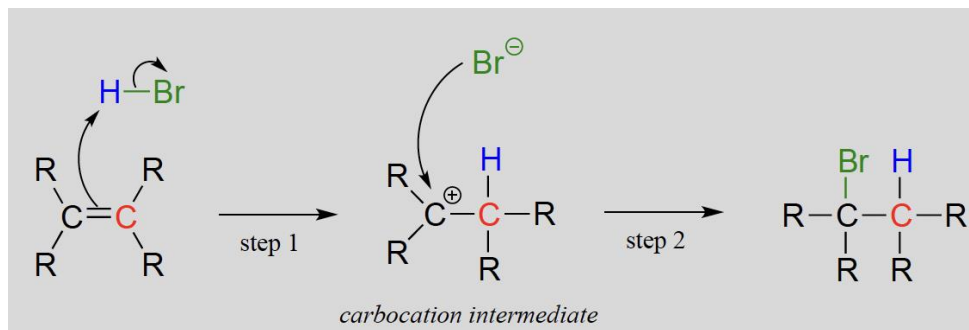


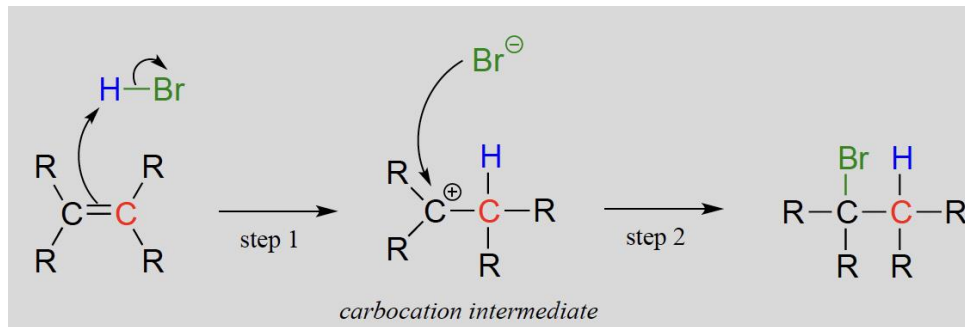
Bioorganic Chemistry

Lecture 8

Electrophilic reactions

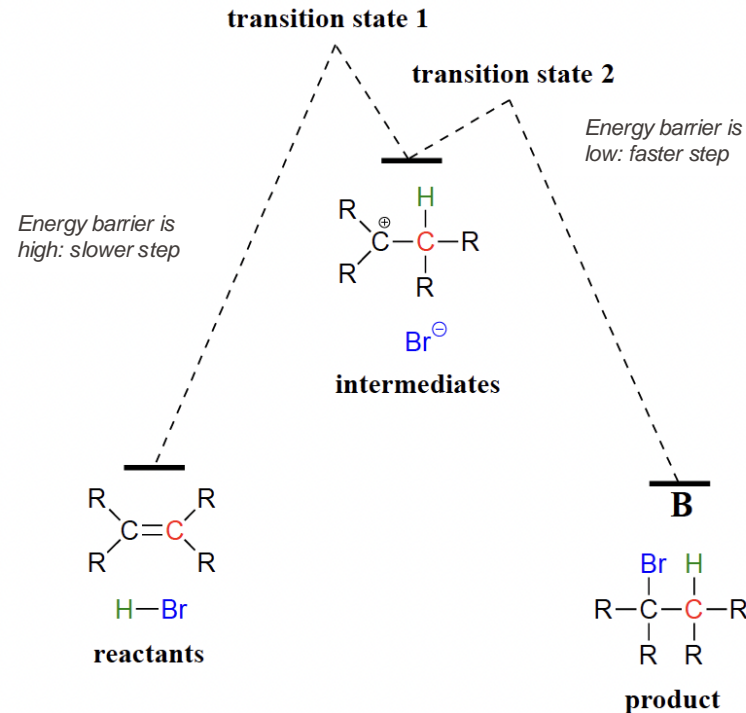


Electrophilic Addition of HBr - Overview

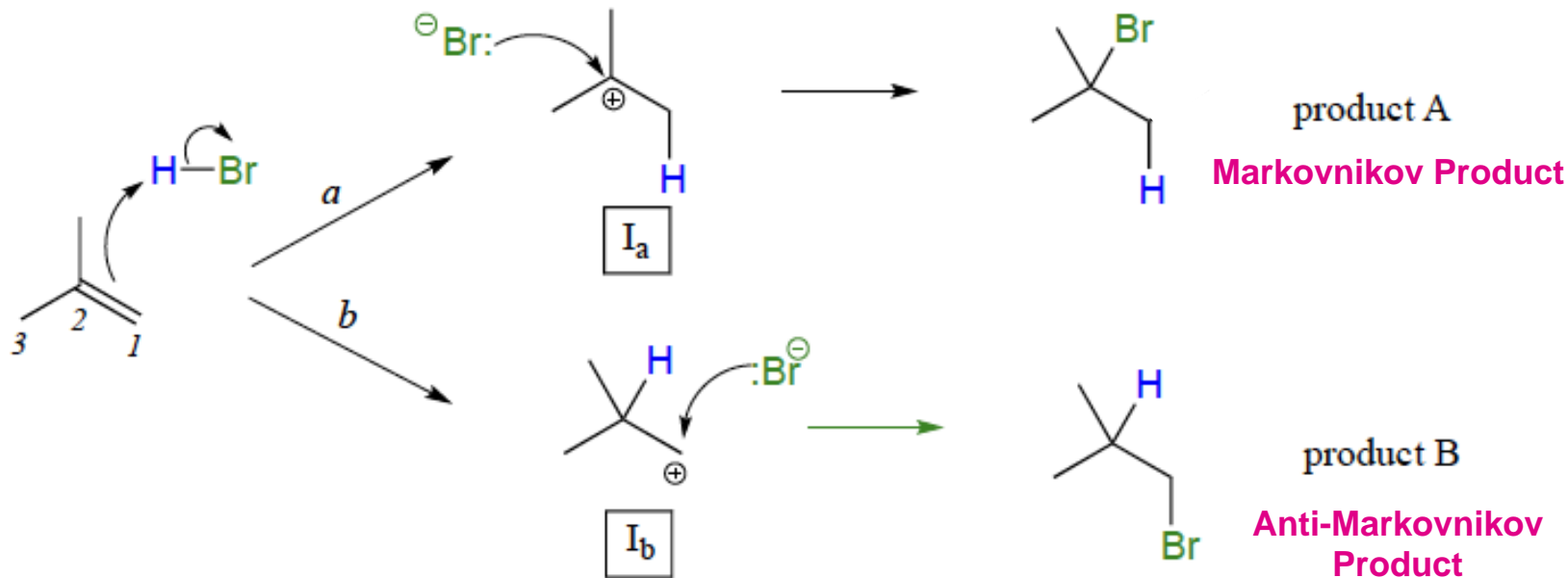


Step1: π - electrons of the alkene act as a base and extract the acidic proton of HBr
 -> incomplete octet and a positive formal charge (high energy)

Step2: Nucleophilic bromide anion attacks the electrophilic carbocation to form a new carbon-bromine bond



Electrophilic Addition – Markovnikov's Rule

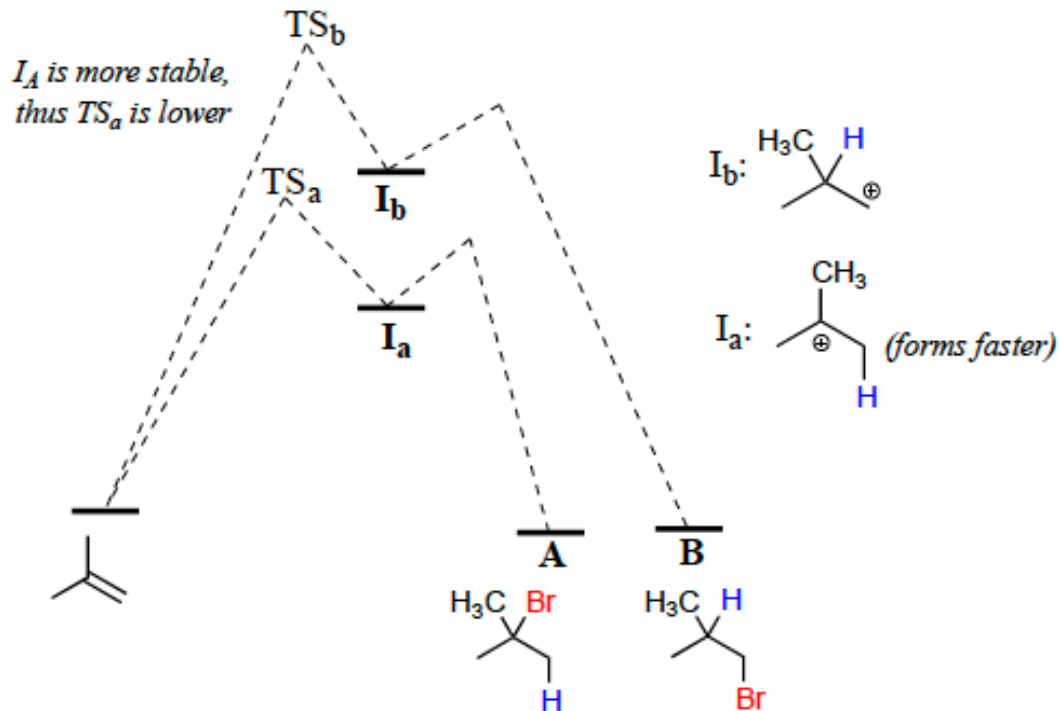


Markovnikov's rule

In the addition of HX to an alkene, the H attaches to the carbon with fewer alkyl substituents and the X attaches to the carbon with more alkyl substituents.

-> Rule of thumb!

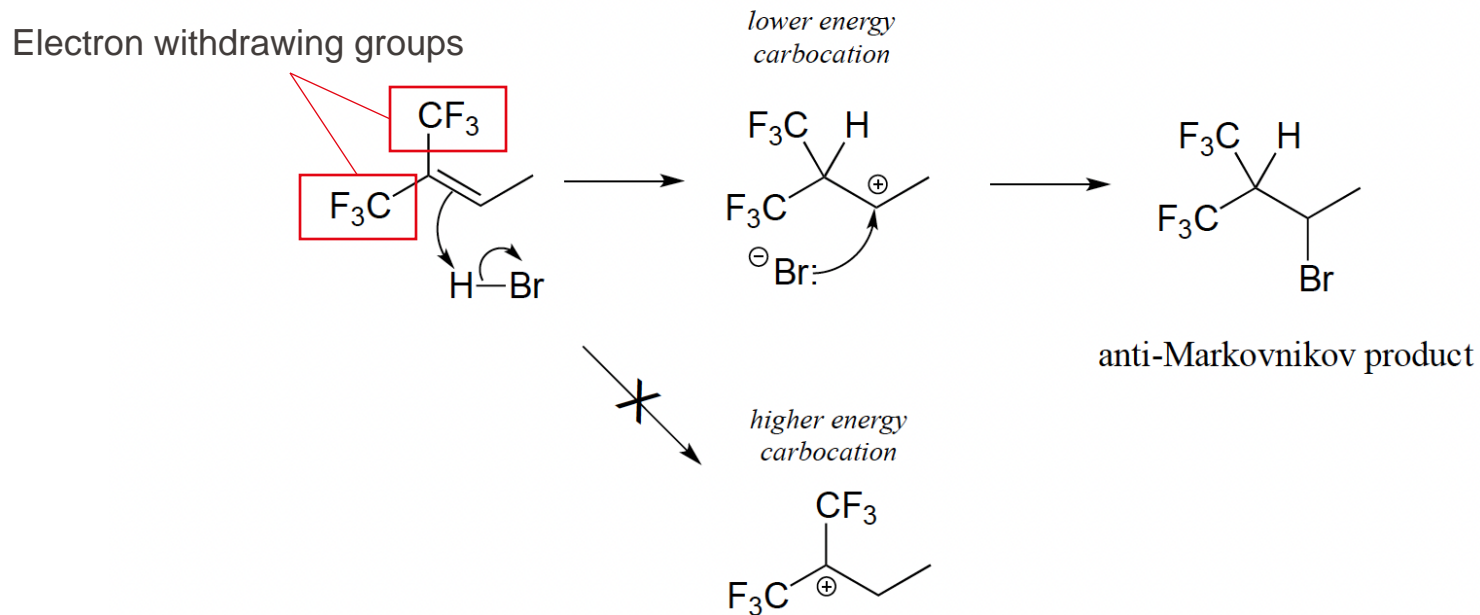
Electrophilic Addition – Regioselectivity



Regioselectivity

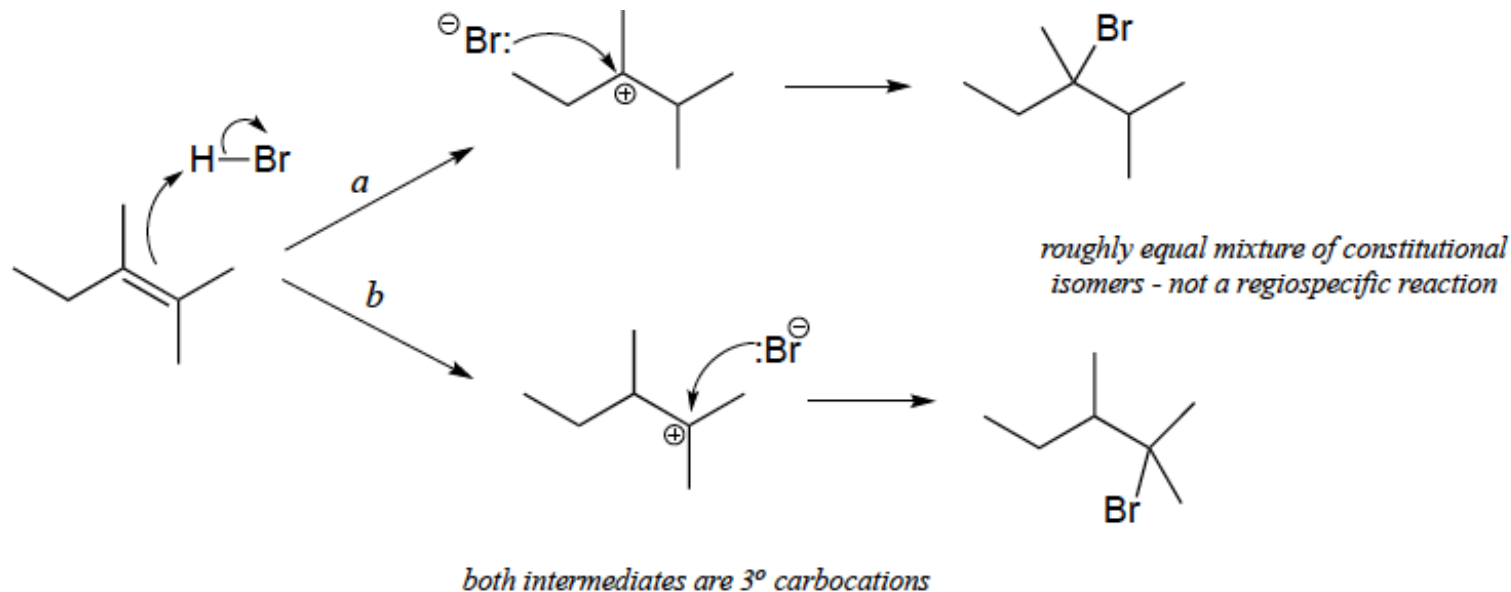
When an asymmetrical alkene undergoes electrophilic addition, the product that predominates is the one that results from the more stable of the two possible carbocation intermediates.

Electrophilic Addition – Markovnikov's Rule



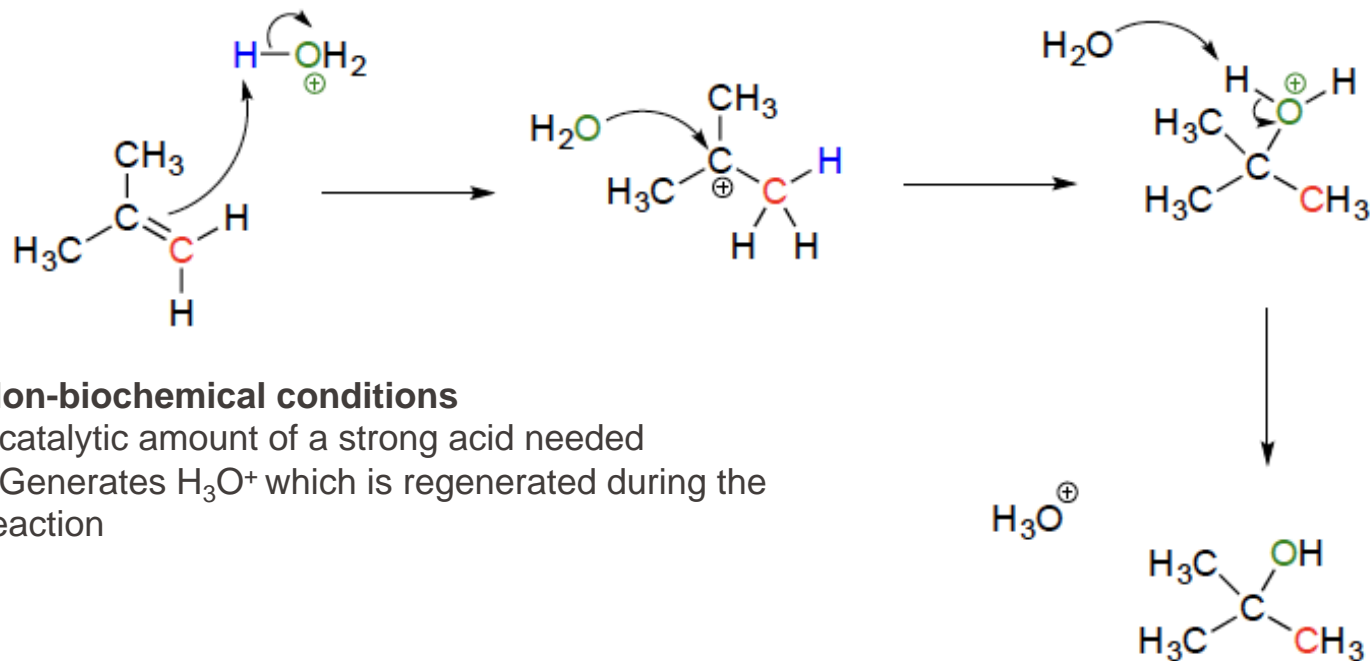
Under certain conditions (like the presence of electronegative withdrawing groups) the less substituted carbocation is formed faster leading to the **anti-Markovnikov product**

Electrophilic Addition – Markovnikov's Rule



If the two possible carbocation intermediates in an electrophilic addition reaction are of **similar stability**, the product will be a **mixture of constitutional isomers**.

Electrophile addition of water



Non-biochemical conditions

- catalytic amount of a strong acid needed
- Generates H_3O^+ which is regenerated during the reaction

Let's do one of these together

- Reactivity of the double bond
- Stereochemistry and regiochemistry of electrophilic reactions
- Markovnikov rule
- Addition reaction
- Elimination reactions
- Zaitsev's rule
- Differences between the different elimination mechanisms

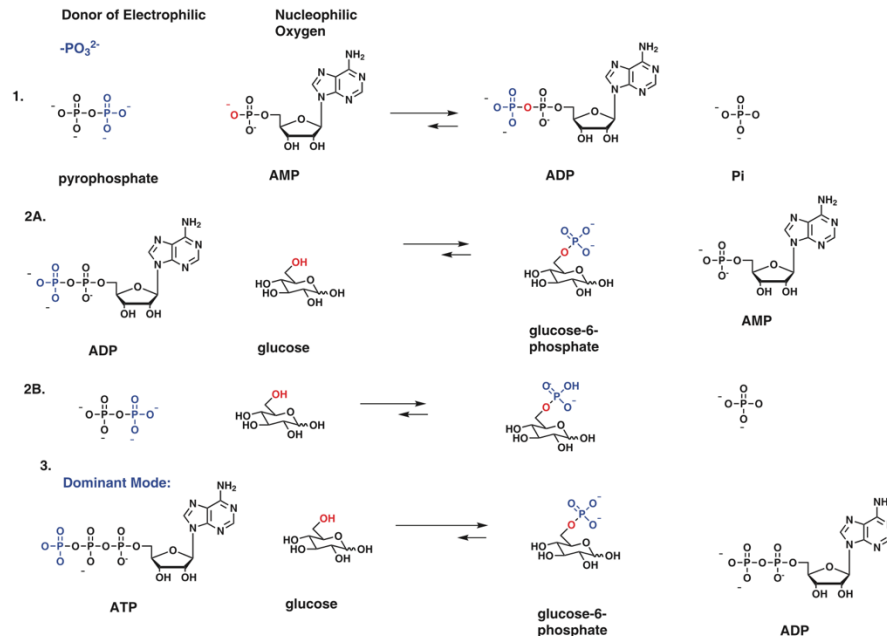
Questions?

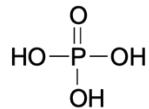
Why Nature Chose Phosphates

Table 1. Examples of phosphates in biochemistry.

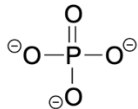
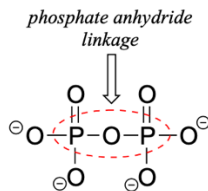
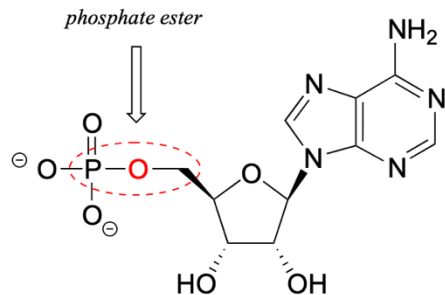
Phosphate	Acid derivative
DNA	Diester of phosphoric acid
RNA	Diester of phosphoric acid
ATP	Anhydride of phosphoric acid
Creatine phosphate	Amide of phosphoric acid
Phosphoenolpyruvate	Enol ester of phosphoric acid
Pyridoxal phosphate	Phenol ester of phosphoric acid
Nicotine adenine dinucleotide	Ester and anhydride of phosphoric acid
Fructose 1,6-diphosphate	Ester of phosphoric acid
Glucose-6-phosphate	Ester of phosphoric acid
Isopentenyl pyrophosphate	Ester of pyrophosphoric acid
Ribose-6-phosphate-1-pyrophosphate	Ester of phosphoric and pyrophosphoric acids

F. H. WESTHEIMER

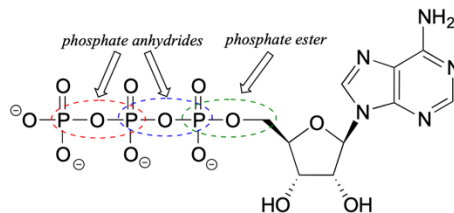




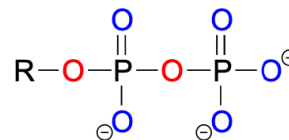
phosphoric acid

inorganic phosphate (P_i)inorganic pyrophosphate (PP_i)

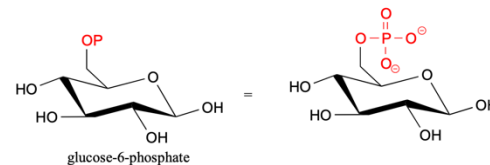
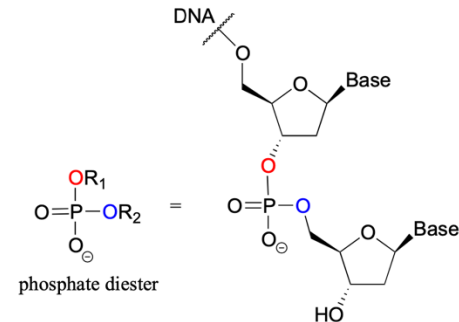
adenosine monophosphate (AMP)



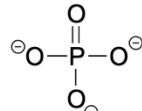
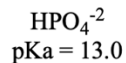
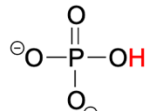
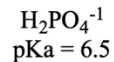
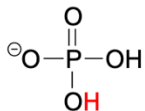
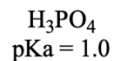
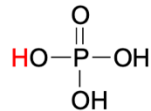
adenosine triphosphate (ATP)



red = bridging oxygen
blue = non-bridging oxygen

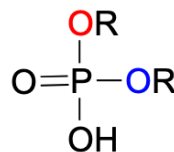


Phosphoric acid is triprotic

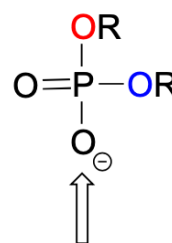


At pH=7 more than half will be at the HPO_4^{-2} state

Phosphate diesters are negative at pH 7



pKa ~ 1



deprotonated at pH 7

-Phosphates are very common leaving groups meaning that they are weakly basic.

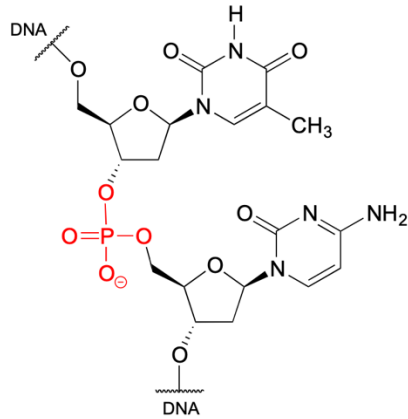
Why Phosphorylation?

1. Electrostatics: two negative charges
2. Specificity: >3 highly directional hydrogen bonds
3. Thermodynamic stability: -12 kcal/mol
4. Signal can be amplified
5. Adjustable kinetics (seconds to hours)
6. Availability: high intracellular ATP concentration

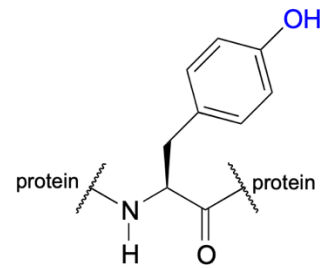
Great historic paper:

Westheimer: Why Nature Chose Phosphates (1987) Science, 235 (4793),1173-8

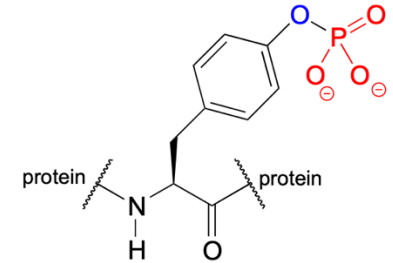
Base-pair linkage



Controlling protein activity

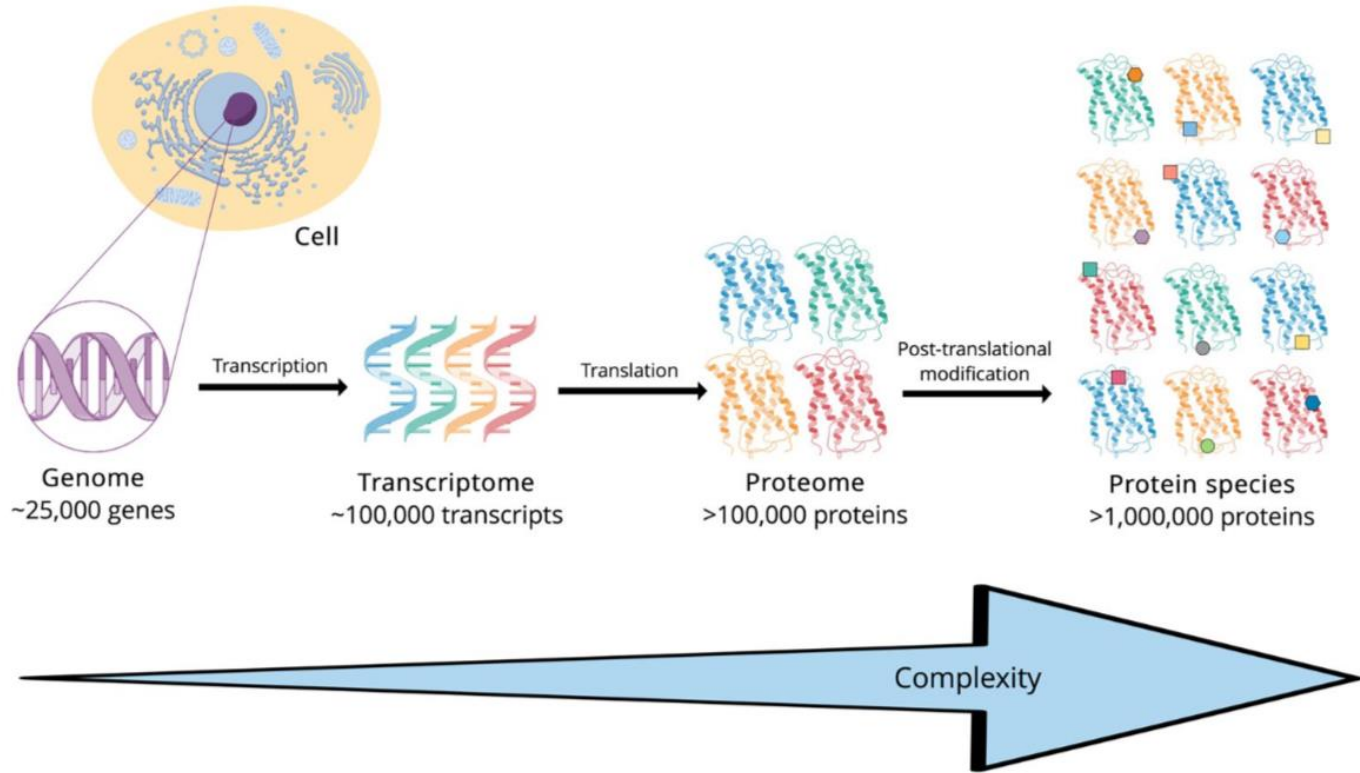


tyrosine residue



phosphotyrosine residue

What are post-translational modifications

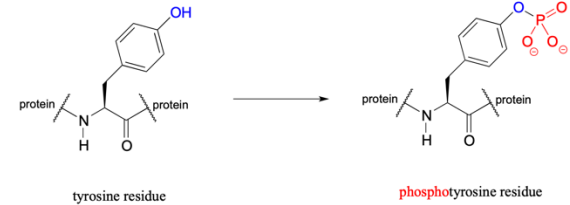


Protein Phosphorylation: General

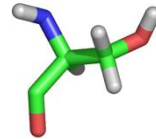
- Most common post-translational modification
- Occur on hydroxyl (OH-) groups in Ser, Thr or Tyr (in eukaryotes)
- Also on His (but much less well studied)
- At least 30% of all human proteins are known to be phosphorylated at at least one residue

Theoretical considerations on phosphorylation:

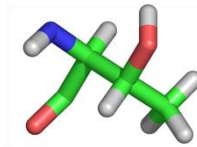
- average length of protein is ~400 amino acids
- ~10.000 different proteins in a cell
- ~15% are Ser (6.6%), Thr (5.3%) or Tyr (2.9%) residues (see BCI)
- then there are ~600,000 potential phosphorylation sites!



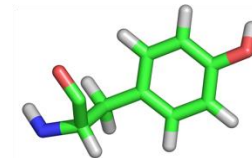
Serine



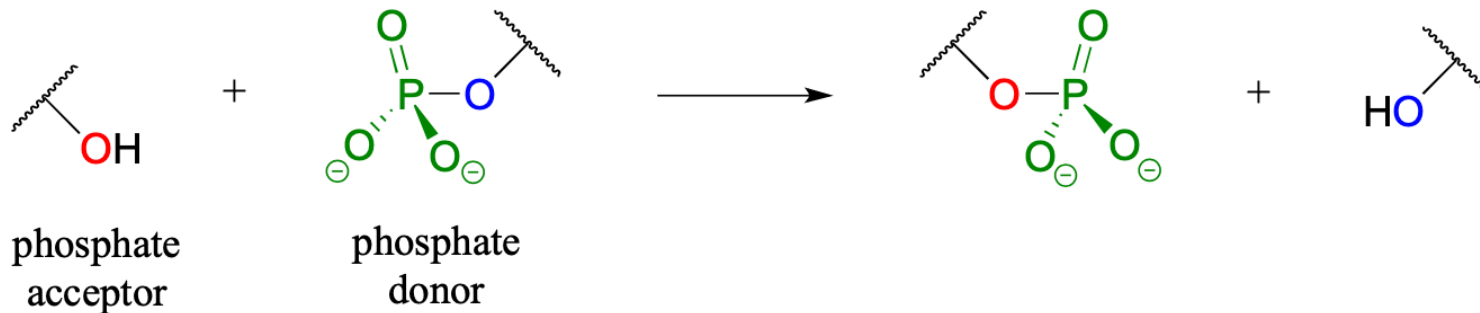
Threonine



Tyrosine



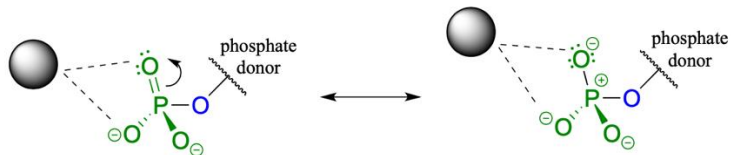
Phosphate transfer reactions – overview



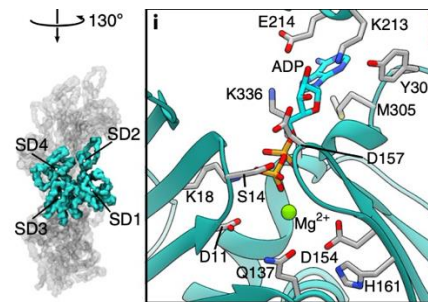
-Electrophilicity of the phosphorus atom is enhanced by magnesium ions



Mg⁺² coordination makes phosphorus more electrophilic



-Magnesium ion pulls electron density away from the phosphorus making it more electrophilic





Break Bond (Dissociation)

Make Bond (Association)

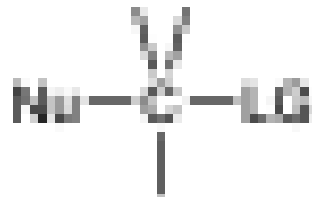
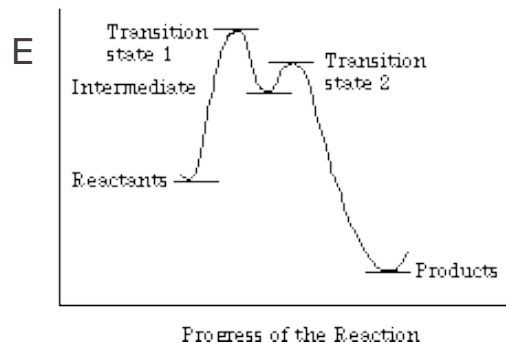
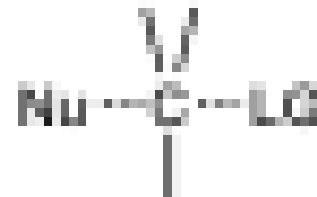
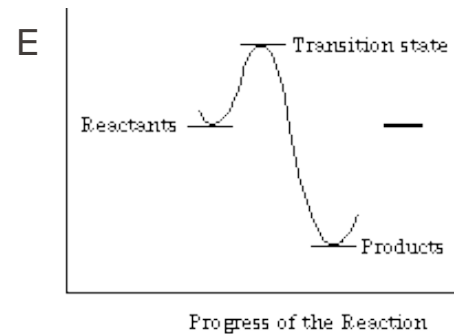
Combinations:

D then A

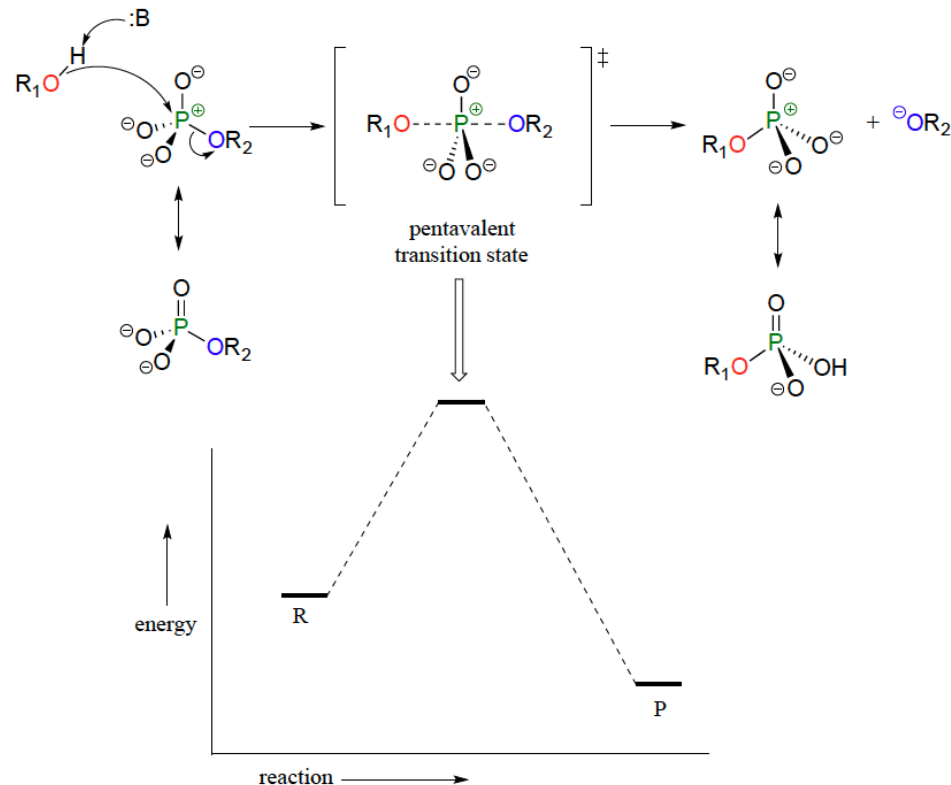
A then D

 $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$

Happens, but not with carbon

Trivalent *Intermediate*Pentavalent *Intermediate*Simultaneous “**Concerted**” (make as you break) $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ *Transition State*

Concerted model:



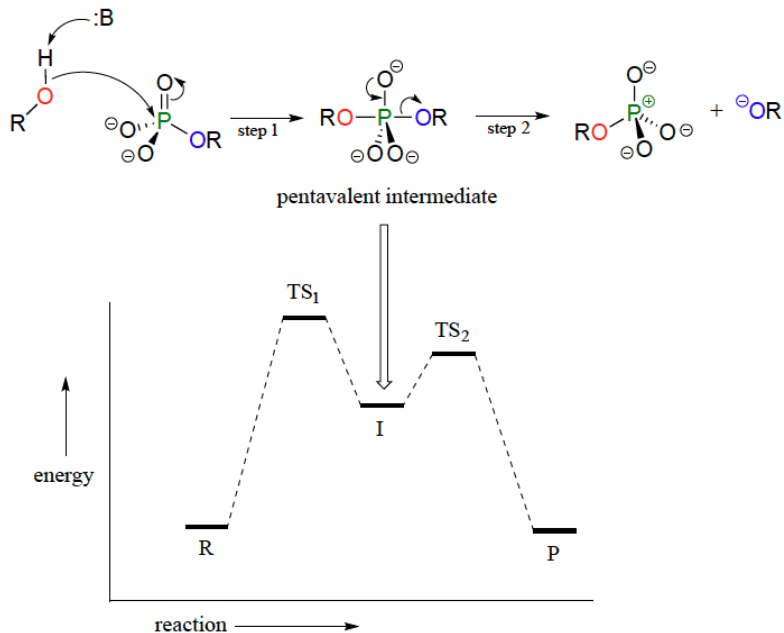
-Phosphate transfer reaction can be thought of much like an $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reaction

-Nucleophile attacks the phosphorus atom from the opposite side

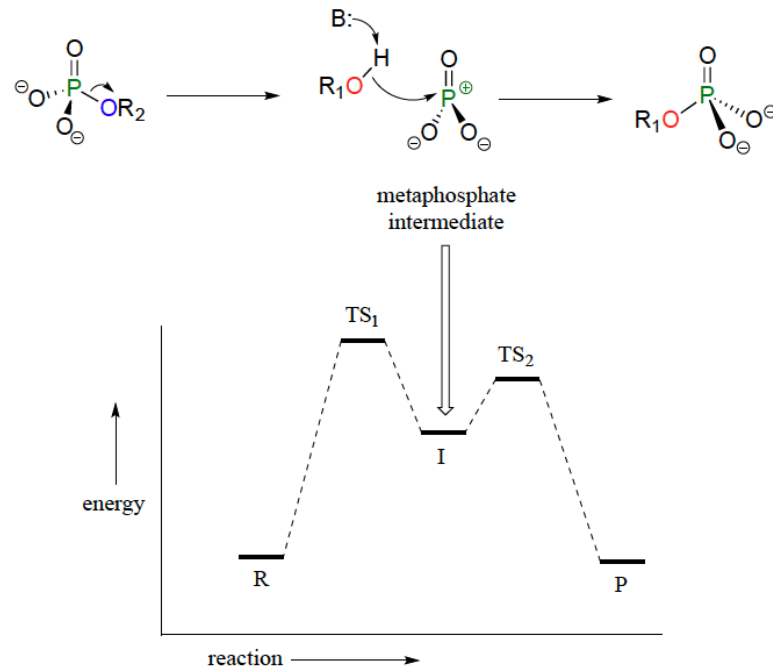
- **geometry** around the phosphorus atom shifts from **tetrahedral** to **trigonal bipyramidal** at the transition state with five bonds.

-Phosphorus undergoes a temporary change in bonding, shifting back to its initial tetrahedral state after the nucleophile and leaving group alteration.

Addition-elimination model:



Elimination-addition model:

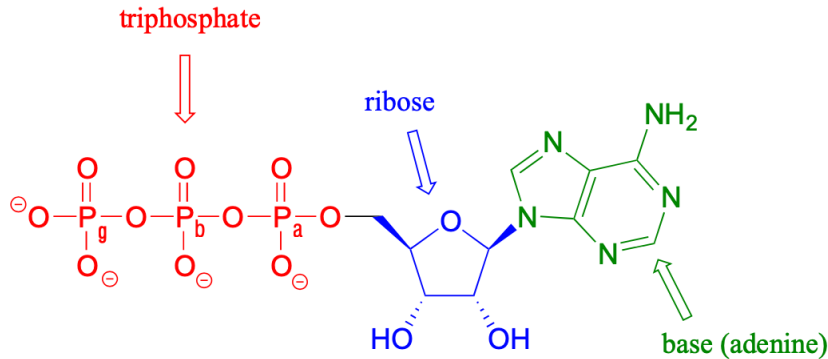


- There is still debate to which real mechanism is happening in the phosphor transfer reaction
- For now we will accept the concerted model as the one that is occurring

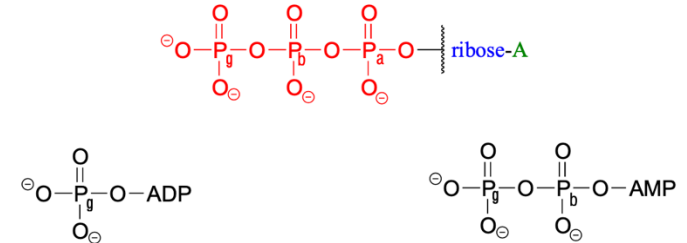
The reaction of life:

ATP as a biological Phosphate Donor

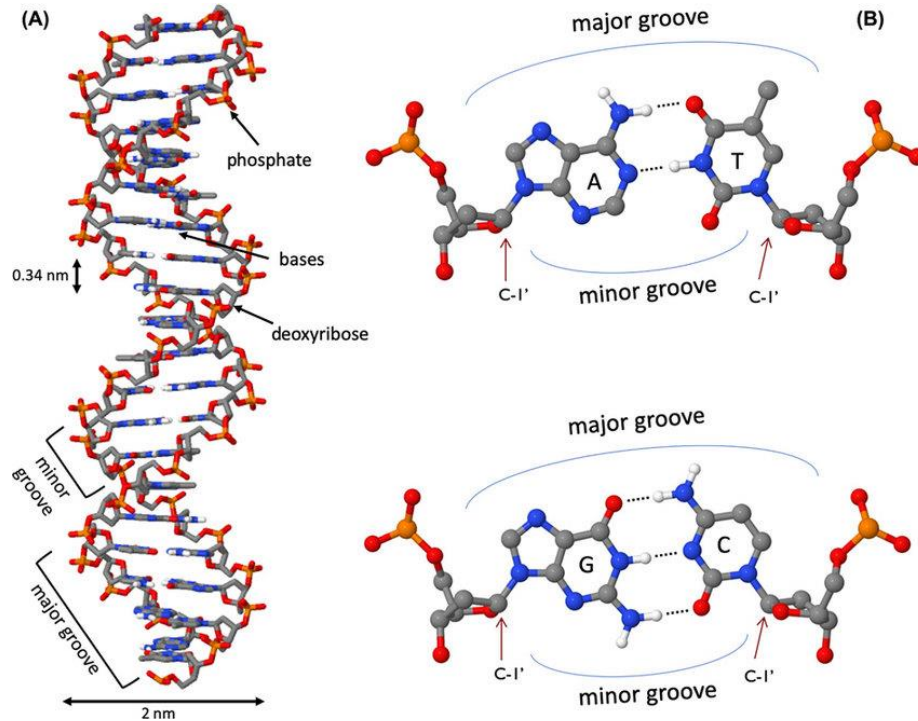
- The most important phosphate donor is a adenosine triphosphate
- ATP is used as the energetic currency in biological processes
- ATP hydrolysis is one of the most important reactions in biology



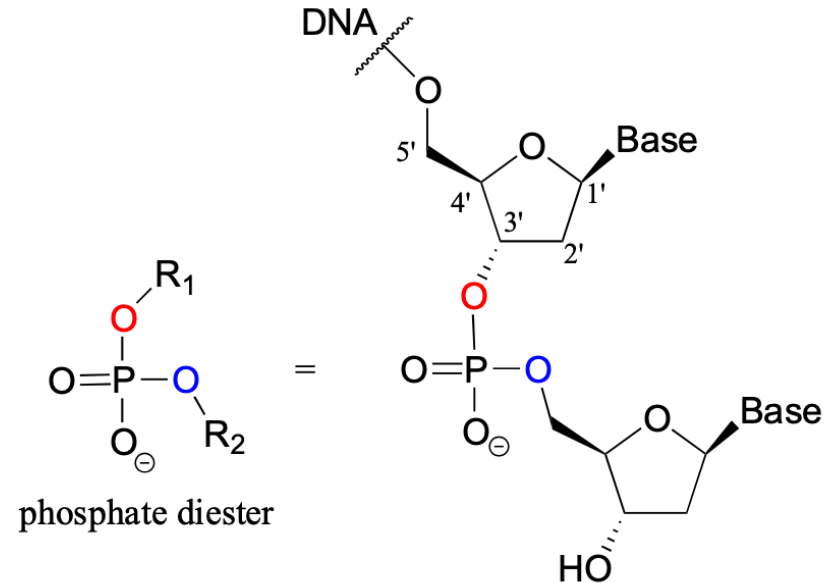
One can represent these molecules in different ways



Phosphate groups in DNA



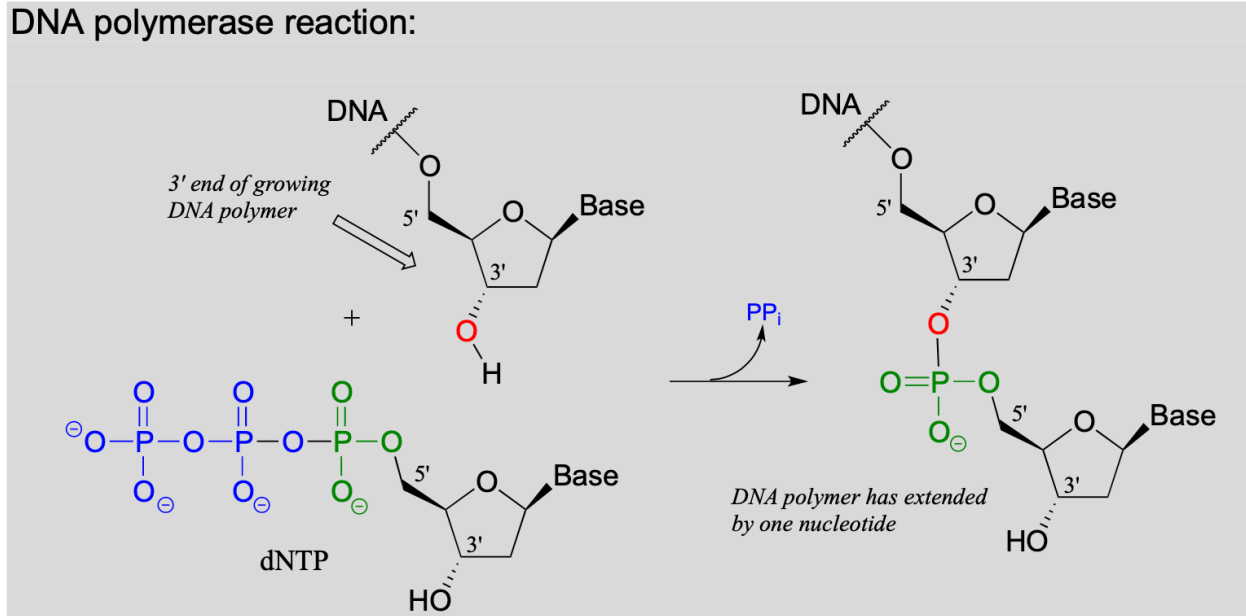
-Phosphate diesters play a critical role in nature by connecting individual nucleotides in DNA and RNA via a sugar-phosphate backbone



-One of the first steps of a cloning procedure is to “copy” a DNA strand

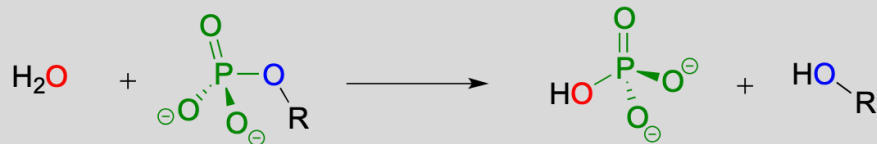
-3' hydroxyl group of the growing strand of DNA attacks the α -phosphate

DNA polymerase reaction:



- Enzymes called **phosphatases** catalyze dephosphorylation reactions

Phosphatase reaction:



- The reactions catalyzed by kinases and phosphatases are not the reverse of one another
 - Kinases irreversibly transfer phosphate groups from ATP to various acceptors
 - Phosphatases transfer phosphate groups from organic compounds to water (hydrolysis reactions)

Two possibilities for the phosphate hydrolysis

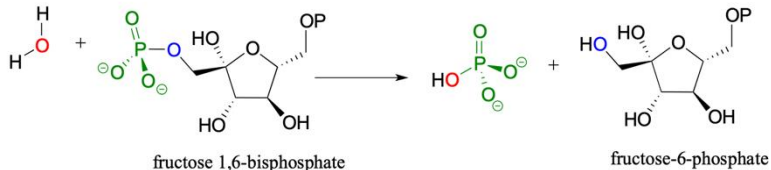
- Direct hydrolysis

Phosphatase mechanism (direct hydrolysis):



-the phosphate group is removed by direct attack of a water molecule

- Example on the gluconeogenesis pathway

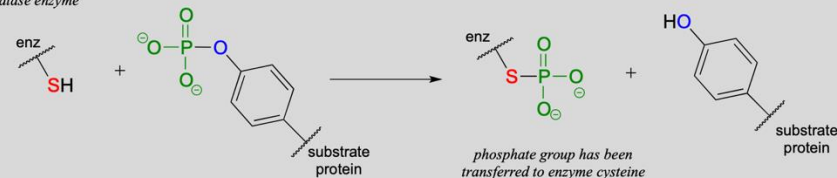


-Indirect phosphatase reaction

Step 1:

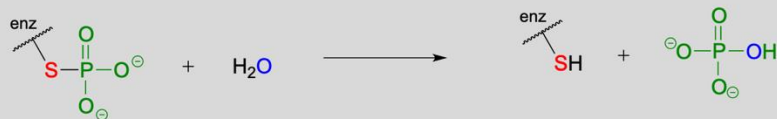
active site cysteine on
phosphatase enzyme

phosphotyrosine on substrate protein



Step 2:

free cysteine is regenerated



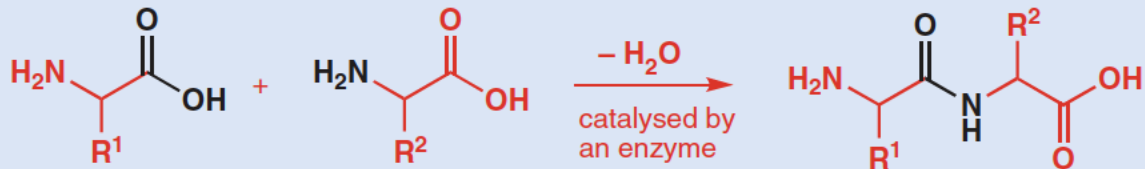
-First phase – nucleophilic enzyme group attacks the phosphate group

-Second phase – the phosphorylated residue is hydrolyzed

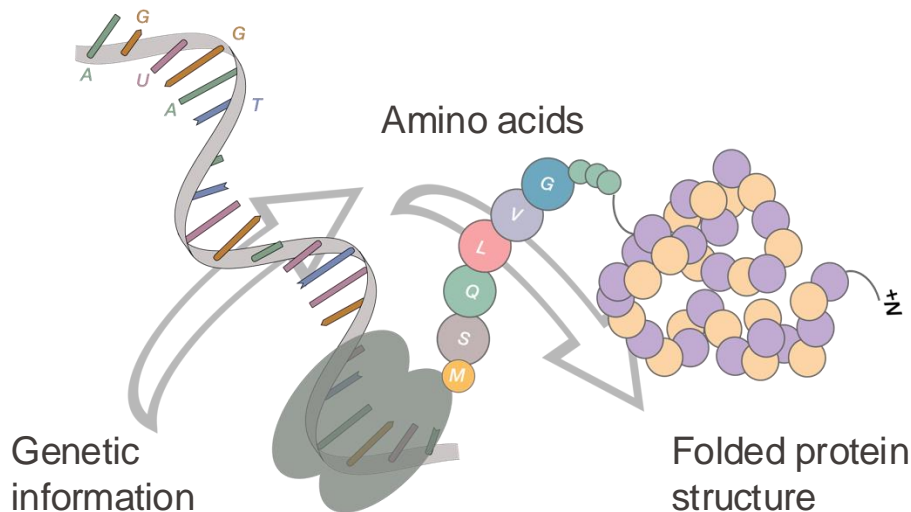
-Phosphate group has still being transferred to water

Questions?

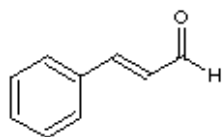
Maybe the most important chapter – Carbonyl Chemistry



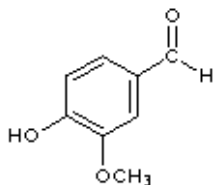
two amino acids, joined together by a peptide bond, form a dipeptide



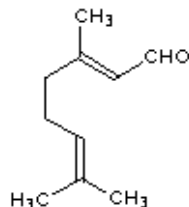
Maybe the most important chapter – Carbonyl Chemistry



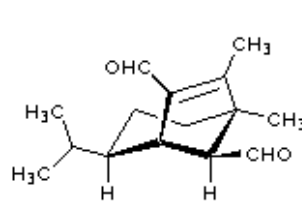
cinnamaldehyde
(cinnamon bark)



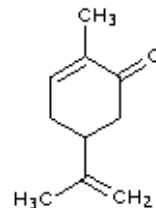
vanillin
(vanilla bean)



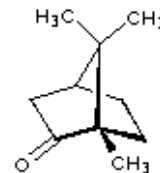
citral
(lemongrass)



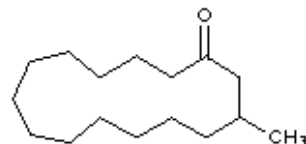
helminthosporal
(a fungal toxin)



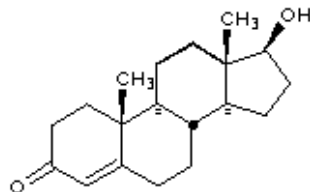
carvone
(spearmint & caraway)



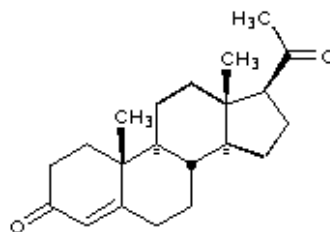
camphor
(camphor tree)



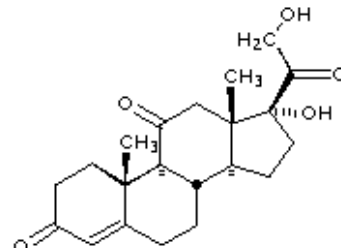
muscone
(musk deer)



testosterone
(male sex hormone)

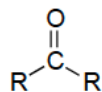


progesterone
(female sex hormone)

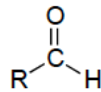


cortisone
(adrenal hormone)

Reactions directly at the Carbonyl group with acyl substituents



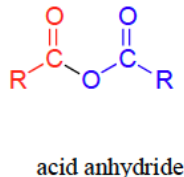
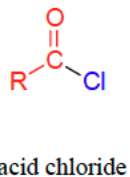
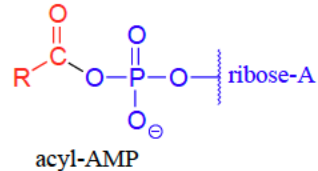
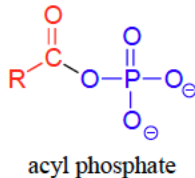
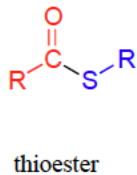
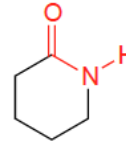
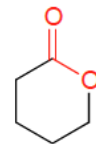
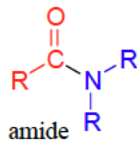
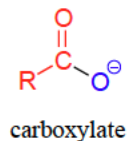
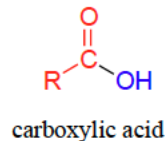
ketone



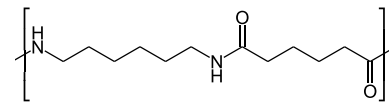
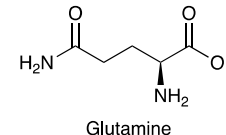
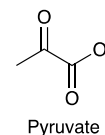
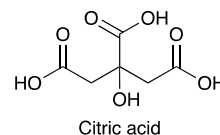
aldehyde

Simple carbonyls, in which the carbon of the C=O bond is attached to **other carbons** or to **hydrogens**

Carboxylic acid derivatives, or **carboxyloids**, in which the carbonyl carbon is attached to a "heteroatom"

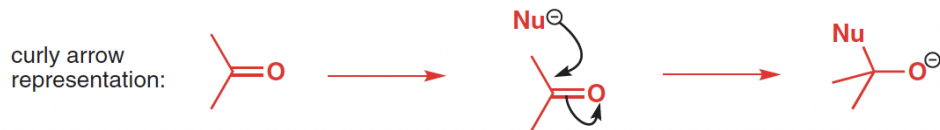


Relevant molecules from life sciences



Polyamid 6.6
Original Nylon

The polarized C=O bond gives the carbon atom some degree of positive charge, and this charge attracts negatively charged nucleophiles

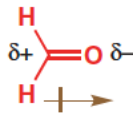


electronegativity difference
means C=O π orbital is
distorted towards O



electronegativity difference
means C-O σ orbital is also
distorted towards O

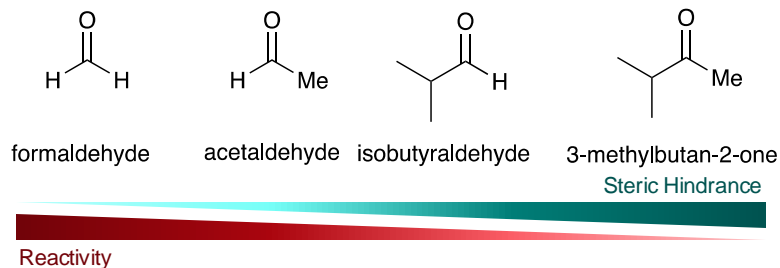
formaldehyde



the consequence:
a dipole



Steric Effects

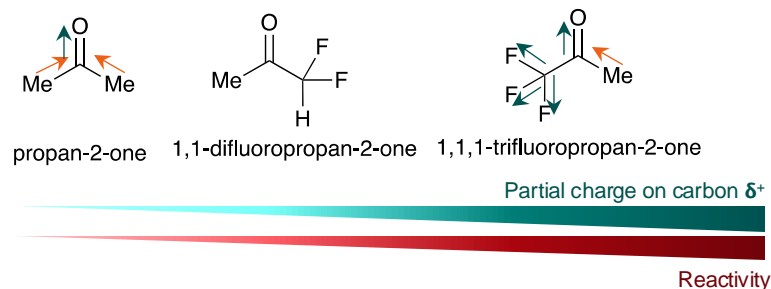


The less crowded the electrophile, the more reactive

➔ Aldehydes are more reactive than Ketones

Question: How easy can a reactant access the carbon?

Electronic Effects

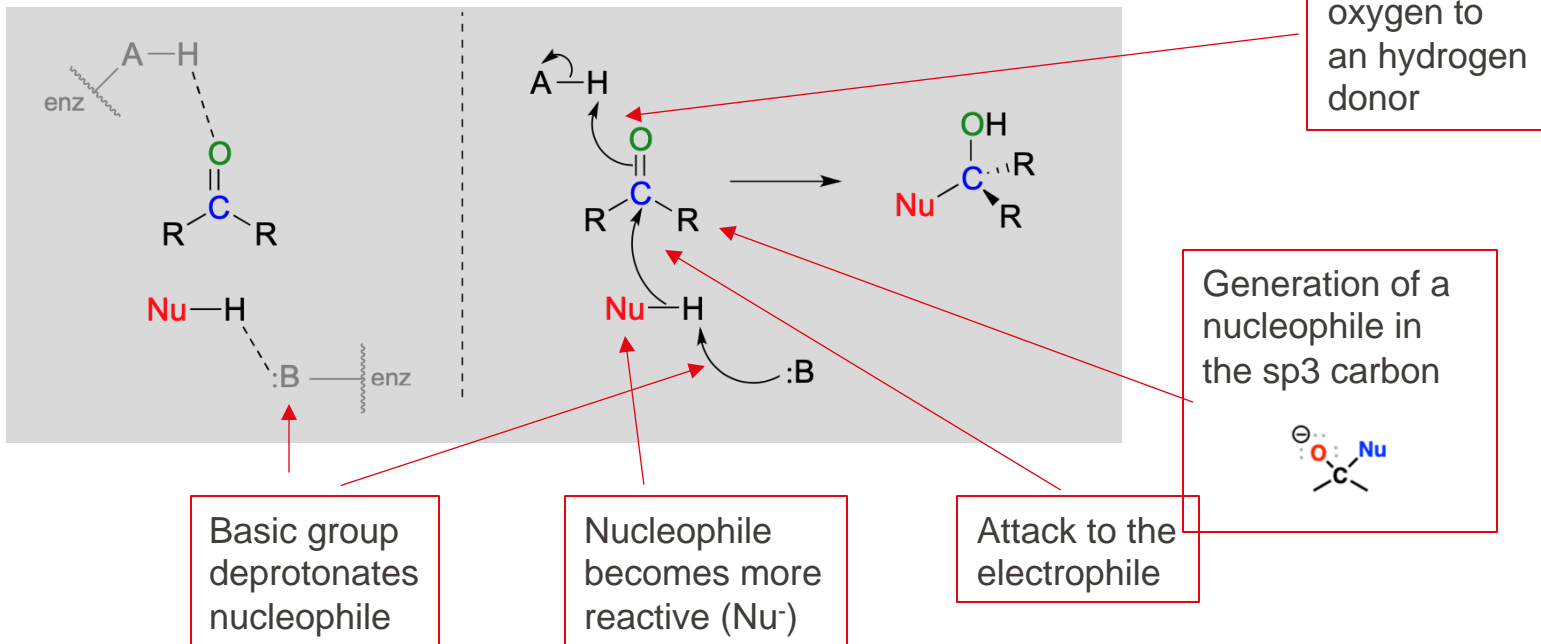


The more positive the electrophile, the more easily it will react.

- ➔ Electron withdrawing groups increase reactivity
- ➔ Electron pushing groups reduce reactivity

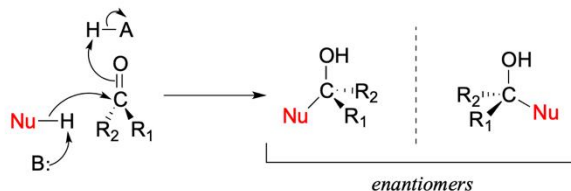
Question: How stable is the positive charge on the carbon?

- Carbonyl carbons are excellent targets for attacks by electron-rich nucleophilic groups
- Let's start with an example from an enzyme



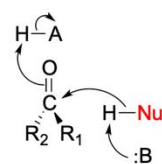
-Distinguishing *re* and *si* faces in of the planar sp^2 carbon

attack at *re* face:

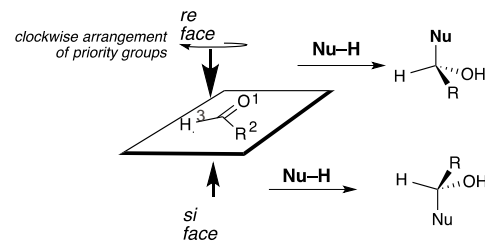


(assume R_1 is higher priority than R_2)

attack at *si* face:



- Let's revise the faces assignment



Cahn-Ingold-Prelog

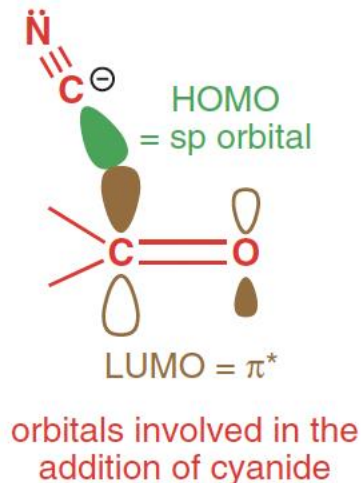
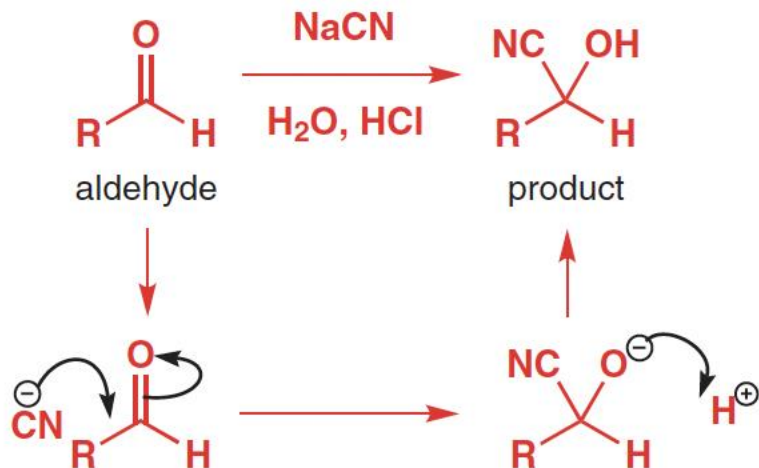
1) rank substituents:

- 1) Higher molecular weight
- 2) If identical move to next atom away from chiral center
- 3) Multiple bonds count as two identical substituent atoms

-Remember we go from an sp^2 to sp^3 configuration of the carbon

-If the R groups are not equivalent – a chiral center is created

-The configuration of the chiral center depends on the face that is attacked



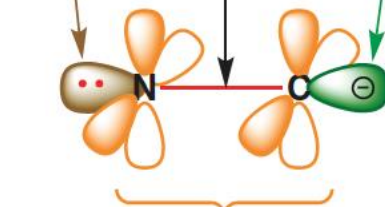
orbitals of the cyanide ion



C-N σ orbital
(not shown)

HOMO = sp orbital on C
containing lone pair

sp orbital on N
contains lone pair

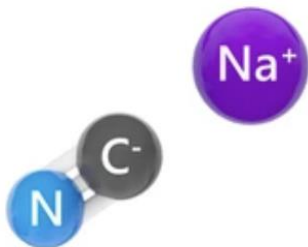


two pairs of p orbitals make
two orthogonal π bonds

The important part is to reason about which species is the nucleophile

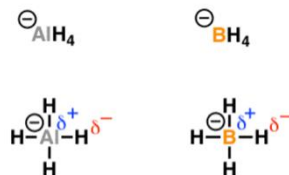
Some reagents that can be used for nucleophilic additions

NaCN



- Sodium positive ion
- Cyanide the negative electrophile

NaAlH₄/NaBH₄



Electronegativities:

Aluminum: 1.6	Boron: 2.0
Hydrogen: 2.2	Hydrogen: 2.2

- Sodium positive ion => BH₄ is negative
- **However due to electronegativity differences the nucleophilic atom is hydrogen**

R-Li(organolithium)

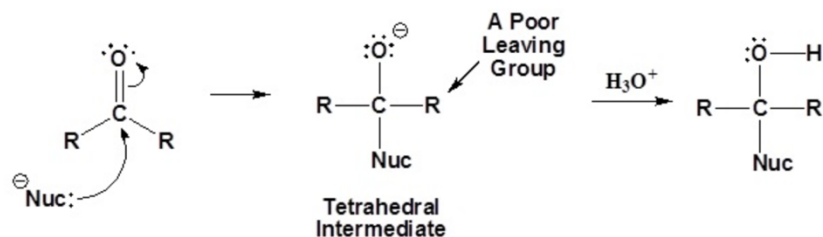


Note

R is a generic carbon group
e.g. CH₃, CH₂CH₃, CH₂C₆H₅, etc

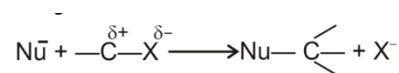
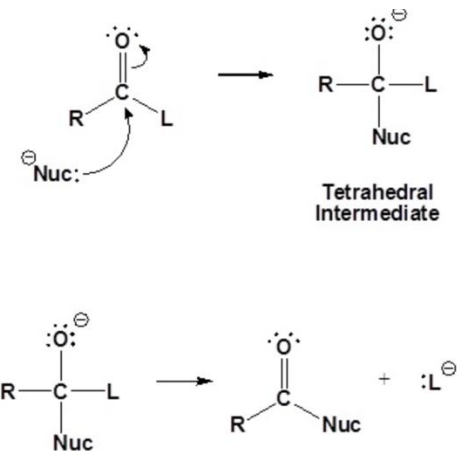
Comparing nucleophilic additions and nucleophilic substitutions

Addition



-pi bond reacts with a nucleophile leading to the disappearance of a double bond and the creation of a new sigma bond

Substitutions



-Leaving group leaves

Questions?

Concerted model:

