

LECTURE PRESENTATIONS

For **CAMPBELL BIOLOGY, NINTH EDITION**

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Chapter 5

The Structure and Function of Large Biological Molecules



Lectures by
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Overview: The Molecules of Life

- All living things are made up of four classes of large biological molecules: carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids
- **Macromolecules** are large molecules composed of thousands of covalently connected atoms
- Molecular structure and function are inseparable

Concept 5.1: Macromolecules are polymers, built from monomers

- A **polymer** is a long molecule consisting of many similar building blocks
- These small building-block molecules are called **monomers**
- Three of the four classes of life's organic molecules are polymers
 - Carbohydrates
 - Proteins
 - Nucleic acids

The Synthesis and Breakdown of Polymers

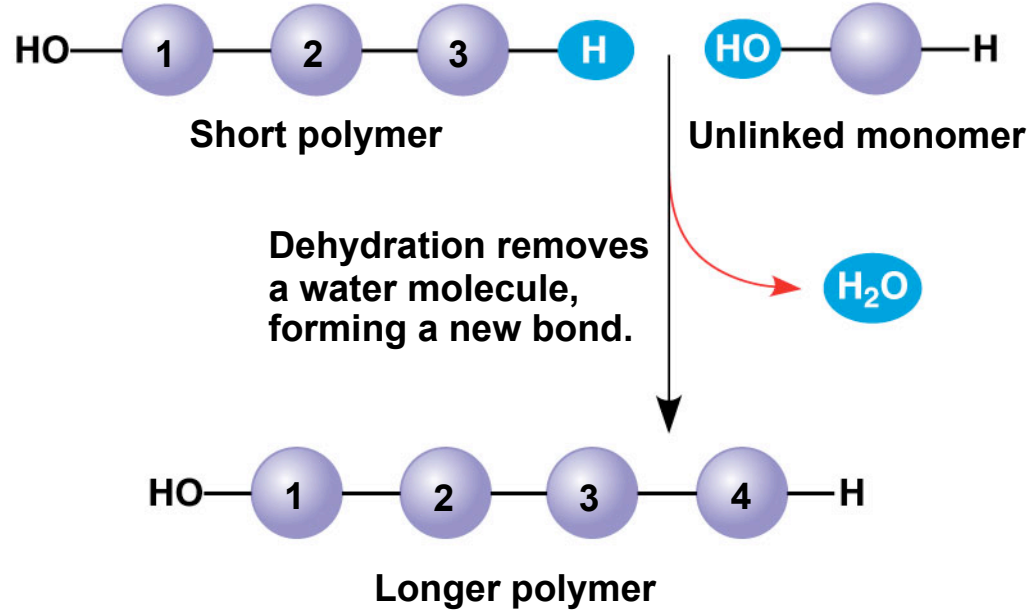
- A **dehydration reaction** occurs when two monomers bond together through the loss of a water molecule
- Polymers are disassembled to monomers by **hydrolysis**, a reaction that is essentially the reverse of the dehydration reaction



Animation: Polymers

Figure 5.2

(a) Dehydration reaction: synthesizing a polymer



(b) Hydrolysis: breaking down a polymer

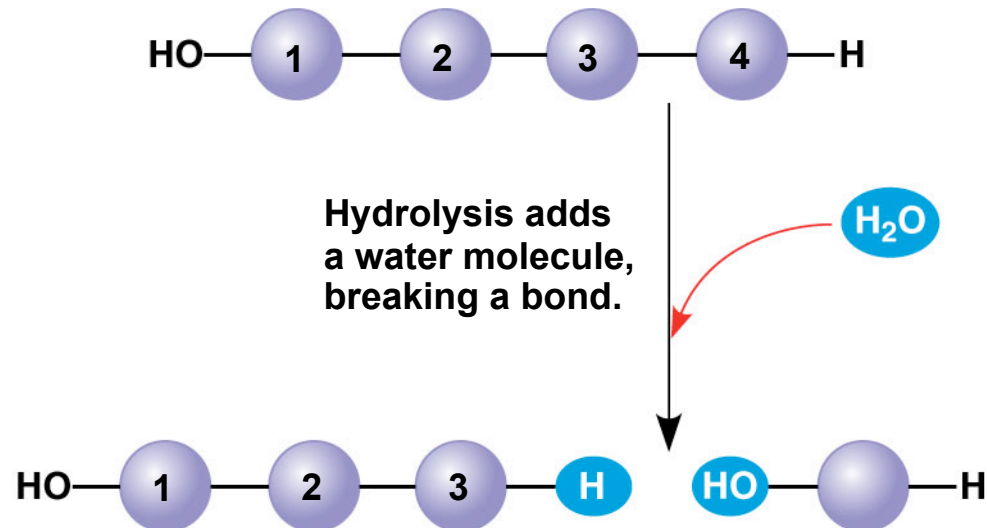


Figure 5.2a

(a) Dehydration reaction: synthesizing a polymer

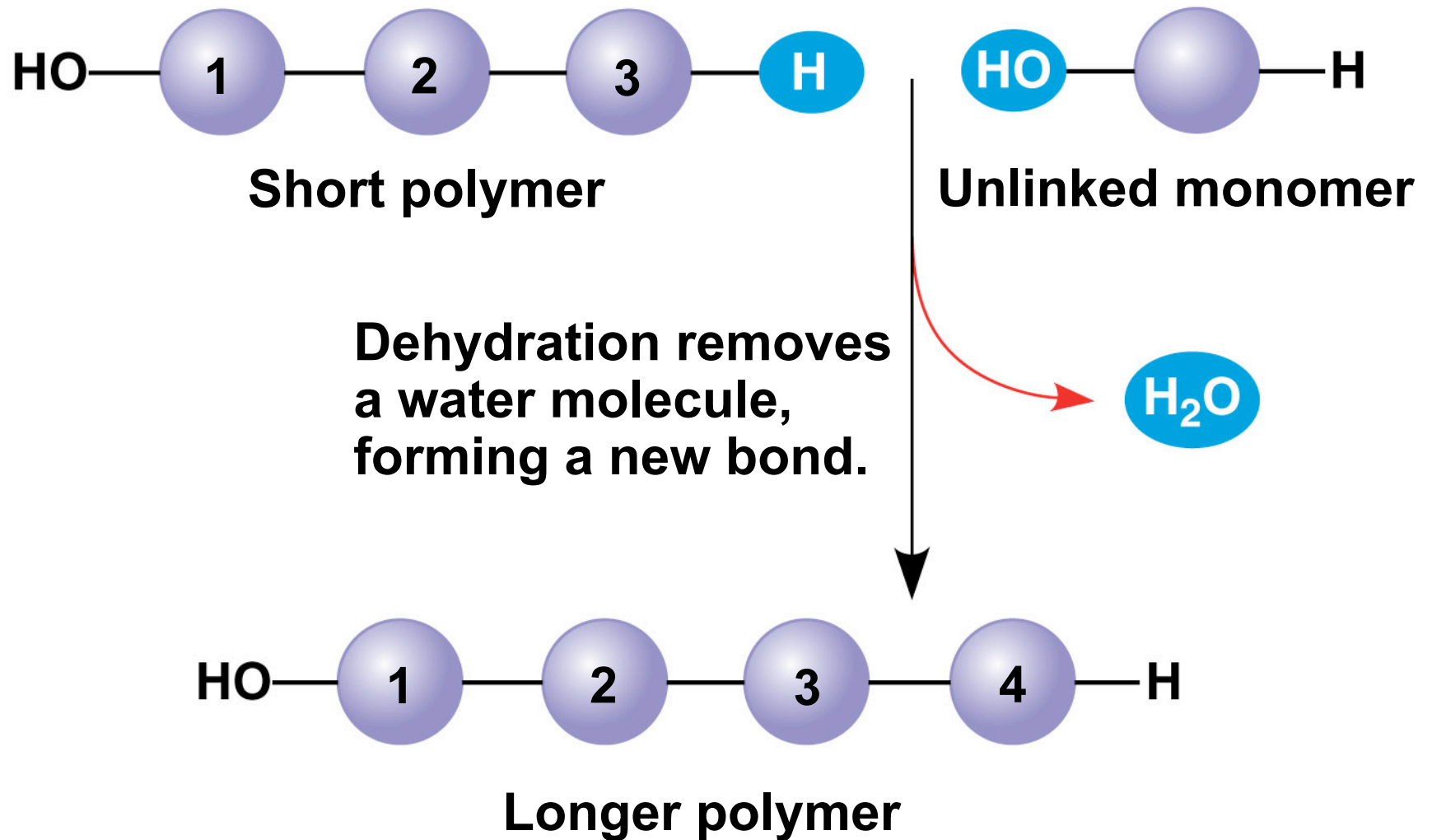
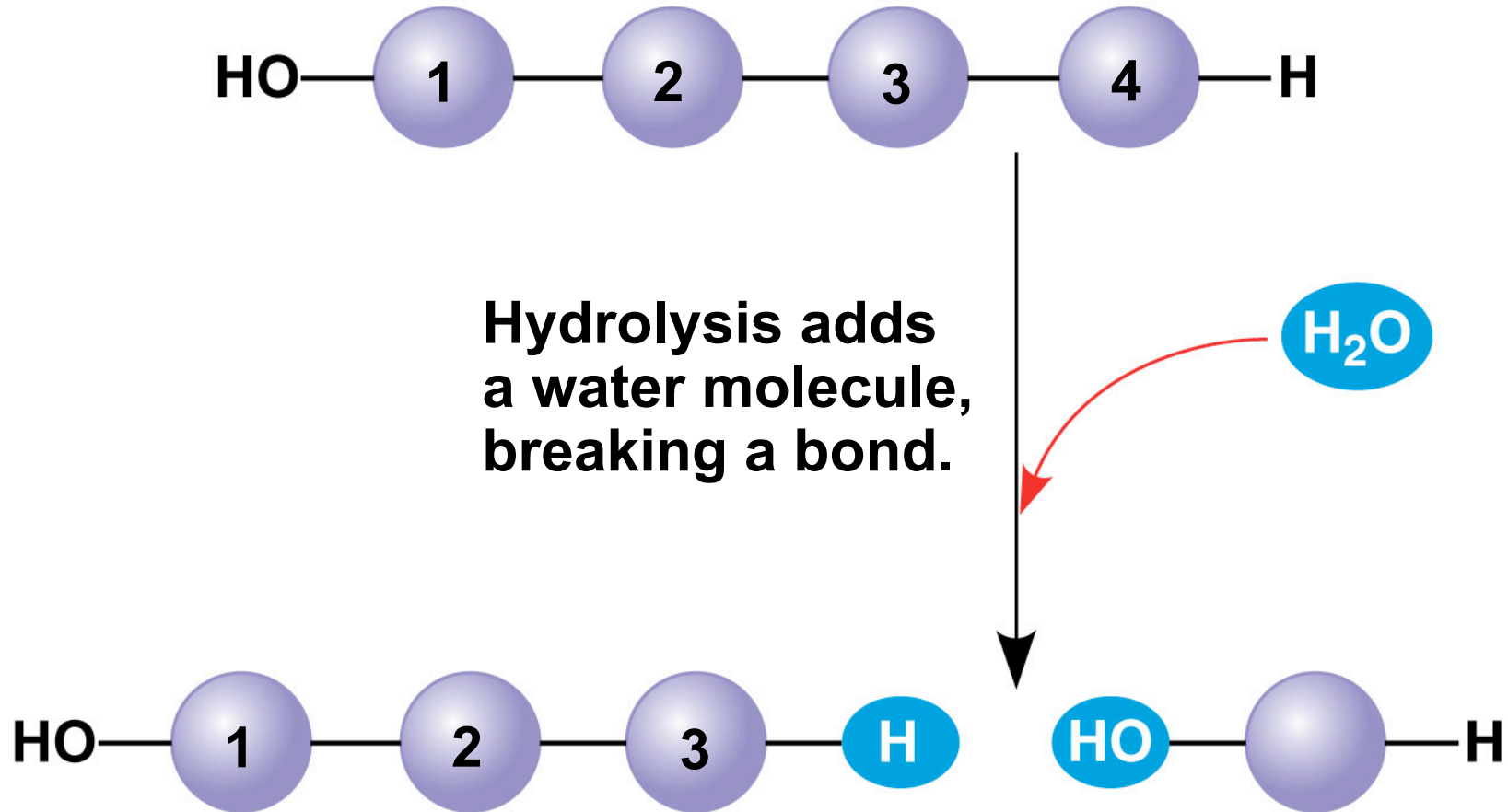


Figure 5.2b

(b) Hydrolysis: breaking down a polymer



The Diversity of Polymers

- Each cell has thousands of different macromolecules
- Macromolecules vary among cells of an organism, vary more within a species, and vary even more between species
- An immense variety of polymers can be built from a small set of monomers

Concept 5.2: Carbohydrates serve as fuel and building material

- **Carbohydrates** include sugars and the polymers of sugars
- The simplest carbohydrates are monosaccharides, or single sugars
- Carbohydrate macromolecules are polysaccharides, polymers composed of many sugar building blocks

Sugars

- **Monosaccharides** have molecular formulas that are usually multiples of CH_2O
- Glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$) is the most common monosaccharide
- Monosaccharides are classified by
 - The location of the carbonyl group (as aldose or ketose)
 - The number of carbons in the carbon skeleton

Figure 5.3

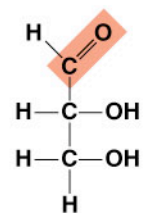
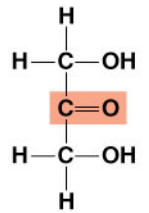
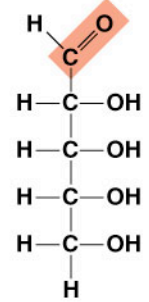
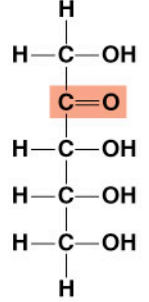
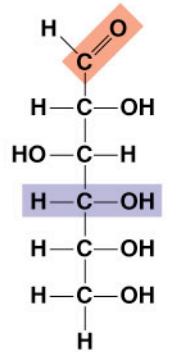
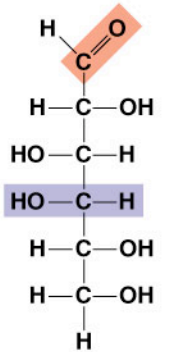
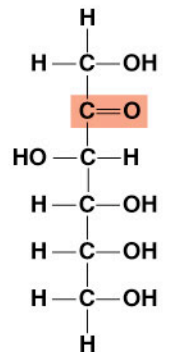
Aldoses (Aldehyde Sugars)		Ketoses (Ketone Sugars)
Trioses: 3-carbon sugars (C₃H₆O₃)		
 <p>Glyceraldehyde</p>	 <p>Dihydroxyacetone</p>	
Pentoses: 5-carbon sugars (C₅H₁₀O₅)		
 <p>Ribose</p>	 <p>Ribulose</p>	
Hexoses: 6-carbon sugars (C₆H₁₂O₆)		
 <p>Glucose</p>	 <p>Galactose</p>	 <p>Fructose</p>

Figure 5.3a

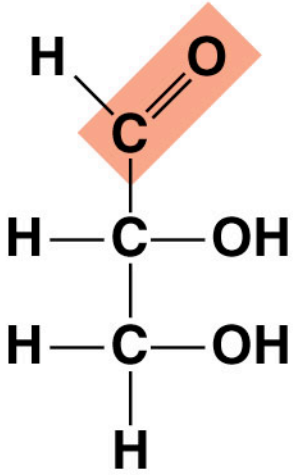
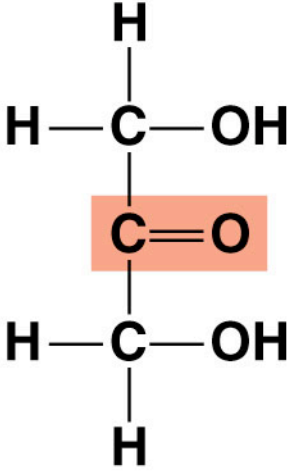
Aldose (Aldehyde Sugar)	Ketose (Ketone Sugar)
Trioses: 3-carbon sugars (C₃H₆O₃)	
 <p>The structure shows a vertical chain of three carbon atoms. The top carbon is bonded to a hydrogen atom (H) on the left and a double-bonded oxygen atom (O) on the right. The middle carbon is bonded to a hydrogen atom (H) on the left and a hydroxyl group (OH) on the right. The bottom carbon is bonded to a hydrogen atom (H) on the left and a hydroxyl group (OH) on the right. The top carbon and its double bond to oxygen are highlighted with an orange diamond.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Glyceraldehyde</p>	 <p>The structure shows a vertical chain of three carbon atoms. The top carbon is bonded to a hydrogen atom (H) above it, a hydrogen atom (H) on the left, and a hydroxyl group (OH) on the right. The middle carbon is double-bonded to an oxygen atom (O) on the right. The bottom carbon is bonded to a hydrogen atom (H) on the left and a hydroxyl group (OH) on the right. The middle carbon and its double bond to oxygen are highlighted with an orange rectangle.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Dihydroxyacetone</p>

Figure 5.3b

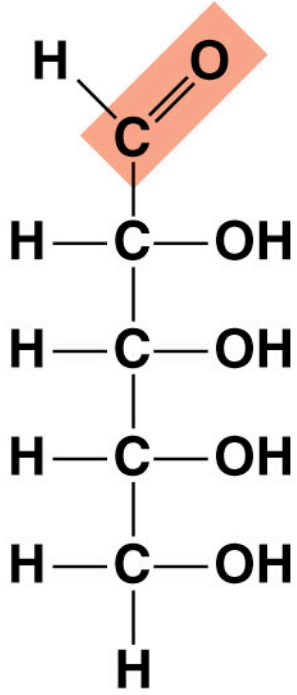
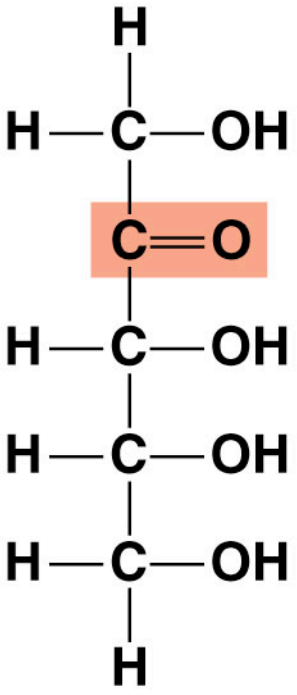
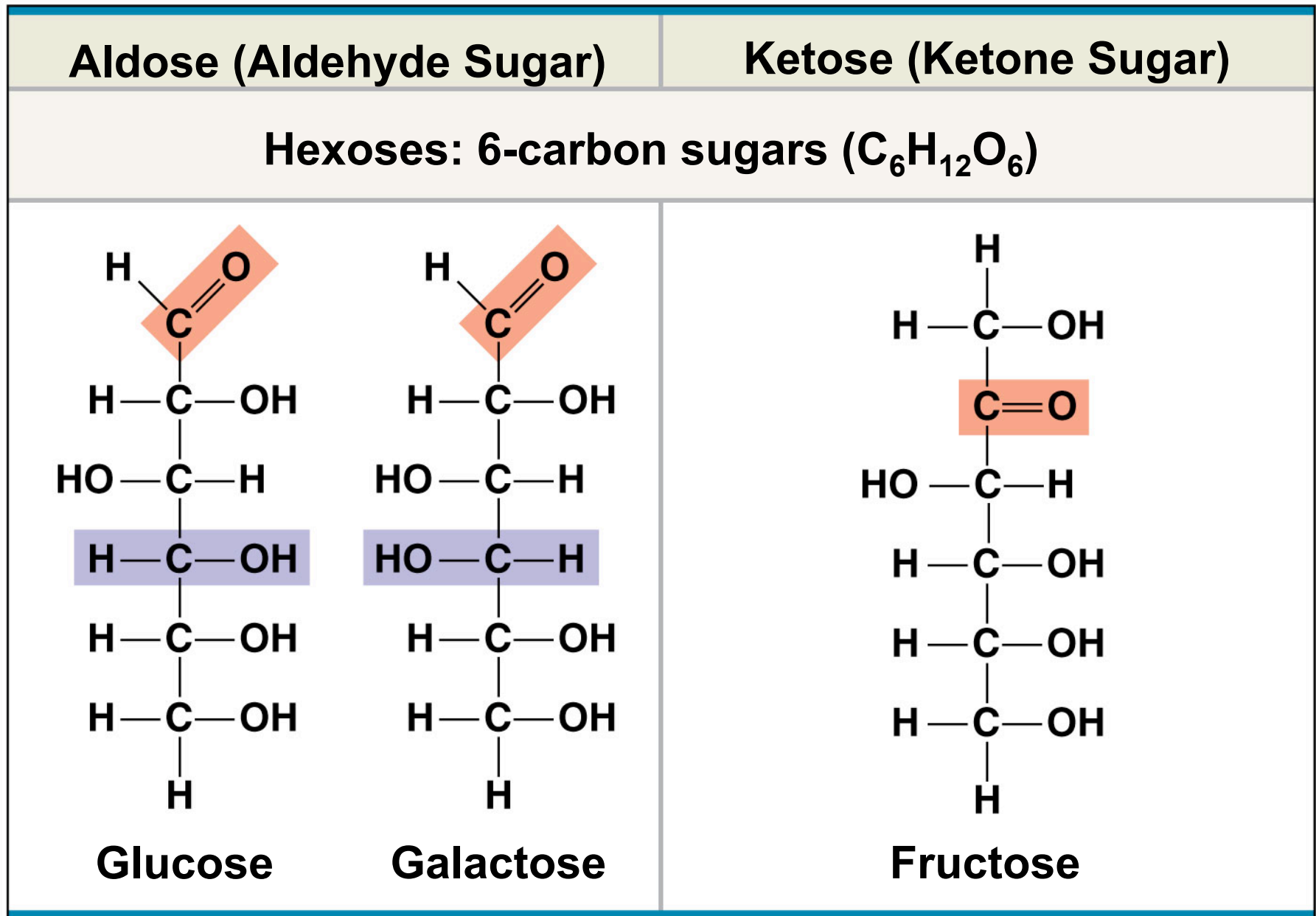
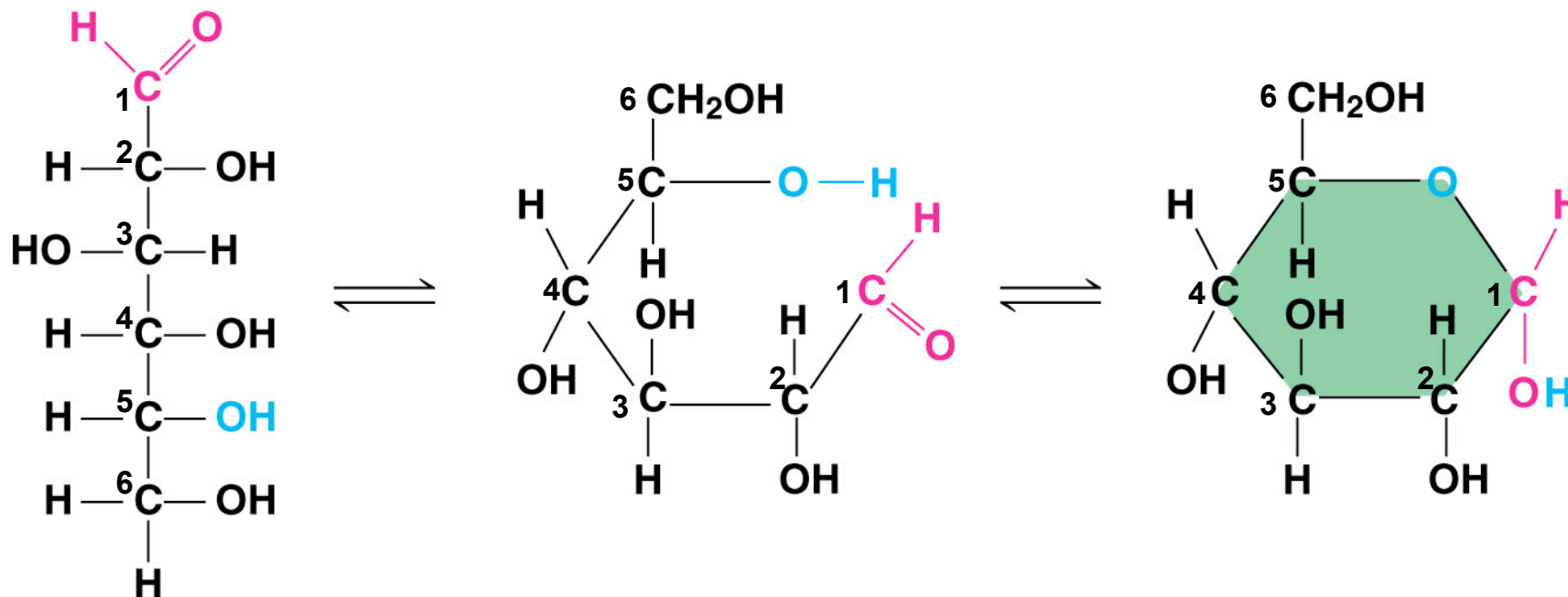
Aldose (Aldehyde Sugar)	Ketose (Ketone Sugar)
Pentoses: 5-carbon sugars ($C_5H_{10}O_5$)	
 <p data-bbox="514 1266 724 1323">Ribose</p>	 <p data-bbox="1354 1266 1627 1323">Ribulose</p>

Figure 5.3c

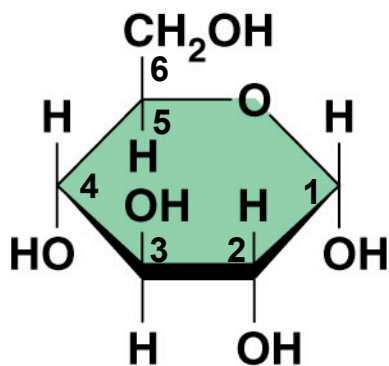


- Though often drawn as linear skeletons, in aqueous solutions many sugars form rings
- Monosaccharides serve as a major fuel for cells and as raw material for building molecules

Figure 5.4



(a) Linear and ring forms



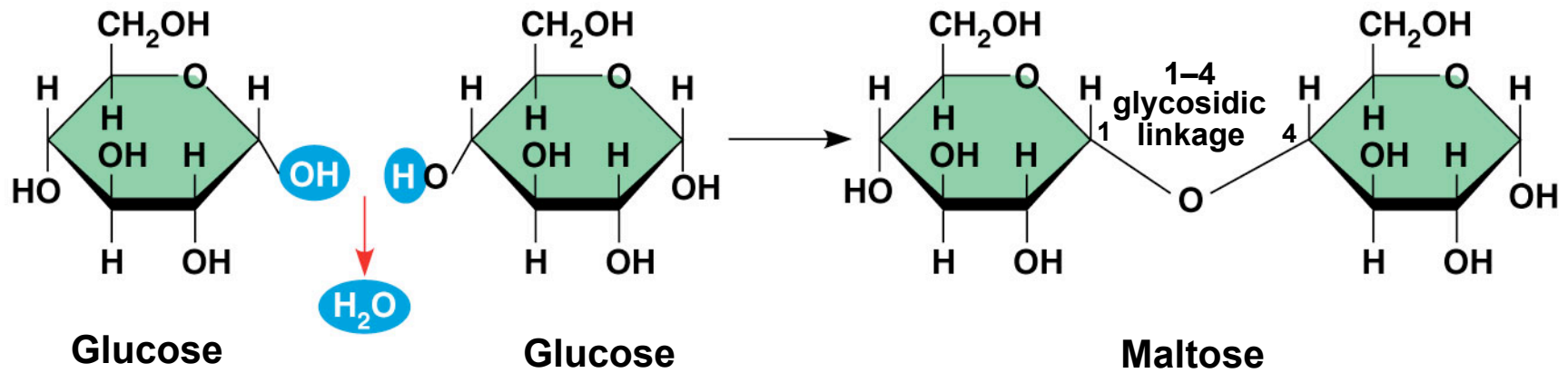
(b) Abbreviated ring structure

- A **disaccharide** is formed when a dehydration reaction joins two monosaccharides
- This covalent bond is called a **glycosidic linkage**

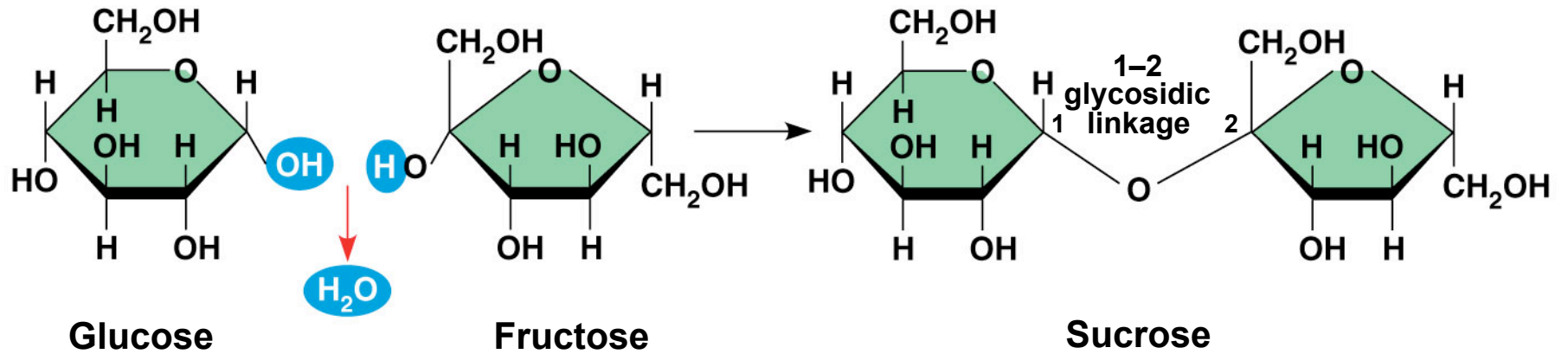


Animation: Disaccharide

Figure 5.5



(a) Dehydration reaction in the synthesis of maltose



(b) Dehydration reaction in the synthesis of sucrose

Polysaccharides

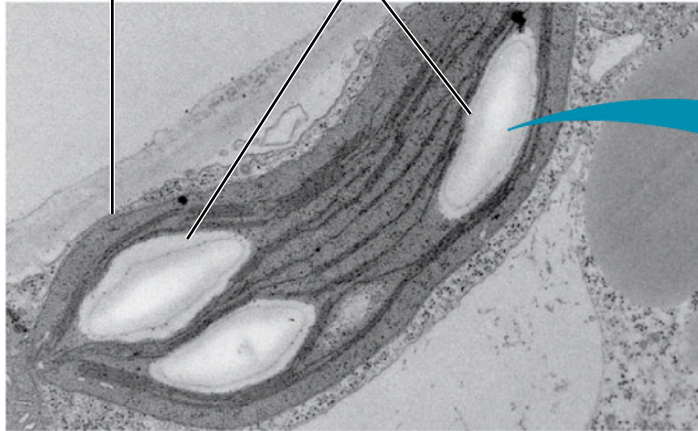
- **Polysaccharides**, the polymers of sugars, have storage and structural roles
- The structure and function of a polysaccharide are determined by its sugar monomers and the positions of glycosidic linkages

Storage Polysaccharides

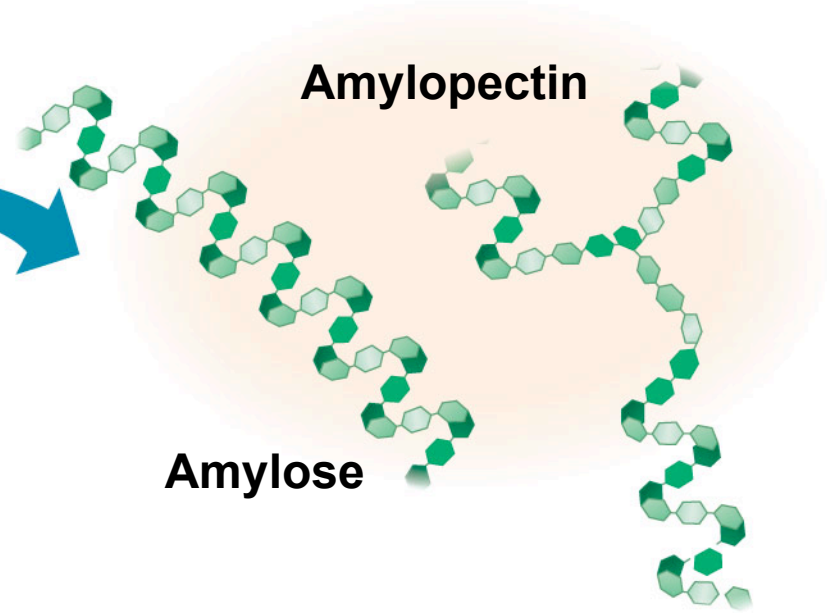
- **Starch**, a storage polysaccharide of plants, consists entirely of glucose monomers
- Plants store surplus starch as granules within chloroplasts and other plastids
- The simplest form of starch is amylose

Figure 5.6

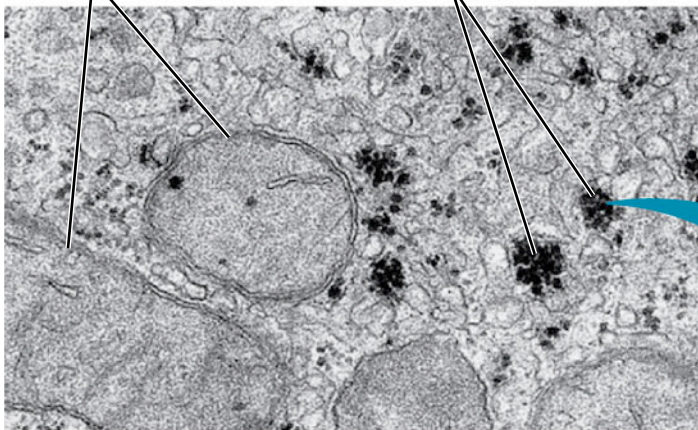
Chloroplast **Starch granules**



(a) Starch:
a plant polysaccharide



Mitochondria **Glycogen granules**



(b) Glycogen:
an animal polysaccharide

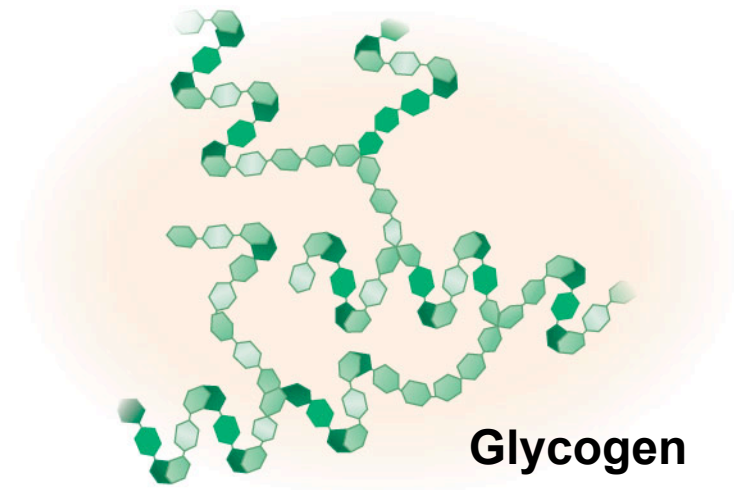
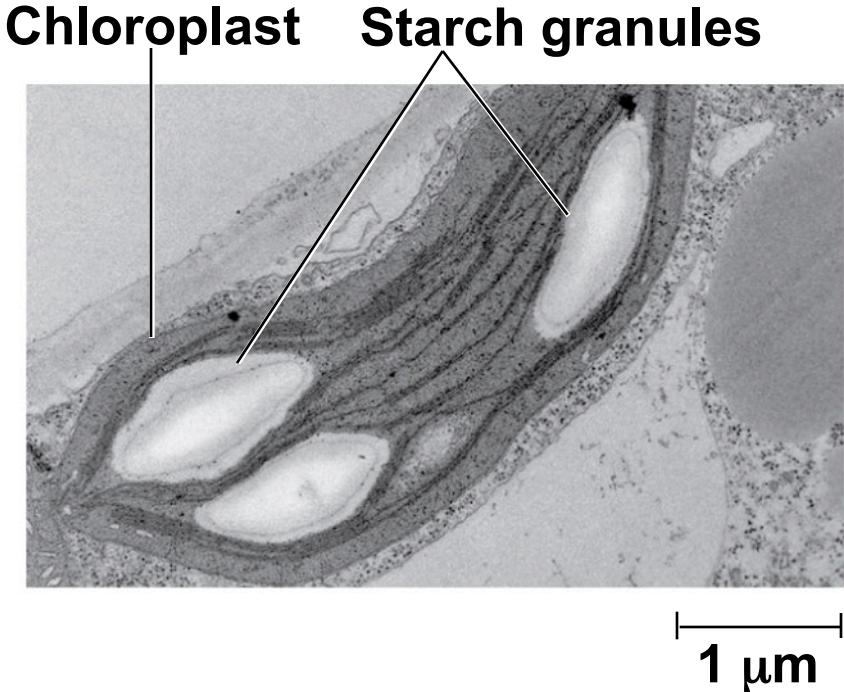


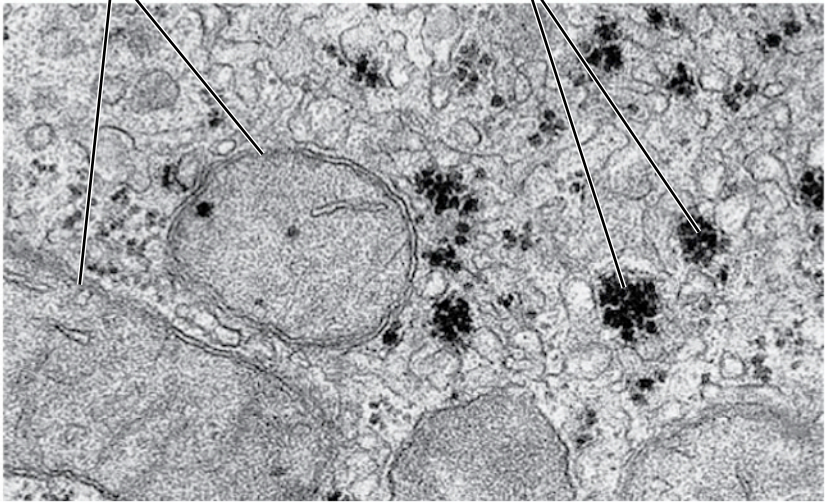
Figure 5.6a



- **Glycogen** is a storage polysaccharide in animals
- Humans and other vertebrates store glycogen mainly in liver and muscle cells

Figure 5.6b

Mitochondria Glycogen granules



0.5 μm

Structural Polysaccharides

- The polysaccharide **cellulose** is a major component of the tough wall of plant cells
- Like starch, cellulose is a polymer of glucose, but the glycosidic linkages differ
- The difference is based on two ring forms for glucose: alpha (α) and beta (β)



Animation: Polysaccharides

Figure 5.7

(a) α and β glucose ring structures

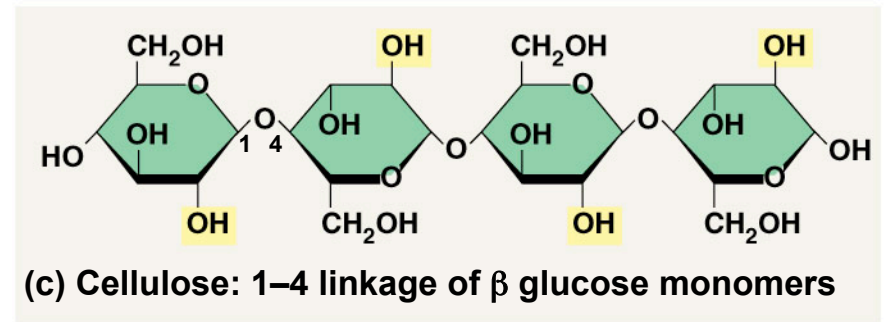
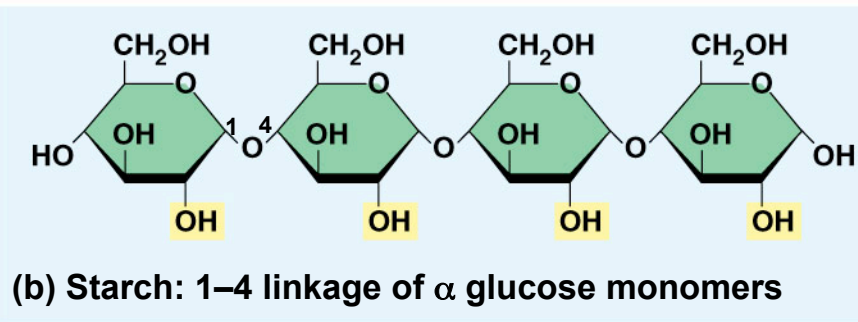
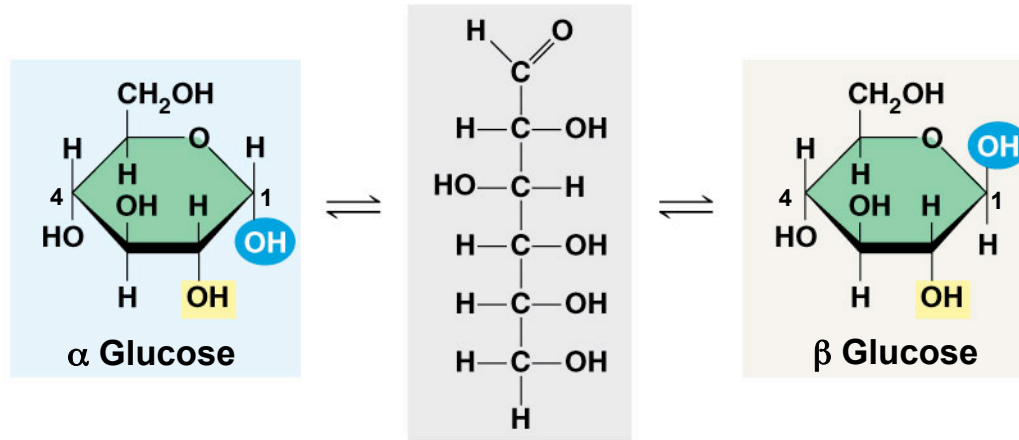
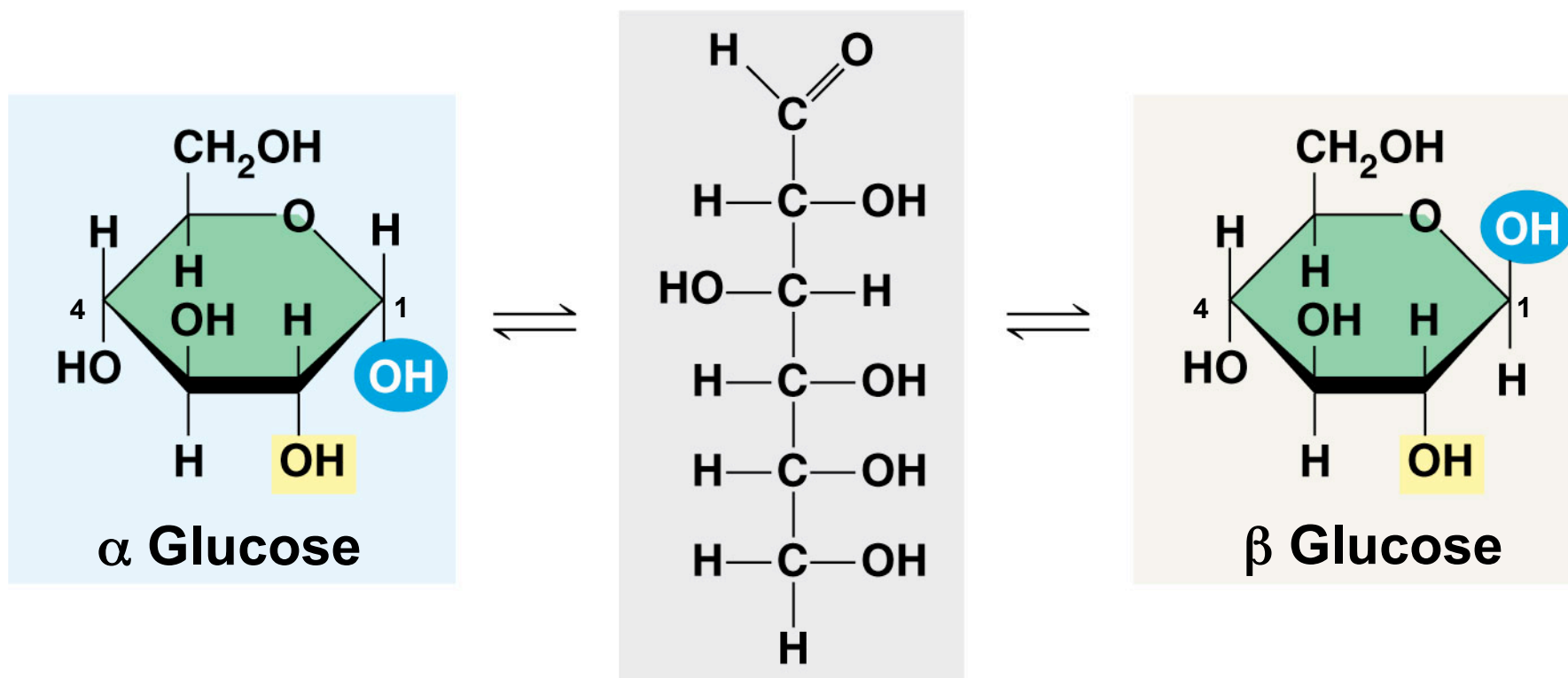
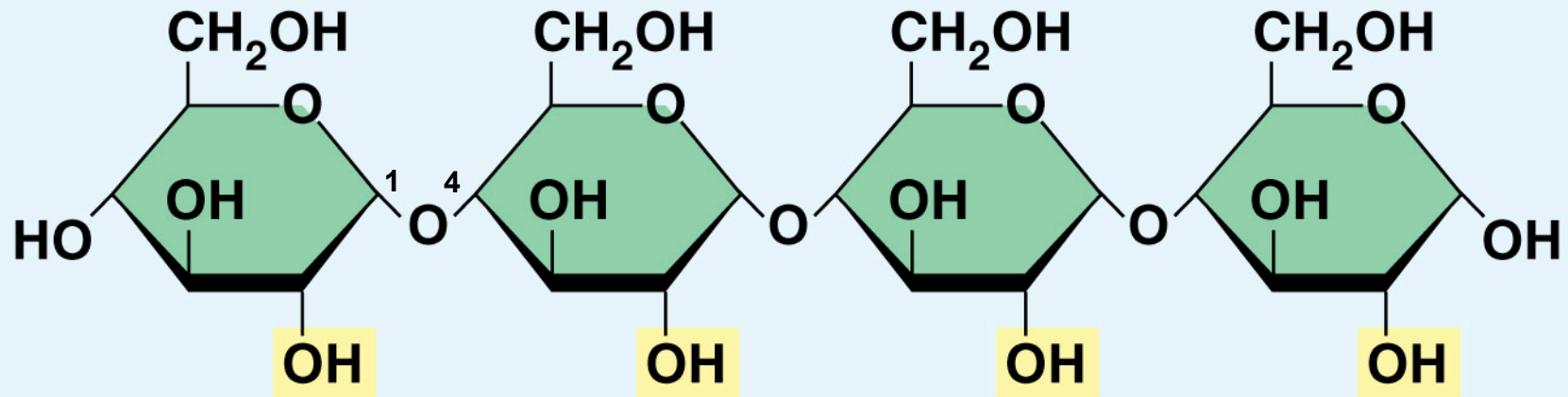


Figure 5.7a

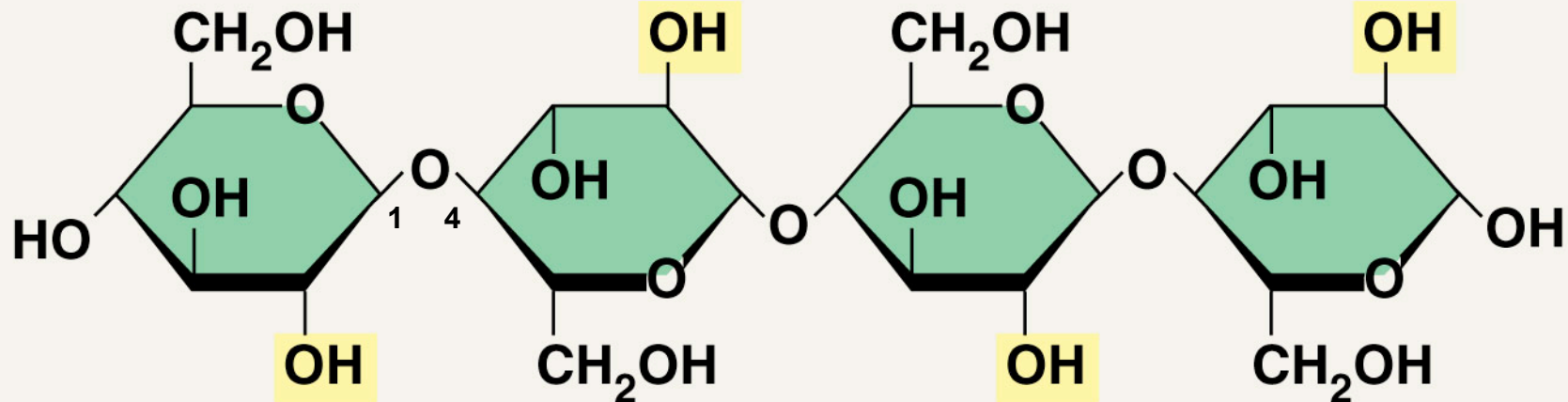


(a) α and β glucose ring structures

Figure 5.7b



(b) Starch: 1–4 linkage of α glucose monomers



(c) Cellulose: 1–4 linkage of β glucose monomers

- Polymers with α glucose are helical
- Polymers with β glucose are straight
- In straight structures, H atoms on one strand can bond with OH groups on other strands
- Parallel cellulose molecules held together this way are grouped into microfibrils, which form strong building materials for plants

Figure 5.8

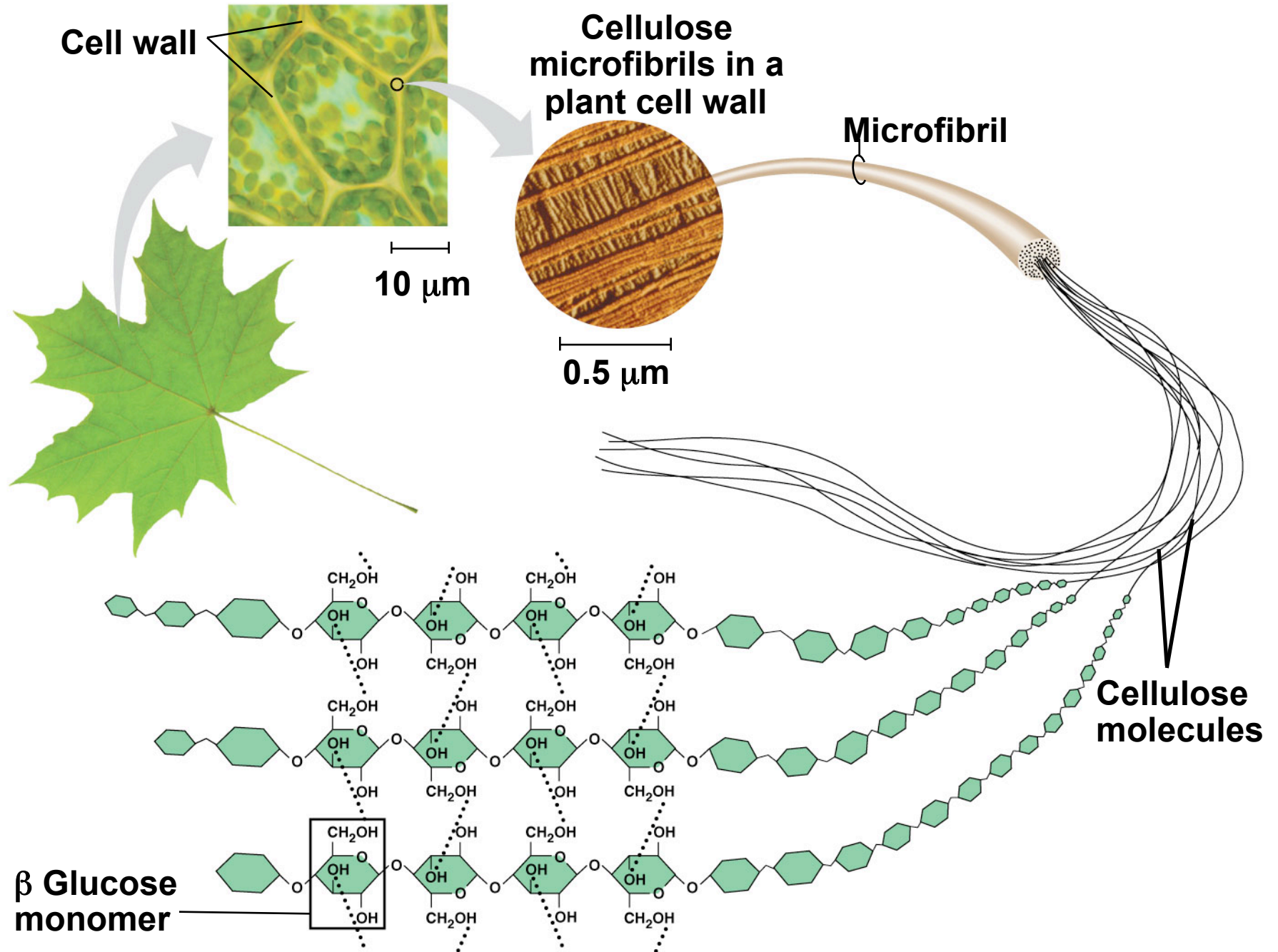


Figure 5.8a

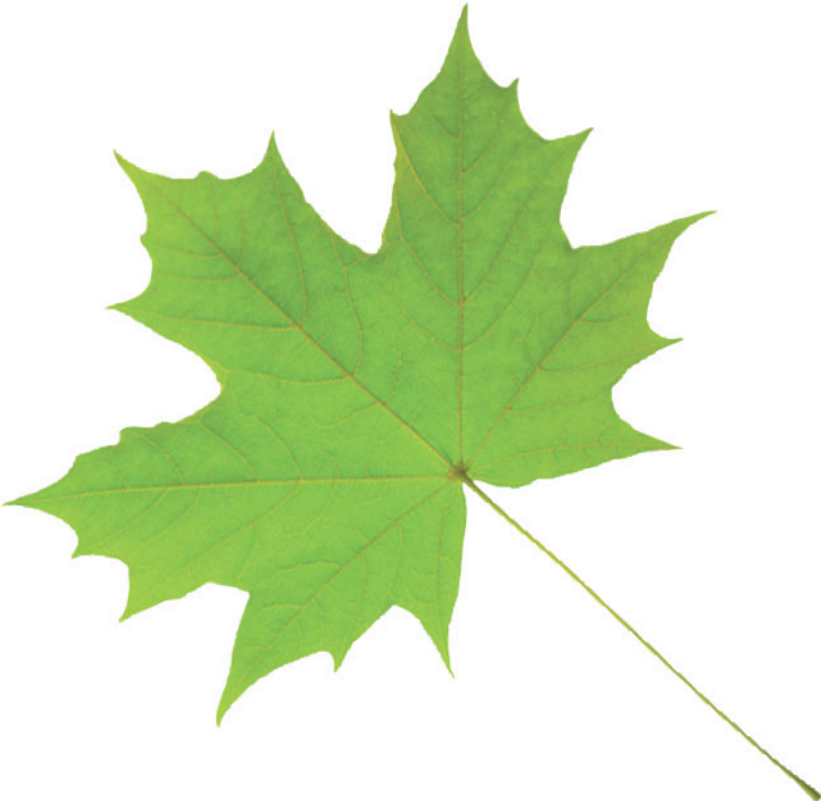


Figure 5.8b

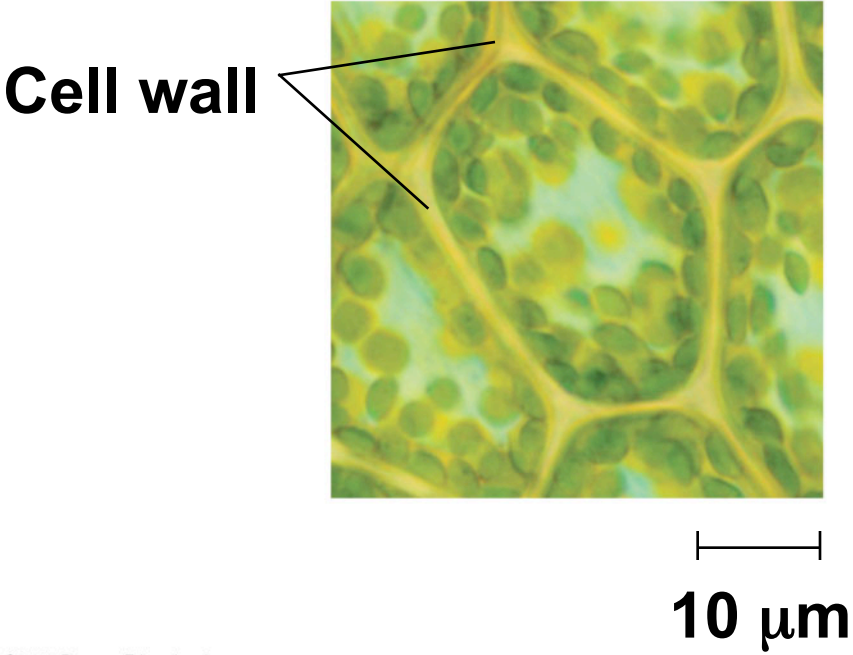


Figure 5.8c

**Cellulose
microfibrils
in a plant
cell wall**



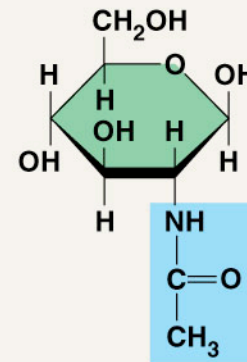
|-----|
0.5 μm

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- Enzymes that digest starch by hydrolyzing α linkages can't hydrolyze β linkages in cellulose
- Cellulose in human food passes through the digestive tract as insoluble fiber
- Some microbes use enzymes to digest cellulose
- Many herbivores, from cows to termites, have symbiotic relationships with these microbes

- **Chitin**, another structural polysaccharide, is found in the exoskeleton of arthropods
- Chitin also provides structural support for the cell walls of many fungi

Figure 5.9



◀ The structure of the chitin monomer

◀ Chitin forms the exoskeleton of arthropods.



▲ Chitin is used to make a strong and flexible surgical thread that decomposes after the wound or incision heals.

Figure 5.9a



▲ **Chitin forms the exoskeleton of arthropods.**

Figure 5.9b



- ▲ **Chitin is used to make a strong and flexible surgical thread that decomposes after the wound or incision heals.**

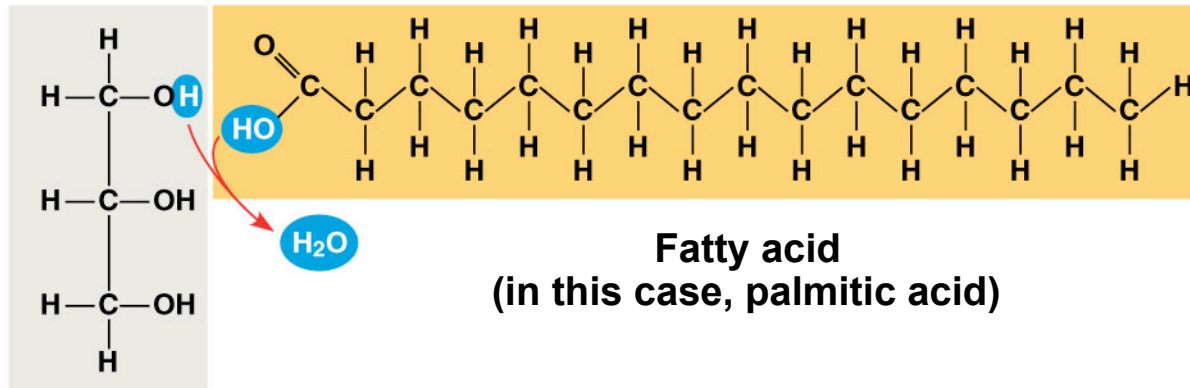
Concept 5.3: Lipids are a diverse group of hydrophobic molecules

- **Lipids** are the one class of large biological molecules that do not form polymers
- The unifying feature of lipids is having little or no affinity for water
- Lipids are hydrophobic because they consist mostly of hydrocarbons, which form nonpolar covalent bonds
- The most biologically important lipids are fats, phospholipids, and steroids

Fats

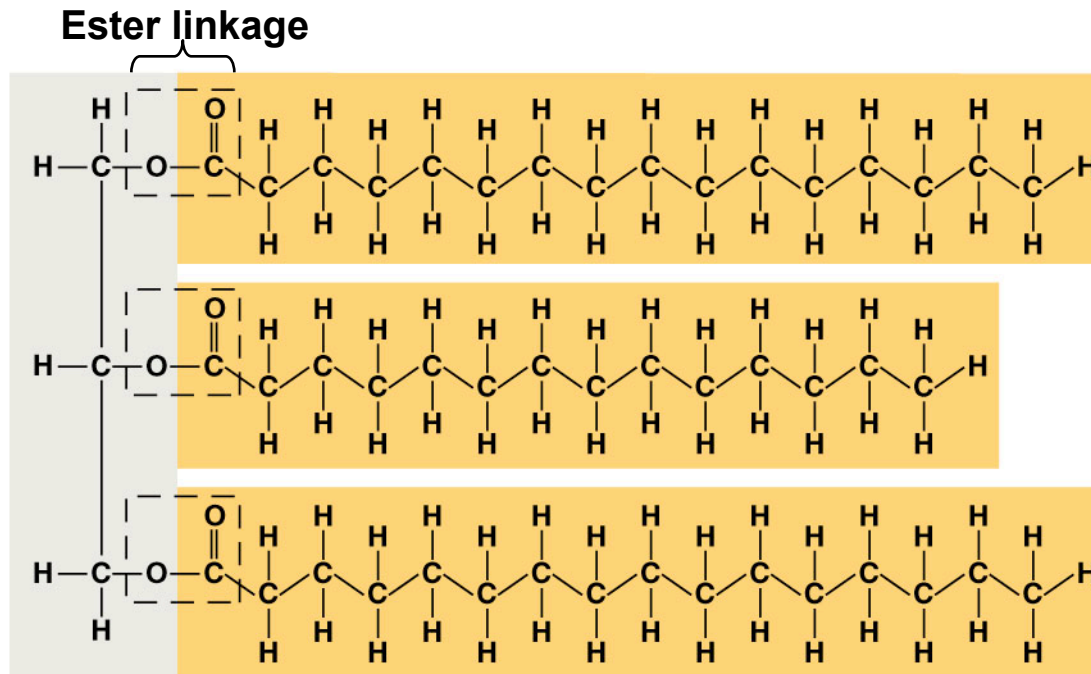
- **Fats** are constructed from two types of smaller molecules: glycerol and fatty acids
- Glycerol is a three-carbon alcohol with a hydroxyl group attached to each carbon
- A **fatty acid** consists of a carboxyl group attached to a long carbon skeleton

Figure 5.10



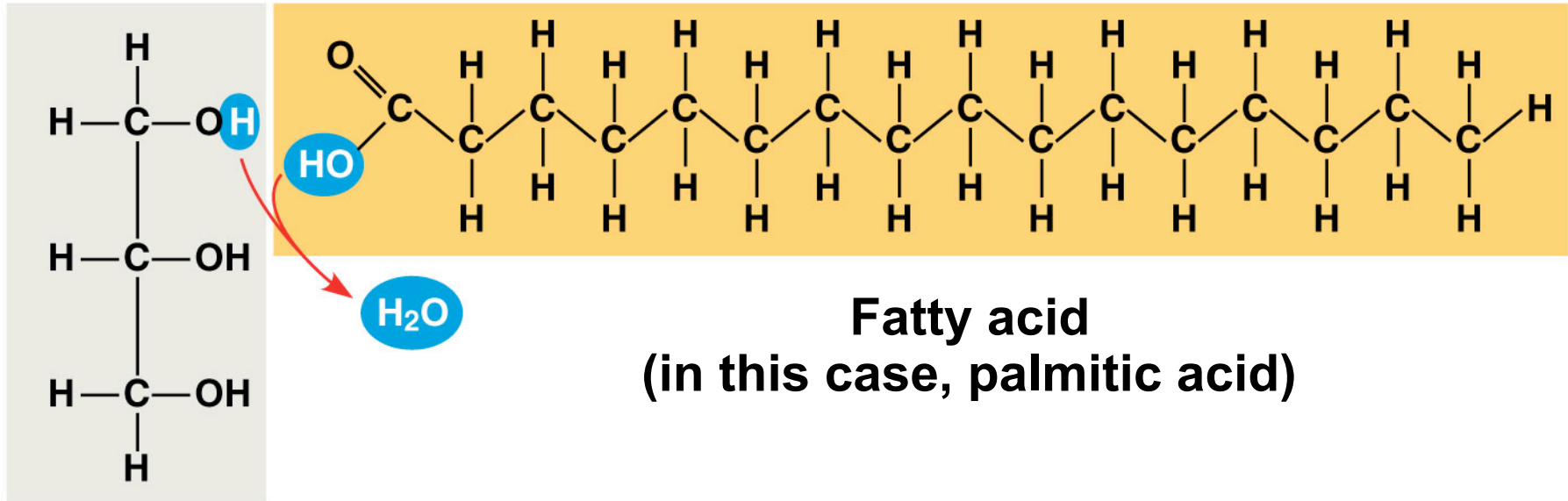
Glycerol

(a) One of three dehydration reactions in the synthesis of a fat



(b) Fat molecule (triacylglycerol)

Figure 5.10a



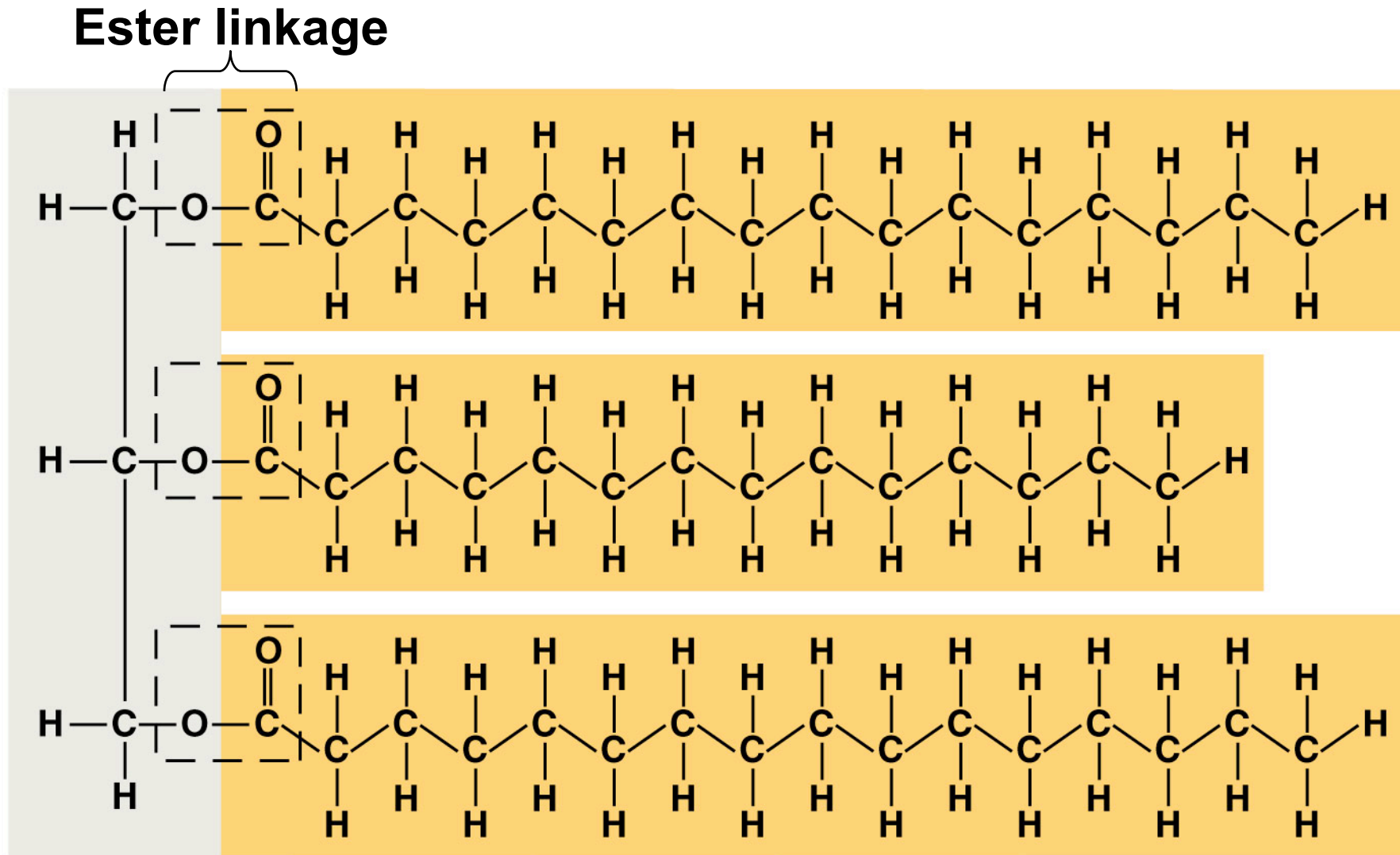
Glycerol

**Fatty acid
(in this case, palmitic acid)**

(a) One of three dehydration reactions in the synthesis of a fat

- Fats separate from water because water molecules form hydrogen bonds with each other and exclude the fats
- In a fat, three fatty acids are joined to glycerol by an ester linkage, creating a **triacylglycerol**, or triglyceride

Figure 5.10b



(b) Fat molecule (triacylglycerol)

- Fatty acids vary in length (number of carbons) and in the number and locations of double bonds
- **Saturated fatty acids** have the maximum number of hydrogen atoms possible and no double bonds
- **Unsaturated fatty acids** have one or more double bonds



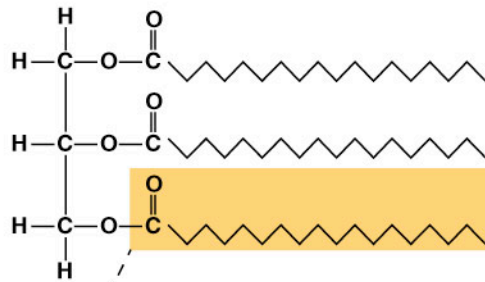
Animation: Fats

Figure 5.11

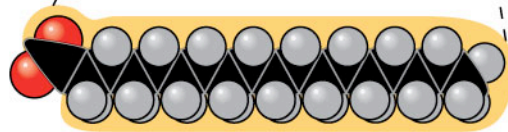
(a) Saturated fat



Structural formula of a saturated fat molecule



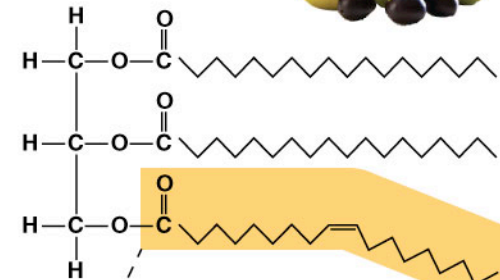
Space-filling model of stearic acid, a saturated fatty acid



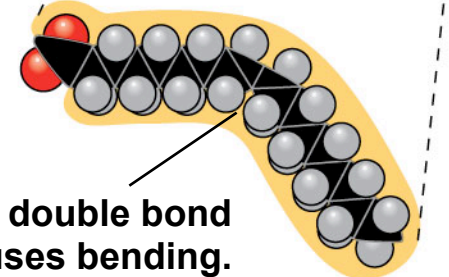
(b) Unsaturated fat



Structural formula of an unsaturated fat molecule



Space-filling model of oleic acid, an unsaturated fatty acid



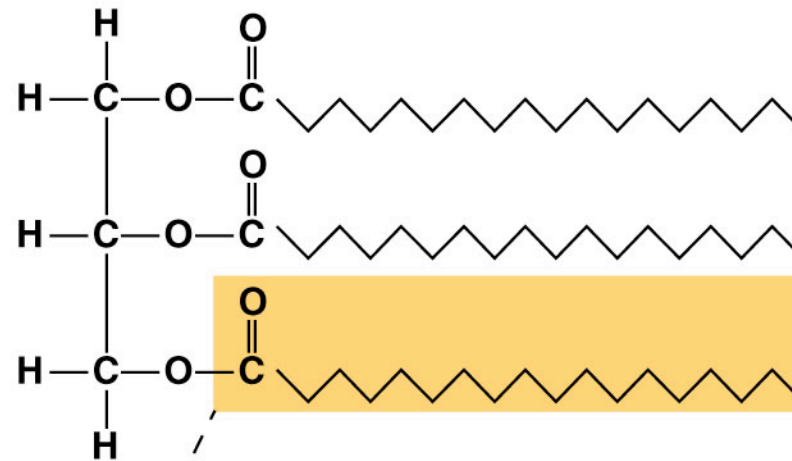
Cis double bond causes bending.

Figure 5.11a

(a) Saturated fat



Structural formula of a saturated fat molecule



Space-filling model of stearic acid, a saturated fatty acid

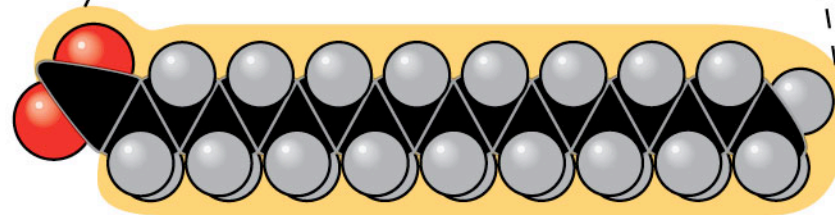
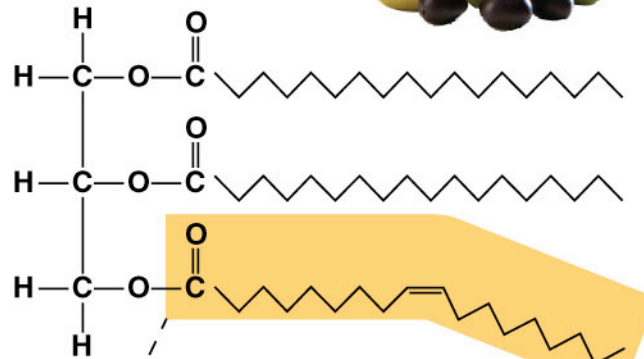


Figure 5.11b

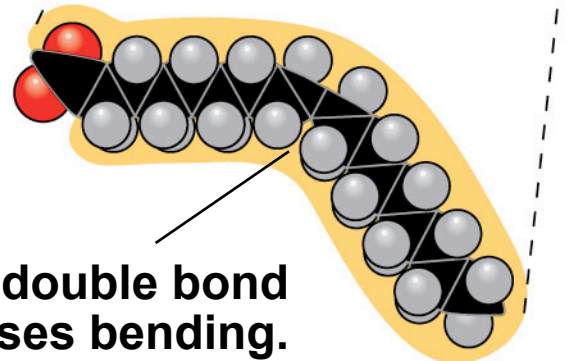
(b) Unsaturated fat



Structural formula of an unsaturated fat molecule



Space-filling model of oleic acid, an unsaturated fatty acid



***Cis* double bond causes bending.**

Figure 5.11c



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Figure 5.11d



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- Fats made from saturated fatty acids are called saturated fats, and are solid at room temperature
- Most animal fats are saturated
- Fats made from unsaturated fatty acids are called unsaturated fats or oils, and are liquid at room temperature
- Plant fats and fish fats are usually unsaturated

- A diet rich in saturated fats may contribute to cardiovascular disease through plaque deposits
- Hydrogenation is the process of converting unsaturated fats to saturated fats by adding hydrogen
- Hydrogenating vegetable oils also creates unsaturated fats with *trans* double bonds
- These ***trans* fats** may contribute more than saturated fats to cardiovascular disease

- Certain unsaturated fatty acids are not synthesized in the human body
- These must be supplied in the diet
- These essential fatty acids include the omega-3 fatty acids, required for normal growth, and thought to provide protection against cardiovascular disease

- The major function of fats is energy storage
- Humans and other mammals store their fat in adipose cells
- Adipose tissue also cushions vital organs and insulates the body

Phospholipids

- In a **phospholipid**, two fatty acids and a phosphate group are attached to glycerol
- The two fatty acid tails are hydrophobic, but the phosphate group and its attachments form a hydrophilic head

Figure 5.12

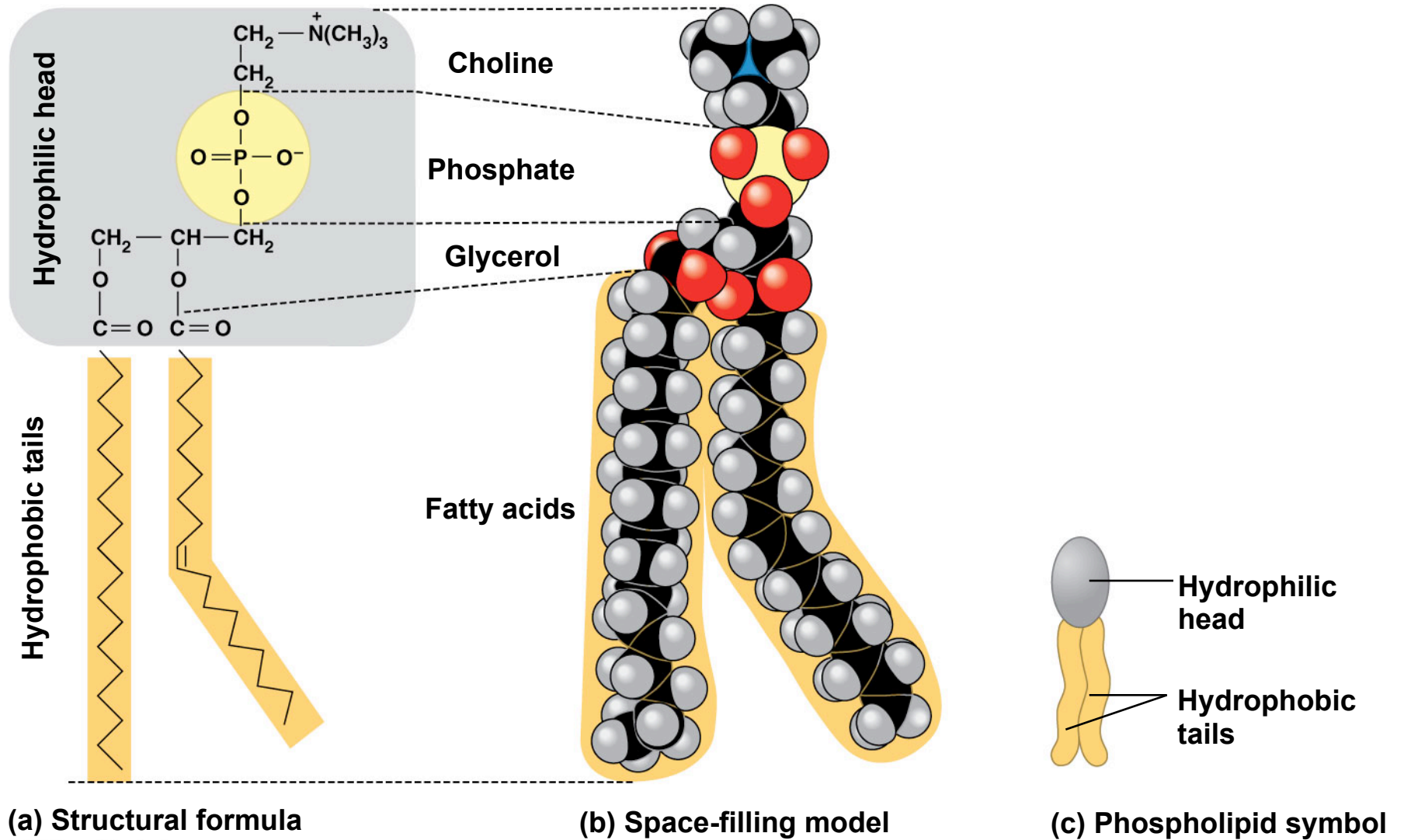
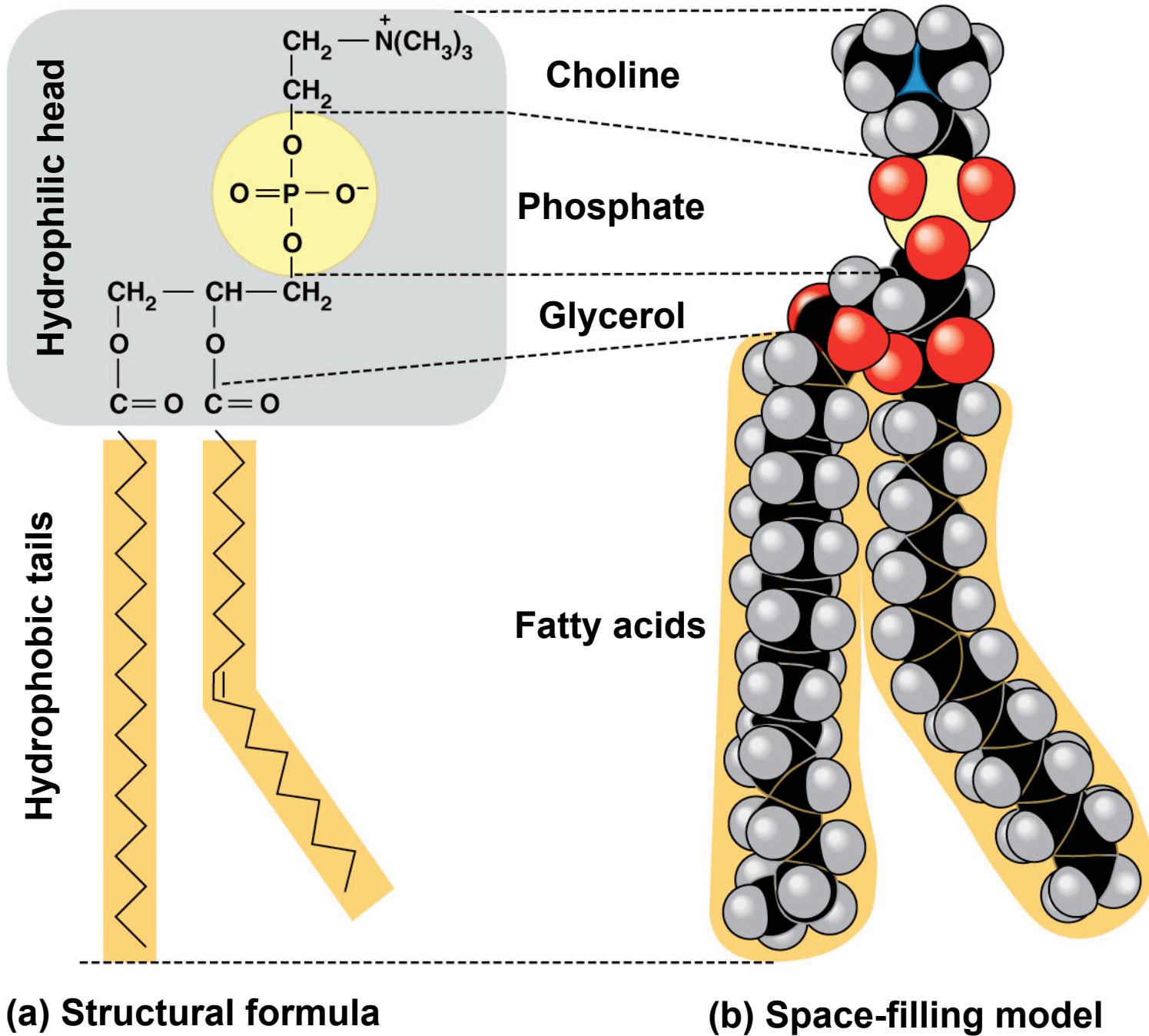


Figure 5.12a

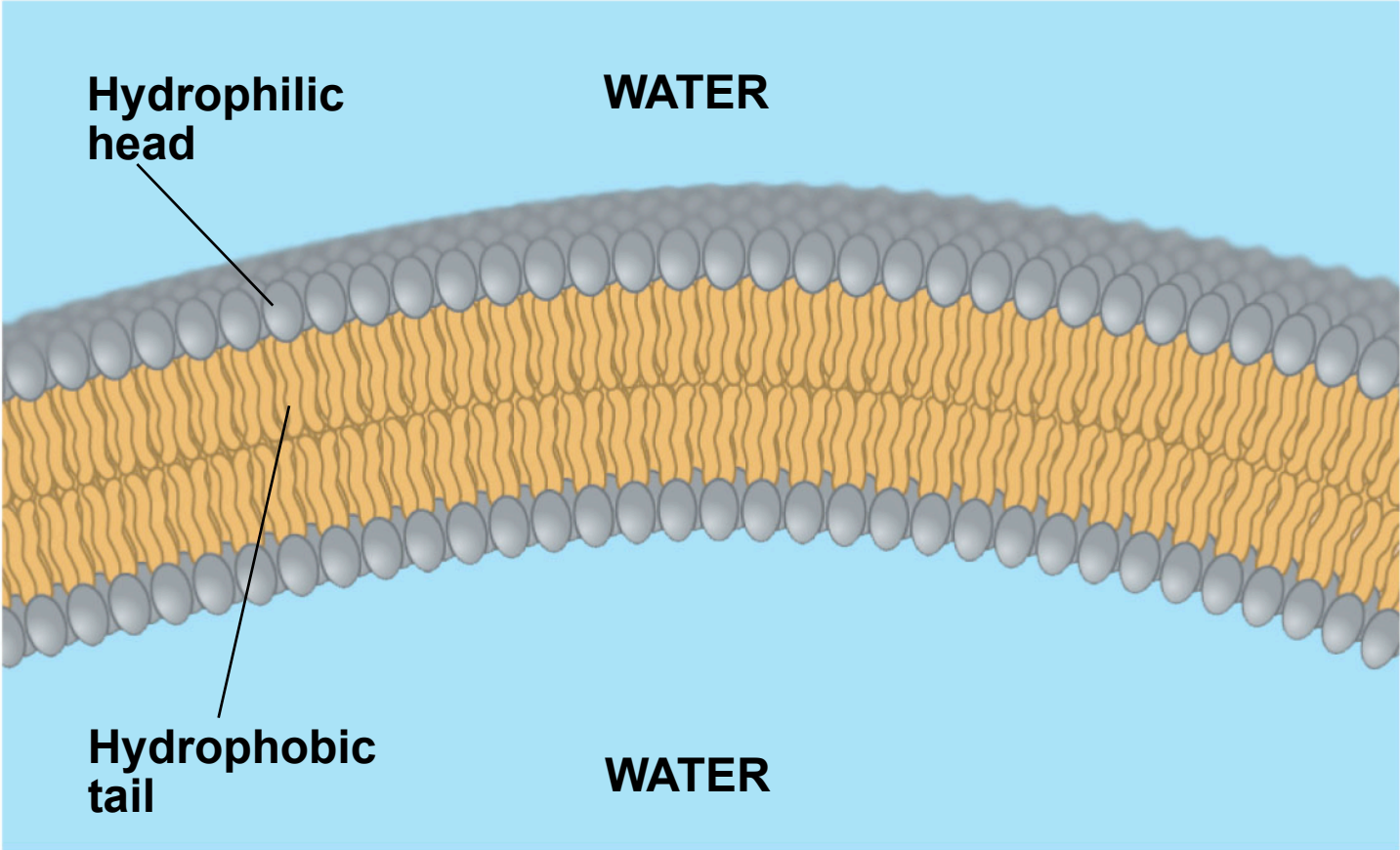


(a) Structural formula

(b) Space-filling model

- When phospholipids are added to water, they self-assemble into a bilayer, with the hydrophobic tails pointing toward the interior
- The structure of phospholipids results in a bilayer arrangement found in cell membranes
- Phospholipids are the major component of all cell membranes

Figure 5.13

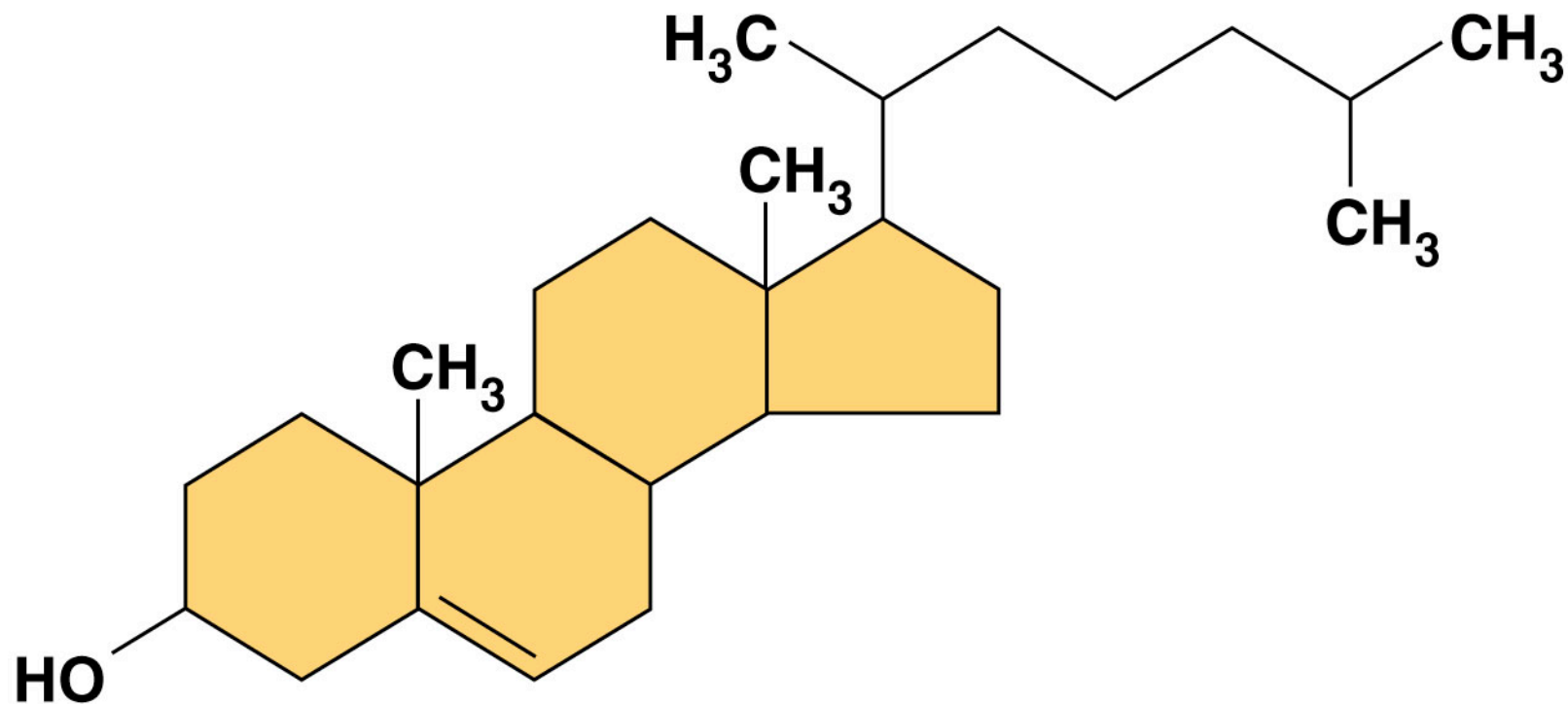


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Steroids

- **Steroids** are lipids characterized by a carbon skeleton consisting of four fused rings
- **Cholesterol**, an important steroid, is a component in animal cell membranes
- Although cholesterol is essential in animals, high levels in the blood may contribute to cardiovascular disease

Figure 5.14



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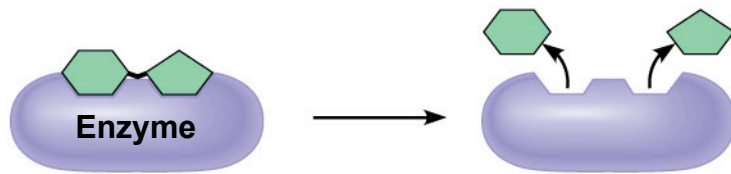
Concept 5.4: Proteins include a diversity of structures, resulting in a wide range of functions

- Proteins account for more than 50% of the dry mass of most cells
- Protein functions include structural support, storage, transport, cellular communications, movement, and defense against foreign substances

Figure 5.15-a

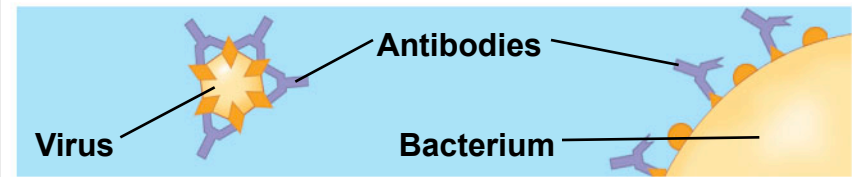
Enzymatic proteins

Function: Selective acceleration of chemical reactions
Example: Digestive enzymes catalyze the hydrolysis of bonds in food molecules.



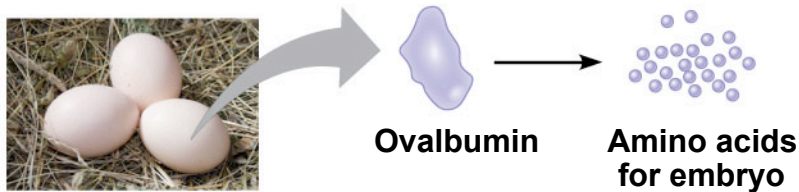
Defensive proteins

Function: Protection against disease
Example: Antibodies inactivate and help destroy viruses and bacteria.



Storage proteins

Function: Storage of amino acids
Examples: Casein, the protein of milk, is the major source of amino acids for baby mammals. Plants have storage proteins in their seeds. Ovalbumin is the protein of egg white, used as an amino acid source for the developing embryo.



Transport proteins

Function: Transport of substances
Examples: Hemoglobin, the iron-containing protein of vertebrate blood, transports oxygen from the lungs to other parts of the body. Other proteins transport molecules across cell membranes.

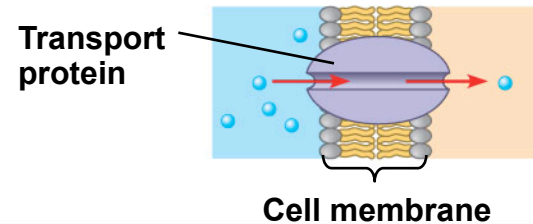


Figure 5.15-b

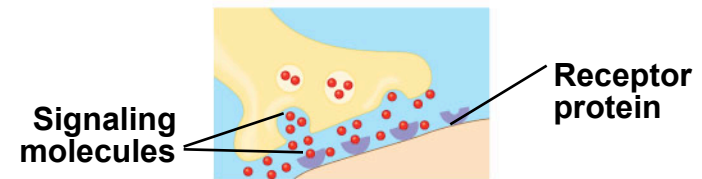
Hormonal proteins

Function: Coordination of an organism's activities
Example: Insulin, a hormone secreted by the pancreas, causes other tissues to take up glucose, thus regulating blood sugar concentration



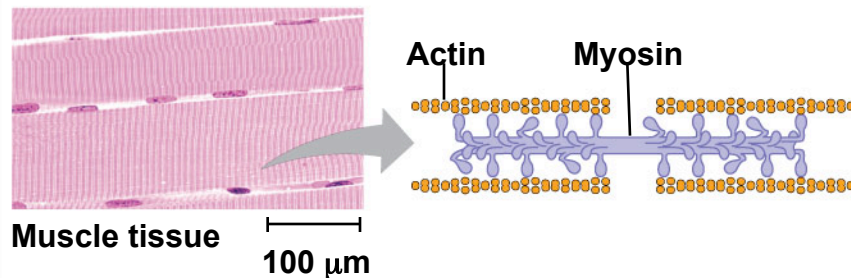
Receptor proteins

Function: Response of cell to chemical stimuli
Example: Receptors built into the membrane of a nerve cell detect signaling molecules released by other nerve cells.



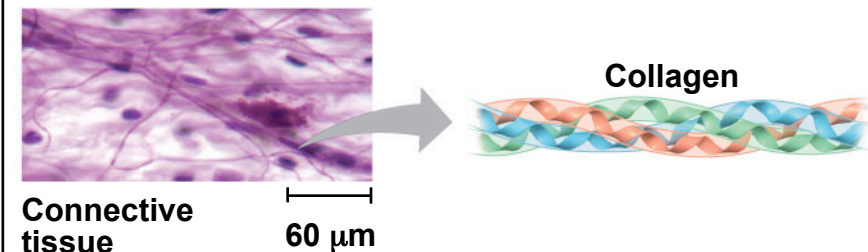
Contractile and motor proteins

Function: Movement
Examples: Motor proteins are responsible for the undulations of cilia and flagella. Actin and myosin proteins are responsible for the contraction of muscles.



Structural proteins

Function: Support
Examples: Keratin is the protein of hair, horns, feathers, and other skin appendages. Insects and spiders use silk fibers to make their cocoons and webs, respectively. Collagen and elastin proteins provide a fibrous framework in animal connective tissues.



- **Enzymes** are a type of protein that acts as a **catalyst** to speed up chemical reactions
- Enzymes can perform their functions repeatedly, functioning as workhorses that carry out the processes of life



Animation: Enzymes

Polypeptides

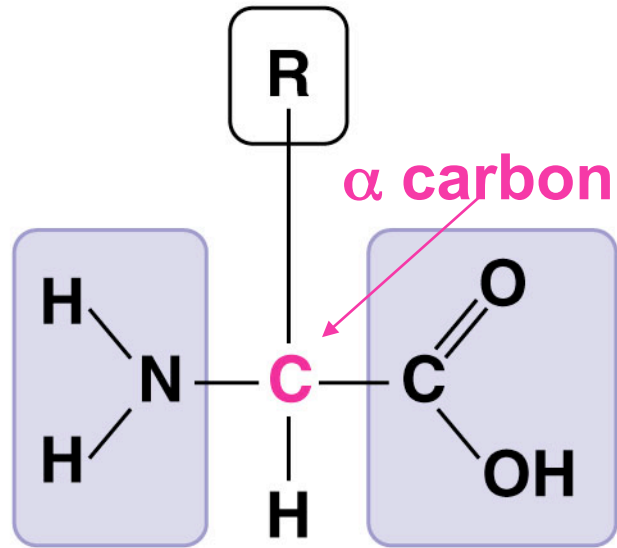
- **Polypeptides** are unbranched polymers built from the same set of 20 amino acids
- A **protein** is a biologically functional molecule that consists of one or more polypeptides

Amino Acid Monomers

- **Amino acids** are organic molecules with carboxyl and amino groups
- Amino acids differ in their properties due to differing side chains, called R groups

Figure 5.UN01

Side chain (R group)



**Amino
group**

**Carboxyl
group**

Figure 5.16

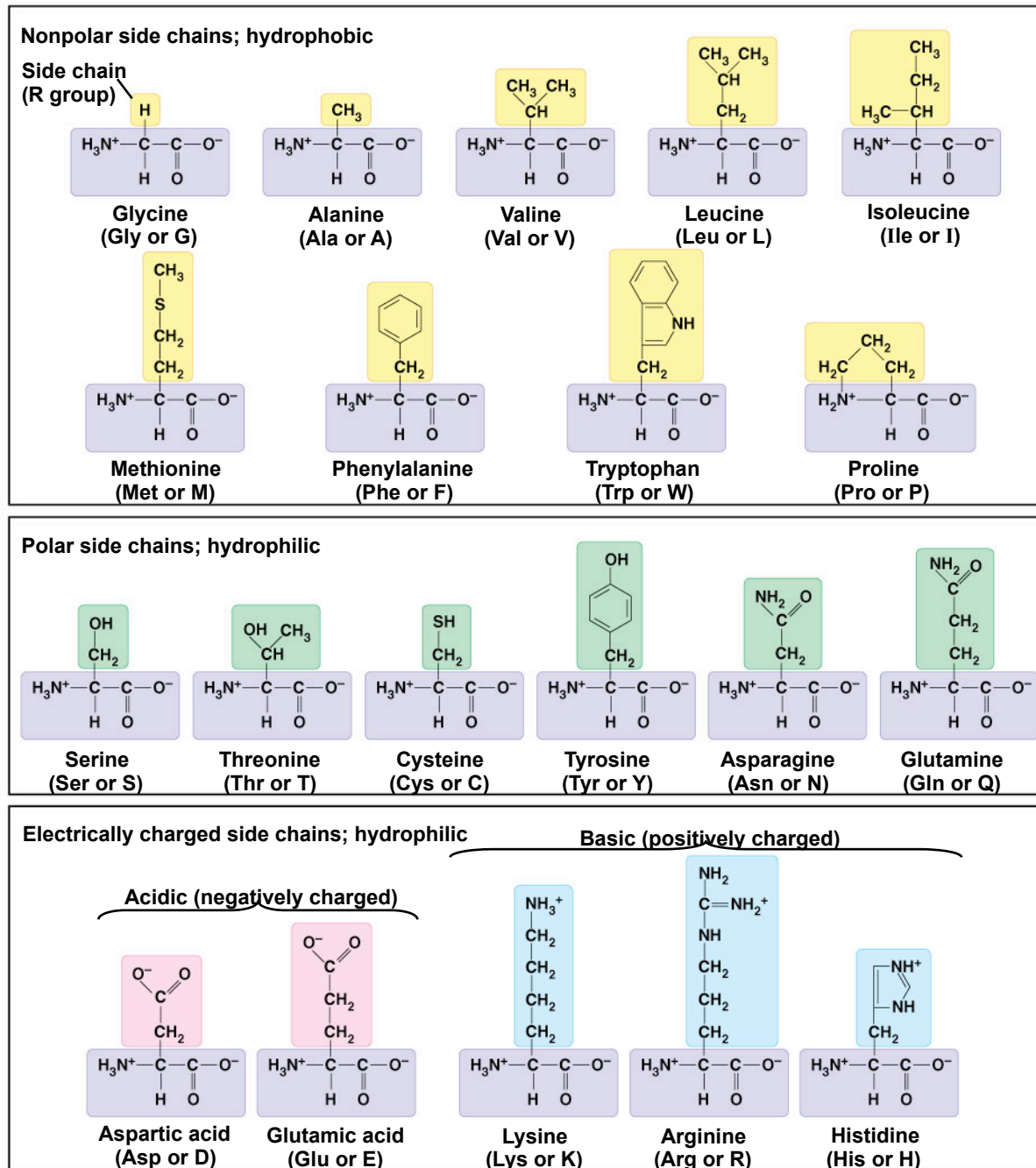
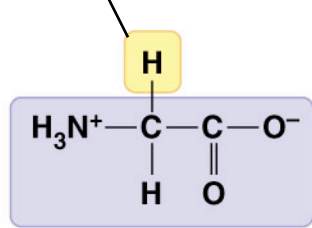


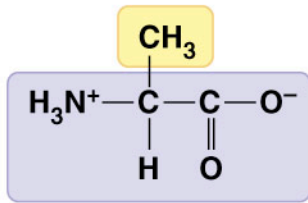
Figure 5.16a

Nonpolar side chains; hydrophobic

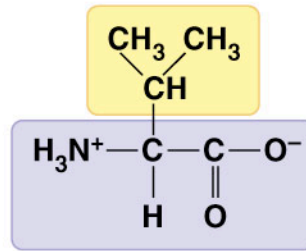
Side chain



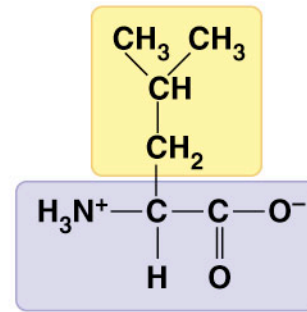
Glycine
(Gly or G)



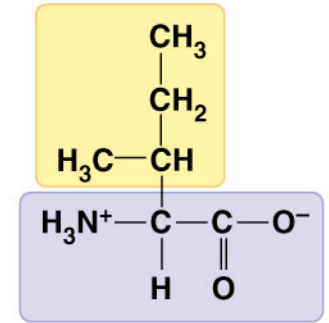
Alanine
(Ala or A)



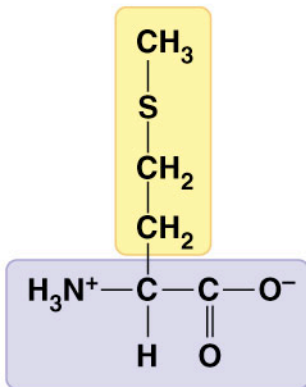
Valine
(Val or V)



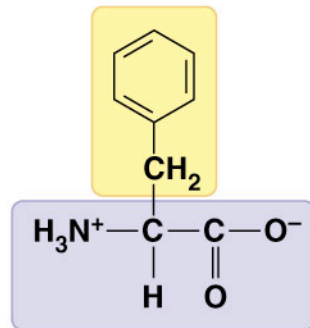
Leucine
(Leu or L)



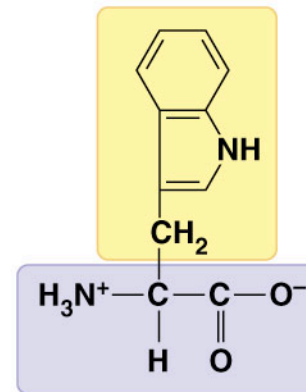
Isoleucine
(Ile or I)



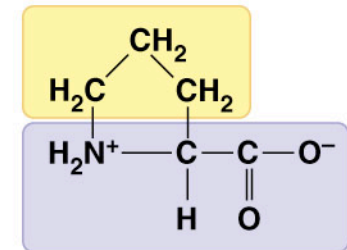
Methionine
(Met or M)



Phenylalanine
(Phe or F)



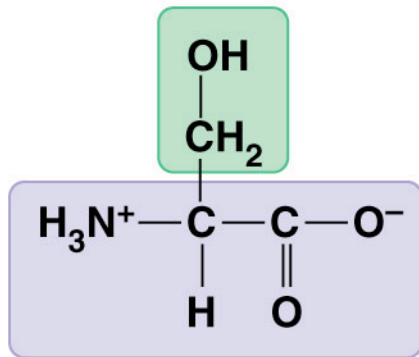
Tryptophan
(Trp or W)



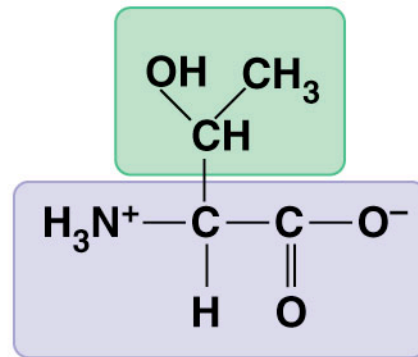
Proline
(Pro or P)

Figure 5.16b

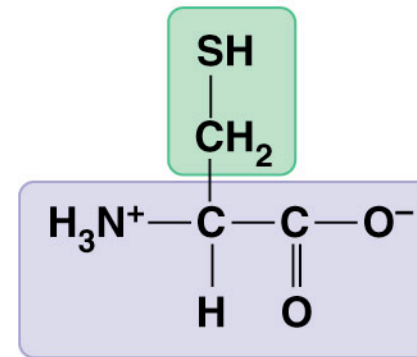
Polar side chains; hydrophilic



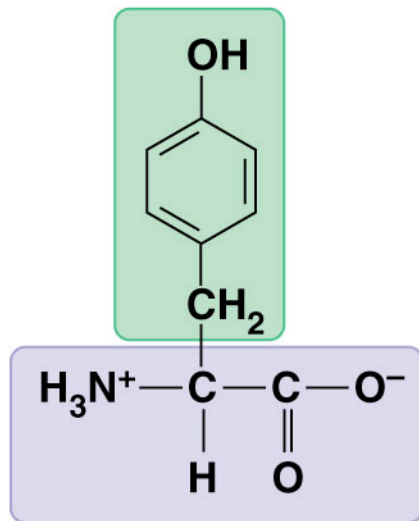
Serine
(Ser or S)



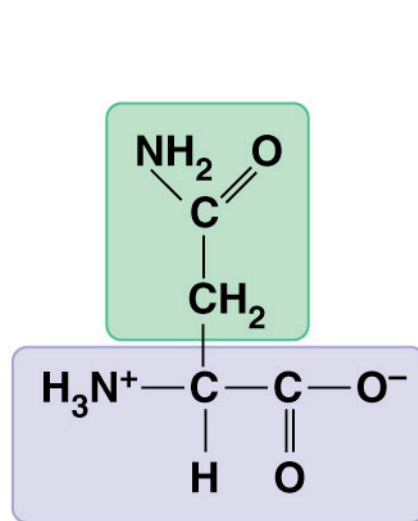
Threonine
(Thr or T)



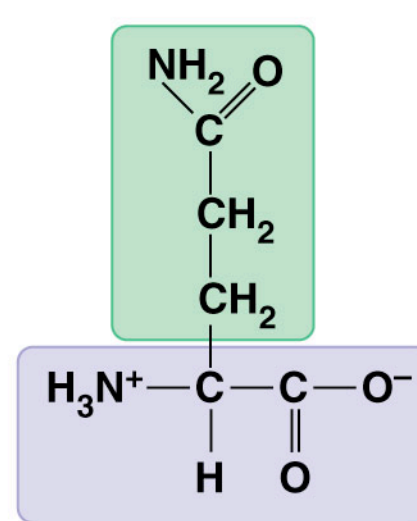
Cysteine
(Cys or C)



Tyrosine
(Tyr or Y)



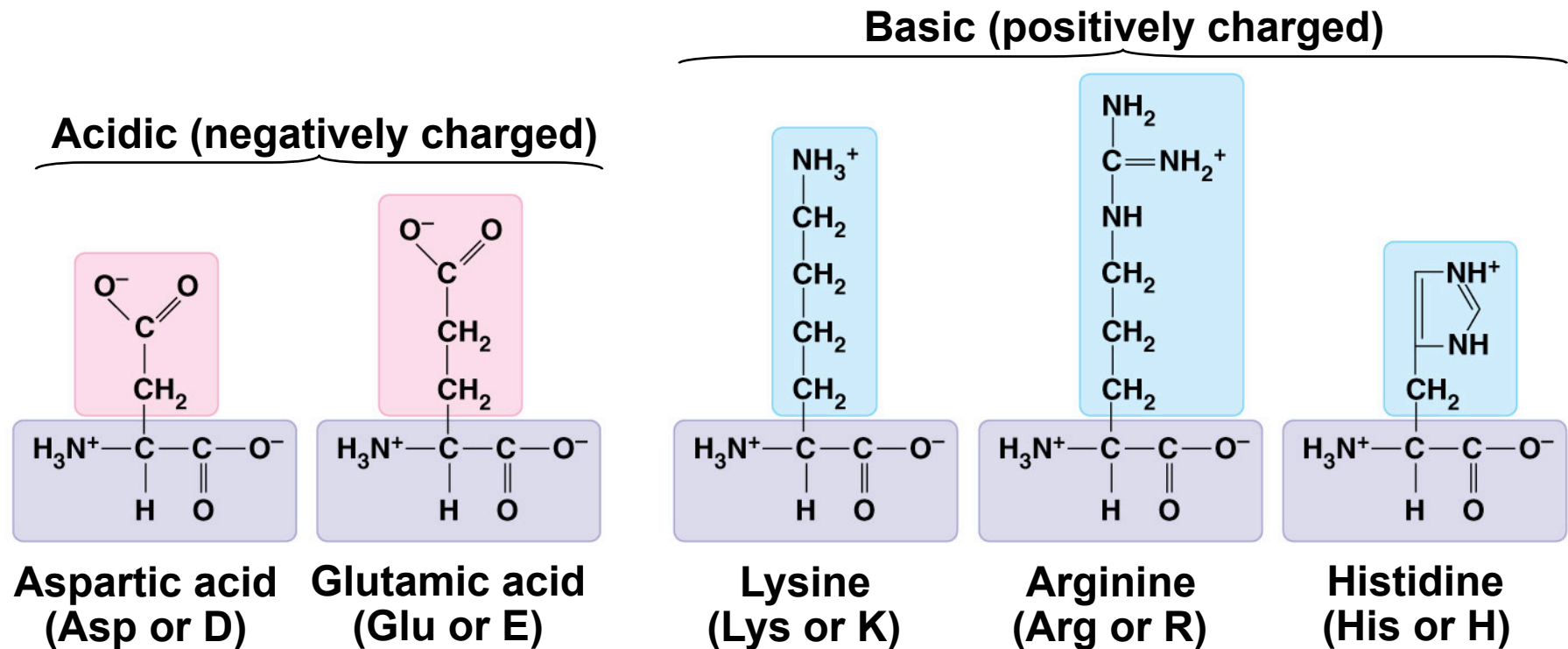
Asparagine
(Asn or N)



Glutamine
(Gln or Q)

Figure 5.16c

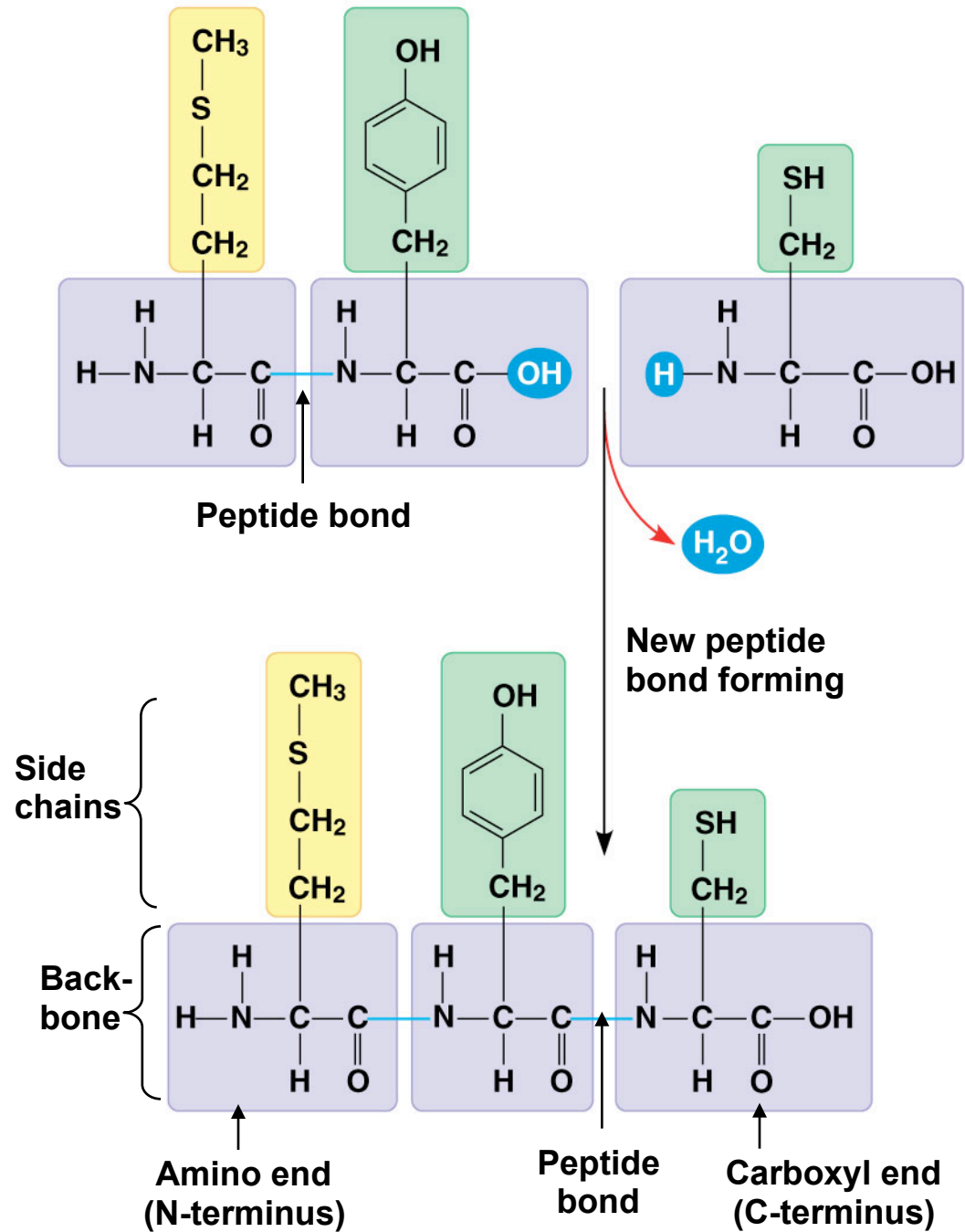
Electrically charged side chains; hydrophilic



Amino Acid Polymers

- Amino acids are linked by **peptide bonds**
- A polypeptide is a polymer of amino acids
- Polypeptides range in length from a few to more than a thousand monomers
- Each polypeptide has a unique linear sequence of amino acids, with a carboxyl end (C-terminus) and an amino end (N-terminus)

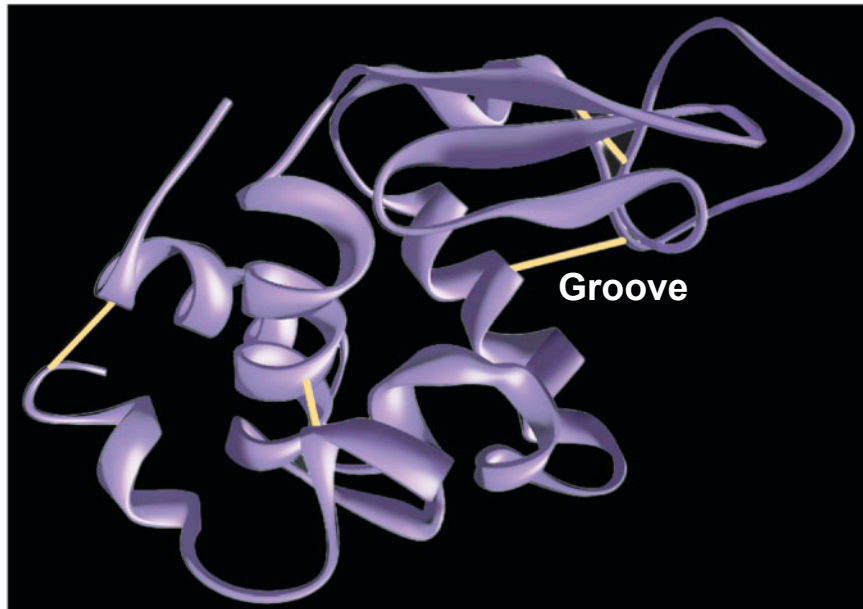
Figure 5.17



Protein Structure and Function

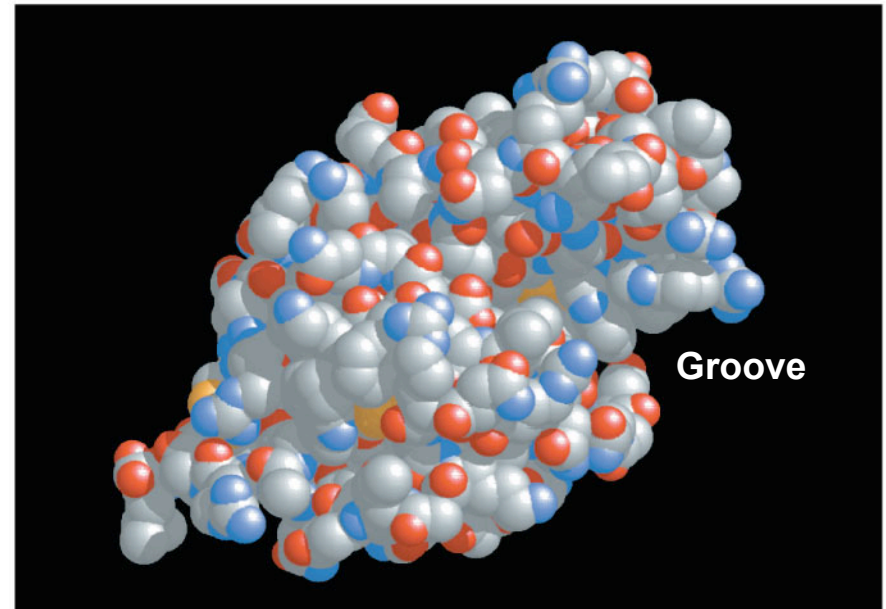
- A functional protein consists of one or more polypeptides precisely twisted, folded, and coiled into a unique shape

Figure 5.18



(a) A ribbon model

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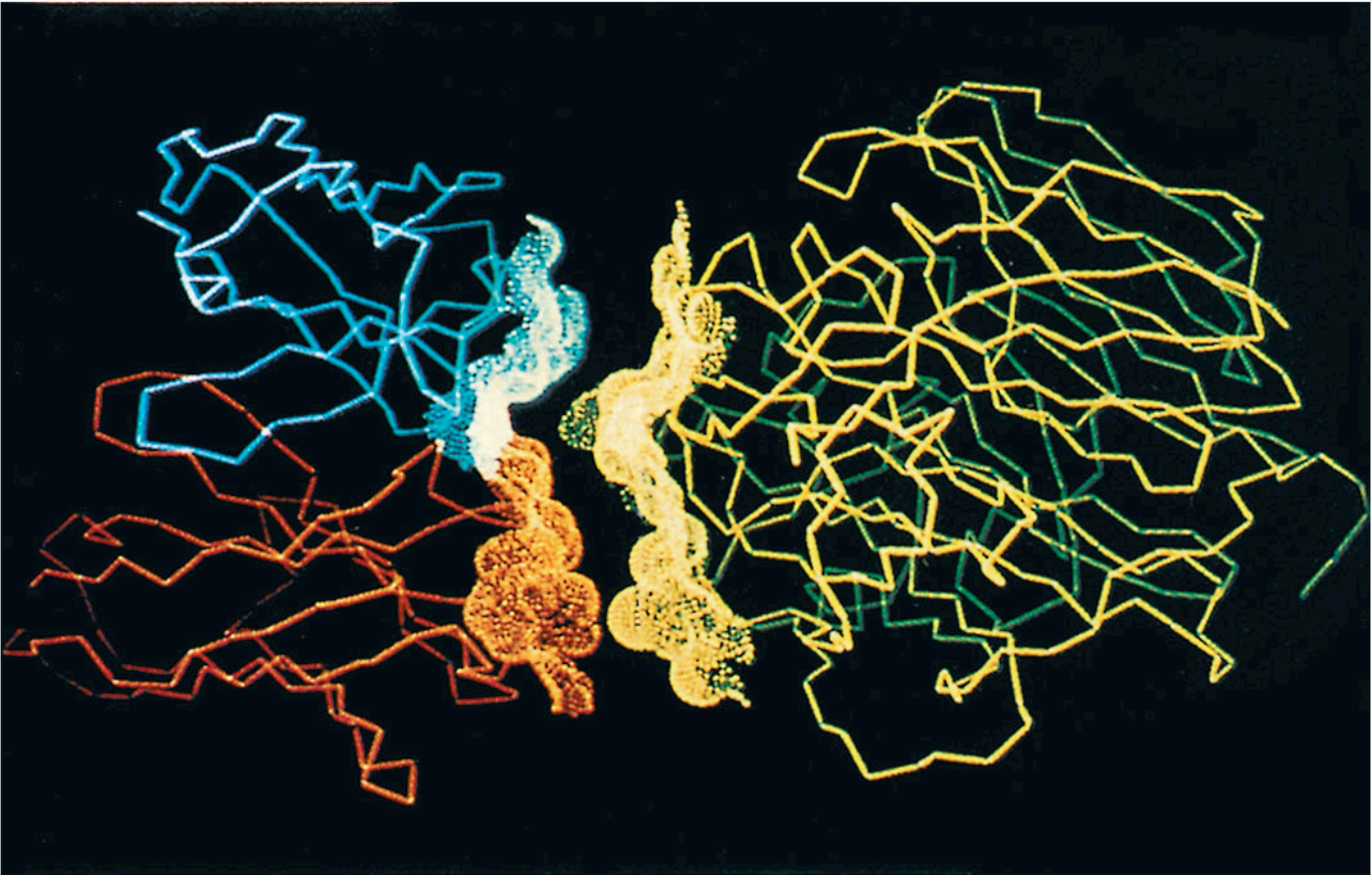
(b) A space-filling model

- The sequence of amino acids determines a protein's three-dimensional structure
- A protein's structure determines its function

Figure 5.19

Antibody protein

Protein from flu virus



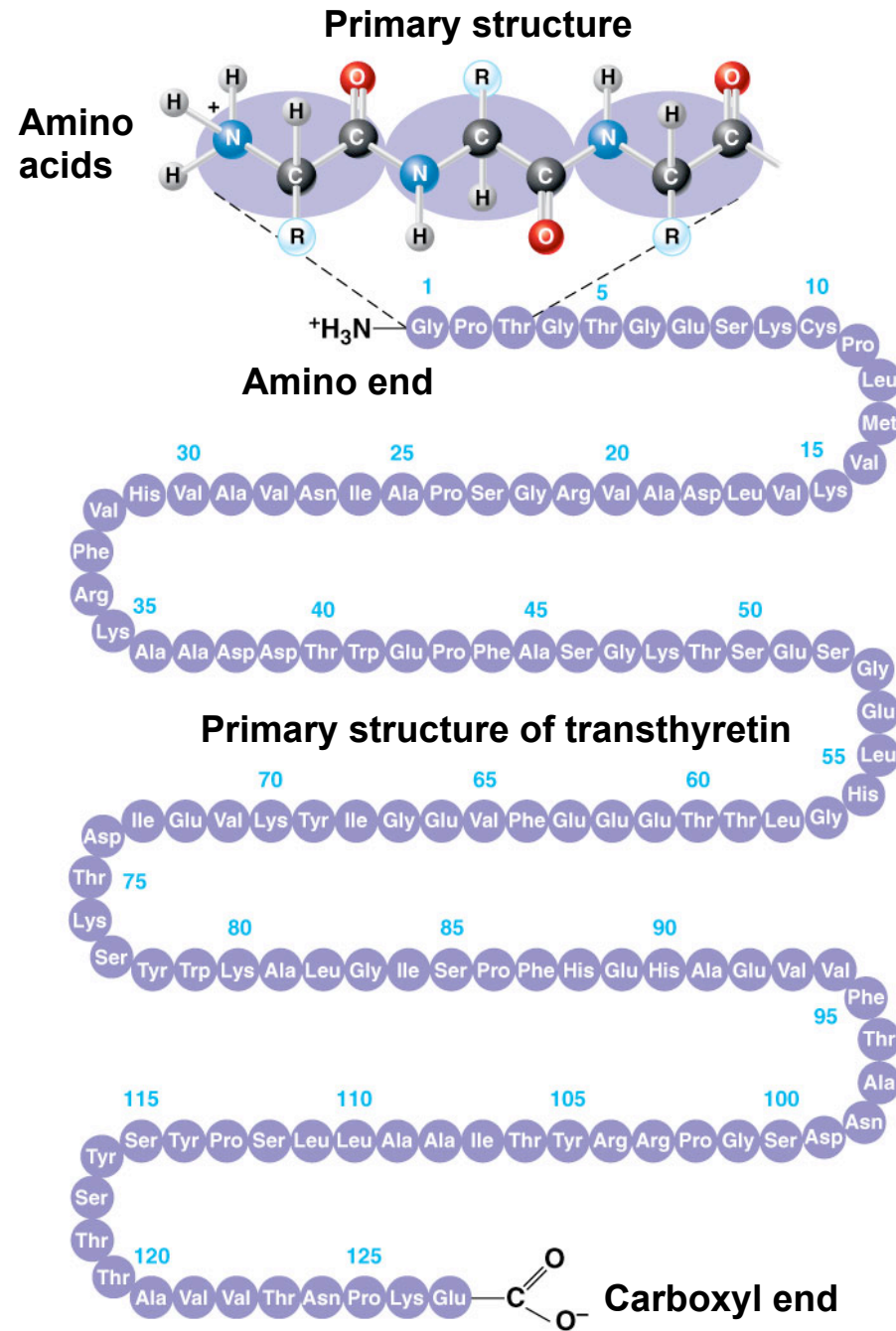
Four Levels of Protein Structure

- The primary structure of a protein is its unique sequence of amino acids
- Secondary structure, found in most proteins, consists of coils and folds in the polypeptide chain
- Tertiary structure is determined by interactions among various side chains (R groups)
- Quaternary structure results when a protein consists of multiple polypeptide chains



Animation: Protein Structure Introduction

Figure 5.20a

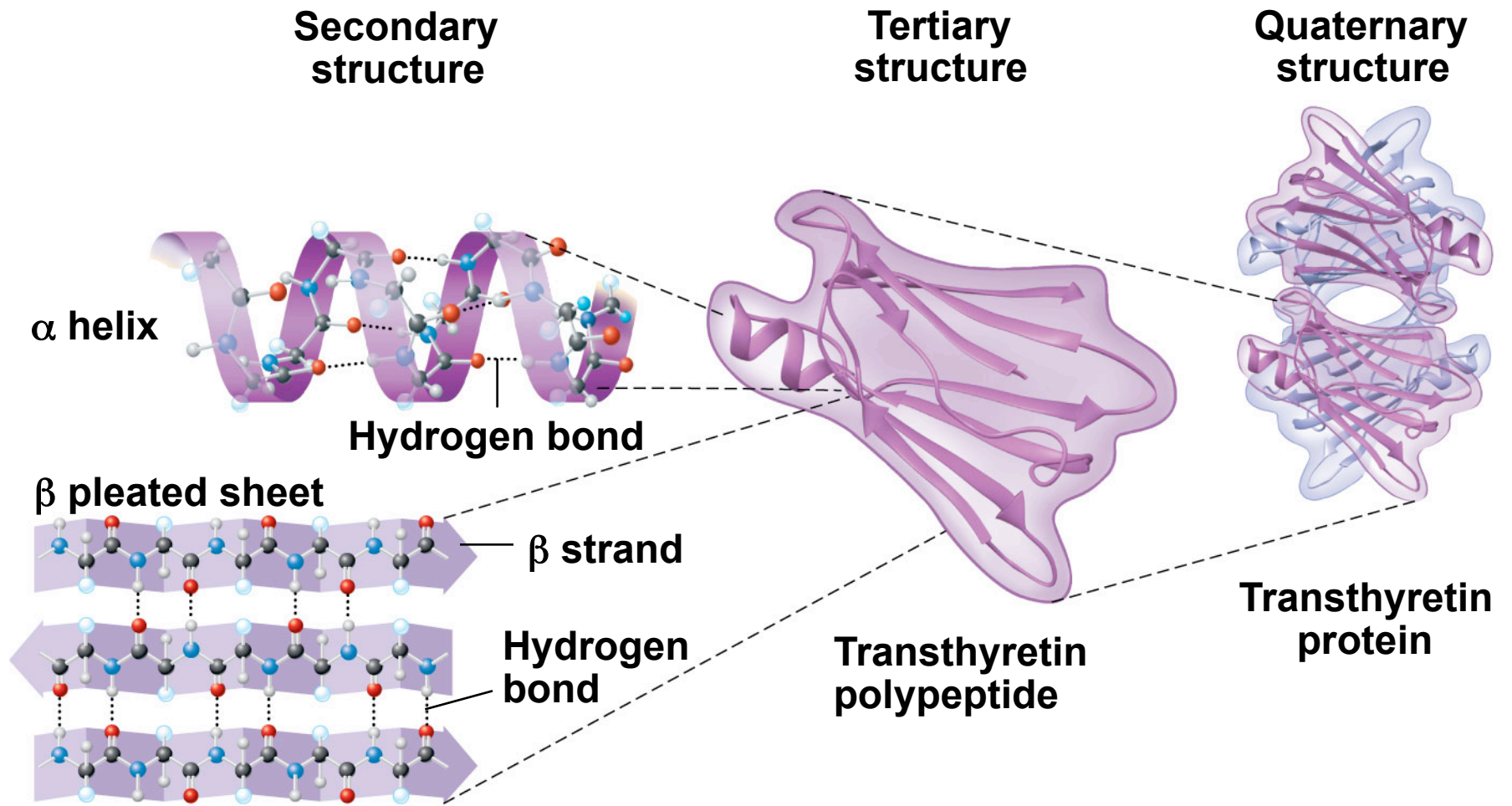


- **Primary structure**, the sequence of amino acids in a protein, is like the order of letters in a long word
- Primary structure is determined by inherited genetic information



Animation: Primary Protein Structure

Figure 5.20b



- The coils and folds of **secondary structure** result from hydrogen bonds between repeating constituents of the polypeptide backbone
- Typical secondary structures are a coil called an **α helix** and a folded structure called a **β pleated sheet**

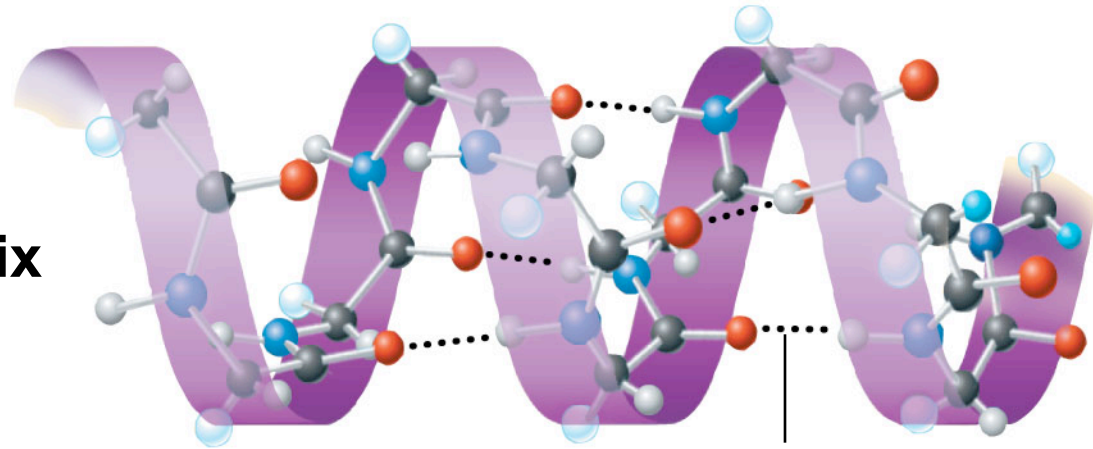


Animation: Secondary Protein Structure

Figure 5.20c

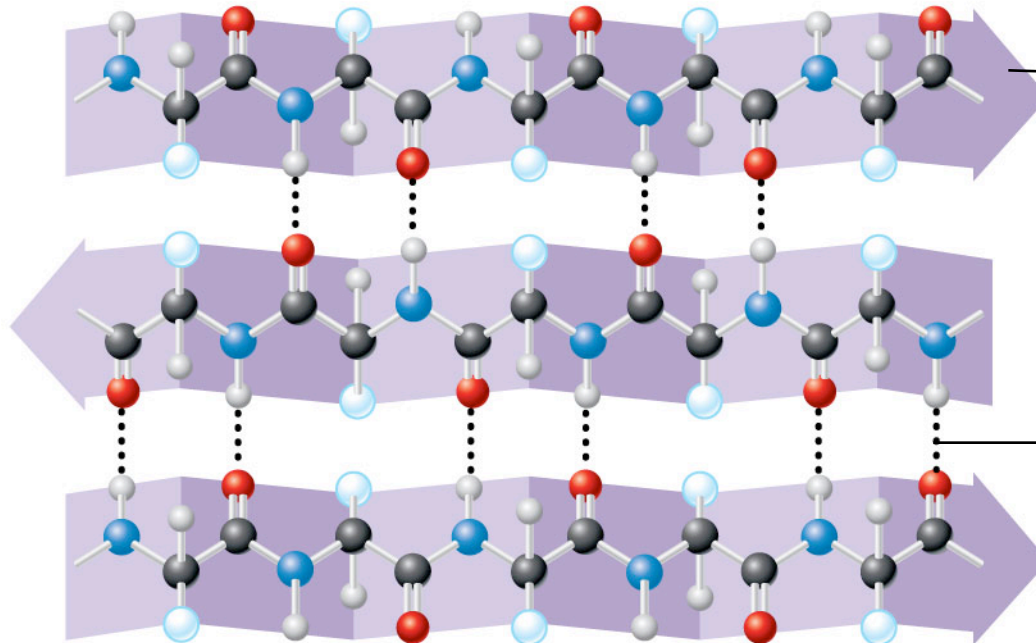
Secondary structure

α helix



Hydrogen bond

β pleated sheet



β strand, shown as a flat arrow pointing toward the carboxyl end

Hydrogen bond

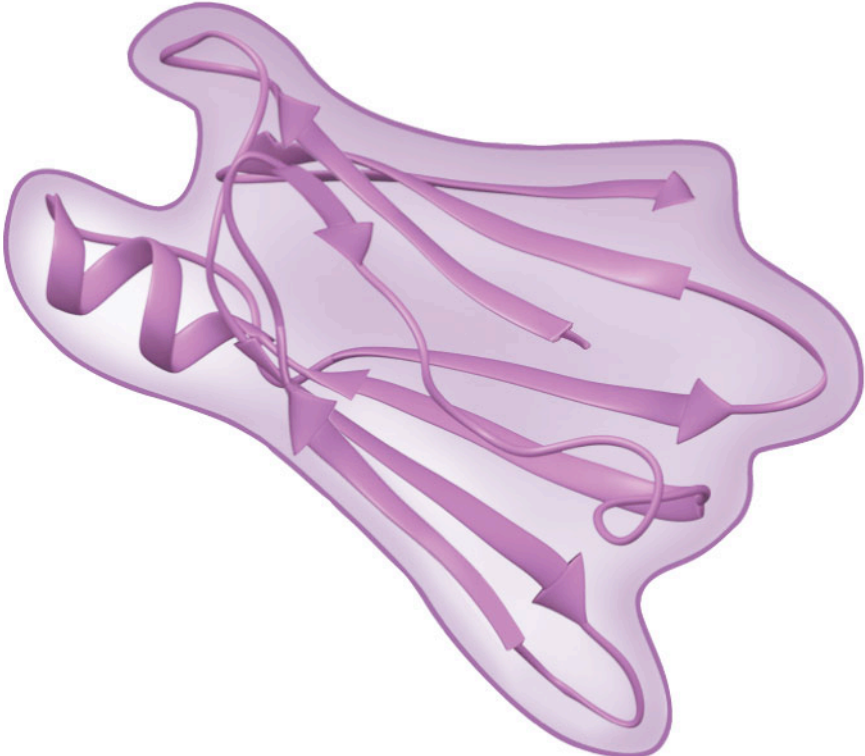
- **Tertiary structure** is determined by interactions between R groups, rather than interactions between backbone constituents
- These interactions between R groups include hydrogen bonds, ionic bonds, **hydrophobic interactions**, and van der Waals interactions
- Strong covalent bonds called **disulfide bridges** may reinforce the protein's structure



Animation: Tertiary Protein Structure

Figure 5.20e

Tertiary structure



Transthyretin polypeptide

Figure 5.20f

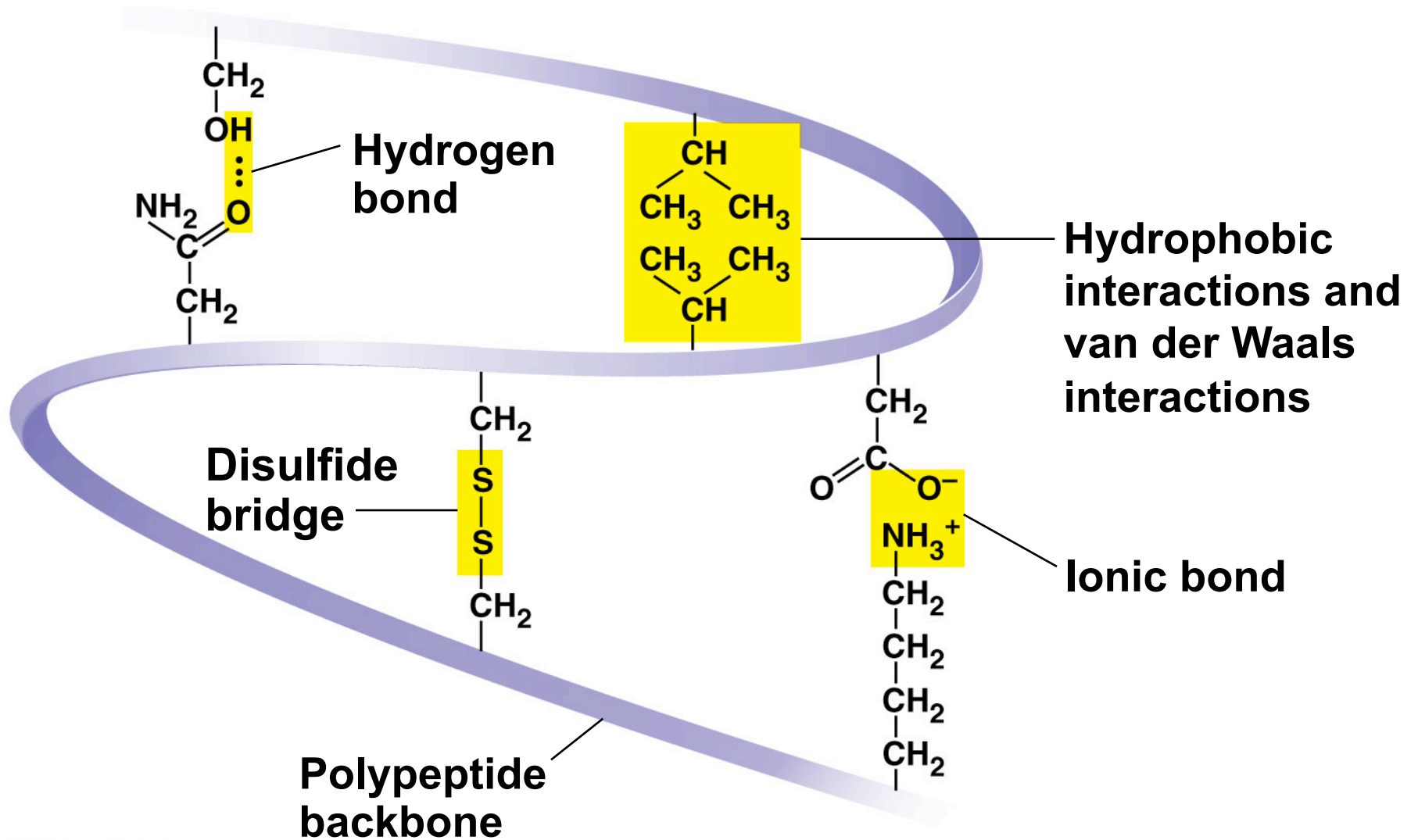
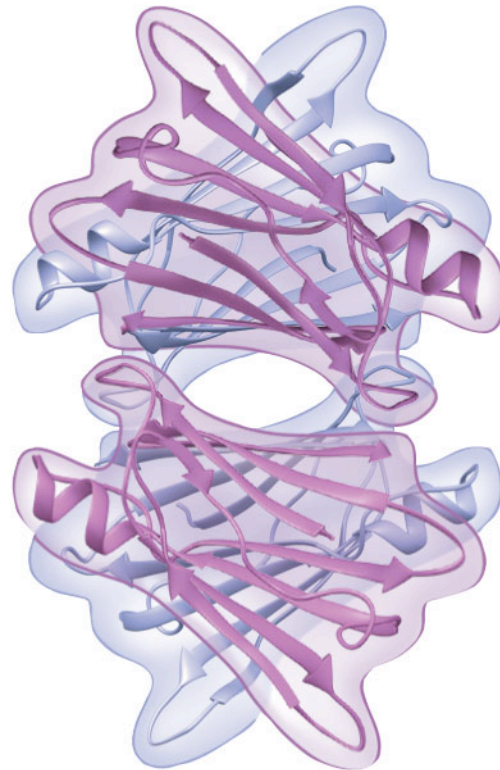


Figure 5.20g

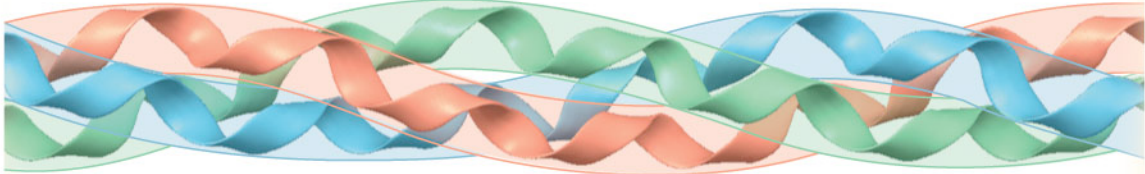
Quaternary structure



**Transthyretin
protein
(four identical
polypeptides)**

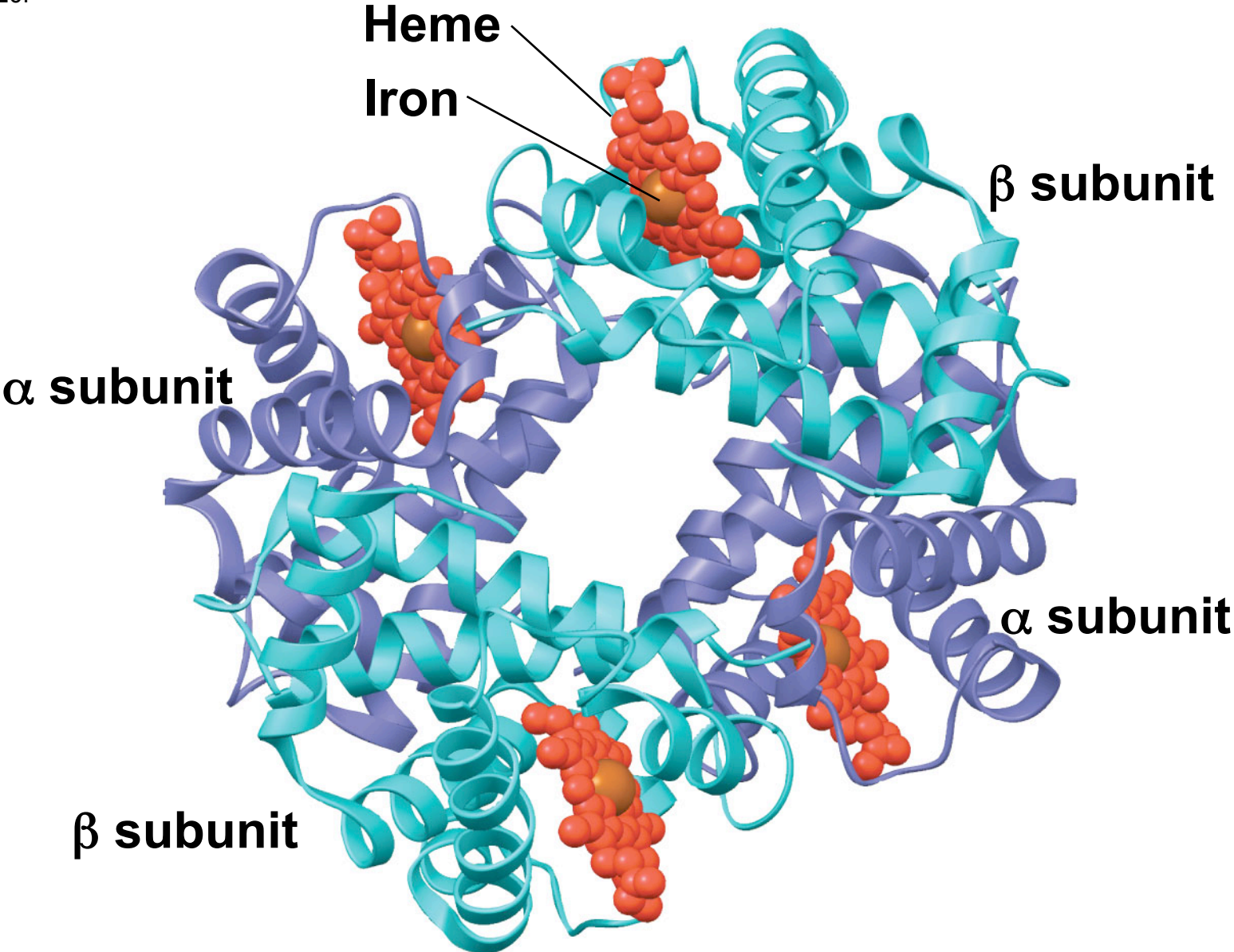
Figure 5.20h

Collagen



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Figure 5.20i



Hemoglobin

Figure 5.20j



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- **Quaternary structure** results when two or more polypeptide chains form one macromolecule
- Collagen is a fibrous protein consisting of three polypeptides coiled like a rope
- Hemoglobin is a globular protein consisting of four polypeptides: two alpha and two beta chains



Animation: Quaternary Protein Structure

Sickle-Cell Disease: A Change in Primary Structure

- A slight change in primary structure can affect a protein's structure and ability to function
- **Sickle-cell disease**, an inherited blood disorder, results from a single amino acid substitution in the protein hemoglobin

Figure 5.21

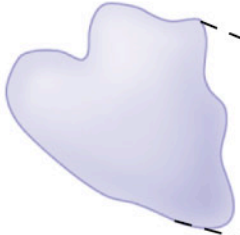
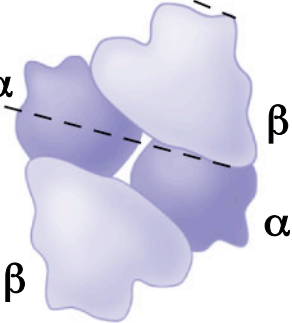
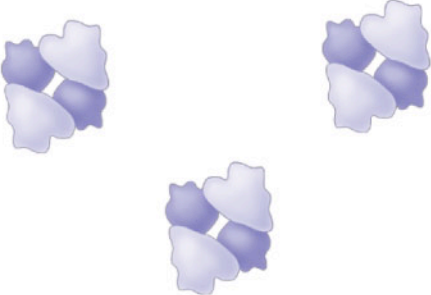
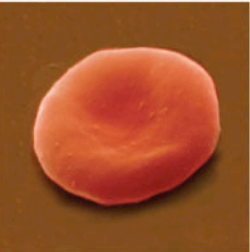
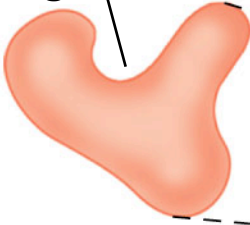
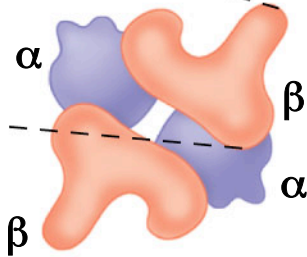
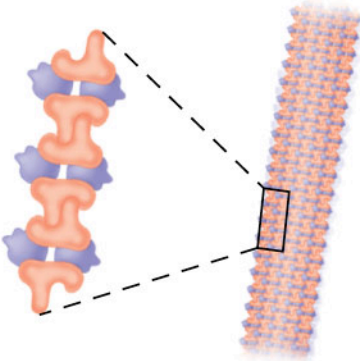
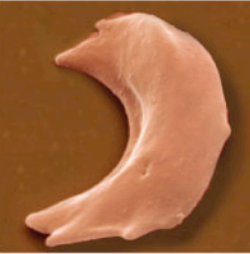
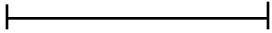
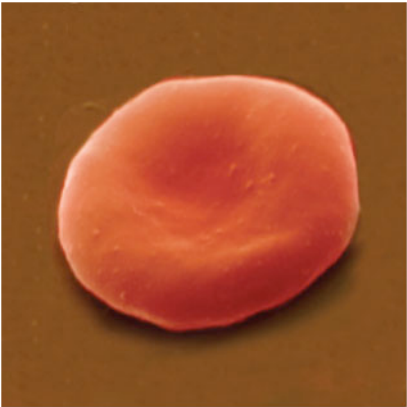
	Primary Structure	Secondary and Tertiary Structures	Quaternary Structure	Function	Red Blood Cell Shape
Normal hemoglobin	1 Val 2 His 3 Leu 4 Thr 5 Pro 6 Glu 7 Glu	 <p>β subunit</p>	Normal hemoglobin 	Molecules do not associate with one another; each carries oxygen. 	 <p>10 μm</p>
Sickle-cell hemoglobin	1 Val 2 His 3 Leu 4 Thr 5 Pro 6 Val 7 Glu	Exposed hydrophobic region  <p>β subunit</p>	Sickle-cell hemoglobin 	Molecules crystallize into a fiber; capacity to carry oxygen is reduced. 	 <p>10 μm</p>

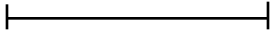
Figure 5.21a



10 μm

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Figure 5.21b



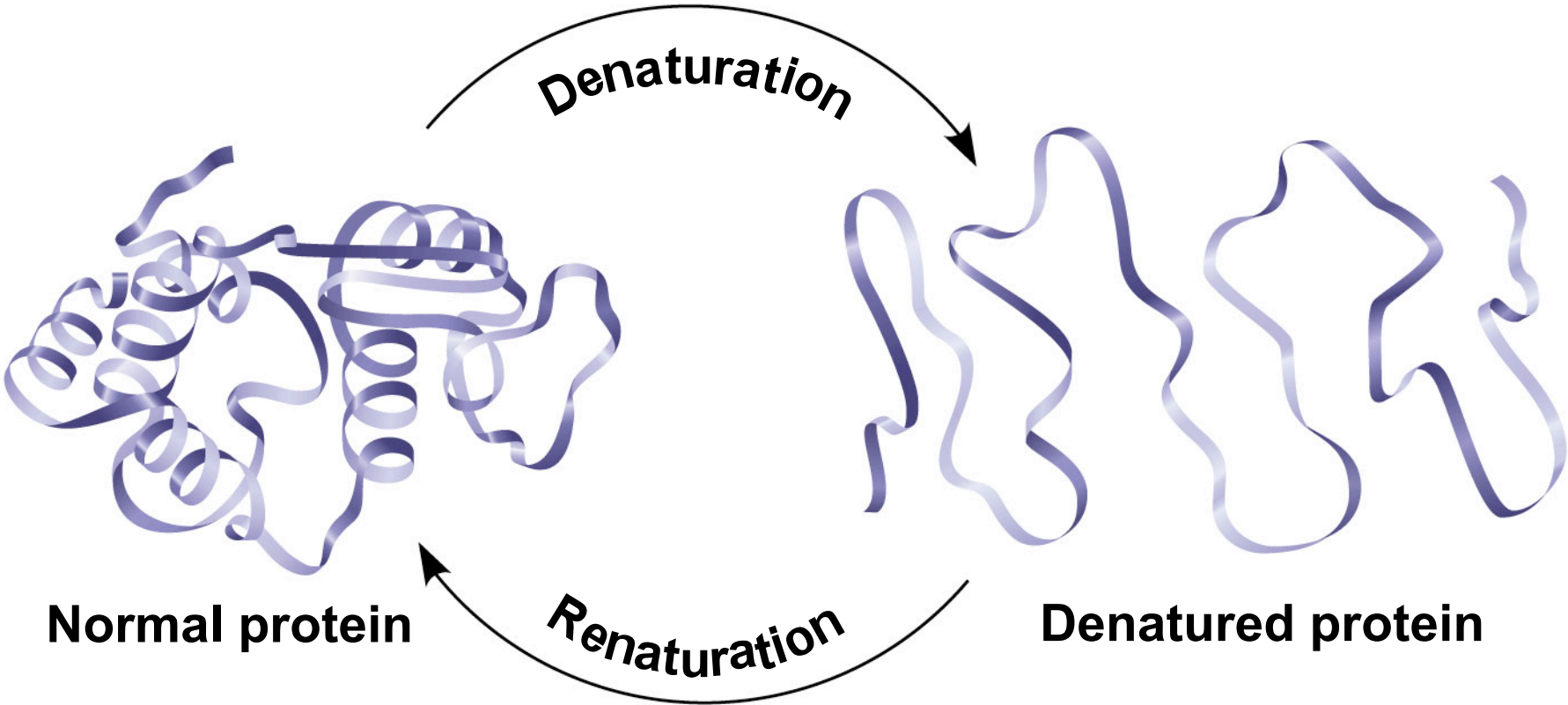
10 μm

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What Determines Protein Structure?

- In addition to primary structure, physical and chemical conditions can affect structure
- Alterations in pH, salt concentration, temperature, or other environmental factors can cause a protein to unravel
- This loss of a protein's native structure is called **denaturation**
- A denatured protein is biologically inactive

Figure 5.22



Protein Folding in the Cell

- It is hard to predict a protein's structure from its primary structure
- Most proteins probably go through several stages on their way to a stable structure
- **Chaperonins** are protein molecules that assist the proper folding of other proteins
- Diseases such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and mad cow disease are associated with misfolded proteins

Figure 5.23

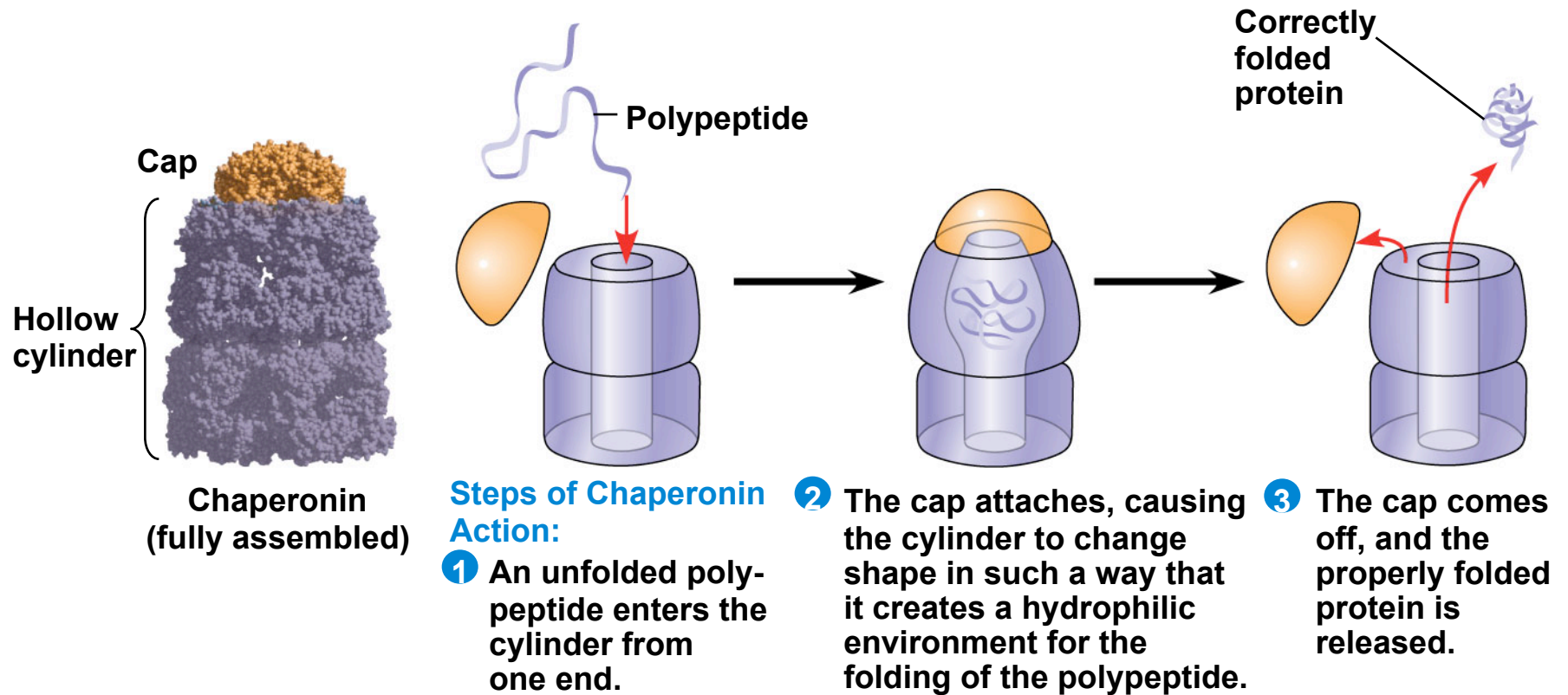
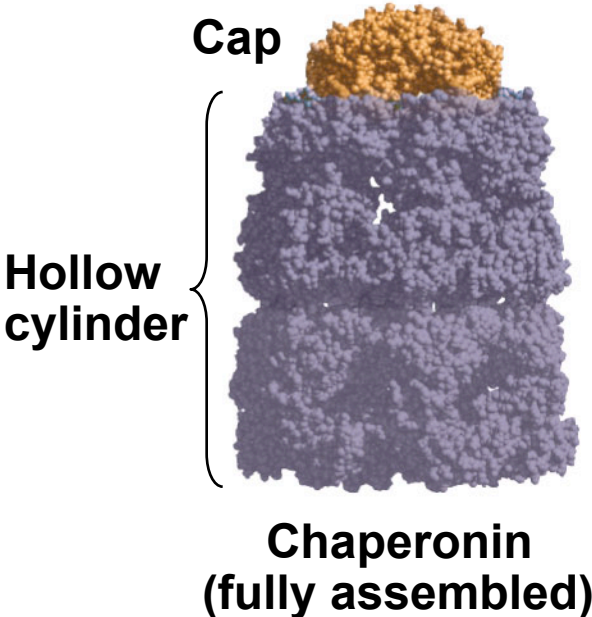
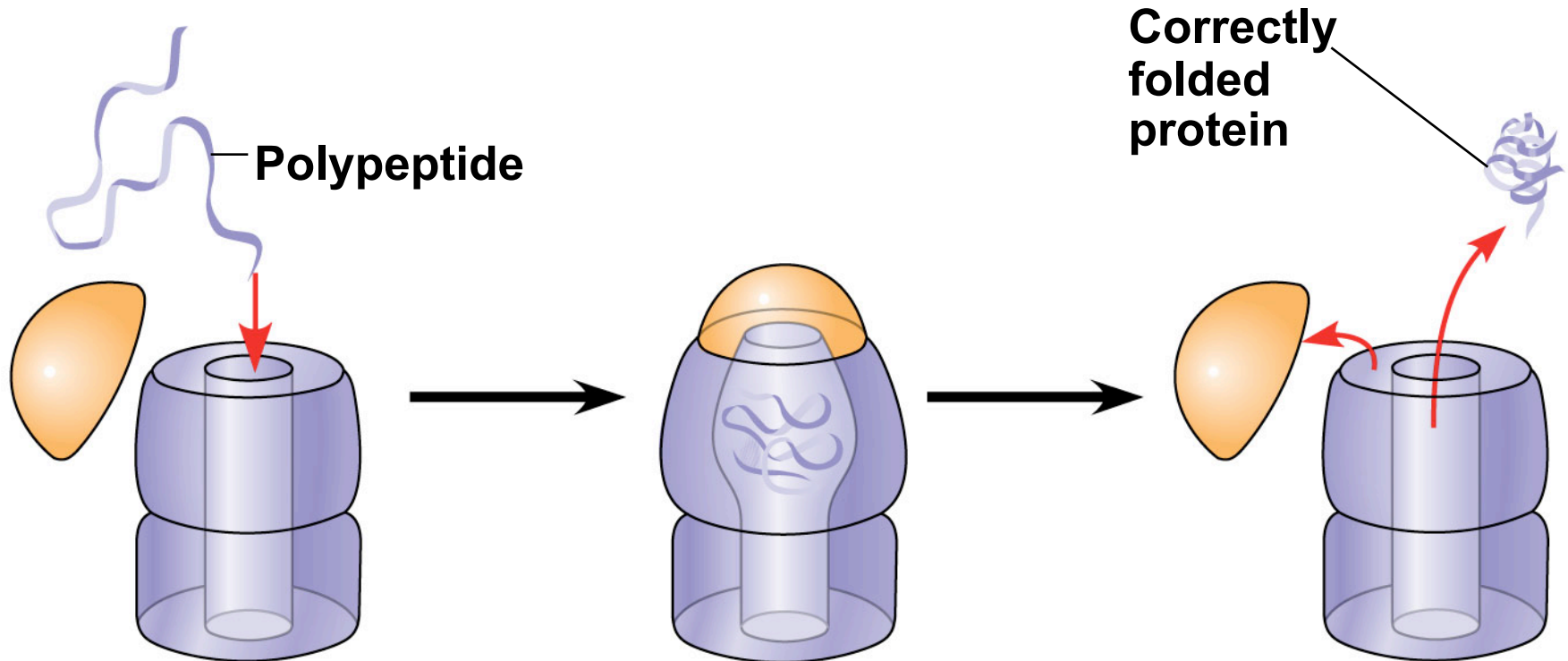


Figure 5.23a



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Figure 5.23b



Steps of Chaperonin Action:

1 An unfolded polypeptide enters the cylinder from one end.

2 The cap attaches, causing the cylinder to change shape in such a way that it creates a hydrophilic environment for the folding of the polypeptide.

3 The cap comes off, and the properly folded protein is released.

Concept 5.5: Nucleic acids store, transmit, and help express hereditary information

- The amino acid sequence of a polypeptide is programmed by a unit of inheritance called a **gene**
- Genes are made of DNA, a **nucleic acid** made of monomers called nucleotides

The Roles of Nucleic Acids

- There are two types of nucleic acids
 - **Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)**
 - **Ribonucleic acid (RNA)**
- DNA provides directions for its own replication
- DNA directs synthesis of messenger RNA (mRNA) and, through mRNA, controls protein synthesis
- Protein synthesis occurs on ribosomes

Figure 5.25-1

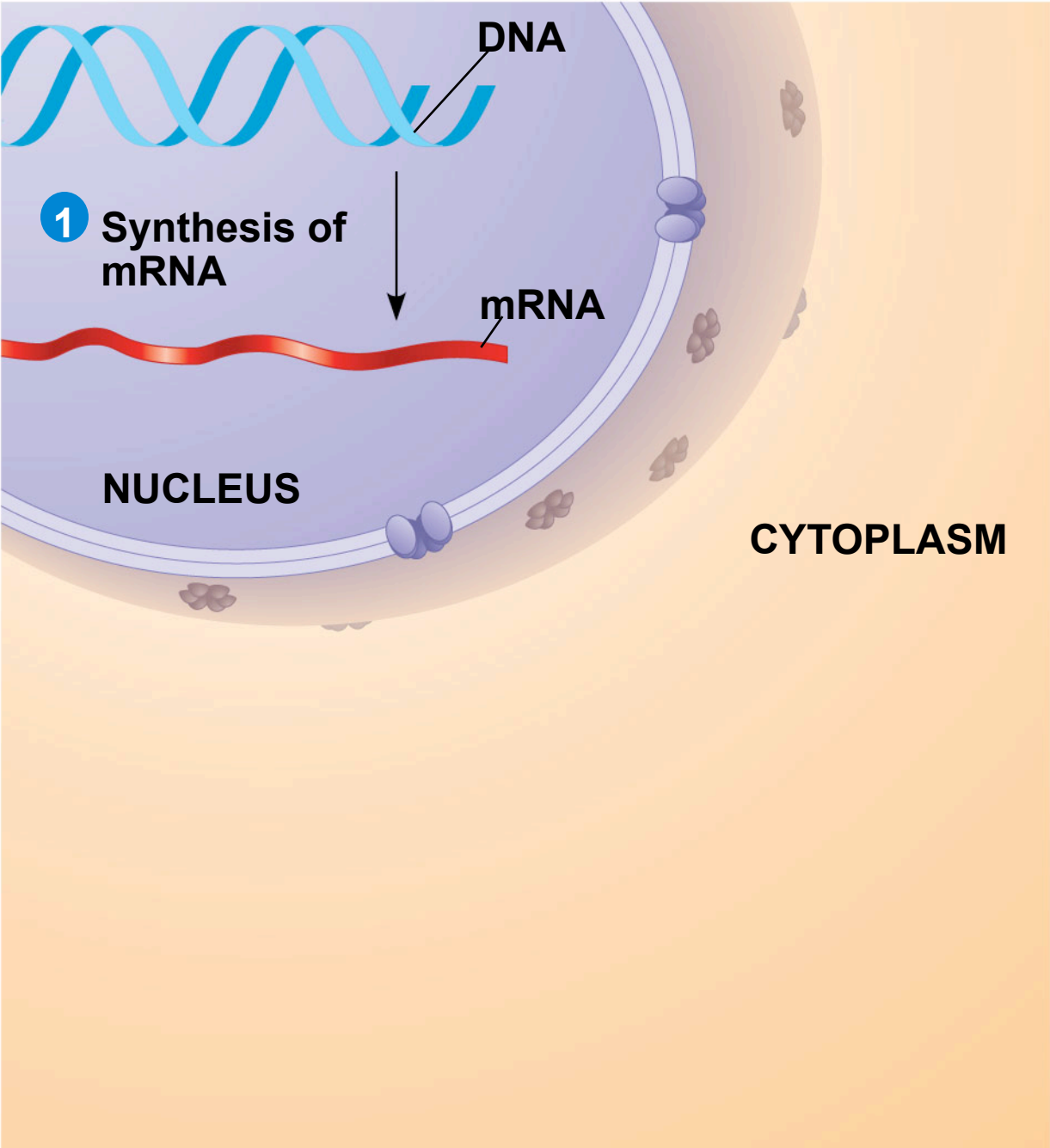


Figure 5.25-2

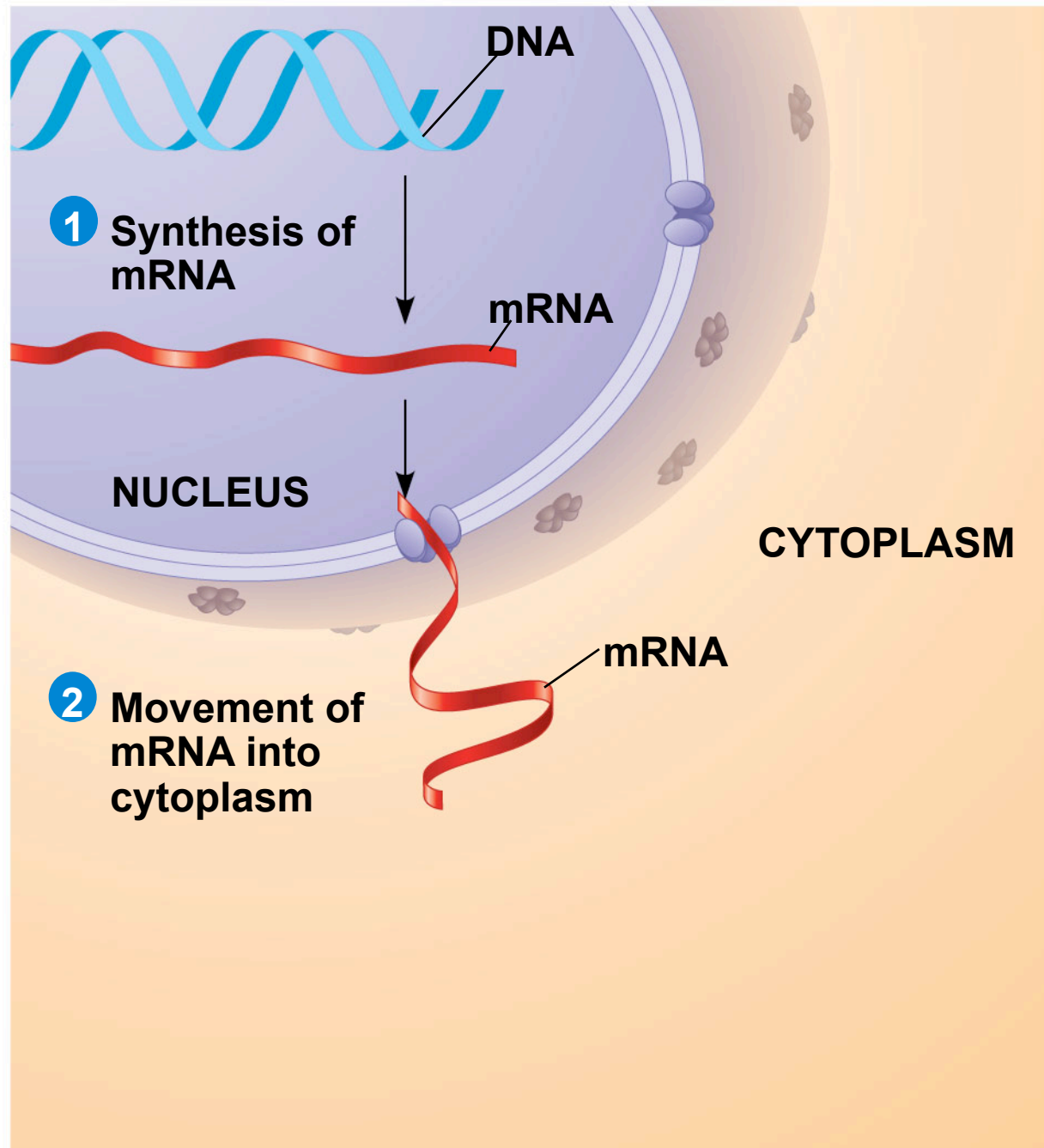
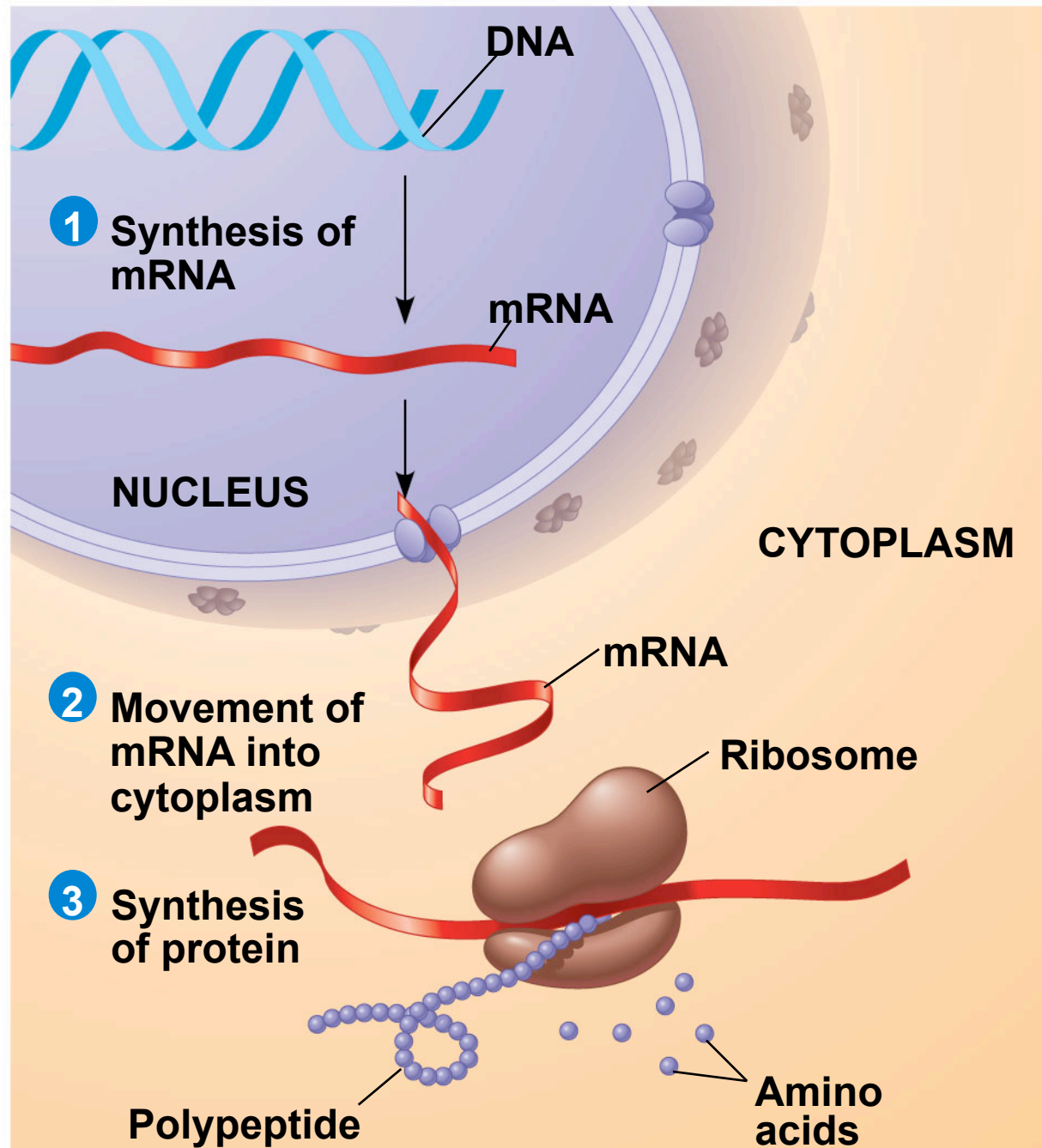


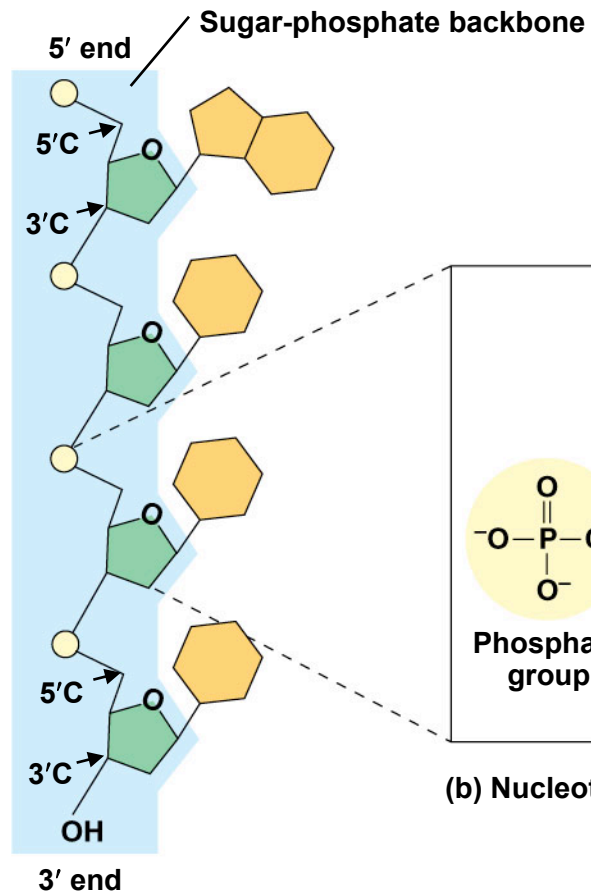
Figure 5.25-3



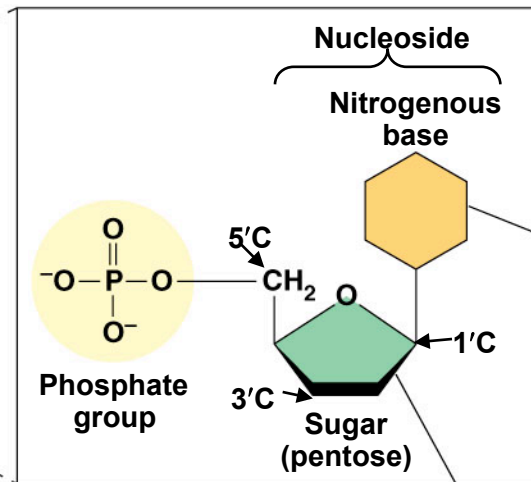
The Components of Nucleic Acids

- Nucleic acids are polymers called **polynucleotides**
- Each polynucleotide is made of monomers called **nucleotides**
- Each nucleotide consists of a nitrogenous base, a pentose sugar, and one or more phosphate groups
- The portion of a nucleotide without the phosphate group is called a nucleoside

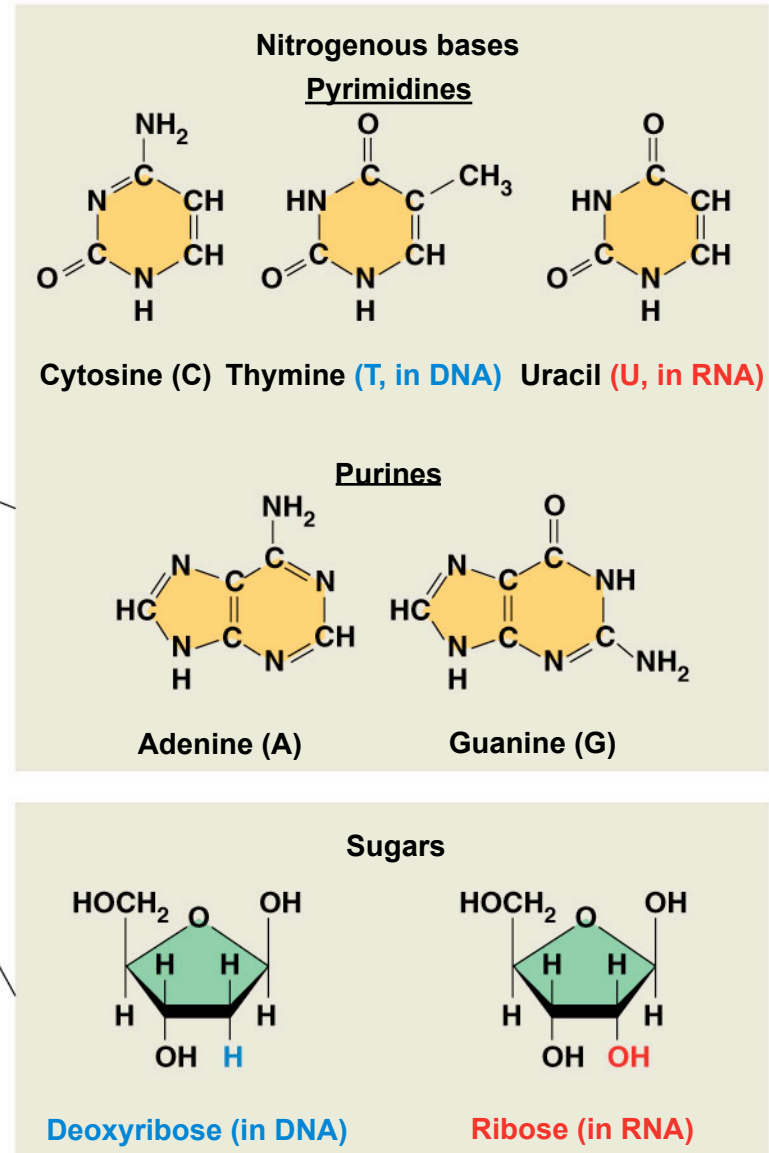
Figure 5.26



(a) Polynucleotide, or nucleic acid



(b) Nucleotide



(c) Nucleoside components

Figure 5.26ab

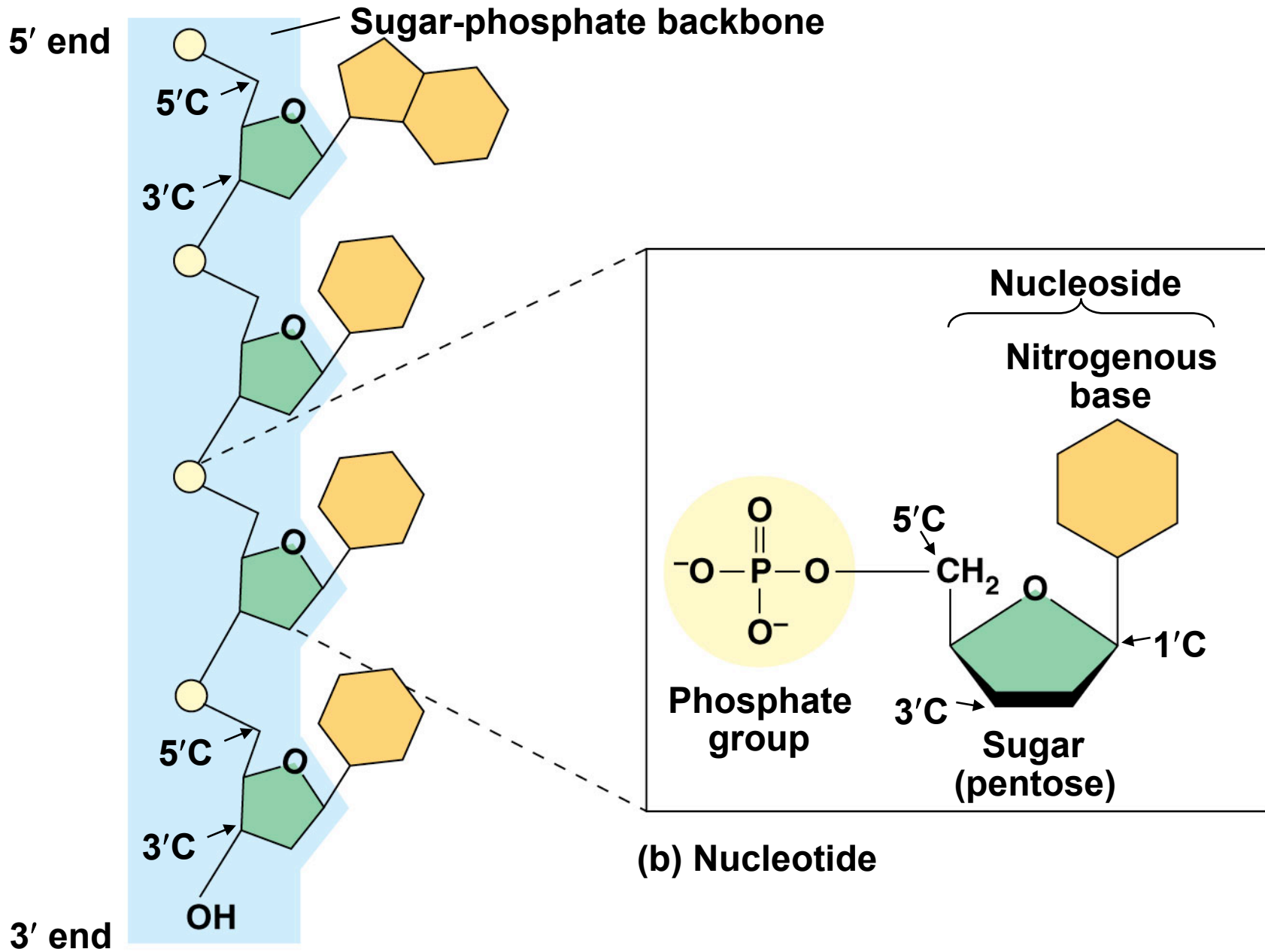
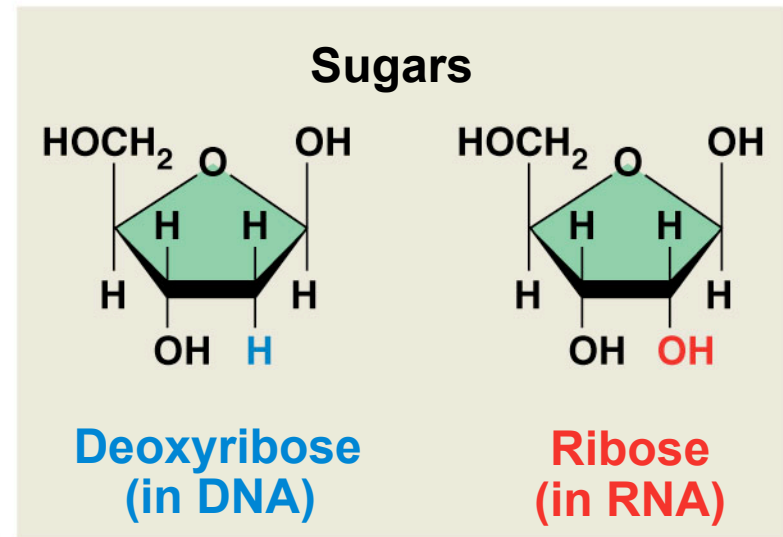
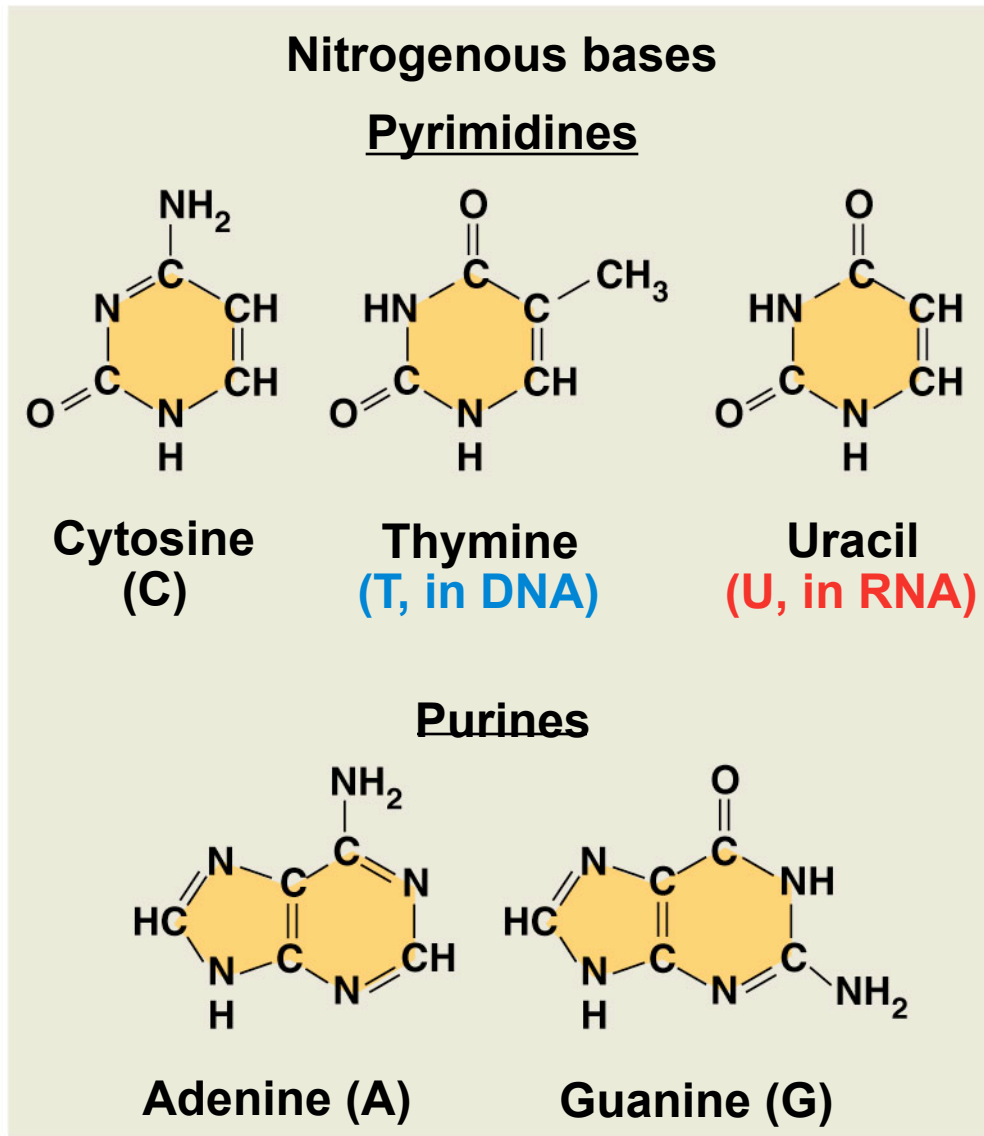


Figure 5.26c



(c) Nucleoside components

- Nucleoside = nitrogenous base + sugar
- There are two families of nitrogenous bases
 - **Pyrimidines** (cytosine, thymine, and uracil) have a single six-membered ring
 - **Purines** (adenine and guanine) have a six-membered ring fused to a five-membered ring
- In DNA, the sugar is **deoxyribose**; in RNA, the sugar is **ribose**
- Nucleotide = nucleoside + phosphate group

Nucleotide Polymers

- Nucleotide polymers are linked together to build a polynucleotide
- Adjacent nucleotides are joined by covalent bonds that form between the —OH group on the 3' carbon of one nucleotide and the phosphate on the 5' carbon on the next
- These links create a backbone of sugar-phosphate units with nitrogenous bases as appendages
- The sequence of bases along a DNA or mRNA polymer is unique for each gene

The Structures of DNA and RNA Molecules

- RNA molecules usually exist as single polypeptide chains
- DNA molecules have two polynucleotides spiraling around an imaginary axis, forming a **double helix**
- In the DNA double helix, the two backbones run in opposite $5' \rightarrow 3'$ directions from each other, an arrangement referred to as **antiparallel**
- One DNA molecule includes many genes

- The nitrogenous bases in DNA pair up and form hydrogen bonds: adenine (A) always with thymine (T), and guanine (G) always with cytosine (C)
- Called complementary base pairing
- Complementary pairing can also occur between two RNA molecules or between parts of the same molecule
- In RNA, thymine is replaced by uracil (U) so A and U pair

Figure 5.27

