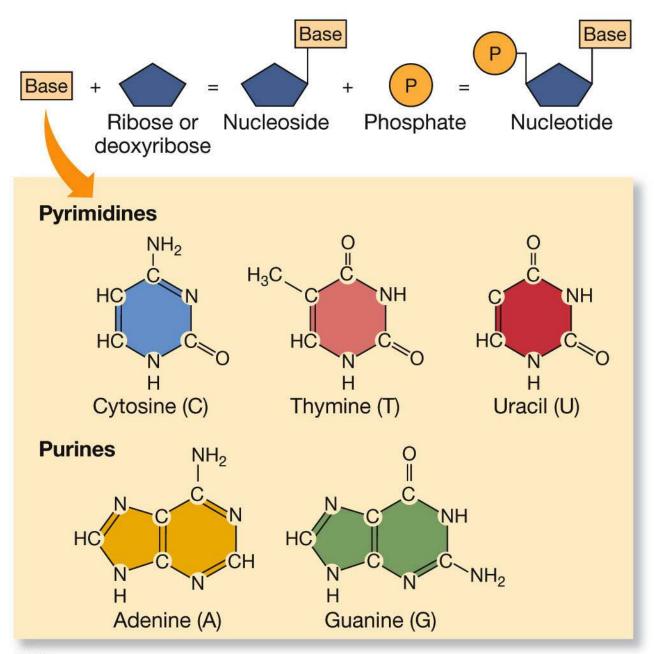
$$H_3C$$
 — $(CH_2)_{14}$ — C — O — CH_2 — $(CH_2)_{28}$ — CH_3 Fatty acid Ester Alcohol linkage

Nucleic acids: DNA—(deoxyribonucleic acid) and RNA—(ribonucleic acid)

Polymers—the monomeric units are **nucleotides**.

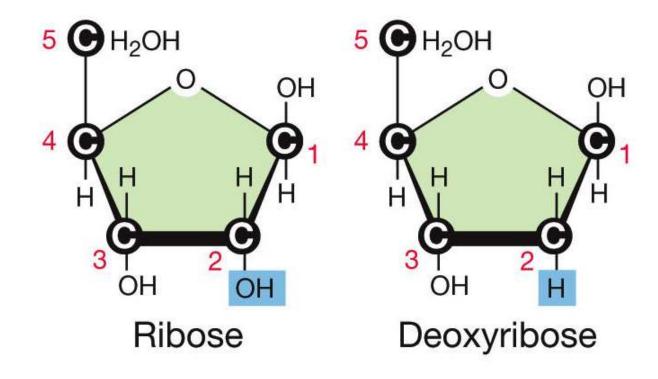
Nucleotides consist of a pentose sugar, a phosphate group, and a nitrogen-containing base.

Figure 3.23 Nucleotides Have Three Components



DNA—deoxyribose

RNA—ribose



The "backbone" of DNA and RNA consists of the sugars and phosphate groups, bonded by phosphodiester linkages.

The phosphate groups link carbon 3' in one sugar to carbon 5' in another sugar.

The two strands of DNA run in opposite directions.

Figure 3.24 Distinguishing Characteristics of DNA and RNA (Part 1)

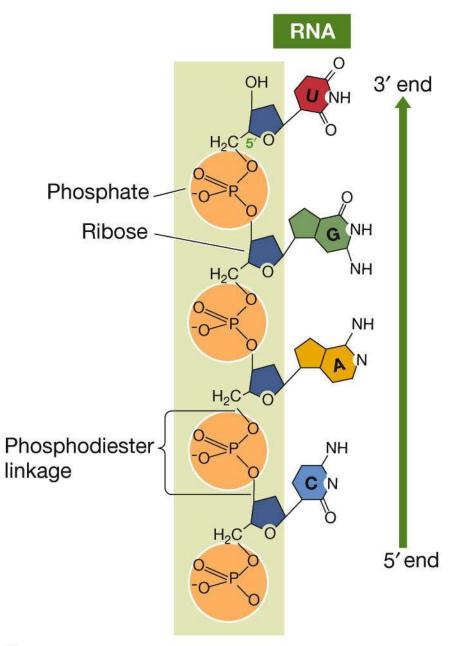
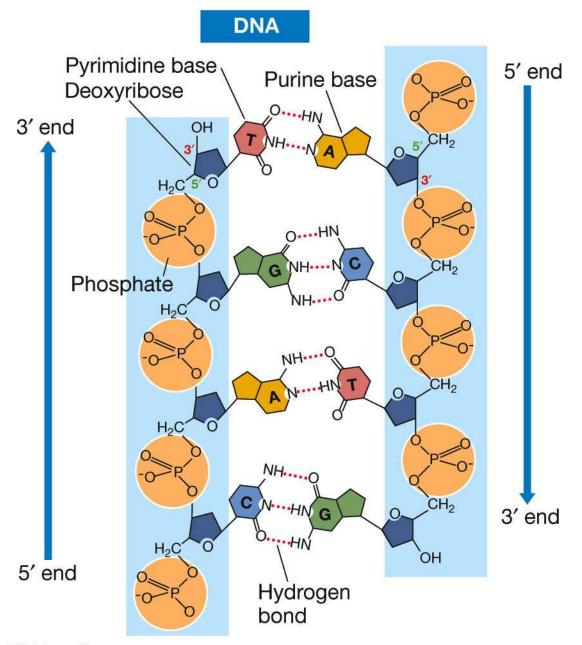


Figure 3.24 Distinguishing Characteristics of DNA and RNA (Part 2)



DNA bases: adenine (A), cytosine (C), guanine (G), and thymine (T)

Complementary base pairing:

A—T

C—G

Purines pair with pyrimidines by hydrogen bonding.

Instead of thymine, RNA uses the base uracil (U).

RNA is single-stranded, but complementary base pairing occurs in the structure of some types of RNA.

Figure 3.25 Hydrogen Bonding in RNA

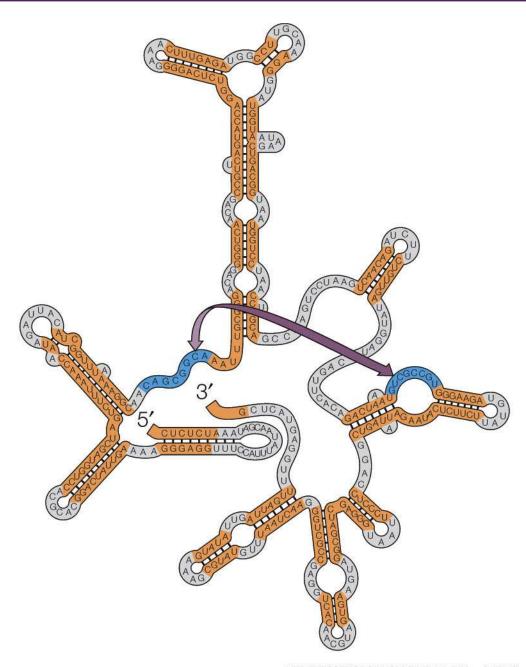


TABLE 3.3

Distinguishing RNA from DNA

NUCLEIC ACID	SUGAR	BASES
RNA	Ribose	Adenine
		Cytosine
		Guanine
		Uracil
DNA	Deoxyribose	Adenine
		Cytosine
		Guanine
		Thymine

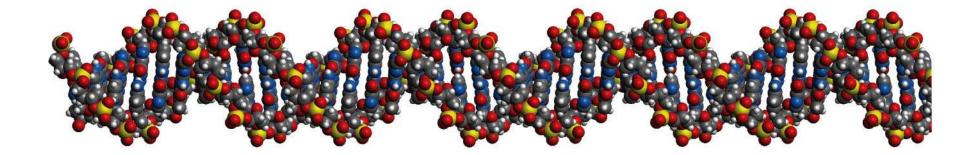
DNA is an *informational molecule*: information is encoded in the sequences of bases.

RNA uses the information to determine the sequence of amino acids in proteins.

The two strands of a DNA molecule form a double helix.

All DNA molecules have the same structure—variation is in the sequence of base pairs.

Figure 3.26 The Double Helix of DNA



DNA carries hereditary information between generations.

Determining the sequence of bases helps reveal evolutionary relationships.

The closest living relative of humans is the chimpanzee.

Other roles for nucleotides:

ATP—energy transducer in biochemical reactions

GTP—energy source in protein synthesis

cAMP—essential to the action of hormones and transmission of information in the nervous system

Origin of life on Earth:

Molecules of life came from extraterrestrial sources

or

Life resulted from chemical evolution on Earth

Evidence for extraterrestrial sources:

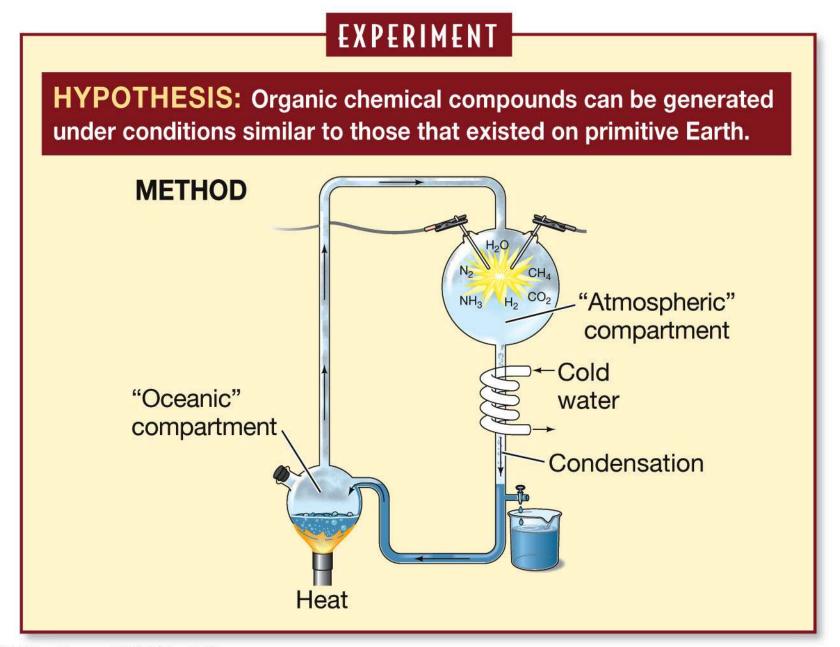
Meteorites from Mars that have water, small carbon compounds, and magnetite.

Figure 3.27 Was Life Once Here?



Evidence for chemical evolution:

Experimentation with an atmosphere similar to Earth's early atmosphere (Miller and Urey)



EXPERIMENT

RESULTS

The compounds react in water, eventually forming purines, pyrimidines, and amino acids.

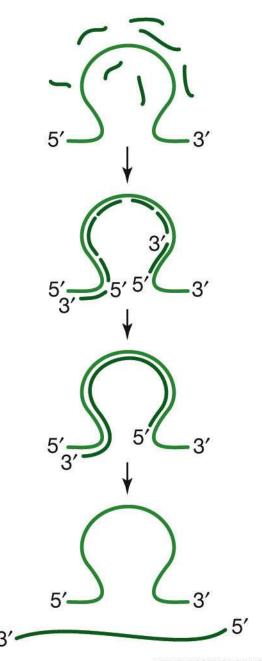
CONCLUSION: The chemical building blocks of life could have been generated in the probable atmosphere of early Earth.

Conditions in which polymers would be synthesized:

- Solid mineral surfaces
- Hydrothermal vents—metals as catalysts
- Hot pools at ocean edges

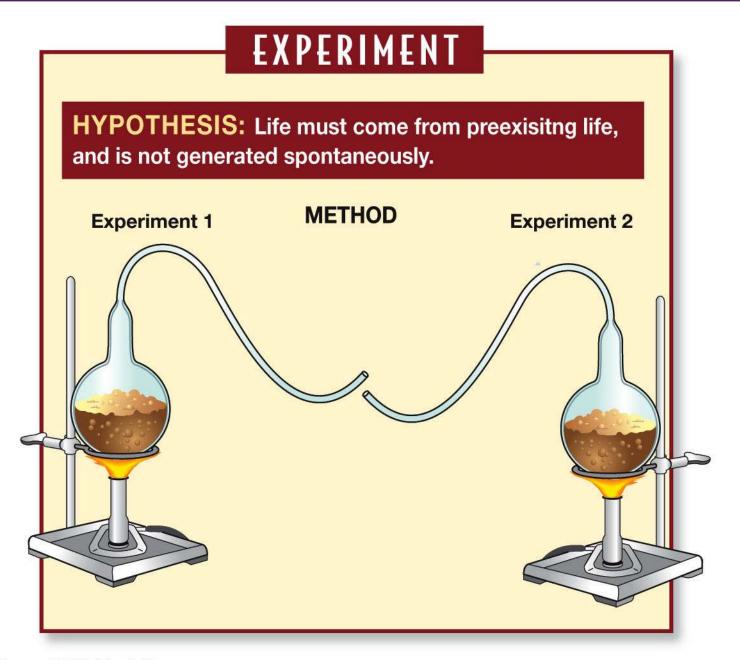
Folded RNA molecules can act as catalysts—ribozymes.

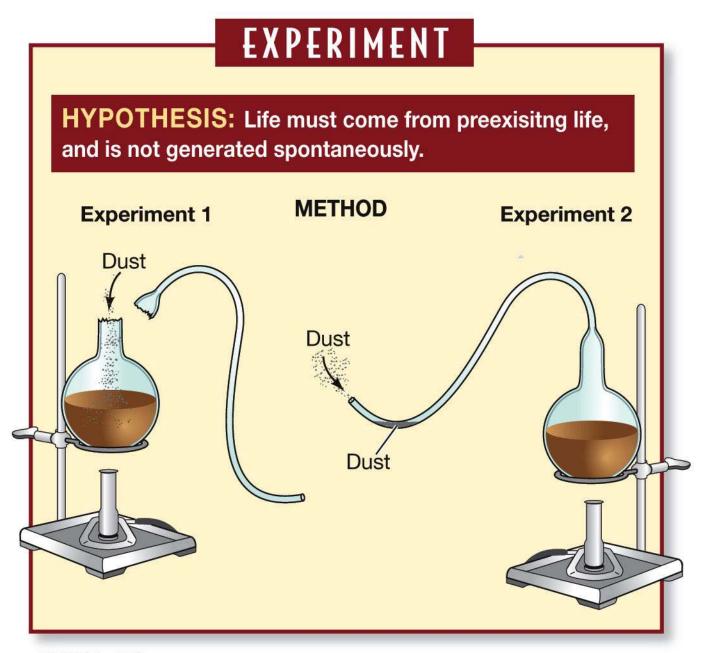
RNA may have evolved first, and catalyzed its own replication as well as protein synthesis.

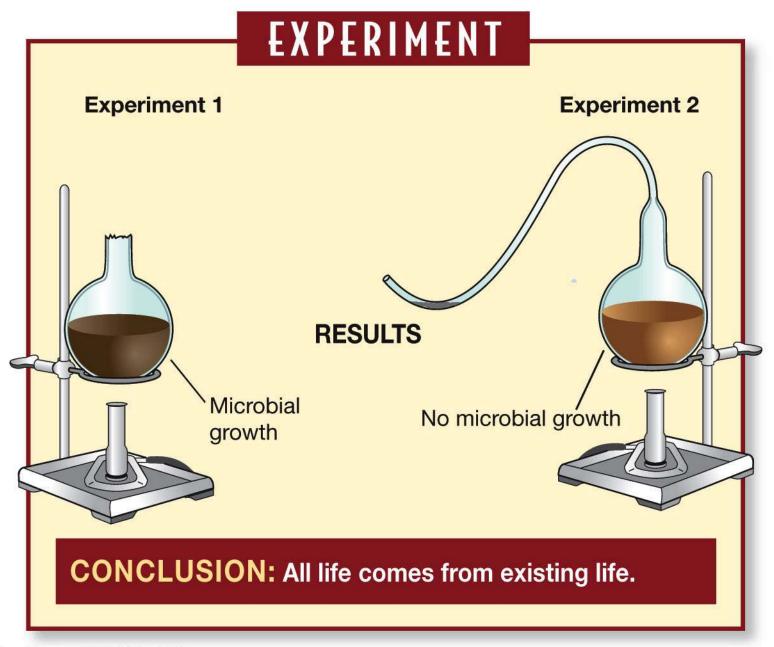


Classic experiments disproved spontaneous generation—life appearing from inanimate matter.

Redi and Pasteur showed that life arises only from life.







Conditions on Earth were very different during the Hadean (pre-biotic) than those of today—when chemical evolution took place.