1.2 The pH scale.

pH is simply a more convenient (if logarithms are convenient!) way of specifying the concentration of H+ ions in solution. pH is defined as

pH = -log [H+] = log (1/[H+])

By using logarithms, concentrations in the range of 1 M to 10-14 M H+ are converted to numbers between 0 and 14. For example, the pH of a neutral solution is

 $pH = -log (1 \ge 10-7) = 7.0$

Solutions in which pH = 7.0 are defined as neutral. Solutions with pH < 7.0 are called "acidic," and solutions in which pH > 7.0 are called "basic."

1.2.i.Acid dissociation constants of weak acids.

A. Strong and weak acids and bases.

Most reactions are reversible, and equilibrium is achieved when the rate of the forward reaction becomes equal to the rate of the reverse. As in the water ionization example shown above, the equilibrium constant (Keq) for a general reaction is defined as the ratio of products to reactants at equilibrium.

 $A + B \qquad C + D$

Keq = [C][D]

[A][B]

Remember, all reactions have a characteristic Keq at a defined temperature. Many biomolecules (such as amino acids) are weak acids. Unlike strong acids (HCl, H2SO4, etc.) which completely dissociate when dissolved in water, weak acids only partially dissociate. Equilibrium reactions for the dissociation of strong acids, strong bases, and the weak acid, acetic acid (CH3COOH) are shown below.

 $HCl \rightarrow H+ + Cl- (100\% \text{ dissociated})$

 $NaOH \rightarrow Na+ + OH-$ (100% dissociated)

CH3COOH CH3COO- + H+ (<<1% dissociated)

(conj. acid) (conj. base)

In the case of a weak acid, the two species in solution at equilibrium are called the conjugate acidconjugate base pair.

Equilibrium constant (Keq) and the pKa.

The equilibrium constant for dissociation of a weak acid (HA) is

HA H+ + A-

(conj. acid) (conj. base)

[H+] [A-]

Keq =[HA]

The equilibrium constant for acid dissociation is more commonly called the acid dissociation constant, Ka, and Ka = Keq. Note, "the higher the Ka, the stronger the acid." As in the case of pH, biochemists typically use "pKa" values instead of Ka values for weak acids. pKa is defined in the same manner as pH,

 $pKa = -\log Ka = \log (1/Ka)$

When comparing pKas, "the lower the pKa, the stronger the acid."

1.2.ii.Henderson-Hasselbalch equation.

The Henderson-Hasselbalch equation describes the quantitative relationship between pH and pKa in buffer solutions. In fact, a titration curve can be plotted using it. The HH equation will be derived in class starting from the equation specifying the equilibrium constant for ionization of a weak acid, Ka = [H+][A-]/[HA]. The final form of the HH eq is

pH = pKa + log ([A-]/[HA])

or

pH = pKa + log [conjugate base]

[conjugate acid]

The equation indicates that the pH of a solution depends on the pKa and the ratio of conjugate base to conjugate acid components present. The equation can be used to calculate the pH of a solution of a weak acid when the ratio of [A-]/[HA] is known, or alternatively, to calculate the ratio of [A-]/[HA] when the pH is known.

1.2.iii.Buffers:

A buffer is "a solution that tends to resist a change in pH on addition of a small amount of strong acid or base." As shown above for the acetic acid titration curve, the pH of a solution undergoing titration changes minimally near the midpoint of the curve. The optimum buffering power of the solution occurs at the midpoint (where pH = pKa, and [CH3COOH] = [CH3COO-]). In practice, the optimum buffering region extends about 1 pH unit on either side of the pKa. In this pH range, buffering power is best because the concentrations of both buffering species, HA and A-, are the highest. Buffers are selected based on their pKa values and the range of pHs to be buffered. For example, acetic acid (pKa = 4.76) is a good buffer for the range 7.0 < pH < 9.0. The main buffering agent inside cells is phosphate. In this case it is the second dissociation reaction with pK2 = 7.2

H2PO4- H+ + HPO4²⁻

In the blood, the CO2-carbonic acid-bicarbonate system is used for buffering. Here the major forms responsible for buffering are carbonic acid and bicarbonate.

While the pKa for the reaction

H2CO3 H+ + HCO3-

is only 6.4, H2CO3 readily converts to CO2 and H2O which tends to shift the carbonic acidbicarbonate equilibrium to the left (to a higher pKa) which is closer to the pH of blood.

1.2.iv.physiological buffers in living systems

Physiological buffers are chemicals used by the body to prevent large changes in the pH of a bodily fluid.

The four physiological buffers are the bicarbonate, phosphate, hemoglobin, and protein systems.

The pH of a buffer is determined by the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation:

pH=pKa+log(A-HA)

The buffer is best able to resist changes in pH when the pH of the buffer is close to the pH of blood (7.37 to 7.42), so the pKa of the acid should be close to 7.4.

Phosphate Buffer

The phosphate buffer system consists of H2PO-4 and HPO2-4 ions.

The equilibrium is

H2PO-4(aq)+H2O**≓**H3O+(aq)+HPO2-4(aq); pKa=7.21

The phosphate buffer can easily maintain a pH of 7.4.

Carbonate Buffer

The equilibrium is

H2CO3(aq)+H2O(1)⇒HCO-3(aq)+H3O+(aq); pKa=6.1

This buffer functions in exactly the same way as the phosphate buffer, but it is not ideal because its pKa is too far from pH 7.4.

Perhaps more importantly, the enzyme *carbonic anhydrase* converts H2CO3 into CO2 that is dissolved in the blood and is then exhaled as CO2gas.

Hemoglobin

The general equation is:

HHb++O2+H2O**⇒**HbO2+H3O+; pKa=6.8

It shows that oxygenation of Hb promotes the formation of H3O+.

This shifts the bicarbonate buffer equilibrium towards CO2 formation, and CO2 is released from the red blood cells.

Proteins

A protein is a long chain of amino acid residues, but this long chain still has free carboxylate groups COO– and free amino groups NH2.

We could write the equation for a protein buffer system as

H3+N—R—COO−+H2O**≓**H2N—R—COO−+H3O+

The protein can then act as a buffer.

1.2.v.Energy in living organism:

Living organisms are highly complicated at the molecular level. A large amount of energy is invested in maintaining the ordered and complicated state of cells and tissues. In humans and animals, energy needed for work and biosynthesis of cellular structures is derived from organic molecules in the diet. Often these come from plant sources, who derived their energy for synthesis of biomolecules from sunlight. In animals, energy is derived from the breakdown of fuel molecules

by processes referred to as catabolism. In turn, the energy released from catabolism is used to drive biosynthetic processes collectively referred to as anabolism.

The flow of energy in biological systems is covered in the discipline known as bioenergetics. Bioenergetics is a sub-discipline of classical thermodynamics, which has been covered in your physics courses. Most of our use of thermodynamics will be concerned with the calculation of free energy changes (ΔG) which can be used to determine the direction of metabolic reactions and their equilibrium constants. ΔG values are determined by the enthalpy (ΔH , heat transfer) and entropy (Δ S, change in randomness) changes associated with a reaction through the equation Δ G = Δ H -T Δ S. Negative values of Δ G signify favorable reactions, whereas positive values of Δ G are associated with unfavorable reactions. Keq is based on the DG value and gives the ratio of products to reacts once equilibrium is reached. This is important because it will show how a cell can ratio reactions in different directions. Kinetics measures the rate at which a reaction takes place and how the reaction gets from start to finish. So reactions can be thermodynamically favorable but kinetically unfavorable. So cells use enzymes that can only affect the kinetics not the thermodynamics. Bioenergetics is one of the tools used in animal and human nutrition. Weight gain or loss ultimately depend on the difference between caloric intake and expenditure. In this course, we will discuss energy metabolism in different physiological states such as exercise and fasting, and in diseases such as diabetes.