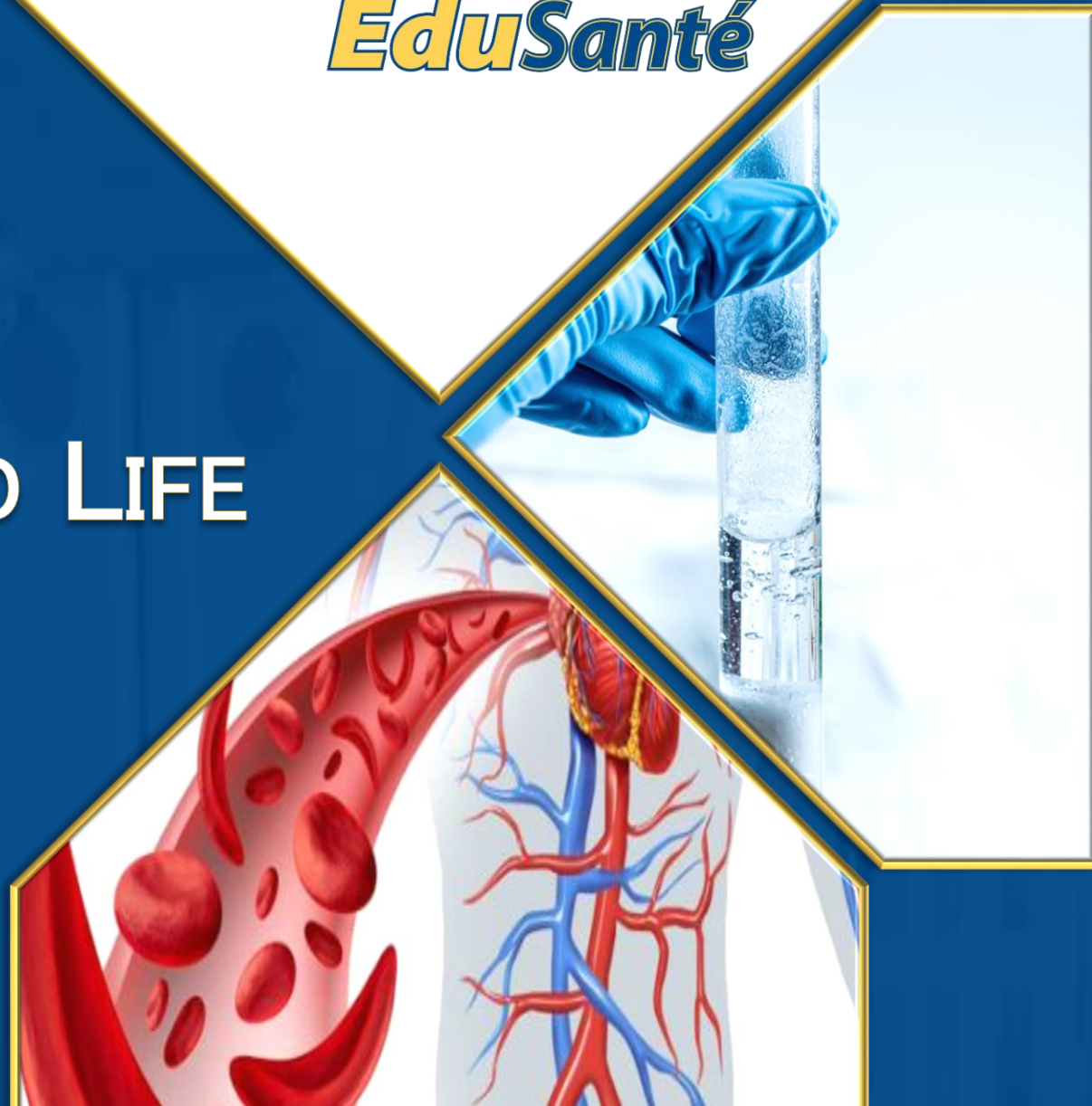
MEDAVIE HealthEd ÉduSanté

Chemistry, Matter and Life

Primary Care Paramedicine



Module: 04

Section: 02

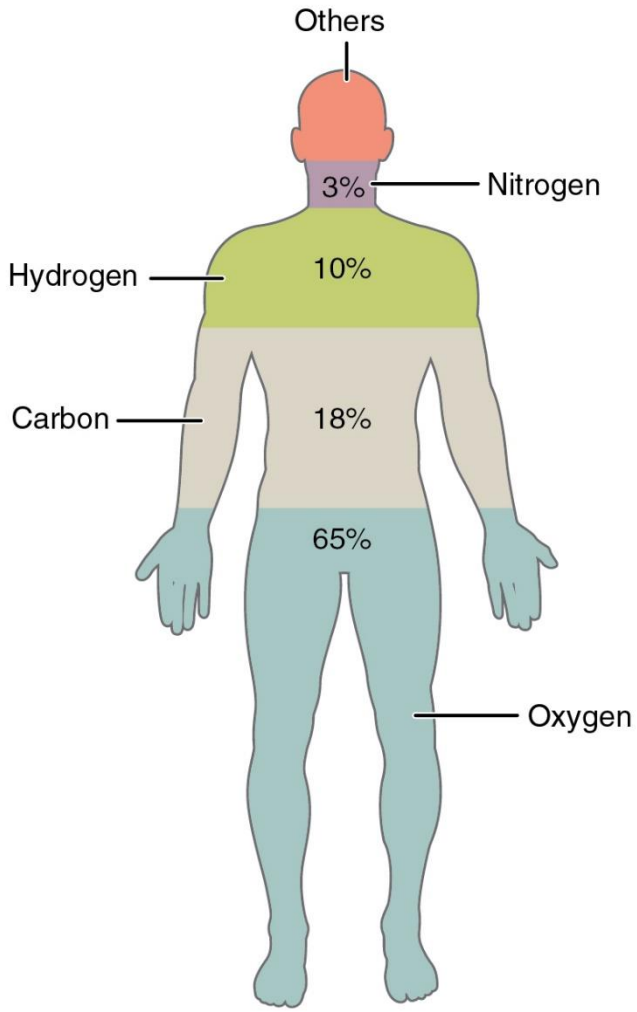
Matter

- Defined as anything that has mass and occupies space
- Includes
  - Solids
    - Definite shape, definite volume
  - Liquids
    - Indefinite shape, definite volume
  - Gases
    - Indefinite shape, indefinite volume

Elements

- Simple form of matter, a substance that cannot be broken down into two or more different substances
  - There are 26 elements in the human body
  - There are 11 “major elements,”
    - Four of which (carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen) make up 96% of the human body
      - Hydrogen H (9.5 %)
      - Carbon C (18.5 %)
      - Oxygen O (65.0 %)
      - Nitrogen N (3.2 %)
  - There are 15 “trace elements” that make up less than 2% of body weight

Elements



Element	Symbol	Percentage in Body
Oxygen	O	65.0
Carbon	C	18.5
Hydrogen	H	9.5
Nitrogen	N	3.2
Calcium	Ca	1.5
Phosphorus	P	1.0
Potassium	K	0.4
Sulfur	S	0.3
Sodium	Na	0.2
Chlorine	Cl	0.2
Magnesium	Mg	0.1
Trace elements include boron (B), chromium (Cr), cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), fluorine (F), iodine (I), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), selenium (Se), silicon (Si), tin (Sn), vanadium (V), and zinc (Zn).		less than 1.0

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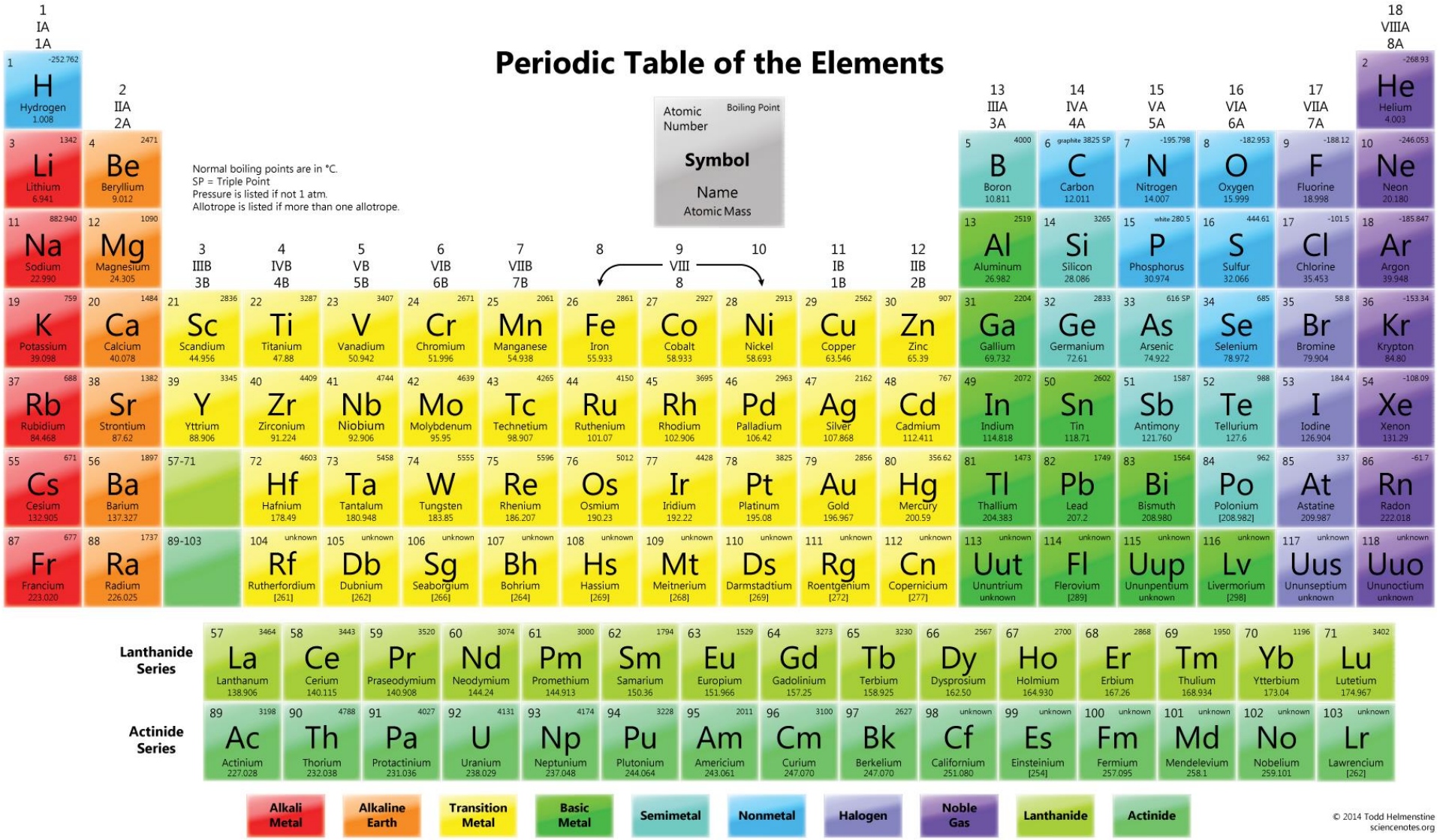
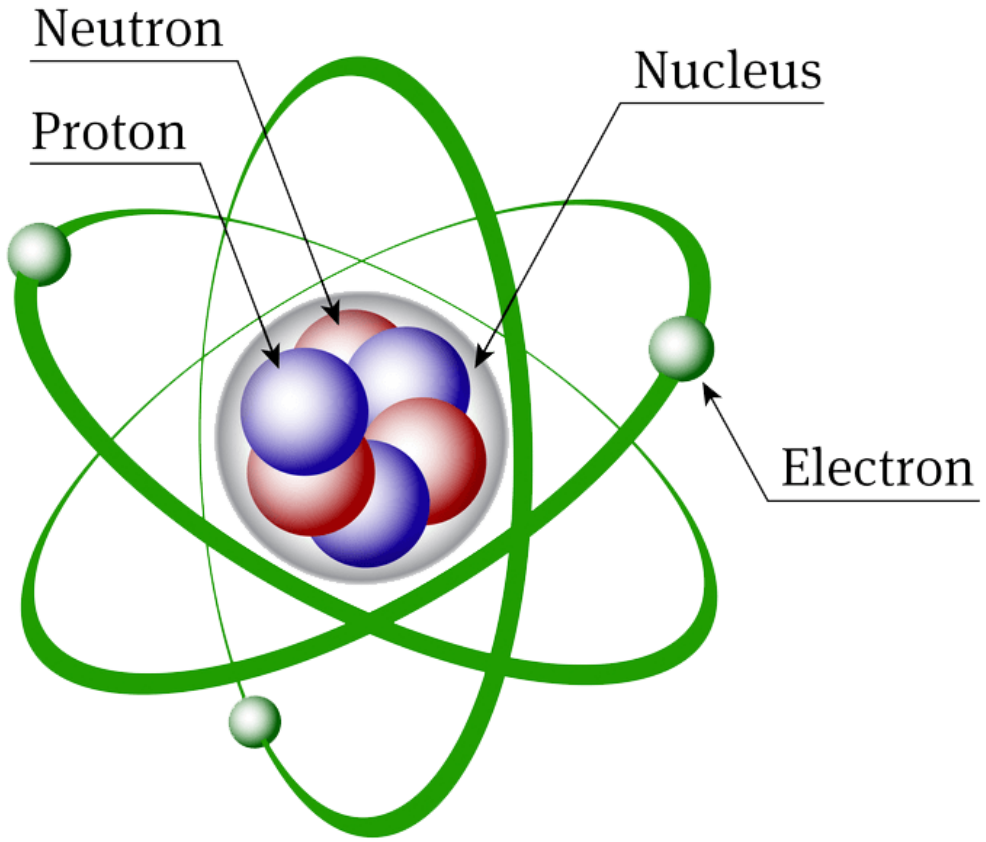
Periodic Table



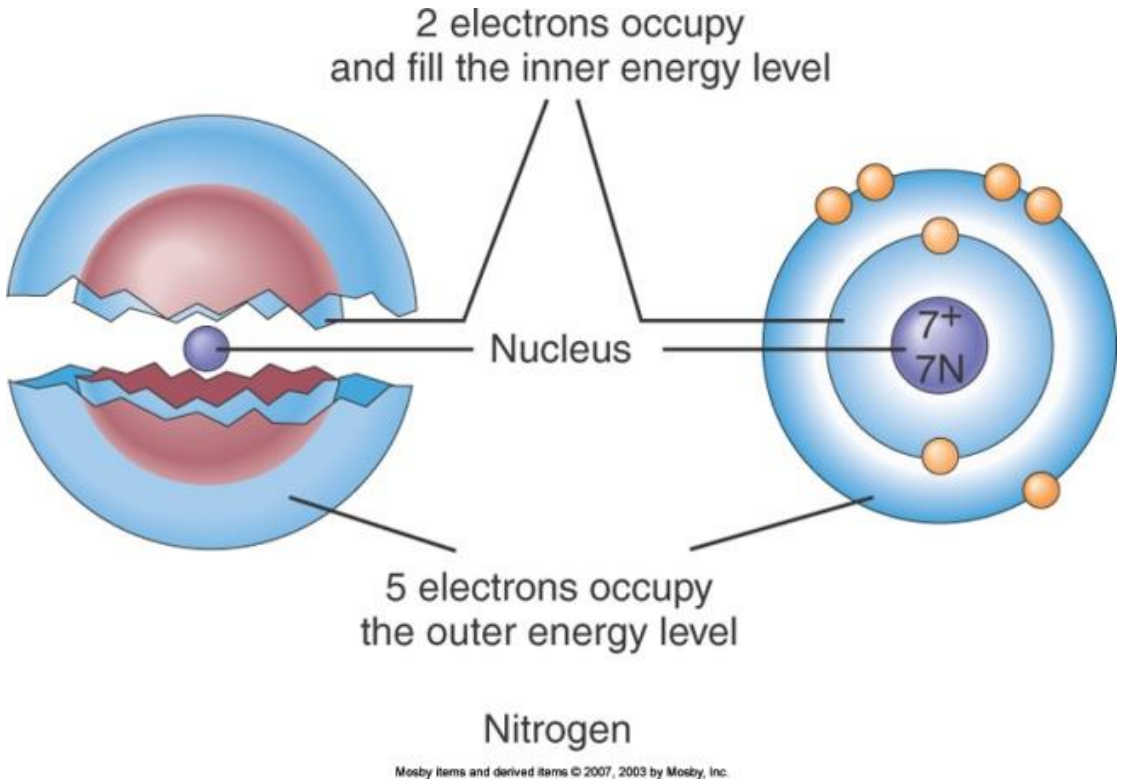
Atoms



- Smallest particle of an element that maintains the properties of the element
- Contain several different kinds of subatomic particles; the most important are the following:
  - Protons (+ or p) – found in nucleus
  - Neutrons (n) – found in nucleus
  - Electrons (- or e) – found in electron cloud

Basic Chemistry

- Energy levels
  - The total number of electrons in an atom equals the number of protons in the nucleus (in a stable atom)
  - The electrons form a “cloud” around the nucleus

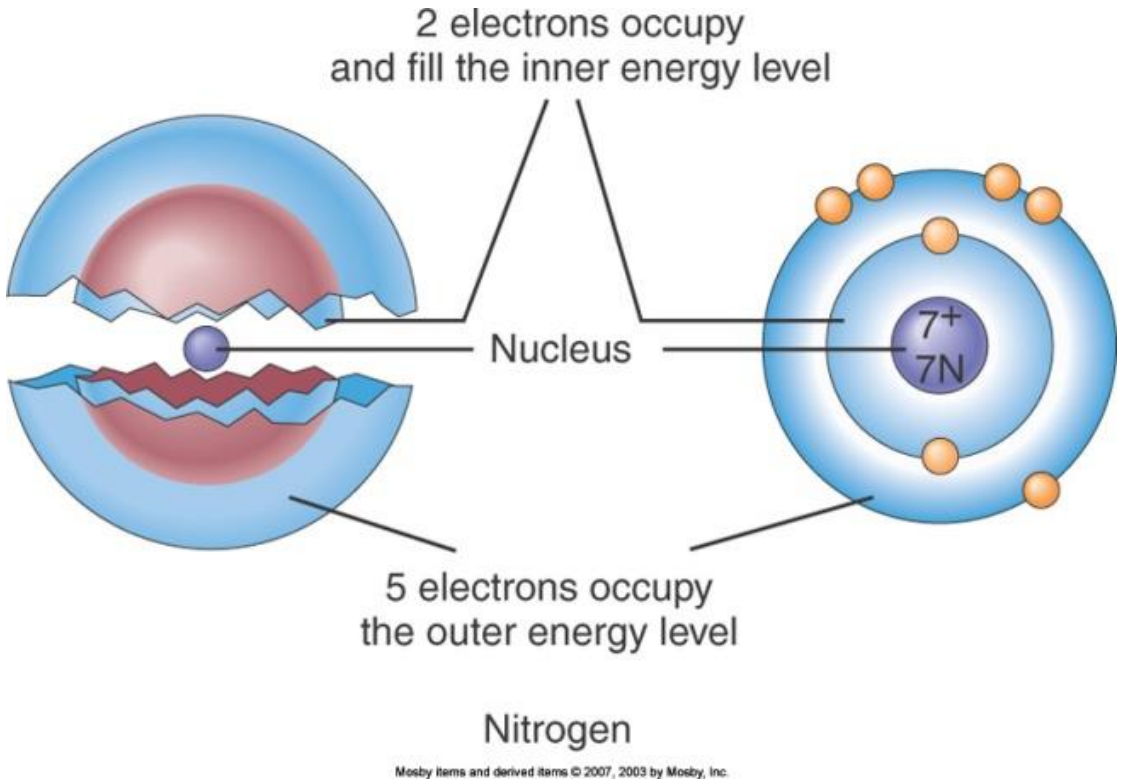


Basic Chemistry

- Energy levels
  - "Bohr model"—a model resembling planets revolving around the sun, useful in visualizing the structure of atoms
  - Exhibits electrons in concentric circles showing relative distances of the electrons from the nucleus
  - Each ring or shell represents a specific energy level and can hold only a certain number of electrons
  - The number and arrangement of electrons determine if an atom is chemically stable
  - An atom with eight, or four pairs of, electrons in the outermost energy level is chemically inert
  - An atom without a full outermost energy level is chemically active

Basic Chemistry

- Energy levels
  - Octet rule
    - Atoms with fewer or more than eight electrons in the outer energy level will attempt to lose, gain, or share electrons with other atoms to achieve stability



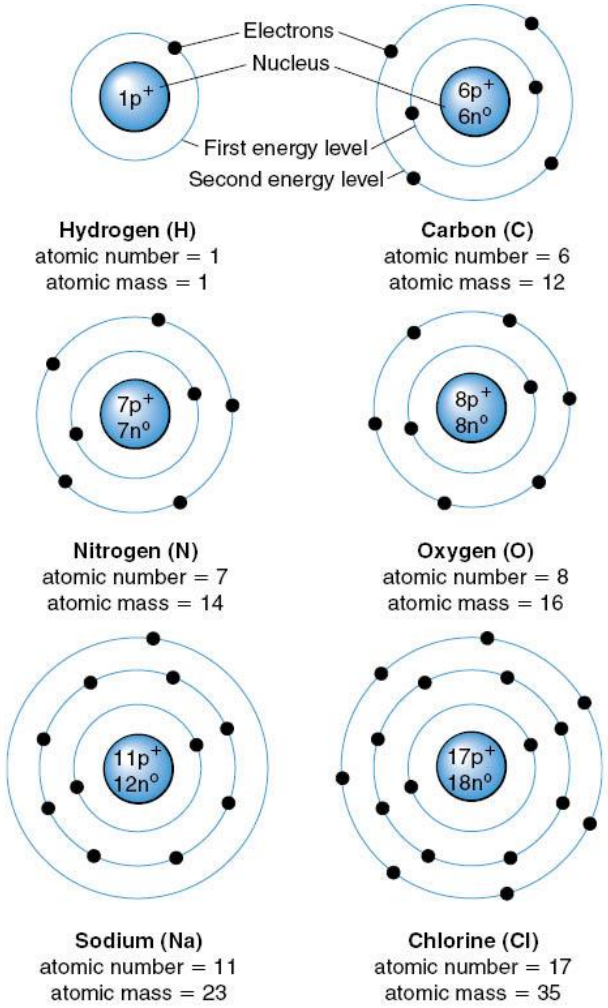
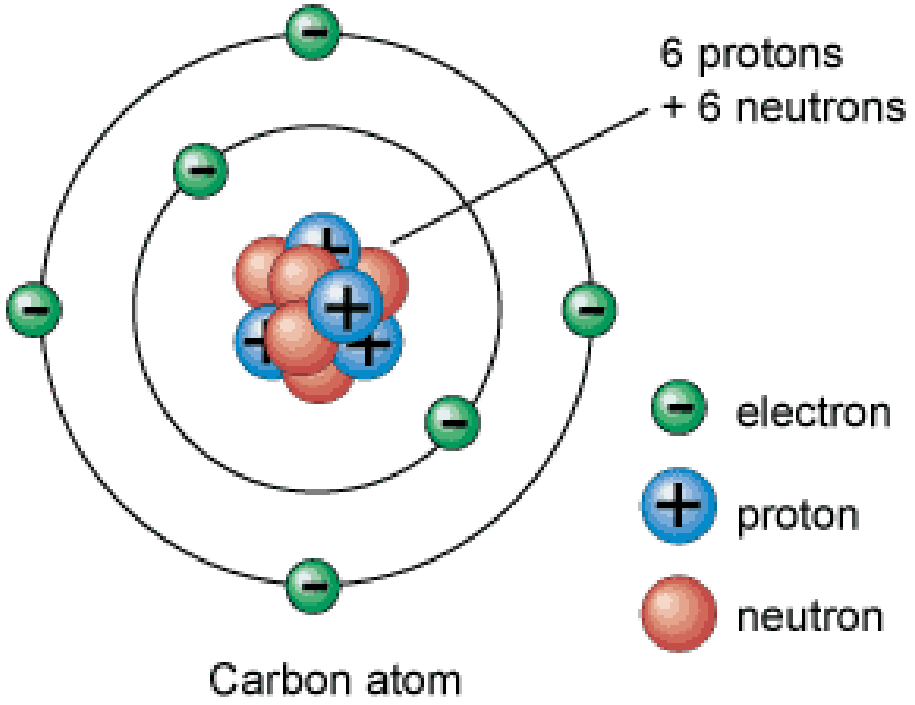
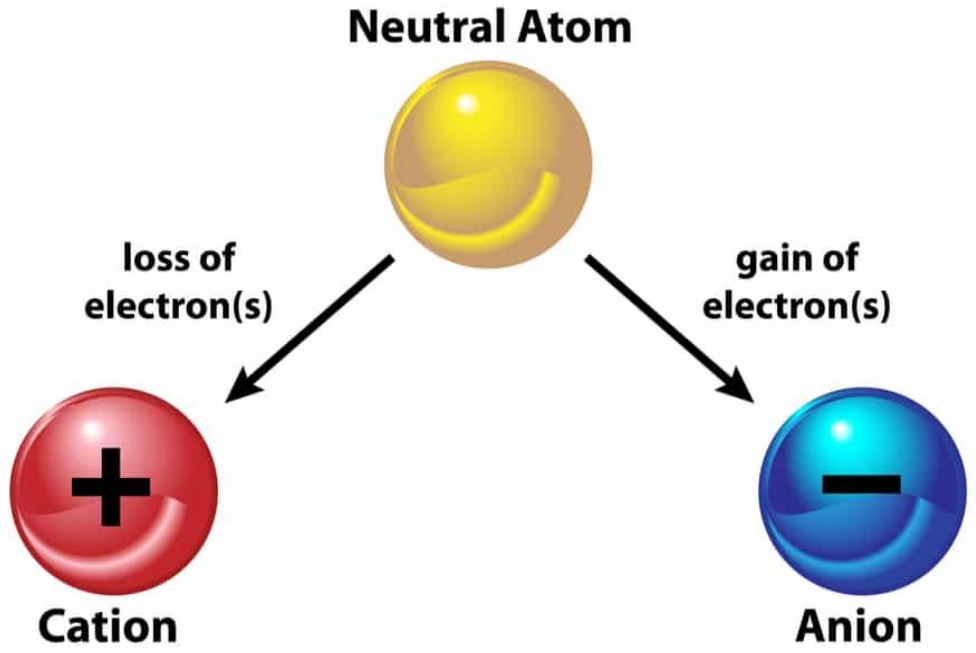


Figure 2-2 *Diagrams of the atomic structure of some biologically important elements—hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, sodium, and chlorine.*



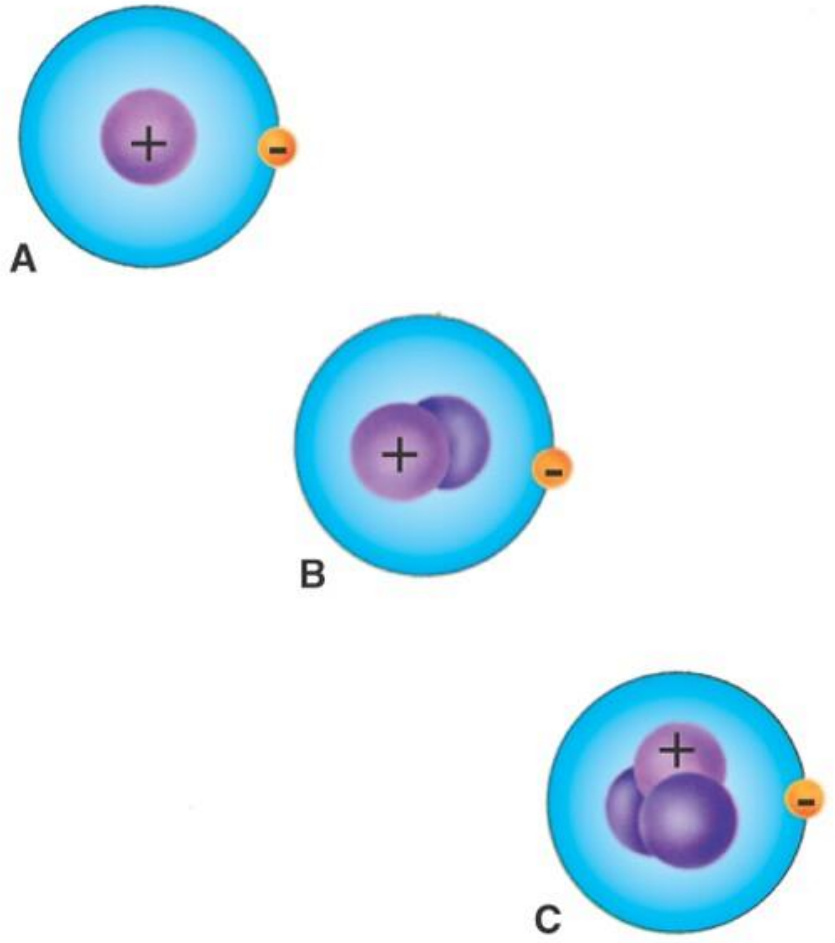
Ion

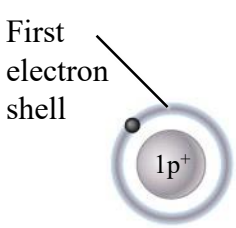
- Ions are atoms or molecules in which the total number of electrons is not equal to the number of protons
  - If an atom loses one or more electrons it has a net positive charge (Cation)
  - If an atom gains electrons then it has a net negative charge (Anion)



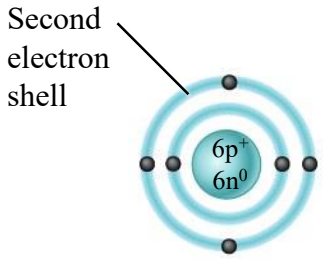
Isotopes

- Isotopes of an element contain the same number of protons but contain different numbers of neutrons
- Isotopes have the same atomic number, and therefore the same basic chemical properties, as any other atom of the same element, but they have a different atomic weight
- Radioactive isotope—an unstable isotope that undergoes nuclear breakdown and emits nuclear particles and radiation

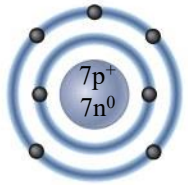




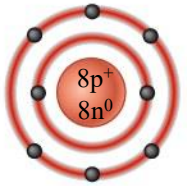
Hydrogen (H)
Atomic number = 1
Mass number = **1 or 2**
Atomic mass = 1.01



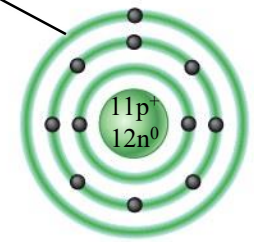
Carbon (C)
Atomic number = 6
Mass number = **12 or 13**
Atomic mass = 12.01



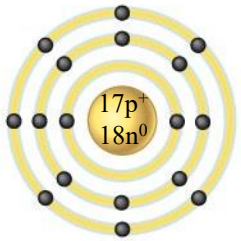
Nitrogen (N)
Atomic number = 7
Mass number = **14 or 15**
Atomic mass = 14.01



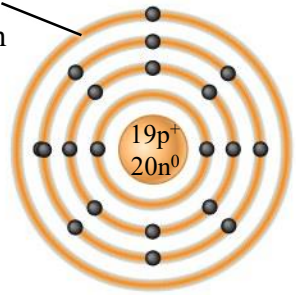
Oxygen (O)
Atomic number = 8
Mass number = **16, 17, or 18**
Atomic mass = 16.00



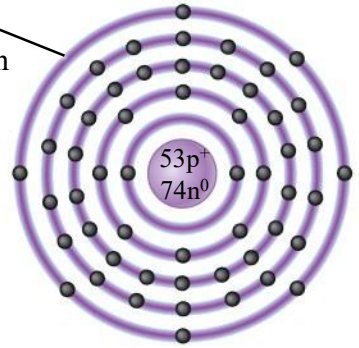
Sodium (Na)
Atomic number = 11
Mass number = **23**
Atomic mass = 22.99



Chlorine (Cl)
Atomic number = 17
Mass number = **35 or 37**
Atomic mass = 35.45



Potassium (K)
Atomic number = 19
Mass number = **39, 40, or 41**
Atomic mass = 39.10



Iodine (I)
Atomic number = 53
Mass number = **127**
Atomic mass = 126.90

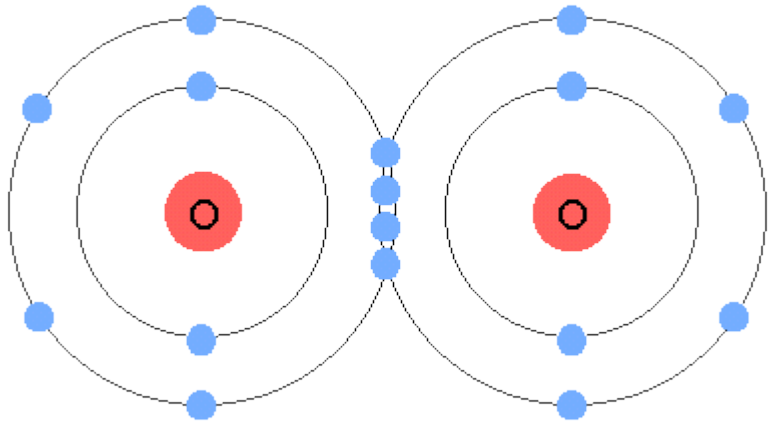
Atomic number = number of protons in an atom
Mass number = number of protons and neutrons in an atom (boldface indicates most common isotope)
Atomic mass = average mass of all stable atoms of a given element in daltons

Chemical Bonds

- Attractions between atoms
  - Chemical reaction
    - Interaction between two or more atoms that occurs as a result of activity between electrons in their outermost energy levels

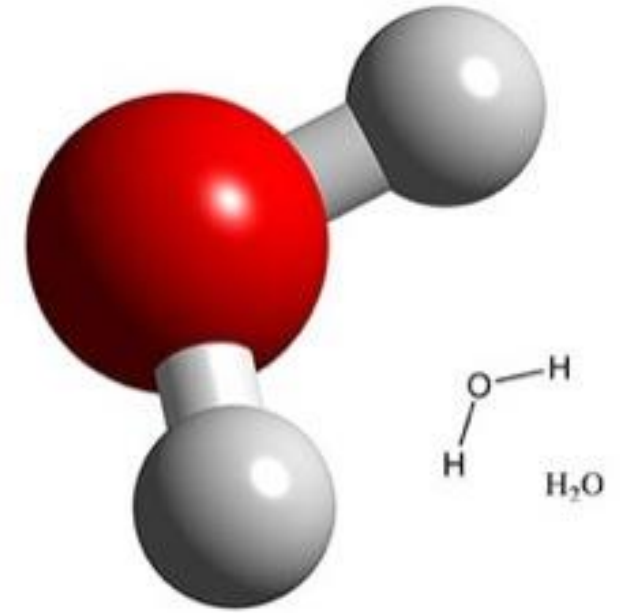
Molecule

- Smallest unit of a compound
- A combination of two or more of the same atoms through chemical bonding
- 2 elements of oxygen bond to form an oxygen molecule (O_2)



Compounds

- Atoms of at least two different elements joined to form chemical combinations
- Combine in a fixed ratio to form a new substance
  - NaCl
  - H_2O
  - $C_6H_{12}O_6$

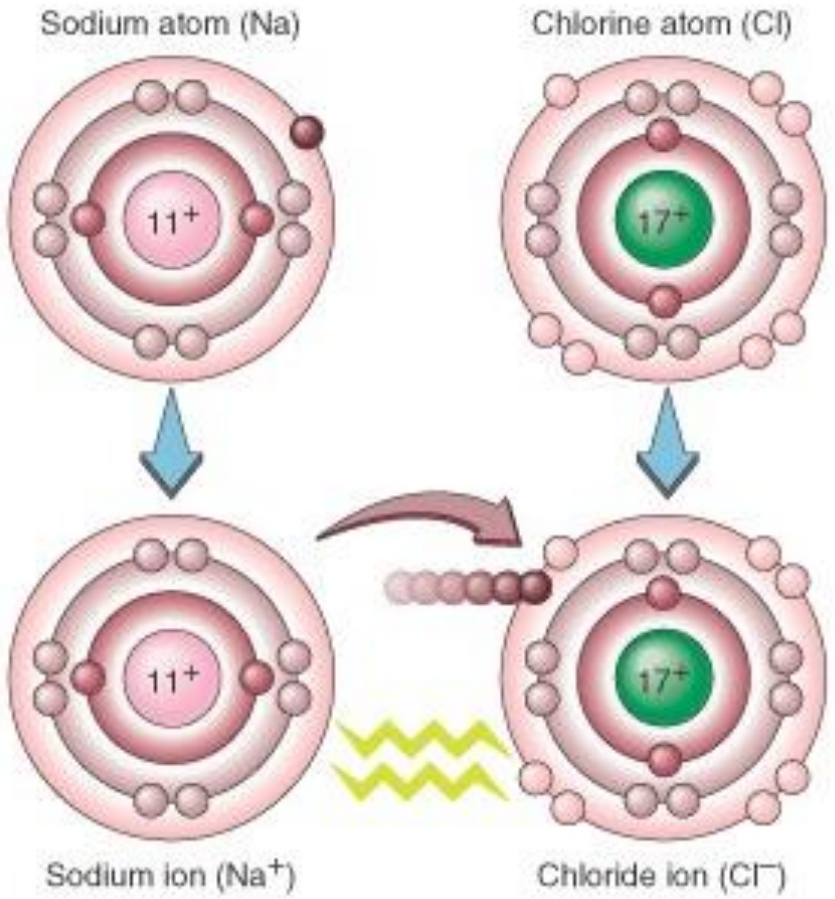


Chemical Bonds

- Chemical bonds are forces that hold atoms together
- Determined largely by the Electrons
- Atoms have a tendency to share electrons to maintain a stable configuration
- 3 Types
  - Ionic
  - Covalent
  - Hydrogen

Ionic Bonds

- Ionic, or electrovalent, bond
  - Formed by transfer of electrons; strong electrostatic force that binds positively and negatively charged ions together
- Changed particles that result are called Ions
  - Positively charged (Cation)
  - Negatively charged (Anion)



Ionic Bonds

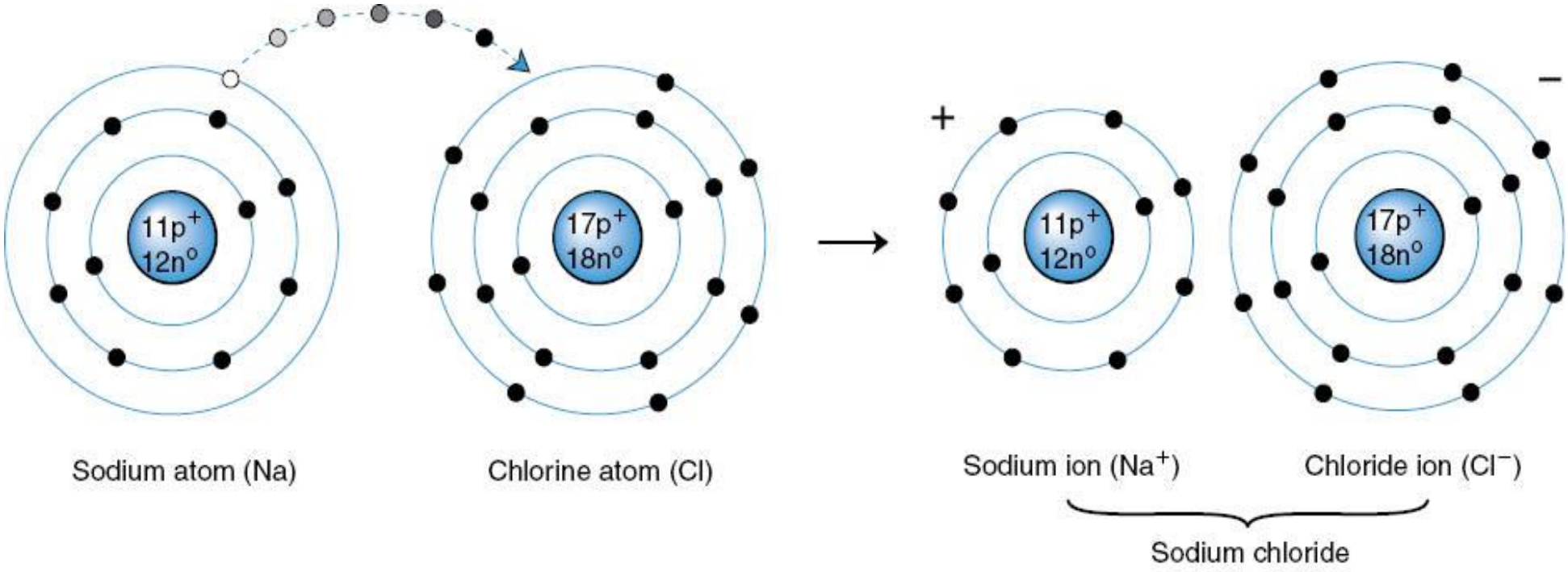
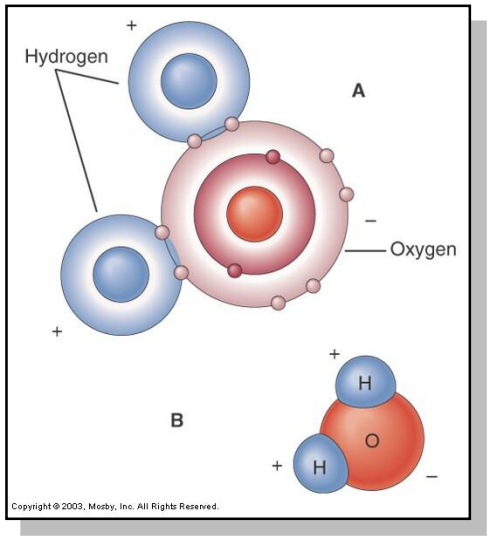


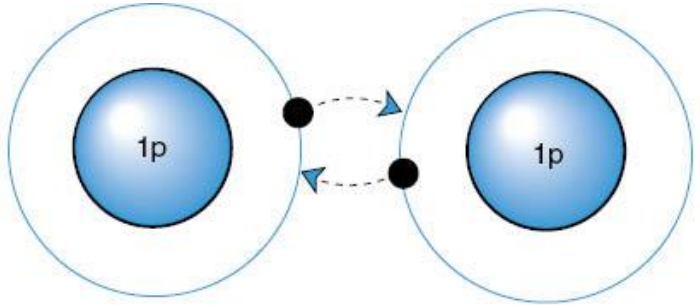
Figure 2-4 *Formation of ionic bonds. An electron is transferred from the outer shell of the sodium atom to the outer shell of the chlorine atom. This transfer results in a positively charged sodium ion and a negatively charged chloride ion. The opposite charges attract to form the ionic bond of sodium chloride.*

Covalent Bonds

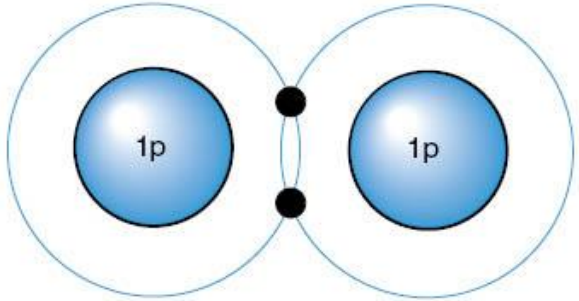
- Formed when 2 atoms share a pair of electrons
  - Single covalent
  - Double covalent
- Non-polar Covalent Bond
  - Electrons shared equally between the two atoms
- Polar Covalent Bond
  - Electrons spend more time around one end of the atom then the other (H_2O)
  - Stronger than Ionic bonds



Covalent Bonds

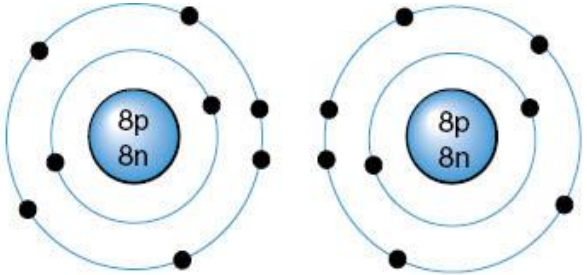


Two hydrogen atoms each with one proton in the nucleus and one electron in the energy shell

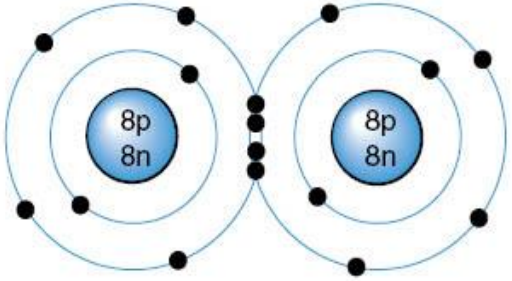


A molecule of hydrogen gas, H–H (H_2)
The two hydrogen atoms share an electron pair to form a single covalent bond

Figure 2-5 *Single covalent bond in hydrogen gas.*



Two atoms of oxygen, each with eight protons and eight neutrons in the nucleus and six electrons in the outer energy level.



A molecule of oxygen gas.
Each oxygen atom shares two electrons to form a double covalent bond.

Figure 2-7 *Double covalent bond in oxygen gas.*

Covalent Bonds

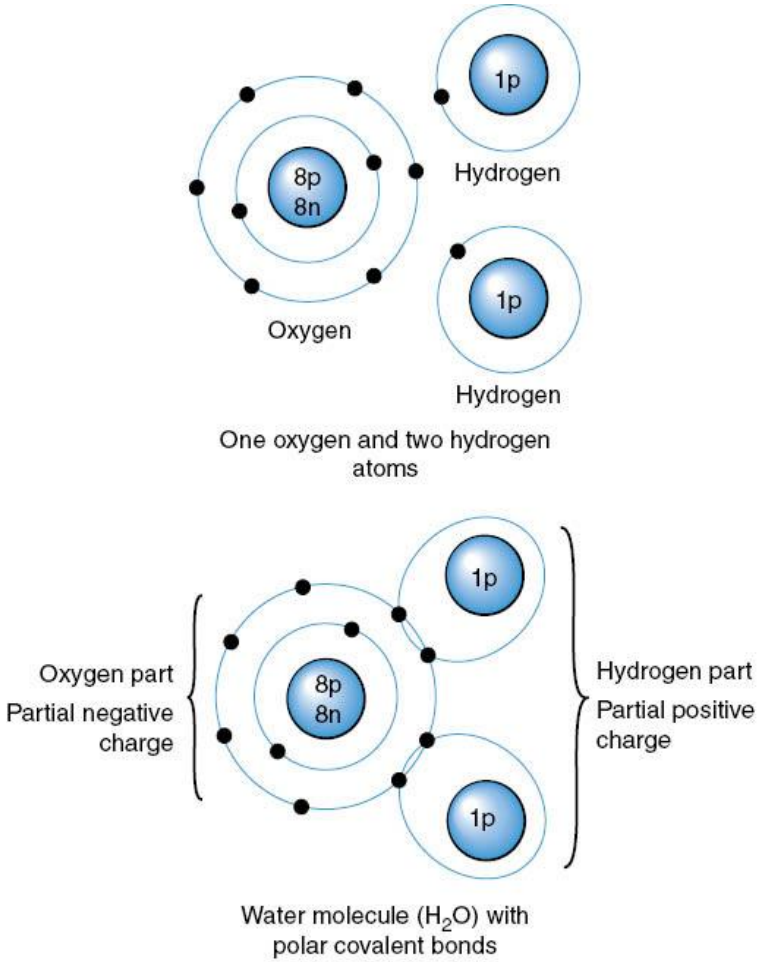
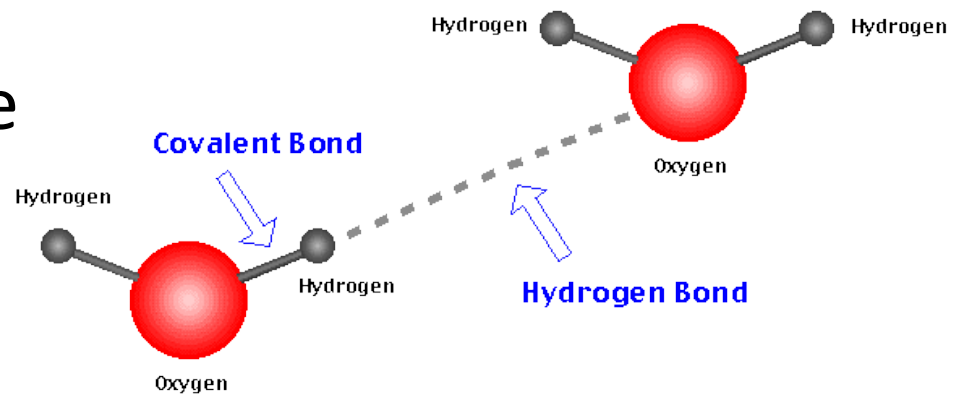


Figure 2-10 *Polar covalent bonds between oxygen and hydrogen.*

Hydrogen Bonds

- Where ionic and covalent bonds hold atoms to atom to form a molecule, hydrogen bonds hold molecule to molecule
- Result from the weak electrical attraction between the positive end of one molecule and the negative end of another.
- Individually these bonds are very weak, although large quantities of Hydrogen bonds are strong enough to hold molecules together or in a three-dimensional shape.



Hydrogen Bonds

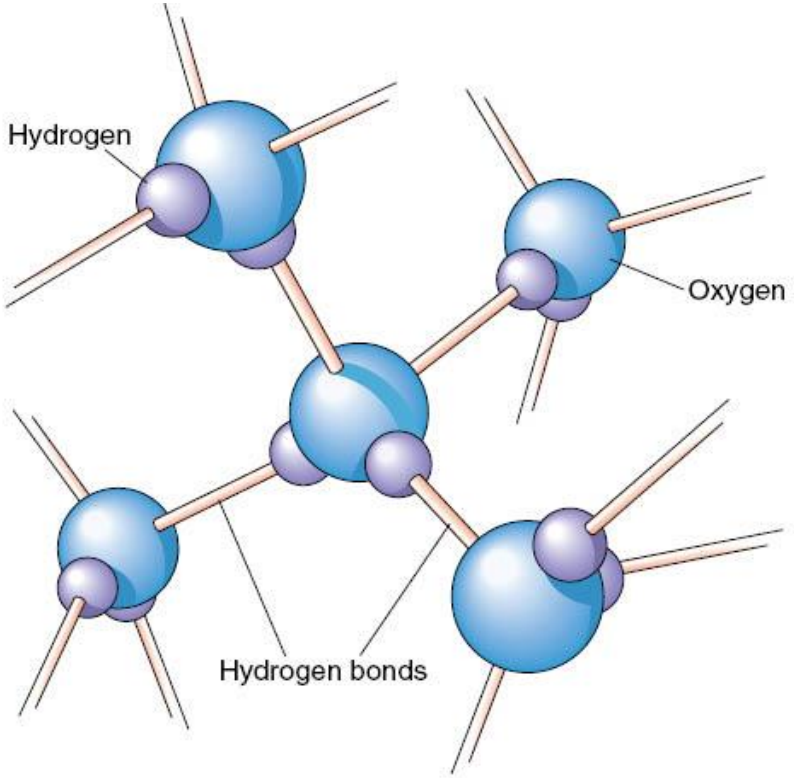


Figure 2-11 *Intermolecular hydrogen bonds in water. The electropositive hydrogen end of a water molecule has a weak attraction for the electronegative oxygen end of other water molecules to form hydrogen bonds.*

Formulas

- Molecular Formula
  - Short hand way to write the compound
  - $C_6H_{12}O_6$

- Structural Formula
  - Represents how atoms are arranged and joined together
  - H-O-H

Chemical Equations

- Abbreviated method of showing the compounds involved in the reaction and the resulting compounds

Reactants → Products

Basic Chemistry

- Chemical reactions
  - Involve the formation or breaking of chemical bonds
  - There are three basic types of chemical reactions involved in physiology:
    - Synthesis reaction
    - Decomposition reaction
    - Exchange reaction

Types of Chemical Equations

- Synthesis

$$A + B \rightarrow AB$$

$$2H_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2H_20$$

- Decomposition

$$AB \rightarrow A + B$$

$$2H_20 \rightarrow 2H_2 + O_2$$

Types of Chemical Equations

- Exchange Reactions
  - Single Replacement

$$A + BC \rightarrow AC + B$$

$$Cl_2 + 2NaBr \rightarrow 2NaCl + Br_2$$

  - Double Replacement

$$AB + CD \rightarrow AD + CB$$

$$H\text{-lactate} + NaHCO_3 \rightarrow Na\text{-lactate} + H\text{-}HCO_3$$

Lactic Acid + Sodium Bicarbonate → Sodium Lactate + Carbonic Acid

Chemical Equations

- Exergonic Reactions
  - More energy is stored in reactants than in the products
  - Therefore energy is released

$$ATP + H_2O \rightarrow ADP + P + Energy$$

(Hydrolysis)

Chemical Equations

- Endergonic Reactions
  - More energy is stored in products than in the reactants
  - Therefore energy is required

$$ADP + P + Energy \rightarrow ATP + H_2O$$

(Dehydration)

  - Lipid, carbohydrate and protein molecules are synthesized this way

Reversible Reactions

- Many reactions are able to react in either direction

$$A + B \rightleftarrows AB$$

$$CO_2 + H_2O \rightleftarrows H_2CO_3 \rightleftarrows H^+ + HCO_3^-$$

Carbonic Anhydrase

Reaction Rates

- All reactions occur at different rates
- Items that affect the reaction rate:
  - Temperature
  - Pressure
  - Concentration
  - Surface area
  - Catalyst

Reaction Rates

Temperature

- Too hot → fast reactions

Pressure

- Higher pressure → faster reactions

Concentration

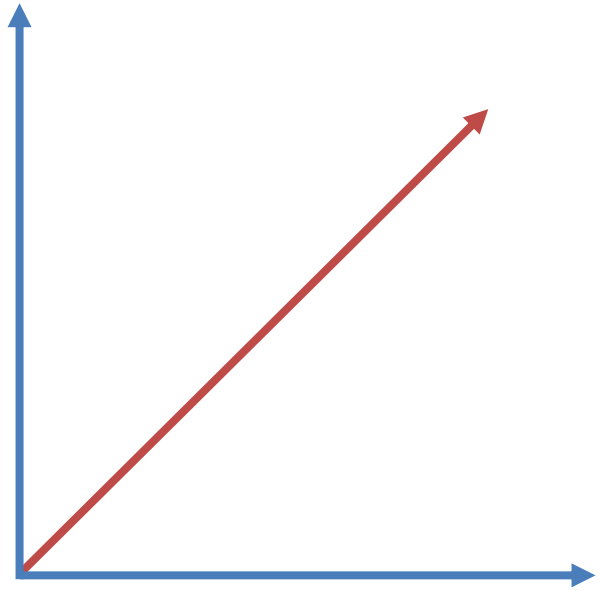
- Higher the concentration → faster reactions

Surface area

- Greater the surface area → faster reactions

Catalyst

- Substance that changes the reaction rate without being changed itself (Enzymes)



Le Chatelier's Principle

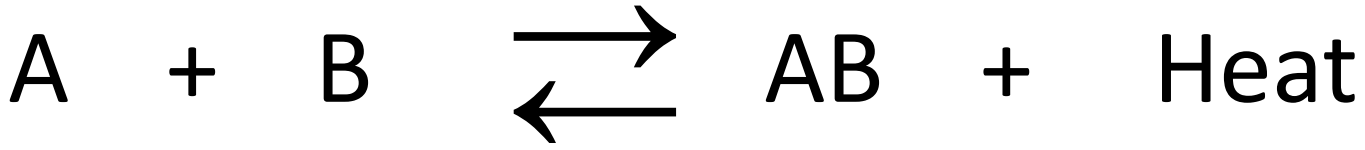
- A principle to predict the result that occurs following changes made to a reaction already at equilibrium
- Reactions want to return to equilibrium, therefore when a change occurs, the reaction shifts to return to equilibrium

Le Chatelier's Principle

- An increase in concentration of the reactants (A or B) will cause a “shift” to the right and more product (AB) to form

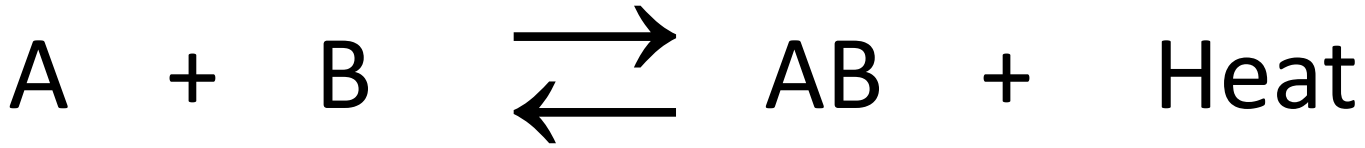
OR

- An increase in concentration of the product (AB) will cause a “shift” to the left and more reactants (A and B) to form



Le Chatelier's Principle

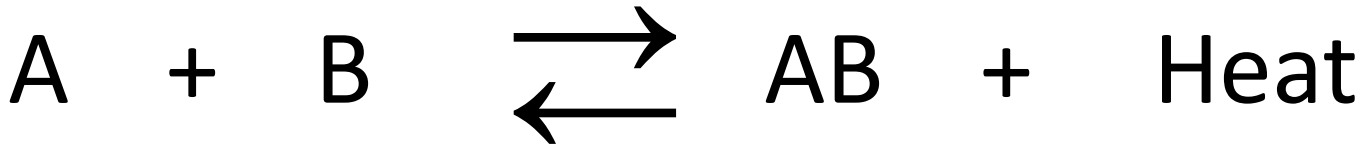
- As well, since Heat is a product, if we increase the temperature, we are adding more product (Heat) so the reaction “shifts” to the left and produces more reactants (A & B)



Le Chatelier's Principle

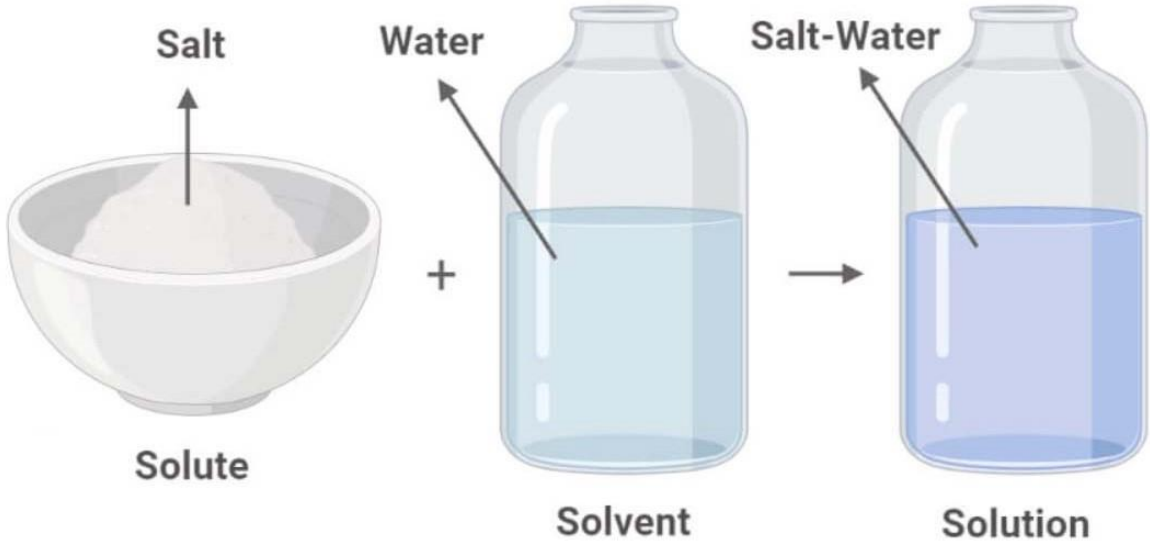
- The same is true if we remove reactants or products

- Ex: by removing product AB, equilibrium will “shift” to form more product to fill void and return to equilibrium



Mixtures, Solutions and Suspensions

- Solute
  - The substance that dissolves to form a solution
- Solvent
  - The substance in which a solute dissolves
- Solution
  - Solute dissolved in a solvent



Mixtures, Solutions and Suspensions

- Mixture
  - Consists of 2 or more substances that can be physically separated (sugar and water)
- Suspensions
  - Particles settle if left undisturbed (sand and water)

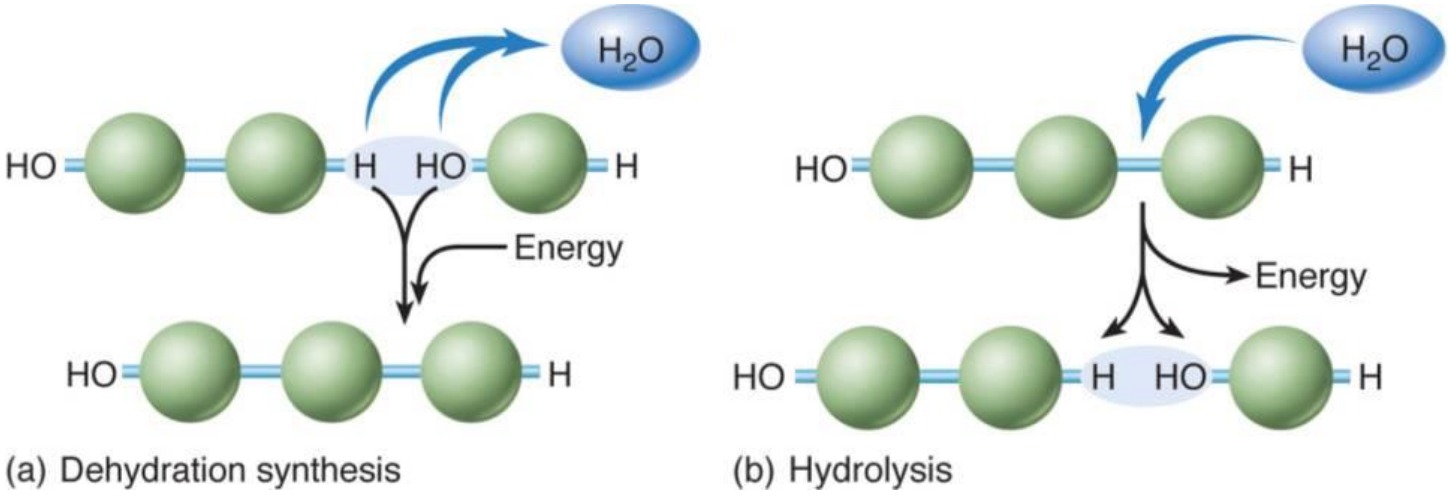
Mixtures, Solutions and Suspensions

- Colloidal Suspension
  - Particles so small they do not dissolve
  - Cytoplasm in the cell is an example

- Tincture
  - When the solute is dissolved in a solvent of alcohol

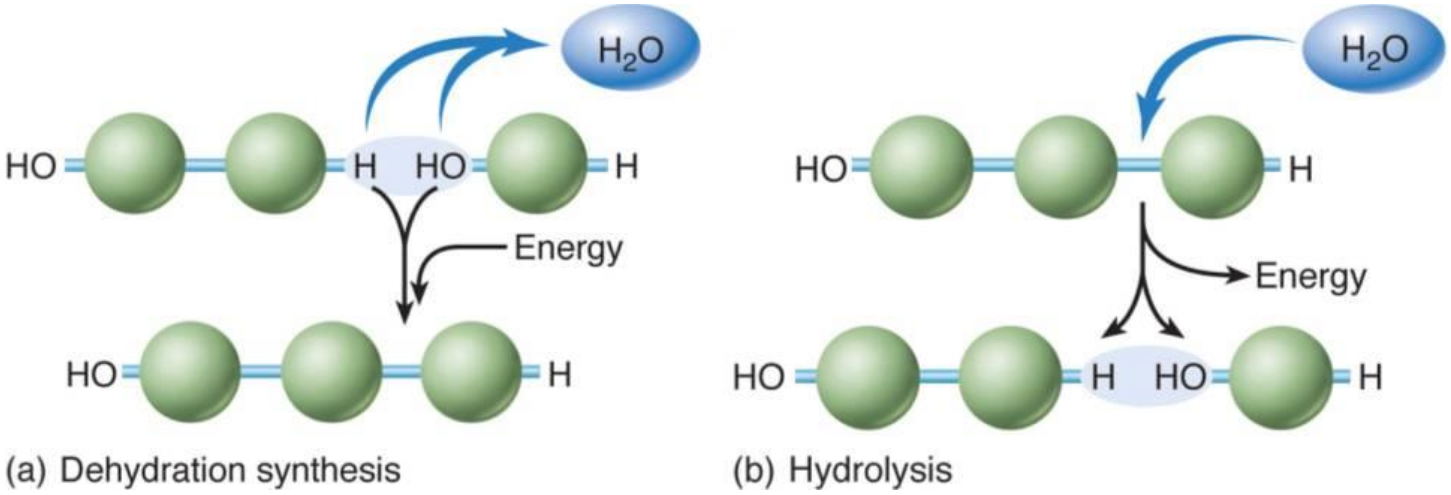
Metabolism

- Describes all chemical reactions that occur in the body cells.
  - Catabolism
    - Break down complex compounds into simpler ones
    - Releases energy
    - Hydrolysis
    - End products are CO_2, H_2O and other waste
    - More than half the energy release is transferred to ATP



Metabolism

- Describes all chemical reactions that occur in the body cells.
  - Anabolism
    - Joins simple molecules to form more complex biomolecules (carbs, lipids, proteins and nucleic acids)
    - Requires energy
    - Dehydration synthesis



Organic and Inorganic Compounds

- Inorganic compounds—few have carbon atoms and none have C–C or C–H bonds
- Organic molecules
  - Have at least one carbon atom and at least one C–C or C–H bond in each molecule
  - Often have functional groups attached to the carbon-containing core of the molecule

Inorganic Compounds

- Water
  - The body's most abundant and important compound
  - Properties of water
    - Polarity allows water to act as an effective solvent; ionizes substances in solution
    - The solvent allows transportation of essential materials throughout the body

Inorganic Compounds

- Properties of water
  - High specific heat
    - Water can lose and gain large amounts of heat with little change in its own temperature; enables the body to maintain a relatively constant temperature
  - High heat of vaporization
    - Water requires absorption of significant amounts of heat to change water from a liquid to a gas, allowing the body to dissipate excess heat

Inorganic Compounds

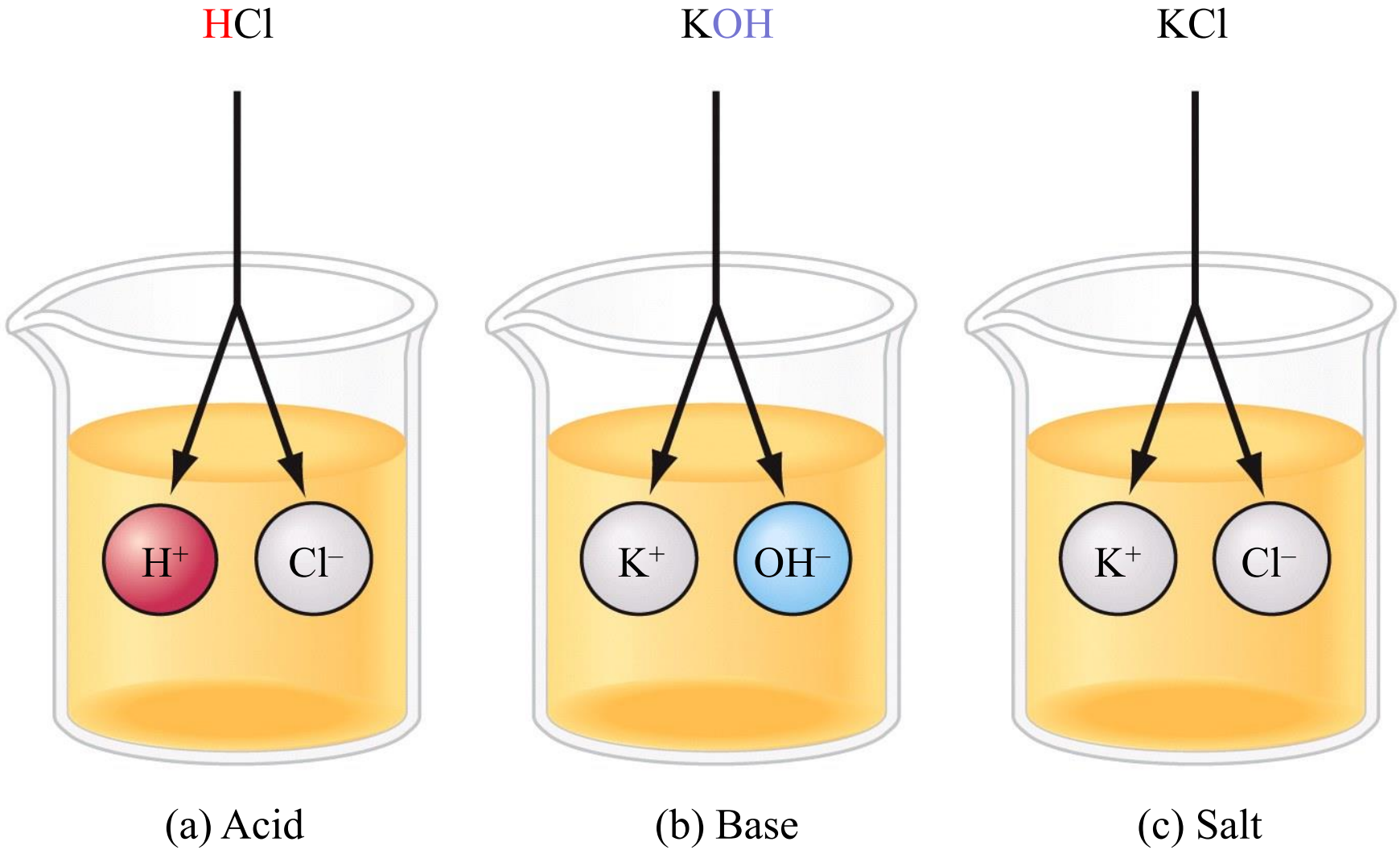
- Oxygen and carbon dioxide
  - Closely related to cellular respiration
    - Oxygen
      - Required to complete decomposition reactions necessary for the release of energy in the body
    - Carbon dioxide
      - Produced as a waste product, also helps maintain the appropriate acid-base balance in the body

Inorganic Compounds

- Electrolytes
  - Large group of inorganic compounds, which includes acids, bases, and salts
  - Substances that dissociate in solution to form ions
  - Positively charged ions are cations; negatively charged ions are anions

Inorganic Compounds

- Electrolytes (cont.)
  - Acids and bases
    - Common and important chemical substances that are chemical opposites
    - Acids
      - Any substance that releases a hydrogen ion (H+) when in solution; “proton donor”
      - Level of “acidity” depends on the number of hydrogen ions a particular acid will release
    - Bases
      - Electrolytes that dissociate to yield hydroxide ions (OH–) or other electrolytes that combine with hydrogen ions (H+)
      - Described as “proton acceptors”

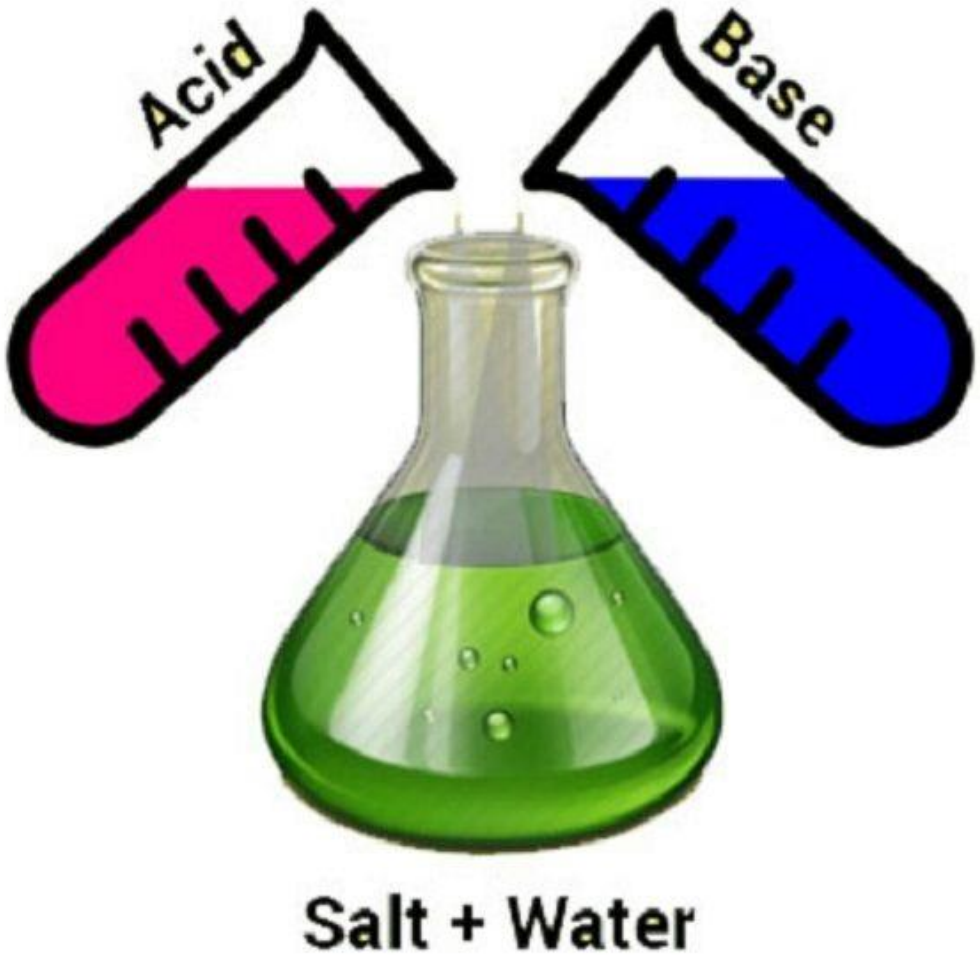


Neutralizing Reaction

Base + Acid = Salt + Water

$HCl + NaOH \rightarrow NaCl + H_2O$

(Neutralizing Reaction)



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pH Chart

Neutral

7.35 – 7.45

(Human body)

Acid

↑ H^+

↓pH = Acidemia
(low blood pH)

Alkaline

↓ H^+

↑pH = Alkalemia
(high blood pH)

(6.7 to 7.9 compatible with life)

Acid / Base

- Buffer
  - Resists change to pH when either and acid or a base is added
  - Act as a ‘Reservoir’ for H^+ ions and donate or accept H^+ ions to maintain a constant pH

Acid

$$HCl + NaHCO_3 \rightarrow H_2CO_3 + NaCl$$

Base

$$NaOH + H_2CO_3 \rightarrow NaHCO_3 + H_2O$$

Inorganic Compounds

- Salts
  - Compounds that result from chemical interaction of an acid and a base
  - Reaction between an acid and a base to form a salt and water is called a neutralization reaction

Organic Compounds

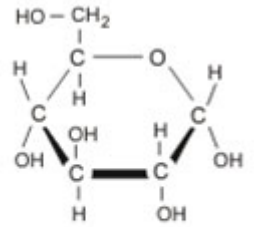
- Originally referred to compounds formed by a living process
- Contain C–C or C–H bonds
  - Carbohydrates
  - Monosaccharides
  - Disaccharides
  - Polysaccharides

Carbohydrates

- Molecules composed of C, H and O in a set ratio of 1:2:1
- Commonly call Sugars and Starches
- Range from small to very large
- Functions
  - Important energy source in the body
  - Contribute to the structure of some cellular components
  - Form a reserve supply of stored energy

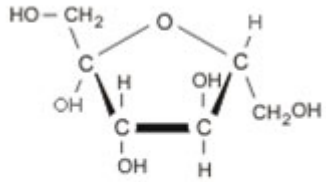
Carbohydrates

- Monosaccharides (simple sugars)
  - Simplest form of carbohydrates
  - Glucose
    - Is most important type ($C_6H_{12}O_6$)
  - Fructose and Galactose
    - Have same molecular formula but are arranged differently
    - When ingested they are converted into glucose in the liver



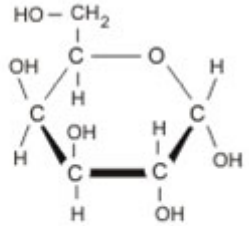
Glucose

$C_6H_{12}O_6$



Fructose

$C_6H_{12}O_6$

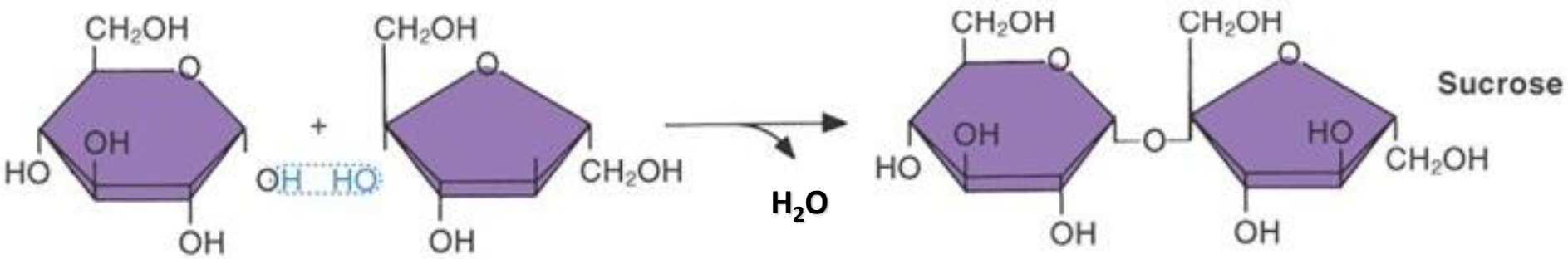


Galactose

$C_6H_{12}O_6$

Carbohydrates

- Disaccharides
  - Formed when two monosaccharide's are linked by dehydration synthesis
    - Sucrose (Table sugar) 1 glucose - 1 fructose
    - Maltose (Malt sugar) 2 glucose
    - Lactose (Milk sugar) 1 glucose - 1 galactose

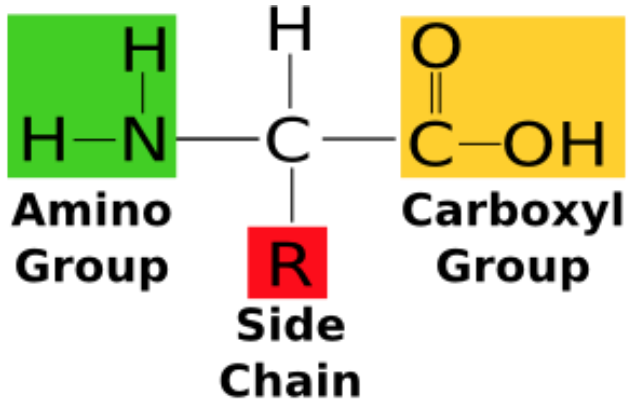


Carbohydrates

- Polysaccharides
  - Long chains of monosaccharides
    - Starch
    - Cellulose “roughage” - not digestible
    - Glycogen storage form of carbohydrates and is found in the liver and muscle

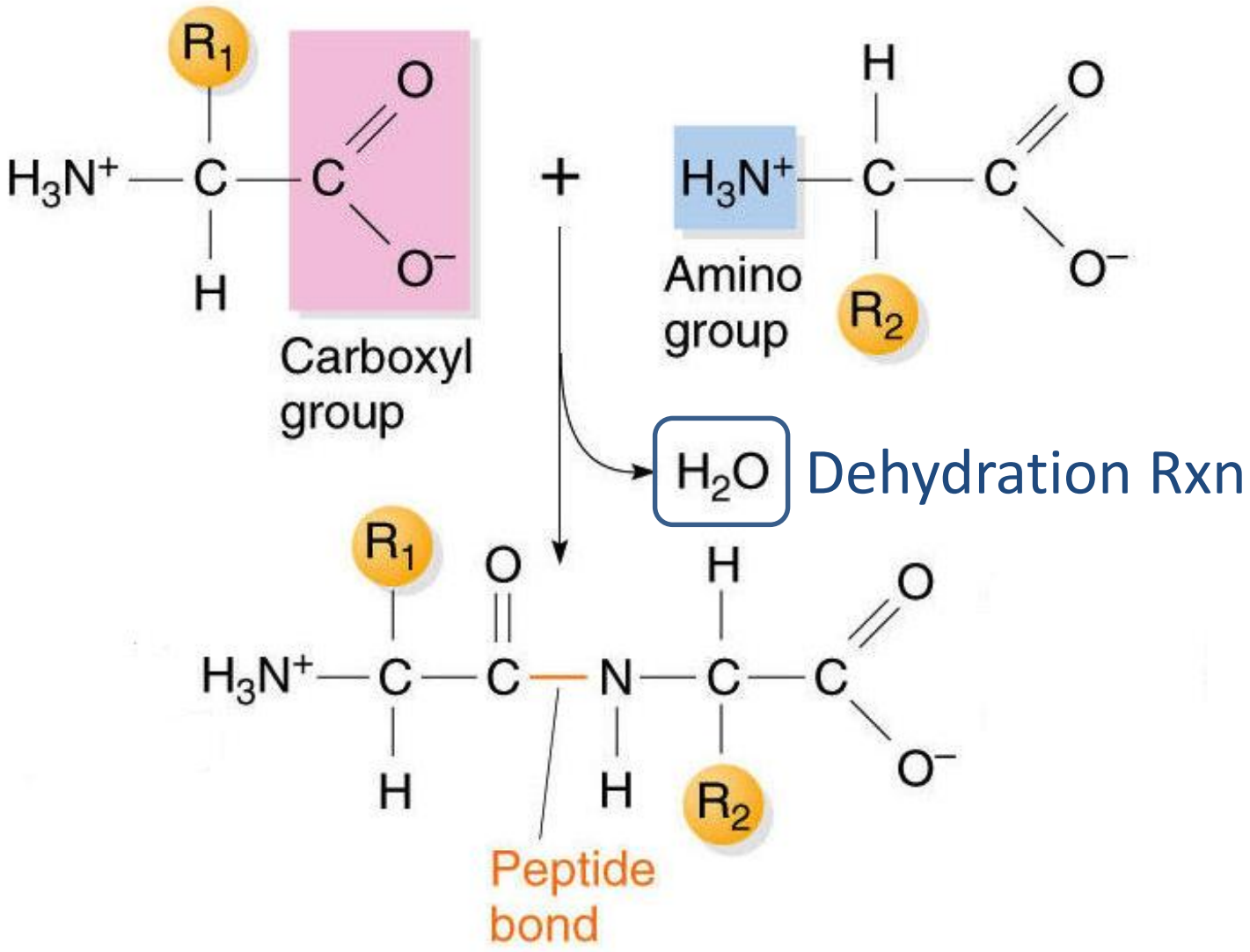
Proteins

- All proteins contain C, H, O and N and may contain S, Fe
- The building blocks are
  - Amino acid group (-NH_2)
    - Essential amino acids
      - 8 that cannot be produced by the human body
    - Nonessential amino acids
      - 12 amino acids can be produced from molecules available in the human body
  - Carboxyl acid group (-COOH)



- Amino acids are linked together by peptide bonds formed by dehydration synthesis

Proteins


R1
H3N+
C
C
O
O−
H
Carboxyl group
+
H3N+
C
C
H
O
O−
R2
Amino group
H2O
Dehydration Rxn
R1
H3N+
C
C
O
N
H
C
C
H
H
O
O−
R2
Peptide bond

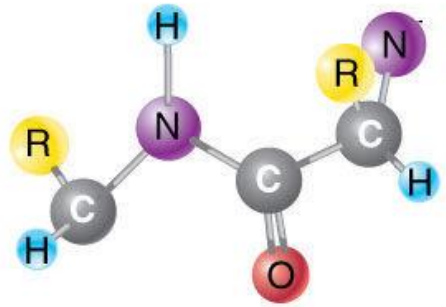
Proteins

- The basic structural material of the body
- Performs many important functions
  - Structural components in cells and tissues
  - Act as antibodies
  - Muscles contain some that are responsible for contraction
  - Receptor sites and identification markers on cells
  - Hemoglobin carries Oxygen in blood
  - Source of energy

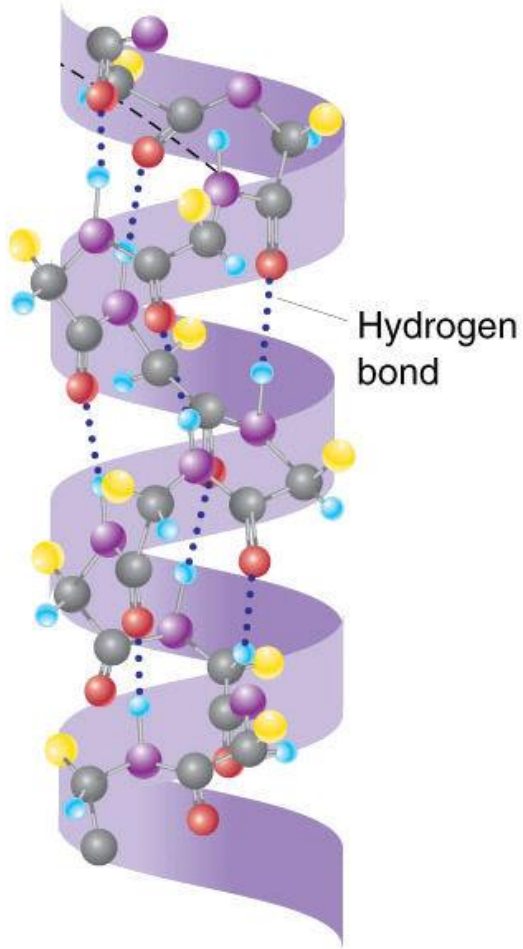
Organic Molecules

- Levels of protein structure
  - Protein molecules are highly organized and show a definite relationship between structure and function
  - There are four levels of protein organization:
    - Primary structure—refers to the number, kind, and sequence of amino acids that make up the polypeptide chain
    - Secondary structure—polypeptide is coiled or bent into pleated sheets stabilized by hydrogen bonds
    - Tertiary structure—a secondary structure can be further twisted, resulting in a globular shape; the coils touch in many places and are “welded” by covalent and hydrogen bonds
    - Quaternary structure—highest level of organization occurring when protein contains more than one polypeptide chain

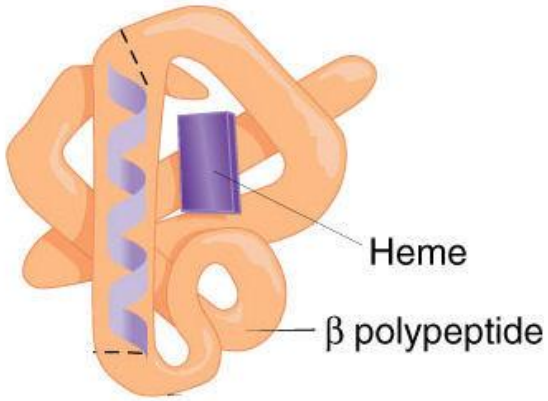
Proteins



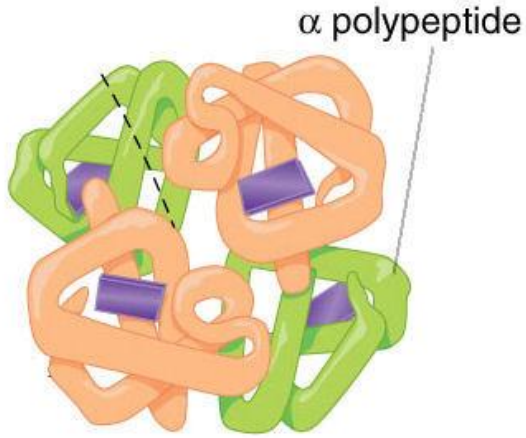
(a) Primary structure



(b) Secondary structure



c) Tertiary structure



(d) Quaternary structure–

Organic Molecules

- Two broad categories
  - Structural proteins form the structures of the body
  - Functional proteins cause chemical changes in the molecules
    - Shape of a protein's molecules determines its function
      - Denatured proteins have lost their shape and therefore their function
      - Proteins can be denatured by changes in pH, temperature, radiation, and other chemicals
      - If the chemical environment is restored, proteins may be renatured and function normally

Lipids

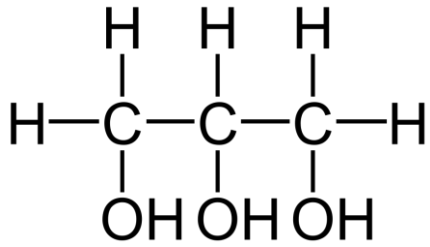
- Contain C, H and O (may contain N)
- Differ from Carbohydrates since they have much lower Oxygen concentration
  - i.e. glycerol tristearate ($C_{57}H_{110}O_6$)
- Are insoluble in water (greasy), but can be soluble in acetone, ether, alcohol and other non-polar solvents
- Most common members of the lipid group are triglycerides (fats)
- Major roles:
  - Energy source
  - Structural role
  - Integral parts of cell membranes

Lipids

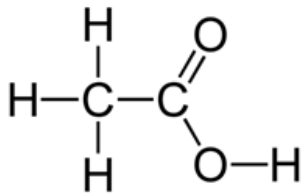
- Triglycerides
  - Most abundant lipids and most concentrated source of energy
  - Provide protection
  - Padding
  - Insulation

Lipids

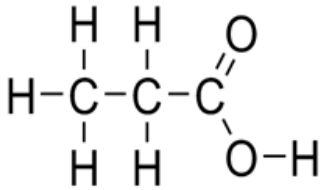
- Are made of:
  - Glycerol
    - Has hydroxyl group (-OH) on each C



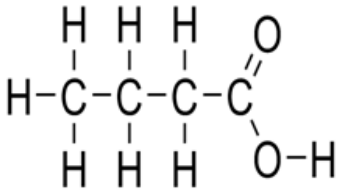
  - Fatty acids
    - C chains with a carboxyl group (-COOH) at one end which gives it acidic properties
    - If all C are connected by single covalent bonds then it is a saturated fatty acid
    - If there are some double covalent bonds then it is a unsaturated fatty acid



Acetic acid (acetate)



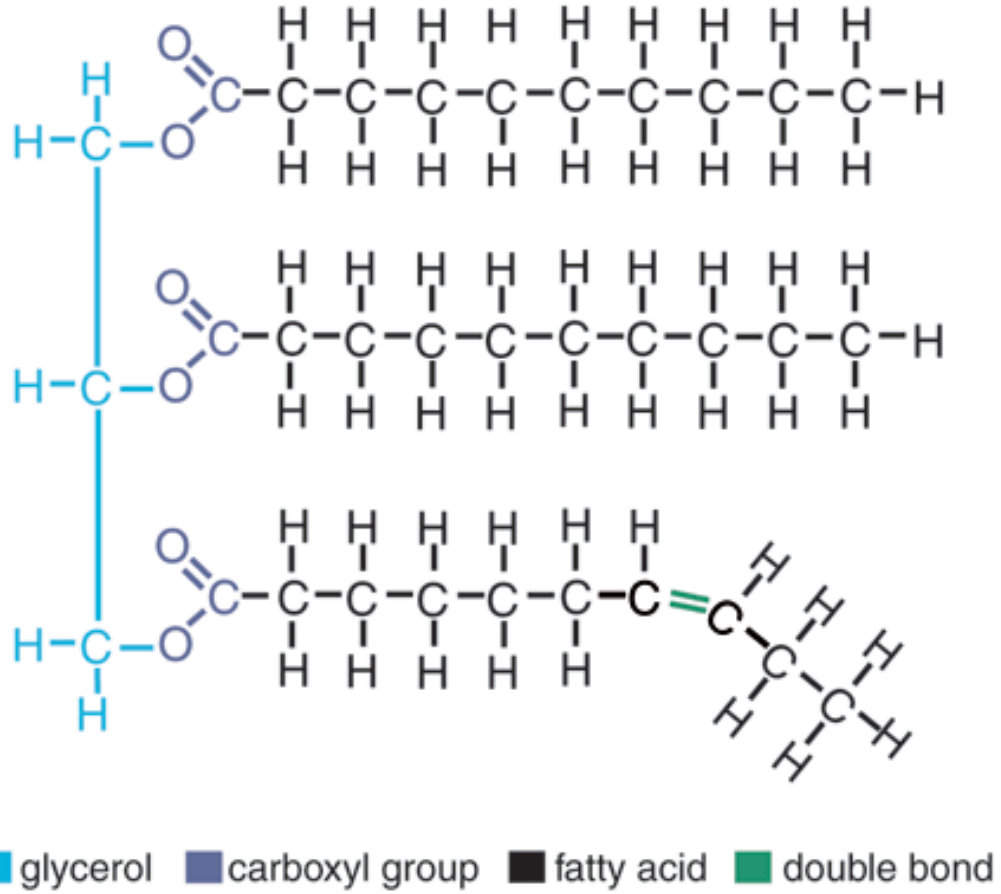
Propionic acid (propionate)



Butyric acid (butyrate)

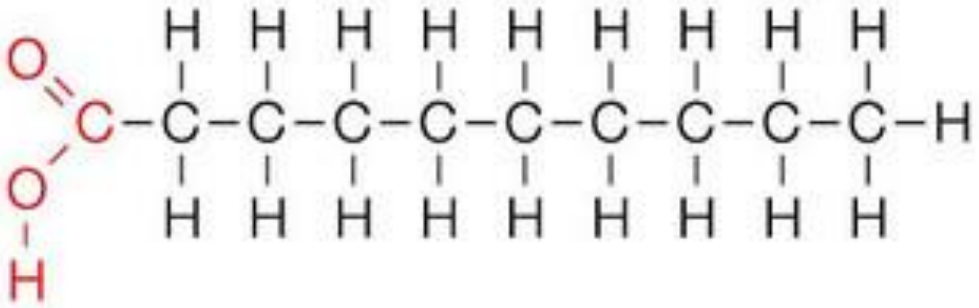
Lipids

- Three fatty acids combine with one glycerol to form the triglyceride



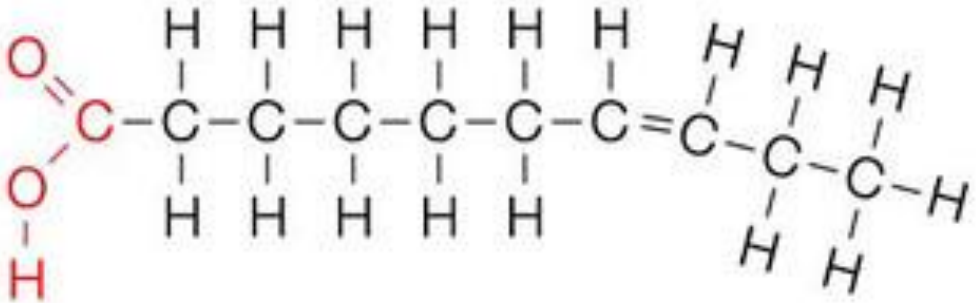
Lipids

Saturated



All C are bound by hydrogen (animal fats)

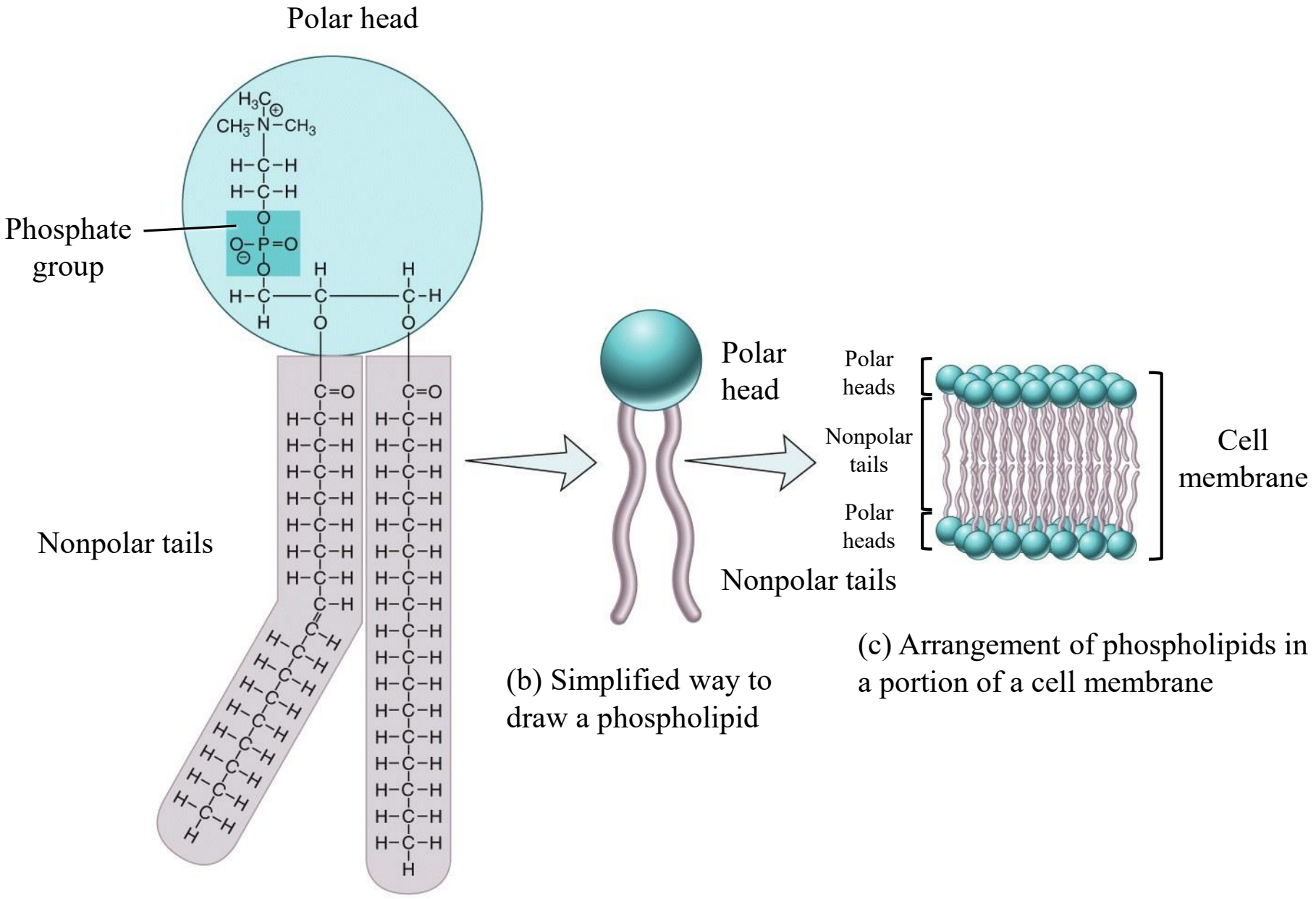
Unsaturated



Have one or more double bonds between the C atoms (vegetable fats)

Lipids

- Phospholipids
  - Similar to triglycerides
  - One end is water-soluble (hydrophilic)
  - One end is fat-soluble (hydrophobic)
  - Contain a phosphate group as well as the glycerol and fatty acids
    - Glycerol + phosphate + 2 fatty acids
  - Are important component of the cellular membrane
  - particularly in nerve and muscle cells



(a) Chemical structure of a phospholipid

(b) Simplified way to draw a phospholipid

(c) Arrangement of phospholipids in a portion of a cell membrane

Lipids

- Steroids
  - A derivative of lipids
    - Main component is steroid nucleus
    - Involved in many structural and functional roles
  - Examples
    - Cholesterol (most common) which is particularly abundant in the brain and nerve tissue
    - Hormones (sex hormones) and vitamin D

Lipids

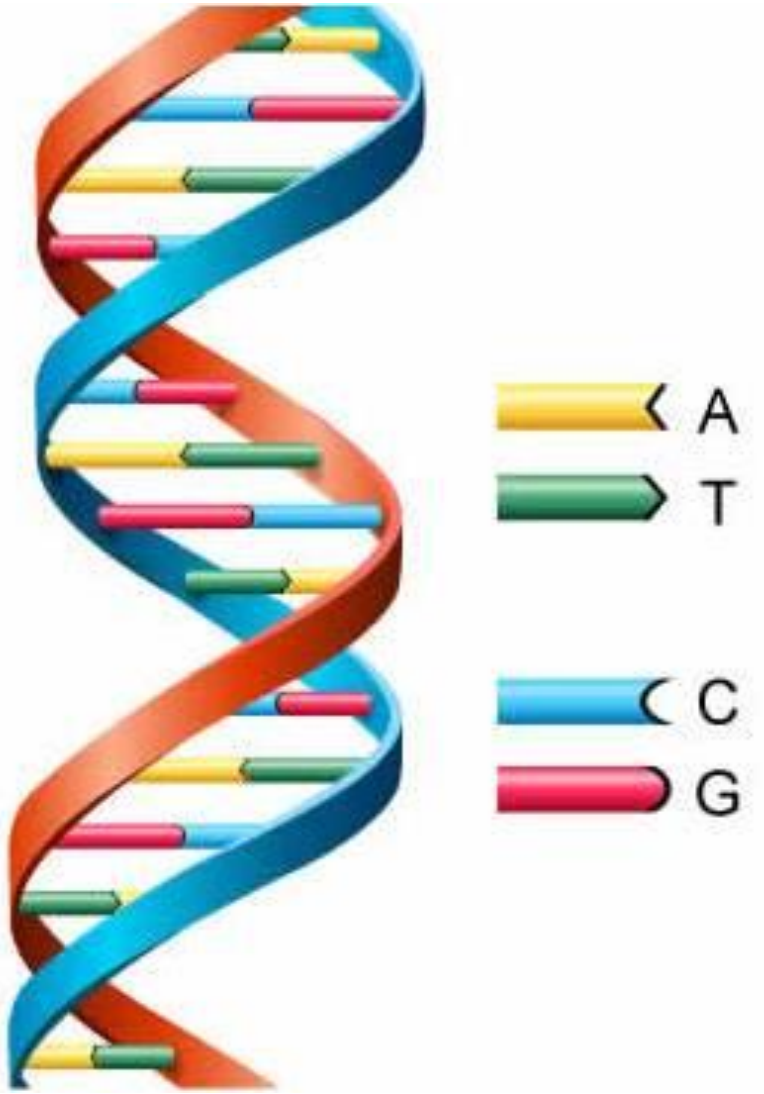
- Prostaglandins
  - "Tissue hormones"; produced by cell membranes throughout the body
    - First discovered in the prostate (hence the name)
  - Formed in the cell and released from the membrane due to stimulus
  - Have very local effects and then become inactive
    - Help regulate effects of hormones
    - Influence BP and gastric secretions
    - Enhance the immune system and inflammatory response
    - Play a role in blood clotting and respiration

Nucleic Acids

- Large, complex, organic compounds that contain C, H, O, N and Phosphate
- Nucleotides are the building blocks, which contains a 5-carbon sugar (pentose), a nitrogenous base and a phosphate group
- 2 types
  - Deoxyribonucleic acid DNA
  - Ribonucleic acid RNA

Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA)

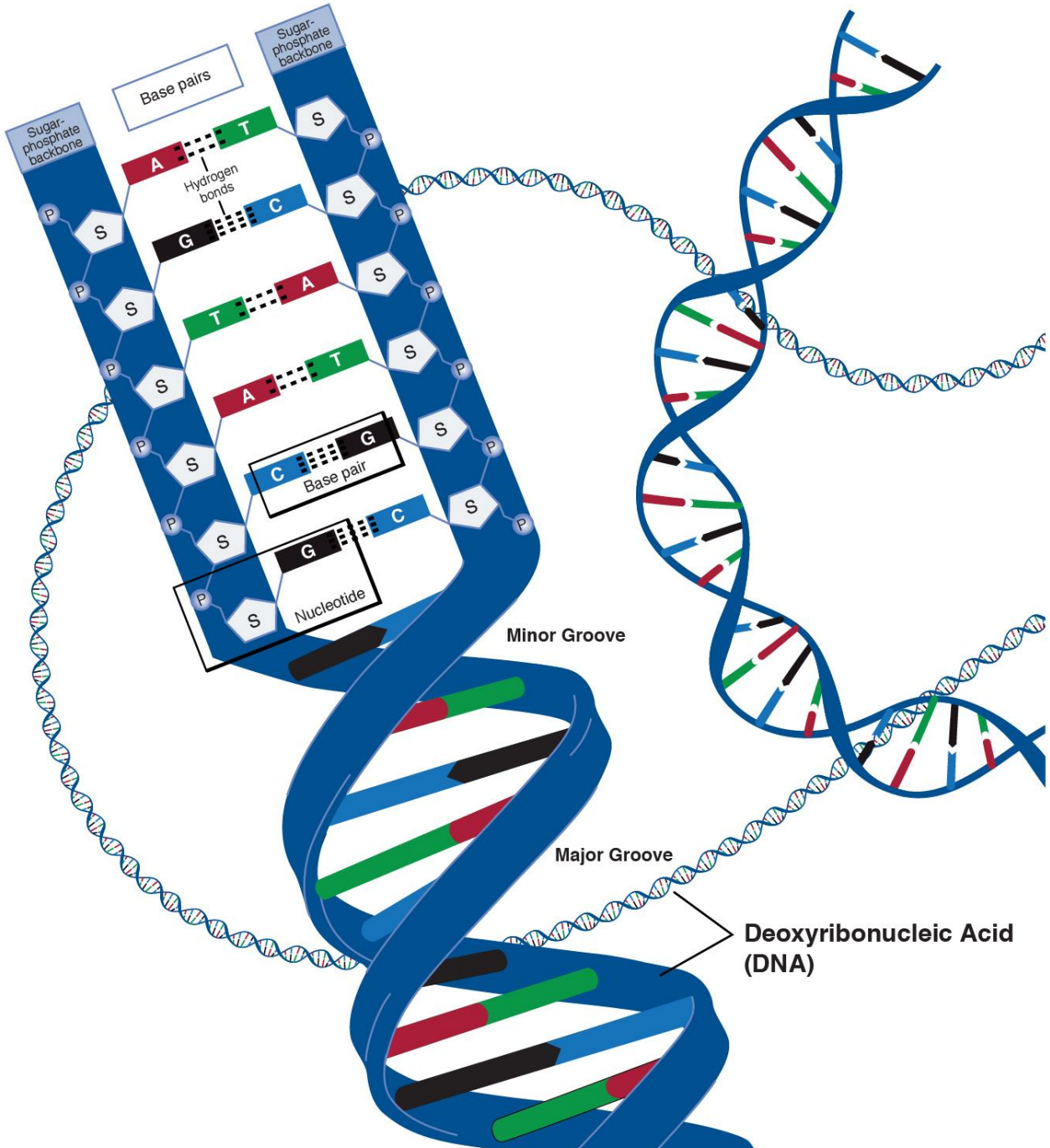
- Is the genetic material of the cell
  - Sugar: deoxyribose
  - N bases:
    - Adenine
    - Thymine
    - Cytosine
    - Guanine
  - Phosphate group
- The sequence of these gives the genetic code
- Two chains of DNA are loosely joined by H Bonds and twisted into a double helix



Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA)

- Alternating deoxyribose and phosphate units form backbone of the chains
- Base pairs hold the two chains of DNA molecule together
- Specific sequence of more than 100 million base pairs constitute one human DNA molecule; all DNA molecules in one individual are identical and different from those in all other individuals
- DNA functions as the molecule of heredity

Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA)



Ribonucleic Acid (RNA)

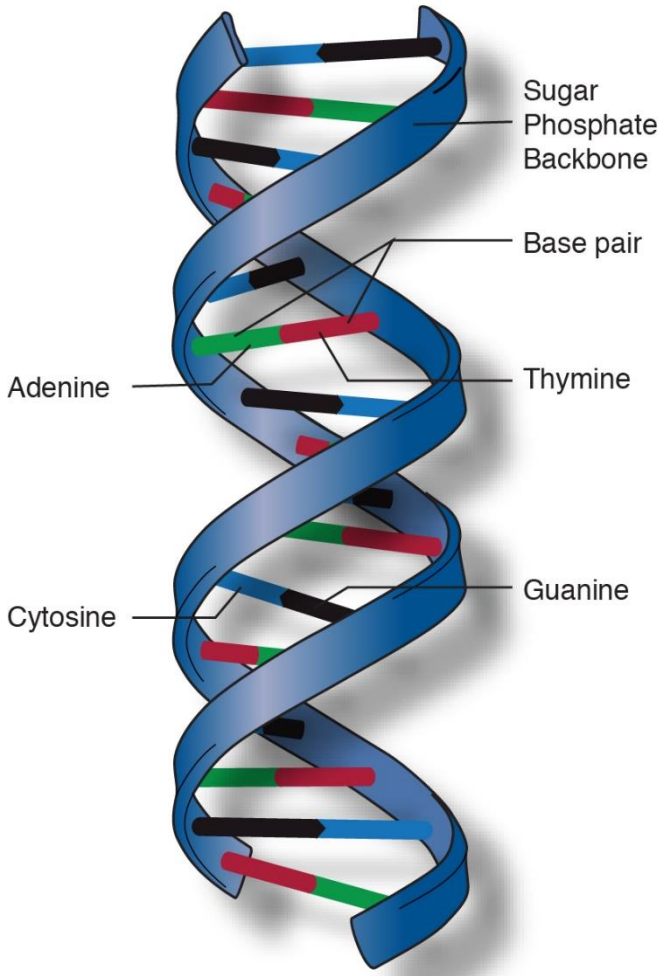
- Has several functions in the synthesis of proteins in the cell
- Is a single chain
- Sugar: ribose
- N bases:
    - Adenine
    - Uracil
    - Cytosine
    - Guanine

DNA and RNA

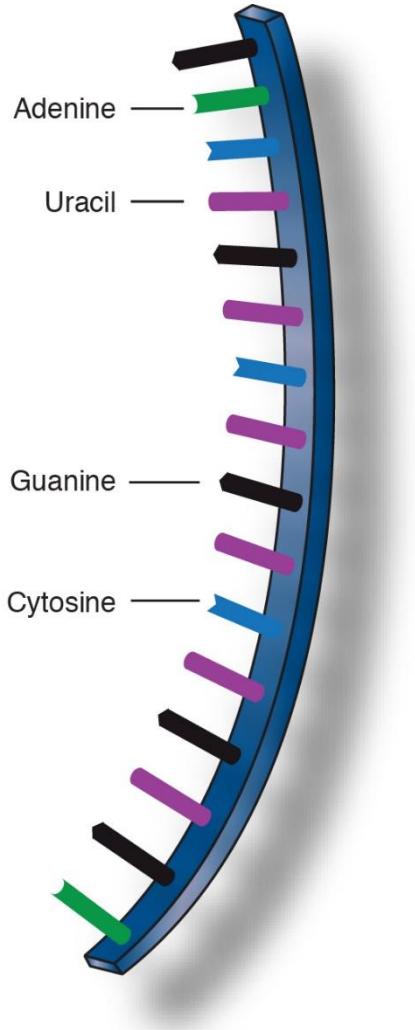
- Some RNA molecules are temporary copies of segments (genes) of the DNA code and are involved in synthesizing proteins
- Some RNA molecules are regulatory, acting as enzymes (ribozymes) or silencing gene expression (RNA interference)

- DNA has the instructions for making proteins
- RNA carries out the process

DNA and RNA



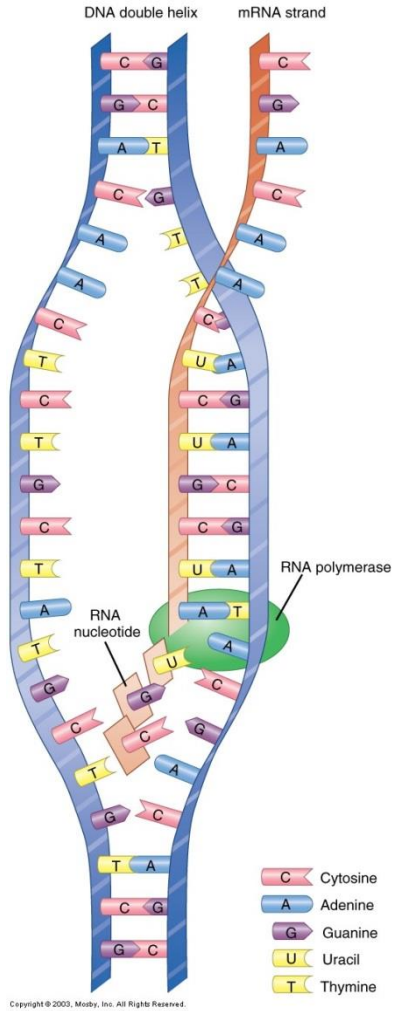
Deoxyribonucleic acid
(DNA)



Ribonucleic acid
(RNA)

Formation of Proteins

- Transcription
  - Strand of RNA forms along a strand of DNA
  - This RNA becomes mRNA
  - Is released out of nucleus and carries its message to the ribosomes in the cytoplasm



Formation of Proteins

- Translation
  - mRNA attracts small and large ribosome subunits
  - tRNA picks up an amino acid floating freely in the cytoplasm
  - Then attaches to the ribosome/RNA complex at a specific sequence

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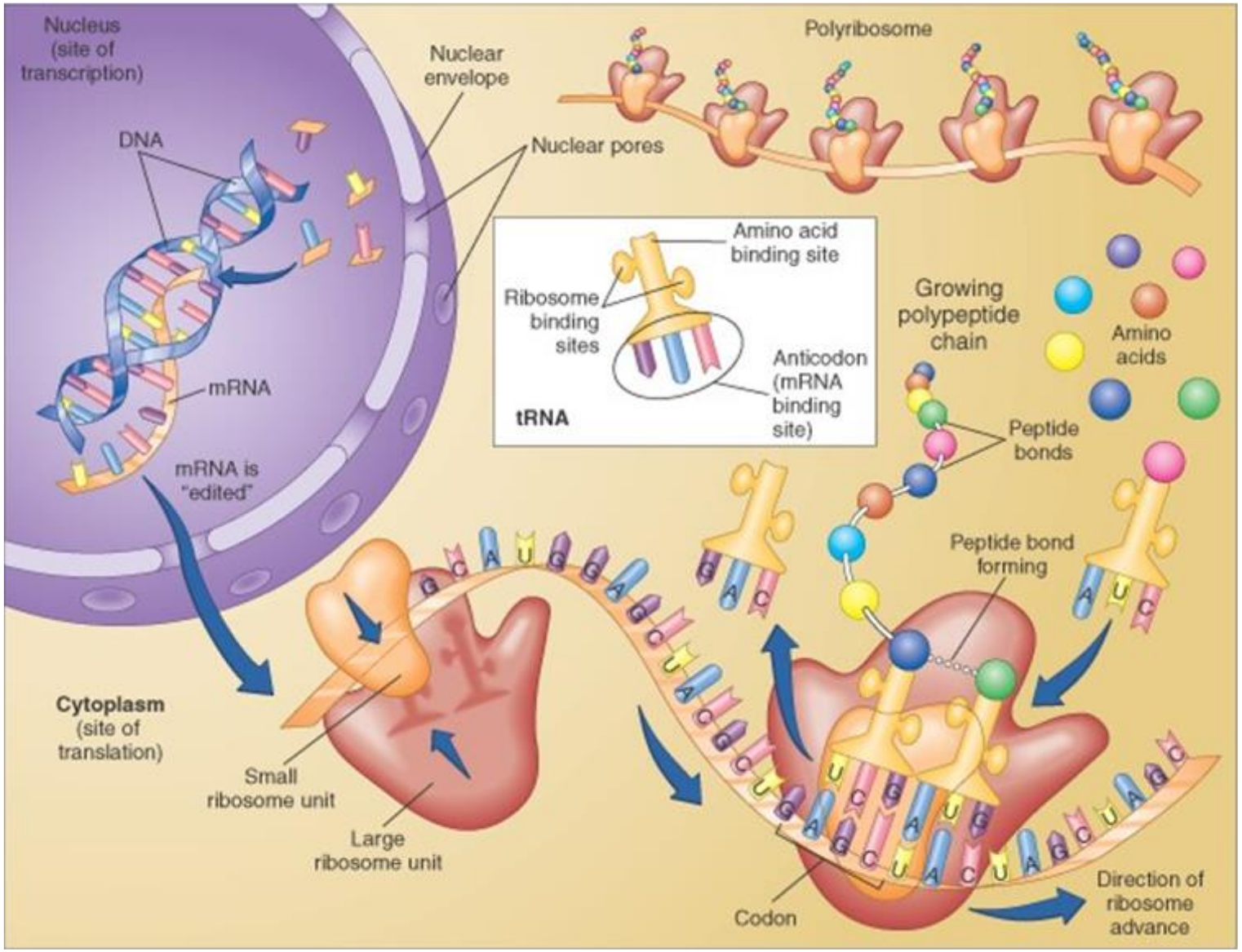
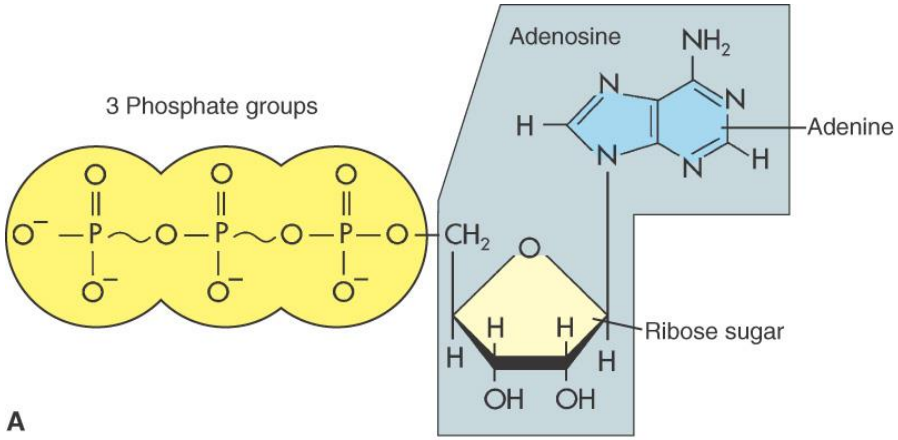
Formation of Proteins



Organic Molecules

- Nucleic acids and related molecules
  - Nucleotides
    - Nucleotides have other important roles in the body
    - ATP
      - Adenosine
        - » Ribose—a pentose sugar
        - » Adenine—a nitrogen-containing molecule
      - Three phosphate subunits



Organic Molecules

- Nucleotides
  - High-energy bonds present between phosphate groups
  - Cleavage of high-energy bonds releases energy during catabolic reactions
  - Energy stored in ATP is used to do the body's work
  - ATP often called the energy currency of cells
  - ATP is split into adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and an inorganic phosphate group by a special enzyme
  - If ATP is depleted during prolonged exercise, creatine phosphate (CP) or ADP can be used for energy

Organic Molecules

- Nucleic acids and related molecules (cont.)
  - NAD and FAD
    - Used as coenzymes to transfer energy-carrying molecules from one chemical pathway to another
  - cAMP (cyclic AMP)
    - Made from ATP by removing two phosphate groups to form a monophosphate
    - Used as an intracellular signal

Organic Molecules

- Combined forms—large molecules can be joined together to form even larger molecules
  - Gives the molecules a completely different function
  - Names of combined molecules reveals what is in them
    - Base word tells which component is dominant
    - Prefix shows the component present in a lesser amount

Organic Molecules

- Combined forms
  - Examples:
    - Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)—two extra phosphate groups to a nucleotide
    - Lipoproteins—lipid and protein groups combined into a single molecule
    - Glycoproteins—carbohydrate (glyco, “sweet”) and protein