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# FOCUS: ION-SURFACE COLLISIONS AND PEPTIDE RADICAL CATIONS

### Kinetics for Tautomerizations and Dissociations of Triglycine Radical Cations

Chi-Kit Siu,<sup>a</sup> Junfang Zhao,<sup>a</sup> Julia Laskin,<sup>b</sup> Ivan K. Chu,<sup>c</sup> Alan C. Hopkinson,<sup>a</sup> and K. W. Michael Siu<sup>a</sup>

Fragmentations of tautomers of the  $\alpha$ -centered radical triglycine radical cation, [GGG $^{\circ}$ ]<sup>+</sup>, [GG $^{\circ}$ G]<sup>+</sup>, and [G $^{\circ}$ GG]<sup>+</sup>, are charge-driven, giving *b*-type ions; these are processes that are facilitated by a mobile proton, as in the fragmentation of protonated triglycine (Rodriquez, C. F. et al. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2001**, *123*, 3006–3012). By contrast, radical centers are less mobile. Two mechanisms have been examined theoretically utilizing density functional theory and Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Marcus modeling: (1) a direct hydrogen-atom migration between two  $\alpha$ -carbons, and (2) a two-step proton migration involving canonical [GGG] $^{\circ}$ <sup>+</sup> as an intermediate. Predictions employing the latter mechanism are in good agreement with results of recent CID experiments (Chu, I. K. et al. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2008**, *130*, 7862–7872). (J Am Soc Mass Spectrom 2009, 20, 996–1005) © 2009 American Society for Mass Spectrometry

haracterization and identification of a protein by means of mass spectrometry typically rely on fragmentation behaviors of its constituent fragment peptide ions in the gas phase [1-3]. Peptides are ionized by protonation via soft-ionization techniques: electrospray ionization [4] and matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization [5]. Useful primary structural information of a peptide ion can then be obtained from fragmentations induced under low-energy conditions by slow-heating techniques [6], such as collision-induced dissociation (CID) [7, 8], infrared multiphoton dissociation (IRMPD) [9], and blackbody radiation [10]. The mechanisms by which protonated peptides dissociate have, therefore, generated much interest [11, 12]. Charge-driven amide bond cleavages are induced by the mobile proton, giving b- or y-type ions, which are, respectively, the N- or C-terminal fragments [1, 2]. By contrast, open-shell peptide radical cations produced in electron-capture [13-15] or electron-transfer dissociation experiments [16] give c- or z-type ions, by cleaving the N– $C_{\alpha}$  bond adjacent to the aminoketyl radical being formed [17-20]. The substantial fragmentation differences between protonated and radical cationic peptide provide useful complementary peptide sequencing information [21–23]. Ultraviolet (UV) photodissociation has also been employed for peptide fragmentation [24]. UV photodissociation of a peptide/protein chemically modified to incorporate an appropriate chromophore

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can generate a radical cation that undergoes site-specific, radical-driven dissociations, which are useful in protein identifications [25, 26]. Peptide radical cations have also been generated via low-energy CID of a ternary metal complex containing the peptide and auxiliary ligands [27–37]. These methodologies open new avenues whereby the fragmentation chemistries of peptide radical cations can be examined and exploited.

Dissociation at an amino-acid side chain is commonplace in the CID of peptide radical cations. These fragmentations are useful in providing differentiating signatures for isobaric residues present [14, 29, 38-40], e.g., between leucine and isoleucine [14, 29], and between aspartic acid and isoaspartic acid [38, 39]. For aromatic amino acid residues, cleavage of the  $C_{\alpha}$ - $C_{\beta}$  bond eliminates pquinomethide from tyrosine and 3-methylene indolenine from tryptophan, yielding a glycyl radical with the unpaired electron located on the  $\alpha$ -carbon [12, 27, 28, 30]. Such  $\alpha$ -centered radicals have been identified in some anaerobic enzymes [41–43], including pyruvate formatelyase [44, 45], anaerobic ribonucleotide reductase [46], benzylsuccinate synthase [47, 48], 4-hydroxyphenylacetate decarboxylase [49], and glycerol dehydratase [50]. A radical transfer from the thiyl group in the cysteine residue to a neighboring glycine residue by  $\alpha$ -hydrogen-atom abstraction generates an  $\alpha$ -centered radical [51, 52], which is stabilized by  $\pi$ -electron delocalization between the adjacent electron-withdrawing carbonyl group and the electron-donating amide nitrogen. This stabilization is known as the captodative effect [53]. The intrinsic stability of an amino-acid captodative radical has recently been verified by IRMPD spectroscopy on the histidine radical cation in the

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gas phase [54]. Even the smallest,  $\alpha$ -glycyl radical is stable and undergoes unimolecular dissociations with substantial threshold energies in the gas phase [55–57].

Radical migration in odd-electron ions produced by electron transfer and capture has been studied by several groups [58-63]. However, few detailed studies on the radical migration in radical cation [M]\*+ have been performed [64–66]. A recent examination on the radical cations of the simplest tripeptide, [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>, [GG•G]<sup>+</sup>, and [G•GG]<sup>+</sup>, showed that the barriers against radical migrations among these tautomers via transition structures having direct hydrogen transfer between two  $\alpha$ -carbons are significantly higher than the barriers against proton migration in the analog protonated triglycine [65, 67]. Charge-driven amide bond cleavages are dominant in the CID of triglycine radical cations [65]. In this article, we report a two-step proton migration mechanism for tautomeric interconversions involving the canonical structure of triglycine radical cation as an intermediate. This two-step mechanism is then compared with the previously reported mechanism involving direct hydrogen-atom migration between  $\alpha$ -carbons, utilizing density functional theory (DFT) and Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Marcus (RRKM) modeling.

#### **Computational Details**

The energy profiles for the interconversions between triglycine radical cations and their dissociations were taken from our previous studies [65]. All DFT calculations were performed on the Gaussian03 quantum chemical program [68] with the unrestricted (U) B3LYP functional [69, 70] and a Gaussian-type double- $\zeta$  6-31++G(d,p) basis set [71, 72]. Minima and transition structures were characterized as such by means of harmonic frequency calculations. Anharmonicity scaling factors, 0.965 and 0.986, were applied to frequency and zero-point energy calculations, respectively [73]. Atomic charges were calculated using the natural population analysis [74].

The microcanonical rate constant  $k_i(E)$  of each unimolecular reaction i was calculated using the Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Marcus (RRKM) equation [75, 76].  $k_i(E)$  is a function of the internal energy E of the reactant, relative to that of the structure at the global minimum on the potential energy surface (PES)

$$k_i(E) = \frac{\sigma W_i^{\ddagger}(E_i - E_{0i})}{h\rho_i(E_i)}$$

where  $E_i = E - \Delta H_{0i}$  is the available vibrational energy and  $\Delta H_{0i}$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  reactant's enthalpy of formation at 0 K,  $\rho_i(E_i)$  is the density of vibrational states of the reactant,  $W_i^{\ddagger}(E_i - E_{0i})$  is the sum of the vibrational states of the transition state,  $E_{0i}$  is the corresponding critical energy for reaction, h is Planck's constant, and  $\sigma$  is the reaction path degeneracy, which is one in all the reactions examined herein. The vibrational states were directly counted using the Beyer-Swinehart algorithm [77].

#### Results and Discussion

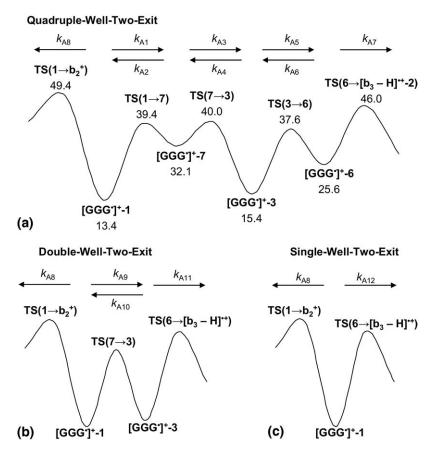
RRKM Modeling and Kinetic Approximations

On the PES of  $[GGG + H]^+$ , rotamers are close in energy and separated via relatively low interconversion barriers (<17 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) involving bond rotations and proton transfers [67]. As the mobile proton migrates to the nitrogen atom of an amide bond, peptide-bond cleavage can occur via a transition structure with higher energy (32 kcal  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ ) resulting in the  $b_2^+$  product ion [67]. The PES for the interconversions of triglycine radical cations has been examined by DFT calculations [65]; notably, the barriers against interconversions are typically larger than those against bond cleavages, contrary to the observations in protonated triglycine where the barriers against tautomerisms are much lower than those against dissociations [67]. A simplified version of the PES for [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> (the radical being located on the  $\alpha$ -carbon at the C-terminus) is shown in Figure 1a (see reference 65 and Figure S1 in the Supporting Information for the structures, which can be found in the electronic version of this article). The lowestenergy structure is [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-1, where the proton is attached to the amide oxygen of the N-terminal peptide bond and the radical is centered at the  $\alpha$ -carbon in the C-terminal residue. Proton migration together with rotation about the C-C bond in the central residue forms [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-7 at a shallow minimum, followed by rotation about the C=O bond to form [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-3. Further rotation about the C-C bond of the C-terminal residue results in  $[GGG^{\bullet}]^{+}$ -6, the precursor of the  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$ -2 fragment ion produced by the loss of a water molecule. The barriers against interconversions among the [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> isomers are between 24 and 27 kcal  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ , which is slightly lower than the barrier against water loss at 32.6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. A competitive dissociation channel is the one that gives the b<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ion, by losing a neutral [Gly – H]• directly from [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-1, against a barrier of 36.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>.

The competition between the two dissociation channels on the PES as shown in Figure 1a is examined by kinetic analyses employing the RRKM theory to model the unimolecular rate constants of each elementary reaction ( $k_i$ 's). The full kinetics of this quadruple-well-two-exit (4 well-2 exit) PES model is thus represented by a set of equations (eq1) for the rates of change ( $\dot{l_i}$ ) of the relative abundance of ion i ( $l_i$ ) with respect to the reaction time t.

$$\dot{I}_{1} = -(k_{A1} + k_{A8})I_{1} + k_{A2}I_{7} 
\dot{I}_{7} = k_{A1}I_{1} - (k_{A2} + k_{A3})I_{7} + k_{A4}I_{3} 
\dot{I}_{3} = k_{A3}I_{7} - (k_{A4} + k_{A5})I_{3} + k_{A6}I_{6} 
\dot{I}_{6} = k_{A5}I_{3} - (k_{A6} + k_{A7})I_{6} 
\dot{I}_{P1} = k_{A7}I_{6} 
\dot{I}_{P2} = k_{A8}I_{1}$$
(1)

Applying RRKM modeling, the microcanonical rate constants,  $k_{A1} - k_{A8}$ , are evaluated as a function of the



**Figure 1.** Potential energy surface (PES) for the isomerizations and dissociations of [GGG $^{\bullet}$ ]<sup>+</sup>. (a) Full PES including bond rotation and proton-transfer reactions as reported in reference 65; (b) PES with only isomers [GGG $^{\bullet}$ ]<sup>+</sup>-1 and 3; (c) PES with only isomer 1 [GGG $^{\bullet}$ ]<sup>+</sup>-1. Enthalpies  $\Delta H^{\circ}_{0}$  (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) are relative to the lowest-energy isomer of [G $^{\bullet}$ GG]<sup>+</sup> and evaluated at the unrestricted B3LYP/6-31++G(d,p) level.

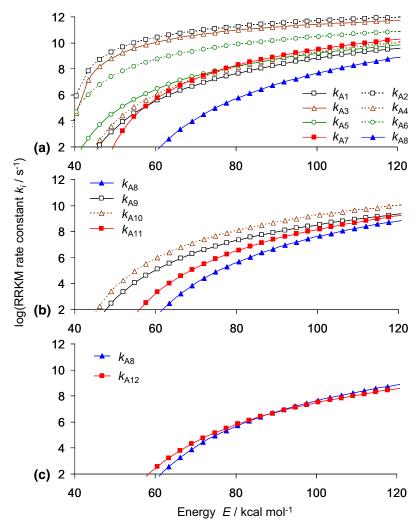
internal energy E (relative to the lowest energy tautomer [G°GG]<sup>+</sup>) and shown in Figure 2. [GGG°]<sup>+</sup>-7 is located in a shallow minimum on the PES; this ion undergoes fast isomerization to either [GGG°]<sup>+</sup>-1 or [GGG°]<sup>+</sup>-3, and  $k_{A2}$  and  $k_{A3}$  have the largest values of all rate constants under all internal energies. Similarly, [GGG°]<sup>+</sup>-6 is quickly isomerized to [GGG°]<sup>+</sup>-3, as also indicated by the large values of  $k_{A6}$  (Figure 2a).

Three approaches have been used to solve the set of differential equations (eq 1) by applying: (1) numerical integration; (2) steady-state approximation with  $[\mathbf{GGG}^{\bullet}]^{+}$ -7, and  $[\mathbf{GGG}^{\bullet}]^{+}$ -6 treated as intermediates (SSA1), i.e.,  $\dot{I}_7 = \dot{I}_6 = 0$ ; and (3) steady-state approximation with all minima, except  $[\mathbf{GGG}^{\bullet}]^{+}$ -1, treated as intermediates (SSA2), i.e.,  $\dot{I}_7 = \dot{I}_3 = \dot{I}_6 = 0$ . For SSA1, Equations 1 are reduced to eq S1-1 (see Supporting Information) and can be solved analytically resulting in solutions of  $I_i$  with respect to the reaction time t (eq S1-2). The rate equations can be further reduced by SSA2, resulting in simple first-order kinetics eq S2-1 and the solutions shown in eq S2-2.

Figure 3 shows the relative abundance of ions  $I_i$  equations (eq 1) as a function of internal energy E obtained from all integration approaches at a reaction

time t = 30 ms, corresponding to the activation time for the CID experiments described in reference 65. The initial reactant is assumed to be exclusively the [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-1 ion on the PES as shown in Figure 1, i.e.,  $I_1 = 1$  and  $I_7 = I_3 = I_6 = 0$  at t = 0. As E increases, isomerization occurs and equilibrium is established between [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-1 and [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-3 (Figure 3a). As expected from Figure 1, the abundances of structures at the shallow minima [GGG°]+-7 and [GGG°]+-6 are negligibly small and are ≤0.1% (data not shown). No dissociation products are evident before E = 50 kcal  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ ; thereafter  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$  (Figure 3b) and  $b_2^+$  (Figure 3c) emerge, with the former product ion peaking in abundance at  $\sim 60 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . Employing steady-state approximations perturbs the kinetics minimally and provides analytical solutions to the first-order differential equations.

In fragmentations of protonated peptides, energies of the transition structures associated with peptide bond cleavages are higher than those for bond rotations and proton transfers [67]. The transition structure leading to bond cleavages thus constitutes the critical step, permitting simplification to, and approximation as, first-order kinetics regardless of the number of steps involved.

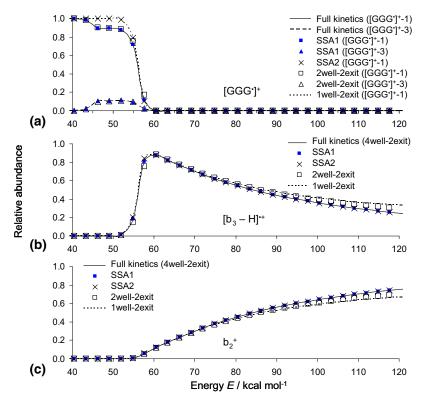


**Figure 2.** RRKM rate constants,  $\log k_i/s^{-1}$ , versus internal energies  $E/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$  for  $[GGG^{\bullet}]^+$ : (a)  $k_{A1}$ – $k_{A8}$ , (b)  $k_{A8}$ – $k_{A11}$ , and (c)  $k_{A8}$  and  $k_{A12}$ .

Here we examine the effects of kinetics using [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> as a prototypical example for peptide radical cations. Based on the results shown in Figure 2, the quadruplewell-two-exit (4 well-2 exit) PES (Figure 1a) of [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> can readily be simplified to a double-well-two-exit (2 well-2 exit) PES (Figure 1b), in which the shallow minima [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-7 and [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>-6 and the associated transition structures having lower energies [TS(1 $\rightarrow$ 7) and  $TS(3\rightarrow 6)$ ] are ignored. The resulting rate equations and their solutions (egs S3-1 and S3-2, respectively) are similar to those for SSA1, in which the seven rate constants  $k_{A1}$ - $k_{A7}$  are approximated by the three rate constants  $k_{A9}$ – $k_{A11}$  (Figure 2b). This simplification has virtually no effects on the relative abundances at low *E* (Figure 3). For E > 80 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, small differences are observed between the relative abundances of product ions predicted by the full PES and those by the simplified models. These differences increase with increasing E, resulting in overestimating the abundance of [b<sub>3</sub> – H] • + (Figure 3b), whose formation involves more intermediate steps than that of  $b_2^+$  (Figure 3c). The latter involves only a single step and the 2 well-2 exit model results in underestimating the abundance of  $b_2^+$ . Further approximation to a single-well-two-exit (1 well-2 exit) system, in which only one rate constant  $k_{\rm A12}$  is used instead of the seven rate constants  $k_{\rm A1}$ – $k_{\rm A7}$  (Figure 1c and Figure 2c, and eqs S4-1 and S4-2 in the Supporting Information), affords further simplification, but also introduces additional albeit small errors. Importantly, using the transition structure of the highest energy as the critical step instead of the full reaction path introduces only small errors to the relative abundances of the product ions, and this approximation greatly simplifies the calculations.

#### Direct Hydrogen-Atom Migration Between Two α-Carbons

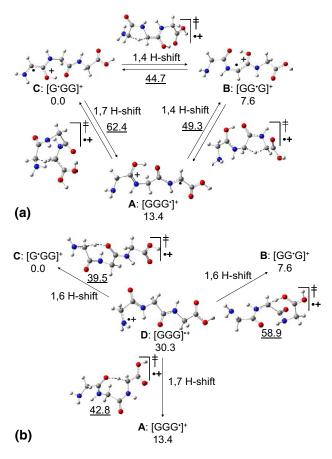
Compared with the mobile proton in a protonated triglycine, the radical center on the  $\alpha$ -carbon of a triglycine radical cation is relatively immobile; this has



**Figure 3.** Relative abundances of (a)  $[GGG^{\bullet}]^+$ -1 and  $[GGG^{\bullet}]^+$ -3, (b)  $P1[b_3-H]^{\bullet+}$ -2, and (c) P2  $b_2^+$  calculated based on the energy profiles including full kinetics, steady-state approximations 1 and 2 (SSA1 and SSA2) (Figure 1a), double-well-two-exit (2 well-2 exit) (Figure 1b), and single-well-two-exit (1 well-2 exit) (Figure 1c). Reaction time t = 30 ms.

recently been demonstrated by the very different CID spectra of [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>, [GG<sup>•</sup>G]<sup>+</sup>, and [G<sup>•</sup>GG]<sup>+</sup> [65]. Interconversions among these isomers are possible but direct hydrogen-atom migrations between the  $\alpha$ -carbons were found to have higher barriers than dissociations in general. Figure 4a summarizes the interconversion reactions and shows the structures of the lowest-energy isomers and critical transition states proposed in reference 65 ([GGG\*]\*-1, [GG\*G]\*-1, and [G\*GG]\*-1 used previously are now also denoted as A, B, and C, respectively, for simplicity). The DFT-computed charges of the migrating hydrogen were 0.23-0.25 [natural population analyses at UB3LYP/6-31++G(d,p)], which characterized these transfers as hydrogen-atom migrations. The dissociations of the triglycine radical cations were charge-driven [65]:  $[G^{\bullet}GG]^{+}$  gave only a single product,  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$ ;  $[GG^{\bullet}G]^{+}$  gave two products,  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$ , and  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$ , the latter by the loss of water; and [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> gave [b<sub>2</sub> – H] $^{\bullet+}$ ,  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet+}$ , and  $b_2^+$  (the last with  $[Gly - H]^{\bullet}$  as the neutral product). Notably, formation of  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$  required first isomerization of A to B or C. Table 1 summarizes the energetics of the isomerization and dissociation reactions [65]. The barriers against interconversions via direct hydrogen-atom migrations between two  $\alpha$ -carbons (reactions of  $k_{\rm B7}$ – $k_{\rm B12}$ ) are in general higher than those against dissociations (reactions of  $k_{\rm B1}$ – $k_{\rm B6}$ ). Many of these reactions involve consecutive isomerizations via transition structures with lower energies compared with the critical tautomerization or dissociation steps. As discussed in the previous section, the potential-energy surfaces of these reactions can be much simplified by considering only the critical steps.

Scheme 1 shows the results of such simplification as a triple-well-six-exit PES. The rate equations and the rate constants as a result of RRKM modeling are shown in eq S5 in the Supporting Information. Compared with the rates of isomerization reactions involving bond rotations and proton transfers (Figure 2), the tautomerization reactions are a few orders of magnitude slower (Figure S3). To examine the competition between tautomerizations and dissociations, eq S5 are thus solved numerically at each internal energy E with a reaction time t = 30 ms; the results are shown in Figure 5: initial conditions at t = 0, (a) $I_A = 1$  and  $I_B = I_C = 0$ , (b)  $I_B =$ 1 and  $I_A = I_C = 0$ , and (c)  $I_C = 1$  and  $I_A = I_B = 0$ . For isomerically pure A (Figure 5a), the dissociation barrier leading to  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$  (specifically  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$ -2) and water  $(k_{B1})$  is 46.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, only 3.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> lower than that against the formation of b<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> and [Gly – H]•  $(k_{\rm B2})$  (see Table 1). Thus the two channels are competitive under CID conditions; the former channel has a negative activation entropy ( $\Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298} = -0.7$  cal mol<sup>-1</sup>  $K^{-1}$ ) whereas the latter has a positive value ( $\Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298} =$ 5.4 cal mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>), resulting in  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$  being less abundant than b<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> at larger internal energies and, therefore, becomes more abundant at large E. Figure 5a



**Figure 4.** Optimized geometries of the lowest-energy tautomers and transition structures for interconversion between [GGG $^{\bullet}$ ]<sup>+</sup> (**A**), [GG $^{\bullet}$ G]<sup>+</sup> (**B**), and [G $^{\bullet}$ GG]<sup>+</sup> (**C**): (**a**) direct hydrogen-atom migration; (**b**) two-step proton migration via canonical [GGG] $^{\bullet}$ + as an intermediate. Enthalpies  $\Delta H^{\circ}_{0}$  (in kcal mol $^{-1}$ ) are relative to the lowest-energy isomer of [G $^{\bullet}$ GG]<sup>+</sup> and evaluated at UB3LYP/6-31++G(d,p) level.

shows this crossover point at  $E \approx 85 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ . Similarly, isomerically pure B (Figure 5b) can dissociate to give  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +} - 1 (k_{B3})$  or  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +} - 2 (k_{B4})$ . Interestingly, B can convert to C which fragments to [b2 - H] $^{\bullet+}$ -1, a lower-energy isomer of  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet+}$ -2. In fact, the barrier against interconversion of B to C is lower than that against the two fragmentation reactions of **B**; this means that at low E, the product  $[\mathbf{b_2} - \mathbf{H}]^{\bullet +} - \mathbf{1}$ from C is preferentially formed over its isomer [b<sub>2</sub> -H] $^{\bullet+}$ -2 from **B**. At E > 95 kcal mol $^{-1}$ , the dominant product ion becomes  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$ -2; this dissociation  $(k_{\rm B4})$  has a positive activation entropy  $(\Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298})$  of 2.9 cal  $\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ . By contrast, the similar dissociation from **C**  $(k_{\rm B6})$  has a negative  $\Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298} = -1.7$  cal mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>, as did tautomerization from **B** to **C**  $(k_{B9}, \Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298} = -0.1 \text{ cal})$  $\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) and that from **C** to **B**  $(k_{\text{B10}}, \Delta S^{\ddagger}_{298} = -9.5 \text{ cal})$  $\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ). Formation of the  $b_2^+$  ion from **B** requires a tautomerization from B to A, which is both thermodynamically and kinetically unfavorable. Consequently, the relative abundance of  $b_2^+$  formed from **B** is low and <2.5% for E up to 200 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (data not shown).

Figure 5c shows that isomerically pure **C** dissociates solely to give  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$ -1. The loss of water from **C** to give  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet +}$ -3 ( $k_{B5}$ ) is not competitive and occurs only at high E, contributing only around 1% of the total ion abundance at E = 100 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and only 10% at E = 200 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (the latter data not shown). Tautomerization from **C** to **B** or **A** is also negligible; the total abundance of the product ions fragmented from tautomeric isomers **B** and **C** is <0.1% at E = 100 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and 3% at E = 200 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (the latter not shown).

In general, results of the above kinetic examinations are consistent with those of the CID experiments [65]: C dissociates to give  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet+}$ ; **B** to  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet+}$  and  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet+}$  ions; and **A** to  $[b_3 - H]^{\bullet+}$  and  $b_2^+$ . However, the abundant  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$  as observed in the dissociation of A is not compatible with the RRKM kinetics determined above, which predicts the relative abundance of [b<sub>2</sub> -H]<sup>•+</sup> to be <1.5% for all E up to 200 kcal  $mol^{-1}$ . Additionally, the calculated low abundance of [b<sub>2</sub> -H] + from the dissociation of A is independent of the reaction time t chosen for integration of the rate equations. This is evidenced by the relative abundances of the product ions obtained by solving eq S5 with reaction time t ranging from 0.1  $\mu$ s to 100 ms (Figure S4 in the Supporting Information). As expected, increasing the reaction time shifts the dissociation thresholds to lower E, while the total relative abundance of the [b<sub>2</sub> – H]•+ ion remains <2%. This discrepancy is resolved via a more sophisticated PES involving canonical [GGG] as an intermediate during tautomerization (vide infra).

### Two-Step Proton Migration Involving Canonical [GGG]\* During Tautomerization

The optimized canonical [GGG] $^{\bullet+}$  structure is **D**, shown in Figure 4b. Notably, the migrating hydrogens in the transition structures carry positive charges 0.35–0.43, which are considerably larger than those for direct hydrogen-atom migration between two  $\alpha$ -carbons (0.23–0.25) described in the previous section. For this reason, the isomerization reactions involving **D** are more appropriately described as proton-transfer reactions. Isomer **D** is 30.3 kcal mol $^{-1}$  higher in enthalpy than the most-stable isomer **C**. Nevertheless, isomer **D** catalyzes some of the interconversion reactions: interconversion between **A** and **C** is significantly facilitated by reducing the original barrier of 62.4 kcal mol $^{-1}$  to 42.8 kcal mol $^{-1}$  for the current two-step proton migration involving isomer **D** as an intermediate.

Reactions denoted by the rate constants  $k_{\rm B13}$ – $k_{\rm B18}$  in Scheme 1 are interconversions among **A**, **B**, and **C**, involving **D** as an intermediate. The modified kinetics is summarized in eq S6 in the Supporting Information. The relative abundances of the ions are obtained by solving eq S6 numerically with a reaction time t=30 ms; the results are shown in Figure 5d–f. For isomerically pure **B** and **C**, the presence of the canonical isomer

**Table 1.** Relative energies at 0 K ( $\Delta H^{\circ}_{0}/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) of tautomers of the triglycine radical cation, their dissociation products, and activation barriers at 0 K ( $\Delta H^{\dagger}_{0}/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) and entropies at 298 K ( $\Delta S^{\dagger}298/\text{cal mol}^{-1}$  K<sup>-1</sup>). All energies are relative to the lowest-energy tautomer [G\*GG]<sup>+</sup> (C) and performed at the UB3LYP/6-31++G(d,p) level

Relative energies of tautomers		Relative energies of products				
	$\Delta H_0$		$\Delta \mathcal{H}_{0}$			
[GGG] <sup>·+</sup> (A)	13.4	$[b_3 - H]^{-+} - 2 + H_2O (P1)$	37.1			
[GGG] <sup>.+</sup> (B)	7.6	$b_2^+ + [Gly - H] (P2)$	40.6			
[GGG] <sup>·+</sup> (C)	0.0	$[b_3 - H]^{-+} - 1 + H_2O$ (P3)	28.8			
[GGG] <sup>·+</sup> (D)	30.3	$[b_2 - H]^{-+} -2 + Gly (P4)$	50.8			
		$[b_3 - H]^{-+} -3 + H_2O (P5)$	29.3			
		$[b_2 - H]^{-+} - 1 + Gly (P6)$	33.0			

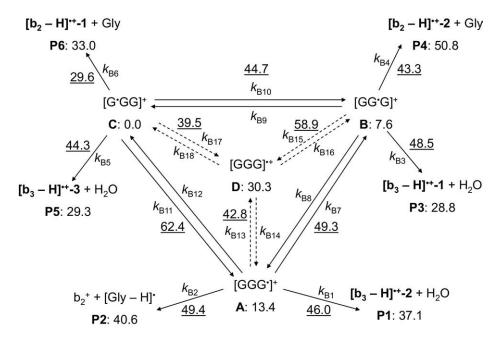
Dissociation barriers				Interconversion barriers							
	Rate constant	$\Delta H^{\sharp}_{0}$	$\Delta \mathcal{S}^{\ddagger}_{298}$		Rate constant	$\Delta H^{\sharp}_{0}$	$\Delta \mathcal{S}^{\ddagger}_{298}$		Rate constant	$\Delta H^{\sharp}_{0}$	$\Delta \mathcal{S}^{\ddagger}_{298}$
$ \begin{array}{c}                                     $	k <sub>B1</sub>	46.0 49.4	-0.7 5.4	$\begin{array}{c} A \to B \\ A \leftarrow B \end{array}$	k <sub>B7</sub>	49.3	-2.3 -1.6	$\begin{array}{c} A \to D \\ A \leftarrow D \end{array}$	k <sub>B13</sub>	42.8	-3.1 -10.6
$B \rightarrow P3$	к <sub>в2</sub> к <sub>вз</sub>	48.5	-0.9	$B \rightarrow C$	к <sub>вв</sub> к <sub>вэ</sub>	44.7	-0.1	$B \rightarrow D$	k <sub>B14</sub> k <sub>B15</sub>	58.9	-3.6
$B \rightarrow P4$ $C \rightarrow P5$	к <sub>в4</sub> к <sub>в5</sub>	43.3 44.3	2.9 7.7	$B \leftarrow C$ $C \rightarrow A$	к <sub>в10</sub> к <sub>в11</sub>	62.4	−9.5 −8.5	$B \leftarrow D$ $C \rightarrow D$	k <sub>В16</sub> k <sub>В17</sub>	39.5	−9.7 −3.1
$C \rightarrow P6$	$k_{\mathrm{B6}}$	29.6	-1.7	$C \leftarrow A$	k <sub>B12</sub>		-8.5	$C \leftarrow D$	k <sub>B18</sub>		-9.6

**D** has negligible effects: Interconversion between **B** and **D** is blocked by a high-energy barrier of 58.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. The interconversion barrier between **C** and **D** is moderate, only 39.5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, but is still significantly higher than the energy required for dissociating **C** to give  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet+}$ -1 (33.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>). By contrast, the interconversion from **A** to **C** is significantly enhanced via isomer **D** as an intermediate, resulting in significant abundance of  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet+}$ -1 in Figure 5d versus <1.5% in Figure 5a. Thus the PES composed by all reactions  $k_{\text{B1}}$ - $k_{\text{B18}}$  provides an accurate description of the CID

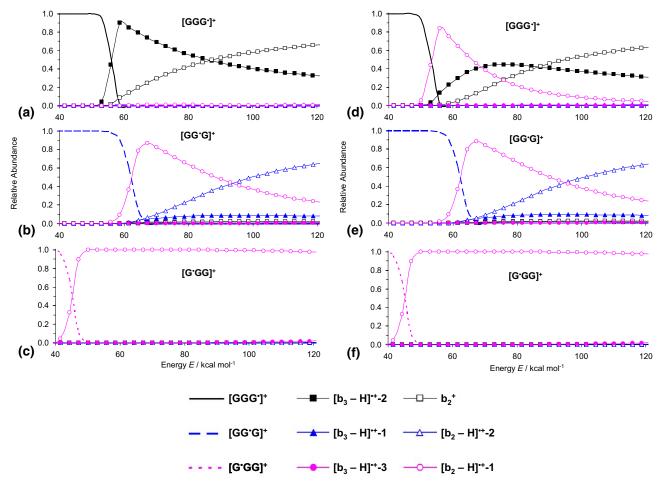
experiments. We will refrain from over-interpreting by attempting to draw quantitative correlations between experimental and RRKM-derived ion abundances.

#### Conclusion

Tautomerizations and dissociations of radical cations of tripeptides—[GGG°]<sup>+</sup>, [GG°G]<sup>+</sup>, and [G°GG]<sup>+</sup>—have been examined theoretically employing DFT calculations and RRKM modeling. The PES of each of these tautomers comprises many low-lying rotamers that



**Scheme 1.** Tautomerizations and dissociations of the triglycine radical cation. Relative enthalpies  $\Delta H^{\circ}_{0}$  (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) are evaluated at the UB3LYP/6-31++G(d,p) level. The underlined values are critical energy barriers. The reactions for the two-step proton migration mechanism via canonical [GGG]<sup>•+</sup> are placed within the inverted "triangle" and signified by arrows with dashed lines.



**Figure 5.** Relative abundances of ions with initial conditions (**a**)  $I_A = 1$  and  $I_B = I_C = 0$ , (**b**)  $I_B = 1$  and  $I_A = I_C = 0$ , and (**c**)  $I_C = 1$  and  $I_A = I_B = 0$  for direct hydrogen-atom migration; and (**d**)  $I_A = 1$  and  $I_B = I_C = 0$ , (**e**)  $I_B = 1$  and  $I_A = I_C = 0$ , and (**f**)  $I_C = 1$  and  $I_A = I_B = 0$  for two-step proton-migration via canonical [GGG]<sup>•+</sup>. Reaction time t = 30 ms.

are interconvertible via transition structures involving bond rotations and hydrogen transfers. In spite of these barriers being higher than those of analogous isomerizations in protonated triglycine [67], they are still lower than those against dissociations and contribute little to the overall kinetics, as verified by RRKM calculations. Only the critical step with highest barrier is important. By contrast, interconversions between [GGG•]+, [GG•G]+, and [G•GG]<sup>+</sup> involving radical migration require transition structures with energies comparable to the dissociation barriers. Two mechanisms for such interconversions have been developed and discussed: (1) direct hydrogen-atom migration between two  $\alpha$ -carbons, and (2) two-step proton migration involving canonical [GGG] \* as an intermediate. Interconversion between [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup> and [G<sup>•</sup>GG]<sup>+</sup> is enhanced in the latter mechanism that has a critical barrier of 42.8 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> versus 62.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> in the former. The consequence of this lower barrier is significant, as predicted  $[b_2 - H]^{\bullet +}$ abundance is now much higher for [GGG<sup>•</sup>]<sup>+</sup>, and in agreement with CID experiments [65].

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## Appendix A. Supplementary Material

Supplementary material associated with this article may be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j. jasms.2009.01.014.

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