

COURSE CODE: SC202(CHEMISTRY)
COURSE INSTRUCTOR: DR. DEBARATI MITRA &
DR. SANGITA TALUKDAR

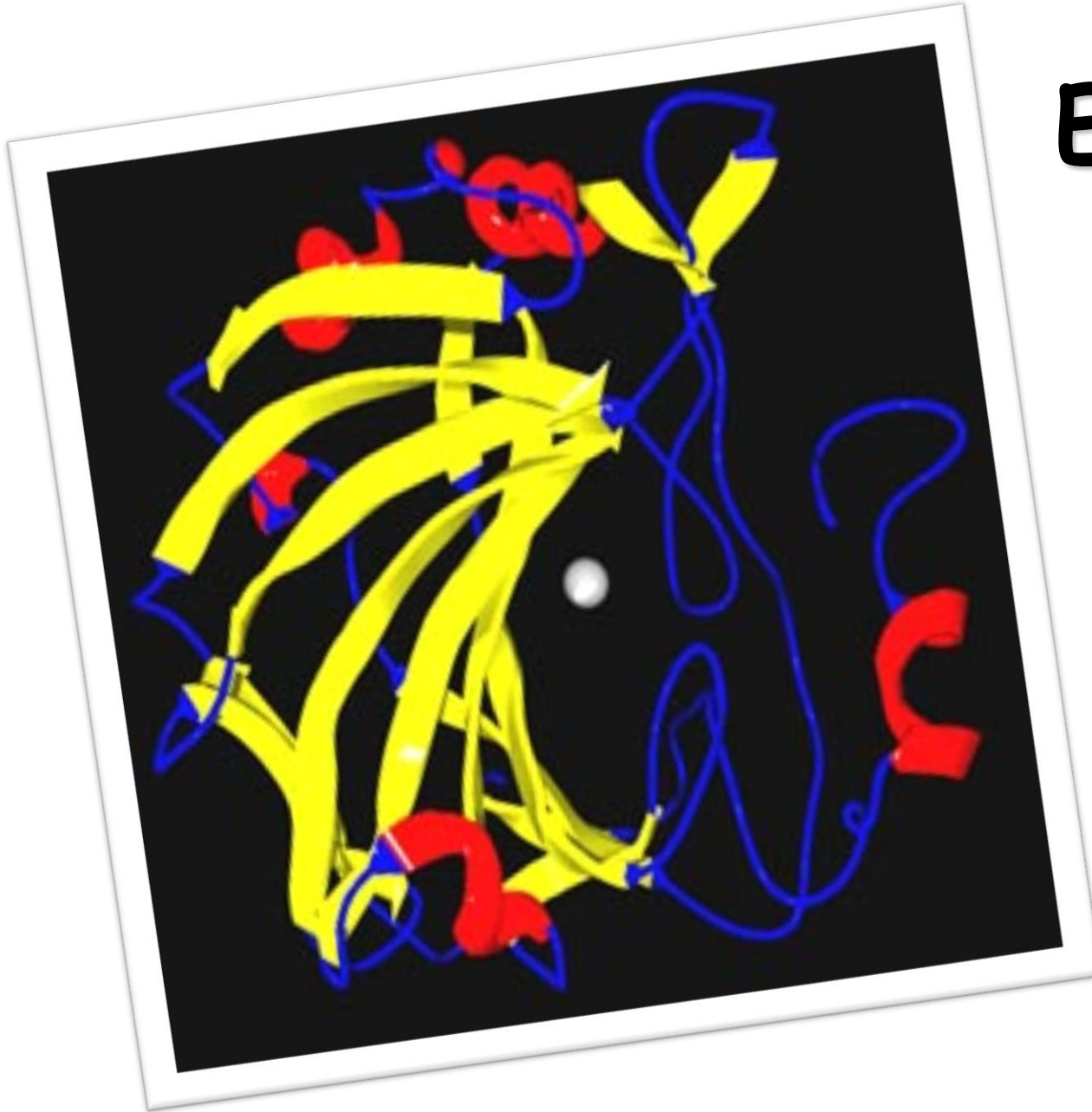
BIOORGANIC CHEMISTRY: ENZYME-NUCLEIC ACID

DEPT. OF SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

IITG, GUWAHATI

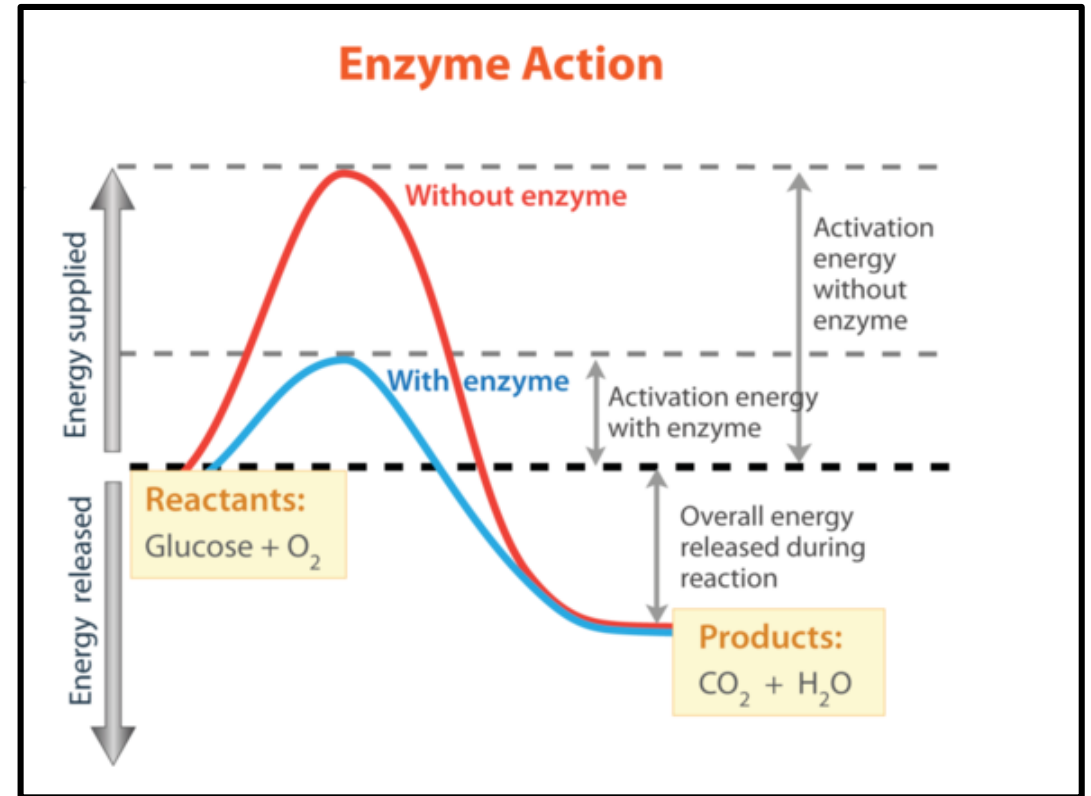
LECTURE DATE: 01.02.2023 & 02.02.2023

Enzymes



What are enzymes?

- Enzymes are biological catalyst.
- A catalyst is a substance that increases the rate of a chemical reaction without being itself changed in the process.
- Enzymes are proteins that increase the rate of reaction by lowering the activation energy.
- Enzymes have unique three-dimensional shape that fit the shape of the reactants known as substrate.



Enzymes are named by **adding the suffix -ase to the name of the substrate** that they modify (i.e., urease and tyrosinase), or the type of reaction they catalyze (dehydrogenase, decarboxylase). There are exceptions also, e.g., pepsin.

Properties of enzyme

- Colloidal nature: on account of their large size, the enzyme molecule possess extremely low rate of diffusion and form colloidal system in water.
- Catalytic nature: Enzymes increase the rate of a chemical reaction without undergoing any qualitative or quantitative change and producing any side products.
- Catalytic effectiveness: The catalytic power of an enzyme is measured by the **turnover number** which is **the number of substrate molecules converted into product per unit time, when the enzyme is fully saturated with substrate.**

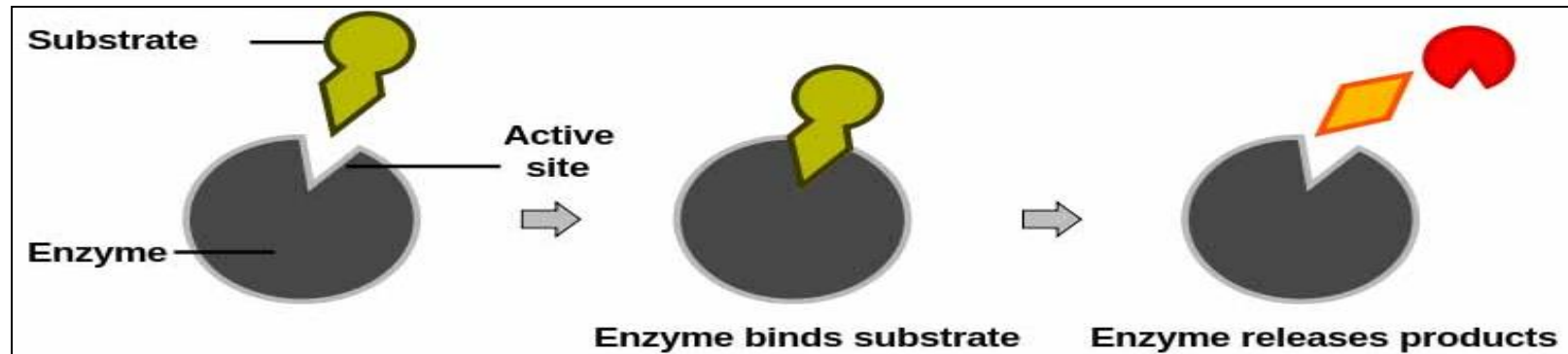
The value of **turnover number** varies with different enzymes and depends upon the conditions in which the reaction is taking place.

The efficiency of an enzymatic reaction is 10^{13} to 10^{17} **higher** than an uncatalysed reaction.

- Specificity: Enzymes are highly specific in nature in choosing the substrate.
- Mild condition: Enzymes need very mild condition e.g., physiological pH, to execute their action.

Active site

- As the substrate molecules are comparatively much smaller than the enzyme molecules, there should be **some specific regions** or **sites** on the enzyme for binding with the substrate. Such sites of attachment are variously called as '**active sites**' or '**catalytic sites**' or '**substrate sites**'.
- Active sites has a specific shape due to the tertiary structure of protein, a change in the shape of protein change the **structure** of active site as well as the **function** of the enzyme.
- The active site binds the substrate molecules by relatively weak forces.



Cofactors

- Cofactor is the **non-protein** molecule which carries out chemical reactions that can not be performed by standard 20 amino acids.

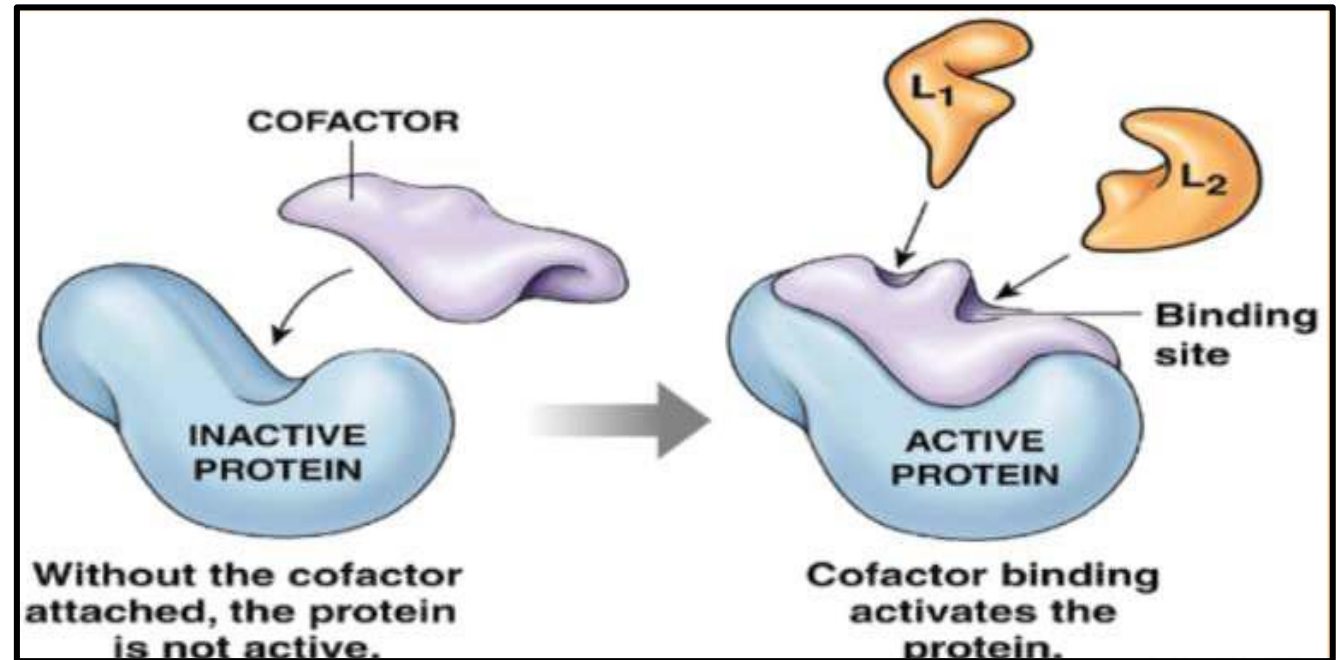
- Cofactors are of two types:

i) **Organic cofactor**: These are the organic molecules required for the proper activity of enzymes.

Example: Glycogen phosphorylase requires the small organic molecule pyridoxal phosphate.

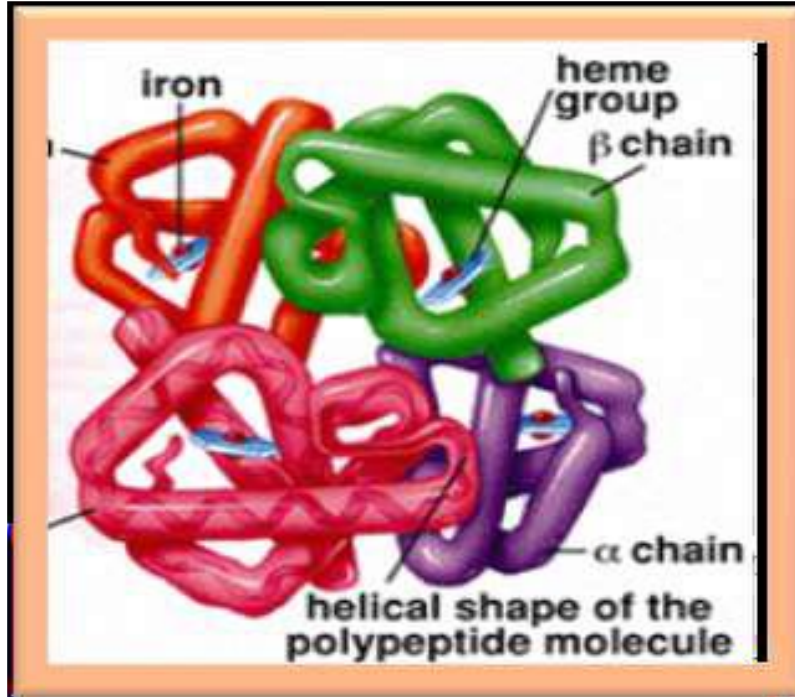
ii) **Inorganic cofactor**: These are the inorganic molecules required for the proper activity of enzymes.

Example: Enzyme carbonic anhydrase requires Zn^{++} for its activity.

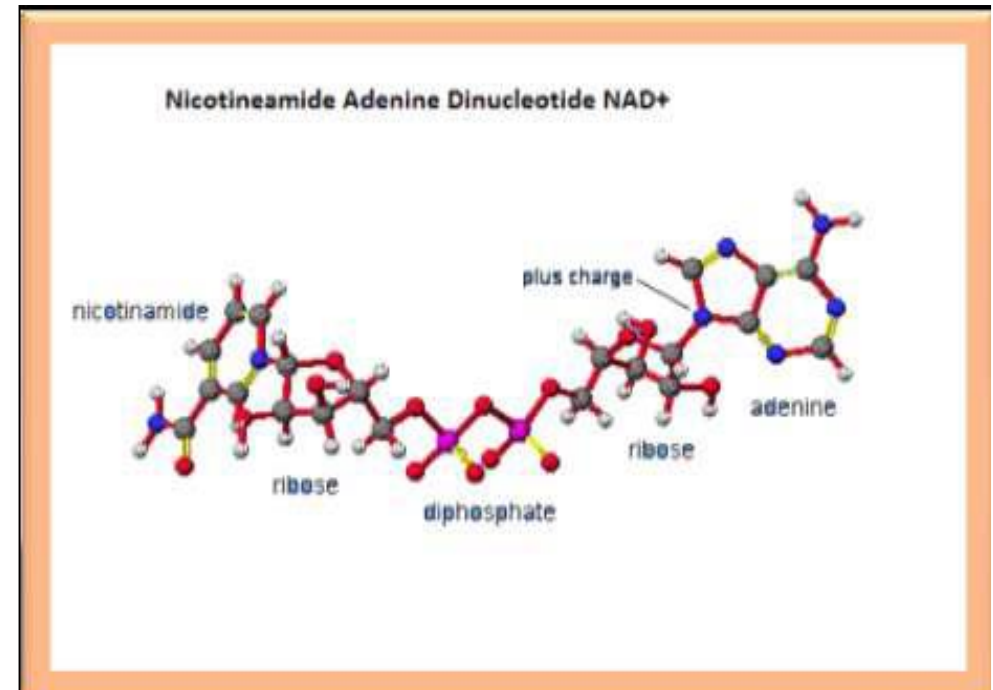


Types of organic cofactor

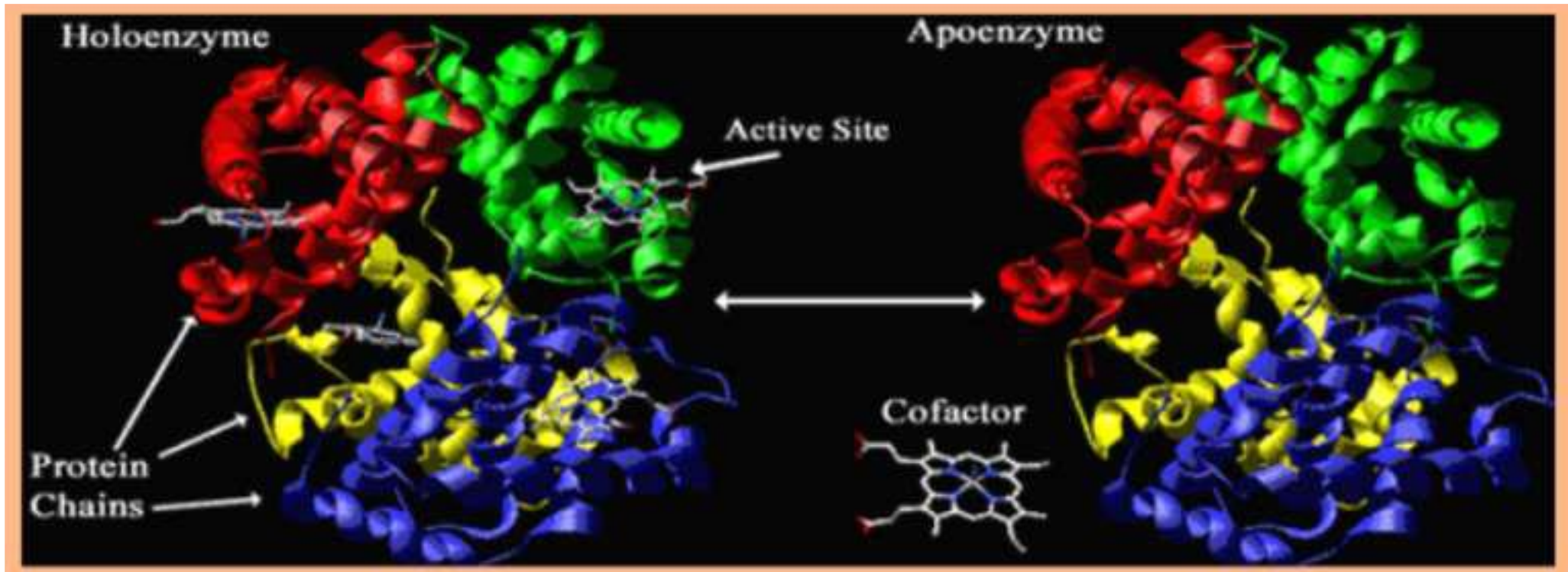
- A **Prosthetic group** is a tightly bound organic cofactor
e.g. Flavins, heme groups and biotin.



- A **coenzyme** is loosely bound organic cofactor.
e.g. NAD^{++}



- An enzyme with its cofactor removed is designated as *apoenzyme*.
- The complete complex of a protein with all necessary small organic molecules, metal ions and other components is termed as *holoenzyme* or *holoprotein*.

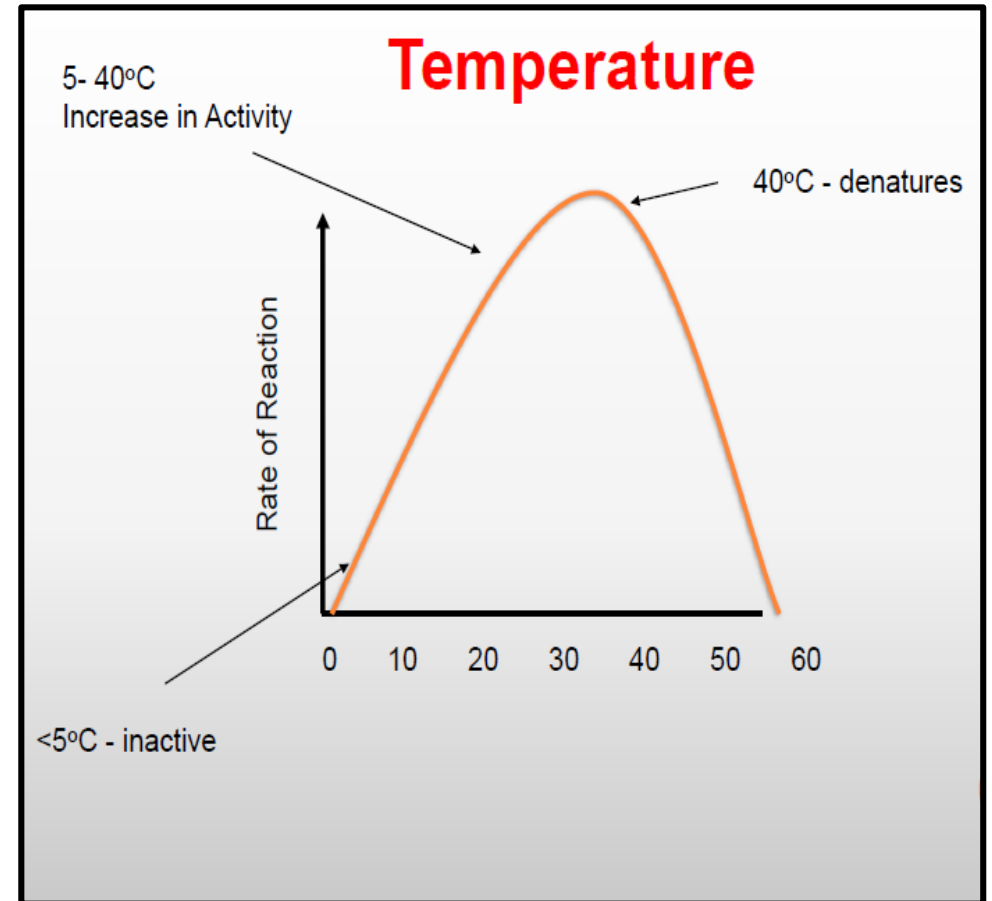


Factors that influence enzymatic activity

- Temperature
- pH
- Substrate concentration
- Inhibitor

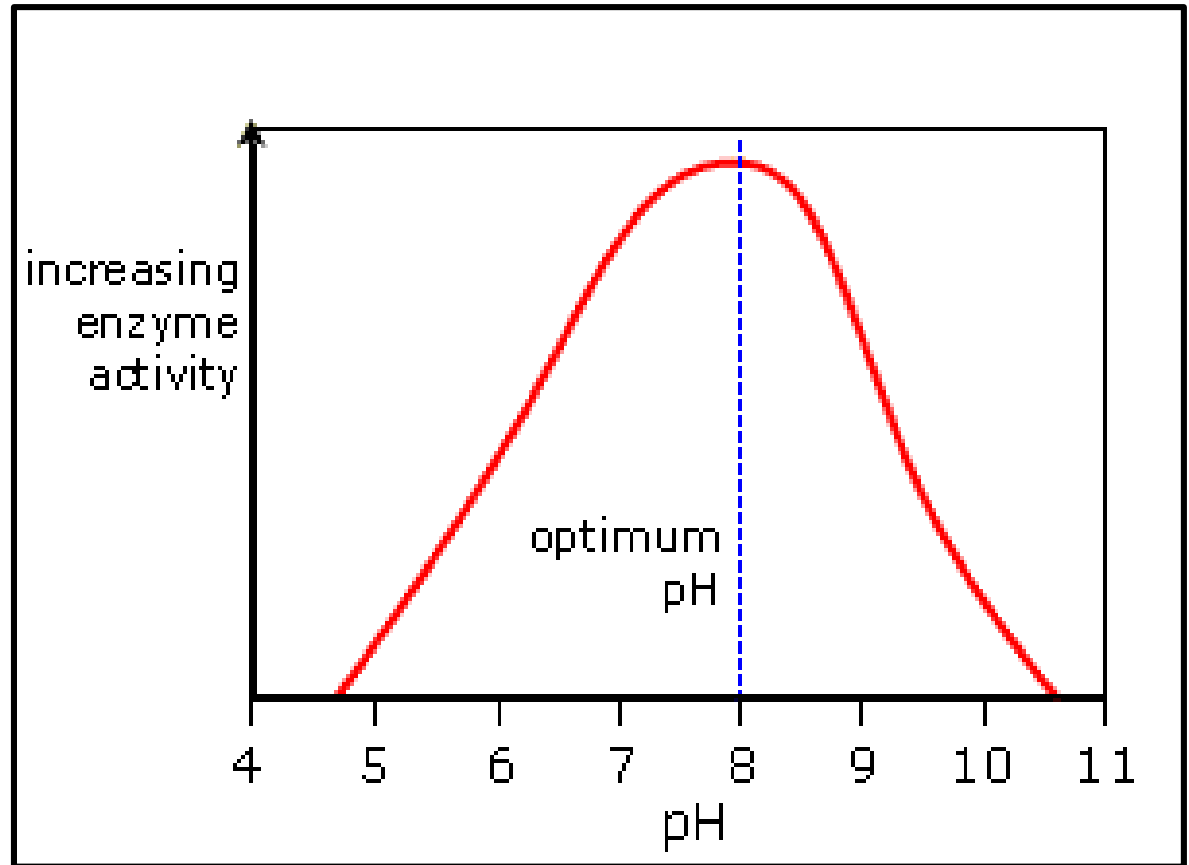
Effect of temperature

- Raising the temperature increases the rate of enzyme-catalyzed reaction by increasing kinetic energy of reacting molecules.
- Enzymes work maximum over a particular temperature known as *optimum temperature*. Enzymes for humans generally exhibit stability up to temperature 35-45°C.
- However some times heat energy can also increase kinetic energy to a point that exceed the energy barrier which results in denaturing of enzymes.



Effect of pH

- Rate of almost all enzyme-catalyzed reactions depends on pH.
- Most enzymes exhibit optimal activity at pH value between **5 and 9**.
- High or low pH value than optimum value will cause ionization of enzyme which result in denaturation of enzyme.



Effects of substrate concentration: Michaelis-Menten model

- Changing the Enzyme and Substrate concentrations affect the rate of reaction of an enzyme-catalysed reaction. Controlling these factors in a cell is one way that an organism regulates its enzyme activity and so its metabolism.
- Michaelis-Menten Equation:

“It is an equation which describes how reaction velocity varies with substrate concentration.”

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

- Where

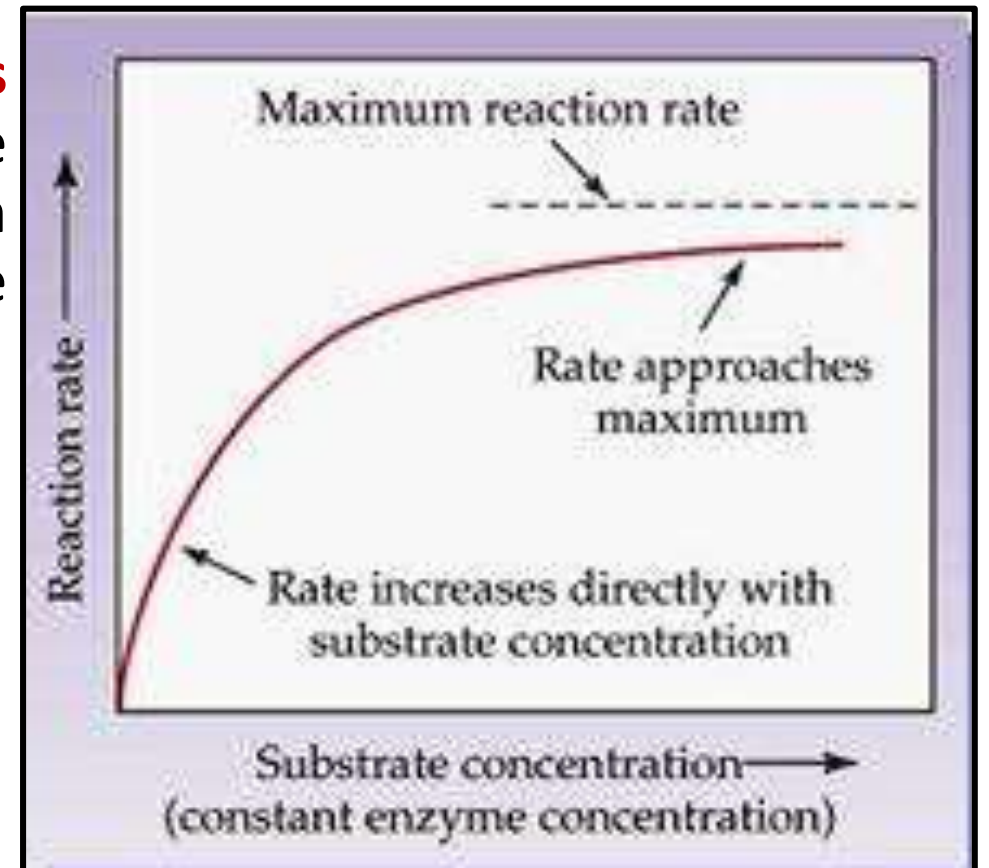
V_o is the initial reaction velocity

V_{\max} is the maximum velocity

K_m is the Michaelis constant = $(k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1$, $[S]$ is the substrate concentration.

Assumption for this Michaelis-Menten equation:

- Relative concentrations of E and S
- Steady-State assumptions
- Initial Velocity
- **Increasing Substrate Concentration increases the rate of reaction.** This is because more substrate molecules will be colliding with enzyme molecules, so more product will be formed.
- However, after a certain concentration, any increase will have no effect on the rate of reaction, since *Substrate Concentration will no longer be the limiting factor*. The enzymes will effectively become saturated, and will be working at their maximum possible rate.

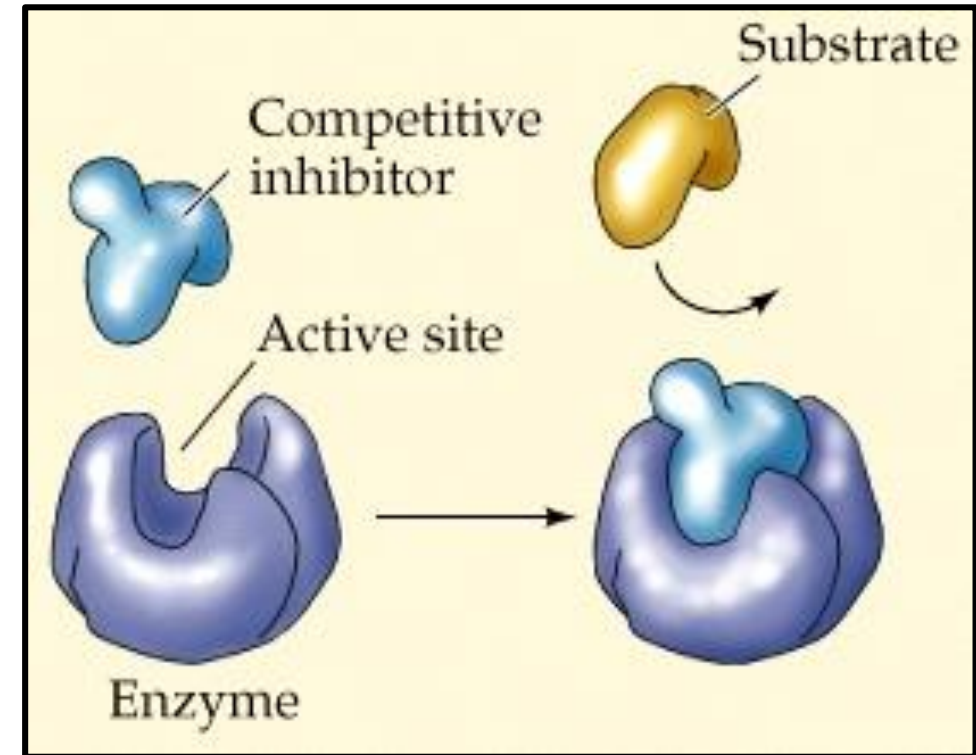


Effect of inhibitor

- **Enzyme inhibitors** are substances which alter the catalytic action of the enzyme and consequently slow down, or in some cases, stop catalysis.
 - There are two types of enzyme inhibition: **reversible and irreversible**
 - Reversible inhibition is again divided into three categories. They are: **competitive, non-competitive and mixed inhibition.**
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- **Reversible inhibition:** It is an inhibition of enzyme activity in which the inhibiting molecular entity can associate and dissociate from the protein's binding site in a reversible way.

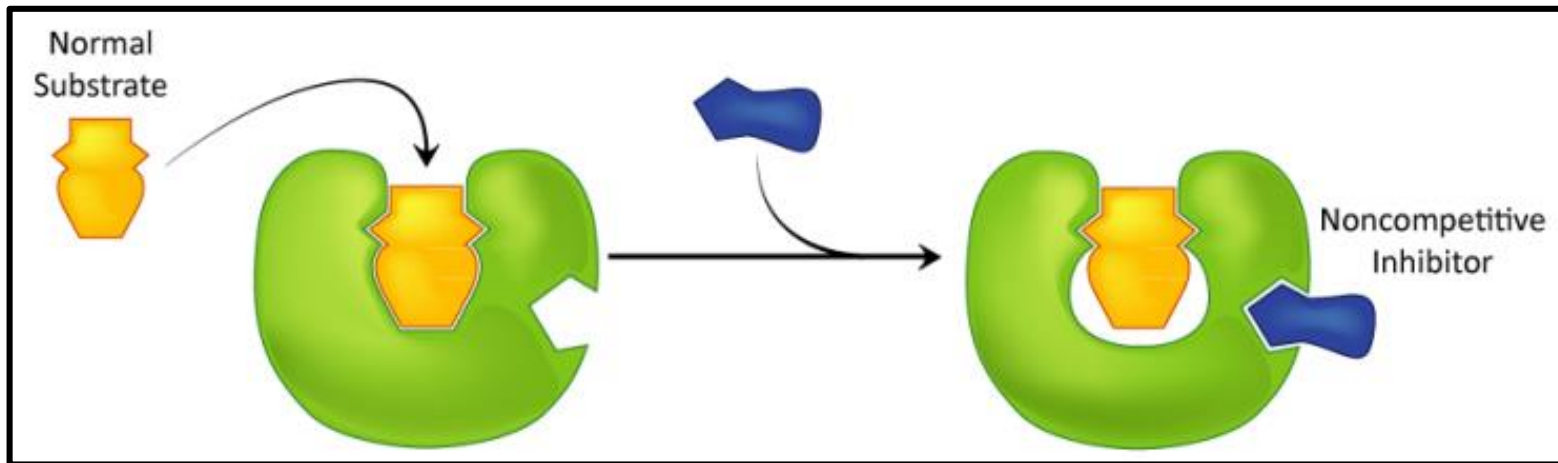
- Competitive inhibition

Competitive inhibition occurs when the substrate and a substance resembling the substrate (inhibitor) are both added to the enzyme. A theory called the "lock-key theory" of enzyme catalysts can be used to explain why inhibition occurs.



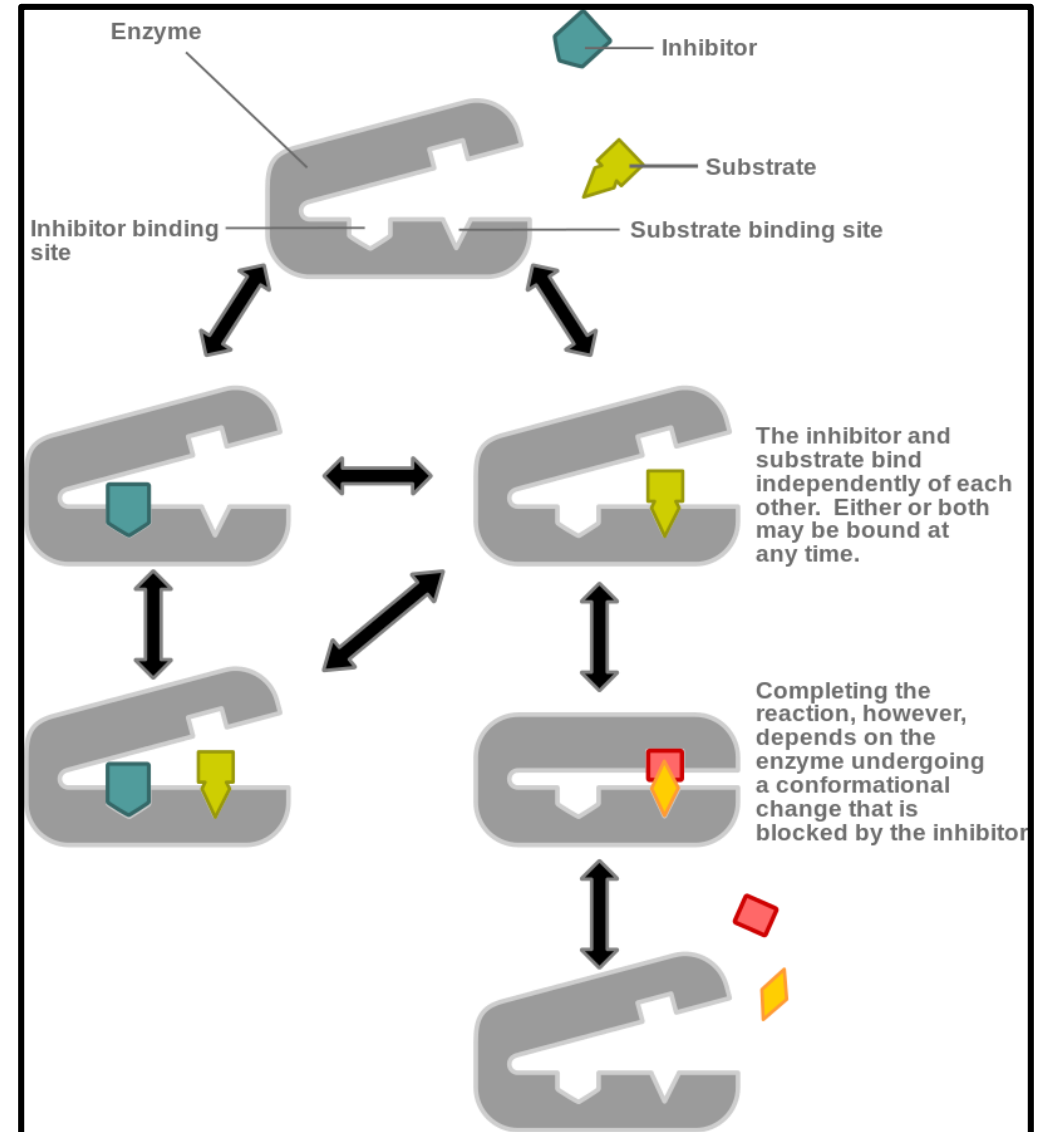
- Non-competitive inhibition

In this type of inhibition, inhibitor does not compete with the substrate for the active site of enzyme instead it binds to another site known as *allosteric* site.

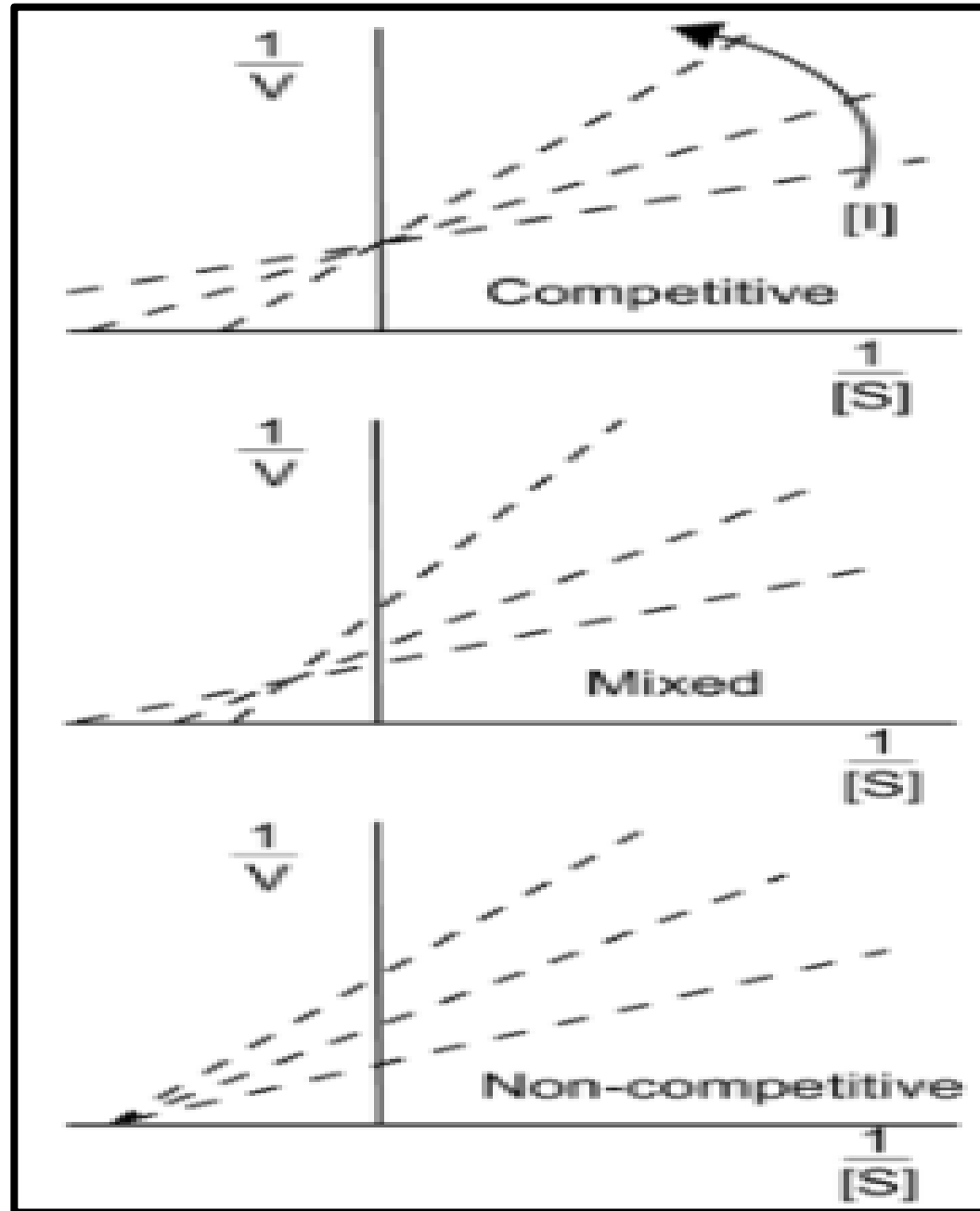


- Mixed inhibition

Mixed inhibition is a type of **enzyme inhibition** in which the inhibitor may bind to the enzyme whether or not the enzyme has already bound the substrate but has a greater affinity for one state or the other.

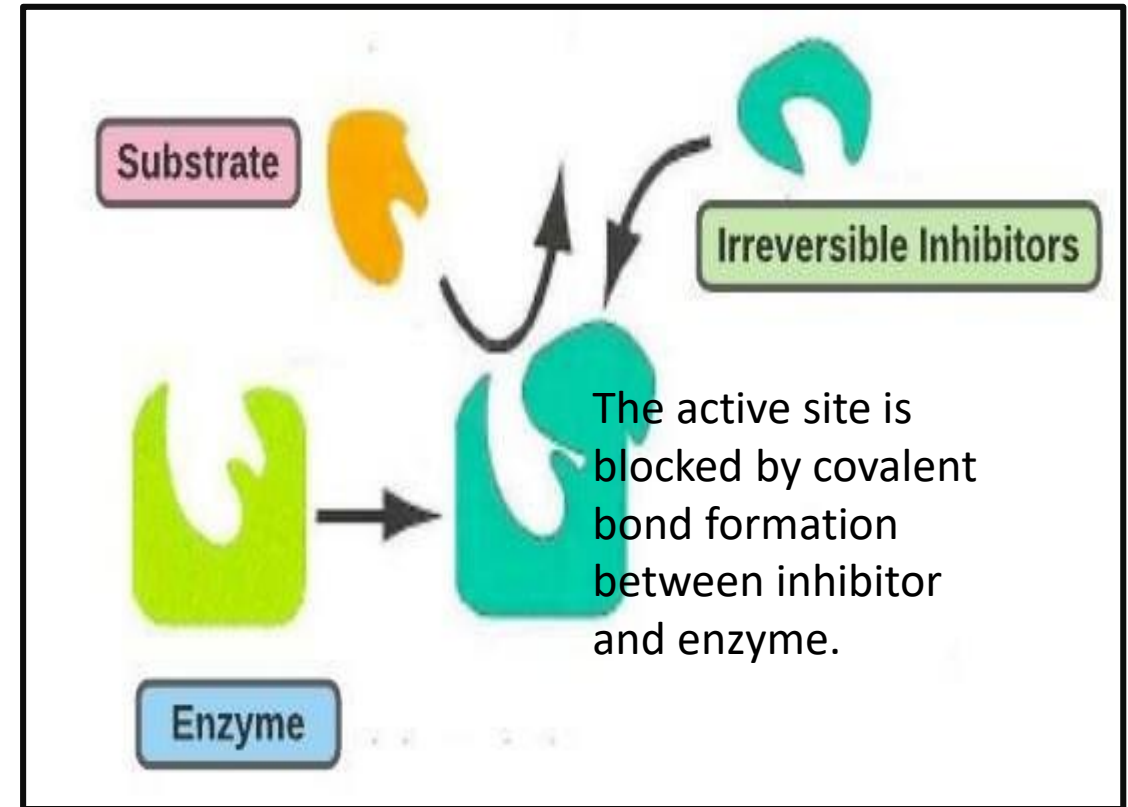


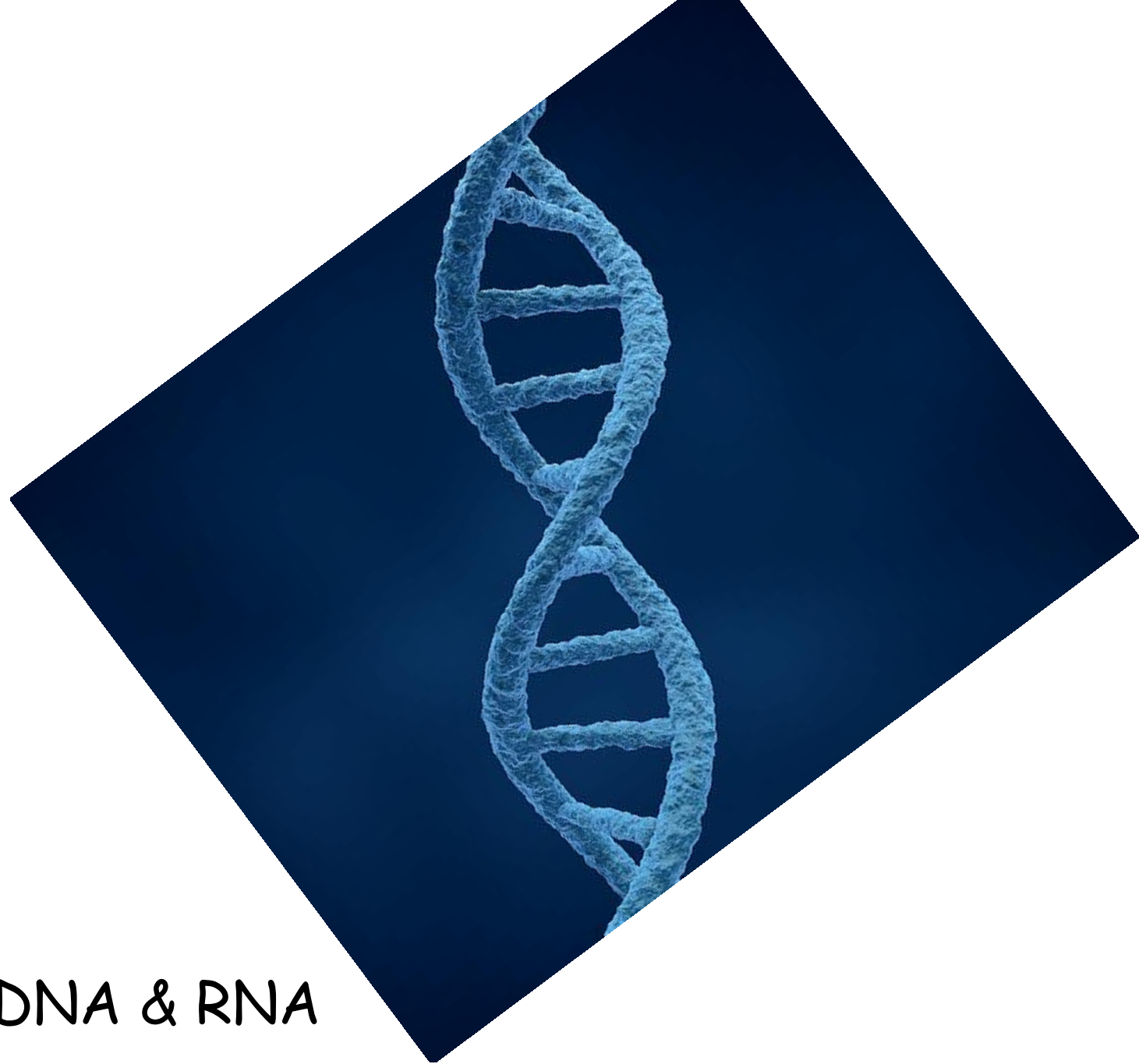
Graphs for three
kind of inhibition



- Irreversible inhibition

- This type of inhibition involves the *covalent attachment* of the inhibitor to the enzyme.
- The *catalytic activity* of enzyme is completely lost.
- It can only be restored only by synthesizing molecules.

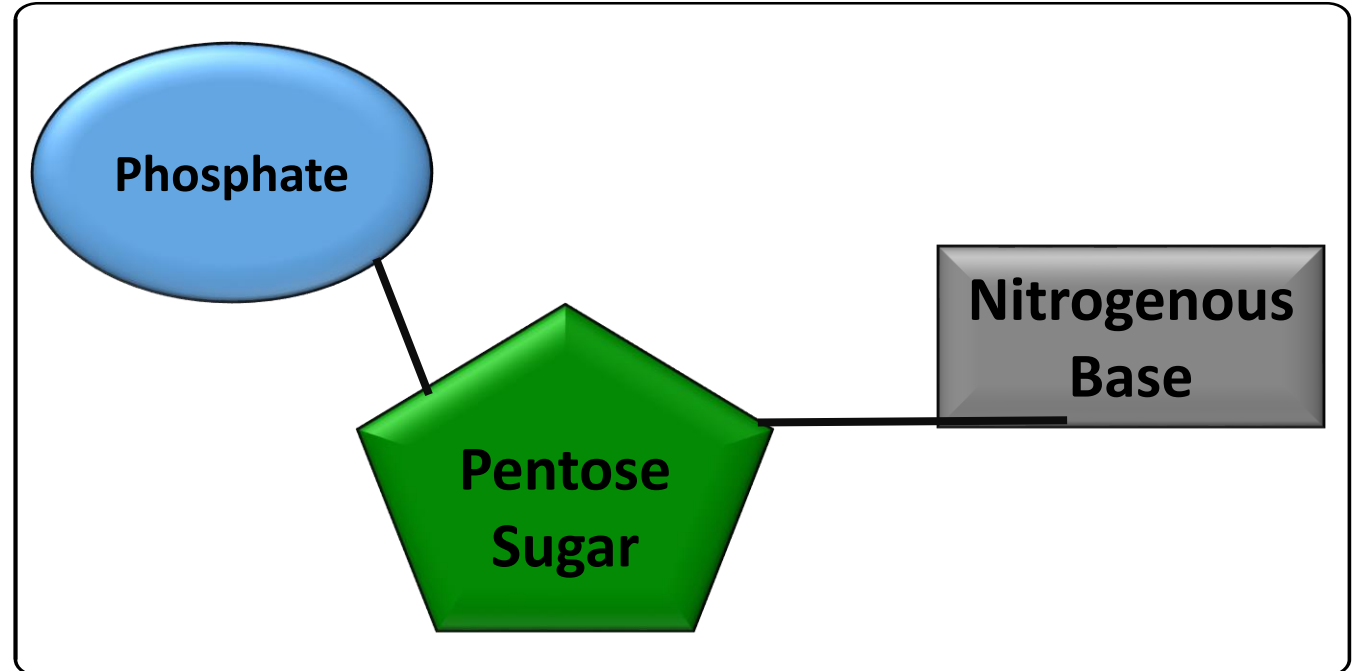




Nucleic Acids-DNA & RNA

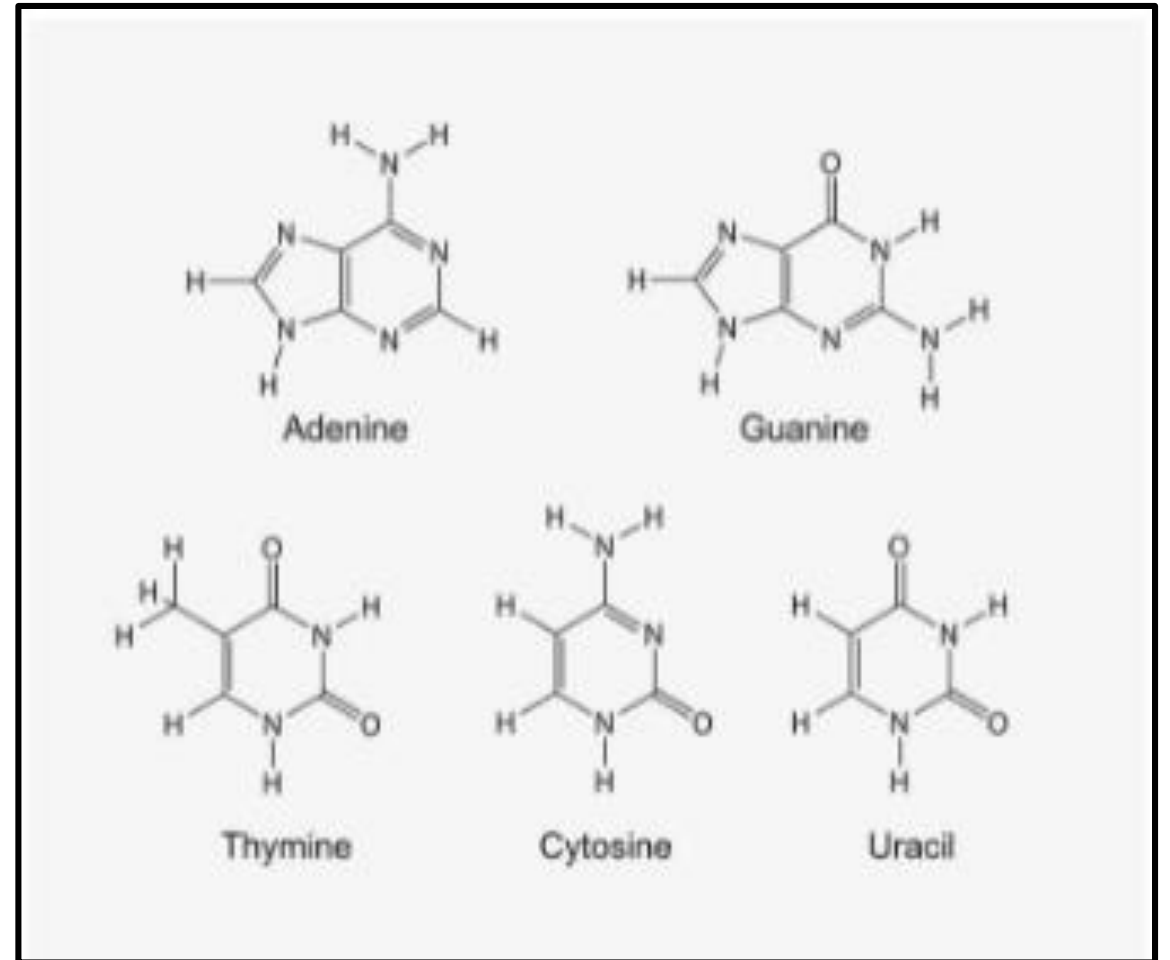
Nucleotide

- A molecule of DNA or RNA is made up of millions of monomers called **Nucleotides**.
- Each nucleotide consists of:
 1. Phosphate group
 2. 5 carbon sugar (ribose in RNA or deoxyribose in DNA)
 3. Nitrogenous base



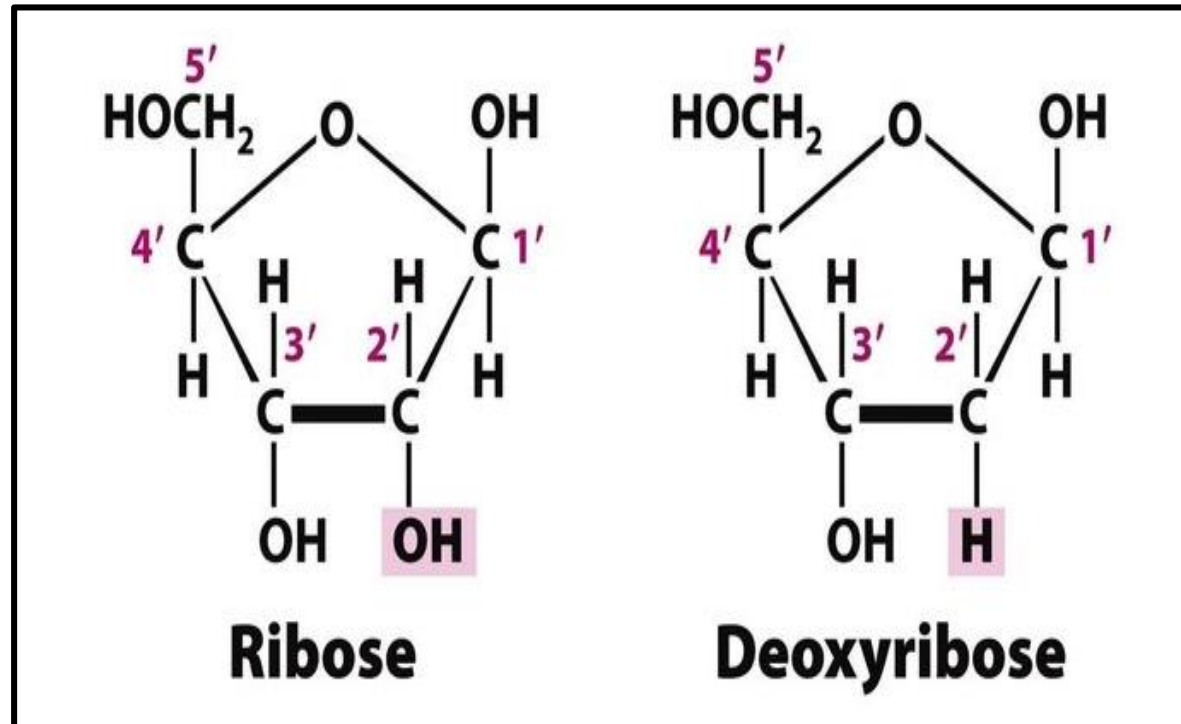
Nitrogen containing bases

- Adenine(A) and Guanine(G) are purine bases.
- Thymine(T) , Cytosine (C) & Uracil (U) are pyrimidine bases.
- In DNA: A, T, C & G are present.
- In RNA: A, U, C & G are present.
- In purine nucleosides, **nitrogen-9** of purine ring is linked to **carbon-1** of pentose sugar.
- In pyrimidine nucleosides, **nitrogen-1** of pyrimidine ring is linked to **carbon-1** of pentose sugar.



5 carbon sugar

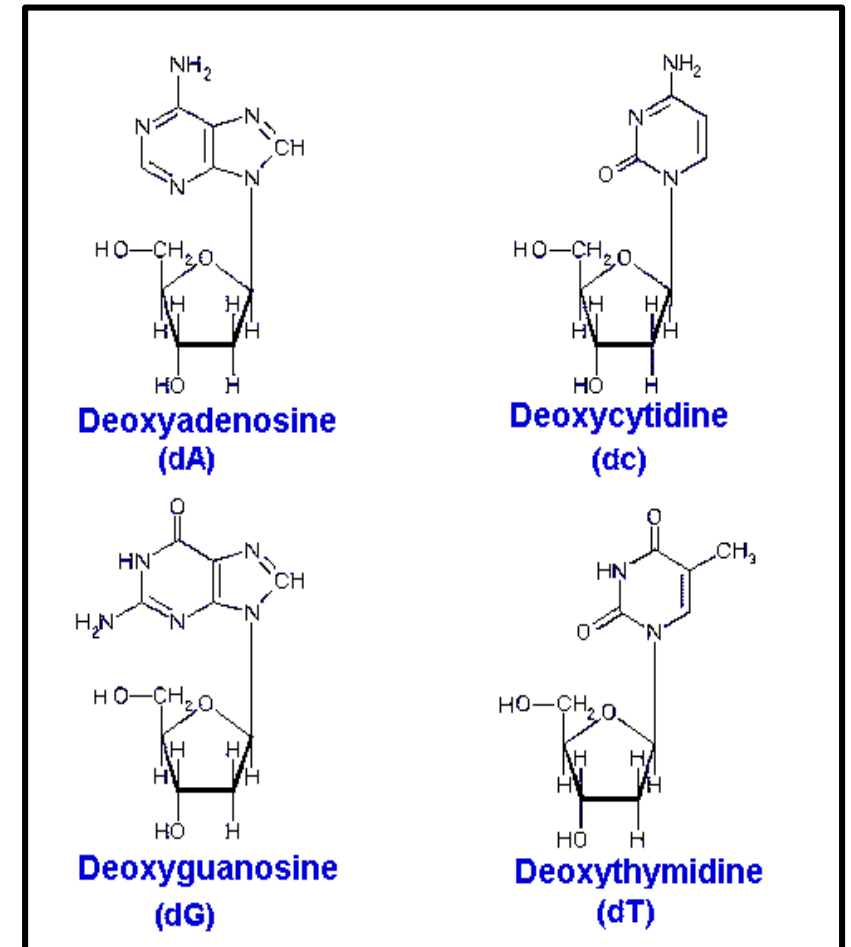
- In DNA, deoxyribose sugar is present; but in RNA, ribose sugar is present.



Nucleosides in DNA

Base	Sugar	Nucleoside
• Adenine (A)	Deoxyribose	Adenosine
• Guanine (G)	Deoxyribose	Guanosine
• Cytosine (C)	Deoxyribose	Cytidine
• Thymine (T)	Deoxyribose	Thymidine

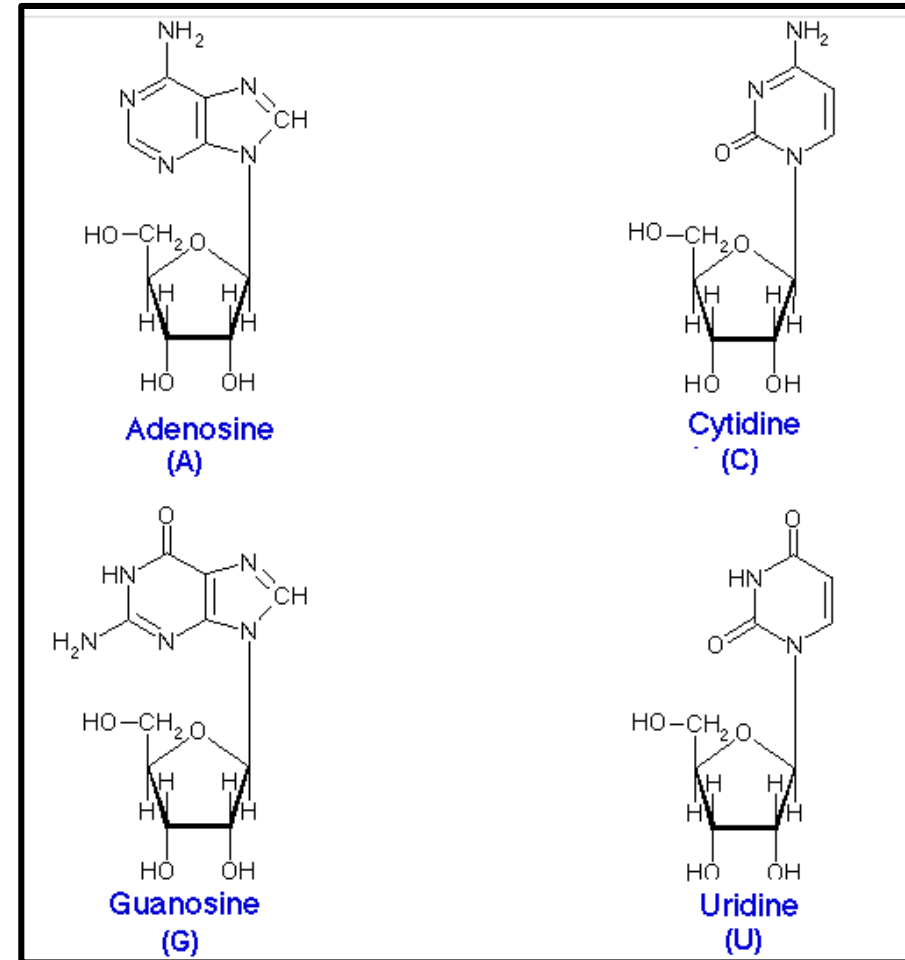
Adenine and Guanine are purine bases;
Cytosine and Thymine are pyrimidine bases.



Nucleosides in RNA

Base	Sugar	Nucleoside
• Adenine (A)	ribose	Adenosine
• Guanine (G)	ribose	Guanosine
• Cytosine (C)	ribose	Cytidine
• Uracil (U)	ribose	Uridine

Adenine and Guanine are purine bases;
Cytosine and Uracil are pyrimidine bases.



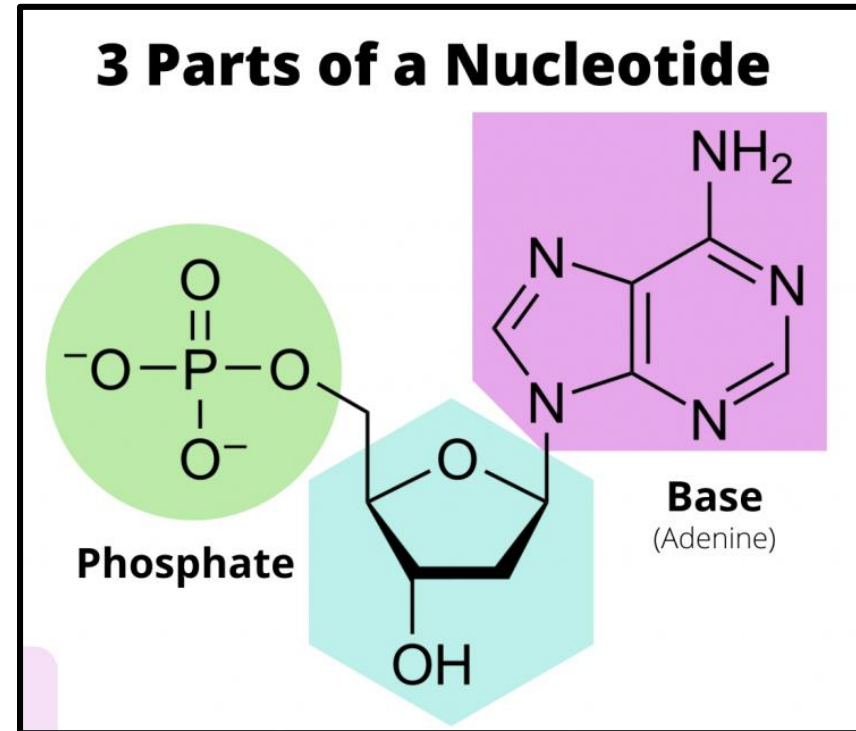
Nucleotides in DNA and RNA

DNA

- dAMP Deoxyadenosine monophosphate
- dGMP Deoxyguanosine monophosphate
- dCMP Deoxycytidine monophosphate
- dTMP Deoxythymidine monophosphate

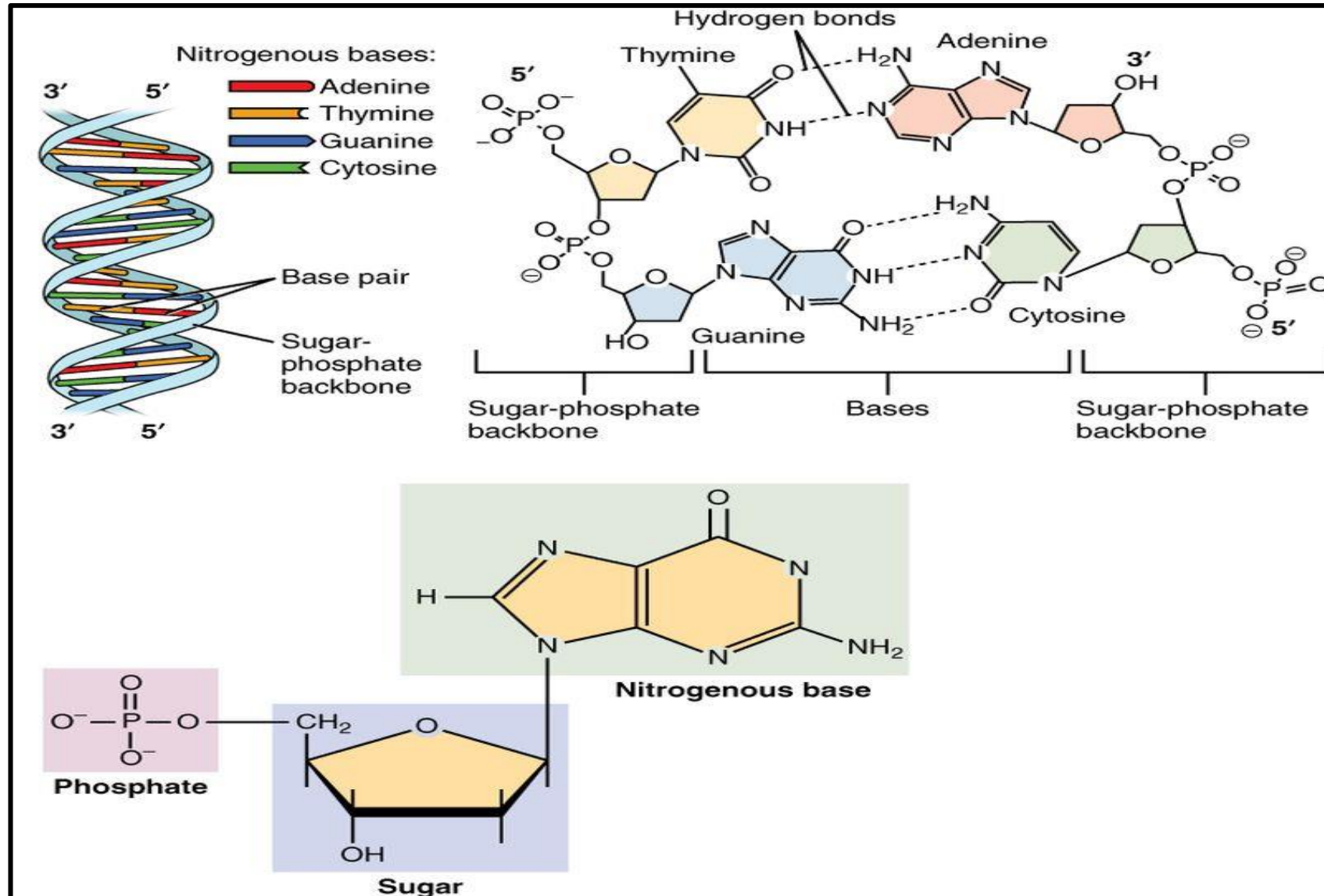
RNA

- AMP adenosine monophosphate
- GMP guanosine monophosphate
- CMP cytidine monophosphate
- UMP uridine monophosphate



dAMP

Nucleic acid structure



Structure of DNA

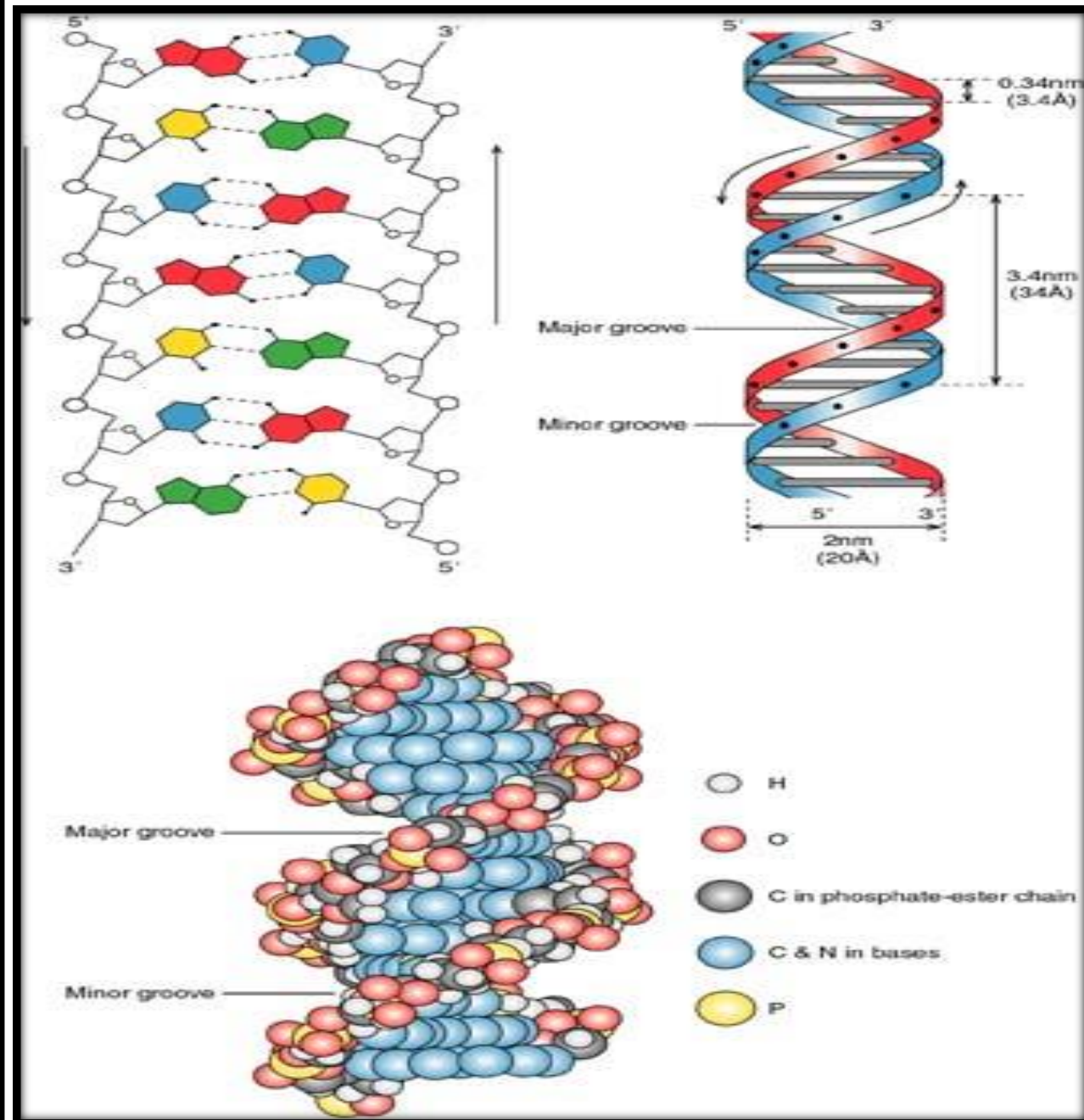
- DNA is a **polymer** of deoxyribonucleotides.
- Composed of monomeric units namely:
 - Deoxyadenylate (dAMP)
 - Deoxyguanylate (dGMP)
 - Deoxycytidylate (dCMP)
 - Deoxythymidylate (dTMP)
- The monomeric units held together **by 3',5'-phosphodiester bonds** as backbone.
- DNA had **equal numbers of adenine & thymine residues and equal number of guanine & cytosine residues.**
- Between A and T, there is **two H-bonds** but between G and C, there exists **three H-bonds.**

DNA double helix

- Double helical structure was proposed by **Watson & Crick** in 1953.
- The DNA is a **right handed** double helix.
- It consists of two polydeoxyribonucleotide chains twisted around each other on a common axis of symmetry.
- The chains are paired in an **antiparallel manner**, i.e., the 5'-end of one strand is paired with the 3'-end of the other strand.
- The two strands are **antiparallel**, i.e., one strand runs in the **5' to 3' direction** while the other runs in **3' to 5' direction**.
- The width (or diameter) of a double helix is 20 Å (2nm)
- Each turn of helix is **34 Å** (3.4nm) with 10 pairs of nucleotides, each pair placed at a distance of about **3.4 Å**.
- The DNA helix, the **hydrophilic** deoxyribose-phosphate backbone of each chain is on the **outside of the molecule**, whereas the **hydrophobic bases** are stacked inside.

DNA double helix

- The polynucleotide chains are not identical but **complementary** to each other **due to base pairing**.
- The two strands are held together by **hydrogen bonds**.
- The hydrogen bonds are formed between a **purine & pyrimidine** (**two H-bonds between A & T, three H-bonds between C & G**).
- The spatial relationship between the two strands in the helix creates a **major (wide) groove** and a **minor (narrow) groove**.
- These grooves provide access for the **binding of regulatory proteins** to their specific recognition sequences along the DNA chain.
- The **genetic information** resides on one of the two strands known as template strand or sense strand.
- The opposite strand is antisense strand.



Conformation of DNA double helix

- The double helical structure of DNA exists in 6 forms A,B,C,D,E and Z form.
- Among these B, A & Z forms are important.
- B-form is **most predominant** form under physiological conditions.
- A-form is also **right-handed helix**, contains 11 base pairs, there is a tilting of the base pairs by 20° away from the central axis.
- Z-form is a **left –handed helix** and contains 12 base pairs per turn.
- The polynucleotide strands of DNA move in a somewhat zig-zag fashion, hence called as Z-DNA.



Structures of A, B and Z DNA

Complementary strands

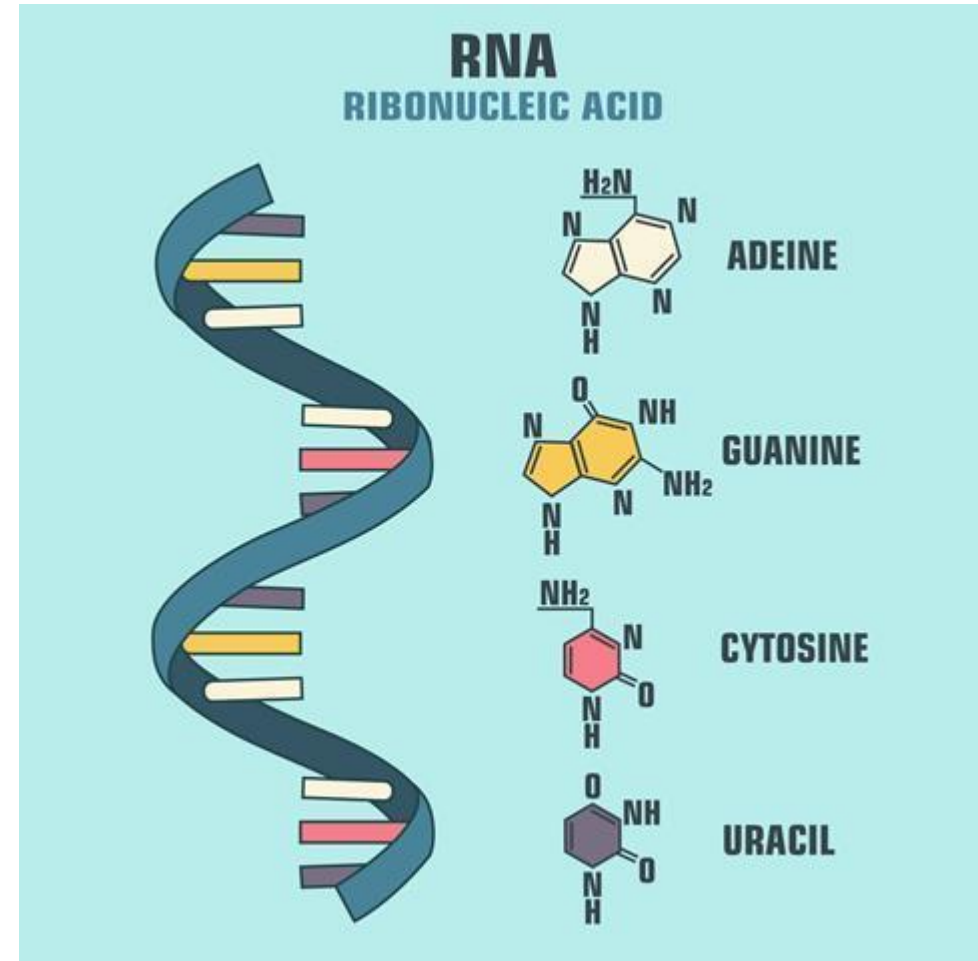
- The two strands of DNA are not identical but two strands are **complementary** to each other.
- The complementarity results from **base pairing**.
- Adenine pairs with thymine through **two** hydrogen bonds.
- Guanine pairs with cytosine through **three** hydrogen bonds.
- G-C base pairs are **more stable** than A-T base pairs.
- It also accounts for how each DNA strand acts **as a template** for the synthesis of its complementary strand during **DNA replication**.

Structure of RNA

- RNA is a polyribonucleotide.
- It is **single stranded** polynucleotide.
- Phosphodiester bond links the nucleotides.
- Bond formation occurs between 3-OH group of one pentose sugar & 5-OH group of another pentose sugar of ribonucleotide.
- Nucleotides found in RNA are:
 - AMP
 - GMP
 - CMP
 - UMP
- **Thymine** base is absent in RNA.

Structure of RNA

- It undergoes **alkali hydrolysis**.
- Alkali can hydrolyse RNA to 2',3'-cyclic diesters.
- This is due to presence of **-OH group** at 2' position.



Types of RNA

- Three major types:
 - Messenger RNA: 5-10%
 - Transfer RNA: 10-20%
 - Ribosomal RNA: 50-80%
- RNAs are synthesized from DNA.
- RNA is involved in protein synthesis.
- **Messenger RNA:**
It is also known as **mRNA**
It carries **genetic information** from DNA for protein synthesis.
- **Transfer RNA:**
Transfer RNA, also known as **tRNA** (soluble RNA) and contains 71-80 nucleotides.
It is required for the **transfer of specific amino acids** to the site of protein synthesis.
It contains many unusual bases & nucleosides.

- Ribosomal RNA:

Ribosomal RNA, also known as *rRNA*, is found in ribosomes.

It is composed of two major nucleoprotein complexes: 60s subunit & 40s subunit.

Its main function is protein biosynthesis.

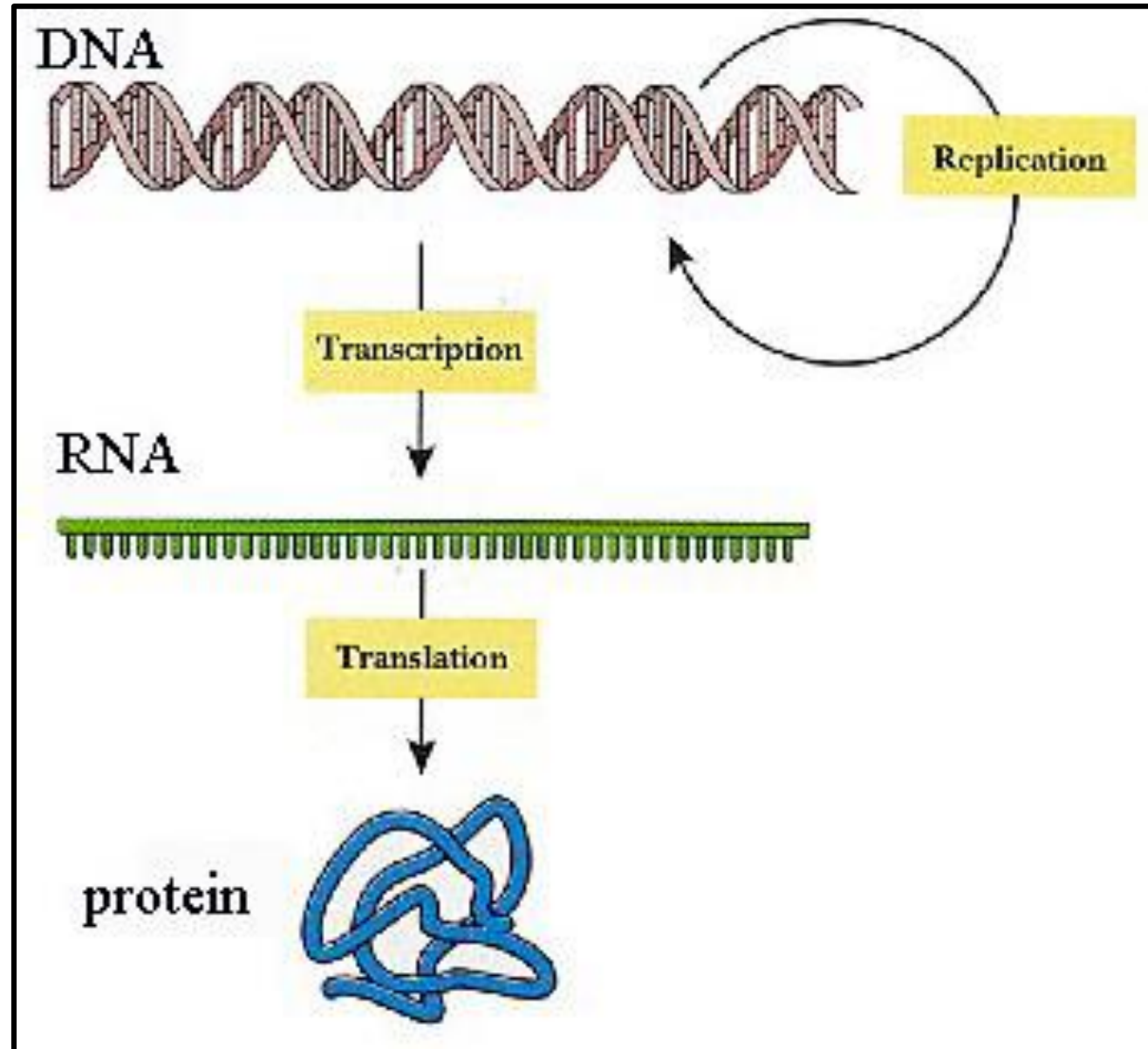
Nucleic acid and protein synthesis

- The following three processes are involved In duplication, transfer and use of genetic information.

1) Replication: The process by which a replica or identical copy of DNA is made when a cell divides.

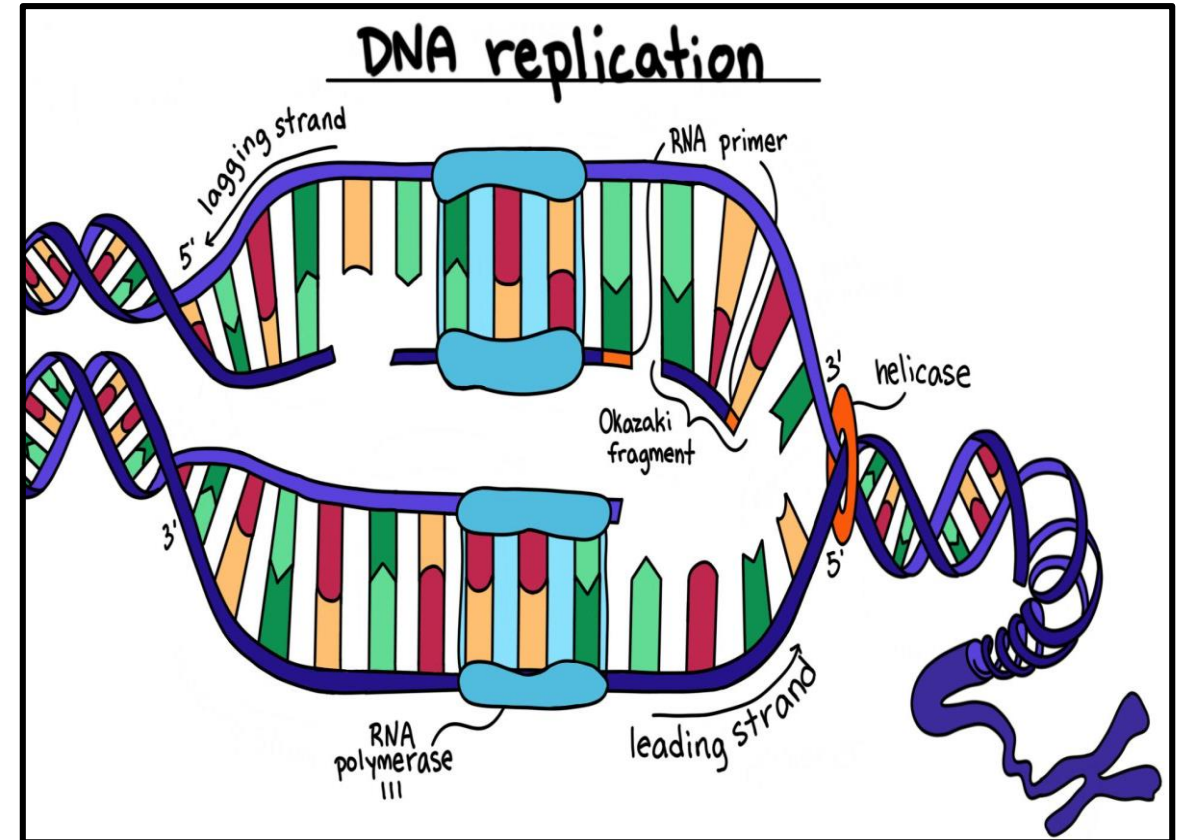
2) Transcription: The process by which the genetic messages contained in DNA are read and copied.

3) Translation: The process by which the genetic messages carried by RNA are decoded and used to build proteins.



Replication

- DNA in the chromosomes replicates itself in every cell division.
- It maintains correct **genetic information**.
- The two strands of DNA **unwind**.
- Each strand acts like a **template**.
- New bases **pair** with their complementary bases.
- Two double helices form that are **copies of original DNA**.



Transcription

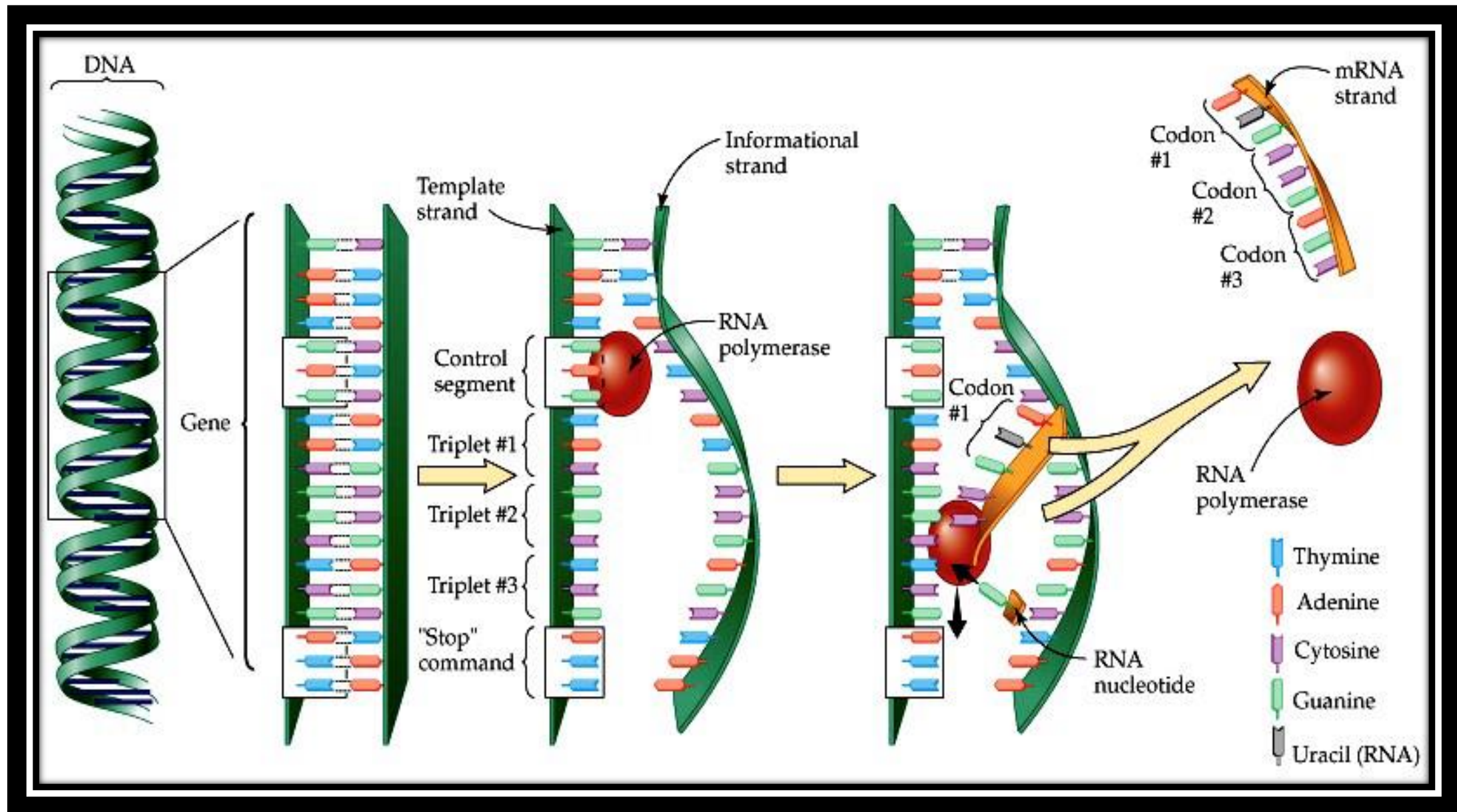
- The first step in using the information stored in DNA to produce proteins is **transcription** - using DNA as a template to make RNA.
- It is controlled by interactions of **promoter and enhancers**.
- Several different types of RNAs are produced including mRNA, tRNA and rRNA.
- Transcription involves 4 steps:

INITIATION

ELONGATION

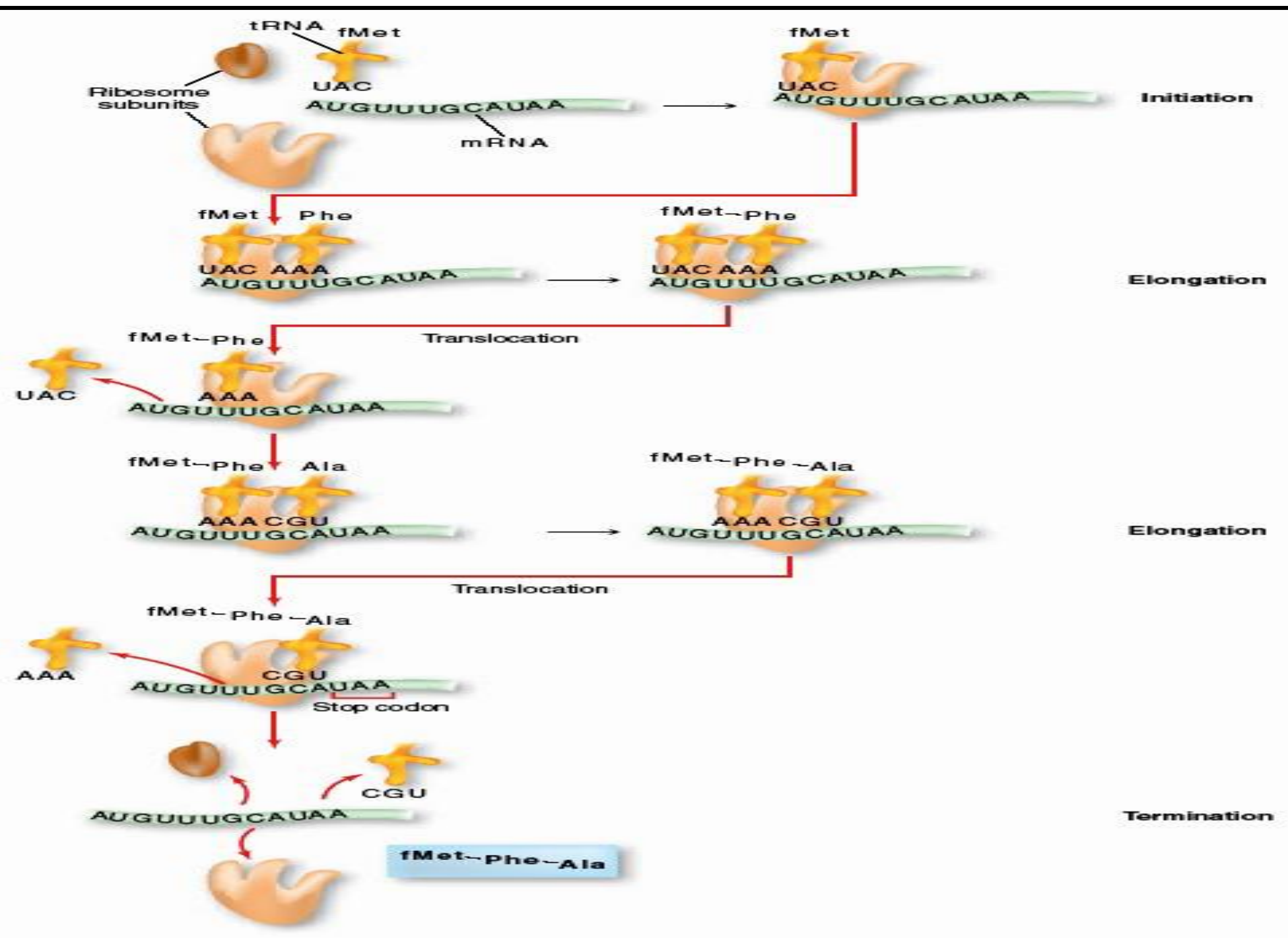
TERMINATION

PROCESSING



Translation

- The synthesis of proteins occur at ribosomes, which are outside the nucleus and within the cytoplasm of cells.
- The mRNA connects with the ribosome; and the amino acids attached to *transfer RNA* are delivered one by one.
- **Protein synthesis or translation, takes place in *three* steps:**
 - 1. Initiation-** a ribosome, mRNA and tRNA come together to form a complex.
 - 2. Elongation-** amino acids are joined to the growing polypeptide chain.
 - 3. Termination-** the protein gets synthesized and the ribosome-mRNA-tRNA complex dissociates.



Genetic code

- The ribonucleotide sequence in a mRNA chain is like a **coded sentence that specifies** the order in which amino acid residues should be joined to form a protein.
- Each word or **codon** in the mRNA sentence is a series of **three ribonucleotides** that code for specific amino acid.
- For example, the series **uracil-uracil-guanine (UUG)** on an mRNA chain is a codon directing incorporation of the amino acid **leucine** into a growing protein chain.

Reference

- Principle of biochemistry by Lehninger
- [www. Slideshare.net](http://www.Slideshare.net)
- [www. google.com](http://www.google.com)