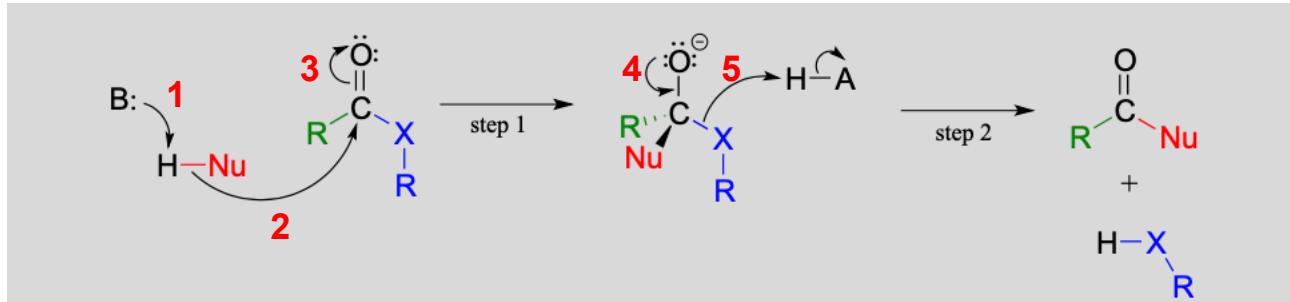


# Bio-organic chemistry

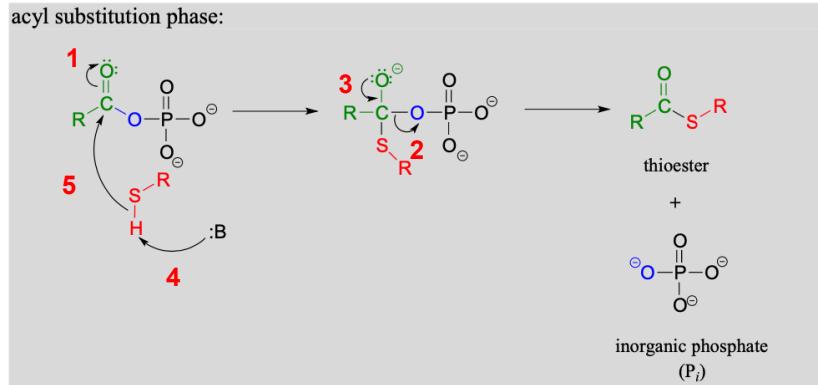
Lecture 11

# Nucleophilic acyl substitution mechanism



- 1- Base extracts proton from nucleophile – activating the nucleophile - you can think about it now as ( $Nu^-$ )
- 2- Attack to the electrophilic carbon
- 3- Delocalization of electrons to the carbonyl oxygen to fulfill the valency of the carbon
- 4- Delocalization of the electrons carbonyl oxygen to the acyl-X group
- 5 - Attack to the electron donor (acid)

acyl substitution phase:



Pair the steps and put them in the right order

D - Attack to the electrophilic carbon

A - Delocalization of electrons to the carbonyl oxygen

C - Delocalization of the electrons from the carbonyl oxygen

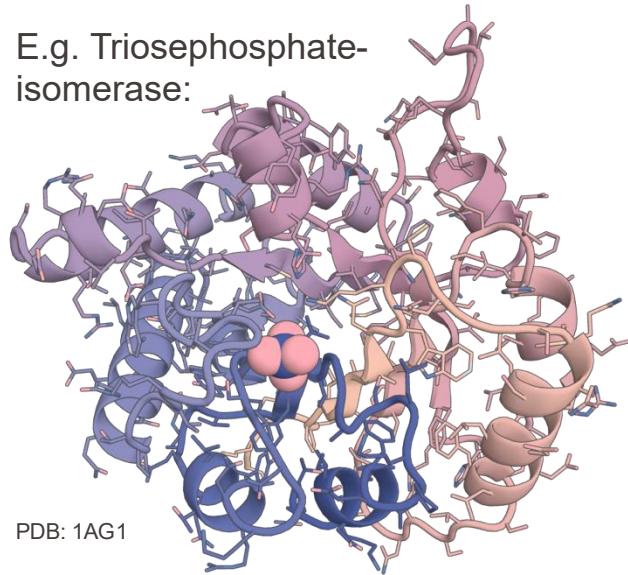
E - Extraction of proton from nucleophile

B –Bond breakage for leaving group

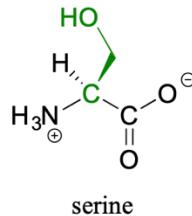
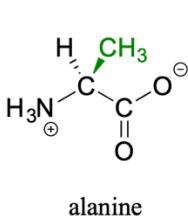
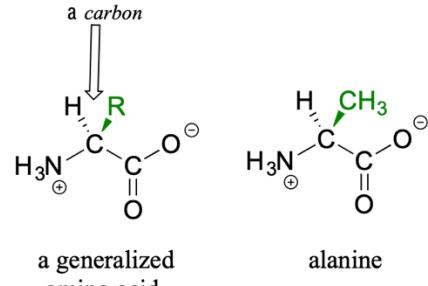
# How can organic reactions occur in such diversity in such limited reaction conditions?

Enzymes are proteins that act as biological catalysts by accelerating chemical reactions.

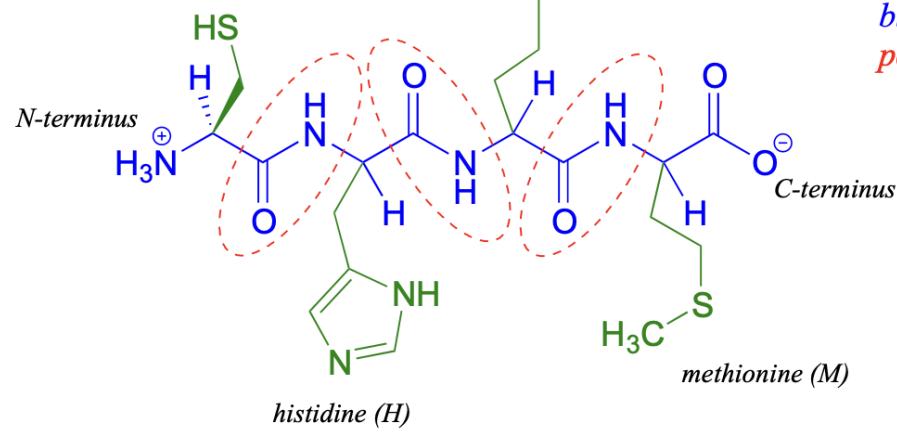
E.g. Triosephosphate-isomerase:



# Proteins are polymers of amino acids, linked by amide groups known as peptide bonds



cysteine (C)



CHEM peptide

**TWENTY-ONE  
PROTEINOGENIC  
 $\alpha$ -AMINO ACIDS**

Side chain charge  
at physiological  
pH 7.4

*pK<sub>a</sub>* values shown  
italicized

⊕ Positive  
⊖ Negative

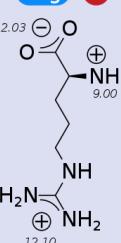
**A. Amino Acids with Electrically Charged Side Chains**

Positive

Negative

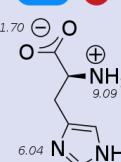
Arginine

Arg R



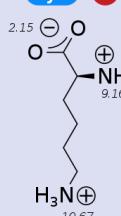
Histidine

His H



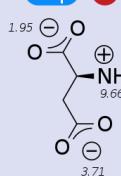
Lysine

Lys K



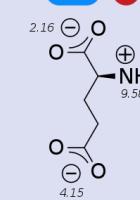
Aspartic Acid

Asp D



Glutamic Acid

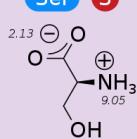
Glu E



**B. Amino Acids with Polar Uncharged Side Chains**

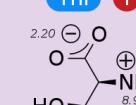
Serine

Ser S



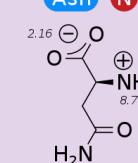
Threonine

Thr T



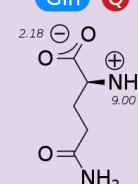
Asparagine

Asn N



Glutamine

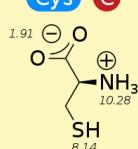
Gln Q



**C. Special Cases**

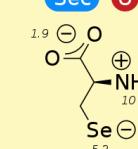
Cysteine

Cys C



Selenocysteine

Sec U



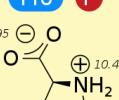
Glycine

Gly G



Proline

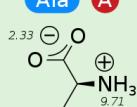
Pro P



**D. Amino Acids with Hydrophobic Side Chains**

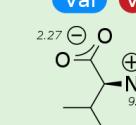
Alanine

Ala A



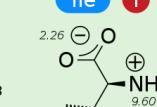
Valine

Val V



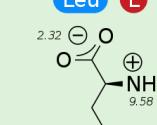
Isoleucine

Ile I



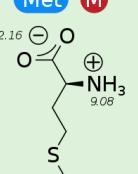
Leucine

Leu L



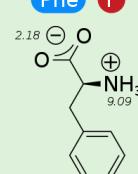
Methionine

Met M



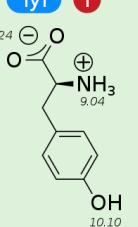
Phenylalanine

Phe F



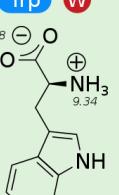
Tyrosine

Tyr Y



Tryptophan

Trp W



**Random combinations of 20 amino acids**

3-mer:  $20^3 = 8000$  different peptides

5-mer:  $20^5 = 3.2 \times 10^6$  different peptides

10-mer:  $20^{10} = 1.0 \times 10^{13}$  different peptides

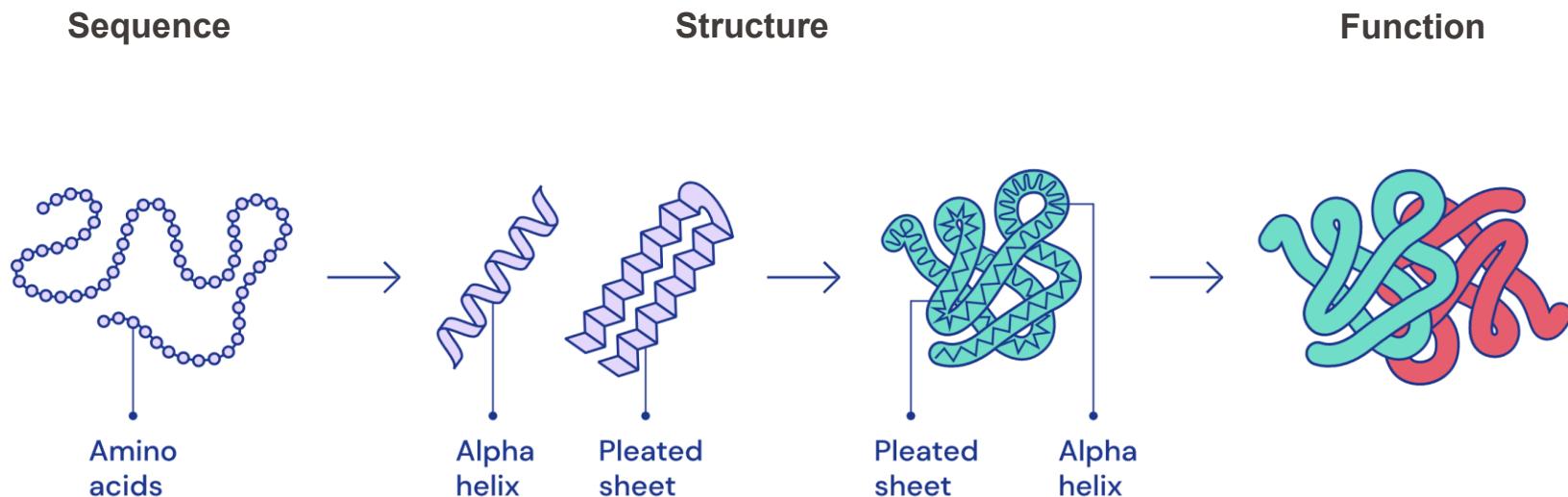
50-mer:  $20^{50} = 1.1 \times 10^{65}$  different peptides

**Weight of  $1.1 \times 10^{65}$  single 50-mer peptide molecules:**

**$1.3 \times 10^{39}$  kg**

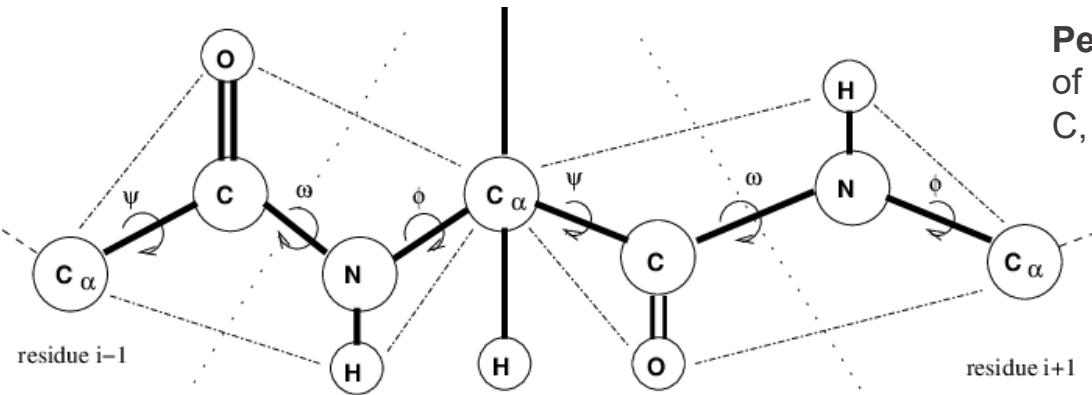
**Weight of the earth:  $5.9 \times 10^{24}$  kg**

# Anfinsen-Dogma: The Sequence Determines the Protein Structure and Function

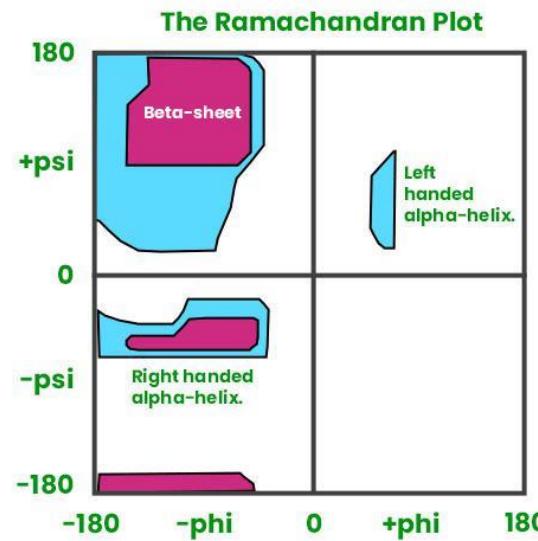


1. Image taken from: <https://www.deepmind.com/blog/alphafold-using-ai-for-scientific-discovery-2020>

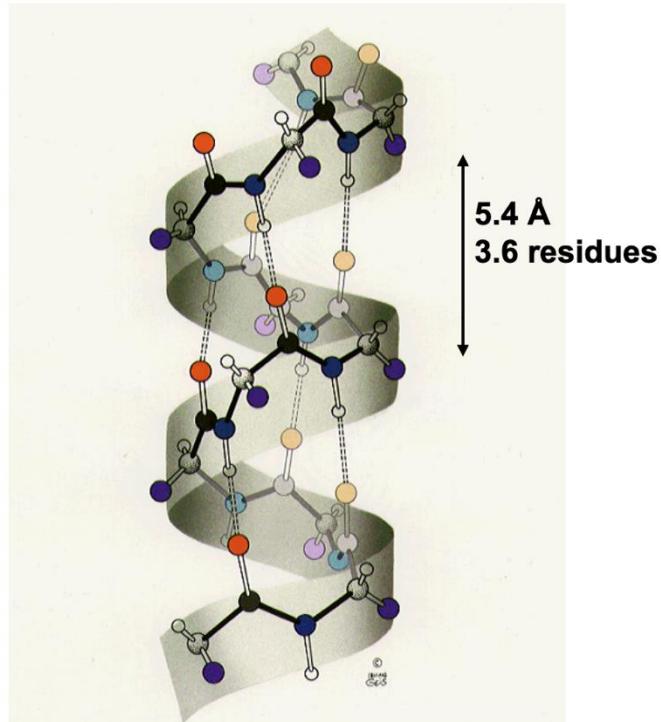
# The Protein Backbone



**Peptide Bonds Are Planar:** In a pair of linked amino acids, six atoms ( $\text{C}_{\alpha}$ ,  $\text{C}$ ,  $\text{O}$ ,  $\text{N}$ ,  $\text{H}$ , and  $\text{C}_{\alpha}$ ) lie in a plane.



Right handed  $\alpha$ -helix ( $\Phi = -57^\circ$ ,  $\Psi = -47^\circ$ )



### H-bonds

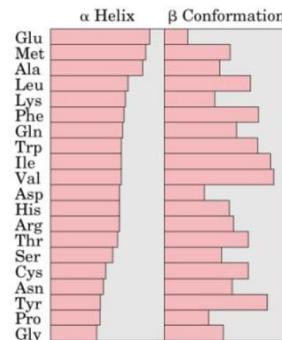
- between C=O of AA<sup>n</sup> and N-H of AA<sup>n+4</sup>
- parallel to helix axis
- N...O distance: ~2.8 Å
- angle N...H...O: ~9°

■ From: Voet, Voet "Biochemistry", Wiley VCH 1990



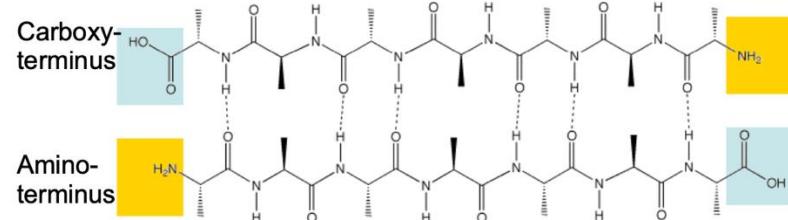
A. Helen, L. Pauling

### Amino acid propensity to form $\alpha$ -helices and $\beta$ -sheets

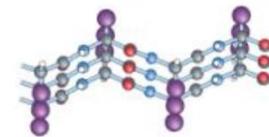


# Parallel and Antiparallel $\beta$ -sheets

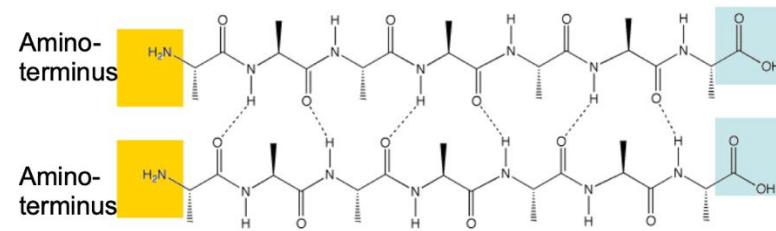
**Anti-parallel** ( $\Phi = -139^\circ$ ,  $\Psi = 135^\circ$ )



**Side views**

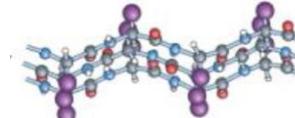


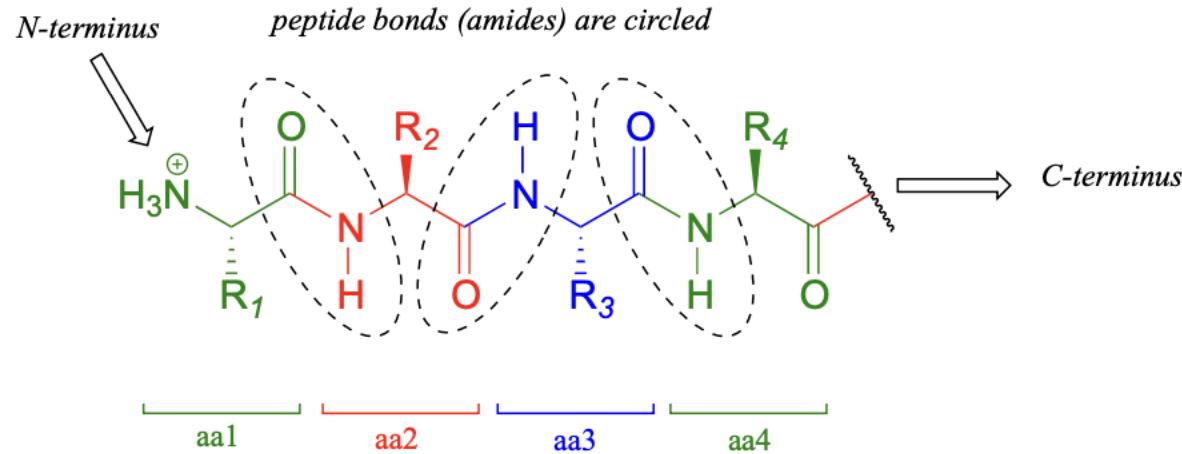
**Parallel** ( $\Phi = -119^\circ$ ,  $\Psi = 113^\circ$ )



Carboxy-terminus

Carboxy-terminus

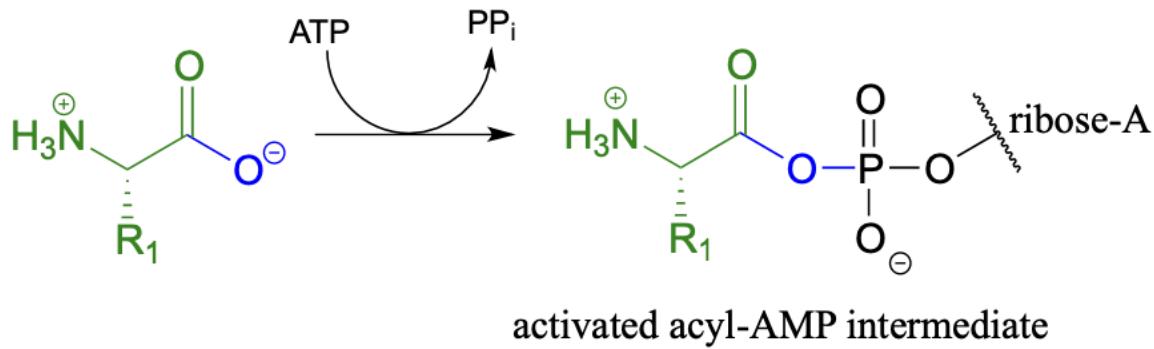




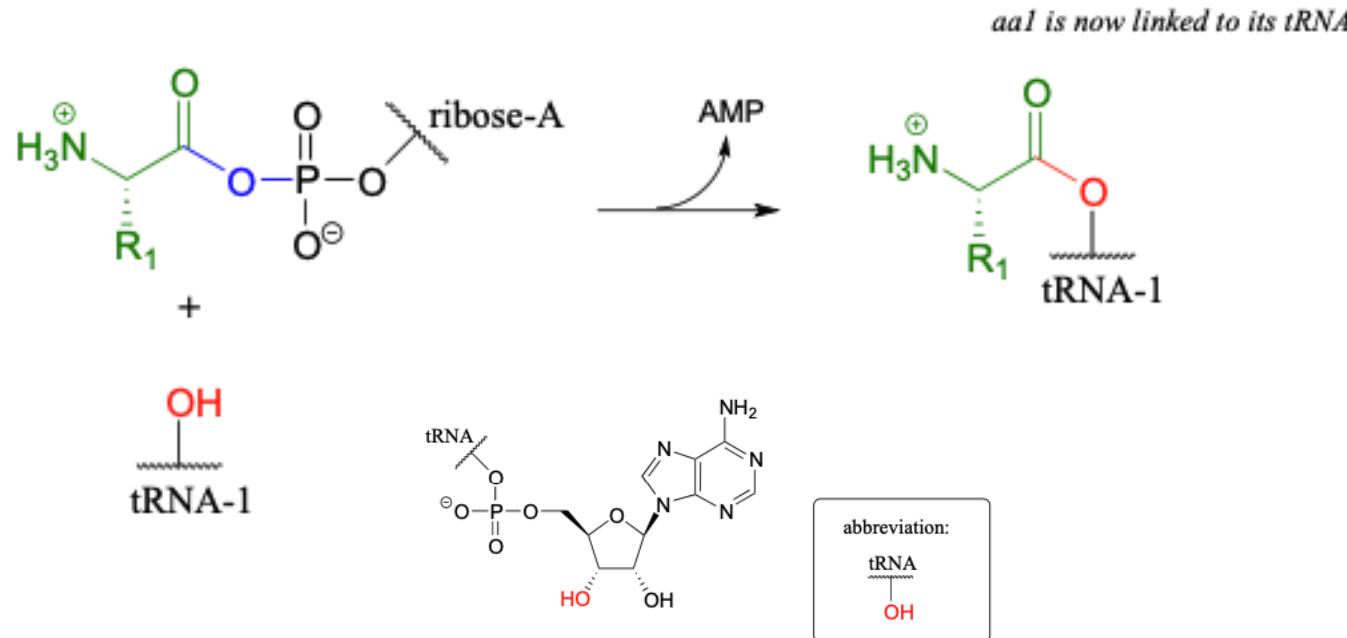
### (Bio-)Chemical Challenges:

- Activation?
- Sequence?
- Selectivity?

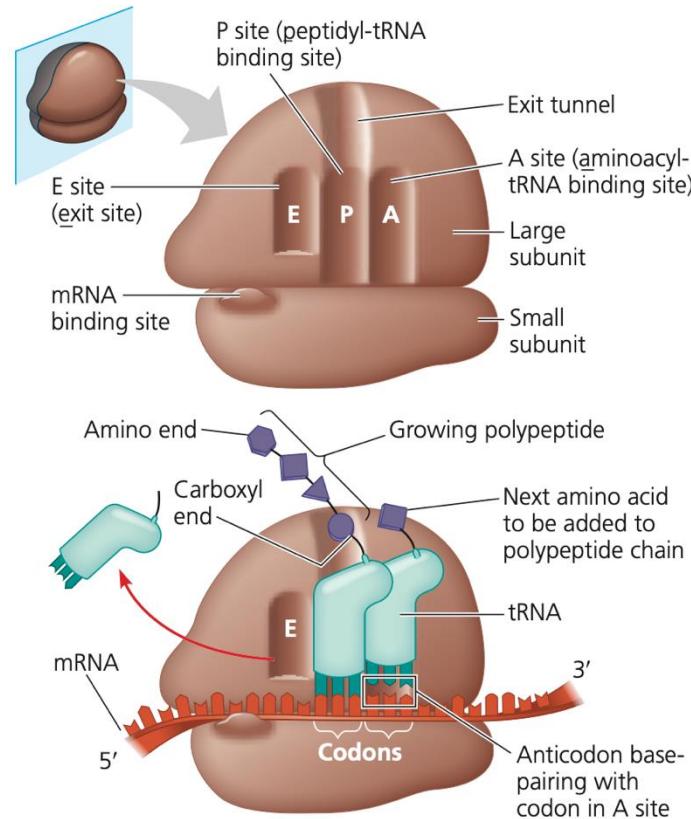
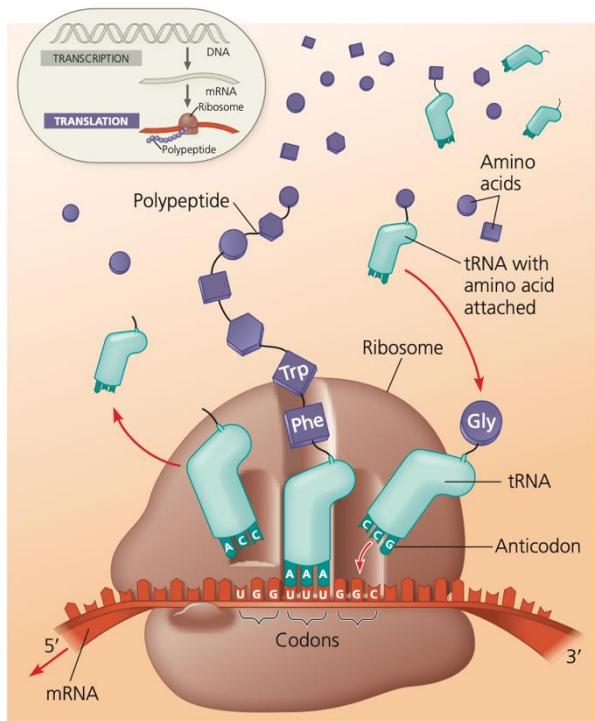
# The carboxylate group of aa-1 is first transformed to an acyl-AMP intermediate



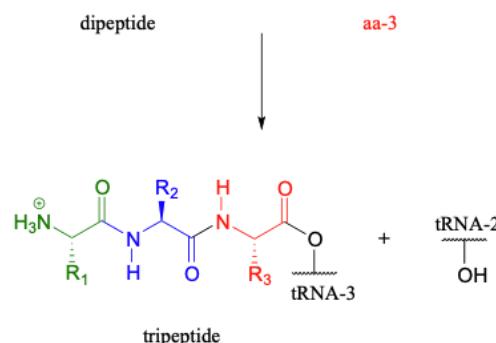
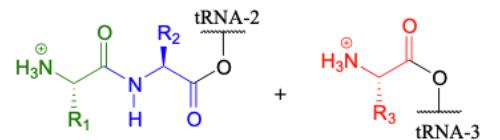
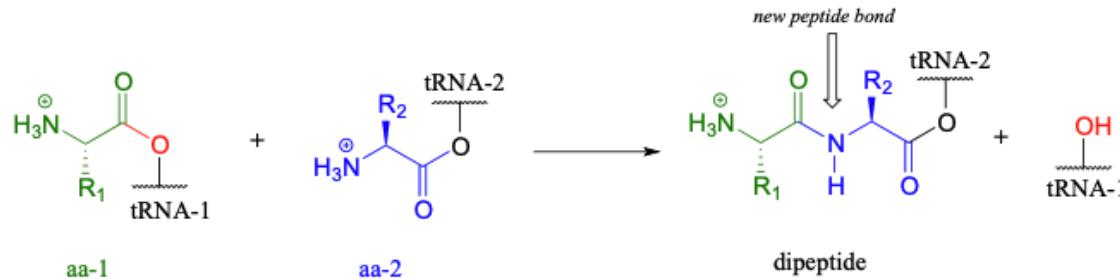
# The amino acid is transferred to a special kind of RNA polymer called transfer RNA (tRNA)



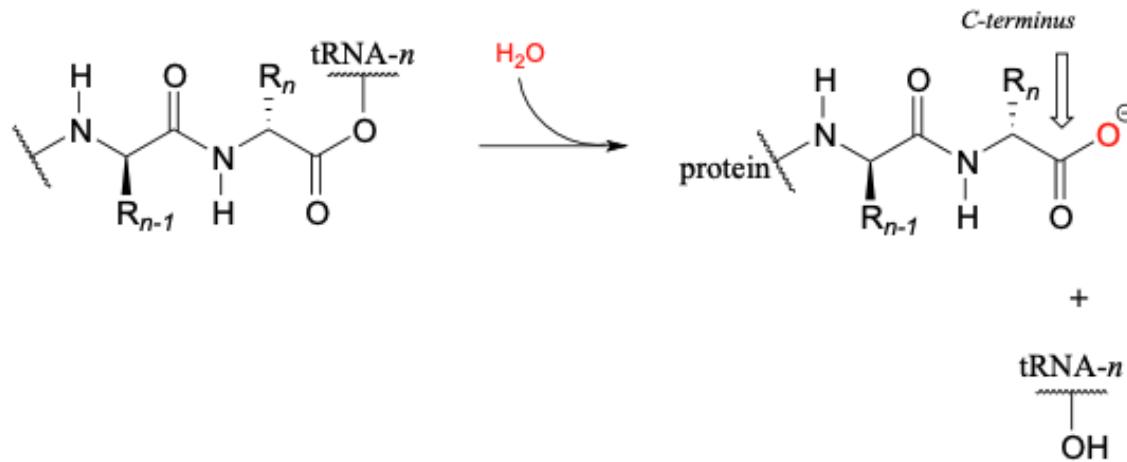
# Selectivity of Protein Biosynthesis is Based on “Codons”



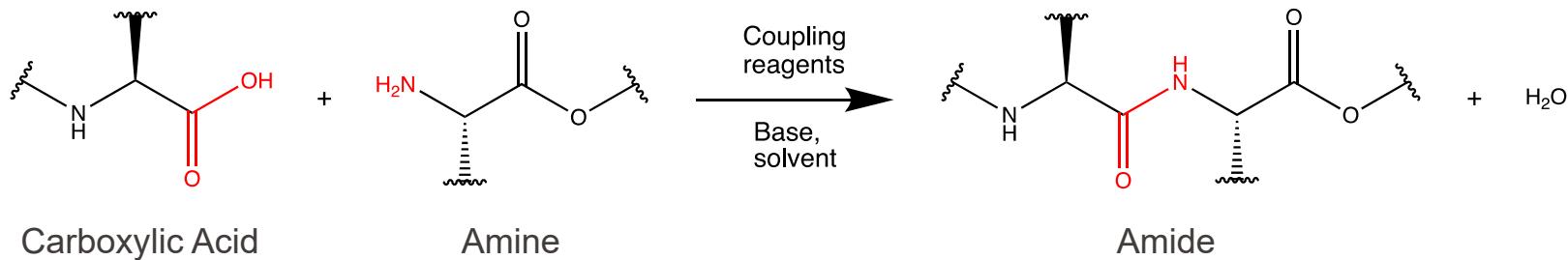
# Elongation: Ester to amide conversion by an enzymatic component of the ribosome called peptidyl transferase



# Ester hydrolysis by release factors (RFs)



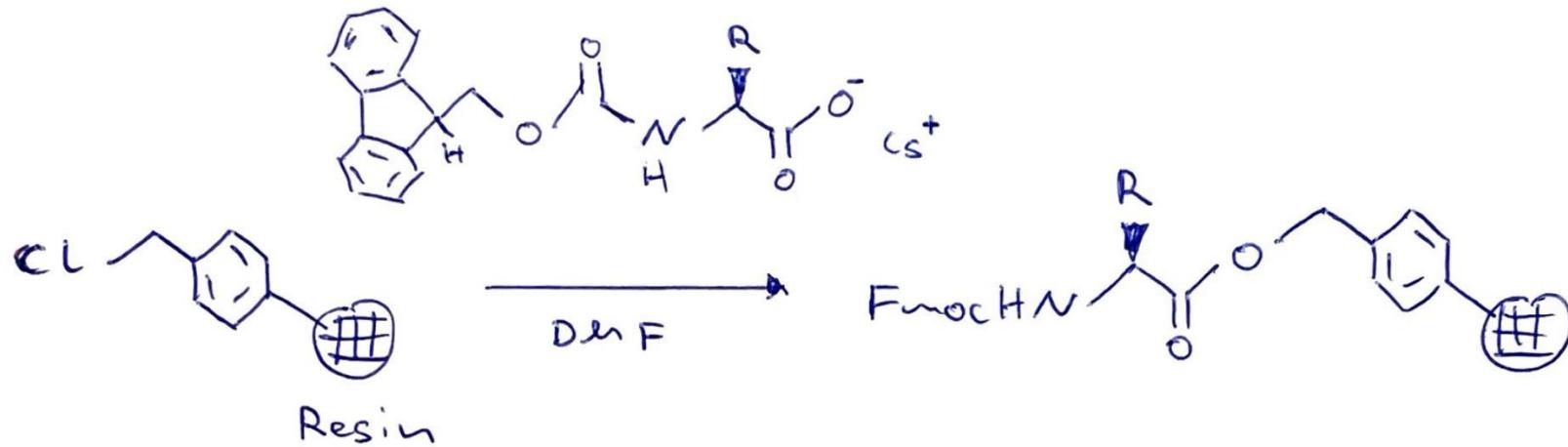
Activation?  
Sequence?  
Selectivity?  
Questions the Chemist  
also asks *in vitro*



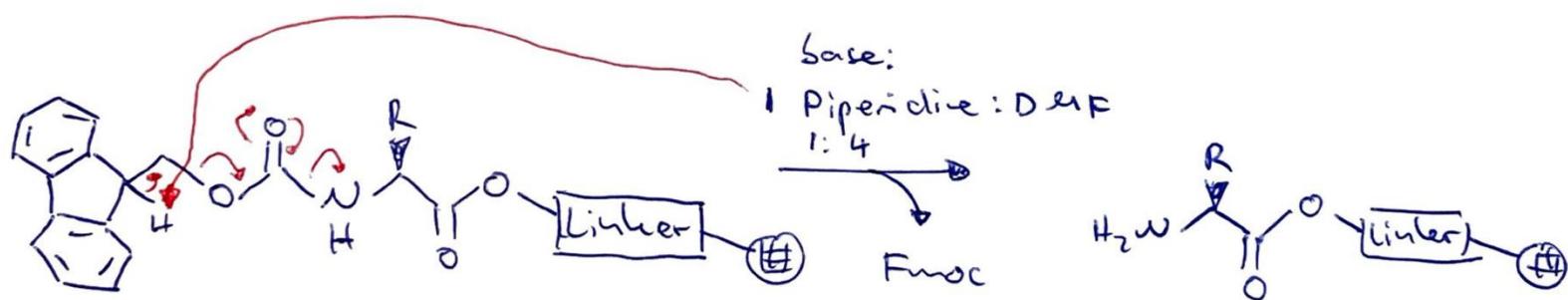
# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

## 1. Coupling to Resin

Fmoc = Protecting Group to avoid undesired side reaction

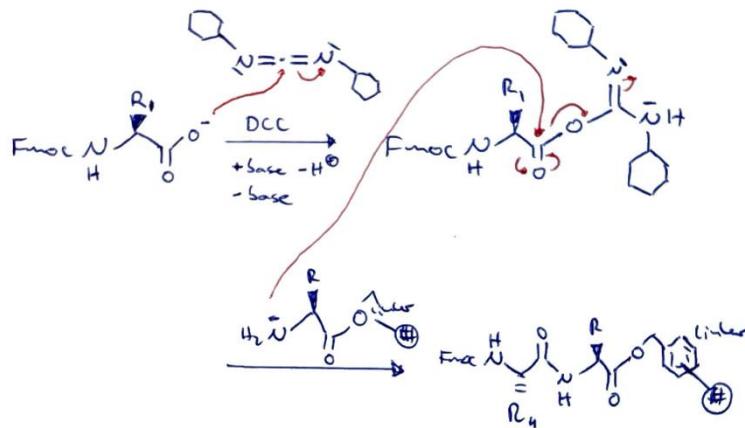
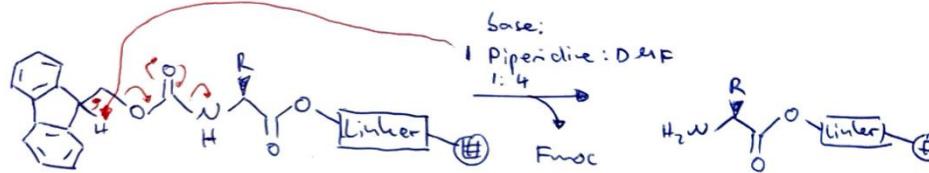


## Protecting Group Removal



# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

## Amino acid activation via coupling reagents

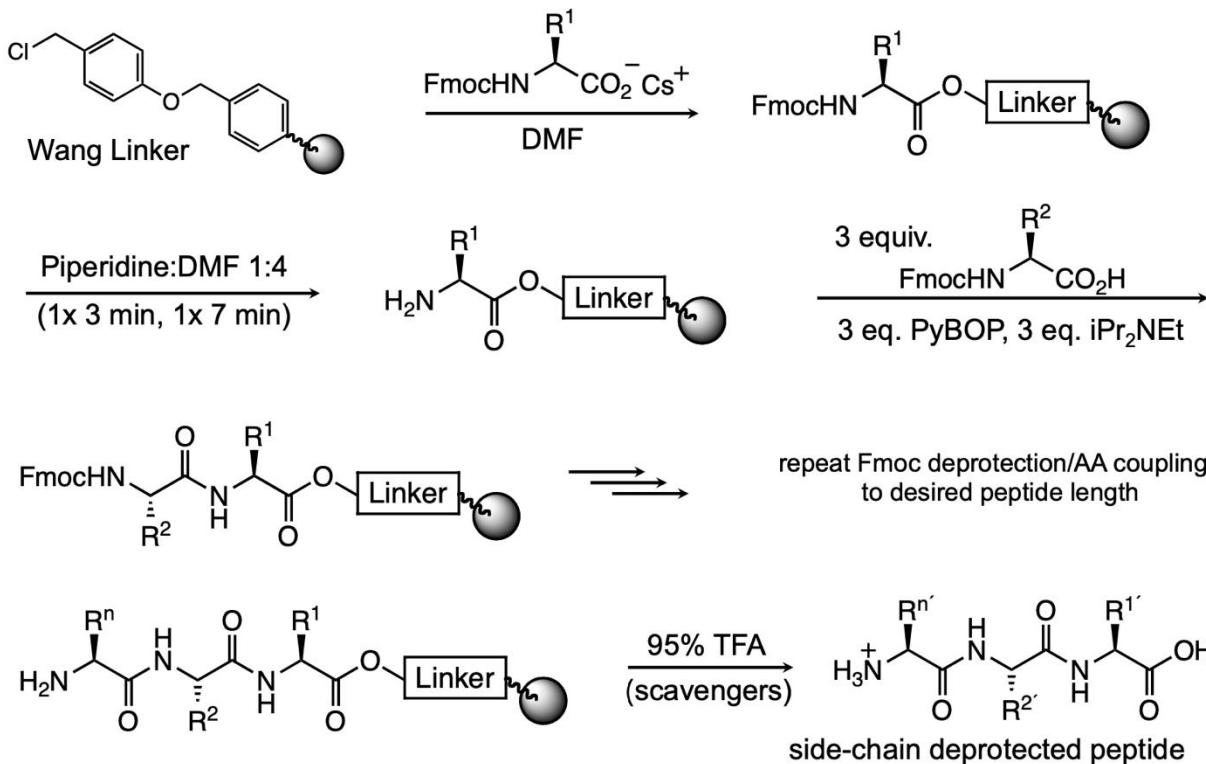


Many linkers & Coupling  
Reagents & Protecting  
Groups possible!

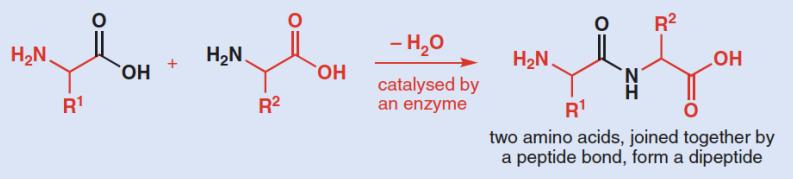
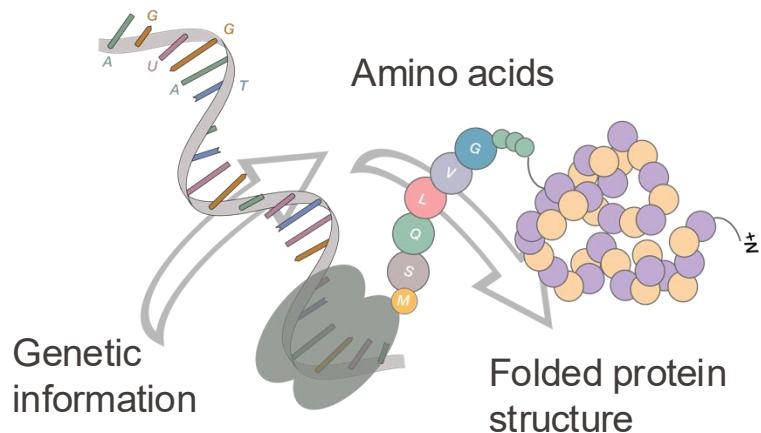
repeat  
deprotect  
&  
purify

# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

## Summary

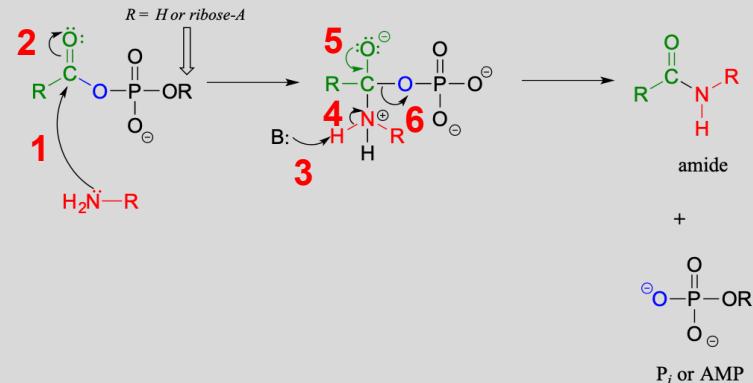


# Amide formation from carboxylic acids



## Mechanism for amide formation:

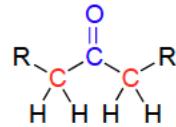
carboxylate group has been activated by phosphorylation  
(see section 11.4 for mechanism)



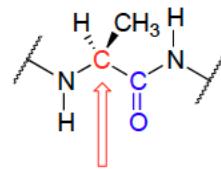
- 1 - Amine attacks the electrophilic carbonyl carbon
- 2 – Delocalization of electrons
- 3 – Base attack to the nitrogen proton
- 4 – Electrons become a nonbonded pair in N
- 5 – Delocalization of electrons to make a double bond
- 6 – Bond breakage to release leaving group

**Let's do one of these together without the phosphate leaving group**

## Reactions at the $\alpha$ - carbon of Carbonyls, Carboxylic acids and derivatives



$\alpha$ -carbons on a ketone

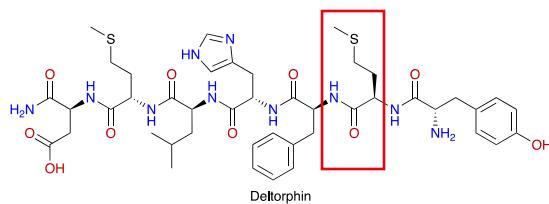


the  $\alpha$ -carbon of an alanine amino acid residue in a protein

# How the chemistry of the $\alpha$ - carbon is related to biology



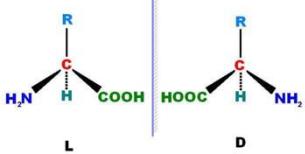
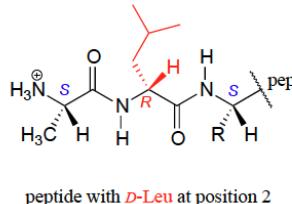
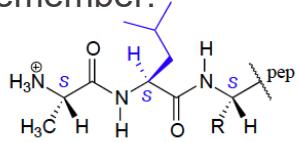
Note: Venoms usually contain a pool of different peptides and active compounds.



IMFFEMQACWSHSGVCRDKSE  
RNCKPMAWTYCENRNQKCCEY  
(DLP2)

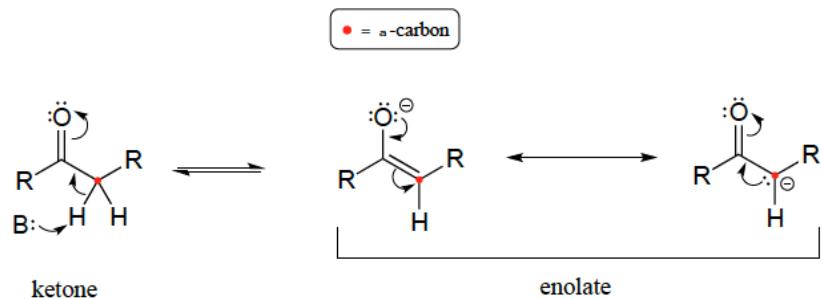
The peptides are initially synthesized using all *L*-amino acids, and then the amino acid at position #2 undergoes a 'post-translational modification' to the *D*-amino acid

Remember:



How does this exchange work?

# Enolate formation is an important property of carbonyl groups



Remember the electron withdrawing effect of the carbonyl!

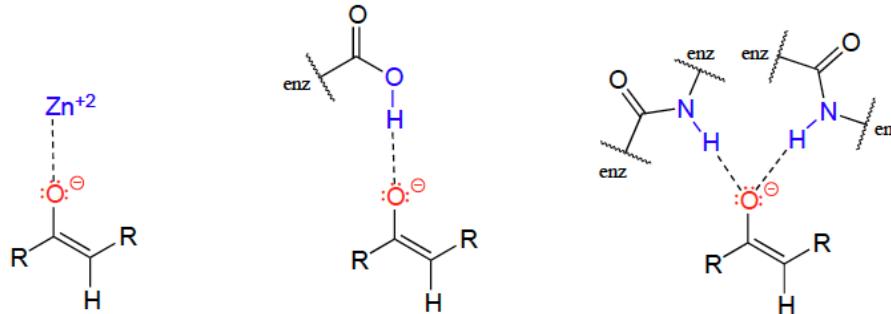
## Acidity of $\alpha$ -protons:

- pKa range of approximately 18-20 in aqueous solutions.
- Resonance stabilization of the enolate conjugate base spreads the negative charge over both the  $\alpha$ -carbon and the carbonyl oxygen.

## Enolate Ion Structure:

- $\alpha$ -carbon is sp<sup>2</sup>-hybridized with trigonal planar geometry, akin to the carbonyl carbon and oxygen atoms.
- Resonance delocalization of negative charge involves  $\pi$ -bonding in conjugated systems.

# Different structural properties of enzymes can stabilize enolates



## Enzymatic Influence on pKa:

- Enzymes modify the effective pKa of functional groups in their active sites.
- Stabilization of the negative charge on the oxygen atom of the enolate is crucial for reactions involving  $\alpha$ -proton abstraction.

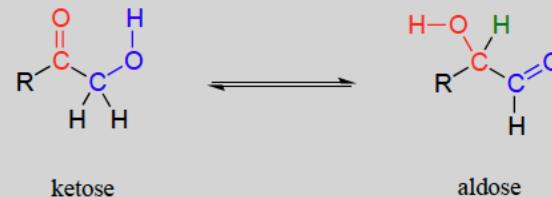
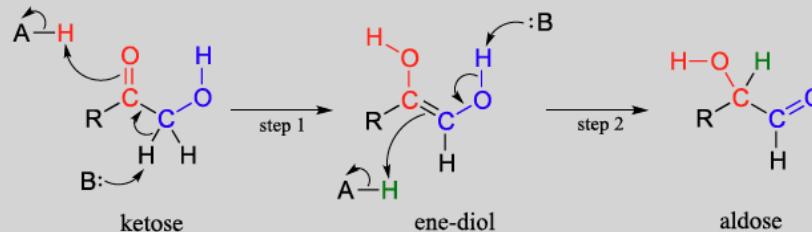
## Stabilization Mechanisms:

- Metal cations (e.g., Zn<sup>2+</sup>) form stabilizing ion-ion interactions in the active site.
- Proton-donating groups near the oxygen atom assist in stabilization.
- Active site architecture can provide hydrogen bond donor groups for stabilization purposes.

**Ketose and Aldose Conversion:**

Ketose: Sugar molecules containing ketone functional groups.

Aldose: Sugar molecules containing aldehyde functional groups.

**Carbonyl isomerization:****Mechanism:****1. Enol Formation**

The ketose species undergoes a conversion to its enol tautomer, specifically an 'ene-diol' intermediate.

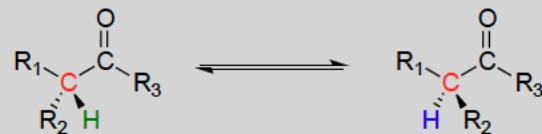
**2. Tautomerization to Aldose**

In the subsequent step, another tautomerization occurs, leading to the formation of the aldose. (structural isomers)

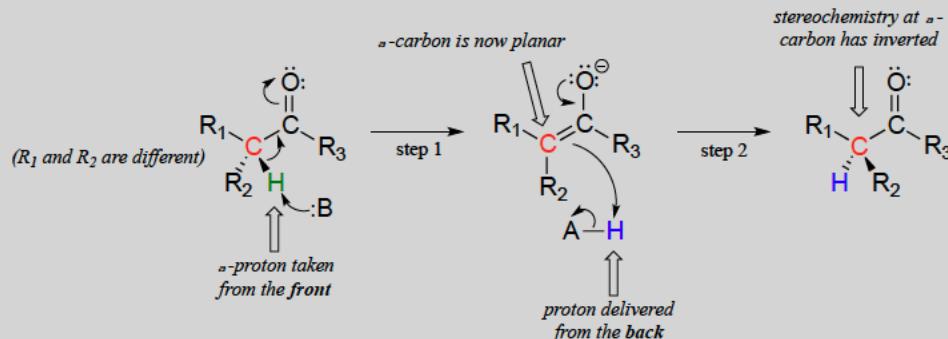
# Stereoisomerization at the $\alpha$ - carbon

Involvement of enolates as intermediates allows for the alteration of stereochemical configurations at the  $\alpha$ -carbon, contributing to the formation of enantiomers in racemization

Racemization/epimerization:



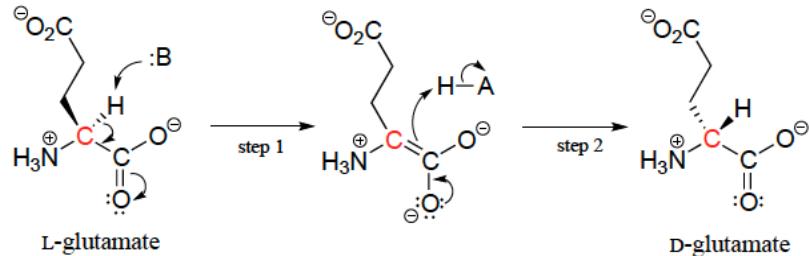
Mechanism:



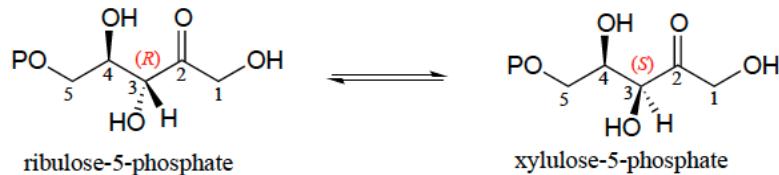
Racemization:

Involves the conversion between enantiomers, resulting in a racemic mixture.

# Stereoisomerization at the $\alpha$ - carbon



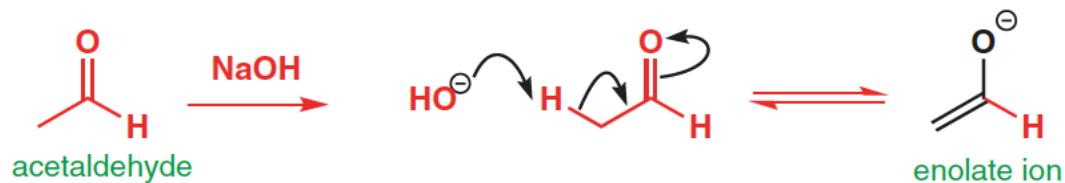
Cell walls of bacteria are constructed in part of peptides containing D-glutamate, converted from L-glutamate by the enzyme **glutamate racemase**.



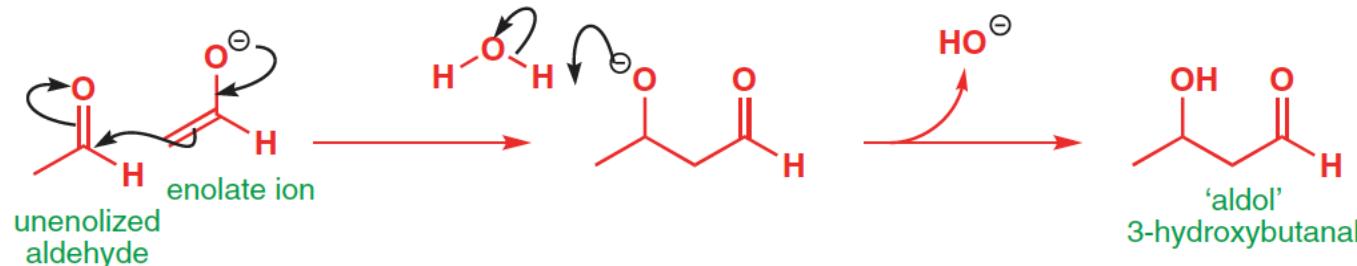
The epimerization of ribulose-5-phosphate and xylulose-5-phosphate catalyzed by the **epimerase** is a pivotal step in the pentose phosphate pathway

# Aldol reactions

- One of the most important mechanisms in metabolism
- Creation of carbon-carbon bonds

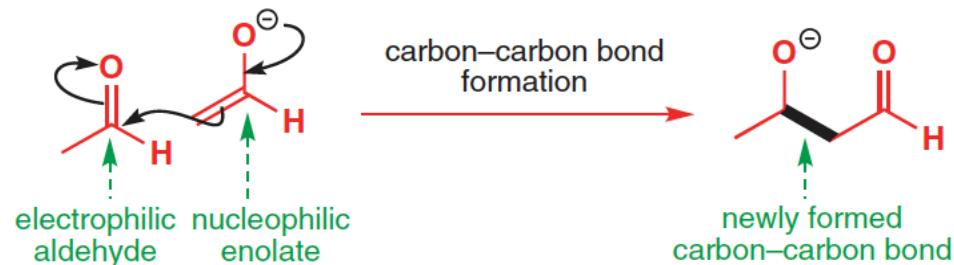


- Basic conditions (NaOH) generates enolate ions – not to completion
- Formed enolate ions act as nucleophiles, attacking unenolized aldehyde molecules
- Water, produced in the process, protonates the alkoxide ion.



The product is an aldehyde with a hydroxy (ol) group, and it has the name aldol

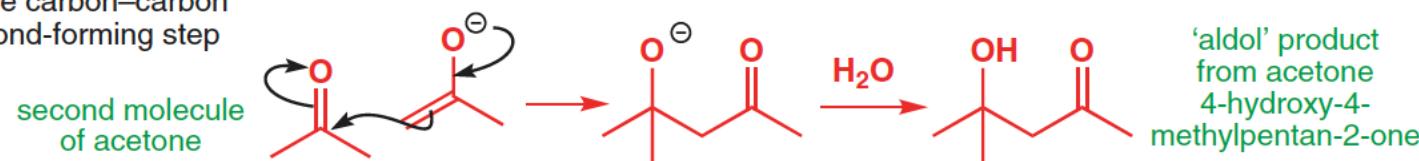
# Aldol reactions



the enolization step



the carbon–carbon bond-forming step



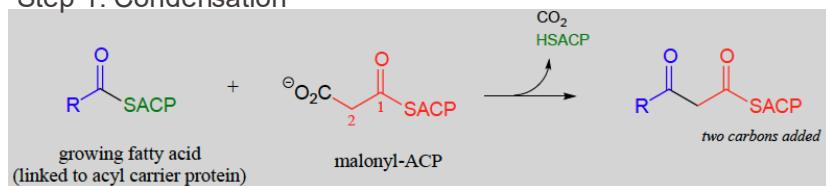
Ketones, like acetone, undergo enolization akin to acetaldehyde's aldol sequence. Acetone forms an enolate ion, leading to a hydroxy-ketone product via carbon–carbon bond formation.

**Let's do one of these together**

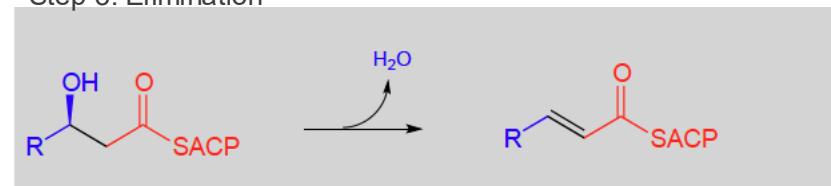
# Application: Fatty Acid Synthesis

Two carbons are added at a time to a growing fatty acid chain, and in the degradative direction, two carbons are removed at a time. In each case, there is a four-step reaction cycle that gets repeated over and over.

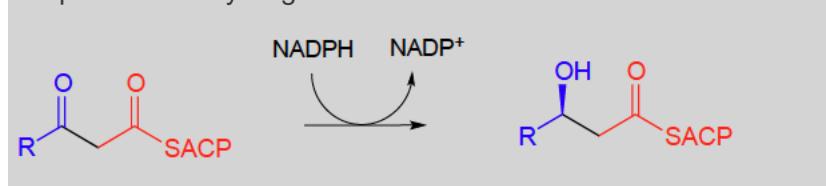
Step 1: Condensation



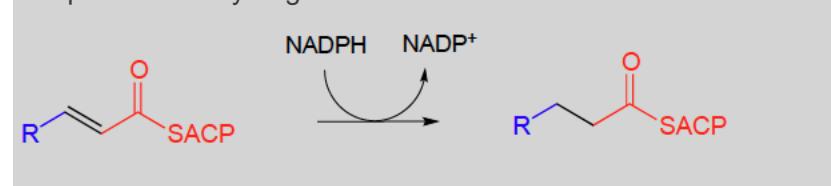
Step 3: Elimination



Step 2: Ketone hydrogenation



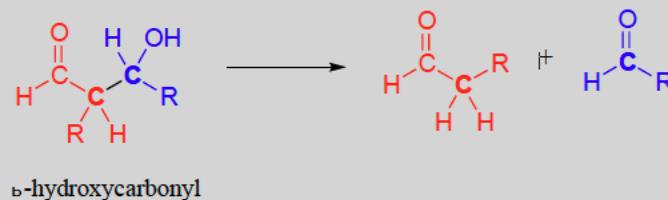
Step 4: Alkene hydrogenation



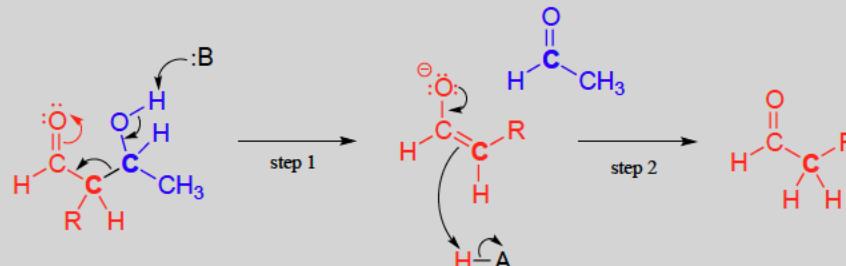
# Breaking C-C bonds: Retro-Aldol Reactions

- Aldol reactions can go both ways are reversible due to closely balanced energy levels between reactants and products. Under specific metabolic conditions, aldolases can catalyze retro-aldol reactions, breaking carbon-carbon bonds in a reversal of aldol reactions.

A retro-aldol cleavage reaction:



Mechanism:



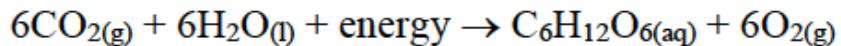
**Retro-aldol cleavage steps:**

Step 1: Deprotonation of the  $\beta$ -hydroxy group, forming a carbonyl and transitioning the enolate carbon into a leaving group.

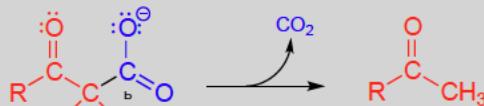
Step 2: Reprotonation of the enolate, regenerating the initial aldehyde.

# Decarboxylation Reactions

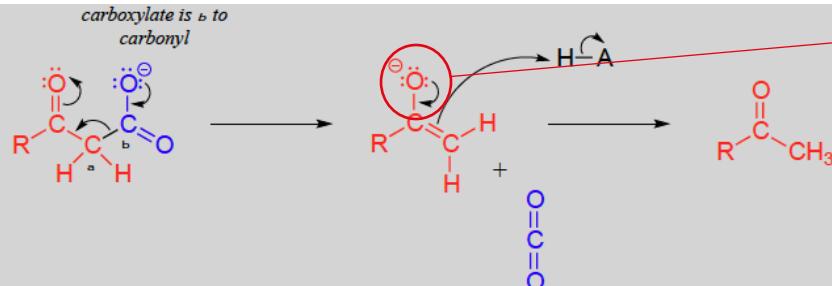
The gain or loss of a single carbon atom, often in the form of carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), is integral in numerous carbon-carbon bond-forming and bond-breaking processes within biological chemistry



Decarboxylation of a  $\beta$ -carboxy ketone or aldehyde:

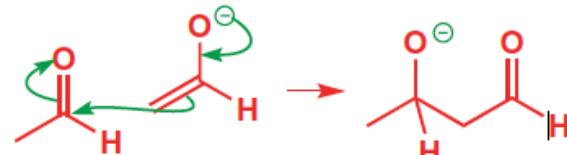
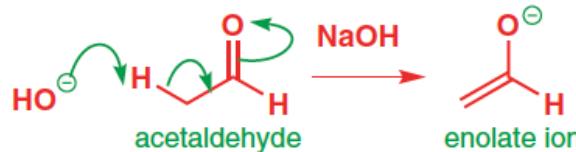


Electrons need to be stabilized!  
→ Usually by resonance with an oxygen or nitrogen

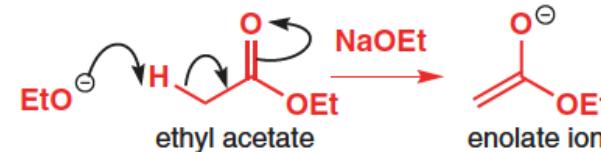
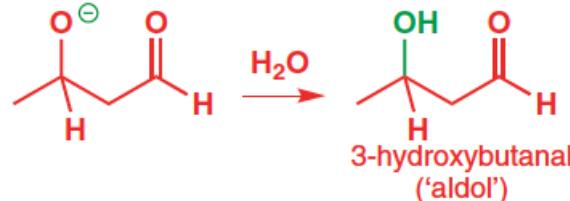


Similar to a retro-aldol reaction, the breaking of a carbon-carbon bond necessitates the stabilization of the resulting electrons

# The Claisen Condensation



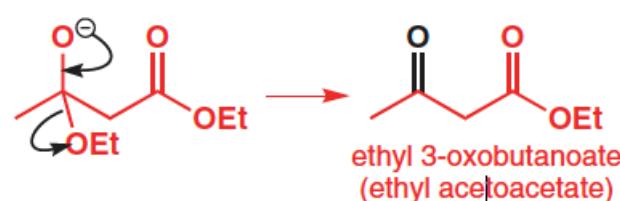
completion of the aldol with acetaldehyde



the 'aldol' step with ethyl acetate

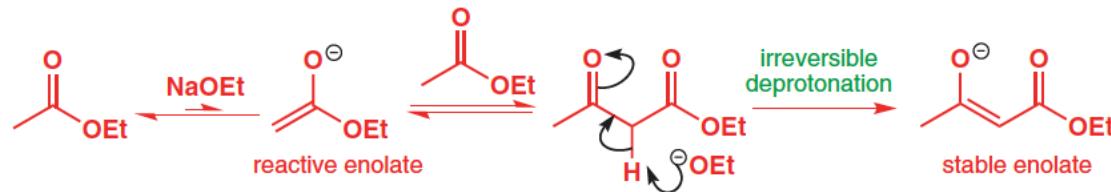


the Claisen condensation with ethyl acetate

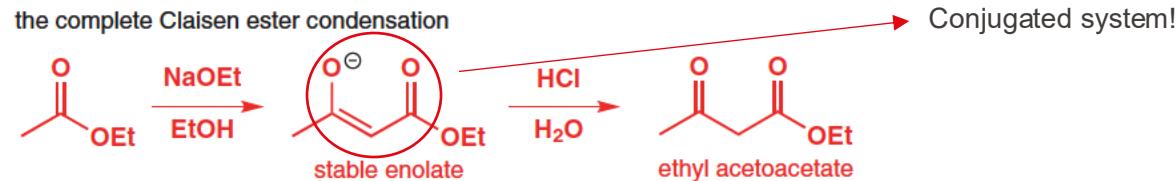


A Claisen condensation reaction is simply a nucleophilic acyl substitution reaction with an enolate carbon nucleophile

# The Claisen Condensation



The base partially forms the enolate from the ester, leading to a limited equilibrium concentration that reacts with the ester electrophile. While appearing catalytic at first, the subsequent step progresses by consuming ethoxide through irreversible deprotonation, driving the reaction toward product formation



-> The product formation involved acylating the enolate carbon of an ester.

**Let's do one of these together**

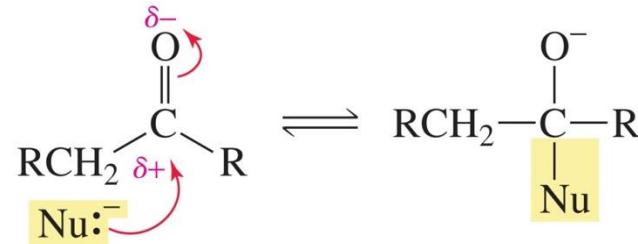
- Understand the formation of the enolate species
- Isomerization effects at the alpha-carbon
- Aldol reaction and its mechanism
- Retro-alcohol reaction and its mechanism
- Decarboxylation reaction and its mechanism
- Claisen condensation

Many other aspects are covered in chapter 12+13 for alpha-carbon reactions – for exam purposes focus only on the topics covered this lecture and the exercises

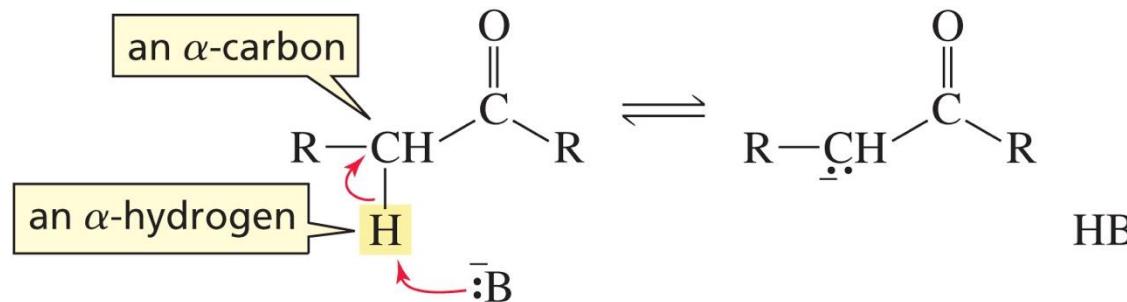
Questions ?

# Many Carbonyl Compounds Have Two Sites of Reactivity

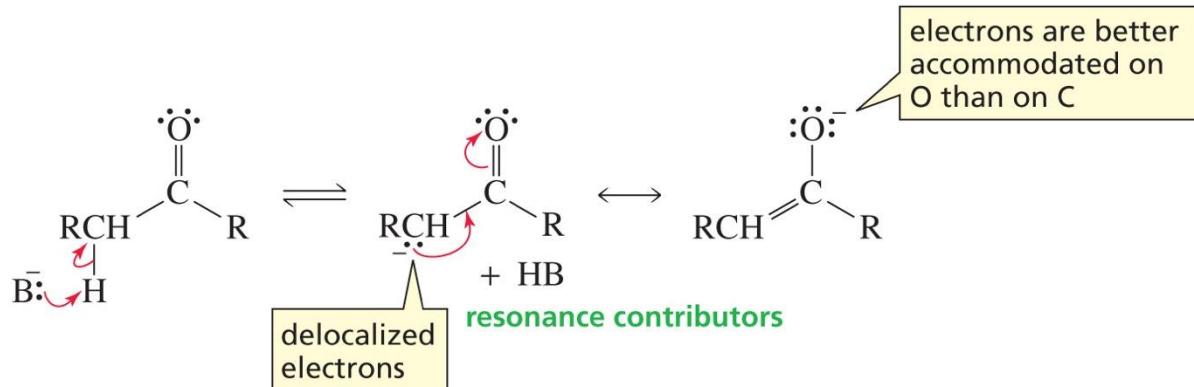
a nucleophile can add to the carbonyl carbon



a base can remove a proton from an  $\alpha$ -carbon  
(an  $\alpha$ -carbon is a carbon that is adjacent to a carbonyl carbon)



# The Electrons Left Behind When a Proton is Removed from an $\alpha$ -Carbon are Delocalized onto an Oxygen



delocalization increases stability

(the more stable the base, the stronger its conjugate acid)

oxygen is better able to accommodate the electrons than carbon