

B1.1 CARBOHYDRATES AND LIPIDS

Ver. 2

Guiding Questions

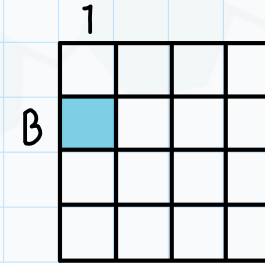
In what ways do variations in form allow diversity of function in carbohydrates and lipids?

How do carbohydrates and lipids compare as energy storage compounds?

Linking Questions

How can compounds synthesized by living organisms accumulate and become carbon sinks?

What are the roles of oxidation and reduction in biological systems?



Theme: Form and Function

Level of Organization: Molecules

Written and drawn by:

PETER MARIER



SL LEARNING OUTCOMES

B1.1.1	Chemical properties of a carbon atom allowing for the formation of diverse compounds upon which life is based	Students should understand the nature of a covalent bond. Students should also understand that a carbon atom can form up to four single bonds or a combination of single and double bonds with other carbon atoms or atoms of other non-metallic elements. Include among the diversity of carbon compounds examples of molecules with branched or unbranched chains and single or multiple rings. NOS: Students should understand that scientific conventions are based on international agreement (SI metric unit prefixes “kilo”, “centi”, “milli”, “micro” and “nano”).
B1.1.2	Production of macromolecules by condensation reactions that link monomers to form a polymer	Students should be familiar with examples of polysaccharides, polypeptides and nucleic acids.
B1.1.3	Digestion of polymers into monomers by hydrolysis reactions	Digestion is the breakdown of large, insoluble biological polymers into small, soluble monomers that can be absorbed by an organism. This occurs through hydrolysis reactions, in which water molecules are split to provide the –H and –OH groups that are incorporated to produce monomers, hence the name of this type of reaction. Students are required to know only the definition of digestion and that polymers are broken into monomers by hydrolysis. Detailed knowledge of biochemical pathways, specific enzymes or organ-level processes is not required.
B1.1.4	Form and function of monosaccharides	Students should be able to recognize pentoses and hexoses as monosaccharides from molecular diagrams showing them in the ring forms. Use glucose as an example of the link between the properties of a monosaccharide and how it is used, emphasizing solubility, transportability, chemical stability and the yield of energy from oxidation as properties. Students are not required to draw the structures.
B1.1.5	Polysaccharides as energy storage compounds	Include the compact nature of starch in plants and glycogen in animals due to coiling and branching during polymerization, the relative insolubility of these compounds due to large molecular size and the relative ease of adding or removing alpha-glucose monomers by condensation and hydrolysis to build or mobilize energy stores. The structures are provided in the data booklet.
B1.1.6	Structure of cellulose related to its function as a structural polysaccharide in plants	Include the alternating orientation of beta-glucose monomers, giving straight chains that can be grouped in bundles and cross-linked with hydrogen bonds. The structures are provided in the data booklet.
B1.1.7	Role of glycoproteins in cell–cell recognition	Include ABO antigens as an example.
B1.1.8	Hydrophobic properties of lipids	Lipids are substances in living organisms that dissolve in non-polar solvents but are only sparingly soluble in aqueous solvents. Lipids include fats, oils, waxes and steroids.
B1.1.9	Formation of triglycerides and phospholipids by condensation reactions	One glycerol molecule can link three fatty acid molecules or two fatty acid molecules and one phosphate group.
B1.1.10	Difference between saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids	Include the number of double carbon (C=C) bonds and how this affects melting point. Relate this to the prevalence of different types of fatty acids in oils and fats used for energy storage in plants and endotherms respectively. Examples of fatty acids are provided in the data booklet.
B1.1.11	Triglycerides in adipose tissues for energy storage and thermal insulation	Students should understand that the properties of triglycerides make them suited to long-term energy storage functions. Students should be able to relate the use of triglycerides as thermal insulators to body temperature and habitat.
B1.1.12	Formation of phospholipid bilayers as a consequence of the hydrophobic and hydrophilic regions	Students should use and understand the term “amphipathic”.
B1.1.13	Ability of non-polar steroids to pass through the phospholipid bilayer	Include oestradiol and testosterone as examples. Students should be able to identify compounds as steroids from molecular diagrams.

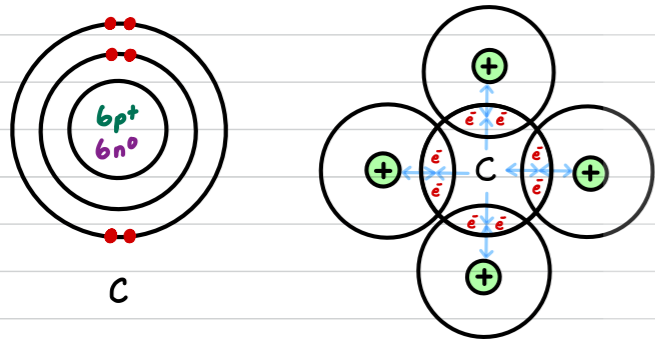
B1.1.1 – Chemical properties of a carbon atom allowing for the formation of diverse compounds upon which life is based.

Biomolecules: molecules found in living organisms which are essential to living processes

All biomolecules contains the element carbon, this is why life is said to be "carbon-based"

↳ what chemical properties allows carbon to form such a large variety of compounds necessary for life?

• Carbon has 4 valence electrons, allowing it to form 4 **covalent bonds** with other atoms



↳ electrostatic attraction between **positive nuclei** and a **shared pair of negative electrons**

↳ covalent bonds are very strong bonds thus require a lot of energy to break - leading to stable compounds

• Carbon forms many molecular shapes:

↳ unbranched chains

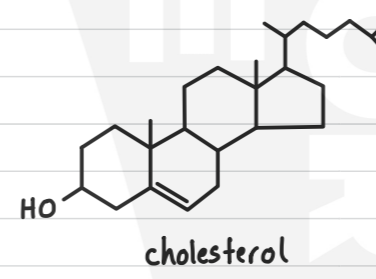
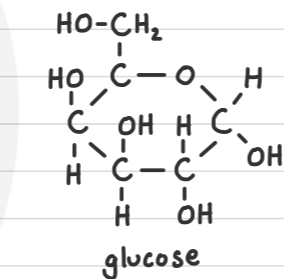
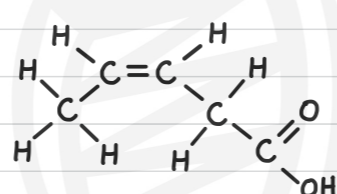
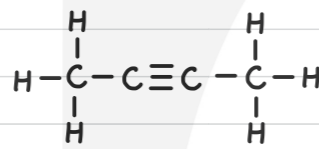
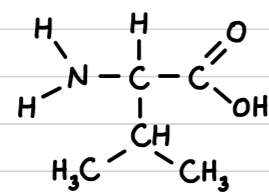
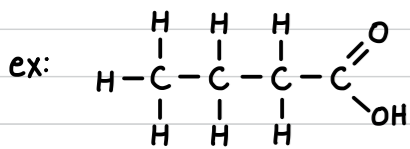
↳ branched chains

↳ linear chains

↳ bent chains

↳ single rings

↳ multi-ringed



saturated fatty acid

valine amino acid

2-butyne

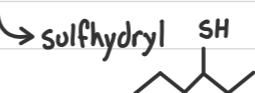
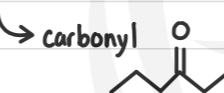
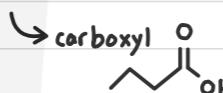
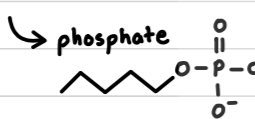
unsaturated cis fatty acid

glucose

cholesterol

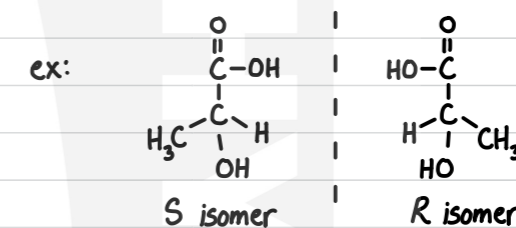
• carbon-based molecules can be short (1 carbon) or very long with no real limit (some containing thousands of carbons)

• many biomolecules have functional groups attached to a carbon skeleton. These groups have different properties and react differently



based on functional groups, carbon compounds can be organised into homologous series which have similar properties

• When there are different groups around a carbon, they can be arranged in different, mirrored orientations, each having different biological interactions



↳ called enantiomers and are named R and S

← divide (value gets smaller) → multiply (value gets larger)

NOS: In all science disciplines unit conventions are based on international agreement → **International System of Units (SI)**

↳ this allows international collaboration and facilitates replicability and comparability of experiments and data

↳ 2 types of quantities: **fundamental** - independent of other variables ex: m, s, kg, K, mol, A, cd

derived - dependent on other variables ex: °C, kgm⁻³, ms⁻², N, W, V, Pa, Hz, V

Chemistry review

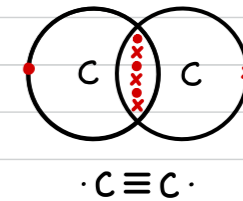
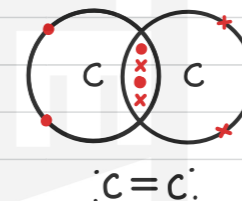
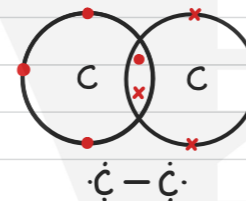
- ↳ Atoms are most stable when their outer (valence) shell is complete or full. They can achieve this through bonding with other atoms by either transferring (ionic) or sharing (covalent) electrons
- ↳ The first shell can hold 2, second 8 and third 8. Carbon has 4e⁻ so readily shares these to get 8

• Carbon can share 1, 2, or 3 pairs of electrons with another atom forming:

↳ single covalent bond

↳ double covalent bond*

↳ triple covalent bond*



* position of the bonds within a molecule can differ adding further variation
ex: CC=CC CC=C

• Carbon can form covalent bonds with other carbons and non-metal atoms, providing much diversity

↳ such as **Oxygen**, **Hydrogen**, **Nitrogen**, **Phosphorus**, **Sulfur**

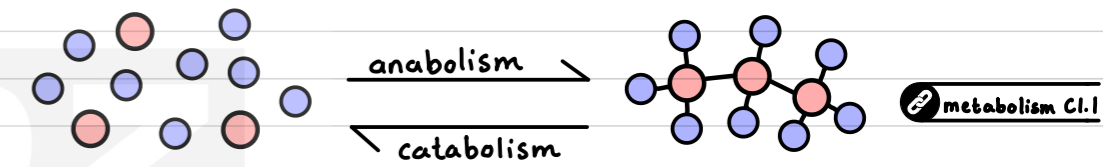
✳ **organic molecule** typically contains carbon and hydrogen
ex: C₂H₅OH (ethanol), CH₄ (methane) are organic
CO₂ (carbon dioxide), NH₃ (ammonia) are inorganic

sci notation	10 ⁻⁹	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻³	10 ⁻²	10 ³	10 ⁶
SI prefixes	nano	micro	milli	centi	Kilo	mega
symbol	n	μ	m	c	k	M
ex conversion:	0.025 km is how many micrometers? $0.025 \cancel{\text{km}} \times \frac{10^9 \mu\text{m}}{1 \cancel{\text{km}}} = 25000000 \mu\text{m}$ or $2.5 \times 10^7 \mu\text{m}$					

B1.1.2—Production of macromolecules by condensation reactions that link monomers to form a polymer. B1.1.3—Digestion of polymers into monomers by hydrolysis reactions. B1.1.9—Formation of triglycerides and phospholipids by condensation reactions

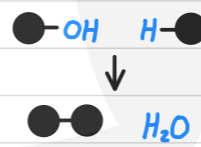
Biomolecules fall into 4 major groups: ① carbohydrates ② proteins ③ nucleic acids ④ lipids

↳ these exist as simple single units, **monomers**, and can combine together to form larger more complex **polymers** or macromolecules

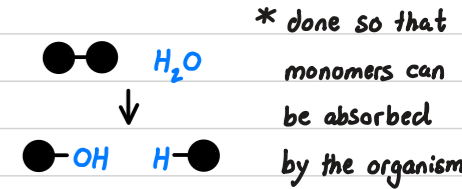


↳ the most important metabolic reactions occurring in living organisms are **condensation** and **hydrolysis** reactions * monomers often not individual atoms but smaller molecules

Condensation reaction: two molecules are combined together forming a larger more complex polymer and a molecule of water



Hydrolysis reaction: large, insoluble polymer breaks down into smaller, soluble, less complex monomers, using a water molecule

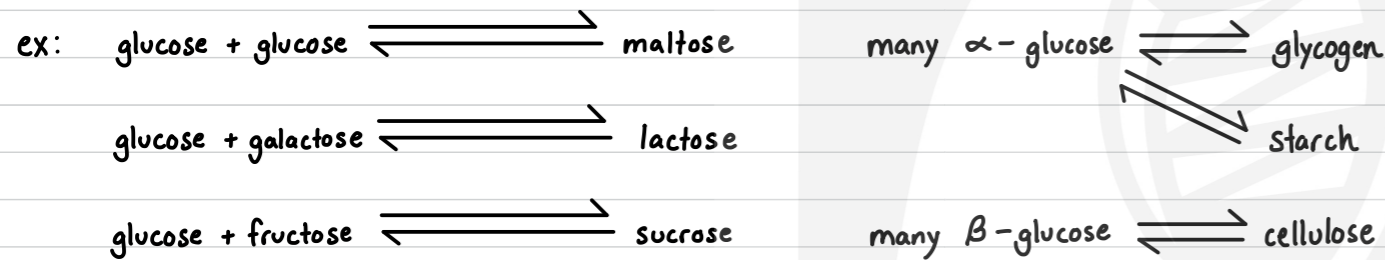
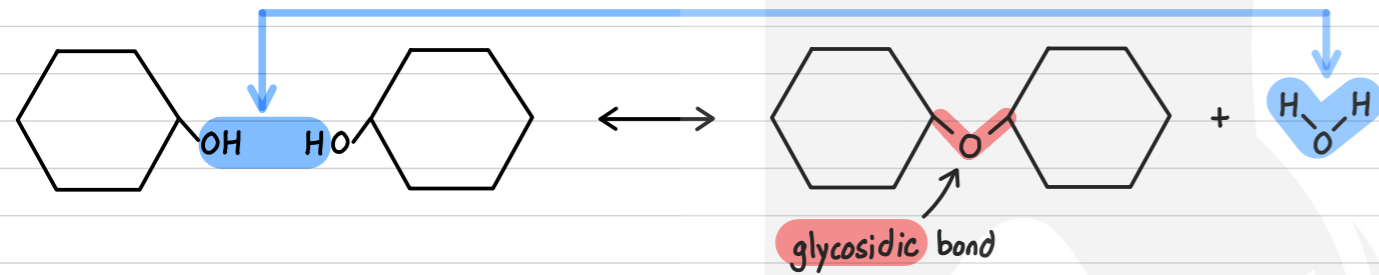


↳ aka dehydration reaction as water is produced ↳ anabolic reaction → requires energy

↳ 'hydro' = water + 'lysis' = break ↳ catabolic reaction → releases energy

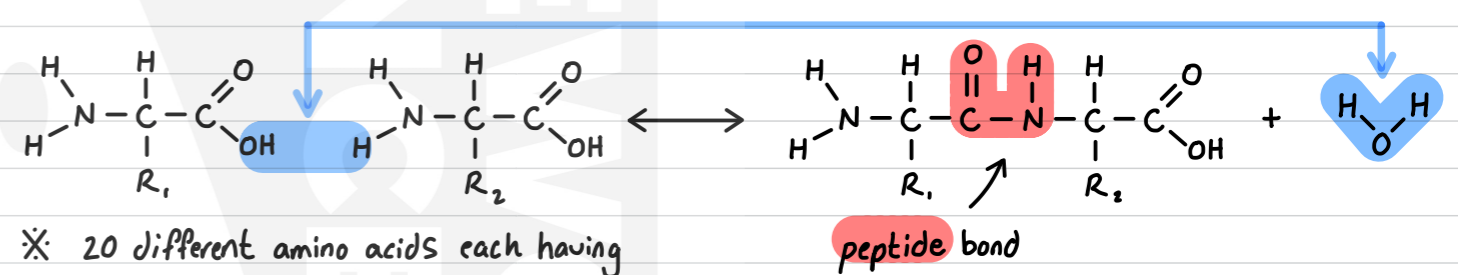
Carbohydrates

↳ monomers: monosaccharides ↔ dimer: disaccharide ↔ polymer: polysaccharide



Proteins proteins B1.2 * found in data booklet

↳ monomers: amino acids ↔ dimer: dipeptide ↔ polymer: polypeptide



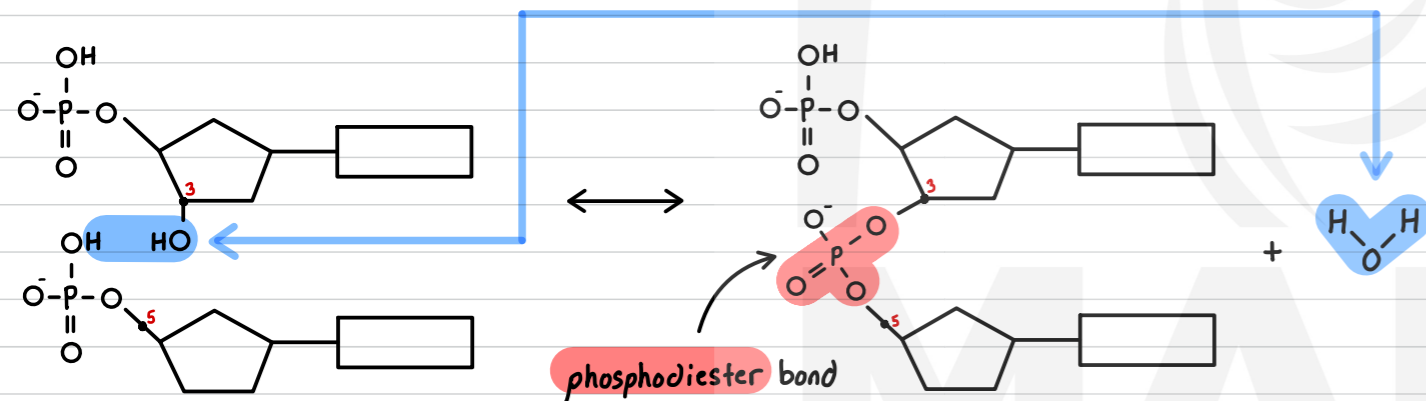
* 20 different amino acids each having a different R group

ex: anabolic enzyme: ribozymes
 catabolic enzymes: peptidase, pepsin, trypsin

* how many water molecules are required to form a polypeptide made of 500 amino acids?
 ↳ 500 - 1 = 499 water molecules

Nucleic acids

↳ monomers: nucleotides ↔ dimer: dinucleotide ↔ polymer: DNA / RNA

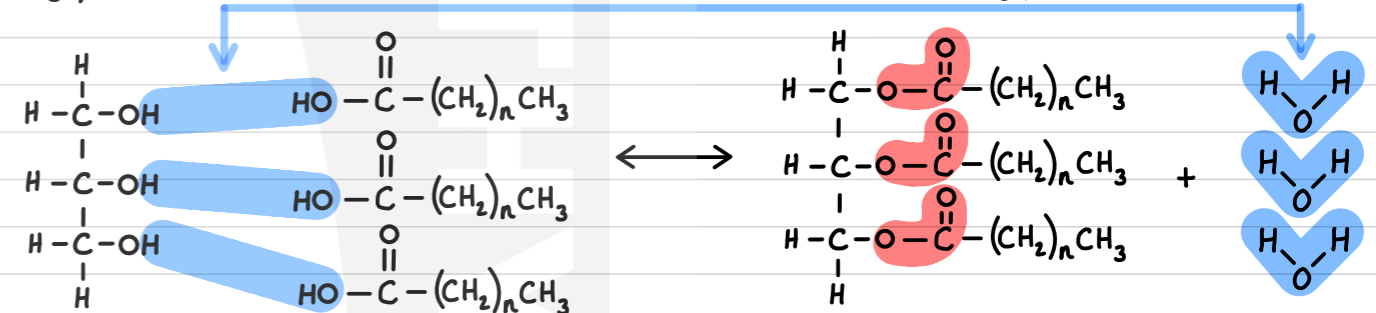


ex: anabolic enzymes: DNA polymerase, RNA polymerase, DNA ligase
 catabolic enzymes: endonuclease

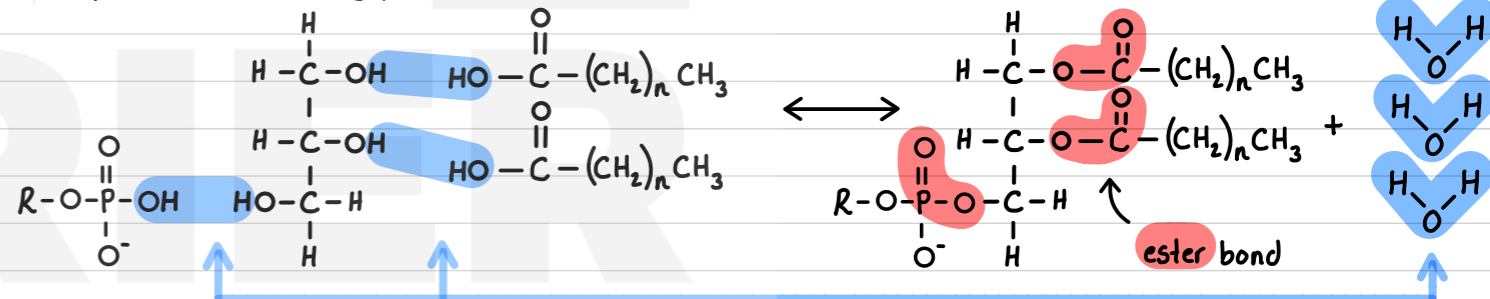
nucleic acids A1.2

Lipids

↳ glycerol + 3 fatty acids * ↔ triglyceride * can all be different or the same



↳ phosphate group + glycerol + 2 fatty acids * ↔ phospholipid

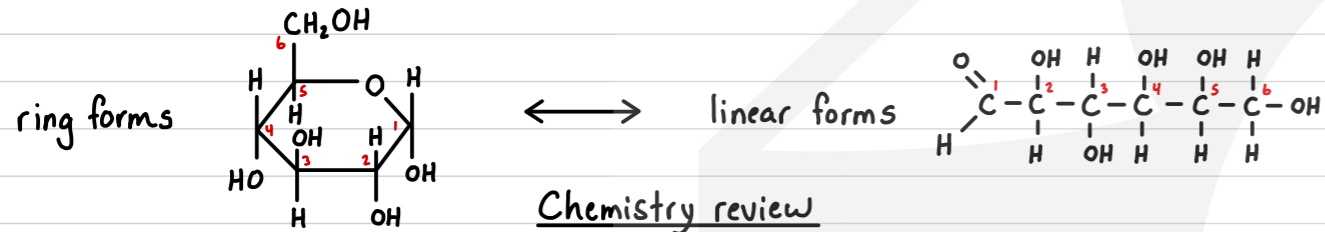


* lipids are technically not polymers as they are not composed of repeating units but different monomers

Composition: all carbohydrates contain carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen

Structure: monosaccharides have the general formula $C_n(H_2O)_n$ ex: $n=6$ $C_6H_{12}O_6$

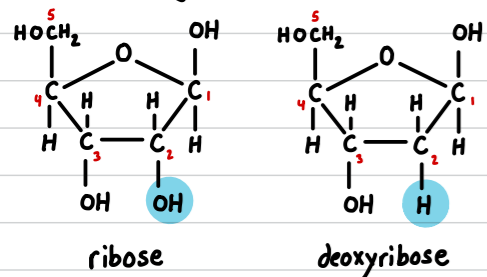
Form: monosaccharides made of 5 carbons (pentose) and 6 carbons (hexose) exist in multiple forms:



Chemistry review

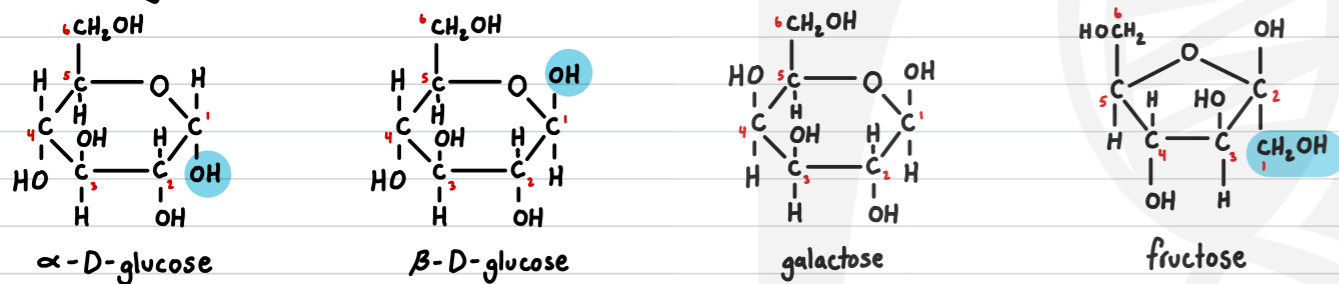
isomer: chemicals with the same chemical formula but different structural formulae
 ↳ while properties are mainly similar, they are recognized by enzymes and have a major effect on polymer construction

* Pentose ring monosaccharides.



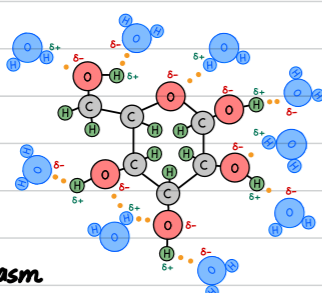
* refers to number of carbons, not the shape of ring

* Hexose ring monosaccharides are isomers ($C_6H_{12}O_6$):

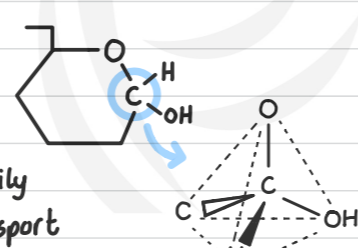


Properties of Glucose facilitating its use as an energy source:

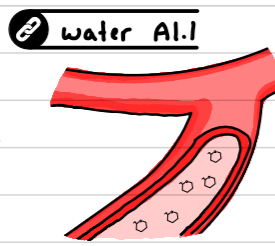
↳ High solubility in water
 Due to its polarity it readily forms hydrogen bonds with water, allowing it to dissolve within plasma, interstitial fluid, and cytoplasm




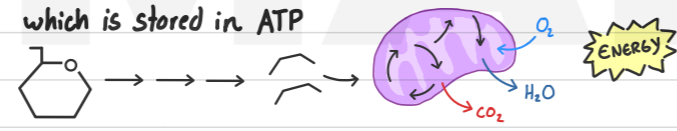
↳ Molecular stability
 Glucose is composed of strong, stable covalent bonds which do not break easily facilitating storage and transport



↳ Easy transportability
 Blood is mainly plasma which is mostly water, thus hydrophilic glucose dissolves and is easily transported throughout body



↳ Energy yield  cell respiration C1.2
 Glucose is oxidized in enzyme-reactions (respiration) and releases a significant amount of energy which is stored in ATP

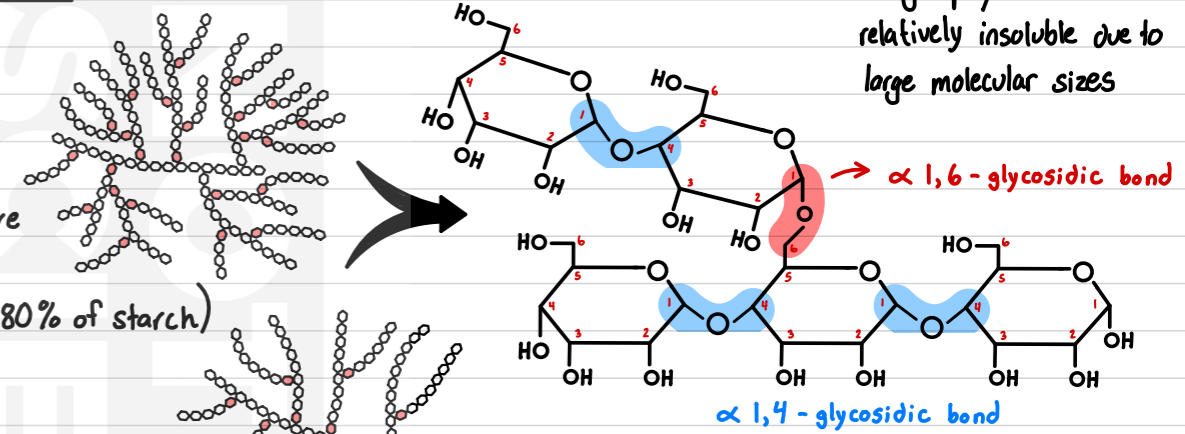


4 types of Polysaccharides: * structures found in data booklet

* storage polysaccharides are relatively insoluble due to large molecular sizes

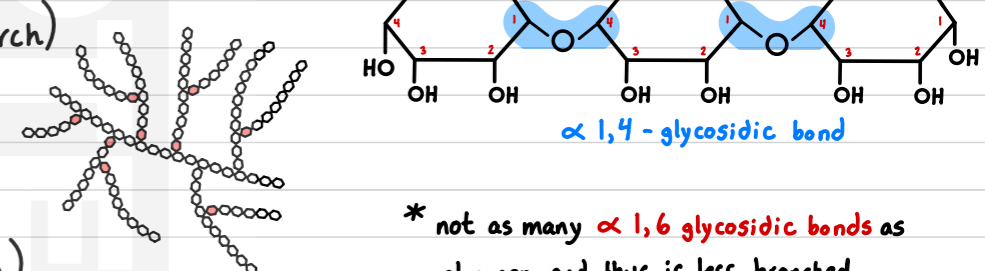
① **Glycogen**

- made of α glucose
- highly branched structure



② **Amylopectin** (~70-80% of starch)

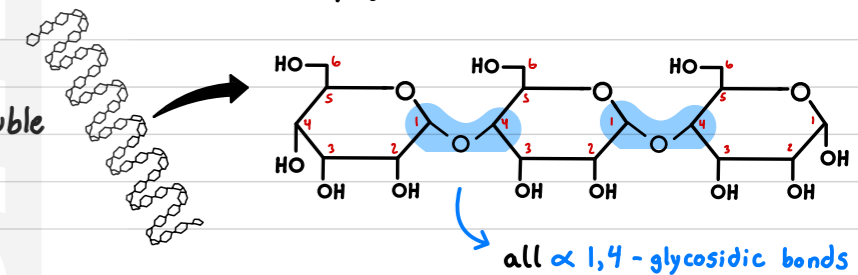
- made of α glucose
- branched* structure



* not as many α 1,6 glycosidic bonds as glycogen and thus is less branched


③ **Amylose** (~20-30% of starch)

- made of α glucose
- unbranched, causing it to be less water soluble



* α 1,4 bonds result in a helical structure

Glycogen and Starch as energy storage materials:

- ↳ glycogen stored as a short-term energy reserve in animals within the liver and muscles
- ↳ starch stored compactly into plastids in plants (such as chloroplasts)  cell structure A2.2
- ↳ many branches cause them to coil and be compacted in small volume
- ↳ very large molecules, thus do not contribute to osmotic pressure within cells
- ↳ no defined size, and due to many free ends: easy for enzymes to hydrolyze for rapid energy supply and to add subunits via condensation to store excess glucose (amylose a little less so as it is unbranched)

④ **Cellulose**

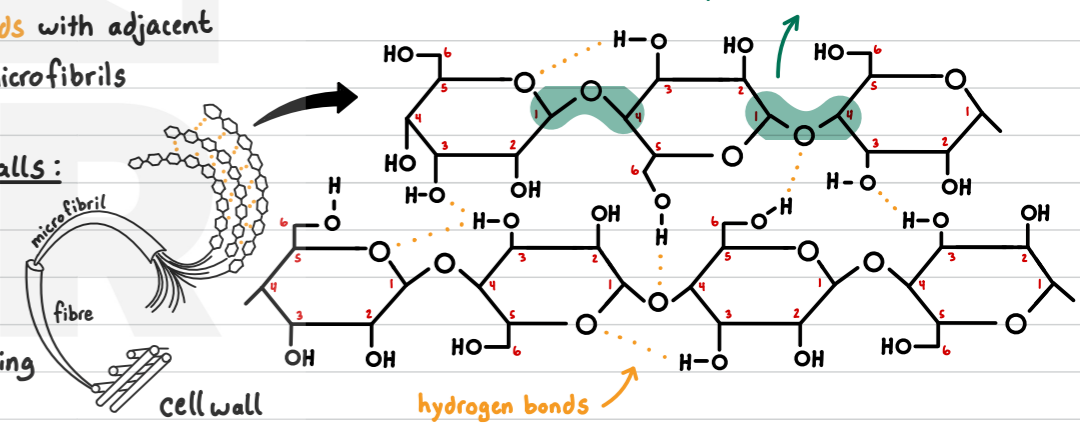
- made of β -glucose with each molecule flipped 180° relative to its neighbour
- polymers are straight, linear, unbranched chains
- form cross-linking **hydrogen bonds** with adjacent parallel chains forming strong microfibrils



all β 1,4-glycosidic bonds

Structural component of plant cell walls:

- ↳ fibres have high tensile strength able to resist turgor pressure
- ↳ cellulose insoluble in water, allowing materials to pass through freely

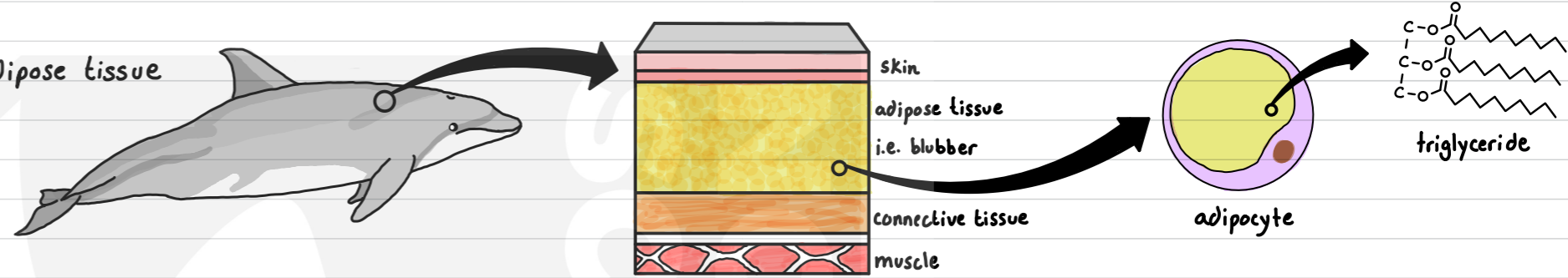


B1.1.11 – Triglycerides in adipose tissues for energy storage and thermal insulation

Triglycerides are stored in mammals in adipocytes (fat cells), forming adipose tissue

↳ adipose tissue mainly stored under the skin (subcutaneous fat)

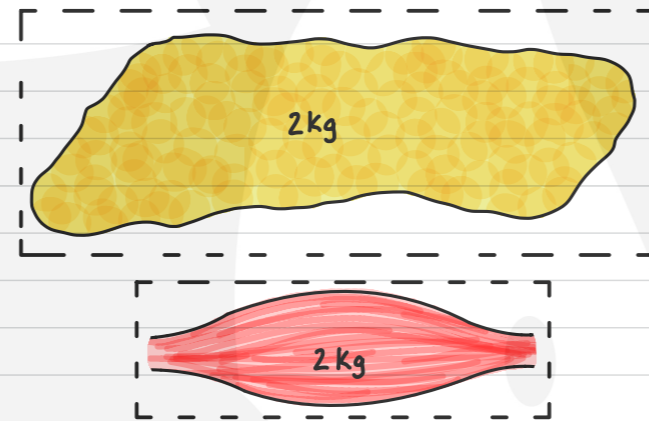
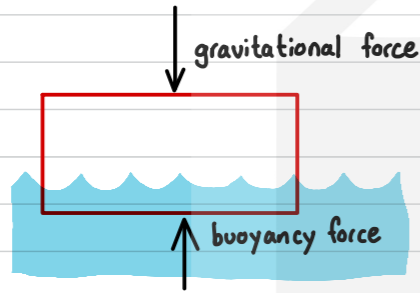
↳ in aquatic and arctic mammals, this tissue is very thick and called blubber



Fat as buoyancy aid

↳ Buoyancy is the upwards force a fluid exerts on an object placed in it, equal to the weight of fluid displaced

↳ the density of the object will influence its buoyancy as if object's density \leq fluid density it will float



↳ fat is less dense than bone or muscle i.e. for the same mass, fat takes up more space \therefore more fat, more buoyant

↳ to increase buoyancy, aquatic mammals have larger stores of fat, allowing them to float easier in the water

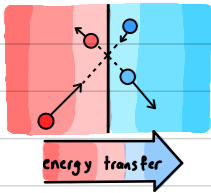


ex: some seals have up to 40% of their mass as blubber, allowing them to float readily in oceans

Fat as thermal insulator

Water A1.1

↳ heat naturally moves from hotter to cooler areas



↳ A thermal insulator is something that does not readily allow heat to travel through (opposite to a thermal conductor)

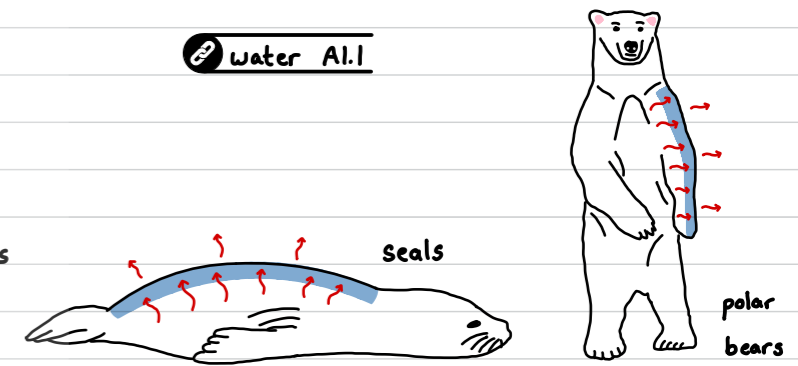
↳ Endotherms (warm-blooded) animals maintain a constant body temperature in their surroundings and habitats

ex: very useful for arctic and marine animals

↳ triglycerides within adipose tissue are good thermal insulators so are able to trap heat

ex: arctic endotherms have large blubber stores which allow them to maintain high body temperature in cold environments by trapping heat generated from metabolic processes

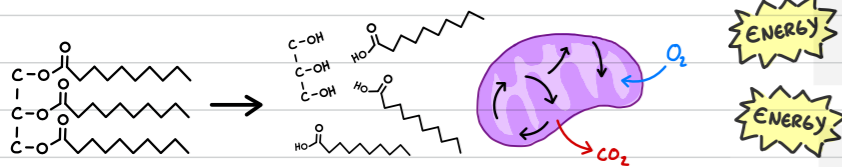
Water A1.1



Fat as energy storage

Lipids are used as long-term energy storage (while carbohydrates as a short-term store)

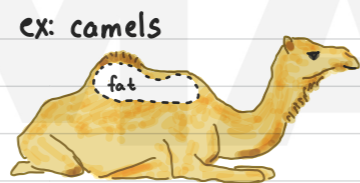
↳ When oxidized in enzyme-reactions, they release twice as much energy as carbohydrates (gram-for-gram)



↳ release more water than carbohydrates when fully oxidized (due to more C-H), providing more metabolic water to the organism

cell respiration C1.2

↳ lipids are hydrophobic, so while carbohydrates need to be stored with water, lipids can be stored as pure droplets, allowing far more to be stored while contributing less to overall mass



ex: camels store fat for later energy and water use when respired

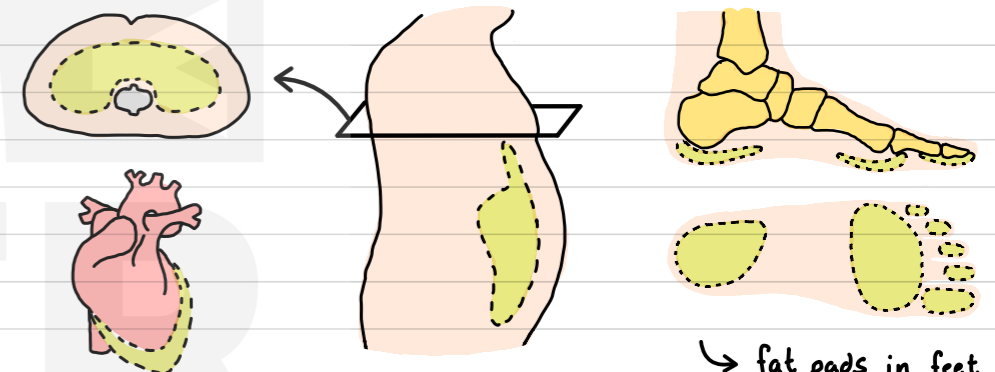


ex: migratory birds store fat for energy use during long flights

↳ they are insoluble in water so if stored in cytoplasm it will form droplets and not contribute to osmolarity

Fat as protection

↳ Fat is stored deep in the body which surround organs (visceral fat), acting as a cushion and protection from external forces and harm



↳ fat pads in feet act as shock absorbers

B1.1.7—Role of glycoproteins in cell–cell recognition

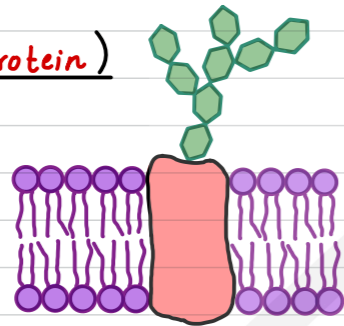
Biomolecules can exist in combinations with others, for example:

membranes B2.1

water A1.1

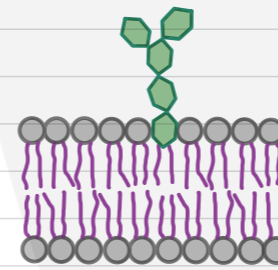
Glycoprotein (Carbohydrate + protein)

carbohydrate chain bound to a protein which project outward to extracellular space, involved in cell-cell recognition



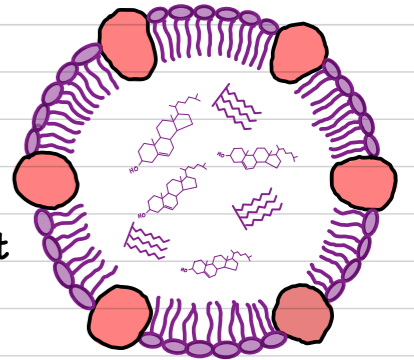
Glycolipid (Carbohydrate + lipid)

carbohydrate chain bound to a lipid located on the outer surface of cell membranes involved in cell recognition and membrane stability

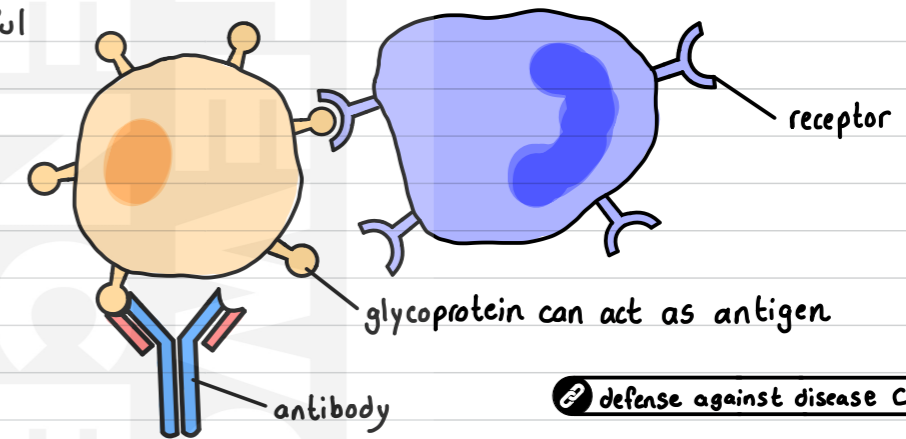


Lipoprotein (lipid + protein)

shell-like structure made of phospholipids and proteins whose function is to transport lipids (such as cholesterol or triglycerides) around the body via the blood plasma



- cells in an organism need the ability to differentiate 'self' from 'non-self' or foreign in order to mount a successful immune response and prevent disease
- all cells, and even viruses have antigens, surface markers, which are commonly glycoproteins or proteins
- the glycoproteins have a unique shape, giving it an 'ID' for the body's immune cells to analyze using its surface receptors and antibodies. If the antigen is identified as foreign, an immune response will be initiated



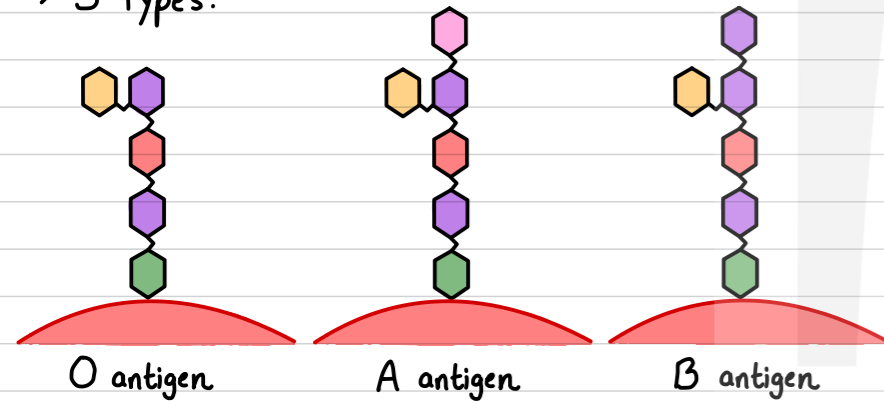
defense against disease C3.2

ABO blood groups inheritance D3.2

red blood cells (erythrocytes) are specialized cells whose primary function is to transport O₂ to the body's tissues using the protein haemoglobin

the surface of red blood cells have specific glycoproteins acting as antigens and surface markers

3 types:



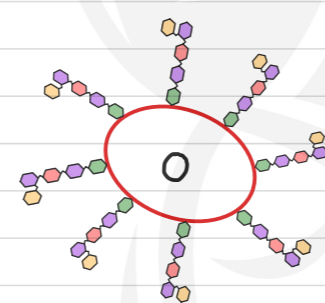
extra information

- glucose
- galactose
- N-acetylglucosamine
- fucose
- N-acetylgalactosamine

- A allele (I^A) codes for enzyme that adds N-acetylgalactosamine
- B allele (I^B) codes for enzyme that adds galactose
- O allele (i) codes for non-functional enzyme which doesn't add anything

4 main groups of blood cells, classified by the antigens on their surface:

✗ actually 8 types due to Rh (-/+) factor

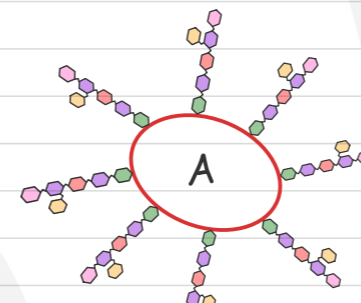


O antigens (no A or B)

∴ can donate to O, A, B, AB as O antigen not recognized as foreign, "universal donor"

produces anti-A and anti-B antibodies

∴ can only receive type O

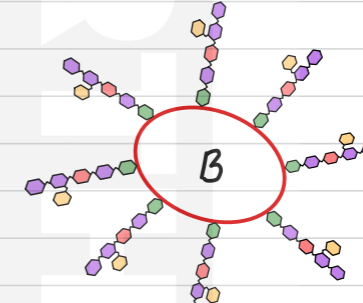


only A antigens

∴ can donate to A and AB as A antigen recognized as foreign by type O and B

produces anti-B antibodies

∴ can receive type O and A

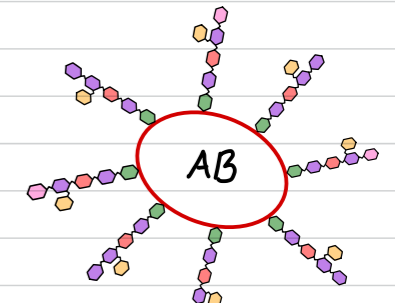


only B antigens

∴ can donate to B and AB as B antigen recognized as foreign by type O and A

produces anti-A antibodies

∴ can receive type O and B



both A and B antigens

∴ can only donate to AB as A antigen foreign to O and B and B antigen foreign to O and A

does not produce anti-A or anti-B antibodies

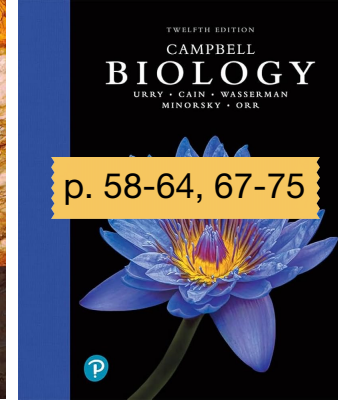
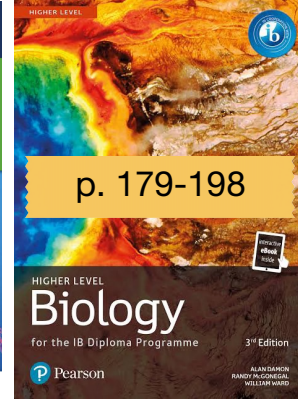
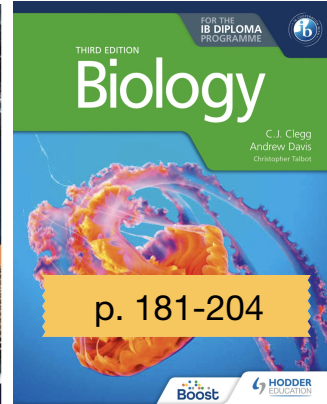
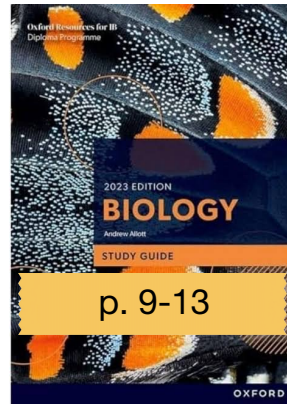
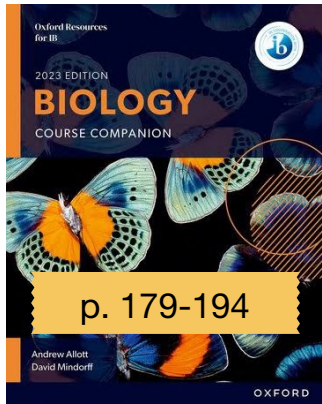
∴ can receive type O, A, B, AB "universal recipient"

Resource Links

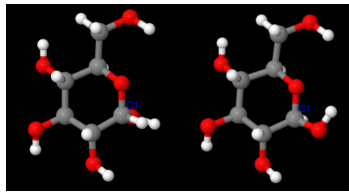
each resource is hyperlinked



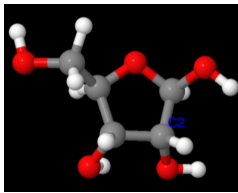
↳ Textbooks



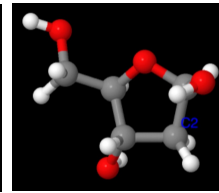
↳ 3D models



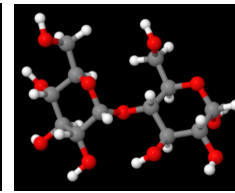
alpha and beta glucose



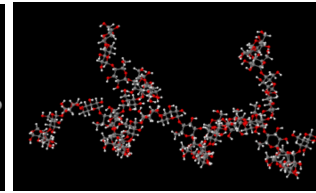
Ribose



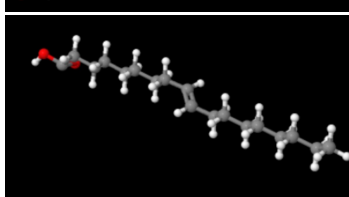
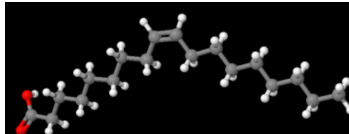
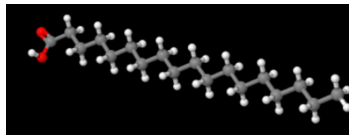
Deoxyribose



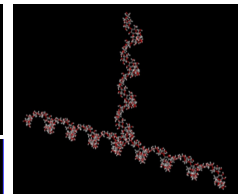
Maltose



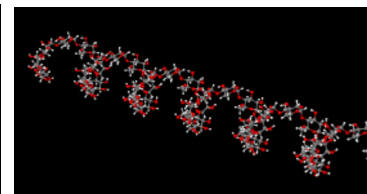
Glycogen



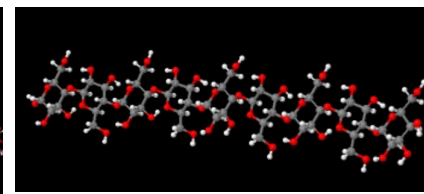
Saturated and Unsaturated fatty acids



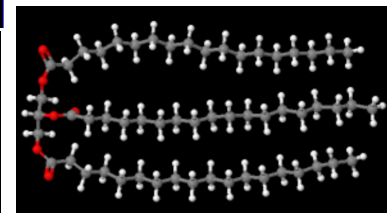
Amylopectin



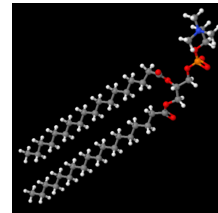
Amylose



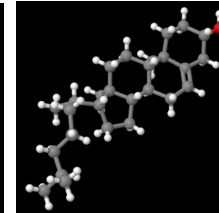
Cellulose



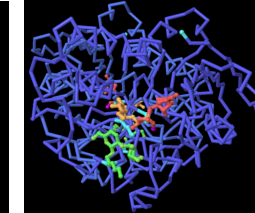
Triglyceride



Phospholipid



Cholesterol



Glycosyltransferase

↳ Articles

Azuma, H., Amano, T., Kamiyama, N., Takehara, N., Jingu, M., Takagi, H., Sugita, O., Kobayashi, N., Kure, T., Shimizu, T., Ishida, T., Matsumoto, M., & Sakai, H. (2022b). First-in-human phase 1 trial of hemoglobin vesicles as artificial red blood cells developed for use as a transfusion alternative. *Blood Advances*, 6(21), 5711–5715. <https://doi.org/10.1182/bloodadvances.2022007977>