

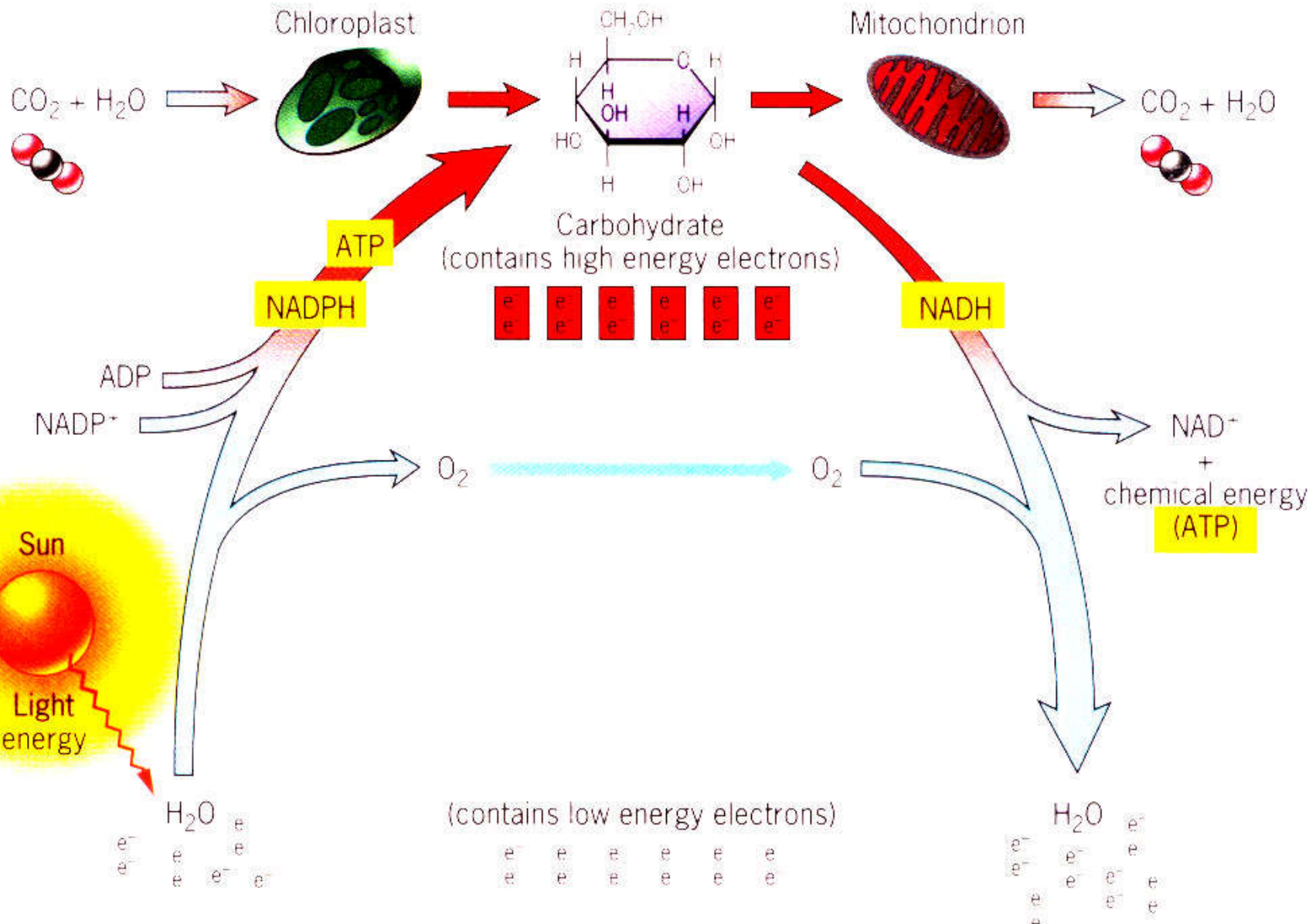
Chapter 3 Bioenergetics

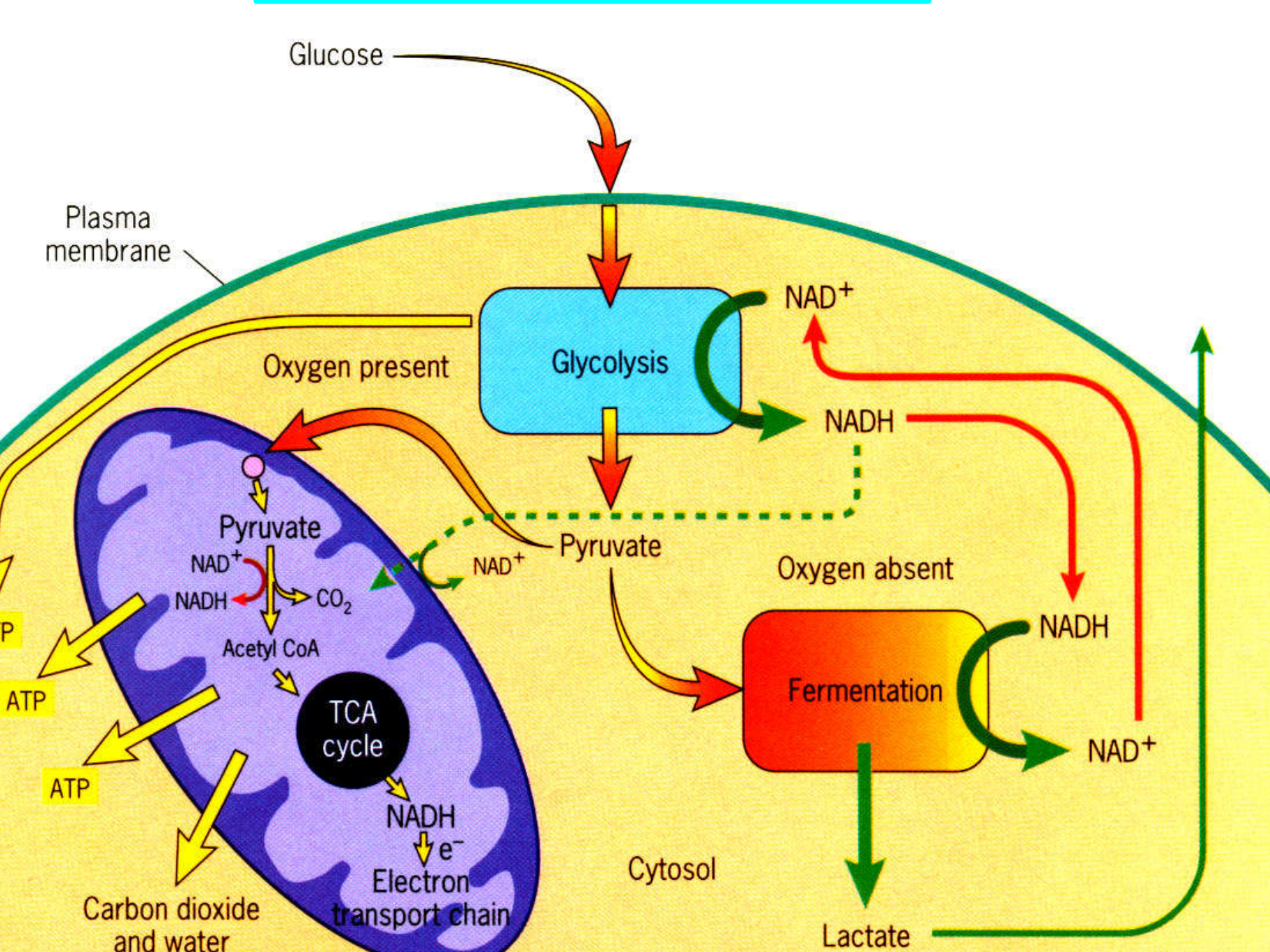
Discussing about:

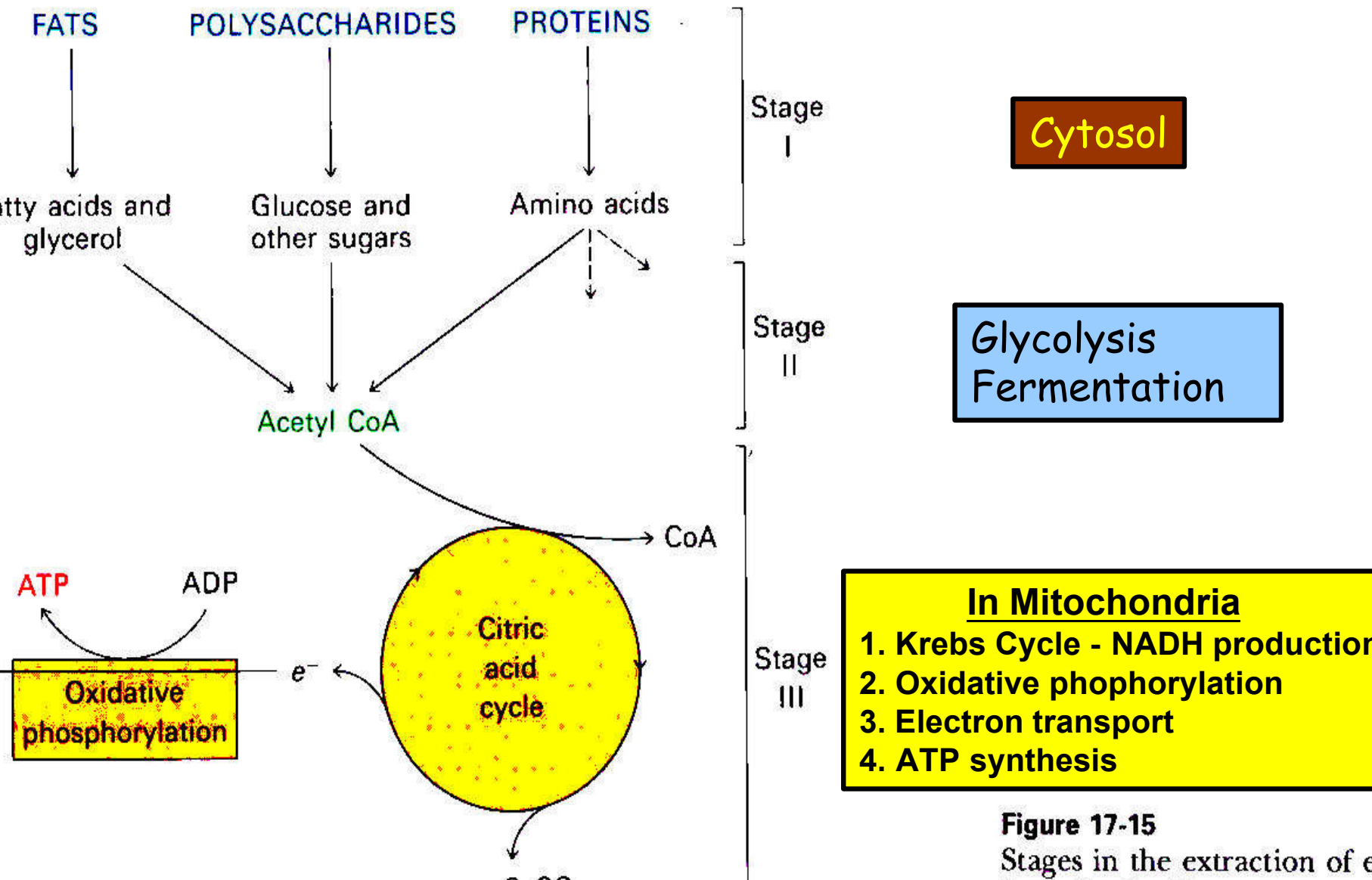
- What are the energy sources ?
- How is the energy conserved ?
- How does the energy converted to different forms ?
- How do chemical energy source metabolized and to what ?
- What are the components involved ?
- Where does the energy conversion take place ?
- What is the efficiency on each step of energy conversion ?

Photosynthesis

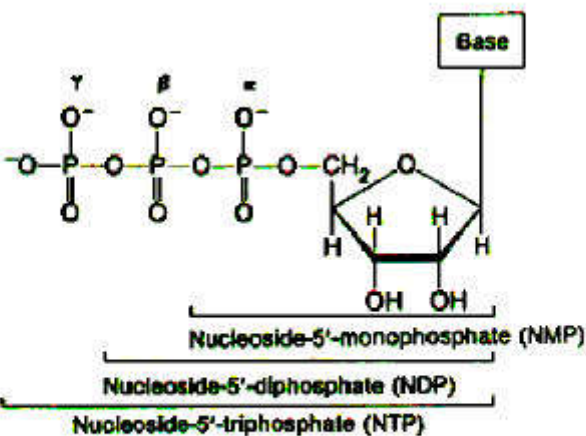
Aerobic respiration







High Energy Compounds



4: The structure of a nucleoside monophosphate, diphosphate, and triphosphate.

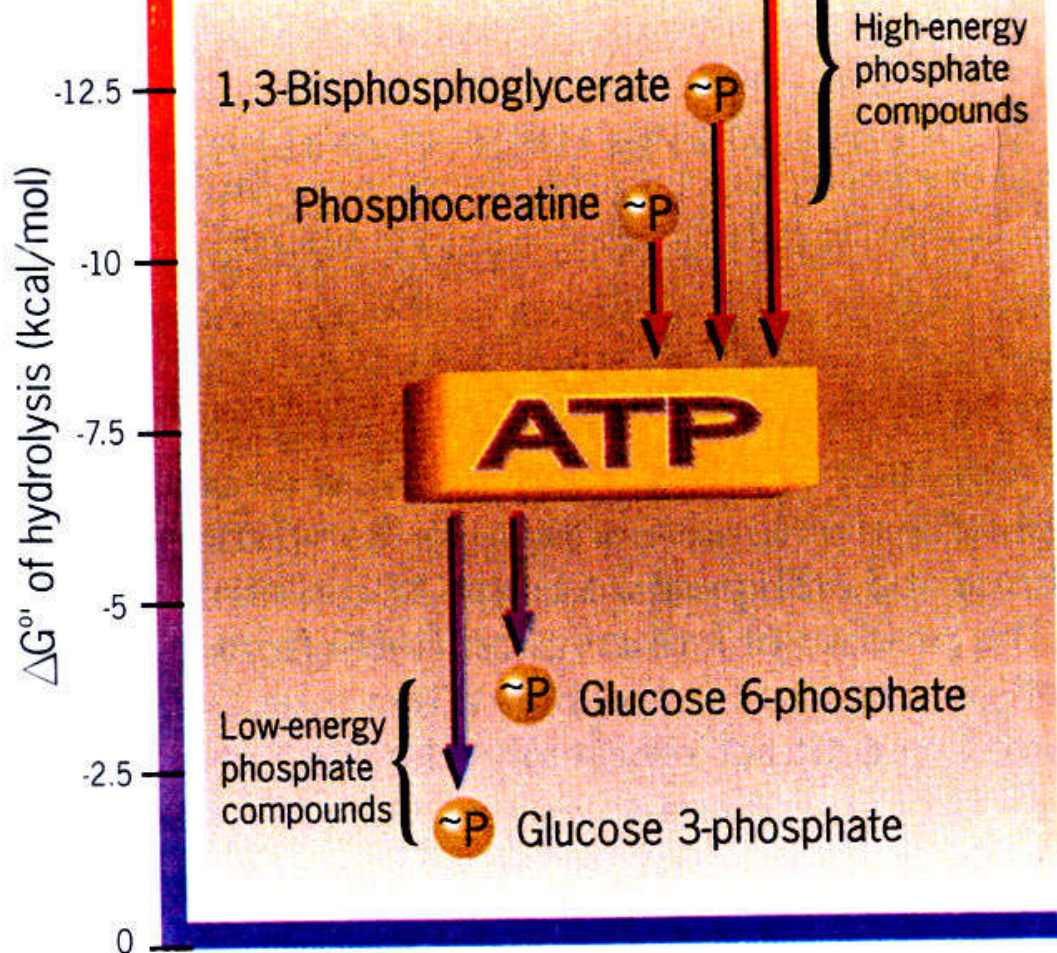


Figure 3.26 Ranking compounds by phosphate transfer potential. Those phosphate compounds higher on the scale (ones with a higher ΔG° of hydrolysis) have a lower affinity for their phosphate group than those compounds that are lower on the scale. As a result, compounds higher on the scale readily transfer their phosphate group to form compounds that are lower on the scale. Thus, phosphate

Glycolysis

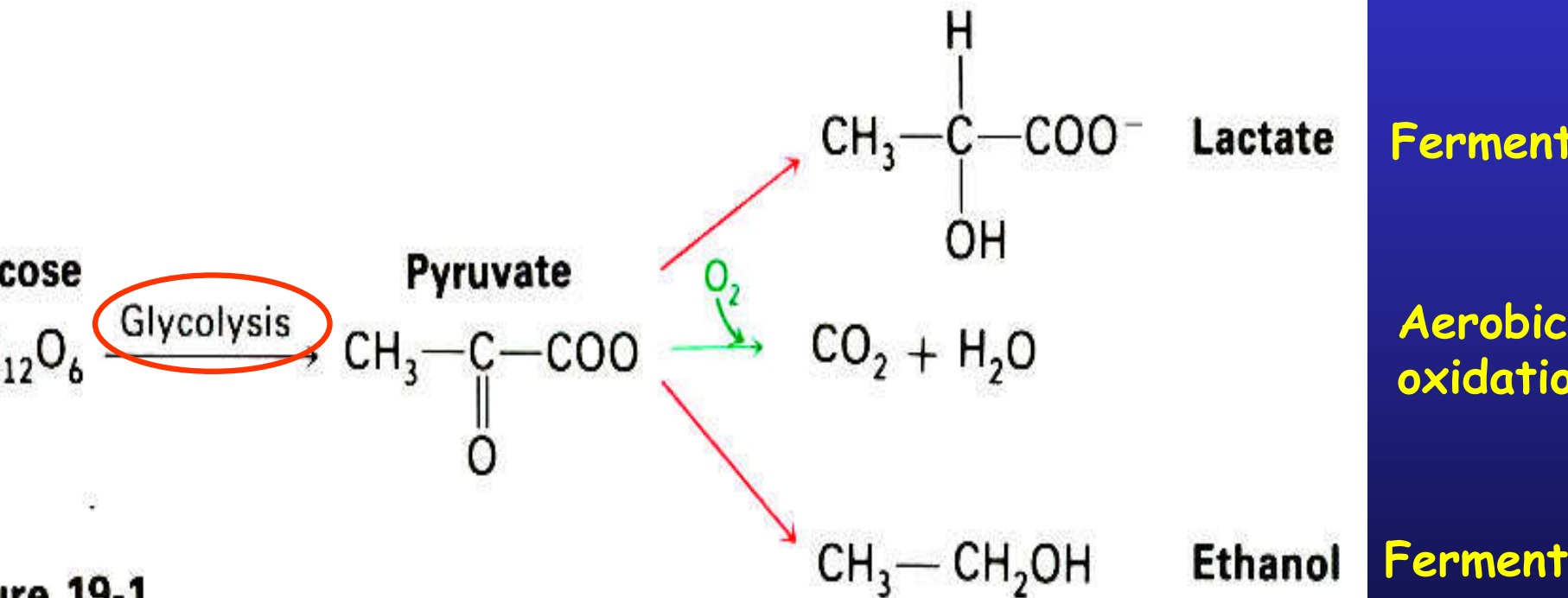
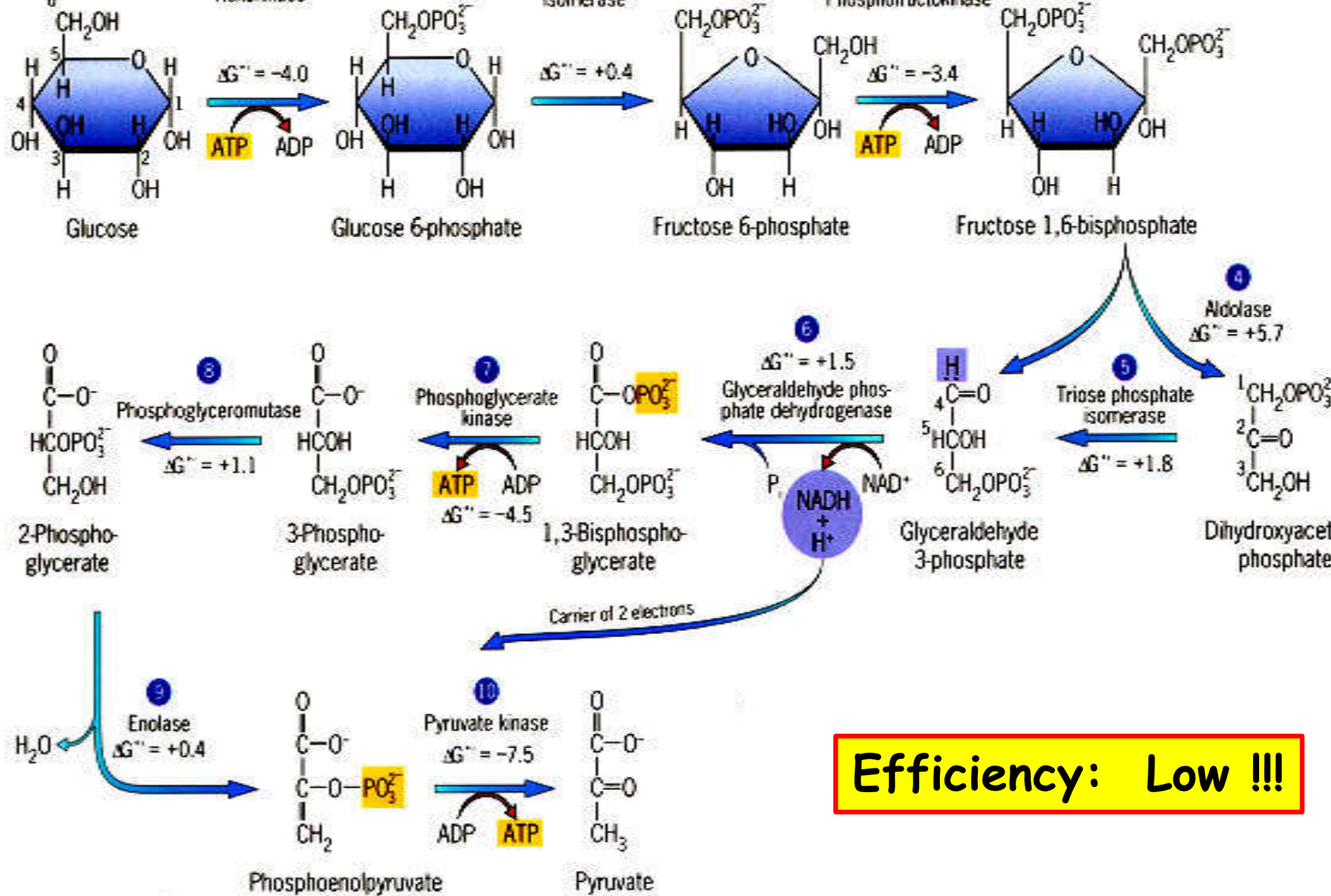


Figure 19-1
The fates of glucose.



<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Enzyme</i>	<i>Type*</i>	$\Delta G^{\circ'}$
Glucose + ATP \longrightarrow glucose 6-phosphate + ADP + H ⁺	Hexokinase	a	-4.0
Glucose 6-phosphate \rightleftharpoons fructose 6-phosphate	Phosphoglucose isomerase	c	+0.4
Fructose 6-phosphate + ATP \longrightarrow fructose 1,6-bisphosphate + ADP + H ⁺	Phosphofructokinase	a	-3.4
Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate \rightleftharpoons dihydroxyacetone phosphate + glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate	Aldolase	e	+5.7
Dihydroxyacetone phosphate \rightleftharpoons glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate	Triose phosphate isomerase	c	+1.8
Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate + P _i + NAD ⁺ \rightleftharpoons 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate + NADH + H ⁺	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase	f	+1.5
1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate + ADP \rightleftharpoons 3-phosphoglycerate + ATP	Phosphoglycerate kinase	a	-4.5
3-Phosphoglycerate \rightleftharpoons 2-phosphoglycerate	Phosphoglyceratmutase	b	+1.1
2-Phosphoglycerate \rightleftharpoons phosphoenolpyruvate + H ₂ O	Enolase	d	+0.4
Phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP + H ⁺ \longrightarrow pyruvate + ATP	Pyruvate kinase	a	-7.5

on type: (a) phosphoryl transfer; (b) phosphoryl shift; (c) isomerization; hydration; (e) aldol cleavage; (f) phosphorylation coupled to oxidation.

: $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ and ΔG are expressed in kcal/mol. ΔG , the actual free-energy change, has calculated from $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ and known concentrations of reactants under typical physiologic ons. Glycolysis can proceed only if the ΔG values of all reactions are negative. The

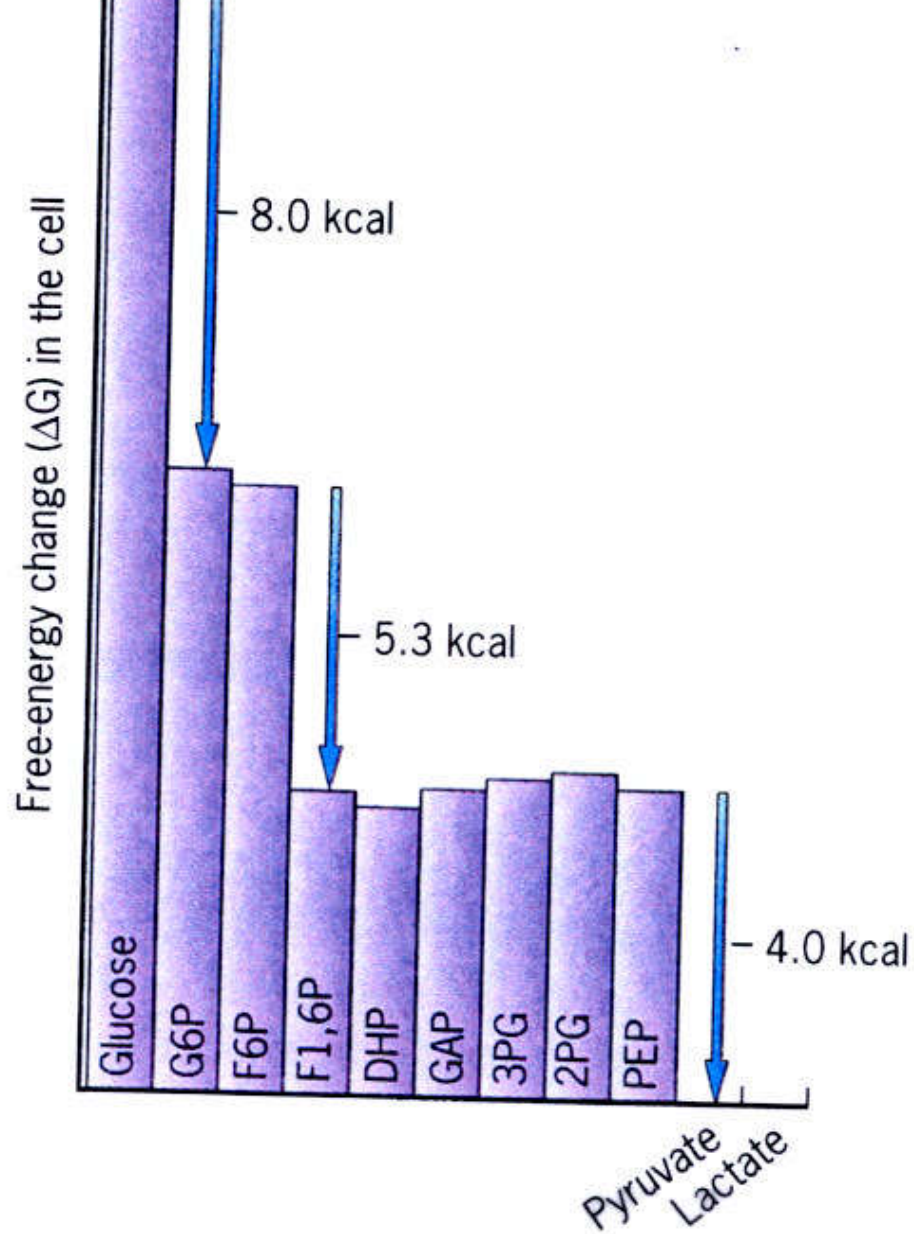


Figure 3.23 Free-energy profile of glycolysis in the hu-



$$\Delta G^\circ = -686 \text{ kcal/mol}$$



$$\Delta G^\circ = +7.3 \text{ kcal/mol}$$

$$\text{Efficiency} = 2 \times 7.3 / 686 = 0.021 = 2\%$$

NADH

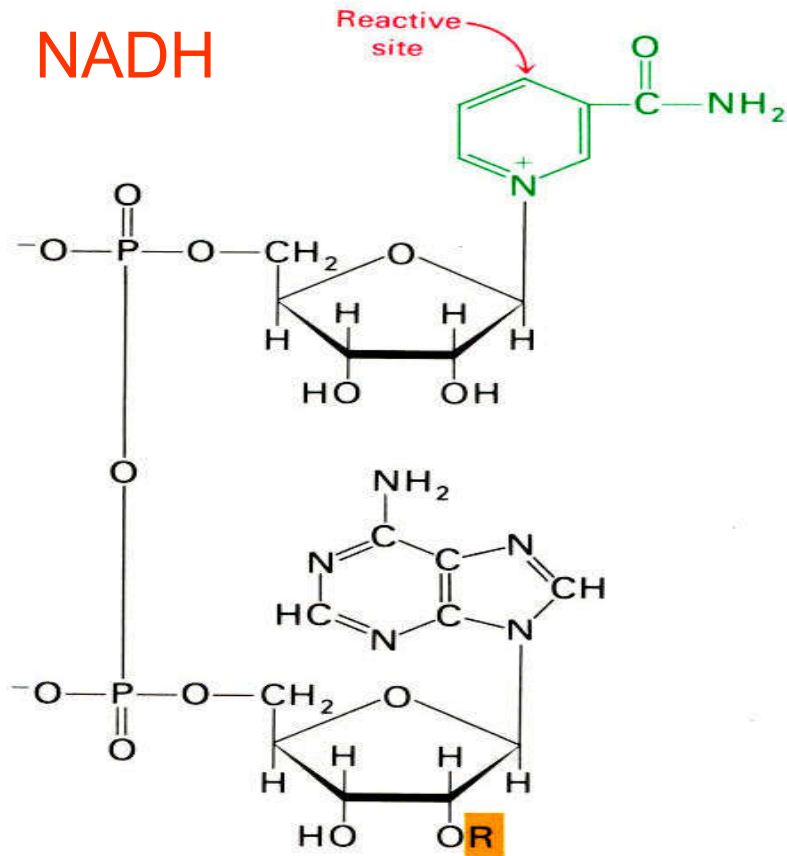


Figure 17-7
Structure of the oxidized form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) and of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺). In

FADH₂

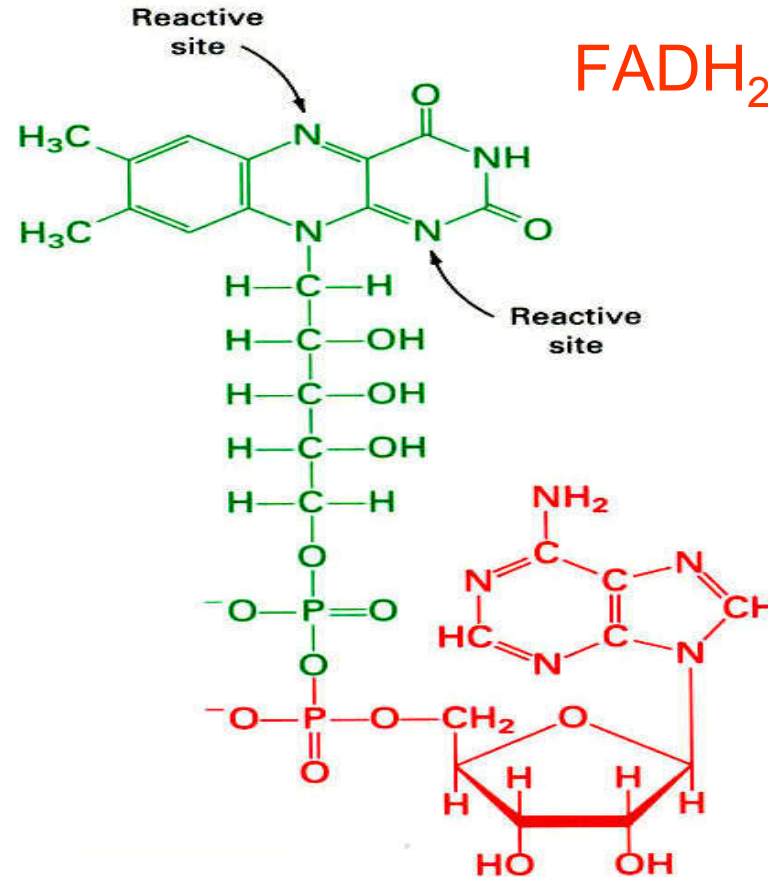


Figure 17-8
Structure of the oxidized form of flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). This electron carrier consists of a flavin

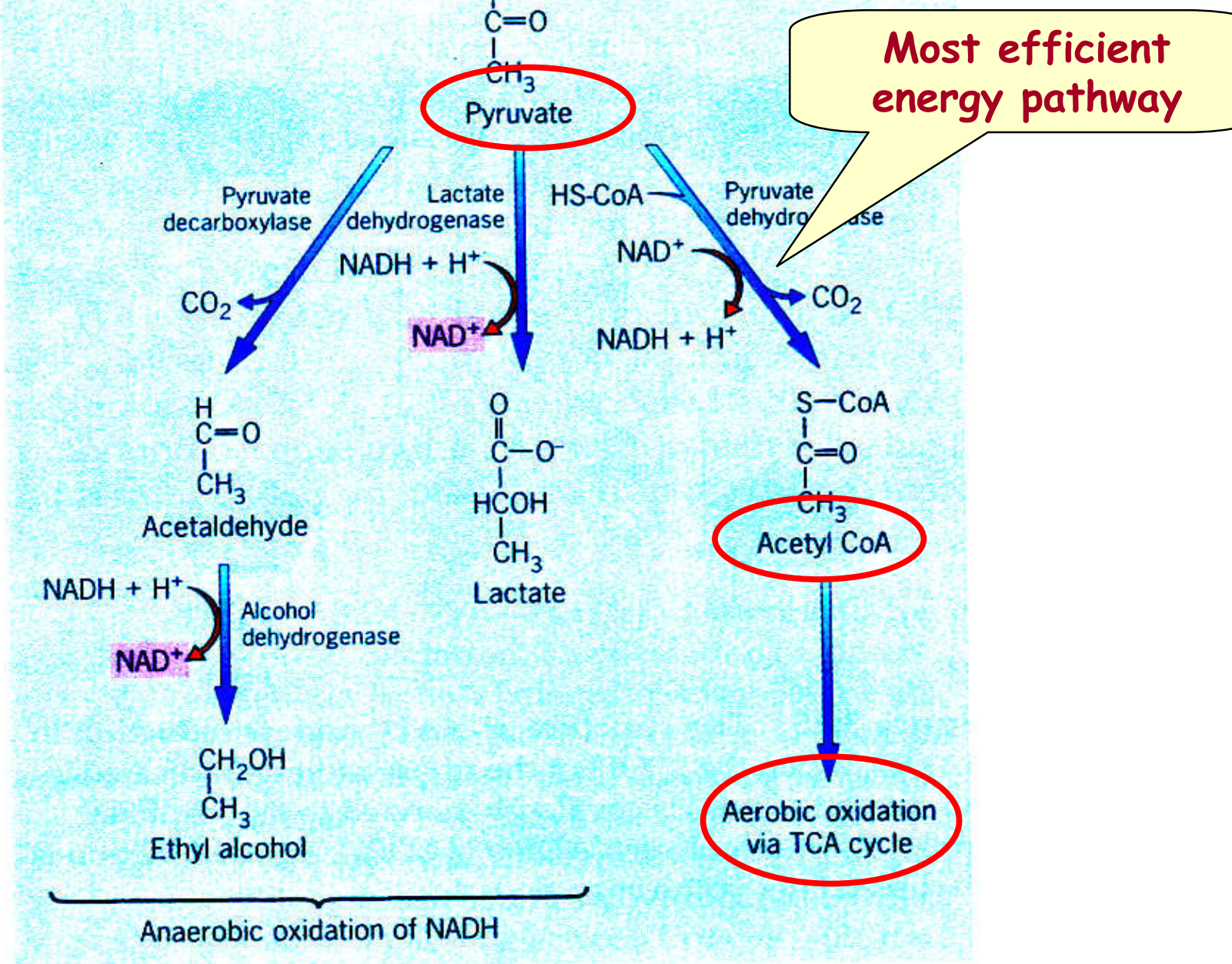


Figure 3.27 Fermentation. Most cells carry out aerobic respiration, which depends on molecular oxygen. If oxygen

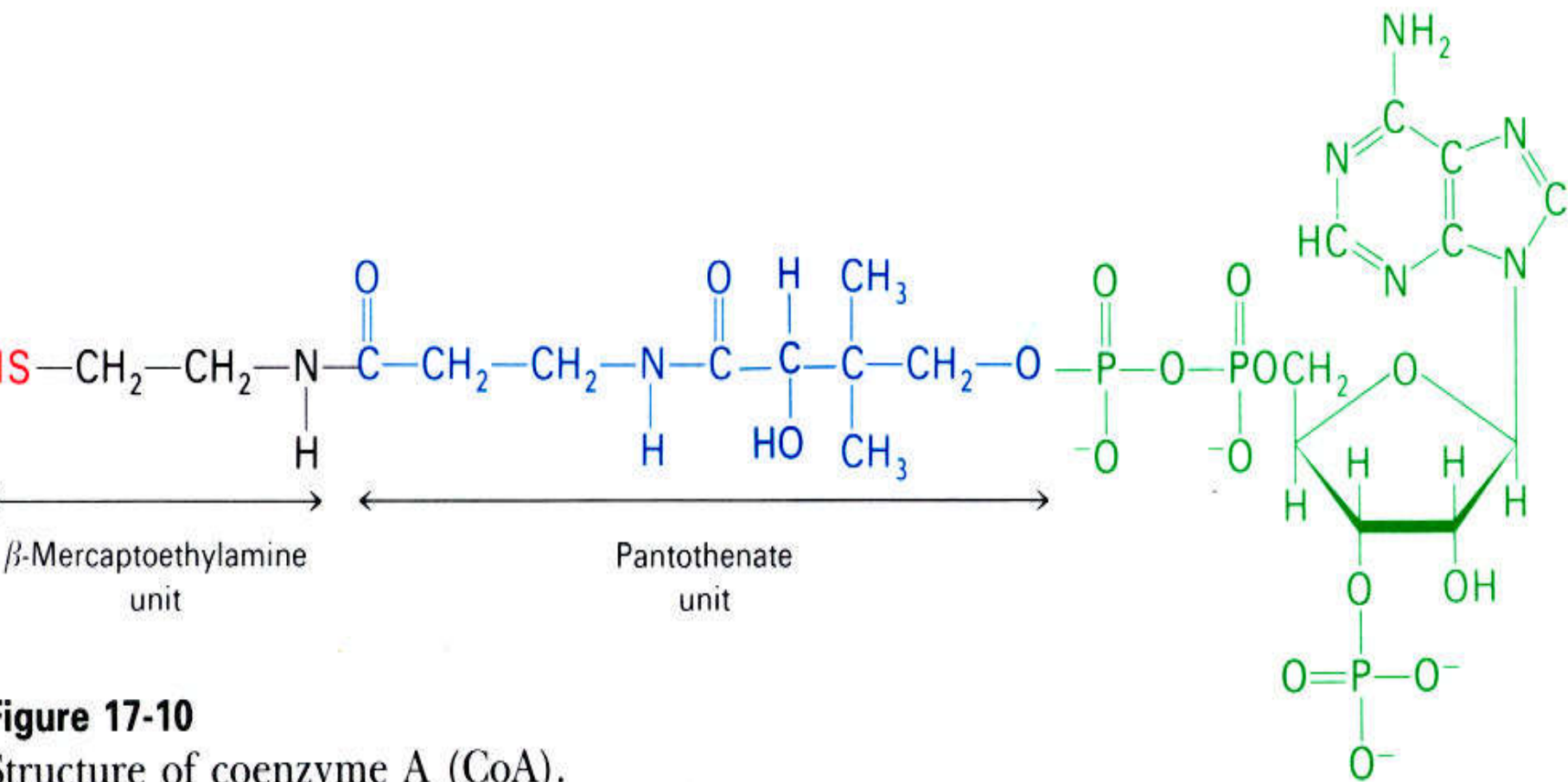


Figure 17-10
Structure of coenzyme A (CoA).

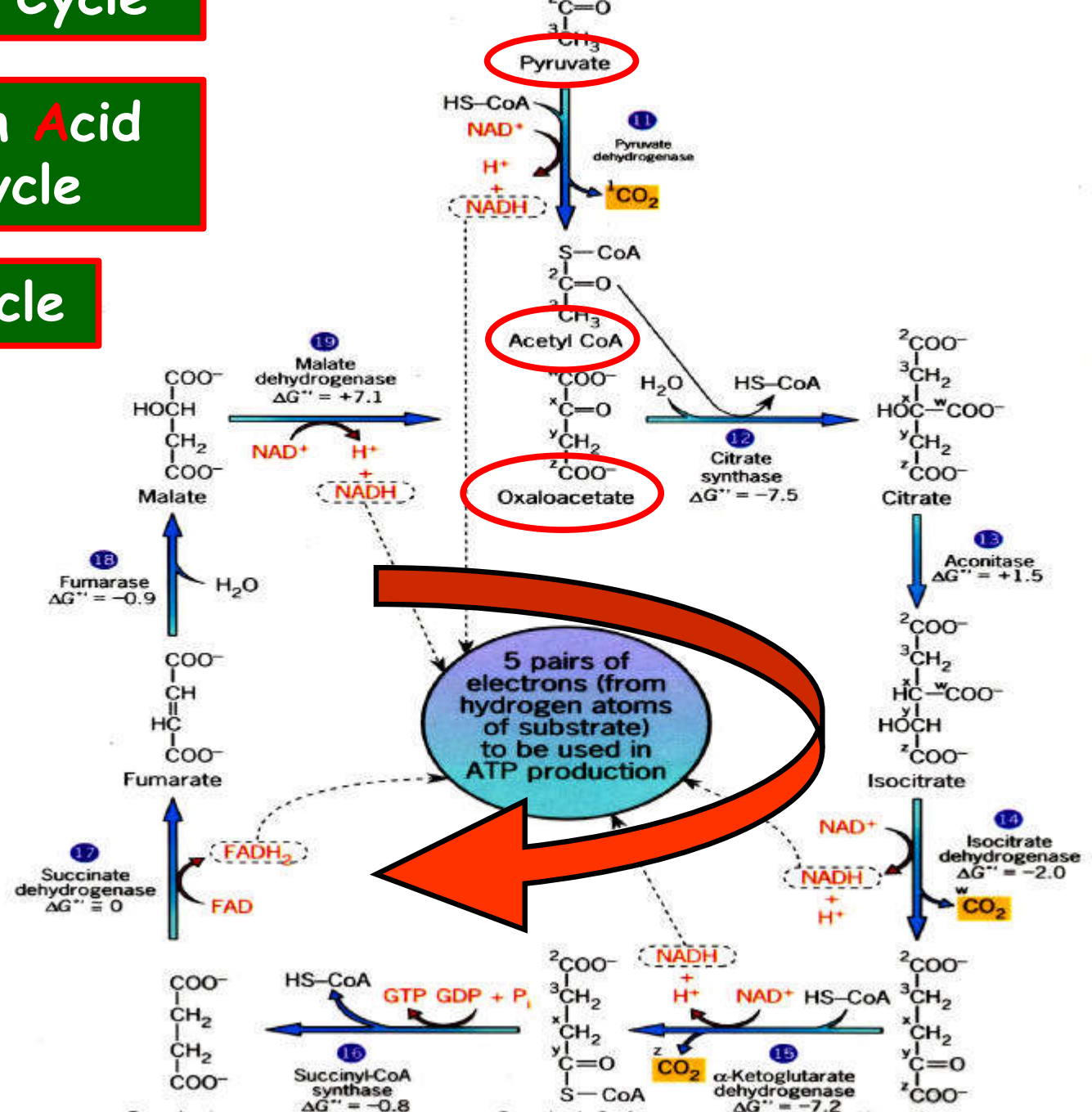
Acetyl group: $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CO} -$

Acetyl CoA: $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CO} - \text{S} - \text{CoA}$ (Universal acyl group carrier)

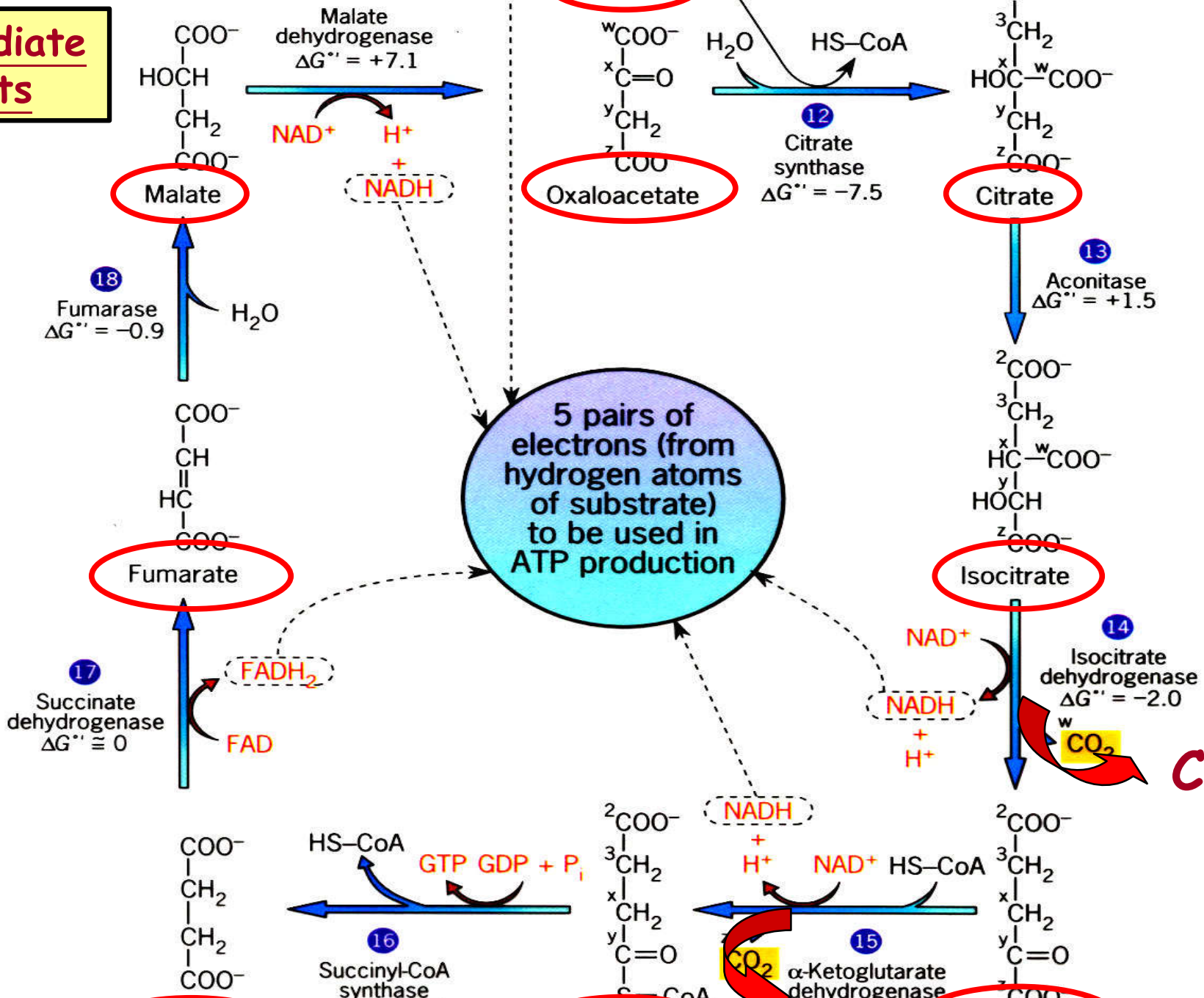
Tri-Carbon Acid Cycle

Tri-Carbon Acid (TCA) cycle

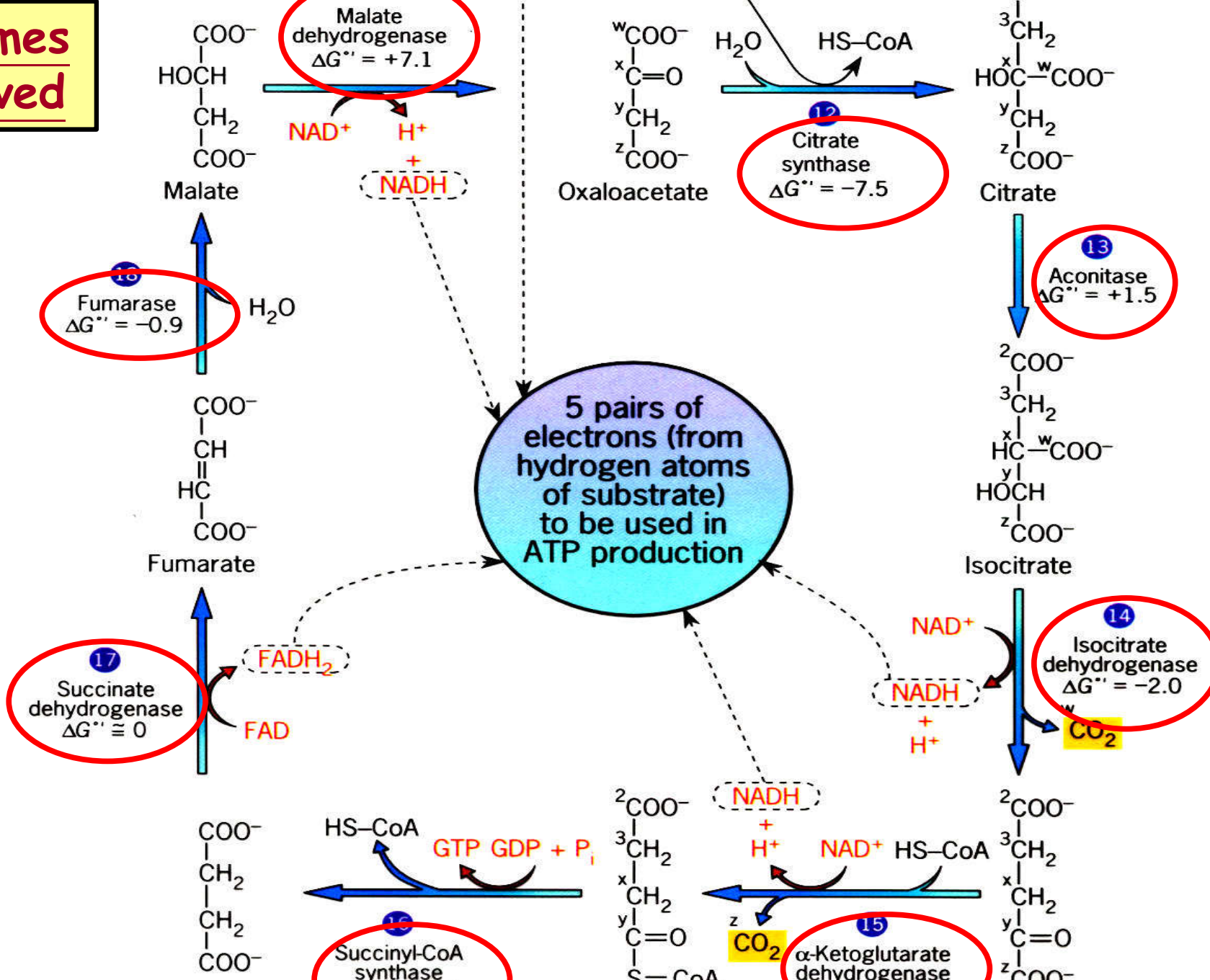
Krebs cycle



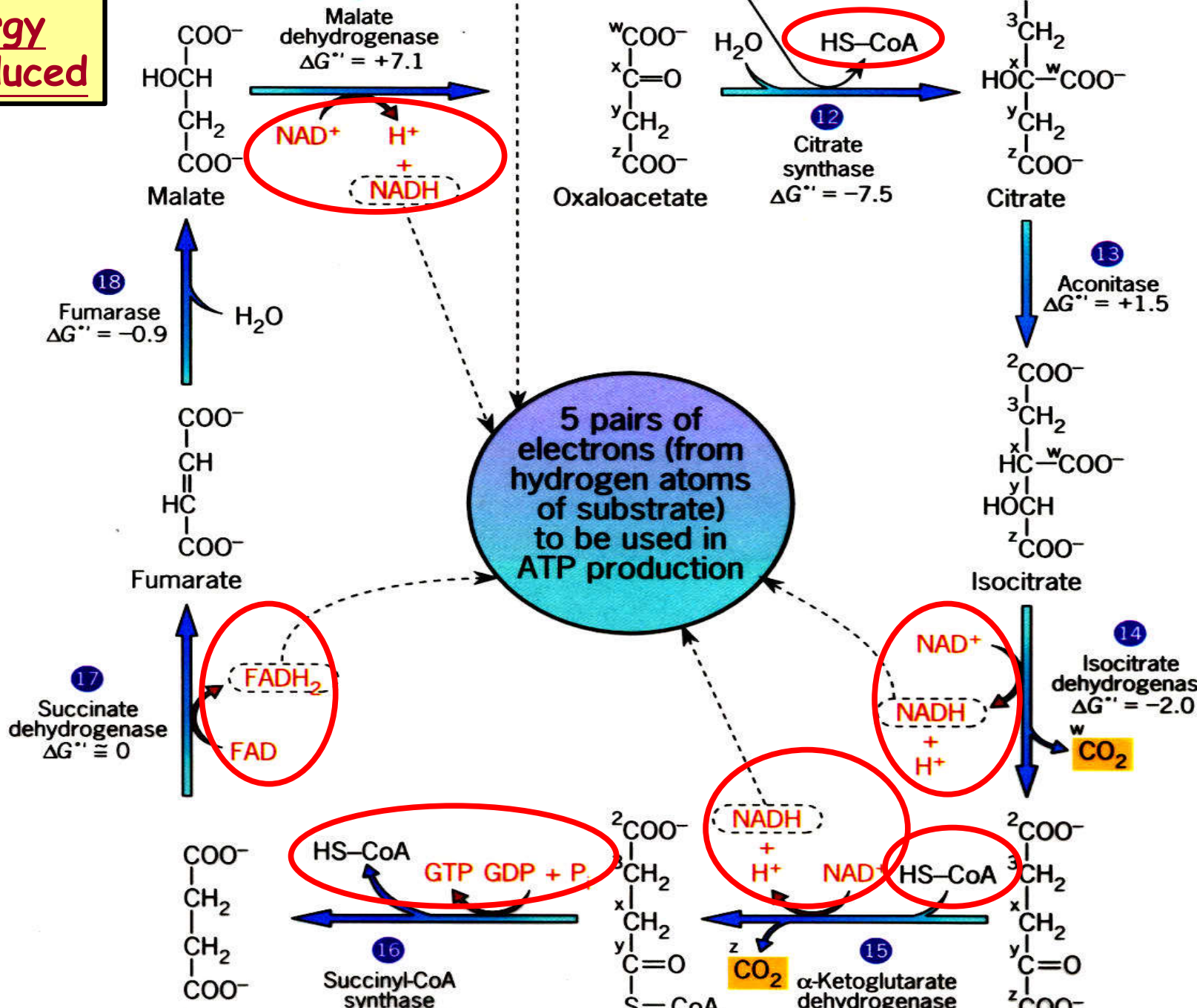
**Intermediate
Products**



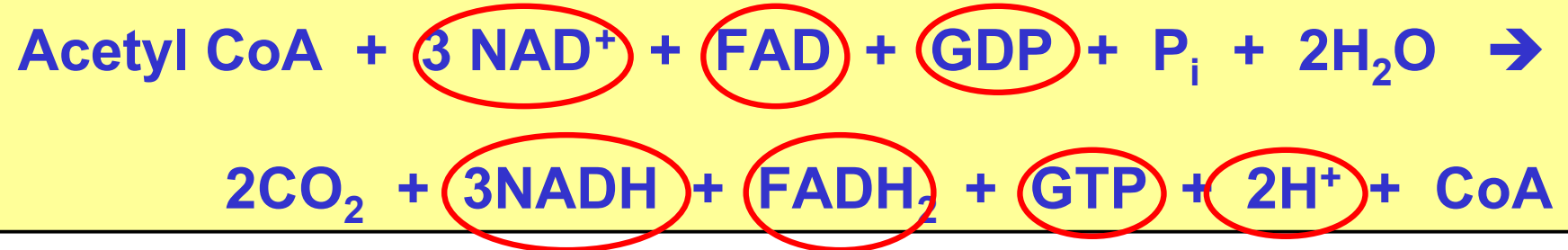
enzymes involved



High energy products produced



Net reaction of the TCA cycle



- It remove two carbon ($\text{CH}_3\text{-CO-}$) every cycle to generate two CO_2 .
- The intermediate compounds are not affected.

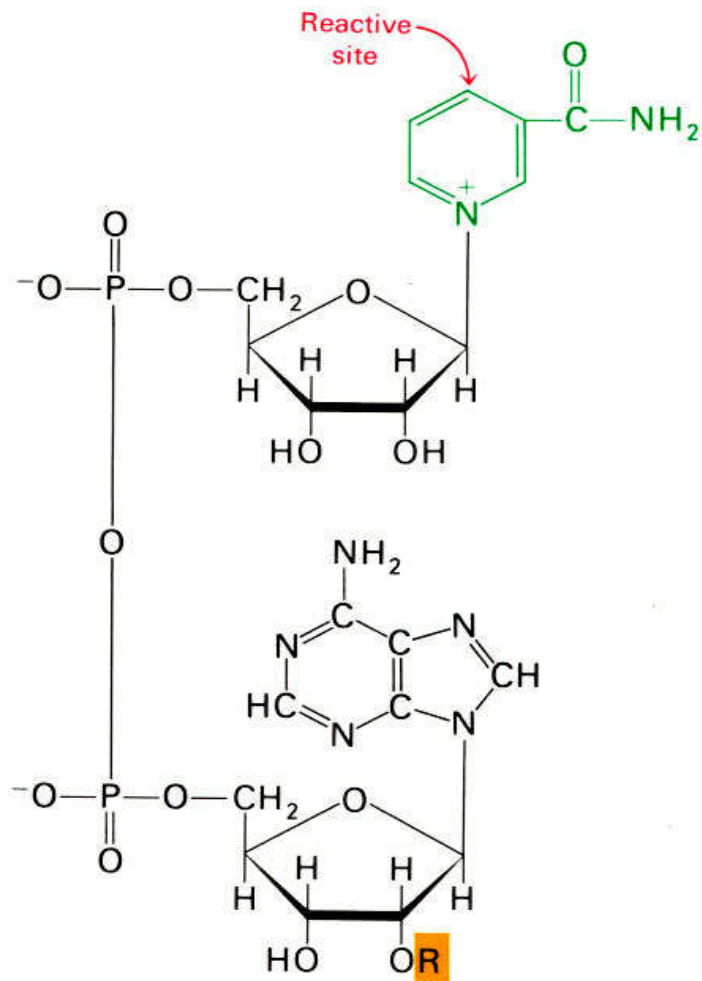


Figure 17-7

Structure of the oxidized form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) and of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺). In NAD⁺, R = H; in NADP⁺, R = PO₄²⁻

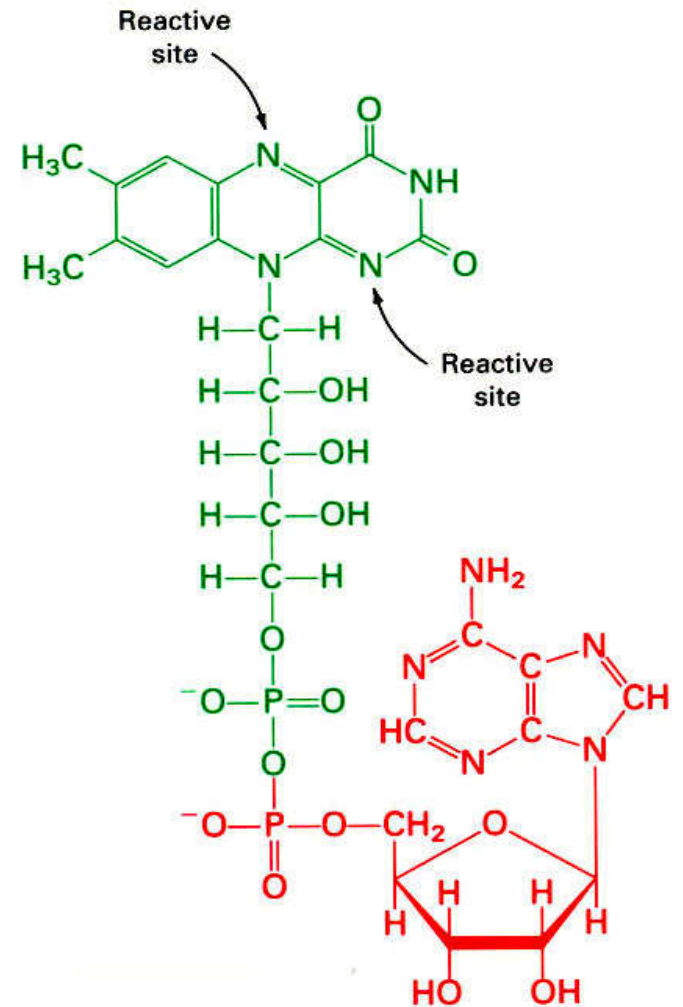
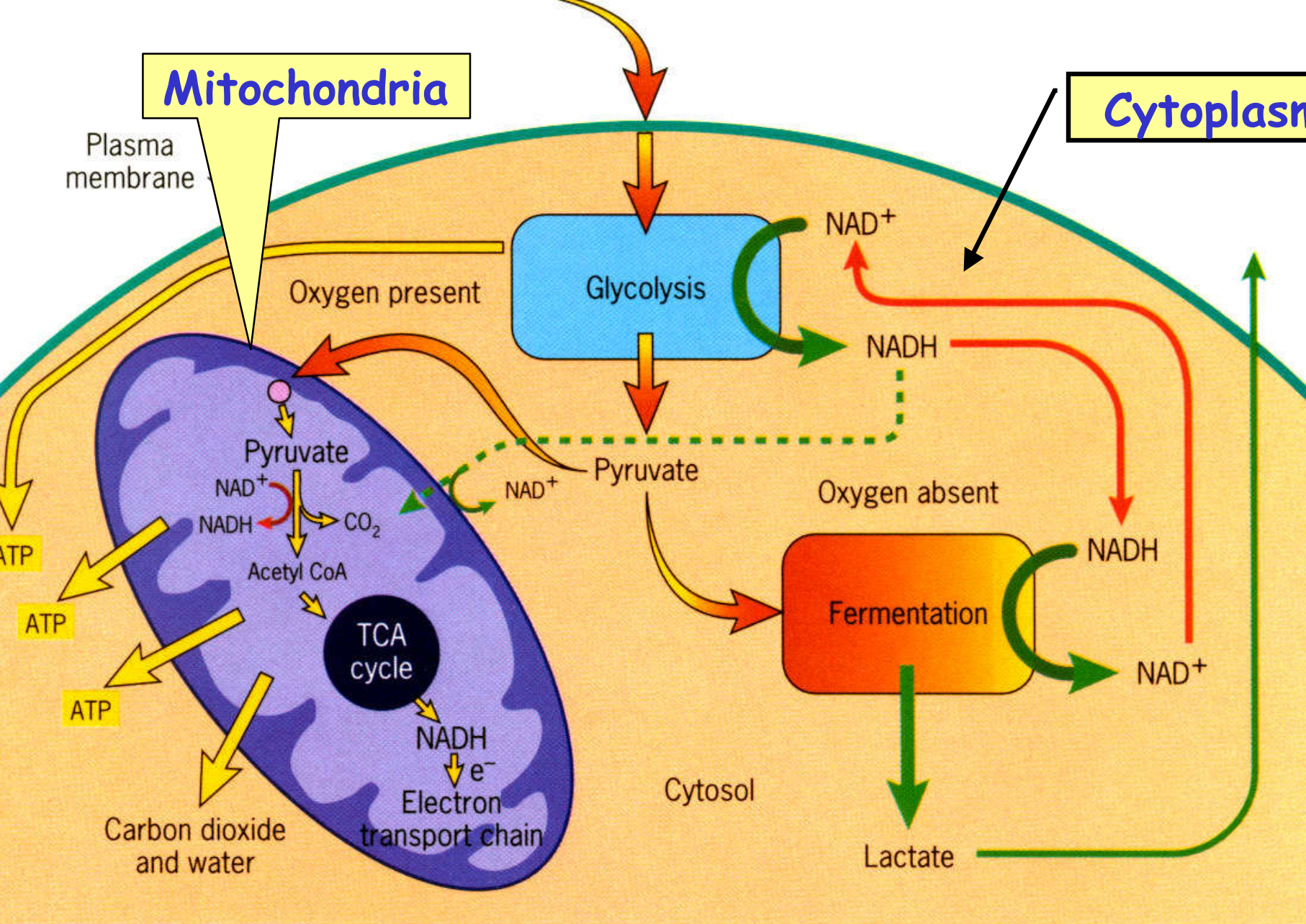


Figure 17-8

Structure of the oxidized form of flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). This electron carrier consists of a flavin mononucleotide (FMN) unit (shown in green) and an AMP unit (shown in



Cellular respiration: Definition, types, and final products

Utilization of the Coenzymes to generate ATP

1. High energy electrons are passed from FADH_2 or NADH to the first of a series of electron carriers, **the Electron transport chain**, with the concomitant generation of proton gradient across the inner mitochondrial membrane.
2. The controlled movement of protons back across the membrane through the ATP-synthesizing enzyme provides the energy required to phosphorylate ADP to ATP - **Proton motive force, Mitchell's chemiosmotic theory.**



Acetyl-CoA enters Krebs Cycle to generate NADH and FADH₂ which are used to pump H⁺ outside mitochondria to create pH gradient which drives ATP synthesis and exports to outside mitochondria.

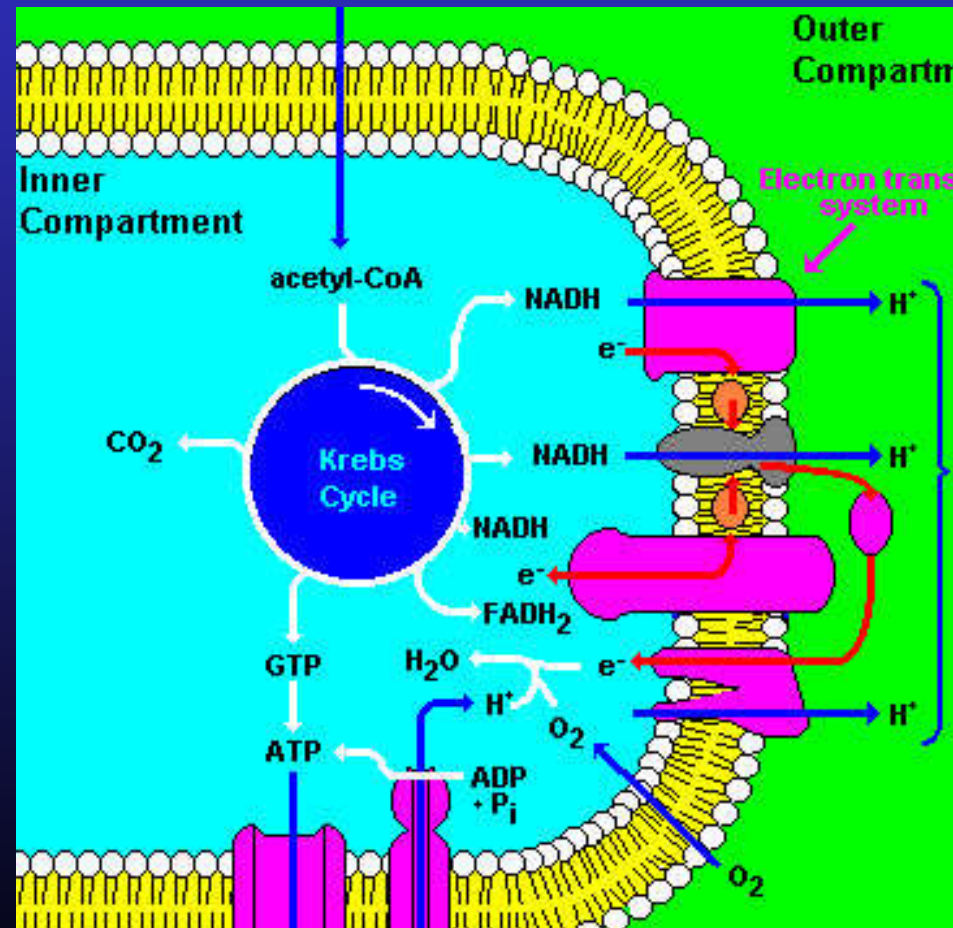
Michell's Chemiosmotic Theory

Proton chemical gradient is used to drive ATP synthesis.

Proton Motive Force

Oxidative phosphorylation

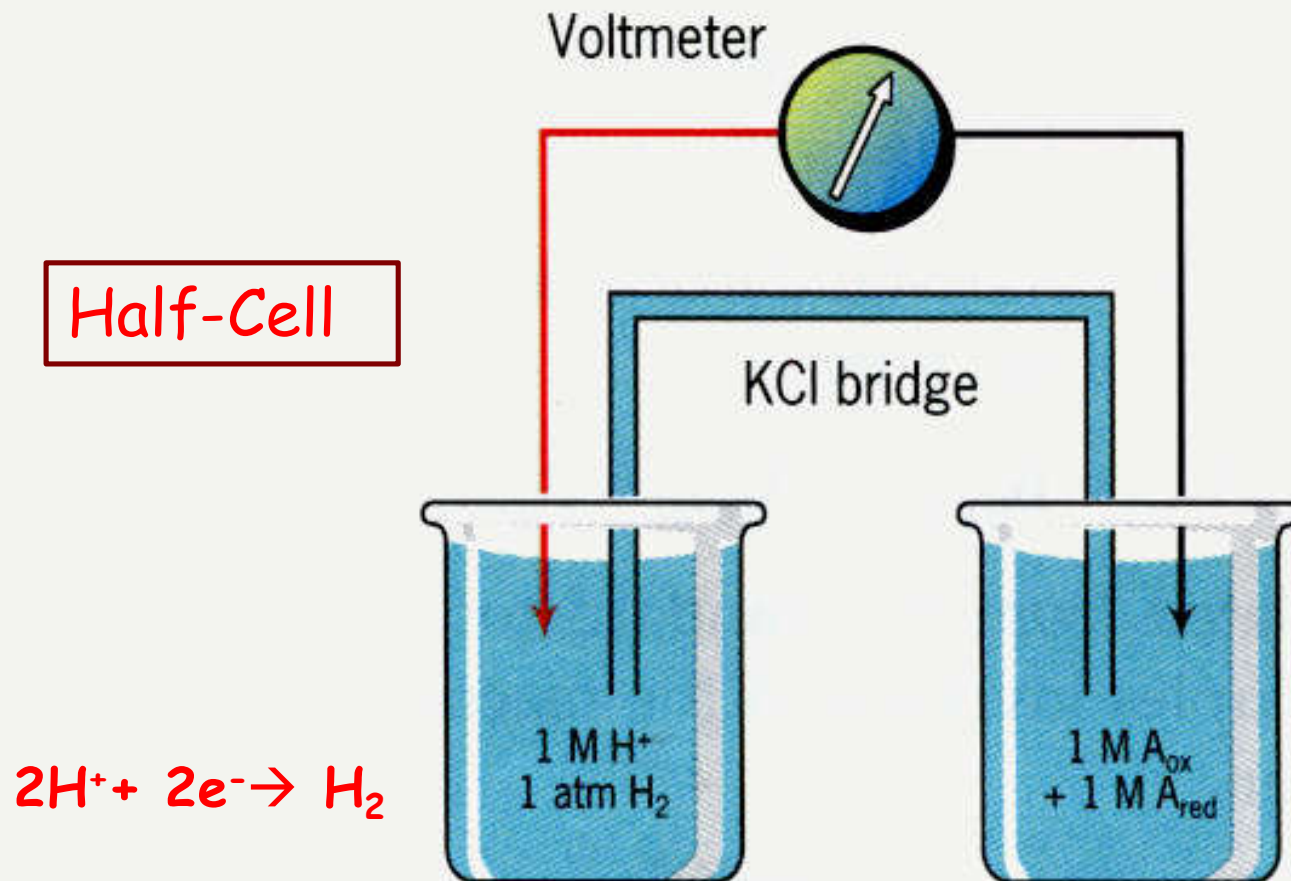
Reference: Karp Chap 5



to drive ATP synthesis

Oxidative Phosphorylation: The formation of ATP driven by energy released from electrons removed during substance oxidation. (2×10^2)

Oxidation-Reduction potential (Redox Potential):



Standard Redox Potentials of Selected Half-Reactions

Electrode equation

E'_0 (V)

Acetate + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ acetaldehyde	-0.58
2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ H ₂ (At pH 7.0)	-0.42
α-Ketoglutarate + CO ₂ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ isocitrate	-0.38
Acetoacetate + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ β-hydroxybutyrate	-0.34
NAD ⁺ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ NADH + H ⁺	-0.32
NADP ⁺ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ NADPH + H ⁺	-0.32
Acetaldehyde + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ ethanol	-0.19
Pyruvate + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ lactate	-0.18
Oxaloacetate + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ malate	-0.16
FAD + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ FADH ₂ (in flavoproteins)	+0.03
Fumarate + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ succinate	+0.03
2 cytochrome <i>b</i> _{K(ox)} + 2e ⁻ ⇌ 2 cytochrome <i>b</i> _{K(red)}	+0.03
Ubiquinone + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ ubiquinol	+0.10
2 cytochrome <i>c</i> _{ox} + 2e ⁻ ⇌ 2 cytochrome <i>c</i> _(red)	+0.25
2 cytochrome <i>a</i> _{3(ox)} + 2e ⁻ ⇌ 2 cytochrome <i>a</i> _{3(red)}	+0.38
$\frac{1}{2}$ O ₂ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ ⇌ H ₂ O	+0.81

Reductant
High energy)



Oxidant
Low energy)

Redox Potential

Standard redox potential of some reactions:

<u>Oxidant</u>	\longleftrightarrow	<u>Reductant</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>E'₀(V)</u>
Succinate + CO₂	\longrightarrow	α-ketoglutarate	2	-0.67
2H⁺	\longrightarrow	H₂	2	-0.42
NAD⁺	\longleftrightarrow	NADH + H⁺	2	-0.32
Cytochrome b (+3)	\longleftrightarrow	Cytochrome b (+2)	1	0.07
Ubiquinone(Oxidized)	\longleftrightarrow	Ubiquinone (Reduced)	2	0.10
Cytochrome c (+3)	\longleftrightarrow	Cytochrome c (+2)	1	0.22
Fe (+3)	\longleftrightarrow	Fe (+2)	1	0.77
½ O₂ + 2 H⁺	\longrightarrow	H₂O	2	0.82

reductant



oxidant

Thermodynamics

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (\text{kcal/mol})$$

ΔH : Enthalpy change. Internal energy, binding energy, interactions or thermal energy;

ΔS : Entropy change. Randomness or degree of freedom and is related to molecular rearrangement (cal/°K/mol, kcal/°K/mol)

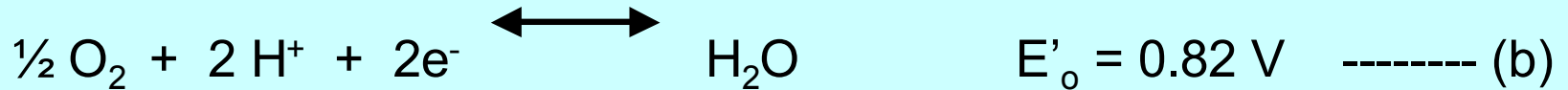
ΔG : Gibbs free energy. Determine the nature of the biological processes



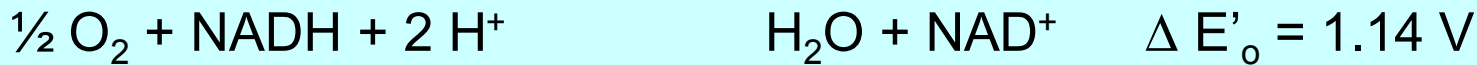
1. Separation of energy into internal energy and randomness.

2. Biological process proceed in the direction of lowest energy and highest randomness

Calculate the free energy of oxidation of the following reaction:



(b) - (a):



Energy change:

$$\Delta G_{elec} = -n \cdot z \cdot F \cdot \Delta E$$

E : Electric potential (Volts);

n : moles of ions (electrons)

F : (Faraday's constant) = 23 kcal.mol⁻¹.V⁻¹ ;

z : valence of the ion.

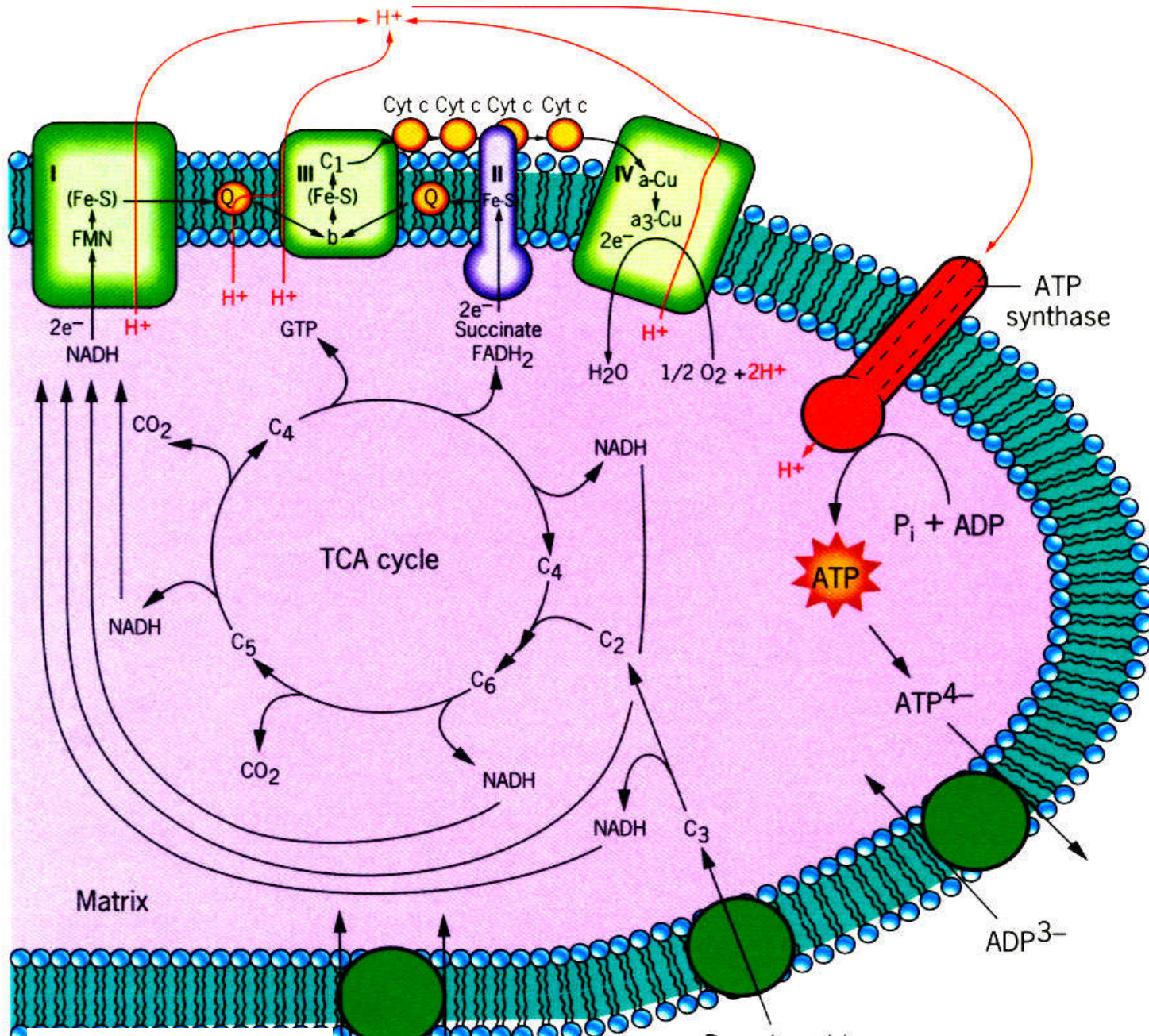
$\Delta E = 1.14 \text{ Volts}$; $n = 2 \text{ moles}$; $F = 23 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}.\text{V}^{-1}$; $z = 1$:

$$\Delta G^{o'} = -nF \Delta E'_o = -2 \times 23 \times 1.14 = -52.5 \text{ kcal}$$

Transport of charge across a polarized membrane

Δ





1. Flavoproteins: Proteins contain either flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) or flavin mononucleotide (FMN).

2. Cytochromes: Proteins contain heme group

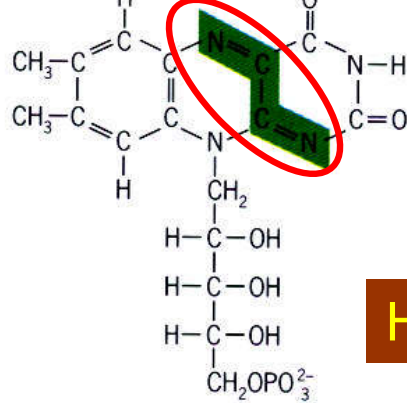


3. Ubiquinone (UQ or coenzyme Q): A lipid soluble molecule containing a long hydrophobic chain composed of five-carbon isoprenoid unit.

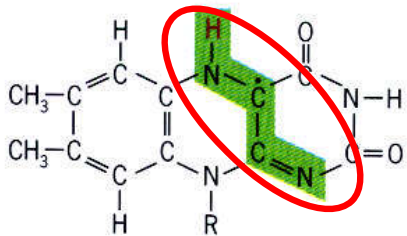
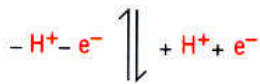


4. Iron-sulfur proteins: Proteins contain irons which are linked to inorganic sulfur atoms as part iron sulfur center [2Fe-2S] or [4Fe-4S]-linked to cysteine.

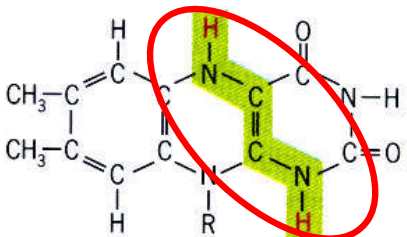
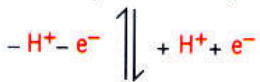
$$\Delta E^{\circ} = -700 \text{ mV} - +300 \text{ mV}$$



Oxidized form of FMN
(quinone state)



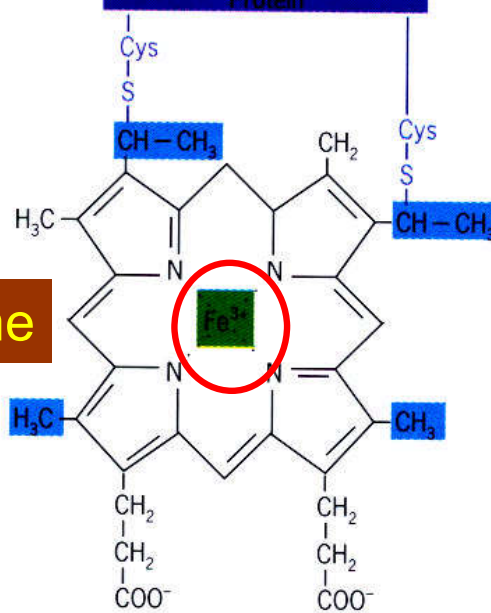
Intermediate free radical
(semiquinone state)



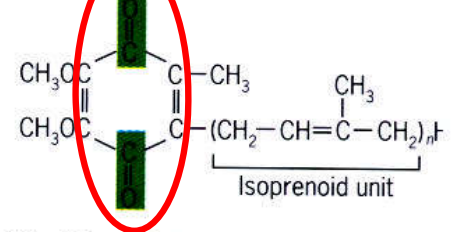
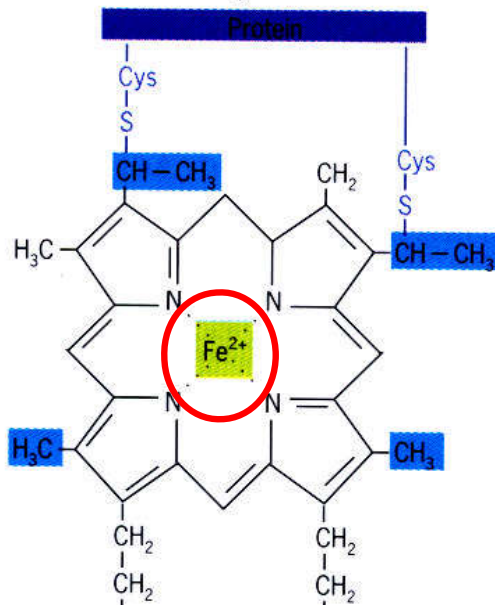
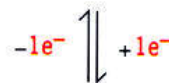
Reduced form of FMN
(hydroquinone state)

(a)

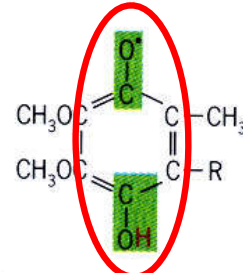
Heme



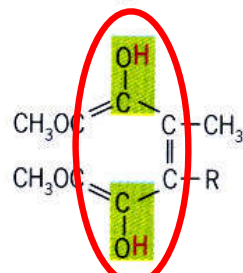
Oxidized form of Heme



Oxidized form of Ubiquinone
(quinone state)



Intermediate free radical
(ubisemiquinone)



Reduced form of Ubiquinone
(ubiquinol)

(c)

Ubiquinone

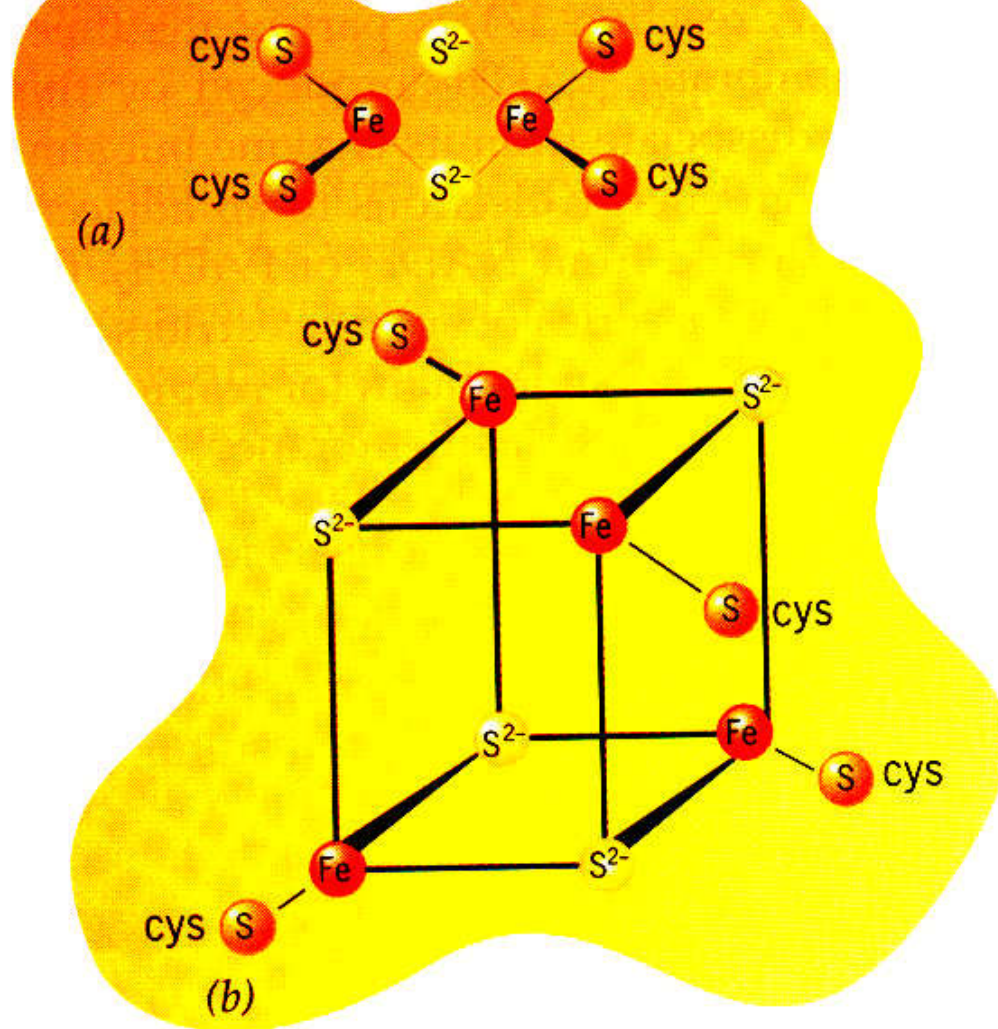


Figure 5.12 Iron-sulfur centers. Structure of a $[2\text{Fe}-2\text{S}]$ (a) and a $[4\text{Fe}-4\text{S}]$ (b) iron-sulfur center. Sulfur atoms are shown in yellow. Both types of iron-sulfur centers are joined to the protein by linkage to a sulfur atom of a cysteine residue. Both types of iron-sulfur centers accept only a single electron, whose charge is distributed among the vari-

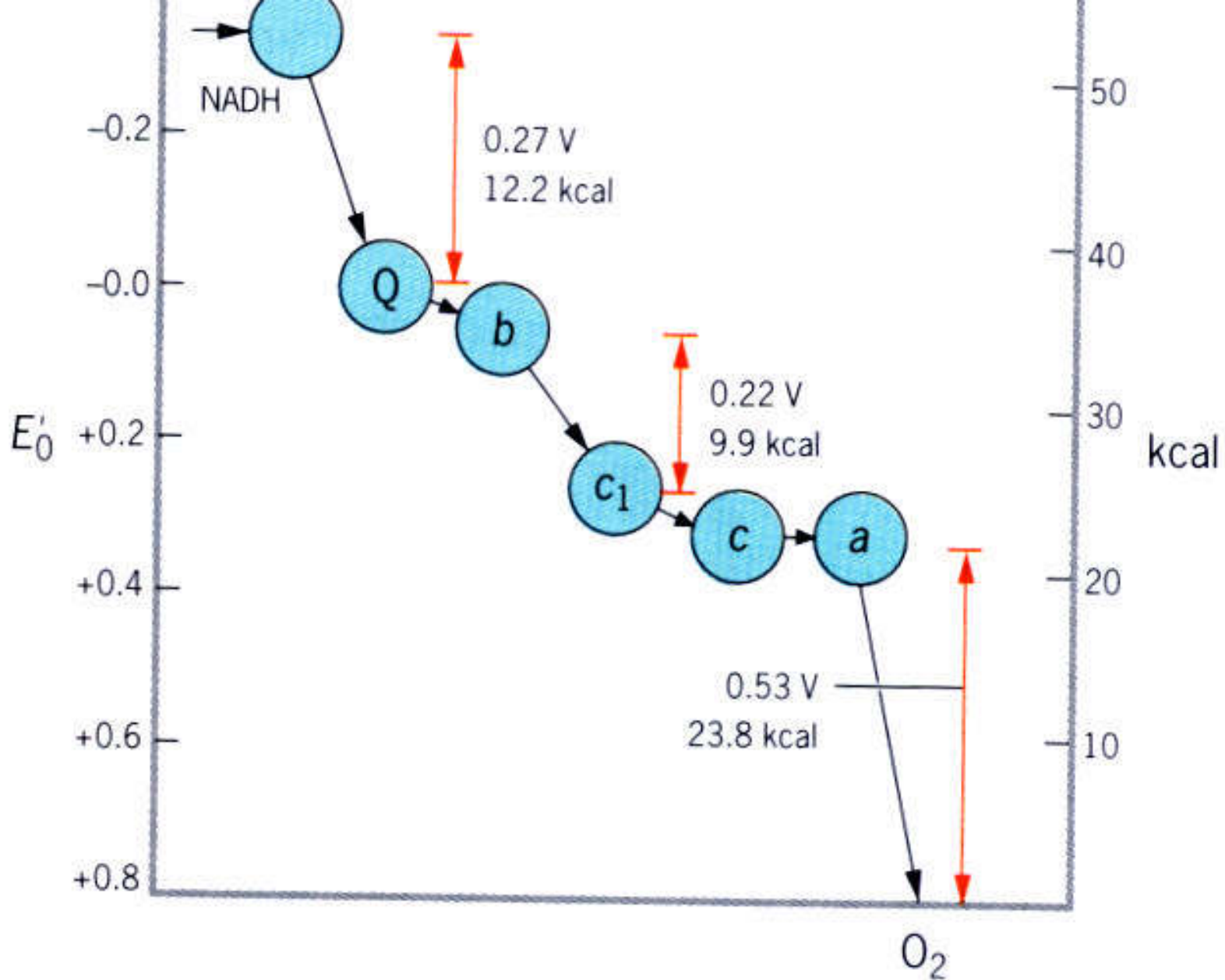


Figure 5.13 The arrangement of several carriers in the

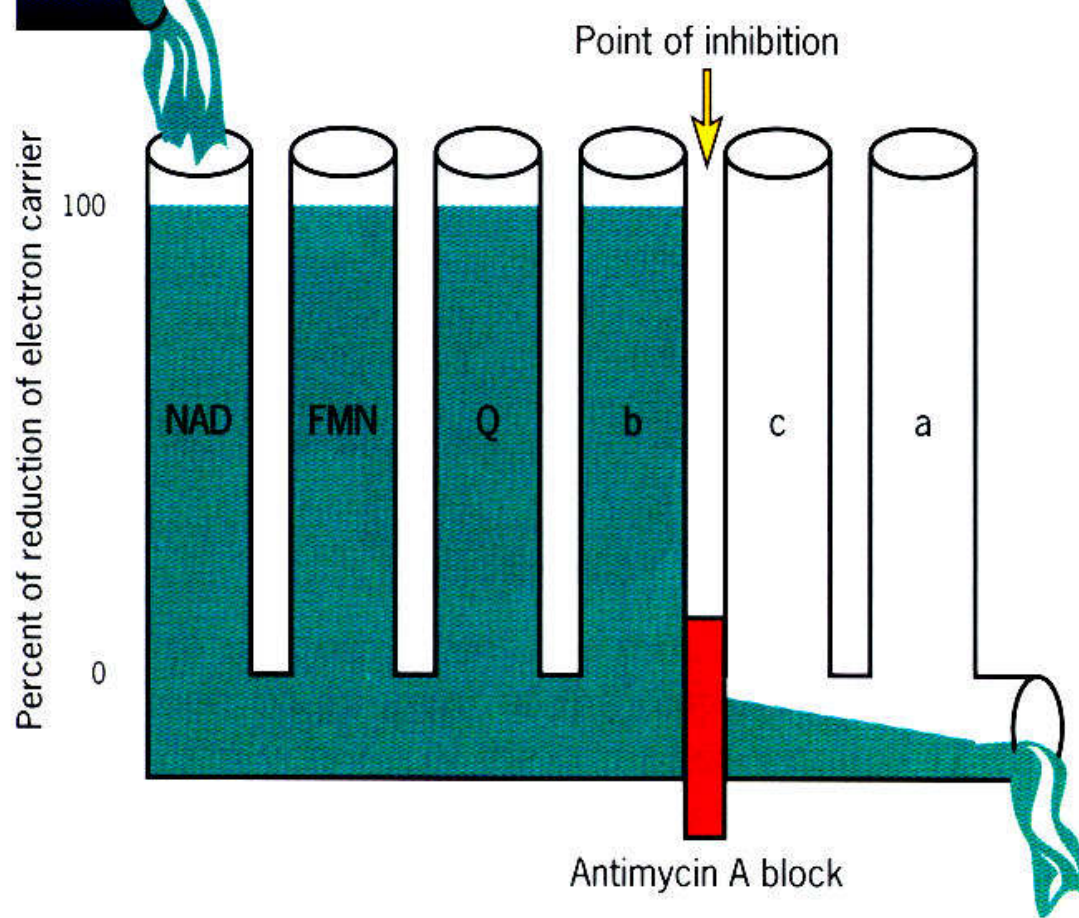
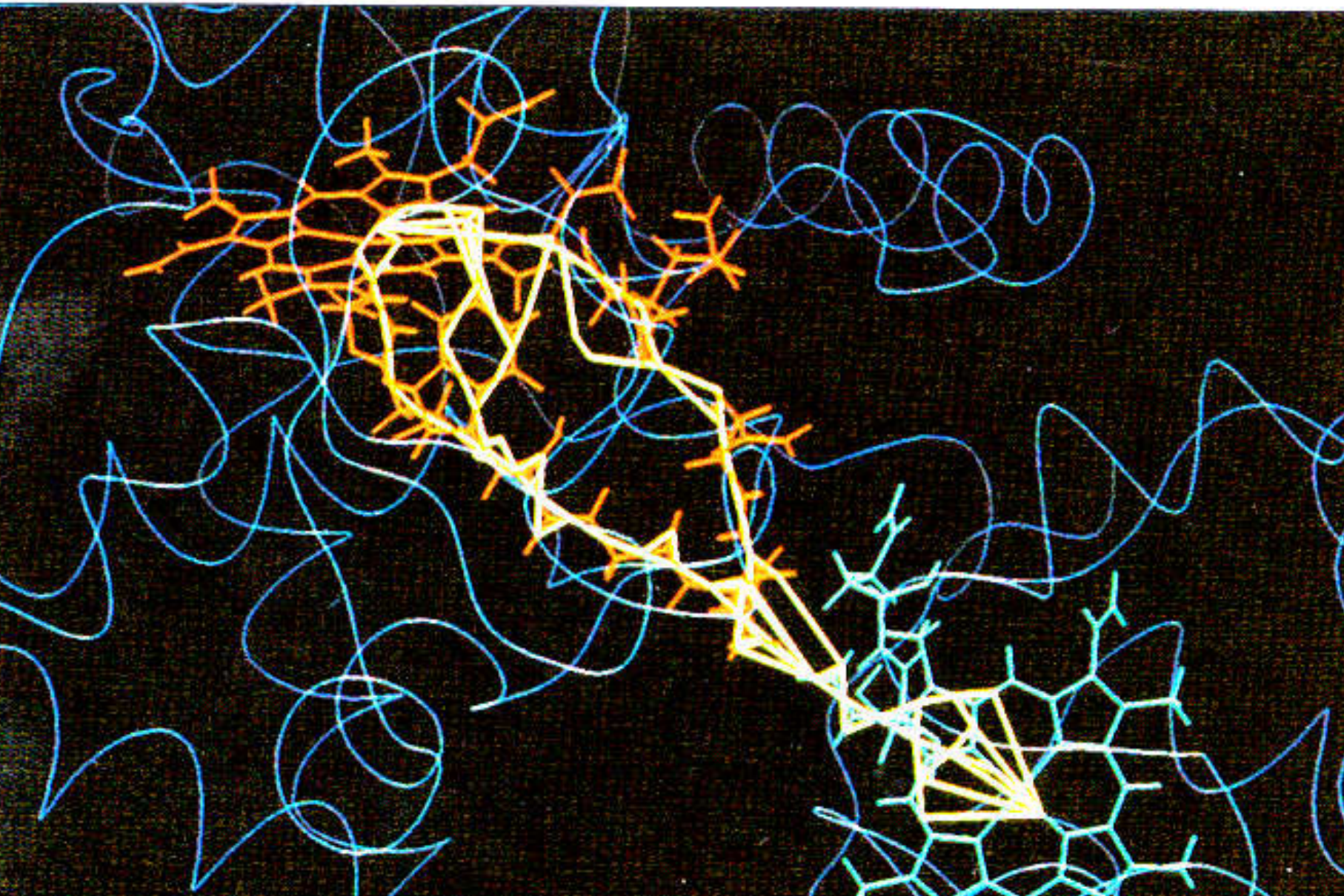
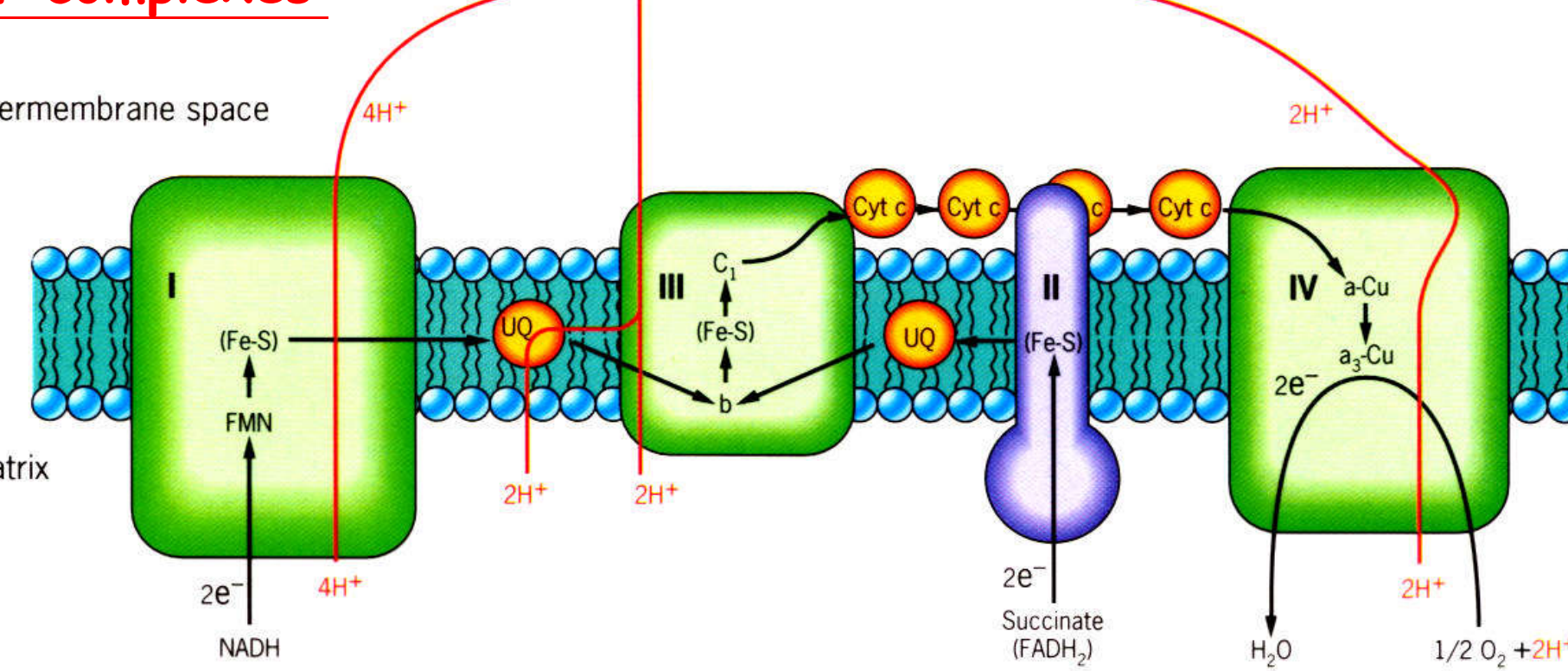


Figure 5.14 Experimental use of inhibitors to determine the sequence of carriers in the electron-transport chain. In this hydraulic analogy, treatment of mitochondria with the inhibitor antimycin A leaves those carriers on the upstream (NADH) side of the point of inhibition in the fully reduced state and those carriers on the downstream (O_2) side of inhibition in the fully oxidized state. Comparison of the effects of several inhibitors revealed the order of the carriers within

onds and covalent bonds for considerable distances (10 - 20





Complex I
NADH Dehydrogenase
Mammalian

Complex III
Cytochrome bc₁

Complex II
Succinate dehydrogenase

Complex IV
Cytochrome c Oxidase

UNIT	Complex I	Complex III	Complex II	Complex IV
DNA	7	1	0	3
RNA	35	10	4	10
TOTAL	42	11	4	13

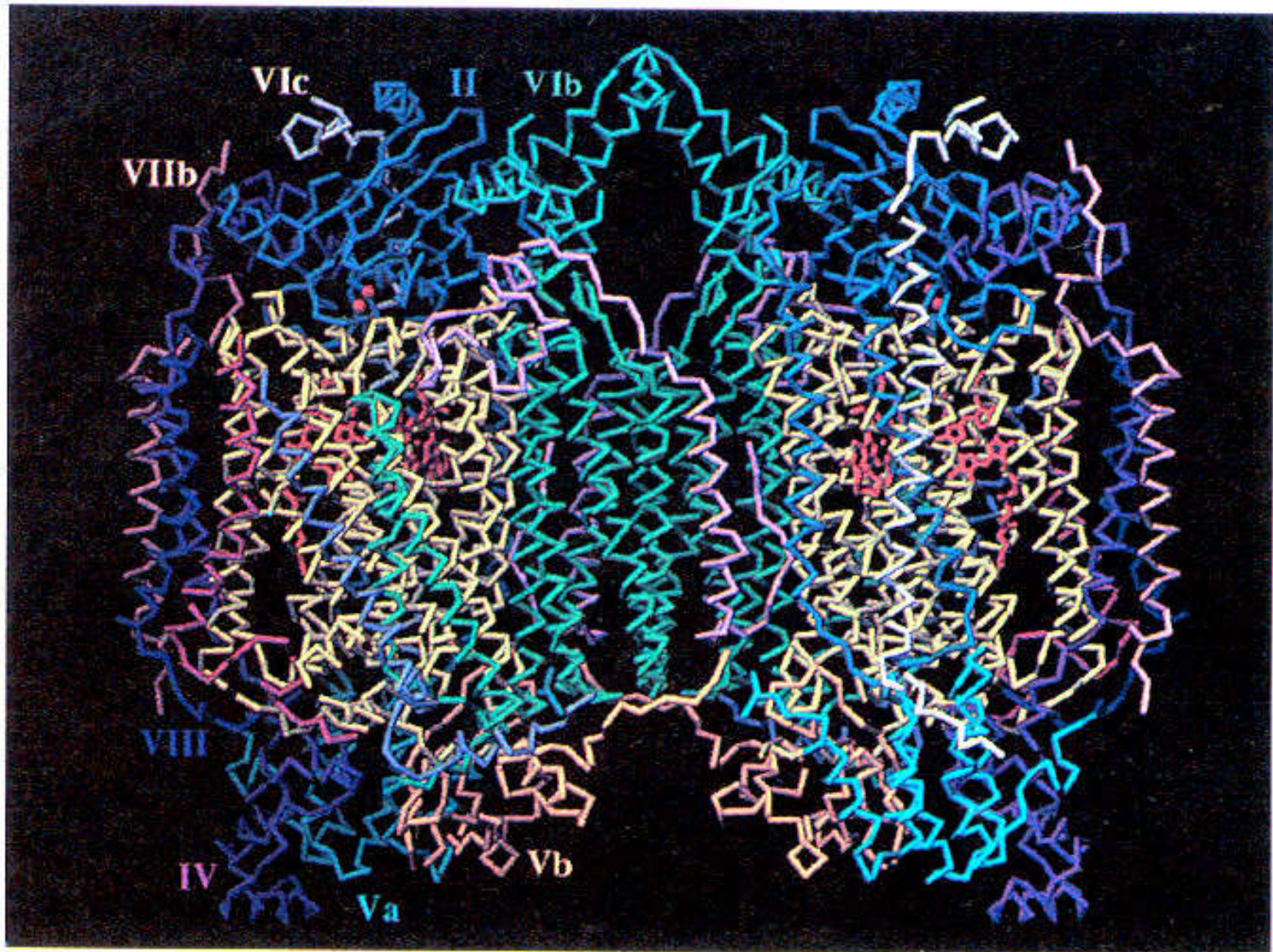
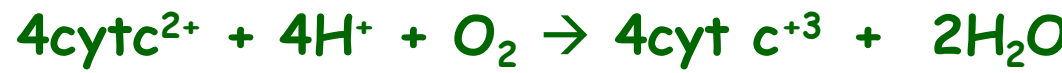


Figure 5 17 Three-dimensional structure of bovine heart

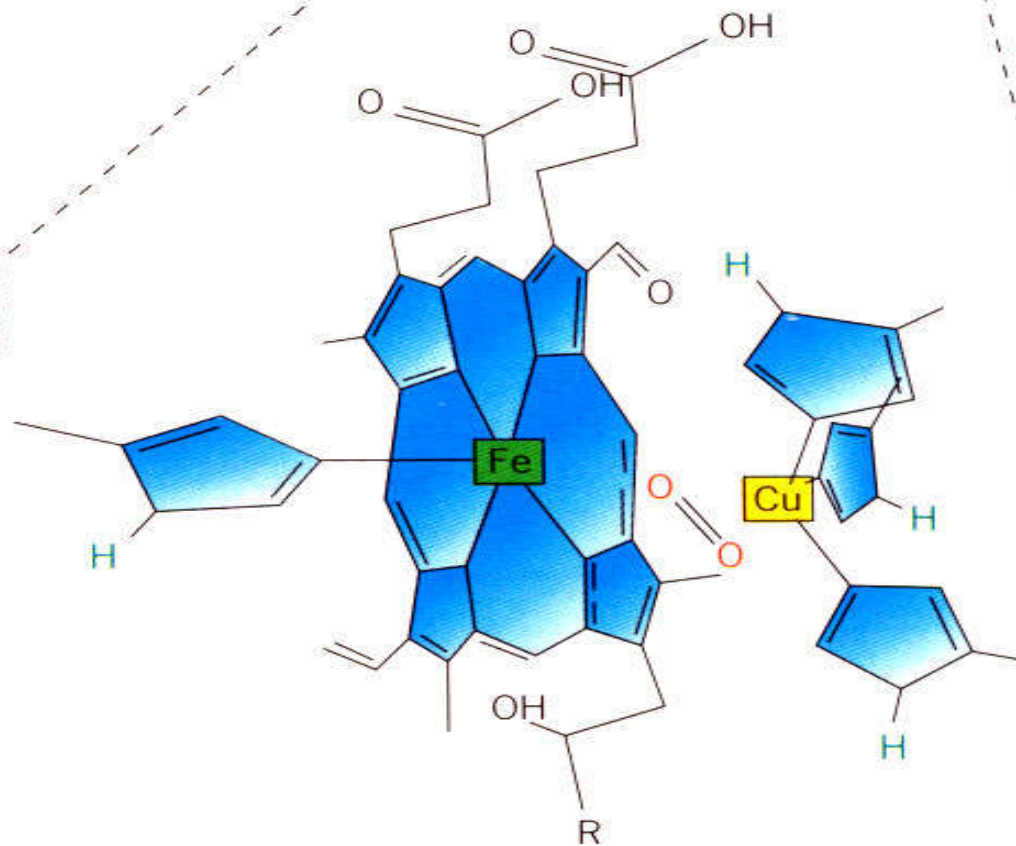
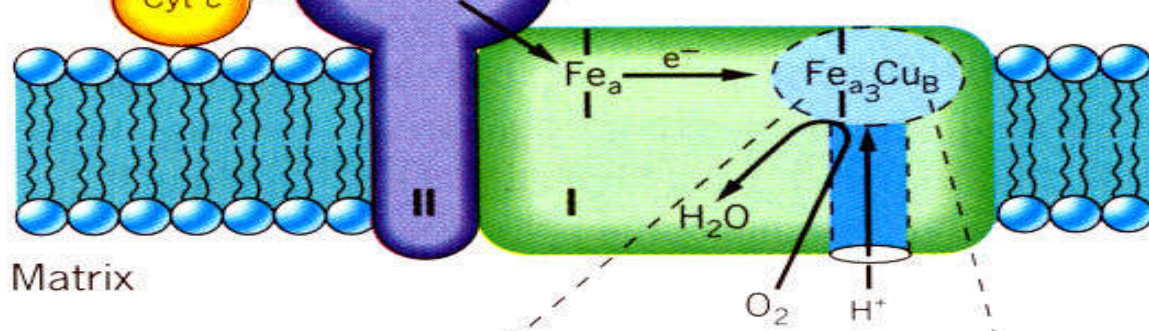


Figure 5.18 The mechanism of action of cytochrome ox

Chemical Equilibrium

Chemical reaction: $a A + b B + \dots \rightleftharpoons c C + d D + \dots$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + 2.3RT \log K \text{ ----- (1)}$$

G : Gibbs free energy under experimental condition (cal, kcal)

G° : Gibbs free energy in equilibrium = $- 2.3 RT \log K_{eq}$ (Equilibrium constant)

Standard state free energy (All conc = 1 M)

R: Gas constant = $1.99 \text{ cal K}^{-1} \text{ Mol}^{-1} = 8.31 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$;

$K = [C]^c \cdot [D]^d \dots / [A]^a \cdot [B]^b \dots$ (Not necessarily in equilibrium)

1. Sign of ΔG , not ΔG° , determines the direction of a reaction

$\Delta G < 0$ Spontaneous reaction (proceeds in forward direction).

$\Delta G > 0$ Reaction proceeds in reverse direction.

$\Delta G = 0$ System in equilibrium (No change in reactant concentration)

<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Enzyme</i>	<i>Type*</i>	$\Delta G^{\circ'}$
Glucose + ATP \longrightarrow glucose 6-phosphate + ADP + H ⁺	Hexokinase	a	-4.0
Glucose 6-phosphate \rightleftharpoons fructose 6-phosphate	Phosphoglucose isomerase	c	+0.4
Fructose 6-phosphate + ATP \longrightarrow fructose 1,6-bisphosphate + ADP + H ⁺	Phosphofructokinase	a	-3.4
Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate \rightleftharpoons dihydroxyacetone phosphate + glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate	Aldolase	e	+5.7
Dihydroxyacetone phosphate \rightleftharpoons glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate	Triose phosphate isomerase	c	+1.8
Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate + P _i + NAD ⁺ \rightleftharpoons 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate + NADH + H ⁺	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase	f	+1.5
1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate + ADP \rightleftharpoons 3-phosphoglycerate + ATP	Phosphoglycerate kinase	a	-4.5
3-Phosphoglycerate \rightleftharpoons 2-phosphoglycerate	Phosphoglyceratmutase	b	+1.1
2-Phosphoglycerate \rightleftharpoons phosphoenolpyruvate + H ₂ O	Enolase	d	+0.4
Phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP + H ⁺ \longrightarrow pyruvate + ATP	Pyruvate kinase	a	-7.5

on type: (a) phosphoryl transfer; (b) phosphoryl shift; (c) isomerization; hydration; (e) aldol cleavage; (f) phosphorylation coupled to oxidation.

: $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ and ΔG are expressed in kcal/mol. ΔG , the actual free-energy change, has calculated from $\Delta G^{\circ'}$ and known concentrations of reactants under typical physiologic ons. Glycolysis can proceed only if the ΔG values of all reactions are negative. The




Species	Products	ΔG° (kJ/mol)
Phosphoenolpyruvate	Pyruvate ⁻ + HPO ₄ ²⁻	-61.5
Carbamoyl phosphate		-51.4
Glycerate-1,3-bisphosphate		-49.3
Acetyl phosphate	Acetate ⁻ + HPO ₄ ²⁻ + H ⁺	-47.2
Phosphocreatine	Creatine ⁺ + HPO ₄ ²⁻	-42.6
Phosphoarginine	Arginine ⁺ + HPO ₄ ²⁻	-38.0
 ADP ³⁻	AMP ²⁻ + HPO ₄ ²⁻ + H ⁺	-36.0
 ATP ⁴⁻	AMP ²⁻ + HP ₂ O ₇ ³⁻ + H ⁺	-35.1
 ATP ⁴⁻	ADP ³⁻ + HPO ₄ ²⁻ + H ⁺	-34.3
HP ₂ O ₇ ³⁻	2 HPO ₄ ²⁻ + H ⁺	-33.0
Glucose-1-phosphate		-20.9
Glucose-6-phosphate		-13.8
AMP ²⁻	Adenosine + HPO ₄ ²⁻	-9.20
Glycerol-3-phosphate		-9.20

Table 1.4, taken from Zubay¹⁶ and Stryer¹⁷, lists the standard free energy of hydrolysis for some phosphate compounds. The table orders compounds in descending magnitude

Example The enzyme aldolase catalyzes the conversion of fructose-1,6-diphosphate (FDP), to dihydroxyacetone phosphate, DHAP, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, GAP. Under physiological conditions in erythrocytes (red blood cells), the concentrations of these species are $[FDP] = 35\mu M$, $[DHAP] = 130\mu M$, and $[GAP] = 15\mu M$. Will the conversion occur spontaneously under these conditions?

Solution The reaction quotient for the reaction considered,



is

$$K = \frac{[DHAP][GAP]}{[FDP]} = \frac{(130 \times 10^{-6})(15 \times 10^{-6})}{35 \times 10^{-6}} = 5.8 \times 10^{-5},$$

so the free energy change is

$$\Delta G' = \Delta G^{o'} + RT \ln K = -0.47 \text{ J/K-mol}.$$

Hence, under the given conditions, the reaction will proceed spontaneously. \blacktriangledown

- ATP hydrolysis



= A; ATP, ADP, AMP

adenosine-5'-triphosphate

adenosine-5'-diphosphate

adenosine-5'-monophosphate

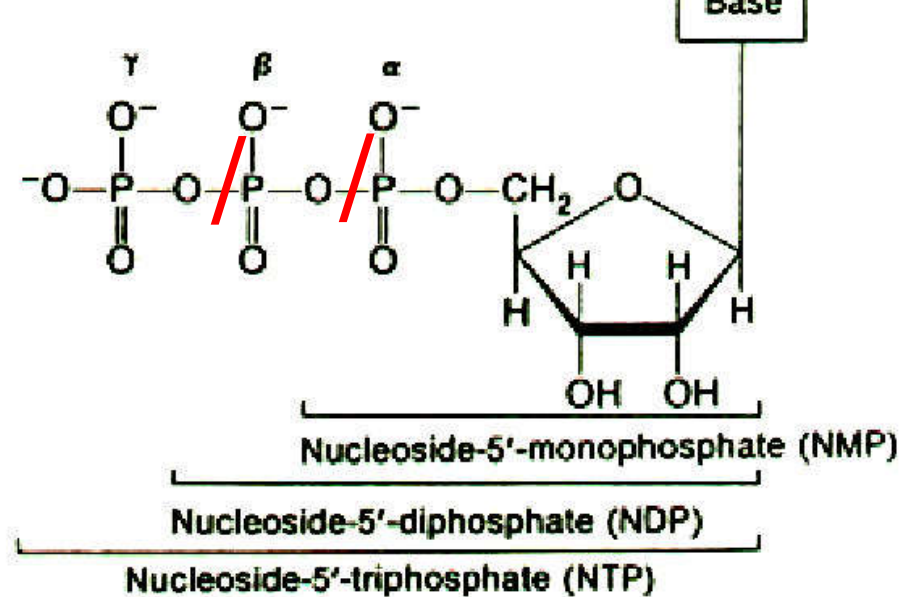


Figure 1.4: The structure of a nucleoside monophosphate, diphosphate, and triphosphate. NMP, NDP, and NTP dissociate two, three, and four protons, respectively. The phosphate groups in NTPs are designated α , β , and γ according to their positions. [From G. Zubler ed., *Biochemistry*, 2nd ed., MacMillan, New York, New York, 1988, Fig.7-11.]

calculate ΔG of the hydrolysis of ATP inside the cell at 27°C.

assume $[\text{ATP}] = 100 \text{ mM}$, $[\text{P}_i] = 10 \text{ mM}$ and $[\text{ADP}] = 1 \text{ mM}$ inside the cell.

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + 2.3 RT \log K; \quad K = \frac{[\text{ADP}] \cdot [\text{P}_i]}{[\text{ATP}]}; \quad \Delta G^\circ = -34.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta G = -34.3 \times 10^3 + 2.3 \cdot 8.31 \cdot (273+27) \log(0.001 \cdot 0.01/0.1)$$

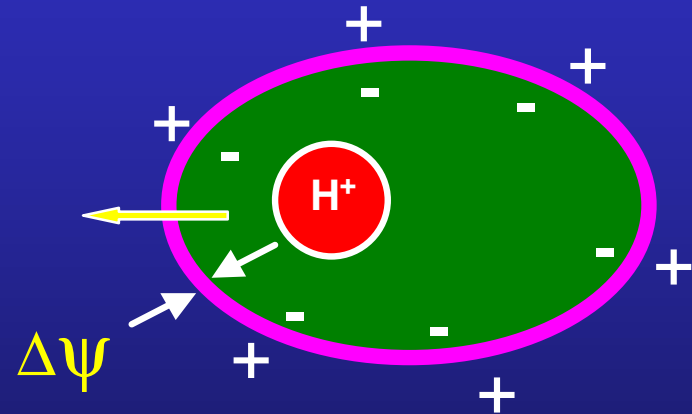
$$= -57.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} = -13.3 \text{ kcal/mol}$$

Proton motive force (Electrochemical gradient):

Proton gradient generated by oxidative phosphorylation contains both chemical gradient and electric gradient.

Electromotive force (Δp):

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta p &= \psi - 2.3 (RT/F) \Delta \text{pH} \\ &= \psi - 59 \Delta \text{pH} \text{ (mV)}\end{aligned}$$



- $\Delta \text{pH} \sim 0.5 - 1$ pH unit
- ΔpH contribute about 20% and $\Delta \psi$ contribute about 80% to Δp .

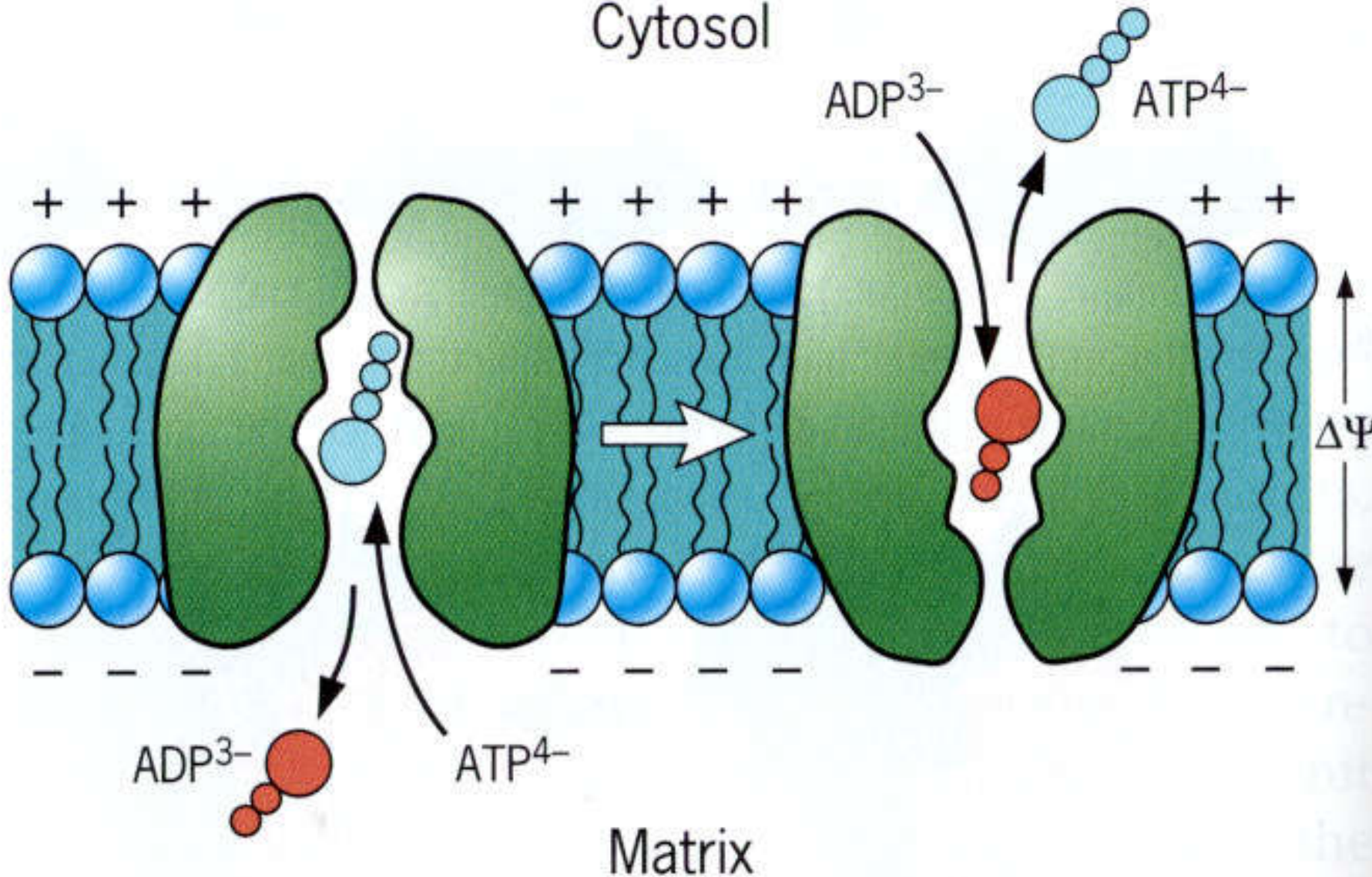


Figure 5.27 The use of the proton-motive force in moving ADP into the matrix and ATP into the cytosol.

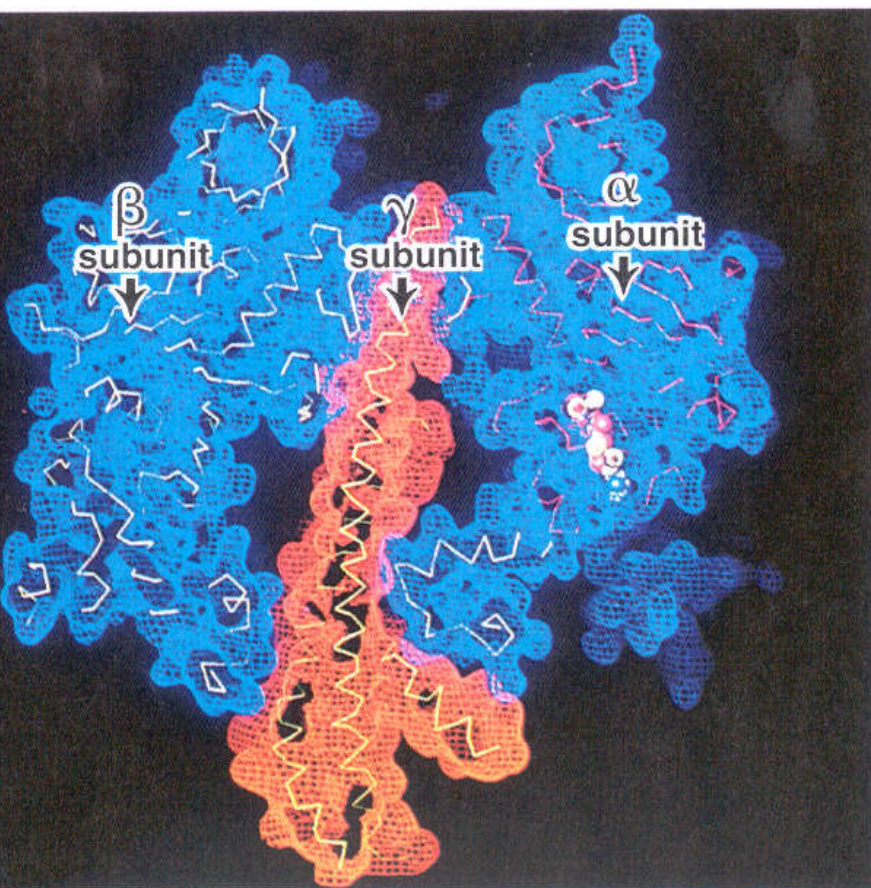
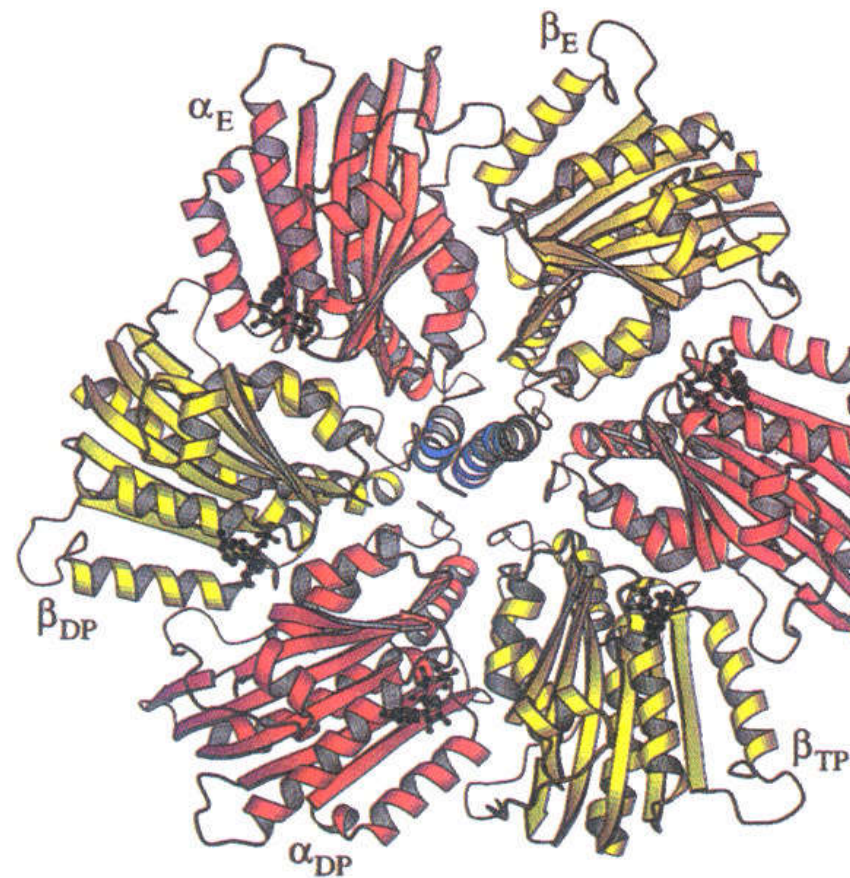
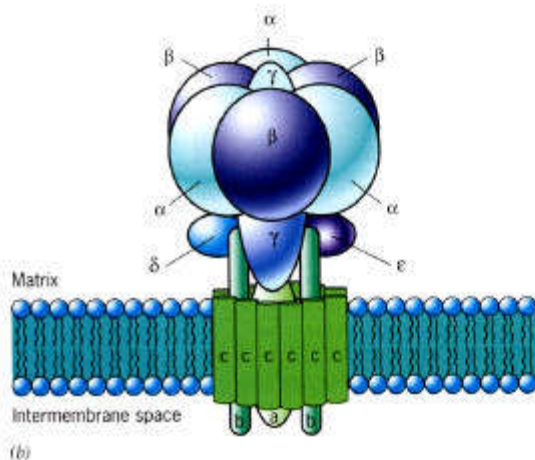


Figure 5.24 The structural basis of catalytic site conformation. (a) A section through the F_1 head shows the spatial organization of three of its subunits. The α -helical γ subunit is in position to project into the central cavity (black) of the F_1 , and to make contact with the α and β subunits on each side. The conformation of the catalytic site of the β subunit (shown on the left) is determined by its contact with the γ subunit. (b) A top-down view of the F_1 head showing the arrangement of the six α



(b) and β subunits around the asymmetric γ subunit. The γ subunit is in position to rotate relative to the surrounding α subunits. It is also evident that the γ subunit makes contact with each of the three β subunits in a different way with each of the three α subunits, inducing each of them to adopt a different conformation. (Reprinted with permission from J. P. Abrahams, et al., courtesy of John E. Walker, *Nature* 370:624, 627, 1994. Copyright © 1994 Macmillan Magazines Limited.)



(b)

Figure 5.22 The structure of the ATP synthase. (a) Electron micrograph of the isolated rat liver ATP synthase. (b) Schematic diagram of the bacterial ATP synthase. The enzyme consists of two portions, called F_1 and F_0 . The F_1 head consists of five different subunits in the ratio $3\alpha:1\gamma:1\beta:1\epsilon$. The α and β subunits are organized in a circular array to form the spherical head of the enzyme; the δ and ϵ subunits are thought to be localized in the stalk; and the γ subunit runs through the center of the ATP synthase from the tip of F_1 down to F_0 . The F_0 base, which is embedded in the membrane, consists of three different subunits in the apparent ratio $1a:2b:12c$. As discussed later, the a subunits are thought to form a movable ring within the membrane; the b subunits form part of the stalk and extend into the F_1 head where they may hold the α/β subunits in a fixed position; and the c subunit may contain the proton channel that allows protons to traverse the membrane. (a: From J. W. G. L. Decker, and P. L. Pedersen, *J. Biol. Chem.* 254:11173, 1979.)

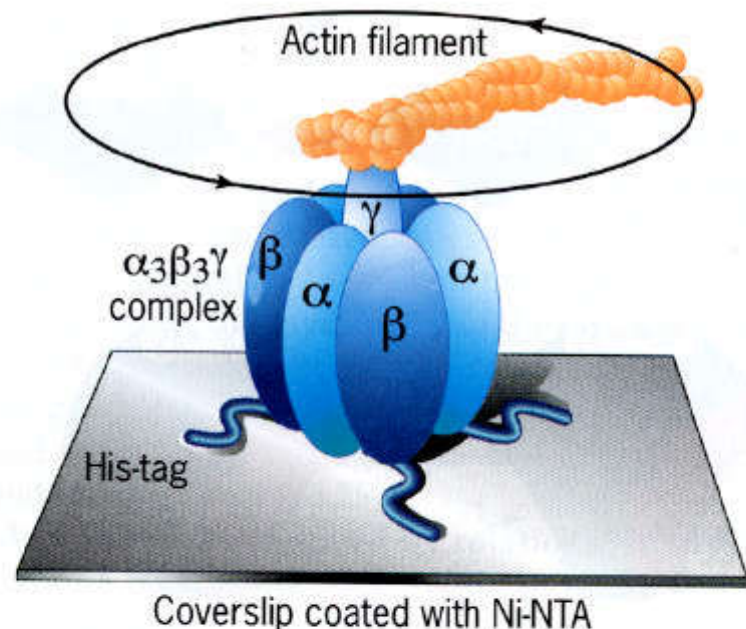
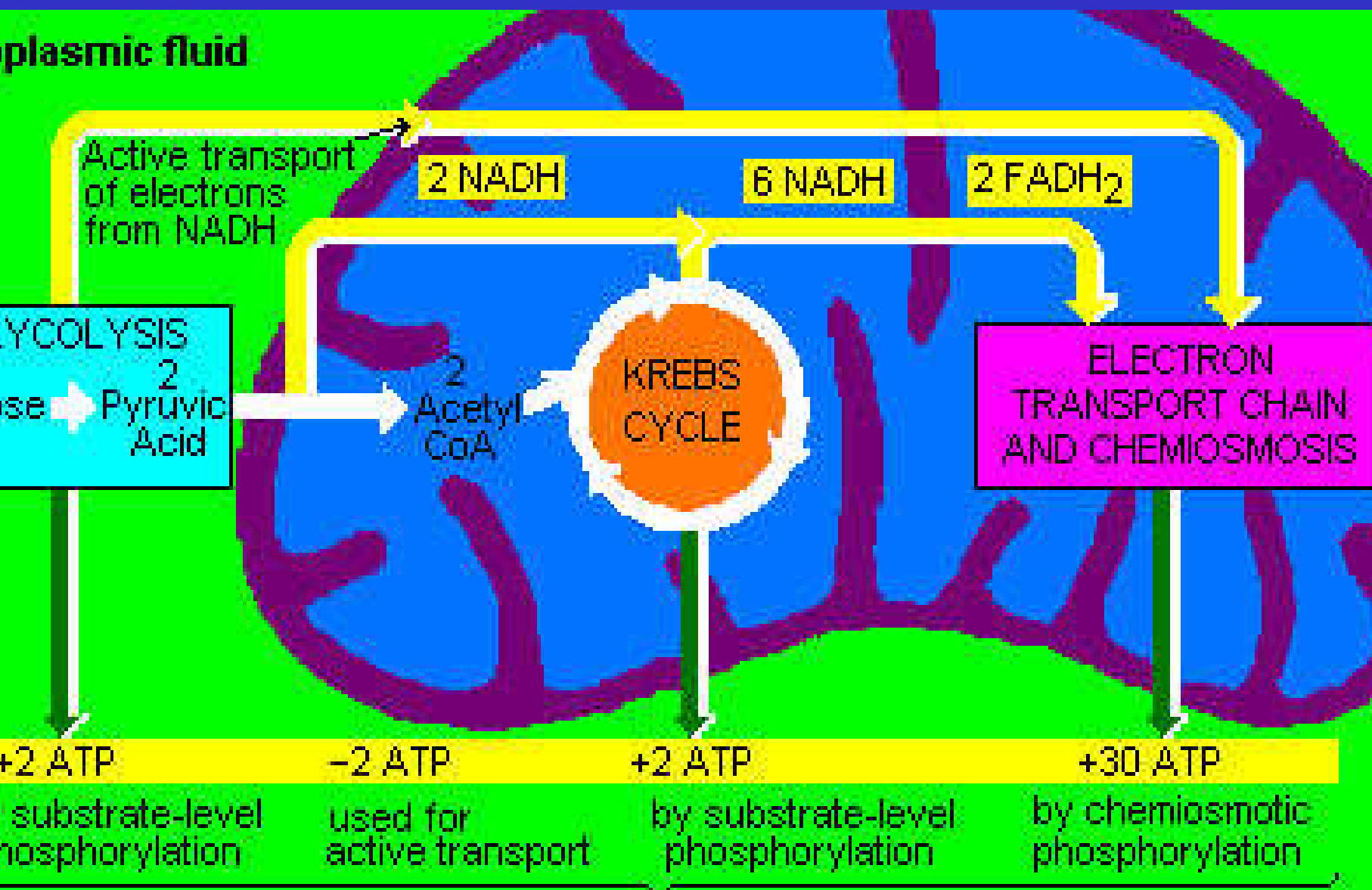


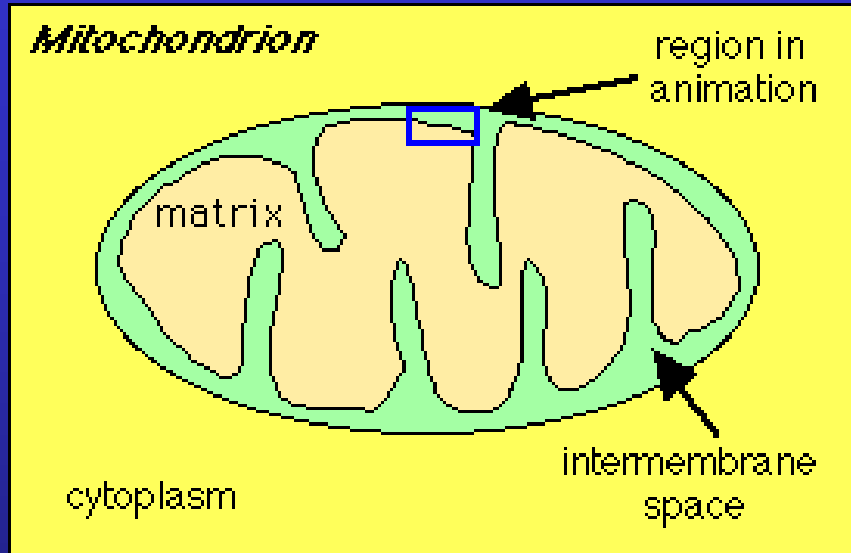
Figure 5.26 Direct observation of rotational catalysis. To carry out the experiment, a modified version of a portion of the ATP synthase consisting of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ was prepared. Each β subunit was modified to contain 10 histidine residues at its N-terminus, a site located on the outer (matrix) face of the F_1 head. The side chains of histidine have a high affinity for a substance (Ni-NTA), which was used to coat the coverslip. The γ subunit was modified by replacing one of the serine residues near the end of the stalk with a cysteine residue, which provided a means to attach the fluorescently labeled actin filament. In the presence of ATP, the actin filament was observed to rotate counterclockwise (when viewed from the membrane side) at a speed of less than 4 cycles per second. (Reprinted with permission from H. Noji, et al., courtesy of Masasuke Yoshida, *Nature* 386:300, 1997. Copyright 1997, Macmillan Magazines Limited.)

ATP generation from metabolism of a glucose molecule



Metabolism of a glucose molecule

About

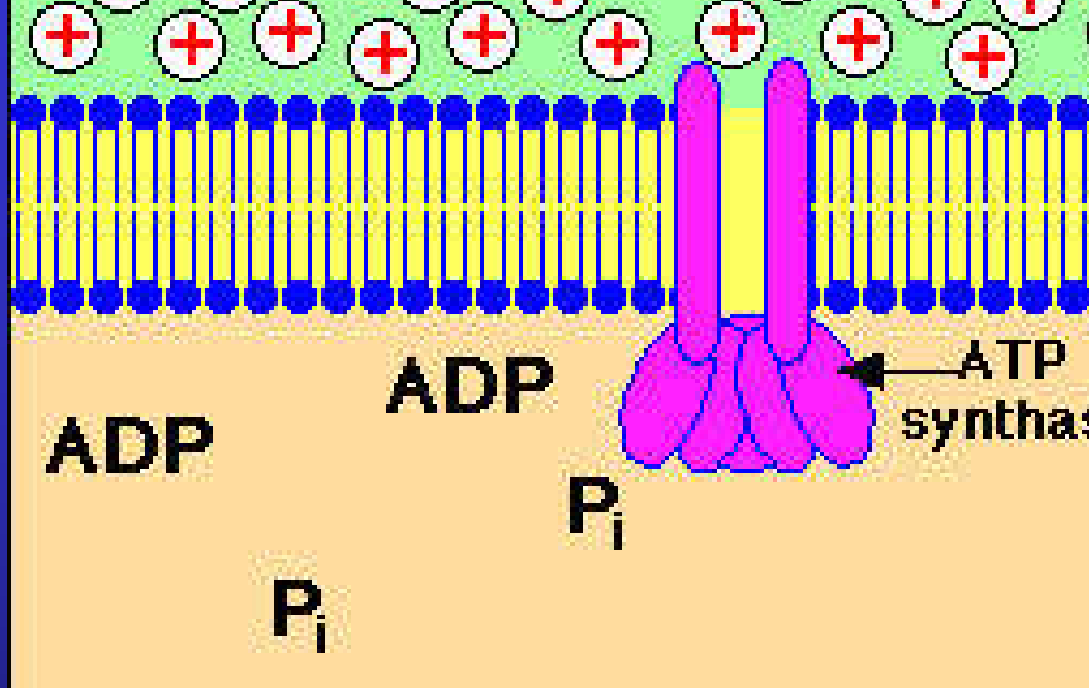


The schematic diagram above illustrates a mitochondrion. In the animation, when NADH transfers H^+ ions and electrons into the electron transport system.

Step 1: Proton gradient is built up as a result of NADH (produced from oxidation reactions) feeding electrons into electron transport system.

Step 2: Protons (indicated by $+$ charge) enter back into the mitochondrial matrix through channels in ATP synthase enzyme complex. This entry is coupled to ATP synthesis from ADP and phosphate (P_i).

A schematic diagram on the left illustrates a mitochondrion. In the animation, watch as H⁺ ions accumulate in the outer mitochondrial compartment whenever NADH is made from oxidation reactions, generating a proton gradient (upper image). Protons re-enter the cell through the ATP synthase complex, generating ATP (lower image).



Key points:

1. ATP synthase is a large protein complex with a proton channel that allows the re-entry of protons.
2. Protons are translocated across the membrane, from the matrix to the intermembrane space, as a result of electron transport resulting from the formation of NADH by oxidation reactions. (See the [animation of electron transport](#).) The continued buildup of these protons creates a proton gradient.
3. ATP synthesis is driven by the resulting current of protons flowing through the membrane:

Determination of ΔH and ΔS by DSC

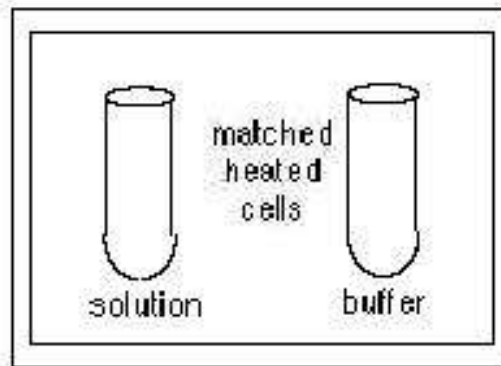
Macromolecules:
 (constant P)
 $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$
 $\Delta G = \Delta q_p$

At equilibrium:
 $\Delta G = 0 = \Delta H - T\Delta S$

$$\Delta S = \frac{\Delta q_p}{T}$$

$$= C_p \frac{\Delta T}{T}$$

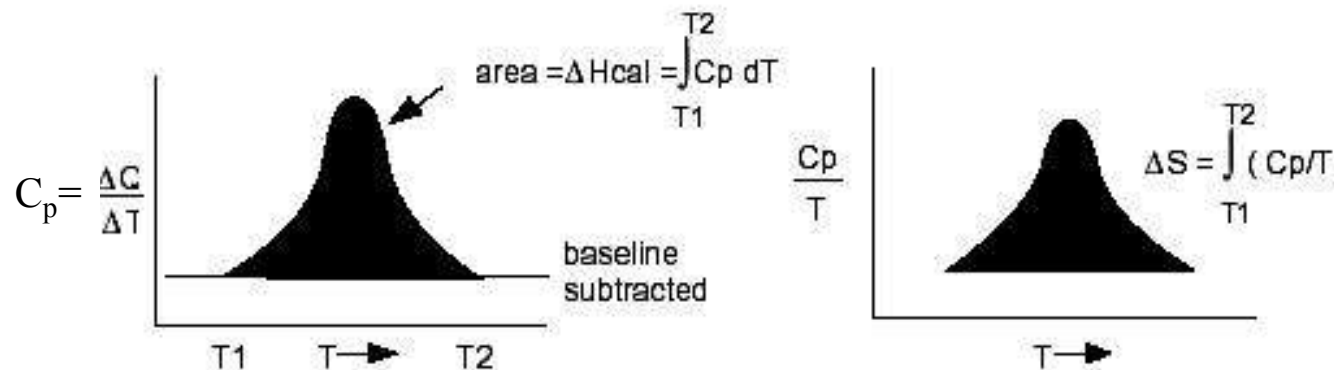
Biological samples are usually small and dilute, so conventional calorimetric measurements have until recently required too much material and have lacked sensitivity. However, recent technical advances have led to the development of *microcalorimeters*, which can detect the small amounts of heat generated or consumed by the ligand binding and conformational changes reactions undergone by proteins, nucleic acids, and membranes. Binding reactions are generally studied by *isothermal titration calorimeters*, which will be described later. Here we consider *differential scanning calorimeters*, in which processes such as protein unfolding and helix-coil transitions can be studied as a function of temperature (3). A schematic diagram of a differential scanning calorimeter is shown below:



Heat is supplied at the same rate to two matched cells. The solution cell will generally absorb more heat than the buffer cell, causing a slight difference in temperature between the two cells. A feedback loop monitoring this difference will supply a small amount of heat ΔQ to the solution cell to equalize the temperatures. The heat capacity $\Delta C_p = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta T}$.

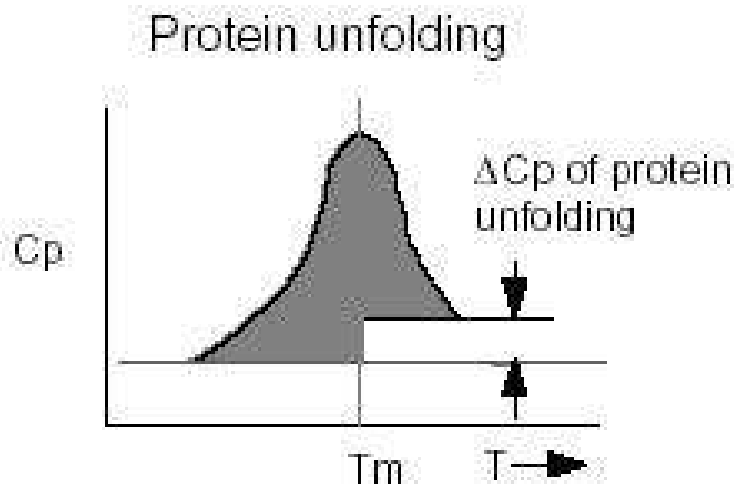
Determination of ΔH and ΔS from DSC

A schematic illustration of how DSC traces are integrated to obtain enthalpy and entropy



DSC of protein unfolding

As an example of how DSC can be used in a biologically relevant situation, consider the figure below which represents the typical thermal denaturation of a protein.



$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{cal} = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \Delta C_p dT$$

$$\Delta S^{\circ} = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{\Delta C_p}{T} dT$$

$$T_M = \frac{\Delta H^{\circ}_{cal}}{\Delta S^{\circ}} \quad (\text{when } \Delta G^{\circ} = 0)$$

The shaded area represents the heat input to the system to unfold the protein; the difference between the baselines at low and high T represents the difference in heat capacities between folded and unfolded forms.

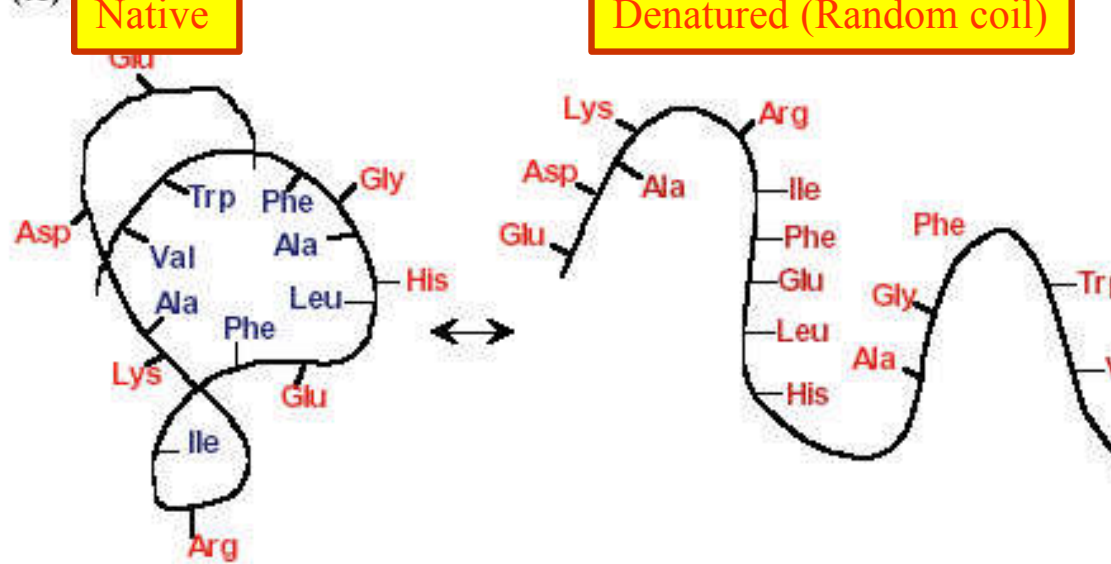
Example: Protein denaturation

Native (Folded) state
Low ΔH , low ΔS

Denatured (unfolded) state
High ΔH , high ΔS

Measure C_p and ΔH by
Differential scanning
Calorimeter)

Colicin E1 has 3 melting
transitions, corresponding to
unfolding of 3 domains



(B)

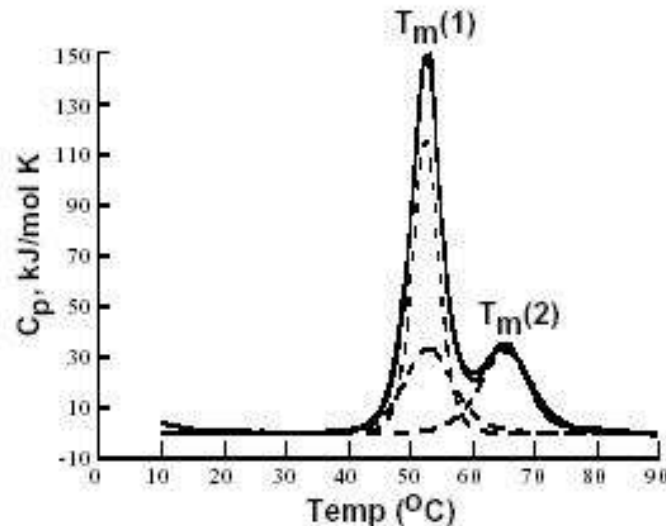
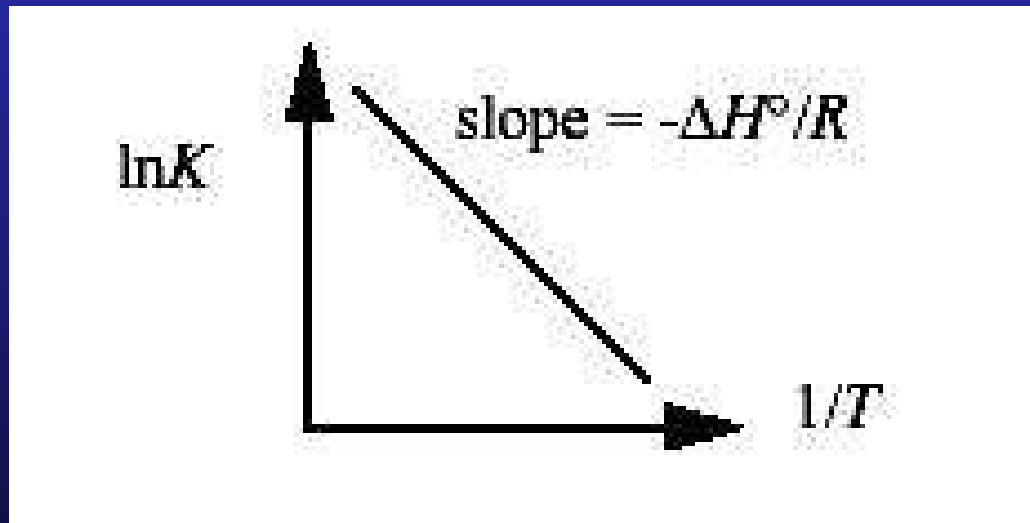


Fig.1-6. Protein denaturation. (A) Schematic diagram of the initial and final states of a protein → denatured transition; (B) Endothermic transitions associated with thermal denaturation of functional domains of colicin E1 modified from (Griko et al., 2000); deconvolution of the endotherm into two melting transitions is shown. A representative value of ΔS° for denaturation is ~ 100 cal/mol $^{\circ}\text{K}$.

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T \Delta S^\circ = RT \ln K$$

$$\rightarrow \ln K = -\Delta H^\circ/RT + \Delta S^\circ/R = \Delta S^\circ/R - (\Delta H^\circ/R)(1/T)$$

Measure K at different temperatures and determine ΔH (slope) and ΔS (intercept) from van't Hoff plot.



ΔH_{VH} and ΔH_{DSC} may not be the same if the process is cooperative or there are molecular interactions involved

Calculate the ΔG for ATP hydrolysis in a cell in which the $[ATP]/[ADP]$ ratio had climbed to 100:1 while the P_i concentration remained at 10 mM. How does this compare to the ratio of $[ATP]/[ADP]$ when the reaction is at equilibrium and P_i concentration remains at 10 mM? What would be the value of ΔG when the reactants and products were all at standard state conditions of 1 M?

Calculate the free energy released when $FADH_2$ is oxidized by molecular O_2 under standard conditions.

Of the following substances, ubiquinone, cytochrome c, NAD^+ , $NADH$, O_2 , H_2O , which is the strongest reducing agent? Which is the strongest oxidizing agent? Which has the greatest affinity for electrons?

Suppose that you are able to manipulate the potential of the inner membrane of a mitochondrion. You measure the pH of the mitochondrial matrix and find it to be 8.0. You measure the bathing solution and find its pH to be 7.0. You clamp the inner membrane potential at +59 mV, i.e. you force the matrix to be 59 mV positive with respect to the bathing solution. Under these circumstances, can the mitochondrion use the proton gradient to drive the synthesis of ATP?