

**Biochemical Engineering**  
**Prof. Dr. Rintu Banerjee**  
**Department of Agricultural and Food Engineering**  
**Prof. Dr. Saikat Chakraborty**

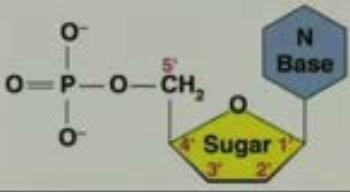
**Department of Chemical Engineering**  
**Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur**  
**Module No. # 01**  
**Lecture No. # 05**  
**Nucleic Acid**

Good morning students. In my earlier classes, I have already discussed about some of the biological macromolecules which are present in the cell. Those molecules are either protein, carbohydrates and so on. Today I will discuss on another biological macromolecules which are present in the cell called nucleic acids.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:55)

**Nucleic Acids**

- **Nucleic acids** are molecules that store information for cellular growth and reproduction
- There are two types of nucleic acids:
  - **deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)** and **ribonucleic acid (RNA)**
- These are polymers consisting of long chains of monomers called nucleotides
- A **nucleotide** consists of a nitrogenous base, a pentose sugar and a phosphate group:



The diagram illustrates the structure of a nucleotide. On the left, a phosphate group is shown with a central phosphorus atom (P) double-bonded to one oxygen (O) and single-bonded to three negatively charged oxygen atoms (O<sup>-</sup>). The phosphate group is connected via an oxygen atom to the 5' carbon of a pentose sugar ring. The sugar ring is a five-membered ring with carbons labeled 1', 2', 3', and 4'. A nitrogenous base (N Base) is attached to the 1' carbon of the sugar.

Nucleic acids are the molecules that store information for cellular growth and reproduction. If we see broadly classify the entire nucleic acids, it can be divided distinctively into two major groups. One is called deoxyribonucleic acid or D N A, and ribonucleic acid or the R N A. These are the polymers consisting of long chains of monomers called the nucleotide.

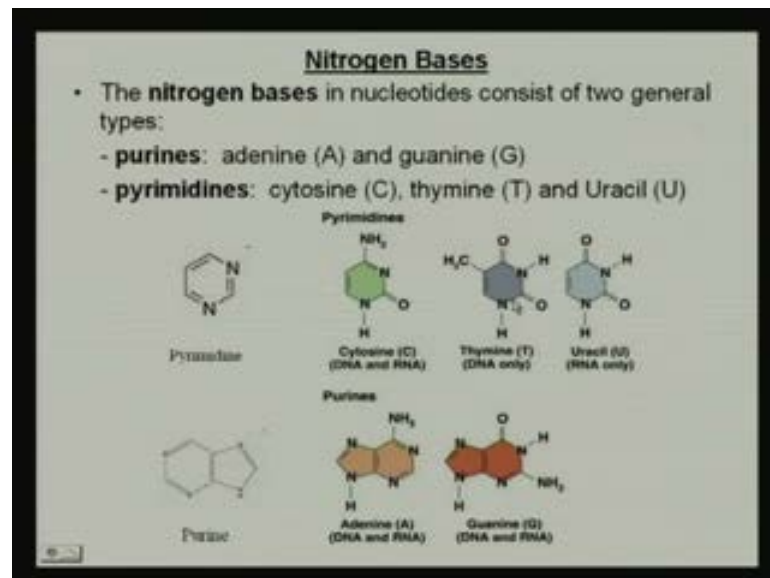
So, what is nucleotide? A nucleotide consists of a nitrogenous base, a pentose sugar, and

a phosphate group. That means in other word, we can tell that in a particular nucleotide, we have a nitrogenous base, one sugar moieties and one phosphate group is there.

Now, this is the structure of a nucleotide. Say this is a pentose sugar. In carbohydrate classes I have already discussed that what is pentose? What is hexose? So, this is a pentose sugar. If we number this carbon then this is the first number of carbon, second, third, fourth and fifth. So, this is a pentose sugar and the first carbon is being occupied by a nitrogenous base.

So, here one nitrogen is attached to the sugar moieties, and to this fifth carbon of this particular sugar one phosphate group is attached. And when this sugar nitrogen and phosphate groups are there. Then we can call it as nucleotide.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:02)



Now, what is this nitrogenous base? Basis which are there along with this particular nucleotide molecules . So if we see this nitrogenous basis in nucleotide, it consists of two general type .One is the purine and other is the pyrimidine. Now if we see the structure of purine and pyrimidine .Then we can find that this pyrimidine is a nitro containing heterocyclic molecule.

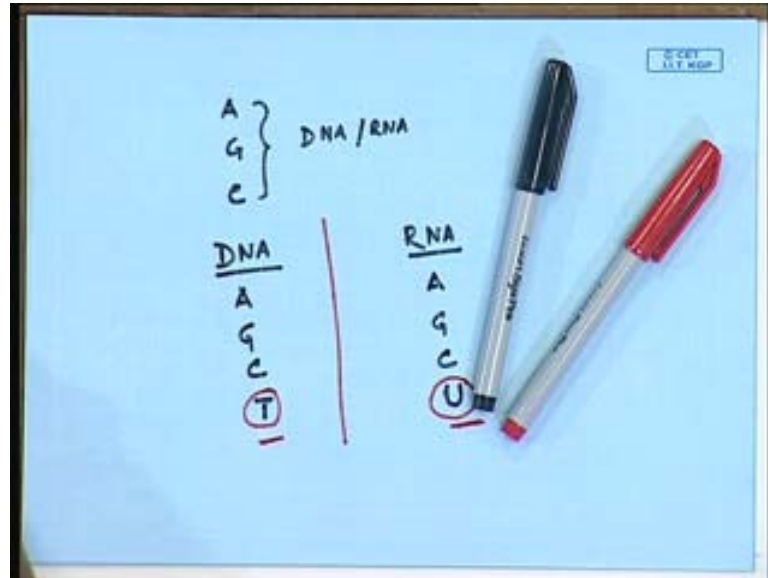
Now, here if we see further, this pyrimidine. It has got three main derivatives, one is called cytosine, in it is symbolized as C, Thymine t and uracil U. When to this heterocyclic nitro containing ring, one imidazole group is being attached, it form the purine. And, if we see that derivatives of this purine, we can find that adenine and guanine. That adenine is symbolized as A and guanine is symbolized as G. These are the derivatives of purine.

Now, if we further go into this derivatives of purine and pyrimidine. We can find that this adenine and guanine. This A and G they are the purine derivatives are present both are present in R N A as well as D N A molecules. Whereas, if we see the pyrimidines and pyrimidines derivatives, then we can find that, this cytosine is present both in D N A and R N A. Whereas, thymine is present all the in D N A and uracil is present only in R N A.

That means structurally, if we see the structure of this pyrimidine derivatives. That is thymine and uracil, we can find that see rest of their structures are same. Both the molecules except this methyl group which is attached to this thymine molecule, and these thymine molecules. When this methyl group is removed or this methyl group is not attached, we can call it as uracil. That means in other word, we can tell that this uracil methyl containing uracil is the thymine or demethylated thymine is the uracil.

So, these are the structural differences and here this thymine is present in D N A. And in R N A thymine is substituted with uracil, that is U. That means in short, what we can conclude from this nitrogenous base?.

(Refer Slide Time: 06:42)



We can tell that A G C is common, that means adenine, guanine, cytosine is common in both D N A as well as R N A molecules. Whereas, in case of D N A, when we are considering D N A ,then we can tell A G C and T .Where as in case of R N A ,when we are talking about R N A, we can write A G C and U. This U, this thymine is changed with uracil, this is the difference between one D N A molecule and one R N A molecule.

So, these are all about the nitrogenous bases. And these nitrogenous bases are attached to the first carbon of the pentose sugar. So, then we are coming to this sugar moieties.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:50)

**Pentose Sugars**

- There are two related pentose sugars:
  - RNA contains **ribose**
  - DNA contains **deoxyribose**
- The sugars have their carbon atoms numbered with primes to distinguish them from the nitrogen bases

**Pentose sugars in RNA and DNA**

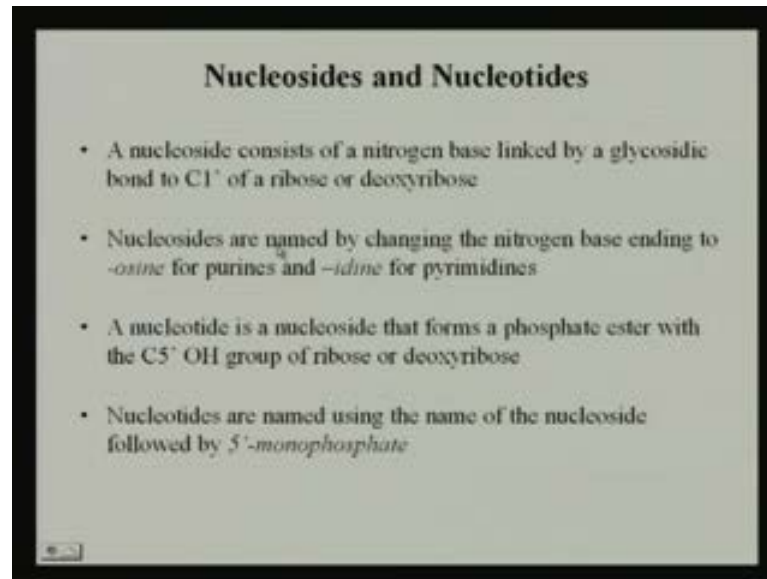
The diagram shows two pentose sugar molecules in their cyclic forms. The left molecule is ribose, with hydroxyl groups (-OH) attached to the 2' and 3' carbon atoms. The right molecule is deoxyribose, with a hydroxyl group (-OH) attached to the 3' carbon atom and a hydrogen atom (-H) attached to the 2' carbon atom. The carbons are numbered 1' to 5' starting from the right side of the ring. A label points to the 2' carbon of deoxyribose, stating "No oxygen is bonded to this carbon".

Ribose in RNA      Deoxyribose in DNA

Now, as I had told you that five carbon sugar moieties, and that is why? We are talking, calling it as pentose sugar. Now this sugar, these pentose sugars are also of two types. In case of DNA as well as RNA. In case of RNA, this is the simple ribose sugar, this is the ribose sugar, see this is 1 2 3 4 and 5 carbon sugar. And this is the ribose sugar in case of RNA molecule. But, here in case of DNA it is called deoxyribose. That means one oxygen is missing in the sugar moieties, five carbon sugars.

So, what is that see in the second carbon? Here you see one H and OH is there. But, here in this deoxyribose, you see oxygen is missing. No oxygen is bonded to this carbon atom and that is the reason, why it is called deoxyribose? And which is present in the DNA molecule. The sugars had their carbon atoms numbered with the prime to distinguish them from the nitrogenous bases. And to these particular carbon atom number, one here the nitrogenous bases are being attached. And this is the major difference with the ribose sugar five carbon sugar with DNA and RNA.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:46)



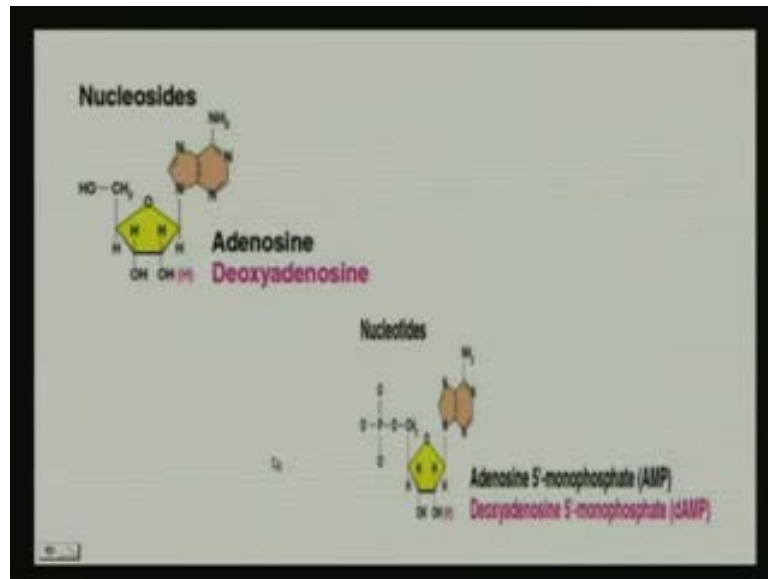
**Nucleosides and Nucleotides**

- A nucleoside consists of a nitrogen base linked by a glycosidic bond to C1' of a ribose or deoxyribose
- Nucleosides are named by changing the nitrogen base ending to *-osine* for purines and *-idine* for pyrimidines
- A nucleotide is a nucleoside that forms a phosphate ester with the C5' OH group of ribose or deoxyribose
- Nucleotides are named using the name of the nucleoside followed by *5'-monophosphate*

Now, coming to this nucleoside and nucleotide. A nucleoside consists of a nitrogenous base linked by a glycosidic bond to carbon atom number one of the ribose or deoxyribose.

So irrespective of the ribose sugar to the first carbon, these nitrogenous bases are attached to both in D N A as well as R N A molecules. Nucleosides are named by changing the nitrogen base ending to osine for purine and idine for pyrimidines. That nucleotide is a nucleoside that forms a phosphate ester with the carbon atom number 5 hydroxyl group of ribose or deoxyribose. Nucleotides are named using the name of the nucleoside, followed by 5 prime mono phosphates.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:59)



So, if we see the actual structure, then we can find that when we talk about this nucleoside. Nucleoside means ribose sugar, and to this first carbon, this nitrogen base is attached. So, here you see this is the adenine. Adenine group is attached to this and here if it is the deoxyribose. Then this O will be missing H H then it is the adenosine group is there. In case of nucleotide, see nitrogen and sugar this is nucleoside. When we are talking about a nucleotide then I have already shown you that nitrogen, sugar and to that one phosphate is attached. See this structure, this is nitrogen, sugar through this phosphate moieties are attached to this.

So, it is called adenosine 5 prime mono phosphate. That means it is the adenosine 5 prime mono phosphate, that means to the 5 carbon atom, this phosphate group is attached. So mono phosphate 5 only one phosphate group is attached.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:30)

Base	Nucleosides	Nucleotides
<b>RNA</b>		
Adenine (A)	Adenosine (A)	Adenosine 5'-monophosphate (AMP)
Guanine (G)	Guanosine (G)	Guanosine 5'-monophosphate (GMP)
Cytosine (C)	Cytidine (C)	Cytidine 5'-monophosphate (CMP)
Uracil (U)	Uridine (U)	Uridine 5'-monophosphate (UMP)
<b>DNA</b>		
Adenine (A)	Deoxyadenosine (A)	Deoxyadenosine 5'-monophosphate (dAMP)
Guanine (G)	Deoxyguanosine (G)	Deoxyguanosine 5'-monophosphate (dGMP)
Cytosine (C)	Deoxycytidine (C)	Deoxycytidine 5'-monophosphate (dCMP)
Thymine (T)	Deoxythymidine (T)	Deoxythymidine 5'-monophosphate (dTMP)

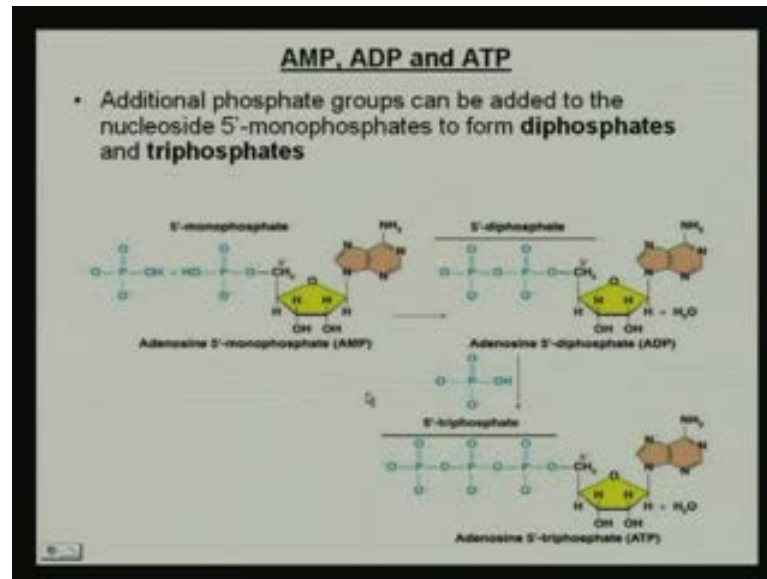
So, when we are naming this nucleoside and nucleotide. Then how we are naming? In case of RNA, I have already told you that here the bases are these nitrogenous bases are A G C and U so see A G C and U. These nitrogenous, 4 nitrogenous bases are there in case of nucleoside. We are calling this adenine, guanine, cytosine and uracil as adenosine, guanosine, cytidine and uridine. So, these are the nucleoside naming.

When, we are talking about the nucleotide, then adenosine 5 prime mono phosphate. As I have already mentioned that here nucleotides are named using the name of the nucleoside followed by 5 prime monophosphate. So, similarly, adenosine 5 prime mono phosphate, guanosine 5 prime mono phosphate, cytidine 5 prime mono phosphate, uridine 5 prime mono phosphate and so on.

In case of this DNA, here it is deoxyribose, so obviously deoxyadenosine, deoxyguanosine, deoxycytidine and so on. When we are naming the nucleotide then deoxyadenosine 5 prime mono phosphate or dAMP, deoxyguanosine 5 prime mono phosphate, deoxycytidine 5 prime mono phosphate, deoxythymidine 5 prime mono phosphate. So these are the names based on the type of molecules we are discussing.



(Refer Slide Time: 14:370)

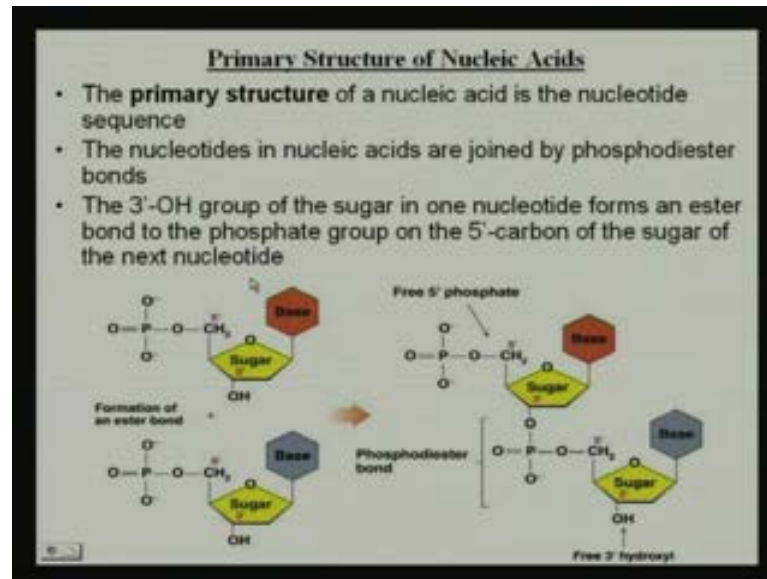


So, these are the nucleotide and nucleoside and differences between this nucleotide and nucleoside.

Now, when we are talking about this monophosphate, diphosphate, triphosphate and so on. Then this additional phosphate group can be added to the nucleoside 5 prime monophosphate to form diphosphate ,triphosphates and so on. What does it mean? See this is a nucleotide, nitrogenous base, sugar, and one phosphate is there. If we want to attach another phosphate group to this, that means here, if we want to add upon another phosphate group, then it can be attached.

And here, it forms the adenosine diphosphate. To this diphosphate when we are introduced it to incorporate another phosphate group to this then ,it forms the adenosine triphosphate or A T P molecule .And as, we all know we have already learned that A T P is the major energy source for all cellular activities. So these A T P molecules are playing a significant role in different metabolic activities, which are performed by the cell.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:16)



Now, coming to this primary structure of the nucleic acid. The primary structure of the nucleic acid is the nucleotide sequence, the nucleotides in nucleic acid are joined by phosphodiester bonds. The 3 prime hydroxyl groups of the sugar in one nucleotide form an ester bond to the phosphate group on the 5 prime carbon of the sugar of the next nucleotide. What does it mean? It is see this see this is one nucleotide this is another nucleotide.

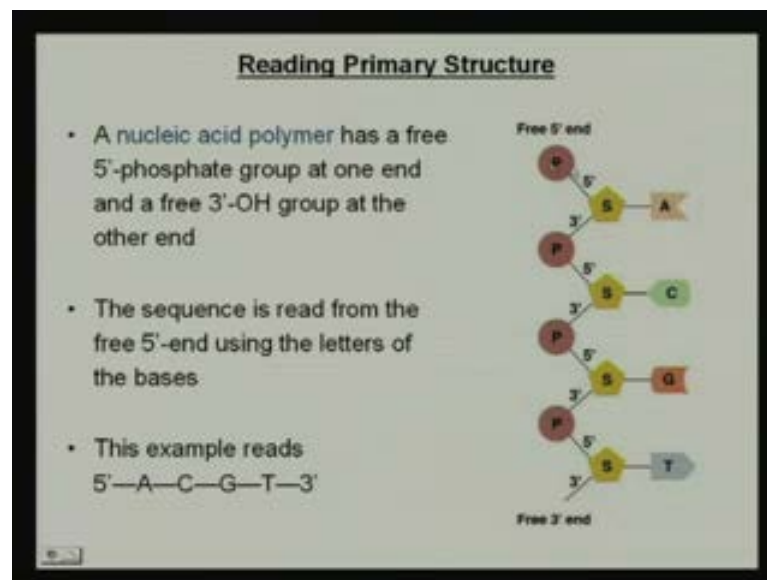
So, just till now, what we were discussing? That what is nucleoside? And what is nucleotide? We have learned nucleoside is sugar plus nitrogen base. And when one phosphate is being attached to this, it forms the nucleotide. That means in case of nucleoside, no phosphate is attached. In case of nucleotide nitrogenous base sugar moieties plus phosphate. That means sugar plus nitrogenous nitrogen base is the nucleoside. Sugar, nitrogenous base and phosphate is the nucleotide.

Now, when one such nucleotide is being attached to another nucleotide at then this ladder of this linkage or this chain like formation is taking place. Now how this chain is being form, now here you see this is the carbon one two three four five first carbon is already occupied by this nitrogenous base. And third carbon, in the third carbon this phosphate group of another nucleotide is going and it is getting bonded with the phosphodiester

bond.

Now, when this type of linkages are taking place, then one nucleotide is getting attached to the another nucleotide. And this phosphate, when it is coming to that next nucleotide that is, third carbon sugar moieties of the another nucleotide. Then it is getting linked and in this way the chain is formed, and this chain is called the primary structure of the nucleic acid.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:07)



I think,if I show you in little elaborate way, see this is the sugar moieties this is the third carbon, this is the fifth carbon of the sugar and the first carbon it is the nitrogenous base. This is the fifth carbon, to this fifth carbon phosphate group is attached. This phosphate is once again getting joined to the third carbon of the second nucleotide .Here nitrogenous base is there, fifth carbon here phosphate is there, and this phosphate is being attached to the third nucleotide and sugar moieties.

And third carbon of the third nucleotide, and here from this phosphate is being attached to the fourth nucleotide, molecule the sugar molecule the third carbon of this forth number of this nucleotide .And in this way this 1 2 3 4 and that way nucleotides are being linked up and they formed a chain like structure this nitrogenous bases may be A T

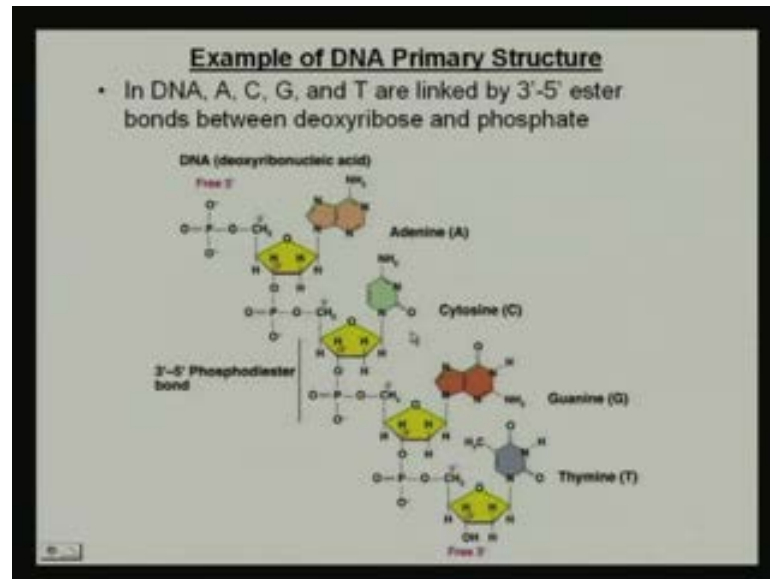
G C, A U, G C so see here A C, G T. These are the nitrogenous bases, so a nucleic acid polymer has a free 5 prime phosphate group at one end. And a free 3 prime, H group at the other end the sequence is read from the free 5 prime end using the later of these bases.

See for example, 5 prime a C G T 3 prime, that means, if we want to write the structure that how this nitrogenous basis are attached? Then we will have to write 5 prime a C G T and then ending with the 3 prime .So this is the example of the primary structure of the nucleic acid. You see this particular linkage has got very close similarity with the primary structure of the protein molecule. But, I have already discussed that one amino acid is being attached to it, another amino acid .The second amino acid is getting attached with third, fourth, fifth and so on.

What is happening in case of these amino acids? This when they form this protein structure, that in one particular amino acid, we have already learned that there is a amino terminal and one carboxyl terminal of that particular two groups are there. So when one amino group is getting attached with the carboxyl group of another amino acid, they form the peptide linkage. And this peptide linkage joins that one amino acid to another and that way the primary structure of protein is formed.

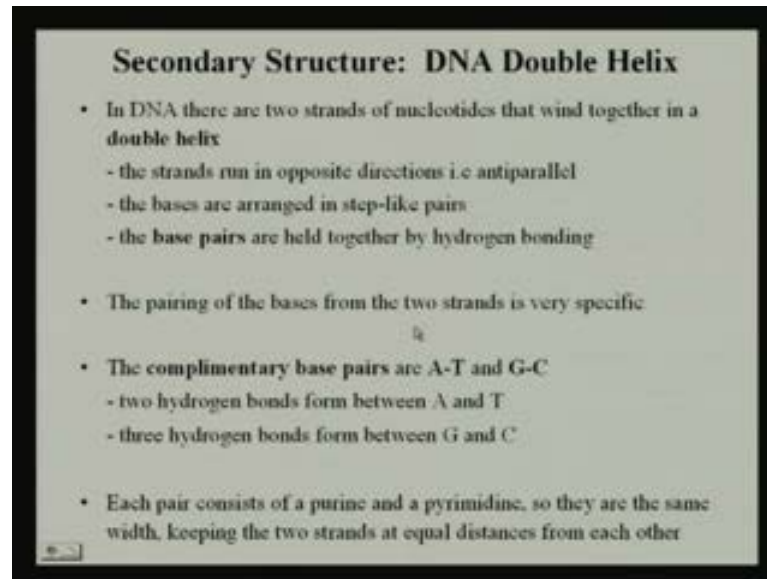
Here, the similar thing is happening with this particular primary structure, where you can see that see that one nucleotide is getting attached with another nucleotide with the third carbon of this pentose sugar. And the phosphate group is being linked up and the chain is getting increased. And that way primary structure of this nucleic acid is form.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:14)



Now, here this is the example of this R N A primary structure. Here this T is replaced by this U, and here this 3 to 5 prime ester linkages are there. So, here if we want to tell then we can tell this that 5 prime a C G U and 3 prime. Where as in case of D N A you see U is replaced with the thymine. So, if we want to tell the structure of this primary structure of this particular this nucleic acid. Then we can file that 5 prime a C G T and 3 prime so these are the primary structures of this D N A and the R N A molecules.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:14)



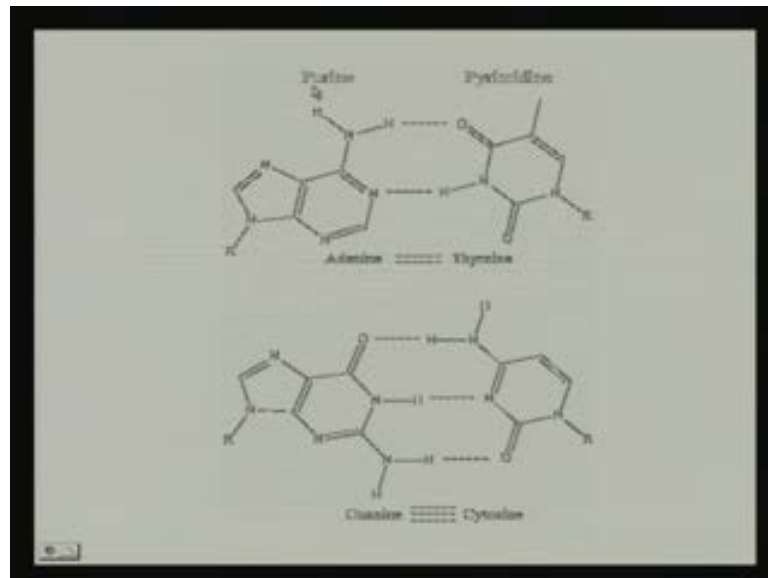
Now, coming to the secondary structure, so when we are talking about the this primary structure. We are, we have already learned. But, this is a very simple structure which is there and joining the nucleotide together in the secondary structure. It we can find the D N A double helix, that means in D N A there are two strands of nucleotides. That wind together in a double helix form the strands run in opposite direction that is anti parallel to each other .What does it mean? That means if one strand is from 5 prime to 3 prime another strand will be from 3 prime to 5 prime.

So, this opposite link that numbers that 5 prime, if it is starting another end will be 3 prime. And when this two strands are coming, that is that means they are anti parallel to each other .When they come and they wind each other and form this type of structure it is called the helix like structure. And, this is the secondary structure of the D N A molecule. The bases are arranged in a step like manner and the base pairs are held together by hydrogen bonding. The base pairing, the pairing of the basis from the two strands is very specific, the complimentary base pairs are A T and G C. That means one purine is getting linked with another pyrimidine that is the linkage no two purine or two pyrimidines are there, one purine is getting linked with another pyrimidine.

So A is getting bonded with T, G is getting bonded with C, so two hydrogen bonds are

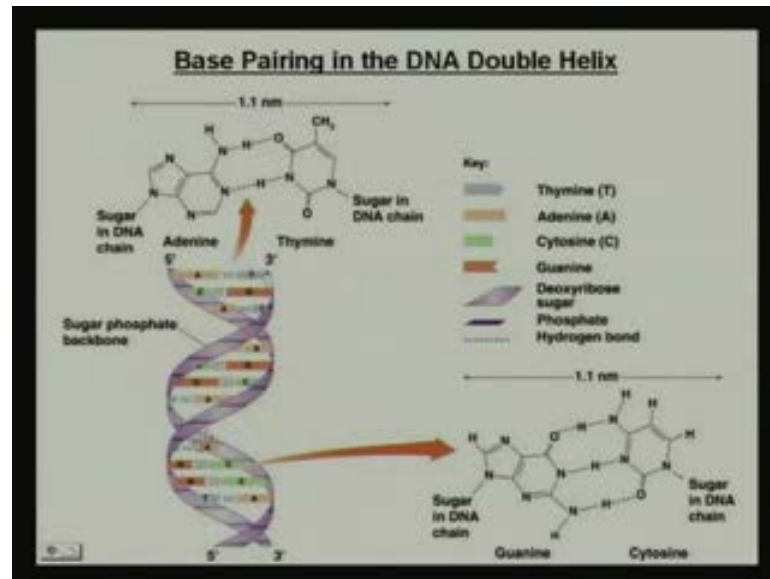
formed between A and T. And 3 hydrogen bonds are formed between G and C, each pair consists of purine and pyrimidine. So they are the same with keeping the 2 strands at equal distance from each other.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:47)



So, this is the adenine and this is the thymine, one is purine another pyrimidine. So 2 bonding hydrogen bonding is there, that means A double bond T and G triple bond C. See here G guanine that 1 2 3 hydrogen bonding and cytosine.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:12)



So, these are the helix structure double helical structure of this D N A .A T G C linkages, these pairs are there and which are associated, associating the two strands in a organized manner.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:29)

- DNA double helix model is first introduced by Watson and Crick in 1956
- The bases are oriented perpendicular to the helix axis. They are hydrophobic in the direction perpendicular to the plane of the bases (cannot form hydrogen bonds with water)
- The most common DNA structure in solution is the B-DNA. Under conditions of applied force or twists in the DNA, or under low hydration conditions, it can adopt several helical conformations, referred to as the A-DNA, Z-DNA

5'

3'

D N A double helix model is first introduced by watson and crick in nineteen hundred



and fifty six. And they got noble prize for that the basis are oriented perpendicular to the helix axis. They are hydrophobic in the direction perpendicular to the plane of the basis cannot form the hydrogen bond with water. The most common D N A structure in solution is the B form of D N A. Under conditions of applied force or twists in the D N A or under low hydration conditions it can adopt several helical confirmation which are refer to as a form of D N A or z D N A and so on . See here is one nucleotide strand another and you see a T G C G C A T, and that way this helix structure is there. It is formed in between and they are associating the 2 strand together..

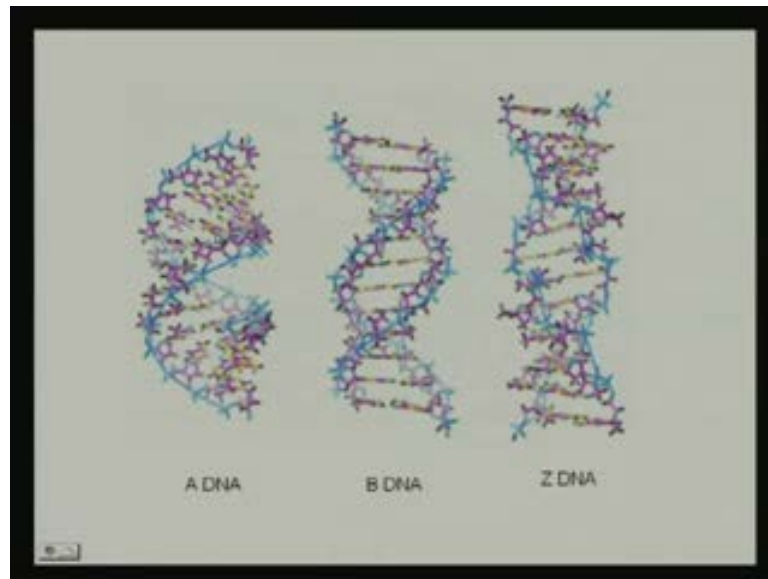
(Refer Slide Time: 28:44)

Properties	A DNA	B DNA	Z DNA
Helix handed	Right handed	Right handed	Left handed
Structure	Short and broad	Long and thin	Longer and thinner
Helix Diameter	25.5Å	23.7Å	18.4Å
Rise per base pair	2.3Å	3.4Å	3.8Å
Base pair per helical turn	-11	-10	-12
Helix pitch	25Å	34Å	47Å

While coming to this A form B form and z form. So B form is the normal D N A molecules, and under extreme environmental or extreme conditions. We can get A form of D N A or z form of D N A.

When we are comparing the properties of this type of D N A's .If we consider the B form as the standard, we can find that this A form. It is the right handed B form is right handed helix, z form is left handed helix. And there are very many differences between this base pair. This helix diameter rise per base pairs, base pair per helical turn, helix pitch etcetera at different in each form of D N A.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:43)



Now, if we see at a glance, we can find that A form of DNA is very thick and short. If we are considering as normal, then z form is thin and long. So these are some of this DNA helix.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:43)

### DNA Helix

- The DNA double-helix is formed by two right-handed, complementary strands of nucleotides coiled around each other. "Right-handed" is a term used to describe the symmetry of a 3-dimensional object
- It means that if you place the thumb of your right hand along the long axis of the molecule and curl your fingers in, the chain "twists" in the same direction as your fingers.

The DNA double helix is formed by 2 right handed complementary strand of nucleotide


coil around each other. Right handed is the turn used to describe the symmetry of the 3 dimensional objects. It means that if you place the thumb of your right hand along the long axis of the molecule and curl your fingers in the chain twists in the same direction as your finger.

Now, if suppose this is the double helical structure, and now if we wind this double helix structure to the thumb. And if it is forming this right handed helix, it will be wind like this and this is called the right handed helix of D N A. And in case of left handed, this helical, double helical structure is winds and it forms and in this way it winds up with the central axis, and this is the left handed helix of D N A.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:37)

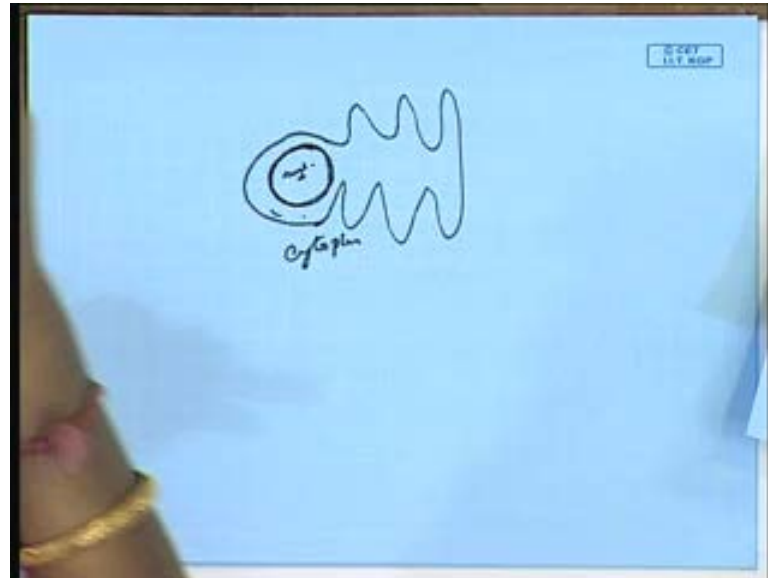
**Storage of DNA**

- In **eukaryotic** cells (animals, plants, fungi) DNA is stored in the **nucleus**, which is separated from the rest of the cell by a semipermeable membrane
- The DNA is only organized into **chromosomes** during cell division
- During replication, the DNA is stored in a compact ball like structure called **chromatin**, and is wrapped around proteins called **histones** to form **nucleosomes**



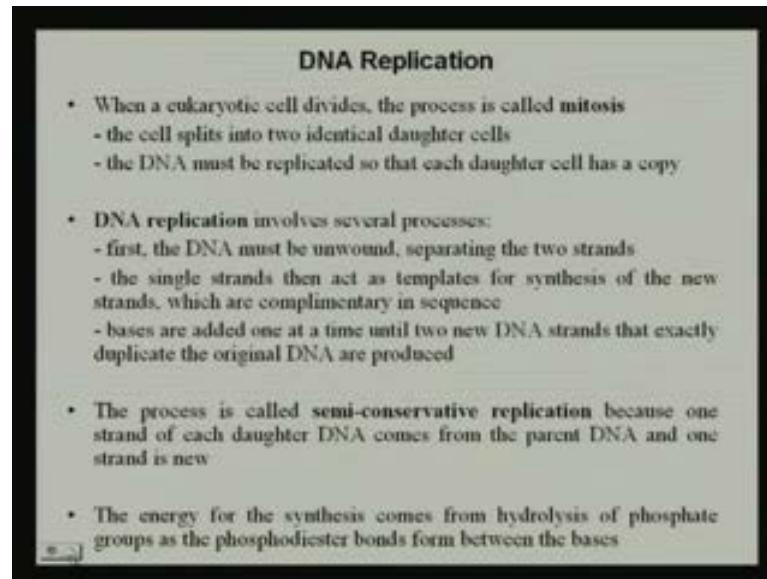
So, if we see this other properties the storage of D N A in eukaryotic cells mainly the animal, plant and fungi .D N A is stored in the nucleus which is separated from the rest of the cell by the cell membrane. And within that the cell sap is called nucleoplasm that is that I have already discussed that thing .That in the inside the nucleus the in case of eukaryotes that nucleus has got its own nuclear membrane and that is separating this nucleus from the other organelles.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:05)



And nucleus has got the by layer that nucleus has got its own , this is one ,this nuclear envelope which is separating the nucleoplasm from this .Other the cytoplasm field and here inside this the nucleic acid or the chromosomes are there . D N A is organized into chromosome during cell division; during replication the D N A is stored in a compact B like structure called the chromatin. And,is wrapped around the protein which is the histone protein to form nucleosomes. So these are some of these things.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:06)



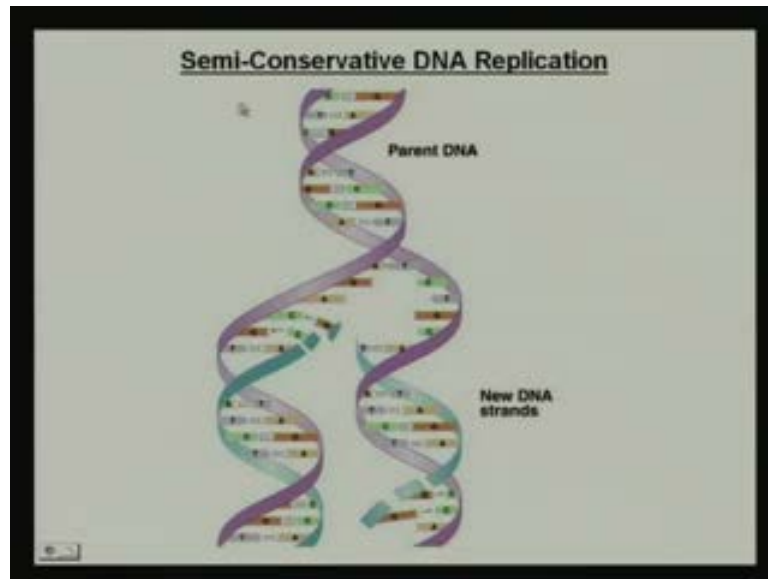
**DNA Replication**

- When a eukaryotic cell divides, the process is called mitosis
  - the cell splits into two identical daughter cells
  - the DNA must be replicated so that each daughter cell has a copy
- DNA replication involves several processes:
  - first, the DNA must be unwound, separating the two strands
  - the single strands then act as templates for synthesis of the new strands, which are complementary in sequence
  - bases are added one at a time until two new DNA strands that exactly duplicate the original DNA are produced
- The process is called semi-conservative replication because one strand of each daughter DNA comes from the parent DNA and one strand is new
- The energy for the synthesis comes from hydrolysis of phosphate groups as the phosphodiester bonds form between the bases

So, inside this nucleus the replication of DNA is taking place. When one eukaryotic cell divides, the process is that the process, they adopt is the mitotic cell division, The cell in this particular cell division, the cells split into 2 identical daughter cells, the DNA must be replicated. So that each daughter cell has the same copies. Number of this nuclide this chromosome DNA replication involves in several processes.

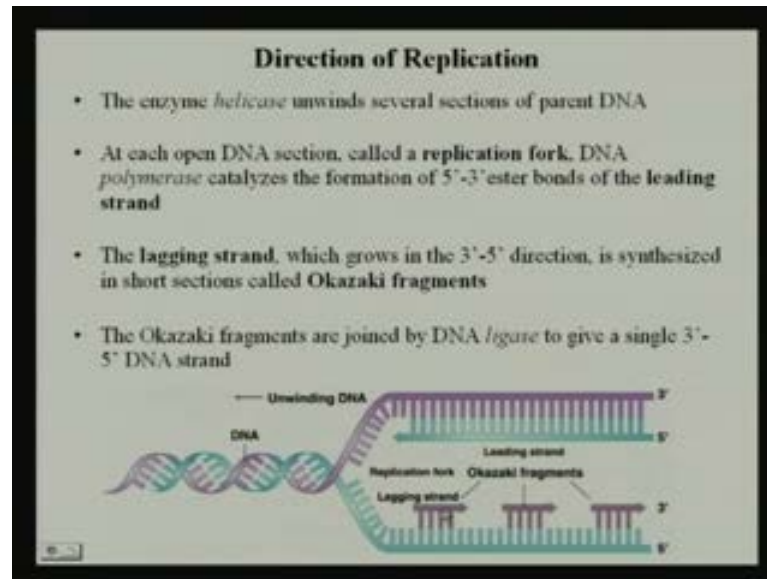
First, is the DNA must be unwound and separating the two strands. The single strands then act as a template for synthesis of the new strand which are complementary in sequence. The bases are added one at a time until the two new strands are formed. That exactly duplicate the original DNA which are produced. The process is called semi conservative type of DNA replication, because one strand of each daughters DNA comes from the parent DNA and one strand is synthesized which is new strand. During this process the energy which is required comes from the hydrolysis of the phosphate group. As the phosphodiester bond form between the basis, as we have already learned that thing.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:56)



Now, if we are talking about this semi conservative D N A replication. Then this is the parents strand, and first what it is doing? It gets unwind now one is the 3 prime to 5 prime another it is 5 prime to 3 prime. So, anti parallel to each other, so when these two strands are getting separated, then new strand, this own strand is the template strand for synthesis of the new strand. And this way, this new strands are synthesized and when this new strands are synthesized .It has got one old the template strand, parental strand and new synthesize strand.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:50)

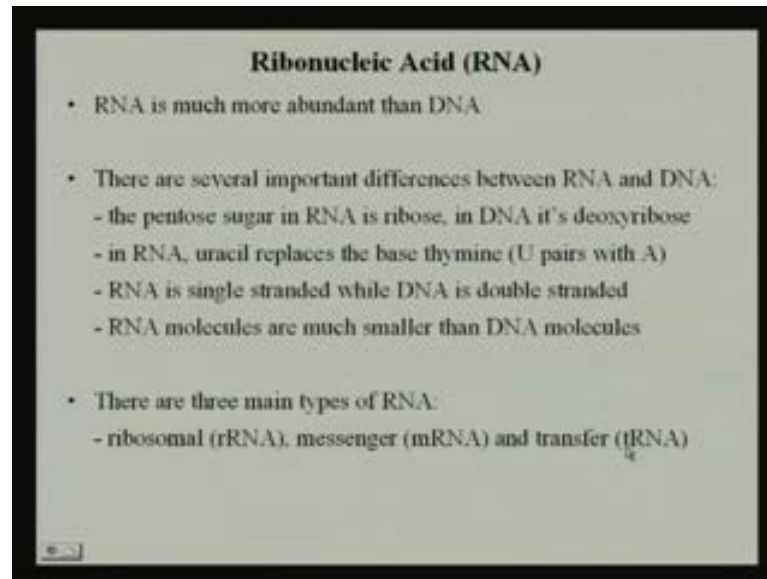


And these are called the semi conservative type of D N A replication. The enzyme helicase unwinds the several section of the parent D N A at each open D N A section called a replication fork.

So, here this is the open up form that is the replication form of D N A. Polymerase catalyzes the formation of 5 prime to 3 prime ester bond of the leading strand. So here this is the parental strand got opened so one end is the 3 prime end another is the 5 prime end. This is the one parental strand, this is another parental strand.

Now, there is a leading strand and another is the lagging strand. So when 3 prime to this 3 prime end is there so 5 prime to 3 prime, this leading strand is start synthesizing and they form the complimentary base pair of this particular new strand. Where as in the lagging strand which grow from 3 prime to 5 prime direction is synthesized a small short section of this nucleotide base pair. And that is called the okazaki fragment ,this okazaki fragment with the help of inside D N A ligase they join and to form a single 3 prime to 5 prime strand .And in this way the replication process is taking place in D N A.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:30)



That means the replication means D N A to D N A .So from one parental strain the template is that is used as the template and new synthesized strand is taking place. Coming to this ribonucleic acid or the R N A , R N A is the most abundant than D N A. There are several important differences between R N A and D N A. The pentose sugar in R N A is ribose and in case of D N A is deoxyribose. In R N A uracil replaces the base thymine that means U pair with a R N A is single stranded .While D N A is the double stranded R N A molecules are much smaller than the D N A molecules.

If we categorize this R N A ,then we can differentiate this R N A as ribosomal R N A or r R N A ,messenger R N A or m R N A and transfer R N A or the t R N A.

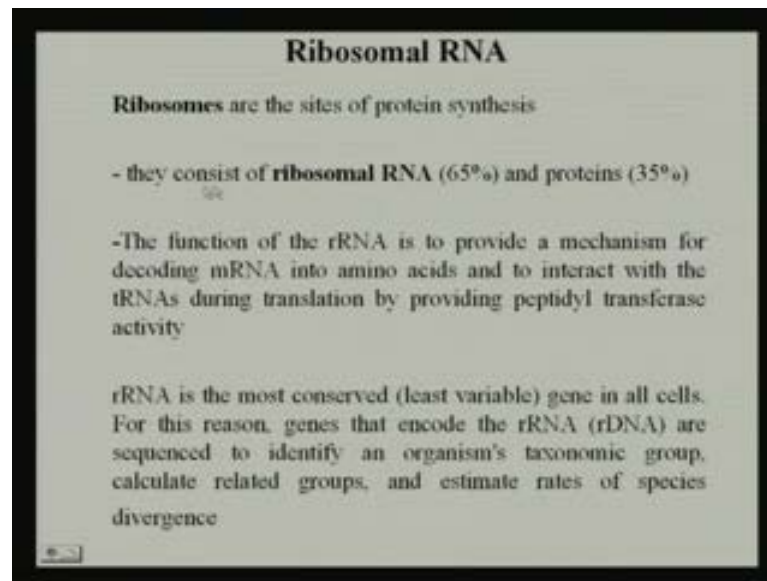


(Refer Slide Time: 38:50)

Type	Abbreviation	of Total RNA	Function in the Cell
Ribosomal RNA	rRNA	75	Major component of the ribosomes
Messenger RNA	mRNA	5-10	Carries information for protein synthesis from the DNA in the nucleus to the ribosomes
Transfer RNA	tRNA	10-15	Brings amino acids to the ribosomes for protein synthesis

Now, if we see in the R N A molecules the different types, different compositional variation of these 3 R N A's. Ribosomal R N A or r R N A of the total R N A present, it constitute 75 percent .Where as m R N A is the 5 to 10 percent and t R N A is 10 to 15 percent of the total R N A which is present. If we see the functions of these particular R N A in the cell inside the cell, then we can find that r R N A is the major component of the ribosome. M R N A carries the information of protein synthesis from the D N A in the nucleus to the ribosome .And t R N A brings amino acid to the ribosome for protein synthesis.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:51)



**Ribosomal RNA**

**Ribosomes** are the sites of protein synthesis

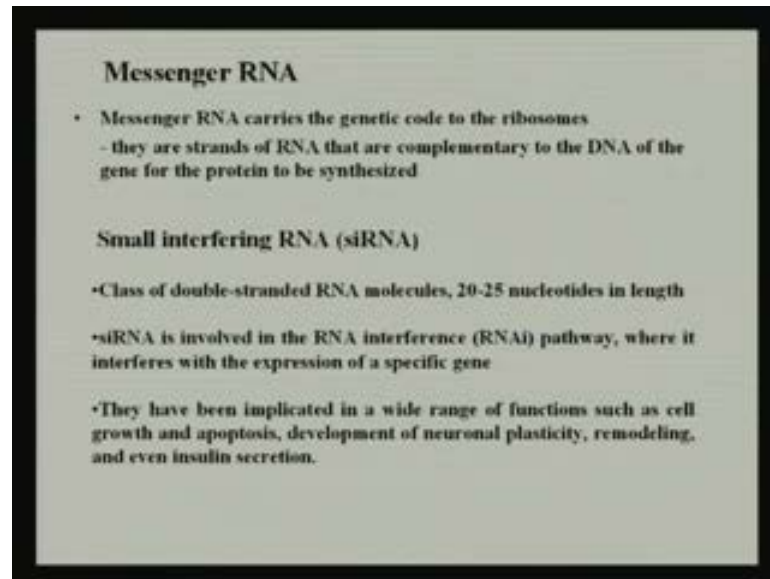
- they consist of **ribosomal RNA (65%)** and proteins (35%)

-The function of the rRNA is to provide a mechanism for decoding mRNA into amino acids and to interact with the tRNAs during translation by providing peptidyl transferase activity

rRNA is the most conserved (least variable) gene in all cells. For this reason, genes that encode the rRNA (rDNA) are sequenced to identify an organism's taxonomic group, calculate related groups, and estimate rates of species divergence

So, this way this this R N A different. R N A's are doing a very important role in cell system. Ribosomal R N A when we are talking about this, is the ribosomes are the side for the protein synthesis. They consists of ribose, they consists of ribosomal R N A 65 percent and protein 35 percent. The function of r R N A is to provide a mechanism for decoding m R N A into amino acids and it interact with the t R N A during translation by providing peptidyl transferase activity. R R N A is the most conserved and that is the reason why now a days we rely upon the r R N A data for identification of any unknown species..

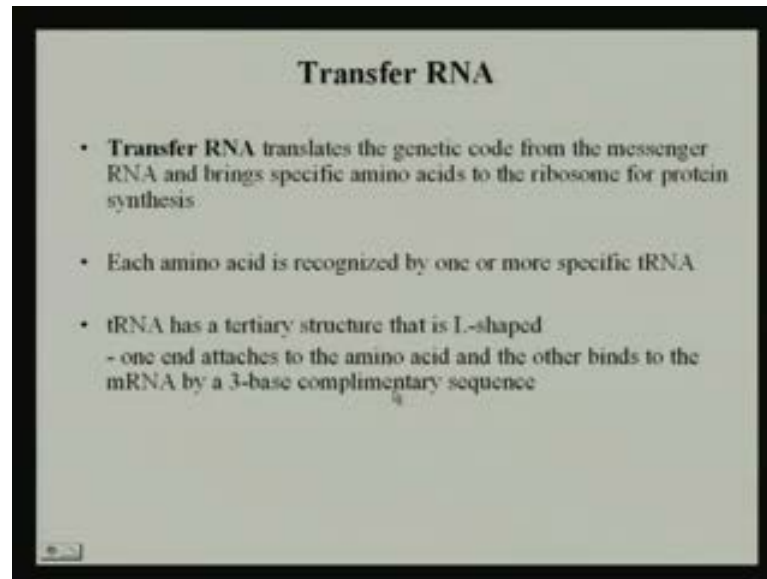
(Refer Slide Time: 40:50)



So, this is the most important part of r R N A. Messenger R N A is the m R N A carries the genetic code to the ribosome .They are strands of R N A that are complimentary to the D N A of the gene ,for the protein to be synthesized.

There are another type of R N A called small interfering R N A or it is called s i R N A. There are the classes of double stranded R N A molecules, 20 to 25 nucleotide despaired in length. S i R N A is involved in the R N A interference, that is R N A i activities path way .Where it interfere with the expression of a specific gene, they have implicated in the wide range of functions such as cell growth or apoptosis. That is programmed cell death, development of neuronal plasticity, remodeling and even insulin secretion.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:02)

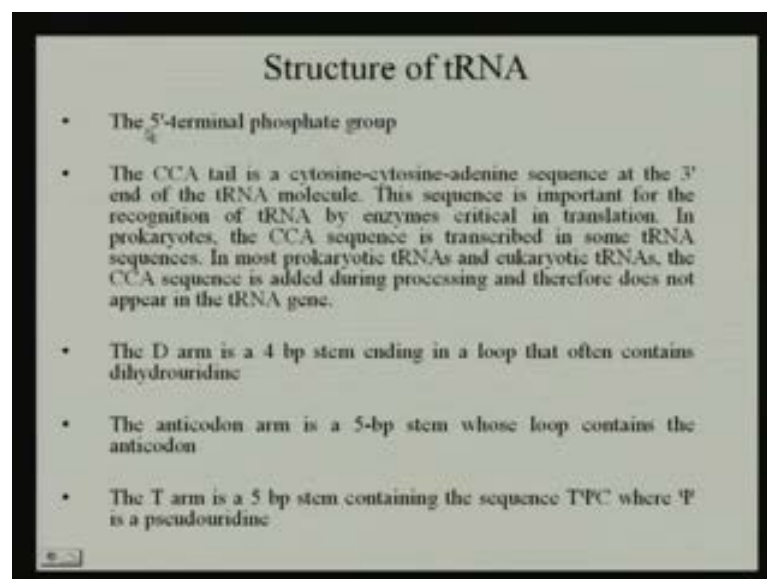


### Transfer RNA

- **Transfer RNA** translates the genetic code from the messenger RNA and brings specific amino acids to the ribosome for protein synthesis
- Each amino acid is recognized by one or more specific tRNA
- tRNA has a tertiary structure that is L-shaped
  - one end attaches to the amino acid and the other binds to the mRNA by a 3-base complementary sequence

Now, coming to the tRNA, transfer RNA translate the genetic code from the messenger RNA and bring specific amino acid to the ribosome for protein synthesis. Each amino acid is recognized by one or more specific tRNA. tRNA has a tertiary structure that is L shaped, one end is attached to the amino acid and the other bind to the messenger RNA by the 3 base complementary sequence.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:45)



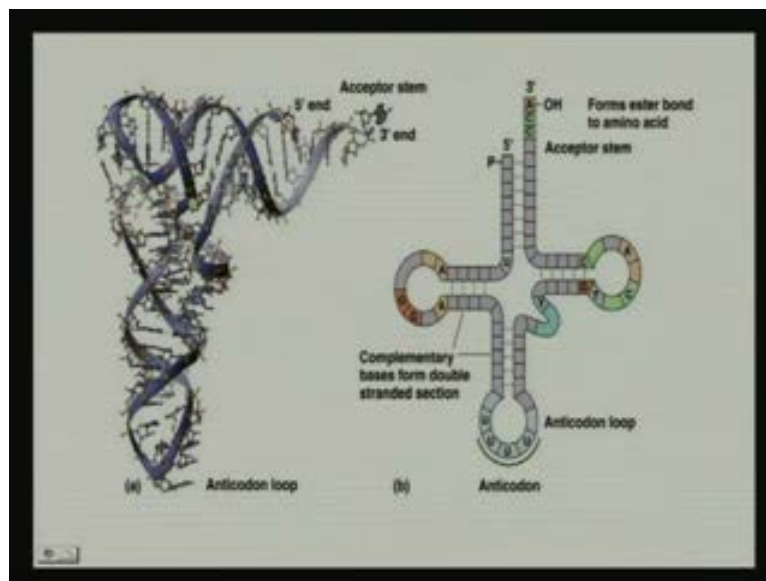
### Structure of tRNA

- The 5'-terminal phosphate group
- The CCA tail is a cytosine-cytosine-adenine sequence at the 3' end of the tRNA molecule. This sequence is important for the recognition of tRNA by enzymes critical in translation. In prokaryotes, the CCA sequence is transcribed in some tRNA sequences. In most prokaryotic tRNAs and eukaryotic tRNAs, the CCA sequence is added during processing and therefore does not appear in the tRNA gene.
- The D arm is a 4 bp stem ending in a loop that often contains dihydrouridine
- The anticodon arm is a 5-bp stem whose loop contains the anticodon
- The T arm is a 5 bp stem containing the sequence TΨC where Ψ is a pseudouridine

If, we see the structure of t R N A ,it has got a 5 prime terminal phosphate group .That this particular t R N A has a C C A tail that is cytosine cytosine adenine sequence at the 3 prime end of the t R N A molecule .This sequence is important for the recognition of t R N A by enzymes critical in translation .In prokaryotes the C C A sequence is transcribed in some t R N A sequence, in most prokaryotic t R N A and eukaryotic t R N A's, the C C A sequence is added during processing .And therefore, does not appear in the t R N A gene.

This t R N A has a d arm that is four base pair stem ending in a loop that often contain dihydrouridine. It has got also anticodon arm that is 5 base pair stem, whose loop contains the anticodon .And it has got also a t arm, that is the 5 base pair stem containing the sequence that is t (C) C where psi is the pseudouridine.

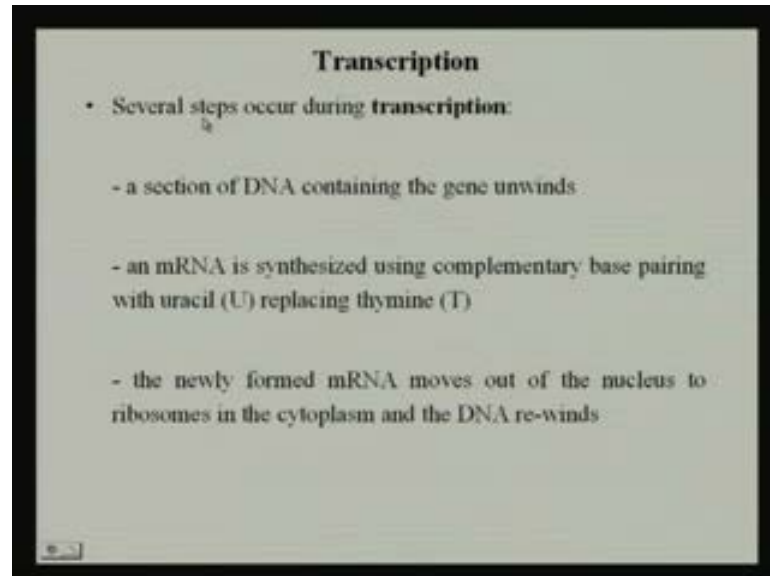
(Refer Slide Time: 44:23)



So, as I have told you already, that it is the t R N A which is L shape .See this is the L shaped t R N A .If we see this is the loop, where this anticodon loop is there. And if we see the structure, that see in the 3 prime end of this particular hydroxyl group, one C C A group is there. It forms the ester bond to the amino acid and this is the acceptor stem, and it has also got a 5 prime end .As I have already discussed that I have also told you that it has got that loops, that one is the d arm another is the t arm .And another is the

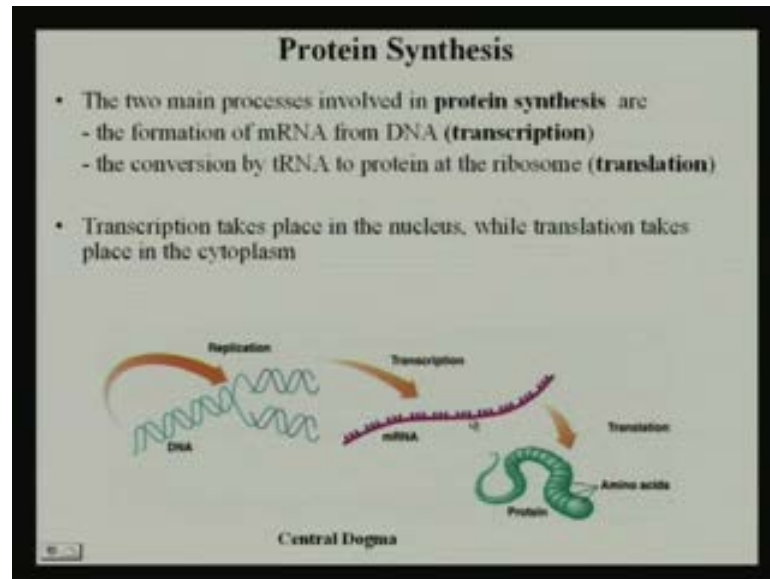
anticodon, and this anticodon arm is the 5 base pair stem..

(Refer Slide Time: 45:50)



And it sends the messenger R N A which is coming with the polysome and forming the nucleotide. And it is sensing the amino acid for this particular that m R N A and this is the importance of this particular t R N A. And it brings the amino acid to that particular sight. Coming to this transcription that several steps occur during transcription, a section of D N A containing the gene got unwind ,the m R N A is synthesized using complimentary base pairing using uracil . That is U replacing the thymine, that is T the newly formed m R N A moves out of this nucleus to the ribosome in the cytoplasm and the D N A rewind.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:30)



So, if we see I have already discussed that the D N A replication is taking place in the nucleus..

(Refer Slide Time: 46:40)

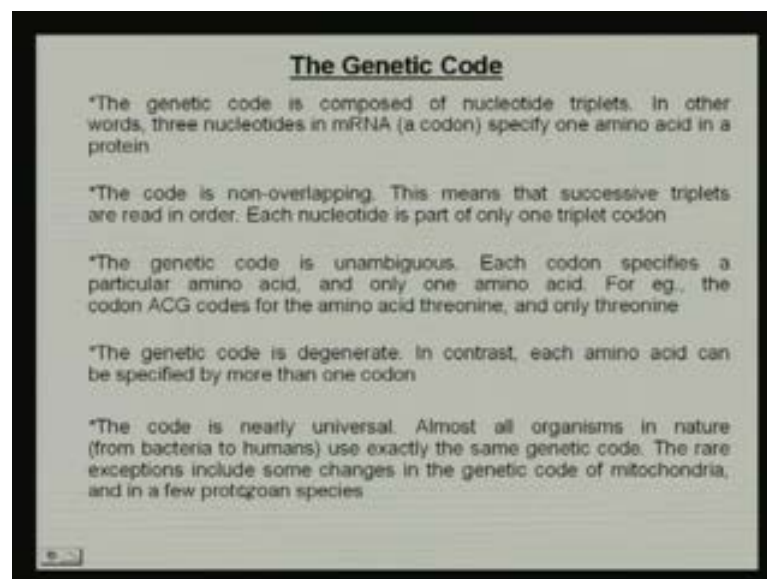


D N A replication is taking place, transcription when it takes place, D N A form the m R N A. When m R N A is formed m R N A comes out of this nucleus, to this outside of the

cell and it is coming to the cytoplasmic field of the cell. And these two main processes involved in protein synthesis are the formation of m R N A. From this D N A that is the transcription and conversion of t R N A to proteins at the ribosome that is the translation transcription takes place in nucleus, while translation takes place in the cytoplasm.

So, as soon as m R N A is formed, m R N A is coming out from this nucleus to the cytoplasm. Where this translation is taking place? So, here if we see the transcription central dogma of the cell ,see here replication is taking place .D N A to D N A is the replication ,when D N A is undergoing transcription it forms D N A, forms this m R N A. When m R N A is formed, this m R N A comes out from this nucleus to the cytoplasmic field. Where actual protein synthesis is going on and these amino acids are producing this protein from the translation process ,which is going on in the cell with the help of this nucleic acid.

(Refer Slide Time: 48:24)



Now, coming to this genetic code, the genetic code is composed of nucleotide. Triplets in some, in other word 3 nucleotides of m R N A ,that is specify one amino acid in a particular protein .So, what we can tell that 3 nucleotide. If a codon , which specify what one particular amino acid ,one codon is specify with one particular amino acid. The code is non-overlapping, that means there is no over lapping of this particular code, this means



that successive triplets are read, in order each nucleotide is part of only one triplet codon..

The genetic code is unambiguous, each codon specifies a particular amino acid and only one amino acid for example, the codon a C G codes for the amino acid threonine and only threonine. The genetic code is degenerate in contrast, each amino acid can be specified by more than one codon. Each code is nearly universal in nature, almost all organisms in nature from bacteria to human being are exactly the same genetic use, exactly the same genetic code. The real exceptions include some changes in the genetic code of mitochondria and in a few protozoan species.

(Refer Slide Time: 50:35)

mRNA Codons and Associated Amino Acids						
		Second Letter				
First Letter	U	C	A	G	Third Letter	
U	UUU } Phe	UCU } Ser	UAU } Tyr	UGU } Cys	U	
	UUC } Phe	UCC } Ser	UAC } Tyr	UGC } Cys	C	
	UUA } Leu	UCA } Ser	UAA } STOP	UGA } STOP	A	
	UUG } Leu	UCG } Ser	UAG } STOP	UGG } Trp	G	
C	CUU } Leu	CCU } Pro	CAU } His	CGU } Arg	U	
	CUC } Leu	CCC } Pro	CAC } His	CCG } Arg	C	
	CUA } Leu	CCA } Pro	CAA } Gln	CGA } Arg	A	
	CUG } Leu	CCG } Pro	CAG } Gln	CGG } Arg	G	
A	AUU } Ile	ACU } Thr	AAU } Asn	AGU } Ser	U	
	AUC } Ile	ACC } Thr	AAC } Asn	AGC } Ser	C	
	AUA } Met/start	ACA } Thr	AAA } Lys	AGA } Arg	A	
	*AUG } Met/start	ACG } Thr	AAG } Lys	AGG } Arg	G	
G	GUU } Val	GCU } Ala	GAU } Asp	GGU } Gly	U	
	GUC } Val	GCC } Ala	GAC } Asp	GGC } Gly	C	
	GUA } Val	GCA } Ala	GAA } Glu	GGA } Gly	A	
	GUG } Val	GCG } Ala	GAG } Glu	GGG } Gly	G	

\*Codon that signals the start of a peptide chain.  
 \*\*STOP codons signal the end of a peptide chain.

Now, coming to this mRNA codon and associated amino acids. So I have already told that these genetic codes are the triplet codes, so if we are taking this first letter, second letter and third letter, these are the nitrogenous base pairs, that see here, how these codes are formed? That C U C A G this is first letter U C A G and this is the third letter U C A G.

Now, if we form this genetic code, then 3 letter triplet codes are there U U U, U U C, U U A, U U G see U U U, U U C, U U U, U U A and U U G. So, these are the codes triplet codes. Now, in reality, we have four base pairs and 3 nucleotides; form this one code, so in nature we have sixty four such nucleotides. These codes which are coding this amino

acid. But, in reality, what is happening in reality? We have only twenty standard amino acid. I have already two and they form this permutation and combination with their permutation and combination, these proteins are formed.

So, what is happening in reality? If this 64 codons are there and twenty amino acids are there. And if each codon are responsible for coding , only one amino acid, then what will happen? There will be 44 such codons that this codons ,for which codons will be there .So during protein synthesis, when it will be coming with any permutation and combination and if this forty four codons. If there is no amino acids are there, so any point of time when such codons will be coming, no amino acids will be there for such type of codon .And any time this protein that chain synthesis will get terminated ,but, in reality it is not happening like that. That means, what is there in reality? For each codon there are certain amino acids which are there.

Say for example, for G G U , G G C, G G A, G G G ,for this four codon only one amino acids are there, the which is coding glycine A G U ,A G C, A G A ,A G G .See A G U A G C is serine. A G A A G G is arginine, and in this way for this natural this 64 codon there are certain amino acids which are coded. And that is the reason why it is called it is the the, it is degenerating. So when but, there are some exceptions like a U G is the start codon which codes for the methionine and U A A ,U A G, U G A are called the stop codon. And only one code which only codes the trypsin is the U G G , this is the exception of the genetic code.

Now, if we see another example, say we can let us take any example C G U, C G C, C G A, C G G. Now, here if we see this four codons are coding one amino acid that is arginine. If we see that see this first two codons are same for this particular amino acid, but, the third codon is varying. In case of glycine also you see first 2 codons are constant, same for the, whereas, the third amino acid is varying. That means the third codon is not that important, that third nucleotide base pair is not that important for this particular recognition of this amino acid? But, first two are very important and that is the reason that first two are constant for identify the particular amino acid, and that is called the wobble hypothesis of genetic code.

(Refer Slide Time: 55:53)

**Reading the Genetic Code**

- Suppose we want to determine the amino acids coded for in the following section of a mRNA

5'—CCU — AGC— GGA—CUU—3'

- According to the genetic code, the amino acids for these codons are:

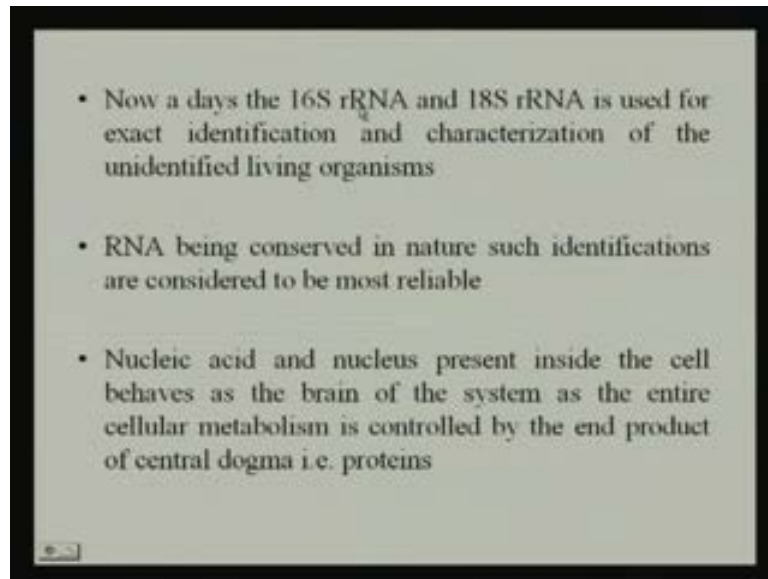
CCU = Proline	AGC = Serine
GGA = Glycine	CUU = Leucine

- The mRNA section codes for the amino acid sequence of Pro—Ser—Gly—Leu
- Correct form of writing a codon  
5'CCUAGCGGACTU3'

Now, if we come to this reading of this genetic code ,suppose we want to determine the amino acids coded for this following section that is 5 prime C C U dash A G C dash G G A dash C C U dash 3 prime .Where we know proline is C C U .G G A is glycine .A G C is serine and C U U is leucine.

Now, if we want to write this proline, serine ,glycine ,leucine .We can write but, when we are writing the actual codon ,we have to have the 5 prime C C U, A G C ,G G A, C U U and 3 prime. While writing this codon there should not be any punctuation, any comma, any full stop, any dash or any such type of use of punctuation, while writing the genetic code .And this is the correct way of writing the codon.

(Refer Slide Time: 57:02)



Nowadays, 16 s r R N A for prokaryotic and 18 s r R N A is used for identification and characterization of unidentified living organisms. As because, they are conserved in nature, R N A being conserved in nature, such identification are considered to be the most reliable. Nucleic acid and nucleus present inside the cell behaves as the brain of the system, as the entire cellular metabolism is controlled by the end product of the central dogma. That is the protein and with this, today concluding my lecture and I have tried to give you some idea about that, How cell is undergoing division, cell division, growth, replication and reproduction is going on with the help of this nucleic acid this D N A and R N A molecules?

In my next class, I will discuss about another macromolecules, which is playing a significant role in cellular activities, that is the lipid molecules. Thank you very much.