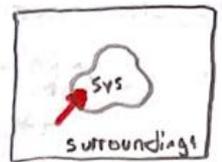


Chapter 4: Energy

1) The first 3 Laws of Thermodynamics, enthalpy, entropy & free energy
 1) Energy cannot be created or destroyed: it is conserved
 In chemical reactions, energy flows between the system and surroundings
 This is the **enthalpy change (ΔH)**. It is the energy transferred through heat or volume at constant pressure.



Endothermic
 Products: higher potential E



Exothermic
 Products: lower potential E

2) The entropy of the universe is always increasing
 Formula: $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$
 ΔG = Free Energy available to do work
 ΔH = Enthalpy: change in heat
 ΔS = Entropy: change in disorder
 T = temp in K ($^{\circ}C + 273^{\circ}$)

3) As the temp of a perfect crystalline solid approaches $0^{\circ}K$, disorder approaches zero. All movement stops at atomic level

$\Delta G < 0$ The reaction is spontaneous
 $\Delta G > 0$ The reaction is nonspontaneous
 $\Delta G = 0$ Equilibrium

Standard Free Energy

ΔG° = defined for reactions at $25^{\circ}C$, 1 atm, 1 M conc.
 ΔG° = defines for standard conditions with $pH=7$ also
 ΔG^{\prime} = nonstandard conditions with $pH=7$, $[H^+]$ left out of Equilibrium quotient

2) State functions (Hess's law)

- 1) If rxn is reversed, the sign is flipped
- 2) If you add rxns, add state functions
- 3) If you multiply rxns, multiply state functions by the same value.

$\Delta H_{rxn} = \sum \Delta H_{products} - \sum \Delta H_{reactants}$
 ΔH = sum of ΔH for each step

3) Entropy of the universe

$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$

favorable	(-)	(-)	(+)
unfavorable	(+)	(+)	(-)
dependant	?	(-)	(-)
	?	(+)	(+)

$\Delta S > 0$: ΔS = Entropy

4) Gibbs free energy (ΔG° , ΔG^{\prime}) equilibrium expressions and constants

$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln Q$ $\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ}$ when $P=1 \text{ atm}$, 1.0 M , $25^{\circ}C$, $pH=7$
 if $\Delta G = 0$, then $\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln K$
 $Q = \frac{[products]}{[reactants]} = K$ (at equilibrium)
 Hess's Law affects eq. constant
 equation is reversed = $\frac{1}{K}$
 multiplied by $x = (K)^x$
 divided by $x = \sqrt[x]{K}$
 equations are added = $K_1 \times K_2$

K	ln K	ΔG°	Result at Equilibrium
> 1	(+)	(-)	products are favored
$= 1$	0	0	neutral
< 1	(-)	(+)	reactants are favored

Sign of ΔG° will tell us which direction the rxn goes to reach eq.

Problem types using ΔG° and K

- Given K, find ΔG° $\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln K$
 - Given ΔG° , find K $K = e^{-\Delta G^{\circ}/RT}$
 - Find conc. of species at Equilibrium
- $\ln \frac{[prod]}{[react]} = \frac{-\Delta G^{\circ}}{RT}$

5) Coupled reactions

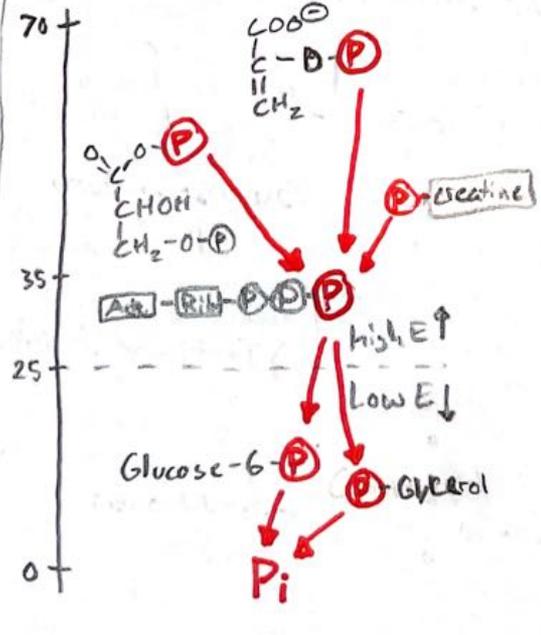
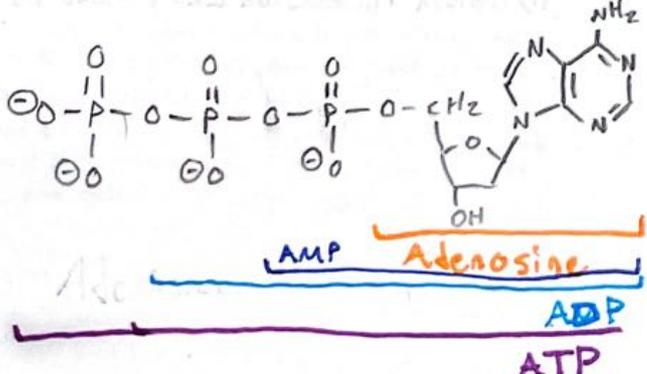
nonspontaneous rxns can be coupled with spontaneous ones to drive a process forward. Using products from one rxn in another rxn as reactants is a common way to save E

6) hydrophobic effect and folding proteins

hydrophobic R groups will be found on the inside of the protein away from the polar solvents.

7) ATP and the phosphoryl-group transfer potential (phosphoanhydrides, phosphoesters, & E of hydrolysis)

2 types of reactions together provide the energy required in metabolic processes
 Principal electrons carriers: NADH, NADPH and FADH₂
 Adenoside triphosphate is a nucleotide used in energy currency



Phosphoryl-group transfer potential
 P -bonded to molecules at high E drop down to make ATP
 ATP is then used to couple rxns
 ATP is an intermediate

8) Why we don't talk about 'breaking high E bonds' to release Energy, why is $\Delta G^{\circ} < 0$
 Breaking bonds takes E
 Making bonds gives E
 The two are coupled to form a net $-\Delta G^{\circ}$

Chapter 5: Amino Acids, Peptides & Proteins

1) Names, Structures, classification, and pKa's of 20 AA

nonpolar

Glycine Gly G	<chem>NC(=O)C</chem>
Alanine Ala A	<chem>CC(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Valine Val V	<chem>CC(C)N</chem>
Leucine Leu L	<chem>CC(C)C</chem>
Isoleucine Ile I	<chem>CC(C)C</chem>
Phenylalanine Phe F	<chem>c1ccc(cc1)C(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Methionine Met M	<chem>CSCC(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Proline Pro P	<chem>C1CCNC1=O</chem>
Tryptophan Trp W	<chem>c1ccc2c(c1)c(c[nH]2)C(N)C(=O)O</chem>

polar neutral

Serine Ser S	<chem>OC(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Threonine Thr T	<chem>CC(O)C(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Tyrosine Tyr Y	<chem>c1ccc(cc1)C(O)C(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Asparagine Asn N	<chem>NC(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Glutamine Gln Q	<chem>NC(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Cysteine Cys C	<chem>SC(N)C(=O)O</chem>

Acidic AAs

Aspartate Asp D	<chem>[O-]C(=O)C(N)C(=O)O</chem>
Glutamate Glu E	<chem>[O-]C(=O)CC(N)C(=O)O</chem>

Basic AAs

Lysine Lys K	<chem>CCCC[NH3+]</chem>
Arginine Arg R	<chem>CCC[NH2+](C)N</chem>
Histidine His H	<chem>C1=CN=C[NH+]1</chem>

If $pH < pKa$, the structure is protonated
 If $pH > pKa$, the structure is deprotonated

3) R groups
 aliphatic = non aromatic
 aromatic = containing cyclic structures with planar π bonds

2) General structure

[NH3+]C(R)C(=O)[O-]
 amphoteric = a compound able to react as both an acid and a base
 zwitterion = compound with multiple func. with both (+) and (-) charges

4) Biologically active amino acids

- Chemical messengers**
 several α amino acids, glycine and glutamate are secreted by nerve cells
- chemical precursors** of a variety of N containing molecules. E.g. Nitrogenous base
- metabolic intermediates**
 arginine, component of the urea cycle

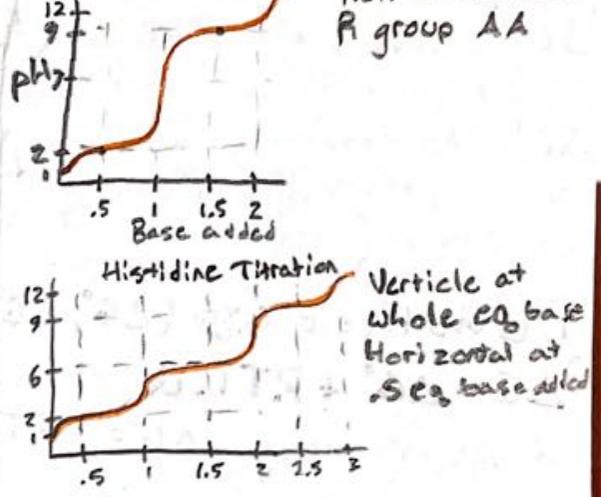
5) AA Stereoisomers

19 of the 20 AAs are chiral asymmetric molecules rotating light clockwise (+) rotating light counterclock (-)
 D & L, R & S
 Dextro \rightarrow Levo \leftarrow
 All amino acids are L in proteins and form right turning α helices
 α helices turn to the right due to L-amino acids

6) pI calculations

pI = Isoelectric point
 The point where the amino acid is neutral
 $pI = \frac{pKa_1 + pKa_2}{2} = pH$
 Avg of $pKa_1 \rightarrow N$ and $pKa_2 \rightarrow C$
 Steps 1) add NH_3^+ and CO_2^-
 2) Drop nonion groups
 3) start at $pH = 1$
 4) go through each pKa
 5) avg the pKa_1 and pKa_2

Titration curves

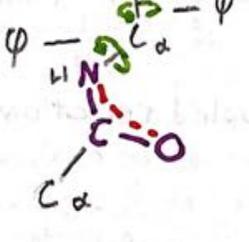


7) Peptides

Nomenclature = N \rightarrow C direction
 Name by adding yl in place of ine or ic
 Exceptions: 1) C terminus leave as ine
 2) Gln = glutamyl, Asn = asparagyl
 Glu = glutaryl, Cys = cysteinyl

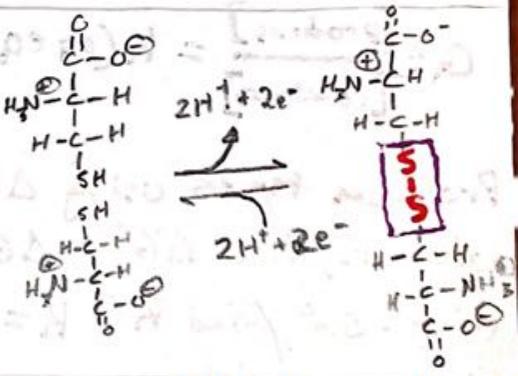
AA Double bond characteristics

The N-C-O bonds form a partial double bond, limiting rotation of 1/3 of AA bonds



8) Cysteine Redox

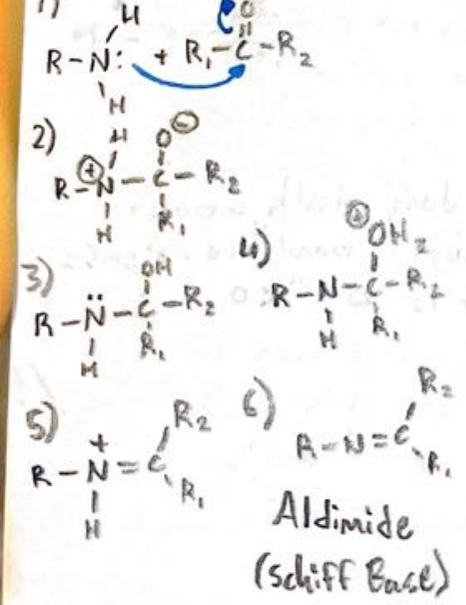
Formation of a disulfide bridge. 2 cysteine R groups oxidize together to form a crosslinking bond common in proteins



Schiff Base Formation

Nucleophilic addition reaction a primary amine N attacks the electrophilic carbon of a carbonyl group to form an alkoxide product.

Aldimine (Schiff base)



9) Protein Structure

a) Primary Structure
 Specific peptide order
 $H_2N^+-Glu-Val-Cys-Tyr-CO_2^-$
 String of amino acids

b) Secondary Structure
 polypeptides consisting of several repeating patterns
 α Helix: rigid rod like structure, right handed turning. H bonds form between the N-H and the C=O, 4 AA away

The H bond holds the α helix very tight
 R groups are found on the outside of the α helix

β sheets

peptide segment folded into a zigzag structure

 H Bonds hold peptide chains together parallel and antiparallel.
Supersecondary = grouping of α helix and β sheets together. Many globular proteins contain supersecondary structure.

c) Tertiary Structure
 3d structure of a single peptide chain and includes R group stabilization
Interactions:
 Hydrophobic:
 Electrostatic:

Hydrogen bonds
 Covalent bonds
 Disulfide bridges
 Hydration: H_2O

d) Quaternary Struct.
 multiple polypeptides
 multi chains of AA working together

10) globular vs Fibrous Proteins

Water soluble
 hide nonpolar R groups in center of protein. Makes a micelle

high secondary structure concentration
 Structural roles
 Lots of repeats
 α helix = 1 helix
 Coiled = 2 helix
 Protofilament = 2 coils
 Filament = 4 protofilaments

11) Protein Purification Lab procedures

- Gel filtration = bigger flows faster into
- Ion Exchange = Sep by charge with beads
- Affinity chromatography = binds to affinite compounds covalently bonded to the bead. Then elute with more affinite comp.
- Electrophoresis = PAGE smaller moves faster through the gel
 2D Electr. Isoelectric focus = uses a pH gradient. Proteins move lower and become N and stop

Chapter 6: Enzymes

1) Characteristics of Enzymes

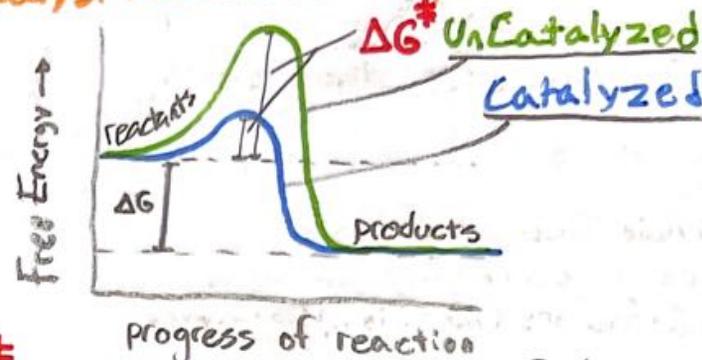
- a) **Enormous increase in rate**
up to 10^7 to 10^{19} as fast
- b) **High specificities**: substrate, product & stereochemistry
- c) **Controllable**: turn on and off with a signal
- d) **Other**: Obey the laws of thermodynamics, catalyze the forward and backward of reversible reactions, usually present in low concentrations, not consumed by rxns.

Enzyme Catalysts Basics

Catalyst: enhances the rate of a chemical reaction without being permanently altered by the reaction. Catalysts provide an alt. reaction pathway that requires less activation energy.

ΔG^\ddagger = free energy of activation
The amount of energy required to turn 1 mol of substrate into the transition state molecule. (highest point of energy in the reaction.)

Catalyst Activation E Graph



ΔG^\ddagger = Distance in energy of the transition state of rxn from reactant state energy
Catalysts have no effect on ΔG

2) Activity Coefficients & non ideality factor (Γ)

Enzymes operate in crowded situations. In the lab they are performed in low conc. buffers. Ideal solutions contain solutes in such low concentration that interactions such as steric repulsion or attractive forces are non. Effective concentration ($a = \gamma C$)

γ = activity coefficient - dependant on size and charge of species and on the ionic strength.

$C = \text{conc. } \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{L}}$

Equilibrium constant for reaction under non ideal conditions

$K_{eq}^\circ = \frac{\gamma_B [B]}{\gamma_A [A]} = K_{eq}^i \Gamma$
 K_{eq}^i = ideal constant, Γ = nonideality factor

3) The 6 classifications of Enzymes

- 1) Oxidoreductases** (redox enzymes)
Involves 1 or 2 e^- transfer reactions with compensating change in the amount of hydrogen and oxygen in the molecule
Oxidase, peroxidase, oxygenase, reductase, dehydrogenase
 - 2) Transferases** (transfer a group)
transaminase, transmethylase, transphosphatase - ATP, kinase
 - 3) Hydrolases** (hydrolysis)
addition of H_2O reactions. Eg: phosphatase, esterase, protease
 - 4) Lyases** (splits substrate) non hydrolytic, non oxidative
 - 5) Isomerase** (Isomerize) racemize, create racemic mix
 - 6) Ligases** (Joins two pieces)
Synthetase - "Tase" implies use of ATP
- Oxidoreductase rxn example:
CH3OH + NAD+ -> CH3CHO + NADH + H+
- Ligase rxn example:
CH3COO- + HCO3- -> CH3C(=O)COO- + H2O

4) Enzyme Kinetics - says something about mechanism

velocity of rxn: $v_0 = \frac{-\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta[P]}{\Delta t}$, $\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = k[A]^x$

[A] = substrate, [P] = product, t = time

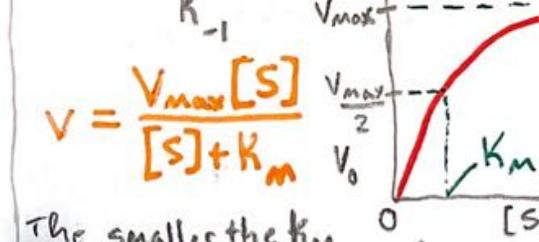
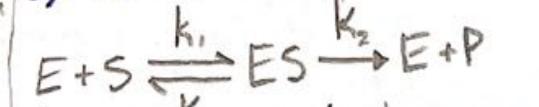
Reaction rate: $v_0 = k[A]^x$, k = rate constant

x = order of reaction, sum of exponents

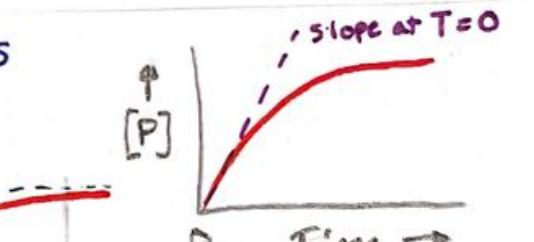
1st order = $[A]^1$, 2nd order = $[A][B]^1$

Rate = $k[A][H_2O]^1$ = first order, H_2O is constant

5) Michaelis-Menten Kinetics



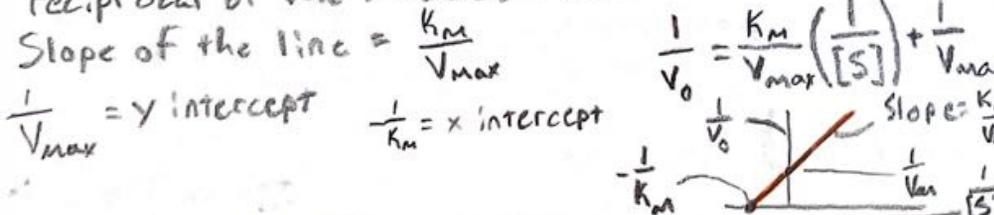
The smaller the K_m the tighter the complex



Hyperbolic curve, 1st order at low [S], then 0 order under saturated conditions
 $[S] = K_m$ then $v_0 = \frac{V_{max}}{2}$

Lineweaver-Burk Kinetics

reciprocal of the Michaelis-Menten kinetics equation



Saturation Kinetics

- 1) Initial Rate kinetics
- 2) Dependence of v_0 on [substrate]
- 3) Propose a stepwise mechanism

Assumptions

- 1) $v_0 = k_2 \cdot [ES]$
- 2) k_2 is the rds
- 3) $\frac{d[ES]}{dt} \approx 0$ steady state, fast equilibrium

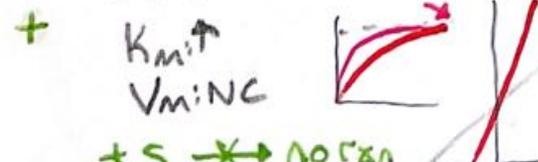
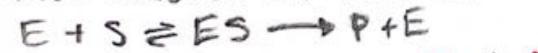
2 Parameters

- 1) How fast will the rxn go when saturated completely with substrate?
- 2) Gauge sensitivity, $\frac{1}{2} V_{max}$ and find [S] at $\frac{1}{2} V_m = K_m$

7) Inhibition Kinetics

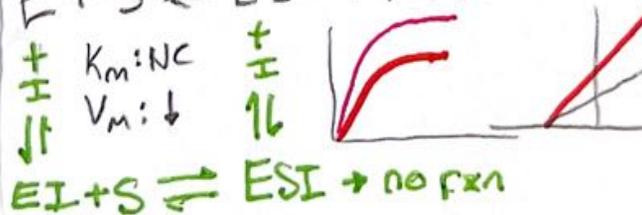
1) Competitive Inhibitors

Inhibitor binds to the enzyme and creates EI complex. This then reduces the reaction



2) Noncompetitive Inhibitors

Binds to both E and ES results in E bending into shape that can't react to form product.



3) Uncompetitive Inhibition

I binds to the ES complex in is a type of noncompetitive



Mechanistic Effects of Catalysis

1) **Surface Effect** - holding the molecule

2) **Transition state stabilization**
stabilizes the highest energy state
holds the transition state in a lower E state

3) **Acid/Base Catalysis**
aids in acid/Base catalysis

4) **Cofactors (metal ions) Cofactors**

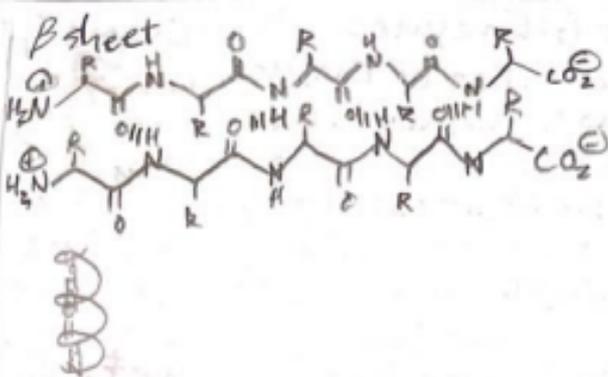
5) **Covalent intermediate**

MM Calculations

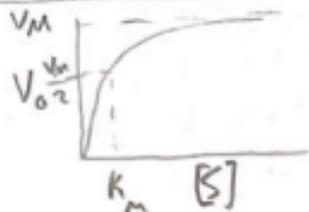
$$[S] = \frac{V_0 k_m}{V_m - V_0}, \quad V_0 = \frac{V_m [S]}{[S] + k_m}$$

Variables = $[S], V_0, k_m, V_m$

$$\frac{1}{V_0} = \frac{k_m}{V_m} \left(\frac{1}{[S]} \right) + \frac{1}{V_m}$$



$$V_0 = \frac{V_m [S]}{[S] + k_m}$$

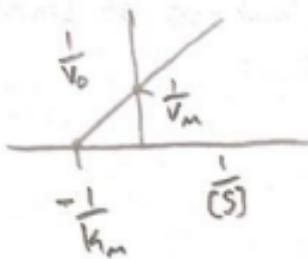


$$\frac{1}{V_0} = \frac{k_m}{V_m} \left(\frac{1}{[S]} \right) + \frac{1}{V_m}$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln Q$$

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln k$$

$$[S] = \frac{V_0 k_m}{V_m - V_0}$$



Competitive: $k_m \uparrow$ V_m NC

Un competitive: \downarrow \downarrow

non competitive: NC \downarrow