CHEM 1152K: SURVEY OF CHEMISTRY II



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CHEMISTRY 1152 UWG

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SECTION OVERVIEW

1.1: Organic Chemistry - Alkanes and Halogenated Hydrocarbons

We begin our study of organic chemistry with the alkanes, compounds containing only two elements, carbon and hydrogen, and having only single bonds. There are several other kinds of hydrocarbons, distinguished by the types of bonding between carbon atoms and by the properties that result from that bonding. We will first examine hydrocarbons with double bonds, with triple bonds, and with a special kind of bonding called aromaticity. Then we will study some compounds considered to be derived from hydrocarbons by replacing one or more hydrogen atoms with an oxygen-containing group. Finally, we focuse on organic acids and bases, after which we will be ready to look at the chemistry of life itself—biochemistry—in the remaining five chapters.

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1.1.1: Prelude to Organic Chemistry - Alkanes and Halogenated Hydrocarbons

Hydrocarbons are the simplest organic compounds, but they have interesting physiological effects. These effects depend on the size of the hydrocarbon molecules and where on or in the body they are applied. Alkanes of low molar mass—those with from 1 to approximately 10 or so carbon atoms—are gases or light liquids that act as anesthetics. Inhaling (“sniffing”) these hydrocarbons in gasoline or aerosol propellants for their intoxicating effect is a major health problem that can lead to liver, kidney, or brain damage or to immediate death by asphyxiation by excluding oxygen.

Swallowed, liquid alkanes do little harm while in the stomach. In the lungs, however, they cause “chemical” pneumonia by dissolving fatlike molecules from cell membranes in the tiny air sacs (alveoli). The lungs become unable to expel fluids, just as in pneumonia caused by bacteria or viruses. People who swallow gasoline or other liquid alkane mixtures should not be made to vomit, as this would increase the chance of getting alkanes into the lungs. (There is no home-treatment antidote for gasoline poisoning; call a poison control center.)



Figure 1.1.1.1: Butane is a hydrocarbon with the formula C_4H_{10} and is a gas at room temperature and atmospheric pressure. Under excess pressures, it can be liquidized like the fuel shown in this butane lighters. (CC BY 3.0Unported; Frank Vincentz)

Liquid alkanes with approximately 5–16 carbon atoms per molecule wash away natural skin oils and cause drying and chapping of the skin, while heavier liquid alkanes (those with approximately 17 or more carbon atoms per molecule) act as emollients (skin softeners). Such alkane mixtures as mineral oil and petroleum jelly can be applied as a protective film. Water and aqueous solutions such as urine will not dissolve such a film, which explains why petroleum jelly protects a baby’s tender skin from diaper rash.

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1.1.2: Organic Chemistry

Learning Objectives

- To recognize the composition and properties typical of organic and inorganic compounds.

Scientists of the 18th and early 19th centuries studied compounds obtained from plants and animals and labeled them *organic* because they were isolated from "organized" (living) systems. Compounds isolated from nonliving systems, such as rocks and ores, the atmosphere, and the oceans, were labeled *inorganic*. For many years, scientists thought organic compounds could be made by only living organisms because they possessed a vital force found only in living systems. The vital force theory began to decline in 1828, when the German chemist Friedrich Wöhler synthesized urea from inorganic starting materials. He reacted silver cyanate ($AgOCN$) and ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl), expecting to get ammonium cyanate (NH_4OCN). What he expected is described by the following equation.

$$AgOCN + NH_4Cl \rightarrow AgCl + NH_4OCN \tag{1.1.2.1}$$

Instead, he found the product to be urea (NH_2CONH_2), a well-known organic material readily isolated from urine. This result led to a series of experiments in which a wide variety of organic compounds were made from inorganic starting materials. The vital force theory gradually went away as chemists learned that they could make many organic compounds in the laboratory.

Today organic chemistry is the study of the chemistry of the carbon compounds, and inorganic chemistry is the study of the chemistry of all other elements. It may seem strange that we divide chemistry into two branches—one that considers compounds of only one element and one that covers the 100-plus remaining elements. However, this division seems more reasonable when we consider that of tens of millions of compounds that have been characterized, the overwhelming majority are carbon compounds.

> The word *organic* has different meanings. Organic fertilizer, such as cow manure, is organic in the original sense; it is derived from living organisms. Organic foods generally are foods grown without synthetic pesticides or fertilizers. Organic chemistry is the chemistry of compounds of carbon.

Carbon is unique among the other elements in that its atoms can form stable covalent bonds with each other and with atoms of other elements in a multitude of variations. The resulting molecules can contain from one to millions of carbon atoms. We previously surveyed organic chemistry by dividing its compounds into families based on functional groups. We begin with the simplest members of a family and then move on to molecules that are organic in the original sense—that is, they are made by and found in living organisms. These complex molecules (all containing carbon) determine the forms and functions of living systems and are the subject of biochemistry.

Organic compounds, like inorganic compounds, obey all the natural laws. Often there is no clear distinction in the chemical or physical properties among organic and inorganic molecules. Nevertheless, it is useful to compare typical members of each class, as in Table 1.1.2.1.

Table 1.1.2.1: General Contrasting Properties and Examples of Organic and Inorganic Compounds

Organic	Hexane		Inorganic	NaCl
low melting points	−95°C		high melting points	801°C
low boiling points	69°C		high boiling points	1,413°C
low solubility in water; high solubility in nonpolar solvents	insoluble in water; soluble in gasoline		greater solubility in water; low solubility in nonpolar solvents	soluble in water; insoluble in gasoline
flammable	highly flammable		nonflammable	nonflammable
aqueous solutions do not conduct electricity	nonconductive		aqueous solutions conduct electricity	conductive in aqueous solution
exhibit covalent bonding	covalent bonds		exhibit ionic bonding	ionic bonds

Keep in mind, however, that there are exceptions to every category in this table. To further illustrate typical differences among organic and inorganic compounds, Table 1.1.2.1 also lists properties of the inorganic compound sodium chloride (common table salt, NaCl) and the organic compound hexane (C_6H_{14}), a solvent that is used to extract soybean oil from soybeans (among other uses). Many compounds can be classified as organic or inorganic by the presence or absence of certain typical properties, as illustrated in Table 1.1.2.1.

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1.1.3: Branched-Chain Alkanes

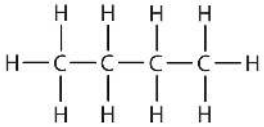
Learning Objectives

- To learn how alkane molecules can have branched chains and recognize compounds that are isomers.

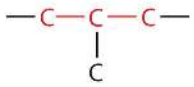
We can write the structure of butane (C_4H_{10}) by stringing four carbon atoms in a row,

–C–C–C–C–

and then adding enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds:



The compound butane has this structure, but there is another way to put 4 carbon atoms and 10 hydrogen atoms together. Place 3 of the carbon atoms in a row and then branch the fourth one off the middle carbon atom:



Now we add enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon four bonds.

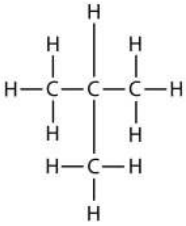


Figure 1.1.3.1).

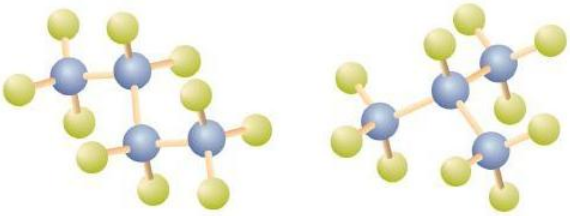
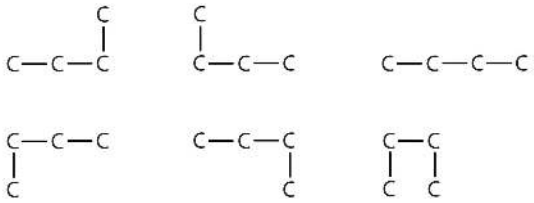


Figure 1.1.3.1: Butane and Isobutane. The ball-and-stick models of these two compounds show them to be isomers; both have the molecular formula C_4H_{10}.

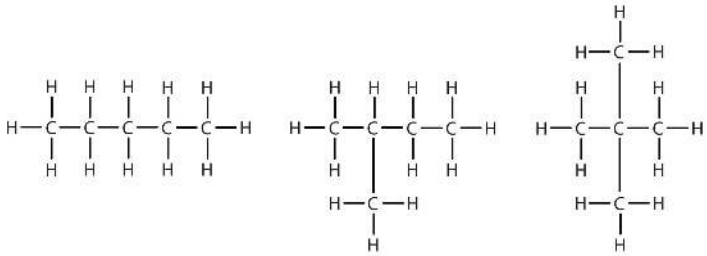
Notice that C_4H_{10} is depicted with a bent chain in Figure 1.1.3.1. The four-carbon chain may be bent in various ways because the groups can rotate freely about the C–C bonds. However, this rotation does not change the identity of the compound. It is important to realize that bending a chain does *not* change the identity of the compound; all of the following represent the same compound, butane:



The structure of isobutane shows a continuous chain of three carbon atoms only, with the fourth attached as a branch off the middle carbon atom of the continuous chain, which is different from the structures of butane (compare the two structures in Figure 1.1.3.1

Unlike C_4H_{10}, the compounds methane (CH_4), ethane (C_2H_6), and propane (C_3H_8) do not exist in isomeric forms because there is only one way to arrange the atoms in each formula so that each carbon atom has four bonds.

Next beyond C_4H_{10} in the homologous series is pentane. Each compound has the same molecular formula: C_5H_{12}. (Table 12.1.1 from the previous section has a column identifying the number of possible isomers for the first 10 straight-chain alkanes.) The compound at the far left is pentane because it has all five carbon atoms in a continuous chain. The compound in the middle is isopentane; like isobutane, it has a one CH_3 branch off the second carbon atom of the continuous chain. The compound at the far right, discovered after the other two, was named neopentane (from the Greek *neos*, meaning "new"). Although all three have the same molecular formula, they have different properties, including boiling points: pentane, 36.1°C; isopentane, 27.7°C; and neopentane, 9.5°C.



A continuous (unbranched) chain of carbon atoms is often called a *straight chain* even though the tetrahedral arrangement about each carbon gives it a zigzag shape. Straight-chain alkanes are sometimes called *normal alkanes*, and their names are given the prefix *n*-. For example, butane is called *n*-butane. We will not use that prefix here because it is not a part of the system established by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry.

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1.1.4: Structures and Names of Alkanes

Learning Objectives

- To identify and name simple (straight-chain) alkanes given formulas and write formulas for straight-chain alkanes given their names.

We begin our study of organic chemistry with the hydrocarbons, the simplest organic compounds, which are composed of carbon and hydrogen atoms only. As we noted, there are several different kinds of hydrocarbons. They are distinguished by the types of bonding between carbon atoms and the properties that result from that bonding. Hydrocarbons with only carbon-to-carbon single bonds (C–C) and existing as a continuous chain of carbon atoms also bonded to hydrogen atoms are called alkanes (or saturated hydrocarbons). *Saturated*, in this case, means that each carbon atom is bonded to four other atoms (hydrogen or carbon)—the most possible; there are no double or triple bonds in the molecules.

> The word *saturated* has the same meaning for hydrocarbons as it does for the dietary fats and oils: the molecule has no carbon-to-carbon double bonds (C=C).

We previously introduced the three simplest alkanes—methane (CH_4), ethane (C_2H_6), and propane (C_3H_8) and they are shown again in Figure 1.1.4.1.

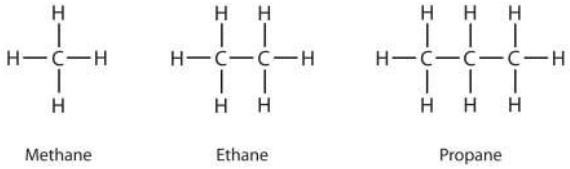


Figure 1.1.4.1: The Three Simplest Alkanes

The flat representations shown do not accurately portray bond angles or molecular geometry. Methane has a tetrahedral shape that chemists often portray with wedges indicating bonds coming out toward you and dashed lines indicating bonds that go back away from you. An ordinary solid line indicates a bond in the plane of the page. Recall that the VSEPR theory correctly predicts a tetrahedral shape for the methane molecule (Figure 1.1.4.2).

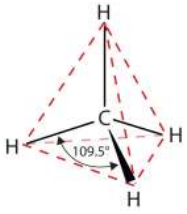


Figure 1.1.4.2: The Tetrahedral Methane Molecule

Methane (CH_4), ethane (C_2H_6), and propane (C_3H_8) are the beginning of a series of compounds in which any two members in a sequence differ by one carbon atom and two hydrogen atoms—namely, a CH_2 unit. The first 10 members of this series are given in Table 1.1.4.1.

Table 1.1.4.1: The First 10 Straight-Chain Alkanes

Name	Molecular Formula (C_nH_{2n+2})	Condensed Structural Formula	Number of Possible Isomers
methane	CH_4	CH_4	—
ethane	C_2H_6	CH_3CH_3	—
propane	C_3H_8	$CH_3CH_2CH_3$	—
butane	C_4H_{10}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_3$	2
pentane	C_5H_{12}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	3

Name	Molecular Formula (C_nH_{2n+2})	Condensed Structural Formula	Number of Possible Isomers
hexane	C_6H_{14}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	5
heptane	C_7H_{16}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	9
octane	C_8H_{18}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	18
nonane	C_9H_{20}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	35
decane	$C_{10}H_{22}$	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	75

Consider the series in Figure 1.1.4.3 The sequence starts with C_3H_8, and a CH_2 unit is added in each step moving up the series. Any family of compounds in which adjacent members differ from each other by a definite factor (here a CH_2 group) is called a homologous series. The members of such a series, called *homologs*, have properties that vary in a regular and predictable manner. The principle of *homology* gives organization to organic chemistry in much the same way that the periodic table gives organization to inorganic chemistry. Instead of a bewildering array of individual carbon compounds, we can study a few members of a homologous series and from them deduce some of the properties of other compounds in the series.

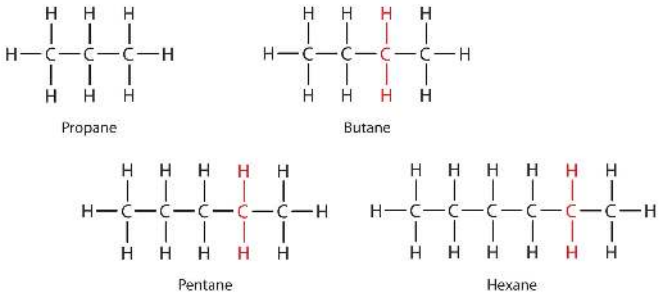


Figure 1.1.4.3: Members of a Homologous Series. Each succeeding formula incorporates one carbon atom and two hydrogen atoms more than the previous formula.

The principle of homology allows us to write a general formula for alkanes: C_nH_{2n+2}. Using this formula, we can write a molecular formula for any alkane with a given number of carbon atoms. For example, an alkane with eight carbon atoms has the molecular formula $C_8H_{(2\times 8)+2} = C_8H_{18}$.

Key Takeaway

- Simple alkanes exist as a homologous series, in which adjacent members differ by a CH_2 unit.

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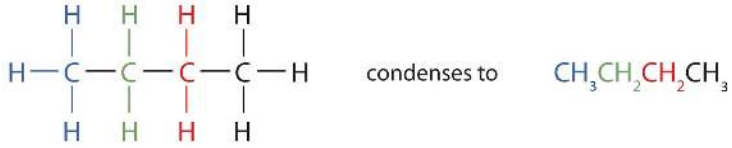
1.1.5: Condensed Structural and Line-Angle Formulas

Learning Objectives

- Write condensed structural formulas for alkanes given complete structural formulas.
- Draw line-angle formulas given structural formulas.

We use several kinds of formulas to describe organic compounds. A *molecular formula* shows only the kinds and numbers of atoms in a molecule. For example, the molecular formula C_4H_{10} tells us there are 4 carbon atoms and 10 hydrogen atoms in a molecule, but it doesn't distinguish between butane and isobutane. A structural formula shows all the carbon and hydrogen atoms and the bonds attaching them. Thus, structural formulas identify the specific isomers by showing the order of attachment of the various atoms.

Unfortunately, structural formulas are difficult to type/write and take up a lot of space. Chemists often use condensed structural formulas to alleviate these problems. The condensed formulas show hydrogen atoms right next to the carbon atoms to which they are attached, as illustrated for butane:



The ultimate condensed formula is a line-angle formula, in which carbon atoms are implied at the corners and ends of lines, and each carbon atom is understood to be attached to enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds. For example, we can represent pentane ($CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$) and isopentane [$(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_3$] as follows:



Pentane Isopentane

Parentheses in condensed structural formulas indicate that the enclosed grouping of atoms is attached to the adjacent carbon atom.

Key Takeaways

- Condensed chemical formulas show the hydrogen atoms (or other atoms or groups) right next to the carbon atoms to which they are attached.
- Line-angle formulas imply a carbon atom at the corners and ends of lines. Each carbon atom is understood to be attached to enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds.

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1.1.6: IUPAC Nomenclature

Learning Objectives

- To name alkanes by the IUPAC system and write formulas for alkanes given IUPAC names

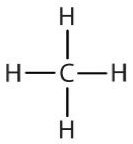
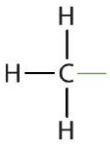
As noted in previously, the number of isomers increases rapidly as the number of carbon atoms increases. There are 3 pentanes, 5 hexanes, 9 heptanes, and 18 octanes. It would be difficult to assign unique individual names that we could remember. A systematic way of naming hydrocarbons and other organic compounds has been devised by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC). These rules, used worldwide, are known as the IUPAC System of Nomenclature. (Some of the names we used earlier, such as isobutane, isopentane, and neopentane, do not follow these rules and are called *common names*.) A stem name (Table 1.1.6.1) indicates the number of carbon atoms in the longest continuous chain (LCC). Atoms or groups attached to this carbon chain, called *substituents*, are then named, with their positions indicated by numbers. For now, we will consider only those substituents called alkyl groups.

Table 1.1.6.1: Stems That Indicate the Number of Carbon Atoms in Organic Molecules

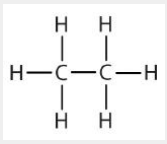
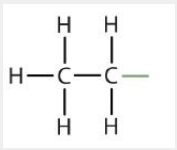
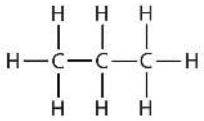
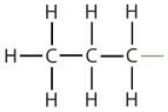
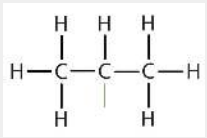
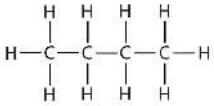
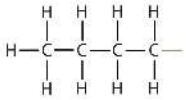
Stem	Number
meth-	1
eth-	2
prop-	3
but-	4
pent-	5
hex-	6
hept-	7
oct-	8
non-	9
dec-	10

An alkyl group is a group of atoms that results when one hydrogen atom is removed from an alkane. The group is named by replacing the *-ane* suffix of the parent hydrocarbon with *-yl*. For example, the -CH_3 group derived from methane (CH_4) results from subtracting one hydrogen atom and is called a *methyl group*. The alkyl groups we will use most frequently are listed in Table 1.1.6.2 Alkyl groups are not independent molecules; they are parts of molecules that we consider as a unit to name compounds systematically.

Table 1.1.6.2: Common Alkyl Groups

Parent Alkane		Alkyl Group		Condensed Structural Formula
methane		methyl		CH_3–

*There are four butyl groups, two derived from butane and two from isobutane. We will introduce the other three where appropriate.

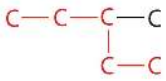
Parent Alkane		Alkyl Group		Condensed Structural Formula
ethane		ethyl		$CH_3CH_2–$
propane		propyl		$CH_3CH_2CH_2–$
		isopropyl		$(CH_3)_2CH–$
butane		butyl*		$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2–$

*There are four butyl groups, two derived from butane and two from isobutane. We will introduce the other three where appropriate.

Simplified IUPAC rules for naming alkanes are as follows (demonstrated in Example 1.1.6.1).

1. **Name alkanes according to the LCC (longest continuous chain) of carbon atoms in the molecule (rather than the total number of carbon atoms).** This LCC, considered the parent chain, determines the base name, to which we add the suffix *-ane* to indicate that the molecule is an alkane.

2. **If the hydrocarbon is branched, number the carbon atoms of the LCC.** Numbers are assigned in the direction that gives the lowest numbers to the carbon atoms with attached substituents. Hyphens are used to separate numbers from the names of substituents; commas separate numbers from each other. (The LCC need not be written in a straight line; for example, the LCC in the following has five carbon atoms.)

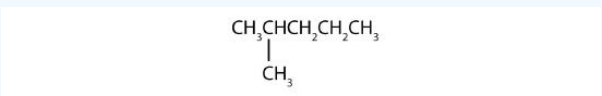


3. **Place the names of the substituent groups in alphabetical order before the name of the parent compound.** If the same alkyl group appears more than once, the numbers of all the carbon atoms to which it is attached are expressed. If the same group appears more than once on the same carbon atom, the number of that carbon atom is repeated as many times as the group appears. Moreover, the number of identical groups is indicated by the Greek prefixes *di-*, *tri-*, *tetra-*, and so on. These prefixes are *not* considered in determining the alphabetical order of the substituents. For example, ethyl is listed before dimethyl; the di- is simply ignored. The last alkyl group named is prefixed to the name of the parent alkane to form one word.

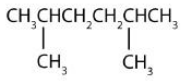
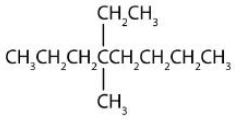
When these rules are followed, every unique compound receives its own exclusive name. The rules enable us to not only name a compound from a given structure but also draw a structure from a given name. The best way to learn how to use the IUPAC system is to put it to work, not just memorize the rules. It's easier than it looks.

Example 1.1.6.1

Name each compound.

1. 

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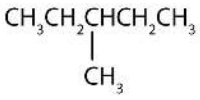
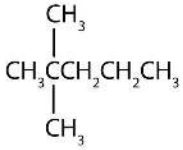
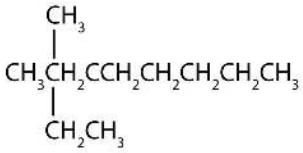
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Solution

1. The LCC has five carbon atoms, and so the parent compound is pentane (rule 1). There is a methyl group (rule 2) attached to the second carbon atom of the pentane chain. The name is therefore 2-methylpentane.
2. The LCC has six carbon atoms, so the parent compound is hexane (rule 1). Methyl groups (rule 2) are attached to the second and fifth carbon atoms. The name is 2,5-dimethylhexane.
3. The LCC has eight carbon atoms, so the parent compound is octane (rule 1). There are methyl and ethyl groups (rule 2), both attached to the fourth carbon atom (counting from the *right* gives this carbon atom a lower number; rule 3). The correct name is thus 4-ethyl-4-methyloctane.

Exercise 1.1.6.1

Name each compound.

1. 
- 
- 

Example 1.1.6.2

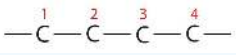
Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 2,3-dimethylbutane
b. 4-ethyl-2-methylheptane

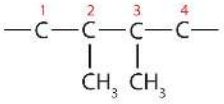
Solution

In drawing structures, always start with the parent chain.

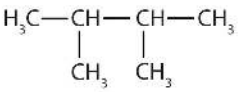
a. The parent chain is butane, indicating four carbon atoms in the LCC.



Then add the groups at their proper positions. You can number the parent chain from either direction as long as you are consistent; just don't change directions before the structure is done. The name indicates two methyl (CH_3) groups, one on the second carbon atom and one on the third.

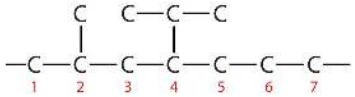


Finally, fill in all the hydrogen atoms, keeping in mind that each carbon atom must have four bonds.

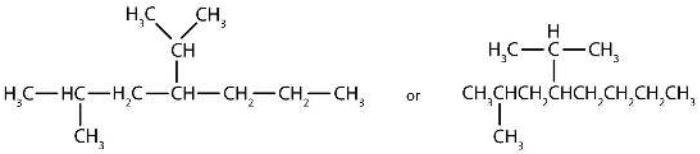


- The parent chain is heptane in this case, indicating seven carbon atoms in the LCC. –C–C–C–C–C–C–C–

  Adding the groups at their proper positions gives



  Filling in all the hydrogen atoms gives the following condensed structural formulas:



  Note that the bonds (dashes) can be shown or not; sometimes they are needed for spacing.

? Exercise 1.1.6.2

Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 4-ethyloctane
b. 3-ethyl-2-methylpentane
c. 3,3,5-trimethylheptane

Key Takeaway

- Alkanes have both common names and systematic names, specified by IUPAC.

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1.1.7: Physical Properties of Alkanes

Learning Objectives

- To identify the physical properties of alkanes and describe trends in these properties.

Because alkanes have relatively predictable physical properties and undergo relatively few chemical reactions other than combustion, they serve as a basis of comparison for the properties of many other organic compound families. Let's consider their physical properties first.

Table 1.1.7.1 describes some of the properties of some of the first 10 straight-chain alkanes. Because alkane molecules are nonpolar, they are insoluble in water, which is a polar solvent, but are soluble in nonpolar and slightly polar solvents. Consequently, alkanes themselves are commonly used as solvents for organic substances of low polarity, such as fats, oils, and waxes. Nearly all alkanes have densities less than 1.0 g/mL and are therefore less dense than water (the density of H_2O is 1.00 g/mL at 20°C). These properties explain why oil and grease do not mix with water but rather float on its surface.

Table 1.1.7.1: Physical Properties of Some Alkanes

Molecular Name	Formula	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Density (20°C)*	Physical State (at 20°C)
methane	CH_4	–182	–164	0.668 g/L	gas
ethane	C_2H_6	–183	–89	1.265 g/L	gas
propane	C_3H_8	–190	–42	1.867 g/L	gas
butane	C_4H_{10}	–138	–1	2.493 g/L	gas
pentane	C_5H_{12}	–130	36	0.626 g/mL	liquid
hexane	C_6H_{14}	–95	69	0.659 g/mL	liquid
octane	C_8H_{18}	–57	125	0.703 g/mL	liquid
decane	$C_{10}H_{22}$	–30	174	0.730 g/mL	liquid

*Note the change in units going from gases (grams per liter) to liquids (grams per milliliter). Gas densities are at 1 atm pressure.



Figure 1.1.7.1: Oil Spills. Crude oil coats the water's surface in the Gulf of Mexico after the *Deepwater Horizon* oil rig sank following an explosion. The leak was a mile below the surface, making it difficult to estimate the size of the spill. One liter of oil can create a slick 2.5 hectares (6.3 acres) in size. This and similar spills provide a reminder that hydrocarbons and water don't mix. Source: Photo courtesy of NASA Goddard / MODIS Rapid Response Team, NASA.gov, Topics, Earth Features, Oil Spill(opens in new window) [www.nasa.gov].

Looking Closer: Gas Densities and Fire Hazards

Table 1.1.7.1 indicates that the first four members of the alkane series are gases at ordinary temperatures. Natural gas is composed chiefly of methane, which has a density of about 0.67 g/L. The density of air is about 1.29 g/L. Because natural gas is less dense than air, it rises. When a natural-gas leak is detected and shut off in a room, the gas can be removed by opening an upper window. On the other hand, bottled gas can be either propane (density 1.88 g/L) or butanes (a mixture of butane and isobutane; density about 2.5 g/L). Both are much heavier than air (density 1.2 g/L). If bottled gas escapes into a building, it collects near the floor. This presents a much more serious fire hazard than a natural-gas leak because it is more difficult to rid the room of the heavier gas.

Also shown in Table 1.1.7.1 are the boiling points of the straight-chain alkanes increase with increasing molar mass. This general rule holds true for the straight-chain homologs of all organic compound families. Larger molecules have greater surface areas and consequently interact more strongly; more energy is therefore required to separate them. For a given molar mass, the boiling points of alkanes are relatively low because these nonpolar molecules have only weak dispersion forces to hold them together in the liquid state.

Looking Closer: An Alkane Basis for Properties of Other Compounds

An understanding of the physical properties of the alkanes is important in that petroleum and natural gas and the many products derived from them—gasoline, bottled gas, solvents, plastics, and more—are composed primarily of alkanes. This understanding is also vital because it is the basis for describing the properties of other organic and biological compound families. For example, large portions of the structures of lipids consist of nonpolar alkyl groups. Lipids include the dietary fats and fatlike compounds called phospholipids and sphingolipids that serve as structural components of living tissues. These compounds have both polar and nonpolar groups, enabling them to bridge the gap between water-soluble and water-insoluble phases. This characteristic is essential for the selective permeability of cell membranes.

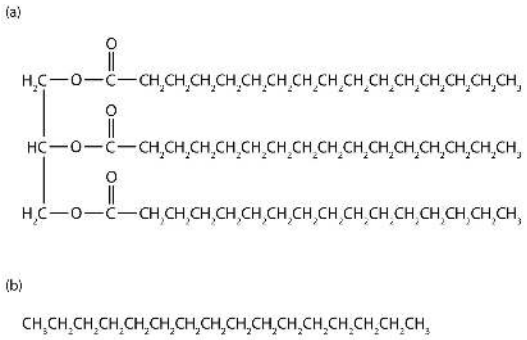


Figure 1.1.7.2: Tripalmitin (a), a typical fat molecule, has long hydrocarbon chains typical of most lipids. Compare these chains to hexadecane (b), an alkane with 16 carbon atoms.

Key Takeaway

- Alkanes are nonpolar compounds that are low boiling and insoluble in water.

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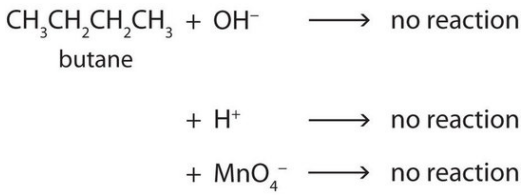
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1.1.8: Chemical Properties of Alkanes

Learning Objectives

- To identify the main chemical properties of alkanes.

Alkane molecules are nonpolar and therefore generally do not react with ionic compounds such as most laboratory acids, bases, oxidizing agents, or reducing agents. Consider butane as an example:



Butane plus O H superscript negative sign yields no reaction. There is also no reaction of butane with H superscript positive sign and Mn O subscript 4 superscript negative sign.

Neither positive ions nor negative ions are attracted to a nonpolar molecule. In fact, the alkanes undergo so few reactions that they are sometimes called *paraffins*, from the Latin *parum affinis*, meaning "little affinity."

Two important reactions that the alkanes do undergo are combustion and halogenation. Nothing happens when alkanes are merely mixed with oxygen (O_2) at room temperature, but when a flame or spark provides the activation energy, a highly exothermic combustion reaction proceeds vigorously. For methane (CH_4), the reaction is as follows:

$$CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O + \text{heat} \tag{1.1.8.1}$$

If the reactants are adequately mixed and there is sufficient oxygen, the only products are carbon dioxide (CO_2), water (H_2O), and heat—heat for cooking foods, heating homes, and drying clothes. Because conditions are rarely ideal, however, other products are frequently formed. When the oxygen supply is limited, carbon monoxide (CO) is a by-product:

$$2CH_4 + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2CO + 4H_2O \tag{1.1.8.2}$$

This reaction is responsible for dozens of deaths each year from unventilated or improperly adjusted gas heaters. (Similar reactions with similar results occur with kerosene heaters.)

Alkanes also react with the halogens chlorine (Cl_2) and bromine (Br_2) in the presence of ultraviolet light or at high temperatures to yield chlorinated and brominated alkanes. For example, chlorine reacts with excess methane (CH_4) to give methyl chloride (CH_3Cl).

$$CH_4 + Cl_2 \rightarrow CH_3Cl + HCl \tag{1.1.8.3}$$

With more chlorine, a mixture of products is obtained: CH_3Cl, CH_2Cl_2, $CHCl_3$, and CCl_4. Fluorine (F_2), the lightest halogen, combines explosively with most hydrocarbons. Iodine (I_2) is relatively unreactive. Fluorinated and iodinated alkanes are produced by indirect methods.

Key Takeaway

- Alkanes react with oxygen (combustion) and with halogens (halogenation).

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1.1.9: Halogenated Hydrocarbons

Learning Objectives

- To name halogenated hydrocarbons given formulas and write formulas for these compounds given names.

Many organic compounds are closely related to the alkanes. As we noted previously, alkanes react with halogens to produce halogenated hydrocarbons, the simplest of which have a single halogen atom substituted for a hydrogen atom of the alkane. Even more closely related are the cycloalkanes, compounds in which the carbon atoms are joined in a ring, or cyclic fashion.

The reactions of alkanes with halogens produce halogenated hydrocarbons, compounds in which one or more hydrogen atoms of a hydrocarbon have been replaced by halogen atoms:



The replacement of only one hydrogen atom gives an alkyl halide (or haloalkane). The *common names* of alkyl halides consist of two parts: the name of the alkyl group plus the stem of the name of the halogen, with the ending *-ide*. The IUPAC system uses the name of the parent alkane with a prefix indicating the halogen substituents, preceded by number indicating the substituent's location. The prefixes are *fluoro-*, *chloro-*, *bromo-*, and *iodo-*. Thus CH_3CH_2Cl has the common name ethyl chloride and the IUPAC name chloroethane. Alkyl halides with simple alkyl groups (one to four carbon atoms) are often called by common names. Those with a larger number of carbon atoms are usually given IUPAC names.

Example 1.1.9.1

Give the common and IUPAC names for each compound.

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2Br$
b. $(CH_3)_2CHCl$

Solution

a. The alkyl group ($CH_3CH_2CH_2$–) is a propyl group, and the halogen is bromine (Br). The common name is therefore propyl bromide. For the IUPAC name, the prefix for bromine (bromo) is combined with the name for a three-carbon chain (propane), preceded by a number identifying the carbon atom to which the Br atom is attached, so the IUPAC name is 1-bromopropane.
b. The alkyl group [$(CH_3)_2CH$–] has three carbon atoms, with a chlorine (Cl) atom attached to the middle carbon atom. The alkyl group is therefore isopropyl, and the common name of the compound is isopropyl chloride. For the IUPAC name, the Cl atom (prefix *chloro-*) attached to the middle (second) carbon atom of a propane chain results in 2-chloropropane.

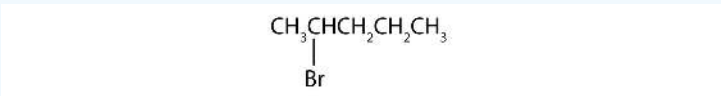
Exercise 1.1.9.1

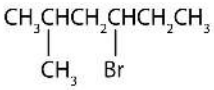
Give common and IUPAC names for each compound.

a. CH_3CH_2I
b. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2F$

Example 1.1.9.2

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

1. 

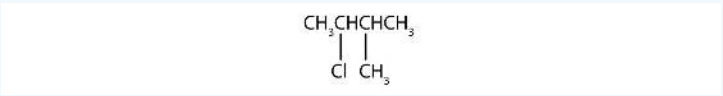
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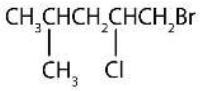
Solution

1. The parent alkane has five carbon atoms in the longest continuous chain; it is pentane. A bromo (Br) group is attached to the second carbon atom of the chain. The IUPAC name is 2-bromopentane.
2. The parent alkane is hexane. Methyl (CH_3) and bromo (Br) groups are attached to the second and fourth carbon atoms, respectively. Listing the substituents in alphabetical order gives the name 4-bromo-2-methylhexane.

? Exercise 1.1.9.2

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

a. 

- 

A wide variety of interesting and often useful compounds have one or more halogen atoms per molecule. For example, methane (CH_4) can react with chlorine (Cl_2), replacing one, two, three, or all four hydrogen atoms with Cl atoms. Several halogenated products derived from methane and ethane (CH_3CH_3) are listed in Table 1.1.9.1, along with some of their uses.

Table 1.1.9.1: Some Halogenated Hydrocarbons

Formula	Common Name	IUPAC Name	Some Important Uses
Derived from CH_4			
CH_3Cl	methyl chloride	chloromethane	refrigerant; the manufacture of silicones, methyl cellulose, and synthetic rubber
CH_2Cl_2	methylene chloride	dichloromethane	laboratory and industrial solvent
$CHCl_3$	chloroform	trichloromethane	industrial solvent
CCl_4	carbon tetrachloride	tetrachloromethane	dry-cleaning solvent and fire extinguishers (but no longer recommended for use)
$CBrF_3$	halon-1301	bromotrifluoromethane	fire extinguisher systems
CCl_3F	chlorofluorocarbon-11 (CFC-11)	trichlorofluoromethane	foaming plastics
CCl_2F_2	chlorofluorocarbon-12 (CFC-12)	dichlorodifluoromethane	refrigerant
Derived from CH_3CH_3			
CH_3CH_2Cl	ethyl chloride	chloroethane	local anesthetic
$ClCH_2CH_2Cl$	ethylene dichloride	1,2-dichloroethane	solvent for rubber
CCl_3CH_3	methylchloroform	1,1,1-trichloroethane	solvent for cleaning computer chips and molds for shaping plastics

To Your Health: Halogenated Hydrocarbons

Once widely used in consumer products, many chlorinated hydrocarbons are suspected carcinogens (cancer-causing substances) and also are known to cause severe liver damage. An example is carbon tetrachloride (CCl_4), once used as a dry-cleaning solvent

and in fire extinguishers but no longer recommended for either use. Even in small amounts, its vapor can cause serious illness if exposure is prolonged. Moreover, it reacts with water at high temperatures to form deadly phosgene ($COCl_2$) gas, which makes the use of CCl_4 in fire extinguishers particularly dangerous.

Ethyl chloride, in contrast, is used as an external local anesthetic. When sprayed on the skin, it evaporates quickly, cooling the area enough to make it insensitive to pain. It can also be used as an emergency general anesthetic.

Bromine-containing compounds are widely used in fire extinguishers and as fire retardants on clothing and other materials. Because they too are toxic and have adverse effects on the environment, scientists are engaged in designing safer substitutes for them, as for many other halogenated compounds.

To Your Health: Chlorofluorocarbons and the Ozone Layer

Alkanes substituted with both fluorine (F) and chlorine (Cl) atoms have been used as the dispersing gases in aerosol cans, as foaming agents for plastics, and as refrigerants. Two of the best known of these chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are listed in Table 1.1.9.1

Chlorofluorocarbons contribute to the greenhouse effect in the lower atmosphere. They also diffuse into the stratosphere, where they are broken down by ultraviolet (UV) radiation to release Cl atoms. These in turn break down the ozone (O_3) molecules that protect Earth from harmful UV radiation. Worldwide action has reduced the use of CFCs and related compounds. The CFCs and other Cl- or bromine (Br)-containing ozone-destroying compounds are being replaced with more benign substances. Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), such as CH_2FCF_3, which have no Cl or Br to form radicals, are one alternative. Another is hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), such as $CHCl_2CF_3$. HCFC molecules break down more readily in the troposphere, and fewer ozone-destroying molecules reach the stratosphere.

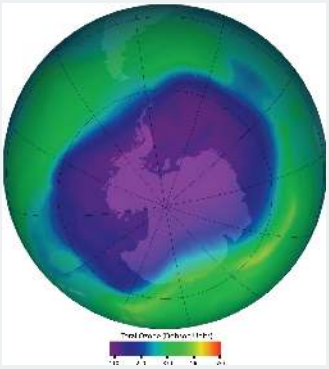


Figure 1.1.9.1: Ozone in the upper atmosphere shields Earth's surface from UV radiation from the sun, which can cause skin cancer in humans and is also harmful to other animals and to some plants. Ozone "holes" in the upper atmosphere (the gray, pink, and purple areas at the center) are large areas of substantial ozone depletion. They occur mainly over Antarctica from late August through early October and fill in about mid-November. Ozone depletion has also been noted over the Arctic regions. The largest ozone hole ever observed occurred on 24 September 2006. Source: Image courtesy of NASA, Ozone watch (opens in new window) [ozonewatch.gsfc.nasa.gov].

Key Takeaway

- The replacement of an hydrogen atom on an alkane by a halogen atom—F, Cl, Br, or I—forms a halogenated compound.

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1.1.10: Cycloalkanes

Learning Objectives

- To name cycloalkanes given their formulas and write formulas for these compounds given their names.

The hydrocarbons we have encountered so far have been composed of molecules with open-ended chains of carbon atoms. When a chain contains three or more carbon atoms, the atoms can join to form *ring* or *cyclic* structures. The simplest of these cyclic hydrocarbons has the formula C_3H_6. Each carbon atom has two hydrogen atoms attached (Figure 1.1.10.1) and is called cyclopropane.

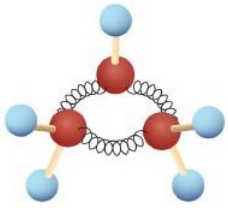
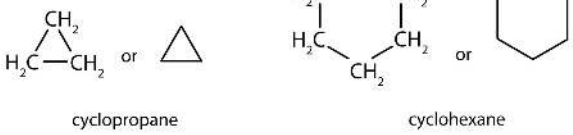


Figure 1.1.10.1: Ball-and-Spring Model of Cyclopropane. The springs are bent to join the carbon atoms.

To Your Health: Cyclopropane as an Anesthetic

With its boiling point of −33°C, cyclopropane is a gas at room temperature. It is also a potent, quick-acting anesthetic with few undesirable side effects in the body. It is no longer used in surgery, however, because it forms explosive mixtures with air at nearly all concentrations.

The cycloalkanes—cyclic hydrocarbons with only single bonds—are named by adding the prefix *cyclo-* to the name of the open-chain compound having the same number of carbon atoms as there are in the ring. Thus the name for the cyclic compound C_4H_8 is cyclobutane. The carbon atoms in cyclic compounds can be represented by *line-angle formulas* that result in regular geometric figures. Keep in mind, however, that each corner of the geometric figure represents a carbon atom plus as many hydrogen atoms as needed to give each carbon atom four bonds.



cyclopropane cyclohexane

Some cyclic compounds have substituent groups attached. Example 1.1.10.1 interprets the name of a cycloalkane with a single substituent group.

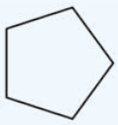
Example 1.1.10.1

Draw the structure for each compound.

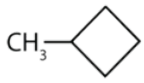
a. cyclopentane
b. methylcyclobutane

Solution

a. The name *cyclopentane* indicates a cyclic (cyclo) alkane with five (pent-) carbon atoms. It can be represented as a pentagon.



- The name *methylcyclobutane* indicates a cyclic alkane with four (but-) carbon atoms in the cyclic part. It can be represented as a square with a CH_3 group attached.



? Exercise 1.1.10.1

Draw the structure for each compound.

a. cycloheptane
b. ethylcyclohexane

The properties of cyclic hydrocarbons are generally quite similar to those of the corresponding open-chain compounds. So cycloalkanes (with the exception of cyclopropane, which has a highly strained ring) act very much like noncyclic alkanes. Cyclic structures containing five or six carbon atoms, such as cyclopentane and cyclohexane, are particularly stable. We will see later that some carbohydrates (sugars) form five- or six-membered rings in solution.

> The cyclopropane ring is strained because the C–C–C angles are 60°, and the preferred (tetrahedral) bond angle is 109.5°. (This strain is readily evident when you try to build a ball-and-stick model of cyclopropane; see Figure 1.1.10.1) Cyclopentane and cyclohexane rings have little strain because the C–C–C angles are near the preferred angles.

Key Takeaway

- Many organic compounds have cyclic structures.

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1.1.E: Organic Chemistry- Alkanes and Halogenated Hydrocarbons (Exercises)

12.1: Organic Chemistry

Concept Review Exercises

1. Classify each compound as organic or inorganic.
    a. C_3H_8O
    b. $CaCl_2$
    c. $Cr(NH_3)_3Cl_3$
    d. $C_{30}H_{48}O_3N$
2. Which compound is likely organic and which is likely inorganic?
    a. a flammable compound that boils at 80°C and is insoluble in water
    b. a compound that does not burn, melts at 630°C, and is soluble in water

Answers

1.
    a. organic
    b. inorganic
    c. inorganic
    d. organic
2.
    a. organic
    b. inorganic

1. Classify each compound as organic or inorganic.
    a. C_6H_{10}
    b. $CoCl_2$
    c. $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$
2. Classify each compound as organic or inorganic.
    a. CH_3NH_2
    b. $NaNH_2$
    c. $Cu(NH_3)_6Cl_2$
3. Which member of each pair has a higher melting point?
    a. CH_3OH and NaOH
    b. CH_3Cl and KCl
4. Which member of each pair has a higher melting point?
    a. C_2H_6 and $CoCl_2$
    b. CH_4 and LiH

Answers

1.
    a. organic
    b. inorganic
    c. organic

3.

a. NaOH
b. KCl

12.2: Structures and Names of Alkanes

Concept Review Exercises

1. In the homologous series of alkanes, what is the molecular formula for the member just above C_8H_{18}?
2. Use the general formula for alkanes to write the molecular formula of the alkane with 12 carbon atoms.

Answers

1. C_9H_{20}
2. $C_{12}H_{26}$

Exercises

1. What compounds contain fewer carbon atoms than C_3H_8 and are its homologs?
2. What compounds contain five to eight carbon atoms and are homologs of C_4H_{10}?

Answer

1. CH_4 and C_2H_6

12.3: Branched-Chain Alkanes

Concept Review Exercises

1. In alkanes, can there be a two-carbon branch off the second carbon atom of a four-carbon chain? Explain.
2. A student is asked to write structural formulas for two different hydrocarbons having the molecular formula C_5H_{12}. She writes one formula with all five carbon atoms in a horizontal line and the other with four carbon atoms in a line, with a CH_3 group extending down from the first attached to the third carbon atom. Do these structural formulas represent different molecular formulas? Explain why or why not.

Answers

1. No; the branch would make the longest continuous chain of five carbon atoms.
2. No; both are five-carbon continuous chains.

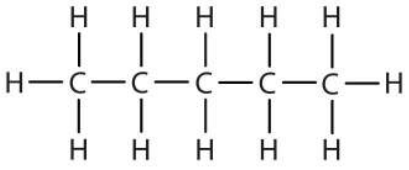
Key Takeaway

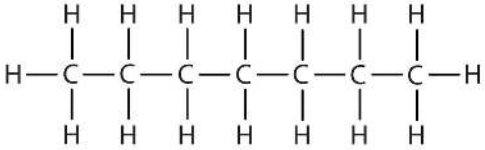
- Alkanes with four or more carbon atoms can exist in isomeric forms.

Exercises

1. Briefly identify the important distinctions between a straight-chain alkane and a branched-chain alkane.
2. How are butane and isobutane related? How do they differ?
3. Name each compound.

a.



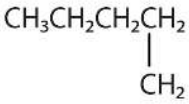
b. 

4. Write the structural formula for each compound.

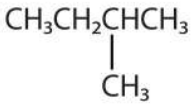
   a. hexane
   b. octane

5. Indicate whether the structures in each set represent the same compound or isomers.

   a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_3$ and



   b. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$ and



Answers

1. Straight-chain alkanes and branched-chain alkanes have different properties as well as different structures.

3.

   a. pentane
   b. heptane

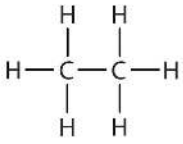
5.

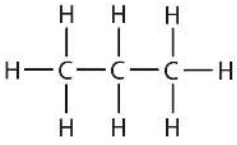
   a. no
   b. yes

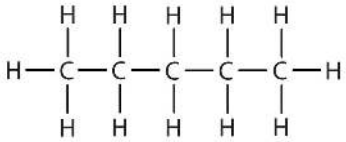
12.4: Condensed Structural and Line-Angle Formulas

Exercises

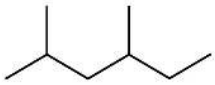
1. Write the condensed structural formula for each structural formula.

   a. 

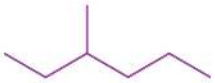
   b. 

c. 

2. A condensed structural formula for isohexane can be written as $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_2CH_3$. Draw the line-angle formula for isohexane.
3. Draw a line-angle formula for the compound $CH_3CH_2CH(CH_3)CH_2CH_2CH_3$.
4. Give the structural formula for the compound represented by this line-angle formula:



Answers

1.
   a. CH_3CH_3
   b. $CH_3CH_2CH_3$
   c. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$
3. 

12.5: IUPAC Nomenclature

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is a CH_3 group called when it is attached to a chain of carbon atoms—a substituent or a functional group?
2. Which type of name uses numbers to locate substituents—common names or IUPAC names?

Answers

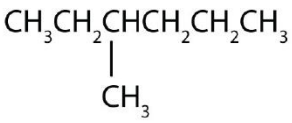
1. substituent
2. IUPAC names

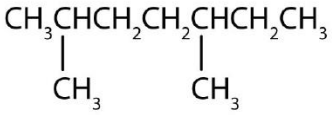
Exercises

1. Briefly identify the important distinctions between an alkane and an alkyl group.
2. How many carbon atoms are present in each molecule?
   a. 2-methylbutane
   b. 3-ethylpentane
3. How many carbon atoms are present in each molecule?
   a. 2,3-dimethylbutane
   b. 3-ethyl-2-methylheptane
4. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. 3-methylpentane
   b. 2,2,5-trimethylhexane
   c. 4-ethyl-3-methyloctane

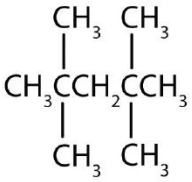
5. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. 2-methylpentane
   b. 4-ethyl-2-methylhexane
   c. 2,2,3,3-tetramethylbutane

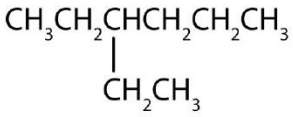
6. Name each compound according to the IUPAC system.

a. 

b. 

7. Name each compound according to the IUPAC system.

a. 

b. 

8. What is a substituent? How is the location of a substituent indicated in the IUPAC system?

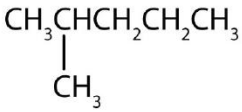
9. Briefly identify the important distinctions between a common name and an IUPAC name.

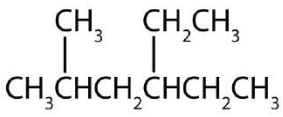
Answers

1. An alkane is a molecule; an alkyl group is not an independent molecule but rather a part of a molecule that we consider as a unit.

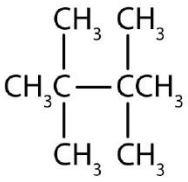
3.
   a. 6
   b. 10

5.

a. 

b. 

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c. 

7.

a. 2,2,4,4-tetramethylpentane
b. 3-ethylhexane

9. Common names are widely used but not very systematic; IUPAC names identify a parent compound and name other groups as substituents.

12.6: Physical Properties of Alkanes

Concept Review Exercises

1. Without referring to a table, predict which has a higher boiling point—hexane or octane. Explain.
2. If 25 mL of hexane were added to 100 mL of water in a beaker, which of the following would you expect to happen? Explain.
   a. Hexane would dissolve in water.
   b. Hexane would not dissolve in water and would float on top.
   c. Hexane would not dissolve in water and would sink to the bottom of the container.

Answers

1. octane because of its greater molar mass
2. b; hexane is insoluble in water and less dense than water.

Exercises

1. Without referring to a table or other reference, predict which member of each pair has the higher boiling point.
   a. pentane or butane
   b. heptane or nonane
2. For which member of each pair is hexane a good solvent?
   a. pentane or water
   b. sodium chloride or soybean oil

Answer

1. a. pentane
   b. nonane

12.7: Chemical Properties of Alkanes

Concept Review Exercises

1. Why are alkanes sometimes called paraffins?
2. Which halogen reacts most readily with alkanes? Which reacts least readily?

Answers

1. Alkanes do not react with many common chemicals. They are sometimes called paraffins, from the Latin parum affinis, meaning “little affinity.”
2. most readily: F_2; least readily: I_2

Exercises

1. Why do alkanes usually not react with ionic compounds such as most laboratory acids, bases, oxidizing agents, or reducing agents?
2. Write an equation for the complete combustion of methane (CH_4), the main component of natural gas).
3. What is the most important reaction of alkanes?
4. Name some substances other than oxygen that react readily with alkanes.

Answers

1. Alkanes are nonpolar; they do not attract ions.

12.8: Halogenated Hydrocarbons

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is the IUPAC name for the HFC that has the formula CH_2FCF_3? (Hint: you must use a number to indicate the location of each substituent F atom.)
2. What is the IUPAC name for the HCFC that has the formula $CHCl_2CF_3$?

Answers

1. 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane
2. 1,1,1-trifluoro-2,2-dichloroethane

Exercises

1. Write the condensed structural formula for each compound.
   a. methyl chloride
   b. chloroform
2. Write the condensed structural formula for each compound.
   a. ethyl bromide
   b. carbon tetrachloride
3. Write the condensed structural formulas for the two isomers that have the molecular formula C_3H_7Br. Give the common name and the IUPAC name of each.
4. Write the condensed structural formulas for the four isomers that have the molecular formula C_4H_9Br. Give the IUPAC name of each.
5. What is a CFC? How are CFCs involved in the destruction of the ozone layer?
6. Explain why each compound is less destructive to the ozone layer than are CFCs.
   a. fluorocarbons
   b. HCFCs

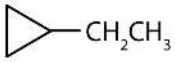
Answers

1. a. CH_3Cl
   b. $CHCl_3$
3. $CH_3CH_2CH_2Br$, propyl bromide, 1-bromopropane; $CH_3CHBrCH_3$, isopropyl bromide, 2-bromopropane
5. compounds containing Cl, F, and C; by releasing Cl atoms in the stratosphere

12.9: Cycloalkanes

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is the molecular formula of cyclooctane?
2. What is the IUPAC name for this compound?

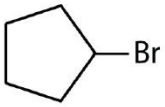


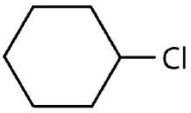
Answers

1. C_8H_{16}
2. ethylcyclopropane

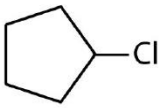
Exercises

1. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. ethylcyclobutane
   b. propylcyclopropane
2. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. methylcyclohexane
   b. butylcyclobutane
3. Cycloalkyl groups can be derived from cycloalkanes in the same way that alkyl groups are derived from alkanes. These groups are named as cyclopropyl, cyclobutyl, and so on. Name each cycloalkyl halide.

   a. 

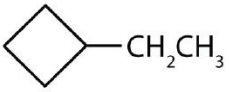
   b. 

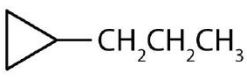
4. Halogenated cycloalkanes can be named by the IUPAC system. As with alkyl derivatives, monosubstituted derivatives need no number to indicate the position of the halogen. To name disubstituted derivatives, the carbon atoms are numbered starting at the position of one substituent (C1) and proceeding to the second substituted atom by the shortest route. Name each compound.

   a. 

   b. 

Answers

1. a. 

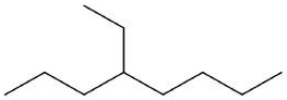
   b. 

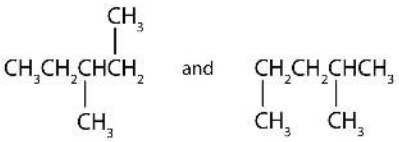
3. a. cyclopentyl bromide
   b. cyclohexyl chloride

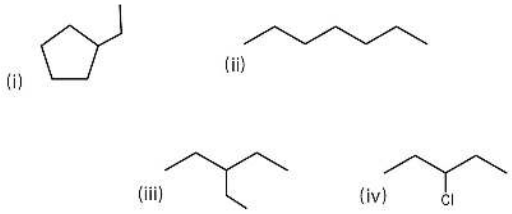
12.10: Chapter Summary

Additional Exercises

1. You find an unlabeled jar containing a solid that melts at 48°C. It ignites readily and burns readily. The substance is insoluble in water and floats on the surface. Is the substance likely to be organic or inorganic?
2. Give the molecular formulas for methylcyclopentane, 2-methylpentane, and cyclohexane. Which are isomers?
3. What is wrong with each name? (Hint: first write the structure *as if* it were correct.) Give the correct name for each compound.
   a. 2-dimethylpropane
   b. 2,3,3-trimethylbutane
   c. 2,4-diethylpentane
   d. 3,4-dimethyl-5-propylhexane
4. What is the danger in swallowing a liquid alkane?
5. Distinguish between lighter and heavier liquid alkanes in terms of their effects on the skin.
6. Following is the line formula for an alkane. Draw its structure and give its name.



7. Write equations for the complete combustion of each compound.
   a. propane (a bottled gas fuel)
   b. octane (a typical hydrocarbon in gasoline).
8. The density of a gasoline sample is 0.690 g/mL. On the basis of the complete combustion of octane, calculate the amount in grams of carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O) formed per gallon (3.78 L) of the gasoline when used in an automobile.
9. Draw the structures for the five isomeric hexanes (C_6H_{14}). Name each by the IUPAC system.
10. Indicate whether the structures in each set represent the same compound or isomers.
    a. 
    b. 
    c. 
11. Consider the line-angle formulas shown here and answer the questions.



a. Which pair of formulas represents isomers? Draw each structure.
b. Which formula represents an alkyl halide? Name the compound and write its condensed structural formula.
c. Which formula represents a cyclic alkane? Name the compound and draw its structure.
d. What is the molecular formula of the compound represented by (i)?

Answers

1. organic

3.

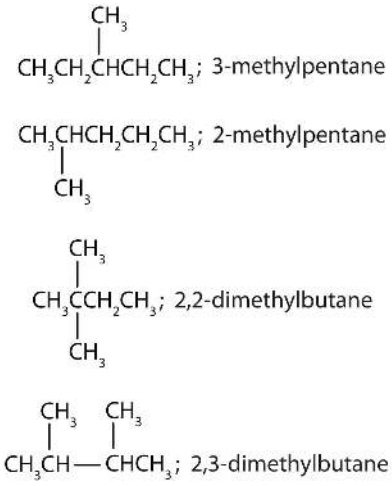
a. Two numbers are needed to indicate two substituents; 2,2-dimethylpropane.
b. The lowest possible numbers were not used; 2,2,3-trimethylbutane.
c. An ethyl substituent is not possible on the second carbon atom; 3,5-dimethylheptane.
d. A propyl substituent is not possible on the fifth carbon atom; 3,4,5-trimethyloctane.

5. Lighter alkanes wash away protective skin oils; heavier alkanes form a protective layer.

7.

a. $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 \rightarrow 3CO_2 + 4H_2O$
b. $2C_8H_{18} + 25O_2 \rightarrow 16CO_2 + 18H_2O$

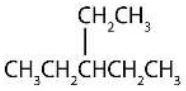
9. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$; hexane



11.

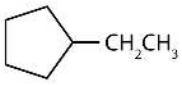
a. ii and iii; $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$ and

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b. iv; 3-chloropentane; $CH_3CH_2CHClCH_2CH_3$

c. i; ethylcyclopentane;



d. C_7H_{14}

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1.1.S: Organic Chemistry- Alkanes and Halogenated Hydrocarbons (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the following bold terms in the summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

Organic chemistry is the chemistry of carbon compounds, and **inorganic chemistry** is the chemistry of all the other elements. Carbon atoms can form stable covalent bonds with other carbon atoms and with atoms of other elements, and this property allows the formation the tens of millions of organic compounds. **Hydrocarbons** contain only hydrogen and carbon atoms.

Hydrocarbons in which each carbon atom is bonded to four other atoms are called **alkanes** or **saturated hydrocarbons**. They have the general formula C_nH_{2n+2}. Any given alkane differs from the next one in a series by a CH_2 unit. Any family of compounds in which adjacent members differ from each other by a definite factor is called a **homologous series**.

Carbon atoms in alkanes can form straight chains or branched chains. Two or more compounds having the same molecular formula but different structural formulas are **isomers** of each other. There are no isomeric forms for the three smallest alkanes; beginning with C_4H_{10}, all other alkanes have isomeric forms.

A **structural formula** shows all the carbon and hydrogen atoms and how they are attached to one another. A **condensed structural formula** shows the hydrogen atoms right next to the carbon atoms to which they are attached. A **line-angle formula** is a formula in which carbon atoms are implied at the corners and ends of lines. Each carbon atom is understood to be attached to enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds.

The **IUPAC System of Nomenclature** provides rules for naming organic compounds. An **alkyl group** is a unit formed by removing one hydrogen atom from an alkane.

The physical properties of alkanes reflect the fact that alkane molecules are nonpolar. Alkanes are insoluble in water and less dense than water.

Alkanes are generally unreactive toward laboratory acids, bases, oxidizing agents, and reducing agents. They do burn (undergo **combustion reactions**).

Alkanes react with halogens by substituting one or more halogen atoms for hydrogen atoms to form **halogenated hydrocarbons**. An **alkyl halide (haloalkane)** is a compound resulting from the replacement of a hydrogen atom of an alkane with a halogen atom.

Cycloalkanes are hydrocarbons whose molecules are closed rings rather than straight or branched chains. A **cyclic hydrocarbon** is a hydrocarbon with a ring of carbon atoms

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

2: Unsaturated Hydrocarbons

2.1: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons

2.1.1: Prelude to Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons

2.1.2: Alkenes- Structures and Names

2.1.3: Cis-Trans Isomers (Geometric Isomers)

2.1.4: Physical Properties of Alkenes

2.1.5: Chemical Properties of Alkenes

2.1.6: Polymers

2.1.7: Alkynes

2.1.8: Aromatic Compounds- Benzene

2.1.9: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds

2.1.E: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Exercises)

2.1.S: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Summary)

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SECTION OVERVIEW

2.1: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons

Our modern society is based to a large degree on the chemicals we discuss in this chapter. Most are made from petroleum. Alkanes—saturated hydrocarbons—have relatively few important chemical properties other than that they undergo combustion and react with halogens. Unsaturated hydrocarbons—hydrocarbons with double or triple bonds—on the other hand, are quite reactive. In fact, they serve as building blocks for many familiar plastics—polyethylene, vinyl plastics, acrylics—and other important synthetic materials (e.g., alcohols, antifreeze, and detergents). Aromatic hydrocarbons have formulas that can be drawn as cyclic alkenes, making them appear unsaturated, but their structure and properties are generally quite different, so they are not considered to be alkenes. Aromatic compounds serve as the basis for many drugs, antiseptics, explosives, solvents, and plastics (e.g., polyesters and polystyrene). The two simplest unsaturated compounds—ethylene (ethene) and acetylene (ethyne)—were once used as anesthetics and were introduced to the medical field in 1924. However, it was discovered that acetylene forms explosive mixtures with air, so its medical use was abandoned in 1925. Ethylene was thought to be safer, but it too was implicated in numerous lethal fires and explosions during anesthesia. Even so, it remained an important anesthetic into the 1960s, when it was replaced by nonflammable anesthetics such as halothane ($CHBrClCF_3$).

2.1.1: Prelude to Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons

2.1.2: Alkenes- Structures and Names

2.1.3: Cis-Trans Isomers (Geometric Isomers)

2.1.4: Physical Properties of Alkenes

2.1.5: Chemical Properties of Alkenes

2.1.6: Polymers

2.1.7: Alkynes

2.1.8: Aromatic Compounds- Benzene

2.1.9: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds

2.1.E: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Exercises)

2.1.S: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Summary)

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2.1.1: Prelude to Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons

Our modern society is based to a large degree on the chemicals we discuss in this chapter. Most are made from petroleum. Alkanes—saturated hydrocarbons—have relatively few important chemical properties other than that they undergo combustion and react with halogens. Unsaturated hydrocarbons—hydrocarbons with double or triple bonds—on the other hand, are quite reactive. In fact, they serve as building blocks for many familiar plastics—polyethylene, vinyl plastics, acrylics—and other important synthetic materials (e.g., alcohols, antifreeze, and detergents). Aromatic hydrocarbons have formulas that can be drawn as cyclic alkenes, making them appear unsaturated, but their structure and properties are generally quite different, so they are not considered to be alkenes. Aromatic compounds serve as the basis for many drugs, antiseptics, explosives, solvents, and plastics (e.g., polyesters and polystyrene).

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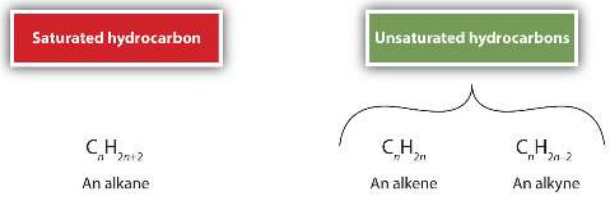
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2.1.2: Alkenes- Structures and Names

Learning Objectives

- To name alkenes given formulas and write formulas for alkenes given names.

As noted before, alkenes are hydrocarbons with carbon-to-carbon double bonds ($R_2C{=}CR_2$) and alkynes are hydrocarbons with carbon-to-carbon triple bonds (R–C≡C–R). Collectively, they are called unsaturated hydrocarbons because they have fewer hydrogen atoms than does an alkane with the same number of carbon atoms, as is indicated in the following general formulas:

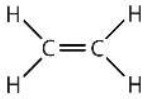


Some representative alkenes—their names, structures, and physical properties—are given in Table 2.1.2.1.

Table 2.1.2.1: Physical Properties of Some Selected Alkenes

IUPAC Name	Molecular Formula	Condensed Structural Formula	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)
ethene	C_2H_4	$CH_2{=}CH_2$	–169	–104
propene	C_3H_6	$CH_2{=}CHCH_3$	–185	–47
1-butene	C_4H_8	$CH_2{=}CHCH_2CH_3$	–185	–6
1-pentene	C_5H_{10}	$CH_2{=}CH(CH_2)_2CH_3$	–138	30
1-hexene	C_6H_{12}	$CH_2{=}CH(CH_2)_3CH_3$	–140	63
1-heptene	C_7H_{14}	$CH_2{=}CH(CH_2)_4CH_3$	–119	94
1-octene	C_8H_{16}	$CH_2{=}CH(CH_2)_5CH_3$	–102	121

We used only condensed structural formulas in Table 2.1.2.1. Thus, $CH_2{=}CH_2$ stands for



The double bond is shared by the two carbons and does not involve the hydrogen atoms, although the condensed formula does not make this point obvious. Note that the molecular formula for ethene is C_2H_4, whereas that for ethane is C_2H_6.

The first two alkenes in Table 2.1.2.1, ethene and propene, are most often called by their common names—ethylene and propylene, respectively (Figure 2.1.2.1). Ethylene is a major commercial chemical. The US chemical industry produces about 25 billion kilograms of ethylene annually, more than any other synthetic organic chemical. More than half of this ethylene goes into the manufacture of polyethylene, one of the most familiar plastics. Propylene is also an important industrial chemical. It is converted to plastics, isopropyl alcohol, and a variety of other products.

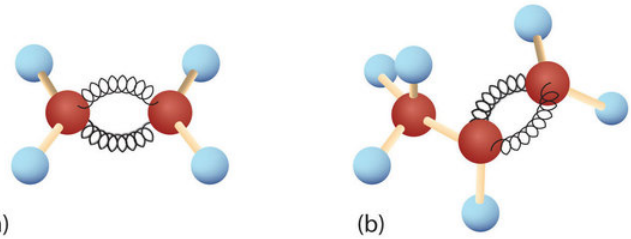
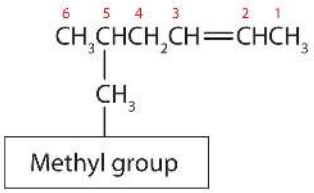


Figure 2.1.2.1: Ethene and Propene. The ball-and-spring models of ethene/ethylene (a) and propene/propylene (b) show their respective shapes, especially bond angles.

Although there is only one alkene with the formula C_2H_4 (ethene) and only one with the formula C_3H_6 (propene), there are several alkenes with the formula C_4H_8.

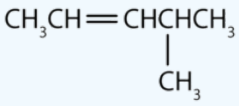
Here are some basic rules for naming alkenes from the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC):

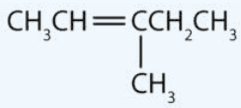
1. The longest chain of carbon atoms *containing the double bond* is considered the parent chain. It is named using the same stem as the alkane having the same number of carbon atoms but ends in *-ene* to identify it as an alkene. Thus the compound CH_2=$CHCH_3$ is *propene*.
2. If there are four or more carbon atoms in a chain, we must indicate the position of the double bond. The carbons atoms are numbered so that the first of the two that are doubly bonded is given the lower of the two possible numbers.The compound CH_3CH=$CHCH_2CH_3$, for example, has the double bond between the second and third carbon atoms. Its name is 2-pentene (not 3-pentene).
3. Substituent groups are named as with alkanes, and their position is indicated by a number. Thus, the structure below is 5-methyl-2-hexene. Note that the numbering of the parent chain is always done in such a way as to give the double bond the lowest number, even if that causes a substituent to have a higher number. *The double bond always has priority in numbering.*



Example 2.1.2.1

Name each compound.

a. 

b. 

Solution

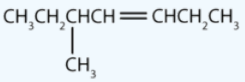
a. The longest chain containing the double bond has five carbon atoms, so the compound is a *pentene* (rule 1). To give the first carbon atom of the double bond the lowest number (rule 2), we number from the left, so the compound is a 2-pentene. There is a methyl group on the fourth carbon atom (rule 3), so the compound's name is 4-methyl-2-pentene.

b. The longest chain containing the double bond has five carbon atoms, so the parent compound is a *pentene* (rule 1). To give the first carbon atom of the double bond the lowest number (rule 2), we number from the left, so the compound is a 2-pentene. There is a methyl group on the third carbon atom (rule 3), so the compound's name is 3-methyl-2-pentene.

Exercise 2.1.2.1

Name each compound.

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH{=}CHCH_3$

b. 

Answer

Just as there are cycloalkanes, there are *cycloalkenes*. These compounds are named like alkenes, but with the prefix *cyclo-* attached to the beginning of the parent alkene name.

Example 2.1.2.2

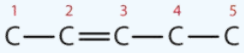
Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 3-methyl-2-pentene
b. cyclohexene

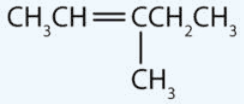
Solution

a.

First write the parent chain of five carbon atoms: C–C–C–C–C. Then add the double bond between the second and third carbon atoms:

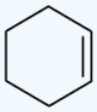


Now place the methyl group on the third carbon atom and add enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom a total of four bonds.



b

First, consider what each of the three parts of the name means. *Cyclo* means a ring compound, *hex* means 6 carbon atoms, and *-ene* means a double bond.



Exercise 2.1.2.2

Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 2-ethyl-1-hexene
b. cyclopentene

Key Takeaway

- Alkenes are hydrocarbons with a carbon-to-carbon double bond.

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2.1.3: Cis-Trans Isomers (Geometric Isomers)

Learning Objectives

- Recognize that alkenes that can exist as cis-trans isomers.
- Classify isomers as cis or trans.
- Draw structures for cis-trans isomers given their names.

There is free rotation about the carbon-to-carbon single bonds (C–C) in alkanes. In contrast, the structure of alkenes requires that the carbon atoms of a double bond and the two atoms bonded to each carbon atom all lie in a single plane, and that each doubly bonded carbon atom lies in the center of a triangle. This part of the molecule's structure is rigid; rotation about doubly bonded carbon atoms is *not* possible without rupturing the bond. Look at the two chlorinated hydrocarbons in Figure 2.1.3.1.

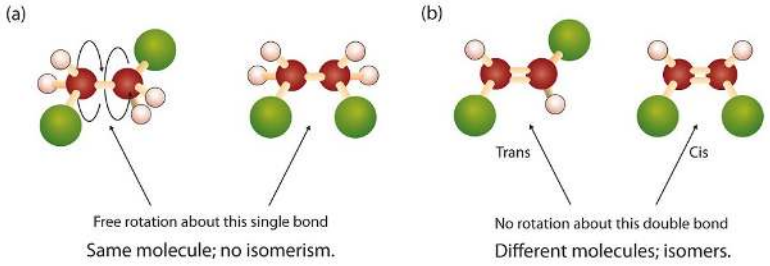


Figure 2.1.3.1: *Rotation about Bonds. In 1,2-dichloroethane (a), free rotation about the C–C bond allows the two structures to be interconverted by a twist of one end relative to the other. In 1,2-dichloroethene (b), restricted rotation about the double bond means that the relative positions of substituent groups above or below the double bond are significant.*

In 1,2-dichloroethane (part (a) of Figure 2.1.3.1), there is free rotation about the C–C bond. The two models shown represent exactly the same molecule; they are *not* isomers. You can draw structural formulas that look different, but if you bear in mind the possibility of this free rotation about single bonds, you should recognize that these two structures represent the same molecule:



In 1,2-dichloroethene (Figure 2.1.3.1*b*), however, restricted rotation about the double bond means that the relative positions of substituent groups above or below the double bond become significant. This leads to a special kind of isomerism. The isomer in which the two chlorine (Cl) atoms lie on the same side of the molecule is called the cis isomer (Latin *cis*, meaning "on this side") and is named cis-1,2-dichloroethene. The isomer with the two Cl atoms on opposite sides of the molecule is the trans isomer (Latin *trans*, meaning "across") and is named *trans*-1,2-dichloroethene. These two compounds are cis-trans isomers (or geometric isomers), compounds that have different configurations (groups permanently in different places in space) because of the presence of a rigid structure in their molecule.

Consider the alkene with the condensed structural formula $CH_3CH{=}CHCH_3$. We could name it 2-butene, but there are actually two such compounds; the double bond results in cis-trans isomerism (Figure 2.1.3.2).

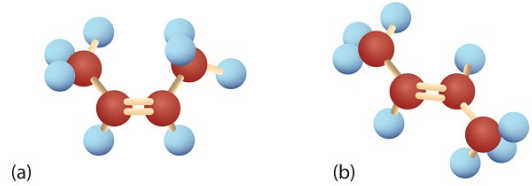


Figure 2.1.3.2: Ball-and-Spring Models of (a) Cis-2-Butene and (b) Trans-2-Butene. Cis-trans isomers have different physical, chemical, and physiological properties.

Cis-2-butene has both methyl groups on the same side of the molecule. *Trans*-2-butene has the methyl groups on opposite sides of the molecule. Their structural formulas are as follows:



***Figure* 2.1.3.3** *: Models of (left) Cis-2-Butene and (right) Trans-2-Butene.*

Note, however, that the presence of a double bond does **not** necessarily lead to cis-trans isomerism (Figure 2.1.3.4). We can draw two *seemingly* different propenes:



***Figure* 2.1.3.4** *: Different views of the propene molecule (flip vertically). These are not isomers.*

However, these two structures are not really different from each other. If you could pick up either molecule from the page and flip it over top to bottom, you would see that the two formulas are identical. Thus there are two requirements for cis-trans isomerism:

1. Rotation must be restricted in the molecule.
2. There must be **two nonidentical groups** on **each** doubly bonded carbon atom.

In these propene structures, the second requirement for cis-trans isomerism is not fulfilled. One of the doubly bonded carbon atoms does have two different groups attached, but the rules require that *both* carbon atoms have two different groups. In general, the following statements hold true in cis-trans isomerism:

- Alkenes with a $C{=}CH_2$ unit do not exist as cis-trans isomers.
- Alkenes with a $C{=}CR_2$ unit, where the two R groups are the same, do not exist as cis-trans isomers.
- Alkenes of the type R–CH=CH–R can exist as cis and trans isomers; cis if the two R groups are on the same side of the carbon-to-carbon double bond, and trans if the two R groups are on opposite sides of the carbon-to-carbon double bond.

Advanced Note: E/Z Isomerization

If a molecule has a C=C bond with one non-hydrogen group attached to each of the carbons, cis/trans nomenclature descried above is enough to describe it. However, if you have three different groups (or four), then the cis/trans approach is insufficient to describe the different isomers, since we do not know which two of the three groups are being described. For example, if you have a C=C bond, with a methyl group and a bromine on one carbon , and an ethyl group on the other, it is neither trans nor cis, since it is not clear whether the ethyl group is trans to the bromine or the methyl. This is addressed with a more advanced E,Z Convention [E] [E] [E] discussed elsewhere.

Cis-trans isomerism also occurs in cyclic compounds. In ring structures, groups are unable to rotate about any of the ring carbon–carbon bonds. Therefore, groups can be either on the same side of the ring (cis) or on opposite sides of the ring (trans). For our purposes here, we represent all cycloalkanes as planar structures, and we indicate the positions of the groups, either above or below the plane of the ring.



Example 2.1.3.1

Which compounds can exist as cis-trans (geometric) isomers? Draw them.

1. CHCl=CHBr
2. $CH_2{=}CBrCH_3$
3. $(CH_3)_2C{=}CHCH_2CH_3$

4. $CH_3CH=CHCH_2CH_3$

Solution

All four structures have a double bond and thus meet rule 1 for cis-trans isomerism.

1. This compound meets rule 2; it has two nonidentical groups on *each* carbon atom (H and Cl on one and H and Br on the other). It exists as both cis and trans isomers:

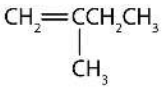


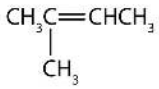
2. This compound has two hydrogen atoms on one of its doubly bonded carbon atoms; it fails rule 2 and does not exist as cis and trans isomers.
3. This compound has two methyl (CH_3) groups on one of its doubly bonded carbon atoms. It fails rule 2 and does not exist as cis and trans isomers.
4. This compound meets rule 2; it has two nonidentical groups on *each* carbon atom and exists as both cis and trans isomers:



? Exercise 2.1.3.1

Which compounds can exist as cis-trans isomers? Draw them.

a. $CH_2=CHCH_2CH_2CH_3$
b. $CH_3CH=CHCH_2CH_3$
c. $CH_3CH_2CH=CHCH_2CH_3$
d. 

e. 

Key Takeaway

- Cis-trans (geometric) isomerism exists when there is restricted rotation in a molecule and there are two nonidentical groups on *each* doubly bonded carbon atom.

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2.1.4: Physical Properties of Alkenes

Learning Objectives

- To identify the physical properties of alkenes and describe trends in these properties.

The physical properties of alkenes are similar to those of the alkanes. The table at the start of the chapter shows that the boiling points of straight-chain alkenes increase with increasing molar mass, just as with alkanes. For molecules with the same number of carbon atoms and the same general shape, the boiling points usually differ only slightly, just as we would expect for substances whose molar mass differs by only 2 u (equivalent to two hydrogen atoms). Like other hydrocarbons, the alkenes are insoluble in water but soluble in organic solvents.

Looking Closer: Environmental Note

Alkenes occur widely in nature. Ripening fruits and vegetables give off ethylene, which triggers further ripening. Fruit processors artificially introduce ethylene to hasten the ripening process; exposure to as little as 0.1 mg of ethylene for 24 h can ripen 1 kg of tomatoes. Unfortunately, this process does not exactly duplicate the ripening process, and tomatoes picked green and treated this way don't taste much like vine-ripened tomatoes fresh from the garden.



The bright red color of tomatoes is due to lycopene—a polyene.

Other alkenes that occur in nature include 1-octene, a constituent of lemon oil, and octadecene ($C_{18}H_{36}$) found in fish liver. Dienes (two double bonds) and polyenes (three or more double bonds) are also common. Butadiene (CH_2=$CHCH$=CH_2) is found in coffee. Lycopene and the carotenes are isomeric polyenes ($C_{40}H_{56}$) that give the attractive red, orange, and yellow colors to watermelons, tomatoes, carrots, and other fruits and vegetables. Vitamin A, essential to good vision, is derived from a carotene. The world would be a much less colorful place without alkenes.

Key Takeaway

- The physical properties of alkenes are much like those of the alkanes: their boiling points increase with increasing molar mass, and they are insoluble in water.

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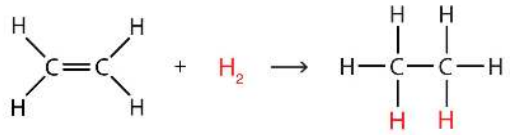
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2.1.5: Chemical Properties of Alkenes

Learning Objectives

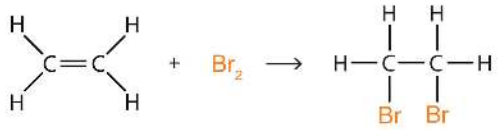
- To write equations for the addition reactions of alkenes with hydrogen, halogens, and water

Alkenes are valued mainly for addition reactions, in which one of the bonds in the double bond is broken. Each of the carbon atoms in the bond can then attach another atom or group while remaining joined to each other by a single bond. Perhaps the simplest addition reaction is hydrogenation—a reaction with hydrogen (H_2) in the presence of a catalyst such as nickel (Ni) or platinum (Pt).

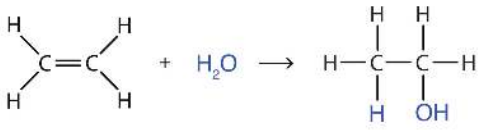


The product is an alkane having the same carbon skeleton as the alkene.

Alkenes also readily undergo halogenation—the addition of halogens. Indeed, the reaction with bromine (Br_2) can be used to test for alkenes. Bromine solutions are brownish red. When we add a Br_2 solution to an alkene, the color of the solution disappears because the alkene reacts with the bromine:



Another important addition reaction is that between an alkene and water to form an alcohol. This reaction, called hydration, requires a catalyst—usually a strong acid, such as sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4):



The hydration reaction is discussed later, where we deal with this reaction in the synthesis of alcohols.

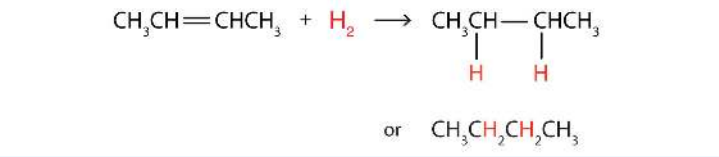
Example 2.1.5.1

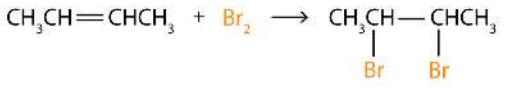
Write the equation for the reaction between $CH_3CH{=}CHCH_3$ and each substance.

a. H_2 (Ni catalyst)
b. Br_2
c. H_2O (H_2SO_4 catalyst)

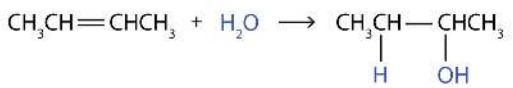
Solution

In each reaction, the reagent adds across the double bond.

a. 

b. 

or $CH_3CHBrCHBrCH_3$

c. 

or $CH_3CH_2CHOHCH_3$

? Exercise 2.1.5.1

Write the equation for each reaction.

a. $CH_3CH_2CH{=}CH_2$ with H_2 (Ni catalyst)
b. $CH_3CH{=}CH_2$ with Cl_2
c. $CH_3CH_2CH{=}CHCH_2CH_3$ with H_2O (H_2SO_4 catalyst)

Key Takeaway

- Alkenes undergo addition reactions, adding such substances as hydrogen, bromine, and water across the carbon-to-carbon double bond.

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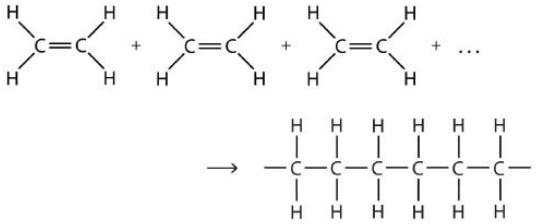
2.1.6: Polymers

Learning Objectives

- To draw structures for monomers that can undergo addition polymerization and for four-monomer-unit sections of an addition polymer.

The most important commercial reactions of alkenes are *polymerizations*, reactions in which small molecules, referred to in general as monomers (from the Greek *monos*, meaning “one,” and *meros*, meaning “parts”), are assembled into giant molecules referred to as polymers (from the Greek *poly*, meaning “many,” and *meros*, meaning “parts”). A polymer is as different from its monomer as a long strand of spaghetti is from a tiny speck of flour. For example, polyethylene, the familiar waxy material used to make plastic bags, is made from the monomer ethylene—a gas.

There are two general types of polymerization reactions: addition polymerization and condensation polymerization. In addition polymerization, the monomers add to one another in such a way that the polymer contains all the atoms of the starting monomers. Ethylene molecules are joined together in long chains. The polymerization can be represented by the reaction of a few monomer units:



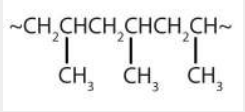
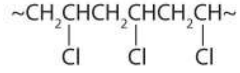
The bond lines extending at the ends in the formula of the product indicate that the structure extends for many units in each direction. Notice that all the atoms—two carbon atoms and four hydrogen atoms—of each monomer molecule are incorporated into the polymer structure. Because displays such as the one above are cumbersome, the polymerization is often abbreviated as follows:

$$n\mathrm{CH_2{=}CH_2} \rightarrow \text{-}\mathrm{CH_2CH_2}\text{-}_n$$

Many natural materials—such as proteins, cellulose and starch, and complex silicate minerals—are polymers. Artificial fibers, films, plastics, semisolid resins, and rubbers are also polymers. More than half the compounds produced by the chemical industry are synthetic polymers.

Some common addition polymers are listed in Table 2.1.6.1. Note that all the monomers have carbon-to-carbon double bonds. Many polymers are mundane (e.g., plastic bags, food wrap, toys, and tableware), but there are also polymers that conduct electricity, have amazing adhesive properties, or are stronger than steel but much lighter in weight.

Table 2.1.6.1: *Some Addition Polymers*

Monomer	Polymer	Polymer Name	Some Uses
$CH_2{=}CH_2$	~$CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2$~	polyethylene	plastic bags, bottles, toys, electrical insulation
$CH_2{=}CHCH_3$		polypropylene	carpeting, bottles, luggage, exercise clothing
$CH_2{=}CHCl$		polyvinyl chloride	bags for intravenous solutions, pipes, tubing, floor coverings
$CF_2{=}CF_2$	~$CF_2CF_2CF_2CF_2CF_2CF_2$~	polytetrafluoroethylene	nonstick coatings, electrical insulation

Medical Uses of Polymers

An interesting use of polymers is the replacement of diseased, worn out, or missing parts in the body. For example, about a 250,000 hip joints and 500,000 knees are replaced in US hospitals each year. The artificial ball-and-socket hip joints are made of a special steel (the ball) and plastic (the socket). People crippled by arthritis or injuries gain freedom of movement and relief from pain. Patients with heart and circulatory problems can be helped by replacing worn out heart valves with parts based on synthetic polymers. These are only a few of the many biomedical uses of polymers.

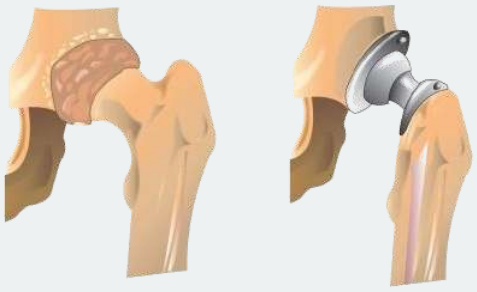


Figure 2.1.6.1: Hip Joint Replacement. Synthetic polymers are an important part of a hip joint replacement. The hip is much like a ball-and-socket joint, and total hip replacements mimic this with a metal ball that fits in a plastic cup.

Key Takeaway

- Molecules having carbon-to-carbon double bonds can undergo addition polymerization.

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2.1.7: Alkynes

Learning Objectives

- Describe the general physical and chemical properties of alkynes.
- Name alkynes given formulas and write formulas for alkynes given names.

The simplest alkyne—a hydrocarbon with carbon-to-carbon triple bond—has the molecular formula C_2H_2 and is known by its common name—acetylene (Figure 2.1.7.1). Its structure is H–C≡C–H.

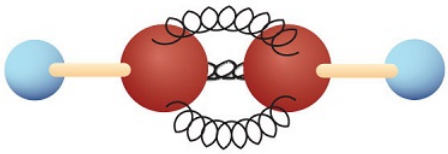


Figure 2.1.7.1: Ball-and-Spring Model of Acetylene. Acetylene (ethyne) is the simplest member of the alkyne family.

Acetylene is used in oxyacetylene torches for cutting and welding metals. The flame from such a torch can be very hot. Most acetylene, however, is converted to chemical intermediates that are used to make vinyl and acrylic plastics, fibers, resins, and a variety of other products.

Alkynes are similar to alkenes in both physical and chemical properties. For example, alkynes undergo many of the typical addition reactions of alkenes. The International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) names for alkynes parallel those of alkenes, except that the family ending is *-yne* rather than *-ene*. The IUPAC name for acetylene is ethyne. The names of other alkynes are illustrated in the following exercises.

Key Takeaway

- Alkynes are hydrocarbons with carbon-to-carbon triple bonds and properties much like those of alkenes.

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2.1.8: Aromatic Compounds- Benzene

Learning Objectives

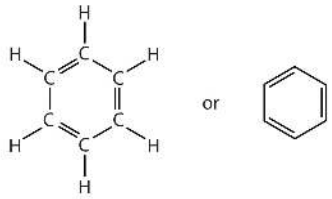
- To describe the bonding in benzene and the way typical reactions of benzene differ from those of the alkenes.

Next we consider a class of hydrocarbons with molecular formulas like those of unsaturated hydrocarbons, but which, unlike the alkenes, do not readily undergo addition reactions. These compounds comprise a distinct class, called aromatic hydrocarbons, with unique structures and properties. We start with the simplest of these compounds. Benzene (C_6H_6) is of great commercial importance, but it also has noteworthy health effects.

The formula C_6H_6 seems to indicate that benzene has a high degree of unsaturation. (Hexane, the saturated hydrocarbon with six carbon atoms has the formula C_6H_{14}—eight more hydrogen atoms than benzene.) However, despite the seeming low level of saturation, benzene is rather unreactive. It does not, for example, react readily with bromine, which, is a test for unsaturation.

Benzene is a liquid that smells like gasoline, boils at 80°C, and freezes at 5.5°C. It is the aromatic hydrocarbon produced in the largest volume. It was formerly used to decaffeinate coffee and was a significant component of many consumer products, such as paint strippers, rubber cements, and home dry-cleaning spot removers. It was removed from many product formulations in the 1950s, but others continued to use benzene in products until the 1970s when it was associated with leukemia deaths. Benzene is still important in industry as a precursor in the production of plastics (such as Styrofoam and nylon), drugs, detergents, synthetic rubber, pesticides, and dyes. It is used as a solvent for such things as cleaning and maintaining printing equipment and for adhesives such as those used to attach soles to shoes. Benzene is a natural constituent of petroleum products, but because it is a known carcinogen, its use as an additive in gasoline is now limited.

To explain the surprising properties of benzene, chemists suppose the molecule has a cyclic, hexagonal, planar structure of six carbon atoms with one hydrogen atom bonded to each. We can write a structure with alternate single and double bonds, either as a full structural formula or as a line-angle formula:



However, these structures do not explain the unique properties of benzene. Furthermore, experimental evidence indicates that all the carbon-to-carbon bonds in benzene are equivalent, and the molecule is unusually stable. Chemists often represent benzene as a hexagon with an inscribed circle:



The inner circle indicates that the valence electrons are shared equally by all six carbon atoms (that is, the electrons are *delocalized*, or spread out, over all the carbon atoms). It is understood that each corner of the hexagon is occupied by one carbon atom, and each carbon atom has one hydrogen atom attached to it. Any other atom or groups of atoms substituted for a hydrogen atom must be shown bonded to a particular corner of the hexagon. We use this modern symbolism, but many scientists still use the earlier structure with alternate double and single bonds.

To Your Health: Benzene and Us

Most of the benzene used commercially comes from petroleum. It is employed as a starting material for the production of detergents, drugs, dyes, insecticides, and plastics. Once widely used as an organic solvent, benzene is now known to have both short- and long-term toxic effects. The inhalation of large concentrations can cause nausea and even death due to respiratory or

heart failure, while repeated exposure leads to a progressive disease in which the ability of the bone marrow to make new blood cells is eventually destroyed. This results in a condition called *aplastic anemia*, in which there is a decrease in the numbers of both the red and white blood cells.

Key Takeaway

- Aromatic hydrocarbons appear to be unsaturated, but they have a special type of bonding and do not undergo addition reactions.

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2.1.9: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds

Learning Objectives

- Recognize aromatic compounds from structural formulas.
- Name aromatic compounds given formulas.
- Write formulas for aromatic compounds given their names.

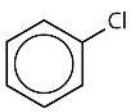
Historically, benzene-like substances were called aromatic hydrocarbons because they had distinctive aromas. Today, an aromatic compound is any compound that contains a benzene ring or has certain benzene-like properties (but not necessarily a strong aroma). You can recognize the aromatic compounds in this text by the presence of one or more benzene rings in their structure. Some representative aromatic compounds and their uses are listed in Table 2.1.9.1, where the benzene ring is represented as C_6H_5.

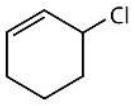
Table 2.1.9.1: Some Representative Aromatic Compounds

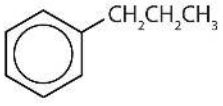
Name	Structure	Typical Uses
aniline	$C_6H_5–NH_2$	starting material for the synthesis of dyes, drugs, resins, varnishes, perfumes; solvent; vulcanizing rubber
benzoic acid	$C_6H_5–COOH$	food preservative; starting material for the synthesis of dyes and other organic compounds; curing of tobacco
bromobenzene	$C_6H_5–Br$	starting material for the synthesis of many other aromatic compounds; solvent; motor oil additive
nitrobenzene	$C_6H_5–NO_2$	starting material for the synthesis of aniline; solvent for cellulose nitrate; in soaps and shoe polish
phenol	$C_6H_5–OH$	disinfectant; starting material for the synthesis of resins, drugs, and other organic compounds
toluene	$C_6H_5–CH_3$	solvent; gasoline octane booster; starting material for the synthesis of benzoic acid, benzaldehyde, and many other organic compounds

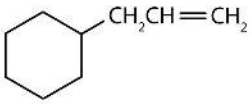
Example 2.1.9.1

Which compounds are aromatic?

1. 

2. 

3. 

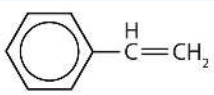
4. 

Solution

1. The compound has a benzene ring (with a chlorine atom substituted for one of the hydrogen atoms); it is aromatic.
2. The compound is cyclic, but it does not have a benzene ring; it is not aromatic.
3. The compound has a benzene ring (with a propyl group substituted for one of the hydrogen atoms); it is aromatic.
4. The compound is cyclic, but it does not have a benzene ring; it is not aromatic.

? Exercise 2.1.9.1

Which compounds are aromatic?

1. 

2. 

3. 

In the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) system, aromatic hydrocarbons are named as derivatives of benzene. Figure 2.1.9.1 shows four examples. In these structures, it is immaterial whether the single substituent is written at the top, side, or bottom of the ring: a hexagon is symmetrical, and therefore all positions are equivalent.

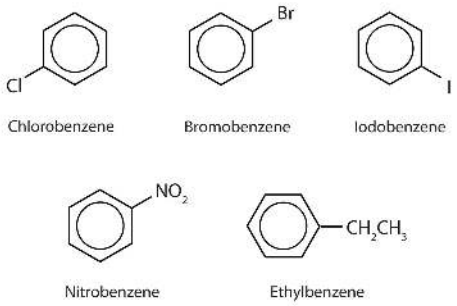


Figure 2.1.9.1: Some Benzene Derivatives. These compounds are named in the usual way with the group that replaces a hydrogen atom named as a substituent group: Cl as chloro, Br as bromo, I as iodo, NO_2 as nitro, and CH_3CH_2 as ethyl.

Although some compounds are referred to exclusively by IUPAC names, some are more frequently denoted by common names, as is indicated in Table 2.1.9.1.



When there is more than one substituent, the corners of the hexagon are no longer equivalent, so we must designate the relative positions. There are three possible disubstituted benzenes, and we can use numbers to distinguish them (Figure 2.1.9.2). We start numbering at the carbon atom to which one of the groups is attached and count toward the carbon atom that bears the other substituent group by the shortest path.

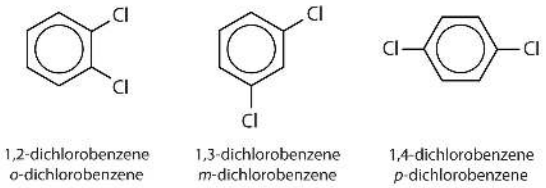
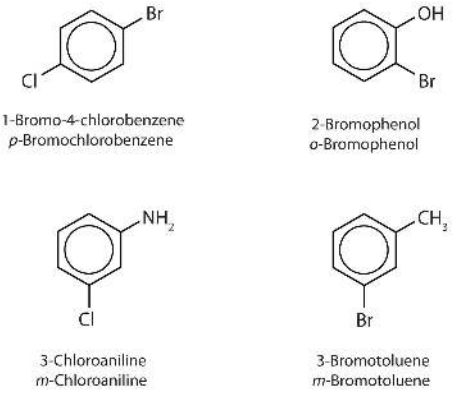


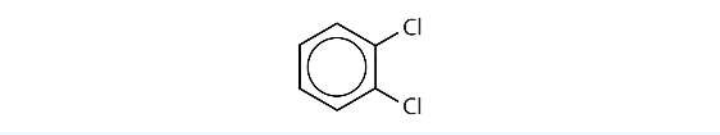
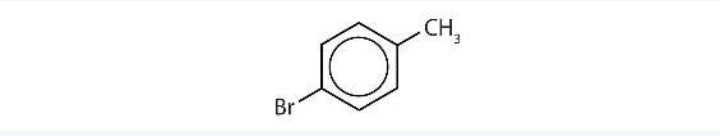
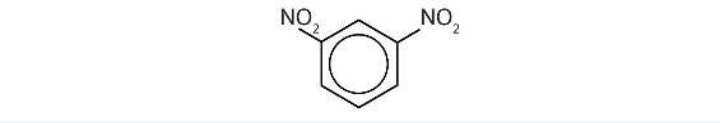
Figure 2.1.9.2: The Three Isomeric Dichlorobenzenes

In Figure 2.1.9.2 common names are also used: the prefix *ortho* (*o*-) for 1,2-disubstitution, *meta* (*m*-) for 1,3-disubstitution, and *para* (*p*-) for 1,4-disubstitution. The substituent names are listed in alphabetical order. The first substituent is given the lowest number. When a common name is used, the carbon atom that bears the group responsible for the name is given the number 1:



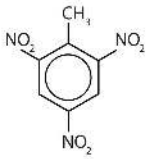
Example 2.1.9.2

Name each compound using both the common name and the IUPAC name.

1. 
2. 
3. 

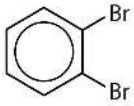
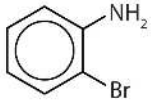
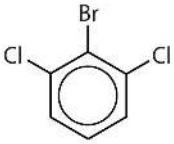
Solution

1. The benzene ring has two chlorine atoms (dichloro) in the first and second positions. The compound is *o*-dichlorobenzene or 1,2-dichlorobenzene.
2. The benzene ring has a methyl (CH_3) group. The compound is therefore named as a derivative of toluene. The bromine atom is on the fourth carbon atom, counting from the methyl group. The compound is *p*-bromotoluene or 4-bromotoluene.
3. The benzene ring has two nitro (NO_2) groups in the first and third positions. It is *m*-dinitrobenzene or 1,3-dinitrobenzene.
4. Note: The nitro (NO_2) group is a common substituent in aromatic compounds. Many nitro compounds are explosive, most notably 2,4,6-trinitrotoluene (TNT).



Exercise 2.1.9.2

Name each compound using both the common name and the IUPAC name.

1. 
2. 
3. 

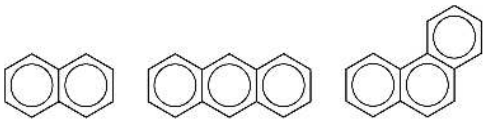
- Sometimes an aromatic group is found as a substituent bonded to a nonaromatic entity or to another aromatic ring. The group of atoms remaining when a hydrogen atom is removed from an aromatic compound is called an aryl group. The most common aryl group is derived from benzene (C_6H_6) by removing one hydrogen atom (C_6H_5) and is called a *phenyl* group, from *pheno*, an old name for benzene.



Phenyl group 2-Phenylheptane

Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons

Some common aromatic hydrocarbons consist of fused benzene rings—rings that share a common side. These compounds are called polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs).



Naphthalene Anthracene Phenanthrene

The three examples shown here are colorless, crystalline solids generally obtained from coal tar. Naphthalene has a pungent odor and is used in mothballs. Anthracene is used in the manufacture of certain dyes. Steroids, a large group of naturally occurring substances, contain the phenanthrene structure.

To Your Health: Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons and Cancer

The intense heating required for distilling coal tar results in the formation of PAHs. For many years, it has been known that workers in coal-tar refineries are susceptible to a type of skin cancer known as tar cancer. Investigations have shown that a number of PAHs are carcinogens. One of the most active carcinogenic compounds, benzopyrene, occurs in coal tar and has also been isolated from cigarette smoke, automobile exhaust gases, and charcoal-broiled steaks. It is estimated that more than 1,000 t of benzopyrene are

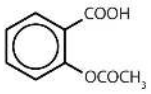
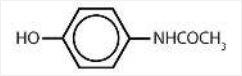
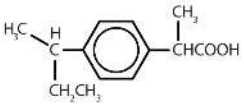
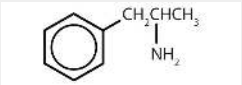
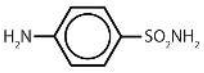
emitted into the air over the United States each year. Only a few milligrams of benzopyrene per kilogram of body weight are required to induce cancer in experimental animals.

Biologically Important Compounds with Benzene Rings

Substances containing the benzene ring are common in both animals and plants, although they are more abundant in the latter. Plants can synthesize the benzene ring from carbon dioxide, water, and inorganic materials. Animals cannot synthesize it, but they are dependent on certain aromatic compounds for survival and therefore must obtain them from food. Phenylalanine, tyrosine, and tryptophan (essential amino acids) and vitamins K, B_2 (riboflavin), and B_9 (folic acid) all contain the benzene ring. Many important drugs, a few of which are shown in Table 2.1.9.2, also feature a benzene ring.

> So far we have studied only aromatic compounds with carbon-containing rings. However, many cyclic compounds have an element other than carbon atoms in the ring. These compounds, called *heterocyclic compounds*, are discussed later. Some of these are heterocyclic aromatic compounds.

Table 2.1.9.2: Some Drugs That Contain a Benzene Ring

Name	Structure
aspirin	
acetaminophen	
ibuprofen	
amphetamine	
sulfanilamide	

Key Takeaway

- Aromatic compounds contain a benzene ring or have certain benzene-like properties; for our purposes, you can recognize aromatic compounds by the presence of one or more benzene rings in their structure.

2.1.9: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds is shared under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

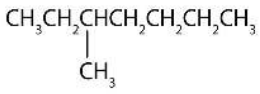
- **13.8: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds** by Anonymous is licensed CC BY-NC-SA 3.0. Original source: https://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/introduction-to-chemistry-general-organic-and-biological.

2.1.E: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Exercises)

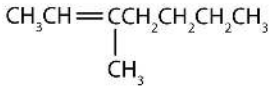
13.1: Alkenes- Structures and Names

Concept Review Exercises

1. Briefly identify the important distinctions between a saturated hydrocarbon and an unsaturated hydrocarbon.
2. Briefly identify the important distinctions between an alkene and an alkane.
3. Classify each compound as saturated or unsaturated. Identify each as an alkane, an alkene, or an alkyne.

a. 

b. $CH_3CH_2C{\equiv}CCH_3$

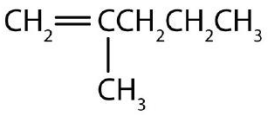
c. 

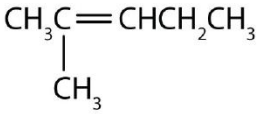
Answers

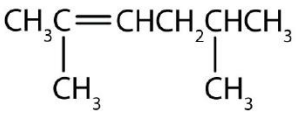
1. Unsaturated hydrocarbons have double or triple bonds and are quite reactive; saturated hydrocarbons have only single bonds and are rather unreactive.
2. An alkene has a double bond; an alkane has single bonds only.
3. a. saturated; alkane
   b. unsaturated; alkyne
   c. unsaturated; alkene

Exercises

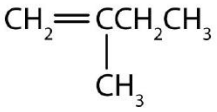
1. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. 2-methyl-2-pentene
   b. 2,3-dimethyl-1-butene
   c. cyclohexene
2. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. 5-methyl-1-hexene
   b. 3-ethyl-2-pentene
   c. 4-methyl-2-hexene
3. Name each compound according to the IUPAC system.

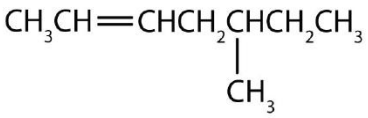
a. 

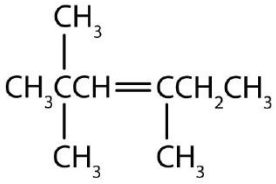
b. 

c. 

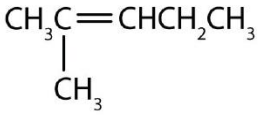
4. Name each compound according to the IUPAC system.

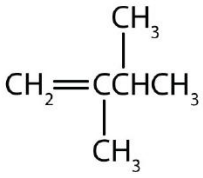
a. 

b. 

c. 

Answers

1. a. 

b. 

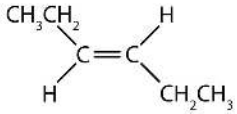
c. 

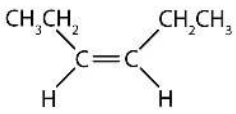
3. a. 2-methyl-1-pentene
   b. 2-methyl-2-pentene
   c. 2,5-dimethyl-2-hexene

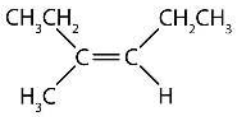
13.2: Cis-Trans Isomers (Geometric Isomers)

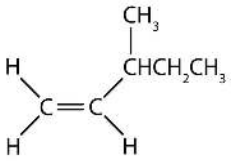
Concept Review Exercises

1. What are cis-trans (geometric) isomers? What two types of compounds can exhibit cis-trans isomerism?
2. Classify each compound as a cis isomer, a trans isomer, or neither.

a. 

b. 

c. 

d. 

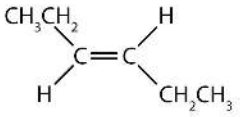
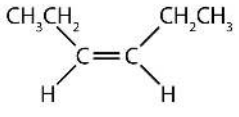
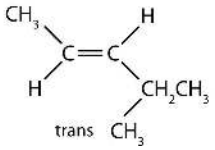
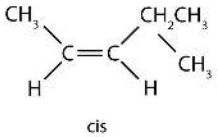
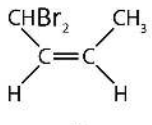
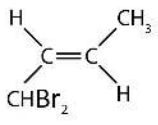
Answers

1. Cis-trans isomers are compounds that have different configurations (groups permanently in different places in space) because of the presence of a rigid structure in their molecule. Alkenes and cyclic compounds can exhibit cis-trans isomerism.
2. a. trans (the two hydrogen atoms are on opposite sides)
   b. cis (the two hydrogen atoms are on the same side, as are the two ethyl groups)
   c. cis (the two ethyl groups are on the same side)
   d. neither (flipping the bond does not change the molecule. There are no isomers for this molecule)

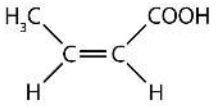
Exercises

1. Draw the structures of the cis-trans isomers for each compound. Label them cis and trans. If no cis-trans isomers exist, write none.
   a. 2-bromo-2-pentene
   b. 3-hexene
   c. 4-methyl-2-pentene
   d. 1,1-dibromo-1-butene
   e. 2-butenoic acid ($CH_3CH=CHCOOH$)
2. Draw the structures of the cis-trans isomers for each compound. Label them cis and trans. If no cis-trans isomers exist, write none.
   a. 2,3-dimethyl-2-pentene
   b. 1,1-dimethyl-2-ethylcyclopropane
   c. 1,2-dimethylcyclohexane
   d. 5-methyl-2-hexene
   e. 1,2,3-trimethylcyclopropane

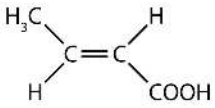
Answer

1. a: none. There are two distinct geometric isomers, but since there are there are four different groups off the double bond, these are both cis/trans isomers (they are technically E/Z isomers discussed elsewhere).
   b: 
   cis
   
   trans
   c: 
   trans
   
   cis
   d: 
   cis
   
   trans

e:



cis



trans

13.3: Physical Properties of Alkenes

Concept Review Exercises

1. Briefly describe the physical properties of alkenes. How do these properties compare to those of the alkanes?
2. Without consulting tables, arrange the following alkenes in order of increasing boiling point: 1-butene, ethene, 1-hexene, and propene.

Answers

1. Alkenes have physical properties (low boiling points, insoluble in water) quite similar to those of their corresponding alkanes.
2. ethene < propene < 1-butene < 1-hexene

Exercises

1. Without referring to a table or other reference, predict which member of each pair has the higher boiling point.
   a. 1-pentene or 1-butene
   b. 3-heptene or 3-nonene
2. Which is a good solvent for cyclohexene, pentane or water?

Answer

1. a. 1-pentene
   b. 3-nonene

13.4: Chemical Properties of Alkenes

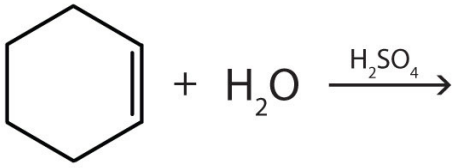
Concept Review Exercises

1. What is the principal difference in properties between alkenes and alkanes? How are they alike?
2. If $C_{12}H_{24}$ reacts with HBr in an addition reaction, what is the molecular formula of the product?

Answers

1. Alkenes undergo addition reactions; alkanes do not. Both burn.
2. $C_{12}H_{24}Br_2$

Exercises

1. Complete each equation.
   a. $(CH_3)_2C{=}CH_2 + Br_2 \rightarrow$
   b. $CH_2{=}C(CH_3)CH_2CH_3 + H_2 \xrightarrow{Ni}$
   c. 

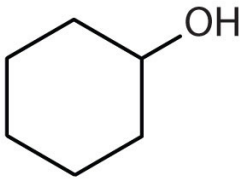
2. Complete each equation.
   a. $CH_2{=}CHCH{=}CH_2 + 2H_2 \xrightarrow{Ni}$

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b. $(CH_3)_2C{=}C(CH_3)_2 + H_2O \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4}$

c. 

Answer

1. a. $(CH_3)_2CBrCH_2Br$
   b. $CH_3CH(CH_3)CH_2CH_3$
   c. 

13.5: Polymers

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is a monomer? What is a polymer? How do polymer molecules differ from the molecules we have discussed in earlier sections of this chapter?
2. What is addition polymerization? What structural feature usually characterizes molecules used as monomers in addition polymerization?
3. What is the molecular formula of a polymer molecule formed by the addition polymerization of 175 molecules of vinyl chloride ($CH_2{=}CHCl$)?

Answers

1. Monomers are small molecules that can be assembled into giant molecules referred to as polymers, which are much larger than the molecules we discussed earlier in this chapter.
2. In addition polymerization, the monomers add to one another in such a way that the polymer contains all the atoms of the starting monomers.
3. $C_{350}H_{525}Cl_{175}$

Exercises

1. Write the condensed structural formula of the monomer from which Saran is formed. A segment of the Saran molecule has the following structure: $CH_2CCl_2CH_2CCl_2CH_2CCl_2CH_2CCl_2$.
2. Write the condensed structural formula for the section of a molecule formed from four units of the monomer $CH_2{=}CHF$.

Answer

1. $H_2C{=}CCl_2$

13.6: Alkynes

Concept Review Exercises

1. Briefly identify the important differences between an alkene and an alkyne. How are they similar?
2. The alkene $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH{=}CH_2$ is named 4-methyl-1-pentene. What is the name of $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2C{\equiv}CH$?
3. Do alkynes show cis-trans isomerism? Explain.

Answers

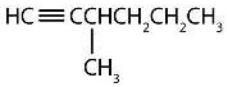
1. Alkenes have double bonds; alkynes have triple bonds. Both undergo addition reactions.
2. 4-methyl-1-pentyne

3. No; a triply bonded carbon atom can form only one other bond. It would have to have two groups attached to show cis-trans isomerism.

Exercises

1. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. acetylene
   b. 3-methyl-1-hexyne
2. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. 4-methyl-2-hexyne
   b. 3-octyne
3. Name each alkyne.
   a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2C{\equiv}CH$
   b. $CH_3CH_2CH_2C{\equiv}CCH_3$

Answers

1. a. H–C≡C–H
   b. 
3. a. 1-pentyne
   b. 2-hexyne

13.7: Aromatic Compounds- Benzene

Concept Review Exercises

1. How do the typical reactions of benzene differ from those of the alkenes?
2. Briefly describe the bonding in benzene.
3. What does the circle mean in the chemist's representation of benzene?

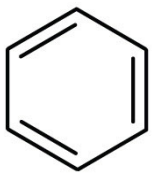
Answers

1. Benzene is rather unreactive toward addition reactions compared to an alkene.
2. Valence electrons are shared equally by all six carbon atoms (that is, the electrons are delocalized).
3. The six electrons are shared equally by all six carbon atoms.

Exercises

1. Draw the structure of benzene as if it had alternate single and double bonds.
2. Draw the structure of benzene as chemists usually represent it today.

Answer

1. 

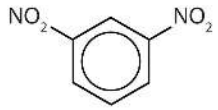
13.8: Structure and Nomenclature of Aromatic Compounds

Concept Review Exercises

1. Briefly identify the important characteristics of an aromatic compound.
2. What is meant by the prefixes *meta*, *ortho*, or *para*? Give the name and draw the structure for a compound that illustrates each.
3. What is a phenyl group? Give the structure for 3-phenyloctane.

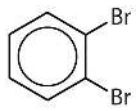
Answers

1. An aromatic compound is any compound that contains a benzene ring or has certain benzene-like properties.
2. meta = 1,3 disubstitution; (answers will vary)



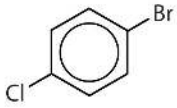
m-dinitrobenzene or 1,3-dinitrobenzene

ortho = 1,2 disubstitution



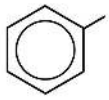
o-dibromobenzene or 1,2-dibromobenzene

para = 1,4 disubstitution or 1-bromo-4-chlorobenzene

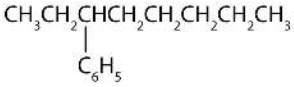


p-bromochlorobenzene or 1-bromo-2-chlorobenzene

3. phenyl group: C_6H_5 or

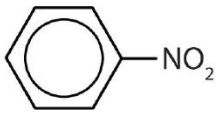


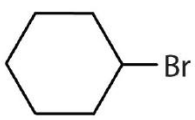
3-phenyloctane:



Exercises

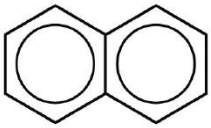
1. Is each compound aromatic?

a. 

b. 

2. Is each compound aromatic?

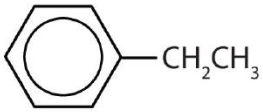
a. 

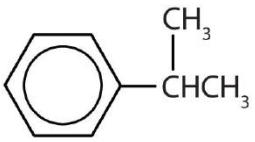
b. 

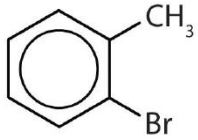
3. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. toluene
   b. *m*-diethylbenzene
   c. 3,5-dinitrotoluene

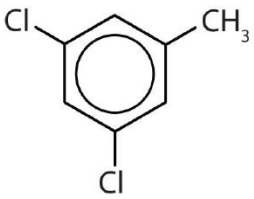
4. Draw the structure for each compound.
   a. *p*-dichlorobenzene
   b. naphthalene
   c. 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene

5. Name each compound with its IUPAC name.

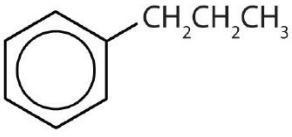
a. 

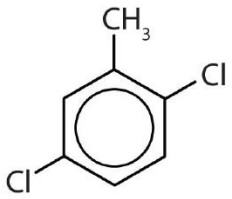
b. 

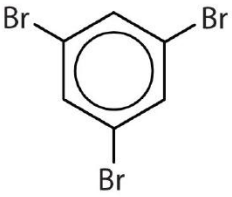
c. 

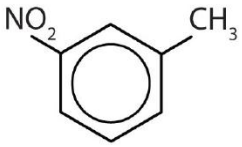
d. 

6. Name each compound with its IUPAC name.

a. 

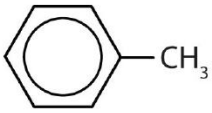
b. 

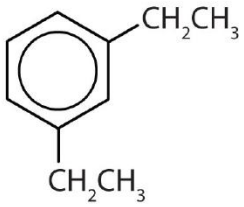
c. 

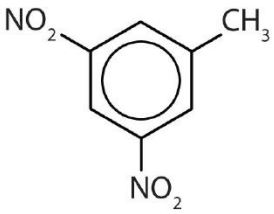
d. 

Answers

1. a. yes
   b. no

3. a. 

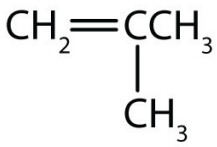
   b. 

   c. 

5. a. ethylbenzene
   b. isopropylbenzene
   c. *o*-bromotoluene
   d. 3,5-dichlorotoluene

Additional Exercises

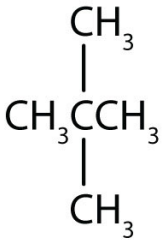
1. Classify each compound as saturated or unsaturated.



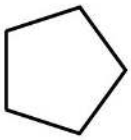
a.

b. $CH_3C{\equiv}CCH_3$

2. Classify each compound as saturated or unsaturated.



a.

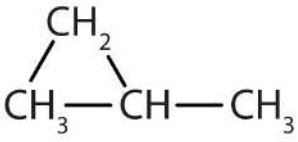


b.

3. Give the molecular formula for each compound.



a.



b.

4. When three isomeric pentenes—X, Y, and Z—are hydrogenated, all three form 2-methylbutane. The addition of Cl_2 to Y gives 1,2-dichloro-3-methylbutane, and the addition of Cl_2 to Z gives 1,2-dichloro-2-methylbutane. Draw the original structures for X, Y, and Z.

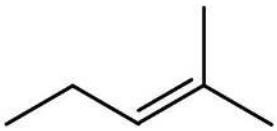
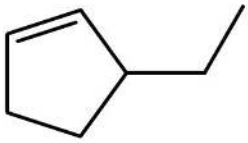
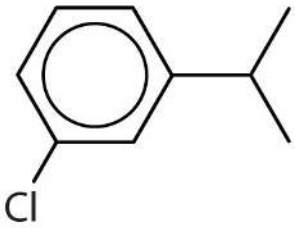
5. Pentane and 1-pentene are both colorless, low-boiling liquids. Describe a simple test that distinguishes the two compounds. Indicate what you would observe.

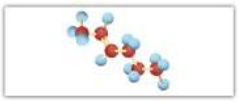
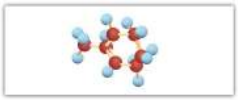
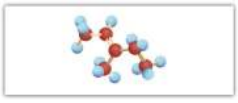
6. Draw and name all the alkene cis-trans isomers corresponding to the molecular formula C_5H_{10}. (Hint: there are only two.)

7. The complete combustion of benzene forms carbon dioxide and water:

   $C_6H_6 + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$

   Balance the equation. What mass, in grams, of carbon dioxide is formed by the complete combustion of 39.0 g of benzene?

8. Describe a physiological effect of some PAHs.
9. What are some of the hazards associated with the use of benzene?
10. What is wrong with each name? Draw the structure and give the correct name for each compound.
    a. 2-methyl-4-heptene
    b. 2-ethyl-2-hexene
    c. 2,2-dimethyl-3-pentene
11. What is wrong with each name?
    a. 2-bromobenzene
    b. 3,3-dichlorotoluene
    c. 1,4-dimethylnitrobenzene
12. Following are line-angle formulas for three compounds. Draw the structure and give the name for each.
    a.
    
    b.
    
    c.
    

13. Following are ball-and-stick molecular models for three compounds (blue balls represent H atoms; red balls are C atoms). Write the condensed structural formula and give the name for each.
    a.
    
    b.
    
    c.
    

Answers

1.

a. unsaturated
b. unsaturated

3.

a. C_6H_{10}
b. C_4H_8

5. Add bromine solution (reddish-brown) to each. Pentane will not react, and the reddish-brown color persists; 1-pentene will react, leaving a colorless solution.

7. $2C_6H_6 + 15O_2 \rightarrow 12CO_2 + 6H_2O$; 132 g

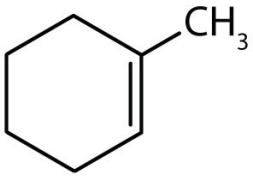
9. carcinogenic, flammable

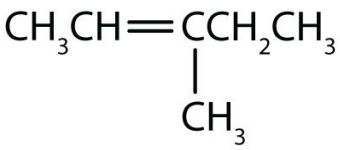
11.

a. number not needed
b. can't have two groups on one carbon atom on a benzene ring
c. can't have a substituent on the same carbon atom as the nitro group

13.

a. $CH_3CH{=}CHCH_2CH_2CH_3$; 2-hexene

b. 

c. 

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2.1.S: Unsaturated and Aromatic Hydrocarbons (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the bold terms in the following summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

Any hydrocarbon containing either a double or triple bond is an **unsaturated hydrocarbon**. **Alkenes** have a carbon-to-carbon double bond. The general formula for alkenes with one double bond is C_nH_{2n}. Alkenes can be straight chain, branched chain, or cyclic. Simple alkenes often have common names, but all alkenes can be named by the system of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry.

Cis-trans isomers (or geometric isomers) are characterized by molecules that differ only in their configuration around a rigid part of the structure, such as a carbon–to-carbon double bond or a ring. The molecule having two identical (or closely related) atoms or groups on the same side is the **cis isomer**; the one having the two groups on opposite sides is the **trans isomer**.

The physical properties of alkenes are quite similar to those of alkanes. Like other hydrocarbons, alkenes are insoluble in water but soluble in organic solvents.

More reactive than alkanes, alkenes undergo **addition reactions** across the double bond:

- Addition of hydrogen (**hydrogenation**):

$$CH_2{=}CH_2 + H_2 \rightarrow CH_3CH_3$$

- Addition of halogen (**halogenation**):

$$CH_2{=}CH_2 + X_2 \rightarrow XCH_2CH_2X$$

  where X = F, Cl, Br, or I.

- Addition of water (**hydration**):

$$CH_2{=}CH_2 + HOH \rightarrow HCH_2CH_2OH$$

Alkenes also undergo **addition polymerization**, molecules joining together to form long-chain molecules.

$$\ldots CH_2{=}CH_2 + CH_2{=}CH_2 + CH_2{=}CH_2 + \ldots \rightarrow \ldots CH_2CH_2{-}CH_2CH_2{-}CH_2CH_2{-}\ldots$$

The reactant units are **monomers**, and the product is a **polymer**.

Alkynes have a carbon-to-carbon triple bond. The general formula for alkynes is C_nH_{2n-2}. The properties of alkynes are quite similar to those of alkenes. They are named much like alkenes but with the ending *-yne*.

The cyclic hydrocarbon *benzene* (C_6H_6) has a ring of carbon atoms. The molecule seems to be unsaturated, but it does not undergo the typical reactions expected of alkenes. The electrons that might be fixed in three double bonds are instead *delocalized* over all six carbon atoms.

A hydrocarbon containing one or more benzene rings (or other similarly stable electron arrangements) is an **aromatic hydrocarbon**, and any related substance is an **aromatic compound**. One or more of the hydrogen atoms on a benzene ring can be replaced by other atoms. When two hydrogen atoms are replaced, the product name is based on the relative position of the replacement atoms (or atom groups). A 1,2-disubstituted benzene is designated as an *ortho* (*o*-) isomer; 1,3-, a *meta* (*m*-) isomer; and 1,4-, a *para* (*p*-) isomer. An aromatic group as a substituent is called an **aryl** group.

A **polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH)** has fused benzene rings sharing a common side.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

3: Alcohols, Phenols, Thiols, and Ethers

3.1: Prelude to Organic Compounds of Oxygen
3.2: Organic Compounds with Functional Groups
3.3: Alcohols - Nomenclature and Classification
3.4: Physical Properties of Alcohols
3.5: Reactions that Form Alcohols
3.6: Reactions of Alcohols
3.7: Glycols and Glycerol
3.8: Phenols
3.9: Organic Sulfur Compounds
3.10: Ethers

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3.1: Prelude to Organic Compounds of Oxygen

One of the more familiar chemical compounds on Earth is ethyl alcohol (ethanol). As the intoxicant in alcoholic beverages, ethanol is often simply called alcohol. If ethanol is diluted, as it is in wine, beer, or mixed drinks with about 1 oz of liquor, and if it is consumed in small quantities, it is relatively safe. In excess—four or more drinks in a few hours—it causes intoxication, which is characterized by a loss of coordination, nausea and vomiting, and memory blackouts.

Excessive ingestion of ethanol over a long period of time leads to cirrhosis of the liver, alteration of brain cell function, nerve damage, and strong physiological addiction. Alcoholism—an addiction to ethanol—is the most serious drug problem in the United States. Heavy drinking shortens a person's life span by contributing to diseases of the liver, the cardiovascular system, and virtually every other organ of the body.

In small quantities—one or two drinks a day—ethanol might promote health. In addition to the possible benefits of modest amounts of ethanol, a chemical in red wines, resveratrol, is thought to lower the risk of heart disease. Resveratrol, found in red grapes, is an antioxidant. It inhibits the oxidation of cholesterol and subsequent clogging of the arteries. One need not drink wine to get the benefits of resveratrol, however. It can be obtained by eating the grapes or drinking red grape juice.

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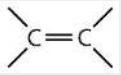
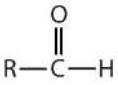
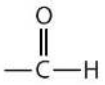
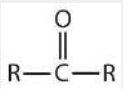
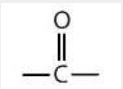
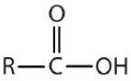
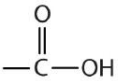
3.2: Organic Compounds with Functional Groups

Learning Objectives

- to describe functional groups and explain why they are useful in the study of organic chemistry.

Previously, we considered several kinds of hydrocarbons. Now we examine some of the many organic compounds that contain functional groups. We first introduced the idea of the functional group, a specific structural arrangement of atoms or bonds that imparts a characteristic chemical reactivity to the molecule. If you understand the behavior of a particular functional group, you will know a great deal about the general properties of that class of compounds. In this chapter, we make a brief yet systematic study of some of organic compound families. Each family is based on a common, simple functional group that contains an oxygen atom or a nitrogen atom. Some common functional groups are listed in Table 3.2.1.

Table 3.2.1: Selected Organic Functional Groups

Name of Family	General Formula	Functional Group	Suffix*
alkane	RH	none	*-ane*
alkene	$R_2C{=}CR_2$		*-ene*
alkyne	RC≡CR	–C≡C–	*-yne*
alcohol	ROH	–OH	*-ol*
thiol	RSH	–SH	*-thiol*
ether	ROR	–O–	ether
aldehyde			*-al*
ketone			*-one*
carboxylic acid			*-oic acid*

*Ethers do not have a suffix in their common name; all ethers end with the word *ether*.

Summary

The functional group, a structural arrangement of atoms and/or bonds, is largely responsible for the properties of organic compound families.

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3.3: Alcohols - Nomenclature and Classification

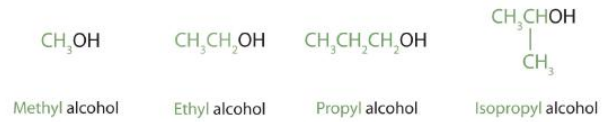
Learning Objectives

- Identify the general structure for an alcohol.
- Identify the structural feature that classifies alcohols as primary, secondary, or tertiary.
- Name alcohols with both common names and IUPAC names

An alcohol is an organic compound with a hydroxyl (OH) functional group on an aliphatic carbon atom. Because OH is the functional group of all alcohols, we often represent alcohols by the general formula ROH, where R is an alkyl group. Alcohols are common in nature. Most people are familiar with ethyl alcohol (ethanol), the active ingredient in alcoholic beverages, but this compound is only one of a family of organic compounds known as alcohols. The family also includes such familiar substances as cholesterol and the carbohydrates. Methanol (CH_3OH) and ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH) are the first two members of the homologous series of alcohols.

Nomenclature of Alcohols

Alcohols with one to four carbon atoms are frequently called by common names, in which the name of the alkyl group is followed by the word *alcohol*:



Structural formula of methyl alcohol, ethyl alcohol, propyl alcohol, and isopropyl alcohol with the methyl, ethyl propyl, and isopropyl groups highlighted in green.

According to the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC), alcohols are named by changing the ending of the parent alkane name to *-ol*. Here are some basic IUPAC rules for naming alcohols:

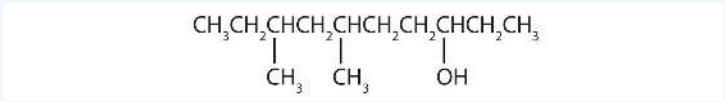
1. The longest continuous chain (LCC) of carbon atoms containing the OH group is taken as the parent compound—an alkane with the same number of carbon atoms. The chain is numbered from the end nearest the OH group.
2. The number that indicates the position of the OH group is prefixed to the name of the parent hydrocarbon, and the *-e* ending of the parent alkane is replaced by the suffix *-ol*. (In cyclic alcohols, the carbon atom bearing the OH group is designated C1, but the 1 is not used in the name.) Substituents are named and numbered as in alkanes.
3. If more than one OH group appears in the same molecule (polyhydroxy alcohols), suffixes such as *-diol* and *-triol* are used. In these cases, the *-e* ending of the parent alkane is retained.

Figure 3.3.1 shows some examples of the application of these rules.

Structures of 2 methylbutan-2-ol, 3 5-dimethylhexan-1-ol, 6 methylheptan-3-ol, 2 bromo 5 chlorocyclopentanol are shown to highlight rules 1 and 2. 1 2 ethanediol and propane 1 2 3 triol are shown to highlight rule 3
Figure 3.3.1: IUPAC Rules for Alcohols. The names and structures of some alcohols demonstrate the use of IUPAC rules.

Example 3.3.1

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

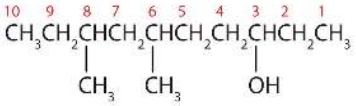
a. 

From left to right, there are ten carbon on the alkane straight chain with methyl groups emerging from carbon 3 and 5 and a hydroxyl group on carbon 8.

- $HOCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$

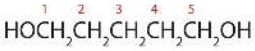
Solution

a. Ten carbon atoms in the LCC makes the compound a derivative of decane (rule 1), and the OH on the third carbon atom makes it a 3-decanol (rule 2).



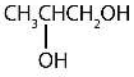
The carbon atoms are numbered from the end closest to the OH group. That fixes the two methyl (CH_3) groups at the sixth and eighth positions. The name is 6,8-dimethyl-3-decanol (not 3,5-dimethyl-8-decanol).

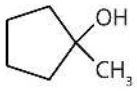
b. Five carbon atoms in the LCC make the compound a derivative of pentane. Two OH groups on the first and fifth carbon atoms make the compound a diol and give the name 1,5-pentanediol (rule 3).



? Exercise 3.3.1

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

a. 

- 

✔ Example 3.3.2

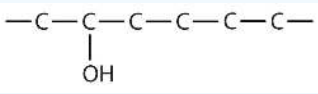
Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 2-hexanol
b. 3-methyl-2-pentanol

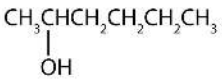
Solution

a. The ending *-ol* indicates an alcohol (the OH functional group), and the *hex-* stem tells us that there are six carbon atoms in the LCC. We start by drawing a chain of six carbon atoms: –C–C–C–C–C–C–.

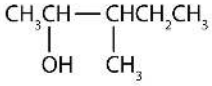
The 2 indicates that the OH group is attached to the second carbon atom.



Finally, we add enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds.



- The numbers indicate that there is a methyl (CH_3) group on the third carbon atom and an OH group on the second carbon atom.



Exercise 3.3.2

Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 3-heptanol

- 2-methyl-3-hexanol

Classification of Alcohols

Some of the properties of alcohols depend on the number of carbon atoms attached to the specific carbon atom that is attached to the OH group. Alcohols can be grouped into three classes on this basis.

- A primary (1°) alcohol is one in which the carbon atom (in red) with the OH group is attached to *one* other carbon atom (in blue). Its general formula is RCH_2OH.



- A secondary (2°) alcohol is one in which the carbon atom (in red) with the OH group is attached to *two* other carbon atoms (in blue). Its general formula is R_2CHOH.



- A tertiary (3°) alcohol is one in which the carbon atom (in red) with the OH group is attached to *three* other carbon atoms (in blue). Its general formula is R_3COH.

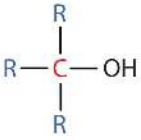
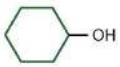


Table 3.3.1 names and classifies some of the simpler alcohols. Some of the common names reflect a compound's classification as secondary (*sec*-) or tertiary (*tert*-). These designations are not used in the IUPAC nomenclature system for alcohols. Note that there are four butyl alcohols in the table, corresponding to the four butyl groups: the butyl group ($CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2$) discussed before, and three others:



Table 3.3.1: Classification and Nomenclature of Some Alcohols

Condensed Structural Formula	Class of Alcohol	Common Name	IUPAC Name
CH_3OH	—	methyl alcohol	methanol
CH_3CH_2OH	primary	ethyl alcohol	ethanol
$CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$	primary	propyl alcohol	1-propanol
$(CH_3)_2CHOH$	secondary	isopropyl alcohol	2-propanol
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$	primary	butyl alcohol	1-butanol

Condensed Structural Formula	Class of Alcohol	Common Name	IUPAC Name
$CH_3CH_2CHOHCH_3$	secondary	*sec*-butyl alcohol	2-butanol
$(CH_3)_2CHCH_2OH$	primary	isobutyl alcohol	2-methyl-1-propanol
$(CH_3)_3COH$	tertiary	*tert*-butyl alcohol	2-methyl-2-propanol
	secondary	cyclohexyl alcohol	cyclohexanol

Summary

In the IUPAC system, alcohols are named by changing the ending of the parent alkane name to *-ol*. Alcohols are classified according to the number of carbon atoms attached to the carbon atom that is attached to the OH group.

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3.4: Physical Properties of Alcohols

Learning Objectives

- Explain why the boiling points of alcohols are higher than those of ethers and alkanes of similar molar masses.
- Explain why alcohols and ethers of four or fewer carbon atoms are soluble in water while comparable alkanes are not soluble.

Alcohols can be considered derivatives of water (H_2O; also written as HOH).



Like the H–O–H bond in water, the R–O–H bond is bent, and alcohol molecules are polar. This relationship is particularly apparent in small molecules and reflected in the physical and chemical properties of alcohols with low molar mass. Replacing a hydrogen atom from an alkane with an OH group allows the molecules to associate through hydrogen bonding (Figure 3.4.1).

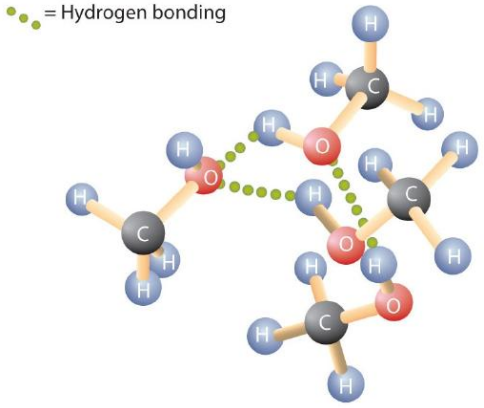


Figure 3.4.1: Intermolecular Hydrogen Bonding in Methanol. The OH groups of alcohol molecules make hydrogen bonding possible.

Recall that physical properties are determined to a large extent by the type of intermolecular forces. Table 3.4.1 lists the molar masses and the boiling points of some common compounds. The table shows that substances with similar molar masses can have quite different boiling points.

Table 3.4.1: Comparison of Boiling Points and Molar Masses

Formula	Name	Molar Mass	Boiling Point (°C)
CH_4	methane	16	–164
HOH	water	18	100
C_2H_6	ethane	30	–89
CH_3OH	methanol	32	65
C_3H_8	propane	44	–42
CH_3CH_2OH	ethanol	46	78
C_4H_{10}	butane	58	–1
$CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$	1-propanol	60	97

Alkanes are nonpolar and are thus associated only through relatively weak dispersion forces. Alkanes with one to four carbon atoms are gases at room temperature. In contrast, even methanol (with one carbon atom) is a liquid at room temperature. Hydrogen

bonding greatly increases the boiling points of alcohols compared to hydrocarbons of comparable molar mass. The boiling point is a rough measure of the amount of energy necessary to separate a liquid molecule from its nearest neighbors. If the molecules interact through hydrogen bonding, a relatively large quantity of energy must be supplied to break those intermolecular attractions. Only then can the molecule escape from the liquid into the gaseous state.

Alcohols can also engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules (Figure 3.4.2). Thus, whereas the hydrocarbons are insoluble in water, alcohols with one to three carbon atoms are completely soluble. As the length of the chain increases, however, the solubility of alcohols in water decreases; the molecules become more like hydrocarbons and less like water. The alcohol 1-decanol ($CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$) is essentially insoluble in water. We frequently find that the borderline of solubility in a family of organic compounds occurs at four or five carbon atoms.

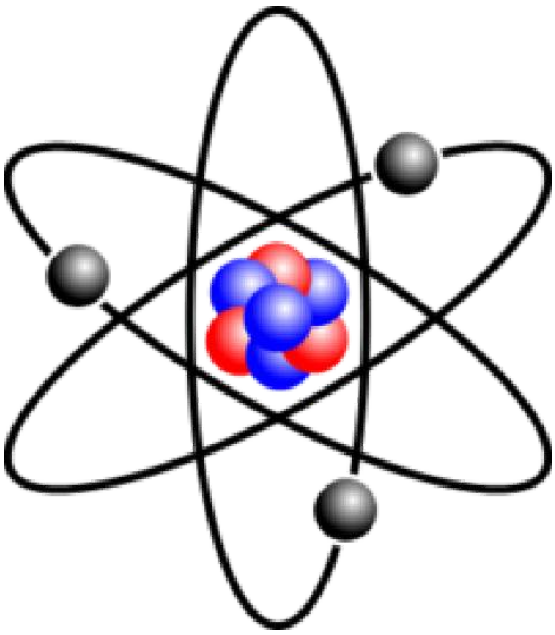


Figure 3.4.2: Hydrogen Bonding between Methanol Molecules and Water Molecules. Hydrogen bonding between the OH of methanol and water molecules accounts for the solubility of methanol in water.

Summary

Alcohols have higher boiling points than do ethers and alkanes of similar molar masses because the OH group allows alcohol molecules to engage in hydrogen bonding. Alcohols of four or fewer carbon atoms are soluble in water because the alcohol molecules engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules; comparable alkane molecules cannot engage in hydrogen bonding.

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3.5: Reactions that Form Alcohols

Learning Objectives

- To describe how to prepare alcohols from alkenes

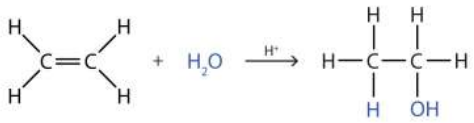
Methanol is prepared by combining hydrogen gas and carbon monoxide at high temperatures and pressures in the presence of a catalyst composed of zinc oxide (ZnO) and chromium oxide (Cr_2O_3) catalyst:

$$2H_2 + CO \xrightarrow[ZnO,\ Cr_2O_3]{200\ atm,\ 350^\circ C} CH_3OH$$

Methanol is an important solvent and is used as an automotive fuel, either as the pure liquid—as in some racing cars—or as an additive in gasoline.

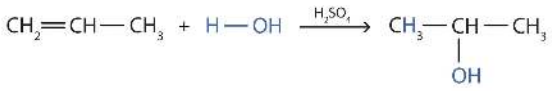
> *Nearly 2 billion gallons of methanol are produced each year in the United States by the catalytic reduction of carbon monoxide with hydrogen gas.*

Many simple alcohols are made by the hydration of alkenes. Ethanol is made by the hydration of ethylene in the presence of a catalyst such as sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4).



Ethylene Water Ethanol

In a similar manner, isopropyl alcohol is produced by the addition of water to propene (propylene).



Propylene Isopropyl alcohol (2-propanol)

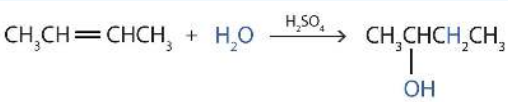
Additional Exercise 3.5.1 describes how to use a generalization called Markovnikov's rule to predict the results when the addition of water to an alcohol has two possible products.

Example 3.5.1

Write the equation for the reaction of 2-butene with water to form 2-butanol. Indicate that sulfuric acid is used as a catalyst.

Solution

First write the condensed structural formula of 2-butene and indicate that it reacts with water. Then write the condensed structural formula of 2-butanol after the reaction arrow to indicate that it is the product. Finally, write the formula for the catalyst above the arrow.



Exercise 3.5.1

Write the equation for the reaction of cyclopentene with water to form cyclopentanol. Indicate that phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) is used as a catalyst.

> *Many OH compounds in living systems are formed by alkene hydration. Here is an example that occurs in the Krebs cycle: fumarate is hydrated to form malate.*
>
> $$^-OOCCH{=}CHCOO^- + HOH \overset{\text{enzyme}}{\rightleftharpoons} {}^-OOCCH_2CHOHCOO^-$$

In addition to its preparation from ethylene, ethanol is made by the fermentation of sugars or starch from various sources (potatoes, corn, wheat, rice, etc.). Fermentation is catalyzed by enzymes found in yeast and proceeds by an elaborate multistep mechanism. We can represent the overall process as follows:

$$(C_6H_{10}O_5)_x \xrightarrow{\text{enzymes}} C_6H_{12}O_6 \xrightarrow{\text{enzymes}} 2CH_3CH_2OH + 2CO_2$$

Starch → Glucose → Ethanol

To Your Health: The Physiological Effects of Alcohols

Methanol is quite poisonous to humans. Ingestion of as little as 15 mL of methanol can cause blindness, and 30 mL (1 oz) can cause death. However, the usual fatal dose is 100 to 150 mL. The main reason for methanol's toxicity is that we have liver enzymes that catalyze its oxidation to formaldehyde, the simplest member of the aldehyde family:

$$CH_3OH \xrightarrow{\text{liver enzymes}} H{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}H$$

Methanol → Formaldehyde

Formaldehyde reacts rapidly with the components of cells, coagulating proteins in much the same way that cooking coagulates an egg. This property of formaldehyde accounts for much of the toxicity of methanol.

Organic and biochemical equations are frequently written showing only the organic reactants and products. In this way, we focus attention on the organic starting material and product, rather than on balancing complicated equations.

Ethanol is oxidized in the liver to acetaldehyde:

$$CH_3CH_2OH \xrightarrow{\text{liver enzymes}} CH_3{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}H$$

Ethanol → Acetaldehyde

The acetaldehyde is in turn oxidized to acetic acid ($HC_2H_3O_2$), a normal constituent of cells, which is then oxidized to carbon dioxide and water. Even so, ethanol is potentially toxic to humans. The rapid ingestion of 1 pt (about 500 mL) of pure ethanol would kill most people, and acute ethanol poisoning kills several hundred people each year—often those engaged in some sort of drinking contest. Ethanol freely crosses into the brain, where it depresses the respiratory control center, resulting in failure of the respiratory muscles in the lungs and hence suffocation. Ethanol is believed to act on nerve cell membranes, causing a diminution in speech, thought, cognition, and judgment.

Rubbing alcohol is usually a 70% aqueous solution of isopropyl alcohol. It has a high vapor pressure, and its rapid evaporation from the skin produces a cooling effect. It is toxic when ingested but, compared to methanol, is less readily absorbed through the skin.

Summary

Many alcohols are made by the hydration of alkenes. Ethanol can be made by the fermentation of sugars or starch from various sources.

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3.6: Reactions of Alcohols

Learning Objectives

1. Give two major types of reactions of alcohols.
2. Describe the result of the oxidation of a primary alcohol.
3. Describe the result of the oxidation of a secondary alcohol.

Chemical reactions in alcohols occur mainly at the functional group, but some involve hydrogen atoms attached to the OH-bearing carbon atom or to an adjacent carbon atom. Of the three major kinds of alcohol reactions, which are summarized in Figure 3.6.1, two—dehydration and oxidation—are considered here. The third reaction type—esterification—is covered elsewhere.

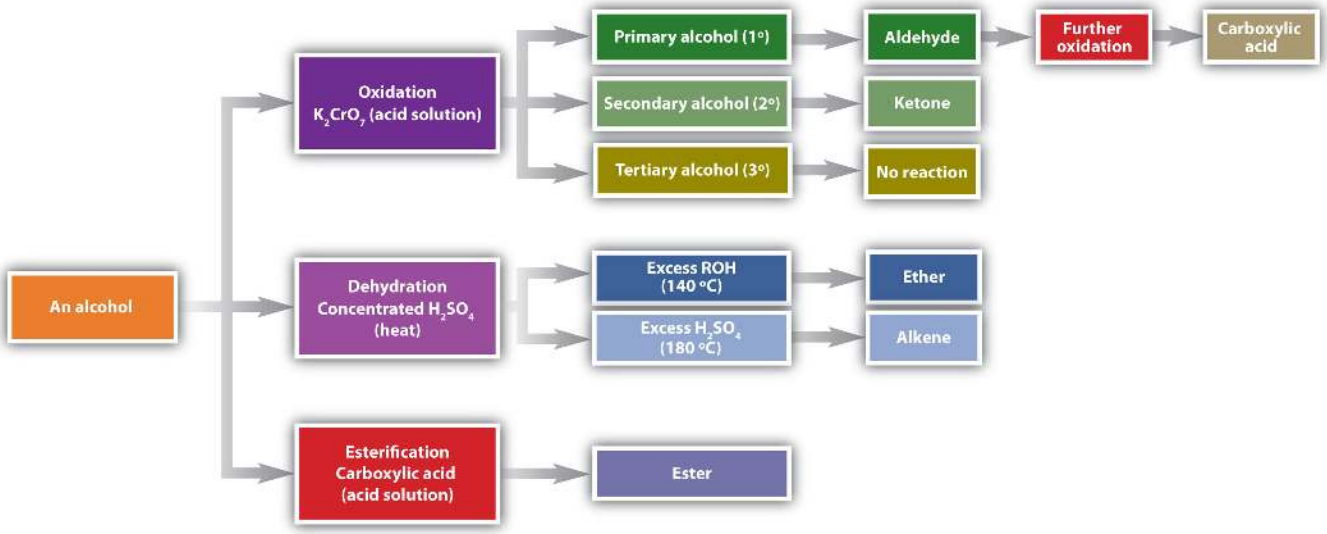
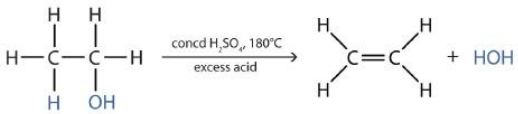


Figure 3.6.1: Reactions of Alcohols. Oxidation and dehydration of alcohols are considered here.

A flow diagram of three possible reactions of an alcohol. The final products of the reactions are also shown at the end of the flow diagram.

Dehydration

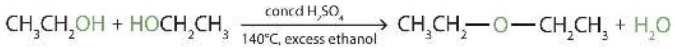
As noted in Figure 3.6.1, an alcohol undergoes dehydration in the presence of a catalyst to form an alkene and water. The reaction removes the OH group from the alcohol carbon atom and a hydrogen atom from an adjacent carbon atom in the same molecule:



Ethanol Ethylene

Structural formula of ethanol dehydrating under excess concentrated sulfuric acid at 180 degrees celsius. The products are ethylene and a side product of a water molecule.

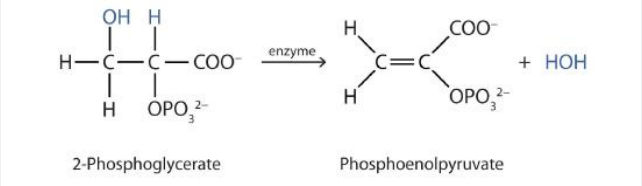
Under the proper conditions, it is possible for the dehydration to occur between *two* alcohol molecules. The entire OH group of one molecule and only the hydrogen atom of the OH group of the second molecule are removed. The two ethyl groups attached to an oxygen atom form an ether molecule.



Two molecules of ethanol are dehydrated under concentrated sulfuric acid at 140 degrees celsius and excess ethanol to give a diethyl ether and a water molecule.

(Ethers are discussed in elsewhere) Thus, depending on conditions, one can prepare either alkenes or ethers by the dehydration of alcohols.

Both dehydration and hydration reactions occur continuously in cellular metabolism, with enzymes serving as catalysts and at a temperature of about 37°C. The following reaction occurs in the "Embden–Meyerhof" pathway

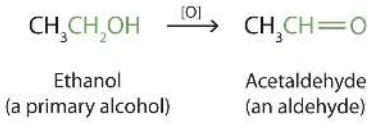


Structural formula of 2 phosphoglycerate forming phosphoenolpyruvate and a water molecule with the aid of enzymes.

Although the participating compounds are complex, the reaction is the same: elimination of water from the starting material. The idea is that if you know the chemistry of a particular functional group, you know the chemistry of hundreds of different compounds.

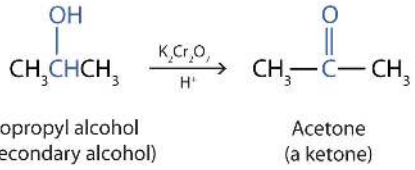
Oxidation

Primary and secondary alcohols are readily oxidized. We saw earlier how methanol and ethanol are oxidized by liver enzymes to form aldehydes. Because a variety of oxidizing agents can bring about oxidation, we can indicate an oxidizing agent without specifying a particular one by writing an equation with the symbol [O] above the arrow. For example, we write the oxidation of ethanol—a primary alcohol—to form acetaldehyde—an aldehyde—as follows:



Formula of ethanol reacting to form acetaldehyde with an O in a bracket above the right pointing arrow.

We shall see that aldehydes are even more easily oxidized than alcohols and yield carboxylic acids. Secondary alcohols are oxidized to *ketones*. The oxidation of isopropyl alcohol by potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$) gives acetone, the simplest ketone:

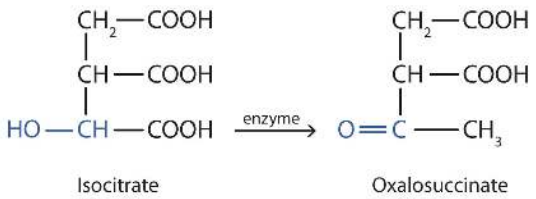


Unlike aldehydes, ketones are relatively resistant to further oxidation, so no special precautions are required to isolate them as they form. Note that in oxidation of both primary (RCH_2OH) and secondary (R_2CHOH) alcohols, two hydrogen atoms are removed from the alcohol molecule, one from the OH group and other from the carbon atom that bears the OH group.

These reactions can also be carried out in the laboratory with chemical oxidizing agents. One such oxidizing agent is potassium dichromate. The balanced equation (showing only the species involved in the reaction) in this case is as follows:

$$8\,H^{=} + Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 3\,CH_3CH_2OH \longrightarrow 3\,CH_3CHO + 2\,Cr^{3+} + 7\,H_2O$$

Alcohol oxidation is important in living organisms. Enzyme-controlled oxidation reactions provide the energy cells need to do useful work. One step in the metabolism of carbohydrates involves the oxidation of the secondary alcohol group in isocitric acid to a ketone group:



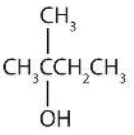
The overall type of reaction is the same as that in the conversion of isopropyl alcohol to acetone.

Tertiary alcohols (R_3COH) are resistant to oxidation because the carbon atom that carries the OH group does not have a hydrogen atom attached but is instead bonded to other carbon atoms. The oxidation reactions we have described involve the formation of a carbon-to-oxygen double bond. Thus, the carbon atom bearing the OH group must be able to release one of its attached atoms to form the double bond. The carbon-to-hydrogen bonding is easily broken under oxidative conditions, but carbon-to-carbon bonds are not. Therefore tertiary alcohols are not easily oxidized.

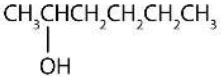
Example 3.6.1

Write an equation for the oxidation of each alcohol. Use [O] above the arrow to indicate an oxidizing agent. If no reaction occurs, write "no reaction" after the arrow.

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$

b. 

From left to right, there are four carbons on the alkane straight chain with a methyl and hydroxyl group on carbon 2.

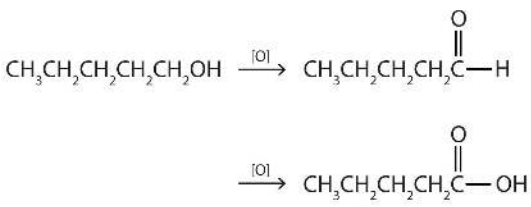
c. 

From left to right, there are six carbons on the alkane straight chain with a hydroxyl group on carbon 2.

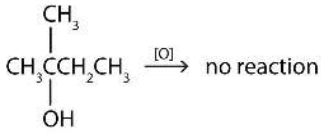
Solution

The first step is to recognize the class of each alcohol as primary, secondary, or tertiary.

a. This alcohol has the OH group on a carbon atom that is attached to only *one* other carbon atom, so it is a primary alcohol. Oxidation forms first an aldehyde and further oxidation forms a carboxylic acid.

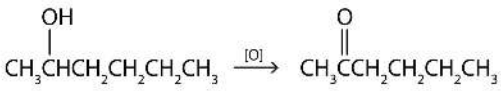


b. This alcohol has the OH group on a carbon atom that is attached to three other carbon atoms, so it is a tertiary alcohol. No reaction occurs.



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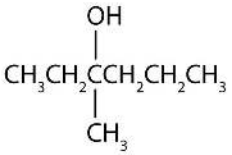
c. This alcohol has the OH group on a carbon atom that is attached to two other carbon atoms, so it is a secondary alcohol; oxidation gives a ketone.



Exercise 3.6.1

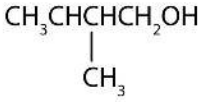
Write an equation for the oxidation of each alcohol. Use [O] above the arrow to indicate an oxidizing agent. If no reaction occurs, write “no reaction” after the arrow.

a.



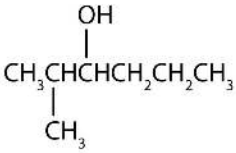
From left to right, there are six carbons on the alkane straight chain with a hydroxyl group and methyl group on carbon 3.

b.



From left to right, there are four carbons on the alkane straight chain with a methyl group on carbon 3 as well as a hydroxyl group on carbon 4.

c.



From left to right, there are six carbons on the alkane straight chain with a methyl group on carbon 2 and a hydroxyl group on carbon 3.

Summary

Alcohols can be dehydrated to form either alkenes (higher temperature, excess acid) or ethers (lower temperature, excess alcohol). Primary alcohols are oxidized to form aldehydes. Secondary alcohols are oxidized to form ketones. Tertiary alcohols are not readily oxidized.

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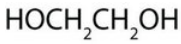
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3.7: Glycols and Glycerol

Learning Objectives

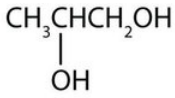
- To describe the structure and uses of some common polyhydric alcohols.

Alcohols with two OH groups on adjacent carbon atoms are commonly known as glycols. The most important of these is 1,2-ethanediol (the common name is ethylene glycol), a sweet, colorless, somewhat viscous liquid.



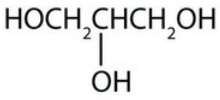
Ethylene glycol

Another common glycol, 1,2-propanediol, is commonly called propylene glycol. Its physical properties are quite similar to those of ethylene glycol.



Propylene glycol

Commonly called glycerol or glycerin, 1,2,3-propanetriol is the most important trihydroxy alcohol. Like the two glycols, it is a sweet, syrupy liquid. Glycerol is a product of the hydrolysis of fats and oils.

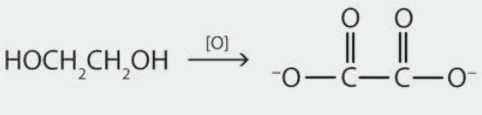


Glycerol

Ethylene glycol is the main ingredient in many antifreeze mixtures for automobile radiators. The two OH groups lead to extensive intermolecular hydrogen bonding. This results in a high boiling point—198°C; thus ethylene glycol does not boil away when it is used as an antifreeze. It is also completely miscible with water. A solution of 60% ethylene glycol in water freezes at −49°C (−56°F) and thus protects an automobile radiator down to that temperature. Ethylene glycol is also used in the manufacture of polyester fiber and magnetic film used in tapes for recorders and computers.

To Your Health: Glycols and Human Health

Ethylene glycol is quite toxic. Because it is sweet, pets often lap up spills of leaked antifreeze from a garage floor or driveway. Sometimes people, especially children, drink it. As with methanol, its toxicity is due to a metabolite. Liver enzymes oxidize ethylene glycol to oxalate ion.



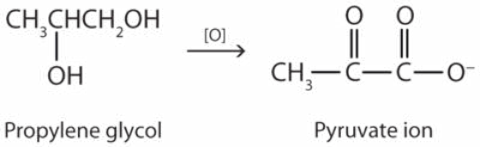
Ethylene glycol Oxalate ion

In the kidneys, the oxalate ion combines with the calcium (Ca^{2+}) ion, precipitating as calcium oxalate (CaC_2O_4).

$$\mathrm{Ca^{2+}(aq) + C_2O_4^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow CaC_2O_4(s)}$$

These crystals cause renal damage and can lead to kidney failure and death.

Although propylene glycol has physical properties much like those of ethylene glycol, its physiological properties are quite different. Propylene glycol is essentially nontoxic, and it can be used as a solvent for drugs and as a moisturizing agent for foods. Like other alcohols, propylene glycol is oxidized by liver enzymes.



Propylene glycol Pyruvate ion

In this case, however, the product is pyruvate ion, a normal intermediate in carbohydrate metabolism. Glycerol, a product of fat metabolism, is essentially nontoxic.

Summary

Glycols are alcohols with two OH groups on adjacent carbon atoms. Glycerol is the most important trihydroxy alcohol.

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3.8: Phenols

Learning Objectives

- To describe the structure and uses of some phenols

Compounds in which an OH group is attached directly to an aromatic ring are designated ArOH and called phenols. Phenols differ from alcohols in that they are slightly acidic in water. They react with aqueous sodium hydroxide (NaOH) to form salts.

$$\mathrm{ArOH(aq) + NaOH(aq) \rightarrow ArONa(aq) + H_2O}$$

The parent compound, C_6H_5OH, is itself called phenol. (An old name, emphasizing its slight acidity, was *carbolic acid*.) Phenol is a white crystalline compound that has a distinctive ("hospital smell") odor.

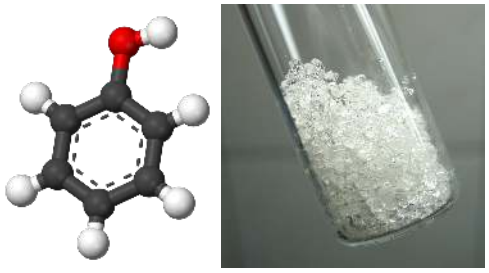


Figure 3.8.1: (Left) Structure of Phenol (right) Approximately two grams of phenol in glass vial. from Wikipedia

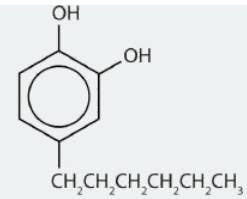
To Your Health: Phenols and Us

Phenols are widely used as antiseptics (substances that kill microorganisms on living tissue) and as disinfectants (substances intended to kill microorganisms on inanimate objects such as furniture or floors). The first widely used antiseptic was phenol. Joseph Lister used it for antiseptic surgery in 1867. Phenol is toxic to humans, however, and can cause severe burns when applied to the skin. In the bloodstream, it is a systemic poison—that is, one that is carried to and affects all parts of the body. Its severe side effects led to searches for safer antiseptics, a number of which have been found.



An operation in 1753, painted by Gaspare Traversi, of a surgery before antiseptics were used.

One safer phenolic antiseptic is 4-hexylresorcinol (4-hexyl-1,3-dihydroxybenzene; resorcinol is the common name for 1,3-dihydroxybenzene, and 4-hexylresorcinol has a hexyl group on the fourth carbon atom of the resorcinol ring). It is much more powerful than phenol as a germicide and has fewer undesirable side effects. Indeed, it is safe enough to be used as the active ingredient in some mouthwashes and throat lozenges.



The compound 4-hexylresorcinol is mild enough to be used as the active ingredient in antiseptic preparations for use on the skin.

The compound 4-hexylresorcinol is mild enough to be used as the active ingredient in antiseptic preparations for use on the skin.

Summary

Phenols are compounds in which an OH group is attached directly to an aromatic ring. Many phenols are used as antiseptics.

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3.9: Organic Sulfur Compounds

Learning Objectives

- Identify thiols (mercaptans) by the presence of an SH group.
- The mild oxidation of thiols gives disulfides.

Because sulfur is in the same group (6A) of the periodic table as oxygen, the two elements have some similar properties. We might expect sulfur to form organic compounds related to those of oxygen, and indeed it does. Thiols (also called mercaptans), which are sulfur analogs of alcohols, have the general formula RSH. Methanethiol (also called methyl mercaptan), has the formula CH_3SH. Ethanethiol (ethyl mercaptan) is the most common odorant for liquid propane (LP) gas.

The mild oxidation of thiols gives compounds called **disulfides**.

$$2\mathrm{RSH} \xrightarrow{[O]} \mathrm{RSSR}$$

The amino acids cysteine [$HSCH_2CH(NH_2)COOH$] and methionine [$CH_3SCH_2CH_2CH(NH_2)COOH$] contain sulfur atoms, as do all proteins that contain these amino acids. Disulfide linkages (–S–S–) between protein chains are extremely important in protein structure.

Thioethers, which are sulfur analogs of ethers, have the form general formula RSR′. An example is dimethylsulfide (CH_3SCH_3), which is responsible for the sometimes unpleasant odor of cooking cabbage and related vegetables. Note that methionine has a thioether functional group.

Career Focus: Paramedic

Paramedics are highly trained experts at providing emergency medical treatment. Their critical duties often include rescue work and emergency medical procedures in a wide variety of settings, sometimes under extremely harsh and difficult conditions. Like other science-based professions, their work requires knowledge, ingenuity, and complex thinking, as well as a great deal of technical skill. The recommended courses for preparation in this field include anatomy, physiology, medical terminology, and—not surprisingly—chemistry. An understanding of basic principles of organic chemistry, for example, is useful when paramedics have to deal with such traumas as burns from fuel (hydrocarbons) or solvent (alcohols, ethers, esters, and so on) fires and alcohol and drug overdoses.

To become a paramedic requires 2–4 y of training and usually includes a stint as an emergency medical technician (EMT). An EMT provides basic care, can administer certain medications and treatments, such as oxygen for respiratory problems and epinephrine (adrenalin) for allergic reactions, and has some knowledge of common medical conditions. A paramedic, in contrast, must have extensive knowledge of common medical problems and be trained to administer a wide variety of emergency drugs.

Paramedics usually work under the direction of a medical doctor with a title such as “medical director.” Some paramedics are employed by fire departments and may work from a fire engine that carries medical equipment as well as fire-fighting gear. Some work from hospital-sponsored ambulances and continue to care for their patients after reaching the hospital emergency room. Still other paramedics work for a government department responsible for emergency health care in a specific geographical area. Finally, some work for private companies that contract to provide service for a government body.

An experienced paramedic has a broad range of employment options, including training for mountain or ocean rescue, working with police department special weapons and tactics (SWAT) teams, or working in isolated settings such as on oil rigs. With their expertise at treating and stabilizing patients before quickly moving them to a hospital, paramedics often provide the first critical steps in saving an endangered life. The following quotation, inscribed on the Arlington National Cemetery headstone of Army Lieutenant R. Adams Cowley, who is often called the “father” of shock trauma medicine, serves as the motto for many paramedic units: “Next to creating a life the finest thing a man can do is save one.” —Abraham Lincoln

Summary

Thiols, thioethers, and disulfides are common in biological compounds.

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3.10: Ethers

Learning Objectives

- Describe the structural difference between an alcohol and an ether that affects physical characteristics and reactivity of each.
- Name simple ethers.
- Describe the structure and uses of some ethers.

With the general formula ROR′, an ether may be considered a derivative of water in which both hydrogen atoms are replaced by alkyl or aryl groups. It may also be considered a derivative of an alcohol (ROH) in which the hydrogen atom of the OH group is been replaced by a second alkyl or aryl group:

$$\mathrm{HOH} \xrightarrow[\text{H atoms}]{\text{replace both}} \mathrm{ROR'} \xleftarrow[\text{of OH group}]{\text{replace H atom}} \mathrm{ROH}$$

Simple ethers have simple common names, formed from the names of the groups attached to oxygen atom, followed by the generic name *ether*. For example, CH_3–O–$CH_2CH_2CH_3$ is methyl propyl ether. If both groups are the same, the group name should be preceded by the prefix *di-*, as in dimethyl ether (CH_3–O–CH_3) and diethyl ether CH_3CH_2–O–CH_2CH_3.

Ether molecules have no hydrogen atom on the oxygen atom (that is, no OH group). Therefore there is no intermolecular hydrogen bonding between ether molecules, and ethers therefore have quite low boiling points for a given molar mass. Indeed, ethers have boiling points about the same as those of alkanes of comparable molar mass and much lower than those of the corresponding alcohols (Table 3.10.1).

Table 3.10.1: Comparison of Boiling Points of Alkanes, Alcohols, and Ethers

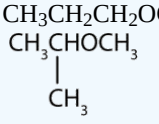
Condensed Structural Formula	Name	Molar Mass	Boiling Point (°C)	Intermolecular Hydrogen Bonding in Pure Liquid?
$CH_3CH_2CH_3$	propane	44	–42	no
CH_3OCH_3	dimethyl ether	46	–25	no
CH_3CH_2OH	ethyl alcohol	46	78	yes
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	pentane	72	36	no
$CH_3CH_2OCH_2CH_3$	diethyl ether	74	35	no
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$	butyl alcohol	74	117	yes

Ether molecules do have an oxygen atom, however, and engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules. Consequently, an ether has about the same solubility in water as the alcohol that is isomeric with it. For example, dimethyl ether and ethanol (both having the molecular formula C_2H_6O) are completely soluble in water, whereas diethyl ether and 1-butanol (both $C_4H_{10}O$) are barely soluble in water (8 g/100 mL of water).

Example 3.10.1

What is the common name for each ether?

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2OCH_2CH_2CH_3$

b. 

Solution

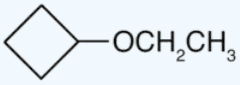
a. The carbon groups on either side of the oxygen atom are propyl ($CH_3CH_2CH_2$) groups, so the compound is dipropyl ether.

b. The three-carbon group is attached by the middle carbon atom, so it is an isopropyl group. The one-carbon group is a methyl group. The compound is isopropyl methyl ether.

Exercise 3.10.1

What is the common name for each ether?

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$

b. 

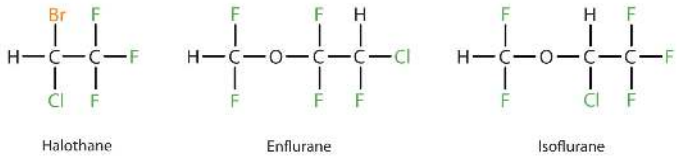
To Your Health: Ethers as General Anesthetics

A *general anesthetic* acts on the brain to produce unconsciousness and a general insensitivity to feeling or pain. Diethyl ether ($CH_3CH_2OCH_2CH_3$) was the first general anesthetic to be used.



William Morton, a Boston dentist, introduced diethyl ether into surgical practice in 1846. This painting shows an operation in Boston in 1846 in which diethyl ether was used as an anesthetic. Inhalation of ether vapor produces unconsciousness by depressing the activity of the central nervous system. Source: Painting of William Morton by Ernest Board.

Diethyl ether is relatively safe because there is a fairly wide gap between the dose that produces an effective level of anesthesia and the lethal dose. However, because it is highly flammable and has the added disadvantage of causing nausea, it has been replaced by newer inhalant anesthetics, including the fluorine-containing compounds halothane, enflurane, and isoflurane. Unfortunately, the safety of these compounds for operating room personnel has been questioned. For example, female operating room workers exposed to halothane suffer a higher rate of miscarriages than women in the general population.



These three modern, inhalant, halogen-containing, anesthetic compounds are less flammable than diethyl ether.

Summary

To give ethers common names, simply name the groups attached to the oxygen atom, followed by the generic name *ether*. If both groups are the same, the group name should be preceded by the prefix *di-*. Ether molecules have no OH group and thus no intermolecular hydrogen bonding. Ethers therefore have quite low boiling points for a given molar mass. Ether molecules have an oxygen atom and can engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules. An ether molecule has about the same solubility in water as the alcohol that is isomeric with it.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

4: Aldehydes, Ketones, and Chiral Molecules

4.1: Aldehydes and Ketones- Structure and Names
4.2: Properties of Aldehydes and Ketones
4.3: Chirality and stereoisomers
4.4: Naming chiral centers- the R and S system
4.5: Optical Activity
4.6: Compounds with multiple chiral centers
4.7: Fischer and Haworth projections

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4.1: Aldehydes and Ketones- Structure and Names

Learning Objectives

- Identify the general structure for an aldehyde and a ketone.
- Use common names to name aldehydes and ketones.
- Use the IUPAC system to name aldehydes and ketones.

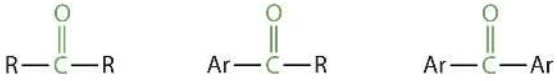
The next functional group we consider, the carbonyl group, has a carbon-to-oxygen double bond.



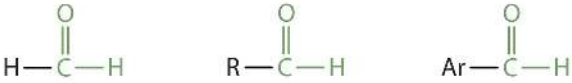
Carbonyl groups define two related families of organic compounds: the aldehydes and the ketones.

> *The carbonyl group is ubiquitous in biological compounds. It is found in carbohydrates, fats, proteins, nucleic acids, hormones, and vitamins—organic compounds critical to living systems.*

In a ketone, two carbon groups are attached to the carbonyl carbon atom. The following general formulas, in which R represents an alkyl group and Ar stands for an aryl group, represent ketones.



In an aldehyde, at least one of the attached groups must be a hydrogen atom. The following compounds are aldehydes:



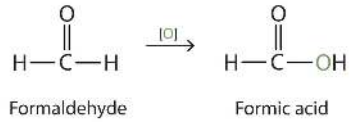
In condensed formulas, we use CHO to identify an aldehyde rather than COH, which might be confused with an alcohol. This follows the general rule that in condensed structural formulas H comes after the atom it is attached to (usually C, N, or O).



The carbon-to-oxygen double bond is not shown but understood to be present. Because they contain the same functional group, aldehydes and ketones share many common properties, but they still differ enough to warrant their classification into two families.

Naming Aldehydes and Ketones

Both common and International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) names are frequently used for aldehydes and ketones, with common names predominating for the lower homologs. The common names of aldehydes are taken from the names of the acids into which the aldehydes can be converted by *oxidation*.



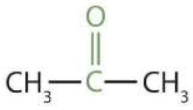
Formaldehyde — Formic acid

Acetaldehyde — Acetic acid

The stems for the common names of the first four aldehydes are as follows:

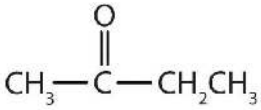
- 1 carbon atom: *form-*
- 2 carbon atoms: *acet-*
- 3 carbon atoms: *propion-*
- 4 carbon atoms: *butyr-*

Because the carbonyl group in a ketone must be attached to two carbon groups, the simplest ketone has three carbon atoms. It is widely known as *acetone*, a unique name unrelated to other common names for ketones.



Acetone

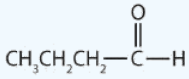
Generally, the common names of ketones consist of the names of the groups attached to the carbonyl group, followed by the word *ketone*. (Note the similarity to the naming of ethers.) Another name for acetone, then, is *dimethyl ketone*. The ketone with four carbon atoms is ethyl methyl ketone.

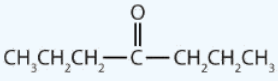


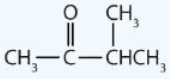
Ethyl methyl ketone

Example 4.1.1

Classify each compound as an aldehyde or a ketone. Give the common name for each ketone.

a. 

b. 

c. 

Solution

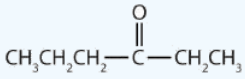
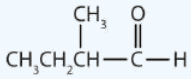
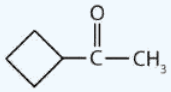
a. This compound has the carbonyl group on an end carbon atom, so it is an aldehyde.

b. This compound has the carbonyl group on an interior carbon atom, so it is a ketone. Both alkyl groups are propyl groups. The name is therefore dipropyl ketone.

c. This compound has the carbonyl group between two alkyl groups, so it is a ketone. One alkyl group has three carbon atoms and is attached by the middle carbon atom; it is an isopropyl group. A group with one carbon atom is a methyl group. The name is therefore isopropyl methyl ketone.

Exercise 4.1.1

Classify each compound as an aldehyde or a ketone. Give the common name for each ketone.

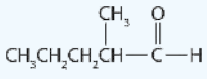
1. 
2. 
3. 

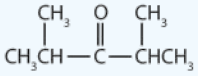
Here are some simple IUPAC rules for naming aldehydes and ketones:

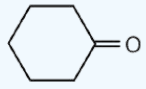
- The stem names of aldehydes and ketones are derived from those of the parent alkanes, defined by the longest continuous chain (LCC) of carbon atoms that contains the functional group.
- For an aldehyde, drop the *-e* from the alkane name and add the ending *-al*. Methanal is the IUPAC name for formaldehyde, and ethanal is the name for acetaldehyde.
- For a ketone, drop the *-e* from the alkane name and add the ending *-one*. Propanone is the IUPAC name for acetone, and butanone is the name for ethyl methyl ketone.
- To indicate the position of a substituent on an aldehyde, the carbonyl carbon atom is always considered to be C1; it is unnecessary to designate this group by number.
- To indicate the position of a substituent on a ketone, number the chain in the manner that gives the carbonyl carbon atom the lowest possible number. In cyclic ketones, it is understood that the carbonyl carbon atom is C1.

Example 4.1.2

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

a. 

b. 

c. 

Solution

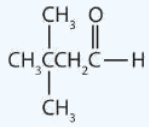
a. There are five carbon atoms in the LCC. The methyl group (CH_3) is a substituent on the second carbon atom of the chain; the aldehyde carbon atom is always C1. The name is derived from pentane. Dropping the *-e* and adding the ending *-al* gives pentanal. The methyl group on the second carbon atom makes the name 2-methylpentanal.

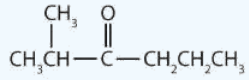
b. There are five carbon atoms in the LCC. The carbonyl carbon atom is C3, and there are methyl groups on C2 and C4. The IUPAC name is 2,4-dimethyl-3-pentanone.

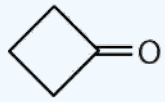
c. There are six carbon atoms in the ring. The compound is cyclohexanone. No number is needed to indicate the position of the carbonyl group because all six carbon atoms are equivalent.

Exercise

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

a. 

b. 

c. 

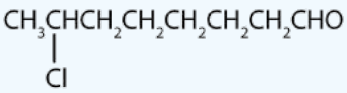
Example 4.1.3

Draw the structure for each compound.

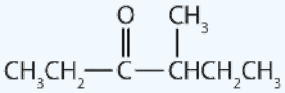
a. 7-chlorooctanal
b. 4-methyl–3-hexanone

Solution

a. The *octan-* part of the name tells us that the LCC has eight carbon atoms. There is a chlorine (Cl) atom on the seventh carbon atom; numbering from the carbonyl group and counting the carbonyl carbon atom as C1, we place the Cl atom on the seventh carbon atom.



b. The *hexan-* part of the name tells us that the LCC has six carbon atoms. The 3 means that the carbonyl carbon atom is C3 in this chain, and the 4 tells us that there is a methyl (CH_3) group at C4:



Exercise 4.1.3

Draw the structure for each compound.

a. 5-bromo-3-iodoheptanal
b. 5-bromo-4-ethyl-2-heptanone

Summary

The common names of aldehydes are taken from the names of the corresponding carboxylic acids: formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and so on. The common names of ketones, like those of ethers, consist of the names of the groups attached to the carbonyl group, followed by the word *ketone*. Stem names of aldehydes and ketones are derived from those of the parent alkanes, using an *-al* ending for an aldehydes and an *-one* ending for a ketone.

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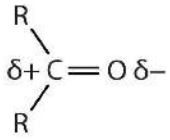
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4.2: Properties of Aldehydes and Ketones

Learning Objectives

- Explain why the boiling points of aldehydes and ketones are higher than those of ethers and alkanes of similar molar masses but lower than those of comparable alcohols.
- Compare the solubilities in water of aldehydes and ketones of four or fewer carbon atoms with the solubilities of comparable alkanes and alcohols.
- Name the typical reactions take place with aldehydes and ketones.
- Describe some of the uses of common aldehydes and ketones.

The carbon-to-oxygen double bond is quite polar, more polar than a carbon-to-oxygen single bond. The electronegative oxygen atom has a much greater attraction for the bonding electron pairs than does the carbon atom. The carbon atom has a partial positive charge, and the oxygen atom has a partial negative charge:



In aldehydes and ketones, this charge separation leads to dipole-dipole interactions that are great enough to significantly affect the boiling points. Table 4.2.1 shows that the polar single bonds in ethers have little such effect, whereas hydrogen bonding between alcohol molecules is even stronger.

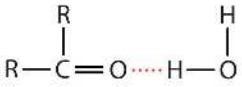
Table 4.2.1: Boiling Points of Compounds Having Similar Molar Masses but Different Types of Intermolecular Forces

Compound	Family	Molar Mass	Type of Intermolecular Forces	Boiling Point (°C)
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_3$	alkane	58	dispersion only	–1
$CH_3OCH_2CH_3$	ether	60	weak dipole	6
CH_3CH_2CHO	aldehyde	58	strong dipole	49
$CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$	alcohol	60	hydrogen bonding	97

Formaldehyde is a gas at room temperature. Acetaldehyde boils at 20°C; in an open vessel, it boils away in a warm room. Most other common aldehydes are liquids at room temperature.

Although the lower members of the homologous series have pungent odors, many higher aldehydes have pleasant odors and are used in perfumes and artificial flavorings. As for the ketones, acetone has a pleasant odor, but most of the higher homologs have rather bland odors.

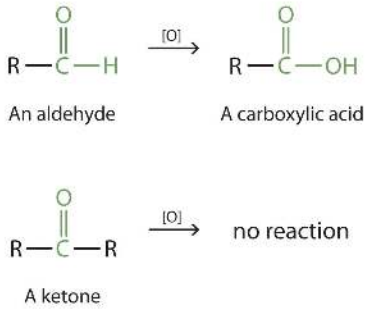
The oxygen atom of the carbonyl group engages in hydrogen bonding with a water molecule.



The solubility of aldehydes is therefore about the same as that of alcohols and ethers. Formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and acetone are soluble in water. As the carbon chain increases in length, solubility in water decreases. The borderline of solubility occurs at about four carbon atoms per oxygen atom. All aldehydes and ketones are soluble in organic solvents and, in general, are less dense than water.

Oxidation of Aldehydes and Ketones

Aldehydes and ketones are much alike in many of their reactions, owing to the presence of the carbonyl functional group in both. They differ greatly, however, in one most important type of reaction: oxidation. Aldehydes are readily oxidized to carboxylic acids, whereas ketones resist oxidation.



The aldehydes are, in fact, among the most easily oxidized of organic compounds. They are oxidized by oxygen (O_2) in air to carboxylic acids.

$$2\,RCHO + O_2 \longrightarrow 2\,RCOOH$$

The ease of oxidation helps chemists identify aldehydes. A sufficiently mild oxidizing agent can distinguish aldehydes not only from ketones but also from alcohols. Tollens' reagent, for example, is an alkaline solution of silver (Ag^+) ion complexed with ammonia (NH_3), which keeps the Ag^+ ion in solution.

$$H_3N—Ag^+—NH_3$$

When Tollens' reagent oxidizes an aldehyde, the Ag^+ ion is reduced to free silver (Ag).

$$\underbrace{RCHO(aq)}_{\text{an aldehyde}} + 2\,Ag(NH_3)_2^+(aq) \longrightarrow RCOO^- + \underbrace{2\,Ag(s)}_{\text{free silver}} + 4\,NH_3(aq) + 2\,H_2O$$

Deposited on a clean glass surface, the silver produces a mirror (Figure 4.2.1). Ordinary ketones do not react with Tollens' reagent.



Figure 4.2.1: Aldehyde Reactions. A reaction related to the Tollens' reaction is often used to silver mirrors. These ornaments were silvered by such a reaction. Glucose, a simple sugar with an aldehyde functional group, is used as the reducing agent. Source: Photo courtesy of Krebs Glas Lauscha, commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Silvering.jpg.

A person wearing gloves is holding a bunch of ornaments that she has just lifted from a basin containing a solution.

Although ketones resist oxidation by ordinary laboratory oxidizing agents, they undergo combustion, as do aldehydes.

Some Common Carbonyl Compounds

Formaldehyde has an irritating odor. Because of its reactivity, it is difficult to handle in the gaseous state. For many uses, it is therefore dissolved in water and sold as a 37% to 40% aqueous solution called *formalin*. Formaldehyde denatures proteins, rendering them insoluble in water and resistant to bacterial decay. For this reason, formalin is used in embalming solutions and in preserving biological specimens.

Aldehydes are the active components in many other familiar substances. Large quantities of formaldehyde are used to make phenol-formaldehyde resins for gluing the wood sheets in plywood and as adhesives in other building materials. Sometimes the formaldehyde escapes from the materials and causes health problems in some people. While some people seem unaffected, others experience coughing, wheezing, eye irritation, and other symptoms.

> *The odor of green leaves is due in part to a carbonyl compound, cis-3-hexenal, which with related compounds is used to impart a "green" herbal odor to shampoos and other products.*

Acetaldehyde is an extremely volatile, colorless liquid. It is a starting material for the preparation of many other organic compounds. Acetaldehyde is formed as a metabolite in the fermentation of sugars and in the detoxification of alcohol in the liver. Aldehydes are the active components of many other familiar materials (Figure 4.2.2).

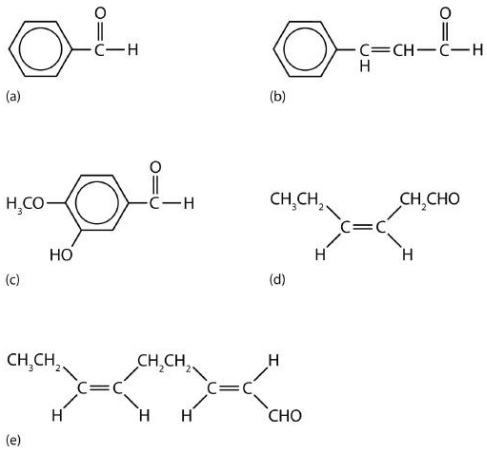


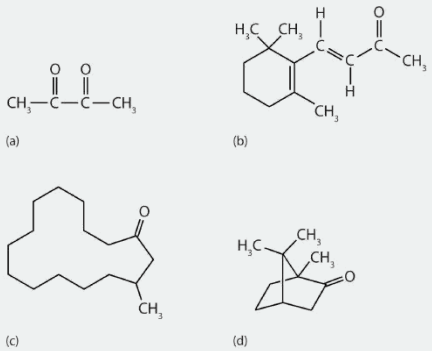
Figure 4.2.2 Some Interesting Aldehydes. (a) Benzaldehyde is an oil found in almonds; (b) cinnamaldehyde is oil of cinnamon; (c) vanillin gives vanilla its flavor; (d) *cis*-3-hexenal provides an herbal odor; and (e) *trans*-2-*cis*-6-nonadienal gives a cucumber odor.

Acetone is the simplest and most important ketone. Because it is miscible with water as well as with most organic solvents, its chief use is as an industrial solvent (for example, for paints and lacquers). It is also the chief ingredient in some brands of nail polish remover.

To Your Health: Acetone in Blood, Urine, and Breath

Acetone is formed in the human body as a by-product of lipid metabolism. Normally, acetone does not accumulate to an appreciable extent because it is oxidized to carbon dioxide and water. The normal concentration of acetone in the human body is less than 1 mg/100 mL of blood. In certain disease states, such as uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, the acetone concentration rises to higher levels. It is then excreted in the urine, where it is easily detected. In severe cases, its odor can be noted on the breath.

Ketones are also the active components of other familiar substances, some of which are noted in the accompanying figure.



Some ketones have interesting properties: (a) Butter flavoring comes from 2,3-butanedione; (b) β-ionone is responsible for the odor of violets; (c) muscone is musk oil, an ingredient in perfumes; and (d) camphor is used in some insect repellents.

Certain steroid hormones have the ketone functional group as a part of their structure. Two examples are progesterone, a hormone secreted by the ovaries that stimulates the growth of cells in the uterine wall and prepares it for attachment of a fertilized egg, and testosterone, the main male sex hormone. These and other sex hormones affect our development and our lives in fundamental ways.

Summary

The polar carbon-to-oxygen double bond causes aldehydes and ketones to have higher boiling points than those of ethers and alkanes of similar molar masses but lower than those of comparable alcohols that engage in intermolecular hydrogen bonding. Aldehydes are readily oxidized to carboxylic acids, whereas ketones resist oxidation.

4.2: Properties of Aldehydes and Ketones is shared under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

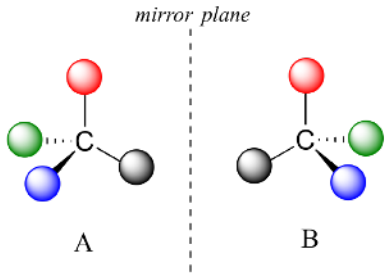
- **14.10: Properties of Aldehydes and Ketones** by Anonymous is licensed CC BY-NC-SA 3.0. Original source: https://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/introduction-to-chemistry-general-organic-and-biological.

4.3: Chirality and stereoisomers

We turn now to concept of chirality that formed the basis of the story about Louis Pasteur in the beginning of this chapter. Recall that the term **chiral**, from the Greek work for 'hand', refers to anything which cannot be superimposed on its own mirror image. Your hands, of course, are chiral - you cannot superimpose your left hand on your right, and you cannot fit your left hand into a right-handed glove (which is also a chiral object). Another way of saying this is that your hands do not have a **mirror plane of symmetry**: you cannot find any plane which bisects your hand in such a way that one side of the plane is a mirror image of the other side. *Chiral objects do not have a plane of symmetry*.

Your face, on the other hand is **achiral** - lacking chirality - because, some small deviations notwithstanding, you could superimpose your face onto its mirror image. If someone were to show you a mirror image photograph of your face, you could line the image up, point-for-point, with your actual face. Your face has a plane of symmetry, because the left side is the mirror image of the right side.

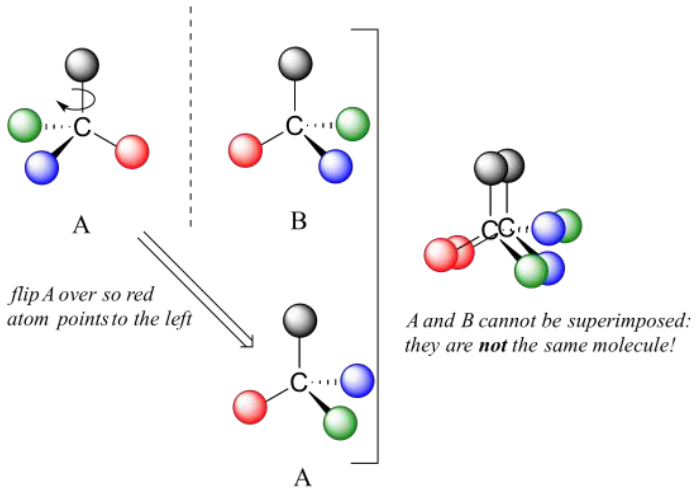
What Pasteur, Biot, and their contemporaries did not yet fully understand when Pasteur made his discovery of molecular chirality was the *source* of chirality at the molecular level. It stood to reason that a chiral molecule is one that does not contain a plane of symmetry, and thus cannot be superimposed on its mirror image. We now know that chiral molecules contain one or more **chiral centers**, which are almost always tetrahedral (sp^3-hybridized) carbons with four different substituents. Consider the cartoon molecule A below: a tetrahedral carbon, with four different substituents denoted by balls of four different colors (for the time being, don't worry about exactly what these substituents could be - we will see real examples very soon).



Another image

The mirror image of A, which we will call B, is drawn on the right side of the figure, and an imaginary mirror is in the middle. Notice that every point on A lines up through the mirror with the same point on B: in other words, if A looked in the mirror, it would see B looking back.

Now, if we flip compound A over and try to superimpose it point for point on compound B, we find that we cannot do it: if we superimpose any two colored balls, then the other two are misaligned.

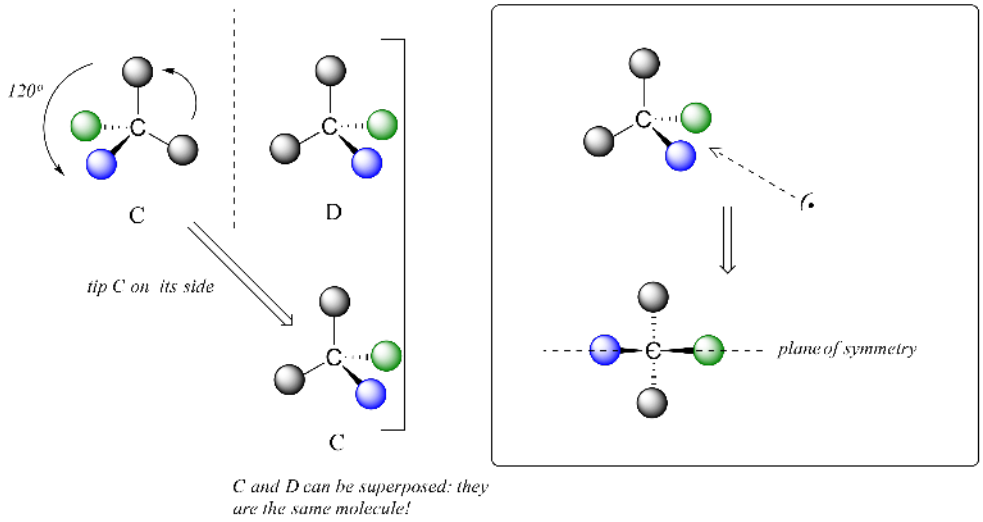


A is not superimposable on its mirror image (B), thus by definition A is a chiral molecule. It follows that B also is not superimposable on *its* mirror image (A), and thus it is also a chiral molecule. Also notice in the figure below (and convince yourself with models) that neither A nor B has an internal plane of symmetry.

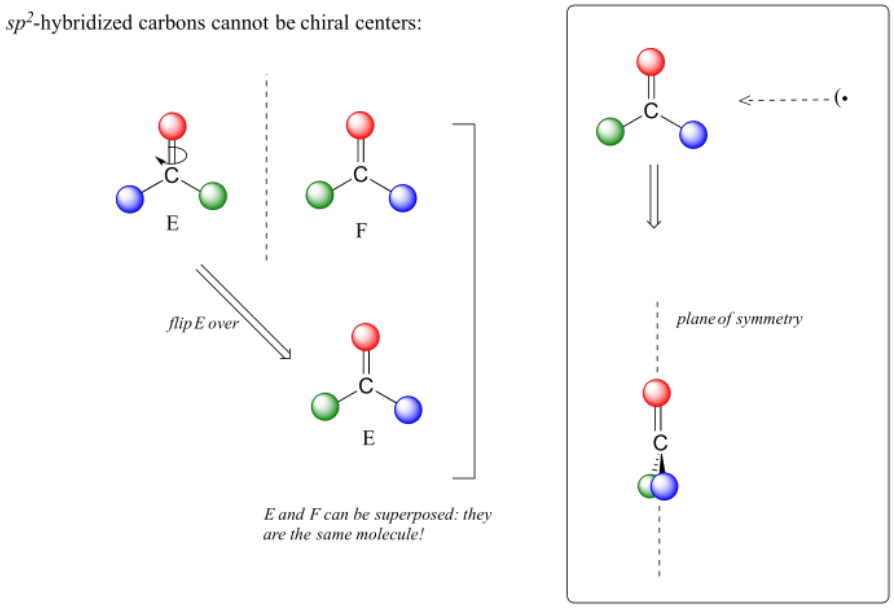
A and B are **stereoisomers**: molecules with the same molecular formula and the same bonding arrangement, but *a different arrangement of atoms in space*. There are two types of stereoisomers: enantiomers and diastereomers. **Enantiomers** are pairs of stereoisomers which are mirror images of each other: thus, A and B are enantiomers. It should be self-evident that a chiral molecule will always have one (and *only* one) enantiomer: enantiomers come in pairs. Enantiomers have identical physical properties (melting point, boiling point, density, and so on). However, enantiomers do differ in how they interact with polarized light (we will learn more about this soon) and they may also interact in very different ways with other chiral molecules - proteins, for example. We will begin to explore this last idea in later in this chapter, and see many examples throughout the remainder of our study of biological organic chemistry.

Diastereomers are stereoisomers which are *not* mirror images of each other. For now, we will concentrate on understanding enantiomers, and come back to diastereomers later.

We defined a chiral center as a tetrahedral carbon with four different substituents. If, instead, a tetrahedral carbon has two identical substituents (two black atoms in the cartoon figure below), then of course it still has a mirror image (*everything* has a mirror image, unless we are talking about a vampire!) However, it is superimposable on its mirror image, and has a plane of symmetry.



This molecule is **achiral** (lacking chirality). Using the same reasoning, we can see that a trigonal planar (sp^2-hybridized) carbon is also not a chiral center.

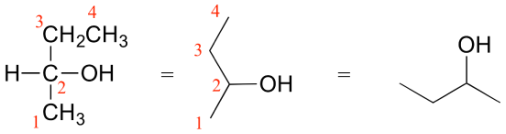


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Notice that structure E can be superimposed on F, its mirror image - all you have to do is pick E up, flip it over, and it is the same as F. This molecule has a plane of symmetry, and is achiral.

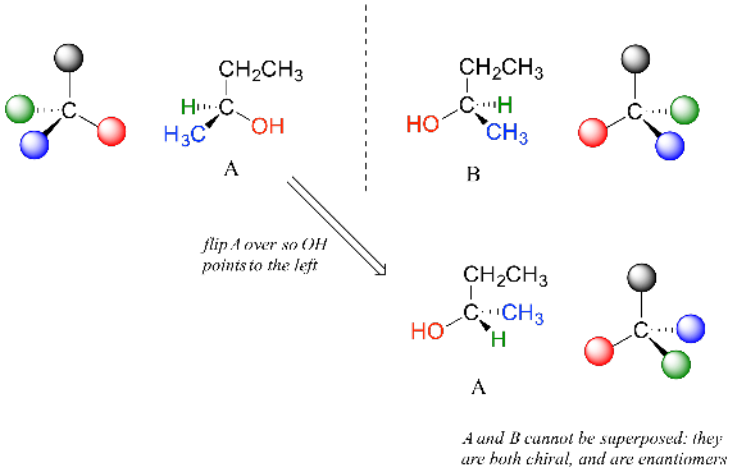
Let's apply our general discussion to real molecules. For now, we will limit our discussion to molecules with a single chiral center. It turns out that tartaric acid, the subject of our chapter introduction, has *two* chiral centers, so we will come back to it later.

Consider 2-butanol, drawn in two dimensions below.



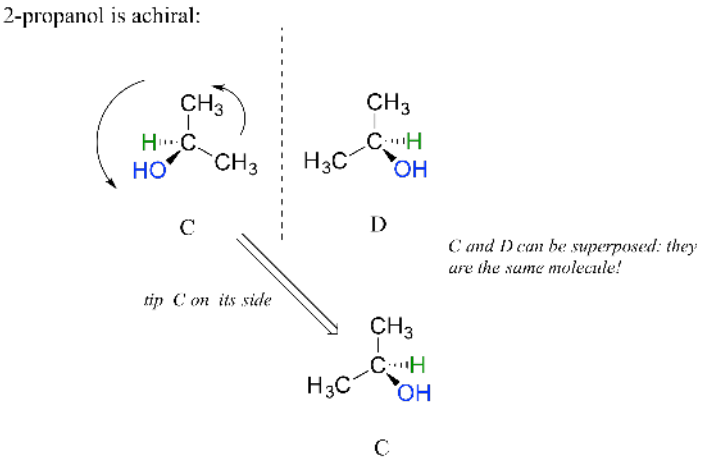
2-butanol
(drawn in 2D)

Carbon #2 is a chiral center: it is sp^3-hybridized and tetrahedral (even though it is not drawn that way above), and the four things attached to is are different: a hydrogen, a methyl ($-CH_3$) group, an ethyl ($-CH_2CH_3$) group, and a hydroxyl (OH) group. Let's draw the bonding at C_2 in three dimensions, and call this structure A. We will also draw the mirror image of A, and call this structure B.



When we try to superimpose A onto B, we find that we cannot do it. A and B are both chiral molecules, and they are enantiomers of each other.

2-propanol, unlike 2-butanol, is *not* a chiral molecule. Carbon #2 is bonded to two identical substituents (methyl groups), and so it is not a chiral center.

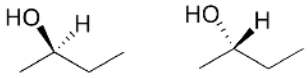


Notice that 2-propanol is superimposable on its own mirror image.

https://chem.libretexts.org/@go/page/291626

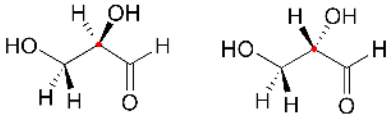
When we look at very simple molecules like 2-butanol, it is not difficult to draw out the mirror image and recognize that it is not superimposable. However, with larger, more complex molecules, this can be a daunting challenge in terms of drawing and three-dimensional visualization. The easy way to determine if a molecule is chiral is simply to look for the presence of one or more chiral centers: molecules with chiral centers will (almost always) be chiral. We insert the 'almost always' caveat here because it is possible to come up with the exception to this rule - we will have more to say on this later, but don't worry about it for now.

Here's another trick to make your stereochemical life easier: if you want to draw the enantiomer of a chiral molecule, it is not necessary to go to the trouble of drawing the point-for-point mirror image, as we have done up to now for purposes of illustration. Instead, keep the carbon skeleton the same, and simply reverse the solid and dashed wedge bonds on the chiral carbon: that accomplishes the same thing. You should use models to convince yourself that this is true, and also to convince yourself that swapping *any two substituents* about the chiral carbon will result in the formation of the enantiomer.

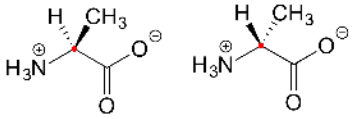


two enantiomers of 2-butanol

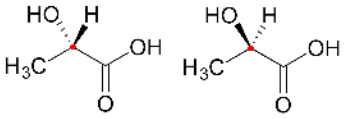
Here are four more examples of chiral biomolecules, each one shown as a pair of enantiomers, with chiral centers marked by red dots.



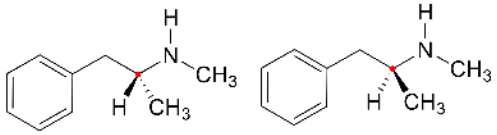
glyceraldehyde



alanine

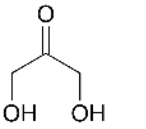


lactic acid

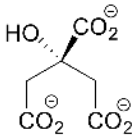


methamphetamine

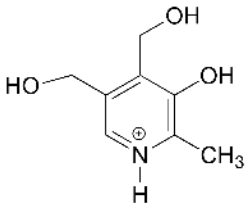
Here are some examples of ***achiral*** biomolecules - convince yourself that none of them contain a chiral center:



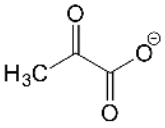
dihydroxyacetone



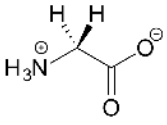
citrate



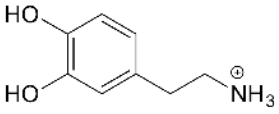
pyridoxine
(vitamin B_6)



pyruvate



glycine
(amino acid)



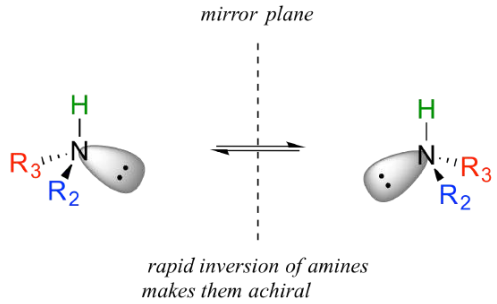
dopamine
(neurotransmitter)

When looking for chiral centers, it is important to recognize that the question of whether or not the dashed/solid wedge drawing convention is used is irrelevant. Chiral molecules are sometimes drawn without using wedges (although obviously this means that stereochemical information is being omitted). Conversely, wedges may be used on carbons that are *not* chiral centers – look, for example, at the drawings of glycine and citrate in the figure above.

Can a chiral center be something other than a tetrahedral carbon with four different substituents? The answer to this question is 'yes' - however, these alternative chiral centers are very rare in the context of biological organic chemistry, and outside the scope of our discussion here.

You may also have wondered about amines: shouldn't we consider a secondary or tertiary amine to be a chiral center, as they are tetrahedral and attached to four different substituents, if the lone-pair electrons are counted as a 'substituent'? Put another way, isn't an amine non-superimposable on its mirror image?

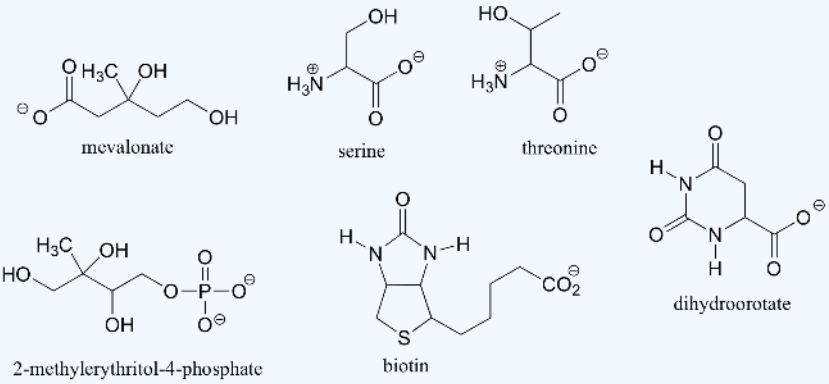
The answer: yes it is, in the static picture, but in reality, the nitrogen of an amine is rapidly and reversibly inverting, or turning inside out, at room temperature.



If you have trouble picturing this, take an old tennis ball and cut it in half. Then, take one of the concave halves and flip it inside out, then back again: this is what the amine is doing. The end result is that the two 'enantiomers' if the amine are actually two rapidly interconverting forms of the same molecule, and thus the amine itself is not a chiral center. This inversion process does *not* take place on a tetrahedral carbon, which of course has no lone-pair electrons.

? Exercise 3.8

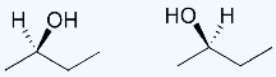
Locate all of the chiral centers (there may be more than one in a molecule). Remember, hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon usually are not drawn in the line structure convention - but they are still there!



Exercise 3.9

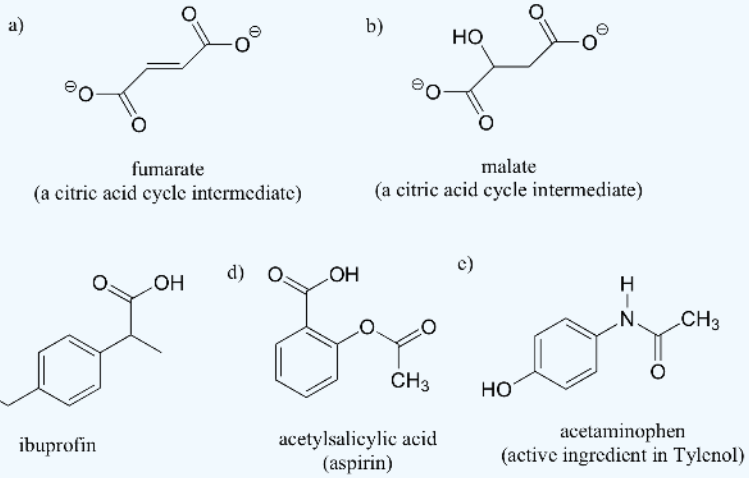
a) Draw two enantiomers of i) mevalonate and ii) serine.

b) Are the two 2-butanol structures below enantiomers?



Exercise 3.10

Label the molecules below as chiral or achiral, and locate all chiral centers.



Solutions to exercises

Khan Academy video tutorials

Chirality

Enantiomers

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4.4: Naming chiral centers- the R and S system

Chemists need a convenient way to distinguish one stereoisomer from another. The **Cahn-Ingold-Prelog system** is a set of rules that allows us to unambiguously define the stereochemical configuration of any stereocenter, using the designations '***R*** ' (from the Latin *rectus*, meaning right-handed) or ' ***S*** ' (from the Latin *sinister*, meaning left-handed).

The rules for this system of stereochemical nomenclature are, on the surface, fairly simple.

Rules for assigning an R/S designation to a chiral center

1: Assign priorities to the four substituents, with #1 being the highest priority and #4 the lowest. Priorities are based on the atomic number.

2: Trace a circle from #1 to #2 to #3.

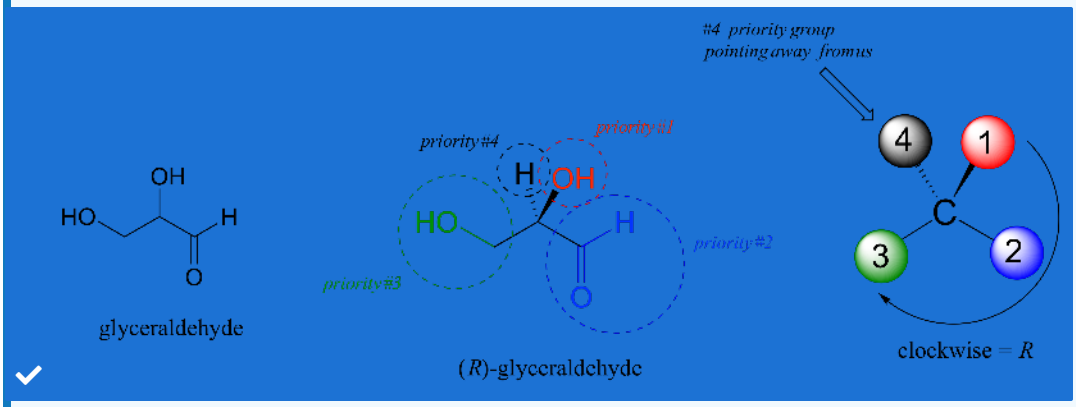
3: Determine the orientation of the #4 priority group. If it is oriented into the plane of the page (away from you), go to step 4a. If it is oriented out of the plane of the page (toward you) go to step 4b.

4a: *(#4 group pointing away from you)*: a clockwise circle in part 2 corresponds to the *R* configuration, while a counterclockwise circle corresponds to the *S* configuration.

4b: *(#4 group pointing toward you)*: a clockwise circle in part 2 corresponds to the *S* configuration, while a counterclockwise circle corresponds to the *R* configuration.

We'll use the 3-carbon sugar glyceraldehyde as our first example. The first thing that we must do is to assign a **priority** to each of the four substituents bound to the chiral center. We first look at the atoms that are directly bonded to the chiral center: these are H, O (in the hydroxyl), C (in the aldehyde), and C (in the CH_2OH group).

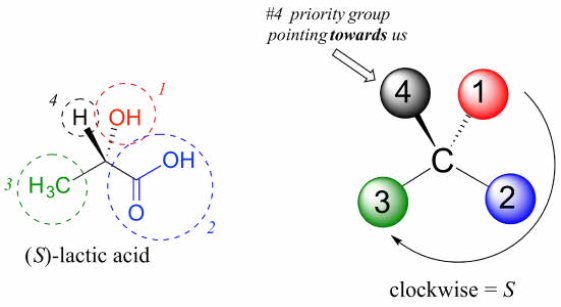
Assigning R/S configuration to glyceraldehyde



Two priorities are easy: hydrogen, with an atomic number of 1, is the lowest (#4) priority, and the hydroxyl oxygen, with atomic number 8, is priority #1. Carbon has an atomic number of 6. Which of the two 'C' groups is priority #2, the aldehyde or the CH_2OH? To determine this, we move one more bond away from the chiral center: for the aldehyde we have a *double* bond to an oxygen, while on the CH_2OH group we have a *single* bond to an oxygen. If the atom is the same, double bonds have a higher priority than single bonds. Therefore, the aldehyde group is assigned #2 priority and the CH_2OH group the #3 priority.

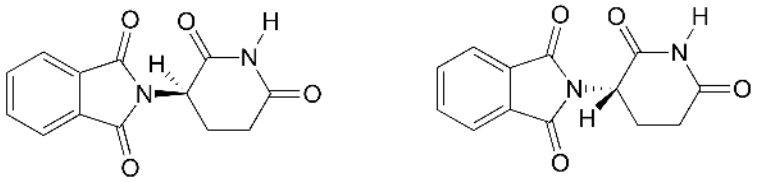
With our priorities assigned, we look next at the #4 priority group (the hydrogen) and see that it is pointed back away from us, into the plane of the page - thus step 4a from the procedure above applies. Then, we trace a circle defined by the #1, #2, and #3 priority groups, in increasing order. The circle is clockwise, which by step 4a tells us that this carbon has the '*R*' configuration, and that this molecule is (*R*)-glyceraldehyde. Its enantiomer, by definition, must be (*S*)-glyceraldehyde.

Next, let's look at one of the enantiomers of lactic acid and determine the configuration of the chiral center. Clearly, H is the #4 substituent and OH is #1. Owing to its three bonds to oxygen, the carbon on the acid group takes priority #2, and the methyl group takes #3. The #4 group, hydrogen, happens to be drawn pointing *toward* us (out of the plane of the page) in this figure, so we use step 4b: The circle traced from #1 to #2 to #3 is clockwise, which means that the chiral center has the *S* configuration.



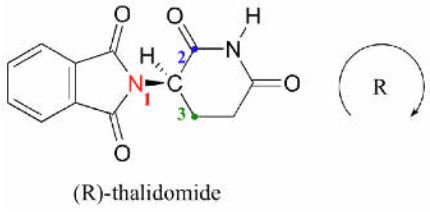
Interactive model of (S)-alanine

The drug thalidomide is an interesting - but tragic - case study in the importance of stereochemistry in drug design. First manufactured by a German drug company and prescribed widely in Europe and Australia in the late 1950's as a sedative and remedy for morning sickness in pregnant women, thalidomide was soon implicated as the cause of devastating birth defects in babies born to women who had taken it. Thalidomide contains a chiral center, and thus exists in two enantiomeric forms. It was marketed as a **racemic mixture**: in other words, a 50:50 mixture of both enantiomers.



two enantiomers of thalidomide

Let's try to determine the stereochemical configuration of the enantiomer on the left. Of the four bonds to the chiral center, the #4 priority is hydrogen. The nitrogen group is #1, the carbonyl side of the ring is #2, and the $–CH_2$ side of the ring is #3.



The hydrogen is shown pointing away from us, and the prioritized substituents trace a clockwise circle: this is the *R* enantiomer of thalidomide. The other enantiomer, of course, must have the S configuration.

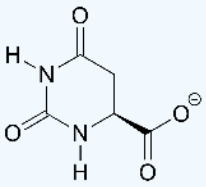
Although scientists are still unsure today how thalidomide works, experimental evidence suggests that it was actually the *R* enantiomer that had the desired medical effects, while the *S* enantiomer caused the birth defects. Even with this knowledge, however, pure (*R*)-thalidomide is not safe, because enzymes in the body rapidly convert between the two enantiomers - we will see how that happens in chapter 12.

As a historical note, thalidomide was never approved for use in the United States. This was thanks in large part to the efforts of Dr. Frances Kelsey, a Food and Drug officer who, at peril to her career, blocked its approval due to her concerns about the lack of adequate safety studies, particularly with regard to the drug's ability to enter the bloodstream of a developing fetus. Unfortunately, though, at that time clinical trials for new drugs involved widespread and unregulated distribution to doctors and their patients across the country, so families in the U.S. were not spared from the damage caused.

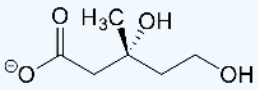
Very recently a close derivative of thalidomide has become legal to prescribe again in the United States, with strict safety measures enforced, for the treatment of a form of blood cancer called multiple myeloma. In Brazil, thalidomide is used in the treatment of leprosy - but despite safety measures, children are still being born with thalidomide-related defects.

Exercise 3.11

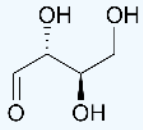
Determine the stereochemical configurations of the chiral centers in the biomolecules shown below.



dihydroorotate



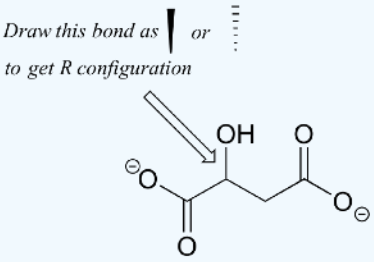
mevalonate



(D)-erythrose

Exercise 3.12

Should the (*R*) enantiomer of malate have a solid or dashed wedge for the C-O bond in the figure below?



(*R*)-malate

Exercise 3.13

Using solid or dashed wedges to show stereochemistry, draw the (*R*) enantiomer of ibuprofen and the (*S*) enantiomer of 2-methylerythritol-4-phosphate (structures are shown earlier in this chapter without stereochemistry).

Solutions to exercises

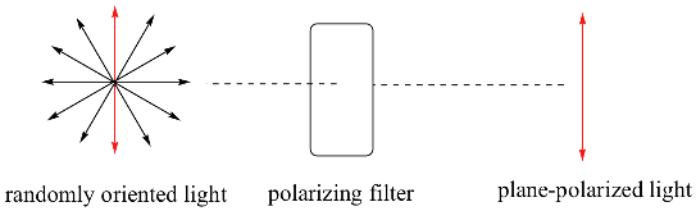
Khan Academy video tutorial on the R-S naming system

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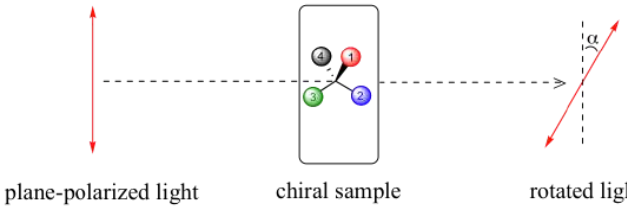
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4.5: Optical Activity

Chiral molecules, as we learned in the introduction to this chapter, have an interesting optical property. You may know from studying physics that light waves are oscillating electric and magnetic fields. In ordinary light, the oscillation is randomly oriented in an infinite number of planes. When ordinary light is passed through a polarizer, all planes of oscillation are filtered out except one, resulting in **plane-polarized light**.



A beam of plane-polarized light, when passed through a sample of a chiral compound, interacts with the compound in such a way that the angle of oscillation will rotate. This property is called **optical activity**.



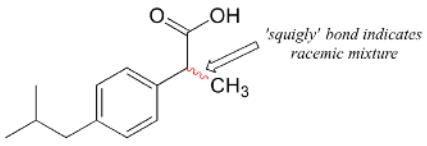
If a compound rotates plane polarized light in the clockwise (+) direction, it is said to be **dextrorotatory**, while if it rotates light in the counterclockwise (-) direction it is **levorotatory**. The magnitude of the observed optical activity is dependent on temperature, the wavelength of light used, solvent, concentration of the chiral sample, and the path length of the sample tube (path length is the length that the plane-polarized light travels through the chiral sample). Typically, optical activity measurements are made in a 1 decimeter (10 cm) path-length sample tube at 25 °C, using as a light source the so-called “D-line” from a sodium lamp, which has a wavelength of 589 nm. The **specific rotation** of a pure chiral compound at 25° is expressed by the expression:

$$[\alpha]_{\mathrm{D}}^{25} = \frac{\alpha_{\mathrm{obs}}}{lc}$$

where α_{obs} is the observed rotation, l is path length in decimeters, and c is the concentration of the sample in grams per 100 mL. In other words, the specific rotation of a chiral compound is the optical rotation that is observed when 1 g of the compound is dissolved in enough of a given solvent to make 100 mL solution, and the rotation is measured in a 1 dm cuvette at 25 ºC using light from a sodium lamp.

Every chiral molecule has a characteristic specific rotation, which is recorded in the chemical literature as a physical property just like melting point or density. Different enantiomers of a compound will always rotate plane-polarized light with an equal but opposite magnitude. (*S*)-ibuprofen, for example, has a specific rotation of +54.5º (dextrorotatory) in methanol, while (*R*)-ibuprofen has a specific rotation of -54.5º. *There is no relationship between chiral compound's R/S designation and the direction of its specific rotation.* For example, the *S* enantiomer of ibuprofen is dextrorotatory, but the *S* enantiomer of glyceraldehyde is levorotatory.

A 50:50 mixture of two enantiomers (a racemic mixture) will have no observable optical activity, because the two optical activities cancel each other out. In a structural drawing, a 'squigly' bond from a chiral center indicates a mixture of both *R* and *S* configurations.



(+/-) ibuprofen
(racemic)

Chiral molecules are often labeled according to whether they are dextrorotatory or levorotatory as well as by their *R/S* designation. For example, the pure enantiomers of ibuprofen are labeled (*S*)-(+)-ibuprofen and (*R*)-(-)-ibuprofen, while (±)-ibuprofen refers to the racemic mixture, which is the form in which the drug is sold to consumers.

? Exercise 3.14

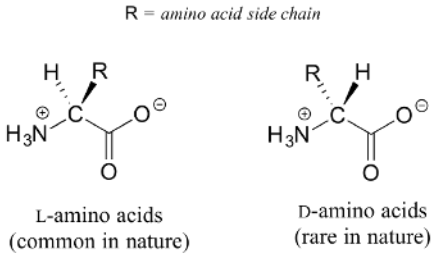
The specific rotation of (*R*)-limonene is +11.5° in ethanol. What is the expected observed rotation of a sample of 6.00 g (*S*)-limonene dissolved in ethanol to a total volume of 80.0 mL in a 1.00 dm (10.0 cm) pathlength cuvette?

Exercise 3.15

The specific rotation of (*S*)-carvone is +61°, measured 'neat' (pure liquid sample, no solvent). The optical rotation of a mixture of *R* and *S* carvone is measured at -23°. Which enantiomer is in excess in the mixture?

Solutions to exercises

All of the twenty natural amino acids except glycine have a chiral center at their alpha-carbon (recall that basic amino acid structure and terminology was introduced in section 1.3). Virtually all of the amino acids found in nature, both in the form of free amino acids or incorporated into peptides and proteins, have what is referred to in the biochemical literature as the 'L' configuration:



All but one of the 19 L-amino acids have *S* stereochemistry at the a-carbon, using the rules of the *R/S* naming system.

D-amino acids are very rare in nature, but we will learn about an interesting example of a peptide containing one D-amino acid residue later in chapter 12.

? Exercise 3.16

Which of the 20 common L-amino acids found in nature has the *R* configuration? Refer to the amino acid table for structures.

Solutions to exercises

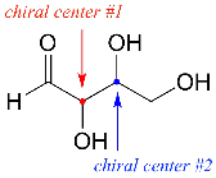
Khan Academy video tutorial on optical acitivity

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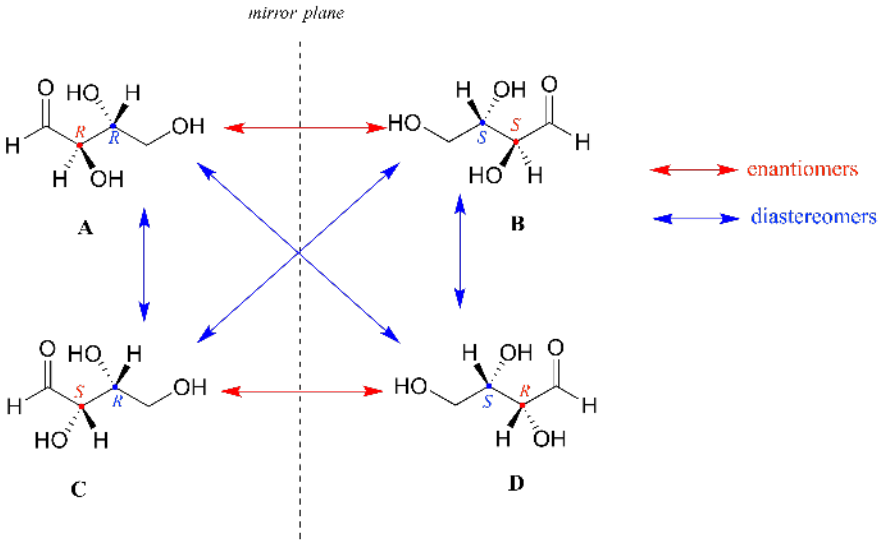
4.6: Compounds with multiple chiral centers

So far, we have been analyzing compounds with a single chiral center. Next, we turn our attention to those which have multiple chiral centers. We'll start with some stereoisomeric four-carbon sugars with two chiral centers.



To avoid confusion, we will simply refer to the different stereoisomers by capital letters.

Look first at compound A below. Both chiral centers in have the *R* configuration (you should confirm this for yourself!). The mirror image of Compound A is compound B, which has the *S* configuration at both chiral centers. If we were to pick up compound A, flip it over and put it next to compound B, we would see that they are *not* superimposable (again, confirm this for yourself with your models!). A and B are nonsuperimposable mirror images: in other words, enantiomers.



Now, look at compound C, in which the configuration is *S* at chiral center 1 and *R* at chiral center 2. Compounds A and C are stereoisomers: they have the same molecular formula and the same bond connectivity, but a different arrangement of atoms in space (recall that this is the definition of the term 'stereoisomer). However, they are *not* mirror images of each other (confirm this with your models!), and so they are *not* enantiomers. By definition, they are **diastereomers** of each other.

Notice that compounds C and B also have a diastereomeric relationship, by the same definition.

So, compounds A and B are a pair of enantiomers, and compound C is a diastereomer of both of them. Does compound C have its own enantiomer? Compound D is the mirror image of compound C, and the two are not superimposable. Therefore, C and D are a pair of enantiomers. Compound D is also a diastereomer of compounds A and B.

This can also seem very confusing at first, but there some simple shortcuts to analyzing stereoisomers:

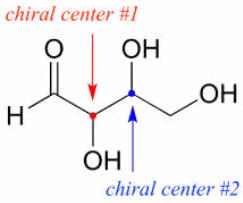
Stereoisomer shortcuts

If ***all*** of the chiral centers are of opposite R/S configuration between two stereoisomers, they are enantiomers.

If ***at least one, but not all*** of the chiral centers are opposite between two stereoisomers, they are diastereomers.

(*Note: these shortcuts to not take into account the possibility of additional stereoisomers due to alkene groups: we will come to that later)*

Here's another way of looking at the four stereoisomers, where one chiral center is associated with red and the other blue. Pairs of enantiomers are stacked together.

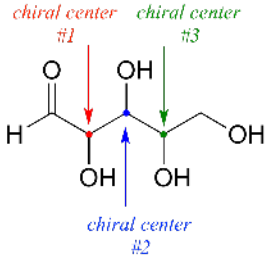


possible configurations:

RR RS
SS SR

We know, using the shortcut above, that the enantiomer of RR must be SS - both chiral centers are different. We also know that RS and SR are diastereomers of RR, because in each case one - but not both - chiral centers are different.

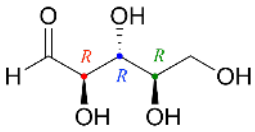
Now, let's extend our analysis to a sugar molecule with three chiral centers. Going through all the possible combinations, we come up with eight total stereoisomers - four pairs of enantiomers.



possible configurations:

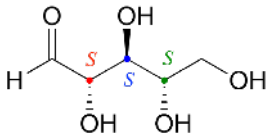
RRR RRS RSR RSS
SSS SSR SRS SRR

Let's draw the *RRR* stereoisomer. Being careful to draw the wedge bonds correctly so that they match the *RRR* configurations, we get:



RRR stereoisomer

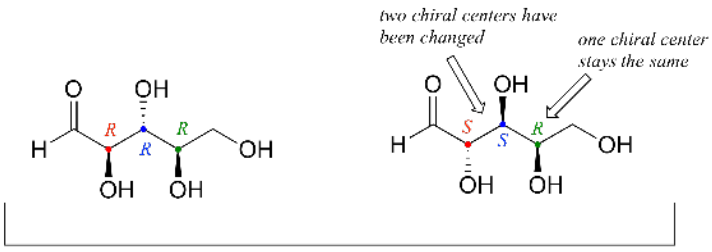
Now, using the above drawing as our model, drawing any other stereoisomer is easy. If we want to draw the enantiomer of *RRR*, we don't need to try to visualize the mirror image, we just start with the *RRR* structure and invert the configuration at *every* chiral center to get *SSS*.



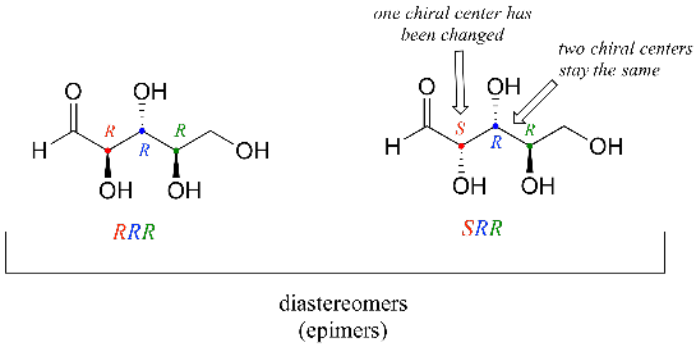
SSS stereoisomer

Try making models of *RRR* and *SSS* and confirm that they are in fact nonsuperimposable mirror images of each other.

There are six diastereomers of *RRR*. To draw one of them, we just invert the configuration of at least one, but not all three, of the chiral centers. Let's invert the configuration at chiral center 1 and 2, but leave chiral center 3 unchanged. This gives us the *SSR* configuration.



One more definition at this point: diastereomers which differ at only a single chiral center are called **epimers**. For example, *RRR* and *SRR* are epimers:



The *RRR* and *SSR* stereoisomers shown earlier are diastereomers but *not* epimers because they differ at *two* of the three chiral centers.

? Exercise 3.17

a) Draw the structure of the *enantiomer* of the *SRS* stereoisomer of the sugar used in the previous example.

b) List (using the *XXX* format, not drawing the structures) all of the epimers of *SRS*.

c) List all of the stereoisomers that are diastereomers, but not epimers, of *SRS*.

Solutions to exercises

The epimer term is useful because in biochemical pathways, compounds with multiple chiral centers are isomerized at one specific center by enzymes known as **epimerases**. Two examples of epimerase-catalyzed reactions are below.

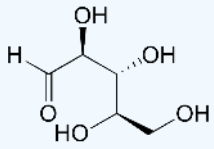




We know that enantiomers have identical physical properties and equal but opposite magnitude specific rotation. Diastereomers, in theory at least, have *different* physical properties – we stipulate 'in theory' because sometimes the physical properties of two or more diastereomers are so similar that it is very difficult to distinguish between them. In addition, the specific rotation values of diastereomers are unrelated – they could be the same sign or opposite signs, similar in magnitude or very dissimilar.

? Exercise 3.18

The sugar below is one of the stereoisomers that we have been discussing.



?

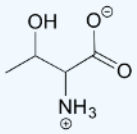
The only problem is, it is drawn with the carbon backbone in a different orientation from what we have seen. Determine the configuration at each chiral center to determine which stereoisomer it is.

Exercise 3.19

Draw the enantiomer of the xylulose-5-phosphate structure in the previous figure.

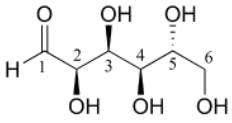
Exercise 3.20

The structure of the amino acid D-threonine, drawn without stereochemistry, is shown below. D-threonine has the (S) configuration at both of its chiral centers. Draw D-threonine, it's enantiomer, and its two diastereomers.



Solutions to exercises

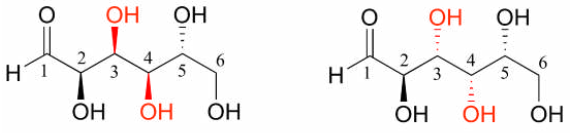
Here is some more practice in identifying isomeric relationships. D-glucose is the monosaccharide that serves as the entrance point for the glycolysis pathway and as a building block for the carbohydrate biopolymers starch and cellulose. The 'D' in D-glucose stands for *dextrarotatory* and is part of the specialized nomenclature system for sugars, which we will not concern ourselves with here. The open-chain structure of the sugar is shown below.



D-glucose

Because D-glucose has four chiral centers, it can exist in a total of 2^4 = 16 different stereoisomeric forms: it has one enantiomer and 14 diastereomers.

Now, let's compare the structures of the two sugars D-glucose and D-gulose, and try to determine their relationship.

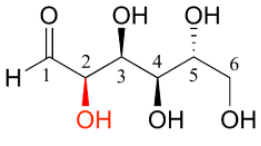


D-glucose D-gulose

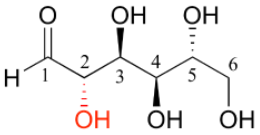
(diastereomers)

The two structures have the same molecular formula and the same connectivity, therefore they must be stereoisomers. They each have four chiral centers, and the configuration is different at two of these centers (at carbons #3 and #4). They are diastereomers.

Now, look at the structures of D-glucose and D-mannose.



D-glucose

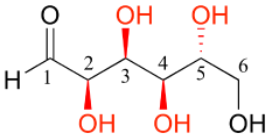


D-mannose

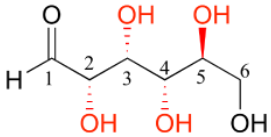
(epimers)

Here, everything is the same except for the configuration of the chiral center at carbon #2. The two sugars differ at only one of the four chiral centers, so again they are diastereomers, and more specifically they are epimers.

D-glucose and L-glucose are enantiomers, because they differ at all four chiral centers.



D-glucose

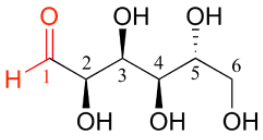


L-glucose

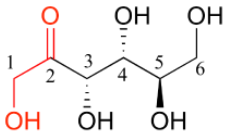
(enantiomers)

D-glucose is the enantiomer commonly found in nature.

D-glucose and D-fructose are not stereoisomers, because they have different bonding connectivity: glucose has an aldehyde group, while fructose has a ketone. The two sugars do, however, have the same molecular formula, so by definition they are constitutional isomers.



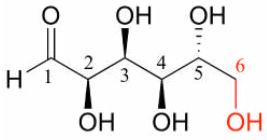
D-glucose



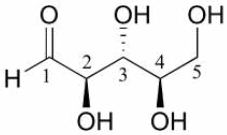
D-fructose

(constitutional isomers)

D-glucose and D-ribose are not isomers of any kind, because they have different molecular formulas.



D-glucose

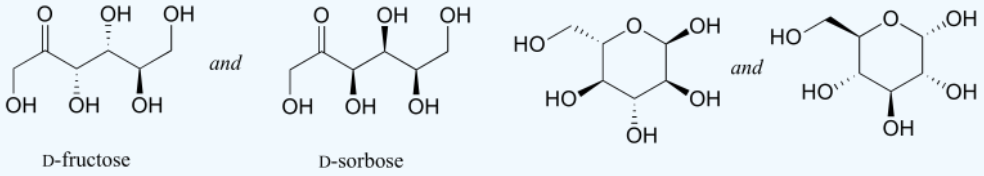


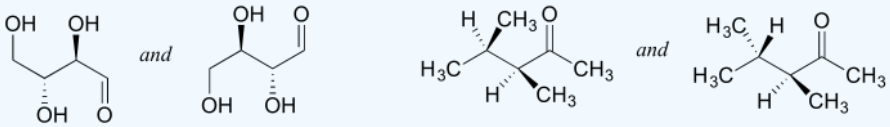
D-ribose

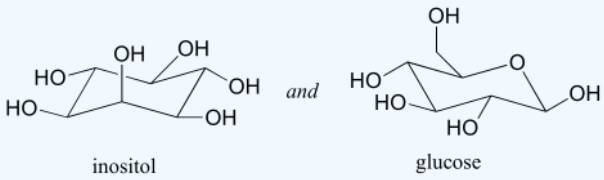
(not isomers)

? Exercise 3.21

Identify the relationship between each pair of structures. Your choices are: not isomers, constitutional isomers, diastereomers but not epimers, epimers, enantiomers, or same molecule

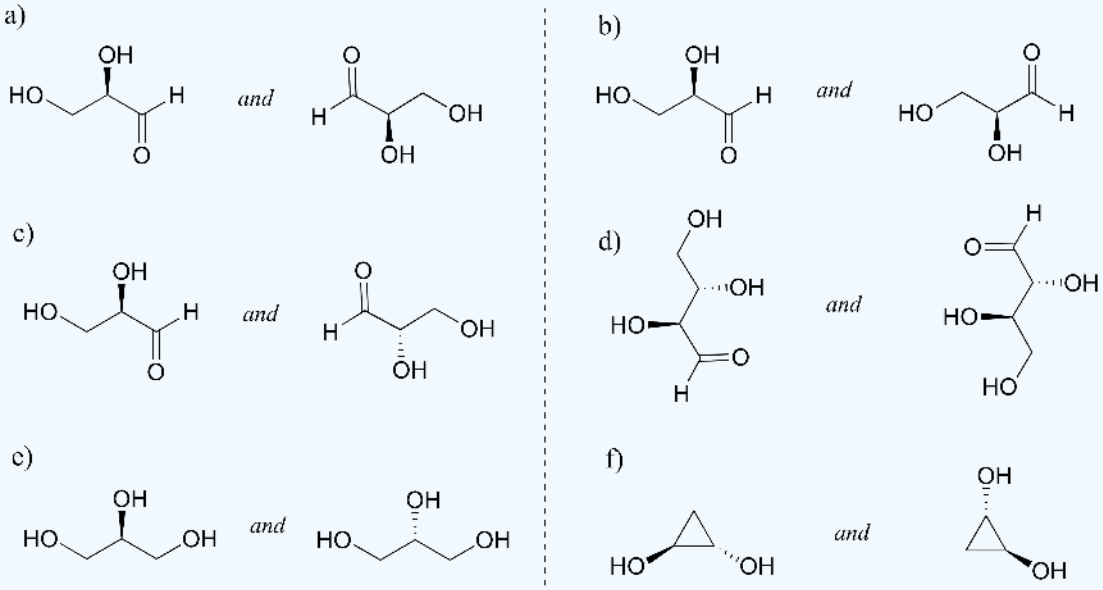






Exercise 3.22

Identify the relationship between each pair of structures. *Hint* - figure out the configuration of each chiral center.



Solutions to exercises

Khan Academy video tutorial on stereoisomeric relationships

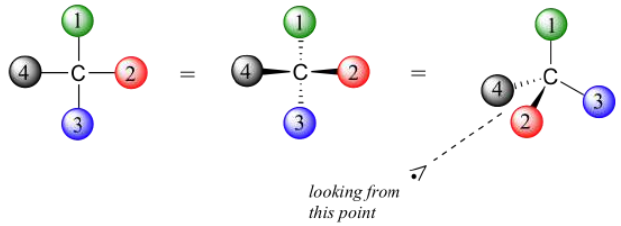
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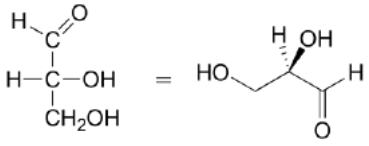
4.7: Fischer and Haworth projections

When reading the chemical and biochemical literature, you are likely to encounter several different conventions for drawing molecules in three dimensions, depending on the context of the discussion. While organic chemists prefer to use the dashed/solid wedge convention to show stereochemistry, biochemists often use drawings called **Fischer projections** and **Haworth projections** to discuss and compare the structure of sugar molecules.

Fisher projections show sugars in their open chain form. In a Fischer projection, the carbon atoms of a sugar molecule are connected vertically by solid lines, while carbon-oxygen and carbon-hydrogen bonds are shown horizontally. Stereochemical information is conveyed by a simple rule: vertical bonds point into the plane of the page, while horizontal bonds point out of the page.

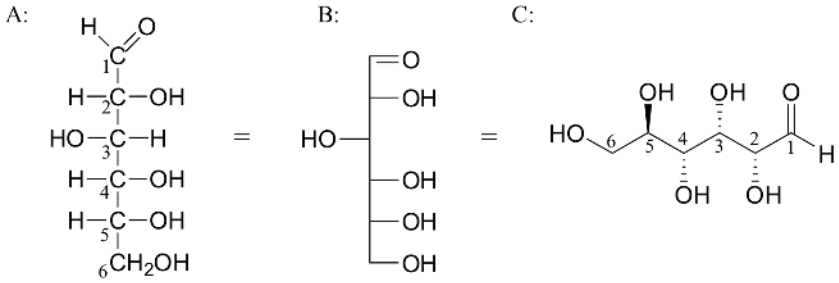


Below are two different representations of (R)-glyceraldehyde, the smallest sugar molecule (also called D-glyceraldehyde in the stereochemical nomenclature used for sugars):

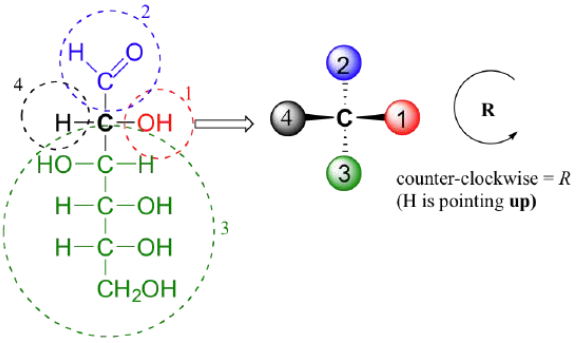


(R)-glyceraldehyde
(D-glyceraldehyde)

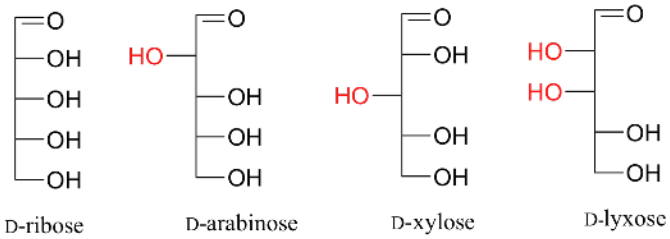
Below are three representations of the open chain form of D-glucose: in the conventional Fischer projection (A), in the “line structure” variation of the Fischer projection in which carbons and hydrogens are not shown (B), and finally in the 'zigzag' style (C) that is preferred by organic chemists.



Care must be taken when ‘translating’ Fischer projection structures into' zigzag' format – it is easy to get the stereochemistry wrong. Probably the best way to make a translation is to simply assign *R*/*S* configurations to each stereocenter, and proceed from there. When deciding whether a stereocenter in a Fischer projection is *R* or *S*, realize that the hydrogen, in a horizontal bond, is pointing *towards* you – therefore, a counterclockwise circle means *R*, and a clockwise circle means *S* (the opposite of when the hydrogen is pointing away from you).

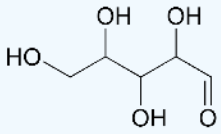


Fischer projections are useful when looking at many different diastereomeric sugar structures, because the eye can quickly pick out stereochemical differences according to whether a hydroxyl group is on the left or right side of the structure.



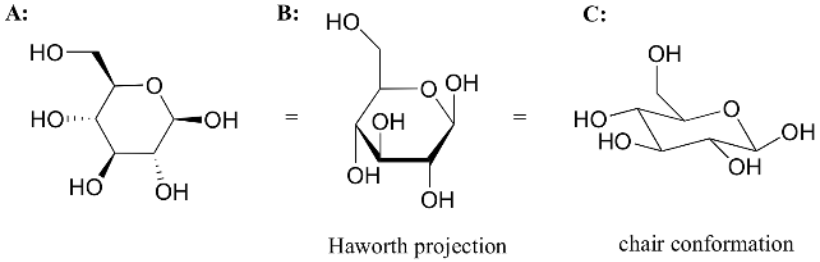
Exercise 3.24

Draw 'zigzag' structures (using the solid/dash wedge convention to show stereochemistry) for the four sugars in the figure above. Label all stereocenters *R* or *S*. To make it easy to check your answers, draw your structures using the framework below.



Solutions to exercises

While Fischer projections are used for sugars in their open-chain form, Haworth projections are often used to depict sugars in their cyclic forms. The beta diastereomer of the cyclic form of glucose is shown below in three different depictions, with the Haworth projection in the middle.



Notice that although a Haworth projection is a convenient way to show stereochemistry, it does not provide a realistic depiction of conformation. To show *both* conformation and stereochemistry, you must draw the ring in the chair form, as in structure C above.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

5: Carbohydrates

5.1: Carbohydrates

5.1.1: Prelude to Carbohydrates

5.1.2: Carbohydrates

5.1.3: Classes of Monosaccharides

5.1.4: Important Hexoses

5.1.5: Cyclic Structures of Monosaccharides

5.1.6: Properties of Monosaccharides

5.1.7: Disaccharides

5.1.8: Polysaccharides

5.1.S: Carbohydrates (Summary)

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SECTION OVERVIEW

5.1: Carbohydrates

Glucose is one of the carbohydrates you will learn about in this chapter as we begin the study of biochemistry—the chemistry of molecules found in living organisms. Later we will study the other three major types of macromolecules found in living organisms: lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids.

5.1.1: Prelude to Carbohydrates

5.1.2: Carbohydrates

5.1.3: Classes of Monosaccharides

5.1.4: Important Hexoses

5.1.5: Cyclic Structures of Monosaccharides

5.1.6: Properties of Monosaccharides

5.1.7: Disaccharides

5.1.8: Polysaccharides

5.1.S: Carbohydrates (Summary)

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5.1.1: Prelude to Carbohydrates

In the United States, 17.9 million people have been diagnosed with diabetes, and experts estimate that at least another 5.7 million people have the disease but have not been diagnosed. In 2006, diabetes was the seventh leading cause of death, listed on 72,507 death certificates. Moreover, it was a contributing factor in over 200,000 deaths in which the cause was listed as something else, such as heart or kidney disease.

People with diabetes are impaired in their ability to metabolize glucose, a sugar needed by the body for energy; as a result, excessive quantities of glucose accumulate in the blood and the urine. The characteristic symptoms of diabetes are weight loss, constant hunger, extreme thirst, and frequent urination (the kidneys excrete large amounts of water in an attempt to remove the excess sugar from the blood).

An important diagnostic test for diabetes is the oral glucose tolerance test, which measures the level of glucose in blood plasma. A first measurement is made after a fast of at least 8 h, followed by another measurement 2 h after the person drinks a flavored solution of 75 g of glucose dissolved in water. At the second measurement, the glucose plasma level should be no higher than 139 mg/dL. Individuals with a value between 140 and 199 mg/dL are diagnosed with prediabetes, while those with a value of 200 mg/dL or above are diagnosed with diabetes. Following a diagnosis of diabetes a person will need to monitor his or her blood glucose levels daily (or more often) using a glucose meter.



Figure 5.1.1.1: Using a Glucose Meter to Test Blood Glucose Level. (Public Domain; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention).

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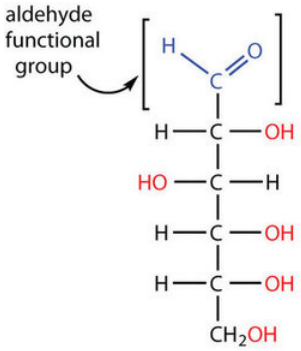
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5.1.2: Carbohydrates

Learning Objectives

- To recognize carbohydrates and classify them as mono-, di-, or polysaccharides.

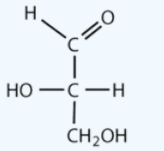
All carbohydrates consist of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen atoms and are polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones or are compounds that can be broken down to form such compounds. Examples of carbohydrates include starch, fiber, the sweet-tasting compounds called sugars, and structural materials such as cellulose. The term *carbohydrate* had its origin in a misinterpretation of the molecular formulas of many of these substances. For example, because its formula is $C_6H_{12}O_6$, glucose was once thought to be a "carbon hydrate" with the structure $C_6 \cdot 6H_2O$.

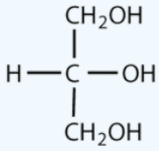


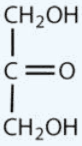
Because glucose has an aldehyde functional group and several –OH (hydroxyl) groups, it is described as a polyhydroxy aldehyde.

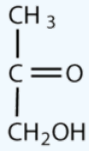
Example 5.1.2.1

Which compounds would be classified as carbohydrates?

a. 

b. 

c. 

d. 

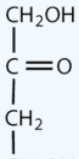
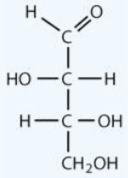
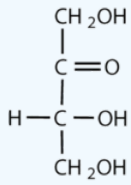
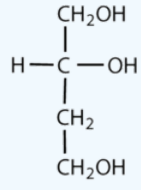
Solution

a. This is a carbohydrate because the molecule contains an aldehyde functional group with OH groups on the other two carbon atoms.
b. This is not a carbohydrate because the molecule does not contain an aldehyde or a ketone functional group.
c. This is a carbohydrate because the molecule contains a ketone functional group with OH groups on the other two carbon atoms.

d. This is not a carbohydrate; although it has a ketone functional group, one of the other carbons atoms does not have an OH group attached.

? Exercise 5.1.2.1

Which compounds would be classified as carbohydrates?

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 

Green plants are capable of synthesizing glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$) from carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O) by using solar energy in the process known as photosynthesis:

$$6\,CO_2 + 6\,H_2O + 686\text{ kcal} \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6\,O_2 \qquad (5.1.2.1)$$

(The 686 kcal come from solar energy.) Plants can use the glucose for energy or convert it to larger carbohydrates, such as starch or cellulose. Starch provides energy for later use, perhaps as nourishment for a plant's seeds, while cellulose is the structural material of plants. We can gather and eat the parts of a plant that store energy—seeds, roots, tubers, and fruits—and use some of that energy ourselves. Carbohydrates are also needed for the synthesis of nucleic acids and many proteins and lipids.

Animals, including humans, cannot synthesize carbohydrates from carbon dioxide and water and are therefore dependent on the plant kingdom to provide these vital compounds. We use carbohydrates not only for food (about 60%–65% by mass of the average diet) but also for clothing (cotton, linen, rayon), shelter (wood), fuel (wood), and paper (wood).

The simplest carbohydrates—those that cannot be hydrolyzed to produce even smaller carbohydrates—are called monosaccharides. Two or more monosaccharides can link together to form chains that contain from two to several hundred or thousand monosaccharide units. Prefixes are used to indicate the number of such units in the chains. Disaccharide molecules have two monosaccharide units, *trisaccharide* molecules have three units, and so on. Chains with many monosaccharide units joined together are called polysaccharides. All these so-called higher saccharides can be hydrolyzed back to their constituent monosaccharides.

> *Compounds that cannot be hydrolyzed will not react with water to form two or more smaller compounds.*

Summary

Carbohydrates are an important group of biological molecules that includes sugars and starches. Photosynthesis is the process by which plants use energy from sunlight to synthesize carbohydrates. A monosaccharide is the simplest carbohydrate and cannot be hydrolyzed to produce a smaller carbohydrate molecule. Disaccharides contain two monosaccharide units, and polysaccharides contain many monosaccharide units.

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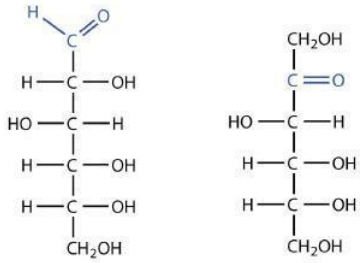
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5.1.3: Classes of Monosaccharides

Learning Objectives

- Classify monosaccharides as aldoses or ketoses and as trioses, tetroses, pentoses, or hexoses.
- Distinguish between a D sugar and an L sugar.

The naturally occurring monosaccharides contain three to seven carbon atoms per molecule. Monosaccharides of specific sizes may be indicated by names composed of a stem denoting the number of carbon atoms and the suffix *-ose*. For example, the terms *triose*, *tetrose*, *pentose*, and *hexose* signify monosaccharides with, respectively, three, four, five, and six carbon atoms. Monosaccharides are also classified as aldoses or ketoses. Those monosaccharides that contain an aldehyde functional group are called aldoses; those containing a ketone functional group on the second carbon atom are ketoses. Combining these classification systems gives general names that indicate both the type of carbonyl group *and* the number of carbon atoms in a molecule. Thus, monosaccharides are described as aldotetroses, aldopentoses, ketopentoses, ketoheptoses, and so forth. Glucose and fructose are specific examples of an aldohexose and a ketohexose, respectively.



Glucose (an aldohexose) Fructose (a ketohexose)

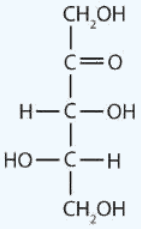
Example 5.1.3.1

Draw an example of each type of compound.

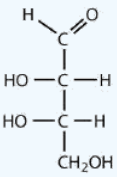
a. a ketopentose
b. an aldotetrose

Solution

a. The structure must have five carbon atoms with the second carbon atom being a carbonyl group and the other four carbon atoms each having an OH group attached. Several structures are possible, but one example is shown.



- The structure must have four carbon atoms with the first carbon atom part of the aldehyde functional group. The other three carbon atoms each have an OH group attached. Several structures are possible, but one example is shown.



? Exercise 5.1.3.1

Draw an example of each type of compound.

a. an aldohexose
b. a ketotetrose

The simplest sugars are the trioses. The possible trioses are shown in part (a) of Figure 5.1.3.1; glyceraldehyde is an aldotriose, while dihydroxyacetone is a ketotriose. Notice that two structures are shown for glyceraldehyde. These structures are stereoisomers, and hence are isomers having the same structural formula but differing in the arrangement of atoms or groups of atoms in three-dimensional space. If you make models of the two stereoisomers of glyceraldehyde, you will find that you cannot place one model on top of the other and have each functional group point in the same direction. However, if you place one of the models in front of a mirror, the image in the mirror will be identical to the second stereoisomer in part (b) of Figure 5.1.3.1. Molecules that are nonsuperimposable (nonidentical) mirror images of each other are a type of stereoisomer called enantiomers (Greek *enantios*, meaning "opposite").

Note

These are another type of stereoisomers than the *cis-trans* (geometric) isomers previously discussed.

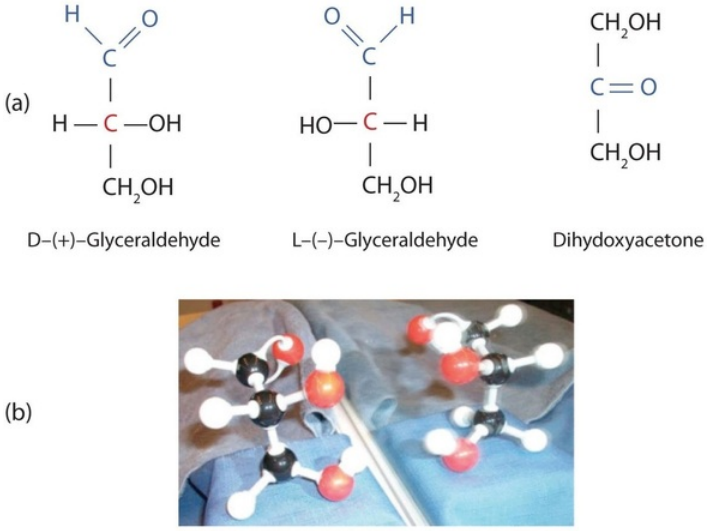


Figure 5.1.3.1: Structures of the Trioses. (a) D- and L-glyceraldehyde are mirror images of each other and represent a pair of enantiomers. (b) A ball-and-stick model of D-glyceraldehyde is reflected in a mirror. Note that the reflection has the same structure as L-glyceraldehyde.

A key characteristic of enantiomers is that they have a carbon atom to which four different groups are attached. Note, for example, the four different groups attached to the central carbon atom of glyceraldehyde (part (a) of Figure 5.1.3.1). A carbon atom that has four different groups attached is a chiral carbon. If a molecule contains one or more chiral carbons, it is likely to exist as two or more stereoisomers. Dihydroxyacetone does not contain a chiral carbon and thus does not exist as a pair of stereoisomers. Glyceraldehyde, however, has a chiral carbon and exists as a pair of enantiomers. Except for the direction in which each enantiomer rotates plane-polarized light, these two molecules have identical physical properties. One enantiomer has a specific rotation of +8.7°, while the other has a specific rotation of −8.7°.

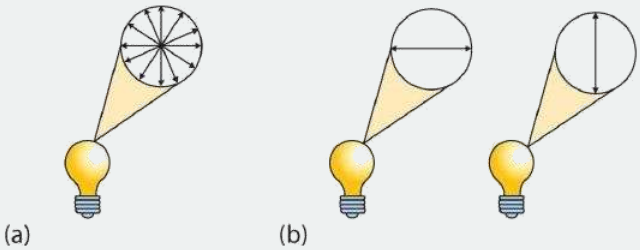
H. Emil Fischer, a German chemist, developed the convention commonly used for writing two-dimensional representations of the monosaccharides, such as those in part (a) of Figure 5.1.3.1. In these structural formulas, the aldehyde group is written at the top, and the hydrogen atoms and OH groups that are attached to each chiral carbon are written to the right or left. (If the monosaccharide is a ketose, the ketone functional group is the second carbon atom.) Vertical lines represent bonds pointing away from you, while horizontal lines represent bonds coming toward you. The formulas of chiral molecules represented in this manner are referred to as **Fischer projections**.

The two enantiomers of glyceraldehyde are especially important because monosaccharides with more than three carbon atoms can be considered as being derived from them. Thus, D- and L-glyceraldehyde provide reference points for designating and drawing all other monosaccharides. Sugars whose Fischer projections terminate in the same configuration as D-glyceraldehyde are designated as D sugars; those derived from L-glyceraldehyde are designated as L sugars.

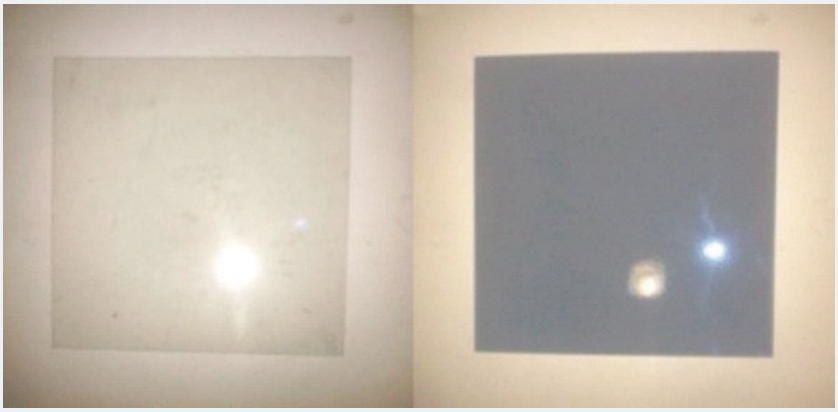
> *By convention, the penultimate (next-to-last) carbon atom has been chosen as the carbon atom that determines if a sugar is D or L. It is the chiral carbon farthest from the aldehyde or ketone functional group.*

Looking Closer: Polarized Light

A beam of ordinary light can be pictured as a bundle of waves; some move up and down, some sideways, and others at all other conceivable angles. When a beam of light has been polarized, however, the waves in the bundle all vibrate in a single plane. Light altered in this way is called *plane-polarized light*. Much of what chemists know about stereoisomers comes from studying the effects they have on plane-polarized light. In this illustration, the light on the left is not polarized, while that on the right is polarized.



Sunlight, in general, is not polarized; light from an ordinary light bulb or an ordinary flashlight is not polarized. One way to polarize ordinary light is to pass it through Polaroid sheets, special plastic sheets containing carefully oriented organic compounds that permit only light vibrating in a single plane to pass through. To the eye, polarized light doesn't "look" any different from nonpolarized light. We can detect polarized light, however, by using a second sheet of polarizing material, as shown here.



In the photo on the left, two Polaroid sheets are aligned in the same direction; plane-polarized light from the first Polaroid sheet can pass through the second sheet. In the photo on the right, the top Polaroid sheet has been rotated 90° and now blocks the plane-polarized light that comes through the first Polaroid sheet.

Certain substances act on polarized light by rotating the plane of vibration. Such substances are said to be optically active. The extent of optical activity is measured by a polarimeter, an instrument that contains two polarizing lenses separated by a sample tube, as shown in the accompanying figure. With the sample tube empty, maximum light reaches the observer's eye when the two lenses are aligned so that both pass light vibrating in the same plane. When an optically active substance is placed in the sample tube, that substance rotates the plane of polarization of the light passing through it, so that the polarized light emerging from the

sample tube is vibrating in a different direction than when it entered the tube. To see the maximum amount of light when the sample is in place, the observer must rotate one lens to accommodate the change in the plane of polarization.

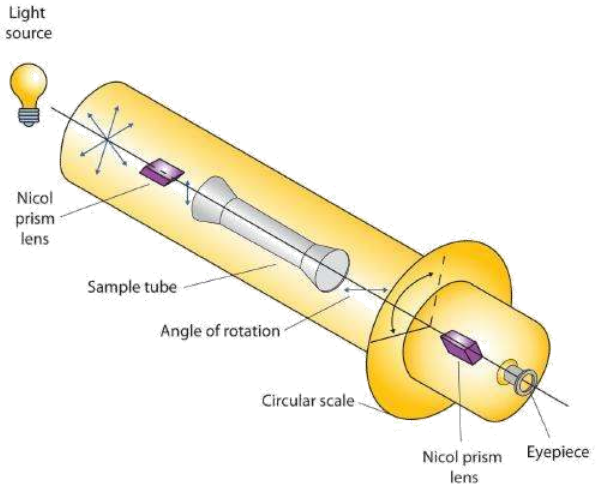


Figure 5.1.3.2: Diagram of a Polarimeter

Some optically active substances rotate the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise) from the observer's point of view. These compounds are said to be dextrorotatory; substances that rotate light to the left (counterclockwise) are levorotatory. To denote the direction of rotation, a positive sign (+) is given to dextrorotatory substances, and a negative sign (−) is given to levorotatory substances.

Summary

Monosaccharides can be classified by the number of carbon atoms in the structure and/or the type of carbonyl group they contain (aldose or ketose). Most monosaccharides contain at least one chiral carbon and can form stereoisomers. Enantiomers are a specific type of stereoisomers that are mirror images of each other.

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5.1.4: Important Hexoses

Learning Objectives

- To identify the structures of D-glucose, D-galactose, and D-fructose and describe how they differ from each other.

Although a variety of monosaccharides are found in living organisms, three hexoses are particularly abundant: D-glucose, D-galactose, and D-fructose (Figure 5.1.4.1). Glucose and galactose are both aldohexoses, while fructose is a ketohexose.

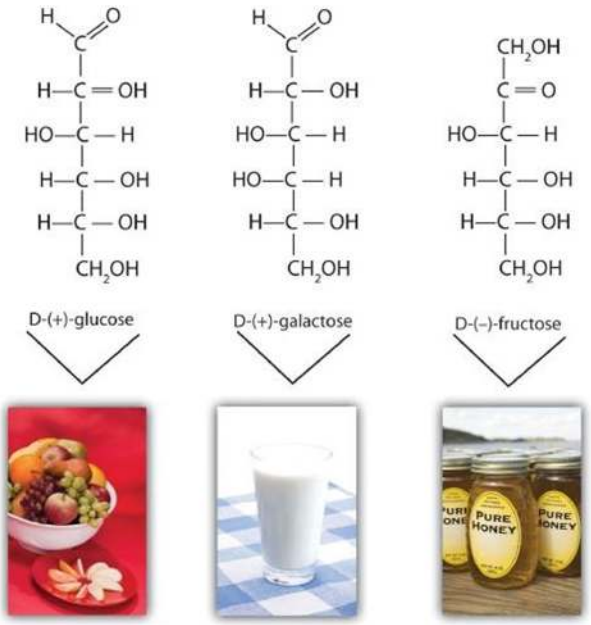


Figure 5.1.4.1: Structures of Three Important Hexoses. Each hexose is pictured with a food source in which it is commonly found. Source: Photos © Thinkstock.

Glucose

D-Glucose, generally referred to as simply glucose, is the most abundant sugar found in nature; most of the carbohydrates we eat are eventually converted to it in a series of biochemical reactions that produce energy for our cells. It is also known by three other names: *dextrose*, from the fact that it rotates plane-polarized light in a clockwise (dextrorotatory) direction; *corn sugar* because in the United States cornstarch is used in the commercial process that produces glucose from the hydrolysis of starch; and *blood sugar* because it is the carbohydrate found in the circulatory system of animals. Normal blood sugar values range from 70 to 105 mg glucose/dL plasma, and normal urine may contain anywhere from a trace to 20 mg glucose/dL urine.

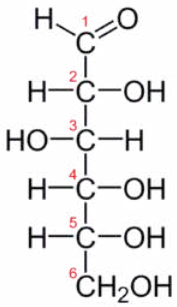


Figure 5.1.4.2: Fischer projection of D-glucose

The Fischer projection of D-glucose is given in Figure 5.1.4.2 Glucose is a D sugar because the OH group on the fifth carbon atom (the chiral center farthest from the carbonyl group) is on the right. In fact, all the OH groups except the one on the third

carbon atom are to the right.

Galactose

D-Galactose does not occur in nature in the uncombined state. It is released when lactose, a disaccharide found in milk, is hydrolyzed. The galactose needed by the human body for the synthesis of lactose is obtained by the metabolic conversion of D-glucose to D-galactose. Galactose is also an important constituent of the glycolipids that occur in the brain and the myelin sheath of nerve cells. For this reason it is also known as *brain sugar*. The structure of D-galactose is shown in Figure 5.1.4.1. Notice that the configuration differs from that of glucose only at the fourth carbon atom.

Fructose

D-Fructose, also shown in Figure 5.1.4.1, is the most abundant ketohexose. Note that from the third through the sixth carbon atoms, its structure is the same as that of glucose. It occurs, along with glucose and sucrose, in honey (which is 40% fructose) and sweet fruits. Fructose (from the Latin *fructus*, meaning "fruit") is also referred to as *levulose* because it has a specific rotation that is strongly levorotatory (−92.4°). It is the sweetest sugar, being 1.7 times sweeter than sucrose, although many nonsugars are several hundred or several thousand times as sweet (Table 5.1.4.1).

Table 5.1.4.1: The Relative Sweetness of Some Compounds (Sucrose = 100)

Compound	Relative Sweetness
lactose	16
maltose	32
glucose	74
sucrose	100
fructose	173
aspartame	18,000
acesulfame K	20,000
saccharin	30,000
sucralose	60,000

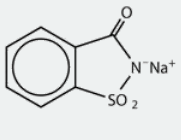
Looking Closer: Artificial Sweeteners

Although sweetness is commonly associated with mono- and disaccharides, it is not a property found only in sugars. Several other kinds of organic compounds have been synthesized that are far superior as sweetening agents. These so-called high-intensity or artificial sweeteners are useful for people with diabetes or other medical conditions that require them to control their carbohydrate intake. The synthetic compounds are noncaloric or used in such small quantities that they do not add significantly to the caloric value of food.

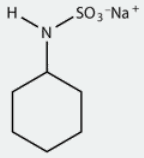
The first artificial sweetener—saccharin—was discovered by accident in 1879. It is 300 times sweeter than sucrose, but it passes through the body unchanged and thus adds no calories to the diet. After its discovery, saccharin was used until it was banned in the early 1900s. However, during the sugar-short years of World War I, the ban was lifted and was not reinstated at the war's end. One drawback to the use of saccharin is its bitter, metallic aftertaste. The initial solution to this problem was to combine saccharin with cyclamate, a second artificial sweetener discovered in 1937.

In the 1960s and 1970s, several clinical tests with laboratory animals implicated both cyclamate and saccharin as carcinogenic (cancer-causing) substances. The results from the cyclamate tests were completed first, and cyclamate was banned in the United States in 1969. Then a major study was released in Canada in 1977 indicating that saccharin increased the incidence of bladder cancer in rats. The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) proposed a ban on saccharin that raised immediate public opposition because saccharin was the only artificial sweetener still available. In response, Congress passed the Saccharin Study and Labeling Act in 1977, permitting the use of saccharin as long as any product containing it was labeled with a consumer warning regarding the possible elevation of the risk of bladder cancer. Today this warning is no longer required; moreover, the

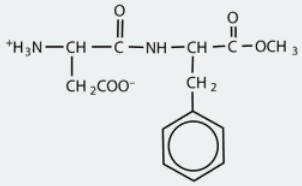
FDA is currently reviewing the ban on cyclamate, as 75 additional studies and years of usage in other countries, such as Canada, have failed to show that it has any carcinogenic effect.



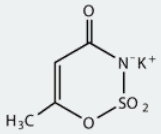
Saccharin



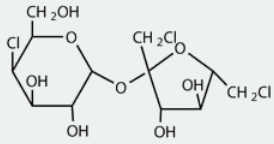
Cyclamate



Aspartame



Acesulfame K



Sucralose

A third artificial sweetener, aspartame, was discovered in 1965. This white crystalline compound is about 180 times sweeter than sucrose and has no aftertaste. It was approved for use in 1981 and is used to sweeten a wide variety of foods because it blends well with other food flavors. Aspartame is not used in baked goods, however, because it is not heat stable.

In the body (or when heated), aspartame is initially hydrolyzed to three molecules: the amino acids aspartic acid and phenylalanine and an alcohol methanol. Repeated controversy regarding the safety of aspartame arises partly from the fact that the body metabolizes the released methanol to formaldehyde. It should be noted, though, that a glass of tomato juice has six times as much methanol as a similar amount of a diet soda containing aspartame. The only documented risk connected to aspartame use is for individuals with the genetic disease *phenylketonuria* (PKU); these individuals lack the enzyme needed to metabolize the phenylalanine released when aspartame is broken down by the body. Because of the danger to people with PKU, all products containing aspartame must carry a warning label.

Acesulfame K, discovered just two years after aspartame (1967), was approved for use in the United States in 1988. It is 200 times sweeter than sugar and, unlike aspartame, is heat stable. It has no lingering aftertaste.

One of the newest artificial sweeteners to gain FDA approval (April 1998) for use in the United States is sucralose, a white crystalline solid approximately 600 times sweeter than sucrose. Sucralose is synthesized from sucrose and has three chlorine atoms substituted for three OH groups. It is noncaloric because it passes through the body unchanged. It can be used in baking because it is heat stable.

All of the extensive clinical studies completed to date have indicated that these artificial sweeteners approved for use in the United States are safe for consumption by healthy individuals in moderate amounts.

Summary

Three abundant hexoses in living organisms are the aldohexoses D-glucose and D-galactose and the ketohexose D-fructose.

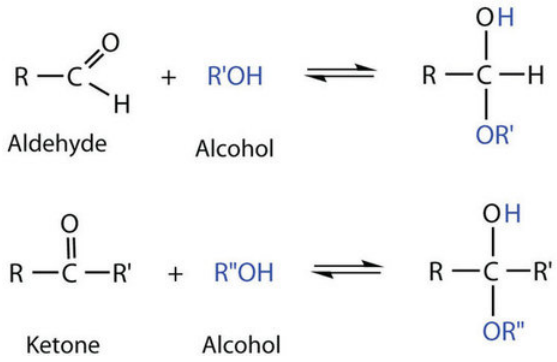
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5.1.5: Cyclic Structures of Monosaccharides

Learning Objectives

- Define what is meant by anomers and describe how they are formed.
- Explain what is meant by mutarotation.

So far we have represented monosaccharides as linear molecules, but many of them also adopt cyclic structures. This conversion occurs because of the ability of aldehydes and ketones to react with alcohols:



You might wonder why the aldehyde reacts with the OH group on the fifth carbon atom rather than the OH group on the second carbon atom next to it. Recall that cyclic alkanes containing five or six carbon atoms in the ring are the most stable. The same is true for monosaccharides that form cyclic structures: rings consisting of five or six carbon atoms are the most stable.

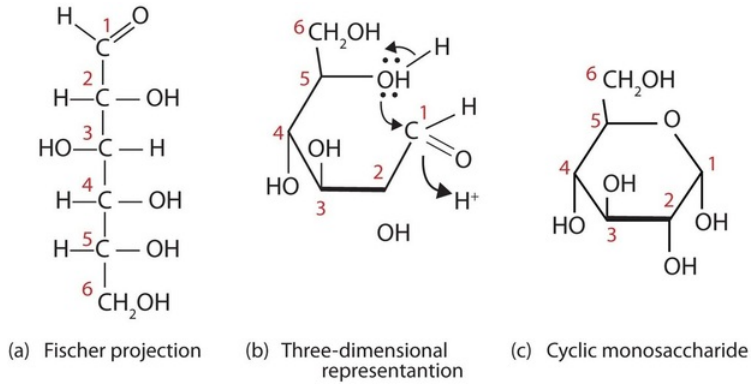


Figure 5.1.5.1: Cyclization of D-Glucose. D-Glucose can be represented with a Fischer projection (a) or three dimensionally (b). By reacting the OH group on the fifth carbon atom with the aldehyde group, the cyclic monosaccharide (c) is produced.

When a straight-chain monosaccharide, such as any of the structures shown in Figure 5.1.5.1, forms a cyclic structure, the carbonyl oxygen atom may be pushed either up or down, giving rise to two stereoisomers, as shown in Figure 5.1.5.2 The structure shown on the left side of Figure 5.1.5.2, with the OH group on the first carbon atom projected downward, represent what is called the *alpha (α) form*. The structures on the right side, with the OH group on the first carbon atom pointed upward, is the *beta (β) form*. These two stereoisomers of a cyclic monosaccharide are known as anomers; they differ in structure around the anomeric carbon—that is, the carbon atom that was the carbonyl carbon atom in the straight-chain form.

It is possible to obtain a sample of crystalline glucose in which all the molecules have the α structure or all have the β structure. The α form melts at 146°C and has a specific rotation of +112°, while the β form melts at 150°C and has a specific rotation of +18.7°. When the sample is dissolved in water, however, a mixture is soon produced containing both anomers as well as the straight-chain form, in dynamic equilibrium (part (a) of Figure 5.1.5.2). You can start with a pure crystalline sample of glucose consisting entirely of either anomer, but as soon as the molecules dissolve in water, they open to form the carbonyl group and then reclose to form either the α or the β anomer. The opening and closing repeats continuously in an ongoing interconversion between anomeric forms and is referred to as mutarotation (Latin *mutare*, meaning “to change”). At equilibrium, the mixture consists of about 36% α-D-glucose, 64% β-D-glucose, and less than 0.02% of the open-chain aldehyde form. The observed rotation of this solution is +52.7°.

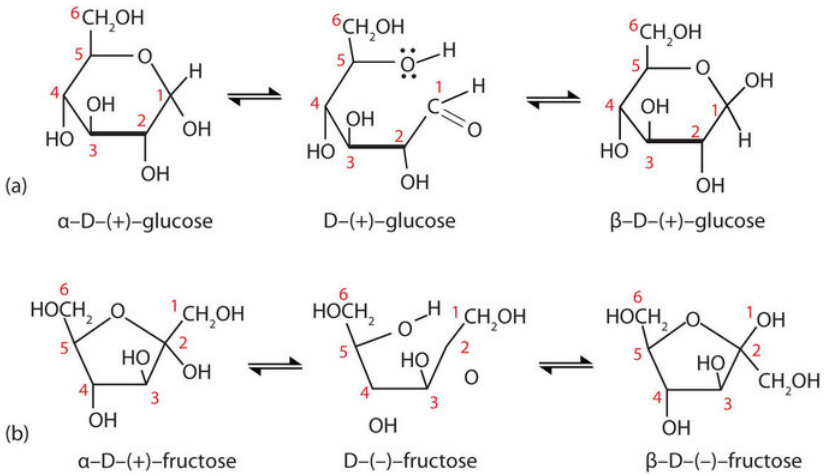


Figure 5.1.5.2: Monosaccharides. In an aqueous solution, monosaccharides exist as an equilibrium mixture of three forms. The interconversion between the forms is known as *mutarotation*, which is shown for D-glucose (a) and D-fructose (b).

Even though only a small percentage of the molecules are in the open-chain aldehyde form at any time, the solution will nevertheless exhibit the characteristic reactions of an aldehyde. As the small amount of free aldehyde is used up in a reaction, there is a shift in the equilibrium to yield more aldehyde. Thus, *all* the molecules may eventually react, even though very little free aldehyde is present at a time.

Commonly, (e.g., in Figures 5.1.5.1 and 5.1.5.2) the cyclic forms of sugars are depicted using a convention first suggested by Walter N. Haworth, an English chemist. The molecules are drawn as planar hexagons with a darkened edge representing the side facing toward the viewer. The structure is simplified to show only the functional groups attached to the carbon atoms. Any group written to the right in a Fischer projection appears below the plane of the ring in a Haworth projection, and any group written to the left in a Fischer projection appears above the plane in a Haworth projection.

The difference between the α and the β forms of sugars may seem trivial, but such structural differences are often crucial in biochemical reactions. This explains why we can get energy from the starch in potatoes and other plants but not from cellulose, even though both starch and cellulose are polysaccharides composed of glucose molecules linked together.

Summary

Monosaccharides that contain five or more carbons atoms form cyclic structures in aqueous solution. Two cyclic stereoisomers can form from each straight-chain monosaccharide; these are known as anomers. In an aqueous solution, an equilibrium mixture forms between the two anomers and the straight-chain structure of a monosaccharide in a process known as mutarotation.

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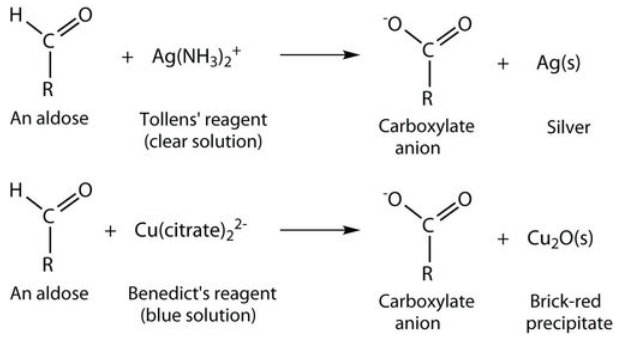
5.1.6: Properties of Monosaccharides

Learning Objectives

- To identify the physical and chemical properties of monosaccharides.

Monosaccharides such as glucose and fructose are crystalline solids at room temperature, but they are quite soluble in water, each molecule having several OH groups that readily engage in hydrogen bonding. The chemical behavior of these monosaccharides is likewise determined by their functional groups.

An important reaction of monosaccharides is the oxidation of the aldehyde group, one of the most easily oxidized organic functional groups. Aldehyde oxidation can be accomplished with any mild oxidizing agent, such as Tollens' reagent or Benedict's reagent. With the latter, complexed copper(II) ions are reduced to copper(I) ions that form a brick-red precipitate [copper(I) oxide; Figure 5.1.6.1].



Any carbohydrate capable of reducing either Tollens' or Benedict's reagents without first undergoing hydrolysis is said to be a reducing sugar. Because both the Tollens' and Benedict's reagents are basic solutions, ketoses (such as fructose) also give positive tests due to an equilibrium that exists between ketoses and aldoses in a reaction known as *tautomerism*.

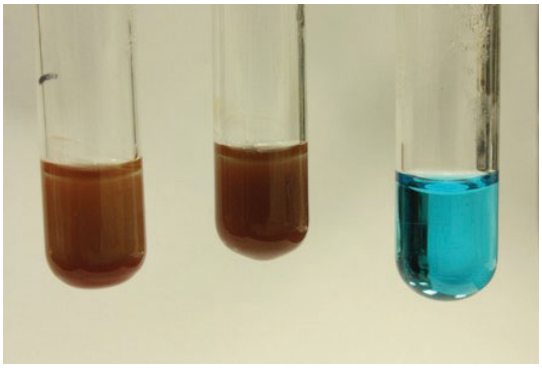


Figure 5.1.6.1: Benedict's Test. Benedict's test was performed on three carbohydrates, depicted from left to right: fructose, glucose, and sucrose. The solution containing sucrose remains blue because sucrose is a nonreducing sugar.

These reactions have been used as simple and rapid diagnostic tests for the presence of glucose in blood or urine. For example, Clinitest tablets, which are used to test for sugar in the urine, contain copper(II) ions and are based on Benedict's test. A green color indicates very little sugar, whereas a brick-red color indicates sugar in excess of 2 g/100 mL of urine.

Summary

Monosaccharides are crystalline solids at room temperature and quite soluble in water. Monosaccharides are reducing sugars; they reduce mild oxidizing agents, such as Tollens' or Benedict's reagents.

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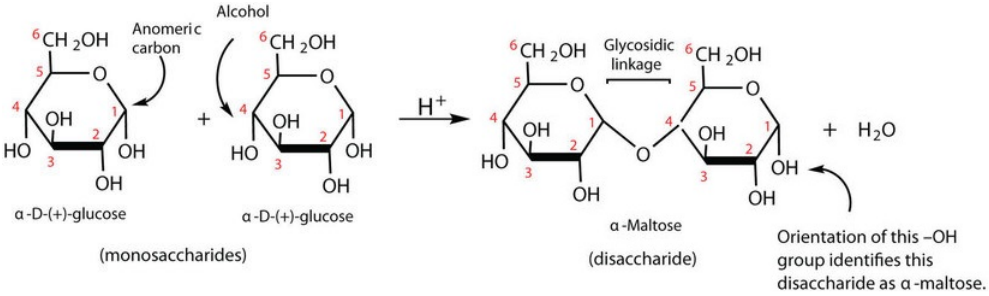
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5.1.7: Disaccharides

Learning Objectives

- Identify the structures of sucrose, lactose, and maltose.
- Identify the monosaccharides that are needed to form sucrose, lactose, and maltose

Previously, you learned that monosaccharides can form cyclic structures by the reaction of the carbonyl group with an OH group. These cyclic molecules can in turn react with another alcohol. Disaccharides ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$) are sugars composed of two monosaccharide units that are joined by a carbon–oxygen-carbon linkage known as a glycosidic linkage. This linkage is formed from the reaction of the anomeric carbon of one cyclic monosaccharide with the OH group of a second monosaccharide.



The disaccharides differ from one another in their monosaccharide constituents and in the specific type of glycosidic linkage connecting them. There are three common disaccharides: maltose, lactose, and sucrose. All three are white crystalline solids at room temperature and are soluble in water. We'll consider each sugar in more detail.

Maltose

Maltose occurs to a limited extent in sprouting grain. It is formed most often by the partial hydrolysis of starch and glycogen. In the manufacture of beer, maltose is liberated by the action of malt (germinating barley) on starch; for this reason, it is often referred to as *malt sugar*. Maltose is about 30% as sweet as sucrose. The human body is unable to metabolize maltose or any other disaccharide directly from the diet because the molecules are too large to pass through the cell membranes of the intestinal wall. Therefore, an ingested disaccharide must first be broken down by hydrolysis into its two constituent monosaccharide units.

In the body, such hydrolysis reactions are catalyzed by enzymes such as *maltase*. The same reactions can be carried out in the laboratory with dilute acid as a catalyst, although in that case the rate is much slower, and high temperatures are required. Whether it occurs in the body or a glass beaker, the hydrolysis of maltose produces two molecules of D-glucose.

$$\text{maltose} \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+ \text{ or maltase}} 2\ \text{D-glucose}$$

Maltose is a reducing sugar. Thus, its two glucose molecules must be linked in such a way as to leave one anomeric carbon that can open to form an aldehyde group. The glucose units in maltose are joined in a *head-to-tail* fashion through an α-linkage from the first carbon atom of one glucose molecule to the fourth carbon atom of the second glucose molecule (that is, an α-1,4-glycosidic linkage; see Figure 5.1.7.1). The bond from the anomeric carbon of the first monosaccharide unit is directed downward, which is why this is known as an α-glycosidic linkage. The OH group on the anomeric carbon of the second glucose can be in either the α or the β position, as shown in Figure 5.1.7.1.

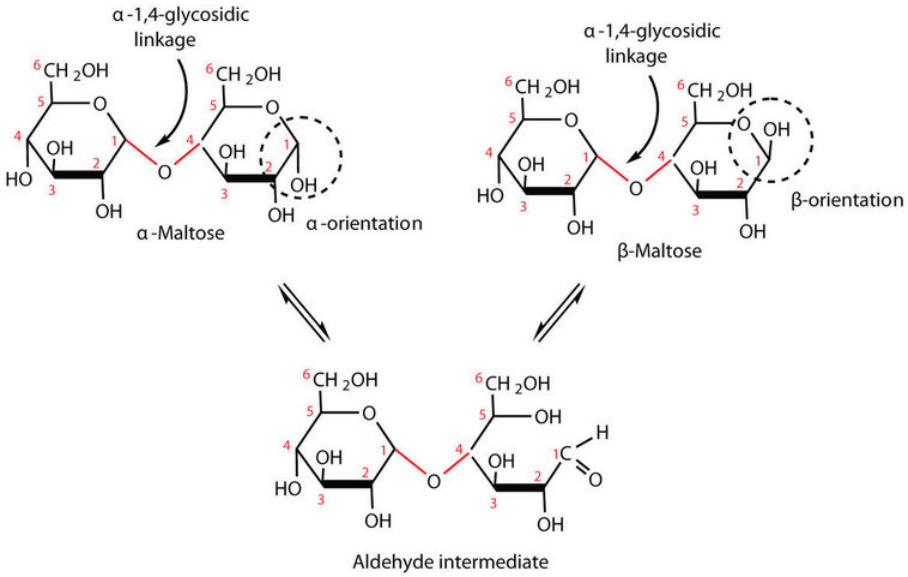
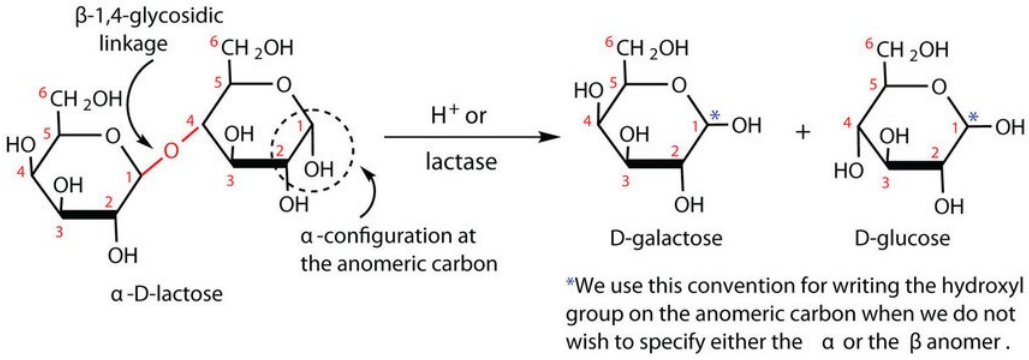


Figure 5.1.7.1: An Equilibrium Mixture of Maltose Isomers

Lactose

Lactose is known as *milk sugar* because it occurs in the milk of humans, cows, and other mammals. In fact, the natural synthesis of lactose occurs only in mammary tissue, whereas most other carbohydrates are plant products. Human milk contains about 7.5% lactose, and cow's milk contains about 4.5%. This sugar is one of the lowest ranking in terms of sweetness, being about one-sixth as sweet as sucrose. Lactose is produced commercially from whey, a by-product in the manufacture of cheese. It is important as an infant food and in the production of penicillin.

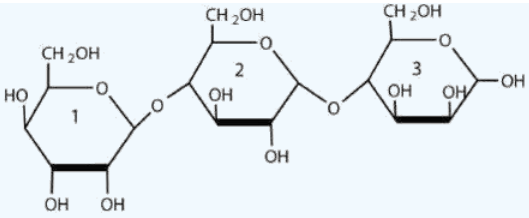
Lactose is a reducing sugar composed of one molecule of D-galactose and one molecule of D-glucose joined by a β-1,4-glycosidic bond (the bond from the anomeric carbon of the first monosaccharide unit being directed upward). The two monosaccharides are obtained from lactose by acid hydrolysis or the catalytic action of the enzyme *lactase*:



Many adults and some children suffer from a deficiency of lactase. These individuals are said to be lactose intolerant because they cannot digest the lactose found in milk. A more serious problem is the genetic disease galactosemia, which results from the absence of an enzyme needed to convert galactose to glucose. Certain bacteria can metabolize lactose, forming lactic acid as one of the products. This reaction is responsible for the "souring" of milk.

Example 5.1.7.1

For this trisaccharide, indicate whether each glycosidic linkage is α or β.

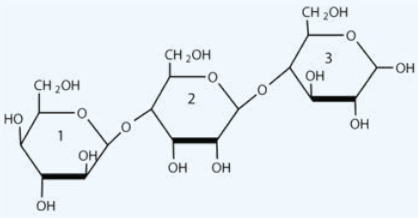


Solution

The glycosidic linkage between sugars 1 and 2 is β because the bond is directed up from the anomeric carbon. The glycosidic linkage between sugars 2 and 3 is α because the bond is directed down from the anomeric carbon.

? Exercise 5.1.7.1

For this trisaccharide, indicate whether each glycosidic linkage is α or β.



To Your Health: Lactose Intolerance and Galactosemia

Lactose makes up about 40% of an infant's diet during the first year of life. Infants and small children have one form of the enzyme lactase in their small intestines and can digest the sugar easily; however, adults usually have a less active form of the enzyme, and about 70% of the world's adult population has some deficiency in its production. As a result, many adults experience a reduction in the ability to hydrolyze lactose to galactose and glucose in their small intestine. For some people the inability to synthesize sufficient enzyme increases with age. Up to 20% of the US population suffers some degree of lactose intolerance.

In people with lactose intolerance, some of the unhydrolyzed lactose passes into the colon, where it tends to draw water from the interstitial fluid into the intestinal lumen by osmosis. At the same time, intestinal bacteria may act on the lactose to produce organic acids and gases. The buildup of water and bacterial decay products leads to abdominal distention, cramps, and diarrhea, which are symptoms of the condition.

The symptoms disappear if milk or other sources of lactose are excluded from the diet or consumed only sparingly. Alternatively, many food stores now carry special brands of milk that have been pretreated with lactase to hydrolyze the lactose. Cooking or fermenting milk causes at least partial hydrolysis of the lactose, so some people with lactose intolerance are still able to enjoy cheese, yogurt, or cooked foods containing milk. The most common treatment for lactose intolerance, however, is the use of lactase preparations (e.g., Lactaid), which are available in liquid and tablet form at drugstores and grocery stores. These are taken orally with dairy foods—or may be added to them directly—to assist in their digestion.

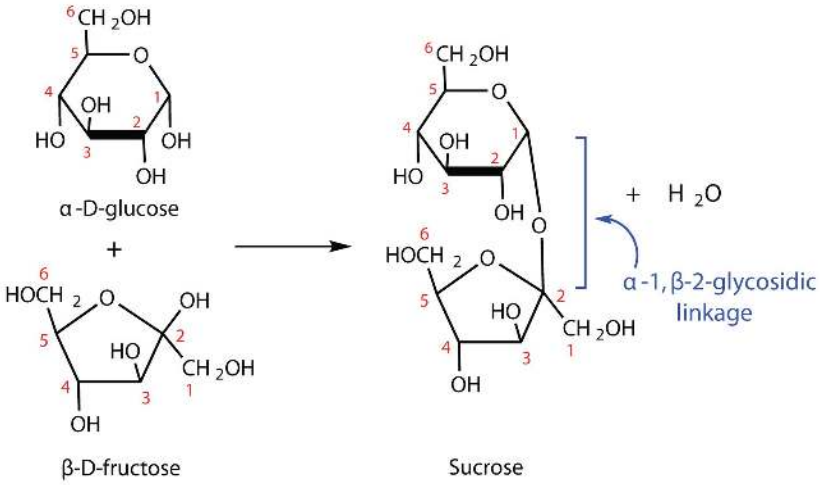
Galactosemia is a condition in which one of the enzymes needed to convert galactose to glucose is missing. Consequently, the blood galactose level is markedly elevated, and galactose is found in the urine. An infant with galactosemia experiences a lack of appetite, weight loss, diarrhea, and jaundice. The disease may result in impaired liver function, cataracts, mental retardation, and even death. If galactosemia is recognized in early infancy, its effects can be prevented by the exclusion of milk and all other sources of galactose from the diet. As a child with galactosemia grows older, he or she usually develops an alternate pathway for metabolizing galactose, so the need to restrict milk is not permanent. The incidence of galactosemia in the United States is 1 in every 65,000 newborn babies.

Sucrose

Sucrose, probably the largest-selling pure organic compound in the world, is known as *beet sugar*, *cane sugar*, *table sugar*, or simply *sugar*. Most of the sucrose sold commercially is obtained from sugar cane and sugar beets (whose juices are 14%–20%

sucrose) by evaporation of the water and recrystallization. The dark brown liquid that remains after the recrystallization of sugar is sold as molasses.

The sucrose molecule is unique among the common disaccharides in having an α-1,β-2-glycosidic (head-to-head) linkage. Because this glycosidic linkage is formed by the OH group on the anomeric carbon of α-D-glucose and the OH group on the anomeric carbon of β-D-fructose, it ties up the anomeric carbons of both glucose and fructose.



This linkage gives sucrose certain properties that are quite different from those of maltose and lactose. As long as the sucrose molecule remains intact, neither monosaccharide "uncyclizes" to form an open-chain structure. Thus, sucrose is incapable of mutarotation and exists in only one form both in the solid state and in solution. In addition, sucrose does not undergo reactions that are typical of aldehydes and ketones. Therefore, sucrose is a nonreducing sugar.

The hydrolysis of sucrose in dilute acid or through the action of the enzyme *sucrase* (also known as invertase) gives an equimolar mixture of glucose and fructose. This 1:1 mixture is referred to as *invert sugar* because it rotates plane-polarized light in the opposite direction than sucrose. The hydrolysis reaction has several practical applications. Sucrose readily recrystallizes from a solution, but invert sugar has a much greater tendency to remain in solution. In the manufacture of jelly and candy and in the canning of fruit, the recrystallization of sugar is undesirable. Therefore, conditions leading to the hydrolysis of sucrose are employed in these processes. Moreover, because fructose is sweeter than sucrose, the hydrolysis adds to the sweetening effect. Bees carry out this reaction when they make honey.

The average American consumes more than 100 lb of sucrose every year. About two-thirds of this amount is ingested in soft drinks, presweetened cereals, and other highly processed foods. The widespread use of sucrose is a contributing factor to obesity and tooth decay. Carbohydrates such as sucrose, are converted to fat when the caloric intake exceeds the body's requirements, and sucrose causes tooth decay by promoting the formation of plaque that sticks to teeth.

Summary

Maltose is composed of two molecules of glucose joined by an α-1,4-glycosidic linkage. It is a reducing sugar that is found in sprouting grain. Lactose is composed of a molecule of galactose joined to a molecule of glucose by a β-1,4-glycosidic linkage. It is a reducing sugar that is found in milk. Sucrose is composed of a molecule of glucose joined to a molecule of fructose by an α-1,β-2-glycosidic linkage. It is a nonreducing sugar that is found in sugar cane and sugar beets

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5.1.8: Polysaccharides

Learning Objectives

- To compare and contrast the structures and uses of starch, glycogen, and cellulose.

The polysaccharides are the most abundant carbohydrates in nature and serve a variety of functions, such as energy storage or as components of plant cell walls. Polysaccharides are very large polymers composed of tens to thousands of monosaccharides joined together by glycosidic linkages. The three most abundant polysaccharides are starch, glycogen, and cellulose. These three are referred to as *homopolymers* because each yields only one type of monosaccharide (glucose) after complete hydrolysis. *Heteropolymers* may contain sugar acids, amino sugars, or noncarbohydrate substances in addition to monosaccharides. Heteropolymers are common in nature (gums, pectins, and other substances) but will not be discussed further in this textbook. The polysaccharides are nonreducing carbohydrates, are not sweet tasting, and do not undergo mutarotation.

Starch

Starch is the most important source of carbohydrates in the human diet and accounts for more than 50% of our carbohydrate intake. It occurs in plants in the form of granules, and these are particularly abundant in seeds (especially the cereal grains) and tubers, where they serve as a storage form of carbohydrates. The breakdown of starch to glucose nourishes the plant during periods of reduced photosynthetic activity. We often think of potatoes as a “starchy” food, yet other plants contain a much greater percentage of starch (potatoes 15%, wheat 55%, corn 65%, and rice 75%). Commercial starch is a white powder.

Starch is a mixture of two polymers: amylose and amylopectin. Natural starches consist of about 10%–30% amylose and 70%–90% amylopectin. Amylose is a linear polysaccharide composed entirely of D-glucose units joined by the α-1,4-glycosidic linkages we saw in maltose (part (a) of Figure 5.1.8.1). Experimental evidence indicates that amylose is not a straight chain of glucose units but instead is coiled like a spring, with six glucose monomers per turn (part (b) of Figure 5.1.8.1). When coiled in this fashion, amylose has just enough room in its core to accommodate an iodine molecule. The characteristic blue-violet color that appears when starch is treated with iodine is due to the formation of the amylose-iodine complex. This color test is sensitive enough to detect even minute amounts of starch in solution.

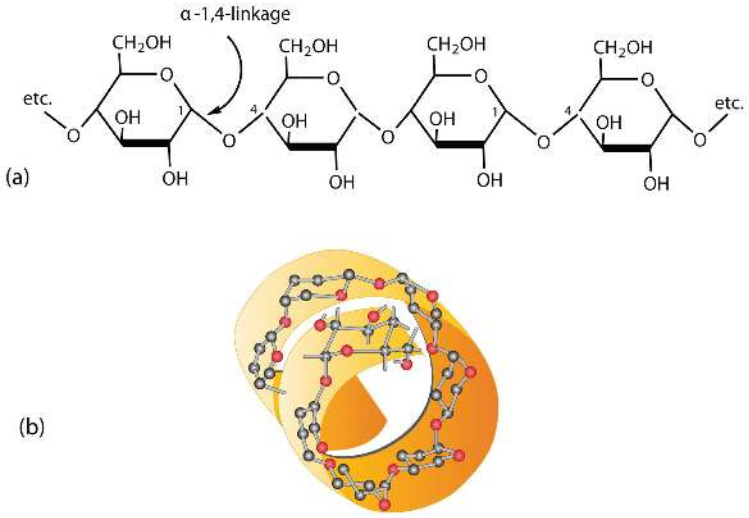


Figure 5.1.8.1: Amylose. (a) Amylose is a linear chain of α-D-glucose units joined together by α-1,4-glycosidic bonds. (b) Because of hydrogen bonding, amylose acquires a spiral structure that contains six glucose units per turn.

Amylopectin is a branched-chain polysaccharide composed of glucose units linked primarily by α-1,4-glycosidic bonds but with occasional α-1,6-glycosidic bonds, which are responsible for the branching. A molecule of amylopectin may contain many thousands of glucose units with branch points occurring about every 25–30 units (Figure 5.1.8.2). The helical structure of amylopectin is disrupted by the branching of the chain, so instead of the deep blue-violet color amylose gives with iodine, amylopectin produces a less intense reddish brown.

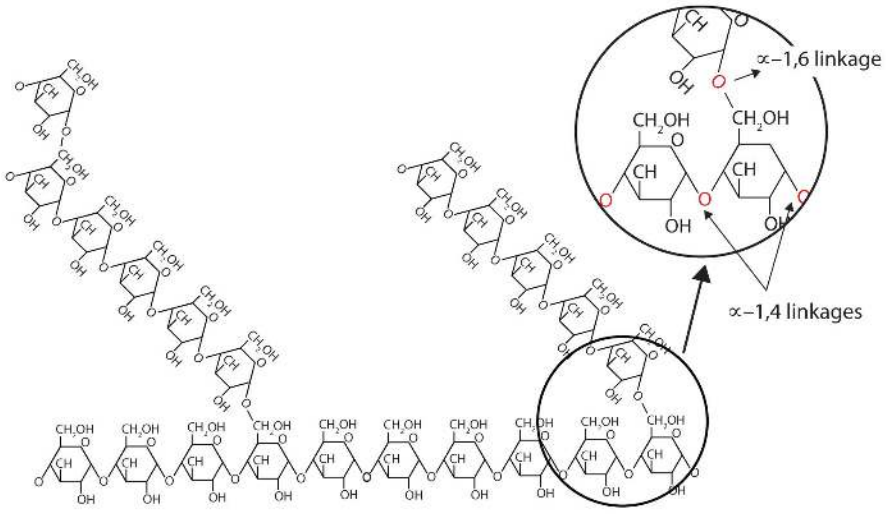


Figure 5.1.8.2: Representation of the Branching in Amylopectin and Glycogen. Both amylopectin and glycogen contain branch points that are linked through α-1,6-linkages. These branch points occur more often in glycogen.

Dextrins are glucose polysaccharides of intermediate size. The shine and stiffness imparted to clothing by starch are due to the presence of dextrins formed when clothing is ironed. Because of their characteristic stickiness with wetting, dextrins are used as adhesives on stamps, envelopes, and labels; as binders to hold pills and tablets together; and as pastes. Dextrins are more easily digested than starch and are therefore used extensively in the commercial preparation of infant foods.

The complete hydrolysis of starch yields, in successive stages, glucose:

$$\text{starch} \rightarrow \text{dextrins} \rightarrow \text{maltose} \rightarrow \text{glucose}$$

In the human body, several enzymes known collectively as amylases degrade starch sequentially into usable glucose units.

Glycogen

Glycogen is the energy reserve carbohydrate of animals. Practically all mammalian cells contain some stored carbohydrates in the form of glycogen, but it is especially abundant in the liver (4%–8% by weight of tissue) and in skeletal muscle cells (0.5%–1.0%). Like starch in plants, glycogen is found as granules in liver and muscle cells. When fasting, animals draw on these glycogen reserves during the first day without food to obtain the glucose needed to maintain metabolic balance.

Glycogen is structurally quite similar to amylopectin, although glycogen is more highly branched (8–12 glucose units between branches) and the branches are shorter. When treated with iodine, glycogen gives a reddish brown color. Glycogen can be broken down into its D-glucose subunits by acid hydrolysis or by the same enzymes that catalyze the breakdown of starch. In animals, the enzyme phosphorylase catalyzes the breakdown of glycogen to phosphate esters of glucose.

> *About 70% of the total glycogen in the body is stored in muscle cells. Although the percentage of glycogen (by weight) is higher in the liver, the much greater mass of skeletal muscle stores a greater total amount of glycogen.*

Cellulose

Cellulose, a fibrous carbohydrate found in all plants, is the structural component of plant cell walls. Because the earth is covered with vegetation, cellulose is the most abundant of all carbohydrates, accounting for over 50% of all the carbon found in the vegetable kingdom. Cotton fibrils and filter paper are almost entirely cellulose (about 95%), wood is about 50% cellulose, and the dry weight of leaves is about 10%–20% cellulose. The largest use of cellulose is in the manufacture of paper and paper products. Although the use of noncellulose synthetic fibers is increasing, rayon (made from cellulose) and cotton still account for over 70% of textile production.

Like amylose, cellulose is a linear polymer of glucose. It differs, however, in that the glucose units are joined by β-1,4-glycosidic linkages, producing a more extended structure than amylose (part (a) of Figure 5.1.8.3). This extreme linearity allows a great deal of hydrogen bonding between OH groups on adjacent chains, causing them to pack closely into fibers (part (b) of Figure 5.1.8.3).

As a result, cellulose exhibits little interaction with water or any other solvent. Cotton and wood, for example, are completely insoluble in water and have considerable mechanical strength. Because cellulose does not have a helical structure, it does not bind to iodine to form a colored product.

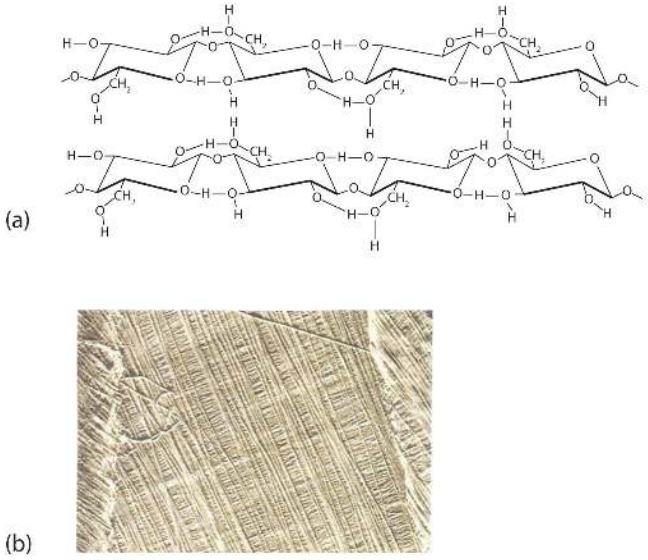


Figure 5.1.8.3: Cellulose. (a) There is extensive hydrogen bonding in the structure of cellulose. (b) In this electron micrograph of the cell wall of an alga, the wall consists of successive layers of cellulose fibers in parallel arrangement.

Cellulose yields D-glucose after complete acid hydrolysis, yet humans are unable to metabolize cellulose as a source of glucose. Our digestive juices lack enzymes that can hydrolyze the β-glycosidic linkages found in cellulose, so although we can eat potatoes, we cannot eat grass. However, certain microorganisms can digest cellulose because they make the enzyme cellulase, which catalyzes the hydrolysis of cellulose. The presence of these microorganisms in the digestive tracts of herbivorous animals (such as cows, horses, and sheep) allows these animals to degrade the cellulose from plant material into glucose for energy. Termites also contain cellulase-secreting microorganisms and thus can subsist on a wood diet. This example once again demonstrates the extreme stereospecificity of biochemical processes.

Career Focus: Certified Diabetes Educator

Certified diabetes educators come from a variety of health professions, such as nursing and dietetics, and specialize in the education and treatment of patients with diabetes. A diabetes educator will work with patients to manage their diabetes. This involves teaching the patient to monitor blood sugar levels, make good food choices, develop and maintain an exercise program, and take medication, if required.



A certified diabetes educator at Naval Medical Center Portsmouth (left) and a registered dietician at the medical center (center), provide nutritional information to a diabetes patient and her mother at the Diabetes Boot Camp.

Diabetes educators also work with hospital or nursing home staff to improve the care of diabetic patients. Educators must be willing to spend time attending meetings and reading the current literature to maintain their knowledge of diabetes medications, nutrition, and blood monitoring devices so that they can pass this information to their patients.

Summary

Starch is a storage form of energy in plants. It contains two polymers composed of glucose units: amylose (linear) and amylopectin (branched). Glycogen is a storage form of energy in animals. It is a branched polymer composed of glucose units. It is more highly branched than amylopectin. Cellulose is a structural polymer of glucose units found in plants. It is a linear polymer with the glucose units linked through β-1,4-glycosidic bonds.

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5.1.S: Carbohydrates (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the bold terms in the following summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

Carbohydrates, a large group of biological compounds containing carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen atoms, include sugars, starch, glycogen, and cellulose. All carbohydrates contain alcohol functional groups, and either an aldehyde or a ketone group (or a functional group that can be converted to an aldehyde or ketone). The simplest carbohydrates are **monosaccharides**. Those with two monosaccharide units are **disaccharides**, and those with many monosaccharide units are **polysaccharides**. Most sugars are either monosaccharides or disaccharides. Cellulose, glycogen, and starch are polysaccharides.

Many carbohydrates exist as **stereoisomers**, in which the three-dimensional spatial arrangement of the atoms in space is the only difference between the isomers. These particular stereoisomers contain at least one **chiral carbon**, a carbon atom that has four different groups bonded to it. A molecule containing a chiral carbon is nonsuperimposable on its mirror image, and two molecules that are nonsuperimposable mirror images of each other are a special type of stereoisomer called **enantiomers**. Enantiomers have the same physical properties, such as melting point, but differ in the direction they rotate polarized light.

A sugar is designated as being a D sugar or an L sugar according to how, in a Fischer projection of the molecule, the hydrogen atom and OH group are attached to the *penultimate* carbon atom, which is the carbon atom immediately before the terminal alcohol carbon atom. If the structure at this carbon atom is the same as that of D-glyceraldehyde (OH to the right), the sugar is a **D sugar**; if the configuration is the same as that of L-glyceraldehyde (OH to the left), the sugar is an **L sugar**.

Monosaccharides of five or more carbons atoms readily form cyclic structures when the carbonyl carbon atom reacts with an OH group on a carbon atom three or four carbon atoms distant. Consequently, glucose in solution exists as an equilibrium mixture of three forms, two of them cyclic (α- and β-) and one open chain. In Haworth projections, the *alpha* form is drawn with the OH group on the "former" carbonyl carbon atom (**anomeric carbon**) pointing downward; the *beta* form, with the OH group pointing upward; these two compounds are stereoisomers and are given the more specific term of **anomers**. Any solid sugar can be all alpha or all beta. Once the sample is dissolved in water, however, the ring opens up into the open-chain structure and then closes to form either the α- or the β-anomer. These interconversions occur back and forth until a dynamic equilibrium mixture is achieved in a process called **mutarotation**.

The carbonyl group present in monosaccharides is easily oxidized by Tollens' or Benedict's reagents (as well as others). Any mono- or disaccharide containing a free anomeric carbon is a **reducing sugar**. The disaccharide *maltose* contains two glucose units joined in an α-1,4-glycosidic linkage. The disaccharide *lactose* contains a galactose unit and a glucose unit joined by a β-1,4-glycosidic linkage. Both maltose and lactose contain a free anomeric carbon that can convert to an aldehyde functional group, so they are reducing sugars; they also undergo mutarotation. Many adults, and some children, have a deficiency of the enzyme lactase (which is needed to break down lactose) and are said to be **lactose intolerant**. A more serious problem is the genetic disease **galactosemia**, which results from the absence of an enzyme needed to convert galactose to glucose.

The disaccharide *sucrose* (table sugar) consists of a glucose unit and a fructose unit joined by a glycosidic linkage. The linkage is designated as an α-1,β-2-glycosidic linkage because it involves the OH group on the first carbon atom of glucose and the OH group on the second carbon atom of fructose. Sucrose is not a reducing sugar because it has no anomeric carbon that can reform a carbonyl group, and it cannot undergo mutarotation because of the restrictions imposed by this linkage.

Starch, the principal carbohydrate of plants, is composed of the polysaccharides **amylose** (10%–30%) and **amylopectin** (70%–90%). When ingested by humans and other animals, starch is hydrolyzed to glucose and becomes the body's energy source. *Glycogen* is the polysaccharide animals use to store excess carbohydrates from their diets. Similar in structure to amylopectin, glycogen is hydrolyzed to glucose whenever an animal needs energy for a metabolic process. The polysaccharide *cellulose* provides structure for plant cells. It is a linear polymer of glucose units joined by β-1,4-glycosidic linkages. It is indigestible in the human body but digestible by many microorganisms, including microorganisms found in the digestive tracts of many herbivores.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

6: Carboxylic Acids and Esters

6.1: Prelude to Organic Acids and Bases and Some of Their Derivatives
6.2: Carboxylic Acids - Structures and Names
6.3: The Formation of Carboxylic Acids
6.4: Physical Properties of Carboxylic Acids
6.5: Chemical Properties of Carboxylic Acids- Ionization and Neutralization
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6.7: Physical Properties of Esters
6.8: Preparation of Esters
6.9: Hydrolysis of Esters
6.10: Esters of Phosphoric Acid

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6.1: Prelude to Organic Acids and Bases and Some of Their Derivatives

Organic acids have been known for ages. Prehistoric people likely made acetic acid when their fermentation reactions went awry and produced vinegar instead of wine. The Sumerians (2900–1800 BCE) used vinegar as a condiment, a preservative, an antibiotic, and a detergent. Citric acid was discovered by an Islamic alchemist, Jabir Ibn Hayyan (also known as Geber), in the 8th century, and crystalline citric acid was first isolated from lemon juice in 1784 by the Swedish chemist Carl Wilhelm Scheele. Medieval scholars in Europe were aware that the crisp, tart flavor of citrus fruits is caused by citric acid. Naturalists of the 17th century knew that the sting of a red ant's bite was due to an organic acid that the ant injected into the wound. The acetic acid of vinegar, the formic acid of red ants, and the citric acid of fruits all belong to the same family of compounds—carboxylic acids. Soaps are salts of long-chain carboxylic acids.

Prehistoric people also knew about organic bases—by smell if not by name; amines are the organic bases produced when animal tissue decays.

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6.2: Carboxylic Acids - Structures and Names

Learning Objectives

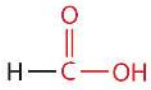
- Name carboxylic acids with common names.
- Name carboxylic acids according to IUPAC nomenclature.

Carboxylic acids occur widely in nature, often combined with alcohols or other functional groups, as in fats, oils, and waxes. They are components of many foods, medicines, and household products (Figure 6.2.1). Not surprisingly, many of them are best known by common names based on Latin and Greek words that describe their source.



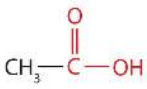
Figure 6.2.1: Carboxylic Acids in the Home. Carboxylic acids occur in many common household items. (a) Vinegar contains acetic acid, (b) aspirin is acetylsalicylic acid, (c) vitamin C is ascorbic acid, (d) lemons contain citric acid, and (e) spinach contains oxalic acid. © Thinkstock

The simplest carboxylic acid, formic acid (HCOOH), was first obtained by the distillation of ants (Latin *formica*, meaning “ant”). The bites of some ants inject formic acid, and the stings of wasps and bees contain formic acid (as well as other poisonous materials).



Formic acid

The next higher homolog is acetic acid, which is made by fermenting cider and honey in the presence of oxygen. This fermentation produces vinegar, a solution containing 4%–10% acetic acid, plus a number of other compounds that add to its flavor. Acetic acid is probably the most familiar weak acid used in educational and industrial chemistry laboratories.



Acetic acid

Pure acetic acid solidifies at 16.6°C, only slightly below normal room temperature. In the poorly heated laboratories of the late 19th and early 20th centuries in northern North America and Europe, acetic acid often “froze” on the storage shelf. For that

reason, pure acetic acid (sometimes called concentrated acetic acid) came to be known as *glacial acetic acid*, a name that survives to this day.

The third homolog, propionic acid (CH_3CH_2COOH), is seldom encountered in everyday life. The fourth homolog, butyric acid ($CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH$), is one of the most foul-smelling substances imaginable. It is found in rancid butter and is one of the ingredients of body odor. By recognizing extremely small amounts of this and other chemicals, bloodhounds are able to track fugitives. Models of the first four carboxylic acids are shown in Figure 6.2.2.

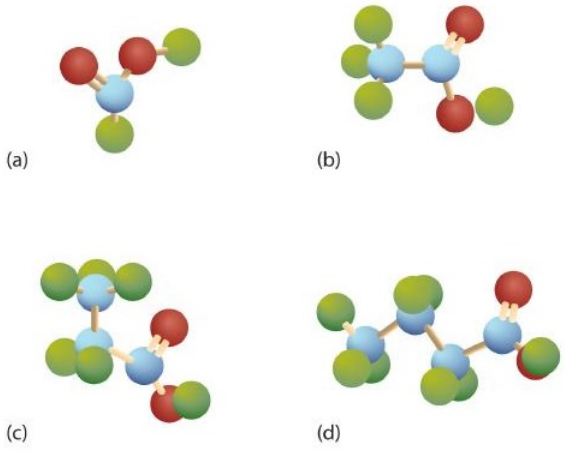
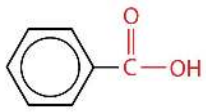


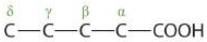
Figure 6.2.2: Ball-and-Stick Models of Carboxylic Acids. Carboxylic acids feature a carbon atom doubly bonded to an oxygen atom and also joined to an OH group. The four acids illustrated here are formic acid (a), acetic acid (b), propionic acid (c), and butyric acid (d).

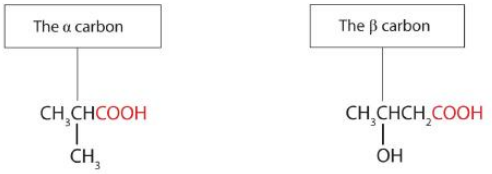
The acid with the carboxyl group attached directly to a benzene ring is called benzoic acid (C_6H_5COOH).



Benzoic acid

The common names of carboxylic acids use Greek letters (α, β, γ, δ, and so forth), not numbers, to designate the position of substituent groups in acids. These letters refer to the position of the carbon atom in relation to the carboxyl carbon atom.





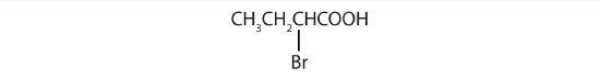
α-Methylpropionic acid β-Hydroxybutyric acid

In the nomenclature system of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC), the parent hydrocarbon is the one that corresponds to the longest continuous chain (LCC) containing the carboxyl group. The *-e* ending of the parent alkane is replaced by the suffix *-oic* and the word *acid*. For example, the carboxylic acid derived from pentane is pentanoic acid ($CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$). As with aldehydes, the carboxyl carbon atom is counted first; numbers are used to indicate any substituted carbon atoms in the parent chain.

Greek letters are used with common names; numbers are used with IUPAC names.

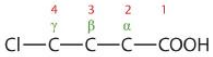
Example 6.2.1

Give the common and IUPAC names for each compound.

1. $ClCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$
2. 

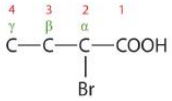
Solution

1. The LCC contains four carbon atoms; the compound is therefore named as a substituted butyric (or butanoic) acid.



The chlorine atom is attached to the γ-carbon in the common system or C4 in the IUPAC system. The compound is γ-chlorobutyric acid or 4-chlorobutanoic acid.

2. The LCC contains four carbon atoms; the compound is therefore named as a substituted butyric (or butanoic) acid.



The bromine (Br) atom is at the α-carbon in the common system or C2 in the IUPAC system. The compound is α-bromobutyric acid or 2-bromobutanoic acid.

Exercise 6.2.1

Give the IUPAC name for each compound.

a. $ClCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$
b. $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CHBrCOOH$

Example 6.2.2

Write the condensed structural formula for β-chloropropionic acid.

Solution

Propionic acid has three carbon atoms: C–C–COOH. Attach a chlorine (Cl) atom to the parent chain at the beta carbon atom, the second one from the carboxyl group: Cl–C–C–COOH. Then add enough hydrogen atoms to give each carbon atom four bonds: $ClCH_2CH_2COOH$.

Exercise 6.2.2

Write the condensed structural formula for 4-bromo-5-methylhexanoic acid.

Key Takeaways

- Simple carboxylic acids are best known by common names based on Latin and Greek words that describe their source (e.g., formic acid, Latin *formica*, meaning “ant”).
- Greek letters, not numbers, designate the position of substituted acids in the common naming convention.
- IUPAC names are derived from the LCC of the parent hydrocarbon with the *-e* ending of the parent alkane replaced by the suffix *-oic* and the word *acid*.

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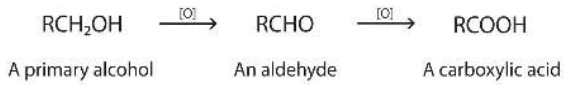
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6.3: The Formation of Carboxylic Acids

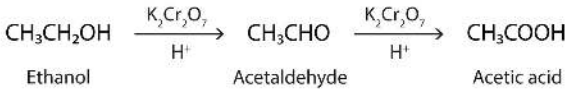
Learning Objectives

- To describe the preparation of carboxylic acids.

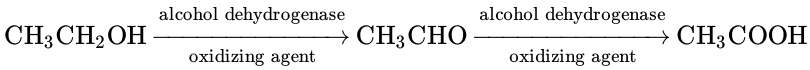
As we noted previously, the oxidation of aldehydes or primary alcohols forms carboxylic acids:



In the presence of an oxidizing agent, ethanol is oxidized to acetaldehyde, which is then oxidized to acetic acid.



This process also occurs in the liver, where enzymes catalyze the oxidation of ethanol to acetic acid.



Acetic acid can be further oxidized to carbon dioxide and water.

Summary

Whether in the laboratory or in the body, the oxidation of aldehydes or primary alcohols forms carboxylic acids.

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6.4: Physical Properties of Carboxylic Acids

Learning Objectives

- Compare the boiling points of carboxylic acids with alcohols of similar molar mass.
- Compare the solubilities of carboxylic acids in water with the solubilities of comparable alkanes and alcohols in water.

Many carboxylic acids are colorless liquids with disagreeable odors. The carboxylic acids with 5 to 10 carbon atoms all have “goaty” odors (explaining the odor of Limburger cheese). These acids are also produced by the action of skin bacteria on human sebum (skin oils), which accounts for the odor of poorly ventilated locker rooms. The acids with more than 10 carbon atoms are waxlike solids, and their odor diminishes with increasing molar mass and resultant decreasing volatility.

Carboxylic acids exhibit strong hydrogen bonding between molecules. They therefore have high boiling points compared to other substances of comparable molar mass.

The carboxyl group readily engages in hydrogen bonding with water molecules (Figure 6.4.1). The acids with one to four carbon atoms are completely miscible with water. Solubility decreases as the carbon chain length increases because dipole forces become less important and dispersion forces become more predominant. Hexanoic acid [$CH_3(CH_2)_4COOH$] is barely soluble in water (about 1.0 g/100 g of water). Palmitic acid [$CH_3(CH_2)_{14}COOH$], with its large nonpolar hydrocarbon component, is essentially insoluble in water. The carboxylic acids generally are soluble in such organic solvents as ethanol, toluene, and diethyl ether.

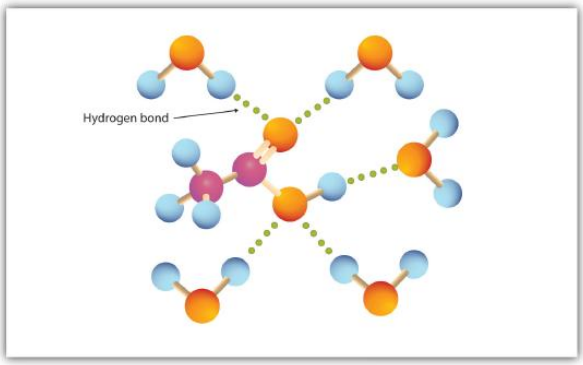


Figure 6.4.1: Hydrogen Bonding between an Acetic Acid Molecule and Water Molecules. Carboxylic acids of low molar mass are quite soluble in water.

Table 15.4.1 lists some physical properties for selected carboxylic acids. The first six are homologs. Notice that the boiling points increase with increasing molar mass, but the melting points show no regular pattern.

Table 6.4.1: Physical Constants of Carboxylic Acids

Condensed Structural Formula	Name of Acid	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Solubility (g/100 g of Water)
HCOOH	formic acid	8	100	miscible
CH_3COOH	acetic acid	17	118	miscible
CH_3CH_2COOH	propionic acid	–22	141	miscible
$CH_3(CH_2)_2COOH$	butyric acid	–5	163	miscible
$CH_3(CH_2)_3COOH$	valeric acid	–35	187	5
$CH_3(CH_2)_4COOH$	caproic acid	–3	205	1.1
C_6H_5COOH	benzoic acid	122	249	0.29

Key Takeaways

- Carboxylic acids have high boiling points compared to other substances of comparable molar mass. Boiling points increase with molar mass.
- Carboxylic acids having one to four carbon atoms are completely miscible with water. Solubility decreases with molar mass.

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6.5: Chemical Properties of Carboxylic Acids- Ionization and Neutralization

Learning Objectives

- Name the typical reactions that take place with carboxylic acids.
- Describe how carboxylic acids react with basic compounds.

Water-soluble carboxylic acids ionize slightly in water to form moderately acidic solutions.

$$RCOOH + H_2O \rightleftharpoons RCOO^- + H_3O^+$$

Their aqueous solutions exhibit the typical properties of acids, such as changing litmus from blue to red.

The anion formed when a carboxylic acid dissociates is called the *carboxylate* anion ($RCOO^-$).

Whether soluble in water or not, carboxylic acids react with aqueous solutions of sodium hydroxide (NaOH), sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3), and sodium bicarbonate ($NaHCO_3$) to form salts:

$$RCOOH + NaOH(aq) \rightarrow RCOO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O$$

$$2RCOOH + Na_2CO_3(aq) \rightarrow 2RCOO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O + CO_2(g)$$

$$RCOOH + NaHCO_3(aq) \rightarrow RCOO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O + CO_2(g)$$

In these reactions, the carboxylic acids act like inorganic acids: they neutralize basic compounds. With solutions of carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ions, they also form carbon dioxide gas.

Carboxylic acid salts are named in the same manner as inorganic salts: the name of the cation is followed by the name of the organic anion. The name of the anion is obtained by dropping the *-ic* ending of the acid name and replacing it with the suffix *-ate*. This rule applies whether we are using common names or International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) names:

$CH_3COO^-Li^+$	$CH_3CH_2CH_2COO^-K^+$	$C_6H_5COO^-Na^+$
Lithium acetate (lithium ethanoate)	Potassium butyrate (potassium butanoate)	Sodium benzoate

The salts of long-chain carboxylic acids are called soaps. We discuss the chemistry of soaps elsewhere.

$CH_3(CH_2)_{13}CH_2COO^-Na^+$

Sodium palmitate (a soap)

Example 6.5.1

Write an equation for each reaction.

1. the ionization of propionic acid in water (H_2O)
2. the neutralization of propionic acid with aqueous sodium hydroxide (NaOH)

Solution

Propionic acid has three carbon atoms, so its formula is CH_2CH_2COOH.

1. Propionic acid ionizes in water to form a propionate ion and a hydronium (H_3O^+) ion. $CH_3CH_2COOH(aq) + H_2O(\ell) \rightarrow CH_3CH_2COO^-(aq) + H_3O^+(aq)$
2. Propionic acid reacts with NaOH(aq) to form sodium propionate and water. $CH_3CH_2COOH(aq) + NaOH(aq) \rightarrow CH_3CH_2COO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O(\ell)$

Exercise 6.5.1

Write an equation for each reaction.

a. the ionization of formic acid in water
b. the ionization of *p*-chlorobenzoic acid in water

Example 6.5.2

Write an equation for the reaction of decanoic acid with each compound.

a. aqueous sodium hydroxide (NaOH)
b. aqueous sodium bicarbonate ($NaHCO_3$)

Solution

a. Decanoic acid has 10 carbon atoms. It reacts with NaOH to form a salt and water (H_2O). $CH_3(CH_2)_8COOH + NaOH(aq) \rightarrow CH_3(CH_2)_8COO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O(\ell)$
b. With $NaHCO_3$, the products are a salt, H_2O, and carbon dioxide (CO_2). $CH_3(CH_2)_8COOH + NaHCO_3(aq) \rightarrow CH_3(CH_2)_8COO^-Na^+(aq) + H_2O(\ell) + CO_2(g)$

Exercise 6.5.3

Write an equation for the reaction of benzoic acid with each compound.

a. aqueous sodium hydroxide (NaOH)
b. aqueous sodium bicarbonate ($NaHCO_3$)

To Your Health: Organic Salts as Preservatives

Some organic salts are used as preservatives in food products. They prevent spoilage by inhibiting the growth of bacteria and fungi. Calcium and sodium propionate, for example, are added to processed cheese and bakery goods; sodium benzoate is added to cider, jellies, pickles, and syrups; and sodium sorbate and potassium sorbate are added to fruit juices, sauerkraut, soft drinks, and wine. Look for them on ingredient labels the next time you shop for groceries.



Calcium propionate — Potassium sorbate

Key Takeaways

- Soluble carboxylic acids are weak acids in aqueous solutions.
- Carboxylic acids neutralize bases to form salts.

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6.6: Esters - Structures and Names

Learning Objectives

- Identify the general structure for an ester.
- Use common names to name esters.
- Name esters according to the IUPAC system.

Esters have the general formula RCOOR′, where R may be a hydrogen atom, an alkyl group, or an aryl group, and R′ may be an alkyl group or an aryl group but *not* a hydrogen atom. (If it were hydrogen atom, the compound would be a carboxylic acid.) Figure 6.6.1 shows models for two common esters.

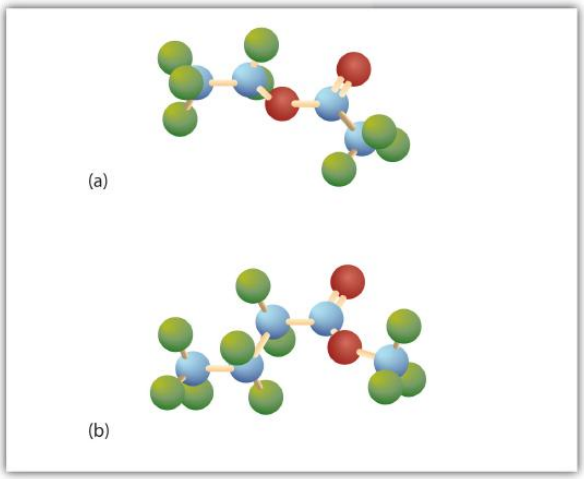


Figure 6.6.1: The Structure of Esters. Esters feature a carbon-to-oxygen double bond that is also singly bonded to a second oxygen atom, which is then joined to an alkyl or an aryl group. The esters shown here are ethyl acetate (a) and methyl butyrate (b).

Esters occur widely in nature. Unlike carboxylic acids, esters generally have pleasant odors and are often responsible for the characteristic fragrances of fruits and flowers. Once a flower or fruit has been chemically analyzed, flavor chemists can attempt to duplicate the natural odor or taste. Both natural and synthetic esters are used in perfumes and as flavoring agents.

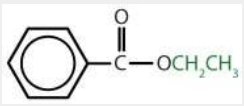
Fats and vegetable oils are esters of long-chain fatty acids and glycerol. Esters of phosphoric acid are of the utmost importance to life.

Names of Esters

Although esters are covalent compounds and salts are ionic, esters are named in a manner similar to that used for naming salts. The group name of the alkyl or aryl portion is given first and is followed by the name of the acid portion. In both common and International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) nomenclature, the *-ic* ending of the parent acid is replaced by the suffix *-ate* (Table 6.6.1).

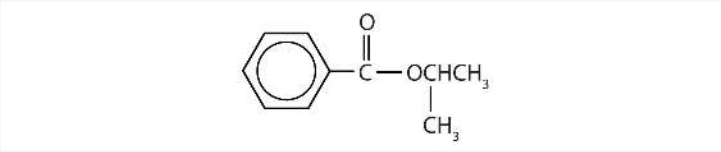
Table 6.6.1: Nomenclature of Esters

Condensed Structural Formula	Common Name	IUPAC Name
$HCOOCH_3$	methyl formate	methyl methanoate
CH_3COOCH_3	methyl acetate	methyl ethanoate
$CH_3COOCH_2CH_3$	ethyl acetate	ethyl ethanoate
$CH_3CH_2COOCH_2CH_3$	ethyl propionate	ethyl propanoate
$CH_3CH_2CH_2COOCH(CH_3)_2$	isopropyl butyrate	isopropyl butanoate

Condensed Structural Formula	Common Name	IUPAC Name
	ethyl benzoate	ethyl benzoate

Example 6.6.1

Give the common and IUPAC names for each compound.

1. 
2. 

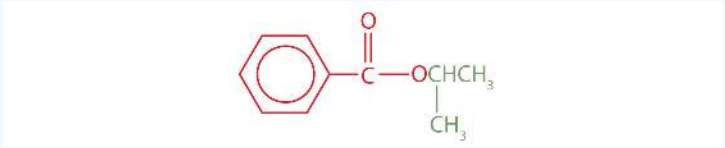
Solution

The alkyl group attached directly to the oxygen atom is a butyl group (in green).



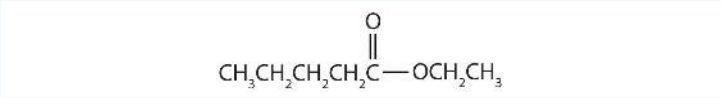
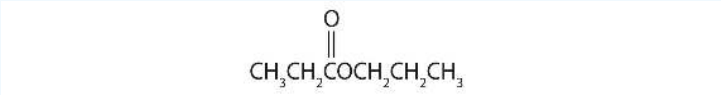
The part of the molecule derived from the carboxylic acid (in red) has three carbon atoms. It is called propionate (common) or propanoate (IUPAC). The ester is therefore butyl propionate or butyl propanoate.

1. An alkyl group (in green) is attached directly to the oxygen atom by its middle carbon atom; it is an isopropyl group. The part derived from the acid (that is, the benzene ring and the carbonyl group, in red) is benzoate. The ester is therefore isopropyl benzoate (both the common name and the IUPAC name).



Exercise 6.6.1

Give the common and IUPAC names for each compound.

1. 


Example 6.6.2

Draw the structure for ethyl pentanoate.

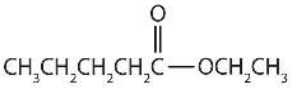
Solution

Start with the portion from the acid. Draw the pentanoate (five carbon atoms) group first; keeping in mind that the last carbon atom is a part of the carboxyl group.

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Then attach the ethyl group to the bond that ordinarily holds the hydrogen atom in the carboxyl group.



? Exercise 6.6.2

Draw the structure for phenyl pentanoate.

Key Takeaway

- An ester has an OR group attached to the carbon atom of a carbonyl group.

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6.7: Physical Properties of Esters

Learning Objectives

- Compare the boiling points of esters with alcohols of similar molar mass.
- Compare the solubilities of esters in water with the solubilities of comparable alkanes and alcohols in water.

Ester molecules are polar but have no hydrogen atom attached directly to an oxygen atom. They are therefore incapable of engaging in intermolecular hydrogen bonding with one another and thus have considerably lower boiling points than their isomeric carboxylic acids counterparts. Because ester molecules can engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules, however, esters of low molar mass are somewhat soluble in water. Borderline solubility occurs in those molecules that have three to five carbon atoms. Table 6.7.1 lists the physical properties of some common esters.

Esters are common solvents. Ethyl acetate is used to extract organic solutes from aqueous solutions—for example, to remove caffeine from coffee. It also is used to remove nail polish and paint. Cellulose nitrate is dissolved in ethyl acetate and butyl acetate to form lacquers. The solvent evaporates as the lacquer "dries," leaving a thin film on the surface. High boiling esters are used as softeners (plasticizers) for brittle plastics.

Table 6.7.1*: Physical Properties of Some Esters*

Condensed Structural Formula	Name	Molar Mass	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Aroma
$HCOOCH_3$	methyl formate	60	−99	32	
$HCOOCH_2CH_3$	ethyl formate	74	−80	54	rum
CH_3COOCH_3	methyl acetate	74	−98	57	
$CH_3COOCH_2CH_3$	ethyl acetate	88	−84	77	
$CH_3CH_2CH_2COOCH_3$	methyl butyrate	102	−85	102	apple
$CH_3CH_2CH_2COOCH_2CH_3$	ethyl butyrate	116	−101	121	pineapple
$CH_3COO(CH_2)_4CH_3$	pentyl acetate	130	−71	148	pear
$CH_3COOCH_2CH_2CH(CH_3)_2$	isopentyl acetate	130	−79	142	banana
$CH_3COOCH_2C_6H_5$	benzyl acetate	150	−51	215	jasmine
$CH_3CH_2CH_2COO(CH_2)_4CH_3$	pentyl butyrate	158	−73	185	apricot
$CH_3COO(CH_2)_7CH_3$	octyl acetate	172	−39	210	orange

Summary

Esters have polar bonds but do not engage in hydrogen bonding and are therefore intermediate in boiling points between the nonpolar alkanes and the alcohols, which engage in hydrogen bonding. Ester molecules can engage in hydrogen bonding with water, so esters of low molar mass are therefore somewhat soluble in water.

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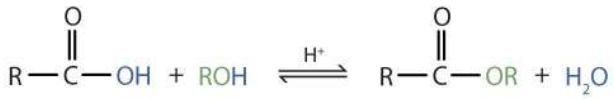
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6.8: Preparation of Esters

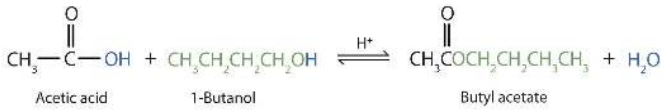
Learning Objectives

- To identify and describe the substances from which most esters are prepared.

Some esters can be prepared by esterification, a reaction in which a carboxylic acid and an alcohol, heated in the presence of a mineral acid catalyst, form an ester and water:



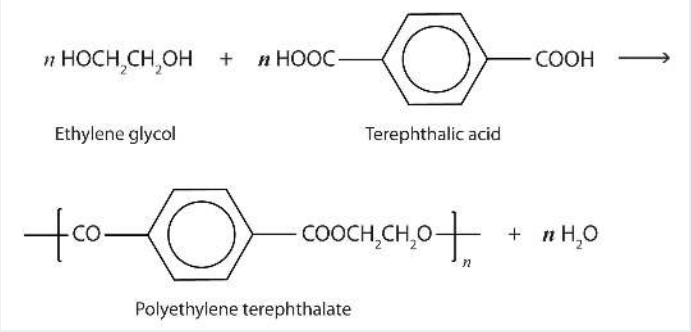
The reaction is reversible. As a specific example of an esterification reaction, butyl acetate can be made from acetic acid and 1-butanol.



A Closer Look: Condensation Polymers

A commercially important esterification reaction is condensation polymerization, in which a reaction occurs between a dicarboxylic acid and a dihydric alcohol (diol), with the elimination of water. Such a reaction yields an ester that contains a free (unreacted) carboxyl group at one end and a free alcohol group at the other end. Further condensation reactions then occur, producing polyester polymers.

The most important polyester, polyethylene terephthalate (PET), is made from terephthalic acid and ethylene glycol monomers:



Polyester molecules make excellent fibers and are used in many fabrics. A knitted polyester tube, which is biologically inert, can be used in surgery to repair or replace diseased sections of blood vessels. PET is used to make bottles for soda pop and other beverages. It is also formed into films called Mylar. When magnetically coated, Mylar tape is used in audio- and videocassettes. Synthetic arteries can be made from PET, polytetrafluoroethylene, and other polymers.

Summary

Esters are made by the reaction of a carboxylic acid with an alcohol, a process that is called esterification.

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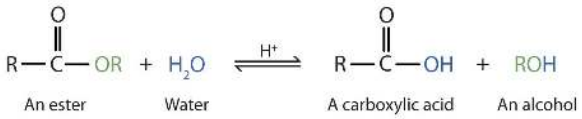
6.9: Hydrolysis of Esters

Learning Objectives

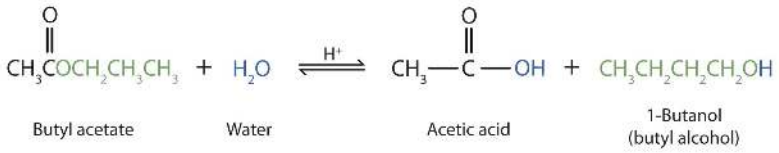
- Describe the typical reaction that takes place with esters.
- Identify the products of an acidic hydrolysis of an ester.
- Identify the products of a basic hydrolysis of an ester.

Esters are neutral compounds, unlike the acids from which they are formed. In typical reactions, the alkoxy (OR′) group of an ester is replaced by another group. One such reaction is hydrolysis, literally "splitting with water." The hydrolysis of esters is catalyzed by either an acid or a base.

Acidic hydrolysis is simply the reverse of esterification. The ester is heated with a large excess of water containing a strong-acid catalyst. Like esterification, the reaction is reversible and does not go to completion.



As a specific example, butyl acetate and water react to form acetic acid and 1-butanol. The reaction is reversible and does not go to completion.

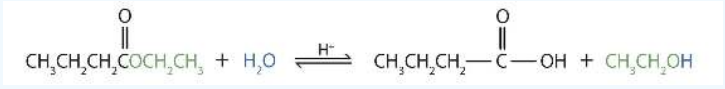


Example 6.9.1

Write an equation for the acidic hydrolysis of ethyl butyrate ($CH_3CH_2CH_2COOCH_2CH_3$) and name the products.

Solution

Remember that in acidic hydrolysis, water (HOH) splits the ester bond. The H of HOH joins to the oxygen atom in the OR part of the original ester, and the OH of HOH joins to the carbonyl carbon atom:

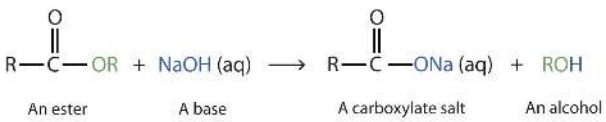


The products are butyric acid (butanoic acid) and ethanol.

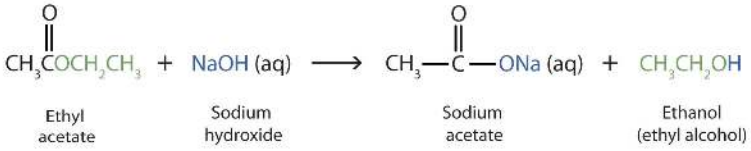
Exercise 6.9.1

Write an equation for the acidic hydrolysis of methyl butanoate and name the products.

When a base (such as sodium hydroxide [NaOH] or potassium hydroxide [KOH]) is used to hydrolyze an ester, the products are a carboxylate salt and an alcohol. Because soaps are prepared by the alkaline hydrolysis of fats and oils, alkaline hydrolysis of esters is called saponification (Latin *sapon*, meaning "soap," and *facere*, meaning "to make"). In a saponification reaction, the base is a reactant, not simply a catalyst. The reaction goes to completion:



As a specific example, ethyl acetate and NaOH react to form sodium acetate and ethanol:

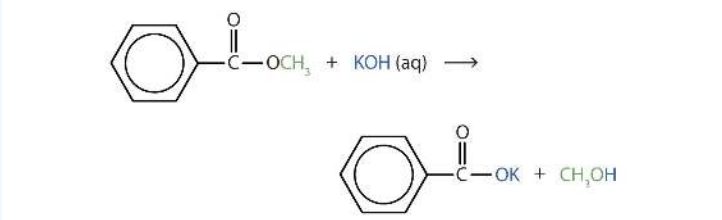


Example 6.9.2

Write an equation for the hydrolysis of methyl benzoate in a potassium hydroxide solution.

Solution

In basic hydrolysis, the molecule of the base splits the ester linkage. The acid portion of the ester ends up as the *salt* of the acid (in this case, the potassium salt). The alcohol portion of the ester ends up as the free alcohol.



Exercise 6.9.2

Write the equation for the hydrolysis of ethyl propanoate in a sodium hydroxide solution.

Summary

Hydrolysis is a most important reaction of esters. Acidic hydrolysis of an ester gives a carboxylic acid and an alcohol. Basic hydrolysis of an ester gives a carboxylate salt and an alcohol.

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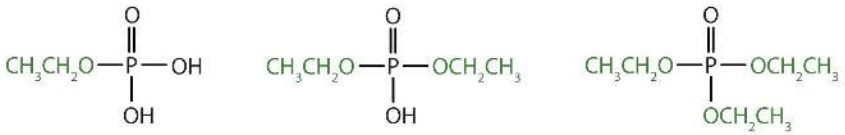
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6.10: Esters of Phosphoric Acid

Learning Objectives

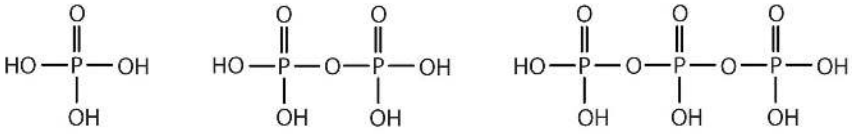
- Describe phosphate esters.
- Understand why phosphate esters are important in living cells.

Just as carboxylic acids do, inorganic acids such as nitric acid (HNO_3), sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4), and phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) also form esters. The esters of phosphoric acid are especially important in biochemistry. A phosphoric acid molecule can form a monoalkyl, a dialkyl, or a trialkyl ester by reaction with one, two, or three molecules of an alcohol.



Ethyl dihydrogen phosphate | Diethyl hydrogen phosphate | Triethyl phosphate

Esters of pyrophosphoric acid and triphosphoric acid are also important in biochemistry.

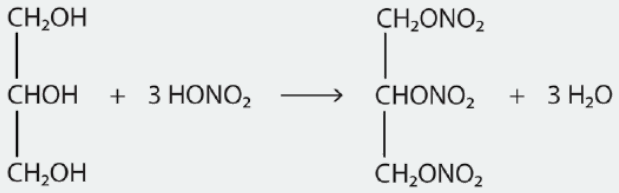


Phosphoric acid | Pyrophosphoric acid | Triphosphoric acid

Esters of these acids are present in every plant and animal cell. They are biochemical intermediates in the transformation of food into usable energy. The bonds between phosphate units in adenosine triphosphate (ATP) are called **phosphoanhydride bonds**. These are high-energy bonds that store energy from the metabolism of foods. Hydrolysis of ATP releases energy as it is needed for biochemical processes (for instance, for muscle contraction). Phosphate esters are also important structural constituents of phospholipids and nucleic acids.

Nitroglycerin

The explosive nitroglycerin (glyceryl trinitrate) is an ester formed from glycerol and nitric acid. It is used in medicine to relieve chest pain in heart disease.



Glycerol | Glycerol trinitrate (nitroglycerin)

cise

What compounds combine to form phosphate esters?

Answer

phosphoric acids and alcohols

Summary

Inorganic acids such as H_3PO_4 form esters. The esters of phosphoric acid are especially important in biochemistry.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

7: Lipids

7.1: Lipids

7.1.1: Prelude to Lipids

7.1.2: Fatty Acids

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7.1.S: Lipids (Summary)

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SECTION OVERVIEW

7.1: Lipids

The lipids are a large and diverse group of naturally occurring organic compounds that are related by their solubility in nonpolar organic solvents (e.g., ether, chloroform, acetone and benzene) and general insolubility in water. There is great structural variety among the lipids, as will be demonstrated in the following sections.

7.1.1: Prelude to Lipids

7.1.2: Fatty Acids

7.1.3: Fats and Oils

7.1.4: Membranes and Membrane Lipids

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7.1.1: Prelude to Lipids

On July 11, 2003, the Food and Drug Administration amended its food labeling regulations to require that manufacturers list the amount of *trans* fatty acids on Nutrition Facts labels of foods and dietary supplements, effective January 1, 2006. This amendment was a response to published studies demonstrating a link between the consumption of *trans* fatty acids and an increased risk of heart disease. *Trans* fatty acids are produced in the conversion of liquid oils to solid fats, as in the creation of many commercial margarines and shortenings. They have been shown to increase the levels of low-density lipoproteins (LDLs)—complexes that are often referred to as bad cholesterol—in the blood. In this chapter, you will learn about fatty acids and what is meant by a *trans* fatty acid, as well as the difference between fats and oils. You will also learn what cholesterol is and why it is an important molecule in the human body.

Fats and oils, found in many of the foods we eat, belong to a class of biomolecules known as lipids. Gram for gram, they pack more than twice the caloric content of carbohydrates: the oxidation of fats and oils supplies about 9 kcal of energy for every gram oxidized, whereas the oxidation of carbohydrates supplies only 4 kcal/g. Although the high caloric content of fats may be bad news for the dieter, it says something about the efficiency of nature's designs. Our bodies use carbohydrates, primarily in the form of glucose, for our *immediate* energy needs. Our capacity for storing carbohydrates for later use is limited to tucking away a bit of glycogen in the liver or in muscle tissue. We store our *reserve* energy in lipid form, which requires far less space than the same amount of energy stored in carbohydrate form. Lipids have other biological functions besides energy storage. They are a major component of the membranes of the 10 trillion cells in our bodies. They serve as protective padding and insulation for vital organs. Furthermore, without lipids in our diets, we would be deficient in the fat-soluble vitamins A, D, E, and K.

Lipids are not defined by the presence of specific functional groups, as carbohydrates are, but by a physical property—solubility. Compounds isolated from body tissues are classified as lipids if they are more soluble in organic solvents, such as dichloromethane, than in water. By this criterion, the lipid category includes not only fats and oils, which are esters of the trihydroxy alcohol glycerol and fatty acids, but also compounds that incorporate functional groups derived from phosphoric acid, carbohydrates, or amino alcohols, as well as steroid compounds such as cholesterol (Figure 7.1.1.1 presents one scheme for classifying the various kinds of lipids). We will discuss the various kinds of lipids by considering one subclass at a time and pointing out structural similarities and differences as we go.

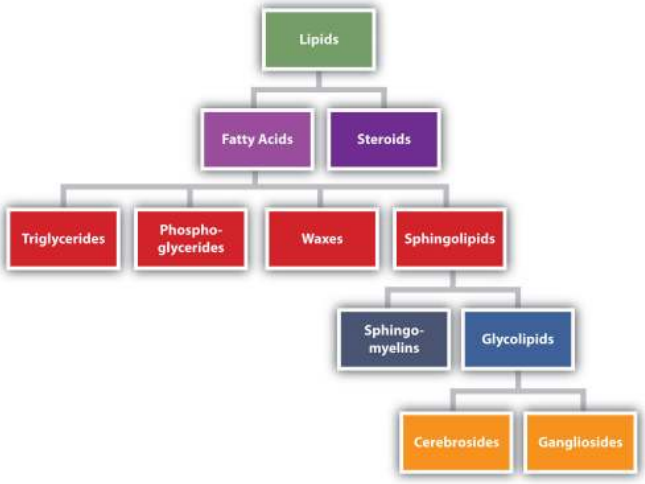


Figure 7.1.1.1: Lipid Organization Based on Structural Relationships

Lipid categorized into fatty acids and steroids. Fatty acids are further separated into triglycerides, phospho-glycerides, waxes, and sphingolipids. Sphingolipids are separated into sphingo-myelins and glycolipids. Glycolipids are separated into cerebrosides and gangliosides.

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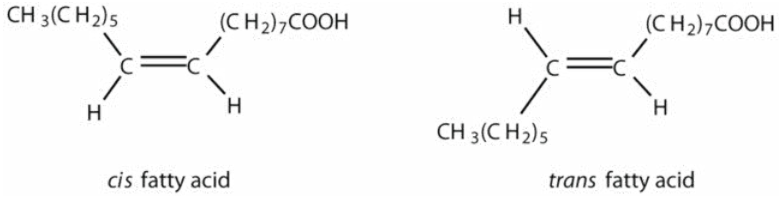
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7.1.2: Fatty Acids

Learning Objectives

- To recognize the structures of common fatty acids and classify them as saturated, monounsaturated, or polyunsaturated.

Fatty acids are carboxylic acids that are structural components of fats, oils, and all other categories of lipids, except steroids. More than 70 have been identified in nature. They usually contain an even number of carbon atoms (typically 12–20), are generally unbranched, and can be classified by the presence and number of carbon-to-carbon double bonds. Thus, saturated fatty acids contain no carbon-to-carbon double bonds, monounsaturated fatty acids contain one carbon-to-carbon double bond, and polyunsaturated fatty acids contain two or more carbon-to-carbon double bonds.



Cis fatty acids have two H atoms on the same side of the plane of the fatty acid while trans has the two H atoms on opposite sides.

Table 7.1.2.1 lists some common fatty acids and one important source for each. The atoms or groups around the double bonds in unsaturated fatty acids can be arranged in either the cis or trans isomeric form. Naturally occurring fatty acids are generally in the cis configuration.

Table 7.1.2.1: Some Common Fatty Acids Found in Natural Fats

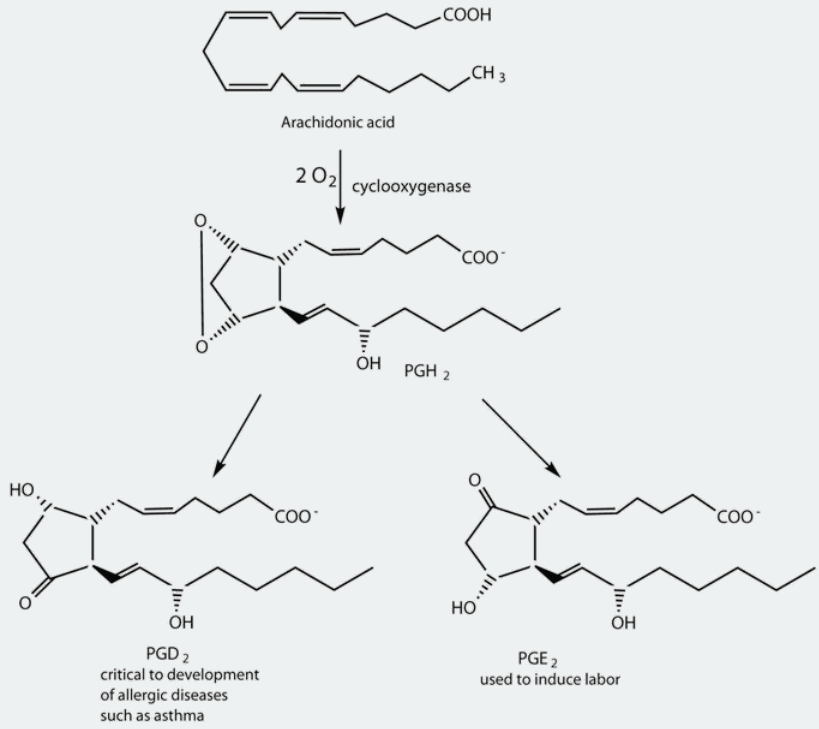
Name	Abbreviated Structural Formula	Condensed Structural Formula	Melting Point (°C)	Source
lauric acid	$C_{11}H_{23}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_{10}COOH$	44	palm kernel oil
myristic acid	$C_{13}H_{27}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_{12}COOH$	58	oil of nutmeg
palmitic acid	$C_{15}H_{31}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_{14}COOH$	63	palm oil
palmitoleic acid	$C_{15}H_{29}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_5CH=CH(CH_2)_7COOH$	0.5	macadamia oil
stearic acid	$C_{17}H_{35}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_{16}COOH$	70	cocoa butter
oleic acid	$C_{17}H_{33}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_7CH=CH(CH_2)_7COOH$	16	olive oil
linoleic acid	$C_{17}H_{31}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_3(CH_2CH=CH)_2(CH_2)_7COOH$	−5	canola oil
α-linolenic acid	$C_{17}H_{29}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2CH=CH)_3(CH_2)_7COOH$	−11	flaxseed
arachidonic acid	$C_{19}H_{31}COOH$	$CH_3(CH_2)_4(CH_2CH=CH)_4(CH_2)_2COOH$	−50	liver

Two polyunsaturated fatty acids—linoleic and α-linolenic acids—are termed essential fatty acids because humans must obtain them from their diets. Both substances are required for normal growth and development, but the human body does not synthesize them. The body uses linoleic acid to synthesize many of the other unsaturated fatty acids, such as arachidonic acid, a precursor for the synthesis of prostaglandins. In addition, the essential fatty acids are necessary for the efficient transport and metabolism of cholesterol. The average daily diet should contain about 4–6 g of the essential fatty acids.

To Your Health: Prostaglandins

Prostaglandins are chemical messengers synthesized in the cells in which their physiological activity is expressed. They are unsaturated fatty acids containing 20 carbon atoms and are synthesized from arachidonic acid—a polyunsaturated fatty acid—when needed by a particular cell. They are called *prostaglandins* because they were originally isolated from semen found in the prostate gland. It is now known that they are synthesized in nearly all mammalian tissues and affect almost all organs in the body. The five major classes of prostaglandins are designated as PGA, PGB, PGE, PGF, and PGI. Subscripts are attached at the end of these abbreviations to denote the number of double bonds outside the five-carbon ring in a given prostaglandin.

The prostaglandins are among the most potent biological substances known. Slight structural differences give them highly distinct biological effects; however, all prostaglandins exhibit some ability to induce smooth muscle contraction, lower blood pressure, and contribute to the inflammatory response. Aspirin and other nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents, such as ibuprofen, obstruct the synthesis of prostaglandins by inhibiting cyclooxygenase, the enzyme needed for the initial step in the conversion of arachidonic acid to prostaglandins.



Their wide range of physiological activity has led to the synthesis of hundreds of prostaglandins and their analogs. Derivatives of PGE_2 are now used in the United States to induce labor. Other prostaglandins have been employed clinically to lower or increase blood pressure, inhibit stomach secretions, relieve nasal congestion, relieve asthma, and prevent the formation of blood clots, which are associated with heart attacks and strokes.

Although we often draw the carbon atoms in a straight line, they actually have more of a zigzag configuration (Figure 7.1.2.2*a*). Viewed as a whole, however, the saturated fatty acid molecule is relatively straight (Figure 7.1.2.2*b*). Such molecules pack closely together into a crystal lattice, maximizing the strength of dispersion forces and causing fatty acids and the fats derived from them to have relatively high melting points. In contrast, each *cis* carbon-to-carbon double bond in an unsaturated fatty acid produces a pronounced bend in the molecule, so that these molecules do not stack neatly. As a result, the intermolecular attractions of unsaturated fatty acids (and unsaturated fats) are weaker, causing these substances to have lower melting points. Most are liquids at room temperature.

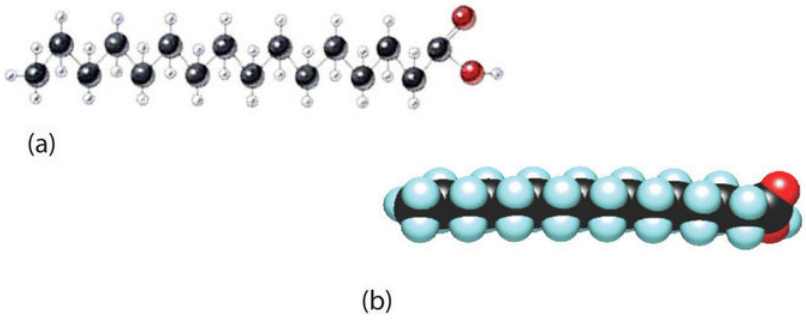
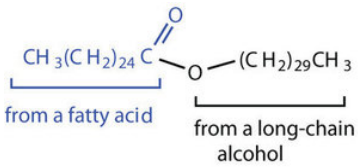


Figure 7.1.2.2: The Structure of Saturated Fatty Acids. (a) There is a zigzag pattern formed by the carbon-to-carbon single bonds in the ball-and-stick model of a palmitic acid molecule. (b) A space-filling model of palmitic acid shows the overall straightness of a saturated fatty acid molecule.

Waxes are esters formed from long-chain fatty acids and long-chain alcohols. Most natural waxes are mixtures of such esters. Plant waxes on the surfaces of leaves, stems, flowers, and fruits protect the plant from dehydration and invasion by harmful microorganisms. Carnauba wax, used extensively in floor waxes, automobile waxes, and furniture polish, is largely myricyl cerotate, obtained from the leaves of certain Brazilian palm trees. Animals also produce waxes that serve as protective coatings, keeping the surfaces of feathers, skin, and hair pliable and water repellent. In fact, if the waxy coating on the feathers of a water bird is dissolved as a result of the bird swimming in an oil slick, the feathers become wet and heavy, and the bird, unable to maintain its buoyancy, drowns.



Myricyl cerotate
(found in carnauba wax)

Summary

Fatty acids are carboxylic acids that are the structural components of many lipids. They may be saturated or unsaturated. Most fatty acids are unbranched and contain an even number of carbon atoms. Unsaturated fatty acids have lower melting points than saturated fatty acids containing the same number of carbon atoms.

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7.1.3: Fats and Oils

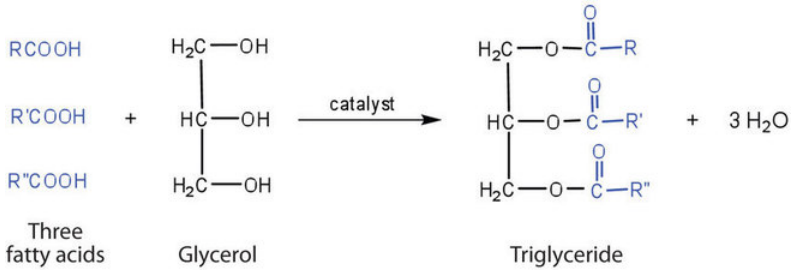
Learning Objectives

- Explain why fats and oils are referred to as triglycerides.
- Explain how the fatty acid composition of the triglycerides determines whether a substance is a fat or oil.
- Describe the importance of key reactions of triglycerides, such as hydrolysis, hydrogenation, and oxidation.

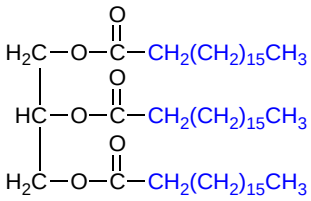
Fats and oils are the most abundant lipids in nature. They provide energy for living organisms, insulate body organs, and transport fat-soluble vitamins through the blood.

Structures of Fats and Oils

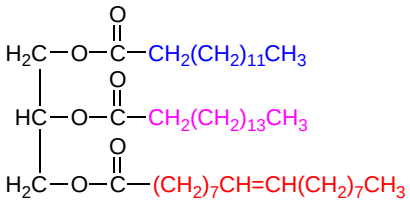
Fats and oils are called triglycerides (or *triacylcylgerols*) because they are esters composed of three fatty acid units joined to *glycerol*, a trihydroxy alcohol:



If all three OH groups on the glycerol molecule are esterified with the same fatty acid, the resulting ester is called a *simple triglyceride*. Although simple triglycerides have been synthesized in the laboratory, they rarely occur in nature. Instead, a typical triglyceride obtained from naturally occurring fats and oils contains two or three different fatty acid components and is thus termed a *mixed triglyceride*.



Tristearin
a simple triglyceride



a mixed triglyceride

A triglyceride is called a fat if it is a solid at 25°C; it is called an oil if it is a liquid at that temperature. These differences in melting points reflect differences in the degree of unsaturation and number of carbon atoms in the constituent fatty acids. Triglycerides obtained from animal sources are usually solids, while those of plant origin are generally oils. Therefore, we commonly speak of animal fats and vegetable oils.

No single formula can be written to represent the naturally occurring fats and oils because they are highly complex mixtures of triglycerides in which many different fatty acids are represented. Table 7.1.3.1shows the fatty acid compositions of some common fats and oils. The composition of any given fat or oil can vary depending on the plant or animal species it comes from as well as on

dietetic and climatic factors. To cite just one example, lard from corn-fed hogs is more highly saturated than lard from peanut-fed hogs. Palmitic acid is the most abundant of the saturated fatty acids, while oleic acid is the most abundant unsaturated fatty acid.

Table 7.1.3.1: Average Fatty Acid Composition of Some Common Fats and Oils (%)*

	Lauric	Myristic	Palmitic	Stearic	Oleic	Linoleic	Linolenic
Fats							
butter (cow)	3	11	27	12	29	2	1
tallow		3	24	19	43	3	1
lard		2	26	14	44	10	
Oils							
canola oil			4	2	62	22	10
coconut oil†	47	18	9	3	6	2	
corn oil			11	2	28	58	1
olive oil			13	3	71	10	1
peanut oil			11	2	48	32	
soybean oil			11	4	24	54	7

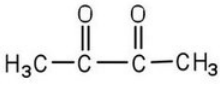
*Totals less than 100% indicate the presence of fatty acids with fewer than 12 carbon atoms or more than 18 carbon atoms.

†Coconut oil is highly saturated. It contains an unusually high percentage of the low-melting C_8, C_{10}, and C_{12} saturated fatty acids.

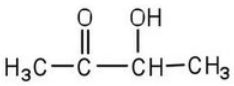
Terms such as *saturated fat* or *unsaturated oil* are often used to describe the fats or oils obtained from foods. Saturated fats contain a high proportion of saturated fatty acids, while unsaturated oils contain a high proportion of unsaturated fatty acids. The high consumption of saturated fats is a factor, along with the high consumption of cholesterol, in increased risks of heart disease.

Physical Properties of Fats and Oils

Contrary to what you might expect, *pure* fats and oils are colorless, odorless, and tasteless. The characteristic colors, odors, and flavors that we associate with some of them are imparted by foreign substances that are lipid soluble and have been absorbed by these lipids. For example, the yellow color of butter is due to the presence of the pigment carotene; the taste of butter comes from two compounds—diacetyl and 3-hydroxy-2-butanone—produced by bacteria in the ripening cream from which the butter is made.



Diacetyl

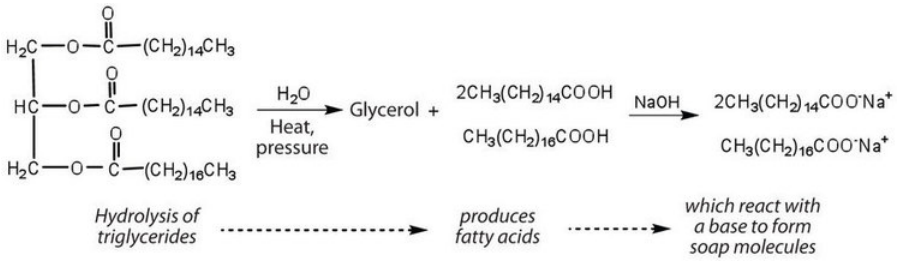


3-hydroxy-2-butanone

Fats and oils are lighter than water, having densities of about 0.8 g/cm^3. They are poor conductors of heat and electricity and therefore serve as excellent insulators for the body, slowing the loss of heat through the skin.

Chemical Reactions of Fats and Oils

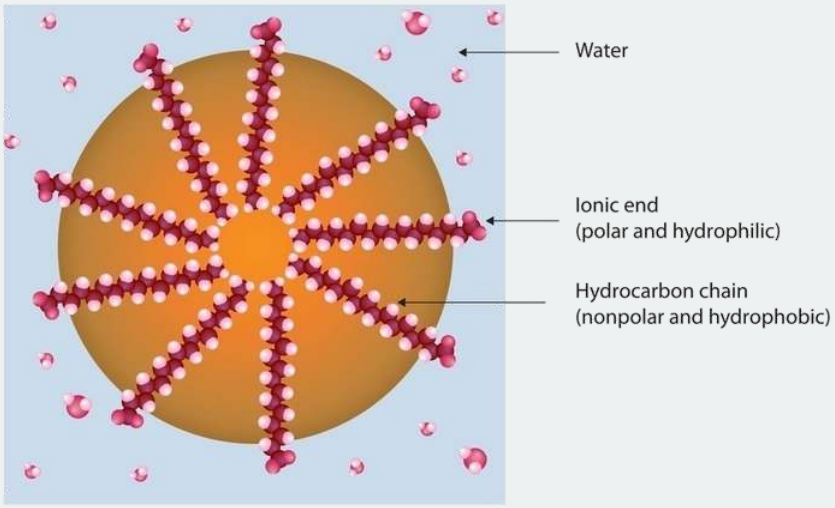
Fats and oils can participate in a variety of chemical reactions—for example, because triglycerides are esters, they can be hydrolyzed in the presence of an acid, a base, or specific enzymes known as lipases. The hydrolysis of fats and oils in the presence of a base is used to make soap and is called saponification. Today most soaps are prepared through the hydrolysis of triglycerides (often from tallow, coconut oil, or both) using water under high pressure and temperature [700 lb/in^2 (~50 atm or 5,000 kPa) and 200°C]. Sodium carbonate or sodium hydroxide is then used to convert the fatty acids to their sodium salts (soap molecules):



Looking Closer: Soaps

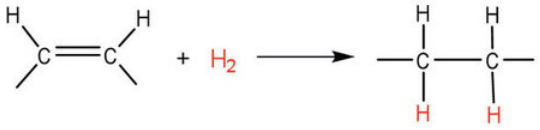
Ordinary soap is a mixture of the sodium salts of various fatty acids, produced in one of the oldest organic syntheses practiced by humans (second only to the fermentation of sugars to produce ethyl alcohol). Both the Phoenicians (600 BCE) and the Romans made soap from animal fat and wood ash. Even so, the widespread production of soap did not begin until the 1700s. Soap was traditionally made by treating molten lard or tallow with a slight excess of alkali in large open vats. The mixture was heated, and steam was bubbled through it. After saponification was completed, the soap was precipitated from the mixture by the addition of sodium chloride (NaCl), removed by filtration, and washed several times with water. It was then dissolved in water and reprecipitated by the addition of more NaCl. The glycerol produced in the reaction was also recovered from the aqueous wash solutions.

Pumice or sand is added to produce scouring soap, while ingredients such as perfumes or dyes are added to produce fragrant, colored soaps. Blowing air through molten soap produces a floating soap. Soft soaps, made with potassium salts, are more expensive but produce a finer lather and are more soluble. They are used in liquid soaps, shampoos, and shaving creams.



Dirt and grime usually adhere to skin, clothing, and other surfaces by combining with body oils, cooking fats, lubricating greases, and similar substances that act like glues. Because these substances are not miscible in water, washing with water alone does little to remove them. Soap removes them, however, because soap molecules have a dual nature. One end, called the *head*, carries an ionic charge (a carboxylate anion) and therefore dissolves in water; the other end, the *tail*, has a hydrocarbon structure and dissolves in oils. The hydrocarbon tails dissolve in the soil; the ionic heads remain in the aqueous phase, and the soap breaks the oil into tiny soap-enclosed droplets called *micelles*, which disperse throughout the solution. The droplets repel each other because of their charged surfaces and do not coalesce. With the oil no longer “gluing” the dirt to the soiled surface (skin, cloth, dish), the soap-enclosed dirt can easily be rinsed away.

The double bonds in fats and oils can undergo hydrogenation and also oxidation. The hydrogenation of vegetable oils to produce semisolid fats is an important process in the food industry. Chemically, it is essentially identical to the catalytic hydrogenation reaction described for alkenes.

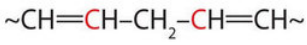


In commercial processes, the number of double bonds that are hydrogenated is carefully controlled to produce fats with the desired consistency (soft and pliable). Inexpensive and abundant vegetable oils (canola, corn, soybean) are thus transformed into margarine and cooking fats. In the preparation of margarine, for example, partially hydrogenated oils are mixed with water, salt, and nonfat dry milk, along with flavoring agents, coloring agents, and vitamins A and D, which are added to approximate the look, taste, and nutrition of butter. (Preservatives and antioxidants are also added.) In most commercial peanut butter, the peanut oil has been partially hydrogenated to prevent it from separating out. Consumers could decrease the amount of saturated fat in their diet by using the original unprocessed oils on their foods, but most people would rather spread margarine on their toast than pour oil on it.

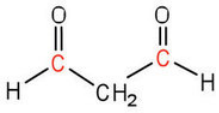
Many people have switched from butter to margarine or vegetable shortening because of concerns that saturated animal fats can raise blood cholesterol levels and result in clogged arteries. However, during the hydrogenation of vegetable oils, an isomerization reaction occurs that produces the *trans* fatty acids mentioned in the opening essay. However, studies have shown that *trans* fatty acids also raise cholesterol levels and increase the incidence of heart disease. *Trans* fatty acids do not have the bend in their structures, which occurs in *cis* fatty acids and thus pack closely together in the same way that the saturated fatty acids do. Consumers are now being advised to use polyunsaturated oils and soft or liquid margarine and reduce their total fat consumption to less than 30% of their total calorie intake each day.

Fats and oils that are in contact with moist air at room temperature eventually undergo oxidation and hydrolysis reactions that cause them to turn rancid, acquiring a characteristic disagreeable odor. One cause of the odor is the release of volatile fatty acids by hydrolysis of the ester bonds. Butter, for example, releases foul-smelling butyric, caprylic, and capric acids. Microorganisms present in the air furnish lipases that catalyze this process. Hydrolytic rancidity can easily be prevented by covering the fat or oil and keeping it in a refrigerator.

Another cause of volatile, odorous compounds is the oxidation of the unsaturated fatty acid components, particularly the readily oxidized structural unit



in polyunsaturated fatty acids, such as linoleic and linolenic acids. One particularly offensive product, formed by the oxidative cleavage of both double bonds in this unit, is a compound called *malonaldehyde*.



Malonaldehyde

Rancidity is a major concern of the food industry, which is why food chemists are always seeking new and better antioxidants, substances added in very small amounts (0.001%–0.01%) to prevent oxidation and thus suppress rancidity. Antioxidants are compounds whose affinity for oxygen is greater than that of the lipids in the food; thus they function by preferentially depleting the supply of oxygen absorbed into the product. Because vitamin E has antioxidant properties, it helps reduce damage to lipids in the body, particularly to unsaturated fatty acids found in cell membrane lipids.

Summary

Fats and oils are composed of molecules known as triglycerides, which are esters composed of three fatty acid units linked to glycerol. An increase in the percentage of shorter-chain fatty acids and/or unsaturated fatty acids lowers the melting point of a fat or oil. The hydrolysis of fats and oils in the presence of a base makes soap and is known as saponification. Double bonds present in unsaturated triglycerides can be hydrogenated to convert oils (liquid) into margarine (solid). The oxidation of fatty acids can form compounds with disagreeable odors. This oxidation can be minimized by the addition of antioxidants.

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7.1.4: Membranes and Membrane Lipids

Learning Objectives

- Identify the distinguishing characteristics of membrane lipids.
- Describe membrane components and how they are arranged.

All living cells are surrounded by a cell membrane. Plant cells (Figure 7.1.4.1*A*) and animal cells (Figure 7.1.4.1*B*) contain a cell nucleus that is also surrounded by a membrane and holds the genetic information for the cell. Everything between the cell membrane and the nuclear membrane—including intracellular fluids and various subcellular components such as the mitochondria and ribosomes—is called the cytoplasm. The membranes of all cells have a fundamentally similar structure, but membrane function varies tremendously from one organism to another and even from one cell to another within a single organism. This diversity arises mainly from the presence of different proteins and lipids in the membrane.

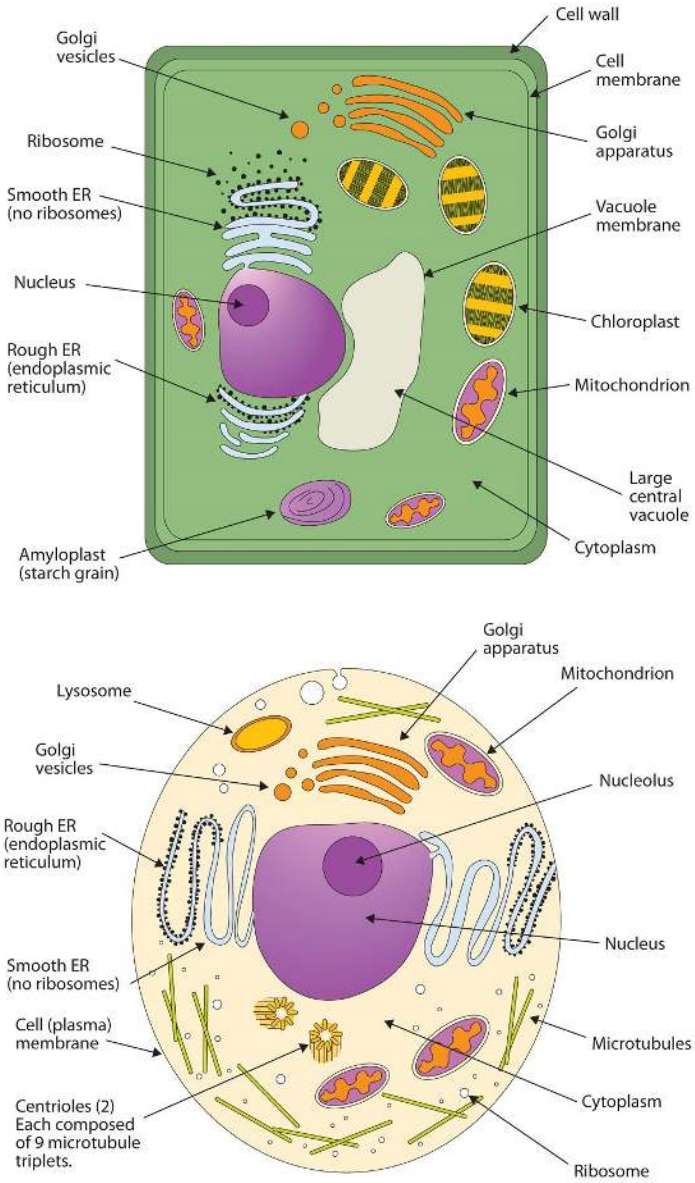


Figure 7.1.4.1: (A) An Idealized Plant Cell. Not all the structures shown here occur in every type of plant cell. (B) An Idealized Animal Cell. The structures shown here will seldom all be found in a single animal cell.

The lipids in cell membranes are highly polar but have dual characteristics: part of the lipid is ionic and therefore dissolves in water, whereas the rest has a hydrocarbon structure and therefore dissolves in nonpolar substances. Often, the ionic part is referred to as hydrophilic, meaning “water loving,” and the nonpolar part as hydrophobic, meaning “water fearing” (repelled by water). When allowed to float freely in water, polar lipids spontaneously cluster together in any one of three arrangements: micelles, monolayers, and bilayers (Figure 7.1.4.2).

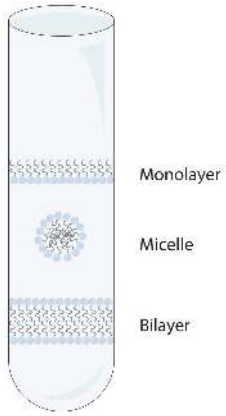


Figure 7.1.4.2: Spontaneously Formed Polar Lipid Structures in Water: Monolayer, Micelle, and Bilayer

Micelles are aggregations in which the lipids’ hydrocarbon tails—being hydrophobic—are directed toward the center of the assemblage and away from the surrounding water while the hydrophilic heads are directed outward, in contact with the water. Each micelle may contain thousands of lipid molecules. Polar lipids may also form a monolayer, a layer one molecule thick on the surface of the water. The polar heads face into water, and the nonpolar tails stick up into the air. Bilayers are double layers of lipids arranged so that the hydrophobic tails are sandwiched between an inner surface and an outer surface consisting of hydrophilic heads. The hydrophilic heads are in contact with water on either side of the bilayer, whereas the tails, sequestered inside the bilayer, are prevented from having contact with the water. Bilayers like this make up every cell membrane (Figure 7.1.4.3).

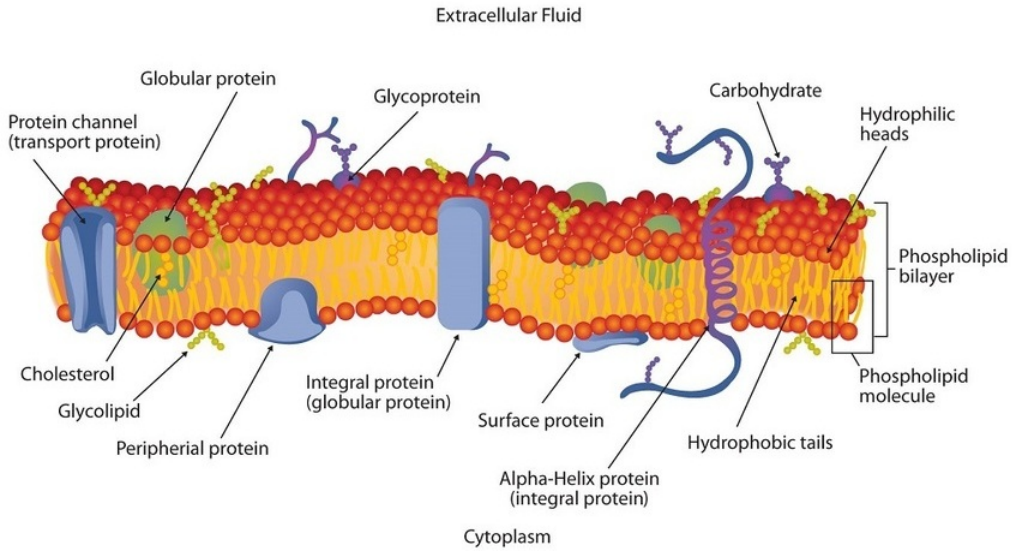


Figure 7.1.4.3: Schematic Diagram of a Cell Membrane. The membrane enclosing a typical animal cell is a phospholipid bilayer with embedded cholesterol and protein molecules. Short oligosaccharide chains are attached to the outer surface.

In the bilayer interior, the hydrophobic tails (that is, the fatty acid portions of lipid molecules) interact by means of dispersion forces. The interactions are weakened by the presence of unsaturated fatty acids. As a result, the membrane components are free to mill about to some extent, and the membrane is described as fluid.

The lipids found in cell membranes can be categorized in various ways. Phospholipids are lipids containing phosphorus. Glycolipids are sugar-containing lipids. The latter are found exclusively on the outer surface of the cell membrane, acting as distinguishing surface markers for the cell and thus serving in cellular recognition and cell-to-cell communication. Sphingolipids

are phospholipids or glycolipids that contain the unsaturated amino alcohol sphingosine rather than glycerol. Diagrammatic structures of representative membrane lipids are presented in Figure 7.1.4.4

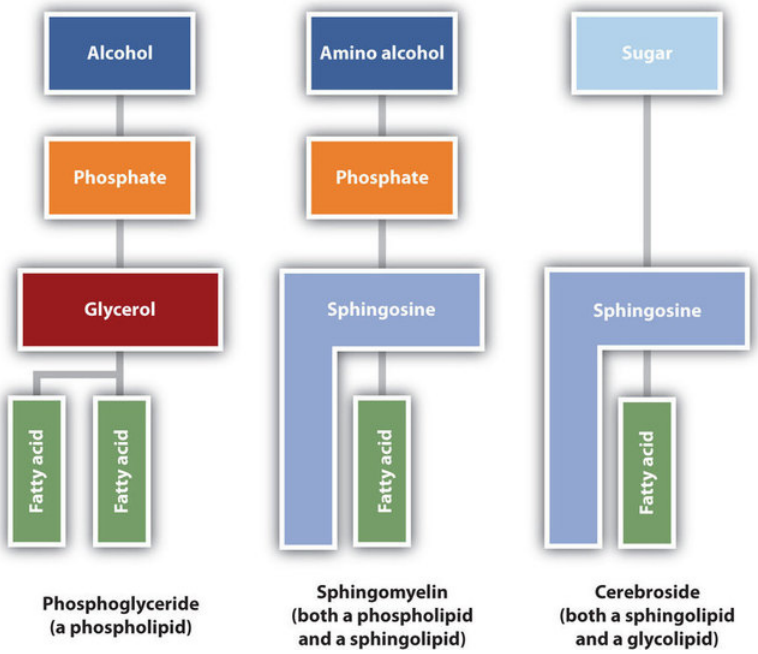


Figure 7.1.4.4: Component Structures of Some Important Membrane Lipids

Phosphoglyceride are composed of alcohol, phosphate, glycerol and 2 fatty acids. A sphingomyelin contains phosphate, sphingosine, and a fatty acid. A cerbroside contains sugar, sphingosine and a fatty acid.

Phosphoglycerides (also known as glycerophospholipids) are the most abundant phospholipids in cell membranes. They consist of a glycerol unit with fatty acids attached to the first two carbon atoms, while a phosphoric acid unit, esterified with an alcohol molecule (usually an amino alcohol, as in part (a) of Figure 7.1.4.5) is attached to the third carbon atom of glycerol (part (b) of Figure 7.1.4.5). Notice that the phosphoglyceride molecule is identical to a triglyceride up to the phosphoric acid unit (part (b) of Figure 7.1.4.5).

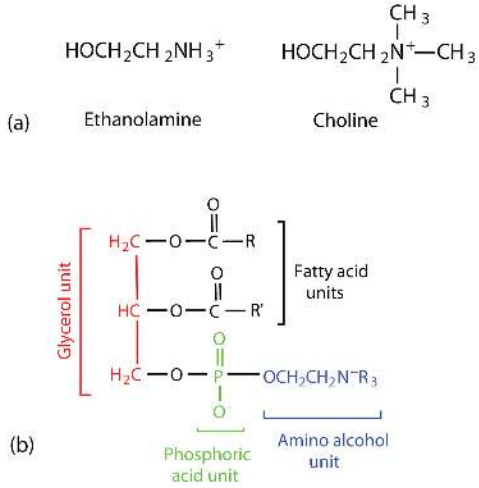
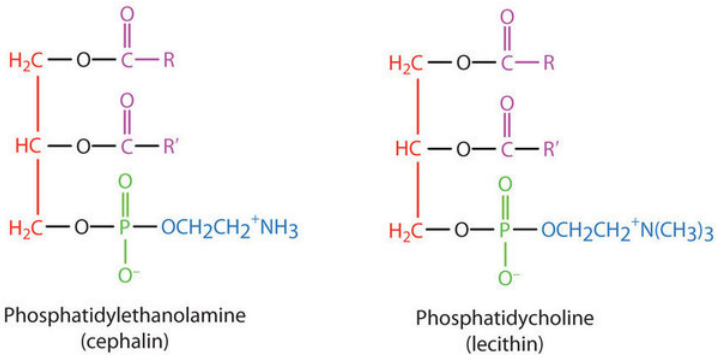


Figure 7.1.4.5: Phosphoglycerides. (a) Amino alcohols are commonly found in phosphoglycerides, which are evident in its structural formula (b).

Structural formula of ethanolamine and choline are shown. The structural formula of a phosphoglyceride is shown with the glycerol unit, phosphoric unit, and amino alcohol unit highlighted in different colors.

There are two common types of phosphoglycerides. Phosphoglycerides containing ethanolamine as the amino alcohol are called *phosphatidylethanolamines* or *cephalins*. Cephalins are found in brain tissue and nerves and also have a role in blood clotting. Phosphoglycerides containing choline as the amino alcohol unit are called *phosphatidylcholines* or *lecithins*. Lecithins occur in all living organisms. Like cephalins, they are important constituents of nerve and brain tissue. Egg yolks are especially rich in

lecithins. Commercial-grade lecithins isolated from soybeans are widely used in foods as emulsifying agents. An emulsifying agent is used to stabilize an emulsion—a dispersion of two liquids that do not normally mix, such as oil and water. Many foods are emulsions. Milk is an emulsion of butterfat in water. The emulsifying agent in milk is a protein called *casein*. Mayonnaise is an emulsion of salad oil in water, stabilized by lecithins present in egg yolk.



Sphingomyelins, the simplest sphingolipids, each contain a fatty acid, a phosphoric acid, sphingosine, and choline (Figure 7.1.4.6). Because they contain phosphoric acid, they are also classified as phospholipids. Sphingomyelins are important constituents of the myelin sheath surrounding the axon of a nerve cell. Multiple sclerosis is one of several diseases resulting from damage to the myelin sheath.

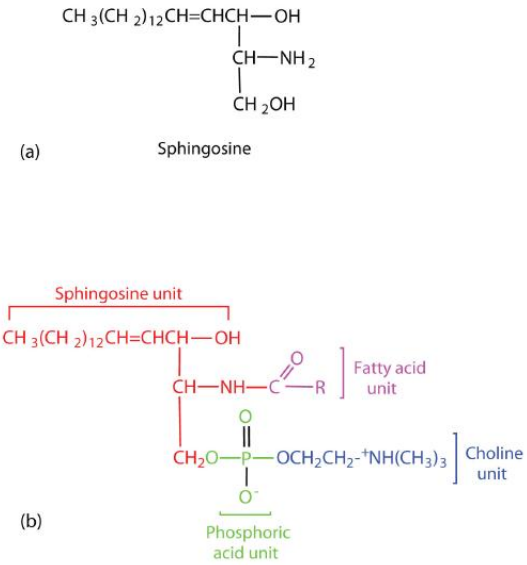


Figure 7.1.4.6: Sphingolipids. (a) Sphingosine, an amino alcohol, is found in all sphingolipids. (b) A sphingomyelin is also known as a phospholipid, as evidenced by the phosphoric acid unit in its structure.
Structural formula of sphingosine is shown. The general structure of a sphingolipid is shown with the sphingosine unit, fatty acid unit, phosphoric acid unit, and choline unit highlighted in different colors.

Most animal cells contain sphingolipids called cerebrosides (Figure 7.1.4.7). Cerebrosides are composed of sphingosine, a fatty acid, and galactose or glucose. They therefore resemble sphingomyelins but have a sugar unit in place of the choline phosphate group. Cerebrosides are important constituents of the membranes of nerve and brain cells.

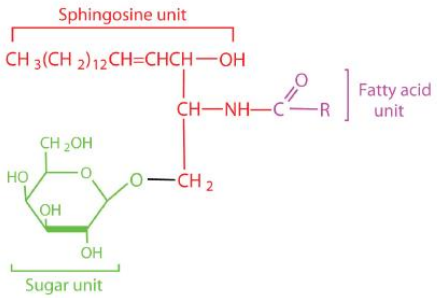


Figure 7.1.4.7: Cerebrosides. Cerebrosides are sphingolipids that contain a sugar unit.
General structure of a cerebroside with its sugar unit, sphingosine unit, and fatty acid unit highlighted in different colors.

The sphingolipids called gangliosides are more complex, usually containing a branched chain of three to eight monosaccharides and/or substituted sugars. Because of considerable variation in their sugar components, about 130 varieties of gangliosides have been identified. Most cell-to-cell recognition and communication processes (e.g., blood group antigens) depend on differences in the sequences of sugars in these compounds. Gangliosides are most prevalent in the outer membranes of nerve cells, although they also occur in smaller quantities in the outer membranes of most other cells. Because cerebrosides and gangliosides contain sugar groups, they are also classified as glycolipids.

Membrane Proteins

If membranes were composed only of lipids, very few ions or polar molecules could pass through their hydrophobic “sandwich filling” to enter or leave any cell. However, certain charged and polar species do cross the membrane, aided by proteins that move about in the lipid bilayer. The two major classes of proteins in the cell membrane are integral proteins, which span the hydrophobic interior of the bilayer, and peripheral proteins, which are more loosely associated with the surface of the lipid bilayer (Figure 7.1.4.3). Peripheral proteins may be attached to integral proteins, to the polar head groups of phospholipids, or to both by hydrogen bonding and electrostatic forces.

Small ions and molecules soluble in water enter and leave the cell by way of channels through the integral proteins. Some proteins, called *carrier proteins*, facilitate the passage of certain molecules, such as hormones and neurotransmitters, by specific interactions between the protein and the molecule being transported.

Summary

Lipids are important components of biological membranes. These lipids have dual characteristics: part of the molecule is hydrophilic, and part of the molecule is hydrophobic. Membrane lipids may be classified as phospholipids, glycolipids, and/or sphingolipids. Proteins are another important component of biological membranes. Integral proteins span the lipid bilayer, while peripheral proteins are more loosely associated with the surface of the membrane.

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7.1.5: Steroids

Learning Objectives

- To identify the functions of steroids produced in mammals.

All the lipids discussed so far are *saponifiable*, reacting with aqueous alkali to yield simpler components, such as glycerol, fatty acids, amino alcohols, and sugars. Lipid samples extracted from cellular material, however, also contain a small but important fraction that does not react with alkali. The most important nonsaponifiable lipids are the steroids. These compounds include the *bile salts*, *cholesterol* and related compounds, and certain *hormones* (such as cortisone and the sex hormones).

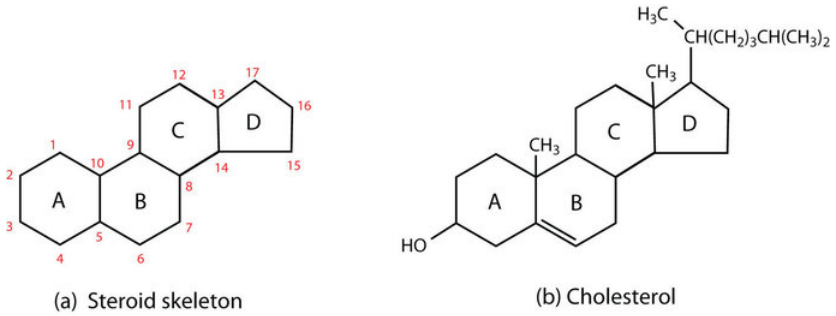


Figure 7.1.5.1 Steroids. (a) The four-fused-ring steroid skeleton uses letter designations for each ring and the numbering of the carbon atoms. (b) The cholesterol molecule follows this pattern.

Steroids occur in plants, animals, yeasts, and molds but not in bacteria. They may exist in free form or combined with fatty acids or carbohydrates. All steroids have a characteristic structural component consisting of four fused rings. Chemists identify the rings by capital letters and number the carbon atoms as shown in Figure 7.1.5.1*a*. Slight variations in this structure or in the atoms or groups attached to it produce profound differences in biological activity.

Cholesterol

Cholesterol (Figure 7.1.5.1*b*) does not occur in plants, but it is the most abundant steroid in the human body (240 g is a typical amount). Excess cholesterol is believed to be a primary factor in the development of atherosclerosis and heart disease, which are major health problems in the United States today. About half of the body's cholesterol is interspersed in the lipid bilayer of cell membranes. Much of the rest is converted to cholic acid, which is used in the formation of bile salts. Cholesterol is also a precursor in the synthesis of sex hormones, adrenal hormones, and vitamin D.

Excess cholesterol not metabolized by the body is released from the liver and transported by the blood to the gallbladder. Normally, it stays in solution there until being secreted into the intestine (as a component of bile) to be eliminated. Sometimes, however, cholesterol in the gallbladder precipitates in the form of gallstones (Figure 7.1.5.2). Indeed, the name *cholesterol* is derived from the Greek *chole*, meaning "bile," and *stereos*, meaning "solid."



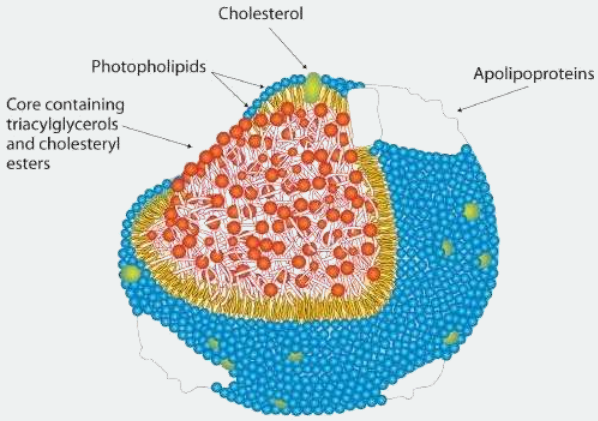
Figure 7.1.5.2: Numerous small gallstones made up largely of cholesterol, all removed in one patient. Grid scale 1 mm

To Your Health: Cholesterol and Heart Disease

Heart disease is the leading cause of death in the United States for both men and women. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention reported that heart disease claimed 631,636 lives in the United States (26% of all reported deaths) in 2006.

Scientists agree that elevated cholesterol levels in the blood, as well as high blood pressure, obesity, diabetes, and cigarette smoking, are associated with an increased risk of heart disease. A long-term investigation by the National Institutes of Health showed that among men ages 30 to 49, the incidence of heart disease was five times greater for those whose cholesterol levels were above 260 mg/100 mL of serum than for those with cholesterol levels of 200 mg/100 mL or less. The cholesterol content of blood varies considerably with age, diet, and sex. Young adults average about 170 mg of cholesterol per 100 mL of blood, whereas males at age 55 may have cholesterol levels at 250 mg/100 mL or higher because the rate of cholesterol breakdown decreases with age. Females tend to have lower blood cholesterol levels than males.

To understand the link between heart disease and cholesterol levels, it is important to understand how cholesterol and other lipids are transported in the body. Lipids, such as cholesterol, are not soluble in water and therefore cannot be transported in the blood (an aqueous medium) unless they are complexed with proteins that are soluble in water, forming assemblages called *lipoproteins*. Lipoproteins are classified according to their density, which is dependent on the relative amounts of protein and lipid they contain. Lipids are less dense than proteins, so lipoproteins containing a greater proportion of lipid are less dense than those containing a greater proportion of protein.



Research on cholesterol and its role in heart disease has focused on serum levels of low-density lipoproteins (LDLs) and high-density lipoproteins (HDLs). One of the most fascinating discoveries is that high levels of HDLs reduce a person's risk of developing heart disease, whereas high levels of LDLs increase that risk. Thus the serum LDL:HDL ratio is a better predictor of heart disease risk than the overall level of serum cholesterol. Persons who, because of hereditary or dietary factors, have high LDL:HDL ratios in their blood have a higher incidence of heart disease.

How do HDLs reduce the risk of developing heart disease? No one knows for sure, but one role of HDLs appears to be the transport of excess cholesterol to the liver, where it can be metabolized. Therefore, HDLs aid in removing cholesterol from blood and from the smooth muscle cells of the arterial wall.

Dietary modifications and increased physical activity can help lower total cholesterol and improve the LDL:HDL ratio. The average American consumes about 600 mg of cholesterol from animal products each day and also synthesizes approximately 1 g of cholesterol each day, mostly in the liver. The amount of cholesterol synthesized is controlled by the cholesterol level in the blood; when the blood cholesterol level exceeds 150 mg/100 mL, the rate of cholesterol biosynthesis is halved. Hence, if cholesterol is present in the diet, a feedback mechanism suppresses its synthesis in the liver. However, the ratio of suppression is not a 1:1 ratio; the reduction in biosynthesis does not equal the amount of cholesterol ingested. Thus, dietary substitutions of unsaturated fat for saturated fat, as well as a reduction in consumption of *trans* fatty acids, is recommended to help lower serum cholesterol and the risk of heart disease.

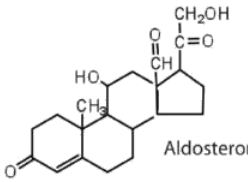
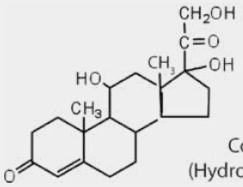
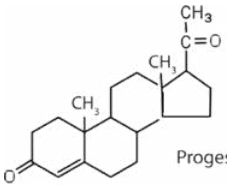
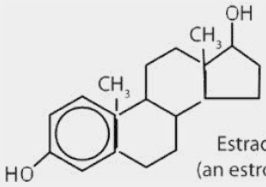
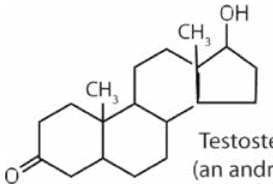
Steroid Hormones

Hormones are chemical messengers that are released in one tissue and transported through the circulatory system to one or more other tissues. One group of hormones is known as steroid hormones because these hormones are synthesized from cholesterol, which is also a steroid. There are two main groups of steroid hormones: adrenocortical hormones and sex hormones.

The adrenocortical hormones, such as aldosterone and cortisol (Table 7.1.5.1), are produced by the adrenal gland, which is located adjacent to each kidney. Aldosterone acts on most cells in the body, but it is particularly effective at enhancing the rate of reabsorption of sodium ions in the kidney tubules and increasing the secretion of potassium ions and/or hydrogen ions by the

tubules. Because the concentration of sodium ions is the major factor influencing water retention in tissues, aldosterone promotes water retention and reduces urine output. Cortisol regulates several key metabolic reactions (for example, increasing glucose production and mobilizing fatty acids and amino acids). It also inhibits the inflammatory response of tissue to injury or stress. Cortisol and its analogs are therefore used pharmacologically as immunosuppressants after transplant operations and in the treatment of severe skin allergies and autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis.

Table 7.1.5.1: Representative Steroid Hormones and Their Physiological Effects

Hormone	Effect
 Aldosterone	regulates salt metabolism; stimulates kidneys to retain sodium and excrete potassium
 Cortisol (Hydrocortisone)	stimulates the conversion of proteins to carbohydrates
 Progesterone	regulates the menstrual cycle; maintains pregnancy
 Estradiol (an estrogen)	stimulates female sex characteristics; regulates changes during the menstrual cycle
 Testosterone (an androgen)	stimulates and maintains male sex characteristics

The sex hormones are a class of steroid hormones secreted by the gonads (ovaries or testes), the placenta, and the adrenal glands. Testosterone and androstenedione are the primary male sex hormones, or *androgens*, controlling the primary sexual characteristics of males, or the development of the male genital organs and the continuous production of sperm. Androgens are also responsible for the development of secondary male characteristics, such as facial hair, deep voice, and muscle strength. Two kinds of sex hormones are of particular importance in females: progesterone, which prepares the uterus for pregnancy and prevents the further release of eggs from the ovaries during pregnancy, and the estrogens, which are mainly responsible for the development of female secondary sexual characteristics, such as breast development and increased deposition of fat tissue in the breasts, the buttocks, and the thighs. Both males and females produce androgens and estrogens, differing in the amounts of secreted hormones rather than in the presence or absence of one or the other.

Sex hormones, both natural and synthetic, are sometimes used therapeutically. For example, a woman who has had her ovaries removed may be given female hormones to compensate. Some of the earliest chemical compounds employed in cancer chemotherapy were sex hormones. For example, estrogens are one treatment option for prostate cancer because they block the release and activity of testosterone. Testosterone enhances prostate cancer growth. Sex hormones are also administered in

preparation for sex-change operations, to promote the development of the proper secondary sexual characteristics. Oral contraceptives are synthetic derivatives of the female sex hormones; they work by preventing ovulation.

Bile Salts

Bile is a yellowish green liquid (pH 7.8–8.6) produced in the liver. The most important constituents of bile are bile salts, which are sodium salts of amidelike combinations of bile acids, such as cholic acid (part (a) of Figure 7.1.5.3) and an amine such as the amino acid glycine (part (b) of Figure 7.1.5.3). They are synthesized from cholesterol in the liver, stored in the gallbladder, and then secreted in bile into the small intestine. In the gallbladder, the composition of bile gradually changes as water is absorbed and the other components become more concentrated.

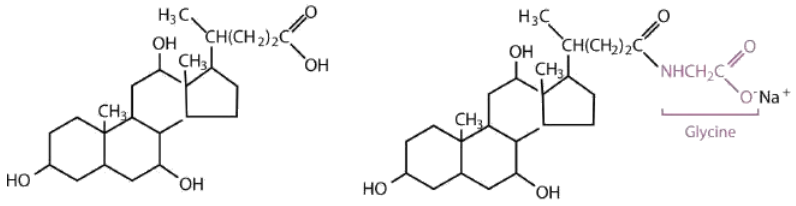


Figure 7.1.5.3 Bile Acids. (a) Cholic acid is an example of a bile acid. (b) Sodium glycocholate is a bile salt synthesized from cholic acid and glycine.

Because they contain both hydrophobic and hydrophilic groups, bile salts are highly effective detergents and emulsifying agents; they break down large fat globules into smaller ones and keep those smaller globules suspended in the aqueous digestive environment. Enzymes can then hydrolyze fat molecules more efficiently. Thus, the major function of bile salts is to aid in the digestion of dietary lipids.

> Surgical removal is often advised for a gallbladder that becomes infected, inflamed, or perforated. This surgery does not seriously affect digestion because bile is still produced by the liver, but the liver's bile is more dilute and its secretion into the small intestine is not as closely tied to the arrival of food.

Summary

Steroids have a four-fused-ring structure and have a variety of functions. Cholesterol is a steroid found in mammals that is needed for the formation of cell membranes, bile acids, and several hormones. Bile salts are secreted into the small intestine to aid in the digestion of fats.

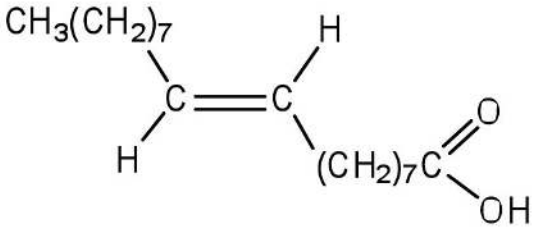
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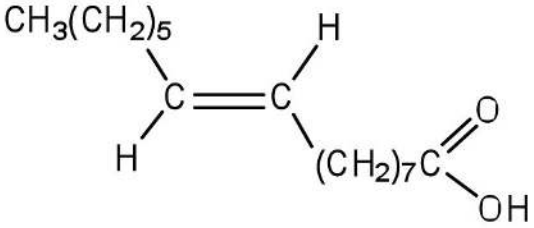
7.1.E: Exercises

Additional Exercises

1. The melting point of elaidic acid is 52°C.
   a. What trend is observed when comparing the melting points of elaidic acid, oleic acid, and stearic acid? Explain.
   b. Would you expect the melting point of palmitelaidic acid to be lower or higher than that of elaidic acid? Explain.

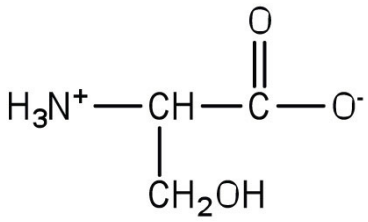


Elaidic acid



Palmitelaidic acid

2. Examine the labels on two brands of margarine and two brands of shortening and list the oils used in the various brands.
3. Draw a typical lecithin molecule that incorporates glycerol, palmitic acid, oleic acid, phosphoric acid, and choline. Circle all the ester bonds.
4. In cerebrosides, is the linkage between the fatty acid and sphingosine an amide bond or an ester bond? Justify your answer.
5. Serine is an amino acid that has the following structure. Draw the structure for a phosphatidylserine that contains a palmitic acid and a palmitoleic acid unit.

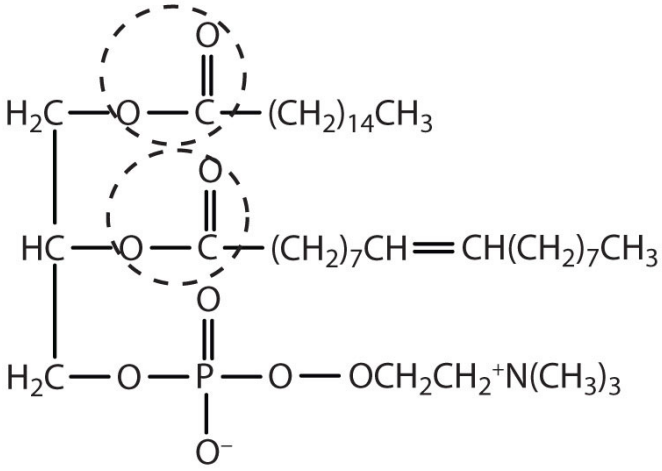


6. Explain whether each compound would be expected to diffuse through the lipid bilayer of a cell membrane.
   a. potassium chloride
   b. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$
   c. fructose
7. Identify the role of each steroid hormone in the body.
   a. progesterone
   b. aldosterone
   c. testosterone
   d. cortisol
8. How does the structure of cholic acid differ from that of cholesterol? Which compound would you expect to be more polar? Why?
9. a. What fatty acid is the precursor for the prostaglandins?
   b. Identify three biological effects of prostaglandins.
10. Why is it important to determine the ratio of LDLs to HDLs, rather than just the concentration of serum cholesterol?

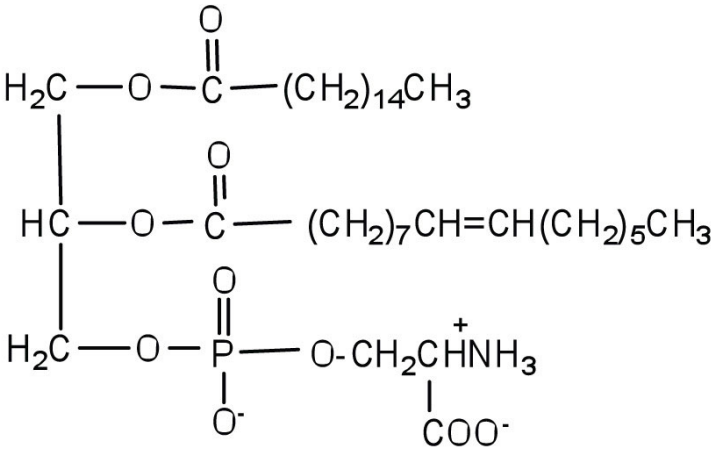
Answers

1. a. Stearic acid has the highest melting point, followed by elaidic acid, and then oleic acid with the lowest melting point. Elaidic acid is a *trans* fatty acid, and the carbon chains can pack together almost as tightly as those of the saturated stearic acid. Oleic acid is a *cis* fatty acid, and the bend in the hydrocarbon chain keeps these carbon chains from packing as closely together; fewer interactions lead to a much lower melting point.
   b. The melting point of palmitelaidic acid should be lower than that of elaidic acid because it has a shorter carbon chain (16, as compared to 18 for elaidic acid). The shorter the carbon chain, the lower the melting point due to a decrease in intermolecular interactions.

3.



5.



7. a. regulates the menstrual cycle and maintains pregnancy
   b. regulates salt metabolism by stimulating the kidneys to retain sodium and excrete potassium
   c. stimulates and maintains male sex characteristics
   d. stimulates the conversion of proteins to carbohydrates

9. a. arachidonic acid
   b. induce smooth muscle contraction, lower blood pressure, and contribute to the inflammatory response

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7.1.S: Lipids (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the bold terms in the following summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

Lipids, found in the body tissues of all organisms, are compounds that are more soluble in organic solvents than in water. Many of them contain **fatty acids**, which are carboxylic acids that generally contain an even number of 4–20 carbon atoms in an unbranched chain. **Saturated fatty acids** have no carbon-to-carbon double bonds. **Monounsaturated fatty acids** have a single carbon-to-carbon double bond, while **polyunsaturated fatty acids** have more than one carbon-to-carbon double bond. Linoleic and linolenic acid are known as **essential fatty acids** because the human body cannot synthesize these polyunsaturated fatty acids. The lipids known as **fats** and **oils** are triacylglycerols, more commonly called **triglycerides**—esters composed of three fatty acids joined to the trihydroxy alcohol glycerol. Fats are triglycerides that are solid at room temperature, and oils are triglycerides that are liquid at room temperature. Fats are found mainly in animals, and oils found mainly in plants. *Saturated triglycerides* are those containing a higher proportion of saturated fatty acid chains (fewer carbon-to-carbon double bonds); *unsaturated triglycerides* contain a higher proportion of unsaturated fatty acid chains.

Saponification is the hydrolysis of a triglyceride in a basic solution to form glycerol and three carboxylate anions or soap molecules. Other important reactions are the hydrogenation and oxidation of double bonds in unsaturated fats and oils.

Phospholipids are lipids containing phosphorus. In **phosphoglycerides**, the phosphorus is joined to an amino alcohol unit. Some phosphoglycerides, like lecithins, are used to stabilize an **emulsion**—a dispersion of two liquids that do not normally mix, such as oil and water. **Sphingolipids** are lipids for which the precursor is the amino alcohol sphingosine, rather than glycerol. A **glycolipid** has a sugar substituted at one of the OH groups of either glycerol or sphingosine. All are highly polar lipids found in cell membranes.

Polar lipids have dual characteristics: one part of the molecule is ionic and dissolves in water; the rest has a hydrocarbon structure and dissolves in nonpolar substances. Often, the ionic part is referred to as **hydrophilic** (literally, “water loving”) and the nonpolar part as **hydrophobic** (“water fearing”). When placed in water, polar lipids disperse into any one of three arrangements: *micelles*, *monolayers*, and *bilayers*. **Micelles** are aggregations of molecules in which the hydrocarbon tails of the lipids, being hydrophobic, are directed inward (away from the surrounding water), and the hydrophilic heads that are directed outward into the water. **Bilayers** are double layers arranged so that the hydrophobic tails are sandwiched between the two layers of hydrophilic heads, which remain in contact with the water.

Every living cell is enclosed by a *cell membrane* composed of a lipid bilayer. In animal cells, the bilayer consists mainly of phospholipids, glycolipids, and the steroid cholesterol. Embedded in the bilayer are **integral proteins**, and **peripheral proteins** are loosely associated with the surface of the bilayer. Everything between the cell membrane and the membrane of the cell nucleus is called the **cytoplasm**.

Most lipids can be saponified, but some, such as **steroids**, cannot be saponified. The steroid **cholesterol** is found in animal cells but never in plant cells. It is a main component of all cell membranes and a precursor for hormones, vitamin D, and bile salts. Bile salts are the most important constituents of **bile**, which is a yellowish-green liquid secreted by the gallbladder into the small intestine and is needed for the proper digestion of lipids.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

8: Amines and Amides

8.1: Amines - Structures and Names
8.2: Physical Properties of Amines
8.3: Amines as Bases
8.4: Amides- Structures and Names
8.5: Physical Properties of Amides
8.6: Formation of Amides
8.7: Chemical Properties of Amides- Hydrolysis

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8.1: Amines - Structures and Names

Learning Objectives

- Identify the general structure for an amine.
- Identify the functional group for amines.
- Determine the structural feature that classifies amines as primary, secondary, or tertiary.
- Use nomenclature systems to name amines.

Amines are classified according to the number of carbon atoms bonded directly to the nitrogen atom. A primary (1°) amine has one alkyl (or aryl) group on the nitrogen atom, a secondary (2°) amine has two, and a tertiary (3°) amine has three (Figure 8.1.1).

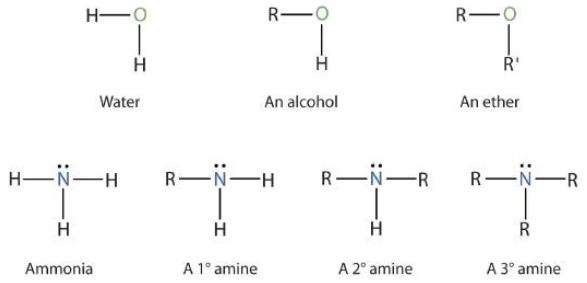


Figure 8.1.1: The Structure of Amines Compared to Water, an Alcohol, and an Ether

To classify alcohols, we look at the number of carbon atoms bonded to the *carbon atom* bearing the OH group, not the oxygen atom itself. Thus, although isopropylamine looks similar to isopropyl alcohol, the former is a *primary* amine, while the latter is a *secondary* alcohol.

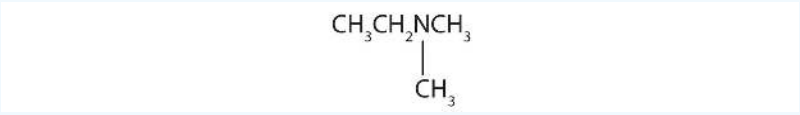


The common names for simple aliphatic amines consist of an alphabetic list of alkyl groups attached to the nitrogen atom, followed by the suffix *-amine*. (Systematic names are often used by some chemists.) The amino group (NH_2) is named as a substituent in more complicated amines, such as those that incorporate other functional groups or in which the alkyl groups cannot be simply named.

Example 8.1.1

Name and classify each compound.

a. $CH_3CH_2CH_2NH_2$

b. 

c. $CH_3CH_2NHCH_2CH_3$

d. $CH_3CH_2CH_2NHCH_3$

Solution

a. There is only one alkyl group attached to the nitrogen atom, so the amine is primary. A group of three carbon atoms (a propyl group) is attached to the NH_2 group through an end carbon atom, so the name is propylamine.

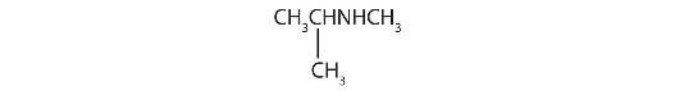
b. There are two methyl groups and one ethyl group on the nitrogen atom. The compound is ethyldimethylamine, a tertiary amine.

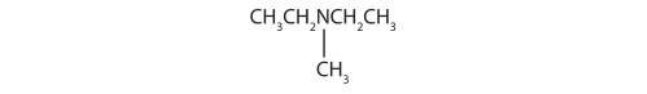
c. There are two ethyl groups attached to the nitrogen atom; the amine is secondary, so the compound is diethylamine.

d. The nitrogen atom has a methyl group and a propyl group, so the compound is methylpropylamine, a secondary amine.

Exercise 8.1.1

Name and classify each compound.

a. 

b. 

c. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2NH_2$

d. $CH_3CH_2CH_2NHCH_2CH_2\ CH_3$

Example 8.1.2

Draw the structure for each compound and classify.

a. isopropyldimethylamine

b. dipropylamine

Solution

a. The name indicates that there are an isopropyl group (in red) and two methyl groups (in green) attached to the nitrogen atom; the amine is tertiary.



b. The name indicates that there are two propyl groups attached to the nitrogen atom; the amine is secondary. (The third bond on the nitrogen atom goes to a hydrogen atom.) $CH_3CH_2CH_2NHCH_2CH_2CH_3$

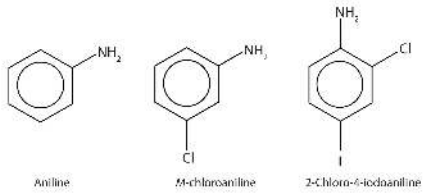
Exercise 8.1.2

Draw the structure for each compound and classify.

a. ethylisopropylamine

b. diethylpropylamine

The primary amine in which the nitrogen atom is attached directly to a benzene ring has a special name—**aniline**. Aryl amines are named as derivatives of aniline.



Example 8.1.3

Name this compound.

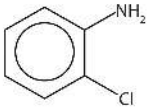


Solution

The benzene ring with an amino (NH_2) group is aniline. The compound is named as a derivative of aniline: 3-bromoaniline or *m*-bromoaniline.

? Exercise 8.1.3

Name this compound.

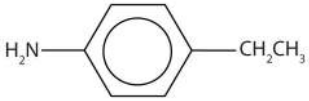


✔ Example 8.1.4

Draw the structure for *p*-ethylaniline and classify.

Solution

The compound is a derivative of aniline. It is a primary amine having an ethyl group located *para* to the amino (NH_2) group.



? Exercise 8.1.4

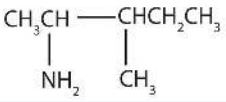
Draw the structure for *p*-isopropylaniline and classify.

✔ Example 8.1.5

Draw the structure for 2-amino-3-methylpentane.

Solution

Always start with the parent compound: draw the pentane chain. Then attach a methyl group at the third carbon atom and an amino group at the second carbon atom.



? Exercise 8.1.5

Draw the structure for 2-amino-3-ethyl-1-chloroheptane.

Ammonium (NH_4^+) ions, in which one or more hydrogen atoms are replaced with alkyl groups, are named in a manner analogous to that used for simple amines. The alkyl groups are named as substituents, and the parent species is regarded as the NH_4^+ ion. For example, $CH_3NH_3^+$ is the methylammonium ion. The ion formed from aniline ($C_6H_5NH_3^+$) is called the anilinium ion.

Example 8.1.6

Name each ion.

a. $CH_3NH_3^+$
b. $(CH_3)_2NH_2^+$
c. $(CH_3)_3NH^+$
d. $(CH_3)_4N^+$

Solution

The ions have one, two, three, and four methyl (CH_3) groups attached to a nitrogen atom. Their names are as follows:

a. methylammonium ion
b. dimethylammonium ion
c. trimethylammonium ion
d. tetramethylammonium ion

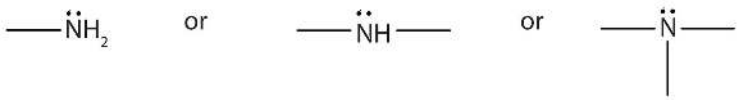
Exercise 8.1.6

Name each ion.

a. $CH_3CH_2NH_3^+$
b. $(CH_3CH_2)_3NH^+$
c. $(CH_3CH_2CH_2)_2NH_2^+$
d. $(CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2)_4N^+$

Summary

An amine is a derivative of ammonia in which one, two, or all three hydrogen atoms are replaced by hydrocarbon groups. The amine functional group is as follows:



Amines are classified as primary, secondary, or tertiary by the number of hydrocarbon groups attached to the nitrogen atom. Amines are named by naming the alkyl groups attached to the nitrogen atom, followed by the suffix *-amine*.

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8.2: Physical Properties of Amines

Learning Objectives

- Explain why the boiling points of primary and secondary amines are higher than those of alkanes or ethers of similar molar mass but are lower than those of alcohols.
- Compare the boiling points of tertiary amines with alcohols, alkanes, and ethers of similar molar mass.
- Compare the solubilities in water of amines of five or fewer carbon atoms with the solubilities of comparable alkanes and alcohols in water.

Primary and secondary amines have hydrogen atoms bonded to an nitrogen atom and are therefore capable of hydrogen bonding (part (a) of Figure 8.2.1), although not as strongly as alcohol molecules (which have hydrogen atoms bonded to an oxygen atom, which is more electronegative than nitrogen). These amines boil at higher temperatures than alkanes but at lower temperatures than alcohols of comparable molar mass. For example, compare the boiling point of methylamine (CH_3NH_2; −6°C) with those of ethane (CH_3CH_3; −89°C) and methanol (CH_3OH; 65°C). Tertiary amines have no hydrogen atom bonded to the nitrogen atom and so cannot participate in intermolecular hydrogen bonding. They have boiling points comparable to those of ethers (Table 8.2.1).

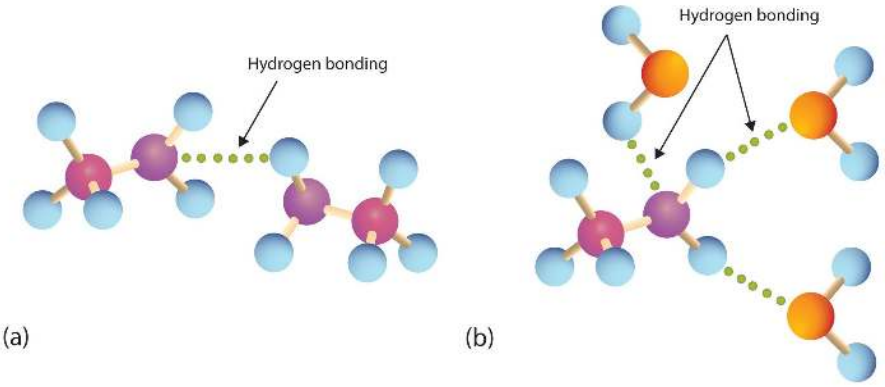


Figure 8.2.1: Hydrogen Bonding. (a) Amine molecules are associated through hydrogen bonding. (b) An amine molecule can form a hydrogen bond with water molecules.

Table 8.2.1: Physical Properties of Some Amines and Comparable Oxygen-Containing Compounds

Name	Condensed Structural Formula	Class	Molar Mass	Boiling Point (°C)	Solubility at 25°C (g/100 g Water)
butylamine	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2NH_2$	1°	73	78	miscible
diethylamine	$(CH_3CH_2)_2NH$	2°	73	55	miscible
butyl alcohol	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$	—	74	118	8
dipropylamine	$(CH_3CH_2CH_2)_2NH$	2°	101	111	4
triethylamine	$(CH_3CH_2)_3N$	3°	101	90	14
dipropyl ether	$(CH_3CH_2CH_2)_2O$	—	102	91	0.25

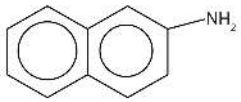
All three classes of amines can engage in hydrogen bonding with water (Figure 8.2.1*b*). Amines of low molar mass are quite soluble in water; the borderline of solubility in water is at five or six carbon atoms.

To Your Health: Amines in Death and Life

Amines have “interesting” odors. The simple ones smell very much like ammonia. Higher aliphatic amines smell like decaying fish. Or perhaps we should put it the other way around: Decaying fish give off odorous amines. The stench of rotting fish is due in part to two diamines: putrescine and cadaverine. They arise from the decarboxylation of ornithine and lysine, respectively, amino acids that are found in animal cells.

$$HOCH_2CH_2OH$$

Aromatic amines generally are quite toxic. They are readily absorbed through the skin, and workers must exercise caution when handling these compounds. Several aromatic amines, including β-naphthylamine, are potent carcinogens.



Key Takeaways

- Primary and secondary amines have higher boiling points than those of alkanes or ethers of similar molar mass because they can engage in intermolecular hydrogen bonding. Their boiling points are lower than those of alcohols because alcohol molecules have hydrogen atoms bonded to an oxygen atom, which is more electronegative.
- The boiling points of tertiary amines, which cannot engage in hydrogen bonding because they have no hydrogen atom on the nitrogen atom, are comparable to those of alkanes and ethers of similar molar mass.
- Because all three classes of amines can engage in hydrogen bonding with water, amines of low molar mass are quite soluble in water.

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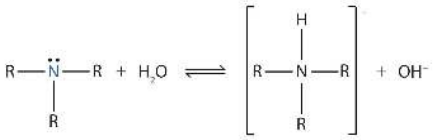
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8.3: Amines as Bases

Learning Objectives

- Name the typical reactions that take place with amines.
- Describe heterocyclic amines.

Recall that ammonia (NH_3) acts as a base because the nitrogen atom has a lone pair of electrons that can accept a proton. Amines also have a lone electron pair on their nitrogen atoms and can accept a proton from water to form substituted ammonium (NH_4^+) ions and hydroxide (OH^-) ions:



As a specific example, methylamine reacts with water to form the methylammonium ion and the OH^- ion.

$$\underset{\text{Methylamine}}{CH_3NH_2(aq)} + H_2O \rightleftharpoons \underset{\text{Methylammonium ion}}{CH_3NH_3^+(aq)} + OH^-(aq)$$

Nearly all amines, including those that are not very soluble in water, will react with strong acids to form salts soluble in water.

$$\underset{\text{Octylamine (insoluble)}}{CH_3(CH_2)_6NH_2(l)} + HNO_3(aq) \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Octylammonium nitrate (soluble)}}{CH_3(CH_2)_6NH_3{}^+NO_3^-(aq)}$$

Amine salts are named like other salts: the name of the cation is followed by the name of the anion.

Example 8.3.1

What are the formulas of the acid and base that react to form $[CH_3NH_2CH_2CH_3]^+CH_3COO^-$?

Solution

The cation has two groups—methyl and ethyl—attached to the nitrogen atom. It comes from ethylmethylamine ($CH_3NHCH_2CH_3$). The anion is the acetate ion. It comes from acetic acid (CH_3COOH).

Exercise 8.3.1

What are the formulas of the acid and base that react to form $(CH_3CH_2CH_2)_3NH^+I^-$?

To Your Health: Amine Salts as Drugs

Salts of aniline are properly named as *anilinium* compounds, but an older system, still in use for naming drugs, identifies the salt of aniline and hydrochloric acid as "aniline hydrochloride." These compounds are ionic—they are salts—and the properties of the compounds (solubility, for example) are those characteristic of salts. Many drugs that are amines are converted to hydrochloride salts to increase their solubility in aqueous solution.

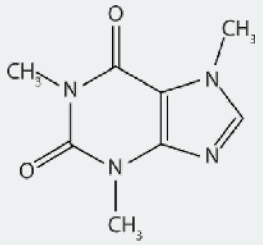
Heterocyclic Amines

Looking back at the various cyclic hydrocarbons discussed previously, we see that all the atoms in the rings of these compounds are carbon atoms. In other cyclic compounds, called **heterocyclic compounds** (Greek *heteros*, meaning "other"), nitrogen, oxygen, sulfur, or some other atom is incorporated in the ring. Many heterocyclic compounds are important in medicine and biochemistry. Some compose part of the structure of the nucleic acids, which in turn compose the genetic material of cells and direct protein synthesis.

Many heterocyclic amines occur naturally in plants. Like other amines, these compounds are basic. Such a compound is an **alkaloid**, a name that means "like alkalis." Many alkaloids are physiologically active, including the familiar drugs caffeine, nicotine, and cocaine.

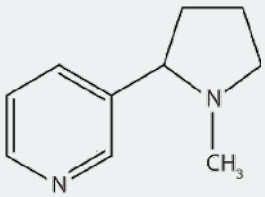
To Your Health: Three Well-Known Alkaloids

Caffeine is a stimulant found in coffee, tea, and some soft drinks. Its mechanism of action is not well understood, but it is thought to block the activity of adenosine, a heterocyclic base that acts as a neurotransmitter, a substance that carries messages across a tiny gap (synapse) from one nerve cell (neuron) to another cell. The effective dose of caffeine is about 200 mg, corresponding to about two cups of strong coffee or tea.



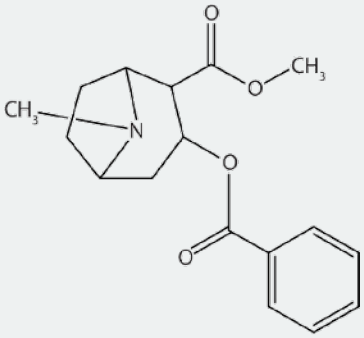
Caffeine

Nicotine acts as a stimulant by a different mechanism; it probably mimics the action of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine. People ingest this drug by smoking or chewing tobacco. Its stimulant effect seems transient, as this initial response is followed by depression. Nicotine is highly toxic to animals. It is especially deadly when injected; the lethal dose for a human is estimated to be about 50 mg. Nicotine has also been used in agriculture as a contact insecticide.



Nicotine

Cocaine acts as a stimulant by preventing nerve cells from taking up dopamine, another neurotransmitter, from the synapse. High levels of dopamine are therefore available to stimulate the pleasure centers of the brain. The enhancement of dopamine action is thought to be responsible for cocaine's "high" and its addictive properties. After the binge, dopamine is depleted in less than an hour. This leaves the user in a pleasureless state and (often) craving more cocaine.



Cocaine

Cocaine is used as the salt cocaine hydrochloride and in the form of broken lumps of the free (unneutralized) base, which is called *crack cocaine*.

$$\underbrace{C_{17}H_{21}O_4N}_{\text{cocaine (freebase)}} + HCl \longrightarrow \underbrace{C_{17}H_{21}O_4NH^+Cl^-}_{\text{cocaine hydrochloride}}$$

> Because it is soluble in water, cocaine hydrochloride is readily absorbed through the watery mucous membranes of the nose when it is snorted. Crack cocaine is more volatile than cocaine hydrochloride. It vaporizes at the temperature of a burning cigarette. When smoked, cocaine reaches the brain in 15 s.

Summary

Amines are bases; they react with acids to form salts. Salts of aniline are properly named as *anilinium* compounds, but an older system is used to name drugs: the salts of amine drugs and hydrochloric acid are called “hydrochlorides.” Heterocyclic amines are cyclic compounds with one or more nitrogen atoms in the ring.

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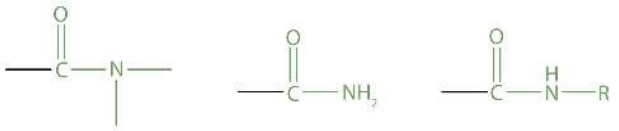
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8.4: Amides- Structures and Names

Learning Objectives

- Identify the general structure for an amide.
- Identify the functional group for an amide.
- Names amides with common names.
- Name amides according to the IUPAC system.

The amide functional group has an nitrogen atom attached to a carbonyl carbon atom. If the two remaining bonds on the nitrogen atom are attached to hydrogen atoms, the compound is a *simple amide*. If one or both of the two remaining bonds on the atom are attached to alkyl or aryl groups, the compound is a *substituted amide*.



The amide group | A simple amide | A substituted amide

The carbonyl carbon-to-nitrogen bond is called an *amide linkage*. This bond is quite stable and is found in the repeating units of protein molecules, where it is called a *peptide linkage*.

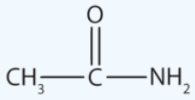
Simple amides are named as derivatives of carboxylic acids. The *-ic* ending of the common name or the *-oic* ending of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) name of the carboxylic acid is replaced with the suffix *-amide*.

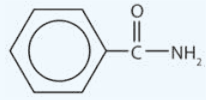


Formic acid (methanoic acid) | Formamide (methanamide)

Example 8.4.1

Name each compound with the common name, the IUPAC name, or both.

a. 

b. 

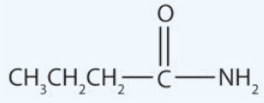
Solution

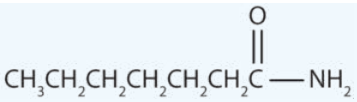
a. This amide has two carbon atoms and is thus derived from acetic acid. The OH of acetic acid is replaced by an NH_2 group. The *-ic* from *acetic* (or *-oic* from ethanoic) is dropped, and *-amide* is added to give *acetamide* (or ethanamide in the IUPAC system).

b. This amide is derived from benzoic acid. The *-oic* is dropped, and *-amide* is added to give benzamide.

Exercise 8.4.1

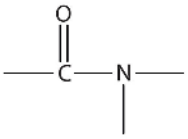
Name each compound with the common name, the IUPAC name, or both.

a. 

b. 

Key Takeaways

- Amides have a general structure in which a nitrogen atom is bonded to a carbonyl carbon atom.
- The functional group for an amide is as follows:



- In names for amides, the *-ic acid* of the common name or the *-oic* ending of the IUPAC for the corresponding carboxylic acid is replaced by *-amide*.

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8.5: Physical Properties of Amides

Learning Objectives

- Compare the boiling points of amides with alcohols of similar molar mass.
- Compare the solubilities in water of amides of five or fewer carbon atoms with the solubilities of comparable alkanes and alcohols in water.

With the exception of formamide ($HCONH_2$), which is a liquid, all simple amides are solids (Table 8.5.1). The lower members of the series are soluble in water, with borderline solubility occurring in those that have five or six carbon atoms. Like the esters, solutions of amides in water usually are neutral—neither acidic nor basic.

Table 8.5.1*: Physical Constants of Some Unsubstituted Amides*

Condensed Structural Formula	Name	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)	Solubility in Water
$HCONH_2$	formamide	2	193	soluble
CH_3CONH_2	acetamide	82	222	soluble
$CH_3CH_2CONH_2$	propionamide	81	213	soluble
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CONH_2$	butyramide	115	216	soluble
$C_6H_5CONH_2$	benzamide	132	290	slightly soluble

The amides generally have high boiling points and melting points. These characteristics and their solubility in water result from the polar nature of the amide group and hydrogen bonding (Figure 8.5.1). (Similar hydrogen bonding plays a critical role in determining the structure and properties of proteins, deoxyribonucleic acid [DNA], ribonucleic acid [RNA], and other giant molecules so important to life processes.

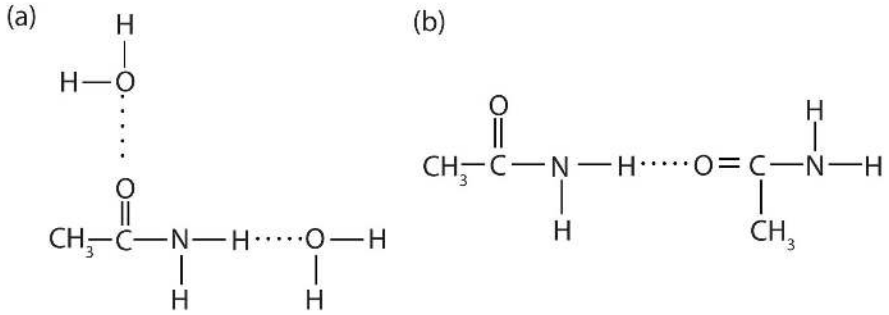


Figure 8.5.1: Hydrogen Bonding in Amides. Amide molecules can engage in hydrogen bonding with water molecules (a). Those amides with a hydrogen atom on the nitrogen atom can also engage in hydrogen bonding (b). Both hydrogen bonding networks extend in all directions.

Key Takeaways

- Most amides are solids at room temperature; the boiling points of amides are much higher than those of alcohols of similar molar mass.
- Amides of five or fewer carbon atoms are soluble in water?.

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8.6: Formation of Amides

Learning Objectives

- To describe the preparation procedure for amides.

The addition of ammonia (NH_3) to a carboxylic acid forms an amide, but the reaction is very slow in the laboratory at room temperature. Water molecules are split out, and a bond is formed between the nitrogen atom and the carbonyl carbon atom.

$$\underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{CH_3COOH} + NH_3 \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Acetamide}}{CH_3CONH_2} + H_2O$$

In living cells, amide formation is catalyzed by enzymes. Proteins are polyamides; they are formed by joining amino acids into long chains. In proteins, the amide functional group is called a *peptide bond*.

Polyamides

Just as the reaction of a diol and a diacid forms a polyester, the reaction of a diacid and a diamine yields a polyamide. The two difunctional monomers often employed are adipic acid and 1,6-hexanediamine. The monomers condense by splitting out water to form a new product, which is still difunctional and thus can react further to yield a polyamide polymer.

$$\underset{\text{1,6-Hexanediamine}}{n\,H_2NCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2NH_2} + \underset{\text{Adipic acid}}{n\,HOOCCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH} \longrightarrow$$

$$\underset{\text{Nylon 66 (a polyamide)}}{-\!\!-HN[COCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CONHCH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2NH]_n CO-\!\!-} + 2n\,H_2O$$

Some polyamides are known as *nylons*. Nylons are among the most widely used synthetic fibers—for example, they are used in ropes, sails, carpets, clothing, tires, brushes, and parachutes. They also can be molded into blocks for use in electrical equipment, gears, bearings, and valves.

Key Takeaway

- Amides are prepared by the reaction of a carboxylic acid with ammonia or an amine.

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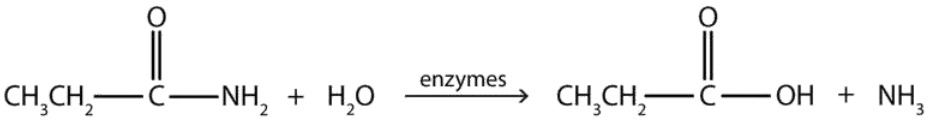
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8.7: Chemical Properties of Amides- Hydrolysis

Learning Objectives

- To identify the typical reaction that amides undergo.

Generally, amides resist hydrolysis in plain water, even after prolonged heating. In the presence of added acid or base, however, hydrolysis proceeds at a moderate rate. In living cells, amide hydrolysis is catalyzed by enzymes. Amide hydrolysis is illustrated in the following example:



> *Hydrolysis of an amide in acid solution actually gives a carboxylic acid and the salt of ammonia or an amine (the ammonia or amine initially formed is neutralized by the acid). Basic hydrolysis gives a salt of the carboxylic acid and ammonia or an amine.*

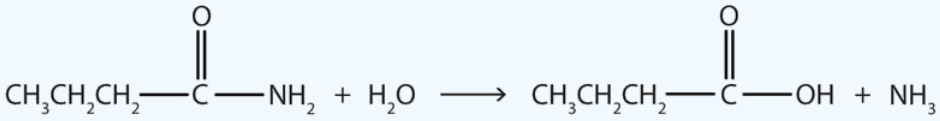
Example 8.7.1

Write the equation for the hydrolysis of each compound.

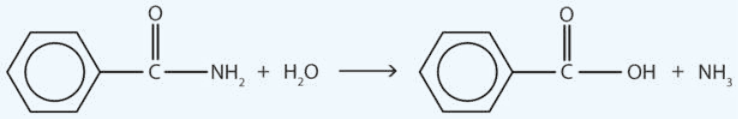
a. butyramide
b. benzamide

Solution

a. The hydrolysis of a simple amide produces an organic acid and ammonia. Butyramide thus yields butyric acid and ammonia.



- The hydrolysis of an amide produces an organic acid and ammonia. Benzamide thus yields benzoic acid and ammonia.



Exercise 8.7.1

Write the equation for the hydrolysis of each compound.

a. propionamide (propanamide)
b. hexanamide

Career Focus: Athletic Trainer

Athletic training is an allied health-care profession recognized by the American Medical Association. The athletic trainer's role is to recognize, evaluate, and provide immediate care for athletic injuries; prevent athletic injuries by taping, bandaging, and bracing vulnerable body parts; make referrals to medical doctors when necessary; and rehabilitate injured athletes. Athletic trainers work in high schools, colleges, and other organizations where athletics programs are found. Athletic trainers usually have a degree from an accredited athletic training program whose curriculum includes such basic science courses as biology, chemistry, and physics. These studies provide the necessary background for more applied courses, such as anatomy and

physiology, exercise physiology, kinesiology, and nutrition. Knowledge of chemistry is necessary for understanding pharmacological and medical terminology. For example, athletic trainers must understand the action of numerous drugs, many of which are esters, amines, or amides like those mentioned in this chapter.

Athletic trainers may have administrative duties, such as the responsibility for ordering supplies. They also need to be able to evaluate nutritional supplements because providing the wrong one can get an athlete banned from competition and may bring sanctions against a school. In short, the athletic trainer is responsible for the overall health and well-being of the athletes in his or her charge.

Key Takeaway

- The hydrolysis of an amide produces a carboxylic acid and ammonia or an amine.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

9: Amino Acids and Proteins

9.1: Prelude to Amino Acids, Proteins, and Enzymes
9.2: Properties of Amino Acids
9.3: Reactions of Amino Acids
9.4: Peptides
9.5: Proteins

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9.1: Prelude to Amino Acids, Proteins, and Enzymes

The 1923 Nobel Prize in Medicine or Physiology was awarded to Frederick Grant Banting and John James Richard Macleod for their discovery of the protein *insulin*. In 1958, the Nobel Prize in Chemistry was awarded to Frederick Sanger for his discoveries concerning the structure of proteins and, in particular, the structure of insulin. What is so important about insulin that two Nobel Prizes have been awarded for work on this protein?

Insulin is a hormone that is synthesized in the pancreas. Insulin stimulates the transport of glucose into cells throughout the body and the storage of glucose as glycogen. People with diabetes do not produce insulin or use it properly. The isolation of insulin in 1921 led to the first effective treatment for these individuals.



Figure 9.1.1: Insulin pump, showing an infusion set loaded into spring-loaded insertion device. A reservoir is attached to the infusion set (shown here removed from the pump). (Public Domain; User:David-i98).

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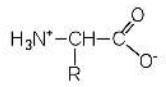
9.2: Properties of Amino Acids

Learning Objectives

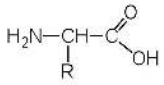
- To recognize amino acids and classify them based on the characteristics of their side chains.

The proteins in all living species, from bacteria to humans, are constructed from the same set of 20 amino acids, so called because each contains an amino group attached to a carboxylic acid. The amino acids in proteins are α-amino acids, which means the amino group is attached to the α-carbon of the carboxylic acid. Humans can synthesize only about half of the needed amino acids; the remainder must be obtained from the diet and are known as essential amino acids. However, two additional amino acids have been found in limited quantities in proteins: Selenocysteine was discovered in 1986, while pyrrolysine was discovered in 2002.

The amino acids are colorless, nonvolatile, crystalline solids, melting and decomposing at temperatures above 200°C. These melting temperatures are more like those of inorganic salts than those of amines or organic acids and indicate that the structures of the amino acids in the solid state and in neutral solution are best represented as having both a negatively charged group and a positively charged group. Such a species is known as a zwitterion.



α-Amino acid drawn as a zwitterion

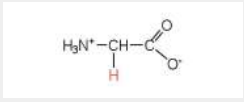
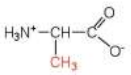
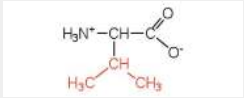
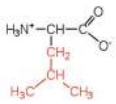


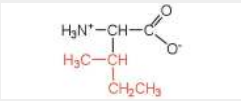
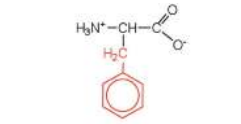
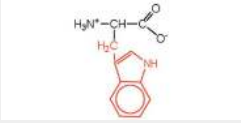
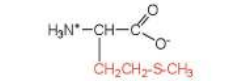
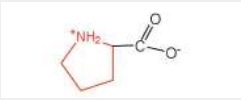
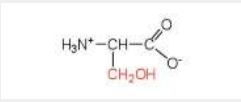
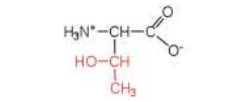
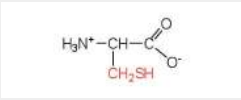
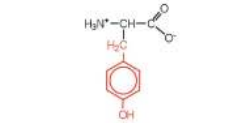
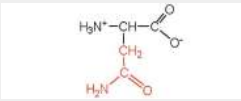
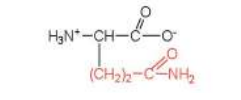
α-Amino acid drawn as an uncharged molecule; not an accurate respresentation of amino acid structure

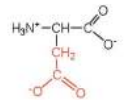
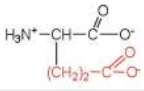
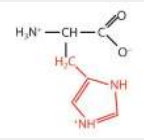
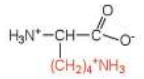
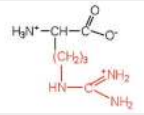
Classification

In addition to the amino and carboxyl groups, amino acids have a side chain or R group attached to the α-carbon. Each amino acid has unique characteristics arising from the size, shape, solubility, and ionization properties of its R group. As a result, the side chains of amino acids exert a profound effect on the structure and biological activity of proteins. Although amino acids can be classified in various ways, one common approach is to classify them according to whether the functional group on the side chain at neutral pH is nonpolar, polar but uncharged, negatively charged, or positively charged. The structures and names of the 20 amino acids, their one- and three-letter abbreviations, and some of their distinctive features are given in Table 9.2.1.

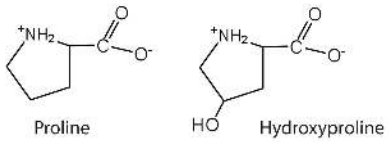
Table 9.2.1: Common Amino Acids Found in Proteins

Common Name	Abbreviation	Structural Formula (at pH 6)	Molar Mass	Distinctive Feature
Amino acids with a nonpolar R group				
glycine	gly (G)		75	the only amino acid lacking a chiral carbon
alanine	ala (A)		89	—
valine	val (V)		117	a branched-chain amino acid
leucine	leu (L)		131	a branched-chain amino acid

Common Name	Abbreviation	Structural Formula (at pH 6)	Molar Mass	Distinctive Feature
isoleucine	ile (I)		131	an essential amino acid because most animals cannot synthesize branched-chain amino acids
phenylalanine	phe (F)		165	also classified as an aromatic amino acid
tryptophan	trp (W)		204	also classified as an aromatic amino acid
methionine	met (M)		149	side chain functions as a methyl group donor
proline	pro (P)		115	contains a secondary amine group; referred to as an *α-imino acid*
Amino acids with a polar but neutral R group				
serine	ser (S)		105	found at the active site of many enzymes
threonine	thr (T)		119	named for its similarity to the sugar threose
cysteine	cys (C)		121	oxidation of two cysteine molecules yields *cystine*
tyrosine	tyr (Y)		181	also classified as an aromatic amino acid
asparagine	asn (N)		132	the amide of aspartic acid
glutamine	gln (Q)		146	the amide of glutamic acid
Amino acids with a negatively charged R group				

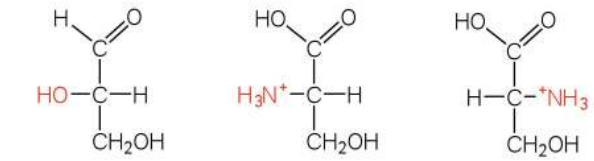
Common Name	Abbreviation	Structural Formula (at pH 6)	Molar Mass	Distinctive Feature
aspartic acid	asp (D)		132	carboxyl groups are ionized at physiological pH; also known as aspartate
glutamic acid	glu (E)		146	carboxyl groups are ionized at physiological pH; also known as glutamate
Amino acids with a positively charged R group				
histidine	his (H)		155	the only amino acid whose R group has a pK_a (6.0) near physiological pH
lysine	lys (K)		147	—
arginine	arg (R)		175	almost as strong a base as sodium hydroxide

The first amino acid to be isolated was asparagine in 1806. It was obtained from protein found in asparagus juice (hence the name). Glycine, the major amino acid found in gelatin, was named for its sweet taste (Greek *glykys*, meaning “sweet”). In some cases an amino acid found in a protein is actually a derivative of one of the common 20 amino acids (one such derivative is hydroxyproline). The modification occurs *after* the amino acid has been assembled into a protein.



Configuration

Notice in Table 9.2.1 that glycine is the only amino acid whose α-carbon is *not* chiral. Therefore, with the exception of glycine, the amino acids could theoretically exist in either the D- or the L-enantiomeric form and rotate plane-polarized light. As with sugars, chemists used L-glyceraldehyde as the reference compound for the assignment of absolute configuration to amino acids. Its structure closely resembles an amino acid structure except that in the latter, an amino group takes the place of the OH group on the chiral carbon of the L-glyceraldehyde and a carboxylic acid replaces the aldehyde. Modern stereochemistry assignments using the Cahn-Ingold-Prelog priority rules used ubiquitously in chemistry show that all of the naturally occurring chiral amino acids are S except Cys which is R.



L–(–)–Glyceraldehyde L–Amino acid D–Amino acid

We learned that all naturally occurring sugars belong to the D series. It is interesting, therefore, that nearly all known plant and animal proteins are composed entirely of L-amino acids. However, certain bacteria contain D-amino acids in their cell walls, and several antibiotics (e.g., actinomycin D and the gramicidins) contain varying amounts of D-leucine, D-phenylalanine, and D-valine.

Summary

Amino acids can be classified based on the characteristics of their distinctive side chains as nonpolar, polar but uncharged, negatively charged, or positively charged. The amino acids found in proteins are L-amino acids.

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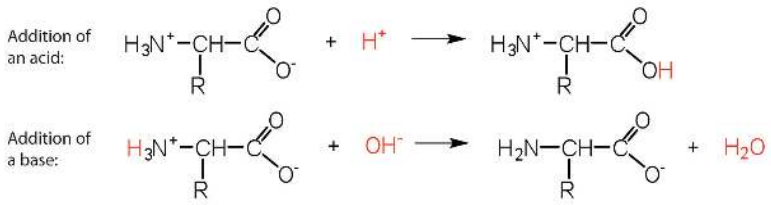
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9.3: Reactions of Amino Acids

Learning Objectives

- To explain how an amino acid can act as both an acid and a base.

The structure of an amino acid allows it to act as both an acid and a base. An amino acid has this ability because at a certain pH value (different for each amino acid) nearly all the amino acid molecules exist as zwitterions. If acid is added to a solution containing the zwitterion, the carboxylate group captures a hydrogen (H^+) ion, and the amino acid becomes positively charged. If base is added, ion removal of the H^+ ion from the amino group of the zwitterion produces a negatively charged amino acid. In both circumstances, the amino acid acts to maintain the pH of the system—that is, to remove the added acid (H^+) or base (OH^-) from solution.

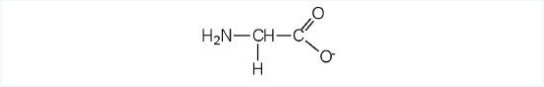


Example 9.3.1

a. Draw the structure for the anion formed when glycine (at neutral pH) reacts with a base.
b. Draw the structure for the cation formed when glycine (at neutral pH) reacts with an acid.

Solution

a. The base removes H^+ from the protonated amine group.



- The acid adds H^+ to the carboxylate group.



Exercise 9.3.1

a. Draw the structure for the cation formed when valine (at neutral pH) reacts with an acid.
b. Draw the structure for the anion formed when valine (at neutral pH) reacts with a base.

The particular pH at which a given amino acid exists in solution as a zwitterion is called the isoelectric point (pI). At its pI, the positive and negative charges on the amino acid balance, and the molecule as a whole is electrically neutral. The amino acids whose side chains are always neutral have isoelectric points ranging from 5.0 to 6.5. The basic amino acids (which have positively charged side chains at neutral pH) have relatively high examples. Acidic amino acids (which have negatively charged side chains at neutral pH) have quite low examples (Table 9.3.1).

Table 9.3.1: ExampIes of Some Representative Amino Acids

Amino Acid	Classification	pI
alanine	nonpolar	6.0
valine	nonpolar	6.0
serine	polar, uncharged	5.7

Amino Acid	Classification	pI
threonine	polar, uncharged	6.5
arginine	positively charged (basic)	10.8
histidine	positively charged (basic)	7.6
lysine	positively charged (basic)	9.8
aspartic acid	negatively charged (acidic)	3.0
glutamic acid	negatively charged (acidic)	3.2

Amino acids undergo reactions characteristic of carboxylic acids and amines. The reactivity of these functional groups is particularly important in linking amino acids together to form peptides and proteins, as you will see later in this chapter. Simple chemical tests that are used to detect amino acids take advantage of the reactivity of these functional groups. An example is the ninhydrin test in which the amine functional group of α-amino acids reacts with ninhydrin to form purple-colored compounds. Ninhydrin is used to detect fingerprints because it reacts with amino acids from the proteins in skin cells transferred to the surface by the individual leaving the fingerprint.



Ninhydrin



Summary

Amino acids can act as both an acid and a base due to the presence of the amino and carboxyl functional groups. The pH at which a given amino acid exists in solution as a zwitterion is called the *isoelectric point* (pI).

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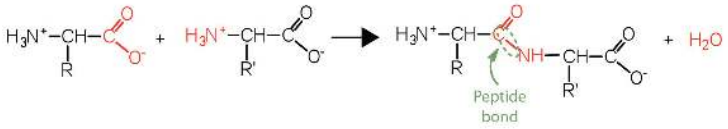
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9.4: Peptides

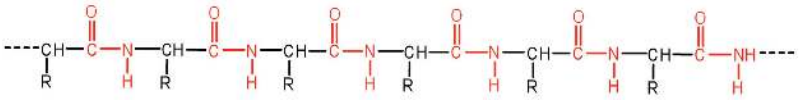
Learning Objectives

- Explain how a peptide is formed from individual amino acids.
- Explain why the sequence of amino acids in a protein is important.

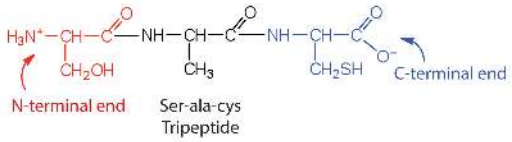
Two or more amino acids can join together into chains called peptides. Previously, we discussed the reaction between ammonia and a carboxylic acid to form an amide. In a similar reaction, the amino group on one amino acid molecule reacts with the carboxyl group on another, releasing a molecule of water and forming an amide linkage:



An amide bond joining two amino acid units is called a peptide bond. Note that the product molecule still has a reactive amino group on the left and a reactive carboxyl group on the right. These can react with additional amino acids to lengthen the peptide. The process can continue until thousands of units have joined, resulting in large proteins.



A chain consisting of only two amino acid units is called a *dipeptide*; a chain consisting of three is a *tripeptide*. By convention, peptide and protein structures are depicted with the amino acid whose amino group is free (the N-terminal end) on the left and the amino acid with a free carboxyl group (the C-terminal end) to the right.



The general term *peptide* refers to an amino acid chain of unspecified length. However, chains of about 50 amino acids or more are usually called proteins or polypeptides. In its physiologically active form, a protein may be composed of one or more polypeptide chains.

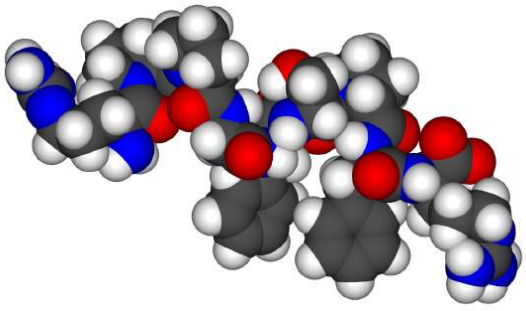


Figure 9.4.1: Space-filling model of bradykinin. (Public Domain; Fvasconcellos)

For peptides and proteins to be physiologically active, it is not enough that they incorporate certain amounts of specific amino acids. The order, or *sequence*, in which the amino acids are connected is also of critical importance. Bradykinin is a nine-amino acid peptide (Figure 9.4.1) produced in the blood that has the following amino acid sequence:

arg-pro-pro-gly-phe-ser-pro-phe-arg

This peptide lowers blood pressure, stimulates smooth muscle tissue, increases capillary permeability, and causes pain. When the order of amino acids in bradykinin is reversed,

arg-phe-pro-ser-phe-gly-pro-pro-arg

the peptide resulting from this synthesis shows none of the activity of bradykinin.

Just as millions of different words are spelled with our 26-letter English alphabet, millions of different proteins are made with the 20 common amino acids. However, just as the English alphabet can be used to write gibberish, amino acids can be put together in the *wrong sequence* to produce nonfunctional proteins. Although the correct sequence is ordinarily of utmost importance, it is not always absolutely required. Just as you can sometimes make sense of incorrectly spelled English words, a protein with a small percentage of “incorrect” amino acids may continue to function. However, it rarely functions as well as a protein having the correct sequence. There are also instances in which seemingly minor errors of sequence have disastrous effects. For example, in some people, every molecule of hemoglobin (a protein in the blood that transports oxygen) has a single incorrect amino acid unit out of about 300 (a single valine replaces a glutamic acid). That “minor” error is responsible for sickle cell anemia, an inherited condition that usually is fatal.

Summary

The amino group of one amino acid can react with the carboxyl group on another amino acid to form a peptide bond that links the two amino acids together. Additional amino acids can be added on through the formation of addition peptide (amide) bonds. A sequence of amino acids in a peptide or protein is written with the N-terminal amino acid first and the C-terminal amino acid at the end (writing left to right).

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9.5: Proteins

Learning Objectives

- Describe the four levels of protein structure.
- Identify the types of attractive interactions that hold proteins in their most stable three-dimensional structure.
- Explain what happens when proteins are denatured.
- Identify how a protein can be denatured.

Each of the thousands of naturally occurring proteins has its own characteristic amino acid composition and sequence that result in a unique three-dimensional shape. Since the 1950s, scientists have determined the amino acid sequences and three-dimensional conformation of numerous proteins and thus obtained important clues on how each protein performs its specific function in the body.

Proteins are compounds of high molar mass consisting largely or entirely of chains of amino acids. Because of their great complexity, protein molecules cannot be classified on the basis of specific structural similarities, as carbohydrates and lipids are categorized. The two major structural classifications of proteins are based on far more general qualities: whether the protein is (1) fiberlike and insoluble or (2) globular and soluble. Some proteins, such as those that compose hair, skin, muscles, and connective tissue, are fiberlike. These fibrous proteins are insoluble in water and usually serve structural, connective, and protective functions. Examples of fibrous proteins are keratins, collagens, myosins, and elastins. Hair and the outer layer of skin are composed of keratin. Connective tissues contain collagen. Myosins are muscle proteins and are capable of contraction and extension. Elastins are found in ligaments and the elastic tissue of artery walls.

Globular proteins, the other major class, are soluble in aqueous media. In these proteins, the chains are folded so that the molecule as a whole is roughly spherical. Familiar examples include egg albumin from egg whites and serum albumin in blood. Serum albumin plays a major role in transporting fatty acids and maintaining a proper balance of osmotic pressures in the body. Hemoglobin and myoglobin, which are important for binding oxygen, are also globular proteins.

Levels of Protein Structure

The structure of proteins is generally described as having four organizational levels. The first of these is the primary structure, which is the number and sequence of amino acids in a protein's polypeptide chain or chains, beginning with the free amino group and maintained by the peptide bonds connecting each amino acid to the next. The primary structure of insulin, composed of 51 amino acids, is shown in Figure 9.5.1.

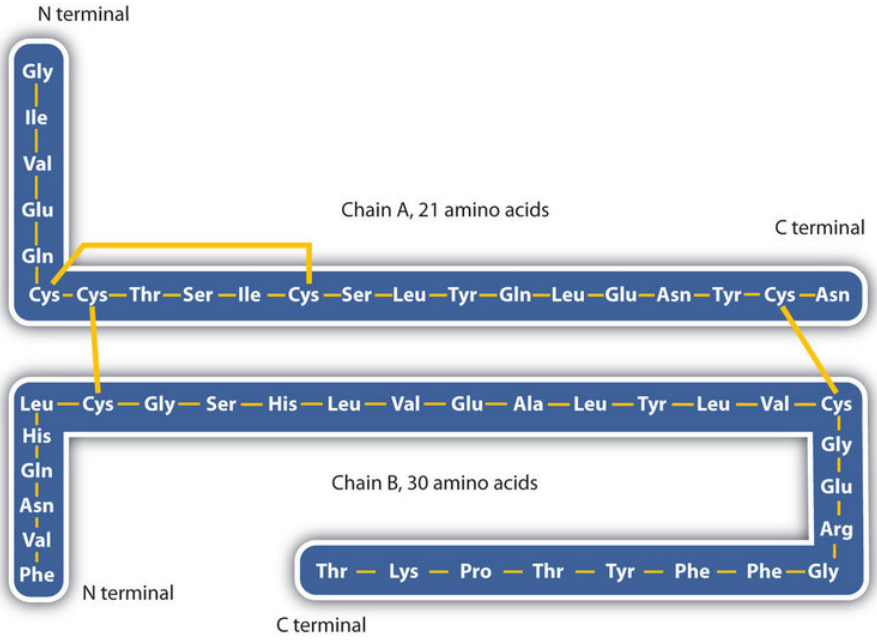


Figure 9.5.1: Primary Structure of Human Insulin. Human insulin, whose amino acid sequence is shown here, is a hormone that is required for the proper metabolism of glucose.

A protein molecule is not a random tangle of polypeptide chains. Instead, the chains are arranged in unique but specific conformations. The term secondary structure refers to the fixed arrangement of the polypeptide backbone. On the basis of X ray studies, Linus Pauling and Robert Corey postulated that certain proteins or portions of proteins twist into a spiral or a helix. This helix is stabilized by *intrachain* hydrogen bonding between the carbonyl oxygen atom of one amino acid and the amide hydrogen atom four amino acids up the chain (located on the next turn of the helix) and is known as a right-handed α-helix. X ray data indicate that this helix makes one turn for every 3.6 amino acids, and the side chains of these amino acids project outward from the coiled backbone (Figure 9.5.2). The α-keratins, found in hair and wool, are exclusively α-helical in conformation. Some proteins, such as gamma globulin, chymotrypsin, and cytochrome c, have little or no helical structure. Others, such as hemoglobin and myoglobin, are helical in certain regions but not in others.

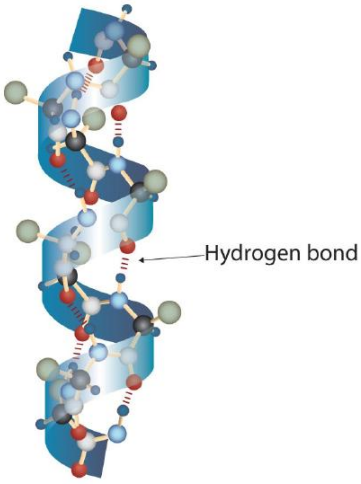


Figure 9.5.2 A Ball-and-Stick Model of an α-Helix. This ball-and-stick model shows the intrachain hydrogen bonding between carbonyl oxygen atoms and amide hydrogen atoms. Each turn of the helix spans 3.6 amino acids. Note that the side chains (represented as green spheres) point out from the helix.

Another common type of secondary structure, called the *β-pleated sheet conformation*, is a sheetlike arrangement in which two or more extended polypeptide chains (or separate regions on the same chain) are aligned side by side. The aligned segments can run either parallel or antiparallel—that is, the N-terminals can face in the same direction on adjacent chains or in different directions—and are connected by *interchain* hydrogen bonding (Figure 9.5.3). The β-pleated sheet is particularly important in structural proteins, such as silk fibroin. It is also seen in portions of many enzymes, such as carboxypeptidase A and lysozyme.

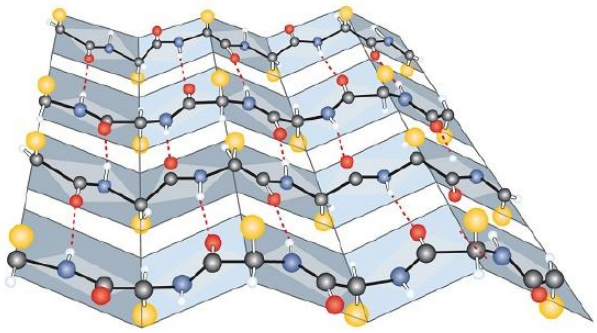


Figure 9.5.3: A Ball-and-Stick Model of the β-Pleated Sheet Structure in Proteins. The side chains extend above or below the sheet and alternate along the chain. The protein chains are held together by interchain hydrogen bonding.

Tertiary structure refers to the unique three-dimensional shape of the protein as a whole, which results from the folding and bending of the protein backbone. The tertiary structure is intimately tied to the proper biochemical functioning of the protein. Figure 9.5.4 shows a depiction of the three-dimensional structure of insulin.

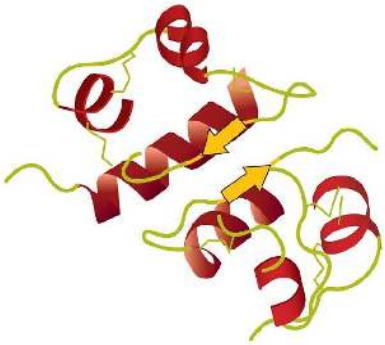
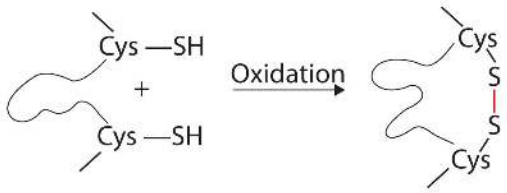


Figure 9.5.4: A Ribbon Model of the Three-Dimensional Structure of Insulin. The spiral regions represent sections of the polypeptide chain that have an α-helical structure, while the broad arrows represent β-pleated sheet structures.

Four major types of attractive interactions determine the shape and stability of the tertiary structure of proteins. You studied several of them previously.

1. Ionic bonding. Ionic bonds result from electrostatic attractions between positively and negatively charged side chains of amino acids. For example, the mutual attraction between an aspartic acid carboxylate ion and a lysine ammonium ion helps to maintain a particular folded area of a protein (part (a) of Figure 9.5.5).
2. Hydrogen bonding. Hydrogen bonding forms between a highly electronegative oxygen atom or a nitrogen atom and a hydrogen atom attached to another oxygen atom or a nitrogen atom, such as those found in polar amino acid side chains. Hydrogen bonding (as well as ionic attractions) is extremely important in both the intra- and intermolecular interactions of proteins (part (b) of Figure 9.5.5).
3. Disulfide linkages. Two cysteine amino acid units may be brought close together as the protein molecule folds. Subsequent oxidation and linkage of the sulfur atoms in the highly reactive sulfhydryl (SH) groups leads to the formation of cystine (part (c) of Figure 9.5.5). Intrachain disulfide linkages are found in many proteins, including insulin (yellow bars in Figure 9.5.1) and have a strong stabilizing effect on the tertiary structure.



4. Dispersion forces. Dispersion forces arise when a normally nonpolar atom becomes momentarily polar due to an uneven distribution of electrons, leading to an instantaneous dipole that induces a shift of electrons in a neighboring nonpolar atom. Dispersion forces are weak but can be important when other types of interactions are either missing or minimal (part (d) of

Figure 9.5.5). This is the case with fibroin, the major protein in silk, in which a high proportion of amino acids in the protein have nonpolar side chains. The term *hydrophobic interaction* is often misused as a synonym for dispersion forces. Hydrophobic interactions arise because water molecules engage in hydrogen bonding with other water molecules (or groups in proteins capable of hydrogen bonding). Because nonpolar groups cannot engage in hydrogen bonding, the protein folds in such a way that these groups are buried in the interior part of the protein structure, minimizing their contact with water.

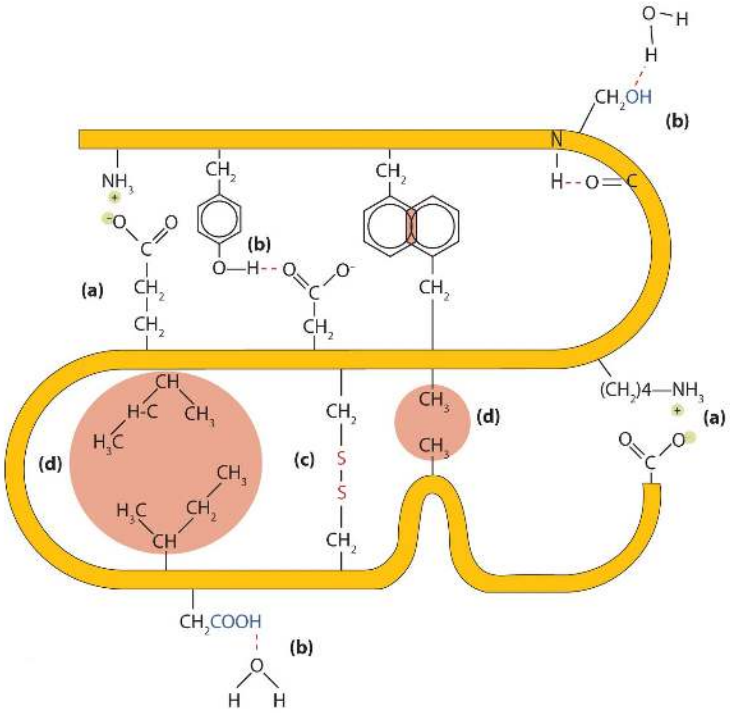


Figure 9.5.5: Tertiary Protein Structure Interactions. Four interactions stabilize the tertiary structure of a protein: (a) ionic bonding, (b) hydrogen bonding, (c) disulfide linkages, and (d) dispersion forces.

When a protein contains more than one polypeptide chain, each chain is called a *subunit*. The arrangement of multiple subunits represents a fourth level of structure, the quaternary structure of a protein. Hemoglobin, with four polypeptide chains or subunits, is the most frequently cited example of a protein having quaternary structure (Figure 9.5.6). The quaternary structure of a protein is produced and stabilized by the same kinds of interactions that produce and maintain the tertiary structure. A schematic representation of the four levels of protein structure is in Figure 9.5.7.



Figure 9.5.6 The Quaternary Structure of Hemoglobin. Hemoglobin is a protein that transports oxygen throughout the body.

Source: Image from the RCSB PDB (www.pdb.org(opens in new window)) of PDB ID 1I3D (R.D. Kidd, H.M. Baker, A.J. Mathews, T. Brittain, E.N. Baker (2001) Oligomerization and ligand binding in a homotetrameric hemoglobin: two high-resolution

crystal structures of hemoglobin Bart's (gamma(4)), a marker for alpha-thalassemia. Protein Sci. 1739–1749).

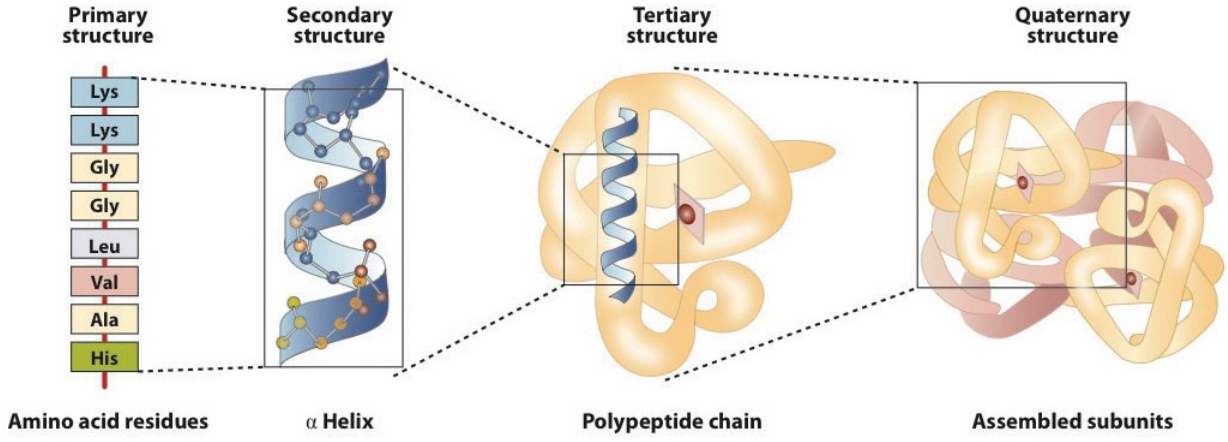


Figure 9.5.7: Levels of Structure in Proteins

The *primary structure* consists of the specific amino acid sequence. The resulting peptide chain can twist into an α-helix, which is one type of *secondary structure*. This helical segment is incorporated into the *tertiary structure* of the folded polypeptide chain. The single polypeptide chain is a subunit that constitutes the *quaternary structure* of a protein, such as hemoglobin that has four polypeptide chains.

Denaturation of Proteins

The highly organized structures of proteins are truly masterworks of chemical architecture. But highly organized structures tend to have a certain delicacy, and this is true of proteins. Denaturation is the term used for any change in the three-dimensional structure of a protein that renders it incapable of performing its assigned function. A denatured protein cannot do its job. (Sometimes denaturation is equated with the precipitation or coagulation of a protein; our definition is a bit broader.) A wide variety of reagents and conditions, such as heat, organic compounds, pH changes, and heavy metal ions can cause protein denaturation (Figure 9.5.1).

Figure 9.5.1: Protein Denaturation Methods

Method	Effect on Protein Structure
Heat above 50°C or ultraviolet (UV) radiation	Heat or UV radiation supplies kinetic energy to protein molecules, causing their atoms to vibrate more rapidly and disrupting relatively weak hydrogen bonding and dispersion forces.
Use of organic compounds, such as ethyl alcohol	These compounds are capable of engaging in intermolecular hydrogen bonding with protein molecules, disrupting intramolecular hydrogen bonding within the protein.
Salts of heavy metal ions, such as mercury, silver, and lead	These ions form strong bonds with the carboxylate anions of the acidic amino acids or SH groups of cysteine, disrupting ionic bonds and disulfide linkages.
Alkaloid reagents, such as tannic acid (used in tanning leather)	These reagents combine with positively charged amino groups in proteins to disrupt ionic bonds.

Anyone who has fried an egg has observed denaturation. The clear egg white turns opaque as the albumin denatures and coagulates. No one has yet reversed that process. However, given the proper circumstances and enough time, a protein that has unfolded under sufficiently gentle conditions can refold and may again exhibit biological activity (Figure 9.5.8). Such evidence suggests that, at least for these proteins, the primary structure determines the secondary and tertiary structure. A given sequence of amino acids seems to adopt its particular three-dimensional arrangement naturally if conditions are right.

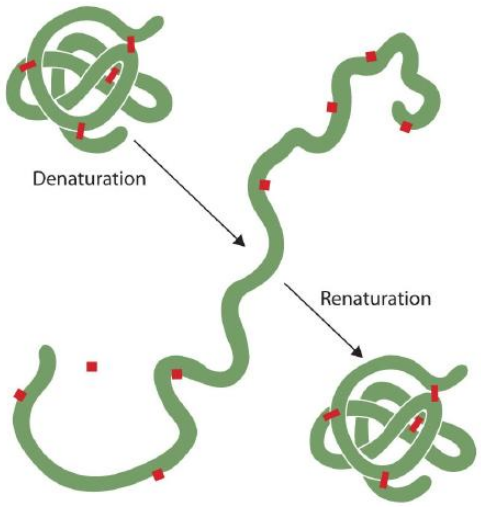


Figure 9.5.8: Denaturation and Renaturation of a Protein. The denaturation (unfolding) and renaturation (refolding) of a protein is depicted. The red boxes represent stabilizing interactions, such as disulfide linkages, hydrogen bonding, and/or ionic bonds.

The primary structures of proteins are quite sturdy. In general, fairly vigorous conditions are needed to hydrolyze peptide bonds. At the secondary through quaternary levels, however, proteins are quite vulnerable to attack, though they vary in their vulnerability to denaturation. The delicately folded globular proteins are much easier to denature than are the tough, fibrous proteins of hair and skin.

Summary

Proteins can be divided into two categories: fibrous, which tend to be insoluble in water, and globular, which are more soluble in water. A protein may have up to four levels of structure. The primary structure consists of the specific amino acid sequence. The resulting peptide chain can form an α-helix or β-pleated sheet (or local structures not as easily categorized), which is known as secondary structure. These segments of secondary structure are incorporated into the tertiary structure of the folded polypeptide chain. The quaternary structure describes the arrangements of subunits in a protein that contains more than one subunit. Four major types of attractive interactions determine the shape and stability of the folded protein: ionic bonding, hydrogen bonding, disulfide linkages, and dispersion forces. A wide variety of reagents and conditions can cause a protein to unfold or denature.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

10: Enzymes and Vitamins

10.1: Enzymes
10.2: Enzyme Action
10.3: Enzyme Activity
10.4: Enzyme Inhibition
10.5: Enzyme Cofactors and Vitamins

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10.1: Enzymes

Learning Objectives

- Explain the functions of enzymes.
- Explain how enzymes are classified and named.

A catalyst is any substance that increases the *rate* or speed of a chemical reaction without being changed or consumed in the reaction. Enzymes are biological catalysts, and nearly all of them are proteins. The reaction rates attained by enzymes are truly amazing. In their presence, reactions occur at rates that are a million (10^6) or more times faster than would be attainable in their absence. What is even more amazing is that enzymes perform this function at body temperature (~37°C) and physiological pH (pH ~7), rather than at the conditions that are typically necessary to increase reaction rates (high temperature or pressure, the use of strong oxidizing or reducing agents or strong acids or bases, or a combination of any of these). In addition, enzymes are highly specific in their action; that is, each enzyme catalyzes only one type of reaction in only one compound or a group of structurally related compounds. The compound or compounds on which an enzyme acts are known as its substrates.

Hundreds of enzymes have been purified and studied in an effort to understand how they work so effectively and with such specificity. The resulting knowledge has been used to design drugs that inhibit or activate particular enzymes. An example is the intensive research to improve the treatment of or find a cure for acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). AIDS is caused by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). Researchers are studying the enzymes produced by this virus and are developing drugs intended to block the action of those enzymes without interfering with enzymes produced by the human body. Several of these drugs have now been approved for use by AIDS patients.

Table 10.1.1: Classes of Enzymes

Class	Type of Reaction Catalyzed	Examples
oxidoreductases	oxidation-reduction reactions	Dehydrogenases catalyze oxidation-reduction reactions involving hydrogen and reductases catalyze reactions in which a substrate is reduced.
transferases	transfer reactions of groups, such as methyl, amino, and acetyl	Transaminases catalyze the transfer of amino group, and kinases catalyze the transfer of a phosphate group.
hydrolases	hydrolysis reactions	Lipases catalyze the hydrolysis of lipids, and proteases catalyze the hydrolysis of proteins
lyases	reactions in which groups are removed without hydrolysis or addition of groups to a double bond	Decarboxylases catalyze the removal of carboxyl groups.
isomerases	reactions in which a compound is converted to its isomer	Isomerases may catalyze the conversion of an aldose to a ketose, and mutases catalyze reactions in which a functional group is transferred from one atom in a substrate to another.
ligases	reactions in which new bonds are formed between carbon and another atom; energy is required	Synthetases catalyze reactions in which two smaller molecules are linked to form a larger one.

The first enzymes to be discovered were named according to their source or method of discovery. The enzyme *pepsin*, which aids in the hydrolysis of proteins, is found in the digestive juices of the stomach (Greek *pepsis*, meaning “digestion”). *Papain*, another enzyme that hydrolyzes protein (in fact, it is used in meat tenderizers), is isolated from papayas. As more enzymes were discovered, chemists recognized the need for a more systematic and chemically informative identification scheme. In the current

numbering and naming scheme, under the oversight of the Nomenclature Commission of the International Union of Biochemistry, enzymes are arranged into six groups according to the general type of reaction they catalyze (Table 10.1.1), with subgroups and secondary subgroups that specify the reaction more precisely.

Figure* 10.1.1*: *Structure of the alcohol dehydrogenase protein (E.C.1.1.1.1) (EE ISOZYME) complexed wtih nicotinamide adenini dinulceotide (NAD) and zinc (PDB: 1CDO).*

Each enzyme is assigned a four-digit number, preceded by the prefix EC—for enzyme classification—that indicates its group, subgroup, and so forth. This is demonstrated in Table 10.1.2 for alcohol dehydrogenase. Each enzyme is also given a name consisting of the root of the name of its substrate or substrates and the *-ase* suffix. Thus urease is the enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolysis of urea.

Table 10.1.2: Assignment of an Enzyme Classification Number

Alcohol Dehydrogenase: EC 1.1.1.1	
The first digit indicates that this enzyme is an oxidoreductase; that is, an enzyme that catalyzes an oxidation-reduction reaction.	
The second digit indicates that this oxidoreductase catalyzes a reaction involving a primary or secondary alcohol.	
The third digit indicates that either the coenzyme NAD^+ or $NADP^+$ is required for this reaction.	
The fourth digit indicates that this was the first enzyme isolated, characterized, and named using this system of nomenclature.	
The systematic name for this enzyme is *alcohol:NAD^+ oxidoreductase*, while the recommended or common name is alcohol dehydrogenase.	
Reaction catalyzed:	$RCH_2{-}OH + NAD^+ \rightleftharpoons R{-}\overset{\overset{O}{\|}}{C}{-}H + NADH + H^+$

Summary

An enzyme is a biological catalyst, a substance that increases the rate of a chemical reaction without being changed or consumed in the reaction. A systematic process is used to name and classify enzymes.

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10.2: Enzyme Action

Learning Objectives

- To describe the interaction between an enzyme and its substrate.

Enzyme-catalyzed reactions occur in at least two steps. In the first step, an enzyme molecule (E) and the substrate molecule or molecules (S) collide and react to form an intermediate compound called the *enzyme-substrate* (E–S) *complex*. (This step is reversible because the complex can break apart into the original substrate or substrates and the free enzyme.) Once the E–S complex forms, the enzyme is able to catalyze the formation of product (P), which is then released from the enzyme surface:

$$S + E \rightarrow E\text{–}S \tag{10.2.1}$$

$$E\text{–}S \rightarrow P + E \tag{10.2.2}$$

Hydrogen bonding and other electrostatic interactions hold the enzyme and substrate together in the complex. The structural features or functional groups on the enzyme that participate in these interactions are located in a cleft or pocket on the enzyme surface. This pocket, where the enzyme combines with the substrate and transforms the substrate to product is called the active site of the enzyme (Figure 10.2.1).

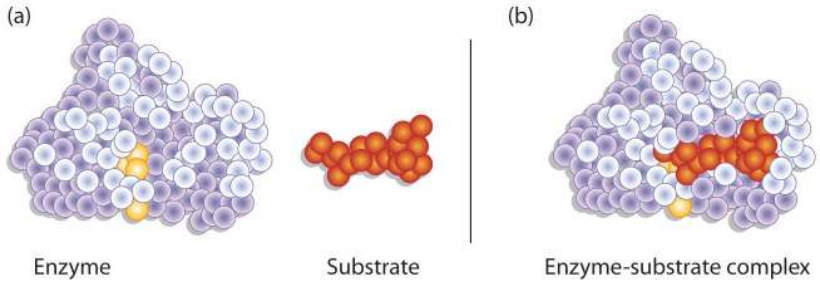


Figure 10.2.1: Substrate Binding to the Active Site of an Enzyme. The enzyme dihydrofolate reductase is shown with one of its substrates: $NADP^+$ (a) unbound and (b) bound. The $NADP^+$ (shown in red) binds to a pocket that is complementary to it in shape and ionic properties.

The active site of an enzyme possesses a unique conformation (including correctly positioned bonding groups) that is complementary to the structure of the substrate, so that the enzyme and substrate molecules fit together in much the same manner as a key fits into a tumbler lock. In fact, an early model describing the formation of the enzyme-substrate complex was called the lock-and-key model (Figure 10.2.2). This model portrayed the enzyme as conformationally rigid and able to bond only to substrates that exactly fit the active site.

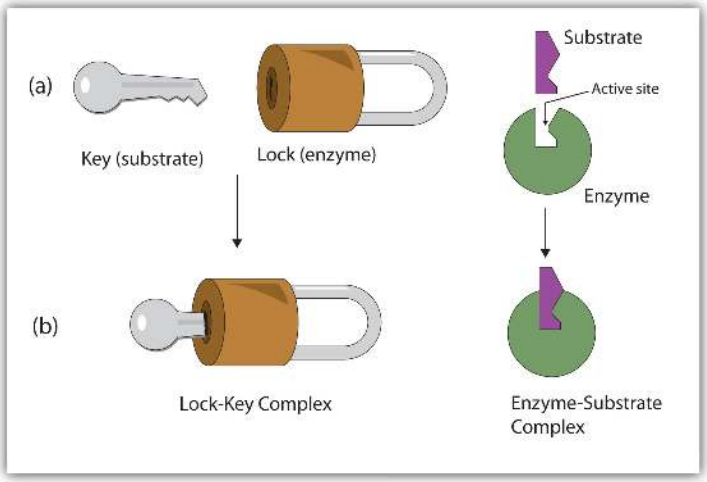


Figure 10.2.2: The Lock-and-Key Model of Enzyme Action. (a) Because the substrate and the active site of the enzyme have complementary structures and bonding groups, they fit together as a key fits a lock. (b) The catalytic reaction occurs while the two are bonded together in the enzyme-substrate complex.

Working out the precise three-dimensional structures of numerous enzymes has enabled chemists to refine the original lock-and-key model of enzyme actions. They discovered that the binding of a substrate often leads to a large conformational change in the enzyme, as well as to changes in the structure of the substrate or substrates. The current theory, known as the induced-fit model, says that enzymes can undergo a change in conformation when they bind substrate molecules, and the active site has a shape complementary to that of the substrate only *after* the substrate is bound, as shown for hexokinase in Figure 10.2.3. After catalysis, the enzyme resumes its original structure.

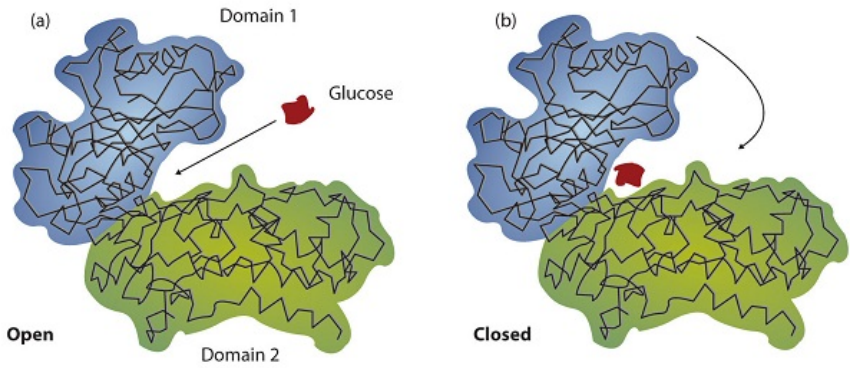


Figure 10.2.3: The Induced-Fit Model of Enzyme Action. (a) The enzyme hexokinase without its substrate (glucose, shown in red) is bound to the active site. (b) The enzyme conformation changes dramatically when the substrate binds to it, resulting in additional interactions between hexokinase and glucose.

The structural changes that occur when an enzyme and a substrate join together bring specific parts of a substrate into alignment with specific parts of the enzyme's active site. Amino acid side chains in or near the binding site can then act as acid or base catalysts, provide binding sites for the transfer of functional groups from one substrate to another or aid in the rearrangement of a substrate. The participating amino acids, which are usually widely separated in the primary sequence of the protein, are brought close together in the active site as a result of the folding and bending of the polypeptide chain or chains when the protein acquires its tertiary and quaternary structure. Binding to enzymes brings reactants close to each other and aligns them properly, which has the same effect as increasing the concentration of the reacting compounds.

✔ Example 10.2.1

a. What type of interaction would occur between an OH group present on a substrate molecule and a functional group in the active site of an enzyme?
b. Suggest an amino acid whose side chain might be in the active site of an enzyme and form the type of interaction you just identified.

Solution

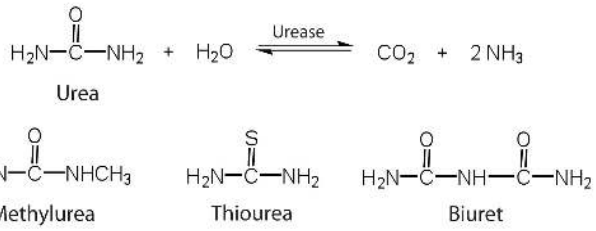
a. An OH group would most likely engage in hydrogen bonding with an appropriate functional group present in the active site of an enzyme.
b. Several amino acid side chains would be able to engage in hydrogen bonding with an OH group. One example would be asparagine, which has an amide functional group.

? Exercise 10.2.1

a. What type of interaction would occur between an COO^- group present on a substrate molecule and a functional group in the active site of an enzyme?
b. Suggest an amino acid whose side chain might be in the active site of an enzyme and form the type of interaction you just identified.

One characteristic that distinguishes an enzyme from all other types of catalysts is its *substrate specificity*. An inorganic acid such as sulfuric acid can be used to increase the reaction rates of many different reactions, such as the hydrolysis of disaccharides, polysaccharides, lipids, and proteins, with complete impartiality. In contrast, enzymes are much more specific. Some enzymes act on a single substrate, while other enzymes act on any of a group of related molecules containing a similar functional group or chemical bond. Some enzymes even distinguish between D- and L-stereoisomers, binding one stereoisomer but not the other.

Urease, for example, is an enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolysis of a single substrate—urea—but not the closely related compounds methyl urea, thiourea, or biuret. The enzyme carboxypeptidase, on the other hand, is far less specific. It catalyzes the removal of nearly any amino acid from the carboxyl end of any peptide or protein.



Enzyme specificity results from the uniqueness of the active site in each different enzyme because of the identity, charge, and spatial orientation of the functional groups located there. It regulates cell chemistry so that the proper reactions occur in the proper place at the proper time. Clearly, it is crucial to the proper functioning of the living cell.

Summary

A substrate binds to a specific region on an enzyme known as the active site, where the substrate can be converted to product. The substrate binds to the enzyme primarily through hydrogen bonding and other electrostatic interactions. The induced-fit model says that an enzyme can undergo a conformational change when binding a substrate. Enzymes exhibit varying degrees of substrate specificity.

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10.3: Enzyme Activity

Learning Objectives

- To describe how pH, temperature, and the concentration of an enzyme and its substrate influence enzyme activity.

The single most important property of enzymes is the ability to increase the rates of reactions occurring in living organisms, a property known as *catalytic activity*. Because most enzymes are proteins, their activity is affected by factors that disrupt protein structure, as well as by factors that affect catalysts in general. Factors that disrupt protein structure include temperature and pH; factors that affect catalysts in general include reactant or substrate concentration and catalyst or enzyme concentration. The activity of an enzyme can be measured by monitoring either the rate at which a substrate disappears or the rate at which a product forms.

Concentration of Substrate

In the presence of a given amount of enzyme, the rate of an enzymatic reaction increases as the substrate concentration increases until a limiting rate is reached, after which further increase in the substrate concentration produces no significant change in the reaction rate (part (a) of Figure 10.3.1). At this point, so much substrate is present that essentially all of the enzyme active sites have substrate bound to them. In other words, the enzyme molecules are saturated with substrate. The excess substrate molecules cannot react until the substrate already bound to the enzymes has reacted and been released (or been released without reacting).

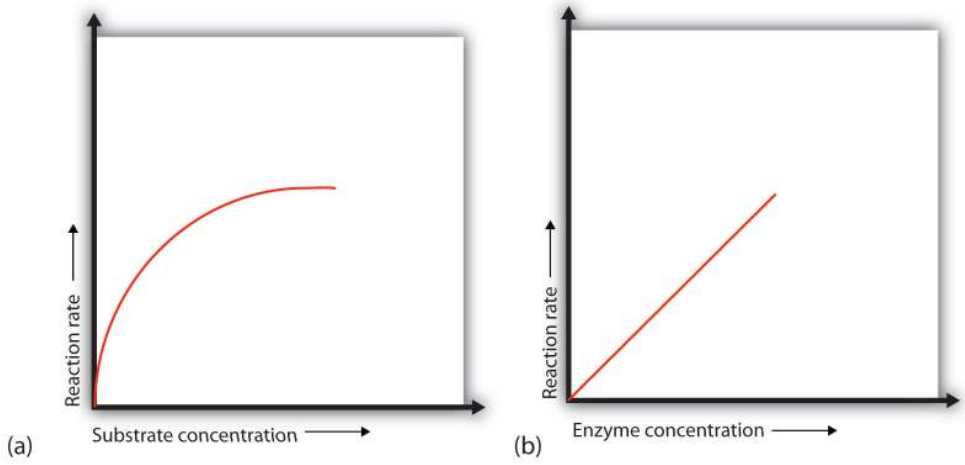


Figure 10.3.1: Concentration versus Reaction Rate. (a) This graph shows the effect of substrate concentration on the rate of a reaction that is catalyzed by a fixed amount of enzyme. (b) This graph shows the effect of enzyme concentration on the reaction rate at a constant level of substrate.

Let's consider an analogy. Ten taxis (enzyme molecules) are waiting at a taxi stand to take people (substrate) on a 10-minute trip to a concert hall, one passenger at a time. If only 5 people are present at the stand, the rate of their arrival at the concert hall is 5 people in 10 minutes. If the number of people at the stand is increased to 10, the rate increases to 10 arrivals in 10 minutes. With 20 people at the stand, the rate would still be 10 arrivals in 10 minutes. The taxis have been "saturated." If the taxis could carry 2 or 3 passengers each, the same principle would apply. The rate would simply be higher (20 or 30 people in 10 minutes) before it leveled off.

Concentration of Enzyme

When the concentration of the enzyme is significantly lower than the concentration of the substrate (as when the number of taxis is far lower than the number of waiting passengers), the rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction is directly dependent on the enzyme concentration (part (b) of Figure 10.3.1). This is true for any catalyst; the reaction rate increases as the concentration of the catalyst is increased.

Temperature

A general rule of thumb for most chemical reactions is that a temperature rise of 10°C approximately doubles the reaction rate. To some extent, this rule holds for all enzymatic reactions. After a certain point, however, an increase in temperature causes a decrease

in the reaction rate, due to denaturation of the protein structure and disruption of the active site (part (a) of Figure 10.3.2). For many proteins, denaturation occurs between 45°C and 55°C. Furthermore, even though an enzyme may appear to have a maximum reaction rate between 40°C and 50°C, most biochemical reactions are carried out at lower temperatures because enzymes are not stable at these higher temperatures and will denature after a few minutes.

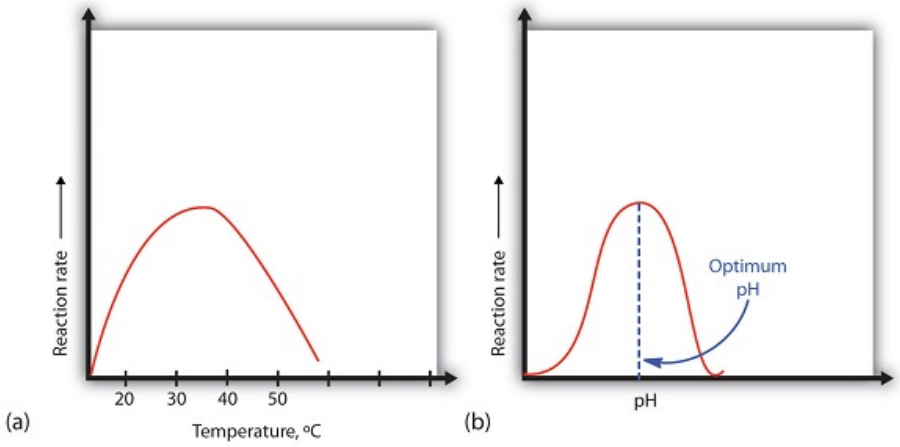


Figure 10.3.2: Temperature and pH versus Concentration. (a) This graph depicts the effect of temperature on the rate of a reaction that is catalyzed by a fixed amount of enzyme. (b) This graph depicts the effect of pH on the rate of a reaction that is catalyzed by a fixed amount of enzyme.

At 0°C and 100°C, the rate of enzyme-catalyzed reactions is nearly zero. This fact has several practical applications. We sterilize objects by placing them in boiling water, which denatures the enzymes of any bacteria that may be in or on them. We preserve our food by refrigerating or freezing it, which slows enzyme activity. When animals go into hibernation in winter, their body temperature drops, decreasing the rates of their metabolic processes to levels that can be maintained by the amount of energy stored in the fat reserves in the animals' tissues.

Hydrogen Ion Concentration (pH)

Because most enzymes are proteins, they are sensitive to changes in the hydrogen ion concentration or pH. Enzymes may be denatured by extreme levels of hydrogen ions (whether high or low); *any* change in pH, even a small one, alters the degree of ionization of an enzyme's acidic and basic side groups and the substrate components as well. Ionizable side groups located in the active site must have a certain charge for the enzyme to bind its substrate. Neutralization of even one of these charges alters an enzyme's catalytic activity.

An enzyme exhibits maximum activity over the narrow pH range in which a molecule exists in its properly charged form. The median value of this pH range is called the optimum pH of the enzyme (part (b) of Figure 10.3.2). With the notable exception of gastric juice (the fluids secreted in the stomach), most body fluids have pH values between 6 and 8. Not surprisingly, most enzymes exhibit optimal activity in this pH range. However, a few enzymes have optimum pH values outside this range. For example, the optimum pH for pepsin, an enzyme that is active in the stomach, is 2.0.

Summary

Initially, an increase in substrate concentration leads to an increase in the rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction. As the enzyme molecules become saturated with substrate, this increase in reaction rate levels off. The rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction increases with an increase in the concentration of an enzyme. At low temperatures, an increase in temperature increases the rate of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction. At higher temperatures, the protein is denatured, and the rate of the reaction dramatically decreases. An enzyme has an optimum pH range in which it exhibits maximum activity.

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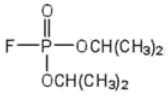
10.4: Enzyme Inhibition

Learning Objectives

- Explain what an enzyme inhibitor is.
- Distinguish between reversible and irreversible inhibitors.
- Distinguish between competitive and noncompetitive inhibitors.

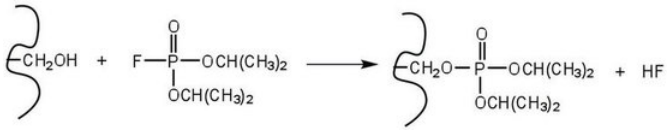
Previously, we noted that enzymes are inactivated at high temperatures and by changes in pH. These are nonspecific factors that would inactivate any enzyme. The activity of enzymes can also be regulated by more specific inhibitors. Many compounds are poisons because they bind covalently to particular enzymes or kinds of enzymes and inactivate them (Table 10.4.1).

Table 10.4.1: Poisons as Enzyme Inhibitors

Poison	Formula	Example of Enzyme Inhibited	Action
arsenate	AsO_4^{3-}	glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase	substitutes for phosphate
iodoacetate	ICH_2COO^-	triose phosphate dehydrogenase	binds to cysteine SH group
diisopropylfluoro-phosphate (DIFP; a nerve poison)		acetylcholinesterase	binds to serine OH group

Irreversible Inhibition: Poisons

An irreversible inhibitor inactivates an enzyme by bonding covalently to a particular group at the active site. The inhibitor-enzyme bond is so strong that the inhibition cannot be reversed by the addition of excess substrate. The nerve gases, especially Diisopropyl fluorophosphate (DIFP), irreversibly inhibit biological systems by forming an enzyme-inhibitor complex with a specific OH group of serine situated at the active sites of certain enzymes. The peptidases trypsin and chymotrypsin contain serine groups at the active site and are inhibited by DIFP.



Reversible Inhibition

A reversible inhibitor inactivates an enzyme through noncovalent, more easily reversed, interactions. Unlike an irreversible inhibitor, a reversible inhibitor can dissociate from the enzyme. Reversible inhibitors include competitive inhibitors and noncompetitive inhibitors. (There are additional types of reversible inhibitors.) A competitive inhibitor is any compound that bears a structural resemblance to a particular substrate and thus competes with that substrate for binding at the active site of an enzyme. The inhibitor is not acted on by the enzyme but does prevent the substrate from approaching the active site.

The degree to which a competitive inhibitor interferes with an enzyme's activity depends on the relative concentrations of the substrate and the inhibitor. If the inhibitor is present in relatively large quantities, it will initially block most of the active sites. But because the binding is reversible, some substrate molecules will eventually bind to the active site and be converted to product. Increasing the substrate concentration promotes displacement of the inhibitor from the active site. Competitive inhibition can be completely reversed by adding substrate so that it reaches a much higher concentration than that of the inhibitor.

Studies of competitive inhibition have provided helpful information about certain enzyme-substrate complexes and the interactions of specific groups at the active sites. As a result, pharmaceutical companies have synthesized drugs that competitively inhibit metabolic processes in bacteria and certain cancer cells. Many drugs are competitive inhibitors of specific enzymes.

A classic example of competitive inhibition is the effect of malonate on the enzyme activity of succinate dehydrogenase (Figure 10.4.1). Malonate and succinate are the anions of dicarboxylic acids and contain three and four carbon atoms, respectively. The malonate molecule binds to the active site because the spacing of its carboxyl groups is not greatly different from that of succinate.

However, no catalytic reaction occurs because malonate does not have a CH_2CH_2 group to convert to CH=CH. This reaction will also be discussed in connection with the Krebs cycle and energy production.

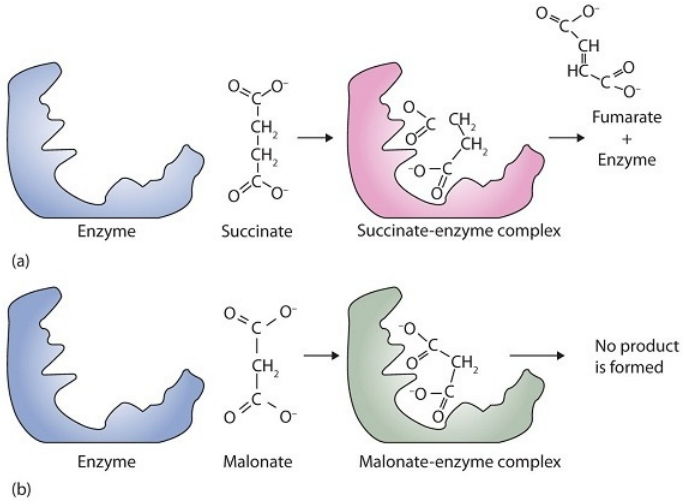


Figure 10.4.1: Competitive Inhibition. (a) Succinate binds to the enzyme succinate dehydrogenase. A dehydrogenation reaction occurs, and the product—fumarate—is released from the enzyme. (b) Malonate also binds to the active site of succinate dehydrogenase. In this case, however, no subsequent reaction occurs while malonate remains bound to the enzyme.

To Your Health: Penicillin

Chemotherapy is the strategic use of chemicals (that is, drugs) to destroy infectious microorganisms or cancer cells without causing excessive damage to the other, healthy cells of the host. From bacteria to humans, the metabolic pathways of all living organisms are quite similar, so the search for safe and effective chemotherapeutic agents is a formidable task. Many well-established chemotherapeutic drugs function by inhibiting a critical enzyme in the cells of the invading organism.

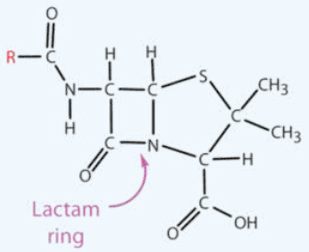
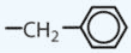
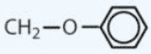
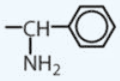
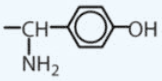
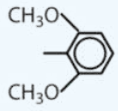
An *antibiotic* is a compound that kills bacteria; it may come from a natural source such as molds or be synthesized with a structure analogous to a naturally occurring antibacterial compound. Antibiotics constitute no well-defined class of chemically related substances, but many of them work by effectively inhibiting a variety of enzymes essential to bacterial growth.

Penicillin, one of the most widely used antibiotics in the world, was fortuitously discovered by Alexander Fleming in 1928, when he noticed antibacterial properties in a mold growing on a bacterial culture plate. In 1938, Ernst Chain and Howard Florey began an intensive effort to isolate penicillin from the mold and study its properties. The large quantities of penicillin needed for this research became available through development of a corn-based nutrient medium that the mold loved and through the discovery of a higher-yielding strain of mold at a United States Department of Agriculture research center near Peoria, Illinois. Even so, it was not until 1944 that large quantities of penicillin were being produced and made available for the treatment of bacterial infections.

Penicillin functions by interfering with the synthesis of cell walls of reproducing bacteria. It does so by inhibiting an enzyme—transpeptidase—that catalyzes the last step in bacterial cell-wall biosynthesis. The defective walls cause bacterial cells to burst. Human cells are not affected because they have cell membranes, not cell walls.

Several naturally occurring penicillins have been isolated. They are distinguished by different R groups connected to a common structure: a four-member cyclic amide (called a lactam ring) fused to a five-member ring. The addition of appropriate organic compounds to the culture medium leads to the production of the different kinds of penicillin.

The penicillins are effective against gram-positive bacteria (bacteria capable of being stained by Gram's stain) and a few gram-negative bacteria (including the intestinal bacterium *Escherichia coli*). They are effective in the treatment of diphtheria, gonorrhea, pneumonia, syphilis, many pus infections, and certain types of boils. Penicillin G was the earliest penicillin to be used on a wide scale. However, it cannot be administered orally because it is quite unstable; the acidic pH of the stomach converts it to an inactive derivative. The major oral penicillins—penicillin V, ampicillin, and amoxicillin—on the other hand, are acid stable.

Penicillin Structure	R Group	Drug Name
		penicillin G
		penicillin V
		ampicillin
		amoxicillin
		methicillin

Some strains of bacteria become resistant to penicillin through a mutation that allows them to synthesize an enzyme—penicillinase—that breaks the antibiotic down (by cleavage of the amide linkage in the lactam ring). To combat these strains, scientists have synthesized penicillin analogs (such as methicillin) that are not inactivated by penicillinase.

Some people (perhaps 5% of the population) are allergic to penicillin and therefore must be treated with other antibiotics. Their allergic reaction can be so severe that a fatal coma may occur if penicillin is inadvertently administered to them. Fortunately, several other antibiotics have been discovered. Most, including aureomycin and streptomycin, are the products of microbial synthesis. Others, such as the semisynthetic penicillins and tetracyclines, are made by chemical modifications of antibiotics; and some, like chloramphenicol, are manufactured entirely by chemical synthesis. They are as effective as penicillin in destroying infectious microorganisms. Many of these antibiotics exert their effects by blocking protein synthesis in microorganisms.

Initially, antibiotics were considered miracle drugs, substantially reducing the number of deaths from blood poisoning, pneumonia, and other infectious diseases. Some seven decades ago, a person with a major infection almost always died. Today, such deaths are rare. Seven decades ago, pneumonia was a dreaded killer of people of all ages. Today, it kills only the very old or those ill from other causes. Antibiotics have indeed worked miracles in our time, but even miracle drugs have limitations. Not long after the drugs were first used, disease organisms began to develop strains resistant to them. In a race to stay ahead of resistant bacterial strains, scientists continue to seek new antibiotics. The penicillins have now been partially displaced by related compounds, such as the cephalosporins and vancomycin. Unfortunately, some strains of bacteria have already shown resistance to these antibiotics.

Some reversible inhibitors are noncompetitive. A noncompetitive inhibitor can combine with either the free enzyme or the enzyme-substrate complex because its binding site on the enzyme is distinct from the active site. Binding of this kind of inhibitor alters the three-dimensional conformation of the enzyme, changing the configuration of the active site with one of two results. Either the enzyme-substrate complex does not form at its normal rate, or, once formed, it does not yield products at the normal rate. Because the inhibitor does not structurally resemble the substrate, the addition of excess substrate does *not* reverse the inhibitory effect.

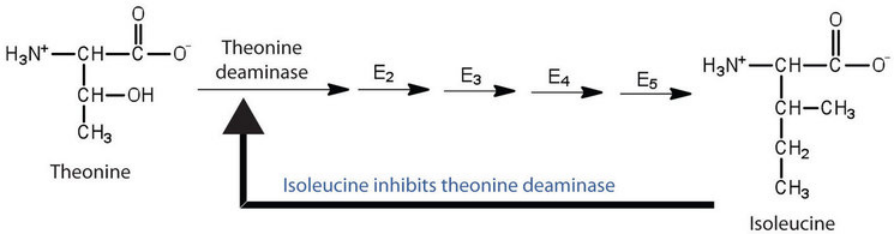


Figure 10.4.2: Feedback Inhibition of Threonine Deaminase by Isoleucine. Threonine deaminase is the first enzyme in the conversion of threonine to isoleucine. Isoleucine inhibits threonine deaminase through feedback inhibition.

Feedback inhibition is a normal biochemical process that makes use of noncompetitive inhibitors to control some enzymatic activity. In this process, the final product inhibits the enzyme that catalyzes the first step in a series of reactions. Feedback inhibition is used to regulate the synthesis of many amino acids. For example, bacteria synthesize isoleucine from threonine in a series of five enzyme-catalyzed steps. As the concentration of isoleucine increases, some of it binds as a noncompetitive inhibitor

to the first enzyme of the series (threonine deaminase), thus bringing about a decrease in the amount of isoleucine being formed (Figure 10.4.2).

Summary

An irreversible inhibitor inactivates an enzyme by bonding covalently to a particular group at the active site. A reversible inhibitor inactivates an enzyme through noncovalent, reversible interactions. A competitive inhibitor competes with the substrate for binding at the active site of the enzyme. A noncompetitive inhibitor binds at a site distinct from the active site.

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10.5: Enzyme Cofactors and Vitamins

Learning Objectives

- To explain why vitamins are necessary in the diet.

Many enzymes are simple proteins consisting entirely of one or more amino acid chains. Other enzymes contain a nonprotein component called a **cofactor** that is necessary for the enzyme's proper functioning. There are two types of cofactors: inorganic ions [e.g., zinc or Cu(I) ions] and organic molecules known as coenzymes. Most **coenzymes** are vitamins or are derived from vitamins.

Vitamins are organic compounds that are essential in very small (trace) amounts for the maintenance of normal metabolism. They generally cannot be synthesized at adequate levels by the body and must be obtained from the diet. The absence or shortage of a vitamin may result in a vitamin-deficiency disease. In the first half of the 20th century, a major focus of biochemistry was the identification, isolation, and characterization of vitamins. Despite accumulating evidence that people needed more than just carbohydrates, fats, and proteins in their diets for normal growth and health, it was not until the early 1900s that research established the need for trace nutrients in the diet.

Table 10.5.1: Fat-Soluble Vitamins and Physiological Functions

Vitamin	Physiological Function	Effect of Deficiency
vitamin A (retinol)	formation of vision pigments; differentiation of epithelial cells	night blindness; continued deficiency leads to total blindness
vitamin D (cholecalciferol)	increases the body's ability to absorb calcium and phosphorus	osteomalacia (softening of the bones); known as rickets in children
vitamin E (tocopherol)	fat-soluble antioxidant	damage to cell membranes
vitamin K (phylloquinone)	formation of prothrombin, a key enzyme in the blood-clotting process	increases the time required for blood to clot

Because organisms differ in their synthetic abilities, a substance that is a vitamin for one species may not be so for another. Over the past 100 years, scientists have identified and isolated 13 vitamins required in the human diet and have divided them into two broad categories: the *fat-soluble vitamins*, which include vitamins A, D, E, and K, and the *water-soluble vitamins*, which are the B complex vitamins and vitamin C. All fat-soluble vitamins contain a high proportion of hydrocarbon structural components. There are one or two oxygen atoms present, but the compounds as a whole are nonpolar. In contrast, water-soluble vitamins contain large numbers of electronegative oxygen and nitrogen atoms, which can engage in hydrogen bonding with water. Most water-soluble vitamins act as coenzymes or are required for the synthesis of coenzymes. The fat-soluble vitamins are important for a variety of physiological functions. The key vitamins and their functions are found in Tables 10.5.1 and 10.5.2

Table 10.5.2: Water-Soluble Vitamins and Physiological Functions

Vitamin	Coenzyme	Coenzyme Function	Deficiency Disease
vitamin B_1 (thiamine)	thiamine pyrophosphate	decarboxylation reactions	beri-beri
vitamin B_2 (riboflavin)	flavin mononucleotide or flavin adenine dinucleotide	oxidation-reduction reactions involving two hydrogen atoms	—
vitamin B_3 (niacin)	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide or nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate	oxidation-reduction reactions involving the hydride ion (H^-)	pellagra
vitamin B_6 (pyridoxine)	pyridoxal phosphate	variety of reactions including the transfer of amino groups	—
vitamin B_{12} (cyanocobalamin)	methylcobalamin or deoxyadenoxylcobalamin	intramolecular rearrangement reactions	pernicious anemia

Vitamin	Coenzyme	Coenzyme Function	Deficiency Disease
biotin	biotin	carboxylation reactions	—
folic acid	tetrahydrofolate	carrier of one-carbon units such as the formyl group	anemia
pantothenic Acid	coenzyme A	carrier of acyl groups	—
vitamin C (ascorbic acid)	none	antioxidant; formation of collagen, a protein found in tendons, ligaments, and bone	scurvy

Vitamins C and E, as well as the provitamin β-carotene can act as antioxidants in the body. Antioxidants prevent damage from free radicals, which are molecules that are highly reactive because they have unpaired electrons. Free radicals are formed not only through metabolic reactions involving oxygen but also by such environmental factors as radiation and pollution.

> *β-carotene is known as a provitamin because it can be converted to vitamin A in the body.*

Free radicals react most commonly react with lipoproteins and unsaturated fatty acids in cell membranes, removing an electron from those molecules and thus generating a new free radical. The process becomes a chain reaction that finally leads to the oxidative degradation of the affected compounds. Antioxidants react with free radicals to stop these chain reactions by forming a more stable molecule or, in the case of vitamin E, a free radical that is much less reactive (vitamin E is converted back to its original form through interaction with vitamin C).

Summary

Vitamins are organic compounds that are essential in very small amounts for the maintenance of normal metabolism. Vitamins are divided into two broad categories: fat-soluble vitamins and water-soluble vitamins. Most water-soluble vitamins are needed for the formation of coenzymes, which are organic molecules needed by some enzymes for catalytic activity.

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SECTION OVERVIEW

11.1: Nucleic Acids

The blueprint for the reproduction and the maintenance of each organism is found in the nuclei of its cells, concentrated in elongated, threadlike structures called chromosomes. These complex structures, consisting of DNA and proteins, contain the basic units of heredity, called genes. The number of chromosomes (and genes) varies with each species. Human body cells have 23 pairs of chromosomes having 20,000–40,000 different genes.

Sperm and egg cells contain only a single copy of each chromosome; that is, they contain only one member of each chromosome pair. Thus, in sexual reproduction, the entire complement of chromosomes is achieved only when an egg and sperm combine. A new individual receives half its hereditary material from each parent. Calling the unit of heredity a “gene” merely gives it a name. But what really are genes and how is the information they contain expressed? One definition of a gene is that it is a segment of DNA that constitutes the code for a specific polypeptide. If genes are segments of DNA, we need to learn more about the structure and physiological function of DNA. We begin by looking at the small molecules needed to form DNA and RNA (ribonucleic acid)—the nucleotides.

11.1.1: Prelude to Nucleic Acids

11.1.2: Nucleotides

11.1.3: Nucleic Acid Structure

11.1.4: Replication and Expression of Genetic Information

11.1.5: Protein Synthesis and the Genetic Code

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11.1.E: Nucleic Acids (Exercises)

11.1.S: Nucleic Acids (Summary)

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11.1.1: Prelude to Nucleic Acids

Following the initial isolation of insulin in 1921, diabetic patients could be treated with insulin obtained from the pancreases of cattle and pigs. Unfortunately, some patients developed an allergic reaction to this insulin because its amino acid sequence was not identical to that of human insulin. In the 1970s, an intense research effort began that eventually led to the production of genetically engineered human insulin—the first genetically engineered product to be approved for medical use. To accomplish this feat, researchers first had to determine how insulin is made in the body and then find a way of causing the same process to occur in nonhuman organisms, such as bacteria or yeast cells. Many aspects of these discoveries are presented in this chapter on nucleic acids.



Figure 11.1.1.1: A vial of insulin. It has been given a trade name, Actrapid, by the manufacturer. (Public Domain; Mr Hyde).

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11.1.2: Nucleotides

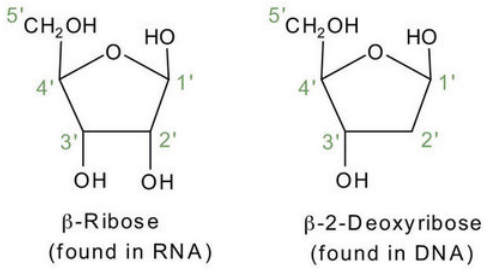
Learning Objectives

- To identify the different molecules that combine to form nucleotides.

The repeating, or monomer, units that are linked together to form nucleic acids are known as nucleotides. The deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) of a typical mammalian cell contains about 3×10^9 nucleotides. Nucleotides can be further broken down to phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4), a pentose sugar (a sugar with five carbon atoms), and a nitrogenous base (a base containing nitrogen atoms).

$$\text{nucleic acids} \xrightarrow[\text{down into}]{\text{can be broken}} \text{nucleotides} \xrightarrow[\text{down into}]{\text{can be broken}} H_3PO_4 + \text{nitrogen base} + \text{pentose sugar}$$

If the pentose sugar is ribose, the nucleotide is more specifically referred to as a *ribonucleotide*, and the resulting nucleic acid is ribonucleic acid (RNA). If the sugar is 2-deoxyribose, the nucleotide is a *deoxyribonucleotide*, and the nucleic acid is DNA.



The nitrogenous bases found in nucleotides are classified as pyrimidines or purines. Pyrimidines are heterocyclic amines with two nitrogen atoms in a six-member ring and include uracil, thymine, and cytosine. Purines are heterocyclic amines consisting of a pyrimidine ring fused to a five-member ring with two nitrogen atoms. Adenine and guanine are the major purines found in nucleic acids (Figure 11.1.2.1).

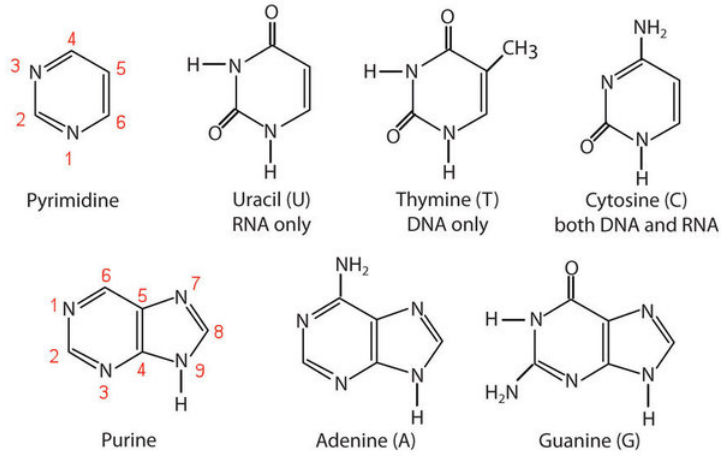


Figure 11.1.2.1: The Nitrogenous Bases Found in DNA and RNA

The formation of a bond between C1′ of the pentose sugar and N1 of the pyrimidine base or N9 of the purine base joins the pentose sugar to the nitrogenous base. In the formation of this bond, a molecule of water is removed. Table 11.1.2.1 summarizes the similarities and differences in the composition of nucleotides in DNA and RNA.

The numbering convention is that primed numbers designate the atoms of the pentose ring, and unprimed numbers designate the atoms of the purine or pyrimidine ring.

Table 11.1.2.1: Composition of Nucleotides in DNA and RNA

Composition	DNA	RNA

Composition	DNA	RNA
purine bases	adenine and guanine	adenine and guanine
pyrimidine bases	cytosine and thymine	cytosine and uracil
pentose sugar	2-deoxyribose	ribose
inorganic acid	phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4)	H_3PO_4

The names and structures of the major ribonucleotides and one of the deoxyribonucleotides are given in Figure 11.1.2.2

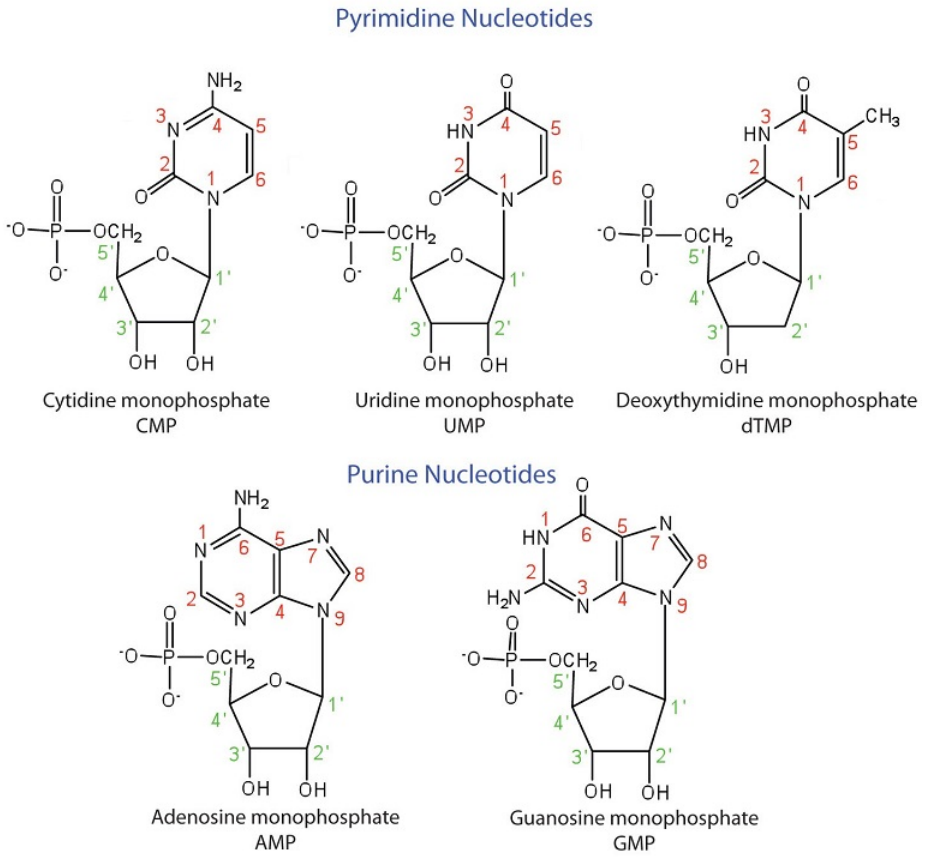


Figure 11.1.2.2: The Pyrimidine and Purine Nucleotides

Apart from being the monomer units of DNA and RNA, the nucleotides and some of their derivatives have other functions as well. Adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and adenosine triphosphate (ATP), shown in Figure 11.1.2.3, have a role in cell metabolism. Moreover, a number of coenzymes, including flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+), and coenzyme A, contain adenine nucleotides as structural components.

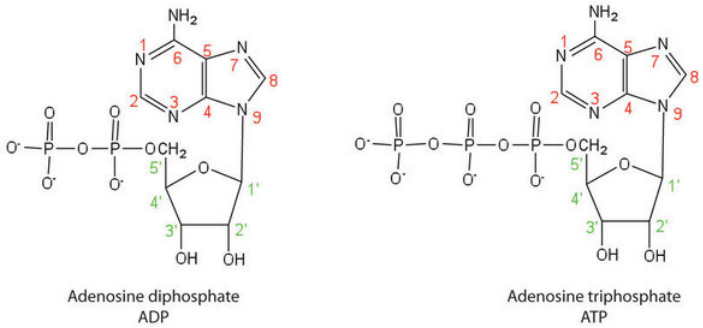


Figure 11.1.2.3: Structures of Two Important Adenine-Containing Nucleotides

Summary

Nucleotides are composed of phosphoric acid, a pentose sugar (ribose or deoxyribose), and a nitrogen-containing base (adenine, cytosine, guanine, thymine, or uracil). Ribonucleotides contain ribose, while deoxyribonucleotides contain deoxyribose.

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11.1.3: Nucleic Acid Structure

Skills to Develop

- Identify the two types of nucleic acids and the function of each type.
- Describe how nucleotides are linked together to form nucleic acids.
- Describe the secondary structure of DNA and the importance of complementary base pairing.

Nucleic acids are large polymers formed by linking nucleotides together and are found in every cell. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is the nucleic acid that stores genetic information. If all the DNA in a typical mammalian cell were stretched out end to end, it would extend more than 2 m. Ribonucleic acid (RNA) is the nucleic acid responsible for using the genetic information encoded in DNA to produce the thousands of proteins found in living organisms.

Primary Structure of Nucleic Acids

Nucleotides are joined together through the phosphate group of one nucleotide connecting in an ester linkage to the OH group on the third carbon atom of the sugar unit of a second nucleotide. This unit joins to a third nucleotide, and the process is repeated to produce a long nucleic acid chain (Figure 11.1.3.1). The backbone of the chain consists of alternating phosphate and sugar units (2-deoxyribose in DNA and ribose in RNA). The purine and pyrimidine bases branch off this backbone.

> *Each phosphate group has one acidic hydrogen atom that is ionized at physiological pH. This is why these compounds are known as nucleic acids.*

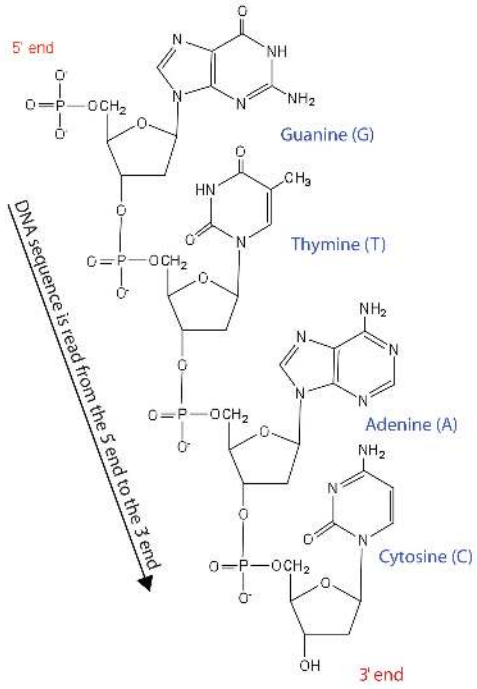


***Figure* 11.1.3.1** *Structure of a Segment of DNA. A similar segment of RNA would have OH groups on each C2', and uracil would replace thymine.*

Like proteins, nucleic acids have a primary structure that is defined as the sequence of their nucleotides. Unlike proteins, which have 20 different kinds of amino acids, there are only 4 different kinds of nucleotides in nucleic acids. For amino acid sequences in proteins, the convention is to write the amino acids in order starting with the N-terminal amino acid. In writing nucleotide sequences for nucleic acids, the convention is to write the nucleotides (usually using the one-letter abbreviations for the bases, shown in Figure 11.1.3.1) starting with the nucleotide having a free phosphate group, which is known as the 5′ end, and indicate the nucleotides in order. For DNA, a lowercase *d* is often written in front of the sequence to indicate that the monomers are deoxyribonucleotides. The final nucleotide has a free OH group on the 3′ carbon atom and is called the *3′ end*. The sequence of

nucleotides in the DNA segment shown in Figure 11.1.3.1would be written 5′-dG-dT-dA-dC-3′, which is often further abbreviated to dGTAC or just GTAC.

Secondary Structure of DNA

The three-dimensional structure of DNA was the subject of an intensive research effort in the late 1940s to early 1950s. Initial work revealed that the polymer had a regular repeating structure. In 1950, Erwin Chargaff of Columbia University showed that the molar amount of adenine (A) in DNA was always equal to that of thymine (T). Similarly, he showed that the molar amount of guanine (G) was the same as that of cytosine (C). Chargaff drew no conclusions from his work, but others soon did.

At Cambridge University in 1953, James D. Watson and Francis Crick announced that they had a model for the secondary structure of DNA. Using the information from Chargaff's experiments (as well as other experiments) and data from the X ray studies of Rosalind Franklin (which involved sophisticated chemistry, physics, and mathematics), Watson and Crick worked with models that were not unlike a child's construction set and finally concluded that DNA is composed of two nucleic acid chains running antiparallel to one another—that is, side-by-side with the 5′ end of one chain next to the 3′ end of the other. Moreover, as their model showed, the two chains are twisted to form a double helix—a structure that can be compared to a spiral staircase, with the phosphate and sugar groups (the backbone of the nucleic acid polymer) representing the outside edges of the staircase. The purine and pyrimidine bases face the inside of the helix, with guanine always opposite cytosine and adenine always opposite thymine. These specific base pairs, referred to as complementary bases, are the steps, or treads, in our staircase analogy (Figure 11.1.3.2).

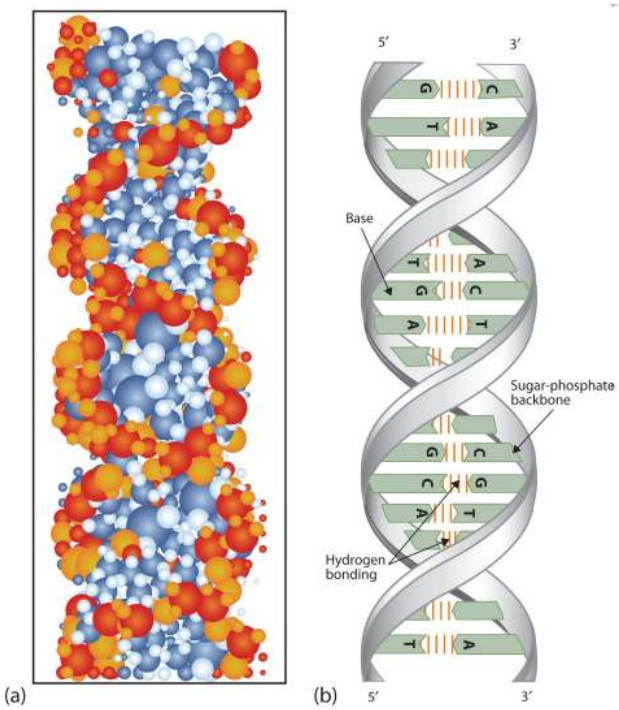


***Figure* 11.1.3.2** *DNA Double Helix. (a) This represents a computer-generated model of the DNA double helix. (b) This represents a schematic representation of the double helix, showing the complementary bases.*

The structure proposed by Watson and Crick provided clues to the mechanisms by which cells are able to divide into two identical, functioning daughter cells; how genetic data are passed to new generations; and even how proteins are built to required specifications. All these abilities depend on the pairing of complementary bases. Figure 11.1.3.3shows the two sets of base pairs and illustrates two things. First, a pyrimidine is paired with a purine in each case, so that the long dimensions of both pairs are identical (1.08 nm).

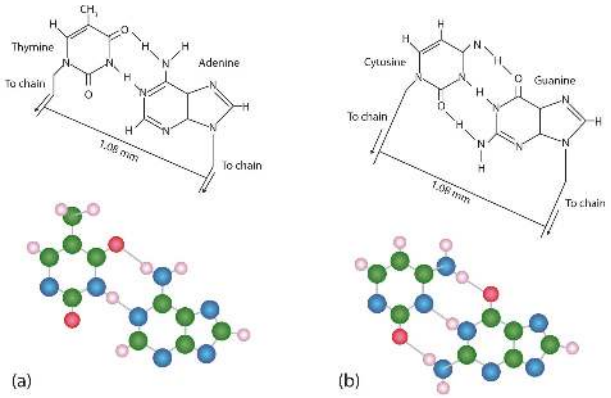


***Figure* 11.1.3.3** *Complementary Base Pairing. Complementary bases engage in hydrogen bonding with one another: (a) thymine and adenine; (b) cytosine and guanine.*

If two pyrimidines were paired or two purines were paired, the two pyrimidines would take up less space than a purine and a pyrimidine, and the two purines would take up more space, as illustrated in Figure 11.1.3.4 If these pairings were ever to occur, the structure of DNA would be like a staircase made with stairs of different widths. For the two strands of the double helix to fit neatly, a pyrimidine must always be paired with a purine. The second thing you should notice in Figure 11.1.3.3is that the correct pairing enables formation of three instances of hydrogen bonding between guanine and cytosine and two between adenine and thymine. The additive contribution of this hydrogen bonding imparts great stability to the DNA double helix.

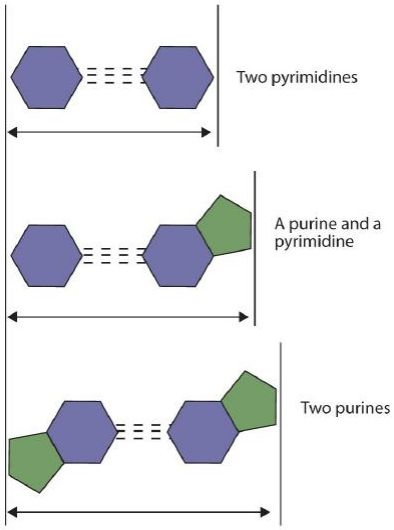


***Figure* 11.1.3.4** *Difference in Widths of Possible Base Pairs*

Summary

- DNA is the nucleic acid that stores genetic information. RNA is the nucleic acid responsible for using the genetic information in DNA to produce proteins.
- Nucleotides are joined together to form nucleic acids through the phosphate group of one nucleotide connecting in an ester linkage to the OH group on the third carbon atom of the sugar unit of a second nucleotide.
- Nucleic acid sequences are written starting with the nucleotide having a free phosphate group (the 5′ end).
- Two DNA strands link together in an antiparallel direction and are twisted to form a double helix. The nitrogenous bases face the inside of the helix. Guanine is always opposite cytosine, and adenine is always opposite thymine.

Concept Review Exercises

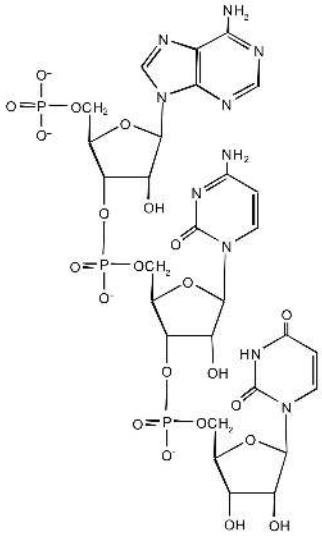
1.
   a. Name the two kinds of nucleic acids.
   b. Which type of nucleic acid stores genetic information in the cell?
2. What are complementary bases?
3. Why is it structurally important that a purine base always pair with a pyrimidine base in the DNA double helix?

Answers

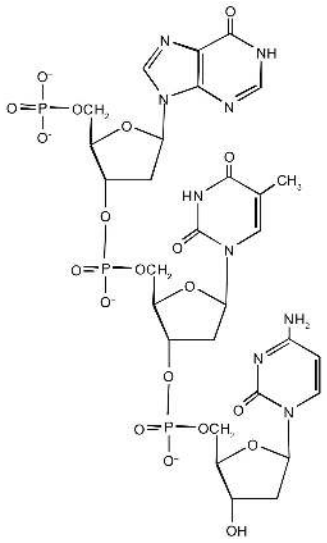
1.
   a. deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA)
   b. DNA
2. the specific base pairings in the DNA double helix in which guanine is paired with cytosine and adenine is paired with thymine
3. The width of the DNA double helix is kept at a constant width, rather than narrowing (if two pyrimidines were across from each other) or widening (if two purines were across from each other).

Exercises

1. For this short RNA segment,
   a. identify the 5′ end and the 3′ end of the molecule.
   b. circle the atoms that comprise the backbone of the nucleic acid chain.
   c. write the nucleotide sequence of this RNA segment.



2. For this short DNA segment,
   a. identify the 5′ end and the 3′ end of the molecule.
   b. circle the atoms that comprise the backbone of the nucleic acid chain.
   c. write the nucleotide sequence of this DNA segment.



3. Which nitrogenous base in DNA pairs with each nitrogenous base?

   a. cytosine
   b. adenine
   c. guanine
   d. thymine

4. Which nitrogenous base in RNA pairs with each nitrogenous base?

   a. cytosine
   b. adenine
   c. guanine
   d. thymine

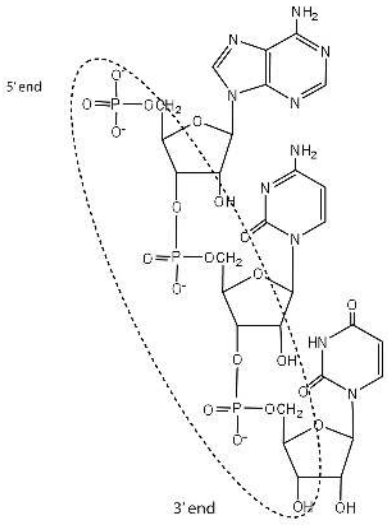
5. How many hydrogen bonds can form between the two strands in the short DNA segment shown below?

   5′ ATGCGACTA 3′ 3′ TACGCTGAT 5′

6. How many hydrogen bonds can form between the two strands in the short DNA segment shown below?

   5′ CGATGAGCC 3′ 3′ GCTACTCGG 5′

Answers

1. 

   c. ACU

3.

a. guanine
b. thymine
c. cytosine
d. adenine

5. 22 (2 between each AT base pair and 3 between each GC base pair)

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11.1.4: Replication and Expression of Genetic Information

Learning Objectives

- Describe how a new copy of DNA is synthesized.
- Describe how RNA is synthesized from DNA.
- Identify the different types of RNA and the function of each type of RNA.

We previously stated that deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) stores genetic information, while ribonucleic acid (RNA) is responsible for transmitting or expressing genetic information by directing the synthesis of thousands of proteins found in living organisms. But how do the nucleic acids perform these functions? Three processes are required: (1) *replication*, in which new copies of DNA are made; (2) *transcription*, in which a segment of DNA is used to produce RNA; and (3) *translation*, in which the information in RNA is translated into a protein sequence.

Replication

New cells are continuously forming in the body through the process of cell division. For this to happen, the DNA in a dividing cell must be copied in a process known as replication. The complementary base pairing of the double helix provides a ready model for how genetic replication occurs. If the two chains of the double helix are pulled apart, disrupting the hydrogen bonding between base pairs, each chain can act as a *template*, or pattern, for the synthesis of a new complementary DNA chain.

The nucleus contains all the necessary enzymes, proteins, and nucleotides required for this synthesis. A short segment of DNA is "unzipped," so that the two strands in the segment are separated to serve as templates for new DNA. DNA polymerase, an enzyme, recognizes each base in a template strand and matches it to the complementary base in a free nucleotide. The enzyme then catalyzes the formation of an ester bond between the 5′ phosphate group of the nucleotide and the 3′ OH end of the new, growing DNA chain. In this way, each strand of the original DNA molecule is used to produce a duplicate of its former partner (Figure 11.1.4.1). Whatever information was encoded in the original DNA double helix is now contained in each replicate helix. When the cell divides, each daughter cell gets one of these replicates and thus all of the information that was originally possessed by the parent cell.

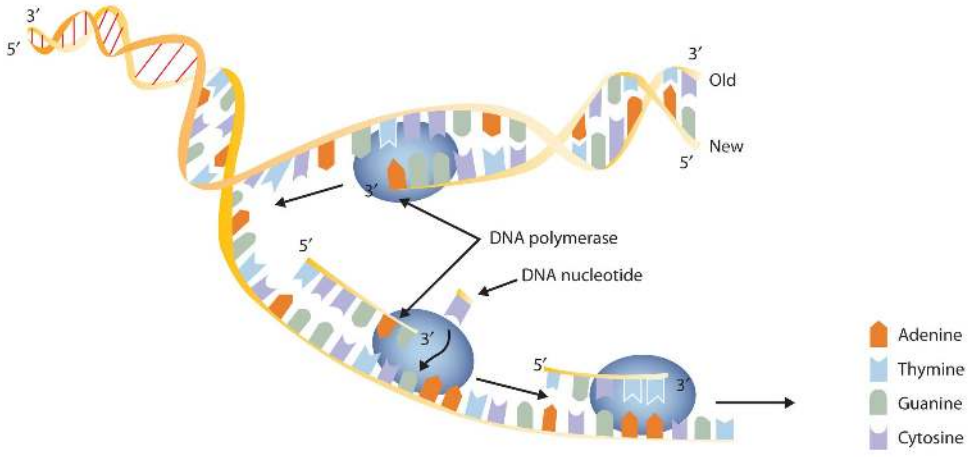


Figure 11.1.4.1: A Schematic Diagram of DNA Replication. DNA replication occurs by the sequential unzipping of segments of the double helix. Each new nucleotide is brought into position by DNA polymerase and is added to the growing strand by the formation of a phosphate ester bond. Thus, two double helixes form from one, and each consists of one old strand and one new strand, an outcome called *semiconservative replications*. (This representation is simplified; many more proteins are involved in replication.)

Example 11.1.4.1

A segment of one strand from a DNA molecule has the sequence 5′-TCCATGAGTTGA-3′. What is the sequence of nucleotides in the opposite, or complementary, DNA chain?

Solution

Knowing that the two strands are antiparallel and that T base pairs with A, while C base pairs with G, the sequence of the complementary strand will be 3′-AGGTACTCAACT-5′ (can also be written as TCAACTCATGGA).

? Exercise 11.1.4.1

A segment of one strand from a DNA molecule has the sequence 5′-CCAGTGAATTGCCTAT-3′. What is the sequence of nucleotides in the opposite, or complementary, DNA chain?

What do we mean when we say information is encoded in the DNA molecule? An organism's DNA can be compared to a book containing directions for assembling a model airplane or for knitting a sweater. Letters of the alphabet are arranged into words, and these words direct the individual to perform certain operations with specific materials. If all the directions are followed correctly, a model airplane or sweater is produced.

In DNA, the particular sequences of nucleotides along the chains encode the directions for building an organism. Just as *saw* means one thing in English and *was* means another, the sequence of bases CGT means one thing, and TGC means something different. Although there are only four letters—the four nucleotides—in the genetic code of DNA, their sequencing along the DNA strands can vary so widely that information storage is essentially unlimited.

Transcription

For the hereditary information in DNA to be useful, it must be "expressed," that is, used to direct the growth and functioning of an organism. The first step in the processes that constitute DNA expression is the synthesis of RNA, by a template mechanism that is in many ways analogous to DNA replication. Because the RNA that is synthesized is a complementary copy of information contained in DNA, RNA synthesis is referred to as transcription. There are three key differences between replication and transcription:

1. RNA molecules are much shorter than DNA molecules; only a portion of one DNA strand is copied or transcribed to make an RNA molecule.
2. RNA is built from ribonucleotides rather than deoxyribonucleotides.
3. The newly synthesized RNA strand does not remain associated with the DNA sequence it was transcribed from.

The DNA sequence that is transcribed to make RNA is called the *template strand*, while the complementary sequence on the other DNA strand is called the *coding* or *informational strand*. To initiate RNA synthesis, the two DNA strands unwind at specific sites along the DNA molecule. Ribonucleotides are attracted to the uncoiling region of the DNA molecule, beginning at the 3′ end of the template strand, according to the rules of base pairing. Thymine in DNA calls for adenine in RNA, cytosine specifies guanine, guanine calls for cytosine, and adenine requires uracil. RNA polymerase—an enzyme—binds the complementary ribonucleotide and catalyzes the formation of the ester linkage between ribonucleotides, a reaction very similar to that catalyzed by DNA polymerase (Figure 11.1.4.2). Synthesis of the RNA strand takes place in the 5′ to 3′ direction, antiparallel to the template strand. Only a short segment of the RNA molecule is hydrogen-bonded to the template strand at any time during transcription. When transcription is completed, the RNA is released, and the DNA helix reforms. The nucleotide sequence of the RNA strand formed during transcription is identical to that of the corresponding coding strand of the DNA, except that U replaces T.

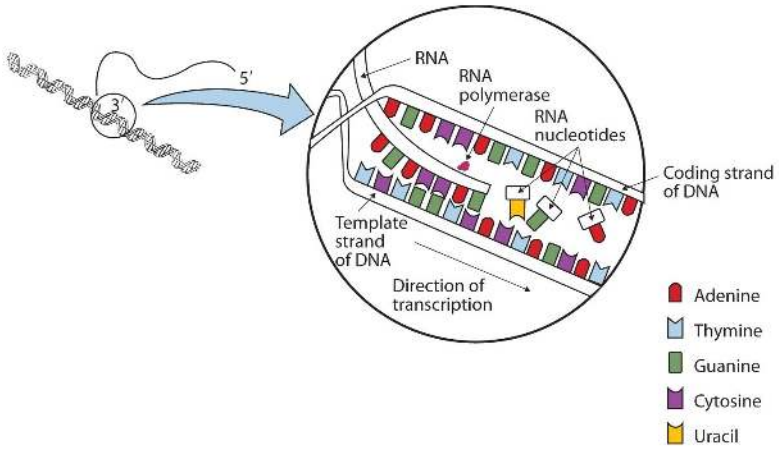


Figure 11.1.4.2: A Schematic Diagram of RNA Transcription from a DNA Template. The representation of RNA polymerase is proportionately much smaller than the actual molecule, which encompasses about 50 nucleotides at a time.

Example 11.1.4.2

A portion of the template strand of a gene has the sequence 5′-TCCATGAGTTGA-3′. What is the sequence of nucleotides in the RNA that is formed from this template?

Solution

Four things must be remembered in answering this question: (1) the DNA strand and the RNA strand being synthesized are antiparallel; (2) RNA is synthesized in a 5′ to 3′ direction, so transcription begins at the 3′ end of the template strand; (3) ribonucleotides are used in place of deoxyribonucleotides; and (4) thymine (T) base pairs with adenine (A), A base pairs with uracil (U; in RNA), and cytosine (C) base pairs with guanine (G). The sequence is determined to be 3′-AGGUACUCAACU-5′ (can also be written as 5′-UCAACUCAUGGA-3′).

Exercise 11.1.4.2

A portion of the template strand of a gene has the sequence 5′-CCAGTGAATTGCCTAT-3′. What is the sequence of nucleotides in the RNA that is formed from this template?

Three types of RNA are formed during transcription: *messenger RNA* (mRNA), *ribosomal RNA* (rRNA), and *transfer RNA* (tRNA). These three types of RNA differ in function, size, and percentage of the total cell RNA (Table 11.1.4.1). mRNA makes up only a small percent of the total amount of RNA within the cell, primarily because each molecule of mRNA exists for a relatively short time; it is continuously being degraded and resynthesized. The molecular dimensions of the mRNA molecule vary according to the amount of genetic information a given molecule contains. After transcription, which takes place in the nucleus, the mRNA passes into the cytoplasm, carrying the genetic message from DNA to the ribosomes, the sites of protein synthesis. Elsewhere, we shall see how mRNA directly determines the sequence of amino acids during protein synthesis.

Table 11.1.4.1: Properties of Cellular RNA in Escherichia coli

Type	Function	Approximate Number of Nucleotides	Percentage of Total Cell RNA
mRNA	codes for proteins	100–6,000	~3
rRNA	component of ribosomes	120–2900	83
tRNA	adapter molecule that brings the amino acid to the ribosome	75–90	14

Ribosomes are cellular substructures where proteins are synthesized. They contain about 65% rRNA and 35% protein, held together by numerous noncovalent interactions, such as hydrogen bonding, in an overall structure consisting of two globular particles of unequal size.

Molecules of tRNA, which bring amino acids (one at a time) to the ribosomes for the construction of proteins, differ from one another in the kinds of amino acid each is specifically designed to carry. A set of three nucleotides, known as a codon, on the mRNA determines which kind of tRNA will add its amino acid to the growing chain. Each of the 20 amino acids found in proteins has at least one corresponding kind of tRNA, and most amino acids have more than one.

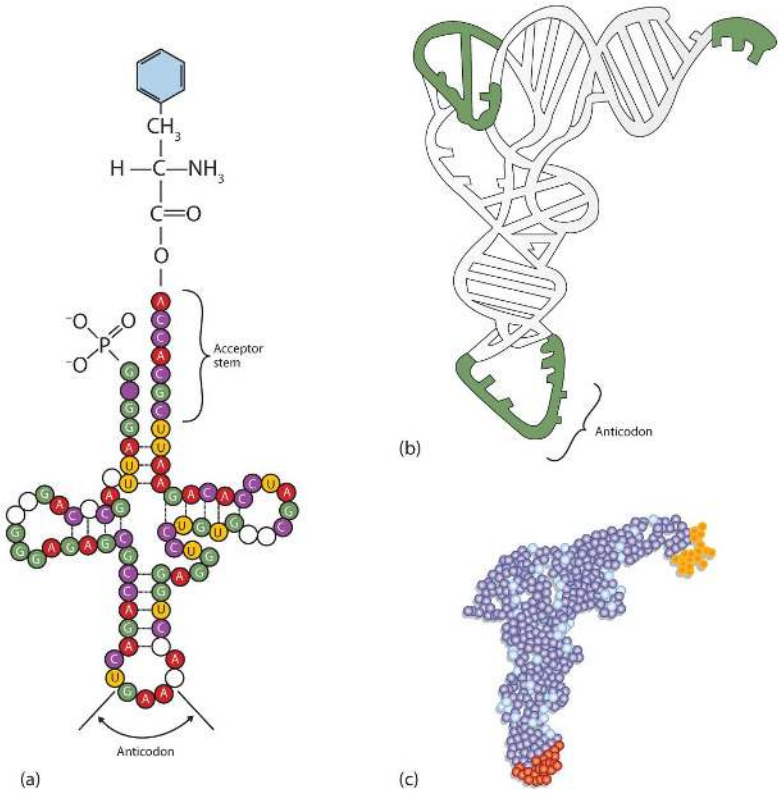


Figure 11.1.4.3: Transfer RNA. (a) In the two-dimensional structure of a yeast tRNA molecule for phenylalanine, the amino acid binds to the acceptor stem located at the 3′ end of the tRNA primary sequence. (The nucleotides that are not specifically identified here are slightly altered analogs of the four common ribonucleotides A, U, C, and G.) (b) In the three-dimensional structure of yeast phenylalanine tRNA, note that the anticodon loop is at the bottom and the acceptor stem is at the top right. (c) This shows a space-filling model of the tRNA.

The two-dimensional structure of a tRNA molecule has three distinctive loops, reminiscent of a cloverleaf (Figure 11.1.4.3). On one loop is a sequence of three nucleotides that varies for each kind of tRNA. This triplet, called the anticodon, is complementary to and pairs with the codon on the mRNA. At the opposite end of the molecule is the acceptor stem, where the amino acid is attached.

Summary

- In DNA replication, each strand of the original DNA serves as a template for the synthesis of a complementary strand.
- DNA polymerase is the primary enzyme needed for replication.
- In transcription, a segment of DNA serves as a template for the synthesis of an RNA sequence.
- RNA polymerase is the primary enzyme needed for transcription.
- Three types of RNA are formed during transcription: mRNA, rRNA, and tRNA.

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11.1.5: Protein Synthesis and the Genetic Code

Learning Objectives

- describe the characteristics of the genetic code.
- describe how a protein is synthesized from mRNA.

One of the definitions of a gene is as follows: a segment of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) carrying the code for a specific polypeptide. Each molecule of messenger RNA (mRNA) is a transcribed copy of a gene that is used by a cell for synthesizing a polypeptide chain. If a protein contains two or more different polypeptide chains, each chain is coded by a different gene. We turn now to the question of how the sequence of nucleotides in a molecule of ribonucleic acid (RNA) is translated into an amino acid sequence.

How can a molecule containing just 4 different nucleotides specify the sequence of the 20 amino acids that occur in proteins? If each nucleotide coded for 1 amino acid, then obviously the nucleic acids could code for only 4 amino acids. What if amino acids were coded for by groups of 2 nucleotides? There are 4^2, or 16, different combinations of 2 nucleotides (AA, AU, AC, AG, UU, and so on). Such a code is more extensive but still not adequate to code for 20 amino acids. However, if the nucleotides are arranged in groups of 3, the number of different possible combinations is 4^3, or 64. Here we have a code that is extensive enough to direct the synthesis of the primary structure of a protein molecule.



***Video**: NDSU Virtual Cell Animations project animation "Translation". For more information, see VCell, NDSU(opens in new window) [vcell.ndsu.nodak.edu]*

The genetic code can therefore be described as the identification of each group of three nucleotides and its particular amino acid. The sequence of these triplet groups in the mRNA dictates the sequence of the amino acids in the protein. Each individual three-nucleotide coding unit, as we have seen, is called a *codon*.

Protein synthesis is accomplished by orderly interactions between mRNA and the other ribonucleic acids (transfer RNA [tRNA] and ribosomal RNA [rRNA]), the ribosome, and more than 100 enzymes. The mRNA formed in the nucleus during transcription is transported across the nuclear membrane into the cytoplasm to the ribosomes—carrying with it the genetic instructions. The process in which the information encoded in the mRNA is used to direct the sequencing of amino acids and thus ultimately to synthesize a protein is referred to as translation.

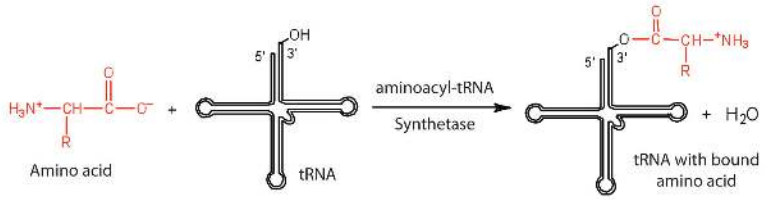


Figure 11.1.5.1: Binding of an Amino Acid to Its tRNA

Before an amino acid can be incorporated into a polypeptide chain, it must be attached to its unique tRNA. This crucial process requires an enzyme known as aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (Figure 11.1.5.1). There is a specific aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase for each amino acid. This high degree of specificity is vital to the incorporation of the correct amino acid into a protein. After the amino acid molecule has been bound to its tRNA carrier, protein synthesis can take place. Figure 11.1.5.2 depicts a schematic stepwise representation of this all-important process.

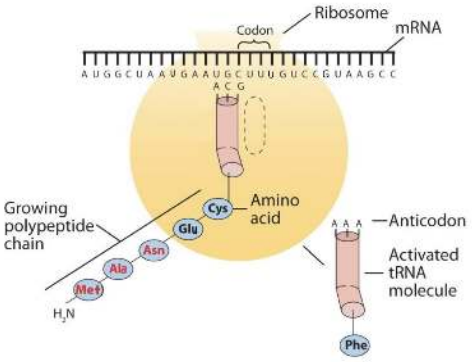


Figure 11.1.5.2*a*: The Elongation Steps in Protein Synthesis - Protein synthesis is already in progress at the ribosome. The growing polypeptide chain is attached to the tRNA that brought in the previous amino acid (in this illustration, cys.)

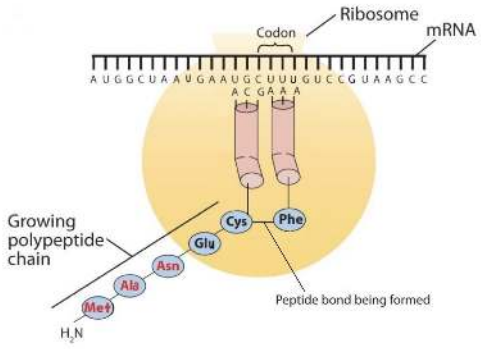


Figure 11.1.5.2*b*: The Elongation Steps in Protein Synthesis - An activated tRNA, which has the anticodon AAA, binds to the ribosome next to the previous bound tRNA and interacts with the mRNA molecule though basepairing of the codon and anticodon. The amino acid Phe is being incorporated into the polypeptide chain by the formation of a peptide linkage between the carboxyl group of Cys and the amino acid group of the Phe. This reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme peptidyl transferase, a component of the ribosome.

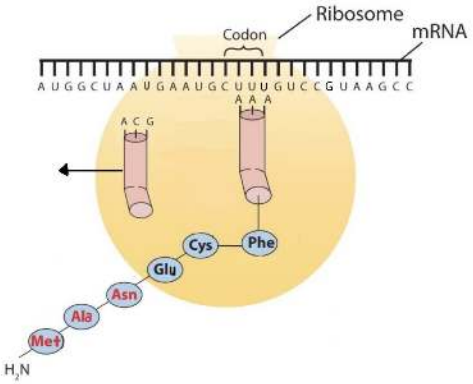


Figure 11.1.5.2*c*: The Elongation Steps in Protein Synthesis - The Cys-Phe linkage is now complete, and the growing polypeptide chain remains attached to the tRNA for Phe.

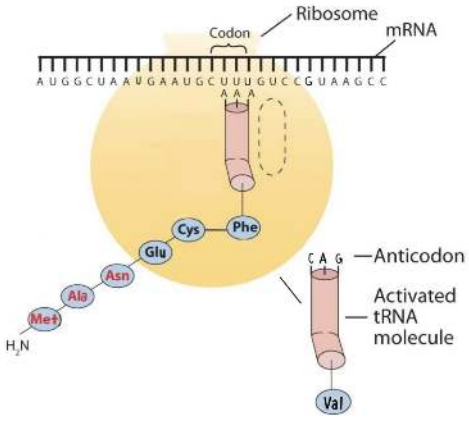


Figure 11.1.5.2*d*: The Elongation Steps in Protein Synthesis - The ribosome moves to the right along the mRNA strand. This shift brings the next codon, GUC, into its correct position on the surface of the ribosome. Note that an activated tRNA molecule, containing the next amino acid to be attached to the chain is moving to the ribosome. Steps (b)-(d) will be repeated until the ribosome reaches a stop codon.

Early experimenters were faced with the task of determining which of the 64 possible codons stood for each of the 20 amino acids. The cracking of the genetic code was the joint accomplishment of several well-known geneticists—notably Har Khorana, Marshall Nirenberg, Philip Leder, and Severo Ochoa—from 1961 to 1964. The genetic dictionary they compiled, summarized in Figure 11.1.5.3, shows that 61 codons code for amino acids, and 3 codons serve as signals for the termination of polypeptide synthesis (much like the period at the end of a sentence). Notice that only methionine (AUG) and tryptophan (UGG) have single codons. All other amino acids have two or more codons.

Second base

First base	U	C	A	G	Third base
U	Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	U
	Phe	Ser	Tyr	Cys	C
	Leu	Ser	Stop	Stop	A
	Leu	Ser	Stop	Trp	G
C	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	U
	Leu	Pro	His	Arg	C
	Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	A
	Leu	Pro	Gln	Arg	G
A	Ile	Thr	Asn	Ser	U
	Ile	Thr	Asn	Ser	C
	Ile	Thr	Lys	Arg	A
	Met	Thr	Lys	Arg	G
G	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	U
	Val	Ala	Asp	Gly	C
	Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	A
	Val	Ala	Glu	Gly	G

Figure 11.1.5.3: The Genetic Code

Example 11.1.5.1: Using the Genetic Code

A portion of an mRNA molecule has the sequence 5′-AUGCCACGAGUUGAC-3′. What amino acid sequence does this code for?

Solution

Use Figure 11.1.5.3 to determine what amino acid each set of three nucleotides (codon) codes for. Remember that the sequence is read starting from the 5′ end and that a protein is synthesized starting with the N-terminal amino acid. The sequence 5′-AUGCCACGAGUUGAC-3′ codes for met-pro-arg-val-asp.

? Exercise 11.1.5.4

A portion of an RNA molecule has the sequence 5′-AUGCUGAAUUGCGUAGGA-3′. What amino acid sequence does this code for?

Further experimentation threw much light on the nature of the genetic code, as follows:

1. The code is virtually universal; animal, plant, and bacterial cells use the same codons to specify each amino acid (with a few exceptions).
2. The code is “degenerate”; in all but two cases (methionine and tryptophan), more than one triplet codes for a given amino acid.
3. The first two bases of each codon are most significant; the third base often varies. This suggests that a change in the third base by a mutation may still permit the correct incorporation of a given amino acid into a protein. The third base is sometimes called the “wobble” base.
4. The code is continuous and nonoverlapping; there are *no* nucleotides between codons, and adjacent codons do not overlap.
5. The three termination codons are read by special proteins called release factors, which signal the end of the translation process.
6. The codon AUG codes for methionine and is also the initiation codon. Thus methionine is the first amino acid in each newly synthesized polypeptide. This first amino acid is usually removed enzymatically before the polypeptide chain is completed; the vast majority of polypeptides do not begin with methionine.

Summary

In translation, the information in mRNA directs the order of amino acids in protein synthesis. A set of three nucleotides (codon) codes for a specific amino acid.

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11.1.6: Mutations and Genetic Diseases

Learning Objectives

- To describe the causes of genetic mutations and how they lead to genetic diseases.

We have seen that the sequence of nucleotides in a cell's deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is what ultimately determines the sequence of amino acids in proteins made by the cell and thus is critical for the proper functioning of the cell. On rare occasions, however, the nucleotide sequence in DNA may be modified either spontaneously (by errors during replication, occurring approximately once for every 10 billion nucleotides) or from exposure to heat, radiation, or certain chemicals. Any chemical or physical change that alters the nucleotide sequence in DNA is called a mutation. When a mutation occurs in an egg or sperm cell that then produces a living organism, it will be inherited by all the offspring of that organism.

Common types of mutations include **substitution** (a different nucleotide is substituted), **insertion** (the addition of a new nucleotide), and **deletion** (the loss of a nucleotide). These changes within DNA are called point mutations because only one nucleotide is substituted, added, or deleted (Figure 11.1.6.1). Because an insertion or deletion results in a frame-shift that changes the reading of subsequent codons and, therefore, alters the entire amino acid sequence that follows the mutation, insertions and deletions are usually more harmful than a substitution in which only a single amino acid is altered.

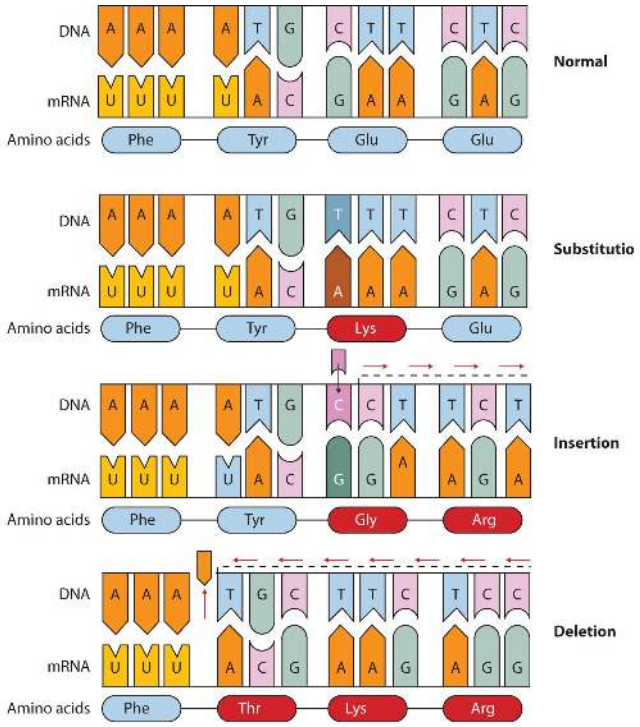


Figure 11.1.6.1: Three Types of Point Mutations

The chemical or physical agents that cause mutations are called mutagens. Examples of physical mutagens are ultraviolet (UV) and gamma radiation. Radiation exerts its mutagenic effect either directly or by creating free radicals that in turn have mutagenic effects. Radiation and free radicals can lead to the formation of bonds between nitrogenous bases in DNA. For example, exposure to UV light can result in the formation of a covalent bond between two adjacent thymines on a DNA strand, producing a thymine dimer (Figure 11.1.6.2). If not repaired, the dimer prevents the formation of the double helix at the point where it occurs. The genetic disease *xeroderma pigmentosum* is caused by a lack of the enzyme that cuts out the thymine dimers in damaged DNA. Individuals affected by this condition are abnormally sensitive to light and are more prone to skin cancer than normal individuals.

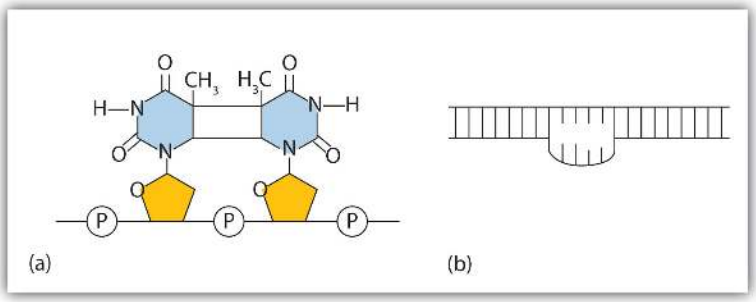


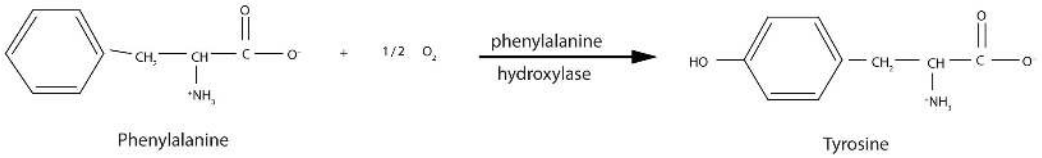
Figure 11.1.6.2: An Example of Radiation Damage to DNA. (a) The thymine dimer is formed by the action of UV light. (b) When a defect in the double strand is produced by the thymine dimer, this defect temporarily stops DNA replication, but the dimer can be removed, and the region can be repaired by an enzyme repair system.

Sometimes gene mutations are beneficial, but most of them are detrimental. For example, if a point mutation occurs at a crucial position in a DNA sequence, the affected protein will lack biological activity, perhaps resulting in the death of a cell. In such cases the altered DNA sequence is lost and will not be copied into daughter cells. Nonlethal mutations in an egg or sperm cell may lead to metabolic abnormalities or hereditary diseases. Such diseases are called *inborn errors of metabolism* or genetic diseases. A partial listing of genetic diseases is presented in Figure 11.1.6.1, and two specific diseases are discussed in the following sections. In most cases, the defective gene results in a failure to synthesize a particular enzyme.

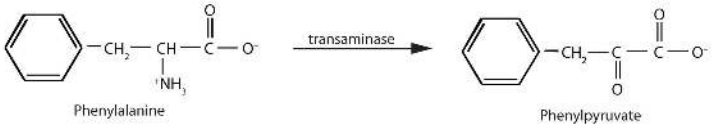
Figure 11.1.6.1: Some Representative Genetic Diseases in Humans and the Protein or Enzyme Responsible

Disease	Responsible Protein or Enzyme
alkaptonuria	homogentisic acid oxidase
galactosemia	galactose 1-phosphate uridyl transferase, galactokinase, or UDP galactose epimerase
Gaucher disease	glucocerebrosidase
gout and Lesch-Nyhan syndrome	hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase
hemophilia	antihemophilic factor (factor VIII) or Christmas factor (factor IX)
homocystinuria	cystathionine synthetase
maple syrup urine disease	branched chain α-keto acid dehydrogenase complex
McArdle syndrome	muscle phosphorylase
Niemann-Pick disease	sphingomyelinase
phenylketonuria (PKU)	phenylalanine hydroxylase
sickle cell anemia	hemoglobin
Tay-Sachs disease	hexosaminidase A
tyrosinemia	fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase or tyrosine aminotransferase
von Gierke disease	glucose 6-phosphatase
Wilson disease	Wilson disease protein

PKU results from the absence of the enzyme phenylalanine hydroxylase. Without this enzyme, a person cannot convert phenylalanine to tyrosine, which is the precursor of the neurotransmitters dopamine and norepinephrine as well as the skin pigment melanin.



When this reaction cannot occur, phenylalanine accumulates and is then converted to higher than normal quantities of phenylpyruvate. The disease acquired its name from the high levels of phenylpyruvate (a phenyl ketone) in urine. Excessive amounts of phenylpyruvate impair normal brain development, which causes severe mental retardation.



PKU may be diagnosed by assaying a sample of blood or urine for phenylalanine or one of its metabolites. Medical authorities recommend testing every newborn's blood for phenylalanine within 24 h to 3 weeks after birth. If the condition is detected, mental retardation can be prevented by immediately placing the infant on a diet containing little or no phenylalanine. Because phenylalanine is plentiful in naturally produced proteins, the low-phenylalanine diet depends on a synthetic protein substitute plus very small measured amounts of naturally produced foods. Before dietary treatment was introduced in the early 1960s, severe mental retardation was a common outcome for children with PKU. Prior to the 1960s, 85% of patients with PKU had an intelligence quotient (IQ) less than 40, and 37% had IQ scores below 10. Since the introduction of dietary treatments, however, over 95% of children with PKU have developed normal or near-normal intelligence. The incidence of PKU in newborns is about 1 in 12,000 in North America.

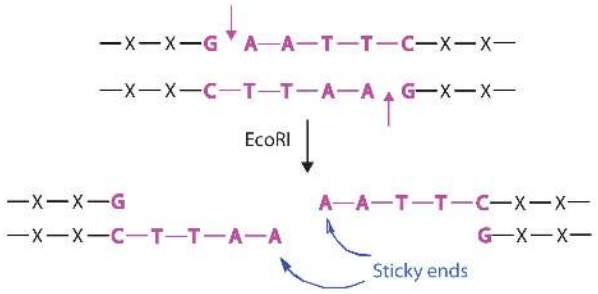
> *Every state in the United States has mandated that screening for PKU be provided to all newborns.*

Several genetic diseases are collectively categorized as *lipid-storage diseases*. Lipids are constantly being synthesized and broken down in the body, so if the enzymes that catalyze lipid degradation are missing, the lipids tend to accumulate and cause a variety of medical problems. When a genetic mutation occurs in the gene for the enzyme hexosaminidase A, for example, gangliosides cannot be degraded but accumulate in brain tissue, causing the ganglion cells of the brain to become greatly enlarged and nonfunctional. This genetic disease, known as *Tay-Sachs disease*, leads to a regression in development, dementia, paralysis, and blindness, with death usually occurring before the age of three. There is currently no treatment, but Tay-Sachs disease can be diagnosed in a fetus by assaying the amniotic fluid (amniocentesis) for hexosaminidase A. A blood test can identify Tay-Sachs carriers—people who inherit a defective gene from only one rather than both parents—because they produce only half the normal amount of hexosaminidase A, although they do not exhibit symptoms of the disease.

Looking Closer: Recombinant DNA Technology

More than 3,000 human diseases have been shown to have a genetic component, caused or in some way modulated by the person's genetic composition. Moreover, in the last decade or so, researchers have succeeded in identifying many of the genes and even mutations that are responsible for specific genetic diseases. Now scientists have found ways of identifying and isolating genes that have specific biological functions and placing those genes in another organism, such as a bacterium, which can be easily grown in culture. With these techniques, known as *recombinant DNA technology*, the ability to cure many serious genetic diseases appears to be within our grasp.

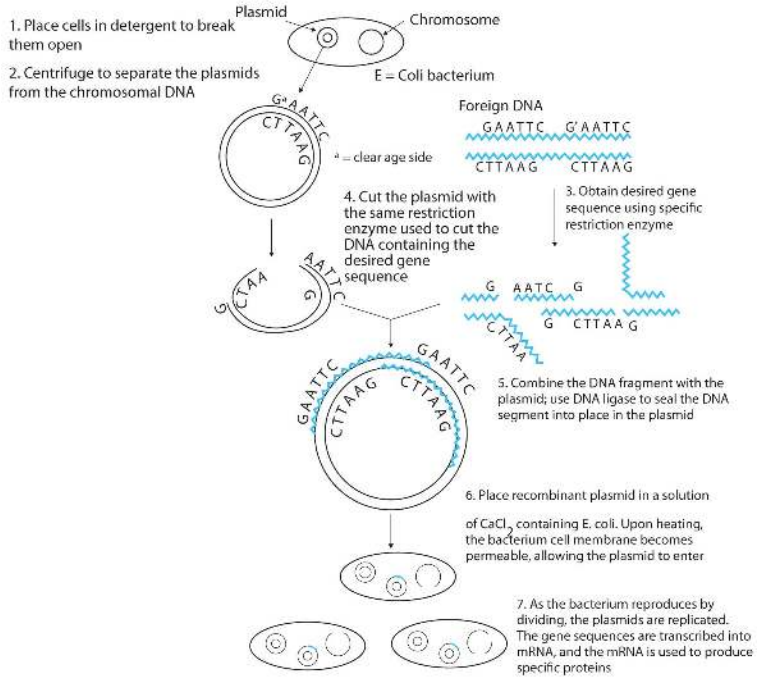
Isolating the specific gene or genes that cause a particular genetic disease is a monumental task. One reason for the difficulty is the enormous amount of a cell's DNA, only a minute portion of which contains the gene sequence. Thus, the first task is to obtain smaller pieces of DNA that can be more easily handled. Fortunately, researchers are able to use *restriction enzymes* (also known as restriction endonucleases), discovered in 1970, which are enzymes that cut DNA at specific, known nucleotide sequences, yielding DNA fragments of shorter length. For example, the restriction enzyme *EcoRI* recognizes the nucleotide sequence shown here and cuts both DNA strands as indicated:



Once a DNA strand has been fragmented, it must be cloned; that is, multiple identical copies of each DNA fragment are produced to make sure there are sufficient amounts of each to detect and manipulate in the laboratory. Cloning is accomplished by inserting the individual DNA fragments into phages (bacterial viruses) that can enter bacterial cells and be replicated. When a bacterial cell infected by the modified phage is placed in an appropriate culture medium, it forms a colony of cells, all containing copies of the original DNA fragment. This technique is used to produce many bacterial colonies, each containing a different DNA fragment. The result is a *DNA library*, a collection of bacterial colonies that together contain the entire genome of a particular organism.

The next task is to screen the DNA library to determine which bacterial colony (or colonies) has incorporated the DNA fragment containing the desired gene. A short piece of DNA, known as a *hybridization probe*, which has a nucleotide sequence complementary to a known sequence in the gene, is synthesized, and a radioactive phosphate group is added to it as a "tag." You might be wondering how researchers are able to prepare such a probe if the gene has not yet been isolated. One way is to use a segment of the desired gene isolated from another organism. An alternative method depends on knowing all or part of the amino acid sequence of the protein produced by the gene of interest: the amino acid sequence is used to produce an approximate genetic code for the gene, and this nucleotide sequence is then produced synthetically. (The amino acid sequence used is carefully chosen to include, if possible, many amino acids such as methionine and tryptophan, which have only a single codon each.)

After a probe identifies a colony containing the desired gene, the DNA fragment is clipped out, again using restriction enzymes, and spliced into another replicating entity, usually a plasmid. *Plasmids* are tiny mini-chromosomes found in many bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*). A recombined plasmid would then be inserted into the host organism (usually the bacterium *E. coli*), where it would go to work to produce the desired protein.



Proponents of recombinant DNA research are excited about its great potential benefits. An example is the production of human growth hormone, which is used to treat children who fail to grow properly. Formerly, human growth hormone was available only in

tiny amounts obtained from cadavers. Now it is readily available through recombinant DNA technology. Another gene that has been cloned is the gene for epidermal growth factor, which stimulates the growth of skin cells and can be used to speed the healing of burns and other skin wounds. Recombinant techniques are also a powerful research tool, providing enormous aid to scientists as they map and sequence genes and determine the functions of different segments of an organism's DNA.

In addition to advancements in the ongoing treatment of genetic diseases, recombinant DNA technology may actually lead to cures. When appropriate genes are successfully inserted into *E. coli*, the bacteria can become miniature pharmaceutical factories, producing great quantities of insulin for people with diabetes, clotting factor for people with hemophilia, missing enzymes, hormones, vitamins, antibodies, vaccines, and so on. Recent accomplishments include the production in *E. coli* of recombinant DNA molecules containing synthetic genes for tissue plasminogen activator, a clot-dissolving enzyme that can rescue heart attack victims, as well as the production of vaccines against hepatitis B (humans) and hoof-and-mouth disease (cattle).

Scientists have used other bacteria besides *E. coli* in gene-splicing experiments and also yeast and fungi. Plant molecular biologists use a bacterial plasmid to introduce genes for several foreign proteins (including animal proteins) into plants. The bacterium is *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, which can cause tumors in many plants, but which can be treated so that its tumor-causing ability is eliminated. One practical application of its plasmids would be to enhance a plant's nutritional value by transferring into it the gene necessary for the synthesis of an amino acid in which the plant is normally deficient (for example, transferring the gene for methionine synthesis into pinto beans, which normally do not synthesize high levels of methionine).

> Restriction enzymes have been isolated from a number of bacteria and are named after the bacterium of origin. *EcoRI* is a restriction enzyme obtained from the R strain of *E. coli*. The roman numeral I indicates that it was the first restriction enzyme obtained from this strain of bacteria.

Summary

- The nucleotide sequence in DNA may be modified either spontaneously or from exposure to heat, radiation, or certain chemicals and can lead to mutations.
- Mutagens are the chemical or physical agents that cause mutations.
- Genetic diseases are hereditary diseases that occur because of a mutation in a critical gene.

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11.1.7: Viruses

Learning Objectives

- To explain how viruses reproduce in cells.

Viruses are visible only under an electron microscope. They come in a variety of shapes, ranging from spherical to rod shaped. The fact that they contain either deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) or ribonucleic acid (RNA)—*but never both*—allows them to be divided into two major classes: DNA viruses and RNA viruses (Figure 11.1.7.1).

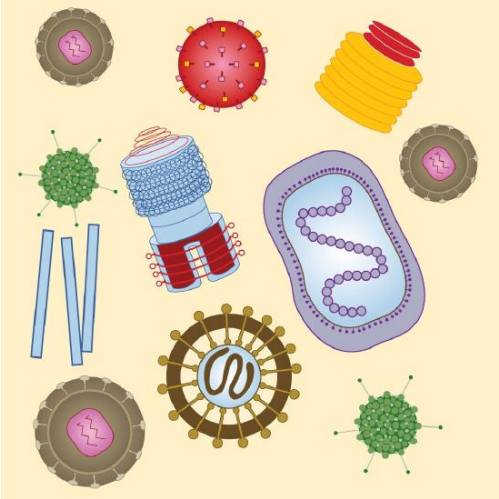


Figure 11.1.7.1: Viruses. Viruses come in a variety of shapes that are determined by their protein coats.

Most *RNA viruses* use their nucleic acids in much the same way as the DNA viruses, penetrating a host cell and inducing it to replicate the viral RNA and synthesize viral proteins. The new RNA strands and viral proteins are then assembled into new viruses. Some RNA viruses, however, called retroviruses (Figure 11.1.7.2), synthesize DNA in the host cell, in a process that is the reverse of the DNA-to-RNA transcription that normally occurs in cells. The synthesis of DNA from an RNA template is catalyzed by the enzyme reverse transcriptase.

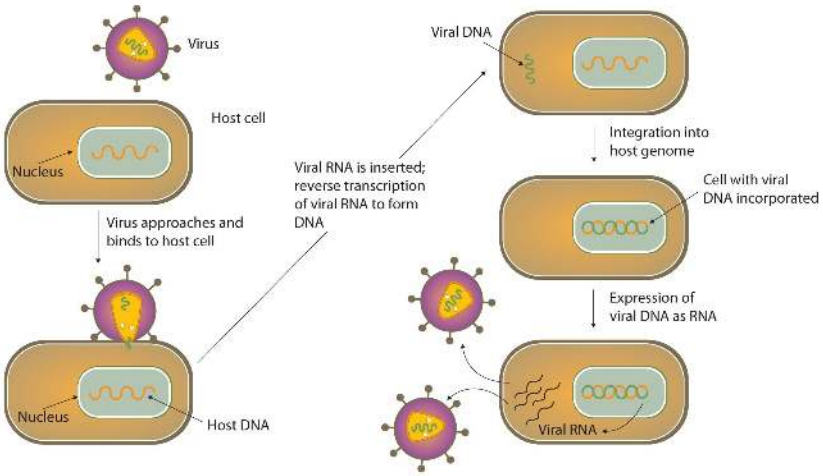
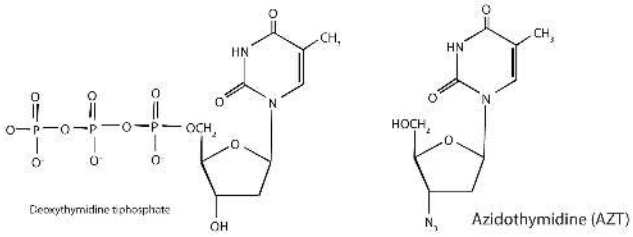
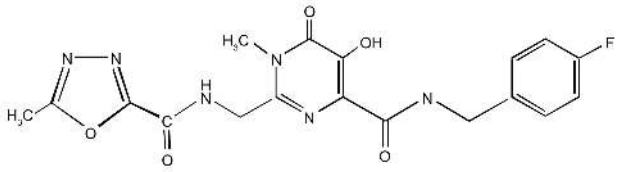


Figure 11.1.7.2: Life Cycle of a Retrovirus

In 1987, **azidothymidine** (AZT, also known as zidovudine or the brand name Retrovir) became the first drug approved for the treatment of AIDS. It works by binding to reverse transcriptase in place of deoxythymidine triphosphate, after which, because AZT does not have a 3′OH group, further replication is blocked. In the past 10 years, several other drugs have been approved that also act by inhibiting the viral reverse transcriptase.



Raltegravir (Isentress) is a newer anti-AIDS drug that was approved by the FDA in October 2007. This drug inhibits the integrase enzyme that is needed to integrate the HIV DNA into cellular DNA, an essential step in the production of more HIV particles.



A major problem in treating HIV infections is that the virus can become resistant to any of these drugs. One way to combat the problem has been to administer a “cocktail” of drugs, typically a combination of two reverse transcriptase inhibitors along with a protease inhibitor. These treatments can significantly reduce the amount of HIV in an infected person.

Career Focus: Genetics Counselor

A genetics counselor works with individuals and families who have birth defects or genetic disorders or a family history of a disease, such as cancer, with a genetic link. A genetics counselor may work in a variety of health-care settings (such as a hospital) to obtain family medical and reproductive histories; explain how genetic conditions are inherited; explain the causes, diagnosis, and care of these conditions; interpret the results of genetic tests; and aid the individual or family in making decisions regarding genetic diseases or conditions. A certified genetics counselor must obtain a master’s degree from an accredited program. Applicants to these graduate programs usually have an undergraduate degree in biology, psychology, or genetics.



Photo courtesy of the United States National Institutes for Health, commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Geneticcounseling.jpg.

Summary

Viruses are very small infectious agents that contain either DNA or RNA as their genetic material. The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) causes acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).

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11.1.E: Nucleic Acids (Exercises)

19.1: Nucleotides

Concept Review Exercises

1. Identify the three molecules needed to form the nucleotides in each nucleic acid.
   a. DNA
   b. RNA
2. Classify each compound as a pentose sugar, a purine, or a pyrimidine.
   a. adenine
   b. guanine
   c. deoxyribose
   d. thymine
   e. ribose
   f. cytosine

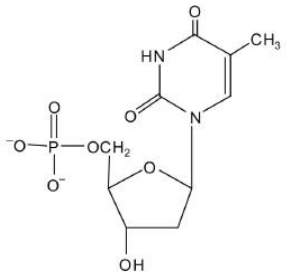
Answers

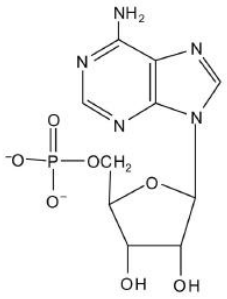
1. a. nitrogenous base (adenine, guanine, cytosine, and thymine), 2-deoxyribose, and H_3PO_4
   b. nitrogenous base (adenine, guanine, cytosine, and uracil), ribose, and H_3PO_4
2. a. purine
   b. purine
   c. pentose sugar
   d. pyrimidine
   e. pentose sugar
   f. pyrimidine

Exercises

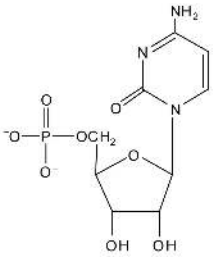
1. What is the sugar unit in each nucleic acid?
   a. RNA
   b. DNA
2. Identify the major nitrogenous bases in each nucleic acid.
   a. DNA
   b. RNA
3. For each structure, circle the sugar unit and identify the nucleotide as a ribonucleotide or a deoxyribonucleotide.

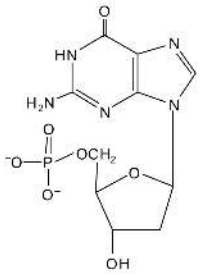
   a.



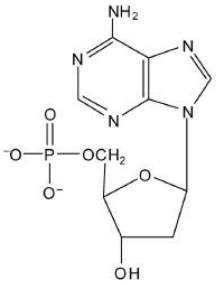
b. 

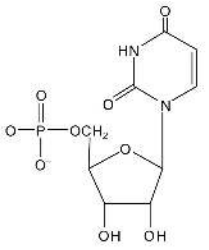
4. For each structure, circle the sugar unit and identify the nucleotide as a ribonucleotide or a deoxyribonucleotide.

a. 

b. 

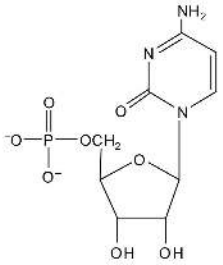
5. For each structure, circle the nitrogenous base and identify it as a purine or pyrimidine.

a. 

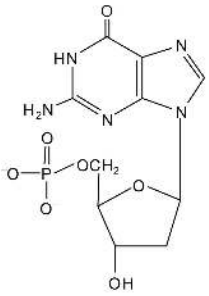
b. 

6. For each structure, circle the nitrogenous base and identify it as a purine or pyrimidine.

a.



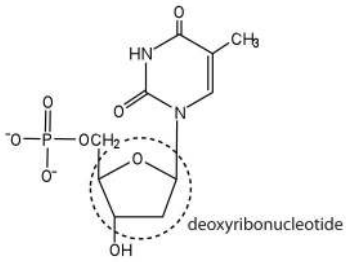
b.



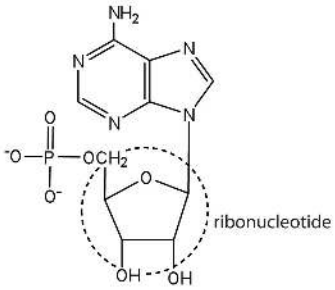
Answers

1. a. ribose
   b. deoxyribose

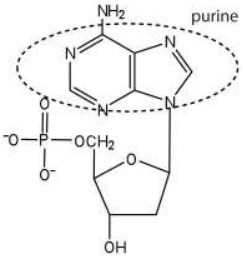
3. a.



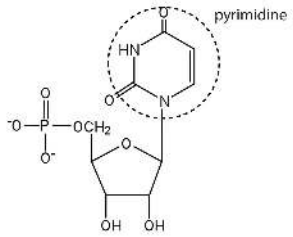
b.



a.



b.



19.2: Nucleic Acid Structure

Concept Review Exercises

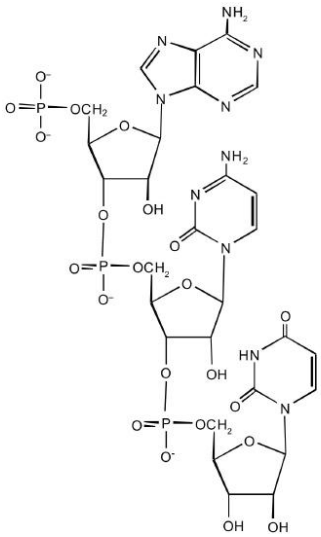
1. a. Name the two kinds of nucleic acids.
   b. Which type of nucleic acid stores genetic information in the cell?
2. What are complementary bases?
3. Why is it structurally important that a purine base always pair with a pyrimidine base in the DNA double helix?

Answers

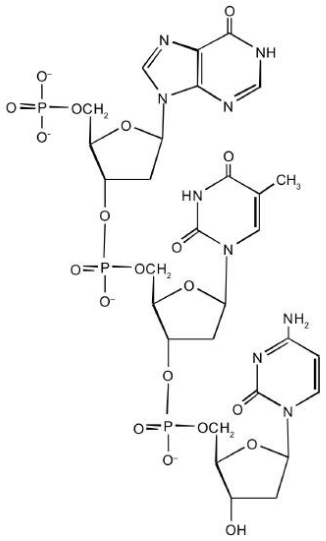
1. a. deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA)
   b. DNA
2. the specific base pairings in the DNA double helix in which guanine is paired with cytosine and adenine is paired with thymine
3. The width of the DNA double helix is kept at a constant width, rather than narrowing (if two pyrimidines were across from each other) or widening (if two purines were across from each other).

Exercises

1. For this short RNA segment,
   a. identify the 5′ end and the 3′ end of the molecule.
   b. circle the atoms that comprise the backbone of the nucleic acid chain.
   c. write the nucleotide sequence of this RNA segment.



2. For this short DNA segment,
   a. identify the 5′ end and the 3′ end of the molecule.
   b. circle the atoms that comprise the backbone of the nucleic acid chain.
   c. write the nucleotide sequence of this DNA segment.

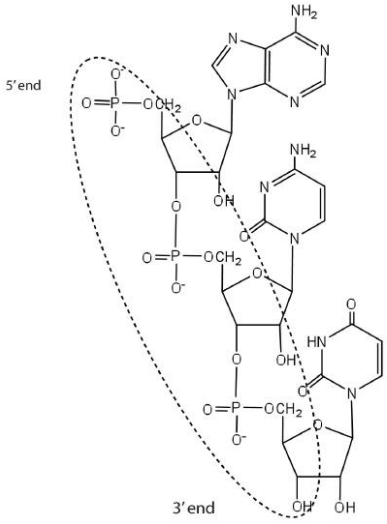


3. Which nitrogenous base in DNA pairs with each nitrogenous base?
    a. cytosine
    b. adenine
    c. guanine
    d. thymine
4. Which nitrogenous base in RNA pairs with each nitrogenous base?
    a. cytosine
    b. adenine
    c. guanine
    d. thymine
5. How many hydrogen bonds can form between the two strands in the short DNA segment shown below?

    5′ ATGCGACTA 3′ 3′ TACGCTGAT 5′
6. How many hydrogen bonds can form between the two strands in the short DNA segment shown below?

    5′ CGATGAGCC 3′ 3′ GCTACTCGG 5′

Answers

1. 

    c. ACU

3. a. guanine
   b. thymine
   c. cytosine
   d. adenine

5. 22 (2 between each AT base pair and 3 between each GC base pair)

19.3: Replication and Expression of Genetic Information

Concept Review Exercises

1. In DNA replication, a parent DNA molecule produces two daughter molecules. What is the fate of each strand of the parent DNA double helix?
2. What is the role of DNA in transcription? What is produced in transcription?
3. Which type of RNA contains the codon? Which type of RNA contains the anticodon?

Answers

1. Each strand of the parent DNA double helix remains associated with the newly synthesized DNA strand.
2. DNA serves as a template for the synthesis of an RNA strand (the product of transcription).
3. codon: mRNA; anticodon: tRNA

Exercises

1. Describe how replication and transcription are similar.
2. Describe how replication and transcription differ.
3. A portion of the coding strand for a given gene has the sequence 5′-ATGAGCGACTTTGCGGGATTA-3′.
   a. What is the sequence of complementary template strand?
   b. What is the sequence of the mRNA that would be produced during transcription from this segment of DNA?
4. A portion of the coding strand for a given gene has the sequence 5′-ATGGCAATCCTCAAACGCTGT-3′.
   a. What is the sequence of complementary template strand?
   b. What is the sequence of the mRNA that would be produced during transcription from this segment of DNA?

Answers

1. Both processes require a template from which a complementary strand is synthesized.

3.

a. 3′-TACTCGCTGAAACGCCCTAAT-5′
b. 5′-AUGAGCGACUUUGCGGGAUUA-3′

19.4: Protein Synthesis and the Genetic Code

Concept Review Exercises

1. What are the roles of mRNA and tRNA in protein synthesis?
2. What is the initiation codon?
3. What are the termination codons and how are they recognized?

Answers

1. mRNA provides the code that determines the order of amino acids in the protein; tRNA transports the amino acids to the ribosome to incorporate into the growing protein chain.
2. AUG
3. UAA, UAG, and UGA; they are recognized by special proteins called release factors, which signal the end of the translation process.

Exercises

1. Write the anticodon on tRNA that would pair with each mRNA codon.
   a. 5′-UUU-3′
   b. 5′-CAU-3′
   c. 5′-AGC-3′
   d. 5′-CCG-3′
2. Write the codon on mRNA that would pair with each tRNA anticodon.
   a. 5′-UUG-3′
   b. 5′-GAA-3′
   c. 5′-UCC-3′
   d. 5′-CAC-3′
3. The peptide hormone oxytocin contains 9 amino acid units. What is the minimum number of nucleotides needed to code for this peptide?
4. Myoglobin, a protein that stores oxygen in muscle cells, has been purified from a number of organisms. The protein from a sperm whale is composed of 153 amino acid units. What is the minimum number of nucleotides that must be present in the mRNA that codes for this protein?
5. Use Figure 11.1.E.3 to identify the amino acids carried by each tRNA molecule in Exercise 1.
6. Use Figure 11.1.E.3 to identify the amino acids carried by each tRNA molecule in Exercise 2.
7. Use Figure 11.1.E.3 to determine the amino acid sequence produced from this mRNA sequence: 5′-AUGAGCGACUUUGCGGGAUUA-3′.
8. Use Figure 11.1.E.3 to determine the amino acid sequence produced from this mRNA sequence: 5′-AUGGCAAUCCUCAAACGCUGU-3′

Answers

1. a. 3′-AAA-5′
   b. 3′-GUA-5′
   c. 3′-UCG-5′
   d. 3′-GGC-5′
3. 27 nucleotides (3 nucleotides/codon)
5. 1a: phenyalanine; 1b: histidine; 1c: serine; 1d: proline
7. met-ser-asp-phe-ala-gly-leu

19.5: Mutations and Genetic Diseases

Concept Review Exercises

1. a. What effect can UV radiation have on DNA?
   b. Is UV radiation an example of a physical mutagen or a chemical mutagen?
2. a. What causes PKU?
   b. How is PKU detected and treated?

Answers

1. a. It can lead to the formation of a covalent bond between two adjacent thymines on a DNA strand, producing a thymine dimer.
   b. physical mutagen
2. a. the absence of the enzyme phenylalanine hydroxylase
   b. PKU is diagnosed by assaying a sample of blood or urine for phenylalanine or one of its metabolites; treatment calls for an individual to be placed on a diet containing little or no phenylalanine.

Exercises

1. A portion of the coding strand of a gene was found to have the sequence 5′-ATGAGCGACTTTCGCCCATTA-3′. A mutation occurred in the gene, making the sequence 5′-ATGAGCGACCTTCGCCCATTA-3′.

a. Identify the mutation as a substitution, an insertion, or a deletion.
b. What effect would the mutation have on the amino acid sequence of the protein obtained from this mutated gene (use Figure 19.14)?

2. A portion of the coding strand of a gene was found to have the sequence 5′-ATGGCAATCCTCAAACGCTGT-3′. A mutation occurred in the gene, making the sequence 5′-ATGGCAATCCTCAACGCTGT-3′.
   a. Identify the mutation as a substitution, an insertion, or a deletion.
   b. What effect would the mutation have on the amino acid sequence of the protein obtained from this mutated gene (use Figure 19.14)?
3. a. What is a mutagen?
   b. Give two examples of mutagens.
4. For each genetic disease, indicate which enzyme is lacking or defective and the characteristic symptoms of the disease.
   a. PKU
   b. Tay-Sachs disease

Answers

1. a. substitution
   b. Phenylalanine (UUU) would be replaced with leucine (CUU).
3. a. a chemical or physical agent that can cause a mutation
   b. UV radiation and gamma radiation (answers will vary)

19.6: Viruses

Questions

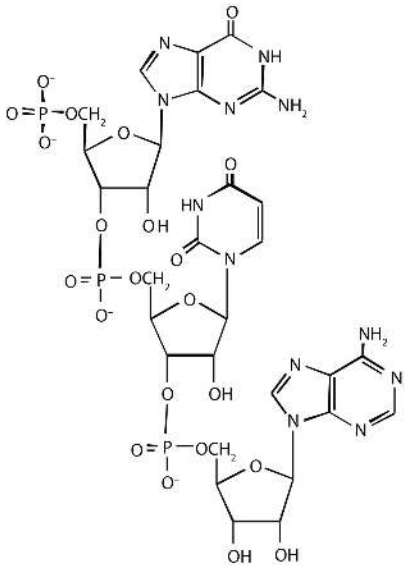
1. Describe the general structure of a virus.
2. How does a DNA virus differ from an RNA virus?
3. Why is HIV known as a retrovirus?
4. Describe how a DNA virus invades and destroys a cell.
5. a. Describe how an RNA virus invades and destroys a cell.
   b. How does this differ from a DNA virus?
6. What HIV enzyme does AZT inhibit?
7. What HIV enzyme does raltegravir inhibit?

Answers

1. A virus consists of a central core of nucleic acid enclosed in a protective shell of proteins. There may be lipid or carbohydrate molecules on the surface.
2. A DNA virus has DNA as its genetic material, while an RNA virus has RNA as its genetic material.
3. In a cell, a retrovirus synthesizes a DNA copy of its RNA genetic material.
4. The DNA virus enters a host cell and induces the cell to replicate the viral DNA and produce viral proteins. These proteins and DNA assemble into new viruses that are released by the host cell, which may die in the process.
5. -
6. reverse transcriptase
7. -

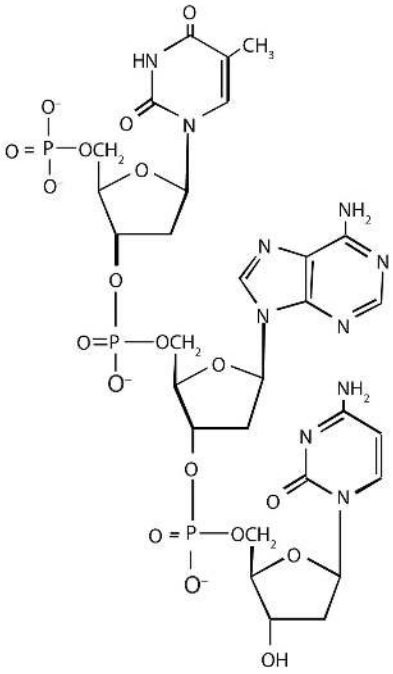
Additional Exercises

1. For this nucleic acid segment,



a. classify this segment as RNA or DNA and justify your choice.
b. determine the sequence of this segment, labeling the 5′ and 3′ ends.

2. For this nucleic acid segment,



a. classify this segment as RNA or DNA and justify your choice.
b. determine the sequence of this segment, labeling the 5′ and 3′ ends.

3. One of the key pieces of information that Watson and Crick used in determining the secondary structure of DNA came from experiments done by E. Chargaff, in which he studied the nucleotide composition of DNA from many different species. Chargaff noted that the molar quantity of A was always approximately equal to the molar quantity of T, and the molar quantity of C was always approximately equal to the molar quantity of G. How were Chargaff's results explained by the structural model of DNA proposed by Watson and Crick?

4. Suppose Chargaff (see Exercise 3) had used RNA instead of DNA. Would his results have been the same; that is, would the molar quantity of A approximately equal the molar quantity of T? Explain.

5. In the DNA segment

5′-ATGAGGCATGAGACG-3′ (coding strand) 3′-TACTCCGTACTCTGC-5′ (template strand)

a. What products would be formed from the segment's replication?
b. Write the mRNA sequence that would be obtained from the segment's transcription.
c. What is the amino acid sequence of the peptide produced from the mRNA in Exercise 5b?

6. In the DNA segment

5′-ATGACGGTTTACTAAGCC-3′ (coding strand) 3′-TACTGCCAAATGATTCGG-5′ (template strand)

a. What products would be formed from the segment's replication?
b. Write the mRNA sequence that would be obtained from the segment's transcription.
c. What is the amino acid sequence of the peptide produced from the mRNA in Exercise 6b?

7. A hypothetical protein has a molar mass of 23,300 Da. Assume that the average molar mass of an amino acid is 120.

a. How many amino acids are present in this hypothetical protein?
b. What is the minimum number of codons present in the mRNA that codes for this protein?
c. What is the minimum number of nucleotides needed to code for this protein?

8. Bradykinin is a potent peptide hormone composed of nine amino acids that lowers blood pressure.

a. The amino acid sequence for bradykinin is arg-pro-pro-gly-phe-ser-pro-phe-arg. Postulate a base sequence in the mRNA that would direct the synthesis of this hormone. Include an initiation codon and a termination codon.
b. What is the nucleotide sequence of the DNA that codes for this mRNA?

9. A particular DNA coding segment is ACGTTAGCCCCAGCT.

a. Write the sequence of nucleotides in the corresponding mRNA.
b. Determine the amino acid sequence formed from the mRNA in Exercise 9a during translation.
c. What amino acid sequence results from each of the following mutations?

    a. replacement of the underlined guanine by adenine
    b. insertion of thymine immediately after the underlined guanine
    c. deletion of the underlined guanine

10. A particular DNA coding segment is TACGACGTAACAAGC.

a. Write the sequence of nucleotides in the corresponding mRNA.
b. Determine the amino acid sequence formed from the mRNA in Exercise 10a during translation.
c. What amino acid sequence results from each of the following mutations?

    a. replacement of the underlined guanine by adenine
    b. replacement of the underlined adenine by thymine

11. Two possible point mutations are the substitution of lysine for leucine *or* the substitution of serine for threonine. Which is likely to be more serious and why?

12. Two possible point mutations are the substitution of valine for leucine *or* the substitution of glutamic acid for histidine. Which is likely to be more serious and why?

Answers

1.

a. RNA; the sugar is ribose, rather than deoxyribose
b. 5′-GUA-3′

3. In the DNA structure, because guanine (G) is always paired with cytosine (C) and adenine (A) is always paired with thymine (T), you would expect to have equal amounts of each.

5.

a. Each strand would be replicated, resulting in two double-stranded segments.
b. 5′-AUGAGGCAUGAGACG-3′
c. met-arg-his-glu-thr

7.

a. 194
b. 194
c. 582

9.

a. 5′-ACGUUAGCCCCAGCU-3′
b. thr-leu-ala-pro-ala
c.
   a. thr-leu-thr-pro-ala
   b. thr-leu-val-pro-ser
   c. thr-leu-pro-gin

11. substitution of lysine for leucine because you are changing from an amino acid with a nonpolar side chain to one that has a positively charged side chain; both serine and threonine, on the other hand, have polar side chains containing the OH group.

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11.1.S: Nucleic Acids (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the bold terms in the following summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

A cell's hereditary information is encoded in **chromosomes** in the cell's nucleus. Each chromosome is composed of proteins and **deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)**. The chromosomes contain smaller hereditary units called **genes,** which are relatively short segments of DNA. The hereditary information is expressed or used through the synthesis of **ribonucleic acid (RNA)**. Both **nucleic acids**—DNA and RNA—are polymers composed of monomers known as **nucleotides**, which in turn consist of phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4), a nitrogenous base, and a pentose sugar.

The two types of *nitrogenous bases* most important in nucleic acids are **purines**—adenine (A) and guanine (G)—and **pyrimidines**—cytosine (C), thymine (T), and uracil (U). DNA contains the nitrogenous bases adenine, cytosine, guanine, and thymine, while the bases in RNA are adenine, cytosine, guanine, and uracil. The sugar in the nucleotides of RNA is ribose; the one in DNA is 2-deoxyribose. The sequence of nucleotides in a nucleic acid defines the primary structure of the molecule.

RNA is a single-chain nucleic acid, whereas DNA possesses two nucleic-acid chains intertwined in a secondary structure called a **double helix**. The sugar-phosphate backbone forms the outside the double helix, with the purine and pyrimidine bases tucked inside. Hydrogen bonding between **complementary bases** holds the two strands of the double helix together; A always pairs with T and C always pairs with G.

Cell growth requires **replication**, or reproduction of the cell's DNA. The double helix unwinds, and hydrogen bonding between complementary bases breaks so that there are two single strands of DNA, and each strand is a *template* for the synthesis of a new strand. For protein synthesis, three types of RNA are needed: *messenger RNA* (mRNA), *ribosomal RNA* (rRNA), and *transfer RNA* (tRNA). All are made from a DNA template by a process called **transcription**. The double helix uncoils, and ribonucleotides base-pair to the deoxyribonucleotides on one DNA strand; however, RNA is produced using *uracil* rather than thymine. Once the RNA is formed, it dissociates from the template and leaves the nucleus, and the DNA double helix reforms.

Translation is the process in which proteins are synthesized from the information in mRNA. It occurs at structures called **ribosomes**, which are located outside the nucleus and are composed of rRNA and protein. The 64 possible three-nucleotide combinations of the 4 nucleotides of DNA constitute the **genetic code** that dictates the sequence in which amino acids are joined to make proteins. Each three-nucleotide sequence on mRNA is a **codon**. Each kind of tRNA molecule binds a specific amino acid and has a site containing a three-nucleotide sequence called an **anticodon**.

The general term for any change in the genetic code in an organism's DNA is **mutation**. A change in which a single base is substituted, inserted, or deleted is a **point mutation**. The chemical and/or physical agents that cause mutations are called **mutagens**. Diseases that occur due to mutations in critical DNA sequences are referred to as **genetic diseases**.

Viruses are infectious agents composed of a tightly packed central core of nucleic acids enclosed by a protective shell of proteins. Viruses contain either DNA or RNA as their genetic material but not both. Some RNA viruses, called **retroviruses**, synthesize DNA in the host cell from their RNA genome. The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) causes acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).

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SECTION OVERVIEW

12.1: Energy Metabolism

Metabolism is the set of life-sustaining chemical transformations within the cells of living organisms. The three main purposes of metabolism are the conversion of food/fuel to energy to run cellular processes, the conversion of food/fuel to building blocks for proteins, lipids, nucleic acids, and some carbohydrates, and the elimination of nitrogenous wastes. These enzyme-catalyzed reactions allow organisms to grow and reproduce, maintain their structures, and respond to their environments. Metabolism is usually divided into two categories: **catabolism**, the breaking down of organic matter, for example, by cellular respiration, and **anabolism**, the building up of components of cells such as proteins and nucleic acids. Usually, breaking down releases energy and building up consumes energy.

12.1.1: Prelude to Energy Metabolism

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12.1.1: Prelude to Energy Metabolism

The discovery of the link between insulin and diabetes led to a period of intense research aimed at understanding exactly how insulin works in the body to regulate glucose levels. Hormones in general act by binding to some protein, known as the hormone's receptor, thus initiating a series of events that lead to a desired outcome. In the early 1970s, the insulin receptor was purified, and researchers began to study what happens after insulin binds to its receptor and how those events are linked to the uptake and metabolism of glucose in cells.

The insulin receptor is located in the cell membrane and consists of four polypeptide chains: two identical chains called α chains and two identical chains called β chains. The α chains, positioned on the outer surface of the membrane, consist of 735 amino acids each and contain the binding site for insulin. The β chains are integral membrane proteins, each composed of 620 amino acids. The binding of insulin to its receptor stimulates the β chains to catalyze the addition of phosphate groups to the specific side chains of tyrosine (referred to as phosphorylation) in the β chains and other cell proteins, leading to the activation of reactions that metabolize glucose. In this chapter we will look at the pathway that breaks down glucose—in response to activation by insulin—for the purpose of providing energy for the cell.

Figure 12.1.1.1: Model of the Structure of the Insulin Receptor (PDB code 4ZXB).

Life requires energy. Animals, for example, require heat energy to maintain body temperature, mechanical energy to move their limbs, and chemical energy to synthesize the compounds needed by their cells. Living cells remain organized and functioning properly only through a continual supply of energy. But only specific forms of energy can be used. Supplying a plant with energy by holding it in a flame will not prolong its life. On the other hand, a green plant is able to absorb radiant energy from the sun, the most abundant source of energy for life on the earth. Plants use this energy first to form glucose and then to make other carbohydrates, as well as lipids and proteins. Unlike plants, animals cannot directly use the sun's energy to synthesize new compounds. They must eat plants or other animals to get carbohydrates, fats, and proteins and the chemical energy stored in them. Once digested and transported to the cells, the nutrient molecules can be used in either of two ways: as building blocks for making new cell parts or repairing old ones or "burned" for energy.

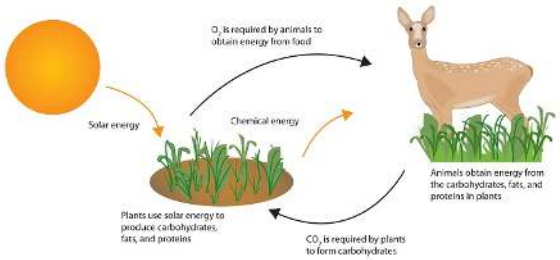


Figure 12.1.1.2: Some Energy Transformations in Living Systems. Plants and animals exist in a cycle; each requires products of the other.

The thousands of coordinated chemical reactions that keep cells alive are referred to collectively as **metabolism**. In general, metabolic reactions are divided into two classes: the breaking down of molecules to obtain energy is **catabolism**, and the building of new molecules needed by living systems is **anabolism**.

Definition: Metabolite

Any chemical compound that participates in a metabolic reaction is a *metabolite*.

Most of the energy required by animals is generated from lipids and carbohydrates. These fuels must be oxidized, or "burned," for the energy to be released. The oxidation process ultimately converts the lipid or carbohydrate to carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O).

Carbohydrate:

$$C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6\,O_2 \rightarrow 6\,CO_2 + 6\,H_2O + 670\,\text{kcal}$$

Lipid:

$$C_{16}H_{32}O_2 + 23\,O_2 \rightarrow 16\,CO_2 + 16\,H_2O + 2,385\,\text{kcal}$$

These two equations summarize the biological combustion of a carbohydrate and a lipid by the cell through respiration. **Respiration** is the collective name for all metabolic processes in which gaseous oxygen is used to oxidize organic matter to carbon dioxide, water, and energy.

Like the combustion of the common fuels we burn in our homes and cars (wood, coal, gasoline), respiration uses oxygen from the air to break down complex organic substances to carbon dioxide and water. But the energy released in the burning of wood is manifested entirely in the form of heat, and excess heat energy is not only useless but also injurious to the living cell. Living organisms instead conserve much of the energy respiration releases by channeling it into a series of stepwise reactions that produce adenosine triphosphate (ATP) or other compounds that ultimately lead to the synthesis of ATP. The remainder of the energy is released as heat and manifested as body temperature.

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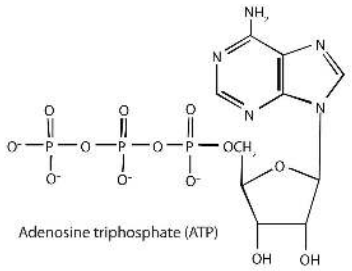
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12.1.2: ATP- the Universal Energy Currency

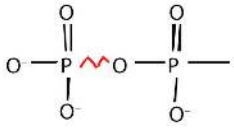
Learning Objectives

- To describe the importance of ATP as a source of energy in living organisms.

Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), a nucleotide composed of adenine, ribose, and three phosphate groups, is perhaps the most important of the so-called energy-rich compounds in a cell. Its concentration in the cell varies from 0.5 to 2.5 mg/mL of cell fluid.



Energy-rich compounds are substances having particular structural features that lead to a release of energy after hydrolysis. As a result, these compounds are able to supply energy for biochemical processes that require energy. The structural feature important in ATP is the phosphoric acid anhydride, or pyrophosphate, linkage:



The pyrophosphate bond, symbolized by a squiggle (~), is hydrolyzed when ATP is converted to adenosine diphosphate (ADP). In this hydrolysis reaction, the products contain less energy than the reactants; there is a release of energy (> 7 kcal/mol). One reason for the amount of energy released is that hydrolysis relieves the electron-electron repulsions experienced by the negatively charged phosphate groups when they are bonded to each other (Figure 20.1.1).

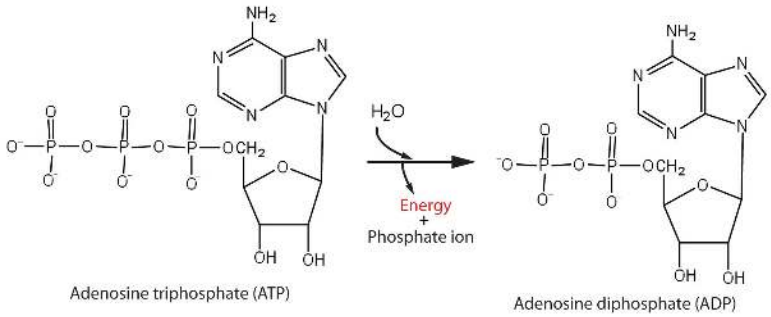


Figure 12.1.2.1: Hydrolysis of ATP to Form ADP

Energy is released because the products (ADP and phosphate ion) have less energy than the reactants [ATP and water (H_2O)].

The general equation for ATP hydrolysis is as follows:

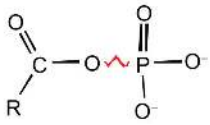
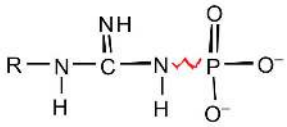
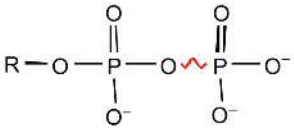
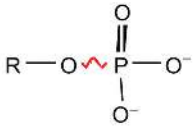
$$ATP + H_2O \rightarrow ADP + P_i + 7.4\ kcal/mol$$

If the hydrolysis of ATP releases energy, its synthesis (from ADP) requires energy. In the cell, ATP is produced by those processes that supply energy to the organism (absorption of radiant energy from the sun in green plants and breakdown of food in animals), and it is hydrolyzed by those processes that require energy (the syntheses of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins; the transmission of nerve impulses; muscle contractions). In fact, ATP is the principal medium of energy exchange in biological systems. Many scientists call it the energy currency of cells.

> *P_i is the symbol for the inorganic phosphate anions $H_2PO_4^-$ and HPO_4^{2-}.*

ATP is not the only high-energy compound needed for metabolism. Several others are listed in Table 12.1.2.1. Notice, however, that the energy released when ATP is hydrolyzed is approximately midway between those of the high-energy and the low-energy phosphate compounds. This means that the hydrolysis of ATP can provide energy for the phosphorylation of the compounds below it in the table. For example, the hydrolysis of ATP provides sufficient energy for the phosphorylation of glucose to form glucose 1-phosphate. By the same token, the hydrolysis of compounds, such as creatine phosphate, that appear *above* ATP in the table can provide the energy needed to resynthesize ATP from ADP.

Table 12.1.2.1: Energy Released by Hydrolysis of Some Phosphate Compounds

Type	Example	Energy Released (kcal/mol)
acyl phosphate 	1,3-bisphosphoglycerate (BPG)	−11.8
	acetyl phosphate	−11.3
guanidine phosphates 	creatine phosphate	−10.3
	arginine phosphate	−9.1
pyrophosphates 	$PP_{i*} \rightarrow 2P_i$	−7.8
	$ATP \rightarrow AMP + PP_i$	−7.7
	$ATP \rightarrow ADP + P_i$	−7.5
	$ADP \rightarrow AMP + P_i$	−7.5
sugar phosphates 	glucose 1-phosphate	−5.0
	fructose 6-phosphate	−3.8
	$AMP \rightarrow adenosine + P_i$	−3.4
	glucose 6-phosphate	−3.3
	glycerol 3-phosphate	−2.2

*PP_i is the pyrophosphate ion.

Summary

The hydrolysis of ATP releases energy that can be used for cellular processes that require energy.

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12.1.3: Stage I of Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- To describe how carbohydrates, fats, and proteins are broken down during digestion.

We have said that animals obtain chemical energy from the food—carbohydrates, fats, and proteins—they eat through reactions defined collectively as *catabolism*. We can think of catabolism as occurring in three stages (Figure 12.1.3.1). In stage I, carbohydrates, fats, and proteins are broken down into their individual monomer units: carbohydrates into simple sugars, fats into fatty acids and glycerol, and proteins into amino acids. One part of stage I of catabolism is the breakdown of food molecules by hydrolysis reactions into the individual monomer units—which occurs in the mouth, stomach, and small intestine—and is referred to as digestion.

In stage II, these monomer units (or building blocks) are further broken down through different reaction pathways, one of which produces ATP, to form a common end product that can then be used in stage III to produce even more ATP. In this chapter, we will look at each stage of catabolism—as an overview and in detail.

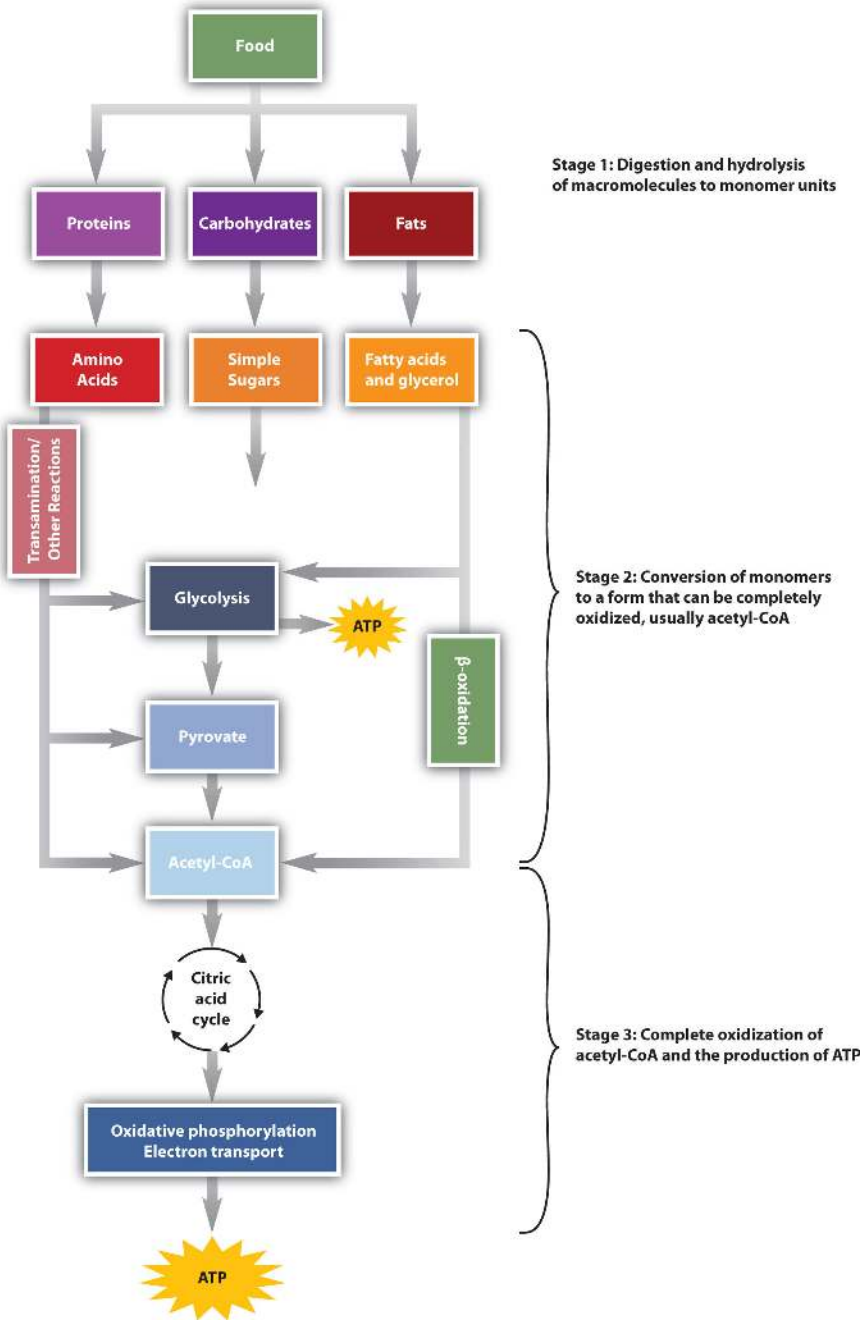


Figure 12.1.3.1: Energy Conversions

The conversion of food into cellular energy (as ATP) occurs in three stages.

Digestion of Carbohydrates

Carbohydrate digestion begins in the mouth (Figure 12.1.3.2) where salivary α-amylase attacks the α-glycosidic linkages in starch, the main carbohydrate ingested by humans. Cleavage of the glycosidic linkages produces a mixture of dextrins, maltose, and glucose. The α-amylase mixed into the food remains active as the food passes through the esophagus, but it is rapidly inactivated in the acidic environment of the stomach.

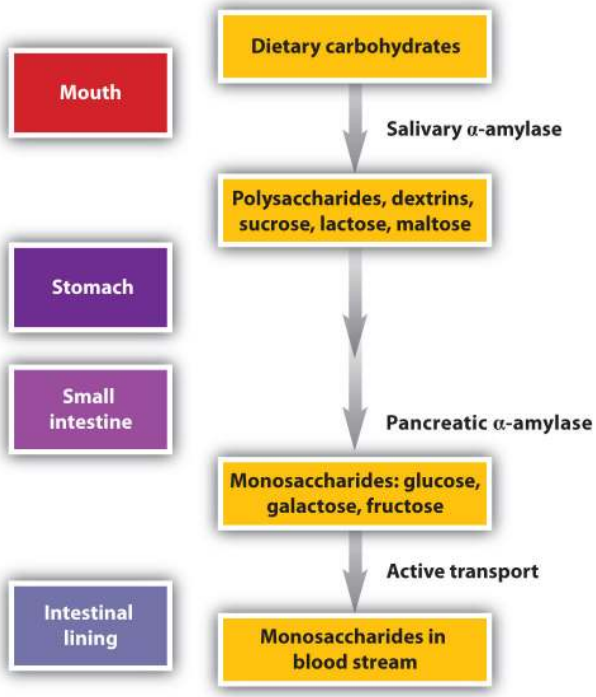


Figure 12.1.3.2: The Principal Events and Sites of Carbohydrate Digestion

The primary site of carbohydrate digestion is the small intestine. The secretion of α-amylase in the small intestine converts any remaining starch molecules, as well as the dextrins, to maltose. Maltose is then cleaved into two glucose molecules by maltase. Disaccharides such as sucrose and lactose are not digested until they reach the small intestine, where they are acted on by sucrase and lactase, respectively. The major products of the complete hydrolysis of disaccharides and polysaccharides are three monosaccharide units: glucose, fructose, and galactose. These are absorbed through the wall of the small intestine into the bloodstream.

Digestion of Proteins

Protein digestion begins in the stomach (Figure 12.1.3.3), where the action of gastric juice hydrolyzes about 10% of the peptide bonds. Gastric juice is a mixture of water (more than 99%), inorganic ions, hydrochloric acid, and various enzymes and other proteins.

> The pain of a gastric ulcer is at least partially due to irritation of the ulcerated tissue by acidic gastric juice.

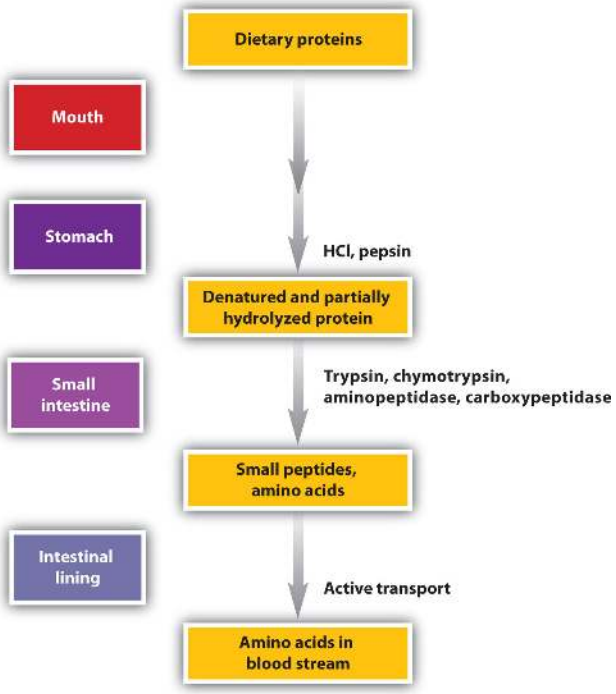


Figure 12.1.3.3: The Principal Events and Sites of Protein Digestion

The hydrochloric acid (HCl) in gastric juice is secreted by glands in the stomach lining. The pH of freshly secreted gastric juice is about 1.0, but the contents of the stomach may raise the pH to between 1.5 and 2.5. HCl helps to denature food proteins; that is, it unfolds the protein molecules to expose their chains to more efficient enzyme action. The principal digestive component of gastric juice is pepsinogen, an inactive enzyme produced in cells located in the stomach wall. When food enters the stomach after a period of fasting, pepsinogen is converted to its active form—pepsin—in a series of steps initiated by the drop in pH. Pepsin catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide linkages within protein molecules. It has a fairly broad specificity but acts preferentially on linkages involving the aromatic amino acids tryptophan, tyrosine, and phenylalanine, as well as methionine and leucine.

Protein digestion is completed in the small intestine. Pancreatic juice, carried from the pancreas via the pancreatic duct, contains inactive enzymes such as trypsinogen and chymotrypsinogen. They are activated in the small intestine as follows (Figure 12.1.3.4): The intestinal mucosal cells secrete the proteolytic enzyme enteropeptidase, which converts trypsinogen to trypsin; trypsin then activates chymotrypsinogen to chymotrypsin (and also completes the activation of trypsinogen). Both of these active enzymes catalyze the hydrolysis of peptide bonds in protein chains. Chymotrypsin preferentially attacks peptide bonds involving the carboxyl groups of the aromatic amino acids (phenylalanine, tryptophan, and tyrosine). Trypsin attacks peptide bonds involving the carboxyl groups of the basic amino acids (lysine and arginine). Pancreatic juice also contains procarboxypeptidase, which is cleaved by trypsin to carboxypeptidase. The latter is an enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide linkages at the free carboxyl end of the peptide chain, resulting in the stepwise liberation of free amino acids from the carboxyl end of the polypeptide.

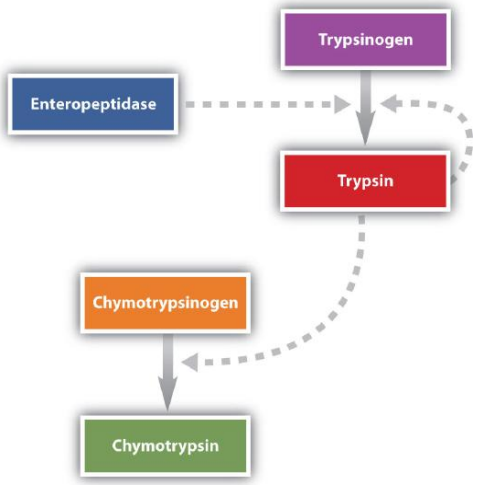


Figure 12.1.3.4: Activation of Some Pancreatic Enzymes in the Small Intestine

Aminopeptidases in the intestinal juice remove amino acids from the N-terminal end of peptides and proteins possessing a free amino group. Figure 12.1.3.5 illustrates the specificity of these protein-digesting enzymes. The amino acids that are released by protein digestion are absorbed across the intestinal wall into the circulatory system, where they can be used for protein synthesis.

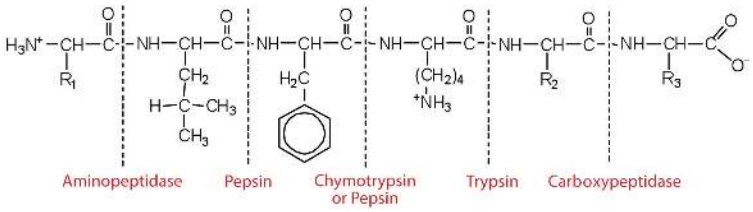


Figure 12.1.3.5: Hydrolysis of a Peptide by Several Peptidases

This diagram illustrates where in a peptide the different peptidases we have discussed would catalyze hydrolysis the peptide bonds.

Digestion of Lipids

Lipid digestion begins in the upper portion of the small intestine (Figure 12.1.3.6). A hormone secreted in this region stimulates the gallbladder to discharge bile into the duodenum. The principal constituents of bile are the bile salts, which emulsify large, water-insoluble lipid droplets, disrupting some of the hydrophobic interactions holding the lipid molecules together and suspending the resulting smaller globules (micelles) in the aqueous digestive medium. These changes greatly increase the surface area of the lipid particles, allowing for more intimate contact with the lipases and thus rapid digestion of the fats. Another hormone promotes the secretion of pancreatic juice, which contains these enzymes.

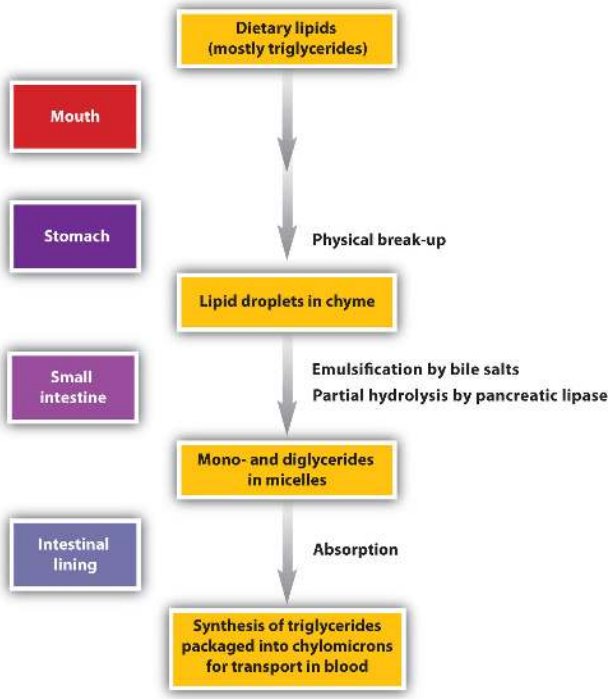
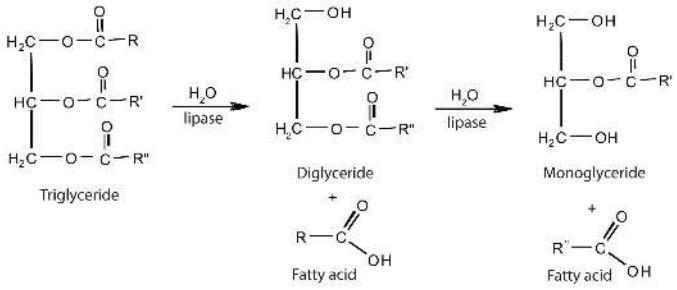


Figure 12.1.3.6: The Principal Events and Sites of Lipid (Primarily Triglyceride) Digestion

The lipases in pancreatic juice catalyze the digestion of triglycerides first to diglycerides and then to 2-monoglycerides and fatty acids:



The monoglycerides and fatty acids cross the intestinal lining into the bloodstream, where they are resynthesized into triglycerides and transported as lipoprotein complexes known as chylomicrons. Phospholipids and cholesteryl esters undergo similar hydrolysis in the small intestine, and their component molecules are also absorbed through the intestinal lining.

The further metabolism of monosaccharides, fatty acids, and amino acids released in stage I of catabolism occurs in stages II and III of catabolism.

Summary

During digestion, carbohydrates are broken down into monosaccharides, proteins are broken down into amino acids, and triglycerides are broken down into glycerol and fatty acids. Most of the digestion reactions occur in the small intestine.

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12.1.4: Overview of Stage II of Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- To describe the role of acetyl-CoA in metabolism.

A metabolic pathway is a series of biochemical reactions by which an organism converts a given reactant to a specific end product. There are specific metabolic pathways—which are different for carbohydrates, triglycerides, and proteins—that break down the products of stage I of catabolism (monosaccharides, fatty acids, and amino acids) to produce a common end product, acetyl-coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) in stage II of catabolism.

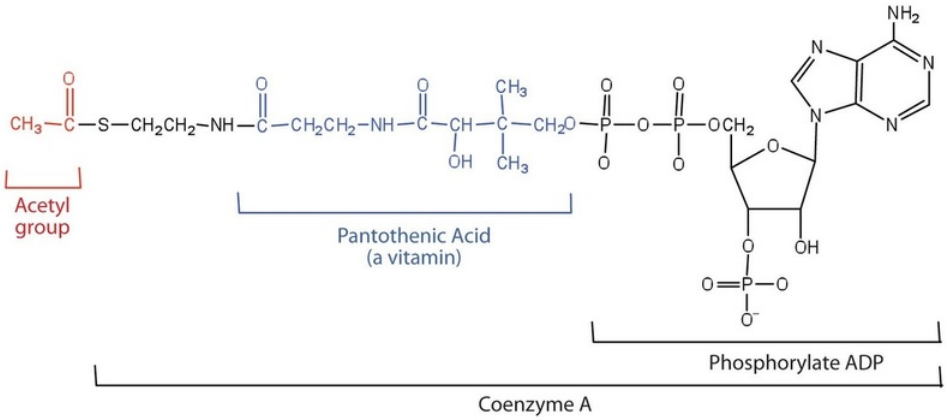


Figure 12.1.4.1: The Structure of Acetyl-Coenzyme A (Acetyl-CoA)

Acetyl-CoA is shown in Figure 12.1.4.1. The acetyl unit, derived (as we will see) from the breakdown of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins, is attached to coenzyme A, making the acetyl unit more reactive. Acetyl-CoA is used in a myriad of biochemical pathways. For example, it may be used as the starting material for the biosynthesis of lipids (such as triglycerides, phospholipids, or cholesterol and other steroids). Most importantly for energy generation, it may enter the citric acid cycle and be oxidized to produce energy, if energy is needed and oxygen is available. The various fates or uses of acetyl-CoA are summarized in Figure 12.1.4.1.

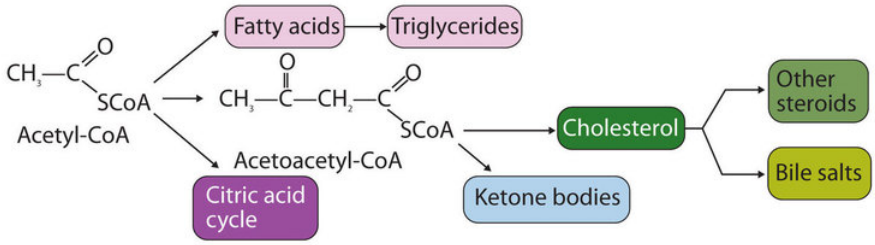


Figure 12.1.4.2: Cell Chemistry. Acetyl-CoA plays a variety of roles in cell chemistry.

Glycolysis

Glycolysis is the catabolic process in which glucose is converted into pyruvate via ten enzymatic steps. There are three regulatory steps, each of which is highly regulated that are separated into two phases:

1. the "priming phase" because it requires an input of energy in the form of 2 ATPs per glucose molecule and
2. the "pay off phase" because energy is released in the form of 4 ATPs, 2 per glyceraldehyde molecule.

The end result of Glycolysis is two new pyruvate molecules which can then be fed into the Citric Acid cycle (also known as the Kreb's Cycle) if oxygen is present, or can be reduced to lactate or ethanol in the absence of of oxygen using a process known as fermentation.



Video 12.1.4.1: Glycolysis: An Overview. Glycolysis is a series of 10 reactions that converts sugars, like glucose, into 3-carbon molecules called pyruvate. This animation provides an overview of the energy consumed and produced by the pathway. NDSU VCell Production's animation; for more information please see Vcell, NDSU(opens in new window) [vcell.ndsu.edu].

Glycolysis occurs within almost all living cells and is the primary source of Acetyl-CoA, which is the molecule responsible for the majority of energy output under aerobic conditions. The structures of Glycolysis intermediates can be found in Figure 12.1.4.3

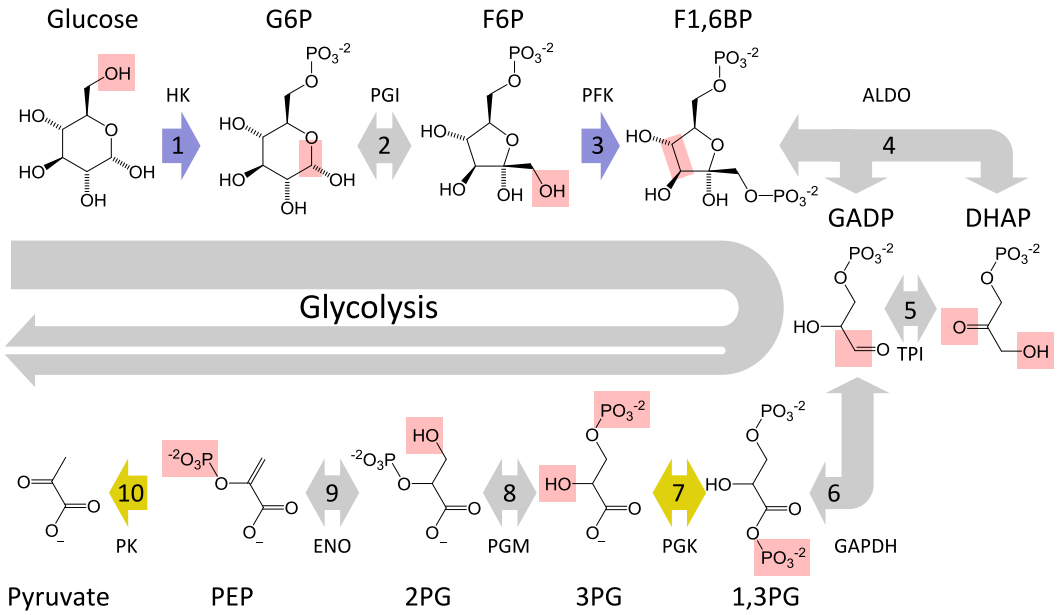


Figure 12.1.4.3: Glycolysis pathway. (CC BY-SA 4.0; International; Thomas Shafee via Wikipedia)

Phase 1: The "Priming Step"

The first phase of Glycolysis requires an input of energy in the form of ATP (adenosine triphosphate).

1. alpha-D-Glucose is phosphorolated at the 6 carbon by ATP via the enzyme Hexokinase (Class: Transferase) to yield alpha-D-Glucose-6-phosphate (G-6-P). This is a regulatory step which is negatively regulated by the presence of glucose-6-phosphate.
2. alpha-D-Glucose-6-phosphate is then converted into D-Fructose-6-phosphate (F-6-P) by Phosphoglucoisomerase (Class: Isomerase)
3. D-Fructose-6-phosphate is once again phosphorolated this time at the 1 carbon position by ATP via the enzyme Phosphofructokinase (Class: Transferase) to yield D-Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate (FBP). This is the committed step of glycolysis because of its large ΔG value.
4. D-Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate is then cleaved into two, three carbon molecules; Dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) and D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G-3-P) by the enzyme Fructose bisphosphate aldolase (Class: Lyase)
5. Because the next portion of Glycolysis requires the molecule D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate to continue Dihydroxyacetone phosphate is converted into D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate by the enzyme Triose phosphate isomerase (Class: Isomerase)

Phase 2: The "Pay Off Step"

The second phase of Glycolysis where 4 molecules of ATP are produced per molecule of glucose. Enzymes appear in red:

1. D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate is phosphorolated at the 1 carbon by the enzyme Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehodrogenase to yield the high energy molecule 1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate (BPG)
2. ADP is then phosphorolated at the expense of 1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate by the enzyme Phosphoglycerate kinase (Class: Transferase) to yield ATP and 3-Phosphoglycerate (3-PG)
3. 3-Phosphoglycerate is then converted into 2-Phosphoglycerate by Phosphoglycerate mutase in preparation to yield another high energy molecule
4. 2-Phosphoglycerate is then converted to phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) by Enolase. H_2O, potassium, and magnesium are all released as a result.
5. ADP is once again phosphorolated, this time at the expense of PEP by the enzyme pyruvate kinase to yield another molecule of ATP and and pyruvate. This step is regulated by the energy in the cell. The higher the energy of the cell the more inhibited pyruvate kinase becomes. Indicators of high energy levels within the cell are high concentrations of ATP, Acetyl-CoA, Alanine, and cAMP.

Because Glucose is split to yield two molecules of D-Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, each step in the "Pay Off" phase occurs twice per molecule of glucose.

Beta-Oxidation

The best source of energy for eukaryotic organisms are fats. Glucose offers a ratio 6.3 moles of ATP per carbon while saturated fatty acids offer 8.1 ATP per carbon. Also the complete oxidation of fats yields enormous amounts of water for those organisms that do not have adequate access to drinkable water. Camels and killer whales are good example of this, they obtain their water requirements from the complete oxidation of fats.



Video 12.1.4.2: Fatty acid metabolism / beta oxidation / β-Oxidation

There are four distinct stages in the oxidation of fatty acids. Fatty acid degradation takes place within the mitochondria and requires the help of several different enzymes. In order for fatty acids to enter the mitochondria the assistance of two carrier proteins is required, Carnitine acyltransferase I and II. It is also interesting to note the similarities between the four steps of beta-oxidation and the later four steps of the TCA cycle.

Entry into Beta-oxidation

Most fats stored in eukaryotic organisms are stored as triglycerides as seen below. In order to enter into beta-oxidation bonds must be broken usually with the use of a Lipase. The end result of these broken bonds are a glycerol molecule and three fatty acids in the case of triglycerides. Other lipids are capable of being degraded as well.

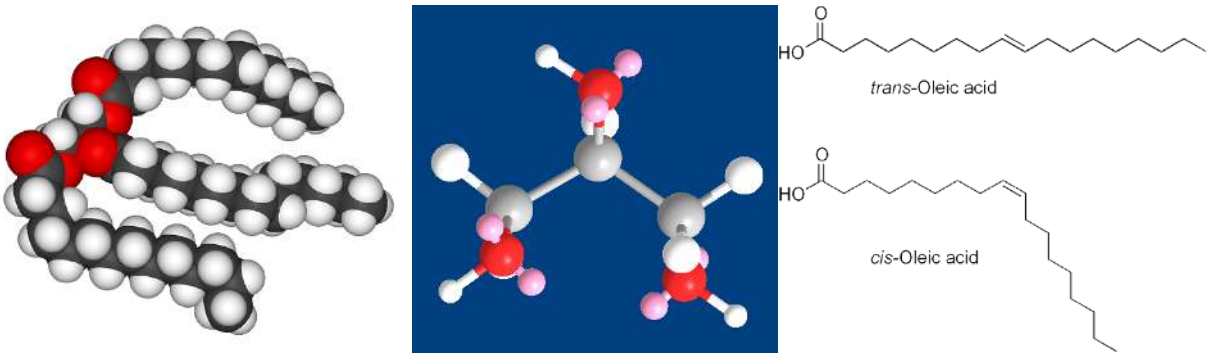


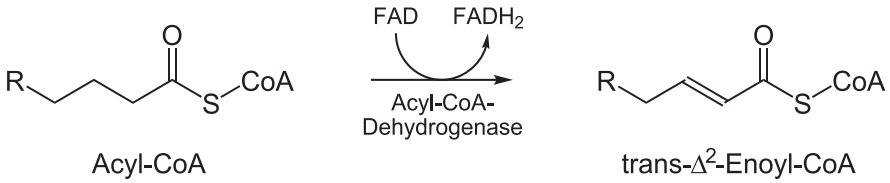
Figure 12.1.4.4: Key molecules in beta-oxidation: (left) A triglyceride molecule, (middle) Glycerol, (right) Fatty Acids (unsaturated)

Activation Step

- Once the triglycerides are broken down into glycerol and fatty acids they must be activated before they can enter into the mitochondria and proceed on with beta-oxidation. This is done by Acyl-CoA synthetase to yield fatty acyl-CoA.
- After the fatty acid has been acylated it is now ready to enter into the mitochondria.
- There are two carrier proteins (Carnitine acyltransferase I and II), one located on the outer membrane and one on the inner membrane of the mitochondria. Both are required for entry of the Acyl-CoA into the mitochondria.
- Once inside the mitochondria the fatty acyl-CoA can enter into beta-oxidation.

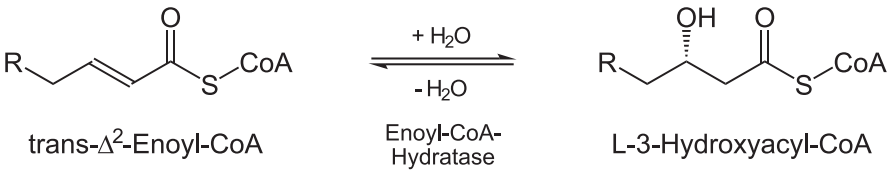
Oxidation Step

A fatty acyl-CoA is oxidized by Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase to yield a trans alkene. This is done with the aid of an [FAD] prosthetic group.



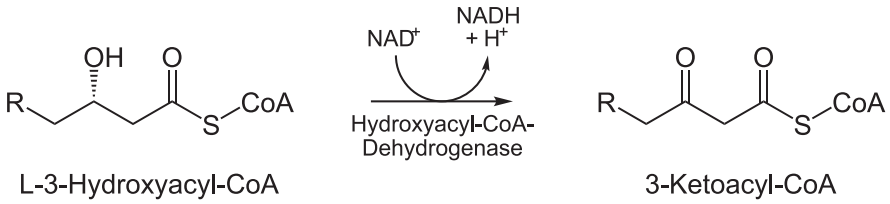
Hydration Step

The trans alkene is then hydrated with the help of Enoyl-CoA hydratase



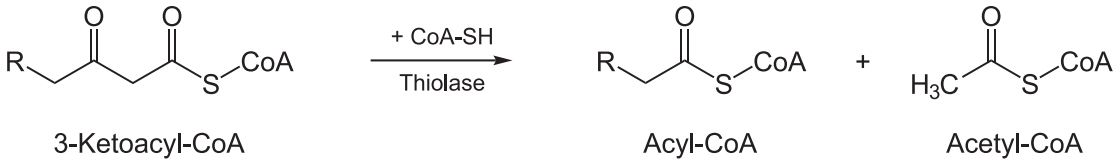
Oxidation Step

The alcohol of the hydroxyacly-CoA is then oxidized by NAD^+ to a carbonyl with the help of Hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase. NAD^+ is used to oxidize the alcohol rather then [FAD] because NAD^+ is capable of the alcohol while [FAD] is not.



Cleavage

Finally acetyl-CoA is cleaved off with the help of Thiolase to yield an Acyl-CoA that is two carbons shorter than before. The cleaved acetyl-CoA can then enter into the TCA and ETC because it is already within the mitochondria.



3-Ketoacyl-CoA | Acyl-CoA | Acetyl-CoA

Summary

Acetyl-CoA is formed from the breakdown of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins. It is used in many biochemical pathways.

References

1. Garrett, H., Reginald and Charles Grisham. Biochemistry. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 2008.
2. Raven, Peter. Biology. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 2005.

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12.1.5: Stage III of Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- Describe the reactions of the citric acid cycle.
- Describe the function of the citric acid cycle and identify the products produced.
- Describe the role of the electron transport chain in energy metabolism.
- Describe the role of oxidative phosphorylation in energy metabolism.

The acetyl group enters a cyclic sequence of reactions known collectively as the citric acid cycle (or Krebs cycle or tricarboxylic acid [TCA] cycle). The cyclical design of this complex series of reactions, which bring about the oxidation of the acetyl group of acetyl-CoA to carbon dioxide and water, was first proposed by Hans Krebs in 1937. (He was awarded the 1953 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine.) Acetyl-CoA's entrance into the citric acid cycle is the beginning of stage III of catabolism. The citric acid cycle produces adenosine triphosphate (ATP), reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH), reduced flavin adenine dinucleotide ($FADH_2$), and metabolic intermediates for the synthesis of needed compounds.

Steps of the Citric Acid Cycle

At first glance, the citric acid cycle appears rather complex (Figure 12.1.5.1). All the reactions, however, are familiar types in organic chemistry: hydration, oxidation, decarboxylation, and hydrolysis. Each reaction of the citric acid cycle is numbered, and in Figure 12.1.5.1, the two acetyl carbon atoms are highlighted in red. Each intermediate in the cycle is a carboxylic acid, existing as an anion at physiological pH. All the reactions occur within the mitochondria, which are small organelles within the cells of plants and animals.

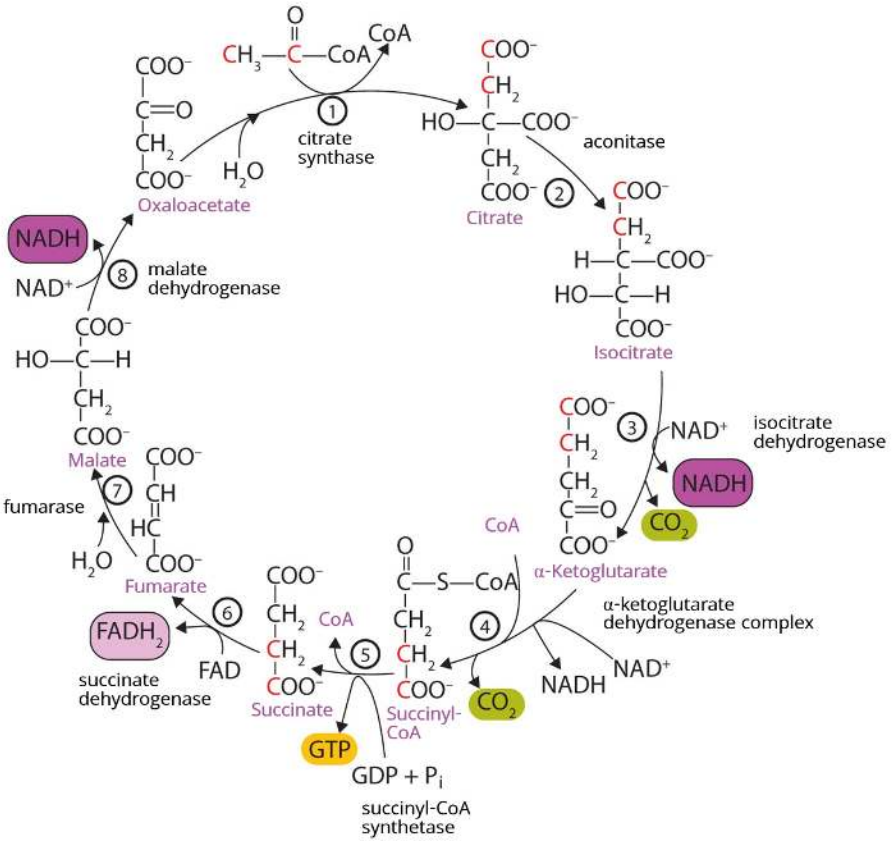


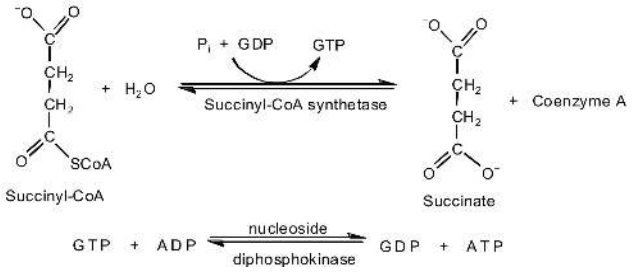
Figure 12.1.5.1: Reactions of the Citric Acid Cycle

1. In the first step, acetyl-CoA enters the citric acid cycle, and the acetyl group is transferred onto oxaloacetate, yielding citrate. Note that this step releases coenzyme A. The reaction is catalyzed by *citrate synthase*.

2. In the next step, *aconitase* catalyzes the isomerization of citrate to isocitrate. In this reaction, a tertiary alcohol, which cannot be oxidized, is converted to a secondary alcohol, which can be oxidized in the next step.
3. Isocitrate then undergoes a reaction known as oxidative decarboxylation because the alcohol is oxidized and the molecule is shortened by one carbon atom with the release of carbon dioxide (decarboxylation). The reaction is catalyzed by *isocitrate dehydrogenase*, and the product of the reaction is α-ketoglutarate. An important reaction linked to this is the reduction of the coenzyme nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) to NADH. The NADH is ultimately reoxidized, and the energy released is used in the synthesis of ATP, as we shall see.
4. The fourth step is another oxidative decarboxylation. This time α-ketoglutarate is converted to succinyl-CoA, and another molecule of NAD^+ is reduced to NADH. The *α-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex* catalyzes this reaction. This is the only irreversible reaction in the citric acid cycle. As such, it prevents the cycle from operating in the reverse direction, in which acetyl-CoA would be synthesized from carbon dioxide.

> So far, in the first four steps, two carbon atoms have entered the cycle as an acetyl group, and two carbon atoms have been released as molecules of carbon dioxide. The remaining reactions of the citric acid cycle use the four carbon atoms of the succinyl group to resynthesize a molecule of oxaloacetate, which is the compound needed to combine with an incoming acetyl group and begin another round of the cycle.

In the fifth reaction, the energy released by the hydrolysis of the high-energy thioester bond of succinyl-CoA is used to form guanosine triphosphate (GTP) from guanosine diphosphate (GDP) and inorganic phosphate in a reaction catalyzed by *succinyl-CoA synthetase*. This step is the only reaction in the citric acid cycle that directly forms a high-energy phosphate compound. GTP can readily transfer its terminal phosphate group to adenosine diphosphate (ADP) to generate ATP in the presence of *nucleoside diphosphokinase*.



Succinate dehydrogenase then catalyzes the removal of two hydrogen atoms from succinate, forming fumarate. This oxidation-reduction reaction uses flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), rather than NAD^+, as the oxidizing agent. Succinate dehydrogenase is the only enzyme of the citric acid cycle located within the inner mitochondrial membrane. We will see soon the importance of this.

In the following step, a molecule of water is added to the double bond of fumarate to form L-malate in a reaction catalyzed by *fumarase*.

One revolution of the cycle is completed with the oxidation of L-malate to oxaloacetate, brought about by *malate dehydrogenase*. This is the third oxidation-reduction reaction that uses NAD^+ as the oxidizing agent. Oxaloacetate can accept an acetyl group from acetyl-CoA, allowing the cycle to begin again.



Video: "The Citric Acid Cycle: An Overview". In the matrix of the mitochondrion, the Citric Acid Cycle uses Acetyl CoA molecules to produce energy through eight chemical reactions. This animation provides an overview of the pathway and its products. NDSU VCell Production's animation; for more information please see Vcell, NDSU, Animations(opens in new window) [vcell.ndsu.edu].

Cellular Respiration

Respiration can be defined as the process by which cells oxidize organic molecules in the presence of gaseous oxygen to produce carbon dioxide, water, and energy in the form of ATP. We have seen that two carbon atoms enter the citric acid cycle from acetyl-CoA (step 1), and two different carbon atoms exit the cycle as carbon dioxide (steps 3 and 4). Yet nowhere in our discussion of the citric acid cycle have we indicated how oxygen is used. Recall, however, that in the four oxidation-reduction steps occurring in the citric acid cycle, the coenzyme NAD^+ or FAD is reduced to NADH or $FADH_2$, respectively. *Oxygen is needed to reoxidize these coenzymes*. Recall, too, that very little ATP is obtained directly from the citric acid cycle. Instead, oxygen participation and significant ATP production occur subsequent to the citric acid cycle, in two pathways that are closely linked: electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation.

All the enzymes and coenzymes for the citric acid cycle, the reoxidation of NADH and $FADH_2$, and the production of ATP are located in the mitochondria, which are small, oval organelles with double membranes, often referred to as the “power plants” of the cell (Figure 12.1.5.2). A cell may contain 100–5,000 mitochondria, depending on its function, and the mitochondria can reproduce themselves if the energy requirements of the cell increase.

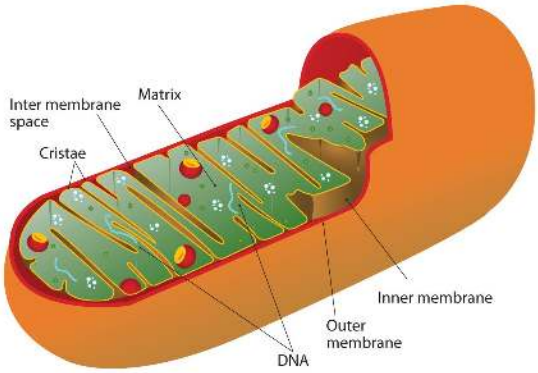


Figure 12.1.5.2: Respiration

Cellular respiration occurs in the mitochondria

Figure 12.1.5.2 shows the mitochondrion’s two membranes: *outer* and *inner*. The inner membrane is extensively folded into a series of internal ridges called *cristae*. Thus there are two compartments in mitochondria: the *intermembrane space*, which lies between the membranes, and the *matrix*, which lies inside the inner membrane. The outer membrane is permeable, whereas the inner membrane is impermeable to most molecules and ions, although water, oxygen, and carbon dioxide can freely penetrate both membranes. The matrix contains all the enzymes of the citric acid cycle with the exception of succinate dehydrogenase, which is embedded in the inner membrane. The enzymes that are needed for the reoxidation of NADH and $FADH_2$ and ATP production are

also located in the inner membrane. They are arranged in specific positions so that they function in a manner analogous to a bucket brigade. This highly organized sequence of oxidation-reduction enzymes is known as the electron transport chain (or respiratory chain).

Electron Transport

Figure 12.1.5.3 illustrates the organization of the electron transport chain. The components of the chain are organized into four complexes designated I, II, III, and IV. Each complex contains several enzymes, other proteins, and metal ions. The metal ions can be reduced and then oxidized repeatedly as electrons are passed from one component to the next. Recall that a compound is reduced when it gains electrons or hydrogen atoms and is oxidized when it loses electrons or hydrogen atoms.

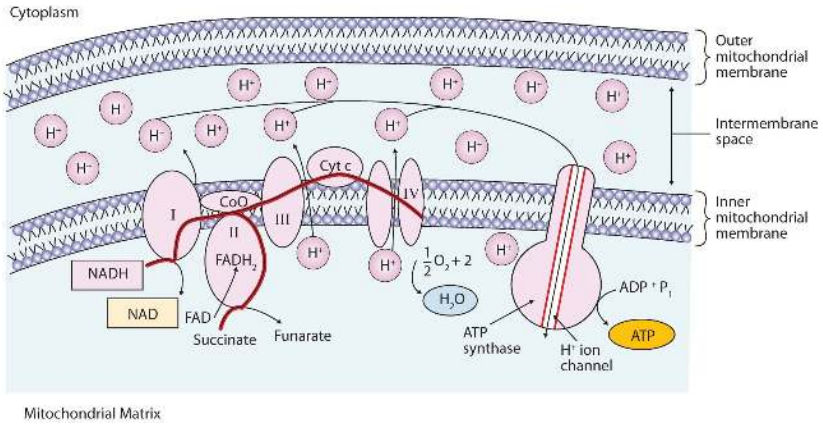
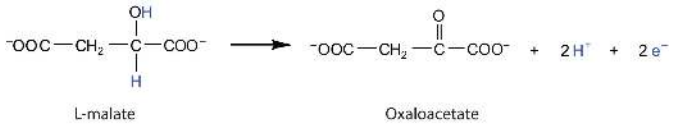


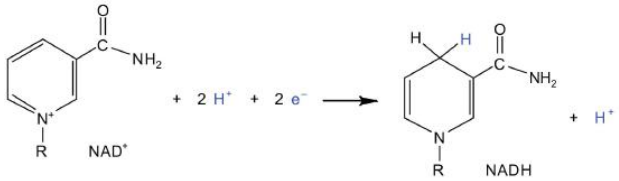
Figure 12.1.5.3: The Mitochondrial Electron Transport Chain and ATP Synthase. The red line shows the path of electrons.

Electrons can enter the electron transport chain through either complex I or II. We will look first at electrons entering at complex I. These electrons come from NADH, which is formed in three reactions of the citric acid cycle. Let's use step 8 as an example, the reaction in which L-malate is oxidized to oxaloacetate and NAD^+ is reduced to NADH. This reaction can be divided into two half reactions:

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:



- *Reduction half-reaction*:

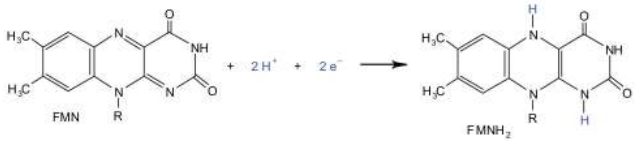


In the oxidation half-reaction, two hydrogen (H^+) ions and two electrons are removed from the substrate. In the reduction half-reaction, the NAD^+ molecule accepts both of those electrons and one of the H^+ ions. The other H^+ ion is transported from the matrix, across the inner mitochondrial membrane, and into the intermembrane space. The NADH diffuses through the matrix and is bound by complex I of the electron transport chain. In the complex, the coenzyme flavin mononucleotide (FMN) accepts both electrons from NADH. By passing the electrons along, NADH is oxidized back to NAD^+ and FMN is reduced to $FMNH_2$ (reduced form of flavin mononucleotide). Again, the reaction can be illustrated by dividing it into its respective half-reactions.

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:



- *Reduction half-reaction*:



Complex I contains several proteins that have iron-sulfur (Fe·S) centers. The electrons that reduced FMN to $FMNH_2$ are now transferred to these proteins. The iron ions in the Fe·S centers are in the Fe(III) form at first, but by accepting an electron, each ion is reduced to the Fe(II) form. Because each Fe·S center can transfer only one electron, two centers are needed to accept the two electrons that will regenerate FMN.

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{FMNH_2 \longrightarrow FMN + 2\,H^+ + 2\,e^-}$$

- *Reduction half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{2\,Fe(III)\cdot S + 2\,e^- \longrightarrow 2\,Fe(II)\cdot S}$$

Electrons from $FADH_2$, formed in step 6 of the citric acid cycle, enter the electron transport chain through complex II. Succinate dehydrogenase, the enzyme in the citric acid cycle that catalyzes the formation of $FADH_2$ from FAD is part of complex II. The electrons from $FADH_2$ are then transferred to an Fe·S protein.

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{FADH_2 \longrightarrow FAD + 2\,H^+ + 2\,e^-}$$

- *Reduction half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{2\,Fe(III)\cdot S + 2\,e^- \rightarrow 2\,Fe(II)\cdot S}$$

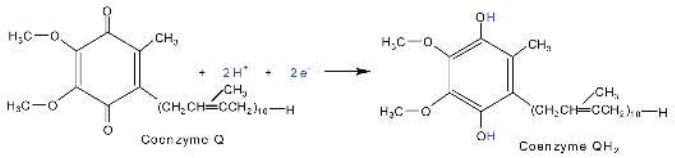
Electrons from complexes I and II are then transferred from the $\mathrm{Fe\cdot S}$ protein to coenzyme Q (CoQ), a mobile electron carrier that acts as the electron shuttle between complexes I or II and complex III.

> *Coenzyme Q is also called ubiquinone because it is ubiquitous in living systems.*

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{2\,Fe(II)\cdot S \longrightarrow 2\,Fe(III)\cdot S + 2\,e^-}$$

- *Reduction half-reaction*:



Complexes III and IV include several iron-containing proteins known as cytochromes. The iron in these enzymes is located in substructures known as iron porphyrins (Figure 12.1.5.4). Like the Fe·S centers, the characteristic feature of the cytochromes is the ability of their iron atoms to exist as either Fe(II) or Fe(III). Thus, each cytochrome in its oxidized form—Fe(III)—can accept one electron and be reduced to the Fe(II) form. This change in oxidation state is reversible, so the reduced form can donate its electron to the next cytochrome, and so on. Complex III contains cytochromes b and c, as well as Fe·S proteins, with cytochrome c acting as the electron shuttle between complex III and IV. Complex IV contains cytochromes a and a_3 in an enzyme known as *cytochrome oxidase*. This enzyme has the ability to transfer electrons to molecular oxygen, the last electron acceptor in the chain of electron transport reactions. In this final step, water (H_2O) is formed.

- *Oxidation half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{4\,Cyt\,a_3{-}Fe(II) \longrightarrow 4\,Cyt\,a_3{-}Fe(III) + 4\,e^-}$$

- *Reduction half-reaction*:

$$\mathrm{O_2 + 4\,H^+ + 4\,e^- \longrightarrow 2\,H_2O}$$

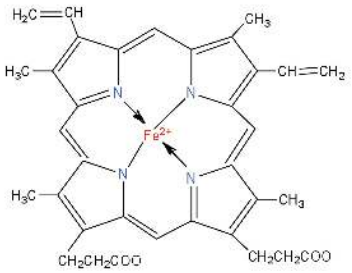


Figure 12.1.5.4: An Iron Porphyrin. Iron porphyrins are present in cytochromes as well as in myoglobin and hemoglobin.



Video: Cellular Respiration (Electron Transport Chain). Cellular respiration occurs in the mitochondria and provides both animals and plants with the energy needed to power other cellular processes. This section covers the electron transport chain.NDSU Virtual Cell Animations Project animation; ror more information please see Vcell, NDSU, Animations(opens in new window) [vcell.ndsu.edu]

Oxidative Phosphorylation

Each intermediate compound in the electron transport chain is reduced by the addition of one or two electrons in one reaction and then subsequently restored to its original form by delivering the electron(s) to the next compound along the chain. The successive electron transfers result in energy production. But how is this energy used for the synthesis of ATP? The process that links ATP synthesis to the operation of the electron transport chain is referred to as oxidative phosphorylation.

Electron transport is tightly coupled to oxidative phosphorylation. The coenzymes NADH and $FADH_2$ are oxidized by the respiratory chain *only* if ADP is simultaneously phosphorylated to ATP. The currently accepted model explaining how these two processes are linked is known as the *chemiosmotic hypothesis*, which was proposed by Peter Mitchell, resulting in Mitchell being awarded the 1978 Nobel Prize in Chemistry.

Looking again at Figure 12.1.5.3, we see that as electrons are being transferred through the electron transport chain, hydrogen (H^+) ions are being transported across the inner mitochondrial membrane from the matrix to the intermembrane space. The concentration of H^+ is already higher in the intermembrane space than in the matrix, so energy is required to transport the additional H^+ there. This energy comes from the electron transfer reactions in the electron transport chain. But how does the extreme difference in H^+ concentration then lead to ATP synthesis? The buildup of H^+ ions in the intermembrane space results in an H^+ ion gradient that is a large energy source, like water behind a dam (because, given the opportunity, the protons will flow out of the intermembrane space and into the less concentrated matrix). Current research indicates that the flow of H^+ down this concentration gradient through a fifth enzyme complex, known as ATP synthase, leads to a change in the structure of the synthase, causing the synthesis and release of ATP.

In cells that are using energy, the turnover of ATP is very high, so these cells contain high levels of ADP. They must therefore consume large quantities of oxygen continuously, so as to have the energy necessary to phosphorylate ADP to form ATP. Consider, for example, that resting skeletal muscles use about 30% of a resting adult's oxygen consumption, but when the same muscles are working strenuously, they account for almost 90% of the total oxygen consumption of the organism.

Experiment has shown that 2.5–3 ATP molecules are formed for every molecule of NADH oxidized in the electron transport chain, and 1.5–2 ATP molecules are formed for every molecule of $FADH_2$ oxidized. Table 12.1.5.1summarizes the theoretical maximum yield of ATP produced by the complete oxidation of 1 mol of acetyl-CoA through the sequential action of the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation.

Table 12.1.5.1: Maximum Yield of ATP from the Complete Oxidation of 1 Mol of Acetyl-CoA

Reaction	Comments	Yield of ATP (moles)
Isocitrate → α-ketoglutarate + CO_2	produces 1 mol NADH	
α-ketoglutarate → succinyl-CoA + CO_2	produces 1 mol NADH	
Succinyl-CoA → succinate	produces 1 mol GTP	+1
Succinate → fumarate	produces 1 mol $FADH_2$	
Malate → oxaloacetate	produces 1 mol NADH	
1 $FADH_2$ from the citric acid cycle	yields 2 mol ATP	+2
3 NADH from the citric acid cycle	yields 3 mol ATP/NADH	+9
Net yield of ATP:		+12

Key Takeaways

- The acetyl group of acetyl-CoA enters the citric acid cycle. For each acetyl-CoA that enters the citric acid cycle, 2 molecules of carbon dioxide, 3 molecules of NADH, 1 molecule of ATP, and 1 molecule of $FADH_2$ are produced.
- The reduced coenzymes (NADH and $FADH_2$) produced by the citric acid cycle are reoxidized by the reactions of the electron transport chain. This series of reactions also produces a pH gradient across the inner mitochondrial membrane.
- The pH gradient produced by the electron transport chain drives the synthesis of ATP from ADP. For each NADH reoxidized, 2.5–3 molecules of ATP are produced; for each $FADH_2$ reoxidized, 1.5–2 molecules of ATP are produced.

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12.1.6: Stage II of Carbohydrate Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- Describe the function of glycolysis and identify its major products.
- Describe how the presence or absence of oxygen determines what happens to the pyruvate and the NADH that are produced in glycolysis.
- Determine the amount of ATP produced by the oxidation of glucose in the presence and absence of oxygen.

In stage II of catabolism, the metabolic pathway known as glycolysis converts glucose into two molecules of pyruvate (a three-carbon compound with three carbon atoms) with the corresponding production of adenosine triphosphate (ATP). The individual reactions in glycolysis were determined during the first part of the 20th century. It was the first metabolic pathway to be elucidated, in part because the participating enzymes are found in soluble form in the cell and are readily isolated and purified. The pathway is structured so that the product of one enzyme-catalyzed reaction becomes the substrate of the next. The transfer of intermediates from one enzyme to the next occurs by diffusion.

Steps in Glycolysis

The 10 reactions of glycolysis, summarized in Figures 12.1.6.1 and 12.1.6.2, can be divided into two phases. In the first 5 reactions—phase I—glucose is broken down into two molecules of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. In the last five reactions—phase II—each glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate is converted into pyruvate, and ATP is generated. Notice that all the intermediates in glycolysis are phosphorylated and contain either six or three carbon atoms.

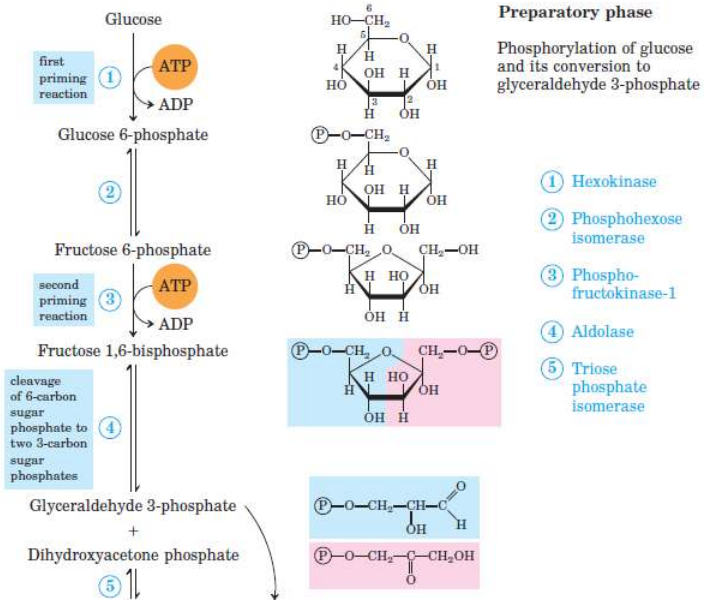


Figure 12.1.6.1: Phase 1 (preparatory phase) of Glycolysis

- When glucose enters a cell, it is immediately phosphorylated to form glucose 6-phosphate, in the first reaction of phase I. The phosphate donor in this reaction is ATP, and the enzyme—which requires magnesium ions for its activity—is *hexokinase*. In this reaction, ATP is being used rather than being synthesized. The presence of such a reaction in a catabolic pathway that is supposed to *generate* energy may surprise you. However, in addition to activating the glucose molecule, this initial reaction is essentially irreversible, an added benefit that keeps the overall process moving in the right direction. Furthermore, the addition of the negatively charged phosphate group prevents the intermediates formed in glycolysis from diffusing through the cell membrane, as neutral molecules such as glucose can do.
- In the next reaction, *phosphoglucose isomerase* catalyzes the isomerization of glucose 6-phosphate to fructose 6-phosphate. This reaction is important because it creates a primary alcohol, which can be readily phosphorylated.
- The subsequent phosphorylation of fructose 6-phosphate to form fructose 1,6-bisphosphate is catalyzed by *phosphofructokinase*, which requires magnesium ions for activity. ATP is again the phosphate donor.

- Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate is enzymatically cleaved by *aldolase* to form two triose phosphates: dihydroxyacetone phosphate and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate.
- Isomerization of dihydroxyacetone phosphate into a second molecule of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate is the final step in phase I. The enzyme catalyzing this reaction is *triose phosphate isomerase*.

When a molecule contains two phosphate groups on different carbon atoms, the convention is to use the prefix *bis*. When the two phosphate groups are bonded to each other on the same carbon atom (for example, adenosine diphosphate [ADP]), the prefix is *di*.

In steps 4 and 5, aldolase and triose phosphate isomerase effectively convert one molecule of fructose 1,6-bisphosphate into *two* molecules of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. Thus, phase I of glycolysis requires energy in the form of two molecules of ATP and releases none of the energy stored in glucose.

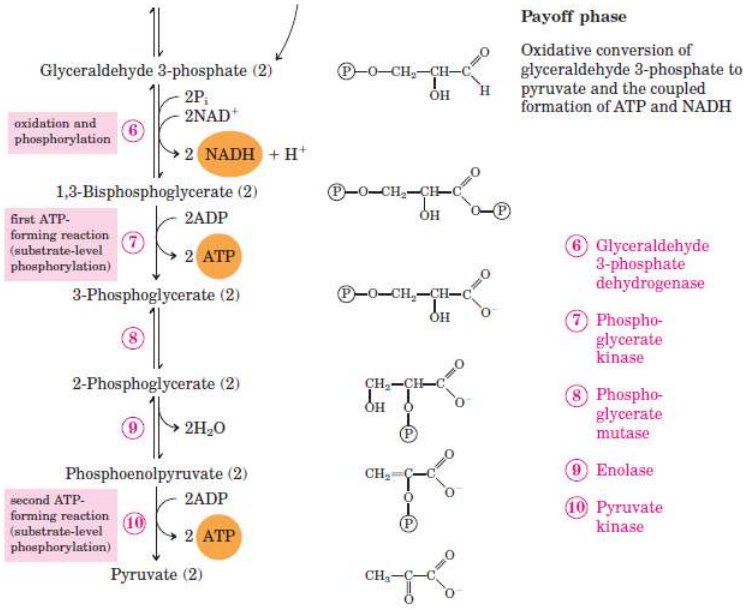


Figure 12.1.6.2: Phase 2 (payoff phase) of Glycolysis

In the initial step of phase II (Figure 12.1.6.2), glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate is both oxidized and phosphorylated in a reaction catalyzed by *glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase*, an enzyme that requires nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) as the oxidizing agent and inorganic phosphate as the phosphate donor. In the reaction, NAD^+ is reduced to reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH), and 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate (BPG) is formed.

- BPG has a high-energy phosphate bond (Table 12.1.6.1) joining a phosphate group to C1. This phosphate group is now transferred directly to a molecule of ADP, thus forming ATP and 3-phosphoglycerate. The enzyme that catalyzes the reaction is **phosphoglycerate kinase**, which, like all other kinases, requires magnesium ions to function. This is the first reaction to produce ATP in the pathway. Because the ATP is formed by a direct transfer of a phosphate group from a metabolite to ADP—that is, from one substrate to another—the process is referred to as substrate-level phosphorylation, to distinguish it from the *oxidative phosphorylation* discussed in Section 20.4.
- In the next reaction, the phosphate group on 3-phosphoglycerate is transferred from the OH group of C3 to the OH group of C2, forming 2-phosphoglycerate in a reaction catalyzed by *phosphoglyceromutase*.
- A dehydration reaction, catalyzed by *enolase*, forms phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), another compound possessing a high-energy phosphate group.
- The final step is irreversible and is the second reaction in which substrate-level phosphorylation occurs. The phosphate group of PEP is transferred to ADP, with one molecule of ATP being produced per molecule of PEP. The reaction is catalyzed by *pyruvate kinase*, which requires both magnesium and potassium ions to be active.

Table 12.1.6.1: Maximum Yield of ATP from the Complete Oxidation of 1 Mol of Glucose

Reaction	Comments	Yield of ATP (moles)
glucose → glucose 6-phosphate	consumes 1 mol ATP	−1
fructose 6-phosphate → fructose 1,6-bisphosphate	consumes 1 mol ATP	−1
glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate → BPG	produces 2 mol of cytoplasmic NADH	
BPG → 3-phosphoglycerate	produces 2 mol ATP	+2
phosphoenolpyruvate → pyruvate	produces 2 mol ATP	+2
pyruvate → acetyl-CoA + CO_2	produces 2 mol NADH	
isocitrate → α-ketoglutarate + CO_2	produces 2 mol NADH	
α-ketoglutarate → succinyl-CoA + CO_2	produces 2 mol NADH	
succinyl-CoA → succinate	produces 2 mol GTP	+2
succinate → fumarate	produces 2 mol $FADH_2$	
malate → oxaloacetate	produces 2 mol NADH	
2 cytoplasmic NADH from glycolysis	yields 2–3 mol ATP per NADH (depending on tissue)	+4 to +6
2 NADH from the oxidation of pyruvate	yields 3 mol ATP per NADH	+6
2 $FADH_2$ from the citric acid cycle	yields 2 ATP per $FADH_2$	+4
3 NADH from the citric acid cycle	yields 3 ATP per NADH	+18
Net yield of ATP:		+36 to +38

In phase II, two molecules of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate are converted to two molecules of pyruvate, along with the production of four molecules of ATP and two molecules of NADH.

To Your Health: Diabetes

Although medical science has made significant progress against diabetes , it continues to be a major health threat. Some of the serious complications of diabetes are as follows:

- It is the leading cause of lower limb amputations in the United States.
- It is the leading cause of blindness in adults over age 20.
- It is the leading cause of kidney failure.
- It increases the risk of having a heart attack or stroke by two to four times.

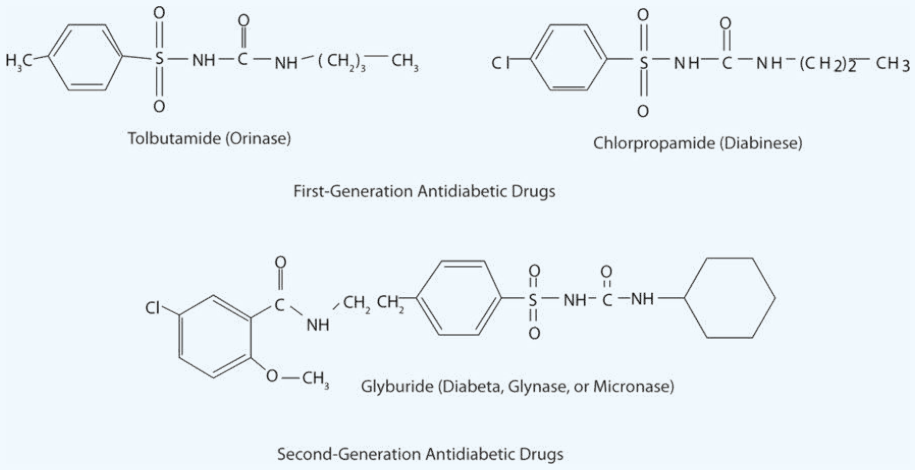
Because a person with diabetes is unable to use glucose properly, excessive quantities accumulate in the blood and the urine. Other characteristic symptoms are constant hunger, weight loss, extreme thirst, and frequent urination because the kidneys excrete large amounts of water in an attempt to remove excess sugar from the blood.

There are two types of diabetes. In immune-mediated diabetes, insufficient amounts of insulin are produced. This type of diabetes develops early in life and is also known as *Type 1 diabetes*, as well as insulin-dependent or juvenile-onset diabetes. Symptoms are rapidly reversed by the administration of insulin, and Type 1 diabetics can lead active lives provided they receive insulin as needed. Because insulin is a protein that is readily digested in the small intestine, it cannot be taken orally and must be injected at least once a day.

In Type 1 diabetes, insulin-producing cells of the pancreas are destroyed by the body's immune system. Researchers are still trying to find out why. Meanwhile, they have developed a simple blood test capable of predicting who will develop Type 1

diabetes several years before the disease becomes apparent. The blood test reveals the presence of antibodies that destroy the body's insulin-producing cells.

Type 2 diabetes, also known as noninsulin-dependent or adult-onset diabetes, is by far the more common, representing about 95% of diagnosed diabetic cases. (This translates to about 16 million Americans.) Type 2 diabetics usually produce sufficient amounts of insulin, but either the insulin-producing cells in the pancreas do not release enough of it, or it is not used properly because of defective insulin receptors or a lack of insulin receptors on the target cells. In many of these people, the disease can be controlled with a combination of diet and exercise alone. For some people who are overweight, losing weight is sufficient to bring their blood sugar level into the normal range, after which medication is not required if they exercise regularly and eat wisely.



Those who require medication may use oral antidiabetic drugs that stimulate the islet cells to secrete insulin. First-generation antidiabetic drugs stimulated the release of insulin. Newer second-generation drugs, such as glyburide, do as well, but they also increase the sensitivity of cell receptors to insulin. Some individuals with Type 2 diabetes do not produce enough insulin and thus do not respond to these oral medications; they must use insulin. In both Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes, the blood sugar level must be carefully monitored and adjustments made in diet or medication to keep the level as normal as possible (70–120 mg/dL).

Metabolism of Pyruvate

The presence or absence of oxygen determines the fates of the pyruvate and the NADH produced in glycolysis. When plenty of oxygen is available, pyruvate is completely oxidized to carbon dioxide, with the release of much greater amounts of ATP through the combined actions of the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation. However, in the absence of oxygen (that is, under anaerobic conditions), the fate of pyruvate is different in different organisms. In vertebrates, pyruvate is converted to lactate, while other organisms, such as yeast, convert pyruvate to ethanol and carbon dioxide. These possible fates of pyruvate are summarized in Figure 12.1.6.2 The conversion to lactate or ethanol under anaerobic conditions allows for the reoxidation of NADH to NAD^+ in the absence of oxygen.

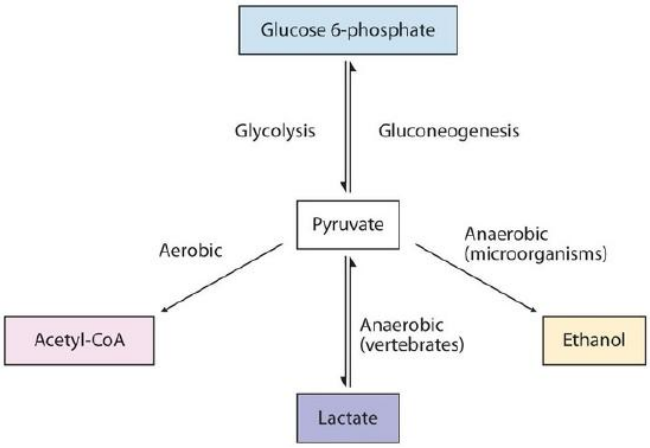


Figure 12.1.6.2: Metabolic Fates of Pyruvate

ATP Yield from Glycolysis

The net energy yield from anaerobic glucose metabolism can readily be calculated in moles of ATP. In the initial phosphorylation of glucose (step 1), 1 mol of ATP is expended, along with another in the phosphorylation of fructose 6-phosphate (step 3). In step 7, 2 mol of BPG (recall that 2 mol of 1,3-BPG are formed for each mole of glucose) are converted to 2 mol of 3-phosphoglycerate, and 2 mol of ATP are produced. In step 10, 2 mol of pyruvate and 2 mol of ATP are formed per mole of glucose.

For every mole of glucose degraded, 2 mol of ATP are initially consumed and 4 mol of ATP are ultimately produced. The net production of ATP is thus 2 mol for each mole of glucose converted to lactate or ethanol. If 7.4 kcal of energy is conserved per mole of ATP produced, and the total amount of energy that can theoretically be obtained from the complete oxidation of 1 mol of glucose is 670 kcal (as stated in the chapter introduction), the energy conserved in the anaerobic catabolism of glucose to two molecules of lactate (or ethanol) is as follows:

$$\frac{2 \times 7.4 \text{ kcal}}{670 \text{ kcal}} \times 100 = 2.2\%$$

Thus anaerobic cells extract only a very small fraction of the total energy of the glucose molecule.

Contrast this result with the amount of energy obtained when glucose is completely oxidized to carbon dioxide and water through glycolysis, the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation as summarized in Table 12.1.6.1. Note the indication in the table that a variable amount of ATP is synthesized, depending on the tissue, from the NADH formed in the cytoplasm during glycolysis. This is because NADH is not transported into the inner mitochondrial membrane where the enzymes for the electron transport chain are located. Instead, brain and muscle cells use a transport mechanism that passes electrons from the cytoplasmic NADH through the membrane to flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) molecules inside the mitochondria, forming reduced flavin adenine dinucleotide ($FADH_2$), which then feeds the electrons into the electron transport chain. This route lowers the yield of ATP to 1.5–2 molecules of ATP, rather than the usual 2.5–3 molecules. A more efficient transport system is found in liver, heart, and kidney cells where the formation of one cytoplasmic NADH molecule results in the formation of one mitochondrial NADH molecule, which leads to the formation of 2.5–3 molecules of ATP.The total amount of energy conserved in the aerobic catabolism of glucose in the liver is as follows:

$$\frac{38 \times 7.4 \text{ kcal}}{670 \text{ kcal}} \times 100 = 42\%$$

Conservation of 42% of the total energy released compares favorably with the efficiency of any machine. In comparison, automobiles are only about 20%–25% efficient in using the energy released by the combustion of gasoline.

As indicated earlier, the 58% of released energy that is not conserved enters the surroundings (that is, the cell) as heat that helps to maintain body temperature. If we are exercising strenuously and our metabolism speeds up to provide the energy needed for muscle contraction, more heat is produced. We begin to perspire to dissipate some of that heat. As the perspiration evaporates, the excess heat is carried away from the body by the departing water vapor.

Summary

- The monosaccharide glucose is broken down through a series of enzyme-catalyzed reactions known as glycolysis.
- For each molecule of glucose that is broken down, two molecules of pyruvate, two molecules of ATP, and two molecules of NADH are produced.
- In the absence of oxygen, pyruvate is converted to lactate, and NADH is reoxidized to NAD+. In the presence of oxygen, pyruvate is converted to acetyl-CoA and then enters the citric acid cycle.
- More ATP can be formed from the breakdown of glucose when oxygen is present.

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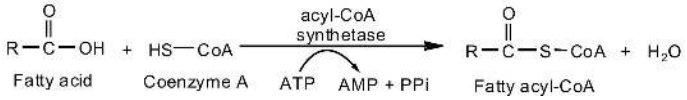
12.1.7: Stage II of Lipid Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- To describe the reactions needed to completely oxidize a fatty acid to carbon dioxide and water.

Like glucose, the fatty acids released in the digestion of triglycerides and other lipids are broken down in a series of sequential reactions accompanied by the gradual release of usable energy. Some of these reactions are oxidative and require nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) and flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). The enzymes that participate in fatty acid catabolism are located in the mitochondria, along with the enzymes of the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation. This localization of enzymes in the mitochondria is of the utmost importance because it facilitates efficient utilization of energy stored in fatty acids and other molecules.

Fatty acid oxidation is initiated on the outer mitochondrial membrane. There the fatty acids, which like carbohydrates are relatively inert, must first be activated by conversion to an energy-rich fatty acid derivative of coenzyme A called *fatty acyl-coenzyme A* (CoA). The activation is catalyzed by *acyl-CoA synthetase*. For each molecule of fatty acid activated, one molecule of coenzyme A and one molecule of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) are used, equaling a net utilization of the two high-energy bonds in one ATP molecule (which is therefore converted to adenosine monophosphate [AMP] rather than adenosine diphosphate [ADP]):



The fatty acyl-CoA diffuses to the inner mitochondrial membrane, where it combines with a carrier molecule known as carnitine in a reaction catalyzed by *carnitine acyltransferase*. The acyl-carnitine derivative is transported into the mitochondrial matrix and converted back to the fatty acyl-CoA.

Steps in the β-Oxidation of Fatty Acids

Further oxidation of the fatty acyl-CoA occurs in the mitochondrial matrix via a sequence of four reactions known collectively as β-oxidation because the β-carbon undergoes successive oxidations in the progressive removal of two carbon atoms from the carboxyl end of the fatty acyl-CoA (Figure 12.1.7.1).

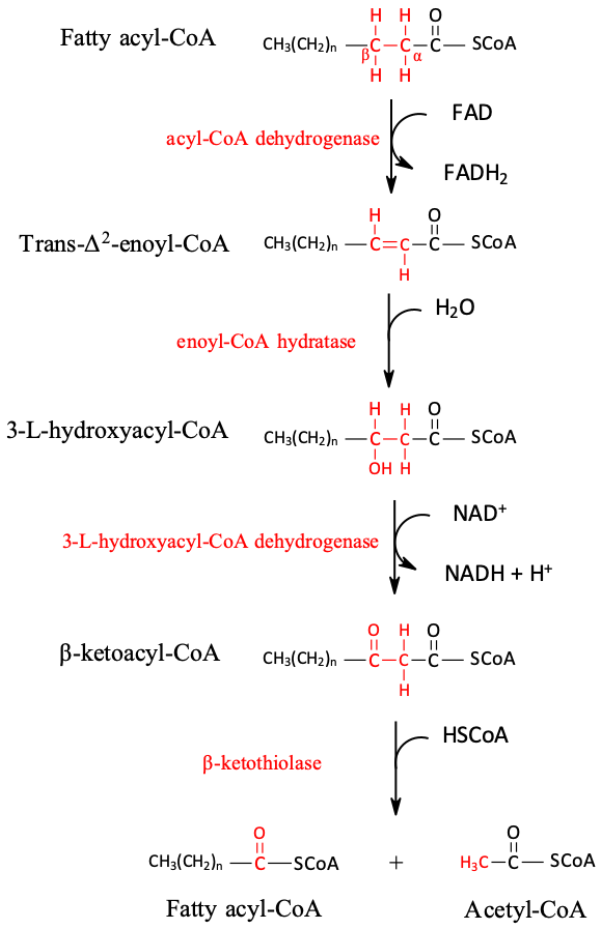


Figure 12.1.7.1: Fatty Acid Oxidation. The fatty acyl-CoA formed in the final step becomes the substrate for the first step in the next round of β-oxidation. β-oxidation continues until two acetyl-CoA molecules are produced in the final step.

The first step in the catabolism of fatty acids is the formation of an alkene in an oxidation reaction catalyzed by *acyl-CoA dehydrogenase*. In this reaction, the coenzyme FAD accepts two hydrogen atoms from the acyl-CoA, one from the α-carbon and one from the β-carbon, forming reduced flavin adenine dinucleotide ($FADH_2$).

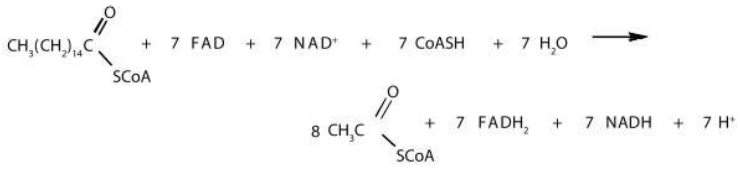
> The $FADH_2$ is reoxidized back to FAD via the electron transport chain that supplies energy to form 1.5–2 molecules of ATP.

Next, the *trans*-alkene is hydrated to form a secondary alcohol in a reaction catalyzed by *enoyl-CoA hydratase*. The enzyme forms only the L-isomer.

The secondary alcohol is then oxidized to a ketone by *β-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase*, with NAD^+ acting as the oxidizing agent. The reoxidation of each molecule of NADH to NAD^+ by the electron transport chain furnishes 2.5–3 molecules of ATP.

The final reaction is cleavage of the β-ketoacyl-CoA by a molecule of coenzyme A. The products are acetyl-CoA and a fatty acyl-CoA that has been shortened by two carbon atoms. The reaction is catalyzed by *thiolase*.

The shortened fatty acyl-CoA is then degraded by repetitions of these four steps, each time releasing a molecule of acetyl-CoA. The overall equation for the β-oxidation of palmitoyl-CoA (16 carbon atoms) is as follows:

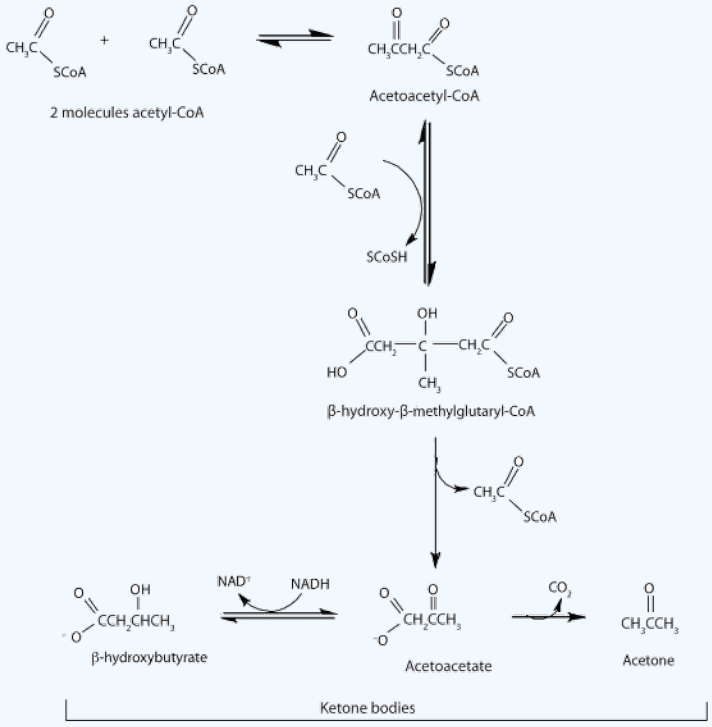


> *Because each shortened fatty acyl-CoA cycles back to the beginning of the pathway, β-oxidation is sometimes referred to as the fatty acid spiral.*

The fate of the acetyl-CoA obtained from fatty acid oxidation depends on the needs of an organism. It may enter the citric acid cycle and be oxidized to produce energy, it may be used for the formation of water-soluble derivatives known as ketone bodies, or it may serve as the starting material for the synthesis of fatty acids. For more information about the citric acid cycle, see Section 20.4.

Looking Closer: Ketone Bodies

In the liver, most of the acetyl-CoA obtained from fatty acid oxidation is oxidized by the citric acid cycle. However, some of the acetyl-CoA is used to synthesize a group of compounds known as *ketone bodies*: acetoacetate, β-hydroxybutyrate, and acetone. Two acetyl-CoA molecules combine, in a reversal of the final step of β-oxidation, to produce acetoacetyl-CoA. The acetoacetyl-CoA reacts with another molecule of acetyl-CoA and water to form β-hydroxy-β-methylglutaryl-CoA, which is then cleaved to acetoacetate and acetyl-CoA. Most of the acetoacetate is reduced to β-hydroxybutyrate, while a small amount is decarboxylated to carbon dioxide and acetone.



The acetoacetate and β-hydroxybutyrate synthesized by the liver are released into the blood for use as a metabolic fuel (to be converted back to acetyl-CoA) by other tissues, particularly the kidney and the heart. Thus, during prolonged starvation, ketone bodies provide about 70% of the energy requirements of the brain. Under normal conditions, the kidneys excrete about 20 mg of ketone bodies each day, and the blood levels are maintained at about 1 mg of ketone bodies per 100 mL of blood.

In starvation, diabetes mellitus, and certain other physiological conditions in which cells do not receive sufficient amounts of carbohydrate, the rate of fatty acid oxidation increases to provide energy. This leads to an increase in the concentration of acetyl-CoA. The increased acetyl-CoA cannot be oxidized by the citric acid cycle because of a decrease in the concentration of oxaloacetate, which is diverted to glucose synthesis. In response, the rate of ketone body formation in the liver increases further, to a level much higher than can be used by other tissues. The excess ketone bodies accumulate in the blood and the urine, a condition referred to as *ketosis*. When the acetone in the blood reaches the lungs, its volatility causes it to be expelled in the breath. The sweet smell of acetone, a characteristic of ketosis, is frequently noticed on the breath of severely diabetic patients.

Because two of the three kinds of ketone bodies are weak acids, their presence in the blood in excessive amounts overwhelms the blood buffers and causes a marked decrease in blood pH (to 6.9 from a normal value of 7.4). This decrease in pH leads to a

serious condition known as *acidosis*. One of the effects of acidosis is a decrease in the ability of hemoglobin to transport oxygen in the blood. In moderate to severe acidosis, breathing becomes labored and very painful. The body also loses fluids and becomes dehydrated as the kidneys attempt to get rid of the acids by eliminating large quantities of water. The lowered oxygen supply and dehydration lead to depression; even mild acidosis leads to lethargy, loss of appetite, and a generally run-down feeling. Untreated patients may go into a coma. At that point, prompt treatment is necessary if the person's life is to be saved.

ATP Yield from Fatty Acid Oxidation

The amount of ATP obtained from fatty acid oxidation depends on the size of the fatty acid being oxidized. For our purposes here. we'll study palmitic acid, a saturated fatty acid with 16 carbon atoms, as a typical fatty acid in the human diet. Calculating its energy yield provides a model for determining the ATP yield of all other fatty acids.

The breakdown by an organism of 1 mol of palmitic acid requires 1 mol of ATP (for activation) and forms 8 mol of acetyl-CoA. Recall from Table 20.4.1 that each mole of acetyl-CoA metabolized by the citric acid cycle yields 10 mol of ATP. The complete degradation of 1 mol of palmitic acid requires the β-oxidation reactions to be repeated seven times. Thus, 7 mol of NADH and 7 mol of $FADH_2$ are produced. Reoxidation of these compounds through respiration yields 2.5–3 and 1.5–2 mol of ATP, respectively. The energy calculations can be summarized as follows:

ATP Yield from Fatty Acid Oxidation

1 mol of ATP is split to AMP and $2P_i$	−2 ATP
8 mol of acetyl-CoA formed (8 × 12)	96 ATP
7 mol of $FADH_2$ formed (7 × 2)	14 ATP
7 mol of NADH formed (7 × 3)	21 ATP
Total	129 ATP

> *The number of times β-oxidation is repeated for a fatty acid containing n carbon atoms is n/2 – 1 because the final turn yields two acetyl-CoA molecules.*

The combustion of 1 mol of palmitic acid releases a considerable amount of energy:

$$C_{16}H_{32}O_2 + 23O_2 \rightarrow 16CO_2 + 16H_2O + 2,340\ kcal$$

The percentage of this energy that is conserved by the cell in the form of ATP is as follows:

$$\frac{\text{energy conserved}}{\text{total energy available}} \times 100 = \frac{(129\ \text{ATP})(7.4\ \text{kcal/ATP})}{2,340\ \text{kcal}} \times 100 = 41\%$$

The efficiency of fatty acid metabolism is comparable to that of carbohydrate metabolism, which we calculated to be 42%. For more information about the efficiency of fatty acid metabolism, see II of Carbohydrate Catabolism" data-cke-saved-href="/Bookshelves/Introductory_Chemistry/Basics_of_General_Organic_and_Biological_Chemistry_(Ball_et_al.)/20:_Energy_Metabolism/20.05:_Stage_II_of_Carbohydrate_Catabolism" href="/Bookshelves/Introductory_Chemistry/Basics_of_General_Organic_and_Biological_Chemistry_(Ball_et_al.)/20:_Energy_Metabolism/20.05:_Stage_II_of_Carbohydrate_Catabolism" data-quail-id="91">Section 20.5.

> *The oxidation of fatty acids produces large quantities of water. This water, which sustains migratory birds and animals (such as the camel) for long periods of time.*

Summary

- Fatty acids, obtained from the breakdown of triglycerides and other lipids, are oxidized through a series of reactions known as β-oxidation.
- In each round of β-oxidation, 1 molecule of acetyl-CoA, 1 molecule of NADH, and 1 molecule of $FADH_2$ are produced.
- The acetyl-CoA, NADH, and $FADH_2$ are used in the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation to produce ATP.

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12.1.8: Stage II of Protein Catabolism

Learning Objectives

- To describe how excess amino acids are degraded.

The liver is the principal site of amino acid metabolism, but other tissues, such as the kidney, the small intestine, muscles, and adipose tissue, take part. Generally, the first step in the breakdown of amino acids is the separation of the amino group from the carbon skeleton, usually by a transamination reaction. The carbon skeletons resulting from the deaminated amino acids are used to form either glucose or fats, or they are converted to a metabolic intermediate that can be oxidized by the citric acid cycle. The latter alternative, amino acid catabolism, is more likely to occur when glucose levels are low—for example, when a person is fasting or starving.

Transamination

Transamination is an exchange of functional groups between any amino acid (except lysine, proline, and threonine) and an α-keto acid. The amino group is usually transferred to the keto carbon atom of pyruvate, oxaloacetate, or α-ketoglutarate, converting the α-keto acid to alanine, aspartate, or glutamate, respectively. Transamination reactions are catalyzed by specific transaminases (also called aminotransferases), which require pyridoxal phosphate as a coenzyme.

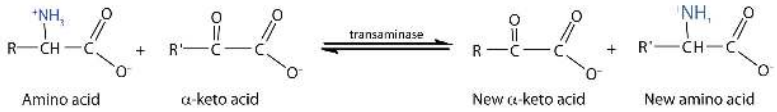


Figure 12.1.8.1).

> *In an α-keto acid, the carbonyl or keto group is located on the carbon atom adjacent to the carboxyl group of the acid.*

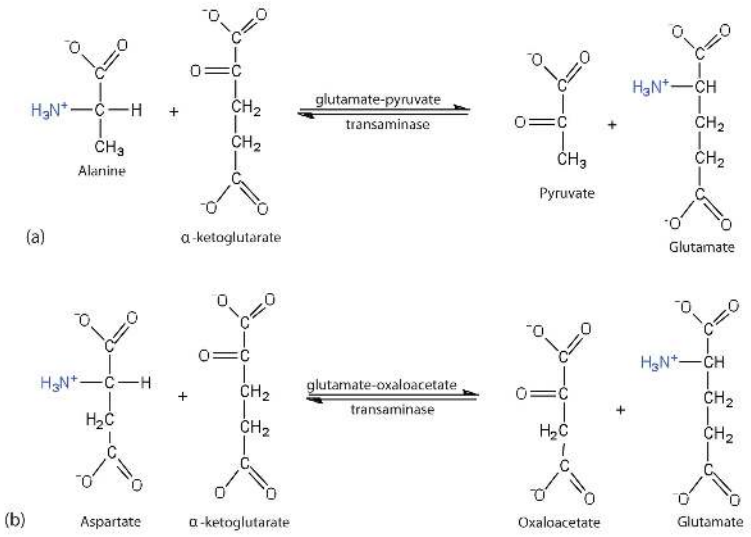
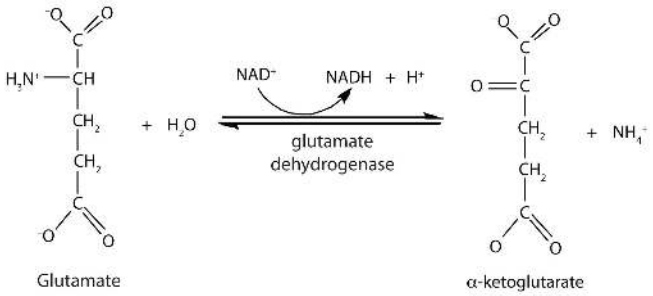


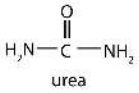
Figure 12.1.8.1: Two Transamination Reactions. In both reactions, the final acceptor of the amino group is α-ketoglutarate, and the final product is glutamate.

Oxidative Deamination

In the breakdown of amino acids for energy, the final acceptor of the α-amino group is α-ketoglutarate, forming glutamate. Glutamate can then undergooxidative deamination, in which it loses its amino group as an ammonium (NH_4^+) ion and is oxidized back to α-ketoglutarate (ready to accept another amino group):



This reaction occurs primarily in liver mitochondria. Most of the NH_4^+ ion formed by oxidative deamination of glutamate is converted to urea and excreted in the urine in a series of reactions known as the **urea cycle**.



The synthesis of glutamate occurs in animal cells by reversing the reaction catalyzed by glutamate dehydrogenase. For this reaction nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) acts as the reducing agent. The synthesis of glutamate is significant because it is one of the few reactions in animals that can incorporate inorganic nitrogen (NH_4^+) into an α-keto acid to form an amino acid. The amino group can then be passed on through transamination reactions, to produce other amino acids from the appropriate α-keto acids.

The Fate of the Carbon Skeleton

Any amino acid can be converted into an intermediate of the citric acid cycle. Once the amino group is removed, usually by transamination, the α-keto acid that remains is catabolized by a pathway unique to that acid and consisting of one or more reactions. For example, phenylalanine undergoes a series of six reactions before it splits into fumarate and acetoacetate. Fumarate is an intermediate in the citric acid cycle, while acetoacetate must be converted to acetoacetyl-coenzyme A (CoA) and then to acetyl-CoA before it enters the citric acid cycle.

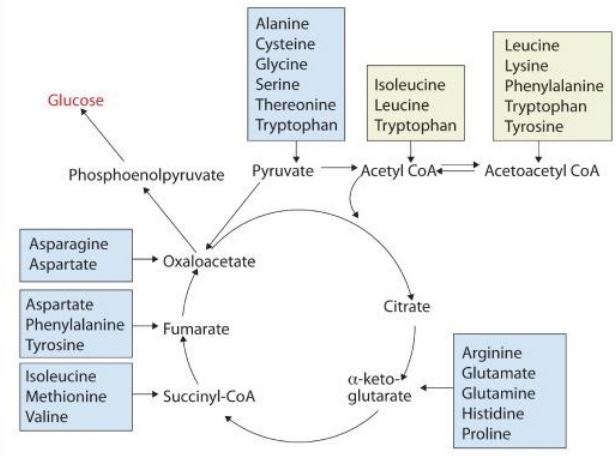


Figure 12.1.8.2: Fates of the Carbon Skeletons of Amino Acids

Those amino acids that can form any of the intermediates of carbohydrate metabolism can subsequently be converted to glucose via a metabolic pathway known as gluconeogenesis. These amino acids are called glucogenic amino acids. Amino acids that are converted to acetoacetyl-CoA or acetyl-CoA, which can be used for the synthesis of ketone bodies but not glucose, are called ketogenic amino acids. Some amino acids fall into both categories. Leucine and lysine are the only amino acids that are exclusively ketogenic. Figure 12.1.8.2summarizes the ultimate fates of the carbon skeletons of the 20 amino acids.

Career Focus: Exercise Physiologist

An exercise physiologist works with individuals who have or wish to prevent developing a wide variety of chronic diseases, such as diabetes, in which exercise has been shown to be beneficial. Each individual must be referred by a licensed physician. An exercise physiologist works in a variety of settings, such as a hospital or in a wellness program at a commercial business, to design and monitor individual exercise plans. A registered clinical exercise physiologist must have an undergraduate degree in exercise physiology or a related degree. Some job opportunities require a master's degree in exercise physiology or a related degree.



Ergospirometry laboratory for the measurement of metabolic changes during a graded exercise test on a treadmill. from Wikipedia.

Summary

Generally the first step in the breakdown of amino acids is the removal of the amino group, usually through a reaction known as transamination. The carbon skeletons of the amino acids undergo further reactions to form compounds that can either be used for the synthesis of glucose or the synthesis of ketone bodies.

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12.1.E: Energy Metabolism (Exercises)

20.1: ATP- the Universal Energy Currency

Concept Review Exercise

1. Why is ATP referred to as the energy currency of the cell?

Answer

1. ATP is the principal molecule involved in energy exchange reactions in biological systems.

Exercises

1. How do ATP and ADP differ in structure?
2. Why does the hydrolysis of ATP to ADP involve the release of energy?
3. Identify whether each compound would be classified as a high-energy phosphate compound.
    a. ATP
    b. glucose 6-phosphate
    c. creatine phosphate
4. Identify whether each compound would be classified as a high-energy phosphate compound.
    a. ADP
    b. AMP
    c. glucose 1-phosphate

Answers

1. ATP has a triphosphate group attached, while ADP has only a diphosphate group attached.

3. a. yes
    b. no
    c. yes

20.2: Stage I of Catabolism

Concept Review Exercises

1. Distinguish between each pair of compounds.
    a. pepsin and pepsinogen
    b. chymotrypsin and trypsin
    c. aminopeptidase and carboxypeptidase
2. What are the primary end products of each form of digestion?
    a. carbohydrate digestion
    b. lipid digestion
    c. protein digestion
3. In what section of the digestive tract does most of the carbohydrate, lipid, and protein digestion take place?

Answers

1. a. Pepsinogen is an inactive form of pepsin; pepsin is the active form of the enzyme.
    b. Both enzymes catalyze the hydrolysis of peptide bonds. Chymotrypsin catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide bonds following aromatic amino acids, while trypsin catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide bonds following lysine and arginine.
    c. Aminopeptidase catalyzes the hydrolysis of amino acids from the N-terminal end of a protein, while carboxypeptidase catalyzes the hydrolysis of amino acids from the C-terminal end of a protein.
2. a. glucose, fructose, and galactose
    b. monoglycerides and fatty acids

c. amino acids

3. the small intestine

Exercises

1. What are the products of digestion (or stage I of catabolism)?
2. What is the general type of reaction used in digestion?
3. Give the site of action and the function of each enzyme.
   a. chymotrypsin
   b. lactase
   c. pepsin
   d. maltase
4. Give the site of action and the function of each enzyme.
   a. α-amylase
   b. trypsin
   c. sucrase
   d. aminopeptidase
5. a. What is the meaning of the following statement? “Bile salts act to emulsify lipids in the small intestine.”
   b. Why is emulsification important?
6. Using chemical equations, describe the chemical changes that triglycerides undergo during digestion.
7. What are the expected products from the enzymatic action of chymotrypsin on each amino acid segment?
   a. gly-ala-phe-thr-leu
   b. ala-ile-tyr-ser-arg
   c. val-trp-arg-leu-cys
8. What are the expected products from the enzymatic action of trypsin on each amino acid segment?
   a. leu-thr-glu-lys-ala
   b. phe-arg-ala-leu-val
   c. ala-arg-glu-trp-lys

Answers

1. proteins: amino acids; carbohydrates: monosaccharides; fats: fatty acids and glycerol
3. a. Chymotrypsin is found in the small intestine and catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide bonds following aromatic amino acids.
   b. Lactase is found in the small intestine and catalyzes the hydrolysis of lactose.
   c. Pepsin is found in the stomach and catalyzes the hydrolysis of peptide bonds, primarily those that occur after aromatic amino acids.
   d. Maltase is found in the small intestine and catalyzes the hydrolysis of maltose.
5. a. Bile salts aid in digestion by dispersing lipids throughout the aqueous solution in the small intestine.
   b. Emulsification is important because lipids are not soluble in water; it breaks lipids up into smaller particles that can be more readily hydrolyzed by lipases.
7. a. gly-ala-phe and thr-leu
   b. ala-ile-tyr and ser-arg
   c. val-trp and arg-leu-cys

20.3: Overview of Stage II of Catabolism

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is a metabolic pathway?
2. What vitamin is required to make coenzyme A?
3. What is the net yield of Glycolysis as far as ATP?
4. Name the enzymes that are key regulatory sites in Glycolysis.
5. Why are the enzymes in the previous question targets for regulation?
6. Why is the priming phase necessary?
7. Draw the entire pathway for glycolysis including enzymes, reactants and products for each step.
8. Where does beta-oxidation occur?
9. What is the average net yield of ATP per carbon?
10. Where exactly is water formed during the process of fatty acid degradation? (Hint: H_2O is formed when when the one of the products of beta-oxidation is passed through another of the metabolic pathways)
11. During the process of beta-oxidation, why is it that [FAD] is used to oxidize an alkane to an alkene while NAD^+ is used to oxidize an alchol to a carbonyl
12. Draw out the entire process of the degradation of a triglyceride, include enzymes and products and reactants for each step.

Answers

1. A metabolic pathway is a series of biochemical reactions by which an organism converts a given reactant to a specific end product.
2. pantothenic acid

20.4: Stage III of Catabolism

Concept Review Exercises

1. What is the main function of the citric acid cycle?
2. Two carbon atoms are fed into the citric acid cycle as acetyl-CoA. In what form are two carbon atoms removed from the cycle?
3. What are mitochondria and what is their function in the cell?

Answers

1. the complete oxidation of carbon atoms to carbon dioxide and the formation of a high-energy phosphate compound, energy rich reduced coenzymes (NADH and $FADH_2$), and metabolic intermediates for the synthesis of other compounds
2. as carbon dioxide
3. Mitochondria are small organelles with a double membrane that contain the enzymes and other molecules needed for the production of most of the ATP needed by the body.

Exercises

1. Replace each question mark with the correct compound.
   a. $? \xrightarrow{\text{aconitase}} \text{isocitrate}$
   b. $? + ? \xrightarrow{\text{citrate synthase}} \text{citrate} + \text{coenzyme A}$
   c. $\text{fumarate} \xrightarrow{\text{fumarase}} ?$
   d. $\text{isocitrate} + \text{NAD}^+ \xrightarrow{?} \alpha\text{-ketoglurate} + \text{NADH} + \text{CO}_2$
2. Replace each question mark with the correct compound.
   a. $\text{malate} + \text{NAD}^+ \xrightarrow{?} \text{oxaloacetate} + \text{NADH}$
   b. $? + ? \xrightarrow{\text{nucleoside diphosphokinase}} \text{GDP} + \text{ATP}$

c. $\text{succinyl-CoA} \xrightarrow{\text{succinyl-CoA synthetase}} ? + ?$

d. $\text{succinate} + \text{FAD} \xrightarrow{\text{succinate dehydrogenase}} ? + \text{FADH}_2$

3. From the reactions in Exercises 1 and 2, select the equation(s) by number and letter in which each type of reaction occurs.
   a. isomerization
   b. hydration
   c. synthesis
4. From the reactions in Exercises 1 and 2, select the equation(s) by number and letter in which each type of reaction occurs.
   a. oxidation
   b. decarboxylation
   c. phosphorylation
5. What similar role do coenzyme Q and cytochrome c serve in the electron transport chain?
6. What is the electron acceptor at the end of the electron transport chain? To what product is this compound reduced?
7. What is the function of the cytochromes in the electron transport chain?
8. a. What is meant by this statement? “Electron transport is tightly coupled to oxidative phosphorylation.”
   b. How are electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation coupled or linked?

Answers

1. a. citrate
   b. oxaloacetate + acetyl-CoA
   c. malate
   d. α-ketoglutarate hydrogenase complex
3. a. reaction in 1a
   b. reaction in 1c
   c. reaction in 1b
5. Both molecules serve as electron shuttles between the complexes of the electron transport chain.
7. Cytochromes are proteins in the electron transport chain and serve as one-electron carriers.

20.5: Stage II of Carbohydrate Catabolism

- ### Concept Review Exercises

1. In glycolysis, how many molecules of pyruvate are produced from one molecule of glucose?
2. In vertebrates, what happens to pyruvate when
   a. plenty of oxygen is available?
   b. oxygen supplies are limited?
3. In anaerobic glycolysis, how many molecules of ATP are produced from one molecule of glucose?

Answers

1. two
2. a. Pyruvate is completely oxidized to carbon dioxide.
   b. Pyruvate is reduced to lactate, allowing for the reoxidation of NADH to NAD^+.
3. There is a net production of two molecules of ATP.

Exercises

1. Replace each question mark with the correct compound.
   a. $\text{fructose 1, 6-bisphosphate} \xrightarrow{\text{aldolase}} ? + ?$

b. $? + \text{ADP} \xrightarrow{\text{pyruvate kinase}} \text{pyruvate} + \text{ATP}$

c. $\text{dihydroxyacetone phosphate} \xrightarrow{?} \text{glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate}$

d. $\text{glucose} + \text{ATP} \xrightarrow{\text{hexokinase}} ? + \text{ADP}$

2. Replace each question mark with the correct compound.

a. $\text{fructose 6-phosphate} + \text{ATP} \xrightarrow{?} \text{fructose 1, 6-bisphosphate} + \text{ADP}$

b. $? \xrightarrow{\text{phosphoglucose isomerase}} \text{fructose 6-phosphate}$

c. $\text{glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate} + \text{NAD}^+ + \text{P}_\text{i} \xrightarrow{?} \text{1, 3-bisphosphoglycerate} + \text{NADH}$

d. $\text{3-phosphoglycerate} \xrightarrow{\text{phosphoglyceromutase}} ?$

3. From the reactions in Exercises 1 and 2, select the equation(s) by number and letter in which each type of reaction occurs.

a. hydrolysis of a high-energy phosphate compound
b. synthesis of ATP

4. From the reactions in Exercises 1 and 2, select the equation(s) by number and letter in which each type of reaction occurs.

a. isomerization
b. oxidation

5. What coenzyme is needed as an oxidizing agent in glycolysis?

6. Calculate

a. the *total* number of molecules of ATP produced for each molecule of glucose converted to pyruvate in glycolysis.
b. the number of molecules of ATP hydrolyzed in phase I of glycolysis.
c. the *net* ATP production from glycolysis alone.

7. How is the NADH produced in glycolysis reoxidized when oxygen supplies are limited in

a. muscle cells?
b. yeast?

8. a. Calculate the number of moles of ATP produced by the aerobic oxidation of 1 mol of glucose in a liver cell.
b. Of the total calculated in Exercise 9a, determine the number of moles of ATP produced in each process.

a. glycolysis alone
b. the citric acid cycle
c. the electron transport chain and oxidative phosphorylation

Answers

1. a. glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate + dihydroxyacetone phosphate
b. phosphoenolpyruvate
c. triose phosphate isomerase
d. glucose 6-phosphate

3. a. reactions 1b, 1d, and 2a
b. reaction 1b

5. NAD^+

7. a. Pyruvate is reduced to lactate, and NADH is reoxidized to NAD^+.
b. Pyruvate is converted to ethanol and carbon dioxide, and NADH is reoxidized to NAD^+.

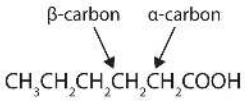
20.6: Stage II of Lipid Catabolism

•

Concept Review Exercises

1. How are fatty acids activated prior to being transported into the mitochondria and oxidized?
2. Draw the structure of hexanoic (caproic) acid and identify the α-carbon and the β-carbon.

Answers

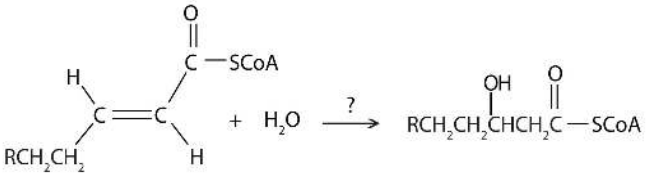
1. They react with CoA to form fatty acyl-CoA molecules.
2. 

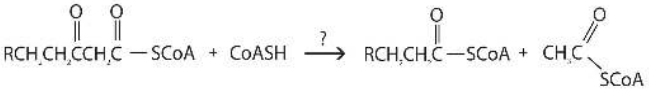
Key Takeaways

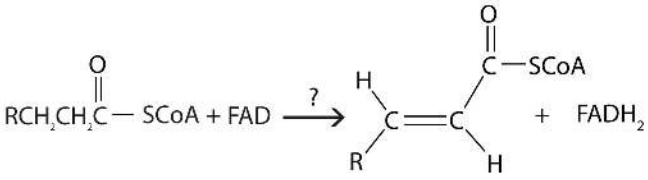
- Fatty acids, obtained from the breakdown of triglycerides and other lipids, are oxidized through a series of reactions known as β-oxidation.
- In each round of β-oxidation, 1 molecule of acetyl-CoA, 1 molecule of NADH, and 1 molecule of $FADH_2$ are produced.
- The acetyl-CoA, NADH, and $FADH_2$ are used in the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation to produce ATP.

Exercises

1. For each reaction found in β-oxidation, identify the enzyme that catalyzes the reaction and classify the reaction as oxidation-reduction, hydration, or cleavage.

a. 

b. 

c. 

2. What are the products of β-oxidation?
3. How many rounds of β-oxidation are necessary to metabolize lauric acid (a saturated fatty acid with 12 carbon atoms)?
4. How many rounds of β-oxidation are necessary to metabolize arachidic acid (a saturated fatty acid with 20 carbon atoms)?
5. When myristic acid (a saturated fatty acid with 14 carbon atoms) is completely oxidized by β-oxidation, how many molecules of each are formed?
   a. acetyl-CoA
   b. $FADH_2$
   c. NADH
6. When stearic acid (a saturated fatty acid with 18 carbon atoms) is completely oxidized by β-oxidation, how many molecules of each are formed?
   a. acetyl-CoA
   b. $FADH_2$
   c. NADH
7. What is the net yield of ATP from the complete oxidation, in a liver cell, of one molecule of myristic acid?
8. What is the net yield of ATP from the complete oxidation, in a liver cell, of one molecule of stearic acid?

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Answers

1. a. enoyl-CoA hydratase; hydration
   b. thiolase; cleavage
   c. acyl-CoA dehydrogenase; oxidation-reduction
3. five rounds
5. a. 7 molecules
   b. 6 molecules
   c. 6 molecules
7. 112 molecules

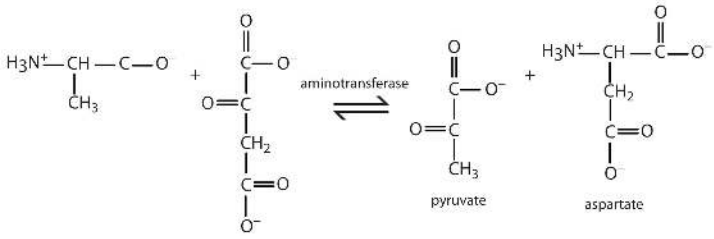
20.7: Stage II of Protein Catabolism

Concept Review Exercises

1. a. Write the equation for the transamination reaction between alanine and oxaloacetate.
   b. Name the two products that are formed.
2. What is the purpose of oxidative deamination?

Answers

1. a.



   b. pyruvate and aspartate
2. Oxidative deamination provides a reaction in which the amino group [as the ammonium (NH_4^+) ion] is removed from a molecule, not simply transferred from one molecule to another. Most of the NH_4^+ ion is converted to urea and excreted from the body.

Exercises

1. Write the equation for the transamination reaction between valine and pyruvate.
2. Write the equation for the transamination reaction between phenylalanine and oxaloacetate.
3. What products are formed in the oxidative deamination of glutamate?
4. Determine if each amino acid is glucogenic, ketogenic, or both.
   a. phenylalanine
   b. leucine
   c. serine
5. Determine if each amino acid is glucogenic, ketogenic, or both.
   a. asparagine
   b. tyrosine
   c. valine

Answers

1.



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3. α-ketoglutarate, NADH, and NH_4^+

5. a. glucogenic
   b. both
   c. glucogenic

Additional Exercises

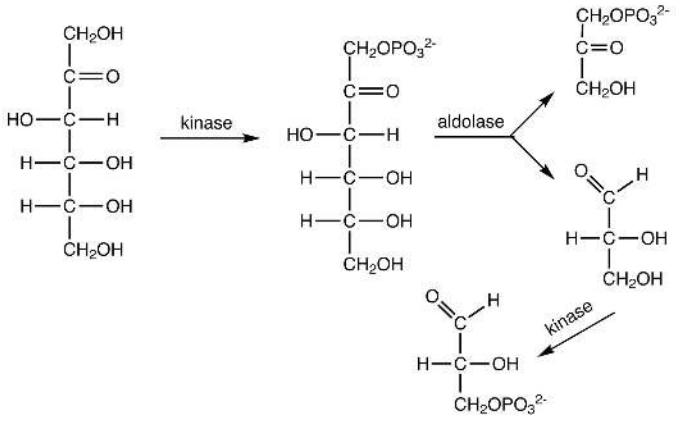
1. Hydrolysis of which compound—arginine phosphate or glucose 6-phosphate—would provide enough energy for the phosphorylation of ATP? Why?
2. If a cracker, which is rich in starch, is chewed for a long time, it begins to develop a sweet, sugary taste. Why?
3. Indicate where each enzymes would cleave the short peptide ala-ser-met-val-phe-gly-cys-lys-asp-leu.
   a. aminopeptidase
   b. chymotrypsin
4. Indicate where each enzymes would cleave the short peptide ala-ser-met-val-phe-gly-cys-lys-asp-leu.
   a. trypsin
   b. carboxypeptidase
5. If the methyl carbon atom of acetyl-CoA is labeled, where does the label appear after the acetyl-CoA goes through one round of the citric acid cycle?
6. If the carbonyl carbon atom of acetyl-CoA is labeled, where does the label appear after the acetyl-CoA goes through one round of the citric acid cycle?
7. The average adult consumes about 65 g of fructose daily (either as the free sugar or from the breakdown of sucrose). In the liver, fructose is first phosphorylated to fructose 1-phosphate, which is then split into dihydroxyacetone phosphate and glyceraldehyde. Glyceraldehyde is then phosphorylated to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, with ATP as the phosphate group donor. Write the equations (using structural formulas) for these three steps. Indicate the type of enzyme that catalyzes each step.
8. What critical role is played by both BPG and PEP in glycolysis?
9. How is the NADH produced in glycolysis reoxidized when oxygen supplies are abundant?
10. When a triglyceride is hydrolyzed to form three fatty acids and glycerol, the glycerol can be converted to glycerol 3-phosphate and then oxidized to form dihydroxyacetone phosphate, an intermediate of glycolysis. (In this reaction, NAD^+ is reduced to NADH.) If you assume that there is sufficient oxygen to completely oxidize the pyruvate formed from dihydroxyacetone phosphate, what is the maximum amount of ATP formed from the complete oxidation of 1 mol of glycerol?
11. How is the $FADH_2$ from β-oxidation converted back to FAD?
12. If 1 mol of alanine is converted to pyruvate in a muscle cell (through transamination) and the pyruvate is then metabolized via the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation, how many moles of ATP are produced?
13. If the essential amino acid leucine (2-amino-4-methylpentanoic acid) is lacking in the diet, an α-keto acid can substitute for it. Give the structure of the α-keto acid and the probable reaction used to form leucine from this α-keto acid.

Answers

1. The hydrolysis of arginine phosphate releases more energy than is needed for the synthesis of ATP, while hydrolysis of glucose 6-phosphate does not.

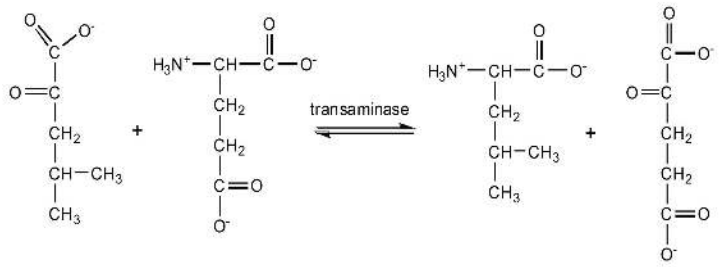
3.
   a. The enzyme will cleave off amino acids one at a time beginning with alanine (the N-terminal end).
   b. following phenylalanine

5. Half of the label will be on the second carbon atom of oxaloacetate, while the other half will be on the third carbon atom.

7. 

9. When oxygen is abundant, NADH is reoxidized through the reactions of the electron transport chain.

11. $FADH_2$ is reoxidized back to FAD via the electron transport chain.

13. 

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12.1.S: Energy Metabolism (Summary)

To ensure that you understand the material in this chapter, you should review the meanings of the bold terms in the following summary and ask yourself how they relate to the topics in the chapter.

Metabolism is the general term for all chemical reactions in living organisms. The two types of metabolism are **catabolism**—those reactions in which complex molecules (carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins) are broken down to simpler ones with the concomitant release of energy—and **anabolism**—those reactions that consume energy to build complex molecules. Metabolism is studied by looking at individual **metabolic pathways**, which are a series of biochemical reactions in which a given reactant is converted to a desired end product.

The oxidation of fuel molecules (primarily carbohydrates and lipids), a process called **respiration**, is the source of energy used by cells. Catabolic reactions release energy from food molecules and use some of that energy for the synthesis of *adenosine triphosphate* (ATP); anabolic reactions use the energy in ATP to create new compounds. Catabolism can be divided into three stages. In stage I, carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins are broken down into their individual monomer units—simple sugars, fatty acids, and amino acids, respectively. In stage II, these monomer units are broken down by specific metabolic pathways to form a common end product *acetyl-coenzyme A* (CoA). In stage III, acetyl-CoA is completely oxidized to form carbon dioxide and water, and ATP is produced.

The **digestion** of carbohydrates begins in the mouth as α-amylase breaks glycosidic linkages in carbohydrate molecules. Essentially no carbohydrate digestion occurs in the stomach, and food particles pass through to the small intestine, where α-amylase and intestinal enzymes convert complex carbohydrate molecules (starches) to monosaccharides. The monosaccharides then pass through the lining of the small intestine and into the bloodstream for transport to all body cells.

Protein digestion begins in the stomach as pepsinogen in **gastric juice** is converted to pepsin, the enzyme that hydrolyzes peptide bonds. The partially digested protein then passes to the small intestine, where the remainder of protein digestion takes place through the action of several enzymes. The resulting amino acids cross the intestinal wall into the blood and are carried to the liver.

Lipid digestion begins in the small intestine. Bile salts emulsify the lipid molecules, and then lipases hydrolyze them to fatty acids and monoglycerides. The hydrolysis products pass through the intestine and are repackaged for transport in the bloodstream.

In cells that are operating aerobically, acetyl-CoA produced in stage II of catabolism is oxidized to carbon dioxide. The **citric acid cycle** describes this oxidation, which takes place with the formation of the coenzymes reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH) and reduced flavin adenine dinucleotide ($FADH_2$). The sequence of reactions needed to oxidize these coenzymes and transfer the resulting electrons to oxygen is called the **electron transport chain**, or the **respiratory chain**. The compounds responsible for this series of oxidation-reduction reactions include proteins known as **cytochromes**, Fe·S proteins, and other molecules that ultimately result in the reduction of molecular oxygen to water. Every time a compound with two carbon atoms is oxidized in the citric acid cycle, a respiratory chain compound accepts the electrons lost in the oxidation (and so is reduced) and then passes them on to the next metabolite in the chain. The energy released by the electron transport chain is used to transport hydrogen (H^+) ions from the mitochondrial matrix to the intermembrane space. The flow of H^+ back through ATP synthase leads to the synthesis and release of ATP from adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and inorganic phosphate ions (P_i) in a process known as **oxidative phosphorylation**. Electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation are tightly coupled to each other. The enzymes and intermediates of the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation are located in organelles called **mitochondria**.

The oxidation of carbohydrates is the source of over 50% of the energy used by cells. Glucose is oxidized to two molecules of pyruvate through a series of reactions known as **glycolysis**. Some of the energy released in these reactions is conserved by the formation of ATP from ADP. Glycolysis can be divided into two phases: phase I consists of the first five reactions and requires energy to "prime" the glucose molecule for phase II, the last five reactions in which ATP is produced through **substrate-level phosphorylation**.

The pyruvate produced by glycolysis has several possible fates, depending on the organism and whether or not oxygen is present. In animal cells, pyruvate can be further oxidized to acetyl-CoA and then to carbon dioxide (through the citric acid cycle) if oxygen supplies are sufficient. When oxygen supplies are insufficient, pyruvate is reduced to lactate. In yeast and other microorganisms, pyruvate is not converted to lactate in the absence of oxygen but instead is converted to ethanol and carbon dioxide.

The amount of ATP formed by the oxidation of glucose depends on whether or not oxygen is present. If oxygen is present, glucose is oxidized to carbon dioxide, and 36–38 ATP molecules are produced for each glucose molecule oxidized, using the combined

pathways of glycolysis, the citric acid cycle, the electron transport chain, and oxidative phosphorylation. Thus, approximately 42% of the energy released by the complete oxidation of glucose is conserved by the synthesis of ATP. In the absence of oxygen, only 2 molecules of ATP are formed for each molecule of glucose converted to lactate (2 molecules), and the amount of energy conserved is much less (2%).

Fatty acids, released by the degradation of triglycerides and other lipids, are converted to fatty acyl-CoA, transported into the mitochondria, and oxidized by repeated cycling through a sequence of four reactions known as **β-oxidation**. In each round of β-oxidation, the fatty acyl-CoA is shortened by two carbon atoms as one molecule of acetyl-CoA is formed. The final round of β-oxidation, once the chain has been shortened to four carbon atoms, forms two molecules of acetyl-CoA. β-oxidation also forms the reduced coenzymes $FADH_2$ and NADH, whose reoxidation through the electron transport chain and oxidative phosphorylation leads to the synthesis of ATP. The efficiency of fatty acid oxidation in the human body is approximately 41%.

Amino acids from the breakdown of proteins can be catabolized to provide energy. Amino acids whose carbon skeletons are converted to intermediates that can be converted to glucose through gluconeogenesis are known as **glucogenic amino acids**. Amino acids whose carbon skeletons are broken down to compounds used to form ketone bodies are known as **ketogenic amino acids**.

The first step in amino acid catabolism is separation of the amino group from the carbon skeleton. In a **transamination**, the amino acid gives its NH_2 to pyruvate, α-ketoglutarate, or oxaloacetate. The products of this reaction are a new amino acid and an α-keto acid containing the carbon skeleton of the original amino acid. Pyruvate is transaminated to alanine, α-ketoglutarate to glutamate, and oxaloacetate to aspartate. The amino groups used to form alanine and aspartate are ultimately transferred to α-ketoglutarate, forming glutamate. The glutamate then undergoes **oxidative deamination** to yield α-ketoglutarate and ammonia.

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