Semester II

19MBU202 BIOCHEMISTRY - II (4H – 4C)

Instruction Hours / week: L: 4 T: 0P:0

Marks: Internal: 40 External: 60 Total: 100 End Semester Exam: 3 Hours

COURSE OBJECTIVES

• To provide the informative understanding on Advances in Biochemistry and its applications.

•It serves as good research knowledge on various metabolic pathways that prevails inside the human body.

COURSEOUTCOME (CO'S)

1. A candidate can able to understand metabolic pathways of carbohydrates, proteins, Lipidsand Nucleic acid.

2. This course will provide clear understanding about the Biological oxidation.

Unit I- Introduction to metabolism

Anabolism and catabolism - Definition.Bioenergitics - Thermodynamics principles, Concepts of free energy, Standard free energy, Mitochondrial Electron Transport Chain: electron carriers, chemiosmotic theory and ATP production, High Energy phosphate compounds.

Unit II- Carbohydrate metabolism

Glycolysis, TCA cycle, Glycogenesis, Glycogenolysis, HMP shunt, Gluconeogenesis, Glucuronic acid pathway.

Unit III- Lipid metabolism

Fatty acid oxidation $-\alpha$, β , ω oxidation.Biosynthesis of saturated and unsaturated fatty acids.Metabolism of cholesterol, triglycerides and ketone bodies.

Unit IV- Protein metabolism

Synthesis of Aliphatic and aromaticamino acids. Degradation of proteins: Deamination, Transamination and Decarboxylation, Urea cycle.

Unit V- Nucleic acid metabolism and Biological oxidation

Biosynthesis and degradation of purine and pyrimidine nucleotides.Integrated Carbohydrate, Protein and lipid metabolism.

SUGGESTED READINGS

- 1. Fundamentals of Biochemistry, J.L. Jain, S.Chand publications, 2004.
- 2. Lehninger's Principles of Biochemistry (2000) by Nelson, David I. and Cox, M.M. Macmillan /Worth, NY.
- Harper's Biochemistry Robert K. Murray, Daryl K. Granner, Peter A. Mayes, Victor W. Rodwell, 24th edition, Prentice Hall International. Inc.
- Principles of Biochemistry, Geoffrey L. Zubay, 3rd edition William W. Parson, Dennis E. Vance, W.C. Brown Publishers, 1995.
- 5. Principles of Biochemistry, David L. Nelson, Michael M.Cox, Lehninger, 4th edition, W.H. Freeman and company.
- 6. Biochemistry, LubertStryer, 4th edition, W.H. Freeman & Co, 1995.
- Fundamentals of Biochemistry (1999) by Donald Voet, Judith G.Voet and Charlotte W Pratt, John Wiley & Sons, NY.





(Deemed to be University) (Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956) Coimbatore - 641021. (For the candidates admitted from 2018 onwards) **DEPARTMENT OF BIOCHEMISTRY**

SUBJECT: BIOCHEMISTRY II

SEMESTER: II

CLASS: I B.Sc., MB

SUBJECT CODE: 19MBU202

LECTURE PLAN DEPARTMENT OF BIOCHEMISTRY

S. No	Duration of period	Topics covered	Books referred	Page No	Web page referred		
UNIT-I (Introduction to metabolism)							
1	1	Bioenergitics	T2	80	-		
2	1	Principles of Thermodynamics	T1, T2	490, 80- 81	-		
3	1	Concepts of free energy	T1	86	-		
4	1	Standard free energy	T2	491-495	-		
5	1	Biological oxidation	T1, T2	86-91, 507-517	-		
6	1	Reduction reactions	T2	507-517	-		
7	1	Redox potential High Energy phosphate compounds	T2	82- 85, 86-87	-		
		Total No. of Hours Planned for Unit I: 07					
UNIT-II (Carbohydrate metabolism)							
1	1	Glycolysis	T1 T2	522-533 136-140	-		
2	1	TCA cycle	T2	130-135	-		
3	1	Glycogenesis	T1	562-570	-		
4	1	Glycogenolysis	T2	145-146	-		
5	1	HMP shunt	T2	163-165	_		
6	1	Gluconeogenesis	T2	153-162	-		
7	1	Glucuronic acid pathway	T2	166-168	_		

2019-2022 BATCH



		Total No. of Hours Planned for Unit II: 07			
		UNIT-III (Lipid metabolism)	I	I	
1	1	Fatty acid oxidation- β Oxidation	T1	637-647	-
2	1	α and \Box oxidation of fatty acids	Т1	648-649	_
2	1		11	649-650	_
3	1	Biosynthesis of saturated fatty acids	T2	173-178	-
4	1	Biosynthesis of unsaturated fatty acids			-
5	1	Metabolism of cholesterol	T2	219-229	-
6	1	Metabolism of triglycerides	T2	197-198	-
7	1	Metabolism of ketone bodies	T1	650-652	-
		Total No of Hours Planned for Unit III: 07			-
	Γ	UNIT-IV (Protein metabolism)			
1	1	Ketogenic amino acids			-
2		Glucogenic amino acids			
3	1	Degradation of proteins: Deamination	T4	180-181	-
4	1	Transamination of proteins	T4	178-180	-
5	1	Decarboxylation of proteins			-
6	1	Urea cycle	T4	182-183	-
		Total No of Hours Planned for Unit IV: 06			
		UNIT-V (Nucleic acid metabolism and Bio	logical oxid	lation)	
1	1	Biosynthesis of purine nucleotides	T1	864-867	
	1		T2	293-296	
2	1	Biosynthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides	T1	867-873	
			T2	297-298	
3	1	Degradation of purine nucleotides	T2	299-300	
4	1	Degradation of pyrimidine nucleotides	T2	300-301	
5	1	Mitochondrial Electron Transport Chain, electron carriers	W1, W2		
6	1	sites of ATP production	T2	96	
7	1	Inhibitors of ETC		95	
	-	Oxidative phosphorylation structure of ATPase			
8	1	complex Chemiosmotic theory, Inhibitors of oxidative phosphorylation and uncouplers Mitochondrial shuttle system	T2	92-99	
		Total No of Hours Planned for Unit V: 8			

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1	1	Previous year End Semester Exam- QP discussion	-	-	-
2	1	Previous year End Semester Exam- QP discussion	-	-	-
Total	03	Hours planned for QP discussion: 2			
	Total No of Hours Planned For this syllabi: 37				

REFERENCES

T1: Lehninger Principles of Biochemistry, David L. Nelson, Michael M. Cox. Fourth edition.

T2: Harper's Illustrated Biochemistry, Robert K. Murray, Daryl K. Granner, Peter A. Mayes, Victor W. Rodwell. Twenty sixth edition.

T3: Biochemistry, Jeremey M. Berg, John L. Tymoczko, Lubert Stryer. Fifth Edition.

T4: Koolman, Color Atlas of Biochemistry, 2nd edition 2005

W1: <u>https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wm-biology1/chapter/reading-electron-transport-chain/</u>

W2: <u>https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/neuroscience/electron-transport-chain</u>



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-I

SYLLABUS

Introduction to metabolism: Bioenergetics- Thermodynamics principles, Concepts of free energy, Standard free energy, Biological oxidation-reduction reactions, redox potential, High energy phosphate compounds.

Bioenergetics and Thermodynamics

Bioenergetics is the quantitative study of the energy transductions that occur in living cells and of the nature and function of the chemical processes underlying these transductions. Although many of the principles of thermodynamics have been introduced in earlier chapters and may be familiar to you, a review of the quantitative aspects of these principles is useful here.

Laws of Thermodynamics

The first law is the principle of the conservation of energy: *for any physical or chemical change, the totalamount of energy in the universe remains constant; energy may change form or it may be transportedfrom one region to another, but it cannot be createdor destroyed.*

The second law of thermodynamics, which can be stated in several forms, says that the universe always tends toward increasing disorder: *in allnaturalprocesses, the entropy of the universe increases.*

Three thermodynamic quantities that describe the energy changes occurring in a chemical reaction:

Gibbs free energy, *G*, expresses the amount of energy capable of doing work during a reactionat constant temperature and pressure. When a reaction proceeds with the release of free energy(that is, when the system changes so as to possess less free energy), the free-energy change, ΔG , has a negative value and the reaction is said to be exergonic. In endergonic reactions, the system gains free energy and ΔG is positive.

Enthalpy, H, is the heat content of the reactingsystem. It reflects the number and kinds

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

of chemical bonds in the reactants and products. When a chemical reaction releases heat, it issaid to be exothermic; the heat content of the products is less than that of the reactants and ΔH has, by convention, a negative value. Reacting systems that take up heat from their surroundings are endothermic and have positive values of ΔH .

Entropy, *S*, is a quantitative expression for therandomness or disorder in a system. When the products of a reaction are less complexand more disordered than the reactants, thereaction is said to proceed with a gain in entropy.

The units of ΔG and ΔH are joules/mole or calories/mole(recall that 1 cal _ 4.184 J); units of entropy arejoules/mole _ Kelvin (J/mol _ K).Under the conditions existing in biological systems(including constant temperature and pressure), changes in free energy, enthalpy, and entropy are related to each other quantitatively by the equation $\Delta G = \Delta H - T \Delta S$ in which ΔG is the change in Gibbs free energy of the reacting system, ΔH is the change in enthalpy of the system, T is the absolute temperature, and ΔS is the change in entropy of the system. By convention, ΔS has a positive sign when entropy increases and ΔH , as noted above, has a negative sign when heat is released by the system to its surroundings. Either of these conditions, which are typical of favorable processes, tend to make ΔG negative. In fact, ΔG of a spontaneously reacting system is always negative. The second law of thermodynamics states that the entropy of the universe increases during all chemical and physical processes, but it does not require that the entropy increase take place in the reacting system itself. The order produced within cells as they grow and divide is more than compensated for by the disorder they create in their surroundings in the course of growth and division. In short, living organisms preserve their internal order by taking from the surroundings free energy in the form of nutrients or sunlight, and returning to their surroundings an equal amount of energy as heat and entropy.

Free Energy

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Cells are isothermal systems—they function at essentially constant temperature (they also function at constant pressure). Heat flow is not a source of energy for cells, because heat can do work only as it passes to a zone or object at a lower temperature. The energy that cells can and must use is free energy, described by the Gibbs free-energy function G, which allows prediction



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

of the direction of chemical reactions, their exact equilibrium position, and the amount of work they can in theory perform at constant temperature and pressure. Heterotrophic cells acquire free energy from nutrient molecules, and photosynthetic cells acquire it from absorbed solar radiation. Both kinds of cells transform this free energy into ATP and other energy-rich compounds capable of providing energy for biological work at constant temperature.

The Standard Free-Energy Change Is Directly Related to the Equilibrium Constant

The composition of a reacting system (a mixture of chemical reactants and products) tends to continue changing until equilibrium is reached. At the equilibrium concentration of reactants and products, the rates of the forward and reverse reactions are exactly equal and no further net change occurs in the system. The concentrations of reactants and products *at equilibrium* define the equilibrium constant, *K*eq (p. 26). In the general reaction aA + bB = cC + dD, where *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d* are the number of molecules of A, B, C, and D participating, the equilibrium constant is given by

 $Keq = [C]^{c} [D]^{d}$

$[A]^a [B]^b$

where [A], [B], [C], and [D] are the molar concentrations of the reaction components at the point of equilibrium.

Physical constants based on this biochemical standard state are called **standard transformed constants** and are written with a prime (such as ΔG and *K*eq) to distinguish them from the untransformed constants used by chemists and physicists. (Notice that most other textbooks use the symbol ΔG rather than ΔG . Our use of ΔG , recommended by an international committee of chemists and biochemists, is intended to emphasize that the transformed free energy *G* is the criterion for equilibrium.) By convention, when H2O, H+, and/or Mg2+ are reactants or products, their concentrations are not included in equations such as Equation 13–2 but are instead incorporated into the constants *K*eq and ΔG .

Biological Oxidation-Reduction Reactions

Chemically, oxidation is defined as the removal of electrons and reduction as the gain of

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COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

electrons. Thus, oxidation is always accompanied by reduction of an electron acceptor. This principle of oxidation-reduction applies equally to biochemical systems and is an important concept underlying understanding of the nature of biologic oxidation. Note that many biologic oxidations can take place without the participation of molecular oxygen, eg, dehydrogenations. The life of higher animals is absolutely dependent upon a supply of oxygen for **respiration**, the process by which cells derive energy in the form of ATP from the controlled reaction of hydrogen with oxygen to form water. In addition, molecular oxygen is incorporated into a variety of substrates by enzymes designated as **oxygenases;** many drugs, pollutants, and chemical carcinogens (xenobiotics) are metabolized by enzymes of this class, known as the **cytochromeP450 system.** Administration of oxygen can be lifesaving in the treatment of patients with respiratory or circulatory failure.

FREE ENERGY CHANGES CAN BE EXPRESSED IN TERMS OF REDOX POTENTIAL

In reactions involving oxidation and reduction, the freeenergy change is proportionate to the tendency of reactantsto donate or accept electrons. Thus, in addition to expressing free energy change in terms of $\Delta G0'$, it is possible, in an analogous manner, to express itnumerically as an **oxidation-reduction** or **redox potential** (E'0). The redox potential of a system (E0) isusually compared with the potential of the hydrogenelectrode (0.0 volts at pH 0.0). However, for biologic systems, the redox potential (E'0) is normally expressed at pH 7.0, at which pH the electrode potential of thehydrogen electrode is -0.42 volts. The relative positions fredox systems in the table allows prediction of the direction of flow of electrons from one redox coupleto another. Enzymes involved in oxidation and reduction arecalled **oxidoreductases** and are classified into four groups: **oxidases, dehydrogenases, hydroperoxidases, and oxygenases.**

OXIDASES USE OXYGEN AS A HYDROGEN ACCEPTOR

Oxidases catalyze the removal of hydrogen from a substrate using oxygen as a hydrogen acceptor. They form water or hydrogen peroxide as a reaction product.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022









CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

SOME OXIDASES CONTAIN COPPER

Cytochrome oxidase is a hemoprotein widely distributed in many tissues, having the typical heme prosthetic group present in myoglobin, hemoglobin, and other cytochromes (Chapter 6). It is the terminal component of the chain of respiratory carriers found in mitochondria transfers electrons resulting from the oxidation of substrate molecules by dehydrogenases to their final acceptor, oxygen. The enzyme is poisoned by carbon monoxide, cyanide, and hydrogen sulfide. It has also been termed cytochrome a3. It is now known that cytochromes a and a3 are combined in a single protein, and the complex is known as **cytochrome** aa3. It contains two molecules of heme, each having one Fe atomthat oscillates between Fe3+ and Fe2+ during oxidation and reduction. Furthermore, two atoms of Cu are present, each associated with a heme unit.

Other Oxidases Are Flavoproteins

Flavoprotein enzymes contain flavin mononucleotide(FMN) or flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) as prostheticgroups. FMN and FAD are formed in the bodyfrom the vitamin riboflavin (Chapter 45). FMN andFAD are usually tightly—but not covalently—bound totheir respective apoenzyme proteins. Metalloflavoproteinscontain one or more metals as essential cofactors.Examples of flavoprotein enzymes include L-aminoacid oxidase, an FMN-linked enzyme found in kidneywith general specificity for the oxidative deamination of the naturally occurring L-amino acids; **xanthine oxidase**, which contains molybdenum and plays an importantrole in the conversion of purine bases to uric acid, and is of particular significance in uricotelicanimals and **aldehyde dehydrogenase**, an FAD-linked enzyme present in mammalianlivers, which contains molybdenum and nonheme ironand acts upon aldehydes and N-heterocyclic substrates.The mechanisms of oxidation and reduction of theseenzymes are complex. Evidence suggests a two step reaction shown below.

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Figure 11–2. Oxidoreduction of isoalloxazine ring in flavin nucleotides via a semiquinone (free radical) intermediate (center).

DEHYDROGENASES CANNOT USE OXYGEN AS A HYDROGEN ACCEPTOR

There are a large number of enzymes in this class. They perform two main functions:

 Transfer of hydrogen from one substrate to another in a coupled oxidation-reduction reaction (Figure 11-3). These dehydrogenases are specific for their substrates but often utilize common coenzymes or hydrogen carriers, eg, NAD+. Since the reactions are reversible these properties enable reducing equivalents to be freely transferred within the cell. This type of reaction, which enables one substrate to be oxidized at the expense of another, is particularly useful in enabling oxidative processes to occur in the absence of oxygen, such as during the anaerobic phase of glycolysis.



Figure 11–3. Oxidation of a metabolite catalyzed by coupled dehydrogenases.

 As components in the respiratory chain of electron transport from substrate to oxygen (Figure 12–3).



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 12–3. Transport of reducing equivalents through the respiratory chain.

Many Dehydrogenases Depend on Nicotinamide Coenzymes

These dehydrogenases nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD+)use or **nicotinamideadenine dinucleotidephosphate (NADP+)**—or both—and areformed in the body from the vitamin niacin (Chapter45). The coenzymes are reduced by the specific substrate of the dehydrogenase and reoxidized by a suitable electron acceptor (Figure 11–4). They may freely apoenzymes.Generally, andreversibly dissociate from their respective NAD-linked oxidoreductionreactions dehydrogenases catalyze in the oxidative pathways of metabolism, particularly in glycolysis, in the citric acidcycle, and in the respiratory chain of mitochondria.NADP-linked dehydrogenases are found characteristicallyin reductive syntheses, as in the extramitochondrialpathway of fatty acid synthesis and steroid synthesis and also in the pentose phosphate pathway.

Figure 11–4. Mechanism of oxidation and reduction of nicotinamide coenzymes. There is stereospecificity about position 4 of nicotinamide when it is reduced by a substrate AH₂. One of the hydrogen atoms is removed from the substrate as a hydrogen nucleus with two electrons (hydride ion, H⁻) and is transferred to the 4 position, where it may be attached in either the A or the B position according to the specificity determined by the particular dehydrogenase catalyzing the reaction. The remaining hydrogen of the hydrogen pair removed from the substrate remains free as a hydrogen ion.



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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Other Dehydrogenases Dependon Riboflavin

The flavin groups associated with these dehydrogenases are similar to FMN and FAD occurring in oxidases. They are generally more tightly bound to their apoenzymes than are the nicotinamide coenzymes. Most of the riboflavin-linked dehydrogenases are concerned with electron transport in (or to) the respiratory chain (Chapter 12). NADH dehydrogenase acts as a carrier of electrons between NADH and the components of higher redox potential (Figure 12–3). Other dehydrogenases such as succinate dehydrogenase, acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, and mitochondrial glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase transfer reducing equivalents directly from the substrate to the respiratory chain (Figure 12–4). Another role of the flavin-dependent dehydrogenases is in the dehydrogenation (by dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase) of reduced lipoate, an intermediate in the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate and α -ketoglutarate (Figures 12–4 and 17–5). The electron-transferring flavoprotein is an intermediary carrier of electrons between acyl-CoA dehydrogenase and the respiratory chain.







CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

HIGH-ENERGY PHOSPHATES PLAY ACENTRAL ROLE IN ENERGY CAPTUREAND TRANSFER

In order to maintain living processes, all organisms must obtain supplies of free energy from their environment. **Autotrophic** organisms utilize simple exergonic processes; eg, the energy of sunlight (green plants), the reaction $Fe2+ \rightarrow Fe3+$ (some bacteria). On the other hand, **heterotrophic** organisms obtain free energy by coupling their metabolism to the breakdown of complex organic molecules in their environment. In all these organisms, ATP plays a central role in the transference of free energy from the exergonic to the endergonic processes (Figure 10–3). ATP is a nucleoside triphosphate containing adenine, ribose, and three phosphate groups. In its reactions in the cell, it functions as the Mg2+ complex.

The importance of phosphates in intermediary metabolism became evident with the discovery of the role of ATP, adenosine diphosphate (ADP), and inorganic phosphate (Pi) in glycolysis.



The standard free energy of hydrolysis of a number of biochemically important phosphates. An estimate of the comparative tendency of each of the phosphate groups to transfer to a suitable acceptor may be obtained from the $\Delta G0'$ of hydrolysis at 37 °C. The value for the hydrolysis of the terminal phosphate of ATP divides the list into two groups. **Low-energy phosphates**, exemplified by the ester phosphates found in the intermediates of glycolysis, have $\Delta G0'$ values smaller than that of ATP, while in **high-energy phosphates** the value is higher than that of ATP. The components of this latter group, including ATP, are usually anhydrides (eg, the 1-phosphate of 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate), enolphosphates (eg, phosphoenolpyruvate), and phosphoguanidines (eg, creatine phosphate, arginine phosphate). The intermediate position of ATP allows it to play an important role in energy transfer. The high free energy change on hydrolysis of ATP is due to

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

relief of charge repulsion of adjacent negatively charged oxygen atoms and to stabilization of the reaction products, especially phosphate, as resonance hybrids. Other "high-energy compounds" are thiol esters involving coenzyme A (eg, acetyl-CoA), acyl carrier protein, amino acid esters involved in protein synthesis, *S*-adenosylmethionine (active methionine), UDPGlc (uridine diphosphate glucose), and PRPP (5-phosphoribosyl-1-pyrophosphate).

High-Energy Phosphates Are Designated by ~ _P

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The symbol \sim _P indicates that the group attached to the bond, on transfer to an appropriate acceptor, results in transfer of the larger quantity of free energy. For this reason, the term **group transfer potential** is preferred by some to "high-energy bond." Thus, ATP contains two high-energy phosphate groups and ADP contains one, whereas the phosphate in AMP (adenosine monophosphate) is of the low-energy type, since it is a normal ester link.

HIGH-ENERGY PHOSPHATES ACT AS THE "ENERGY CURRENCY" OF THE CELL

ATP is able to act as a donor of high-energy phosphate to form those compounds below it in Table 10–1. Likewise, with the necessary enzymes, ADP can accept high-energy phosphate to form ATP from those compounds above ATP in the table. In effect, an **ATP/ADP cycle** connects those processes that generate \sim _P to those processes that utilize \sim _P (Figure 10–6), continuously consuming and regenerating ATP. This occurs at a very rapid rate, since the total ATP/ADP pool is extremely small and sufficient to maintain an active tissue for only a few seconds.

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Fig. Structure of ATP, ADP, and AMP showing the position and the number of high-energy phosphates (~_P).

There are three major sources of ~_P taking part in energy conservation or energy capture:

(1) Oxidative phosphorylation: The greatest quantitative source of ~_P in aerobic organisms.
Free energy comes from respiratory chain oxidation using molecular O2 within mitochondria.
(2) Glycolysis: A net formation of two ~_P results from the formation of lactate from one molecule of glucose, generated in two reactions catalyzed by phosphoglycerate kinase and pyruvate kinase, respectively.

(3) The citric acid cycle: One \sim _P is generated directly in the cycle at the succinyl thickinase step.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Fig. Role of ATP/ADP cycle in transfer of high-energy phosphate



Fig. Transfer of high-energy phosphate between ATP and creatine

Phosphagens act as storage forms of high-energy phosphate and include creatine phosphate, occurring in vertebrate skeletal muscle, heart, spermatozoa, and brain; and arginine phosphate, occurring in invertebrate muscle. When ATP is rapidly being utilized as a source of energy for muscular contraction, phosphagens permit its concentrations to be maintained, but when the ATP/ADP ratio is high, their concentration can increase to act as a store of high-energy phosphate.

ATP Allows the Coupling of Thermodynamically Unfavorable Reactions to Favorable Ones The phosphorylation of glucose to glucose 6-phosphate, the first reaction of glycolysis, is highly

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

endergonic and cannot proceed under physiologic conditions.

(1) Glucose+Pi \rightarrow Glucose 6- phosphate+ H2O (Δ G0' = +13.8 kJ/ mol)

To take place, the reaction must be coupled with another—more exergonic—reaction such as the hydrolysis of the terminal phosphate of ATP.

(2) ATP \rightarrow ADP+Pi (Δ G0' = -30.5 kJ /mol)

When (1) and (2) are coupled in a reaction catalyzed by hexokinase, phosphorylation of glucose readily proceeds in a highly exergonic reaction that under physiologic conditions is irreversible. Many "activation" reactions follow this pattern.

Adenylyl Kinase (Myokinase) Interconverts Adenine Nucleotides

This enzyme is present in most cells. It catalyzes the following reaction:

2ADP

Adenylyl Kinase ATP+AMP —

This allows:

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(1) High-energy phosphate in ADP to be used in the synthesis of ATP.

(2) AMP, formed as a consequence of several activating reactions involving ATP, to be recovered by rephosphorylation to ADP.

(3) AMP to increase in concentration when ATP becomes depleted and act as a metabolic (allosteric) signal to increase the rate of catabolic reactions, which in turn lead to the generation of more ATP.

When ATP Forms AMP, Inorganic Pyrophosphate (PPi) Is Produced

This occurs, for example, in the activation of long chain fatty acids:

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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Acyl CoA synthetase

ATP+CoA.SH+R.COOH

AMP+PPi+R.CO►-SCoA

This reaction is accompanied by loss of free energy as heat, which ensures that the activation reaction will go to the right; and is further aided by the hydrolytic splitting of PPi, catalyzed by **inorganic pyrophosphatase,** a reaction that itself has a large $\Delta G0'$ of -27.6 kJ/mol.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Note that activations via the pyrophosphate pathwayresult in the loss of two \sim _P rather than one \sim _P asoccurs when ADP and Pi are formed.

Inorganic pyrophosphatase

PPi+H2O 2pi

A combination of the above reactions makes it possible for phosphate to be recycled and the adenine nucleotides to interchange.

Other Nucleoside Triphosphates Participate in the Transfer of High-Energy Phosphate By means of the enzyme nucleoside diphosphate kinase, UTP, GTP, and CTP can be synthesized from their diphosphates, eg,

Nucleoside diphosphate

Kinase

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ATP+UDP

ADP+UTP

All of these triphosphates take part in phosphorylations in the cell. Similarly, specific nucleoside monophosphate kinases catalyze the formation of nucleoside diphosphates from the corresponding monophosphates.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS UNIT I

PART A (1 mark) Question number 1-20 (From given 300 MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

1. What is Gibbs free energy?

2. Define Enthalpy

3. Define Entropy

4. What is free energy?

5. Brief about the first law of thermodynamics

6. Brief about the second law of thermodynamics

7. Write a short note on equilibrium constant

8. Write a brief note on biological oxidation reaction

9. Write a brief note on reduction reaction

10. What is redox potential?

11. Explain about high energy phosphate compounds

PART C (6 Marks)

12. Discuss in detail about the basic concepts of Bioenergetics

13. Give a detail account on biological oxidation- reduction reaction

14. Elaborate about high energy phosphate compunds

CLASS: I BSc., MB

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COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-II

SYLLABUS

Carbohydrate metabolism: Glycolysis, TCA cycle, Glycogenesis, Glycogenolysis, HMP shunt, Gluconeogenesis, Glucuronic acid pathway

GLYCOLYSIS

Glycolysis is an almost universal pathway for extraction of the energy available from carbohydrates, shared among prokaryotes and eukaryotes, aerobes and anaerobes alike. In anaerobes, glycolysis is the only significant source of energy from carbohydrates. In aerobic organisms, considerably more energy can be harvested downstream from glycolysis in the citric acid cycle. Glycolysis produces energy in the form of ATP and NADH. The glycolytic pathway consists of 10 enzyme-catalyzed steps. During glycolysis, glucose, a six-carbon carbohydrate, is oxidized to form two molecules of pyruvate, a three-carbon molecule. For each glucose molecule metabolized, the pathway produces two molecules of ATP and two molecules of NADH.

Glycolysis-A universal pathway

Glycolysis is not isolated from other metabolic pathways. Other molecules besides glucose can enter at a few points along the glycolytic pathway. For example, the product of glycogen breakdown, glucose-6-phosphate, can enter the glycolytic pathway at the second step. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, which is produced by photosynthesis, is also a glycolytic intermediate, so it can be directed from this anabolic pathway into glycolysis when energy is needed. Additionally, intermediates can be drawn out of the glycolytic pathway when energy levels are high, for use in biosynthetic pathways. For instance, during active energy production pyruvate, the product of glycolysis, enters the citric acid cycle, but when energy is not needed pyruvate serves as a substrate in amino acid synthesis.



COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Reactions of glycolysis

It consist of two phases namely preparatory phase and pay off phase

a)Preparatory phase

The first five steps are regarded as the preparatory (or investment) phase, since they consume energy to convert the glucose into two three-carbon sugar phosphates. The first step in glycolysis is phosphorylation of glucose by a family of enzymes called hexokinases to form glucose 6-phosphate (G6P). This reaction consumes ATP, but it acts to keep the glucose concentration low, promoting continuous transport of glucose into the cell through the plasma membrane transporters. In addition, it blocks the glucose from leaking out – the cell lacks transporters for G6P, and free diffusion out of the cell is prevented due to the charged nature of G6P. Glucose may alternatively be formed from the phosphorolysis or hydrolysis of intracellular starch or glycogen. In animals, an isozyme of hexokinase called glucokinase is also used in the liver, which has a much lower affinity for glucose (Km in the vicinity of normal glycemia), and differs in regulatory properties. The different substrate affinity and alternate regulation of this enzyme are a reflection of the role of the liver in maintaining blood sugar levels.cofactors: Mg2⁺.

G6P is then rearranged into fructose 6-phosphate (F6P) by glucose phosphate isomerase. Fructose can also enter the glycolytic pathway by phosphorylation at this point. The change in structure is an isomerization, in which the G6P has been converted to F6P. The reaction requires an enzyme, phosphohexose isomerase, to proceed. This reaction is freely reversible under normal cell conditions. However, it is often driven forward because of a low concentration of F6P, which is constantly consumed during the next step of glycolysis. Under conditions of high F6P concentration, this reaction readily runs in reverse.

The energy expenditure of another ATP in this step is justified in 2 ways: The glycolytic process (up to this step) is now irreversible, and the energy supplied destabilizes the molecule. Because the reaction catalyzed by Phosphofructokinase 1 (PFK-1) is coupled to the hydrolysis of ATP, an energetically favorable step, it is, in essence, irreversible, and a different pathway must be used to do the reverse conversion during gluconeogenesis. This makes the reaction a key regulatory point (see below). This is also the rate-limiting step. Furthermore, the second phosphorylation event is necessary to allow the formation of two charged groups (rather than only one) in the subsequent step of glycolysis, ensuring the prevention of free diffusion of

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

substrates out of the cell.

RPAGAM

The same reaction can also be catalyzed by pyrophosphate-dependent phosphofructokinase (PFP or PPi-PFK), which is found in most plants, some bacteria, archea, and protists, but not in animals. This enzyme uses pyrophosphate (PPi) as a phosphate donor instead of ATP. It is a reversible reaction, increasing the flexibility of glycolytic metabolism. A rarer ADP-dependent PFK enzyme variant has been identified in archaean species.

Cofactors: Mg2⁺.

Destabilizing the molecule in the previous reaction allows the hexose ring to be split by aldolase into two triose sugars, dihydroxyacetone phosphate, a ketone, and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, an aldehyde. There are two classes of aldolases: class I aldolases, present in animals and plants, and class II aldolases, present in fungi and bacteria; the two classes use different mechanisms in cleaving the ketose ring.

Electrons delocalized in the carbon-carbon bond cleavage associate with the alcohol group. The resulting carbanion is stabilized by the structure of the carbanion itself via resonance charge distribution and by the presence of a charged ion prosthetic group. Triosephosphate isomerase rapidly interconverts dihydroxyacetone phosphate with glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (GADP) that proceeds further into glycolysis. This is advantageous, as it directs dihydroxyacetone phosphate down the same pathway as glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, simplifying regulation.

b)Pay-off phase

The second half of glycolysis is known as the pay-off phase, characterised by a net gain of the energy-rich molecules ATP and NADH. Since glucose leads to two triose sugars in the preparatory phase, each reaction in the pay-off phase occurs twice per glucose molecule. This yields 2 NADH molecules and 4 ATP molecules, leading to a net gain of 2 NADH molecules and 2 ATP molecules from the glycolytic pathway per glucose. The triose sugars are dehydrogenated and inorganic phosphate is added to them, forming 1, 3-bisphosphoglycerate. The hydrogen is used to reduce two molecules of NAD+, a hydrogen carrier, to give NADH + H^+ for each triose. Hydrogen atom balance and charge balance are both maintained because the phosphate (Pi) group actually exists in the form of a hydrogen phosphate anion (HPO42-), which dissociates to contribute the extra H+ ion and gives a net charge of -3 on both sides.

This step is the enzymatic transfer of a phosphate group from 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate to

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ADP by phosphoglycerate kinase, forming ATP and 3-phosphoglycerate. At this step, glycolysis has reached the break-even point: 2 molecules of ATP were consumed, and 2 new molecules have now been synthesized. This step, one of the two substrate-level phosphorylation steps, requires ADP; thus, when the cell has plenty of ATP (and little ADP), this reaction does not occur. Because ATP decays relatively quickly when it is not metabolized, this is an important regulatory point in the glycolytic pathway. ADP actually exists as ADPMg-, and ATP as ATPMg²-, balancing the charges at -5 both sides. A final substrate-level phosphorylation now forms a molecule of pyruvate and a molecule of ATP by means of the enzyme pyruvate kinase. This serves as an additional regulatory step, similar to the phosphoglycerate kinase step. Regulation

Glycolysis is regulated by slowing down or speeding up certain steps in the glycolysis pathway. This is accomplished by inhibiting or activating the enzymes that are involved. The steps that are regulated may be determined by calculating the change in free energy, G, for each step. If a step's products and reactants are in equilibrium, then the step is assumed not to be regulated. Since the change in free energy is zero for a system at equilibrium, any step with a free energy change near zero is not being regulated. If a step is being regulated, then that step's enzyme is not converting reactants into products as fast as it could, resulting in a build-up of reactants, which would be converted to products if the enzyme were operating faster. Since the reaction is thermodynamically favorable, the change in free energy for the step will be negative. A step with a large negative change in free energy is assumed to be regulated.

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Post-glycolysis processes

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CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

The overall process of glycolysis is:

 $Glucose + 2 \text{ NAD}^{+} + 2 \text{ ADP} + 2 \text{ Pi} 2 \text{ Pyruvate} + 2 \text{ NADH} + 2 \text{ H}^{+} + 2 \text{ ATP} + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$

If glycolysis were to continue indefinitely, all of the NAD+ would be used up, and glycolysis would stop. To allow glycolysis to continue, organisms must be able to oxidize NADH back to NAD+. How this is performed depends on which external electron acceptor is available.

Fermentation

In this pyruvate is converted to lactate (the conjugate base of lactic acid) in a process called lactic acid fermentation:

 $Pyruvate + NADH + H^+ Lactate + NAD^+$

This process occurs in the bacteria involved in making yogurt (the lactic acid causes the milk to curdle). This process also occurs in animals under hypoxic (or partially anaerobic) conditions, found, for example, in overworked muscles that are starved of oxygen, or in infarcted heart muscle cells. In many tissues, this is a cellular last resort for energy; most animal tissue cannot tolerate anaerobic conditions for an extended period of time. Some organisms, such as yeast, convert NADH back to NAD+ in a process called ethanol fermentation. In this process, the pyruvate is converted first to acetaldehyde and carbon dioxide, then to ethanol.

Lactic acid fermentation and ethanol fermentation can occur in the absence of oxygen. This anaerobic fermentation allows many single-cell organisms to use glycolysis as their only energy source. Anoxic regeneration of NADH is only an effective means of energy production during short, intense exercise, providing energy for a period ranging from 10 seconds to 2 minutes and is dominant from about 10–30 seconds during a maximal effort. It replenishes very quickly over this period and produces 2 ATP molecules per glucose molecule, or about 5% of glucose's energy potential (38 ATP molecules in bacteria). The speed at which ATP is produced is about 100 times that of oxidative phosphorylation. The pH in the cytoplasm quickly drops when hydrogen ions accumulate in the muscle, eventually inhibiting enzymes involved in glycolysis.

The burning sensation in muscles during hard exercise can be attributed to the production of hydrogen ions during a shift to lactic acid fermentation as oxygen is converted to carbon dioxide by aerobic respiration faster than the body can replenish it. These hydrogen ions form a part of lactic acid along with lactate. The body falls back on this less efficient but faster method of producing ATP under low oxygen conditions. This is thought to have been the primary means of

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

energy production in earlier organisms before oxygen was at high concentration in the atmosphere and thus would represent a more ancient form of energy production in cells. The liver later gets rid of this excess lactate by transforming it back into an important glycolytic intermediate called pyruvate; see Cori cycle. Fermenation of pyruvate to lactate is sometimes also called "anaerobic glycolysis", however, glycolysis ends with the production of pyruvate regardless in the presence or absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic respiration

In the above two examples of fermentation, NADH is oxidized by transferring two electrons to pyruvate. However, anaerobic bacteria use a wide variety of compounds as the terminal electron acceptors in cellular respiration: nitrogenous compounds, such as nitrates and nitrites; sulfur compounds, such as sulfates, sulfites, sulfur dioxide, and elemental sulfur; carbon dioxide; iron compounds; manganese compounds; cobalt compounds; and uranium compounds.

Aerobic respiration

In aerobic organisms, a complex mechanism has been developed to use the oxygen in air as the final electron acceptor.

• First, pyruvate is converted to acetyl-CoA and CO2 within the mitochondria in a process called pyruvate decarboxylation.

Second, the acetyl-CoA enters the citric acid cycle, also known as Krebs Cycle, where it is fully oxidized to carbon dioxide and water, producing yet more NADH.

✤ Third, the NADH is oxidized to NAD+ by the electron transport chain, using oxygen as the final electron acceptor. This process creates a hydrogen ion gradient across the inner membrane of the mitochondria.

✤ Fourth, the proton gradient is used to produce about 2.5 ATP for every NADH oxidized in a process called oxidative phosphorylation.

Fates of pyruvate

The catabolic role of glycolysis with regard to converting potential chemical energy to usable chemical energy during the oxidation of glucose to pyruvate is evidenced. Many of the metabolites in the glycolytic pathway are also used by anabolic pathways, and, as a consequence, flux through the pathway is critical to maintain a supply of carbon skeletons for biosynthesis. In addition, not all carbon entering the pathway leaves as pyruvate and may be extracted at earlier

CLASS: I BSc., MB

RPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

stages to provide carbon compounds for other pathways. These metabolic pathways are all strongly reliant on glycolysis as a source of metabolites: and many more.

- Gluconeogenesis
- Lipid metabolism
- Pentose phosphate pathway
- Citric acid cycle, which in turn leads to:
- Amino acid synthesis
- Nucleotide synthesis
- Tetrapyrrole synthesis

From an anabolic metabolism perspective, the NADH has a role to drive synthetic reactions, doing so by directly or indirectly reducing the pool of NADP+ in the cell to NADPH, which is another important reducing agent for biosynthetic pathways in a cell.

THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

The cycle starts with reaction between the acetyl moiety of acetyl-CoA and the four-carbon dicarboxylic acid oxaloacetate, forming a six-carbon tricarboxylic acid, citrate. In the subsequent reactions, two molecules of CO2 are released and oxaloacetate is regenerated (Figure 16–1). Only a small quantity of oxaloacetate is needed for the oxidation of a large quantity of acetyl-CoA; oxaloacetate may be considered to play a **catalytic role.** The citric acid cycle is an integral part of the process by which much of the free energy liberated during the oxidation of fuels is made available. During oxidation of acetyl-CoA, coenzymes are reduced and subsequently reoxidized in the respiratory chain, linked to the formation of ATP (oxidative phosphorylation; see Figure 16–2 and also Chapter 12). This process is **aerobic**, requiring oxygen as the final oxidant of the reduced coenzymes. The enzymes of the citric acid cycle are located in the **mitochondrial matrix**, either free or attached to the inner mitochondrial membrane, where the enzymes of the respiratory chain are also found.

REACTIONS OF THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE LIBERATE REDUCING EQUIVALENTS & CO2

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CLASS: I BSc., MB

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COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

The initial reaction between acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate to form citrate is catalyzed by **citrate synthase** which forms a carbon-carbon bond between the methyl carbon of acetyl-CoA and the carbonyl carbon of oxaloacetate. The thioester bond of the resultant citryl- CoA is hydrolyzed, releasing citrate and CoASH—an exergonic reaction. Citrate is isomerized to isocitrate by the enzyme **aconitase** (aconitate hydratase); the reaction occurs in two steps: dehydration to *cis*-aconitate, some of which remains bound to the enzyme; and rehydration to isocitrate. Although citrate is a symmetric molecule, aconitase reacts with citrate asymmetrically, so that the two carbon atoms that are lost in subsequent reactions of the cycle are not those that were added from acetyl-CoA. This asymmetric behavior is due to **channeling**— transfer of the product of citrate synthase directly onto the active site of aconitase without entering free solution. This provides integration of citric acid cycle activity and the provision of citrate in the cytosol as a source of acetyl-CoA for fatty acid synthesis. The poison **fluoroacetate** is toxic because fluoroacetyl-CoA condenses with oxaloacetate to form fluorocitrate, which inhibits aconitase, causing citrate to accumulate.

Isocitrate undergoes dehydrogenation catalyzed by isocitrate dehydrogenase to form, initially, oxalosuccinate, which remains enzyme-bound and undergoes decarboxylation to α -ketoglutarate. The decarboxylation requires Mg2+ or Mn2+ ions. There are three isoenzymes of isocitrate dehydrogenase. One, which uses NAD+, is found only in mitochondria. The other two use NADP+ and are found in mitochondria and the cytosol. Respiratory chain-linked oxidation of isocitrate proceeds almost completely through the NAD+-dependent enzyme. α -Ketoglutarate undergoes oxidative decarboxylation in a reaction catalyzed by a multi-enzyme complex similar to that involved in the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate (Figure 17-5). The _**ketoglutarate dehydrogenasecomplex** requires the same cofactors as the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex-thiamin diphosphate, lipoate, NAD+, FAD, and CoA-and results in the formation of succinyl-CoA. The equilibrium of this reaction is so much in favor of succinyl-CoA formation that it must be considered physiologically unidirectional. As in the case of pyruvate oxidation (Chapter 17), arsenite inhibits the reaction, causing the substrate, _ketoglutarate, to accumulate. Succinyl-CoA is converted to succinate by the enzyme succinate thickinase (succinyl-CoA synthetase). This is the only example in the citric acid cycle of substrate-level phosphorylation. Tissues in which gluconeogenesis occurs (the liver and kidney)

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

contain two isoenzymes of succinate thiokinase, one specific for GDP and the other for ADP. The GTP formed is used for the decarboxylation of oxaloacetate to phosphoenolpyruvate in gluconeogenesis and provides a regulatory link between citric acid cycle activity and the withdrawal of oxaloacetate for gluconeogenesis. Nongluconeogenic tissues have only the isoenzyme that uses ADP.

When ketone bodies are being metabolized in extrahepatic tissues there is an alternative reaction catalysed by succinyl-CoA-acetoacetate-CoA transferase (thiophorase) — involving transfer of CoA from succinyl- CoA to acetoacetate, forming acetoacetyl-CoA (Chapter 22). The onward metabolism of succinate, leading to the regeneration of oxaloacetate, is the same sequence of chemical reactions as occurs in the β -oxidation of fatty acids: dehydrogenation to form a carboncarbon double bond, addition of water to form a hydroxyl group, and a further dehydrogenation to yield the oxo- group of oxaloacetate. The first dehydrogenation reaction, forming fumarate, is catalyzed by succinate dehydrogenase, which is bound to the inner surface of the inner mitochondrial membrane. The enzyme contains FAD and iron-sulfur (Fe:S) protein and directly reduces ubiquinone in the respiratory chain. Fumarase (fumarate hydratase) catalyzes the addition of water across the double bond of fumarate, yielding malate. Malate is converted to oxaloacetate by **malate dehydrogenase**, a reaction requiring NAD+. Although the equilibrium of this reaction strongly favors malate, the net flux is toward the direction of oxaloacetate because of the continual removal of oxaloacetate (either to form citrate, as a substrate for gluconeogenesis, or to undergo transamination to aspartate) and also because of the continual reoxidation of NADH.

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CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

TWELVE ATP ARE FORMED PER TURN OF THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

As a result of oxidations catalyzed by the dehydrogenases of the citric acid cycle, three molecules of NADHand one of FADH2 are produced for each molecule of acetyl-CoA catabolized in one turn of the cycle. These reducing equivalents are transferred to the respiratory

chain (Figure 16–2), where reoxidation of each NADHresults in formation of 3 ATP and reoxidation of FADH2 in formation of 2 ATP. In addition, 1 ATP(or GTP) is formed by substrate-level phosphorylationcatalyzed by succinate thiokinase.

VITAMINS PLAY KEY ROLES IN THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

Four of the B vitamins are essential in the citric acidcycle and therefore in energy-yielding metabolism: (1)**riboflavin**, in the form of flavin adenine dinucleotide(FAD), a cofactor in the α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenasecomplex and in succinate dehydrogenase; (2) **niacin**, in the form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), the coenzyme for three dehydrogenases in the cycle—isocitrate dehydrogenase, α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, and malate dehydrogenase; (3) **thiamin (vitaminB1)**, as thiamin diphosphate, the coenzyme for decarboxylationin the α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase reaction; and (4) **pantothenic acid**, as part of coenzyme A, the cofactor attached to "active" carboxylic acid residuessuch as acetyl-CoA and succinyl-CoA.

THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE PLAYS A PIVOTAL ROLE IN METABOLISM

The citric acid cycle is not only a pathway for oxidation two-carbon units—it is also a major pathway for interconversion metabolites arising from **transamination** and **deamination** of amino acids. It also provides the substrates for **amino acid synthesis** by transamination, as well as for **gluconeogenesis** and **fatty acid synthesis**. Because it functions in both oxidative and synthetic processes, it is **amphibolic**.

The Citric Acid Cycle Takes Part in Gluconeogenesis, Transamination, & Deamination

All the intermediates of the cycle are potentially glucogenic, since they can give rise to oxaloacetate and thusnet production of glucose (in the liver and kidney, theorgans that carry out gluconeogenesis; see Chapter 19). The key enzyme that catalyzes net transfer out of the cycle into gluconeogenesis is **phosphoenolpyruvatecarboxykinase**, which decarboxylates oxaloacetate tophosphoenolpyruvate, with GTP acting as the donorphosphate (Figure 16–4). Net transfer into
CLASS: I BSc., MB

RPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

the cycle occurs as a result of severaldifferent reactions. Among the most important ofsuch **anaplerotic reactions** is the formation of oxaloacetateby the carboxylation of pyruvate, catalyzed by**pyruvate carboxylase.** This reaction is important inmaintaining an adequate concentration of oxaloacetatefor the condensation reaction with acetyl-CoA. If acetyl-

CoA accumulates, it acts both as an allosteric activatorof pyruvate carboxylase and as an inhibitor of pyruvatedehydrogenase, thereby ensuring a supply of oxaloacetate.Lactate, an important substrate for gluconeogenesis, enters the cycle via oxidation to pyruvate and then carboxylation to oxaloacetate.**Aminotransferase** (transaminase) reactions formpyruvate from alanine, oxaloacetate from aspartate, and α -ketoglutarate from glutamate. Because these reactions are reversible, the cycle also serves as a source of carbon skeletons for the synthesis of these amino acids.Other amino acids contribute to gluconeogenesis because their carbon skeletons give rise to citric acid cycle intermediates. Alanine, cysteine, glycine, hydroxyproline, serine, threonine, and tryptophan yield pyruvate; arginine, histidine, glutamine, and proline yield α -ketoglutarate; isoleucine, methionine, and valine yieldsuccinyl-CoA; and tyrosine and phenylalanine yield fumarate.In ruminants, whose main metabolic fuel is shortchainfatty acids formed by bacterial fermentation, the conversion of propionate, the major glucogenic productof rumen fermentation, to succinyl-CoA via themethylmalonyl-CoA pathway (Figure 19–2) is especiallyimportant.

The Citric Acid Cycle Takes Part in Fatty Acid Synthesis

Acetyl-CoA, formed from pyruvate by the action of pyruvate dehydrogenase, is the major building block forlong-chain fatty acid synthesis in nonruminants. (In ruminants, acetyl-CoA is derived directly from acetate.) Pyruvate dehydrogenase is a mitochondrial enzyme, and fatty acid synthesis is a cytosolic pathway, but themitochondrial membrane is impermeable to acetyl-CoA. Acetyl-CoA is made available in the cytosol from citrate synthesized in the mitochondrion, transported into the cytosol and cleaved in a reaction catalyzed by**ATP-citrate lyase.**

Regulation of the Citric Acid Cycle Depends Primarily on a Supply of Oxidized Cofactors

In most tissues, where the primary role of the citric acidcycle is in energy-yielding metabolism, **respiratorycontrol** via the respiratory chain and oxidative phosphorylationregulates citric acid

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

cycle activity (Chapter14). Thus, activity is immediately dependent on thesupply of NAD+, which in turn, because of the tightcoupling between oxidation and phosphorylation, is dependent on the availability of ADP and hence, ultimately, on the rate of utilization of ATP in chemicaland physical work. In addition, individual enzymes of the cycle are regulated. The most likely sites for regulationare the nonequilibrium reactions catalyzed bypyruvate dehydrogenase, citrate synthase, isocitrate dehydrogenase, and α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase. Thedehydrogenases are activated by Ca2+, which increases in concentration during muscular contraction and secretion, when there is increased energy demand. In atissue such as brain, which is largely dependent on carbohydrateto supply acetyl-CoA, control of the citricacid cycle may occur at pyruvate dehydrogenase. Severalenzymes are responsive to the energy status, asshown by the [ATP]/[ADP] and [NADH]/[NAD+] ratios. Thus, there is allosteric inhibition of citrate synthase

by ATP and long-chain fatty acyl-CoA. Allostericactivation of mitochondrial NAD-dependent isocitratedehydrogenase by ADP is counteracted by ATP andNADH. The α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex is regulated in the same way as is pyruvate dehydrogenase(Figure 176). Succinate dehydrogenase is inhibited byoxaloacetate, and the availability of oxaloacetate, as controlled by malate dehydrogenase, depends on the[NADH]/[NAD+] ratio. Since the *K*m for oxaloacetateof citrate synthase is of the same order of magnitude asthe intramitochondrial concentration, it is likely thatthe concentration of oxaloacetate controls the rate ofcitrate formation. Which of these mechanisms are important vivo has still to be resolved.

GLYCOGENESIS

The Pathway of Glycogen BiosynthesisInvolves a Special Nucleotide of Glucose

As in glycolysis, glucose is phosphorylated to glucose6-phosphate, catalyzed by **hexokinase** in muscle and**glucokinase** in liver. Glucose 6-phosphate is isomerized of glucose 1-phosphate by **phosphoglucomutase.**The enzyme itself is phosphorylated, and the phosphogroup takes part in a reversible reaction in which glucose1,6-bisphosphate is an intermediate. Next, glucose1-phosphate reacts with uridine triphosphate (UTP) toform the active nucleotide **uridine diphosphate glucose(UDPGlc)*** and pyrophosphate (Figure 18–2),catalyzed by **UDPGlcpyrophosphorylase. Pyrophos-phatase**catalyzes hydrolysis of pyrophosphate to 2

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

molof inorganic phosphate, shifting the equilibrium of themain reaction by removing one of its products. **Glycogen synthase** catalyzes the formation of a glycosidebond between C1 of the activated glucose of UDPGlc and C4 of a terminal glucose residue of glycogen, liberating uridine diphosphate (UDP). A pre-existing glycogen molecule, or "glycogen primer," must be present to initiate this reaction. The glycogen primermay in turn be formed on a primer known as **glycogenin**, which is a 37-kDa protein that is glycosylatedon a specific tyrosine residue by UDPGlc. Further glucoseresidues are attached in the 1 \rightarrow 4 position to make

a short chain that is a substrate for glycogen synthase. In skeletal muscle, glycogenin remains attached in thecenter of the glycogen molecule (Figure 13–15), whereas in liver the number of glycogen molecules isgreater than the number of glycogenin molecules.

Branching Involves Detachmentof Existing Glycogen Chains

The addition of a glucose residue to a preexisting glycogenchain, or "primer," occurs at the nonreducing, outer end of the molecule so that the "branches" of the glycogen "tree" become elongated as successive $1\rightarrow$ 4linkages are formed (Figure 18–3). When the chain hasbeen lengthened to at least 11 glucose residues, **branchingenzyme** transfers a part of the $1\rightarrow$ 4 chain (at leastsix glucose residues) to a neighboring chain to form a $1\rightarrow$ 6 linkage, establishing a **branch point.** The branches grow by further additions of $1\rightarrow$ 4-glucosylunits and further branching.

GLYCOGENOLYSIS

Glycogen phosphorylase catalyzes the rate-limitingstep in glycogenolysis by promoting the phosphorylyticcleavage by inorganic phosphate (phosphorylysis; cf hydrolysis) of the $1\rightarrow4$ linkages of glycogen to yield glucose1-phosphate. The terminal glucosyl residues from the outermost chains of the glycogen molecule are removed sequentially until approximately four glucoseresidues remain on either side of a $1\rightarrow6$ branch (Figure 18–4). Another enzyme (_-[1v4]v_-[1v4] glucantransferase) transfers a trisaccharide unit from onebranch to the other, exposing the $1\rightarrow6$ branch point. Hydrolysis of the $1\rightarrow6$ linkages requires the debranchingenzyme. Further phosphorylase action can proceed. The combined action of phosphorylaseand these other enzymes leads to the complete breakdownof glycogen. The reaction catalyzed by phosphoglucomutaseis reversible, so that glucose 6-phosphatecan be



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

formed from glucose 1-phosphate. In **liver** (and**kidney**), but not in muscle, there is a specific enzyme,**glucose-6-phosphatase**, that hydrolyzes glucose6-phosphate, yielding glucose that is exported, leading to an increase in the blood glucose concentration.

THEREGULATION OF GLYCOGENOLYSIS& GLYCOGENESIS

The principal enzymes controlling glycogen metabolism—glycogen phosphorylase and glycogen synthase—are regulated by allosteric mechanisms and covalentmodifications due to reversible phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of enzyme protein inresponse tohormone action (Chapter 9).Cyclic AMP (cAMP) (Figure 18–5) is formed fromATP by **adenylyl cyclase** at the inner surface of cellmembranes and acts as an intracellular **second messenger**in response to hormones such as **epinephrine, norepinephrine,**and **glucagon.** cAMP is hydrolyzed by**phosphodiesterase,** so terminating hormone action. Inliver, insulin increases the activity of phosphodiesterase.

Phosphorylase Differs BetweenLiver & Muscle

In liver, one of the serine hydroxyl groups of active**phosphorylase a** is phosphorylated. It is inactivated byhydrolytic removal of the phosphate by **protein phosphatase-1** to form**phosphorylase b.** Reactivation requiresrephosphorylationcatalyzed by **phosphorylasekinase.**Muscle phosphorylase is distinct from that of liver. Itis a dimer, each monomer containing 1 mol of pyridoxalphosphate (vitamin B6). It is present in two forms: **phosphorylasea**, which is phosphorylated and active in eitherthe presence or absence of 5'-AMP (its allosteric modifier);and **phosphorylase b**, which is dephosphorylatedand active only in the presence of 5'-AMP. This occursduring exercise when the level of 5'-AMP rises, providing,by this mechanism, fuel for the muscle. Phosphorylase a isthe normal physiologically active form of the enzyme.

cAMP Activates Muscle Phosphorylase

Phosphorylase in muscle is activated in response to epinephrine(Figure 18–6) acting via cAMP. Increasingthe concentration of cAMP activates **cAMP-dependent protein kinase**, which catalyzes the phosphorylation byATP of inactive **phosphorylase kinase b** to



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

active**phosphorylase kinase a,** which in turn, by means of afurther phosphorylation, activates phosphorylase b tophosphorylase a.

Ca2+ Synchronizes the Activation of Phosphorylase With Muscle Contraction

Glycogenolysis increases in muscle several hundred-foldimmediately after the onset of contraction. This involves the rapid activation of phosphorylase by activation phosphorylase kinase by Ca2+, the same signal asthat which initiates contraction in response to nervestimulation. Muscle phosphorylase kinase has four types of subunits— α , β , γ , and δ —in a structure represented ($\alpha\beta\gamma\delta$)4. The α and β subunits contain serineresidues that are phosphorylated by cAMP-dependentprotein kinase. The δ subunit binds four Ca2+ and isidentical to the Ca2+-binding protein **calmodulin**(Chapter 43). The binding of Ca2+ activates the catalyticities of the γ subunit while the molecule remains the dephosphorylated b configuration. However, thephosphorylated a form is only fully activated in the presence of Ca2+. A second molecule of calmodulin, orTpC (the structurally similar Ca2+-binding protein inmuscle), can interact with phosphorylase kinase, causingfurther activation. Thus, activation of muscle contraction and glycogenolysis are carried out by the sameCa2+-binding protein, ensuring their synchronization.

Glycogenolysis in Liver CanBe cAMP-Independent

In addition to the action of **glucagon** in causing formation cAMP and activation of phosphorylase in liver,_**1-adrenergic** receptors mediate stimulation of glycogenolysisby epinephrine and norepinephrine. This involves **cAMP-independent** mobilization of Ca2+from mitochondria into the cytosol, followed by thestimulation of a Ca2+/calmodulin-sensitive phosphorylasekinase. cAMP-independent glycogenolysis is alsocaused by vasopressin, oxytocin, and angiotensin II actingthrough calcium or the phosphatidylinositol bisphosphatepathway (Figure 43–7).

Protein Phosphatase-1Inactivates Phosphorylase

Both phosphorylase a and phosphorylase kinase a aredephosphorylated and inactivated by **protein phosphatase-1.** Protein phosphatase-1 is inhibited by aprotein, **inhibitor-1**, which is active only after it hasbeen phosphorylated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase. Thus, cAMP controls both the activation and inactivation phosphorylase (Figure 18–6). **Insulin**



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

reinforcesthis effect by inhibiting the activation of phosphorylase b. It does this indirectly by increasing

uptake of glucose, leading to increased formation of glucose 6-phosphate, which is an inhibitor of phosphorylasekinase.

Glycogen Synthase & PhosphorylaseActivity Are Reciprocally Regulated(Figure 18–7) Like phosphorylase, glycogen synthase exists in either aphosphorylated or nonphosphorylated state. However, unlike phosphorylase, the active form is dephosphorylated(**glycogen synthase a**) and may be inactivated to**glycogen synthase b** by phosphorylation on serineresidues by no fewer than six different protein kinases. Two of the protein kinases are Ca2+/calmodulindependent(one of these is phosphorylase kinase). Anotherkinase is cAMP-dependent protein kinase, whichallows cAMP-mediated hormonal action to inhibitglycogen synthesis synchronously with the activation ofglycogenolysis. Insulin also promotes glycogenesis inmuscle at the same time as inhibiting glycogenolysis byraising glucose 6-phosphate concentrations, whichstimulates the dephosphorylation and activation of

glycogen synthase. Dephosphorylation of glycogen synthase

b is carried out by protein phosphatase-1, which

is under the control of cAMP-dependent protein kinase.

REGULATION OF GLYCOGENMETABOLISM IS EFFECTED BYA BALANCE IN ACTIVITIESBETWEEN GLYCOGENSYNTHASE & PHOSPHORYLASE

Not only is phosphorylase activated by a rise in concentration cAMP (via phosphorylase kinase), but glycogensynthase is at the same time converted to theinactive form; both effects are mediated via **cAMPdependentprotein kinase.** Thus, inhibition of glycogenolysisenhances net glycogenesis, and inhibition of glycogenesis enhances net glycogenolysis. Furthermore,the dephosphorylation of phosphorylase a, phosphorylasekinase a, and glycogen synthase b is catalyzed by single enzyme of wide specificity—**protein phosphatase**-

1. In turn, protein phosphatase-1 is inhibited by cAMP-dependent protein kinase via inhibitor-1. Thus, glycogenolysis can be terminated and glycogenesiscan be stimulated synchronously, or vice versa, becauseboth processes are keyed to the activity of cAMP-dependent protein kinase. Both phosphorylase kinase and glycogen synthase may be reversibly phosphorylated inmore than



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

one site by separate kinases and phosphatases. These secondary phosphorylations modify the sensitivity of the primary sites to phosphorylation and dephosphorylation (**multisite phosphorylation**). What is more, they allow insulin, via glucose 6-phosphate elevation, to have effects that act reciprocally to those of cAMP (Figures 18–6 and 18–7).

CLINICAL ASPECTSGlycogen Storage Diseases Are Inherited

"Glycogen storage disease" is a generic term to describe group of inherited disorders characterized by deposition of an abnormal type or quantity of glycogen in the tissues. The principal glycogenoses are summarized inTable 18–2. Deficiencies of **adenylyl kinase** and **cAMP-dependent protein kinase** have also been reported. Some of the conditions described have benefited from liver transplantation.





Figure 18–1. Pathway of glycogenesis and of glycogenolysis in the liver.



Figure 18–8. Coordinated control of glycogenolysis and glycogenesis by cAMP-dependent protein kinase. The reactions that lead to glycogenolysis as a result of an increase in cAMP concentrations are shown with bold arrows, and those that are inhibited by activation of protein phosphatase-1 are shown as broken arrows. The reverse occurs when cAMP concentrations decrease as a result of phosphodiesterase activity, leading to glycogenesis.



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

GLUCONEOGENESIS

Gluconeogenesis is the biosynthesis of new glucose, (i.e. not glucose from glycogen). This process is frequently referred to as endogenous glucose production (EGP). The production of glucose from other carbon skeletons is necessary since the testes, erythrocytes and kidney medulla exclusively utilize glucose for ATP production. The brain also utilizes large amounts of the daily glucose consumed or produced via gluconeogenesis. However, in addition to glucose, the brain can derive energy from ketone bodies which are converted to acetyl-CoA and shunted into the TCA cycle. The primary carbon skeletons used for gluconeogenesis are derived from pyruvate, lactate, glycerol, and the amino acids alanine and glutamine. The liver is the major site of gluconeogenesis, however, as discussed below, the kidney and the small intestine also have important roles to play in this pathway. Synthesis of glucose from three and four carbon precursors is essentially a reversal of glycolysis

Precursor

In humans the main gluconeogenic precursors are lactate, glycerol (which is a part of the triacylglycerol molecule), alanine and glutamine. Altogether, they account for over 90% of the overall gluconeogenesis. Other glucogenic amino acid as well as all citric acid cycle intermediates, the latter through conversion to oxaloacetate, can also function as substrates for gluconeogenesis. In ruminants, propionate is the principal gluconeogenic substrate.

Lactate is transported back to the liver where it is converted into pyruvate by the Cori cycle using the enzyme lactate dehydrogenase. Pyruvate, the first designated substrate of the gluconeogenic pathway, can then be used to generate glucose. Transamination or deamination of amino acids facilitates entering of their carbon skeleton into the cycle directly (as pyruvate or oxaloacetate), or indirectly via the citric acid cycle.

Whether even-chain fatty acids can be converted into glucose in animals has been a longstanding question in biochemistry. It is known that odd-chain fatty acids can be oxidized to yield propionyl CoA, a precursor for succinyl CoA, which can be converted to pyruvate and enter into gluconeogenesis. In plants, specifically seedlings, the glyoxylate cycle can be used to convert fatty acids (acetate) into the primary carbon source of the organism. The glyoxylate cycle produces four-carbon dicarboxylic acids that can enter gluconeogenesis.

The existence of glyoxylate cycles in humans has not been established, and it is widely held

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

that fatty acids cannot be converted to glucose in humans directly. However, carbon-14 has been shown to end up in glucose when it is supplied in fatty acids. Despite these findings, it is considered unlikely that the 2-carbon acetyl-CoA derived from the oxidation of fatty acids would produce a net yield of glucose via the citric acid cycle - however, acetyl-CoA can be converted into pyruvate and lactate through the ketogenic pathway.Put simply, acetic acid (in the form of acetyl-CoA) is used to partially produce glucose; acetyl groups can only form part of the glucose molecules (not the 5th carbon atom) and require extra substrates (such as pyruvate) in order to form the rest of the glucose molecule. But a roundabout pathway does lead from acetyl-coA to pyruvate, via acetoacetate, acetone, acetol and then either propylene glycol or methylglyoxal. Location

In mammals, gluconeogenesis is restricted to the liver, the kidney and possibly the intestine. However these organs use somewhat different gluconeogenic precursors. The liver uses primarily lactate, alanine and glycerol while the kidney uses lactate, glutamine and glycerol. Propionate is the principal substrate for gluconeogenesis in the ruminant liver, and the ruminant liver may make increased use of gluconeogenic amino acids, e.g. alanine, when glucose demand is increased. The capacity of liver cells to use lactate for gluconeogenesis declines from the preruminant stage to the ruminant stage in calves and lambs. In sheep kidney tissue, very high rates of gluconeogenesis from propionate have been observed. The intestine uses mostly glutamine and glycerol.

In all species, the formation of oxaloacetate from pyruvate and TCA cycle intermediates is restricted to the mitochondrion, and the enzymes that convert Phosphoenolpyruvic acid (PEP) to glucose are found in the cytosol. The location of the enzyme that links these two parts of gluconeogenesis by converting oxaloacetate to PEP, PEP carboxykinase, is variable by species: it can be found entirely within the mitochondria, entirely within the cytosol, or dispersed evenly between the two, as it is in humans. Transport of PEP across the mitochondrial membrane is accomplished by dedicated transport proteins; however no such proteins exist for oxaloacetate. Therefore, in species that lack intra-mitochondrial PEP carboxykinase, oxaloacetate must be converted into malate or aspartate, exported from the mitochondrion, and converted back into oxaloacetate in order to allow gluconeogenesis to continue.





KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Pathway

Gluconeogenesis is a pathway consisting of a series of eleven enzyme-catalyzed reactions. The pathway may begin in the mitochondria or cytoplasm, this being dependent on the substrate being used. Many of the reactions are the reversible steps found in glycolysis. Gluconeogenesis begins in the mitochondria with the formation of oxaloacetate by the carboxylation of pyruvate. This reaction also requires one molecule of ATP, and is catalyzed by pyruvate carboxylase. This enzyme is stimulated by high levels of acetyl-CoA (produced in -oxidation in the liver) and inhibited by high levels of ADP and glucose.

Oxaloacetate is reduced to malate using NADH, a step required for its transportation out of the mitochondria. Malate is oxidized to oxaloacetate using NAD^+ in the cytosol, where the remaining steps of gluconeogenesis take place. Oxaloacetate is decarboxylated and then phosphorylated to form phosphoenolpyruvate using the enzyme phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase. A molecule of GTP is hydrolyzed to GDP during this reaction. The next steps in the reaction are the same as reversed glycolysis. However, fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase converts fructose-1,6-bisphosphate to fructose 6-phosphate, using one water molecule and releasing one phosphate. This is also the rate-limiting step of gluconeogenesis. Glucose-6-phosphate is formed from fructose 6-phosphate by phosphoglucoisomerase. Glucose-6-phosphate can be used in other metabolic pathways or dephosphorylated to free glucose. Whereas free glucose can easily diffuse in and out of the cell, the phosphorylated form (glucose-6-phosphate) is locked in the cell, a mechanism by which intracellular glucose levels are controlled by cells. The final reaction of gluconeogenesis, the formation of glucose, occurs in the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum, where glucose-6-phosphate is hydrolyzed by glucose-6-phosphatase to produce glucose. Glucose is shuttled into the cytoplasm by glucose transporters located in the endoplasmic reticulum's membrane.

RECIPROCAL CONTROL OF GLYCOLYSIS AND GLUCONEOGENESIS

Gluconeogenesis and glycolysis are coordinated so that within a cell one pathway is relatively inactive while the other is highly active. If both sets of reactions were highly active at the same time, the net result would be the hydrolysis of four nucleotide triphosphates (two ATP plus two GTP) per reaction cycle. Both glycolysis and gluconeogenesis are highly exergonic under cellular conditions, and so there is no thermodynamic barrier to such simultaneous activity.



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

However, the *amounts* and *activities* of the distinctive enzymes of each pathway are controlled so that both pathways are not highly active at the same time. The rate of glycolysis is also determined by the concentration of glucose, and the rate of gluconeogenesis by the concentrations of lactate and other precursors of glucose.

The interconversion of fructose 6-phosphate and fructose 1,6-bisphosphate is stringently controlled (Figure 16.30). As discussed in Section 16.2.1, AMP stimulates phosphofructokinase, whereas ATP and citrate inhibit it. Fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase, on the other hand, is inhibited by AMP and activated by citrate. A high level of AMP indicates that the energy charge is low and signals the need for ATP generation. Conversely, high levels of ATP and citrate indicate that the energy charge is high and that biosynthetic intermediates are abundant. Under these conditions, glycolysis is nearly switched off and gluconeogenesis is promoted.

hosphofructokinase and fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase are also reciprocally controlled by *fructose* 2,6-bisphosphate in the liver (Section 16.2.2). The level of F-2,6-BP is low during starvation and high in the fed state, because of the antagonistic effects of glucagon and insulin on the production and degradation of this signal molecule. *Fructose* 2,6-bisphosphate strongly stimulates phosphofructokinase and inhibits fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase. Hence, glycolysis is accelerated and gluconeogenesis is diminished in the fed state. During starvation, gluconeogenesis predominates because the level of F-2,6-BP is very low. Glucose formed by the liver under these conditions is essential for the viability of brain and muscle.

The interconversion of phosphoenolpyruvate and pyruvate also is precisely regulated. Recall that pyruvate kinase is controlled by allosteric effectors and by phosphorylation (Section 16.2.3). High levels of ATP and alanine, which signal that the energy charge is high and that building blocks are abundant, inhibit the enzyme in liver. Conversely, pyruvate carboxylase, which catalyzes the first step in gluconeogenesis from pyruvate, is activated by acetyl CoA and inhibited by ADP. Likewise, ADP inhibits phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase. Hence, gluconeogenesis is favored when the cell is rich in biosynthetic precursors and ATP.

The amounts and the activities of these essential enzymes also are regulated. The regulators in this case are hormones. Hormones affect gene expression primarily by changing the rate of transcription, as well as by regulating the degradation of mRNA. Insulin, which rises subsequent

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

to eating, stimulates the expression of phosphofructokinase, pyruvate kinase, and the bifunctional enzyme that makes and degrades F-2,6-BP. Glucagon, which rises during starvation, inhibits the expression of these enzymes and stimulates instead the production of two key gluconeogenic enzymes, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase and fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase. Transcriptional control in eukaryotes is much slower than allosteric control; it takes hours or days in contrast with seconds to minutes. The richness and complexity of hormonal control are graphically displayed by the promoter of the phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase gene, which contains regulatory sequences that respond to insulin, glucagon, glucocorticoids, and thyroid hormone



PENTOSE PHOSPHATE PATHWAY (HMP SHUNT)

The pentose phosphate pathway (also called the phosphogluconate pathway and the hexose monophosphate shunt) is a biochemical pathway parallel to glycolysis that generates NADPH and pentoses (5-carbon sugars). While it does involve oxidation of glucose, its primary

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

role is anabolic rather than catabolic. There are two distinct phases in the pathway. The first is the oxidative phase, in which NADPH is generated, and the second is the non-oxidative synthesis of 5-carbon sugars. For most organisms, the pentose phosphate pathway takes place in the cytosol; in plants, most steps take place in plastids.

Similar to glycolysis, the pentose phosphate pathway appears to have a very ancient evolutionary origin. The reactions of this pathway are (mostly) enzyme catalysed in modern cells. They also occur however non-enzymatically under conditions that replicate those of the Archean ocean, and are then catalyzed by metal ions, ferrous iron Fe (II) in particular. The origins of the pathway could thus date back to the prebiotic world.

Pathway

The generation of reducing equivalents, in the form of NADPH, used in reductive biosynthesis reactions within cells (e.g. fatty acid synthesis). Production of ribose-5-phosphate (R5P), used in the synthesis of nucleotides and nucleic acids. Production of erythrose-4-phosphate (E4P), used in the synthesis of aromatic amino acids. Aromatic amino acids, in turn, are precursors for many biosynthetic pathways, including the lignin in wood.

Dietary pentose sugars derived from the digestion of nucleic acids may be metabolized through the pentose phosphate pathway, and the carbon skeletons of dietary carbohydrates may be converted into glycolytic/gluconeogenic intermediates. In mammals, the PPP occurs exclusively in the cytoplasm, and is found to be most active in the liver, mammary gland and adrenal cortex in the human. The PPP is one of the three main ways the body creates molecules with reducing power, accounting for approximately 60% of NADPH production in humans.

One of the uses of NADPH in the cell is to prevent oxidative stress. It reduces glutathione via glutathione reductase, which converts reactive H2O2 into H2O by glutathione peroxidase. If absent, the H_2O_2 would be converted to hydroxyl free radicals by Fenton chemistry, which can attack the cell. Erythrocytes, for example, generate a large amount of NADPH through the pentose phosphate pathway to use in the reduction of glutathione.Hydrogen peroxide is also generated for phagocytes in a process often referred to as a respiratory burst.

Phases

Oxidative phase

In this phase, two molecules of NADP+ are reduced to NADPH, utilizing the energy from the

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

conversion of glucose-6-phosphate into ribulose 5-phosphate.



Regulation

Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase is the rate-controlling enzyme of this pathway. It is allosterically stimulated by NADP⁺. The ratio of NADPH: NADP⁺ is normally about 100:1 in liver cytosol[citation needed]. This makes the cytosol a highly-reducing environment. An NADPH-utilizing pathway forms NADP⁺, which stimulates Glucose-6-phosphate ehydrogenase to produce more NADPH. This step is also inhibited by acetyl CoA.

Erythrocytes and the pentose phosphate pathway

Several deficiencies in the level of activity of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase have been



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

observed to be associated with resistance to the malarial parasite Plasmodium falciparum among individuals of Mediterranean and African descent. The basis for this resistance may be a weakening of the red cell membrane (the erythrocyte is the host cell for the parasite) such that it cannot sustain the parasitic life cycle long enough for productive growth.

GLUCURONIC ACID PATHWAY

In liver, the **uronic acid pathway** catalyzes the conversion of glucose to glucuronic acid, ascorbic acid, andpentoses (Figure 20–4). It is also an alternative oxidative pathway for glucose, but-like the pentose phosphatepathway-it does not lead to the generation of ATP.Glucose 6phosphate is isomerized to glucose 1-phosphate, which then reacts with uridine triphosphate(UTP) to form uridine diphosphate glucose (UDPGlc)in a reaction catalyzed by **UDPGlcpyrophosphorylase**, as occurs in glycogen synthesis (Chapter 18). UDPGlc isoxidized at carbon 6 by NAD-dependent UDPGlc dehydrogenasein a two-step reaction to yield UDPglucuronate.UDP-glucuronate is the "active" form of glucuronate for reactions involving incorporation of glucuronic acid into proteoglycans or for reactions inwhich substrates such as steroid hormones, bilirubin, and a number of drugs are conjugated with glucuronate forexcretion urine or bile (Figure 32–14). Glucuronate is reduced to L-gulonate in in an NADPHdependentreaction; L-gulonate is the direct precursor of ascorbate in those animals capable of synthesizing thisvitamin. In humans and other primates as well as guineapigs, ascorbic acid cannot be synthesized because of the absence of L-gulonolactone oxidase. L-Gulonate is metabolizedultimately to D-xylulose 5-phosphate, a constituent of the pentose phosphate pathway.





COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART A (1 mark)

Question number 1-20 (From given all possible 300 MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

- 1. Write a note on autotrophs
- 2. Brief about metabolic pathways
- 3. What do you mean by reducing power of the cell
- 4. Write a note on HMP
- 5. Explain the overview of intermediary metabolism?
- 6. Give an account on catabolism and anabolism?
- 7. What do you mean by amphibolic?
- 8. List the sources of gluconeogenesis
- 9. Write a short note on glycolysis
- 10. Give a brief note on gluconeogenesis
- 11. Brief about glycogenesis
- 12. Brief about glycogenolysis

PART C (6 Marks)

- 13. Explain in detail about the metabolism of glycolysis
- 14. Describe about reciprocal regulation of glycolysis
- 15. Explain the gluconeogenesis
- 16. Explain about pentose phosphate pathway and its importance
- 17. Explain reciprocal regulation of gluconeogenesis
- 18. Explain the importance and reactions of HMP shunt
- 19. Discuss in detail about glucuronic acid pathway and it's significance
- 20. Give a detail account on glycogenesis
- 21. Write in detail about glycogenolysis

CLASS: I BSc., MB

RPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-II

SYLLABUS

Carbohydrate metabolism: Glycolysis, TCA cycle, Glycogenesis, Glycogenolysis, HMP shunt, Gluconeogenesis, Glucuronic acid pathway

GLYCOLYSIS

Glycolysis is an almost universal pathway for extraction of the energy available from carbohydrates, shared among prokaryotes and eukaryotes, aerobes and anaerobes alike. In anaerobes, glycolysis is the only significant source of energy from carbohydrates. In aerobic organisms, considerably more energy can be harvested downstream from glycolysis in the citric acid cycle. Glycolysis produces energy in the form of ATP and NADH. The glycolytic pathway consists of 10 enzyme-catalyzed steps. During glycolysis, glucose, a six-carbon carbohydrate, is oxidized to form two molecules of pyruvate, a three-carbon molecule. For each glucose molecule metabolized, the pathway produces two molecules of ATP and two molecules of NADH.

Glycolysis-A universal pathway

Glycolysis is not isolated from other metabolic pathways. Other molecules besides glucose can enter at a few points along the glycolytic pathway. For example, the product of glycogen breakdown, glucose-6-phosphate, can enter the glycolytic pathway at the second step. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, which is produced by photosynthesis, is also a glycolytic intermediate, so it can be directed from this anabolic pathway into glycolysis when energy is needed. Additionally, intermediates can be drawn out of the glycolytic pathway when energy levels are high, for use in biosynthetic pathways. For instance, during active energy production pyruvate, the product of glycolysis, enters the citric acid cycle, but when energy is not needed pyruvate serves as a substrate in amino acid synthesis.



COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Reactions of glycolysis

It consist of two phases namely preparatory phase and pay off phase

a)Preparatory phase

The first five steps are regarded as the preparatory (or investment) phase, since they consume energy to convert the glucose into two three-carbon sugar phosphates. The first step in glycolysis is phosphorylation of glucose by a family of enzymes called hexokinases to form glucose 6-phosphate (G6P). This reaction consumes ATP, but it acts to keep the glucose concentration low, promoting continuous transport of glucose into the cell through the plasma membrane transporters. In addition, it blocks the glucose from leaking out – the cell lacks transporters for G6P, and free diffusion out of the cell is prevented due to the charged nature of G6P. Glucose may alternatively be formed from the phosphorolysis or hydrolysis of intracellular starch or glycogen. In animals, an isozyme of hexokinase called glucokinase is also used in the liver, which has a much lower affinity for glucose (Km in the vicinity of normal glycemia), and differs in regulatory properties. The different substrate affinity and alternate regulation of this enzyme are a reflection of the role of the liver in maintaining blood sugar levels.cofactors: Mg2⁺.

G6P is then rearranged into fructose 6-phosphate (F6P) by glucose phosphate isomerase. Fructose can also enter the glycolytic pathway by phosphorylation at this point. The change in structure is an isomerization, in which the G6P has been converted to F6P. The reaction requires an enzyme, phosphohexose isomerase, to proceed. This reaction is freely reversible under normal cell conditions. However, it is often driven forward because of a low concentration of F6P, which is constantly consumed during the next step of glycolysis. Under conditions of high F6P concentration, this reaction readily runs in reverse.

The energy expenditure of another ATP in this step is justified in 2 ways: The glycolytic process (up to this step) is now irreversible, and the energy supplied destabilizes the molecule. Because the reaction catalyzed by Phosphofructokinase 1 (PFK-1) is coupled to the hydrolysis of ATP, an energetically favorable step, it is, in essence, irreversible, and a different pathway must be used to do the reverse conversion during gluconeogenesis. This makes the reaction a key regulatory point (see below). This is also the rate-limiting step. Furthermore, the second phosphorylation event is necessary to allow the formation of two charged groups (rather than only one) in the subsequent step of glycolysis, ensuring the prevention of free diffusion of

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

substrates out of the cell.

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The same reaction can also be catalyzed by pyrophosphate-dependent phosphofructokinase (PFP or PPi-PFK), which is found in most plants, some bacteria, archea, and protists, but not in animals. This enzyme uses pyrophosphate (PPi) as a phosphate donor instead of ATP. It is a reversible reaction, increasing the flexibility of glycolytic metabolism. A rarer ADP-dependent PFK enzyme variant has been identified in archaean species.

Cofactors: Mg2⁺.

Destabilizing the molecule in the previous reaction allows the hexose ring to be split by aldolase into two triose sugars, dihydroxyacetone phosphate, a ketone, and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, an aldehyde. There are two classes of aldolases: class I aldolases, present in animals and plants, and class II aldolases, present in fungi and bacteria; the two classes use different mechanisms in cleaving the ketose ring.

Electrons delocalized in the carbon-carbon bond cleavage associate with the alcohol group. The resulting carbanion is stabilized by the structure of the carbanion itself via resonance charge distribution and by the presence of a charged ion prosthetic group. Triosephosphate isomerase rapidly interconverts dihydroxyacetone phosphate with glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (GADP) that proceeds further into glycolysis. This is advantageous, as it directs dihydroxyacetone phosphate down the same pathway as glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, simplifying regulation.

b)Pay-off phase

The second half of glycolysis is known as the pay-off phase, characterised by a net gain of the energy-rich molecules ATP and NADH. Since glucose leads to two triose sugars in the preparatory phase, each reaction in the pay-off phase occurs twice per glucose molecule. This yields 2 NADH molecules and 4 ATP molecules, leading to a net gain of 2 NADH molecules and 2 ATP molecules from the glycolytic pathway per glucose. The triose sugars are dehydrogenated and inorganic phosphate is added to them, forming 1, 3-bisphosphoglycerate. The hydrogen is used to reduce two molecules of NAD+, a hydrogen carrier, to give NADH + H^+ for each triose. Hydrogen atom balance and charge balance are both maintained because the phosphate (Pi) group actually exists in the form of a hydrogen phosphate anion (HPO42-), which dissociates to contribute the extra H+ ion and gives a net charge of -3 on both sides.

This step is the enzymatic transfer of a phosphate group from 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate to

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ADP by phosphoglycerate kinase, forming ATP and 3-phosphoglycerate. At this step, glycolysis has reached the break-even point: 2 molecules of ATP were consumed, and 2 new molecules have now been synthesized. This step, one of the two substrate-level phosphorylation steps, requires ADP; thus, when the cell has plenty of ATP (and little ADP), this reaction does not occur. Because ATP decays relatively quickly when it is not metabolized, this is an important regulatory point in the glycolytic pathway. ADP actually exists as ADPMg-, and ATP as ATPMg²-, balancing the charges at -5 both sides. A final substrate-level phosphorylation now forms a molecule of pyruvate and a molecule of ATP by means of the enzyme pyruvate kinase. This serves as an additional regulatory step, similar to the phosphoglycerate kinase step. Regulation

Glycolysis is regulated by slowing down or speeding up certain steps in the glycolysis pathway. This is accomplished by inhibiting or activating the enzymes that are involved. The steps that are regulated may be determined by calculating the change in free energy, G, for each step. If a step's products and reactants are in equilibrium, then the step is assumed not to be regulated. Since the change in free energy is zero for a system at equilibrium, any step with a free energy change near zero is not being regulated. If a step is being regulated, then that step's enzyme is not converting reactants into products as fast as it could, resulting in a build-up of reactants, which would be converted to products if the enzyme were operating faster. Since the reaction is thermodynamically favorable, the change in free energy for the step will be negative. A step with a large negative change in free energy is assumed to be regulated.



Post-glycolysis processes



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

The overall process of glycolysis is:

 $Glucose + 2 \text{ NAD}^{+} + 2 \text{ ADP} + 2 \text{ Pi} 2 \text{ Pyruvate} + 2 \text{ NADH} + 2 \text{ H}^{+} + 2 \text{ ATP} + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$

If glycolysis were to continue indefinitely, all of the NAD+ would be used up, and glycolysis would stop. To allow glycolysis to continue, organisms must be able to oxidize NADH back to NAD+. How this is performed depends on which external electron acceptor is available.

Fermentation

In this pyruvate is converted to lactate (the conjugate base of lactic acid) in a process called lactic acid fermentation:

 $Pyruvate + NADH + H^+ Lactate + NAD^+$

This process occurs in the bacteria involved in making yogurt (the lactic acid causes the milk to curdle). This process also occurs in animals under hypoxic (or partially anaerobic) conditions, found, for example, in overworked muscles that are starved of oxygen, or in infarcted heart muscle cells. In many tissues, this is a cellular last resort for energy; most animal tissue cannot tolerate anaerobic conditions for an extended period of time. Some organisms, such as yeast, convert NADH back to NAD+ in a process called ethanol fermentation. In this process, the pyruvate is converted first to acetaldehyde and carbon dioxide, then to ethanol.

Lactic acid fermentation and ethanol fermentation can occur in the absence of oxygen. This anaerobic fermentation allows many single-cell organisms to use glycolysis as their only energy source. Anoxic regeneration of NADH is only an effective means of energy production during short, intense exercise, providing energy for a period ranging from 10 seconds to 2 minutes and is dominant from about 10–30 seconds during a maximal effort. It replenishes very quickly over this period and produces 2 ATP molecules per glucose molecule, or about 5% of glucose's energy potential (38 ATP molecules in bacteria). The speed at which ATP is produced is about 100 times that of oxidative phosphorylation. The pH in the cytoplasm quickly drops when hydrogen ions accumulate in the muscle, eventually inhibiting enzymes involved in glycolysis.

The burning sensation in muscles during hard exercise can be attributed to the production of hydrogen ions during a shift to lactic acid fermentation as oxygen is converted to carbon dioxide by aerobic respiration faster than the body can replenish it. These hydrogen ions form a part of lactic acid along with lactate. The body falls back on this less efficient but faster method of producing ATP under low oxygen conditions. This is thought to have been the primary means of

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

energy production in earlier organisms before oxygen was at high concentration in the atmosphere and thus would represent a more ancient form of energy production in cells. The liver later gets rid of this excess lactate by transforming it back into an important glycolytic intermediate called pyruvate; see Cori cycle. Fermenation of pyruvate to lactate is sometimes also called "anaerobic glycolysis", however, glycolysis ends with the production of pyruvate regardless in the presence or absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic respiration

In the above two examples of fermentation, NADH is oxidized by transferring two electrons to pyruvate. However, anaerobic bacteria use a wide variety of compounds as the terminal electron acceptors in cellular respiration: nitrogenous compounds, such as nitrates and nitrites; sulfur compounds, such as sulfates, sulfites, sulfur dioxide, and elemental sulfur; carbon dioxide; iron compounds; manganese compounds; cobalt compounds; and uranium compounds.

Aerobic respiration

In aerobic organisms, a complex mechanism has been developed to use the oxygen in air as the final electron acceptor.

• First, pyruvate is converted to acetyl-CoA and CO2 within the mitochondria in a process called pyruvate decarboxylation.

Second, the acetyl-CoA enters the citric acid cycle, also known as Krebs Cycle, where it is fully oxidized to carbon dioxide and water, producing yet more NADH.

✤ Third, the NADH is oxidized to NAD+ by the electron transport chain, using oxygen as the final electron acceptor. This process creates a hydrogen ion gradient across the inner membrane of the mitochondria.

✤ Fourth, the proton gradient is used to produce about 2.5 ATP for every NADH oxidized in a process called oxidative phosphorylation.

Fates of pyruvate

The catabolic role of glycolysis with regard to converting potential chemical energy to usable chemical energy during the oxidation of glucose to pyruvate is evidenced. Many of the metabolites in the glycolytic pathway are also used by anabolic pathways, and, as a consequence, flux through the pathway is critical to maintain a supply of carbon skeletons for biosynthesis. In addition, not all carbon entering the pathway leaves as pyruvate and may be extracted at earlier

CLASS: I BSc., MB

RPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

stages to provide carbon compounds for other pathways. These metabolic pathways are all strongly reliant on glycolysis as a source of metabolites: and many more.

- Gluconeogenesis
- Lipid metabolism
- Pentose phosphate pathway
- Citric acid cycle, which in turn leads to:
- Amino acid synthesis
- Nucleotide synthesis
- Tetrapyrrole synthesis

From an anabolic metabolism perspective, the NADH has a role to drive synthetic reactions, doing so by directly or indirectly reducing the pool of NADP+ in the cell to NADPH, which is another important reducing agent for biosynthetic pathways in a cell.

THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

The cycle starts with reaction between the acetyl moiety of acetyl-CoA and the four-carbon dicarboxylic acid oxaloacetate, forming a six-carbon tricarboxylic acid, citrate. In the subsequent reactions, two molecules of CO2 are released and oxaloacetate is regenerated (Figure 16–1). Only a small quantity of oxaloacetate is needed for the oxidation of a large quantity of acetyl-CoA; oxaloacetate may be considered to play a **catalytic role.** The citric acid cycle is an integral part of the process by which much of the free energy liberated during the oxidation of fuels is made available. During oxidation of acetyl-CoA, coenzymes are reduced and subsequently reoxidized in the respiratory chain, linked to the formation of ATP (oxidative phosphorylation; see Figure 16–2 and also Chapter 12). This process is **aerobic**, requiring oxygen as the final oxidant of the reduced coenzymes. The enzymes of the citric acid cycle are located in the **mitochondrial matrix**, either free or attached to the inner mitochondrial membrane, where the enzymes of the respiratory chain are also found.

REACTIONS OF THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE LIBERATE REDUCING EQUIVALENTS & CO2

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

The initial reaction between acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate to form citrate is catalyzed by **citrate synthase** which forms a carbon-carbon bond between the methyl carbon of acetyl-CoA and the carbonyl carbon of oxaloacetate. The thioester bond of the resultant citryl- CoA is hydrolyzed, releasing citrate and CoASH—an exergonic reaction. Citrate is isomerized to isocitrate by the enzyme **aconitase** (aconitate hydratase); the reaction occurs in two steps: dehydration to *cis*-aconitate, some of which remains bound to the enzyme; and rehydration to isocitrate. Although citrate is a symmetric molecule, aconitase reacts with citrate asymmetrically, so that the two carbon atoms that are lost in subsequent reactions of the cycle are not those that were added from acetyl-CoA. This asymmetric behavior is due to **channeling**— transfer of the product of citrate synthase directly onto the active site of aconitase without entering free solution. This provides integration of citric acid cycle activity and the provision of citrate in the cytosol as a source of acetyl-CoA for fatty acid synthesis. The poison **fluoroacetate** is toxic because fluoroacetyl-CoA condenses with oxaloacetate to form fluorocitrate, which inhibits aconitase, causing citrate to accumulate.

Isocitrate undergoes dehydrogenation catalyzed by isocitrate dehydrogenase to form, initially, oxalosuccinate, which remains enzyme-bound and undergoes decarboxylation to α -ketoglutarate. The decarboxylation requires Mg2+ or Mn2+ ions. There are three isoenzymes of isocitrate dehydrogenase. One, which uses NAD+, is found only in mitochondria. The other two use NADP+ and are found in mitochondria and the cytosol. Respiratory chain-linked oxidation of isocitrate proceeds almost completely through the NAD+-dependent enzyme. α -Ketoglutarate undergoes oxidative decarboxylation in a reaction catalyzed by a multi-enzyme complex similar to that involved in the oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate (Figure 17-5). The _**ketoglutarate dehydrogenasecomplex** requires the same cofactors as the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex-thiamin diphosphate, lipoate, NAD+, FAD, and CoA-and results in the formation of succinyl-CoA. The equilibrium of this reaction is so much in favor of succinyl-CoA formation that it must be considered physiologically unidirectional. As in the case of pyruvate oxidation (Chapter 17), arsenite inhibits the reaction, causing the substrate, _ketoglutarate, to accumulate. Succinyl-CoA is converted to succinate by the enzyme succinate thickinase (succinyl-CoA synthetase). This is the only example in the citric acid cycle of substrate-level phosphorylation. Tissues in which gluconeogenesis occurs (the liver and kidney)

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

contain two isoenzymes of succinate thiokinase, one specific for GDP and the other for ADP. The GTP formed is used for the decarboxylation of oxaloacetate to phosphoenolpyruvate in gluconeogenesis and provides a regulatory link between citric acid cycle activity and the withdrawal of oxaloacetate for gluconeogenesis. Nongluconeogenic tissues have only the isoenzyme that uses ADP.

When ketone bodies are being metabolized in extrahepatic tissues there is an alternative reaction catalysed by succinyl-CoA-acetoacetate-CoA transferase (thiophorase) — involving transfer of CoA from succinyl- CoA to acetoacetate, forming acetoacetyl-CoA (Chapter 22). The onward metabolism of succinate, leading to the regeneration of oxaloacetate, is the same sequence of chemical reactions as occurs in the β -oxidation of fatty acids: dehydrogenation to form a carboncarbon double bond, addition of water to form a hydroxyl group, and a further dehydrogenation to yield the oxo- group of oxaloacetate. The first dehydrogenation reaction, forming fumarate, is catalyzed by succinate dehydrogenase, which is bound to the inner surface of the inner mitochondrial membrane. The enzyme contains FAD and iron-sulfur (Fe:S) protein and directly reduces ubiquinone in the respiratory chain. Fumarase (fumarate hydratase) catalyzes the addition of water across the double bond of fumarate, yielding malate. Malate is converted to oxaloacetate by **malate dehydrogenase**, a reaction requiring NAD+. Although the equilibrium of this reaction strongly favors malate, the net flux is toward the direction of oxaloacetate because of the continual removal of oxaloacetate (either to form citrate, as a substrate for gluconeogenesis, or to undergo transamination to aspartate) and also because of the continual reoxidation of NADH.





CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

TWELVE ATP ARE FORMED PER TURN OF THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

As a result of oxidations catalyzed by the dehydrogenases of the citric acid cycle, three molecules of NADHand one of FADH2 are produced for each molecule of acetyl-CoA catabolized in one turn of the cycle. These reducing equivalents are transferred to the respiratory

chain (Figure 16–2), where reoxidation of each NADHresults in formation of 3 ATP and reoxidation of FADH2 in formation of 2 ATP. In addition, 1 ATP(or GTP) is formed by substrate-level phosphorylationcatalyzed by succinate thiokinase.

VITAMINS PLAY KEY ROLES IN THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

Four of the B vitamins are essential in the citric acidcycle and therefore in energy-yielding metabolism: (1)**riboflavin**, in the form of flavin adenine dinucleotide(FAD), a cofactor in the α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenasecomplex and in succinate dehydrogenase; (2) **niacin**, in the form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), the coenzyme for three dehydrogenases in the cycle—isocitrate dehydrogenase, α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, and malate dehydrogenase; (3) **thiamin (vitaminB1)**, as thiamin diphosphate, the coenzyme for decarboxylationin the α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase reaction; and (4) **pantothenic acid**, as part of coenzyme A, the cofactor attached to "active" carboxylic acid residuessuch as acetyl-CoA and succinyl-CoA.

THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE PLAYS A PIVOTAL ROLE IN METABOLISM

The citric acid cycle is not only a pathway for oxidation two-carbon units—it is also a major pathway for interconversion metabolites arising from **transamination** and **deamination** of amino acids. It also provides the substrates for **amino acid synthesis** by transamination, as well as for **gluconeogenesis** and **fatty acid synthesis**. Because it functions in both oxidative and synthetic processes, it is **amphibolic**.

The Citric Acid Cycle Takes Part in Gluconeogenesis, Transamination, & Deamination

All the intermediates of the cycle are potentially glucogenic, since they can give rise to oxaloacetate and thusnet production of glucose (in the liver and kidney, theorgans that carry out gluconeogenesis; see Chapter 19). The key enzyme that catalyzes net transfer out of the cycle into gluconeogenesis is **phosphoenolpyruvatecarboxykinase**, which decarboxylates oxaloacetate tophosphoenolpyruvate, with GTP acting as the donorphosphate (Figure 16–4). Net transfer into

CLASS: I BSc., MB

RPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

the cycle occurs as a result of severaldifferent reactions. Among the most important ofsuch **anaplerotic reactions** is the formation of oxaloacetateby the carboxylation of pyruvate, catalyzed by**pyruvate carboxylase.** This reaction is important inmaintaining an adequate concentration of oxaloacetatefor the condensation reaction with acetyl-CoA. If acetyl-

CoA accumulates, it acts both as an allosteric activatorof pyruvate carboxylase and as an inhibitor of pyruvatedehydrogenase, thereby ensuring a supply of oxaloacetate.Lactate, an important substrate for gluconeogenesis, enters the cycle via oxidation to pyruvate and then carboxylation to oxaloacetate.**Aminotransferase** (transaminase) reactions formpyruvate from alanine, oxaloacetate from aspartate, and α -ketoglutarate from glutamate. Because these reactions are reversible, the cycle also serves as a source of carbon skeletons for the synthesis of these amino acids.Other amino acids contribute to gluconeogenesis because their carbon skeletons give rise to citric acid cycle intermediates. Alanine, cysteine, glycine, hydroxyproline, serine, threonine, and tryptophan yield pyruvate; arginine, histidine, glutamine, and proline yield α -ketoglutarate; isoleucine, methionine, and valine yieldsuccinyl-CoA; and tyrosine and phenylalanine yield fumarate.In ruminants, whose main metabolic fuel is shortchainfatty acids formed by bacterial fermentation, the conversion of propionate, the major glucogenic productof rumen fermentation, to succinyl-CoA via themethylmalonyl-CoA pathway (Figure 19–2) is especiallyimportant.

The Citric Acid Cycle Takes Part in Fatty Acid Synthesis

Acetyl-CoA, formed from pyruvate by the action of pyruvate dehydrogenase, is the major building block forlong-chain fatty acid synthesis in nonruminants. (In ruminants, acetyl-CoA is derived directly from acetate.) Pyruvate dehydrogenase is a mitochondrial enzyme, and fatty acid synthesis is a cytosolic pathway, but themitochondrial membrane is impermeable to acetyl-CoA. Acetyl-CoA is made available in the cytosol from citrate synthesized in the mitochondrion, transported into the cytosol and cleaved in a reaction catalyzed by**ATP-citrate lyase.**

Regulation of the Citric Acid Cycle Depends Primarily on a Supply of Oxidized Cofactors

In most tissues, where the primary role of the citric acidcycle is in energy-yielding metabolism, **respiratorycontrol** via the respiratory chain and oxidative phosphorylationregulates citric acid

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

cycle activity (Chapter14). Thus, activity is immediately dependent on thesupply of NAD+, which in turn, because of the tightcoupling between oxidation and phosphorylation, is dependent on the availability of ADP and hence, ultimately, on the rate of utilization of ATP in chemicaland physical work. In addition, individual enzymes of the cycle are regulated. The most likely sites for regulationare the nonequilibrium reactions catalyzed bypyruvate dehydrogenase, citrate synthase, isocitrate dehydrogenase, and α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase. Thedehydrogenases are activated by Ca2+, which increases in concentration during muscular contraction and secretion, when there is increased energy demand. In atissue such as brain, which is largely dependent on carbohydrateto supply acetyl-CoA, control of the citricacid cycle may occur at pyruvate dehydrogenase. Severalenzymes are responsive to the energy status, asshown by the [ATP]/[ADP] and [NADH]/[NAD+] ratios. Thus, there is allosteric inhibition of citrate synthase

by ATP and long-chain fatty acyl-CoA. Allostericactivation of mitochondrial NAD-dependent isocitratedehydrogenase by ADP is counteracted by ATP andNADH. The α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex is regulated in the same way as is pyruvate dehydrogenase(Figure 176). Succinate dehydrogenase is inhibited byoxaloacetate, and the availability of oxaloacetate, as controlled by malate dehydrogenase, depends on the[NADH]/[NAD+] ratio. Since the *K*m for oxaloacetateof citrate synthase is of the same order of magnitude asthe intramitochondrial concentration, it is likely thatthe concentration of oxaloacetate controls the rate ofcitrate formation. Which of these mechanisms are important vivo has still to be resolved.

GLYCOGENESIS

The Pathway of Glycogen BiosynthesisInvolves a Special Nucleotide of Glucose

As in glycolysis, glucose is phosphorylated to glucose6-phosphate, catalyzed by **hexokinase** in muscle and**glucokinase** in liver. Glucose 6-phosphate is isomerized of glucose 1-phosphate by **phosphoglucomutase.**The enzyme itself is phosphorylated, and the phosphogroup takes part in a reversible reaction in which glucose1,6-bisphosphate is an intermediate. Next, glucose1-phosphate reacts with uridine triphosphate (UTP) toform the active nucleotide **uridine diphosphate glucose(UDPGlc)*** and pyrophosphate (Figure 18–2),catalyzed by **UDPGlcpyrophosphorylase. Pyrophos-phatase**catalyzes hydrolysis of pyrophosphate to 2

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

molof inorganic phosphate, shifting the equilibrium of themain reaction by removing one of its products. **Glycogen synthase** catalyzes the formation of a glycosidebond between C1 of the activated glucose of UDPGlc and C4 of a terminal glucose residue of glycogen, liberating uridine diphosphate (UDP). A pre-existing glycogen molecule, or "glycogen primer," must be present to initiate this reaction. The glycogen primermay in turn be formed on a primer known as **glycogenin**, which is a 37-kDa protein that is glycosylatedon a specific tyrosine residue by UDPGlc. Further glucoseresidues are attached in the 1 \rightarrow 4 position to make

a short chain that is a substrate for glycogen synthase. In skeletal muscle, glycogenin remains attached in thecenter of the glycogen molecule (Figure 13–15), whereas in liver the number of glycogen molecules isgreater than the number of glycogenin molecules.

Branching Involves Detachmentof Existing Glycogen Chains

The addition of a glucose residue to a preexisting glycogenchain, or "primer," occurs at the nonreducing, outer end of the molecule so that the "branches" of the glycogen "tree" become elongated as successive $1\rightarrow$ 4linkages are formed (Figure 18–3). When the chain hasbeen lengthened to at least 11 glucose residues, **branchingenzyme** transfers a part of the $1\rightarrow$ 4 chain (at leastsix glucose residues) to a neighboring chain to form a $1\rightarrow$ 6 linkage, establishing a **branch point.** The branches grow by further additions of $1\rightarrow$ 4-glucosylunits and further branching.

GLYCOGENOLYSIS

Glycogen phosphorylase catalyzes the rate-limitingstep in glycogenolysis by promoting the phosphorylyticcleavage by inorganic phosphate (phosphorylysis; cf hydrolysis) of the $1\rightarrow4$ linkages of glycogen to yield glucose1-phosphate. The terminal glucosyl residues from the outermost chains of the glycogen molecule are removed sequentially until approximately four glucoseresidues remain on either side of a $1\rightarrow6$ branch (Figure 18–4). Another enzyme (_-[1v4]v_-[1v4] glucantransferase) transfers a trisaccharide unit from onebranch to the other, exposing the $1\rightarrow6$ branch point. Hydrolysis of the $1\rightarrow6$ linkages requires the debranchingenzyme. Further phosphorylase action can proceed. The combined action of phosphorylaseand these other enzymes leads to the complete breakdownof glycogen. The reaction catalyzed by phosphoglucomutaseis reversible, so that glucose 6-phosphatecan be



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

formed from glucose 1-phosphate. In **liver** (and**kidney**), but not in muscle, there is a specific enzyme,**glucose-6-phosphatase**, that hydrolyzes glucose6-phosphate, yielding glucose that is exported, leading to an increase in the blood glucose concentration.

THEREGULATION OF GLYCOGENOLYSIS& GLYCOGENESIS

The principal enzymes controlling glycogen metabolism—glycogen phosphorylase and glycogen synthase—are regulated by allosteric mechanisms and covalentmodifications due to reversible phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of enzyme protein inresponse tohormone action (Chapter 9).Cyclic AMP (cAMP) (Figure 18–5) is formed fromATP by **adenylyl cyclase** at the inner surface of cellmembranes and acts as an intracellular **second messenger**in response to hormones such as **epinephrine, norepinephrine,**and **glucagon.** cAMP is hydrolyzed by**phosphodiesterase,** so terminating hormone action. Inliver, insulin increases the activity of phosphodiesterase.

Phosphorylase Differs BetweenLiver & Muscle

In liver, one of the serine hydroxyl groups of active**phosphorylase a** is phosphorylated. It is inactivated byhydrolytic removal of the phosphate by **protein phosphatase-1** to form**phosphorylase b.** Reactivation requiresrephosphorylationcatalyzed by **phosphorylasekinase.**Muscle phosphorylase is distinct from that of liver. Itis a dimer, each monomer containing 1 mol of pyridoxalphosphate (vitamin B6). It is present in two forms: **phosphorylasea**, which is phosphorylated and active in eitherthe presence or absence of 5'-AMP (its allosteric modifier);and **phosphorylase b**, which is dephosphorylatedand active only in the presence of 5'-AMP. This occursduring exercise when the level of 5'-AMP rises, providing,by this mechanism, fuel for the muscle. Phosphorylase a isthe normal physiologically active form of the enzyme.

cAMP Activates Muscle Phosphorylase

Phosphorylase in muscle is activated in response to epinephrine(Figure 18–6) acting via cAMP. Increasingthe concentration of cAMP activates **cAMP-dependent protein kinase**, which catalyzes the phosphorylation byATP of inactive **phosphorylase kinase b** to


CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

active**phosphorylase kinase a,** which in turn, by means of afurther phosphorylation, activates phosphorylase b tophosphorylase a.

Ca2+ Synchronizes the Activation of Phosphorylase With Muscle Contraction

Glycogenolysis increases in muscle several hundred-foldimmediately after the onset of contraction. This involves the rapid activation of phosphorylase by activation phosphorylase kinase by Ca2+, the same signal asthat which initiates contraction in response to nervestimulation. Muscle phosphorylase kinase has four types of subunits— α , β , γ , and δ —in a structure represented ($\alpha\beta\gamma\delta$)4. The α and β subunits contain serineresidues that are phosphorylated by cAMP-dependentprotein kinase. The δ subunit binds four Ca2+ and isidentical to the Ca2+-binding protein **calmodulin**(Chapter 43). The binding of Ca2+ activates the catalyticities of the γ subunit while the molecule remains the dephosphorylated b configuration. However, thephosphorylated a form is only fully activated in the presence of Ca2+. A second molecule of calmodulin, orTpC (the structurally similar Ca2+-binding protein inmuscle), can interact with phosphorylase kinase, causingfurther activation. Thus, activation of muscle contraction and glycogenolysis are carried out by the sameCa2+-binding protein, ensuring their synchronization.

Glycogenolysis in Liver CanBe cAMP-Independent

In addition to the action of **glucagon** in causing formation cAMP and activation of phosphorylase in liver,_**1-adrenergic** receptors mediate stimulation of glycogenolysisby epinephrine and norepinephrine. This involves **cAMP-independent** mobilization of Ca2+from mitochondria into the cytosol, followed by thestimulation of a Ca2+/calmodulin-sensitive phosphorylasekinase. cAMP-independent glycogenolysis is alsocaused by vasopressin, oxytocin, and angiotensin II actingthrough calcium or the phosphatidylinositol bisphosphatepathway (Figure 43–7).

Protein Phosphatase-1Inactivates Phosphorylase

Both phosphorylase a and phosphorylase kinase a aredephosphorylated and inactivated by **protein phosphatase-1.** Protein phosphatase-1 is inhibited by aprotein, **inhibitor-1**, which is active only after it hasbeen phosphorylated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase. Thus, cAMP controls both the activation and inactivation phosphorylase (Figure 18–6). **Insulin**



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

reinforcesthis effect by inhibiting the activation of phosphorylase b. It does this indirectly by increasing

uptake of glucose, leading to increased formation of glucose 6-phosphate, which is an inhibitor of phosphorylasekinase.

Glycogen Synthase & PhosphorylaseActivity Are Reciprocally Regulated(Figure 18–7) Like phosphorylase, glycogen synthase exists in either aphosphorylated or nonphosphorylated state. However, unlike phosphorylase, the active form is dephosphorylated(**glycogen synthase a**) and may be inactivated to**glycogen synthase b** by phosphorylation on serineresidues by no fewer than six different protein kinases. Two of the protein kinases are Ca2+/calmodulindependent(one of these is phosphorylase kinase). Anotherkinase is cAMP-dependent protein kinase, whichallows cAMP-mediated hormonal action to inhibitglycogen synthesis synchronously with the activation ofglycogenolysis. Insulin also promotes glycogenesis inmuscle at the same time as inhibiting glycogenolysis byraising glucose 6-phosphate concentrations, whichstimulates the dephosphorylation and activation of

glycogen synthase. Dephosphorylation of glycogen synthase

b is carried out by protein phosphatase-1, which

is under the control of cAMP-dependent protein kinase.

REGULATION OF GLYCOGENMETABOLISM IS EFFECTED BYA BALANCE IN ACTIVITIESBETWEEN GLYCOGENSYNTHASE & PHOSPHORYLASE

Not only is phosphorylase activated by a rise in concentration cAMP (via phosphorylase kinase), but glycogensynthase is at the same time converted to theinactive form; both effects are mediated via **cAMPdependentprotein kinase.** Thus, inhibition of glycogenolysisenhances net glycogenesis, and inhibition of glycogenesis enhances net glycogenolysis. Furthermore,the dephosphorylation of phosphorylase a, phosphorylasekinase a, and glycogen synthase b is catalyzed by single enzyme of wide specificity—**protein phosphatase**-

1. In turn, protein phosphatase-1 is inhibited by cAMP-dependent protein kinase via inhibitor-1. Thus, glycogenolysis can be terminated and glycogenesiscan be stimulated synchronously, or vice versa, becauseboth processes are keyed to the activity of cAMP-dependentprotein kinase. Both phosphorylase kinase andglycogen synthase may be reversibly phosphorylated inmore than



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

one site by separate kinases and phosphatases. These secondary phosphorylations modify the sensitivity of the primary sites to phosphorylation and dephosphorylation (**multisite phosphorylation**). What is more, they allow insulin, via glucose 6-phosphate elevation, to have effects that act reciprocally to those of cAMP (Figures 18–6 and 18–7).

CLINICAL ASPECTSGlycogen Storage Diseases Are Inherited

"Glycogen storage disease" is a generic term to describe group of inherited disorders characterized by deposition of an abnormal type or quantity of glycogen in the tissues. The principal glycogenoses are summarized inTable 18–2. Deficiencies of **adenylyl kinase** and **cAMP-dependent protein kinase** have also been reported. Some of the conditions described have benefited from liver transplantation.





Figure 18–1. Pathway of glycogenesis and of glycogenolysis in the liver.



Figure 18–8. Coordinated control of glycogenolysis and glycogenesis by cAMP-dependent protein kinase. The reactions that lead to glycogenolysis as a result of an increase in cAMP concentrations are shown with bold arrows, and those that are inhibited by activation of protein phosphatase-1 are shown as broken arrows. The reverse occurs when cAMP concentrations decrease as a result of phosphodiesterase activity, leading to glycogenesis.



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

GLUCONEOGENESIS

Gluconeogenesis is the biosynthesis of new glucose, (i.e. not glucose from glycogen). This process is frequently referred to as endogenous glucose production (EGP). The production of glucose from other carbon skeletons is necessary since the testes, erythrocytes and kidney medulla exclusively utilize glucose for ATP production. The brain also utilizes large amounts of the daily glucose consumed or produced via gluconeogenesis. However, in addition to glucose, the brain can derive energy from ketone bodies which are converted to acetyl-CoA and shunted into the TCA cycle. The primary carbon skeletons used for gluconeogenesis are derived from pyruvate, lactate, glycerol, and the amino acids alanine and glutamine. The liver is the major site of gluconeogenesis, however, as discussed below, the kidney and the small intestine also have important roles to play in this pathway. Synthesis of glucose from three and four carbon precursors is essentially a reversal of glycolysis

Precursor

In humans the main gluconeogenic precursors are lactate, glycerol (which is a part of the triacylglycerol molecule), alanine and glutamine. Altogether, they account for over 90% of the overall gluconeogenesis. Other glucogenic amino acid as well as all citric acid cycle intermediates, the latter through conversion to oxaloacetate, can also function as substrates for gluconeogenesis. In ruminants, propionate is the principal gluconeogenic substrate.

Lactate is transported back to the liver where it is converted into pyruvate by the Cori cycle using the enzyme lactate dehydrogenase. Pyruvate, the first designated substrate of the gluconeogenic pathway, can then be used to generate glucose. Transamination or deamination of amino acids facilitates entering of their carbon skeleton into the cycle directly (as pyruvate or oxaloacetate), or indirectly via the citric acid cycle.

Whether even-chain fatty acids can be converted into glucose in animals has been a longstanding question in biochemistry. It is known that odd-chain fatty acids can be oxidized to yield propionyl CoA, a precursor for succinyl CoA, which can be converted to pyruvate and enter into gluconeogenesis. In plants, specifically seedlings, the glyoxylate cycle can be used to convert fatty acids (acetate) into the primary carbon source of the organism. The glyoxylate cycle produces four-carbon dicarboxylic acids that can enter gluconeogenesis.

The existence of glyoxylate cycles in humans has not been established, and it is widely held

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

that fatty acids cannot be converted to glucose in humans directly. However, carbon-14 has been shown to end up in glucose when it is supplied in fatty acids. Despite these findings, it is considered unlikely that the 2-carbon acetyl-CoA derived from the oxidation of fatty acids would produce a net yield of glucose via the citric acid cycle - however, acetyl-CoA can be converted into pyruvate and lactate through the ketogenic pathway.Put simply, acetic acid (in the form of acetyl-CoA) is used to partially produce glucose; acetyl groups can only form part of the glucose molecules (not the 5th carbon atom) and require extra substrates (such as pyruvate) in order to form the rest of the glucose molecule. But a roundabout pathway does lead from acetyl-coA to pyruvate, via acetoacetate, acetone, acetol and then either propylene glycol or methylglyoxal. Location

In mammals, gluconeogenesis is restricted to the liver, the kidney and possibly the intestine. However these organs use somewhat different gluconeogenic precursors. The liver uses primarily lactate, alanine and glycerol while the kidney uses lactate, glutamine and glycerol. Propionate is the principal substrate for gluconeogenesis in the ruminant liver, and the ruminant liver may make increased use of gluconeogenic amino acids, e.g. alanine, when glucose demand is increased. The capacity of liver cells to use lactate for gluconeogenesis declines from the preruminant stage to the ruminant stage in calves and lambs. In sheep kidney tissue, very high rates of gluconeogenesis from propionate have been observed. The intestine uses mostly glutamine and glycerol.

In all species, the formation of oxaloacetate from pyruvate and TCA cycle intermediates is restricted to the mitochondrion, and the enzymes that convert Phosphoenolpyruvic acid (PEP) to glucose are found in the cytosol. The location of the enzyme that links these two parts of gluconeogenesis by converting oxaloacetate to PEP, PEP carboxykinase, is variable by species: it can be found entirely within the mitochondria, entirely within the cytosol, or dispersed evenly between the two, as it is in humans. Transport of PEP across the mitochondrial membrane is accomplished by dedicated transport proteins; however no such proteins exist for oxaloacetate. Therefore, in species that lack intra-mitochondrial PEP carboxykinase, oxaloacetate must be converted into malate or aspartate, exported from the mitochondrion, and converted back into oxaloacetate in order to allow gluconeogenesis to continue.





KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Pathway

Gluconeogenesis is a pathway consisting of a series of eleven enzyme-catalyzed reactions. The pathway may begin in the mitochondria or cytoplasm, this being dependent on the substrate being used. Many of the reactions are the reversible steps found in glycolysis. Gluconeogenesis begins in the mitochondria with the formation of oxaloacetate by the carboxylation of pyruvate. This reaction also requires one molecule of ATP, and is catalyzed by pyruvate carboxylase. This enzyme is stimulated by high levels of acetyl-CoA (produced in -oxidation in the liver) and inhibited by high levels of ADP and glucose.

Oxaloacetate is reduced to malate using NADH, a step required for its transportation out of the mitochondria. Malate is oxidized to oxaloacetate using NAD^+ in the cytosol, where the remaining steps of gluconeogenesis take place. Oxaloacetate is decarboxylated and then phosphorylated to form phosphoenolpyruvate using the enzyme phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase. A molecule of GTP is hydrolyzed to GDP during this reaction. The next steps in the reaction are the same as reversed glycolysis. However, fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase converts fructose-1,6-bisphosphate to fructose 6-phosphate, using one water molecule and releasing one phosphate. This is also the rate-limiting step of gluconeogenesis. Glucose-6-phosphate is formed from fructose 6-phosphate by phosphoglucoisomerase. Glucose-6-phosphate can be used in other metabolic pathways or dephosphorylated to free glucose. Whereas free glucose can easily diffuse in and out of the cell, the phosphorylated form (glucose-6-phosphate) is locked in the cell, a mechanism by which intracellular glucose levels are controlled by cells. The final reaction of gluconeogenesis, the formation of glucose, occurs in the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum, where glucose-6-phosphate is hydrolyzed by glucose-6-phosphatase to produce glucose. Glucose is shuttled into the cytoplasm by glucose transporters located in the endoplasmic reticulum's membrane.

RECIPROCAL CONTROL OF GLYCOLYSIS AND GLUCONEOGENESIS

Gluconeogenesis and glycolysis are coordinated so that within a cell one pathway is relatively inactive while the other is highly active. If both sets of reactions were highly active at the same time, the net result would be the hydrolysis of four nucleotide triphosphates (two ATP plus two GTP) per reaction cycle. Both glycolysis and gluconeogenesis are highly exergonic under cellular conditions, and so there is no thermodynamic barrier to such simultaneous activity.



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

However, the *amounts* and *activities* of the distinctive enzymes of each pathway are controlled so that both pathways are not highly active at the same time. The rate of glycolysis is also determined by the concentration of glucose, and the rate of gluconeogenesis by the concentrations of lactate and other precursors of glucose.

The interconversion of fructose 6-phosphate and fructose 1,6-bisphosphate is stringently controlled (Figure 16.30). As discussed in Section 16.2.1, AMP stimulates phosphofructokinase, whereas ATP and citrate inhibit it. Fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase, on the other hand, is inhibited by AMP and activated by citrate. A high level of AMP indicates that the energy charge is low and signals the need for ATP generation. Conversely, high levels of ATP and citrate indicate that the energy charge is high and that biosynthetic intermediates are abundant. Under these conditions, glycolysis is nearly switched off and gluconeogenesis is promoted.

hosphofructokinase and fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase are also reciprocally controlled by *fructose* 2,6-bisphosphate in the liver (Section 16.2.2). The level of F-2,6-BP is low during starvation and high in the fed state, because of the antagonistic effects of glucagon and insulin on the production and degradation of this signal molecule. *Fructose* 2,6-bisphosphate strongly stimulates phosphofructokinase and inhibits fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase. Hence, glycolysis is accelerated and gluconeogenesis is diminished in the fed state. During starvation, gluconeogenesis predominates because the level of F-2,6-BP is very low. Glucose formed by the liver under these conditions is essential for the viability of brain and muscle.

The interconversion of phosphoenolpyruvate and pyruvate also is precisely regulated. Recall that pyruvate kinase is controlled by allosteric effectors and by phosphorylation (Section 16.2.3). High levels of ATP and alanine, which signal that the energy charge is high and that building blocks are abundant, inhibit the enzyme in liver. Conversely, pyruvate carboxylase, which catalyzes the first step in gluconeogenesis from pyruvate, is activated by acetyl CoA and inhibited by ADP. Likewise, ADP inhibits phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase. Hence, gluconeogenesis is favored when the cell is rich in biosynthetic precursors and ATP.

The amounts and the activities of these essential enzymes also are regulated. The regulators in this case are hormones. Hormones affect gene expression primarily by changing the rate of transcription, as well as by regulating the degradation of mRNA. Insulin, which rises subsequent

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

to eating, stimulates the expression of phosphofructokinase, pyruvate kinase, and the bifunctional enzyme that makes and degrades F-2,6-BP. Glucagon, which rises during starvation, inhibits the expression of these enzymes and stimulates instead the production of two key gluconeogenic enzymes, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase and fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase. Transcriptional control in eukaryotes is much slower than allosteric control; it takes hours or days in contrast with seconds to minutes. The richness and complexity of hormonal control are graphically displayed by the promoter of the phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase gene, which contains regulatory sequences that respond to insulin, glucagon, glucocorticoids, and thyroid hormone



PENTOSE PHOSPHATE PATHWAY (HMP SHUNT)

The pentose phosphate pathway (also called the phosphogluconate pathway and the hexose monophosphate shunt) is a biochemical pathway parallel to glycolysis that generates NADPH and pentoses (5-carbon sugars). While it does involve oxidation of glucose, its primary

CLASS: I BSc., MB

ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

role is anabolic rather than catabolic. There are two distinct phases in the pathway. The first is the oxidative phase, in which NADPH is generated, and the second is the non-oxidative synthesis of 5-carbon sugars. For most organisms, the pentose phosphate pathway takes place in the cytosol; in plants, most steps take place in plastids.

Similar to glycolysis, the pentose phosphate pathway appears to have a very ancient evolutionary origin. The reactions of this pathway are (mostly) enzyme catalysed in modern cells. They also occur however non-enzymatically under conditions that replicate those of the Archean ocean, and are then catalyzed by metal ions, ferrous iron Fe (II) in particular. The origins of the pathway could thus date back to the prebiotic world.

Pathway

The generation of reducing equivalents, in the form of NADPH, used in reductive biosynthesis reactions within cells (e.g. fatty acid synthesis). Production of ribose-5-phosphate (R5P), used in the synthesis of nucleotides and nucleic acids. Production of erythrose-4-phosphate (E4P), used in the synthesis of aromatic amino acids. Aromatic amino acids, in turn, are precursors for many biosynthetic pathways, including the lignin in wood.

Dietary pentose sugars derived from the digestion of nucleic acids may be metabolized through the pentose phosphate pathway, and the carbon skeletons of dietary carbohydrates may be converted into glycolytic/gluconeogenic intermediates. In mammals, the PPP occurs exclusively in the cytoplasm, and is found to be most active in the liver, mammary gland and adrenal cortex in the human. The PPP is one of the three main ways the body creates molecules with reducing power, accounting for approximately 60% of NADPH production in humans.

One of the uses of NADPH in the cell is to prevent oxidative stress. It reduces glutathione via glutathione reductase, which converts reactive H2O2 into H2O by glutathione peroxidase. If absent, the H_2O_2 would be converted to hydroxyl free radicals by Fenton chemistry, which can attack the cell. Erythrocytes, for example, generate a large amount of NADPH through the pentose phosphate pathway to use in the reduction of glutathione.Hydrogen peroxide is also generated for phagocytes in a process often referred to as a respiratory burst.

Phases

Oxidative phase

In this phase, two molecules of NADP+ are reduced to NADPH, utilizing the energy from the

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ARPAGAM

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

conversion of glucose-6-phosphate into ribulose 5-phosphate.



Regulation

Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase is the rate-controlling enzyme of this pathway. It is allosterically stimulated by NADP⁺. The ratio of NADPH: NADP⁺ is normally about 100:1 in liver cytosol[citation needed]. This makes the cytosol a highly-reducing environment. An NADPH-utilizing pathway forms NADP⁺, which stimulates Glucose-6-phosphate ehydrogenase to produce more NADPH. This step is also inhibited by acetyl CoA.

Erythrocytes and the pentose phosphate pathway

Several deficiencies in the level of activity of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase have been



CLASS: I BSc., MB

COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

observed to be associated with resistance to the malarial parasite Plasmodium falciparum among individuals of Mediterranean and African descent. The basis for this resistance may be a weakening of the red cell membrane (the erythrocyte is the host cell for the parasite) such that it cannot sustain the parasitic life cycle long enough for productive growth.

GLUCURONIC ACID PATHWAY

In liver, the **uronic acid pathway** catalyzes the conversion of glucose to glucuronic acid, ascorbic acid, andpentoses (Figure 20–4). It is also an alternative oxidative pathway for glucose, but-like the pentose phosphatepathway-it does not lead to the generation of ATP.Glucose 6phosphate is isomerized to glucose 1-phosphate, which then reacts with uridine triphosphate(UTP) to form uridine diphosphate glucose (UDPGlc)in a reaction catalyzed by **UDPGlcpyrophosphorylase**, as occurs in glycogen synthesis (Chapter 18). UDPGlc isoxidized at carbon 6 by NAD-dependent UDPGlc dehydrogenasein a two-step reaction to yield UDPglucuronate.UDP-glucuronate is the "active" form of glucuronate for reactions involving incorporation of glucuronic acid into proteoglycans or for reactions inwhich substrates such as steroid hormones, bilirubin, and a number of drugs are conjugated with glucuronate forexcretion urine or bile (Figure 32–14). Glucuronate is reduced to L-gulonate in in an NADPHdependentreaction; L-gulonate is the direct precursor of ascorbate in those animals capable of synthesizing thisvitamin. In humans and other primates as well as guineapigs, ascorbic acid cannot be synthesized because of the absence of L-gulonolactone oxidase. L-Gulonate is metabolizedultimately to D-xylulose 5-phosphate, a constituent of the pentose phosphate pathway.





COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART A (1 mark)

Question number 1-20 (From given all possible 300 MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

- 1. Write a note on autotrophs
- 2. Brief about metabolic pathways
- 3. What do you mean by reducing power of the cell
- 4. Write a note on HMP
- 5. Explain the overview of intermediary metabolism?
- 6. Give an account on catabolism and anabolism?
- 7. What do you mean by amphibolic?
- 8. List the sources of gluconeogenesis
- 9. Write a short note on glycolysis
- 10. Give a brief note on gluconeogenesis
- 11. Brief about glycogenesis
- 12. Brief about glycogenolysis

PART C (6 Marks)

- 13. Explain in detail about the metabolism of glycolysis
- 14. Describe about reciprocal regulation of glycolysis
- 15. Explain the gluconeogenesis
- 16. Explain about pentose phosphate pathway and its importance
- 17. Explain reciprocal regulation of gluconeogenesis
- 18. Explain the importance and reactions of HMP shunt
- 19. Discuss in detail about glucuronic acid pathway and it's significance
- 20. Give a detail account on glycogenesis
- 21. Write in detail about glycogenolysis



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-IV

Lipid metabolism: Fatty acid oxidation- α , β , \Box oxidation. Biosynthesis of saturated and unsaturated fatty acids. Metabolism of cholesterol, triglycerides and ketone bodies.

B-Oxidation of fatty acids

The fatty acids in the body are mostly oxidized by β -oxidation. β -Oxidation may be defined as the oxidation of fatty acids on the p-carbon atom. This results in the sequential removal of a two carbon fragment, acetyl CoA.

Fatty acid oxidation -stages and tissues

The β -oxidation of fatty acids involves three stages

I. Activation of fatty acids occurring in the cytosol;

II. Transport of fatty acids into mitochondria;

lll. β-Oxidation proper in the mitochondrial matrix.

Fatty acids are oxidized by most of the tissues in the body. However, brain, erythrocytes and adrenal medulla cannot utilize fatty acids for energy requirement.

I. Fatty acid activation

Fatty acids are activated to acyl CoA by thiokinases or acyl CoA synthetases. The reaction occurs in two steps and requires ATP, coenzyme A and Mg2+. Fatty acid reacts with ATP to form acyladenylate which then combines with coenzyme A to produce acyl CoA. In the activation, two high energy phosphates are utilized, since ATP is converted to pyrophosphate (PPi). The enzyme inorganic pyrophosphatase hydrolyses PPi to phosphate (Pi). The immediate elimination of PPi makes this reaction totally irreversible. Three different thiokinases, to activate long chain (10-20 carbon), medium chain (4-12 carbon) and short chain (< 4 carbon) fatty acids have been identified.



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COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



II. Transport of acyl CoA into mitochondria

The inner mitochondrial membrane is impermeable to fatty acids. A specialized carnitine carrier system (carnitine shuttle) operates to transport activated fatty acids from cytosol to the mitochondria. This occurs in four steps,

- 1. Acyl group of acyl CoA is transferredto carnitine (B-hydroxy T-trimethyl aminobutyrate), catalysedby carnitine acyltransferase (present on the outer surface of inner mitochondrial membrane).
- 2. The acyl-carnitineis transported across the membrane to mitochondrial matrix by a specific carrier protein.
- 3. Carnitineacyl transferase II (found on the inner surface of inner mitochondrial membrane) convertsacyl-carnitineto acyl CoA.
- 4. The carnitine released returns to cvtosol for reuse.



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Inhibitor of carnitine shuttle : Carnitine acyl transferase I is inhibited by malonyl CoA, a key metabolite involved in fatty acid synthesis that occurs in cytosol (details given later). In other words, while the fatty acid synthesis is in progress (reflected by high concentration of malonyl CoA), their oxidation does not occur, since carnitine shuttle is impaired.

III. B- Oxidation proper

Each cycle of β -oxidation, liberating a two carbon unit-acetyl CoA, occurs in a sequence of four reactions.

1. Oxidation : Acyl CoA undergoes dehydrogenation by an FAD-dependent flavoenzyme, acyl CoA dehydrogenase. A double bond is formed between α and β carbons (i.e.,2 and 3 carbons).

2. Hydration : Enoyl CoA hydratase brings about the hydration of the double bond to form β -hydroxyacyl CoA.

3. Oxidation: β -Hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase catalyses the second oxidation and generates NADH. The product formed is β -ketoacyl CoA.

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4. Cleavage : The final reaction in p-oxidation is the liberation of a 2 carbon fragment, acetyl CoA from acyl CoA. This occurs by a thiolytic cleavage catalysed by β -ketoacyl CoA thiolase (or simply thiolase).

The new acyl CoA, containing two carbons less than the original, reenters the p-oxidation cycle. The process continues till the fatty acid is completely oxidized.





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Oxidation of palmitoyl CoA

The summary of β -oxidation of palmitoyl CoA is shown below Palmitoyl CoA + 7 CoASH + 7 FAD + 7 NAD+ + 7H2C- ---> 8 Acetyl CoA + 7 FADH2 + 7 NADH + 7H+ Palmitoyl CoA undergoes 7 cycles of β -oxidation to yield 8 acetyl CoA. Acetyl CoA can enter citric acid cycle and get completely oxidized to CO2 and H2O.



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COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Energetics of B-oxidation

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The ultimate aim of fatty acid oxidation is to generate energy. The energy obtained from the complete oxidation of palmitic acid (16 carbon) is given in the below table.

The standard free energy of palmitate = 2,340 Cal.

The energy yield by its oxidation-129 ATP $(129 \times 7.3 \text{ Cal}) = 940 \text{ Cal}.$

The efficiency of energy conservation by fatty acid oxidation= $940/2340 \times 100 = 40\%$.

	Mechanism ATP	yield
Ι.	β-Oxidation 7 cycles	
	7 FADH ₂ [oxidized by electron transport chain (ETC), each FADH ₂ gives 2 ATP]	14
	7 NADH (oxidized by ETC, each NADH liberates 3 ATP)	21
H.	From 8 acetyl CoA	
	Oxidized by citric acid cycle, each acetyl CoA provides 12 ATP	96
То	tal energy from one mole of palmitoyl CoA	131
	and willing for activation	

SIDS-a disorder due to blockade in β-oxidation

The sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS) is an unexpected death of healthy infants, usually overnight. The real cause of SIDS is not known. It is now estimated that at least 10% of SIDS is due to deficiency of medium chain acyl CoA dehydrogenase. The enzyme defect has a frequency of 1 in 10,000 births and is, in fact, more prevalent than phenylketonuria. The occurrence of SIDS is explained as follows Glucose is the principal source of energy, soon after eating or feeding babies. After a few hours, the glucose level and its utilization decrease and the rate of fatty acid oxidation must simultaneously increase to meet the energy needs. The sudden death in



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infants is due to a blockade in β -oxidation caused by a deficiency in medium chain acyl CoA dehydrogenase (MCAD).

Jamaican vomiting sickness

This disease is characterized by severe hypoglycemia, v omiting, c onvulsions, c oma and death. It is caused by eating unripe ackee fruit which contains an unusual toxic amino acid, hypoglycin A. This inhibits the enzyme acyl CoA dehydrogenase and thus p-oxidation of fatty acids is blocked, leading to various complications.

Oxidation of odd carbon chain fatty acids

The p-oxidation of saturated fatty acids containing odd number of carbon atoms proceeds in the same manner, as described above for even carbon fatty acids. The only difference is that in the last and final β -oxidation cycle, a three-carbon fragment is left behind (in place of 2 carbon unit for saturated fatty acids). This compound is propionyl CoA which is converted to succinyl CoA as follows

1. PropionylCoA is carboxylated in the presence of ATP, CO2 and vitamin biofin to D-methylmalonyl CoA.

2. Methylmalonyl CoA racemase converts the methylmalonyl CoA to L-form. This reaction (D -

+ L) is essential or the entry of this compound into the metabolic reactions of the body.

3. The next enzyme, methylmalonyl CoA mutase, is dependant on vitamin 812 (deoxyadenosyl cobalamin). Itcatalyses the conversion of methylmalonyl CoA (a branched compound) to succinyl CoA (a straight chain compound), which can enter citric acid cycle.



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Methylmalonie acidemia

Two types of methylmalonic acidemias are known

- 1. Due to deficiency of vitamin B12;
- 2. Due to defect in the enzyme methylmalonyl CoA mutase.

In either case, there is an accumulation of methylmalonic acid in body, followed by its increased excretion in urine. This causes severe metabolic acidosis, damages the central nervous system and retards the growth. It is often fatal in the early years of life.

Oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids

Due to the presence of double bonds, the unsaturated fatty acids are not reduced to the same extent as saturated fatty acids. Therefore, oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids, in general, provides less energy than that of saturated fatty acids. Most of the reactions involved in the oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids are the same as found in the p-oxidation of saturated fatty



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

acids. However, the presence of double bonds poses problem for p-oxidation to proceed. This is overcome by two additional enzymes-an isomerase and an epimerase.

α -Oxidation of fatty acids

 β -Oxidation is the most predominant pathway for fatty acid degradation. However, the removal of one carbon unit at a time by the oxidation of α -carbon atom of fatty acid is known. α -Oxidation does not involve the binding of fatty acid to coenzyme A and no energy is produced.

Refsum's disease is a rare but severe neurological disorder characterized by cerebral ataxia and peripheral neuropathy. The patients of this disease accumulate large quantities of an unusual fatty acid, phytanic acid. It is derived from phytol, a constituent of chlorophyll. Hence it is found mostly in plant foods. However, it I also present in milk lipids and animal fats. Phytanic acid cannot undergo B -oxidation due to the presence of a methyl group on carbon-3.Thisfatty acid undergoes initial α -oxidation (toremove c-carbon as carbon dioxide) and this isfollowed by β -oxidation.

Refsum's disease is caused by a defect in the α -oxidation due to the deficiency of the enzymephytanic acid α -oxidase. The result is that phytanic acid cannot be converted to acompound that can be degraded by β -oxidation. The patients should not consumediets containing chlorophyll (i.e., green leafy vegetables).

□-Oxidation of fatty ac;ds

This is a minor pathway. It involveshydroxylation followed by oxidation of or-carbonpresent as a methyl group at the other end (atone end carboxyl group is present) of fatty acid. This reaction requires cytochrome P450, NADPHand O2, besides the enzymes. The overallreaction may be represented as follows.

CH3-(CH2)n-COO-HO-H₂C-(CH₂)_n-COO--00C-(CH₂)_n-COO-



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

BIOSYNTHESIS OF SATURATED FATTY ACIDS

De novo synthesis of fatty acids (lipogenesis) occurs in the cytosol

This system is present in many tissues, including liver, kidney, brain, lung, mammary gland, and adipose tissue. Its cofactor requirements include NADPH, ATP, Mn2+, biotin, and HCO3 – (as a source of CO2). Acetyl-CoA is the immediate substrate, and free palmitate is the end product.

Production of Malonyl-CoA Is the Initial & Controlling Step in Fatty Acid Synthesis

Bicarbonate as a source of CO2 is required in the initial reaction for the carboxylation of acetyl-CoA to **malonyl-CoA** in the presence of ATP and **acetyl-CoA carboxylase**. Acetyl-CoA carboxylase has a requirement for the vitamin **biotin** (Figure 21–1). The enzyme is a **multienzyme protein** containing a variable number of identical subunits, each containing biotin, biotin carboxylase, biotin carboxyl carrier protein, and transcarboxylase, as well as a regulatory allosteric site. The reaction takes place in two steps: (1) carboxylation of biotin involving ATP and (2) transfer of the carboxyl to acetyl-CoA to form malonyl-CoA.

The Fatty Acid Synthase Complex Is a Polypeptide Containing Seven Enzyme Activities

In bacteria and plants, the individual enzymes of the **fatty acid synthase** system are separate, and the acyl radicals are found in combination with a protein called the **acyl carrier protein** (**ACP**). However, in yeast, mammals, and birds, the synthase system is a multienzyme polypeptide complex that incorporates ACP,

which takes over the role of CoA. It contains the vitamin **pantothenic acid** in the form of 4'phosphopantetheine. The use of one multienzyme functional unit has the advantages of achieving the effect of compartmentalization of the process within the cell without the erection of permeability barriers, and synthesis of all enzymes in the complex is coordinated since it is encoded by a single gene. In mammals, the fatty acid synthase complex is a dimer comprising two identical monomers, each containing all seven enzyme activities of fatty acid synthase on one polypeptide chain (Figure 21–2). Initially, a priming molecule of acetyl-CoA combines with a cysteine \Box SH group catalyzed by**acetyl transacylase**. Malonyl-CoA combines

with the adjacent \Box SH on the 4'phosphopantetheine of ACP of the other monomer, catalyzed by **malonyltransacylase** (reaction 1b), to form **acetyl (acyl)-malonylenzyme.** The acetyl group



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

attacks the methylene group of the malonyl residue, catalyzed by **3-ketoacylsynthase**, and liberates CO2, forming 3-ketoacyl enzyme (acetoacetyl enzyme) (reaction 2), freeing the cysteine SH group. Decarboxylation allows the reaction to go to completion, pulling the whole sequence of reactions in the forward direction. The 3-ketoacyl group is reduced, dehydrated, and reduced again (reactions 3, 4, 5) to form the corresponding saturated acyl-Senzyme. A new malonyl-CoA molecule combines with the \Box SH of 4'phosphopantetheine, displacing the saturated acyl residue onto the free cysteine \Box SH group. The sequence of reactions is repeated six more times until a saturated 16-carbon acyl radical (palmityl) has been assembled. It is liberated from the enzyme complex by the activity of a seventh enzyme in the complex, **thioesterase** (deacylase). The free palmitate must be activated to acyl-CoA before it can proceed via any other metabolic pathway. Its usual fate is esterification into acylglycerols, chain elongation or desaturation, or esterification to cholesteryl ester. In mammary gland, there is a separate thioesterase specific for acyl residues of C8, C10, or C12, which are subsequently found in milk lipids.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II





Figure 21–2. Fatty acid synthase multienzyme complex. The complex is a dimer of two identical polypeptide monomers, 1 and 2, each consisting of seven enzyme activities and the acyl carrier protein (ACP). (Cys—SH, cysteine thiol.) The —SH of the 4'-phosphopantetheine of one monomer is in close proximity to the —SH of the cysteine residue of the ketoacyl synthase of the other monomer, suggesting a "head-to-tail" arrangement of the two monomers. Though each monomer contains all the partial activities of the reaction sequence, the actual functional unit consists of one-half of one monomer interacting with the complementary half of the other. Thus, two acyl chains are produced simultaneously. The sequence of the enzymes in each monomer is based on Wakil.

The equation for the overall synthesis of palmitate from acetyl-CoA and malonyl-CoA is:

 $CH_2CO \cdot S \cdot CoA + 7HOOC \cdot CH_2CO \cdot S \cdot CoA + 14NADPH + 14H^+$

$$\rightarrow$$
 CH₃(CH₂)₁₄COOH + 7CO₂ + 6H₂O + 8CoA · SH + 14NADP⁺

The acetyl-CoA used as a primer forms carbon atoms 15 and 16 of palmitate. The addition of all the subsequent C2 units is via malonyl-CoA. Propionyl- CoA acts as primer for the synthesis of long-chain fatty acids having an odd number of carbon atoms, found particularly in ruminant fat and milk.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 21–3. Biosynthesis of long-chain fatty acids. Details of how addition of a malonyl residue causes the acyl chain to grow by two carbon atoms. (Cys, cysteine residue; Pan, 4'-phosphopante-theine.) The blocks shown in dark blue contain initially a C₂ unit derived from acetyl-CoA (as illustrated) and subsequently the C_n unit formed in reaction 5.

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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Elongation of Fatty Acid Chains Occurs in the Endoplasmic Reticulum

This pathway (the "microsomal system") elongates saturated and unsaturated fatty acyl-CoAs (from C10 upward) by two carbons, using malonyl-CoA as acetyl donor and NADPH as reductant, and is catalyzed by the microsomal **fatty acid elongase** system of enzymes. Elongation of stearyl-CoA in brain increases rapidly during myelination in order to provide C22 and C24 fatty acids for sphingolipids.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

THE NUTRITIONAL STATE REGULATES LIPOGENESIS

Excess carbohydrate is stored as fat in many animals in anticipation of periods of caloric deficiency such as starvation, hibernation, etc, and to provide energy for use between meals in animals, including humans, that take their food at spaced intervals. Lipogenesis converts surplus glucose and intermediates such as pyruvate, lactate, and acetyl-CoA to fat, assisting the anabolic phase of this feeding cycle. The nutritional state of the organism is the main factor regulating the rate of lipogenesis. Thus, the rate is high in the well-fed animal whose diet contains a high proportion of carbohydrate. It is depressed under conditions of restricted caloric intake, on a fat diet, or when there is a deficiency of insulin, as in diabetes mellitus. These latter conditions are associated with increased concentrations of plasma free fatty acids, and an inverse relationship has been demonstrated between hepatic lipogenesis and the concentration of serum-free fatty acids. Lipogenesis is increased when sucrose is fed instead of glucose because fructose bypasses the phosphofructokinase control point in glycolysis and floods the lipogenic pathway.

METABOLISM OF CHOLESTEROL

BIOMEDICAL IMPORTANCE

Cholesterol is present in tissues and in plasma either as free cholesterol or as a storage form, combined with a long-chain fatty acid as cholesteryl ester. In plasma, both forms are transported in lipoproteins (Chapter 25). Cholesterol is an amphipathic lipid and as such is an essential structural component of membranes and of

the outer layer of plasma lipoproteins. It is synthesized in many tissues from acetyl-CoA and is the precursor of all other steroids in the body such as corticosteroids, sex hormones, bile acids, and vitamin D. As a typical product of animal metabolism, cholesterol occurs in foods of animal origin such as egg yolk, meat, liver, and

brain. Plasma low-density lipoprotein (LDL) is the vehicle of uptake of cholesterol and cholesteryl ester into

many tissues. Free cholesterol is removed from tissues by plasma high-density lipoprotein (HDL) and transported to the liver, where it is eliminated from the body either unchanged or after conversion to bile acids in the process known as **reverse cholesterol transport**. Cholesterol is a major constituent of **gallstones**. However, its chief role in pathologic processes is as a factor



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

in the genesis of **atherosclerosis** of vital arteries, causing cerebrovascular, coronary, and peripheral vascular disease.

CHOLESTEROL IS DERIVED ABOUT EQUALLY FROM THE DIET & FROM BIOSYNTHESIS

A little more than half the cholesterol of the body arises by synthesis (about 700 mg/d), and the remainder is provided by the average diet. The liver and intestine account for approximately 10% each of total synthesis in

humans. Virtually all tissues containing nucleated cells are capable of cholesterol synthesis, which occurs in the endoplasmic reticulum and the cytosol.

Acetyl-CoA Is the Source of All Carbon Atoms in Cholesterol

The biosynthesis of cholesterol may be divided into five steps:

- (1) Synthesis of mevalonate occurs from acetyl- CoA.
- (2) Isoprenoid units are formed from mevalonate by loss of CO2.
- (3) Six isoprenoid units condense to form squalene.
- (4) Squalene cyclizes to give rise to the parent steroid, lanosterol.
- (5) Cholesterol is formed from lanosterol.

Step 1—Biosynthesis of Mevalonate: HMG-CoA(3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA) is formed by the reactionsused in mitochondria to synthesize ketone bodies(Figure 22–7). However, since cholesterol synthesisis extramitochondrial, the two pathways are distinct.Initially, two molecules of acetyl-CoA condense toform acetoacetyl-CoA catalyzed by cytosolic **thiolase**.Acetoacetyl-CoA condenses with a further molecule ofacetyl-CoA catalyzed by **HMG-CoA synthase** to formHMG-CoA, which is reduced to **mevalonate** byNADPH catalyzed by **HMG-CoA reductase**. This is the principal regulatory step in the pathway of cholesterolsynthesis and is the site of action of the most effectiveclass of cholesterol-lowering drugs, the HMG-CoAreductase inhibitors (statins) (Figure 26–1).



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 26–1. Biosynthesis of mevalonate. HMG-CoA reductase is inhibited by atorvastatin, pravastatin, and simvastatin. The open and solid circles indicate the fate of each of the carbons in the acetyl moiety of acetyl-CoA.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Step 2—Formation of Isoprenoid Units: Mevalonateis phosphorylated sequentially by ATP by threekinases, and after decarboxylation (Figure 26–2) the activeisoprenoid unit, **isopentenyl diphosphate,** isformed.

Step 3—Six Isoprenoid Units Form Squalene:

Isopentenyl diphosphate is isomerized by a shift of thedouble bond to form **dimethylallyl diphosphate**, thencondensed with another molecule of isopentenyldiphosphate to form the tencarbon intermediate **geranyldiphosphate** (Figure 26–2). A further condensation with isopentenyl diphosphate forms **farnesyldiphosphate**. Two molecules of farnesyl diphosphatecondense at the diphosphate end to form **squalene**. Initially, inorganic pyrophosphate is eliminated, formingpresqualene diphosphate, which is then reduced byNADPH with elimination of a further inorganic pyrophosphatemolecule.

Step 4—Formation of Lanosterol: Squalene can fold into a structure that closely resembles the steroid nucleus (Figure 26–3). Before ring closure occurs, squalene is converted to squalene 2,3-epoxide by a mixed. function oxidase in the endoplasmic reticulum, **squalene epoxidase.** The methyl group on C14 is transferred C13 and that on C8 to C14 as cyclization occurs, catalysedby **oxidosqualene:lanosterol cyclase.**

Step 5—Formation of Cholesterol: The formation of cholesterol from **lanosterol** takes place in the

membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum and involves changes in the steroid nucleus and side chain (Figure 26–3). The methyl groups on C14 and C4 are removed to form 14-desmethyl lanosterol and then zymosterol.

The double bond at C8–C9 is subsequently moved to C5–C6 in two steps, forming **desmosterol.** Finally, the double bond of the side chain is reduced, producing cholesterol. The exact order in which the steps described actually take place is not known with certainty.


CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

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Figure 26–2. Biosynthesis of squalene, ubiquinone, dolichol, and other polyisoprene derivatives. (HMG, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl; \approx , cytokinin.) A farnesyl residue is present in heme a of cytochrome oxidase. The carbon marked with asterisk becomes C₁₁ or C₁₂ in squalene. Squalene synthetase is a microsomal enzyme; all other enzymes indicated are soluble cytosolic proteins, and some are found in peroxisomes.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Figure 26–3. Biosynthesis of cholesterol. The numbered positions are those of the steroid nucleus and the open and solid circles indicate the fate of each of the carbons in the acetyl moiety of acetyl-CoA. Asterisks: Refer to labeling of squalene in Figure 26–2.

CHOLESTEROL SYNTHESIS IS CONTROLLED BY REGULATION OF HMG-CoA REDUCTASE

Regulation of cholesterol synthesis is exerted near the beginning of the pathway, at the HMG-CoA reductasestep. The reduced synthesis of cholesterol in starving animals is accompanied by a decrease in the activity of the enzyme. However, it is only hepatic synthesis that is inhibited by dietary cholesterol. HMG-CoA reductase in liver is inhibited by mevalonate, the immediate product of the pathway, and by cholesterol, the main product. Cholesterol (or a metabolite, eg, oxygenated sterol) represses transcription of the HMG-CoA reductase gene and is also believed to influence translation. A **diurnalvariation** occurs in both cholesterol synthesis and reductase activity. In addition to these mechanisms regulating the rate of protein synthesis, the enzyme activity is also modulated more rapidly by posttranslational modification (Figure 26–4). Insulin or thyroid hormone increases HMG-CoA reductase activity, whereas glucagon or glucocorticoids decrease it. Activity is reversibly modified by phosphorylation-dephosphorylation mechanisms, some of which may becAMP-dependent and therefore immediately responsive to glucagon. Attempts to lower plasma cholesterol inhumans by reducing the amount of cholesterol in the diet produce variable results. Generally, a decrease of 100 mg in dietary cholesterol causes a decrease of approximately 0.13 mmol/L of serum.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022





CLINICAL ASPECTS

The Serum Cholesterol Is Correlated With the Incidence of Atherosclerosis & Coronary Heart Disease

While cholesterol is believed to be chiefly concerned in the relationship, other serum lipids such as triacylglycerols may also play a role. Atherosclerosis is characterized by the deposition of cholesterol and cholesteryl ester from the plasma lipoproteins into the artery wall. Diseases in which prolonged elevated levels of VLDL, IDL, chylomicron remnants, or LDL occur in the blood (eg, diabetes mellitus, lipid nephrosis, hypothyroidism, and other conditions of hyperlipidemia) are often accompanied by premature or more severe atherosclerosis. There is also an inverse relationship between HDL (HDL2) concentrations and coronary heart disease,



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

and some consider that the most predictive relationship is the **LDL:HDL cholesterol ratio.** This is consistent with the function of HDL in reverse cholesterol transport. Susceptibility to atherosclerosis varies widely among species, and humans are one of the few in which the disease can be induced by diets high in cholesterol.

Primary Disorders of the Plasma Lipoproteins (Dyslipoproteinemias) Are Inherited

Inherited defects in lipoprotein metabolism lead to the primary condition of either **hypo-** or **hyperlipoproteinemia** (Table 26–1). In addition, diseases such as diabetes mellitus, hypothyroidism, kidney disease (nephrotic syndrome), and atherosclerosis are associated with secondary abnormal lipoprotein patterns that are very similar to one or another of the primary inherited conditions. Virtually all of the primary conditions are due to a defect at a stage in lipoprotein formation, transport, or destruction (see Figures 25–4, 26–5, and 26–6). Not all of the abnormalities are harmful.

Triglycerides

Triglycerides or Triacylglycerol (TG)synthesis mostly occurs in liver and adipose tissue, and to a lesser extent in other tissues. Fatty acids and glycerol must be activated prior to the synthesis of triacylglycerols. Conversion of fatty acids to acyl CoA by thiokinase is already described. Synthesis of glycerol 3phosphate Two mechanisms are involved for the synthesis of glycerol 3phosphate

1. In the liver, glycerol is activated by glycerol kinase. This enzyme is absent in adipose tissue.

2. In both liver and adipose tissue, glucose serves as a precursor for glycerol 3-phosphate. Dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) produced in glycolysis is reduced by glycerol 3-phosphate dehydrogenase to glycerol 3-phosphate.

Addition of acyl groups to form TG

Glycerol 3-phosphate acyltransferase catalyses the transfer of an acyl group to produce lysophosphatidic acid. DHAP can also accept acyl group, ultimately resulting in the formation of lysophosphatidic acid. Another acyl group is added to lysophosphatidic acid to form phosphatidic acid (1,2-diacyl glycerol phosphate). The enzyme phosphatase cleaves off phosphate of phosphatidic acid to produce diacylglycerol. Incorporation of another acyl group



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

finally results in synthesis of triacylglycerol(Fig.l4.1A. The three fatty acids found in triacylglycerol are not of the same type. A saturated fatty acid is usually present on carbon 1, an unsaturated fatty acid is found on carbon 2, and carbon 3 may have either.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Ketone Bodies

Under metabolic conditions associated with a high rate of fatty acid oxidation, the liver produces considerable quantities of **acetoacetate** and **D(_)-3-hydroxybutyrate** (β -hydroxybutyrate). Acetoacetate continually undergoes spontaneous decarboxylation to yield **acetone**. These three substances are collectively known as the **ketonebodies** (also called acetone bodies or [incorrectly*] "ketones") (Figure 22–5). Acetoacetate and 3-hydroxybutyrate are interconverted by the mitochondrial enzyme **D(_)-3-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase;** the equilibrium is controlled by the mitochondrial [NAD+]/ [NADH] ratio, ie, the **redox state**. The concentration of total ketone bodies in the blood of well-fed mammals does not normally exceed 0.2 mmol/L except in ruminants, where 3-hydroxybutyrate is formed continuously from butyric acid (a product of ruminal fermentation) in the rumen wall. In vivo, the liver appears to be the only organ in nonruminants to add significant quantities of ketone bodies from the liver to the extrahepatic tissues results from active hepatic synthesis coupled with very low utilization. The reverse situation occurs in extrahepatic tissues (Figure 22–6).



Figure 22–5. Interrelationships of the ketone bodies. D(–)-3-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase is a mitochondrial enzyme.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Utilization of ketone bodies

The ketone bodies, being water-soluble, are easily transported from the liver to various tissues. The two ketone bodies-acetoacetate and p-hydroxybutyrate serve as important sources of energy for the peripheral tissues such

as skeletal muscle, cardiac muscle/ renal cortex etc. The tissues which lack mitochondria (eg. erythrocytes) however, cannot utilize ketone bodies. The production of ketone bodies and their utilization become more significant when glucose is in short supply to the tissues, as observed in starvation, and diabetes mellitus.



During prolonged starvation, ketone bodies are the major fuel source for the brain and other parts of central nervous system. It should be noted that the ability of the brain to utilize fatty acids for energy is very limited. The ketone bodies can meet 50-70% of the brain's energy needs. This is an adaptation for the survival of the organism during the periods of food deprivation.

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

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COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Reactions of ketone bodies: B-Hydroxybutyrate is first converted to acetoacetate (reversal of synthesis) and metabolized. Acetoacetate is activated to acetoacetyl CoA by a mitochondrial enzyme thiophorase (succinylCoA acetoacetateCoA transferase. The coenzyme A is donated by succinyl CoA, an intermediate in citric acid cycle. Thiophorase is absent in liver, hence ketone bodies are not

utilized by the liver. Thiolase cleaves acetoacetyl CoA to two moles of acetyl CoA.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS UNIT I

PART A (1 mark) Question number 1-20 (From given 300 all possible MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

- 1. Write a short note on saturated fatty acids
- 2. Give a brief note unsaturated fatty acid
- 3. Write a brief note on ketone bodies
- 4. Give notes on the importance of cholesterol in biological system
- 5. Write about α -oxidation of fatty acids
- 6. Write a short note on \Box -oxidation of fatty acids

PART C (6 Marks)

- 7. Elaborate about β -oxidation of fatty acid pathway
- 8. Explain in detail about biosynthesis of unsaturated fatty acids
- 9. Explain in detail about biosynthesis of saturated fatty acids
- 10. Give a detail account on the metabolism of cholesterol
- 11. Discuss in detail about triglycerides metabolism
- 12. Write elaborately about Ketone bodies and ketogenesis and their metabolism

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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-IV

SYLLABUS

Protein metabolism: Ketogenic and Glucogenic amino acids. Degradation of proteins: Deamination, Transamination and Decarboxylation, Urea cycle.

The pathways of amino acid catabolism, taken together, normally account for only 10% to 15% of the humanbody's energy production; these pathways are not nearly as active as glycolysis and fatty acid oxidation. Fluxthrough these catabolic routes also varies greatly, dependingon the balance between requirements for biosynthetic processes and the availability of a particular amino acid. The 20 catabolic pathways converge to formonly six major products, all of which enter the citric acidcycle (Fig. 18–15). From here the carbon skeletons are diverted to glucone ogenesis or ketogenesis or are completelyoxidized to CO2 and H2O.All or part of the carbon skeletons of seven aminoacids are ultimately broken down to acetyl-CoA. Fiveamino acids are converted to _-ketoglutarate, four tosuccinyl-CoA, two to fumarate, and two to oxaloacetate.Parts or all of six amino acids are converted to pyruvate, which can be converted to either acetyl-CoA oroxaloacetate. We later summarize the individual pathwaysfor the 20 amino acids in flow diagrams, each leading to a specific point of entry into the citric acid cycle. In these diagrams the carbon atoms that enter the citricacid cycle are shown in color. Note that some aminoacids appear more than once, reflecting different fatesfor different parts of their carbon skeletons. Rather than examining every step of every pathway in amino acidcatabolism, we single out for special discussion some enzymatic reactions that are particularly noteworthy for their mechanisms or their medical significance.

KETOGENIC AND GLUCOGENIC AMINO ACIDS

Some Amino Acids Are Converted to Glucose, Others to Ketone Bodies

The seven amino acids that are degraded entirely or inpart to acetoacetyl-CoA and/or acetyl-CoA—phenylalanine,tyrosine, isoleucine, leucine, tryptophan, threonine,and lysine—can yield ketone bodies in the liver,where acetoacetyl-CoA is converted to acetoacetate andthen to acetone and _-hydroxybutyrate (see Fig. 17–18).These are the **ketogenic** amino acids (Fig. 18–15).Their



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ability to form ketone bodies is particularly evidentin uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, in which the liverproduces large amounts of ketone bodies from both fattyacids and the ketogenic amino acids.The amino acids that are degraded to pyruvate, _-ketoglutarate, succinyl-CoA, fumarate, and/or oxaloacetatecan be converted to glucose and glycogen by pathwaysdescribed in Chapters 14 and 15. They are the**glucogenic** amino acids. The division between ketogenicand glucogenic amino acids is not sharp; fiveamino acids—tryptophan, phenylalanine, tyrosine, threonine,and isoleucine—are both ketogenic and glucogenic.Catabolism of amino acids is particularly criticalto the survival of animals with high-protein diets or duringstarvation. Leucine is an exclusively ketogenic aminoacid that is very common in proteins. Its degradationmakes a substantial contribution to ketosis under starvationconditions.



FIGURE 18–15 Summary of amino acidcatabolism. Amino acids are groupedaccording to their major degradative endproduct. Some amino acids are listed morethan once because differentparts



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

of theircarbon skeletons are degraded to differentend products. The figure shows the mostimportant catabolic pathways in vertebrates, but there are minor variations amongvertebrate species. Threonine, for instance, isdegraded via at least two different pathways, and the importance of a given pathway can vary with theorganism and its metabolic conditions. Theglucogenic and ketogenic amino acids arealso delineated in the figure, by colorshading. Notice that five of the amino acidsare both glucogenic and ketogenic. Theamino acids degraded to pyruvate are alsopotentially ketogenic. Only two amino acids, leucine and lysine, are exclusively ketogenic.

DEGRADATION OF PROTEINS

The amino acids undergo certain common reactions like transamination followed by deamination for the liberation of ammonia. The amino group of the amino acids is utilized for the formation of urea which is an excretory end product of protein metabolism. The carbon skeleton of the amino acids is first converted to keto acids (by transamination) which meet one or more of the following fates

- 1. Utilized to generate energy.
- 2. Used for the synthesis of glucose.
- 3. Diverted for the formation of fat or ketone bodies.
- 4. Involved in the production of non-essential amino acids.

The details of general and specific metabolic reactions of amino acids are described in the following pages.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



TRANSAMINATION

The transfer of an amino (- NH2) group from an amino acid to a keto acid is known as transamination. This process involves the interconversion of a pair of amino acids and a pair of keto acids, catalysed by a group of enzymes called transaminases (recently, aminotransferases). Salient features of transamination

- 1. All transaminase require pyridoxal phosphate (PLP), a coenzyme derived from vitamin B6.
- 2. Specific transaminase exist for each pair of amino and keto acids. However, only twonamely,



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aspartate transaminase and alanine transaminase-make a significant contribution for transamination.

- 3. There is no free NH3 liberated, only the transfer of amino group occurs.
- 4. Transamination is reversible



5. Transamination is very important for the redistribution of amino groups and production of non' essential amino acids, as per the requirement of the cell. It involves both catabolism (degradation) and anabolism (synthesis) of amino acids.

6. Transamination diverts the excess amino acids towards energy generation.

7. The amino acids undergo transamination to finally concentrate nitrogen in glutamate. Glutamate is the only amino acid that undergoes oxidative deamination to a significant extent to liberate free NH3 for urea synthesis.

8. All amino acids except lysine, threonine, proline and hydroxyproline participate in transamination.

9. Transamination is not restricted to c-amino groups only. For instance, 6-amino group of ornithine is transaminated.

10. Serum transaminases are important for diagnostic and prognostic purpose.



MECHANISM OF TRANSAMINATION

Transamination occurs in two stages

1. Transfer of the amino group to the coenzyme pyridoxal phosphate (bound to the coenzyme) to form pyridoxamine phosphate.

2. The amino group of pyridoxamine phosphate is then transferred to a keto acid to produce a new amino acid and the enzyme with PLP is regenerated. All the transaminases require pyridoxal Phosphate (PLP), a derivative of vitamin 85. The aldehyde group of PLP is linked with e-amino group of lysine residue, at the active site of the enzyme forming a Schiff base (imine linkage). When an amino acid (substrate) comes in contact with the enzyme, it displaces lysine and a new Schiff base linkage is formed. The amino acid-PLP-Schiff base tightly binds with the enzyme by noncovalent forces. Snell and Braustein proposed a Ping Pong Bi Bi mechanism involving a series of intermediates (aldimines and ketimines) in transamination reaction.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



DEAMINATION

The removal of amino group from the amino acids as NH3 is deamination. Transamination (discussed above) involves only the shuffling of amino groups among the amino acids. On the Other hand, deamination results in the liberation of ammonia for urea synthesis. Simultaneously, the carbon skeleton of amino acids is converted to keto acids. Deamination may be either oxidative or non-oxidative.

1. Oxidative deamination

Oxidative deamination is the liberation of free ammonia from the amino group of amino acids coupled with oxidation. This takes place mostly in liver and kidney. The purpose of oxidative deamination is to provide NH3 for urea synthesis and c-keto acids for a variety of reactions, including energy generation.

Role of glutamate dehydrogenase: In the process of transamination the amino groups of most amino acids are transferred to a-ketoglutarate to produce glutamate. Thus, glutamate serves as a collection centre for amino groupsin the biological system. Glutamate rapidly



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

undergoes oxidative deamination, catalysed byglutamate dehydrogenase (CDH) to liberate ammonia. This enzyme is unique in that it canutilize either NAD+ or NADP+ as a coenzvme. Conversion of glutamate to α -ketoglutarate occurs through the formation of an intermediate, α -iminoglutarate.Glutamate dehydrogenase catalysedreactionis importantas it reversiblylinks up glutamatemetabolism with TCA cycle through α -ketoglutarateG.DH is involvedin both catabolicandanabolic reactions.

Regulation of GDH activity:Glutamatedehydrogenase is a zinc containing mitochondrial enzyme. It is a complex enzyme consisting of six identical units with a molecular weight of 56,000 each. CDH is controlled byallosteric regulation. GTP and ATP inhibitwhereasGDP and ADP activate-glutamatedehydrogenase. Steroid and thyroid hormonesinhibit GDH.Afteringestion of a is protein-rich meal, liverglutamate level is elevated. It converted toαketoglutaratewithliberation of NH3. Further, when the cellular energy levels are low, thedegradation of glutamateis increased to providea-ketoglutarate which enters TCA cycle toliberate energy.

Oxidative deamination by amino acid oxidases: L-Amino acid oxidase and D-amino acidoxidase are flavoproteins, possessing F MN and FAD, respectively. They act on the correspondingamino acids (L or D) to produce o-keto acids and NH3. In this reaction, oxygen is reduced lo H2O2, which is later decomposed by catalase. The activity of L-amino acid oxidase is muchlow while that of D-amino acid oxidase is highin tissues (mostly Liver and kidney). L - Aminoacidoxidase does not act on glycine and dicarboxylicacids. This enzyme, due to its very low activity, does not appear to play any significant role in the amino acid metabolism.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Fate of D-amino acids: D-Amino acids arefound in plants and microorganisms. They are,however,not presentin the mammalianproteins.But D-aminoacidsare regularlytakenin the dietand metabolized by the body. D-Amino acidoxidase converts them to the respective a-ketoacidsby oxidativedeamination. The α -ketoacidsso produced undergo transamination to beconverted to L-amino acids which participate invariousmetabolisms. Ketoacidsmay be oxidizedto generate energy or serve as precursors forglucoseand fat synthesis. Thus, D-amino acidoxidase is important as it initiates the first stepfor the conversion of unnatural D-amino acids toL-amino acids in the body (Fig.15.7).





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Non-Oxidative deamination

Some of the amino acids can be deaminated o liberate NH3 without undergoing oxidation (a)**Amino acid dehydrases:** Serine,threonineand homoserine are the hydroxy amino acids.They undergo non-oxidative deaminationcatalysed by PLP-dependent dehydrases(dehydratases).



(b)**Amino acid desulfhydrases:** The sulfuraminoacids,namelycysteineandhomocysteine undergo deamination coupled withdesulfhydration to give keto acids.



(c) Deamination of histidine: The enzymehistidaseactson histidineto liberateNH3 by anonoxidative deamination process.



ItAmmonia is constantlybeing liberated in themetabolism of amino acids (mostly) and other nitrogenous compounds. At the physiologicalpH, ammonia exist as ammonium (NH4+ ion).

1. Formation of Ammonia



The production of NH3 occurs from theamino acids (transamination and deamination), biogenic amines, amino group of purines and pyrimidines and by the action of intestinalbacteria(urease) on urea.

2. Transport and storage of NH3

Despite a regular and constant production ofNH3 from various tissues, its concentration inis important for NH3 transport frommuscle to liver by glucose-alaninecycle.Role of glutamine: Glutamine is astorehouse of NH3. It is present at thehighest concentration (8 mg/dl in adults)in blood among the amino acids. Glutamineservesas a storageand transport form of NH3. Its synthesis mostly occurs in liver, brain andmuscle. Ammonia is removed from the brainpredominantlyas glutamine. Glutamineis freelydiffusible in tissues, hence easily transported.Glutamine synthetase (a mitochondrialenzyme) is responsible for the synthesis ofglutamine from glutamate and ammonia. Thisreaction is unidirectional and requires ATP andMg2+ ions.Glutamine can be deaminated by hydrolysis. To release ammonia by glutaminase an enzyme mostly found in kidney and intestinalcells.



Functions of ammonia is not just a waste product of nitrogen metabolism. It is involved (directly orvia glutamine) for the synthesis of manycompounds in the body. These include



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

nonessentialamino acids, purines, pyrimidines, amino sugars, asparagineetc. Ammonium ions(NH4+) are very important to maintain acid-basebalance of the body.

3. Functions of ammonia

The organisms, during the course of evolution, have developed different mechanisms for the disposal of ammonia from the body. The animals in this regard are of three different types (a) Ammoniotelic: The aquatic animals dispose of NH3 into the surrounding water.

(b) Uricotelic: Ammonia is converted mostlyto uric acid e.g. reptiles and birds.

(c) Ureotelic: The mammals including manconvert NH3 to urea. Urea is a non-toxic and soluble compound, hence easily excreted.

4. Toxicity of ammonia

Even a marginal elevation in the bloodammonia concentration is harmful to the brain.Ammonia, when it accumulates in the body, results in slurring of speech and blurring of the vision and causes tremors. It may lead to comaand, finally, death, if not corrected.

Hyperammonemia: Elevation in blood NH3levelmay be geneticor acquired. Impairment in urea synthesisdue to a defect in any one of thefive enzymes is described in urea synthesis.All these disorders lead to hyperammonemiaand cause mental retardation. The acquiredhyperammonemia may be due to hepatitis,alcoholism etc. where the urea synthesisbecomes defective, hence NH3 accumulates.Explanation for NH3 toxicity: The reactioncatalysedby glutamatedehydrogenaseprobablyexplains the toxic effects of NH3 in brain.

$$\alpha$$
-Ketoglutarate + NH₃ \leftarrow \rightarrow Glutamate

Accumulation of NH3 shifts the equilibrium to the right with more glutamate formation, hence more utilization of α -ketoglutarate. α -Ketoglutarate is a key intermediate in TCA cycleand its depleted levels impair the TCA cycle. The net result is that production of energy (ATP) by the brain is reduced. The toxic effects of NHson brain are, therefore, due to impairment in ATP formation.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Trapping and elimination of ammonia: When the plasma level of ammonia is highly elevated, intravenous administration of sodium benzoateand phenyllactate is done. These compounds can respectively condense with glycine and glutamate to form water soluble products that can be easily excreted. By this way, ammoniacan be trapped and removed from the body. Insome instances of toxic hyperammonemia, hemodialysis may become necessary.

Urea Cycle

Urea is the end product of proteinmetabolism (amino acid metabolism). Thenitrogen of amino acids, converted to ammonia(as described above), is toxic to the body. It is converted to urea and detoxified. As such, ureaaccounts for 80-90% of the nitrogen containingsubstances excreted in urine.



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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Urea is synthesized in liver and transported to kidneys for excretion in urine. Urea cycle is the first metabolic cycle that was elucidated by Hans Krebs and Kurt Henseleit (1932), hence it is known as Krebs-Henseleit cycle. The individual reactions, howeverw ere described inmore detail later on by Ratner and Cohen. Urea has two amino (-NH) groups, one derived from NH3 and the other from aspartate. Carbon atom is supplied by CO2. Urea synthesis a five-step cyclic process, with five distinct enzymes. The first two enzymes are present inmitochondria while the rest are localized incytosol.

1. **Synthesis of carbamoyl phosphate:**Carbamoyl phosphate synthase 1 (CPS I) ofmitochondria catalyses the condensation of NH4 ions with CO2 to form carbamoylphosphate. This step consumes two ATP and isirreversible, and rate-limiting. CPS I requires N-acetylglutamatefor its activity. Another enzyme,carbamoyl phosphate synthase II (CPS II)-involved in pyrimidinesynthesis-is present incytosol. It accepts amino group from glutamineand does not require N-acetylglutamatefor itsactivity.

2. Formation of citrulline: Citrulline issynthesized from carbamoyl phosphate andornithine by ornithine transcarbamoylase.Ornithine is regenerated and used in urea cycle. Therefore, its role is comparable to that ofoxaloacetatein citric acid cycle. Ornithine and citrulline are basic amino acids. (They are neverfound in proteinstructuredue to lack of codons).Citrulline produced in this reaction is transported cytosol by a transporter system.

3. **Synthesis of arginosuccinate:** Arginosuccinatesynthase condenses citrulline withaspartate to produce arginosuccinate. Thesecond amino group of urea is incorporated in this reaction. This step requires ATP which iscleaved to AMP and pyrophosphate (PPi). The latter is immediately broken down to inorganic phosphate (Pi).

4. **Cleavage of arginosuccinate:**Arginosuccinasecleaves arginosuccinate to give arginine and fumarate. Arginine is the immediate precursor for urea. Fumarate liberated hereprovides a connecting link with TCA cycle, glucone ogenesis etc.

5. Formation of urea: Arginase is the fifthand final enzyme that cleaves arginine to yieldurea and ornithine. Ornithine, so regenerated, enters mitochondria for its reuse in the ureacycle. Arginase is activated by Co2+ and Mn2+. Ornithine and lysine compete with arginine(competitiveinhibition). Arginase is mostlyfound in the liver, while the rest of the enzymes



(four)of urea cycle are also present in other tissues.For this reason,argininesynthesismay occur tovarying degrees in many tissues. But only theliver can ultimately produce urea.

Overall reactions and energetics

The ureacycle is irreversibleand consumes4ATP. Two ATP are utilized for the synthesisofcarbamoyl phosphate. One ATP is converted toAMP and PPi to producearginosuccinatewhichequals to 2 ATP. Hence 4 ATP are actuallyconsumed.

NH4+ + CO2 + Aspartate + 3ATP ---→ Urea+ Fumarate+ 2 ADP + 2 Pi + AMP + PPi

Regulation of Urea cycle

The first reaction catalysed by carbamoylphosphate synthase t (CPS I) is rate limitingreactionor committedstep in ureasynthesis.CPSI is allostericallyactivatedby N-acetylglutamate(NAC). It is synthesized from glutamate andacetyl CoA by synthase and degraded by ahydrolase.The rateof ureasynthesis liver is correlated with the concentration of N-acetylglutamate.High concentrationsof arginine increaseNAG.The consumption of a protein-rich mealincreasesthe level of NAG in liver, leading toenhanced urea synthesis.Carbamoyl phosphate synthase I andglutamate dehydrogenasesare localized in themitochondria. They coordinate with each otherin the formation of NH1, and its utilization for the synthesis of carbamoyl phosphate. Theremaining four enzymes of urea cycle are mostlycontrolled by the concentration of theirrespective substrates.

Disposal of urea

Urea produced in the liver freely diffuses and is transported in blood to kidneys, and excreted.A small amount of urea enters the intestinewhere it is broken down to CO2 and NH3 by thebacterialenzyme urease.This ammonia is eitherlost in the feces or absorbed into the blood. Inrenal failure, the blood urea level is elevated(uremia), resulting in diffusion of more urea into intestine and its breakdown to NH3.Hyperammonemia (increased blood NH3) is commonly seen in patients of kidney failure. For these patients, or al administration of antibiotics(neomycin) to kill intestinal bacteria is advised.



Integration betweenurea cycle and TGA cycle

Urea cycle is linked with TCA cycle in threedifferent ways. This is regarded asbicyclic integration between the two cycles.

1. The production of fumarate in urea cycleis the most importantintegratingpoint with TCAcycle. Fumarateis convertedto malateand thento oxaloacetate in TCA cycle. Oxaloacetateundergoestransaminationto produce aspartatewhich enters urea cycle. Here, it combines withcitrulline to produce arginosuccinate. Oxaloacetateis an important metabolite which cancombine with acetyl CoA to form citrate and get finally oxidized. Oxaloacetatecan also serve as a precursor for the synthesis of glucose(gluconeogenesis).

2. ATP (12) are generated in the TCA cyclewhile ATP (4) are utilized for urea synthesis.

3. Citric acid cycle is an important metabolicpathway for the complete oxidation of variousmetabolitesto CO2 and H2O. The CO2liberatedin TCA cycle (in the mitochondria) can beutilized in urea cycle.

Metabolic disorders of urea cycle

Metabolicdefects associated with each of the five enzymes of urea cycle have been reported (Table 15.1). All the disorders invariably lead to a build-up in blood ammonia (hyperammonemia), leading to toxicity. Other metabolites of urea cycle also accumulate which, however, depends on the specificenzyme defect. The clinical symptoms associated with defect in urea cycle enzymes include vomiting, lethargy, irritability, ataxia and mental retardation.

TABLE 15.1 Metabolic defects in urea cycle	
Defect	Enzyme involved
Hyperammonemia type I	Carbamoyl phosphate synthase I
Hyperammonemia type II	Ornithine transcarbamoylase
Citrullinemia	Arginosuccinate synthase
Arginosuccinic aciduria	Arginosuccinase
Hyperargininemia	Arginase



Blood urea-clinical importance

In healthy people, the normal blood ureaconcentration is 10-a0 mg/dl. Higher protein intake marginally increases blood urea level;however, this is well within normal range. About15-30 g of urea (7-15 g nitrogen) is excreted inurine per day.Blood urea estimation is widely used as ascreeningtestfor the evaluation kidney (renal)function. It is estimated in the laboratory either by urease method or diacetyl monoxime (DAM)procedure. Elevation in blood urea may bebroadly classified into three categories.

1. Pre-renal: This is associated withincreased protein breakdown, leading to anegative nitrogen balance, as observed aftermajor surgery, prolonged fever, diabetic coma,thyrotoxicosis etc. In leukaemia and bleedingdisorders also, blood urea is elevated.

2. Renal: In renal disorders like acute glomerulonephritis, chronic nephritis, nephrosclerosis, polycystic kidney, blood urea is increased.

3. Post-renal: Whenever there is an obstructionin the urinary tract (e.g. tumours, stones, enlargementof prostategland etc.), blood ureal selevated. This is due to increase dreabsorption of urea from the renal tubules.

The termuremiais used to indicate increased blood urea levels due to renal failure. Azotemia reflects a condition with elevation inblood urea/orother nitrogen metabolites which may or may not be associated with renal diseases.

Non-protein nitrogen (NPN)

As is obvious from the name, the term NPNrefersto all the nitrogen-containingsubstancesother than proteins. These include urea (mostabundant), creatinine, creatine, uric acid,peptides, amino acids etc. In healthy persons,NPN concentration in blood is 20-40 mg/dl.The molecular weight of urea is 60 and abouthalf of it (28) is contributed by the two nitrogenatoms. Thus, if blood urea concentration is 60mg, then about half of it-28 mg-is blood ureanitrogen (BU N). Therefore,

$BUN = \frac{1}{2} NPN$

NPN = 2 BUN

In some countries, estimations of BUN orNPN areused rather than blood urea forassessingkidney function.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 29–9. Reactions and intermediates of urea biosynthesis. The nitrogen-containing groups that contribute to the formation of urea are shaded. Reactions ① and ② occur in the matrix of liver mitochondria and reactions ③, ④, and ⑤ in liver cytosol. CO_2 (as bicarbonate), ammonium ion, ornithine, and citrulline enter the mitochondrial matrix via specific carriers (see heavy dots) present in the inner membrane of liver mitochondria.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: Biochemistry II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS UNIT V

PART A (1 mark)

Question number 1-20 (From given 300 all possible MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

- 1. Write a short note ketogenic amino acid
- 2. Write a brief note on glucogenic amino acid
- 3. Explain briefly about deamination of proteins
- 4. Write notes on transamination of proteins
- 5. Give short note on deamination proteins

PART C (6 Marks)

- 1. Elaborate about the different types of protein degradation
- 2. Discuss in detail about urea cycle



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

UNIT-V

Nucleic acid Metabolism and Biological oxidation: Biosynthesis and degradation of purine and pyrimidine nucleotides. Mitochondrial Electron Transport Chain: electron carriers, sites of ATP production, inhibitors of ETC, oxidative phosphorylation: structure of ATPase complex, chemiosmotic theory, inhibitors of oxidative phosphorylation and uncouplers, Mitochondrial shuttle system.

PURINES, PYRIMIDINES, NUCLEOSIDES, & NUCLEOTIDES

Purines and pyrimidines are nitrogen-containing heterocycles, cyclic compounds whose rings contain both carbon and other elements (hetero atoms). Note that the smaller pyrimidine has the *longer* name and the larger purine the *shorter* name and that their six-atom rings are numbered in opposite directions (Figure 33–1). The planar character of purines and pyrimidines facilitates their close association, or "stacking," which stabilizes double-stranded DNA (Chapter 36). The oxo and amino groups of purines and pyrimidines exhibit keto-enol and amine-imine tautomerism (Figure 33–2), but physiologic conditions strongly favor the amino and oxo forms.



Purine



Figure 33–1. Purine and pyrimidine. The atoms are numbered according to the international system.

Nucleosides & Nucleotides

Nucleosides are derivatives of purines and pyrimidines that have a sugar linked to a ring nitrogen. Numerals with a prime (eg, 2' or 3') distinguish atoms of the sugar from those of the heterocyclic base. The sugar in **ribonucleosides** is D-ribose, and in **deoxyribonucleosides** it is 2-deoxy-D-ribose. The sugar is linked to the heterocyclic base via a _-**N-glycosidic bond**, almost always to N-1 of a pyrimidine or to N-9 of a purine.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 33-3. Ribonucleosides, drawn as the syn conformers.

Mononucleotides are nucleosides with a phosphorylgroup esterified to a hydroxyl group of the sugar. The3'- and 5'-nucleotides are nucleosides with a phosphorylgroup on the 3'- or 5'- hydroxyl group of the sugar, respectively. Since most nucleotides are 5'-, the prefix"5'-" is usually omitted when naming them. UMP anddAMP thus represent nucleotides with a phosphorylgroup on C-5 of the pentose. Additional phosphorylgroups linked by acid anhydride bonds to the phosphorylgroup of a mononucleotide form nucleosidediphosphates and triphosphates (Figure 33–4). Steric hindrance by the base restricts rotation about sthe β -N-glycosidic bond of nucleosides and nucleotides. Both therefore exist as syn or anti conformers (Figure 33–5). While both conformers occur in nature, anti conformers predominate. Table 33–1 lists themajor purines and pyrimidines and their nucleosideand nucleotide derivatives. Single-letter abbreviationsare used to identify adenine (A), guanine (G), cytosine(C), thymine (T), and uracil (U), whether free or presentin nucleosides or nucleotides. The prefix "d"(deoxy) indicates that the sugar is 2'-deoxy-D-ribose(eg, dGTP).

BIOSYNTHESIS OF PURINE NUCLEOTIDES

Purine and pyrimidine nucleotides are synthesized invivo at rates consistent with physiologic need. Intracellularmechanisms sense and regulate the pool sizes ofnucleotide triphosphates (NTPs), which rise duringgrowth or tissue regeneration when cells are rapidly dividing.Early investigations of nucleotide biosynthesisemployed birds, and later ones used *Escherichia coli*.Isotopic precursors fed to pigeons established the sourceof each atom of a purine base



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

(Figure 34–1) and initiated study of the intermediates of purine biosynthesis. Three processes

contribute to purine nucleotidebiosynthesis. These are, in order of decreasing importance:

- (1) synthesis from amphibolic intermediates(synthesis de novo),
- (2) phosphoribosylation of purines, and
- (3) phosphorylation of purine nucleosides.



Amide nitrogen of glutamine

Figure 34–1. Sources of the nitrogen and carbonatoms of the purine ring. Atoms 4, 5, and 7 (shaded) derivefrom glycine.

INOSINE MONOPHOSPHATE (IMP)IS SYNTHESIZED FROM AMPHIBOLICINTERMEDIATES

Figure 34–2 illustrates the intermediates and reactions for conversion of α -D-ribose 5-phosphate to inosine monophosphate (IMP). Separate branches then lead to AMP and GMP (Figure 34–3). Subsequent phosphoryl transfer from ATP converts AMP and GMP to ADP and GDP. Conversion of GDP to GTP involves a second phosphoryl transfer from ATP, whereas conversion of ADP to ATP is achieved primarily by oxidative phosphorylation (see Chapter 12).

Multifunctional Catalysts Participate inPurine Nucleotide Biosynthesis

In prokaryotes, each reaction of Figure 34–2 is catalysed by a different polypeptide. By contrast, in eukaryotes, the enzymes are polypeptides with multiplecatalytic activities whose adjacent catalytic sites facilitate channeling of intermediates between sites. Three distinct multifunctional enzymes catalyze reactions 3,4, and 6, reactions 7 and 8, and reactions 10 and 11 of Figure 34–2.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Antifolate Drugs or Glutamine AnalogsBlock Purine Nucleotide Biosynthesis

The carbons added in reactions 4 and 5 of Figure 34–2are contributed by derivatives of tetrahydrofolate.Purine deficiency states, which are rare in humans, generallyreflect a deficiency of folic acid. Compounds that inhibit formation of tetrahydrofolates and therefore block purine synthesis have been used in cancerchemotherapy. Inhibitory compounds and the reactionsthey inhibit include azaserine (reaction 5, Figure 34–2), diazanorleucine (reaction 2), 6-mercaptopurine (reactions13 and 14), and mycophenolic acid (reaction 14).

"SALVAGE REACTIONS" CONVERTPURINES & THEIR NUCLEOSIDES TOMONONUCLEOTIDES

Conversion of purines, their ribonucleosides, and theirdeoxyribonucleosides to mononucleotides involves socalled"salvage reactions" that require far less energythan de novo synthesis. The more important mechanisminvolves phosphoribosylation by PRPP (structureII, Figure 34–2) of a free purine (Pu) to form a purine5′-mononucleotide (Pu-RP).

 $Pu + PR - PP \rightarrow PRP + PP_i$

Two phosphoribosyl transferases then convert adenine AMP and hypoxanthine and guanine to IMP or GMP (Figure 34–4). A second salvage mechanism involves phosphoryl transfer from ATP to a purine ribonucleoside (PuR):

$PuR + ATP \rightarrow PuR - P + ADP$

Adenosine kinase catalyzes phosphorylation of adenosineand deoxyadenosine to AMP and dAMP, and deoxycytidinekinase phosphorylates deoxycytidine and2'-deoxyguanosine to dCMP and dGMP.Liver, the major site of purine nucleotide biosynthesis,provides purines and purine nucleosides for salvageand utilization by tissues incapable of their biosynthesis.For example, human brain has a low level of PRPPamidotransferase (reaction 2, Figure 34–2) and hencedepends in part on exogenous purines. Erythrocytesand polymorphonuclear leukocytes cannot synthesize5-phosphoribosylamine (structure III, Figure 34–2)and therefore utilize exogenous purines to form nucleotides.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



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5/25



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

AMP & GMP Feedback-Regulate PRPPGlutamyl Amidotransferase

Since biosynthesis of IMP consumes glycine, glutamine,tetrahydrofolate derivatives, aspartate, and ATP, it is advantageous to regulate purine biosynthesis. Themajor determinant of the rate of de novo purine nucleotidebiosynthesis is the concentration of PRPP, whose pool size depends on its rates of synthesis, utilization, and degradation. The rate of PRPP synthesis depends on theavailability of ribose 5-phosphate and on the activity of PRPP synthase, an enzyme sensitiveto feedback inhibition by AMP, ADP, GMP, and GDP.

AMP & GMP Feedback-RegulateTheir Formation From IMP

Two mechanisms regulate conversion of IMP to GMPand AMP. AMP and GMP feedbackinhibit adenylosuccinatesynthase and IMP dehydrogenase (reactions12 and 14, Figure 34–3), respectively. Furthermore,conversion of IMP to adenylosuccinate en route toAMP requires GTP, and conversion of xanthinylate(XMP) to GMP requires ATP. This cross-regulationbetween the pathways of IMP metabolism thus servesto decrease synthesis of one purine nucleotide whenthere is a deficiency of the other nucleotide. AMP andGMP also inhibit hypoxanthineguanine phosphoribosyltransferase,which converts hypoxanthine and guanineto IMP and GMP (Figure 34–4), and GMP feedback-inhibits PRPP glutamyl amidotransferase (reaction2, Figure 34–2).


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CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 34–4. Phosphoribosylation of adenine, hypoxanthine, and guanine to form AMP, IMP, and GMP, respectively.

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

ARPAGAM

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

REDUCTIONOFRIBONUCLEOSIDEDIPHOSPHATESFORMSDEOXYRIBONUCLEOSIDEDIPHOSPHATES

Reduction of the 2'-hydroxyl of purine and pyrimidineribonucleotides, catalyzed by the ribonucleotide reductasecomplex (Figure 34–5), forms deoxyribonucleosidediphosphates (dNDPs). The enzyme complexis active only when cells are actively synthesizing DNA.Reduction requires thioredoxin, thioredoxin reductase, and NADPH. The immediate reductant, reduced thioredoxin, is produced by NADPH:thioredoxin reductase(Figure 34-5). Reduction of ribonucleosidediphosphates (NDPs) to deoxyribonucleoside diphosphates(dNDPs) is subject to complex regulatory controlsthat achieve balanced production of deoxyribonucleotides for synthesis of DNA (Figure 34–6).



BIOSYNTHESIS OF PYRIMIDINENUCLEOTIDES

Figure 34–7 summarizes the roles of the intermediatesand enzymes of pyrimidine nucleotide biosynthesis. The catalyst for the initial reaction is *cytosolic* carbamoylphosphate synthase II, a different enzyme from the *mitochondrial*carbamoyl phosphate synthase I of urea synthesis(Figure 29–9). Compartmentation thus providestwo independent pools of carbamoyl phosphate. PRPP, an early participant in purine nucleotide synthesis (Figure 34–2), is a much laterparticipant in pyrimidinebiosynthesis.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Multifunctional ProteinsCatalyze the Early Reactionsof Pyrimidine Biosynthesis

Five of the first six enzyme activities of pyrimidinebiosynthesis reside on multifunctional polypeptides.One such polypeptide catalyzes the first three reactions of Figure 34–2 and ensures efficient channeling of carbamoylphosphate to pyrimidine biosynthesis. A second bifunctional enzyme catalyzes reactions 5 and 6.

THE DEOXYRIBONUCLEOSIDES OFURACIL & CYTOSINE ARE SALVAGED

While mammalian cells reutilize few free pyrimidines, "salvage reactions" convert the ribonucleosides uridineand cytidine and the deoxyribonucleosides thymidineand deoxycytidineto ATPdependentphosphoryltransferases their respective nucleotides. (kinases) catalyze thephosphorylation of the nucleoside diphosphates 2'-deoxycytidine,2'-deoxyguanosine, and 2'deoxyadenosineto their corresponding nucleoside triphosphates. In addition,orotate phosphoribosyltransferase (reaction 5, Figure 34-7), an enzyme of pyrimidine nucleotide synthesis, salvages orotic acid by converting it to orotidine monophosphate (OMP).

Methotrexate Blocks Reduction of Dihydrofolate

Reaction 12 of Figure 34–7 is the only reaction of pyrimidinenucleotide biosynthesis that requires a tetrahydrofolatederivative. The methylene group of *N*5,*N*10-methylene-tetrahydrofolate is reduced to the methyl group that is transferred, and tetrahydrofolate isoxidized to dihydroch34For further pyrimidine synthesis to occur, dihydrofolatemust be reduced back to tetrahydrofolate, a reactioncatalyzed by dihydrofolate reductase. Dividing cells,

which must generate TMP and dihydrofolate, thus are especially sensitive to inhibitors of dihydrofolate reductasesuch as the anticancer drug **methotrexate**.

Certain Pyrimidine Analogs AreSubstrates for Enzymes of PyrimidineNucleotide Biosynthesis

Orotate phosphoribosyltransferase (reaction 5, Figure34–7) converts the drug **allopurinol** (Figure 33–12) to a nucleotide in which the ribosyl phosphate is attached to N-1 of the pyrimidine ring. The anticancer drug**5-fluorouracil** (Figure 33–12) is also phosphoribosylated by orotate phosphoribosyl transferase.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

REGULATION OF PYRIMIDINENUCLEOTIDE BIOSYNTHESIS

Gene Expression & Enzyme ActivityBoth Are Regulated

The activities of the first and second enzymes of pyrimidinenucleotide biosynthesis arecontrolled by allosteric gulation. Carbamoyl phosphate synthase II (reaction1, Figure 34–7) is inhibited by UTP and purine nucleotidesbut activated by PRPP. Aspartate transcarbamoylase(reaction 2, Figure 34–7) is inhibited byCTP but activated by ATP. In addition, the first three and the last two enzymes of the pathway are regulated by coordinate repression and derepression.

Purine & Pyrimidine NucleotideBiosynthesis Are Coordinately Regulated

Purine and pyrimidine biosynthesis parallel one anothermole for mole, suggesting coordinated control of their biosynthesis. Several sites of cross-regulation characterizepurine and pyrimidine nucleotide biosynthesis. The PRPP synthase reaction (reaction 1, Figure 34–2), which forms a precursor essential for both processes, isfeedback-inhibited by both purine and pyrimidine nucleotides.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Figure 34–6. Regulation of the reduction of purineand pyrimidine ribonucleotides to their respective2'-deoxyribonucleotides. Solid lines represent chemicalflow. Broken lines show negative $(_-)$ or positive $(_+)$ feedback regulation.

HUMANS CATABOLIZE PURINESTO URIC ACID

Humans convert adenosine and guanosine to uric acid(Figure 34–8). Adenosine is first converted to inosineby adenosine deaminase. In mammals other thanhigher primates, uricase converts uric acid to the watersolubleproduct allantoin. However, since humans lackuricase, the end product of purine catabolism in humansis uric acid.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



Figure 34-8. Catabolic pathway of purine nucleotides

GOUT IS A METABOLIC DISORDEROF PURINE CATABOLISM

Various genetic defects in PRPP synthetase (reaction 1,Figure 34–2) present clinically as gout. Each defect—eg, an elevated Vmax, increased affinity for ribose 5-phosphate, or resistance to feedback inhibition—resultsin overproduction and overexcretion of purine catabolites.When serum urate levels exceed the solubilitylimit, sodium urate crystalizes in soft tissues and jointsand causes an inflammatory reaction, **gouty arthritis.**However, most cases of gout reflect abnormalities inrenal handling of uric acid.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

OTHER DISORDERS OFPURINE CATABOLISM

While purine deficiency states are rare in human subjects, there are numerous genetic disorders of purine catabolism. **Hyperuricemias** may be differentiated basedon whether patients excrete normal or excessive quantities of total urates. Some hyperuricemias reflect specificenzyme defects. Others are secondary to diseases such as cancer or psoriasis that enhance tissue turnover.

Lesch-Nyhan Syndrome

Lesch-Nyhan syndrome, an overproduction hyperuricemiacharacterized by frequent episodes of uric acidlithiasis and a bizarre syndrome of self-mutilation, reflects defect in **hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase**, an enzyme of purine salvage (Figure34–4). The accompanying rise in intracellular PRPP results purine overproduction. Mutations that decreaseor abolish hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferaseactivity include deletions, frameshift mutations, base substitutions, and aberrant mRNA splicing.

Von Gierke's Disease

Purine overproduction and hyperuricemia in vonGierke's disease (glucose-6-phosphatase deficiency)occurs secondary to enhanced generation of the PRPPprecursor ribose 5-phosphate. An associated lactic acidosiselevates the renal threshold for urate, elevatingtotal body urates.

Hypouricemia

Hypouricemia and increased excretion of hypoxanthineand xanthine are associated with **xanthine oxidase deficiency**due to a genetic defect or to severe liver damage.Patients with a severe enzyme deficiency may exhibit anthinuria and xanthine lithiasis.

Adenosine Deaminase & PurineNucleoside Phosphorylase Deficiency

Adenosine deaminase deficiency is associated with animmunodeficiency disease in which both thymusderivedlymphocytes (T cells) and bone marrow-derivedlymphocytes (B cells) are sparse and dysfunctional.

Purine nucleoside phosphorylase deficiency is associated with a severe deficiency of T cells but apparentlynormal B cell function. Immune dysfunctions appearto result from accumulation of dGTP and dATP, which inhibit ribonucleotide reductase and thereby depletecells of DNA precursors.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

CATABOLISM OF PYRIMIDINESPRODUCES WATER-SOLUBLEMETABOLITES

Unlike the end products of purine catabolism, thoseof pyrimidine catabolism are highly watersoluble:CO2, NH3, β -alanine, and β -aminoisobutyrate (Figure34–9). Excretion of β aminoisobutyrate increases inleukemia and severe x-ray radiation exposure due to increaseddestruction of DNA. However, many personsof Chinese or Japanese ancestry routinely excrete β -aminoisobutyrate. Humans probably transaminate β -aminoisobutyrate to methylmalonate semialdehyde,which then forms succinyl-CoA (Figure 19–2).

Pseudouridine Is Excreted Unchanged

Since no human enzyme catalyzes hydrolysis or phosphorolysis f pseudouridine, this unusual nucleoside is excreted unchanged in the urine of normal subjects.





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022





CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

OVERPRODUCTIONOFPYRIMIDINECATABOLITESISONLYRARELYASSOCIATED WITH CLINICALLYSIGNIFICANT ABNORMALITIES

Since the end products of pyrimidine catabolism arehighly water-soluble, pyrimidine overproduction results few clinical signs or symptoms. In hyperuricemia associated with severe overproduction of PRPP, there isoverproduction of pyrimidine nucleotides and increased excretion of β -alanine. Since *N5,N10*-methylene-tetrahydrofolate is required for thymidylate synthesis, disorders of folate and vitamin B12 metabolism result in deficiencies of TMP.

Orotic Acidurias

The orotic aciduria that accompanies **Reye's syndrome**probably is a consequence of the inability of severelydamaged mitochondria to utilize carbamoyl phosphate, which then becomes available for cytosolic overproduction of orotic acid. **Type I orotic aciduria** reflects a deficiency

of both orotate phosphoribosyltransferase andorotidylate decarboxylase (reactions 5 and 6, Figure 34–7); the rarer **type II orotic aciduria** is due to a deficiencyonly of orotidylate decarboxylase (reaction 6, Figure 34–7).

Deficiency of a Urea Cycle Enzyme Resultsin Excretion of Pyrimidine Precursors

Increased excretion of orotic acid, uracil, and uridineaccompanies a deficiency in liver mitochondrial ornithinetranscarbamoylase (reaction 2, Figure 29–9).Excess carbamoyl phosphate exits to the cytosol, whereit stimulates pyrimidine nucleotide biosynthesis. Theresulting mild **orotic aciduria** is increased by highnitrogenfoods.

Drugs May Precipitate Orotic Aciduria

Allopurinol (Figure 33–12), an alternative substrate fororotate phosphoribosyltransferase (reaction 5, Figure 34–7), competes with orotic acid. The resulting nucleotideproduct also inhibits orotidylate decarboxylase(reaction 6, Figure 34–7), resulting in **orotic aciduria** and **orotidinuria.** 6-Azauridine, following conversionto 6-azauridylate, also competitively inhibits orotidylatedecarboxylase (reaction 6, Figure 34–7), enhancing excretionof orotic acid and orotidine.

OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION

Electron-Transfer Reactionsin Mitochondria



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

The discovery in 1948 by Eugene Kennedy and AlbertLehninger that mitochondria are the site of oxidativephosphorylation in eukaryotes marked the beginningof the modern phase of studiesin biological energy transductions. Mitochondria, like gramnegativebacteria, have twomembranes (Fig. 19–1). Theouter mitochondrial membraneis readily permeable to smallmolecules (Mr _5,000) andions, which move freelythrough transmembrane channelsformed by a family of integralmembrane proteins calledporins. The inner membrane isimpermeable to most smallmolecules and ions, including protons (H_); the onlyspecies that cross this membrane do so through specifictransporters. The inner membrane bears the components of the respiratory chain and the ATP synthase. The mitochondrial matrix, enclosed by the innermembrane, contains the pyruvate dehydrogenase complexand the enzymes of the citric acid cycle, the fattyacid β oxidation pathway, and the pathways of aminoacid oxidation—all the pathways of fuel oxidation exceptglycolysis, which takes place in the cytosol. Theselectively permeable inner membrane segregates theintermediates and enzymes of cytosolic metabolic pathwaysfrom those of metabolic processes occurring in thematrix. However, specific transporters carry pyruvate, fatty acids, and amino acids or their α -keto derivatives into the matrix for access to the machinery of the citricacid cycle. ADP and Pi are specifically transported into the matrix as newly synthesized ATP is transported out.

UNIVERSALELECTRON ACCEPTORS

Oxidative phosphorylation begins with the entry of electronsinto the respiratory chain. Most of these electronsarise from the action of dehydrogenases that collectelectrons from catabolic pathways and funnel them intouniversal electron acceptors—nicotinamide nucleotides(NAD_ or NADP_) or flavin nucleotides (FMN or FAD).

Nicotinamide nucleotide-linked dehydrogenases

catalyze reversible reactions of the following generaltypes:



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Reduced substrate + $NAD^+ \Longrightarrow$

oxidized substrate + NADH + H^+

Reduced substrate + $NADP^+ \Longrightarrow$

oxidized substrate + NADPH + H^+

Most dehydrogenases that act in catabolism are specificfor NAD_ as electron acceptor (Table 19–1). Some arein the cytosol, others are in mitochondria, and still othershave mitochondrial and cytosolic isozymes.NAD-linked dehydrogenases remove two hydrogenatoms from their substrates. One of these is transferredas a hydride ion (:H_) to NAD_; the other is releasedas H_ in the medium (see Fig. 13–15). NADH andNADPH are water-soluble electron carriers that associate*reversibly* with dehydrogenases. NADH carries electronsfrom catabolic reactions to their point of entry into the respiratory chain, the NADH dehydrogenase complexdescribed below. NADPH generally supplies electronsto anabolic reactions. Cells maintain separatepools of NADPH and NADH, with different redox potentials.This is accomplished by holding the ratios of[reduced form]/[oxidized form] relatively high forNADPH and relatively low for NADH. Neither NADH norNADPH can cross the inner mitochondrial membrane,but the electrons they carry can be shuttled across indirectly,as we shall see.

Flavoproteins contain a very tightly, sometimescovalently, bound flavin nucleotide, either FMN or FAD(see Fig. 13–18). The oxidized flavin nucleotide can accepteither one electron (yielding the semiquinoneform) or two (yielding FADH2 or FMNH2). Electrontransfer occurs because the flavoprotein has a higherreduction potential than the compound oxidized. Thestandard reduction potential of a flavin nucleotide, unlikethat of NAD or NADP, depends on the protein withwhich it is associated. Local interactions with functionalgroups in the protein distort the electron orbitals in theflavin ring, changing the relative stabilities of oxidizedand reduced forms. The relevant standard reductionpotential is therefore that of the particular flavoprotein,not that of isolated FAD or FMN. The flavin nucleotideshould be considered part of the flavoprotein's activesite rather than a reactant or product in the electrontransferreaction. Because flavoproteins can participate either one- or two-electron transfers, they can serveas intermediates between reactions in which two electronsare donated (as in dehydrogenations) and those inwhich only one electron is accepted (as in the reduction of a quinone to a hydroquinone, described below).



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

Electrons Carriers

The mitochondrial respiratory chain consists of a series of sequentially acting electron carriers, most of which are integral proteins with prosthetic groups capable of accepting and donating either one or two electrons. Three types of electron transfers occur in oxidative phosphorylation: (1) direct transfer of electrons, as in the reduction of Fe3_ to Fe2_;

(2) transfer as a hydrogenatom $(H_{-}e_{-})$; and (3) transfer as a hydride ion(:H_), which bears two electrons. The term **reducingequivalent** is used to designate a single electron equivalenttransferred in an oxidation-reduction reaction. In addition to NAD and flavoproteins, three other

types of electron-carrying molecules function in the respiratorychain: a hydrophobic quinone (ubiquinone) and two different types of iron-containing proteins (cytochromesand iron-sulfur proteins). Ubiquinone (alsocalled coenzyme Q, or simply Q) is a lipid-soluble benzoquinonewith a long isoprenoid side chain (Fig. 19–2). The closely related compounds plastoquinone (of plantchloroplasts) and menaquinone (of bacteria) play rolesanalogous to that inmembrane-associated of ubiquinone, carrying electrons electron-transfer chains. Ubiquinonecan accept one electron to become the semiquinoneradical (_QH) or two electrons to form ubiquinol(QH2) (Fig. 19–2) and, like flavoprotein carriers, it canact at the junction between a two-electron donor and aone-electron acceptor. Because ubiquinone is both smalland hydrophobic, it is freely diffusible within the lipidbilayer of the inner mitochondrial membrane and canshuttle reducing equivalents between other, less mobileelectron carriers in the membrane. And because it carries

both electrons and protons, it plays a central rolein coupling electron flow to proton movement.

The **cytochromes** are proteins with characteristicstrong absorption of visible light, due to their ironcontainingheme prosthetic groups (Fig. 19–3). Mitochondriacontain three classes of cytochromes, designated*a*, *b*, and *c*, which are distinguished by differences in their light-absorption spectra. Each type of cytochromein its reduced (Fe2_) state has three absorptionbands in the visible range (Fig. 19–4). The longestwavelengthband is near 600 nm in type *a* cytochromes, near 560 nm in type *b*, and near 550 nm in type *c*. Todistinguish among closely related cytochromes of onetype, the exact absorption maximum is sometimes used in the names,



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

as in cytochrome b562. The heme cofactors of a and b cytochromes aretightly, but not covalently, bound to their associated proteins; the hemes of c-type cytochromes are covalentlyattached through Cys residues (Fig. 19–3). As with theflavoproteins, the standard reduction potential of theheme iron atom of a cytochrome depends on its interaction with protein side chains and is therefore differentfor each cytochrome. The cytochromes of type a and b and some of type c are integral proteins of theinner mitochondrial membrane. One striking exceptionis the cytochrome cof mitochondria, a soluble proteinthat associates through electrostatic interactions with the outer surface of the innermembrane. We encountered cytochrome c in earlier discussions of protein structure(see Fig. 4–18).

In **iron-sulfur proteins,** first discovered by HelmutBeinert, the iron is present notin heme but in association with inorganic sulfur atoms or with the sulfur atoms of Cysresidues in the protein, orboth. These iron-sulfur (Fe-S)centers range from simple structures with a single Featom coordinated to four Cys OSH groups to more complexFe-S centers with two or four Fe atoms.

Rieske iron-sulfur proteins (named after their discoverer, John S. Rieske) are a variation on this theme, in which one Fe atom is coordinated to two His residuesrather than two Cys residues. All iron-sulfur proteinsparticipate in one-electron transfers in which one ironatom of the iron-sulfur cluster is oxidized or reduced. At least eight Fe-S proteins function in mitochondrial electron transfer. The reduction potential of Fe-S proteinsvaries from _0.65 V to _0.45 V, depending on themicroenvironment of the iron within the protein. In the overall reaction catalyzed by the mitochondrialrespiratory chain, electrons move from NADH, succinate, or some other primary electron donor throughflavoproteins, ubiquinone, iron-sulfur proteins, and cytochromes, and finally to O2. A look at the methods used to determine the sequence in which the carriers act isinstructive, as the same general approaches have been used to study other electron-transfer chains, such asthose of chloroplasts.First, the standard reduction potentials of the individualelectron carriers have been determined experimentally(Table 19–2). We would expect the carriersto function in order of increasing reductionpotential, because electrons tend to flow spontaneously from carriers of lower *E*____ to carriers of higher E_{-} . Theorder of carriers deduced by this method is NADH \rightarrow Q \rightarrow cytochrome $b \rightarrow$ cytochrome $c1 \rightarrow$ cytochrome $c \rightarrow$



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

cytochrome $a \rightarrow$ cytochrome $a_3 \rightarrow O2$. Note, however,that the order of standard reduction potentials isnot necessarily the same as the order of *actual* reductionpotentials under cellular conditions, which dependon the concentration of reduced and oxidized forms(p. 510). A second method for determining the sequenceof electron carriers involves reducing the entire chainof carriers experimentally by providing an electronsource but no electron acceptor (no O2). When O2 issuddenly introduced into the system, the rate at whicheach electron carrier becomes oxidized (measuredspectroscopically) reveals the order in which the carriersfunction. The carrier nearest O2 (at the end of thechain) gives up its electrons first, the second carrierfrom the end is oxidized next, and so on. Such experimentshave confirmed the sequence deduced fromstandard reduction potentials. In a final confirmation, agents that inhibit the flow felectrons through the chain have been used in combinationwith measurements of the degree of oxidation each carrier. In the presence of O2 and an electrondonor, carriers that function before the inhibited stepbecome fully reduced, and those that function after thisstep are completely oxidized (Fig. 19–6). By using severalinhibitors that block different steps in the chain, investigatorshave determined the entire sequence; it is the same as deduced in the first two approaches.

ELECTRON CARRIERS FUNCTION IN MULTIENZYME COMPLEXES

The electron carriers of the respiratory chain are organizedinto membrane-embedded supramolecular complexes that can be physically separated. Gentletreatment of the inner mitochondrial membrane withdetergents allows the resolution of four unique electroncarriercomplexes, each capable of catalyzing electrontransfer through a portion of the chain (Table 19–3; Fig.19–7). Complexes I and II catalyze electron transfer toubiquinone from two different electron donors: NADH(Complex I) and succinate (Complex II). Complex III carries electrons from reduced ubiquinone to cytochromec, and Complex IV completes the sequence by transferring electrons from cytochrome c to O2. We now look in more detail at the structure and function of each complex of the mitochondrial respiratorychain.

COMPLEX I:

NADH to Ubiquinone illustrates therelationship between Complexes I and II and ubiquinone. **Complex I,** also called **NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase**or **NADH**

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

dehydrogenase, is a large enzymecomposed of 42 different polypeptide chains, includingan FMN-containing flavoprotein and at least six ironsulfurcenters. High-resolution electron microscopyshowsComplex I to be L-shaped, with one arm of the Lin the membrane and the other extending into the matrix. Complex I catalyzes twosimultaneous and obligately coupled processes:

 the exergonic transfer to ubiquinone of a hydride ion from NADH and a proton from the matrix, expressed by

 $NADH + H^+ + Q \longrightarrow NAD^+ + QH_2$

and

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(2) the endergonic transfer of four protons from thematrix to the intermembrane space. Complex I is thereforea proton pump driven by the energy of electrontransfer, and the reaction it catalyzes is **vectorial:** itmoves protons in a specific direction from one location(the matrix, which becomes negatively charged with thedeparture of protons) to another (the intermembranespace, which becomes positively charged). To emphasize the vectorial nature of the process, the overall reaction is often written with subscripts that indicate thelocation of the protons: P for the positive side of the innermembrane (the intermembrane space), N for thenegative side (the matrix):

 $NADH + 5H_N^+ + Q \longrightarrow NAD^+ + QH_2 + 4H_P^+$

Amytal (a barbiturate drug), rotenone (a plant productcommonly used as an insecticide), and piericidin A (anantibiotic) inhibit electron flow from the Fe-S centersof Complex I toubiquinone (Table 19–4) and thereforeblock the overall process of oxidative phosphorylation.Ubiquinol (QH2, the fully reduced form; Fig. 19–2)diffuses in the inner mitochondrial membrane fromComplex I to Complex III, where it is oxidized to Q in aprocess that also involves the outward movement of H+.

COMPLEX II: Succinate to Ubiquinone We encountered**Complex II** in Chapter 16 as **succinate dehydrogenase**, the only membrane-bound enzyme in the citricacid cycle (p. 612). Although smaller and simpler thanComplex I, it contains five prosthetic groups of two types and

CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ARPAGAM

COURSE CODE: 19MB0202 BATCH-2019-2022

four different protein subunits (Fig. 19–10).Subunits C and D are integral membrane proteins, eachwith three transmembrane helices. They contain a hemegroup, heme *b*, and a binding site for ubiquinone, thefinal electron acceptor in the reaction catalyzed byComplex II. Subunits A and B extend into the matrix (orthe cytosol of a bacterium); they contain three 2Fe-2Scenters, bound FAD, and a binding site for the substrate, succinate. The path of electron transfer from thesuccinate-binding site to FAD, then through the Fe-Scenters to the Q-binding site, is more than 40 Å long, but none of the individual electron-transfer distances about 11 Å—a reasonable distance for rapidelectron transfer.

Clinical aspacet:The heme *b* of Complex II is apparently not in the direct path of electron transfer; it may serve instead to reduce the frequency with which electrons "leak" out of the system, moving from succinate to molecularoxygen to produce the **reactive oxygen species** (**ROS**) hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) and the **superoxideradical** ($^{\circ}O2^{-}$) described in Section 19.5. Humans withpoint mutations in Complex II subunits near heme *b* or the quinone-bindingsite suffer from hereditary paraganglioma. This inherited condition is characterized by benign tumors of the head and neck, commonly in the carotid body, an organ that senses O2 levels in the blood. These mutations result in greater production of ROS and perhaps greater tissue damage during succinateoxidation.

Other substrates for mitochondrial dehydrogenasespass electrons into the respiratory chain at the level of ubiquinone, but not through Complex II. The first stepin the _ oxidation of fatty acyl-CoA, catalyzed by the flavoprotein **acyl-CoA dehydrogenase** (see Fig. 17–8), involves transfer of electrons from the substrate to the FAD of the dehydrogenase, then to electron-transferring flavoprotein (ETF), which in turn passes its electrons to **ETF: ubiquinone oxidoreductase**. This

enzyme transfers electrons into the respiratory chain byreducing ubiquinone. Glycerol 3phosphate, formed eitherfrom glycerol released by triacylglycerol breakdownor by the reduction of dihydroxyacetone phosphatefrom glycolysis, is oxidized by **glycerol 3phosphatedehydrogenase** (see Fig. 17–4). This enzyme is a flavoproteinlocated on the outer face of the inner mitochondrialmembrane, and like succinate dehydrogenaseand acyl-CoA dehydrogenase it channels electrons into the respiratory chain by reducing ubiquinone. The effect



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ofeach of these electron-transferring enzymes is to contribute o the pool of reduced ubiquinone. QH2 from all these reactions is reoxidized by Complex III.

COMPLEX III: Ubiquinone to Cytochrome c The next respiratorycomplex, **Complex III**, also called **cytochromebc1 complex** or **ubiquinone:cytochrome c oxidoreductase**, couples the transfer of electrons fromubiquinol (QH2) to cytochrome *c* with the vectorialtransport of protons from the matrix to the intermembranespace. The determination of the complete structureof this huge complex (Fig. 19–11) and of ComplexIV (below) by x-ray crystallography, achieved between 1995 and 1998, were landmarks in the study of mitochondrial electron transfer, providing the structural framework to integrate the many biochemical observations on the functions of the respiratory complexes. Based on the structure of Complex III and detailed biochemical studies of the redox reactions, a reasonablemodel has been proposed for the passage of electrons and protons through the complex. The net equation for the redox reactions of this **Q cycle** is

$QH_2 + 2 \text{ cyt } c_1(\text{oxidized}) + 2H_N^+ \longrightarrow$ $Q + 2 \text{ cyt } c_1(\text{reduced}) + 4H_P^+$

The Q cycle accommodates the switch between the twoelectroncarrier ubiquinone and the oneelectron carriers—cytochromes b562, b566, c1, and c—and explains themeasured stoichiometry of four protons translocatedper pair of electrons passing through the Complex III tocytochrome c. Although the path of electrons through this segment of the respiratory chain is complicated, thenet effect of the transfer is simple: QH2 is oxidized to Qand two molecules of cytochrome care reduced.Cytochrome c (see Fig. 4–18) is a soluble protein of the intermembrane space. After its single heme acceptsan electron from Complex III, cytochrome c moves toComplex IV to donate the electron to a binuclear coppercenter.

COMPLEX IV: Cytochrome c to O2 In the final step of therespiratory chain, Complex IV, also called cytochromeoxidase, carries electrons from cytochrome c to molecularoxygen, reducing it to H2O. Complex IV is a largeenzyme (13 subunits; Mr 204,000) of the inner



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

mitochondrialmembrane. Bacteria contain a form that ismuch simpler, with only three or four subunits, but stillcapable of catalyzing both electron transfer and protonpumping. Comparison of the mitochondrial and bacterialcomplexes suggests that three subunits are criticalto the function (Fig. 19–13).Mitochondrial subunit II contains two Cu ions complexed with the OSH groups of two Cys residues in abinuclear center (CuA; Fig. 19–13b) that resembles the2Fe-2S centers of iron-sulfur proteins. Subunit I containstwo heme groups, designated *a* and *a*3, and anothercopper ion (CuB). Heme *a*3 and CuB form a secondbinuclear center that accepts electrons from heme*a* and transfers them to O2 bound to heme *a*3.Electron transfer through Complex IV is from cytochrome*c* to the CuA center, to heme *a*, to the heme*a*3–CuB center, and finally to O2. For everyfour electrons passing through this complex, the enzymeconsumes four "substrate" H_ from the matrix (N side)in converting O2 to 2H2O. It also uses the energy of thisredox reaction to pump one proton outward into the intermembranespace (P side) for each electron transport through, adding to the electrochemical potentialproduced by redox-driven proton transport throughComplexes I and III. The overall reaction catalyzed byComplex IV is

4 Cyt c (reduced) + $8H_N^+$ + $O_2 \longrightarrow$ 4 cyt c (oxidized) + $4H_P^+$ + $2H_2O$

This four-electron reduction of O2 involves redox centersthat carry only one electron at a time, and it mustoccur without the release of incompletely reduced intermediates such as hydrogen peroxide or hydroxylfree radicals—very reactive species that would damage cellular components. The intermediates remain tightlybound to the complex until completely converted towater.

ATP Synthesis

How is a concentration gradient of protons transformedinto ATP? We have seen that electron transfer releases, and the proton-motive force conserves, more thanenough free energy (about 200 kJ) per "mole" of electron pairs to drive the formation of a mole of ATP, which requires about 50 kJ (see Box 13–1). Mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation therefore poses nothermodynamic problem. Butwhat is the chemical mechanism that couples proton flux with phosphorylation?



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

STRUCTURE OF ATPase COMPLEX

Mitochondrial **ATP synthase** is an F-type ATPase similar in structure and mechanismto the ATP synthases of chloroplasts and eubacteria. This large enzyme complex of the inner mitochondrialmembrane catalyzes the formation of ATPfrom ADP and Pi, accompaniedby the flow of protons from theP to the N side of the membrane(Eqn 19–10). ATP synthase, also called Complex V, has two distinct components: F1, a peripheral membraneprotein, and Fo (*o* denotingoligomycin-sensitive), which is integral to the membrane. F1, the first factor recognized asessential for oxidative phosphorylation, was identified and purified by Efraim Racker and his colleagues in the early 1960s.

In the laboratory, small membrane vesicles formedfrom inner mitochondrial membranes carry out ATP synthesiscoupled to electron transfer. When F1 is gentlyextracted, the "stripped" vesicles still contain intact respiratorychains and the Fo portion of ATP synthase. Thevesicles can catalyze electron transfer from NADH to O2but cannot produce a proton gradient: Fo has a protonpore through which protons leak as fast as they arepumped by electron transfer, and without a proton gradientthe F1-depleted vesicles cannot make ATP. IsolatedF1 catalyzes ATP hydrolysis (the reversal of synthesis)and was therefore originally called **F1ATPase**.When purified F1 is added back to the depleted vesicles, it reassociates with Fo, plugging its proton pore andrestoring the membrane's capacity to couple electrontransfer and ATP synthesis.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022



FIGURE 19–23 Mitochondrial ATP synthase complex. (a) Structureof the F1 complex,deduced from crystallographic and biochemicalstudies. In F1, three _ and three _ subunits are arranged like the segments of an orange, with alternating _ (shades of gray) and _ (shades of purple) subunits around a central shaft, the _ subunit (green).

CHEMIOSMOTIC MODEL

The **chemiosmotic model**, proposed by Peter Mitchell, is the paradigm for this mechanism.

According to the model(Fig. 19–17), the electrochemicalenergy inherent in the difference in proton concentrationand separation of charge across the inner mitochondrialmembrane—the proton-motive force—drivesthe synthesis of ATP as protons flow passively back into the matrix through a proton pore associated with **ATPsynthase.** To emphasize this crucial role of the protonmotiveforce, the equation for ATP synthesis is sometimeswritten

$ADP + P_i + nH_P^+ \longrightarrow ATP + H_2O + nH_N^+$

Mitchell used "chemiosmotic" to describe enzymatic reactionsthat involve, simultaneously, a chemical reactionand a transport process. The operational definition of "coupling" is shown



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

inFigure 19–18. When isolated mitochondriaare suspended in a buffer containing ADP,Pi, and an oxidizable substrate such as succinate, threeeasily measured processes occur: (1) the substrate isoxidized (succinate yields fumarate), (2) O2 is consumed,and (3) ATP is synthesized. Oxygen consumption and ATP synthesis depend on the presence of an oxidizablesubstrate (succinate in this case) as well as ADP and Pi.



FIGURE 19–17 Chemiosmotic model. In thissimple representation of the chemiosmotictheory applied to mitochondria, electrons fromNADH and other oxidizable substrates passthrough a chain of carriers arranged asymmetricallyin the inner membrane. Electron flow isaccompanied by proton transfer across themembrane, producing both a chemicalgradient (Δ pH) and an electrical gradient (Δ Ψ).The inner mitochondrial membrane is impermeableto protons; protons can reenter thematrix only through proton-specific channels(Fo). The proton-motive force that



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

drivesprotons back into the matrix provides the energy for ATP synthesis, catalyzed by the F1complex associated with F0.

INHIBITORS OF ATP SYNTHESIS

Since the energy of substrate oxidation drivesATP synthesis in mitochondria, we would expect inhibitors of the passage of electrons to O2 (such ascyanide, carbon monoxide, and antimycin A) to blockATP synthesis (Fig. 19–18a). More surprising is the finding that the converse is also true: inhibition of ATP synthesisblocks electron transfer in intact mitochondria. This obligatory coupling can be demonstrated in isolatedmitochondria by providing O2 and oxidizable substrates, but not ADP (Fig. 19–18b). Under these conditions, noATP synthesis can occur and electron transfer to O2does not proceed. Coupling of oxidation and phosphorylationcan also be demonstrated using oligomycin orventuricidin, toxic antibiotics that bind to the ATP synthasein mitochondria. These compounds are potent inhibitors of both ATP synthesis and the transfer of electronsthrough the chain of carriers to O2.Because oligomycin is known to interact not directly with the electron carriers but with ATP synthase, it follows that electron transfer and ATP synthesis are obligately coupled; neither reaction occurs without the other. Chemiosmotic theory readily explains the dependence of electron transfer on ATP synthesis in mitochondria. When the flow of protons into the matrix through the proton channel of ATP synthase is blocked (witholigomycin, for example), no path exists for the returnof protons to the matrix, and the continued extrusion of protons driven by the activity of the respiratory chaingenerates a large proton gradient. The proton-motiveforce builds up until the cost (free energy) of pumpingprotons out of the matrix against this gradient equals or exceeds the energy released by the transfer of electronsfrom NADH to O2. At this point electron flow must stop; the free energy for the overall process of electron flowcoupled to proton pumping becomes zero, and the systemis at equilibrium.

INHIBITORS OF OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION AND UNCOUPLERS

We have already encountered ATP synthase as an ATPdrivenproton pump, catalyzingthe reverse of ATP synthesis. When a cell is ischemic(deprived of oxygen), as in a heart attack orstroke, electron transfer to oxygen ceases, and so does the pumping of protons. The proton-motive force sooncollapses. Under these conditions, the ATP synthasecould operate in reverse, hydrolyzing



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II

COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

ATP to pump protonsoutward and causing a disastrous drop in ATP levels. This is prevented by a small (84 amino acids) proteininhibitor, IF1, which simultaneously binds to twoATP synthase molecules, inhibiting their ATPase activity. IF1 is inhibitory only in its dimeric form, which is favored at pH lower than 6.5. In a cell starvedfor oxygen, the main source of ATP becomes glycolysis, and the pyruvic or lactic acid thus formed lowers thepH in the cytosol and the mitochondrial matrix. This favorsIF1 dimerization, leading to inhibition of the ATPaseactivity of ATP synthase, thereby preventing wastefulhydrolysis of ATP. When aerobic metabolism resumes, production of pyruvic acid slows, the pH of the cytosolrises, the IF1 dimer is destabilized, and the inhibition ofATP synthase is lifted.

UNCOUPLED MITOCHONDRIA IN BROWN FAT PRODUCE HEAT

There is a remarkable and instructive exception to thegeneral rule that respiration slows when the ATP supplyis adequate. Most newborn mammals, including humans, have a type of adipose tissue called **brown fat** in whichfuel oxidation serves not to produce ATP but to generateheat to keep the newborn warm. This specialized adipose tissue is brown because of the presence of largenumbers of mitochondria and thus large amounts of cytochromes, whose heme groups are strong absorbers visible light. The mitochondria of brown fat are like those of othermammalian cells in all respects, except that they have a unique protein in their inner membrane. **Thermogenin**, also called the **uncoupling protein**, provides a path for protons to return to the matrix without passing through the FoF1 complex.



CLASS: I BSc., MB COURSE NAME: BIOCHEMISTRY II COURSE CODE: 19MBU202 BATCH-2019-2022

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

UNIT V

PART A (1 mark)

Question number 1-20 (From given 300 all possible MCQs)

PART B (2 Marks)

- 1. Write a short note on purine nucleotides with examples.
- 2. Write a brief note on the structure of pyrimidine nucleotides.
- 3. Give brief notes on ETC.
- 4. Define Oxidative phosphorylation
- 5. Explain briefly about ATPase complex with a neat diagram
- 6. Write notes on Chemiosmotic theory

PART C (6 Marks)

- 1. Elaborate about the biosynthesis of purine nucleotides
- 2. Explain in detail the biosynthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides
- 3. Explain in detail about degradation of purine and pyrimidine nucleotides
- 4. Give a detail account on ETC and electron carriers.

UNIT I	QUESTION	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
1	If enthalpy change for a reaction is zero, then ΔG° equals to	-TΔS°	TΔS°	-ΔH°	lnkeq	-TΔS°
2	ΔG° is defined as the	Residual energy present in the reactants at equilibrium	Residual energy present in the products at equilibrium	Difference in the residual energy of reactants and products at equilibrium	Energy required in converting one mole of reactants to one mole of products	Energy required in converting one mole of reactants to one mole of products
3	The study of energy relationships and conversions in biological systems is called as	Biophysics	Biotechnology	Bioenergetics	Microbiology	Bioenergetics
4	For a reaction if ΔG° is positive, then	The products will be favored	The reactants will be favored	The concentration of the reactants and products will be equal	All of the reactant will be converted to products	The reactants will be favored
5	Unfolding of regular secondary protein structure causes	Large decrease in the entropy of the protein	Little increase in the entropy of protein	No change in the entropy of the protein	Large increase in the entropy of the protein	Large increase in the entropy of the protein
6	What does the first law of thermodynamics state?	Energy can neither be destroyed nor created	Energy cannot be 100 percent efficiently transformed from one type to another	All living organisms are composed of cells	Input of heat energy increases the rate of movement of atoms and molecules	Energy can neither be destroyed nor created
7	The relationship between K'eq and ΔG° is	$\Delta G^{\circ} = RTlnK^{\circ}eq$	$\Delta G^{\circ} = -RTK^{\circ}eq$	$\Delta G^{\circ} = RK^{\circ}eq$	$\Delta G^{\circ} = -RK^{\circ}eq$	$\Delta G^{\circ} = -RTK^{\circ}eq$
8	What is the relationship between ΔG and $\Delta G^{\circ\circ}$?	$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + RTln([products]/[reactan ts])$	$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} - RTln([products]/[react ants])$	$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ \circ} + RTln([reactants]/[prod ucts])$	$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} - RTln([reactants]/[p roducts])$	$\Delta \mathbf{G} = \Delta \mathbf{G}^{\circ \circ} + \mathbf{RTln}([\mathbf{products}]/[\mathbf{reactants}])$
9	If $\Delta G^{\circ \circ}$ of the reaction $A \rightarrow B$ is -40kJ/mol under standard conditions then the reaction	Will never reach equilibrium	Will not occur spontaneously	Will proceed at a rapid rate	Will proceed from left to right spontaneously	Will proceed from left to right spontaneously
10	Which of the following statements is false?	The reaction tends to go in the forward direction if ΔG is large and positive	The reaction tends to move in the backward direction if ΔG is large and negative	The system is at equilibrium if $\Delta G = 0$	The reaction tends to move in the backward direction if ΔG is large and positive	The reaction tends to move in the backward direction if ∆G is large and positive
11	The biochemical reaction $A \leftrightarrows B$ has a large and positive change in free-energy ($\Delta G >> 1$) under physiological conditions; which of the following is the best estimate for the equilibrium constant Keq\text{K}_{eq}K, start subscript, e, q, end subscript?	Keq> 1	Keq< 1	Keq=0	Keq>> 1	Keq< 1
12	Chemical reactions can be classified according to free energy changes. A chemical reaction has a ΔG of - 686/kcal/mol. Is this an endergonic or exergonic reaction? How would the addition of catalyst change the ΔG this reaction?	Exergonic, the catalyst would reduce the ΔG	Endergonic, the catalyst would increase the ΔG	Exergonic, the catalyst would not reduce ΔG	Endergonic, the catalyst would reduce the ΔG	Exergonic, the catalyst would not reduce ΔG

13	What can be said about the levels of energy of products	Reactants are glucose	Reactants are water	Reactants are glucose	Reactants are	Reactants are glucose and
	and reactants, and ΔG in cellular respiration.	and carbon dioxide have	and oxygen have high	and oxygen have low	glucose and oxygen	oxygen have high levels of
		low levels of energy, and	levels of energy, and	levels of energy, and	have high levels of	energy, and the products carbon
		the products oxygen and	products carbon	the products carbon	energy, and the	dioxide and water have low
		water have high levels of	dioxide and glucose	dioxide and water	products carbon	levels of energy, ΔG is negative.
		energy, ΔG is positive	have low levels of	levels of energy, ΔG is	dioxide and water	
		257 1	energy. AG is	positive	have low levels of	
			negative.	r • • • • • •	energy. AG is	
					negative.	
14	Photuris lucicrescens is a bioluminescent coleopterIn	Exergonic reaction with	Exergonic reaction	Endergonic reaction	Endergonic reaction	Endergonic reaction with
	simple words, this just means the lightning bug is a	positive ΔG .	with negative ΔG	with negative ΔG	with positive ΔG	positive AG
	beetle that can glow in the dark. Is bioluminescence an	1	C C	Ū.	1	-
	endergonic or exergonic reaction and what is the ΔG of					
	bioluminescence?					
15	In human physiology endergonic and exergonic reaction	Endergonic hydrolysis of	Exergonic	Endergonic	Exergonic	Exergonic hydrolysis of ATP
	are often coupleHow does the ATP/ADP cycle couple	ADP	phosphorylation of	phosphorylation of	hydrolysis of ATP	
	these reactions?		ADP	molecule by ATP		
16	ATP cycle refers to a set of reactions that promotes	Decreased levels of ATP	Decreased levels of	No change in delta G	Increased rate of	Decreased levels of inorganic
	reversible changes of ATP into ADP via endergonic		inorganic phosphate		the hydrolysis	phosphate
	and exergonic reactions. According to Le Chatellier's				reaction	
	principle, what would you expect to occur if ADP					
	levels increased?					
17	What would it mean if an antibiotic fails to distort the	Increased bacterial	Decreased enzymatic	Increased levels of	Increased activation	Increased bacterial resistance to
	binding site of bacterial enzymes?	resistance to the	activities on bacteria	substrate on bacteria	energy of bacterial	the antibiotic
		antibiotic			chemical reactions	
18	The symptoms of a certain disease are a result of	Addition of non-	Decreased levels of	Removal of an	Increased levels of	Increased levels of substrate
	increased competitive enzymatic inhibition. What kind	competitive inhibitor	product	allosteric activator	substrate	
	of chemical manipulations with enzyme, substrate, or					
	products would minimize the symptoms?					
19	The electron transport chain is an important chemical	The anaerobic reaction	The anaerobic reaction	The anaerobic reaction	The anaerobic	The anaerobic reaction would be
	reaction of cellular respiration. What would occur if	would be endergonic	would be exergonic	would be endergonic	reaction would be	exergonic with magnitude of ΔG
	oxygen was not present in the electron transport chain	with magnitude of ΔG	with magnitude of ΔG	with magnitude of ΔG	exergonic with	smaller than in the presence of
	(anaerobic conditions)?	smaller than in the	smaller than in the	larger than in the	magnitude of ΔG	oxygen
		presence of oxygen	presence of oxygen	presence of oxygen	larger than in the	
					presence of oxygen	
20	Why does muscle contraction result in higher body	Because ATP	Because ATP	Because ATP	Because ATP	Because ATP hydrolysis has
	temperature?	phosphorylation has	phosphorylation has	hydrolysis has negative	hydrolysis has	negative ∆G
		negative ∆G	positive ∆G	ΔG	positive ∆G	
21	Organization of photosynthetic pigments into clusters is	photosynthesis	photosynthetic clusters	cluster arrangement	photo system	photo system
22	Chlorophylls are soluble in	organic solvents	inorganic solvents	organic solutes	inorganic solutes	organic solvents
23	A compound which is found in all living cells and play	ADP	ATP	chlorophyll	granum	АТР
	a key role in energy transformations is					
24	Chlorophyll converts light energy into	heat energy	chemical energy	potential energy	electrical energy	chemical energy
25	Photosynthesis is process in which inorganic	heat energy	light energy	chemical energy	electrical energy	light energy
	compounds are reduced to organic compounds using					

26	Phases of Calvin cycle involves	carbon fixation	reduction	regeneration	All of the Above	All of the Above
27	In photosynthesis carbon dioxide, light and water are	reactants	products	by-products	catalysts	reactants
28	Energy is measured in which of the following units?	Kelvin	Joule	Pascal	mol	Joule
29	Which one of the following statements regarding energy is false?	The total energy in a chemical universe (a system and its surroundings) is constant	Energy can be converted from one form to another	The energy stored in chemical bonds is referred to as kinetic energy	An object suspended in the air has more energy than an object lying on the ground	The energy stored in chemical bonds is referred to as kinetic energy
30	In which direction does the transfer of energy as heat happen spontaneously?	From cold to hot	From hot to cold	From cold to cold	From hot to hot	From hot to cold
31	Which one of the following statements best describes the enthalpy change of a reaction?	The energy released when chemical bonds are formed during a chemical reaction	The energy consumed when chemical bonds are broken during a chemical reaction	The difference between the energy released by bond formation and the energy consumed by bond cleavage during a chemical reaction	The increase in disorder of the system as a reaction proceeds	The difference between the energy released by bond formation and the energy consumed by bond cleavage during a chemical reaction
32	Enthalpy is represented by which of the following symbols?	Н	К	S	U	Н
33	The enthalpy of combustion of glucose is -2808 kJ mol- 1. Which one of the following statements regarding this process is false?	The products of the combustion of glucose are less stable than glucose itself	This process is exothermic	Overall, energy is liberated when this process happens	None of the above	The products of the combustion of glucose are less stable than glucose itself
34	Which of the following statements regarding the Gibbs free energy change for a reaction is false?	The Gibbs free energy change is the proportion of the enthalpy change of a reaction that is used to increase the entropy	If the Gibbs free energy change for a reaction is negative, the reaction happens spontaneously	The Gibbs free energy is represented by the symbol G	A reaction with a negative Gibbs free energy change of reaction is called an exergonic reaction	The Gibbs free energy change is the proportion of the enthalpy change of a reaction that is used to increase the entropy
35	The Standard Gibb's free energy, ΔG° , is	the residual energy present in the reactants at equilibrium	the residual energy present in the products at equilibrium	the difference in the residual energy of reactants and products at equilibrium	the energy required to convert one mole of reactants to one mole of products	the energy required to convert one mole of reactants to one mole of products
36	If the Standard Gibb's free energy, ΔG° , for a reaction is positive then	the products will be favored	the reactants will be favored	the concentration of the reactants and products will be equal	all of the reactant will be converted to product	the reactants will be favored
37	Carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O) are produced as output when	oxidation of glucose occurs	when oxidation does not occur at all	when oxidation is accompanied with cell division	when oxidation is accompanied with water	oxidation of glucose occurs
38	Hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂)	helps line up cell proteins	is poisonous to tissues	is often needed as a catalyst	aids in oxidation of glucose	is poisonous to tissues
39	More hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) in urine, the	lighter the color of the strip	acidic the urine be	darker the color of the strip	more healthier a person be	darker the color of the strip
40	Out of the following respiratory chain components indicate which one is a mobile carriers of electrons?	Cytochrome oxidase	NADH-Q reductase	Ubiquinone	Succinate dehydrogenase	Ubiquinone

41	Choose the incorrect statement about redox potential	The redox potential of a	The components of	NADH/NAD+ redox	Oxygen/H2O redox	NADH/NAD+ redox pair has the
		system (E0) is usually	electron transport	pair has the least redox	pair has the highest	least redox potential of -0.42
		compared with the	chain are organized in	potential of -0.42 volts	redox potential of	volts
		potential of the hydrogen	terms of their redox		+.82 volts	
		electrode	potential.			
42	All are flavoproteins except one, choose the odd one	Xanthine oxidase	NADH dehydrogenase	Succinate	Cytochrome c	Cytochrome c
	out		-Q reductase	dehydrogenase		
43	All except one are incorrect about oxidases	Oxidases catalyze	Oxidases catalyze	Oxidases catalyze	Oxidases catalyze	Oxidases catalyze reaction using
		reactions involving	reaction using oxygen	reactions using Niacin	reactions of direct	oxygen as a hydrogen acceptor
		hydrogen peroxide	as a hydrogen acceptor	as coenzyme	incorporation of	
					oxygen in to the	
			CI 111 1 2 D	CI 111 1 2 D	substrate	
44	All of the following are NAD+ requiring enzymes	Acyl co A	Glyceraldenyde-3-P	Glyceraldenyde-3-P	Malate	Acyl co A dehydrogenase
4.5	except one –	denydrogenase	denydrogenase	denydrogenase	denydrogenase	
45	which of the components of electron transport chain	NADH denydrogenase	Cytochrome a-a3	Succinate	Cytochrome bc1-c	Cytochrome a-a3 oxidase
10	does not contain Iron sulfur center?	complex	oxidase	denydrogenase	reductase	
46	The enzymes of mitochondrial matrix include all except	Enzymes of fatty acid	Creatine kinase	Enzymes of TCA cycle	Pyruvate	Creatine kinase
		oxidation			dehydrogenase	
47			T (* *1 *	F 11 (1	complex	
4/	Patients with inherited defects of mitochondria	Myopathy	Lactic acidosis	Encephalopathy	Hepatomegaly	Hepatomegaly
	involving components of the respiratory chain and					
40	oxidative phosphorylation present with all except	Condictionin	T	Centelin	A1 A	Condializin
48	The inner mitochondrial membrane is fich in which of	Cardiolipin	Lecitnin	Cephalin	Acyl co A	Cardiolipin
40	All are true about ATP synthesis complex execut	Elprojects into the inter	E0 mong the	E0 is inhibited by	El contoine the	Fluxeiaata into the inter
49	All are true about ATF synthase complex, except	r ipiojecis into the inter	ro spans the	Oligomyoin	r i contains the	mombuonous sposo
		memoranous space	nemorane and forms a	Oligoiliyelli	maahaniam	membranous space
50	The energy yield during the conversion of succingte to	1 ATP		3 ATP		2 ATP
50	Fumarate isa	1 A11	2 Л П	5 411	4 / 11	2 ЛП
51	The electron flow from complex I to complex III is	Cytochrome c	Ubiquinone	Complex II	Complex IV	Ubiquinone
01	through		conquinone	e omprør n	Comprentit	
52	Which one of the following enzymes catalyzes	Malate dehvdrogenase	Succinate Thiokinase	Succinate	Alpha keto	Succinate Thiokinase
	substrate level phosphorylation in TCA cycle			dehvdrogenase	glutarate	~
	r r r r r r r r r r r r r r r r r r r				dehvdrogenase	
					complex	
53	One out of the following is an inhibitor of complex I	Rotenone	H2S	BAL	CN	Rotenone
54	Which out of the following statements concerning the	Oxygen directly oxidizes	Succinate	All of the components	Cyanide does not	Cyanide does not inhibit proton
	components of electron transport chain is true?	Cvtochrome c	dehvdrogenase directly	are embedded in the	inhibit proton	pumping but inhibits ETC
	1 1	5	reduces Cytochrome c	inner mitochondrial	pumping but	
			5	membrane	inhibits ETC	
55	The free energy released during the transport of a pair	7.3 Kcal/mol	52.6 Kcal/mol	21.9 Kcal/mol	12.6 Kcal/mol	52.6 Kcal/mol
	of electrons in electron transport chain is					
56	Which one of the following is a high energy phosphate	ATP	ADP	NADH	both ATP and ADP	ATP and ADP
57	NADH stands for	Niacin dehydrogenase	Nucleic acid analogue	Nicotinamide adenine	Nucleoside acid	Nicotinamide adenine
				dinucleotide	analogue	dinucleotide

58 Which one of the following thermodynamic quantities	Gibbs free energy	enthalpy	entropy	work	work
is not a state function?					
59 Which statement is incorrect ?	The thermodynamic	Gibbs free energy is a	For an endothermic	If the work done by	For an endothermic process, ΔH is
	symbol for entropy is S	state function	process, ΔH is negative	the system is	negative
				greater than the	
				heat absorbed by	
				the system, ΔE is	
				negative	
60 Which statement is false ?	The thermodynamic	ΔH is sometimes	ΔH is neraly equal to	ΔH is equal to ΔE	ΔH is equal to ΔE for the reaction
	quantity most easily	exactly equal to ΔE	ΔE	for the reaction	
	measured in a "coffee				
	cup" calorimeter is ΔH .				

Unit II

	Questions	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
		Breakdown of	Synthesis of biological	Conversion of	Utilizing of biological	Breakdown of
1	Catabolism is	biological molecules	molecules	biological molecules	molecules	biological molecules
					Both catabolism and	Both catabolism and
2	Amphibolic is	Catabolism	Anabolism	Metabolism	anabolism	anabolism
	Primary role of pentose phosphate					
3	pathway is	Catabolic	Anabolic	Both A and B	Amphibolic	Anabolic
4	Pentose phosphate pathway is parallel to	Glycolysis	Gluconeogenesis	Fermentation	Respiration	Glycolysis
	Pentose phosphate pathway is also termed			Phosphogluconate		Phosphogluconate
5	as	Glycolysis	Gluconeogenesis	pathway	Glycogenolysis	pathway
		Allows continued		Halts mitochondrial		Halts mitochondrial
		mitochondrial ATP		ATP formation, but	Slows the conversion of	ATP formation, but
	Uncoupling of mitochondrial oxidative	formation, but halts O2	Halts all mitochondrial	allows continued O2	glucose to pyruvate by	allows continued O2
6	phosphorylation	consumption	metabolism	consumption	glycolysis	consumption
	Which is not a metabolic intermediate	Glyceraldehyde-3-				Fructose-1,6-
7	used in amphibolic pathways?	phosphate		Acetyl CoA	Oxaloacetic acid	bisphosphate
		^				· ·
	Complete oxidative breakdown of glucose					
8	results in ATP molecules	32	36	32	39	36
	Which one of the following is a rate					
9	limiting enzyme of gluconeogenesis?	Hexokinase	Phsophofructokinase	Pyruvate carboxylase	Pyruvate kinase	Pyruvate carboxylase
	Different enzymes that catalyze same					
10	reaction are called	isoenzymes	coenzymes	cofactors	isofactors	isoenzymes
11	Gluconeogenesis occurs in	Adipose tissue	Muscles	Kidneys	Brain	Kidneys
	In glycolysis a net gain of two ATPs are	-		Substrate level		Substrate level
12	generated by what process?	Chemiosmosis	ADP processing	phosphorylation	Electron transport chain	phosphorylation
				Pyruvates into acetyl-	Pyruvates into acetyl-	Pyruvates into acetyl-
13	The preparatory reaction breaks	Glucose into pyruvates	Pyruvates into glucose	coa and carbon dioxide	coa and water	coa and carbon dioxide
14	Embden-Meyerhof pathway referred as	Gluconeogenesis	Glycolysis	Citric acid	Glycogenesis	Glycolysis
	In gluconeogenesis, glucose is generated	Non carbohydrate	Carbohydrate carbon			Non carbohydrate
15	by	carbon substrates	substrates	Sucrose	Yeast	carbon substrates
16	Gluconeogenesis is decreased by	Glucagon	Epinephrine	Glucocorticoids	Insulin	Insulin
17	Gluconeogenesis is often associated with	Ketosis	Hexoses	Pentoses	Aldolase	Ketosis
	In vertebrates, gluconeogenesis mainly					
18	takes place in	Stomach	Liver	Heart	Intestine	Liver
		Glucose 6-phosphate	Glucose 1-phosphate	Glucose 6-phosphate	Glucose 1-phosphate	Glucose 6-phosphate
	The first two intermediates in the process	and glucose 1-	and glucose 6-	and fructose 6-	and fructose 1-	and fructose 6-
19	of glycolysis are, respectively	phosphate	phosphate	phosphate	phosphate	phosphate

	The name of the process in which glucose					
20	6-phosphate is converted to glycogen is	Gluconeogenesis	Glycogenesis	Glycogenolysis	Glycolysis	Glycogenesis
	Which of the following is a reactant in the					
21	first step of gluconeogenesis?	Carbon dioxide	GTP	Glucose	Phosphoenol pyruvate	Carbon dioxide
	Which of the following metabolite					
	integrates glucose and fatty acid					
22	metabolism?	Acetyl CoA	Pyruvate	Citrate	Lactate	Acetyl CoA
	The formation of citrate from oxalo	Oxidation	Reduction	Condensation	Hydrolysis	Condensation
23	acetate and acetyl CoA is					
24	The carrier of the citric acid cycle is	Succinate	Fumarate	Malate	Oxaloacetate	Oxaloacetate
	The Key enzymes in glycolysis are	Glucokinase	Glucokinase and	Glucokinase,	Glucokinase,	Glucokinase,
			Phosphofructokinase	Phosphofructokinase	Phosphofructokinase	Phosphofructokinase
				and pyruvate kinase	and fructose -1-	and pyruvate kinase
25					phosphatase	
	The complete oxidation of glucose occurs	Glycolysis	HMP shunt	Glycolysis and TCA	TCA cycle	Glycolysis and TCA
26	in			cycle		cycle
27	TCA Cycle takes place in	Cytosol	Ribosomes	Mitochondria	Nucleus	Mitochondria
	TCA Cycle is called as amphibolic	Produces energy	Is catabolic and	Produces CO ₂ and H ₂ O	Occurs in mitochondria	Is catabolic and
28	pathway because it		anabolic			anabolic
	Von Gierke's disease is due to deficiency	Glucose-6-phosphatase	Glucose -1-phosphatase	Fructose-6-phosphatase	Fructose-1-phosphatase	Glucose-6-phosphatase
29	of enzyme				* *	
	Pentose provided by HMP shunt is used	Energy production	Fatty acid production	Nucleic acid synthesis	Steroid synthesis	Nucleic acid synthesis
30	for				-	
	Essential pentosuria is due to deficiency	Xylulose reductase	Xylitol dehydrogenase	Xylitol synthetase	Xylitol decarboxylase	Xylitol dehydrogenase
31	of enzyme					
	Rate limiting enzyme in glycogenolysis is	Phosphorylase	Phosphoglucomutase	Glucose 6 phosphatase	Fructose 1,6	Phosphorylase
32					phosphatase	
33	Rate limiting enzyme in glycogenesis is	Glucokinase	Phophoglucomutase	UDPG phosphorylase	Glycogen synthetase	Glycogen synthetase
	Tricarboxylic acid cycle to be continuous	Pyruvic acid	Oxaloacetic acid	α-oxoglutaric acid	Malic acid	Oxaloacetic acid
34	requires the regeneration of					
	Where does the TCA cycle take place in	Mitochondrial matrix	Cytoplasm	Mitochondrial	Cytoplasmic membrane	Cytoplasm
35	bacteria?			membrane		
	In aerobic respiration when is the first	During chemiosmosis	When pyruvic acid is	During the conversion	When glucose is	During the conversion
	molecule of carbon dioxide released?		reduced to lactic acid	step when pyruvic acid	phosphorylated in	step when pyruvic acid
				is converted to acetyl-	glycolysis	is converted to acetyl-
36				CoA		CoA
	One turn of the citric acid cycle produces	2 NADH, 2 FADH ₂ , 2	3 NADH, 1 FADH ₂ , 1	3 NADH, 2 FADH ₂ , 1	3 NADH, 1 FADH ₂ , 2	3 NADH, 1 FADH ₂ , 1
37		ATP	ATP	ATP	ATP	ATP

	Intermediates of the citric acid cycle are	Oxaloacetate	Citrate	Alpha-ketoglutarate	Succinyl-coa	Oxaloacetate
	replenished by a reaction converting					
38	pyruvate to					
39	End product of TCA cycle is	Citric acid	Pyruvic acid	Lactic acid	CO ₂ and water	CO ₂ and water
40	is the precursor for the	L-gulonate	L-alanine	Methionine	L-aspartic acid	L-gulonate
41	synthesis of ascorbic acid					
	In the glyoxylate cycle, the sequential	Malate	Aspartate	Pyruvate	Succinate	Succinate
	action of citrate lyase and isocitrate lyase					
	converts acetyl CoA into glyoxylate and					
42	oxaloacetate into:					
43	ATP and NADH inhibit	Isocitrate hydrogenase	Isocitrate	Pyruvate	Pyruvate hydrogenase	Isocitrate
44			dehydrogenase	dehydrogenase		dehydrogenase
45	In hydration, fumarate is converted by	L-Malate	D-Malate	A-Malate	C-Malate	L-Malate
46	fumarase to					
47	High levels of NADH will lower	Acetate	Dehydrogenase	Oxaloacetate	Carbonate	Oxaloacetate
48	concentration of					
49	Number of enzyme catalyzed reactions in	12	13	11	10	11
50	gluconeogenesis are					
	Which of the following processes requires	Formation of glycogen	Degradation of	Formation of glucose 1-	Degradation of glucose	Formation of glycogen
	UTP molecules?	from glucose 6-	glycogen to glucose 6-	phosphate from glucose	1-phosphate from	from glucose 6-
51		phosphate	phosphate	6-phosphate	glucose 6-phosphate	phosphate
	Glycogen is converted to glucose in	Gluconeogenesis	Glycogenesis	Glycogenolysis	Glycolysis	Glycogenolysis
52	which of the following processes?					
	Which of the following intermediates is	Fructose 6-phosphate	Pyruvate	Oxaloacetate	Acetyl Coa	Oxaloacetate
	not involved in glycolysis but is in					
53	gluconeogenesis?					
	In which of the following processes is	Glycogenesis	Glycogenolysis	Glycolysis	Citric acid cycle	Glycogenolysis
54	glucose 6-phosphate the end product?	~	~	~	~	~
	The compound glucose 1-phosphate is	Glycogenesis and	Glycolysis and	Glycogenesis and	Glycolysis and	Glycogenesis and
	encountered in which of the following	glycogenolysis	gluconeogenesis	gluconeogenesis	glycogenolysis	glycogenolysis
55	processes?		D	D	<u>01</u>	D
	The compound oxaloacetate is an	Glycogen to glucose	Pyruvate to glucose	Pyruvate to acetyl coa	Glycogen to pyruvate	Pyruvate to glucose
56	intermediate in the conversion of	· · · · · · ·				
	In the human body, under aerobic	Lactate and ethanol	Lactate and acetyl Coa	Ethanol and lactate	Acetyl Coa and lactate	Acetyl Coa and lactate
<i>c</i> 7	conditions and anaerobic conditions,					
57	respectively, pyruvate is converted to	01 111 1 2	C1 (T 1 (1		01 111 1 2
	which of the following enzyme is not	Giyceraldehyde-3	Glucose-6-	I ransketolase	Phosphogluconate	Glyceraldehyde-3-
50	involved in HNIP snunt?	pnospnate-	pnospnatedehydrogenas		denydrogenase	pnospnatedehydrogenas
58		denydrogenase	e Cl (l l i			e E i 1
50	which of the following is a substrate for	Glyceraldehyde-3-	Glucose-6-phosphate	Fructose-6-phosphate	Fructosel, 6-	Fructosel, 6-
59	aldolase activity in Glycolytic pathway?	phosphate			bisphosphate	bisphosphate
An allosteric enzyme responsible for	Malate dehydrogenase	Isocitrate	Fumarase	Aconitase	Isocitrate	
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60 controlling the rate of T.C.A cycle is		dehydrogenase			dehydrogenase	

UNIT III					
S. No QUESTION	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
1 β-oxidation of long chain fatty acids occou primarily in	rs Cytosol	Peroxisomes	Mitochondria	Golgi apparatus	Mitochondria
2 β-oxidation of palmitic acid produces a net synthesis of how many ATP molecules?	109	129	24	38	129
3 α-Oxidation of fatty acids occurs mainly in	Liver	Brain	Muscles	Adipose tissue	Brain
4 The enzyme involved ω-oxidation are loca in	ed golgi complex	Cytoplasm	Endoplasmic recticulum	Mitochondria	Endoplasmic recticulum
5 The rate of fatty acid oxidation is increased	by Phospholipids	Glycolipids	Amino lipids	Spingolipids	Phospholipids
6 Which enzyme is involved in lipid digesion	1? Elastase	lactase	Lipase	Lactate dehydrogenase	Lipase
7 Digesion of triglycerides requires	Bile salts	Bile pigments	Intrinsic factor	Bile acids	Bile salts
8 Absorption of fats occurs mainly in	Stomach	Duodenum	Jejunum	Ileum	Jejunum
9 Fatty acids are degraded mainly by	ω-oxidation	α- oxidation	β-oxidation	HMP shunt	β-oxidation
10 Majority of the absorbed fat appears in the form of	VLDL	LDL	HDL	Chylomicrones	Chylomicrones
11 The end product of fatty acid synthesis in mammals is	Arachidonic acid	Linoleic acid	Stearic acid	Palmitic acid	Stearic acid
12 The key regulatory enzyme of fatty acid synthesis is	Acyl coA synthetase	Acetyl coA carboxylase	Keto acyl synthase	Thioesterase	Acetyl coA carboxylase
13 NADPH required for fatty acid synthesis c be generated from	an HMP shunt	Glycolysis	TCA cycle	Urea cycle	HMP shunt
14 Which of the following inhibits the acetyl carboxylase a rate limiting enzymes of carbohydrate metabolism?	Citrate	АТР	Malonyl CoA	Acyl CoA	Acyl CoA
15 Malonyl-CoA A is a direct inhibitor of wh enzyme of fatty acid oxidation	ch Carnitine Acyl Transferase –I	Carnitine Acyl Transferase —II	Thiokinase	Acyl co A synthetase	Carnitine Acyl Transferase –I
17 Cholestrol is the precursor of	Steroid hormones	Vitamin A	Urea	Folic acid	Steroid hormones
18 The committed step in cholesterol biosynth	Formation of squaline	Formation of HMG CoA	Formation of mevalonic acid from HMG CoA	Cyclisation of squaline to lanotterol	Formation of mevalonic acid from HMG CoA
19 The principle building block of fatty acid i	Succynyl CoA	Acetyl CoA	Propionyl CoA	Acetoacetyl CoA	Acetyl CoA
20 Biosynthesis of fatty acid requires which vitamin?	Riboflavin	Pyridoxine	Thiamin	Pantothenic acid	Pantothenic acid
21 ACP is involved in the synthesis of	Phospholipids	Fatty acids	Glycogen	Triglycerides	Fatty acids
22 The main catabolic end product of cholester	rol Acetyl CoA	Propionyl CoA	Coprosterol	Bile acids	Bile acids
23 The fattyacid synthase complex comprises monomers, each containing	two 2 enzymes	5 enzymes	7 enzymes	10 enzymes	7 enzymes
24					

25	Bile acid are derived from	Cholesterol	Amino acids	Fatty acids	Bilirubin	Cholesterol
26	The major storage form of lipids is	Esterified cholesterol	Glycerophospholipids	Triglycerides	Sphingolipids	Triglycerides
27	The principal precursors of glycerophospholipids are	Phospholipids	Spingolipids	Diacylglycerols	Spingomyelins	Diacylglycerols
28	The important lipid involved in cell adhesion and cell recognition is	Phospholipids	Cholesterol	Glycospingolipids	Ceramide	Glycospingolipids
29	Acyl Carrier Protein contains the vitamin	Biotin	Lipoic acid	Pantothenic acid	Folic acid	Pantothenic acid
30	The starting material for the process of ketogenesis is	Acetyl CoA	Oxaloacetate	Pyruvate	Citrate	Acetyl CoA
31	Which among the following is the most complex sphingolipid	Cerebroside	Gangleoside	Globoside	Ceramide	Gangleoside
32	How many double bonds occur in Arachidonic acid	1	2	3	4	4
33	Which of the following is essential fatty acid	Linolenic acid	Arachidonic acid	Oleic acid	Palmitic acid	Linolenic acid
34	A genetic disorder caused by the accumulation of sphingomyelin in brain is called	Tay-Sach syndrome	Gout	Niemann-Pick Disease	Gauche's disease	Niemann-Pick Disease
35	Lipid molecule involved in the bio-signaling pathway that include membrane turnover and exocytosis is	Phosphatidylinositol	Phosphatidyl glycerol	Myoinositol	Phosphatidyl glycerol and Myoinositol	Phosphatidylinositol
36	Most abundant membrane lipid in the biosphere is	Phospholipid	Galactolipid	Sphingolipid	Ether lipid	Galactolipid
37	What is the molecular formula of cholesterol?	C ₂₇ H ₄₅ OH	C ₂₈ H ₄₇ OH	C ₂₉ H ₄₇ OH	C ₂₃ H ₄₁ OH	C ₂₇ H ₄₅ OH
38	Enzymes for beta oxidation of fatty acids are located in	Mitochondria	Mitochondria and cytoplasm	Mitochondria and Golgi	Mitochondria and peroxisome	Mitochondria
39	Cerebroside may also classified as	Phospholipid	Sphingolipid	Aminolipid	Glycolipid	Sphingolipid
40	Glyco-sphingolipids are a combination of	Glycerol with two galactose residues	Ceramide with one or more sugar residues	Sphingosine with galactose and ceramide	Sphingosine with glucose	Ceramide with one or more sugar residues
41	Spingomyelins contain a complex amino alcohol named as	Serine	Lysolecithin	Spingosine	Glycol	Spingosine
42 43	The key regulatory enzyme of cholesterol synthesis is	HMG- Co A synthase	HMG Co A lyase	HMG Co A reductase	Mevalonate kinase	HMG Co A reductase
44	The enzyme 'Thiolase' catalyzes the conversion of	2 Acetyl co A to Acetoacetyl co A	Acetyl co A to Malonyl co A	Fatty acid to Fatty Acyl co A	Succinyl co A to succinate	2 Acetyl co A to Acetoacetyl co A
45	The enzyme involved in mammalian signal transduction is	Phospholipase A	Phospholipase B	Phospholipase C	Phospholipase D	Phospholipase D
46	In alpha oxidation which of the following products is released ?	Co A	CO ₂	H ₂ O	Acetyl co A	CO ₂
47	Which of the following is a break down product of odd chain fatty acids?	Acetyl co A only	Acetyl co A and Butyryl co A	Acetyl co A and Propionyl co A	Malonyl co A	Acetyl co A and Propionyl co A
48	All the 27 carbon atoms of cholesterol are derived from	Acetyl co A	Acetoacetyl co A	Propionyl co A	Succinyl co A	Acetyl co A

49	NADPH is synthesized by the action of which of the following enzymes?	Glucose-6-P dehydrogenase	Pyruvate dehydrogenase	Acetyl co A carboxylase	Lipoprotein lipase	Glucose-6-P dehydrogenase
50	How many carbons are removed from fatty acyl co A in one turn of β - oxidation spiral ?	1	2	3	4	2
51	What is the role of Thiolase in the β - oxidation of fatty acids?	Cleaves of Co A	Cleaves the bond between α - and β - carbons	Adds H ₂ O across the double bond	Generates NADH	Cleaves the bond between α- and β- carbons
52	The key enzyme for the utilization of ketone bodies is	Thiolase	Thiophorase	Thiokinase	Thioesterase	Thiophorase
53	High content of triglycerides are seen in	LDL	HDL	VLDL	Chylomicrones	Chylomicrones
54	Gangliosides are glycolipids occurring in	Liver	Brain	Kidney	Muscle	Brain
55	The prostaglandins are synthesized from	Aracadonic acid	Oleic acid	Linoleic acid	Linolenic acid	Aracadonic acid
56	Prostaglandins are liberated in the circulation by the stimulation of	Anterior pitutary glands	Posterior pitutary glands	Adrenal gland	Thyroid gland	Adrenal gland
57	The synthesis of prostaglandins is inhibited by	Aspirin	Arsenite	Fluoride	Cyanide	Aspirin
58	HDL is synthesized and secreted from	Pancrease	Liver	Kidney	Muscle	Liver
59	Fatty liver caused by	CH ₃ Cl	CCL ₄	MgSO ₄	CH ₃ COOH	CCL ₄
60	Ketosis generally occurs in	Nephritis	Oedema	Infective hepatic disease	Coronary thrombosis	Infective hepatic disease

UNIT IV	QUESTION	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
1	In which form the nitrogen is incorporated into an amino acid?	Nitrite	Glutamate	Nitrate	Ammonium ion	Ammonium ion
2	Transamination reaction in amino acid synthesis is catalyzed by enzyme	Nitric oxide synthase	Decarboxylase	Aminotransferase	Glutamate decarboxylase	Nitric oxide synthase
3	Intermediates of which of the following metabolic pathway have not been used in the synthesis of amino acids?	Glycolysis	Fatty acid biosynthesis	Citric acid cycle	Pentose phosphate	Fatty acid biosynthesis
4	Name the amino acid which does not take part in transamination during amino acid catabolism	Proline	Threonine	Lysine	Serine	Serine
5	Which of these is a hereditary disease caused due to an error in amino acid metabolism?	Homocystinuria	Albinism	Phenylketonuria	Branched-chain ketoaciduria	Phenylketonuria
6	In deamination, amino acid is converted into	aldol acid	keto acid	hydrochloric acid	carboxylic acid	keto acid
7	Process of breakdown of amino acids to α keto acids is called	cisamination	amination	transamination	Racemization	transamination
8	Function of proteins is to	transport oxygen to hemoglobin	catalyze biochemical reactions	regulate reactions	all of above	all of above
9	Which of the following statements about protein synthesis is correct?	All the information in DNA codes for proteins	The mRNA formed by transcription of a region of DNA only contains information for the protein to be synthesised.	Both strands of DNA are transcribed to form mRNA	The RNA formed by transcription of DNA undergoes splicing and further modifications to form mRNA	The RNA formed by transcription of DNA undergoes splicing and further modifications to form mRNA
10	Which of the following statements about proteolysis is correct?	The rate of tissue protein catabolism is more or less constant throughout the day	All tissue proteins undergo catabolism at more or less the same rate.	All proteins that are to be catabolised are tagged with the peptide ubiquitin	Lysosomal enzymes provide the only mechanism for tissue protein catabolism	The rate of tissue protein catabolism is more or less constant throughout the day
11	Which of the following will result in an increase in the rate of tissue protein synthesis?	Increased glucagon secretion in the fasting state	Increased insulin secretion in the fed state	Increased availability of lysine in the fed state.	Secretion of cortisol under conditions of stress	Increased insulin secretion in the fed state
12	Which of the following amino acids cannot provide a substrate for gluconeogenesis?	Leucine	Tryptophan	Histidine	isoleucine	Leucine
13	Which of the following is the main nitrogenous compound in urine?	Uric acid	Ammonia	Urea	Creatinine	Urea
14	Which of the following statements concerning transamination is correct?	Only non-essential (dispensable) amino acids undergo transamination	Transamination is an irreversible reaction in amino acid catabolism.	Transaminases require a coenzyme derived from vitamin B12	Transaminases require a coenzyme derived from vitamin B6	Transaminases require a coenzyme derived from vitamin B6
15	Which of the following statements about the metabolic demand for amino acids is correct?	The metabolic demand is supplied only from the diet,	The metabolic demand is to maintain protein turnover	The metabolic demand involves consumption of amino-acids by a number of irreversible pathways and these are either obligatory or adaptive	The metabolic demand is a fixed amount	The metabolic demand involves consumption of amino-acids by a number of irreversible pathways and these are either obligatory or adaptive
16	Which of the following statements about the protein:energy ratio of the requirement is correct?	Infants and children need the most protein dense food	Children are most susceptible to protein deficient diets	Young adults need the most protein dense food	The elderly need the most protein dense food	The elderly need the most protein dense food
17	The ionisable groups of amino acids atleast	1	2	3	4	2
18	The ionisable groups of amino acids exist almost entirely as the conjugated base at	6.6	6.8	7.2	7.4	7.4
19	The melting point of amino acid is above	$100^{0}C$	180 [°] C	200 ⁰ C	220 ⁰ C	200 ⁰ C
20	Amino acids are insoluble in	Lactic acid	choloroform	ethanol	benzene	benzone
21	the reagent for the detection of amino acid is	Molisch's reagent	Dicholoro phenol indo phenol	ninhydrin	none	ninhydrin
22	Which among the following is an essential amino acid	Cysteine	leucine	tyrosine	Aspartic acid	leucine

23	The neutral amino acid is	leucine	lysine	proline	serine	leucine
24	Which amino acid is a lipotropic factor?	Lysine	leucine	tryptophan	methionine	methionine
25	The basic amino acid	Glycine	Histidine	proline	serine	Histidine
26	Which among the following is a nutritionally essential amino acid	Alanine	Glycine	tyrosine	tryptophan	tryptophan
	for man?					
27	All amino acids are optically active except	Glycine	serine	threonine	tryptophan	Glycine
28	Which one of the following amino acid does not contain sulphur	methionine	cystine	Lysine	Cysteine	Lysine
29	Arginine has a	Thiol group	Guanidine group	phenolic group	imidazole group	Guanidine group
30	Formaldehyde reacts with amino acid	Carboxyl group	amino group	hydroxyl group	methyl group	amino group
31	Ninhydrin reaction is specific to	Amino & carboxylic acid	carboxylic acid	Aldehydes	Ketones	Amino & carboxylic
						acid
32	Serotonin is derived in the body from the following amino acid	Phenyl alanine	histidine	tryptophan	Serine	tryptophan
33	The amino acid which contains a indole group is	Histidine	arginine	attulin	glycine	Tryptophan
34	The amino acid which contains a guanidine group is	Histidine	arginine	attulin	attulin	arginine
35	The amino acid which synthesises many hormones	Valine	alanine	Phenylalanine	alanine	alanine
36	Sakaguchi reaction is answered by	cystine	ornithine	arginine	arginine	arginine
37	The isoelecrtic point of an amino acid depends on its	optical rotation	dissociation constant	diffusion coeffient	diffusion coeffient	optical rotation
38	The amino acids exist as zwitter ions when they are in	solid state	acidic solution	alkaline solution	alkaline solutio	solid state
39	Amino acids are	absorbed into portal	absorbed into into lymph	excreted to the extent of	excreted to the extent of	are absorbed into portal
		circulation		50%	50%	circulation
40	An amino acid which contains a disulfide bond is	lysine	methionine	homocysteine	homocysteine	Cystine
41	Amino acids are insoluble in	Acetic acid	Chloroform	Ethanol	Ethanol	Benzene
42	Owing to the opposite reactions depending on the acidity or	Amphibolic	Ampholytic	Both	None	Ampholytic
	alkalinity of the solution, the amino acid sare called					
43	This protein has a pigment as the prosthetic group	heme	haemoglobin	hematin	Collagen	haemoglobin
44	Out of 200 different amino acids found in nature the number of	20	25	43	30	20
	aminoacids present in protein					
45	At iso electric pH amino acids exist as	anion	cation	zwitter ion	anion and cation	zwitter ion
46	Ampholytes have	only positive charges	only negative charges	both positive & negative	none	all options
				charges		
47	Histidine is degraded to a-ketoglutarate and is described as a	gluco amino acid	glucogenic amino acid	ketogenic amino acid	keto-gluco amino acid	glucogenic amino acid
48	Which of the following amino acids is considered as both ketogenic	Tyrosine	Valine	Lysine	tryptophan	Tyrosine
	and glucogenic?					
49		keto-sugars	acetyl CoA	acetoacetyl CoA	pyruvate or citric acid	pyruvate or citric acid
	A glucogenic amino acid is one which is degraded to				cycle intermediates	cycle intermediates
50			Tryptophan	Valine	Glysine	
	Which of the following is the best described glucogenic amino acid?	Lysine				Lysine
51			phenylalanine to			phenylalanine to
	A person with phenylketonuria cannot convert	phenylalanine to tyrosine	Isoleucine	phenol into ketones	phenylalanine to lysine	tyrosine
52		group from an amino acid	acid to a carboxylic acid	acid to a keto acid plus	group from an amino acid	acid to a keto acid plus
	Oxidative deamination is the conversion of an amino	to a keto acid	plus ammonia	ammonia	to a carboxylic acid	ammonia
53			1			
		1, , 1	aspartate + nexanoic acid	aspartate + a ketogiutarate	1 / /	aspartate + a
		giutamate = hexanoic acid	= giutamate +	= giutamate +	giutamate = a-	ketogiutarate =
	An example of a transamination process is	+ NH3	oxaloacetate	oxaloacetate	ketogiutarate + NH3	giutamate + oxaloacetate
54		carboxyl group is	· · · · · · ·	n - 1		a-amino group is
		transferred from amino	a-amino group is removed	polymerisation of amino	acid to a carboxylic acid	removed from the amino
	I ransamination is the process where	acid	from the amino acid	acid takes place	pius ammonia	
55	I ne most toxic compounds is	1 yrosine	pnenylpyruvate	lysine	pnenylalanine	pnenyipyruvate
56	A person with phenyiketonuria is advised not to consume which of		Fat containing food		Glucose	A
	the following products?	Glycine containing foods	l	Aspartame		Aspartame

57	Tyrosine is degraded to acetoacetyl CoA and fumarate and is			ketogenic and glucogenic		ketogenic and glucogenic
	described as a	glucogenic amino acid	ketogenic amino acid	amino acid	keto-gluco amino acid	amino acid
58	Transaminase enzymes are present in	Liver	pancreas	kidney	intestine	Liver
59	Which of the following vitamins provides the coenzyme for	Folate	Niacin	Thiamine	Riboflavin	Thiamine
	oxidative decarboxylation of pyruvate?					
60	The amino acid substitution of Val for Glu in Hemoglobin S results	Covalent bond	disulfide bond	hydrogen bond	hydrophobic	hydrophobic
	in aggregation of the protein because of interactions between					
	molecules.					

Unit V						
S.No	QUESTION	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Answer
1	Identify the purine base of nucleic acids in the following	Cytosine	Thymine	Uracil	Adenine	Adenine
2	Which of the following are not the components of RNA?	Cytosine	Thymine	Uracil	Adenine	Thymine
3	Which of the following statements is true?	Sugar component of a nucleotide is ribose	Sugar component of a nucleotide is deoxyribose	The bases in nucleotides are attached to a pentose sugar moiety by a glycosidic linkage	The sugar molecule of the nucleotide is in L- configuration	The bases in nucleotides are attached to a pentose sugar moiety by a glycosidic linkage
4	What is the composition of nucleoside?	a sugar + a phosphate	a base + a sugar	a base + a phosphate	a base + a sugar + phosphate	a base + a sugar
5	What is the composition of nucleotide?	a sugar + a phosphate	a base + a sugar	a base + a phosphate	a base + a sugar + phosphate	a base + a sugar + phosphate
6	Group of adjacent nucleotides are joined by	Phosphodiester bond	Peptide bond	Ionic bond	Covalent bond	Phosphodiester bond
7	The sugar molecule in a nucleotide is	Pentose	Hexose	Tetrose	Triose	Pentose
8	Building blocks of nucleic acids are	Nucleotides	Nucleosides	Amino acids	Histones	Nucleotides
9	Which macromolecule is not abundantly found though being of critical importance for biological mechanism?	Proteins	Lipids	Nucleic acid	Polysaccharides	Nucleic acid
10	What is the most common electron carrier in biological systems?	FAD	Coenzyme A	NAD	NADP	NAD
11	What is not a compound in the electron transport system?	NADH dehydrogenase	Flavoproteins	NADPH dehydrogenase	Coenzyme Q	NADPH dehydrogenase
12	The coupling of ATP synthesis to electron transport is known as	Oxidative phosphorylation	Chemiosmosis	ATP synthesis	Proton motive force	Oxidative phosphorylation
13	Which of the following drives the synthesis of ATP by ATP synthase in oxidative phosphorylation?	Distribution of electric potential across a membrane	Distribution of Cytochrome oxidase	Distribution of NADH	Distribution of FADH	Distribution of electric potential across a membrane
14	Which of the following is a coenzyme?	FAD	Ca^{2+}	Mg^{2+}	CO_2	FAD
15	An exergonic reaction is one in which	Electrons are added to a molecule	Electrons are removed from a molecule	The products have more free energy than the reactants	The reactants have more free energy than the products	The reactants have more free energy than the products
16	The main endergonic reaction that is driven by most of the body's exergonic reactions is the	Oxidation of FADH ₂	Synthesis of ATP	Reduction of NAD	Hydrolysis of ATP	Synthesis of ATP
17	The "universal energy carrier" is	FAD	FADH ₂	Glucose	Adenosine triphosphate	Adenosine triphosphate
18	If molecule A accepts electrons from molecule B, molecule A is	Reduced agent	A reducing agent	An oxidizing agent	An exergonic agent	An oxidizing agent
19	Any oxidation reaction must be coupled to	The synthesis of ATP	The availability of oxygen	An exergonic reaction	A reduction reaction	A reduction reaction
20	If a molecule accepts a hydrogen atom, it becomes	Hydrolyzed	Dehydrated	Oxidized	Reduced	Reduced
21	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) is	A vitamin	An oxidizing agent	A reducing agent	A coenzyme	A coenzyme
22	In the electron transport chain, the hydrogen ions enter the inner compartment of mitochondria through special channels formed by	ATP synthase	Coenzyme A	Acetyl CoA	Oxygen	ATP synthase
23	Which process produces both NADH and FADH2?	The citric acid cycle	Glycolysis	The electron transport system	Fermentation	The citric acid cycle
24	Among the RNA's which of the following is very unstable	rRNA	tRNA	mRNA	5SRNA	mRNA
25	Ribose is linked with purine by	C_1 to N_1	C ₁ to N ₉	C ₅ to N ₉	C ₁ to N ₇	C ₁ to N ₉
26	mRNA has complementary sequence of	C-DNA	t-RNA	RNA	r-RNA	t-RNA
27	The higher percentage of RNA found is	Nucleus	Mitochondria	microsomes	golgibodies	Nucleus
28	RNA is easily hydrolysed by base due to	presence of OH group in position 2 of the ribose	Differences in the bases	Low molecular weight	none	presence of OH group in position 2 of the ribose
29	The enzymes of ETC belong to the following classes except	Oxidases	Dehydrogenases	Peroxidases	Reductases	Peroxidases
30	Which of the electron carriers is soluble and mobile	CoQ	Cytochrome c	Cytochrome a	Cytochrome b	CoQ
31	The final electron acceptor in lactic acid fermentation is:	NAD^+	Pyruvate	O ₂	Lactic acid	Pyruvate

32	The concentration of ATP in living mammalian cells in mm is near	0.2	0.3	0.4	. 1	1
33	Enzymes catalyzing electron transport are present mainly in the	Ribosomes	Endoplasmic reticulum	Lysosomes	Inner mitochondrial membrane	Inner mitochondrial membrane
34	The power house of the cell is	Nucleus	Cell membrane	Mitochondria	Lysosomes	Mitochondria
35	Oxidation is a	Gain of the electron	Removal of an electron	Gain of an oxygen	Removal of an oxygen	Removal of an electron
36	Reduction is a	Removal of an oxygen	Gain of an oxygen	Gain of the electron	Removal of an electron	Gain of the electron
37	Electron transport and phosphorylation can be uncoupled by compounds that increase the permeability of the inner mitochondrial membrane to	Electrons	Protons	Uncouplers	Couplers	Protons
38	The function of an electron in the electron transport chain is	To transfer energy from complex II to complex I	To pump hydrogen ions using complex II	To use its free energy to pump protons against their concentration gradient	To combine with phosphate when ATP is synthesized	To use its free energy to pump protons against their concentration gradient
39	In aerobic cellular respiration, which generates more ATP?	Substrate-level phosphorylation	Chemiosmosis	Both generate the same amount of ATP	Neither generates any ATP	Chemiosmosis
40	Which of the following is a coenzyme associated with cellular respiration?	NAD^{+}	O ₂	FAD	NAD and FAD	NAD and FAD
41	The final electron acceptor in the electron transport system is	FADH ₂	O ₂	Coenzyme Q	Cytochrome b	02
42	Oxidative phosphorylation occurs in	Mitochondria	Nucleus	Cell Membrane	Ribosomes	Mitochondria
43	Electrons in electron transport chains reduces oxygen in to	Carbondioxide	Water	Carbonmonoxide	Ozone	Water
44	Process of flow of electrons generated by oxidation of NADH and FADH2 is called	Phosphorylation	Electron transport chain	Dehydrogenation	Oxidative phosphorylation	Electron transport chain
45	Electron transport chain consists of how many complexes	7	5	3	4	4
46	Major components of electron transport chain are arranged in order of redox potential which is	Decreasing	Increasing	Variable	Alternatively increasing and decreasing	Increasing
47	Cytochromes are enzymes which function as electron transfer agent in	Hydrolysis	Conjugation reaction	Transamination	Oxidation and reduction	Oxidation and reduction
48	Guanosine nucletide is held by the cytosine nucletide by the number of hydrogen bonds	1	2	3	4	2
49	Within single turn of DNA the number of base pairs exists	4	6	8	10	10
50	Each turn of DNA structure has a pitch in nm of	1.4	2.4	3.4	4.4	3.4
51	The double stranded DNA molecule loses its viscosity upon	Denaturation	Filteration	sedimentation	concentration	Denaturation
52	Z-DNA was discovered by	Watson&Crick	Hoogsten	Chargaff	Chargaff	Hoogsten
53	The base sequence at the end of all tRNA is	CCA	CAA	CCC	CCC	CCA
54	Deoxy ribose has no oxygen in	5' position	2' position	3' position	4' position	2' position
55	When pancreatic deoxyribonuclease attacks DNA, the product obtained is	3' phosphonucleotide	5' phosphonucleotide	5'3' phosphodiesters	2'3' phosphodiesters	5'3' phosphodiesters
56	6-Amino purine is	Guanine	adenine	cytosine	adenine	adenine
57	The chemical name of 2-amino -6- oxy purine	Adenine	xanthine	guanine	Cytosine	guanine
58	N7-methyl guanine has been found more recently in the nucleic acids of the cells of	Bacteria	yeast	mammals	plant	mammals
59	Hypoxanyhine and ribose contitute	Adenosine	inosine	guanosine	cytidine	inosine
60	The most abundant intracellular free nucletide	ATP	FAD	NAD+	NADP+	ATP