

Chapter - II :: Bioenergetics ::

→ The term bioenergetics means production of or consumption of energy inside the living organism.

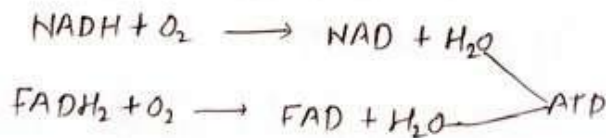
- In our body many biochemical reactions is always running and the study of energies involved during biochemical reactions is called bioenergetics.

Production of Energy ::

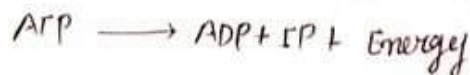
During biochemical reactions the production of energy is involve by two steps.

1) Oxidation Step:

Various Co-enzyme like NADH, FADH, FMN are the e⁻ acceptors in the biochemical reactions and after the oxidation of these e⁻ acceptors energy is produce.

2) Phosphorylation Step:

After phosphorylation ATP break into ADP and further into AMP and they produce energy.

Essentials of Bioenergetics ::

- i) Energy is required for mechanical work
- ii) Energy is required for chemical synthesis.
- iii) growth
- iv) Cleavage and breaking of tone.

(1) Law of Bioenergetics

The concept of bioenergetics is based on three laws.

- i) Law of Thermodynamics.
- ii) Thermodynamics Concept.
- iii) ATP & Phosphagens.

1) Law of Thermodynamics:-

It is based on the first law of thermodynamics which states that energy is neither be created nor destroyed but it can change from one form to another.

$$\boxed{Q = \Delta E + W}$$

Q = Heat

ΔE = Internal Energy

W = Work.

ii) Thermodynamics Concept :-

The thermodynamics concept is the concept of enthalpy and entropy.

Enthalpy:- The total internal energy at constant pressure and temp is called enthalpy.

During any biochemical reaction the change in enthalpy is considered.

$$\boxed{\Delta H = \Delta H_f - \Delta H_i}$$

$$\boxed{H = E + PV}$$

ΔH = Enthalpy

ΔH_f = Final Enthalpy

ΔH_i = Initial Enthalpy

Entropy

The Randomness or disorderness of system is called entropy.

It can be calculated by using the formula -

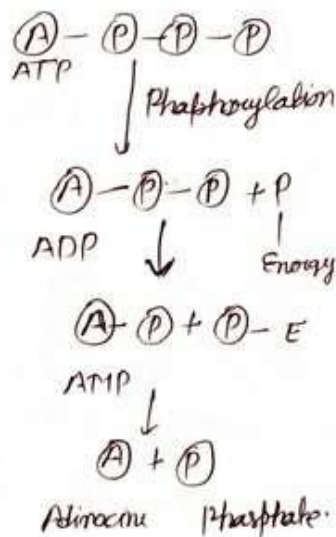
$$\Delta S = \Delta S_f - \Delta S_i$$

$$\Delta S = \text{Entropy}$$

3) ATP & Phosphagens :

The full name of ATP is Adenosine triphosphate and it is the main source of energy.

After phosphorylation ATP breaks into ADP and ADP breaks into AMP and they produce energy.



∴ Concept of Free Energy or Gibbs free energy ∴

A) During any biochemical reaction some amount of energy is involved.

B) The concept of free energy was given by willard gibbs in 1870 so it is also known as gibbs free energy.

C) The gibbs free energy equation is -

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

where ∴ ΔG = change in gibbs free energy.

ΔH = Enthalpy.

T = Temperature

ΔS = change in entropy.

D) According to the value of ΔG biochemical reaction is of 2 types
if $\rightarrow \Delta G = -ve$ $\boxed{\Delta G < 0}$ = Exergonic [Spontaneous]

$\Delta G = +ve$ $\boxed{\Delta G > 0}$ = Endergonic [Non Spontaneous]

1) Exergonic chemical Reaction ∴ ∴

In exergonic reaction the value of ΔG is always negative so it means it release the energy itself so it is called spontaneous reaction.

For Example ∴ In respiration process after the oxidation of glucose - 3012 Kcal energy is release.

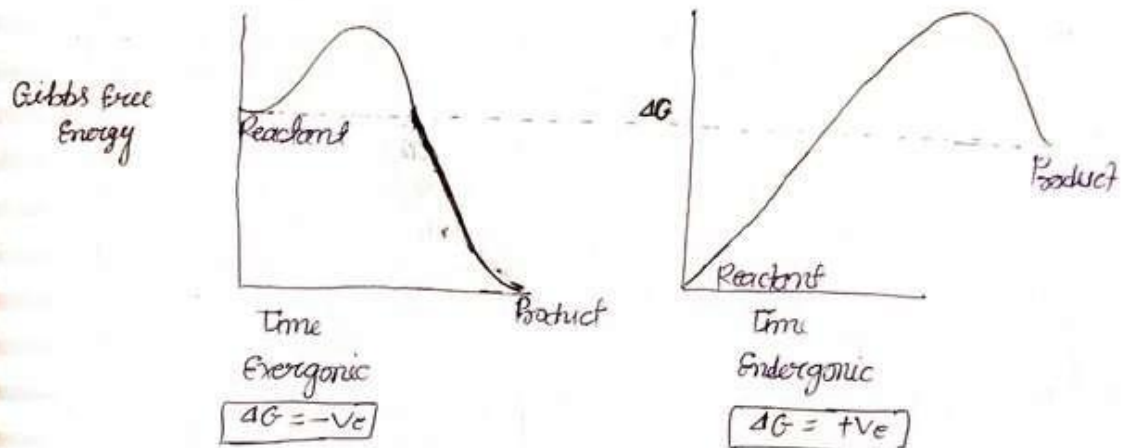
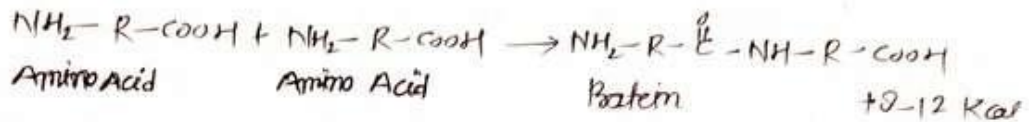


-3012 Kcal energy.

2) Endergonic chemical Reaction ∴ -

In this type of reaction the value of ΔG is positive it means it absorb the some amount of energy during the biochemical reaction so it is also called Non spontaneous reaction.

For Example: The formation of protein and poly peptide chain after the condensation of amino acids is an endergonic reaction because it requires 0 to 12 Kcal energy.



Relationship b/w free energy, enthalpy & Entropy:

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

Case-1: Temp increase (\uparrow) = $\Delta G = -ve$ - Spontaneous
 when the temp of reaction is increase then the value of ΔG becomes negative and reaction become spontaneous.

Case-ii: Temperature decrease (\downarrow) = $\Delta G = +ve$ - Non spontaneous
 when temperature of reaction is decrease then the value of ΔG is becomes positive and reaction become Non Spontaneous.

Case-iii: If $\Delta H \uparrow$ & $\Delta S \downarrow \rightarrow \Delta G = +ve$ Non spontaneous.

If the value of change in enthalpy is increase and the value of change in entropy is decrease then the value of ΔG will be positive and reaction becomes non spontan

1) If $\Delta H < 0$ & $\Delta S > 0 \rightarrow \Delta G = -ve$ spontaneous.

If the value of change in enthalpy is decrease and the value of change in entropy is increase then the value of ΔG will be $-ve$ and reaction becomes spontaneous.

∴ Difference b/w exergonic and Endergonic Reaction:

Endergonic Reactions	Exergonic Reaction
1) It is also known as unfavorable reaction or non-spontaneous reaction which requires more energy.	1) It is also known as spontaneous reaction or a favorable reaction.
2) It absorbs energy from the surroundings.	2) It releases energy to the surroundings.
3) The reactions are non-spontaneous.	3) The reactions are spontaneous.

Redox Potential $\hat{=}$

Redox potential is the most imp for biochemical reaction which is used to characterise the free energy cost and direction of reaction in value in nearest equation.

$$E = E^{\circ} - \frac{2.303RT}{nf} \log_{10} \frac{ox}{Red}$$

- where -
- E = Electrode potential
 - E° = Std. Electrode potential
 - R = Rydberg constant
 - T = Absolute temp
 - n = no of e^{-} (molecule)
 - F = Farade constant.

Energy rich Compounds $\hat{=}$

Organism required high amount of energy for their metabolic and biological activity.

In our body there are many compounds which release the energy after dissociation and after hydrolysis they are known as energy rich compound.

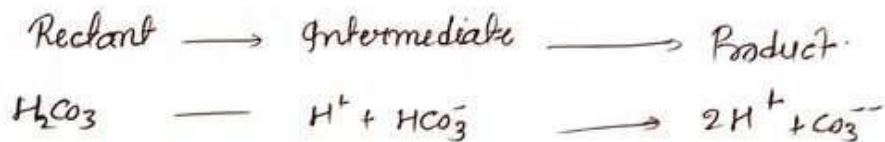
These chemical compounds which contain Ester, Alkaloid they release less amount of energy after dissociation. (10-15 kJ/mol)

They are called energy poor compound.

But energy rich compounds like phosphate and anhydride release high amount of energy after hydrolysis (30-60 kJ/mol)

Energy rich compounds are formed in the cell in three diff methods.

- 1) The main energy rich compounds like Adenine, Ribose, & phosphoric acid are always present in body
- 2) Intermediate compounds are formed with high energy phosphate group during high energy reaction
- 3) Some energy rich compounds are produced in release of high energy phosphate with the help of kinase enzyme.



Importance of Energy Rich Compound

- i) They liberate ^{Hydrogen} sufficient amount of energy.
- ⇒ They are not used for long term storage.
- ⇒ They carry the reaction from one reaction to another.
- ⇒ After hydrolysis these compounds release energy.
- ⇒ High energy bond formed by oxidative phosphorylation.

Ex: Phospho in all -Pyranate

-	-62.2 KJ/mole
- AMP	- 52.2 KJ/m
- Acetyl Phosphate	- 43.3 KJ/m
- ADP	- 35.7 KJ/m
- ATP	- 30.5 KJ/m
- Acetyl Co-A	- 31.5 KJ/m

Classification of Energy rich compound

Class	Bond	Example
Pyrophosphates	-C-P-P	ATP, Pyrophosphate
Acyl phosphates	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ \text{-C-OP} \end{array}$	1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate Carboxyl phosphate, Acetyl Phosphate.
Enol Phosphates	$\begin{array}{c} \text{-CH} \\ \parallel \\ \text{-C-OP} \end{array}$	Phosphoenol pyruvate
Thiol esters (Thioesters)	$\begin{array}{c} \text{C} \\ \parallel \\ \text{-C-ONS-} \end{array}$	Acetyl CoA, Acyl Co-A
Guanido Phosphates (Phosphagens)	-NH ₂ -P	Phosphocreatine, Phosphoarginine

Urea cycle

1. Since ammonia is toxic to CNS even in traces liver rapidly removes ammonia from circulation and converts it to a non-toxic water soluble urea. Hence site of urea synthesis is liver.
2. The reactions leading to formation of urea from ammonia are proposed by Krebs and Henseleit. Hence, urea cycle is also called as Krebs-Henseleit cycle.
3. Formation of urea from ammonia in urea cycle occurs in five reactions. However the first reaction is not a part of the cycle but for the continuation of the cycle which consist of remaining four reactions product of the first reaction is essential..
4. Synthesis of urea from ammonia is a energy dependent process.
5. Enzymes of urea cycle are present in mitochondria and cytosol.
6. First two reactions of urea formation occurs in mitochondria and remaining reactions occur in cytosol.

Reaction sequence of urea formation: For the synthesis of urea only one ammonia molecule is used as such. Aspartate serves as donor of another molecule of ammonia. HCO_3^- serves as source of CO_2 required for urea formation.

1. **Formation of carbamoyl phosphate:** First reaction leading to urea formation is condensation of ammonia and HCO_3^- at the expense of two high-energy bonds to form carbamoyl phosphate. The reaction is catalyzed by mitochondrial carbamoyl phosphate synthetase-I.

Reactions of urea cycle

2. Now the first reaction of urea cycle is catalyzed by ornithine transcarbamoylase. It condenses carbamoyl phosphate and ornithine to form citrulline. This enzyme is present in mitochondria.
3. Arginino succinate synthetase present in cytosol catalyzes second reaction of urea cycle. It condenses citrulline and aspartate at the expense of two high energy bonds to form argininosuccinate.
4. In the third reaction of urea cycle argininosuccinate is cleaved by argininosuccinase to arginine and fumarate.

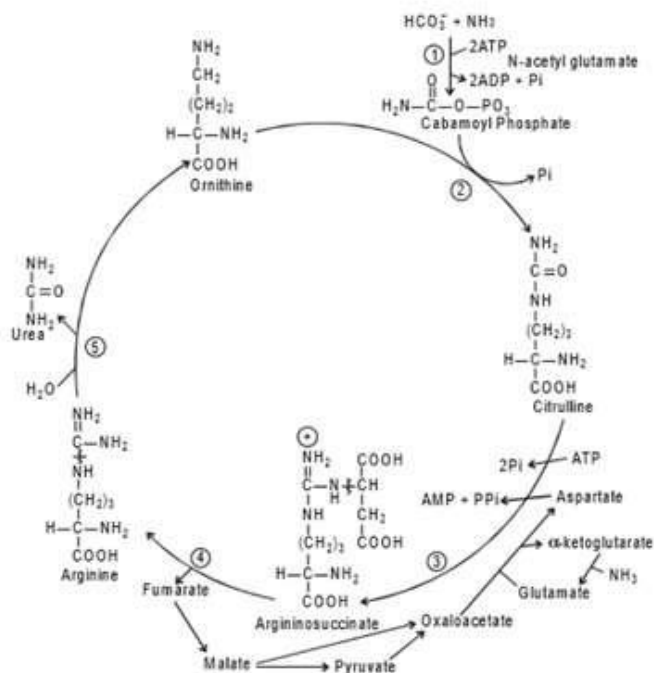
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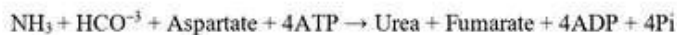
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5. Regeneration of ornithine and formation of urea from arginine is the final reaction of urea cycle. This reaction is catalyzed by arginase.

The ornithine so formed enters mitochondria through specific transporter present in inner mitochondrial membrane to start reactions of urea cycle once again.



Overall equation for urea formation



Fate of urea: Urea has no physiological function. Hence it is transported to kidneys where it is excreted in urine. It is major end product of protein catabolism in humans. About 10-25 gm of urea is excreted in urine per day which makes up to 80-90% of total nitrogen excreted per day. However, blood also contains some urea.

Blood urea Normal blood urea level is 16-36 mg/100 ml.

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Medical Importance: Urea formation is impaired in several inherited diseases. They are due to deficiency of enzymes of urea cycle. Since the urea cycle converts ammonia to urea these disorders of urea cycle cause ammonia intoxication. Some common clinical symptoms seen in these diseases are vomiting, irritability, lethargy, seizures, mental retardation, coma and early death. They are

1. **Hyper- ammonemia Type I :** It is due to deficiency of enzyme carbamoyl phosphate synthetase-I. Mental retardation is the main symptom of this condition.

2. **Hyper- ammonemia Type II:** It is most common among others. It is due to deficiency of enzyme ornithine trans carbamoylase. So, in this condition carbamoyl phosphate accumulates and diverted to pyrimidine formation. This results in excretion of orotic acid and uracil in urine. Glutamate also accumulates in this condition.

3. **Citrullinemia:** This condition is due to the absence of enzyme argininosuccinate synthetase. Hence citrulline accumulates in blood and excreted in urine.

4. **Argininosuccinic aciduria:** Argininosuccinase is absent in this condition. So, argininosuccinate accumulates in blood and excreted in urine.

5. **Hyper- argininemia:** This condition is due to low arginase activity. Hence, arginine accumulates and excreted in urine. However some urea may be excreted in urine due to kidney arginase.

6. **N-acetyl glutamate synthetase deficiency:** It is a rare disorder. N- acetyl glutamate synthetase is involved in formation of N- acetyl glutamate from acetyl- CoA and glutamate. Hyper ammonemia and aminoaciduria occurs in this condition.

Urea production may be decreased in liver diseases

Treatment

Treatment of urea cycle disorders involves removal of excess ammonia from blood and reduction of dietary nitrogen load. Peritoneal dialysis is employed to clear ammonia from blood. Administration of compounds which can increase nitrogen excretion is another line of treatment. Benzoic acid and phenyl acetate are two such compounds used in the treatment.

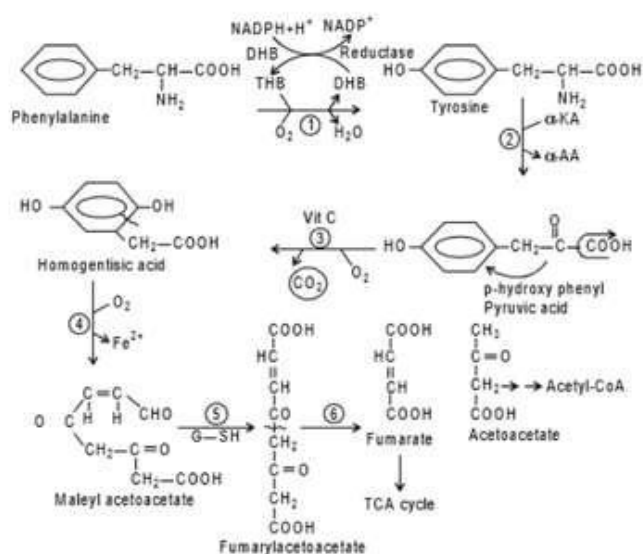
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Metabolism of phenyl alanine and Tyrosine: Phenyl alanine is an essential amino acid. Since tyrosine is a hydroxylated phenyl alanine it is non- essential amino acid. In plants and bacteria, phenyl alanine and tyrosine are synthesized from erythrose- 4- phosphate and phosphoenolpyruvate.

Degradation of phenyl alanine and tyrosine: Phenyl alanine and tyrosine are degraded to fumarate and aceto- acetate. Since degradation of phenylalanine involves first its conversion to tyrosine, a single pathway is responsible for the degradation of both phenylalanine and tyrosine.



Reaction sequence

- 1. Conversion of phenylalanine to tyrosine or tyrosine synthesis:** First reaction of phenylalanine catabolism is its hydroxylation to tyrosine, which requires a cofactor which is not encountered earlier. A tetra hydrobiopterin (THB) requiring phenylalanine hydroxylase catalyzes this hydroxylation. The enzyme is present in liver and it is a monooxygenase.
- 2. Now catabolism of tyrosine begins with transamination.** p- hydroxy phenyl pyruvic acid is produced from tyrosine by the action of tyrosine transaminase in this reaction.

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3. p-hydroxy phenyl pyruvate hydroxylase a copper containing dioxygenase converts p-hydroxy phenyl pyruvic acid to homogentisic acid in a complex reaction involving hydroxylation of benzene ring, decarboxylation and shifting of side chain.

4. In this reaction, benzene ring of homogentisic acid is cleaved by another dioxygenase called as homogentisic acid oxidase to form maleyl aceto acetate.

5. A glutathione dependent maleyl aceto acetate cis- trans isomerase isomerizes maleyl aceto acetate to fumaryl aceto acetate.

6. Finally fumarate and aceto acetate are formed from fumaryl aceto acetate by the action of an hydrolase.

Thus, four atoms of phenylalanine are released as fumarate, one carbon is released as CO₂ and remaining four atoms are released as aceto acetate. Fumarate may undergo further catabolism in TCA cycle.

Biological importance

1. Tyrosine is required for the synthesis of adrenal hormones like epinephrine, norepinephrine and dopamine.
2. Tyrosine is needed for the formation of melanin.
3. Thyroid hormones T3 and T4 are formed from tyrosine.
4. Tyrosine is a precursor of glucose and fatty acids or ketone bodies.
5. For the formation of proteins tyrosine and phenylalanine are required.
6. In the intestine tyrosine is decarboxylated by microorganisms to tyramine.
7. Phosphorylation of tyrosine residues of proteins by kinases affects cell growth.

Unit-9

Lipid Metabolism

- Lipids and fats are the essential element of our body.
- = Lipid and fat are synthesized in liver and absorb in our body.
- Cholesterol and triglycerids are the main lipid which are synthesized and store in the liver.
- The cell membrane of cell of our body is made up of phospholipids which is also the derivative of lipid.
- Some other part and hormone are also made by lipid.
- Lipids are hydrophobic in nature. They are water insoluble. And they transport in our blood in the form of lipoprotein.

Function of lipid

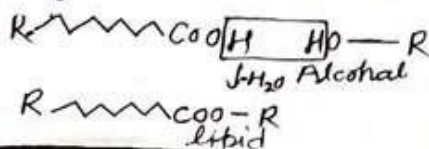
Lipids are imp source of metabolic energy.
And they are rich in oils.

- lipids form the structural component of cell membrane.
- = Lipids are works as biological carriers for the absorption of fat soluble vitamin (A, D, E, K)
- = lipids are the source of essential fatty acid in our body.

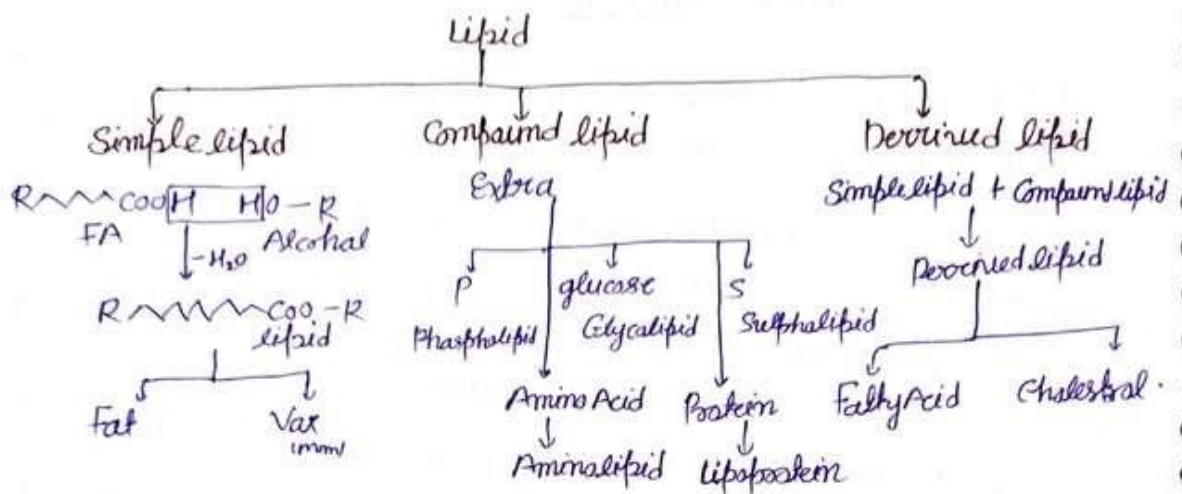
Classification of fat

→ lipids are the ester of fatty acid and alcohol.

- Fatty acids are the long chain of hydrocarbon which contain one carboxylic acid group at the terminal.
- when fatty acid and alcohol are condensed then lipid is form.



On the basis of structure of lipid it can be classified into three type

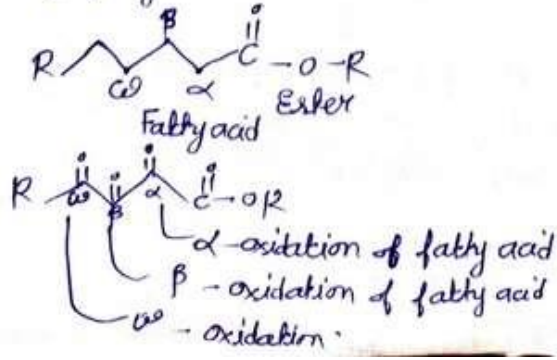


Oxidation of Fatty Acid

The addition of oxygen molecule in the carbon chain of fatty acids is called oxidation of fatty acid.

- The oxidation of fatty acid was first discovered by Knorr in 1905.
- After oxidation of fatty acid a large amount of energy is released.
- On the basis of position of oxidation in fatty acid chain it is of three type.

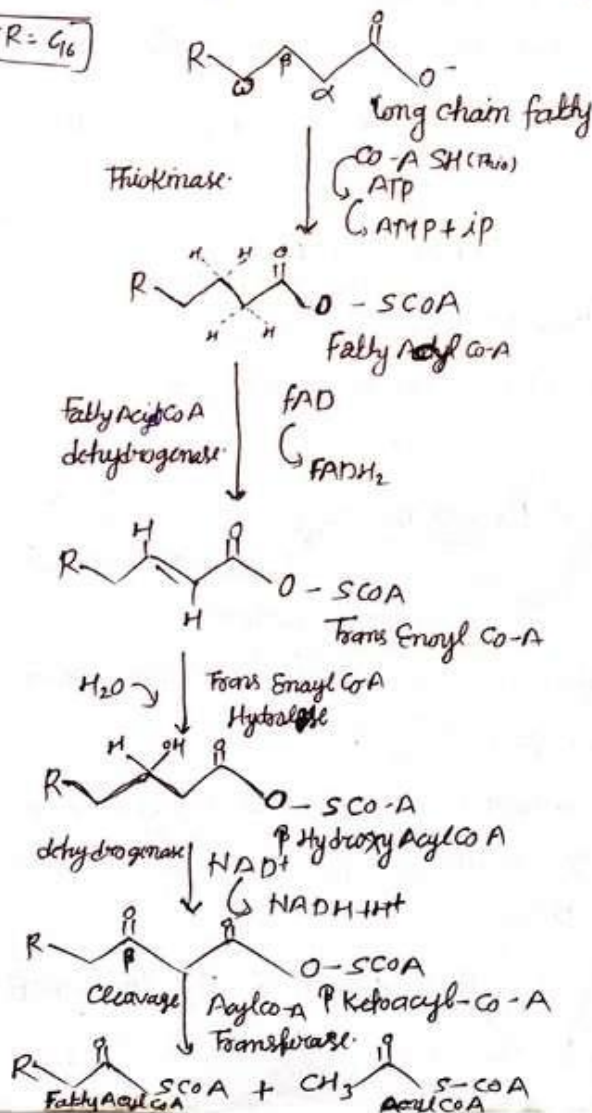
- i) α - Oxidation of fatty acid
- ii) β - Oxidation of fatty acid
- iii) ω - Oxidation of fatty acid



MEnd
 β -oxidation of fatty acid *

- When the oxidation of fatty acid is takes place at β -position then it is called β -oxidation of fatty acid.
- This is most common type of oxidation and it produce high amount of energy.
- In this stage oxidation of fatty acid start by removal of two carbon unit from Acetyl Co-A.
- β oxidation of fatty acid involve following steps.

[where R = C_{16}]



FADH₂ ATP
 NADH - 3 ATP
 151

Energetics of β oxidation of Fatty Acid

Palmitic Acid $\frac{\text{full}}{\text{oxidation}}$ 7 Times.

1 Time — 1 FADH — 2 ATP

1 NADH — 3 ATP

in one cycle = 5 ATP

In complete oxidation = $7 \times 5 = 35 \text{ ATP}$

Total 8 Acetyl Co-A molecule Release

↳ goes in to Krebs cycle

In Krebs cycle — 1 Acetyl CoA = 12 ATP produce.

Total = $8 \times 12 = 96 \text{ ATP}$

$35 + 96 = \boxed{131 \text{ ATP}}$

Total ATP consume = 2

Net gain = $131 - 2 = \boxed{129 \text{ ATP}}$

Cholesterol Biosynthesis & Its metabolism

Cholesterol is a type of

Derived lipid which is waxy in nature.

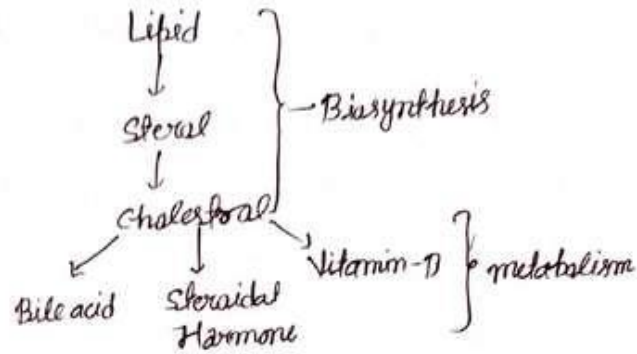
The formation of cholesterol is from sterol molecule which is the derivative of fatty acid.

About 30% part of cell membrane is made by cholesterol.

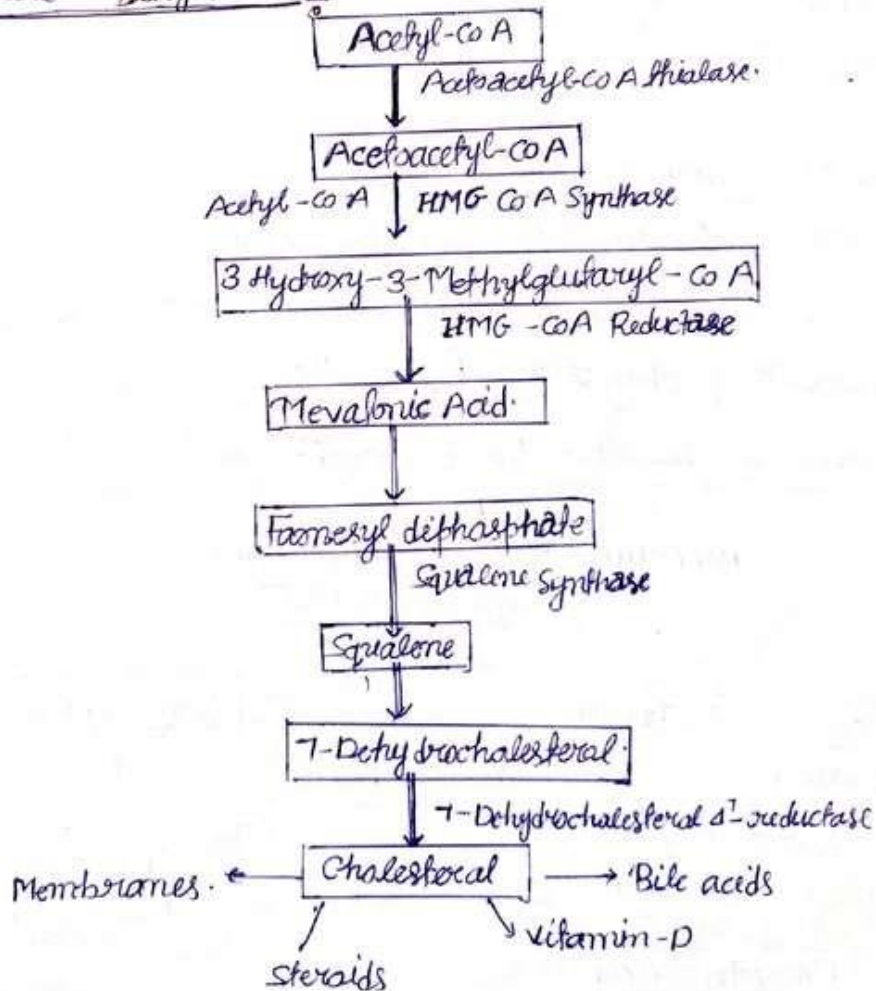
→ Cholesterol also takes part in the biosynthesis of Bile acid, Steroidal hormone and vitamin-D

→ The dietary source of cholesterol is cheese, Egg yolk, ^{fish liver} Beef, Fish, Poultry.

Cholesterol is insoluble in water but it is soluble in organic solvent: chloroform, Benzene, Acetone, Ethanol etc.



Cholesterol Biosynthesis



Biological Significance of Cholesterol.

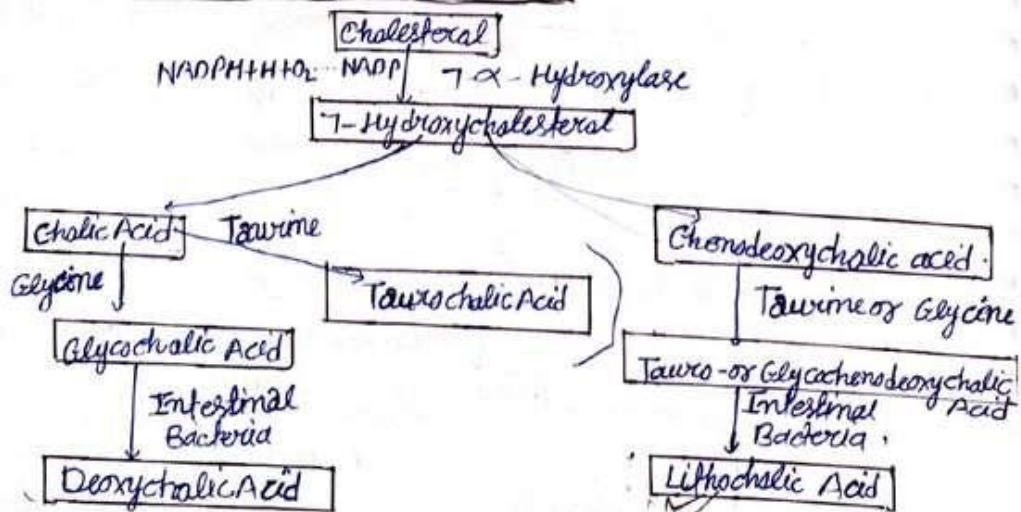
- Cholesterol is the structural component of cell membrane.
 - Cholesterol is an imp precursor for bile acid steroid and vit. D.
 - Cholesterol is an imp for lipoprotein structure.
 - It is imp in the metabolism of fat soluble vit. A, D, E, K.
- Side Effects of high cholesterol level :-

- 1) Atherosclerosis.
- 2) Coronary artery heart disease.
- 3) Heart Attack.
- 4) Angina pectoris.

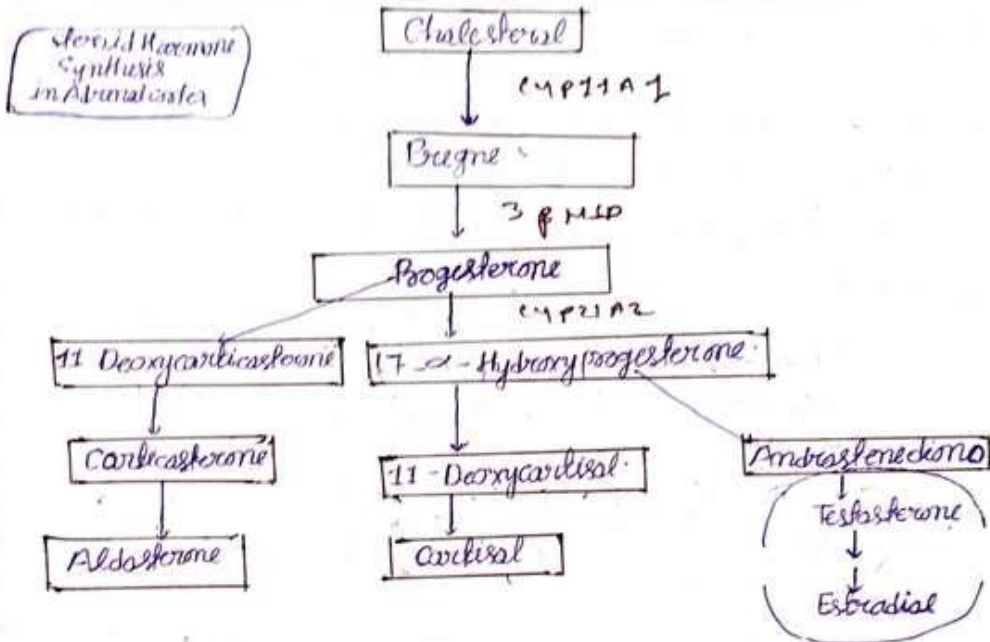
Cholesterol Metabolism :-

- i) Conversion of Cholesterol into bile Acid.
- ii) Conversion of cholesterol into steroid hormone.
- iii) Conversion of cholesterol into vit. D.

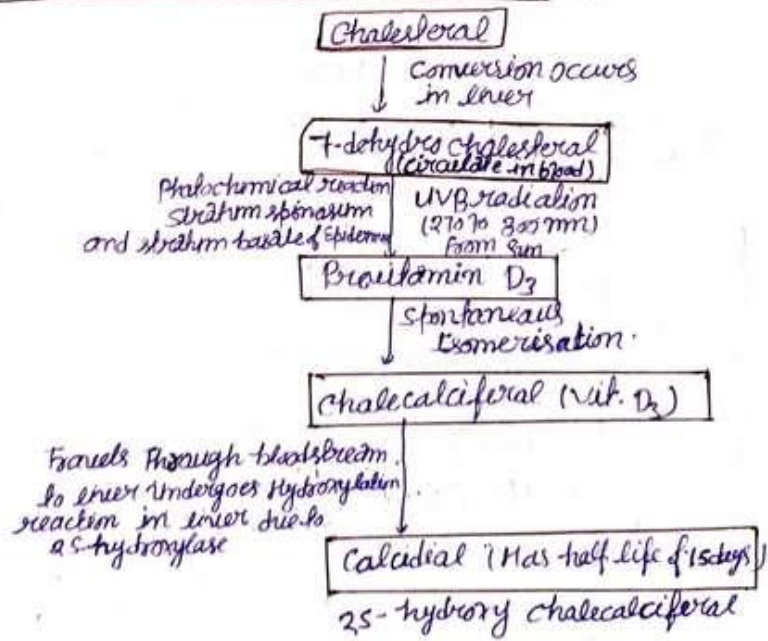
i) Conversion of Cholesterol into bile acid :-



ii) Conversion of cholesterol into steroid Hormone:



iii) Conversion of cholesterol into vitamin-D:



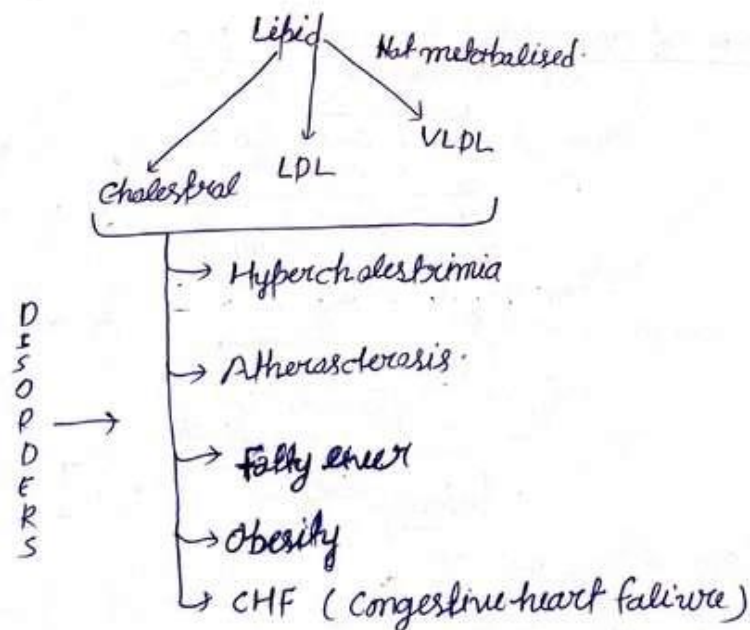
Disorder of Lipid Metabolism

→ Lipid is essential part of our body but when it is not metabolised completely then it converts into bad lipids.

→ LDL (Low density lipid), VLDL, and Cholesterol are sticky in nature so they are called bad lipid.

→ When the level of these bad lipid is increase then it causes diff. disorder.

	Normal	Disease
Cholesterol	200-239 mg/dl	> 240
LDL	100 mg/dl	> 100
VLDL	40 mg/dl	> 40



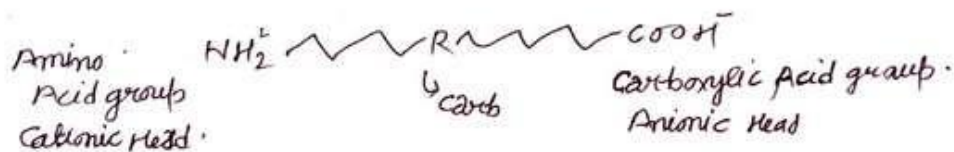
Hypercholestermia :-

The normal level of cholesterol inside the body is 200 to 239 mg/dl if the level of cholesterol is high from its normal value then hypercholestermia disease is occurs.

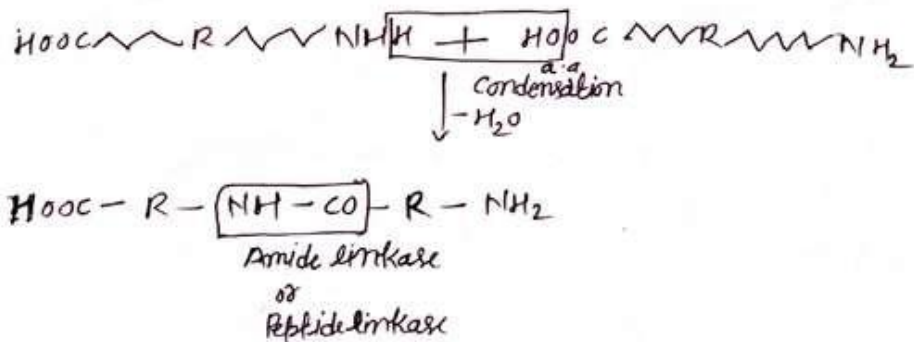
Amino Acid

Amino Acid are the essential molecule of our body
And it is building blocks of protein.

- They provide diff structure of the body.
- Chemically amino acid contain a long carbon chain and contain amine group at one end and carboxylic acid group another end.



- Amino Acids are chemically zwitter ion in nature because it contains both cation and anion in the same compound.
- Several amino acid are combine to each other and after condensation they produce protein in which poly peptide linkage is present.



Classification of amino Acid

On the basis of need or Requirement

- Some Amino Acids are synthesised in our body and some we have take from our diet.

On the basis of need it is of two type -

-i) Essential :-

These amino acid are not synthesised in our body. And we are depends on the fruits, vegetable, and meat for these amino acids.

Ex. Leucine, Isoleucine, Lysine, Phenylalanine, Methionine, Phenyl Alanine, Valine & Tryptophan.

-ii) Non Essential Amino Acid

They are synthesised in our body -

Ex. Asparagine, Alanine, Arginine, Aspartic Acid, Cysteine, Glutamic Acid, Glutamine, Proline, Glycine, Tyrosine & Serine.

On the basis of structure:

A) Containing Sulphur :- Cysteine, Methionine.

B) Neutral in nature :- Asparagine, Serine, Phenylalanine, Glutamine.

C) Acidic in Nature :- Aspartic Acid, glutamic acid.

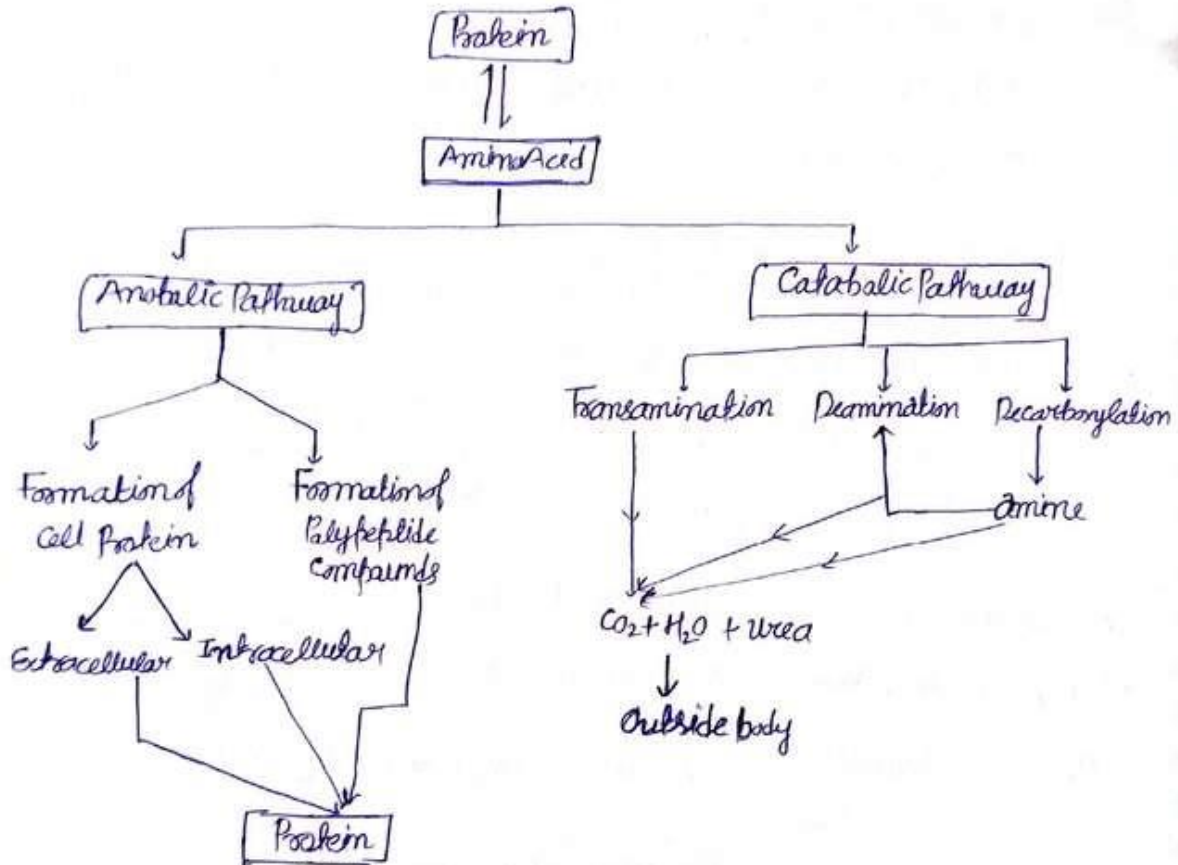
D) Basic in Nature :- Arginine, Lysine.

e) Aliphatic in nature :- Leucine, Isoleucine.

4) Aromatic in Nature :- Phenyl Alanine, Tryptophan.

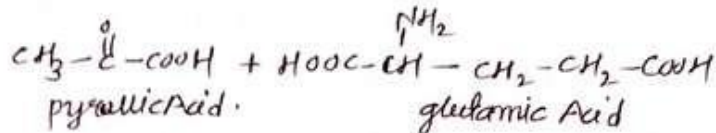
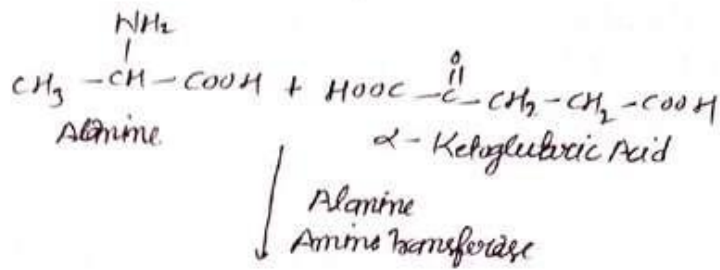
Amino acid Metabolism

Amino acids form the protein after anabolic pathway, and they breakdown into CO_2 , water, urea after catabolic pathway this is called metabolism of amino acid.



Transamination

- This is the transfer of amine group from Amino acid to α -Ketoglutaric Acid.
- α -Ketoglutaric Acid is an intermediate compound of Krebs cycle and it reacts with a.a in the presence of Amino transferase.
- After this process the amine group of a.a. is replaced by carbonyl group and form pyruvic Acid.



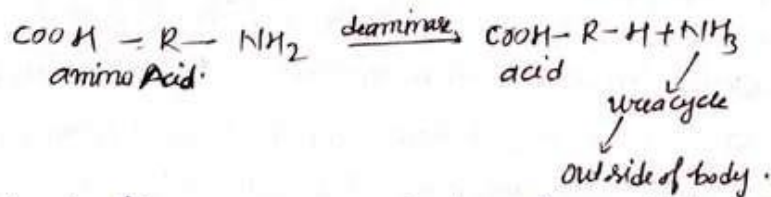
The amino transferase enzyme is specific for diff. diff amino acid. Ex. Alanine Amino Transferase, Sparteke Amino transferase, Methionine, A.T.

This enzyme is present in liver kidney and brain and this is a reversible reaction.

Deamination

The process of removal of amine group from any amino acid and convert into acid is called Deamination.

- This process is controlled by enzyme deaminase.
- This enzyme is present in the liver so all deamination reaction is start in liver.



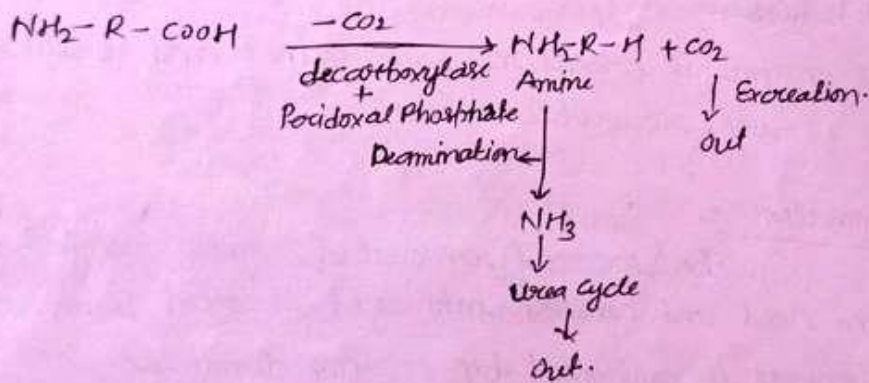
- After deamination process ammonia is release which goes into urea cycle.
- The deamination reaction is may be of following type.

- 1) Reduction Reaction.
- 2) Oxidation Reaction.
- 3) Hydrolytic Rxn
- 4) Intramolecular Rxn.

Decarboxylation

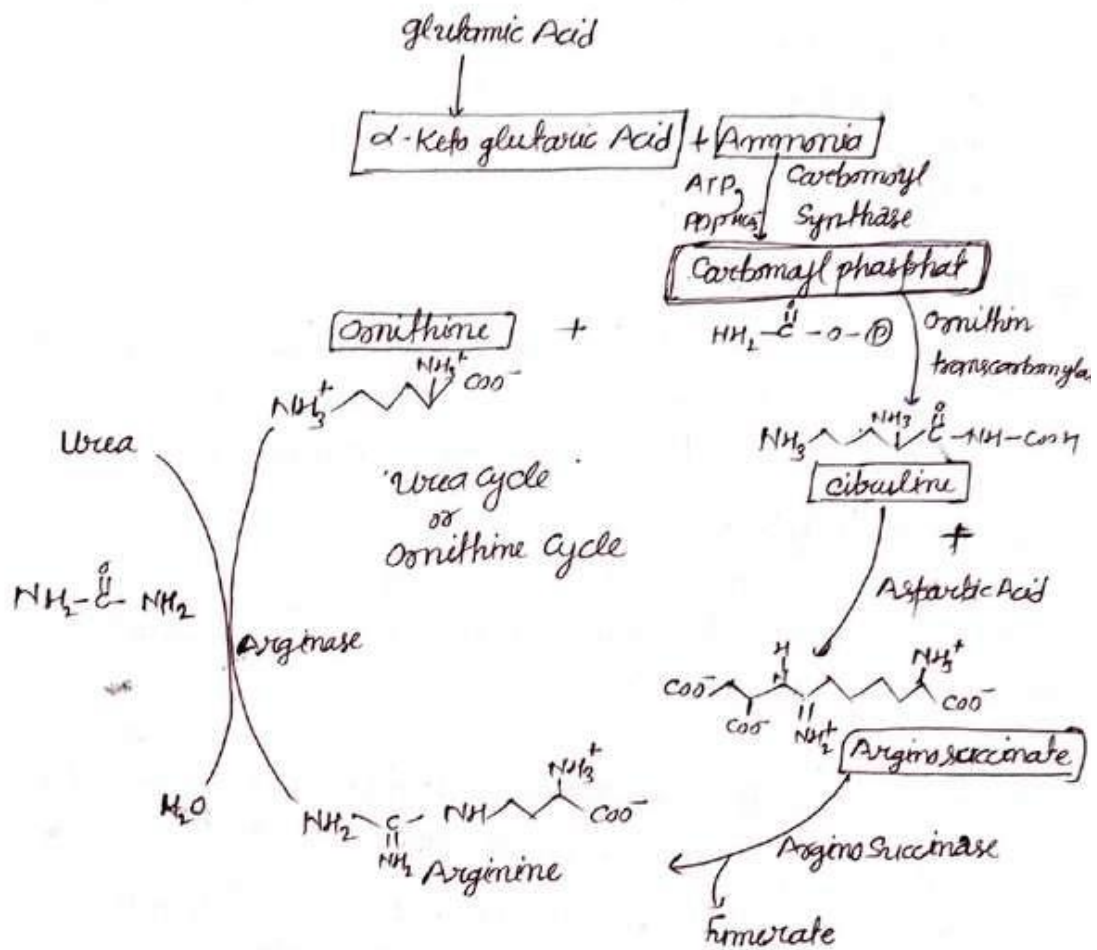
The removal of carboxylic acid group from amino acid by the presence of decarboxylase enzyme is called decarboxylation.

Pyridoxal phosphate (Vit B₆) is used as co-enzyme for this rxn.
 → After decarboxylation process amino acid is converted into amine which further go decamination process and convert into ammonia.



Urea cycle

- Urea cycle is a biochemical process in which ammonia convert into urea.
- Ammonia is a nitrogenous waste which is form by the amino acid metabolism like, Transamination, Decamination, Decarboxylation.
- Ammonia is a toxic substance which is very harmful for body.
- But ammonia cannot be excreted by our kidney.
- So Ammonia is convert into urea and excrete out from body.
- Ornithin is the imp. constituent for urea cycle so it is also k/a ornithin cycle.



- During Each wrea cycle 2 moles of Ammonia is combined with mole of CO₂ and it is convert into 1 mole of wrea and 1 mole of water. and for each cycle three ATP is require.



In wrea cycle following steps are involve -

Metabolic disorder of wrea cycle:-

If in any patient wrea cycle is not properly operate then diff. diff disorder is start in our body -

- Hyperammonia type -1
- Hyperammonia type -2;
- Citrullinemia
- Argininosuccinuria
- Hyperargininemia

→ Hyperammonia type-1

This is caused by the deficiency of enzyme carbonyl phosphate synthase so the ammonia cannot be converted into carbonyl phosphate so the blood ammonia level is ↑.

→ Hyperammonia type-2:

This is caused by the deficiency of enzyme ornithin trans carbonylase in this disorder the level of blood glutamic acid is increase.

→ Citrullinemia =

It is a urethral disorder this is caused by the deficiency of enzyme argininosuccinate synthase.

→ Citrulline is release by the urine 1702 gm/day but if the level is increase then it is called citrullinemia.

- Argininosuccinic aciduria =

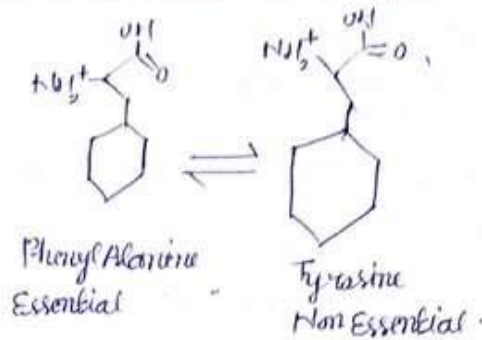
This is a rare disease caused by the deficiency of enzyme argininosuccinase.

In this disorder the level of ammonia is increase in blood and the level of argininosuccinic acid is ↑ in plasma and CSF and blood become acidic.

Hyperargininemia =

This is a genetic disorder and caused by the deficiency of enzyme arginase first this is a mental disorder. In which the growth is also affected by increase in the arginine level.

Catabolism of Phenylalanine & Tyrosine



Phenylalanine and tyrosine are the aromatic amino acids

Phenylalanine is essential amino acid because it is not synthesised in our body, and phenylalanine is converted into tyrosine so tyrosine is non essential amino acid.

Phenylalanine is source of energy for precursor of neurotransmitters.

- The catabolism of phenylalanine involve following steps.

Formation of Melanin :-

Melanin is a black pigment which is present in the skin of animal which decide the color of skin.

Phenyl alanine is converted in to tyrosine in the liver and tyrosine convert into melanin.

The conversion of tyrosine into melanin involve following step.

The first step is

Metabolic disorder :-

Phenyl Ketonuria :-

Phenyl alanine is convert into tyrosine with the help of enzyme phenyl alanine hydroxylase.

- If these enzyme is not work in then the level of phenyl alanine is increase in urine this condition is called phenyl ketonuria.

Some general symptom of disorder is -

- 1) Eczema - infection of skin.
- ii) Foul Smell - ~~infection of skin~~
- iii) Discoloration of skin (infection)

2) Albinism :-

- Albinism term is derived from term Albino which means white.
- Tyrosine is converted into melanin pigment by the help of enzyme Tyrosinase but when this enzyme is inhibited then the formation of melanin pigment is ~~stop~~ ^{stop} then skin become white.
 - The condition in which skin color becomes white and absence of Albino this is called albinism.
 - It is also k/a Achromia and it is a genetic disorder.

Symptom :-

- White skin and red hair.
- Problem in vision.
- Eye color is blue, Red or Brown.
- They face the problem of ^{getting irritated} photobia & ^{skin Redness} Sunburn.

3) Alkaptonuria :-

- It is also k/a black urine disease and it is the genetic disorder.
- When phenyl alanine and tyrosine is not completely converted into malylacetoacetic Acid (MAA) Due to deficiency of enzyme HGP (Homogentisic dioxygenase)
 - Due to this disorder ~~urine~~ urine color becomes black.

Biosynthesis of purine nucleotides:

Many compounds contribute to the purinering of the nucleotides:

1. N₁ of purine is derived from amino group of aspartate.
2. C₂ and C₅ arise from formate of N¹⁰formyl THF.
3. N₃ and N₉ are obtained from amide group of glutamine.
4. C₄, C₅ and N₇ are contributed by glycine.
5. C₆ directly comes from CO₂.

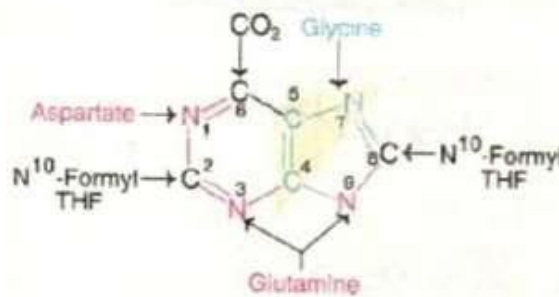
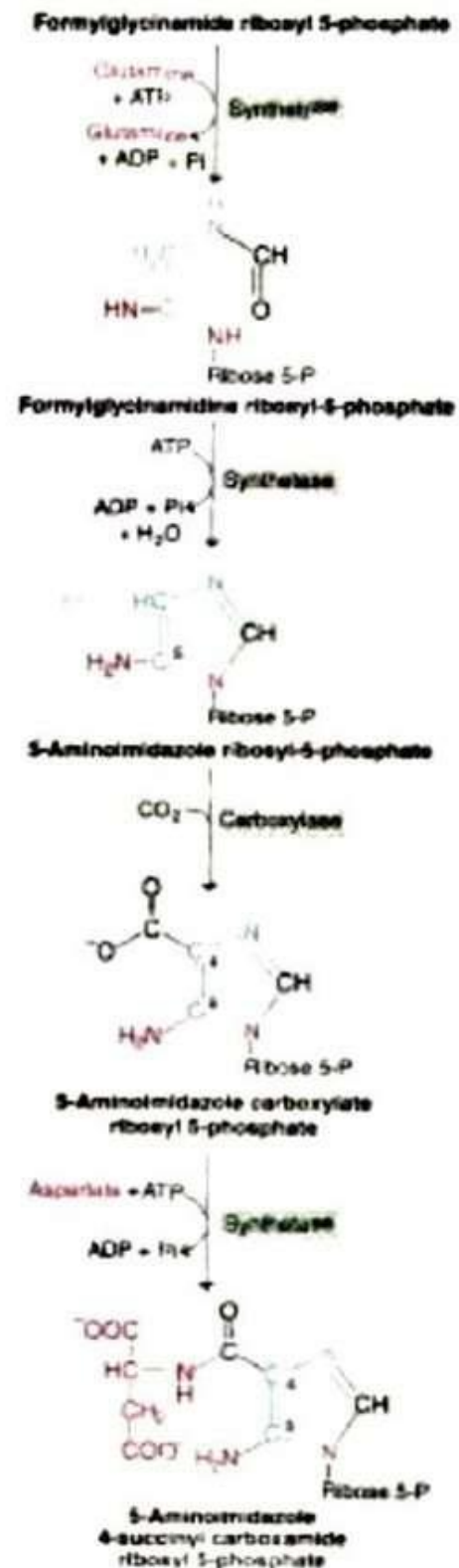
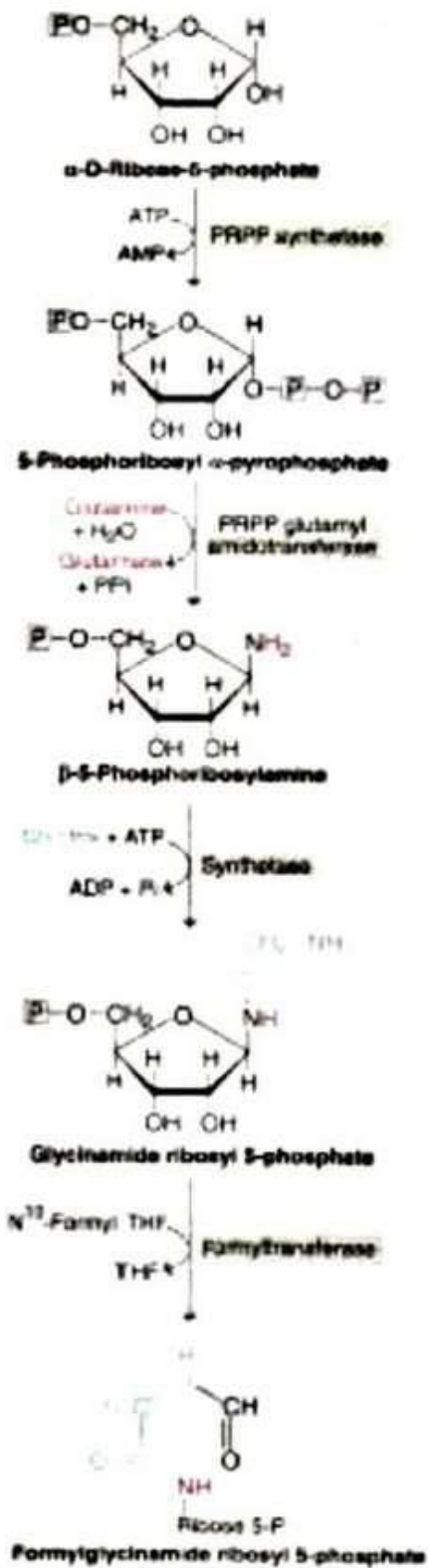


Fig. 1 The sources of individual atoms in purine ring.

Purine bases are not synthesized as such, but they are formed as ribonucleotides. The purines are built upon a pre-existing ribose 5-phosphate. Liver is the major site for purine nucleotide synthesis. Erythrocytes, polymorphonuclear leukocytes, and brain cannot produce purines.



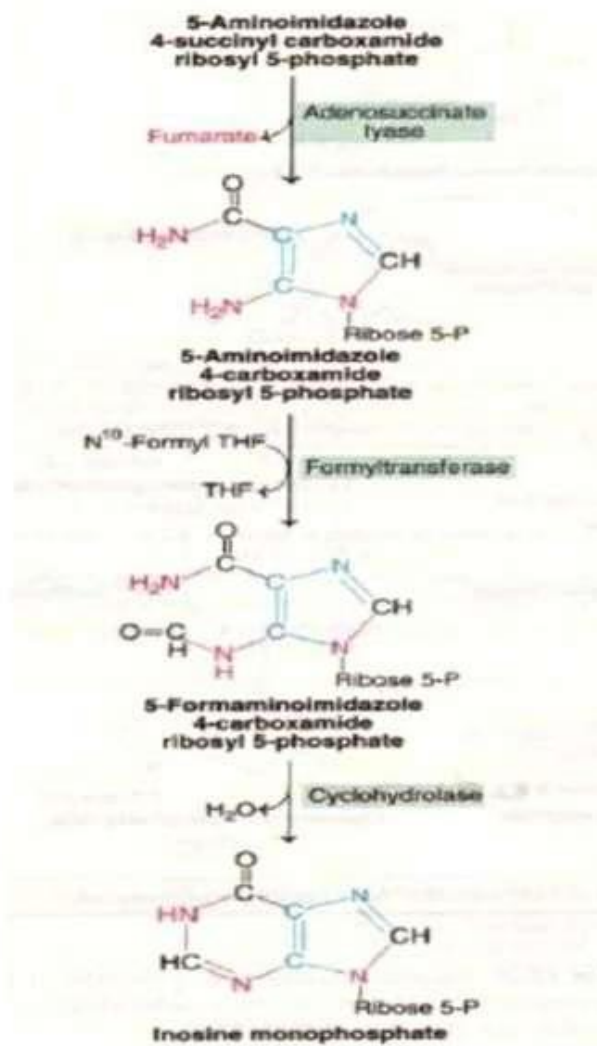


Fig.2: The metabolic pathway for the synthesis of inosine monophosphate, the parent purine nucleotide (PRPP-Phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate; PPI-Pyrophosphate).

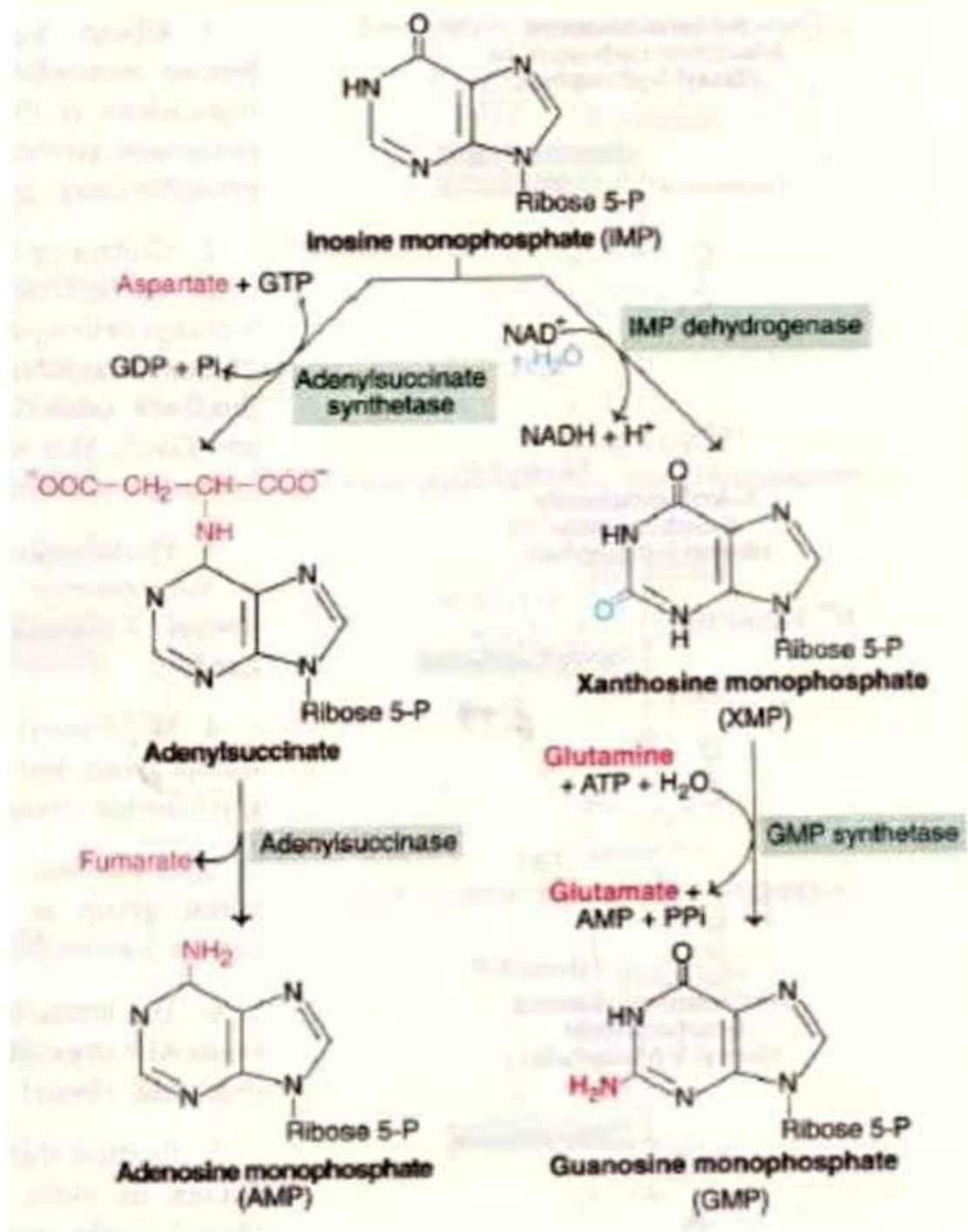


Fig.3: Synthesis of AMP and GMP from inosine monophosphate.

Degradation of purine nucleotide:

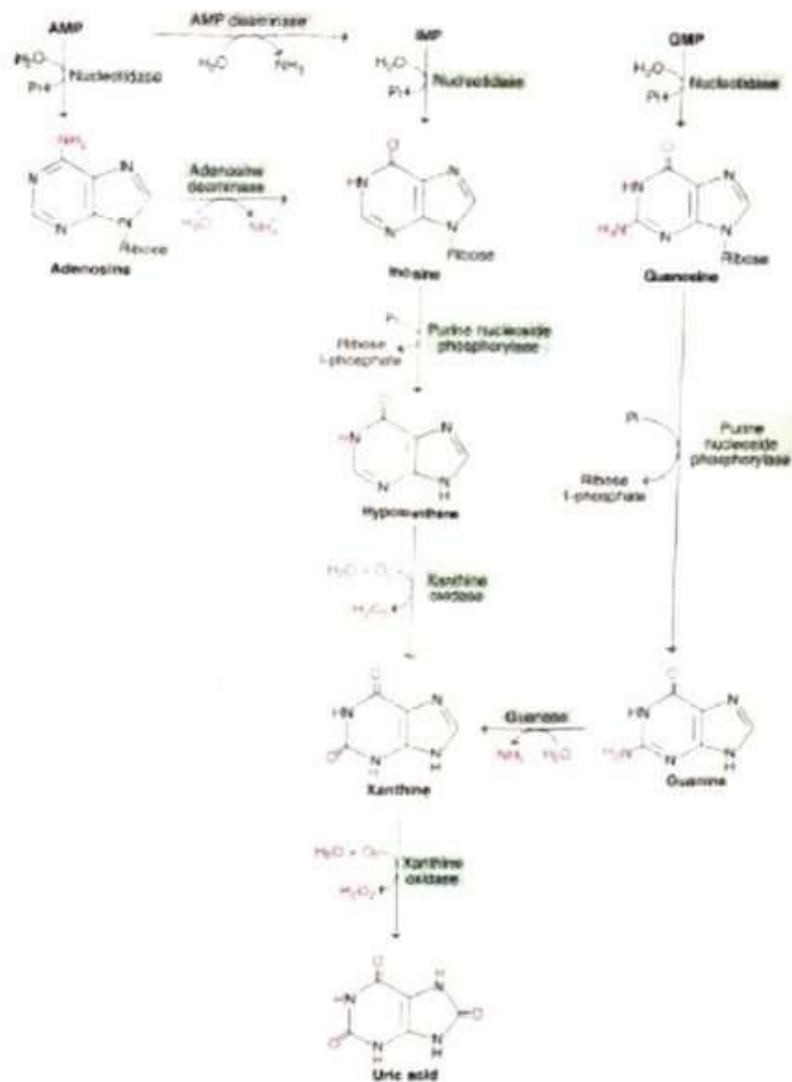


Fig.7: Degradation of purine nucleotide to uric acid (AMP-Adenosine monophosphate, IMP-Inosine monophosphate, GMP- Guanosine monophosphate).

Disorder of purine metabolism:

Gout is of two types-primary and secondary.

1. Primary gout: It is an inborn error of metabolism due to over production of uric acid. This is mostly related to increased synthesis of purine nucleotides. The following are the important metabolic defects (enzymes) associated with primary gout (Fig. 9)

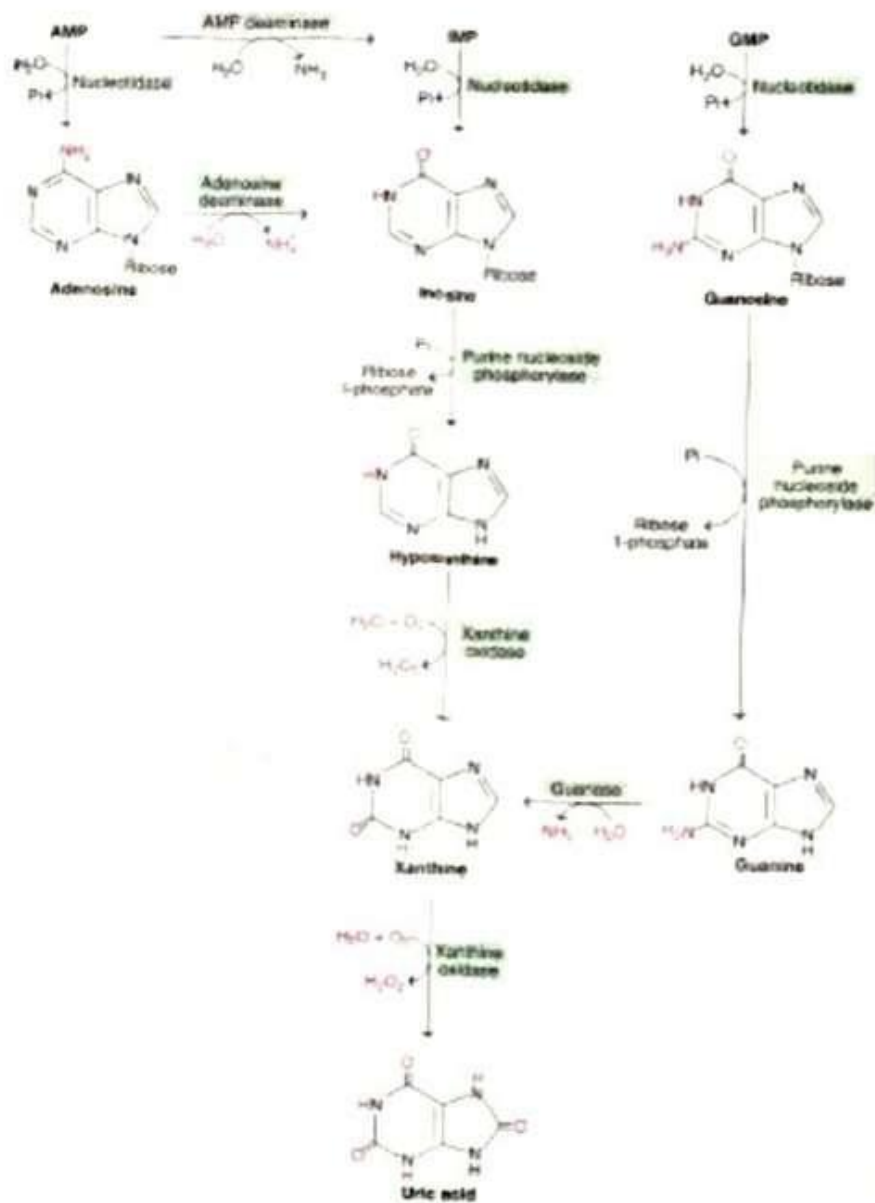
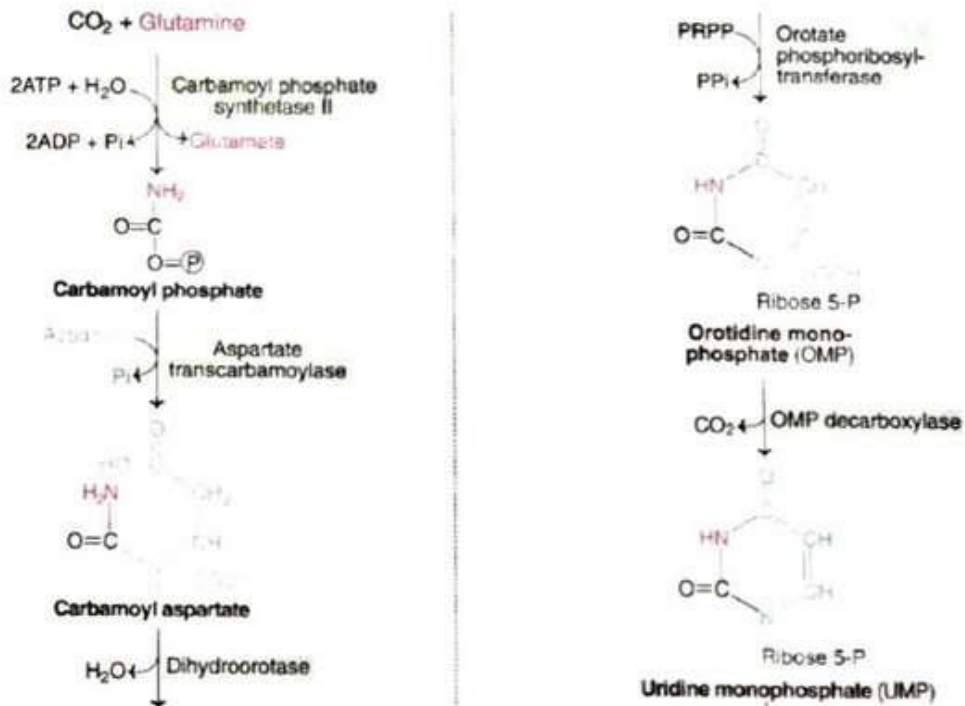


Fig.7: Degradation of purine nucleotide to uric acid (AMP-Adenosine monophosphate, IMP-Inosine monophosphate, GMP- Guanosine monophosphate).

Biosynthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides:

Pyrimidine ring is first synthesized and then attached to ribose5-phosphate. This is in contrast to purine nucleotide synthesis where in purine ring is built upon a pre-existing ribose 5-phosphate. The pathway of pyrimidine synthesis is depicted in

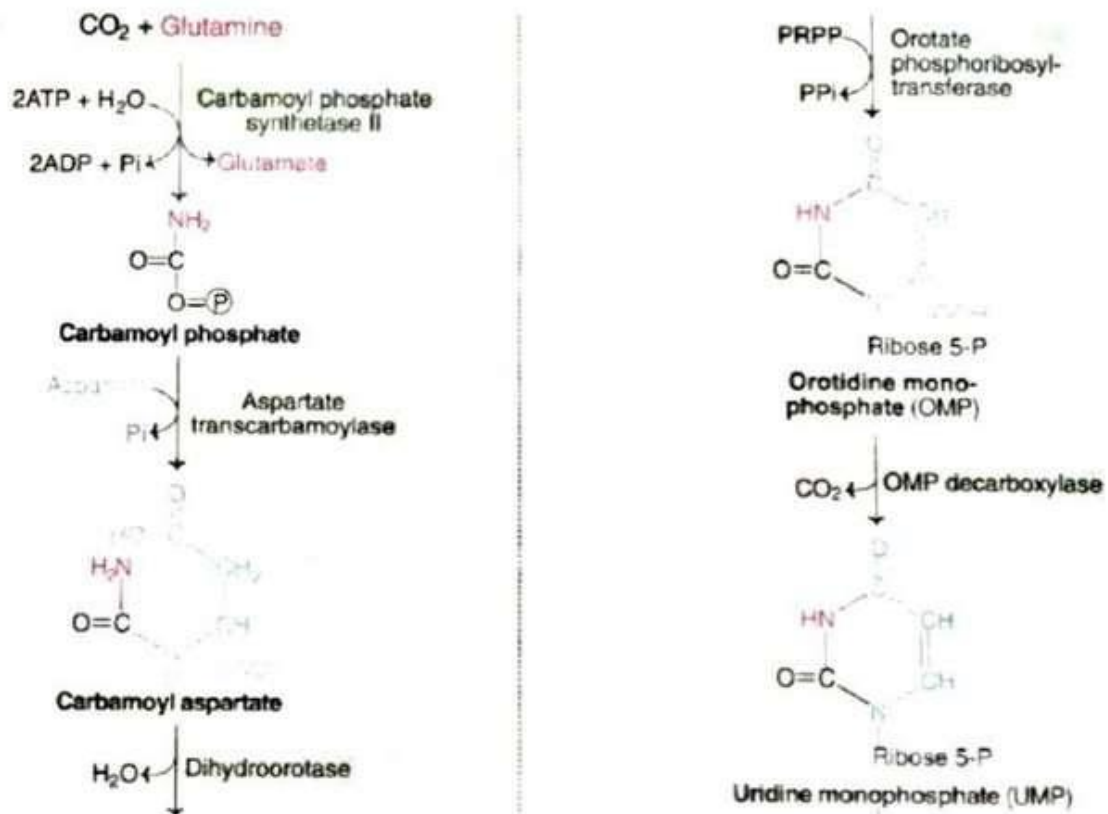
Fig.12, and the salient features are described below:



Biosynthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides:

Pyrimidine ring is first synthesized and then attached to ribose 5-phosphate. This is in contrast to purine nucleotide synthesis where the purine ring is built upon a pre-existing ribose 5-phosphate. The pathway of pyrimidine synthesis is depicted in

Fig.12, and the salient features are described below:



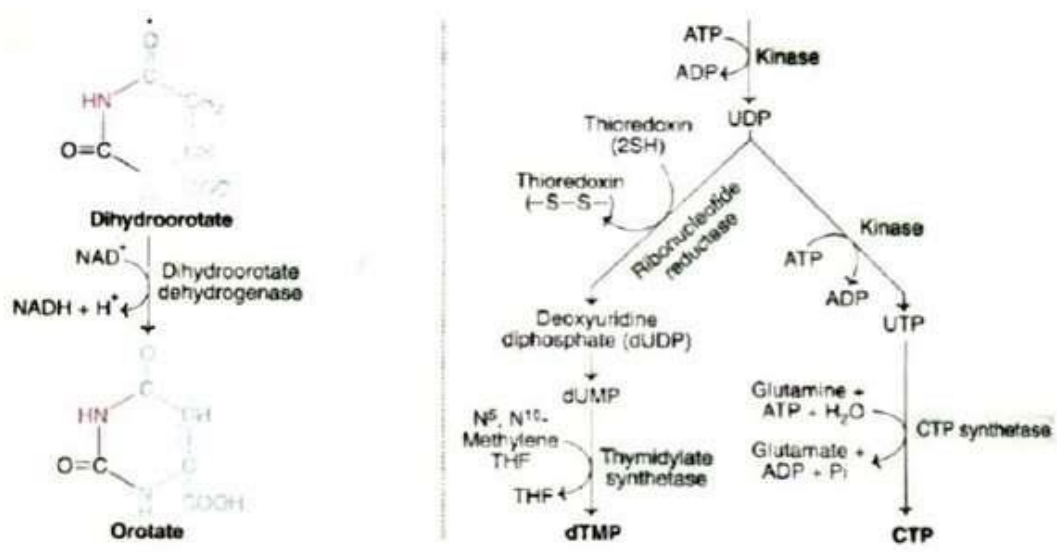


Fig.12 Metabolic pathway for the synthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides

Structure of RNA:

RNA is a polymer of ribonucleotides held together by 3',5'-phosphodiester bridges. Although RNA has certain similarities with DNA structure, they have specific differences:

1. Pentose: The sugar in RNA is ribose in contrast to deoxyribose in DNA.
2. Pyrimidine: RNA contains the pyrimidine uracil in place of thymine (in DNA).
3. Single strand: RNA is usually a single stranded polynucleotide. However, this strand may fold at certain places to give a double stranded structure, if complementary base pairs are in close proximity.
4. Chargaff's rule-not obeyed: Due to the single-stranded nature, there is no specific relation between purine and pyrimidine contents. Thus, the guanine content is not equal to cytosine (as is the case in DNA).
5. Susceptibility to alkali hydrolysis: Alkali can hydrolyse RNA to 2',3'-cyclic diesters. This is possible due to the presence of a hydroxyl group at 2' position. DNA cannot be subjected to alkali hydrolysis due to lack of this group.
6. Orcinol colour reaction: RNAs can be histologically identified by orcinol colour reaction due to the presence of ribose.

Types of RNA:

The three major types of RNAs with their respective cellular composition are given below:

1. Messenger RNA (mRNA): 5-10%
2. Transfer RNA (tRNA): 10-20%
3. Ribosomal RNA (rRNA): 50-80%

Messenger RNA (mRNA):

The mRNA is synthesized in the nucleus (in eukaryotes) as heterogeneous nuclear RNA (hnRNA). hnRNA, mRNA has high molecular weight with a short half-life.

The eukaryotic mRNA is capped at the 5'-terminal end by 7-methylguanosine triphosphate. It is believed that this cap helps to prevent the hydrolysis of mRNA by 5'-exonucleases.

Transfer RNA (tRNA):

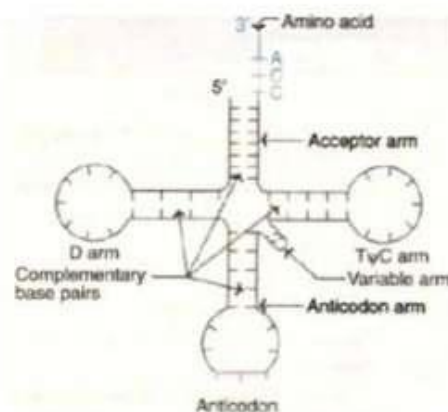


Fig. Structure of transfer RNA

1. The acceptor arm: This arm is capped with a sequence CCA (5' to 3'). The amino acid is attached to the acceptor arm.

Ribosomal RNA (rRNA):

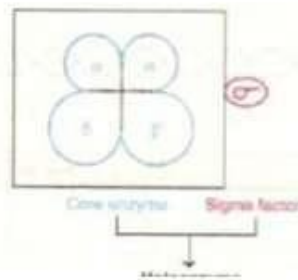
The ribosomes are the factories of protein synthesis. The eukaryotic ribosomes are composed of two major nucleoprotein complexes-60S subunit and 40S subunit. The 60S subunit contains 28S rRNA, 5.8S rRNA and 5.8S rRNA while the 40S subunit contains 18S rRNA. The function of rRNAs in ribosomes is not clearly known. It is believed that they play a significant role in the binding of mRNA to ribosomes and protein synthesis.

Transcription:

Transcription is a process in which ribonucleic acid (RNA) is synthesized from DNA. The word gene refers to the functional unit of the DNA that can be transcribed. Thus, the genetic information stored in DNA is expressed through RNA. For this purpose, one of the two strands of DNA serves as a template (non-coding strand or sense strand) and produces working copies of RNA molecules. The other DNA strand which does not participate in transcription is referred to as coding strand or antisense strand (frequently referred to as coding strand since with the exception of T for U, primary mRNA contains codons with the same base sequence).

Transcription is selective:

The entire molecule of DNA is not expressed in transcription. RNAs are synthesized only for some selected regions of DNA. For certain other regions of DNA, there may not be any transcription at all.



Nucleic acid metabolism & genetic information transfer

Unit = 1

DNA Replication

- 1) Autocatalytic % - DNA direct the synthesis of DNA itself & form duplicate copy
egs. $\text{DNA} \rightarrow \text{DNA}$
- 2) Heterocatalytic \rightarrow DNA direct the formation of chemical other than itself

Mechanism of DNA replication (Semi-conservative)

- \rightarrow unwinding of double helix takes place
•• Hydrogen bond b/w two strands are very weak.
- \rightarrow when these two strands separate out each part of one strand constitute the complementary part of other strand
- \rightarrow two parental strand do not separate completely, but are opened up at Replication fork
- \rightarrow Due to this process exact nucleotide sequence would be automatically formed.
- \rightarrow thus regeneration of DNA helix occur with one strand of original helix combining with freshly formed complement

DNA replication (steps)

1) Activation of deoxyribonucleoside :-

4 nucleosides of DNA i.e. AMP, GMP, CMP & TMP are activated by ATP to form ATP, GTP, CTP & TTP. Enzyme required at this step is phosphorylase.

2) Recognition Initiation point :-

from a particular point ⁱⁿ winding of DNA molecule starts, this specific point is called initiation point.

3) Unwinding of DNA molecule :-

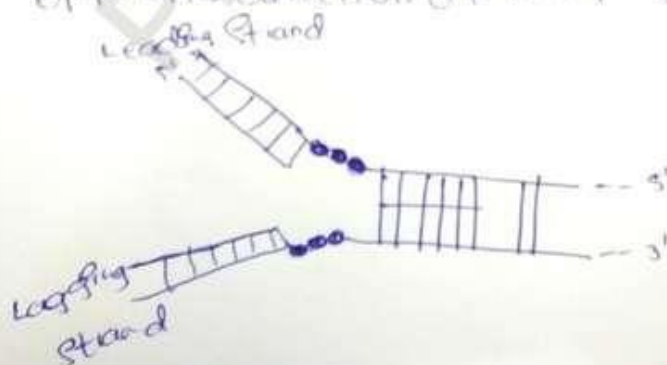
DNA double helix unwind & uncoil into single strand of DNA by breakdown of weak hydrogen bond. Unwinding of a helix is helped by enzyme. Enzyme Topoisomerase cut & rejoin strand of DNA helping the separating of DNA helix.

4) formation of RNA primer :-

DNA directed RNA polymerase from RNA primer.

5) formation of new DNA chains :-

The enzyme DNA polymerase can polymerise the nucleotide only in $5' \rightarrow 3'$ direction. Because the two strands of DNA are in anti parallel direction the two strands synthesized by growing in opposite direction of DNA polymerase.



6) Removal of RNA Primers

Once the small pieces of Okazaki fragments have been formed primer is removed from 5' end one by one by exonuclease activity of DNA polymerase

7) Proof reading & DNA repair

The specificity of base pairing ensures exact replication. Wrong bases can be identified and corrected by "Repair enzyme nuclease"

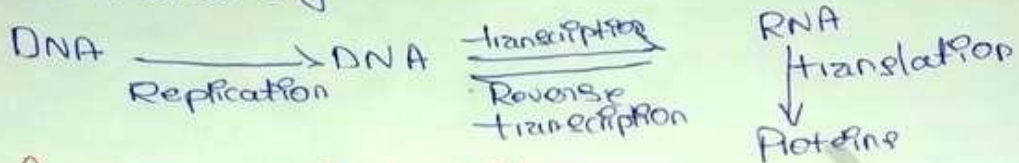
Transcription

Transcription is process in which RNA is synthesized from DNA. the word gene refers functional unit of the DNA that can be transcribed.

- During the process of transcription second strand of DNA with 5'-3' formed
- In RNA strand uracil is substituted for thymine
- DNA strand which is not taking part in transcription is displaced the non-coding strand of DNA is called coding strand.
- The promoter is present on 5' end of structural gene the promoter & terminator is exist on extreme sides of structural gene.

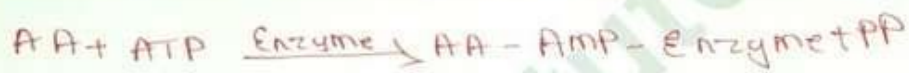
Translation (Protein Synthesis)

The Proteins have significant role in structural & functional organization of the cell.



a) Activation of Amino acids

This reaction brought about by binding of amino acid with ATP. The specific enzyme called amino acyl RNA Synthetase



b) Transfer of amino acid to t-RNA

AA-AMP-enzyme complex formed, react with specific t-RNA. Thus amino acid is transferred to t-RNA. As a result the enzyme & AMP are liberated.



c) Initiation of Polypeptide chains

Charged t-RNA shift to Ribosome. Ribosome is the site where the protein synthesis occur. mRNA binds to 30S subunit Ribosome of 70S type. The information for sequence of AA present in sequence of nitrogen bases of mRNA.

Important Questions

10 marks

- 1) Describe the biosynthesis of Purine nucleotides
- 2) Describe the biosynthesis of Pyrimidine nucleotides
- 3) Explain the biosynthesis of Protein in the body

5 marks

- 1) Describe the double helical structure of DNA
- 2) Explain different types of RNA
- 3) Define genetic code & give its salient features
- 4) Explain Protein Synthesis

2 marks

- 1) Define nucleoside & nucleotide
- 2) What is translation & transcription?
- 3) What is gene?
- 4) What are the functions of tRNA?
- 5) ~~What are~~ write the difference b/w DNA & RNA

Enzyme

Enzymes are the bio catalyst which control the biochemical reaction in the living body.

Those chemical reaction which perform in body is called biochemical reaction.

Enzyme can increase or decrease ^{the rate of} bio chemical reaction.

Properties of Enzyme

1. Enzymes are required in small amount.
2. They do not consume in biochemical reaction.
3. Enzymes are made up of protein.
4. They inactivated by heat and change in pH.

Name of Enzyme

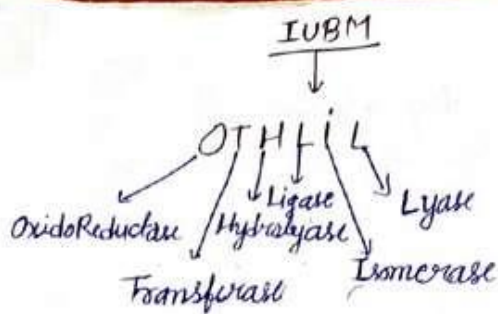
During the nomenclature of enzyme suffix 'ase' is added in the name.

Suffix - "ase"

Maltose	→	Maltase
Protein	→	Protease
Lactose	→	Lactase
Amylin	→	Amylase
Dehydration	→	Dehydrase
CO ₂ Remove	→	Decarboxylase
H ₂ Remove	→	Dehydrogenase

Classification of Enzyme

The Classification of Enzyme was given by IUBM (Agency) (International Union of Bio molecule agency). IUBM classify the enzymes into six category.



Oxidoreductase $\frac{\circ}{\circ}$ When oxidation and reduction reaction takes place then oxidoreductase enzyme are used.

ex Oxidation $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} O \text{ Add} \rightarrow \text{Oxidase} \\ H_2 \text{ Remove} \rightarrow \text{Dehydrogenase} \end{array} \right.$

Reduction $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} O \text{ Remove} \rightarrow \text{deoxidase} \\ H_2 \text{ Add} \rightarrow \text{Hydrogenase} \end{array} \right.$

Transferase $\frac{\circ}{\circ}$ In chemical reaction when any group is transfer from one molecule to another then it is called transferase enzyme.

group	Enzyme
Amine	→ Transaminase
Peptide	→ Transpeptidase

Hydrolase $\frac{\circ}{\circ}$ when any molecule is hydrolyse in the presence of water then it is called hydrolase enzyme.

Carbohydrate
 Esterase
 Protease

Ligase

When 2 molecules are link by enzyme.

DNA ligase
Acetyl Co-A- ligase.
Succinyl Co-A- ligase.

Isomerase

When any compound convert into their isomer.

Ex → Isomerase
⇒ Epimerase
→ Racemase

Lyase

When any complex molecule break into 2 molecule.

Ex. Carboxylase
Decarboxylase

Mechanism of Enzyme Action:

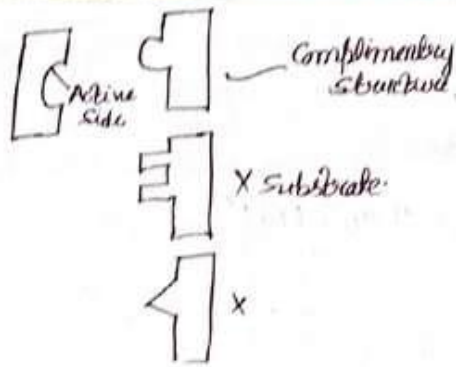
Enzyme binds with substrate and convert substrate into product.

Enzyme and substrate are ~~complement~~ the complementary structure of each other.

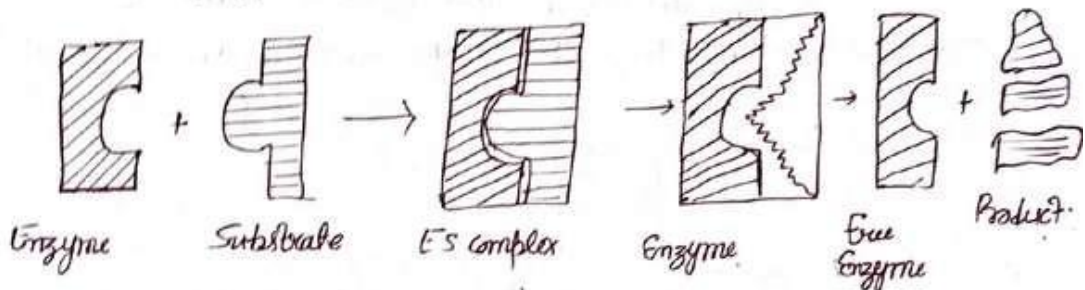
Enzyme have active site through which enzyme and substrate are bind like lock & key.

After binding they form enzyme substrate complex.

After the complex formation the substrate is convert in to product. and enzyme becomes free so it will bind with another substance.

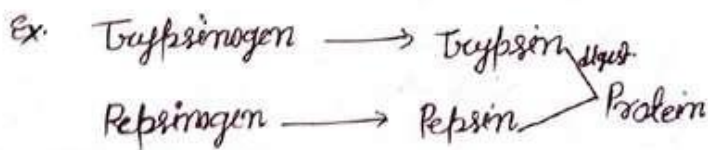
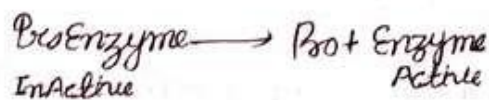


Mechanism of Enzyme action



Pro Enzyme \div (Zymogen):

Pro Enzyme are the enzymes which are ~~in~~ inactive form but after releasing the pro group it becomes Active and perform the action.



Iso Enzyme \div

These enzyme which have diff. physical & chemical properties but their mode of Action is same. They are called Isoenzyme.

Ex. Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) exist in five form. All have diff. physical & chemical properties but all of them convert lactic acid into pyruvic Acid.

Lactic Acid

↓ LDH (Lactate dehydrogenase)

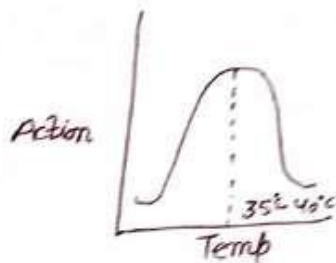
Pyruvic Acid

$LDH_1, LDH_2, LDH_3, LDH_4, LDH_5$

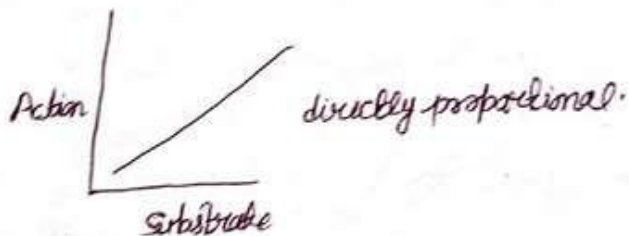
Factors Affecting Enzyme Action

1. Temperature

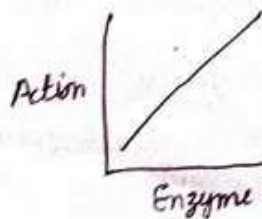
Enzyme works at optimum temp $35^{\circ}C - 40^{\circ}C$
When temp are increase or decrease then Action is decrease.



2. Conc of Substrate The conc of substrate is directly proportional to enzyme action.

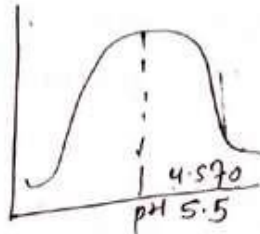


(3) Concentration of Enzyme The conc of enzyme is also directly proportional to the enzyme Action.



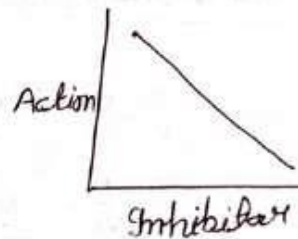
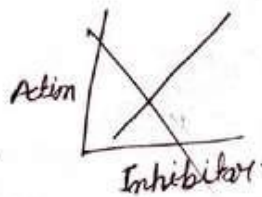
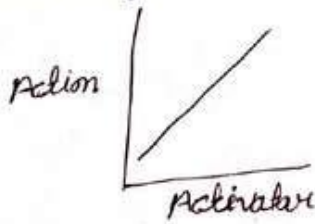
④ pH Range: All enzyme works on optimum pH range 4.5 to 5.5 in pH range.

As well as we increase or decrease the pH the enzyme action is decrease.



⑤ Activators and Inhibitors

The concentration of Activator is directly proportional and the conc. of inhibitors are ~~inversely~~ ~~proportional~~ proportional to enzyme action.

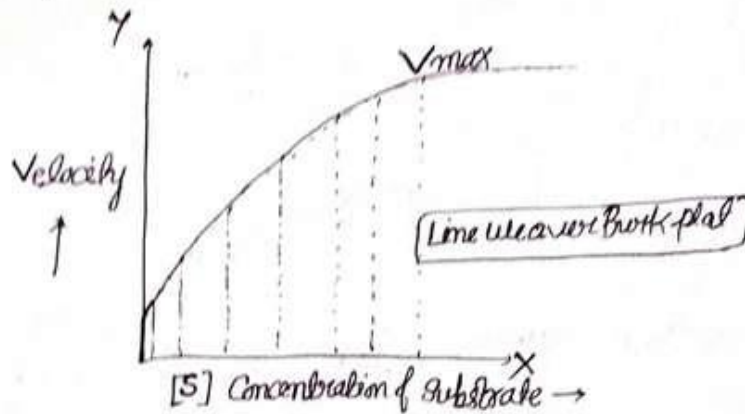


Michaelis Menten Equation

Scientist Michaelis and Menten give the relationship b/w velocity of reaction and conc. of substrate. Velocity is plotted on 'Y' axis and conc of substrate is plotted on 'X' axis.

- At initial concentration the velocity is zero but as well as concentration is increase then the velocity is also increase.
- After reaching the V_{max} the velocity of reaction is become constant.

This graph is called line weaver-burk plot.



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

Where - v_0 = initial Velocity
 v_{max} - Maximum Velocity
 $[S]$ - Conc of Substrate.
 K_m - Michaelis menten Constant

Inverse the Equation

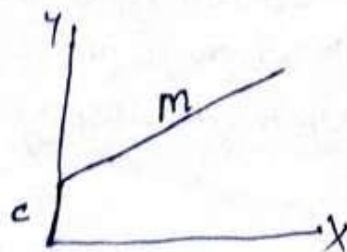
$$\frac{1}{v_0} = \frac{K_m + [S]}{v_{max} \times [S]}$$

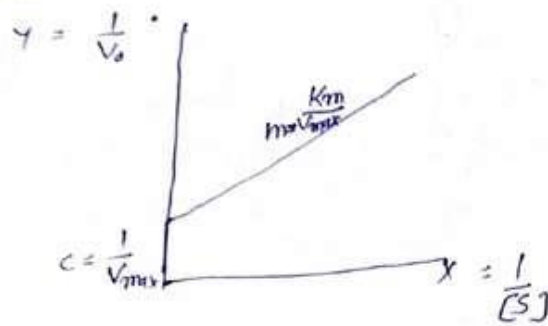
$$\frac{1}{v_0} = \frac{K_m}{v_{max} \times [S]} + \frac{[S]}{v_{max} \times [S]}$$

$$\frac{1}{v_0} = \frac{K_m}{v_{max}} \times \frac{1}{[S]} + \frac{1}{v_{max}}$$

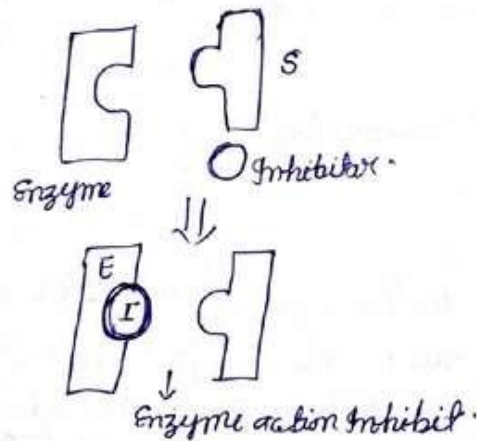
Linear graph Equation :

$$y = mx + c$$





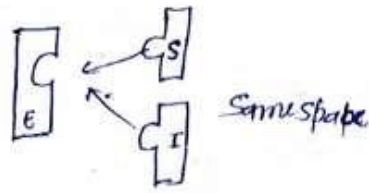
Mechanism of Enzyme Inhibition = When inhibitor molecule bind with the active side of enzyme then it block the active side of enzyme so the substrate cannot bind with the enzyme. So no action is produce this is called enzyme inhibition.



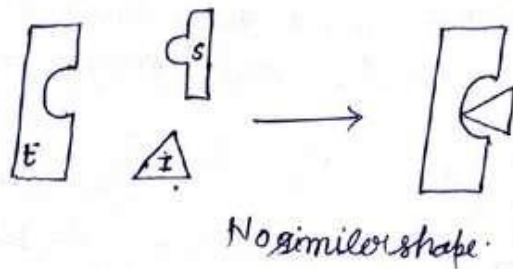
Types of Enzyme Inhibition It is of three type.

1. Competitive Inhibition
2. Non Competitive Inhibition.
- 3) Allosteric Inhibition

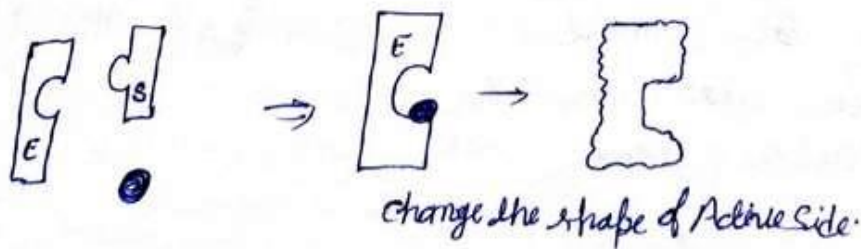
1. Competitive Inhibition when the structure and shape of inhibitor is similar to the substrate then it is called competitive inhibitor.



2. Non Competitive Inhibition :- When the structure and shape of Inhibitor is not similar to the substrate then this is called Non Competitive Inhibition.



3. Allosteric Inhibition :- In this type of inhibition when Inhibitor is bind with the enzyme then it change the shape of Active side so substrate cannot bind with enzyme and no action is produce this is called Allosteric Inhibition.



Isoenzyme :

These enzymes which have diff. Codon structure, diff. Function, Diff. Isoelectric point, diff. chemical property, but they perform same function. They are called isoenzyme.

Amino Acid - (1) → Codon → UGACU

Amino Acid - (2) → Codon → TCGUA } Same function.

The isoenzyme were discovered by R.L Hunter and Clement Markert in 1957.

Isoenzymes are made up of more diff. poly peptide chain produce from diff. gene.

⇒ During the duplication of gene the duplicate gene is retained and they leads to formation of isoenzyme.

Ex LDH (Lactate dehydrogenase)

⇒ Alkaline Phosphatase.

⇒ Therapeutic and diagnostic Application of Enzyme and Isoenzyme

1) Enzymes are used in digestion

Ex Amylase, Protease, Lipase

2) used as deswarming agent.

Ex Papain

3) used as anticlotting agent

Ex Urokinase, Streptokinase.

4) used in atherosclerosis.

Ex Secretory phospholipase.

- 5) Used as disinfectant.
Ex. Trypsin.
- 6) used in stem ulcer.
Ex. Collagenase.
- 7) used as Anticancer.
Ex. Ribonuclease.
- 8) used in Gout.
Ex. Uricase.

Diagnostic Application

- 1) Diagnosis of Acute pancreatitis -
Ex. Amylase.
- 2) Diagnosis of viral Hepatitis.
Ex. Alanine, SGPT.
- 3) Diagnosis of bone disorder.
Ex. Alkaline Phosphatase.

Co-Enzyme :-

Each and every enzyme is composed of two part.

- i) Apoenzyme
- ii) Co-Enzyme.

i) Apoenzyme

→ It is the proteinous part of the enzyme and it is also known as prosthetic group.
→ This part is responsible for the enzyme action.

ii) Coenzyme

→ It is the nonproteinous part of Co-enzyme also known as co-factor.
→ This has no enzyme action but influence the

Action of Enzyme.

Ex. 1) NAD/NADP

(Nicotinamide Adenine diphosphate.)

2) FMN/FAD

(Flavin mono Nucleotide) (Flavin Adenine di Nucleotide.)

3) Co-Enzyme A (Co-A)

4) TPP

Thiamine pyro phosphate.

5) P/L

(Pyridoxal Phosphate)

