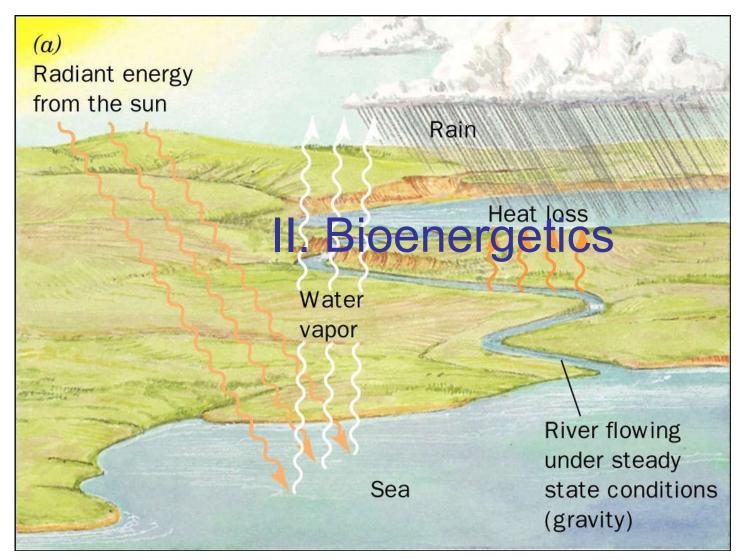
Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry University of Lethbridge

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Slide 1



Bioenergetics is the quantitative study of energy relationships and energy conversion in biological systems.

Biological energy transformations obey the laws of thermodynamics.

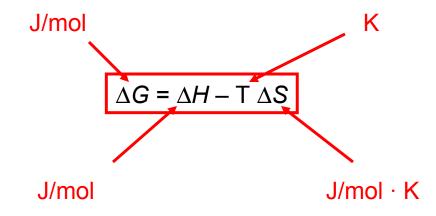
- You can't win (1st Law) For any physical or chemical change, the total amount of energy in the universe remains constant.
- You even can't break even (2nd Law) In all natural processes, the entropy of the universe increases.



Gibbs free energy, G – amount of energy capable of doing work

Enthalpy, H – the heat content of the reacting system

Entropy, S – quantitative expression for the randomness or disorder in a system.





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

A process tend to occur spontaneously only if ΔG is negative

For any chemical reaction ΔG is a function of the standard free-energy change ΔG^{0}

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + R T \ln \frac{[C]^{c}[D]^{d}}{[A]^{a}[B]^{b}}$$



Some physical constants and units

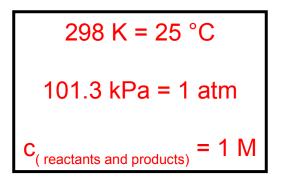
Boltzmann constant, $\mathbf{k} = 1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$ Avogadro's number, $N = 6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ Faraday constant, $\mathcal{F} = 96,480 \text{ J/V} \cdot \text{mol}$ Gas constant, $R = 8.315 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$ $(= 1.987 \text{ cal/mol} \cdot \text{K})$

Units of ΔG and ΔH are J/mol (or cal/mol) Units of ΔS are J/mol \cdot K (or cal/mol \cdot K) 1 cal = 4.184 J

Units of absolute temperature, *T*, are Kelvin, K $25 \ ^{\circ}C = 298 \ K$ At 25 $^{\circ}C$, *RT* = 2.479 kJ/mol (= 0.592 kcal/mol)



Changes of free-energy under standard conditions: ΔG^{o}



ie. ΔG^{0} is the free energy change between the standard state and the equilibrium state

 ΔG° is directly related to the equilibrium constant K_{eq}



For biological systems, we typically use transformed standard constants:

 $\Delta G'^{o}$ and K'_{eq}

Since biological systems typically maintain a steady state, the concentrations of H_2O , H^+ , and/or Mg^{2+} can be assumed to be invariant

and are incorporated into the constants $\Delta G'^{0}$, K'_{eq} .

$$\Delta G'^{o}$$
 = - R T In K'_{eq}



Starting with all

Free Energy of a Reaction

 $\Delta G'^{o} = -R T \ln K'_{eq}$

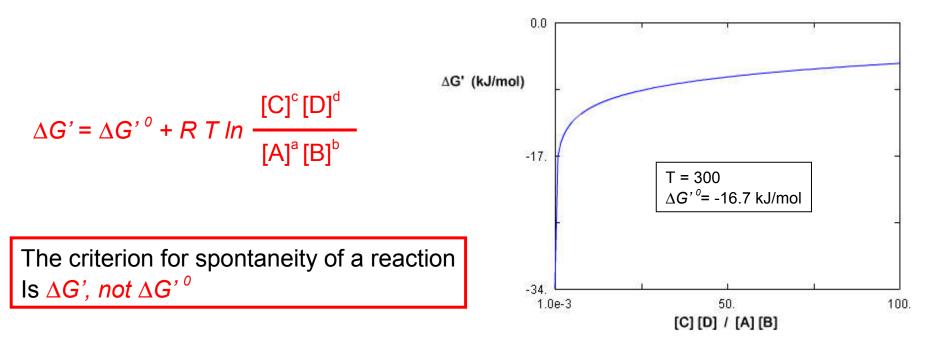
	Δ	G′°	When K'_{eq} is	$\Delta G'^{\circ}$ is	components at 1 м, the reaction	
K' _{eq}	(kJ/mol)	(kcal/mol)*	>1.0	negative	proceeds forward	
10 ³	-17.1	-4.1	1.0	zero	is at equilibrium	
10 ²	-11.4	-2.7	<1.0	positive	proceeds in reverse	
10 ¹	-5.7	-1.4			8	
1	0.0	0.0				
10^{-1}	5.7	1.4				
10^{-2}	11.4	2.7				
10^{-3}	17.1	4.1				
10^{-4}	22.8	5.5	For every 10 fold change in K _{ea} ,			
10^{-5}	28.5	6.8	ΔG changes by 5.7 kJ/mol			
10^{-6}	34.2	8.2	ΔG(changes by	5.7 KJ/IIIOI	

Actual Free-Energy Changes

The actual free-energy changes depend on reactant and product concentrations.

Each chemical reaction has a characteristic <u>standard</u> free-energy change $(\Delta G')^{0}$. It is a constant!

 $\Delta G'$ is a function of (reactant/product) concentration and the temperature.



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Sequential Reactions – Energy Coupling

Sequential reactions sharing a common intermediate have their own standard free-energy change. The standard free-energy values of a sequential reaction are additive.

$A \rightarrow B$	$\Delta G_{_1}$, o
$B \rightarrow C$	$\Delta G_2^{,0}$
$A \rightarrow C$	$\Delta G_1^{,0} + \Delta G_2^{,0}$

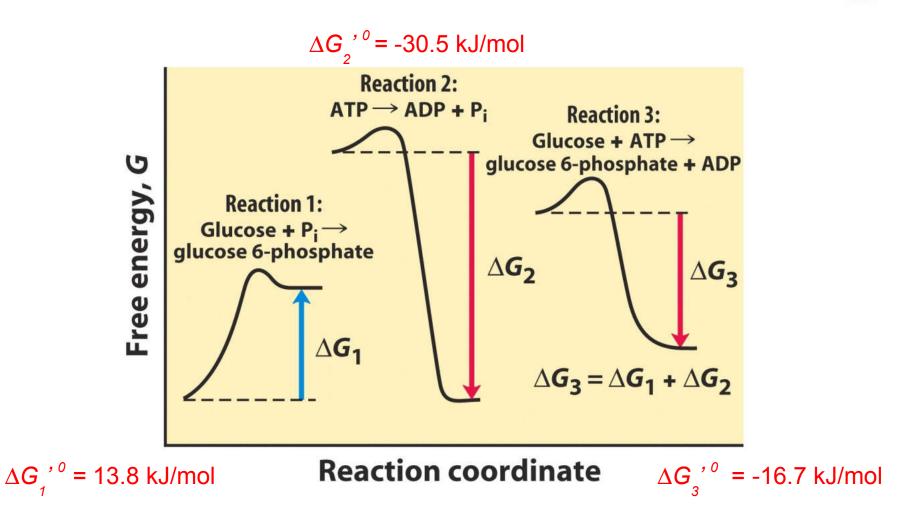
$$\Delta G_{total}^{0} = \Delta G_{1}^{0} + \Delta G_{2}^{0}$$

Energy coupling is valid means for understanding the energetics of :

1) elementary steps in an overall reaction and

2) for multiple steps in a metabolic pathway

Sequential Reactions Energy Coupling



Free-Energy Change ATP Hydrolysis



Standard free energy of ATP hydrolysis is -30.5 kJ/mol. But what about the actual free energy of ATP hydrolysis in the cell?

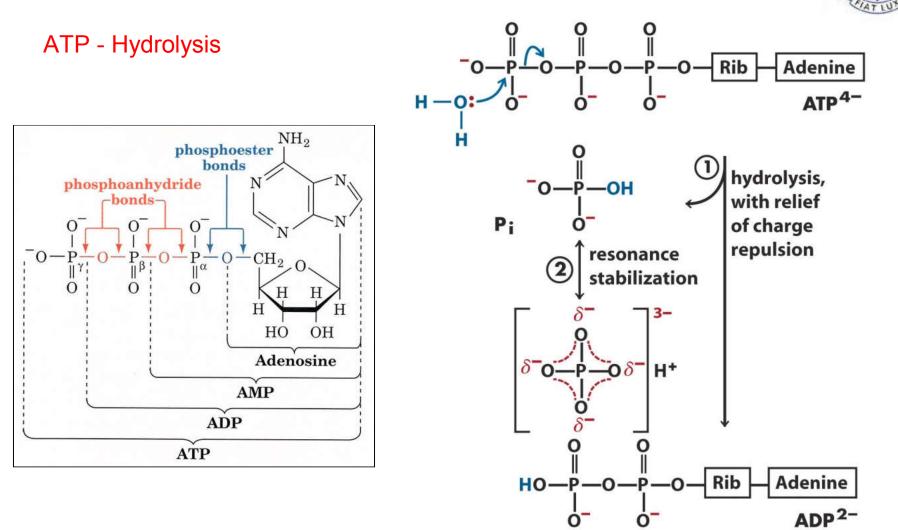
Example: Human erythrocytes

c(ATP) = 2.25 mM c(ADP) = 0.25 mM c(P) = 1.65 mM $\Delta G'_{\rho} = \Delta G'^{0} + R T \ln \frac{[ADP][P]}{[ATP]}$

> $\Delta G_{p} = -30.5 \text{kJ/mol} + 8.315 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K} \cdot 298 \text{ K} \cdot \text{ln } 1.8 \text{ x } 10^{-4}$ = -30.5 kJ/mol - 21 kJ/mol = -51.5 kJ/mol

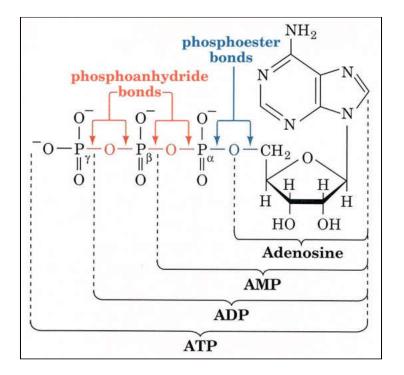
> > ΔG_{n} is called the phosphorylation potential

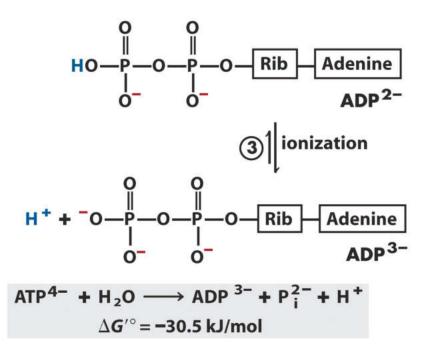
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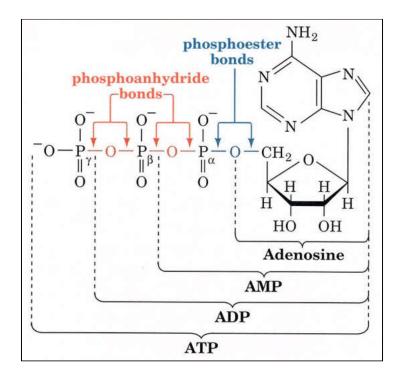
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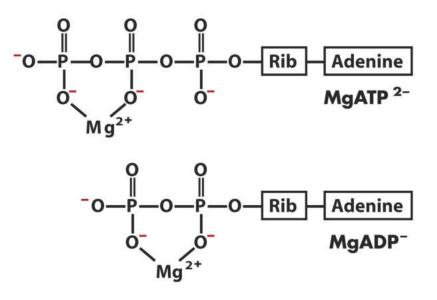
ATP - Hydrolysis





ATP - Hydrolysis





Formation of Mg²⁺ complexes partially shields the negative charges and influences the conformation of the phosphate groups. ie. electrostatic shielding

"High energy" bonds

"High energy" bonds can be represented by the "~" symbol.

~P represents a phosphate group with a large negative ΔG of hydrolysis.

Compounds with "high energy bonds" are said to have high group transfer potential.

Potentially, 2 ~P bonds can be cleaved, as 2 phosphates are released by hydrolysis from ATP.

 $AMP \sim P \rightarrow AMP \sim P + P_i \qquad (ATP \rightarrow ADP + P_i)$ $AMP \sim P \rightarrow AMP + P_i \qquad (ADP \rightarrow AMP + P_i)$

Alternatively:

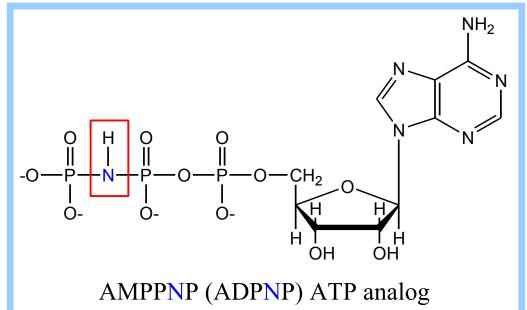
 $AMP \sim P \sim P \rightarrow AMP + P \sim P \qquad (ATP \rightarrow AMP + PP_i)$ $P \sim P \rightarrow 2P_i \qquad (PP_i \rightarrow 2P_i)$



Nucleotide Analogs



Artificial ATP analogs have been designed that are resistant to cleavage of the terminal phosphate by hydrolysis.



Example: AMPPNP.

These analogs have been used to study the dependence of coupled reactions on ATP hydrolysis.

Note: they have made it possible to crystallize an enzyme that catalyzes ATP hydrolysis with an ATP analog at the active site.

Inorganic polyphosphate



Many organisms store energy as inorganic polyphosphate, a chain of many phosphate residues linked by phosphoanhydride bonds:

P~P~P~P...

- Hydrolysis of P_i residues may be coupled to energy-dependent reactions.

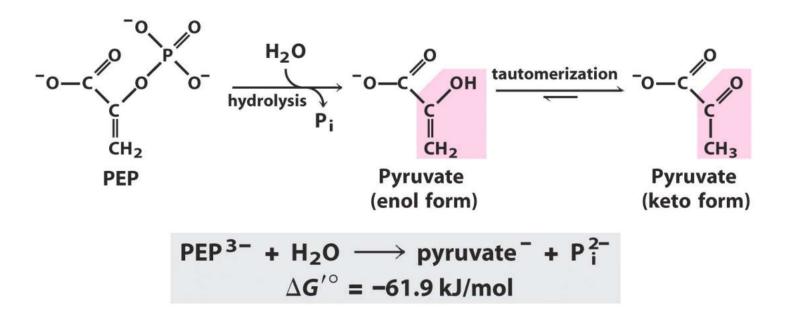
Depending on the organism or cell type, inorganic polyphosphate may have additional functions.

- Example: reservoir for P_i, a chelator of metal ions, a buffer or a regulator.

In prokaryotes, polyphosphate kinase-1 (PPK1) catalyzes the addition of phosphate to polyphosphate:

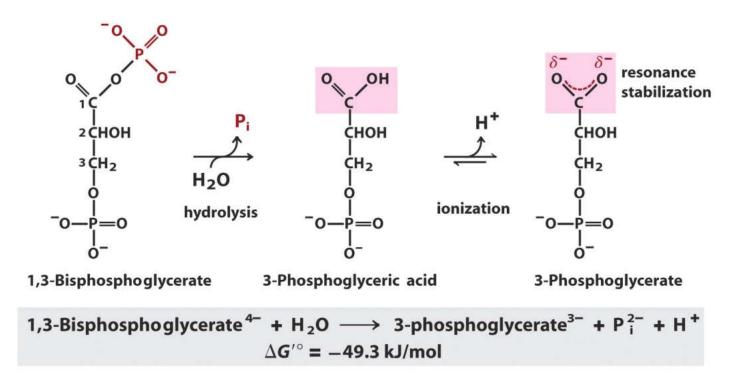
ATP + polyP_n
$$\longrightarrow$$
 ADP + polyP_{n+1} $\Delta G'^{0} = -20 \text{ kJ/mol}$

Phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) - Hydrolysis



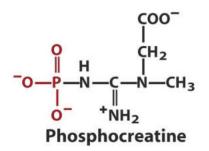


1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate - Hydrolysis





Phosphocreatine - Hydrolysis



Phosphocreatine ^{2–} + H₂O \longrightarrow creatine + P_i^{2–} $\Delta G'^{\circ} = -43.0 \text{ kJ/mol}$

Thioesters: Acetyl-CoA hydrolysis

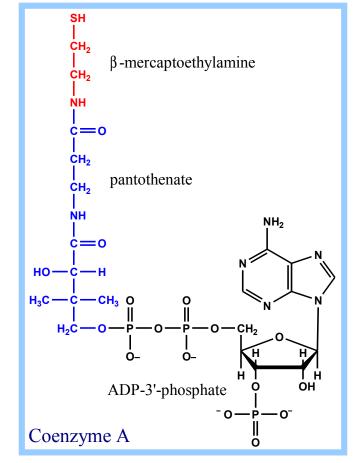
Coenzyme A includes

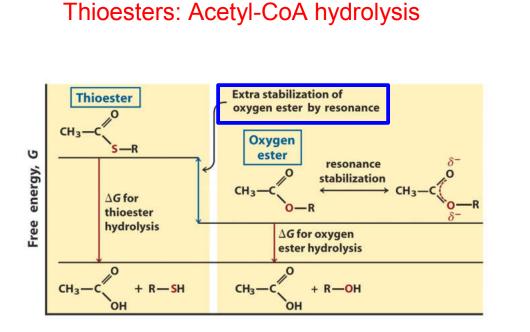
β-mercaptoethylamine linked to the B vitamin pantothenate, which is linked to ppAp

The functional group is the thiol (SH) of β -mercaptoethylamine.

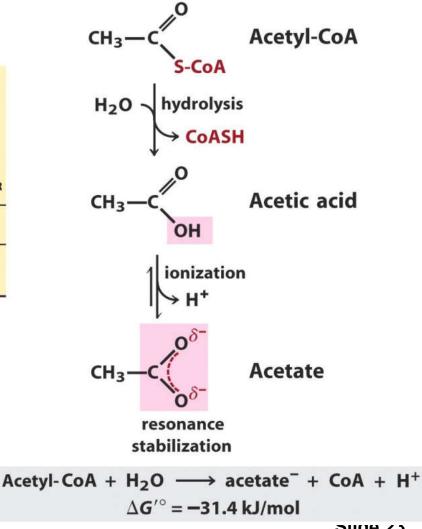
Why does binding to CoA result in "activation" of the respective component?







(Oxygen) esters are stabilized by resonance structures not available to thioesters



Silue ∠s





Energy Ranking

			-70	
	$\Delta {\sf G'^{\circ}}$			coo-
	(kJ/mol)	(kcal/mol)	-60-	C-O-P Phosphoenolpyruvate
Phosphoenolpyruvate	-61.9	-14.8	6	
1,3-bisphosphoglycerate			of hydrolysis (kJ/mol)	CHOH (P)-Creatine
$(\rightarrow$ 3-phosphoglycerate + P _i)	-49.3	-11.8	2	CH ₂ -O-P Phosphocreatine
Phosphocreatine	-43.0	-10.3	·S _40 _ 1,3-B	Bisphosphoglycerate
ADP (\rightarrow AMP + P _i)	-32.8	-7.8	oly .	$\langle \downarrow \rangle$
ATP (\rightarrow ADP + P _i)	-30.5	-7.3	ă [Adenine Rib P P P
ATP (\rightarrow AMP + PP _i)	-45.6	-10.9	<u></u>	ATP High-energy compounds
AMP (\rightarrow adenosine + P _i)	-14.2	-3.4	of	
$PP_i (\rightarrow 2P_i)$	-19.2	-4.0	°,0 –20-	Low-energy compounds
Glucose 1-phosphate	-20.9	-5.0	ă	* *
Fructose 6-phosphate	-15.9	-3.8		Glucose 6-P Glycerol-(P)
Glucose 6-phosphate	-13.8	-3.3	-10-	
Glycerol 1-phosphate	-9.2	-2.2		
Acetyl-CoA	-31.4	-7.5	o –	Pi

ATP has special roles in energy coupling & P_i transfer.

 Δ G of phosphate hydrolysis from ATP is intermediate among examples below. ATP can thus act as a P_i donor, & ATP can be synthesized by P_i transfer, e.g., from PEP.

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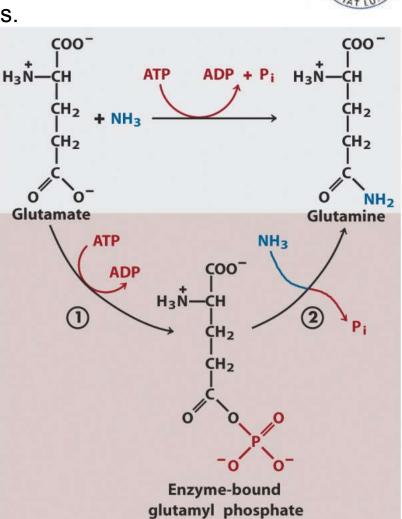
Group Transfer

ATP provides energy not by simple hydrolysis. It is provided by group transfers.

A reaction usually written as a one-step reaction may actually involve two steps.

A phosphoryl group is transferred from ATP to a substrate (here glutamate), then the phosphoryl group is displaced by a reactant (here NH₃) resulting in the release of P_i.

Why is that important?







Role of "high energy" bonds:

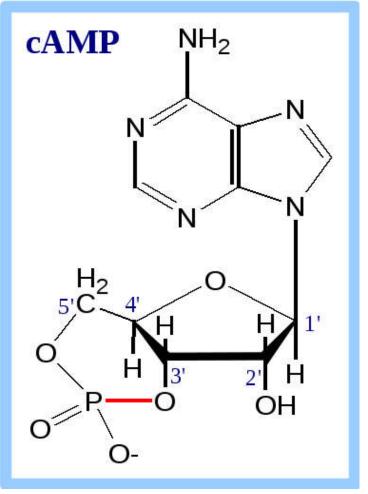
- Energy transfer or storage ATP, PP, polyphosphate, phosphocreatine
- Group transfer ATP, Coenzyme A
- Transient signal cyclic AMP

Transient signals (eg. cA

cAMP (3', 5'-cylic AMP) is sterically constrained by having a phosphate with ester linkages to 2 hydroxyls of the same ribose.

Hydrolysis of one of these linkages (in red), converting cAMP to 5'-AMP is highly spontaneous.

The lability of cAMP to hydrolysis makes it an excellent transient signal.



University of

Why doesn't ATP undergo spontaneous hydrolysis?



Thermodynamics

"High-energy" bond hydrolysis is energetically favorable / spontaneous reaction.

Kinetics

While energetics are favorable, the large activation energy barrier associated with the hydrolysis of many "high energy" bonds is <u>very slow</u> in the absence of an enzyme catalyst (referred to as kinetic stability)

Kinetic stability is essential feature of "energy storage" molecules

- Rapid ATP hydrolysis in the absence of a catalyst would render ATP useless as an energy storage molecule as it would fall apart before use
- Allows for ATP hydrolysis only when reaction is coupled to a useful cellular reaction



Yet another class of reactions!

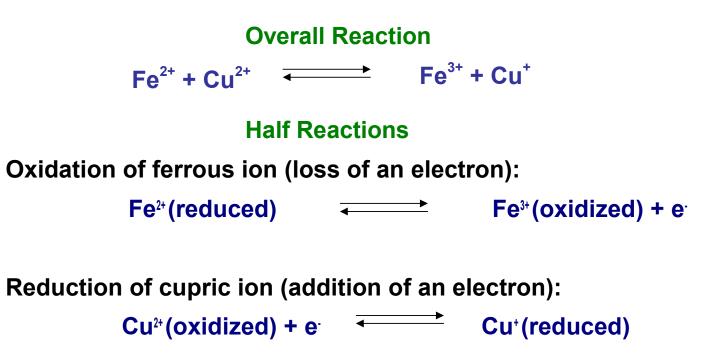
Redox reactions!

Oxidation & Reduction



Principles of electrochemistry:

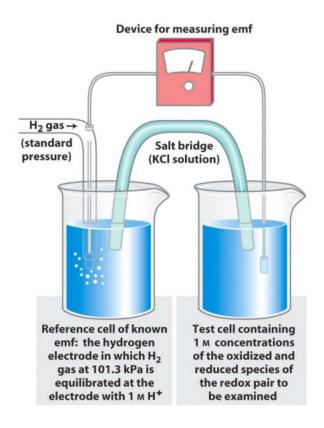
When describing electron transfers, the oxidation and reduction halves of the reaction can be considered separately.



Reduction potential measures affinity for electrons



The standard reduction potential, E^0 for any given redox pair is referenced on the half-reaction:



 $H^+ + e^- \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} H_2$

The reduction potential of a half-cell depends on concentrations / activities of the chemical species present

$$E = E^{\circ} - \frac{R T}{n F} \ln \frac{[el. acceptor]}{[el. donor]}$$

For T = 298 K

$$E = E^{\circ} - \frac{0.026 \text{ V}}{n} \ln \frac{[\text{el. acceptor}]}{[\text{el. donor}]}$$

Standard Reaction Potentials and Free-Energy Change



The flow of electrons make energy available:

The free-energy change of a redox reaction.

 $\Delta G = -nF\Delta E$ or $\Delta G'^{0} = -nF\Delta E'^{0}$

Example: Acetaldehyde + NADH + $H^+ \rightarrow$ Ethanol + NAD⁺ $\Delta E'^0 = 0.123 \text{ V}$

 $\Delta G'^{0} = -n F \Delta E'^{0} = -2 (96.5 \text{ kJ/V} \cdot \text{mol})(0.123 \text{ v}) = -23.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$



Standard Reduction Potentials

Half-reaction	E'° (V)
$\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2O$	0.816
$Fe^{3^+} + e^- \longrightarrow Fe^{2^+}$	0.771
$NO_3^- + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow NO_2^- + H_2O$	0.421
Cytochrome f (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ cytochrome f (Fe ²⁺)	0.365
$Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$ (ferricyanide) + $e^- \longrightarrow Fe(CN)_6^{4-}$	0.36
Cytochrome a_3 (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ cytochrome a_3 (Fe ²⁺)	0.35
$0_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2 0_2$	0.295
Cytochrome a (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ cytochrome a (Fe ²⁺)	0.29
Cytochrome c (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ cytochrome c (Fe ²⁺)	0.254
Cytochrome c_1 (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ cytochrome c_1 (Fe ²⁺)	0.22
Cytochrome b (Fe ³⁺) + e ⁻ \longrightarrow cytochrome b (Fe ²⁺)	0.077
Ubiquinone + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow$ ubiquinol + H_2	0.045
$Fumarate^{2-} + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \longrightarrow succinate^{2-}$	0.031
$2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2$ (at standard conditions, pH 0)	0.000
Crotonyl-CoA + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow$ butyryl-CoA	-0.015
$Oxaloacetate^{2-} + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow malate^{2-}$	-0.166
$Pyruvate^{-} + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \longrightarrow lactate^{-}$	-0.185
Acetaldehyde + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow$ ethanol	-0.197
$FAD + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow FADH_2$	-0.219*
Glutathione + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow 2$ reduced glutathione	-0.23
$S + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2S$	-0.243
Lipoic acid + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow$ dihydrolipoic acid	-0.29
$NAD^{+} + H^{+} + 2e^{-} \longrightarrow NADH$	-0.320
$NADP^+ + H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow NADPH$	-0.324
Acetoacetate + $2H^+$ + $2e^- \longrightarrow \beta$ -hydroxybutyrate	-0.346
α -Ketoglutarate + CO ₂ + 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻ \longrightarrow isocitrate	-0.38
$2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2$ (at pH 7)	-0.414
Ferredoxin (Fe ³⁺) + $e^- \longrightarrow$ ferredoxin (Fe ²⁺)	-0.432

pH = 7.0T=25 °C

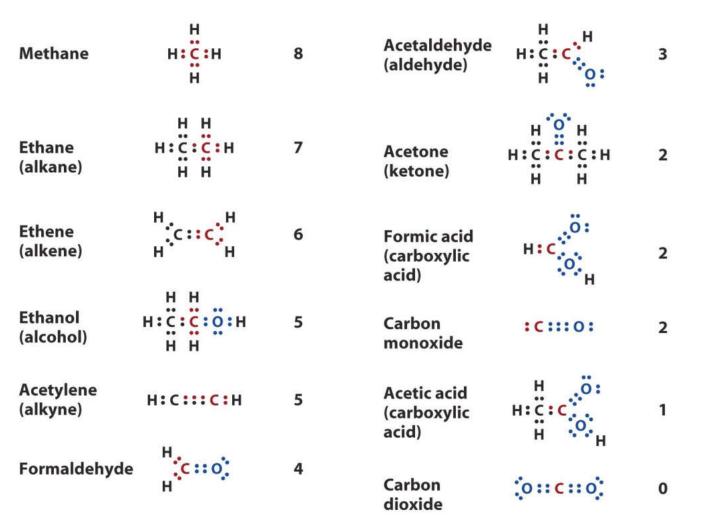
The electrochemical potential for oxidation half reactions (reverse of written reactions) has the same magnitude and opposite sign

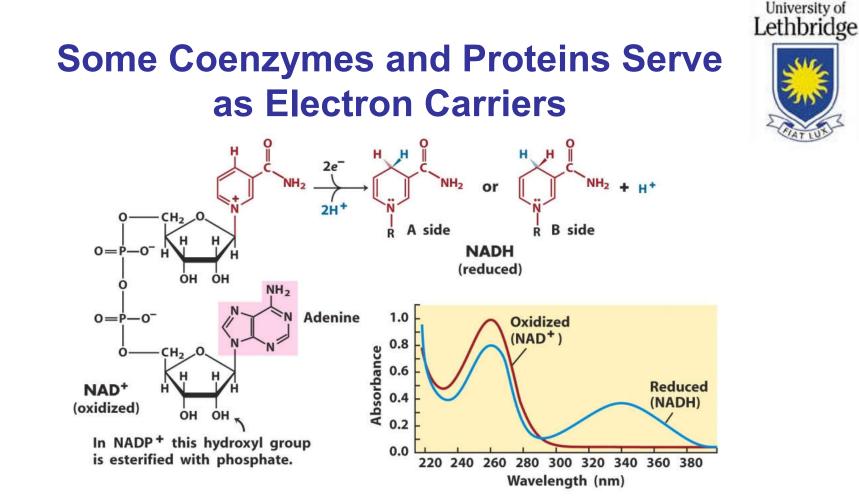
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Oxidation States of Carbon



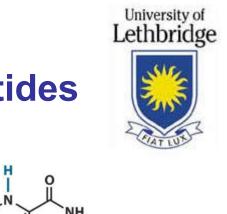


NAD+, Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide, is an electron acceptor in catabolic pathways.

NADP+/NADPH is similar except for Pi. NADPH is e- donor in synthetic pathways.

The nicotinamide ring is derived from the vitamin niacin.

Optical test?



Flavoproteins and Flavin Nucleotides

