

Nucleic acid

Nucleic acids are polymers of nucleotides which function as genetic material. The fundamental unit of nucleic acid is nucleotides.

There are two types of Nucleic acid - DNA and RNA.

Nucleic acid is made up of Nucleoside and nucleotide.

~~Nucleoside + N~~

Nucleoside

Nucleoside is made up of

Pentose sugar and Nitrogenous base.

Pentose sugar + N. base \rightarrow Nucleoside.

Example: (i) Deoxyribose + Adenine = Deoxyadenine

(ii) ^{ribose} Deoxy~~ribose~~ + Guanine = Deoxyguanine.

(iii) Deoxyribose + Thymine = Deoxythymine.

(iv) ^{ribose} Deoxy~~ribose~~ + Cytosine = Deoxycytosine.

Structure of Deoxyribose and Ribose:

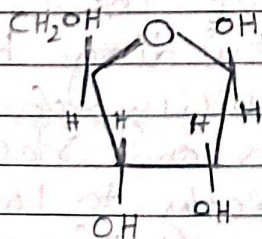


Fig: Ribose

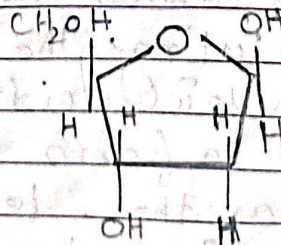


Fig: Deoxyribose.

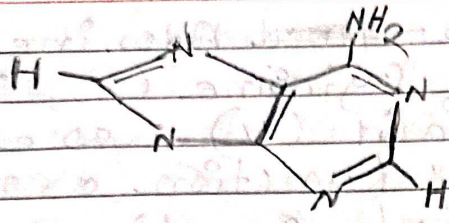
Nucleosides are glycosylamines that can be thought of as nucleotides without a phosphate group. A nucleoside consists simply of a nucleobase (also termed as a nitrogenous base) and a five-carbon sugar whereas a nucleotide is composed of a nucleobase, a five-carbon sugar and one or more phosphate groups. In a nucleoside, the anomeric carbon is linked through a glycosidic bond to the N9 of a purine or the N1 of a pyrimidine. Example of nucleosides include cytidine, uridine, adenosine, guanosine, thymidine and inosine.

While a nucleoside is nucleobase linked to a sugar, a nucleotide is composed of a nucleoside and one or more phosphate groups. Thus nucleoside can be phosphorylated by specific kinase in the cell on the sugar's primary alcohol group ($-CH_2-OH$) to produce nucleotides.

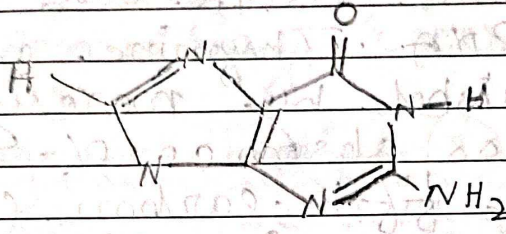
Nucleio

Nucleobase:

They are also known as nitrogenous bases or often simply bases, are nitrogen-containing biological compounds that form nucleosides, which in turn are components of nucleotides. With all of these monomers constituting the basic building blocks of nucleic acid. The ability of nucleobases to form base pairs and stack one upon another leads directly to long chain helical structure such as ribonucleic acid (RNA) and DNA.

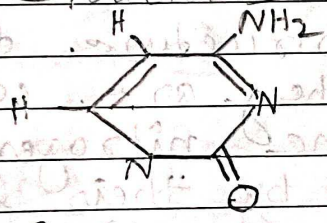


Adenine

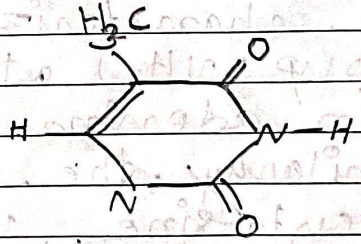


Guanine

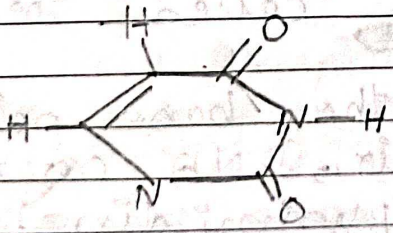
Fig: Structures of purines.



Cytosine



Thymine (DNA only)



Uracil (RNA only)

Fig: Structure of pyrimidines.

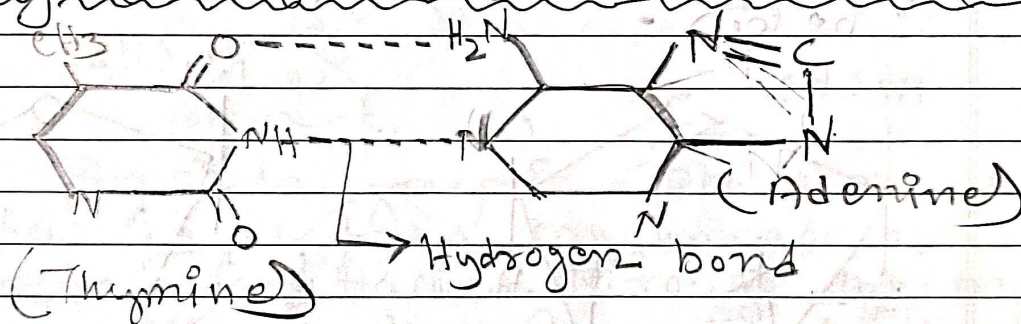
→ Five nucleobases - ~~And~~ Adenine (A), Guanine (G), Cytosine (C), Thymine (T) and Uracil (U) - are called primary. They function as the fundamental units of genetic code, with the bases A, G, C and T being found in DNA while A, G, C and U are found in RNA. Thymine and Uracil are distinguished by merely the presence or absence of a methyl group on the fifth carbon (C5) of these heterocyclic six-membered rings.

Adenine and guanine have a fused-ring skeletal structure derived of purine, hence they are called purine bases. The purine nitrogenous bases are characterized by their ring amino group (NH_2) at the C6 carbon site in adenine and C2 in guanine. Similarly, the simple ring structure of cytosine, uracil and thymine is derived of ~~pyr~~ pyrimidine, so those three bases are called the pyrimidine bases.

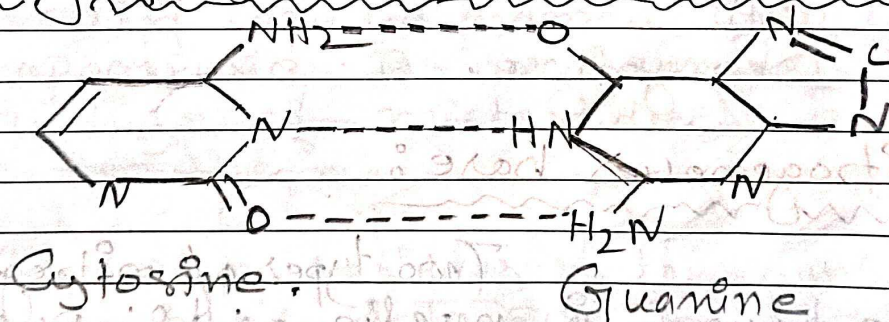
Each of the base pairs in a typical double-helix, DNA comprises a purine and pyrimidine: either an A paired with a T or a C paired with a G. These purin-pyrimidine pairs which are called base complements connect the two strands of the helix and are often compared to the rungs of a ladder. The pairing of purines and pyrimidines may result

in part from from dimensional constraints, as this combination enables a geometry of constant width for the DNA spiral helix. The A-T and C-G pairings function to form double or triple hydrogen bonds between the amine and carbonyl groups on the complementary bases.

Bonding of Thymine (T) and Adenine (A) (A=T):



Bonding of Cytosine (C) and Guanine (G) (C=G):



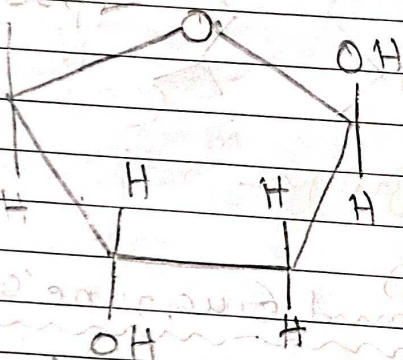
Structure of nucleotide:-

Nucleotides are monomers or building blocks of nucleic acids which are composed of three structural units;

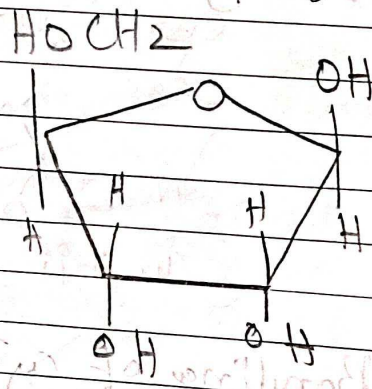
- (i) Pentose sugar, (ii) Nitrogenous base
- (iii) phosphate group.

Pentose Sugar:

Two types of pentose sugars are present in nucleic acids. They are ribose and deoxyribose. If the pentose is ribose, the nucleic acid is called ribonucleic acid (RNA) and if the pentose sugar is deoxyribose, the nucleic acid is called deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). Structure of these two sugars are given below.



Deoxyribose.



Ribose.

Nitrogenous base:

Two types of nitrogenous bases are found in nucleic acids: purine and pyrimidine. Adenine, Guanine are purine bases, whereas Cytosine, Thymine and Uracil are pyrimidine bases. Pentose sugar and nitrogenous base (without the phosphate group) are collectively known as ~~nucleoside~~ nucleosides.

Nucleoside + phosphate group = Nucleotide.

Examples:-

(i) Deoxyadenosine + PO_4 = Deoxyadenosine monophosphate. (AMP)

(ii) Deoxyguanosine + PO_4 = Deoxyguanosine monophosphate (GMP)

(iii) Deoxythymine + PO_4 = Deoxythymine monophosphate (TMP)

(iv) Deoxycytosine + PO_4 = Deoxycytosine monophosphate (CMP)

Phosphate group:

Phosphate group is a phosphorus atom surrounded by four oxygen atoms.

Phosphate is attached through the oxygen atom of the hydroxyl group of the 5' carbon of the pentose sugar. Thus a nucleotide can be named as nucleoside monophosphate. As an example, the structure of nucleotide with a guanine base is shown.

(The carbon residues in the pentose sugar are numbered 1' to 5'. The N-base is attached to the 1' position of the sugar and the phosphate is attached to the 5' position. When a polynucleotide chain is formed, the 5' phosphate of one nucleotide is attached to the 3' hydroxyl group of the end of the growing chain. The N-bases are important components of nucleotides. They contain carbon and Nitrogen. They are bases because they contain an amino group which has the potentiality

to binding an extra hydrogen. And therefore decreases the H^+ concⁿ making it more basic.

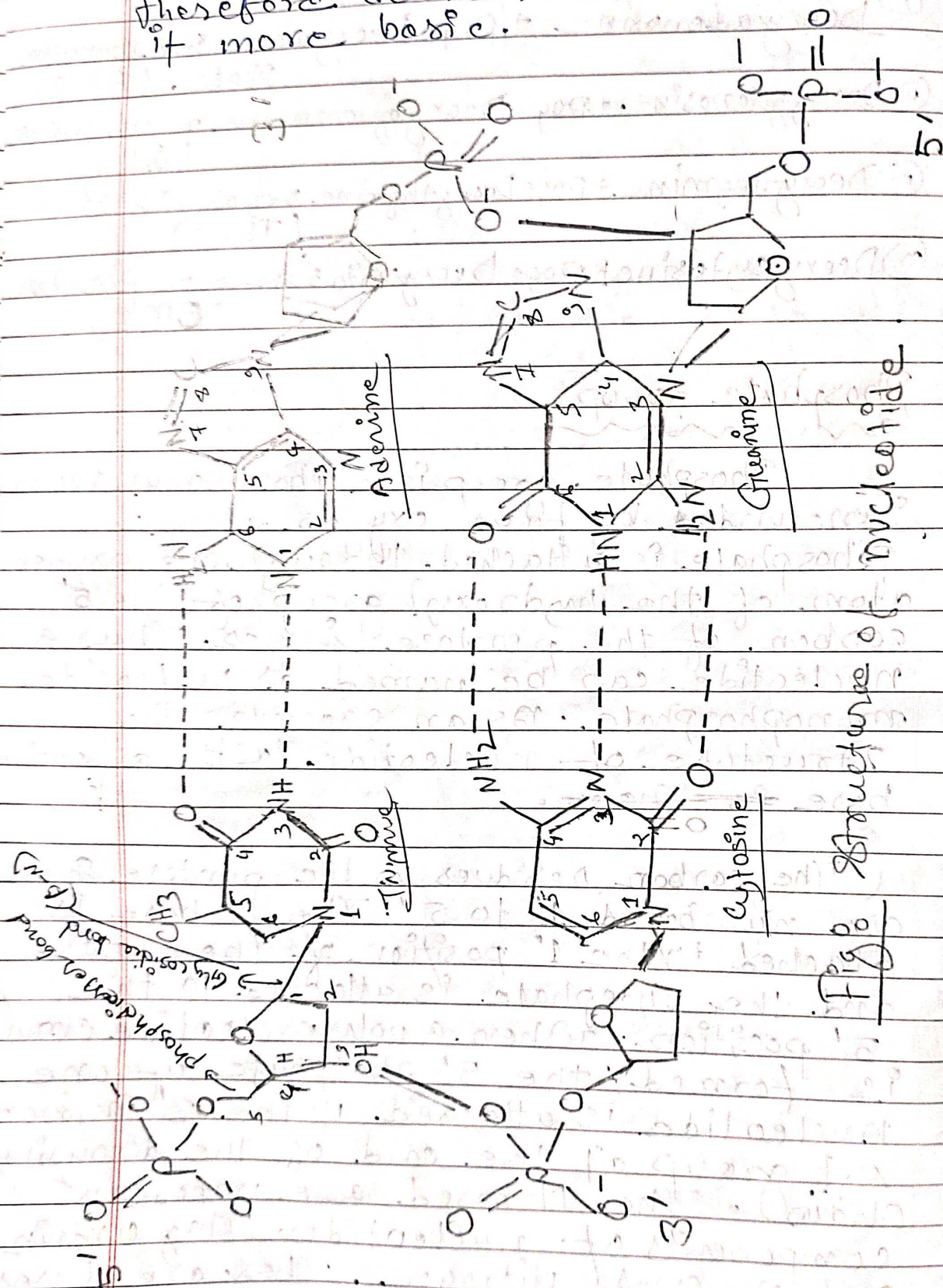


Fig 0 Structure of Nucleotide.

DNA denaturation:

① DNA denaturation is the process of breaking down the DNA molecule generally for the purpose of comparison of sequence.

② When DNA is heated up in water, the energy of the heat pull the two strands of DNA apart. This process is called denaturation. After denaturation, the two strands still have the same nucleotide sequences, therefore they are still complementary.

③ If the DNA is subjective to cool after the denaturation, it re-forming the double strands. This process is called DNA renaturation or annealing or hybridization.

④ Double helical native DNA are highly viscous at pH 7 and room temperature (25°C).

⑤ When the DNA solution is subjected to extreme pH or temperature above 80°C , its viscosity significantly decreases, which indicates the DNA has undergone physical changes.

⑥ Disruption of the hydrogen bond between base pairs causes unwinding of the double helix to form two single strands, completely separate from each other along entire length of the molecule. However, no covalent bonds in the DNA are broken during this process.

Factor affecting DNA denaturation:

DNA denaturation can be ~~are~~^{occur} by three main methods:-

- (i) Temperature
- (ii) Salt
- (iii) pH.

Temperature affecting DNA denaturation:

When a DNA solution is heated up to approximately (or) 90°C or above, there will be enough kinetic energy produced causing denaturation of the DNA completely forming two single strands.

The temperature at which 50% of double stranded DNA (dsDNA) is converted to single stranded DNA is called melting temperature (T_m).

The higher T_m , the greater the G=C content.

The DNA denaturation can be accelerated by using certain chemical reagents maintain urea and formamide. The chemical enhances the aqueous solubility of purines and pyrimidines. This separation of double helix DNA is called melting as it occurs abruptly at the certain characteristic temperature called T_m or denaturation temperature.

The melting of DNA can be followed ~~spectro~~ spectrophotometrically by monitoring the absorbance of DNA at 260nm .

The melting temperature (T_m) is analogous to the melting point of DNA crystal. The T_m value depends on the nature of the DNA. When several samples of DNA are melted, it is found that the T_m is highest for those DNA which have G≡C content. Thus the value is used to estimate the percentage of G≡C in a DNA sample. The T_m depends on both the length of the DNA and the specific nucleotide sequence composition of that DNA molecule.

The G≡C pair is bounded by three hydrogen bonds, while A=T pair is bounded by two hydrogen bonds.

DNA with high G≡C content is more stable than DNA with low G≡C content. Higher G≡C content indicates higher melting temperature.

Denaturation involves the following changes of DNA property:

(a) Increases in absorption of UV light:— When denaturation is followed spectrophoto metrically by monitoring the absorbance of light at 260 nm, it is observed that the absorbance at 260 nm increases when DNA become denatured. This phenomenon is called hyperchromic effect or hyperchromicity. This increasing absorbance is due to the un-stacking of base pairs.

(11) Decrease in Specific Optical Rotation:
 Double stranded DNA (dsDNA) shows ~~after~~ a strong positive rotation which highly decreases with denaturation. This change is analogous to the change in rotation observed when the proteins are denatured.

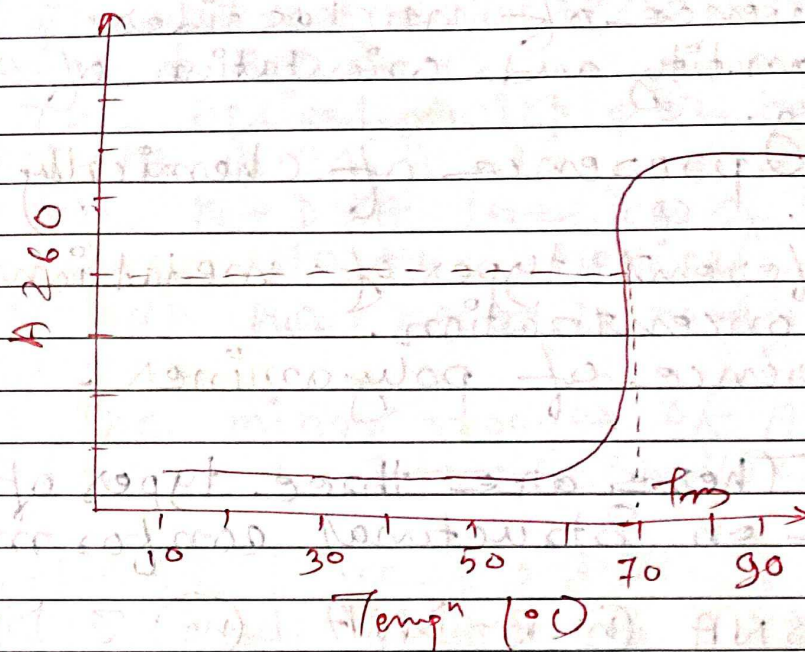
(12) Decrease in Viscosity:

The solutions of native DNA exhibit high viscosity, because of the relatively rigid double helical, long and rod like structure of DNA molecule. Denaturation causes significant decrease in viscosity.

Effect of pH on the denaturation of DNA:

Denaturation occurs at acidic and alkaline solution when ionic changes of purines and pyrimidine bases occur. In acidic solution of (pH = 2-3) the amino group binds with protons and the DNA double helix is disrupted.

Similarly, alkaline solutions (pH = 12) the enolic hydroxyl (OH) group ionize, thus preventing the keto-amino hydrogen bonding.



Types of DNA

DNA molecule can't be accommodated perfectly in the nucleus or cell as linear conformation. Almost all the cells from simple bacteria to complex eukaryotes the DNA must be compacted by more than 1000 folds in order to fit inside the cell or nucleus. Based on X-ray crystallography of short pieces of synthetic DNA, it has shown that there is considerable variance of the helical structure of DNA, based on the sequence.

DNA can adopt different types of structural conformations.

The various types of conformations that DNA can adopt depends on various factors. Such as -

- ① Level of hydration.
- ② Salt concentration.
- ③ Sequence of nucleotides.
- ④ Quantity and orientation of super coiling.
- ⑤ presence of chemically modified bases.
- ⑥ Different types of metal ions and its concentration.
- ⑦ presence of polyamines.

There are three types of DNA based on structural conformation:

- ① A-DNA
- ② B-DNA
- ③ Z-DNA

A-DNA: It is a rare type of structural conformation of DNA under dehydrating conditions. A-DNA is dsDNA (helical structure) with a shorter and more compact structural organization compared to B-DNA.

Structural features of A-DNA:-

- ① A-DNA is formed from B-DNA under dehydrating condition.
- ② A-DNA is much wider than B-DNA.
- ③ It is a right handed helix. Therefore called right handed DNA.
- ④ The diameter of A-DNA is 26 \AA .
- ⑤ The pitch of the helix of A-DNA is 28.6 \AA .
- ⑥ A-DNA is 20-25% shorter than B-DNA.

- (7) A-DNA containing 11-6 base pair per turn.
- (8) The distance betⁿ adjacent base pairs is 3.9 Å.
- (9) The helical twist per base pair in A-DNA is 34°.
- (10) In A-DNA the base pair are inclined to the helical axis.
- (11) A-DNA has narrow and deep major grooves.
- (12) The minor grooves of A-DNA are wider and short shallow.

B-DNA: The B-DNA is most common and abundant pre-dominant type of structural conformation of DNA in the cells. B-DNA was described by James Watson and Crick in 1953.

Structural features of B-DNA:-

- (1) Majority of the DNA found in a cell is in B-DNA conformation.
- (2) In B-DNA the N-base occupied at the core whereas the sugar-phosphate back bone occurs at the periphery of the helix.
- (3) B-DNA is right handed helix.
- (4) Each base pair in B-DNA has the same width.
- (5) The helical diameter of B-DNA is 20 Å.
- (6) Each turn in B-DNA consist of 10 base pairs (BP).
- (7) The distance betⁿ in adjacent base pair 3.4 Å.

- ⑧ Each base pair in B-DNA have a helical twist of 36° .
- ⑨ The plane of inter-strand hydrogen bonds are perpendicular to the helical axis.
- ⑩ The major groove of B-DNA is wide and deep.
- ⑪ Minor groove of B-DNA is narrow and deep.
- ⑫ The glycosidic bond conformation in B-DNA is anti form.

Structural features of Z-DNA:

- ① Z-DNA has a left handed double helical conformation, where the double helix winds to the left in a zig-zag pattern.
- ② The DNA strand has a complementary nucleotides with alternating purine and pyrimidines, thus forming Z-DNA conformation at high salt conc.
- ③ The helical diameter of Z-DNA is 18Å.
- ④ The Z-DNA was discovered by Andres Wang and Alexander Rich. It is the one of the biologically active forms of DNA found in vivo.

Cot curve analysis:

It is a technique used to measuring the complexity of DNA or genome. This technique was discovered by Roy Britten and Eric Davidson in 1960. This technique is based on the principle of DNA Renaturation.

DNA Renaturation kinetics = The rate at which heat-denatured DNA will re-associates which depends on DNA concentration, cation concⁿ and viscosity.

The principle of cot curve analysis:

The rate at which a particular sequence of a DNA re-associates or re-aniling is proportional to the number of times of the sequence found in the DNA or genome. Given enough time all the DNA that is denatured will re-associate in a given DNA sample.

The more the repetitive sequences, the less will be the time taken for renaturation.

Procedure of cot curve analysis:

This technique involved denaturation of DNA by heating and allowed to re-association by cooling. The re-association of DNA is passed by ster. microscopically. The large DNA molecule takes longer time to re-naturation.

cot value:-

The renaturation of DNA depends on the following factors:

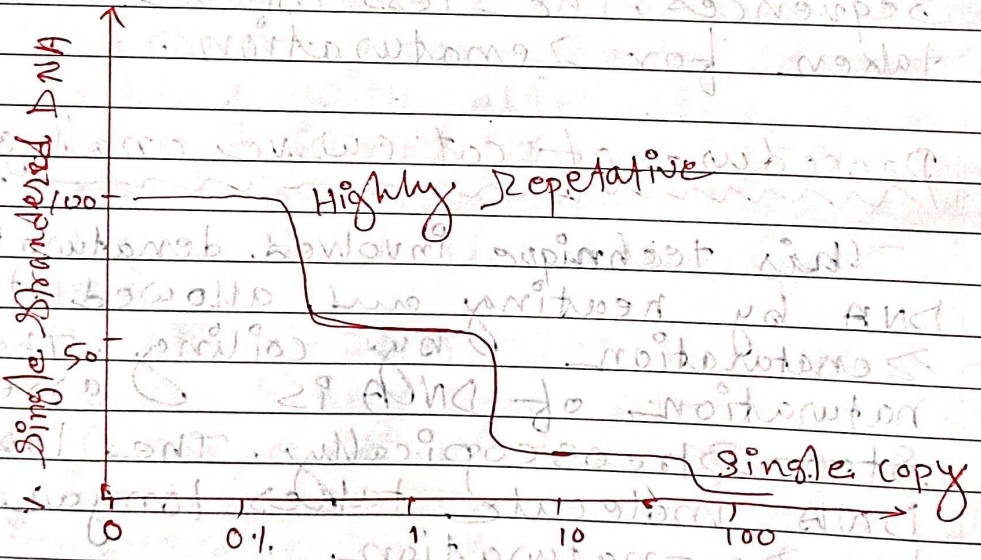
- (1) DNA concentration.
- (2) Renaturation Temperature.
- (3) Cation concentration.
- (4) Viscosity.

$Cot = \text{DNA conc}^n \text{ (mole/L)} \times \text{Renaturation time (in second)} \times \text{Buffer factor}$
 (Account for the effect of cations on the speed of renaturation)

$C_0 = \text{conc}^n \text{ of DNA before denaturation.}$
 $t = \text{time taken for renaturation.}$

Low Cot value indicate more number of repetitive sequence.

High Cot value indicate less number of repetitive sequence or more number of unique sequence.



Example of Cot value:

Nucleotide concentration (C_0) = 0.05M
 Renaturation time (t) = 344 sec
 Buffer factor (SPB) = (0.5M) = 5.820
 Cot value = $C_0 \times t \times \text{buffer factor}$
 $= 0.05 \times 344 \times 5.820$
 $= 100.00$

Applications of Cot analysis:

- (i) Determination of genome size and complexity.
- (ii) Determination of complexity of sequences in DNA or genome.
- (iii) Determination of the relative proportion of single copy and repetitive sequence.

Types of RNA:-

There are different types of RNA describe below:-

(i) Coding RNA (messenger RNA - mRNA):

Messenger RNA carries the genetic code from DNA in a form that can be recognized to make proteins.

(ii) Non-coding RNA (ncRNA):

Ribosomal RNA is the catalytic component of the ribosomes. In the cytoplasm, rRNA and protein components combine to form a nucleoprotein complex called the ribosomes which binds mRNA and synthesizes protein.

(iii) Small nuclear RNAs (snRNA): (150nt)

Small nuclear RNAs are always associated with a group of specific proteins to form the complexes referred to as "small nuclear ribonucleoproteins" (snRNA) in the nucleus.

Their primary function is to process the precursor mRNA.

④ Small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNA; 60-300 nt)

Small nucleolar RNAs are components of small nucleolar ribonucleoproteins (snoRNA), which are complexes that are responsible for sequence-specific ~~new~~ nucleotide modification.

⑤ Piwi-interacting RNAs (piRNA; 24-30 nt)

Piwi-interacting RNAs bind the PIWI subfamily proteins that are involved in maintaining genome stability in germline cells.

⑥ MicroRNAs (miRNA; 21-22 nt)

MicroRNA are small ncRNAs of ~22 nucleotides (nt) and the most widely studied class of ncRNAs.

⑦ Long noncoding RNAs (lncRNA)

Long noncoding RNAs are a heterogeneous group of non-coding transcripts larger than 200 nt in size.