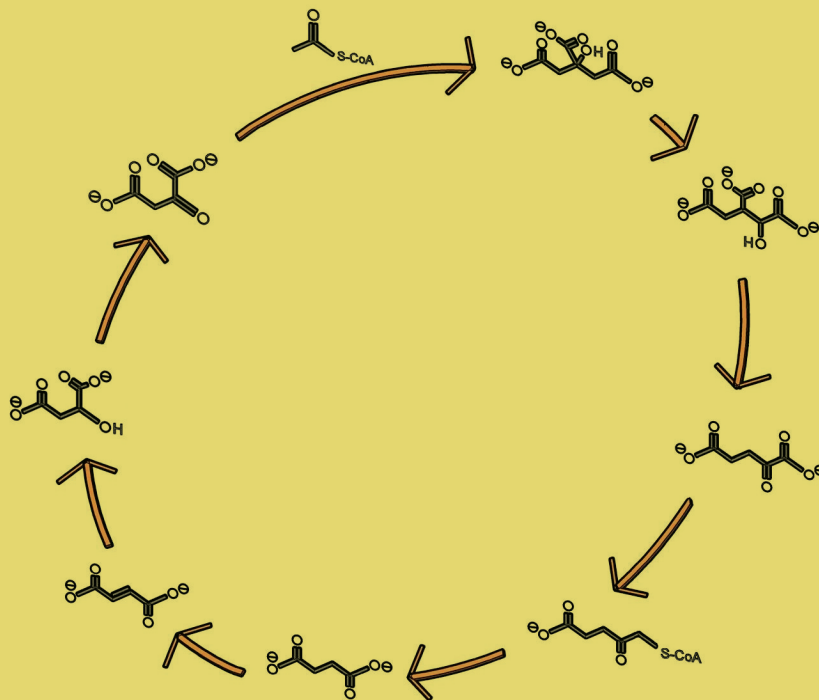


Enzymes Involved in Glycolysis, Fatty Acid and Amino Acid Biosynthesis: Active Site Mechanisms and Inhibition



Marco Brito-Arias

Bentham Books

**Enzymes Involved in Glycolysis,
Fatty Acid and Amino Acid
Biosynthesis:
Active Site Mechanism and
Inhibition**

Authored by

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CONTENTS

PREFACE	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:	i
CONFLICT OF INTEREST:	i
CHAPTER 1 GLYCOLYSIS	1
1. ENZYMES AND THEIR INHIBITORS INVOLVED IN THE GLYCOLYSIS PATHWAY	4
1.1. Hexokinase (HK)	4
1.2. Hexokinase Inhibitors	6
1.3. Phosphoglucose Isomerase (PGI)	7
1.4. Phosphoglucose isomerase Inhibitors	9
1.5. Phosphofructokinase (PFK)	10
1.6. Phosphofructokinase (PFK) Inhibitors	13
1.7. Fructose Biphosphate Aldolase (FBP Aldolase)	13
1.8. Fructose Biphosphate Aldolase Inhibitors	15
1.9. Triosephosphate Isomerase (TIM)	16
1.10. Triosephosphate Isomerase (TPI) Inhibitors	18
1.11. Glyceraldehyde Phosphate Dehydrogenase (GAPDH)	19
1.12. Glyceraldehyde Phosphate Dehydrogenase (GAPDH) Inhibitors	19
1.13. Phosphoglycerate Kinase (PGK)	23
1.14. Phosphoglycerate Kinase Inhibitors	24
1.15. Bisphosphoglycerate Mutase (BPGM)	24
1.16. Phosphoglycerate Mutase (PGM)	25
1.17. Phosphoglycerate Mutase Inhibitors	26
1.18. Enolase (ENO)	27
1.19. Enolase Inhibitors	29
1.20. Pyruvate Kinase (PK)	30
1.21. Piruvate Kinase Inhibitors	31
CHAPTER 2 CITRIC ACID CYCLE (KREBS)	34
1. ENZYMES INVOLVED IN THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE	34
1.1. Citrate Synthase (CS)	34
1.2. Citrate Synthase Inhibitors	37
1.3. Aconitase (Citrate-isocitrate Hydroxylase)	37
1.4. Aconitase Inhibitors	38
1.5. Isocitrate Dehydrogenase (IDH)	40
1.6. Isocitrate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	42
1.7. α -Keto Glutarate Dehydrogenase (KGD)	44
1.8. α -Keto Glutarate Dehydrogenase Inhibition	46
1.9. Succinyl-CoA Synthetase or Succinyl-CoA Ligase	47
1.10. Succinyl-CoA Synthetase Inhibitors	49
1.11. Succinate Dehydrogenase (SDH) or Succinate-coenzyme Q Reductase (SQR)	49
1.12. Succinate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	51
1.13. Fumarate Hydratase or Fumarase	51
1.14. Fumarate Hydratase Inhibitors	53
1.15. Malate Dehydrogenase (MDH)	53
1.16. Malate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	56
CHAPTER 3 FATTY ACID BIOSYNTHESIS	57
1. ENZYMES INVOLVED IN THE LIPOGENESIS	61
1.1. Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Complex (PDC)	61

1.2. Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	63
1.3. Citrate Synthase (CS)	65
1.4. Citrate Synthase Inhibitors	67
1.5. ATP-citrate Lyase (ACLY)	67
1.6. ATP-citrate Lyase Inhibitors	69
1.7. Ketoacyl Synthase (KAS)	70
1.8. Ketoacyl Synthase Inhibitors	73
1.9. Stearoyl-CoA Desaturase (SCD)	74
1.10. Stearoyl-CoA Desaturase (SCD) Inhibitors	76
2. SYNTHESIS OF TRIACYLGLYCEROL (TRIGLYCERIDES)	78
2.1. Glycerol Kinase (GLPK)	80
2.2. Glycerol Kinase Inhibitors	81
2.3. Glycerol-3-phosphate Acyltransferase (GPAT)	82
2.4. Glycerol-3-phosphate Acyltransferase (GPAT) Inhibitors	84
2.5. Acylglycerophosphate Acyltransferase (AGPAT or LPAAT)	84
2.6. Acylglycerophosphate Acyltransferase Inhibitors	85
2.7. Phosphatidic Acid Phosphohydrolase (PAP)	86
2.8. Phosphatidic Acid Phosphohydrolase Inhibitors	86
2.9. Diacylglycerol Acyltransferase (DGAT)	87
2.9. Diacylglycerol Acyltransferase Inhibitors	87
2.10. The Kennedy Pathway	88
CHAPTER 4 AMINOACID BIOSYNTHESIS	90
1. GLYCINE BIOSYNTHESIS	90
1.1. Serine Hydroxyl Methyl Transferase (SHMT)	95
1.2. Serine Hydroxymethyl Transferase Inhibitors	96
2. ALANINE BIOSYNTHESIS	97
2.1. Pyridoxamine-pyruvate Aminotransferase (PPAT)	98
2.2. Pyridoxamine-pyruvate Aminotransferase Inhibitors	99
3. VALINE BIOSYNTHESIS	100
3.1. Acetohydroxyacid Synthase (AHAS)	101
3.2. Acetohydroxyacid Synthase Inhibitors	103
3.3. Ketol-acid Reductoisomerase (KARI)	103
3.4. Ketol-Acid Reductoisomerase Inhibitors	105
3.5. Dihydroxy Acid Dehydratase (DAD)	106
3.6. Dihydroxy Acid Dehydratase Inhibitors	108
3.7. Branched Chain Amino Acid Aminotransferase (BCAT)	108
3.8. Branched Chain Amino Acid Aminotransferase Inhibitors	110
4. LEUCINE BIOSYNTHESIS	111
4.1. α -Isopropylmalate Synthase (IPMS)	112
4.2. α -Isopropylmalate Synthase Inhibition	114
4.3. α -Isopropylmalate Isomerase (IPMI)	115
4.4. α -Isopropylmalate Isomerase Inhibitors	117
4.5. α -Isopropylmalate Dehydrogenase (IPMD)	118
4.6. α -Isopropylmalate Dehydrogenase Inhibition	119
5. ISOLEUCINE BIOSYNTHESIS	120
6. PHENYLALANINE BIOSYNTHESIS	121
6.1. 3-Deoxy-D-Arabinoseheptulosonate 7-Phosphate Synthase (DAHPS)	123
6.2. Dehydroquinase Synthase (DHQS)	125
6.3. Dehydroquinase Synthase Inhibitors	127
6.4. Dehydroquinase Dehydratase (DHQD)	128

6.5. Dehydroquinate Dehydratase Inhibitors	130
6.6. Shikimate Dehydrogenase (SD)	131
6.7. Shikimate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	133
6.8. Shikimate Kinase (SK)	134
6.9. Shikimate Kinase Inhibitors	135
6.10. Enolpyruvisylshikimate Phosphate Synthase (EPSP)	137
6.11. Enolpyruvisylshikimate Phosphate Synthase Inhibitors	138
6.12. Chorismate Synthase (CS)	139
6.13. Chorismate Synthase Inhibitors	141
6.14. Chorismate Mutase (CM)	142
6.15. Chorismate Mutase Inhibitors	145
6.16. Prephenate aminotransferase (PAT)	146
6.17. Prephenate Aminotransferase Inhibitors	149
6.18. Arogenate Dehydratase (ADT)	149
7. TYROSINE BIOSYNTHESIS	150
7.1. Arogenate Dehydrogenase (ADH)	151
8. SERINE BIOSYNTHESIS	152
8.1. Phosphoglycerate Dehydrogenase (PGDH)	153
8.2. Phosphoglycerate Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	154
8.3. Phosphoserine Aminotransferase (PSAT)	155
8.4. Phosphoserine Aminotransferase Inhibitors	157
8.5. Phosphoserine Phosphatase (PSP)	158
8.6. Phosphoserine Phosphatase Inhibitors	160
9. THREONINE BIOSYNTHESIS	161
9.1. Aspartate Kinase (AK)	162
9.1.1. Catalytic Domain Regulatory Domain	164
9.2. Aspartate Kinase Inhibitors	165
9.3. Aspartate- β -Semiaidehyde Dehydrogenase (ASD)	166
9.4. Aspartate- β -Semiaidehyde Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	168
9.5. Homoserine Dehydrogenase (HSD)	169
9.6. Homoserine Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	171
9.7. Homoserine Kinase (HSK)	171
9.8. Homoserine Kinase Inhibitors	172
9.9. Threonine Synthase (TS)	173
9.10. Threonine Synthase Inhibitors	175
10. CYSTEINE BIOSYNTHESIS	175
10.1. Serine Acetyltransferase (SAT)	176
10.2. Serine Acetyltransferase Inhibitors	178
10.3. O-acetylserine sulfhydrylase (OASS)	178
10.4. O-acetylserine Sulfhydrylase Inhibitors	181
10.5. Methionine Adenosy Transferase (MAT)	184
10.6. Methionine Adenosy Transferase Inhibitors	185
10.7. S-adenosyl homocysteine hydrolase (SAH)	186
10.8. S-Adenosyl Homocysteine Hydrolase Inhibitors	188
10.9. Cystathionine- β -Synthase (CBS)	189
10.10. Cystathionine- β -Synthase Inhibitors	191
10.11. Cystathionine Gamma-Lyase (CGL)	193
10.12. Cystathionine Gamma-Lyase Inhibitors	195
10.13. Cysteine Deoxygenase (CDO)	196
10.14. Cysteine Sulfinic Acid Decarboxylase (CSAD)	197
10.15. Cysteine Sulfinic Acid Decarboxylase Inhibitors	198

11. Tryptophan Biosynthesis	199
11.1. Anthranilate Synthase (AS)	199
11.2. Anthranilate Synthase Inhibitors	201
11.3. Anthranilate Phosphoribosyl Transferase (ANPRT)	202
11.4. Anthranilate Phosphoribosyl Transferase Inhibitors	203
11.5. Phosphoribosyl Anthranilate Isomerase (PRAI)	203
11.6. Phosphoribosyl Anthranilate Isomerase Inhibitors	205
11.7. Indole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase (IGPS)	205
11.8. Indole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase Inhibitors	207
11.9. Tryptophan Synthase (TS)	207
11.10. Tryptophan Synthase Inhibitors	210
12. HISTIDINE BIOSYNTHESIS	210
12.1. ATP Phosphoribosyl Transferase (HISG)	213
12.2. ATP Phosphoribosyl Transferase Inhibitors	215
12.3. Phosphoribosyl-ATP Pyrophosphohydrolase (HISE)	216
12.4. Phosphoribosyl-ATP Pyrophosphohydrolase Inhibitors	218
12.5. Phosphoribosyl-Amp Cyclohydrolase (Hisi)	218
12.6. Phosphoribosyl-AMP Cyclohydrolase Inhibitors	220
12.7. 5'Profar Isomerase (HISA)	221
12.8. Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase (HISF/HISH)	222
12.9. Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase Inhibitors	226
12.10. Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Dehydratase (Hisb)	227
12.11. Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Dehydratase Inhibitors	229
12.12. Histidinol Phosphate Aminotransferase (Hisc)	230
12.13. Histidinol Phosphate Aminotransferase Inhibitors	231
12.14. Histidinol Phosphate Phosphatase (HPP)	232
12.15. Histidinol Phosphate Phosphatase Inhibitors	234
12.16. Histidinol Dehydrogenase (HISD)	235
12.17. Histidinol Dehydrogenase Inhibitors	237
13. PROLINE BIOSYNTHESIS	238
13.1. Glutamate 5-Kinase (G5K)	239
13.2. Glutamate 5-Kinase Inhibitors	240
13.3. γ -Glutamyl Phosphate Reductase (GPR)	241
13.4. γ -Pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase (P5CR)	242
14. Arginine Biosynthesis	243
14.1. Argininosuccinate Synthase (ASS1)	244
14.2. Argininosuccinate Synthase Inhibitors	247
14.3. Argininosuccinate Lyase (ASL)	247
14.4. Argininosuccinate Lyase Inhibitors	250
15. Lysine Biosynthesis	251
15.1. Dihydrodipicolinate Synthase (DHDPS)	253
15.2. Dihydrodipicolinate Synthase Inhibitors	255
15.3. Dihydrodipicolinate Reductase (DHDPR)	256
15.4. Dihydrodipicolinate Reductase Inhibitors	258
15.5. Tetrahydrodipicolinate N-Succinyltransferase (THDP)	258
15.6. Tetrahydrodipicolinate N-Succinyltransferase Inhibitors	260
15.7. Succinyl-A-Amino-E-Ketopimelate-Glutamate Aminotransferase (DAP-AT).	260
15.8. Succinyl-A-Amino-E-Ketopimelate-Glutamate Aminotransferase Inhibitors	263
15.9. N-Acyldiaminopimelate Deacylase (N-Acyldap)	263
15.10. N-Acyldiaminopimelate Deacylase Inhibitors	265
15.11. Diaminopimelate Epimerase (DAPE)	266

15.12. Diaminopimelate Epimerase Inhibitors	268
15.13. Diaminopimelate Decarboxylase (DAPDC)	268
15.14. Diaminopimelate Decarboxylase Inhibitors	270
15.15. Lysine Biosynthesis From A-Aminoadipate.	271
16. ASPARTATE, ASPARAGINE AND GLUTAMATE BIOSYNTHESIS	272
16.1. Aspartate Aminotransferase (AT)	273
16.2. Aspartate Aminotransferase Inhibitors	275
16.3. Asparagine Synthetase (AS)	276
16.4. Asparagine Synthetase Inhibitors	278
17. GLUTAMINE AND GLUTATHIONE BIOSYNTHESIS	279
17.1. Glutamate Cysteine Ligase (GCL)	281
17.2. Glutamate Cysteine Ligase Inhibitors	282
17.3. Glutathione Synthetase (GS)	283
17.4. Glutathione Disulphide Reductase (GDR)	284
17.5. Glutathione Reductase Inhibitors	286
REFERENCES	288
SUBJECT INDEX	313

PREFACE

The present book entitled “*Enzymes Involved in Glycolysis, Fatty Acid and Amino Acid Biosynthesis: Active Site Mechanism and Inhibition*” comprehends a thorough revision about the known reaction mechanism occurring between the enzymes related to the mentioned biosynthetic pathways with their substrates, cofactors and residues. Different disciplines provide a wealth of knowledge including crystallographic studies, kinetic studies, docking, genetic mutagenesis and biochemistry. The knowledge about the reaction mechanism is primordial to understand in a better way the normal functioning of the cell process, which is used as a starting point for preventing or to correct pathologies. Currently, the drug design relies strongly on the understanding of the interaction between the substrates or ligands with the amino acid residues and derived from these studies, a wealth of potent inhibitors have emerged for the treatment of several diseases such as cancer, tuberculosis, anti-parasitic, and also importantly metabolic syndrome alterations such as diabetes and obesity.

The enzymatic reaction mechanism includes aldolase, isomerase, kinase, mutase, synthase, dehydrogenase, reductase, transferase, hydrolase, lyase *etc.*, all of them widespread in all biochemical transformations.

This book pretends to serve as a tool for professionals involved in pharmaceutical, health, food and other related disciplines, providing well known, and key insights of the reaction mechanism occurring at the molecular level between the biological catalyst and the chemical ligands and how the transformation occurs within the cell.

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Glycolysis

Abstract: The biochemical process known as glycolysis is a fundamental pathway, which allow the glucose to be transformed into energy (ATP) and pyruvate. During this process the glucose is first phosphorylated at the 6th position, then converted to fructose by the phosphoglucose isomerase and phosphorylated to fructose 1,6-biphosphate. The next steps involve the bond cleavage by the enzyme fructose biphosphate aldolase to dihydroxyacetone phosphate and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate, which can be converted from the keto to the aldehyde by the enzyme triose phosphate isomerase. A second phosphorylation of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate takes place by the enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase in the presence of NAD⁺ and Pi providing 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate. The next step was mediated by the enzyme phosphoglycerate kinase to produce ATP and 3-phosphoglycerate which undergoes phosphate migration producing 2-phosphoglycerate. Further dehydration mediated by the enzyme enolase produce phosphoenolpyruvate which is finally converted by the enzyme pyruvate kinase to pyruvate and the release of a second ATP molecule.

Keywords: ATP molecules, Biphosphate, Dehydration.

The biochemical process known as glycolysis is a fundamental pathway, which allows the glucose to be transformed into energy (ATP) and pyruvate. The glycolytic pathway occurs in either prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells, however in bacteria, the common pathway is known as the Entner-Doudoroff pathway (ED) while in eukaryotes, the glycolysis follows the Embden-Meyerhoff-Parnas (EMP) pathway (Fig. 1) [1].

In cancer cells, the glycolytic pathway is affected significantly since tumor cells consume much higher amounts of glucose than normal cells, which is known as the Warburg effect [2]. The Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas pathway is the glycolytic pathway used by mammals, consisting of the initial phosphorylation of glucose at the 6th position, consuming the first ATP molecule to produce glucose-6-phosphate (G6P), being catalysed by the enzyme hexokinase (HK). Next, an isomerization process takes place under the catalysis of phosphoglucose isomerase (PGI) converting the pyranose into a furanose ring, resulting in the formation of fructose 6-phosphate (F6P). Then, a second phosphorylation reaction at position 1 occurs, requiring an ATP molecule, and catalysed by the enzyme ph-

osphofructokinase (PFK), to provide fructose 1,6-diphosphate (F1,6DP) which is cleaved into dihydroxyacetone (DHAP) and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (G3P) by the catalysis of fructose biphosphate aldolase (FBP).

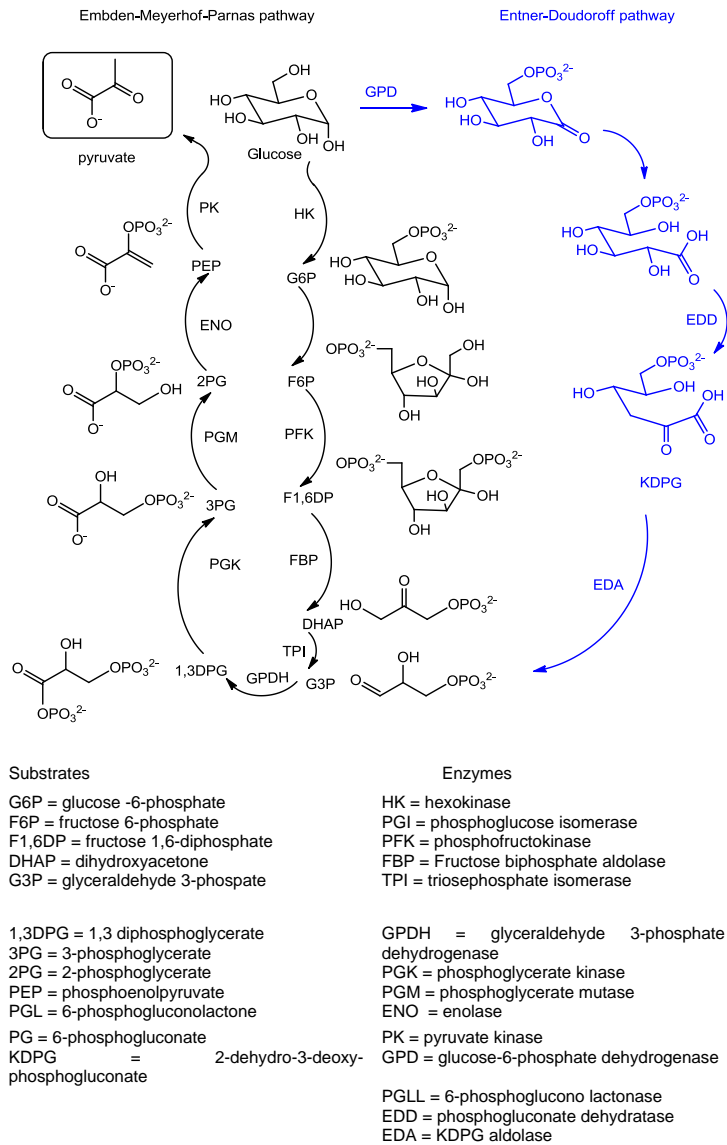


Fig. (1). The Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas and Entner-Doudoroff as the main glycolytic pathways in prokaryote and eukaryote cells.

The next steps involve inter-conversion from DHAP to the G3P by the enzyme triose phosphate isomerase (TPI). Second phosphorylation of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate proceeds by the enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAP) in the presence of NAD^+ and P_i providing 1,3 diphosphoglycerate (1,3DPG). The next step is mediated by the enzyme phosphoglycerate kinase to produce the first ATP molecule and 3-phosphoglycerate which undergoes phosphate migration producing 2-phosphoglycerate. Further, dehydration mediated by the enzyme enolase produces phosphoenolpyruvate which is finally converted by the enzyme pyruvate kinase to pyruvate, leading to the generation of a second ATP molecule. It is important to notice that the overall energy yield is two ATPs, considering that one glucose consumes two ATPs to form fructose-1,6-diphosphate (F1,6DP), and then the cleavage of each F1,6DP produces two three-carbon molecules G3P and DHAP, each of them producing two ATP molecules (Fig. 2).

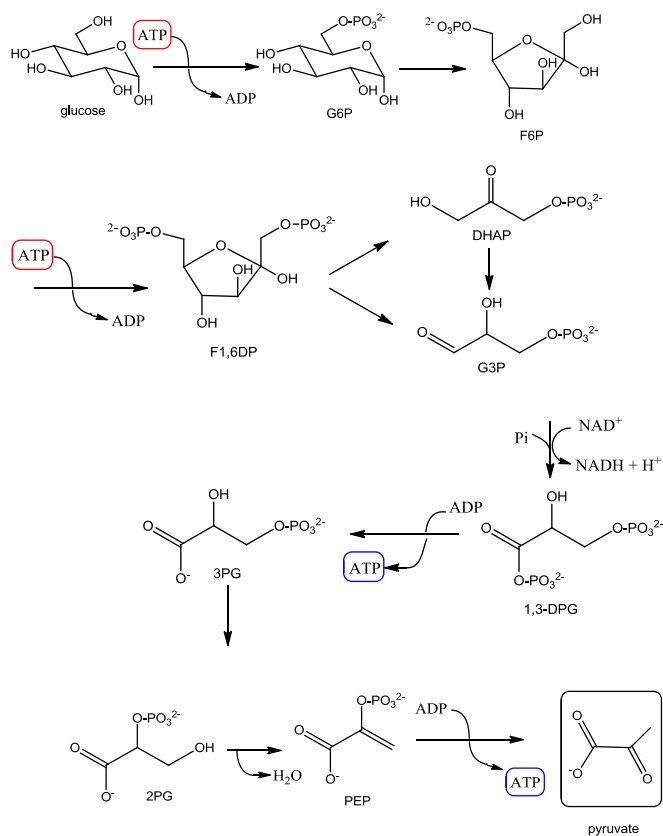


Fig. (2). The Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas pathway showing the intermediates and the steps where ATP is consumed and produced.

Citric Acid Cycle (Krebs)

This is an essential process considered a second step on the respiratory chain, consisting of a series of eight reactions that will produce 8 electrons transported by 3 NADH/H⁺ and 1 FADH₂ molecules, aside from an ATP molecule.

The cycle begins with the condensation of acetyl-CoA with oxaloacetate catalysed by citrate synthase to form citrate, a six-carbon molecule and CoA. Next, a dehydration reaction by aconitase occurs to produce cis-aconitate, which by the addition of a water molecule is converted to D-isocitrate. This citrate isomer is oxidized by NAD⁺ and transformed to α -ketoglutarate by isocitrate dehydrogenase, along with the formation of a second molecule of NADH/H⁺ and CO₂. A condensing reaction between α -ketoglutarate and CoA catalysed by α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase resulted in the formation of succinyl-CoA, NADH/H⁺ and CO₂. The succinyl-CoA is hydrolysed by succinyl-CoA synthase to give succinate, CoA, and one ATP or GTP molecule. The succinate is oxidized to fumarate by succinate dehydrogenase in the presence of FAD as an electron acceptor to produce FADH₂. Then, fumarate is converted to malate by the enzyme fumarase, and finally, oxidation of the hydroxyl group to the ketone by malate dehydrogenase to provide oxaloacetate and the third molecule of NADH/H⁺, completing the cycle (Fig. 51).

1. ENZYMES INVOLVED IN THE CITRIC ACID CYCLE

1.1. Citrate Synthase (CS)

The first step of the citric acid cycle consisting of the Claisen condensation between acetyl-CoA with oxaloacetate catalysed by citrate synthase to give the intermediate citryl CoA which is hydrolysed to citrate and coenzyme A (Fig. 52) [48].

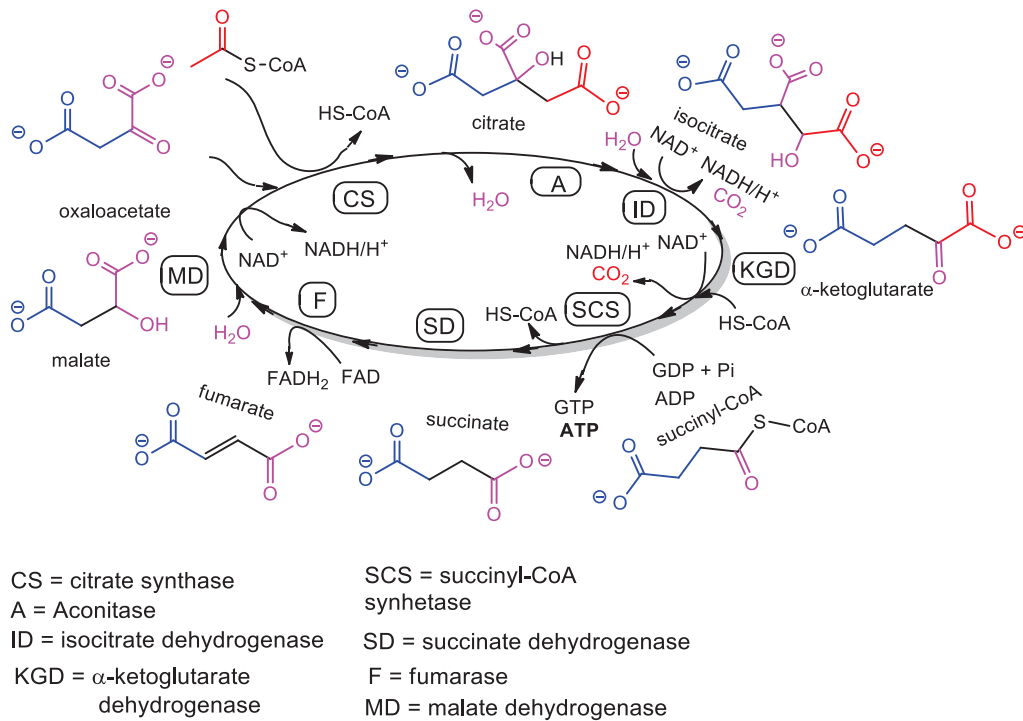


Fig. (51). The citric acid cycle.

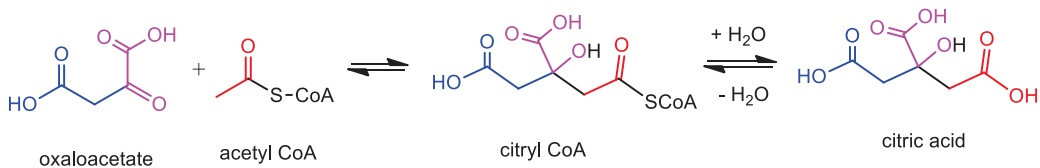
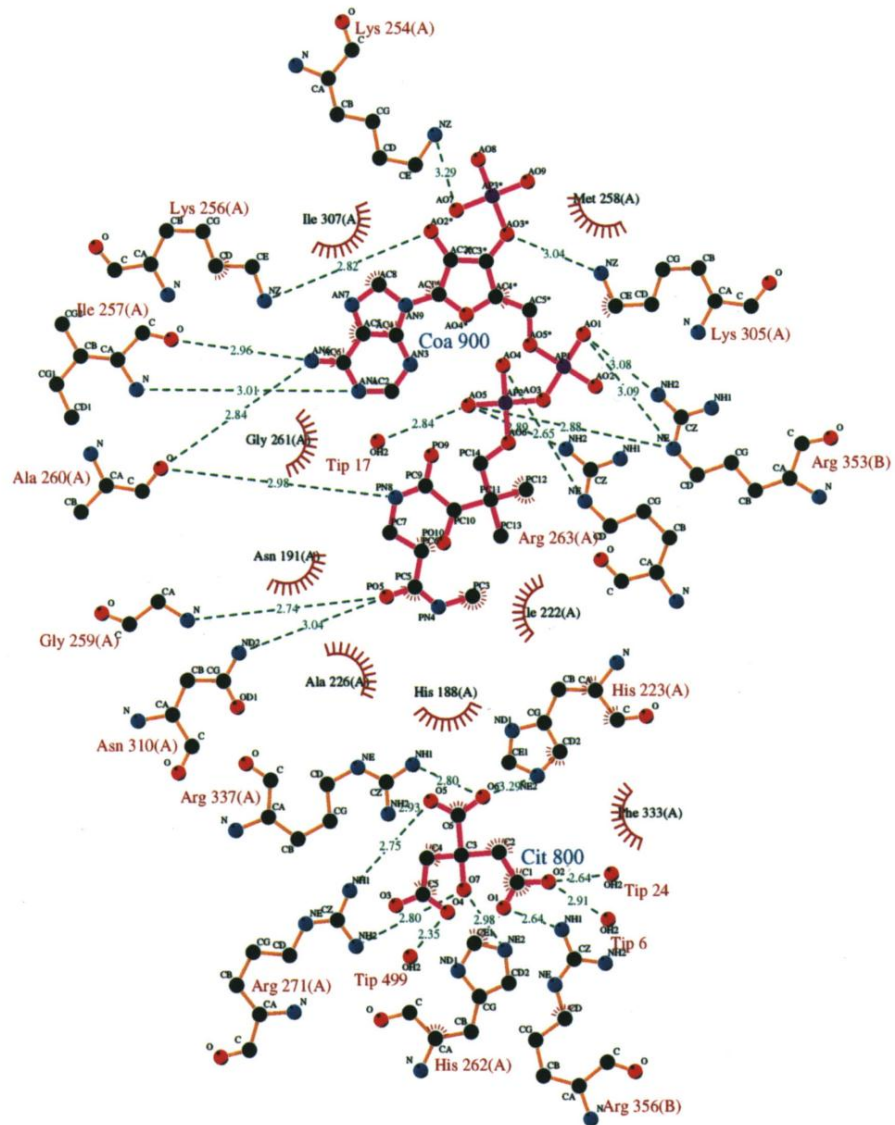


Fig. (52). The citrate synthase reaction.

The crystal structure of CS from different species such as pig, chicken, eukaryotes, bacteria gram-positive, and archaea have been solved as dimeric structures, except from gram-negative bacteria characterized as hexameric structure. The citrate synthase from *Antarctic bacterium* strain DS2-3R (*DsCS*) was compared with Hyperthermophilic archaeon *Pyrococcus furiosus* (*PfCS*) showing 40% identity. At the binding site, *PfCS* citrate ligand is bound to His223, His262, and Arg271, Arg337, Arg356), while the binding of CoA to Lys254, Lys256, Lys305, Ile257, Ala260, Gly259, Asn310, Arg263, Arg353 [49]. The surface representation of the active site for *DsCS* with citrate and CoA in the active site are represented in Fig. (53) [50].



Key

-  Ligand bond
-  Non-ligand bond
-  Hydrogen bond and its length
-  Non-ligand residues involved in hydrophobic contact(s)
-  Corresponding atoms involved in hydrophobic contact(s)

Fig. 53 cont.....

CHAPTER 3

Fatty Acid Biosynthesis

The fatty acid biosynthesis, also known as lipogenesis, is a process that occurs in the cytosol and its role is the production of the fatty acid palmitate from acetyl-CoA as a starting material. In humans, the process for the *de novo* biosynthesis of long-chain fatty acids is assigned to the cytosolic enzyme human fatty acid synthase (FAS) responsible for the catalysis of palmitate C16 from acetyl-coenzyme A and malonyl-coenzyme A in the presence of NADPH. During the elongation process, the chain is attached to the acyl carrier protein (ACP) and transported to the active site by enzymes known as malonyl-CoA transacylase (MAT or acetyl-CoA being used), β -ketoacyl synthase (KS), β -ketoacyl reductase (KR), dehydratase (DH) and β -enoyl reductase (ER) (Fig. 85).

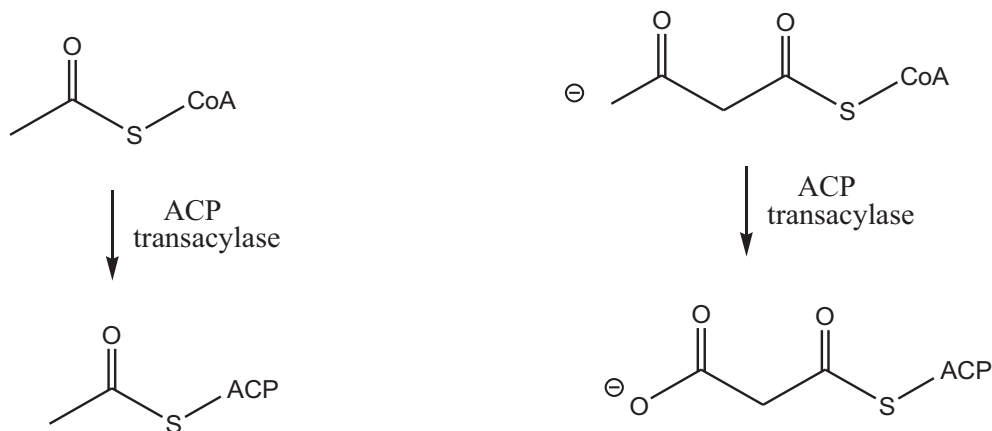


Fig. (85). Transacylation reaction by the acyl carrier protein (ACP)

The initiation process involves the parallel conversion of acetyl-CoA into acetyl-S-ACP, and malonyl-CoA to malonyl-S-ACP by the acyl carrier protein (ACP).

The phosphoryl transfer reaction to convert acetyl-CoA to acetyl-S-ACP involves the post-translational addition of the phosphopantetheine prosthetic group bearing the acyl group to the ACP through a serine residue (Fig. 86) [88].

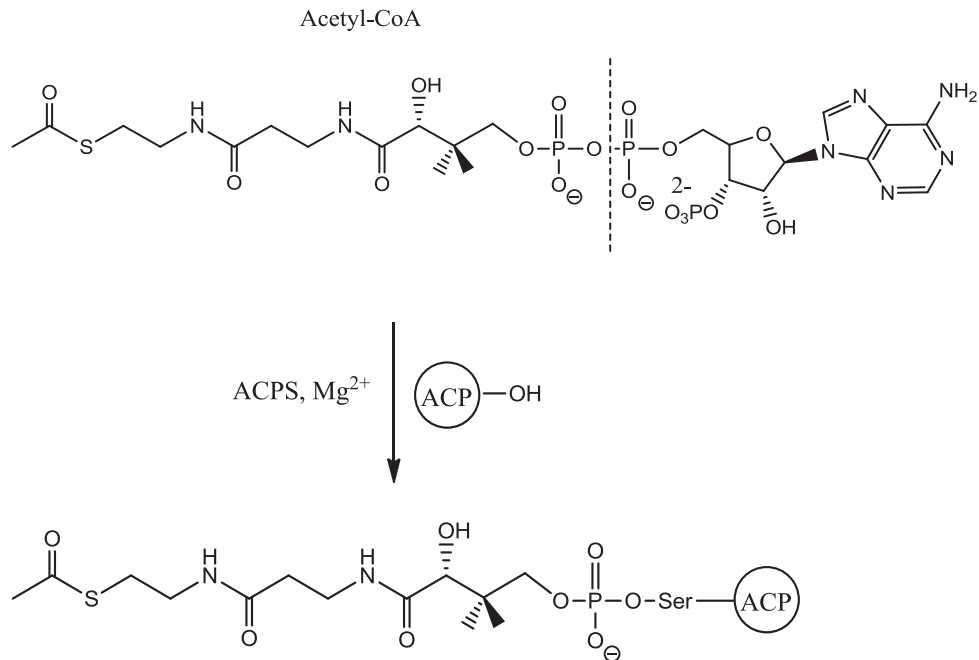


Fig. (86). The phosphoryl transfer reaction to convert acetyl-CoA to acetyl-S-ACP.

The transfer of malonyl-CoA to malonyl-ACP is mediated by the malonyl-CoA:ACP transacylase enzyme (MAT) according to the cycle shown in Fig. (87), involving histidine and serine residues, the later attacking the thioester carbonyl, forming a tetrahedral intermediate, which undergoes proton exchange followed by the attack of ACP-SH to furnish a second tetrahedral intermediate which upon releasing the serine residue provides malonyl-ACP [89].

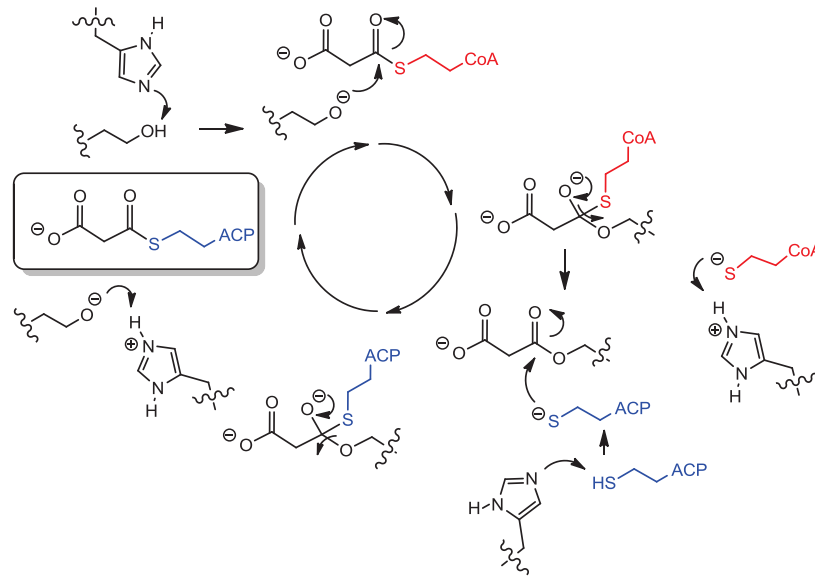


Fig. (87). Full cycle to convert malonyl-CoA to malonyl-ACP.

Malonyl-CoA transacylase (MAT) is a monomer composed of two subdomains, containing at the catalytic site Phe200, Thr56, Gln9, Met126, Arg122, His201, Ser97, Gln60, Val98, Ser97 residues (Fig. 88).

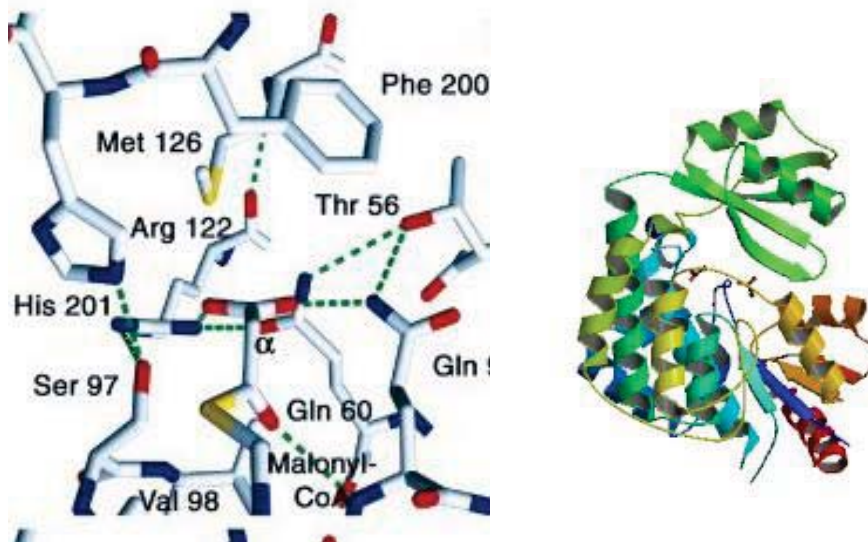


Fig. (88). Crystal structure of malonyl-CoA transacylase and the catalytic site (PDB: 1NM2).

Aminoacid Biosynthesis

Amino acids are biomolecules composed of an amino group and carboxylic acid as common features and different R substituents attached to a chiral carbon with L-configuration for the biologically active enantiomer in humans except for glycine devoid of chirality (Fig. 129). Biosynthetically, the amino acids are derived from glycolysis, Krebs cycle or the pentose phosphate pathway.

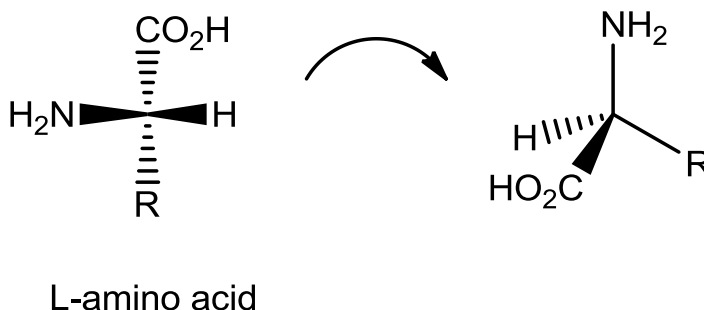
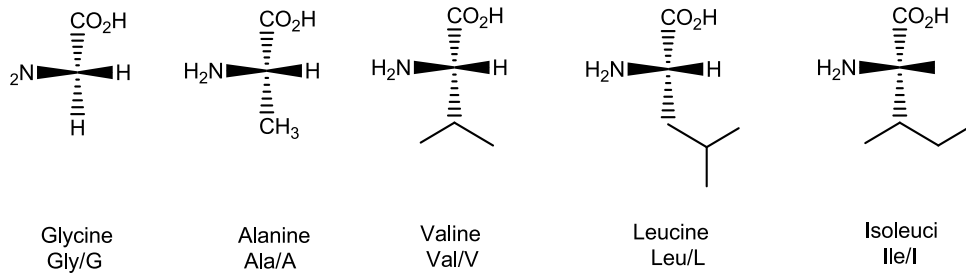


Fig. (129). Tetrahedral projection of amino acids.

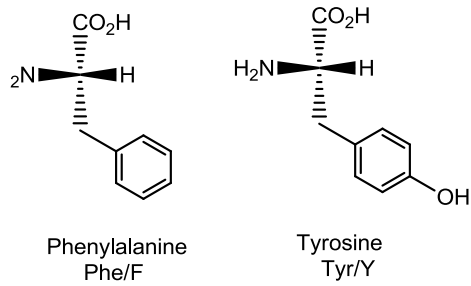
Based on additional functionalities present in the amino acids, they can be classified in aliphatic, aromatic, polar (hydroxyl and thiol groups), cationic, anionic, and heterocyclic groups (Fig. 130).

1. GLYCINE BIOSYNTHESIS

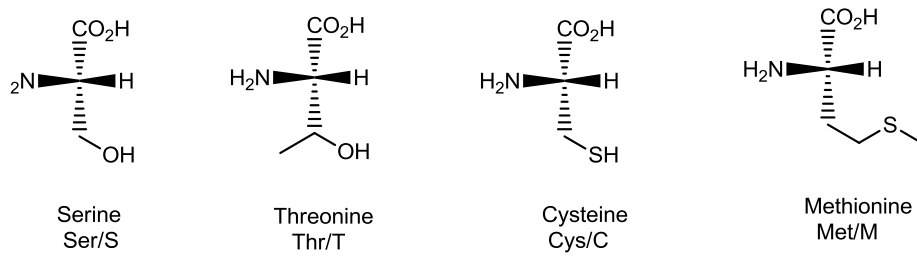
Glycine is the simplest amino acid having hydrogen as R substituent, and therefore not presenting chirality. It is an amino acid with important implications in brain excitatory and inhibitory activities, and in the synthesis of other essential molecules such as muscle supplement creatine, antioxidant glutathione, and as an abundant component in the structural protein collagen. This amino acid is synthesized from amino acids serine, threonine or nutrient choline, and its detailed biosynthesis is described in the following sections (Fig. 131).



Aromatic



Polar



Heterocyclic

Fig. 130 cont....

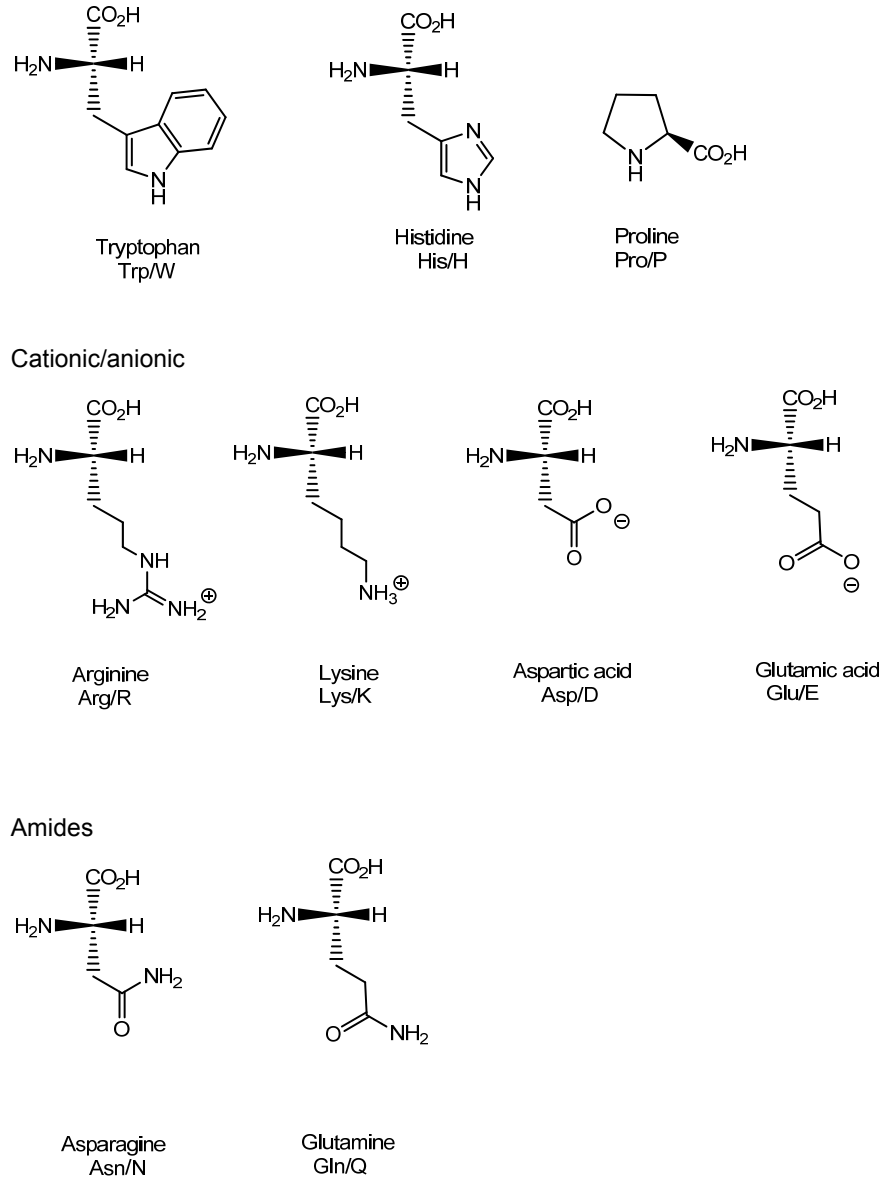


Fig. (130). Classification and structure of amino acids.

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SUBJECT INDEX

A

- Acceptor 34, 53, 97, 154
 amino 155
 electron 34
 Acetohydroxyacid 101, 103, 120
 reductoisomerase 120
 synthase inhibitors 103
 synthase reaction 101
 Acetolactate 101, 103, 104, 120
 synthase 120
 Acetyl-CoA 34, 37, 57, 58, 61, 65, 66, 67, 68,
 71, 123, 175, 176, 177
 enolate 66
 production 61
 Acid 6, 9, 10, 20, 22, 44, 66, 76, 79, 82, 84,
 86, 87, 108, 156, 171, 192, 197, 200,
 210, 238, 243, 251, 255, 263, 272, 275,
 276
 2-amino-4-oxo-5-hydroxypentanoic 171
 2-oxo amino 156
 4-methoxy-trans-but-3-enoic 276
 4-oxoheptadienedionic 255
 4-oxoheptenedioic 255
 6-hydrzoheptane-1,7-dioic 263
 agaric 9, 10
 α -ketopimelic 255
 amino-4-methoxy-trans-but-3-enoic 275
 aminooxyacetic 192
 aspterric 108
 basic amino 251
 carboxylic amino 272
 citric 66
 converting cysteine sulfinic 197
 glutamic 200
 guanidino amino 243
 histidine amino 210
 indazole-3-carboxilic 6
 koningic 20, 22
 lipoic 44
 lysophosphatidic 79, 82
 natural amino 171
 oleic 76, 86, 87
 phosphatidic 86
 phosphatidic 79, 84
 phosphoenol pyruvic 123
 pyrrolidine heterocyclic amino 238
 Acivicin 226, 227
 analogue 226
 Aconitase 34, 37, 38, 39, 115, 116
 activity 39
 family 115
 human cytosolic 38
 inhibitors 38
 Active site region 12, 18, 21, 226
 superimposed 12
 Active site residues 48, 65, 73, 259
 representative 259
 Active site threonine 253
 Activity 4, 18, 25, 30, 31, 49, 80, 90, 108,
 154, 165, 175, 196, 278, 225, 239
 antifungal 165, 175
 high serine biosynthetic 154
 inhibitory 20, 90, 108, 278
 mitochondrial 49
 Acylglycerophosphate acyltransferase reaction
 85
 Alanine 97, 98, 182
 fluoro 182
 target aminoacid 98
 trifluoro 182
 Alanine biosynthesis 97
 Alcohol 177, 186, 211, 235
 oxidation 211
 Aldimide 95, 96, 98, 147, 174, 275
 external 98, 174, 275
 internal 98, 147
 Aldol type reaction 65, 126
 Alkoxide 11, 53, 166, 177
 Alkylating agents 6, 287
 Alkyl transposition 104
 Allosteric 10, 24, 31, 32, 52, 214
 binding site 213
 effector 24
 enzyme 10
 sites 52, 214
 Alloxan concentration 39
 Alzheimer disease 188

- Amine 211, 215
 - dithiol naphthalen 215
 - Amino acid 8, 32, 85, 149, 175
 - cysteine 149, 175
 - identity 85
 - residues 8
 - tryptophan 32
 - Aminotransferase 97, 98, 155, 156, 260, 261, 263
 - diaminopimelate 261
 - inhibitors 263
 - phosphoserine 155, 156
 - pyridoxamine-pyruvate 97, 98
 - Aminotransferase reaction 155, 156, 230, 261
 - histidinol phosphate 230
 - phosphoserine 155
 - Analysis 9, 24, 140, 181, 231, 257
 - crystal 259
 - docking 24, 181, 231
 - structural 140, 257
 - superimposed 9
 - Anthranilate phosphoribosyl transferase 202, 203
 - inhibitors 203
 - reaction 202
 - Anthranilate synthase 199, 200, 201
 - inhibitors 201
 - reaction 200
 - Arginine 164, 233, 243, 244, 249, 250, 251, 253, 275
 - aminotransferases 275
 - biosynthesis 243, 244, 249
 - kinase 164
 - residues 233
 - Arginine succinate 245
 - target molecule 245
 - Argininosuccinate lyase 248, 250
 - Inhibitors 250
 - reaction 248
 - Argininosuccinate Synthase 244, 245, 247
 - Inhibitors 247
 - reaction 245
 - Arogenate 121, 146, 147, 149, 150, 151, 152
 - biosynthesis 148
 - dehydratase (ADT) 121, 149
 - dehydrogenase 150, 151, 152
 - dehydrogenase reaction 151
 - transform 121
 - Asparagine synthetase 276, 277, 278
 - inhibitors 278
 - reaction 276
 - Aspartate aminotransferase 273, 274, 275
 - inhibitors 275
 - reaction 273, 274
 - Aspartate kinase 162, 163, 165
 - inhibitors 165
 - reaction 163
 - Aspartyl semialdehyde dehydrogenase (ASD) 162, 166, 167, 168, 251
 - ATP-citrate lyase (ACLY) 67, 68
 - ATP molecule 1, 3, 4, 23, 34, 244, 279, 283
 - and 3-phosphoglycerate 3
 - ATP phosphoribosyl transferase 213, 214, 215, 216
 - inhibitors 215, 216
- ## B
- Bacillus subtilis* 4, 163, 175
 - Bacterial 27, 82, 206, 240
 - glutamate kinase 240
 - glycerolipid synthesis 82
 - infections 27, 206
 - Benzoic acids 56, 84, 127, 128
 - aryloxyacetylamino 56
 - Bicarbonate anion formation 72
 - Binding 12, 19, 35, 48, 51, 126, 153, 233, 255
 - nucleotide 153
 - regulatory 153
 - Binding energies 220, 221, 231, 232
 - calculated 232
 - Bioenergetics 6, 51
 - mitochondrial 51
 - Biomass production 238
 - Biosynthesis 57, 68, 74, 88, 90, 100, 101, 111, 113, 114, 115, 118, 119, 120, 184, 197, 238, 239, 241, 242, 243, 245
 - fatty acid 57, 68, 74
 - leucine 111, 115, 118
 - phospholipid 88
 - polyamide 184
 - proline 238, 239, 241, 242
 - taurine 184, 197
 - valine 100
 - Bisphosphoglycerate mutase (BPGM) 24, 25
 - reaction 25
 - Blood cells 13, 16, 24
 - red 16, 24
 - Boronic acids 265

- Branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) 100, 101, 108, 111
Burkholderia thailandensis 256
- C**
- Cancer 27, 31, 47, 62, 63, 68, 85, 153, 191, 192
 breast 47
 ovarian 85
Cancer cells 1, 6, 18, 31, 77, 78, 192, 238
 colorectal 192
 proline biosynthesis 238
Candida albicans 175
Carbocyclic nucleoside haloneplanocin 187, 188
Carboxylate synthase enzymes 240
Carboxylic acids 90, 211, 238, 265
 imidazole pyrimidine 238
Catalytic 40, 80, 116, 132, 187, 226, 240
 binding site 40
 domains AAK 240
 glycerol 80
 reaction 116
 site, cyclase 226
Cell growth 44, 46, 153, 247
 reduced cancer 153
 tumor 46
Cellular 276, 286
 defence 286
 stress 276
Central nervous system (CNS) 183, 191
Chemical structure 6, 7, 10, 16, 18, 22, 23, 24, 30, 32, 33, 39, 46, 47, 49, 51, 64, 70, 84, 128, 134, 139, 186, 192, 255
 4-aminopyrimidine PD inhibitors 64
 and DHQS inhibitory constants of benzoic acid 128
 of ATP citrate lyase inhibitors 70
 of MAT inhibitors 186
 of phosphoenolpyruvate 18
 of phosphoglucose isomerase inhibitors suramin 10
 of phosphoglycolic hydroxamic acid 16
 of SD inhibitors 134
 of shikimate 3-phosphate enantiomers 139
 of cystathionine- β -synthase inhibitors 192
Cholesterol synthesis 61
Chorismate 139, 140, 142, 143, 150, 199, 201
 binding site 201
 formation 140
 shikimic acid precursor 199
Chorismate mutase 142, 143, 144, 145, 146
 catalyses 142
 inhibition 146
 reaction 142
Chorismate synthase 139, 140, 141
 inhibitors 141
 reaction 139
 structure 140
Citrate 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 40, 66, 67, 68, 69
 cycle 40
 formation 66
 -isocitrate hydroxylase 37
Citrate synthase 34, 35, 37, 65, 67
 catalyses 65
 inhibitors 37, 67
 reaction 35, 65
Citrate synthase form *metallospira sedula* 67
 MsCS 67
Claisen 34, 70
 condensation 34
 type condensation 70
Cluster 38, 51, 107, 117, 228
 manganese 228
Cofactor 12, 19, 25, 41, 44, 55, 93, 95, 107, 125, 150, 153, 169, 189, 241, 256
 dependent 189
 -independent enzyme 26
 nicotinamide 41
 reducing 169, 241, 256
Collagen 161, 243
 production 161
 synthesis 243
Complete inactivation 255
 producing 255
Conjugate pyridoxal-enzyme 179
Crohn's disease 33
Crystallographic analysis 12, 235
 preliminary 12
Crystal structure 5, 28, 29, 38, 52, 54, 55, 95, 107, 112, 130, 132, 191, 198, 236, 269, 277
 of apo hexokinase 5
 of human cystathionine β -synthase 191
Cyclic nitronate structures 117
Cystathionine gamma-lyase 183, 193, 195
 inhibitors 195
 reaction 193

Cystathionine γ -lyase enzymes 191
 Cysteine 18, 71, 88, 152, 175, 176, 178, 179, 182, 183, 189, 191, 193, 194, 196, 197, 198, 283, 285
 biosynthesis 175, 182, 183
 catabolism 196
 deoxygenase reaction 196
 disulfide bond 285
 oxidation 197
 hydration 191
 reduced 285
 sulfinic acid (CSA) 196, 197, 198
 sulfinic acid decarboxylase reaction 197
 synthase 189
 triphosphate 88
 Cytosolic enzyme 7, 57

D

Damage 16, 50, 175
 cellular 50, 175
 Degenerative 121, 251
 disease 121
 process 251
 Dehydration 1, 3, 34, 37, 100, 116, 117, 120, 128, 130, 151, 190, 206
 conjugated 128
 process 130, 151
 reaction 34, 116
 Dehydroquinase dehydratase 128, 130, 131
 inhibitors 130, 131
 reaction 128
 Dehydroquinase synthase 127, 125
 inhibitors 127
 reaction 125
de novo 57, 68, 121
 biosynthesis 57
 lipogenesis 68
 synthesis 121
 Dephosphorylation 159, 173, 233
 process 159, 233
 reaction 159, 173
 Diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) 79, 86, 87
 enzyme 86
 Diacylglycerol acyltransferase 87
 inhibitors 87
 reaction 87
 Diacylglycerol kinase 86
 Diaminopimelate 251, 270

 analogs 270
 Diaminopimelate decarboxylase 268, 269, 270
 Inhibitors 270
 reaction 269
 Diaminopimelate epimerase (DAPE) 266, 267, 268
 inhibitors 268
 reaction 266
 Dihydrodipicolinate reductase 256, 258
 Inhibitors 258
 reaction 256
 Dihydrodipicolinate synthase 253, 255
 inhibitors 255
 reaction 253
 Dihydroxy acid dehydratase 106, 108
 inhibitors 108
 Dihydroxy isovalerate dehydratase 106, 107
 dimeric 107
 reaction 106
 Dimer 12, 28, 98, 102, 105, 116, 126, 140, 176, 177, 213, 253
 asymmetric 98
 catalytic 213
 Disorders 27, 33, 87, 150
 autoimmune 27
 inflammatory 33
 metabolic 87
 DNA synthesis 287

E

Embden-Meyerhoff-Parnas (EMP) 1, 3
 pathway 1, 3
 Energy 1, 3, 31, 78, 181
 free binding 181
 predictions, free 181
 supplier 78
 Enolase 28, 29
 enzyme 29
 inhibitors 29
 reaction 28
 Enolization process 113
 Enolpyruvylshikimate phosphate synthase 138, 137
 inhibitors 138
 reaction 137
 Enzymatic assays 157
 Enzyme 4, 6, 7, 23, 24, 26, 27, 37, 39, 40, 44, 53, 54, 61, 86, 169, 197, 204, 235, 281, 282

- bifunctional 235
 - condensing 70
 - monofunctional 204
 - rate-limiting 197, 281
 - regulated 44
 - regulatory 169
 - Enzyme aspartate 34, 88, 162, 251, 275, 279
 - aminotransferase 275
 - kinase 162, 251
 - dehydroquinase synthase 125
 - ethanolamine kinase 88
 - fumarase 34
 - glutamate-cysteine ligase 279
 - glutathione synthase 279
 - Enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
 - dehydrogenase 1, 3, 20, 78, 80
 - glycolytic 20
 - glycerol kinase 78, 80
 - hexokinase 1
 - Escherichia coli* 4, 12, 45, 143, 144, 163, 168, 205, 265, 267, 270
 - Esterification reaction 79
 - Eukaryotic lipid homeostasis 86
- F**
- Fatigue 10, 25, 31
 - premature 25, 31
 - Fatty acid synthase (FAS) 57, 73
 - Fenton reaction 33
 - Flavin mononucleotide, reduced 139
 - Formation, succinate 47
 - Fumarase 51
 - Fumarate hydratase 51, 52, 53
 - inhibitors 53
 - reaction 52
- G**
- GHMP kinases 171
 - Glutamate 222, 230, 239, 240, 261, 271, 272, 273, 276, 279, 281, 282
 - coupling amine donor 261
 - 5-kinase 239, 240
 - 5-kinase inhibitors 240
 - 5-kinase reaction 239
 - biosynthesis 272
 - Glutamate cysteine 281, 282
 - ligase 281
 - ligase inhibitors 282
 - ligase reaction 281
 - Glutaminase 224
 - Glutamine 40, 44, 279
 - pathway 40
 - synthetase 44, 279
 - Glutathione 90, 175, 183, 279, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286
 - antioxidant 90
 - biosynthesis 279
 - cancer proliferation 286
 - disulphide reductase 284
 - oxidized 279, 284
 - reduced 279, 283, 285
 - Glutathione reductase 285, 286
 - dimeric flavoenzyme 285
 - human 286
 - inhibitors 286
 - Glyceraldehyde phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) 19, 21, 22
 - reaction 19
 - Glycerol kinase (GLPK) 78, 80, 81, 86
 - inhibitors 81
 - reaction 80
 - Glycerol-3-phosphate 78, 79, 80, 82, 83, 84
 - acyltransferase 82, 84
 - acyltransferase reaction 82
 - Glycine 90, 93, 94, 95, 96, 152, 210, 253, 279, 283
 - biosynthesis 90, 93, 94
 - biosynthetic precursors 93
 - Glycolysis 6, 31
 - aerobic 31
 - inhibiting 6
 - Glycolysis pathway 4
 - Growth 165, 250, 270
 - cancerous 250
 - GTP-specific succinyl-CoA (GTPSCS) 48
- H**
- Haemoglobins 24
 - shifting 24
 - Haemolytic anemia 4, 7, 13, 16, 31
 - blood disorder 31
 - Heart ischemia 62, 63
 - Hepatic steatosis 87
 - Hepatitis C virus (HCV) 76
 - HepG2 cells 210
 - Herbicide 138, 226

- agents 226
 - glyphosate 138
 - Hereditary fructose intolerance 13
 - Heterodimeric structure 201
 - Hexameric structure 35
 - Hexokinase 4, 6
 - mitochondrial 6
 - Hexokinase 4, 6
 - inhibitors 6
 - phosphorylation reaction 4
 - reaction 4
 - High-throughput screening 154, 157, 234
 - of PSP inhibitors 157
 - HisA catalysis 211
 - Histidine 49, 139, 210, 211, 213, 216, 218, 221, 222, 27, 229, 230, 232, 235, 238
 - target amino acid 211
 - biosynthesis 210, 213, 216, 218, 221, 222, 227, 229, 230, 232, 235
 - hydrazone 238
 - molecules 139
 - phosphorylation 49
 - Histidinol Dehydrogenase 235
 - reaction 235
 - Homocysteine 182, 186, 189, 191
 - aminoacid effects 190
 - release 186
 - Homoserine dehydrogenase (HSD) 169, 170, 171
 - inhibitors 171
 - reaction 169
 - Homoserine kinase (HK) 1, 4, 162, 171, 172
 - Inhibitors 172
 - reaction 171
 - Human 26, 31, 46, 187, 188, 198, 283
 - cofactor-dependent enzyme 26
 - cysteine sulfinic acid decarboxylase 198
 - glutathione synthetase 283
 - lung carcinoma 46
 - pyruvate kinase 31
 - S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase 187, 188
 - Hydrazine pimelate derivatives 263
 - Hydrogen bond interactions 80, 109, 110, 170, 218
 - network 109
 - Hydrolysis 14, 147, 156, 158, 194, 200, 216, 263
 - dihydroxyacetone phosphate 14
 - Hydroxamates 265
 - Hypoxia-inducible factor 56
- ## I
- Imidazole 205, 206, 207, 222, 224, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230
 - acetol phosphate (IAP) 227, 228, 230
 - glycerol phosphate (IGP) 205, 206, 207, 222, 224, 226, 227, 228, 229
 - Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Dehydratase 227, 229
 - inhibitors 229
 - reaction 227
 - Imidazole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase 222, 224, 226
 - inhibitors 226
 - reaction 224
 - Iminium salt 156, 179
 - formation 179
 - pyridoxal-glutamine 156
 - Iminium salt 14
 - ImPG synthase 224, 225, 227
 - Indole Glycerol Phosphate Synthase 205
 - inhibitors 207
 - reaction 206
 - Inhibition 6, 9, 19, 29, 33, 39, 42, 67, 86, 108, 114, 133, 135, 165, 168, 282
 - assays 19, 108
 - kinetics 67
 - Inhibition values 145, 168, 237, 268
 - observing moderate 268
 - Inhibitors 18, 19, 26, 53, 67, 72, 73, 76, 77, 84, 85, 99, 110, 119, 133, 145, 172, 193, 240, 255, 275, 278, 286, 287
 - competitive 53, 67, 119, 172, 193
 - effective 26
 - efficient 110
 - feedback 240
 - irreversible 110, 255
 - reversible 99
 - Inhibitory 9, 99, 110, 182, 237
 - capacity 110, 237
 - effects 99, 182
 - variability 9
 - Isocitrate 40, 42, 43, 48
 - dehydrogenase inhibitors 42, 43
 - dehydrogenase reaction 40
 - succinyl-CoA synthetase 48
 - Isoleucine 120, 121
 - aminotransferase 120

biosynthesis 120, 121
Isomerase 1, 3, 16, 18, 111, 199, 204, 205, 222
enzyme triose phosphate 1, 3
isopropylmalate 111
phosphoribosyl anthranilate 204, 205, 222
phosphoribosylantranilate 199
triosephosphate 16, 18
Isomerization 1, 7, 16, 37, 38, 111, 116, 222
conversion 37, 38
process 1, 16
reaction 116, 222
Isopropylmalate synthase (IPMS) 111, 112, 114, 115

K

Ketoacyl reductase (KR) 57, 73
Ketoacyl synthase (kas) 70, 73
inhibitors 73
Ketoacyl synthase reaction 71
mechanism 71
Keto glutarate dehydrogenase (KGD) 44, 46
Ketol-acid reductoisomerase (KARI) 103, 104, 105, 120
inhibitors 105
reaction 104
Kinases 5, 165
carbohydrate 5
Krebs cycle 44, 49, 90

L

Leucine 100, 111, 112, 120
binding site 112
Lipoamide 62
acylated 62
reduced 62
Lipogenesis 57, 61, 76
control 76
Lipophilicity 210
Lyase 120, 194, 247, 249, 250
argininosuccinate 247, 249, 250
threonine ammonia 120
Lymphoblastic leukemia 278
Lysine 7, 14, 28, 62, 98, 156, 157, 162, 179, 190, 251, 252, 253, 256, 260, 271, 272
biosynthesis 162, 251, 252, 253, 260, 271, 272

pathway 256
residue 7, 14, 28, 62, 98, 157, 179, 190, 194

M

Malate dehydrogenase (mdh) 34, 53, 54, 55, 56, 111, 118, 119
inhibitors 56
reaction 53
Malonyl decarboxylation reaction 72
Mammalian 15, 16
aldolase 16
FBP aldolase 15
MAT inhibitors 186
Metalloenzyme 27, 235
histidinol dehydrogenase 235
Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum 218
Methanocacidococcus jannaschii 95
Methanococcus jannaschii 115, 116
Methionine 57, 58, 59, 162, 182, 183, 184, 185, 193, 272
adenosyl transferase (MAT) 57, 58, 59, 182, 184, 185
inhibitors 185
adenosyl transferase reaction 184
pathway 193
sulphur 185
synthase (MS) 183
Mitochondria 6, 39, 49, 61, 65
hexokinase inhibitor 6
succinyl CoA synthetase 49
Multi-subunit system 44
Muscle 7, 10, 25, 120
activity 25
cramps 10
disorders 10
pain 7
phosphofructokinase 25
protein synthesis 120
Mycobacterium tuberculosis 130, 134, 135, 143, 144, 145, 156, 157, 202, 206, 207, 210, 236, 249, 250
drug-resistant 130
inhibitors 210
multidrug-resistant 135

N

Natural inhibitor 4, 45
Natural products 20, 33, 64, 77, 96
 alkannin 33
 radicol 64
 sterculic acid 77
Neurodegenerative disease 251
Neurologic dysfunction 16
Neurons 27, 210
Neurotransmitter serotonin 199
NMR spectroscopy 62
Nucleophile 164, 175
 displacement 175
Nucleophilic 14, 19, 66, 70, 71, 113, 166, 177,
 190, 200, 219, 245, 253, 269, 283
 attack 14, 19, 66, 71, 113, 166, 190, 200,
 219, 253, 269
 substitution 70, 177, 245, 283

O

Oxidation 34, 53, 84, 196, 211, 284
 increasing fatty acid 84
 malate 53
Oxidative 18, 271
 deamination 271
 stress 18
Oxidoreductase 151, 153
 homotetramer 153

P

Palmitic acid 86
Parasitic enzyme 9
Pathways 1, 23, 30, 40, 44, 65, 86, 90, 121,
 123, 150, 183, 193
 glutaminase 40, 44
 glycolytic 1, 23, 30, 65
 main glycolytic 2
 pentose phosphate 90
 shikimic 121, 150
 shikimic acid 121, 123
 signalling 86
 transsulfuration 193
PD inhibitors 64, 65
 synthetic 65
PEP substrate and water molecules 124
Phenylalanine biosynthesis 121, 123

 pathway 123
Phosphate 4, 6, 19, 30, 95, 96, 123, 124, 126,
 132, 137, 159, 208, 230, 233, 234, 283
 glyceraldehyde 208
 hydrolysed producing 159
 inorganic 123, 124, 126
 producing glutamatecysteine 283
Phosphatidic acid (PA) 79, 82, 84, 86
 phosphatase 86
 phosphohydrolase (PAP) 86
 reaction 86
Phosphoglucose isomerase 7, 9
 inhibitors 9
 reaction 7
Phosphoglycerate dehydrogenase 153, 154,
 155
 inhibitors 154, 155
 reaction 153
Phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) 1, 3, 9, 23, 24
 Inhibitors 24
 reaction 23
Phosphoglycerate mutase (PGMs) 25, 26, 27
 inhibitors 26, 27
 reaction 25
Phosphoglycolic hydroxamic acid 16
 analogue 16
Phosphonic acids 84
Phosphoribosyl-AMP cyclohydrolase 218,
 220
 inhibitors 220
 reaction 218
Phosphoribosyl anthranilate isomerase 204,
 205
 inhibitors 205
 reaction 204
Phosphoribosyl-ATP pyrophosphohydrolase
 216, 217, 218
 inhibitors 218
 reaction 217
Phosphorylation reaction 1, 245
Phosphoryl transfer reaction 57, 58
Phosphoserine 156, 157, 158
 aminotransferase inhibitors 157, 158
Phosphoserine phosphatase 158, 160, 161
 inhibitors 160, 161
 reaction 158
Pyruvate kinase inhibitors 31
Plausible reaction mechanism 66
Prephenate aminotransferase 147, 149
 inhibitors 149

reaction 147
Progression 25, 31, 47
 metastasis 47
 tumor 25
Proline 238, 239, 240
 analogues 240
 synthesis 239
Proteins 50, 51, 57, 61, 65, 69, 82, 115, 132, 175
 acyl carrier 57, 82
 chaperone 51
 dimeric 65
 iron-sulfur 50
 receptor-associated 51
Pyridoxal phosphate 93, 94, 147, 178, 190, 269, 275
 cofactors 94
 domain hosting 190
Pyruvate dehydrogenase 61, 62, 63
 complex (PDC) 61, 62, 63
 inhibitors 63
 kinase (PDK) 61, 62, 63
 phosphatase (PDP) 61, 62
 reaction 61
Pyruvate kinase (PK) 18, 30, 31, 32, 33
 glycolytic enzyme 31
 human erythrocyte 31, 32
 natural 18
 inhibition 32
 reaction 30

R

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) 33, 38, 39, 46, 160, 175, 183, 282, 283, 286
Residues 9, 15, 18, 19, 28, 29, 40, 41, 42, 54, 55, 70, 113, 123, 166, 170, 171, 219, 226, 222, 233, 266, 275
 cysteine 70, 166, 219, 226, 266
 interacting 18, 222, 233, 275
Retroaldol type reaction 208
Retro 14
 Claise aldol reaction 14
 Claisen type reaction 14
Rheumatoid arthritis 33

S

Saccharomyces cerevisiae 143, 144, 175, 281, 282
 glutamate cysteine ligase form 282
SAH inhibition activity 188
Salmonella typhimurium 180, 210
Satoyoshi disease 7
Serine 93, 94, 95, 96, 152, 153, 158, 159, 161, 175, 176, 189, 190, 191
 biosynthesis 152
 biosynthetic pathway 153
 hydroxyl methyl transferase (SHMT) 93, 95
 inhibitors 96
 synthesis of 153, 158
Serine acetyltransferase 175, 176, 178
 inhibitors 178
 reaction 176, 178
Shikimate dehydrogenase 131, 133
 inhibitors 133
 reaction 131
Staphylococcus aureus 105, 110, 133
 SD inhibitors 133
Stearoyl-CoA desaturase (SCDs) 74, 75, 76, 77, 78
Stroke 191, 192
Substrate binding domains (SBD) 153, 170
Succinate 34, 49, 50, 51
 -coenzyme Q reductase (SQR) 49
 dehydrogenase (SDH) 34, 49, 50, 51
 inhibitors 51
 dehydrogenase reaction 50
Succinic acid 47, 69, 264
 substrates 264
Succinyl-CoA 34, 47
 Ligase 47
 synthase 34
Succinyl-CoA synthetase 47, 48, 49
 inhibition capacity 49
 Inhibitors 49
 reaction 48
Synechocystis 151, 152
Synthase 57, 60, 73, 101, 102, 103, 125, 126, 127, 139, 199, 239, 243, 246, 247
 acetohydroxyacid 101, 102, 103
 ceramide 247
 dehydroquinone 125, 126, 127
 enzyme antranilate 199
 enzyme argininosuccinate 243

enzyme chrosimate 139
enzyme indole-3-glycerolphosphate 199
enzyme pyrroline-5-carboxylate 239
human argininosuccinate 246, 247
human fatty acid 57, 73
phosphoribosylantranilate 199

T

Tarui disease 10
Threonine 90, 100, 161, 162, 163, 164, 169,
171, 173, 174, 272
active site of 164
biosynthesis 161, 162, 169, 171, 173
formation 174
pathway 100
Threonine synthase 173, 175
inhibitors 175
reaction 173
TIM enzyme 18
Toxic heavy metals 210
Transacylation reaction 57
Transaminase 100, 110, 272
bacterial D-amino acid 110
enzyme aspartate 272
target valine 100
Transamination 97, 98, 111, 120, 147, 251,
271, 272, 274
process 97, 98, 274
products 98
reaction 111, 120, 147, 272
Transferase 23, 79, 93, 182, 184
enzyme glycerol-3-phosphate acyl 79
enzyme serine hydroxyl methyl 93
methionine adenosy 182, 184
Transition state 143, 160, 165
analogues (TSA) 143, 160
mechanism 165
Triacylglycerol 79, 82, 87
biosynthesis 82, 87
cycle 79
Triglyceride synthesis 78, 80
Triosephosphate isomerase reaction 17
Triphosphate homologues 23
Trypanosoma brucei 8, 9, 15, 20, 24
Trypanosoma cruzi 24
Tryptophan 33, 121, 199, 202, 205, 208
biosynthesis 199, 202, 205
pathway 199
Tryptophan synthase 199, 207, 208, 209, 210

ancestral 209, 210
evaluating 210
inhibitors 210
reaction 208
Tumor necrosis factor 51
Tyrosine 9, 151
formation 151
phosphatase 9

U

Unimolecular decomposition 158

V

Viral 76, 77
infections 76
RNA replication 77

W

Warburg effect 1
Water 28, 34, 60, 67, 82, 113, 116, 124, 173,
186, 219, 222, 257, 259, 261, 269, 277
attack 116
instability 82
molecules 28, 34, 113, 124, 219, 222, 257,
259, 261, 269, 277
Weiss reaction 33

X

X-Ray spectroscopy 115

Y

Yeast 16, 40, 41, 85, 102, 103, 149, 196, 271,
287
orthologues 85



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After finishing his PhD studies, he joined the chemistry institute at the National University of México, for conducting research on heterocyclic chemistry in 1993 till 1995 and after that period, he got a position as professor of chemistry at the Biotechnology Unit of the National Polytechnic Institute where he is currently teaching subjects, namely, bioorganic chemistry, drug design and heterocyclic chemistry.

In 2002, he spent a year as a postdoc at the University of California Berkeley researching the first synthesis of glycoresin, tricolorin F at the laboratory of Professor Clayton Heathcock. The result of this research was published in the *Journal of Organic Chemistry*, 2004, 69, 4567 (Cover page).