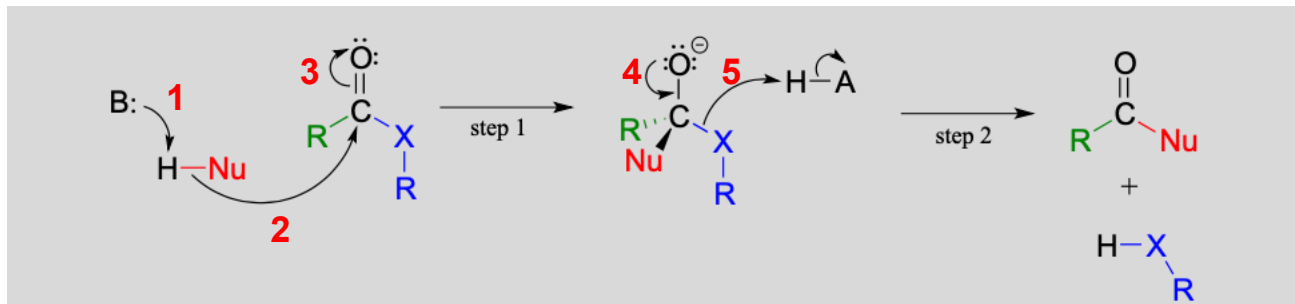


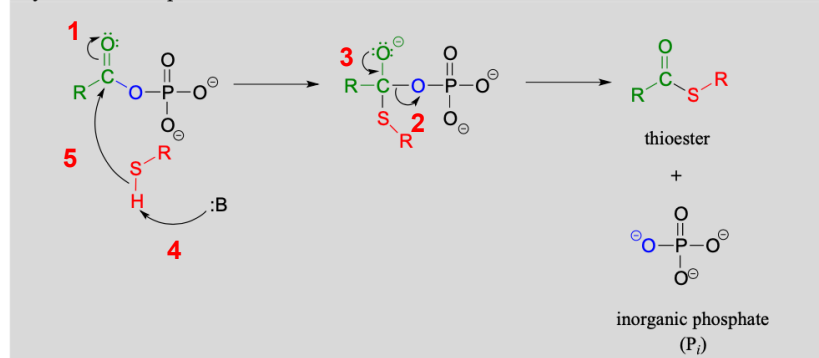
# Bio-organic chemistry

Lecture 11



- 1- Base extracts proton from nucleophile – activating the nucleophile - you can think about it now as (Nu<sup>-</sup>)
- 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

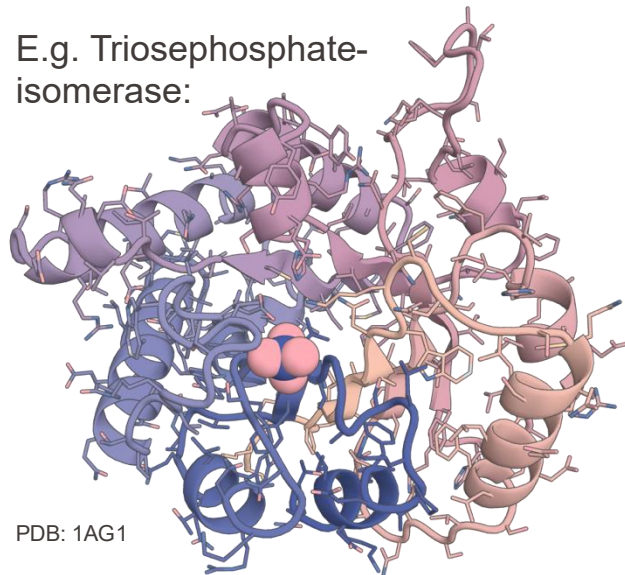
C - Delocalization of the electrons from the carbonyl oxygen

E - Extraction of proton from nucleophile

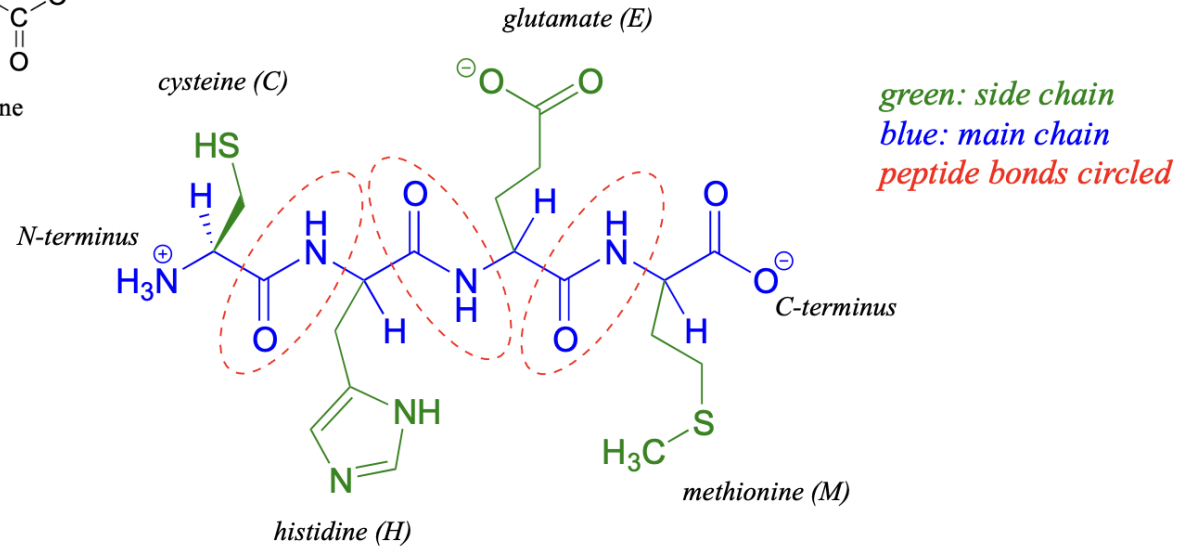
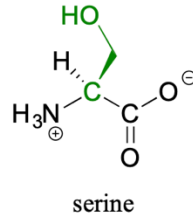
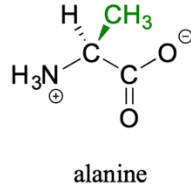
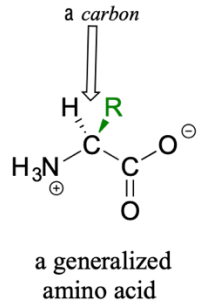
B - Bond breakage for leaving group

# 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.



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



CHEM peptide

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

Side chain charge at physiological pH 7.4

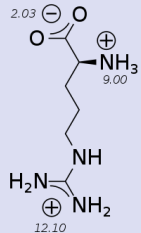
$pK_a$  values shown italicized

⊕ Positive  
⊖ Negative

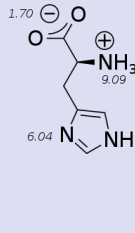
### A. Amino Acids with Electrically Charged Side Chains

#### Positive

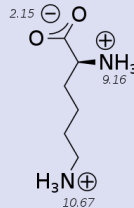
Arginine  
Arg R



Histidine  
His H

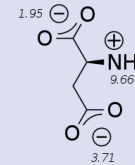


Lysine  
Lys K

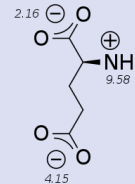


#### Negative

Aspartic Acid  
Asp D

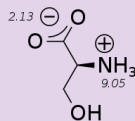


Glutamic Acid  
Glu E

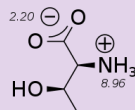


### B. Amino Acids with Polar Uncharged Side Chains

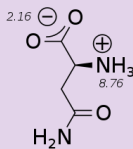
Serine  
Ser S



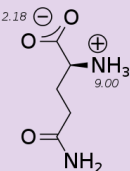
Threonine  
Thr T



Asparagine  
Asn N

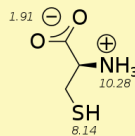


Glutamine  
Gln Q

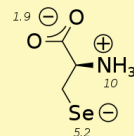


### C. Special Cases

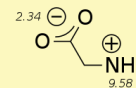
Cysteine  
Cys C



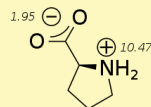
Selenocysteine  
Sec U



Glycine  
Gly G

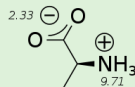


Proline  
Pro P

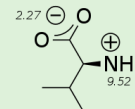


### D. Amino Acids with Hydrophobic Side Chains

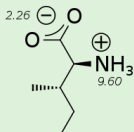
Alanine  
Ala A



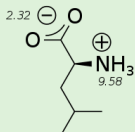
Valine  
Val V



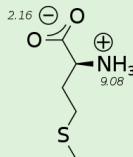
Isoleucine  
Ile I



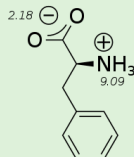
Leucine  
Leu L



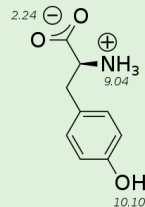
Methionine  
Met M



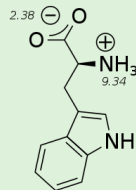
Phenylalanine  
Phe F



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**

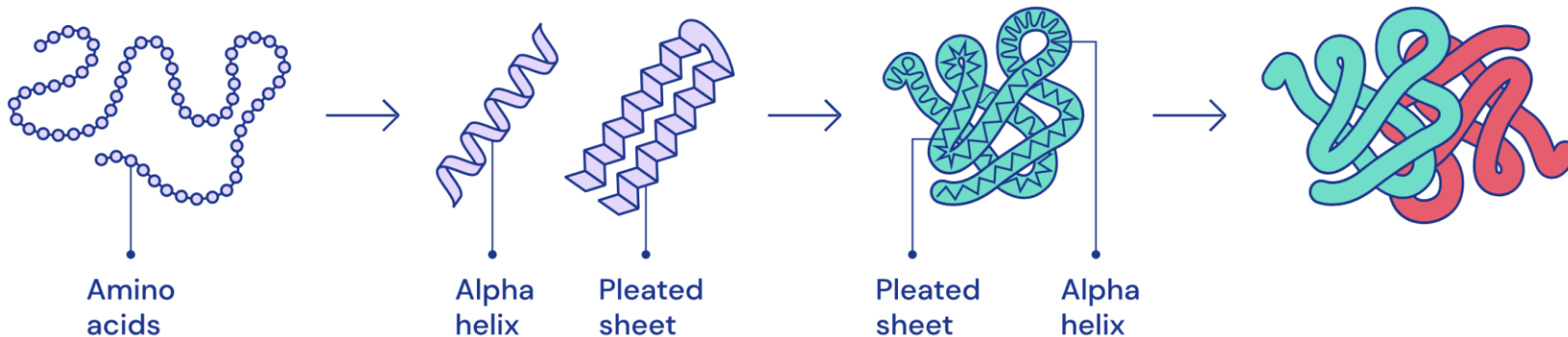
# Anfinsen-Dogma: The Sequence Determines the Protein Structure and Function



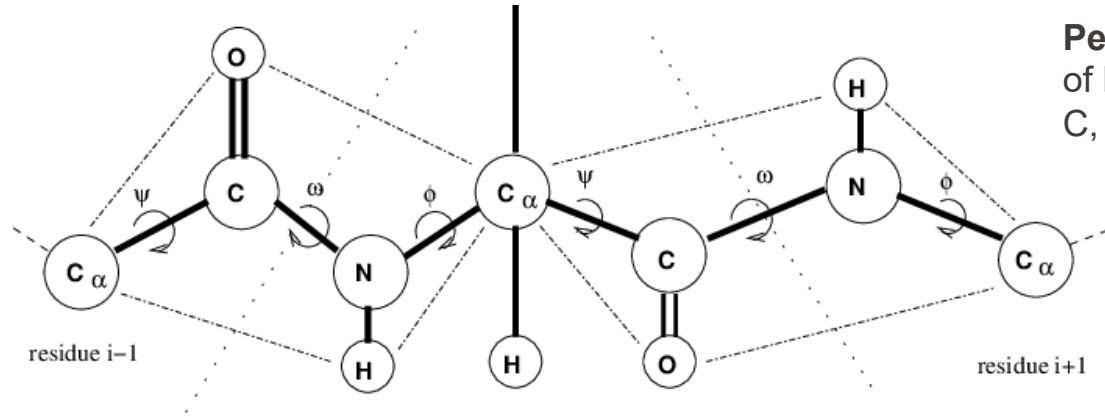
Sequence

Structure

Function

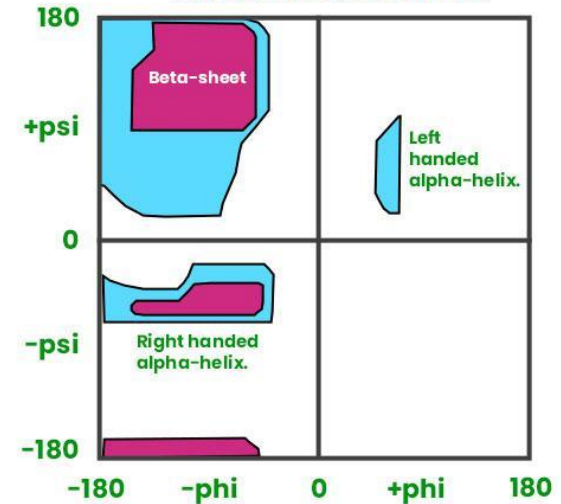




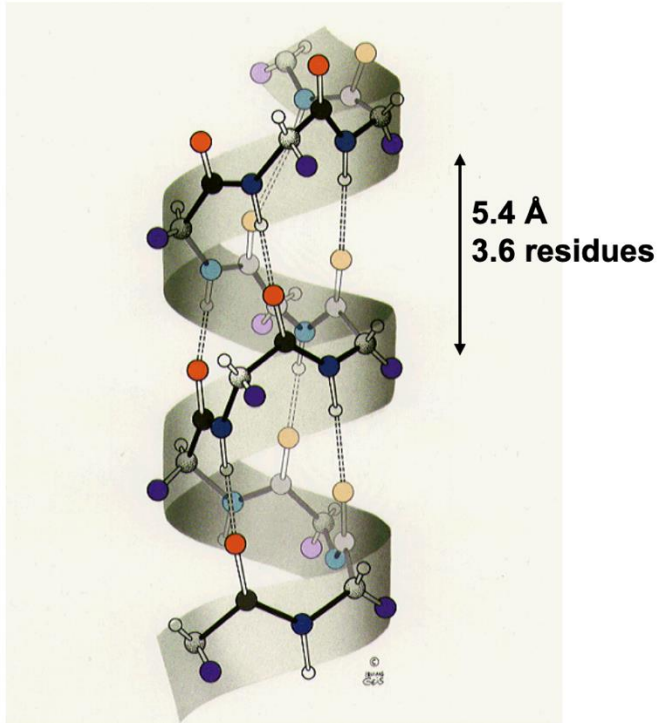


**Peptide Bonds Are Planar:** In a pair of linked amino acids, six atoms ( $C_\alpha$ ,  $C$ ,  $O$ ,  $N$ ,  $H$ , and  $C_\alpha$ ) lie in a plane.

The Ramachandran Plot



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



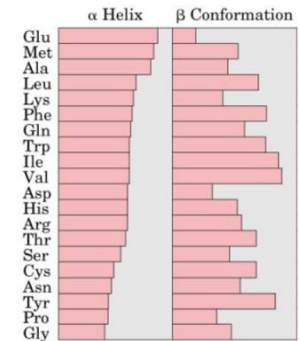
### H-bonds

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

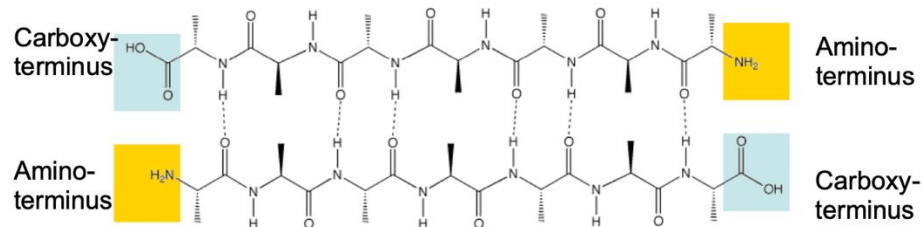


A. Helen, L. Pauling

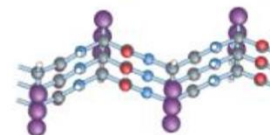
Amino acid propensity to form  $\alpha$ -helices and  $\beta$ -sheets



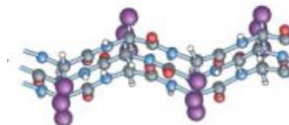
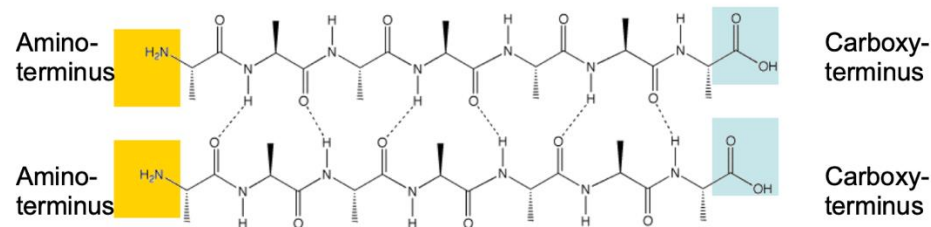
## Anti-parallel ( $\Phi = -139^\circ$ , $\Psi = 135^\circ$ )

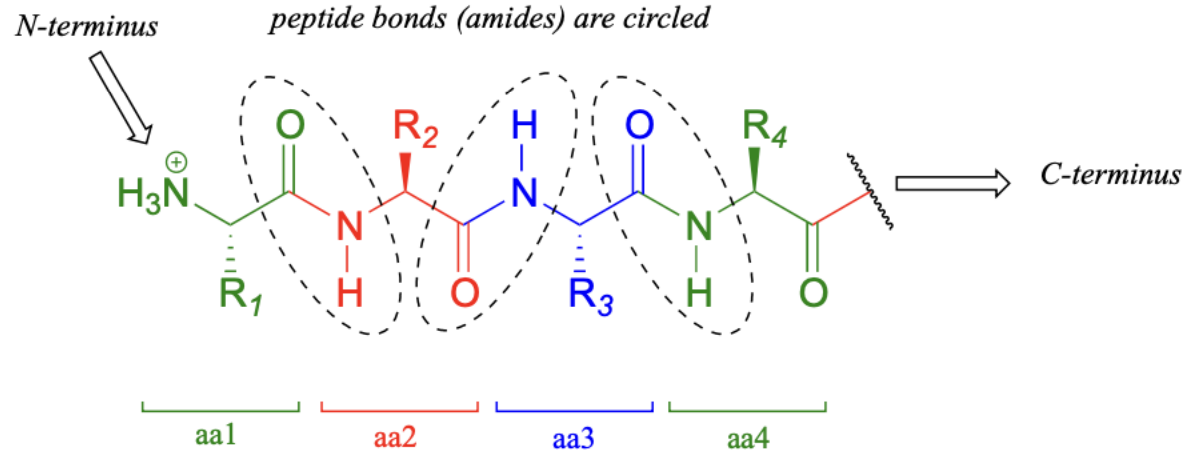


## Side views



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

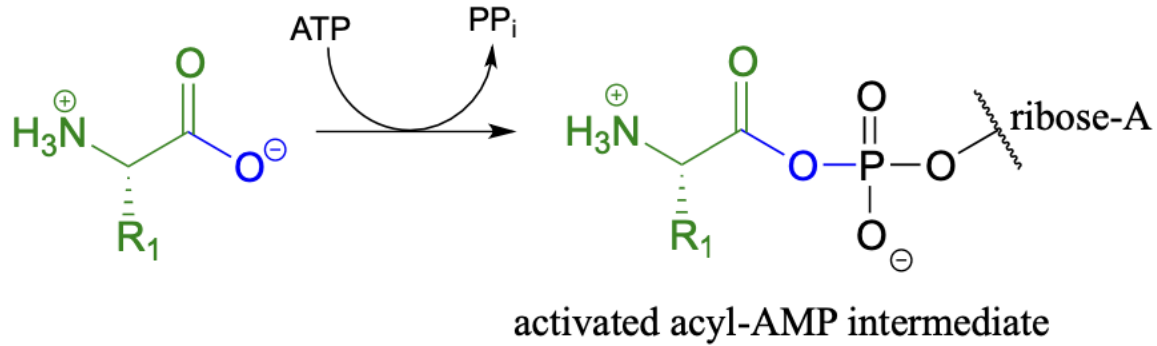




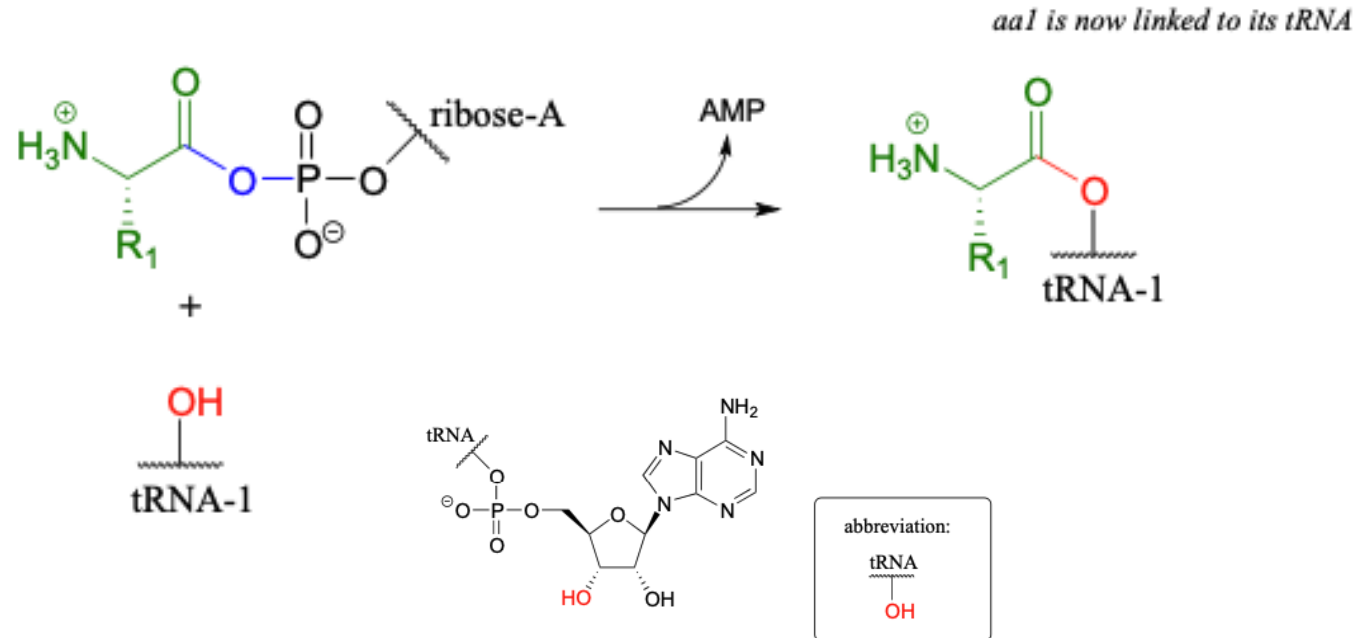
## (Bio-)Chemical Challenges:

- Activation?
- Sequence?
- Selectivity?

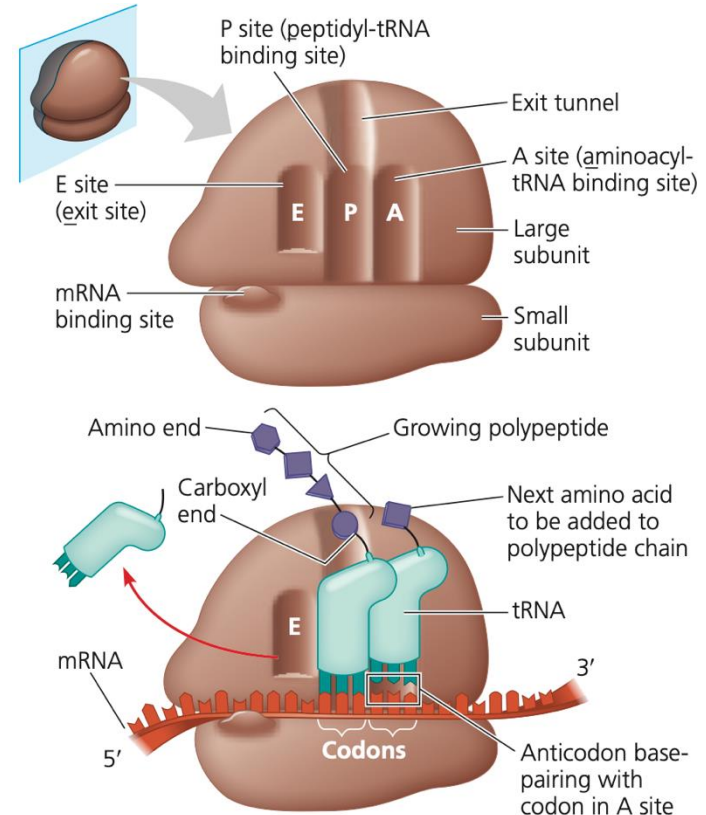
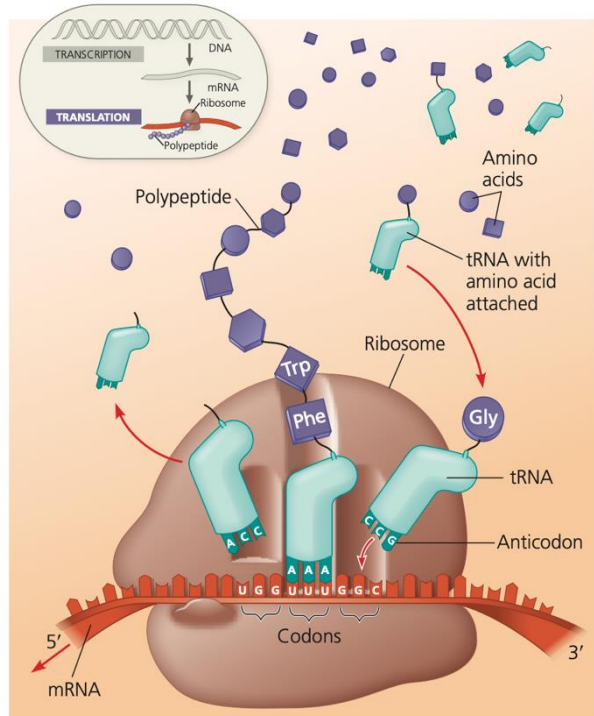
# The carboxylate group of aa-1 is first transformed to an acyl-AMP intermediate



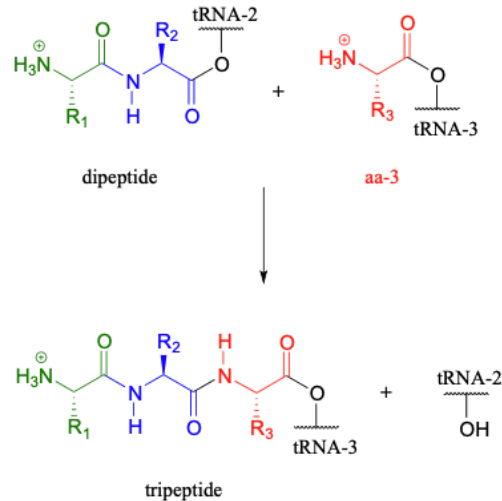
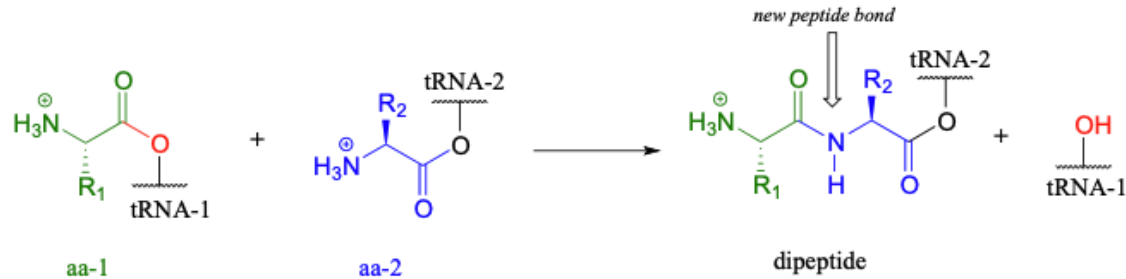
# The amino acid is transferred to a special kind of RNA polymer called transfer RNA (tRNA)



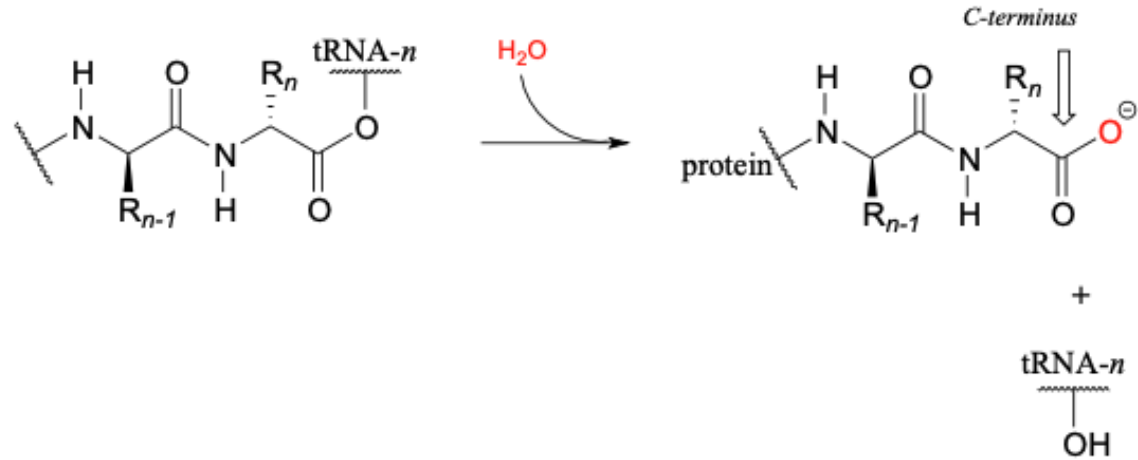
# Selectivity of Protein Biosynthesis is Based on “Codons”



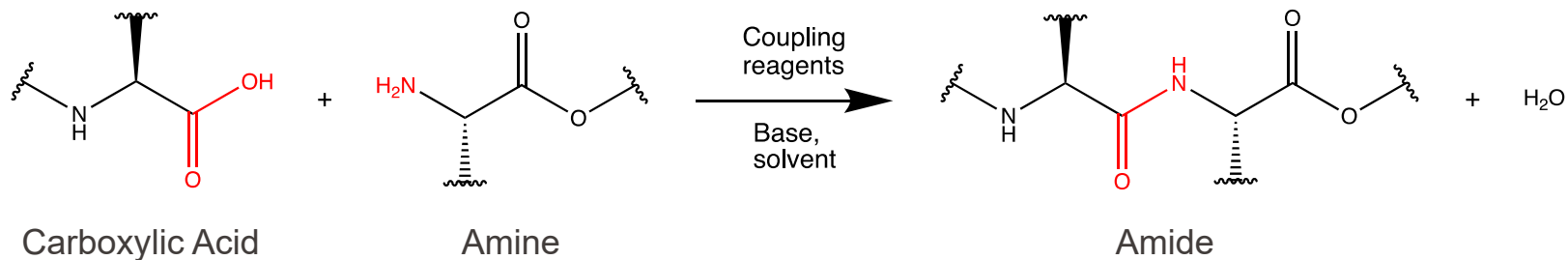
# Elongation: Ester to amide conversion by an enzymatic component of the ribosome called peptidyl transferase







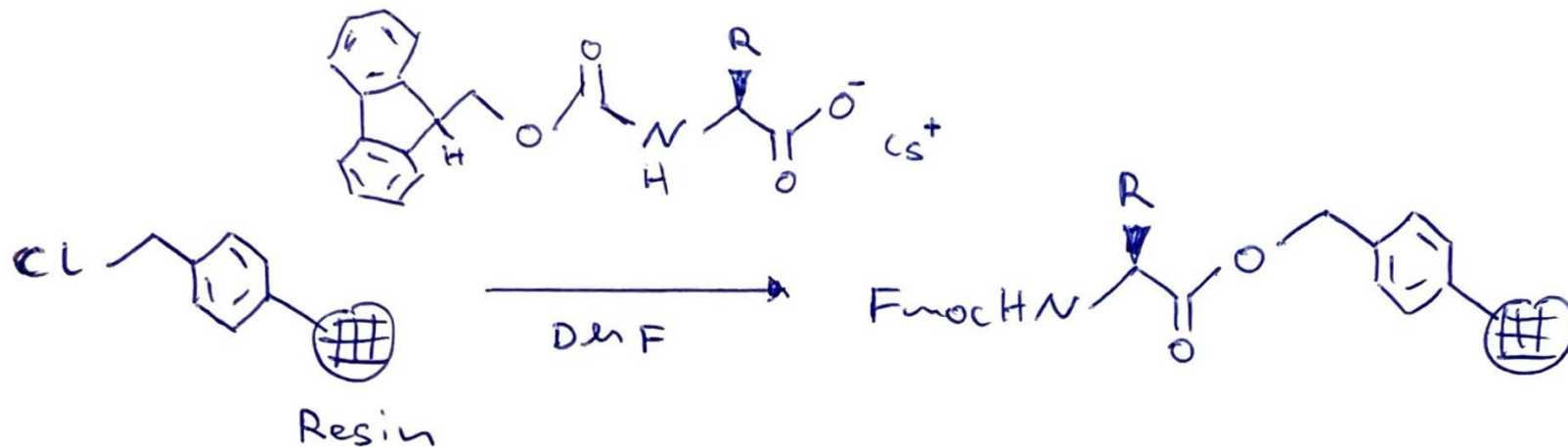
Activation?  
Sequence?  
Selectivity?  
Questions the Chemist  
also asks *in vitro*



# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

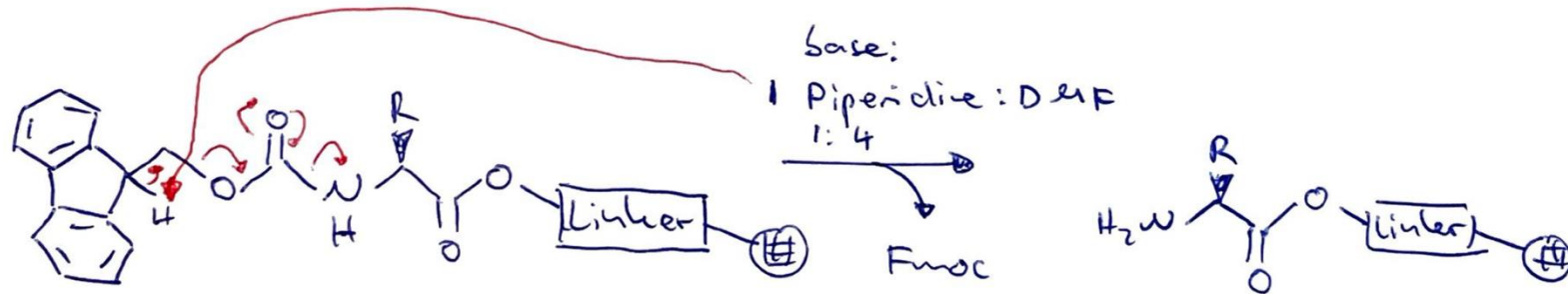
## 1. Coupling to Resin

Fmoc = Protecting Group to avoid undesired side reaction



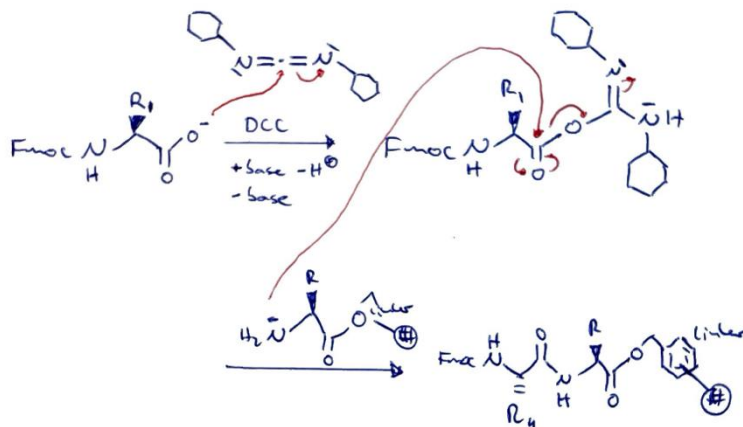
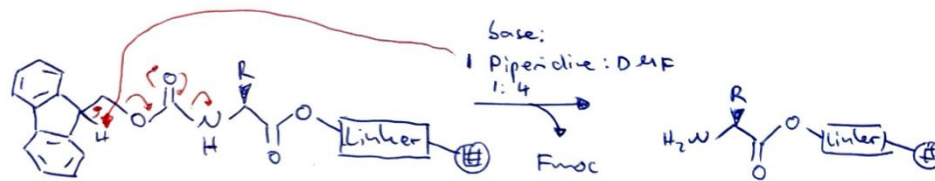
# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

## Protecting Group Removal



# Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPPS)

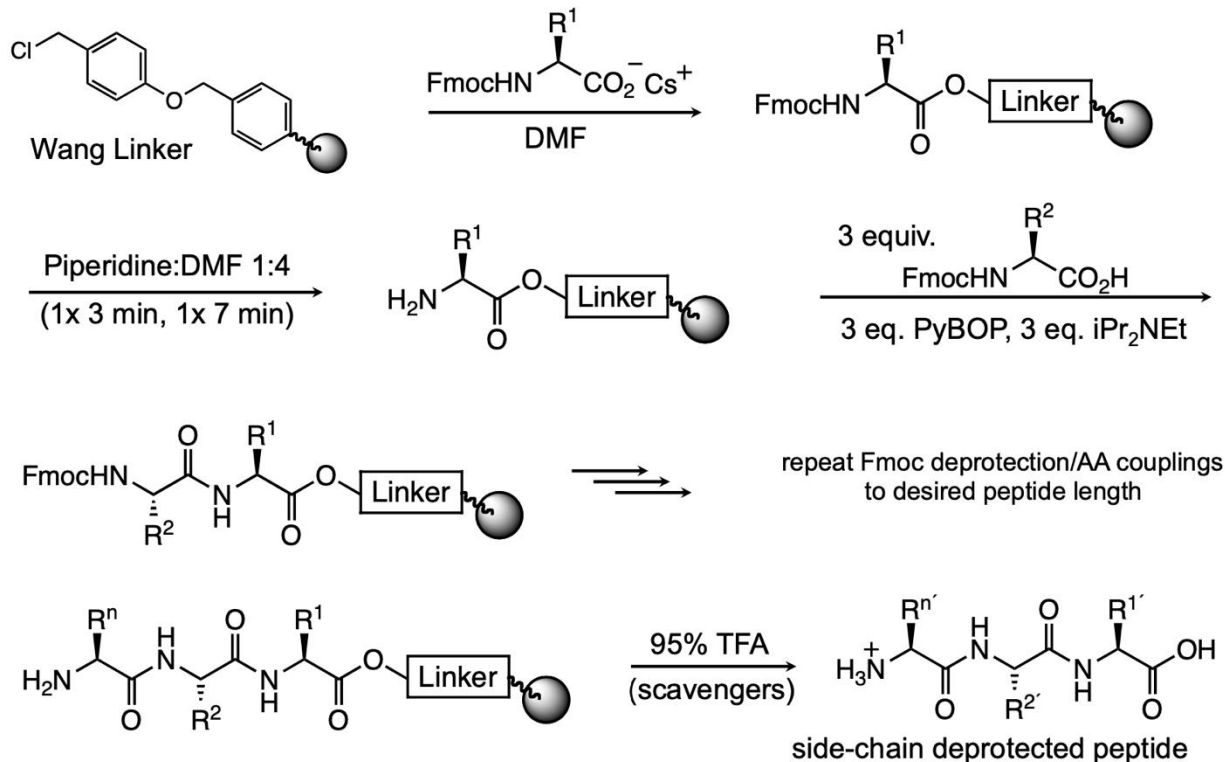
## Amino acid activation via coupling reagents

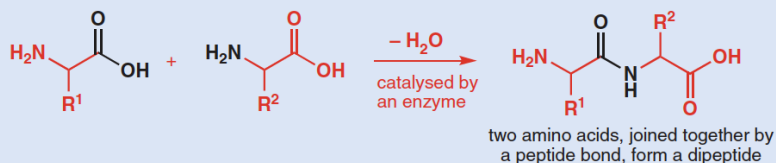


Many linkers & Coupling Reagents & Protecting Groups possible!

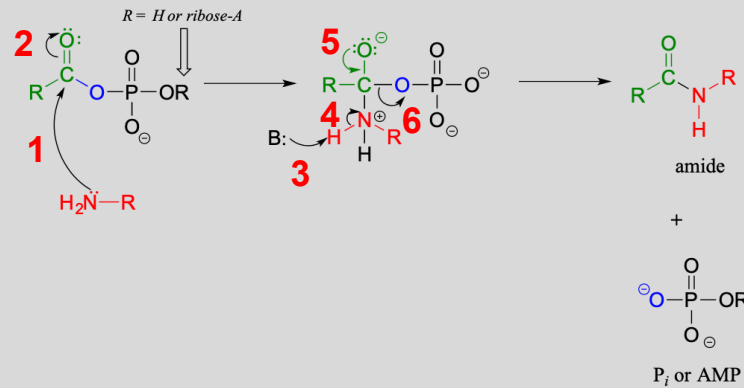
repeat  
deprotect & purify

Synthesis in C-term → N-term direction





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

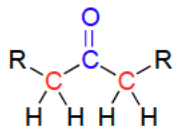


- 1 - Amine attacks the electrophilic carbonyl carbon
- 2 – Delocalization of electrons
- 3 – Base attack to the nitrogen proton
- 4 – Electrons become a nonbonded pair in N
- 5 – Delocalization of electrons to make a double bond
- 6 – Bond breakage to release leaving group

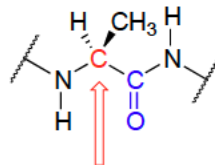
**Let's do one of these together without the phosphate leaving group**



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



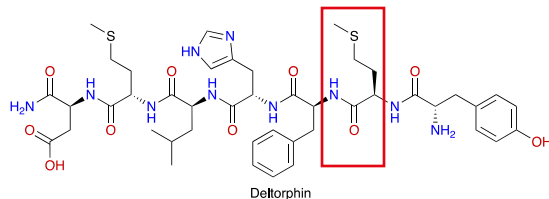
$\alpha$ -carbons on a ketone



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



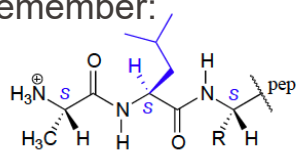
Note: Venoms usually contain a pool of different peptides and active compounds.



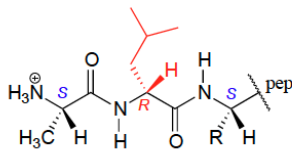
IMFFEMQACWSHSGVCRDKSE  
RNCKPMAWTYCENRNQKCCEY  
(DLP2)

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

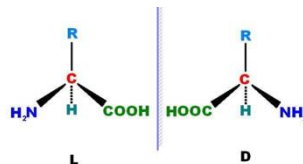
Remember:



peptide with *L*-Leu at position 2

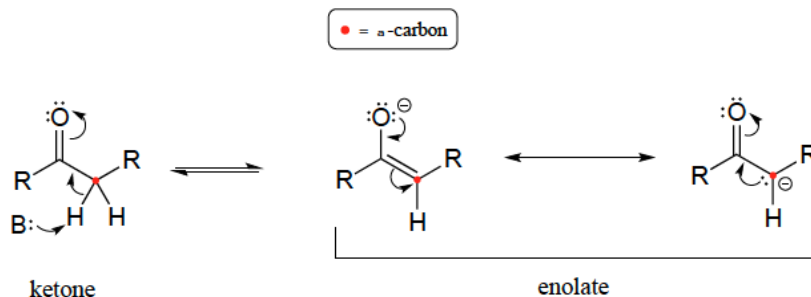


peptide with *D*-Leu at position 2



How does this exchange work?

# Enolate formation is an important property of carbonyl groups



Remember the electron withdrawing effect of the carbonyl!

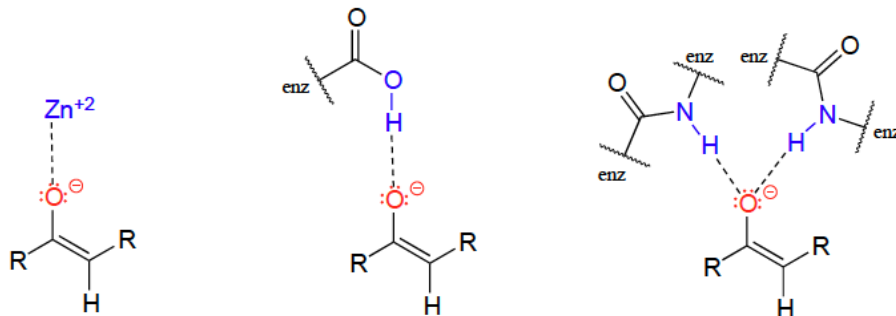
## Acidity of $\alpha$ -protons:

- 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  $sp^2$ -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:

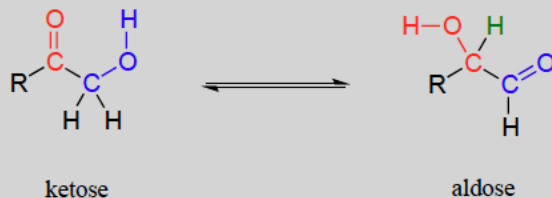
- Metal cations (e.g.,  $\text{Zn}^{+2}$ ) form stabilizing ion-ion interactions in the active site.
- Proton-donating groups near the oxygen atom assist in stabilization.
- Active site architecture can provide hydrogen bond donor groups for stabilization purposes.

## Ketose and Aldose Conversion:

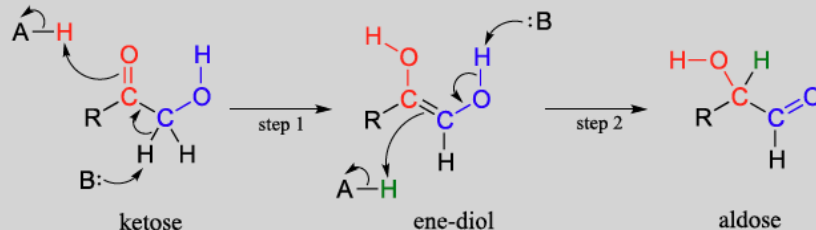
Ketose: Sugar molecules containing ketone functional groups.

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.

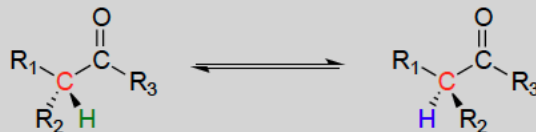
## 2. Tautomerization to Aldose

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

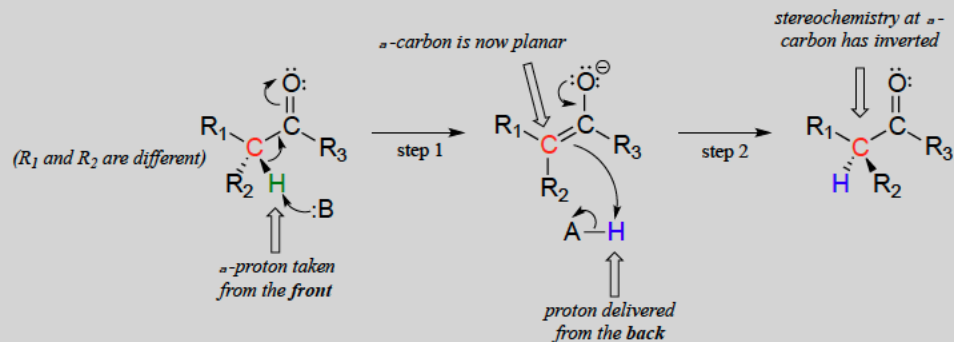
# Stereoisomerization at the $\alpha$ -carbon

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:



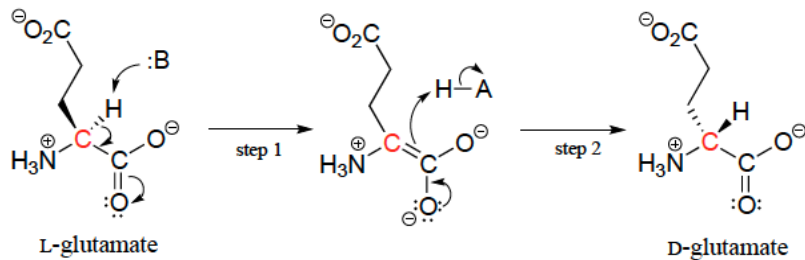
Mechanism:



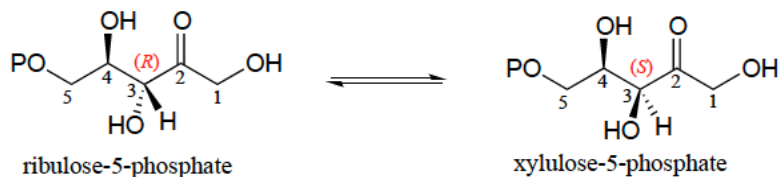
**Racemization:**

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

# Stereoisomerization at the $\alpha$ -carbon

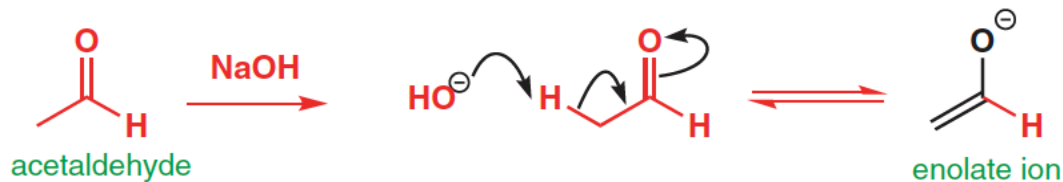


Cell walls of bacteria are constructed in part of peptides containing D-glutamate, converted from L-glutamate by the enzyme **glutamate racemase**.

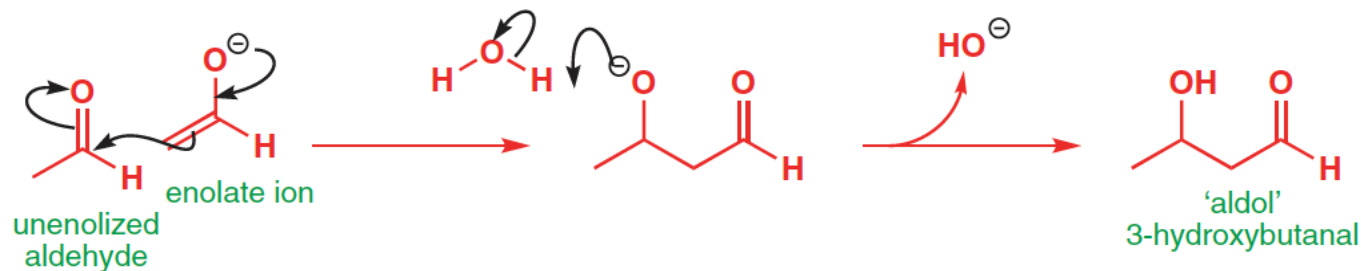


The epimerization of ribulose-5-phosphate and xylulose-5-phosphate catalyzed by the **epimerase** is a pivotal step in the pentose phosphate pathway

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

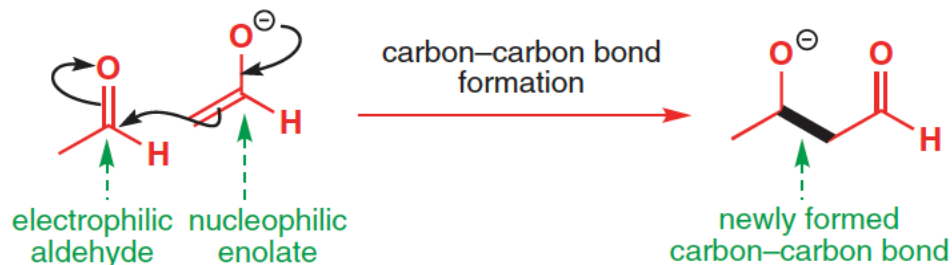


- Basic conditions (NaOH) generates enolate ions – not to completion
- Formed enolate ions act as nucleophiles, attacking unenolized aldehyde molecules
- Water, produced in the process, protonates the alkoxide ion.



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

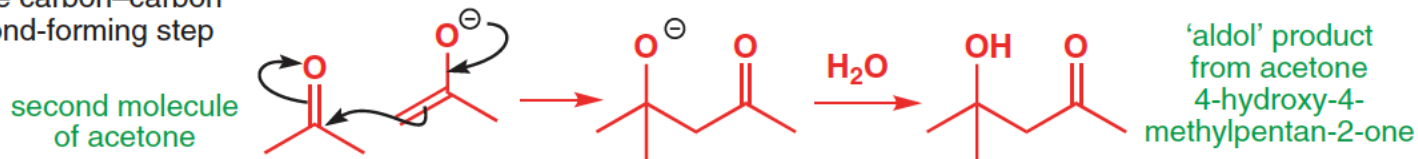




the enolization step



the carbon-carbon bond-forming step



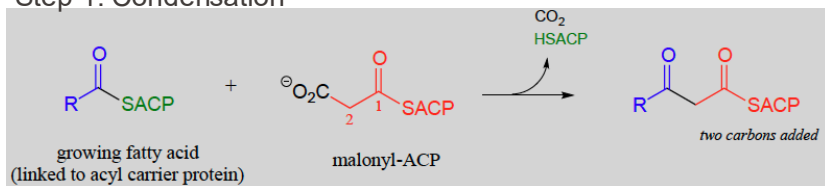
Ketones, like acetone, undergo enolization akin to acetaldehyde's aldol sequence. Acetone forms an enolate ion, leading to a hydroxy-ketone product via carbon-carbon bond formation.

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

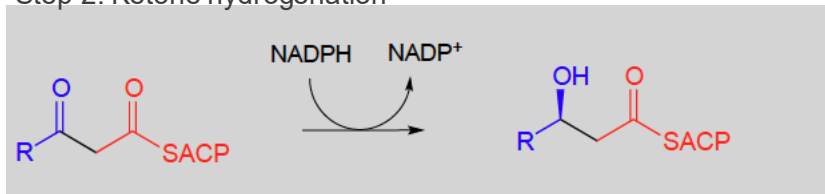
# Application: Fatty Acid Synthesis

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.

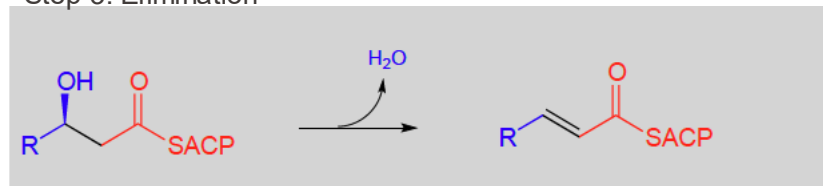
Step 1: Condensation



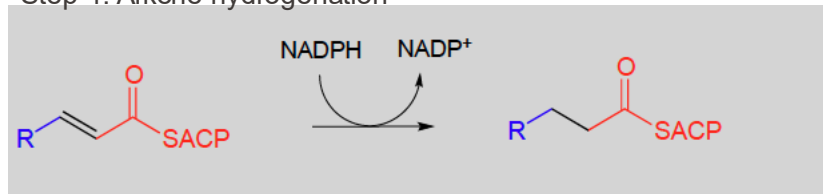
Step 2: Ketone hydrogenation



Step 3: Elimination



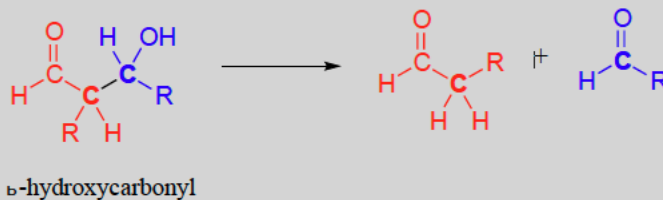
Step 4: Alkene hydrogenation



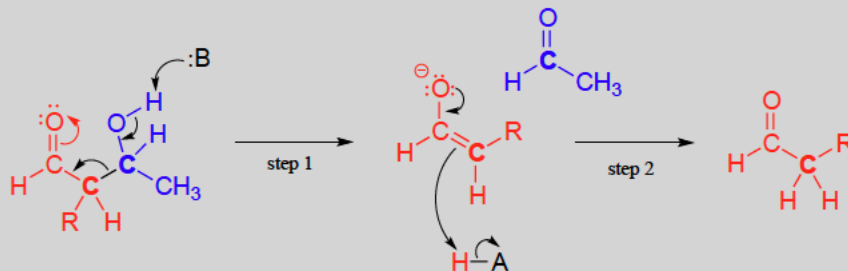
# Breaking C-C bonds: Retro-Aldol Reactions

- 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:



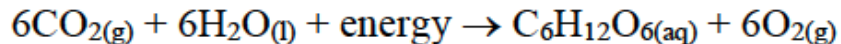
## Retro-aldol cleavage steps:

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

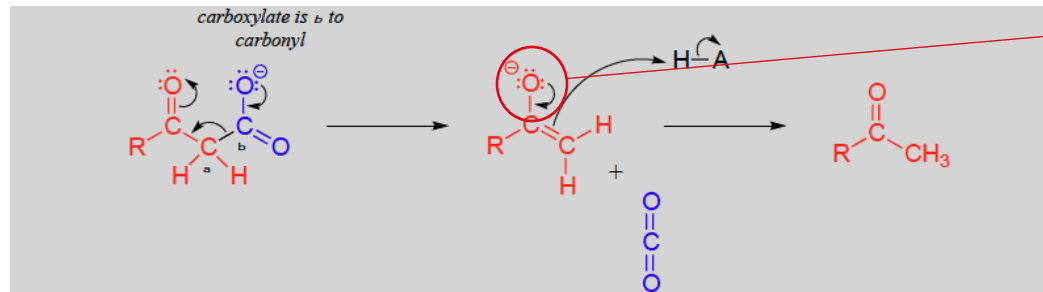
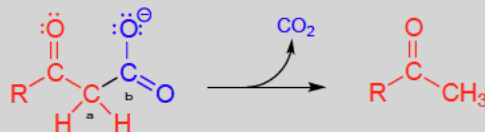
Step 2: Reprotonation of the enolate, regenerating the initial aldehyde.

# 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:

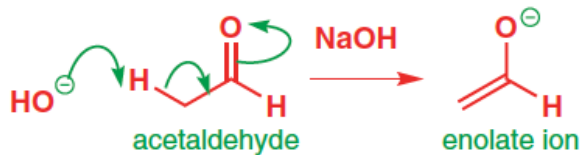


Electrons need to be stabilized!

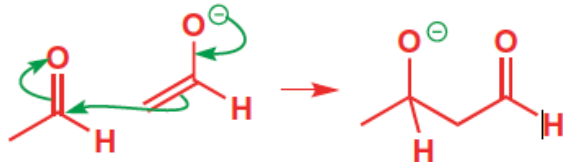
➔ Usually by resonance with an oxygen or nitrogen

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

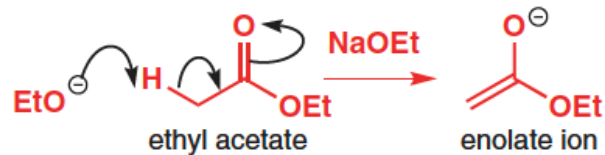
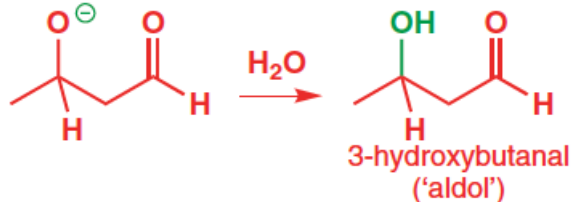
# The Claisen Condensation



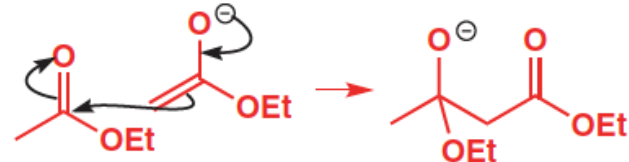
the aldol step with acetaldehyde



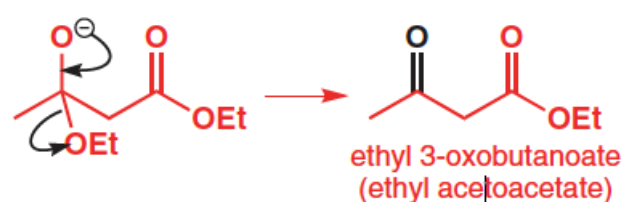
completion of the aldol with acetaldehyde



the 'aldol' step with ethyl acetate

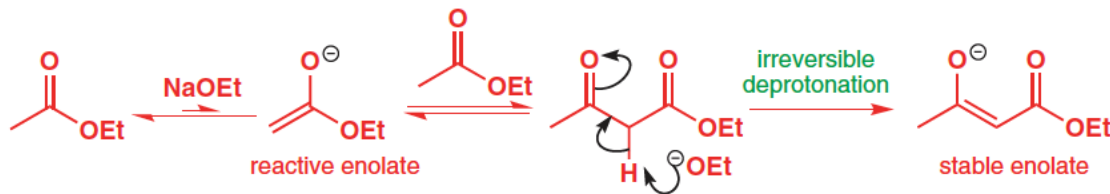


the Claisen condensation with ethyl acetate

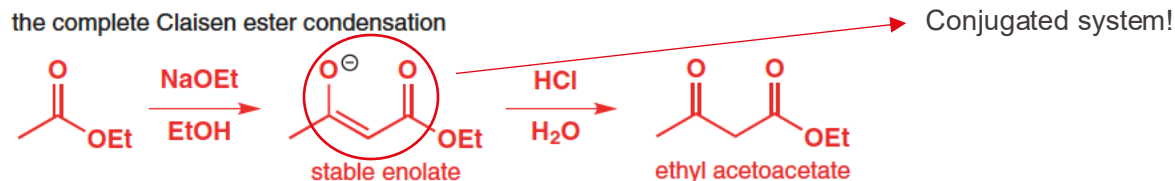


A Claisen condensation reaction is simply a nucleophilic acyl substitution reaction with an **enolate** carbon nucleophile

# 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**



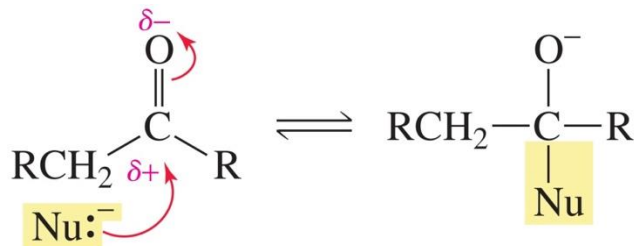
- Understand the formation of the enolate species
- Isomerization effects at the alpha-carbon
- Aldol reaction and its mechanism
- Retro-aldol reaction and its mechanism
- Decarboxylation reaction and its mechanism
- Claisen condensation

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

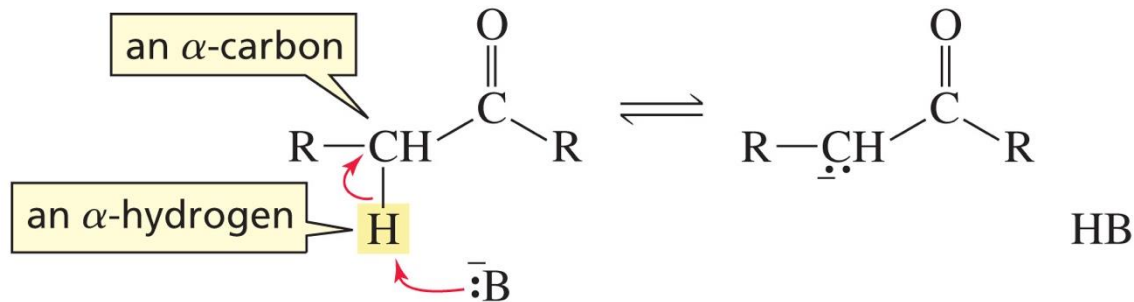
**Questions ?**

# Many Carbonyl Compounds Have Two Sites of Reactivity

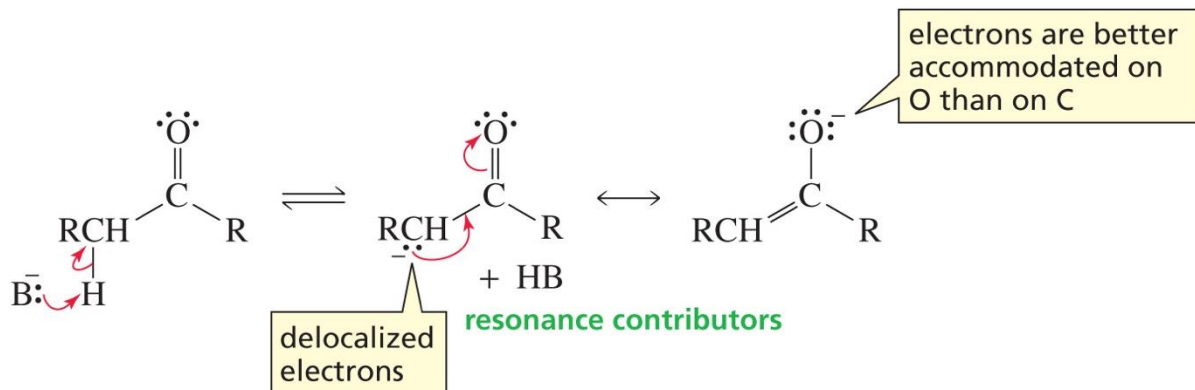
a nucleophile can add to the carbonyl carbon



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**