



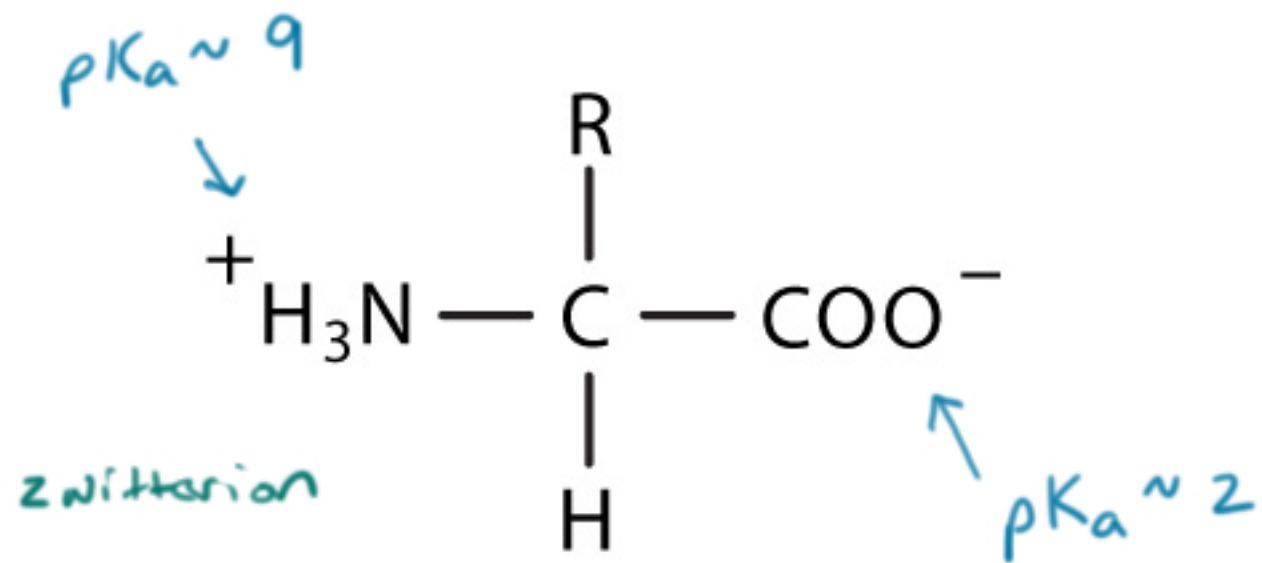
Biochem Notes

premedvillage.com

Strong style books



amino acids



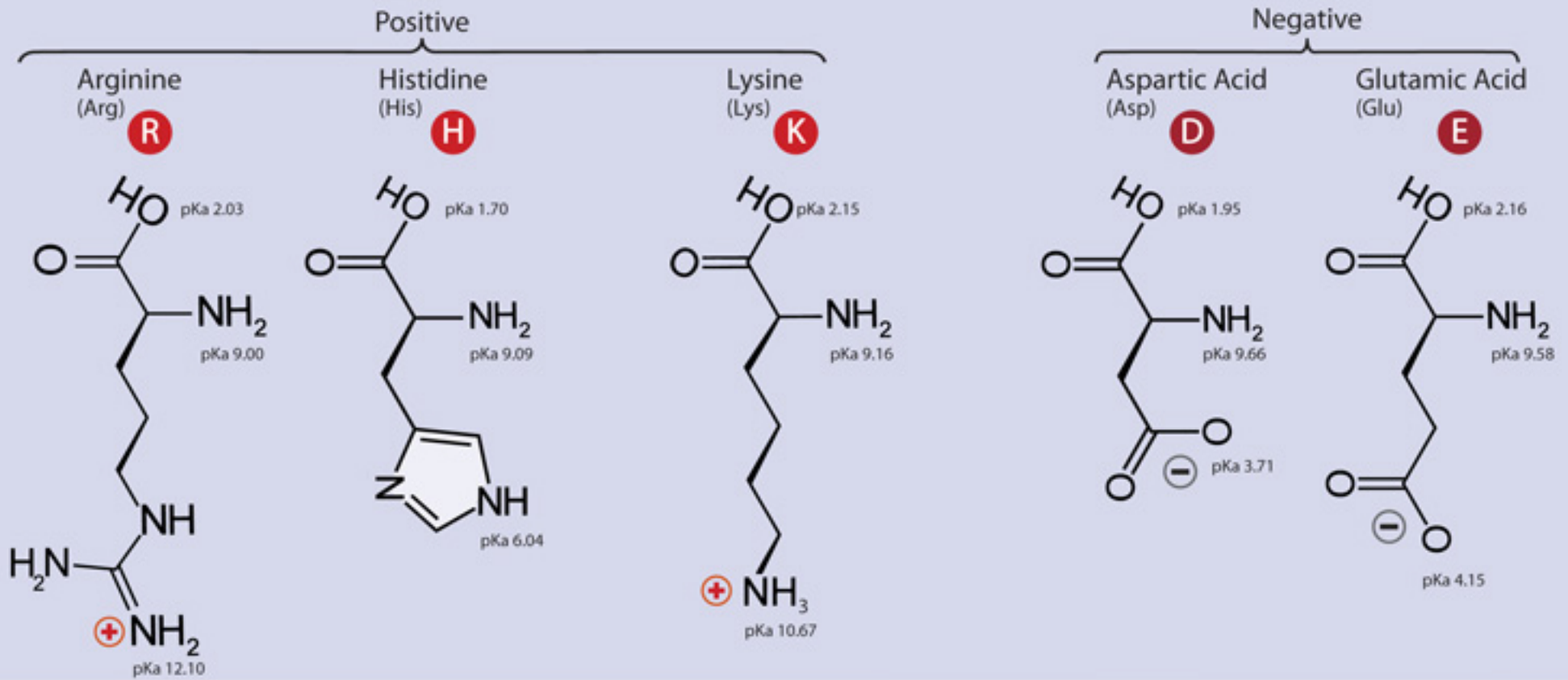
L amino acid

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log\left(\frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]}\right)$$
$$7 \quad 2 + \log\left(\frac{100,000}{1}\right)$$

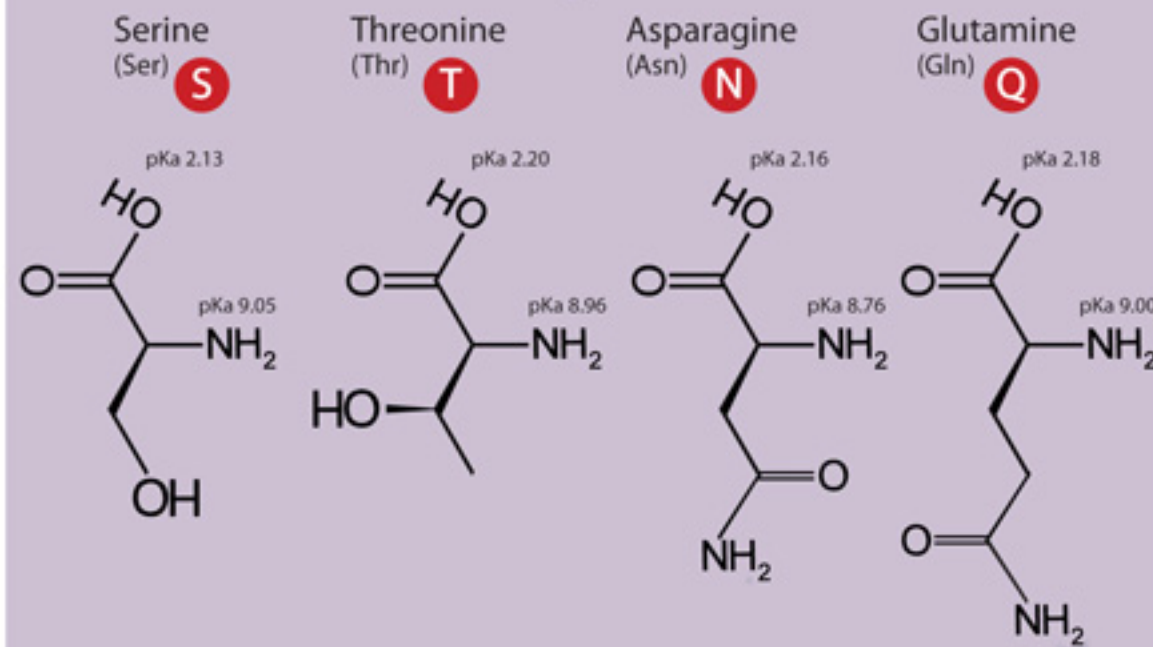
Twenty-One Amino Acids

⊕ Positive ⊖ Negative
• Side chain charge at physiological pH 7.4

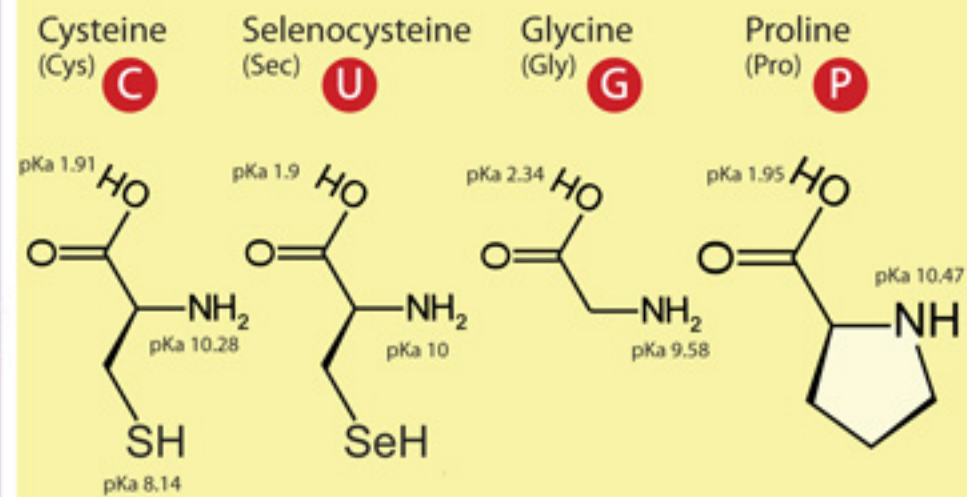
A. Amino Acids with Electrically Charged Side Chains



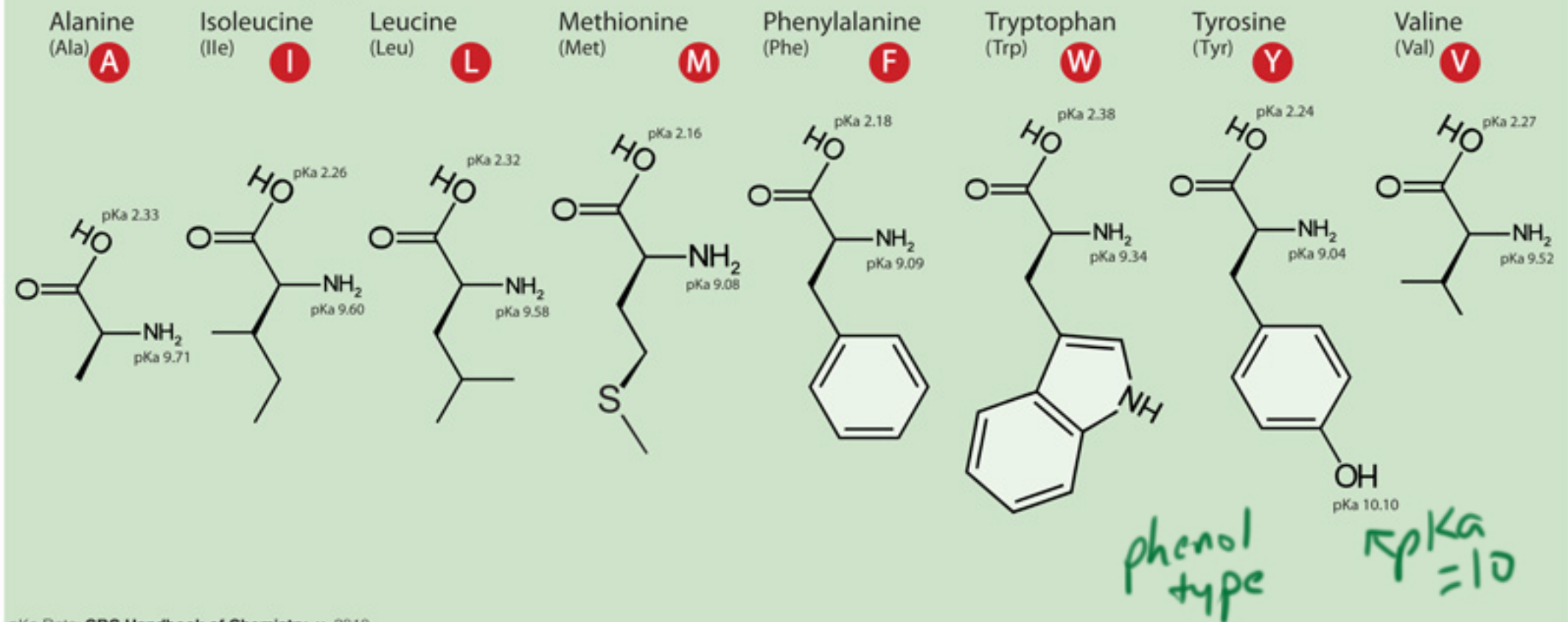
B. Amino Acids with Polar Uncharged Side Chains



C. Special Cases



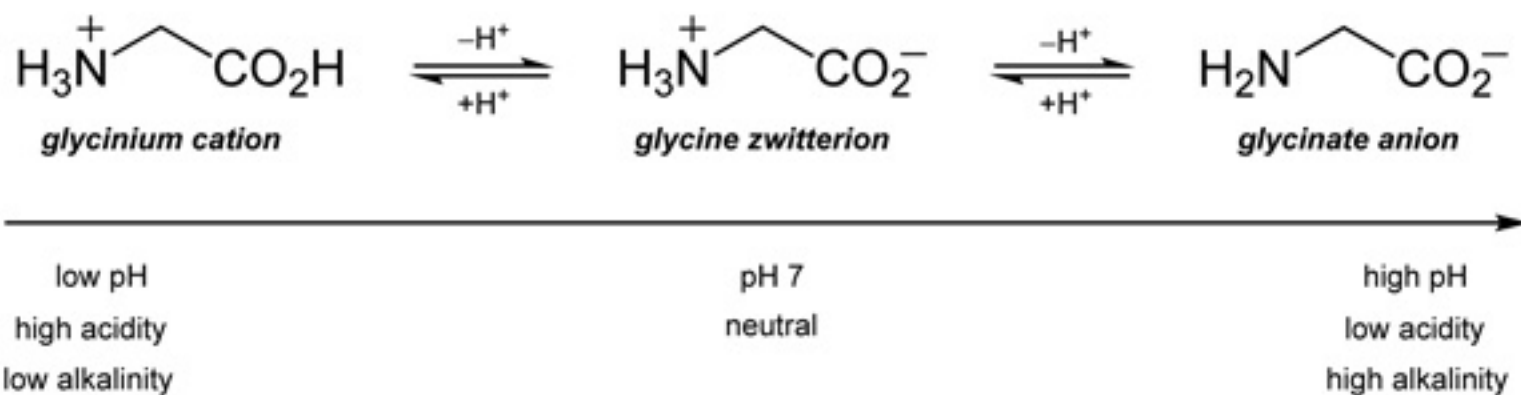
D. Amino Acids with Hydrophobic Side Chain



$\text{pH} < 2.3$

$2.3 < \text{pH} < 9.6$

$\text{pH} > 9.6$

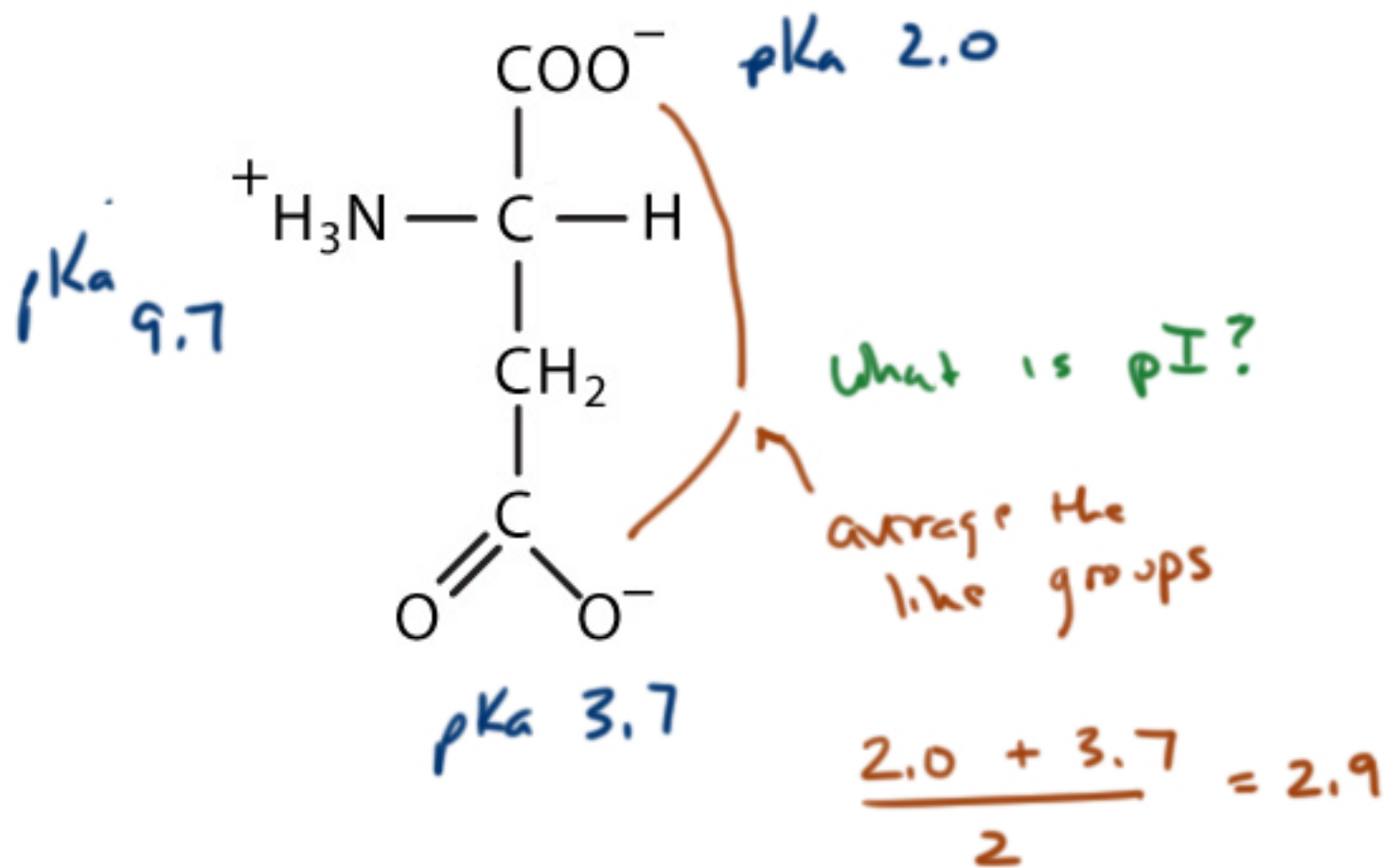


Isoelectric Point

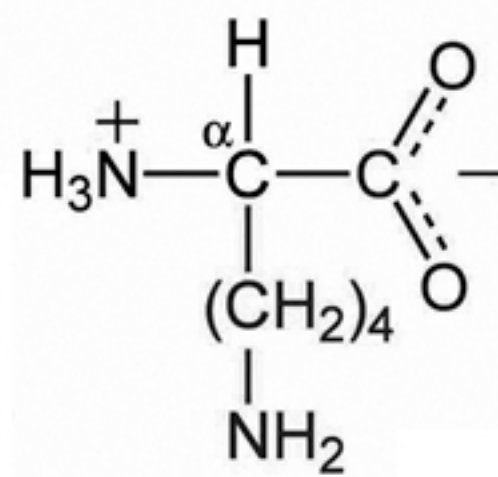
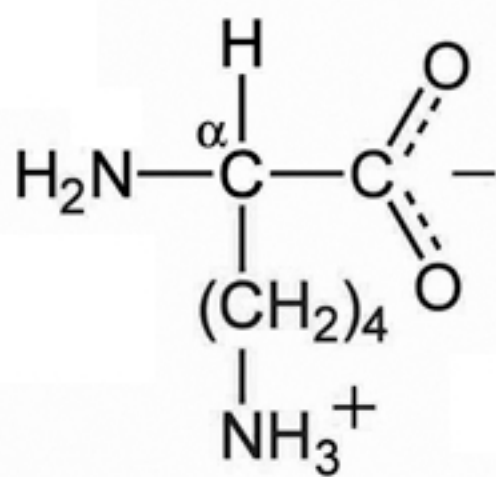
$$\frac{2.3 + 9.6}{2} = 6.2$$

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \left(\frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]} \right)$$

Aspartate



Amino Acid	pKa
Asp (D)	3.9
Glu (E)	4.3
Arg (R)	12.0
Lys (K)	10.5
His (H)	6.08
Cys (C)	8.28 (-SH)
Tyr (Y)	10.1



↑
hydrophobic

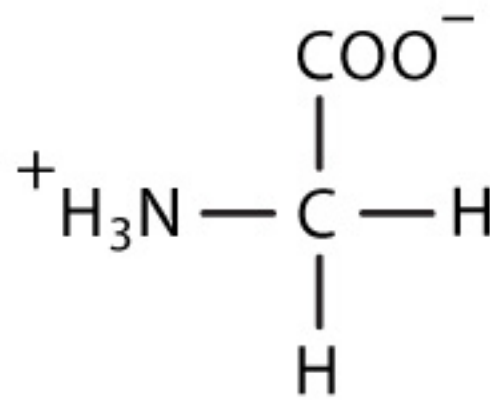
hydrophilic
↓

Kyte and Doolittle (1)	Rose, et al (2)	Wolfenden , et al (3)	Janin (1979) (4)
Ile Val Leu Phe Cys Met,Ala Gly Thr,Ser Trp,Tyr Pro His Asn,Gln Asp,Glu Lys Arg	Cys Phe,Ile Val Leu,Met,Trp His Tyr Ala Gly Thr Ser Pro,Arg Asn Gln,Asp,Glu Lys	Gly,Leu,Ile Val,ala Phe Cys Met Thr,Ser Trp,Tyr Asp,Lys,Gln Glu,His Asp Arg	Cys Ile Val Leu,Phe Met Ala,Gly,Trp His,Ser Thr Pro Tyr Asn Asp Gln,Glu Arg Lys

Glycine

G

- like a missing tooth
- oxianion hole in Serine protease
- 30% of collagen - interior of triple helix
- backbone H bonding

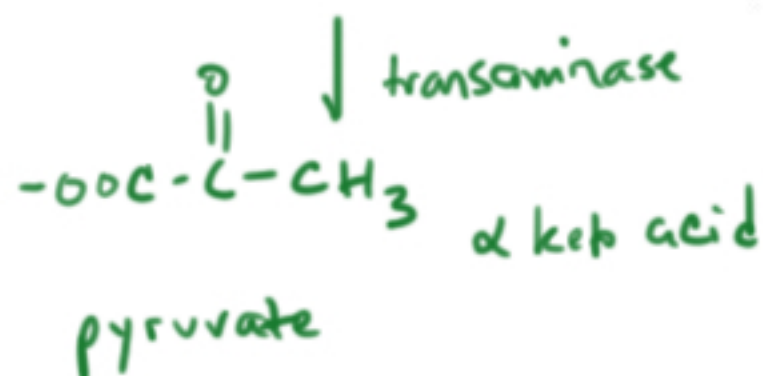
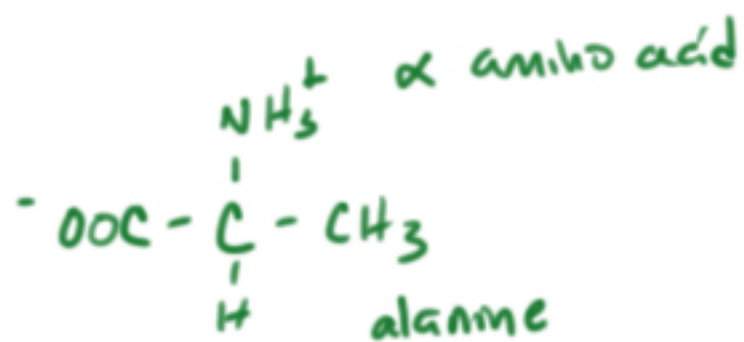


- achiral

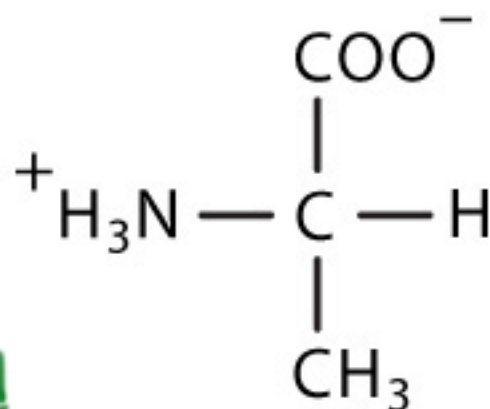
- important precursor such as with porphyrin
↑
organic component of heme

Alanine

A



Hence alanine is
glucogenic.



- prototype
basic amino
acid in proteins

- K293A

Lysine at 293 replaced
with alanine

↑
isn't a confound

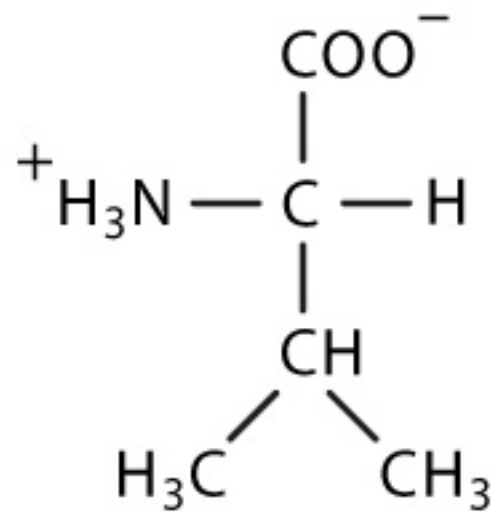
-  AAAAAAAAAAHHHHH

↑
alanine spacers

↑
for affinity
chromatography
with nickel
column

Valine

- hydrophobic



example
don't memorize! ✓
↓

- breaks down to succinyl CoA

↓
succinate

↓
fumarate

↓
malate

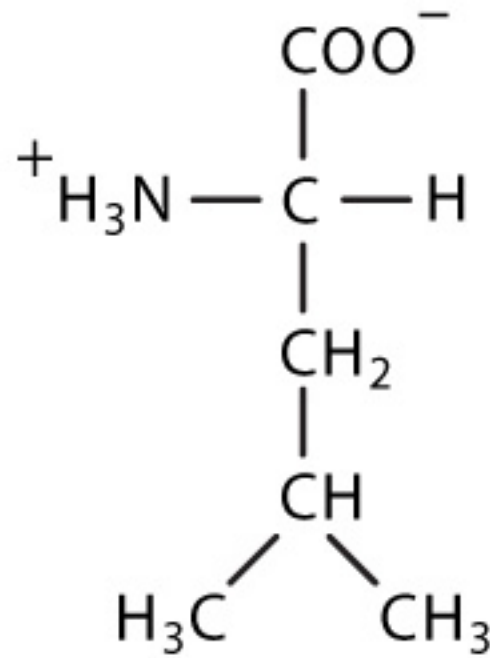
↓
oxaloacetate

It is glucogenic.

Leucine

L

- example of
an essential
amino acid
(can't synthesize)



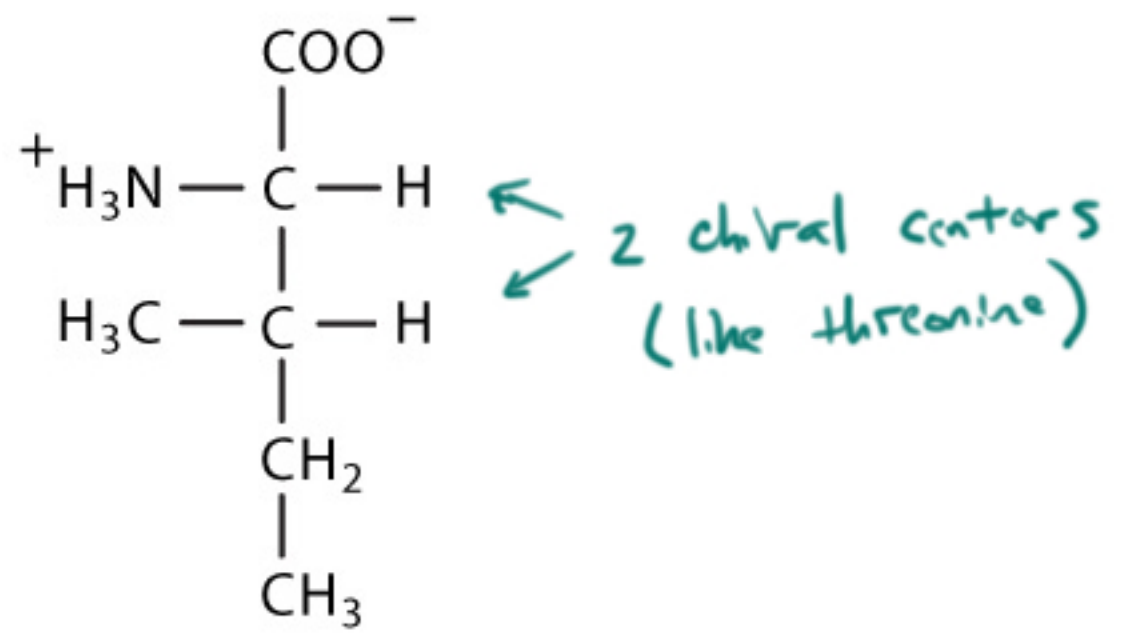
- breaks down to
acetyl CoA and
acetoacetate

There's no path
from acetyl CoA
to glucose.

Leucine is ketogenic.

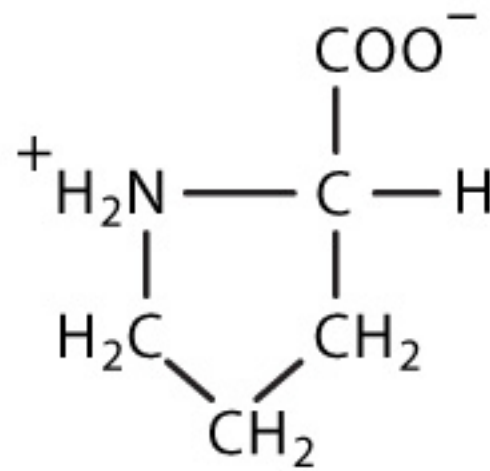
Isoleucine

I



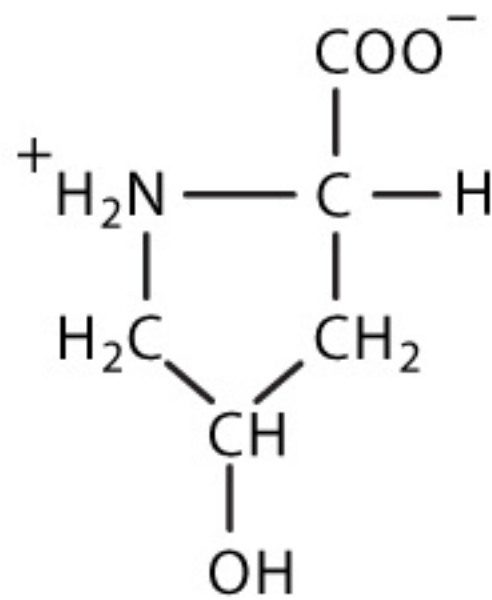
Proline

P



- Plays a big role in protein structure
- locks ϕ at 60° in polypeptide
 - reduces conformational entropy
- α helix disruptor and β turns
(essential prolines bound α helix)

Hydroxyproline



- hydroxyproline in collagen
- prolyl hydroxylase requires ascorbate (vitamin C)

P Serine

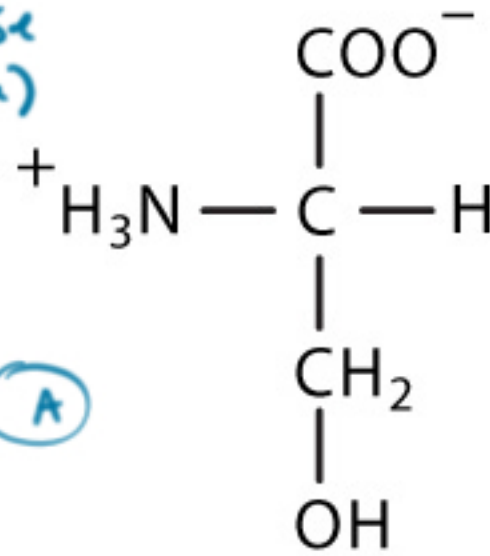
S

- Often the target of phosphorylation by kinase (also threonine & tyrosine)

Kinase

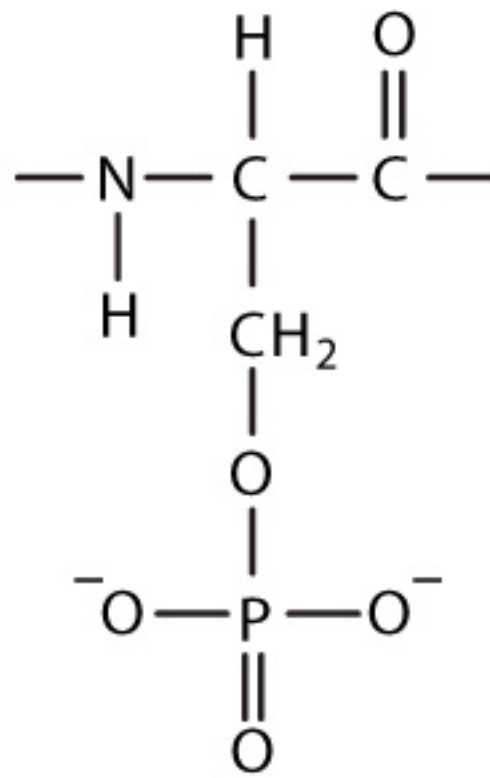


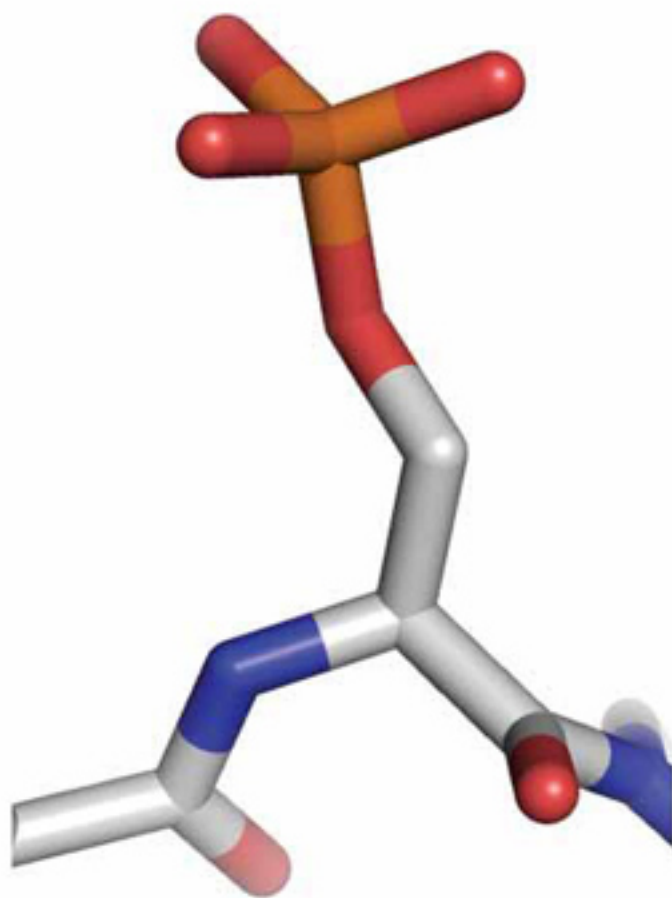
like SN2 across the phosphorus

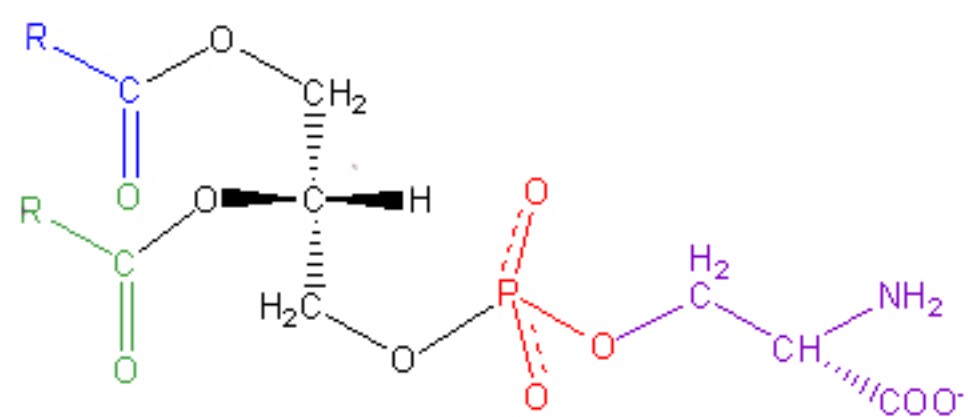


- also target of O-linked glycosylation
- precursor - part of phosphatidyl serine also sphingosine
- nucleophile in serine protease

Phosphorylated Serine

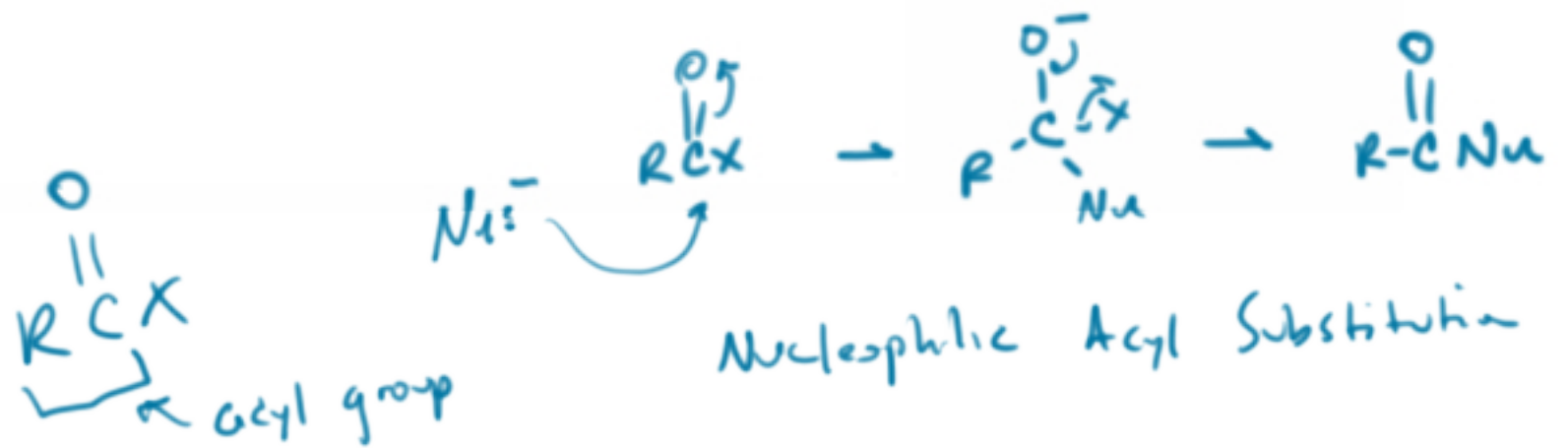
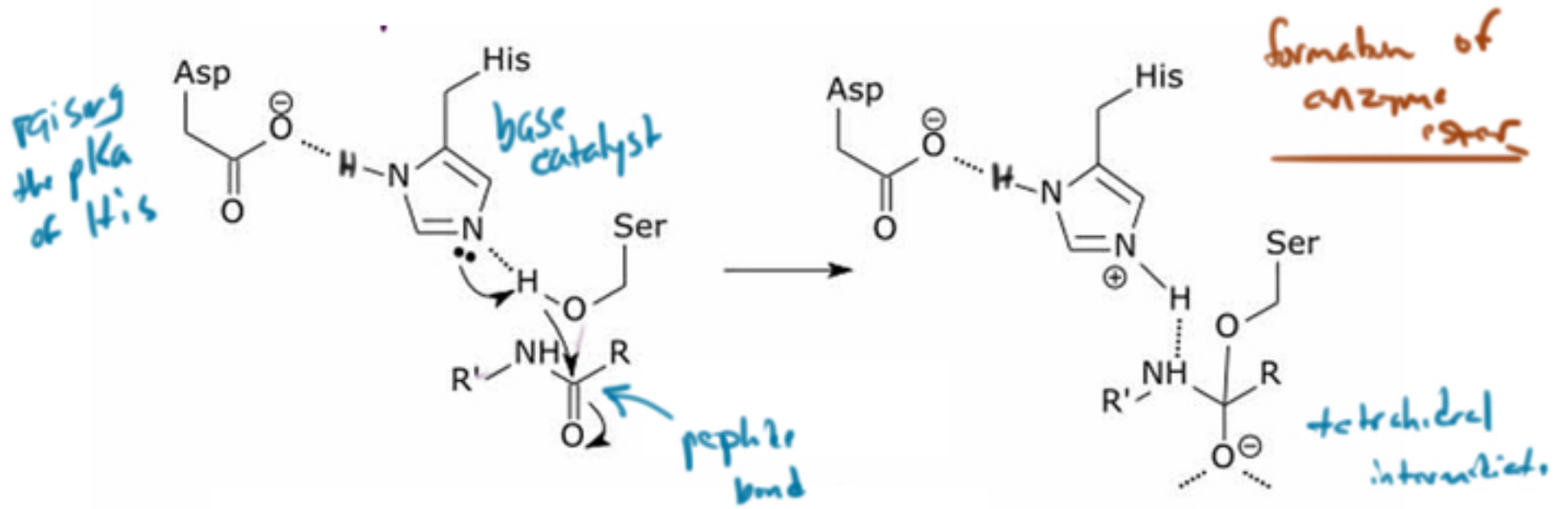






1 phosphatidate 1 serine 1

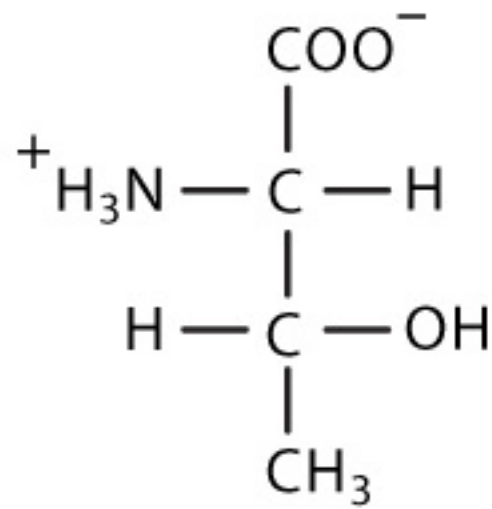
Serine protease such as chymotrypsin



Threonine

T

- Target of kinase
- Target of
O-linked glycosylation



Phenylalanine

F

- Phenylalanine degradation - a few notable enzymes

- phenylalanine hydroxylase



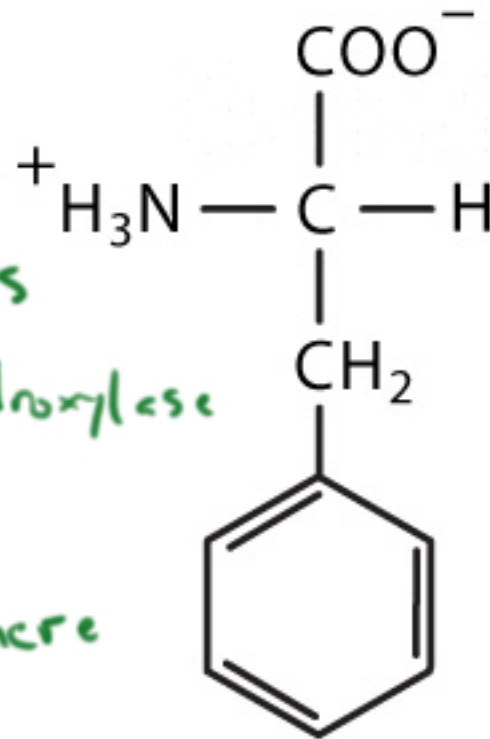
genetic lesion here

- homozygous - phenylketonuria

- homogentisate oxidase

- lesion leads to alcaptonuria

- Archibald Garrod - one gene one enzyme



- Hydrophobic

- Membrane anchor



Phenylalanine
Hydroxylase

Tyrosine

Y

- Target of kinase

- tyrosine kinase

- catalytic receptors

- growth factor receptors

- intrinsic receptor tyrosine kinase

- cytokine receptors

- nonreceptor tyrosine kinase

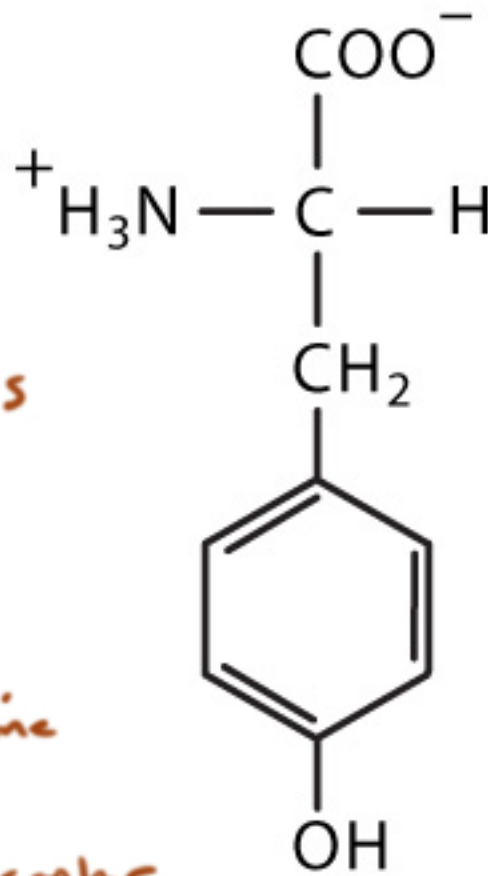
GFR

1) ligand binding leads to receptor dimerization



transautophosphorylation

- phosphorylated tyrosines serve as docking sites for signaling proteins activating them.

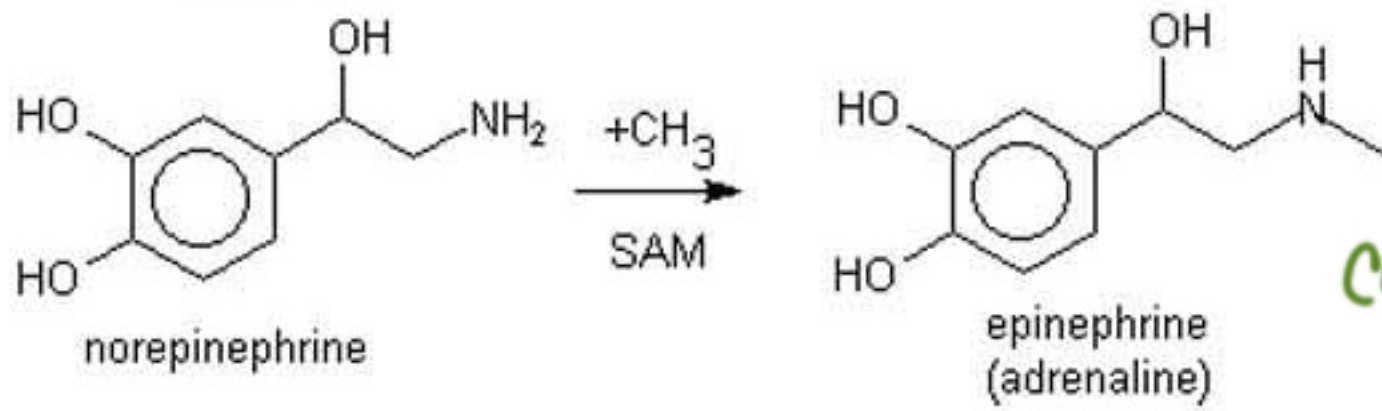
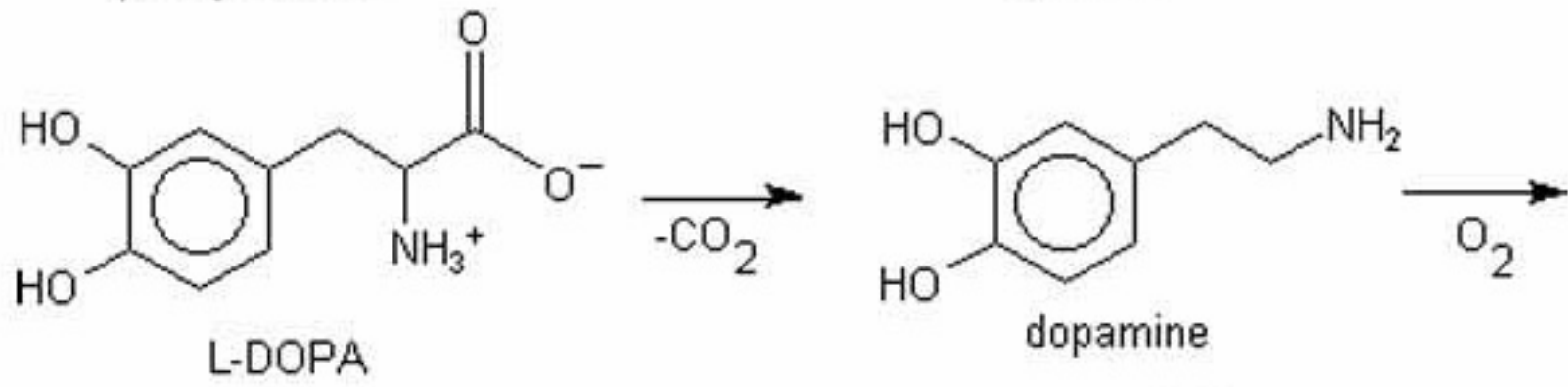
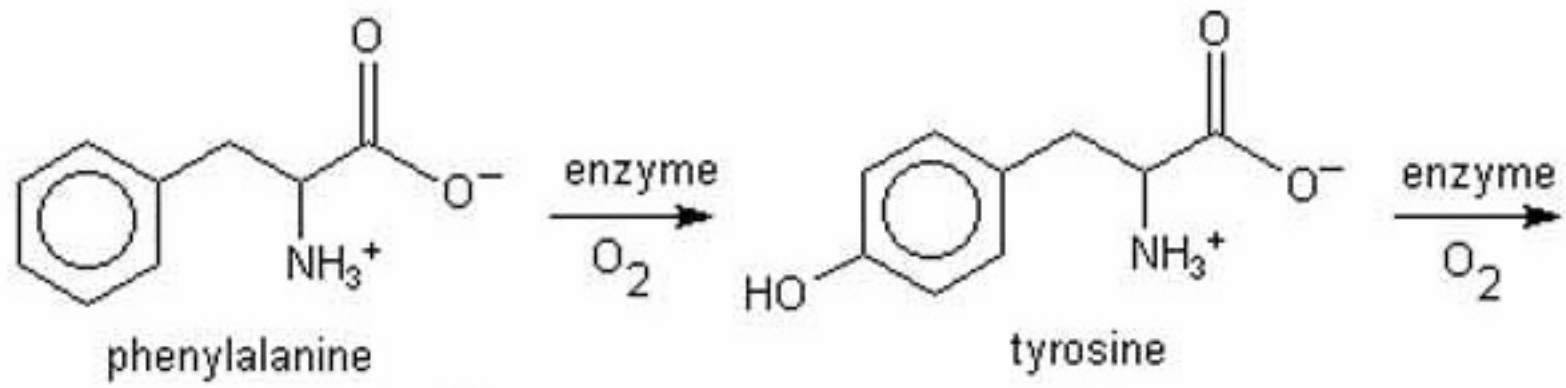


- Hydrophobic

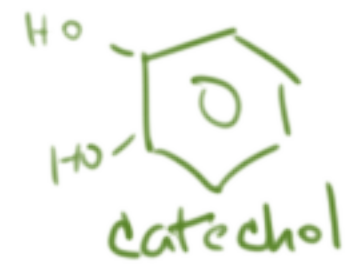
(a bit of a gray area)

- Precursor of catecholamines
epinephrine,
norepinephrine
dopamine

$pK_a \sim 10$



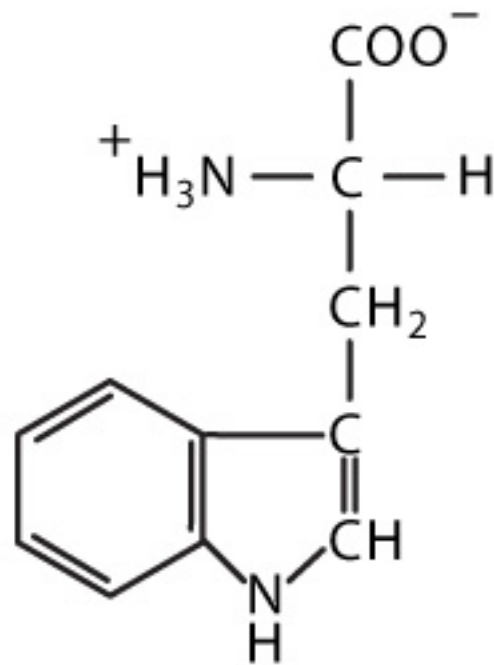
catecholamines



Tryptophan

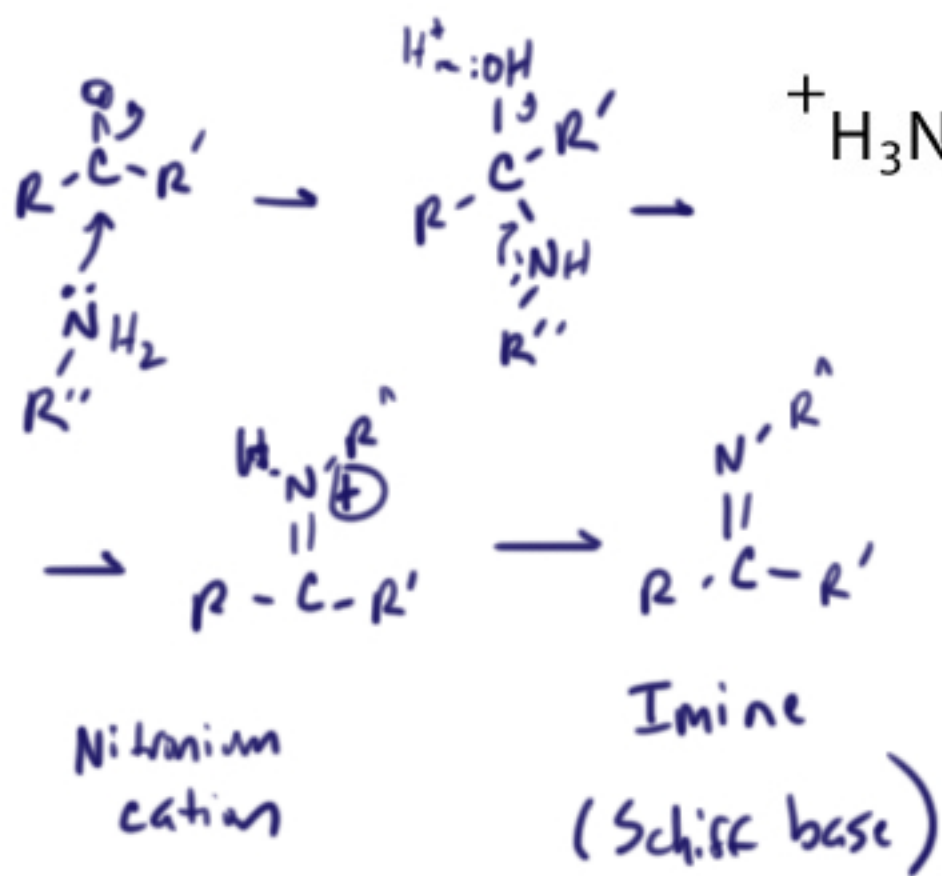
W

- Precursor of serotonin, melatonin

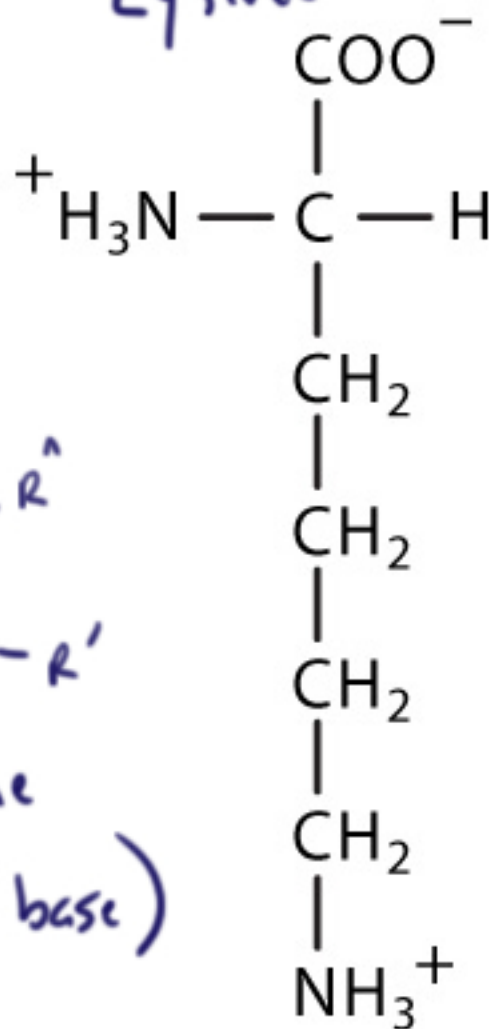


- Hydrophobic
- Membrane Anchor

Imine Formation



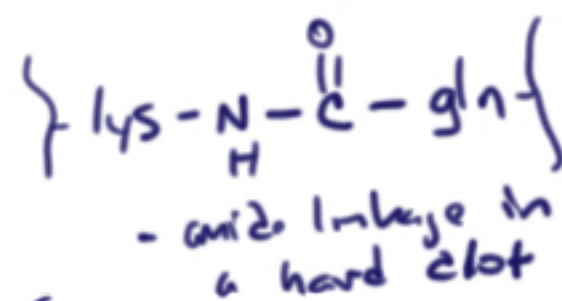
Lysine



• Reliable $\oplus$

• often seen forming Schiff base with substrate.

• can also form amide linkages

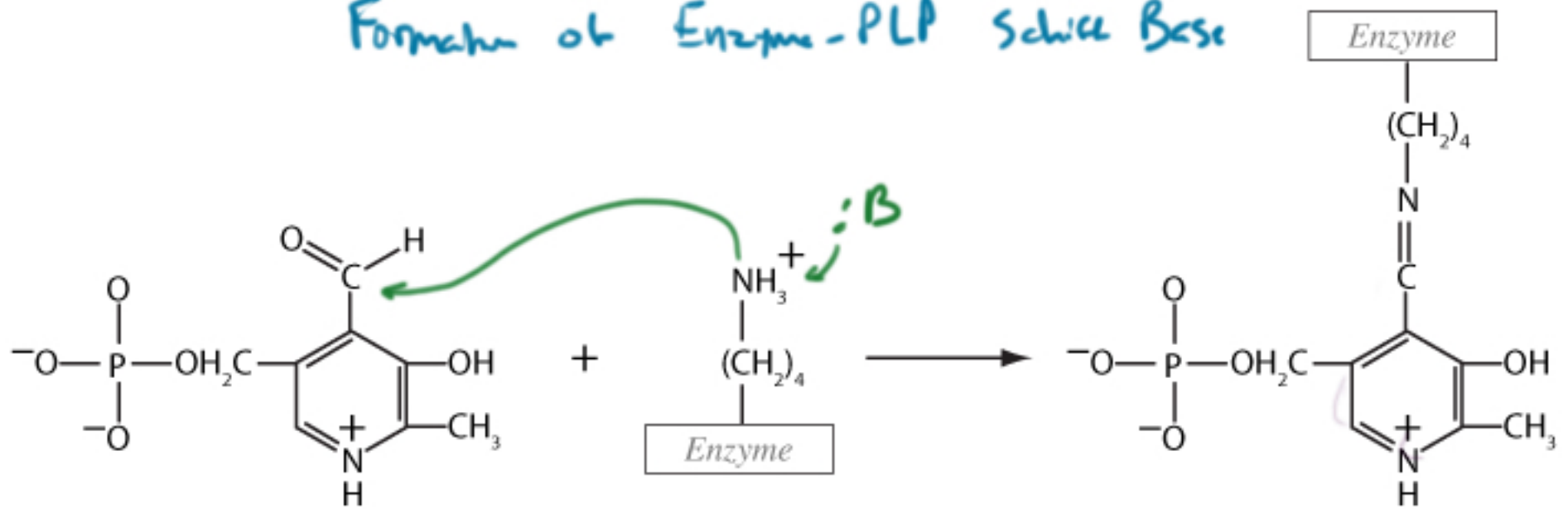


$\uparrow$ $pK_a \sim 10.5$

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \left(\frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]} \right)$$

$$7.4 = 10.5 + \log \left(\frac{1}{1000} \right)$$

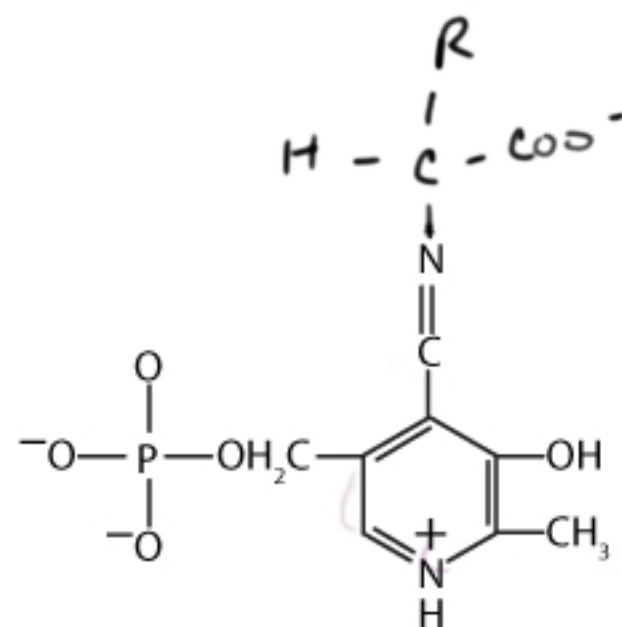
Formation of Enzyme-PLP Schiff Base



PLP (vitamin B6)

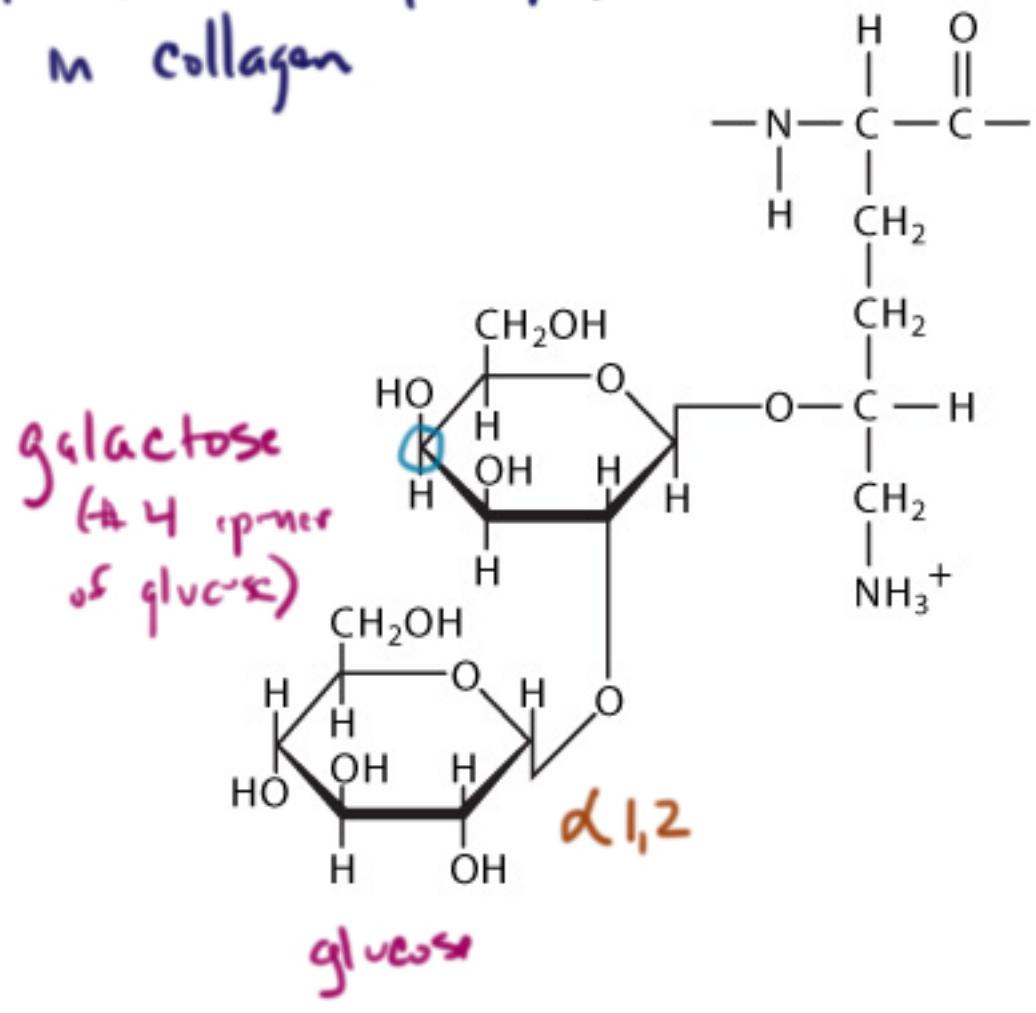
pyridoxyl phosphate

"the amino acid chemistry
coenzyme"



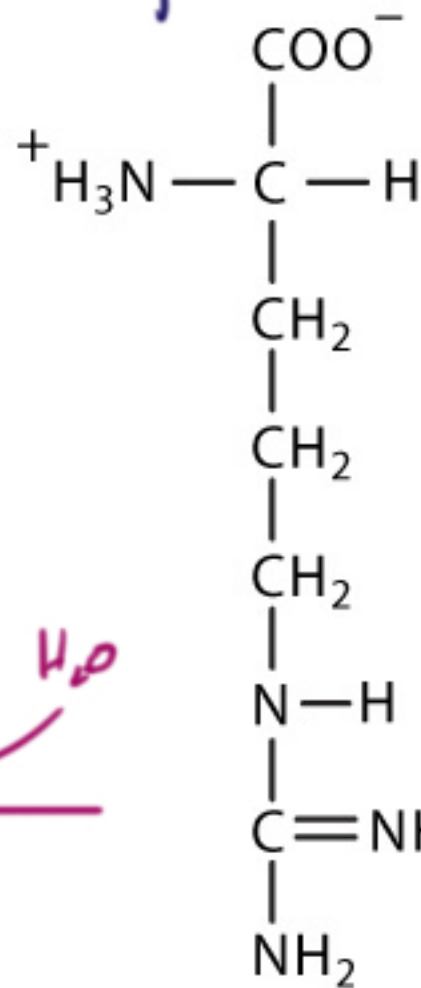
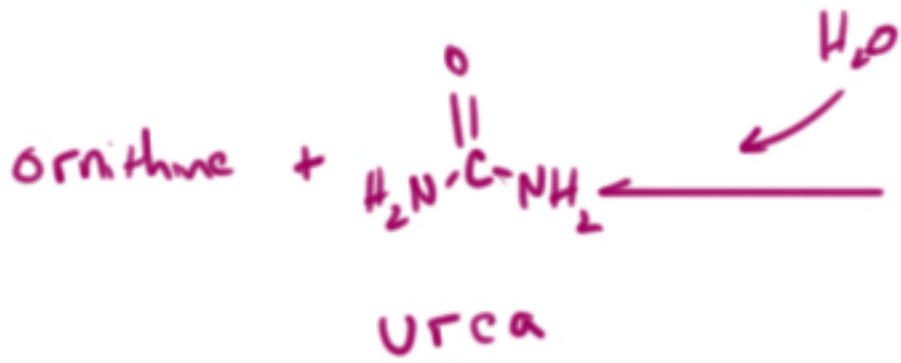
PLP-amino
acid
Schiff base

Glycosylated Hydroxylysine
in collagen

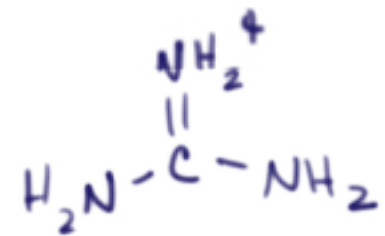


R

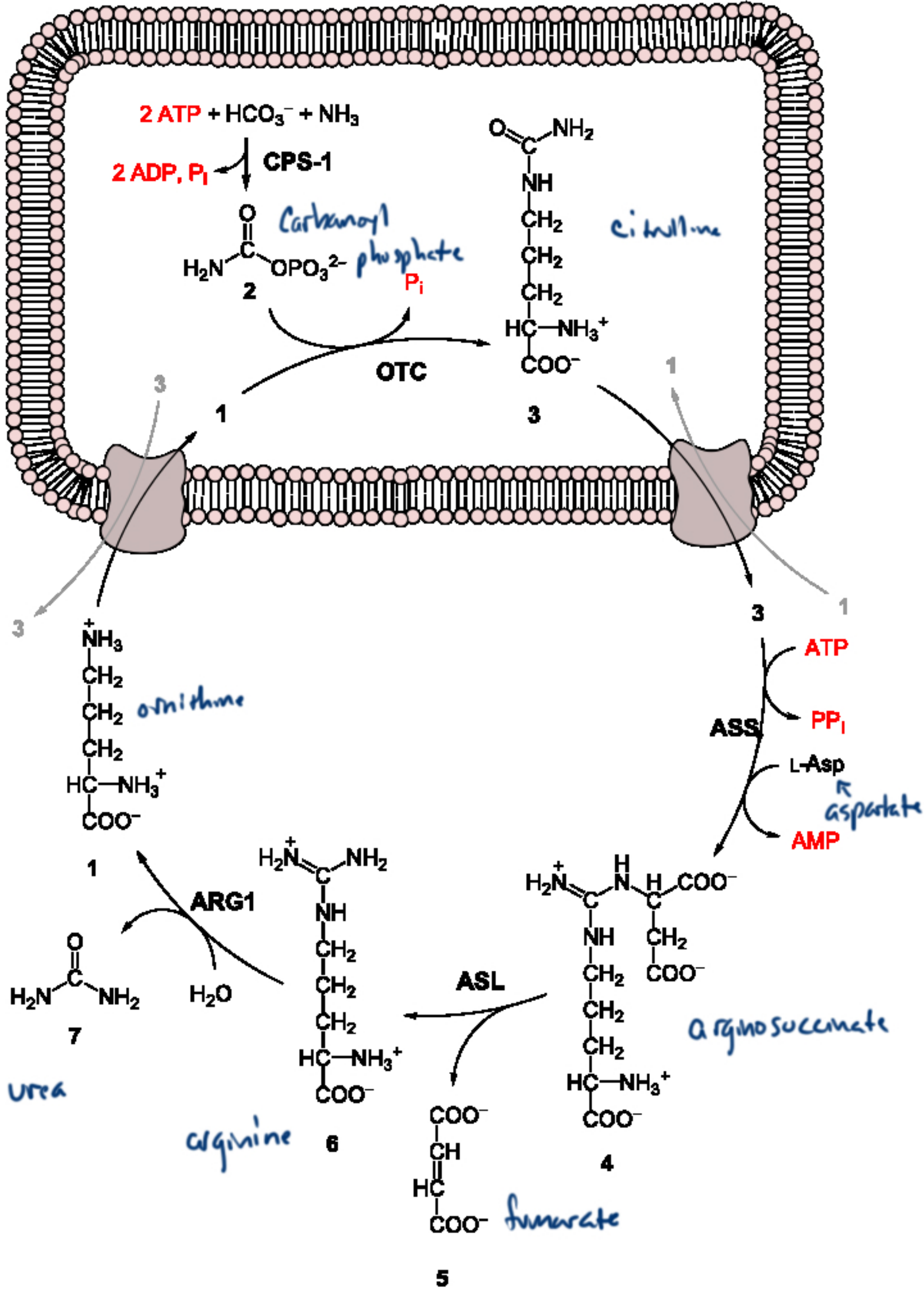
Arginine

• reliable $\oplus$ • salt bridges
and substrate
binding $\leftarrow \text{pK}_a \sim 12$ 

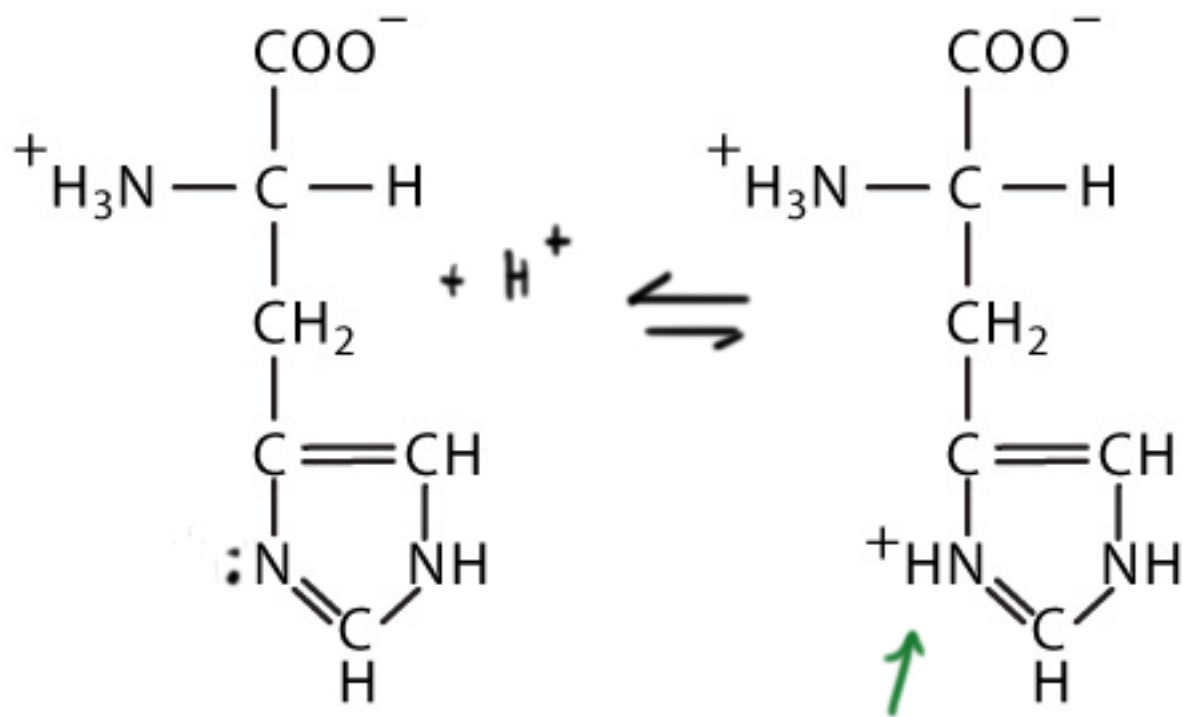
↑
guanidinium
group



urea cycle



Histidine

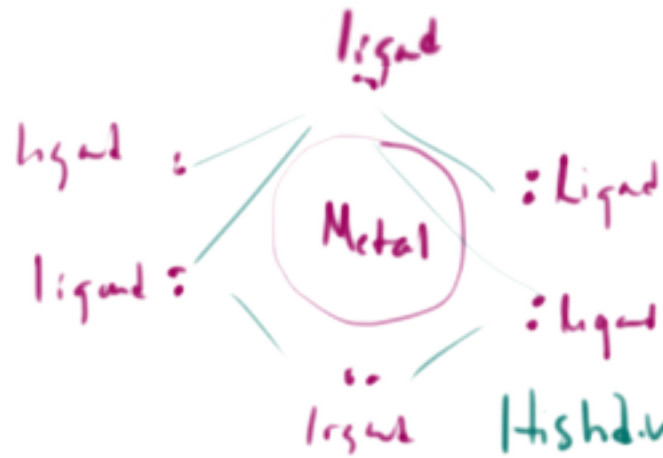


- at physiological pH about one in twenty five are protonated

Asp is raising the pK_a of His

- important acid-base catalyst

- Coordination Complex



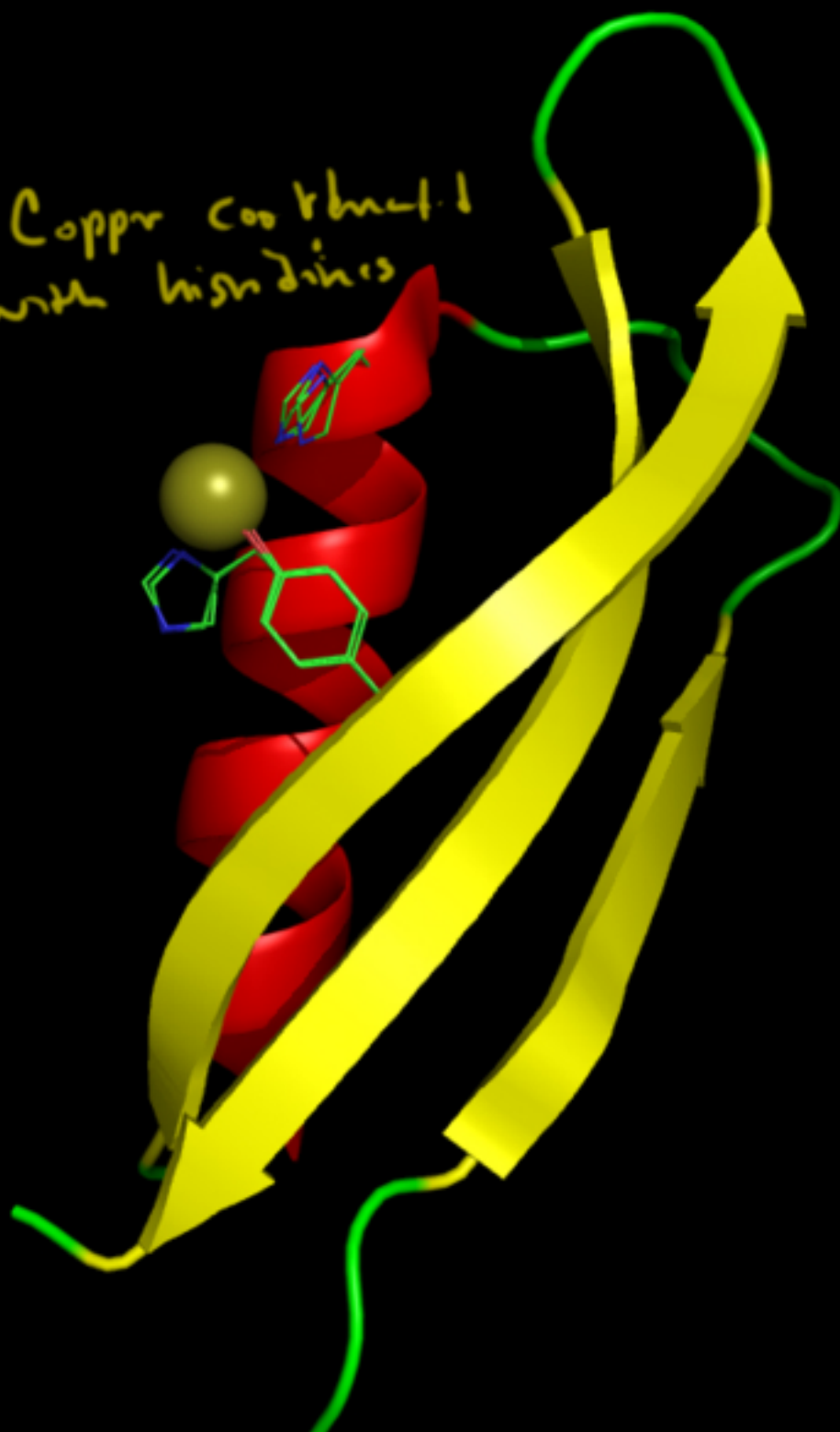
Histidine binds metals

$$pH = pK_a + \log\left(\frac{[A^-]}{[HA]}\right) \quad pK_a \sim 6.0$$

$$7.4 = 6.0 + \log\left(\frac{25}{1}\right)$$

$$7.4 = 6.0 + \log\left(\frac{25}{1}\right)$$

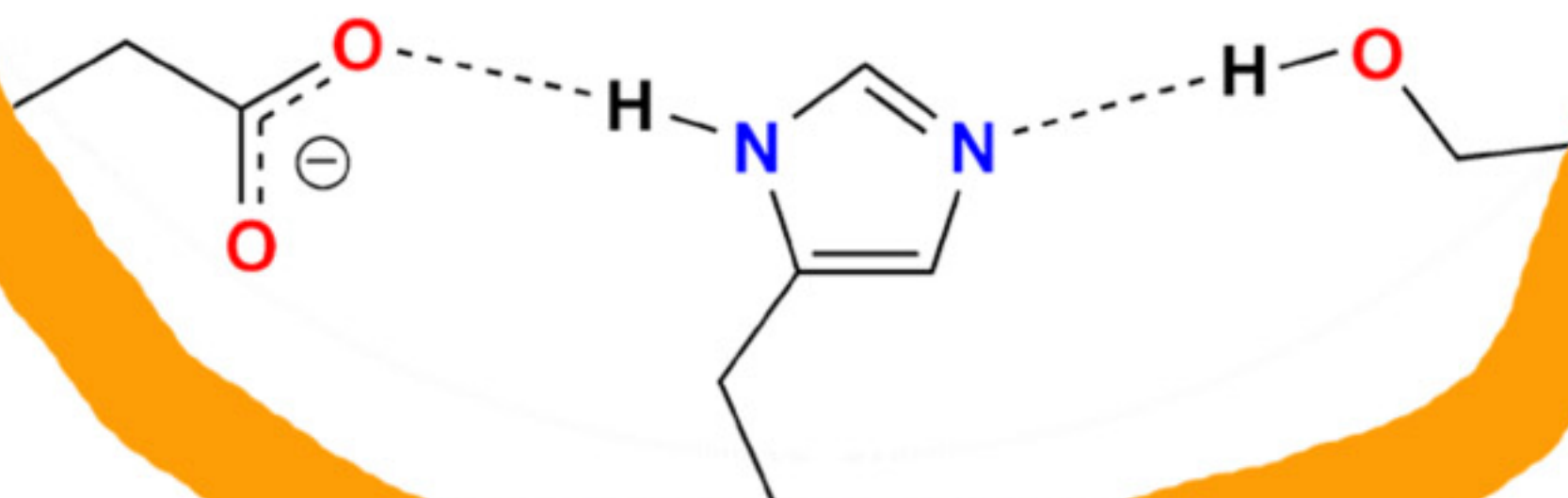
Copper coordinated
with histidines



Asp 102

His 57

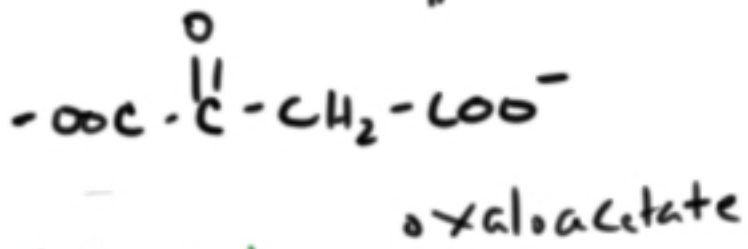
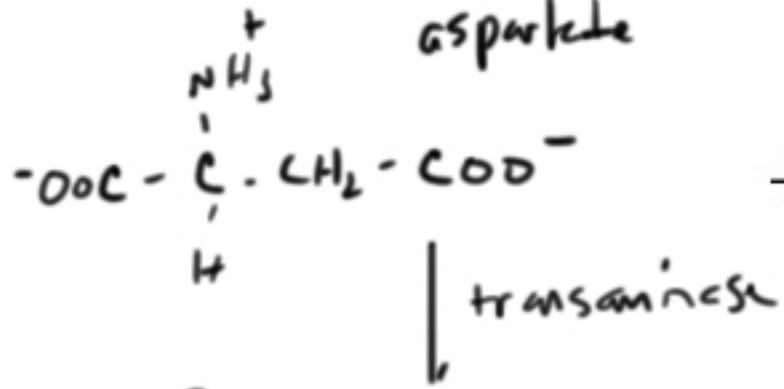
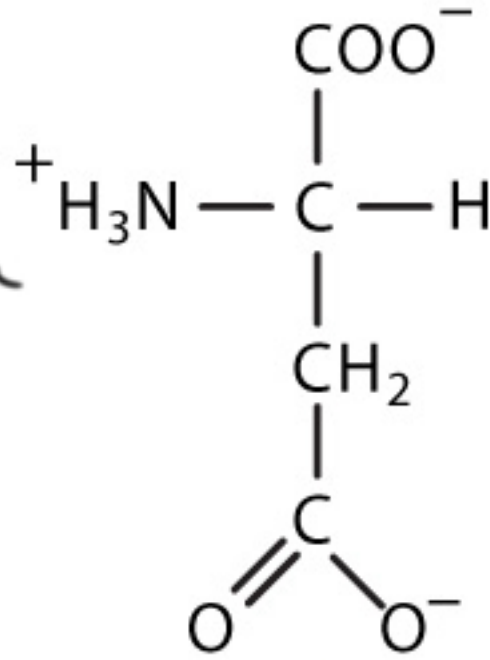
Ser 195



Aspartate

 α amino acid

aspartate

 α keto acid

$\uparrow$
pKa ~ 4

• reliable $\ominus$

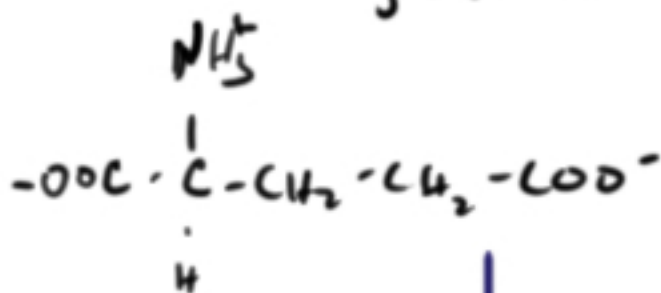
• acid base catalyst

• carboxylate nucleophile

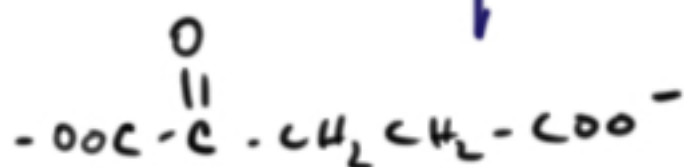
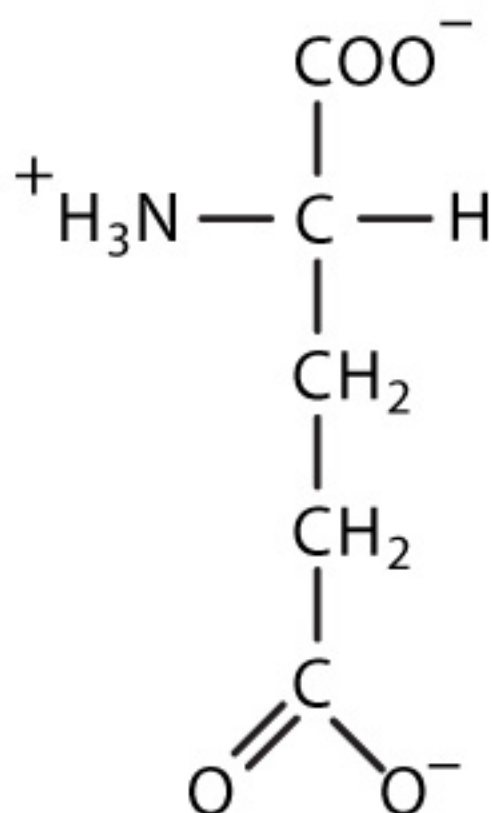
• salt bridges

Glutamate

glutamate

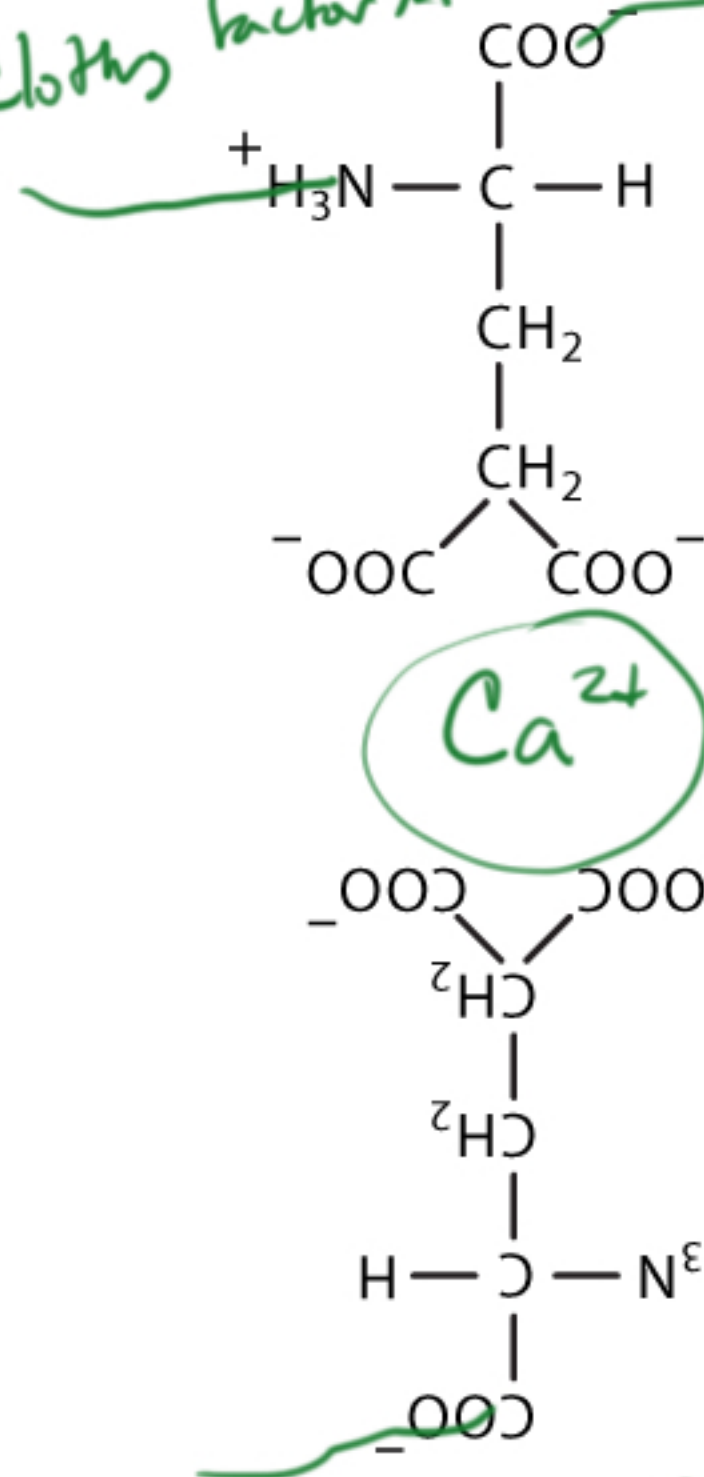


transaminase

 α keto glutarate• reliable $\ominus$ α amino acid_a $\longrightarrow$ α keto acid_a $\uparrow$
pKa $\sim$ 4 α keto acid_b $\longrightarrow$ α amino acid_b

γ carboxyglutamate

Cloths factor A



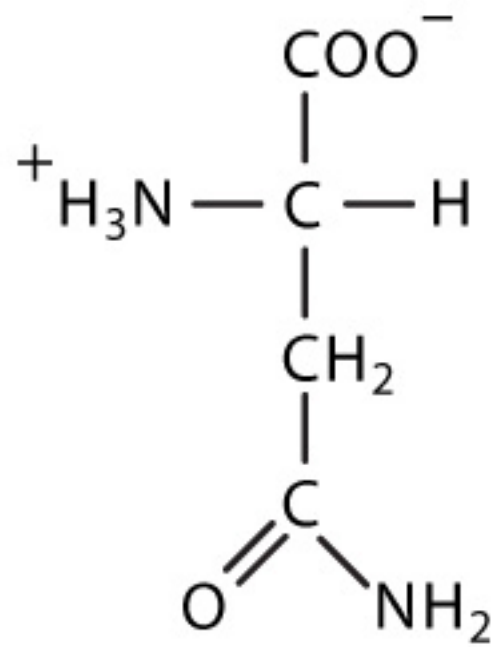
• Conversion from glutamate requires vitamin K

← bidentate ligand

Cloths factor B

Asparagine

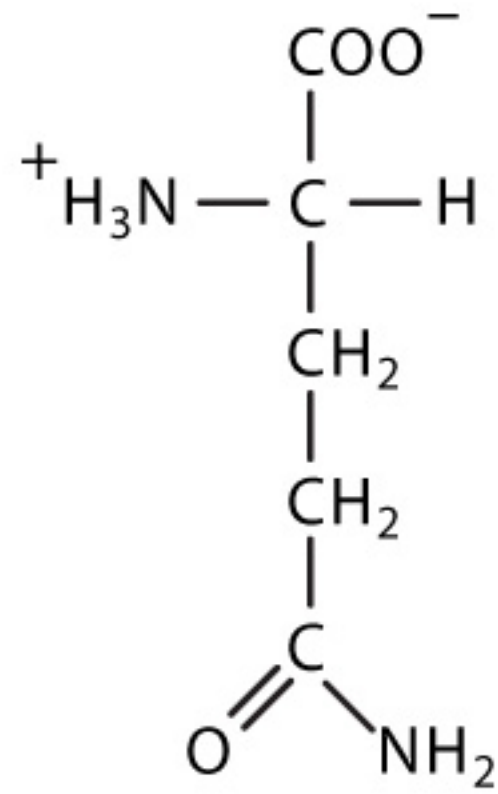
N



- H bonding - often to backbone is important for protein structure

Glutamine

Q

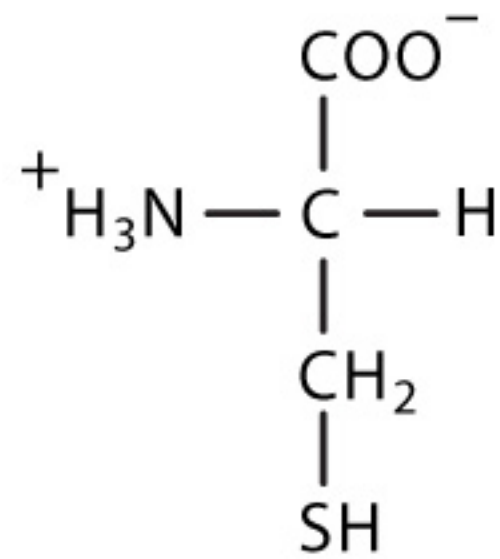


- H bonding

- N source in biosynthesis

Cysteine

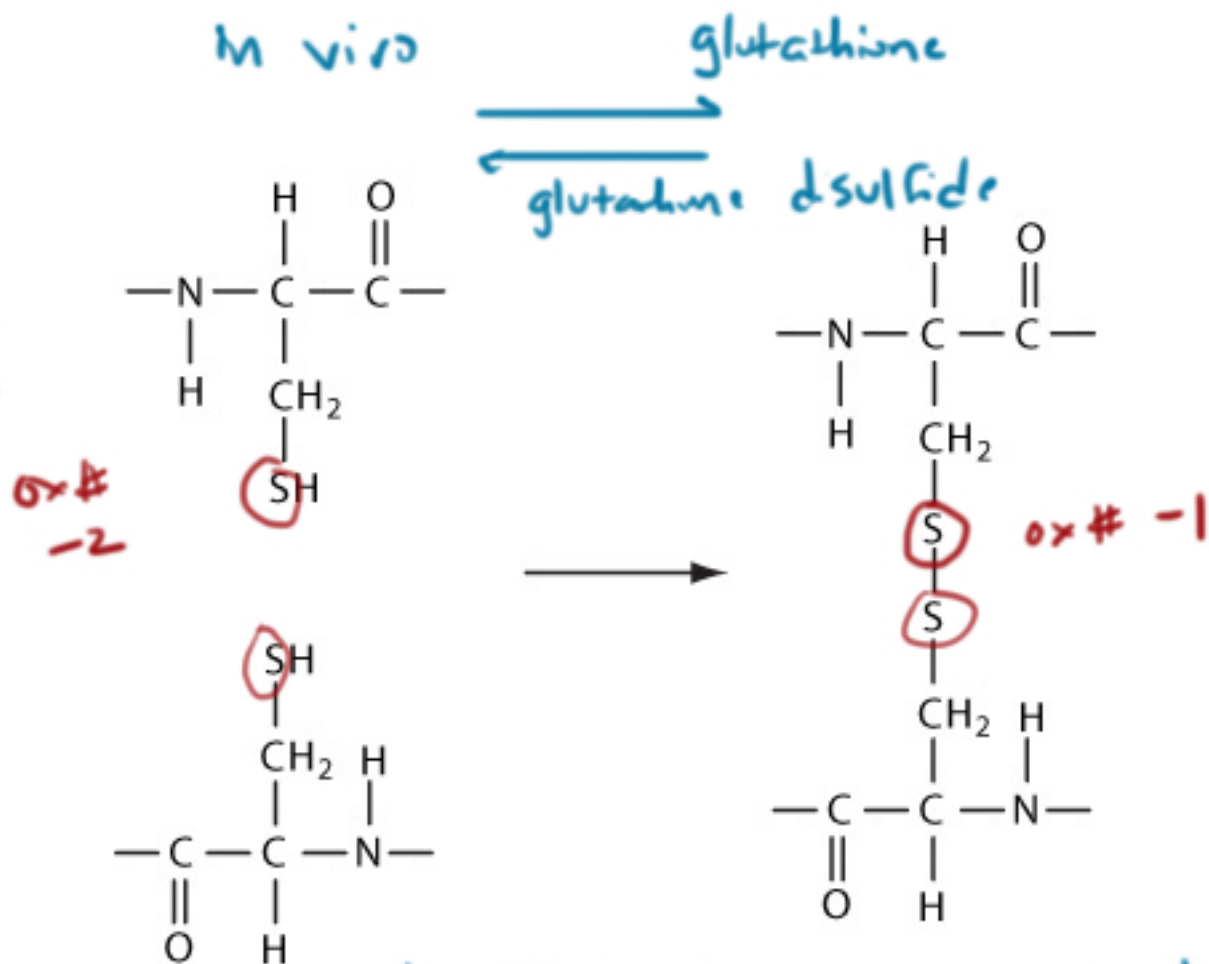
C



↑
pKa ~ 8.1

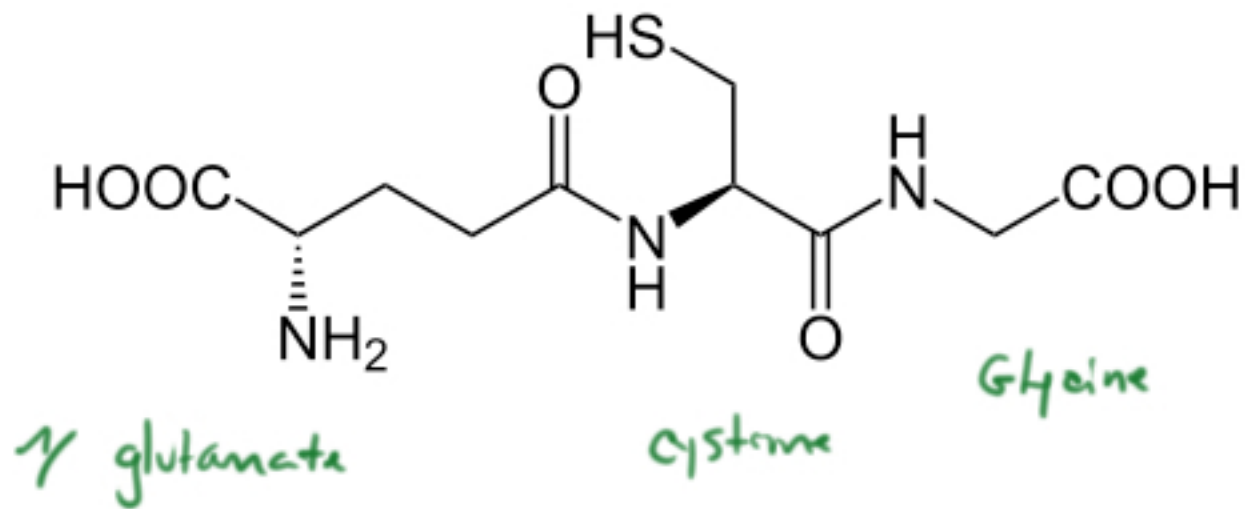
- Forms disulfide bridges (covalent)
- Nucleophile
- Ligand in coordination complexes

Reduced





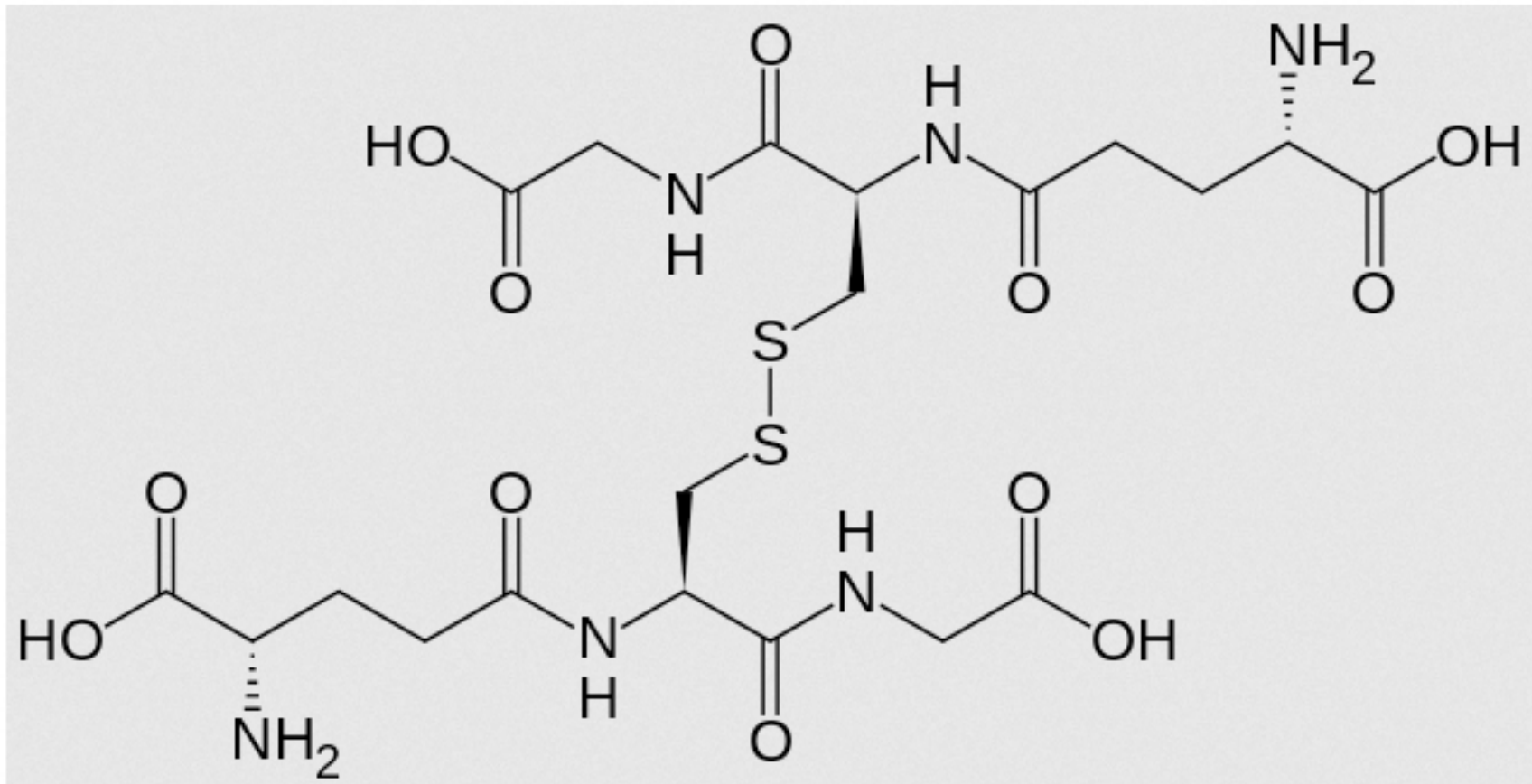
Glutathione



(Reduced)

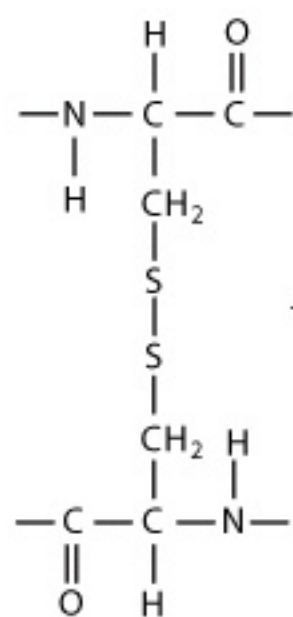
- the most important redox buffer in the blood.

Glutathione Disulfide

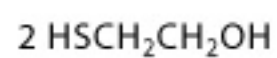


(oxidized)

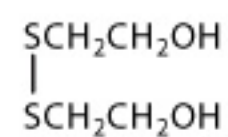
oxidized



+

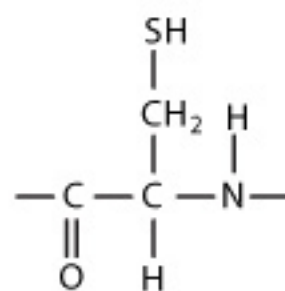


+



oxidized

β mercaptoethyl
reduced



reduced

• AUG

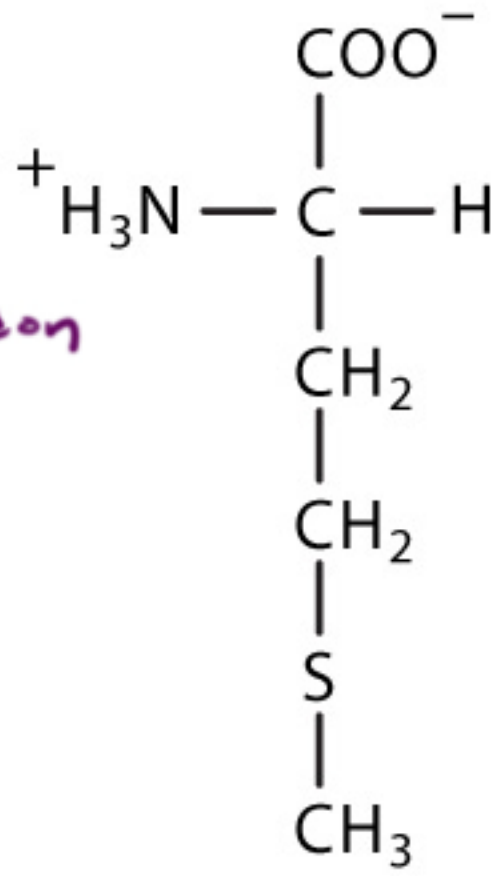
↑

start codon

is the methionine codon

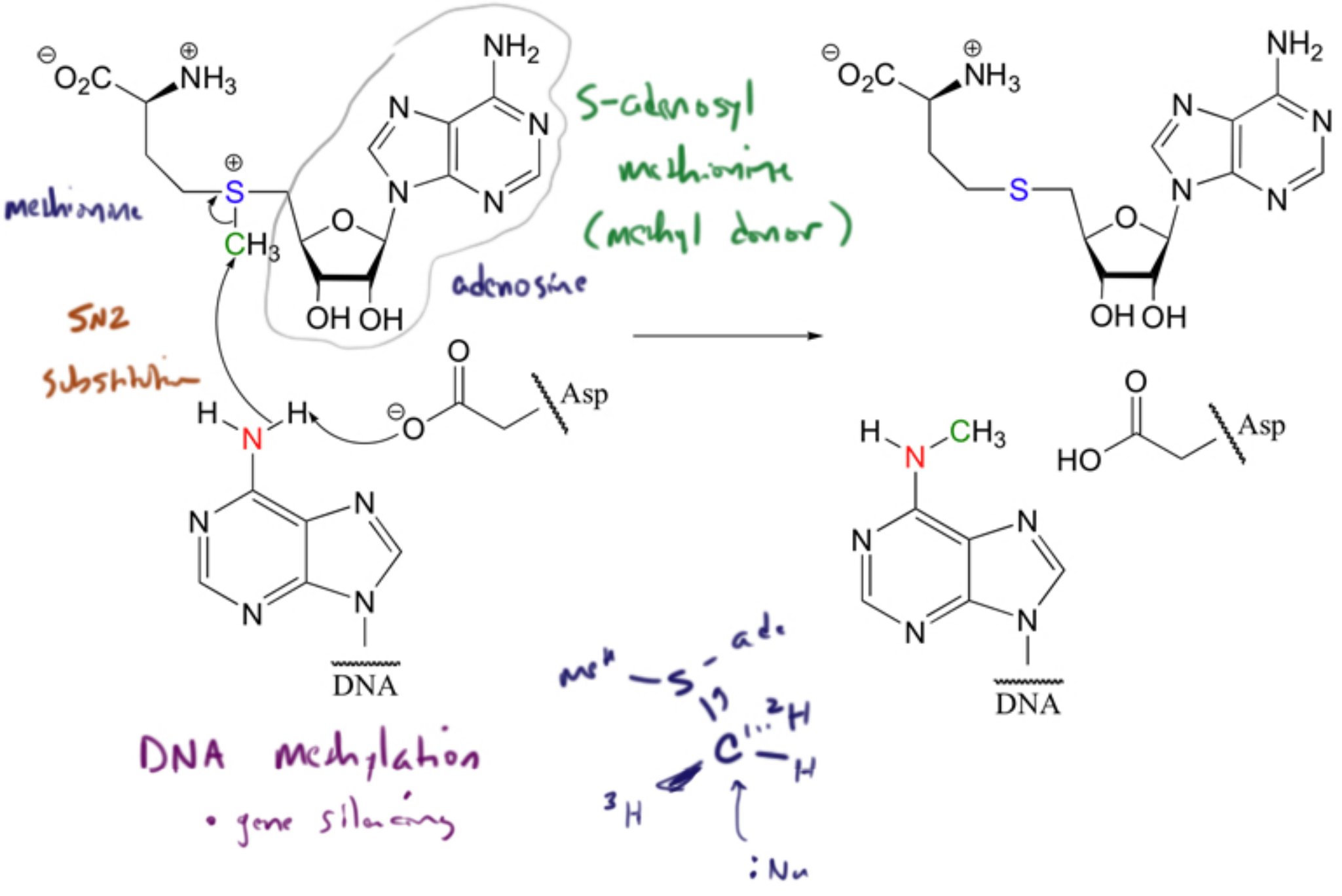
Methionine

M



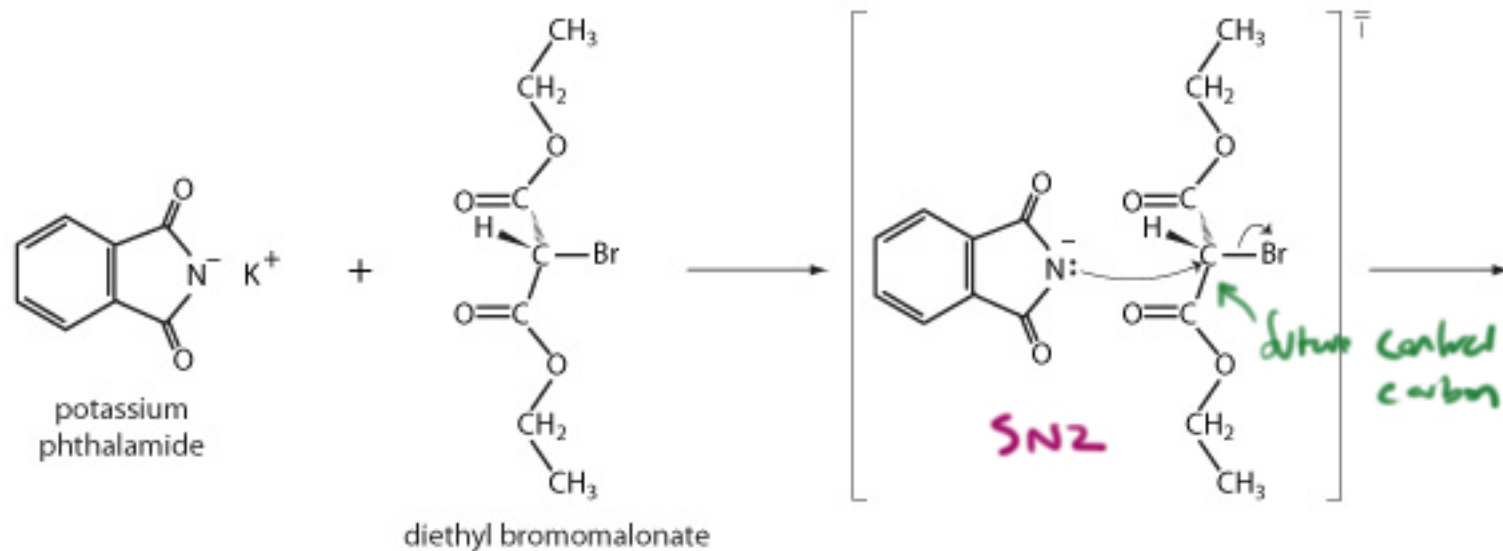
• nonpolar

• hydrophobic

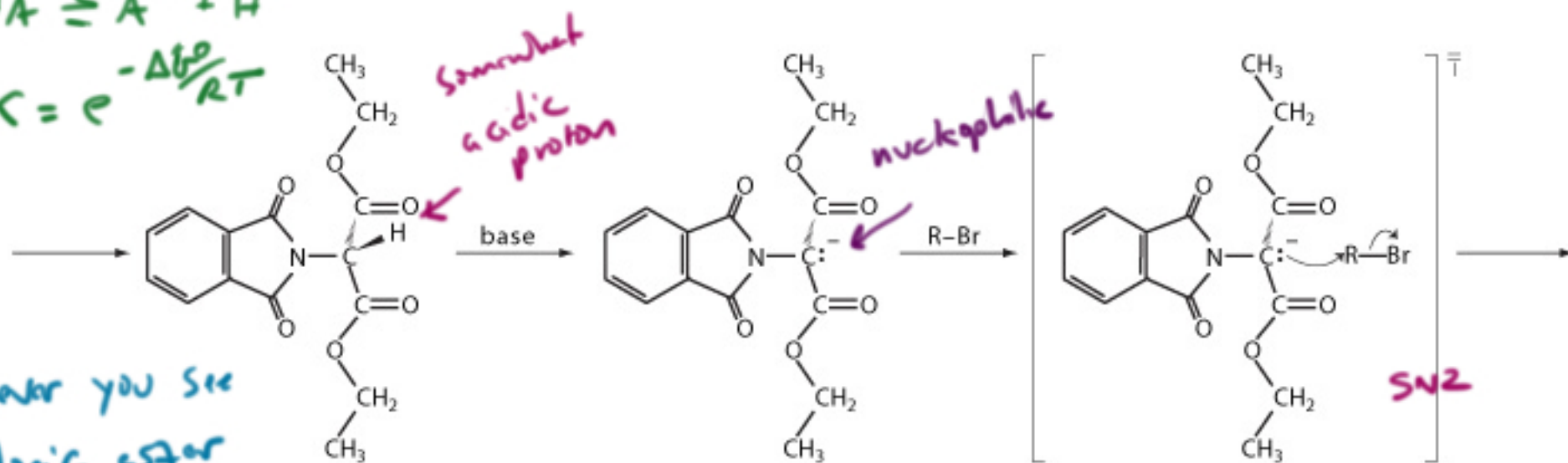


Gabriel Synthesis

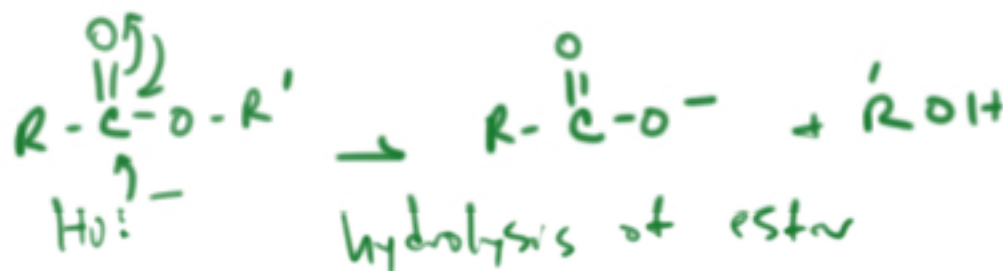
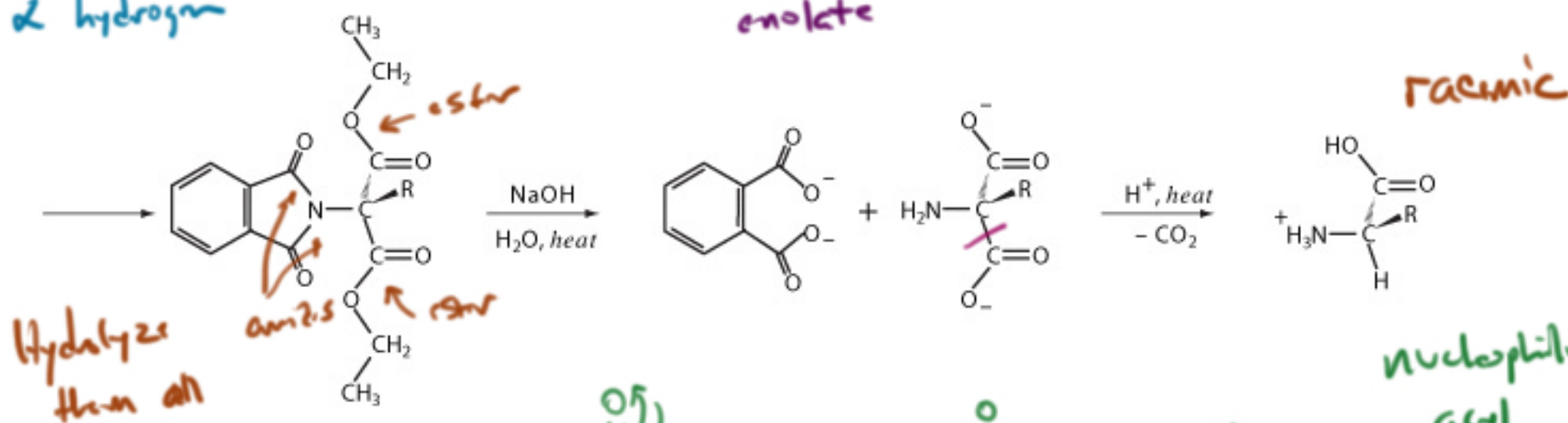
- benchtop amino acid synthesis



$K = e^{-\Delta G^\circ / RT}$



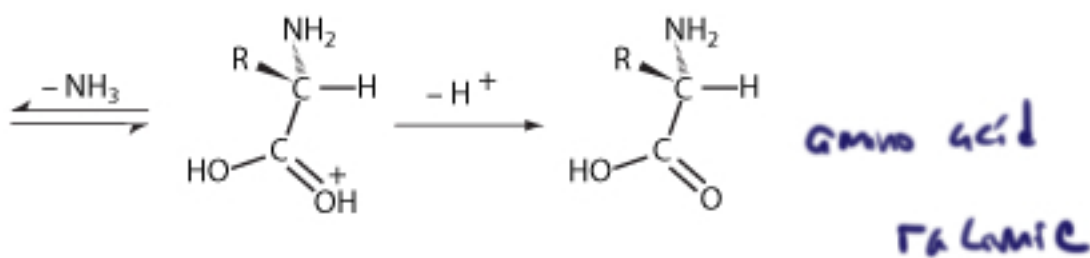
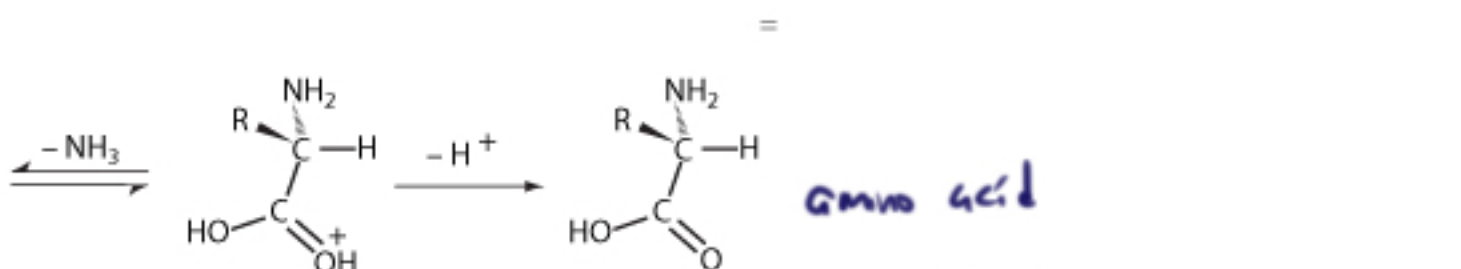
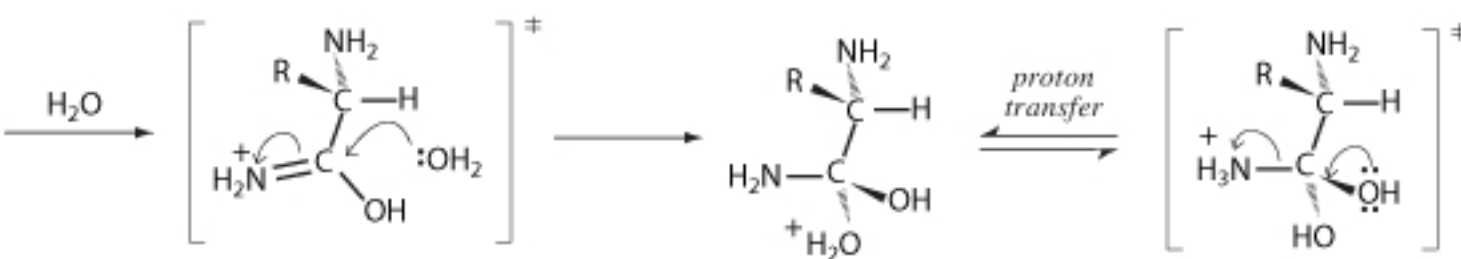
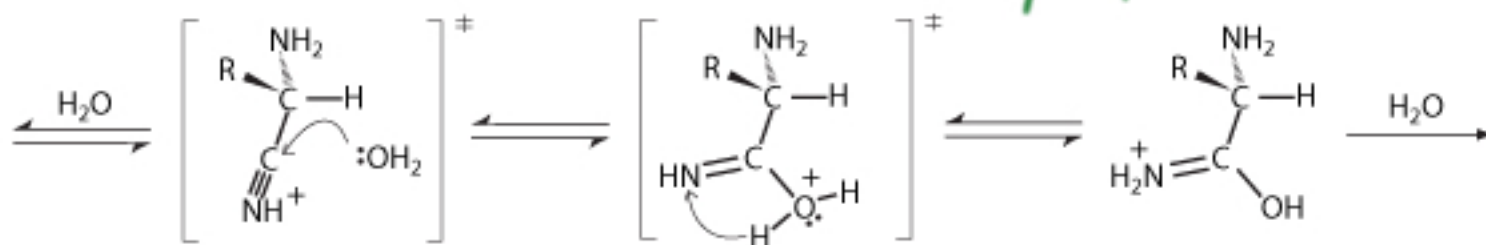
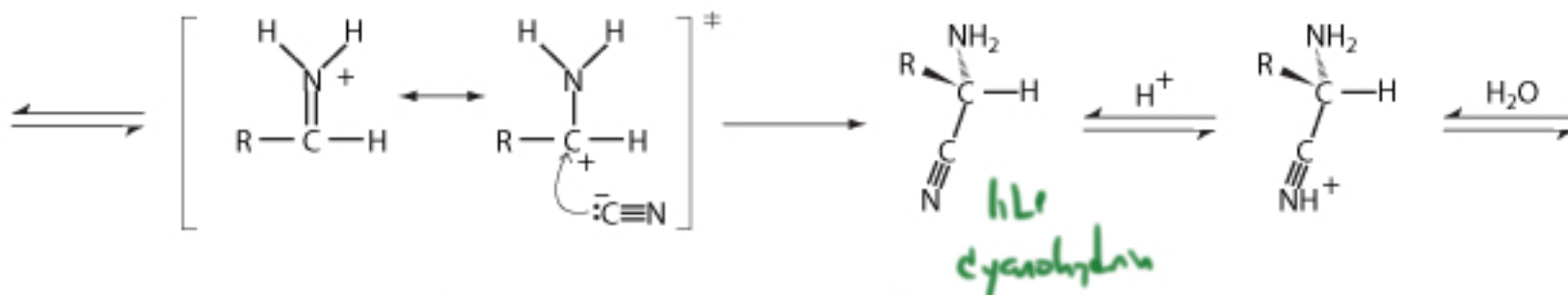
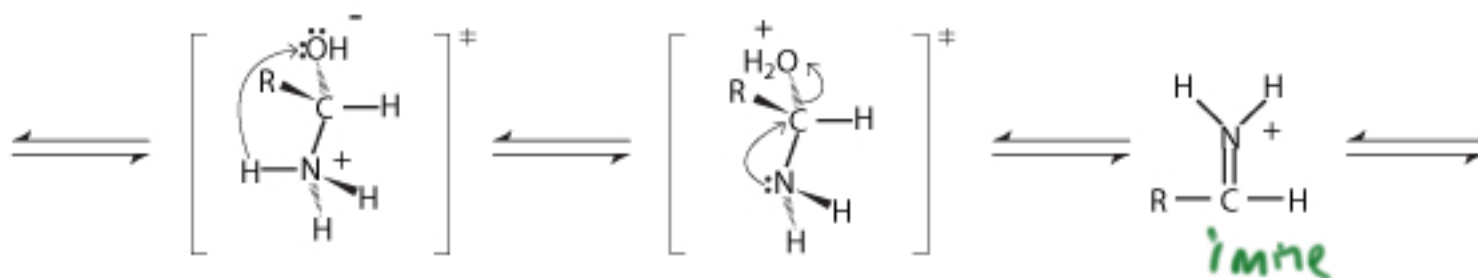
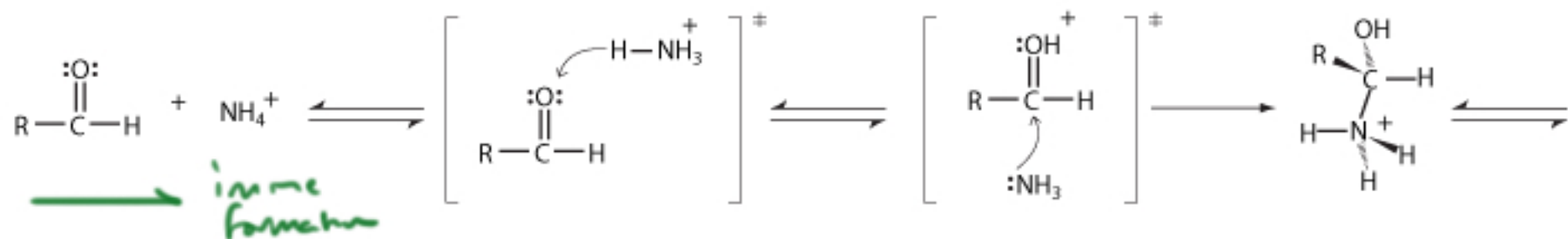
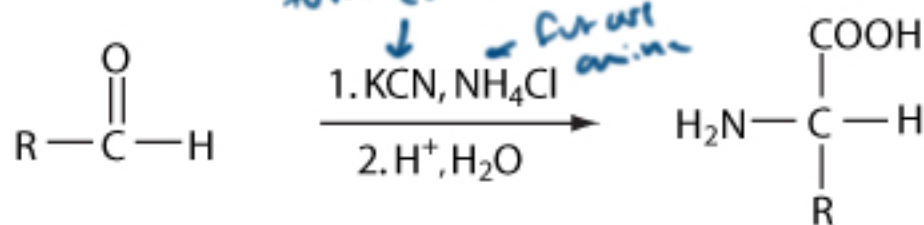
Whenever you see malonic ester you have a great α hydrogen



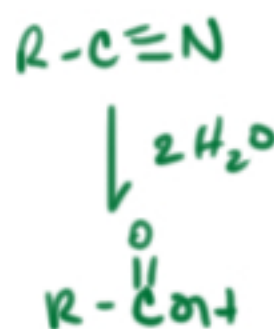
nucleophilic acyl substitution

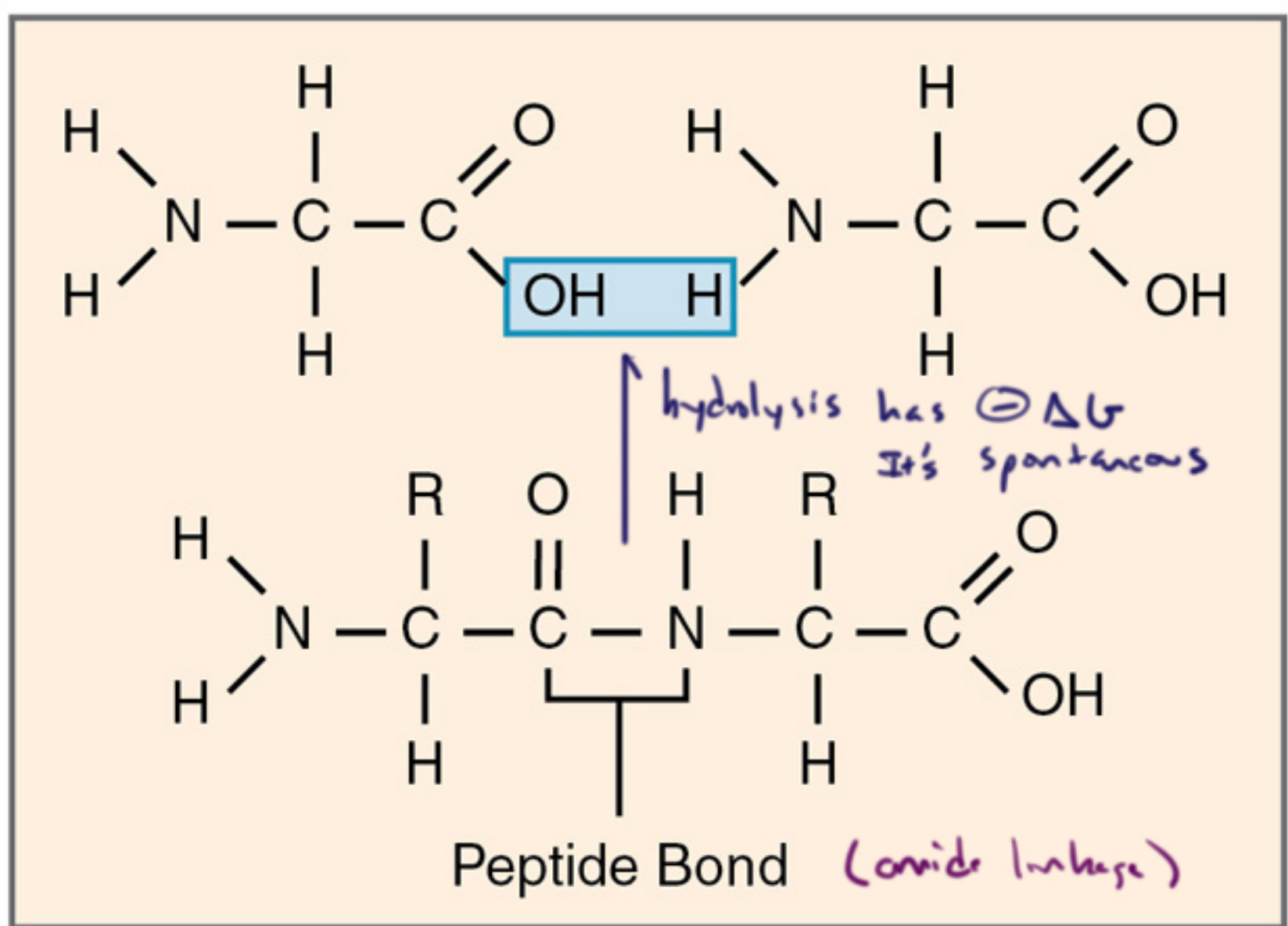
Strecker Synthesis

future carbonyl
↓
future amine

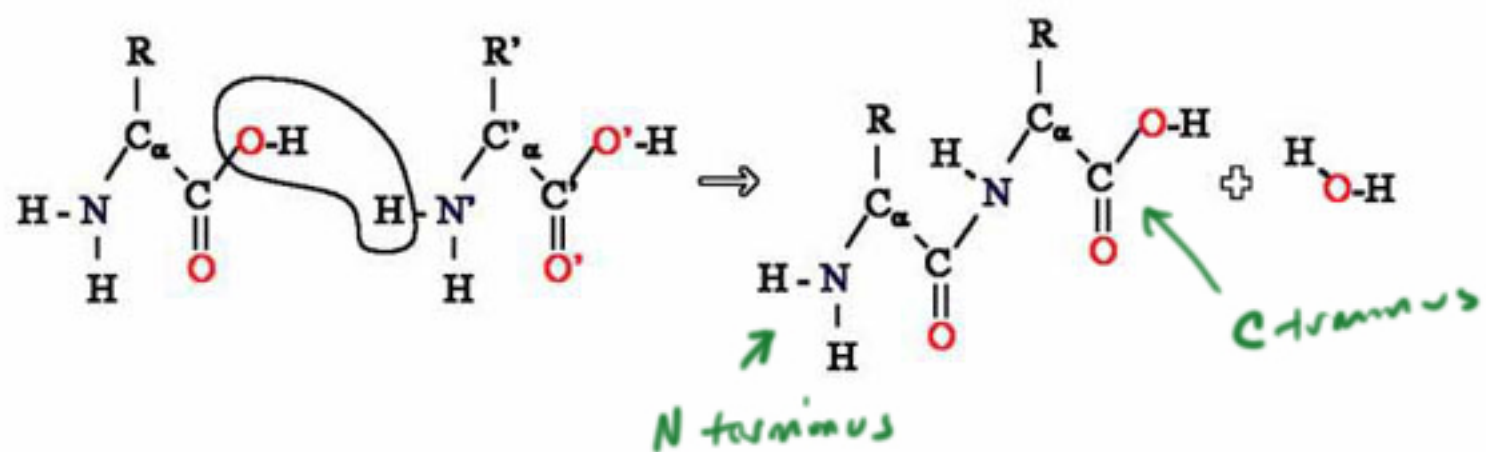


hydrolysis
of nitrile





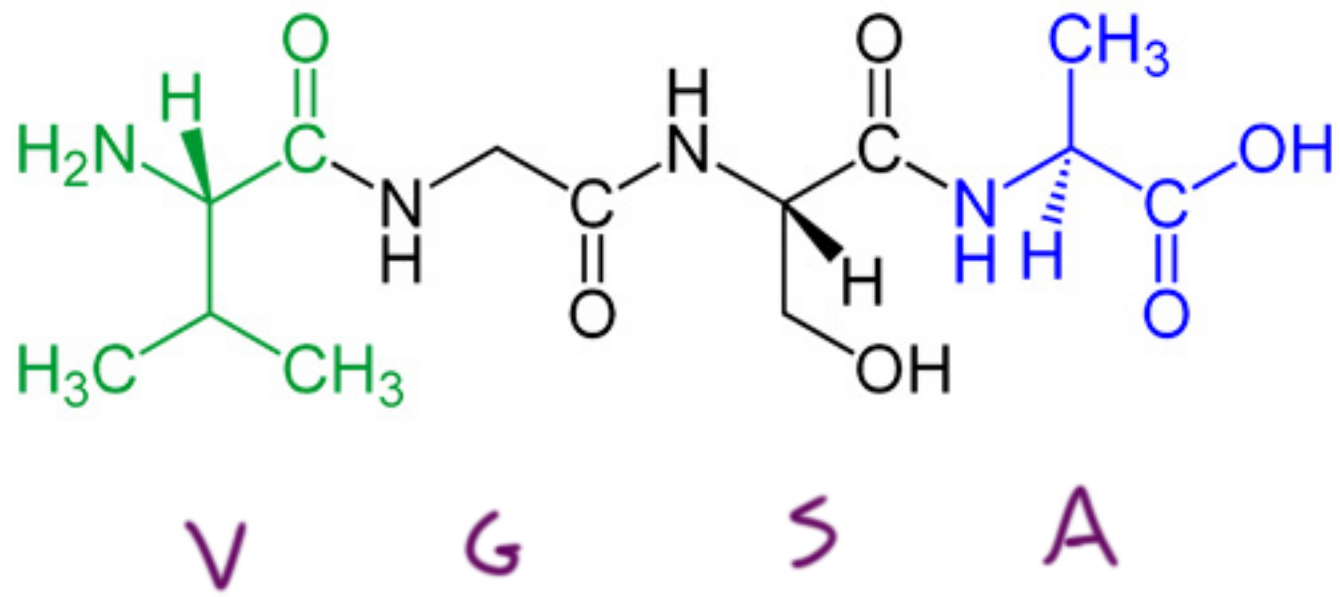
Proteins are not thermodynamically stable
but they are kinetically stable



orienting a polypeptide

- 1) Find the N terminus and C terminus
- 2) Carbon backbone
 $\text{N}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{N}-\text{C}-\text{N}$
- 3) identify side chains

Tetrapeptide

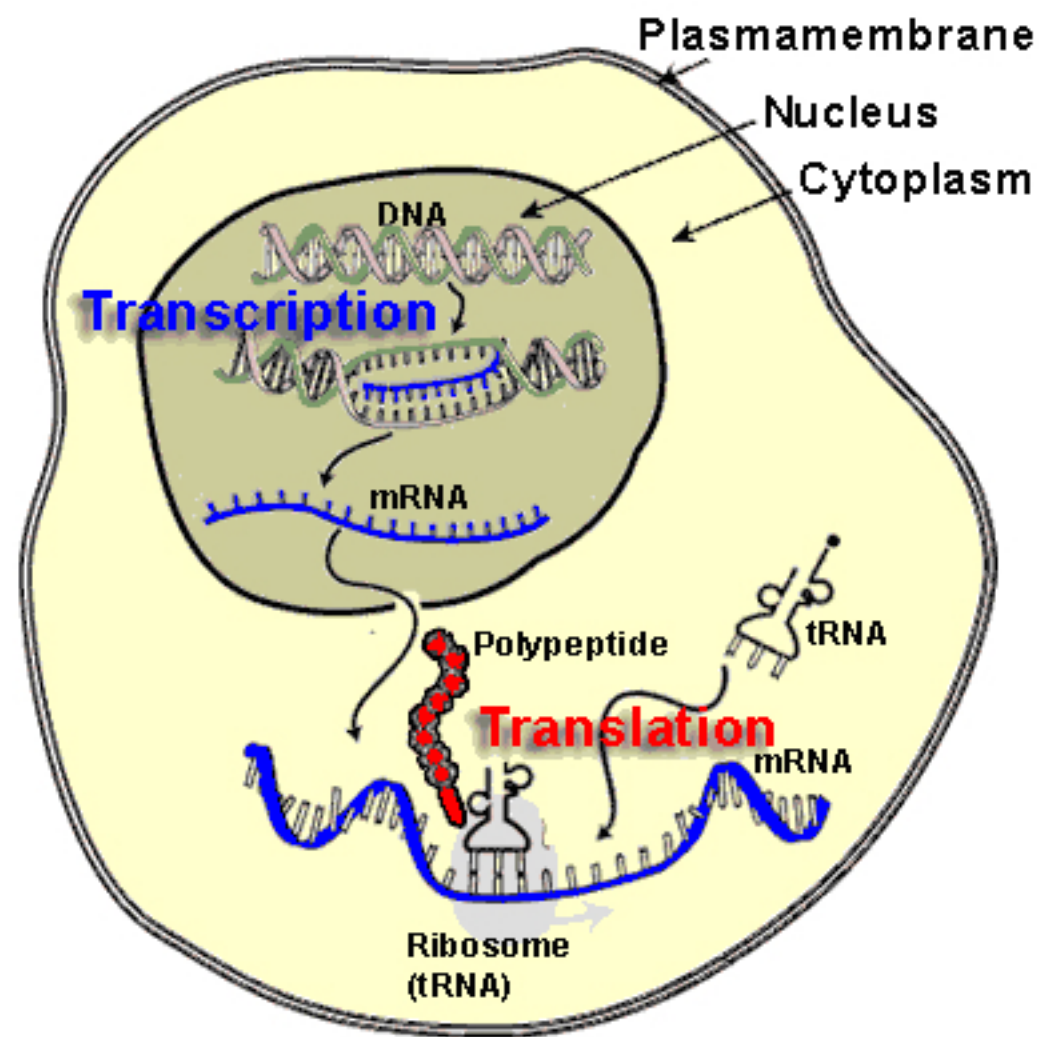


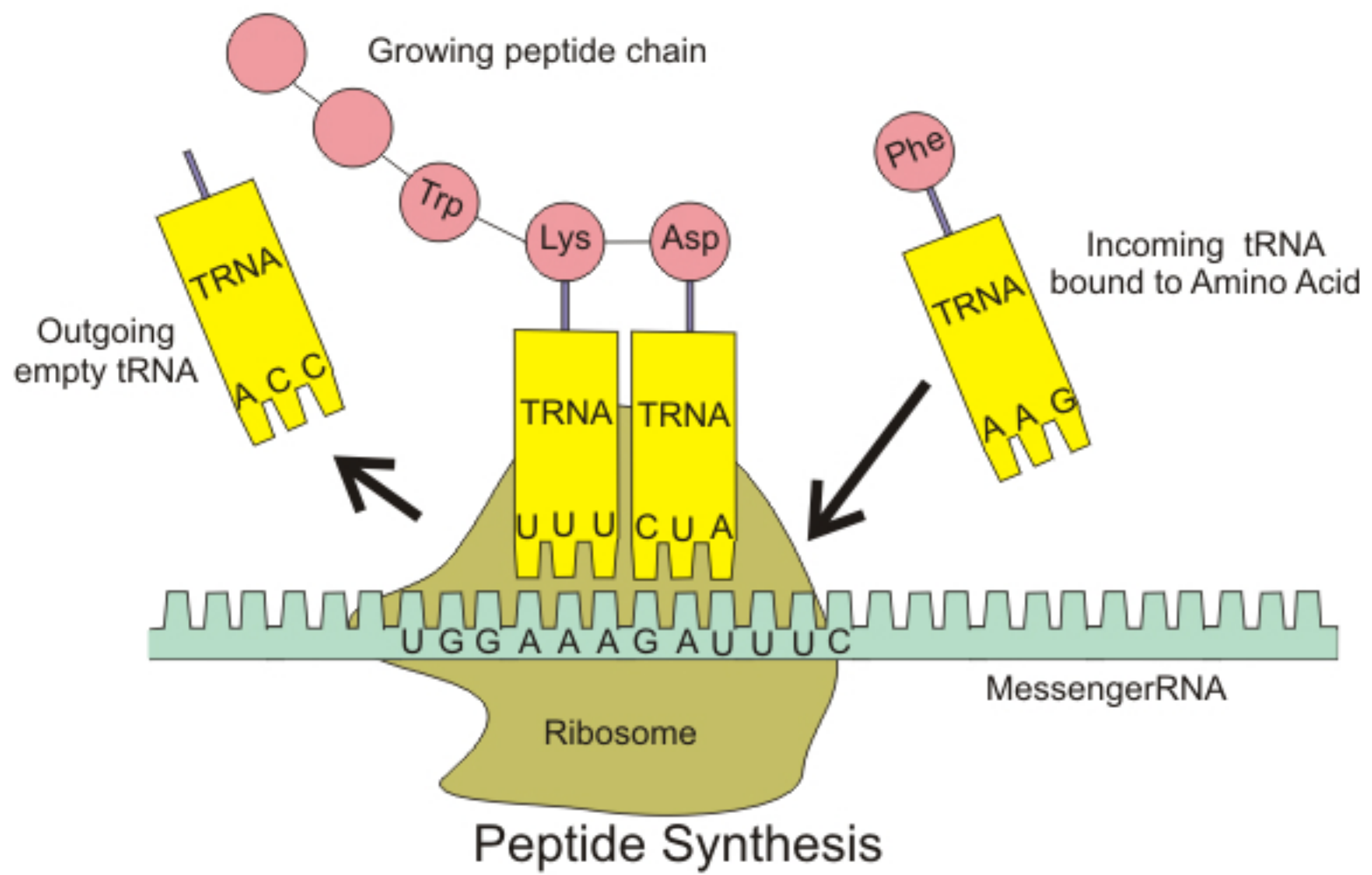
Central Dogma

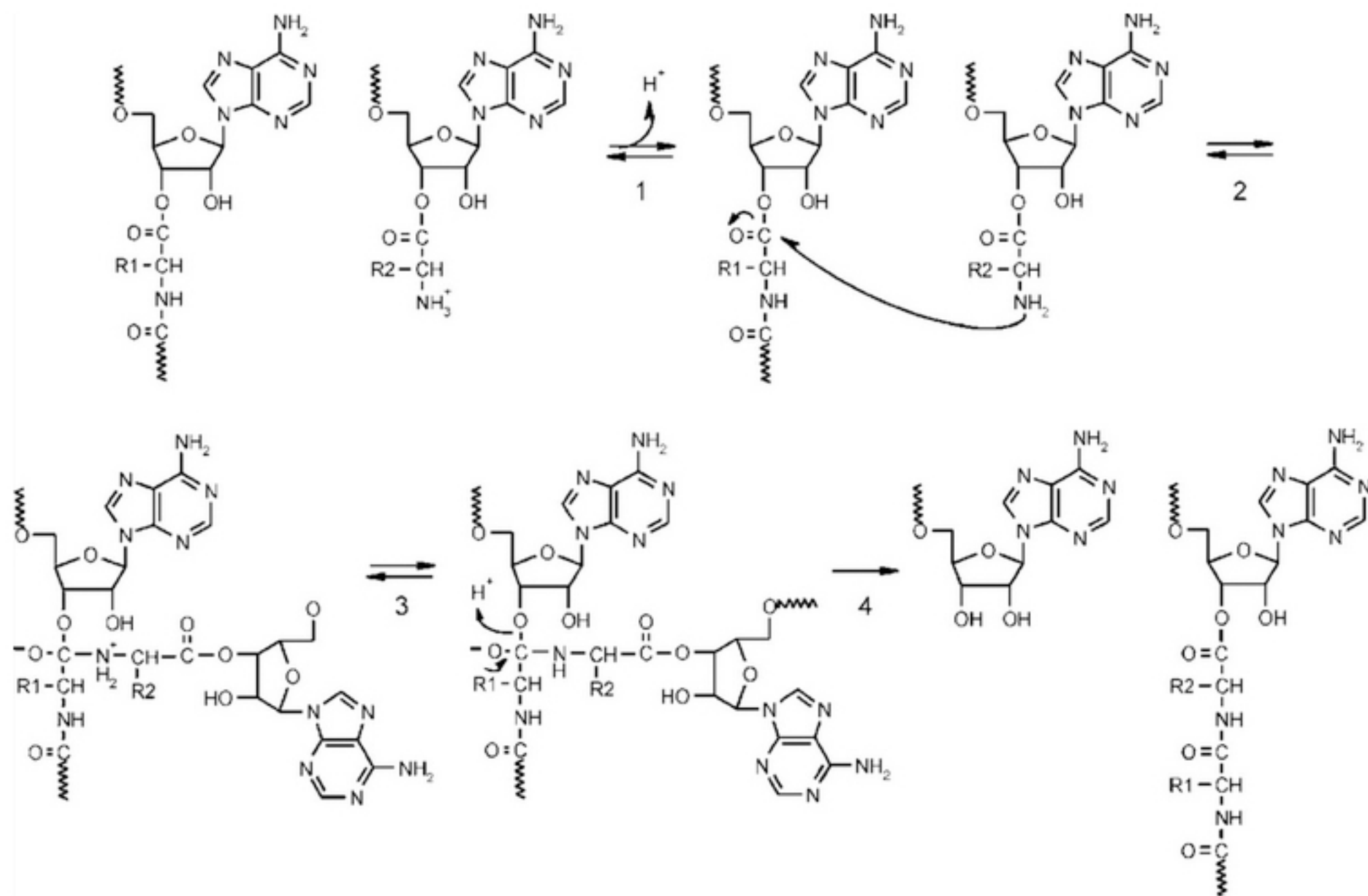
Transcription

→

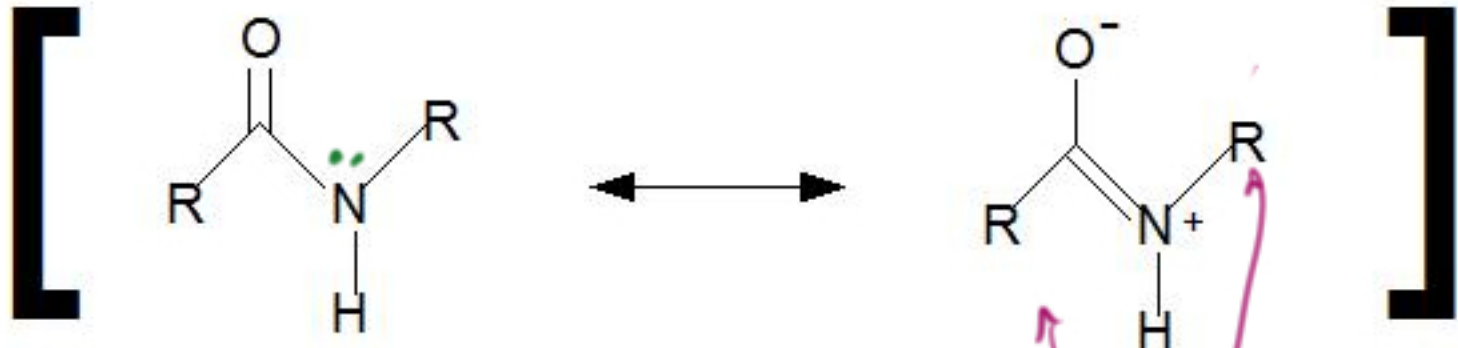
Translation





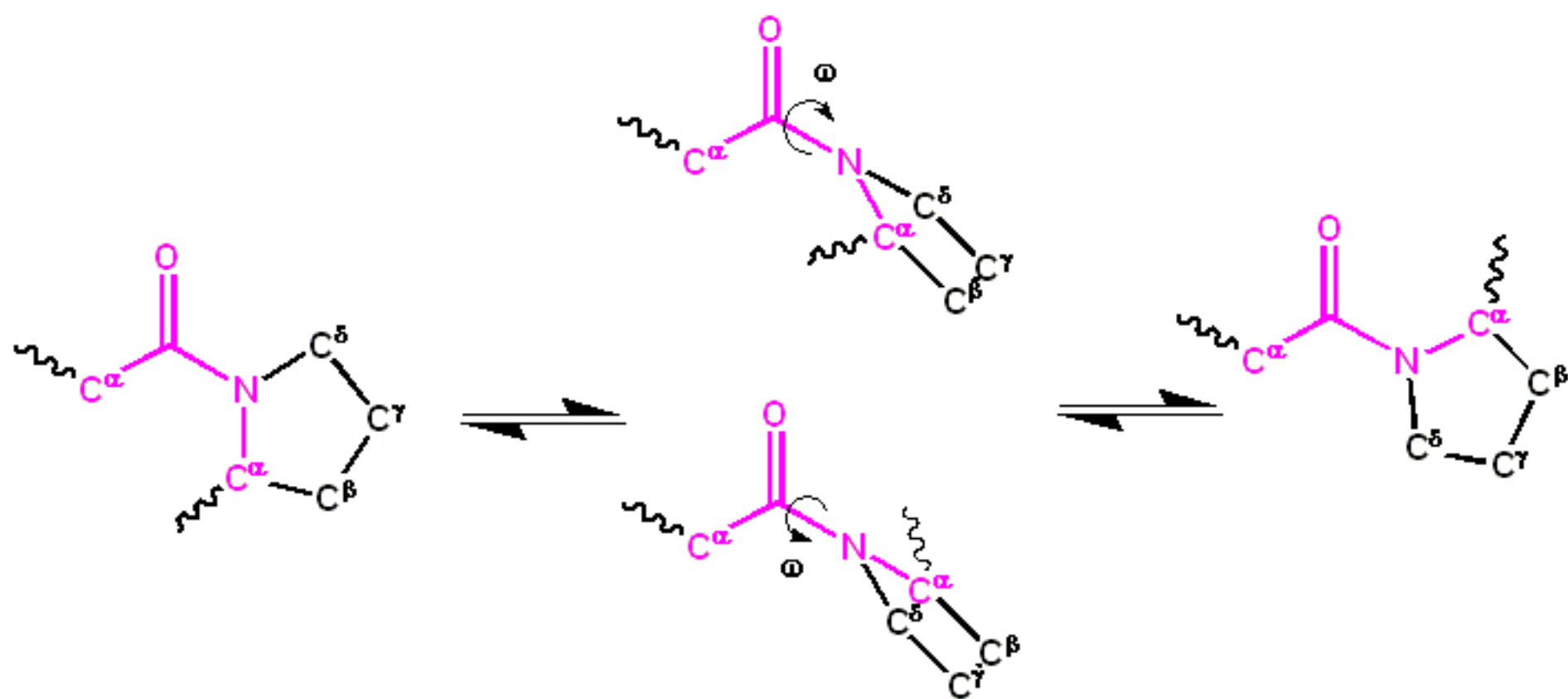


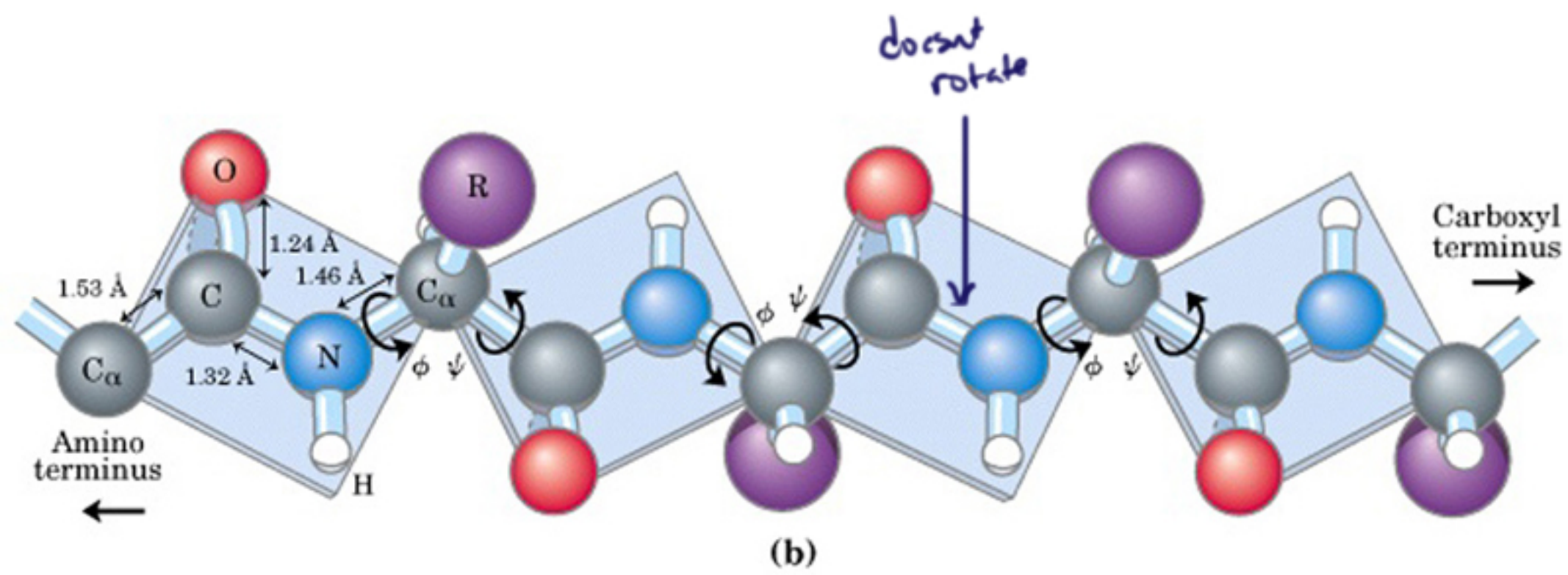
Peptide bond is rigid and planar



Peptide bond has
partial double bond
character

these 2 central
carbons are
always trans
(except with
proline
where it's
50:50)

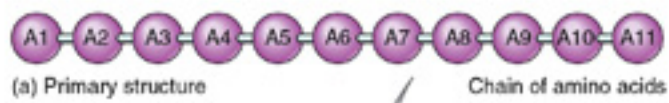




covalent bonds

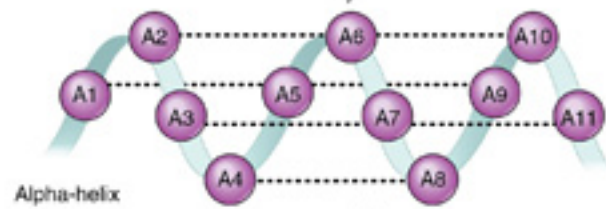


also disulfides

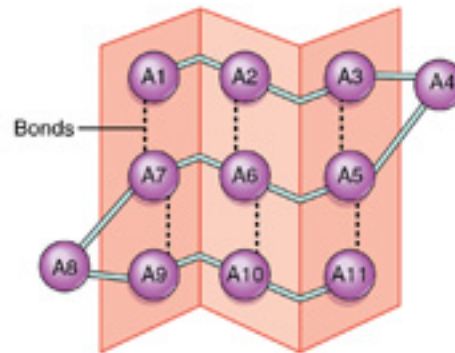


(a) Primary structure

Chain of amino acids

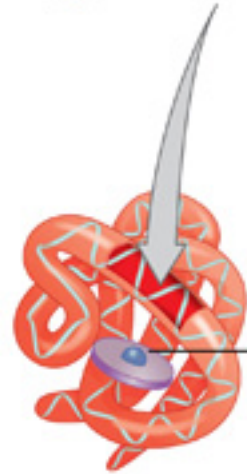


Alpha-helix

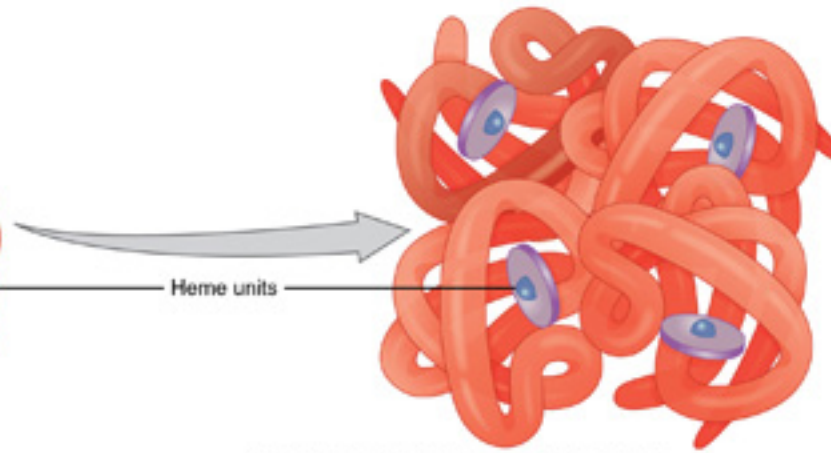


OR

(b) Secondary structure (pleated sheet)



(c) Tertiary structure

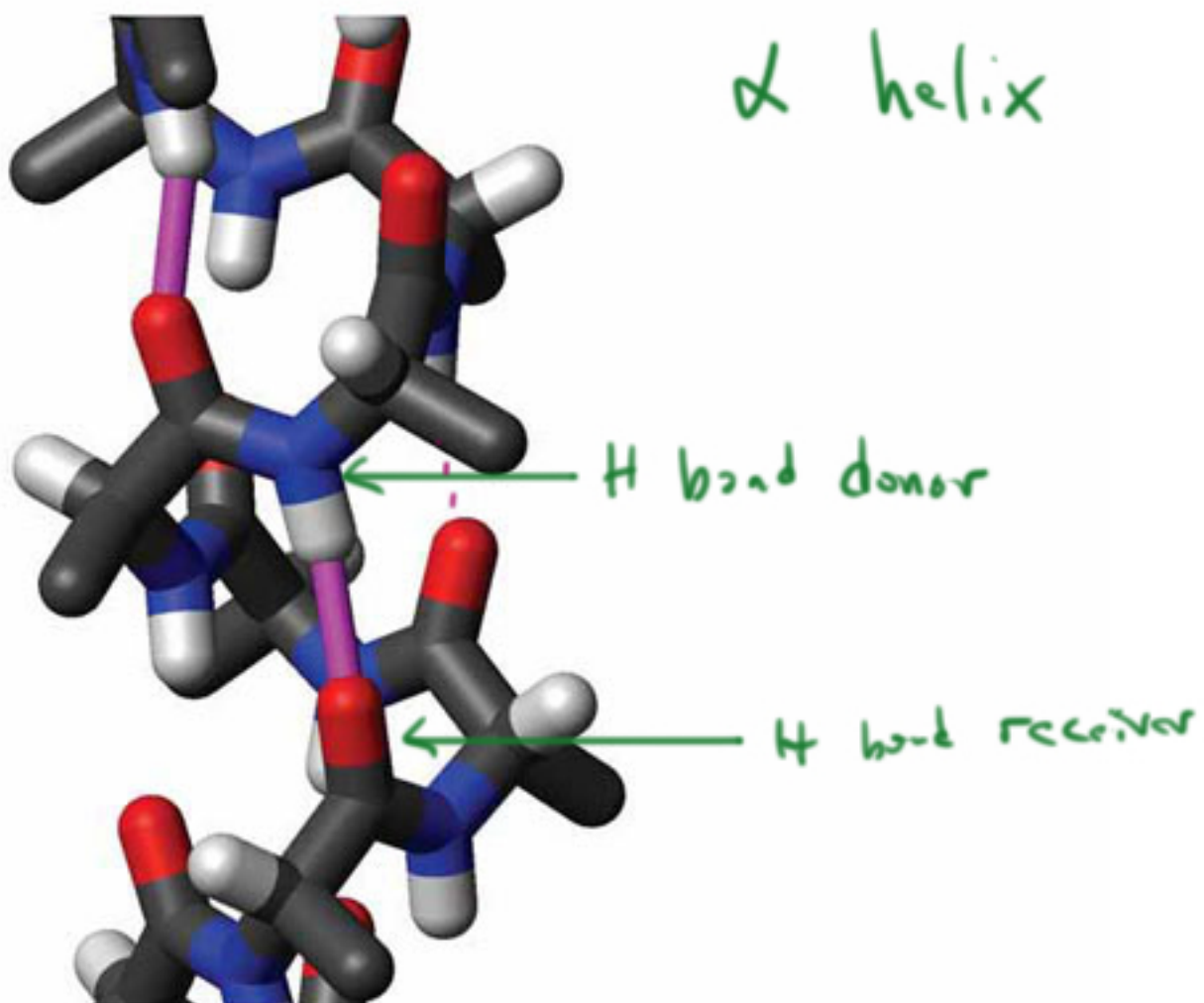


(d) Quaternary structure

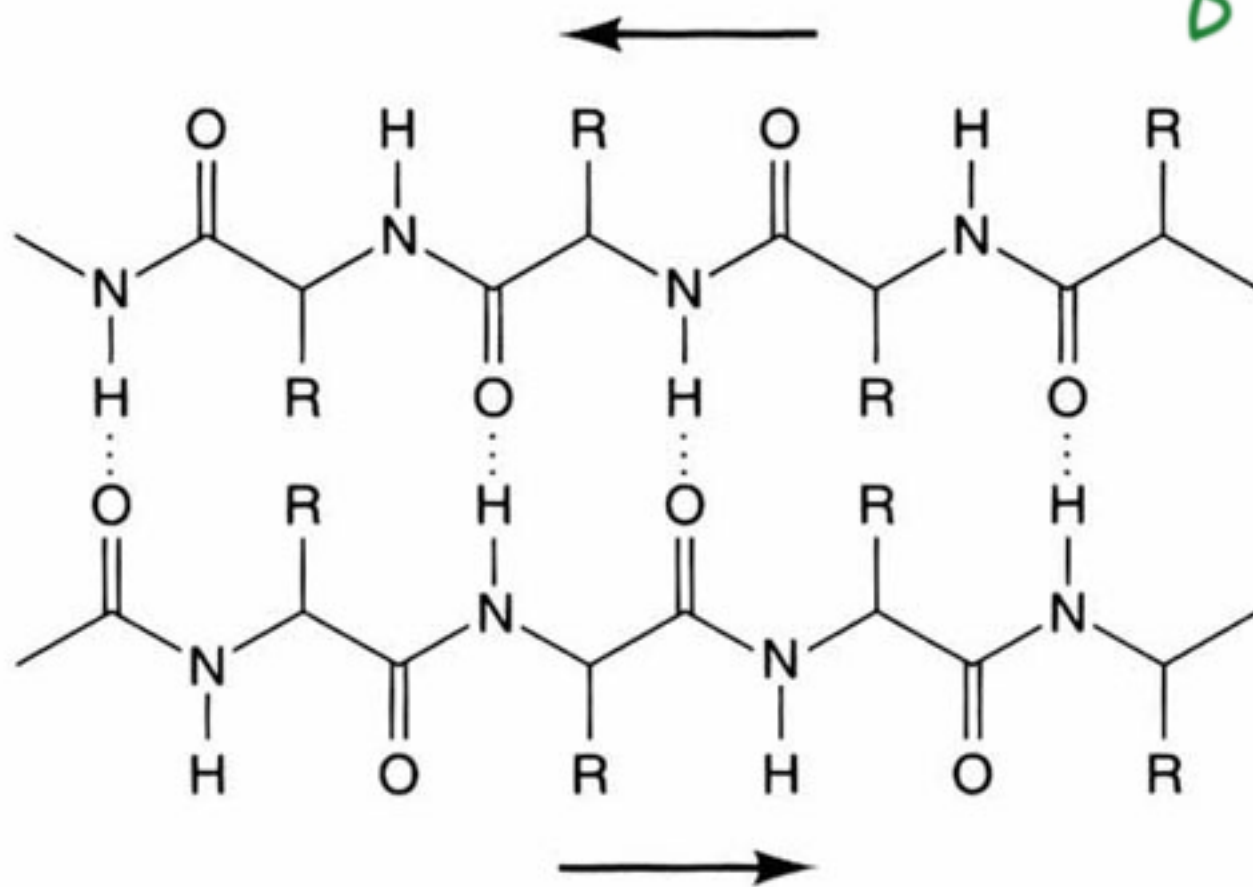
Hemoglobin
(globular protein)

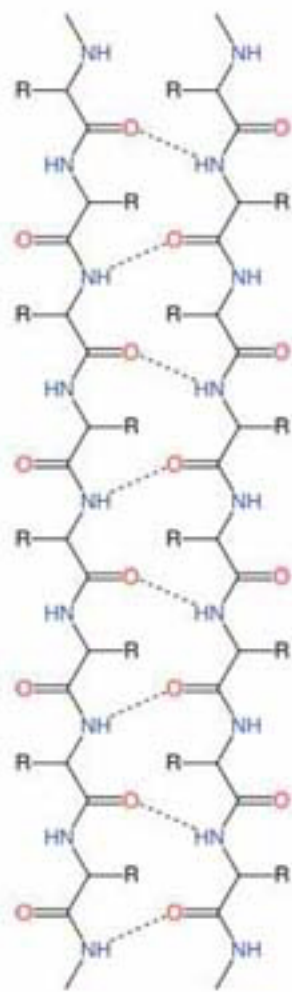
- disrupted by
proline
(also glycine)

α helix

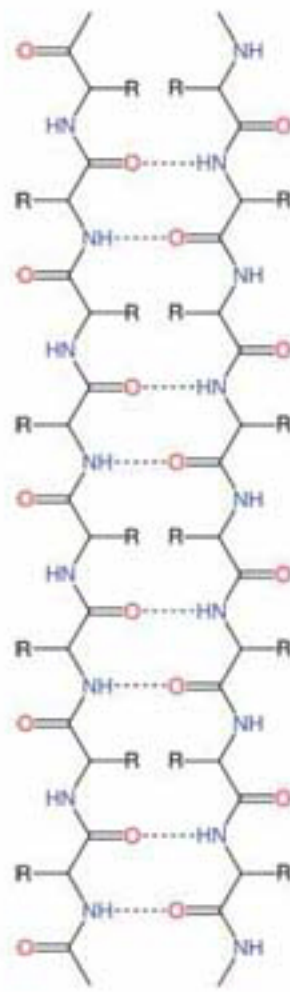


B pleated sheet



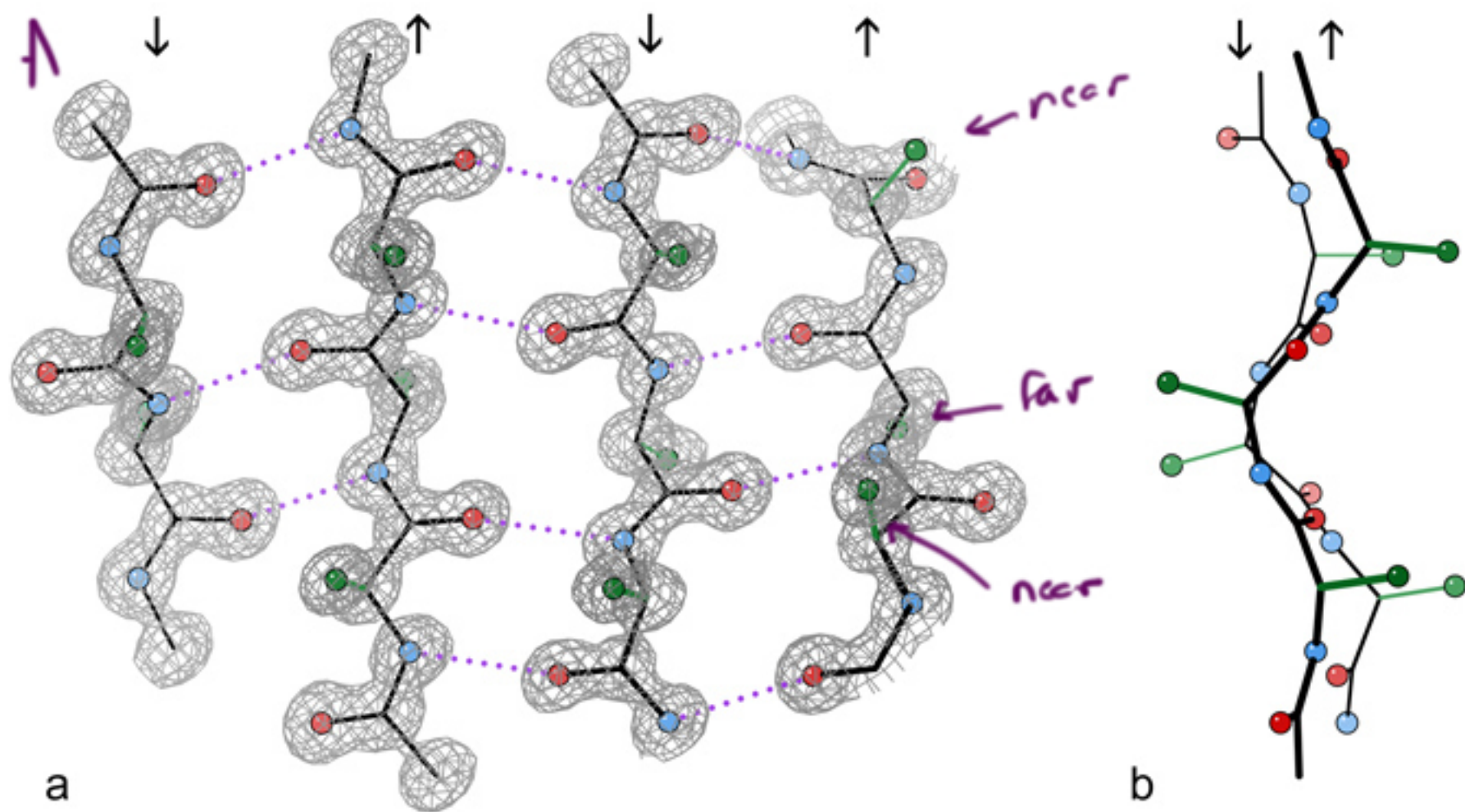


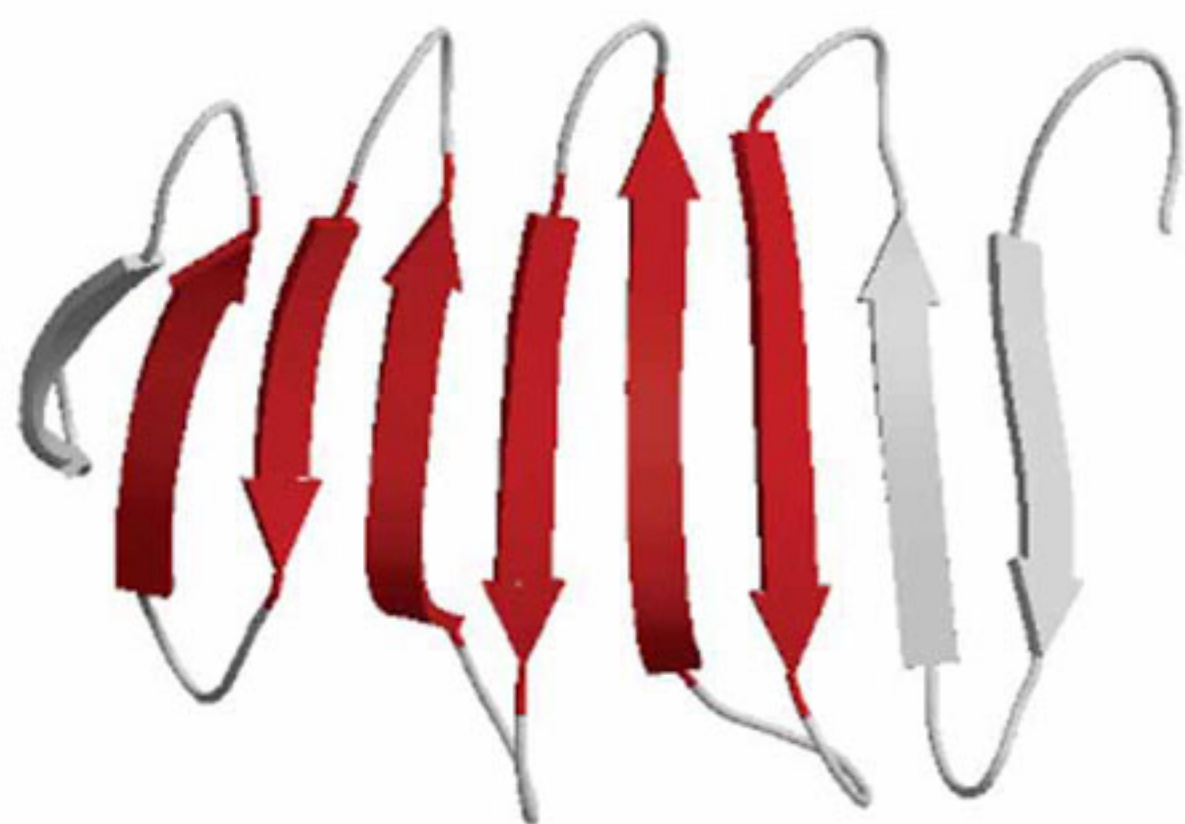
parallel



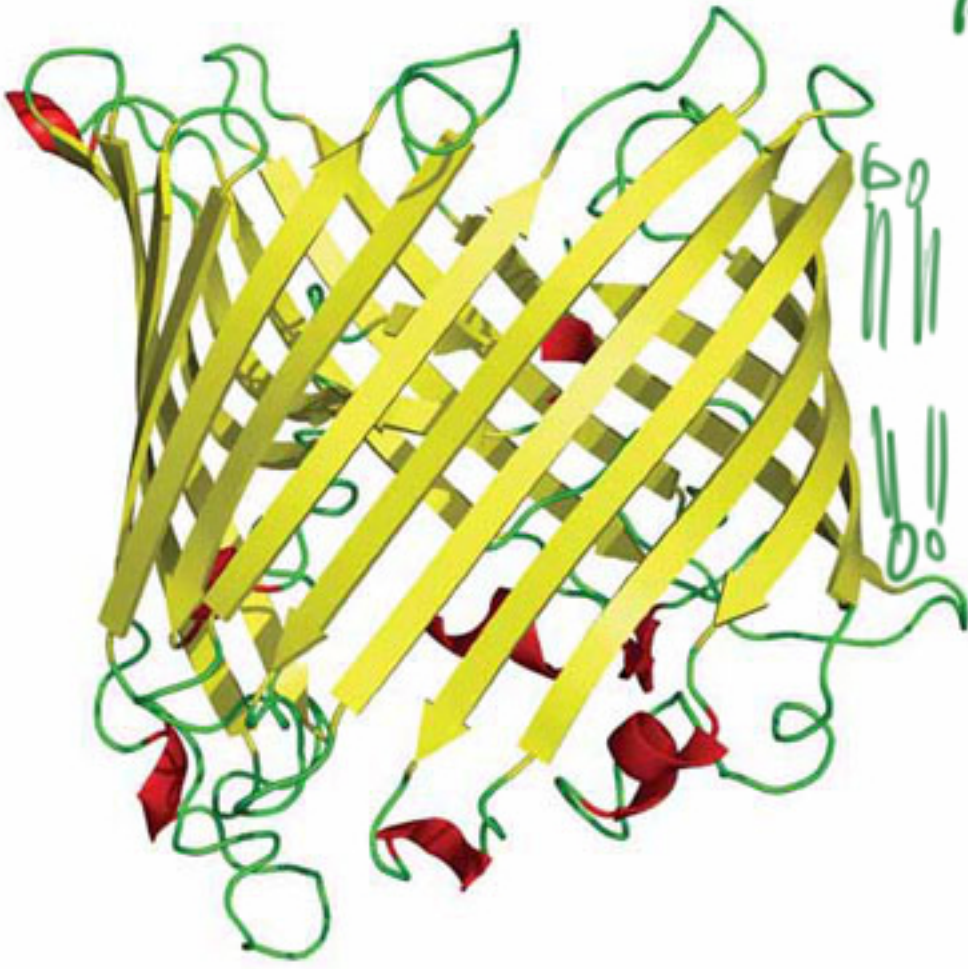
antiparallel







β Barrels

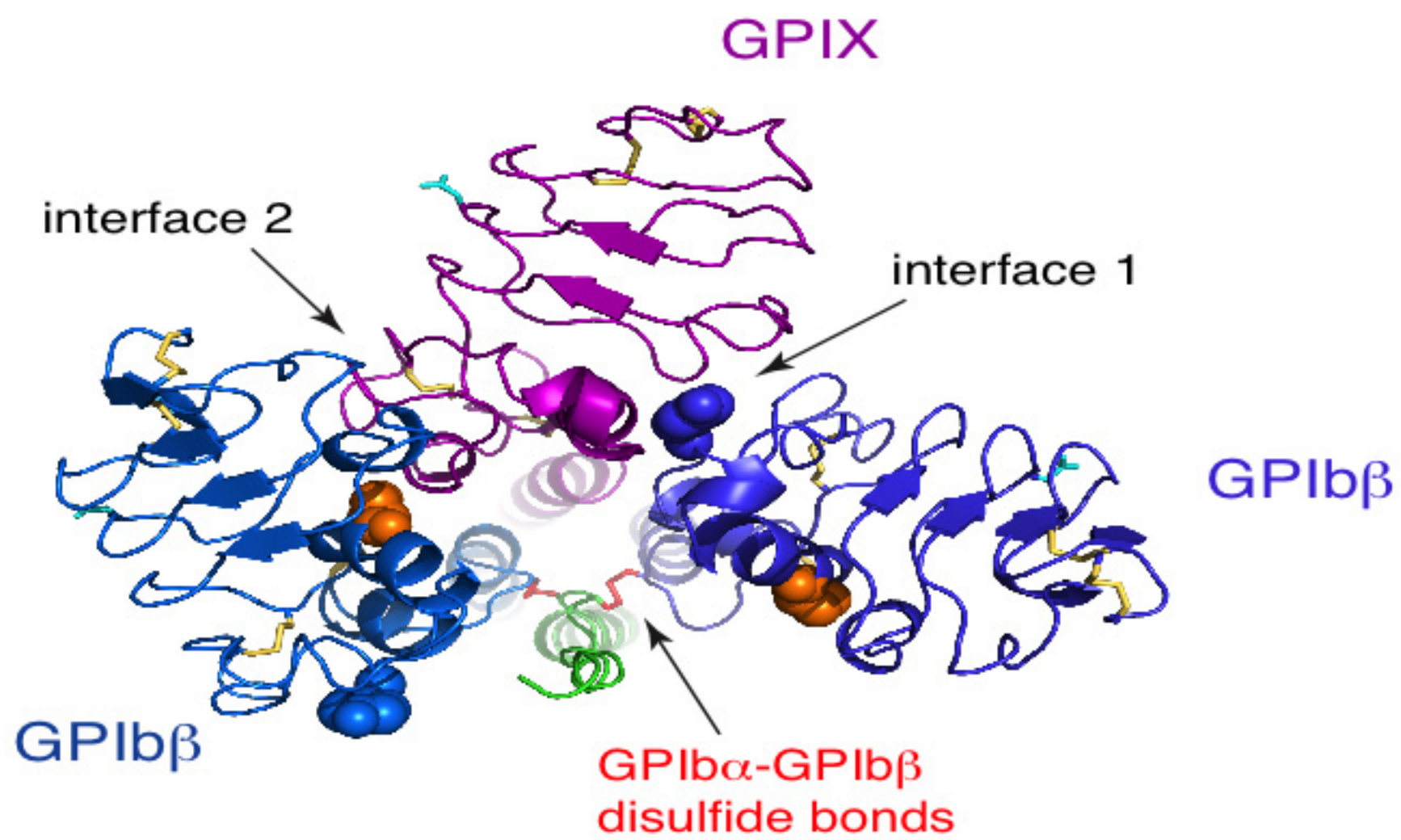


Porin

Hydrophobic outside
Hydrophilic inside



Retinal
Binding
Protein



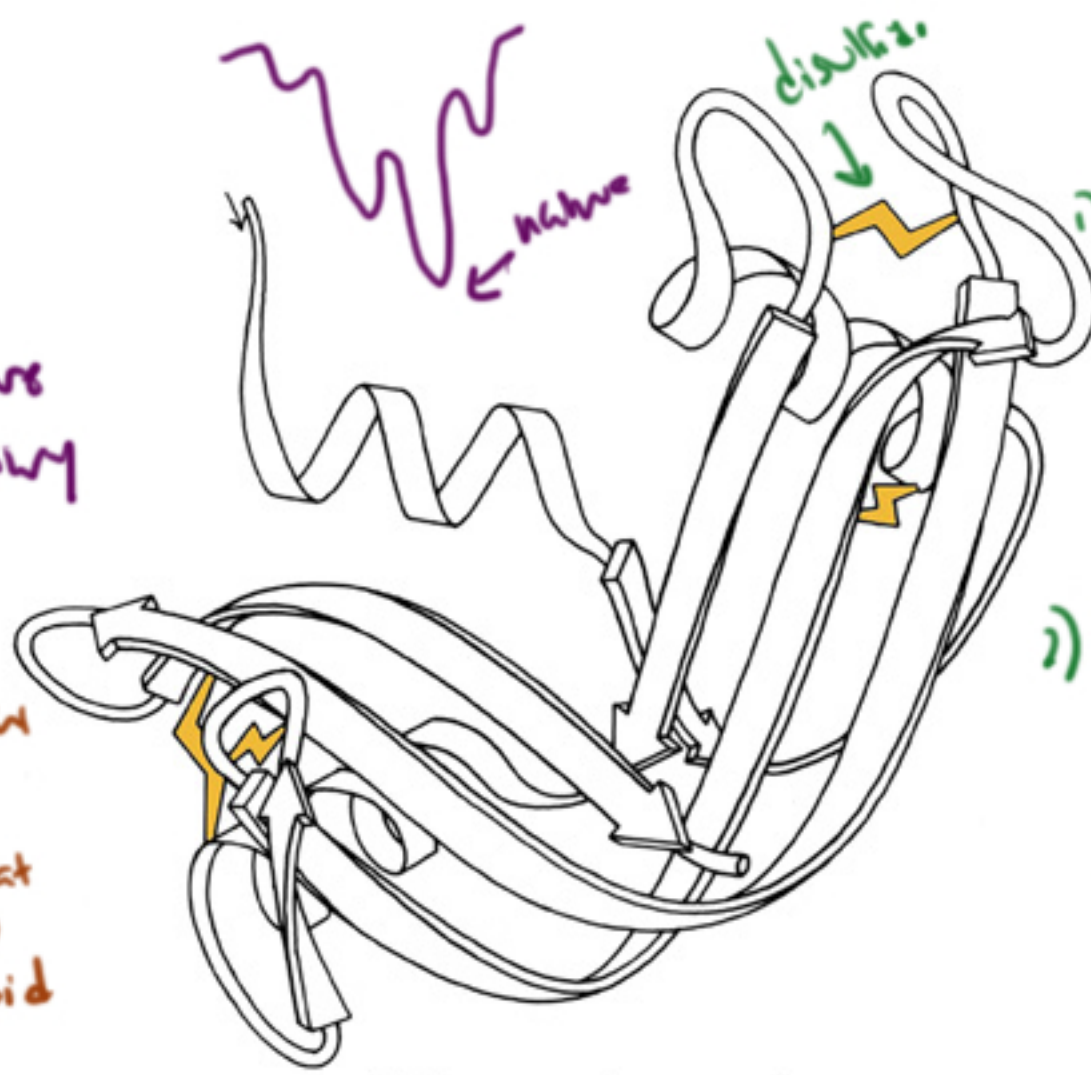
Anfinsen's Dogma

1) Primary structure
determines tertiary
structure.

- Exceptions -
- often proteins don't
refold
 - chaperones (heat
shock proteins)
 - prions & amyloid

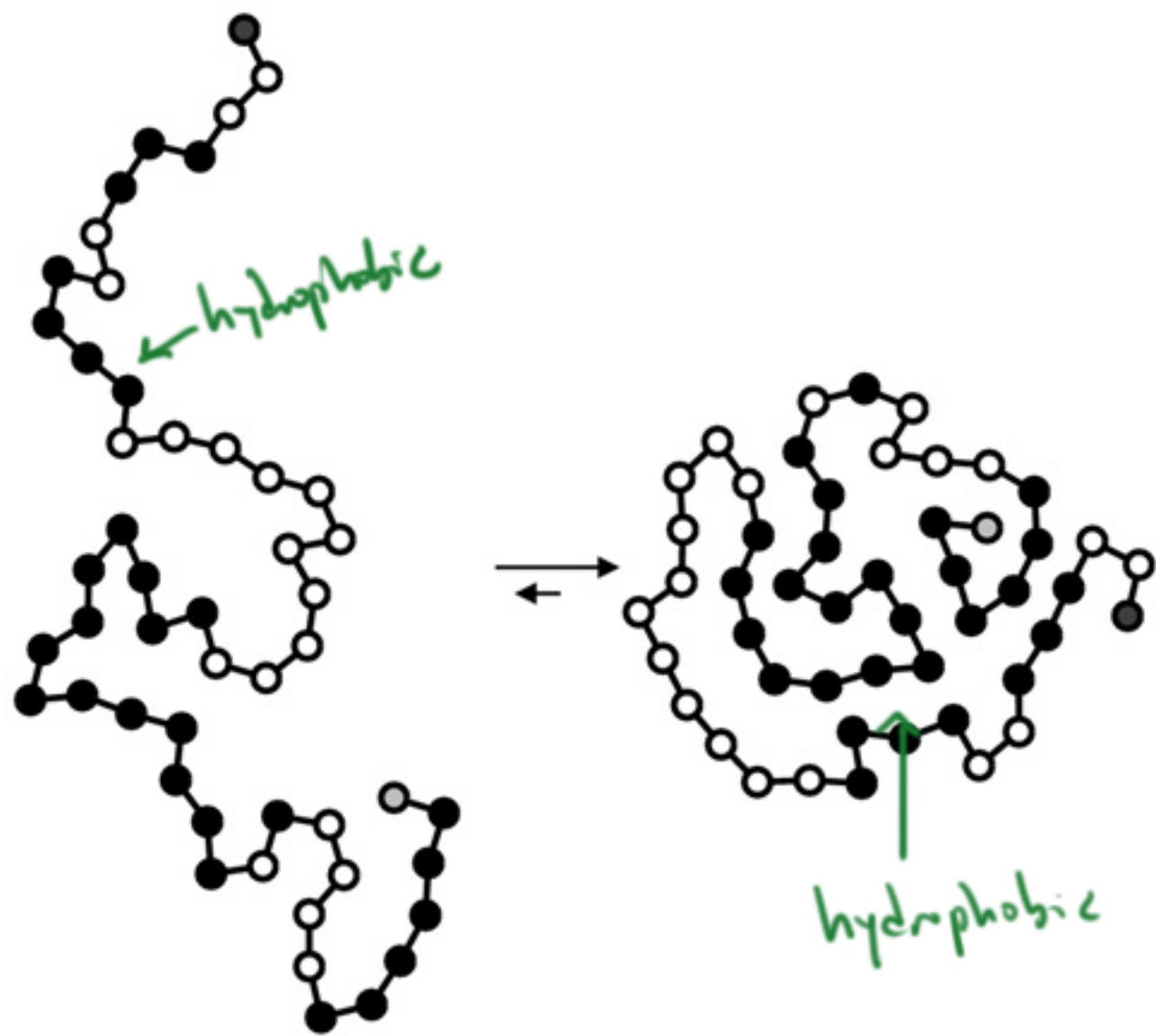


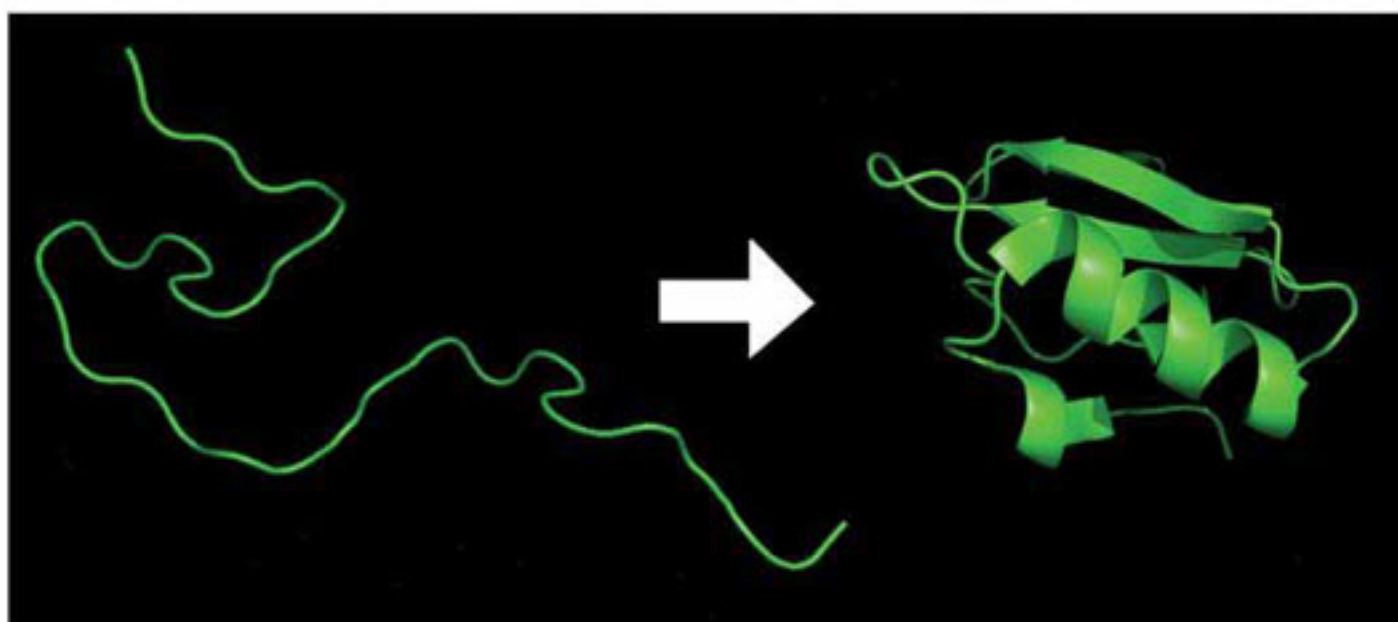
↑
urea is the
king of H bonding



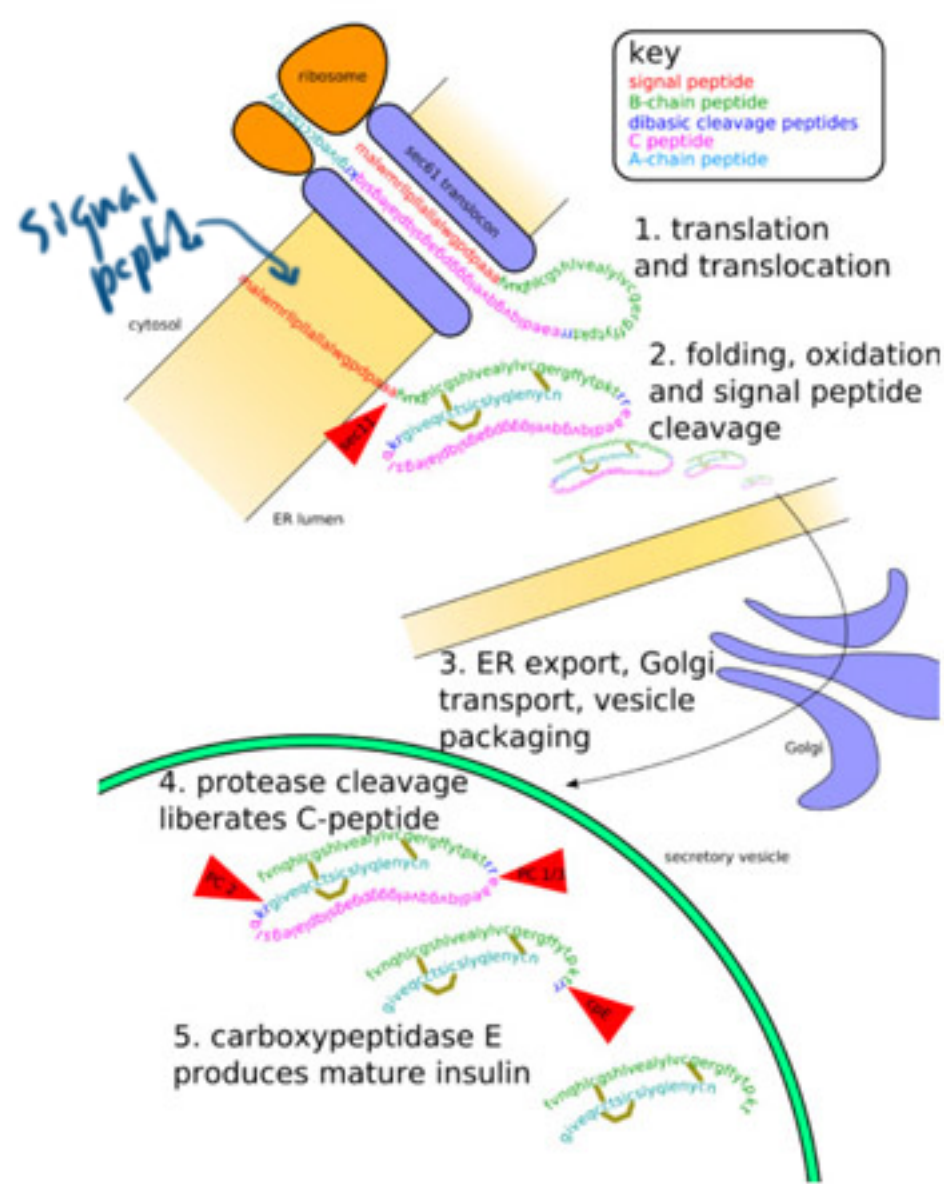
Ribonuclease A
cleaves RNA

- 1) Added urea and
β-mercaptoethanol
- enzyme lost
activity
- 2) Removed these by
dialysis -
activity was
regained

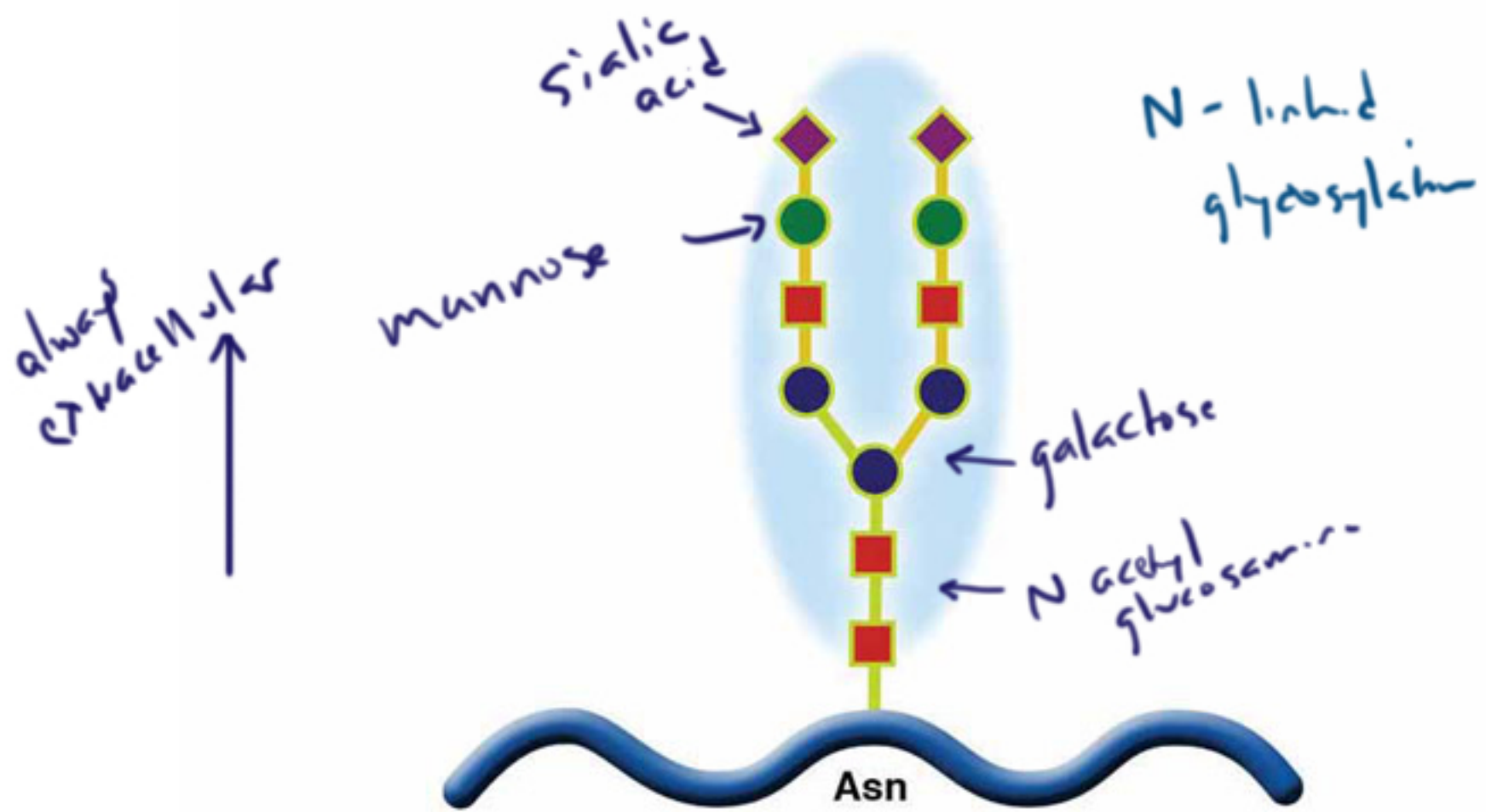




insulin
synthesis



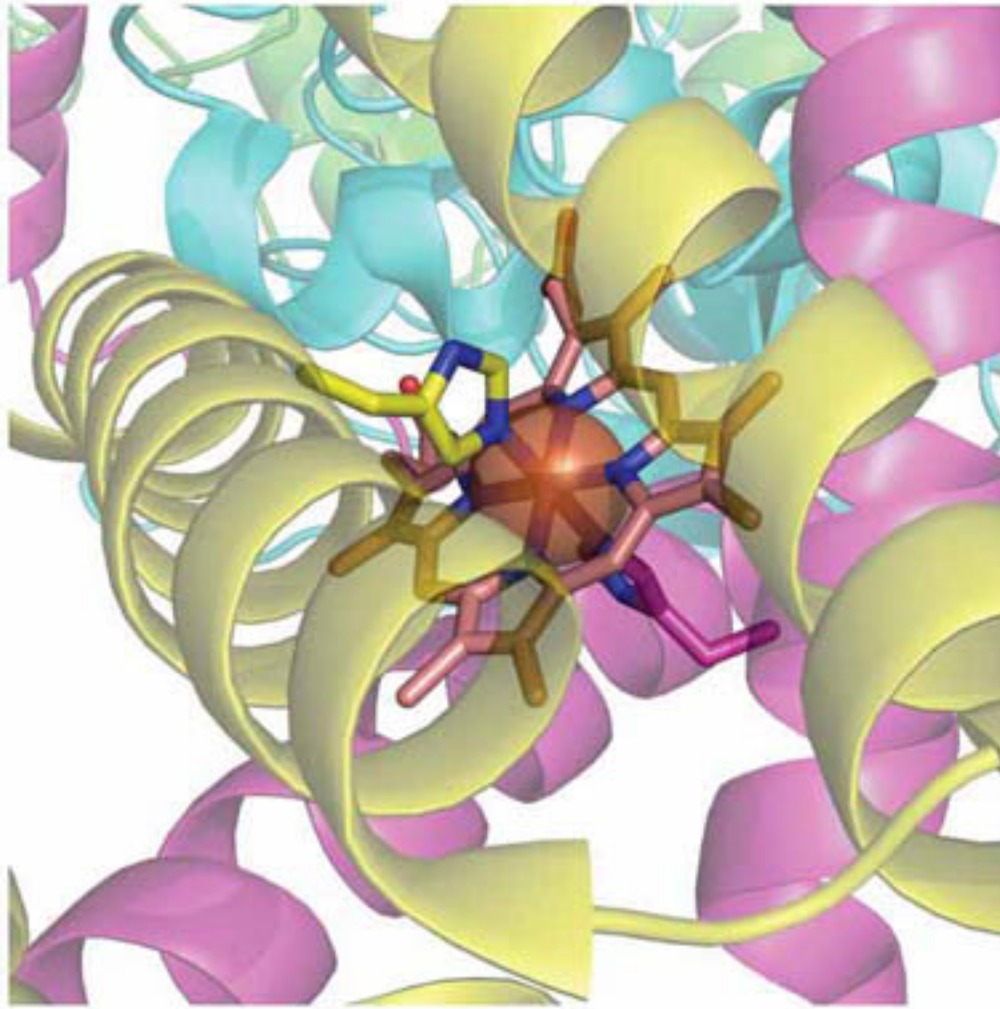
Post
translational
modification



Cofactors

organic cofactor
is called a
coenzyme

a permanently
attached cofactor
is a prosthetic
group.



Heme prosthetic group
in Complex II (succinate dehydrogenase)

The Protein Lab

- separation & purification
- preparative or analytical

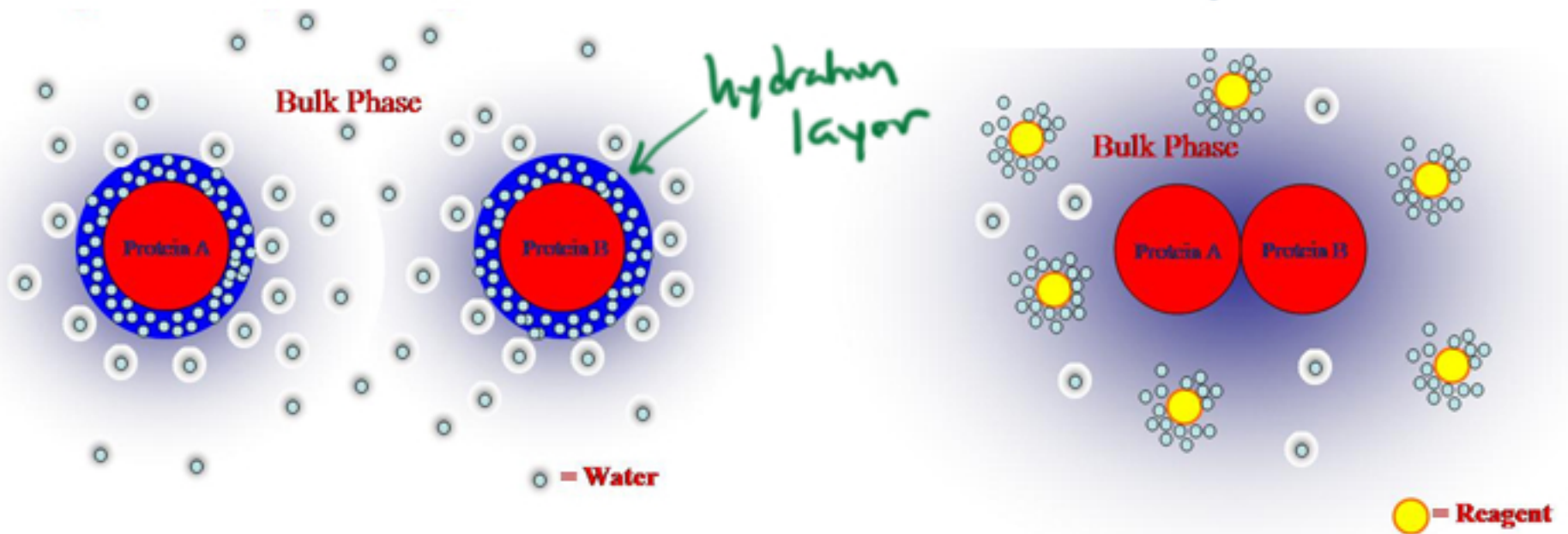


Centrifugation



- low speed - nuclei
- medium mitochondria, ribosomes
- high speed membranes

Protein Precipitation



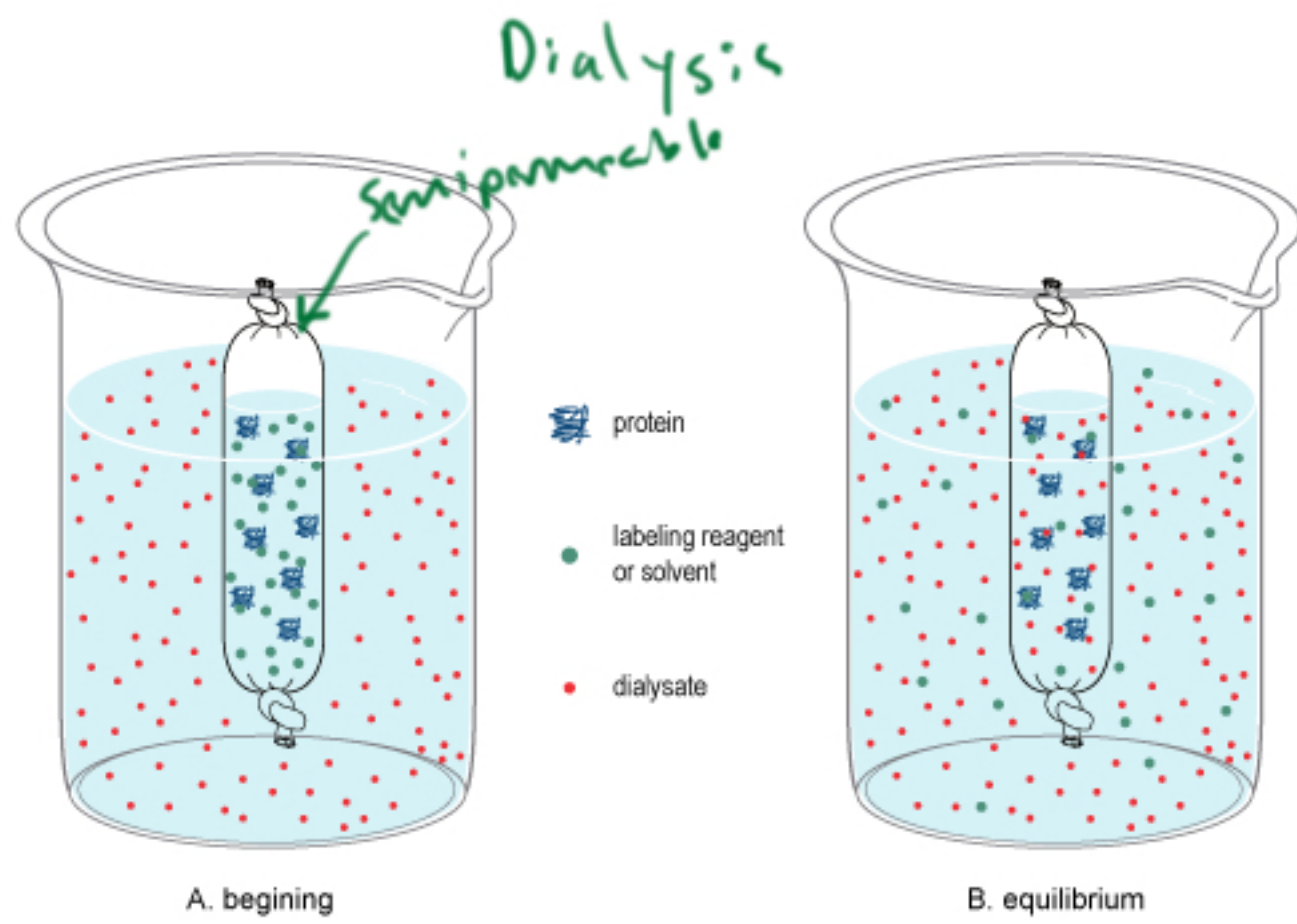
Hofmeister Series

$F^- \approx SO_4^{2-} > HPO_4^{2-} > \text{acetate} > Cl^- > NO_3^- > Br^- > ClO_3^- > I^- > ClO_4^- > SCN^-$
 $NH_4^+ > K^+ > Na^+ > Li^+ > Mg^{2+} > Ca^{2+} > \text{guanidinium}$

←
chaotropic

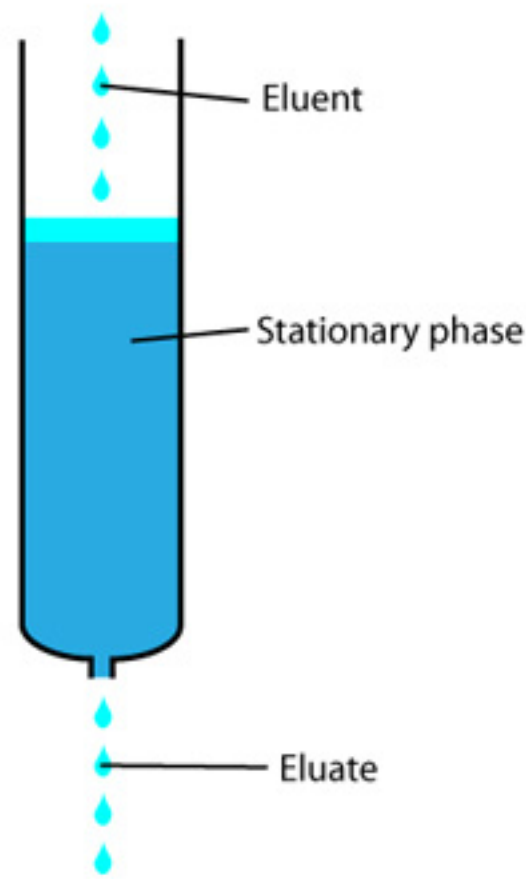


• enthalpy of hydration
 → • entropic penalty
 Na⁺



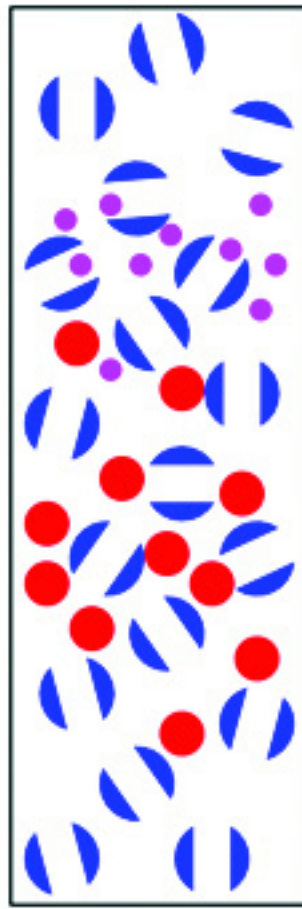
Chromatography

- mobile phase and a stationary phase



- Column chromatography
 - size exclusion (gel filtration)
 - ion exchange
 - affinity chromatography
- TLC - thin layer and paper
 - TLC - silicate stationary phase (hydrophilic)
 - mobile phase - most often hexane
- HPLC

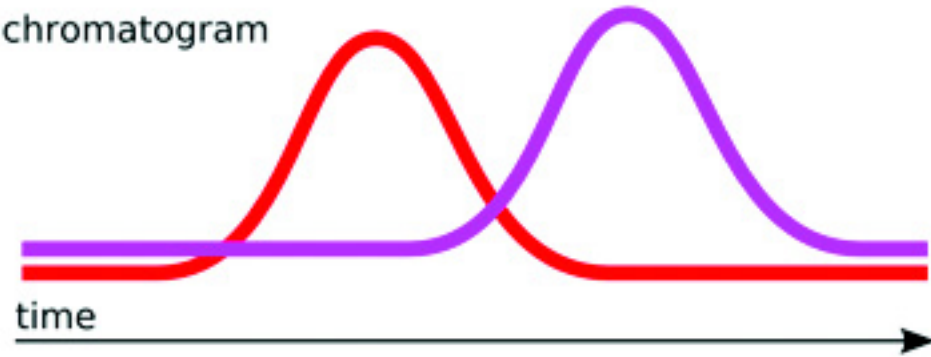
size exclusion chromatography



Large particles cannot enter gel and are excluded. They have less volume to traverse and elute sooner.

Small particles can enter gel and have more volume to traverse. They elute later.

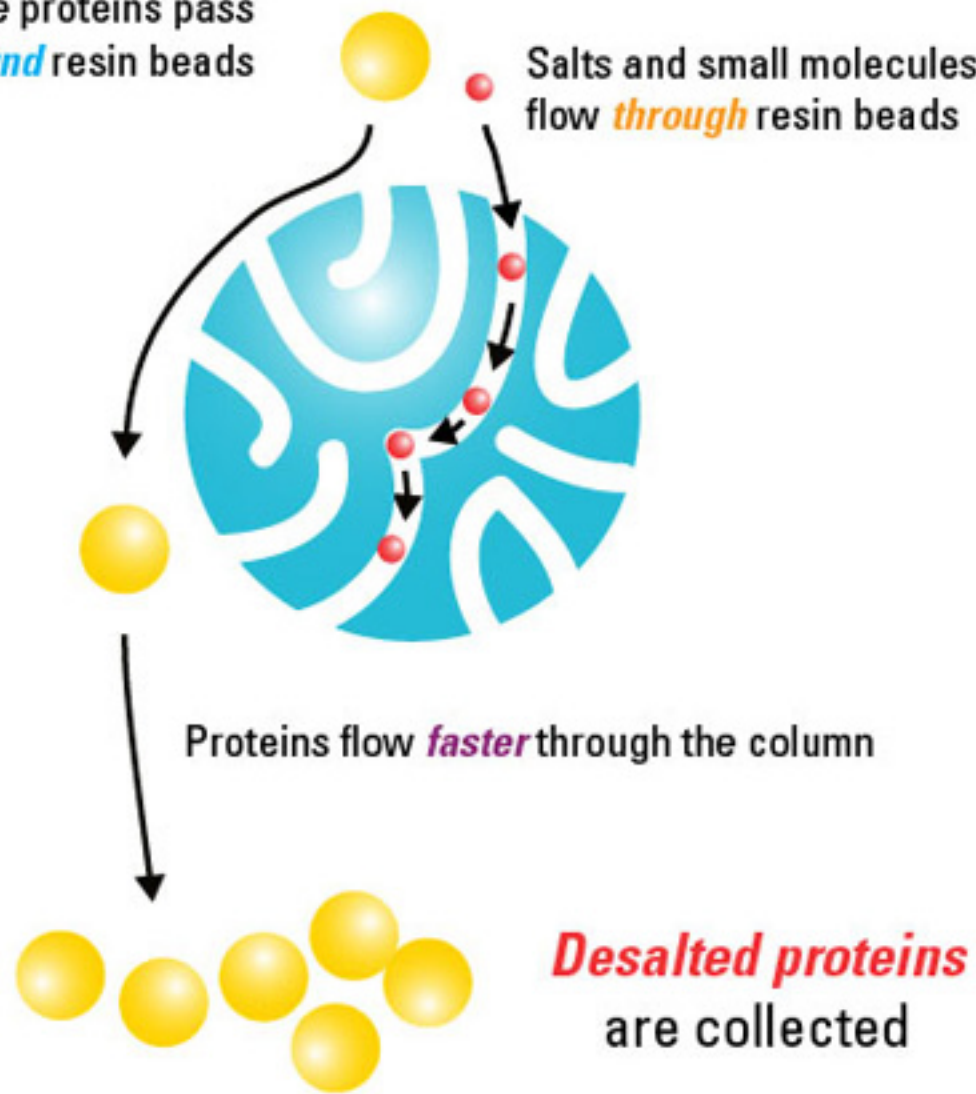
chromatogram



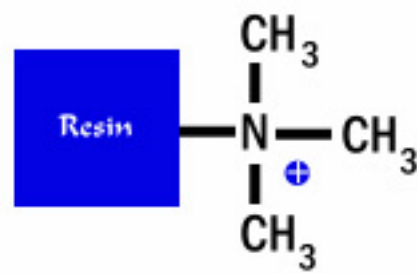
Large samples have a lower retention time.

Sample proteins pass
around resin beads

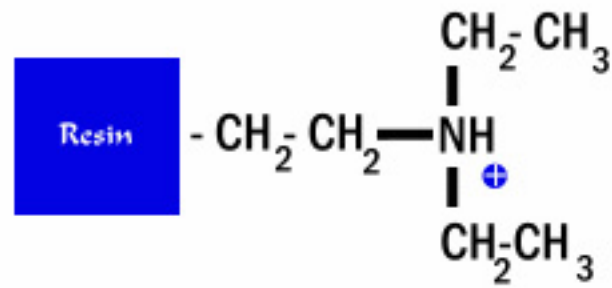
Salts and small molecules
flow *through* resin beads



ion exchange



Q-anion exchanger



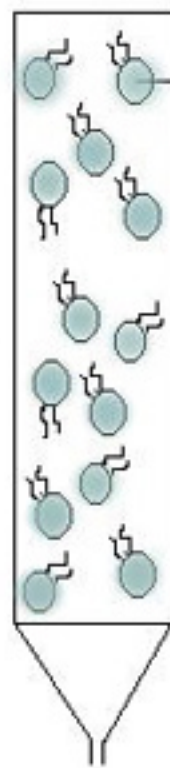
DEAE-anion exchanger

An anion exchange resin is positively charged
use with a gradient elution buffer
such as 0.01 M NaCl $\longrightarrow$ 1.0 M

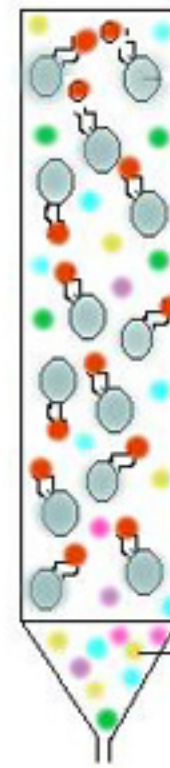
affinity chromatography



The pool of protein containing target protein



beads containing covalently attached glucose residues



glucose-binding target protein

other proteins travel down the column and be separated



glucose binds the target protein cleave it from the residues

A concentrated solution of glucose then is added

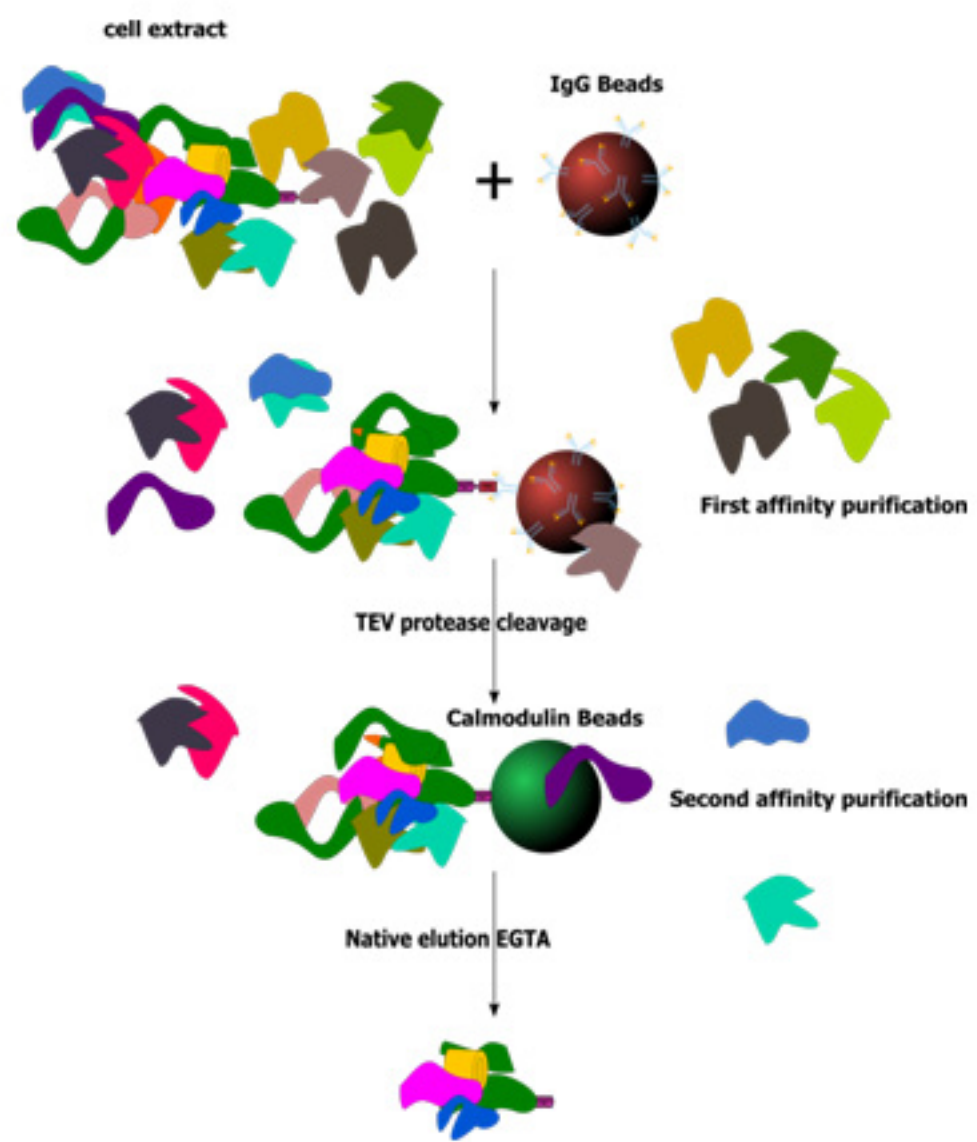


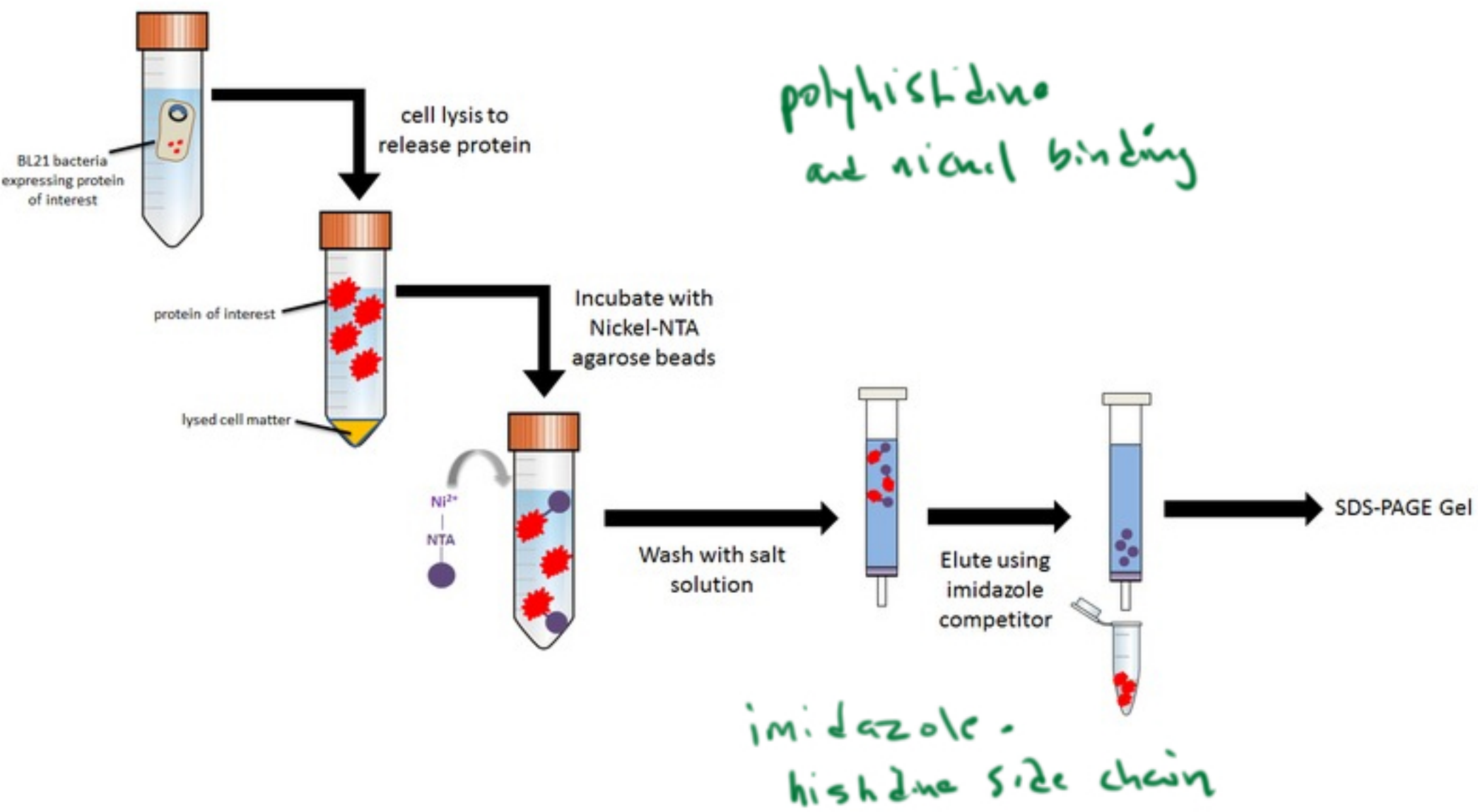
The demonstration of the steps in Affinity Chromatography

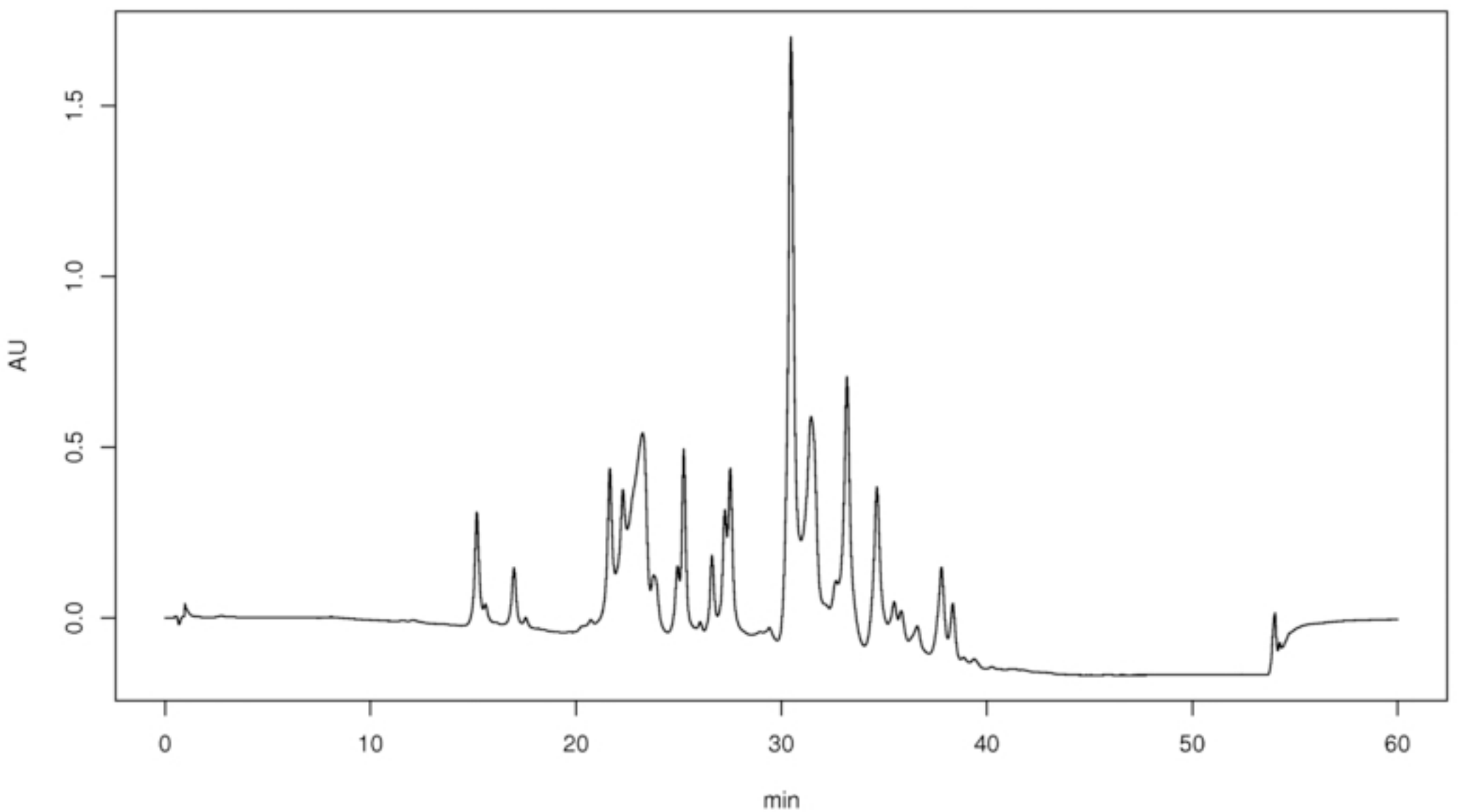
- polyhistidine tail with nickel coated beads



- biotinylation with avidin coated beads

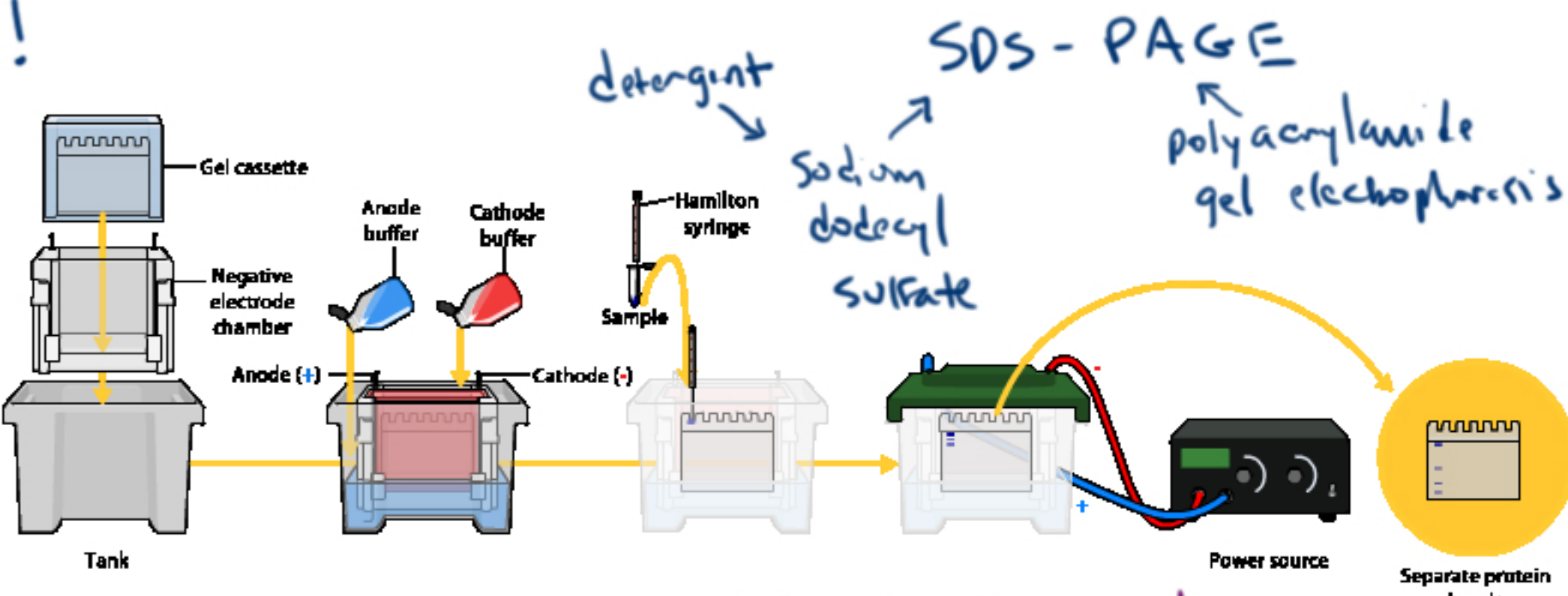






HPLC - high performance
liquid chromatography

- often using a gradient such as
100% acetonitrile $\rightarrow$ 100% water

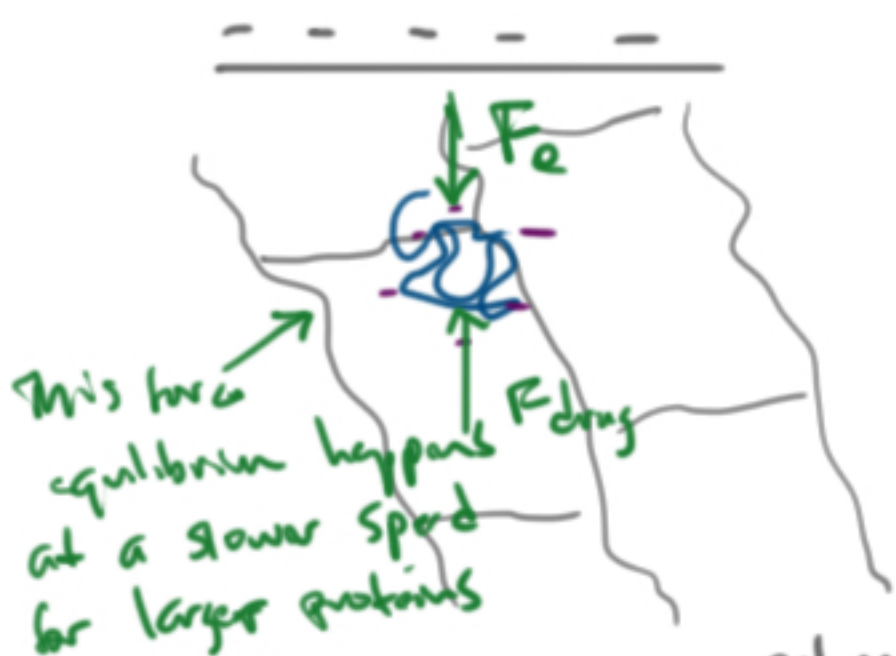


SDS - denatures and disrupts noncovalent interactions



SDS imparts a uniform charge to mass ratio

- denaturing gel - with SDS
- native gel - without SDS
- ALSO - reducing gel uses β mercaptoethanol in the loading buffer

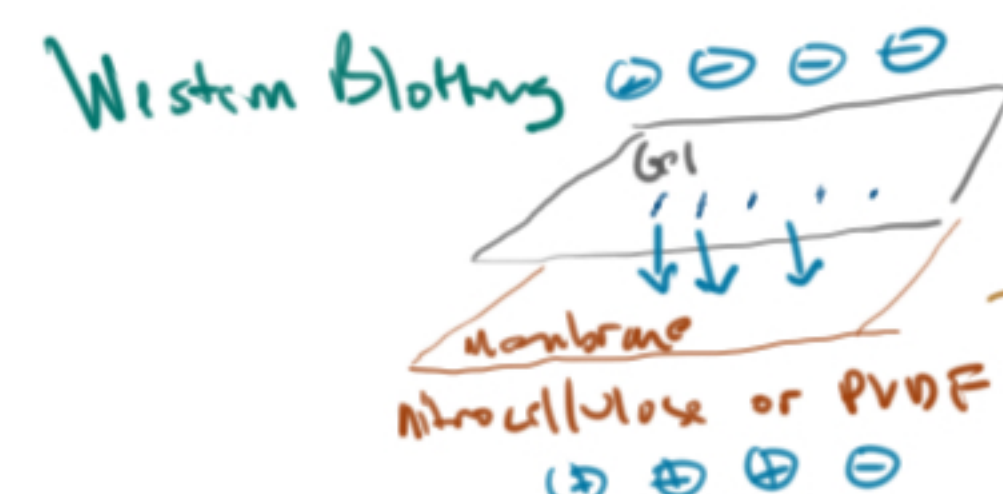


Separates by size

hydrophilic mesh perfused with buffer ions.

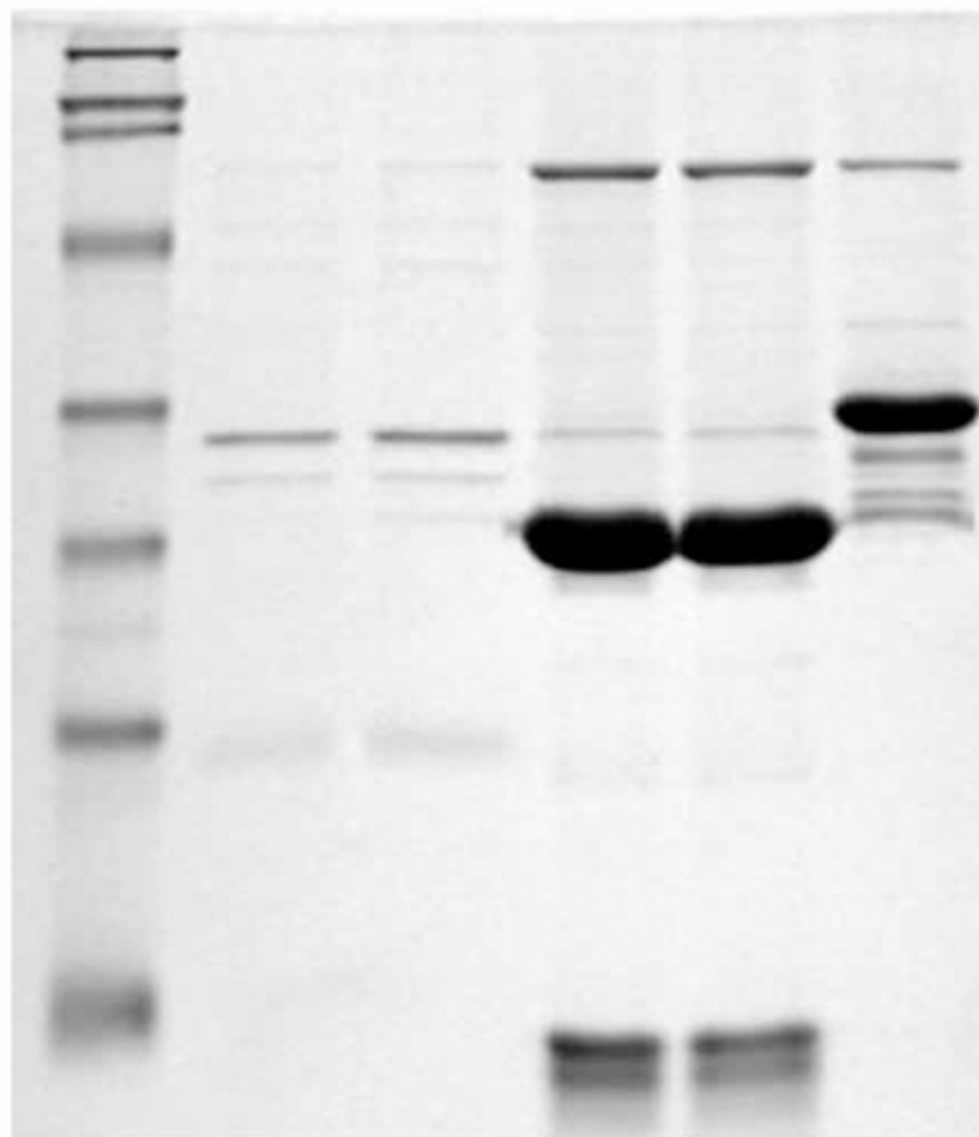
Post electrophoresis - staining or sample recovery - crush and soak electroelution

Western - Protein
 Blotting - Southern - DNA
 Northern - RNA



110 kD

15 kD



↑
MW ladder

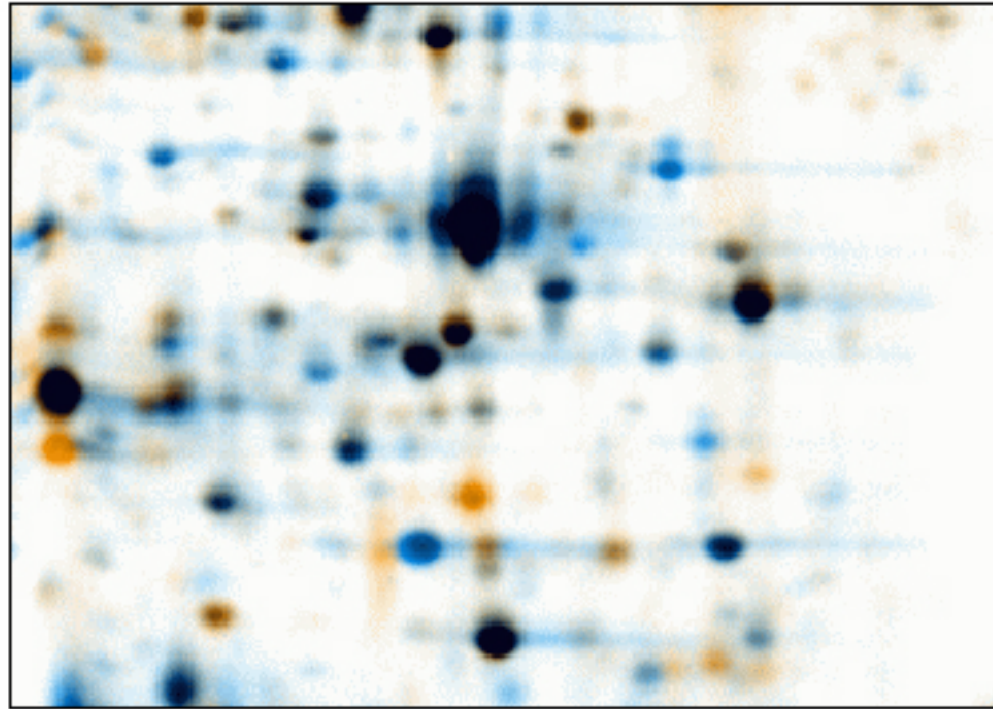
1 Dalton = 1 amu

1 kD = 1000 Daltons

1 kD ~ 9 residues

isoelectric focusing
 low pI (+) $\text{H}_2\text{N}^+\text{R}\text{COO}^-$ $\leftarrow$ $\text{H}_2\text{N}^+\text{R}\text{COO}^-$ $\rightarrow$ high pI

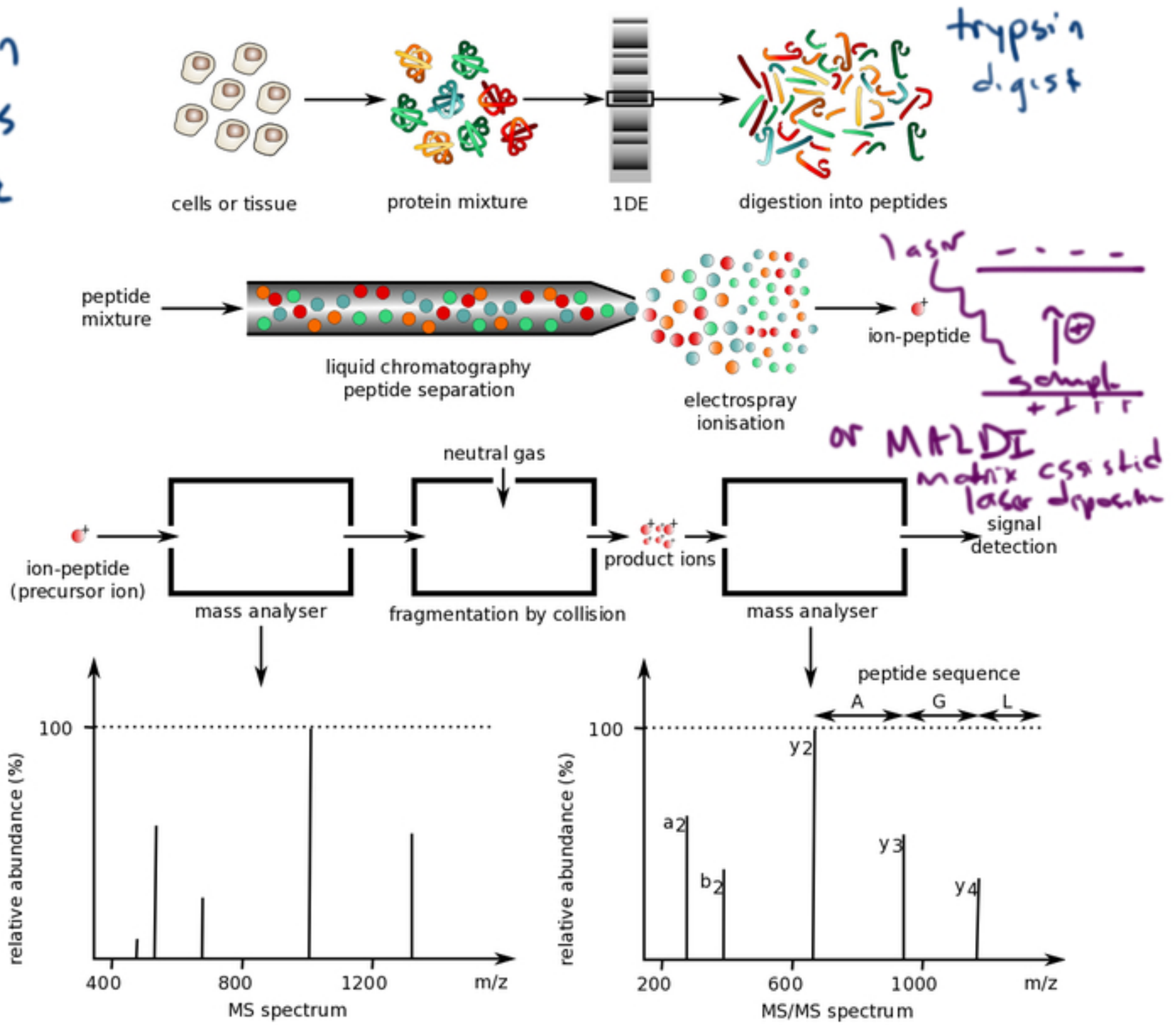
2nd
 dimension
 normal
 electrophoresis
 ↓



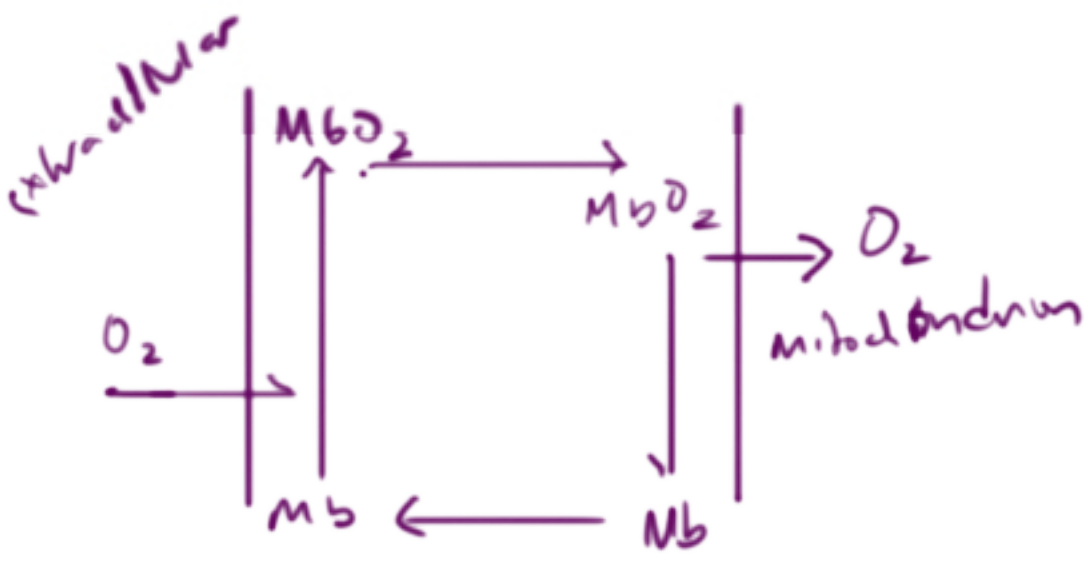
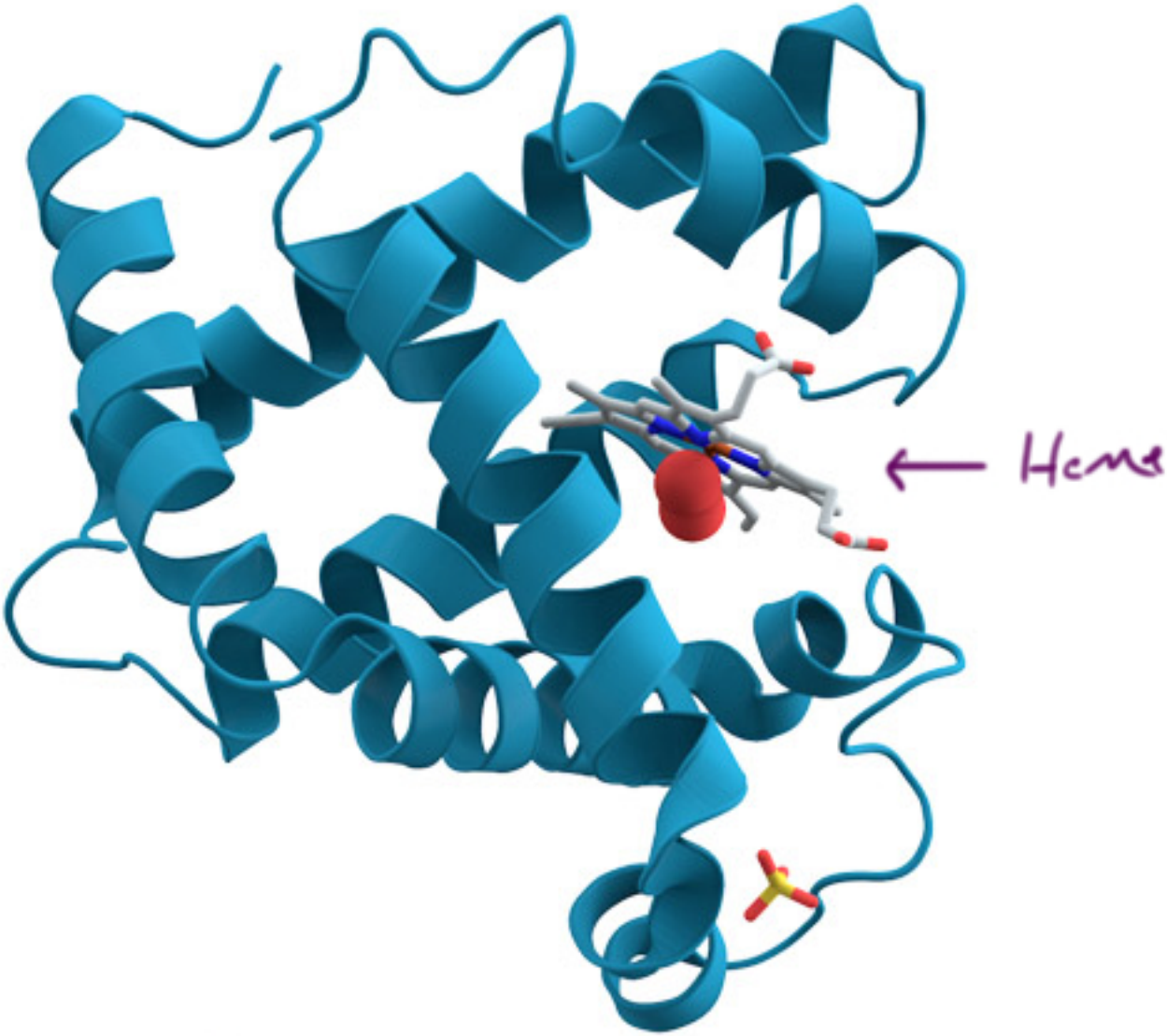
Two Dimensional Electrophoresis

(actually two 2-D gels superimposed
 one stained blue, one stained orange)

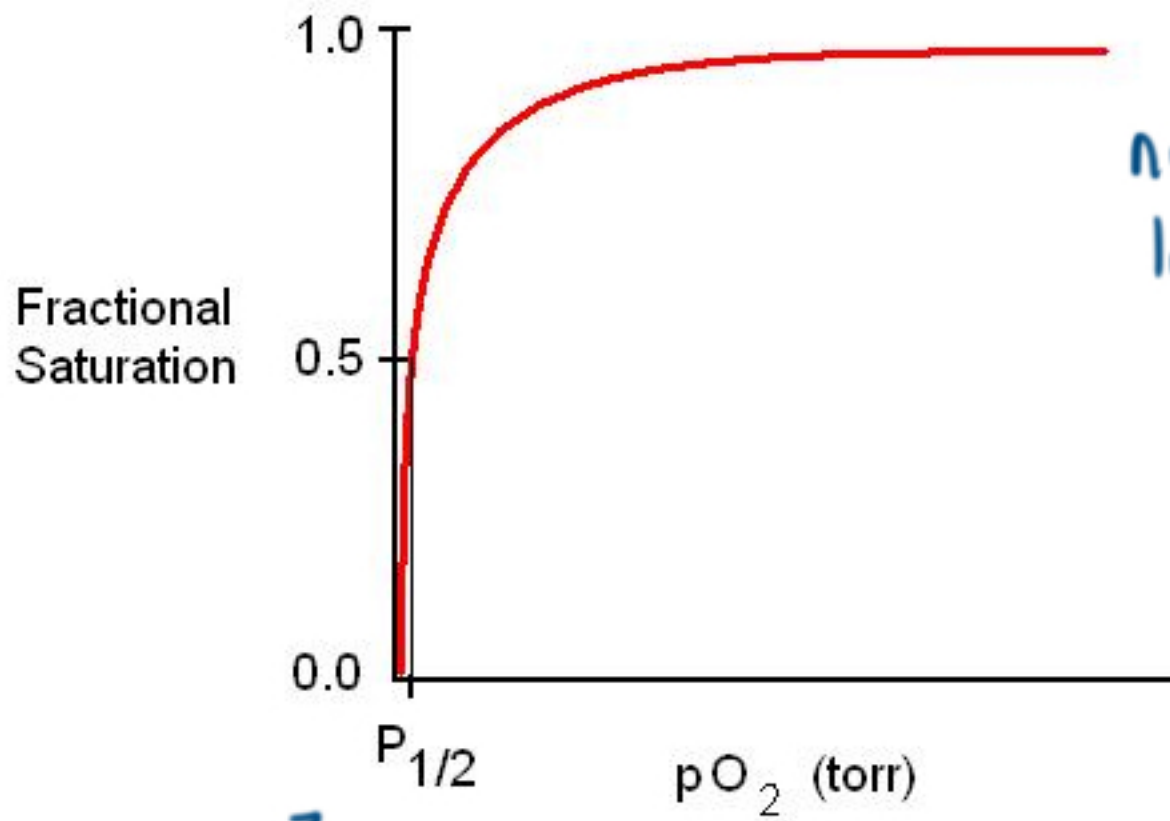
Protein Mass Spec



Myoglobin



Oxygen binding by Myoglobin



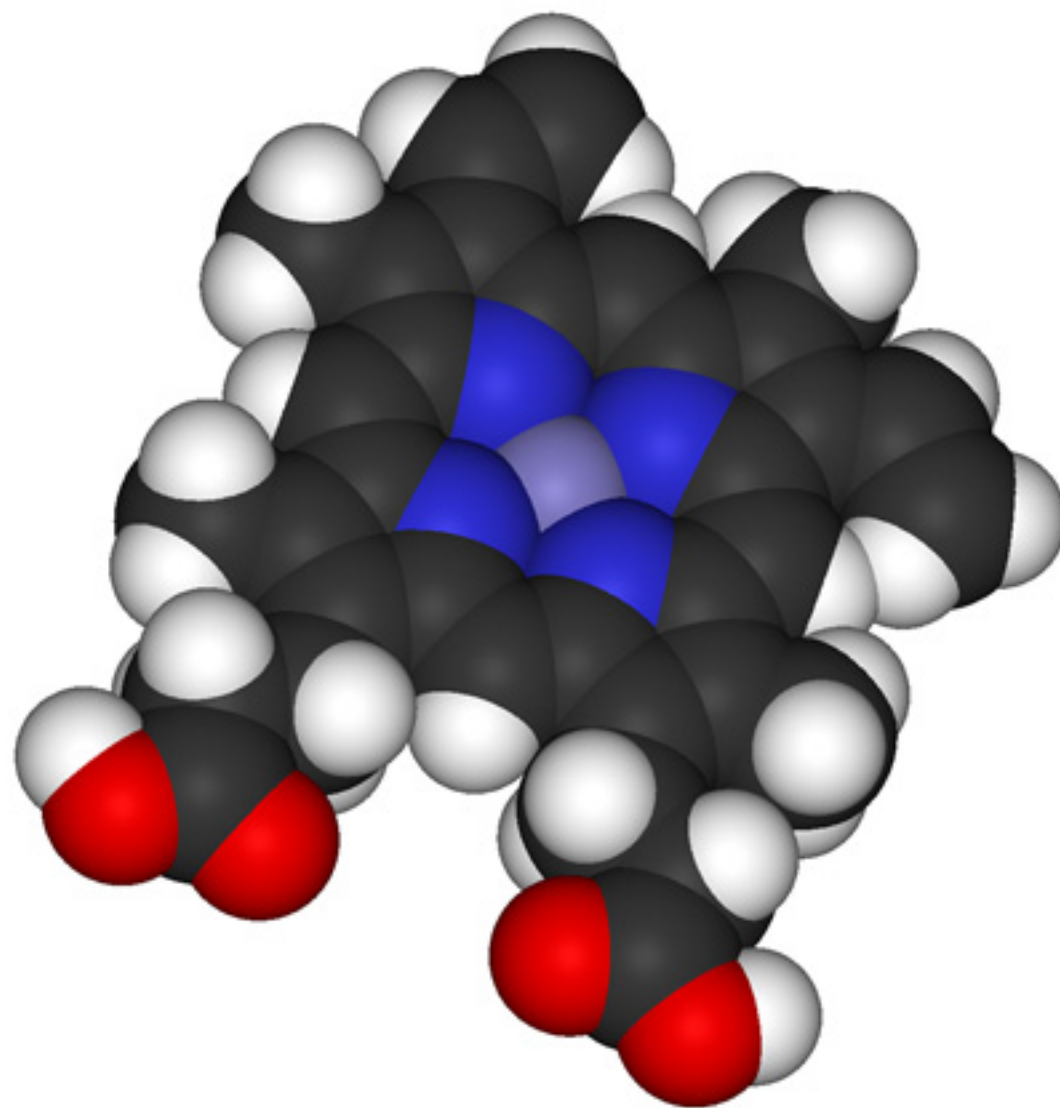
not sigmoidal
like hemoglobin

2.75 torr

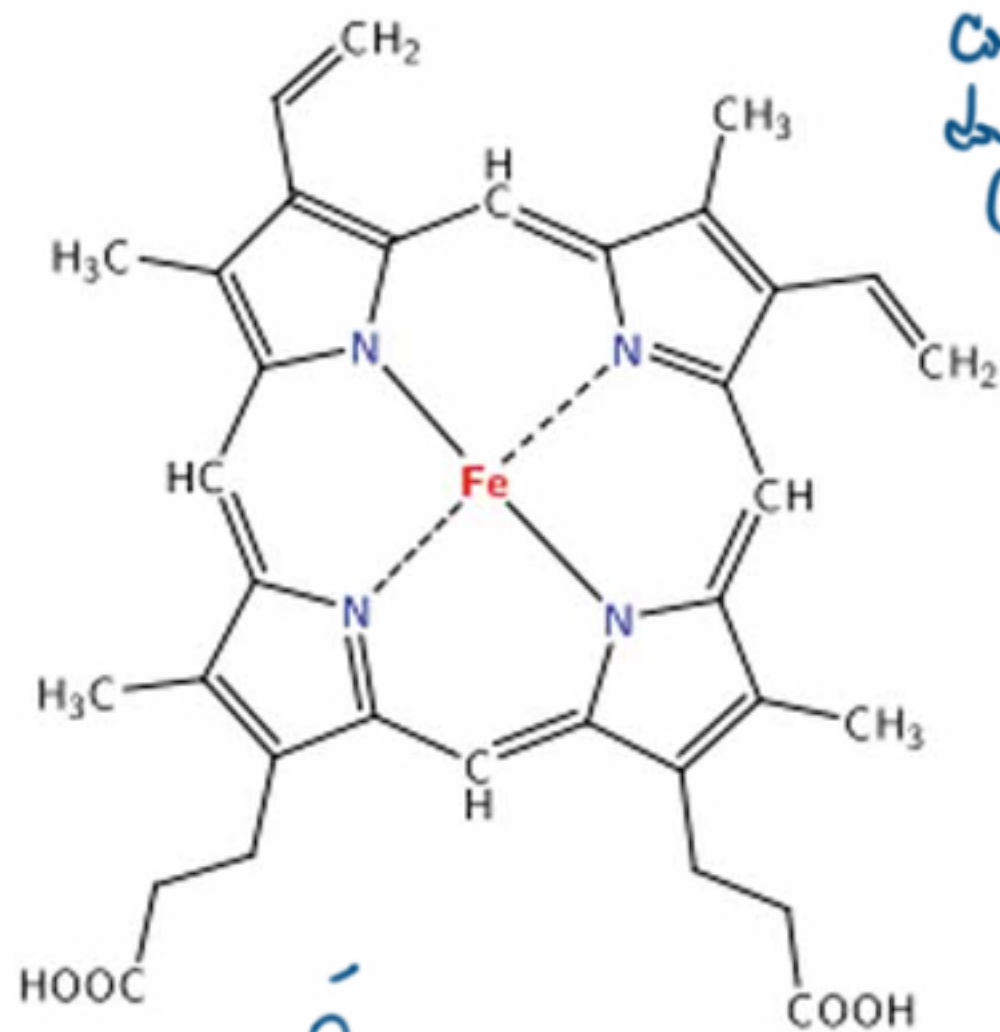
P_{50}

← concentration at
half saturation

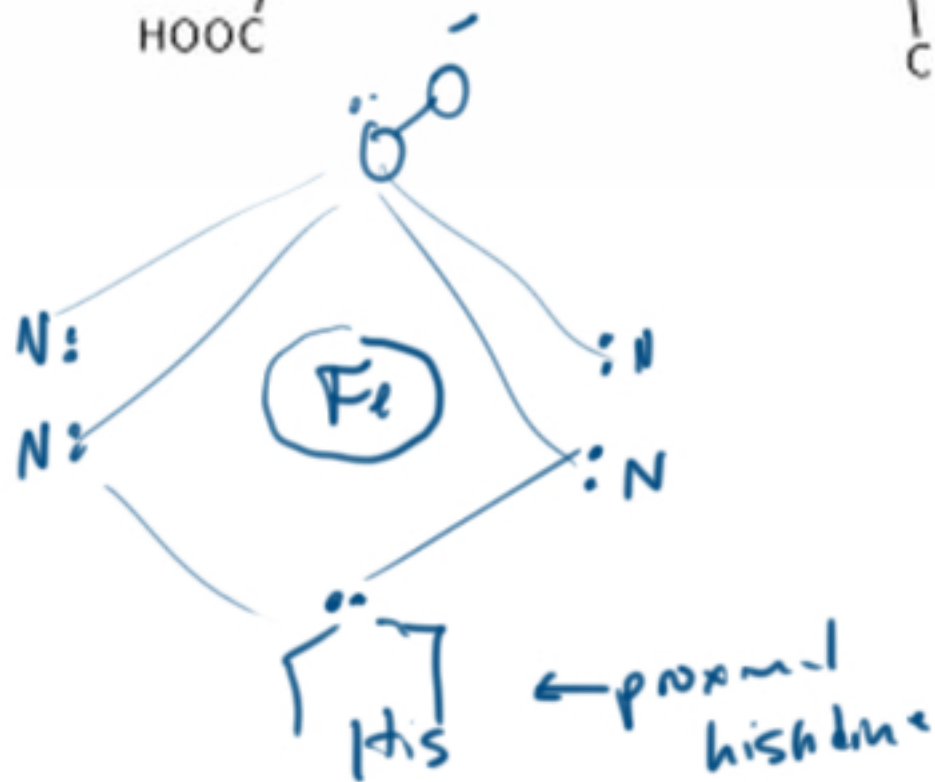
with hemoglobin
 $P_{50} \approx 27$ torr



Heme =
porphyrin
+
iron



Conjugated double bonds (extensive) means it is a pigment

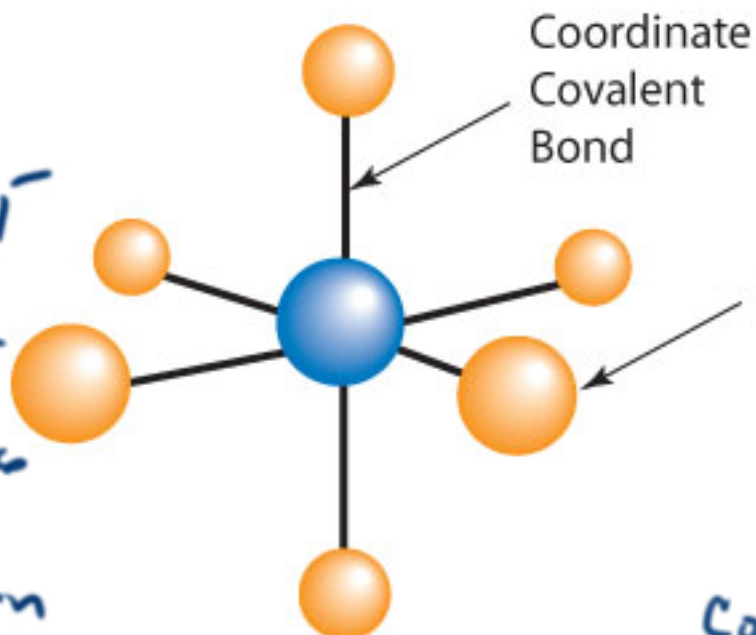


Coordination Complex

brief coordination chemistry primer



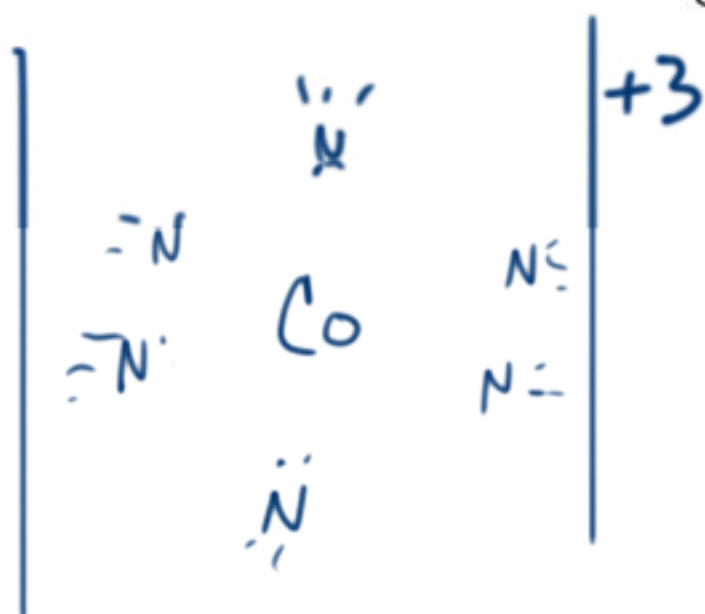
complex ion



Ligand ← Lewis base
H₂O, NH₃, Cl⁻
etc

Coordination Complex

Coordination # is
the # of electron
pairs involved.
(may be polydentate
ligands)



Complex ion

higher
energy



$d_{x^2-y^2}$

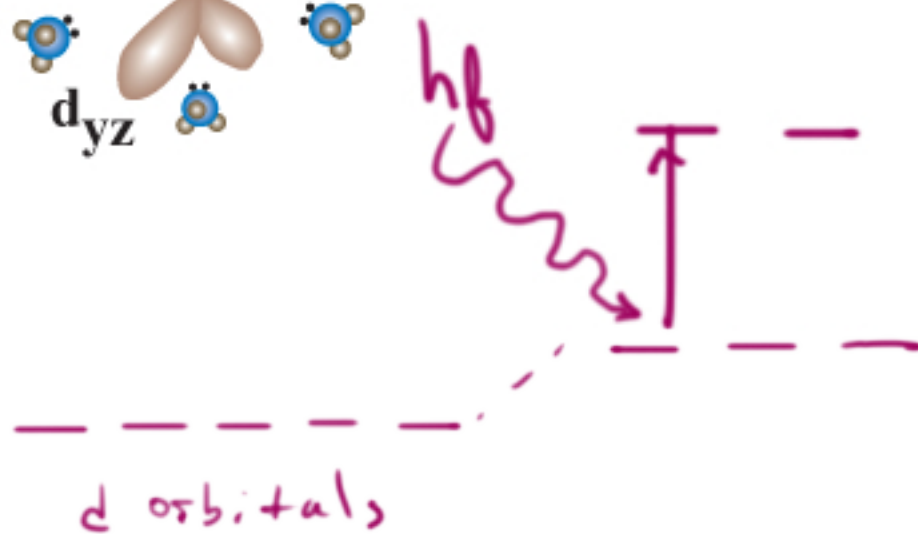
d_{z^2}

d_{xy}

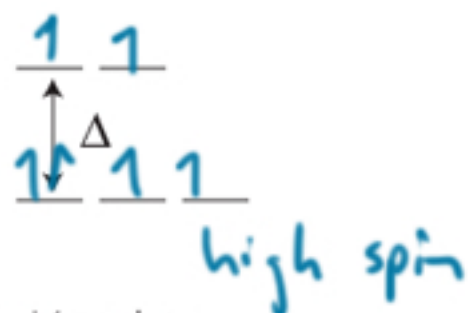
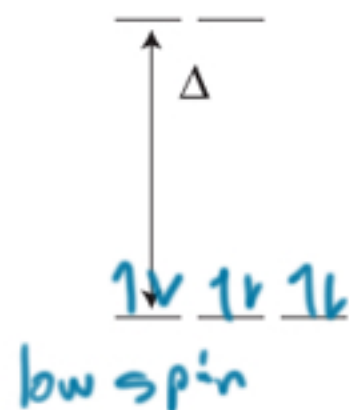
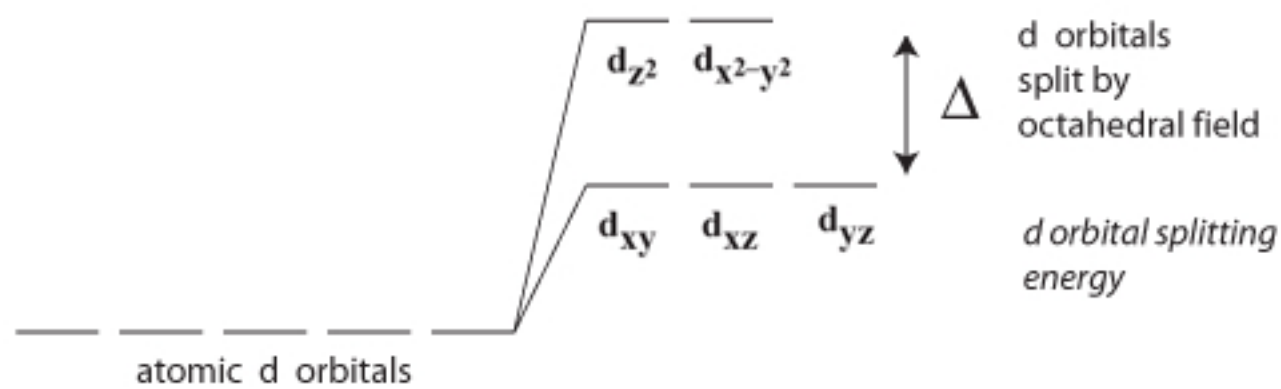
d_{xz}

d_{yz}

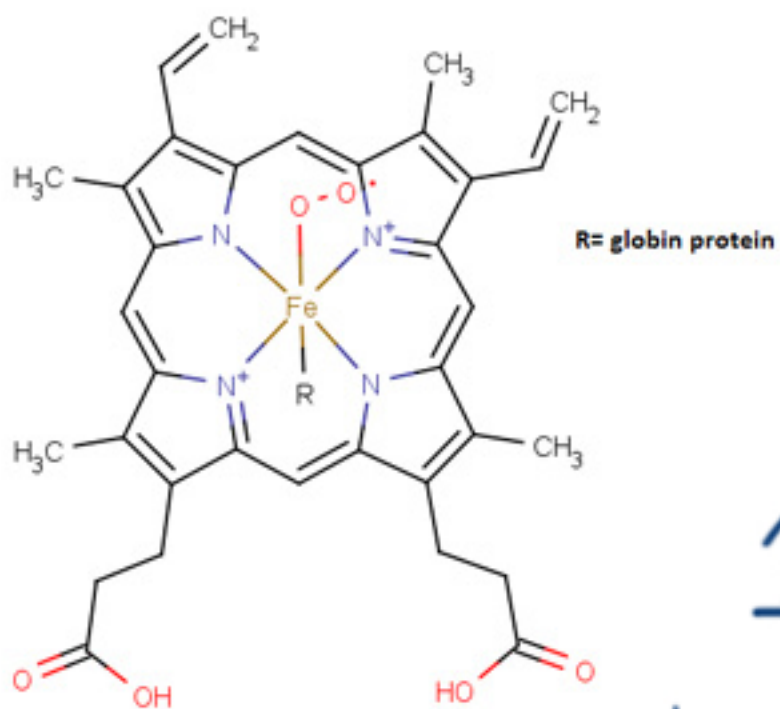
Coordination complexes are
often brightly colored



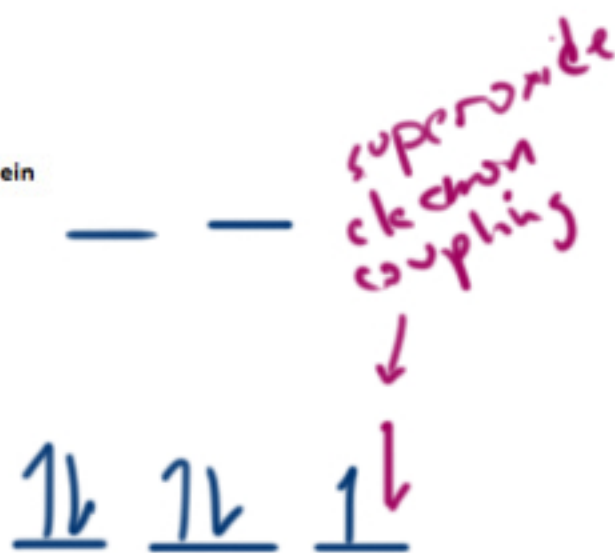
crystal field
splitting



High d orbital splitting energy leads to 'low spin' complexes

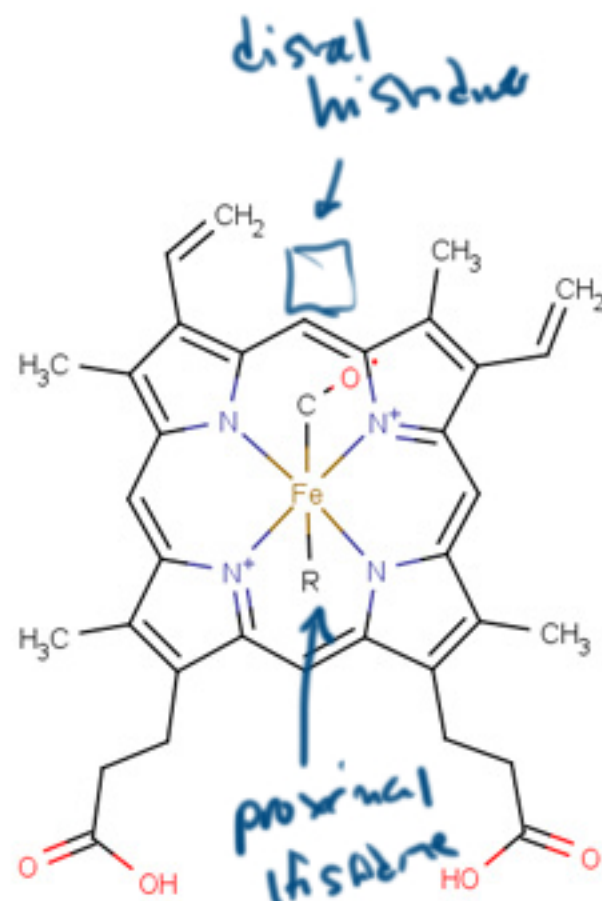


Oxyhemoglobin



In oxyhemoglobin
low spin Fe^{III}

- yet HbO₂ is diamagnetic

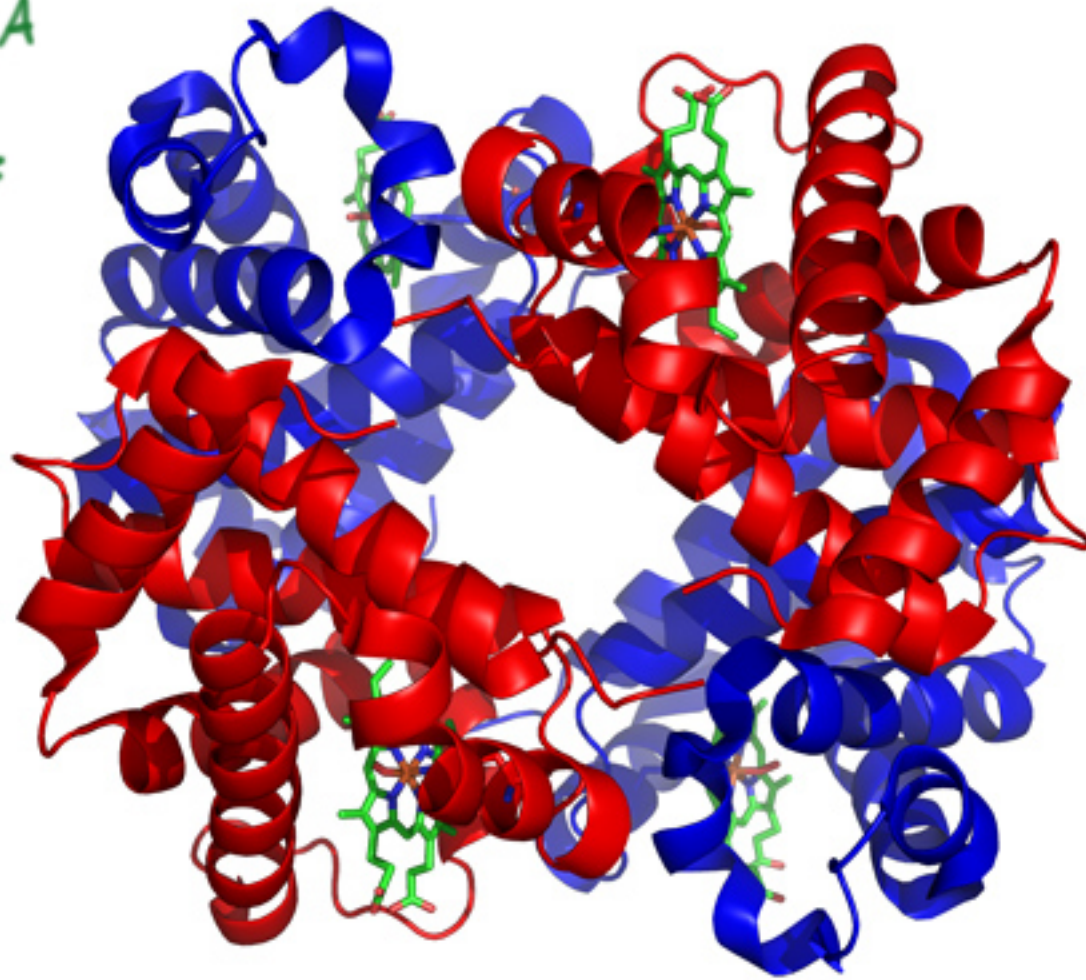


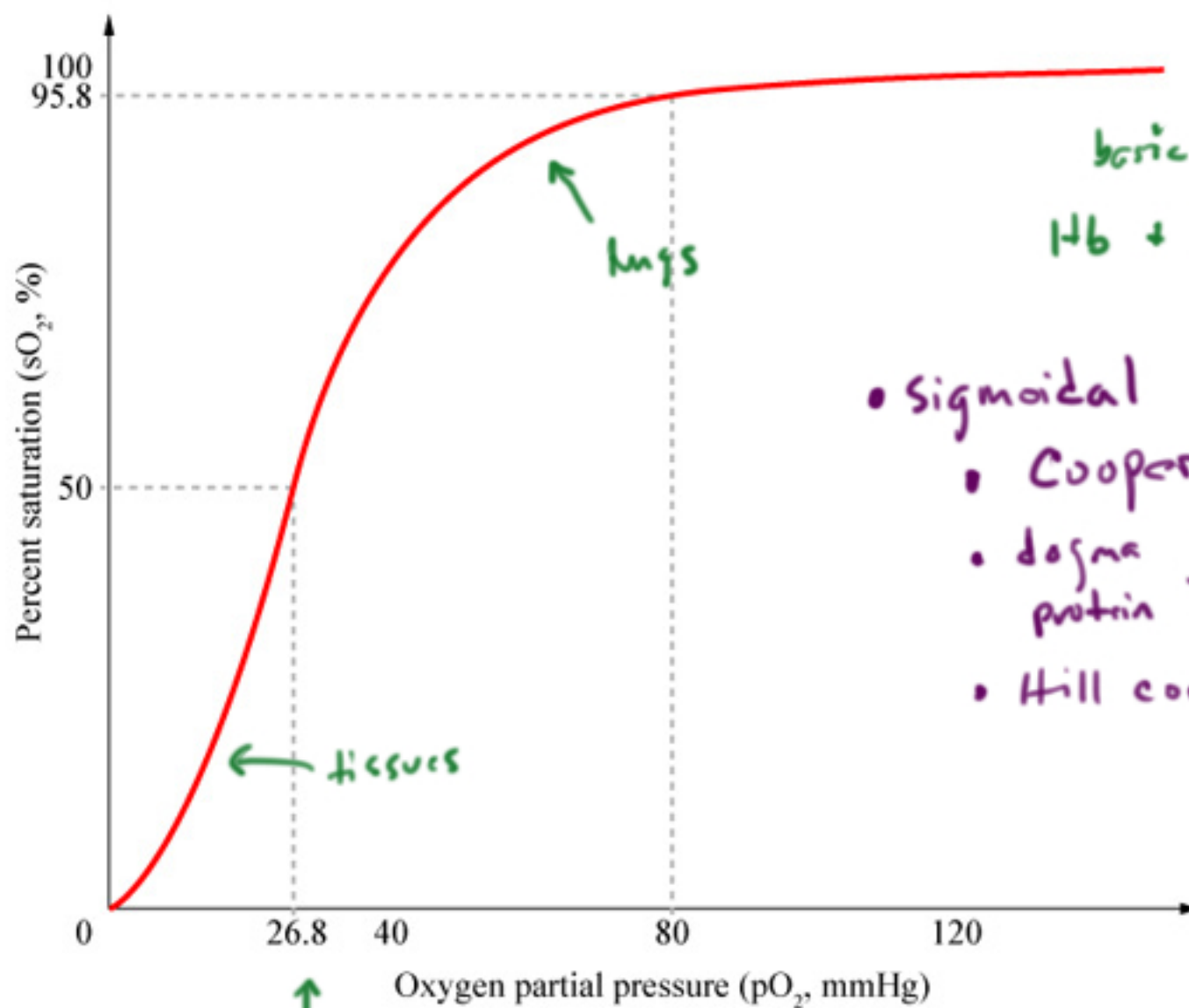
Carboxyhemoglobin

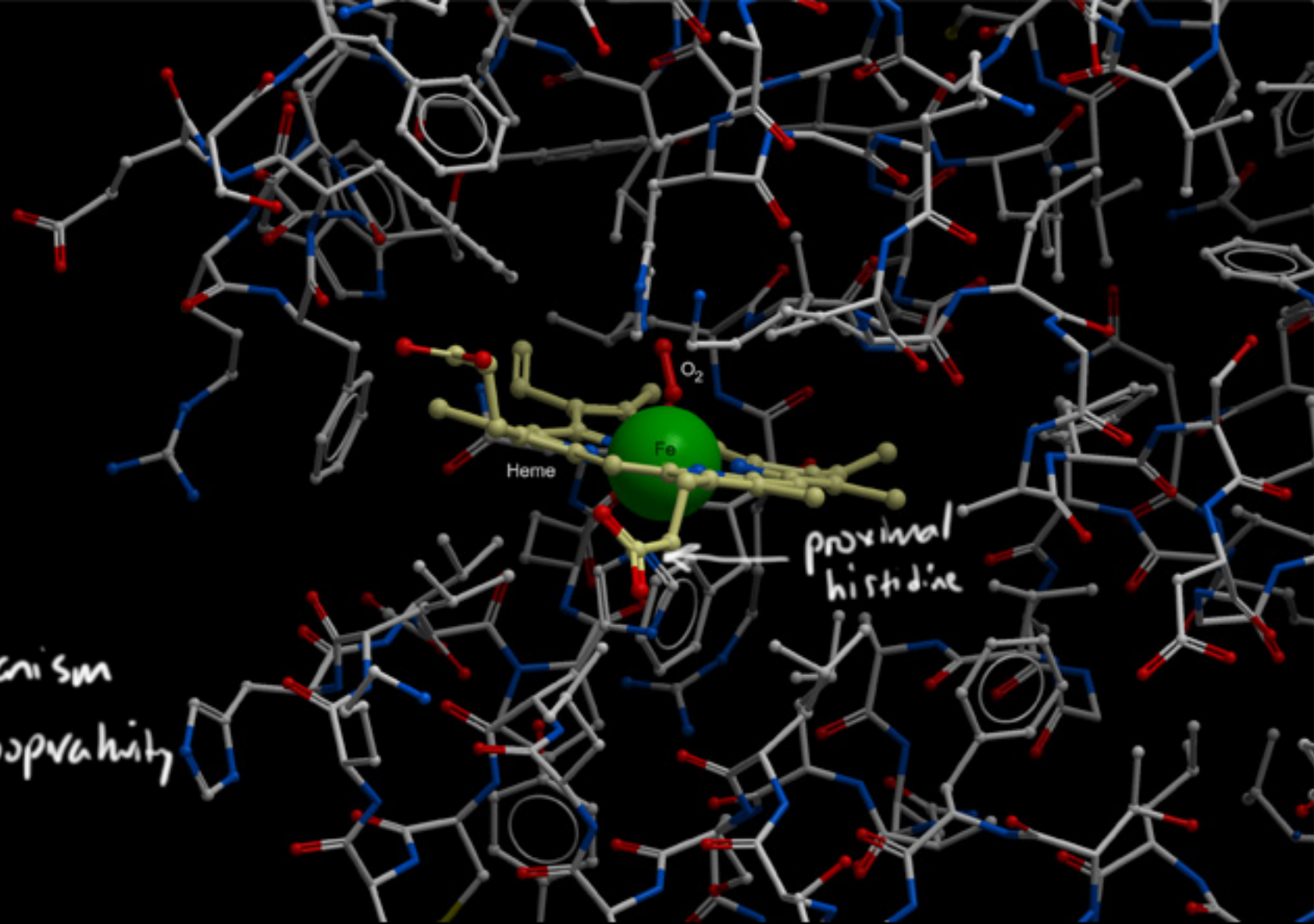
$\alpha_2\beta_2$ HbA

$\alpha_2\gamma_2$ HbF

Hemoglobin







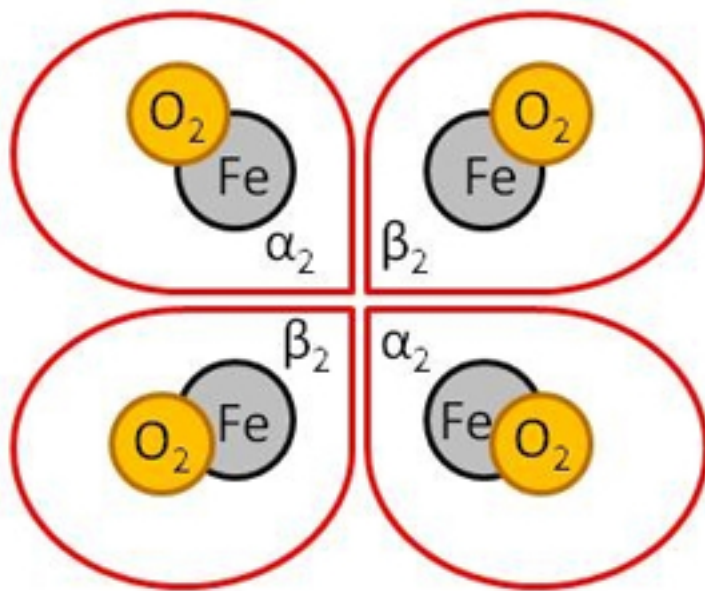
Mechanism
of cooperativity

When O₂ binds, the Fe shifts into the porphyrin plane, pulling the proximal histidine. This triggers a conformational change. One $\alpha\beta$ shifts 15° to the other. All the other binding sites are now more facilitative.

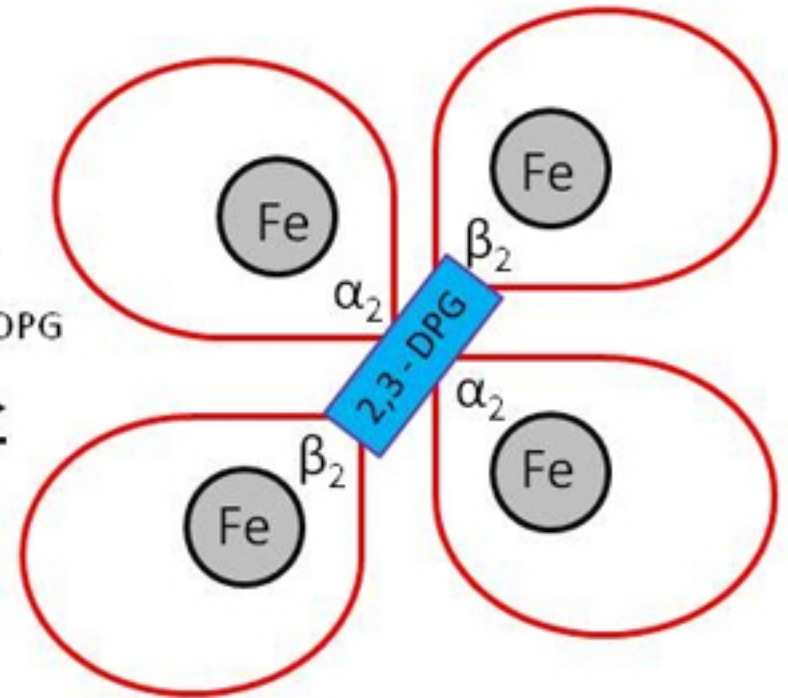
Oxygen Binding and Unloading

Monod Jacob Model

Oxyhaemoglobin



Deoxyhaemoglobin



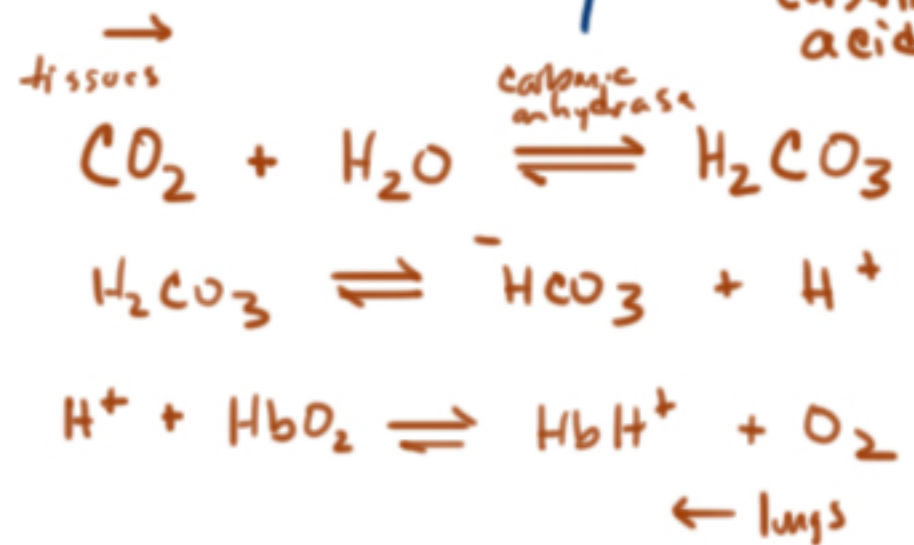
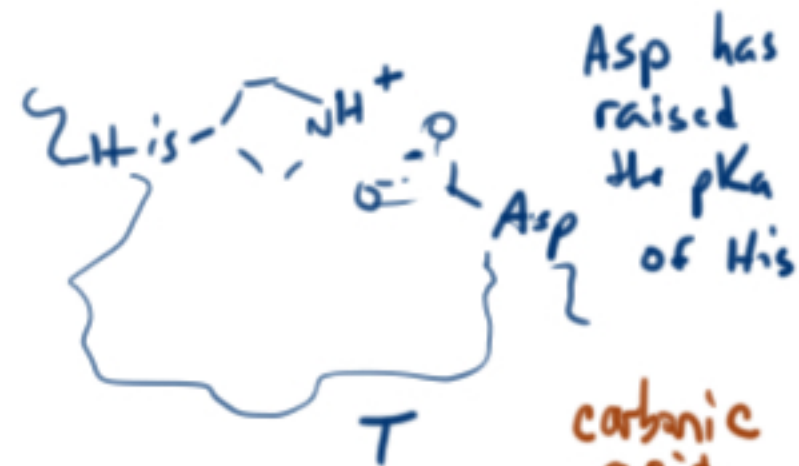
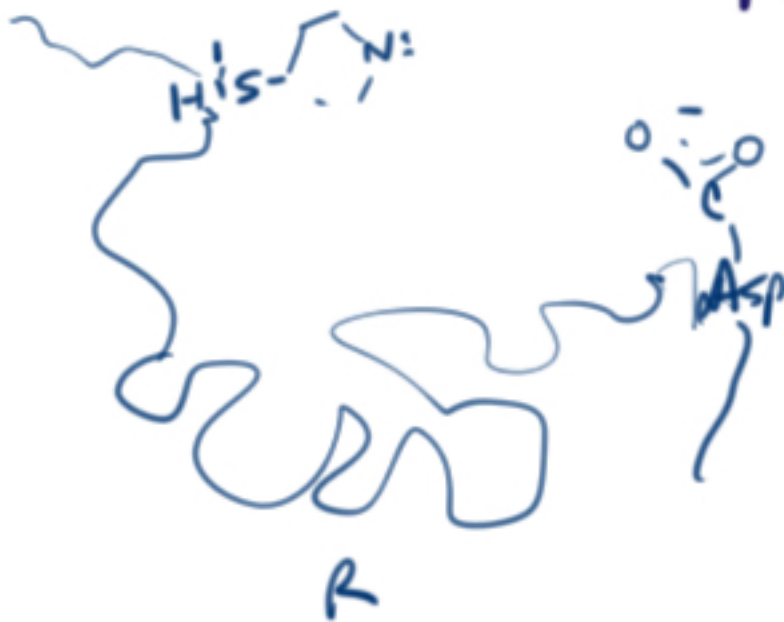
Increasing H^+
Increasing 2,3-DPG
Falling $[O_2]$
 $\rightleftharpoons$
Rising $[O_2]$

Relaxed Binding Structure

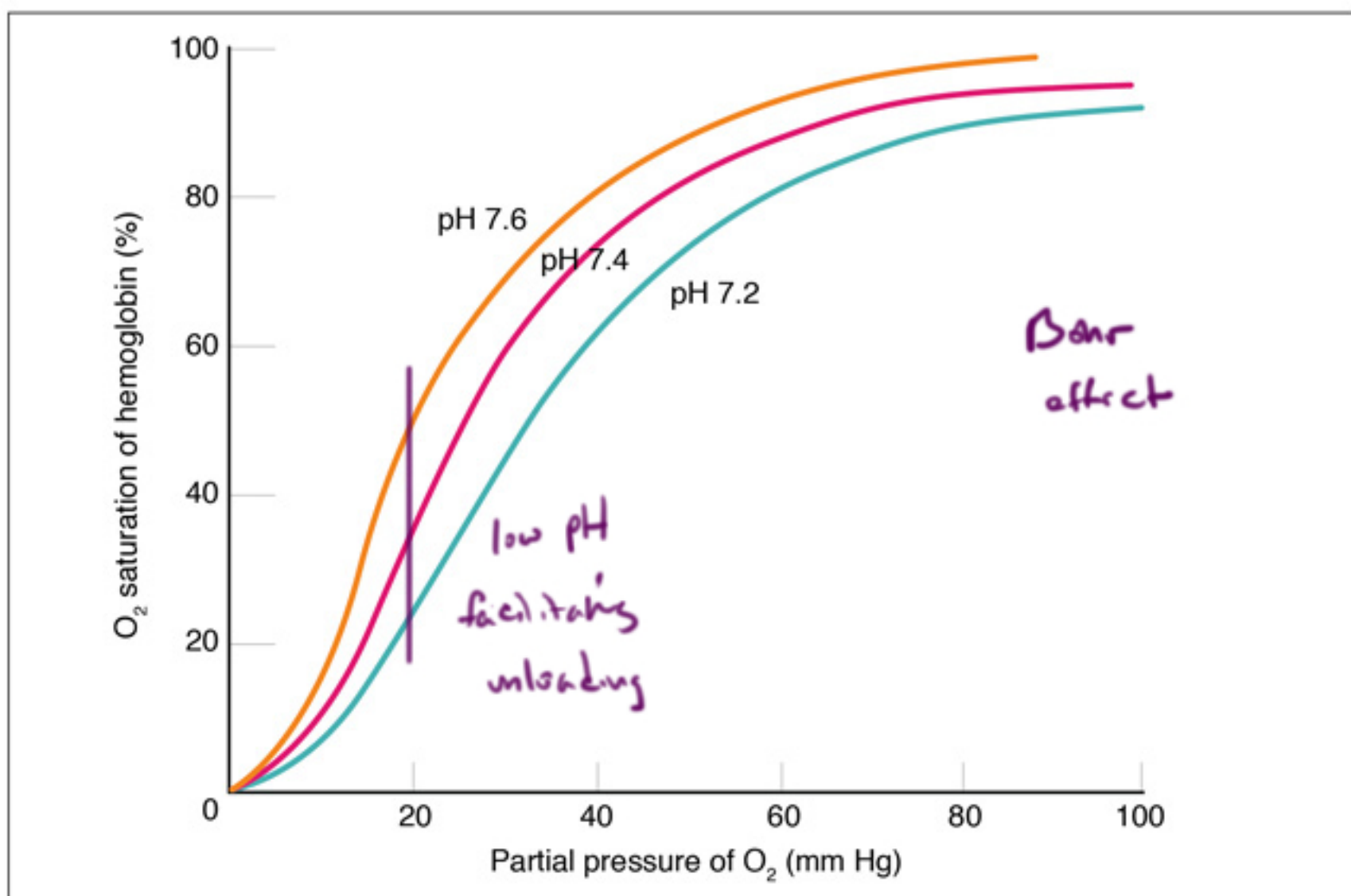


Tight Binding Structure

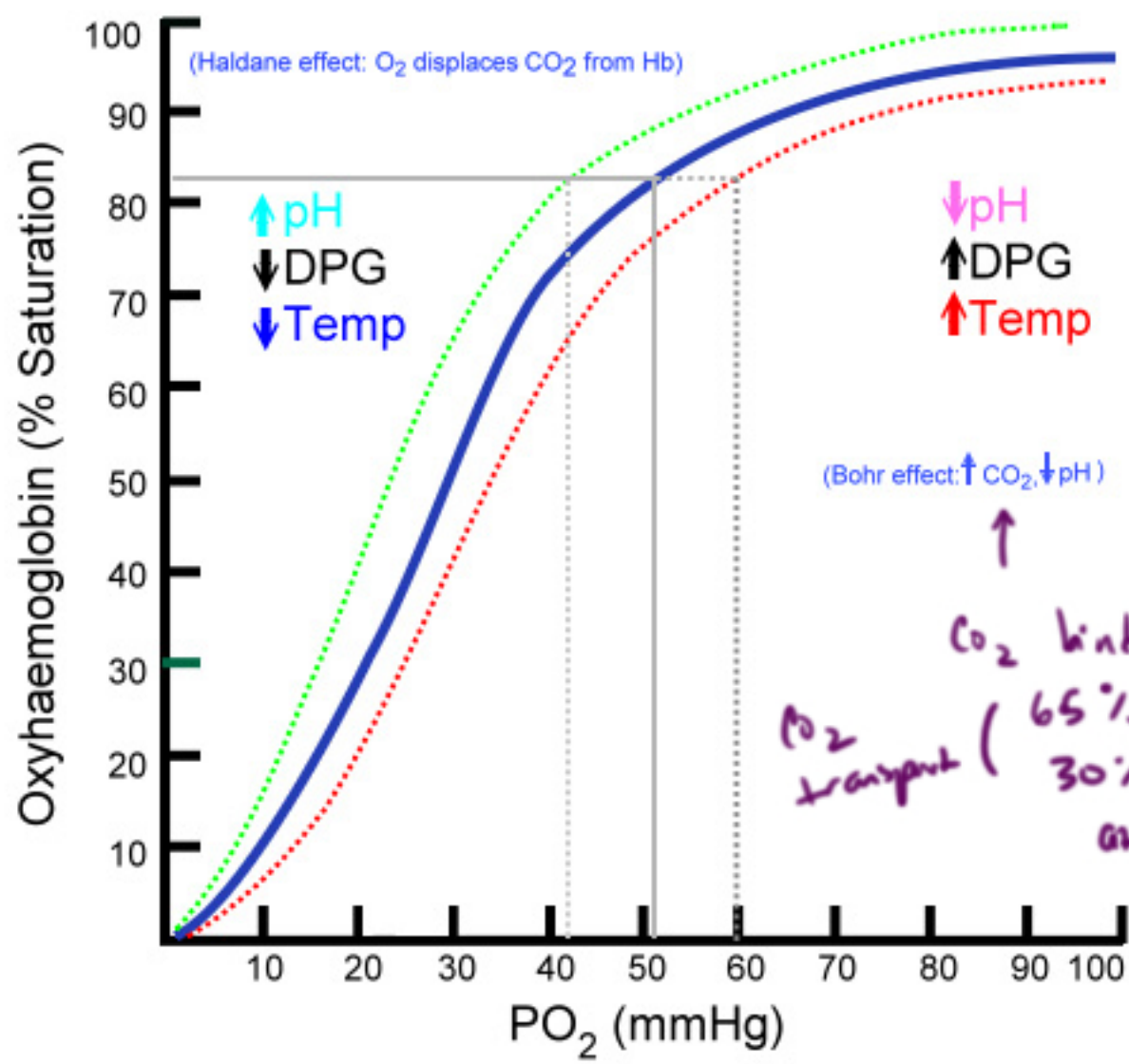
Bohr effect - H^+ stabilizes the tight structure.
(also CO_2 , DPG)



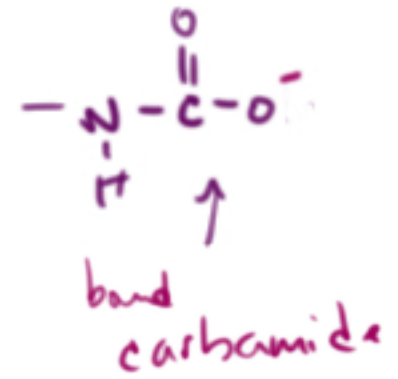
$pK_a = 6.3$
 H_2CO_3
 $pH = pK_a + \log \left(\frac{[A^-]}{[HA]} \right)$
 $7.3 = 6.3 + \log \left(\frac{10}{1} \right)$



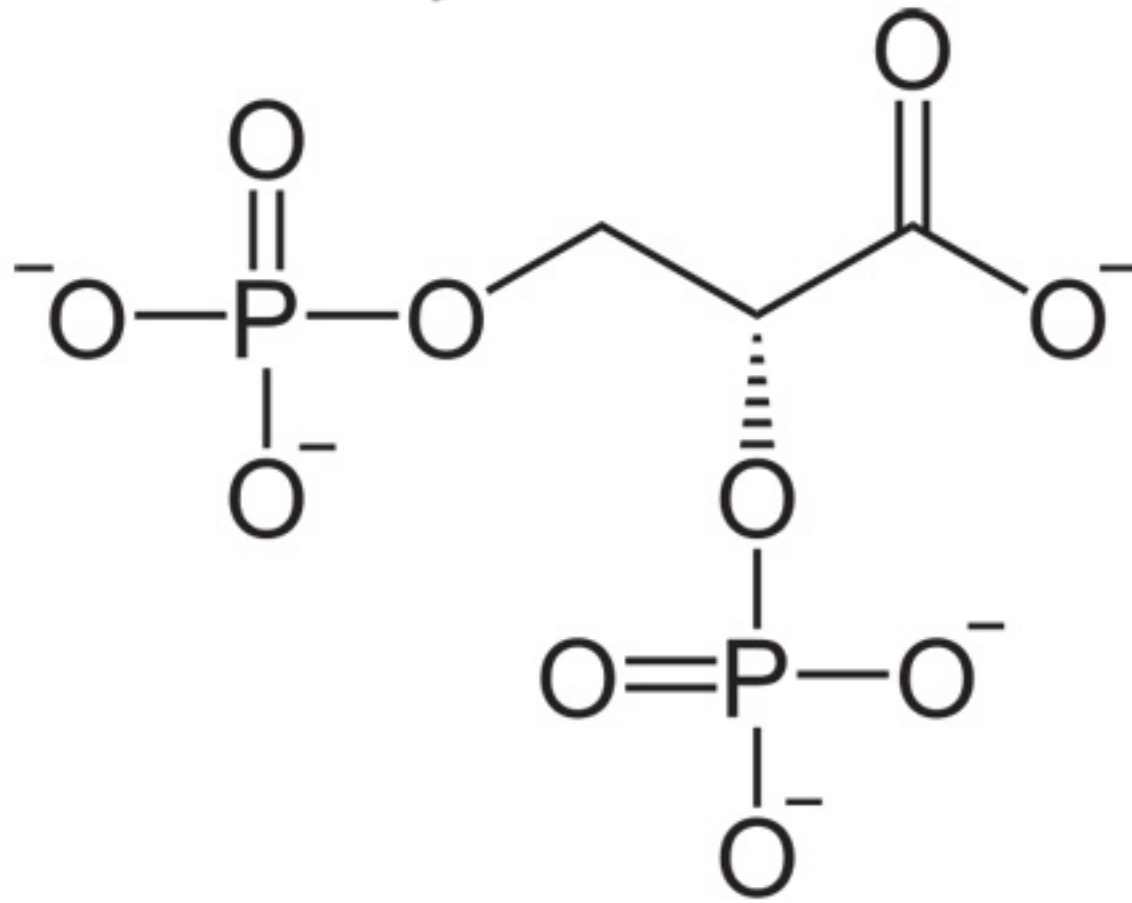
(b) Effect of pH



CO_2 binds Hb
 O_2 transport (65% as HCO_3^-
 30% bound directly
 at N terminus)



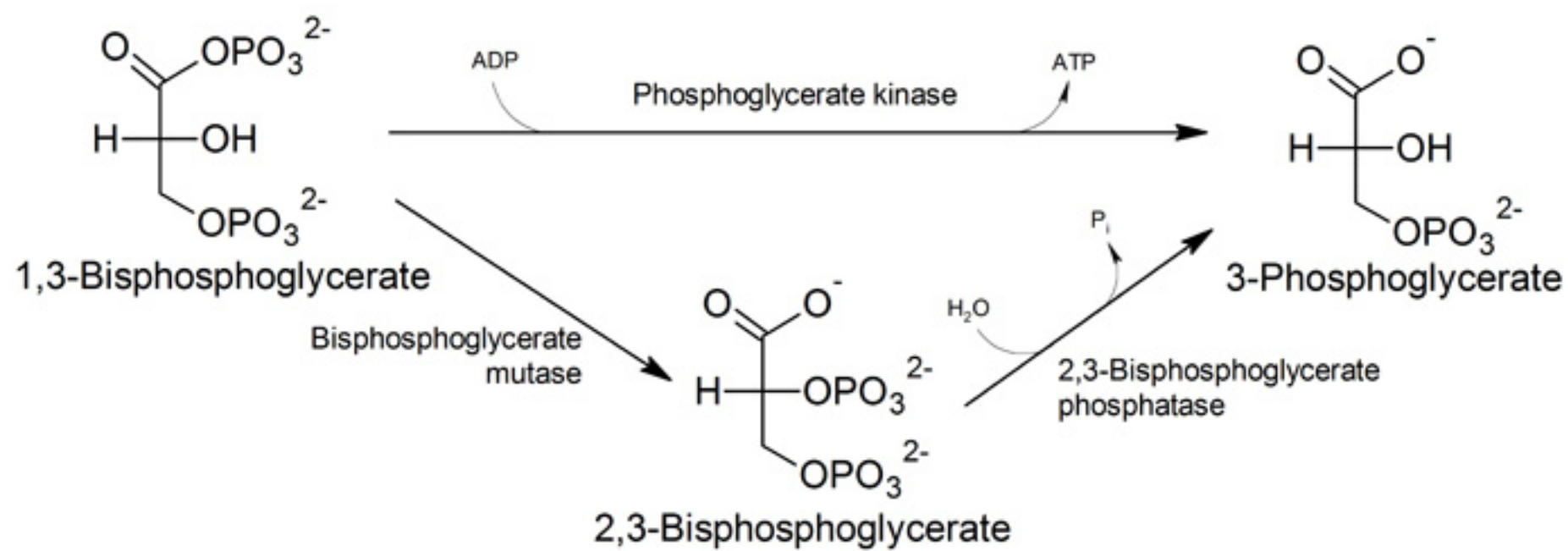
DPG

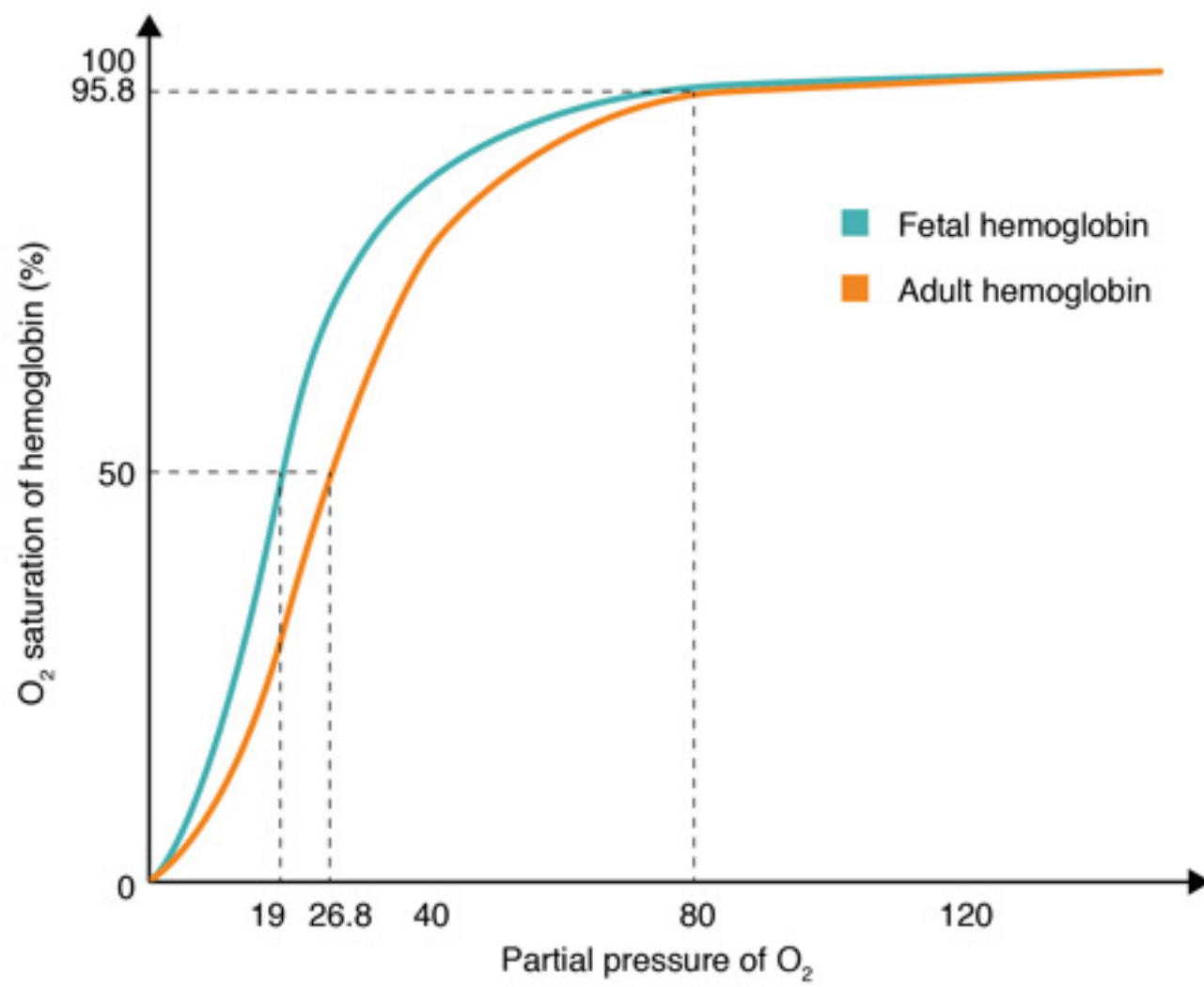


- stabilizes the tight structure

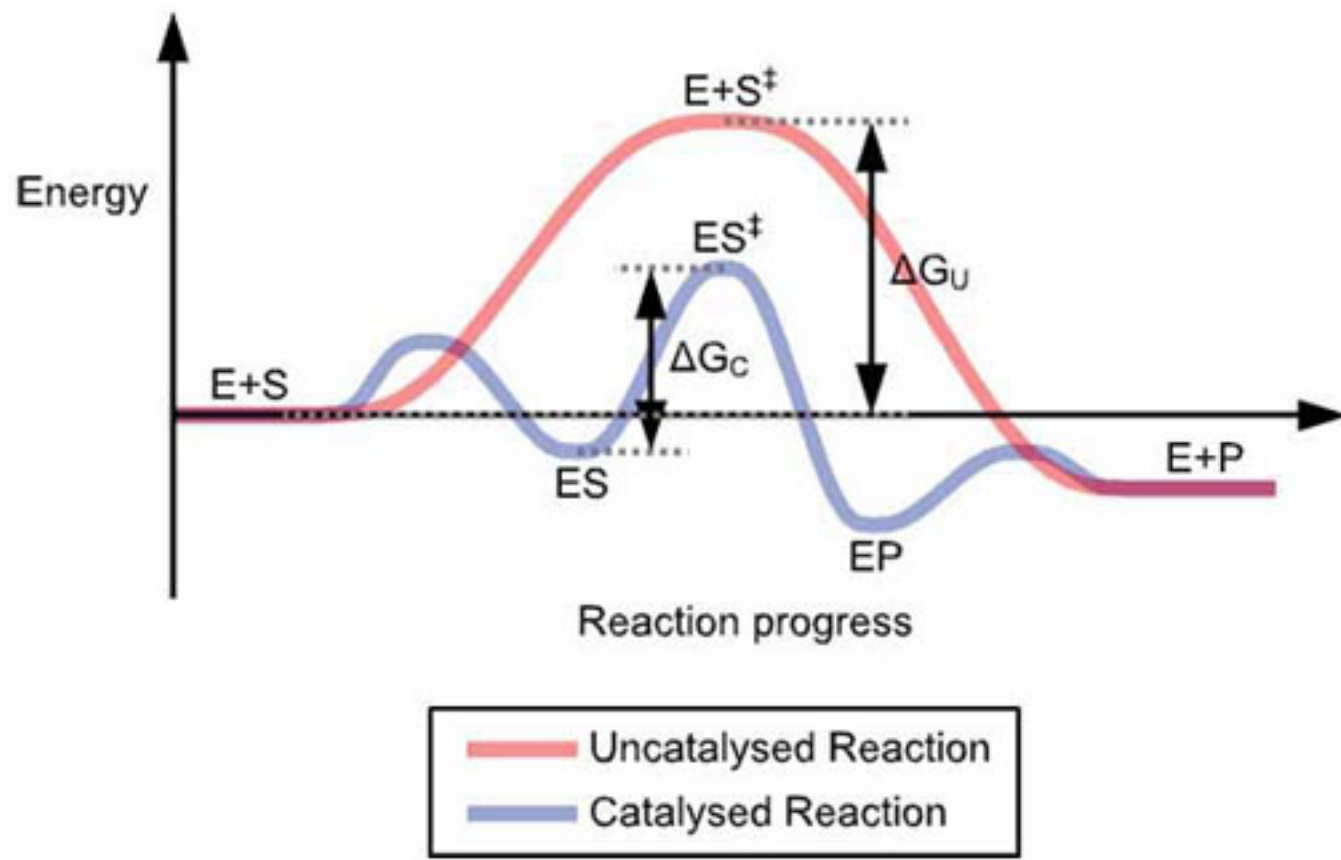
- reduces the O_2 affinity

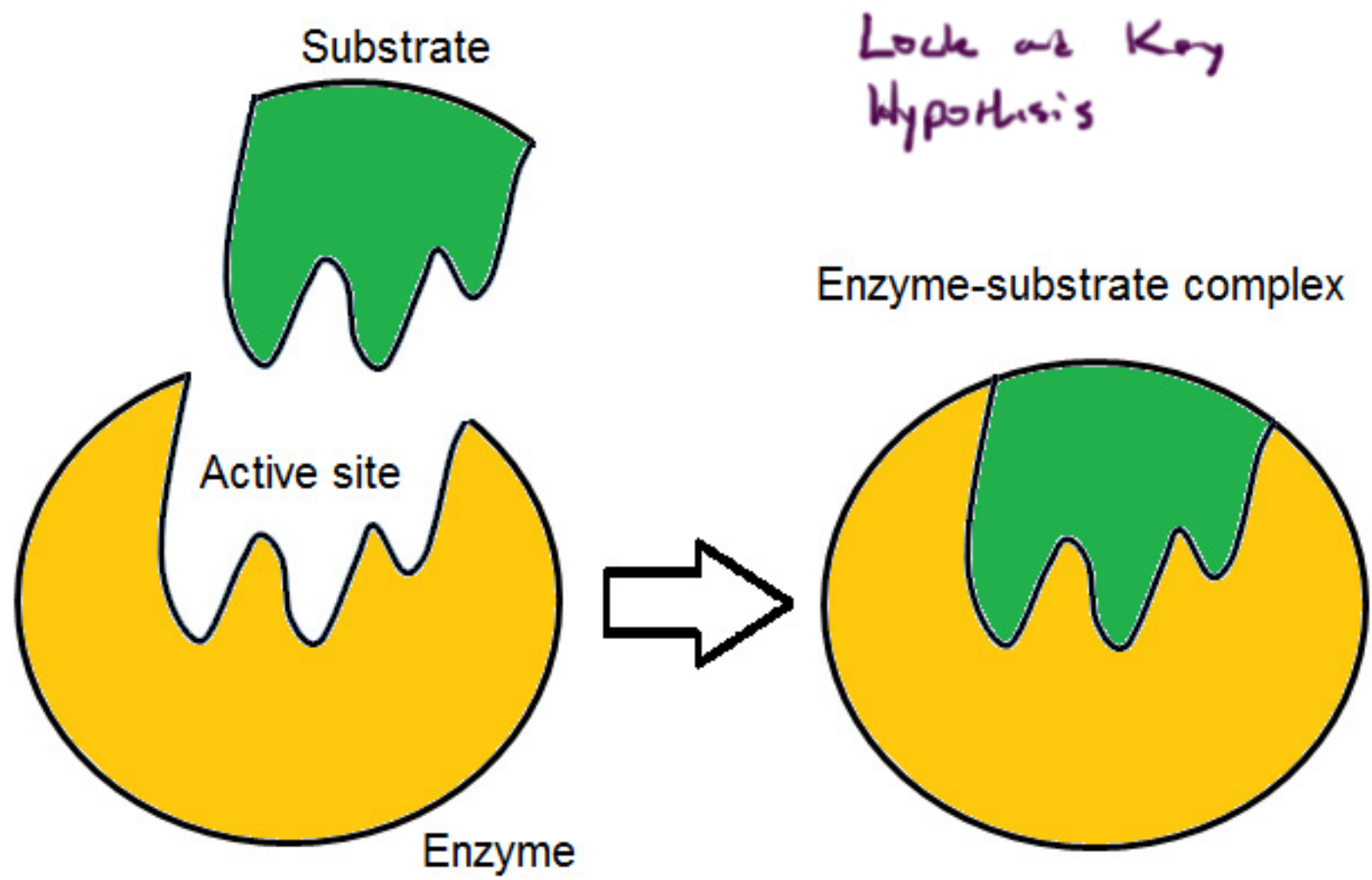
- facilitates unloading





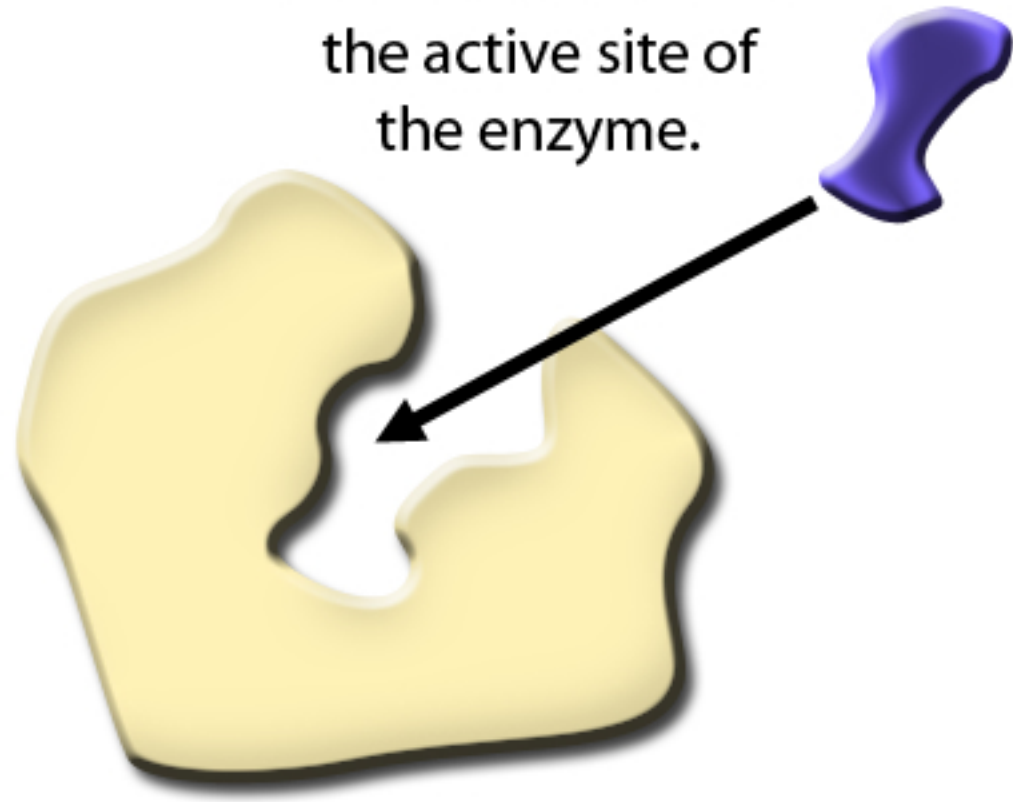
Enzyme Activity



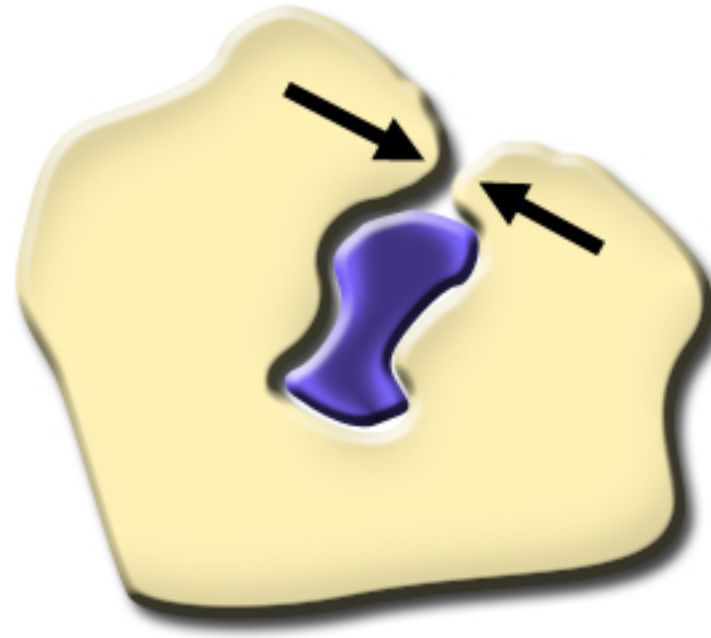


Induced Fit

The substrate enters
the active site of
the enzyme.

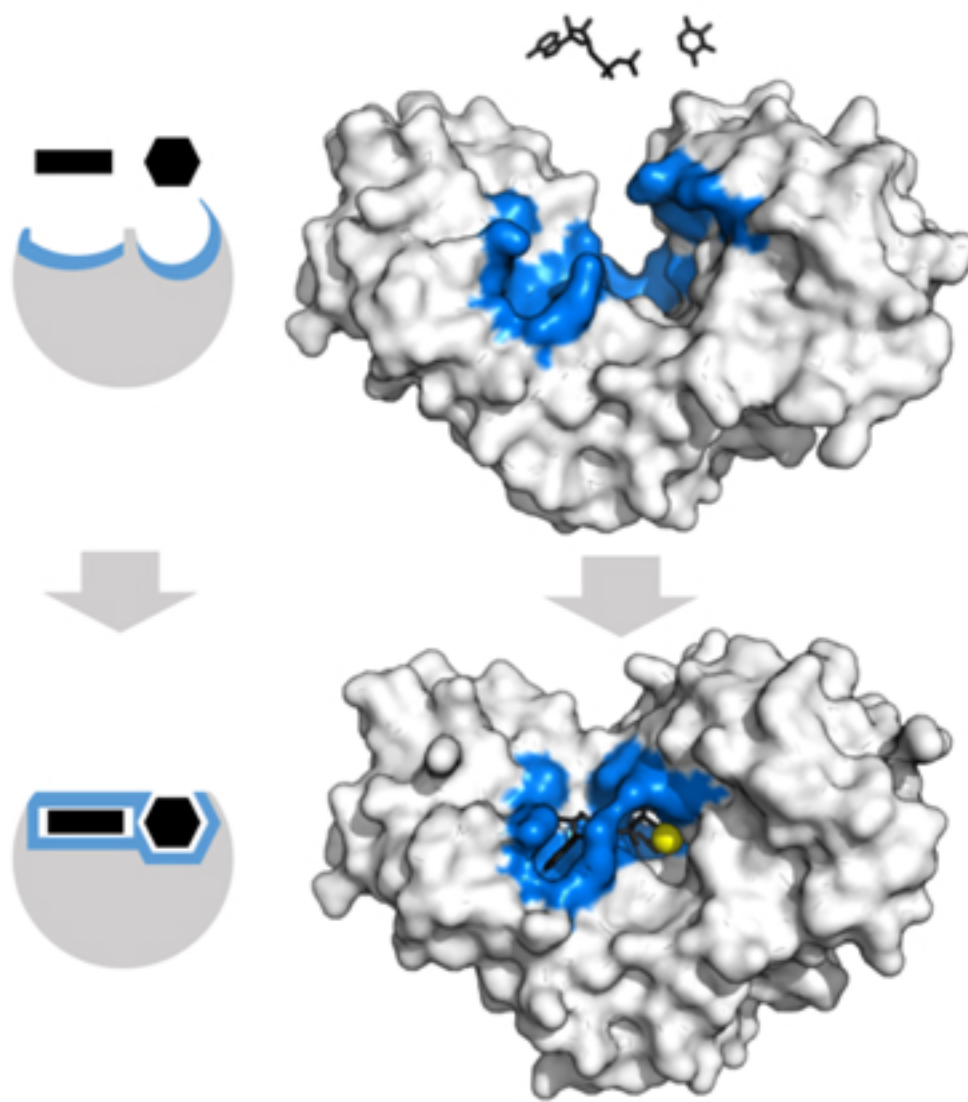


The enzyme clamps down
around the substrate, forming
an induced fit.

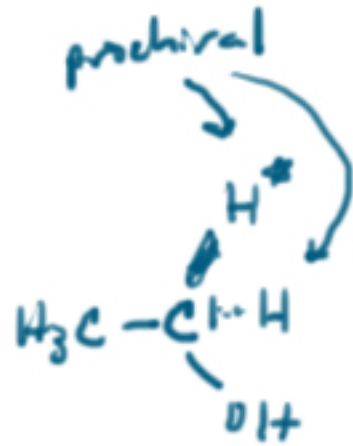
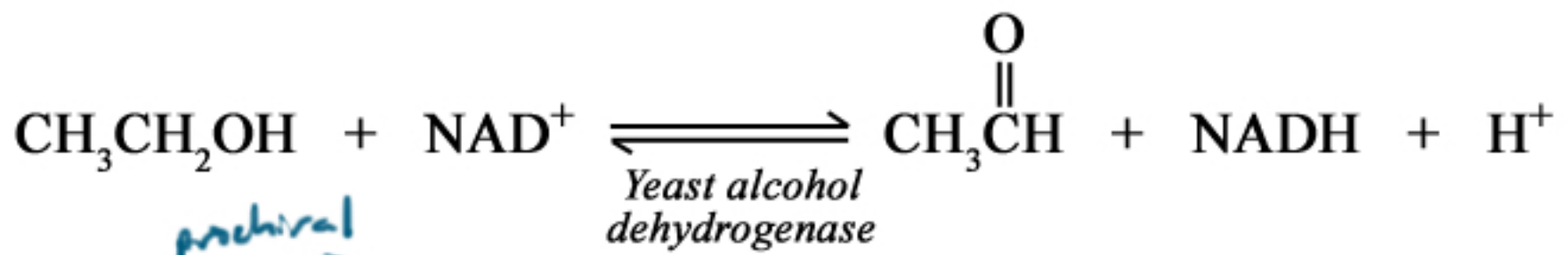


not only binding but
also turnover

Induced Fit
in Hexokinase



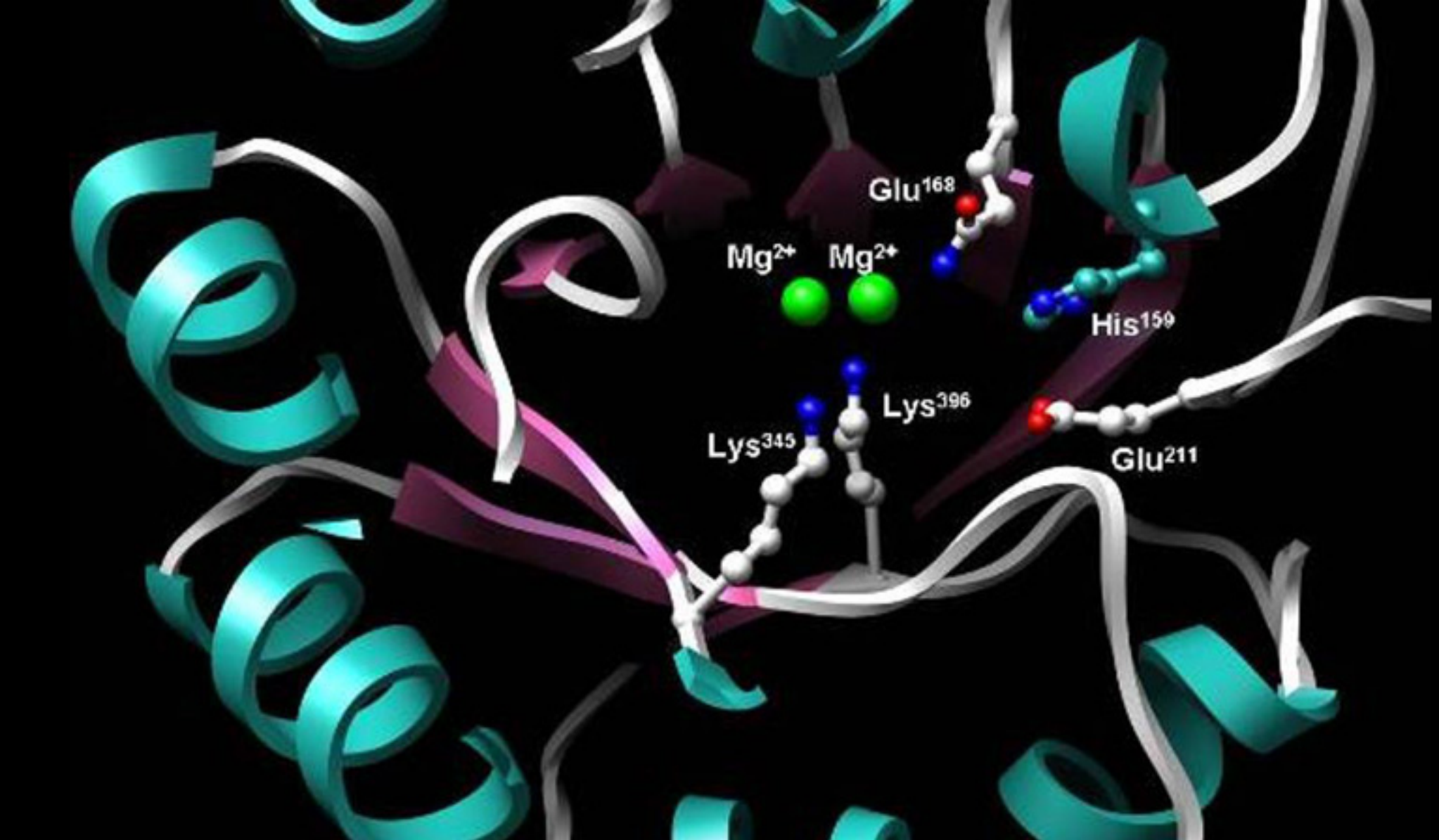
Enzymes may distinguish prochiral substituents.



← If one H were ^2H (deuterium) is it possible that the NADH produced is all NADH^* or must it be 50:50?

on the benchtop the two H's would be equivalent.

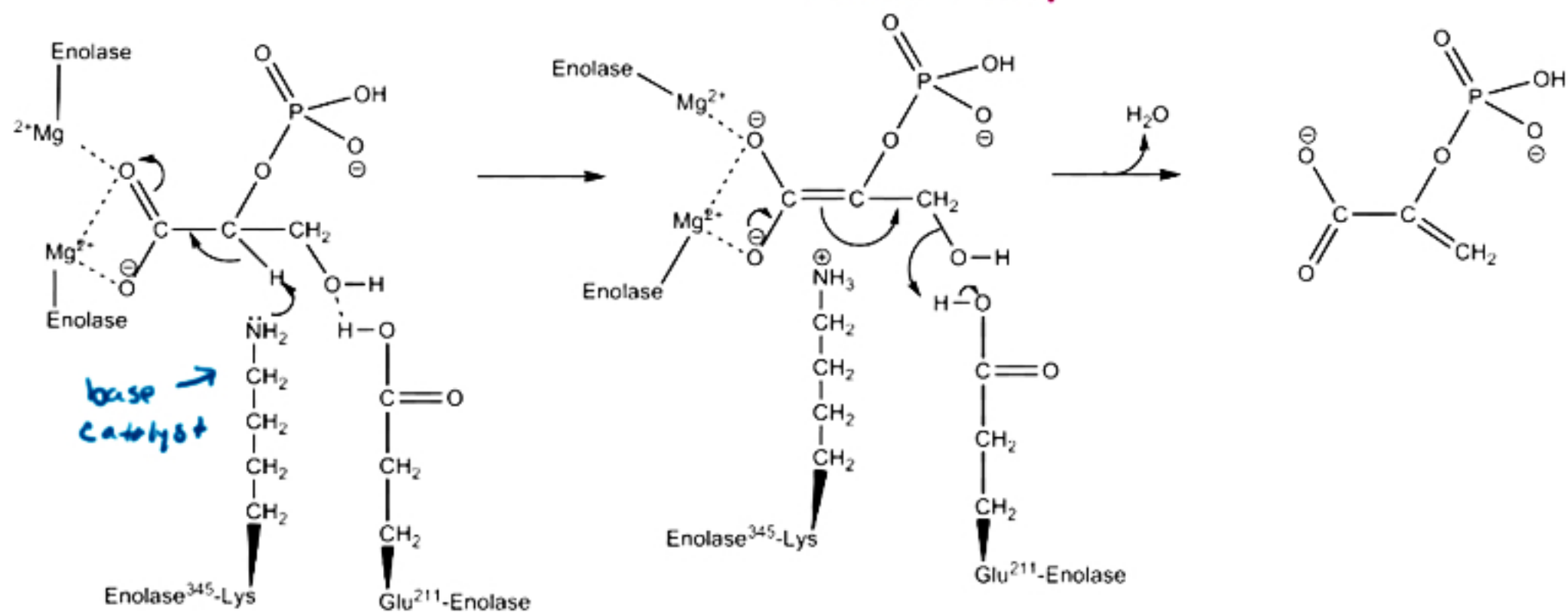
But an enzyme can distinguish prochiral substituents.

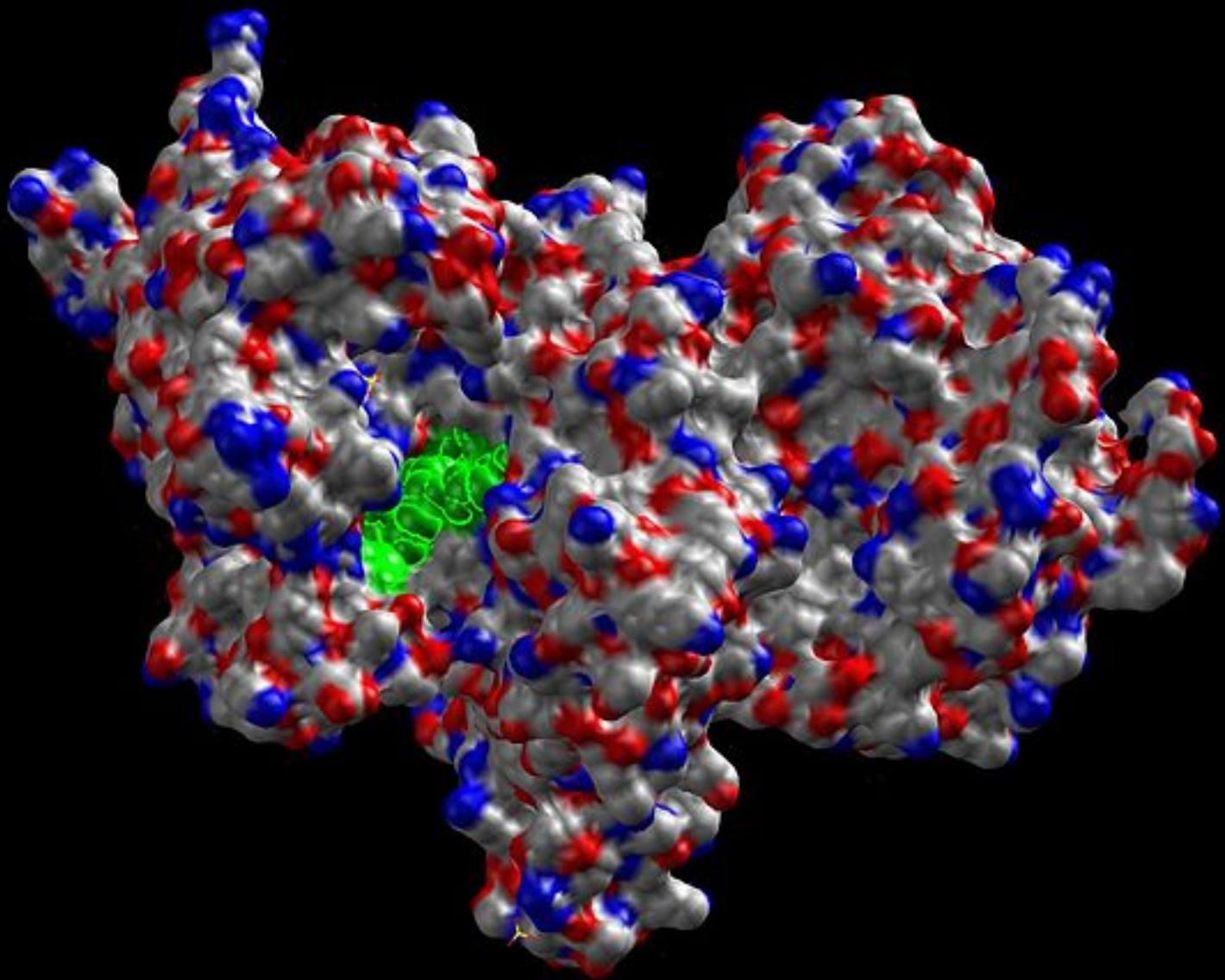


Enolase:

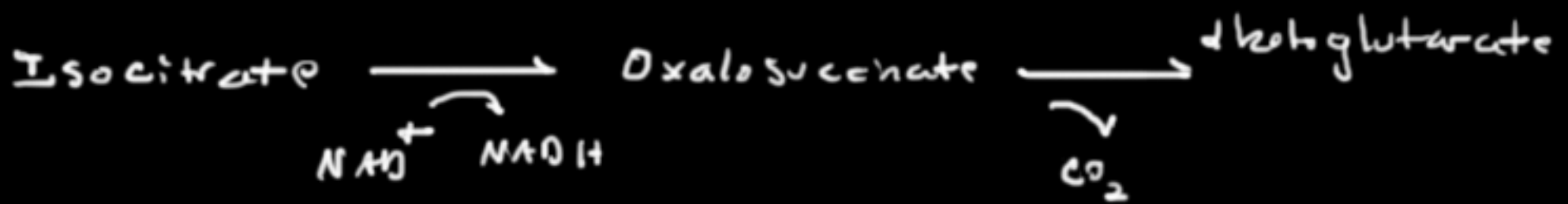
2-phosphoglycerate $\longrightarrow$ phosphoenolpyruvate

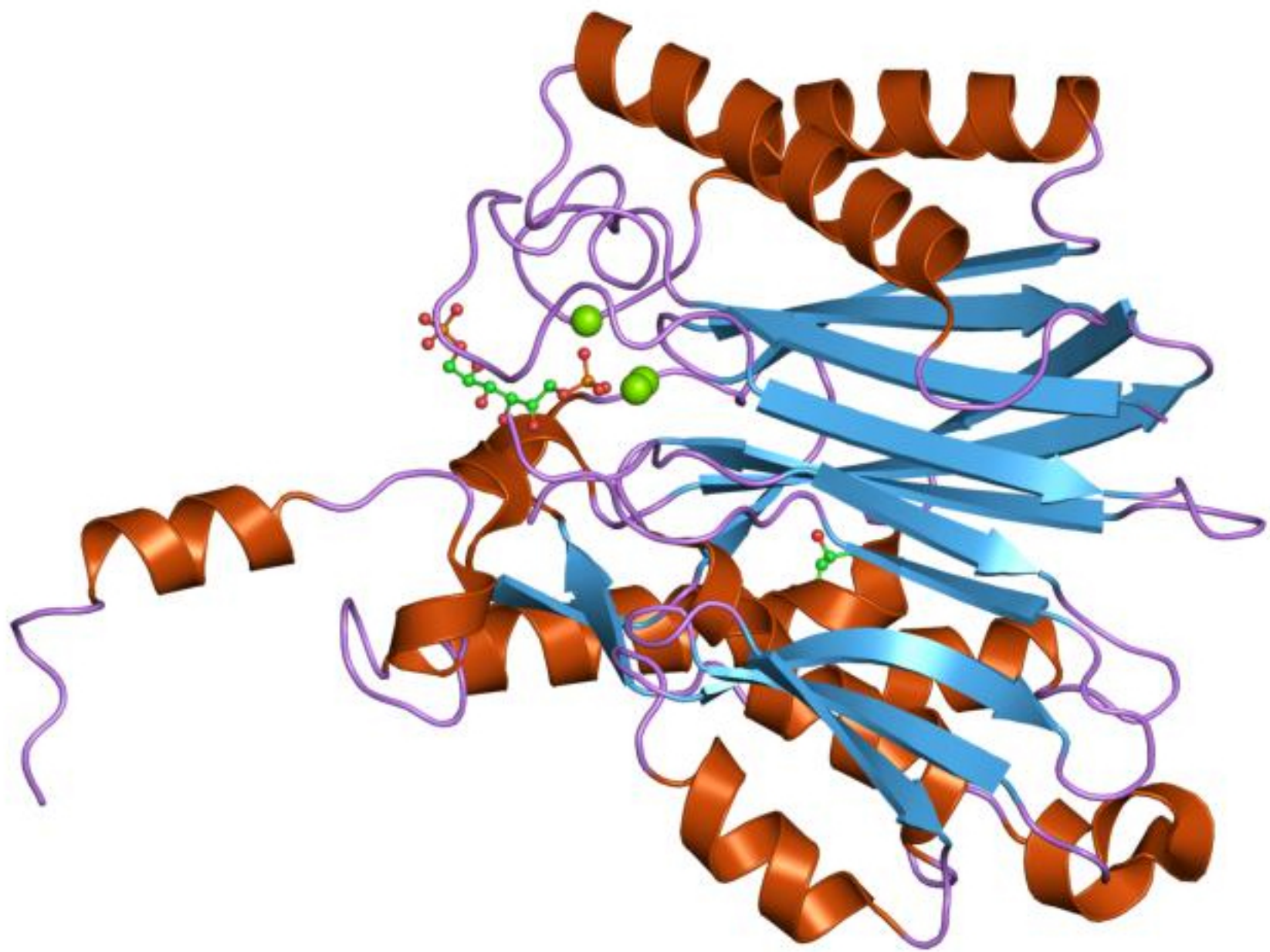
Enolase Mechanism





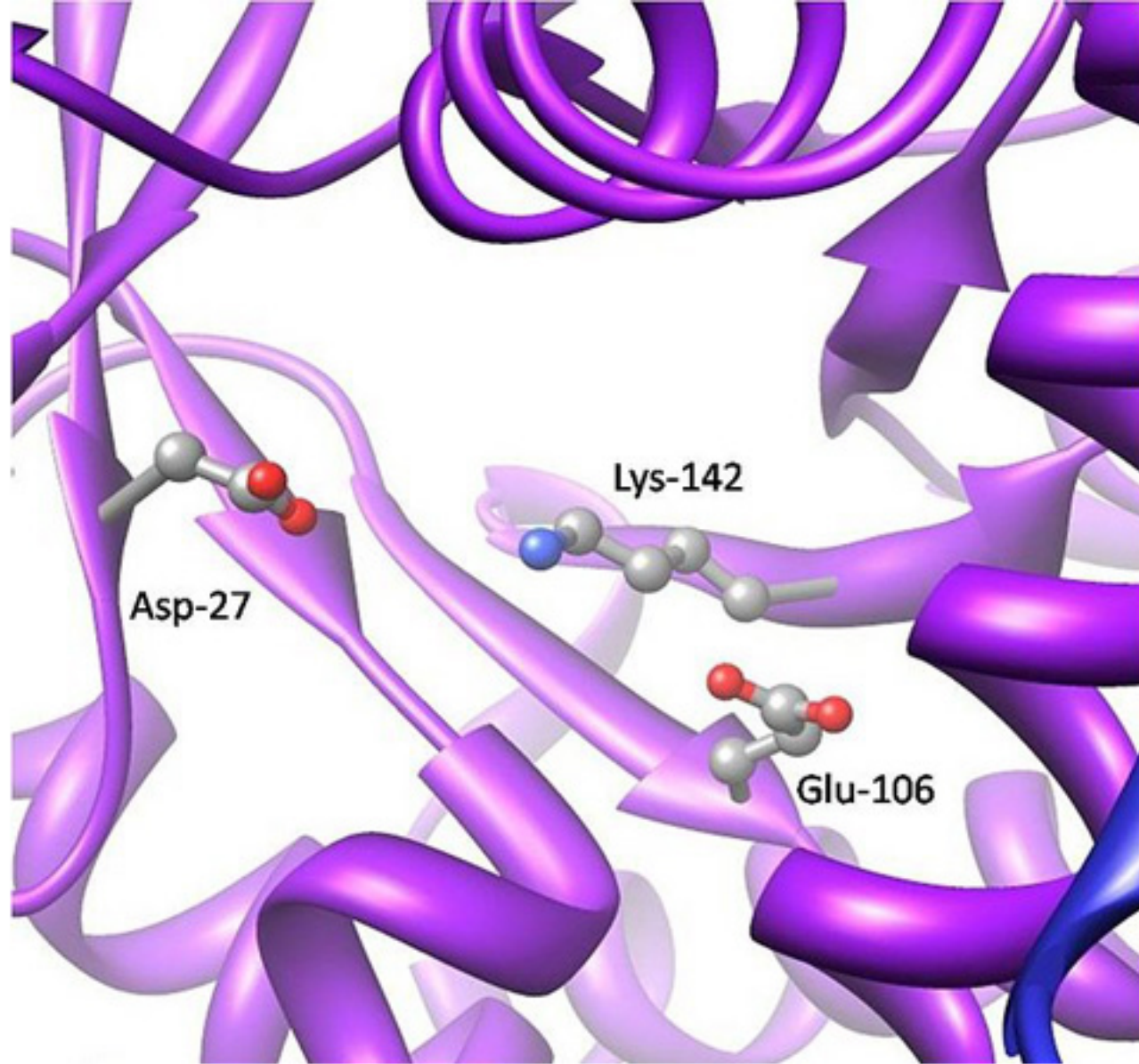
Isocitrate Dehydrogenase





Fructose 1,6 Bis phosphatase

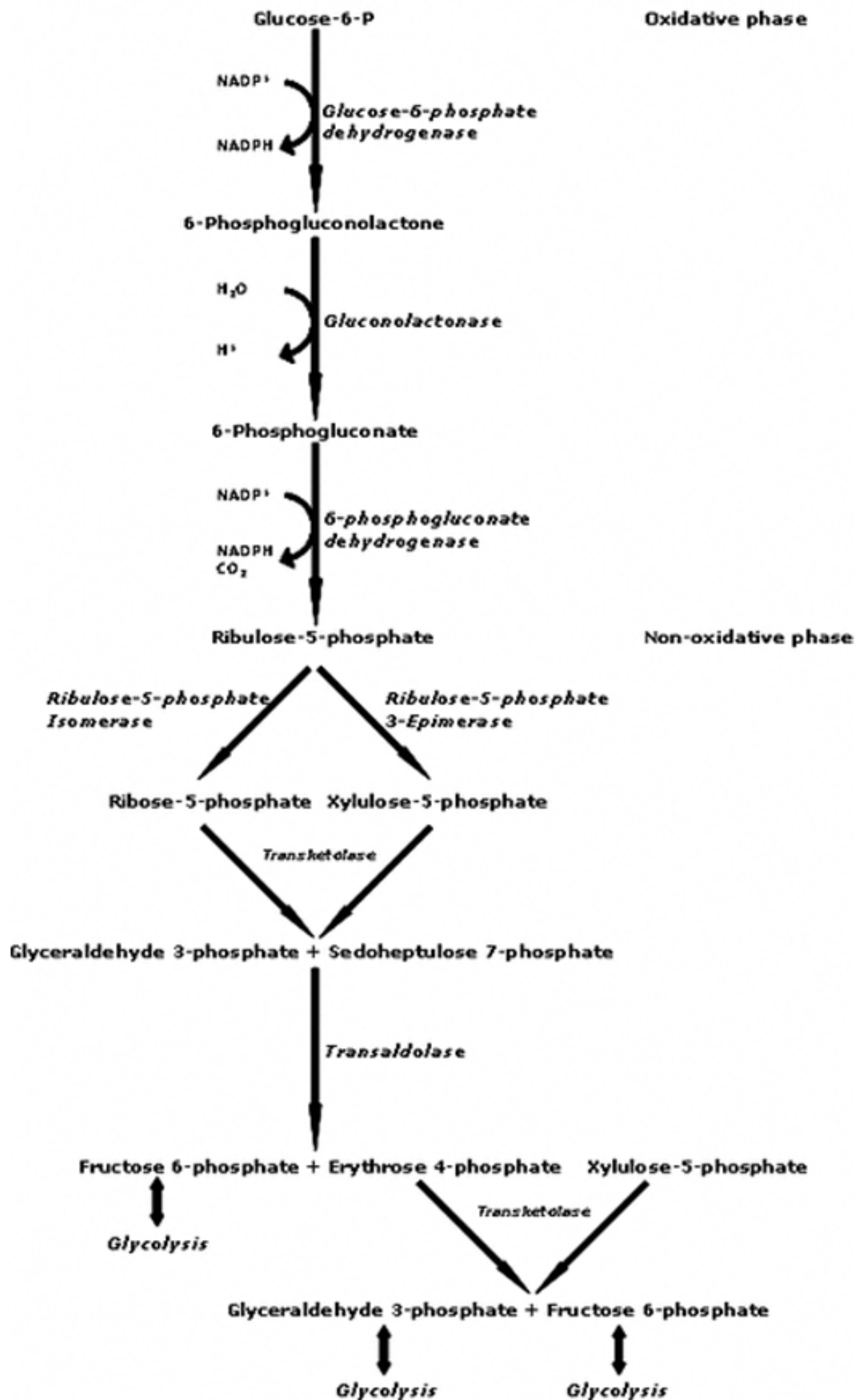


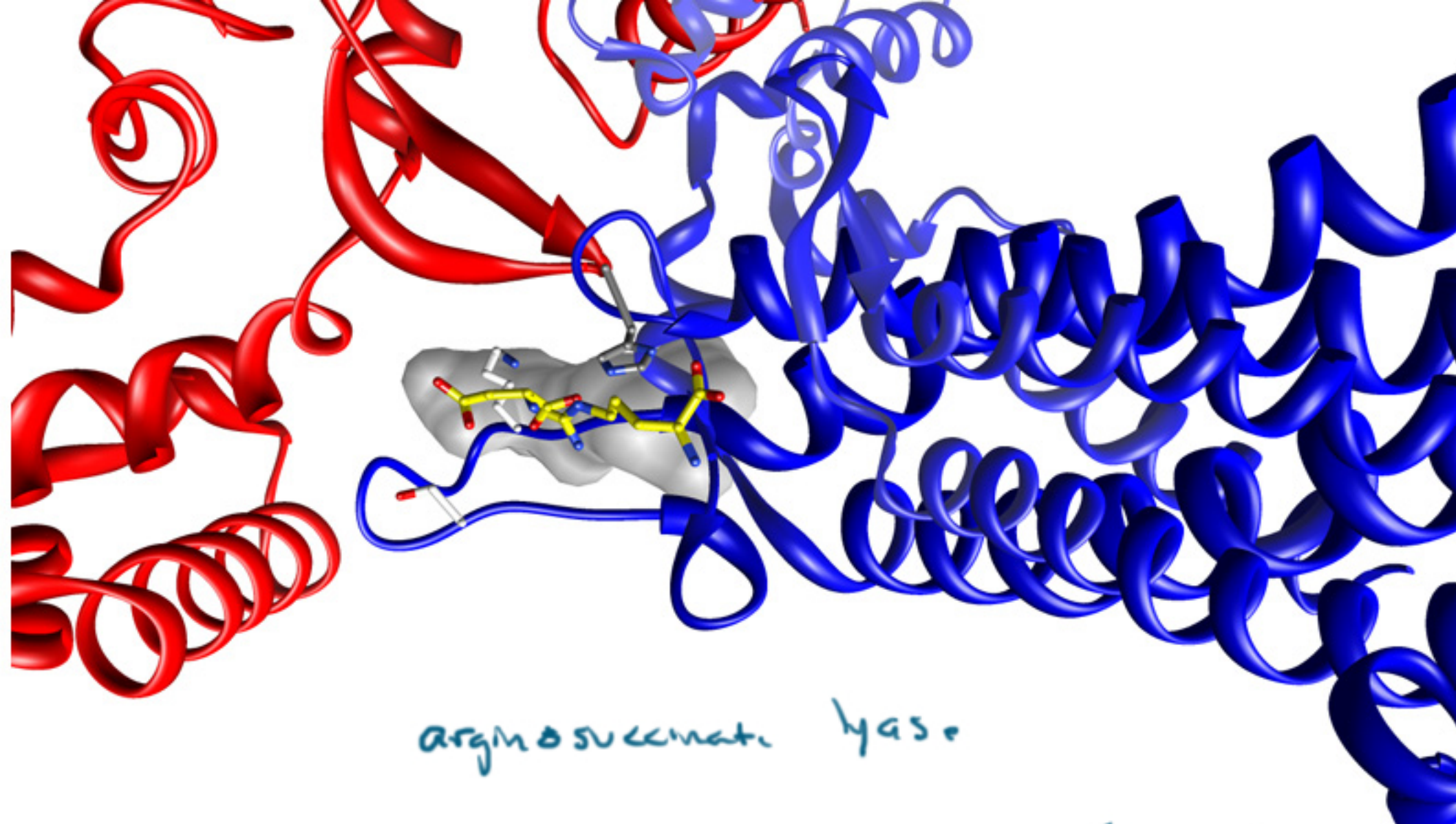


Transaldolase



Pentose Phosphate pathway

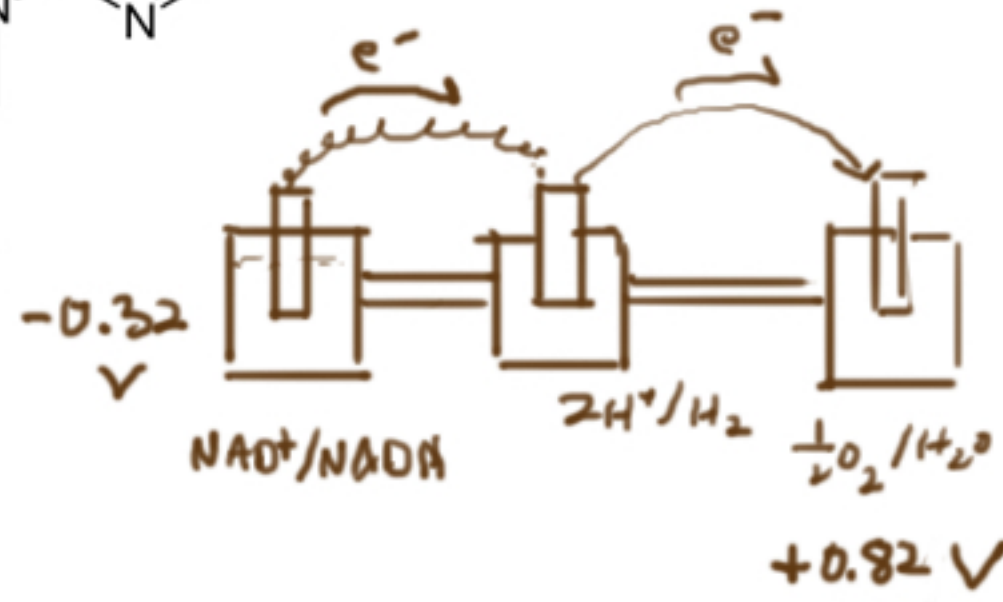
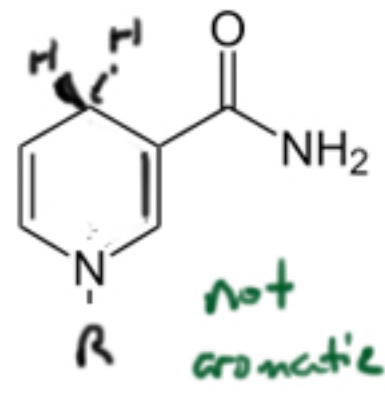
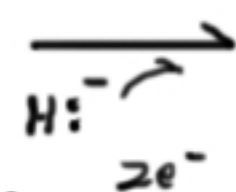
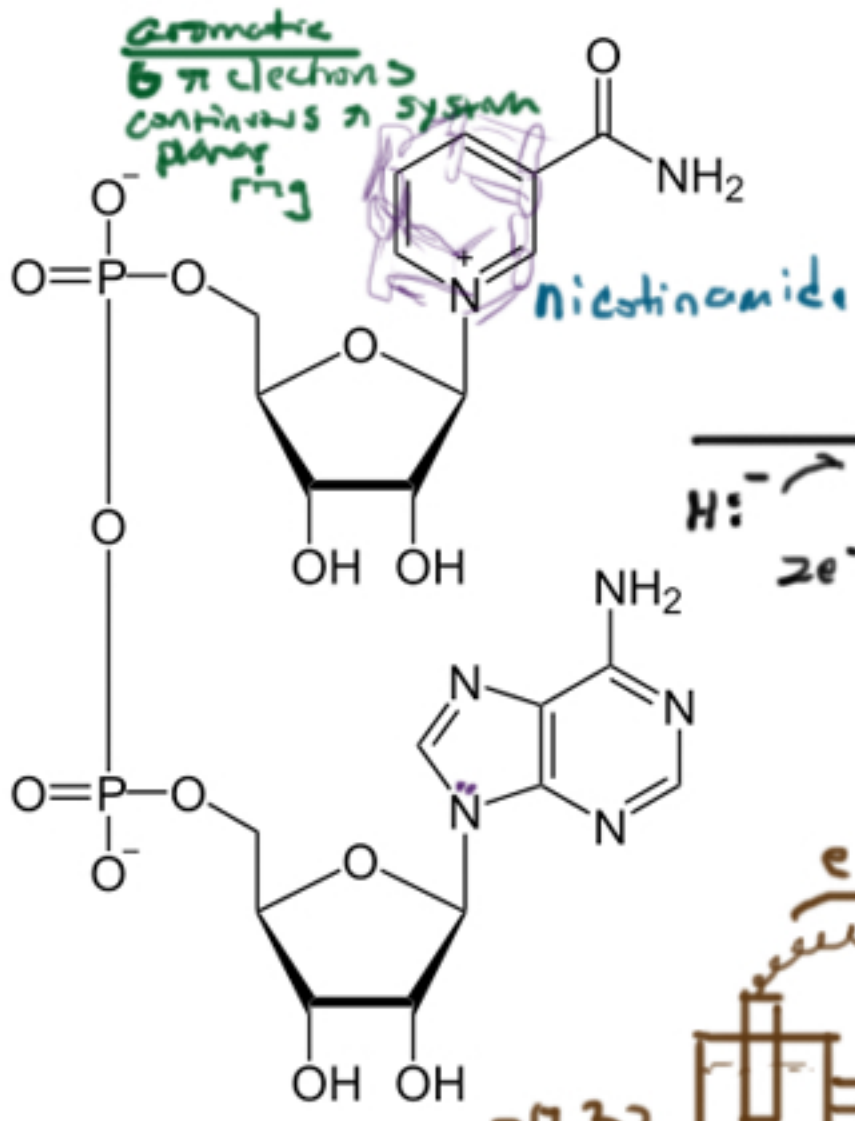




argininosuccinate lyase

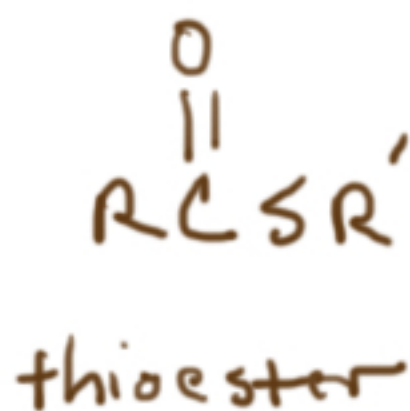
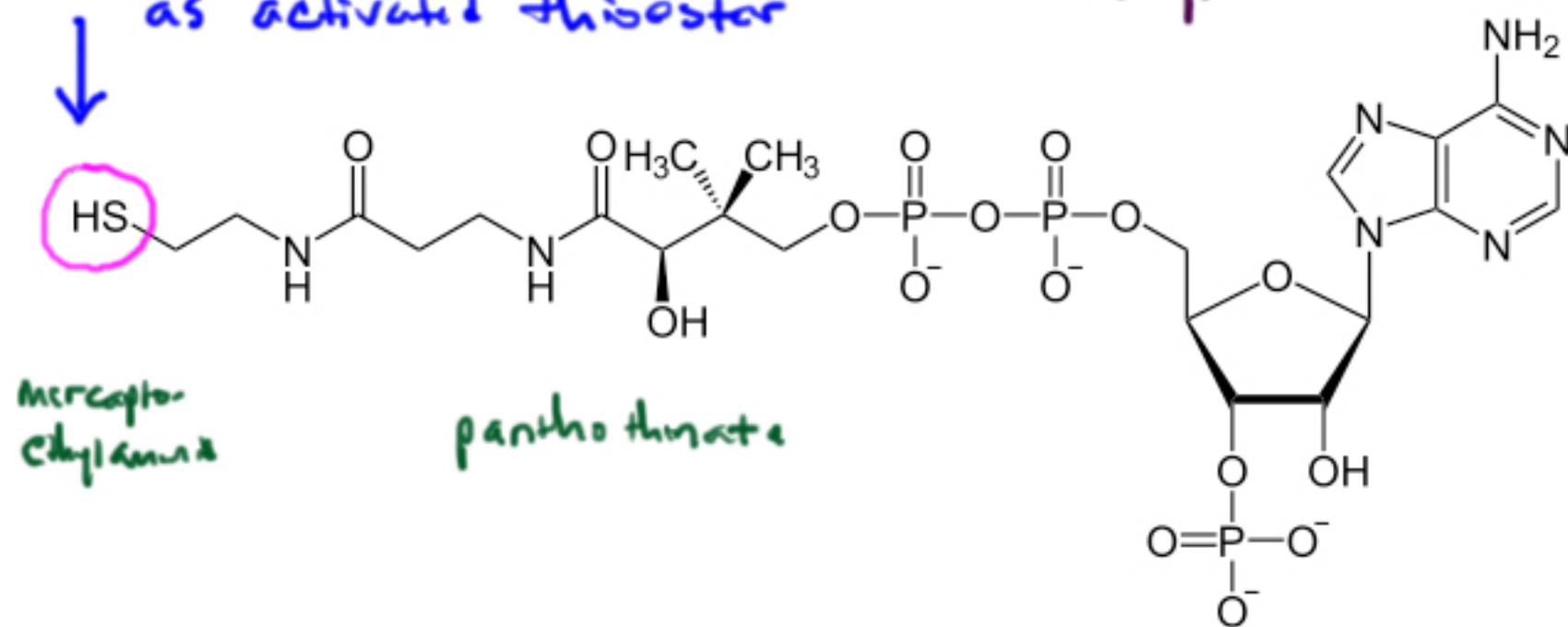


NAD^+

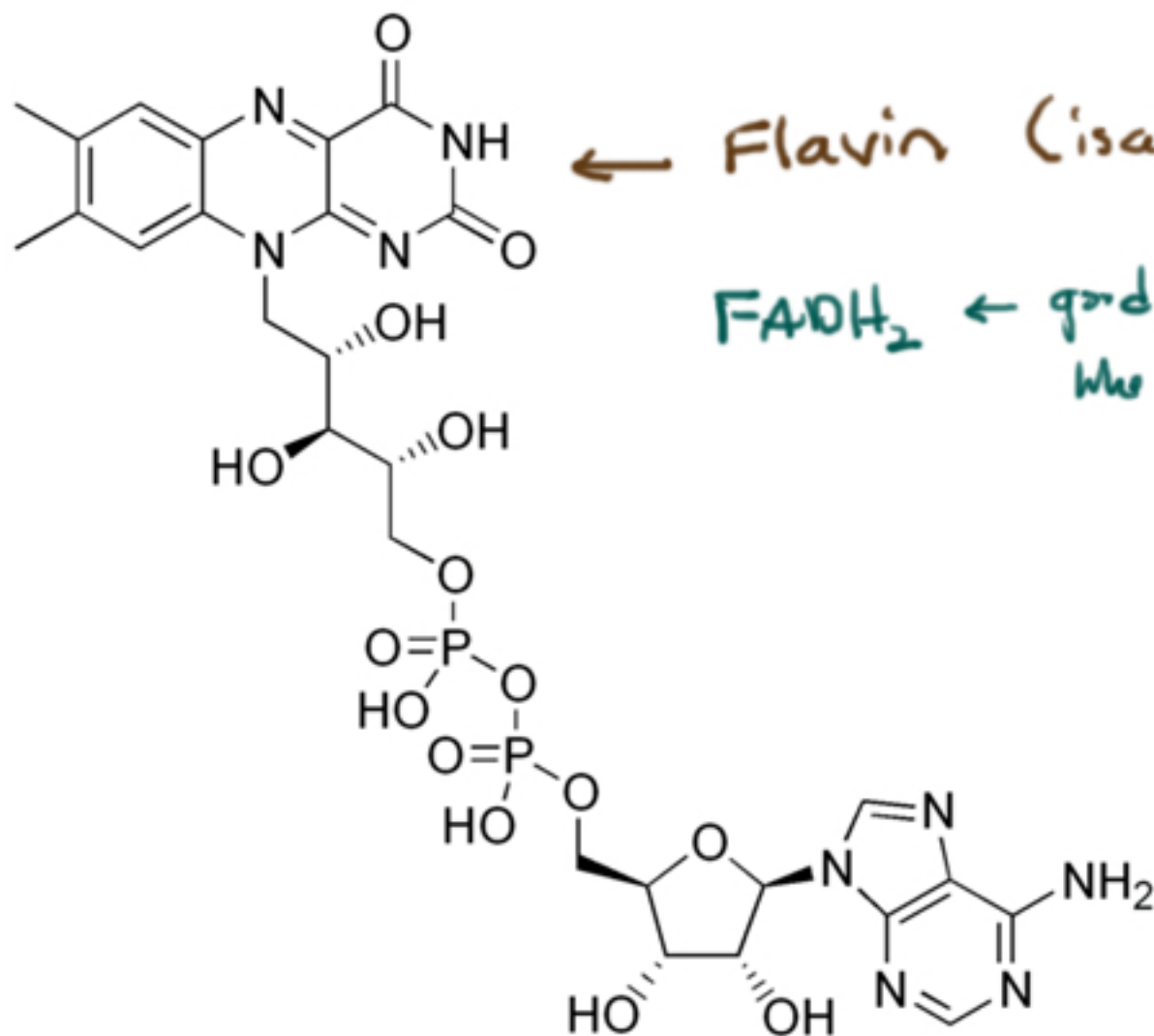


carries acyl groups here
as activated thioester

Coenzyme A

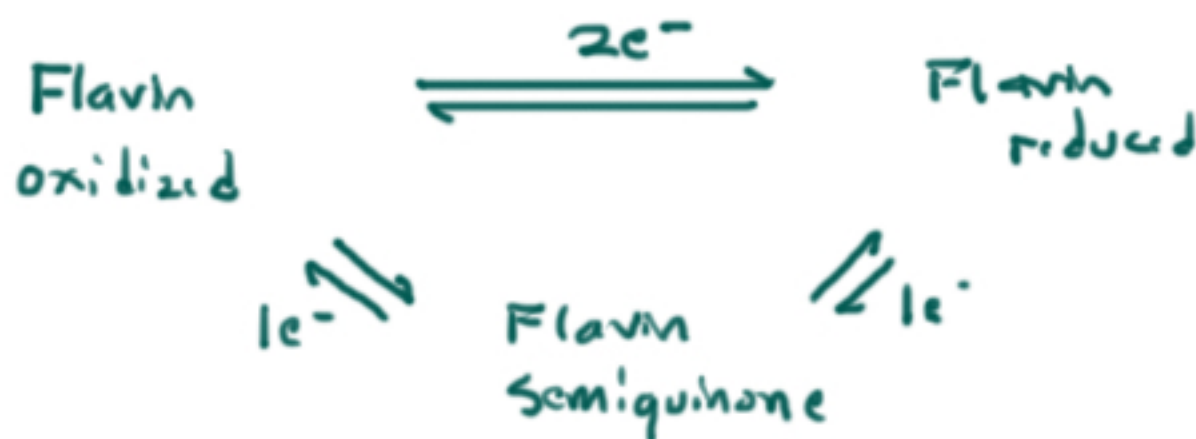


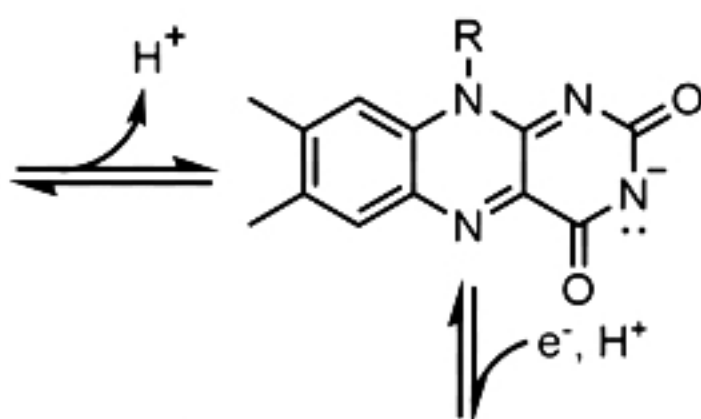
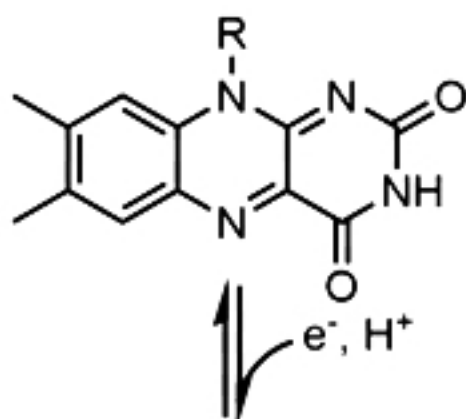
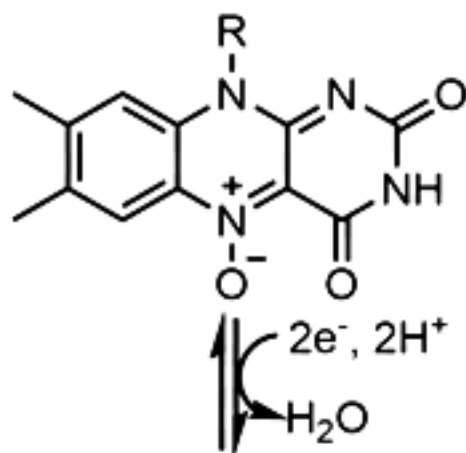
FAD



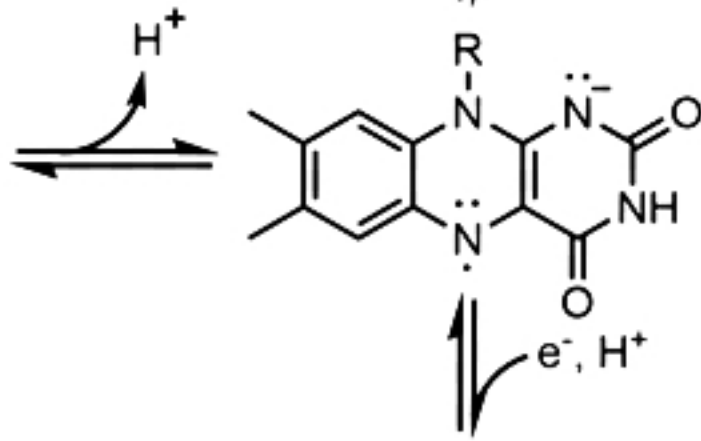
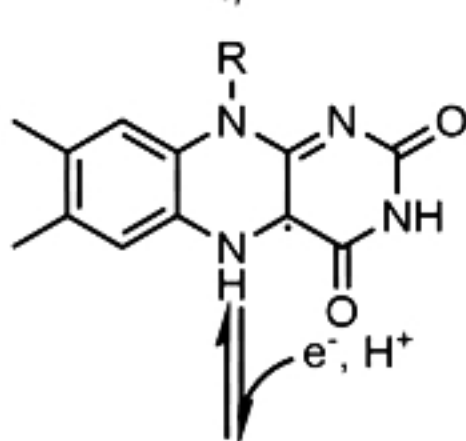
← Flavin (isalloxazine)

FADH_2 ← good electron carrier
like NADH

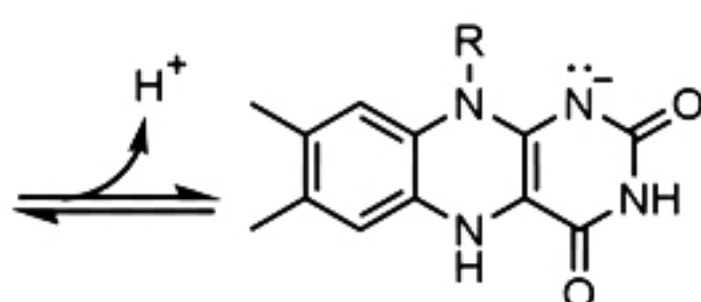
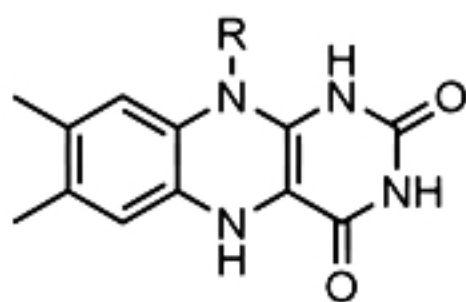




quinone

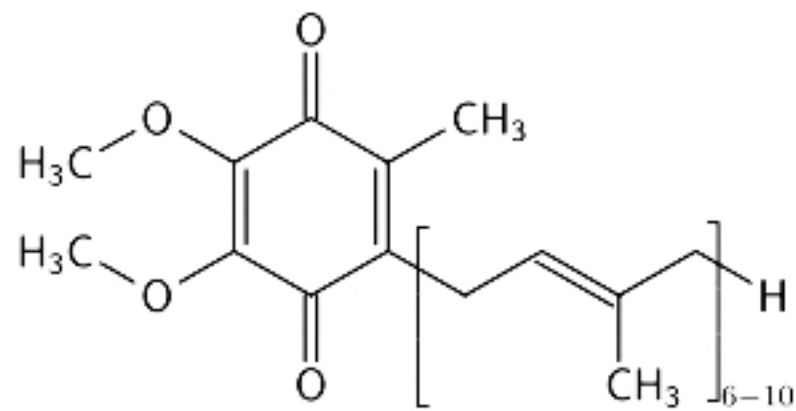


semiquinone



hydroquinone

Ubiquinone - CoQ



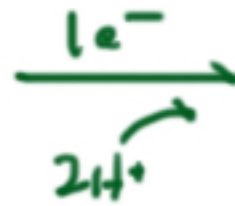
isoprene
unit



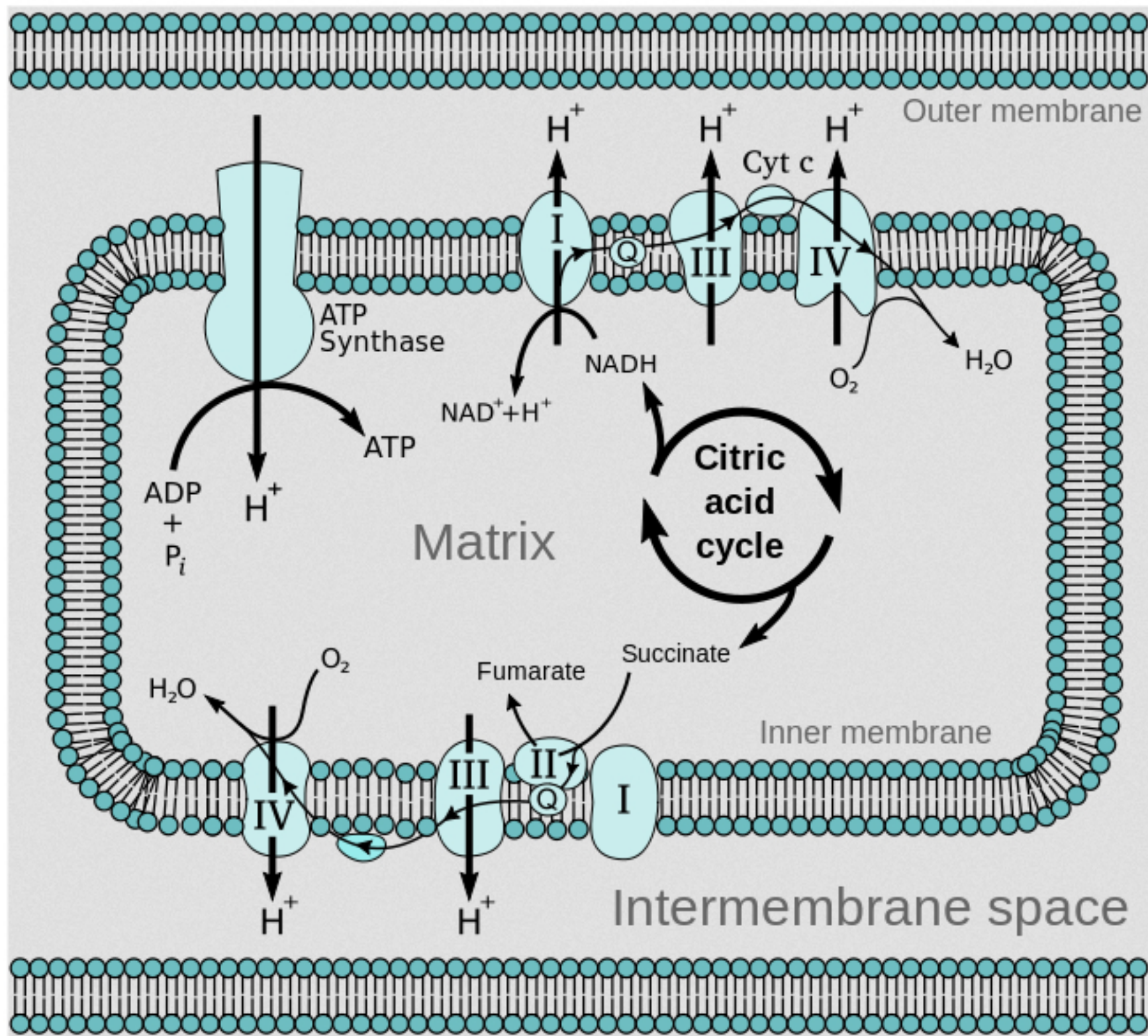
Benzoquinone



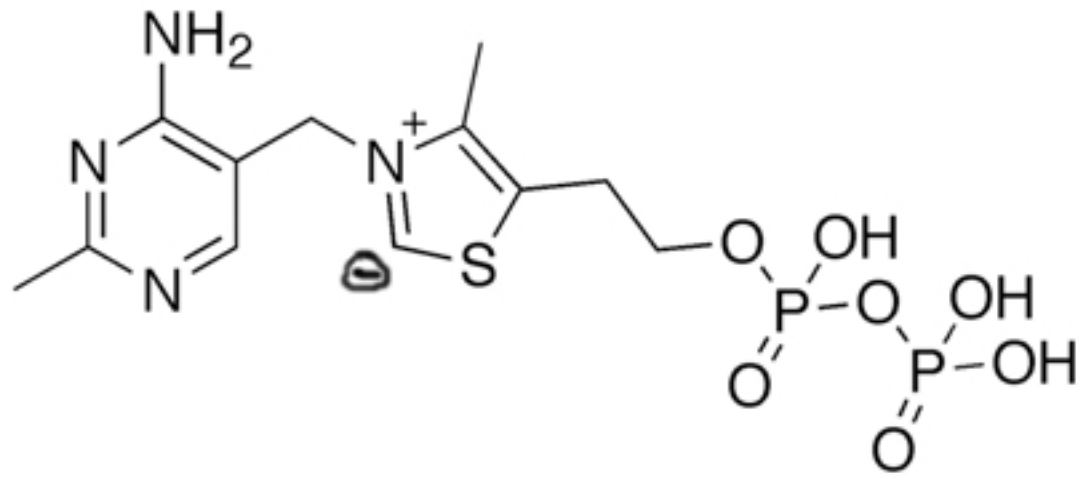
Semiquinone
stable radical



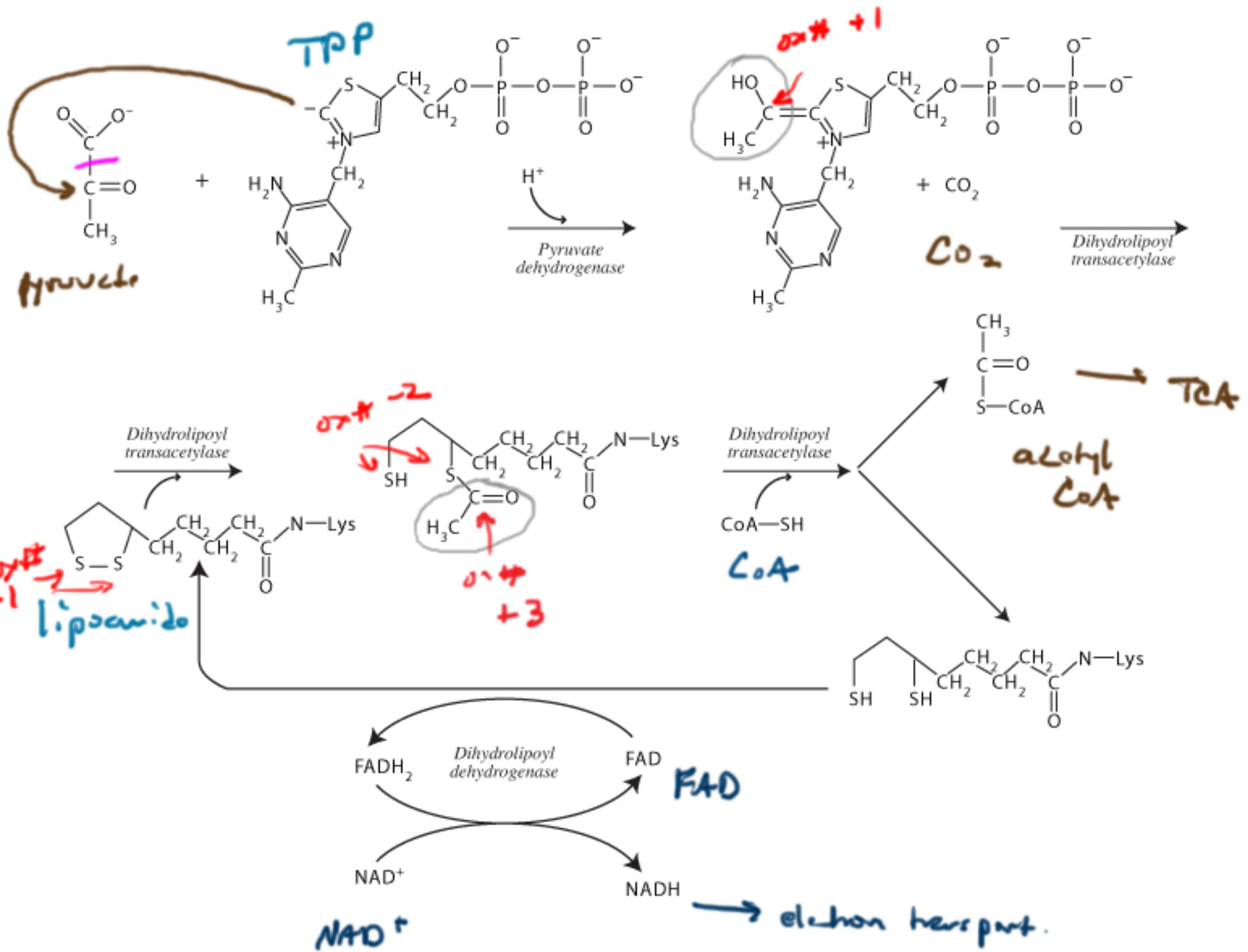
Quinol



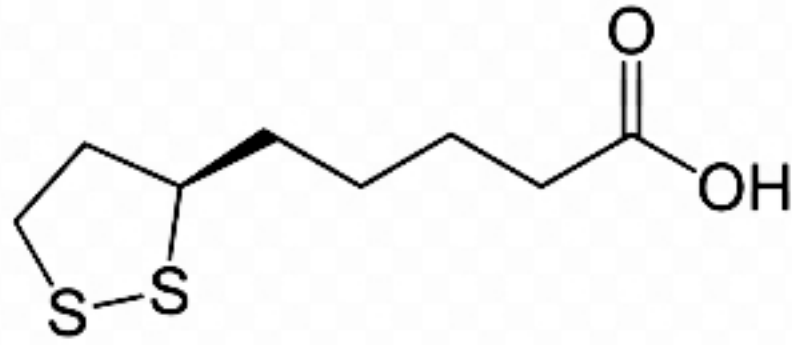
TPP - Thiamine Pyrophosphate



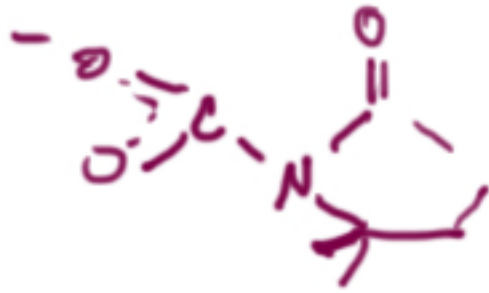
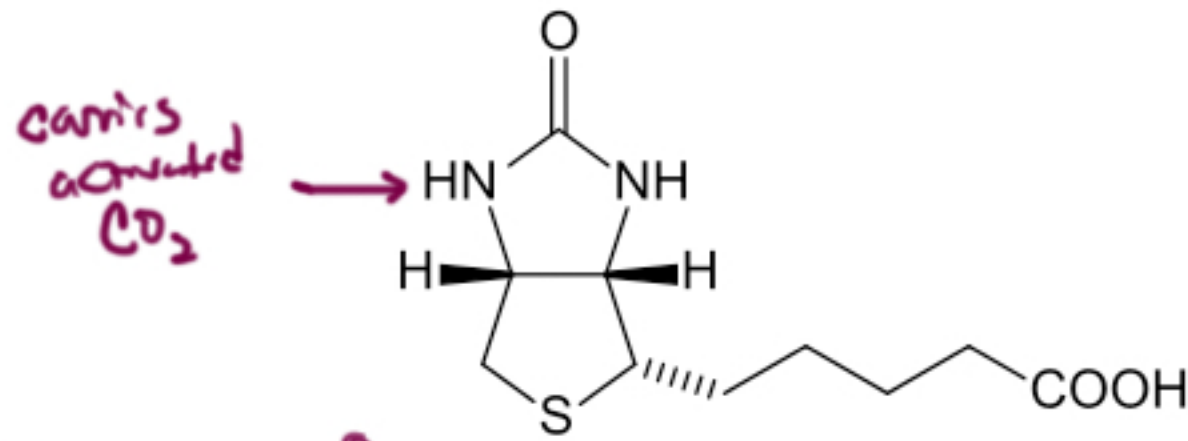
- pyruvate dehydrogenase
- α ketoglutarate dehydrogenase
- transketolase



Lipoic Acid



Biotin

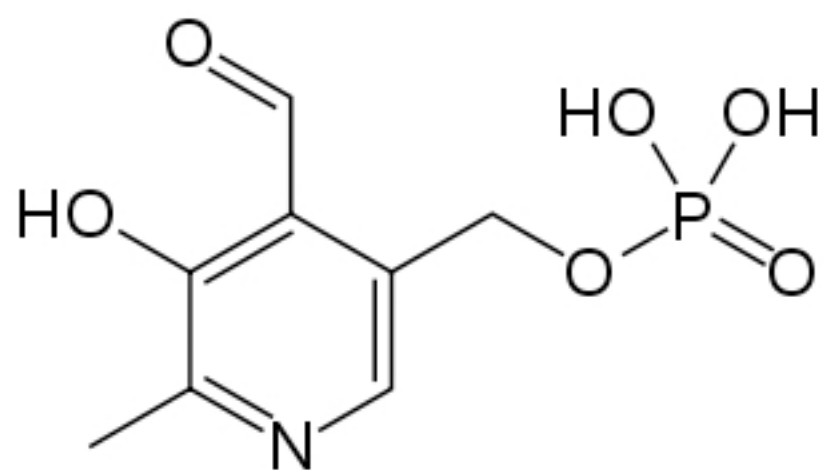


End top
application

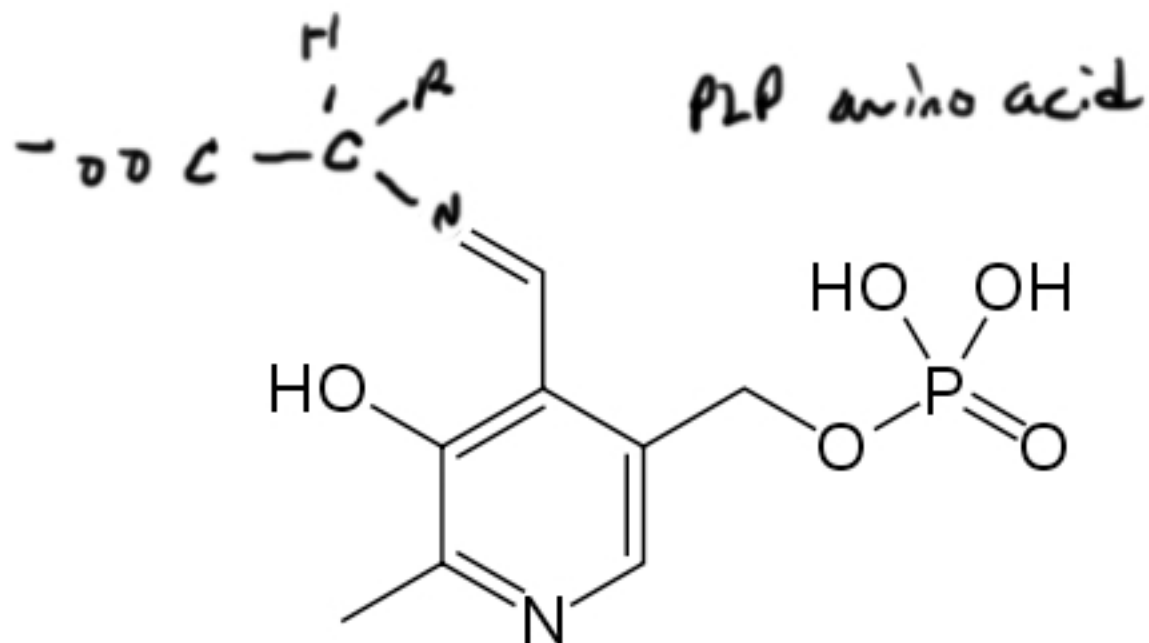
Biotinylation

- adding biotin for
binding to
avidin in
affinity
chromatography

PLP



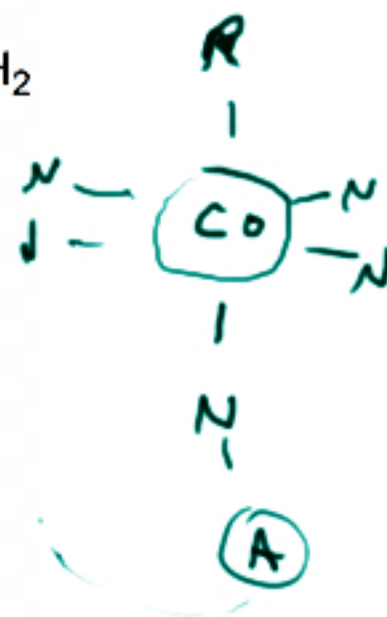
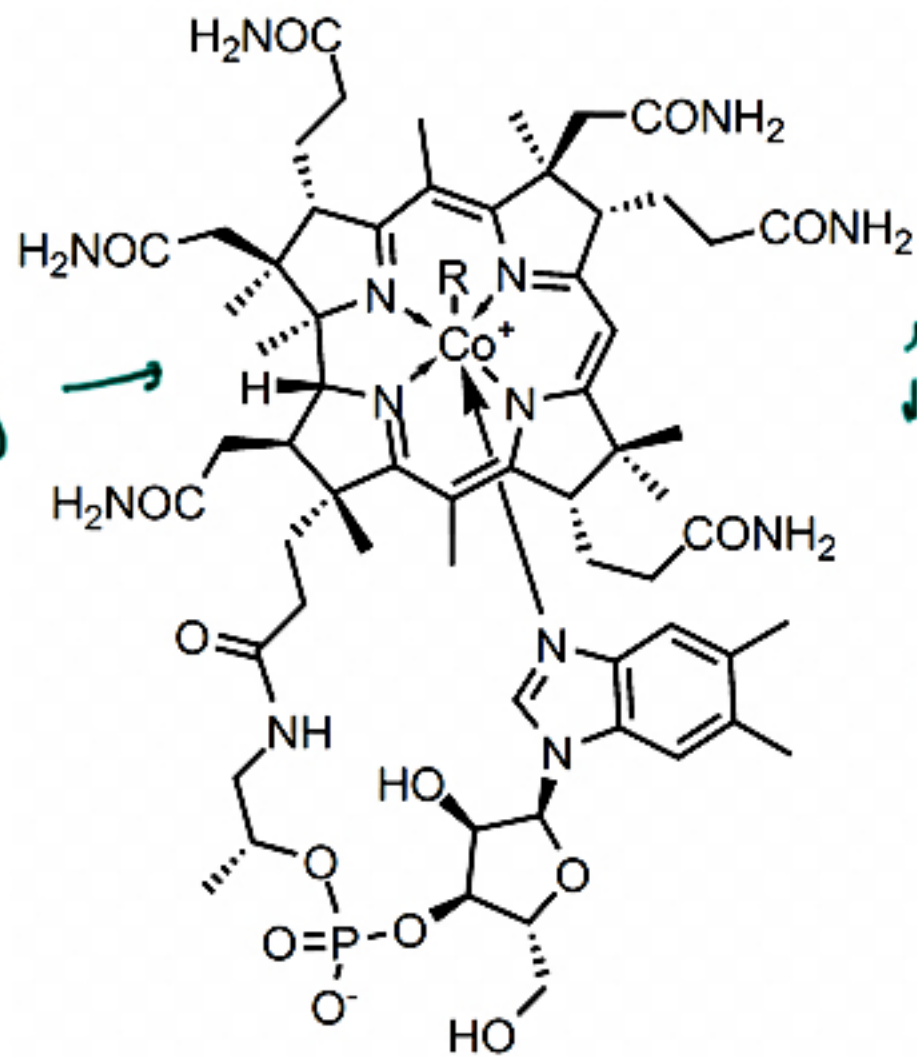
"the amino acid chemistry coenzyme"



PLP amino acid

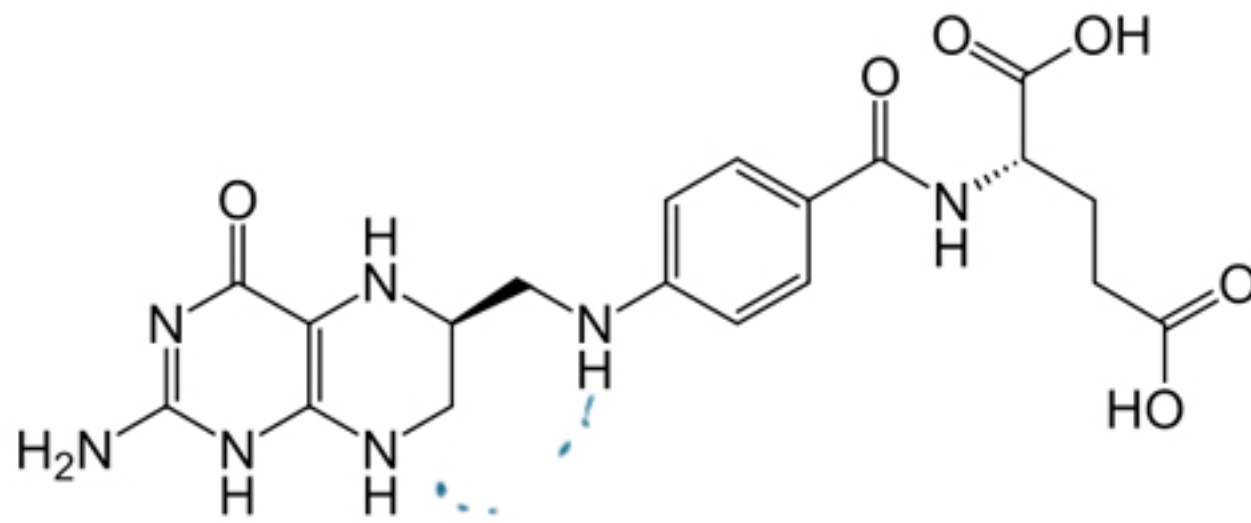
cobalamin

corrin ring



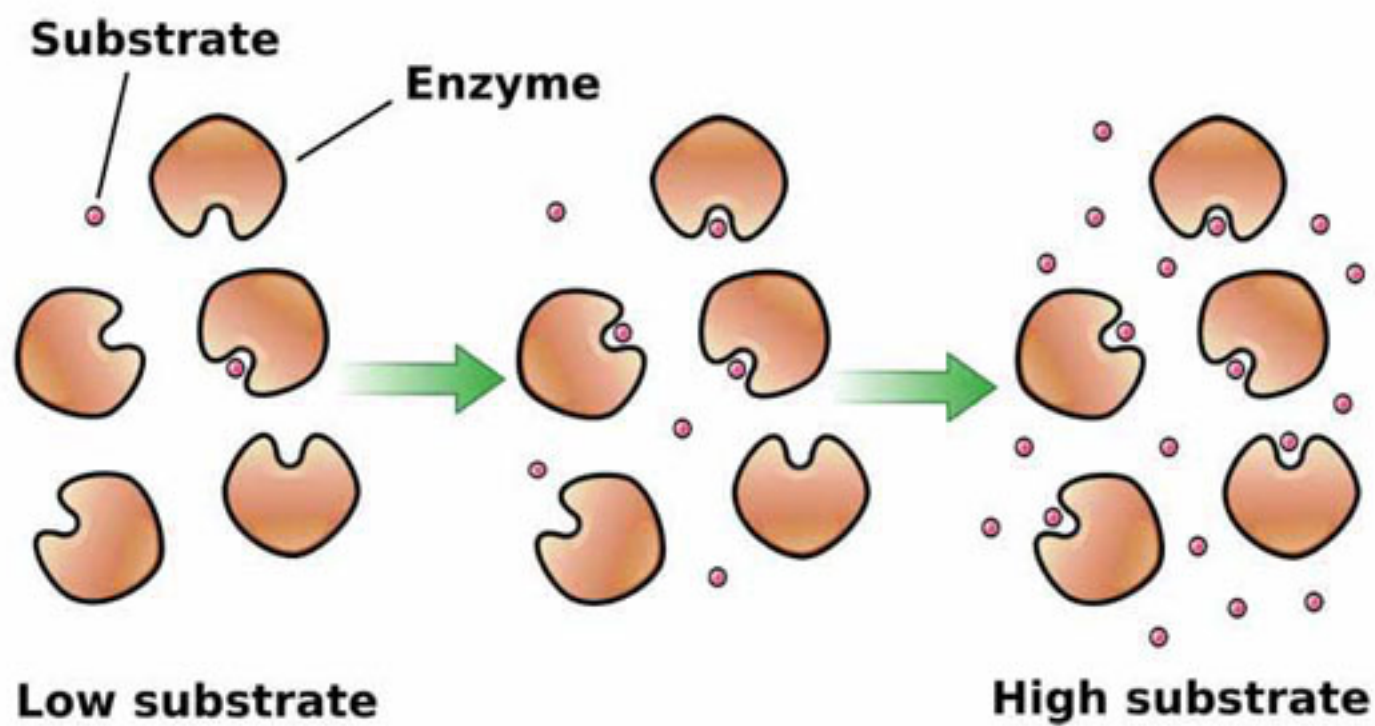
R = 5'-deoxyadenosyl, Me, OH, CN

Folate

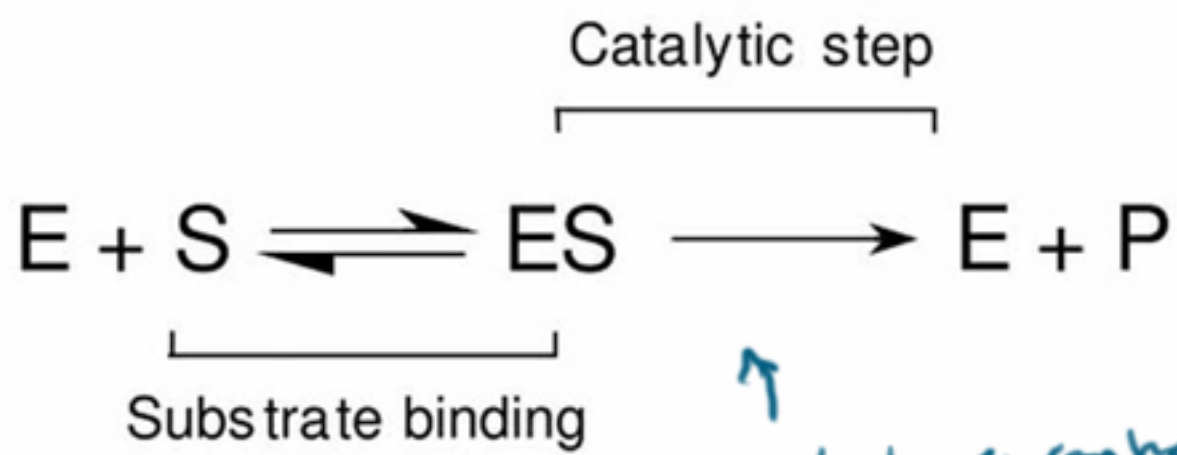


donor of single carbon
units (methyl, formyl,
a variety of types).

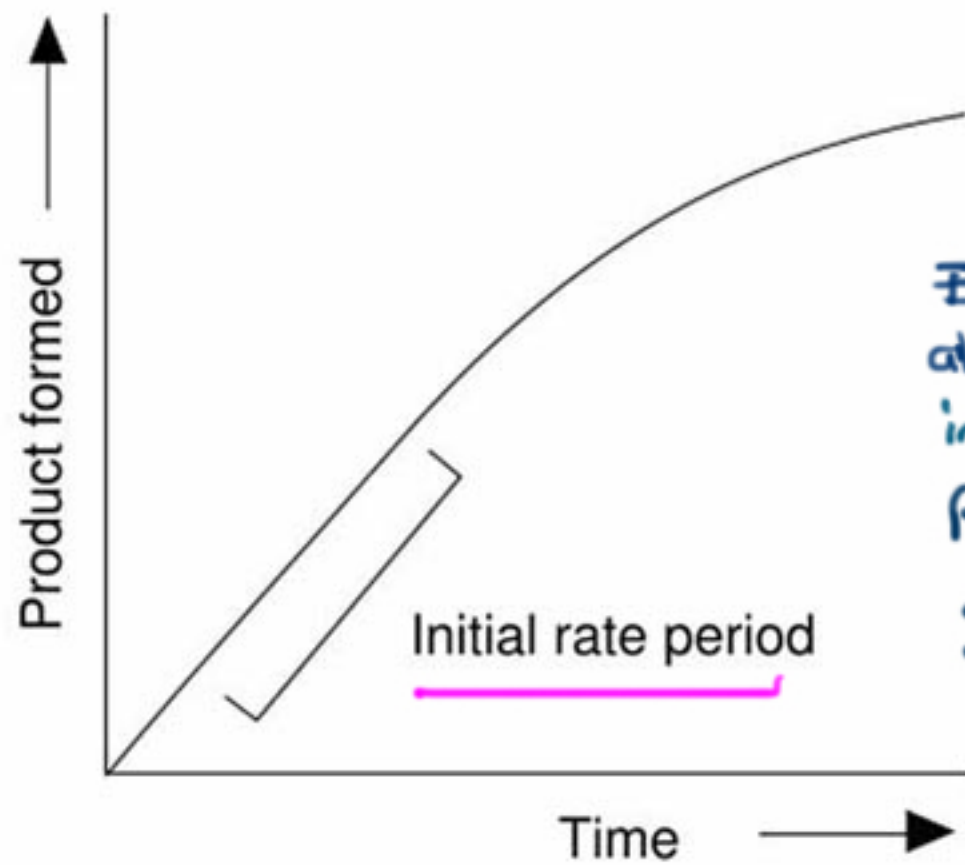
Enzyme kinetics



at high $[S]$ the enzyme becomes saturated and the rate no longer increases with $[S]$



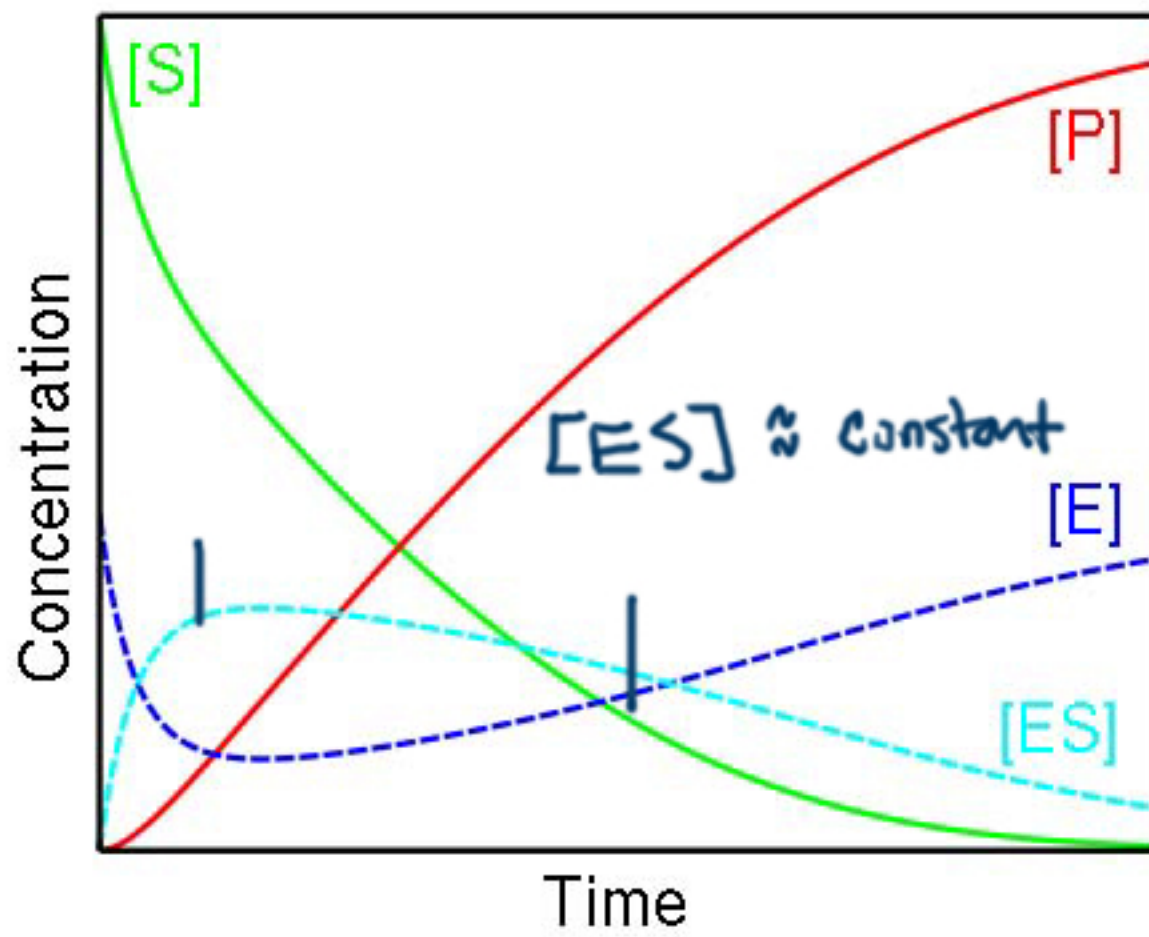
↑
at high concentration
the 2nd step becomes
rate limiting.



Enzyme measurements are almost always done in the initial rate period.

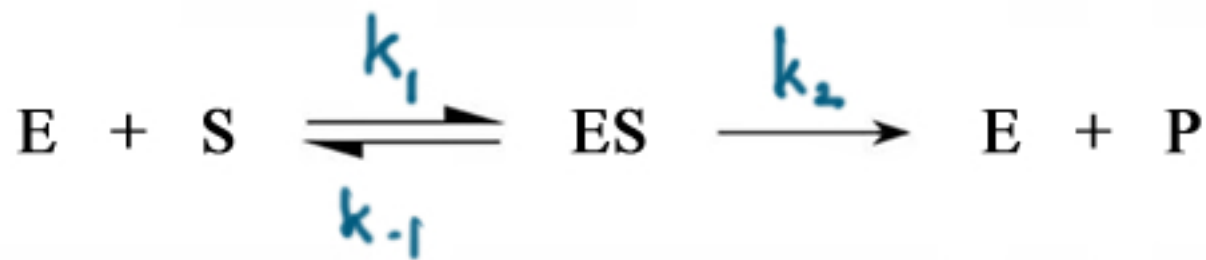
Sometimes you'll see V_0

Sometimes, just V
They're the same.



underlies the
steady state
assumption
- foundation of
Michaelis-Menten
kinetics.

k_2 - turnover number
(k_{cat})

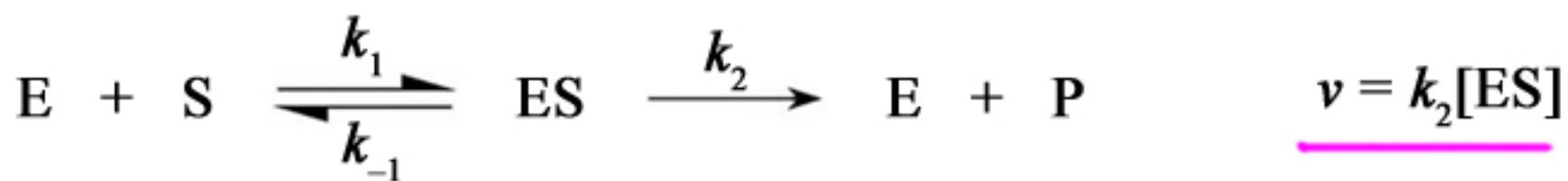


If $[ES]$ is constant

formation = breakdown

$$k_1[E][S] = k_{-1}[ES] + k_2[ES]$$

$$k_1[E][S] = (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES]$$



1) Assuming a steady state where $[ES]$ is constant:

$$k_1[E][S] = (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] \quad \text{formation} \quad \text{breakdown} \quad \text{steady state}$$

$$[ES] = \frac{[E][S]}{(k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1}$$

$$K_M = \frac{k_{-1} + k_2}{k_1} \quad \text{Michaelis constant}$$

$$[ES] = \frac{[E][S]}{K_M}$$

↑

The bigger K_M
the harder to saturate
the enzyme.

2) Assuming total enzyme doesn't change:

$$[E] = [E_T] - [ES]$$

$$[ES] = \frac{([E_T] - [ES])[S]}{K_M}$$

$$[ES] = [E_T] \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

$\frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M} \leftarrow \% \text{ saturation}$

$$v = k_2[E_T] \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

$$v = V_{\max} \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

$$\frac{v}{V_{\max}} = \% \text{ saturation} = \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

$$v_0 = \frac{V_{\max}[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

$$v = V_{\max} \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_M}$$

• If $[S] \gg K_M$

$$v \approx V_{\max}$$

• If $[S] \ll K_M$

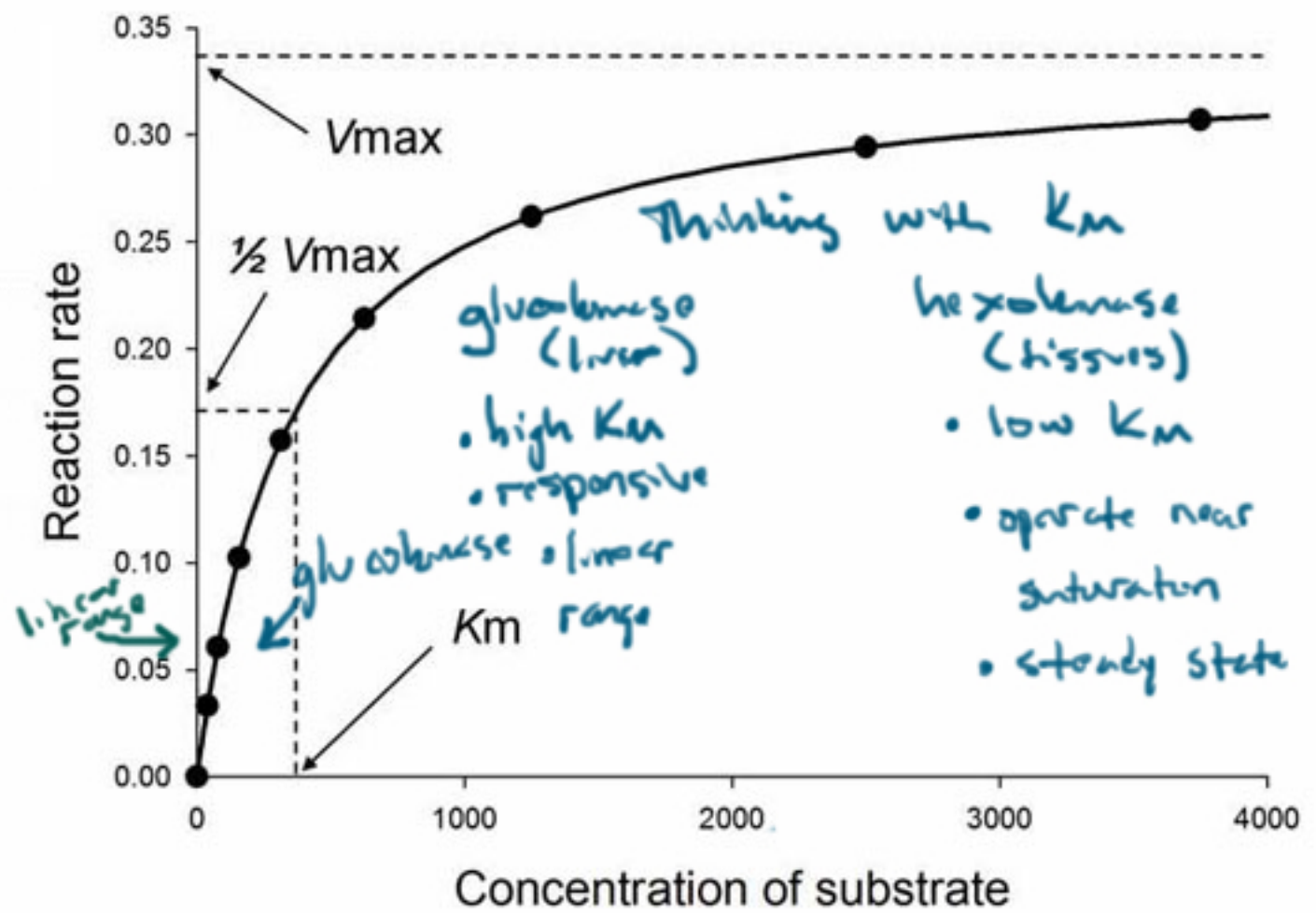
$$v \approx \frac{V_{\max}}{K_M} [S]$$

(linear range)

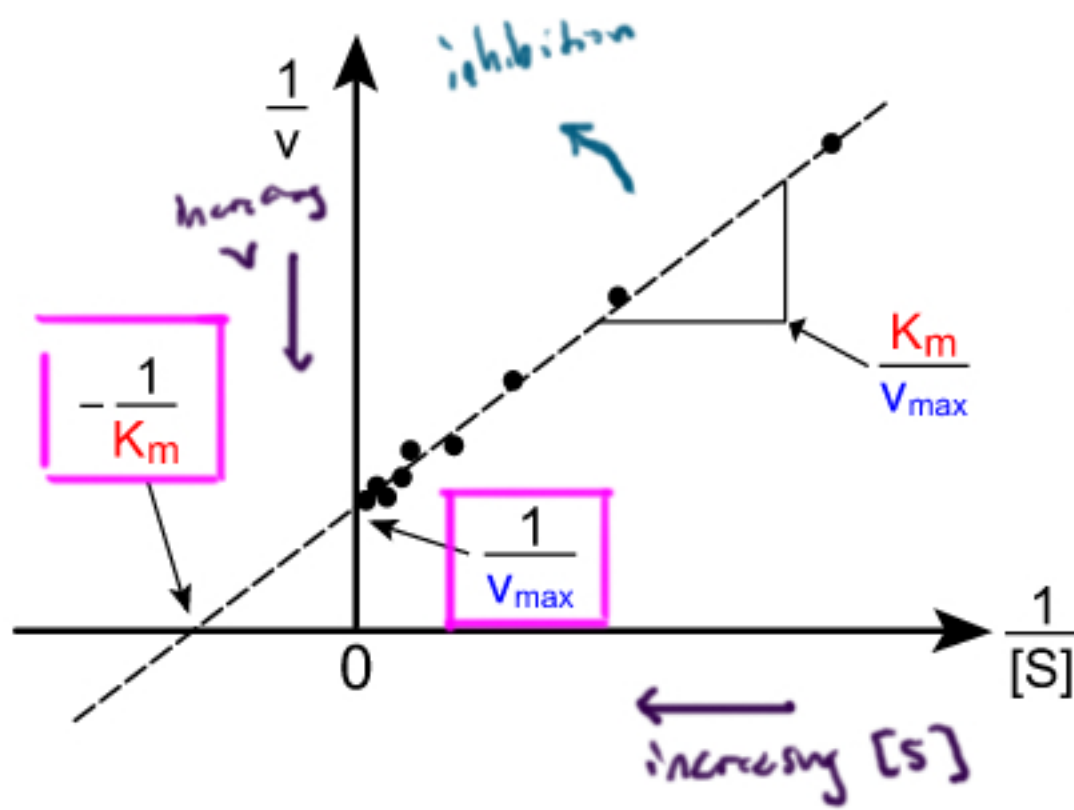
• If $[S] = K_M$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} V_{\max}$$

K_M is the $[S]$ needed to half saturate the enzyme.



Linear Birge Plot



$$\frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{V_{\max}} + \left(\frac{K_M}{V_{\max}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{[S]} \right)$$

$$y = b + m x$$



Catalytic efficiency: $\frac{k_2}{K_M} \approx \frac{k_{cat}}{K_M}$

Enzyme	K_m (M)	k_{cat} (1/s)	k_{cat}/K_m (1/M*s)
Chymotrypsin	1.5×10^{-2}	0.14	9.3
Pepsin	3.0×10^{-4}	0.50	1.7×10^3
Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase	9.0×10^{-4}	7.6	8.4×10^3
Ribonuclease	7.9×10^{-3}	7.9×10^2	1.0×10^5
Carbonic anhydrase	2.6×10^{-2}	4.0×10^5	1.5×10^7 ★
Fumarase	5.0×10^{-6}	8.0×10^2	1.6×10^8 ★

when it's high the enzyme binds substrate, doesn't fall backwards, and turns over right away.

Is there a natural limit?

$$\frac{k_2}{K_M} = \frac{k_2 k_1}{k_{-1} + k_2}$$

Yes. Diffusion limits k_1 .

Catalytic efficiency is limited to 10^8 to $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$
 • to get close means enzymatic perfection ★

Hexokinase catalyzes the phosphorylation of both glucose and fructose. K_m for hexokinase with glucose is 0.15mM. K_m for fructose is 1.5mM. Assuming that V_{max} is the same for both enzymes, calculate the normalized initial velocity (v_0 / V_{max}) when the initial substrate concentration is 0.15mM.

glucose
 $K_m = [S]$

$$\frac{v_0}{V_{max}} = 50\%$$

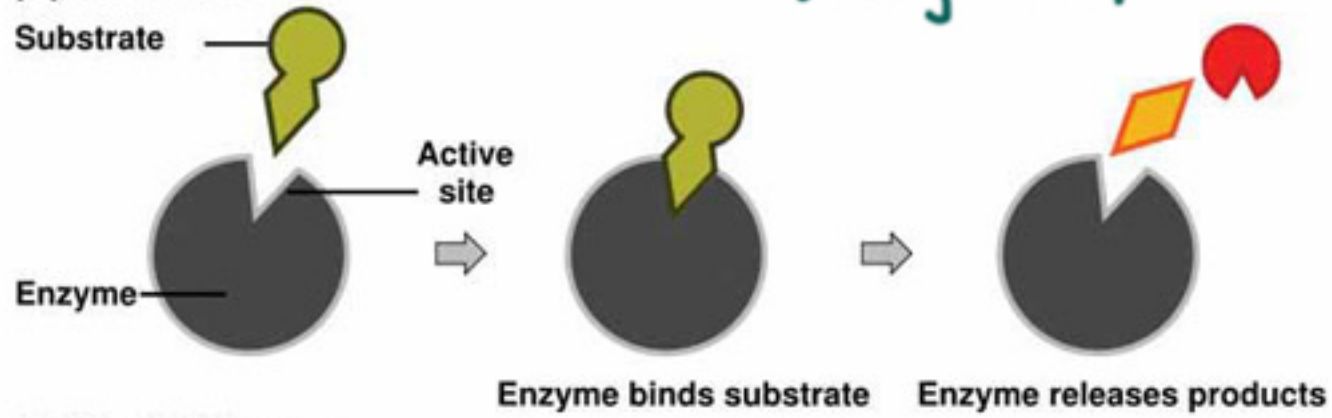
fructose
 $\sim 9\%$

$$v_0 = V_{max} \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_m}$$

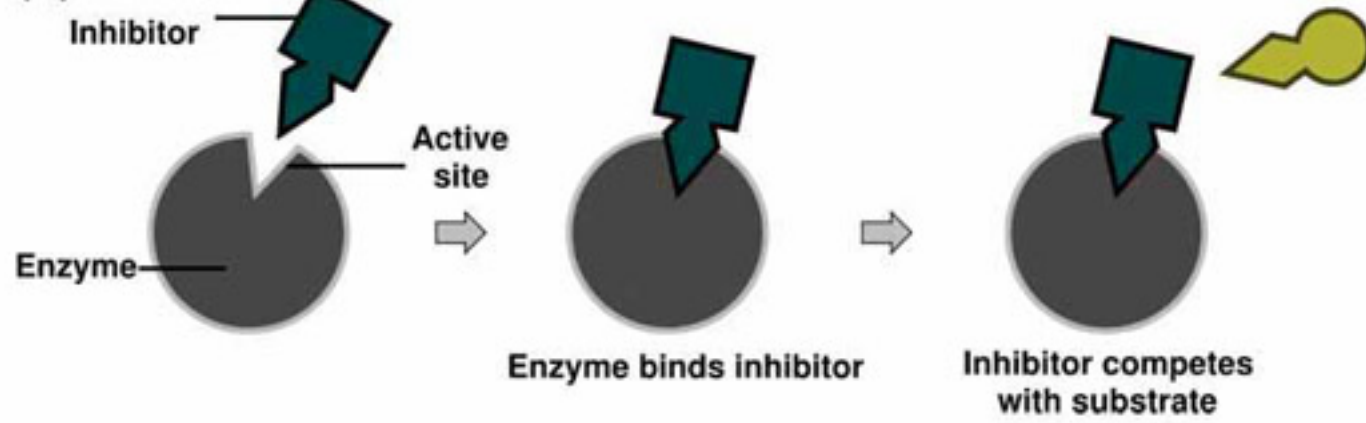
$$\frac{v_0}{V_{max}} = \frac{[S]}{[S] + K_m}$$

Enzyme inhibitors affect
binding and/or turnover

(a) Reaction



(b) Inhibition



Competitive inhibition

Competitive Inhibition



$$v = \frac{V_{\text{max}}[S]}{\alpha K_M + [S]}$$

$\uparrow$
 apparent K_M

You can still saturate the enzyme

You can still get back to V_{max}

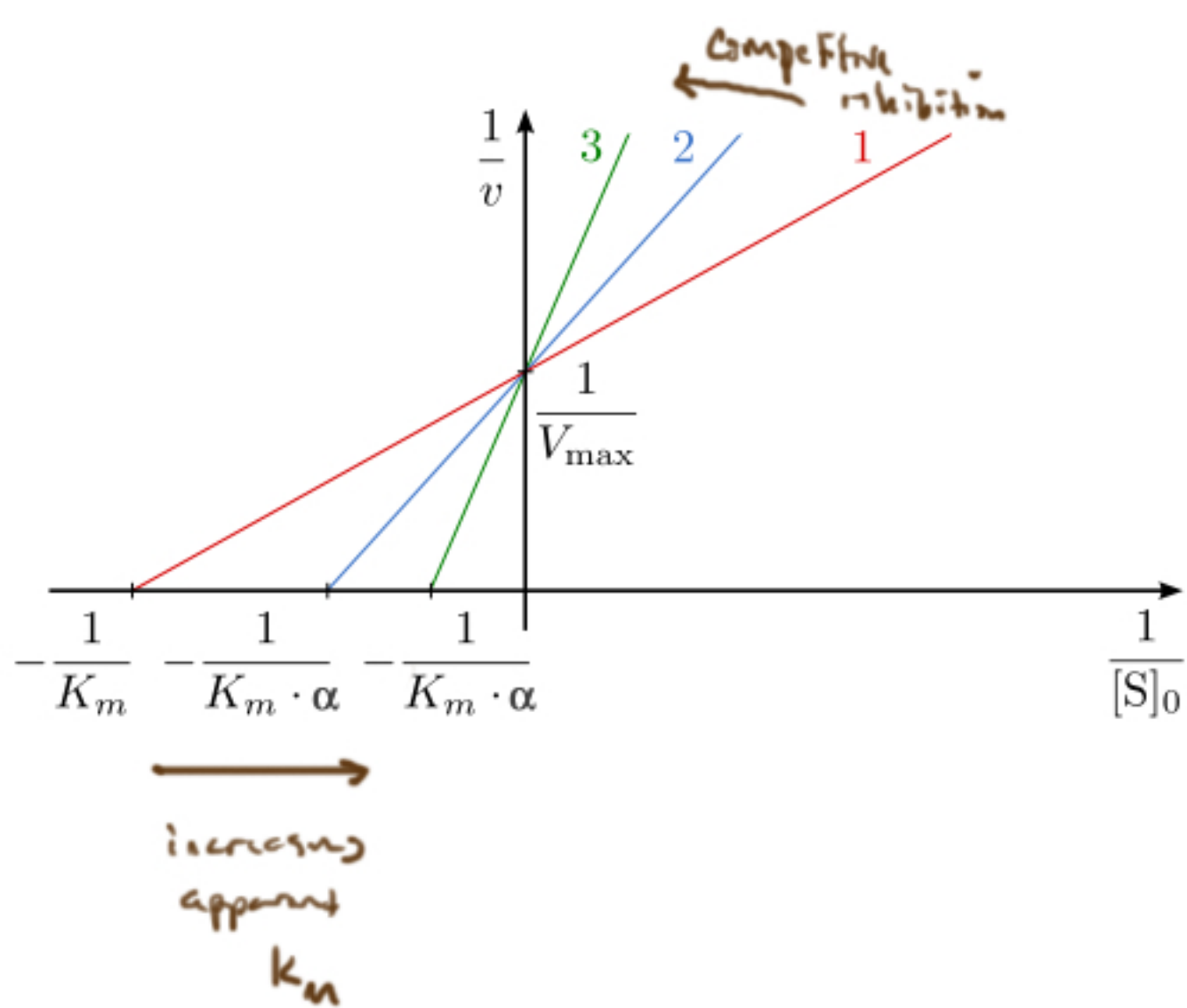
But it's harder to saturate the enzyme.

(Apparent) K_M has increased.

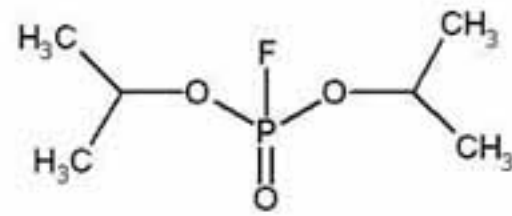
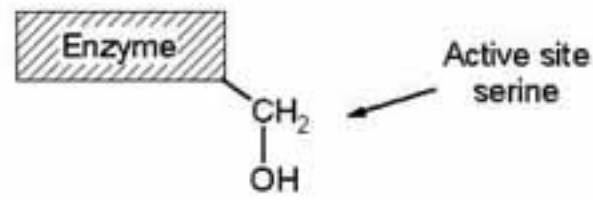
Competitive - V_{max} unchanged

K_M^{app} increases

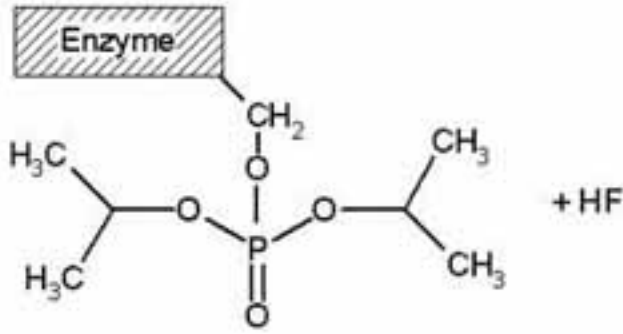
* apparent



acetylcholine
esterase

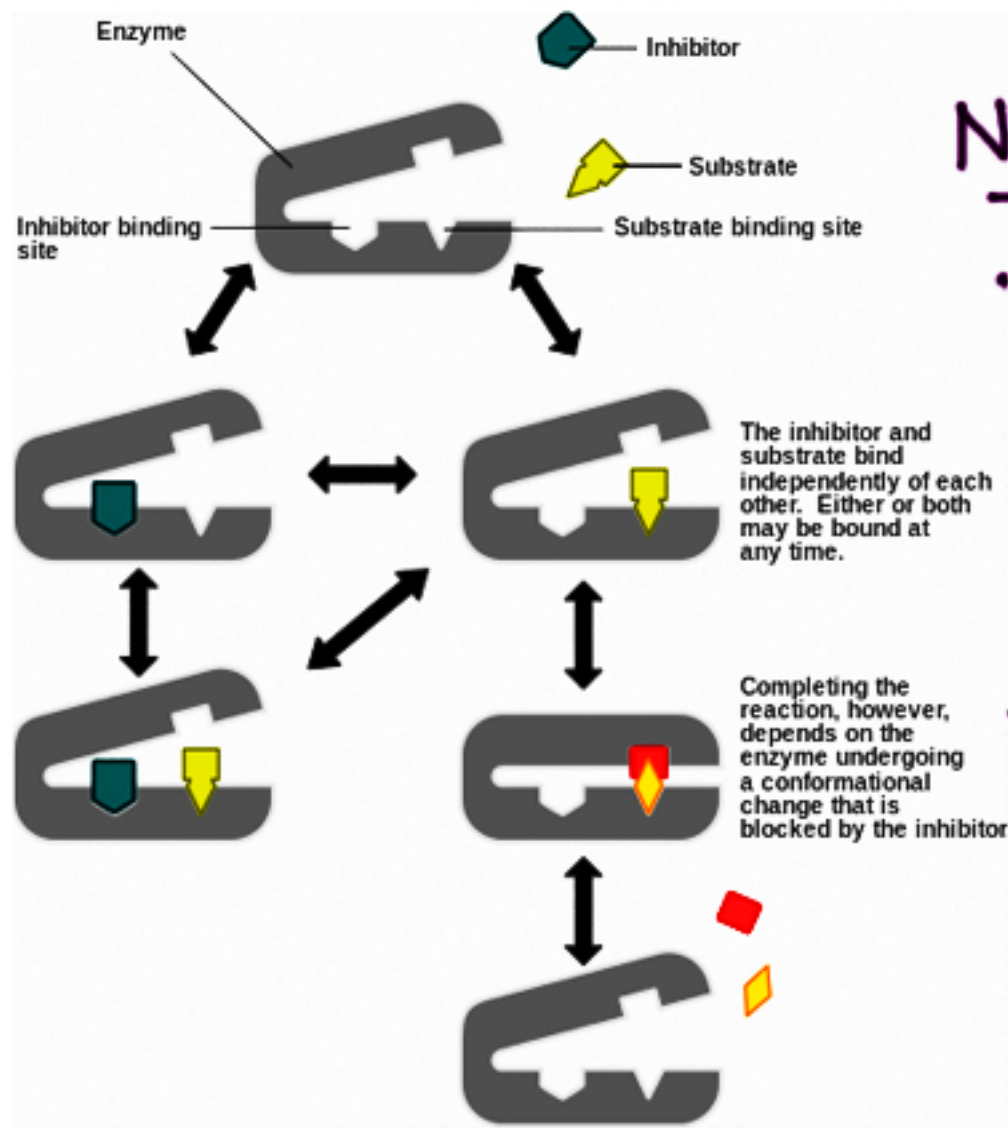


irreversible



suicide
inhibitor
(not a form of
competitive
inhibition)

cannot
turn
over



Noncompetitive

- substrate binds just as easily
- enzyme is as easy to saturate as before

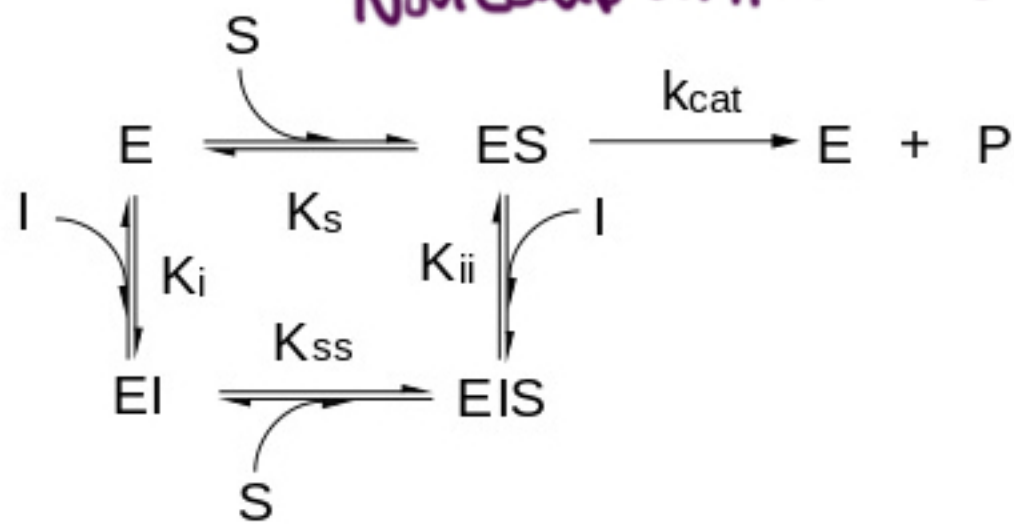
K_m is unchanged

- V_{max} decreased

Mixed

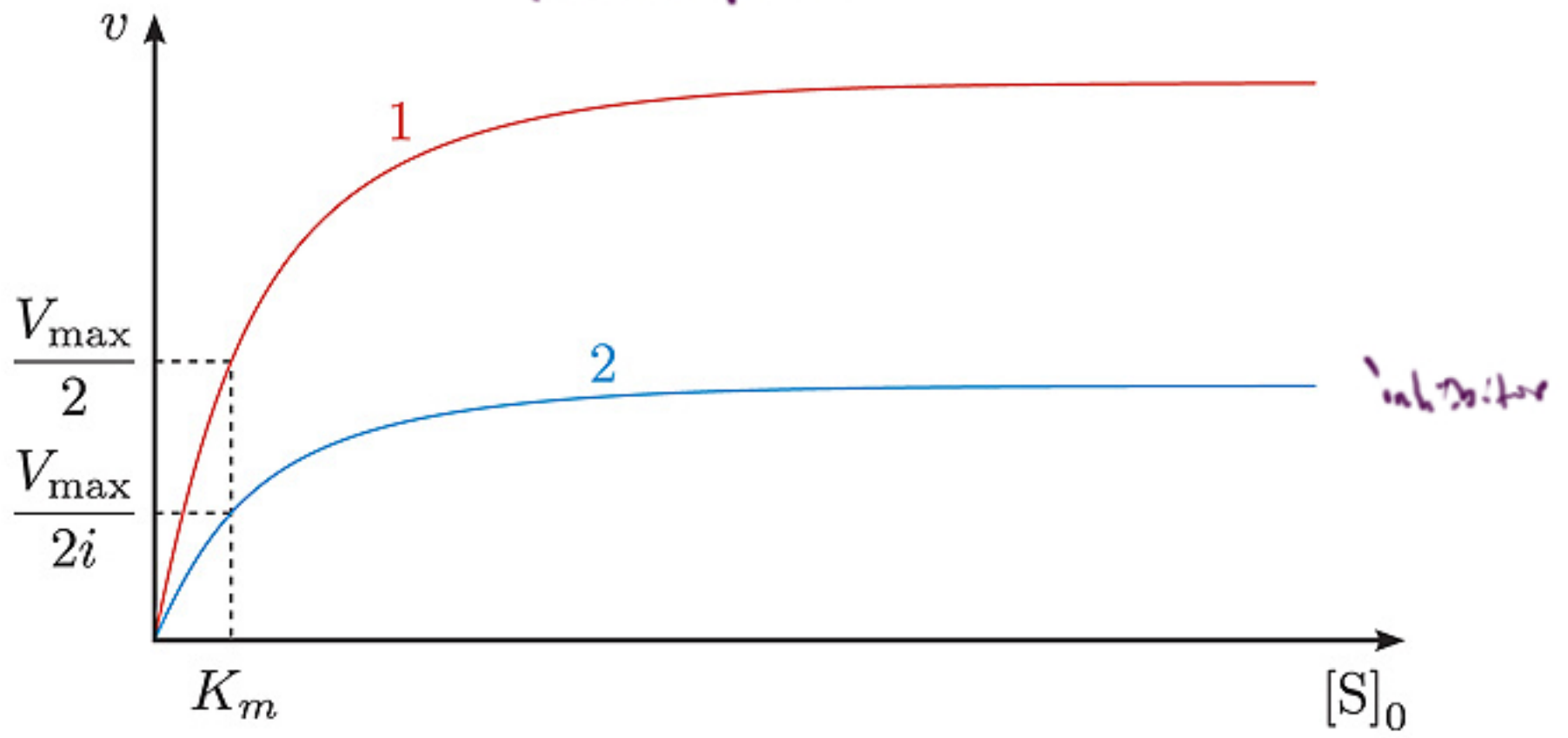
When inhibitor has some effect on binding both K_m and V_{max} change

Noncompetitive (or mixed)



$$v = \frac{V_{\max}[S]}{\alpha K_M + \alpha'[S]}$$

Noncompetitive



V_{max} decreased

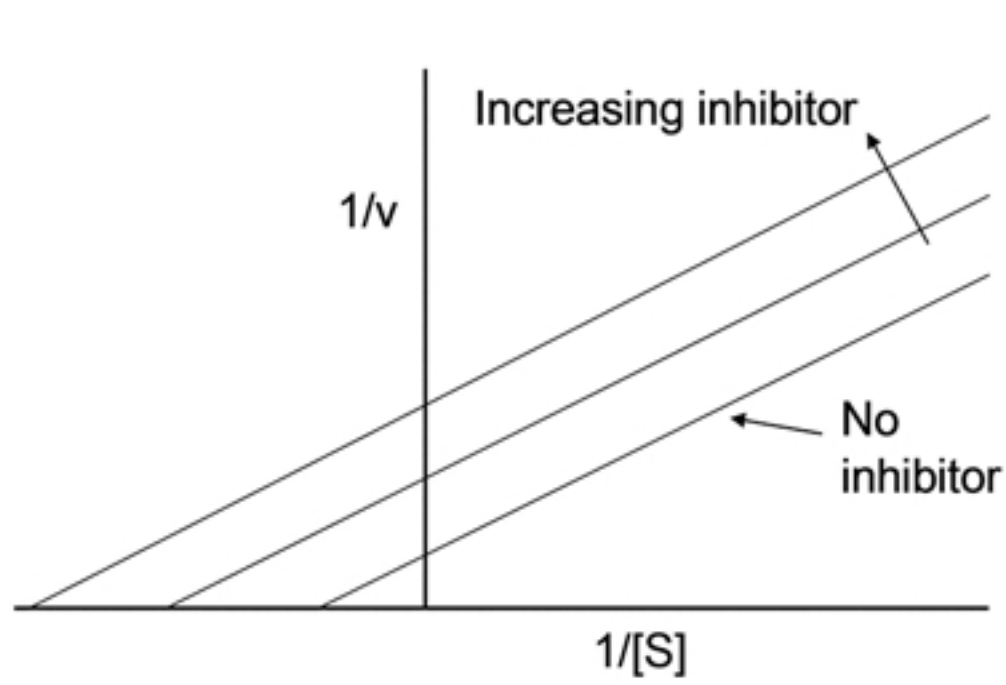
K_m unchanged.

$$E + S \xrightleftharpoons{K_s} ES \xrightarrow{k_{cat}} E + P$$

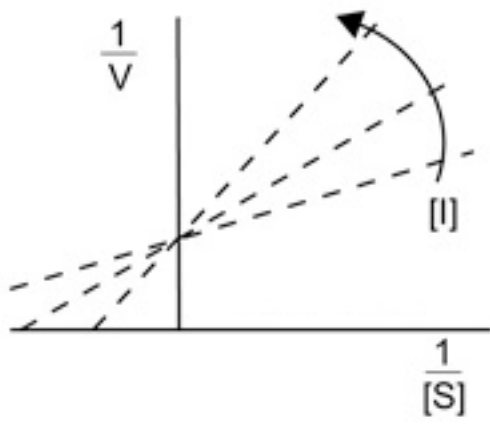
$$ES + I \xrightleftharpoons{K_{ii}} EIS$$

V_{max} decreased

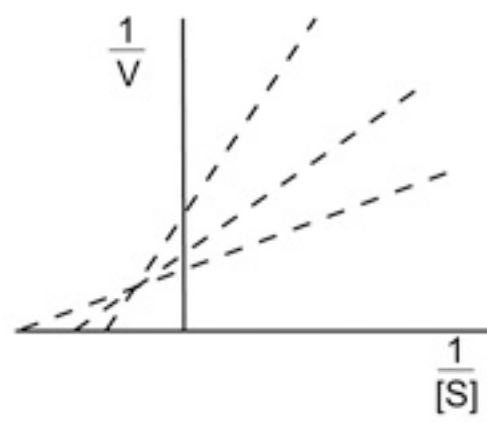
K_m decreases also (proportionally)



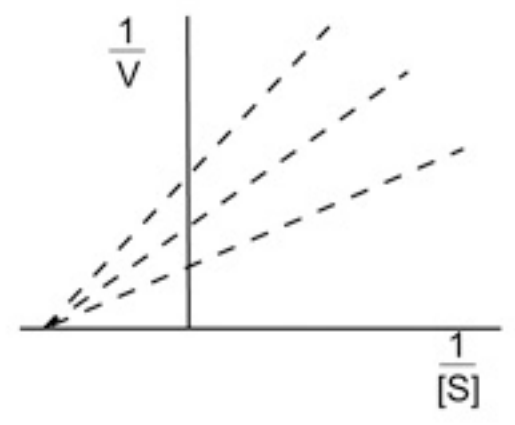
uncompetitive



Competitive



mixed



noncompetitive

Type of inhibition	K_m apparent	$V_{\max}$ apparent
competitive	$K_m\alpha$	$V_{\max}$
uncompetitive	$\frac{K_m}{\alpha'}$	$\frac{V_{\max}}{\alpha'}$
non-competitive	K_m	$\frac{V_{\max}}{\alpha'}$
mixed	$\frac{K_m\alpha}{\alpha'}$	$\frac{V_{\max}}{\alpha'}$

Bisubstrate Mechanisms



With sucrose phosphorylase, incubate with sucrose and isotopically labelled fructose* in the absence of phosphate - the label passes to sucrose.

Also, incubation with labelled glucose-1-phosphate* and phosphate, the label passes to phosphate.

The analogous process does not happen with maltose phosphorylase.

Sucrose Phosphorylase - Ping Pong Mechanism



Maltose Phosphorylase - Sequential Mechanism

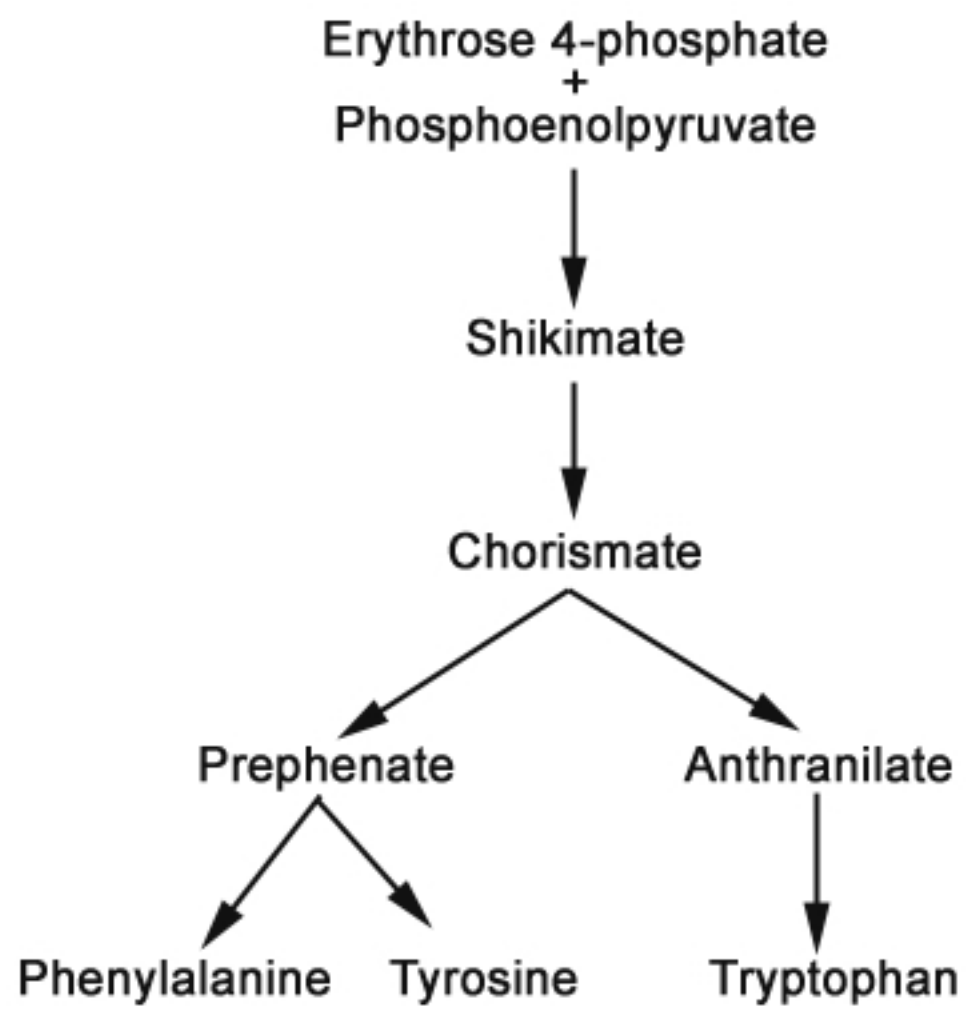


- Sequential mechanisms may be ordered or random.

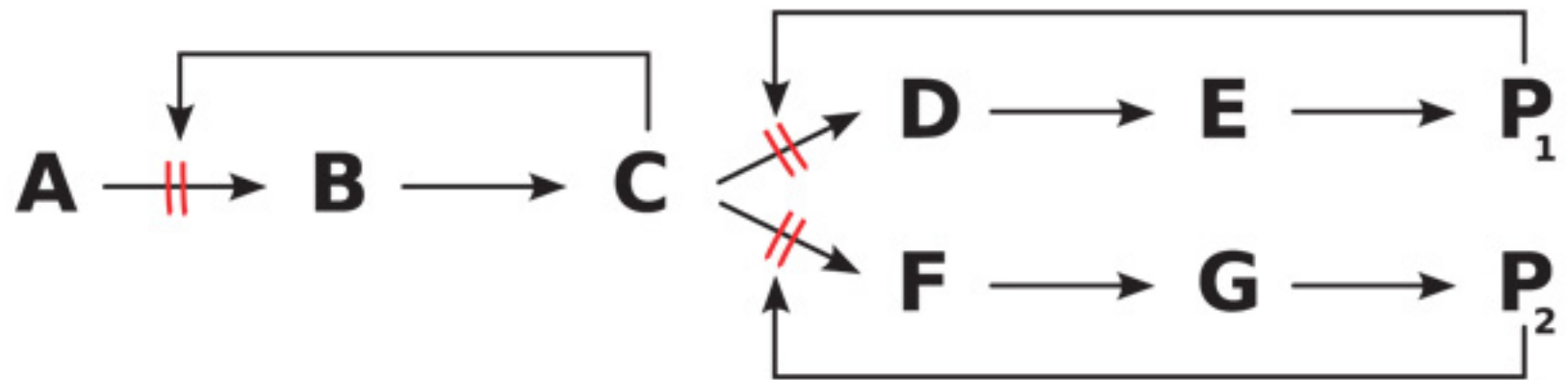
Basic Feedback

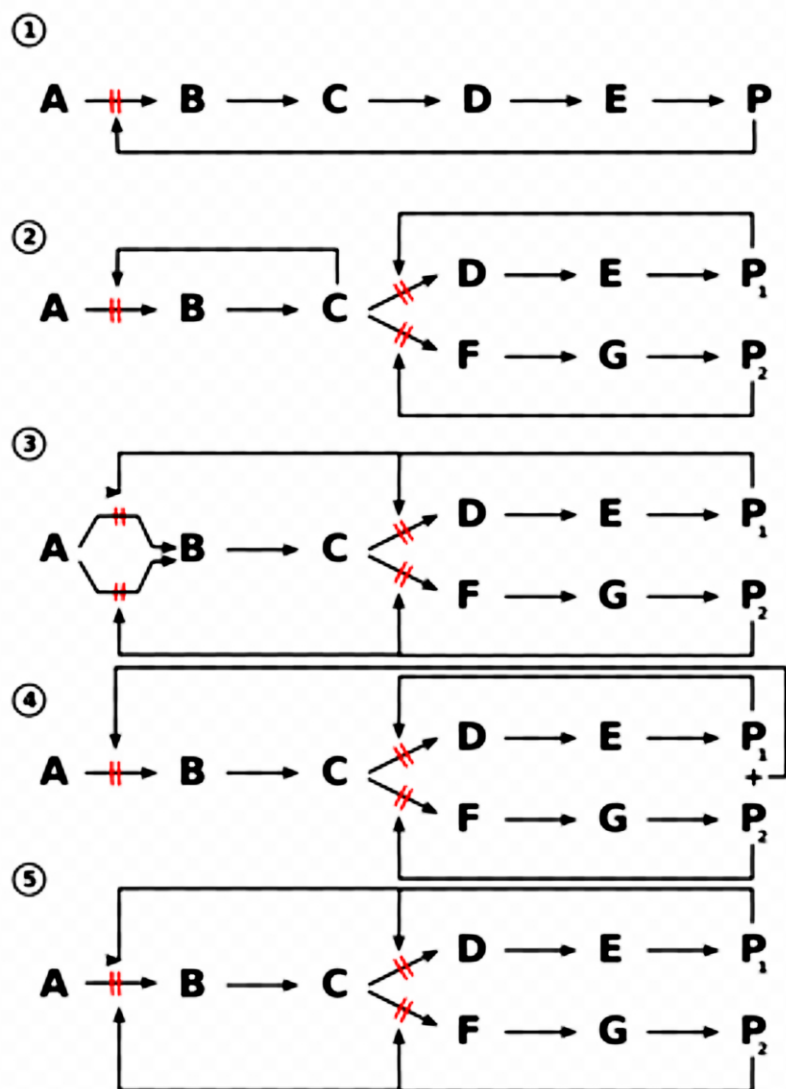


↑
committed
stop



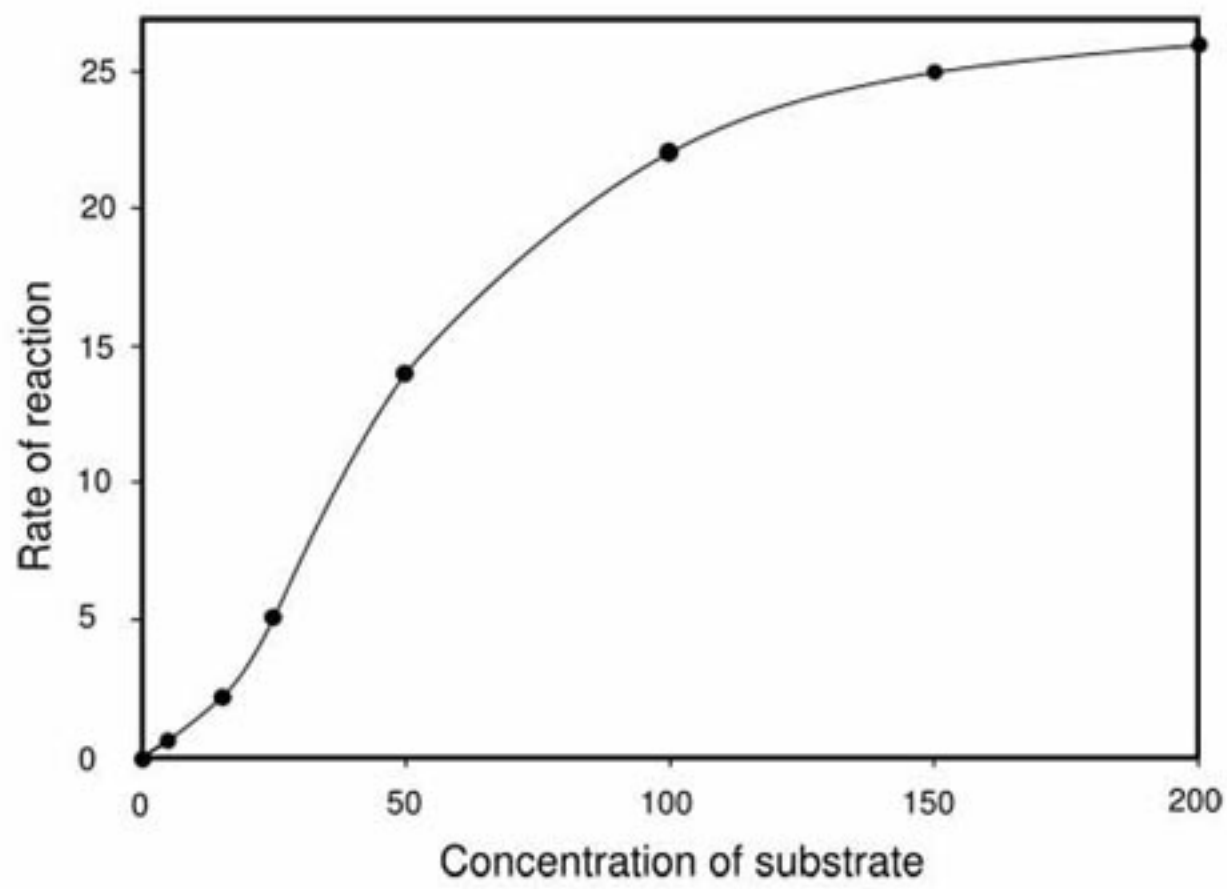
Sequential Feedback





1. The basic feedback inhibition mechanism, where the product (P) inhibits the committed step (A–B).
2. *Sequential feedback inhibition.* The end products P_1 and P_2 inhibit the first committed step of their individual pathway (C–D or C–F). If both products are present in abundance, all pathways from C are blocked. This leads to a buildup of C, which in turn inhibits the first common committed step A–B.
3. *Enzyme multiplicity.* Each end product inhibits both the first individual committed step and one of the enzymes performing the first common committed step.
4. *Concerted feedback inhibition.* Each end product inhibits the first individual committed step. *Together*, they inhibit the first common committed step.
5. *Cumulative feedback inhibition.* Each end product inhibits the first individual committed step. Also, each end product *partially* inhibits the first common committed step.

Supplemental



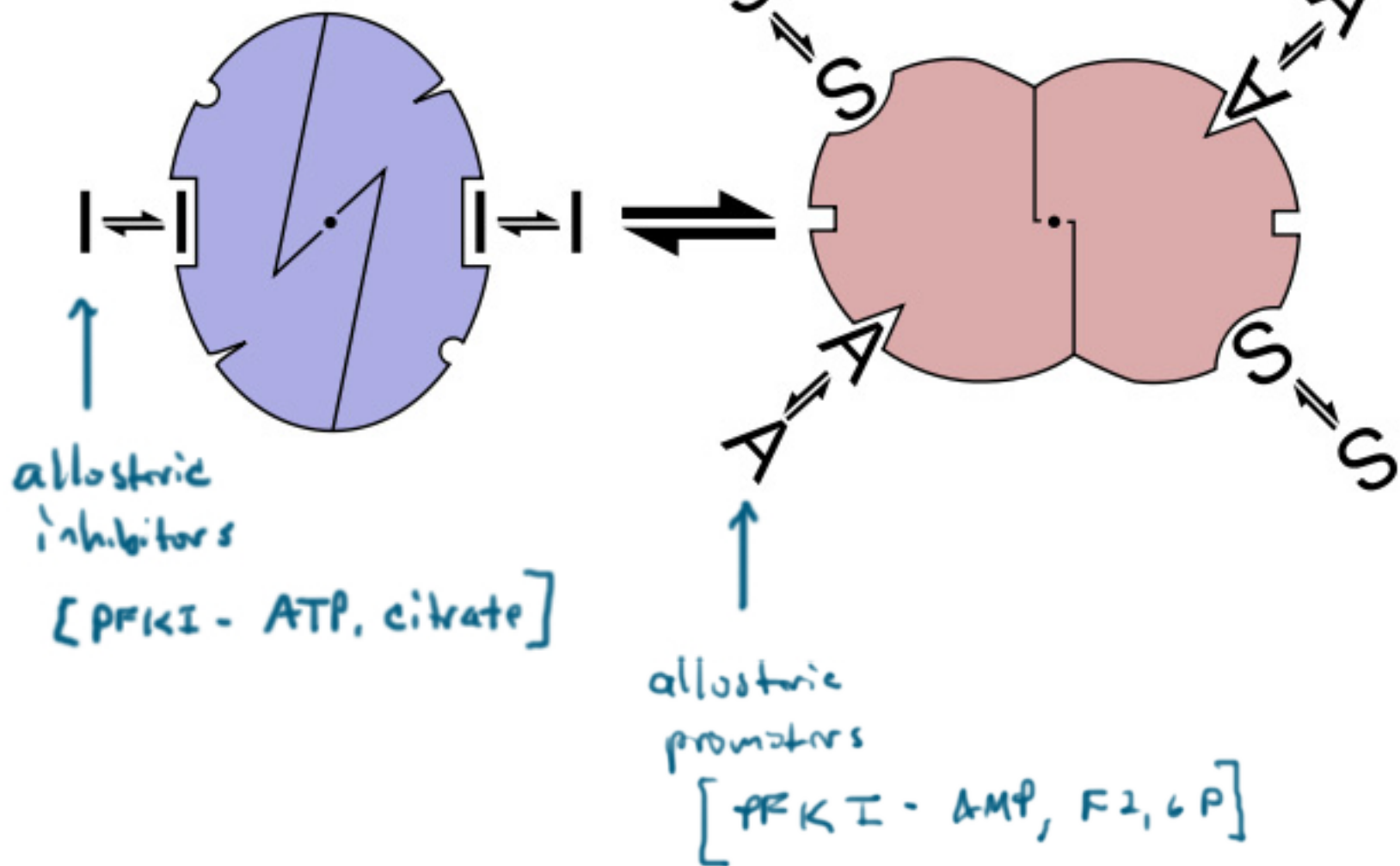
- sigmoidal
- positive cooperativity
- multisubunit (almost certainly)
- Hill coefficient > 1



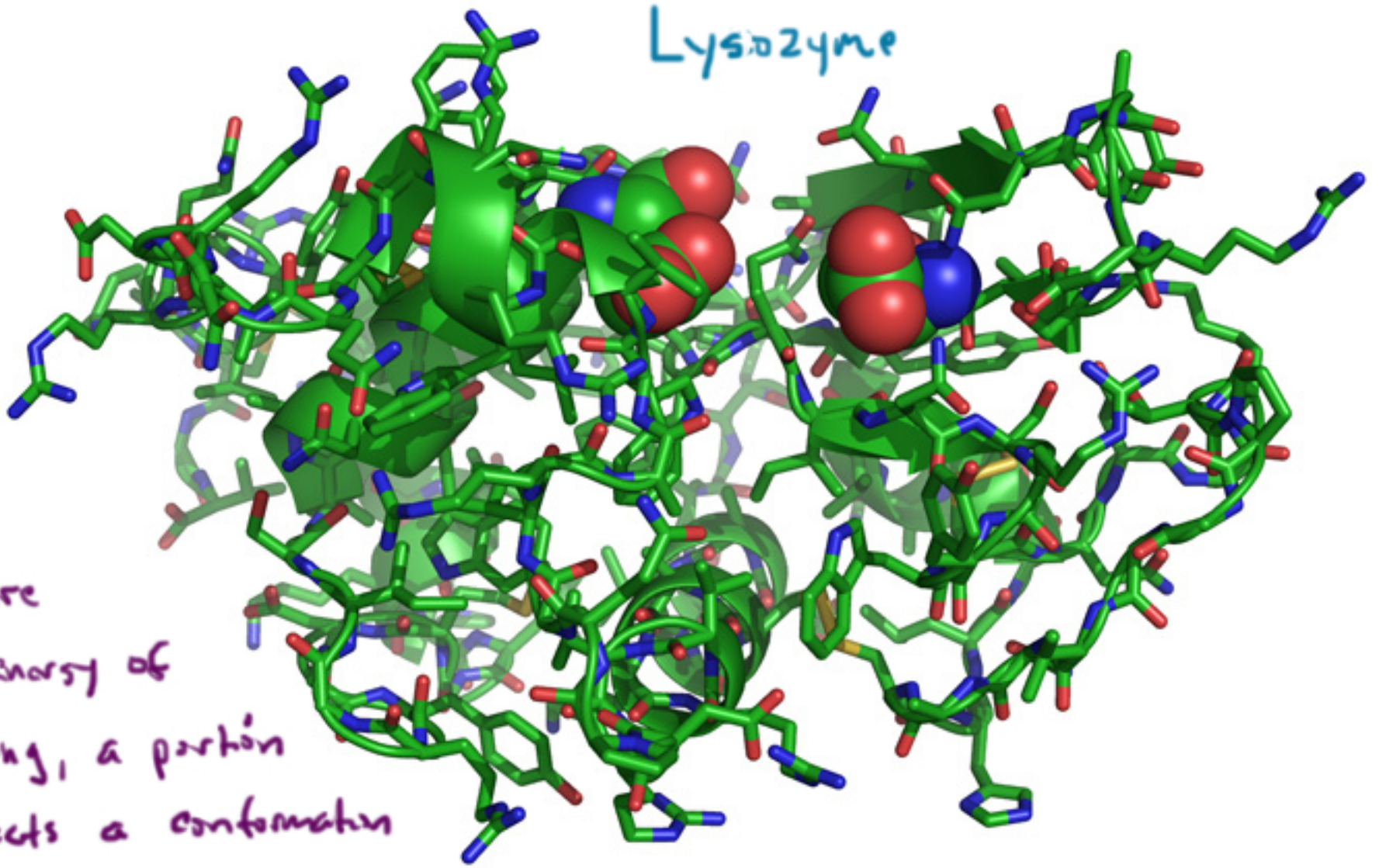
Monod Jacob Model

Tense (T)
inactive

Relaxed (R)
active



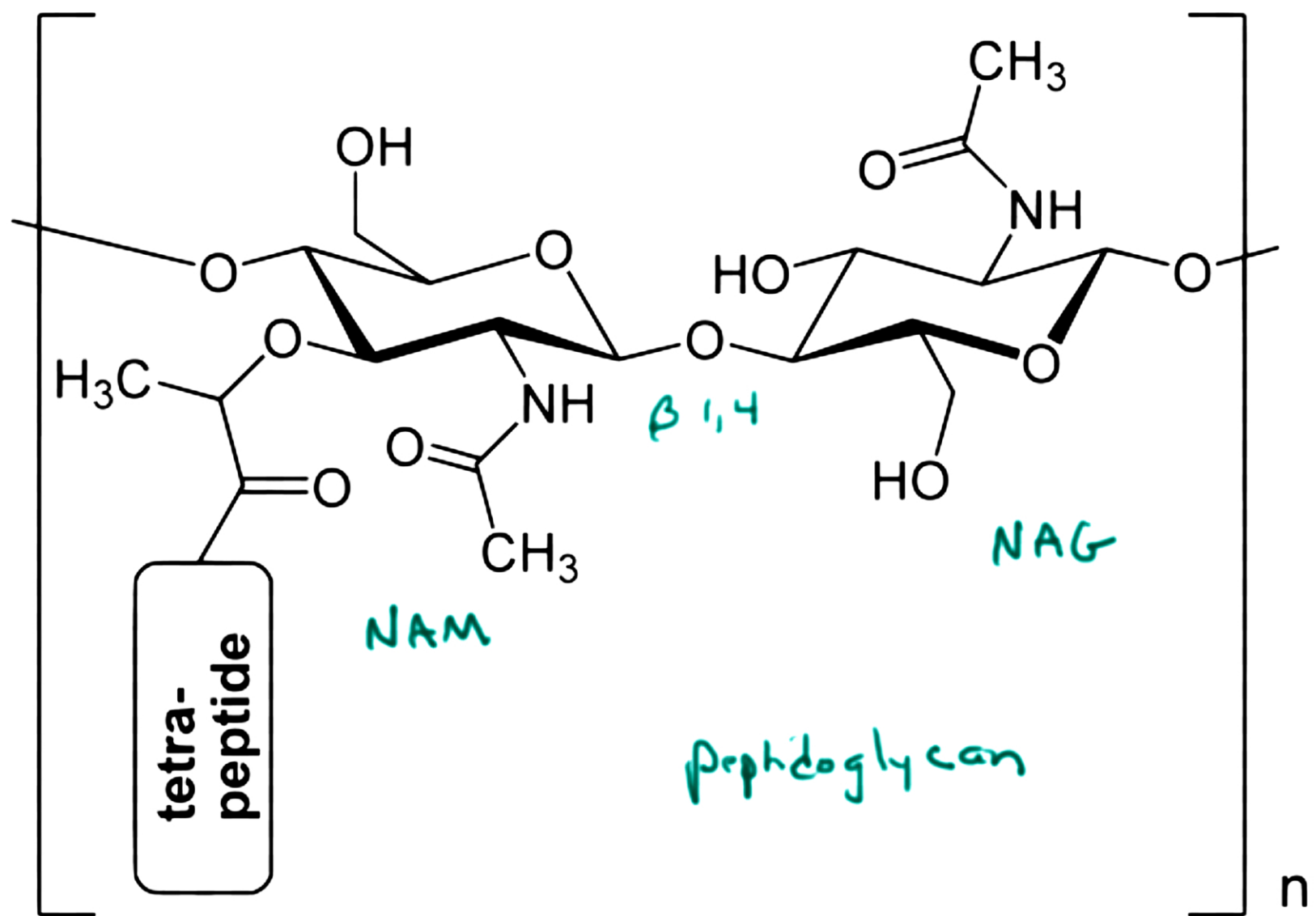
Lyszyme

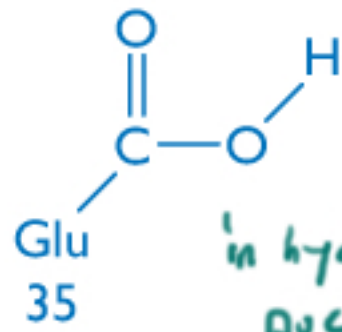
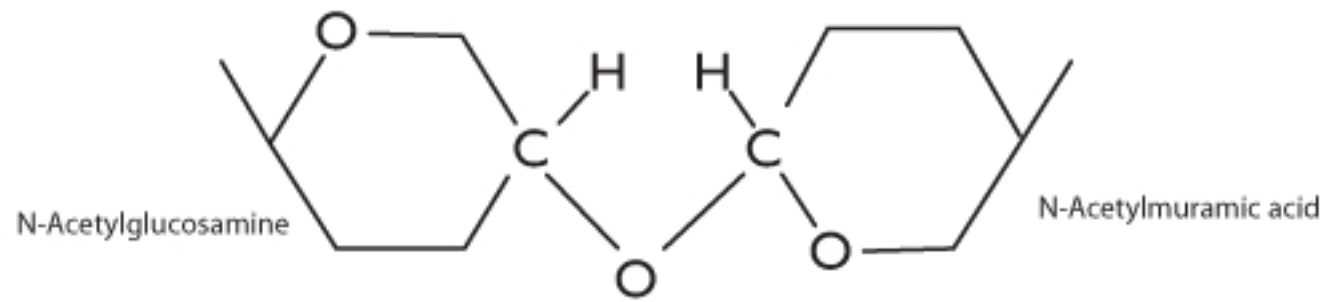
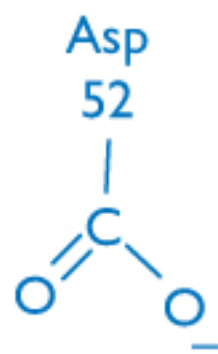


• Where
free energy of
binding, a portion
affects a conformation
change in the substrate

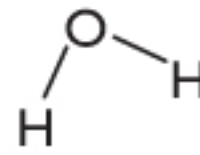
Cleaves peptidoglycan
↑
bacterial cell wall

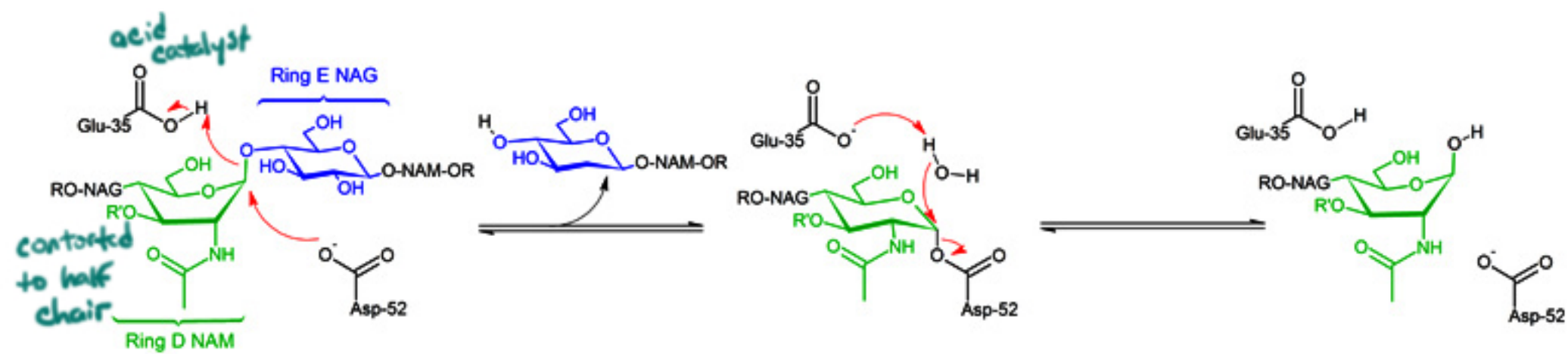
peptidoglycan - long carbohydrate chains
- NAG - N-acetyl glucosamine
- NAM - N-acetyl muramic acid
crosslinked with tetra peptides

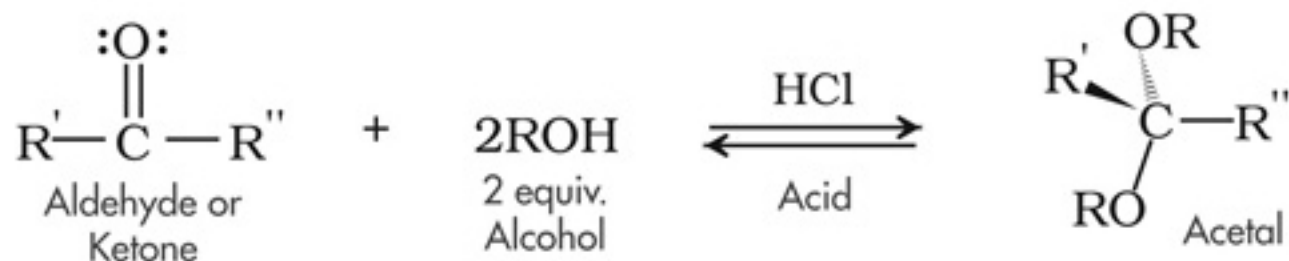




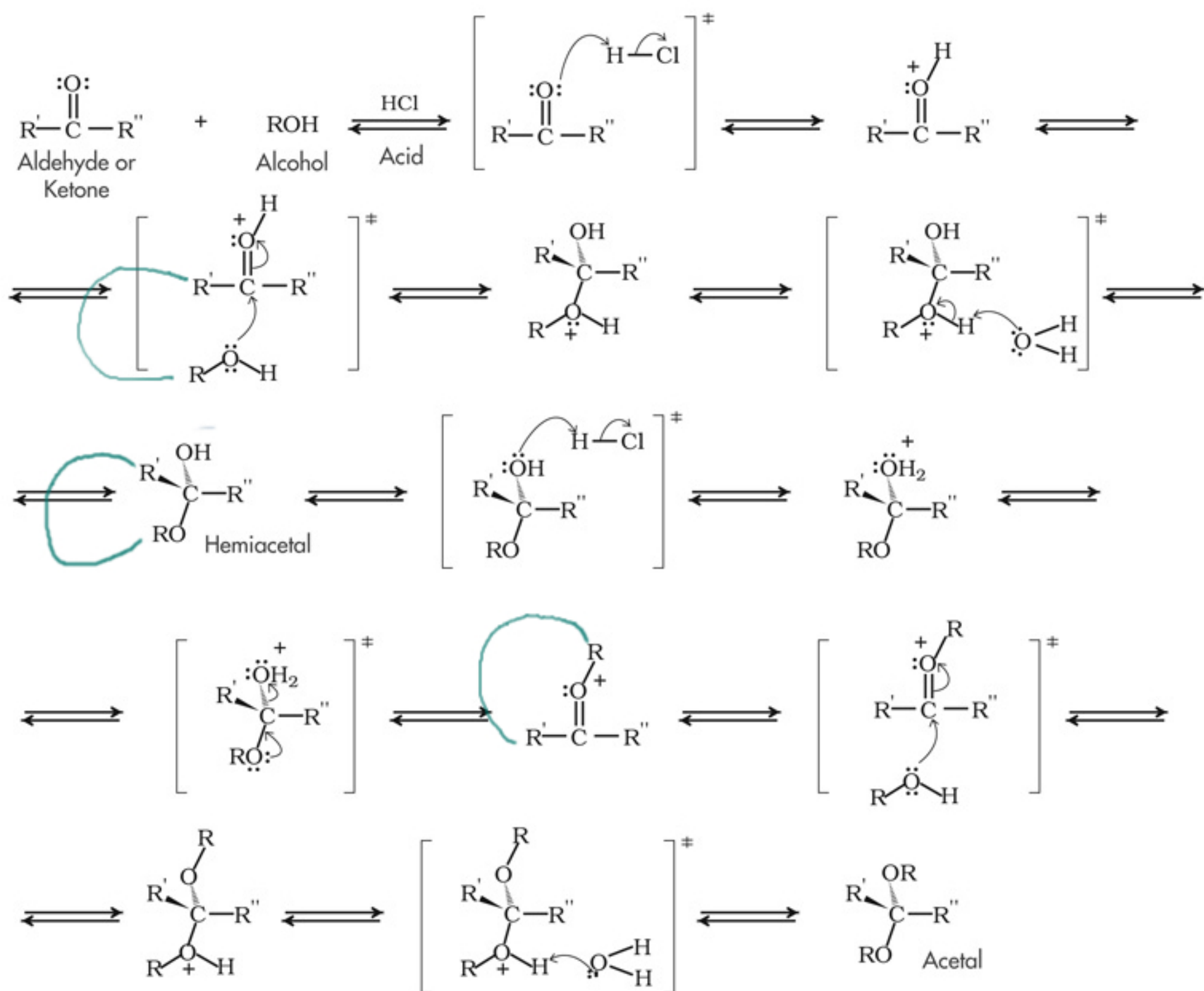
in hydrophobic
pocket
raised pKa

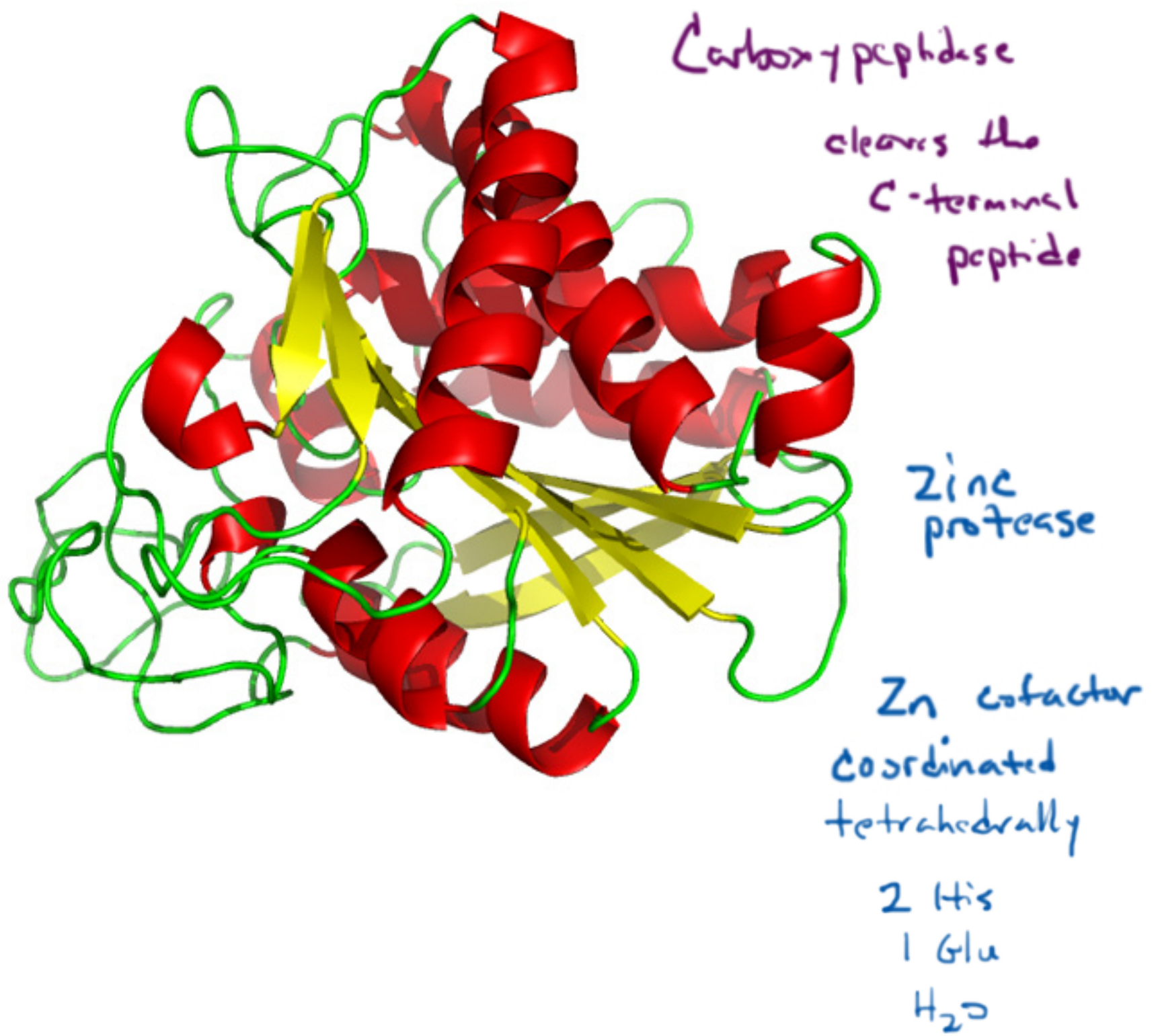




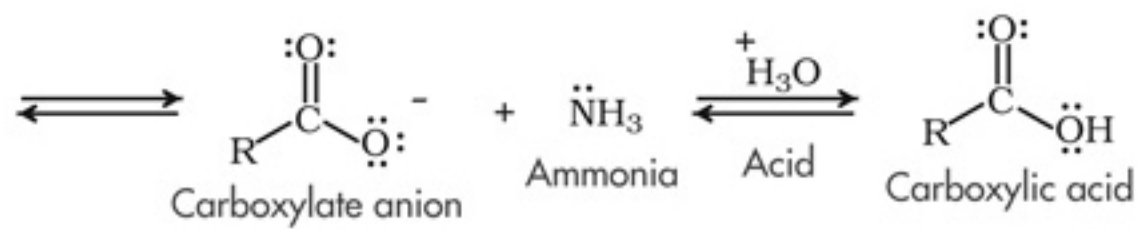
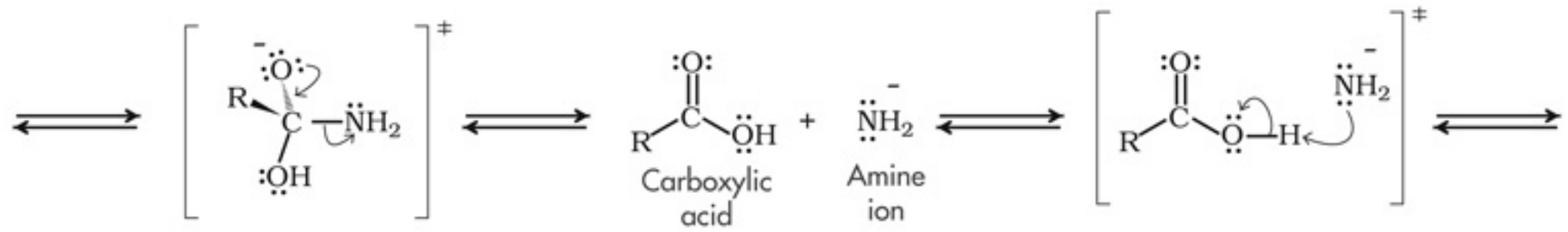
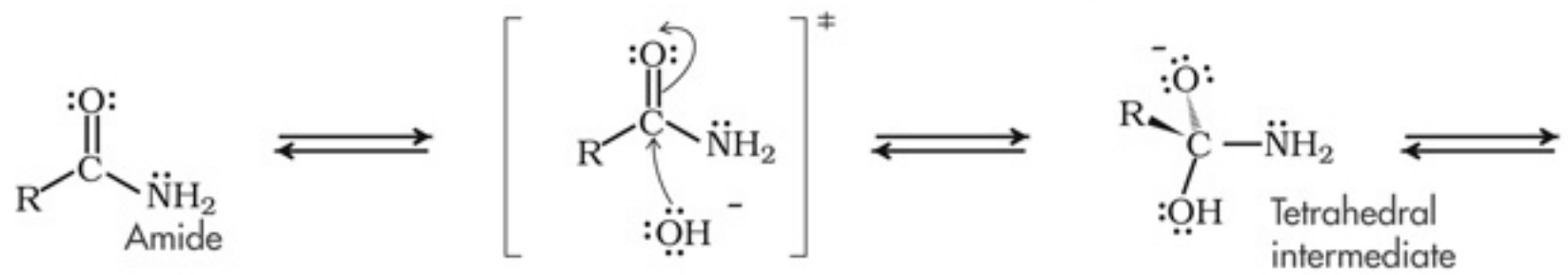


acetal
formation

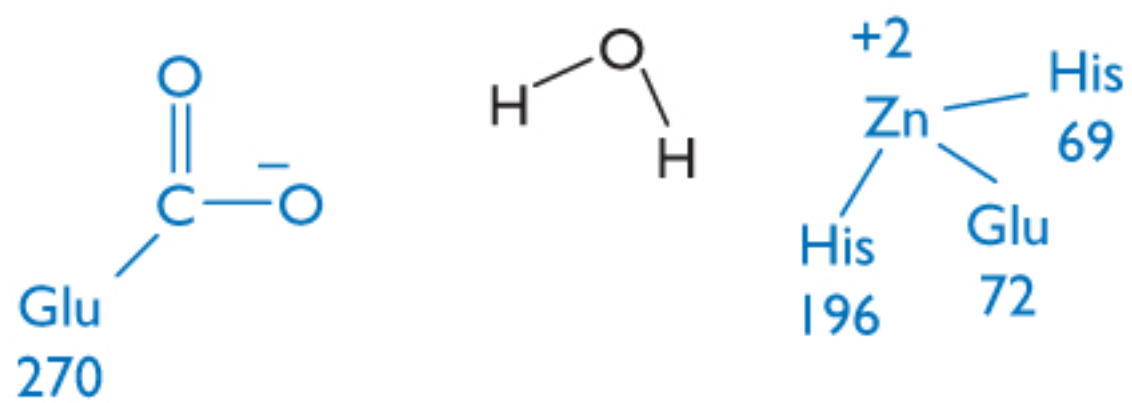
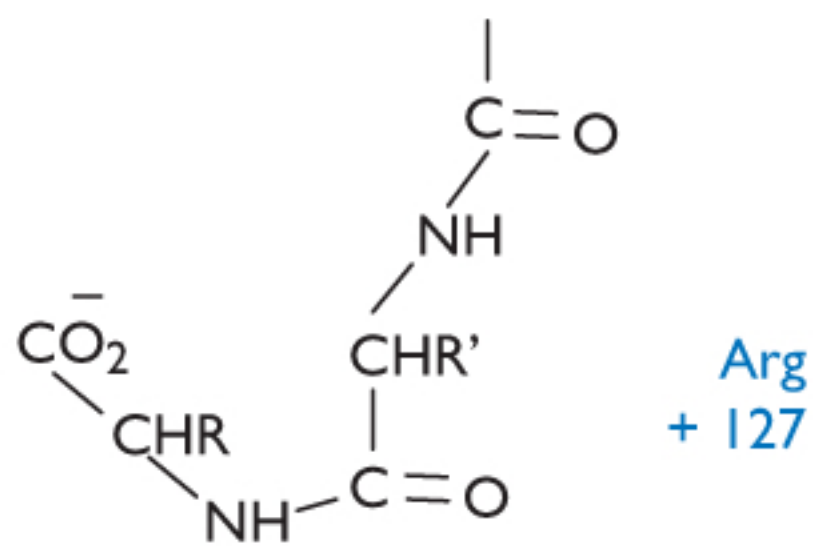


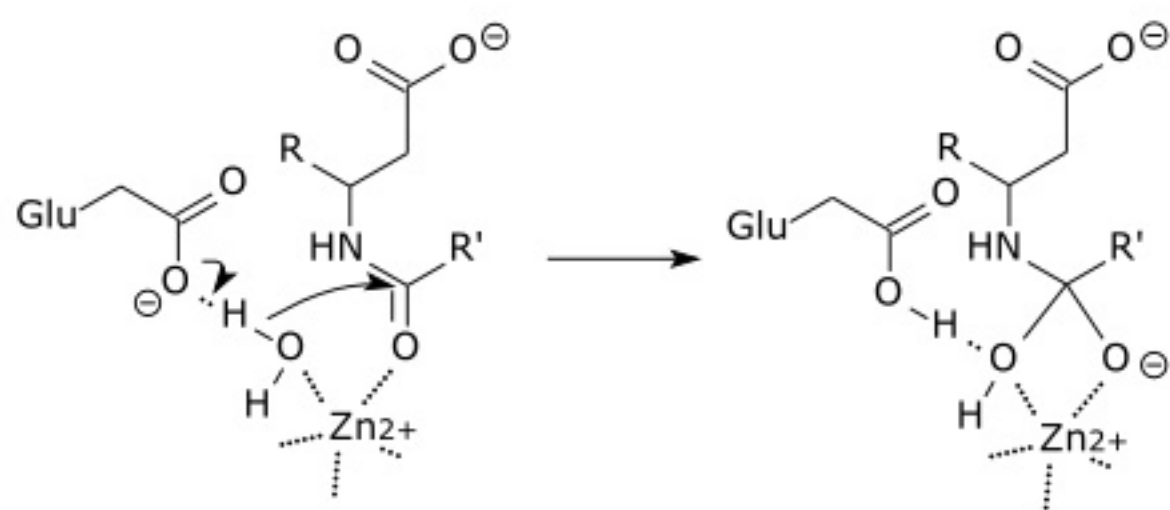


Hydrolysis of Amide



Nucleophilic
Acyl Substitution

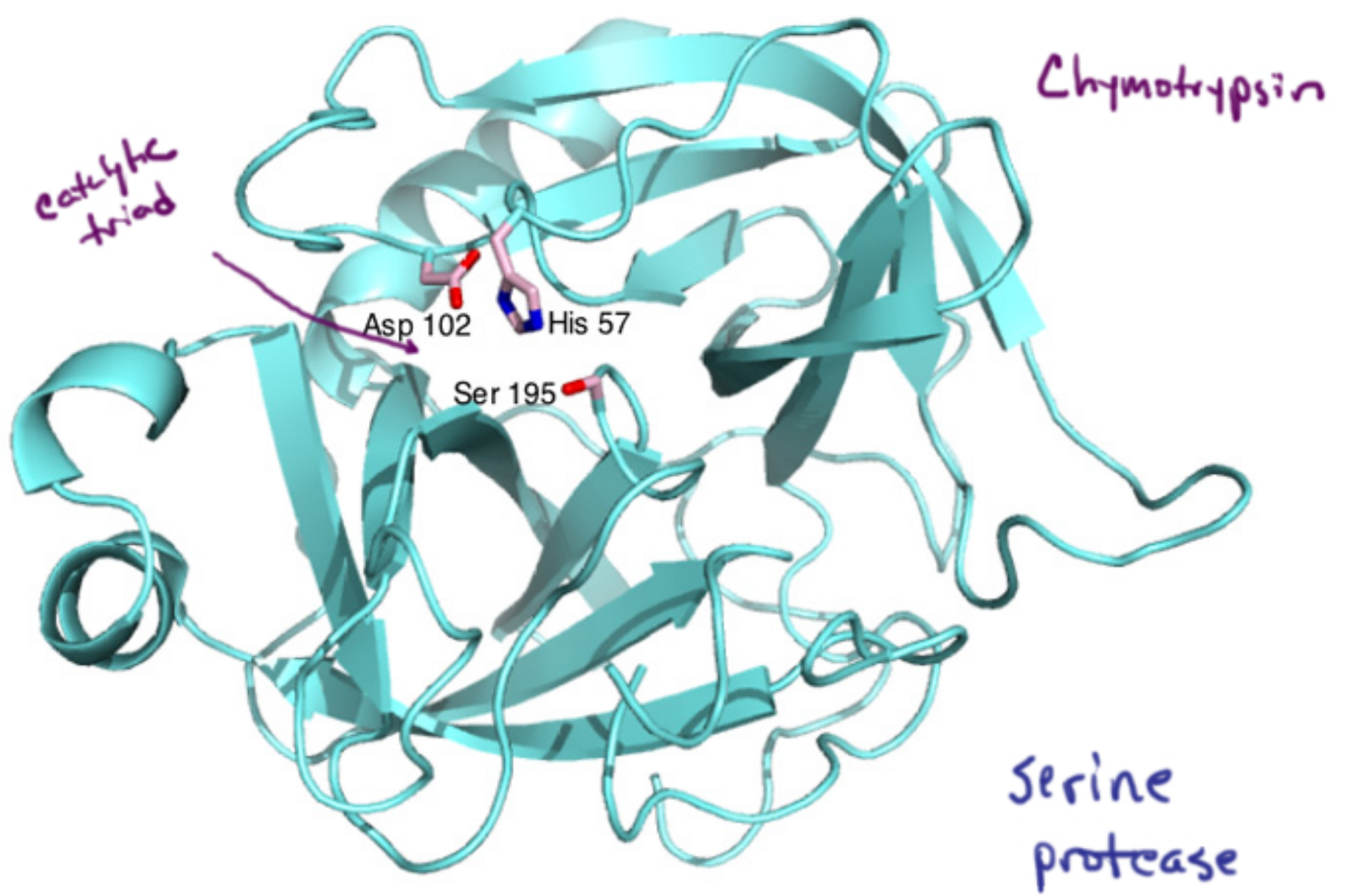




Enzyme substrate complex

Tetrahedral intermediate

*Zn stabilizes
tetrahedral
intermediate*



Chymotrypsin

*aromatic, bulky
residue*



Trypsin

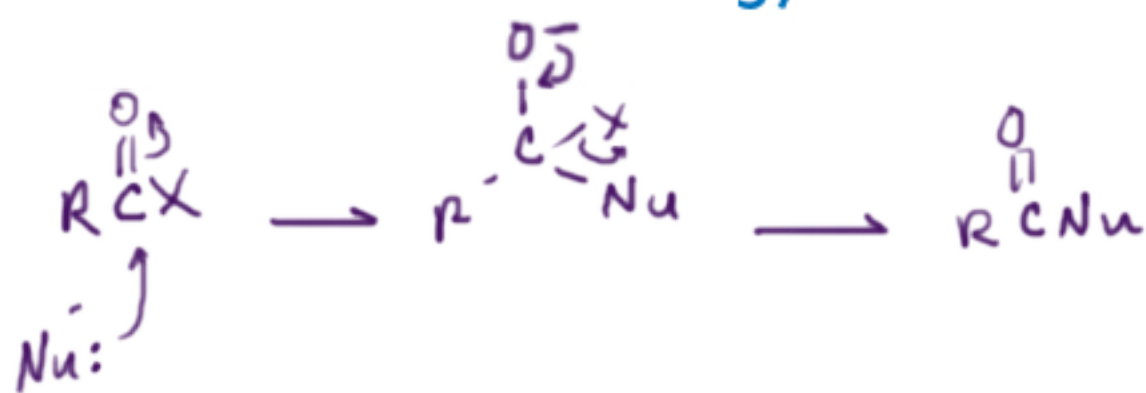
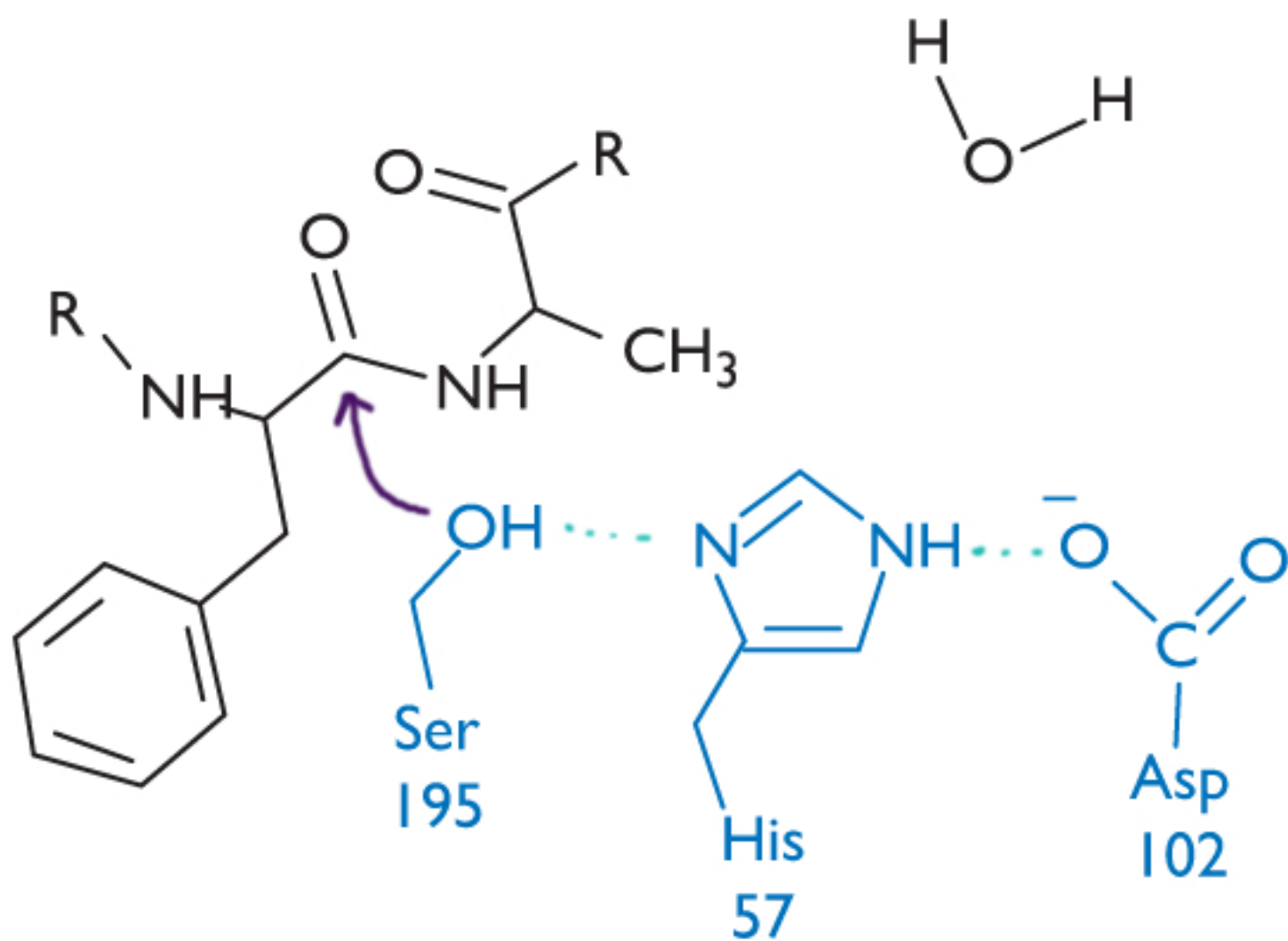
*lysine or
arginine*

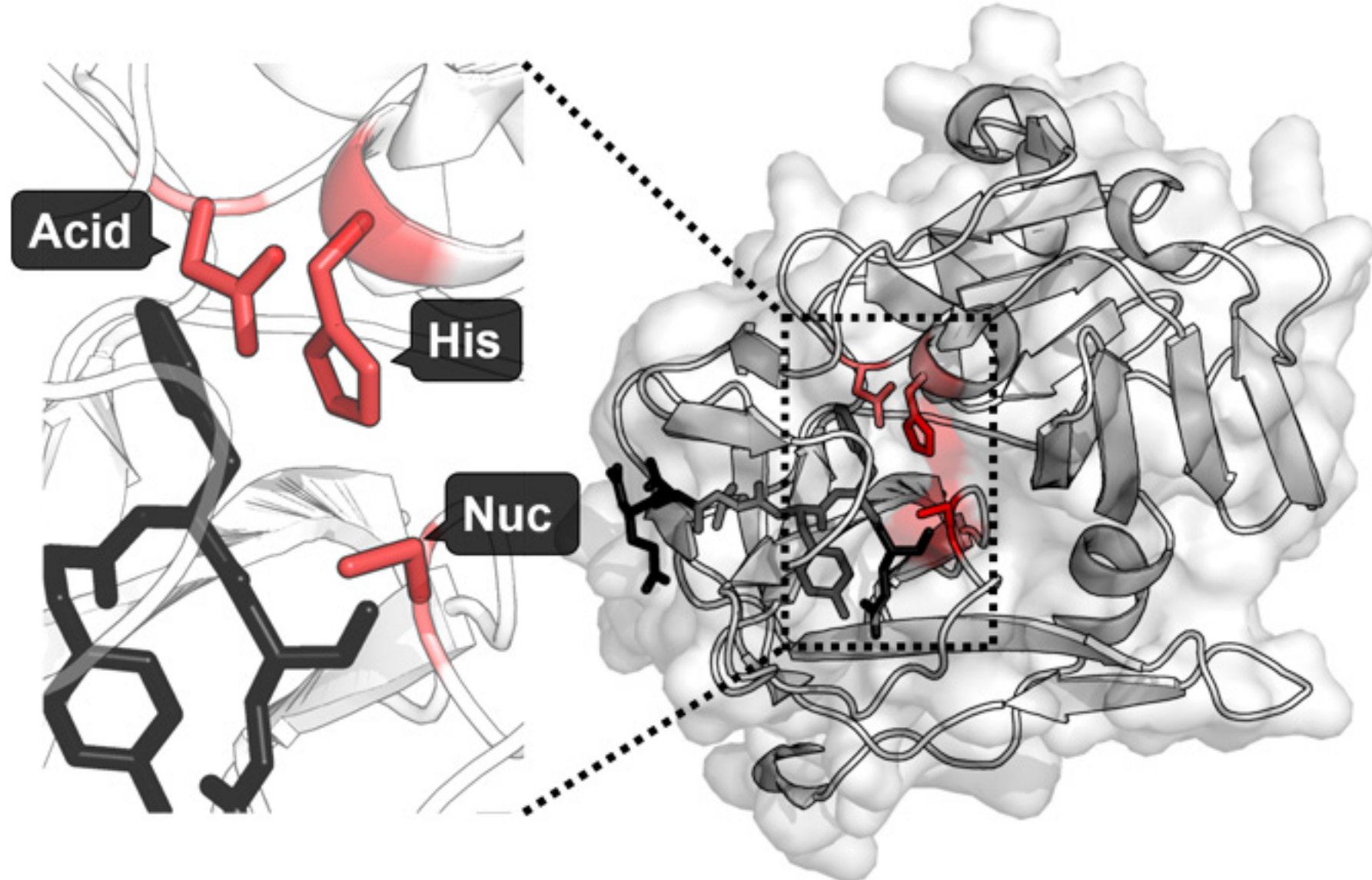


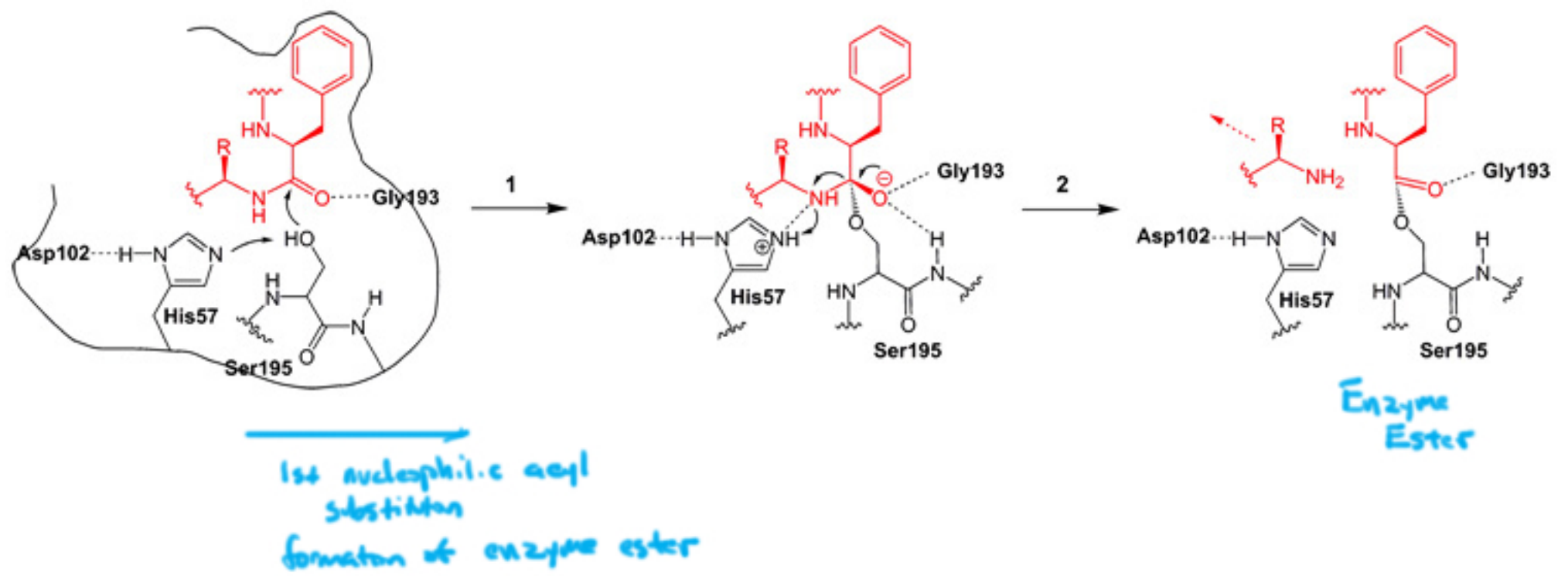
Elastase

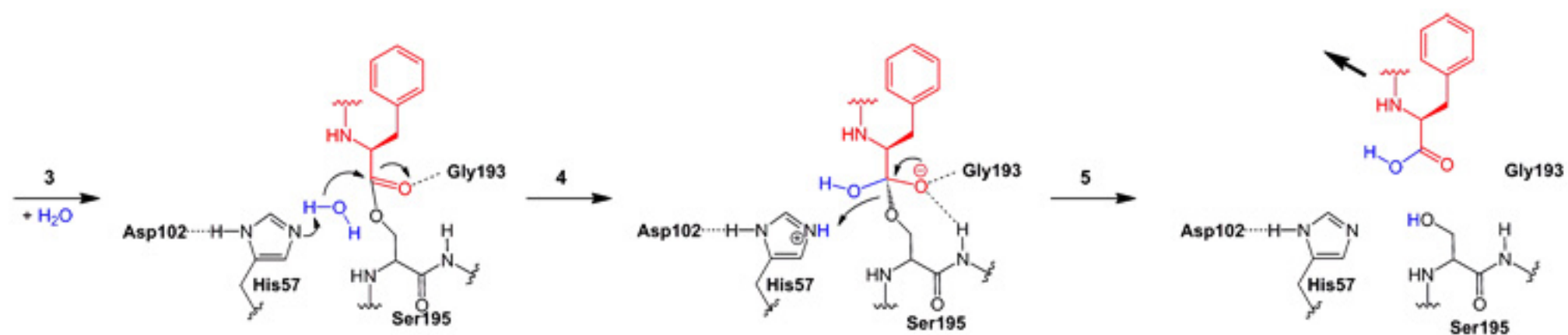
*smaller, uncharged
residue*





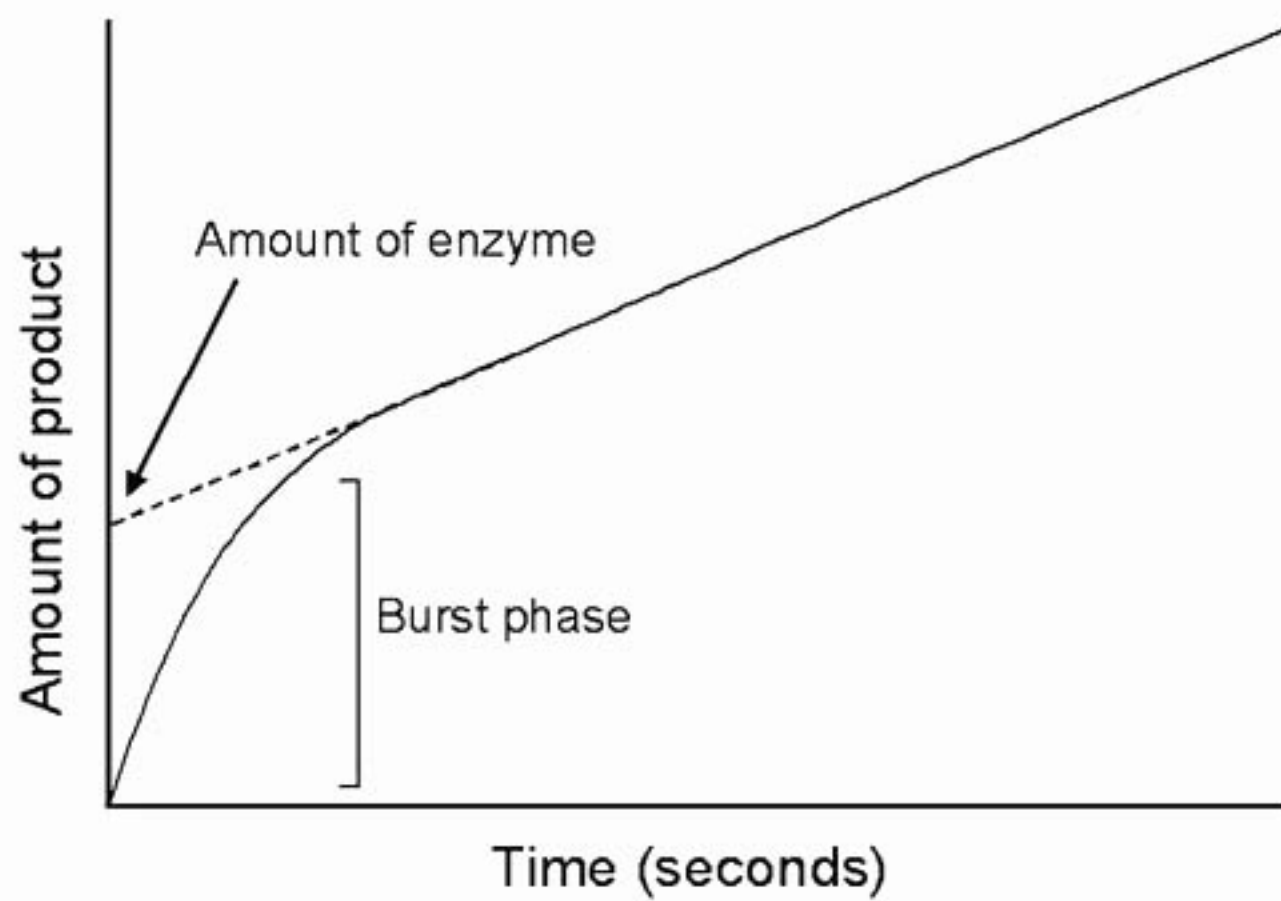




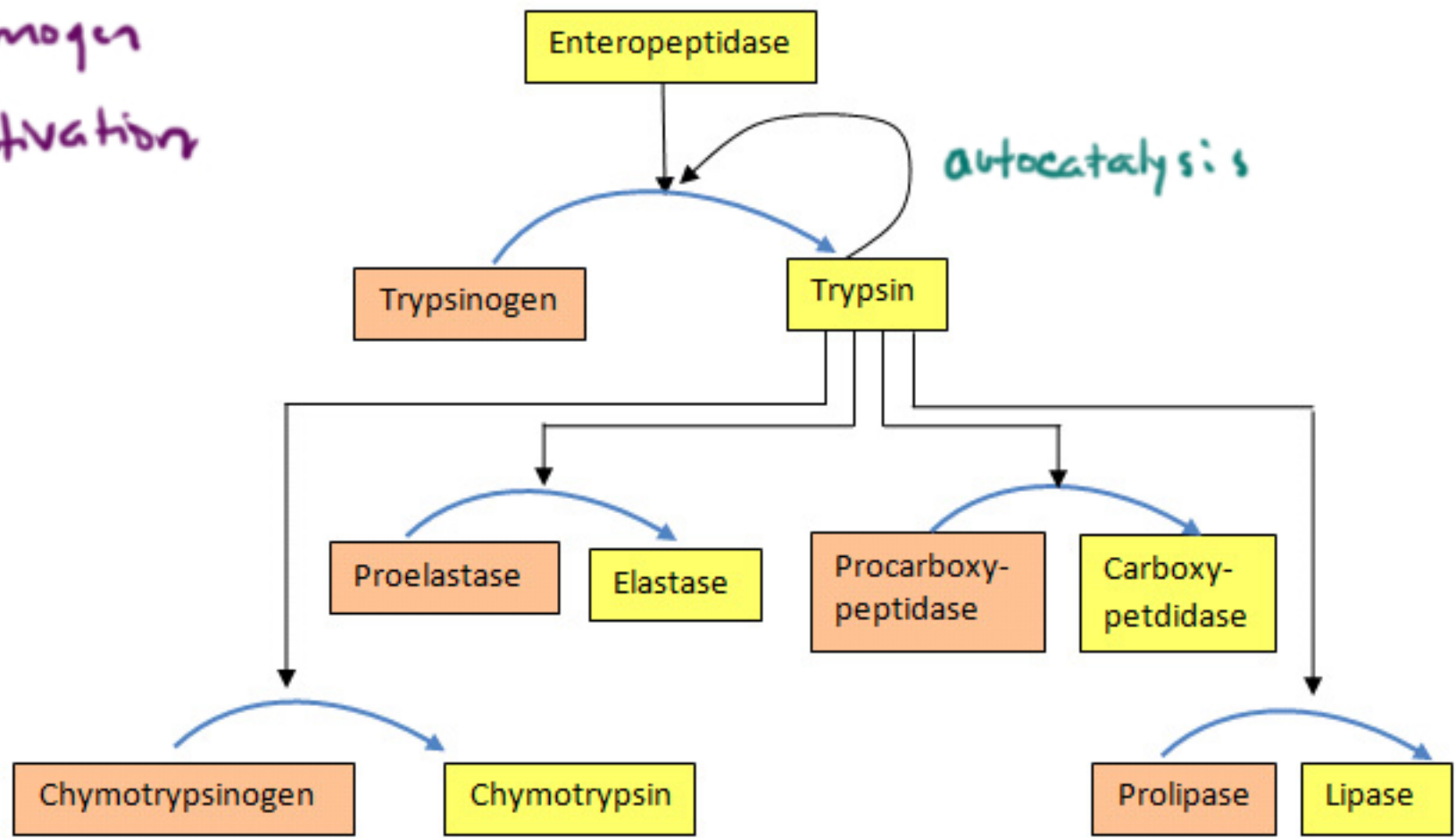


2nd nucleophilic acyl substitution

Hydrolysis of enzyme ester



Zymogen activation



Hemostasis

Blood clotting

damaged vessel - platelets form
a plug

↑
organizing center
for a clot

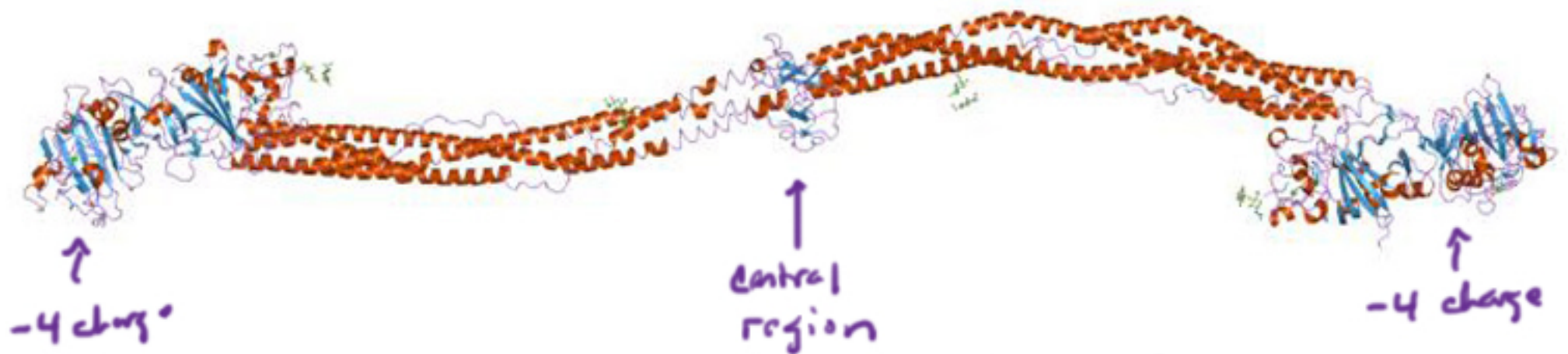
↑
fibrin mesh

platelets → fragments
of megakaryocytes



Fibrinogen - 2% - 3% of plasma protein

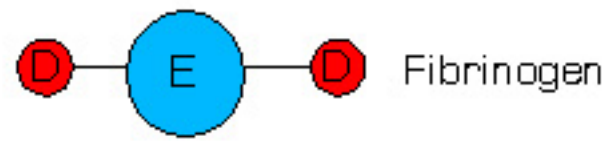
↑
soluble precursor



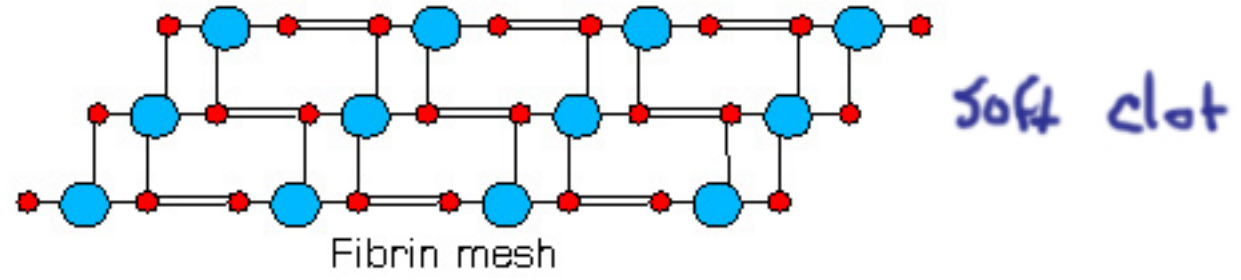
-8 charge with fibrinopeptides

+5 charge without them

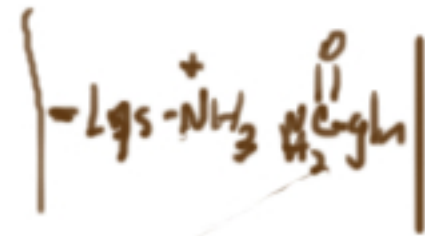
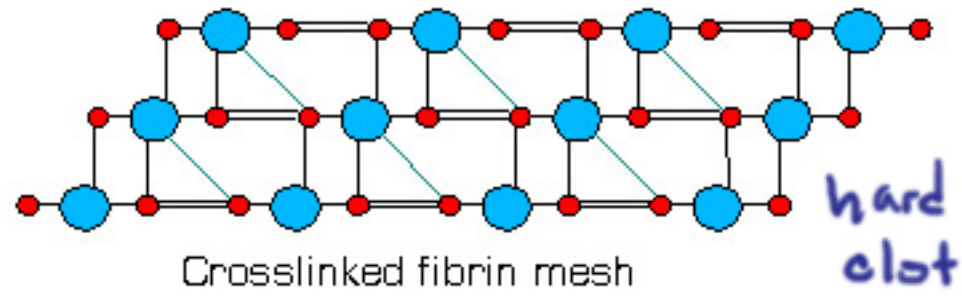
cleaved by
thrombin



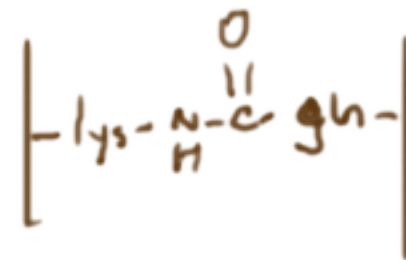
↓ *Thrombin*

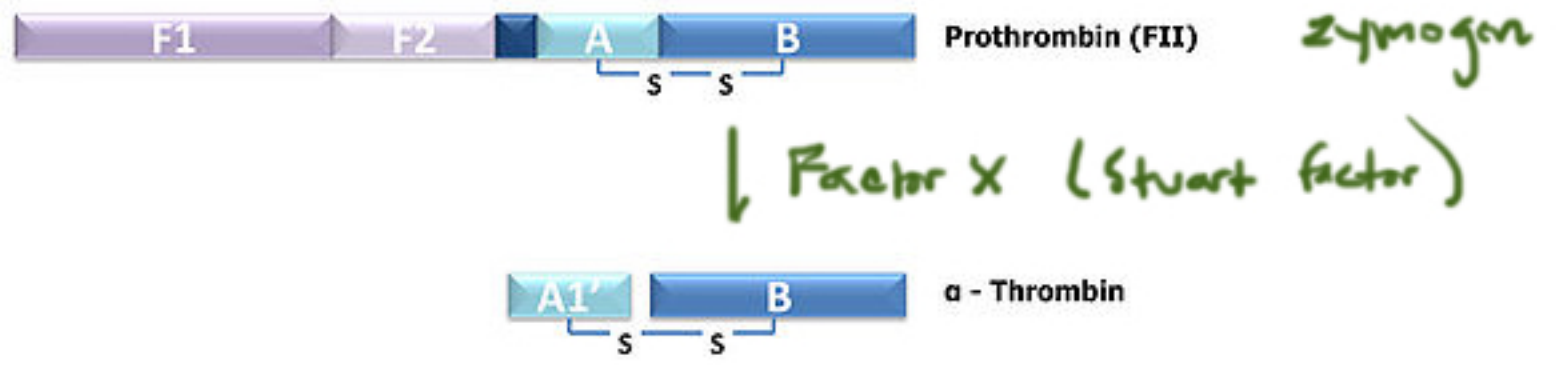


↓ *Factor XIII* ← transamidase

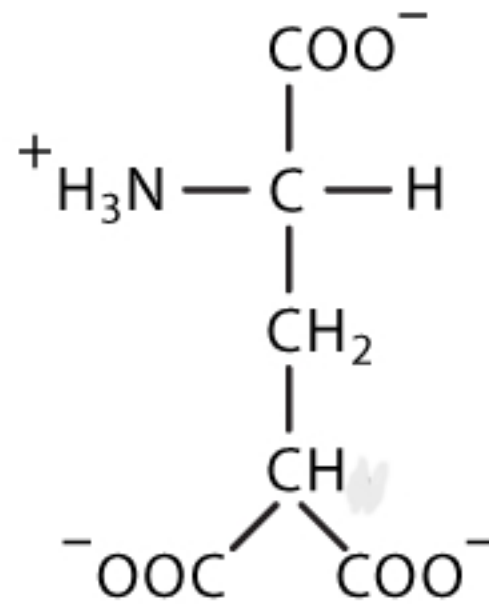


↓

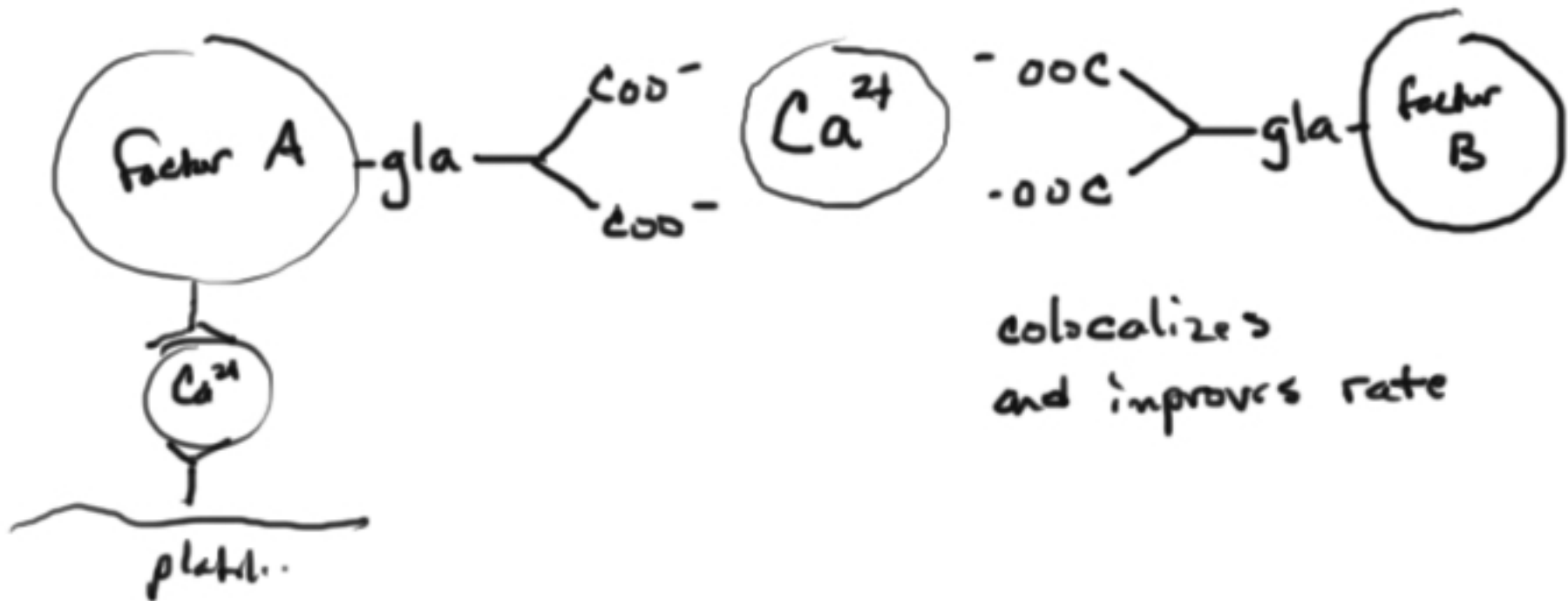


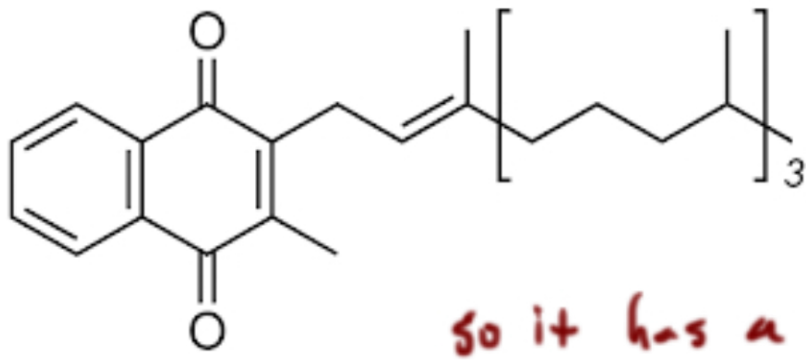


Many clotting factors possess γ carboxy glutamate



Synthesis
requires
Vitamin K

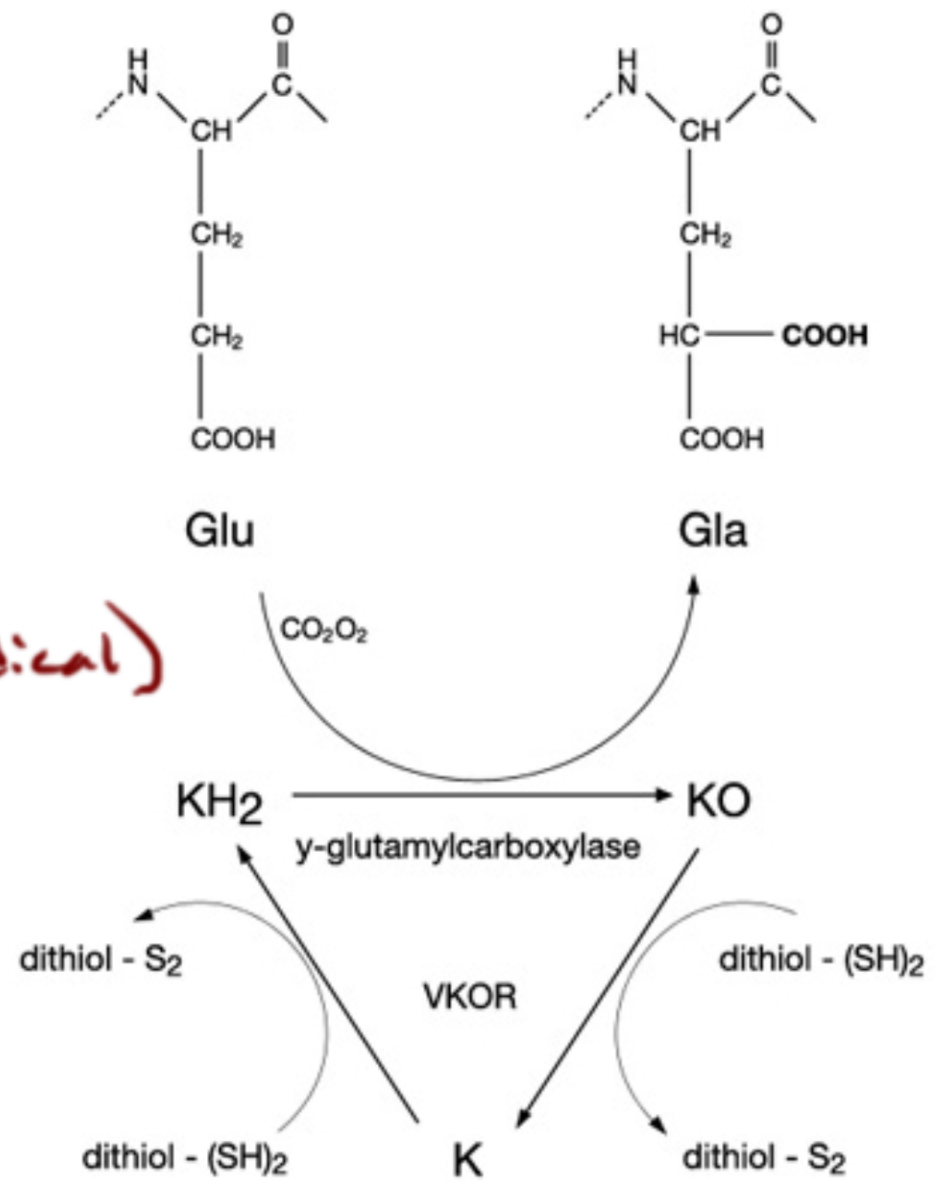


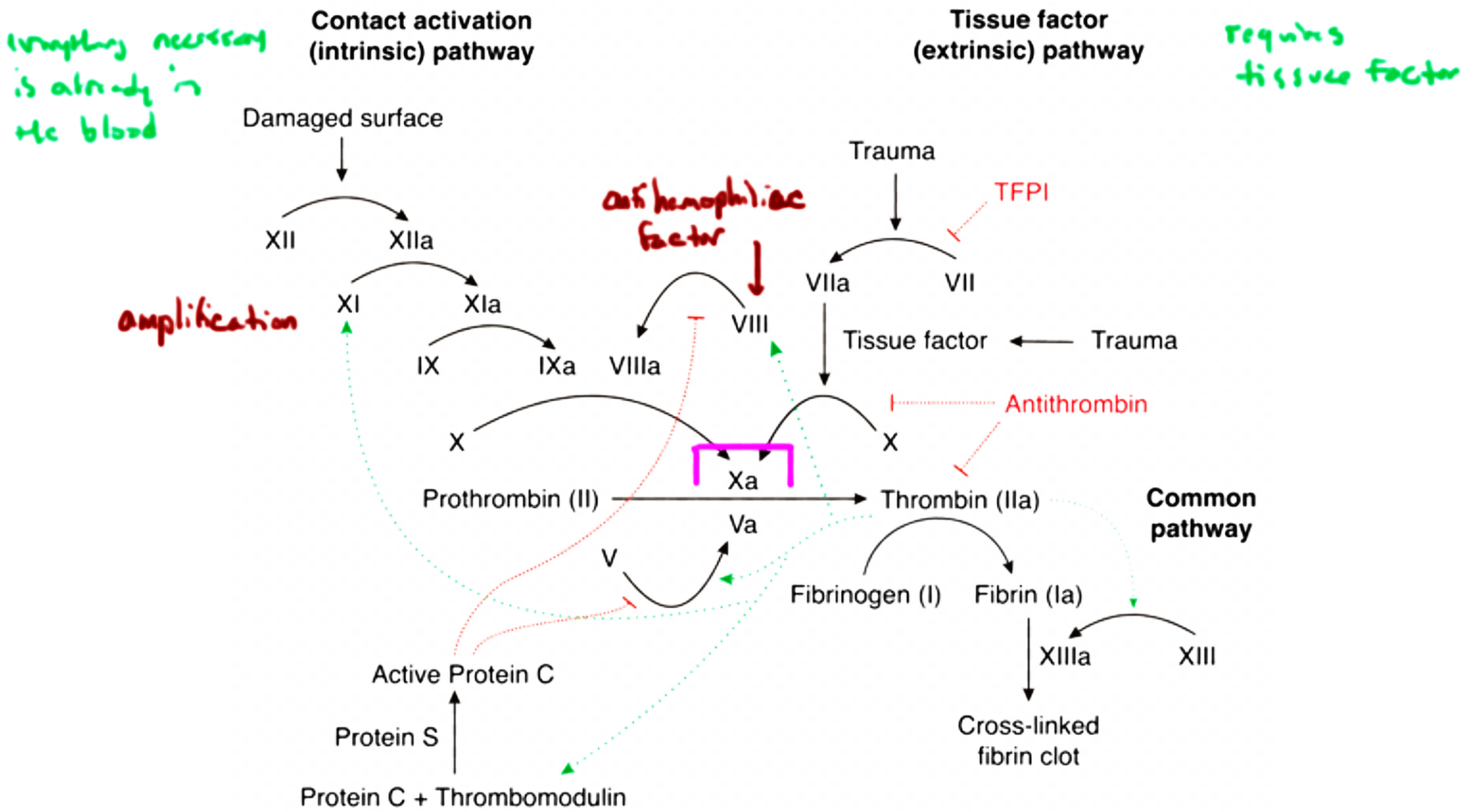


↑
benzoylone like
CoQ

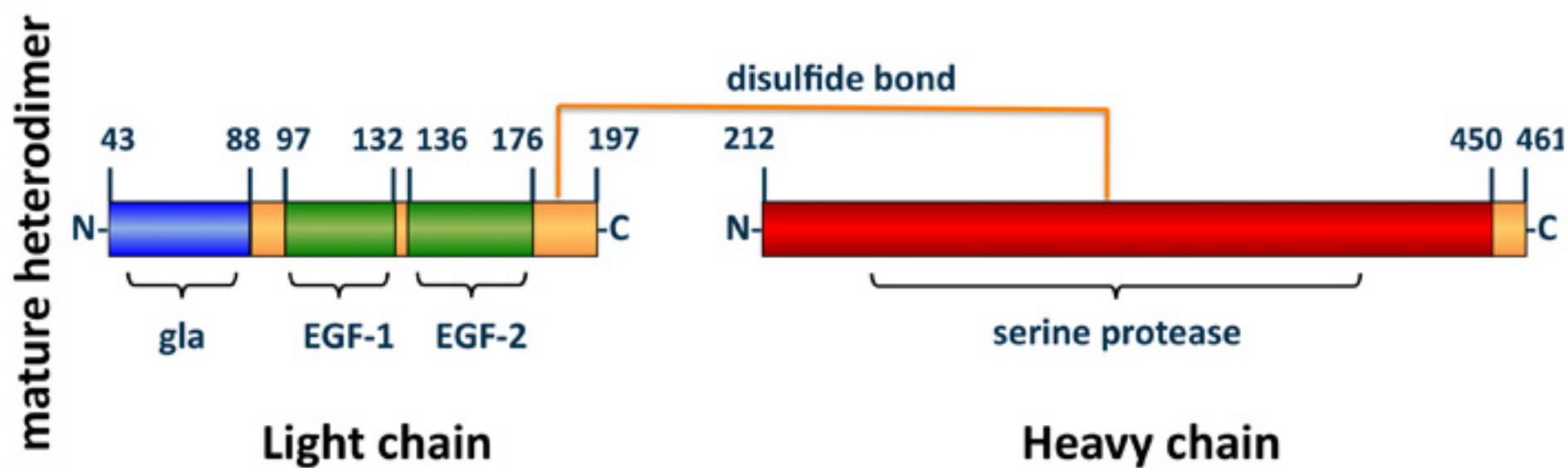
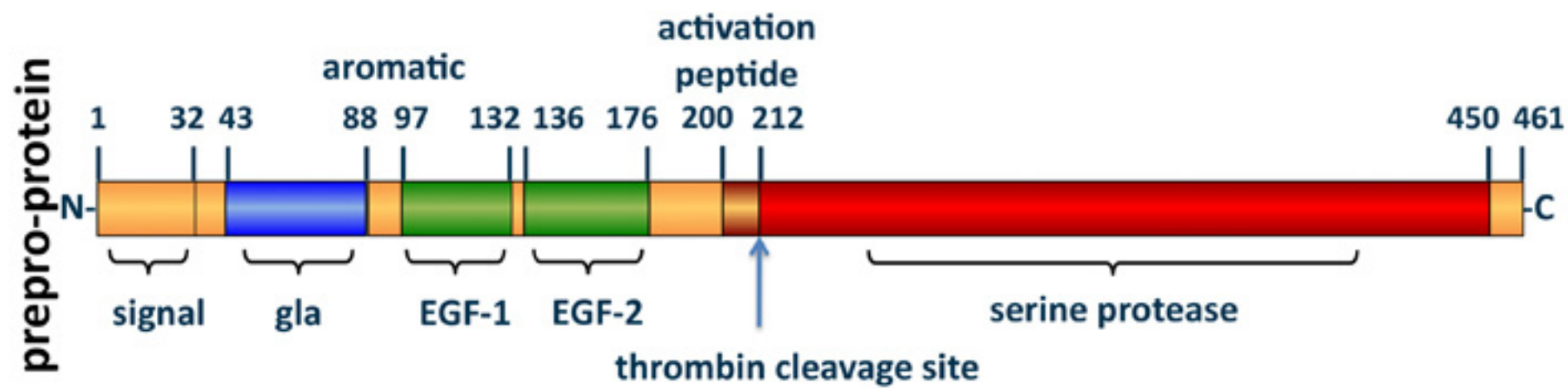
so it has a
semiquinone
(stable radical)
form

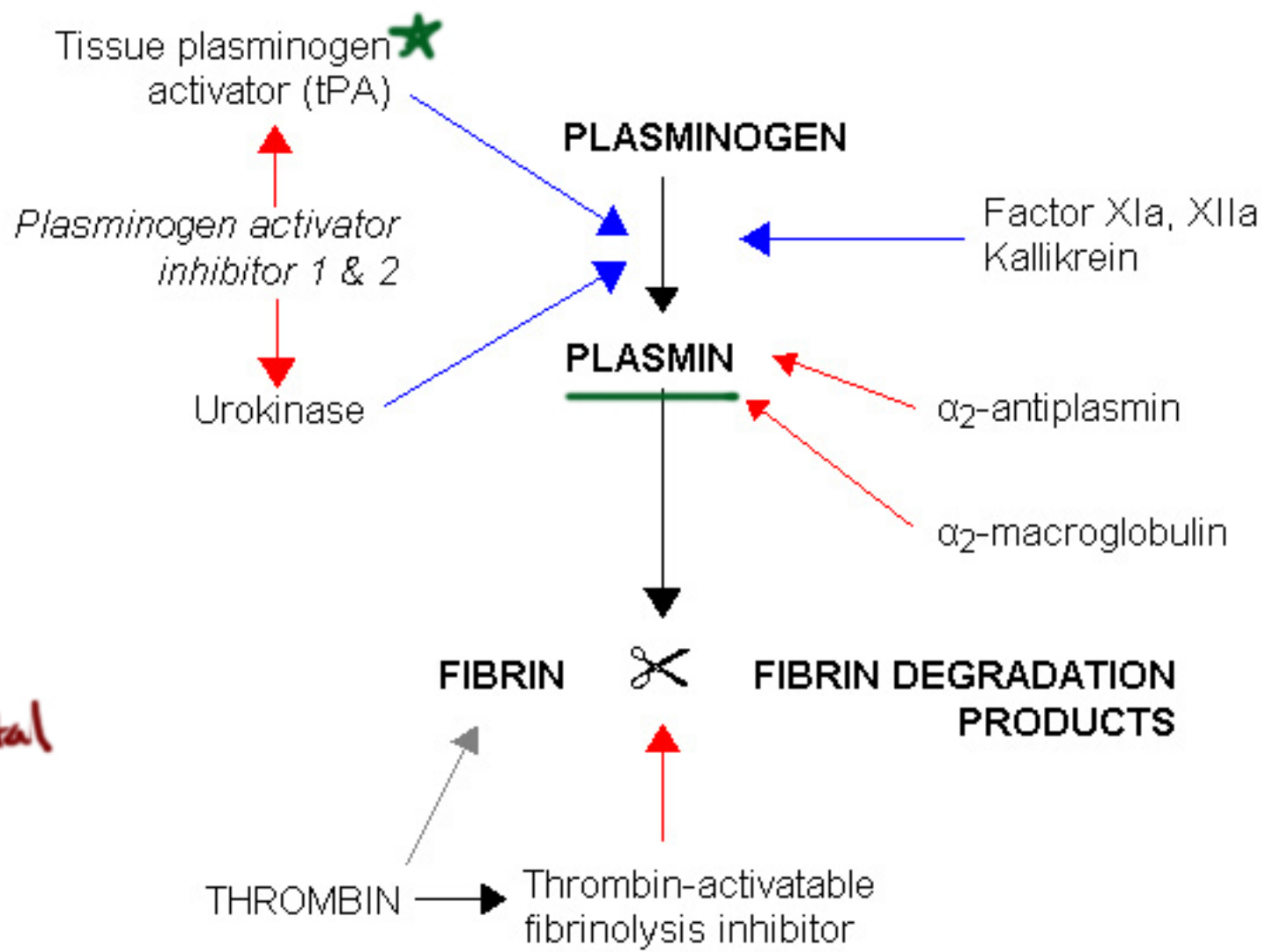
Warfarin and
Coumadin are
vitamin K
competitive inhibitors





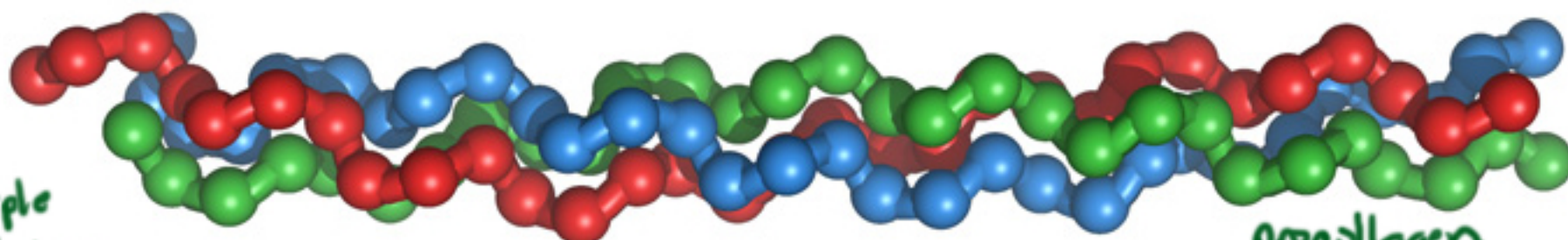
*Don't worry about
nitty gritty details*



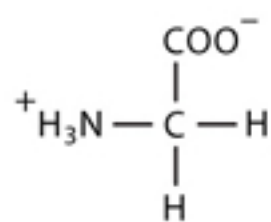


Supplemental

triple helix

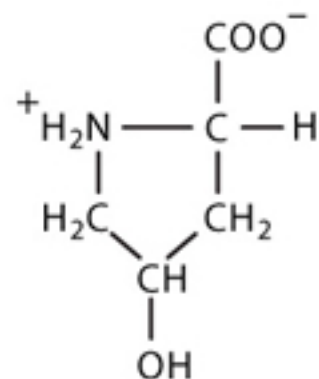


procollagen



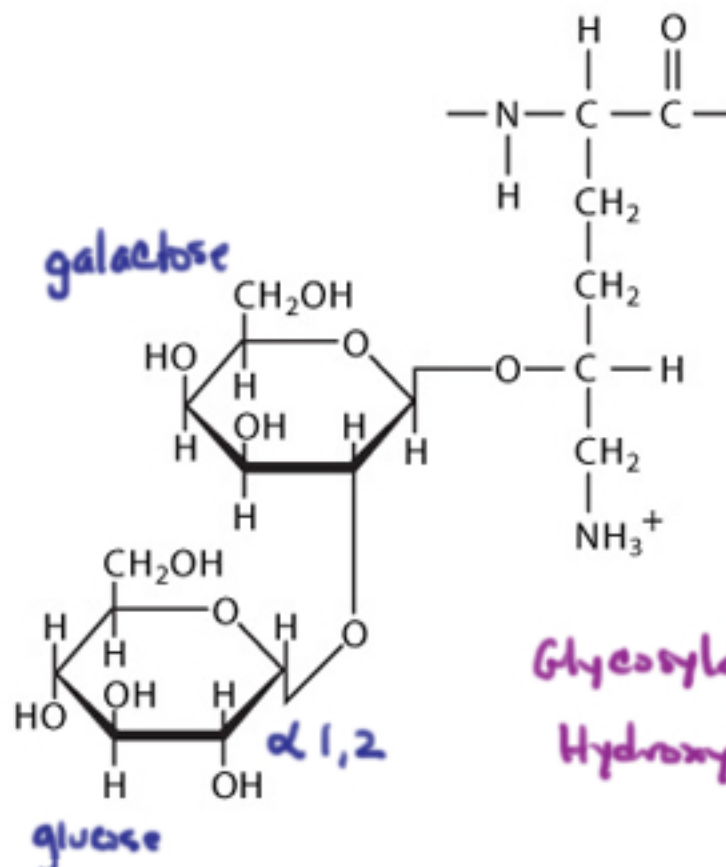
30% glycine

- interior of triple helix

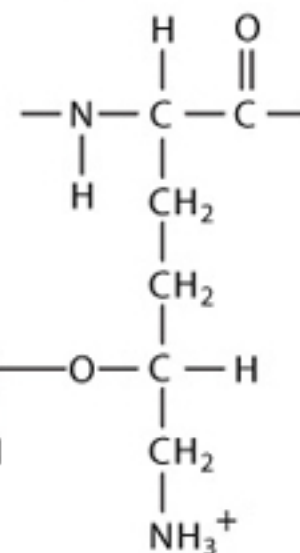


Hydroxy proline

galactose



glucose

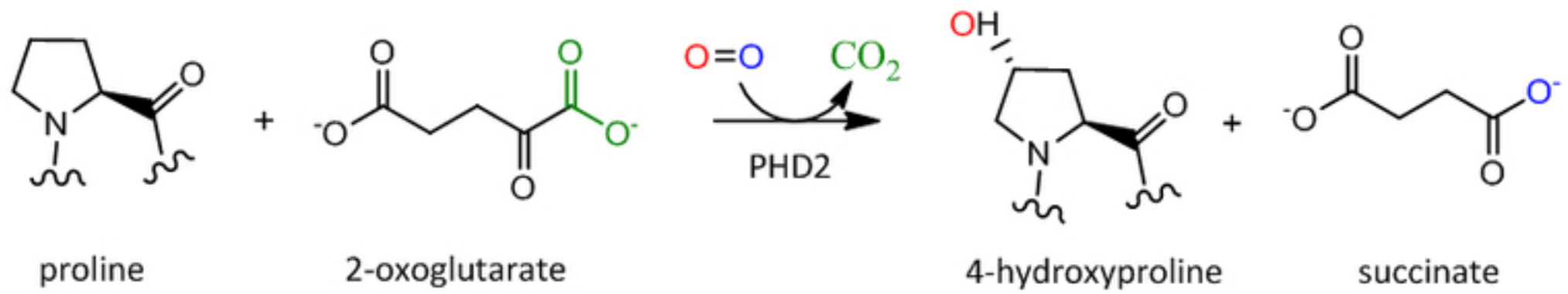


Glycosylate

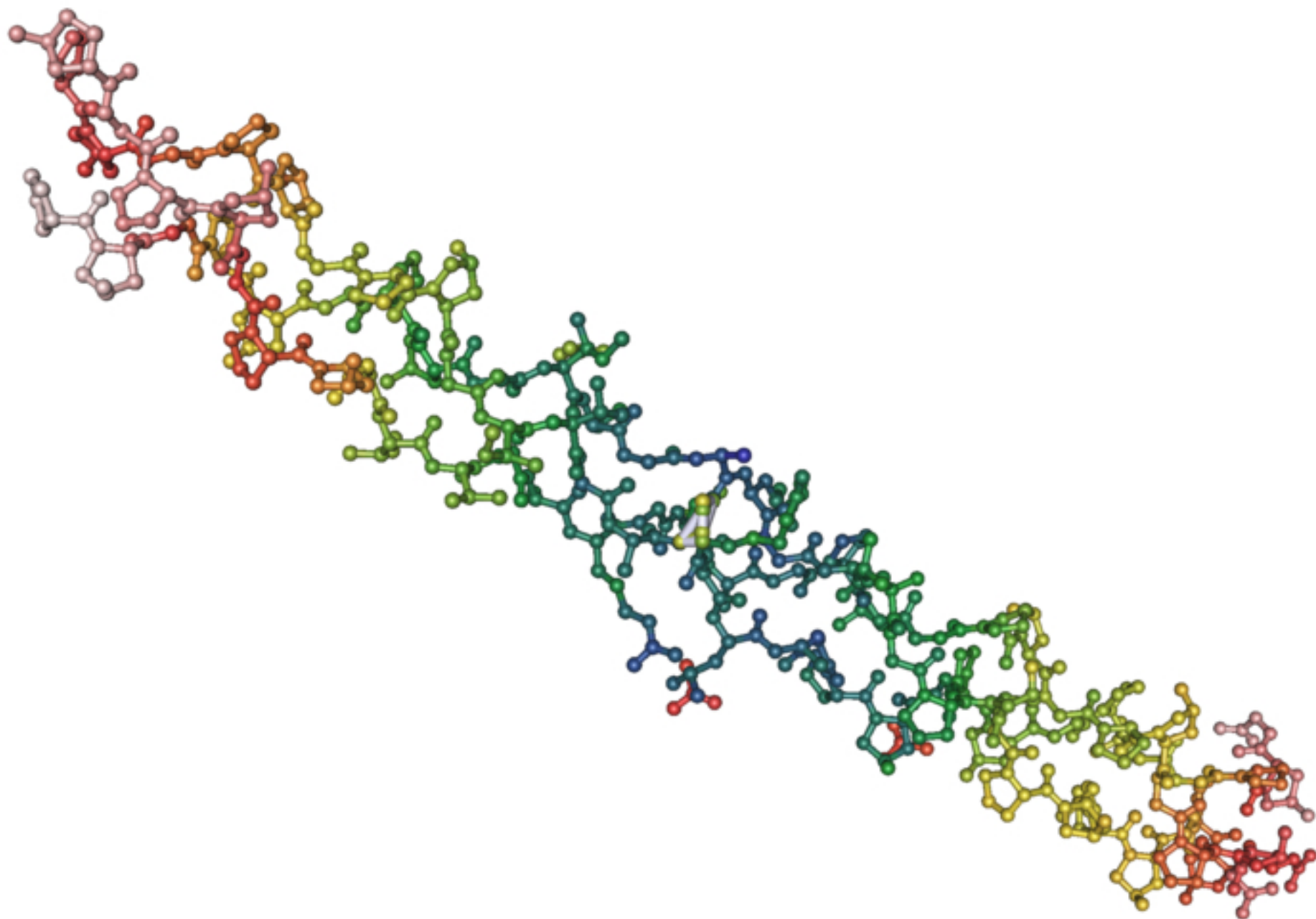
Hydroxy lysine

Connective tissue proteins

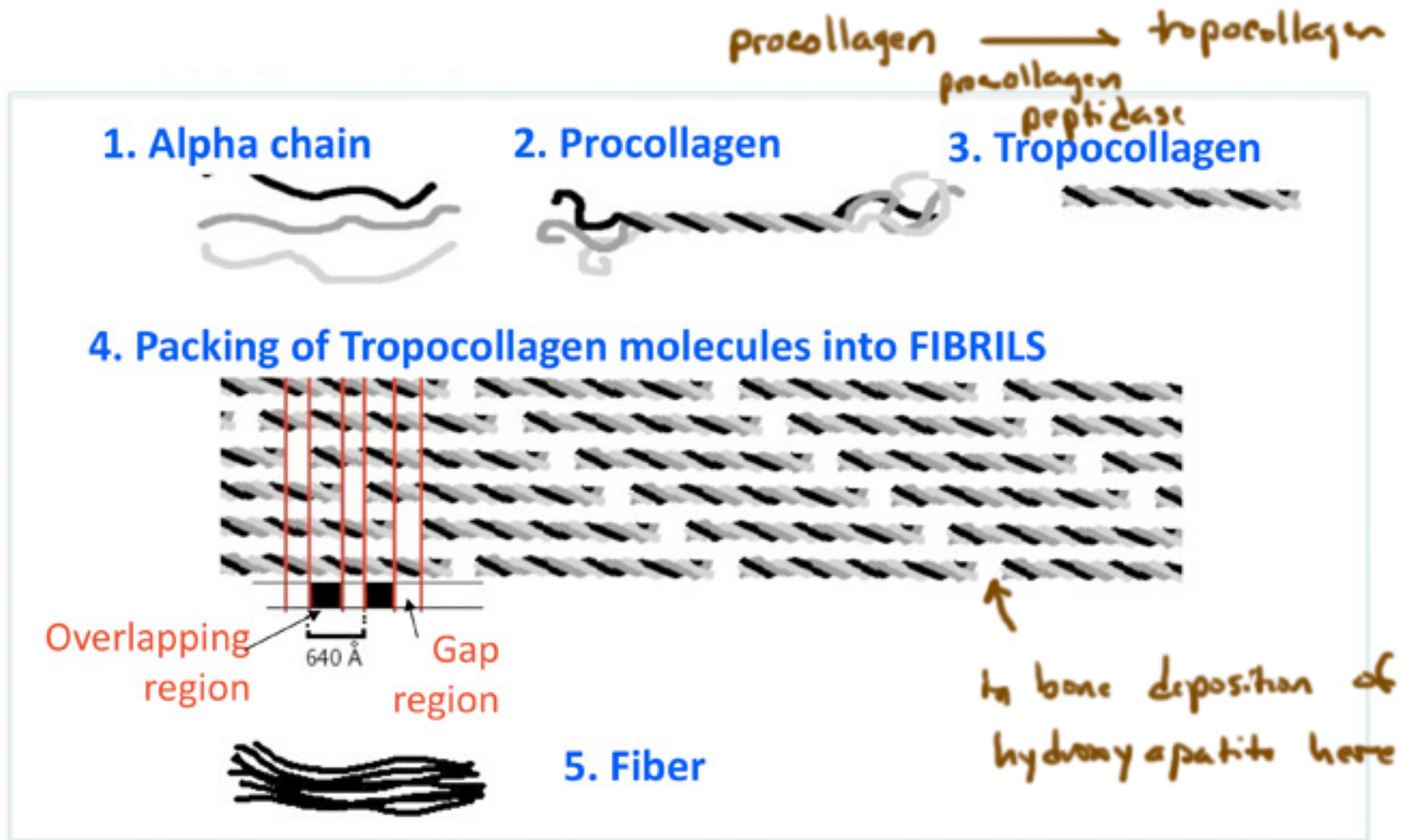
Synthesis of Hydroxyproline and Hydroxylysine

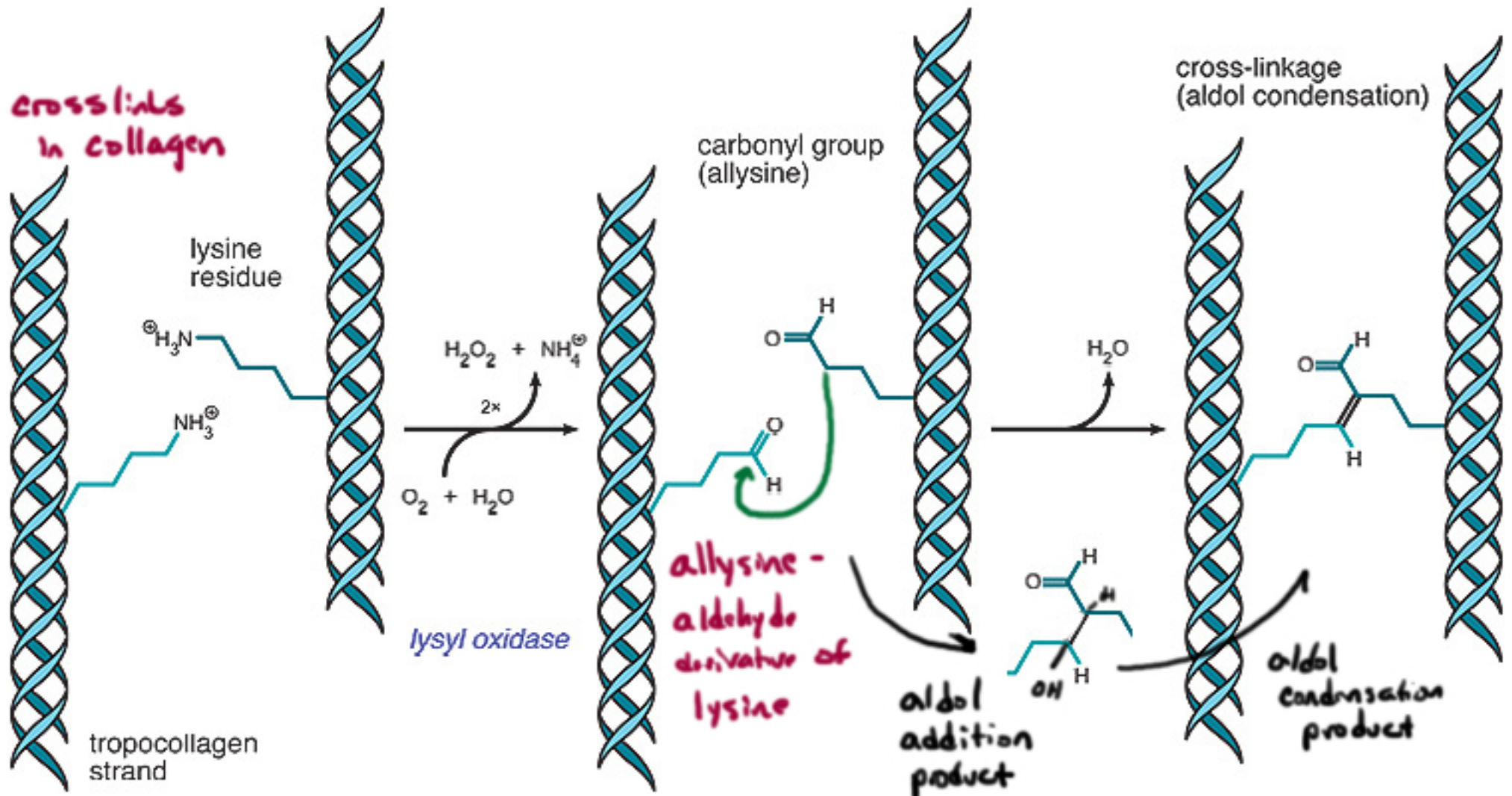


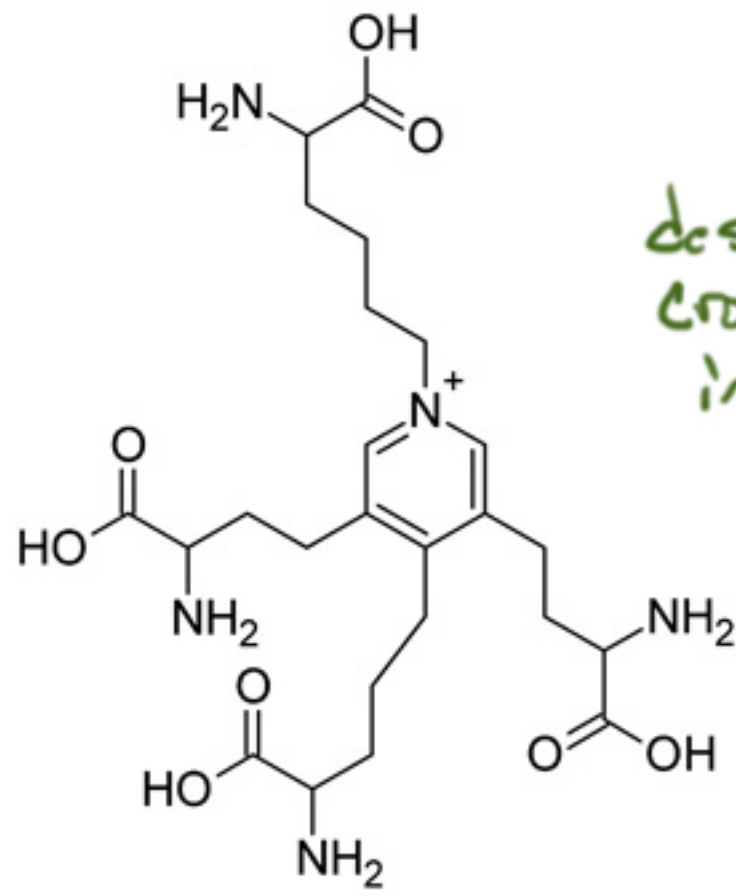
- requires ascorbate (vitamin C)
- returns ferric $\rightarrow$ ferrous



C





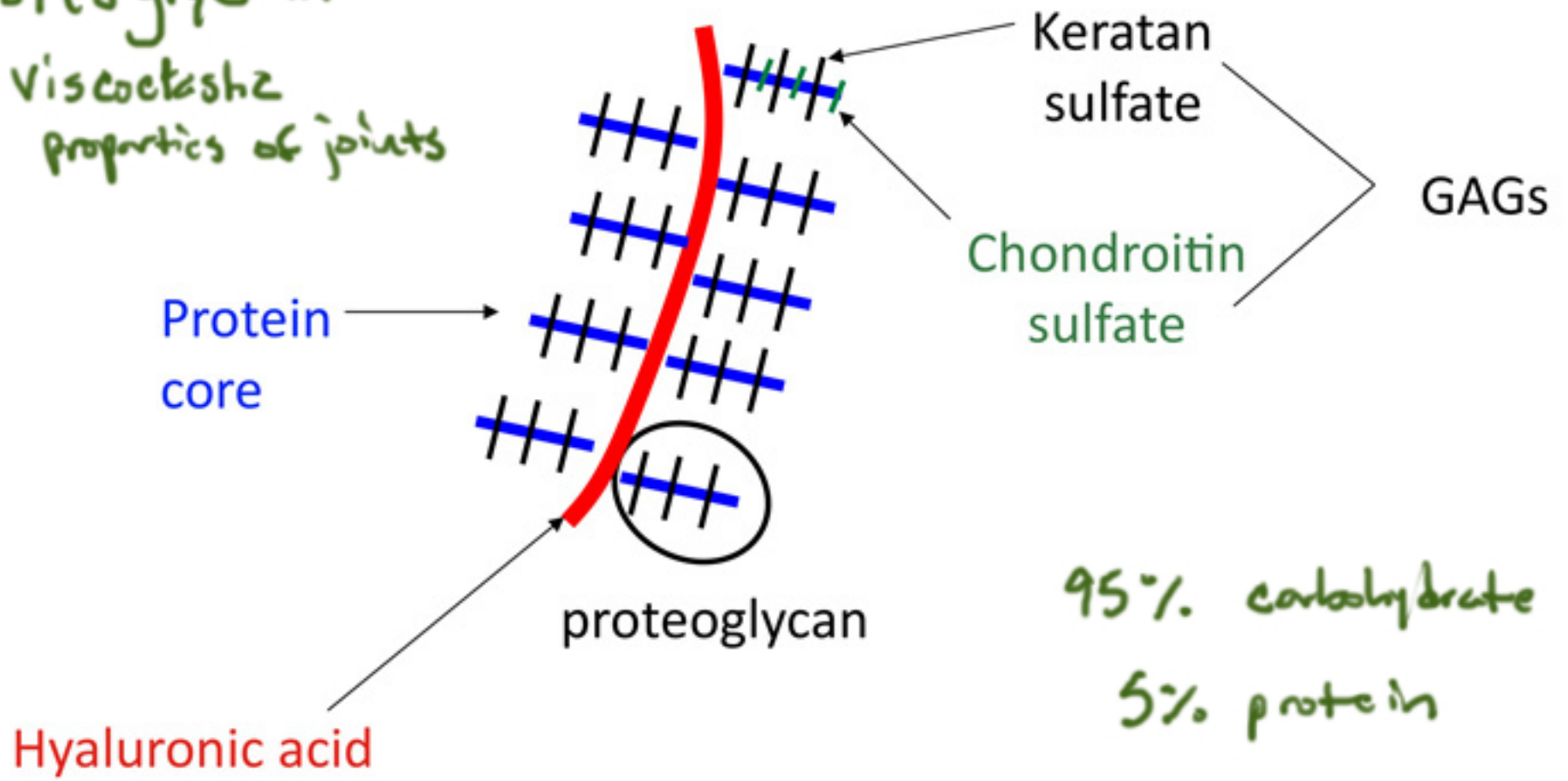


desmosine
crosslink
in elastin

3 allysines
+ lysine

Proteoglycan

- viscoelastic properties of joints



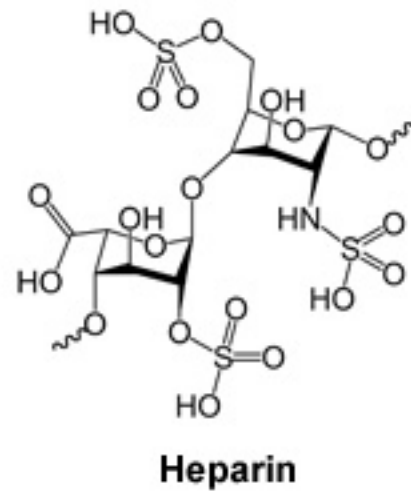
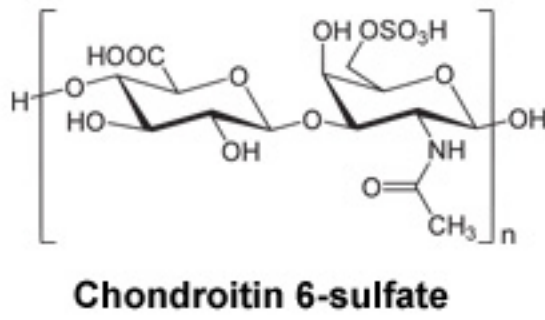
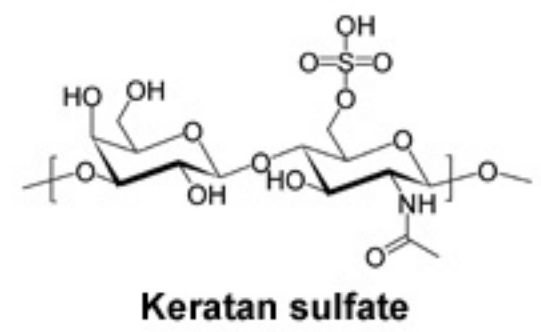
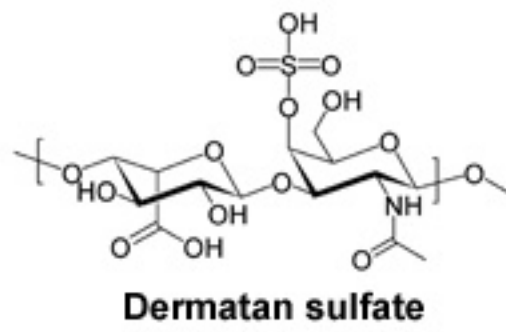
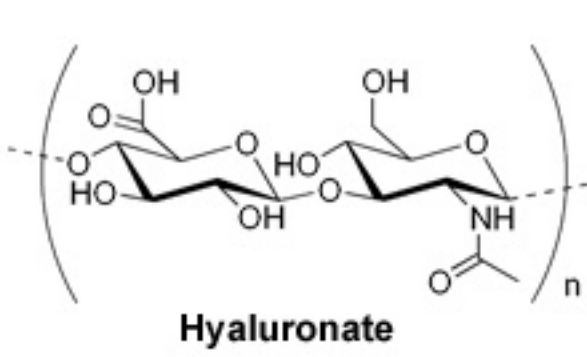
sugar monomers are
acidic derivatives of ^{N-acetyl}glucosamine

↑ carboxyl and/or sulfates

- lots of $\ominus$ charge

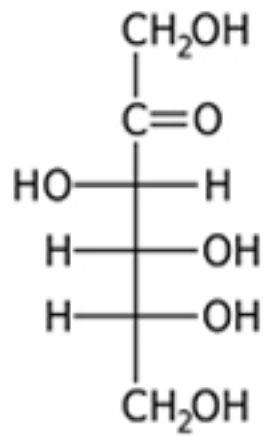
• very hydrophilic

• very slippery (repulsion)

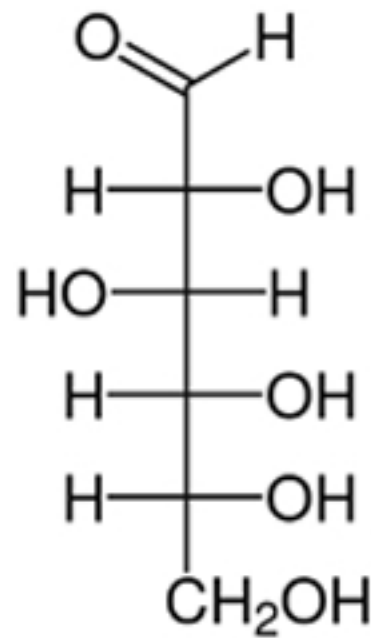


Sugar monomers
in proteoglycan

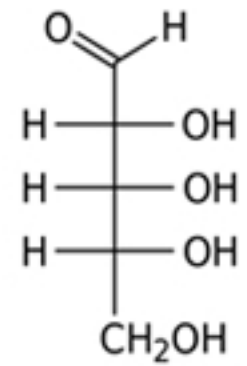
Carbohydrates



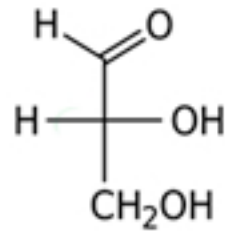
Fructose



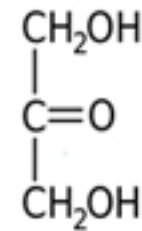
Glucose



Ribose

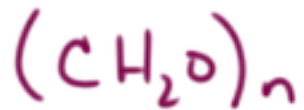


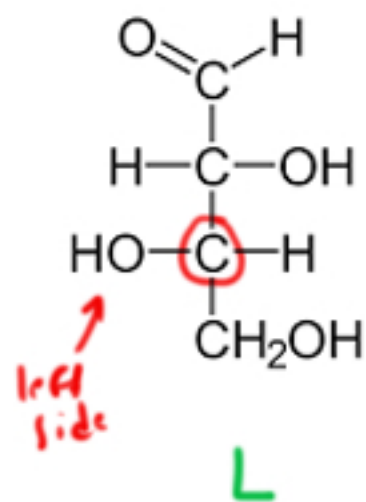
Glyceraldehyde



Dihydroxyacetone

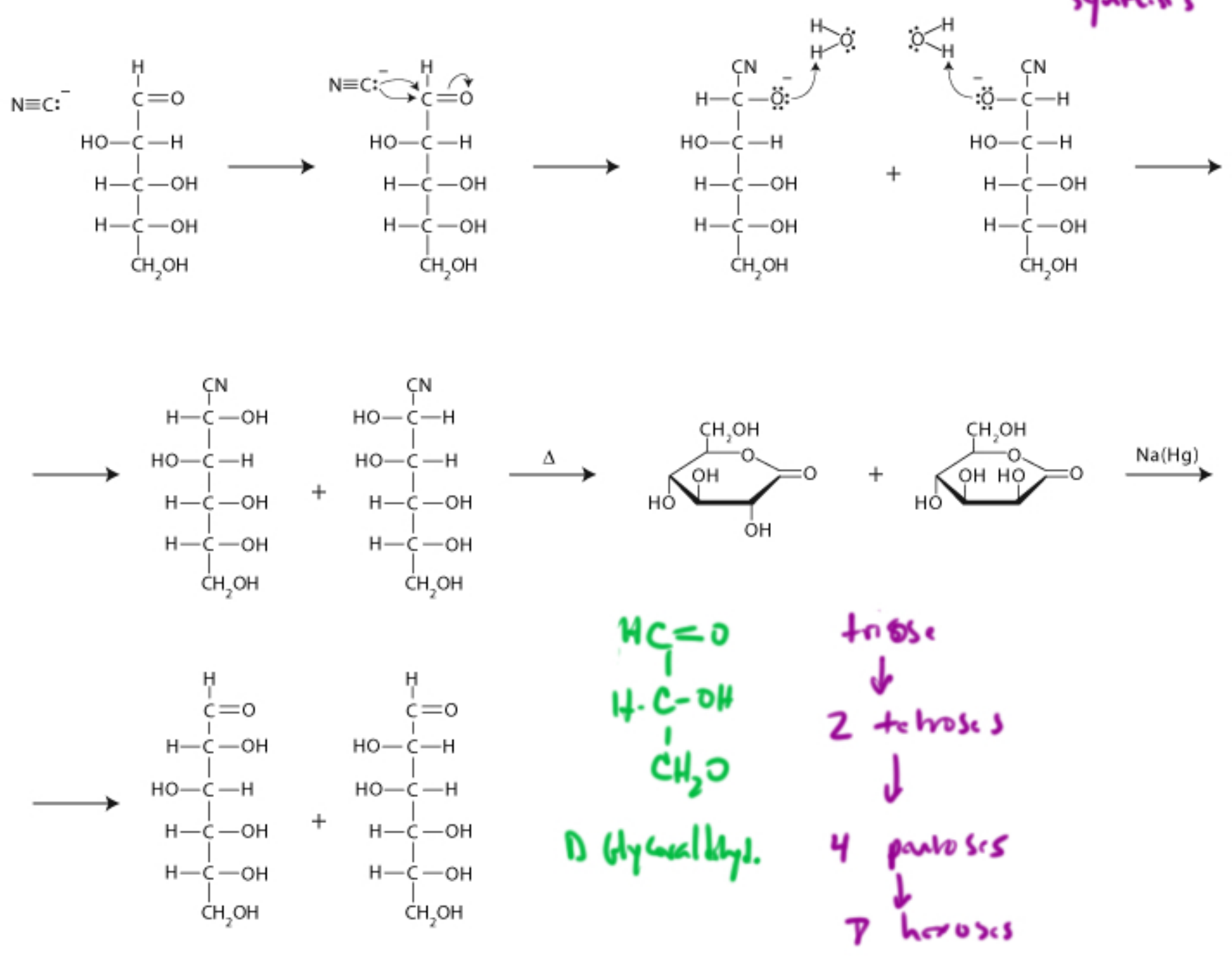
Simple
sugars





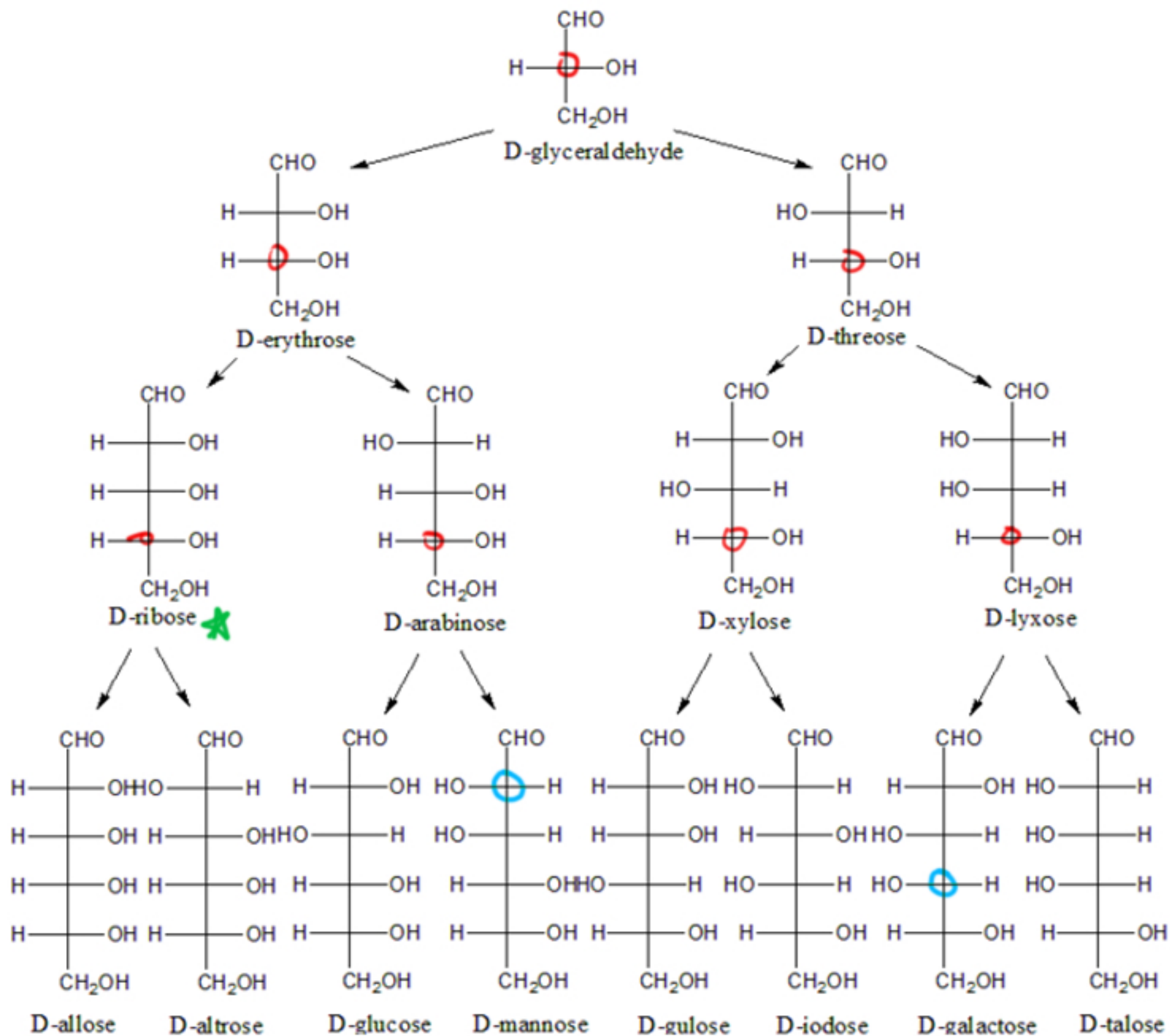
(not d or l)

Kiliani Fischer Synthesis

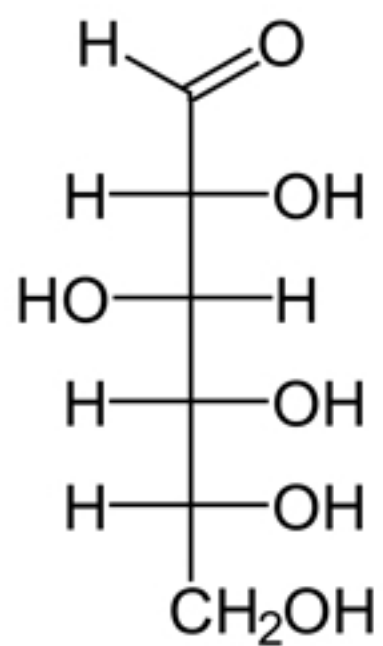


Steps of the Kiliani-Fischer synthesis of D-glucose and its C-2 epimer, D-mannose, from D-arabinose

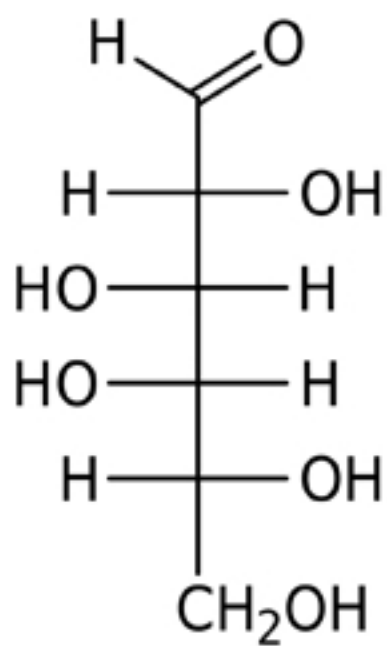
Fischer Projection of D- Aldoses.



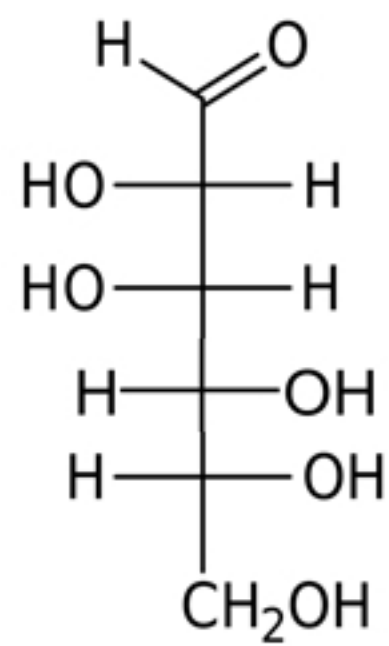
← epimers of glucose →



Glucose

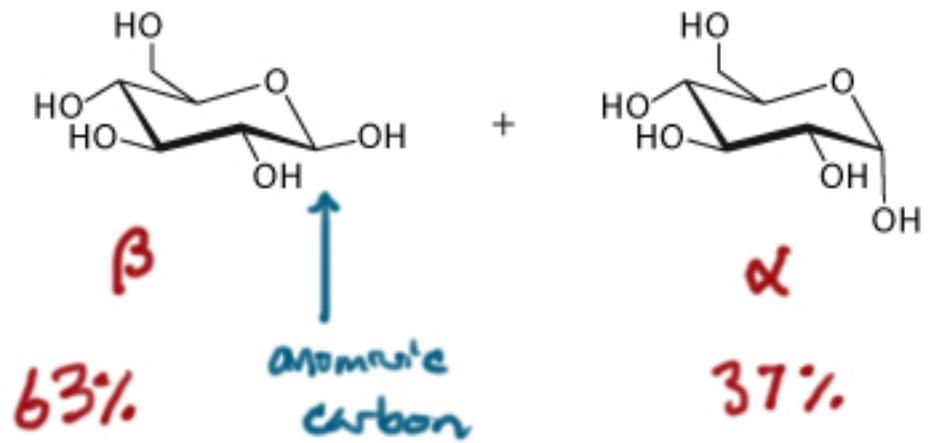
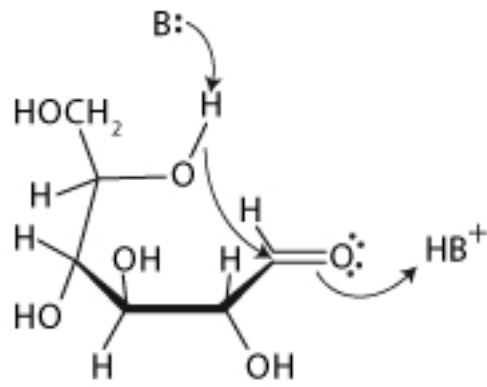


Mannose



Galactose

Ring Formation in Glucose (Hemiacetal formation)



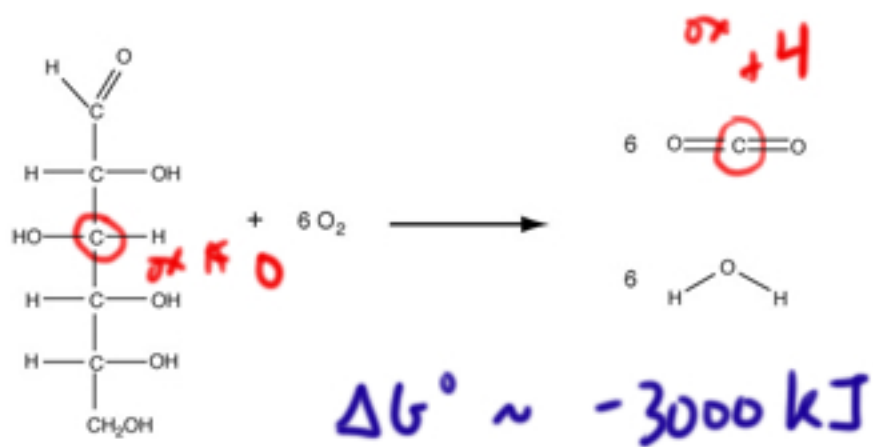
$$\alpha \rightleftharpoons \beta \quad K = \frac{2}{1}$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = -2.3RT \log K$$

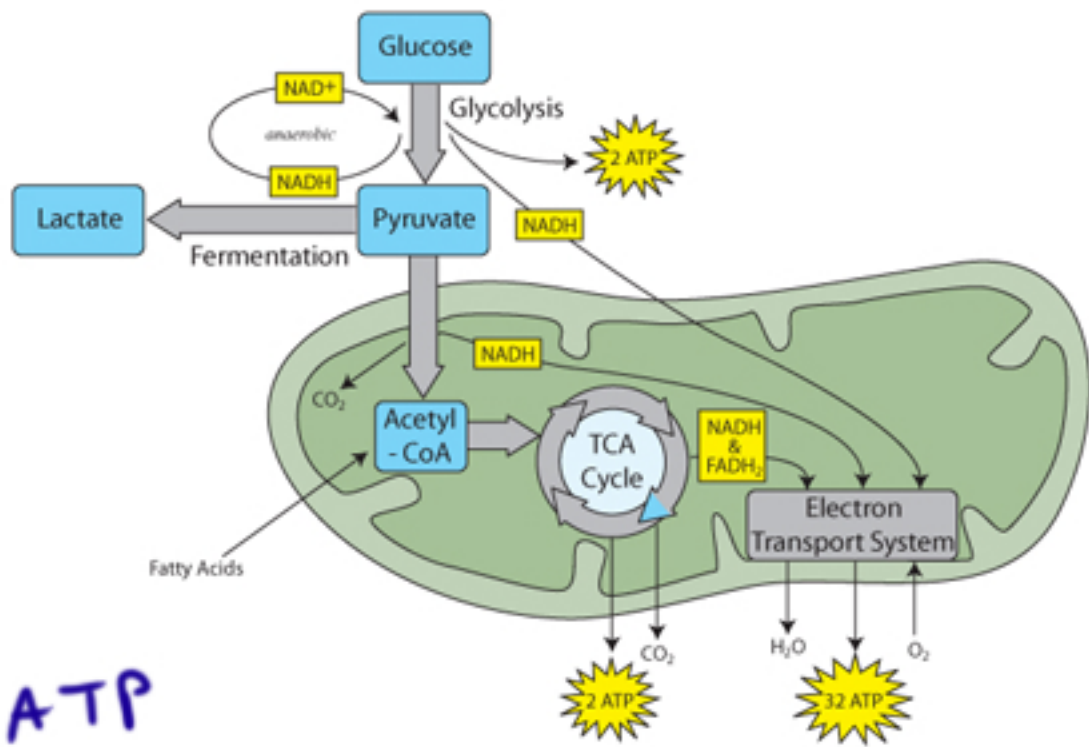
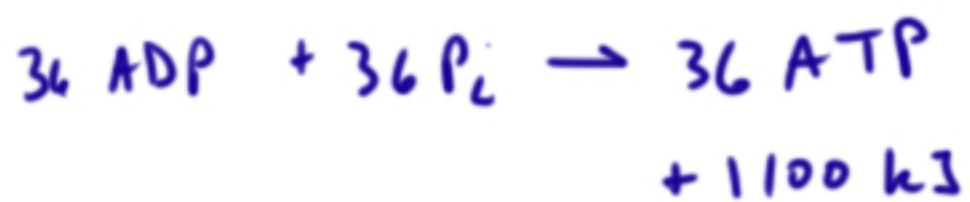
$$= (-2.3)(8)(300)(0.3)$$

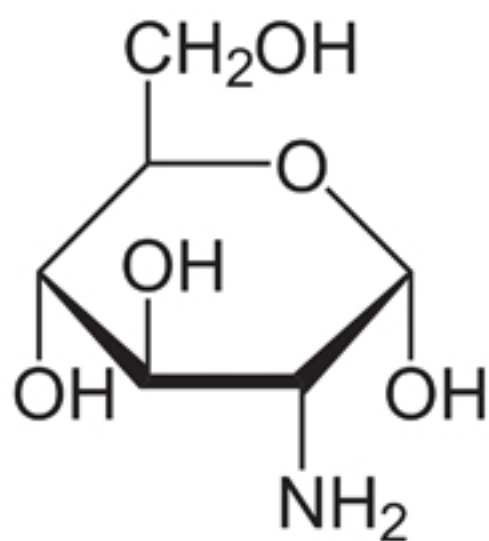
$$\sim -1600 \text{ J}$$

$$\sim -1.6 \text{ kJ}$$

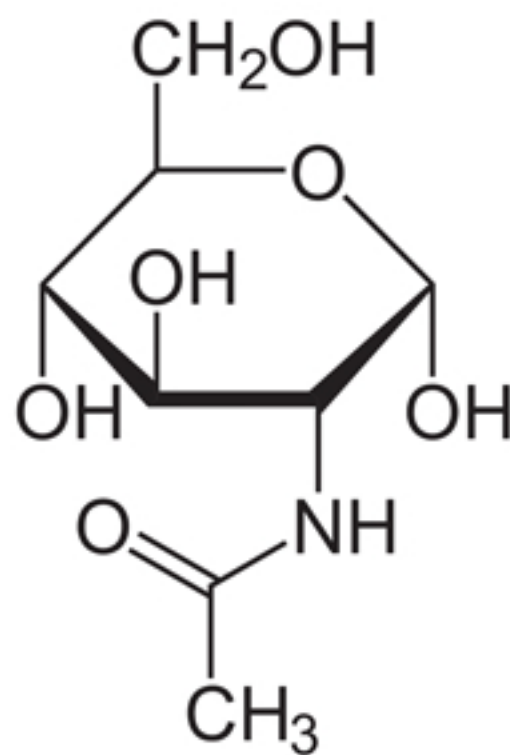


coupled with

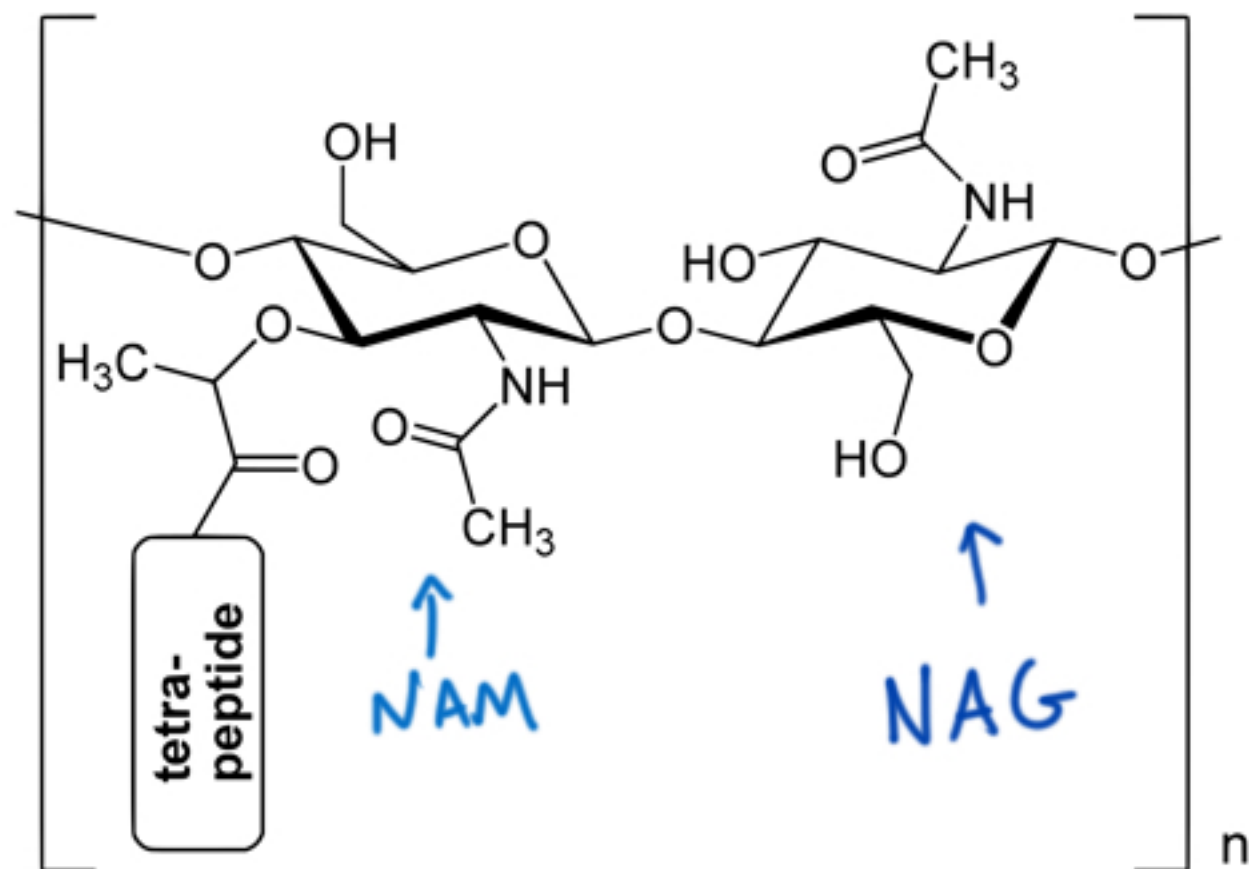




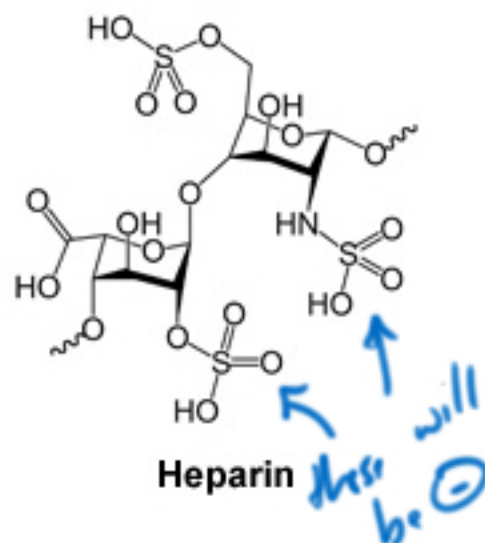
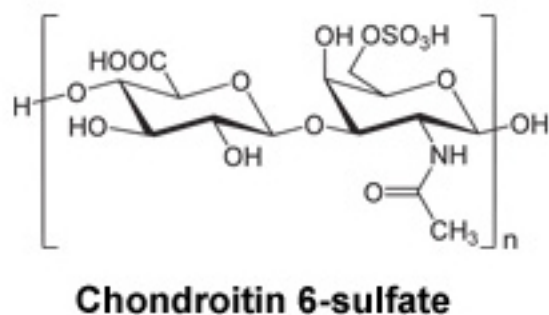
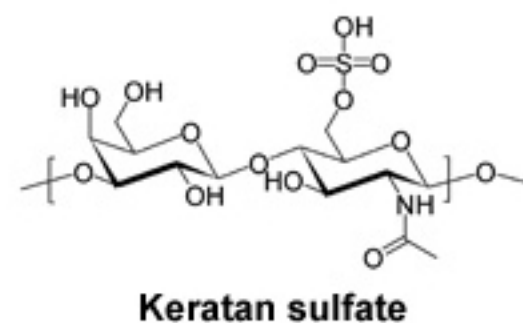
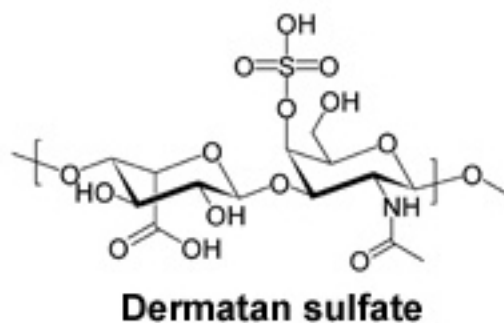
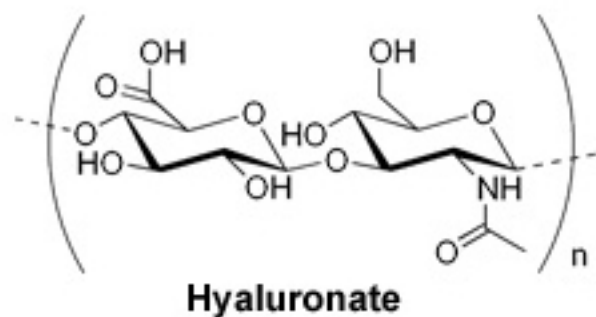
Glucosamine



N-acetyl glucosamine

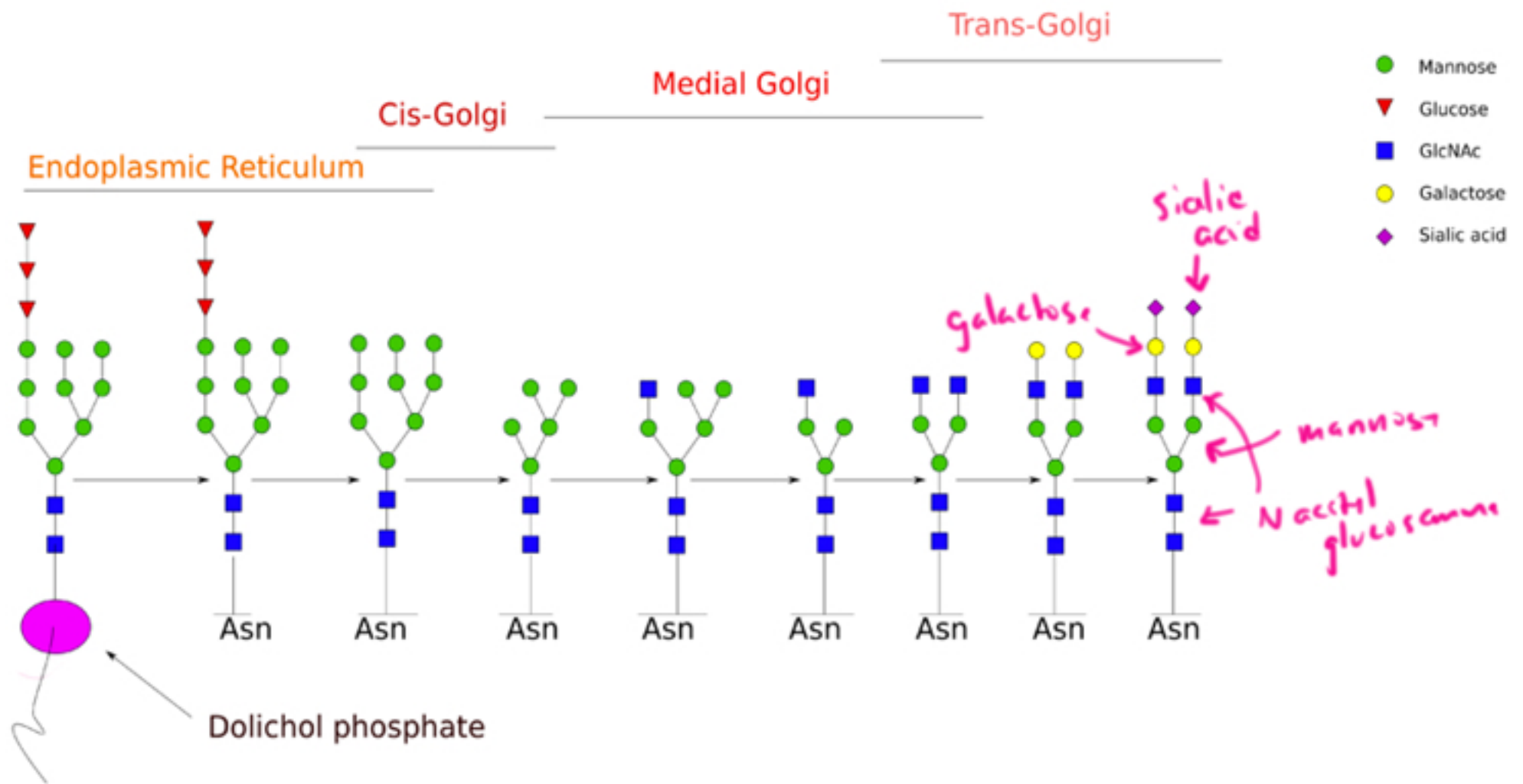


Peptidoglycan

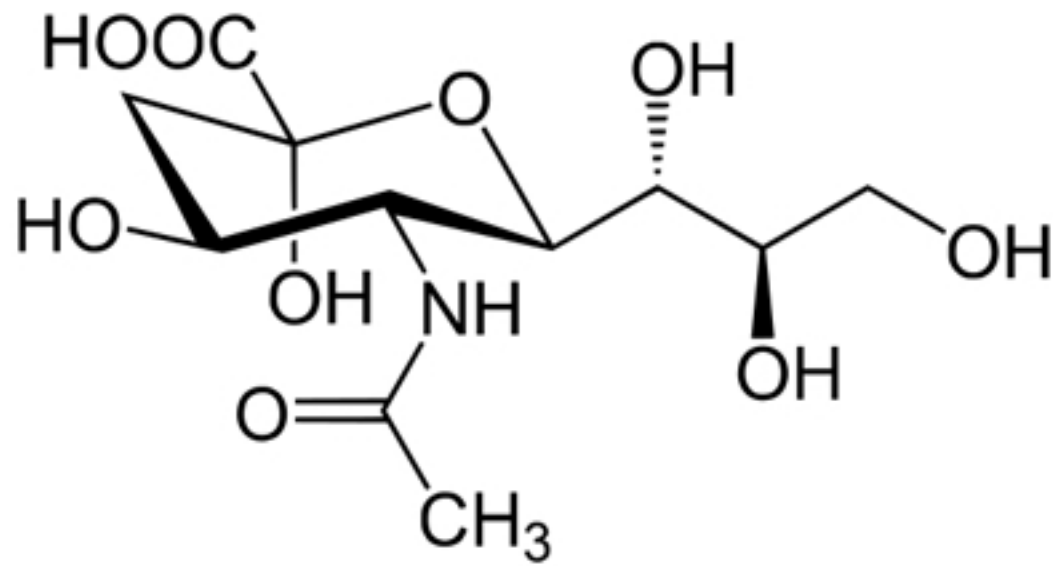


acidic derivatives
of N-acetyl glucosamine
in proteoglycan

$$pH = pK_a + \log \left(\frac{[A^-]}{[HA]} \right)$$



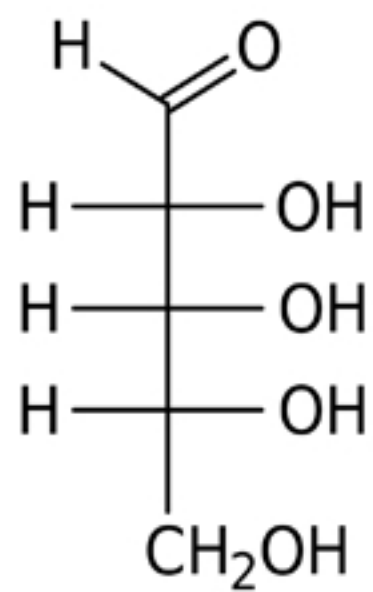
N-linked glycosylation
to form glycoproteins



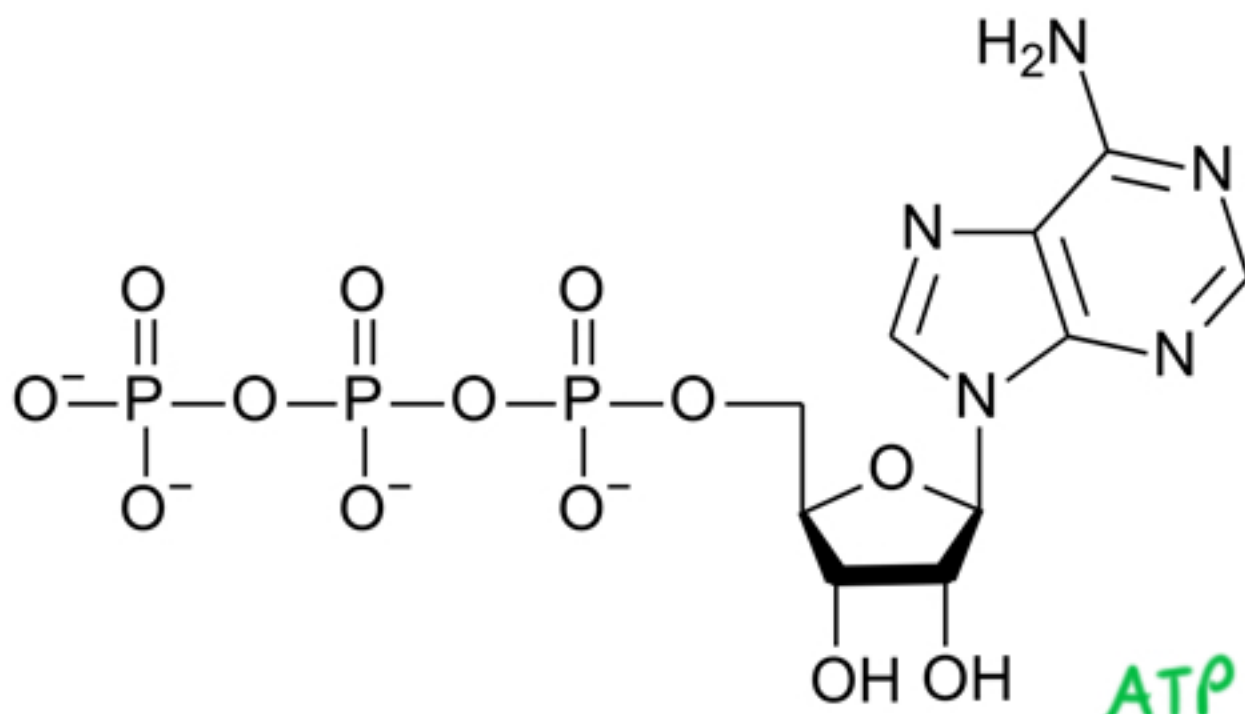
a sialic acid

glycoproteins
and gangliosides

↑
a kind of
sphingolipid

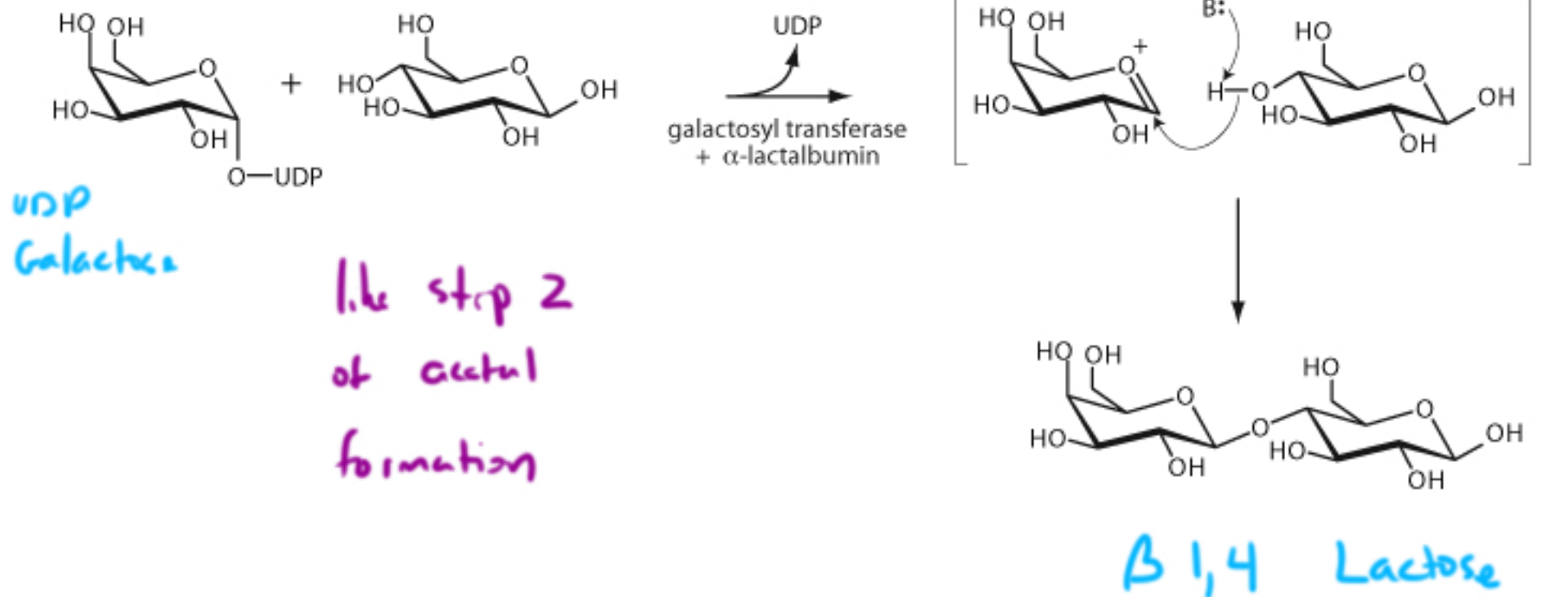


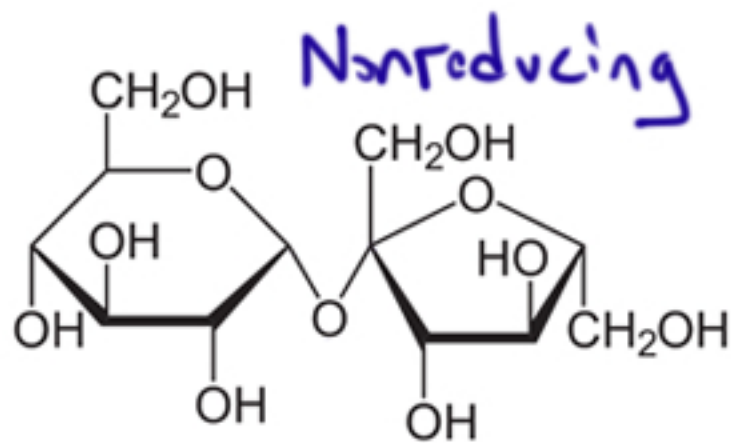
ribose



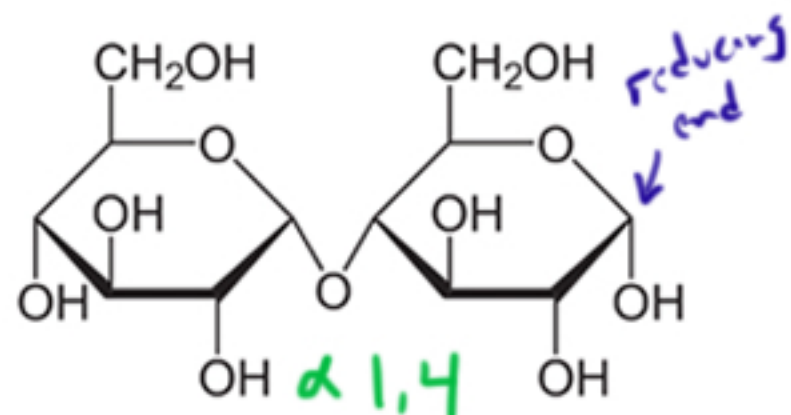
ATP

Glycosidic Bond Formation

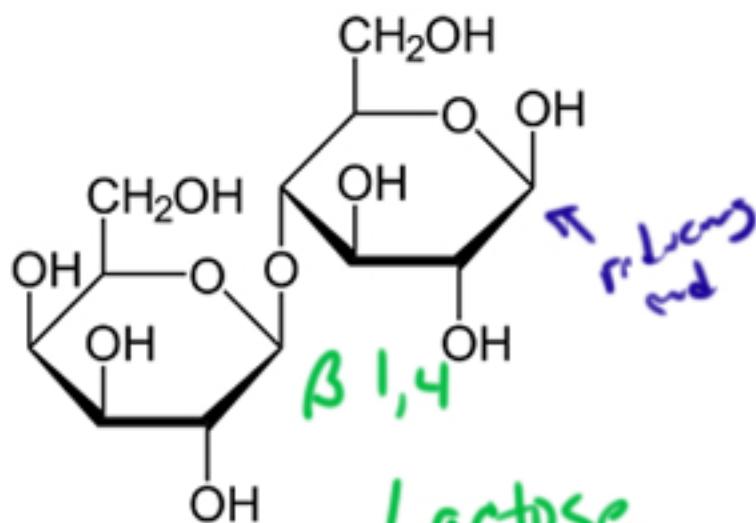




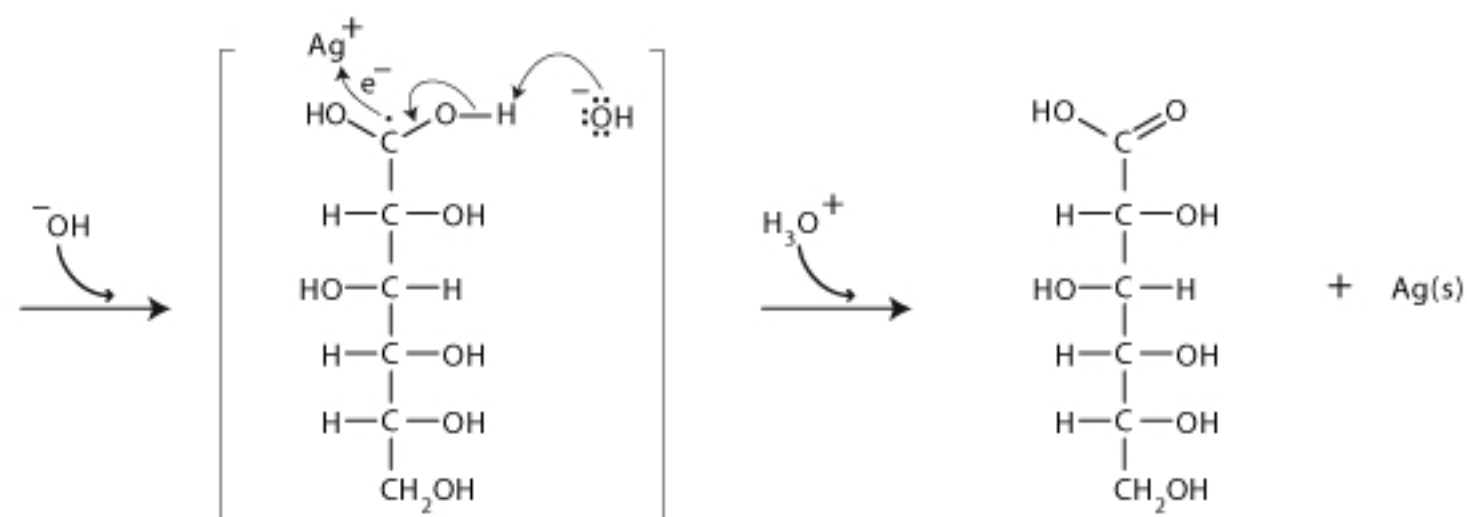
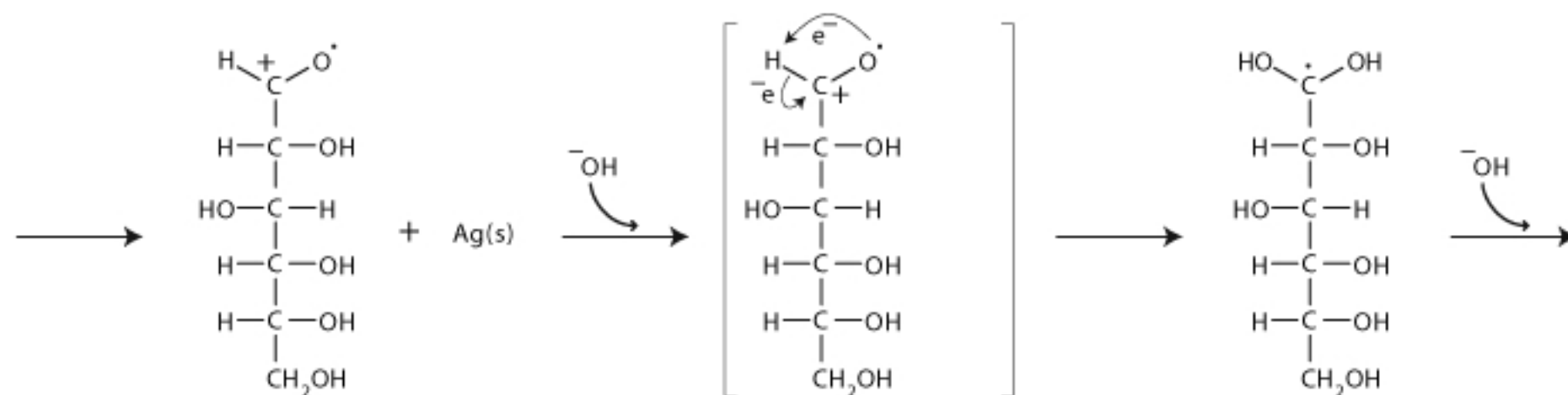
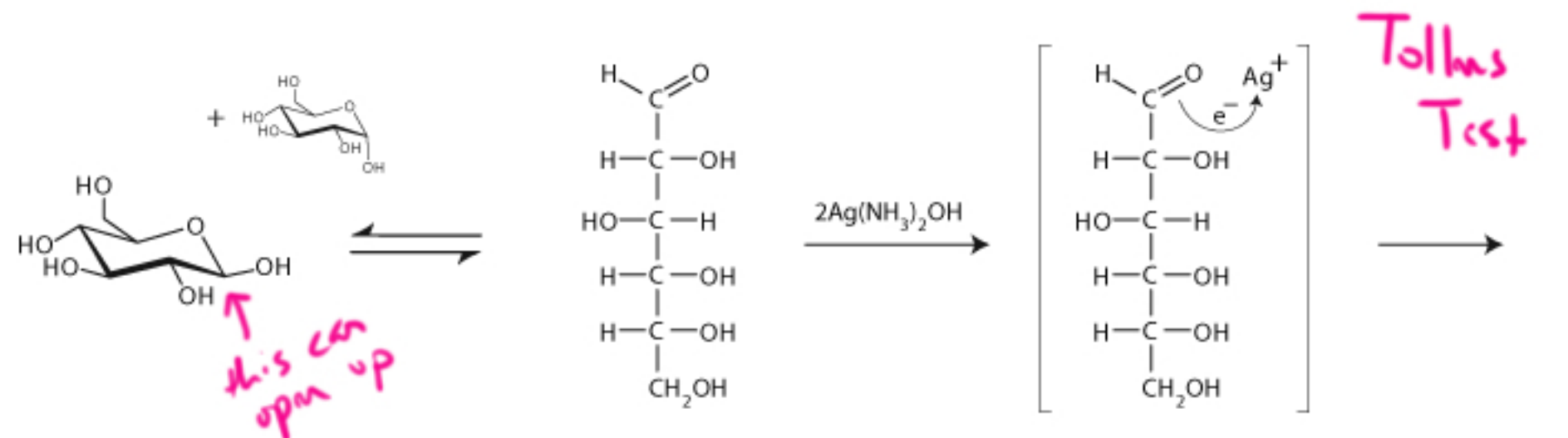
Sucrose
glucose +
fructose

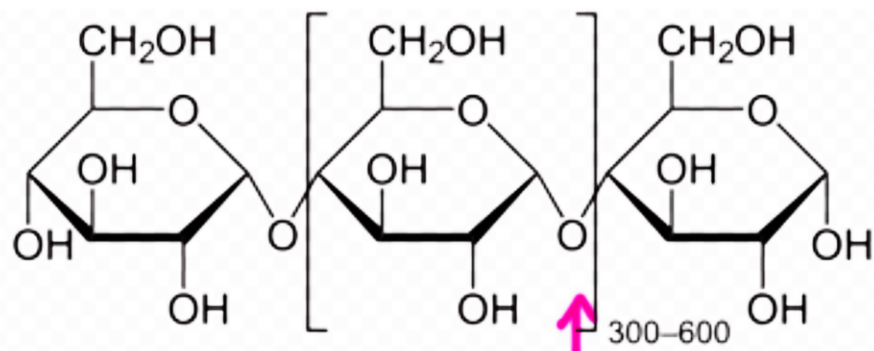


Maltose
glucose
+
glucose



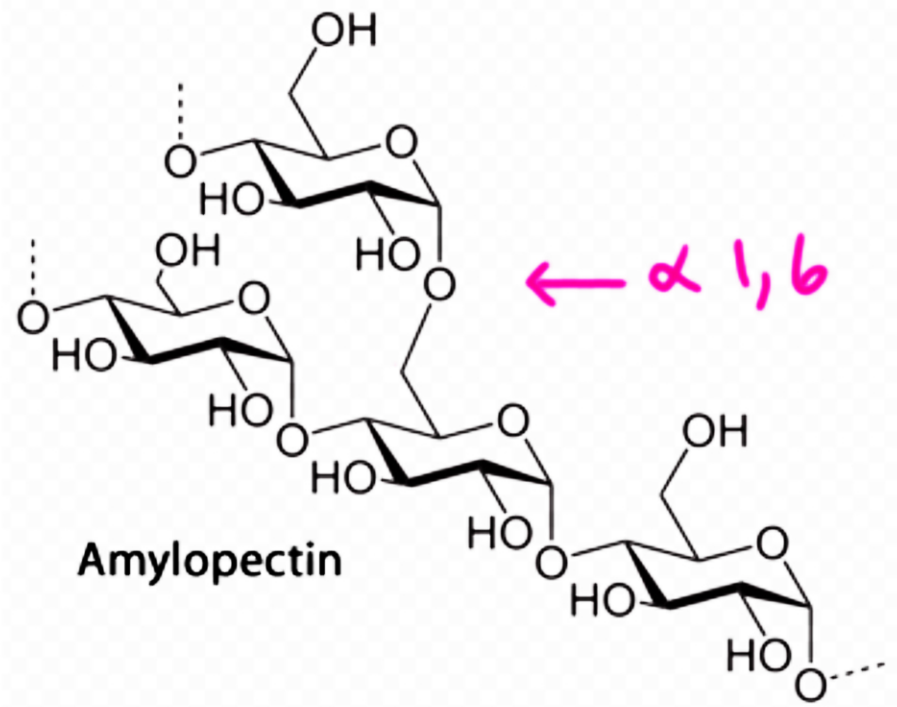
Lactose
glucose
+
galactose





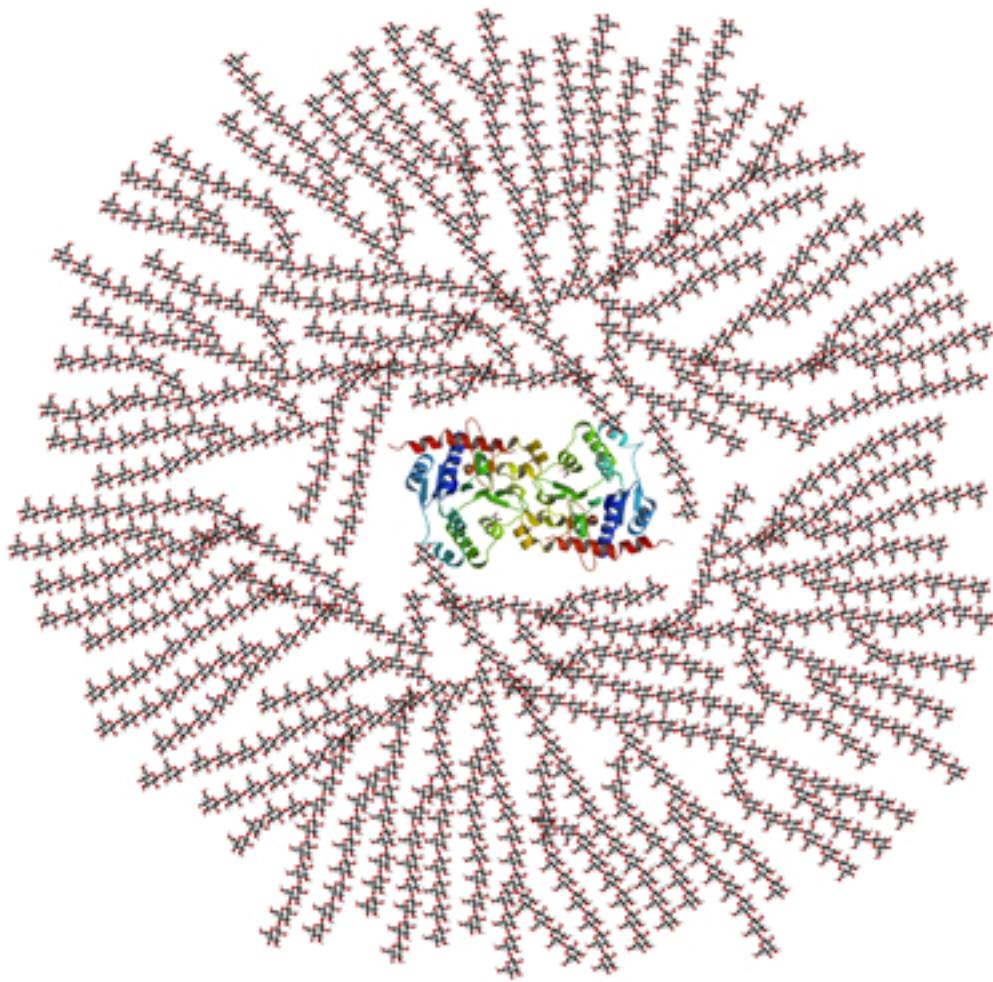
Amylose

α 1,4



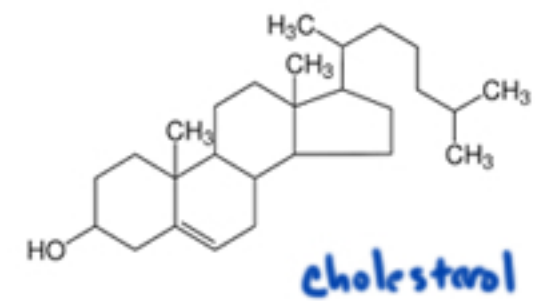
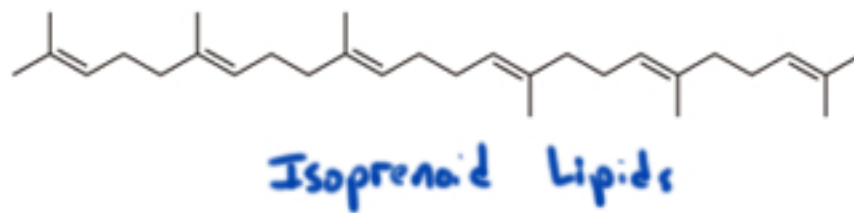
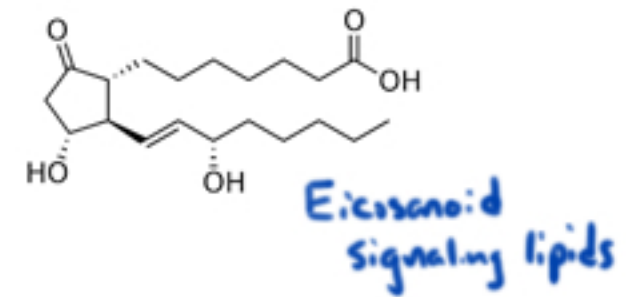
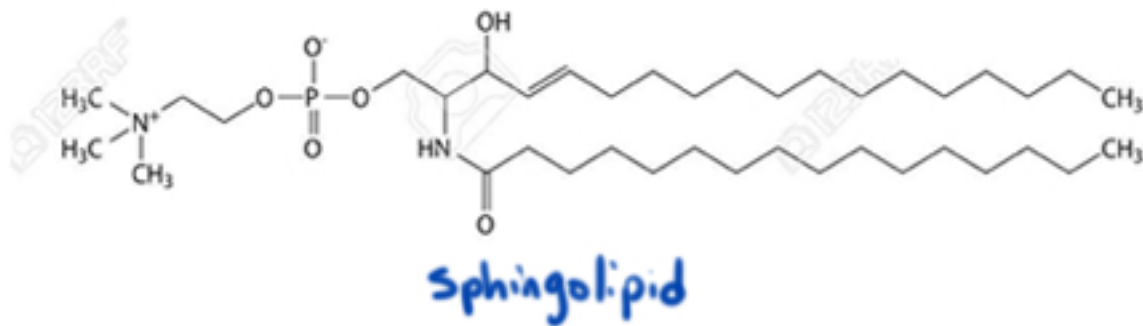
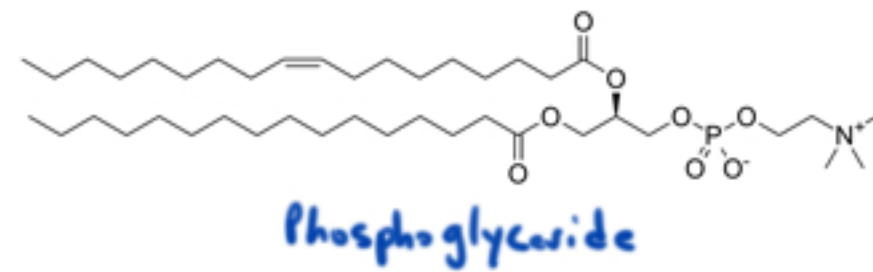
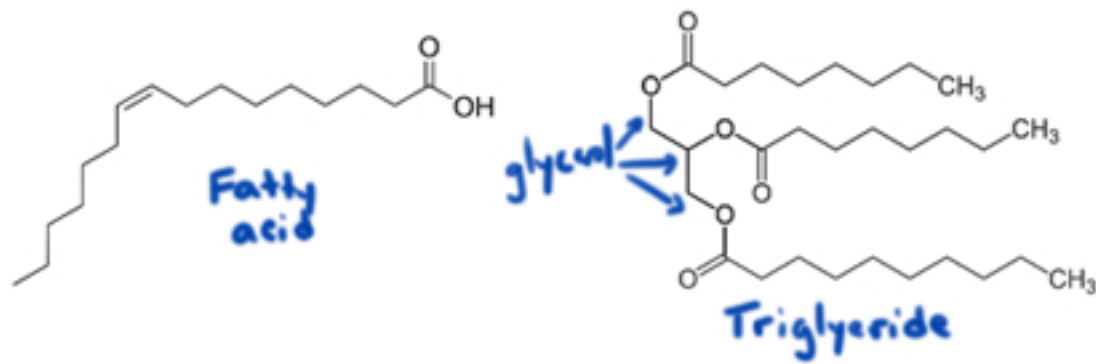
Amylopectin

Glycogen



nonreducing ends

Lipids



saturated



arachidic



stearic



palmitic

monounsaturated



erucic



oleic

polyunsaturated



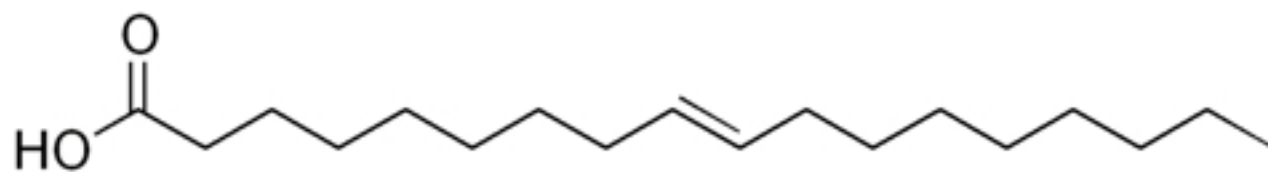
arachidonic



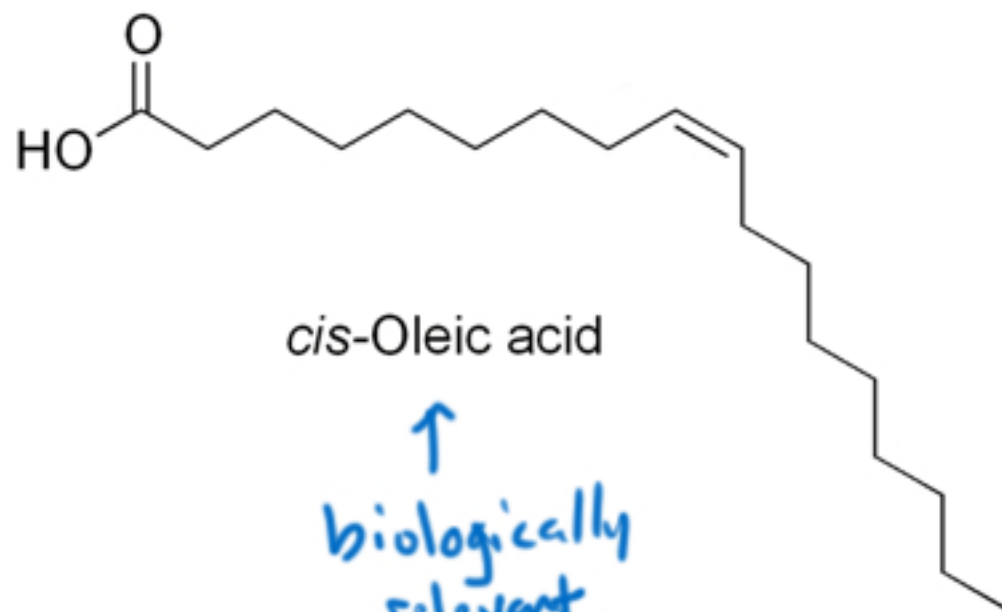
linoleic



linolenic



trans-Oleic acid



cis-Oleic acid

↑
biologically
relevant
(for the most part)

Saturated

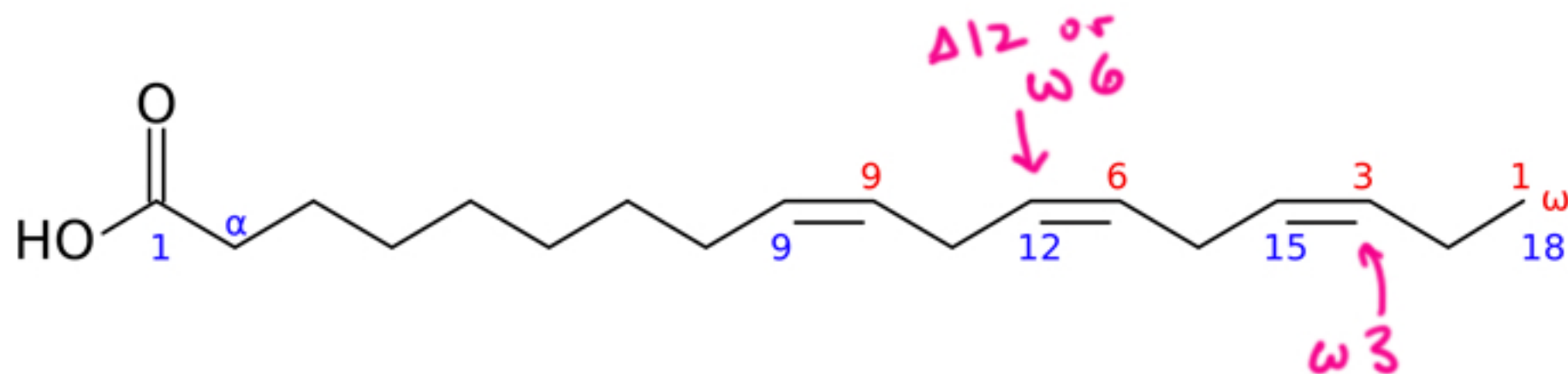


higher
melting
point

unsaturated



α -linolenic acid $\leftarrow$ an essential fatty acid

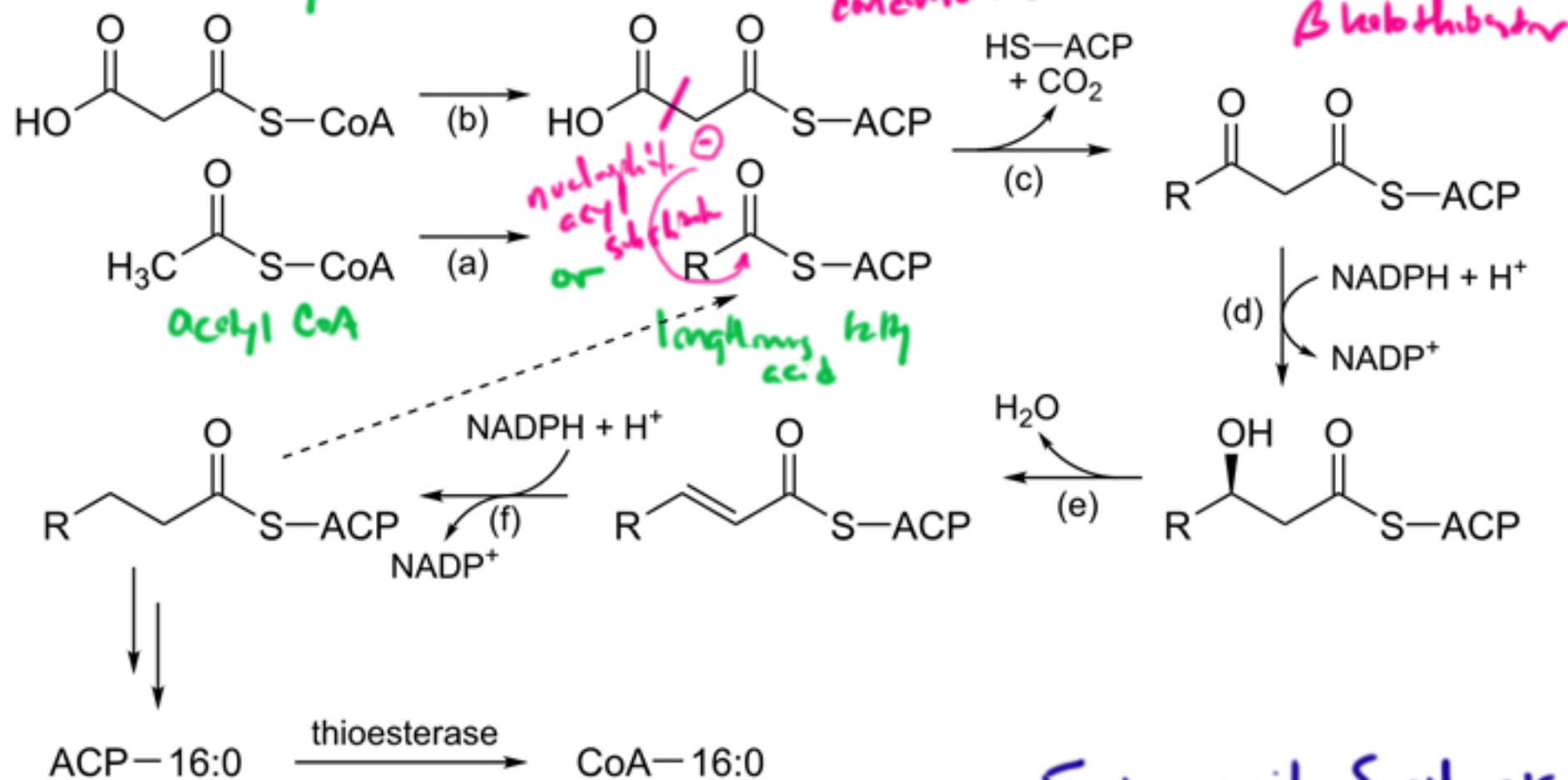


Lipid Number 18:3 (n3)

$\uparrow$
3 double bonds

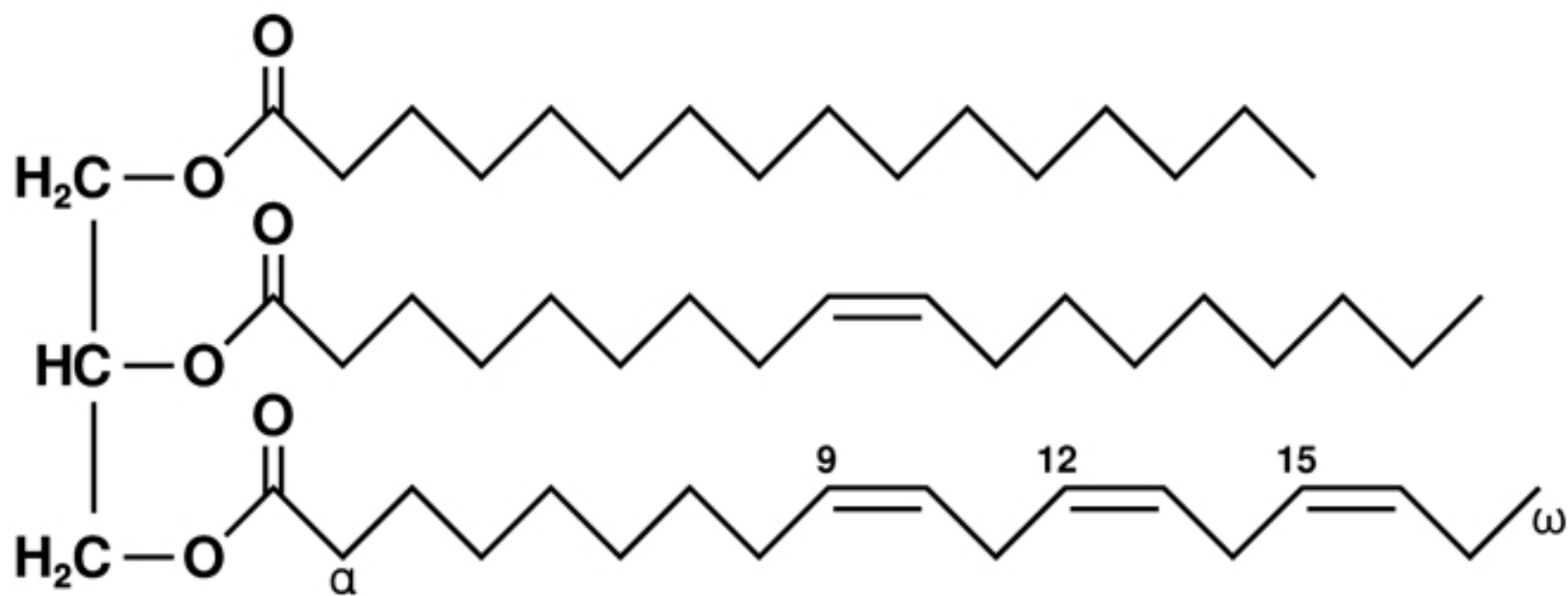
$\uparrow$
starting at $\omega 3$

acetyl CoA + CO₂
 → malonyl CoA



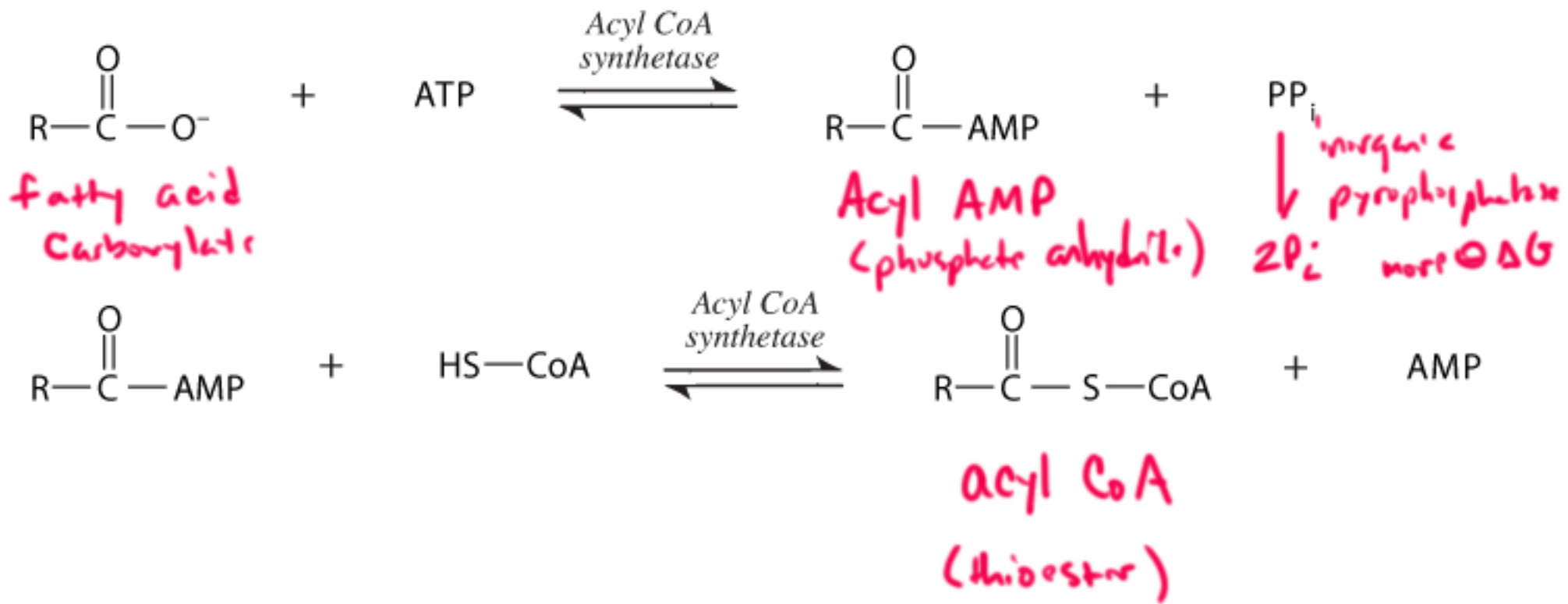
Fatty acid Synthesis
 (supplemental)

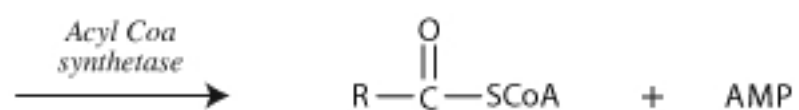
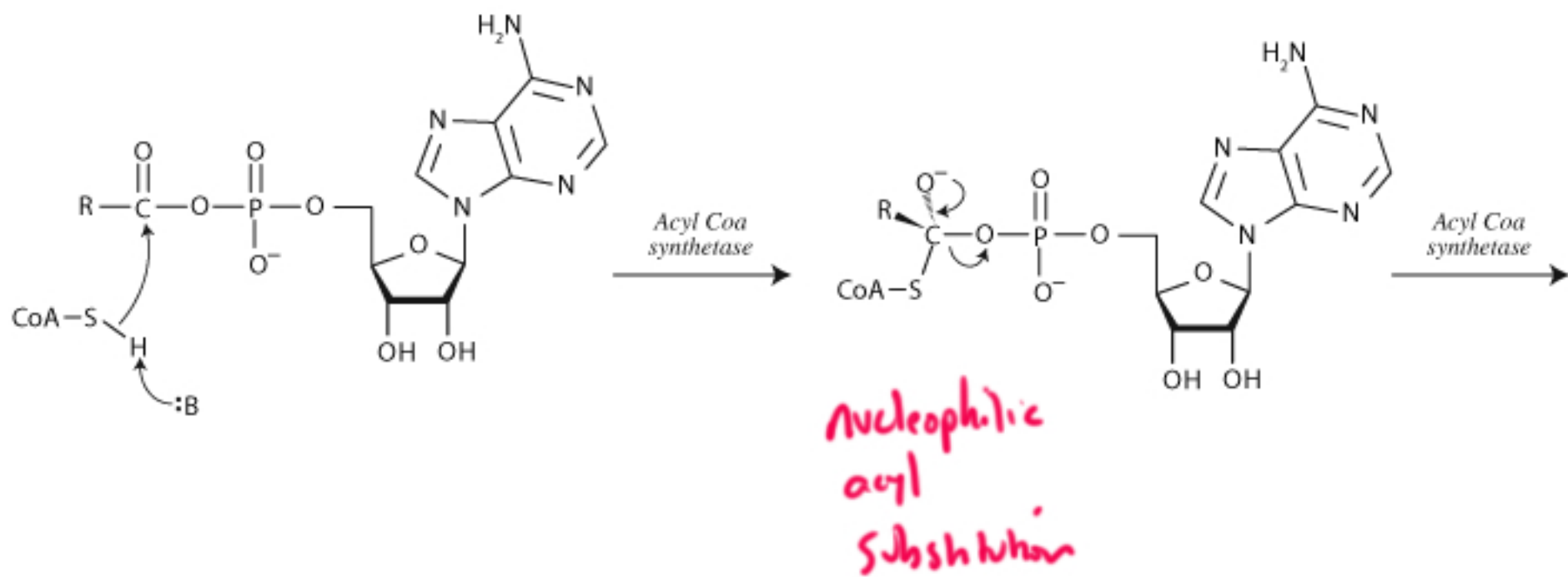
Triglycerides

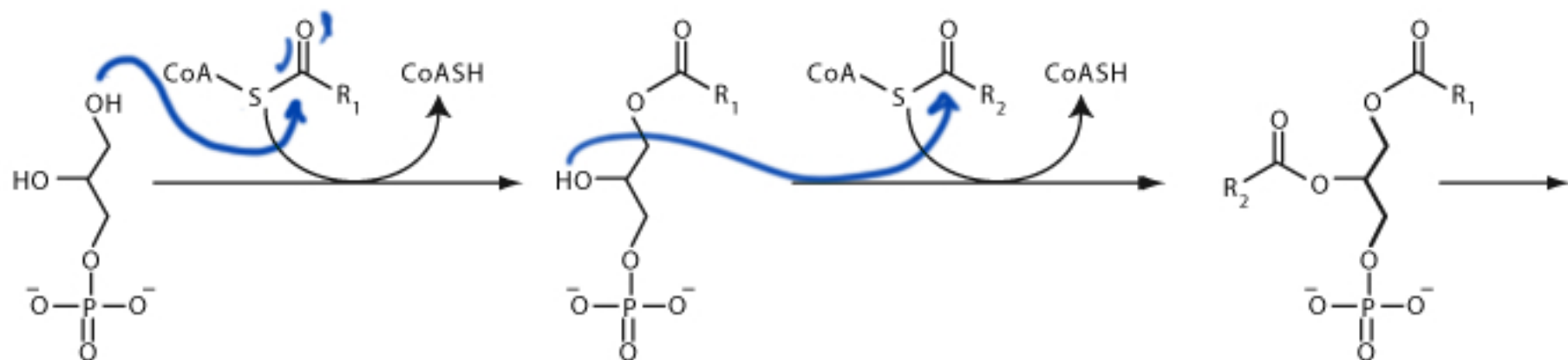


Fatty Acid Activation

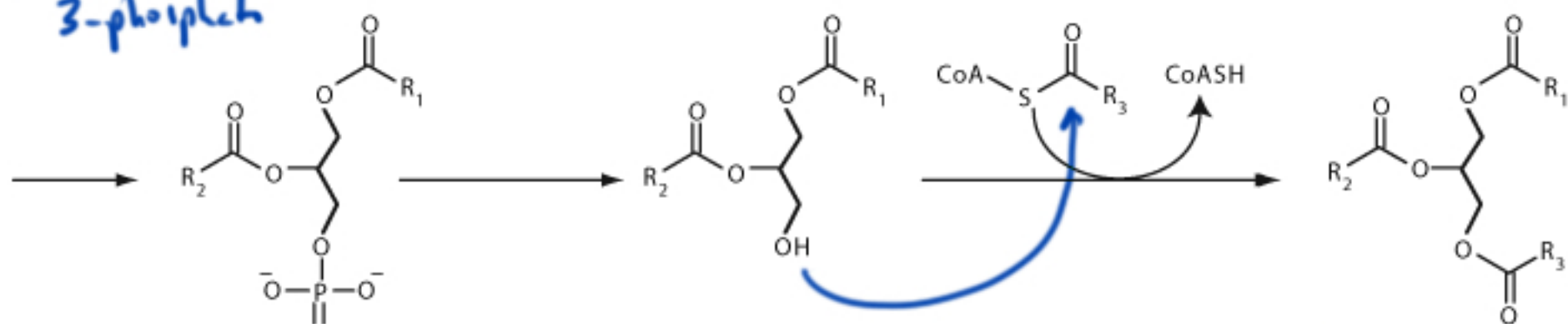
Triglyceride Synthesis



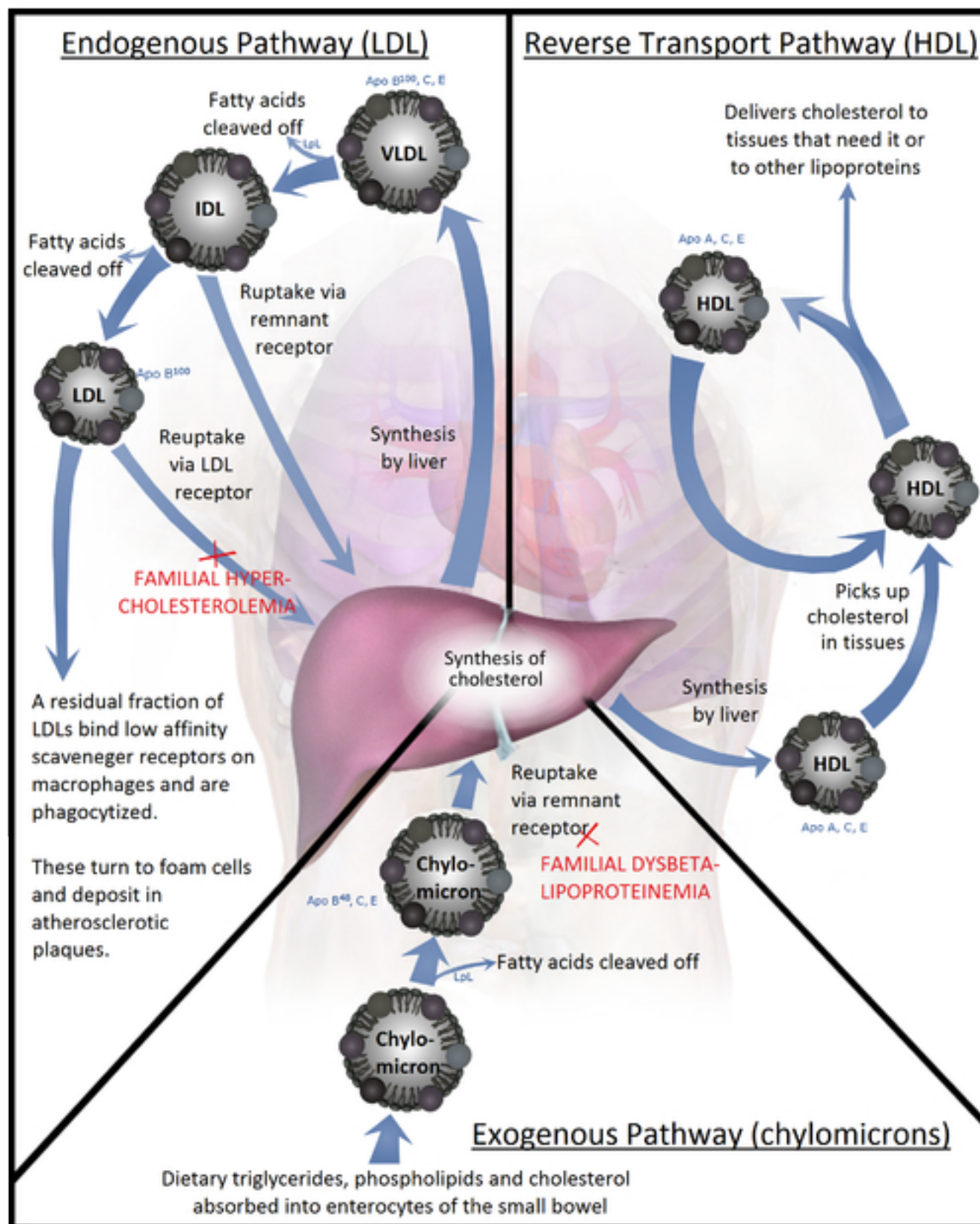




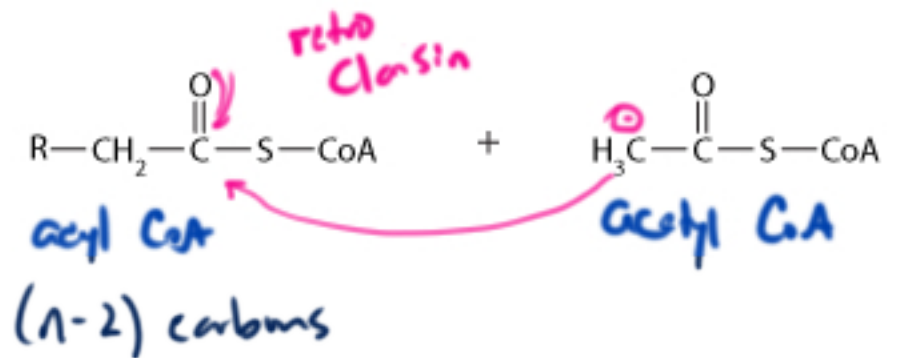
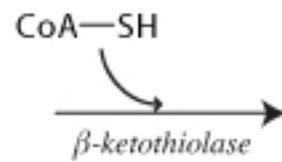
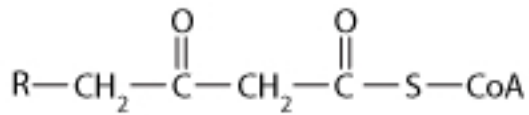
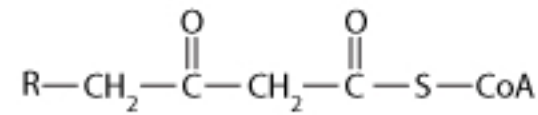
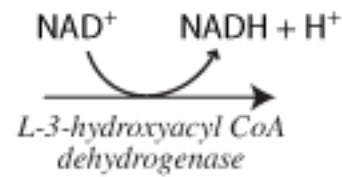
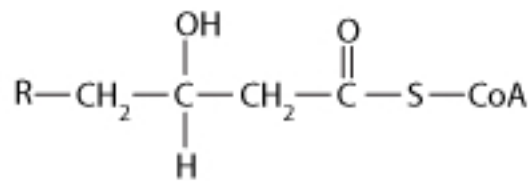
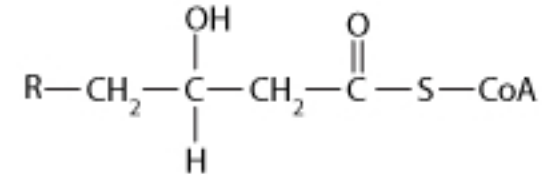
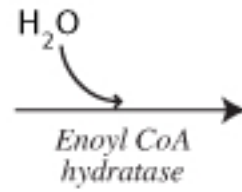
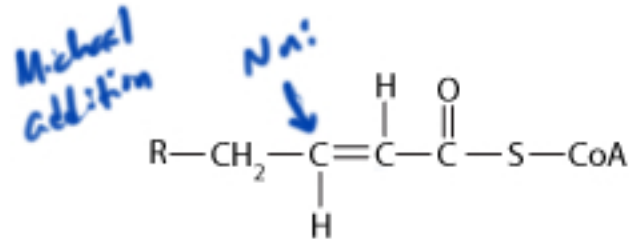
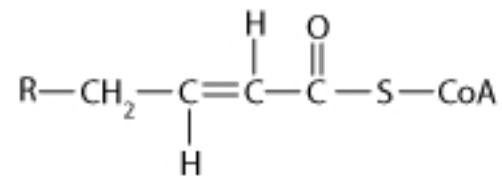
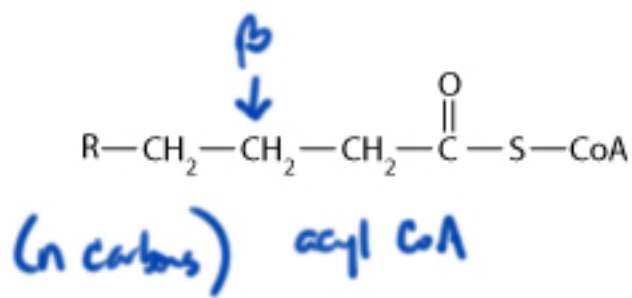
glycerol
3-phosphate



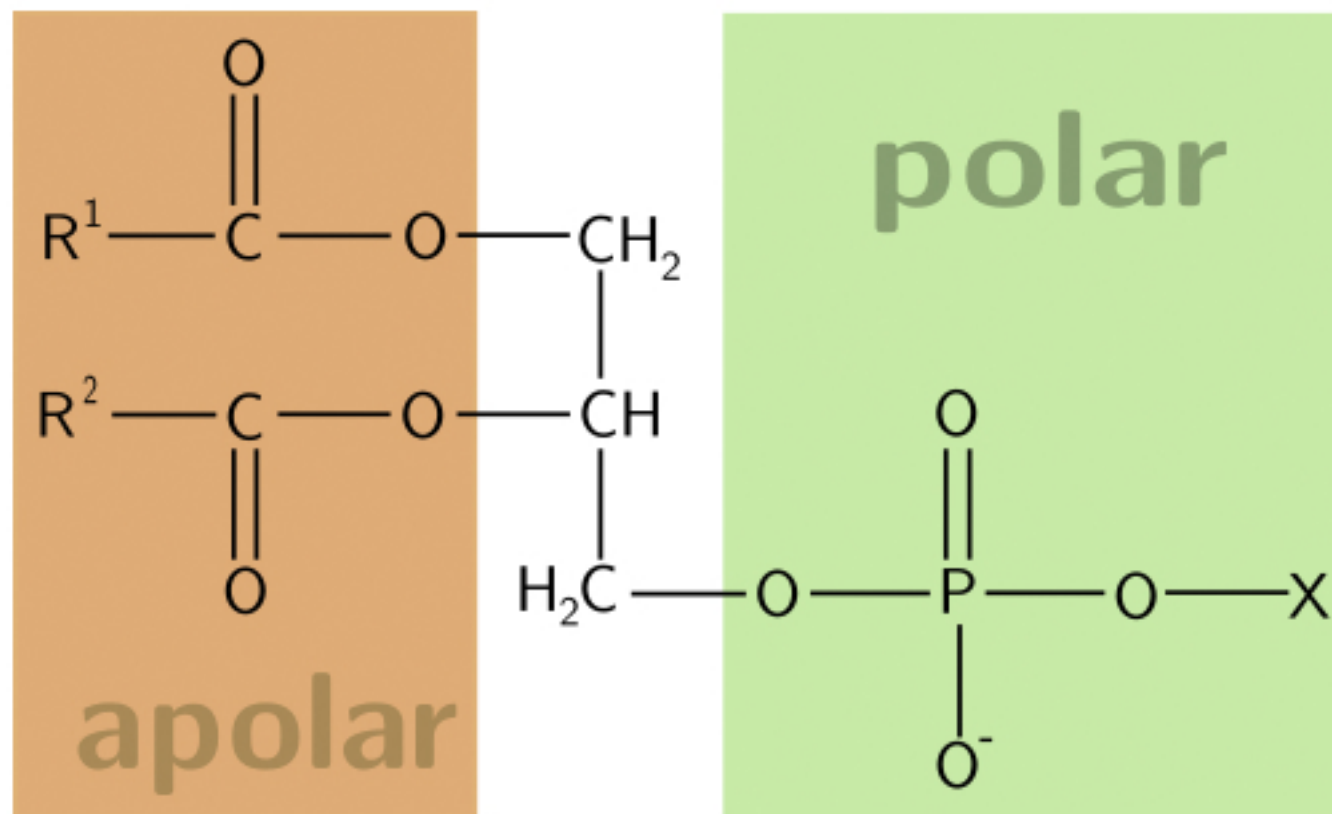
triglyceride

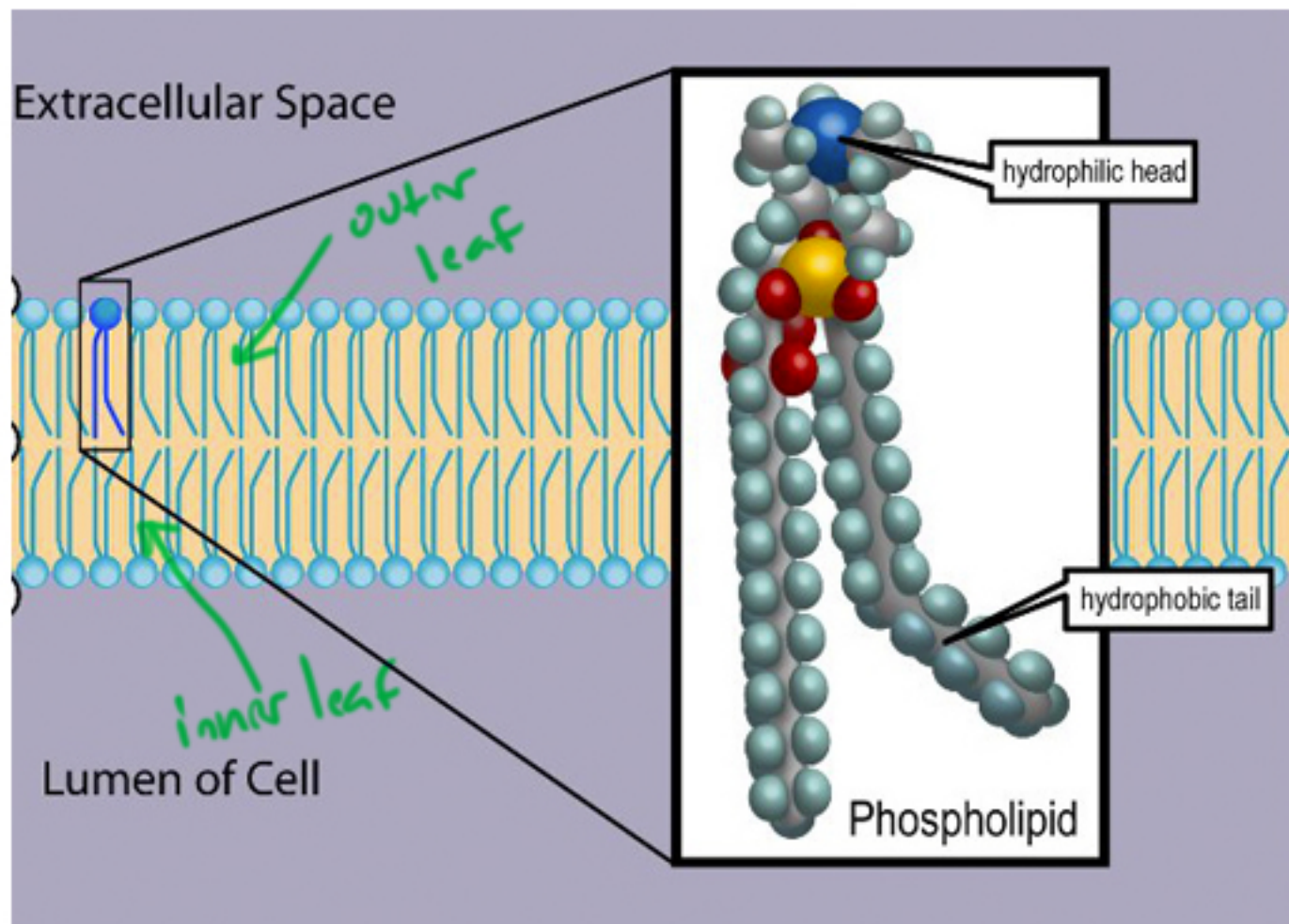


β Oxidation



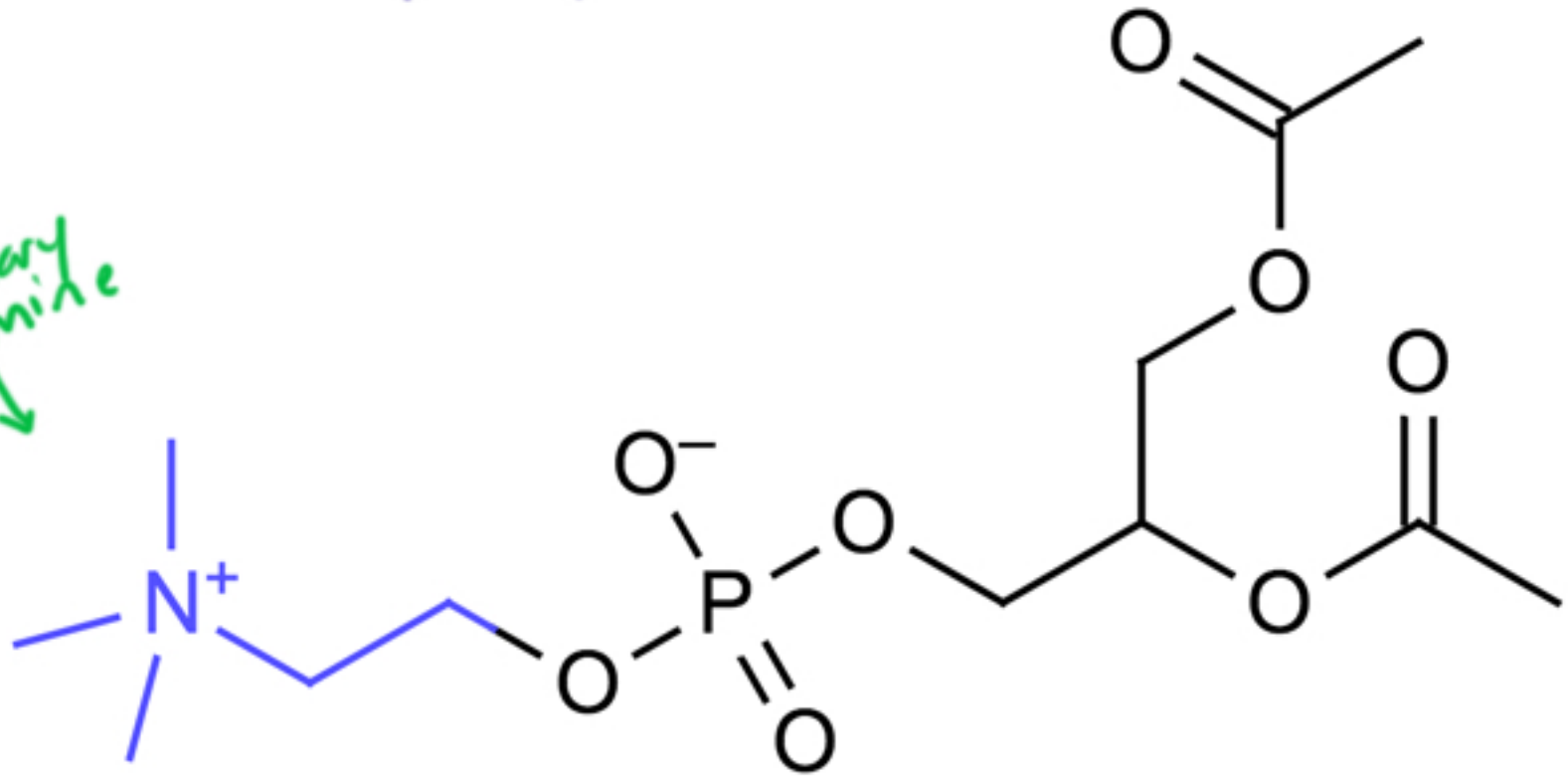
Glycophospholipids





Phosphatidyl Choline

quaternary
amine
↓



| choline

| phosphate

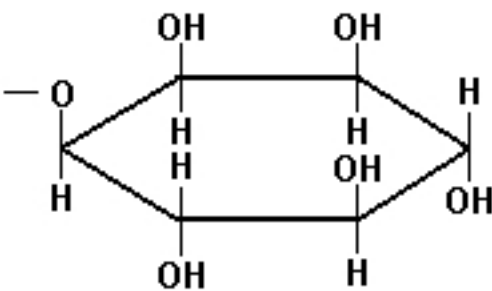
Glycerophospholipids

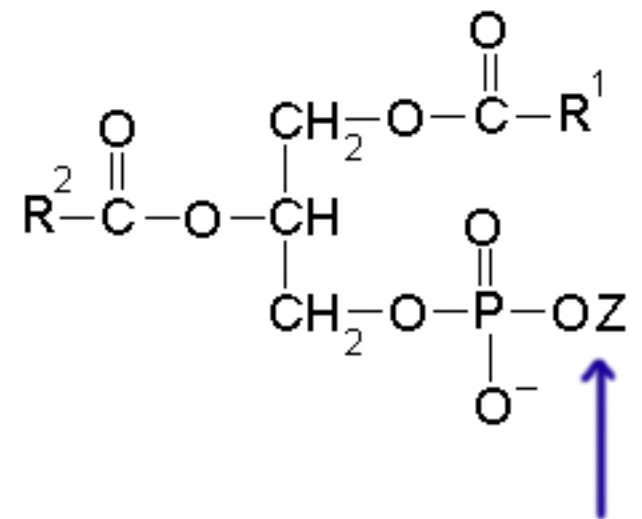
$Z = -H$ Phosphatidic acid

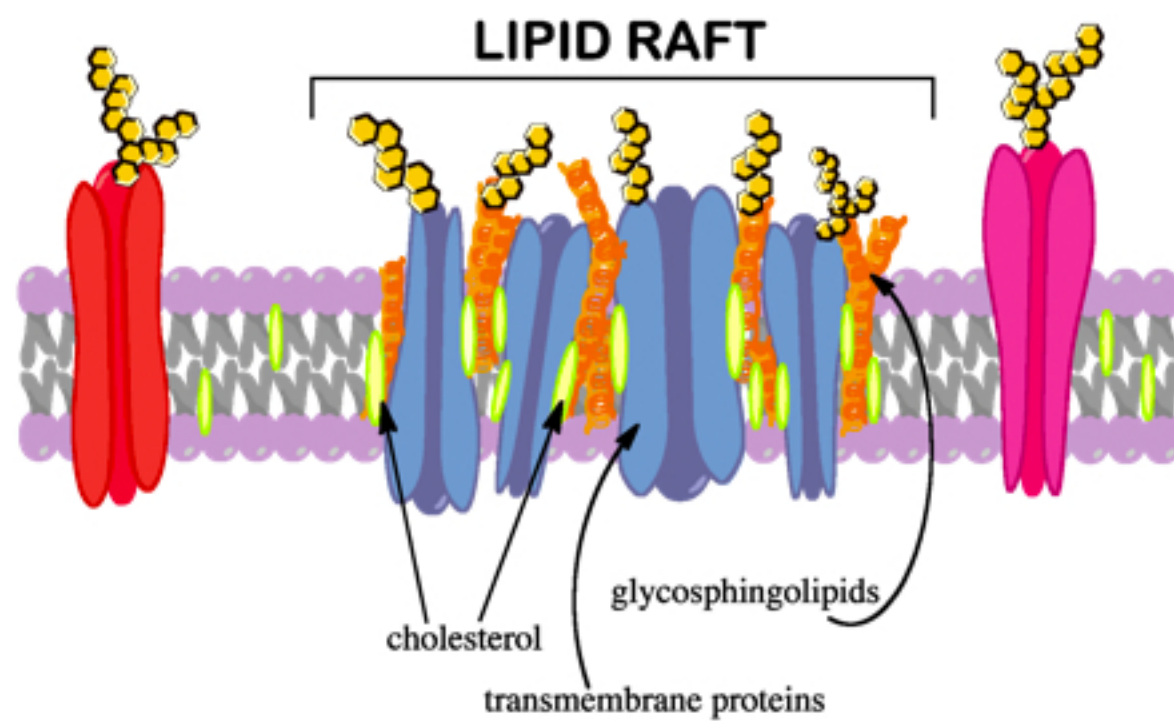
$Z = -CH_2-\underset{\substack{| \\ NH_2}}{CH}-COOH$ Phosphatidylserine

$Z = -CH_2-CH_2-\overset{+}{NH}_3$ Phosphatidylethanolamine

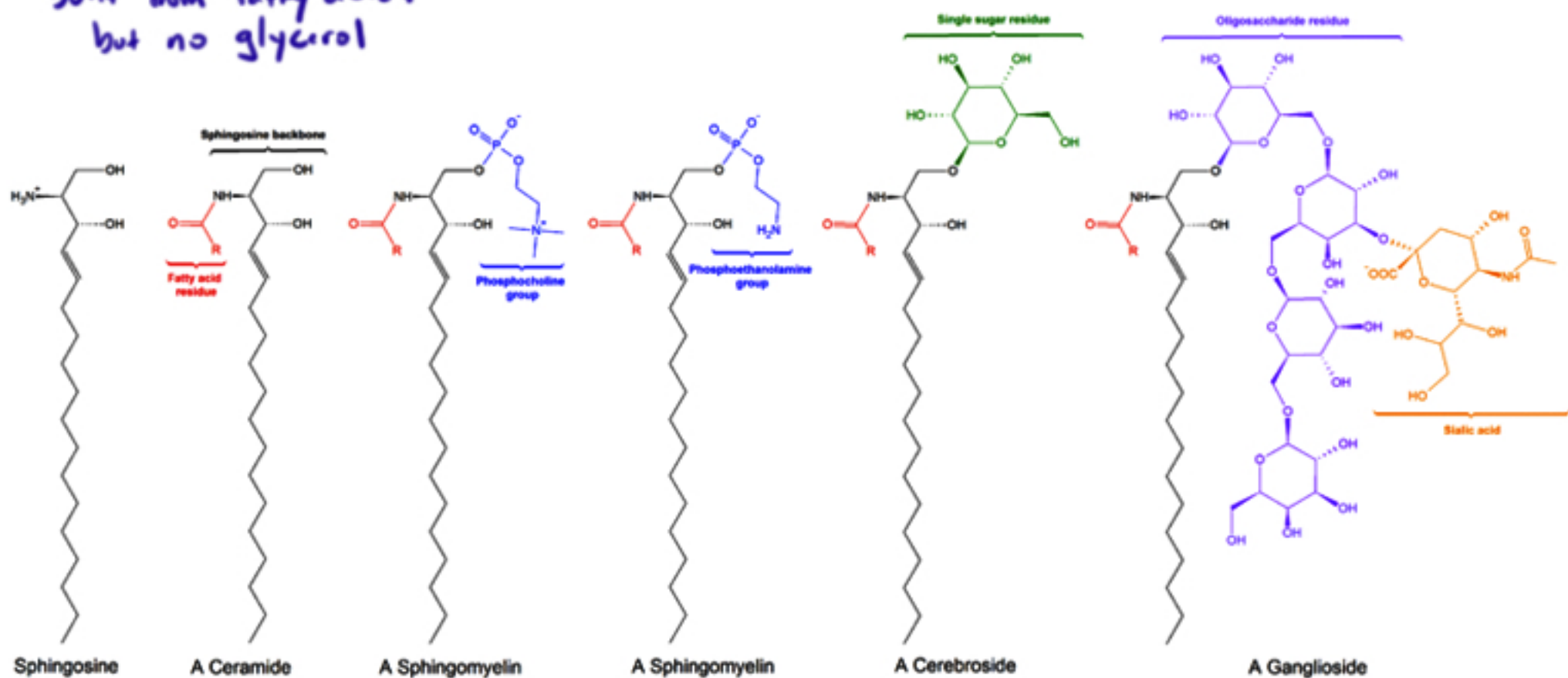
$Z = -CH_2-CH_2-N^+(CH_3)_3$ Phosphatidylcholine

$Z =$  Phosphatidylinositol





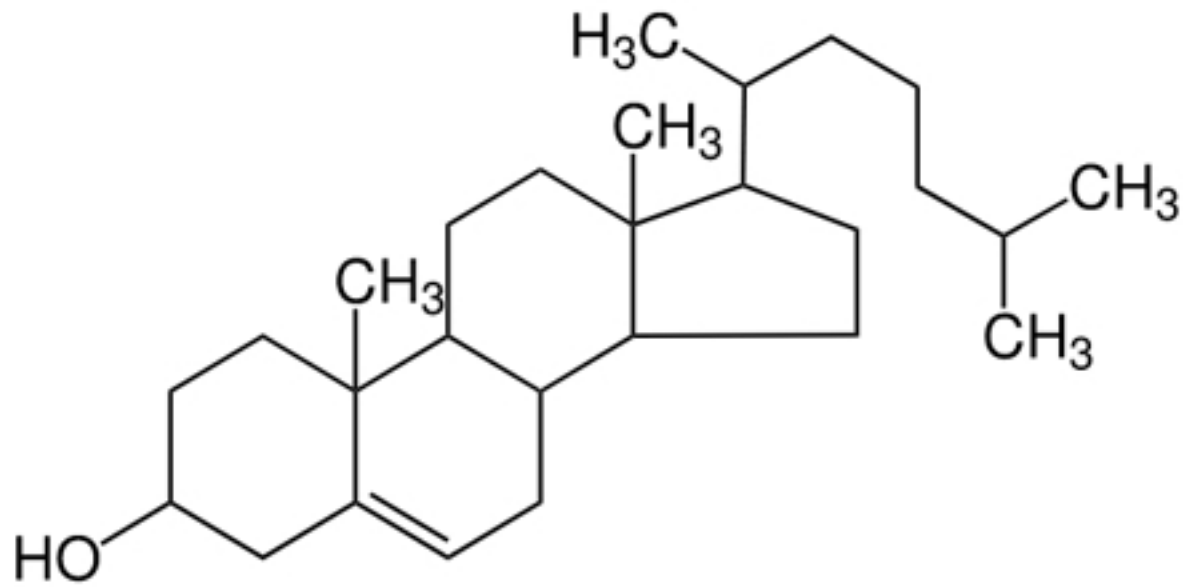
built from fatty acids
but no glycerol



↑
palmitoyl CoA
+ serine → CO_2 + NADPH + FAD

← anion membrane lipids

Cholesterol

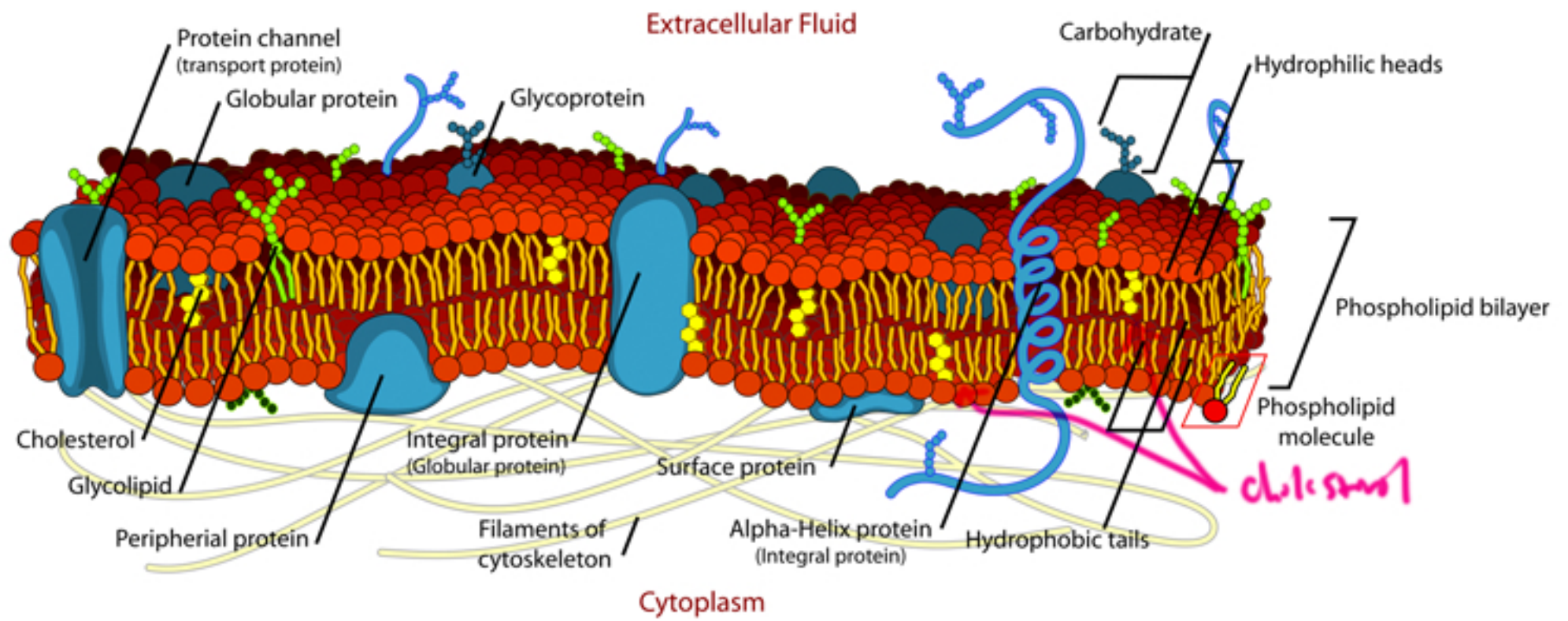


- lipid raft

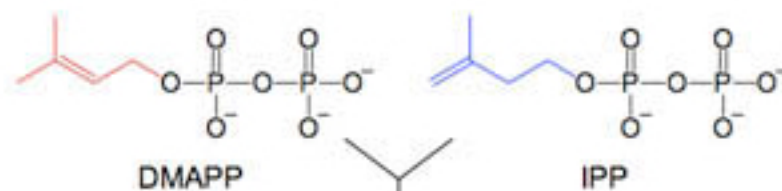
- serves as a fluidity buffer

- low T - prevents crystallization

- high T - increases viscosity

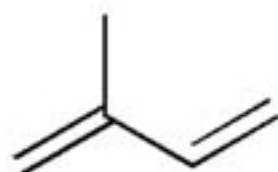
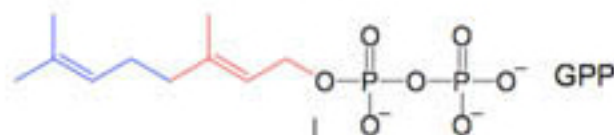


dimethylallyl pyrophosphate



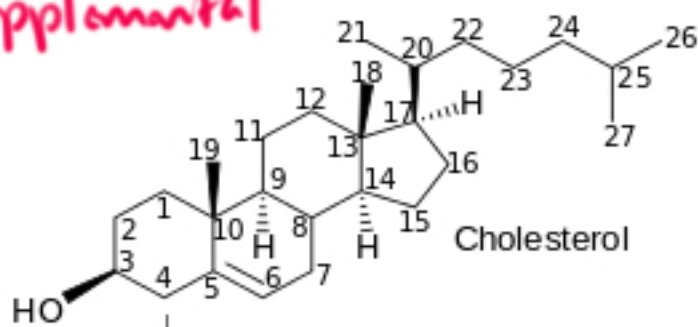
isopentenyl pyrophosphate

↑
mevalonate
↑
HMG-CoA
↑
3 acetyl CoA



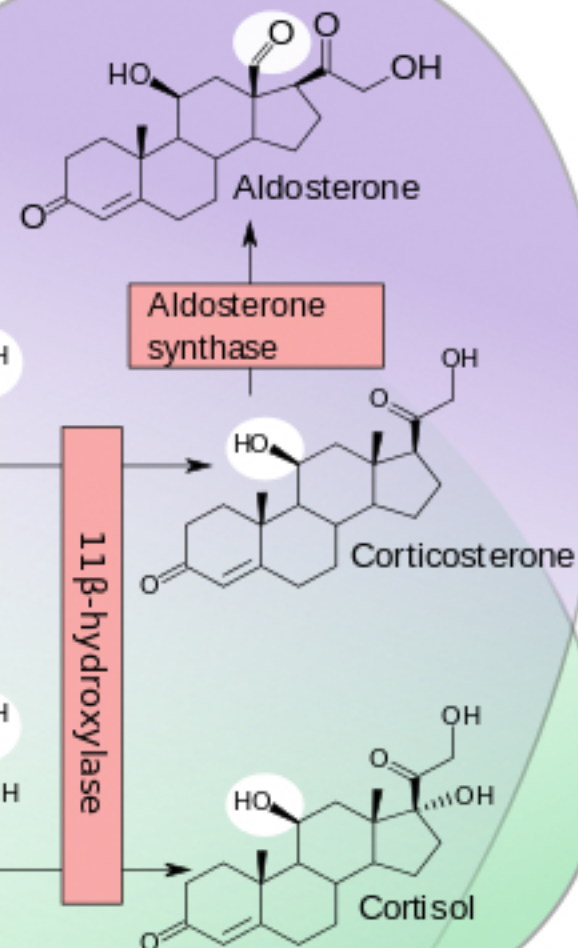
↓ 19 steps (NADPH, O₂, NADH)
cholesterol

Supplemental

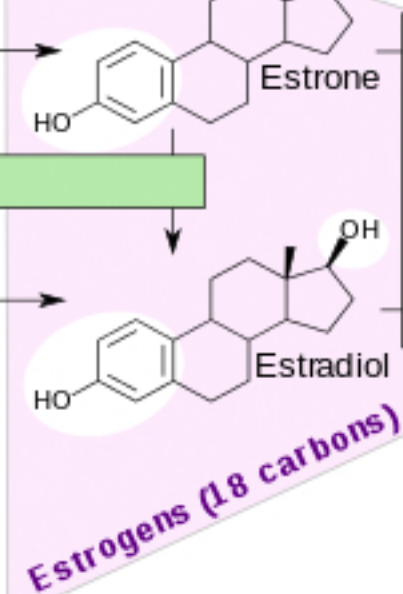


Cholesterol side-chain cleavage enzyme

Mineralocorticoids
(21 carbons)



Glucocorticoids
(21 carbons)



Estrogens (18 carbons)

Cellular location
of enzymes

Mitochondria

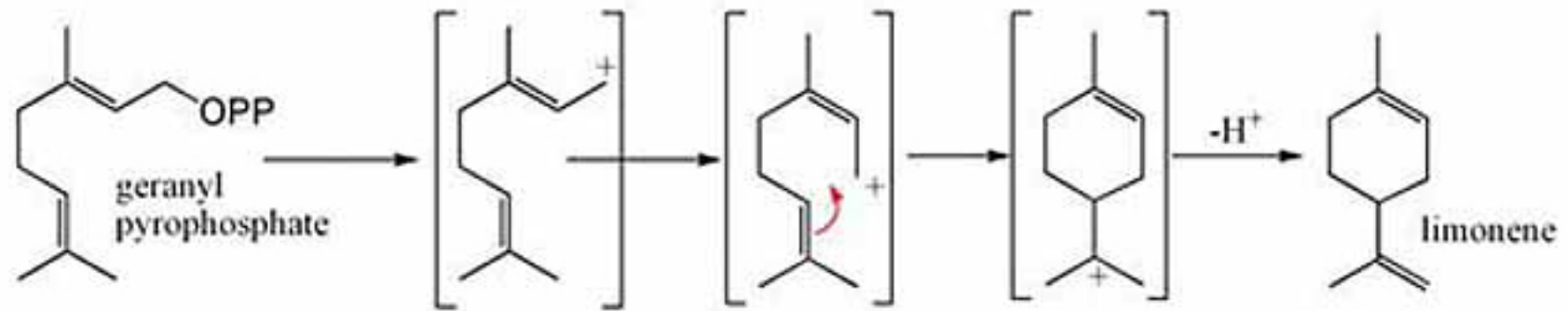
Smooth endoplasmic
reticulum

(liver and placenta)

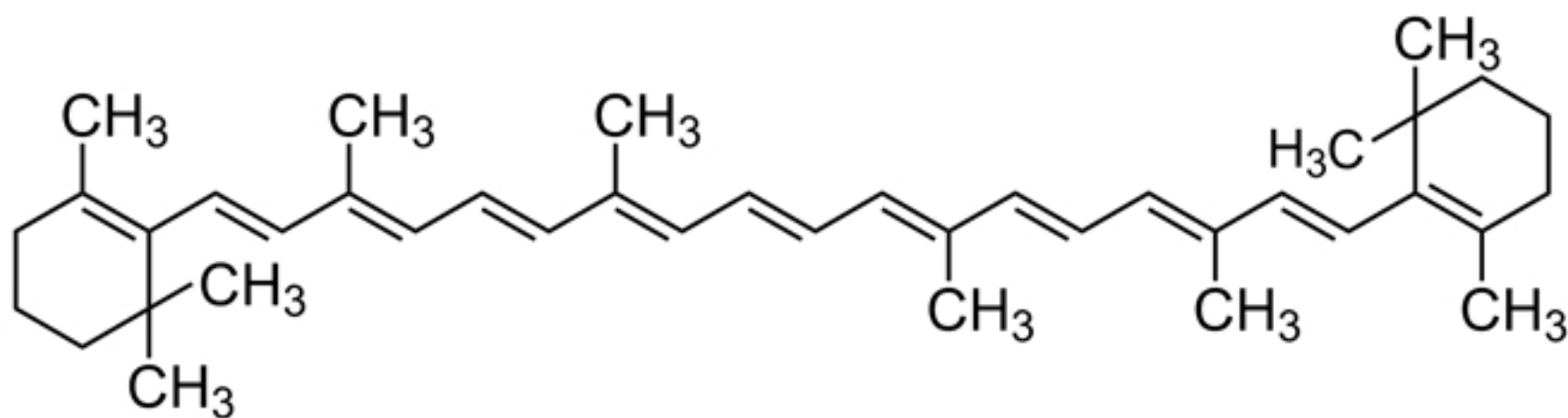
Progestagens (21 carbons)

Androgens (19 carbons)

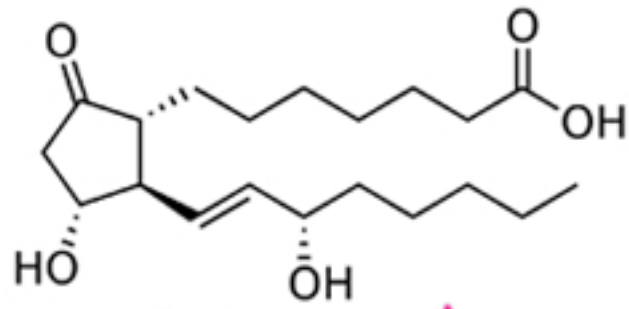
terpenes (plant essential oils)



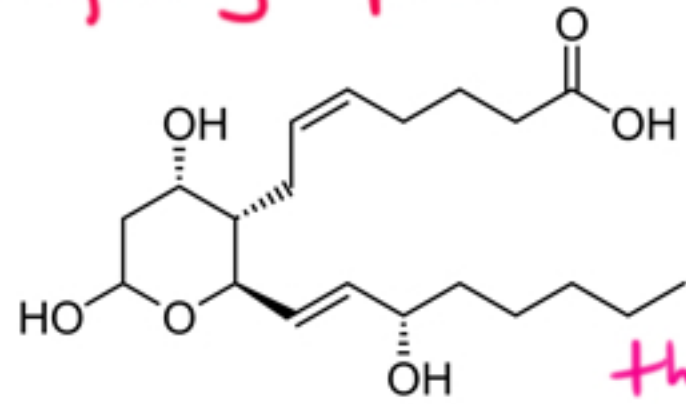
β carotene - precursor of retinal



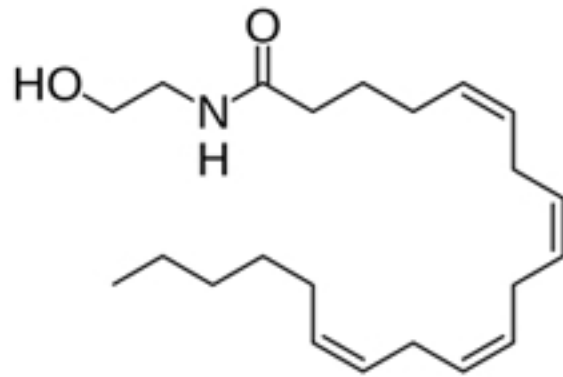
eicosanoid signaling lipids



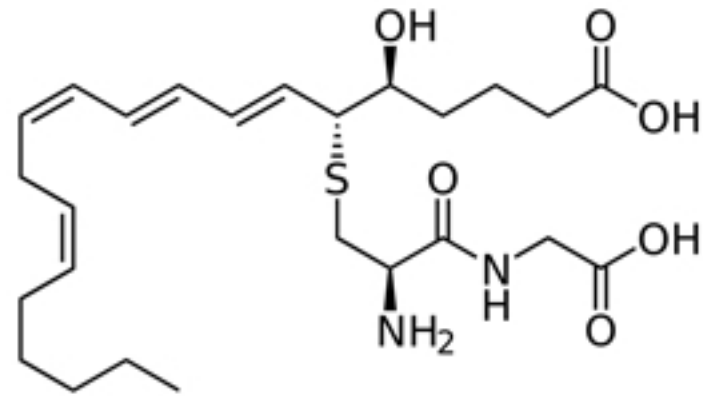
prostaglandin - alprostadil
(vasodilation, inflammation)



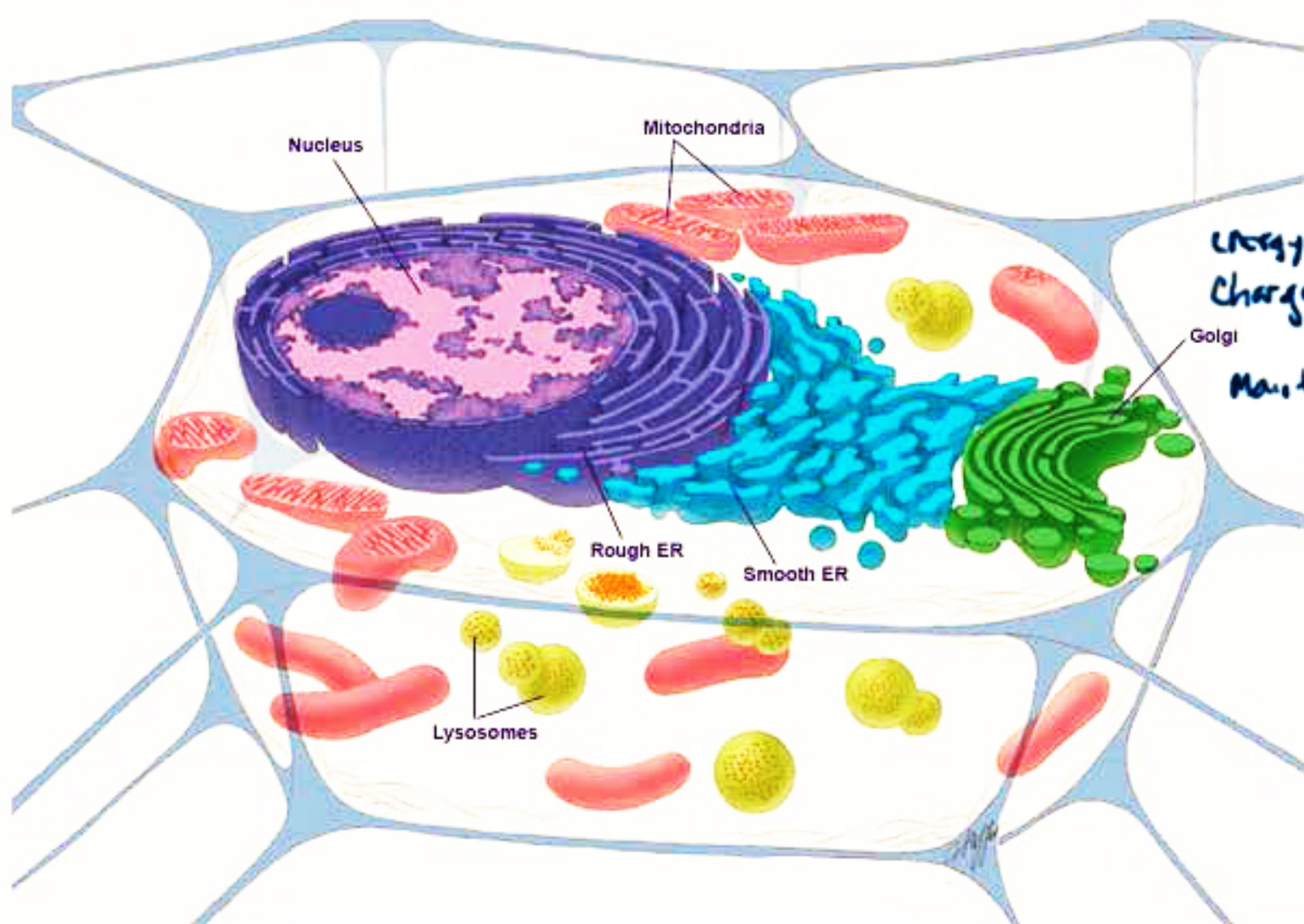
thromboxane
(vasoconstrictor)



anandamide
(neurotransmitter)



a cysteinyl
leukotriene



Energy
Metabolism

$$\text{Energy Charge} = \frac{[ATP] + \frac{1}{2}[ADP]}{[ATP] + [ADP] + [AMP]}$$

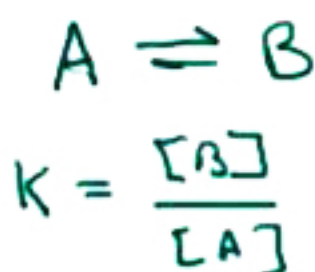
Maintained

$$0.95 - 0.90$$

• substrate
level
phosphorylation



• oxidative
phosphorylation



$$K = e^{-\Delta G^\circ/RT}$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K$$

nonspontaneous $K_x = e^{-\Delta G_x^\circ/RT}$

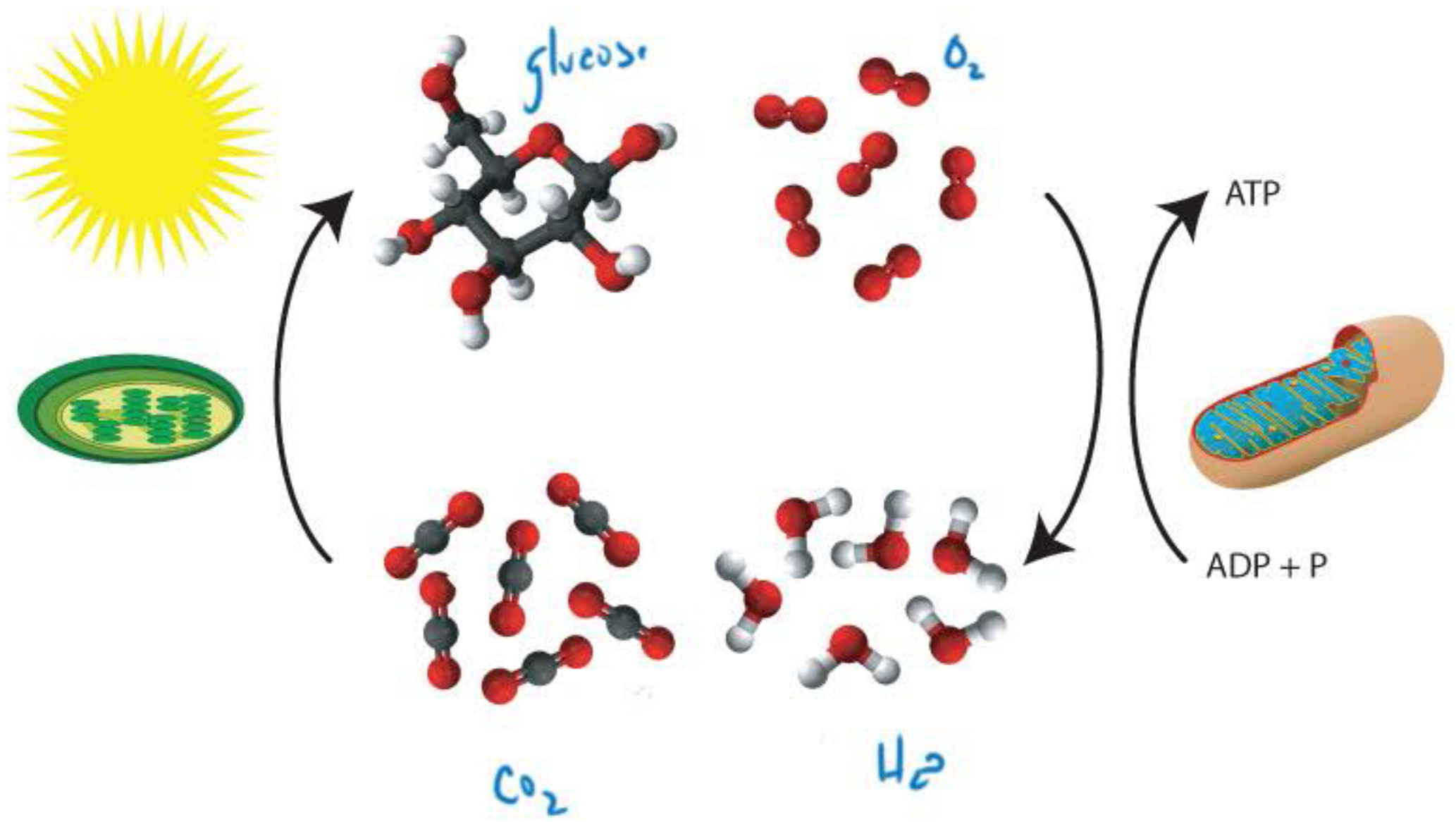
couple with ATP cleavage

coupled process $-\Delta G_x^\circ + \Delta G_{ATP}^\circ$

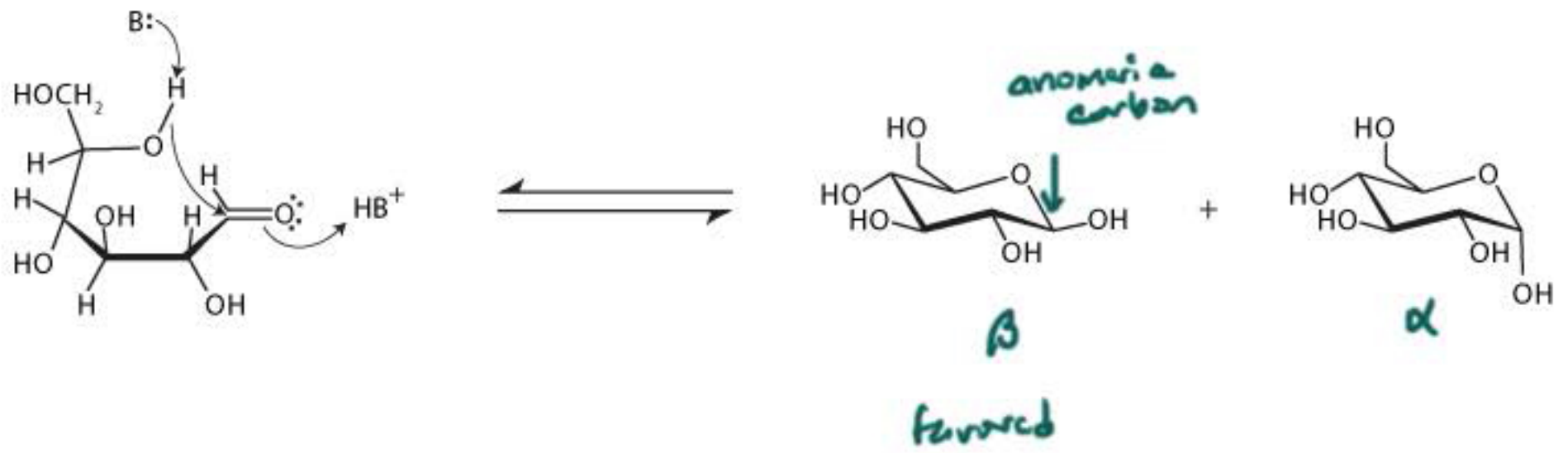
$$K_y = e$$

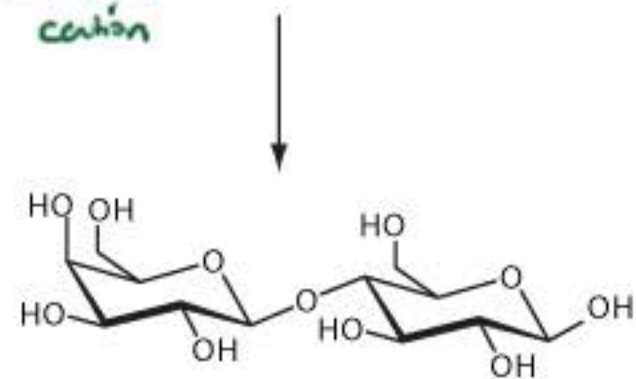
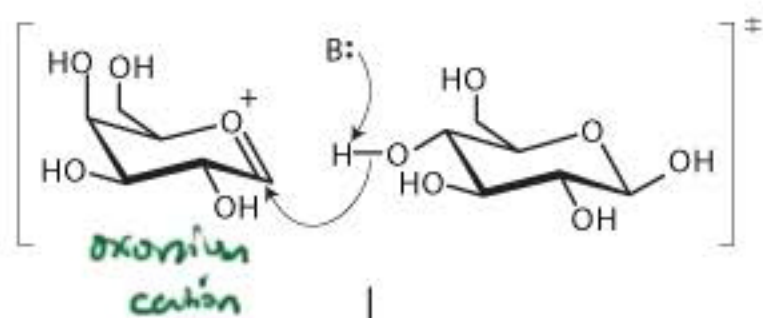
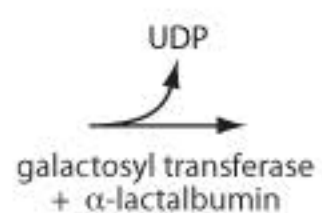
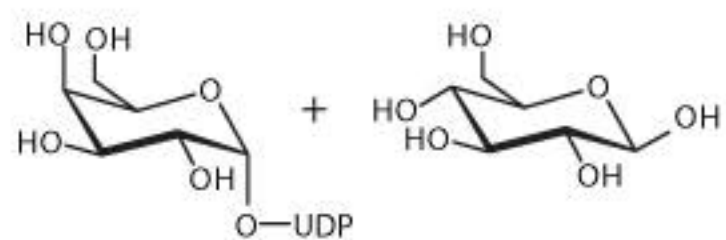
$$K_y = K_x K_{ATP}$$

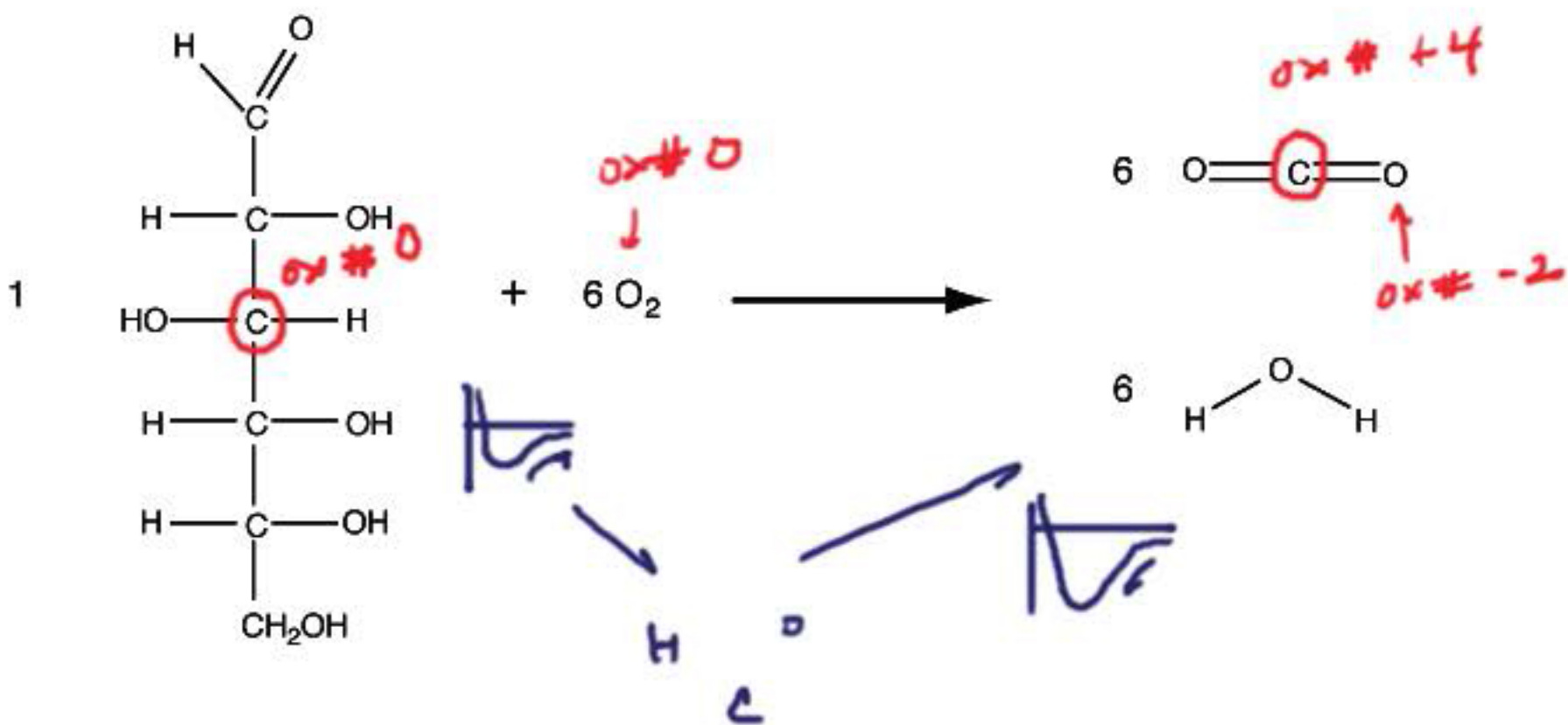
coupling with ATP cleavage
shifted K about 10^8 in
favor of products

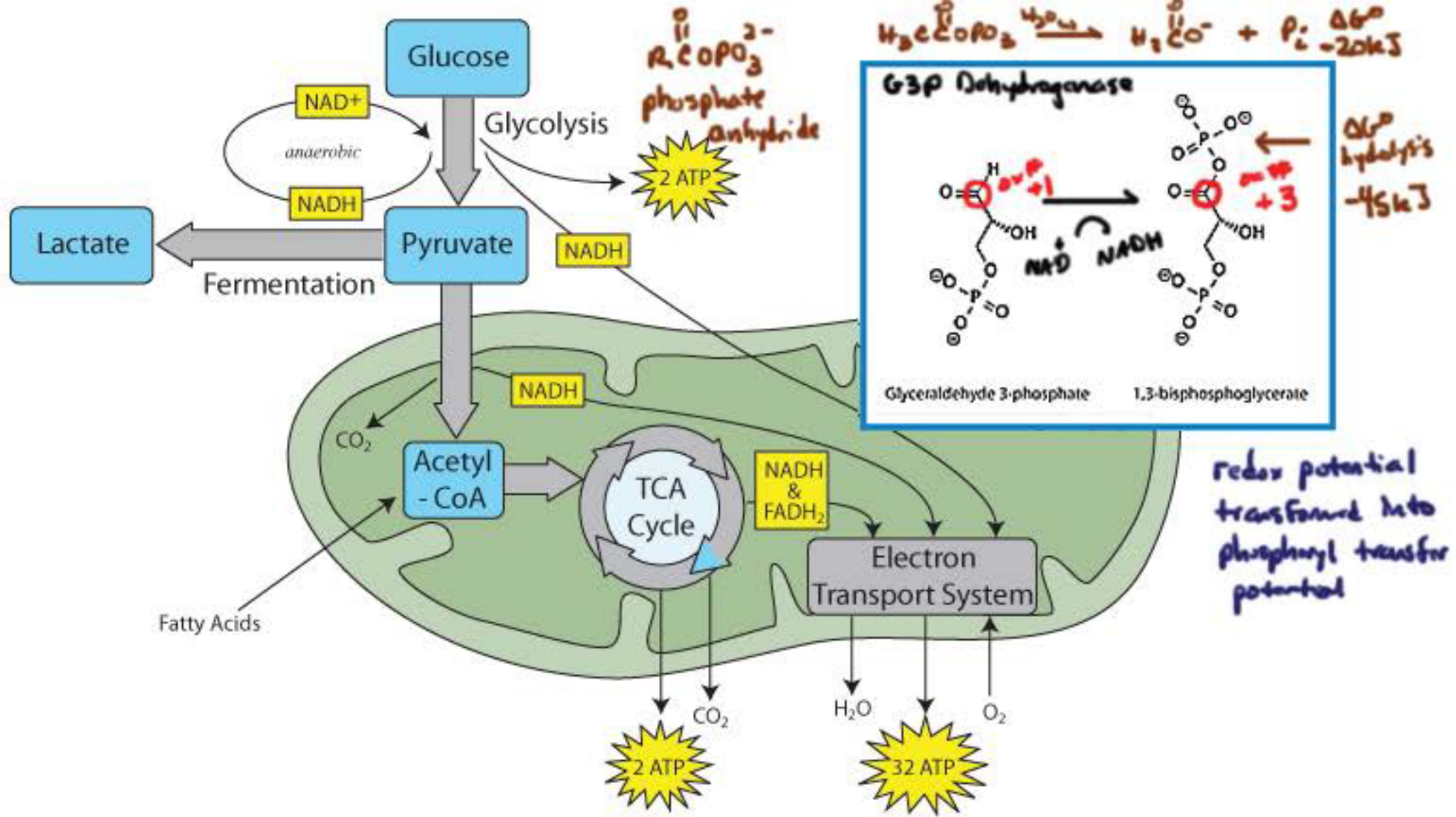


Glucose Ring Formation (hemiacetal formation)

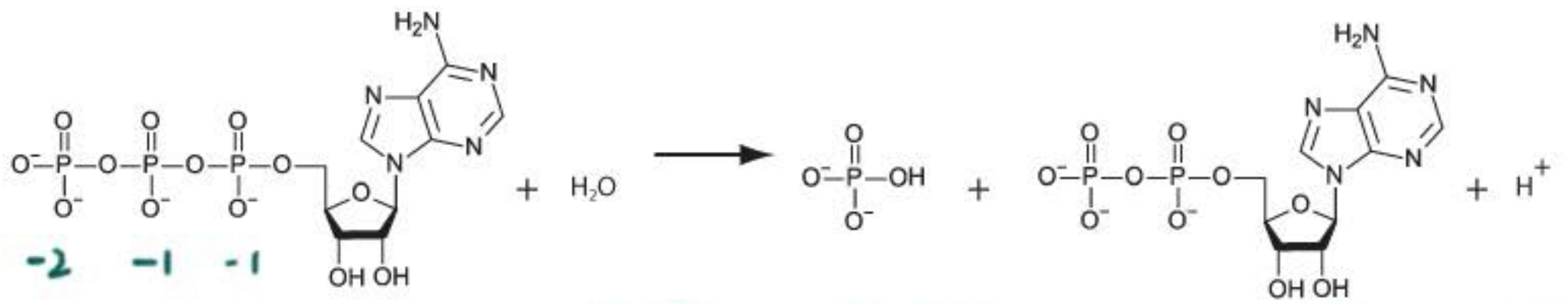








Hydrolysis of ATP

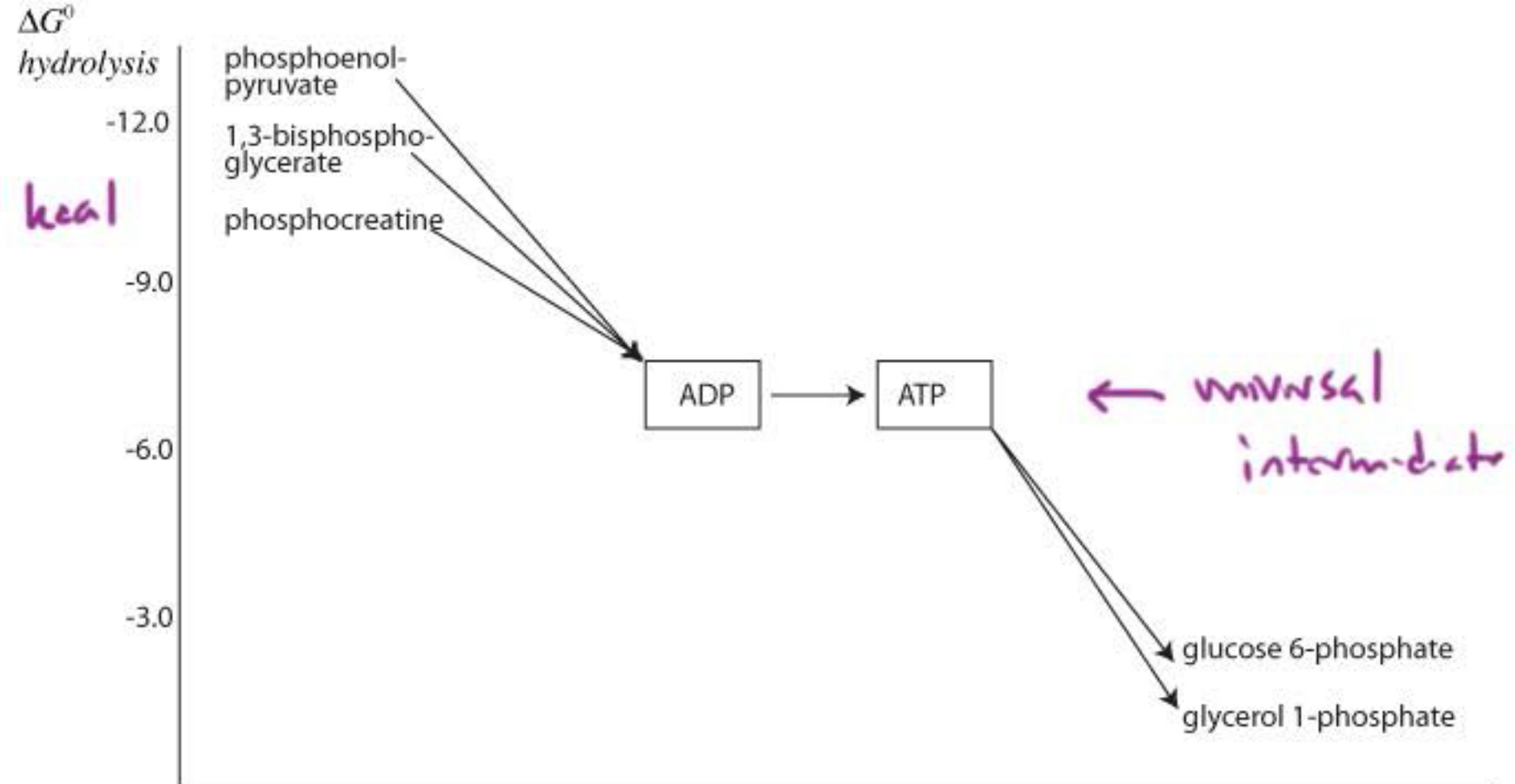


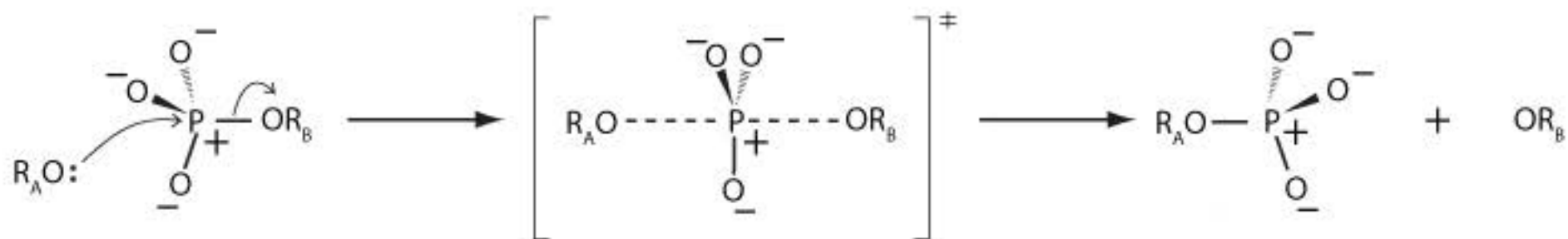
$$\Delta G^\circ \sim -30 \text{ kJ}$$

$$u = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r}$$

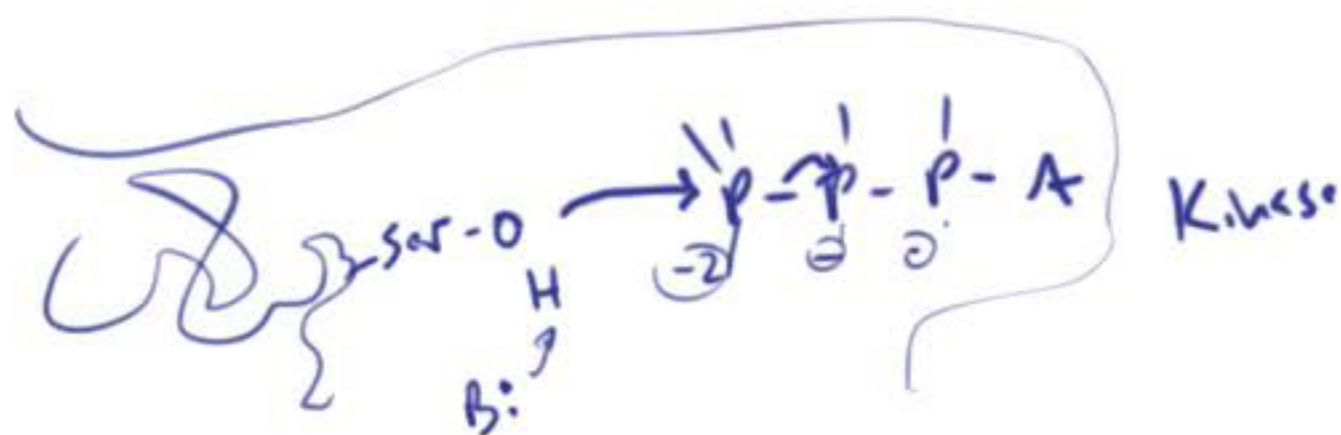


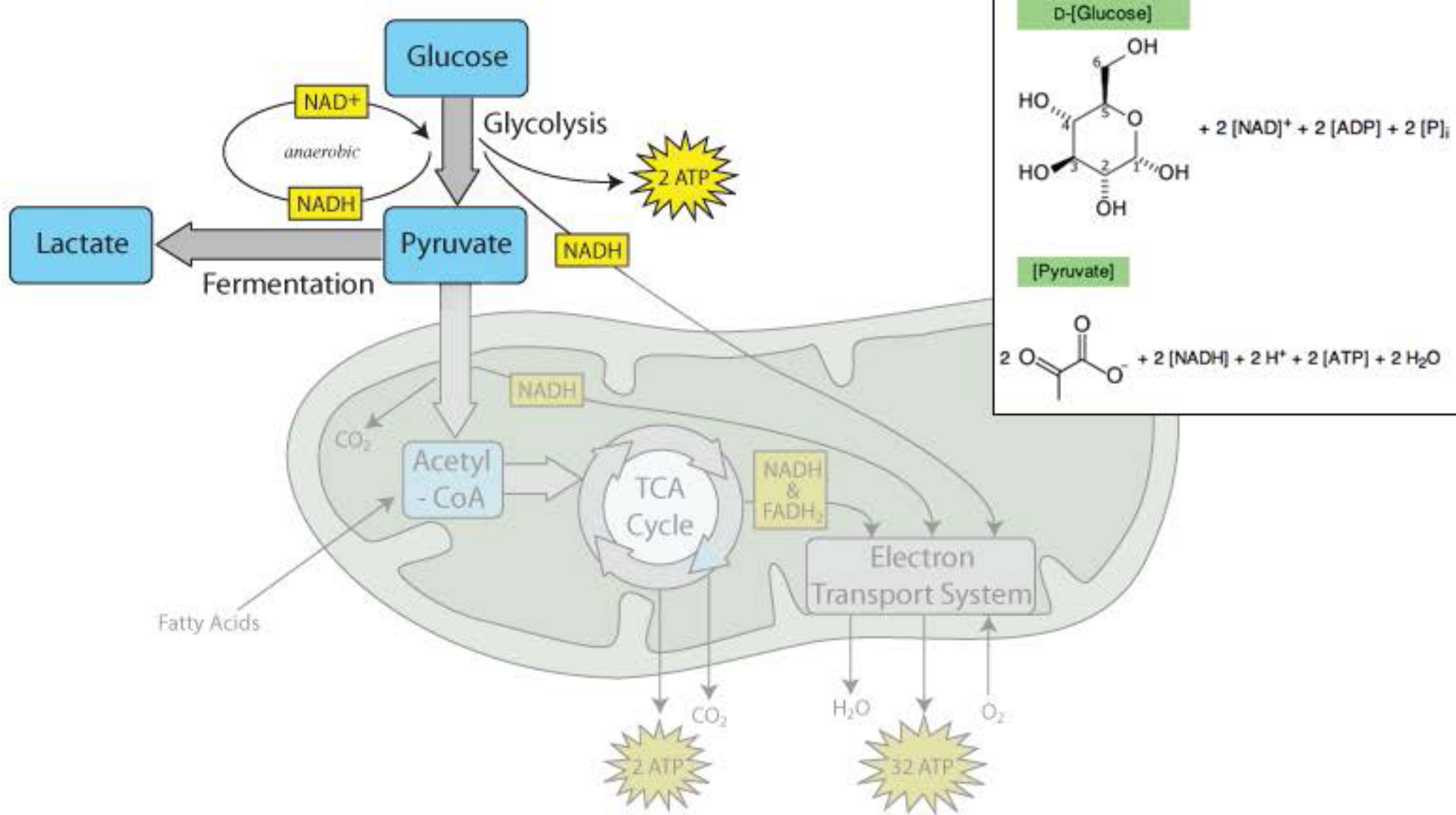
- electrostatic repulsion *
- resonance
- hydration





like S_N2
across the
phosphate



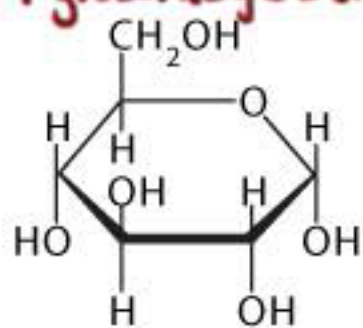


-ΔG

Hexokinase

• inhibited by G6P

[Glucose 6 Phosphatase
in gluconeogenesis]

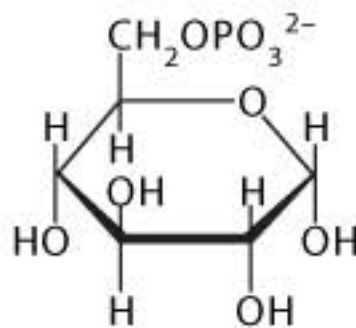


+

ATP

Hexokinase

(Glucokinase
in liver)



+

ADP

+

H⁺

Glucose

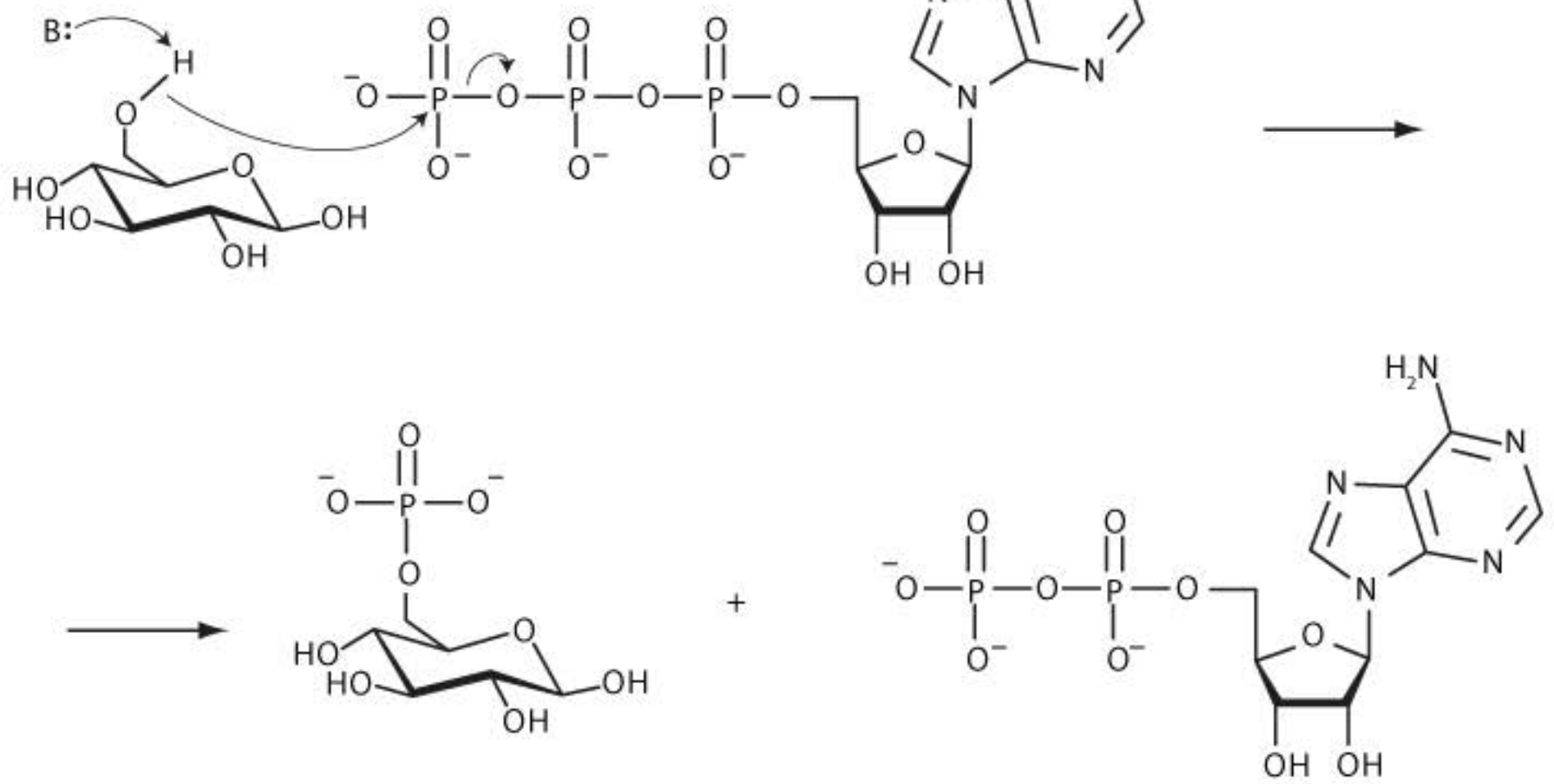
Glucose-6-Phosphate

PPP

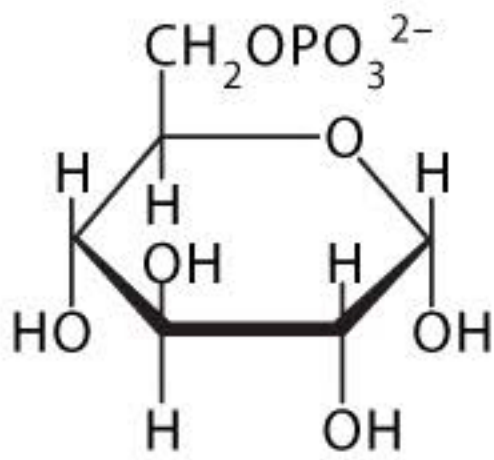
glycolysis

glycogen
Synthesis

Phosphoryl Transfer

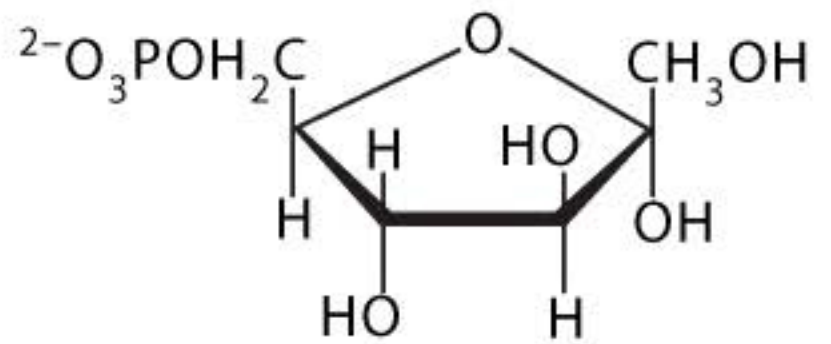


Phosphoglucose Isomerase

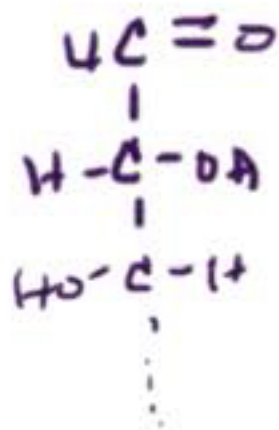


G6P

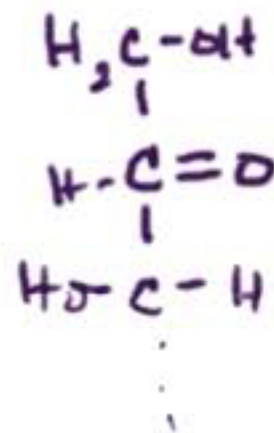
Phosphoglucose
isomerase



F1,6BP

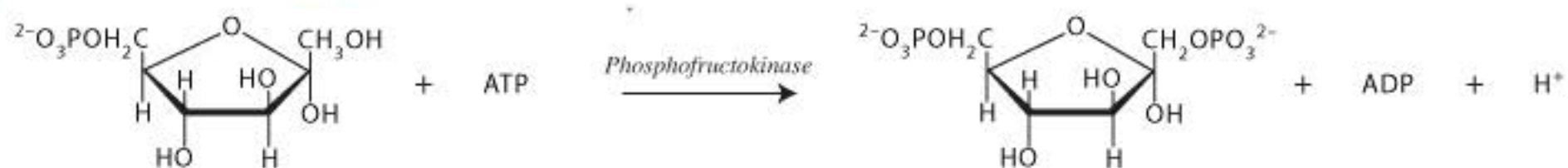


enol
of
both



$\Delta G^\ominus$
Fructose 1,6 Bisphosphatase

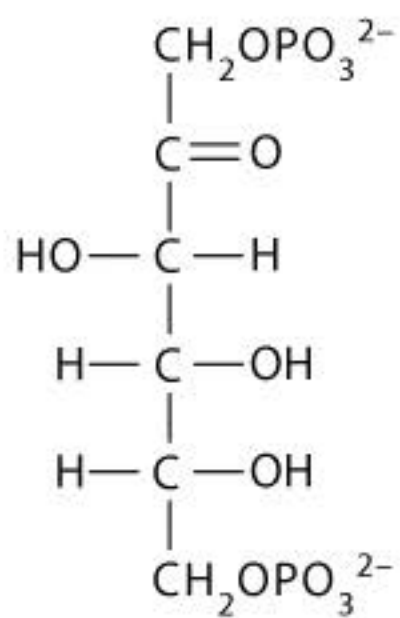
Phosphofructokinase PFK I



FBP

Fructose 1,6
Bis phosphate

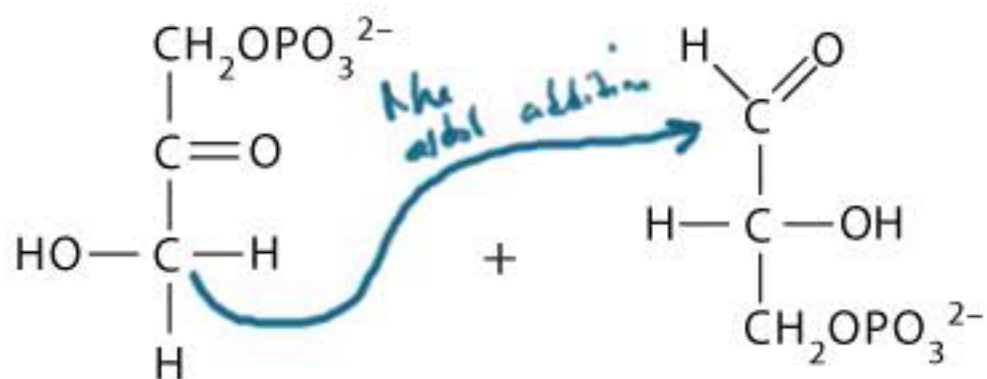
- Committed step
- multichannel allosteric enzyme
- cooperativity
- allosteric promoters and inhibitors
 - AMP $\uparrow$ • ATP $\downarrow$
 - Citrate $\downarrow$ $\leftarrow$ signal of adequate precursors
 - Fructose 2,6 Bisphosphate $\leftarrow$ strong activator of glycolysis. formed by PFK II
 - mechanism by which signaling can affect metabolic profile.



F1,6P



like a
retro aldol
cleavage

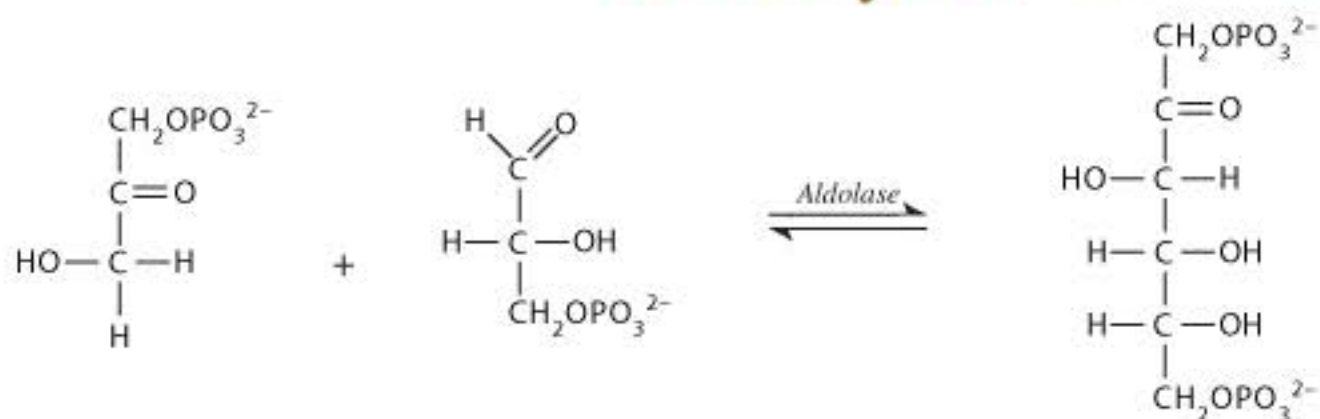


DAP

G3P

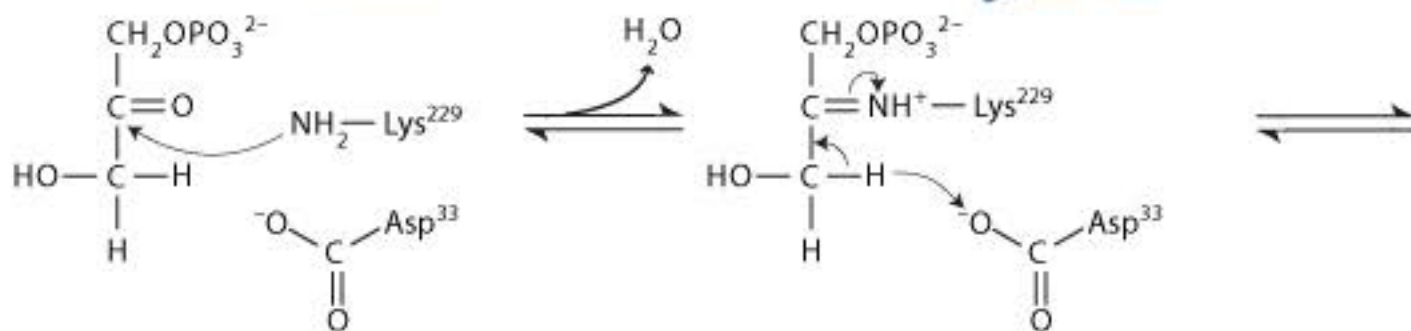
the
aldol addition

Glucogenesis Pathway

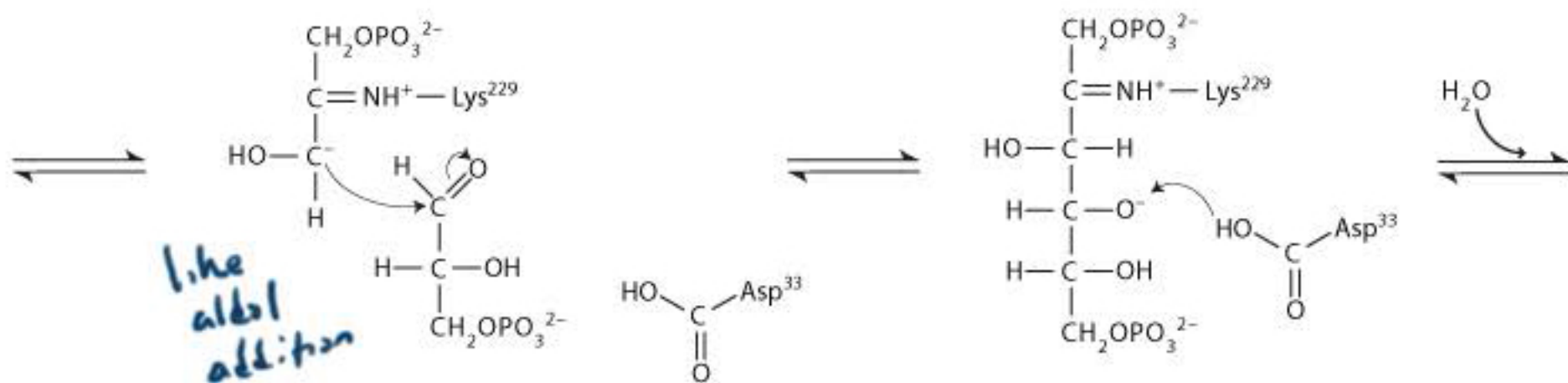
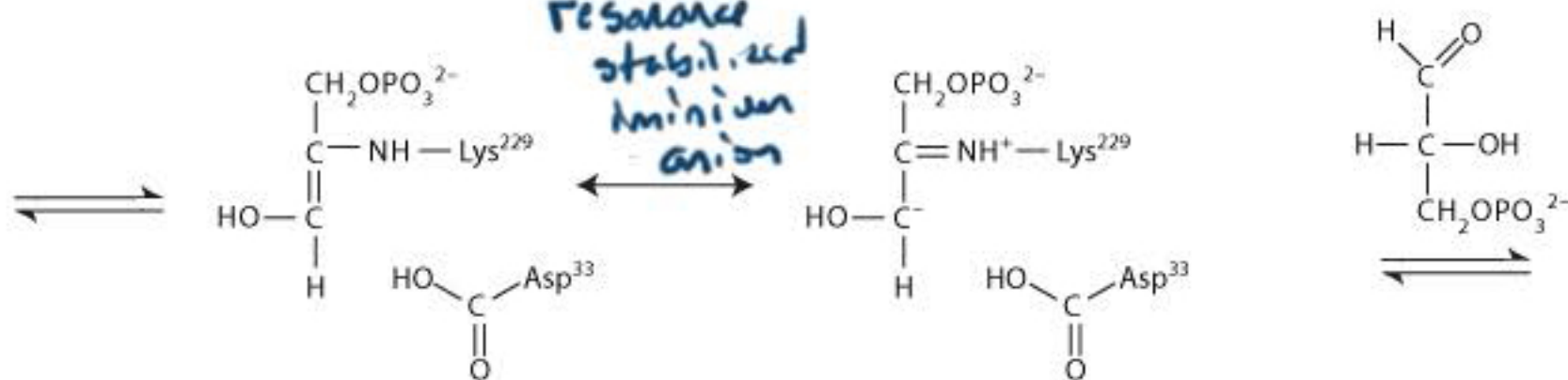


imine formation

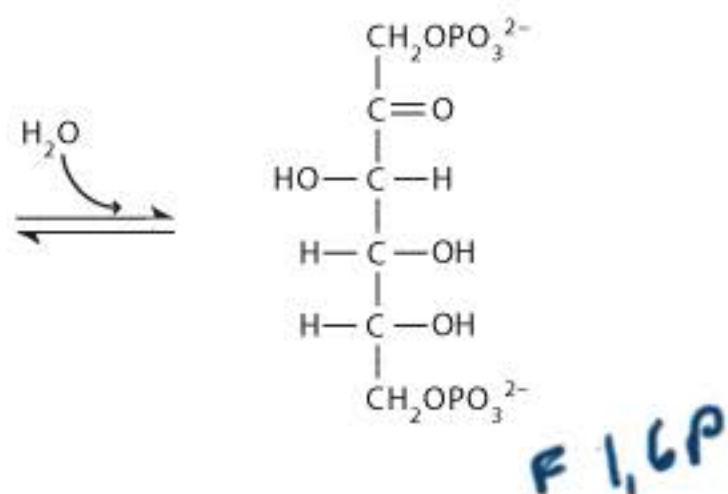
enzyme - OAP
Schiff base



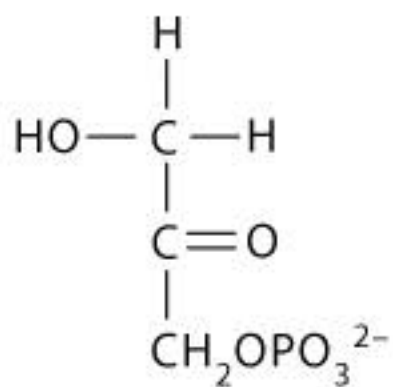
resonance
stabilized
iminium
anion



like
aldol
addition

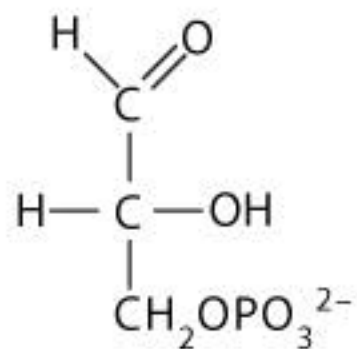


F 1,6P



DAP

*Triose phosphate
isomerase*



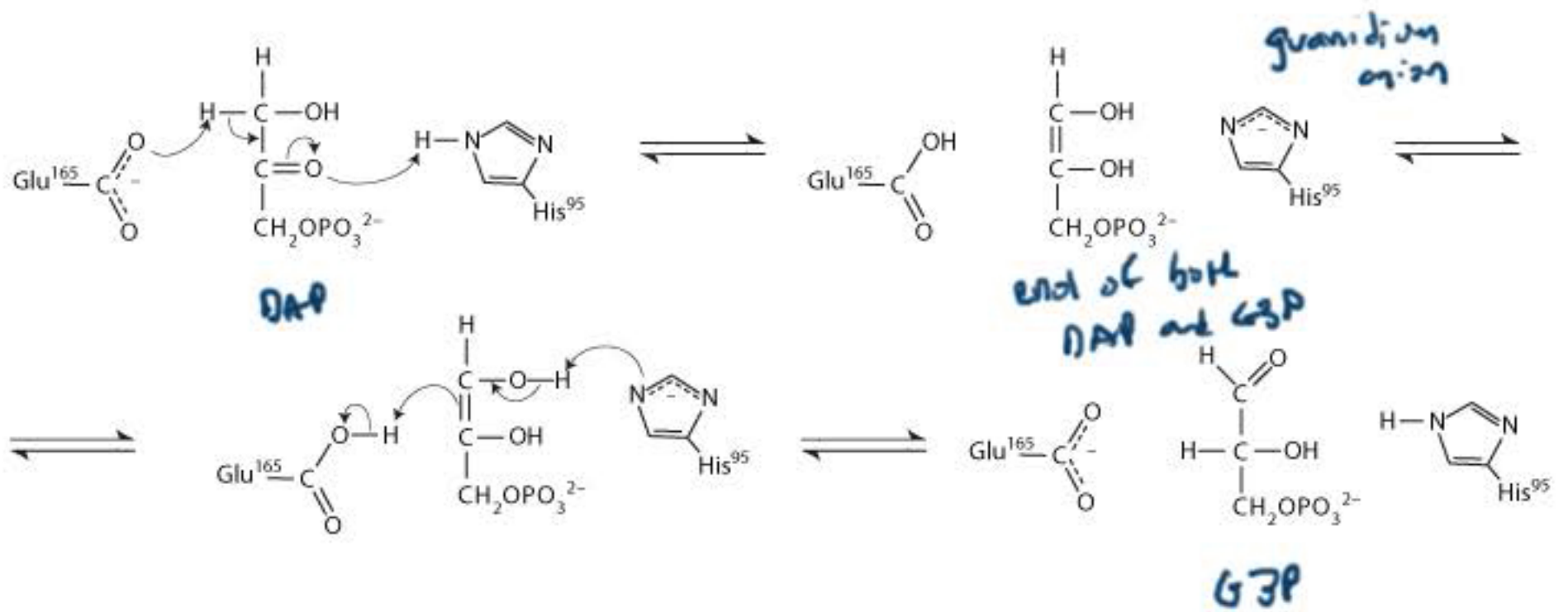
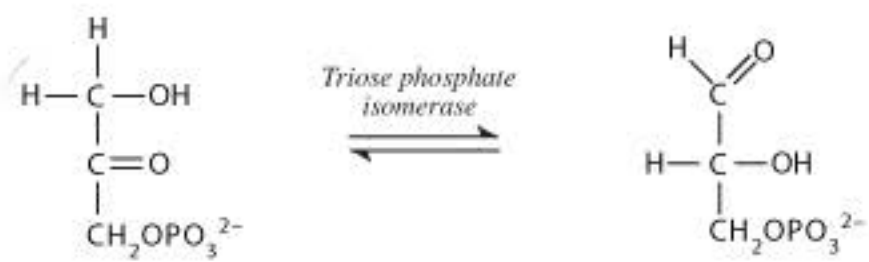
G3P

actually has $+\Delta G^\circ$

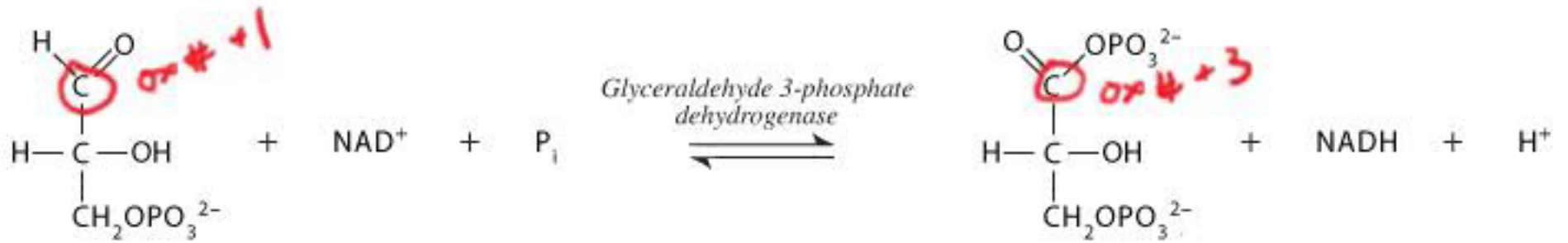
$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + 2.3 RT \log Q$$

$$Q \sim \frac{1}{30}$$

$$Q = \frac{[\text{G3P}]}{[\text{DAP}]}$$



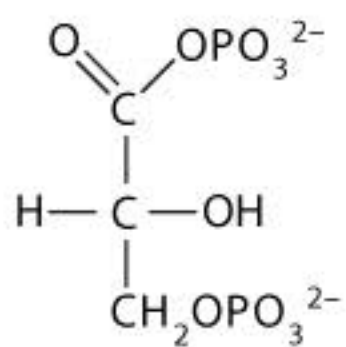
G3P Dehydrogenase



G3P

1,3 BPG

redox potential
transformed into
phosphoryl transfer
potential

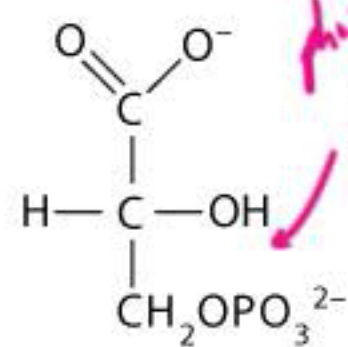


1,3 BPG

+

ADP

*Phosphoglycerate
kinase*

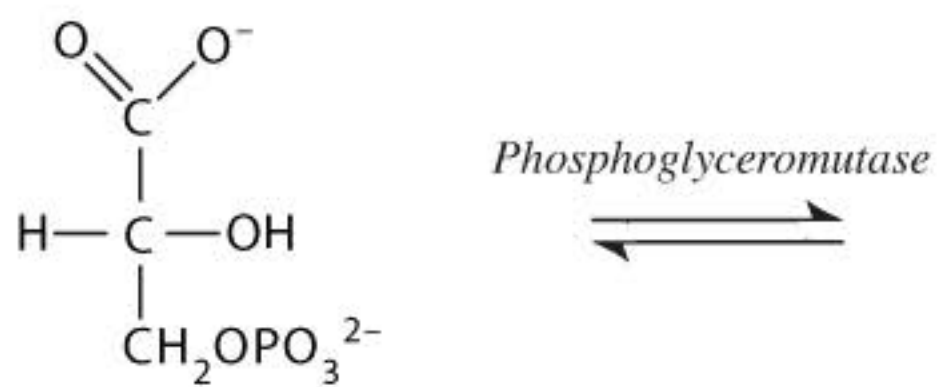


3 Phosphoglycerate

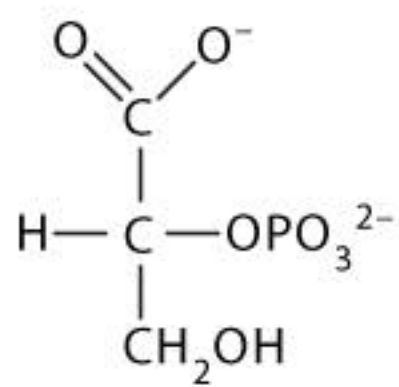
+

ATP

phosphate
ester
no ph. group
transfer
potential

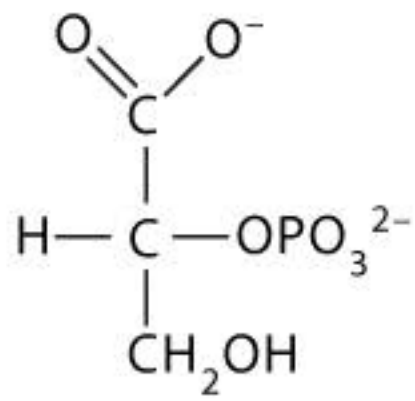


3 Phosphoglycerate

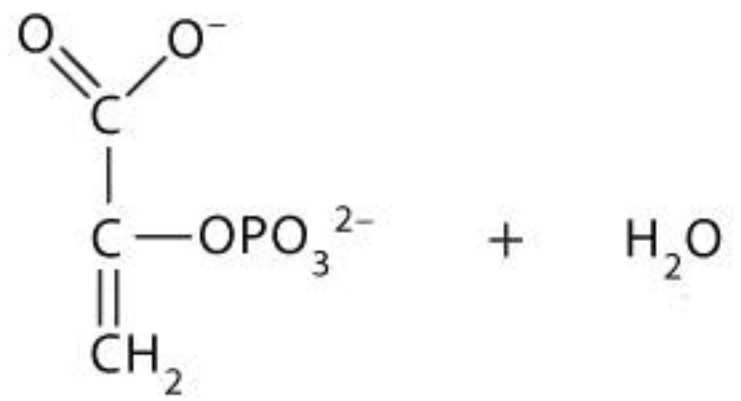
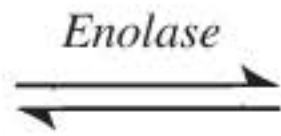


2-Phosphoglycerate

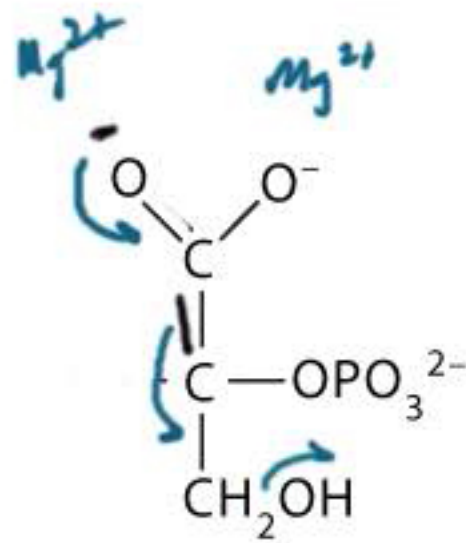
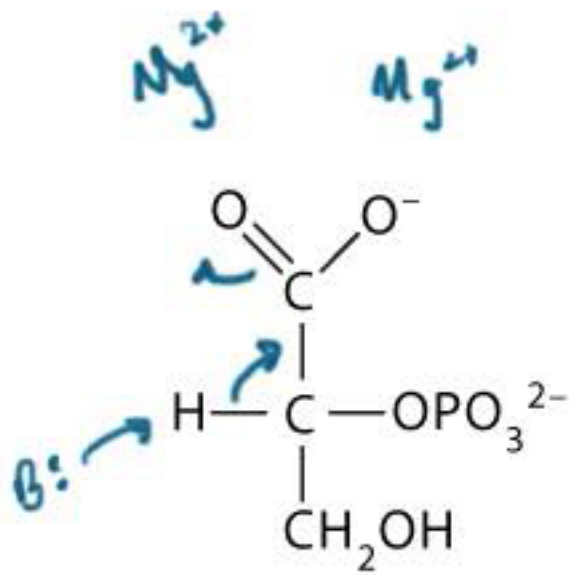
Enolase

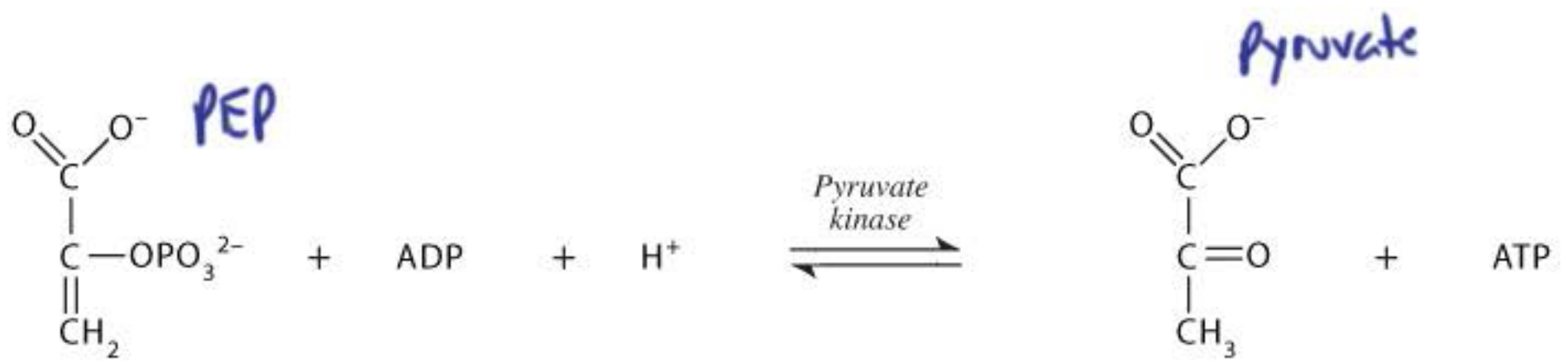


2-Phosphoglycerate

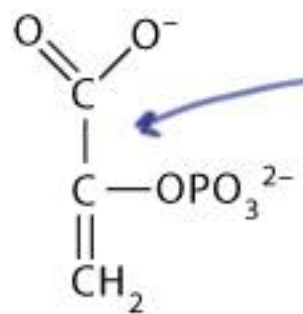


Phosphoenolpyruvate

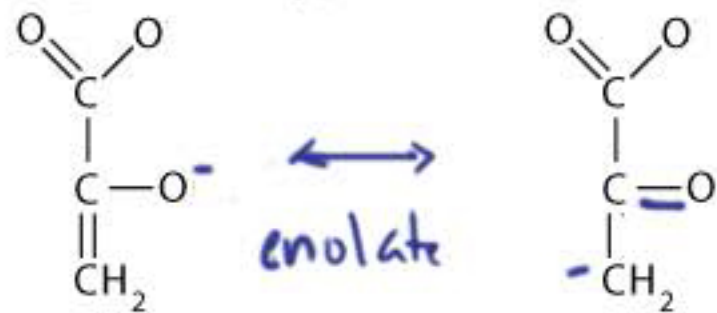




Why does PEP have so much phosphoryl transfer potential?

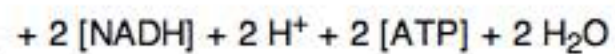
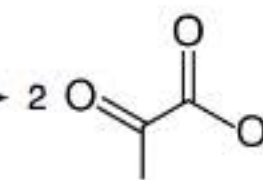
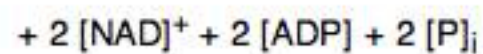
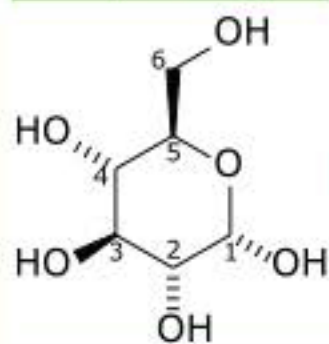


- partial double bond character
shortened bond - compressed $\ominus$ charges
- phosphoryl transfer leaves behind an enolate



D-[Glucose]

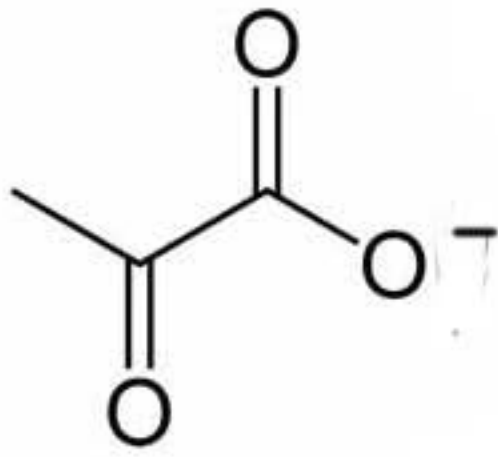
[Pyruvate]



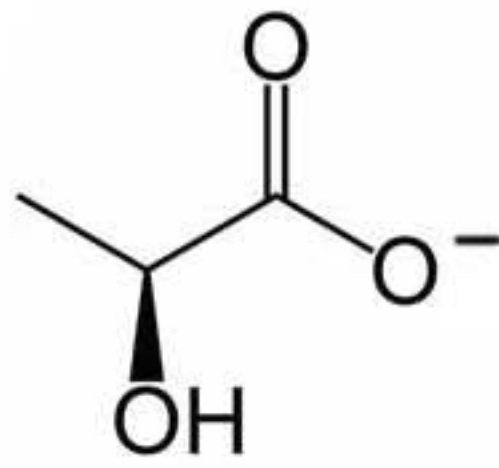
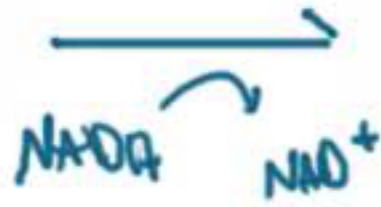
Change in free energy for each step of glycolysis

Step	Reaction	$\Delta G^\circ /$ (kJ/mol)	$\Delta G /$ (kJ/mol)
1	glucose + ATP ⁴⁻ → glucose-6-phosphate ²⁻ + ADP ³⁻ + H ⁺	-16.7	-34
2	glucose-6-phosphate ²⁻ → fructose-6-phosphate ²⁻	1.67	-2.9
3	fructose-6-phosphate ²⁻ + ATP ⁴⁻ → fructose-1,6-bisphosphate ⁴⁻ + ADP ³⁻ + H ⁺	-14.2	-19
4	fructose-1,6-bisphosphate ⁴⁻ → dihydroxyacetone phosphate ²⁻ + glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate ²⁻	23.9	-0.23
5	dihydroxyacetone phosphate ²⁻ → glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate ²⁻	7.56	2.4
6	glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate ²⁻ + P _i ²⁻ + NAD ⁺ → 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate ⁴⁻ + NADH + H ⁺	6.30	-1.29
7	1,3-bisphosphoglycerate ⁴⁻ + ADP ³⁻ → 3-phosphoglycerate ³⁻ + ATP ⁴⁻	-18.9	0.09
8	3-phosphoglycerate ³⁻ → 2-phosphoglycerate ³⁻	4.4	0.83
9	2-phosphoglycerate ³⁻ → phosphoenolpyruvate ³⁻ + H ₂ O	1.8	1.1
10	phosphoenolpyruvate ³⁻ + ADP ³⁻ + H ⁺ → pyruvate ⁻ + ATP ⁴⁻	-31.7	-23.0

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln Q$$



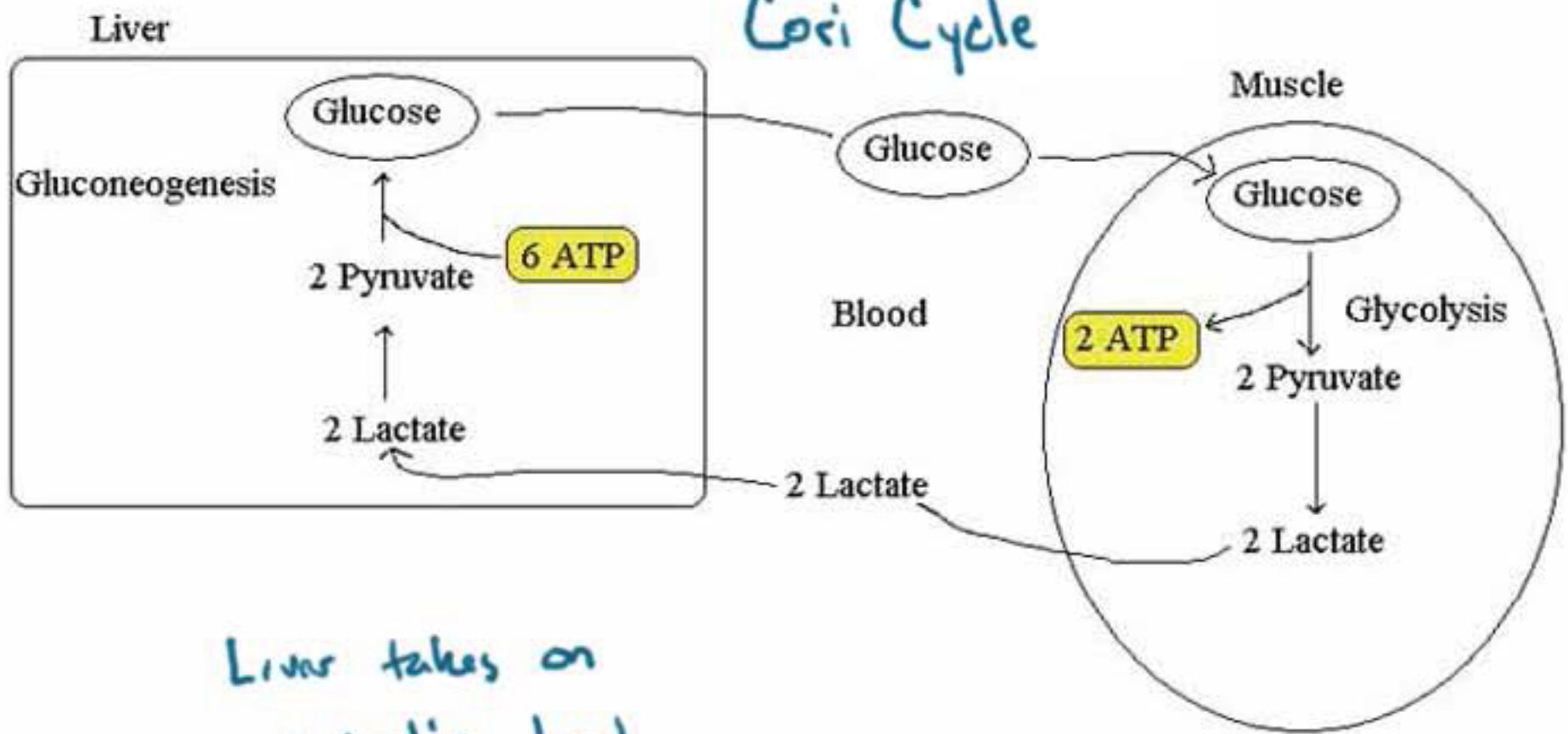
Pyruvate



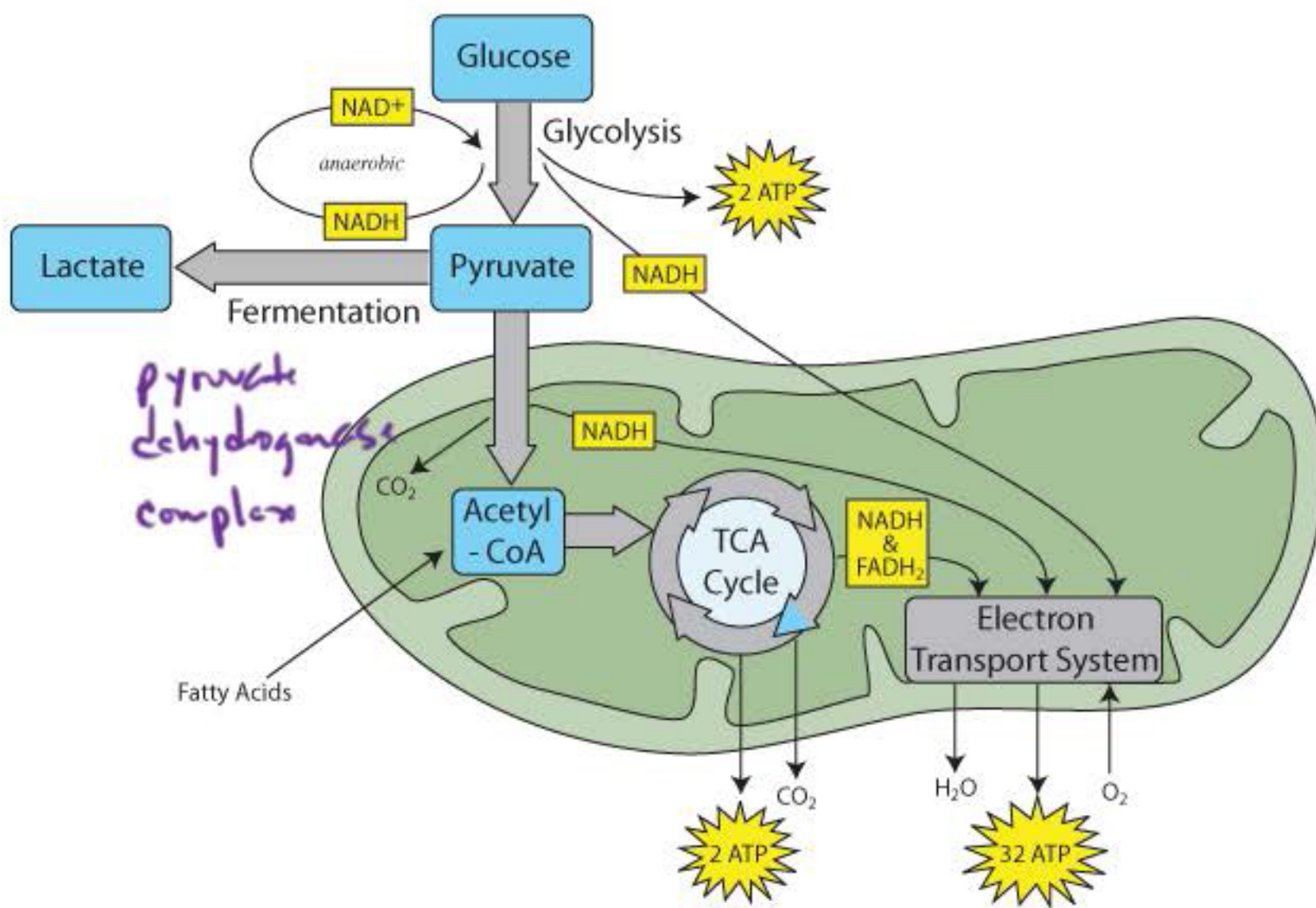
Lactate

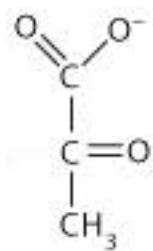


Cori Cycle



Liver takes on
metabolic load

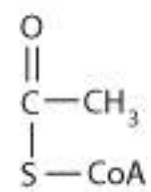
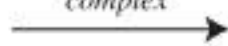




pyruvate

+ CoA + NAD⁺

*Pyruvate dehydrogenase
complex*



acetyl CoA

+ CO₂ + NADH

Coenzymes

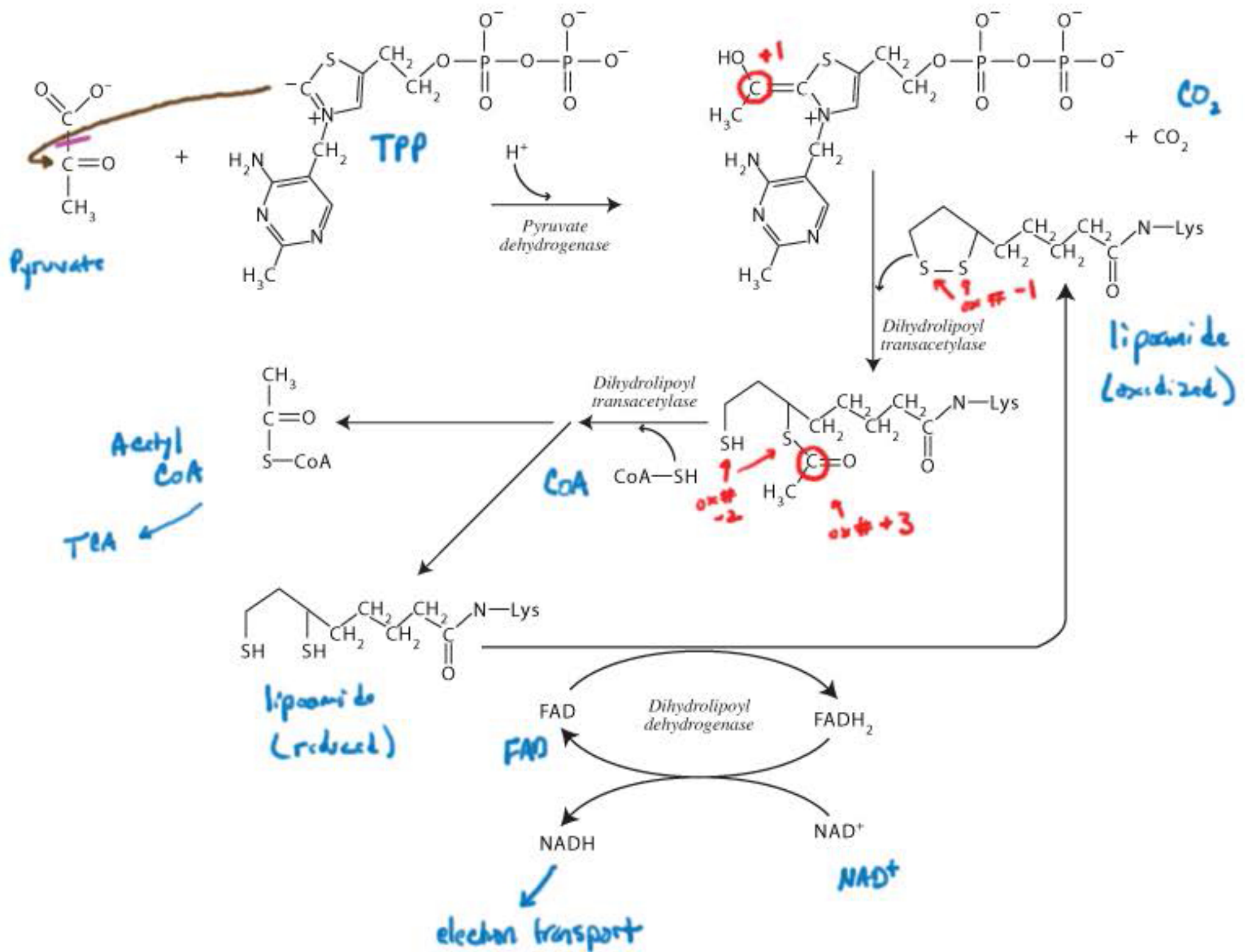
TPP

lipoamide

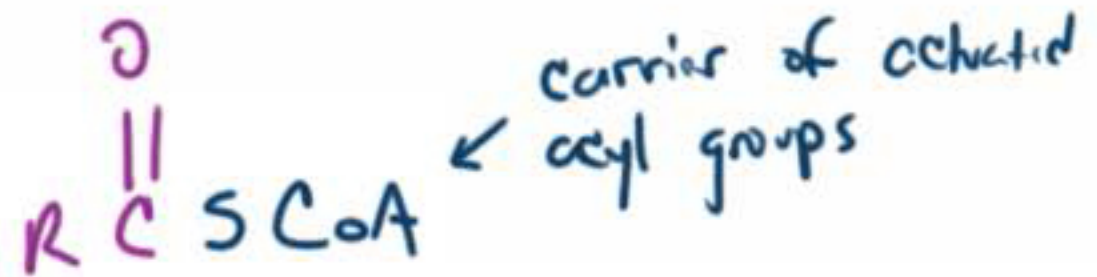
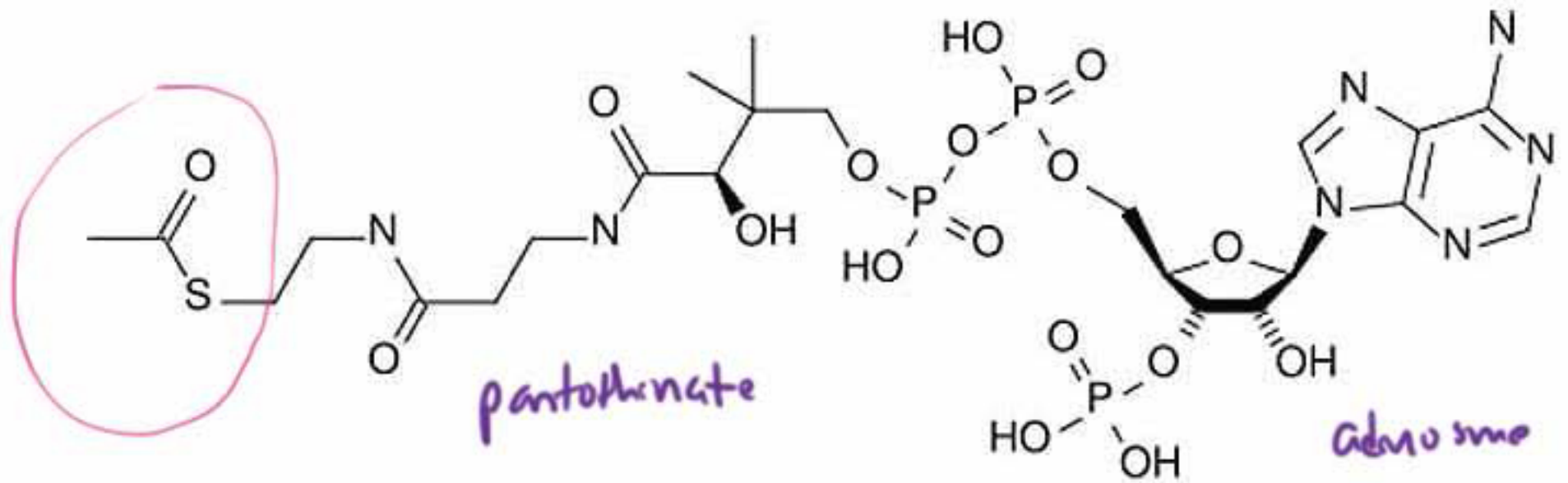
CoA

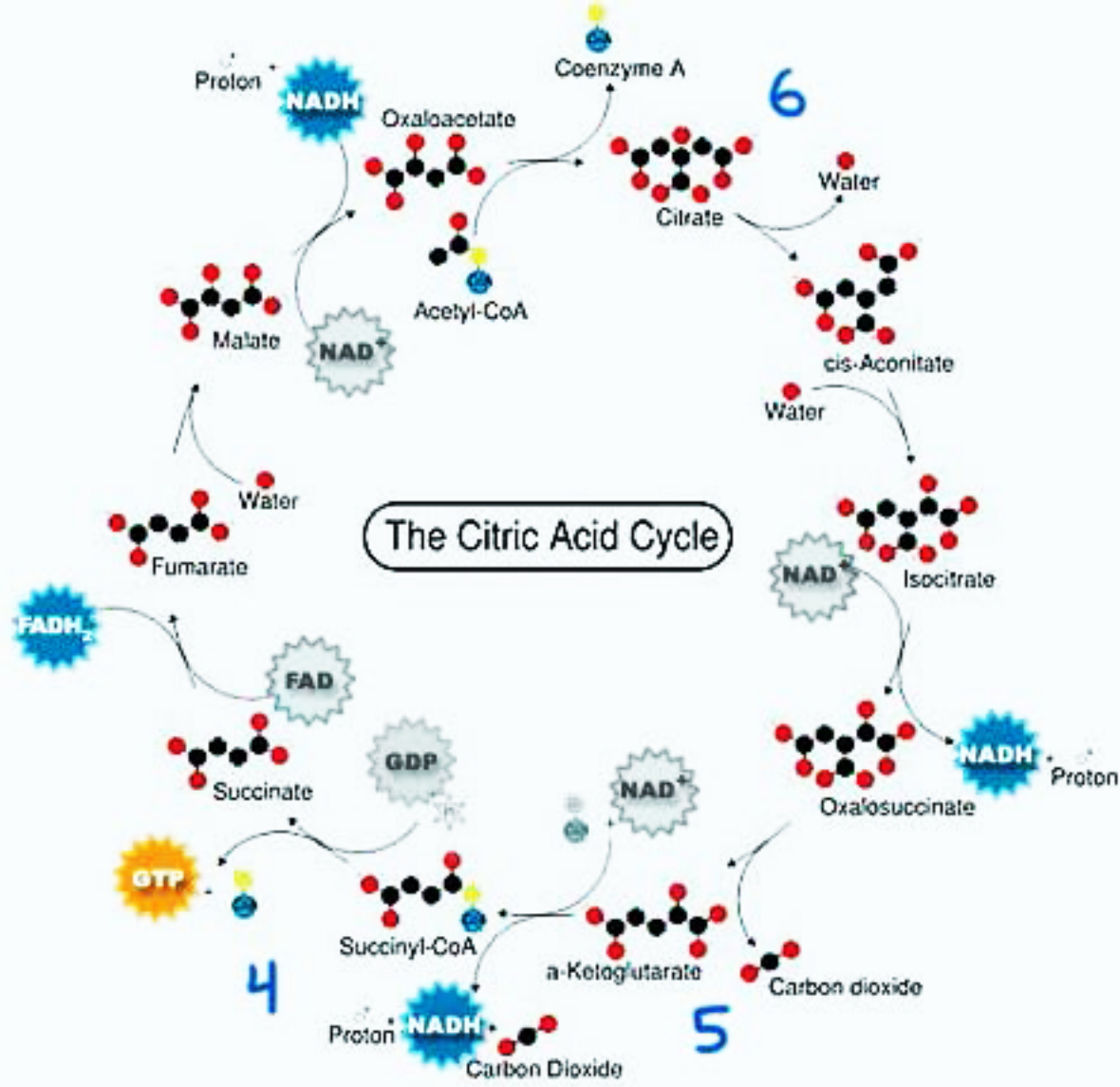
FAD

NAD⁺

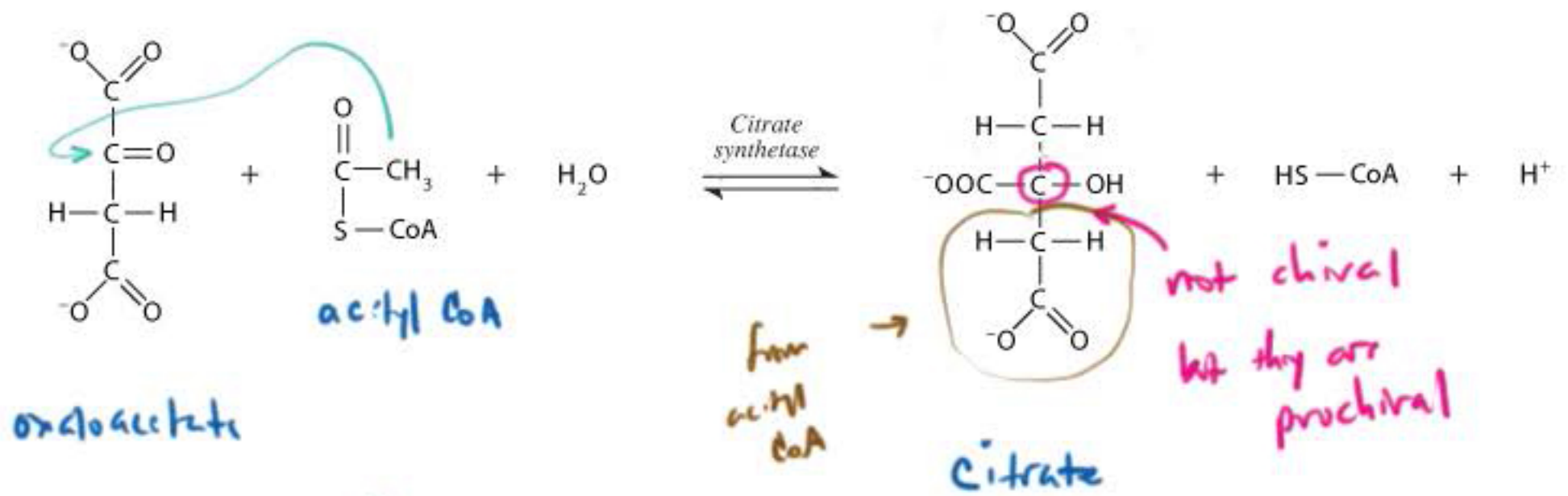


acetyl CoA



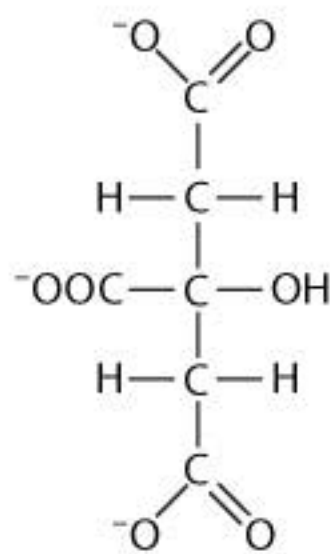


The plot is
oxidative
phosphorylation

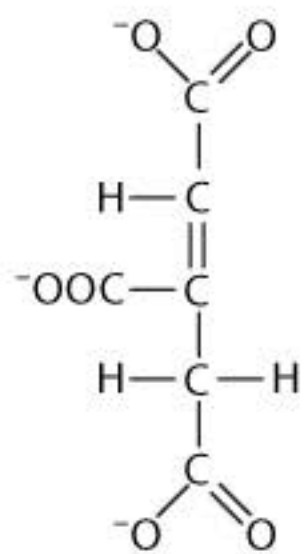
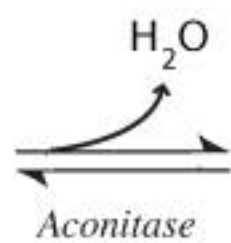


ΔG is from hydrolysis of CoA

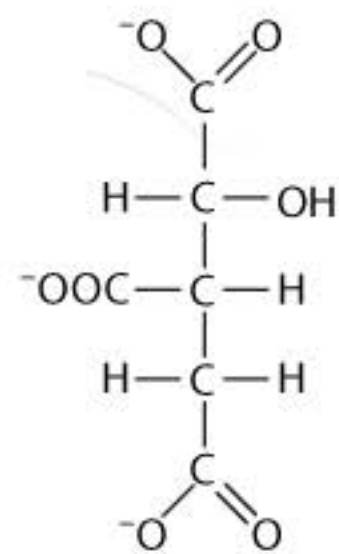
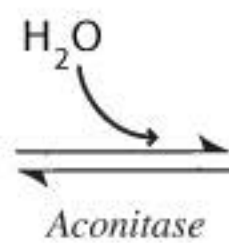
The CO₂ produced is never from the acetyl CoA end.



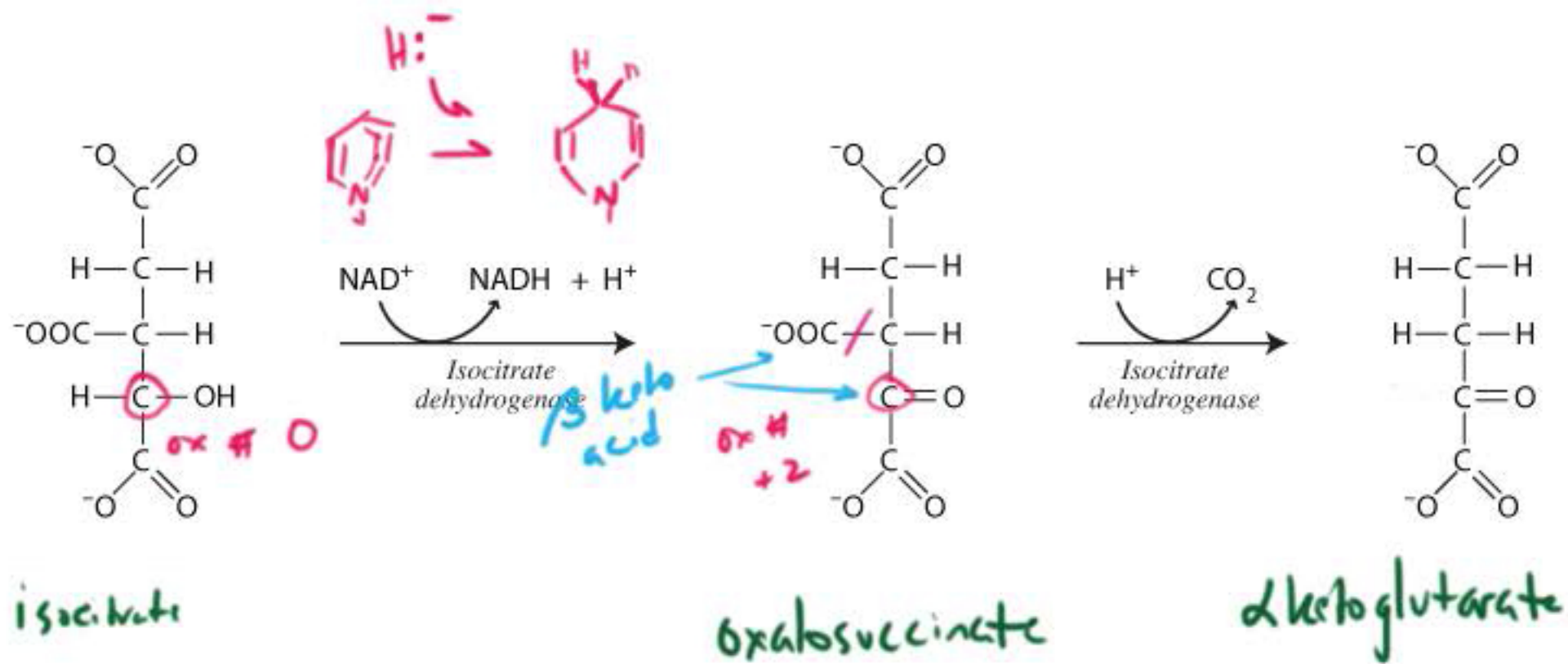
citrate

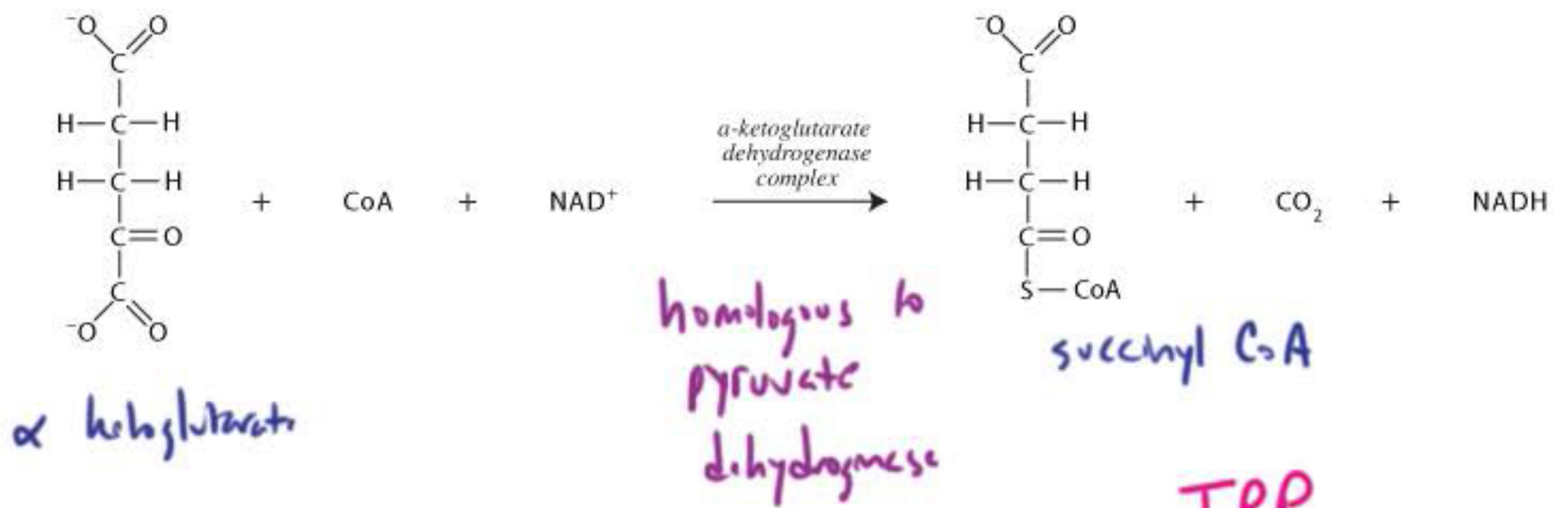


aconitate

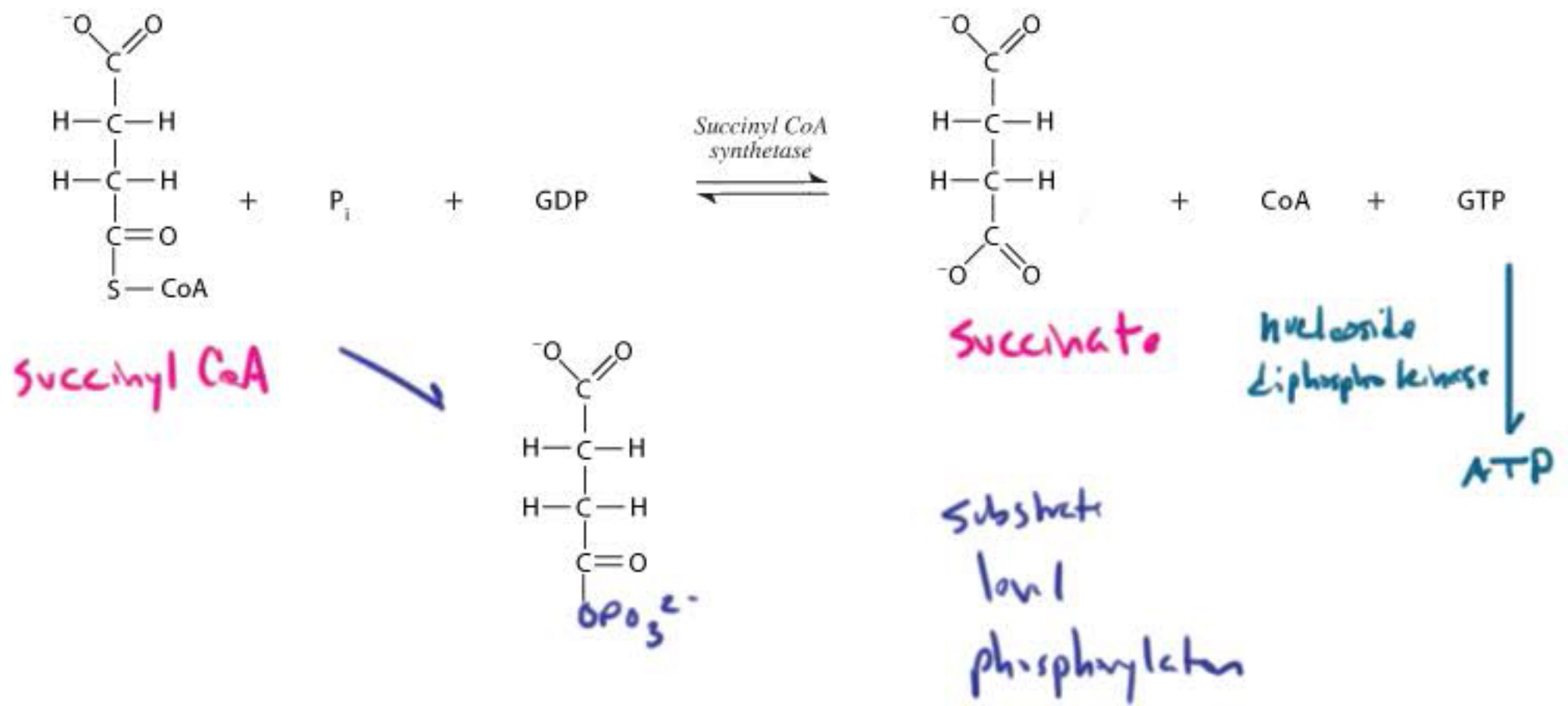


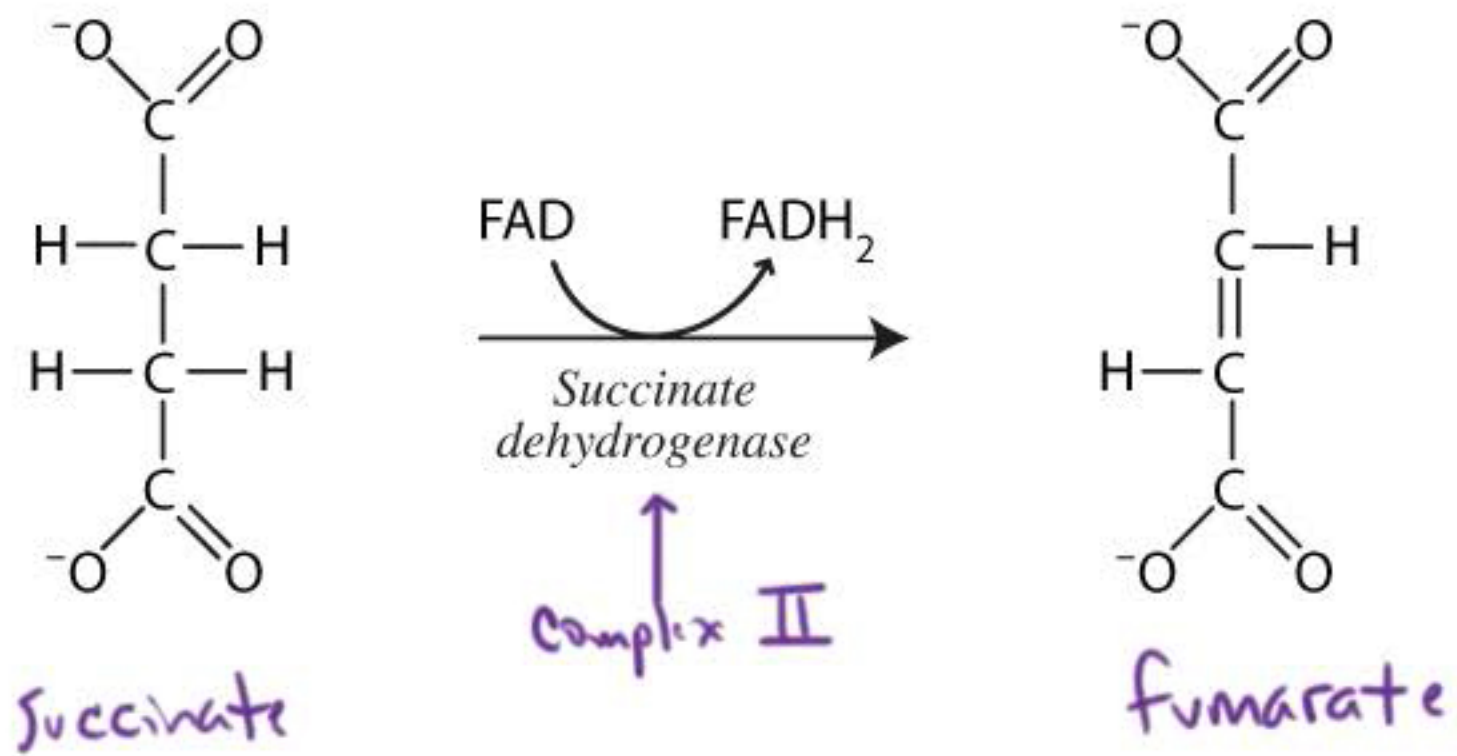
isocitrate



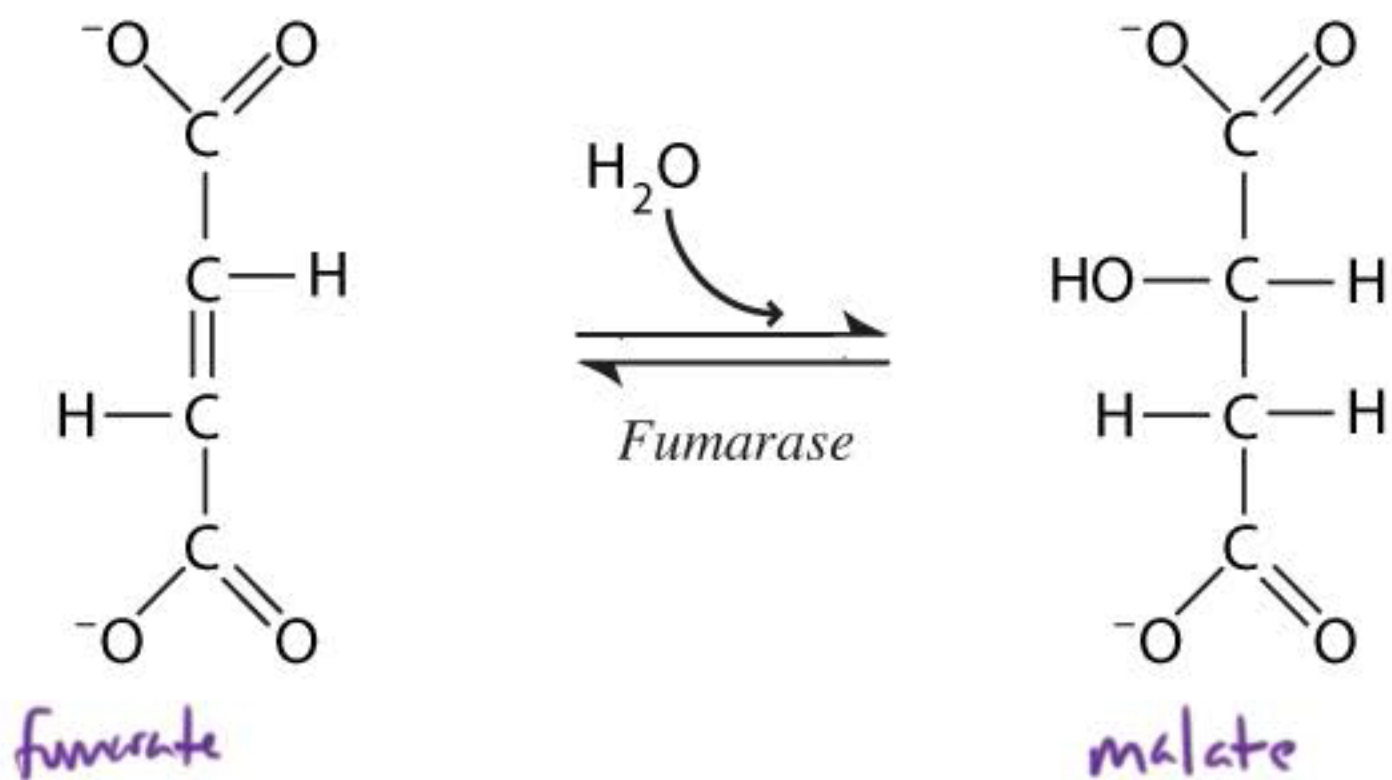


TPP
 lipoamide
 CoA
 FAD
 NAD⁺





The step in TCA
intersects with the
electron transport chain.

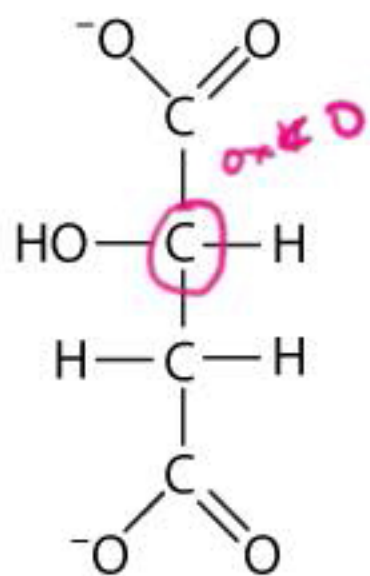


$$K_M = \frac{k_2 + k_{-1}}{k_1}$$

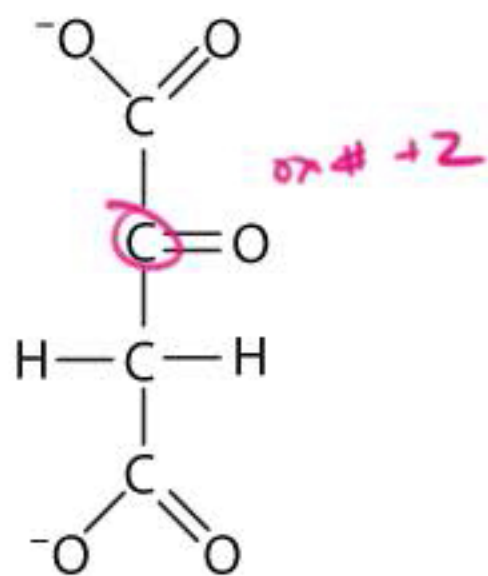
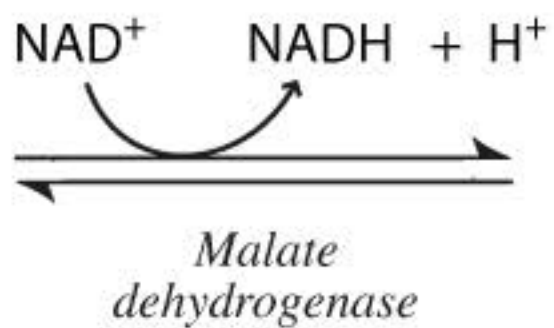
• has achieved enzymatic perfection

$$k_2 = k_{cat}$$

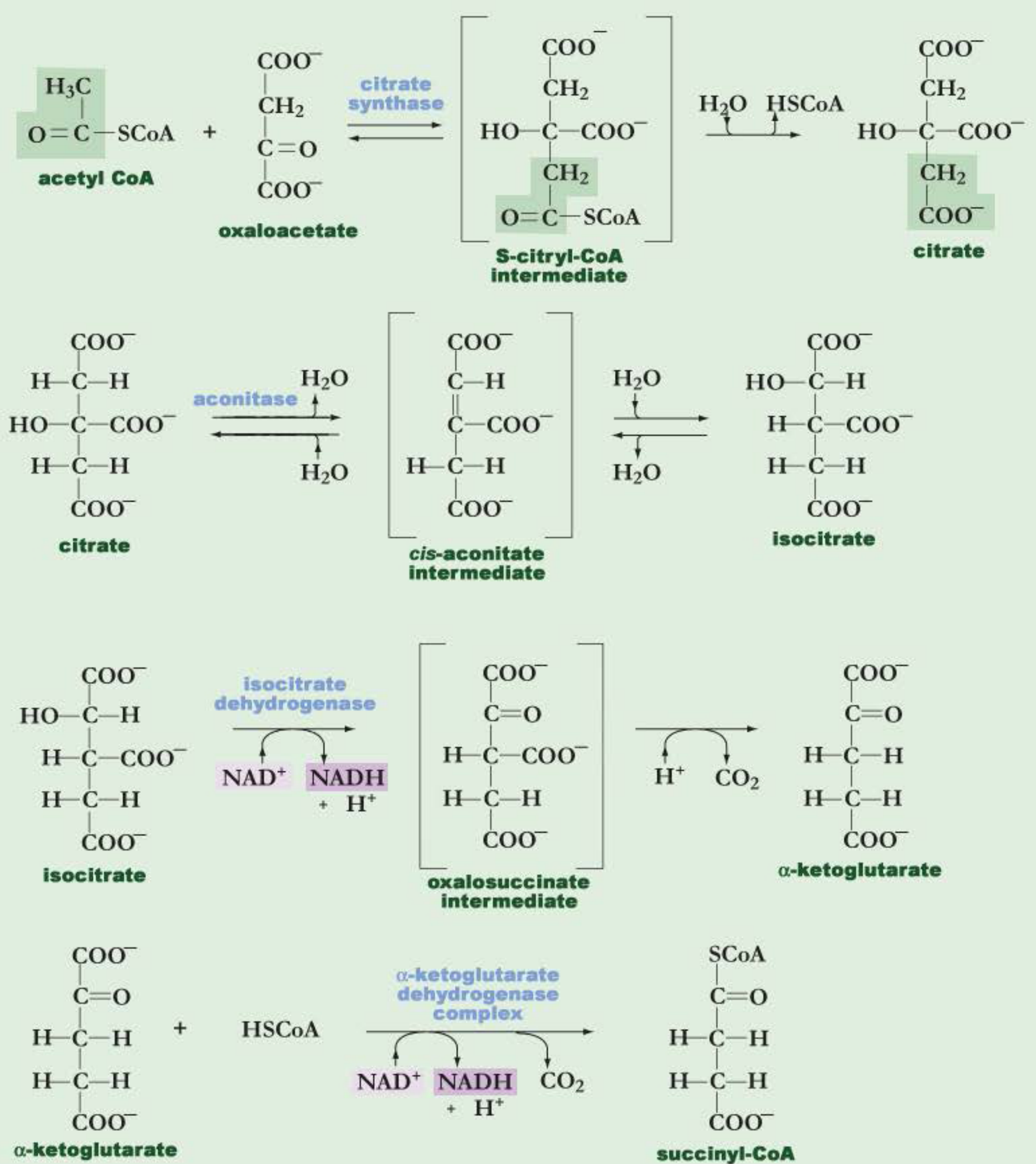
catalytic efficiency : $\frac{k_{cat}}{K_M}$ as high as possible = $\frac{k_1 k_{cat}}{k_{cat} + k_{-1}}$

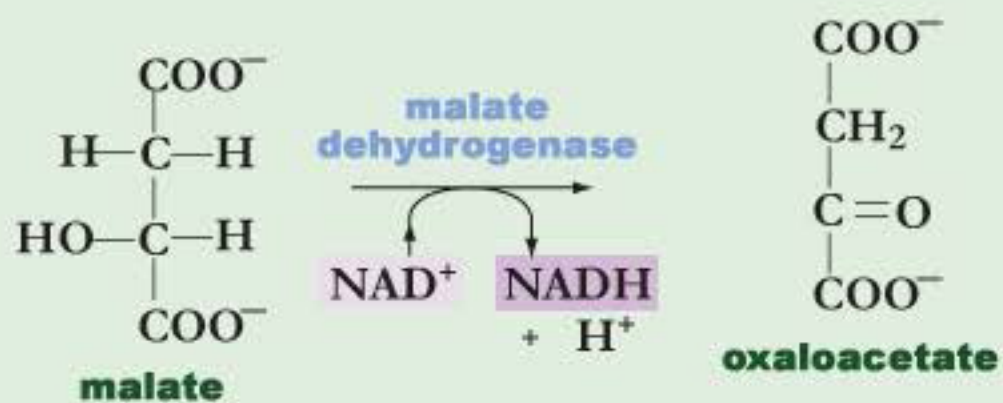
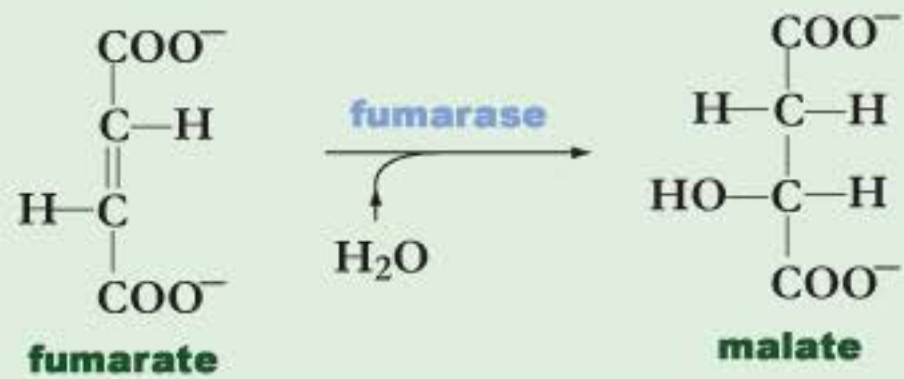
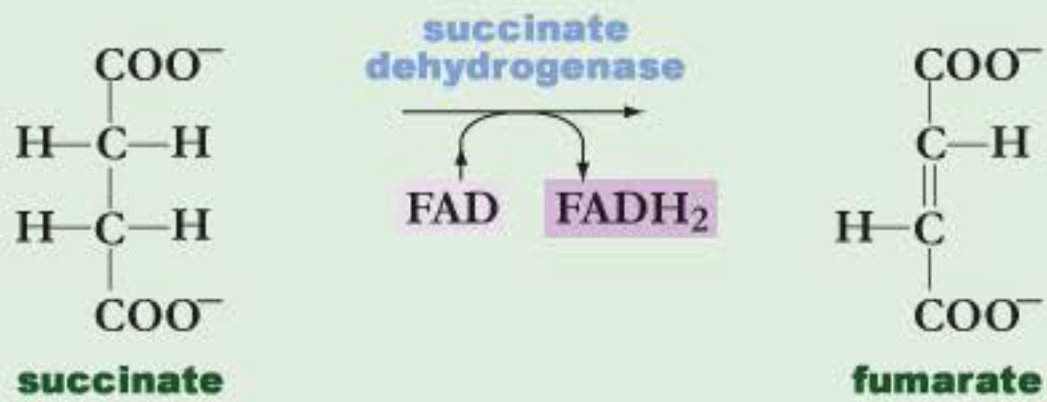
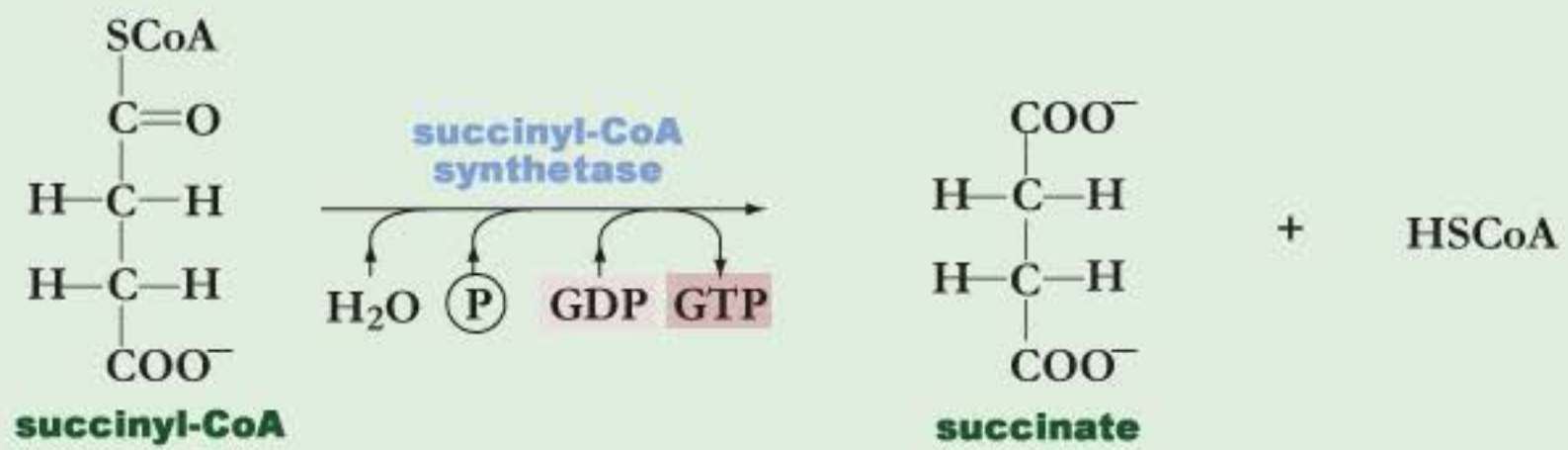


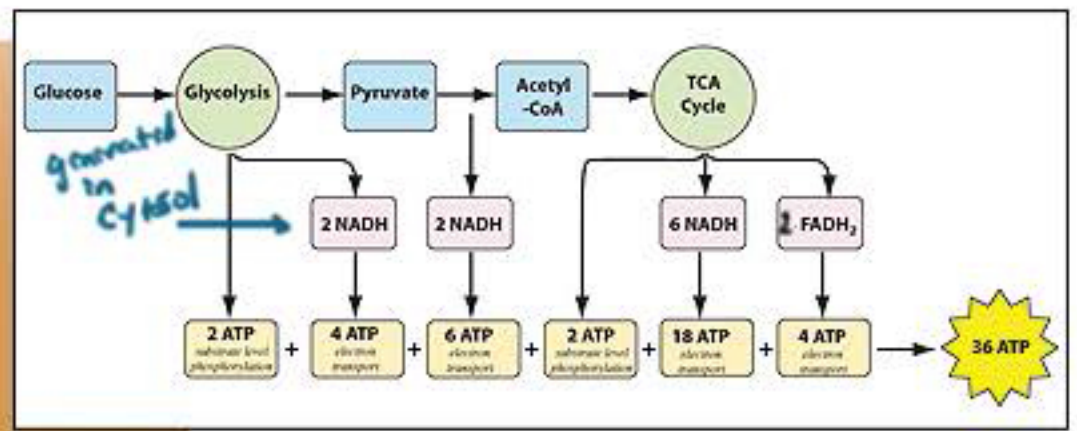
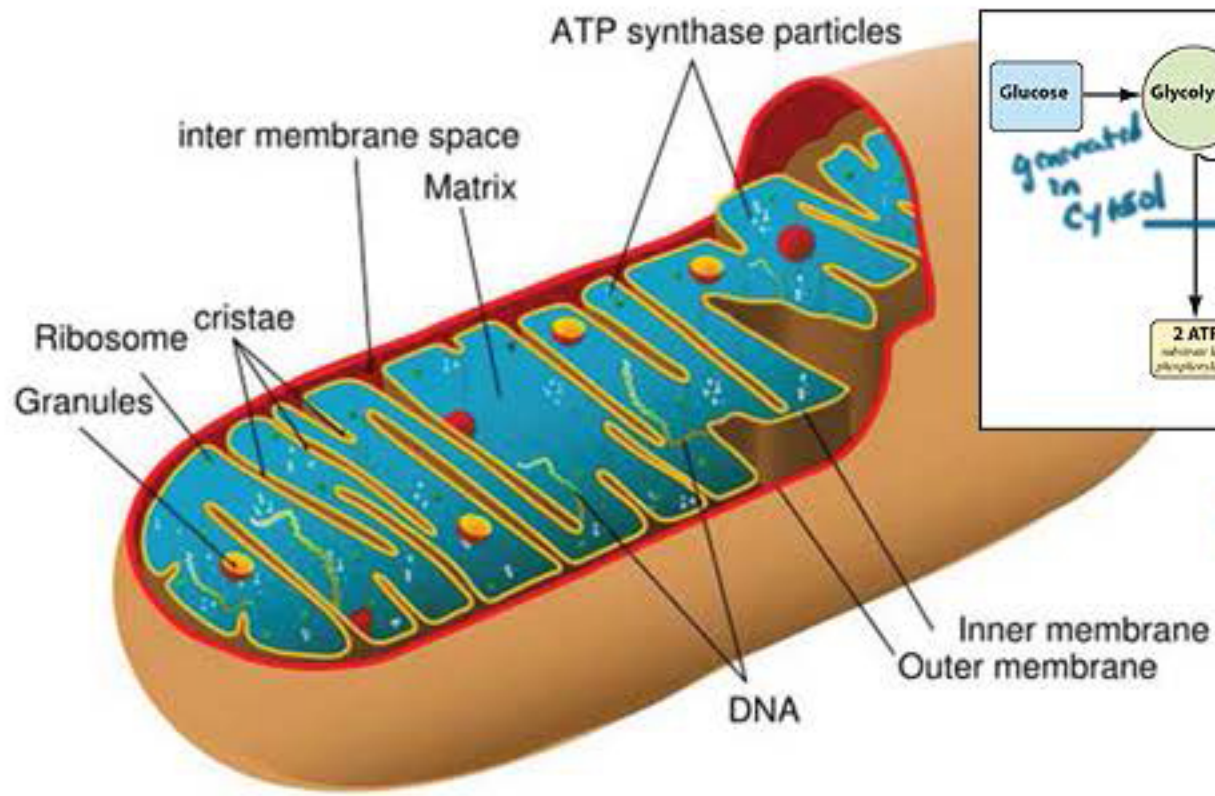
Malate



Oxaloacetate







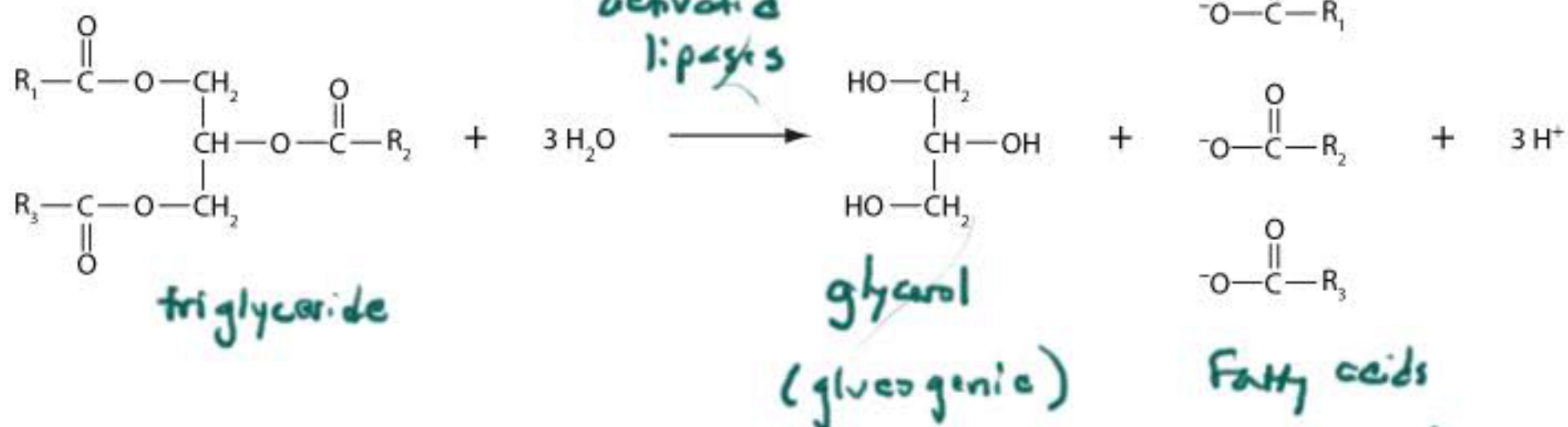
NADH from glycolysis,
electrons are shuttled.

Aerobic bacteria
yield 38 ATP

Oxidation

hydrolysis by
cAMP $\Rightarrow$ protein kinase A

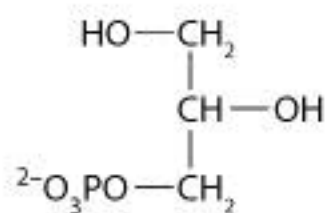
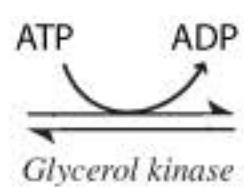
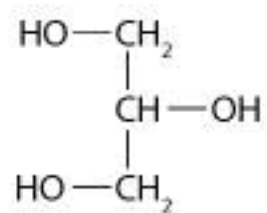
activated
lipases



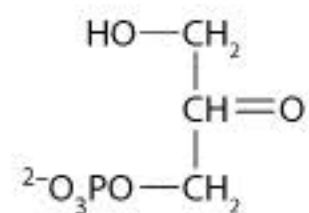
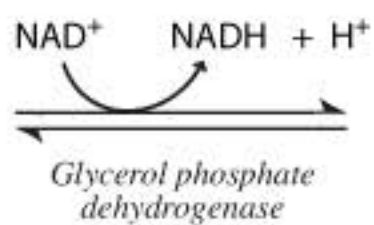
triglyceride

glycerol
(glucogenic)

Fatty acids
(ketogenic)



glycerol 3-phosphate

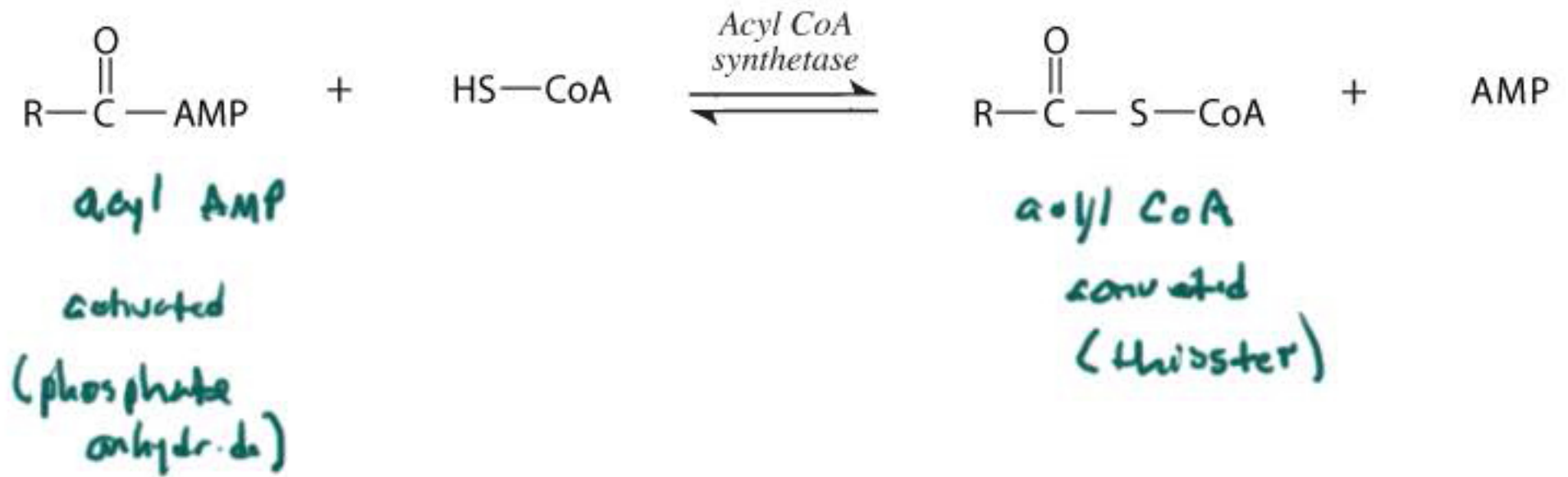
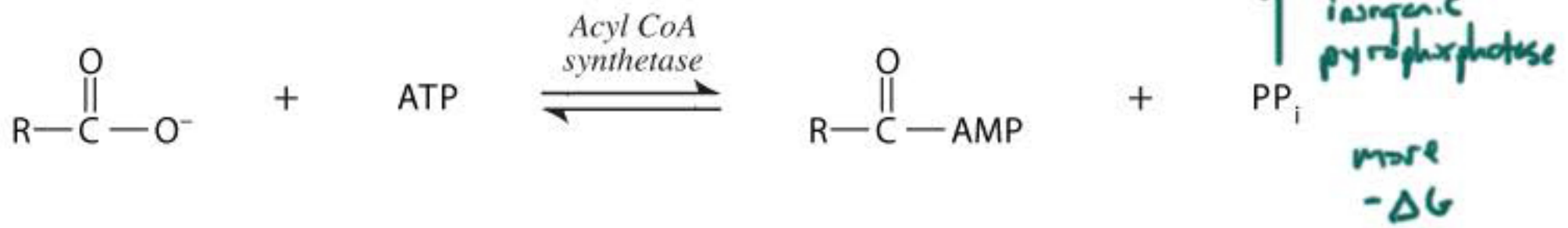


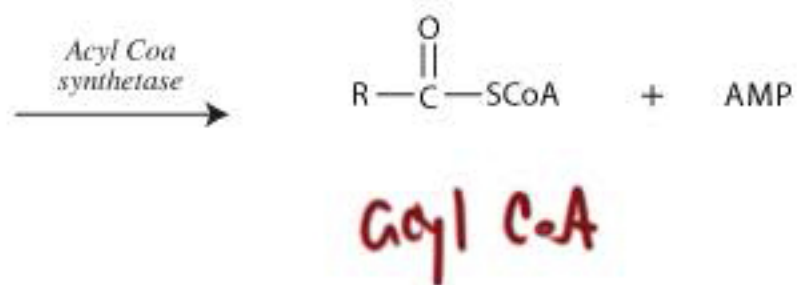
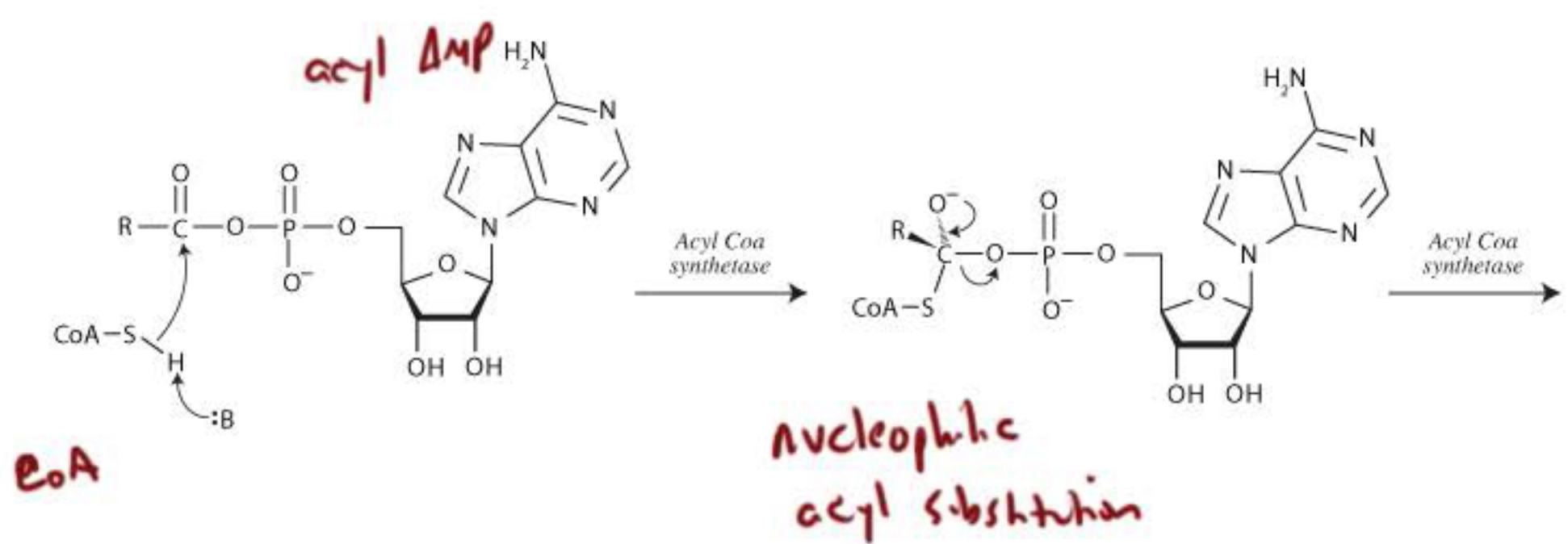
DAP



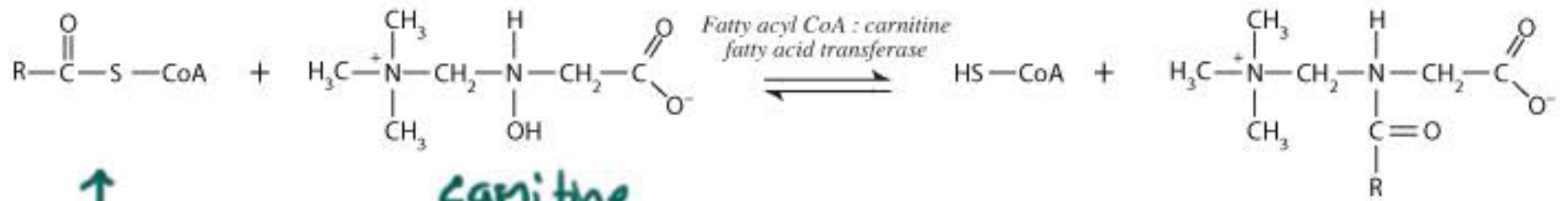
glycolysis or
gluconeogenesis

Fatty Acid Activation





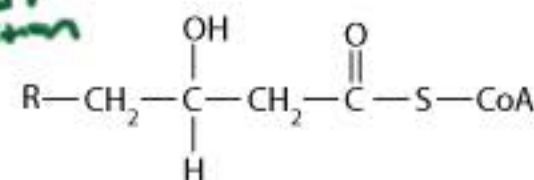
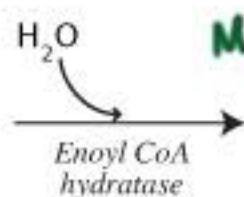
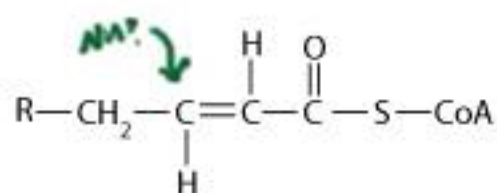
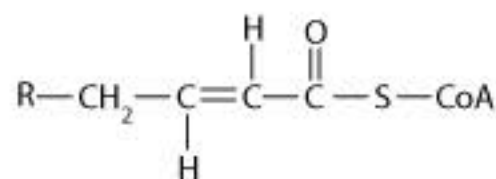
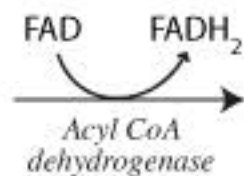
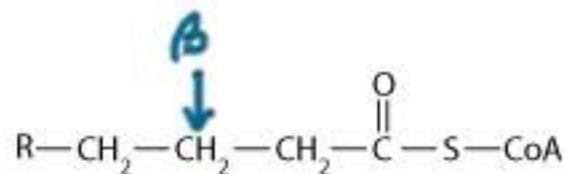
Getting acyl CoA into the mitochondrion for β oxidation



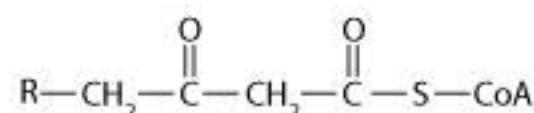
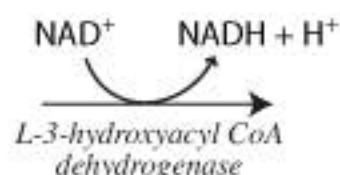
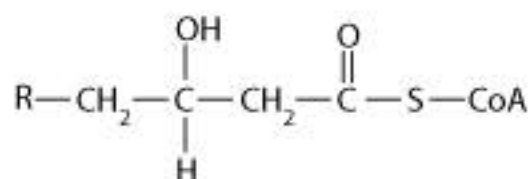
↑
in cytosol

carnitine
↑
shuttle

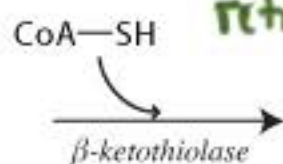
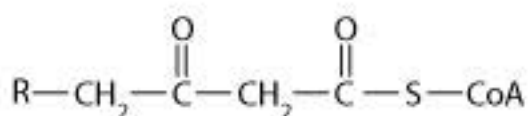




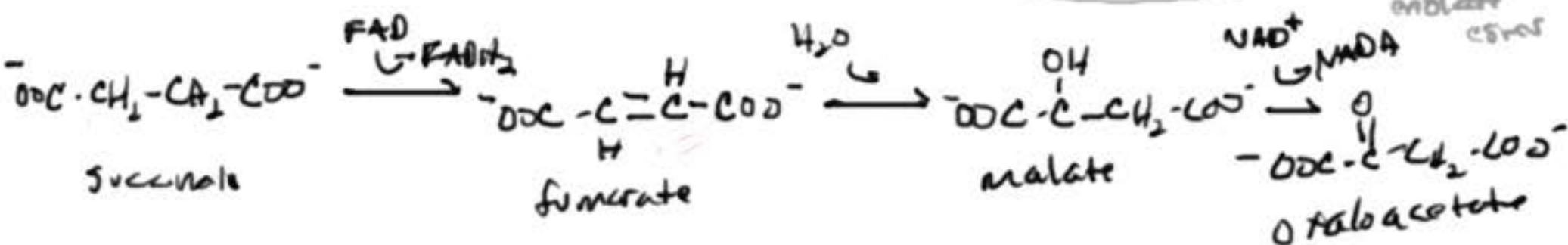
Michael addition - nucleophiles add at β position of α, β unsaturated carbonyl compounds

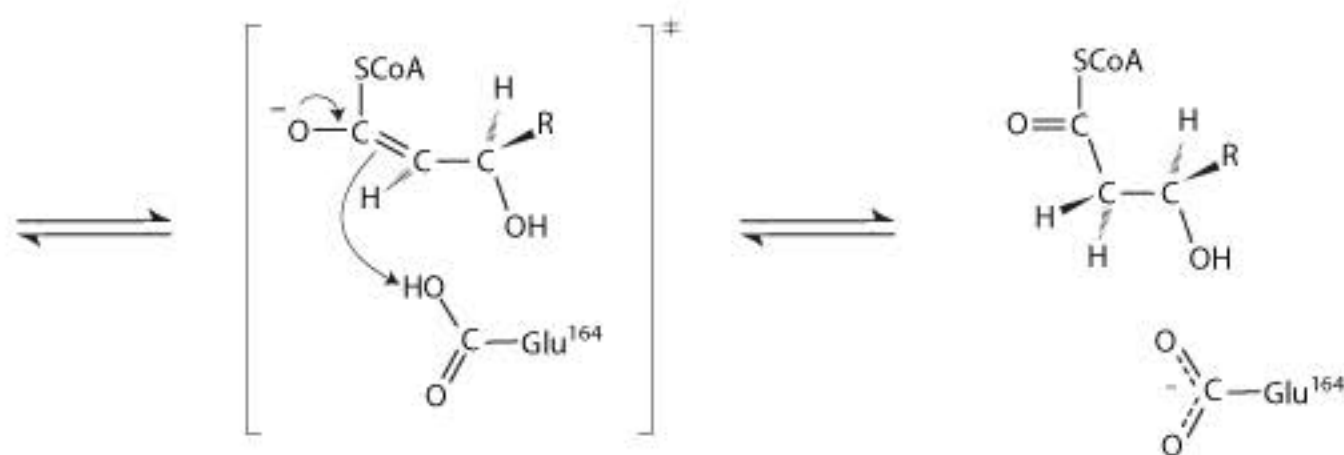
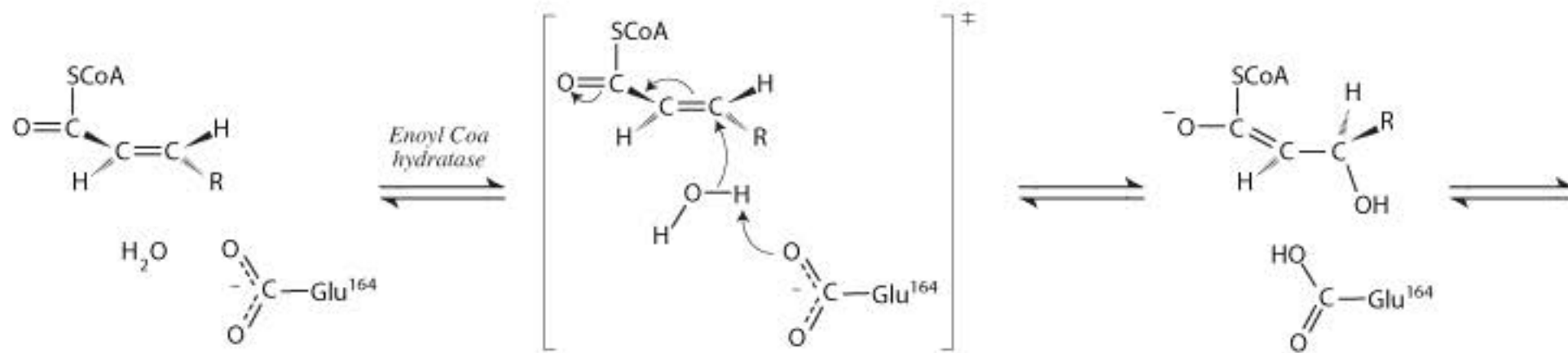


β keto thioester

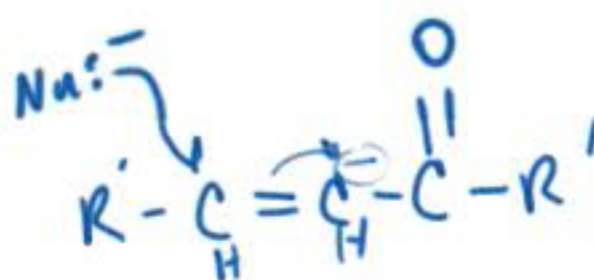


retro Claisen condensation

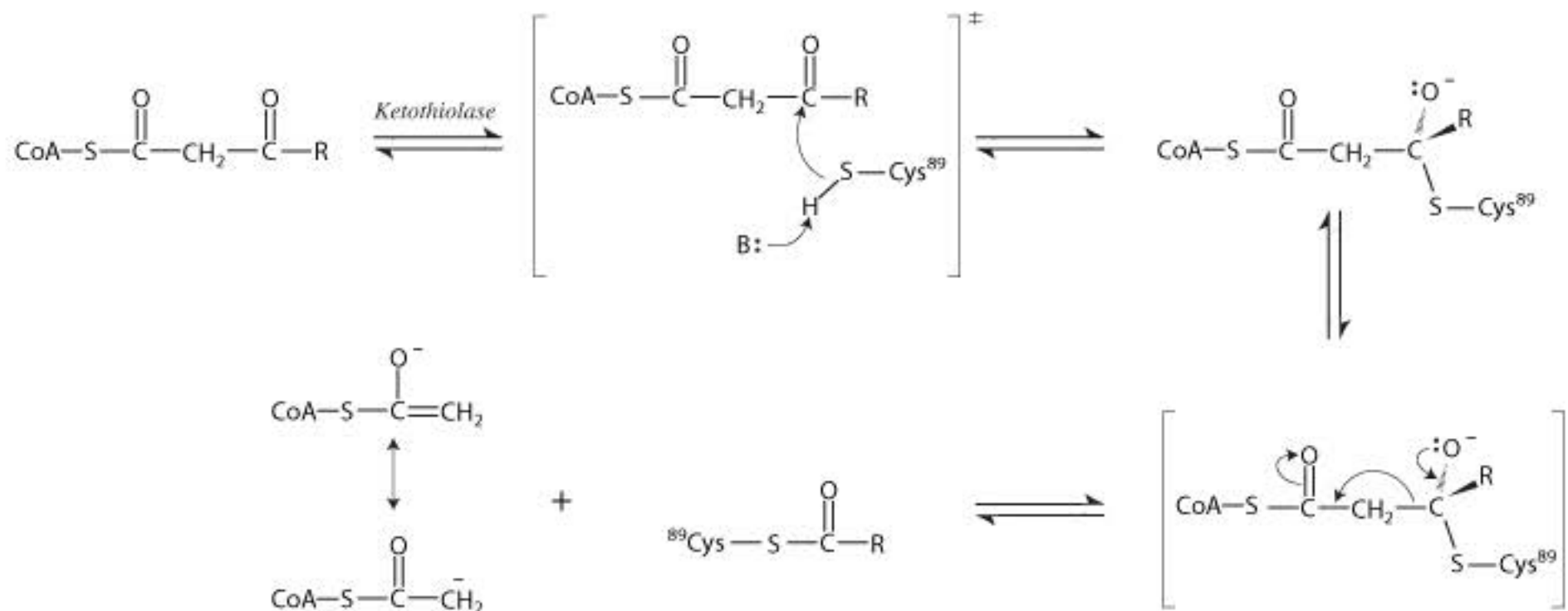




Enoyl CoA Hydratase is a Michael addition



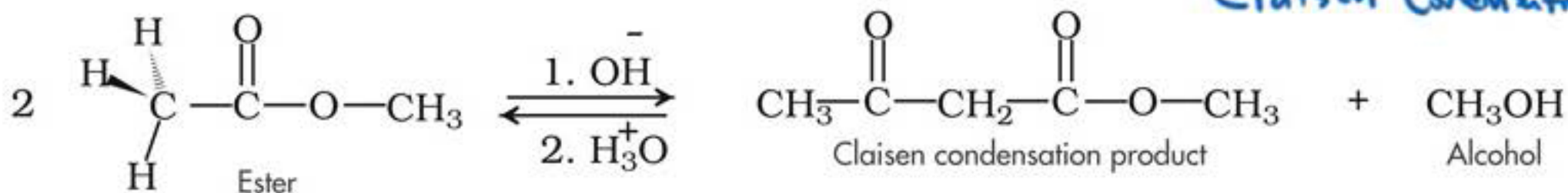
Nucleophiles add to the β carbon of α - β unsaturated carbonyl compounds.



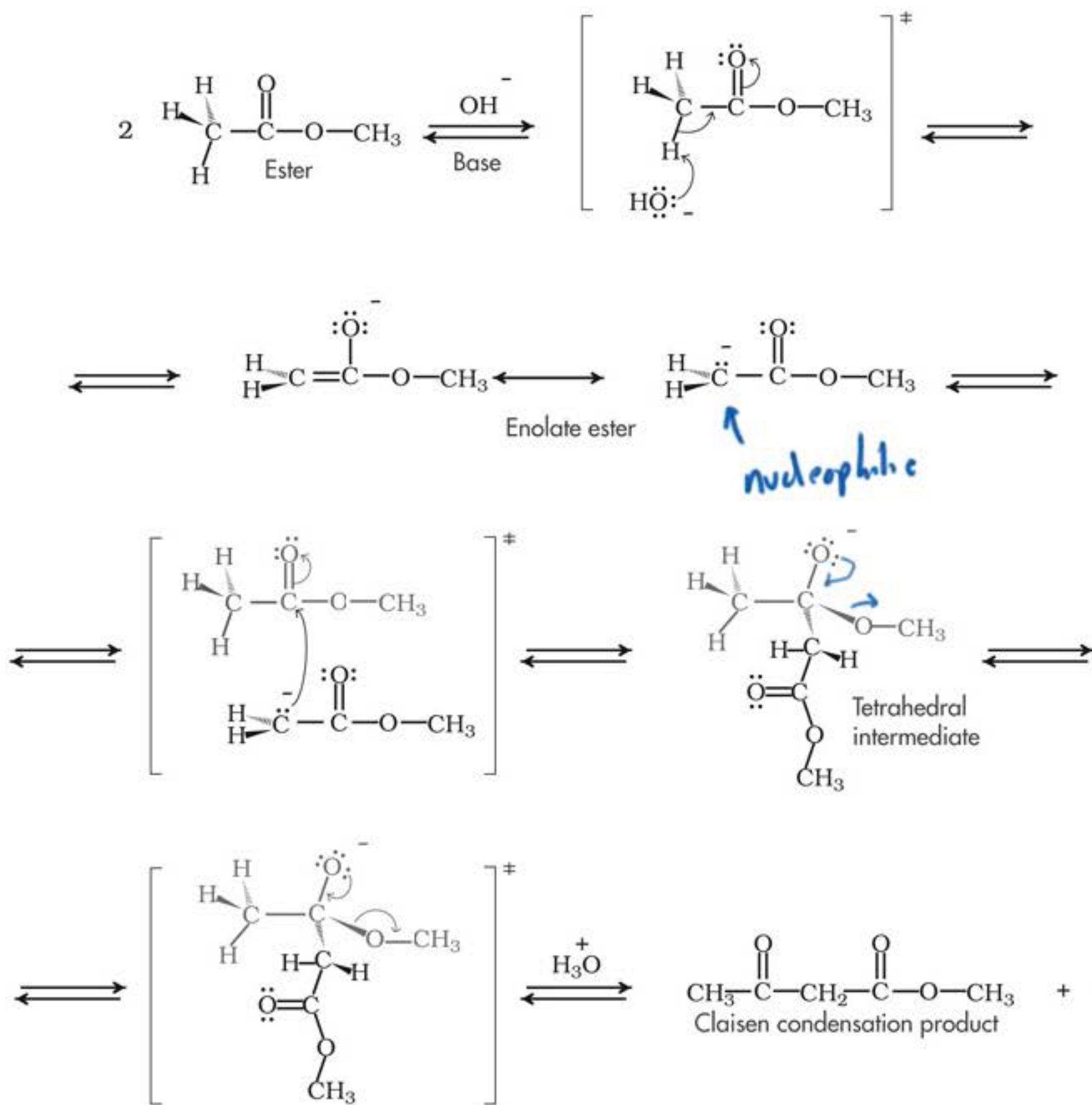
Retro
Claisen Condensation

supplemental

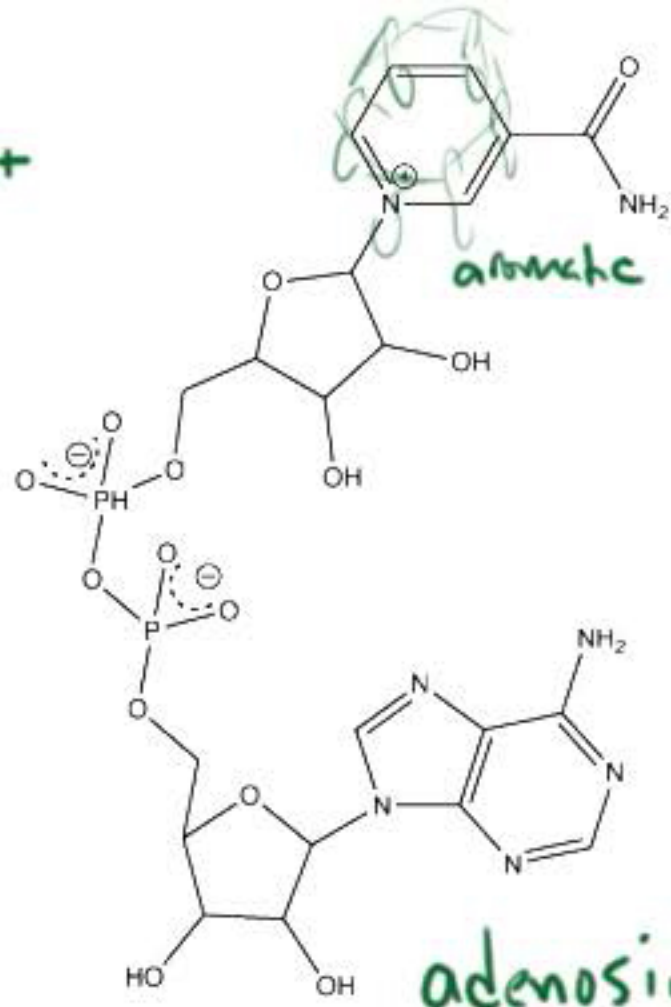
Claisen Condensation



like aldol addition but following
the nucleophilic acyl substitution pattern



NAD⁺

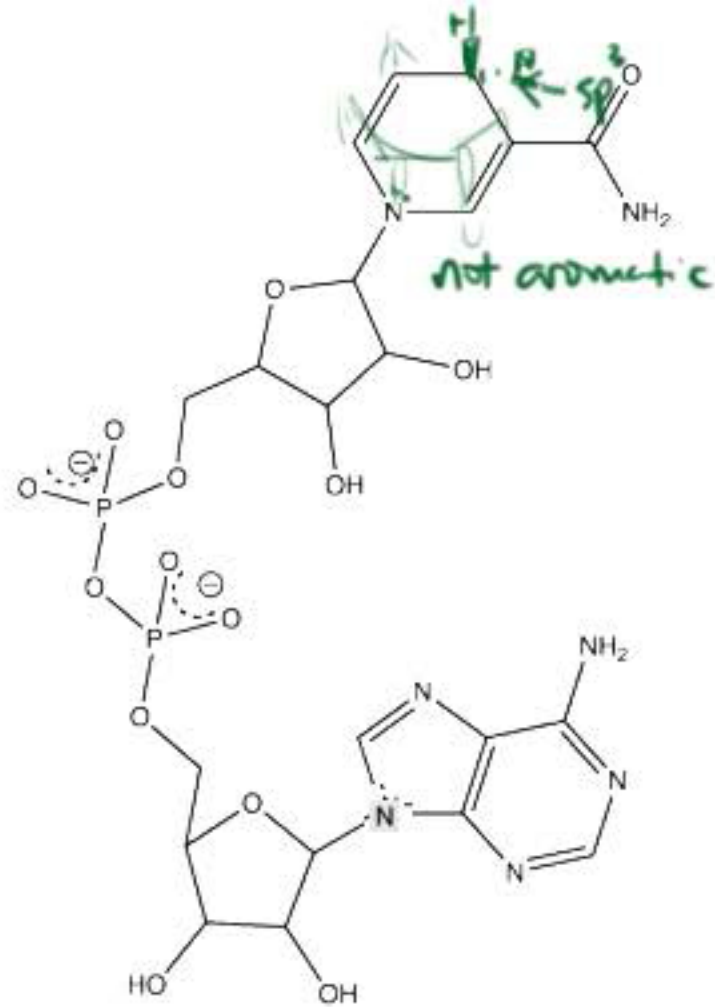


nicotinamide

hydride

H⁻

2 e⁻ + 2 H⁺



Standard reduction potential

-0.32 V

anode

+0.82 V

cathode

NAD⁺/NADH

H⁺/½ H₂

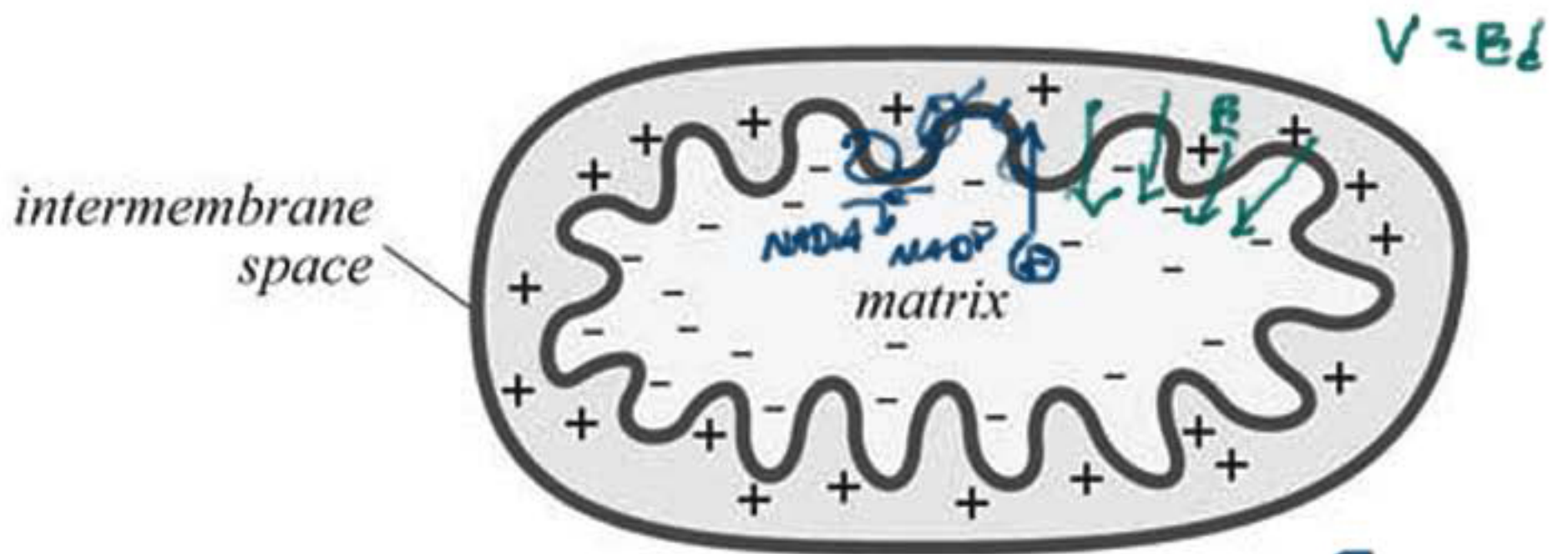
H⁺/½ H₂

½ O₂/H₂O

standard hydrogen electrode

$$E_{\text{cell}} = E^{\circ}_{\text{cathode}} - E^{\circ}_{\text{anode}}$$

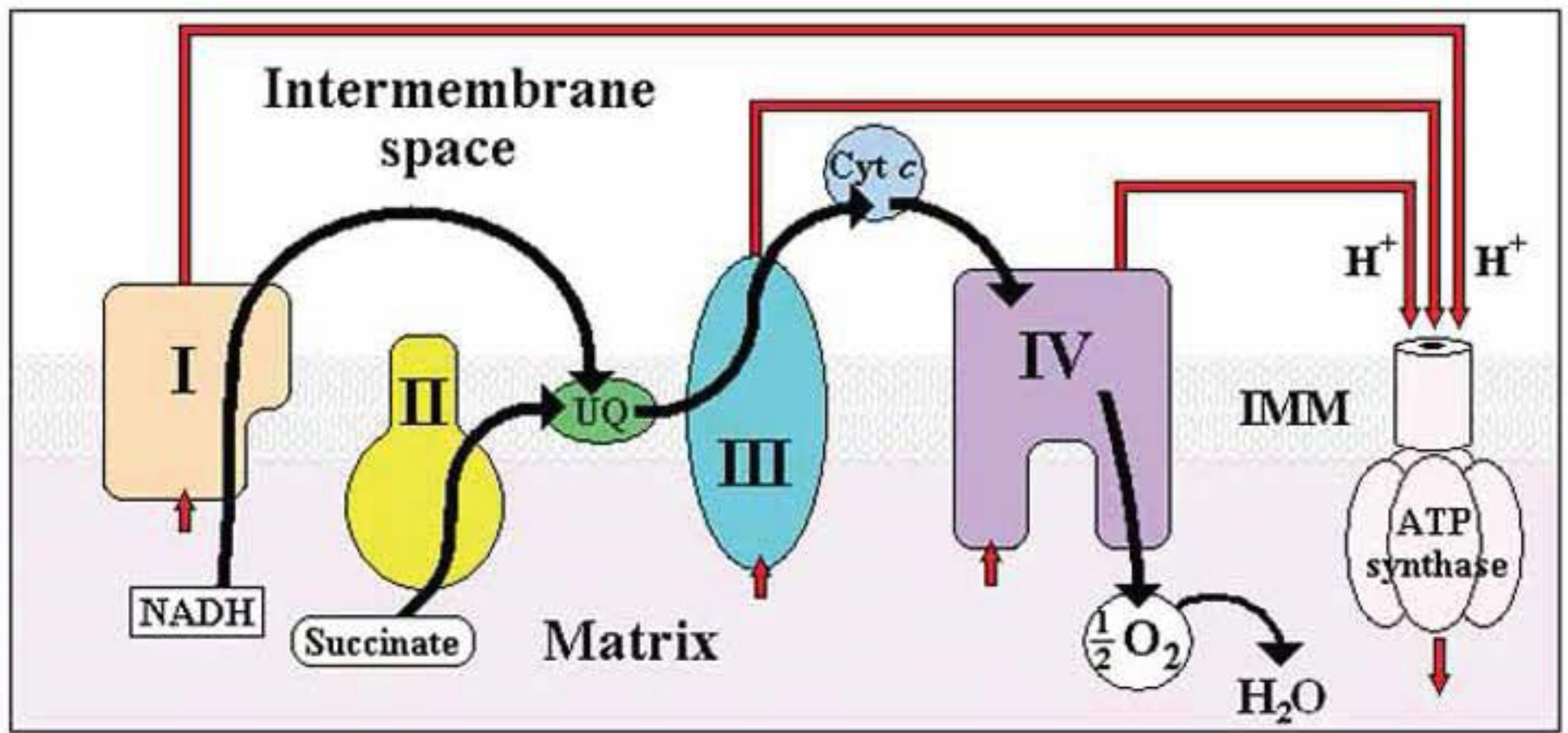
$$(0.82) - (-0.32) = 1.14 \text{ V}$$



Proton Motive Force
 electrostat potential : 0.16 V

diffusion gradient : 0.05 V

210 mV



I - NADH ubiquinone oxidoreductase

II - Succinate dehydrogenase

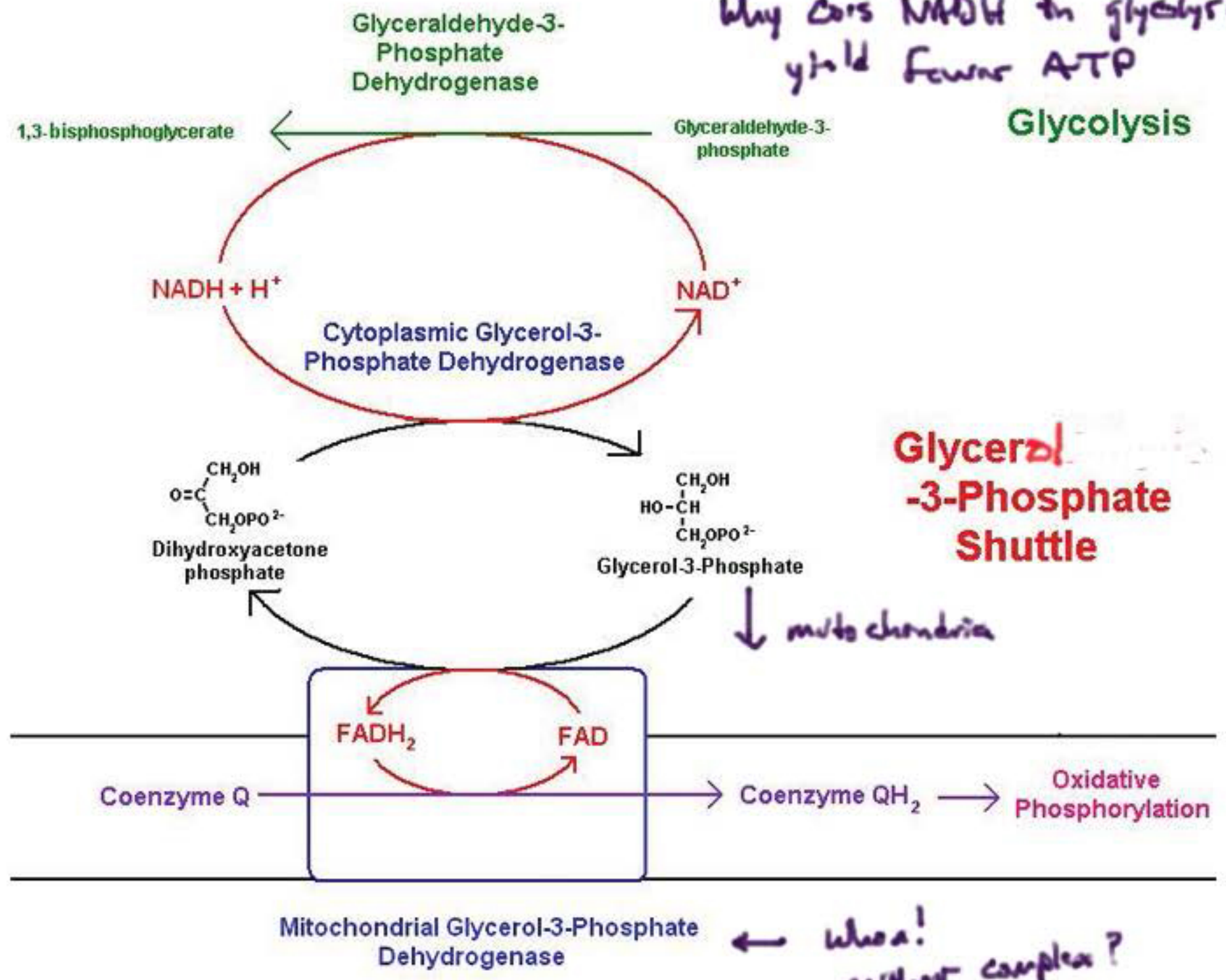
III - Cytochrome c reductase

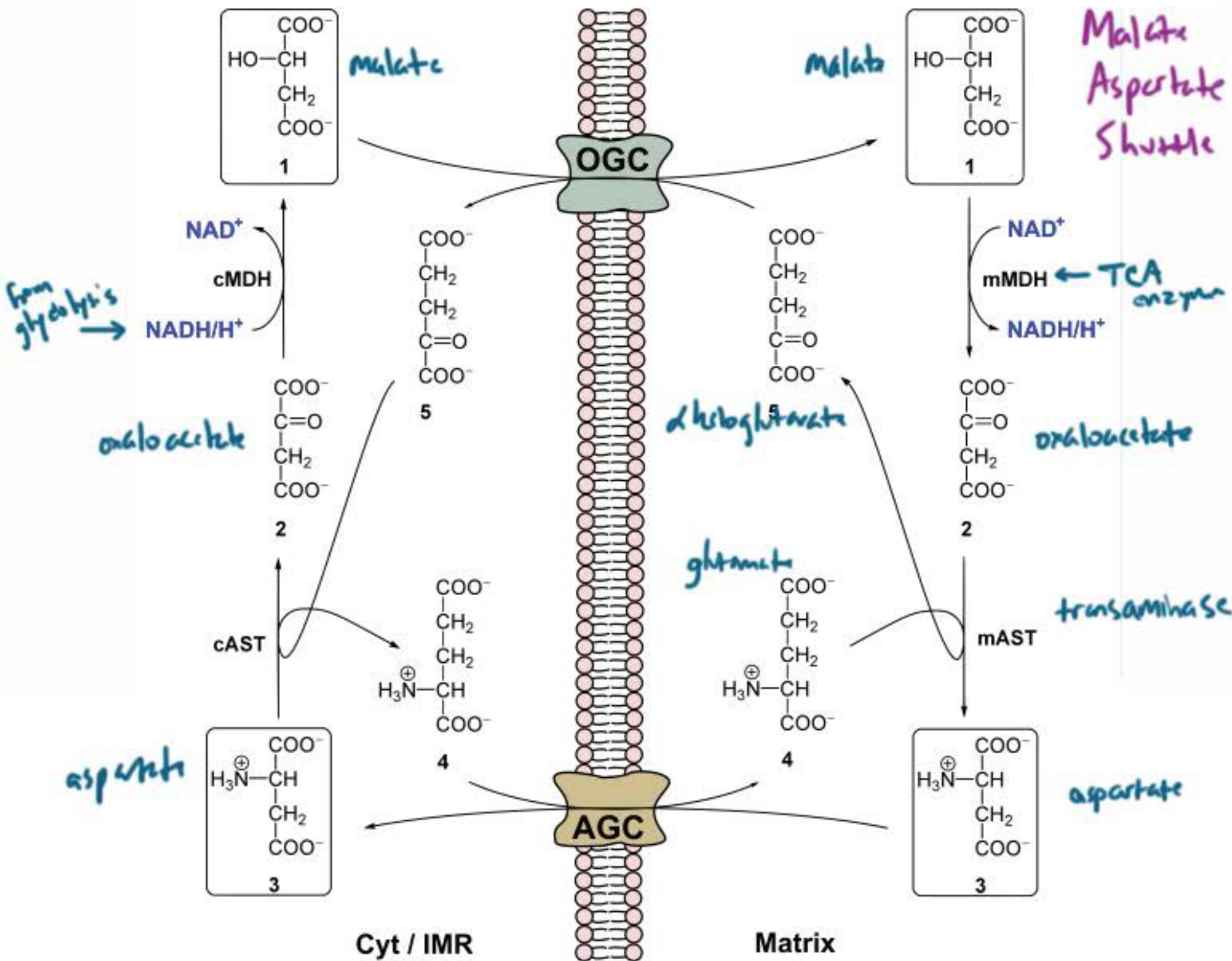
IV - Cytochrome c oxidase

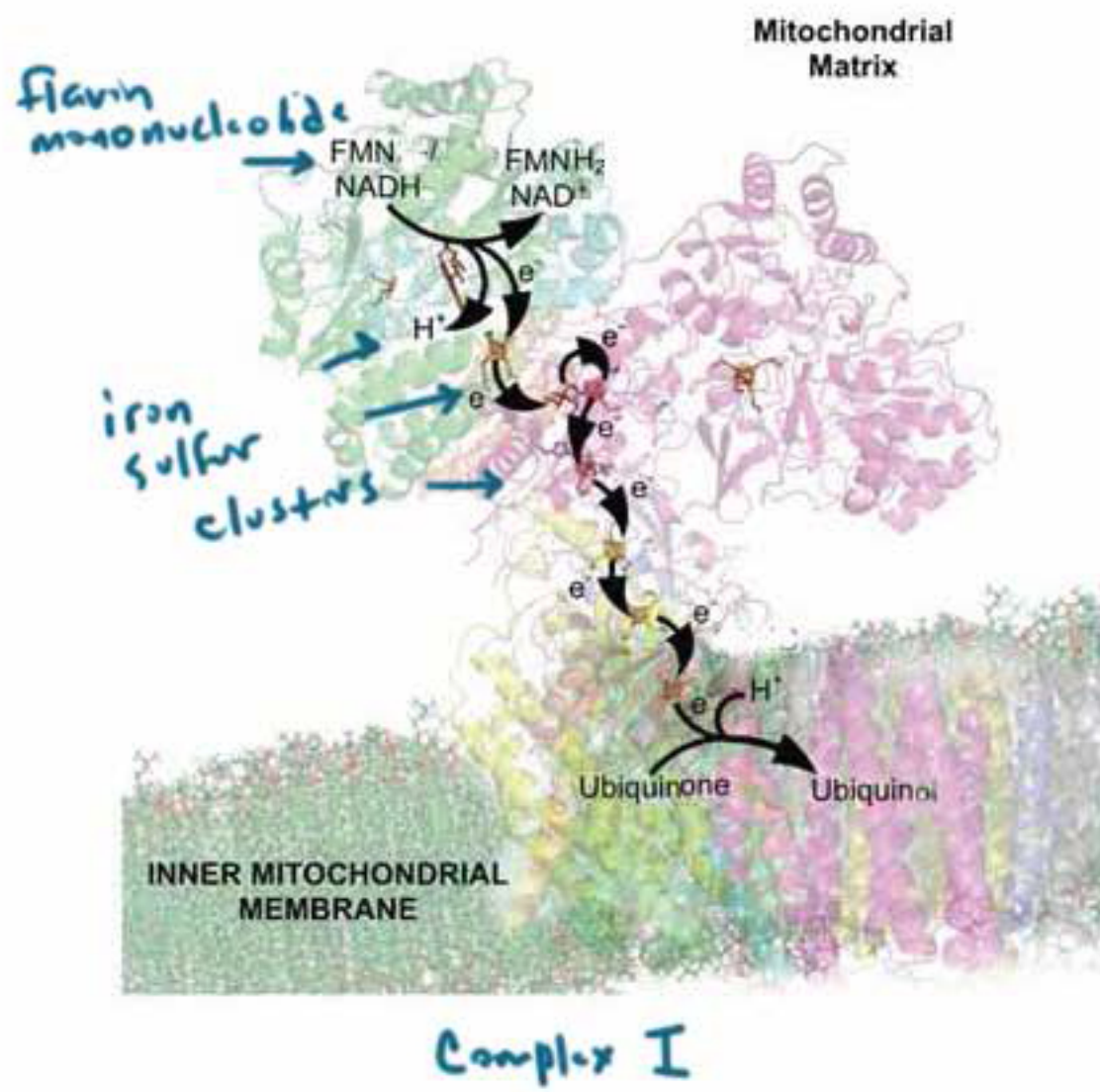
Why does NADH in glycolysis yield fewer ATP

Glycolysis

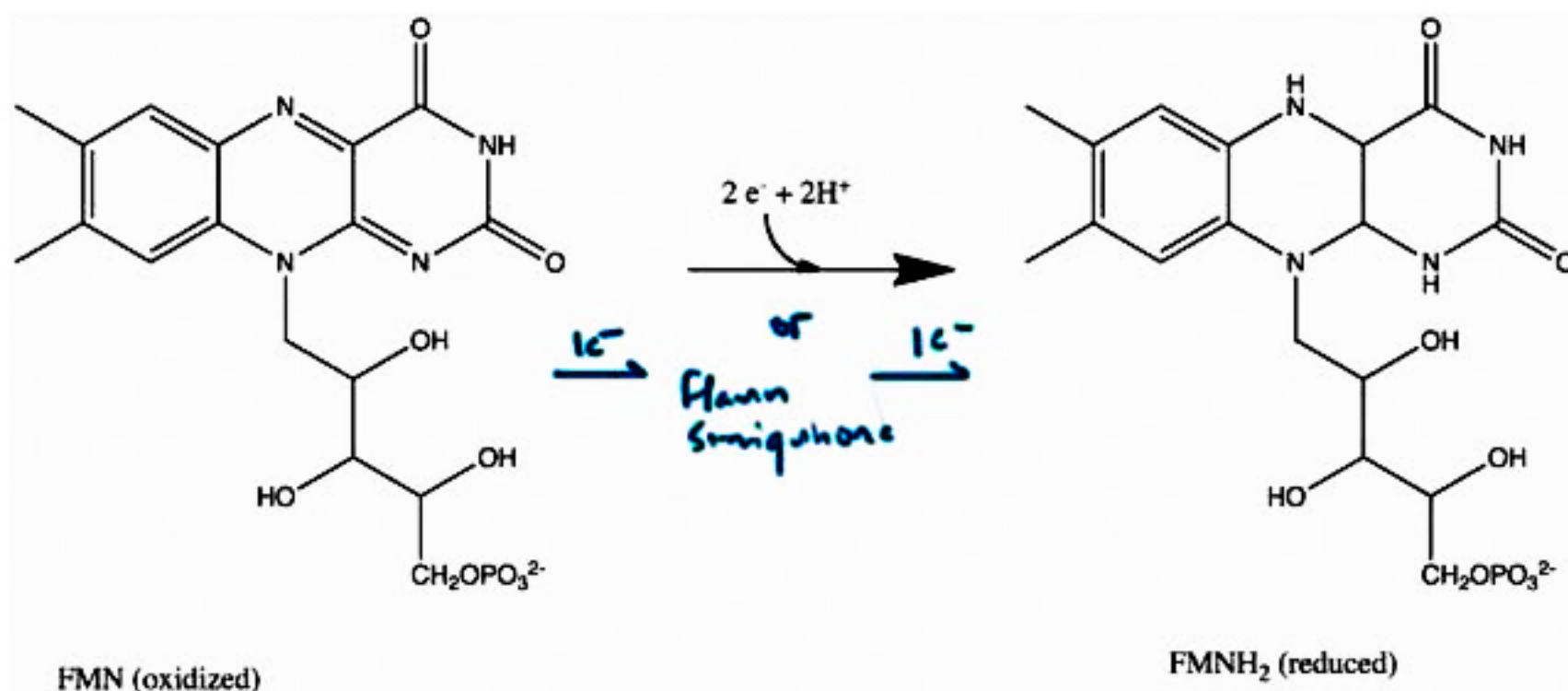
Glycerol-3-Phosphate Shuttle

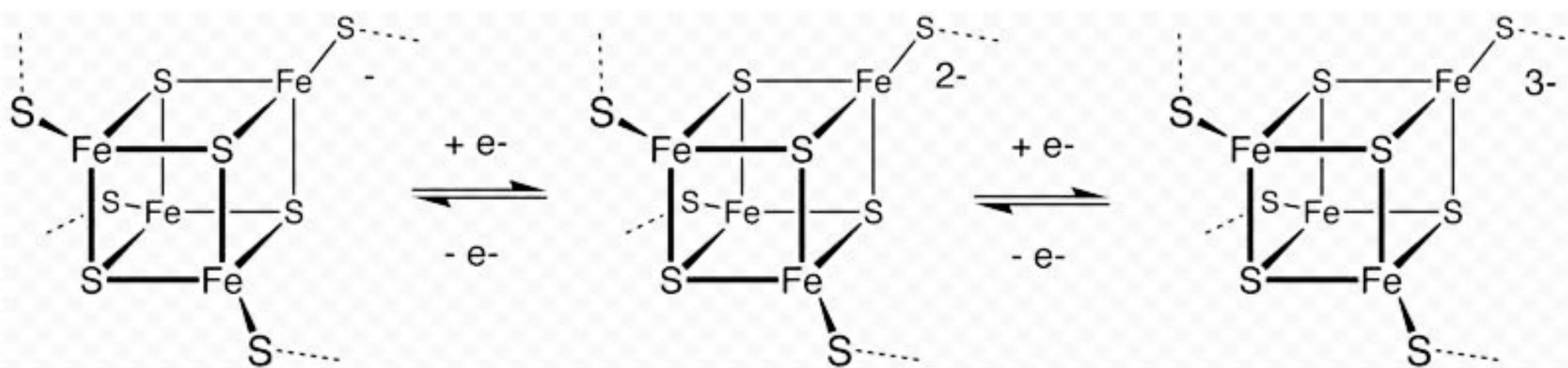




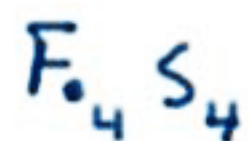


Complex I





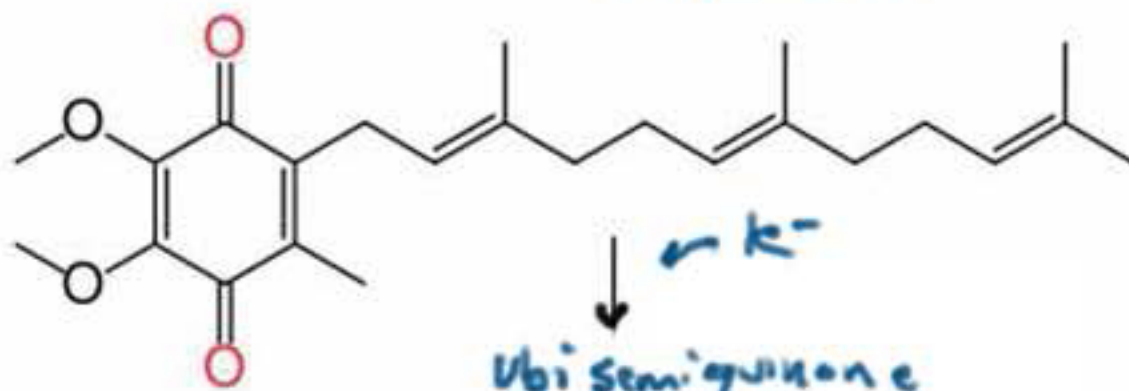
Iron Sulfur Clusters



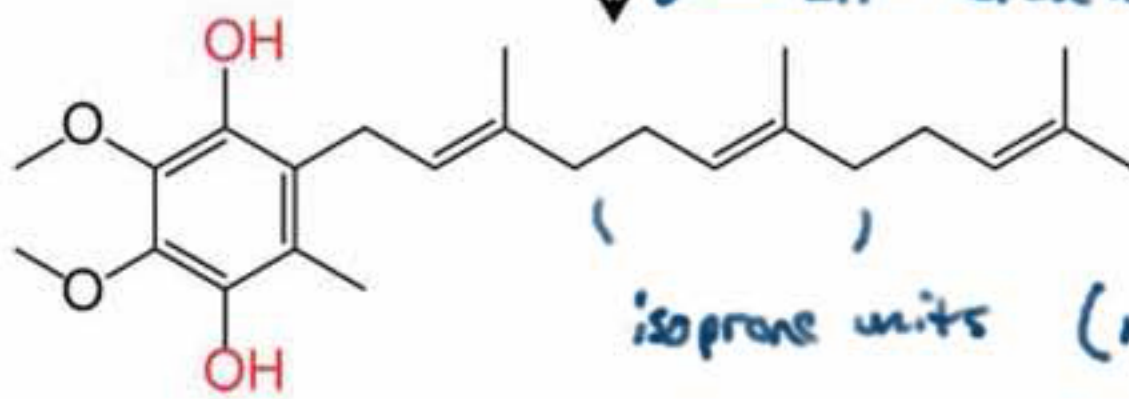
also FeS



Ubiquinone



↓ e^-
Ubisemiquinone
↓ e^- $2H^+$ (from the matrix)

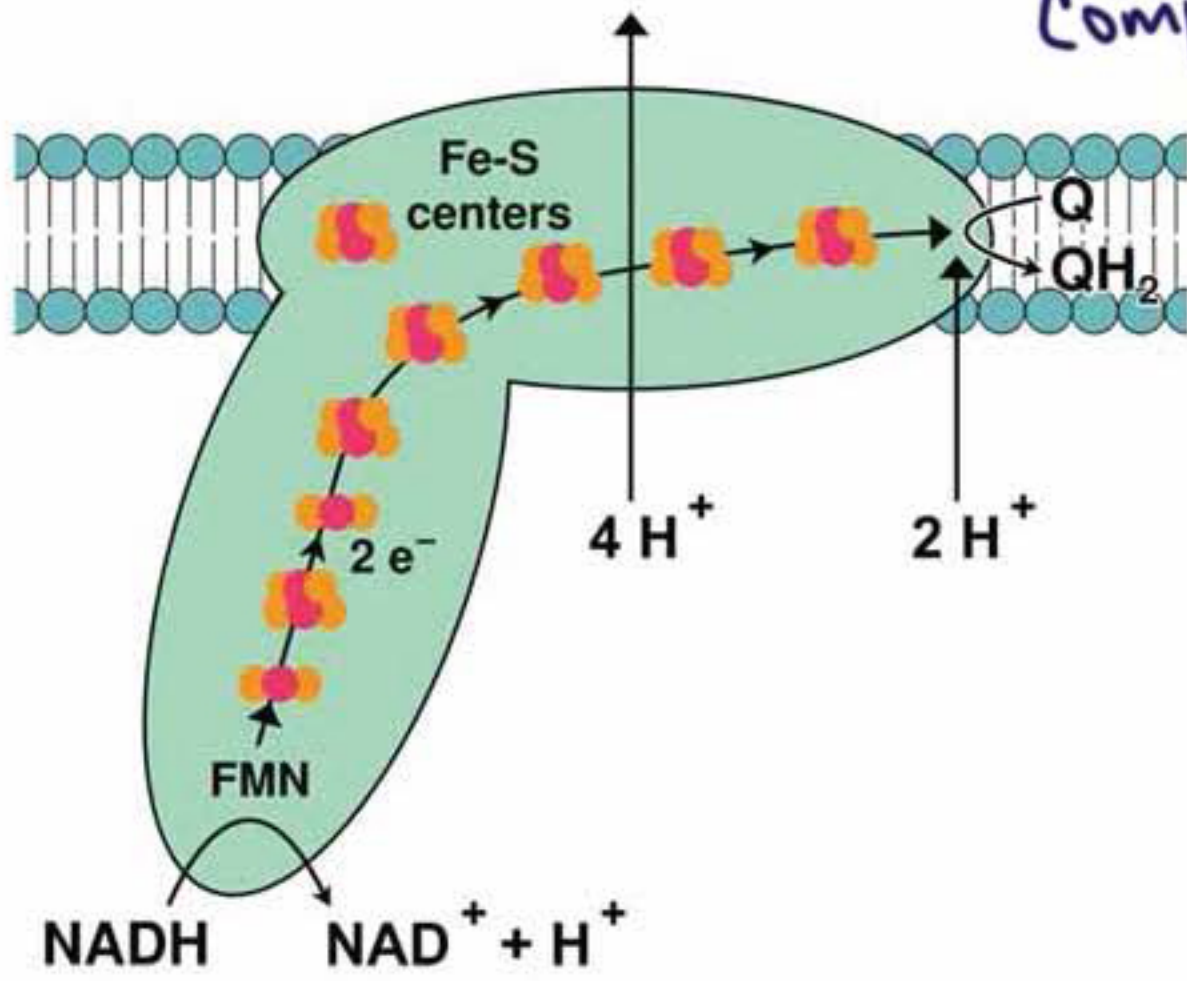


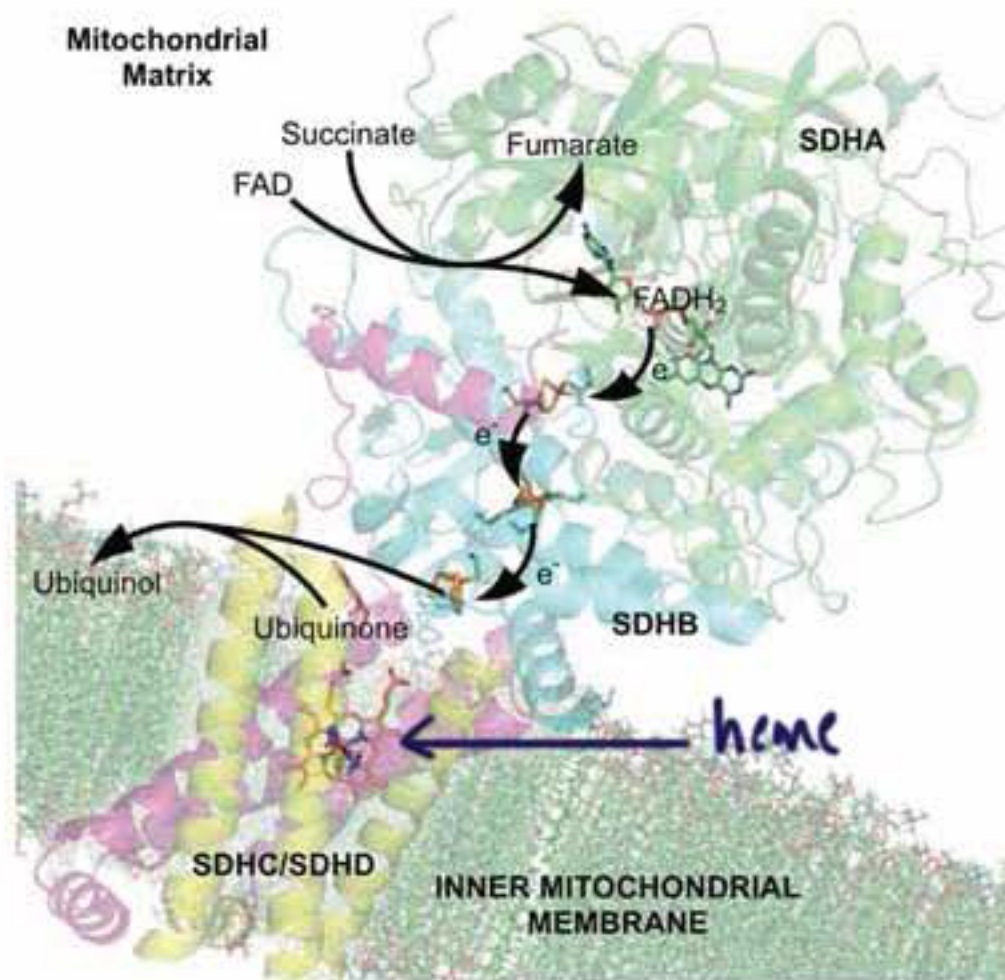
Ubiquinol

(isoprene units (n ~ 10))



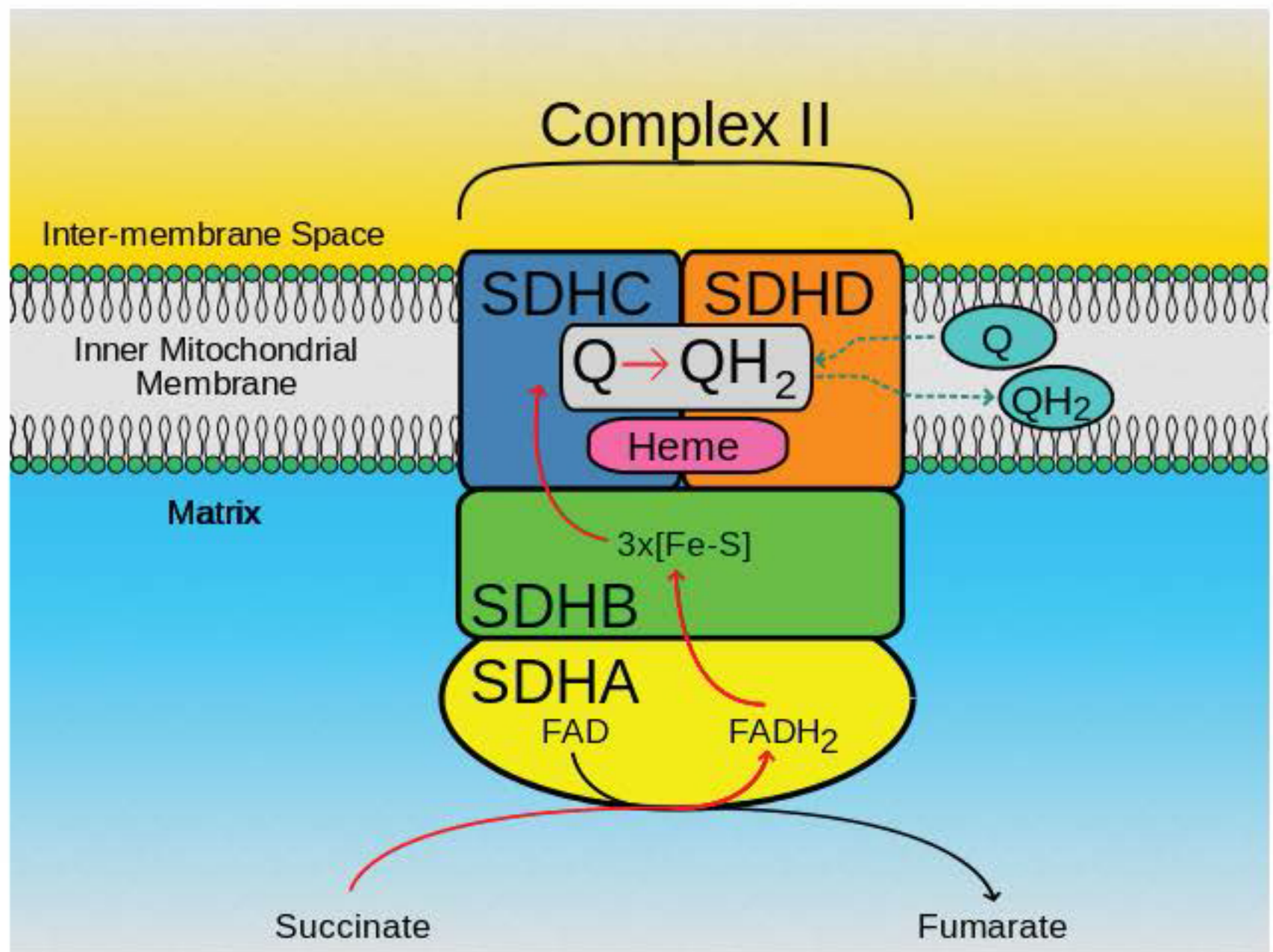
Complex I

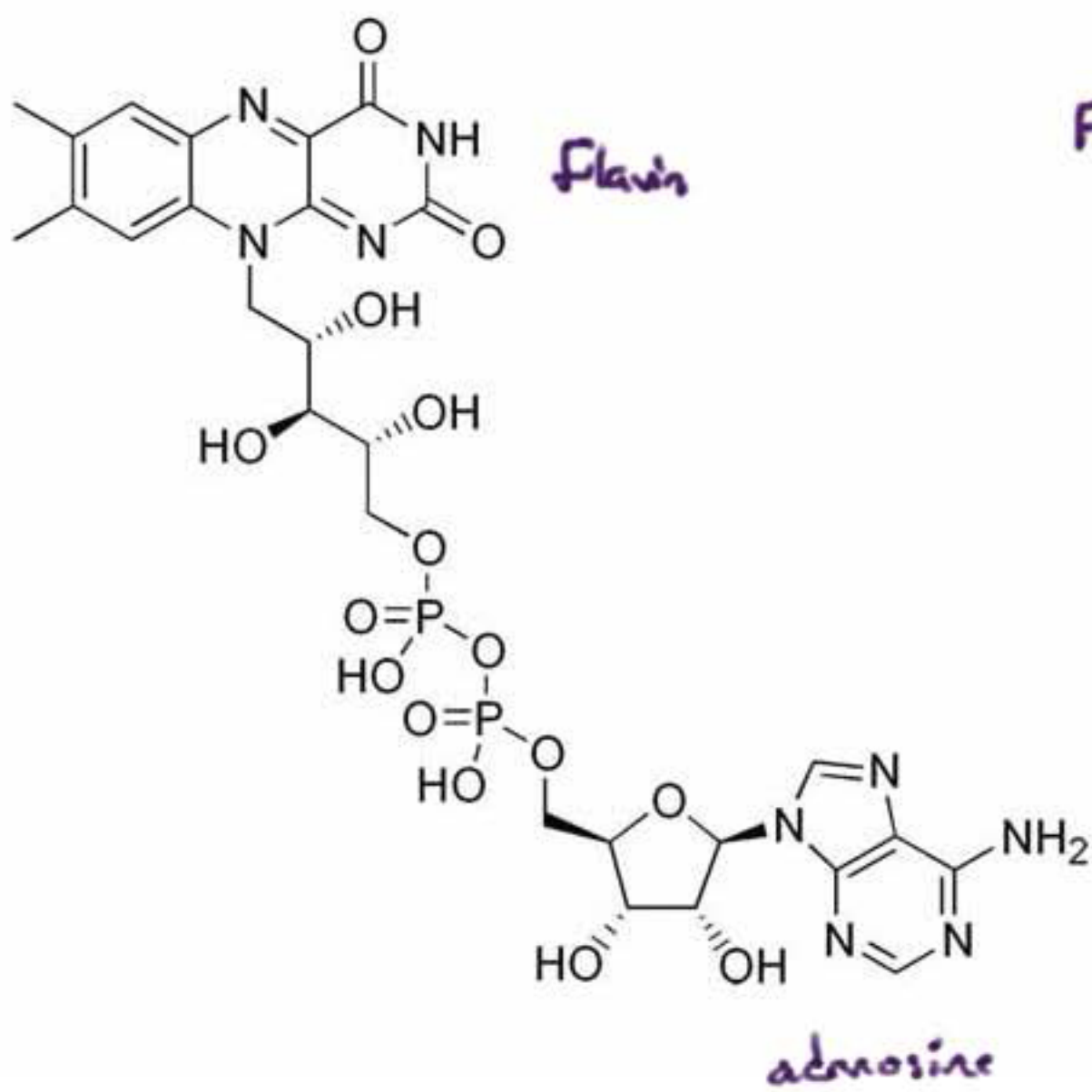


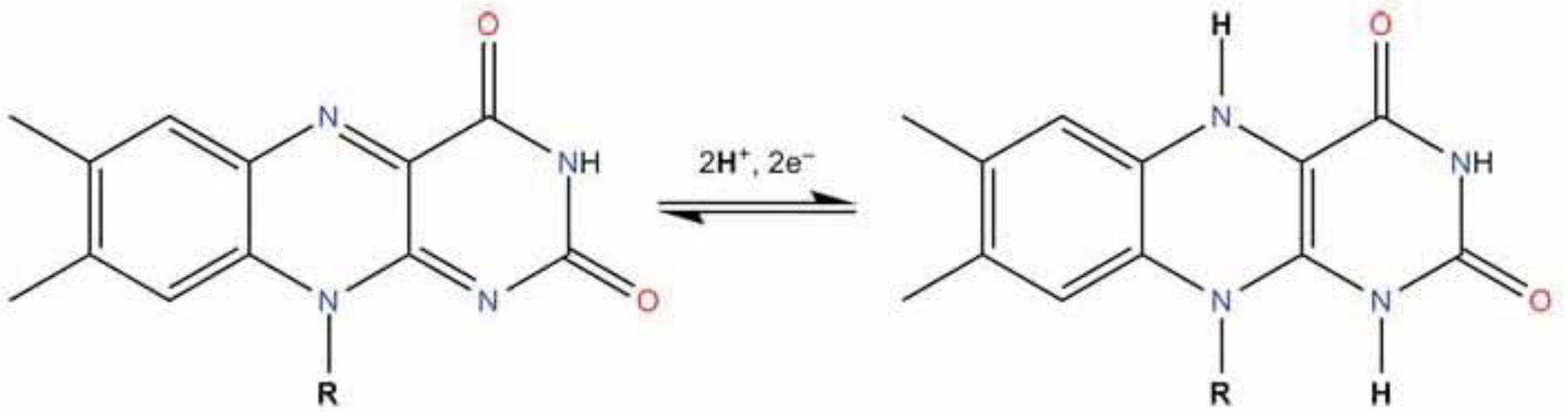


does not
pump protons

Complex II
succinate dehydrogenase

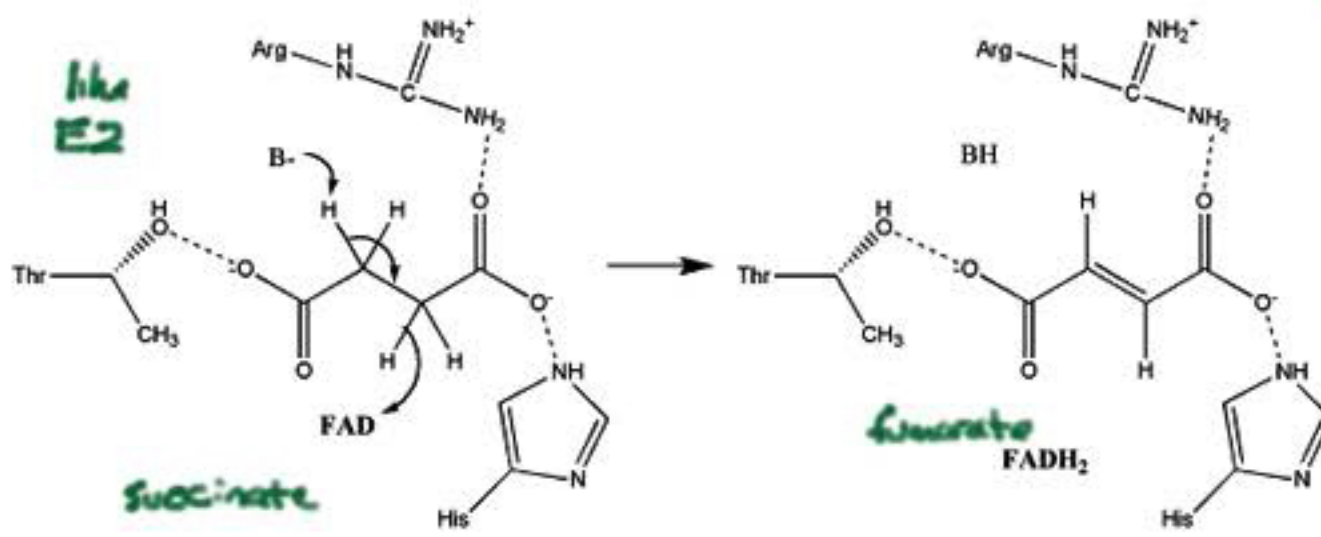




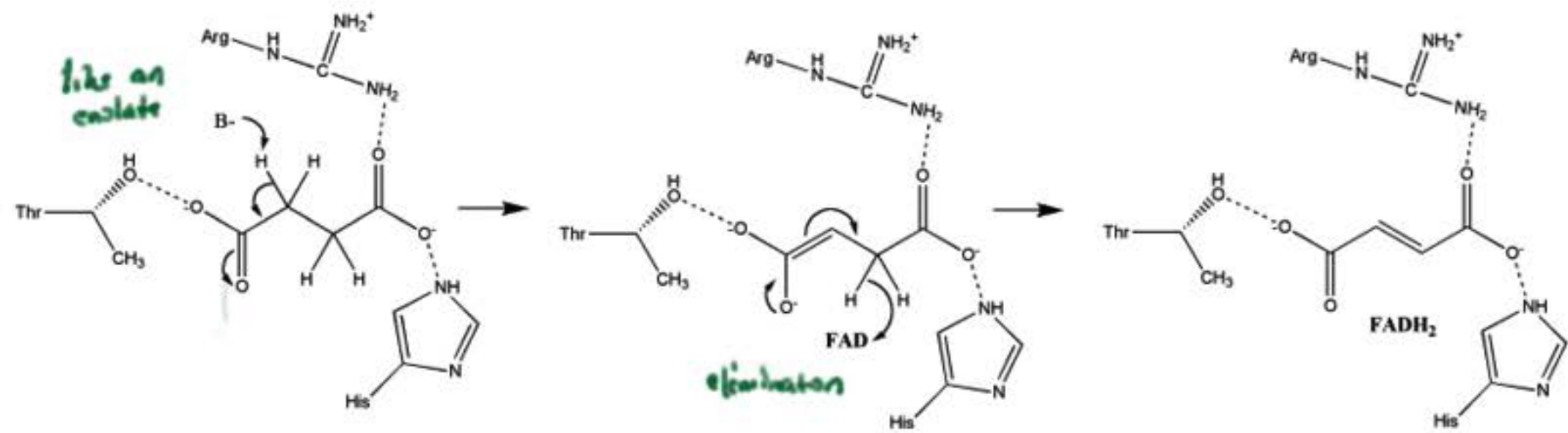


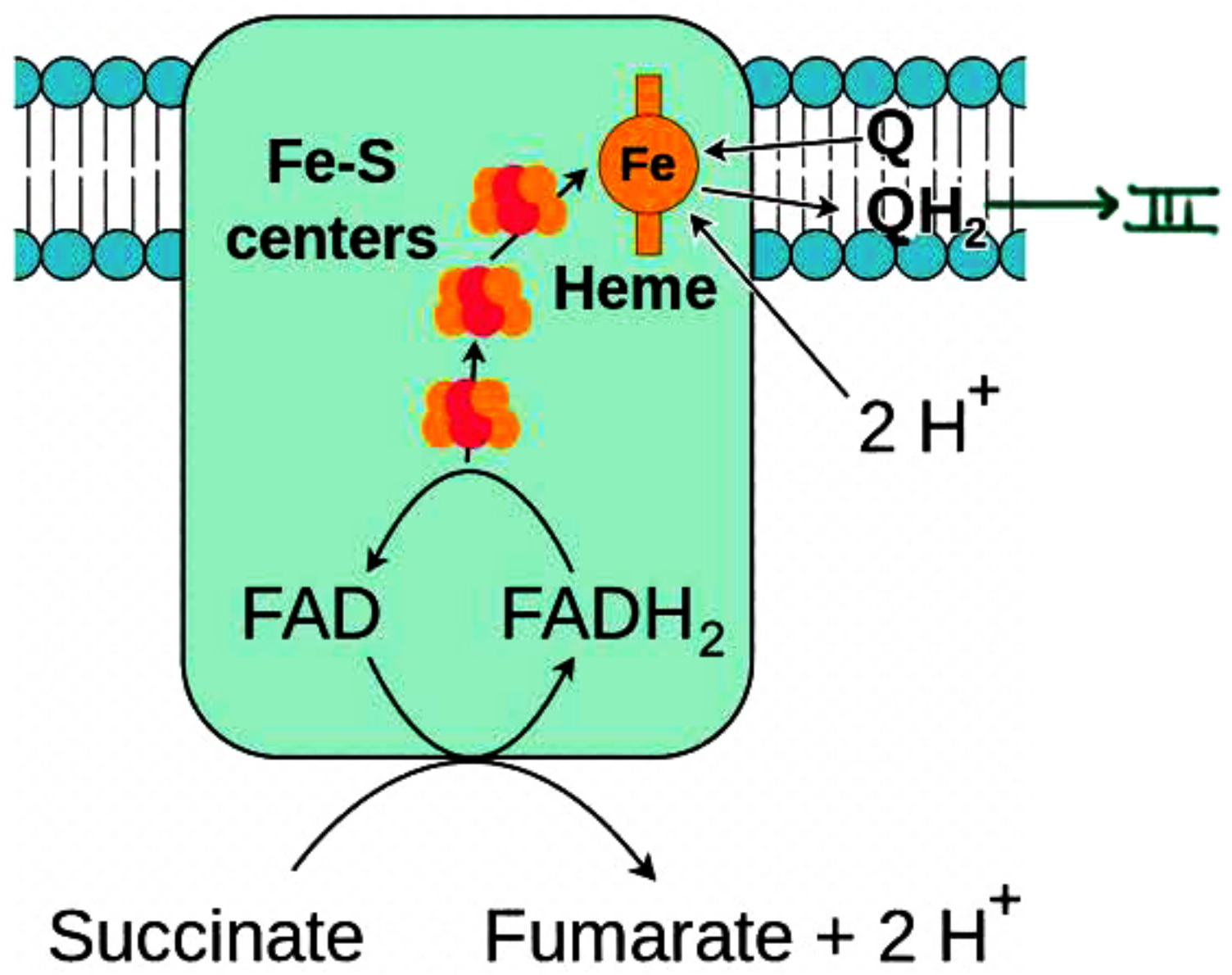
FAD

FADH₂



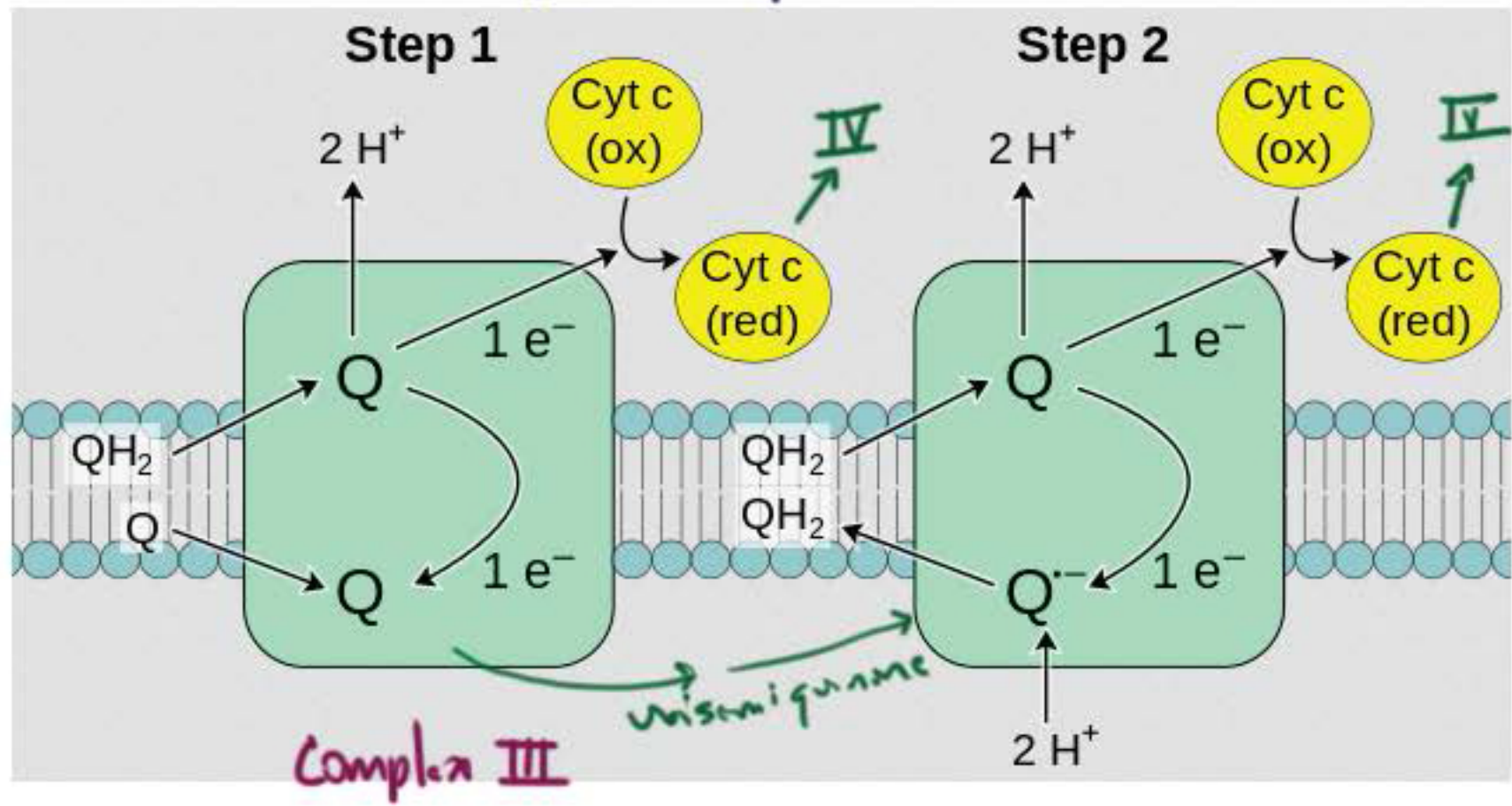
Two alternative proposed mechanisms for succinate dehydrogenase.





Complex II

Ubiquinone Cycle



- allows two extra protons to be pumped per ubiquinol

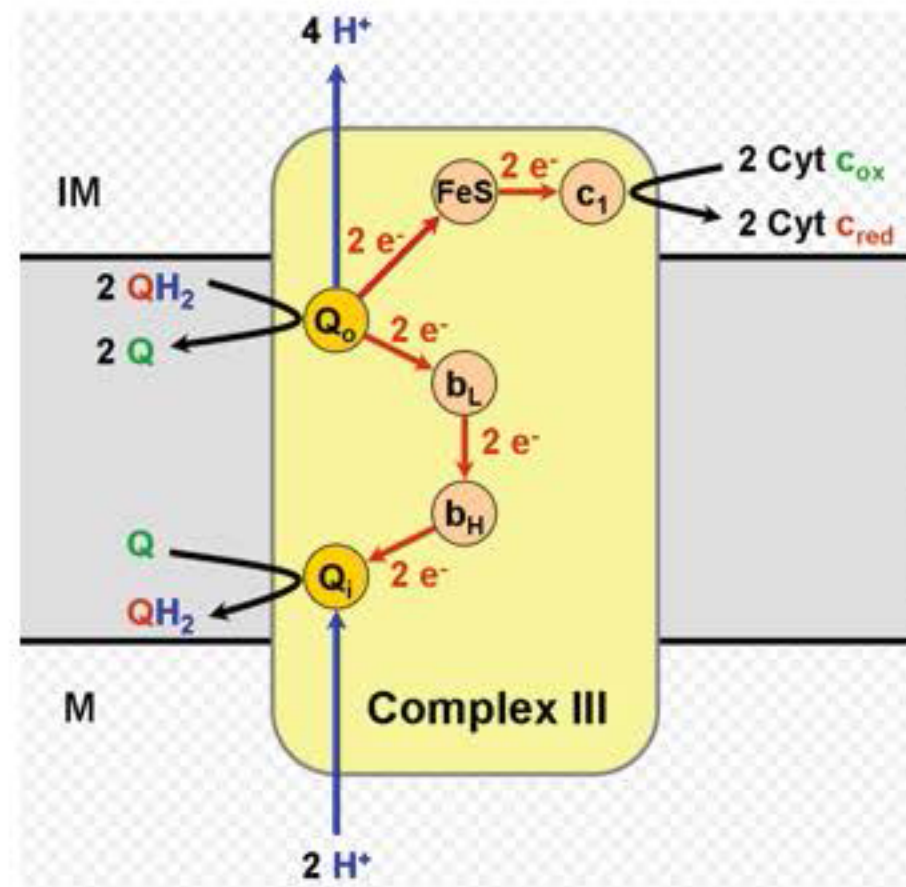
Round 1:

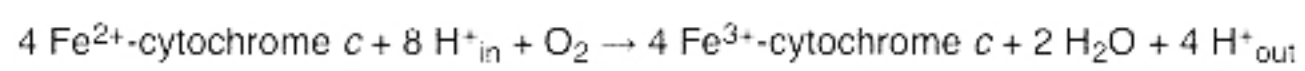
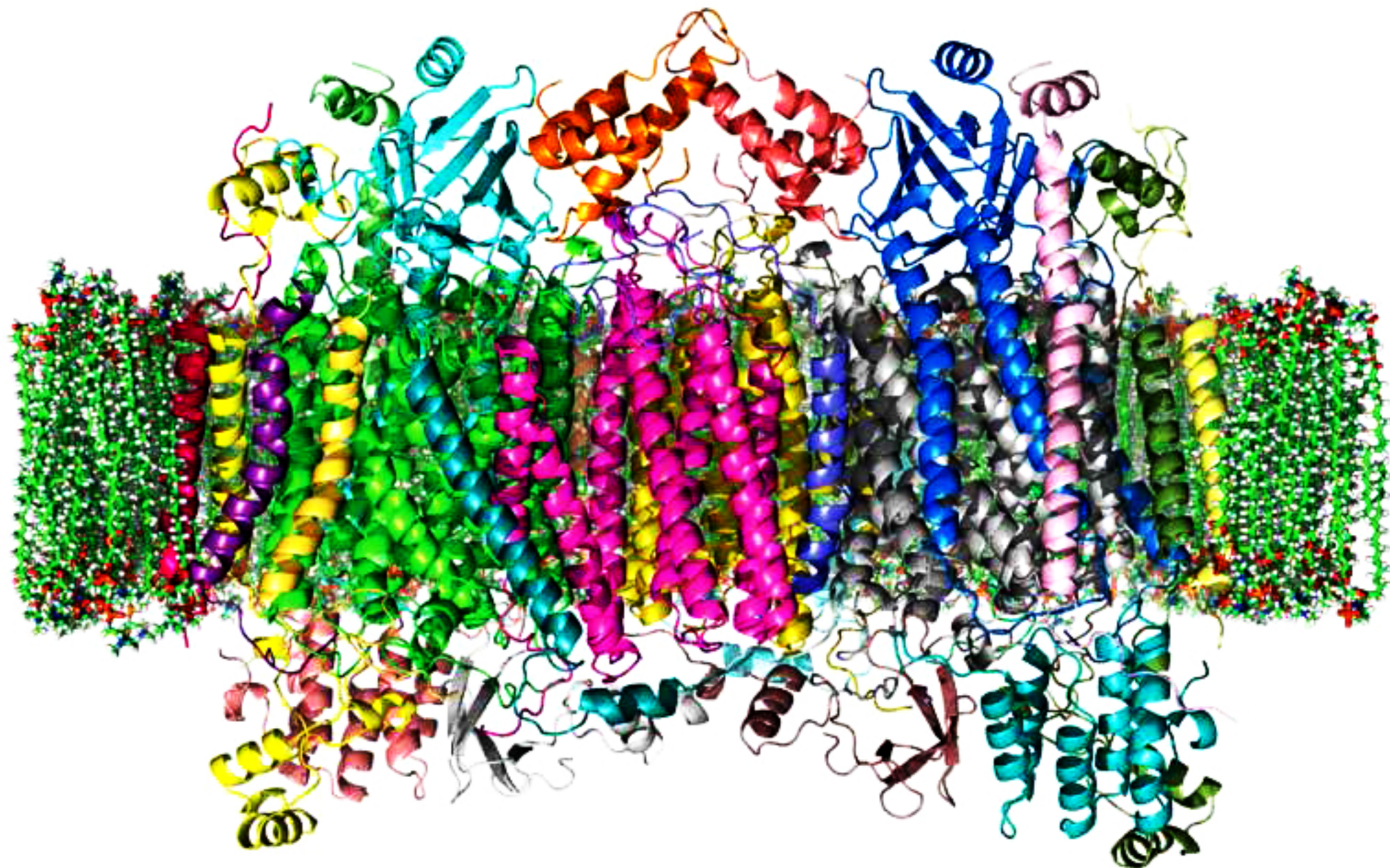
1. Cytochrome b binds a ubiquinol and a ubiquinone.
2. The 2Fe/2S center and B_L heme each pull an electron off the bound ubiquinol, releasing two hydrogens into the intermembrane space.
3. One electron is transferred to cytochrome c₁ from the 2Fe/2S centre, while another is transferred from the B_L heme to the B_H Heme.
4. Cytochrome c₁ transfers its electron to cytochrome c (not to be confused with cytochrome c₁), and the B_H Heme transfers its electron to a nearby ubiquinone, resulting in the formation of a ubisemiquinone.
5. Cytochrome c diffuses. The first ubiquinol (now oxidized to ubiquinone) is released, whilst the semiquinone remains bound.

Round 2:

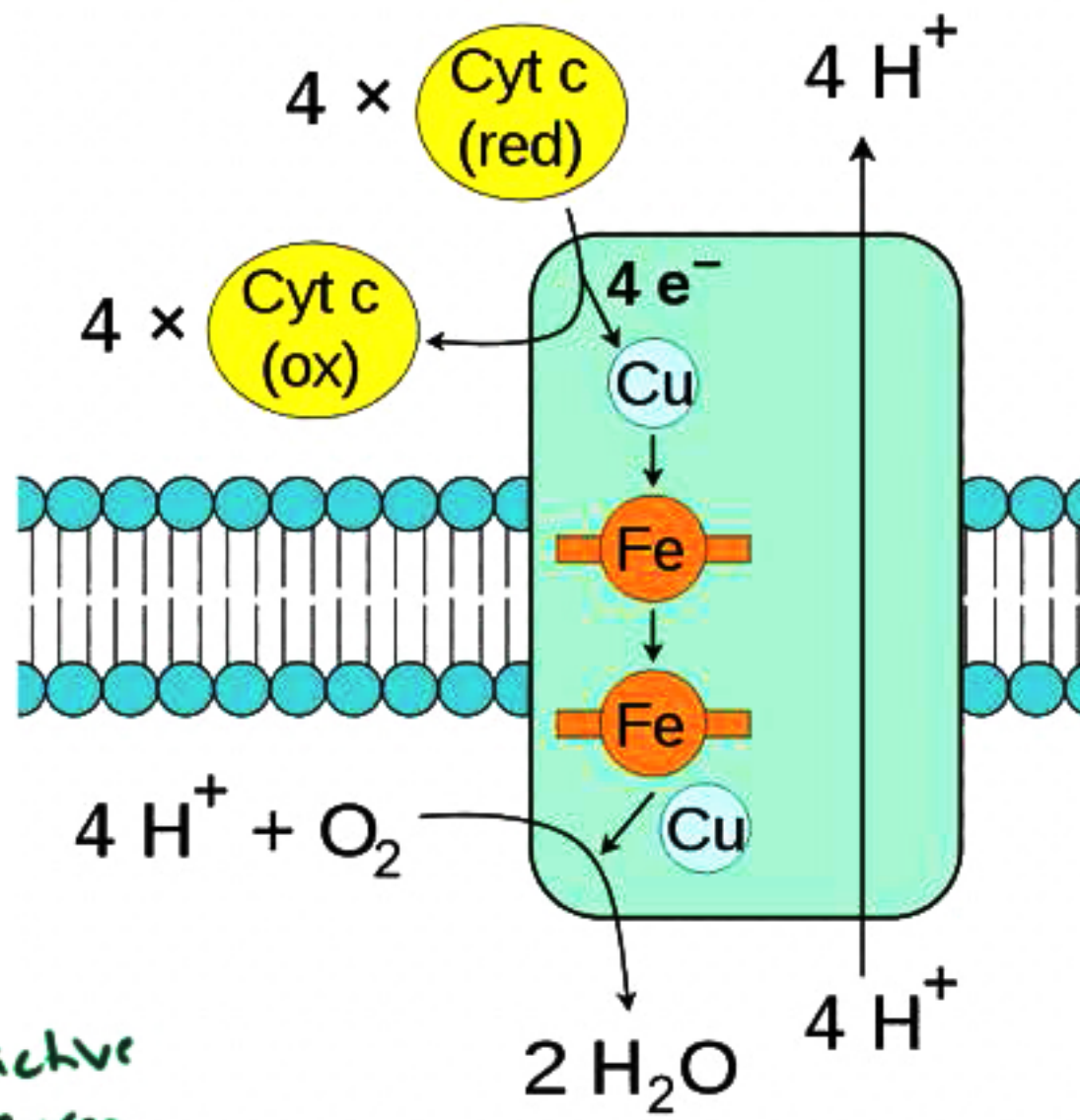
1. A second ubiquinol is bound by cytochrome b.
2. The 2Fe/2S center and B_L heme each pull an electron off the bound ubiquinol, releasing two hydrogens into the intermembrane space.
3. One electron is transferred to cytochrome c₁ from the 2Fe/2S centre, whilst another is transferred from the B_L heme to the B_H Heme.
4. Cytochrome c₁ then transfers its electron to cytochrome c, while the nearby semiquinone picks up a second electron from the B_H heme, along with two protons from the matrix.
5. The second ubiquinol (now oxidised to ubiquinone), along with the newly formed ubiquinol are released.

Supplemental reading



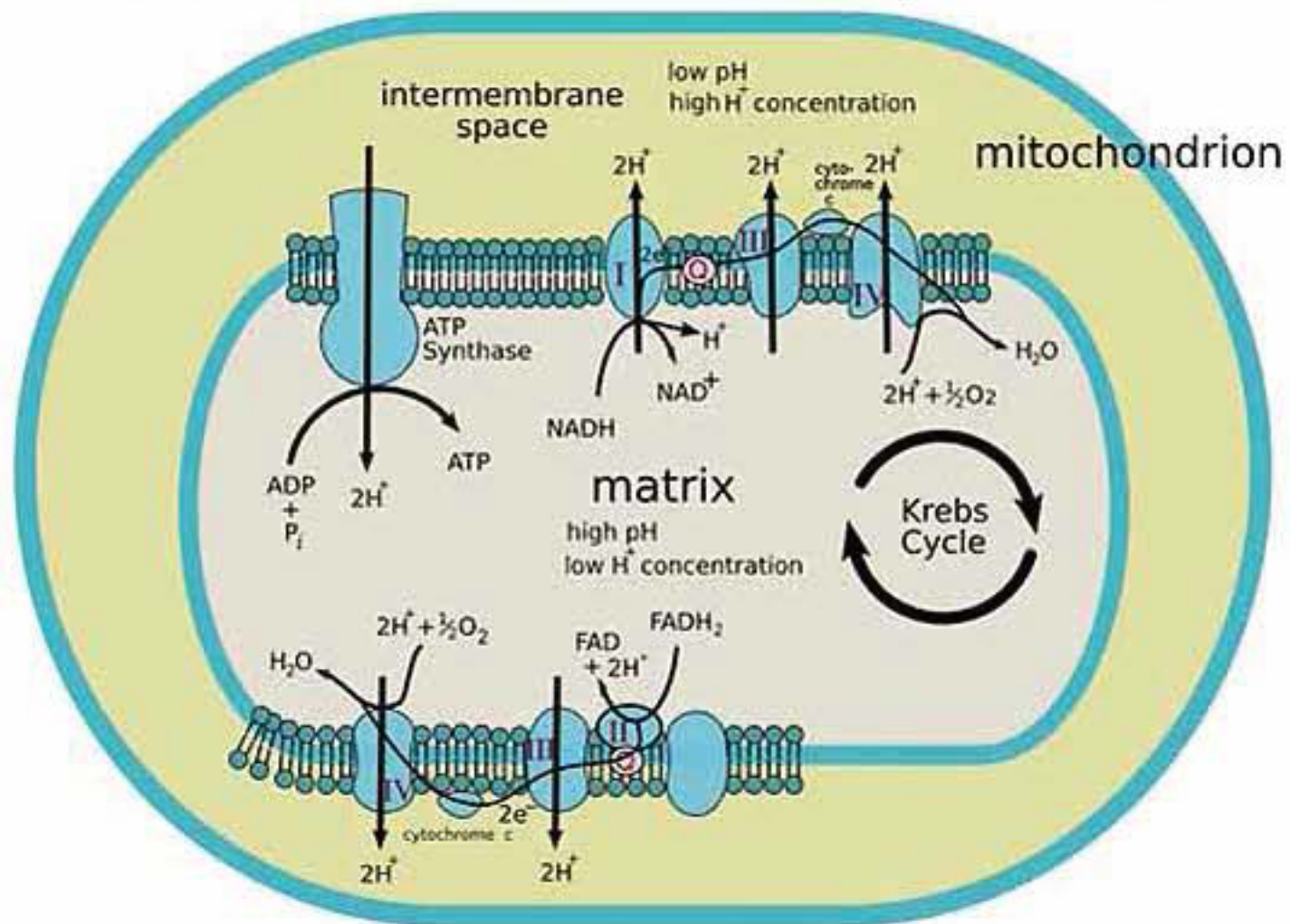


Complex IV

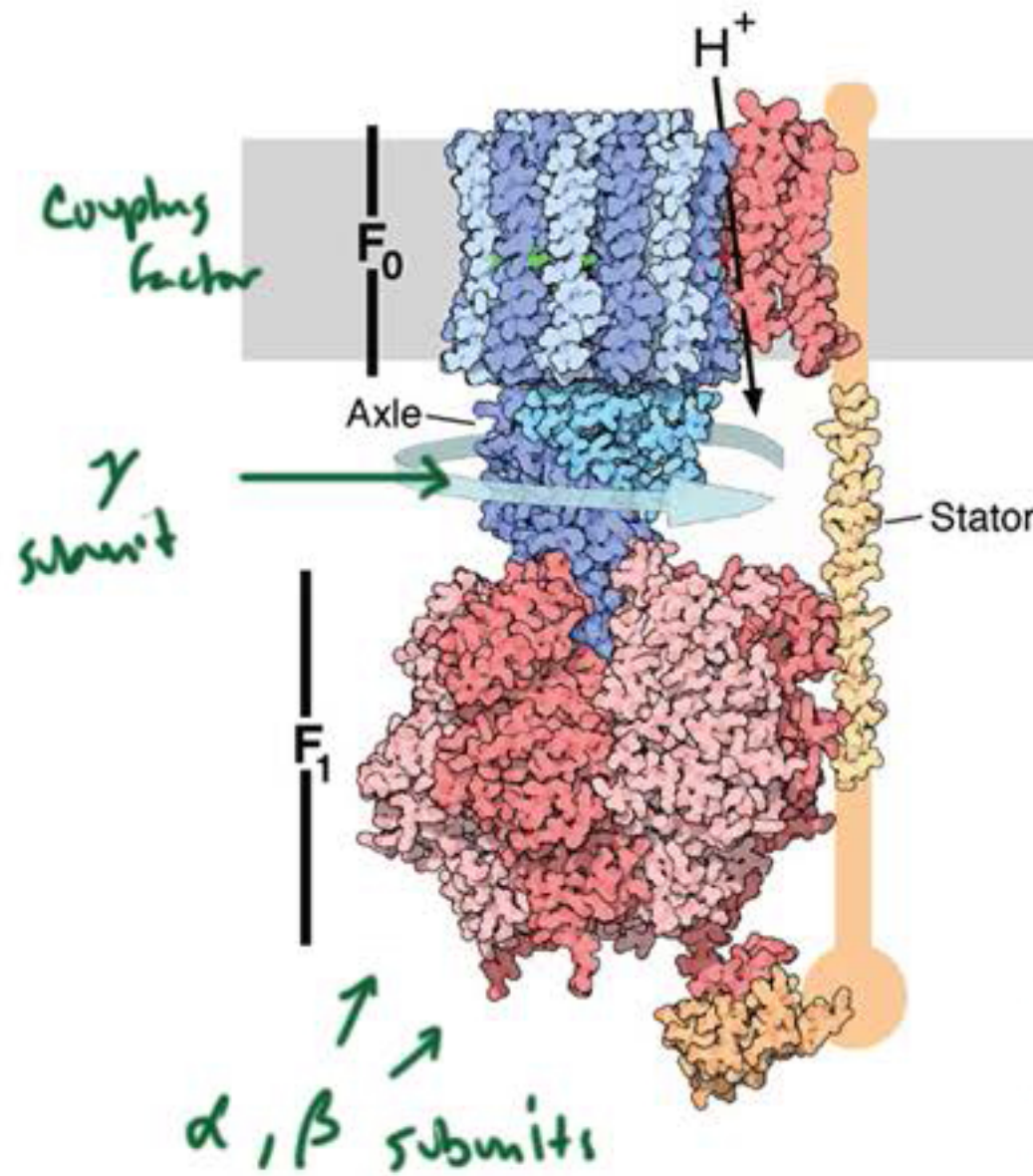


Reactive
oxygen
species
may form here
R.O.S.

Mitochondrial Electron Transport Chain

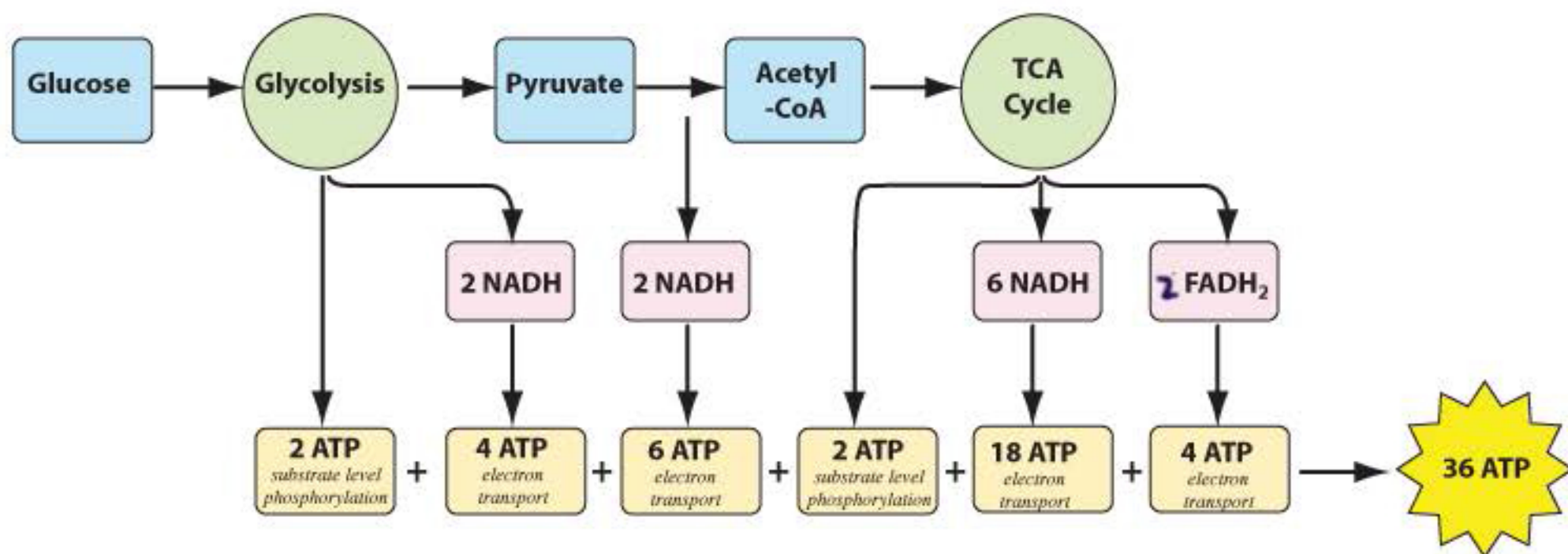


ATP Synthase



β subunits undergo conformational changes

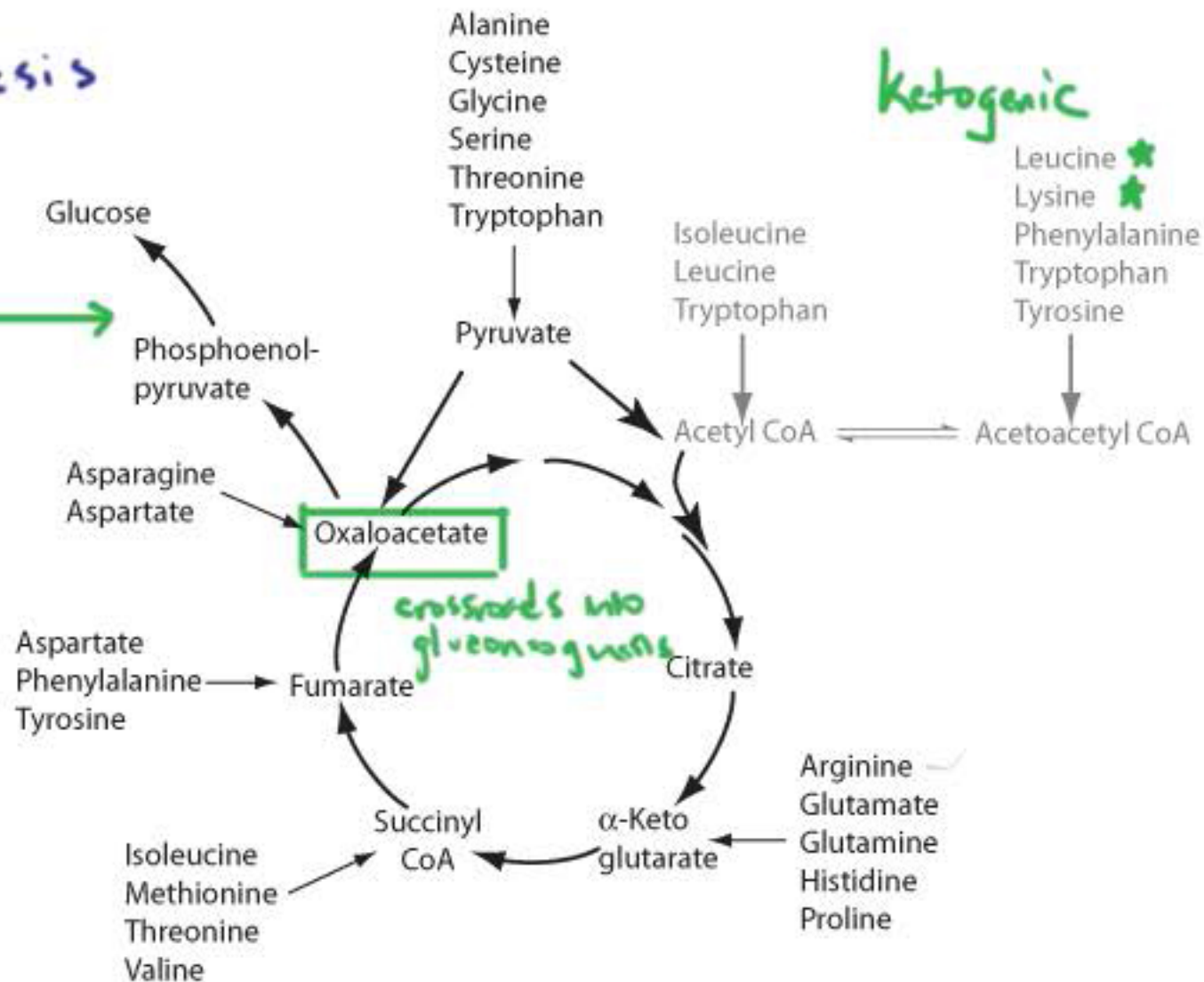
- 1) open - ADP & P_i to enter
- 2) loose - binds loosely
- 3) tight - forms ATP



Glucogenesis

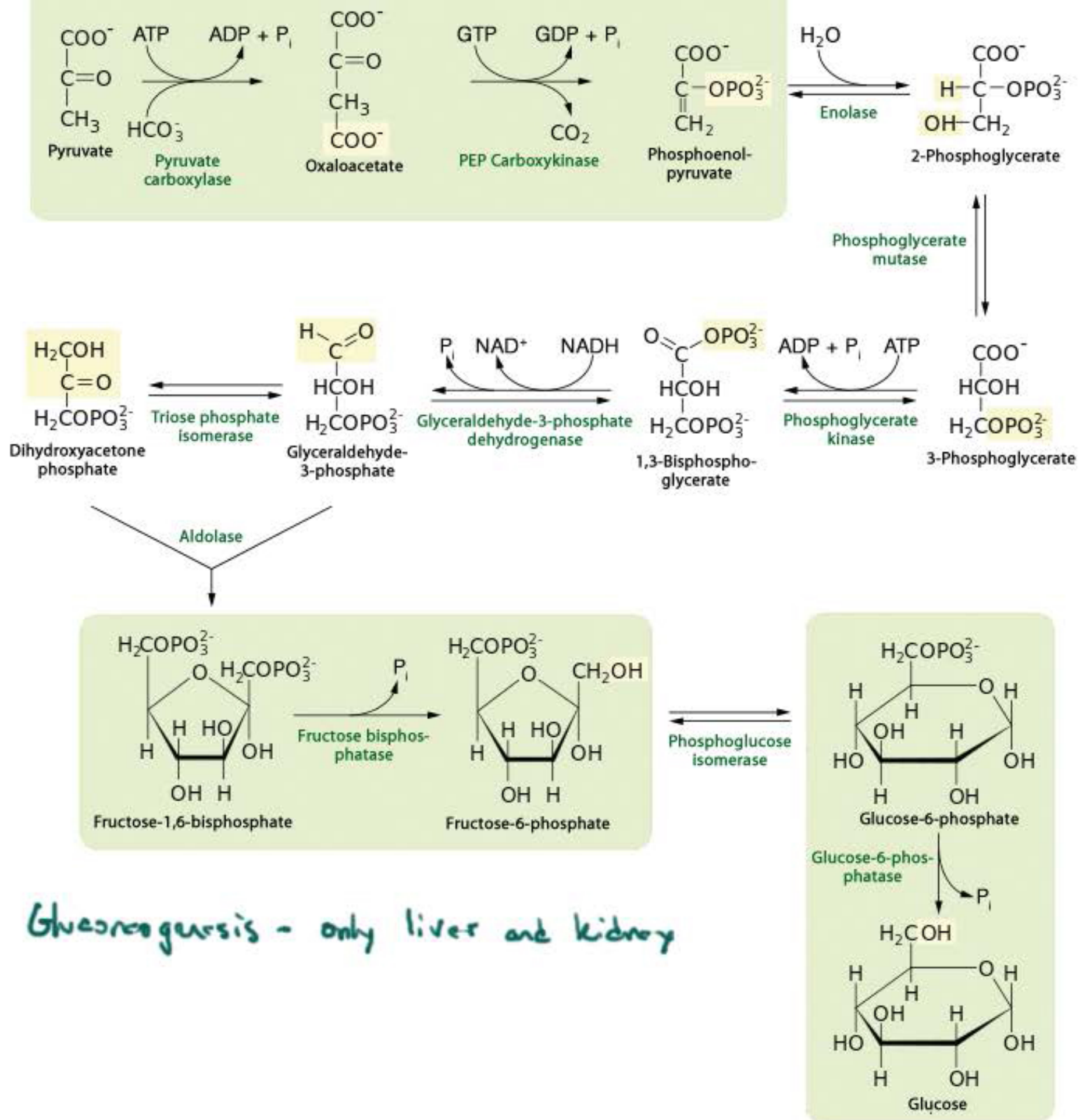
glucogenesis →

Ketogenic



most important precursors

- amino acids
- lactate
- glycerol

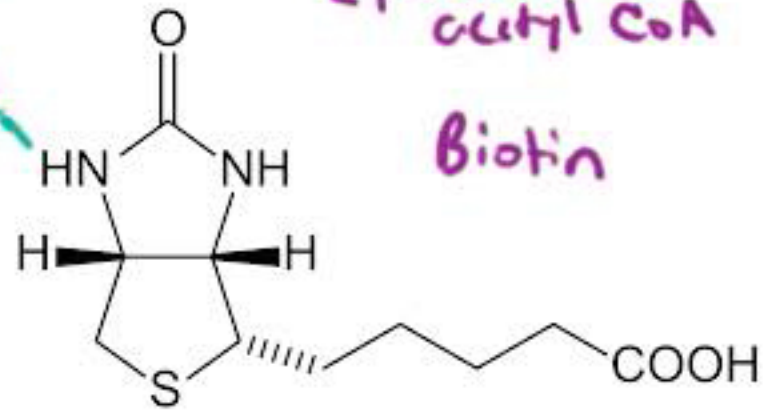
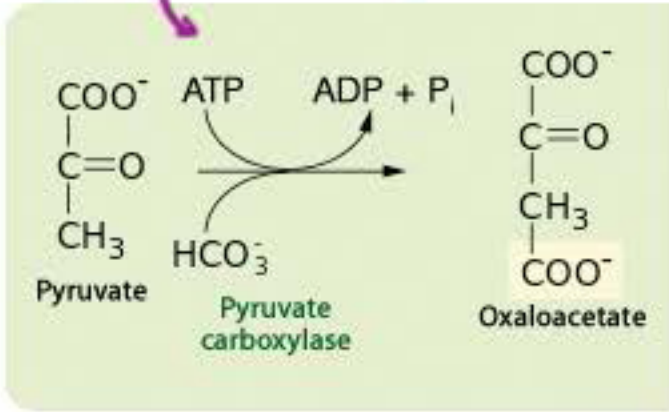


Gluconeogenesis - only liver and kidney

ATP activates biotin

Pyruvate Carboxylase

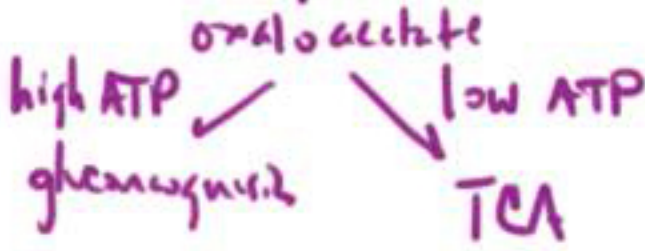
[enzyme activated by presence of acetyl CoA]



Biotin

pyruvate
↓ (presence of acetyl CoA)

Biotin carries activated CO_2



tangent benchtop application of biotin

(Note - remember biotinylation for affinity chromatography with avidin beads)

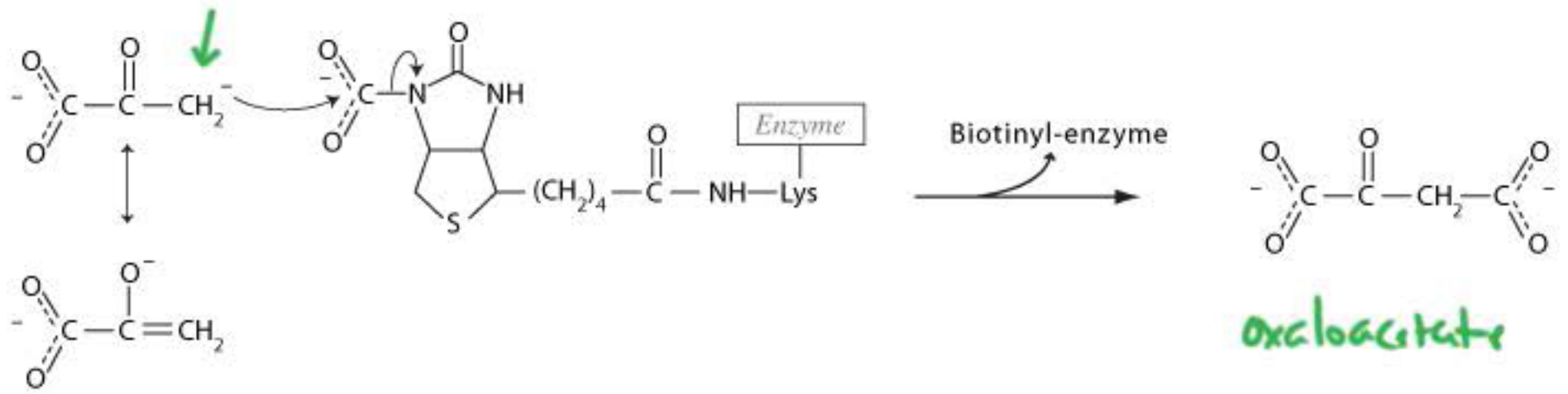
• in mitochondria

proton + substrate $\rightleftharpoons$ bound complex

$$K_a = \frac{[\text{bound}]}{[\text{proton}][\text{substrate}]}$$

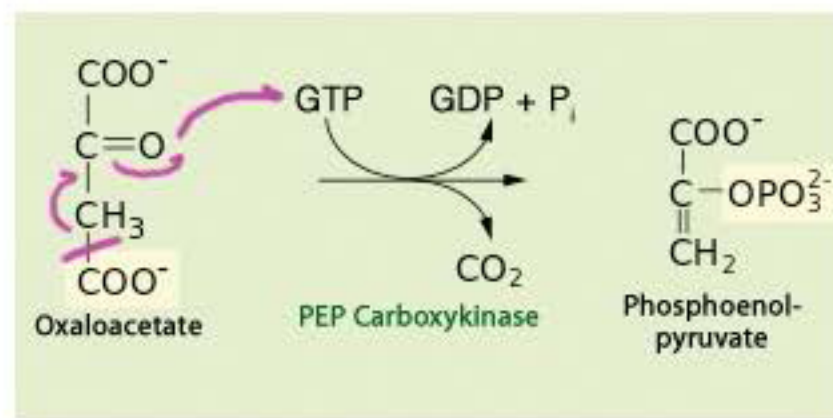
Pyruvate Carboxylase

nucleophilic



enolate of
pyruvate

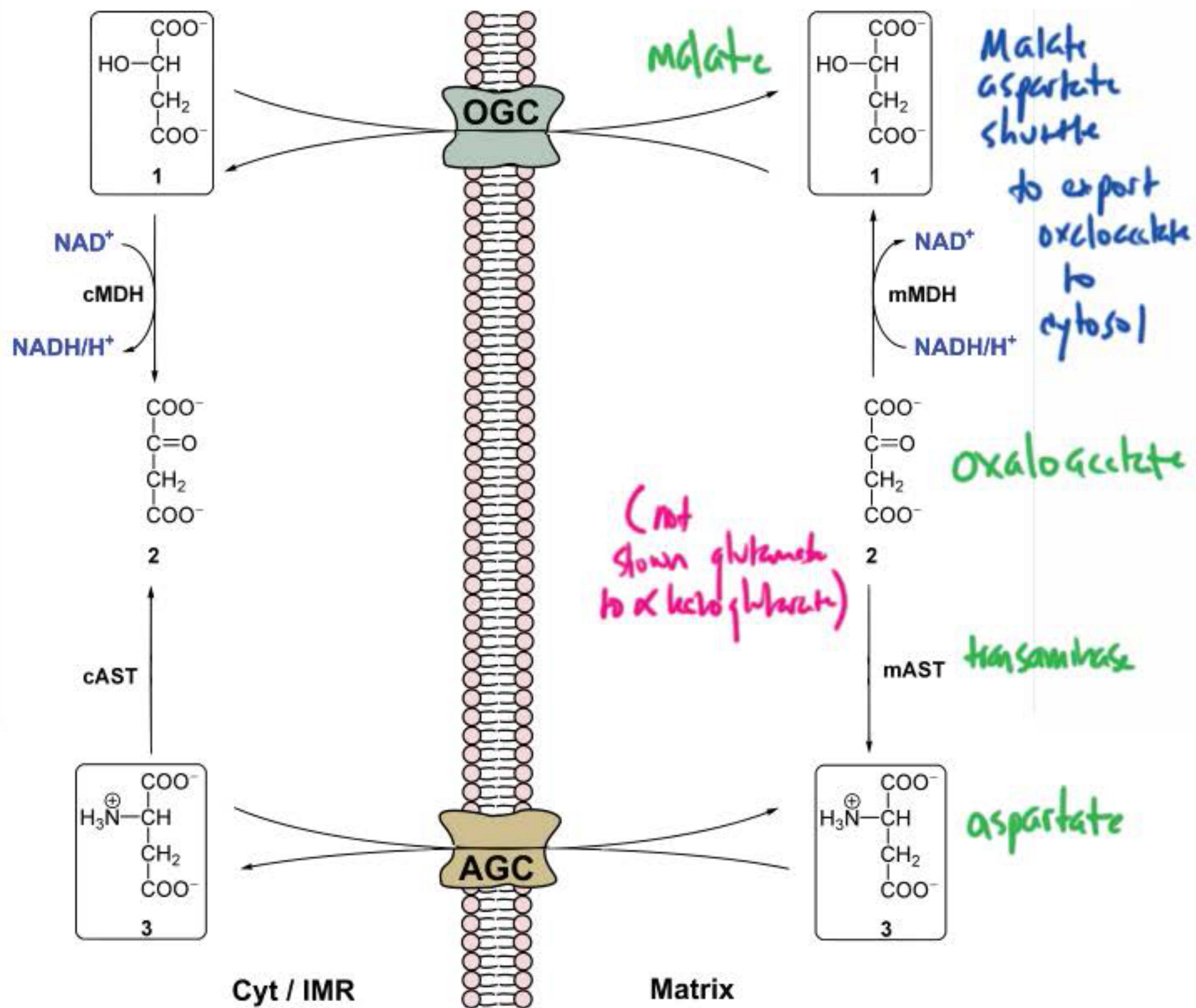
oxaloacetate

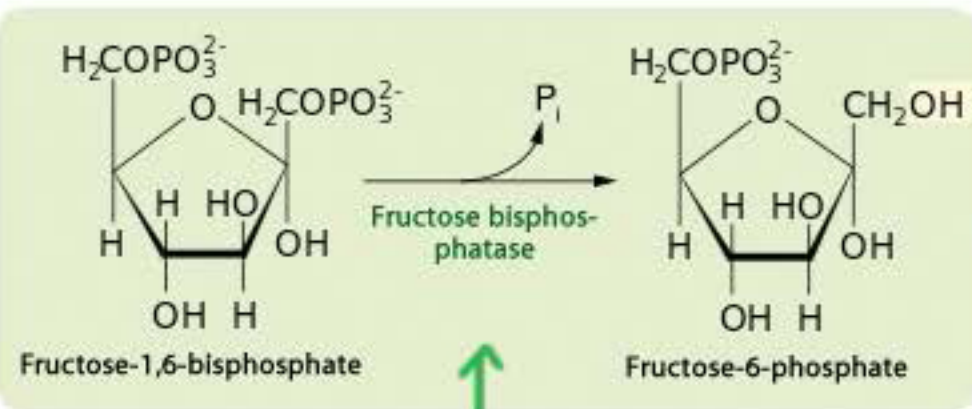


PEP-CK reaction may happen in either the cytosol or the mitochondrion, actually. It depends on the gluconeogenic precursor. If lactate is the precursor, PEP-CK happens in the mitochondrion. This is because lactate to pyruvate will generate the NADH gluconeogenesis needs later, so there is no need to move one to the cytosol. If the precursor is glycerol or an amino acid, on the other hand, the NADH (equivalent) is carried out to the cytosol before PEP-CK with the oxaloacetate being transported out as malate. This is just on the edge of the MCAT knowledge, probably.

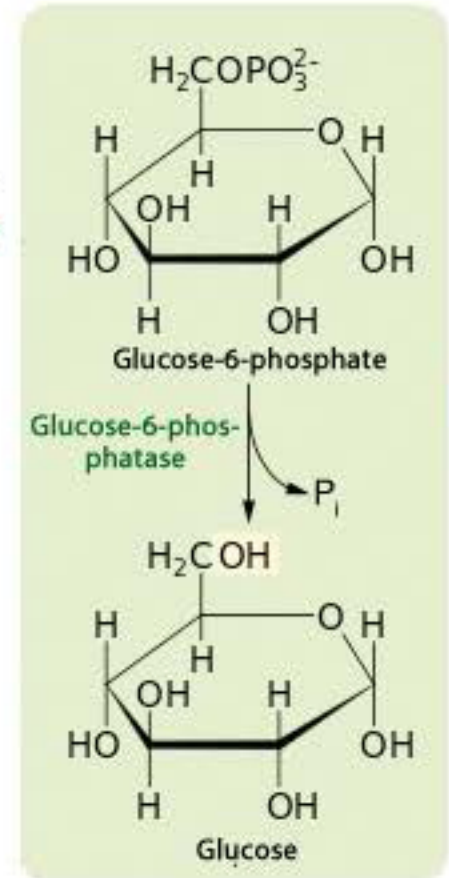
In cytosol

- PKA activates transcription factor



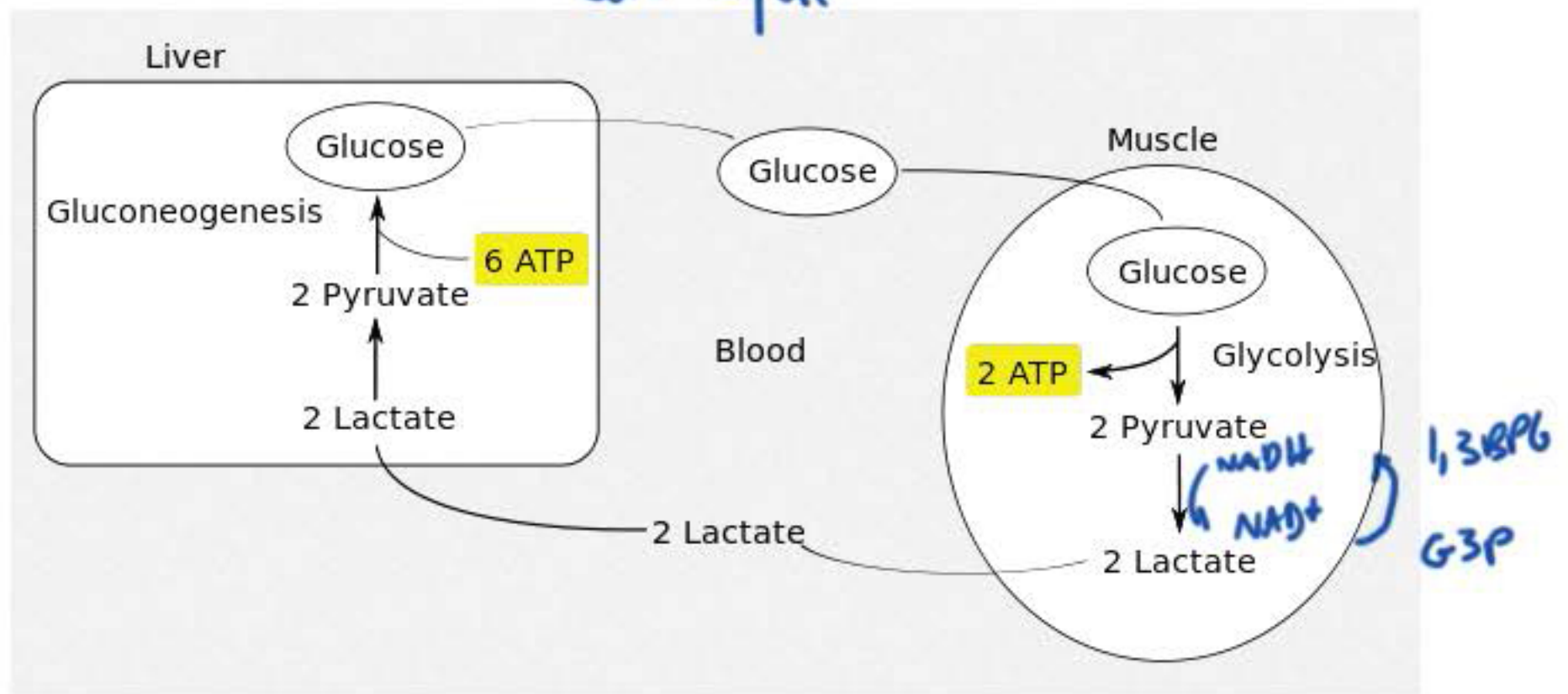


↑
reciprocally
regulated with
PFK I

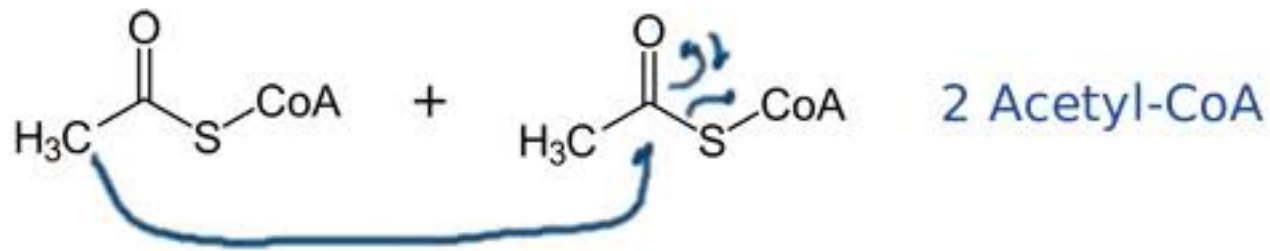


liver
and
kidney

Cori Cycle

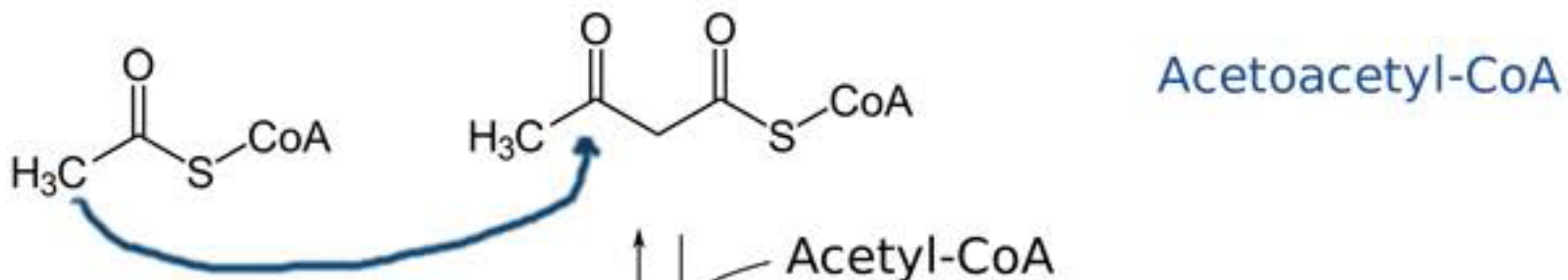
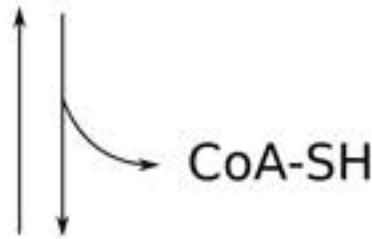


ketosis



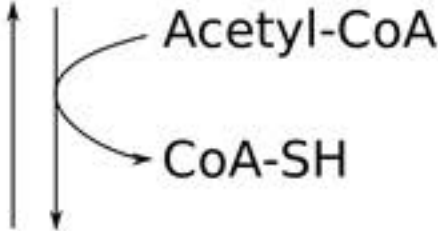
Thiolase

Claisen condensation

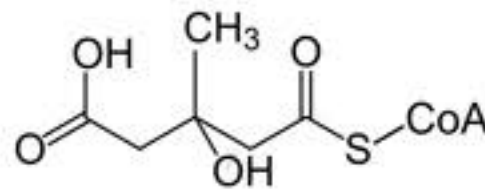


HMG-CoA synthase

Aldol addition

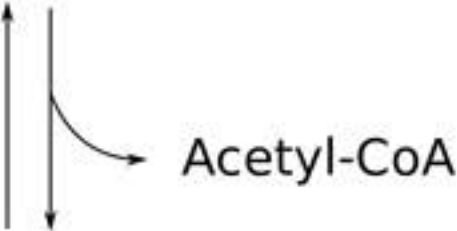


followed by
hydrolysis
of CoA



β -hydroxy- β -methylglutaryl-CoA
(HMG-CoA)

HMG-CoA lyase

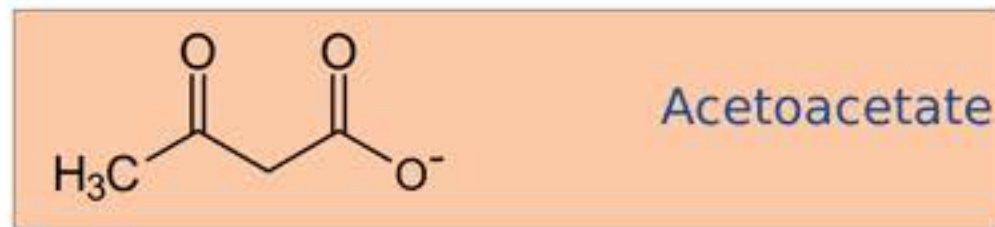


ketone
bodies

mevalonate

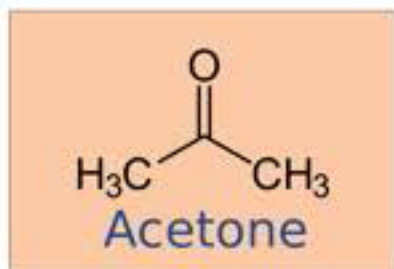
isopentenyl
pyrophosphate

isoprenoid
lipids



Non-enzymatic
decarboxylation

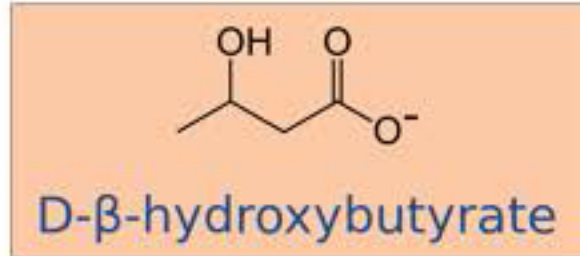
CO₂

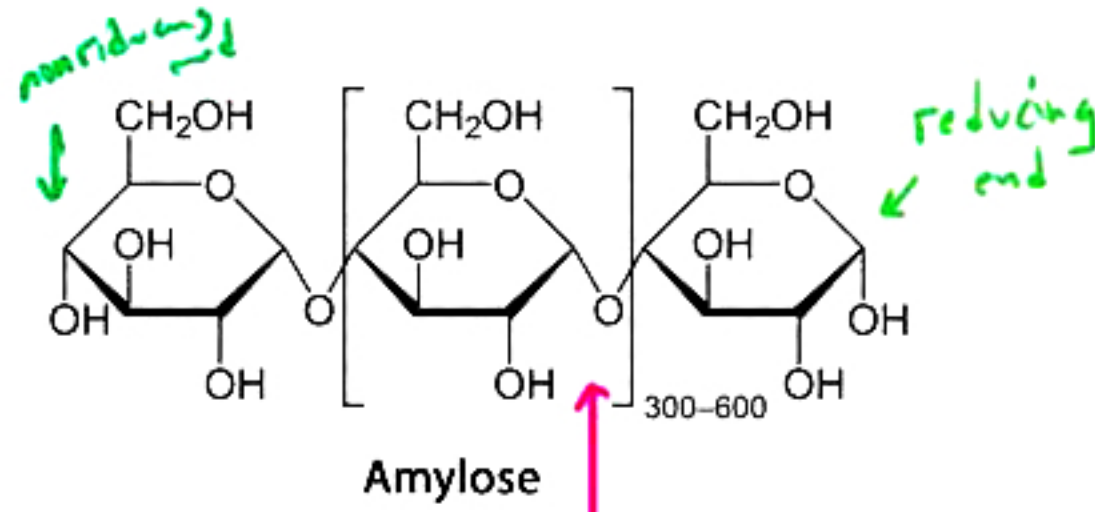


NADH + H⁺

NAD⁺

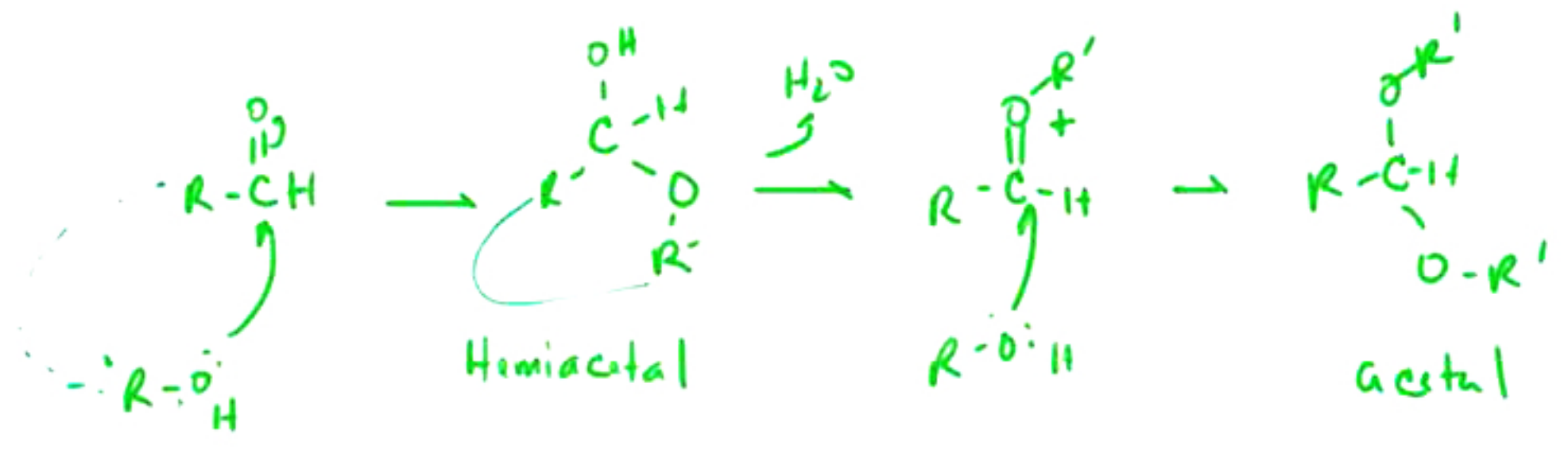
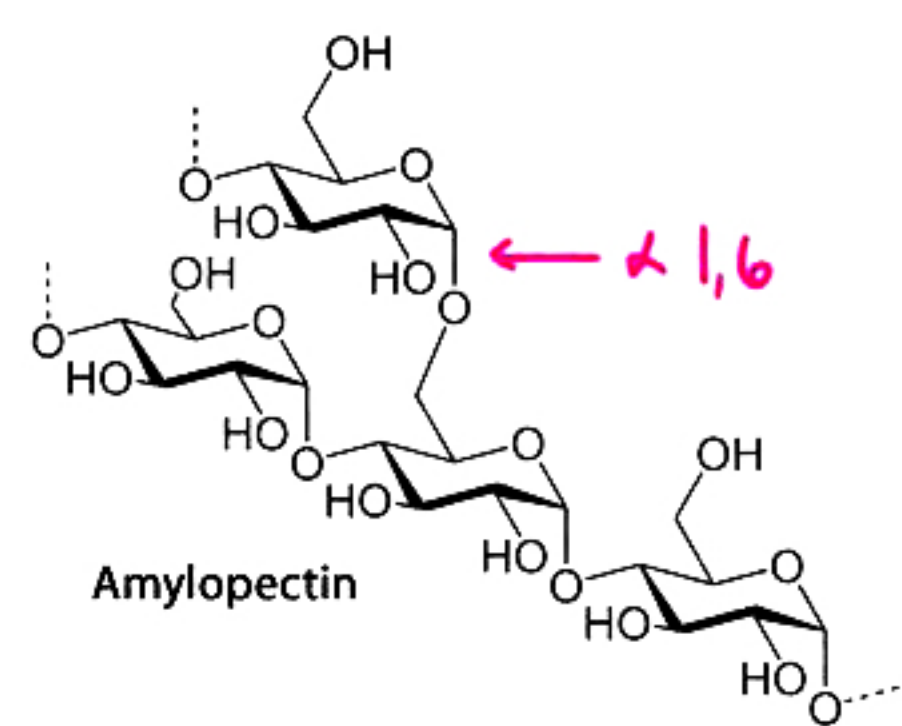
D- β -hydroxybutyrate
dehydrogenase



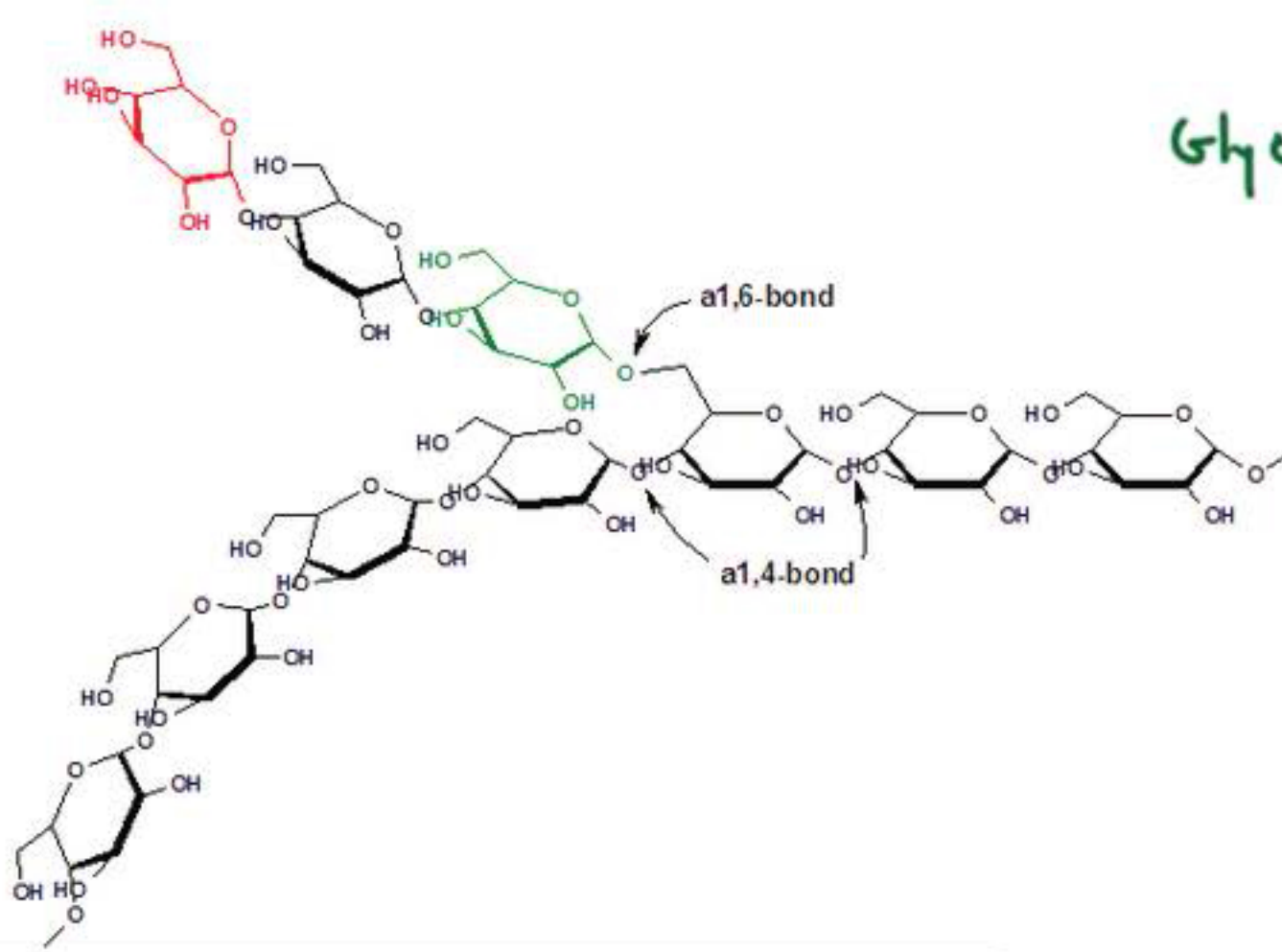


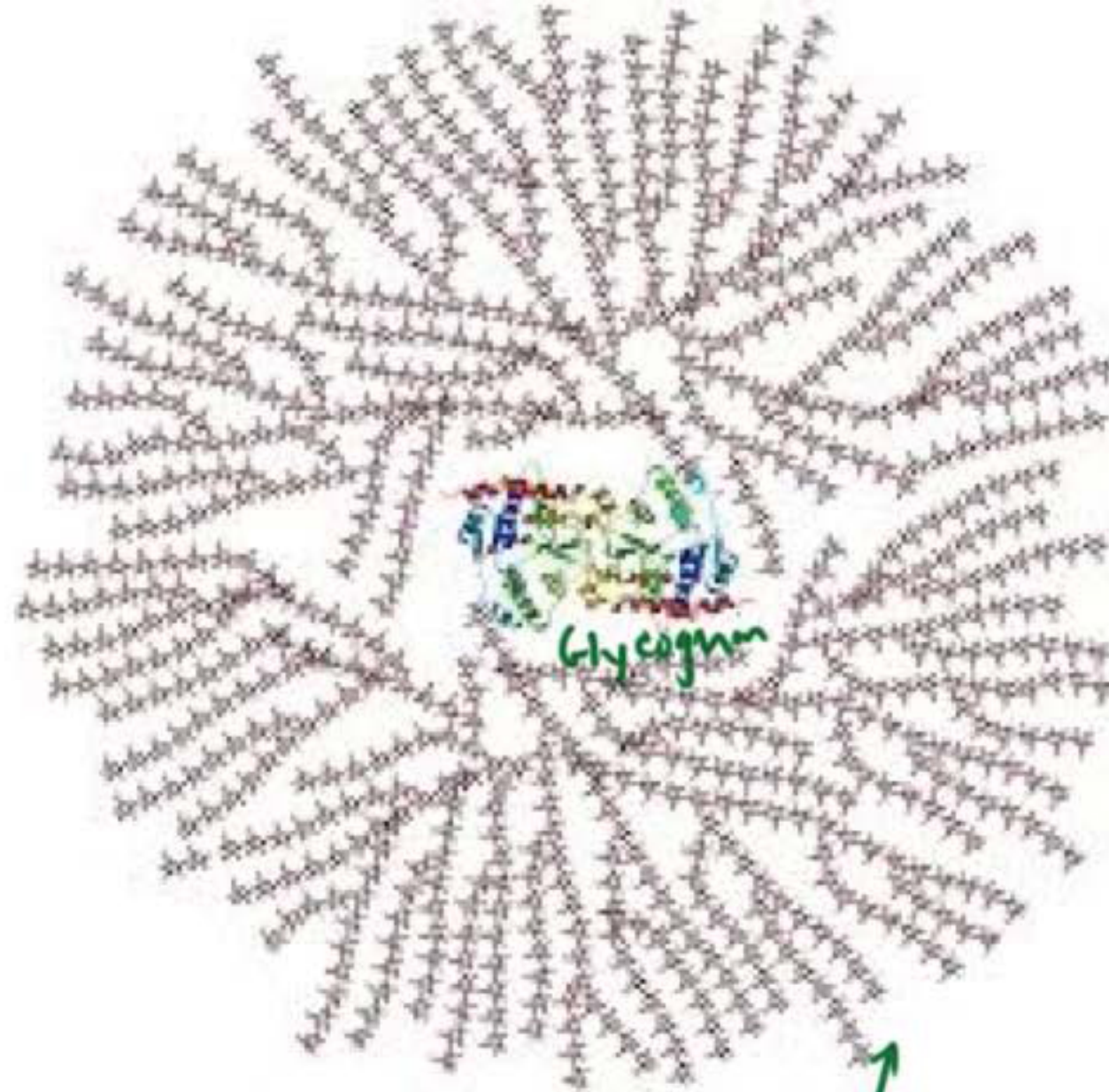
$\alpha 1,4$
like glycogen

plant starches



Glycogen

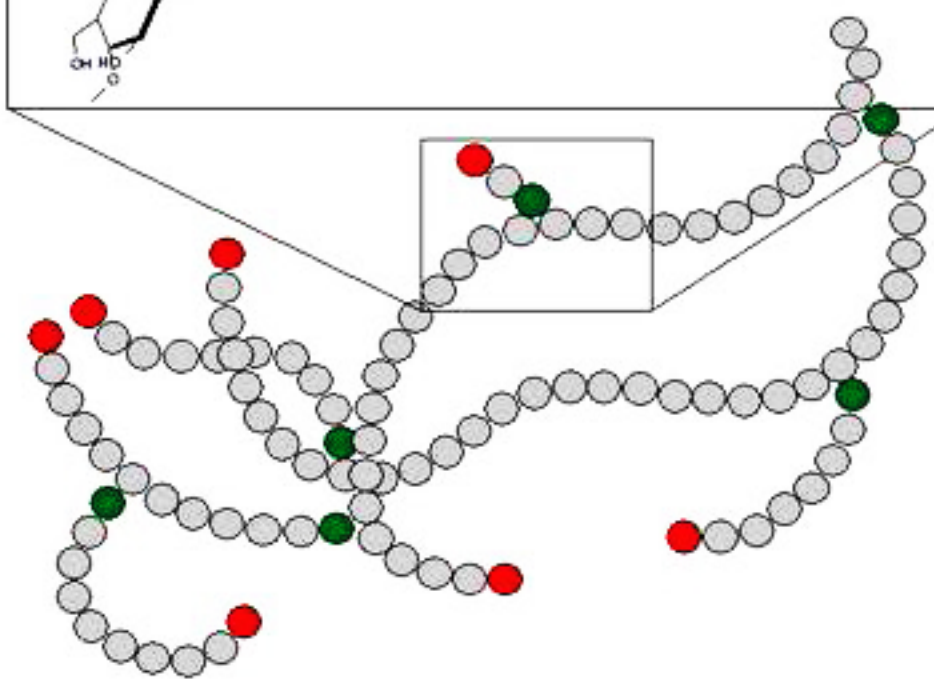
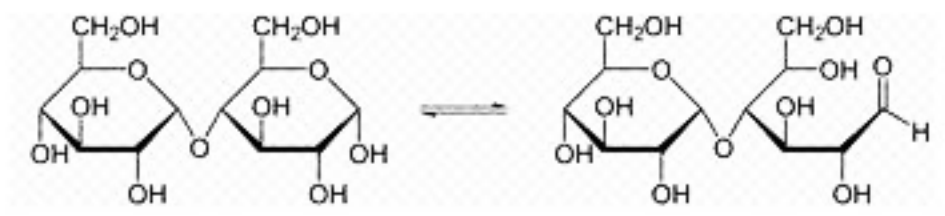
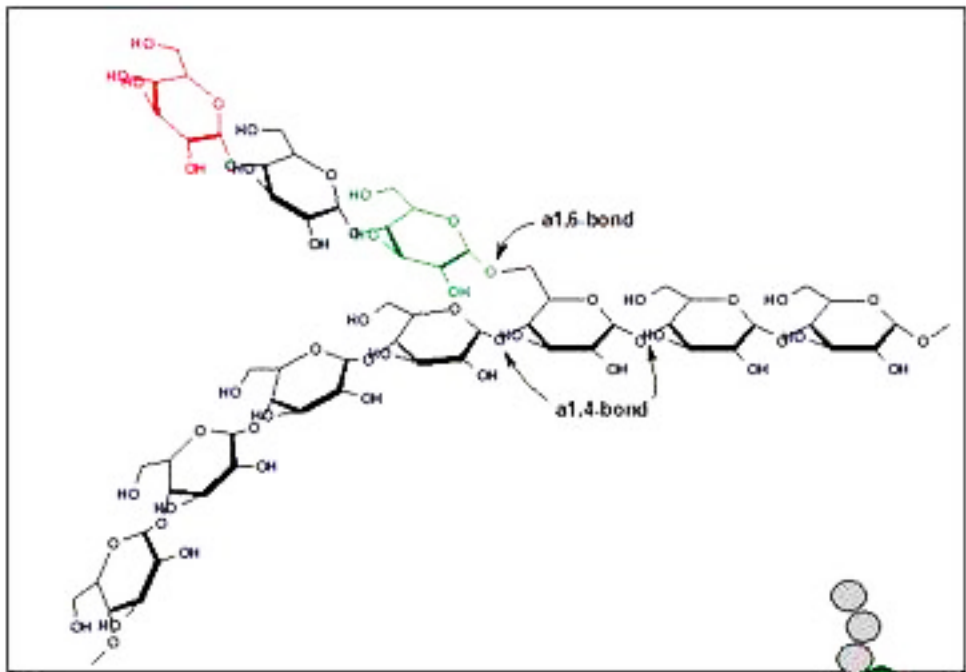


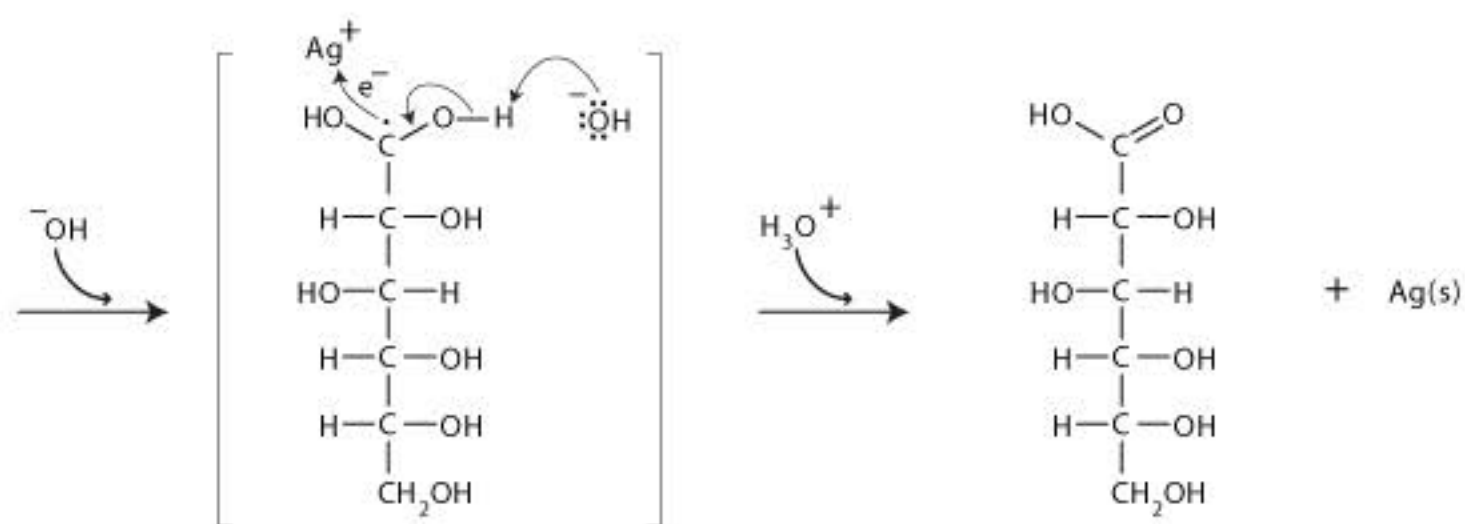
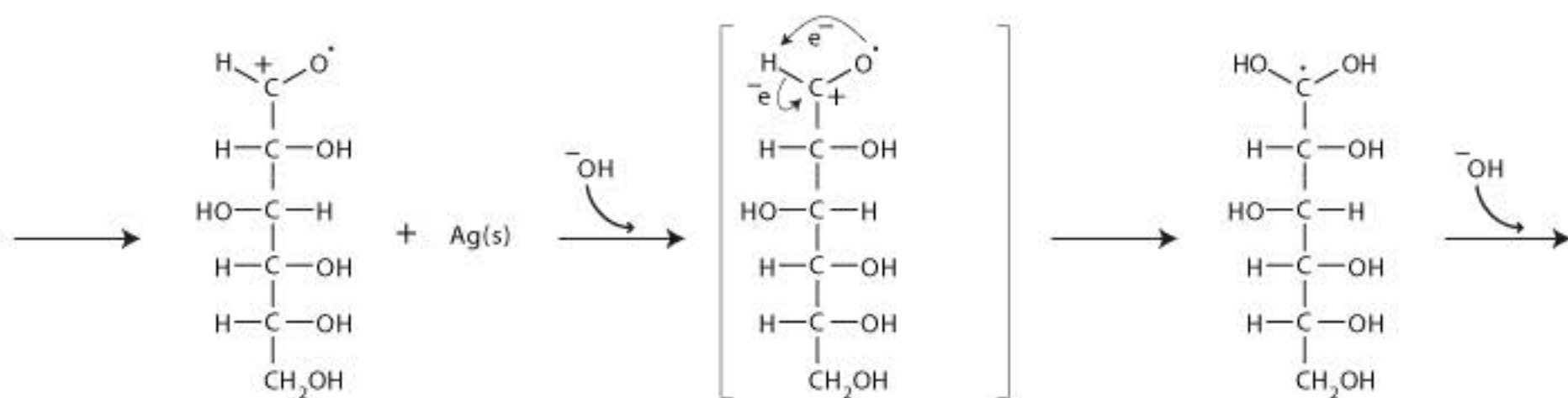
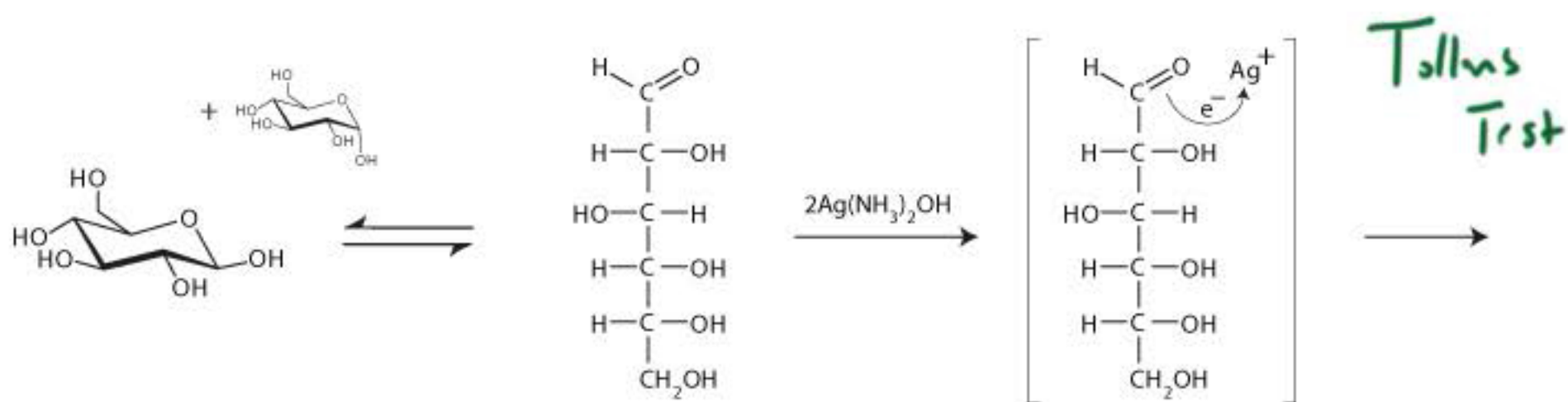


Liver
and
Muscle

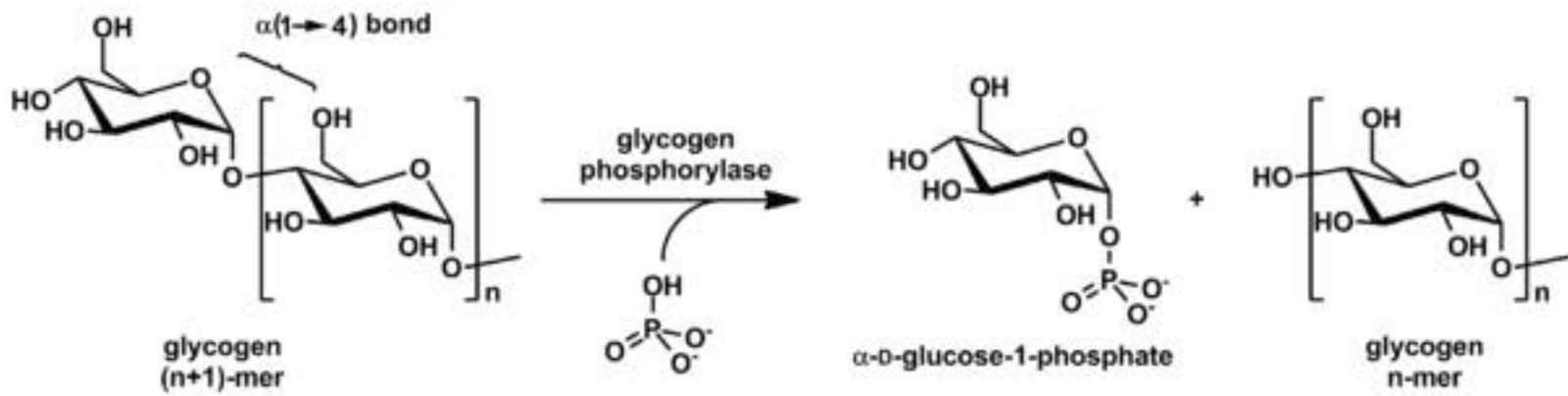
Glycogen

nonreducing
ends





Glycogen Phosphorylase (Multisubunit allosteric enzyme)



- also debranching enzyme and transfructose

$\ln X \leftarrow$ natural (base e) logarithm

$\log X \leftarrow$ common logarithm (base 10)

Glucose 1 Phosphate

phosphoglucomutase $\rightarrow$ glucose 6 phosphate
 glucose 6 phosphatase $\rightarrow$ glucose

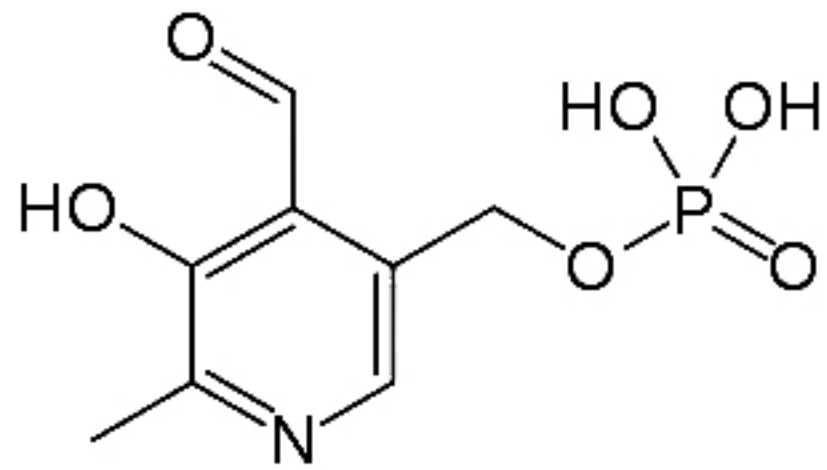
ΔG° is $\oplus$

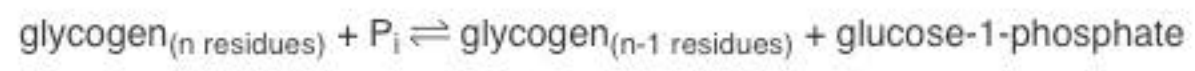
$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln Q$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + 2.3RT \log Q$$

at physiology $Q = \frac{[G1P]}{[Pi]} \sim \frac{1}{1000}$

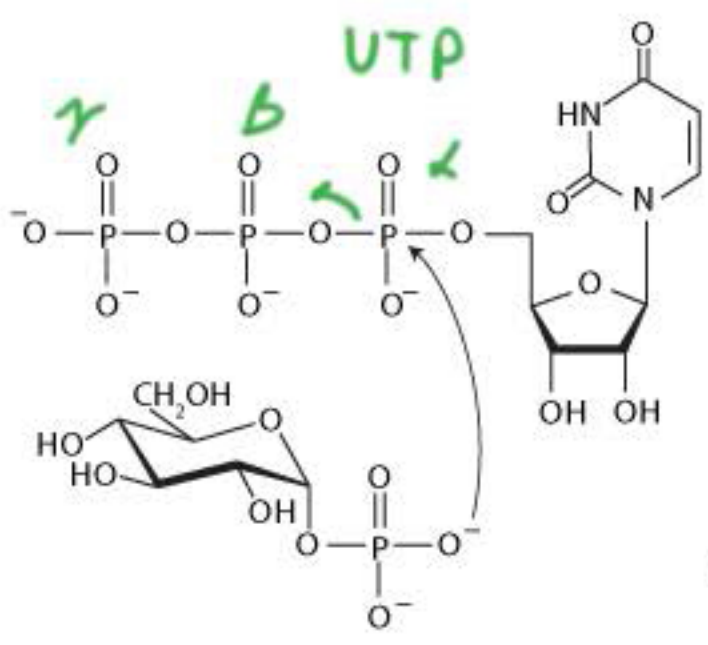
PLP





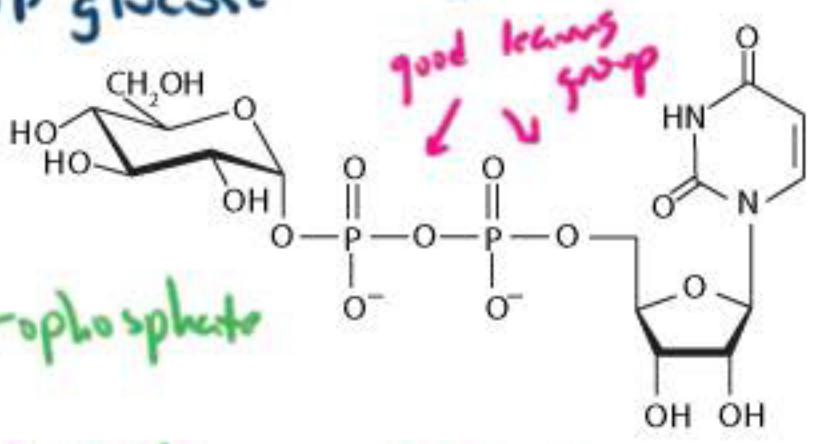
Glycogen Synthesis

starts with activation of glucose as UDP glucose



Glucose 1 phosphate
(Cori ester)

UDP-glucose
pyrophosphorylase



UDP glucose

PP_i

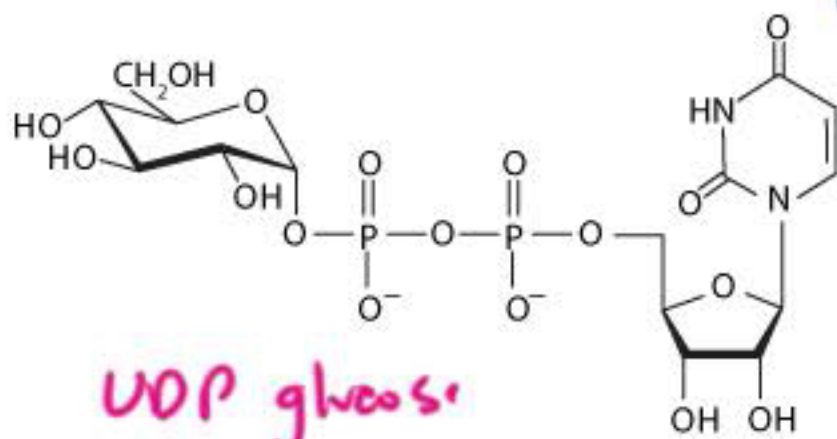
pyrophosphate

Inorganic
pyrophosphatase

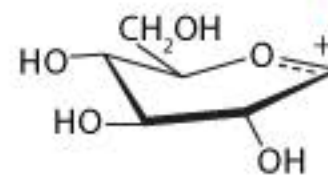
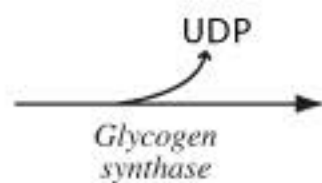
more -ΔG

2P_i

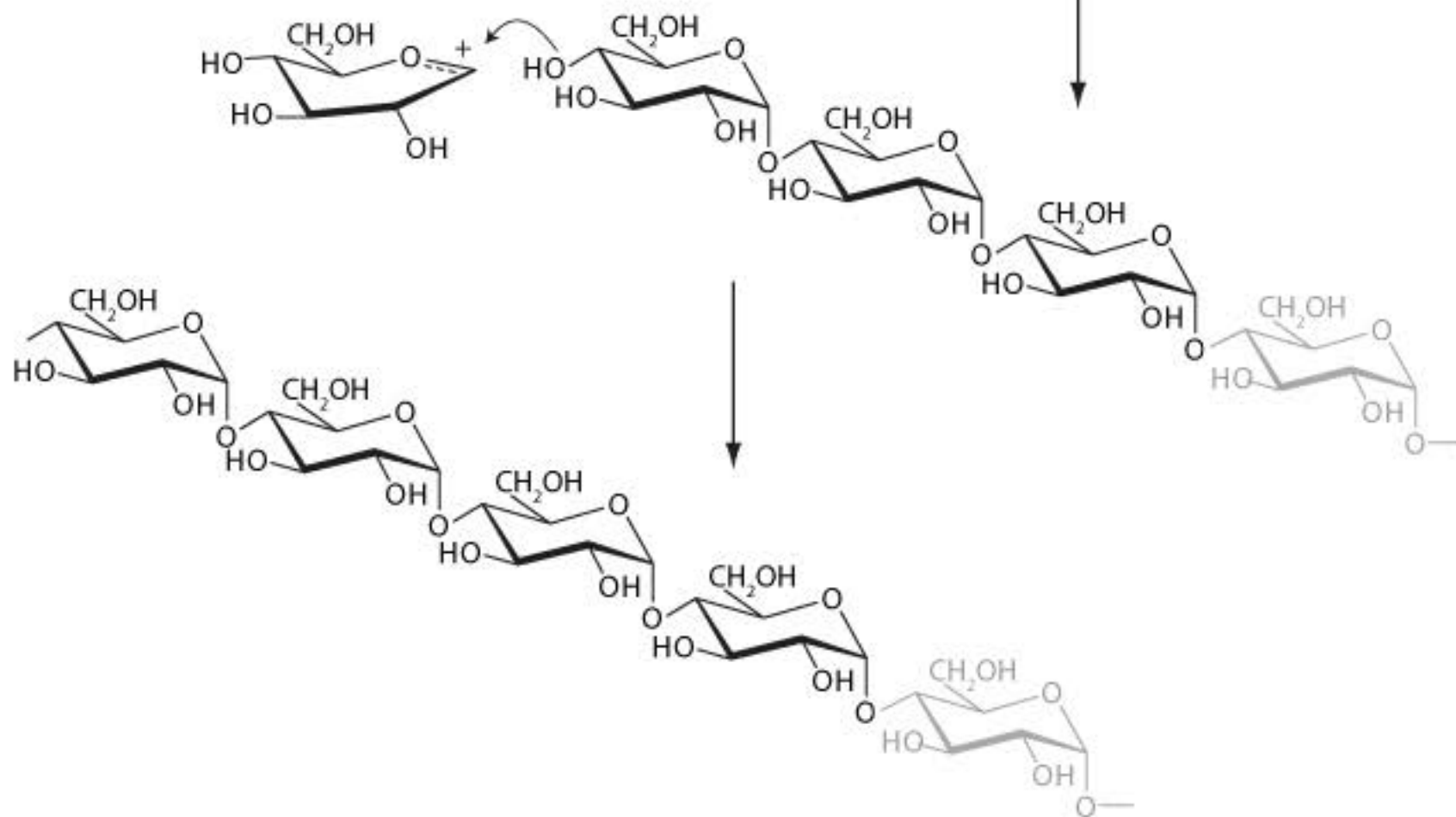
Glycogen Synthase



UDP glucose



oxonium
cation



Covalent modification by kinase

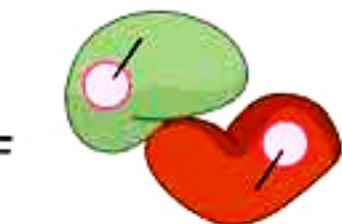
allosteric regulation

AMP ↑

GCP ↓

R State

OFF



T State

Really OFF

○ = active site
● = phosphorylation

phosphorylase kinase

2 ATP → 2 ADP

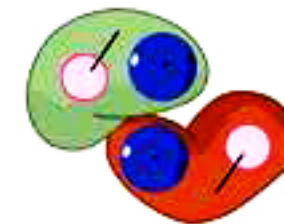
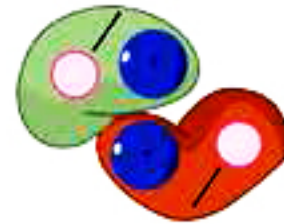
PP1

protein phosphatase

2 ATP → 2 ADP

PP1

Phosphorylase a



Really ON

ON

glucagon

GPCR

(g protein coupled receptor)



α subunit activates adenylyl cyclase

2nd messenger

cAMP

transcription factor for PEP carboxylase ↑

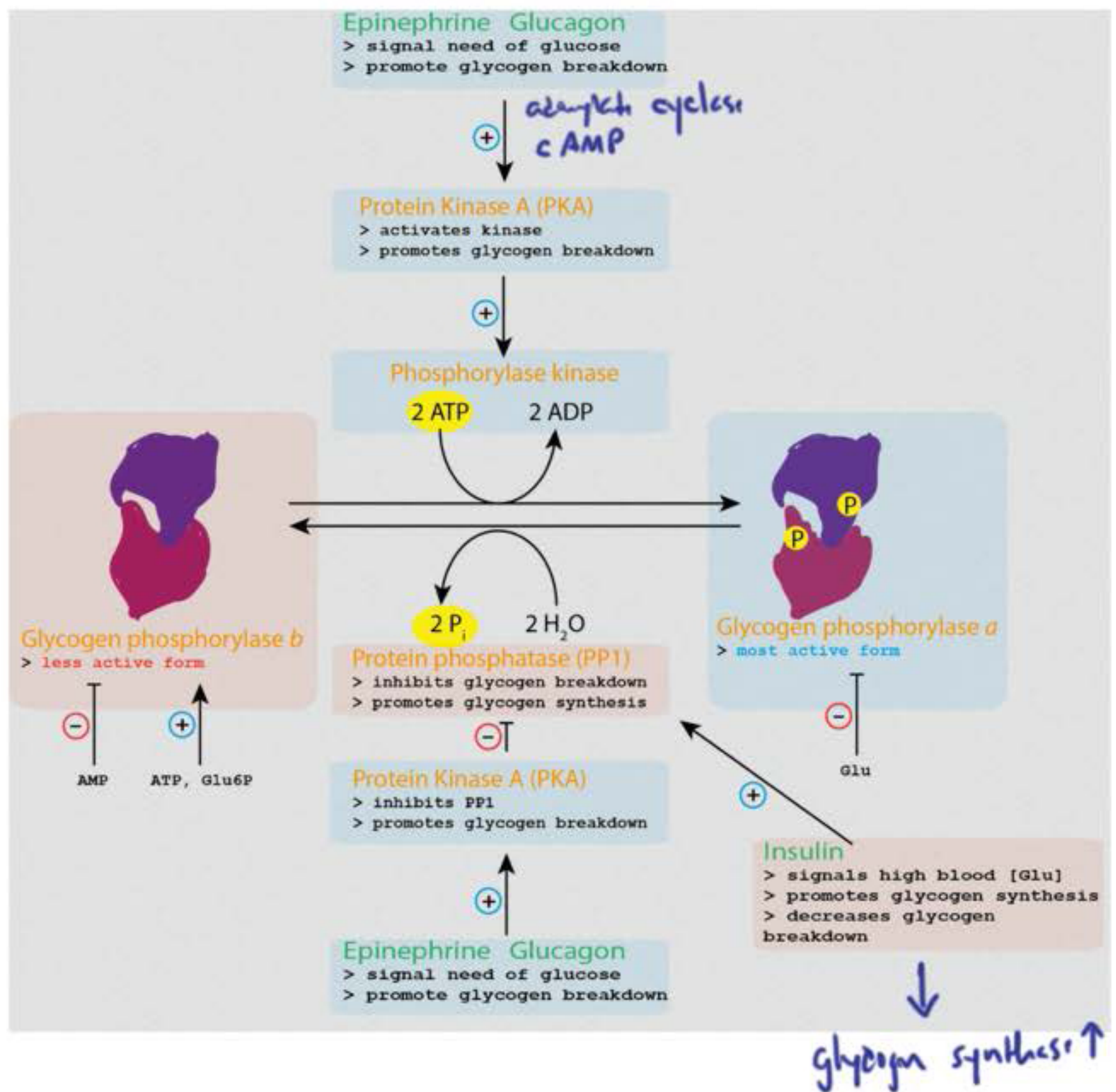
Protein Kinase A

↓ pyruvate dehydrogenase

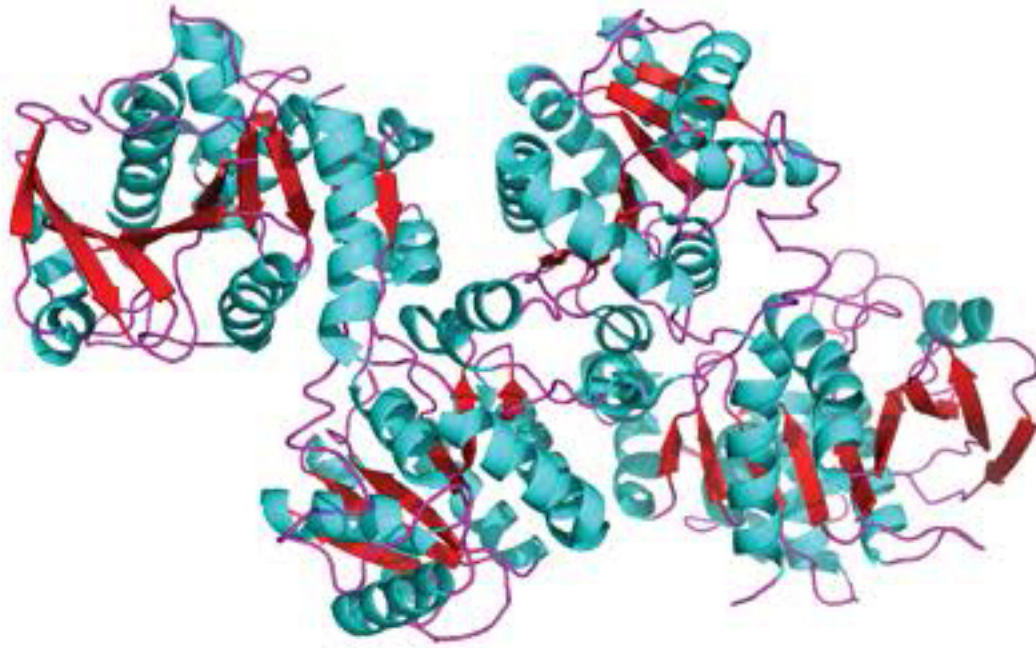
protein phosphatase

phosphorylase kinase ↑

(etc.)

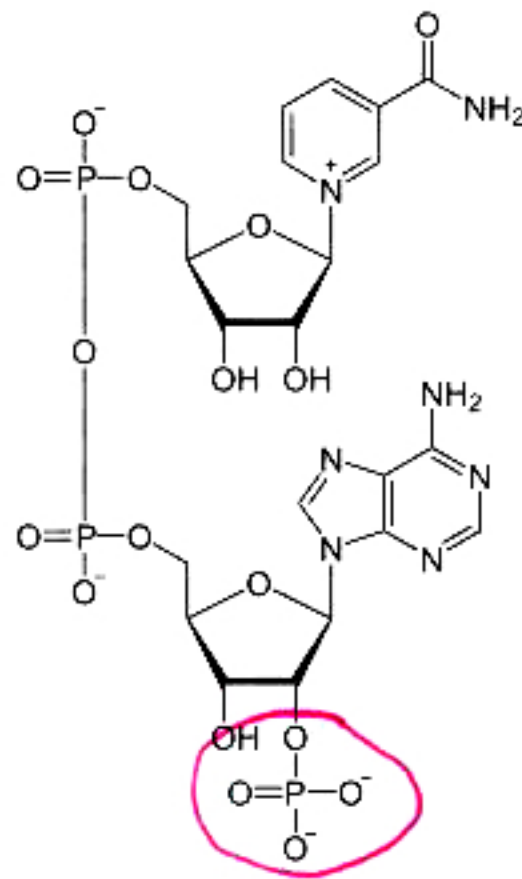


Glycogen Synthase



NADPH brings
reducing equivalents
to biosynthesis

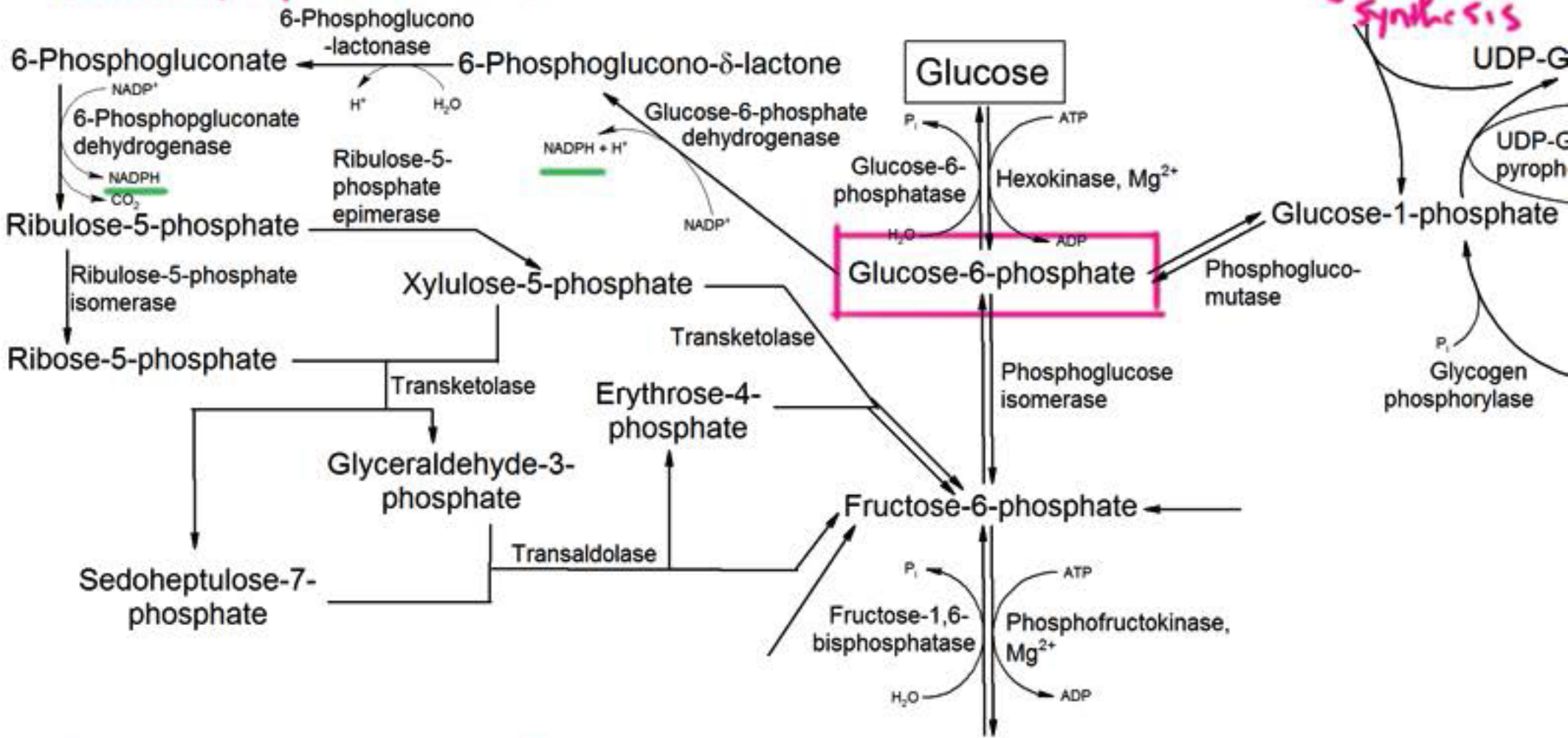
primary source is PPP



NADP⁺

pentose phosphate pathway

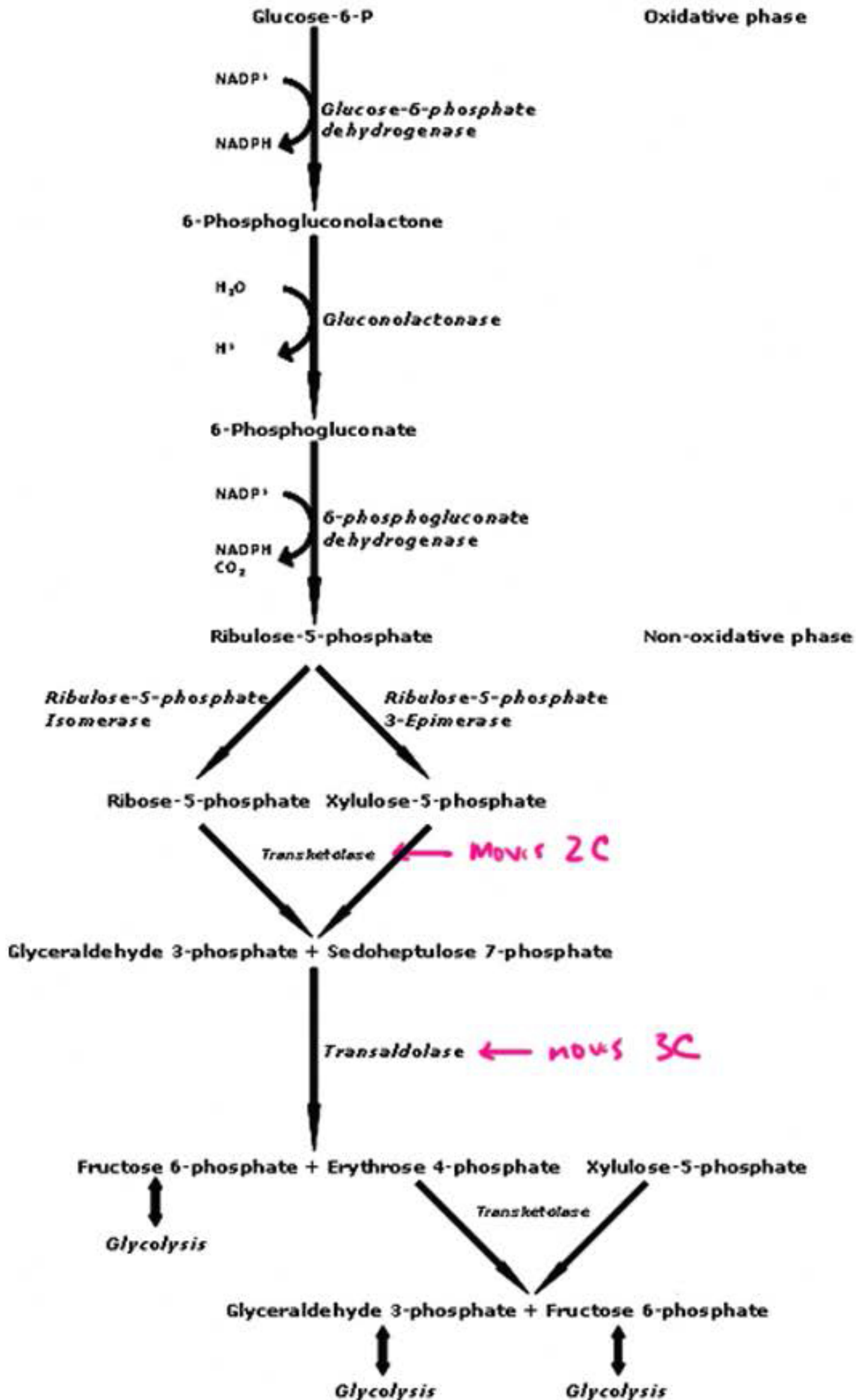
glycogen synthesis



PPP - source of NADPH and ribose

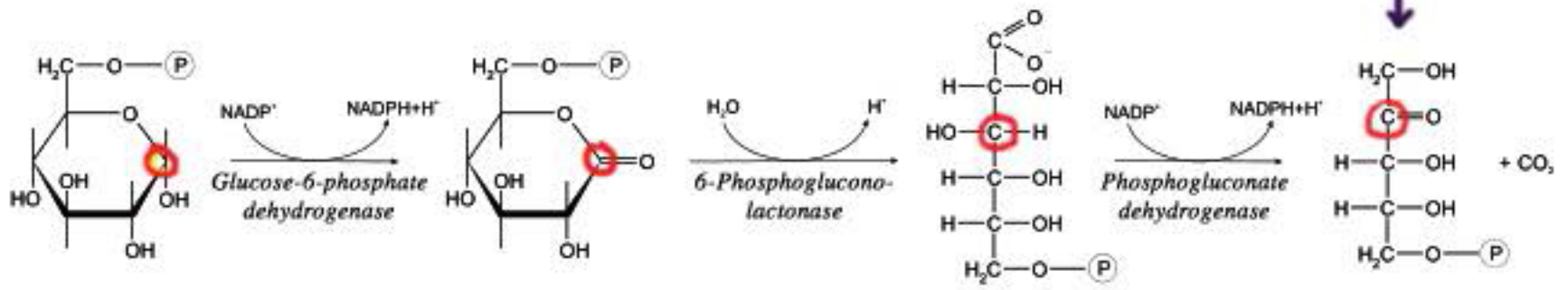
glycolysis

Pentose Phosphate pathway

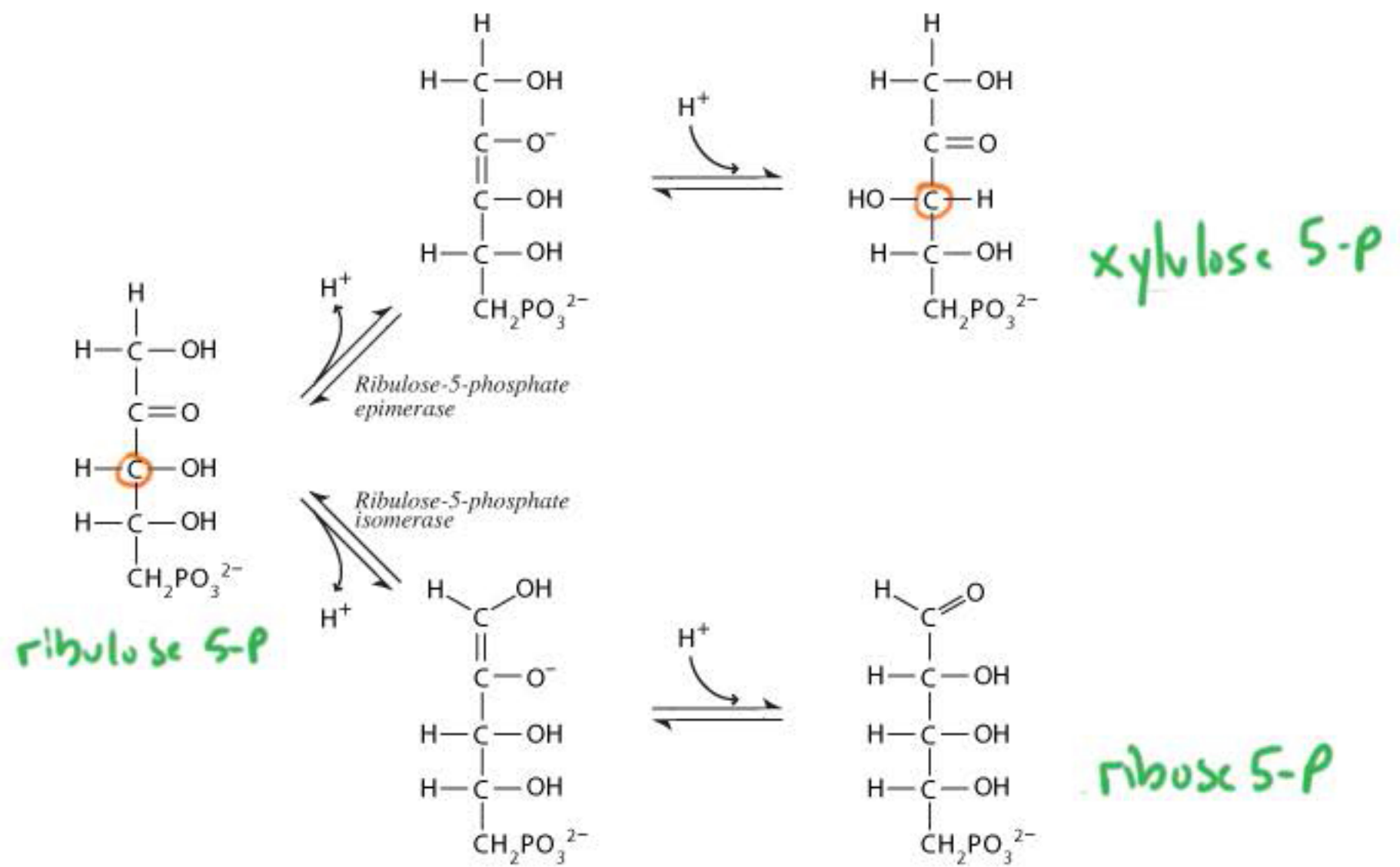


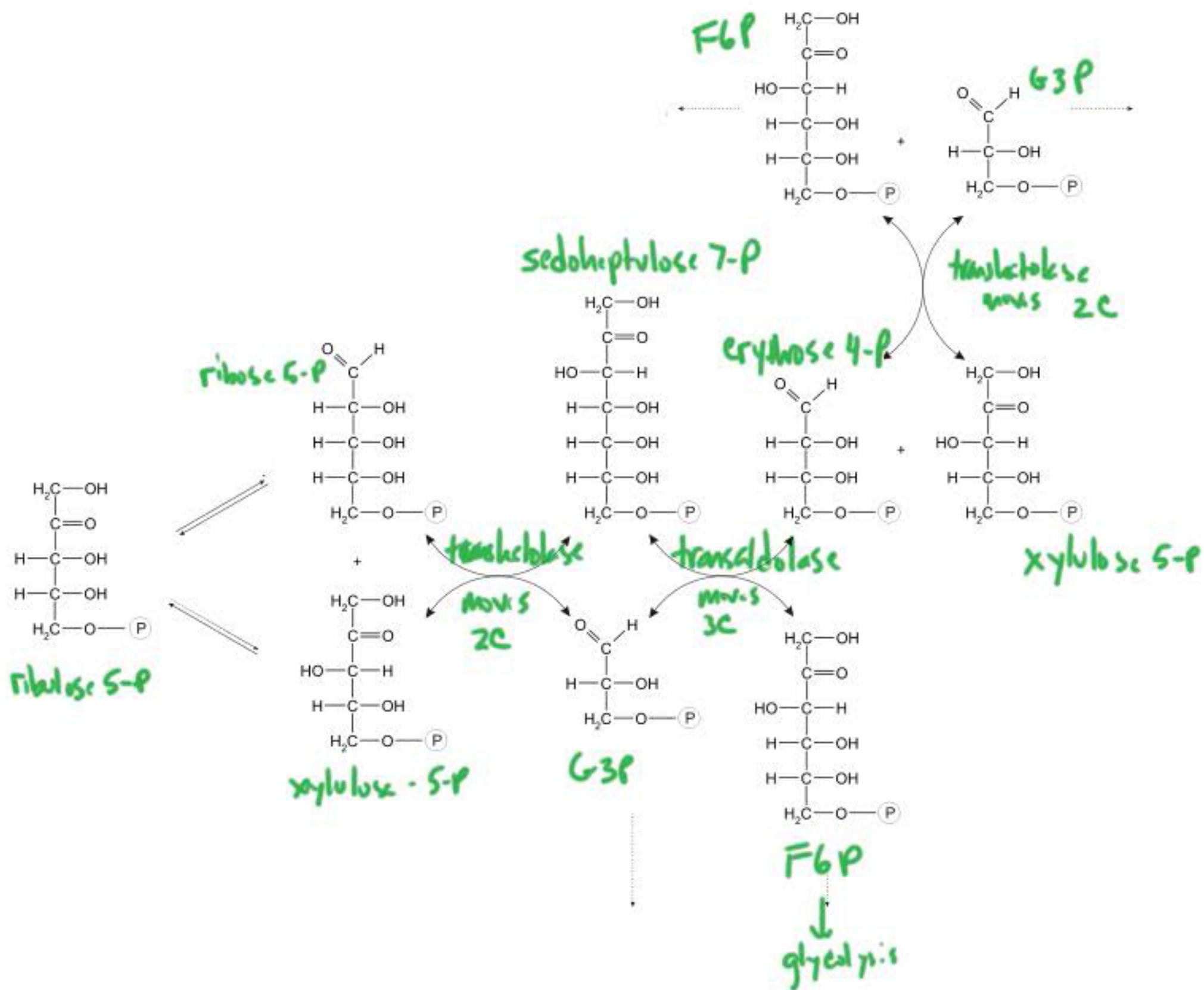
oxidative portion

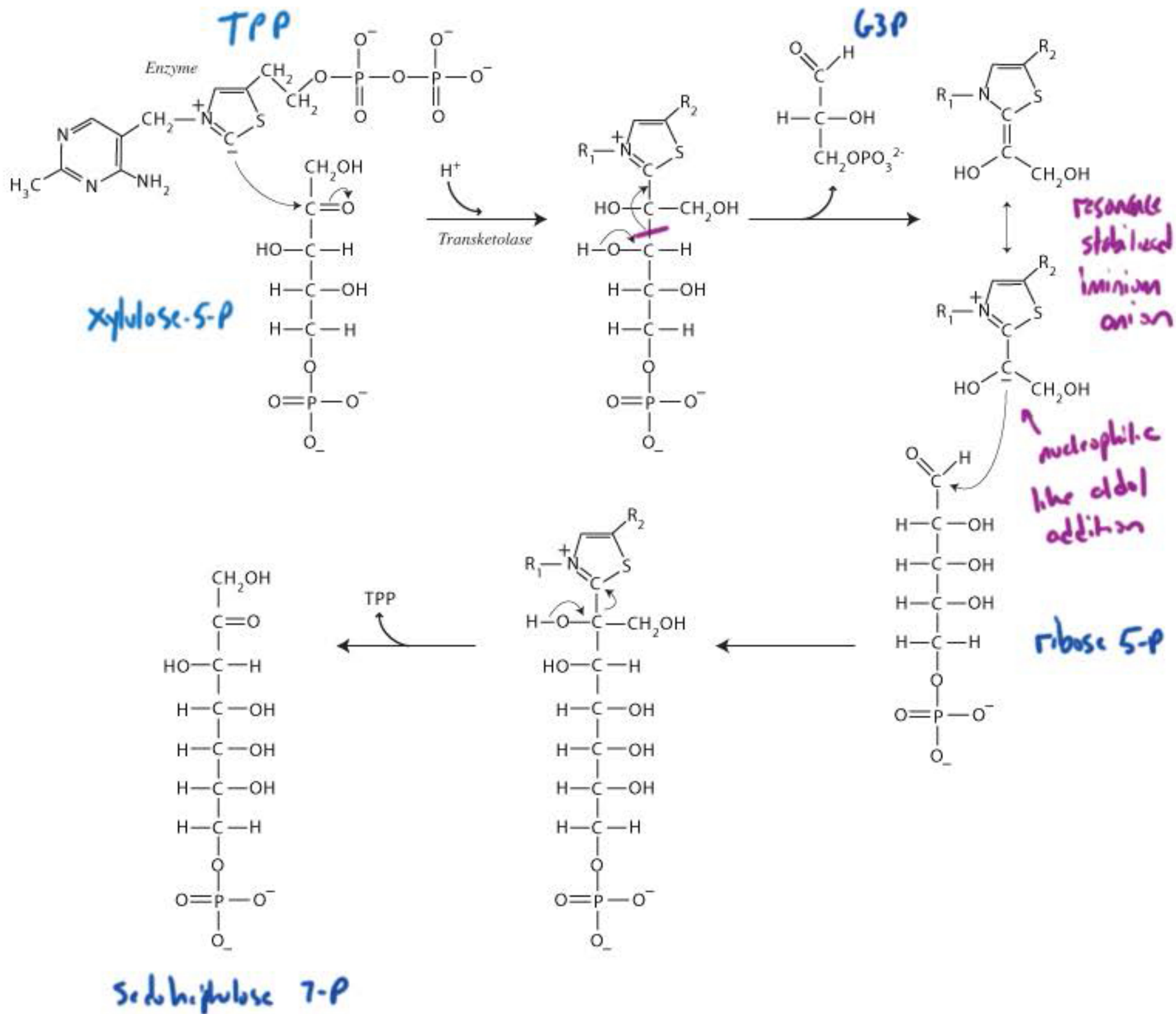
ribose 5-P



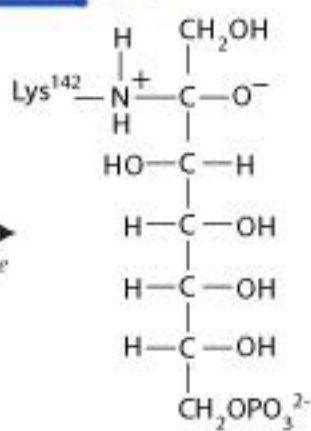
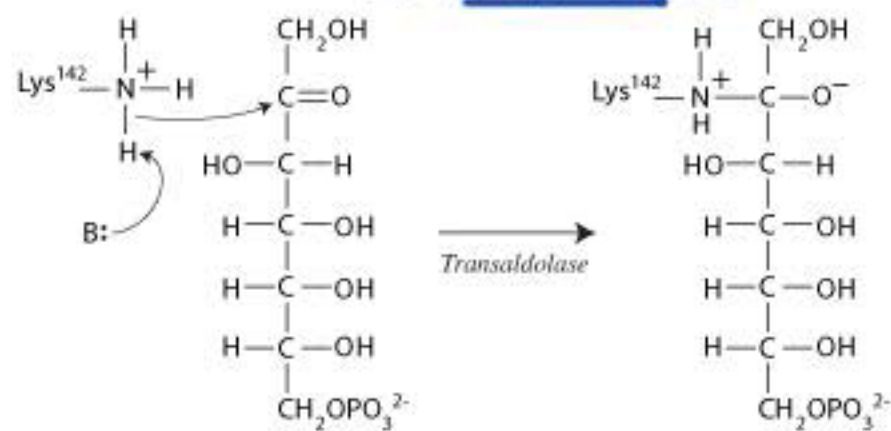
oxidative branch
 β keto acid
 which decarboxylates



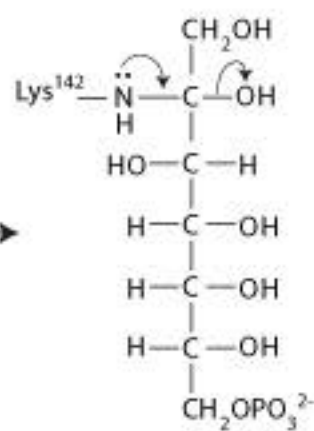




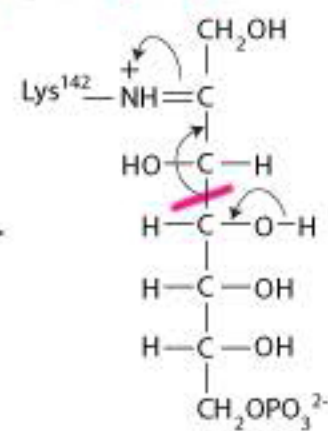
Imine formation



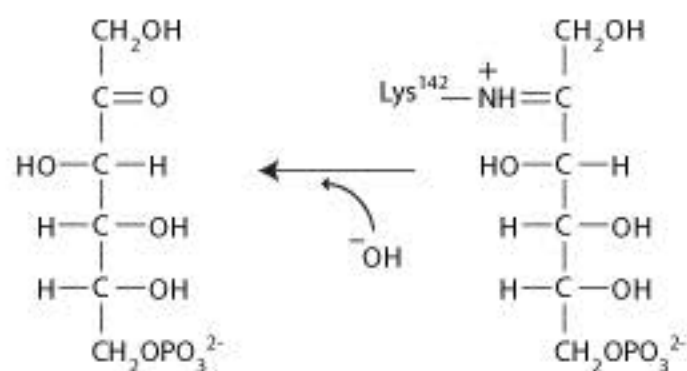
proton transfer



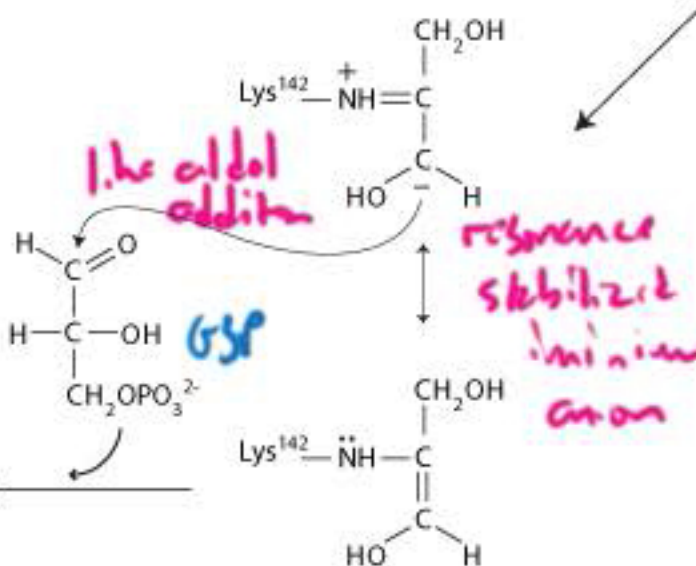
H₂O



Sedohexose



F6P

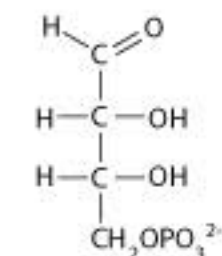


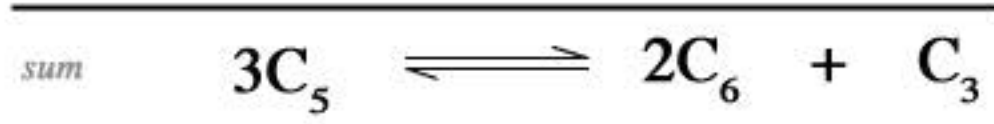
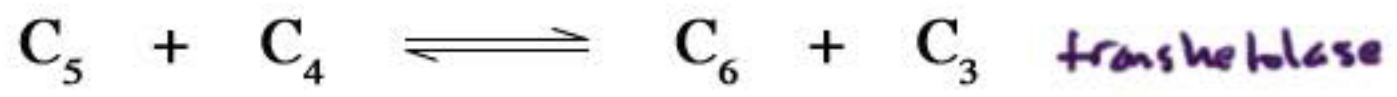
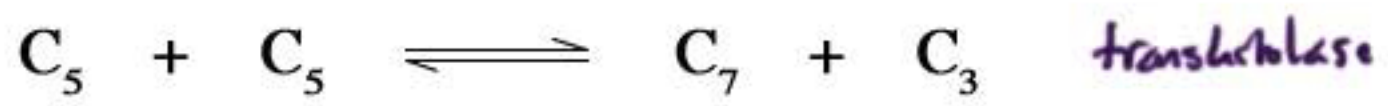
1,6 aldol addition

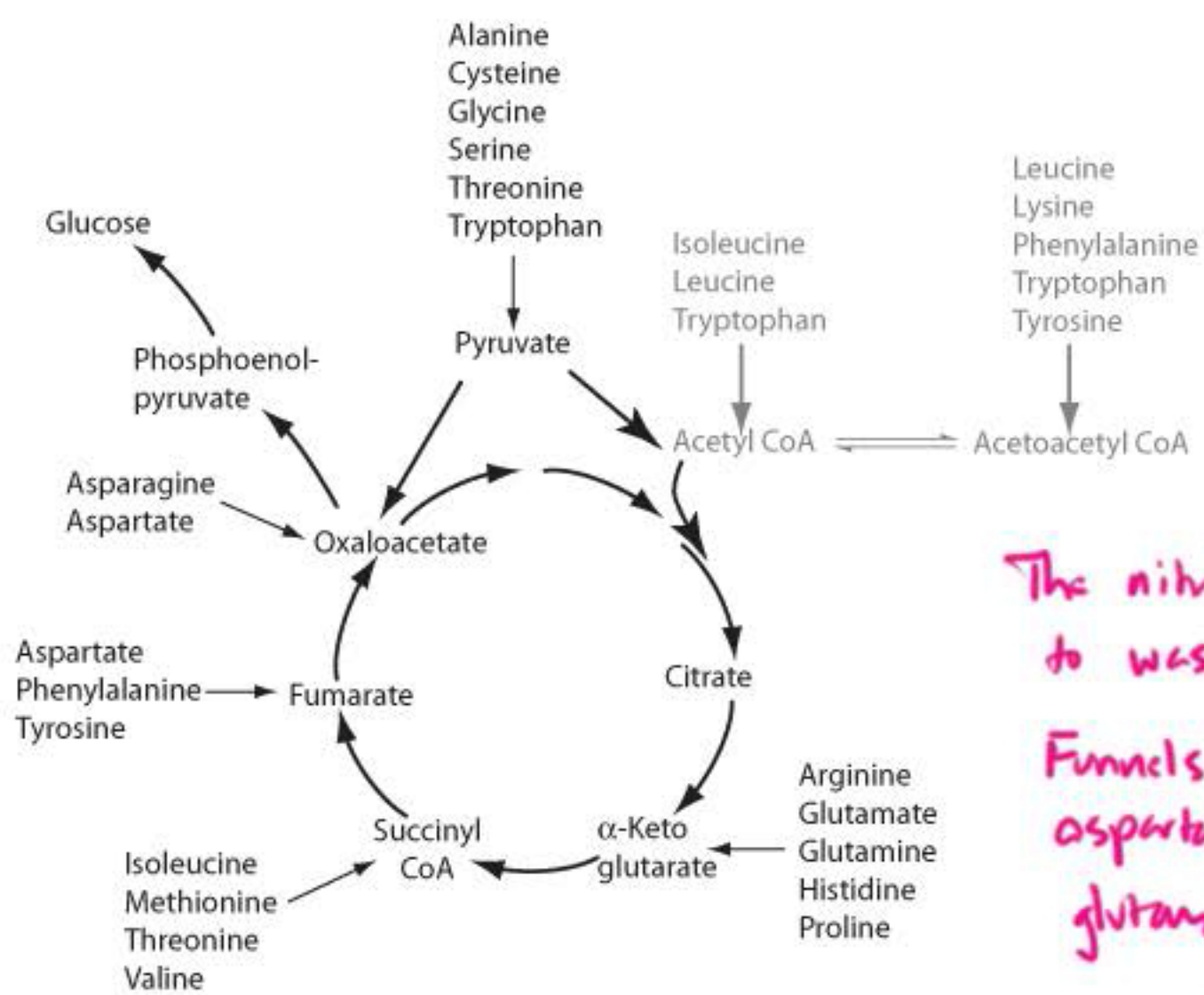
G3P

resonance stabilized iminium anion

erythrose 4-P





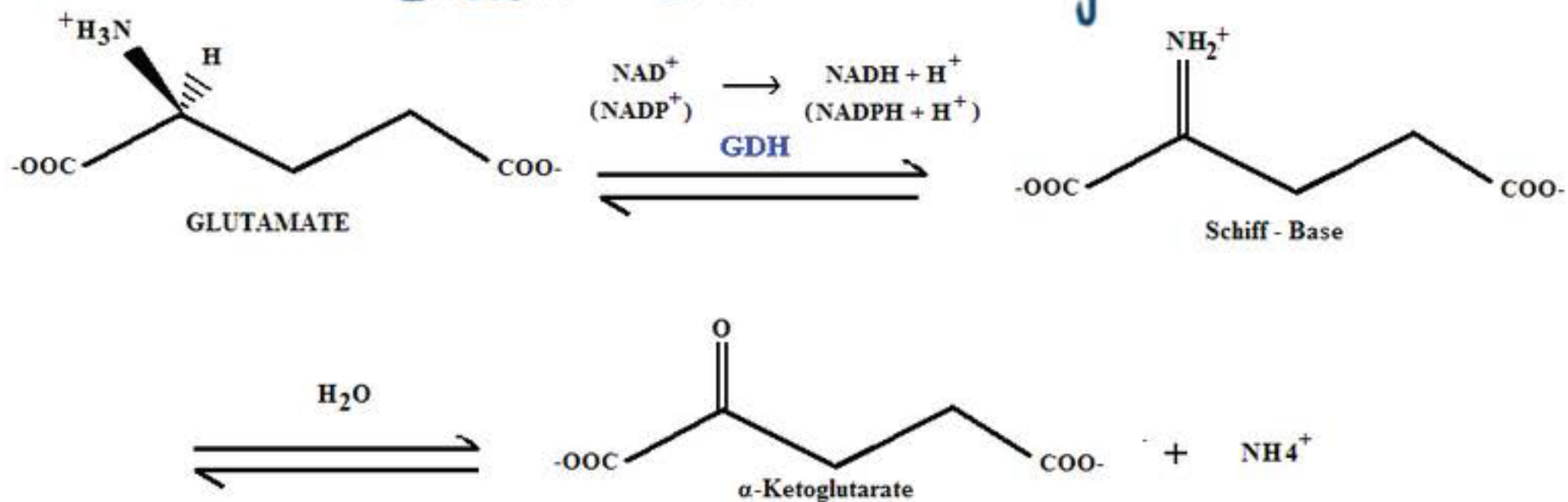


The nitrogen flows
to waste.

Funnel into
aspartate and
glutamate

↓
urea cycle

oxidative decarboxylation of glutamate

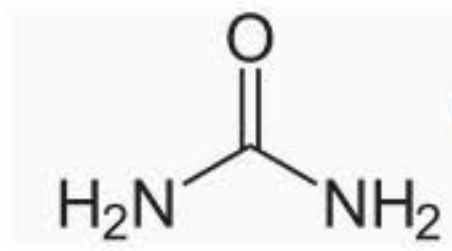


$$\Delta G^\circ \oplus$$

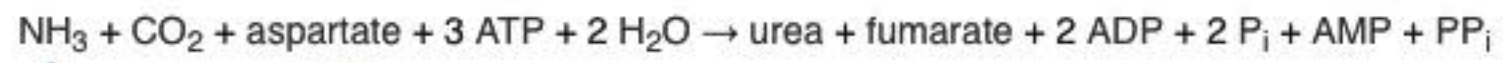
$$\Delta G \ominus \text{ at physiological } [\text{NH}_4^+]$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln Q$$

$\downarrow$
 product removal



urea

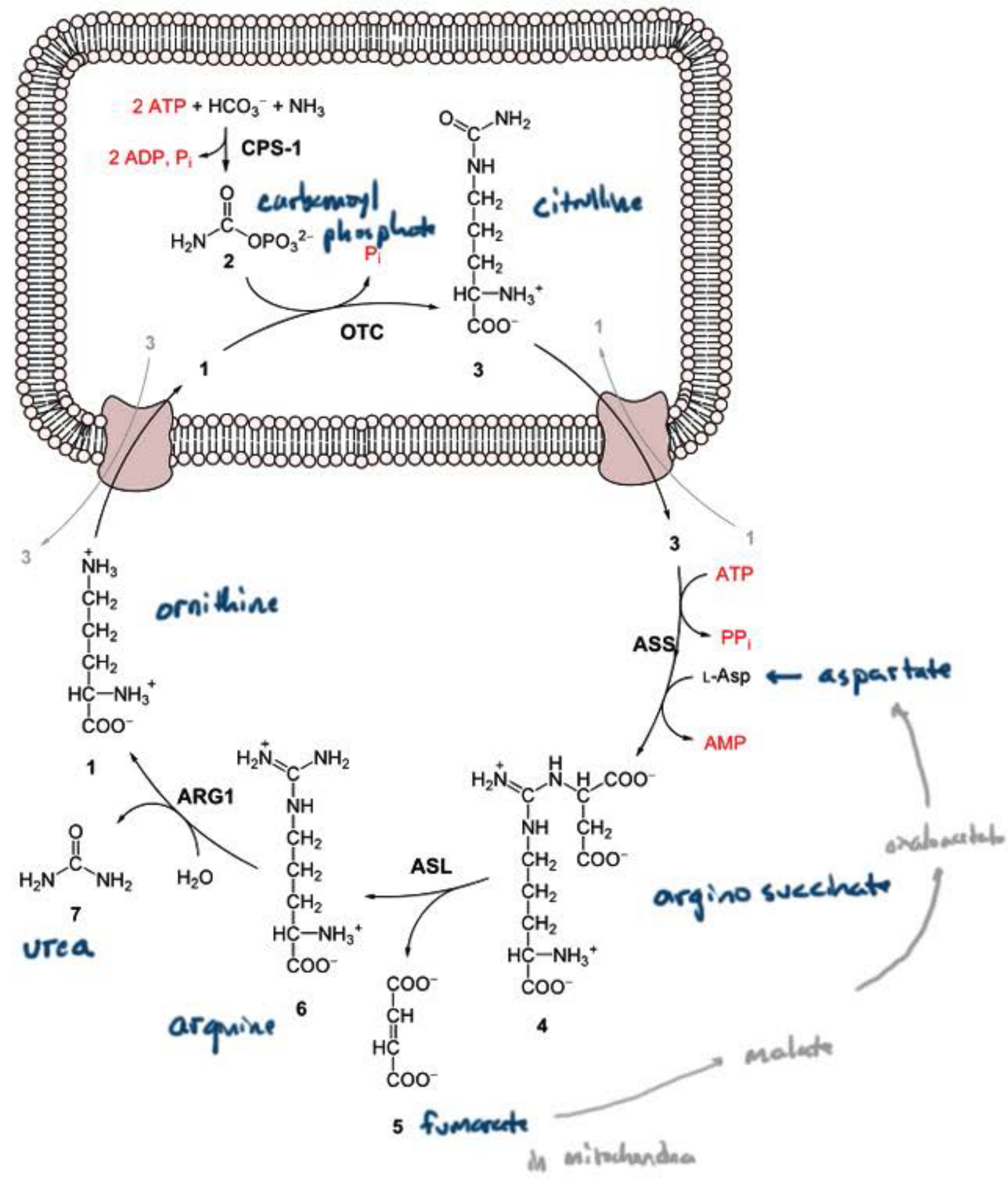


NH₃

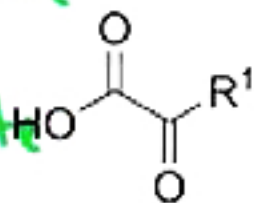


NH₂

urea cycle

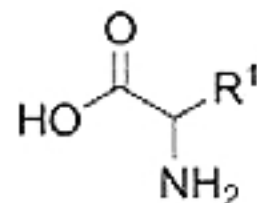


α keto glutarate
or
oxaloacetate

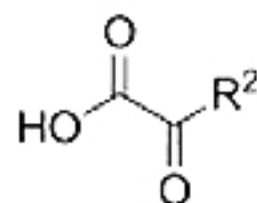


+

Transaminase



+

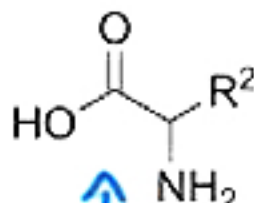


α keto acid

glutamate
or
aspartate

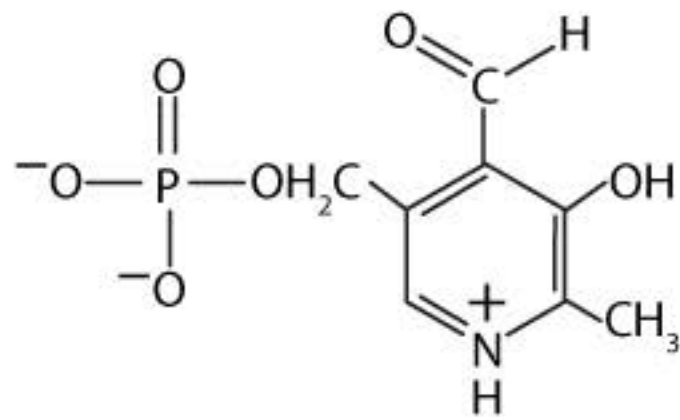


urea cycle

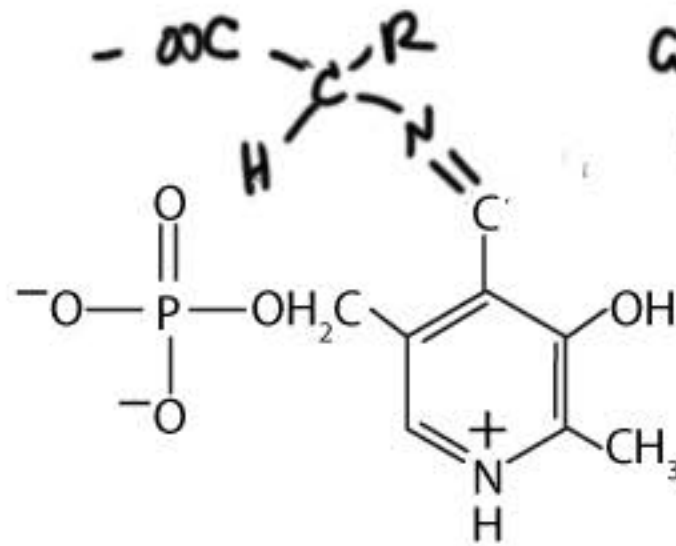


amino acid
for food

Transaminase is
a PLP
enzyme



PLP
amino acid
Schiff base



Formation of PLP-enzyme Schiff base

Imine formation

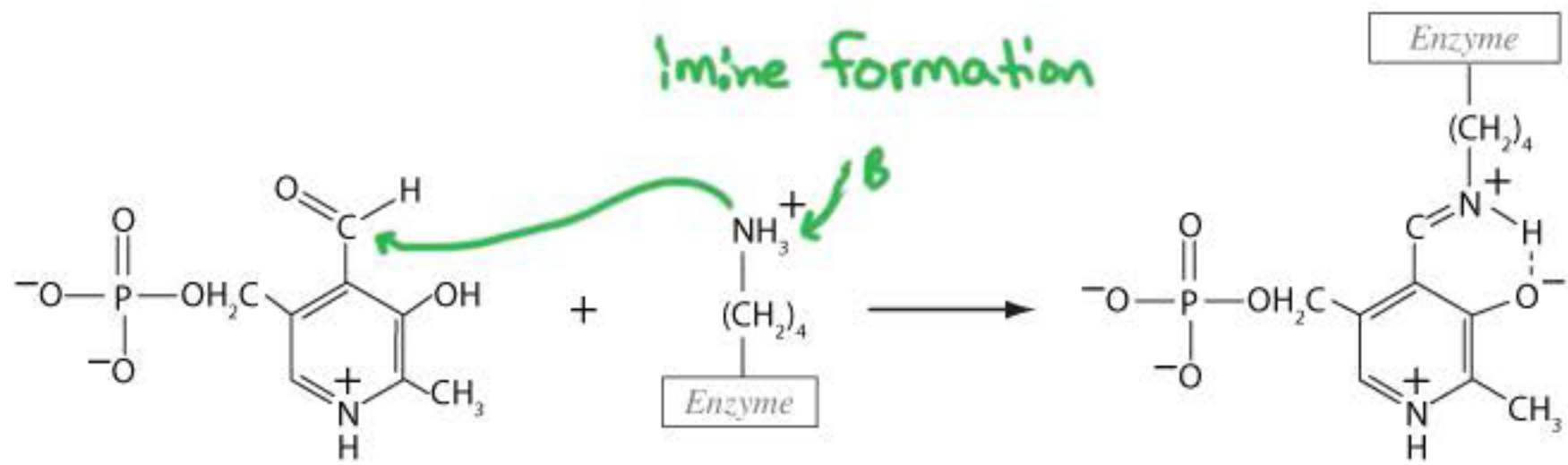
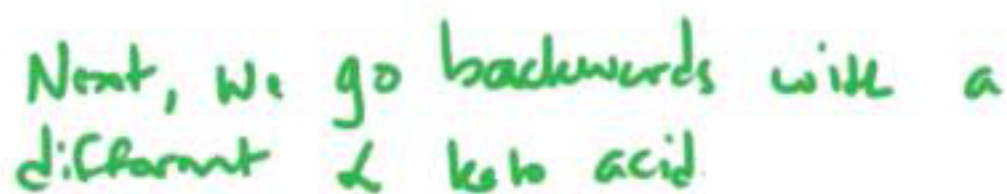


Diagram illustrating the formation of a Schiff base between an amino acid (R-CH(NH₂)-COO⁻) and a PLP-enzyme (pyridoxal phosphate derivative). The reaction proceeds through a series of steps, involving the formation of a Schiff base intermediate (Schiff base 1) and subsequent proton transfer steps, leading to the final Schiff base (Schiff base 2).

PLP-enzyme

PLP-aminic acid



Next, we go backwards with a different α keto acid.