

INTRODUCTION
into
BIOCHEMISTRY

Biochemistry

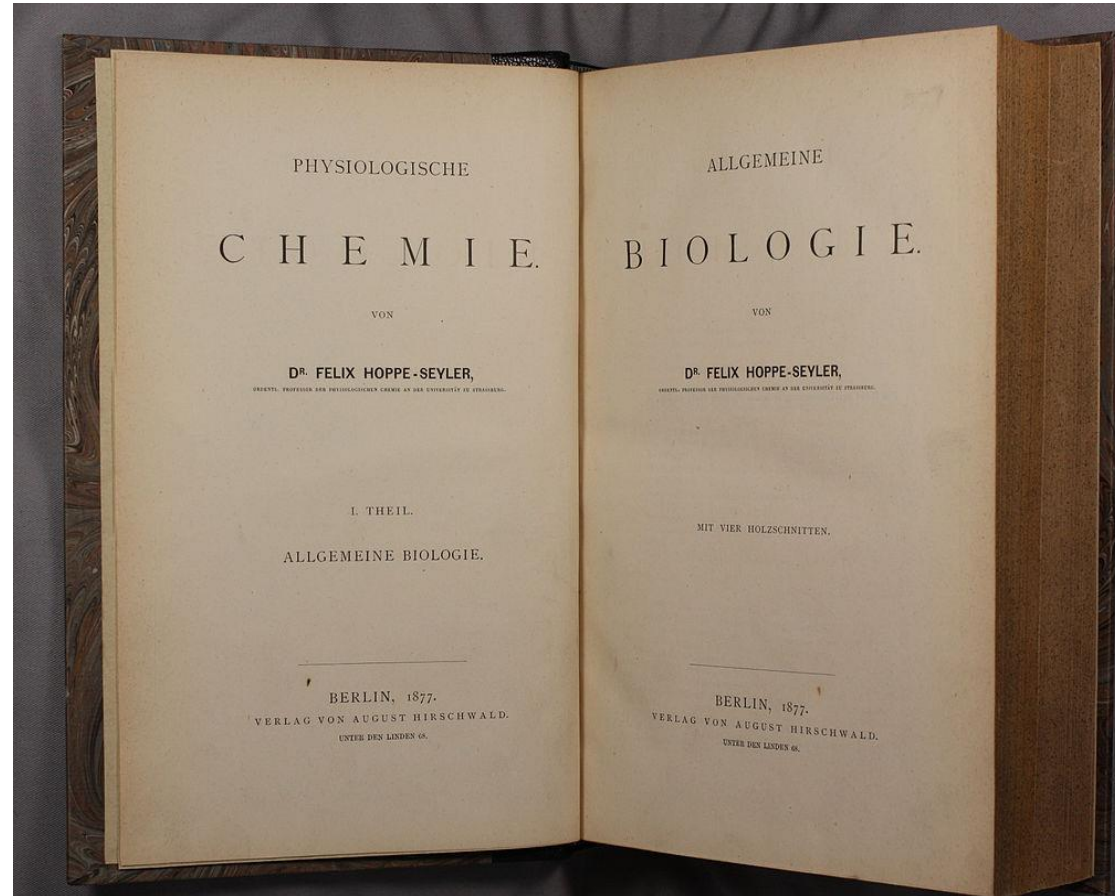
**the science of the chemical
constituents of living cells
and of the reactions and processes
they undergo**



The term "biochemistry" itself is derived from a combination of *biology* and *chemistry*

In 1877, Felix Hoppe-Seyler used the term as a synonym for *physiological chemistry* in the first issue of Journal of Physiological Chemistry

Felix Hoppe-Seyler, a physiologist and chemist, became the principal founder of biochemistry. His text **Physiological Chemistry** became the standard text for this new branch of applied chemistry



Although the term “biochemistry” seems to have been first used earlier, it is generally accepted that the word “biochemistry” was first proposed in 1903 by Carl Neuberg, a German chemist.

**Because life depends on
biochemical reactions,**

Biochemistry

**has become the basic language of
all biological sciences**

Biochemistry

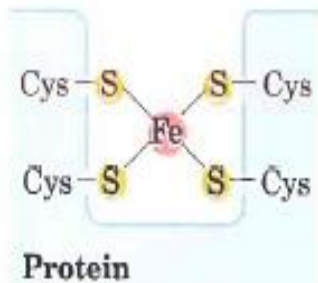
is a field of science concerned with the study of:

- **chemical properties of the compounds constitutive of the living organism**
- **their conversions**
- **relation of these conversions to the activity of organs and tissues**

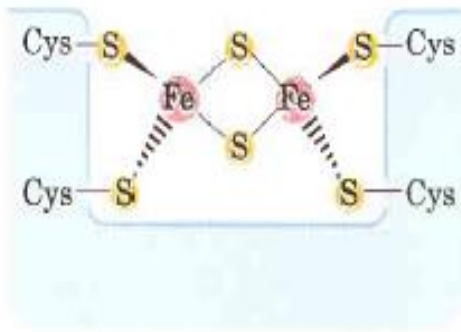
Static biochemistry

analysis of the chemical composition of the living organism

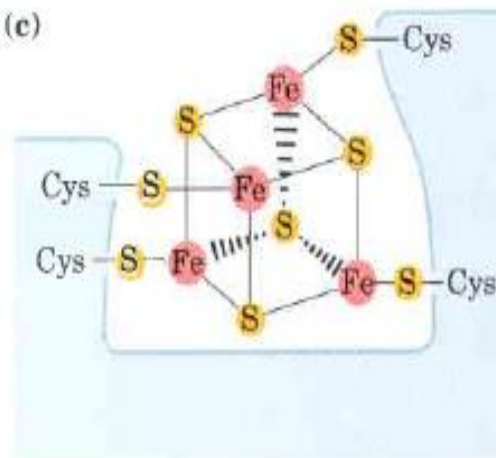
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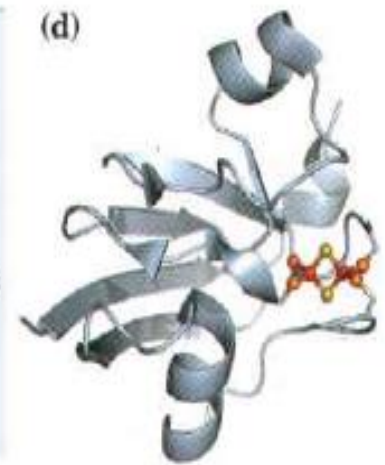
(b)



(c)

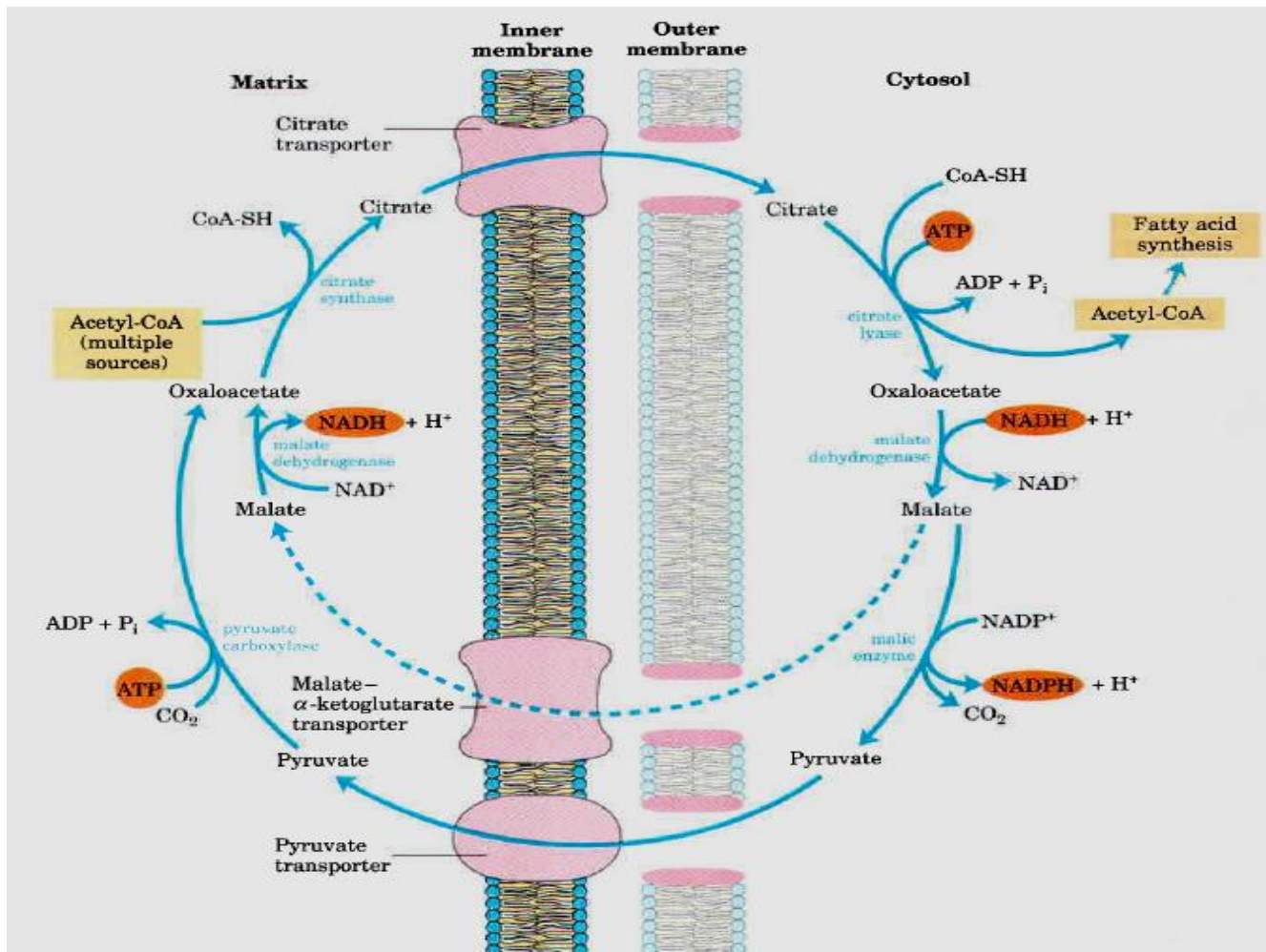


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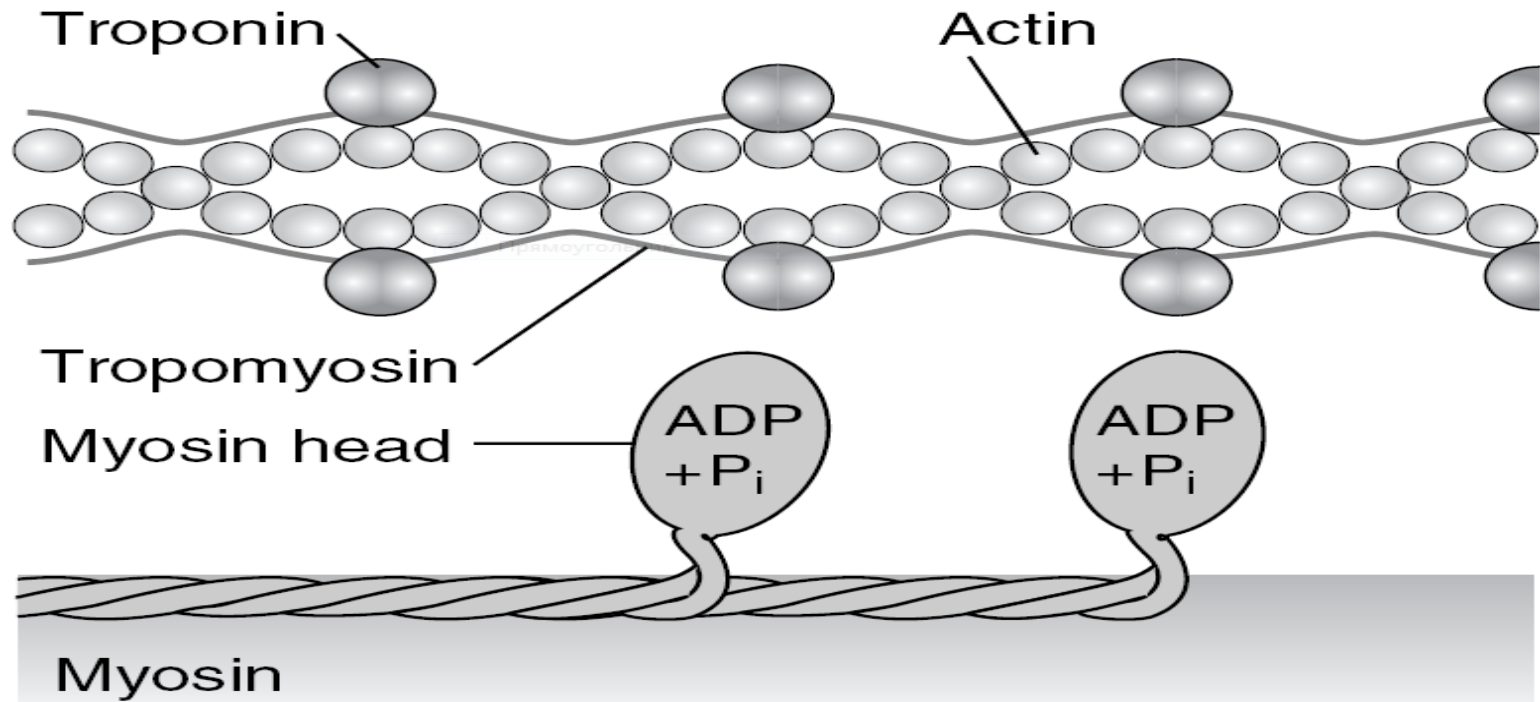
Dynamic biochemistry

study of the whole variety of metabolic conversions in organism



Functional biochemistry

concerned with the chemical processes that constitute a basis of various manifestations of vital activity



**Biochemistry is concerned with the
entire spectrum of life forms,
from relatively simple viruses and
bacteria
to complex human beings**

Depending on the object of study biochemistry divided into:

- biochemistry of humans and animals**
- biochemistry of plants**
- biochemistry of microorganisms**

Major objective of biochemistry:

complete understanding,

at the molecular level,

**of all the chemical processes associated
with living cells**



Methods used in biochemistry

Researchers in biochemistry use specific techniques native to biochemistry, but increasingly combine these with techniques and ideas developed in the fields of genetics, molecular biology and biophysics.

Methods used in biochemistry

- **for separating and purifying biomolecules**
 - **salt fractionation**
 - **chromatography**
 - **electrophoresis**
 - **ultracentrifugation**

Methods used in biochemistry

- **for determining biomolecular structure**
 - **elemental analysis**
 - **spectroscopy**
 - **mass spectrometry**
 - **X-ray crystallography**
 - **use hydrolysis and enzymes to degrade the biomolecules**

Methods used in biochemistry

- ***for determining substances concentrations***
 - **spectrophotometry**
 - **colourimetry**

Preparations for biochemical studies

- **whole organism**
- **isolated perfused organ**
- **tissue slice**
- **whole cells**
- **homogenates**
- **isolated cell organelles**
- **purified metabolites and enzymes**
- **isolated genes**

History of biochemistry

The modern biochemistry as an independent discipline has emerged at the turn of the 20th century. In prior periods the problems of biochemistry were studied by classical chemistry and physiology.

History of biochemistry

I period

ancient time – 15th century

In this period people used biochemical processes to make bread, cheese, wine, through the essence of these processes was unknown to them

History of biochemistry

II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century



German physician **Paracelsus (1493-1541) put forward the concept of a close relationship between chemistry and medicine: chemical reactions formed the basis of vital activity and the cause of any disease is a disturbance of the natural course of chemical processes within the organism.**

II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century



**Russian scientist
(1711-1765) –**

**formulation of the law of
conservation of mass**

II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century

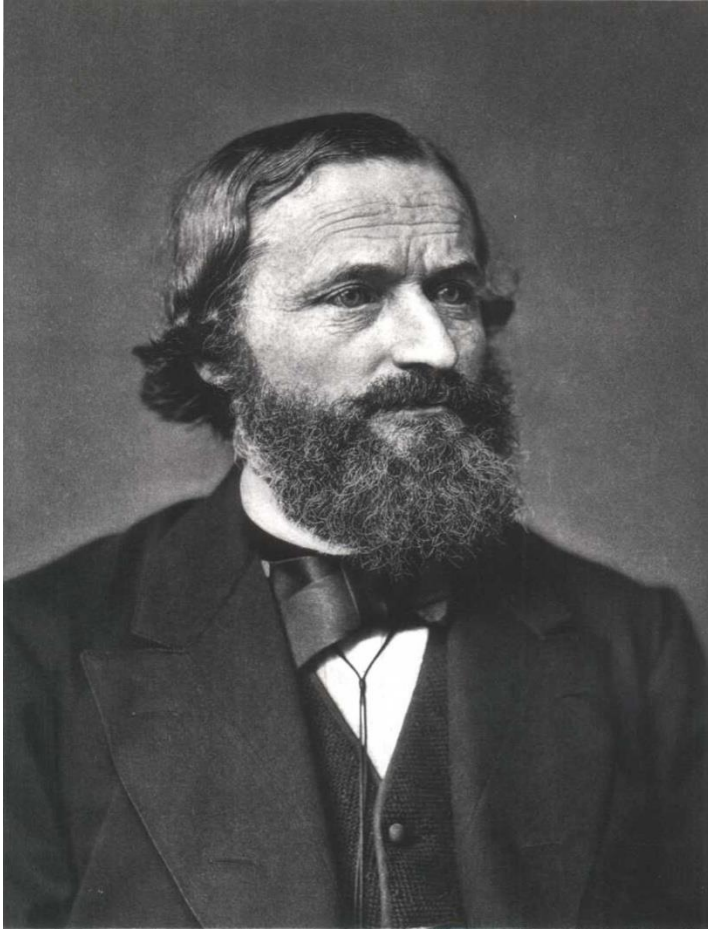
French chemist

Lavoisier (1743-1794) –

in respiration of living
organisms oxygen consumed
and carbon dioxide evolved



II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century



Russian chemist
Kirchhoff (1764-1833)

described in 1814 an enzymatic process of starch saccharization by the action of an extract from the germinated barley corn

II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century

By the 1850s, other enzymes were discovered:

salivary amylase, pepsin in gastric juice, trypsin of pancreatic juice

II period: 15th century– first half of the 19th century

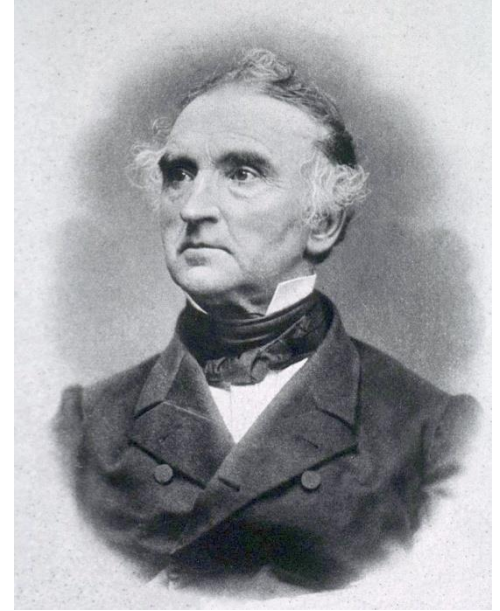
Justus von Liebig

1842

influential work

***Animal chemistry, or,
Organic chemistry in its
applications to physiology and
pathology,***

which presented a chemical theory
of metabolism



History of biochemistry

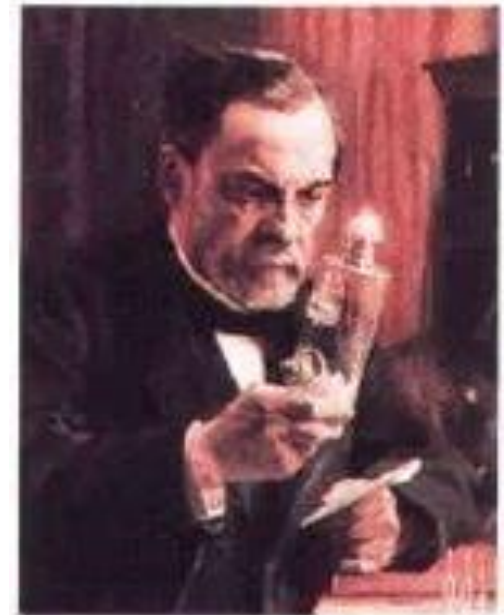
III period:

second half of the 19th century – first half of the 20th century

French scientist **Pasteur**

(1821-1895) –

studies of fermentation with
participation of living yeast cells



III period: second half of the 19th century – first half of the 20th century

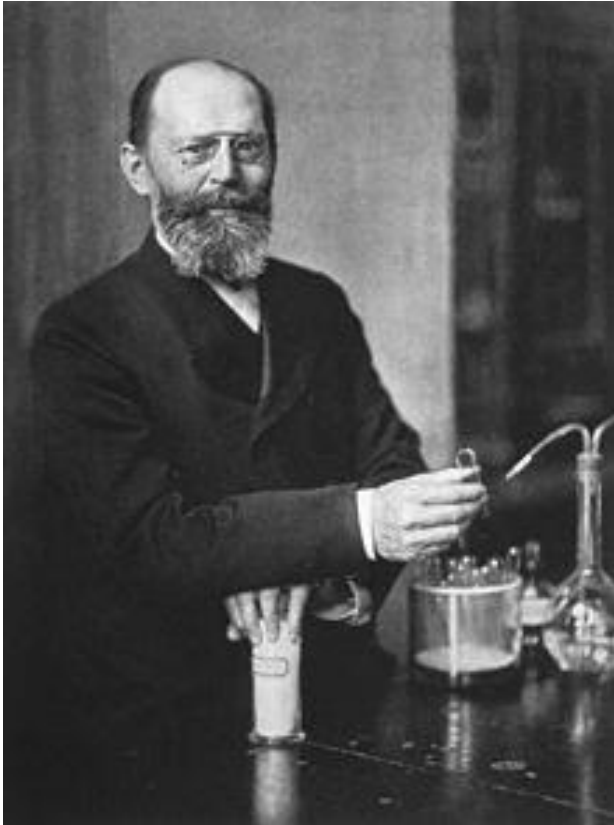


German chemist **Buchner in 1897 provide evidence for ability of a cell-free yeast to produce alcoholic fermentation. For his works cell-free fermentation was awarded a Nobel Prize chemistry in 1907)**

III period: second half of the 19th century – first half of the 20th century

In the second half of the 19th century special chairs of medical, or physiological, chemistry were instituted at the medical departments of many European universities

III period: second half of the 19th century – first half of the 20th century

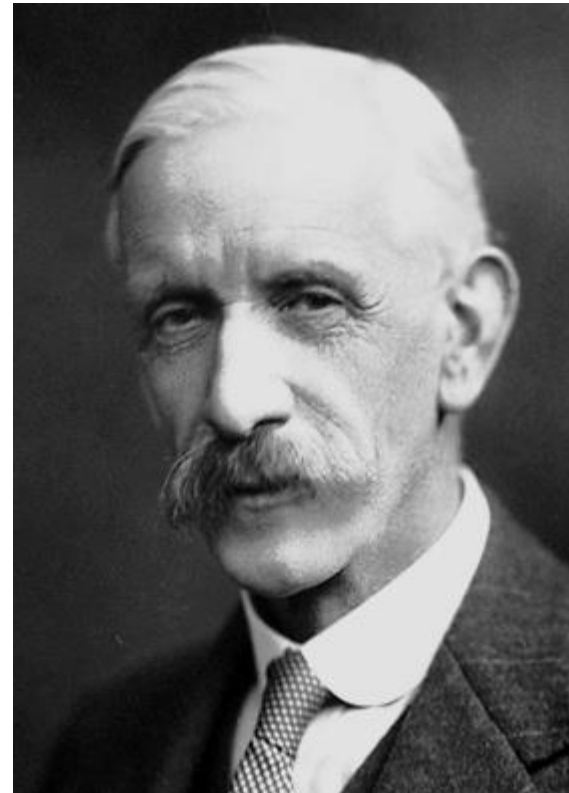


Emil Fischer
chemistry of proteins

III period: second half of the 19th century – first half of the 20th century

**Frederick Gowland
Hopkins**

English biochemist who was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1929, with Christiaan Eijkman for the discovery of **vitamins**



History of biochemistry

IV period:

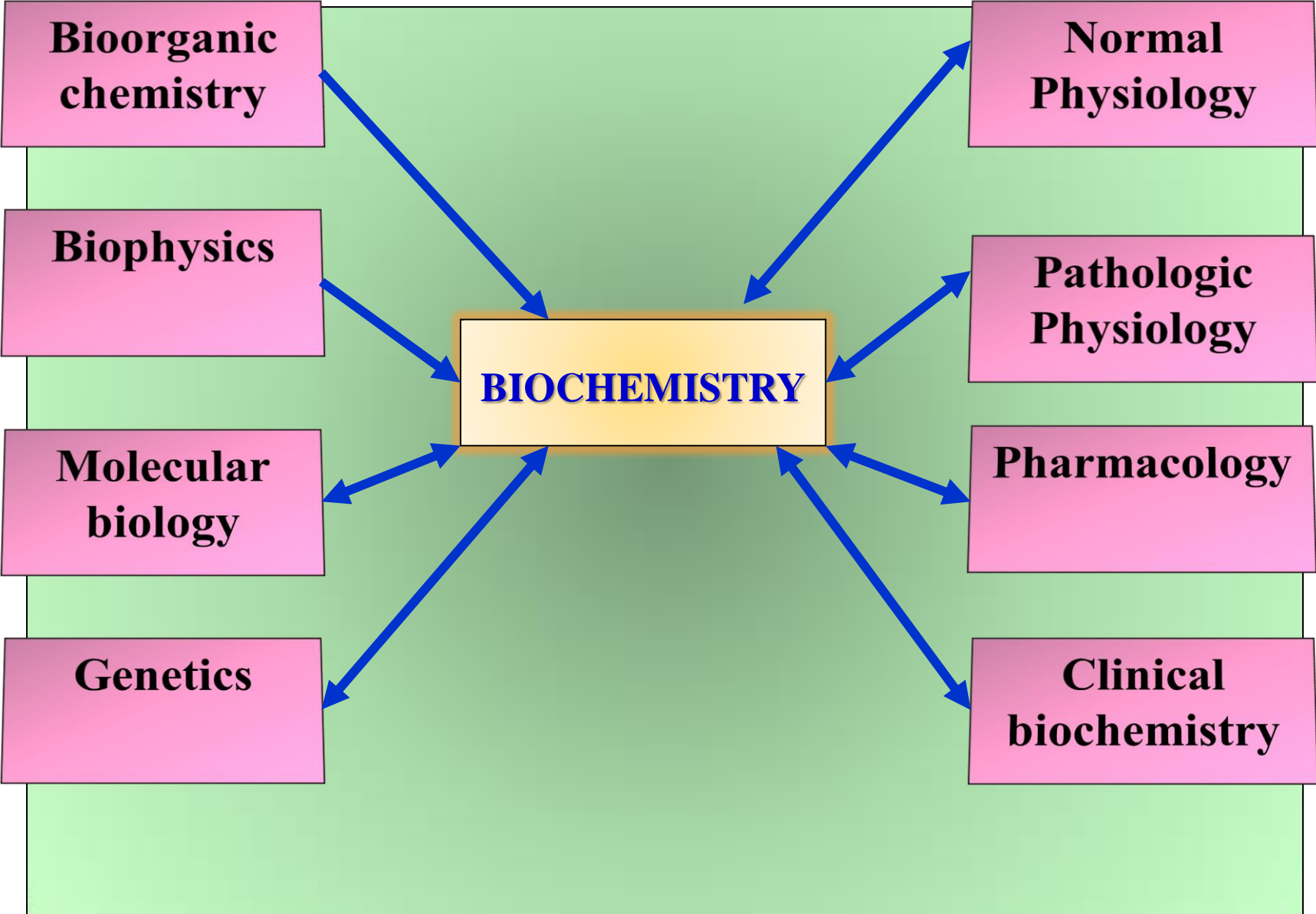
1950s – present time

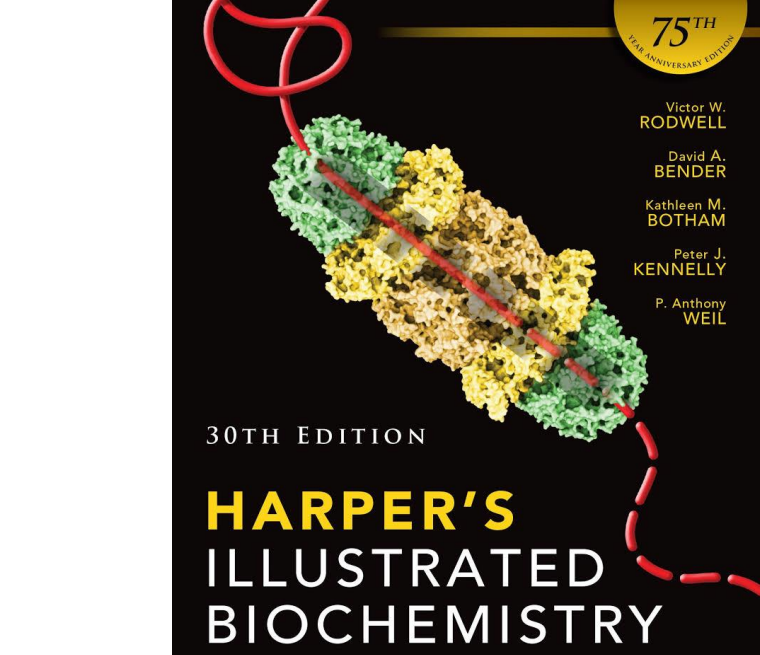
advent of biochemistry, development of new methodologic principles and techniques such as chromatography, X-ray diffraction, NMR spectroscopy, radioisotopic labelling, electron microscopy and molecular dynamics simulations.

These techniques allowed for the discovery and detailed analysis of many molecules and metabolic pathways of the cell, such as glycolysis and the Krebs cycle (citric acid cycle)

Another significant historic event in biochemistry is the discovery of the gene and its role in the transfer of information in the cell. This part of biochemistry is often called molecular biology. In the 1950s, James D. Watson, Francis Crick, Rosalind Franklin, and Maurice Wilkins were instrumental in solving DNA structure and suggesting its relationship with genetic transfer of information.

- **In 1958, George Beadle and Edward Tatum received the Nobel Prize for work in fungi showing that one gene produces one enzyme.**
- **In 1988, Colin Pitchfork was the first person convicted of murder with DNA evidence, which led to growth of forensic science.**





Victor W. RODWELL

David A. BENDER

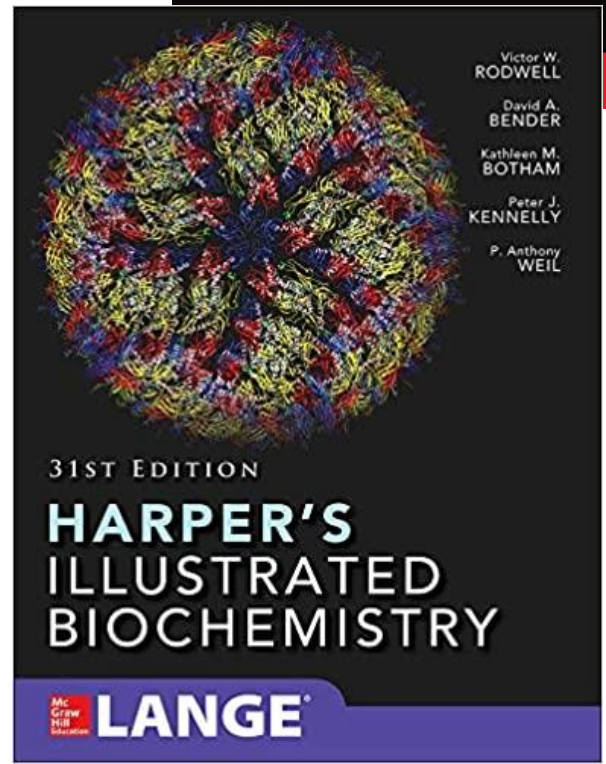
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30TH EDITION

HARPER'S ILLUSTRATED BIOCHEMISTRY



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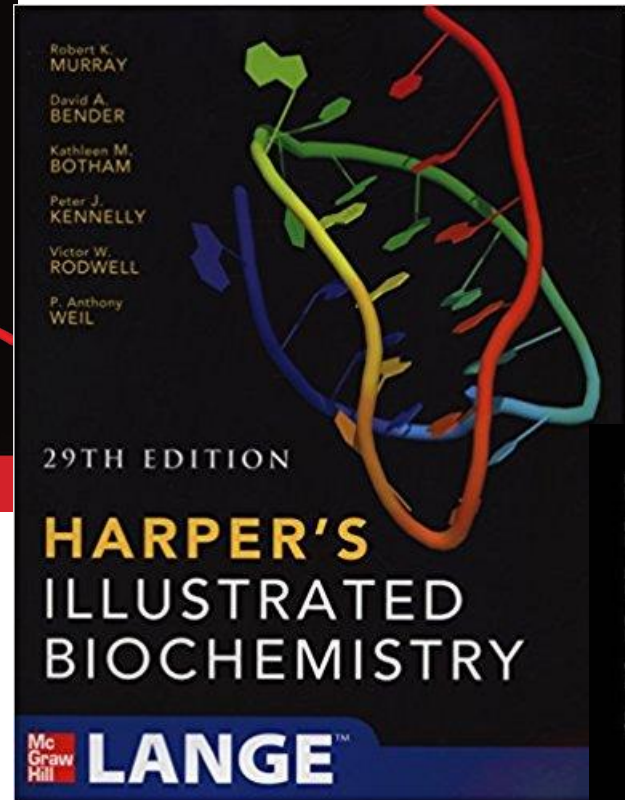
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McGraw Hill **LANGE**



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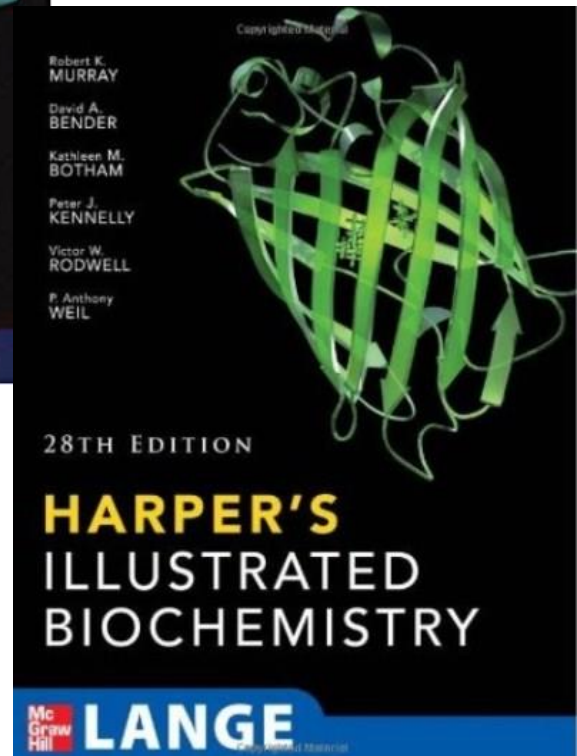
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HARPER'S ILLUSTRATED BIOCHEMISTRY

McGraw Hill **LANGE**

***STRUCTURE and
FUNCTIONS
of
PROTEINS***

Lecture I

PROTEINS

high-molecular nitrogen-containing organic compounds whose molecules are built up of amino acid residues

Short polymers of amino acids called

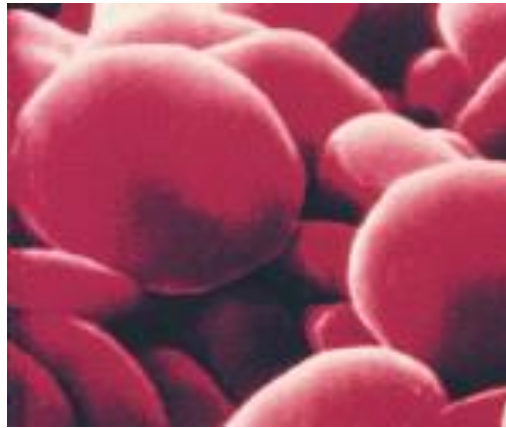
PEPTIDES

- 1838 - G.Mulder** proteins were first described
- 1838 - J.Berzelius** term "protein"
- 1888 - A.Danilevsky** peptide bond
- 1925-1930 - T.Svedberg** sedimentation analysis
- 1951 - L.Pauling** prediction of regular protein secondary structure
- 1952 - K.Linderstrom-Lang** protein folding and structure mediated by hydrophobic interactions
- 1953 - F.Sanger** determined the amino acid sequence of insulin
- 1958 - J. Kendrew** structure of myoglobin
- 1959 - M.Perutz** structure of hemoglobin

- **Proteins are the most abundant biological macromolecules, occurring in all cells and all parts of cells.**
- **Proteins also occur in great variety; thousands of different kinds, ranging in size from relatively small peptides to huge polymers with molecular weights in the millions.**
- **Proteins exhibit enormous diversity of biological function and are the most important final products of the information pathways.**

Functions of proteins

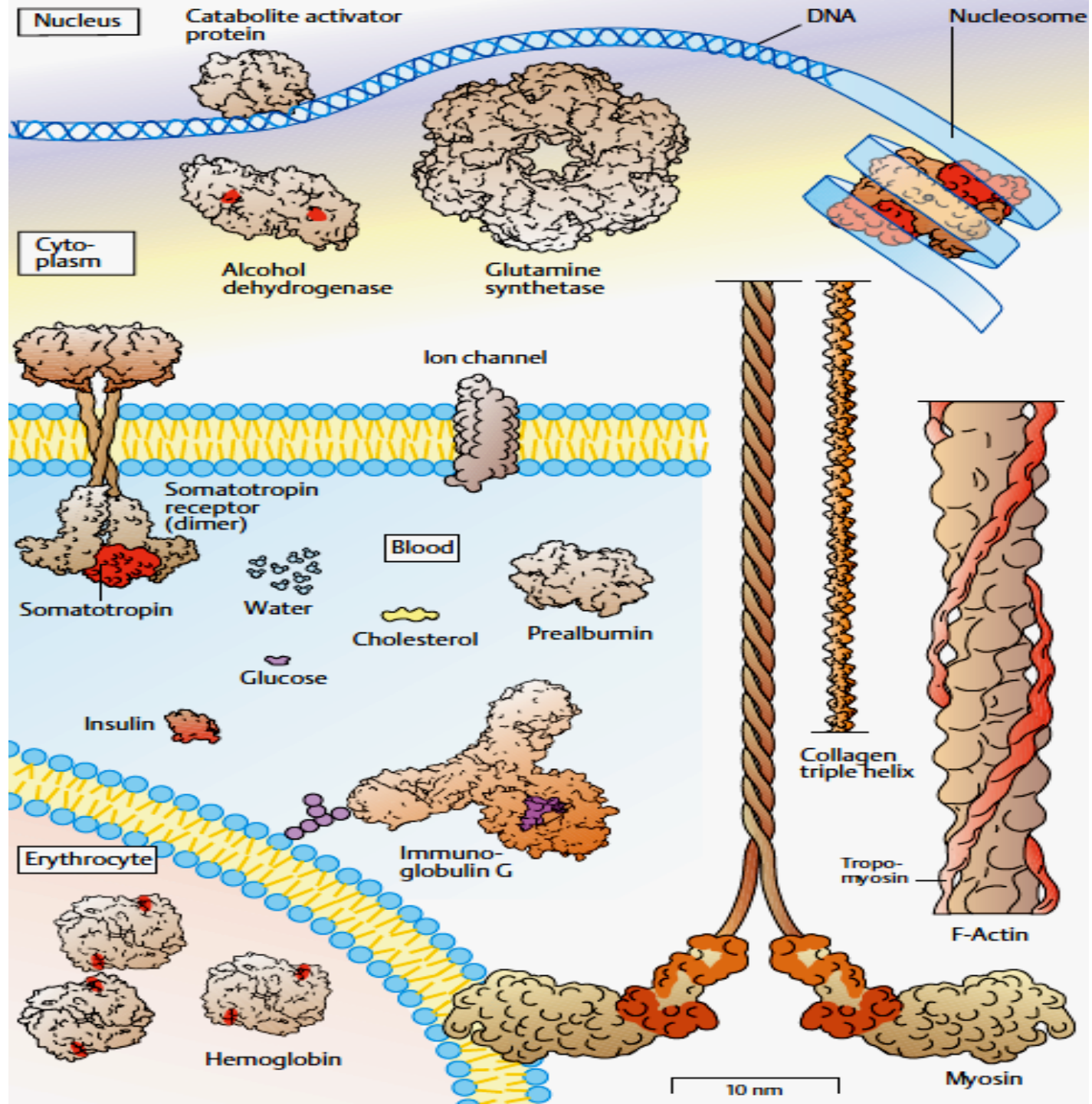
- **Catalytic**
- **Nutritive (reserve)**
- **Transport**
- **Protective**
- **Contractile**
- **Structural**
- **Hormonal**
- **Receptors**
- **Hemostatic**
- **Toxigenic**
- **Antitoxic**

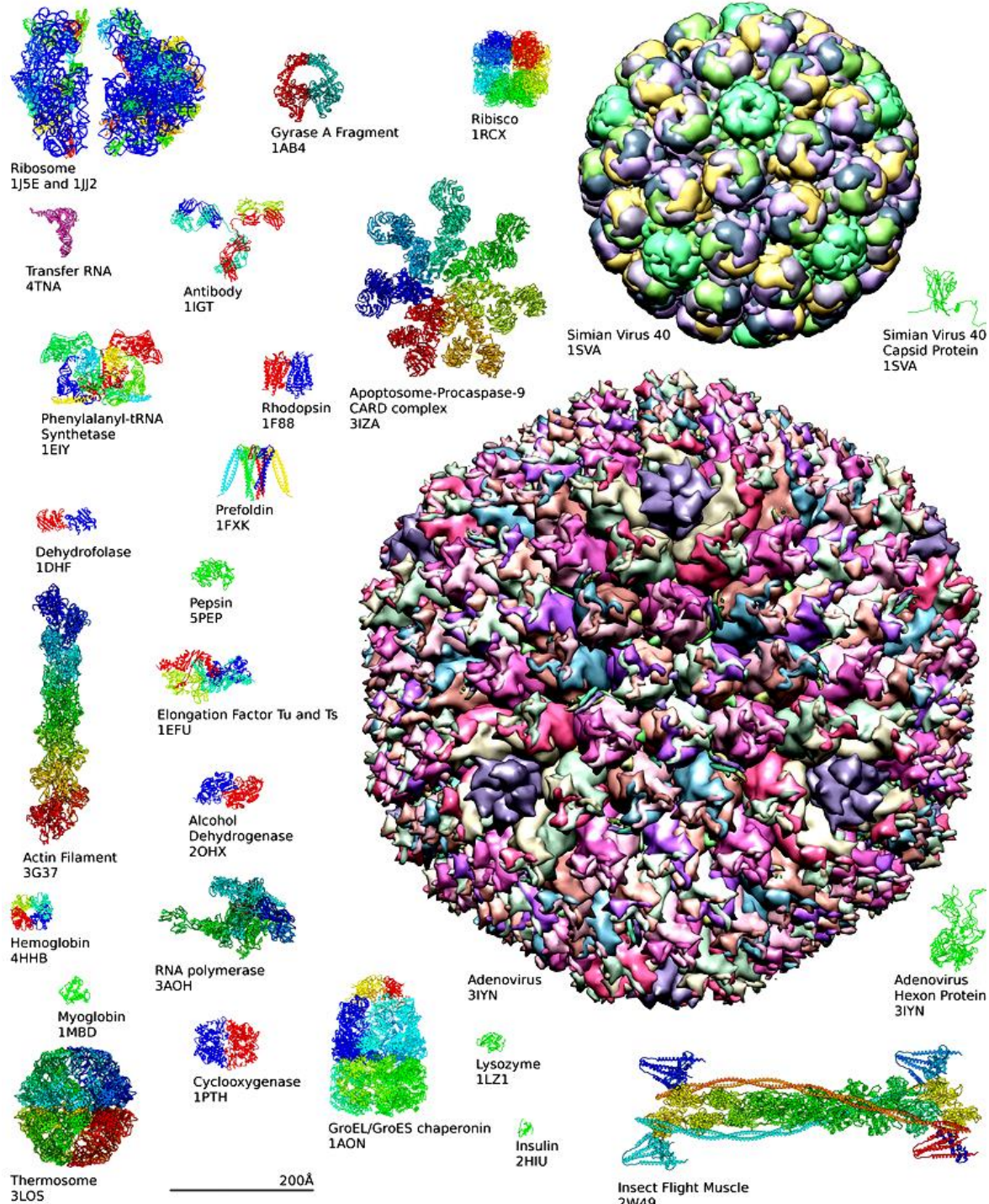


The light produced by fireflies is the result of a reaction involving the protein **luciferin** and ATP, catalyzed by the enzyme luciferase.

Erythrocytes contain large amounts of the oxygen-transporting protein **hemoglobin**.

The protein **keratin**, formed by all vertebrates, is the chief structural component of hair, scales, horn, wool, nails, and feathers.





Amino acid composition of proteins

- **Structure of amino acids**
- **Classification**
- **Peptide bond formation**

Harper's Illustrated Biochemistry

In addition to the 20 common amino acids, proteins may contain residues created by modification of common residues already incorporated into a polypeptide.

Among these uncommon amino acids are **4-hydroxyproline, a derivative of proline, and **5-hydroxylysine**, derived from lysine.**

The former is found in plant cell wall proteins, and both are found in collagen, a fibrous protein of connective tissues.

New Amino Acids

In addition to 20 L-amino acids that take part in protein synthesis, recently two more new amino acids described.

They are:

- **Selenocysteine** - 21st amino acids

**Selenocysteine occurs at the
active site of several
enzymes**

Some 300 additional amino acids have been found in cells. They have a variety of functions but are not constituents of proteins.

Ornithine and **citrulline** deserve special note because they are key metabolites in the biosynthesis of arginine and in the urea cycle.

Protein content of the organs and tissues

In total human body the proteins account for 45% of dry mass

	(dry tissue mass)	(fresh tissue mass)
Muscle	80%	18-23%
Lung	82%	14-15%
Spleen	84%	17-18%
Kidney	72%	16-17%
Liver	57%	18-19%

Physico-chemical properties of proteins

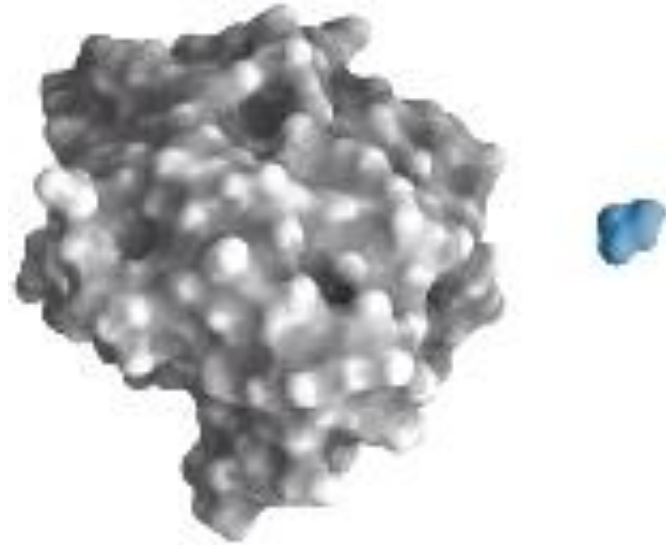
- **High molecular weight**
- **Shape and size of molecules**
- **High viscosity in solution**
- **Low diffusion**
- **Pronounced swelling ability**
- **Optical activity**

Physico-chemical properties of proteins

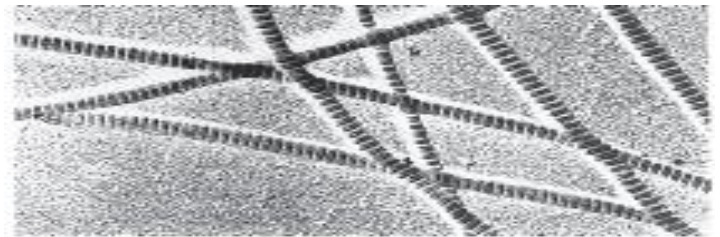
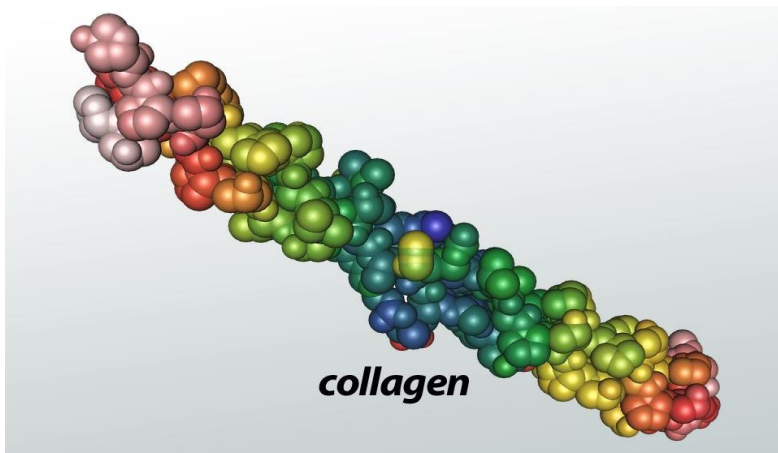
- **Charge**
- **Mobility in electric field**
- **Low osmotic and high oncotic pressures**
- **Solubility**
- **Ability to absorb UV light at 280 nm**
- **Amphoteric**
- **Denaturation**

Shape of protein molecules

- **Globular**



- **Fibrous**



Fibrous**Globular****Shape**

Long and narrow

Round / spherical

Purpose

Structural

Functional

Acid Sequence

Repetitive amino acid sequence

Irregular amino acid sequence

Durability

Less sensitive to changes in pH, temperature, etc.

More sensitive to changes in pH, temperature, etc.

Examples

Collagen, myosin, fibrin, actin, keratin, elastin

Enzymes, haemoglobin, insulin, immunoglobulin

Solubility

(Generally) insoluble in water

(Generally) soluble in water

Denaturation of proteins

**destruction of three-dimensional structure
of protein molecule
with loss of specific properties
(solubility, electrophoretic mobility,
biological activity and other)**

Denaturation of proteins

Most proteins can be denatured:

- **by heat, which affects the weak interactions in a protein,**
- **by extremes of pH,**
- **by certain organic solvents such as alcohol or acetone,**
- **by certain solutes such as urea and guanidine hydrochloride,**
- **by detergents**
- **by heavy metal salts**

Molecular weight of protein

Varies from 6,000 Da

to over 1,000,000 Da

Molecular Weight of Some Proteins

Cytochrome c (human)	13,000
Ribonuclease A (bovine pancreas)	13,700
Lysozyme (chicken egg white)	13,930
Myoglobin (equine heart)	16,890
Chymotrypsin (bovine pancreas)	21,600
Chymotrypsinogen (bovine)	22,000
Hemoglobin (human)	64,500
Serum albumin (human)	68,500
Hexokinase (yeast)	102,000
RNA polymerase (<i>E. coli</i>)	450,000
Apolipoprotein B (human)	513,000
Glutamine synthetase (<i>E. coli</i>)	619,000
Titin (human)	2,993,000

Determination of molecular weight

- **Sedimentation analysis**
- **Gel chromatography**
- **Gel electrophoresis**

Sedimentation analysis

**carried out by means of
ultracentrifuges**

(special centrifuge with great speed)

Theodor Svedberg





Sedimentation analysis

$$M = \frac{R T s}{D (1 - v \rho)}$$

R – gas constant

T – absolute temperature

s – sedimentation constant

v – the partial specific volume of the protein molecule

D – diffusion coefficient

ρ – solvent density

Protein purification

The aim of protein purification is to isolate one particular protein from all the others in the starting material

Protein purification stages

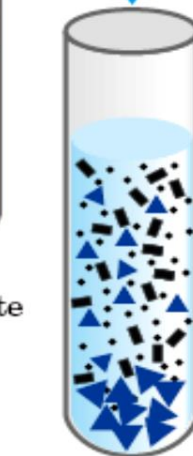
- **Selecton of a protein source**
- **Homogenization and solubilization**
- **Fractionation**
 - salting-out**
 - chromatography**
 - electrophoresis**
- **Dialysis**

Tissue homogenization



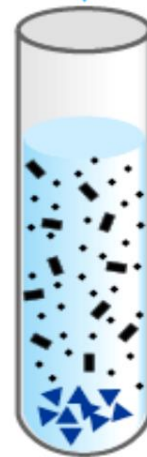
Tissue homogenate

Low-speed centrifugation
(1,000 *g*, 10 min)



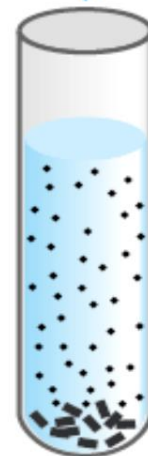
Pellet contains whole cells, nuclei, cytoskeletons, plasma membranes

Supernatant subjected to medium-speed centrifugation
(20,000 *g*, 20 min)



Pellet contains mitochondria, lysosomes, peroxisomes

Supernatant subjected to high-speed centrifugation
(80,000 *g*, 1 h)



Pellet contains microsomes (fragments of ER), small vesicles

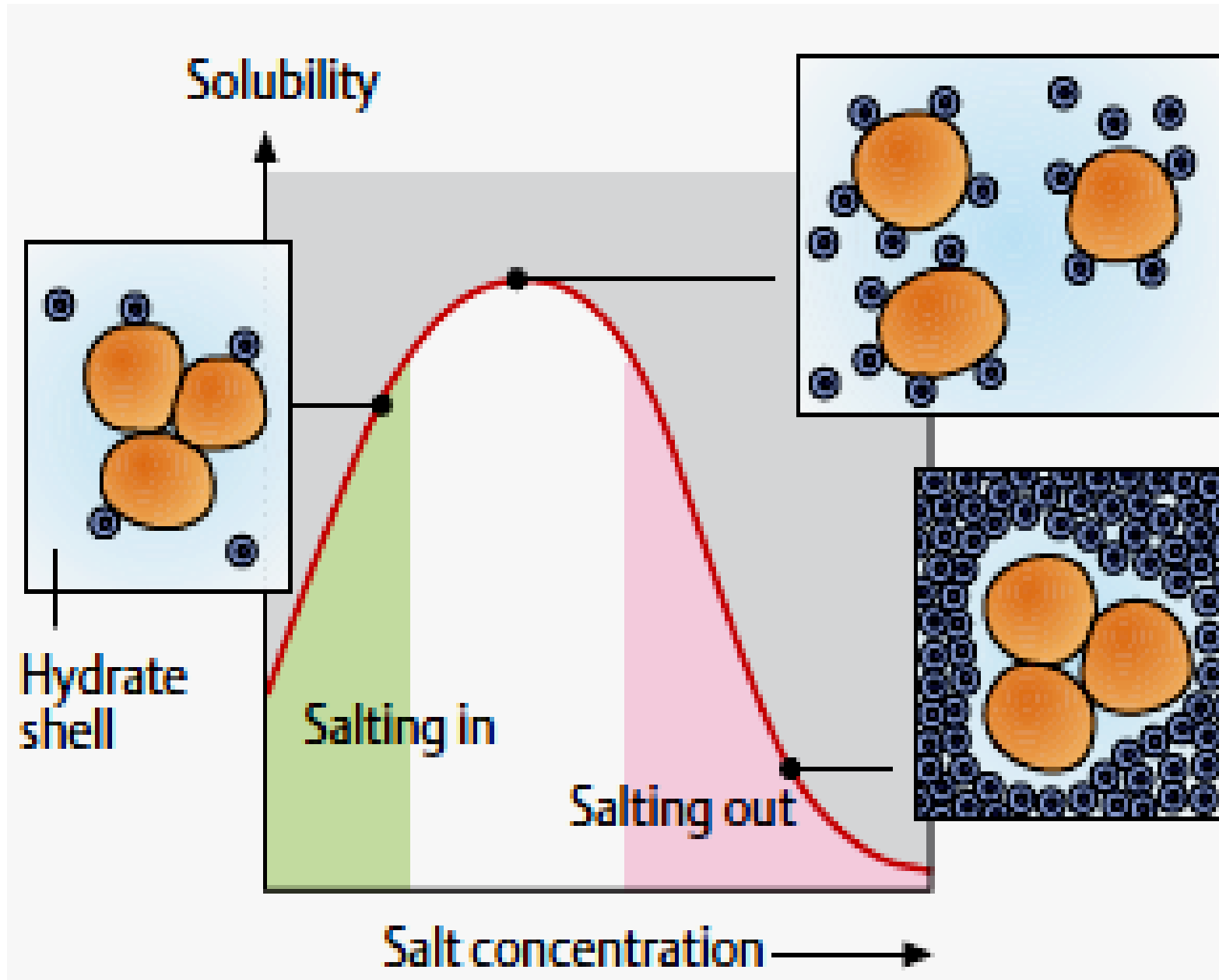
Supernatant subjected to very high-speed centrifugation
(150,000 *g*, 3 h)



Supernatant contains soluble proteins

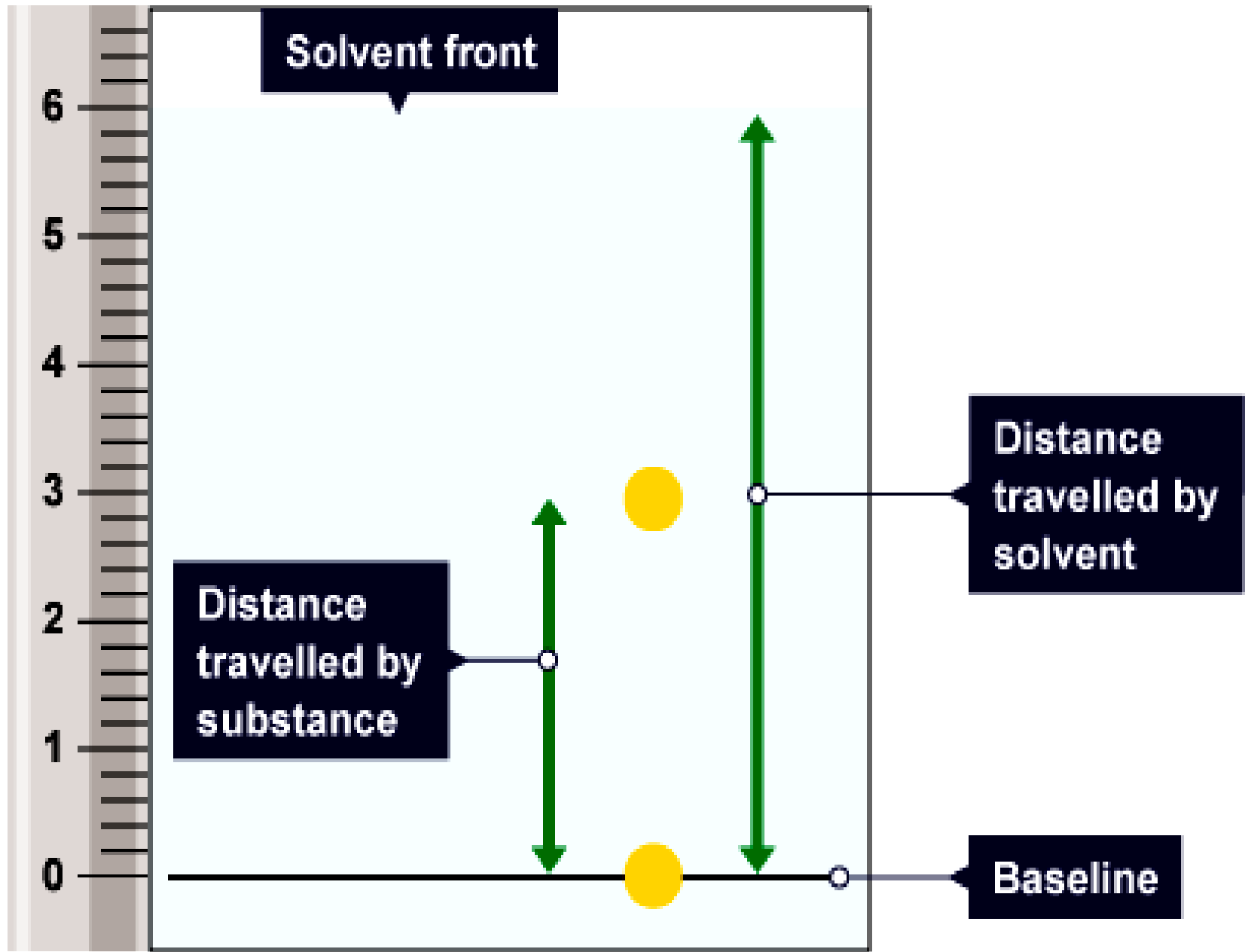
Pellet contains ribosomes, large macromolecules

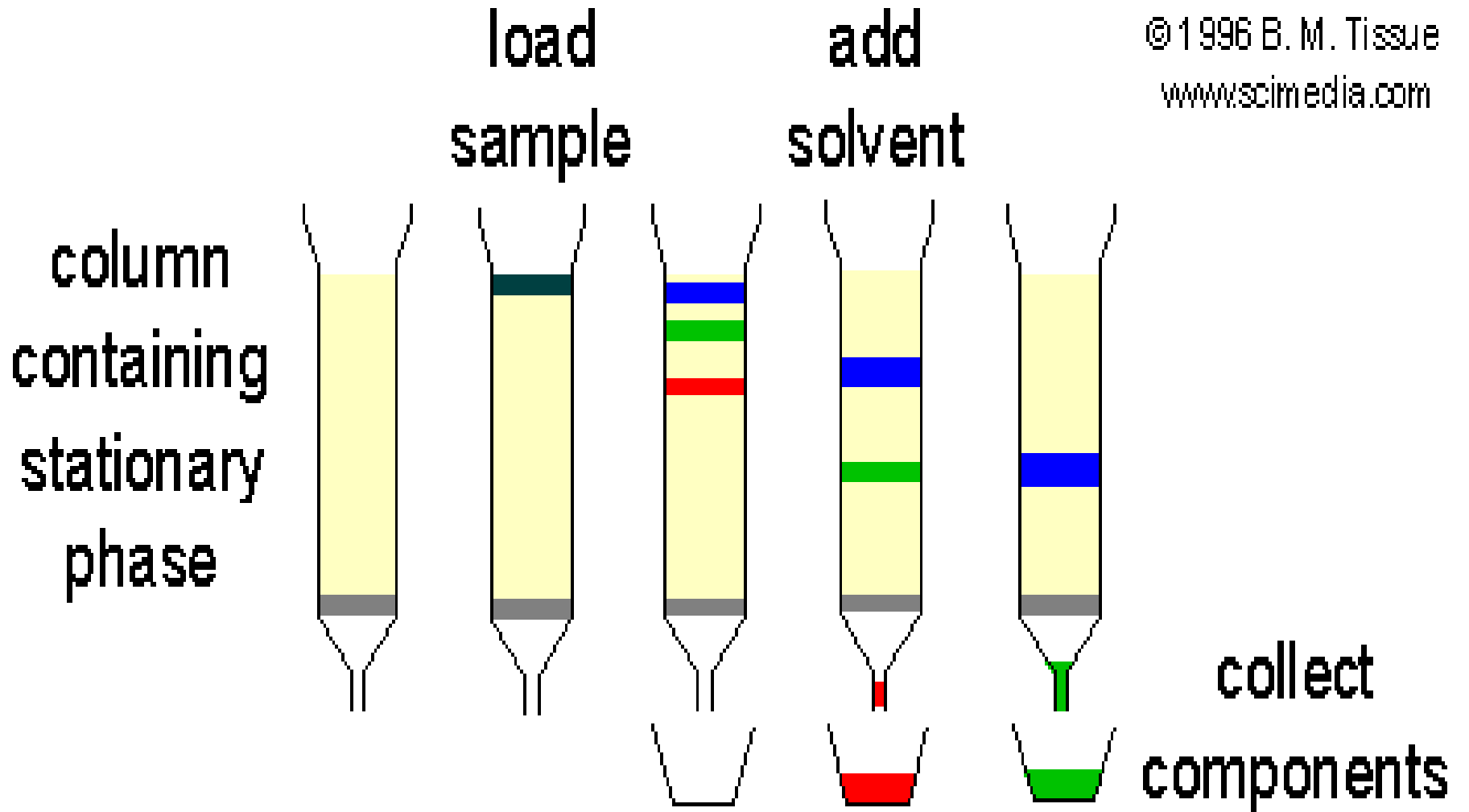
Salting-out

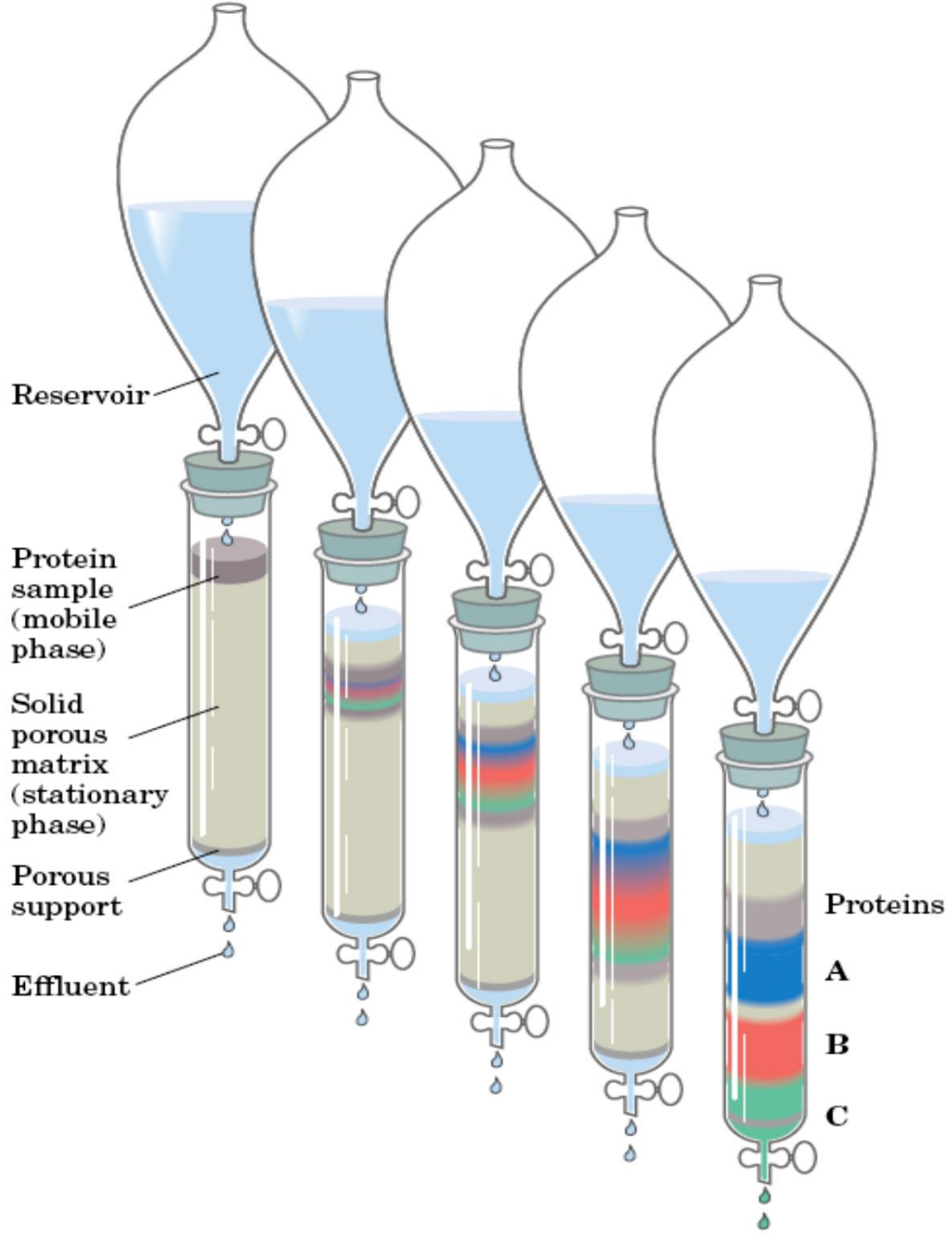


Chromatography

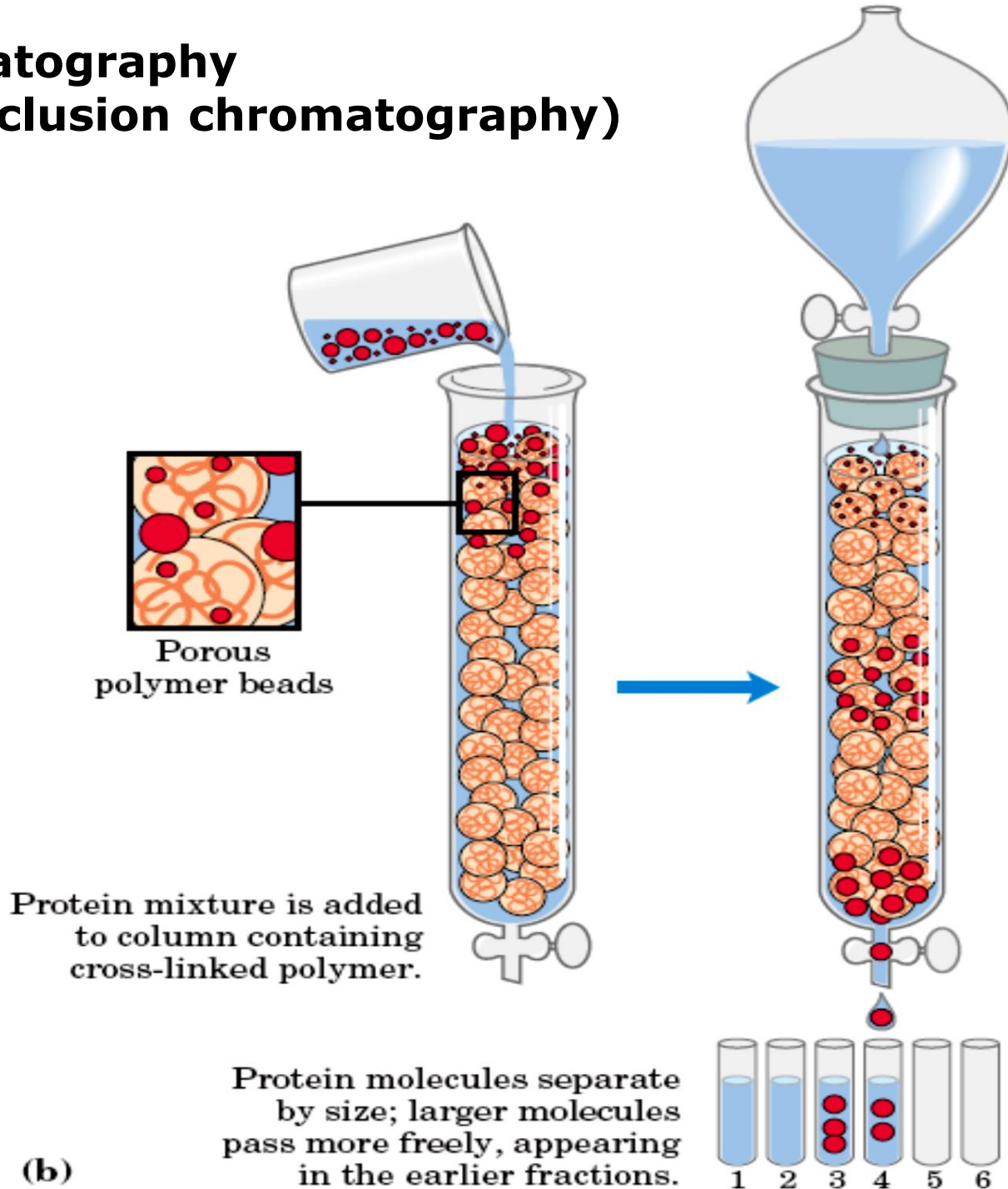
is a physical method of separation that distributes components to separate between two phases, one stationary (stationary phase), the other (the mobile phase) moving in a definite direction



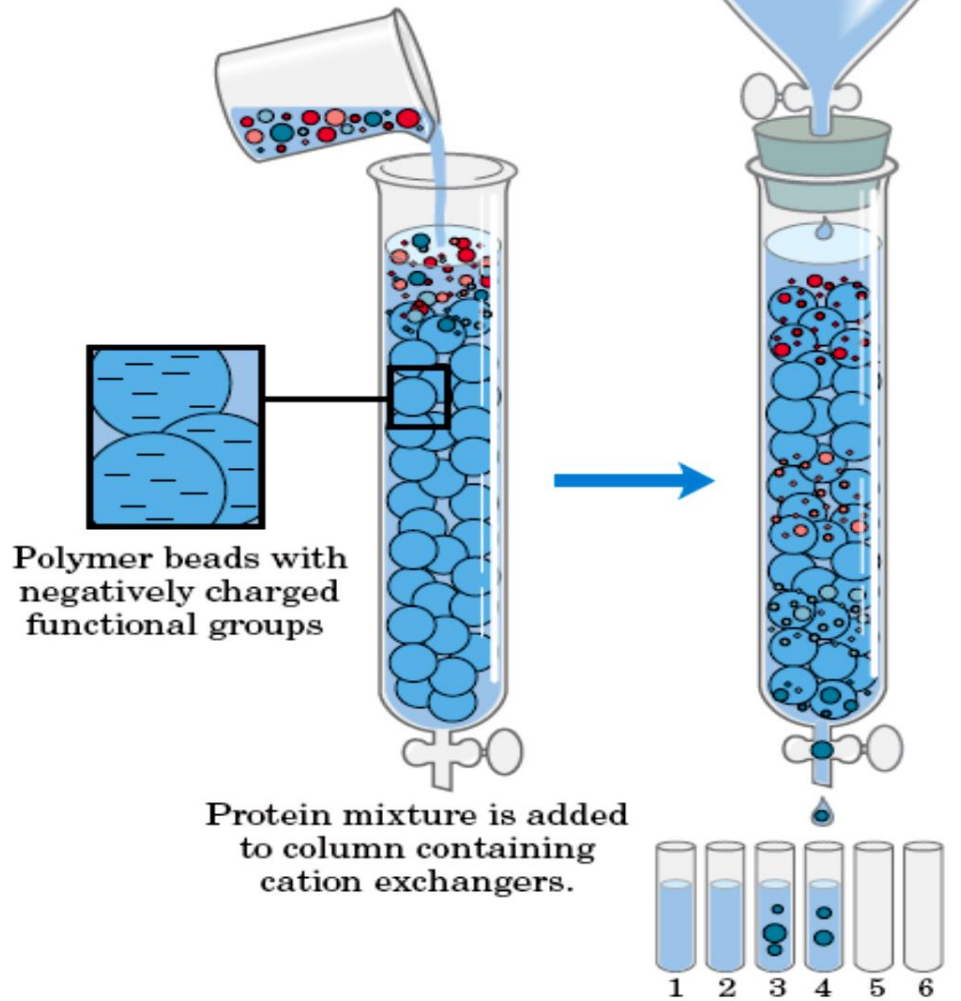




Gel chromatography (or size exclusion chromatography)

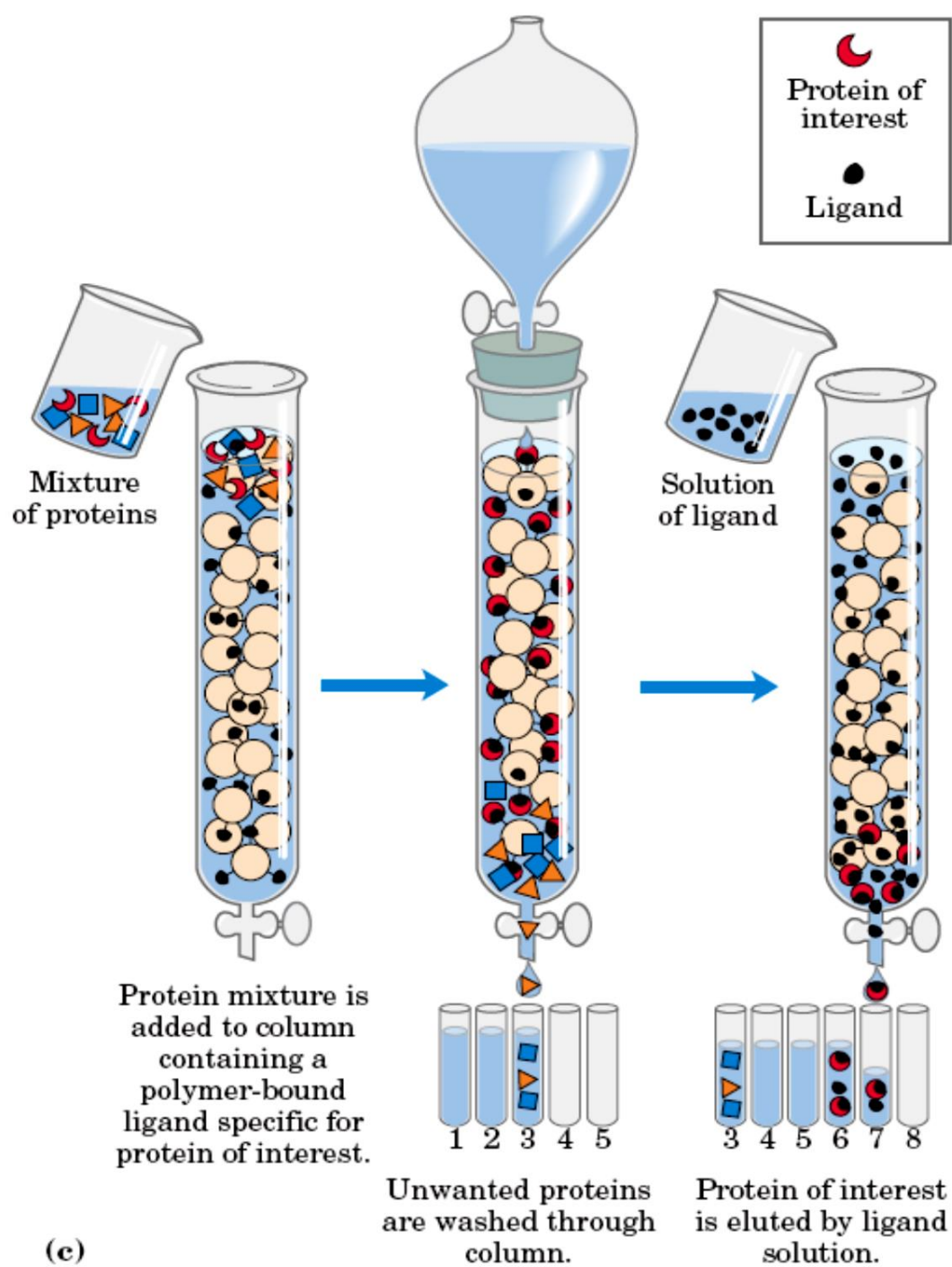


- Large net positive charge
- Net positive charge
- Net negative charge
- Large net negative charge



Proteins move through the column at rates determined by their net charge at the pH being used. With cation exchangers, proteins with a more negative net charge move faster and elute earlier.

(a)

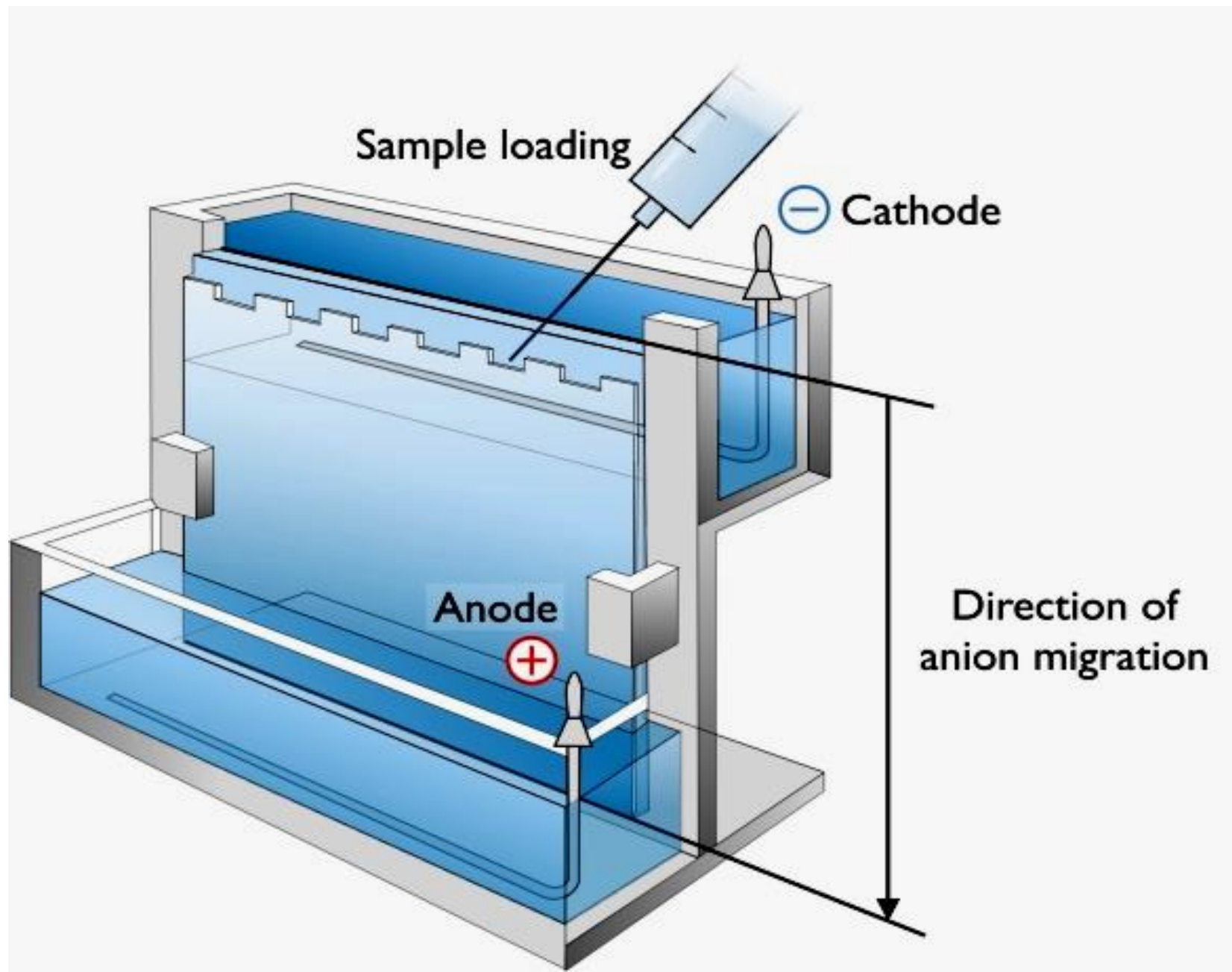


(c)

Electrophoresis

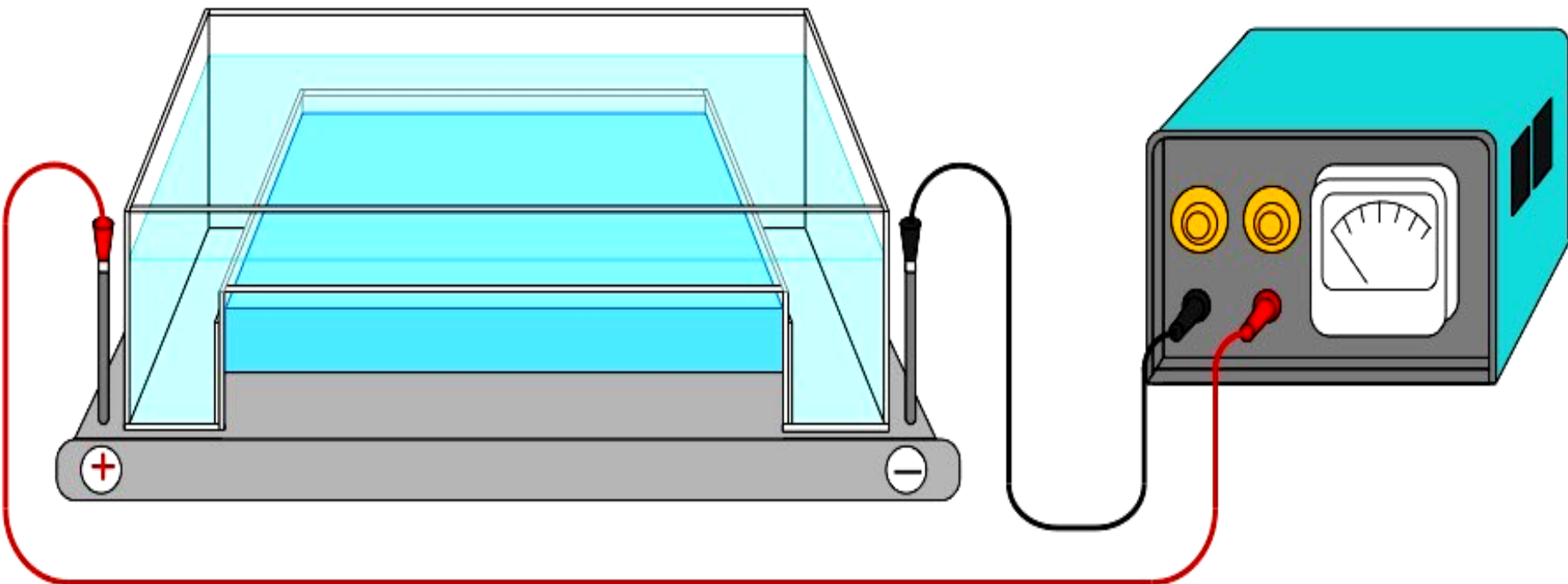
is the motion of dispersed particles under the influence of electric field.

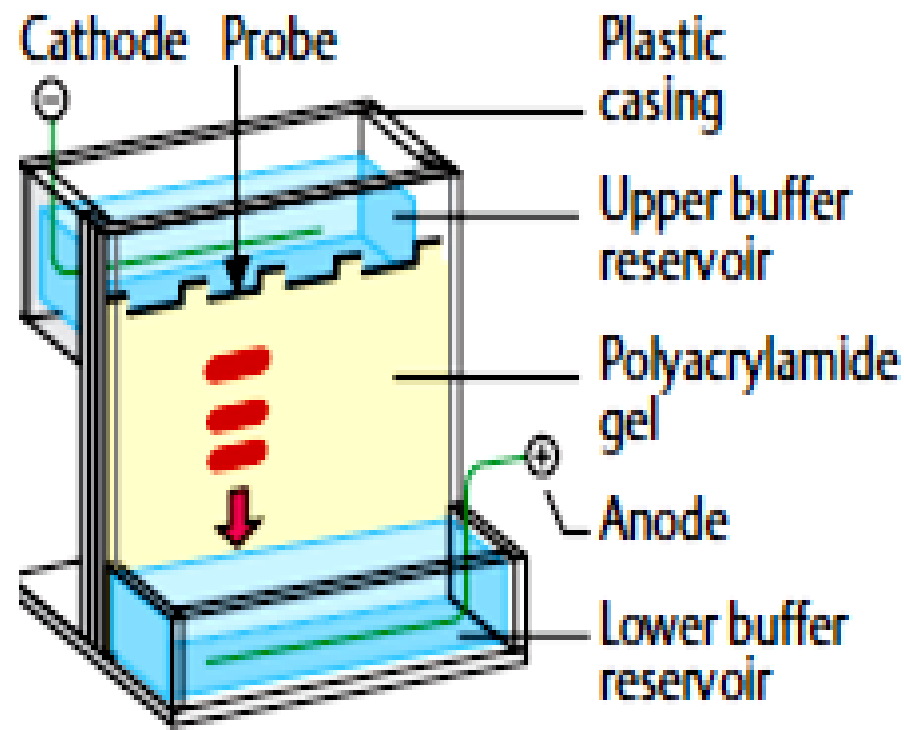
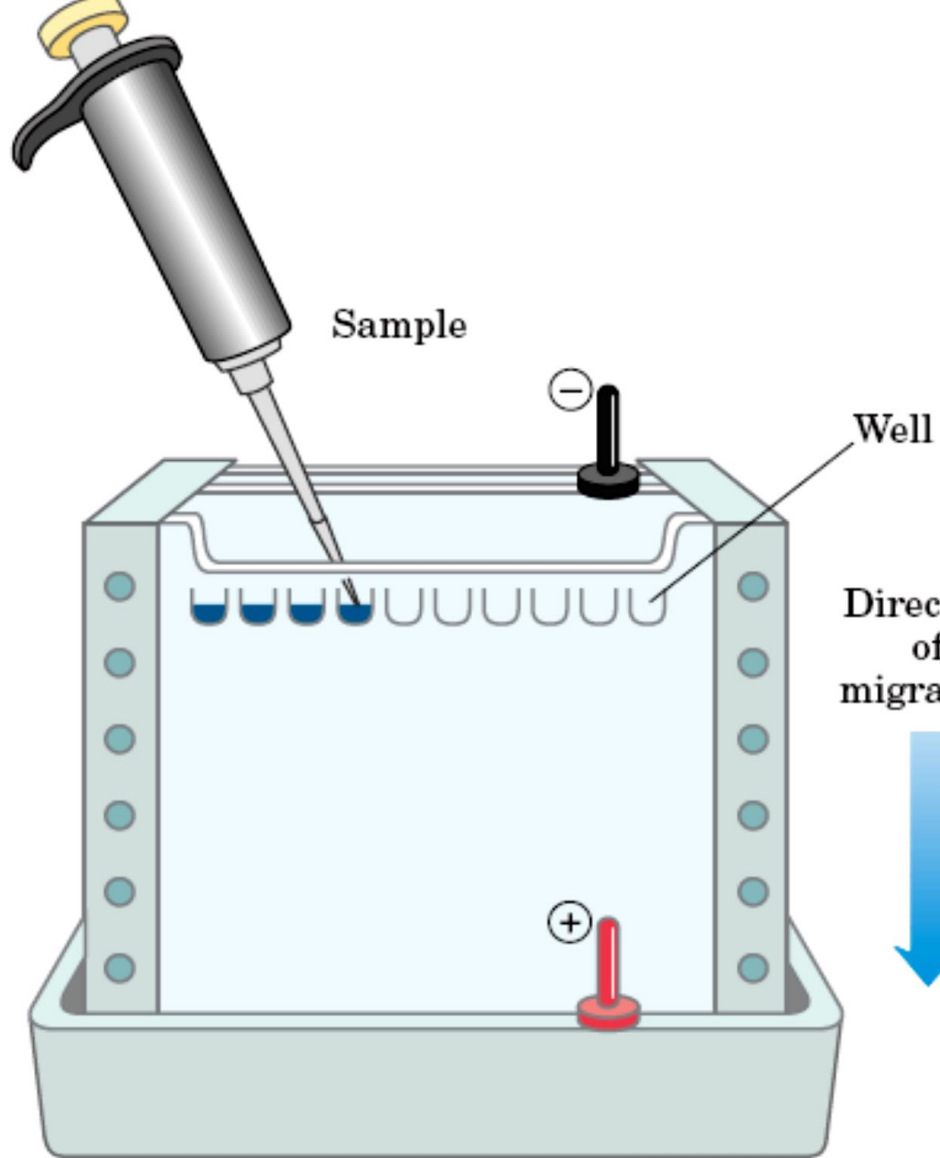
It can be used to separate proteins by size, density and purity.

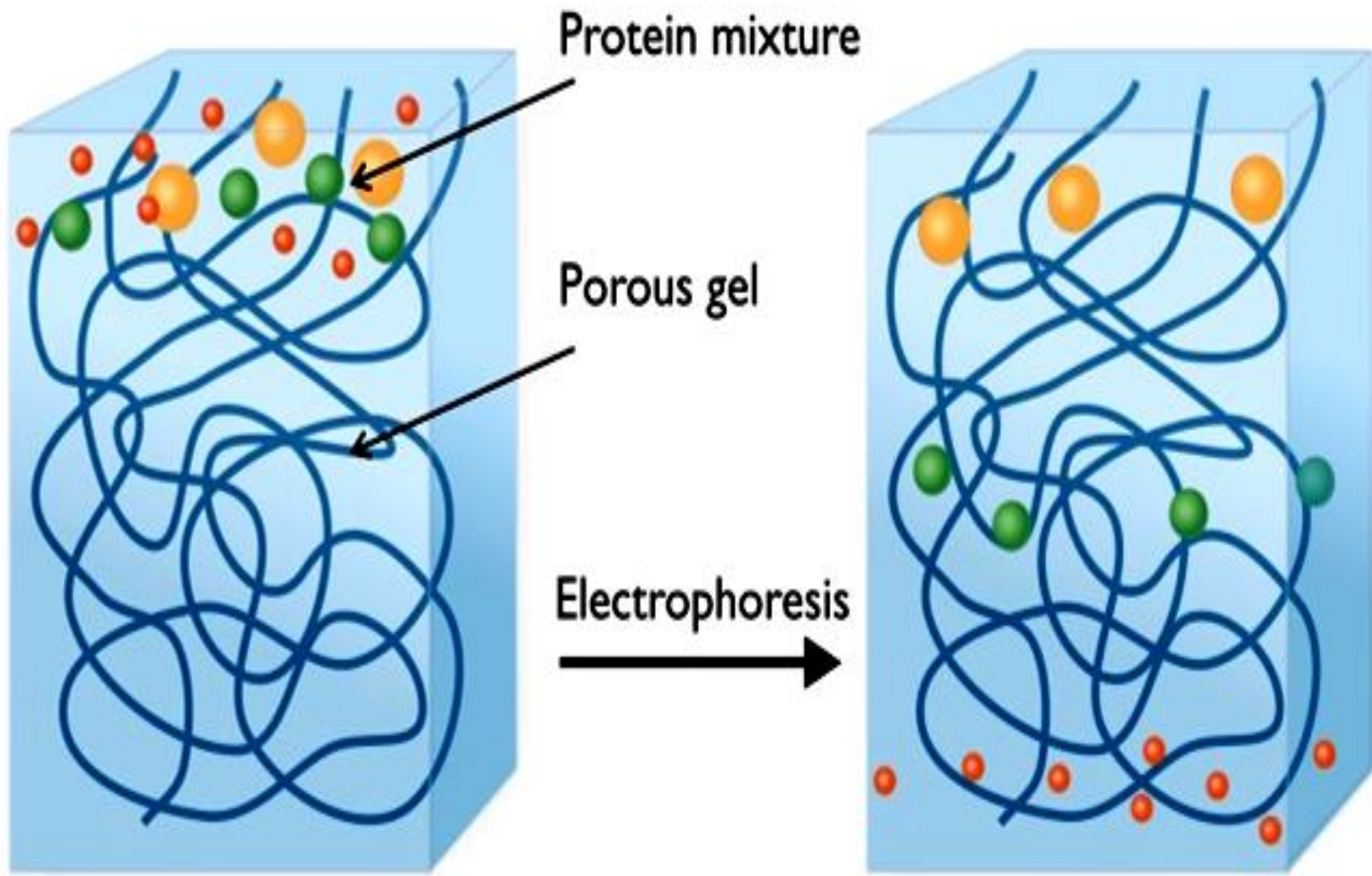


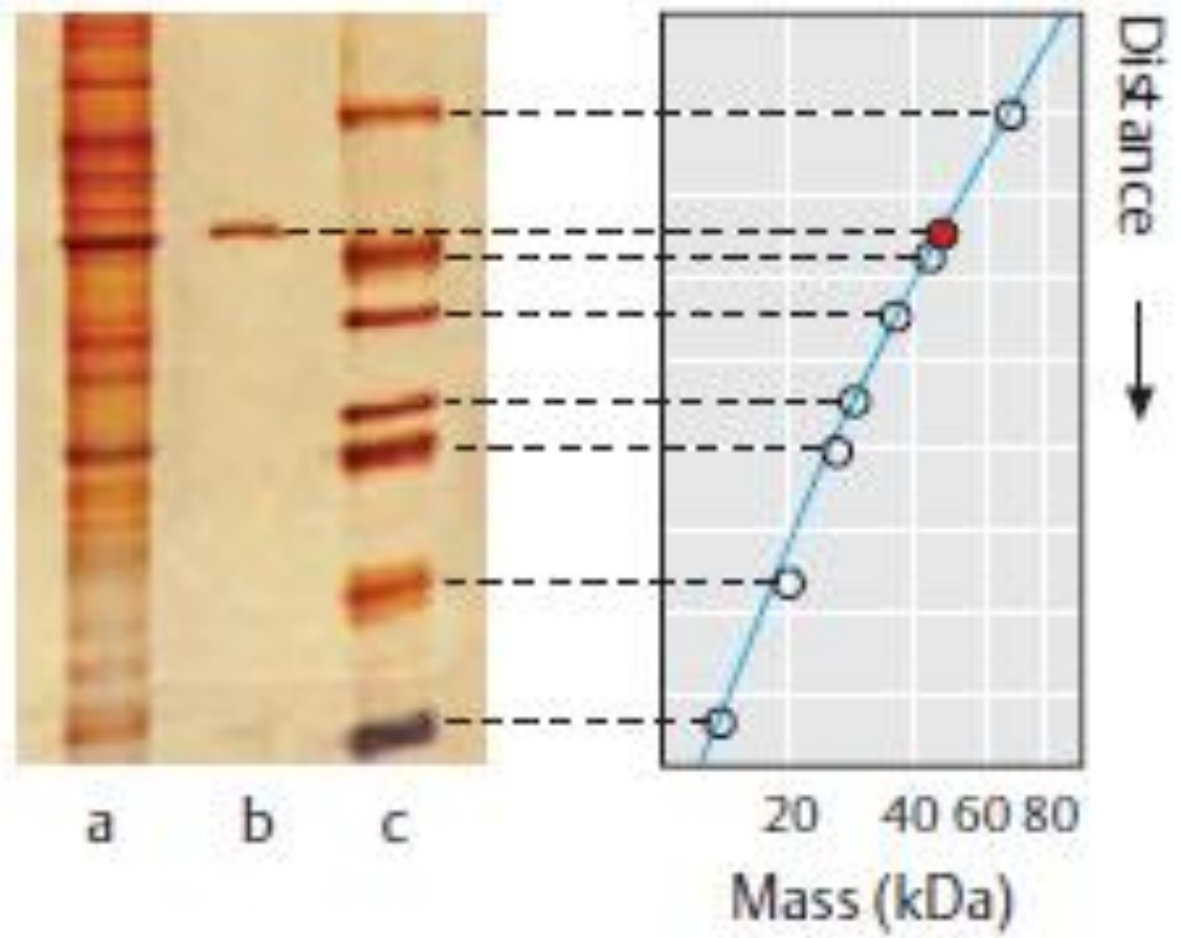
Gel Tank (with Agarose Gel)

Power Supply









Dialysis

