

Chang-Hwei Chen

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration in Biosciences

 Springer

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration in Biosciences

Chang-Hwei Chen

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration in Biosciences

 Springer

Chang-Hwei Chen
Institute for Health and the Environment and Department of Biomedical Sciences
University at Albany, State University of New York
Albany, NY, USA

ISBN 978-3-031-08604-5 ISBN 978-3-031-08605-2 (eBook)
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-08605-2>

© The Editor(s) (if applicable) and The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2022

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are solely and exclusively licensed by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

The publisher, the authors, and the editors are safe to assume that the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication. Neither the publisher nor the authors or the editors give a warranty, expressed or implied, with respect to the material contained herein or for any errors or omissions that may have been made. The publisher remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG
The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

Preface

Water in tissues and cells intervenes with cellular components. The interactions of water affect the structures, dynamics, and functions of biomolecules, including proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids. Biomolecular folding, stability, and binding are mediated by water through hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interaction. Water also participates in catalytic functions of enzymes, and plays crucial roles in protein secondary and tertiary structures, nucleic acid helix formation, and lipid bilayer membranes.

Deuterium is a naturally occurring, stable, and non-radioactive isotope of hydrogen. There are distinct differences in physical properties between deuterium oxide (D_2O) and regular water (H_2O). Investigations of deuterium oxide and deuteration is a promising component in various areas of sciences, including physics, chemistry, biochemistry, biomedical, pharmacology, and biotechnology.

There are distinct differences between deuterium oxide (heavy water) and hydrogen oxide (regular water) as the solvent for biological systems. Changes in the aqueous H_2O environment with D_2O affect the interaction, stability, and functions of biomolecules, including the strengths of hydrogen bond, hydrophobic interaction, and carbon-hydrogen bond that serve as the driving forces for various biomolecular processes.

There are many advances that have been made in the past decades toward the understanding of functions, interactions, and implications of deuterium oxide and deuteration. Studies of deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on the interactions, stability, and functions of biomolecules offer valuable applications to health-related issues, including diseases, vaccines, and drugs. Deuterium oxide and deuteration also mediate pharmacokinetic process involving adsorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity.

An organized, concise overview of deuterium oxide and deuteration in biosciences is needed for readers who are exposed to this important subject, particularly for students and researchers in the areas of biochemistry, biophysics, biomedical sciences, and pharmacology, who are interested in gaining knowledge on the background and implications of deuterium oxide and deuteration.

This book addresses deuterium oxide and deuteration in broad scope with emphasis on biochemical, biomedical, and pharmacological aspects. Individual subjects covered include distinct characteristics of heavy water versus regular water, deuterium bonding versus hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interaction in deuterium oxide versus hydrogen oxide, deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biomolecules, effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration on biomembranes, biochemical effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration, physical methods for investigating deuterium oxide and deuteration effects, living cells grown in deuterium oxide and deuteration, deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on health issues, deuterium oxide effects on thermostability of vaccines, and deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on pharmacology. A bibliography is provided in each chapter for readers who wish to pursue topics in more detail.

Albany, NY, USA

Chang-Hwei Chen

Acknowledgment

The author wishes to dedicate this book to late Professors Henry S. Frank, William L. Masterton, Donald S. Berns, Kuan Pan, and Lufus W. Lumry, who inspired the author to pursue a scientific career and this exciting area of scientific research.

The author also wishes to thank Professor David O. Carpenter of the University at Albany and Professor Norman L. Strominger of the Albany Medical College for their encouragement and support, and to the editorial board at Springer Nature for their assistance.

Albany, NY, USA

Chang-Hwei Chen

Contents

Part I Roles of Regular and Heavy Water in Biosciences

1	Overview: Background and Applications	3
1.1	Role of Water in Biological Systems	4
1.1.1	Integral Component of Biomolecules	4
1.1.2	Interface Water	5
1.2	Distinct Characteristics of Deuterium Oxide (D ₂ O)	5
1.2.1	Hydrogen Bonding: D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	6
1.2.2	Hydrophobic Interaction: D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	6
1.2.3	Zero-Point Energy: D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	7
1.3	D ₂ O Effects on Biochemical Reactions	7
1.3.1	Thermodynamic Effects	7
1.3.2	Kinetics Effects	8
1.4	Preparations of Deuterated Biomolecules	8
1.5	Physical Methods in Studying D ₂ O and Deuteration Effects	9
1.6	Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects on Biomolecules	9
1.7	Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules	10
1.8	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Human Health	10
1.8.1	D ₂ O Effects on Diseases	10
1.8.2	Deuteration Effects on Health-Related Issues	11
1.8.3	D ₂ O Effects on Pharmacokinetics	11
1.8.4	Thermal Stabilization of Vaccines by D ₂ O	11
1.8.5	Deuteration Effects on Pharmacology	12
	Bibliography	12
2	Characteristics of Deuterium Oxide Versus Hydrogen Oxide	15
2.1	Role of Water in Biological Systems	15
2.2	Deuterium Oxide	16
2.3	Physical Properties of D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	17
2.4	Zero-Point Potential Energy of D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	17
2.5	Deuterium Bond Versus Hydrogen Bond	18
2.6	C-D Bond Versus C-H Bond	18

2.7	pD of D ₂ O Versus pH of H ₂ O	19
2.8	Dissociation Constants of Acids in D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	19
2.9	D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O as the Solvent in Biological System	20
2.9.1	Structure Stability	21
2.9.2	Molecular Interaction	22
2.9.3	Membrane Transport	22
2.10	Deuteration of Biomolecules	23
2.10.1	Kinetics of Deuteration	24
2.10.2	Metabolism of Deuteration	24
	Bibliography	24
Part II Molecular Interactions of Deuterium Versus Hydrogen Oxide		
3	Deuterium Bonding Versus Hydrogen Bonding	29
3.1	Hydrogen Bond Donors and Acceptors	30
3.2	Vibrational Energy: D ₂ O Versus H ₂ O	30
3.3	Bonding Energies of Deuterium Versus Hydrogen	30
3.4	Hydrogen Bonding in Water Solvent	31
3.5	The Structure of Water	33
3.5.1	Continuum Model	33
3.5.2	Mixture Model	34
3.5.3	Interstitial Model	34
3.6	Mixture Model of Water Structure	34
3.6.1	Flickering Cluster Model	35
3.6.2	Virtual Single-Particle Energy Distributions	35
3.6.3	Thermodynamics Aspects of Water Structure	36
3.7	Deuterium Effects on Hydrogen Bond in Biomolecules	36
3.7.1	Proteins	37
3.7.2	Nucleic Acids	38
3.7.3	Lipids	38
3.8	Deuteration Effects on Hydrogen Bonding	39
3.8.1	Proteins	39
3.8.2	Lipids	40
3.8.3	Nucleic Acids	40
	Bibliography	40
4	Hydrophobic Interaction in D₂O Versus H₂O	43
4.1	Hydrophobic Effect	44
4.1.1	Iceberg Model	44
4.1.2	Thermodynamics Aspects	45
4.1.3	Structure Maker and Breaker	47
4.2	Hydrophobicity in Biomolecules	47
4.2.1	Proteins	48
4.2.2	Nucleic Acids	48
4.2.3	Lipids	48
4.3	Deuterium Oxide Effects on Hydrophobic Interaction	49
4.3.1	Proteins	50

4.3.2	Nucleic Acids	51
4.3.3	Lipids	51
4.4	Deuteration Effects on Hydrophobic Interaction	52
4.4.1	Proteins	53
4.4.2	Nucleic Acids	53
4.4.3	Lipids	53
	Bibliography	54
Part III Implications of Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration in Biological Systems		
5	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules	59
5.1	D ₂ O Solvent Effects on Biomolecules	60
5.1.1	Deuterium Oxide Effects on Proteins	60
5.1.2	D ₂ O Solvent Effects on Lipids	63
5.1.3	Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects on Nucleic Acids	64
5.1.4	Other D ₂ O Solvent Effects	65
5.2	Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules	66
5.2.1	Deuteration Effects on Proteins	66
5.2.2	Deuteration Effects on Lipids	67
5.2.3	Deuteration Effects on Nucleic Acids	68
	Bibliography	69
6	Effects of D₂O and Deuteration on Biomembranes	73
6.1	D ₂ O Solvent Effects on Biomembranes	74
6.1.1	Structures and Functions	74
6.1.2	Membrane Potentials	75
6.1.3	Ion Channels	76
6.1.4	Membrane Transports	77
6.1.5	Lipid Phases	78
6.2	Deuteration Effects on Biological Membranes	78
6.2.1	Membrane Components	79
6.2.2	Deuterated Membranes	80
6.2.3	Membrane Proteins	80
6.2.4	Lipid Bilayers	81
6.2.5	Essential Fatty Acids	81
	Bibliography	82
Part IV Applications of D₂O and Deuteration to Biochemical Reactions		
7	Biochemical Effects of Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration	87
7.1	Deuterium Oxide Thermodynamic Effects	88
7.1.1	Proteins	88
7.1.2	Nucleic Acids	90
7.1.3	Lipids	91
7.1.4	Bacteria	91

7.2	Deuterium Oxide Kinetic Effects.	91
7.2.1	Vibrational Energies.	92
7.2.2	Kinetics Effect Classification.	93
7.2.3	Primary Kinetic Isotope Effects.	93
7.2.4	Secondary Kinetic Isotope Effects.	93
7.2.5	Solvent Kinetic Isotope Effect	94
7.3	D ₂ O Effects on Enzyme-Catalyzed Reactions	94
7.3.1	Primary Kinetic Isotope Effects.	95
7.3.2	Secondary Kinetic Isotope Effects.	95
7.3.3	Effects on Hydrolysis Reaction	96
7.4	Deuteration Effects on Biochemical Reactions	96
7.4.1	Thermodynamic Effects.	96
7.4.2	Kinetic Effects	97
	Bibliography	98
8	Physical Methods for Investigating D₂O and Deuteration Effects . . .	101
8.1	Techniques for Studying Deuterium Oxide Effects	102
8.1.1	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy.	103
8.1.2	Infrared (IR) Spectroscopy	105
8.1.3	Fluorescence Spectroscopy	106
8.1.4	Ultraviolet (UV) Spectroscopy	107
8.1.5	Differential Scanning Calorimetry.	108
8.1.6	Circular Dichroism.	110
8.1.7	Molecular Dynamic Stimulation	111
8.2	Physical Methods for Studying Deuteration Effects	111
8.2.1	Neutron Scattering	112
8.2.2	Deuterium Nuclear Magnetic Resonance	113
8.2.3	Infrared Spectroscopy	114
	Bibliography	115

Part V Exploration of Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration in Health-Related Research

9	Living Cells Grown in Deuterium Oxide for Deuteration.	121
9.1	Growth of Organisms in D ₂ O.	122
9.1.1	Algae	123
9.1.2	Moss.	123
9.1.3	Yeast.	123
9.1.4	Bacteria	124
9.1.5	Animal Cells	124
9.2	The Effects of Deuterium Oxide on Cells	125
9.2.1	Cytotoxicity	125
9.2.2	Cytostatic Activity	126
9.2.3	Antineoplastic Effect	126
9.2.4	Antiproliferative Effect	127
9.2.5	Antimitotic Activity	127

9.2.6	Nuclei Acid Synthesis	127
9.3	Isolation of Deuterated Biomolecules	128
9.3.1	Deuterated Proteins	129
9.3.2	Deuterated Nucleic Acids	129
9.3.3	Deuterated Lipids.	130
9.4	Deuteration Effects on Lipid Peroxidation and Antioxidant	130
9.4.1	Lipid Peroxidation	130
9.4.2	Antioxidant	131
	Bibliography	131
10	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Health Issues	135
10.1	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Diseases.	136
10.1.1	Hypertension	136
10.1.2	Cancers.	138
10.1.3	Cardiac Disease	139
10.1.4	Liver Disease	139
10.1.5	Degenerative Eye Disease	140
10.2	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration on Health-Related Issues	141
10.2.1	Aging	141
10.2.2	Body Water.	141
10.2.3	Deuterium-Depleted Water	142
10.2.4	Lipid Oxidation	143
10.2.5	Stabilization of Enzymes	144
10.3	Deuteration Effects on Drugs.	144
10.3.1	Development of Deuterated Drugs	145
10.3.2	Deutetrabenazine	145
	Bibliography	146

Part VI Applications of Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration to Pharmacology

11	Deuterium Oxide Effects on Thermostability of Vaccines.	151
11.1	Stabilizers of Vaccines	152
11.1.1	Preservation of Vaccines	153
11.1.2	Temperature Factor	153
11.1.3	Additives to Stabilize Vaccines	153
11.1.4	Deuterium Oxide as Stabilizer.	154
11.2	Thermostability of Polio Vaccine.	155
11.2.1	Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by $MgCl_2$	155
11.2.2	Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by D_2O	156
11.2.3	Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by D_2O and $MgCl_2$	156
11.3	Thermostability of Other Vaccines by D_2O	157
11.3.1	Influenza Vaccine.	157
11.3.2	Yellow Fever Vaccine.	158
11.3.3	Newcastle Disease Virus Vaccine.	158

11.4	Mechanism of D ₂ O as Vaccine Stabilizer	159
11.5	Stabilization by Deuteration: Heroin Vaccine	160
11.6	Concerns About Deuterium as an Isotope	160
	Bibliography	160
12	Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Pharmacology	163
12.1	Pharmaceutical Processes	164
12.2	Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects	165
12.3	Deuteration Effects	166
12.3.1	Effects of Deuteration on C-H Bond	167
12.3.2	Deuteration Kinetic Isotope Effect	167
12.3.3	Deuteration Effects on Pharmacokinetics	168
12.4	Deuterated Drug Molecules	170
12.4.1	Paroxetine	170
12.4.2	Delta-tocotrienol	170
12.4.3	7-Ethoxy Coumarin	171
12.4.4	Enzalutamide	171
12.4.5	Vismodegib	171
12.4.6	Deutetrabenazine	171
12.4.7	2',3',5',5"-Tetradeuterated Uridines	172
12.5	Metabolic Actions of Deuterated Drugs	172
12.6	Deuterabenazine: First Approved Deuterated Drug	173
12.7	Other Deuterated Drugs	174
12.8	Future of Deuterated Drugs	175
	Bibliography	176
	Index	179

Part I
Roles of Regular and Heavy Water in
Biosciences

Chapter 1

Overview: Background and Applications



The structure of liquid water and its interaction with biological molecules is a very active area of experimental and theoretical research. Water is essential for life by not only serving as a solvent but also contributing to an active role in biological structures and functions. Accordingly, water should not be treated as an inert environment alone but rather as an integral component of biomolecular systems. Researching water advances our understanding of the chemistry and physics of biological systems.

When dissolve in water, solute disrupts the local ordering of solvent molecules at the interface between a hydrated ion and the surrounding solvent. As an integral and active component of biomolecular systems, water actively participates in molecular recognition by mediating the interactions between biomolecular binding partners, including molecular interfaces, biological assembly, conformational changes, and biochemical reactivities.

Changes in the water environment affect the structure and function of biomolecules. Water participates in the catalytic function of proteins and nucleic acids, is involved in the protein folding through the hydrophobic interaction, mediates biomolecular binding through the hydrogen bond in complex formation, and also plays a critical role in the formation of lipid bilayer membranes.

Deuterium is a naturally occurring stable, nonradioactive isotope of hydrogen. Hydrogen consists of one electron and one proton with an atomic mass of 1.0, while deuterium has one neutron in addition to one electron and one proton with an atomic mass of 2.0. Deuterium occurs at a natural abundance of about 0.0015%. Regular water (H_2O) is the source of producing enriched heavy water (deuterium oxide; D_2O).

Physical properties of deuterium oxide differ to some extent from those of regular water. As solvent, there are fundamental differences between D_2O and H_2O . Investigations of deuterium oxide is a promising component in various areas of sciences, including chemistry, biochemistry, biotechnology, and pharmacology. Changes in the aqueous H_2O environment with D_2O affect the structure and stability of biomolecules (proteins, lipids, and nucleic acid) due to solvent effects as well as

deuteration effects. Deuterium solvent isotope effects are those due to the special properties of D_2O as the solvent, while deuterium substitution effects (deuteration) are resulted from deuterium replacing hydrogen in biological molecules.

Deuterium oxide is also a promising component in research related to human health.

D_2O is able to activate or inhibit biological systems and thus influences the metabolism and functions of tissues and organs. D_2O also has numerous therapeutic applications to health issues, such as hypertension, cancer, cardiac, and aging. Moreover, vaccines such as polio, influenza, and yellow fever undergo changes upon exposure to heat. The addition of deuterium oxide prompts the stabilization of viral vaccines.

Deuteration also affects biomolecules, such as the structures and functions of proteins and nucleic acids, and the interactions of lipids, lipid phases, and lipid peroxidation. Moreover, deuteration can also alter the pharmacological profile of a drug compound by producing an effect on its pharmacokinetics. The incorporation of deuterium into pharmacologically active agents offers potential benefits, such as improvements in efficacy, tolerability, or safety.

1.1 Role of Water in Biological Systems

As indicated above, water is an essential participant in the stability, structure, dynamics, and function of biomolecules. The interactions of biomolecules with water affect their structures, functions, and dynamics. Furthermore, water in tissues and cells is confined by intervening cellular components and is subject to structural effects which are not present in its bulk counterpart. Thus, the biological functions of water detail not only the stabilization effect on proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids but also involve the direct role that water molecules play in biochemical processes, such as enzyme kinetics, protein synthesis, and nucleic acid-drug interaction. Water molecules within the complex nucleic acid structures also assist in drug binding and catalytic reactions. Proper protein folding and helix structure of nucleic acids are driven by intermolecular interactions between biomolecules and water.

1.1.1 *Integral Component of Biomolecules*

The role of water as a solvent helps cells transport and utilize substances like oxygen or nutrients. Thus, water is an essential constituent of the protoplasm of living cells, which is directly involved in countless biochemical reactions like photosynthesis and respiration. Without water, cells could not move waste and by-products, take in nutrients, and perform intracellular transportation.

The behavior of water molecules at hydrophilic sites is different from that at hydrophobic sites. This dissimilar behavior promotes the anisotropy of the

hydration shell of biomolecules. Such anisotropy of the hydration shell is essential for the enzyme function. Hydration water generally has slower correlation times than water in bulk. The chemically complex surfaces of protein molecules alter the structure of the surrounding layer of hydrating water molecules.

Specific water-mediated interactions in protein complexes have been incorporated into potential energy functions for protein folding. Studies of bacteriorhodopsin revealed the importance of water molecules for proton transport and biological function and how protein conformational changes reposition or reorient internal water molecules, thereby guiding proton transport.

1.1.2 Interface Water

As pointed out above, the structure and function of biomolecules are strongly influenced by their hydration shells. Experimental and theoretical evidences revealed that solvation water is not a passive spectator in biomolecular processes. There is significant hydrogen bond dynamics for the function of proteins and for molecular recognition. Bound water is a major component of biological membranes and is required for the structural stability of lipid bilayers.

Membrane-water interface underlines the important role of membrane hydration properties. The understanding of structural changes of lipid bilayers, as a result of different properties of the environment outside or inside the membrane, provides a foundation for better insights into the structure-function relationships of biological membranes.

Infrared absorption is sensitive to hydrogen bonding and vibrational motion of water, as well as membrane proteins and lipids. Spectroscopic studies of fluorescence emission of membranes as a function of hydration revealed that increasing rigidity or decreasing polarity of the membrane-aqueous interface occurs with removal of water. Molecular dynamics simulations have led to insight into fluctuations of water structure and hydrated biomolecular interfaces.

1.2 Distinct Characteristics of Deuterium Oxide (D₂O)

Physicochemical properties of D₂O differ to some extent from those of H₂O. The molar mass for deuterium oxide (heavy water) is 20.028 versus 18.016 for hydrogen oxide (regular water). The dielectric constant at 25 °C is 78.06 for D₂O and 78.39 for H₂O. The viscosity of D₂O at room temperature has a value of 1.23 times the viscosity of H₂O.

Moreover, the mobility of ions dissolved in D₂O is smaller than in H₂O. Consequently, the conductivity of ions in D₂O is smaller than in H₂O. For instance, the ratio of conductivity in D₂O and H₂O is 0.82 for KCl, 0.83 in NaCl, and

0.82 in CH_3COOK . Furthermore, acids become weaker in heavy water than in regular water. The viscosity of liquid D_2O is 1.23 times that of H_2O .

1.2.1 Hydrogen Bonding: D_2O Versus H_2O

A hydrogen bond is formed between a covalently bonded hydrogen atom on the donor group (such as H-O or $\text{H-N}<$) and a pair of nonbonding electrons on an acceptor group (like $:\text{O}=\text{C}-$ or $:\text{N}=\text{}$), where the strength of a donor depends on its electronegativity. In biomolecules, O and N have appropriate electronegativities to serve as donors. Hydrogen bonds can be intermolecular or intramolecular. Intermolecular hydrogen bonding is responsible for the high boiling point of [water](#).

Intramolecular hydrogen bonding plays an important role in the structures of [proteins](#) and [nucleic acids](#). Many amino acid side chains carry groups that are either hydrogen bond donors or acceptors. Alpha-helix and beta-sheet are two important secondary structures of proteins. In the alpha-helix, hydrogen bonds are within a single chain (NH--O). In the beta-sheet, hydrogen bonds are between chains that run side by side. While in the base pairing in the helix structure of nucleic acid, hydrogen bonds are between base pairs (N-H--O) or $\text{N---H-N}<$), such as guanine-cytosine base pair.

1.2.2 Hydrophobic Interaction: D_2O Versus H_2O

The interactions of nonpolar substance or group with water molecular framework cause a perturbation in the hydrogen-bond network of water due to hydrophobic effect. This alters the ordering of the surrounding water structure, leading to a loss of randomness and a decrease in the entropy of the system. Molecular dynamics studies of the structure of water in the hydration shells of small hydrophobic solutes showed that a subset of water molecules in the first hydration shell of a nonpolar solute have a significantly enhanced tetrahedrality and a slightly larger number of hydrogen bonds, supporting the proposed hydrophobic effect.

Hydrophobic interaction is an important factor that makes a major contribution to the stability of biomolecules. Hydrophobic interaction has been extensively investigated within the context of solvent-induced effects that contribute to the driving force for biomolecular processes. Like hydrogen bonding, an understanding of hydrophobic interaction is important to the structure and stability of biomolecules in water medium.

When the polypeptide chain folds into a globular structure, the hydrophobic residues are buried within the folded proteins. In addition to hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interaction also contributes to driving important biological processes, like the double-helix formation of nucleic acids and a polar, hydrophilic head region connected to the hydrophobic hydrocarbon tail portion in lipids.

According to the calculated structural parameters, more structural order is present in D₂O than in H₂O at a given temperature. The free energy of hydrophobic interaction in D₂O was found to be -1.76 kJ/mol, for each contact between two methylene groups, compared with -1.40 kJ/mol in H₂O. Hence, hydrophobic interaction is stronger in D₂O than in H₂O medium.

1.2.3 Zero-Point Energy: D₂O Versus H₂O

Molecules possess residual vibrational energy at 0 °K. Zero-point energy is the lowest possible energy that a quantum mechanical system may have. This finite, minimum amount of kinetic energy is present in all matter even at 0 °K. The relative energies of hydrogen (H) and deuterium (D) bonds are due to the differences in zero-point vibrational energy.

Because of a greater atomic mass of *deuterium*, a deuterium-carbon bond has a lower **vibrational frequency**, leading to a deuterium-carbon bond having a lower zero-point energy than a corresponding hydrogen-carbon bond. Such lower zero-point energy translates to a higher **activation energy** for C-D bond cleavage and a slower rate constant than C-H bond.

Moreover, the zero-point vibrational energy of the D-bond is also lower than that of the H-bond in the neutral dimer and trimer of water. The total zero-point vibration energy of the (H₂O--H--OH₂) is higher when a D occupies the bridge position (D₂O--D--OD₂). Theoretical studies revealed that more structural order presents in D₂O than in H₂O at a given temperature, which is consistent with a comparative infrared study of hydrogen bonding in water and deuterium oxide.

1.3 D₂O Effects on Biochemical Reactions

The differences in physicochemical properties between D₂O and H₂O as indicated above significantly contribute to D₂O effects on the thermodynamics of biochemical reactions. While the differences in zero-point potential energy and vibration frequency between deuterium and hydrogen contribute significantly to D₂O effects on the kinetics of biochemical reactions.

1.3.1 Thermodynamic Effects

Elucidation of the stabilization of proteins by deuterium oxide is an active research area. For example, in tubulin, the protein loses its ability to form microtubules rapidly when stored in solution, while D₂O stabilizes tubulin against such thermal inactivation. Calorimetric studies showed that the temperatures for tubulin unfolding are

58.6 °C and 62.17 °C in D₂O, compared to 55.4 °C and 59.35 °C in H₂O. In addition, tubulin is inactivated after 40 hours at 4 °C in H₂O, while in D₂O, no activity was lost after 54 hours.

Moreover, D₂O effects on helix formation were demonstrated in the comparative studies of the thermodynamics of double-helix formation by (dG-dC)₃ in H₂O and D₂O. The average of the enthalpy was found to be -59.6 kcal/mol of helix in H₂O versus -65.8 kcal/mol of helix in D₂O, which reveals that D₂O solvent exhibits a stabilization effect on (dG-dC)₃ double-helix formation. Moreover, polypeptide (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀, which forms a triple-helical structure in H₂O solution, increases its melting temperature from 24.5 °C in H₂O to 40 °C in D₂O.

1.3.2 Kinetics Effects

Deuterium kinetic isotope effect is the change in the [reaction rate](#) of a [chemical reaction](#) when one of the [atoms](#) in the [reactants](#) is replaced by deuterium. Kinetics reaction rate change is a quantum mechanical effect, which primarily results from deuterium having lower [vibrational](#) frequencies as compared to hydrogen. This implies a greater energetic input needed for deuterium to reach the reaction [transition state](#) and consequently a slower reaction rate.

The C-D bond has a lower zero-point energy and a lower [vibrational frequency](#) than a corresponding C-H bond. This translates to a higher [activation energy](#) for C-D bond cleavage and a slower reaction rate. Hence, the deuterium isotope effect has the potential to affect the biological metabolism pathways involving C-H bond scission.

The study of kinetic isotope effects can help the elucidation of the [mechanism](#) of a biochemical reaction. For instance, cytochrome P450s are major enzymes that catalyze oxidation reactions involving the cleavage of C-H bond. The presence of a significant primary deuterium kinetic isotope effect is evident in cytochrome P450 reactions, where hydrogen abstraction is at least partially rate-limiting.

1.4 Preparations of Deuterated Biomolecules

Deuterated biomolecules are largely produced in bacterial systems, especially *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) grown in D₂O medium. Yeast, moss, and animal cells are also grown in a medium containing D₂O to produce deuterated biomolecules. Studies of the growth of different organisms in various concentrations of D₂O revealed that the growth is increasingly inhibited in higher concentrations as compared to lower concentrations of D₂O.

There seem to be certain species-specific limits to their tolerance to heavy water. Some organisms are unable to grow in heavy water, while others have no difficulties. Single-celled organisms can often be grown in an environment that is fully

deuterated. Lower organisms have been reported to survive in 30% D₂O. Mice and dogs tolerate long-term replacement of 10–15% of body H₂O with D₂O. However, toxicity is observed with exposure to above 25% D₂O.

1.5 Physical Methods in Studying D₂O and Deuteration Effects

Spectroscopic methods that are applied to investigate deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on the structures and functions of biomolecules include nuclear magnetic resonance, infrared, ultraviolet, and fluorescence spectroscopies. Deuterium nuclear magnetic resonance, neutron scattering, and Fourier transfer infrared spectroscopies are also applied to study deuteration effects on biomolecules, while non-spectroscopic methods include differential scanning calorimetry, circular dichroism, and molecular dynamic simulation.

1.6 Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects on Biomolecules

Deuterium solvent effect is referred to those due to the special properties of D₂O as the solvent. D₂O favors the burial of nonpolar surfaces and van der Waals packing in the biomolecule cores. While in H₂O, macromolecules would present more water-exposed surfaces, in particular at the macromolecular surface.

A broad variety of morphological and physiological changes have been observed in deuterium-treated cells and organisms. D₂O-induced changes in biological processes include cell division and energy metabolism. The mechanisms underlying the effects of deuterium oxide are likely to provide insight into the fundamental significance of hydrogen bonds in biological functions. Moreover, the hydrophobic effect is known to be stronger in D₂O than in H₂O.

D₂O affects biomolecules, including proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids. The stability of a protein is vital for its biological function, and proper folding is partially driven by intermolecular interactions between protein and water. Investigations of the effect of D₂O on the structural stability of bovine serum albumin revealed that D₂O enhances its conformational stability and reduces its monomer loss.

Studies of the effects of deuterium oxide on the stability of collagen peptides revealed that the transition temperatures of the protonated peptide (Pro-Pro-Gly) (10)-OH are increased from 25.4 °C in H₂O to 28.7 °C in D₂O. Moreover, the phase-transition properties of lipid vesicles prepared from 1,2-distearoyl-, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-, and 1,2-di-myristoyl-L-3-glyceryl-phosphatidylcholines were compared in D₂O and H₂O, which showed that their phase-transition temperatures are 0.2–0.4 °C higher in D₂O than in H₂O.

1.7 Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules

Deuteration effects are resulted as deuterium (D) replaces hydrogen (H) in biological molecules. Lower organisms such as bacteria, algae, yeast, and molds can be grown in 100% D₂O, resulting in the stable deuteration of their cellular components. The higher mass of deuterium affects the physicochemical properties of biomolecules.

For example, comparative investigations of normal and deuterated phycocyanins isolated from blue-green algae revealed that deuterated proteins are less resistant to the denaturant urea than are normal proteins. The value of the thermal denaturation temperature in deuterated protein is about 5°C lower than that in normal protein. The magnitudes of the enthalpy of denaturation in deuterated protein are 18–36% lower than in normal protein.

In addition, deuterium was found to slow the rates of hydrogen transfer reactions. Depending on the site of deuteration, deuterium can be exchanged into drug compounds or into reagents that are useful for synthesizing drug molecules. Incorporation of deuterium may significantly alter the metabolic profile of a drug molecule.

1.8 Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Human Health

As indicated above, the effects of deuterium oxide on living systems are generally categorized into two areas: (a) deuterium solvent effect based on the properties of D₂O molecule, particularly its effects on biological molecules and the structure of water, and (b) deuterium isotope substitution effect, which results from the replacement of H with D in biological molecules.

Deuterium oxide is a promising component in the areas of biotechnology, chemistry, and medicine. Deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on human health include diseases, vaccination, and pharmacology.

1.8.1 D₂O Effects on Diseases

Deuterium oxide has therapeutic implications, which can be applied as a therapeutic agent against disease conditions, such as hypertension, cancers, cardiac disease, and aging. For instance, a minimum dose of 10% deuterium oxide was found to prevent the development of hypertension, elevated aortic calcium uptake, and renal vascular changes in spontaneously hypertensive rats. Deuterium-depleted water was shown to be an anticancer agent with potential clinical applications. Moreover, a tracer dose of deuterium oxide can be applied to determine the total body water by the deuterium nuclear magnetic resonance method.

1.8.2 Deuteration Effects on Health-Related Issues

Deuteration effects on health-related issues include autoxidation, oxidative damage, and deuterated medicine. Autoxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids is initiated by the abstraction of bis-allylic hydrogen atoms, resulting in a chain reaction that generates toxic products associated with various health disorders. Replacement of bis-allylic hydrogens in polyunsaturated fatty acids with deuterium atoms inhibits their peroxidation, leading to cell protection against oxidative stress.

Oxidative damage resulting from increased lipid peroxidation is considered an important factor in the development of Alzheimer's disease. Administration of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids represents a promising strategy to reduce rates of lipid peroxidation, which can be beneficial in improving Huntington's disease condition.

1.8.3 D₂O Effects on Pharmacokinetics

A significant number of studies have appeared in the literature over the years reporting the deuterium isotope effect on **enzyme-catalyzed reactions**, including **cytochrome P450s**, **monoamine oxidase**, **alcohol dehydrogenase**, and **aldehyde oxidase**. These enzymes are responsible for drug metabolism. Due to the kinetic isotope effect, the replacement of hydrogen with deuterium has the potential to slow down their metabolic pathways.

Accordingly, deuterium oxide has been utilized to improve the pharmacokinetic properties of drugs. Deuterium substitution can potentially affect the overall pharmacological profile of a drug compound. The application of deuterium medicinal chemistry to drug compounds with well-understood therapeutic utility can potentially provide a risk-reduced approach to creating new drugs that address important medical needs.

1.8.4 Thermal Stabilization of Vaccines by D₂O

Live attenuated vaccines, such as polio, influenza, yellow fever, measles, and mump vaccines, are made up of proteins, nucleic acids, lipids, and carbohydrates. These vaccines undergo changes when exposed to heat. Therefore, the thermostability of vaccine in solution is an important consideration.

Enhancement of thermostability of vaccines can also lead to the improvement of vaccine effectiveness. Deuterium oxide has been known to stabilize attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation. Accordingly, thermal stabilization effect of deuterium oxide has been studied on vaccines, including oral poliovirus and influenza virus vaccines.

1.8.5 Deuteration Effects on Pharmacology

One critical area of pharmacologic research is to improve the effective therapeutics of drugs. Research has been carried out to prolong the residence time of the drug to achieve greater efficacy and to alter the rate of metabolism to afford greater tolerability. Another critical area of pharmacologic research is the studies of the reactions between drugs and living systems, including the body's responses to drugs and interactions between the drug and the human body.

Certain drugs may be favorably influenced when deuterium is substituted for protium, which could result in improved safety, tolerability, or efficacy. To slow down the metabolic process and improve the half-life of the drugs, incorporation of deuterium in the drug (referred to as deuterated drugs) has been carried out, which revealed that deuterated versions of existing drugs can exhibit improved pharmacokinetic or toxicological properties, due to the stronger deuterium-carbon bond that modifies their metabolism. An increased interest in deuterium substituted medicines is reflected by a greater number of patent filings. Their early clinical results have been encouraging.

Bibliography

- Albergo DD, Marky LA, Breslauer KJ et al (1981) Thermodynamics of (dG--dC)₃ double-helix formation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 20(6):1409–1413
- Auffinger P, Hashem Y (2007) Nucleic acid solvation: from outside to insight. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 17(3):325–333
- Bellissent-Funel MC, Hassanali A, Havenith M et al (2016) Water determines the structure and dynamics of proteins. *Chem Rev* 116(13):7673–7697
- Ben-Naim A (2003) Hydrophobic hydrophilic phenomena in biochemical processes. *Biophys Chem* 105(2–3):183–193
- Biedermannova L, Schneider B (2016) Hydration of proteins and nucleic acids: Advances in experiment and theory. A review. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1860(9):1821–1835
- Chakrabarti G, Kim S, Gupta ML Jr et al (1999) Stabilization of tubulin by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 38(10):3067–3072
- Chen CH (1982) Interactions of lipid vesicles with solvent in heavy and light water. *J Phys Chem* 86:3559–3562
- Chen CH, Liu IW, MacColl R et al (1983) Differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins (phycocyanin). *Biopolymers* 22:1223–1233
- Das A, Sinha S, Acharya BR et al (2008) Deuterium oxide stabilizes conformation of tubulin: a biophysical and biochemical study. *BMB Rep* 41(1):62–67
- Despa F (2005) Biological water: its vital role in macromolecular structure and function. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1066:1–11
- Galamba N (2013) Water's structure around hydrophobic solutes and the iceberg model. *J Phys Chem B* 117(7):2153–2159
- Gerwert K, Freier E (1837) Wolf S (2014) The Role of protein-bound water molecules in microbial rhodopsins. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 5:606–613
- Gough CA, Bhatnagar RS (1999) Differential stability of the triple helix of (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ in H₂O and D₂O: thermodynamic and structural explanations. *J Biomol Struct Dyn* 17(3):481–491
- Grabowski SJ (2006) Hydrogen bonding – new insight. Springer

- Guengerich FP (2017) Kinetic deuterium isotope effects in cytochrome P450 reactions. *Methods Emzymol* 596:217–238
- Harbeson SL, Tung RD (2011) Deuterium in drug discovery and development. *Ann Rep. Med Chem* 46:403–417
- Hummer G, Tokmakoff A (2014) Special topic on biological Water. *J Chem Phys* 141(22):22D101
- Jasnin M, Tehei M, Moulin M et al (2008) Solvent isotope effect on macromolecular dynamics in *E. coli*. *Eur Biophys J* 37(5):613–617
- Jeffrey GA, Saenger W (1994) Hydrogen bonding in biological structures. Springer
- Kaur S, Gupta M (2017) Deuteration as a tool for optimization of metabolic stability and toxicity of drugs. *Global J Pharm Pharma Sci*, Juniper Publishers
- Kucerka N, Gallova J, Uhrlikova D (2019) The membrane structure and function affected by water. *Chem Phys Lipids* 221:140–144
- Kushner DJ, Baker A, Dunstall TG (1999) Pharmacological uses and perspectives of heavy water and deuterated compounds. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 77(2):79–88
- Laage D, Elsaesser T, Hynes JT (2017) Water dynamics in the hydration shells of biomolecules. *Chem Rev* 117(16):10694–10725
- Levy Y, Onuchic JN (2006) Water mediation in protein folding and molecular recognition. *Annu Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* 35:389–415
- Mizuno K, Bachinger HP (2010) The effect of deuterium oxide on the stability of the collagen model peptides H-(Pro-Pro-Gly)(10)-OH, H-(Gly-Pro-4(R)Hyp)(9)-OH, and Type I collagen. *Biopolymers* 93(1):93–101
- Moore PB, Engelman DM (1976) The production of deuterated *E. coli*. *Brookhaven Symp Biol* 27:V12–V23
- Nelson SD, Trager WF (2003) The use of deuterium isotope effects to probe the active site properties, mechanism of cytochrome P450-catalyzed reactions, and mechanisms of metabolically dependent toxicity. *Drug Metab Dispos* 31(12):1481–1498
- Nemethy G, Scheraga HA (1964) Structure of water and hydrophobic bonding in proteins. IV. Thermodynamic properties of liquid deuterium oxide. *J Chem Phys* 41:680–689
- Nibali VC, Havenith M (2014) New insights into the role of water in biological function: studying solvated biomolecules using terahertz absorption spectroscopy in conjunction with molecular dynamics simulations. *J Am Chem Soc* 136(37):12800–12807
- Oakenfull DG, Fenwick DE (1975) Hydrophobic interaction in deuterium oxide. *Aust J Chem* 28(4):715–720
- Raefsky SM, Furman R, Milne G et al (2018) Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids reduce brain lipid peroxidation and hippocampal amyloid β -peptide levels, without discernable behavioral effects in an APP/PS1 mutant transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol* 66:165–176
- Rakshit S, Saha R, Chakraborty A et al (2013) Effect of hydrophobic interaction on structure, dynamics, and reactivity of water. *Langmuir* 29(6):1808–1817
- Raschke TM (2006) Water structure and interactions with protein surfaces. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 16(2):152–159
- Reslan M, Kayser V (2018) The effect of deuterium oxide on the conformational stability and aggregation of bovine serum albumin. *Pharm Dev Technol* 23(10):1030–1036
- Scheiner S, Cuma M (1996) Relative stability of hydrogen and deuterium Bonds. *J Am Chem Soc* 118(6):1511–1521
- Schneider AS, Middaugh CR, Oldewurtel MD (1979) Role of bound water in biological membrane structure: fluorescence and infrared studies. *J Supramol Struct* 10(2):265–275
- Shchepinov MS (2020) Polyunsaturated fatty acid deuteration against neurodegeneration. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 41(4):236–248
- Stadtmiller SS, Pielak GJ (2018) Enthalpic stabilization of an SH3 domain by D₂O. *Protein Sci* 27(9):1710–1716
- Tung RD (2016) Deuterium medicinal chemistry comes of age. *Future Med Chem* 8(5):491–494

- Vanatalu K, Paalme T, Vilu R et al (1993) Large-scale preparation of fully deuterated cell components. Ribosomes from *Escherichia coli* with high biological activity. *Eur J Biochem* 216(1):315–321
- Weiss L, Fan Y, Abraham P et al (2021) Fed-batch production of deuterated protein in *Escherichia coli* for neutron scattering experimentation. *Methods Enzymol* 659:219–240

Chapter 2

Characteristics of Deuterium Oxide Versus Hydrogen Oxide



Water (H_2O) exhibits unique properties that distinguish it from other liquids. High heat capacity and high dielectric constant make water an excellent solvent for a wide variety of organic and inorganic compounds. Although water molecule is neutrally charged, its electrons are asymmetrically distributed, making the molecule polar. Furthermore, the oxygen in H_2O draws electrons away from the hydrogen, leaving hydrogen with a net positive charge, while the excess electron density creates a weak negative charge on the oxygen atom. As a result, water has unique properties that form hydrogen bonds between its molecules.

Water is composed of 70% of mammalian cells, including the human body. As the solvent, H_2O plays an essential role in chemical and biological processes from molecules, cells to tissues in living organisms. Moreover, water is confined by intervening cellular components and is subject to structural effects that are not present in its bulk counterpart. Consequently, water in biological systems is not just a solvent but also a partner in the formation of the structures of biomolecules, including proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids.

2.1 Role of Water in Biological Systems

Water molecules are as essential as amino acids for proton transport and biological function. For example, protein-bound internal water molecules are essential features of the structure and function of microbial **rhodopsin**. The importance of water molecules for **proton transport** has been revealed through this protein, where protein-bound water acts as proton conductors and even proton storage sites.

As an integral and active component of biomolecular systems, water has both dynamic and structural roles. Focusing on water also sheds light on the function of biological molecules and their assembly. Water is also directly involved in countless biochemical reactions, such as respiration, photosynthesis, and cell transport.

Without water, cells cannot move waste and by-products, take in nutrients, or perform intracellular transport and functioning.

Two extremely important biological molecular interactions involving water as the solvent of life are hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction. Hydrogen bonding is an **electrostatic** attraction force that involves a partially positively charged **hydrogen** atom **covalently bound** to a nearby partially negatively charged atom. Hydrogen bonds are essential to maintaining the structure and stability of biomolecules, including proteins, nucleic acids, and membrane lipids.

While hydrophobic interaction describes the relations between water and nonpolar molecules or groups, it is also critical to maintaining the structure, function, and assembly of biomolecules. A better understanding of the hydrophobic hydration of biomolecules may yield insights into biomolecular structures and functions and intracellular assembly. Comparable to hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interactions also play a critical role in protein folding, nucleic acid helical formation, and lipid bilayer membranes.

2.2 Deuterium Oxide

Deuterium is a naturally occurring, stable, nonradioactive isotope of hydrogen. Hydrogen consists of one electron and one proton with an atomic mass of 1.0, while deuterium has a single electron, but its nucleus contains one neutron and one proton with an atomic mass of 2.0. Deuterium oxide (heavy water; D_2O) occurs naturally in much smaller quantities than hydrogen oxide (regular water; H_2O). In nature, the abundance of deuterium is 1 per about 7000 hydrogen atoms.

The replacement of regular water with deuterium oxide or hydrogen with deuterium in biomolecules affects hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction. A broad variety of morphological and physiological changes have been observed in deuterium-treated cells and organisms, including changes in fundamental processes, such as cell division or energy metabolism. Deuterium solvent effects exhibit unique physicochemical properties and distinctive kinetic effects. In addition, deuteration involving deuterium isotope substitution compounds, such as deuterated drugs, is of significant biotechnological potential.

Some organisms have no difficulties growing in deuterium oxide medium, while some are unable to grow. Single-celled organisms can often be grown in an environment that is fully deuterated. Lower organisms, such as fish, have been reported to survive in at least 30% D_2O . Mice and dogs tolerate long-term replacement of at least 10–15% of body fluid hydrogen with deuterium. However, toxicity is observed with acute or chronic exposure to above 25% of D_2O . Humans can tolerate moderate exposure to deuterium in body fluids, and D_2O is excreted by humans via the urine with a half-life of about 10 days.

Table 2.1 Comparisons of physical properties of D₂O with H₂O

Physical characteristics	D ₂ O	H ₂ O
Radioactivity	No	No
Molar mass	20.028	18.016
Dielectric constant (at 25 °C)	78.06	78.39
Zero-point vibrational energy (kcal/mol)	9.69	13.25
Density (g/cm ³)	1.1044	1.0
Viscosity (cp at 30 °C)	0.969	0.91
Bond length (×10 ⁸ cm)	0.9575	0.9572
Bond angle	104.474	104.523
Melting point (°C)	3.82	0
Boiling point (°C)	101.42	100
pD and pH at 25 °C	7.44	7.0

2.3 Physical Properties of D₂O Versus H₂O

Water has attracted the most scientific attention among other liquids due to its anomalous properties, such as negative volume of melting, density maximum at 4 °C, high melting and boiling points, high dielectric constant, and high mobility transport for H⁺ and OH⁻ ions.

Comparisons of physical properties of deuterium oxide with hydrogen oxide are listed in Table 2.1, including radioactivity, molar mass, dielectric constant, zero-point vibrational energy, density, viscosity, bond length, bond angle, melting point, boiling point, and values of pD and pH. In deuterium oxide, the O-D bond length is shorter than O-H, and the D-O-D angle is lesser than H-O-H.

As shown in the table, the [boiling point](#) for heavy water is 101.4 °C versus 100.0 °C for regular water. The [melting point](#) for heavy water is 3.8 °C versus 4.0 °C for regular water. The viscosity of heavy water at 25 °C is 1.23 times as great as that of regular [water](#). The boiling point of D₂O is 101.42 °C versus 100.0 °C for regular water.

Moreover, the value of the dielectric constant is 78.39 for regular water and 78.06 for deuterium oxide at room temperature, and the viscosity of D₂O has a value of 1.23 times that of H₂O. The mobility of ions dissolved in D₂O is smaller than in H₂O, leading to the smaller conductivity of ions in D₂O than in H₂O.

2.4 Zero-Point Potential Energy of D₂O Versus H₂O

Temperature is a measure of the intensity of random molecular motion. Even as the temperature is reduced to absolute zero, molecular motion never vanishes. There is a finite, minimum amount of kinetic energy in all matter even at 0°K. This residual

vibrational energy that a molecule possesses is called the zero-point energy, which is the lowest possible energy that a quantum mechanical system may have.

The heavier mass of deuterium lowers the frequency and hence is associated with lower zero-point vibrational energy. Table 2.1 shows that zero-point vibrational energy is 9.69 kcal/mol for deuterium oxide versus 13.25 kcal/mol for hydrogen oxide. Because of this difference, the lower energy of a hydrogen (H) bond in HOH··OH is compared to a deuterium (D) bond in DOD··OD. Raising the temperature invoking thermal vibration tends to preferentially stabilize H bond over D bond.

2.5 Deuterium Bond Versus Hydrogen Bond

The equilibrium properties of systems containing hydrogen or deuterium bonds are dependent on the vibrational motion of the nuclei, which reflects the shape, as well as the depth of the potential energy surface. Differences in the stabilities of H- and D-bonded species are related to differences in the zero-point vibration energy. A lower zero-point vibrational energy for deuterium oxide than hydrogen oxide generally leads to weaker deuterium bonding than hydrogen bonding.

The formation of hydrogen bond and deuterium bond is illustrated in Fig. 2.1. A more detailed description of deuterium bond versus hydrogen bond is discussed in Chap. 3.

2.6 C-D Bond Versus C-H Bond

The heavier atom has a lower frequency of vibration than the light atom, which leads to the heavier atom having a lower frequency of vibration and lower zero-point energy for the lighter atom. Accordingly, due to the greater atomic mass of **deuterium**, the deuterium-carbon (C-D) bond has a lower **vibrational frequency** than the hydrogen-carbon bond (C-H). Since C-D bond has a lower zero-point energy than the corresponding C-H bond, the C-D bond vibrates less than C-H bond, leading to stronger gravitational attraction between them.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the comparisons of C-D bond with C-H bond. The lower zero-point energy leads to the higher **activation energy** for C-D bond cleavage. As a result, the bond dissociation energy for C-D is greater than that of C-H.

Fig. 2.1 Hydrogen bonding versus deuterium bonding

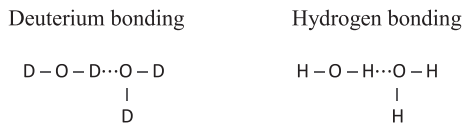
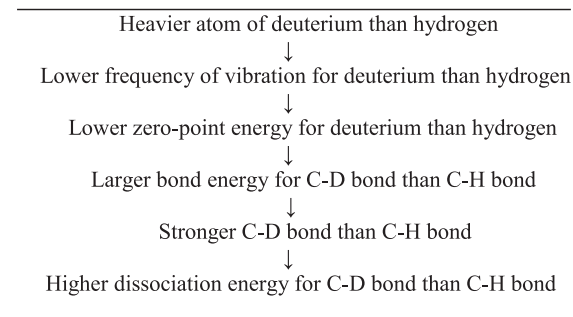


Fig. 2.2 Comparisons of C-D bond with C-H bond

2.7 pD of D₂O Versus pH of H₂O

Since deuterium (D) is heavier than hydrogen (H), D-OD vibration is weaker than H-OH vibration. Thus, D-O bond is more stable than H-O bond. Hence, D₂O is a weaker acid than H₂O. At 25 °C, the pH of H₂O is 7.0, and the pD of D₂O is 7.4 (Table 2.1), as shown in Equations (2.1) and (2.2):

$$\text{pH} = -\log[\text{H}^+] = 7.0 \text{ in H}_2\text{O} \quad (2.1)$$

$$\text{pD} = -\log[\text{D}^+] = 7.4 \text{ in D}_2\text{O} \quad (2.2)$$

Equation (2.2) minus Eq. (2.1) leads to

$$-\log[\text{D}^+] + \log[\text{H}^+] = \log\left(\frac{[\text{H}^+]}{[\text{D}^+]}\right) = 0.40 \quad (2.3)$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{[\text{H}^+]}{[\text{D}^+]} = 2.51 \quad (2.4)$$

Equation (2.4) shows that H₂O is more acidic than D₂O, implying that H-O bond is weaker than D-O bond.

2.8 Dissociation Constants of Acids in D₂O Versus H₂O

Differences in dissociation constants of acids in H₂O and D₂O solvents are a consequence of distinction in zero-point energy between proton and deuterium when attached to a water molecule. Such differences are associated primarily with changes in hydrogen bonding strength of acid in the solvent. The dissociation constant of acid in H₂O solvent can be represented as follows:

Table 2.2 Bonding characteristics in D₂O versus H₂O

Physical property	Deuterium oxide	Hydrogen oxide
Zero-point energy	Lower	Higher
Activation energy	Higher	Lower
Deuterium/hydrogen bond	Stronger	Weaker
O-D/O-H bond	Stronger	Weaker
C-D/C-H bond	Stronger	Weaker
Rate of D-C H-C cleavage	Slower	Faster
Acid dissociation constant	Weaker	Stronger



$$K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = [\text{H}^+]_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} [\text{A}^-]_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} / [\text{HA}]_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad (2.6)$$

$$\text{p}K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = -\log K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad (2.7)$$

while the dissociation of acid in D₂O solvent is represented as



$$K_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} = [\text{H}^+]_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} [\text{A}^-]_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} / [\text{HA}]_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} \quad (2.9)$$

$$\text{p}K_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} = -\log K_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} \quad (2.10)$$

Equations (2.10)–(2.7) give

$$\Delta\text{p}K = \text{p}K_{\text{D}_2\text{O}} - \text{p}K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad (2.11)$$

$$= \log(K_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} / K_{\text{D}_2\text{O}}) \quad (2.12)$$

Since acid dissociation constant in D₂O solvent is weaker than that in H₂O, ΔpK therefore is positive.

Table 2.2 lists bonding characteristics in D₂O versus H₂O medium, including acid dissociation constant.

2.9 D₂O Versus H₂O as the Solvent in Biological System

The structure of liquid water and its interaction with biomolecules is a very active research area. Studying how water interacts with biomolecules reveals water motion toward functional sites of biomolecules. The behavior of water molecules at

hydrophilic sites is different from that at hydrophobic sites. This dissimilar behavior promotes the anisotropy of the hydration shell of proteins. Such anisotropy of the hydration shell is essential for the enzyme function.

Changes in the aqueous environment can also affect the stability and function of biomolecules. Investigations of D₂O as the solvent can also provide insight into the role of solvation and hydrogen bonding in biomolecules. Accordingly, changes in the aqueous environment by replacing H₂O with D₂O as the solvent can have a large impact on the stability and function of biomolecules.

Moreover, the interaction of solvent with a polypeptide chain is a primary factor in maintaining protein folding and stability. For instance, substitution of H₂O with D₂O affects the formation of the immunoglobulin module of human cardiac titin. Water also participates in the catalytic function of proteins. Molecular dynamics simulations revealed a specific water-protein coupling as the cause of its dynamical heterogeneity.

Furthermore, water plays a critical role in double-helical structure of nucleic acids and bilayer structure of membrane lipids. Water also participates in the catalytic function of proteins and nucleic acids, as well as mediates binding through the hydrogen bond in complex formation. Hence, the replacement of H₂O with D₂O as the solvent affects the structures, functions, and activities of biomolecules, including conformation stability, molecular interaction, and membrane transport as discussed below.

2.9.1 Structure Stability

The stability of a protein is vital for its biological function, and proper folding is driven by intermolecular interactions between protein and water. In the studies of how water interacts with biomolecules differing from bulk water, molecular dynamics simulations provided evidence for a specific water-protein coupling as the cause of the observed dynamical heterogeneity.

In turn, the complex surfaces of protein molecules alter the structure of the surrounding layer of hydrating water molecules.

Specific water-mediated interactions in protein complexes have been incorporated into potential energy functions for protein folding. The stability of proteins is significantly affected by replacing regular water with deuterium oxide. Deuterium oxide is known to have strong stabilization effects on the assembly dynamics of several proteins including tubulin, lysozyme, and bovine serum albumin. D₂O was also found to stabilize proteins against denaturants. For example, ovalbumin undergoes urea denaturation more slowly in D₂O than in H₂O. Moreover, in many physical measurements, H₂O is replaced by D₂O, because H₂O interferes with the measured signal.

The increase of protein stability in D₂O was interpreted by the observation that D₂O is a poorer solvent for nonpolar amino acids than H₂O, which implies that the hydrophobic effect is larger in D₂O. Nevertheless, thermodynamic analysis of the

Drosophila signal transduction protein revealed that the stabilizing effect of D₂O compared with H₂O is enthalpic and has a small to insignificant effect on the entropy and the heat capacity of unfolding.

Moreover, ribonuclease dissolved in D₂O was found to be more stably held in the alpha-helix form than that in water. Studies of double-helix formation by (dG-dC)₃ also revealed differences in the enthalpy of formation: -59.6 and -65.8 kcal/mol of helix in H₂O and D₂O, respectively.

In lipid bilayer studies, fluorescence measurements on 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine and 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine membranes revealed significantly slower dynamics and lower hydration of the headgroup region for a bilayer hydrated with D₂O than H₂O.

2.9.2 Molecular Interaction

Water actively participates in molecular recognition by mediating the interactions between binding partners. For instance, D₂O was found to enhance the initial rate and final extents of polymerization of tubulin. The yields of polymerization are increased with the increasing D₂O concentration. In addition, deuterium oxide is also known to promote the assembly of tubulin into microtubules and to inhibit mitosis. Replacing 50% or more of H₂O with D₂O promotes microtubule polymerization and stabilizes microtubules. The observed enhancement of the polymerization of tubulin by D₂O could be the result of strengthening hydrophobic interactions of the tubulin molecules. The mechanism responsible for the ability of D₂O to stabilize microtubule dynamics may also involve the substitution of deuterium bonds for hydrogen bonds.

2.9.3 Membrane Transport

Water molecules are essential for proton transport and biological function. In the transport of sucrose across membranes, the protonmotive force that stimulates translocation activity is a function of the pH at the inner face of the membrane and is stimulated by the transmembrane pH gradient and the transmembrane electrical potential. Such translocation activity of proton-transfer reaction is retarded in D₂O medium, indicating that D₂O can affect membranous transport processes by solvent and kinetic isotope effects.

Moreover, the voltage-activated H⁺ selective conductance of rat alveolar epithelial cells was investigated to examine the effects of substituting D₂O for H₂O on the conductance. D⁺ was found to permeate proton channels, but with a conductance about half that of H⁺. Such reduction in conductance in D₂O is more than that which could be accounted for by the lower mobility of D⁺ than H⁺, suggesting that D⁺ interacts specifically with the channel during permeation.

Table 2.3 Effects of D₂O and deuteration on biomolecules

<i>D₂O as the solvent</i>	<i>Effects</i>
Structure stability	Stabilization of proteins against denaturants and the assembly dynamics
	Larger hydrophobic effect in D ₂ O
	More stable alpha-helix form of RNA in D ₂ O
	Slower dynamics and lower hydration of lipid
	Bilayer headgroup region with D ₂ O
Molecular interaction	D ₂ O enhances the initial rate and final extents of polymerization of tubulin
	The ability of D ₂ O to stabilize microtubule
Membrane transport	Translocation activity of proton-transfer reaction is retarded in D ₂ O
<i>Deuteration on biomolecules</i>	
Kinetics of deuteration	A slower reaction rate occurs with deuteration
	A substantial kinetic isotope effect on deprotonation and re-protonation reactions
Metabolics of deuteration	Potential benefits result from deuteration of pharmacologically active agents
	Improving exposure profiles and decreasing toxic metabolites

Furthermore, as a major component of biological membranes, bound water is required for the structural stability of the lipid bilayer and is also involved in membrane fusion and mobility of proteins and lipids. Changes in the rigidity or the polarity of the membrane-aqueous interface may occur with the replacement of H₂O with D₂O as the solvent.

The above-discussed effects of D₂O versus H₂O as the solvent on structural stability, molecular interaction, and membrane transport of biomolecules are briefly summarized in Table 2.3.

2.10 Deuteration of Biomolecules

Deuteration involves a whole or part of hydrogen atoms being replaced with deuterium atoms. In the case of a deuterated drug, one or more hydrogen atoms are replaced with **deuterium** atoms. Deuteration of a drug can potentially affect its pharmacokinetics, leading to a lower rate of **metabolism** and a longer **half-life** than the non-deuterated drug, when the drug is metabolized by pathways involving C-H bond scission.

2.10.1 Kinetics of Deuteration

Carbon-deuterium (C-D) bond has a lower vibrational frequency and a lower zero-point energy than a corresponding carbon-hydrogen (C-H bond). Due to the greater atomic mass of deuterium, the cleavage of C-D bond requires greater energy than C-H bond. A greater energetic input is needed for the heavier atom (D) to reach the [transition state](#), so that a slower reaction rate occurs with deuterium isotope. The kinetic isotope effect is referred to the change in the [reaction rate](#) of a [chemical reaction](#) when one of the [atoms](#) in the [reactants](#) is replaced with its [isotopes](#).

When hydrogen is replaced with deuterium, kinetic isotope effect is represented by the ratio of [rate constants](#) for the reactions involving the lighter H atom (k_H) and the heavy D atom (k_D):

$$\text{Kinetic isotope effect} = k_H / k_D \quad (2.13)$$

Equation (2.13) is referred to as the primary deuterium isotope effect, which is the ratio of the rate of C-H versus C-D bond cleavage. For example, investigations of kinetic isotope effects of carboxylic groups of aspartic and glutamic acid residues were carried out by monitoring their C=O stretching vibrations in H₂O and in D₂O, which revealed a substantial kinetic isotope effect (>2) in its deprotonation and re-protonation reactions.

2.10.2 Metabolism of Deuteration

Studies of kinetic isotope effects can help not only the elucidation of the [reaction mechanism](#) of biochemical reactions but also the exploitation of drug development to improve the unfavorable [pharmacokinetics](#) involving metabolically vulnerable C-H bonds. The incorporation of deuterium into pharmacologically active agents offers potential benefits, such as improving exposure profiles and decreasing the production of toxic metabolites.

Besides drug development, deuteration can also be applied to alter the metabolism of a compound allowing its use as a mechanistic probe. In summary, the above-discussed deuteration effects on kinetics and metabolisms of biomolecules are also briefly listed in Table 2.3.

Bibliography

- Albergo DD, Marky LA, Breslauer KJ et al (1981) Thermodynamics of (dG--dC)₃ double-helix formation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 20(6):1409–1413
- Auffinger P, Hashem Y (2007) Nucleic acid solvation: from outside to insight. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 17(3):325–333
- Bell RP, Kuhn AT (1963) Dissociation constants of some acids in deuterium oxide. *Tran Faraday Soc* 59:1789–1793

- Bellissent-Funel MC, Hassanali A, Havenith M et al (2016) Water determines the structure and dynamics of proteins. *Chem Rev* 116(13):7673–7697
- Buckingham AD, Liu FC (1981) Differences in the hydrogen and deuterium bonds. *Int Rev Phys Chem* 1(2):253–269
- Bunton CA, Shiner VJ (1961) Isotope effects in deuterium oxide solution. I. Acid-base equilibrium. *J Am Chem Soc* 83, 1:42–47
- Cho Y, Sagle LB, Iimura S et al (2009) Hydrogen bonding of beta-turn structure is stabilized in D₂O. *J Am Chem Soc* 131(42):15188–15193
- DeCoursey TE, Cherny VV (1997) Deuterium isotope effects on permeation and gating of proton channels in rat alveolar epithelium. *J Gen Physiol* 109(4):415–434
- Despa F (2005) Biological water: its vital role in macromolecular structure and function. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1066:1–11
- Driessen AJ, Wickner W (1991) Proton transfer is rate-limiting for translocation of precursor proteins by the *Escherichia coli* translocase. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 88(6):2471–2475
- Efimova YM, Haemers S, Wierczinski B et al (2007) Stability of globular proteins in H₂O and D₂O. *Biopolymers* 85(3):264–273
- Gerwert K, Freier E, Wolf S (2014) The role of protein-bound water molecules in microbial rhodopsins. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1837(5):606–613
- Halpern O (1935) On the dissociation constants of acids in light and heavy water. *J Chem Phys* 3:456–457
- Harbeson SL, Tung RD (2011) Deuterium in drug discovery and development. *Ann Rep Med Chem* 46:403–417
- Harbeson SL, Tung RD (2014) Deuterium medicinal chemistry: a new approach to drug discovery and development. *Medical News* 24(2):8–22
- Itoh TJ, Sato H (1984) The effects of deuterium oxide (2H₂O) on the polymerization of tubulin in vitro. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 800(1):21–27
- Koti DL, Genchev G, Lu H et al (2008) A Single-molecule perspective on the role of solvent hydrogen bonds in protein folding and chemical reactions. *Chem Phys Chem* 9(18):2836–2847
- Kselikova V, Vítova M, Bisova K (2019) Deuterium and its impact on living organisms. *Folia Microbiol (Praha)* 64(5):673–681
- Levy Y, Onuchic JN (2006) Water mediation in protein folding and molecular recognition. *Ann Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* 35:389–415
- Mattos C (2002) Protein–water interactions in a dynamic world. *Trends Biol Sci* 27(4):203–208
- Nibali VC, Havenith M (2014) New insights into the role of water in biological function: studying solvated biomolecules using terahertz absorption spectroscopy in conjunction with molecular dynamics simulations. *J Am Chem Soc* 136(37):12800–12807
- Panda D, Chakrabarti G, Hudson J et al (2000) Suppression of microtubule dynamic instability and treadmilling by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 39(17):5075–5081
- Raschke TM (2006) Water structure and interactions with protein surfaces. *Curr Opin Struc Biol* 16(2):152–159
- Resler T, Schultz B-J, Lorenz-Fonfria VA et al (2015) Kinetic and vibrational isotope effects of proton transfer reactions in channelrhodopsin-2. *Biophys J* 109(2):287–297
- Robinson RA, Paabo M, Bates RG (1969) Deuterium isotope effect on the dissociation of weak acids in water and deuterium oxide. *J Res Natl Bur Stand A Phys Chem* 73A(3):299–308
- Rog T, Murzyn K, Milhaud J et al (2009) Water isotope effect on the phosphatidylcholine bilayer properties: a molecular dynamics simulation study. *J Phys Chem B* 113(8):2378–2387
- Scheiner S, Cuma M (1996) Relative stability of hydrogen and deuterium bonds. *J Am Chem Soc* 118(6):1511–1521
- Schneider AS, Middaugh CR, Oldewurtel MD (1979) Role of bound water in biological membrane structure: fluorescence and infrared studies. *J Supramol Struct* 10(2):265–275
- Stadtmiller SS, Pielak GJ (2018) Enthalpic stabilization of an SH3 domain by D₂O. *Protein Sci* 27(9):1710–1716
- Vidulich GA, Evana DF, Kay RL (1967) The dielectric constant of water and heavy water between 0 and degree. *J Phys Chem* 71(3):656–662
- Wiberg KB (1955) The deuterium isotope effect. *Chem Rev* 55(4):713–743

Part II
Molecular Interactions of Deuterium
Versus Hydrogen Oxide

Chapter 3

Deuterium Bonding Versus Hydrogen Bonding



Intermolecular forces that mediate interactions between molecules include hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interaction, dipole-dipole interaction, and van der Waals forces. Hydrogen bonding is an **electrostatic** attraction force that involves a partially positively charged **hydrogen** atom **covalently bound** to a nearby partially negatively charged atom, such as oxygen, nitrogen, or fluorine that carries a **lone pair** of electrons. Polar molecules that are capable of forming **hydrogen bonds** have hydrogen atoms that are covalently bonded to highly electronegative **elements** (O, N, F). For example, the hydroxyl group of water-soluble $\text{CH}_3\text{-OH}$ can form hydrogen bond with water.

In contrast, other intermolecular force, such as hydrophobic interaction, describes the interactions between water and nonpolar molecules or groups. The low solubility of hydrophobic solutes or groups in water makes nonpolar substances to clump up together in water medium, so as to allow the nonpolar molecules to have minimal contact with water. While dipole-dipole interactions are associated with the fluctuating polarizations of nearby particles, which occur when the partial charges formed within one molecule are attracted to an opposite partial charge in a nearby molecule. Van der Waals forces are relatively weak intermolecular forces that consist of attraction and repulsions between atoms and molecules.

Hydrogen bonds are extremely important in biology. They are essential to the structure and stability of globular proteins. Many of the amino acid side chains carry groups that are either hydrogen bond donors or acceptors, such as the hydroxyl of serine or threonine, the amino group and carbonyl oxygen of asparagine or glutamine, or the ring nitrogen in histidine.

While in nucleic acids, hydrogen bond is formed between the positive hydrogen end of a polar N-H bond and a pair of electrons on either a nitrogen or a carbonyl oxygen, such as between adenosine and thymine bases, or between cytosine and guanine bases. Moreover, H, N, and O atoms in major bases and HO- and PO_3 -groups in the backbone act as hydrogen bond donors or acceptors. Hydrogen

bonding between complementary base pairs in a DNA double helix provides the essential stability for the structure of nucleic acid.

Hydration contributes to structural expressions of molecules in a phospholipid membrane environment. Hydrogen bonding also contributes to the maintenance of the phase structure of membrane lipids. For example, monoolein, which is composed of a hydrocarbon chain attached to a glycerol backbone by an ester bond. In phosphatidylethanolamine, hydrogen bonds are formed between the NH_3^+ group and either the PO_2^- or the CO group.

3.1 Hydrogen Bond Donors and Acceptors

Table 3.1 presents atoms or groups in biomolecules that serve as hydrogen bond donors or acceptors, including O, H, OH, SH, N, S, SH, NH_2 , NH, CONH_2 , ^+NH , $^+\text{NH}_3$, $^+\text{NH}_2$, COO^- , HO^- , or PO_3^- , as shown in the table.

3.2 Vibrational Energy: D_2O Versus H_2O

As mentioned above, deuterium and hydrogen bonds differ in zero-point vibrational energy. Figure 3.1 illustrates the plot of vibrational energy versus interatomic distance for deuterium bond versus hydrogen bond. The heavier mass atom (D) has a lower zero-point vibration energy than the lighter one (H). As a result, the energy required to break the deuterium bond is larger than that to break the hydrogen bond.

3.3 Bonding Energies of Deuterium Versus Hydrogen

The equilibrium properties of systems containing hydrogen bond are dependent on the vibrational motion of the nuclei, which is related to the shape and the depth of its potential energy. Investigations of the change in the conformational stability for the mutation of a hydrogen-bonded residue to one incapable of hydrogen bonding revealed a stabilization of 1.0 kcal/mol per hydrogen bond.

As shown in Fig. 3.1, the relative stabilities of hydrogen – and deuterium – bonded molecules are related to differences in their zero-point vibrational energies. The replacement of H by D lowers the intermolecular zero-point vibrational energy, leading to a larger energy required to break the deuterium bond than the hydrogen bond. A lower energy of a H bond as compared to a D bond is also observed in $\text{H}\cdots\text{O}\cdots\text{H}$ system.

Table 3.1 Biomolecular atoms or groups serving as hydrogen bond donors or acceptors

Biomolecule	Atoms or groups as hydrogen bond donors or acceptors
Protein	
Aliphatic amino acids	
Serine, threonine, tyrosine	HO
Cysteine	SH
Tryptophan	N
Methionine	S
Cysteine	SH
Histidine	⁺ NH
Lysine	⁺ NH ₃
Arginine	NH ₂ , NH, ⁺ NH ₂
Aspartic acid	COO ⁻
Glutamic acid	COO ⁻
Asparagine	CONH ₂
Glutamine	CONH ₂
Aromatic amino acid	
Phenylalanine	O, OH, NH ₂
Nucleic acids	
Ribonucleic acid (RNA)	
Backbone	O, HO ⁻ or PO ₃ ⁻
Major bases	
Adenine (A)	H, N
Guanine (G)	H, N
Cytosine (C)	N, O
Uracil (U)	H, O
Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)	
Backbone	O, H, or PO ₃ ⁻
Major Bases	
Adenine	H, N
Guanine	H, N
Cytosine	N, O
Thymine	H, O
Lipids	
Head group	O or COO ⁻

3.4 Hydrogen Bonding in Water Solvent

Based on the convention that “like dissolves like,” polar molecules are soluble in water since water is a polar solvent. The presence of hydrogen bonding between molecules of a substance implies that the substance is soluble in water. Alternatively, molecules that can hydrogen bond with water have a higher solubility in water. Hydrogen bonding is critical in determining the structure of water. Liquid water can

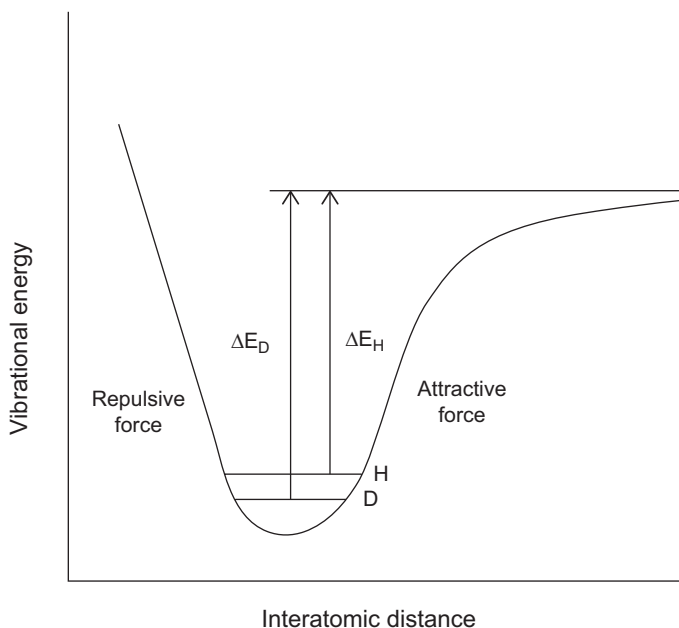
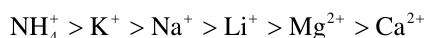


Fig. 3.1 Vibrational energy and interatomic distance of deuterium versus hydrogen

be viewed as an instantaneously changing random hydrogen-bonded network, which consists of differently coordinated hydrogen-bonded molecules with their distinct solvation shells.

The formation of deuterium bonding in D_2O versus hydrogen bonding in H_2O is illustrated in Fig. 3.2. Extensive molecular dynamics simulation revealed that the average number of hydrogen bonds correlates well with various order parameters as well as the temperature of maximum densities.

Changes in water structure between the ions and the surrounding water molecules can affect biomolecule – water interactions. For instance, the presence of cations and anions affects the solubility of [proteins](#) in water. The ability of ions to [salt-out](#) or [salt-in](#) proteins affect the [secondary](#) and tertiary structural stability of proteins. The Hofmeister series classifies anions and cations in their order of ability to salt out or salt in proteins, according to



The variation in solvation energy between the ions and the surrounding water molecules seems to underlie the mechanism of the Hofmeister series.

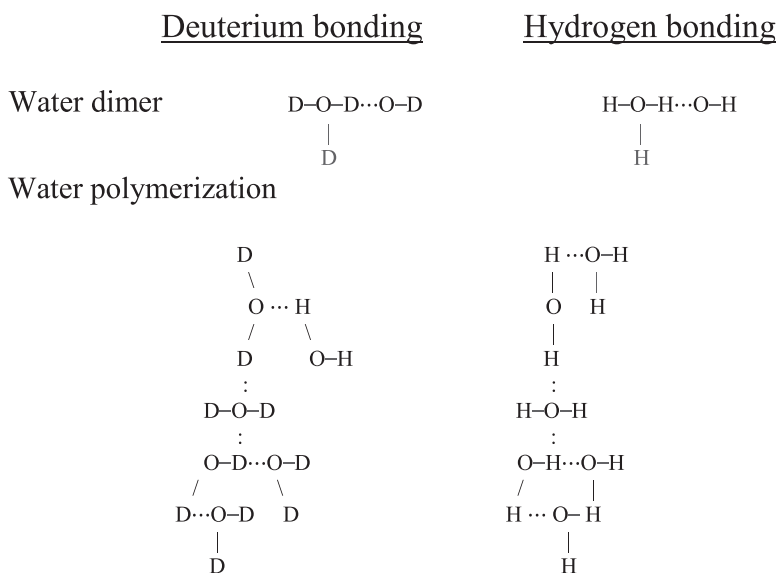


Fig. 3.2 Deuterium bonding versus hydrogen bonding

3.5 The Structure of Water

The structure of water has been the subject of extended research for many decades. Mainly, three kinds of models of the structure of water have been proposed to address hydrogen bonding in water, which are the continuum model, the mixture model, and the interstitial model. They are briefly described below.

3.5.1 Continuum Model

The continuum model of water structure proposes that water is a hydrogen – bonded network with a connectivity different from that of ice crystal, the connectivity is assumed to be in some way random, and almost completely hydrogen bonded water molecules are present.

The model proposes that there is no bond breaking, although the water bond bending and deformations occur, and assumes that all water molecules continue to be hydrogen bonded to four neighboring water molecules. The intermolecular links can be bent and stretched to produce irregular networks that varies with temperature and pressure. However, liquid water is composed of a single component although distortion of hydrogen bond may occur, rather than broken hydrogen bond as temperature or pressure changes.

Table 3.2 Models of the structure of water

Structure of water	Proposal
Continuum model	Water molecules are hydrogen-bonded, and some of them are distorted rather than broken
Mixture model	Mixture of a small number of distinguishable species of water molecules
Interstitial model	Water molecule forms hydrogen-bonded framework in which non-hydrogen-bonded reside

3.5.2 *Mixture Model*

In the mixture model, water consists of differently hydrogen-bonded species with zero, one, or both hydrogens engaged in hydrogen bonding network. The model is consistent with the claims based on the spectroscopic evidence that water is a mixture of two components. Moreover, the observed pressure and temperature dependence of water structure and thermodynamic properties are also consistent with the choice of this water model.

3.5.3 *Interstitial Model*

The interstitial model of water proposes that water consists of hexagonal lattice with vacant lattice and interstitial water molecules. Disorder is introduced by the displacement of molecules from a bonded icelike framework onto interstitial sites. The model proposes that there are water molecules present in the cavities of ice-like lattice.

In summary, a comparison of the above three models of the structure of water is presented in Table 3.2. The mixture model of water structure is further elaborated below.

3.6 Mixture Model of Water Structure

Among these three models, the mixture model has most been studied from experimental and theoretical points of view. The following flickering cluster model is the most extensively investigated mixture model of water structure. The mixture model of water is supported by virtual single-particle energy distributions in water in comparison with other liquids.

3.6.1 *Flickering Cluster Model*

Frank and Wen's flickering cluster model proposes that hydrogen bonding keeps on holding water molecules, leading to the formation of a cluster of water. Flickering clusters consist of hydrogen – bonded molecules, in which the cooperative nature of clusters form and relax, where the hydrogen-bonded icelike clusters of H₂O molecules are in equilibrium with non-hydrogen-bonded liquid.

A cluster is an unsteady state that keeps on forming and deforming. The thermodynamic parameters of liquid water derived based on the flickering cluster model revealed that the average cluster size is in the ranges from 91 to 25 H₂O molecules over the temperature range from 0° to 70 °C.

The flickering cluster model is applicable to liquid deuterium oxide. In D₂O, the intermolecular vibrational frequencies are changed in accord with the theoretical ratios for isotopic substitution. The energy of the deuterium bond is 0.24 kcal/mole higher than that of the hydrogen bond. The calculated structural parameters indicate that more structural order exists in D₂O than in H₂O at a given temperature.

3.6.2 *Virtual Single-Particle Energy Distributions*

The mixture model of water structure is supported by virtual single – particle energy distributions of H₂O comparing with methanol, ethanol, carbon disulfide, mercury, and benzene. Virtual single – particle energy distribution was determined by the energy moments calculated from constant-volume heat capacity at a constant volume. In contrast to methanol, ethanol, carbon disulfide, mercury, and benzene which exhibit a single-peaked distribution, a bimodal distribution was found for water.

The distinctive characteristic of the virtual single-particle energy distribution in H₂O is the appearance of a lower-energy peak in the neighborhood of 1.0 kcal/mol and a higher-energy peak around 3.1 kcal/mol. These two energy peaks in water could represent two distinguishable states of structure. At a fixed volume, the ratio of the higher- to the lower-energy peak increases as temperature increases, and at a constant temperature, the ratio increases as volume decreases.

Moreover, virtual single – particle energy distributions of D₂O also revealed a bimodal distribution. The lower and higher energy peaks also represent two distinguishable states of structure, implying that the structure of D₂O also consists of mixed H-bonded species.

3.6.3 *Thermodynamics Aspects of Water Structure*

3.6.3.1 Entropy Factor

Studies of the nature of deviations found for nonpolar solutes in water lead to the concept that water forms frozen patches or microscopic icebergs around solute molecules. The extent of the iceberg increases with the size of the solute molecule. Specifically, icebergs are formed in the nonpolar parts of the molecules of polar substances, such as amines dissolved in water. These findings are in agreement with the observation that the increasing insolubility of large nonpolar molecules is an entropy effect.

In proteins, structural analysis demonstrated that water molecules are commonly found in the internal cavities of proteins. Quantification of enthalpic and entropic contributions of water molecules in five different proteins was investigated by a statistical mechanical method. The results revealed that water molecules in protein cavities contain charged residues, which is subject to entropy changes that contribute > 2.0 kcal/mol to the free energy.

3.6.3.2 Entropy – Enthalpy Compensation

Another thermodynamic consideration is the entropy – enthalpy compensation resulting from a consequence of the properties of H_2O as a solvent, regardless of the solutes and the solute processes studied. The existence of a specific linear relationship between the entropy and the enthalpy changes has been proposed for a variety of processes of small solutes in water solution, such as the solvation of ions and nonelectrolytes.

The compensation temperature lies in a relatively narrow range from about 250 to 315 °K for biochemical processes. A similar relationship is present in a variety of protein reactions, suggesting that liquid water plays a direct role in many protein processes and may be a common participant in the physiological function of biomolecules.

3.7 Deuterium Effects on Hydrogen Bond in Biomolecules

Protein stability is critical for its biological function. The intermolecular interaction of solvent with a polypeptide chain is one of the primary factors controlling protein folding and stability. Substitution of H_2O with D_2O as the solvent affects the structural stability of protein. Comparative studies of protein stability in D_2O and H_2O could provide insight into the role of hydration and hydrogen bonding in protein folding. Hydrogen bond in proteins not only mirrors the motion of hydrogen but also forms water lattice surrounding protein molecules.

The proposal that water lattice is perturbed in its entropic configuration by the motion of hydrogen bond was tested by changing from H₂O to D₂O as the surrounding medium, which results in a substantial solvent isotope effect. This finding demonstrates the influence of the environment on the individual hydrogen bond. Typical deuterium oxide effects related to hydrogen bonding are shown in Table 3.3.

Furthermore, the substitution of D₂O for H₂O was also found to increase the transition temperature and decrease the enthalpy of protein unfolding. Nevertheless, the total stability of proteins appears to be unchanged, as a result of entropic compensation for the decrease in enthalpy, which is also applied to changes in hydration of proteins in D₂O.

3.7.1 Proteins

Elucidation of the stabilization of proteins and peptides by deuterium oxide was investigated, such as protein tubulin and peptide (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀. The rate of decrease of tryptophan fluorescence of tubulin was found to be significantly lower in D₂O than in H₂O, suggesting stabilization of the secondary structure of tubulin in D₂O. This finding was consistent with the results obtained from differential

Table 3.3 Typical effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration related to the strength of hydrogen bond

<u>In deuterium oxide medium</u>	<u>Biological processes affected by the relative strength of hydrogen bond</u>
Protein	Stabilization of the secondary structure of tubulin
	Increasing the melting temperature of polypeptide
	Enhancement of hydrophobic interaction, resulting increasing hydrogen bond
Nucleic acid	Stabilization of attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation
	Increasing the stability of the folded RNA
	Enhancing the flexibility of RNA structure of polio vaccine.
	Increasing the stability of nucleic acids in living systems
Lipid	Lowering the cubic to inverted hexagonal phase transition temperature
	Reduction of the surface occupied area of monoolein at the interface
	Increasing the O-H stretching signal of the alkanol – DPPC complex
	Slowing the cleavage of O-D bond in lipid peroxidation kinetics
<u>Deuteration of biomolecules</u>	<u>Biological processes affected by deuteration</u>
Protein	Lectin-carbohydrate interactions that provide hydrogen bond network information
Lipid	Location of cholesterol in the two outer layers and the lipid subclasses in the central layer
Nucleic acid	Difference in the transition temperature for deuterated ribonuclease

scanning calorimetric experiments. The temperatures for tubulin unfolding are higher in D₂O than H₂O (58.6 °C and 62.17 °C as compared to 55.4 °C and 59.35 °C).

Collagen – like polypeptide (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ forms a triple-helical, polyproline structure in H₂O solution. Studies of its circular dichroism spectra demonstrated an increase of the melting temperature in the presence of increasing amounts of D₂O, implying an enhancement of the enthalpy of unfolding in D₂O versus H₂O. Moreover, the folding dynamics of poly(glutamic acid) was also investigated by circular dichroism. Its difference in D₂O and H₂O was assigned to different hydrogen bond energies in these solvents.

Moreover, the denaturant – dependent relaxation kinetics of folding and unfolding have been measured with a protonated (amide) backbone and a deuterated backbone in H₂O and D₂O. The folding reaction was found to be significantly influenced by the nature of the bulk solvent. In D₂O, the stability of each state in the folding pathway is enhanced to a degree which is proportional to the extent of the exposure of nonpolar protein groups to the solvent. The solvent isotope effect arises from enhanced hydrophobic interactions which, in turn, results from an increase of hydrogen bond in D₂O.

3.7.2 *Nucleic Acids*

Thermal stability of DNA structure is associated with the properties of water molecules around DNA. RNA base pairs also have variable stability depending on their degree of solvation. These findings have biological implications for nucleic acid structure and RNA – protein complexes. Molecular dynamics simulations of RNA base pairs revealed that water competes for base – base hydrogen bonds.

There is a considerable increase in the stability of the folded RNA in D₂O medium. D₂O has been known to stabilize viral RNA against thermal degradation. A higher melting temperature in D₂O is compared with H₂O. Studies of the hydration dynamics of RNA showed that D₂O strengthens the hydrogen bond network in the solvent.

The substitution of deuterium for hydrogen will affect the strength of a hydrogen bond.

D₂O was found to considerably increase the stability of intramolecular hydrogen bond and the flexibility of RNA structures of polio vaccine. By strengthening the hydrogen bonding network in the solvent and lengthening life time of inter residue water, D₂O can act as a thermal stabilizer for polio vaccine.

3.7.3 *Lipids*

Investigation of the hydration of carbonyl moieties in dimyristoyl-phosphatidylcholine (DMPC) bilayer revealed that excitation of the OD stretching mode of heavy water produces a time dependent change of the absorption band of

the phospholipid carbonyl groups. Intermolecular vibrational coupling also affects the entire C=O band. Moreover, sn-1 carbonyl has a higher propensity to form hydrogen bonds with water in comparison to sn-2 carbonyl.

Studies of water – DMPC interaction also suggested that the primary hydration site of the lipid is the phosphate moiety, where up to 18 water molecules are restricted at the polar head group and about 9 water molecules strongly interact with the phospholipid head group.

Substitution of D₂O for H₂O was also found to lower the cubic to inverted hexagonal phase transition temperature of lipid. The structural analysis of the cubic phase indicated that D₂O reduces the surface occupied area of monoolein at the interface by 12% in comparison with H₂O, which probably is due to the difference in the strength of hydrogen bond.

When a part of lipid – bound water is replaced by alcohols, a new infrared broad band of O-H stretching appears, which represents alcohol molecules bound to the phosphate moiety of lipid. As the alcohol concentration increases, alcohols interact with the phosphate moiety and replace the bound water, indicating that alcohols interact with lipid membranes at the phosphate moiety of the hydrophilic head, weaken the membrane-water interaction, and destabilize membranes.

Hydrogen bonding of alkanols to dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine (DPPC) was also investigated by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy in D₂O. Alkanols were found to form hydrogen bonds with the phosphate moiety of DPPC and release the lipid – bound deuterated water, as evidenced by increases in the bound O-H stretching signal of the alkanol – lipid complex.

Furthermore, low- density lipoprotein peroxidation plays a major role in many physiological and pathophysiological processes. The mechanisms involve free radical production that occurs via decomposition of hydroperoxides. The step of rate – limiting reaction includes the cleavage of O-H bond of hydroperoxide. In D₂O, cleavage of O-D bond is slower than cleavage of O-H bond in H₂O.

3.8 Deuteration Effects on Hydrogen Bonding

Deuteration effects on hydrogen bonding of biomolecules were less reported than the above D₂O solvent effects. Such deuteration effects are briefly described below.

3.8.1 *Proteins*

Carbohydrate – binding proteins, from pathogenic bacteria and fungi and in complex with deuterated L-fucose, were studied by neutron diffraction. A detailed structural analysis was able to provide information on the hydrogen bond network, the role of water molecules, and the extent of interactions between fucose and the

aromatic amino acids in the binding site. No large differences were observed between H and D forms, implying that deuteration did not seem to affect the native state of the protein.

3.8.2 *Lipids*

Either protiated lipids or selectively deuterated lipids were applied to obtain information on the locations of various lipid classes, including hydrogen bond with the ester group. A model was proposed to suggest that cholesterol is located in the two outer layers, and the two other lipid subclasses are predominantly located in the central layer.

3.8.3 *Nucleic Acids*

A deuterated helical macromolecule is expected to have a different stability from a hydrogen – containing one. Such altered stability could result in a change in the transition temperature between a helix and a random coil. The effect of deuterium – hydrogen substitution was investigated using poly- γ -benzyl-L-glutamate. The observed decrease in the transition temperature upon denaturation has implications for the stability of helical protein and nucleic acids in living systems.

Ribonuclease is folded in a compact form and held together by covalent bonds and hydrogen bonds. In poly- γ -benzyl-L-glutamate, the transition temperature of deuterated ribonuclease in D_2O is different from that of hydrogen – containing ribonuclease in H_2O . The analysis of pH dependence of reversible denaturation can provide a means of examining hydrogen bonds among ionizable side-chain groups.

The above- discussed deuteration studies of hydrogen bonding in biomolecules are also presented in Table 3.3.

Bibliography

- Bandyopadhyay D, Mohan S, Ghosh SK, Choudhury N (2013) Correlation of structural order, anomalous density, and hydrogen bonding network of liquid water. *J Phys Chem B* 117(29):8831–8843
- Bell GM, Sallouta H (1975) An interstitial model for fluid water. *Mol Phys* 29(6):1621–1637
- Bernal JD (1964) The Bakerian Lecture. The structure of liquids. *Proc Roy Soc A* 280:299
- Buckingham AD, Chen LF (1981) Differences in the hydrogen and deuterium bonds. *Int Rev Phys Chem* 1(2):253–269
- Buijs K, Choppin GR (1963) Near-infrared studies of the structure of water I. pure water. *J Chem Phys* 39:2035

- Calvin M, Hermans SH (1959) Effect of deuterium on the strength of hydrogen bond. *J Am Chem Soc* 81(19):5048–5050
- Chen CH (1994) Virtual single particle energy distributions in water versus other liquids. *J Phys Chem* 98:7906–7914
- Chiou JS, Ma SM, Kamaya H, Ueda I (1990) Anesthesia cutoff phenomenon: interfacial hydrogen bonding. *Science* 248:583–585
- Chiou JS, Krishna PR, Kamaya H, Ueda I (1992) Alcohols dehydrate lipid membranes: an infrared study on hydrogen bonding. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1110(2):225–233
- Cioni P, Strambini GB (2002) Effect of heavy water on protein flexibility. *Biophys J* 82(6):3246–3253
- Danford MD, Levy HA (1962) The Structure of water at room temperature. *J Am Chem Soc* 84:3965–3966
- Frank HS (1970) The structure of ordinary water. *Science* 169(3946):635–641
- Frank HS (1972) Structural models in the physics and physical chemistry of water (ed by F Franks). pp 515–543
- Frank HS, Evans MWJ (1945) Free volume and entropy in condensed systems III. entropy in binary liquid mixtures; partial molal entropy in dilute solutions; structure and thermodynamics in aqueous electrolytes. *J Chem Phys* 13:507–532
- Frank HS, Wen WY (1957) Ion-solvent interaction. Structural aspects of ion-solvent interaction in aqueous solutions: a suggested picture of water structure. *Disc Faraday Soc* 24:133
- Gajdos L, Blakeley MP, Kumar A et al (2021) Visualization of hydrogen atoms in a perdeuterated lectin-fucose complex reveals key details of protein-carbohydrate interactions. *Structure* 29(9):1003–1013
- Gough CA, Bhatnagar RS (1999) Differential stability of the triple helix of (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ in H₂O and D₂O: thermodynamic and structural explanations. *J Biomol Struct Dyn* 17(3):481–491
- Henn AR, Kauzmann W (1989) Equation of state of a random network. Continuum model of liquid water. *J Phys Chem* 93(9):3770–3783
- Huggins DJ (2015) Quantifying the entropy of binding for water molecules in protein cavities by computing correlations. *Biophys J*. 108(4):928–936
- Lumry R, Rajender S (1970) Enthalpy–entropy compensation phenomena in water solutions of proteins and small molecules: a ubiquitous property of water. *Biopolymer* 9(10):1125–1227
- Makhatadze GI, Clore GM, Gronenborn AM (1995) Solvent isotope effect and protein stability. *Nat Struct Biol* 2(10):852–855
- Mendonça L, Steinbacher A, Bouganne R et al (2014) Comparative study of the folding/unfolding dynamics of poly(glutamic acid) in light and heavy water. *Phys Chem B* 118(20):5350–5356
- Mojumdar EH, Gooris GS, Groen D et al (2016) Stratum corneum lipid matrix: Location of acyl ceramide and cholesterol in the unit cell of the long periodicity phase. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1858(8):1926–1934
- Myers JK, Pace CN (1996) Hydrogen bonding stabilizes globular proteins. *Biophys J* 71(4):2033–2039
- Nemethy G, Scheraga HA (1962) Structure of water and hydrophobic bonding in Proteins. I. A model for the thermodynamic properties of liquid water. *J Chem Phys* 36:3382
- Parker MJ, Clarke AR (1997) Amide backbone and water-related H/D isotope effects on the dynamics of a protein folding reaction. *Biochemistry* 36(19):5786–5794
- Pathak AK, Bandyopadhyay T (2017) Water isotope effect on the thermostability of a polio viral RNA hairpin: a metadynamics study. *J Chem Phys* 146(16):165104
- Pinchuk I, Lichtenberg D (2017) Deuterium kinetic isotope effect (DKIE) in copper-induced LDL peroxidation: Interrelated effects of on inhibition and propagation. *Chem Phys Lipids* 205:42–47
- Pinka DA, McNeila S, Quinna B et al (1998) A model of hydrogen bond formation in phosphatidylethanolamine bilayers. *Biochim Biophys Acta-Biomembranes* 1368(2):289–305
- Pople JA (1951) Molecular association in liquids. II. A theory of the structure of water. *Proc Roy Soc A* 205:163

- Scheiner S, Cuma M (1996) Relative stability of hydrogen and deuterium bonds. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 118(6):1511–1521
- Scheraga HA, Hermans C, Schildkraut CL (1960) Internal hydrogen bonding in ribonuclease, amino acids, proteins and cancer. *Biochemistry*:31–41
- Sheu SY, Schlag EW, Selzle HL et al (2008) Molecular dynamics of hydrogen bonds in protein-D₂O: the solvent isotope effect. *J Phys Chem A* 112(5):797–802
- Sykes MT, Levitt M (2007) Simulations of RNA base pairs in a nanodroplet reveal solvation-dependent stability. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 104(30):12336–12340
- Takahashi H, Jojiki K (2017) Water isotope effect on the lipidic cubic phase: heavy water – induced interfacial area reduction of monoolein-water system. *J Chem Phys Lipids* 208:52–57
- Tsai YS, Ma SM, Kamaya H, Ueda I (1987) Fourier transform infrared studies on phospholipid hydration: phosphate-oriented hydrogen bonding and its attenuation by volatile anesthetics. *Mol Pharmacol* 31(6):623–630
- Volkov VV, Nuti F, Takaoka Y et al (2006) Hydration and hydrogen bonding of carbonyls in dimyristoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer. *J Am Chem Soc* 128(29):9466–9471
- Volkov V, Takaoka Y, Righini R (2009) Hydration of phospholipid interface: carbonyl-water hydrogen bond association. *Phys Chem Chem Phys* 11(43):9979–9986
- Zhang Y, Cremer PS (2006) Interactions between macromolecules and ions: the Hofmeister series. *Curr Opin Chem Biol* 10(6):658–663

Chapter 4

Hydrophobic Interaction in D₂O Versus H₂O



In their interpretation of the thermodynamic properties of aqueous solution of hydrophobic substances, Frank and Evans first attempted to provide a detailed theory of the hydrophobic effect. They described water molecules rearranging into a microscopic iceberg around a nonpolar molecule and discussed the entropic effect of this iceberg formation. The simple hydrophobic substances hydrocarbons and nonpolar organic substances.

Later, in analyzing the forces that stabilize the native structure of proteins, Kauzmann suggested that hydrophobic interaction is probably among the most important factors in the stabilization of folded configurations in native proteins. Due to amino acids containing nonpolar and polar groups, hydrophobic bonding in proteins arise as a consequence of the *interaction* of their hydrophobic amino acids with the polar solvent water.

In biomolecules, hydrophobic interaction describes the relations between water and nonpolar molecules or groups. A better understanding of the hydrophobic hydration of biomolecules can yield insights into biomolecule structure dynamics and functions and intracellular assembly. Hydrophobic interactions play important role in protein folding, nucleic acid helical structure, and lipid bilayer membranes.

Nucleic acids have significant polar and nonpolar parts which interact with water solvent, where there is a delicate balance between hydrophilic and hydrophobic interactions. The contributions of hydrophobic interaction are critical in driving important processes like the double-helix formation of DNA.

Membrane phospholipid consists of two long fatty acid hydrocarbon chains esterified to a glycerol backbone with a phosphate group. It is energetically favorable for lipid hydrocarbon chains to minimize their surface area of contact with water. Hydrophobic interaction occurs as hydrocarbon regions of lipids interact with hydrocarbons, causing a decrease in entropy.

Hydrophobic interaction is affected by the replacement of regular water (hydrogen oxide) with deuterium oxide as the solvent. The free energy of hydrophobic interaction between hydrocarbon chains in deuterium oxide at 25 °C was found to

be -1.76 kJ/mol for each contact between methylene groups, as compared to -1.40 kJ/mol in H₂O, which implies that hydrophobic interaction is stronger in D₂O than in H₂O.

4.1 Hydrophobic Effect

As described in the previous chapter, water is a highly structured liquid with hydrogen bonds linking individual molecules to each other. The tetrahedral structure of ice suggests a locally tetrahedral arrangement of molecules in liquid water. The presence of a hydrophobic solute strengthens water hydrogen bonding around it. As a result, water displays extensive structural ordering resembling that in clathrates. This arrangement is disrupted by the solute dissolved in water, depending on the polarity of the solute.

The low solubility of hydrophobic solutes in water makes nonpolar substances to clump up together in water medium. This allows the nonpolar molecules to have minimal contact with water. Hydrophobic effect has been given to interpret the thermodynamic properties of hydrophobic substances in aqueous solutions and to analyze the force that stabilizes the secondary structure of proteins.

The idea of iceberg formation is followed to explain the hydrophobic effect. Since direct experimental measurements of the mutual interactions of liquid water molecules and their associated kinetic and transport processes are inaccessible, hypothetical models need to be considered to account for the results of observations made upon water.

4.1.1 Iceberg Model

The water molecules at the surface of the cavity created by a nonpolar solute are capable of rearranging themselves in order to regenerate the broken hydrogen bonds. In doing so, they create a higher degree of local order that exists in pure liquid water and form transient microscopic icebergs arising from strengthened water hydrogen bonding.

This ordering results in the rearrangement of a small number of water molecules near the nonpolar solutes, leading to forming a kind of cage consisting of the molecules of water. Such ordered structure is similar to the structure of a clathrate and therefore is referred to as iceberg.

4.1.1.1 Proposal

Iceberg concept can be regarded as a tendency of water molecules in the solvation shell of hydrophobic solutes to possess structural features that exhibit some similarities to the behavior of water molecules in the solid phase. Such icebergs are also formed at the nonpolar parts of the molecules of polar substances, such as alcohols and amines that are dissolved in water. In contrast, depending on their sizes and charges, ions may cause a breaking down of water structure nearest them. Structural influences can also modify the distribution of ions in an electrolyte solution.

4.1.1.2 Research Supports

Investigations of infrared of oxygen-deuterium stretching mode of HDO water near hydrophobic solutes, such as methane, ethane, krypton, and xenon, supported the presence of strengthened water hydrogen bonding near these hydrophobic solutes, which match those in ice and clathrates. In turn, water molecules involved in the enhanced hydrogen bonding display extensive structural ordering resembling that in clathrates.

Molecular dynamics simulations also confirmed that water molecules in the vicinity of methane form stronger tetrahedrally oriented hydrogen bonds than those in bulk water, where their mobility is restricted. These findings confirm the classical view of hydrophobic hydration.

Moreover, molecular dynamics studies of the structure of water in the hydration shells of small hydrophobic solutes showed that a subset of water molecules in the first hydration shell of a nonpolar solute has a significantly enhanced tetrahedrality as well as a slightly larger number of hydrogen bonds. This finding is consistent with the experimentally observed negative excess entropy and enhanced heat capacity of hydrophobic solutions at room temperature.

Furthermore, computer stimulation investigations of the structural properties of solvation water of hydrophobic molecules at 250–295 °K revealed that, in the solvation layer of hydrophobic molecules, ordered aggregates consisting of water molecules are formed and become more profound with the decrease in temperature. Such existence of the ordered aggregates around the hydrophobic solutes also complies with the concept of the above-described iceberg model.

4.1.2 *Thermodynamics Aspects*

The idea of iceberg formation can provide an explanation to the entropy and the enthalpy of solvation of nonpolar solutes in water. From the thermodynamic point of view, the hydrophobic effect manifests itself by the occurrence of significant unfavorable free energy of mixing of the hydrophobic substance with water. The extent of this effect is determined by the entropic contribution. Loss of entropy is

associated with the structural changes when hydrophobic solutes are present in liquid water.

On the other hand, enthalpy-entropy compensation proposes a linear correlation between enthalpy and entropy changes in chemical processes, where closely related structures are involved. In ligand binding, a ligand modification results in a change in the enthalpic contribution to binding, which is offset by a similar change in the binding entropy.

4.1.2.1 Entropy Effect

As nonpolar solute dissolves in water, neighboring solvent molecules loosen the forces to produce a solvent reaction. The increasing insolubility of nonpolar molecules in water is an entropy effect, which leads to the idea that water forms frozen patches or microscopic icebergs around nonpolar molecules. The extents of the entropy effect and the iceberg increase depend on the size of the nonpolar solute molecule. Nevertheless, the entropy of hydration of ion depends on not only its size but also its charge. Ions may cause a breaking down of water structure nearest them, thus causing an entropy increase.

4.1.2.2 Entropy-Enthalpy Compensation

The entropy-enthalpy compensation pertains to structural changes induced in the solvent. When the icelike structure of water breaks down, water still keeps its tendency to form crystal-like clusters. These clusters are unstable and flickering. With temperature increase the probability of forming these flickering clusters decreases.

A large number of thermodynamic data, including the free energy, enthalpy, and entropy changes, were analyzed for the protein denaturation. Enthalpy-entropy compensation was found in protein unfolding, indicating that the change in enthalpy is essentially compensated by a corresponding change in entropy, which results in a smaller net free energy change. This was proposed to result from the water molecule reorganization.

As a result of ligand binding, localized change in a protein encounters the conformational fluctuation of the rest of the protein. Both the entropy and the enthalpy associated with the change consist of contributions from fluctuations in the atoms surrounding the binding site. The enthalpy-entropy compensation reflects the flexibility of the surrounding structures. Its fluctuations contribute to the entropy, and the conformational change contributes to the enthalpy.

A comparative study of the stability of several proteins in H₂O and D₂O showed that the substitution of D₂O for H₂O leads to an increase in the transition temperature and a decrease in the enthalpy of unfolding. The stability of the proteins, however, appears to be largely unchanged as a result of entropic compensation for the

decrease in enthalpy. This enthalpy-entropy compensation is attributed to changes in the hydration of proteins in D_2O as compared to H_2O . The changes in the enthalpy of unfolding and in the protein-ligand interactions, due to water isotopic substitution, can be rationalized by changes in hydration of the buried nonpolar groups.

4.1.3 *Structure Maker and Breaker*

As discussed above, water structure can be perturbed by solute molecules, resulting in altering the hydrogen bonding network of water. A nonpolar molecule that promotes water structure is characterized as water structure maker, while polar molecules that demote water structure is considered as a water structure breaker. For example, methane and urea are considered as water structure maker and breaker, respectively.

Such classification has relevance to the interactions between ligands and biomolecules. Ligands may alter protein conformation through effects on water structure. While, lysine, an α -amino acid that consists of a protonated $-NH_3^+$, an α -carboxylic acid group, and a side chain $(CH_2)_4NH_2$, is considered as a water structural breaker.

Investigations of the native DNA molecule conformation revealed that the solvent structure is an important factor in determining the interactions between organic compounds and the native DNA molecule. Water structure maker and breaker can also affect the ordered water at the membrane-aqueous interface. Studies of phospholipid properties suggested that lysine can produce an effect on the lipid-water interface that controls its stability.

Investigations of the effect of perturbing the interfacial water structure on the glycoprotein arrangement in the bilayer revealed a possible new arrangement of membrane-bound glycoprotein. Moreover, water structure maker was also found to broaden the transition and change the phase profile of phosphatidylcholine, and a water structure breaker causes a shift in the transition temperature.

4.2 Hydrophobicity in Biomolecules

Hydrophobic interaction describes the interactions of nonpolar molecules or groups with water solvent. Many biomolecules are characterized by surfaces that contain extended nonpolar regions. Hydrophobicity of biomolecules refers to the removal of biomolecular surfaces from contacting water framework, in which understanding is critical to gain insights into intracellular assembly and biochemical processes, such as protein folding, nucleic acid double helix, and lipid bilayer structure. Accordingly, hydrophobicity in proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids are discussed below.

4.2.1 Proteins

Amino acids that make up proteins have the same basic structure but differ in the side chain (R-group). The side chain is an assembly of **charge**, polarity, and **hydrophobicity**. These properties impact the structure and conformation of proteins. Figure 4.1 shows the structure of amino acid and lists nine amino acids each containing a hydrophobic side chain.

The primary thermodynamic driving force for the formation of globular structure is hydrophobic interactions, which keep nonpolar groups from contacting water framework. Thus, globular proteins fold by minimizing exposure of their nonpolar surface to water, while simultaneously providing hydrogen bonding interactions for buried backbone groups.

4.2.2 Nucleic Acids

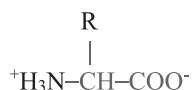
Nucleic acids are polynucleotides. Each **nucleotide** consists of a nitrogen-containing aromatic base, which is attached to a pentose **sugar** that is connected to a **phosphate** group. Four nitrogen-containing bases of nucleic acids are adenine (A), guanine (G), cytosine (C), and thymine (T) in deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and adenine (A), guanine (G), cytosine (C), and uracil (U) in ribonucleic acid (RNA).

Table 4.1 below lists the interaction forces involving nucleic acid bases. In secondary structure interaction between bases, two strands of DNA are held together by hydrogen bonds, while stacking interactions are stabilized by hydrophobic interactions and van der Waals forces.

4.2.3 Lipids

Most lipids present in biological membranes are composed of amphiphilic phospholipids. The lipid bilayer is made of two layers of amphiphilic lipid molecules that have a hydrophilic phosphate head and a hydrophobic tail consisting of two fatty acid chains. Figure 4.2 shows the structure of an amphiphilic phospholipid, where

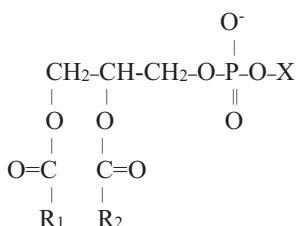
Fig. 4.1 Hydrophobic side chains of amino acids



Amino acids containing a hydrophobic R group:
 alaine, valine, isoleucine, leucine, methionine,
 phenylalanine, tyrosine, tryptophan, and glycine

Table 4.1 Interaction forces involving nucleic acid bases

Forces involved	Nucleic acid bases
Hydrophobic interaction and van der Waals force	DNA: adenine, cytosine, guanine, and thymine
	RNA: adenine, cytosine, guanine, and uracil
Hydrogen bond	Sugar: deoxyribose (DNA) ribose (RNA)
	Phosphate group: DNA and RNA

Fig. 4.2 Amphiphilic lipid molecules

where R_1 and R_2 represent long hydrocarbon chains, and X may be zwitterionic or positively charged.

R_1 and R_2 are hydrocarbon chains and X is a charge group which may be positive or zwitterionic.

When R_1 and R_2 are saturated long hydrocarbon chains, the lipid bilayer exhibits hydrophobic cores in an ordered configuration. In contrast, when R_1 and R_2 contain unsaturated hydrocarbon chains, the hydrophobic core may be in a fluid state.

Comparative thermodynamic studies were conducted on the interactions of aqueous dispersions of dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer vesicles with hydrophobic species. Cyclohexanol, a strong hydrophobic species, lowers the temperature of the lipid main phase transition from the gel to the liquid-crystalline phase but increases the enthalpy of the transition. The enthalpy change is positive, and the free energy change is negative, implying a characteristic of solute-solute hydrophobic interaction.

4.3 Deuterium Oxide Effects on Hydrophobic Interaction

The presence of strengthened water hydrogen bonds near hydrophobic solutes, such as methane, ethane, krypton, or xenon, was found to match those in ice and clathrates, where water molecules involved in the enhanced hydrogen bonds display extensive structural ordering resembling that in clathrates. Molecular dynamics simulations confirmed that water molecules in the vicinity of methane form stronger and more tetrahedrally oriented hydrogen bonds than those in bulk water, implying the classical view of hydrophobic hydration.

Comparative studies of the kinetics of the reaction between decylamine and 4-nitrophenyl decanoate with that of the corresponding reaction without hydrophobic side chains (the reaction between ethylamine and 4-nitrophenyl acetate) were also carried out to delineate the extent to which hydrophobic interaction stabilizes the transition state of the reaction.

Based on the flickering cluster concept, investigations of the energy of the hydrogen bond revealed that the deuterium bond is 0.24 kcal/mole higher than for H₂O. The calculated structural parameters also indicate that more structural order of proteins exists in D₂O than in H₂O at a given temperature. The stronger hydrophobic interaction in D₂O than in H₂O was also demonstrated in the comparative studies of hydrophobic species in both media.

The free energy of hydrophobic interaction between hydrocarbon chains in deuterium oxide at 25 °C was also investigated in micellar solutions of a series of hexadecyl-trimethylammonium carboxylates. Examinations of the effects of hydrocarbon chain length on the binding a counter ion (carboxylate ion) to the micelle revealed that the free energy of hydrophobic interaction in D₂O is -1.76 kJ/mol for each contact between methylene groups, as compared to -1.40 kJ/mol in H₂O.

4.3.1 Proteins

Studies of internal dynamics of proteins, including ribonuclease T1, superoxide dismutase, beta-lactoglobulin, liver alcohol dehydrogenase, and apo- and Cd-azurin, showed that D₂O significantly increases the rigidity of the protein native structure. The structure tightening effect of deuteration was assigned to the [solvent effect](#), rather than to stronger intramolecular deuterium bonding. Moreover, such structure tightening effect by D₂O is generally amplified at higher temperatures, which supports the hydrophobic nature of the underlying interaction.

The conformational stability presented by the free energy change has also been measured for 72 aliphatic side-chain mutants from four proteins, in which a larger side chain is replaced by a smaller side chain. The results revealed that proteins gain 1.3 kcal/mol in stability for each -CH₂- group buried in folding, indicating the contribution of the hydrophobic effect to the stability of globular protein.

To gain a better understanding of the contribution of hydrophobic interactions to protein stability, the change in conformational stability was measured for 22 proteins with 36 to 534 residues. Hydrophobic interactions were found to contribute 60% and hydrogen bonds contribute 40% to protein stability. These findings indicated that the globular conformation of proteins is stabilized predominantly by hydrophobic interactions.

The initial aggregation process of lysozyme in D₂O or H₂O was studied to examine the relationship between the surface hydrophobicity and the aggregation rate of lysozyme. The initial aggregation rate of lysozyme in H₂O is slower than in D₂O, implying that the interaction between lysozyme molecules is stronger in D₂O than in H₂O. There is also a good correlation between the initial aggregation rate and

surface hydrophobicity. Hydrophobic interaction is hence an important active force in the initial aggregation process of lysozyme.

Tubulin is unstable as stored in solution and loses its ability to form microtubules rapidly. D₂O was found to stabilize the protein against inactivation. In H₂O buffer, tubulin is completely inactivated after 40 hours at 4 °C. But, in D₂O buffer, no activity is lost after 54 hours. Therefore, D₂O was proposed to exhibit its stabilizing effect on tubulin conformation that involves the disruption of hydrophobic forces.

A thermodynamic analysis of two globular proteins, egg lysozyme and bovine serum albumin, also revealed that both proteins tend to be more stable in D₂O compared to H₂O. This finding revealed that D₂O is a poorer solvent for nonpolar amino acids than H₂O, implying that the hydrophobic effect is larger in D₂O.

4.3.2 *Nucleic Acids*

Investigations of thermal denaturation of DNA in H₂O and D₂O by electron microscopy as a function of temperature support the hypothesis that D₂O plays a stabilizing role in strand separation during thermal denaturation of DNA. Moreover, deuterium oxide was found to increase fluorescence lifetime and intensity of the intercalating dyes (propidium iodide and ethidium bromide), when bound to nucleic acid structures. The accessibility of these dye molecules to the solvent environment once bound to DNA also leads to the differential enhancement effects of D₂O on fluorescence intensity and lifetime of these probes.

Furthermore, the phase behavior of phage single-stranded DNA in the presence of monovalent and multivalent salts was investigated in both H₂O and D₂O solvents. DNA solubility depends on not only the nature of the salts and their concentrations but also the nature of the solvent. The appearance of attractive interactions between the monomers of the DNA chains in the solution is correlated with an adsorption of the chains at the air-water interface. The overall solubility of single-stranded DNA is decreased in D₂O compared to H₂O, revealing a role of DNA hydration in addition to electrostatic factors.

4.3.3 *Lipids*

Sphingosine-1-phosphate is currently considered to be an important signaling molecule in cell metabolism. Structurally related hydrophobic sphingolipids occur in either an aqueous dispersion or a bilayer environment. Sphingosine-1-phosphate behaves in aqueous media as a soluble amphiphile. Its aggregates display a thermotropic transition at approximately 60 °C, presumably due to the formation of smaller structures at higher temperatures.

The effects of substitution of H₂O by D₂O on the phase transitions of dipalmitoyl- and distearoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes were investigated.

Table 4.2 Typical effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration related to the strength of hydrophobic interaction

<u>Deuterium oxide medium</u>	<u>Biomolecular processes affected by relative strength of hydrophobic interaction</u>
Protein	Larger hydrophobic effect in D ₂ O medium.
	Hydrophobic effect contributing to globular protein stability.
	Increasing the rigidity of the protein native structure by hydrophobic interaction
	Hydrophobic interaction as an important active force in the aggregation of lysozyme.
	Stabilization of tubulin conformation involving hydrophobic forces.
Nucleic acid	Involvement in stabilization of egg lysozyme and bovine serum
	A stabilizing role during thermal denaturation of DNA.
Lipid	Decreasing the overall solubility of single- stranded DNA by hydrophobic forces
	Increasing the structural stability of deuterated lipid vesicles due to enhancing hydrophobic interaction
<u>Deuteration</u>	<u>Biological processes affected by deuteration</u>
Protein	Stabilization phycocyanin conformation as deuteration on exchangeable hydrogen, and decreasing nonpolar side-chain interaction as deuteration on non-exchangeable hydrogen
	Involvement of hydrophobic interaction in gramicidin tryptophan side chain
Lipid	Enhancement of the structural stability of lipid vesicles

There is no significant difference with respect to the main transition from the ripple gel phase to the liquid crystalline phase in H₂O and D₂O solvents. However, the pretransition temperature involving the lamellar gel phase is significantly raised by the substitution of H₂O by D₂O in both lipid bilayers. Such difference was interpreted in terms of the difference in hydrophobic interaction in H₂O and D₂O media.

Deuterium oxide effects related to hydrophobic interaction in biomolecules are briefly summarized in Table 4.2.

4.4 Deuteration Effects on Hydrophobic Interaction

Recent improvements in isotope labeling of RNA have strongly contributed to the high impact of nucleic magnetic resonance (NMR) and neutron scattering in determining RNA structure. Advances in isotope labeling of RNA focus on strategies for selective deuteration of nucleotides, which in combination with segmental isotope labeling paves the path for studying nucleic acid structure.

In protein studies, one of four tryptophan residues in gramicidin A analogues was selectively substituted by carbon-deuterated tryptophan and was incorporated into phospholipid liposomes. Raman spectra revealed that tryptophan side chains

are generally involved in strong hydrophobic interactions with the lipid acyl chains of the membrane and/or with another tryptophan residue.

4.4.1 Proteins

Deuterated proteins can be isolated from organisms grown in D_2O . Algae and yeast can be grown in high concentration of deuterium oxide to make it possible to use them as a practical source of fully deuterated proteins. During adaptation to a deuterated environment, lag periods occur prior to growth of bacteria in deuterium medium.

For example, studies of protein phycocyanin isolated from algae revealed that the substitution of hydrogen by deuterium in exchangeable position stabilizes the protein conformation. In contrast, the introduction of deuterium in non-exchangeable hydrogen position appears to decrease nonpolar side-chain interaction.

4.4.2 Nucleic Acids

Deuterated nucleic acids isolated from algae or yeast are essentially utilized for NMR studies. Advances in isotope labeling of RNA focus on strategies for selective deuteration of nucleotides. Selective deuteration of nucleotides combined with isotope labeling techniques paves the way for investigating nucleic acids. Nevertheless, using deuterated nucleic acid to investigate the impact of hydrophobic interaction in their structures is still lacking.

4.4.3 Lipids

Deuterated lipids are synthesized by substituting hydrogen with deuterium in lipid hydrocarbon chains. Thermodynamic studies of deuterated phospholipids were conducted using deuterated lipid bilayers prepared from aqueous dispersions of 1,2-dimyristoyl-, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-, and 1,2-distearoyl-phosphatidylcholines. Investigations of the nature of interactions in deuterated lipids revealed that deuterium oxide increases the structural stability of deuterated lipid vesicles, due to an enhancement of hydrophobic interaction in D_2O .

Further thermodynamic studies of deuterated phospholipids were conducted using deuterated lipid bilayer vesicles prepared from aqueous dispersions of 1,2-dimyristoyl- d_{54} -, 1,2-dipalmitoyl- d_{62} -, and 1,2-distearoyl- d_{70} -phosphatidylcholines. The temperature, the enthalpy, the free energy, the entropy, and the cooperative melting unit of the main lipid phase transition from the gel to the liquid-crystalline phase were determined. Steady-state polarization

measurements were also performed to elucidate the nature of interactions in these deuterated compounds. The results revealed that an enhancement of hydrophobic interaction in deuterated lipid vesicles leads to an increase in the structural stability of deuterated lipid vesicles.

The above-discussed deuteration effects on hydrophobic interaction in proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids are also summarized in Table 4.2.

Bibliography

- Ben-Naim A (2013) Myths and verities in protein folding theories: from Frank and Evans iceberg-conjecture to explanation of the hydrophobic effect. *J Chem Phys* 139:165105
- Chakrabarti G, Kim S, Gupta ML Jr et al (1999) Stabilization of tubulin by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 38(10):3067–3072
- Chen CH (1994) Virtual single particle energy distributions in water versus other liquids. *J Phys Chem* 98(32):7906–7914
- Cheng YK, Rossky PJ (1998) Surface topography dependence of biomolecular hydrophobic hydration. *Nature* 392(696):696–699
- Cioni P, Strambini GB (2002) Effect of heavy water on protein flexibility. *Biophys J* 82(6):3246–3253
- Das S, Singhal G (1981) Effect of change of water structure on the phase transition of liposomes of dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine. *Int J Quant Chem* 20(2):495–504
- Douarache C, Sikorav J-L, Goldar A (2008) Aggregation and adsorption at the air-water interface of bacteriophage phiX174 single-stranded DNA. *Biophys J* 94(1):134–146
- Duss O, Lukavsky PJ, Allain F (2012) Isotope labeling and segmental labeling of larger RNAs for NMR structural studies. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 992:121–144
- Efimova YM, Haemers S, Wierczinski B et al (2007) Stability of globular proteins in H₂O and D₂O. *Biopolymers* 85(3):264–273
- Frank HS, Evans MW (1945) Free volume and entropy in condensed systems III. Entropy in binary liquid mixtures; partial molal entropy in dilute solutions; structure and thermodynamics in aqueous electrolytes. *J Chem Phys* 13:507
- Galamba N (2013) Water's structure around hydrophobic solutes and the iceberg model. *J Phys Chem* 117(7):2153–2159
- García-Pacios M, Collado MI, Busto JV et al (2009) Sphingosine-1-phosphate as an amphipathic metabolite: its properties in aqueous and membrane environments. *Biophys J* 97(5):1398–1407
- Grabowska J, Kuffel A, Zielkiewicz J (2021) Revealing the Frank–Evans “Iceberg” structures within the solvation layer around hydrophobic solutes. *J Phys Chem B* 125(6):1611–1617
- Grdadolnik J, Merzel F, Avbelj F (2017) Origin of hydrophobicity and enhanced water hydrogen bond strength near purely hydrophobic solutes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 114(2):322–327
- Hattori A, Crespi HL, Katz JJ (1965) Effect of side-chain deuteration on protein stability. *Biochemistry* 4(7):1213–1225
- Ichimori H, Sakano F, Matsuki H et al (2002) Effect of deuterium oxide on the phase transitions of phospholipid bilayer membranes under high pressure. *Prog Biotechnol* 19:147–152
- Izzo V, Fornili SL, Cordone L (1975) Thermal denaturation of *B. subtilis* DNA in H₂O and D₂O observed by electron microscopy. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2(10):1805–1810
- Kauzmann W (1959) Some factors in the interpretation of protein denaturation. *Adv Protein Chem* 14:1–63
- Liu XQ, Sano Y (1998) Effect of Na⁺ and K⁺ ions on the initial crystallization process of lysozyme in the presence of D₂O and H₂O. *J Protein Chem* 17(5):479–484
- Liu L, Yang C, Guo QX (2000) A study on the enthalpy-entropy compensation in protein unfolding. *Biophys Chem* 84(3):239–251

- Lukin M, Santos C (2010) Stereoselective nucleoside deuteration for NMR studies of DNA. *Nucleosides Nucleic Acids* 29(7):562–573
- Lutz O, Groves MJ (1995) The effect of lysine, a water-structure breaker, on the stability of phospholipid-stabilized emulsions. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 47(7):566–570
- Makhatadze GI, Clore GM, Gronenborn AM (1995) Solvent isotope effect and protein stability. *Nat Struct Biol* 2(10):852–855
- Marcus Y (2009) Effect of ions on the structure of water: structure making and breaking. *Chem Rev* 109(3):1346–1370
- Maruyama T, Takeuchi H (1997) Water accessibility to the tryptophan indole N-H sites of gramicidin A transmembrane channel: detection of positional shifts of tryptophans 11 and 13 along the channel axis upon cation binding. *Biochemistry* 36(36):10993–11001
- Meyer EE, Rosenberg KJ, Israelachvili J (2006) Recent progress in understanding hydrophobic interactions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 103(43):15739–15746
- Neitchev VZ, Kostadinov AP (1986) The role of interfacial structured water on the glycoprotein arrangement in liposomes. *Mol Biol Rep* 11(4):253–257
- Nemethy G, Scheraga HA (1962) Structure of water and hydrophobic bonding in proteins. I. A model for the thermodynamic properties of liquid water. *J Chem Phys* 36:3382
- Nemethy G, Scheraga HA (1964) Structure of water and hydrophobic bonding in proteins. IV. The thermodynamic properties of liquid deuterium oxide. *J Chem Phys* 41:680–689
- Oakenfull DG, Fenwick DE (1975) Hydrophobic interaction in deuterium oxide. *Aust J Chem* 28(4):715–720
- Pace CN (1992) Contribution of the hydrophobic effect to globular protein stability. *J Mol Biol* 226:29–35
- Pace CN, Fu H, Fryar KL et al (2011) Contribution of hydrophobic interactions to protein stability. *J Mol Biol* 408(3):514–528
- Pal S, Weiss H, Keller H, Muller-Plathe F (2005) Effect of nanostructure on the properties of water at the water-hydrophobic interface: a molecular dynamics simulation. *Langmuir* 21(8):3699–3709
- Plumridge TH, Waigh RD (2002) Water structure theory and some implications for drug design. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 54(9):1155–1179
- Privalov PL, Gill SJ (1988) Stability of protein structure and hydrophobic interactions. *Adv Protein Chem* 39:191–234
- Qian H (1998) Entropy-enthalpy compensation: conformational fluctuation and induced-fit. *J Chem Phys* 109:10015
- Roth LG, Chen CH (1992) Thermodynamic elucidation of solute-induced lipid interdigitation phase: lipid interactions with hydrophobic versus amphipathic species. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 296(1):207–213
- Sailer BL, Nastasi AJ, Valdez JG et al (1997) Differential effects of deuterium oxide on the fluorescence lifetimes and intensities of dyes with different modes of binding to DNA. *J Histochem Cytochem* 45(2):165–175
- Scott E, Berns DS (1967) Completely deuterated proteins. 3. Deuteration effects on protein-protein interaction in phycocyanin. *Biochemistry* 6(5):1327–1334
- Stadtmiller SS, Pielak GJ (2018) Enthalpic stabilization of an SH3 domain by D2O. *Protein Sci* 27:1710–1716
- Tomohiko J, Sato IH (1984) The effects of deuterium oxide ($^2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) on the polymerization of tubulin in vitro. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 800(1):21–27
- Turowski M, Yamakawa N, Meller J et al (2003) Deuterium isotope effects on hydrophobic interactions: The importance of dispersion interactions in the hydrophobic phase. *J Am Chem Soc* 125(45):13836–13849
- Wang G, Chen CH (1993) Thermodynamic elucidation of structural stability of deuterated biological molecules: deuterated phospholipid vesicles in H_2O . *Arch Biochem Biophys* 301(2):330–335
- Wilf J, Ben-Naim A (1979) Intramolecular hydrophobic interaction in light and heavy water. *J Chem Phys* 70:3079

Part III
Implications of Deuterium Oxide and
Deuteration in Biological Systems

Chapter 5

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules



Water is vital to the stability, structure, dynamics, and function of biomolecules including proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids. Water also mediates biomolecular bindings through hydrogen bond and hydrophobic interaction in complex formation. Hence, changes in the aqueous environment, such as replacement of H_2O with D_2O as the solvent, are expected to affect the structure and function of biomolecules.

Alternatively, the role of water in biomolecular folding can be obtained from solvent perturbation experiments. The simplest perturbant for H_2O is its isotopic form D_2O . Studies of biomolecules in deuterium oxide medium or deuteration of biomolecules can provide insights into not only the role of solvation but also hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction.

Thermodynamically, deuterium oxide has been shown to stabilize biomolecular structures and functions. Kinetically, isotopic exchange of the solvent (referred to as solvent kinetic isotope effect) affects the reaction rate. Studies of the difference between reaction rates in D_2O versus H_2O can also provide clues as to the reaction's mechanism.

The behavior of water molecules at hydrophilic sites is different from that at hydrophobic sites. This dissimilar behavior promotes the anisotropy of the hydration shell of proteins, which is essential for the enzyme function. The interaction of solvent with a polypeptide chain is one of the primary factors that control protein folding and stability. Consequently, the replacement of H_2O with D_2O as the solvent is expected to affect the structure and function of proteins.

D_2O has been known to stabilize attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation. Studies of hydration dynamics of RNA revealed an increase in the stability of RNA structures in D_2O . D_2O was also found to strengthen the hydrogen bonding network in the solvent and weaken the dynamical coupling of the hairpin to its solvation environment.

Investigations of the effect of D_2O on phosphatidylcholine bilayers revealed no appreciable difference between the main phase transition temperature in D_2O and H_2O . The pretransition phase transition temperature is significantly affected by the

solvent substitution. D₂O was also found to cause shrinkage of the molecular area of the phospholipid bilayer interface, due to the difference in bond strength between deuterium and hydrogen bonds.

Moreover, studies of deuteration effects on proteins revealed that, in general, the temperature of thermal denaturation of protein is lower in deuterated proteins than in normal proteins. Deuterated proteins were also found to be less resistant to the denaturant urea. Deuterated lipid bilayers were found to exhibit a broad transition in association with a lower temperature with a smaller enthalpy of the lipid phase transition. Deuteration was also found to affect lipid interactions with protein.

A procedure for preparing ribonucleotides and deoxyribonucleotides with deuterium incorporation from *E. coli* cells has been described. However, few studies were reported on the deuteration effect on the structure and interaction of nucleic acids.

5.1 D₂O Solvent Effects on Biomolecules

The effects of deuterium oxide as the solvent on biomolecules, including proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids, are briefly discussed below.

5.1.1 Deuterium Oxide Effects on Proteins

Differential interactions of polar and nonpolar groups with water are critical to the stability and interaction of protein and protein-ligand complex. The delineation of proteins and protein-ligand interactions require a direct account of the protein-solvent interactions. Water also participates in the catalytic functions of enzymes. Accordingly, in addressing the issue of D₂O solvent effects, both structural and functional aspects should be considered.

5.1.1.1 Protein Structure Effect

Biomolecules consist of water-exposed surfaces in particular at the protein surface. From the experimental point of view, substitution of D₂O for H₂O has been shown to affect the structural and dynamic properties of proteins. Elucidation of the mechanism of stabilization revealed that the aging of protein is significantly lower in D₂O than in H₂O. Moreover, in D₂O, the hydrophobic effect is known to be stronger than in H₂O, which results in favoring the burial of nonpolar surfaces.

Protein Stability

The native state of globular proteins was found to be more stable in D₂O than H₂O, as shown in the studies of D₂O effects on internal dynamics of proteins, such as ribonuclease T1, superoxide dismutase, β -lactoglobulin, liver [alcohol dehydrogenase](#), [alkaline phosphatase](#), and apo- and Cd-azurin. In most cases, D₂O significantly increase the rigidity the native structure of protein. Such structure tightening by deuterium oxide is generally amplified at higher temperatures. These findings support the hydrophobic nature of the underlying interaction of proteins in deuterium oxide medium. A comparative study of the stability of several proteins also revealed that the substitution of D₂O for H₂O also affects the enthalpy of protein unfolding.

Moreover, the initial rate and final extents of polymerization of bovine brain tubulin were enhanced in D₂O. D₂O also reduces the critical concentration for polymerization of brain tubulin. D₂O is also known to promote the assembly of tubulin into microtubules in vitro, increase the volume of mitotic spindle microtubules, and inhibit mitosis. The direct involvement of D₂O in the polymerization of tubulin may cause an increase in the length and number of microtubules of the mitotic spindles in the dividing cells.

Furthermore, the mechanism responsible for the ability of D₂O to stabilize microtubule dynamics may involve enhancement of hydrophobic interaction in the microtubule lattice and/or the substitution of deuterium bonds for hydrogen bonds. Studies of thermal protective effect of D₂O on rp26 protein (retinitis pigmentosa) in equine infectious anemia virus revealed that 80% D₂O is able to provide thermal protection to rp26 protein up to 2 months of incubation at 45 °C.

Protein Aggregation

Protein aggregation is a significant issue affecting the integrity of proteins. D₂O has been shown to promote protein aggregation when used to substitute for H₂O. Using bovine serum albumin as a model, D₂O was found to enhance the conformational stability of monomeric bovine serum albumin. Maintaining the stability of the monomeric form may be beneficial for the long-term storage of bovine serum albumin.

The issue of protein storage in deuterium oxide medium was also investigated for other proteins. Tubulin is an unstable protein when stored in solution and loses its ability to form microtubules rapidly. Tubulin protein polymerizes into microtubules to form a major component of the eukaryotic cytoskeleton. D₂O was found to stabilize the protein against inactivation at both 4 and 37°C. Replacing 50% or more of H₂O with D₂O promotes microtubule polymerization and stabilizes microtubules against disassembly.

Such enhancement of tubulin polymerization by D₂O could be the result of strengthening the hydrophobic interaction of tubulin molecules. The initial rate and final extent of polymerization of bovine brain tubulin were also enhanced in the

presence of D₂O. Thermodynamic analysis also suggested that such enhancement could be the result of strengthening intra- and/or intermolecular hydrophobic interactions of the tubulin molecules.

Peptide Stability

The effect of deuterium oxide on the stability of collagen model peptides was also analyzed. The transition temperatures of the protonated polypeptide (Pro-Pro-Gly) are 25.4 and 28.7°C in H₂O and D₂O, respectively. This increase in the transition temperature of peptide in D₂O is comparable to that of globular proteins.

5.1.1.2 Protein Functional Effect

The interactions of solvent with polypeptide chains are a primary factor affecting the structure and function of proteins. The dissimilar behavior of water molecules at hydrophilic and hydrophobic sites that promotes the anisotropic hydration shell of proteins is essential for enzymatic functions. Protein structure changes due to the replacement of hydrogen with deuterium induce the inhibitory effects of D₂O by reduction of the frequency of -OH bonds.

The mechanisms underlying the functional inhibitory effects of deuterium oxide are likely to provide insight into the significance of hydrogen bonds in biological functions. The effects of D₂O on thermal inactivation of enzymes and protein-ligand interactions are further addressed below.

Enzyme Inactivation

Investigations of thermal inactivation with several membrane-bound enzymes, such as chitin synthase, cytochrome c oxidase, and ATPases, indicated that most of these enzymes could not be protected by D₂O against thermal inactivation, except that *E. coli* ATPase is located at the surface of the membrane and cytochrome c oxidase.

Effects of D₂O on the rate of hydrolysis of ATP by Na,K-ATPase were also investigated. High concentration of deuterium oxide inhibits the rate of ATPase reaction. However, activation of the enzyme was observed in the solution with less than 5% D₂O. Such effect of deuterium oxide also depends on the ratio between the concentrations of sodium and potassium ions in the medium.

Protein-Ligand Binding

Delineation of protein-ligand interaction requires a direct account of the changes in the interactions of protein with the solvent that accompany the folding or binding reactions. In the case of tacrolimus and rapamycin, these two nonpolar and

structurally related ligands each bind with high affinity to a common site on a binding protein. A large enthalpic destabilization of binding was observed in D₂O relative to H₂O. Thermodynamic analysis suggests that a major contributor to the observed enthalpy of destabilization is the differential hydration between protein and ligand in D₂O and H₂O media.

5.1.2 D₂O Solvent Effects on Lipids

Membrane lipids delineate the barrier between the living cell and its surroundings. Membranes are also essential for regulating the machinery of life throughout many interfaces within the interior of cell. Physicochemical properties of biological membranes are strongly influenced by the specific character of the ions in their surrounding aqueous solutions. Comparison of the structure of membrane, such as that extracted from yeast cell grown in H₂O and D₂O culture media, revealed that the difference in molecular composition of deuterated and protonated lipid extracts induces distinguishable structural organization of the membrane lipids.

5.1.2.1 Lipid Interface

The properties of biological membranes depend on the presence of aqueous solutions at their interface. A better understanding of the structural properties of water at the interface of lipid bilayers and the influence of lipid headgroup on the dynamics of water will improve the understanding of the membrane-specific effect. For example, at room temperature, D₂O was found to reduce the surface occupied area of monoolein at the interface in comparison with H₂O. Such deuterium oxide effect was believed due to the difference in the strength of deuterium bond versus hydrogen bond.

Moreover, studies of D₂O solvent effects on headgroup hydration, mobility of lipid diffusion, and lipid backbone packing in dimyristoyl- and dipalmitoyl-phosphocholine bilayers revealed significantly slower lipid dynamics and lower hydration of lipid headgroup region in D₂O medium. These findings implied a slightly more rigid organization of phospholipid bilayers in D₂O than H₂O. However, dielectric dispersion measurements made on egg phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylcholine or cholesterol bilayer membranes showed that the properties of the dielectrically distinct substructural layers of lipid bilayers are insensitive to replacement of H₂O by D₂O.

5.1.2.2 Lipid Phase Transition

Studies of the phase transitions of dipalmitoyl- and distearoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayers revealed no significant difference in the main phase transition temperature when D_2O is substituted for H_2O as the solvent. However, the pretransition temperature is significantly increased by the substitution of H_2O by D_2O . Such effect of pretransition temperature, not the main transition, was also observed in D_2O medium in the studies of the phase transition of lipid bilayers prepared from dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholine and dipalmitoyl- and distearoyl- phosphatidylcholines.

In spite of no effect on the lipid main transition temperature, D_2O was shown to affect the enthalpies of the main transition in the above phosphatidylcholine bilayers. In addition, the substitution of H_2O by D_2O was found to cause shrinkage of the molecular area of phospholipid at bilayer interface, due to the difference in bond strength between deuterium and hydrogen bonds.

Examinations of thermotropic transitions of dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer dispersions in H_2O and D_2O showed that the transition temperature between interdigitated gel phase and ripple phase is lower in D_2O than in H_2O , suggesting that the interdigitated gel phase is more stable in H_2O than in D_2O .

Furthermore, monoolein (1-(cis-9-Octadecenoyl)-rac-glycerol) is fully hydrated by H_2O to form a cubic phase. Substitution of D_2O for H_2O was found to lower the cubic phase to hexagonal phase transition temperature of monoolein. At about 90 °C, the cubic phase is transformed into an inverted hexagonal phase. The structural analysis indicated that D_2O reduces the surface occupied area of monoolein at the interface by 12% in comparison with H_2O . This change is probably due to the difference in the strength of the deuterium bond and hydrogen bond.

5.1.3 Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects on Nucleic Acids

Using four human digestive organ cancer cell lines, the cytotoxic and cytostatic activities of D_2O were assessed. Oral administration of D_2O resulted in a significant inhibition of the growth of Panc-1 tumor (a pancreatic cancer cell line), suggesting that D_2O affects cytotoxic and cytostatic activities and may serve as a potential anti-cancer agent. Moreover, the nucleic acid synthesis inhibition assay suggested that the inhibition of DNA synthesis may be one of the mechanisms responsible for the antitumor effects of D_2O .

Furthermore, although the interference with DNA replication need not be a primary mechanism in the blockade of cell division by deuterium oxide, current hypotheses on the molecular basis of the blockade suggest that such interference might take place. Experiments revealed that sea urchin eggs incorporate thymidine into deoxyribonucleic acid from almost the beginning of development, but cells immersed in deuterium-enriched media do not. In addition, blockade of mitosis and inhibition of thymidine incorporation are relieved when the eggs are returned to normal water medium.

5.1.3.1 Structural Stability

The thermal stability of DNA structures is associated with the properties of the water molecules around the DNAs. Due to the stronger deuterium bond than hydrogen bond, the melting temperatures of nucleic acids are expected to be higher in D₂O than in H₂O. This has been confirmed in the case of salmon-sperm DNA over the pH range of 4.5–7.5. Investigation of DNA solutions from *E. coli* has also demonstrated different stability of DNA in H₂O and D₂O, where the substitution of D₂O for H₂O in aqueous media was believed to enhance the helical stability in DNA.

The dissociation constant of the -NH₂CO- guanosine group in H₂O and D₂O was found to be 9.2 and 9.7, respectively, leading to conclude that the observed difference in the stability of DNA is mainly attributed to the different dissociation constants of -NH₂CO- and -NH₂ groups in D₂O and H₂O media. The difference in the stability of double-helix formation in D₂O and H₂O media was also supported by thermodynamic studies which revealed that the average enthalpy of double-helix formation by (dG-dC)₃ is -62.7 kcal/mol of helix in D₂O, as compared to -56.9 kcal/mol of helix in H₂O.

5.1.3.2 Functional Effects

The effects of deuterium oxide on cell growth were shown for rat basophilic leukemia cells cultured with 15 moles/liter D₂O. The result revealed a decrease in cell growth attributing to cells not doubling their DNA content. Further studies of the extent and pattern of the rearrangements of microtubule arrays in interphase and mitotic PtK2 cells showed that D₂O influences the reassembly of the cytoplasmic microtubule complex of interphase cells. In the presence of 75% D₂O, the conversion of the cytoplasmic microtubule complex into the mitotic spindle was found to be retarded.

5.1.4 Other D₂O Solvent Effects

Deuterium oxide was also found to influence the dynamics of mitosis and the morphology of the mitotic apparatus in HeLa cells. Two hours of incubation of HeLa cells with 1–25% of D₂O was found to increase the frequency of multipolar divisions up to 20 times the control level. Substitution of 10% and 25% D₂O for H₂O induces changes in the proportions of mitotic phases, and 50% D₂O strongly inhibits mitotic activity. Such antiproliferative effect of deuterium oxide on cells was also observed in PtK2 cell lines, where no mitotic figures were found after 2–3 days of incubation in the presence of 75% of D₂O medium.

The thermostabilizing effect of deuterium oxide has also been demonstrated on viruses, such as oral poliovirus and influenza virus.

Deuterium oxide solvent effects on proteins and peptide, nucleic acid, and lipid are briefly presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Deuterium oxide solvent effects on biomolecules

Structure and function of biomolecules	Deuterium oxide solvent effects
Proteins and peptides	
Structural effect	Slow in the aging of protein Favorite of the burial of nonpolar surfaces Stabilization of the native state of proteins Enhancement of the rigidity of protein Promotion of protein aggregation Increasing transition temperature of peptide
Functional effect	No protection against thermal inactivation of most enzymes Inhibition of the rate of ATPase reaction Destabilization of ligand binding
Nucleic acids	
Structural stability	Enhancement of the melting temperatures of nucleic acids and the helical stability
Functional effects	Reduction in cell growth attributing to cells not doubling their DNA content Inhibition of mitotic activity
Lipids	
Lipid interface	Slowing dynamics and lowering hydration of lipid headgroup region
Lipid phase transition	Shrinking molecular area of lipid bilayer Interface

5.2 Deuteration Effects on Biomolecules

The effects of deuteration on biomolecules, including protein, lipid, and nucleic acid, are briefly described below. Deuterated protein with deuteration up to 99%, such as phycocyanin, can be obtained from blue-green algae grown in D₂O, while the extraction of lipids from microorganisms grown in deuterated media can produce deuterated lipids, which has been applied to elucidate the structure, dynamics, and function of cell membrane. However, comparative studies of deuterated nucleic acids with normal nucleic acids are lacking in the literature.

5.2.1 Deuteration Effects on Proteins

Comparative investigations of normal and deuterated phycocyanins, isolated from two blue-green algae (*Plectonema calothricoides* and *Phormidium luridum*), revealed that the temperature of thermal denaturation is about 5 °C lower in deuterated phycocyanin than in normal phycocyanin. The magnitude of the corresponding enthalpy is 18–36% lower in deuterated protein than normal protein.

In *P. luridum*, deuterated phycocyanin is about 8% higher in α -helix content, but in *P. calothricoides*, its α -helix content is not significantly higher. Moreover, the heat capacity change in protein unfolding is essentially the same (2 kcal/mol/K) for deuterated phycocyanin and normal phycocyanin. In addition, deuterated phycocyanin is less resistant to the denaturant urea than normal protein. The denaturant concentration at the midpoint of the denaturation curve is 0.6–1.2 mol/L lower in the deuterated protein than normal protein. The free energy of unfolding of deuterated protein is 1–1.5 kcal/mol less than for normal protein.

5.2.2 Deuteration Effects on Lipids

The cooperative melting unit of the main lipid phase transition from the gel to the liquid-crystalline phase was examined to elucidate the nature of interactions. Investigations of deuterium alkyl-chain substitution effects including lipid phase transition and lipid interaction are described below.

5.2.2.1 Phase Transition

Thermodynamic studies of deuterated phospholipids were conducted using deuterated lipid bilayer vesicles prepared from aqueous dispersions of 1,2-dimyristoyl, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-, and 1,2-distearoyl-phosphatidylcholines, where hydrogen in two lipid long alkyl chains was replaced with deuterium. The obtained phase transition properties of bilayer vesicles prepared from deuterated phospholipids were then compared with those of nondeuterated phospholipids.

Unlike a sharp phase transition observed in a nondeuterated lipid, a deuterated lipid exhibits a broad transition in association with a lower temperature and a small enthalpy and entropy of the transition. However, in the case of deuterated lipid extracts from the yeast, the structural features of fully deuterated lipid stacks were found to be comparable with those of their hydrogenous analogues. In addition, the deuterated and hydrogenous lipid extracts were similar in multi-lamellar arrangement, which implies the presence of a large number of polar phospholipid molecules.

Moreover, investigations of the effects of chain deuteration and headgroup deuteration on lipid structure and phase behavior of 1,2-distearoyl-, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-, and 1,2-dimyristoyl phosphatidylcholines revealed that the phase transition temperature is 4.3 °C lower for lipids with deuterated chains as compared to hydrogenated chains. In addition, deuterated chains cause a reduction in the lamellar repeat spacing and bilayer thickness.

Other studies include ethyl pyrene that forms excimer and dimethylaniline exciplexes in lipid vesicles prepared with 1,2-dimyristoyl phosphatidylcholine and its deuterated analogue. The results showed that deuterium substitution in lipid enhances the excimer yield. In the liquid-crystalline phase, the two hydrocarbon

tails in lipid dispersions are structurally comparable, while, in the gel phase, the tails in the deuterated lipid have a significantly less ordered configuration than those in non-deuterated lipid, implying that deuterated lipid is less rigid in its structure.

5.2.2.2 Lipid Interaction

Studies of interactions of deuterated lipids were illustrated using ergosterol, the main sterol molecule found in the cell membranes of yeasts and other fungi, where the effects of ergosterol on lipid multilayers prepared with deuterated phospholipids were examined. The results showed that the effect of ergosterol on phospholipid extract rich in unsaturated acyl chains is different from that in membranes rich in saturated phospholipids.

Moreover, investigation of the effect of protein on the melting behavior of deuterated lipid, glycophorin isolated from human erythrocyte membranes, was reconstituted into lipid vesicles composed of binary mixtures of phosphatidylserine and acyl-chain perdeuterated dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine. The results indicated that acyl chain deuteration does not significantly alter lipid characteristics.

In addition, cytochrome b5 was also examined by reconstituting with a highly deuterated phospholipid to form ordered multilayers. Studies of the interaction of the membrane-binding domain of cytochrome b5 with the lipid bilayer revealed that the protein penetrates well into the bilayer.

5.2.3 Deuteration Effects on Nucleic Acids

An efficient procedure for the preparation of ribonucleotides and deoxyribonucleotides with deuterium incorporation has been described. The obtained ribose intermediates were converted to ribonucleotides and deoxyribonucleotides via enzymatic reactions with an average deuterium content of 96%.

Moreover, deuterated DNA extracted from *E. coli* cells cultured in deuterated nutrient medium was also reported, where hydrogens covalently bonded to carbon atoms in the DNA sugars and bases were replaced by deuterium atoms. In that study, deuterated DNA confirms a network of water running along the inside edge of the major groove linking phosphate oxygen atoms, in which ordered water lies in the center of the major groove.

The above-described deuteration effects on protein, nucleic acid, and lipid are briefly summarized in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Deuteration effects on biomolecules

Deuterated biomolecules	Deuteration effects
Protein	
Denaturation	Less resistant to the denaturant urea for deuterated hycocyanin than normal protein
	Lower temperature and enthalpy of thermal denaturation for deuterated phycocyanin
Lipid	
Phase transition	Lowering temperature, enthalpy, and entropy of lipid phase transition
	Reduction in bilayer thickness for deuterated lipid chains
	Decreasing lipid ordered configuration
Lipid chain rigidity	Less rigid in the structure of deuterated lipids
Lipid interaction	Improvement of lipid bilayer-protein interaction
Nucleic acid	
Interaction with water	Confirmation of ordered water lying in the center of the major groove of deuterated DNA

Bibliography

- Albergo DD, Marky LA, Breslauer KJ, Turner DH (1981) Thermodynamics of (dG--dC)₃ double-helix formation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 20(6):1409–1413
- Ahlers J, Forêt M, Lemm U (1983) Does D₂O also protect membrane-bound enzymes? *Enzyme* 30(1):70–73
- Bellissent-Funel MC, Hassanali A, Havenith M et al (2016) Water determines the structure and dynamics of proteins. *Chem Rev* 116(13):7673–7697
- Berkowitz ML, Vácha R (2012) Aqueous solutions at the interface with phospholipid bilayers. *Acc Chem Res* 45(1):74–82
- Beranova L, Humpolickova J, Sykora J et al (2012) Effect of heavy water on phospholipid membranes: experimental confirmation of molecular dynamics simulations. *Phys Chem Chem Phys* 14(42):14516–14522
- Bryant G, Taylor MB, Darwish TA et al (2019) Effect of deuteration on the phase behavior and structure of lamellar phases of phosphatidylcholines – deuterated lipids as proxies for the physical properties of native bilayers. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces* 177:196–203
- Chakrabarti G, Kim S, Gupta ML Jr et al (1999) Stabilization of tubulin by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 38(10):3067–3072
- Chellgren BW, Creamer TP (2004) Effects of H₂O and D₂O on polyproline II helical structure. *J Am Chem Soc* 126(45):14734–14735
- Chen B, Jamieson ER, Tullius TD (2002) A general synthesis of specifically deuterated nucleotides for studies of DNA and RNA. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 12(21):3093–3096
- Chen CH, Liu IW, MacColl R, Berns DS (1983) Differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins (phycocyanin). *Biopolymers* 22:1223–1233
- Chen CH, Tow F, Berns DS (1984) Solvent isotope effect on the differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins. *Biopolymers* 23:887–896
- Chen LS, Chen CH (1988) The formation of excimer and exciplex in the structural investigations of lipid vesicles: deuterium isotope effect. *Chem Phys Lipids* 47(4):237–244
- Cioni P, Strambini GB (2002) Effect of heavy water on protein flexibility. *Biophys J* 82(6):3246–3253
- Coster HG, Laver DR, Schoenborn BP (1982) Effects of 2H₂O/H₂O replacement on the dielectric structure of lipid bilayer membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 686(1):141–143

- Connelly PR, Thomson JA, Fitzgibbon MJ, Bruzzese FJ (1993) Probing hydration contributions to the thermodynamics of ligand binding by proteins. Enthalpy and heat capacity changes of tacrolimus and rapamycin binding to FK506 binding protein in D₂O and H₂O. *Biochemistry* 32(21):5583–5590
- Das A, Sinha S, Acharya BR (2008) Deuterium oxide stabilizes conformation of tubulin: a biophysical and biochemical study. *BMB Rep* 41(1):62–67
- Despa F (2005) Biological water: Its vital role in macromolecular structure and function. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1066:1–11
- Gerelli Y, Ghellinck A, Jouhet J (2014) Multi-lamellar organization of fully deuterated lipid extracts of yeast membranes. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr* 70:3167–3176
- Gogol EP, Engelman DM, Zaccai G (1983) Neutron diffraction analysis of cytochrome b5 reconstituted in deuterated lipid multilayers. *Biophys J* 43(3):285–292
- Gross PR, Harding CV (1961) Blockade of deoxyribonucleic acid synthesis by deuterium oxide. *Science* 133:1131–1133
- Guard-Friar D, Chen CH, Engle AS (1985) Deuterium isotope effect on the stability of molecules: phospholipids. *J Phys Chem* 89:1810–1813
- Hirakura Y, Sugiyama T, Takeda M et al (2011) Deuteration as a tool in investigating the role of proteins in cell signaling. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1810(2):218–225
- Hitoshi M, Hiroko O, Sakano F et al (2005) Effect of deuterium oxide on the thermodynamic quantities associated with phase transitions of phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1712(1):92–100
- Ichimori H, Sakano F, Matsuki H et al (2002) Effect of deuterium oxide on the phase transitions of phospholipid bilayer membranes under high pressure. *Prog Biotechnol* 19:147–152
- Itoh TJ, Sato H (1984) The effects of deuterium oxide (D₂O) on the polymerization of tubulin in vitro. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 800(1):21–27
- Jasni M, Tehei M, Moulin M et al (2008) Solvent isotope effect on macromolecular dynamics in *E. coli*. *Eur Biophys J* 37(5):613–617
- Kalkur RS, Ballast AC, Triplett AR et al (2014) Effects of deuterium oxide on cell growth and vesicle speed in RBL-2H3 cells. *PeerJ* 2:e553
- Lamprecht J, Schroeter D, Paweletz N (1989) Disorganization of mitosis in HeLa cells by deuterium oxide. *Eur J Cell Biol* 50(2):360–369
- Lamprecht J, Schroeter D, Paweletz N (1991) Derangement of microtubule arrays in interphase and mitotic PtK2 cells treated with deuterium oxide (heavy water). *J Cell Sci* 98(Pt 4):463–473
- Lewin S (1966) The use of deuterium oxide for the detection of water-binding of helical structures in nucleic acids and in polynucleotides. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 115(1):62–66
- Lewin S, Stow JR (1971) Some aspects of the effect of deuterium oxide (D₂O) substitution for water (H₂O) on the helical stability of yeast transfer ribonucleic acid. *Biochem J* 122(5):48P
- Levy Y, Onuchic JN (2006) Water mediation in protein folding and molecular recognition. *Annu Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* 35:389–415
- Lobyshev VI, Fogel I, Iakovenko LV et al (1982) D₂O as a modifier of ionic specificity of Na, K-ATPase. *Biofizika* 27(4):595–603
- Luchini A, Delhom R, Cristiglio V (2020) Effect of ergosterol on the interlamellar spacing of deuterated yeast phospholipid multilayers. *Chem Phys Lipids* 227:104873
- Luchini A, Delhom R, Deme B et al (2018) The impact of deuteration on natural and synthetic lipids: a neutron diffraction study. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces* 168:126–133
- Makhatadze GI, Clore GM, Gronenborn AM (1995) Solvent isotope effect and protein stability. *Nat Struct Biol* 2(10):852–855
- Matsuki H, Okuno H, Sakano F et al (2005) Effects of deuterium oxide on the thermodynamic quantities associated with phase transitions of phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1712(1):92–100
- Mendelsohn R, Brauner JW, Faines L et al (1984) Calorimetric and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopic studies on the interaction of glycophorin with phosphatidylserine / dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine-d62 mixtures. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 774(2):237–246

- Mendonça L, Steinbacher A, Bouganne R et al (2014) Comparative study of the folding/unfolding dynamics of poly(glutamic Acid) in light and heavy water. *J Phys Chem B* 118(20):5350–5356
- Mizuno K, Bächinger HP (2010) The effect of deuterium oxide on the stability of the collagen model peptides H-(Pro-Pro-Gly)(10)-OH, H-(Gly-Pro-4(R)Hyp)(9)-OH, and type I collagen. *Biopolymers* 93(1):93–101
- Nakano M, Tateishi-Karimata H, Tanaka S et al (2015) Thermodynamic properties of water molecules in the presence of cosolute depend on DNA structure: a study using grid inhomogeneous solvation theory. *Nucleic Acids Res* 43(21):10114–10125
- Ohki K (1991) Effect of substitution of hydrogen oxide by deuterium oxide on thermotropic transition between the interdigitated gel phase and the ripple phase of dihexadecylphosphatidylcholine. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 174(1):102–106
- Panda D, Chakrabarti G, Hudson J et al (2000) Suppression of microtubule dynamic instability and treadmilling by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 39(17):5075–5081
- Pathak AK, Bandyopadhyay T (2017) Water isotope effect on the thermostability of a polio viral RNA hairpin: A metadynamics study. *J Chem Phys* 146(16):5104
- Pica A, Graziano G (2018) Effect of heavy water on the conformational stability of globular proteins. *Biopolymers* 109(10):e23076
- Reslan M, Kayser V (2018) The effect of deuterium oxide on the conformational stability and aggregation of bovine serum albumin. *Pharm Dev Technol* 23(10):1030–1036
- Schroeter D, Lamprecht J, Eckhardt R et al (1992) Deuterium oxide (heavy water) arrests the cell cycle of PtK2 cells during interphase. *Eur J Cell Biol* 58(2):365–370
- Shotton MW, Pope LH, Forsyth T et al (1997) A high-angle neutron fibre diffraction study of the hydration of deuterated A-DNA. *Biophys Chem* 69(1):85–96
- Singha H, Goyal SK, Malik P (2014) Use of heavy water (D₂O) in developing thermostable recombinant p26 protein based enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for serodiagnosis of equine infectious anemia virus infection. *Sci World J* 620906
- Takahashi H, Jojiki K (2017) Water isotope effect on the lipidic cubic phase: heavy water – induced interfacial area reduction of monoolein – water system. *Chem Phys Lipids* 208:52–57
- Takeda H, Nio Y, Omori H et al (1998) Mechanisms of cytotoxic effects of heavy water (deuterium oxide: D₂O) on cancer cells. *Anticancer Drugs* 9(8):715–725
- Wang G, Chen CH (1993) Thermodynamic elucidation of structural stability of deuterated biological molecules: deuterated phospholipid vesicles in H₂O. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 301(2):330–335

Chapter 6

Effects of D₂O and Deuteration on Biomembranes



Biological membranes not only delineate the barrier between the living cell and its surroundings to keep toxic substances out of the cell but also regulate the machinery of life throughout many interfaces within the interior of the cell. Biological membranes also contain receptors and channels that mediate cellular and extracellular activities and allow specific molecules such as ions, nutrients, wastes, and metabolic products to pass between organelles.

Physicochemical properties of biological membranes are strongly influenced by specific characters in their surrounding solutions. The effects of D₂O on biological membranes include changes in membrane receptor binding and conformation, membrane-bound enzyme activities, and membrane potential and ion transport. Moreover, the mechanisms underlying the effects of deuterium oxide are likely to provide insight into the fundamental significance of hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction in biological functions.

Hence, elucidation of the molecular mechanisms underlying D₂O solvent and deuteration effects on cell membranes has been an active research area. D₂O is able to activate or inhibit biological systems and thus influences the metabolism of tissues and organs. Deuterium oxide also affects protein structure, due to the replacement of hydrogen with deuterium. For example, comparative studies of thermal inactivation of membrane-bound enzymes in H₂O and D₂O revealed that deuterium oxide stabilizes *E. coli* ATPase as well as cytochrome c oxidase.

On the other hand, deuterium oxide seems to inhibit the activation process of the receptor potential. The effects of solvent substitution with deuterium oxide on gap junctional conductance were examined in the earthworm axon, which results showed that D₂O causes a reduction in gap junctional conductance and a decrease in the amplitude of the receptor potential.

Moreover, D₂O also affects membrane excitation on giant internodal cells of alga (*Chara gymnophylla*). The primary effect consists of membrane depolarization. A kinetic isotope effect on the rate of binding was also observed, indicating that deuterium substitution for protium affects H⁺ transfer reaction across cell membranes.

On the basis of these findings, an osmotic stress effect of D₂O on membrane ion channels was hypothesized.

The presently discussed deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biological membranes include the effects on membrane structures and functions, such as membrane potential, channel, polarization, transport, and receptor. In addition, the present chapter also covers deuteration isotope effects on membrane proteins, lipid bilayer phases, and essential fatty acids.

6.1 D₂O Solvent Effects on Biomembranes

D₂O has been used as a putative inhibitor of the plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase and the plasma membrane redox system. Concentration of 50% D₂O was found to inhibit H⁺ secretion and the plasma membrane redox system. Studies of the effects of D₂O on alga (*Chara gymnophylla*) cells showed that D₂O causes membrane excitation followed by potassium leakage. To address the effect of D₂O on membrane depolarization, a hypothesis was proposed to deal with an osmotic stress effect of D₂O on membrane ion channels.

In dialyzed *Myxicola* axons, the substitution of H₂O with D₂O slows both sodium and potassium kinetics and decreases the maximum conductance. These results suggested that the rate-limiting process which produces a conducting channel involves detectable local changes in solvent structure. Such changes lead to slowing the Na⁺ and K⁺ currents in *Myxicola* axons by 40–50% at 5 °C. These findings imply that the rates of K⁺ and Na⁺ inactivation during a maintained depolarization are slowed in D₂O medium.

Furthermore, in lipid studies, phospholipid bilayers hydrated with D₂O express different biophysical properties as compared with hydration by H₂O. Studies of D₂O isotope effects on headgroup hydration and mobility, lateral lipid diffusion, and lipid backbone packing revealed significantly slower dynamics and lower hydration of the lipid headgroup region. These findings imply that the deuterium oxide affects the order parameter of lipid bilayers, resulting in a more rigid organization for phospholipid bilayers.

6.1.1 Structures and Functions

Studies of D₂O effects on membrane functions, such as calcium release as measured with membrane potential in single muscle fibers of *Balanus nubilus*, demonstrated that deuterium oxide inhibits calcium release without affecting membrane potential. This finding is consistent with the proposal that D₂O inhibits the coupling between excitation and contraction. In crayfish stretch receptor organ, substitution of D₂O for H₂O was found to produce a decrease in the amplitude of the receptor potential

to a level of 34% of the control, which implies that D₂O has an inhibitory effect on the transduction process.

The elongation of subapical segments of maize (*Zea mays*) roots was also inhibited in D₂O medium. Further studies showed that D₂O is a putative inhibitor of the plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase and the plasma membrane redox system. A 50% D₂O was found to inhibit H⁺ secretion and the plasma membrane redox system. The addition of more than 5% D₂O causes the plasma membrane of roots to be transiently depolarized. However, despite the inhibiting effect of D₂O, the plant is still able to regulate the membrane potential.

Moreover, experiments on plasma membrane vesicles also revealed that H⁺-pumping and ATPase activities are largely inhibited by 35–50% D₂O. But a 30 min exposure to D₂O slightly reduces O₂ uptake and significantly increases ATP levels. Furthermore, the actions of saxitoxin were also investigated in frog myelinated nerve. Substitution of D₂O for H₂O increases the potency of saxitoxin by approximately 50%. The inhibition of sodium currents by 1 nM saxitoxin is doubled in D₂O. These findings are consistent with a hypothesis that attributes receptor-toxin stabilization to isotopic changes of hydrogen bonding to deuterium bonding.

In addition, association and dissociation rates constants of several steroids binding to glucocorticoid receptor protein were also determined in H₂O and D₂O media. Substitution of deuterium for hydrogen does not influence association rate constants. However, dissociation rate constants are decreased about twofold in deuterium oxide in the case of steroids that contain an 11-beta-hydroxyl group, which is known to be present in every optimal glucocorticoid agonist molecule. These results suggest that 11-beta-hydroxyl group participating in hydrogen bonding may play a role in glucocorticoid action.

Being able to activate or inhibit biological systems, D₂O influences metabolism and functions of tissues and organs. Investigations were carried out to examine the effects of D₂O on the functions of human platelets, including changes in membrane receptor conformation and binding strength of substances to their specific receptors. The results revealed that D₂O causes a decrease in ADP- and collagen-induced aggregation, and retraction is also inhibited in D₂O in a dose-dependent manner.

6.1.2 Membrane Potentials

Membrane potential is composed of transmembrane proton gradient and electrical potential of the protonmotive force. Proton gradient and electric potential are together referred to as electrochemical potential according to the Mitchell hypothesis. Proton electrochemical potential provides the driving force for translocation reactions of solutes across the cell membrane. For example, studies of active transport of lactose across *E. coli* membrane showed that the translocation reaction is retarded by a factor of greater than 3 in D₂O medium, as compared to H₂O medium. This finding implied that proton-transfer reaction is the rate-limiting step in the translocation of lactose across the *E. coli* membrane.

Moreover, in the crayfish stretch receptor organ, D₂O was found to decrease the amplitude of the receptor potential to a level of 34% of the control, which suggested that D₂O exhibits an inhibitory effect on the transduction process that is responsible for the receptor potential.

6.1.3 Ion Channels

The effects of solvent substitution with deuterium oxide on gap junction channel were examined in the earthworm axon. Substitution with D₂O reduces gap junction channel by 20%. This reduction reflects the changes that occur in solvent viscosity, resulting in influencing trans junctional ion mobility. Furthermore, the effects of deuterium oxide on the properties of endplate channels were studied in voltage-clamped muscle fibers from a frog. The single channel conductance was found to decrease in D₂O. Such decrease is greater than that could be accounted for by the increased viscosity of D₂O solutions.

Experiments have also been performed to investigate the effects of deuterium oxide on acetylcholine-activated channels at the frog neuromuscular junction. The results indicated that the solvent can affect the properties of channel conductance and lifetime. In deuterium oxide solvent, the channel closing rate is speeded up, and the mean channel lifetime is smaller. A possible explanation of these findings is that the channel gating change in the presence of D₂O makes the open state less stable.

The effects of substituting D₂O for H₂O on the voltage-activated H⁺ selective conductance of rat alveolar epithelial cells were also examined. D⁺ is able to permeate proton channels but with a conductance only about 50% that of H⁺. This decrease in conductance in D₂O suggested that D⁺ interacts specifically with the channel during permeation.

In addition, investigations of internodal cells of freshwater alga and the isolated Ca²⁺ channels revealed that both Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ channels are activated by the effects of D₂O. A proposed mechanism of D₂O action was based on an osmotic-like stress effect and higher D-bond energy compared to the H-bond.

Moreover, studies of the effects of D₂O substitution of H₂O on the permeation and gating of Ca²⁺-activated potassium channels in alga (*Chara gymnohylla*) membrane showed that the single channel conductance is decreased by 15% in D₂O as compared to H₂O. The blockade of channel conductance by cytosolic Ca²⁺ is also weakened in D₂O. These findings suggested that voltage-dependent channel gating is affected by D₂O, primarily due to the change in Ca²⁺ binding to the channel during the activation step.

The effects of solvent substitution on the steady-state kinetic properties of drugs (gallamine triethiodide) and related ions were also studied in D₂O medium. Nonyltriethylammonium and Ba²⁺ are known to block off Na⁺ and K⁺ channels. Significant isotope effects on the kinetics of blockage occur at 5 °C, which is consistent with processes involving solvent interaction.

Also, abundant evidences demonstrated that D₂O modulates various secretory activities. The replacement of H₂O with D₂O in solutions of patch electrodes reduces Ca²⁺ currents evoked by depolarizing voltage steps. This finding suggests that D₂O gradient across the plasma membrane is critical for Ca²⁺ channel kinetics. The differences in the zero-point vibrational energy between protonated and deuterated amino acids were believed to cause the dysfunction of Ca²⁺ channels.

6.1.4 Membrane Transports

In the studies of muscle fibers of *Balanus nubilus*, D₂O was shown to inhibit calcium release but did not affect membrane potential. This finding is consistent with the postulate that deuterium oxide inhibits the coupling between muscle excitation and contraction. In another investigation, potassium absorption by the root of rice seedlings was found to decrease proportionally with D₂O concentration. The translocation of the absorbed cations by roots to shoots is also decreased markedly in >40% D₂O medium.

Examinations of the effects of D₂O on the rate of hydrolysis of ATP by Na,K-ATPase revealed that a high concentration of D₂O inhibits the rate of ATPase reaction. Such isotope effects depend on the ratio between Na⁺ and K⁺ concentrations in the medium, and the transport of ions by the enzyme is accompanied by dehydration of these ions.

Other studies of the effects of D₂O on membrane transport were carried out in *E. coli* lactose permease reconstituted proteoliposomes, in which uphill H⁺ translocation is coupled with downhill lactose transport. The results demonstrated that initial rates of carrier-mediated efflux down a chemical gradient are retarded over threefold in deuterium relative to protium over a pH (pD) range from 5.5 to 7.5. Counterflow was also examined in both H₂O and D₂O media to test the hypothesis that efflux is an order reaction limited either by the rate of deprotonation or by a pH-dependent equilibrium.

D₂O solvent kinetic isotope effects affect membranous transport processes such as the rate of binding. Deuterium substitution for protium affects an H⁺ transfer reaction within lactose permease of *E. coli*, which is associated with sugar binding. At neutral pH or pD, both the rate of sugar dissociation and the forward rate are slower in D₂O than in H₂O by a factor of 2. These results indicated that internal transfer of H⁺ is involved in the kinetic isotope effect.

Moreover, the voltage-activated H⁺ selective conductance of rat epithelial cells was investigated to study the effects of deuterium oxide on the conductance and the pH dependence of gating. D⁺ is able to permeate proton channels but with a conductance about half that of H⁺. Such reduction of conductance in D₂O is more than that can be accounted for by the lower mobility of D⁺ than H⁺. These findings not only suggested D⁺ interacting specifically with the channel during permeation but also supported the hypothesis that H⁺ (or D⁺) and not OH⁻ is the ionic species that carry the current.

6.1.5 Lipid Phases

Molecular dynamics simulation studies on dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayers revealed that the membrane core and the membrane-water interface are affected by replacing H₂O by D₂O. The lifetimes of these interactions are much longer in D₂O medium than those in H₂O medium. A slightly better ordering of D₂O molecules and average self-diffusion was also found due to the longer live deuterium-bonding to lipid headgroups in lipid bilayers.

Investigations of thermotropic transitions of dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions in H₂O and D₂O showed that transition temperature between interdigitated gel phase and ripple phase is lower in D₂O than in H₂O, indicating that the interdigitated gel phase is more stable in H₂O than in D₂O. However, the transition between the ripple phase to the fluid phase in D₂O occurs at a temperature slightly higher than in H₂O.

Moreover, studies of dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions revealed that the transition temperature between lamellar gel phase and ripple phase is higher in D₂O than in H₂O. A difference in interfacial energies between these aqueous environments was also discussed to account for the shift of the transition temperature by the D₂O.

In addition, the bilayer phase transitions of three phospholipids (dipalmitoyl-, distearoyl-, and dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholines) were also compared in D₂O and H₂O media. Both the pretransition and the main transition are significantly affected by D₂O. The substitution of H₂O by D₂O causes shrinkage of the molecular area of phospholipid at the bilayer interface, due to the difference in bond strength between deuterium and hydrogen bonds.

The above-discussed deuterium oxide effects on biological membranes are briefly summarized in Table 6.1.

6.2 Deuteration Effects on Biological Membranes

Deuteration of phospholipids is a common practice to elucidate membrane structure, dynamics, and function. The effects of deuteration on the organization and phase behavior of phospholipids were investigated to delineate the effects of chain deuteration and headgroup deuteration on lipid structure and phase behavior.

Moreover, polyunsaturated fatty acids of cellular, mitochondrial, retinal, and membranes are essential to neuronal function. They are susceptible to lipid peroxidation reaction. Selective deuteration of polyunsaturated fatty acids is a novel, non-antioxidant method to investigate lipid peroxidation-related oxidative stress. Such oxidative stress is a common feature of genetic and idiopathic neurological diseases.

The impacts of lipid deuteration on the general fitness of the bacteria and its membrane fluidity in relation to fatty acid chain composition were also examined. Such lipid deuteration protocol is likely applicable to other microorganisms for

Table 6.1 Typical studies of deuterium oxide on biological membranes

Membrane structures and functions	Deuterium oxide effects
Membrane functions	Inhibitions of calcium release, transduction process, H ⁺ -pumping, or ATPase activities
	Enhancement of saxitoxin potency
	Reduction of dissociation rate constants of steroids binding to glucocorticoid receptor
Membrane potentials	Reduction of protonmotive force or receptor potential
	Inhibitory effect on transduction process
Ion channels	Reduction of gap junction channel, channel conductance, or Ca ²⁺ current
	Reduction of the channel open state stability
	Enhancement of the channel kinetics
Membrane transports	Inhibition of Ca ⁺⁺ release or ATPase reaction rate
	Reduction of lactose transport across proteoliposomes
Lipid vesicles	Enhancement of the lifetime of membrane- water interaction
	Affecting lipid phase transition temperatures
	Shrinkage of the molecular area of phospholipid at bilayer interface

in vivo NMR studies. The advantageous use of neutron scattering techniques for the determination of membrane structures was also described. Constituents of biological membranes showed much larger differences in neutron scattering than X-rays. Methods of contrast enhancement using H₂O and D₂O exchange and deuteration were outlined from studies of nerve myelin artificial membranes and retinal rod outer segments.

6.2.1 Membrane Components

The deuteration of biomolecules is valuable in structural studies where specific regions of a complex system can be examined, especially membrane components. In mammalian membranes, the presence of cholesterol is crucial in modulating the properties of lipids and the interaction of lipid with proteins.

Partially deuterated cholesterol was prepared and incorporated with phosphatidylcholine lipid bilayers, including saturated and unsaturated lipids. Cholesterol was found to be distributed asymmetrically within the bilayer and positioned closer to the headgroups of the lipids than to the middle of the tail core.

Understanding fatty acid metabolism and lipid synthesis requires information about fatty acid and lipid formation within the cells. Deuterated substrates of α -linolenic acid and linoleic acid were used to determine the relative amounts of polyunsaturated fatty acids and specific phospholipids incorporated into cell plasma

membranes. The results revealed that the fatty acid treatments induced an increase in the amounts of these acids and their long-chain conversion products.

An enhanced level of phospholipid turnover of these fatty acids in lipids, such as phosphatidyl-cholines, ethanolamines, and inositols, was also observed in the cell plasma membrane. In addition, the study of organization and dynamics of phospholipids and their application to intact bacteria was carried out with *Vibrio splendidus* labeled with deuterated palmitic acid. *V. splendidus* is a marine bacterium which is highly adapted to dynamic salty ecosystems.

6.2.2 Deuterated Membranes

Halobacterium halobium, purple membranes in which valines or phenylalanines are present in deuterated forms, were also investigated to assess the distribution of valine and phenylalanine in the purple membrane structure. The results revealed that valine is distributed toward the periphery of a single bacteriorhodopsin molecule, whereas phenylalanine is distributed toward its center. Moreover, the charged and polar groups of the bacteriorhodopsin molecule tend to lie at the molecular interior, away from contact with lipid, while the nonpolar surfaces are directed outward, making contact with the lipid regions.

Quinones are best known as carriers of electrons and protons during oxidative phosphorylation and photosynthesis. The localization of ubiquinone within lipid bilayers was investigated by neutron diffraction, where quinone was incorporated into stacked bilayers of perdeuterated dimyristoyl-phosphatidylcholine. Quinone at the center of the hydrophobic core was found to be parallel to the membrane plane. This localization is of importance for its function as a redox shuttle between the respiratory complexes.

6.2.3 Membrane Proteins

Deuterated membranes from deuterated cells of *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* containing 85–90% of deuterium were isolated. The secondary structure of deuterated membrane proteins and the relative contents of deuterated lipids and proteins were found to be similar to those in the protonated ones.

In contrast, in deuterated phycocyanin isolated from blue-green algae, deuterated protein exhibits a thermal denaturation temperature lower than that of hydrogenated proteins. Deuterated phycocyanin was also found to be less resistant to the denaturant urea.

In peptides, selectively deuterated analogues of histidine, tyrosine, phenylalanine, and tryptophan have been synthesized by chemical exchange. These analogues have been used for growth of bacteria. In *E. coli*, active lactose repressor protein has been isolated from cells grown in deuterated amino acids to investigate proton electrochemical potential across *E. coli* membranes.

6.2.4 Lipid Bilayers

Lipid bilayers undergo a phase transition from gel phase to liquid crystalline phase. The temperature of gel-fluid phase transition was found to be 4 °C lower for lipids with deuterated chains compared to protonated chains, which is consistent with the result that deuterated fatty acids have a melting point 3–5 °C lower than nondeuterated ones. These findings reveal that deuterated lipid has a significantly less ordered configuration in gel phase than nondeuterated lipid, suggesting that deuterated lipid chains cause a reduction in the lamellar repeat spacing and bilayer thickness.

6.2.5 Essential Fatty Acids

Essential fatty acids promise to benefit age-related diseases, including Alzheimer's and other neurological conditions. Autoxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids damages lipid membranes and generates toxic byproducts, which are implicated in neurodegeneration, aging, and other pathological conditions.

Deuterated essential fatty acid can be obtained by substituting hydrogen with deuterium at the bis-allylic methylene of essential fatty acids. Abstraction of bis-allylic hydrogen atoms is the rate-limiting step of polyunsaturated fatty acid autoxidation. This process is inhibited by replacing bis-allylic hydrogen with deuterium. The substitution leads to a significantly slower oxidation due to the kinetic isotope effect, resulting in inhibiting membrane damage.

The above approach has the advantage of preventing the harmful accumulation of reactive oxygen species by inhibiting the propagation of lipid peroxidation. Although in cells the presence of a relatively small fraction of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids was found to inhibit lipid peroxidation, the protection rendered by deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acid may depend on the structure of fatty acid.

The above-discussed deuteration effects on biological membranes are briefly summarized in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Typical studies of deuteration on biological membranes

Membrane structures and functions	Deuteration effects
Membrane components	Cholesterol distributes asymmetrically within the bilayer and positions closer to lipid headgroups
	Fatty acid induces an increase in the amounts of α -linolenic acid and linoleic acid
	Lipid deuteration impacts the membrane fluidity of a marine bacterium
Membrane proteins	Insignificant changes in secondary structure and relative content of lipids and proteins
Lipid phase transition	Lowering phase transition temperature
	Less ordered configuration in gel phase
	Lowering melting point of fatty acids
Essential fatty acids	Slower oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids
	Inhibition of lipid peroxidation

Bibliography

- Ahlers J, Forêt M, Lemm U (1983) Does 2H₂O also protect membrane-bound enzymes? *Enzyme* 30(1):70–73
- Andjus PR, Vucelic D (1990) D₂O-induced cell excitation. *J Membr Biol* 115(2):123–127
- Andjus PR, Kataev AA, Alexandrov AA et al (1994) D₂O-induced ion channel activation in Characeae at low ionic strength. *J Membr Biol* 142(1):43–53
- Aranyi P (1984) Deuterium isotope effects on the rates of steroid--glucocorticoid receptor interactions. *Eur J Biochem* 138(1):89–92
- Beaudoin-Chabot C, Wang L, Smarun AV et al (2019) Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids reduce oxidative stress and extend the lifespan of *C. elegans*. *Front Physiol* 10:641
- Belleau B, Burba J, Pindell M, Reiffenstein J (1961) Effect of deuterium substitution in sympathomimetic amines on adrenergic responses. *Science* 133(3446):102–104
- Beranova L, Humpolickova J, Sykora J et al (2012) Effect of heavy water on phospholipid membranes: experimental confirmation of molecular dynamics simulations. *Phys Chem Chem Phys* 14(42):14516–14522
- Bouhrel Z, Arnold AA, Warschawski DE et al (2019) Labelling strategy and membrane characterization of marine bacteria *Vibrio splendidus* by in vivo ²H NMR. *Biochim Biophys Acta Biomembr* 1861(4):871–878
- Bryant G, Taylor MB, Darwish TA et al (2019) Effect of deuteration on the phase behavior and structure of lamellar phases of phosphatidylcholines – deuterated lipids as proxies for the physical properties of native bilayers. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces* 177:196–203
- Chen CH, Liu IW, MacColl R et al (1983) Differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins (phycocyanin). *Biopolymers* 22(4):1223–1233
- DeCoursey TE, Cherny VV (1997) Deuterium isotope effects on permeation and gating of proton channels in rat alveolar epithelium. *J Gen Physiol* 109(4):415–434
- Döring O, Böttger M (1992) Effect of D₂O on plasmalemma ATPase and electron transport coupled proton pumping. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 182(2):870–876
- Driessen AJ, Wickner W (1991) Proton transfer is rate-limiting for translocation of precursor proteins by the *Escherichia coli* translocase. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 88(6):2471–2475
- Firsov AM, Fomich MA, Bekish AV et al (2019) Threshold protective effect of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids on peroxidation of lipid bilayers. *FEBS J* 286(11):2099–2117

- Fisher SJ, Helliwell JR (2008) An investigation into structural changes due to deuteration. *Acta Crystallogr A* 64(Pt 3):359–367
- Gogol EP, Engelman DM (1984) Neutron scattering shows that cytochrome b5 penetrates deeply into the lipid bilayer. *Biophys J* 46(4):491–495
- Guard-Friar D, Chen CH, Engle AS (1985) Deuterium isotope effect on the stability of molecule: phospholipids. *J Phys Chem* 89:1810–1813
- Hahin R, Strichartz G (1981) Effects of deuterium oxide on the rate and dissociation constants for saxitoxin and tetrodotoxin action. Voltage-clamp studies on frog myelinated nerve. *J Gen Physiol* 78(2):113–139
- Hauss T, Dante S, Haines TH, Dencher NA (2005) Localization of coenzyme Q10 in the center of a deuterated lipid membrane by neutron diffraction. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1710(1):57–62
- Hirakura Y, Sugiyama T, Takeda M et al (2011) Deuteration as a tool in investigating the role of proteins in cell signaling. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1810(2):218–225
- Ikeda M, Suzuki S, Kishio M et al (2004) Hydrogen-deuterium exchange effects on beta-endorphin release from AtT20 murine pituitary tumor cells. *Biophys J* 86:565–575
- Kaminer B, Kimura J (1997) Deuterium oxide: inhibition of calcium release in muscle. *Science* 176:406–407
- Lewis CA (1984) Deuterium oxide effects on frog endplate channels. *Biophys J* 45(1):16–18
- Lewis CA (1985) Deuterium oxide and temperature effects on the properties of endplate channels at the frog neuromuscular junction. *J Gen Physiol* 85(2):137–156
- Lobyshev VI, Fogel I, Iakovenko LV et al (1982) D₂O as a modifier of ionic specificity of Na, K-ATPase. *Biofizika* 27(4):595–603
- Matsuki H, Okuno H, Sakano F et al (2005) Effect of deuterium oxide on the thermodynamic quantities associated with phase transitions of phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1712(1):92–100
- Matthews HR, Matthews KS, Opella SJ (1977) Selectively deuterated amino acid analogues. Synthesis, incorporation into proteins and NMR properties. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 497(1):1–13
- Meier P, Sachse JH, Brophy PJ et al (1987) Integral membrane proteins significantly decrease the molecular motion in lipid bilayers: a deuterium NMR relaxation study of membranes containing myelin proteolipid apoprotein. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 84(11):3704–3708
- Nakajima S, Kuroda T (1976) Effects of deuterium oxide on mechano-sensory receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 73(12):4703–4705
- Ohki K (1991) Effect of substitution of hydrogen oxide by deuterium oxide on thermotropic transition between the interdigitated gel phase and the ripple phase of dihexadecylphosphatidylcholine. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 174(1):102–106
- Ono T, Nakajima S (1979) Effects of temperature and deuterium oxide on crustacean stretch receptor. *J Neurophysiol* 42(6):1680–1691
- Philipsen MH, Samfors S, Malmberg P et al (2018) Relative quantification of deuterated omega-3 and -6 fatty acids and their lipid turnover in PC12 cell membranes using TOF-SIMS. *J Lipid Res* 59(11):2098–2107
- Pottosin LI, Andjus PR, Vucelic D et al (1993) Effects of D₂O on permeation and gating in the Ca(2+)-activated potassium channel from *Chara*. *J Membr Biol* 136(2):113–124
- Reuter HD, Fischer JH, Thiele S (1985) Investigations on the effects of heavy water (D₂O) on the functional activity of human platelets. *Haemostasis* 15(3):157–163
- Rog T, Murzyn K, Milhaud J et al (2009) Water isotope effect on the phosphatidylcholine bilayer properties: a molecular dynamics simulation study. *J Phys Chem B* 113(8):2378–2387
- Sacchi GA, Cocucci M (1992) Effects of deuterium oxide on growth, proton extrusion, potassium influx, and in vitro plasma membrane activities in maize root segments. *Plant Physiol* 100(4):1962–1967
- Schauf CL (1987) Selective modification of sodium channel gating by solvents and drugs. *Eur J Pharmacol* 136(1):89–95

- Schauf CL, Bullock JO (1980) Solvent substitution as a probe of channel gating in *Myxicola*. Differential effects of D₂O on some components of membrane conductance. *Biophys J* 30(2):295–305
- Schoenborn BP (1976) Neutron scattering for the analysis of membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 457(1):41–55
- Shchepinov MS (2020) Polyunsaturated fatty acid deuteration against neurodegeneration. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 41(4):236–248
- Shibabe S, Yoda K (1984) Hydrogen isotope effect on transport of potassium ion in rice seedlings equilibrated with deuterium oxide. *Radioisotopes* 33(10):675–679
- Smirnova I, Kasho V, Sugihara J et al (2012) Role of protons in sugar binding to LacY. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 109(42):16835–16840
- Verselis V, Brink PR (1986) The gap junction channel. Its aqueous nature as indicated by deuterium oxide effects. *Biophys J* 50:1003–1007
- Viitanen P, Garcia ML, Foster DL et al (1983) Mechanism of lactose translocation in proteoliposomes reconstituted with lac carrier protein purified from *Escherichia coli* 2. Deuterium solvent isotope effects. *Biochemistry* 22(10):2531–2536
- Waldie S, Moulin M, Lionel Porcar L et al (2019) The production of matchout-deuterated cholesterol and the study of bilayer-cholesterol interactions. *Sci Rep* 9(1):5118

Part IV
Applications of D₂O and Deuteration to
Biochemical Reactions

Chapter 7

Biochemical Effects of Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration



The stability of a biomolecule is vital for its biological function. Proper conformation is partially driven by intermolecular interactions between biomolecule and water. Studies of deuterium oxide and deuteration effects can provide insight into the role of solvation, hydrogen bonding, and hydrophobicity in biomolecule-water interactions.

D₂O is very useful in biochemical applications to investigate the structures and functions of biomolecules. Thermodynamic studies of biochemical effects in D₂O solvent have been carried out to elucidate the role of water in the structure and conformation of biomolecules, such as the structural stability and the association-dissociation equilibrium of protein subunits. The stabilities of native proteins and protein-ligand complexes are maintained by differential interactions among polar and nonpolar atoms within proteins and ligands with water.

Moreover, the deuterium kinetic effect is the study of change in the **reaction rate** of **chemical reaction** in which hydrogen in the **reactant** is replaced by deuterium. It is the most common and well-studied isotope effect. The difference between the reaction rate in D₂O solvent versus that in H₂O often can help the elucidation of the **reaction mechanism**. Experimentally, the kinetic isotope effect is expressed as the ratio of **rate constants** for the reactions (k_H/k_D), where k_H and k_D refer to the kinetic rate constant in H₂O and D₂O, respectively.

In addition, investigations of the biochemical effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration could also potentially delineate the pharmacokinetics of drugs that are metabolized by pathways involving carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bond. Such research could lead to new drug development or improve unfavorable **pharmacokinetics** by protecting metabolically vulnerable C-H bonds.

7.1 Deuterium Oxide Thermodynamic Effects

The hydrophobic effect is known to be stronger than in H_2O , resulting in favor of the burial of nonpolar surfaces and van der Waals' packing in the biomolecule cores. In contrast, biomolecules present more water-exposed surfaces in H_2O medium. Deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects on proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids are discussed below.

7.1.1 Proteins

Proteins discussed in the following deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects include enzyme stability (lactate dehydrogenase, glutamate dehydrogenase, and butyrylcholinesterase) and protein inactivation (tubulin, tacrolimus and rapamycin, bacteriorhodopsin, and biotin repressor).

The substitution of D_2O for H_2O was found to increase the transition temperature and decrease the enthalpy of protein unfolding. However, as a result of entropic compensation for the decrease in enthalpy, the overall stability of proteins was believed to be largely unchanged based on the proposal of enthalpy-entropy compensation. Such compensation is attributed to changes in hydration of proteins in D_2O compared to H_2O .

Further analyses of thermodynamic data for the transfer of model compounds from H_2O to D_2O show that the changes in the enthalpy of unfolding due to water isotopic substitution can be rationalized by changes in hydration of the buried non-polar groups.

7.1.1.1 Enzyme Stability

Thermodynamic studies of enzymes revealed that D_2O stabilizes lactate dehydrogenase and inhibits subunit interchange in solution. In bovine liver, D_2O appears to facilitate the association of monomers to form polymers. The stabilizing action of D_2O reflects the increased strength of deuterium bonds and deuterium water bridges. Moreover, in thermal inactivation of the tetrameric form of butyrylcholinesterase in H_2O and D_2O , a slight solvent isotope effect was observed, including a stabilizing effect and a shift in the transition temperature.

7.1.1.2 Protein Folding

Tubulin, an unstable protein when stored in solution, loses its ability to form microtubules rapidly. D_2O was found to stabilize the protein against inactivation. The deuterated solvent retards an aggregation process that occurs during incubation at 4

and 37 °C. D₂O was believed to exhibit stabilization effect on tubulin conformation step by involving the disruption of hydrophobic forces.

Elucidation of the mechanism of stabilization of tubulin by D₂O demonstrated that the rate of decrease of tryptophan fluorescence during aging of protein was significantly lower in D₂O than in H₂O. Circular dichroism spectra of tubulin suggested the stabilization of the secondary structure in D₂O. The number of available cysteine residue was decreased to a lesser extent in D₂O than in H₂O. Meanwhile, the temperatures of tubulin unfolding are higher in D₂O than in H₂O: 58.6 and 62.2 °C in D₂O, as compared to 55.4 and 59.3 °C in H₂O.

7.1.1.3 Thermal Unfolding

Investigations of thermal unfolding of *Drosophila* signal transduction protein in H₂O and D₂O solutions showed the stabilizing effect of D₂O compared with H₂O. Moreover, tacrolimus and rapamycin are structurally related ligands; each bind with high affinity to a common site on a small binding protein called FK506. Studies of the enthalpies of tacrolimus and rapamycin binding to FK506 in H₂O or D₂O revealed a large enthalpic destabilization of binding in D₂O compared to H₂O. A main contributor to the observed enthalpic destabilization is due to the differential hydration of protein-ligand binding by D₂O and H₂O.

In addition, the thermal retinal isomerization of bacteriorhodopsin in purple membrane in H₂O and D₂O was also investigated. The enthalpy change in the thermal trans- to -cis isomerization reaction was found to be 24.7 and 20.1 kcal/mol in H₂O and D₂O, respectively, while the Gibbs free energy in D₂O is 0.4–0.7 kcal/mol lower than that in H₂O. Hydrogen bonding was believed to involve in the solvent isotope effect on the isomerization reaction of bacteriorhodopsin.

7.1.1.4 Protein Interaction

Besides, thermodynamic studies were also performed for biotin repressor that forms a homodimer as a prerequisite to DNA binding to repress transcription initiation. Solvent reorganization was found to contribute significantly to the energetics of protein-protein interactions. The effect of replacing H₂O with D₂O on protein dimerization revealed a solvent isotope effect of –1.5 kcal/mol on the Gibbs free energy of dimerization. Such solvent isotope perturbations are consistent with a significant contribution of solvent release to the dimerization reaction.

7.1.1.5 Peptide Stability

Furthermore, in (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀, this collagen-like polypeptide forms a triple-helical structure in H₂O solution with a melting temperature of 24.5 °C, which is increased to 40 °C in D₂O. Thermodynamic analysis showed that these findings are

due to an increase in the enthalpy of unfolding in D_2O verse H_2O . A significant lowering of the potential energy was also found in hydrated polypeptide in D_2O solvent.

7.1.2 Nucleic Acids

Nucleic acids discussed in deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects include RNAase, double-helix (dG-dC)₃, RNA, and DNA.

7.1.2.1 RNAase

Thermal denaturation of RNAase is accompanied by changes in the states of solvated molecules. The hydration of RNAase is greater in D_2O than H_2O medium.

7.1.2.2 RNA Stability

D_2O has been known to stabilize attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation. In D_2O , there is a considerable increase in the stability of the folded basin, which translates into a higher melting temperature in D_2O when compared with H_2O . D_2O strengthens the hydrogen bonding network in the solvent and lengthens inter-residue water-bridge lifetime.

7.1.2.3 Helix-Coil Transition

The helix-to-coil denaturation transition in DNA has also been studied in mixed solvents. The melting transition temperature was found to be 94 °C in 4% mass fraction DNA/deuterated solvent. DNA structural information obtained included the characteristics of inter-distance between hydrogen-containing (deoxyribose sugar-amine base) groups.

7.1.2.4 Double Helix Formation

Thermodynamic studies of double helix formation by (dG-dC)₃ in H_2O and D_2O reported the enthalpies of -56.9 kcal/mol of helix in H_2O and - 62.7 kcal/mol of helix in D_2O .

7.1.3 Lipids

Deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects on lipid bilayer structure and phase transition as described below include dipalmitoyl-, distearoyl-, and dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholines.

7.1.3.1 Bilayer Structure

Studies of bilayer phase transitions in phospholipids (dipalmitoyl-, distearoyl-, and dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholines) showed that the substitution of H₂O by D₂O affects the pretransition temperatures of lipid bilayers. Thermodynamic analysis also revealed that the substitution of H₂O by D₂O causes shrinkage of the molecular area of phospholipid at bilayer interface, due to the difference in bond strength between deuterium and hydrogen bonds.

7.1.3.2 Phase Transition

Investigations of thermotropic transitions of dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions in H₂O and D₂O revealed that the lipid transition temperature between interdigitated gel phase and ripple phase is lower in D₂O than in H₂O, but the transition between the ripple phase and fluid phase in D₂O occurs at a temperature slightly higher than in H₂O.

In contrast, the transition temperature between the gel phase and ripple phase in dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions was found to be higher in D₂O than in H₂O, suggesting that the interdigitated gel phase is more stable in H₂O than in D₂O.

7.1.4 Bacteria

Comparative studies of solvent isotope effects on macromolecular dynamics were also performed in *E. coli* bacteria. The result revealed that the flexibility of *E. coli* bacteria is smaller in D₂O than in H₂O.

In summary, the above-discussed deuterium oxide thermodynamics effects on proteins, nucleic acids, lipids, and bacteria are briefly included in Table 7.1.

7.2 Deuterium Oxide Kinetic Effects

The kinetic isotope effect is a phenomenon associated with isotopically substituted molecules that exhibit different reaction rates when one of the [atoms](#) in the [reactants](#) is replaced by one of its [isotopes](#). Accordingly, the kinetic isotope effect is

Table 7.1 Deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects on biomolecules

Biomolecules	Deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects
<i>E. coli</i> bacteria	Flexibility is smaller in D ₂ O than in H ₂ O
Proteins	
Lactate dehydrogenase	D ₂ O stabilizes the enzyme and inhibits subunit exchange
Drosophila signal transduction	D ₂ O exhibits stabilizing effect
Tubulin	Stabilization of its secondary structure
Bacteriorhodopsin isomerization	Lower Gibbs free energy in D ₂ O than in H ₂ O
Biotin repressor	Lower Gibbs free energy of dimerization in D ₂ O than in H ₂ O
Nucleic acids/peptides	
(Pro-Pro-Gly) ₁₀	Higher melting temperature in D ₂ O
RNAase	Hydration is greater in D ₂ O than in H ₂ O
Viral RNA	D ₂ O stabilizes thermal degradation
Lipids	
Dipalmitoyl-, distearoyl-, and dihexadecyl-phosphatidyl-cholines	D ₂ O causes shrinkage of molecular area of lipid bilayers
Dipalmitoyl-phosphatidyl-choline dispersions	Lower lipid transition temperature between interdigitated gel and ripple phases in D ₂ O than in H ₂ O

represented by the ratio of **rate constants** for the reactions involving the light (k_{light}) and the heavy (k_{heavy}) isotopically substituted reactants as follows:

$$\text{Kinetic isotope effect} = k_{\text{light}} / k_{\text{heavy}} \text{ or } k_{\text{H}} / k_{\text{D}} \quad (7.1)$$

where k_{H} and k_{D} denote rate constants for protium and deuterium reactants.

The issues related to deuterium oxide kinetic effects, including vibrational energies, kinetics effect classification, primary kinetic isotope effects, secondary kinetic isotope effects, and solvent kinetic isotope effects, are addressed below.

7.2.1 Vibrational Energies

Isotope-induced change in reaction rate is a quantum mechanical effect that results from heavier isotope having lower **vibrational** frequencies as compared to its lighter counterpart.

A greater energetic input is needed for heavier isotope to reach the **transition state** and consequently to have a slower reaction rate.

Since deuterium has a greater atomic mass than hydrogen, the lower zero-point energy results in higher activation energy and a slower rate for C-D bond cleavage. Accordingly, cleavage of the carbon-deuterium (C-D) covalent bond requires

greater energy than the carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bond. The ratio of the rate of C-H versus C-D bond-cleavage has been reported to have a theoretical limit of 9 at 37 °C.

7.2.2 *Kinetics Effect Classification*

Studies of kinetics isotope effects are important not only in helping the understanding of reaction kinetics but also providing insight into the molecular basis of the reaction mechanism. The effect of reaction rate influenced by an isotopic exchange of the solvent, such as D₂O, is referred to as solvent kinetic isotope effect. The deuterium kinetic isotope effect is by far the most well-understood type of the kinetic isotope effect.

Generally, kinetic isotope effects can be divided into three categories: (a) primary kinetic isotope effect, (b) secondary kinetic isotope effect, and (c) solvent kinetic isotope effect, which are discussed below.

7.2.3 *Primary Kinetic Isotope Effects*

A primary kinetic isotope effect can be found when a bond to the isotopically labeled atom is being formed or broken. Therefore, a primary kinetic effect is indicative of breaking or forming a bond to the isotope at the rate-limiting step.

Primary kinetic isotope effects are typically measured for reactions where **protium** is exchanged for **deuterium**, where the lighter hydrogen reacts faster than the heavier isotope deuterium, and the energy required to cleavage the carbon-deuterium (C-D) covalent bond is greater than that for the carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bond. Such effects could potentially affect the pharmacokinetics of many drugs that are metabolized by pathways involving C-H bond scission.

7.2.4 *Secondary Kinetic Isotope Effects*

Secondary kinetic isotope effects involve an isotopic atom in which the bond changes during the reaction; however, no bond is broken or formed. The change in the reaction rate is also characterized by the difference in **zero-point energies**, as in the case of a hydrogen being substituted by a deuterium.

Nevertheless, the change caused by secondary kinetic isotope effect can be either normal or inverse. In normal isotope effects, the rate is slower with the heavy isotope, while inverse ones show faster rates with the heavier atom. Studies of secondary isotope effects have been carried out to determine reaction mechanisms and to elucidate the structure of their transition states.

7.2.5 Solvent Kinetic Isotope Effect

The steady-state kinetic parameters k_{cat} and k_{cat}/k_m were found to decrease when the reaction is performed in D_2O . For example, primary deuterium isotope effects as found for the reaction of secondary alcohols with nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (DPN) to give reduced deuterionicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (DPNH) are approximately 1.18. While the secondary isotope effect for the conversion of DPN to DPNH is 0.89.

Moreover, the deuterium solvent kinetic isotope effect (k_H/k_D) of human skin fibroblast collagenase was also studied in native and denatured states. Reaction velocity on collagen in solution was slowed by 15–35% ($k_{\text{light}}/k_{\text{heavy}} = 1.2\text{--}1.5$), as deuterium was substituted for hydrogen in the solvent buffer.

In an extension of the above investigations of reaction kinetics and reaction mechanism, deuterium oxide effects on enzyme-catalyzed reaction were also discussed in cytochrome P450s (CYP450s) catalyze metabolic reactions of many foreign compounds, where C-H bond cleavage is a major feature in these reactions. The presence of a significant primary deuterium kinetic isotope effect appears in many CYP450 reactions, which makes it possible to modulate the *in vivo* metabolism or toxicity of chemicals by deuterium substitution.

Research on deuterium oxide effects on enzymatic reactions can have many implications for biomedical applications, such as the alteration of drug metabolism. Accordingly, D_2O effects on enzyme-catalyzed reactions are further discussed below.

7.3 D_2O Effects on Enzyme-Catalyzed Reactions

Catalytic reactions may refer to a chemical step that is accelerated by lowering an energy barrier. As a catalyst, an enzyme accelerates a chemical reaction without changing the overall thermodynamics. Reaction rates and binding equilibria are sensitive to isotopic substitution, such as hydrogen is substituted by deuterium.

Increased atomic mass alters the bond vibrational environment of reactants. Isotope effects for enzymatic reactions cause a change in rate or equilibrium as a result of an atomic substitution. Primary, secondary, and solvent kinetics isotope effects can be used to elucidate the extent to which a change in binding reaction occurs.

Important parameters in the studies of enzyme-catalyzed reactions are k_m and k_{cat} . K_m refers to the substrate concentration at which the reaction velocity is 50% of its maximal value (V_{max}). While K_{cat} is the turnover number, that is, the number of substrate molecules each enzyme site converts to product per unit time. One way to measure the catalytic efficiency of a given enzyme is to determine the ratio k_{cat}/k_m .

Since k_{cat} describes how many substrate molecules are transformed into products per unit time by an enzyme and k_m describes the affinity of the substrate to the active

site of the enzyme, the ratio of $k_{\text{cat}}/k_{\text{m}}$ allows to determine how effective the enzyme is on a particular substrate. The greater the ratio, the higher the rate of catalysis is. Conversely, the lower the ratio, the slower the catalysis is.

7.3.1 Primary Kinetic Isotope Effects

CYP450s catalyze oxidation reactions of more substrates than any other group of enzymes. Cleavage C-H bond is a major feature of CYP450 catalyzed reactions. The presence of a significant primary deuterium kinetic isotope effect is evident in these reactions, where hydrogen abstraction is at least partially rate-limiting.

Another enzyme involving primary kinetic isotope effect is tryptophan 2,3-dioxygenase, which is a hemoprotein that catalyzes the first step in the oxidative degradation of tryptophan. A primary D₂O isotope effect of 4.4 on $V_{\text{max}}/K_{\text{m}}$ was observed at the optimum pH 7.0. This finding implies that the abstraction of the indole proton is potentially a rate-determining step.

Moreover, the pyruvate dehydrogenase from *Escherichia coli* was also studied in deuterium oxide, which revealed a primary kinetic isotope effect on its overall reaction. The Michaelis constant for pyruvate was nearly unchanged, but the maximum velocity in H₂O and D₂O differed. The proton of the enzyme's carboxylic group exchanges very fast in D₂O solvent.

A number of efforts are in progress to utilize deuterium substitution to alter the metabolism of drugs catalyzed by xenobiotic metabolic enzymes.

7.3.2 Secondary Kinetic Isotope Effects

Secondary deuterium isotope effects have been investigated for butyrylcholinesterase – catalyzed hydrolysis of acetyl-L(3)-thiocholine, where L is hydrogen or deuterium. Kinetic isotope effect on k_{cat} indicates that the Michaelis complex is a tetrahedral intermediate. The rate-limiting step is its decomposition step, which supports a mechanism for substrate-activated turnover of acetylthiocholine by butyrylcholinesterase.

Moreover, depending on the substrate concentration, the value of $k_{\text{cat}}/k_{\text{m}}$ is in the range of 0.95. These findings imply that the transition state for rate-determining decomposition of the tetrahedral intermediate is stabilized by protonic interactions.

7.3.3 Effects on Hydrolysis Reaction

The steady-state kinetics of ATP hydrolysis was examined in the presence or absence of D₂O as a function of temperature. The steady-state kinetic parameters k_{cat} and k_{cat}/k_m revealed that k_{cat}/k_m was independent of temperature in the presence or absence of D₂O. Also, a normal isotope effect was observed in plots of k_{cat} versus temperature in the presence of H₂O and D₂O for ATP hydrolysis, which were increased and then leveled off as temperature increased.

In summary, deuterium oxide kinetics effects on biomolecular reactions are presented in Table 7.2, where D and H denote deuterium and hydrogen, respectively.

7.4 Deuteration Effects on Biochemical Reactions

Deuteration effects on biochemical reactions include thermodynamic and kinetic effects are discussed below. As an example of the effects on the solvation dynamics, deuterated methanol (CH₃OD, CD₃OH, or CD₃OD) was found to exhibit slower solvation dynamics than normal methanol, where deuteration effect on the OH group occurs due to the effects on hydrogen bonding.

7.4.1 Thermodynamic Effects

7.4.1.1 Protein Stability

Using thermostable model systems, such as the villin headpiece subdomain and the binding domain of protein G, the effects of deuteration of non-exchangeable protons on protein global thermal stability, hydrophobicity, and local flexibility were

Table 7.2 Deuterium oxide kinetics isotope effects

Kinetics characters	Deuterium oxide isotope effects
Vibrational energy	Lower vibrational frequency in D ₂ O than H ₂ O
Zero-point potential	Lower zero-point energy for D than H
Energy to reach transition state	Higher activation energy for D than H
Cleavage of bond	Slower rate for C-D bond than C-H bond
Primary kinetic isotope effect	Slower rate constant for C-D bond cleavage than C-H bond
Secondary kinetic isotope effect	Slower kinetic rate for D than H
Solvent kinetic isotope effect	Decreased k_{cat} and k_{cat}/k_m in D ₂ O

k_{cat} is the turnover number (the number of substrate molecule that each enzyme site converts to product per unit time)

k_{cat}/k_m determines the effectiveness of the enzyme (the greater the ratio, the higher the rate of catalysis)

investigated as a function of temperature. The results indicated that deuteration increases motional amplitudes of sub-nanosecond motion in the binding domain of protein G but decreases those in the villin headpiece subdomain.

Moreover, *E. coli* enzyme I(Ntr) is the first protein in the nitrogen phosphotransferase pathway. The effects of substitution of all nonexchangeable protons by deuterium on the properties of I(Ntr) were examined, which revealed that the catalytic function remained unperturbed, but its stability was modulated by deuteration. The deuterated form exhibits a reduction of about 4 °C in thermal stability, where the aromatic residues are particularly sensitive to the effects of deuteration.

In addition, bovine glutamate dehydrogenase requires substrate-induced subunit interactions for maximum catalytic activity. Deuterated glutamate shows a steady-state isotope effect but has little effect on overall stability, whereas norvaline markedly stabilizes the protein.

7.4.1.2 Nucleotide Binding

Investigation of the influence of specific nucleotide binding on the thermal unfolding of ATP synthase from the thermophilic *Bacillus* PS3 revealed an irreversible endothermic transition for ATP synthase in the absence of nucleotides. The thermal denaturation occurs at a transition temperature of 81.7 °C. An exothermic transition due to aggregation processes was also affected by nucleotide binding. Hydrogen/deuterium exchange was clearly affected by specific nucleotide occupancy. Binding induces conformational changes, which shields amide protons to more buried hydrogen-bonded structures.

7.4.1.3 Lipid Transition

Studies with dielaidoylphosphatidyl-ethanolamine (DEPE) or deuterated dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine (DPPC) showed that sphingosine-1-phosphate modifies the gel-fluid transition of the glycerophospholipids, shifting it to lower temperatures and decreasing the transition enthalpy. Low (<10 mol %) concentrations of sphingosine-1-phosphate also have a clear effect on the lamellar-to-inverted hexagonal transition of DEPE by increasing the transition temperature and stabilize the lamellar versus the inverted hexagonal phase.

7.4.2 Kinetic Effects

7.4.2.1 Protein Dynamics

The effects of D₂O on the dynamics of proteins were assessed by buried Trp residues. The results obtained with proteins, including ribonuclease T1, superoxide dismutase, beta-lactoglobulin, liver alcohol dehydrogenase, alkaline phosphatase, and

apo- and Cd-azurin, demonstrated that in most cases D₂O significantly increases the rigidity the native structure. With the exception of alkaline phosphatase, the kinetics of the structure tightening effect of deuteration is rapid compared with the rate of H/D exchange of internal protons. Structure tightening by D₂O is generally amplified at higher temperatures, supporting a hydrophobic nature of the underlying interaction.

7.4.2.2 Enzyme-Lipid Interaction

Cytochrome c oxidase and deuterated lipid palmitoleoyl-phosphatidylcholine were studied by deuterium NMR. These reconstituted particles are of uniform lipid and protein content. However, the spectra clearly show two environments: the less ordered environment and the more restricted environment. The amount of the restricted lipid is temperature dependent, and the rate of exchange of lipid between the free and restricted environments is slower.

Bibliography

- Albergo DD, Marky LA, Breslauer KJ, Turner DH (1981) Thermodynamics of (dG-dC)₃ double-helix formation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 20(6):1409–1413
- Chakrabarti G, Kim S, Gupta ML Jr et al (1999) Stabilization of tubulin by deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 38(10):3067–3072
- Chen CH (2020) *Xenobiotic metabolic enzymes: bioactivation and antioxidant defense*. Springer Nature Press, Cham
- Chiang H-K, Chu L-K (2014) Solvent isotope effect on the dark adaptation of bacteriorhodopsin in purple membrane: viewpoints of kinetics and thermodynamics. *J Phys Chem B* 118(10):2662–2669
- Cioni P, Strambini GB (2002) Effect of heavy water on protein flexibility. *Biophys J* 82(6):3246–3253
- Connelly PR, Thomson JA, Fitzgibbon MJ et al (1993) Probing hydration contributions to the thermodynamics of ligand binding by proteins. Enthalpy and heat capacity changes of tacrolimus and rapamycin binding to FK506 binding protein in D₂O and H₂O. *Biochemistry* 32(21):5583–5590
- Cook PF, Blanchard JS, Cleland WW (1980) Primary and secondary deuterium isotope effects on equilibrium constants for enzyme-catalyzed reactions. *Biochemistry* 19(21):4853–4858
- Cupane A, Vitrano E, San Biago PL et al (1980) Thermal stability of poly(A) and poly(U) complexes in H₂O and D₂O: isotopic effects on critical temperatures and transition widths. *Nucleic Acids Res* 8(18):4283–4303
- Dahlquist FW, Muchmore DC, Davis JH, Bloom M (1977) Deuterium magnetic resonance studies of the interaction of lipids with membrane proteins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 74(12):5435–5439
- Das A, Sinha S, Acharya BR et al (2008) Deuterium oxide stabilizes conformation of tubulin: a biophysical and biochemical study. *BMB Rep* 41(1):62–67
- Eginton C, Beckett D (2013) A large solvent isotope effect on protein association thermodynamics. *Biochemistry* 52(38):6595–6600
- Gough CA, Bhatnagar RS (1999) Differential stability of the triple helix of (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ in H₂O and D₂O: thermodynamic and structural explanations. *J Biomol Struct Dyn* 17(3):481–491

- Guengerich FP (2017a) Kinetic deuterium isotope effects in cytochrome P450 reactions. *Methods Enzymol* 596:217–238
- Guengerich FP (2017b) Chapter nine – kinetic deuterium isotope effects in cytochrome P450 reactions. *Methods Enzymol* 596:217–238
- Hammouda B, Worcester D (2006) The denaturation transition of DNA in mixed solvents. *Biophys J* 91(6):2237–2242
- Henderson RF, Henderson TR, Woodfin BM (1970) Effects of D₂O on the association-dissociation equilibrium in subunit proteins. *J Biol Chem* 245:3733–3737
- Itoh TJ, Sato H (1984) The effects of deuterium oxide (2H₂O) on the polymerization of tubulin in vitro. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 800(1):21–27
- Itzhaki LS, Evans PA (1996) Solvent isotope effects on the refolding kinetics of hen egg-white lysozyme. *Protein Sci* 5(1):140–146
- Jasnin M, Tehei M, Moulin M et al (2008) Solvent isotope effect on macromolecular dynamics in *E. coli*. *Eur Biophys J* 37(5):613–617
- Jeffrey JJ, Welgus HG, Burgeson RE, Eisen AZ (1983) Studies on the activation energy and deuterium isotope effect of human skin collagenase on homologous collagen substrates. *J Biol Chem* 258(18):11123–11127
- Katsir Y, Shapira Y, Mastai Y et al (2010) Entropic effects and slow kinetics revealed in titrations of D₂O-H₂O solutions with different D/H ratios. *J Phys Chem B* 114(17):5755–5763
- Leeds JM, Brown PJ, McGeehan GM (1993) Isotope effects and alternative substrate reactivities for tryptophan 2,3-dioxygenase. *J Biol Chem* 268(24):17781–17786
- Liu X, Bisswanger H (2003) Solvent isotope effect on the reaction catalyzed by the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex from *Escherichia coli*. *Biol Chem* 384(4):673–679
- Makhatadze GI, Clore GM, Gronenborn AM (1995) Solvent isotope effect and protein stability. *Nat Struct Biol* 2:852–855
- Masson P, Laurentie M (1988) Stability of butyrylcholinesterase: thermal inactivation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 957(1):111–121
- Matsson O, Westaway KC (1999) Secondary deuterium kinetic isotope effects and transition state structure. *Adv Phys Org Chem* 31:143–248
- Matsuki H, Okuno H, Sakano F et al (2005) Effect of deuterium oxide on the thermodynamic quantities associated with phase transitions of phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1712(1):92–100
- Mrevlishvili GM, Lobyshev V, Dzhaparidze GS et al (1980) Ribonuclease hydration and its heat stability in solutions of H₂O and D₂O. *Biofizika* 25(1):44–53
- Nichols PJ, Falconer I, Griffin A et al (2020) Deuteration of nonexchangeable protons on proteins affects their thermal stability, side-chain dynamics, and hydrophobicity. *Protein Sci* 29(7):1641–1654
- Ohki K (1991) Effect of substitution of hydrogen oxide by deuterium oxide on thermotropic transition between the interdigitated gel phase and the ripple phase of dihexadecylphosphatidylcholine. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 174(1):102–106
- Pathak AK, Bandyopadhyay T (2017) Water isotope effect on the thermostability of a polio viral RNA hairpin: a metadynamics study. *J Chem Phys* 146(16):165104
- Piszczek G, Lee JC, Tjandra N et al (2011) Deuteration of *Escherichia coli* enzyme I(Ntr) alters its stability. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 507(2):332–342
- Schramm VL (2007) Binding isotope effects: boon and bane. *Curr Opin Chem Biol* 11(5):529–536
- Shirota H, Pal H, Tominaga K et al (1996) Deuterium isotope effect on the solvation dynamics of methanol: CH₃OH, CH₃OD, CD₃OH and CD₃OD. *J Phys Chem* 100(35):14575–14577
- Stadtmiller SS, Pielak GJ (2018) Enthalpic stabilization of an SH3 domain by D₂O. *Protein Sci* 27(9):1710–1716
- Tormos JR, Wiley KL, Wang Y et al (2010) Accumulation of tetrahedral intermediates in cholinesterase catalysis: a secondary isotope effect study. *J Am Chem Soc* 132(50):17751–17759
- Urbauer JL, Dorgan LJ, Schuster SM (1984) Effects of deuterium on the kinetics of beef heart mitochondrial ATPase. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 231(2):498–502

- Villaverde J, Cladera J, Padros E et al (1997) Effect of nucleotides on the thermal stability and on the deuteration kinetics of the thermophilic F₀F₁ ATP synthase. *Eur J Biochem* 244(2):441–448
- Wacker SA, Bradley MJ, Marion J, Bell E (2010) Ligand-induced changes in the conformational stability and flexibility of glutamate dehydrogenase and their role in catalysis and regulation. *Protein Sci* 19(10):1820–1829
- Wiley KL, Tormos JR, Quinn DM (2010) A secondary isotope effect study of equine serum butyrylcholinesterase-catalyzed hydrolysis of acetylthiocholine. *Chem Biol Interact* 187(1–3):124–127

Chapter 8

Physical Methods for Investigating D₂O and Deuteration Effects



Substitution of D₂O for H₂O has been shown to affect the structural and dynamic properties of biomolecules. Physical methods that are applied to study deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on the structure and function of biomolecules include nuclear magnetic resonance, infrared, ultraviolet and visible, and fluorescence spectroscopies, as well as other physical methods including neutron scattering, differential scanning calorimetry, circular dichroism, and molecular dynamic stimulation.

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), a powerful tool for studying the physical characteristics of biomolecules, has been applied to determine how the atoms in a molecule are interconnected. When the radio frequency energy that detects the nuclei is removed, the nuclei relax back to their original state and emit an electromagnetic pulse, which is transformed into NMR spectrum. Deuterium NMR has a simple resolution than hydrogen NMR. Therefore, it is feasible to investigate deuterium solvent isotope and deuteration effects on biomolecules.

Infrared spectroscopy can also provide information concerning biomolecular structures, such as infrared bands corresponding to vibration in polypeptide backbone that are sensitive to the conformation. Moreover, a common use of the spectroscopic technique employs the ultraviolet region of the spectrum, where proteins and nucleic acids absorb strongly, such as the absorption of aromatic side chains of phenylalanine, tyrosine, and tryptophan in the region of 270–290 nm.

In fluorescence spectroscopy, after being raised to an excited state by absorption of radiant energy, the molecule returns to the ground state, where the molecule loses part of its energy of excitation, but reradiates a large part of energy which gives rise to the fluorescence. While circular dichroism, another important spectroscopic technique, involves the use of polarized light. When asymmetric biomolecules absorb light, they exhibit a preference for the absorption of left or right circularly polarized light. A right circularly polarized beam interacts differently than a left circular polarized beam, leading to a difference in circular dichroism absorption.

Besides, neutron scattering is also a powerful technique for determining the structure and dynamics of biomolecules in a variety of environmental conditions.

Table 8.1 Physical methods for studying deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biomolecules

<i>Methods for studying D₂O effects</i>
Spectroscopies
Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy
Infrared spectroscopy
Fluorescence spectroscopy
Ultraviolet spectroscopy
Other physical methods
Differential scanning calorimetry
Circular dichroism
Molecular dynamic simulation
<i>Methods for investigating deuteration effects</i>
Spectroscopies
Deuterium nuclear magnetic resonance
Infrared spectroscopy
Other physical methods
Neutron scattering
Differential scanning calorimetry

Deuteration of biomolecules has a major impact on both quality and scope of neutron scattering experiments. Moreover, differential scanning calorimetric experiments have been performed to investigate thermal properties of biological compounds and their structural stabilities.

In theoretical study, molecular simulation provides useful information from microscopic view for understanding the properties of biomolecules. This technique concerns physical interactions and are performed on computers. Accuracy of force field parameters and simulation time scale are essential to biomolecular dynamic simulation.

The above physical methods for studying deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biomolecules are summarized in Table 8.1.

8.1 Techniques for Studying Deuterium Oxide Effects

The applications of spectroscopic methods in studying deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biomolecules, including nuclear magnetic resonance; infrared, ultraviolet and visible, and fluorescence spectroscopies; neutron scattering; and differential scanning calorimetry, are described below.

8.1.1 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy

Proton NMR spectra of biological molecules are generally dominated by strong proton-proton and proton-carbon dipolar interactions. As a result, the spectra contain a large number of overlapping resonances that are difficult to analyze. To ensure that the solvent does not interfere with the NMR spectrum of the sample, D₂O solvent has been widely used for NMR spectroscopy to null the signal interference from the solvent. Besides, deuterium NMR and proton NMR require different operating frequencies at a given magnetic field strength. Consequently, deuterium NMR absorptions are not detected under the conditions used for proton NMR.

Deuterium NMR investigations of membrane surface charge of the glycerol headgroup of dimyristoyl-phosphatidylglycerol showed the characteristics of random dispersions of liquid-crystalline lipids in a bilayer configuration. In membrane proteins, technical challenges are present for structural studies due to their requirement for lipid environment. NMR offers the potential of determining the structures of membrane proteins in their native environment of phospholipid bilayers under physiological conditions, where NMR enables to characterize the structure and dynamics of backbone and side chain of proteins alone or in complexes with other biopolymers.

Examples of the applications of NMR spectroscopy to investigate protein, nucleic acid, lipid, and membrane are presented as follows.

8.1.1.1 Lipid-Protein Complex

Deuterium magnetic resonance spectra of lipid-protein complex, containing cytochrome c oxidase isolated from beef heart mitochondria and the deuterated lipid palmitoleoyl-phosphatidylcholine, revealed two environments characterized by distinctly different order parameters. The less ordered environment shows a splitting similar to that of the pure lipid alone at a given temperature. While the more restricted environment appears to be induced by the presence of the protein.

8.1.1.2 Nucleic Acid

To provide information regarding the conformational flexibility of nucleic acids, deuterium NMR was carried out to study single-stranded and double-stranded polynucleotides with deuteration at the 8-position of the base in solution. Hydration to the extent of eight molecules of water per nucleotide results in the disappearance of the deuterium signal, which suggests that polynucleotides are hydrated to a degree of approximately eight molecules of water per base pair.

8.1.1.3 Lipid

Using selectively deuterated samples, the order parameters for the methylene and methyl segments of phospholipid dispersions have also been investigated with deuterium NMR. Acyl chain segmental order parameters were determined for perdeuteriostearic acid intercalated as a molecular probe in the lamellar liquid crystalline phase of phosphatidylcholine-cholesterol-water mixtures. The deuterium NMR data also showed that cholesterol induces a high degree of order in the acyl chains of the phospholipid, while maintaining the general profile of high order near the head group as well as relatively low order in the middle of the bilayer.

Moreover, the effects of anesthetics (1-octanol and 1-decanol) on deuterated palmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine aqueous dispersions have been studied by deuterium NMR. 1-Octanol and 1-decanol were found to depress and broaden the main lipid transition. However, 1-alkanol had no significant effect on the profile of the carbon-deuterium bond order parameter.

The effects of alpha-tocopherol (vitamin E) on aqueous multilamellar dispersions of sn-2-substituted palmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine have also been investigated by deuterium NMR. The main gel to liquid-crystalline phase transition was found to be progressively broadened. Its onset temperature is lowered by increasing concentrations of alpha-tocopherol.

Deuterium NMR was also applied to map the phase boundaries of mixtures of cholesterol and perdeuterated 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine. Three distinct phases were identified, the liquid-crystalline phase, the gel phase, and the beta phase (a high cholesterol phase), where the liquid-crystalline phase is characterized by highly flexible phospholipid chains, the gel phase has much more rigid lipid chains, and the beta phase is characterized by highly ordered chains and symmetric reorientation.

8.1.1.4 Membrane

Deuterium magnetic resonance of membranous systems differs from conventional proton NMR. Some hydrogen atoms in a membrane molecule are replaced by deuterium, which consists of a few resonances. Due to the smaller magnetic moment of the deuteron, the dipolar couplings are much reduced compared to the corresponding proton spectra.

The effect of ergosterol, an important component of fungal plasma membranes, on the physical properties of dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayers was also studied by deuterium NMR, where the sn-1 chain of lipid was deuterated. The phase diagram exhibits ordered plus disordered lipid regions, which demonstrates that liquid-ordered domains present in liquid crystalline membranes contain ergosterol.

8.1.2 Infrared (IR) Spectroscopy

Examples of the applications of IR spectroscopy to investigate body water, peptide, polysaccharide, lipid, and membrane are described below.

8.1.2.1 Body Water

An IR spectroscopy using tracer doses of D_2O for determining the total body water was reported. The practical advantages of this method are a simple analysis that permits repeated measurements over brief periods. Such administration of smaller oral D_2O doses (5–6 g) can provide reliable total body water values without an undue buildup of background deuterium levels in the body.

8.1.2.2 Peptide

The conformational characteristics of the Gly-l-Ala-methyl amide dipeptide in D_2O solution were also investigated by infrared spectroscopy to determine the mutual orientation of the two $C=O$ bonds and the dynamics due to solute-solvent interactions. The interconversion between the different conformations occurs on time scales longer than the vibrational lifetime. Such observation in spectra is attributed to the solvent dynamics.

8.1.2.3 Polysaccharide

Infrared spectra in the carbonyl region have been obtained for aqueous solutions of glycosaminoglycans. In D_2O solution, the uronic carboxylate and acetamido groups absorb at characteristic frequencies. In acidic solution, the amide bands remain substantially unmodified, whereas those of the carboxylate anion disappear and are replaced by a single band due to the undissociated carboxyl. Infrared data for the uronic acid and 2-acetamido-2-deoxyhexose content of glycosaminoglycans are in reasonable agreement with those expected from the established structures.

8.1.2.4 Lipid

Aqueous dispersions of cholesterol-containing phosphatidyl-ethanolamine bilayers were also examined by infrared spectroscopy, which revealed that the thermotropic events observed with mixtures of low cholesterol content are analogous to the gel to liquid-crystalline phase transitions exhibited by the pure phosphatidyl-ethanolamine. Low levels of cholesterol in lipid bilayers cause progressive reductions in the temperature, enthalpy, and overall cooperativity of the lipid hydrocarbon chain-melting phase transition.

8.1.2.5 Membrane

Infrared spectroscopy, deuterium NMR and calorimetry were employed to investigate the effect of ethanol on a model membrane composed of lipids mixed with N-palmitoyl-sphingosine, palmitic acid, and cholesterol. Ethanol was found to influence the membrane in a dose-dependent manner by disrupting packing and increasing lipid motion.

8.1.3 Fluorescence Spectroscopy

Examples of the applications of fluorescence spectroscopy to study protein, peptide, lipid, and vaccine are presented as follows.

8.1.3.1 Protein

Fluorescence spectroscopic studies of tubulin were aimed to elucidate the mechanism of stabilization of the protein by deuterium oxide. The rate of decrease of tryptophan fluorescence during aging of tubulin at 4 and 37 °C was significantly lower in D₂O than in H₂O. As temperature increases, the rate of decrease of fluorescence at 335 nm and the change of circular dichroism at 222 nm were lesser in D₂O.

8.1.3.2 Peptide

The lower critical solution temperature was investigated as a function of the chain length of elastin-like polypeptides in both D₂O and H₂O. Differences in the lower critical solution temperature values with D₂O and H₂O were correlated with secondary structure formation of the polypeptide chains.

8.1.3.3 Lipid

Fluorescence spectroscopy has also been applied to investigate phospholipid bilayers hydrated with D₂O. Different biophysical properties were compared with hydration by H₂O on 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine and 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine membranes. D₂O solvent isotope effects on headgroup hydration and mobility, lateral lipid diffusion, and lipid backbone packing were also examined. Time-dependent fluorescence shift experiments showed significantly slower dynamics and lower hydration of the headgroup region for a bilayer hydrated with D₂O.

8.1.3.4 Vaccine

The mechanisms underlying the thermal stabilization of poliovirus by D₂O were investigated by fluorescence spectroscopy. Three serotypes of Sabin oral poliovirus vaccine strains were examined by fluorescence steady-state polarization, which revealed that the conformation of poliovirus capsid is sensitive to D₂O medium. The rigidity of poliovirus conformation is increased in D₂O, indicating that the exposure of poliovirus tryptophan residues to water is modified by D₂O. The involvement of hydrogen bonding in the D₂O solvent effect was also demonstrated by the greatly increased value of relative fluorescence intensity.

8.1.4 Ultraviolet (UV) Spectroscopy

Examples of the applications of UV spectroscopy to investigate protein and peptide are described below.

8.1.4.1 Protein

The absorption spectra of proteins are characterized by two absorptions in the ultraviolet region, one at 2800 Å and the other near 2000 Å. The former has been ascribed to the phenol, indole, and phenyl groups of tyrosine, tryptophan, and phenylalanine. The latter may be attributed to peptide bonds. In addition to the well-known absorption bands due to aromatic amino acid residues, several proteins exhibited a new absorption band at about 2650 Å when dissolved in D₂O. This additional band was also found in D₂O solution of clupein, a protein containing no aromatic amino acid residue. This 2650 Å band was also found in D₂O solutions of six of ten amino acid examined.

8.1.4.2 Peptide

A time-dependent change in the UV absorbance at 285 nm of the phenol ring of tyrosine has been observed when tyrosine was transferred from H₂O to D₂O medium to determine the rate constant of the hydrogen-deuterium exchange reaction of the tyrosine OH group. The visible-ultraviolet spectra of 13 anilines have also been measured in H₂O and D₂O. Spectra shifts of 180 cm⁻¹ for primary aniline and 40 cm⁻¹ for tertiary aniline are attributed to differences in solvation by specific hydrogen bonding at the amino group.

Other methods applied to investigate deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on biomolecules, including differential scanning calorimetry, molecular dynamic simulation, and circular dichroism, are also discussed.

8.1.5 *Differential Scanning Calorimetry*

Examples of the applications of differential scanning calorimetry to study protein, peptide, nucleic acid, lipid, and virus are presented below.

8.1.5.1 Protein

Differential scanning calorimetric experiments have been applied to study the structures and conformations of proteins and peptides. Studies of tubulin showed that the temperature of tubulin unfolding is 58.6 and 62.17 °C in D₂O and 55.4 and 59.35 °C in H₂O, respectively. The results implied that D₂O stabilizes thermal unfolding of tubulin.

The influence of D₂O solvent substitution of H₂O on the structural stability of globular proteins was also determined by differential scanning calorimetry. Two types of globular proteins: lysozyme with relatively strong internal cohesion (hard globular protein) and bovine serum albumin with conformational adaptability (soft globular protein) were analyzed thermodynamically. Both proteins tend to be more stable in D₂O compared to H₂O. Such increase in protein stability was attributed to D₂O being a poorer solvent for nonpolar amino acids than H₂O, which implies that the hydrophobic effect is larger in D₂O.

The conformational stability of beta-lactoglobulin is enhanced in D₂O over that in H₂O, as shown by an increase in peak temperature by calorimetric thermogram. However, the effects of pH and salt concentration on the heat-induced aggregation are similar in H₂O and D₂O, suggesting that the mechanism of heat-induced aggregation of beta-lactoglobulin is not significantly affected by the replacement of H₂O with D₂O.

8.1.5.2 Peptide

The thermal melting of a dicyclic 29-residue peptide that has helix-stabilizing side-chain to side-chain covalent links at each terminal was also investigated by differential scanning calorimetry to allow an analysis of the thermodynamics of helix formation. The helix unfolding was found to proceed with a small positive heat capacity increment, consistent with the solvation of nonpolar groups upon helix unfolding. These results suggested that hydrogen bonds are not the only factors responsible for the formation of the alpha helix. Hydrophobic interactions are also believed to play a role in its stabilization.

Thermodynamic data obtained by differential scanning calorimetry also revealed that there is a larger change in the lower critical solution temperature between H₂O and D₂O for elastin-like polypeptides, which is attributed to forming a larger amount of beta-turn or aggregate structure. Hydrogen bonding rather than hydrophobicity

was believed to be the key factor in the stabilization of the collapsed state of elastin-like peptides in D_2O compared with H_2O .

Moreover, the thermal retinal isomerization of bacteriorhodopsin in the purple membrane was also investigated in H_2O and D_2O . The changes in enthalpy from the initial state to the transition state were determined to be 24.7 and 20.1 kcal/mol in H_2O and D_2O , respectively. The Gibbs free energy of trans to cis thermal isomerization reaction in D_2O is 0.4–0.7 kcal/mol lower than that in H_2O . These deuterium solvent isotope effects imply that the hydrogen bonding in the transition state of bacteriorhodopsin is stronger than that in the initial state.

8.1.5.3 Nucleic Acid

In the studies of nucleic acids, the thermodynamics of double-helix formation by (dG-dC)₃ were measured in H_2O and D_2O . The averages of the enthalpies measured by spectroscopy are -56.9 and -62.7 kcal/mol of helix in H_2O and D_2O , respectively, as compared to calorimetric values of -59.6 and -65.8 kcal/mol of helix, which shows that spectrophotometric values are in good agreement with calorimetric results.

8.1.5.4 Lipid

Differential scanning calorimetry has also been applied to study lipid bilayers. In the liquid-crystalline state of lipid bilayers, cyclosporin A causes an increase in the order parameters along the acyl chains. This finding suggested that cyclosporin A is located along the acyl chains of the phospholipid. Small decreases in the main transition temperature and associated enthalpy were observed in the presence of cyclosporin A.

Thermodynamic studies of deuterated phospholipids in H_2O were also conducted using deuterated lipid bilayer vesicles prepared from aqueous dispersions of 1,2-dimyristoyl-d54-, 1,2-dipalmitoyl-d62-, and 1,2-distearoyl-d70-phosphatidylcholines. The effects of deuterium solvent and deuterium alkyl-chain substitution on deuterated phospholipids include the temperature, the thermodynamic parameters, and the cooperative melting unit of the main lipid phase transition from the gel to the liquid-crystalline phase. Examinations of interactions in deuterated compounds revealed that the deuterium solvent effect increases the structural stability of deuterated lipid vesicles, due to an enhancement of hydrophobic interaction in D_2O .

Moreover, thermotropic transitions of dihexadecyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions in H_2O and D_2O were also investigated by differential scanning calorimetry. The transition temperature between interdigitated gel phase and ripple phase is lower in D_2O than in H_2O . While the transition between the ripple phase and fluid phase in D_2O occurs at a temperature slightly higher than in H_2O . On the other hand, in dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine dispersions, transition temperature between

lamellar gel phase and ripple phase is higher in D₂O than in H₂O. These results suggested that the interdigitated gel phase is more stable in H₂O than in D₂O.

The incorporation of low levels of cholesterol into phosphatidyl ethanolamine bilayers causes progressive reductions in the temperature, enthalpy, and overall cooperativity of the lipid phase transition. These differences in the effects of cholesterol on phospholipid thermotropic phase behavior are attributed to stronger electrostatic and hydrogen-bonding interactions at the surfaces of phosphatidyl ethanolamine bilayers.

8.1.5.5 Virus

Among a few calorimetric studies of virus, D₂O was found to reduce the interaction of the virus with water, leading to a decline in the extent of water penetration into the poliovirus capsid. Maintaining the assembly and conformation of the virus and reducing the swelling of the virus capsid were found to be key factors in increasing the thermostability of poliovirus.

8.1.6 Circular Dichroism

Examples of the applications of circular dichroism to study protein, peptide, and nucleic are discussed below.

8.1.6.1 Protein and Peptide

Circular dichroism spectra were applied to elucidate the mechanism of stabilization of tubulin by deuterium oxide, which suggested a stabilization of protein secondary structure in D₂O. The number of cysteines was decreased to a lesser extent in D₂O than in H₂O.

Studies of the thermal melting of a dicyclic 29-residue peptide, with helix-stabilizing side-chain to side-chain covalent links at each terminal, revealed that alpha-helical undergoes a reversible transition from the folded to the disordered state with increasing temperature. The temperature dependency of the ellipticity at 222 nm is well fit by a two-state model, indicating a cooperative melting transition from -10 to 100 °C.

Comparisons of the structural and dynamic features of polyglutamic acid and polylysine molecules were also carried out in H₂O and D₂O. Distinctive differences in structure and transition energies between the enantiomeric polypeptides were detected in H₂O. But these differences were abolished in D₂O, suggesting that such deviation is induced in part by different hydration in H₂O and D₂O.

8.1.6.2 Nucleic Acid

Circular dichroism is also sensitive to the conformational states of nucleic acids. It has been applied to study various features of nucleic acid structures, such as structural arrangements and stabilization as well as transitions between structural states. Circular dichroism spectra of tri-alanine as measured in D_2O and H_2O showed a somewhat disordered flat beta-strand conformation. A thermodynamic analysis revealed that enthalpic contributions of about 11 and 17 kJ/mol stabilize polyproline in D_2O and H_2O , respectively. Such isotope effect of a higher occupation of polyproline in H_2O with respect to D_2O strongly suggests that the hydrogen-bonding network involving the peptide and water molecules in the hydration shell plays a major role in stabilizing this conformation.

8.1.7 Molecular Dynamic Stimulation

Although the molecular dynamic simulation method has been actively applied to investigate chemical systems, its applications to study biomolecules in deuterium oxide are still lacking. However, in the case of lipid, molecular dynamic simulation was carried out to examine the effects of substituting D_2O for H_2O on the properties of dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer.

The results revealed that the membrane core and the membrane-water interface are affected by replacing H_2O with D_2O . Nevertheless, membrane compactness, acyl chain order, and numbers of lipid-water bonds are much less affected. Moreover, the lifetimes of such interactions are much longer in D_2O than in H_2O , implying a slightly better ordering in D_2O compared with the H_2O . Such deuterium isotope effects have been assigned to the actions of the longer life of deuterium bonding to headgroups of the dipalmitoyl-phosphatidylcholine bilayer.

8.2 Physical Methods for Studying Deuteration Effects

Probing biomolecules using deuteration in which hydrogen atoms are replaced by deuterium is useful in a wide range of biophysical techniques. Selectively deuterated versions of biomolecules have many applications, especially in studying the structure and dynamics of biomolecules. Deuterium NMR and neutron scattering are particularly useful when parts of the biomolecular structure are deuterated. Besides, infrared spectroscopy was also applied to determine biomolecular structures at different stages of hydrogen/deuterium exchange. Investigations of biomolecules by these physical methods are briefly discussed below.

8.2.1 Neutron Scattering

A characteristic property of the neutron is its sensitivity to detecting hydrogen and distinguishing it from its isotope deuterium. Neutron scattering is a powerful technique for determining the structure and dynamics of biomolecules in a variety of environmental conditions. Deuteration of biomolecules has a major impact on both quality and scope of neutron scattering experiments.

Neutron scattering was applied to investigate the structural characteristics of protein, lipid, and membrane, which are extracted from cells grown in standard and deuterated culture media. The distinctive molecular composition of deuterated and protiated extracts can induce different structural organization of their isolated biomolecules.

8.2.1.1 Peptide and Protein

Neutron diffraction measurements of fully deuterated C-phycoyanin have been carried out to determine the average coherent structure factors and the corresponding radial distribution functions of this protein. The changes in distribution functions observed in hydrated samples depend strongly on the level of hydration and most of these changes are due to water-protein interactions.

Studies of halobacterium halobium, in which all valines or phenylalanines are present in deuterated form, showed that valine is distributed toward the periphery of a single bacteriorhodopsin molecule, while phenylalanine is distributed toward its center. These findings lead to the conclusion that the charged and polar groups of the bacteriorhodopsin molecule tend to lie at the molecular interior, away from contact with lipid. On the other hand, the nonpolar surfaces are directed outward, making contact with the lipid regions.

To study cytochrome b5 reconstituted into small lipid vesicles made of a highly deuterated phospholipid, small-angle neutron diffraction patterns were collected in a H₂O-D₂O mixture from vesicles consisting of lipid and cytochrome b5. The results revealed that the protein penetrates the lipid bilayer, where the hydrophobic domain is distributed across it.

8.2.1.2 Lipid

Cholesterol is a major component of mammalian cells, where it plays a critical role in membrane permeability, rigidity, and dynamics. Neutron scattering studies of perdeuterated cholesterol provide a unique way of probing the structural and dynamical properties of the lipoprotein complexes.

In characterization of the effect of ergosterol on lipid multilayers, deuterated phospholipids were extracted from the yeast *Pichia pastoris*. The effect of ergosterol on membranes showed that, in contrast to cholesterol in synthetic phospholipid membranes, the presence of ergosterol up to 30 mol % in yeast phospholipid membranes only slightly alters the multilayer structure.

Moreover, the structural arrangement of cholesteryl esters in human plasma low-density lipoproteins has also been studied by selective deuteration. Low-density lipoproteins were labeled by in vitro exchange with two different kinds of deuterated cholesteryl esters, one labeled in the fatty acyl chain and the other in the branched side chain of cholesterol. Neutron scattering data from deuterated and protonated low-density lipoproteins were compared to identify the locations of the fatty acyl and cholesterol side-chain moieties. The results revealed that the cholesteryl nuclei are situated more distantly from the center than the fatty acyl chains.

8.2.2 Deuterium Nuclear Magnetic Resonance

Hydrogen, deuterium, and tritium are three isotopes of hydrogen that are used in NMR spectroscopy, where each isotope resonates at different frequency ranges. Since the spectrometer transmits and receives over a limited frequency range, only one isotope is observed at a time. Deuterium magnetic resonance spectroscopy is a noninvasive technique that allows the detection of deuterated biomolecules, including protein, lipid, and carbohydrate as described below.

8.2.2.1 Protein

Deuterium solvent isotope effects have been observed on the kinetics of lysozyme. The rates of distinct phases of enzyme folding were changed in D₂O compared with H₂O, while the rates were essentially independent of whether backbone amide nitrogens were protiated or deuterated. The isotope effect on the rate-determining step was found to be qualitatively reversed at low pH, where changes in environments disappear as carboxylate groups are protonated.

Site-directed deuterium NMR spectroscopy was used to investigate the structure of the retinal within the binding pocket of bovine rhodopsin. The conformation of retinal bound to the G protein-coupled receptor rhodopsin is linked to its photochemistry, which initiates the visual process.

Deuterium NMR has been applied to investigate the effects on deuterated dimyristoyl phosphatidylcholine bilayers in the presence of proteins, including myelin proteolipid apoprotein, cytochrome b, and cytochrome c oxidase. The results revealed that the transition temperature of lipid bilayers between the gel and liquid crystal phases is reduced in the presence of these proteins, while lipid hydrocarbon chains are prevented from crystallizing by the protein incorporated in the membrane.

In addition, using membranes reconstituted with specifically deuterated dimyristoyl-phosphatidylcholines, the influence of myelin proteolipid apoprotein on the order and dynamics of lipid chain was also studied by deuterium NMR. In the lipid fluid phase, the protein was found to exhibit little influence on either the chain order or the population of gauche rotational isomers but strongly retard the chain dynamics.

8.2.2.2 Lipid

Selectively deuterated N-palmitoyl sphingomyelins were investigated by deuterium NMR to elucidate the backbone conformation and the interaction of the sphingolipids with glycerophospholipids. Selective deuteration at the acyl chain carbons was performed. Profiles of C-D bond order parameters were derived for sphingomyelin and sphingomyelin-phosphatidylcholine mixtures. In the liquid-crystalline state, the N-acyl chain of sphingomyelin alone showed significantly more configurational order than the chains of homologous di-saturated or monounsaturated phosphatidylcholines.

Moreover, the dynamic molecular lipid chain conformations in fully hydrated dimyristoyl phosphatidylcholine-dimyristoyl glycerol mixtures were also investigated by deuterium NMR spectroscopy using mixtures of lipid compositions. The gel phase was found to exhibit a lamellar structure with the lipid chains rotating about the molecular long axis. In the fluid lamellar phase of myristoyl phosphatidylcholine-dimyristoyl glycerol mixture, the profile of segmental chain flexibility is similar to that in single-component phospholipid bilayers.

8.2.2.3 Cellulose

In vivo generated deuterated bacterial cellulose cultivated from deuterated glycerol in D₂O medium was analyzed by NMR spectroscopy for deuterium incorporation. Near equal deuteration at sites of the glucopyranosyl ring was found. Despite a high level of deuterium incorporation, no significant differences in the molecular and morphological properties were observed for the deuterated and protiated bacterial celluloses.

8.2.3 Infrared Spectroscopy

Examples of the applications of infrared spectroscopy to investigate protein, peptide, and nucleotide are discussed below.

8.2.3.1 Protein

FTIR spectroscopy was employed to determine secondary structures of proteins at different stages of hydrogen/deuterium exchange process. The results consistently indicate an improvement of secondary structure predictions for the α -helix, while the β -sheet fraction is better predicted in non-deuterated conditions.

8.2.3.2 Lipid

FTIR spectroscopy is also a powerful and convenient technique for studying the structure and organization of membrane lipids in their various polymorphic phases. This spectroscopic technique yields information about the conformation and dynamics of all regions of the lipid molecule, simultaneously without the necessity of introducing extrinsic probes. FTIR was also used to study the thermotropic phase behavior of binary lipid mixtures composed of deuterated phospholipids and lipopolysaccharides.

Studies of the thermotropic behavior of hydrated multibilayers of deuterated 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine revealed no significant conformational disorder introduced into the acyl chains in the lipid gel phase. However, the pretransition effect is large in the central segments of the acyl chains, which demonstrates that the interchain interactions are more pronounced in this region than in the center of the bilayer.

Furthermore, investigation of mixtures of cholesterol with dimyristoyl phosphatidylserine or its deuterated lipid demonstrated that the orientation of deuterated methylene symmetric and asymmetric bands of the deuterated lipid is little influenced by cholesterol. In the polar region of the lipid, no effect of cholesterol on the dichroic ratios of carbonyl and phosphate vibrations was detected.

8.2.3.3 Nucleotide

The influence of specific nucleotide binding on the thermal unfolding of ATP synthase from the thermophilic *Bacillus* was characterized by FTIR spectroscopy, which showed that hydrogen/deuterium exchange was affected by specific nucleotide occupancy.

Bibliography

- Albergo DD, Marky LA, Breslauer KJ (1981) Thermodynamics of (dG--dC)₃ double-helix formation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochemistry* 20(6):1409–1413
- Beaven GH, Bailey E (1961) Ultra-violet absorption spectra of proteins in deuterium oxide. *Nature* 191:914–915
- Bendel P, Murphy-Boesch J, James TL (1983) Deuterium NMR in the solid-state and in solution of the molecular motion of the bases in poly(I) and poly(I). poly(C). *Biochim Biophys Acta* 759(3):205–213
- Beranova L, Humpolíckova J, Sykora J et al (2012) Effect of heavy water on phospholipid membranes: experimental confirmation of molecular dynamics simulations. *Phys Chem Chem Phys* 14(42):14516–14522
- Candelaresi M, Ragnoni E, Cappelli C et al (2013) Conformational analysis of Gly-ala-NHMe in D(2)O and DMSO solutions: a two-dimensional infrared spectroscopy study. *J Phys Chem B* 117(46):14226–14237

- Casu B, Scovenna G, Cifonelli AJ et al (1978) Infrared spectra of glycosaminoglycans in deuterium oxide and deuterium chloride solution: quantitative evaluation of uronic acid and acetamidoxyhexose moieties. *Carbohydr Res* 63:13–27
- Chen CH, Wu R, Roth LG et al (1997) Elucidating mechanisms of thermostabilization of poliovirus by D₂O and MgCl₂. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 342(1):108–116
- Chiang HK, Chu LK (2014) Solvent isotope effect on the dark adaptation of bacteriorhodopsin in purple membrane: viewpoints of kinetics and thermodynamics. *J Phys Chem B* 118(10):2662–2669
- Cho Y, Sagle LB, Iimura S et al (2009) Hydrogen bonding of beta-turn structure is stabilized in D(2)O. *J Am Chem Soc* 131(42):15188–15193
- Dahlquist FW, Muchmore DC, Davis JH et al (1977) Deuterium magnetic resonance studies of the interaction of lipids with membrane proteins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 74(12):5435–5439
- Das A, Sinha S, Acharya BR et al (2008) Deuterium oxide stabilizes conformation of tubulin: a biophysical and biochemical study. *BMB Rep* 41(1):62–67
- Efimova YM, Haemers S, Wierczinski B et al (2007) Stability of globular proteins in H₂O and D₂O. *Biopolymers* 85(3):264–273
- Fatma Eker F, Griebenow K, Schweitzer-Stenner R (2003) Stable conformations of tripeptides in aqueous solution studied by UV circular dichroism spectroscopy. *J Am Chem Soc* 125(27):8178–8185
- Gabbay EJ, Sanford K, Baxter CS (1972) Specific interaction of peptides with nucleic acids. *Biochemistry* 11(18):3429–3435
- Hsueh YW, Gilbert K, Trandum C et al (2005) The effect of ergosterol on dipalmitoyl - phosphatidylcholine bilayers: a deuterium NMR and calorimetric study. *Biophys J* 88(3):1799–1808
- Jensen JL, Gardner MP (1973) Secondary and solvent deuterium isotope effects on electronic absorption of anilines. *J Phys Chem* 77(15):1900–1904
- Kwak S, Brief E, Langlais D et al (2012) Ethanol perturbs lipid organization in models of stratum corneum membranes: an investigation combining differential scanning calorimetry, infrared and (2)H NMR spectroscopy. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1818(5):1410–1419
- Lemieux RU, Stevens JD (1966) The proton magnetic resonance spectra and tautomeric equilibria of aldoses in deuterium oxide. *Can J Chem* 44(3):249–262
- Marassi FM, Macdonald PM (1991) Response of the headgroup of phosphatidylglycerol to membrane surface charge as studied by deuterium and phosphorus-31 nuclear magnetic resonance. *Biochemistry* 30(43):10558–10566
- McMullen TP, Lewis RN, McElhaney RN (1999) Calorimetric and spectroscopic studies of the effects of cholesterol on the thermotropic phase behavior and organization of a homologous series of linear saturated phosphatidylethanolamine bilayers. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1416(1–2):119–134
- Nakanishi M, Tsuboi M (1978) Measurement of hydrogen exchange at the tyrosine residues in ribonuclease a by stopped-flow and ultraviolet spectroscopy. *J Am Chem Soc* 100(4):1273–1275
- Ohki K (1991) Effect of substitution of hydrogen oxide by deuterium oxide on thermotropic transition between the interdigitated gel phase and the ripple phase of dihexadecyl phosphatidylcholine. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 174(1):102–106
- Radoicic J, Lu GJ, Opella SJ (2014) NMR structures of membrane proteins in phospholipid bilayers. *Q Rev Biophys* 47(3):249–283
- Rog T, Murzyn K, Milhaud J et al (2009) Water isotope effect on the phosphatidylcholine bilayer properties: a molecular dynamics simulation study. *J Phys Chem B* 113(8):2378–2387
- Scolnik Y, Portnaya I, Cogan U et al (2006) Subtle differences in structural transitions between poly-L- and poly-D-amino acids of equal length in water. *Phys Chem Chem Phys* 8(3):333–339
- Seelig J (1977) Deuterium magnetic resonance: theory and application to lipid membranes. *Q Rev Biophys* 10(3):353–418
- Stockton GW, Smith ICP (1976) A deuterium magnetic resonance study of the condensing effect of cholesterol on egg phosphatidylcholine bilayer membranes. I. Perdeuterated fatty acid probes. *Chem Phys Lipids* 17:251–263

- Takashima S (1960) Ultra-violet absorption spectra of proteins in deuterium oxide. *Nature* 187:597–598
- Taylor JW, Greenfield NJ, Wu B, Privalov PL (1999) A calorimetric study of the folding-unfolding of an alpha-helix with covalently closed N and C-terminal loops. *J Mol Biol* 291(4):965–976
- Thewalt JL, Wassall SR, Gorrissen H et al (1985) Deuterium NMR study of the effect of n-alkanol anesthetics on a model membrane system. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 817(2):355–365
- Verheul M, Roefs SP, de Kruif KG (1998) Aggregation of beta-lactoglobulin and influence of D₂O. *FEBS Lett* 421(3):273–276
- Vist MR, Davis JH (1990) Phase equilibria of cholesterol / dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine mixtures: ²H nuclear magnetic resonance and differential scanning calorimetry. *Biochemistry* 29(2):451–464
- Wang G, Chen CH (1993) Thermodynamic elucidation of structural stability of deuterated biological molecules: deuterated phospholipid vesicles in H₂O. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 301(2):330–335
- Wassall SR, Thewalt JL, Wong L et al (1986) Deuterium NMR study of the interaction of alpha tocopherol with a phospholipid model membrane. *Biochemistry* 25(2):319–326
- Wiedmann TS, Trouard T, Shekar SC et al (1990) Interaction of cyclosporin a with dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1023(1):12–18

Part V
Exploration of Deuterium Oxide and
Deuteration in Health-Related Research

Chapter 9

Living Cells Grown in Deuterium Oxide for Deuteration



The effects of heavy water on various organisms have been investigated. Some other organisms are unable to grow in heavy water, while others have no difficulties. Depending on the concentration, living cells tend to exhibit species specificity to their tolerance to deuterium oxide. Algae and bacteria can grow in almost 100% D₂O. Mice were reported to have a normal life span and normal body weight after drinking 30% D₂O.

However, tissue culture cells incubated at 43 °C show a dramatic decrease in cell survival compared with cells incubated at lower temperatures. Mitosis of a fertile egg of sea urchin is completely inhibited by 75% D₂O. Drinking 30% D₂O was found to inhibit the tumor growth by a factor of 0.4–0.5, as compared to the growth of the same tumor in the control animal that drinks normal water.

While a small amount of D₂O exhibits low toxicity toward mammals, a higher concentration of deuterium oxide (usually >20% of body weight) can be toxic to animals and animal cells. Mammals do not survive more than 35% of D₂O substitution for normal water in their body fluids for a long period of time.

Replacement of water in the culture medium with deuterium oxide produces a dose-dependent reduction in hyperthermic cell death, suggesting that the mechanism of hyperthermic cell death involves a hydration-dependent phase transition in membrane lipids. This effect is called hyperthermic cell death.

Moreover, studies of the effects of deuterium oxide on cell growth and vesicle transport in rat basophilic leukemia cells revealed that cells cultured with 15 moles/l deuterium oxide showed decreased cell growth, which are attributed to cells not doubling their DNA content. At the cellular level, D₂O may also affect membrane functions. However, the mechanism of the toxicity of D₂O and the effects of D₂O on cellular events have not been fully understood.

D₂O is more toxic to malignant than normal animal cells. It was also found that deuterium oxide reduces salt- and ethanol-induced hypertension in rats. In addition, D₂O was applied for measuring water spaces in humans and other animals. The

adaptation to D₂O medium was also found to regulate amino acids and proteins with a reduction in growth rate.

By optimizing expression media and cell culture conditions, high levels of deuterated carbonic anhydrases were produced with about 70% deuterium incorporation. The obtained deuterated proteins exhibit reduced solubility and thermal stability. The H/D kinetic isotope effect appears as the major limiting factor of cellular functions under deuteration.

The substitution of D for H in oxidation-sensitive positions of cellular components may protect against oxidative attack, such as deuterated nucleosides and proteins that are protected from oxidative damage. Oxygen-reactive species are toxicants that lead to protein damage and genomic instability. Most of the oxidative regions involve a cleavage of C-H bonds and H abstraction.

The subjects concerning the growth of living cells in D₂O, the isolation of deuterated biomolecules from cells grown in D₂O, the toxicity of D₂O to living cells, the antineoplastic effect of D₂O, and other related subjects are discussed below.

9.1 Growth of Organisms in D₂O

Studies of the growth of different organisms in various concentrations of D₂O revealed that the growth is increasingly inhibited in higher concentrations as compared to lower concentrations. The growth of tissue cultures in D₂O is also temperature dependent. Tissue culture cells incubated at 43 °C showed a dramatic decrease in cell survival compared with cells incubated at lower temperatures.

There seems to exhibit species specificity to cell tolerance to heavy water. Some organisms are unable to grow in D₂O, while others have no difficulties. A broad variety of morphological and physiological changes have been observed in deuterium-treated cells and organisms, including changes in fundamental processes such as cell division or energy metabolism.

For example, in vivo replacement of hydrogen by deuterium induces a stress response, reduces cell growth, and impairs cell division in organisms such as *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, a green unicellular alga. The effects of deuterium on cell cycle progression in *C. reinhardtii* cultures were cultivated in about 80% D₂O medium. Impaired cell cycle progression in deuterated cultures was observed, such as starch and lipid accumulations. This alga is a good model to study the effect of deuterium on growth and division.

Moreover, in the root tissue of winter rye seedlings equilibrated with D₂O, D₂O was found to suppress the absorption of water and K⁺. The higher the D₂O concentration, the greater the suppression. In addition, *Lemna minor* fronds in 50% D₂O rapidly undergo a loss of soluble protein, which is due to the inhibition of protein synthesis as well as an increase in protein degradation. In plants grown for 3–6 days in 50% D₂O, protein synthesis is inhibited by 20%, and the rate constant of degradation is 2–3 times that measured in H₂O.

The growth of algae, moss, yeast, bacteria, and animal cells in deuterium oxide medium is briefly described below.

9.1.1 Algae

Algae, such as *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*, and *Scenedesmus obliquus*, can be grown in 99.6% deuterium oxide media. Their rate of growth is fast enough to make it possible to use them as a practical source of biosynthesized fully deuterated compounds.

In blue-green algae, *Plectonema calothricoides* and *Phormidium luridum*, normal and deuterated phycocyanins can be isolated to investigate the differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins. Moreover, alga *Chara gymnophylla* was grown in D₂O for use in studying membrane excitation followed by potassium leakage.

9.1.2 Moss

Mosses are green plants somewhat similar to algae, except that they have a complex structure that resembles stems and leaves. They contain chlorophyll and can manufacture their own food. Moss *Funaria hygrometrica* is able to grow in up to 90% D₂O. Its ability to tolerate such high concentrations of D₂O makes it an ideal system for producing deuterated metabolites.

9.1.3 Yeast

A species of yeast, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, was grown in D₂O for studying glucose metabolism and growth retardation. High concentrations of D₂O were found to alter glucose metabolism and growth retardation. After prolonged incubation in D₂O, cells display gross morphological changes and thicken cell walls. Yeast cells grown in 99% D₂O were also found to exhibit cellular aggregates and cause colonies to become slightly uneven. D₂O-tolerant strains of yeast can also be applied to produce deuterated biomolecules.

9.1.4 Bacteria

The growth of bacteria, including *Azotobacter agilis* and *A. vinelandii*, in deuterium oxide medium revealed that lag periods occur prior to growth during adaptation to a deuterated environment. The growth of several other strains of bacteria is also inhibited by D₂O medium. The degree of inhibition is strain specific. The incorporation of a small percentage of NaCl into the D₂O medium was found to decrease such inhibition of growth. Deuterium oxide also induces the occurrence of mutants in some strains. The amount of deuterium incorporated into the bacteria is related to the induced mutagenic effect.

9.1.5 Animal Cells

The effects of deuterium oxide on cell growth were also investigated in rat basophilic leukemia cells cultured with 15 moles/liter deuterium oxide. The observed decrease in cell growth was attributed to cells not doubling their DNA content. However, such interference with DNA replication is not necessarily a primary mechanism in the blockade of cell division by D₂O.

Moreover, deuterium oxide (up to 25%) was found to accelerate and increase the growth of immature ganglia neurons in chicks and rodents, where living deuterated cells appear opaquer and heteromeric than control neurons. Besides, there is an abundance of granular and fibrillar elements in the cells.

In addition, fish has been reported to survive in 30% D₂O. Mice and dogs tolerate long-term replacement of at least 10%–15% of body fluid hydrogen with deuterium. However, toxicity is observed with acute or chronic exposure to D₂O above 25%.

The growth of various organisms in D₂O is briefly summarized in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1 Growth of organisms in deuterium oxide medium

Organism	Species
Algae	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> , <i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i> , <i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i> , <i>Chara gymnophylla</i> , <i>Plectonema calothricoides</i> , <i>Phormidium luridum</i>
Moss	<i>Funaria hygrometrica</i>
Yeast	<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i>
Bacteria	<i>Azotobacter agilis</i> , <i>A. vinelandii</i>

D₂O-tolerant organisms have potential to be applied to produce deuterated biomolecules

9.2 The Effects of Deuterium Oxide on Cells

The effects of D_2O , including cytotoxicity, cytostatic activity, antineoplastic effect, antimitotic activity, and nucleic acid synthesis, are briefly discussed below. Chronic applications of D_2O were reported to cause toxic effects. For example, the 35% substitution of H_2O with D_2O was found to induce fatal effects in the mouse. Mitosis of a fertile egg of sea urchin was completely inhibited by 75% D_2O . Nevertheless, the mechanisms of the toxicity of D_2O and the effects of D_2O on cellular events have not been fully understood.

9.2.1 Cytotoxicity

Cytotoxicity refers to toxicity to living cells that lead to cell damage. Substitution of protium (H) for deuterium (D) strongly affects biological systems. Higher eukaryotes such as plants and mammals hardly survive a deuterium content of greater than 30%. At the cellular level, D_2O may also affect mitosis and membrane functions. While higher concentrations (> 20% of body weight) can be toxic to animals and animal cells, a lower concentration of D_2O has been used for measuring water spaces in humans and other animals.

Replacement of hydrogen with deuterium by administering 25% D_2O in the drinking water was found to result in certain alterations in the reproductive potential of female mice. These alterations include a decrease in the number of pregnancies carried close to term, as well as a decrease in the survival of newborn mice.

Deuterium oxide also affects a variety of biological activities different from those of normal water. D_2O -mediated cytotoxicity was investigated by using a murine malignant astrocytoma cell line, which demonstrated that D_2O was cytotoxic to malignant astrocytoma cells. The mechanism of the observed cytotoxicity may involve D_2O -induced apoptosis and cell-cycle modulation. D_2O -mediated cytotoxicity was also examined by using a malignant cell line and similar results were found. Moreover, at D_2O concentrations of 10%–50%, the cytotoxic effect was found to be dose- and time-dependent.

Deuterium oxide was also shown to be active in various cancer cell lines *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The cytotoxic effects of D_2O were investigated in three pancreatic cancer cell lines. D_2O of 15%–27% led to the induction of apoptosis when compared to untreated controls. The mechanism of D_2O -mediated cytotoxicity was shown to involve the induction of apoptosis and cell accumulation.

Further reports on the effects of deuterium oxide on the survival of mice inoculated with tumor revealed that after tumor inoculation and drinking water containing 30% D_2O , the weight of the tumor was reduced to the values ranging from 22% to 65% of the control. An improved survival time of about 6 days was also found. Such effects were interpreted in terms of inhibition of tumor cell division and systemic toxicity.

9.2.2 Cytostatic Activity

Cytostatic activity refers to a cellular effect caused by a substance that inhibits cell growth and division. Drinking 30% D₂O was found to inhibit the tumor growth by a factor of 0.4–0.5 compared to the growth of the same tumor in control animals that drink regular water. This finding implies that deuterium oxide at high concentration interferes with cell division and depresses the uptake of DNA precursors in mammalian cells.

The effects of cytostatic activity of cancer cell lines were also assessed in D₂O. Significant effects were found at concentrations higher than 30% D₂O. The results of D₂O exhibiting cytostatic activities against human digestive organ cancer cell lines suggested that D₂O may be a potential anticancer agent. In addition, heavy water was also found to effectively retard the growth of human carcinomas in mice given drinking water containing 30% D₂O.

Moreover, moderate deuteration in a combination of cytostatic drug was found to significantly increase the survival time of mice. The tumors were weighed 36%–90% less than those of control animals. Heavy water combined with cytostatic drug also showed synergistic effects in tumor variants, implying an underlying deuterium-induced prolongation of tumor-cell cycle times and a reduction of the growth fraction.

Furthermore, the effects of deuterium oxide on human pancreatic tumor cells were also studied. The cytotoxic effects of D₂O were examined in three pancreatic cancer cell lines. D₂O of 15%–27% was found to lead to the induction of apoptosis, when compared to the controls in the absence of D₂O. This finding suggested that D₂O might offer an additional option for the treatment of pancreatic carcinomas.

9.2.3 Antineoplastic Effect

Antineoplastic effect refers to agents that interfere with cell division, leading to cell death. Antineoplastic chemotherapy drugs inhibit or prevent the growth and spread of neoplasms or malignant cells. Studies of the influence of deuterium oxide on the growth of human carcinomas revealed that deuterium-enriched water has an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors. Drinking 30% D₂O was found to effectively retard the growth of human carcinomas.

The antineoplastic effect of heavy water on the growth of human carcinoma was also compared to that of cytostatic drugs (5-fluoro-uracil or bleomycin). D₂O was found to delay the growth of carcinoma variants. Deuterium oxide combined with either cytostatic drug also showed synergistic effects. These findings revealed an underlying deuterium-induced prolongation of tumor-cell cycle times and a reduction of the growth fraction.

9.2.4 *Antiproliferative Effect*

Antiproliferative substances are related to those used to retard the spread of malignant cells in surrounding tissues. Studies showed that deuterium-enriched water has an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors. Deuterium-enriched water was found to exhibit an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors without toxic side effects.

9.2.5 *Antimitotic Activity*

Antimitotic activity refers to compounds that exhibit arrest cell multiplication in mitosis. Depending on the conditions of deuteration, cell division in eggs of sea urchin (*Arbacia punctulata*) could be delayed or arrested reversibly. Such antimittotic action of deuterium oxide is attributed to its interference with cell division.

Moreover, dynamics and correctness of mitotic division of PtK1 cells grown in vitro in deuterium oxide were also assessed. The results revealed that incubation of PtK1 monolayers for 2 h in 25%–75% D₂O media retards the interphase or prophase transition in a dose-dependent manner.

The influence of deuterium oxide on the dynamics of mitosis in HeLa cells grown in vitro showed that a 2 h incubation of HeLa monolayers with D₂O (1%–25%) in the medium increases the frequency of multipolar divisions. Substitution of 10%–25% D₂O for H₂O induced changes in the proportions of mitotic phases; 50% D₂O was strongly inhibited, and 75% D₂O blocked the cell cycle. These results supported the antimitotic activity of deuterium oxide and confirmed that D₂O influences the cell cycle before mitosis.

9.2.6 *Nuclei Acid Synthesis*

Nucleic acid synthesis involves chemical processes in which components of nucleic acids are synthesized, including phosphate, pentose sugar, and nitrogenous base. Using various cell lines, cytotoxic and cytostatic activities of D₂O were assessed against four cancer cell lines. D₂O was found to exhibit significant cytotoxic and cytostatic effects at a concentration > 30%. The inhibition of DNA synthesis may be one of the mechanisms responsible for the antitumor effects of D₂O against human digestive organ cancer cell lines.

Moreover, rat basophilic leukemia cells showed decreased cell growth in deuterium oxide medium, which was attributed to cells not doubling their DNA content. Investigations of the effects of D₂O on cell growth and vesicle transport in rat leukemia cells cultured with 15 moles/liter deuterium oxide also revealed a decrease in cell growth. The inhibition of DNA synthesis is one of the mechanisms responsible

Table 9.2 Typical effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration on cells

<i>Deuterium oxide effect</i>	<i>Effects on living cells</i>
Cytotoxicity	Inhibition of tumor cell division and systemic toxicity Cytotoxicity to malignant astrocytoma cells Induction of apoptosis and cell accumulation
Cytostatic activity	Inhibition of tumor growth by drinking 30% D ₂ O Deuterium-induced prolongation of tumor-cell cycle times
Antineoplastic effect	Retard the growth of human carcinomas by 30% D ₂ O D ₂ O is more toxic to malignant than normal animal cells
Antiproliferative effect	D ₂ O retards the spread of mouse malignant cells in surrounding tissues
Antimitotic activity	Interference with cell division D ₂ O influences the cell cycle
Nuclei acid synthesis	Inhibition of DNA synthesis
<i>Deuteration effect</i>	<i>Effects on lipids and pigments</i>
Lipid peroxidation	Polyunsaturated fatty acids deuterated at bis-allylic sites are more resistant to autoxidation reactions Protection of deuterated yeast cells against the toxic effects of lipid autoxidation products
Antioxidant	Anti-oxidant and anticancer properties of deuterated anthocyanins

for the antitumor effects of D₂O, suggesting that D₂O may be a potential anticancer agent.

In summary, the effects of deuterium oxide on living cells, including cytotoxicity, cytostatic activity, antineoplastic effect, antiproliferative effect, antimitotic action, and nucleic acid synthesis, are presented in Table 9.2.

9.3 Isolation of Deuterated Biomolecules

Living organisms such as algae (Chlorella vulgaris, Chlorella pyrenoidosa, or Scenedesmus obliquus) can be grown in deuterium oxide media. When the rate of growth is great enough, it is possible to be used as a practical source of biosynthesized fully deuterated compounds, in which the hydrogen normally present is essentially completely replaced by the deuterium. Such isolated deuterated biomolecules make it possible to carry out a variety of novel experimental approaches to investigate the structures and functions of biomolecules essential to life.

For example, cholesterol is a major component of mammalian cells, which plays a critical role in membrane permeability, rigidity, and dynamics. Production of perdeuterated cholesterol in lipid-engineered *Pichia pastoris* was carried out in deuterated minimal medium. The isolated perdeuterated cholesterol provides a unique way of probing the structural and dynamical properties of the lipoprotein complexes.

9.3.1 Deuterated Proteins

Since the preparation and purification of algal proteins require large quantities of algae, many techniques have been developed for the mass culture of algae. Organisms cultured in D₂O can be used to isolate a variety source of biological compounds, for example, fully deuterated protein phycocyanin and bacterial enzyme alkaline phosphatase.

Studies of thermal denaturation of normal and deuterated phycocyanins isolated from blue-green algae revealed that the values of thermal denaturation of deuterated proteins are about 5 °C lower than those in normal proteins and the enthalpy of denaturation in deuterated proteins are 18%–36% lower than those in normal proteins. Deuterated proteins are also less resistant to the denaturant urea than are normal proteins.

Moreover, a bacterial alkaline phosphatase and a plant ribonuclease have also been isolated to produce deuterated enzymes in a high degree of purity. Kinetic measurements and thermal studies indicate only slight differences in the tertiary structure of the fully deuterated enzymes as compared to the ordinary enzymes. Besides, the deuterated alkaline phosphatase also shows a decreased rate of catalysis.

Furthermore, the adaptation of a large part of *E. coli* proteome from growth on a protonated medium to a deuterated medium was investigated for proteins. The results exhibited strong regulation with a reduction in growth rate with no significant morphological effects. The proteins upregulated under deuteration are enzymes with hydrogen transfer functions, suggesting that the deuterium kinetic isotope effect is the major factor of cellular functions under deuteration.

9.3.2 Deuterated Nucleic Acids

To determine whether the replacement of hydrogen by deuterium in living organisms is accompanied by changes in cellular components, *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus obliquus* algae were grown separately in H₂O and D₂O medium. Cytoplasmic RNA was found to be more widely distributed and in higher quantities in deuterated algae than in nondeuterated algae. Also, the nuclei of deuterated cells are more irregular in shape, and mitosis appears with greater frequency in the deuterated organisms.

Moreover, fully deuterated DNA was also isolated from *E. coli* grown in a deuterated nutrient medium (99.6% D₂O with fully deuterated substrates). The melting temperature of deuterated DNA was found to be essentially identical to that of nondeuterated DNA in H₂O solution. This finding suggested that deuterated DNA and hydrogenated DNA exhibit similar thermostability.

9.3.3 Deuterated Lipids

The extraction of lipids from microorganisms grown in deuterated media was demonstrated to produce deuterated lipids. Comparisons of the structures of membranes extracted from yeast cells grown in H₂O and D₂O media revealed that the molecular composition isolated from deuterated and protiated lipid extracts shows a difference in structural organizations of lipid membranes.

In addition, to prevent the harmful accumulation of reactive oxygen species and to inhibit the propagation of lipid peroxidation, a model system was developed by using deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids to prevent the accumulation of lipid peroxides and to reduce the cumulation of reactive oxygen. The results demonstrated that deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids can be used as a food supplement to decelerate the aging process, which can lead to extending lifespan.

Moreover, palmitic acid specifically deuterated at different carbon atoms has been incorporated into the membrane lipids of *Clostridium butyricum*. The ordering of the deuterated hydrocarbon chains in whole cells was compared to those of isolated cell membranes and membranes formed from the total phospholipid extract. The shape of the order profiles was found to be similar for all membranes. However, the values of the order profiles in whole cells and isolated membranes are lower than those of the liposomal lipids. In addition, the order profiles have the same characteristic shape as those found for the lamellar liquid-crystalline phases of synthetic diacyl-phospholipids.

9.4 Deuteration Effects on Lipid Peroxidation and Antioxidant

Lipid peroxidation is the reaction of oxidative degradation of lipids involving free radicals. Antioxidants are substances that are able to slow or prevent damage to cells caused by free radicals. Deuteration effects on lipid peroxidation and antioxidant are briefly presented below and are also in Table 9.2.

9.4.1 Lipid Peroxidation

Autoxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids damages lipid membranes and generates toxic by-products implicated in neurodegeneration. Abstraction of bis-allylic hydrogen atoms is the rate-limiting step of polyunsaturated fatty acid autoxidation, which is inhibited by replacing bis-allylic hydrogens with deuterium atoms.

Polyunsaturated fatty acids deuterated at bis-allylic sites are much more resistant to autoxidation reactions due to the isotope effect. Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids also confer protection to wild-type yeast subjected to heat stress. The

substitution leads to a significantly slower oxidation and inhibits membrane damage. To investigate the prevention of reactive oxygen species by inhibiting the propagation of lipid peroxidation, a model system was developed to mimic the human dietary requirement of omega-3 to study the role of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids. Moreover, deuterated trilinolenin was found to prevent the accumulation of lipid peroxides.

The above findings imply that deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids can be used as a food supplement to decelerate the aging process. In cells, the presence of a relatively small fraction of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acid among natural polyunsaturated fatty acids was found to effectively inhibit lipid peroxidation. Moreover, since deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids are more stable compared to standard polyunsaturated fatty acids, they protect yeast cells against the toxic effects of lipid autoxidation products.

9.4.2 Antioxidant

Anthocyanins are water-soluble phytochemical found in the plant. They are a type of flavonoid, which are known for beneficial health effects due to their antioxidant and anticancer properties. Deuterated anthocyanin was prepared using recombinant *E. coli* as a production host and deuterated glycerol and D₂O in the culture media. The preparation resulted in the formation of deuterated cyanidin 3-*O*-glucoside, which is more stable at pH 7.0 as compared to nondeuterated one.

Bibliography

- Altermatt HJ, Gebbers JO, Arnold W, Laissue JA (1987) Heavy water (D₂O) inhibits growth of human xenotransplanted oropharyngeal cancers. An animal experiment study in nude mice. *Laryngol Rhinol Otol* 66(4):191–194
- Altermatt HJ, Gebbers JO, Laissue JA (1988) Heavy water delays growth of human carcinoma in nude mice. *Cancer* 62(3):462–466
- Altermatt HJ, Gebbers JO, Laissue JA (1990) Heavy water enhances the antineoplastic effect of 5-fluoro-uracil and bleomycin in nude mice bearing human carcinoma. *Int J Cancer* 45(3):475–480
- Andjus PR, Vucelić D (1990) D₂O-induced cell excitation. *J Membr Biol* 115(2):123–127
- Beaudoin-Chabot C, Wang L, Smarun AV et al (2019) Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids reduce oxidative stress and extend the lifespan of *C. elegans*. *Front Physiol* 10:641
- Chen CH, Liu IW, MacColl R et al (1983) Differences in structure and stability between normal and deuterated proteins (phycocyanin). *Biopolymers* 22:1223–1233
- Chorney W, Scully NJ, Crespi HL, Katz JJ (1960) The growth of algae in deuterium oxide. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 37:280–287
- Christian Opitz C, Ahrne E, Goldie KN et al (2019) Deuterium induces a distinctive *Escherichia coli* proteome that correlates with the reduction in growth rate. *J Biol Chem* 294(7):2279–2292
- Cooke RJ, Grego S, Oliver J, Davies DD (1979) The effect of deuterium oxide on protein turnover in *Lemna minor*. *Planta* 146(2):229–236

- Crespi HL, Archer SM, Katz JJ (1959) Culture of algae and other micro-organisms in deuterium oxide. *Nature* 184:729–730
- Crespi HL, Katz JJ (1962) Thermal denaturation of ordinary and fully deuterated DNA in H₂O and D₂O. *J Mol Biol* 4:65–68
- Crespi HL, Katz JJ (1972) Preparations of deuterated proteins and enzymes. *Methods Enzymol* 26:627–637
- Firsov AM, Fomich MA, Bekish AV et al (2019) Threshold protective effect of deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids on peroxidation of lipid bilayers. *FEBS* 286(11):2099–2117
- Gross PR, Spindel W (1960) The inhibition of mitosis by deuterium. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 84:745–754
- Gross PR, Harding CV (1961) Blockade of deoxyribonucleic acid synthesis by deuterium oxide. *Science* 133(3459):1131–1133
- Gupta M, Zha J, Zhang X et al (2018) Production of deuterated Cyanidin 3- O-glucoside from recombinant *Escherichia coli*. *ACS Omega* 3(9):11643–11648
- Hartmann J, Bader Y, Horvath Z et al (2005) Effects of heavy water (D₂O) on human pancreatic tumor cells. *Anticancer Res* 25(5):3407–3411
- Hill S, Hirano K, Vadim V, Shmanai VV et al (2011) Isotope-reinforced polyunsaturated fatty acids protect yeast cells from oxidative stress. *Free Radic Biol Med* 50(1):130–138
- Hodel A, Gebbers JO, Cottier H et al (1982) Effects of prolonged moderate body deuteration on proliferative activity in major cell renewal systems in mice. *Life Sci* 30(23):1987–1996
- Hughes AM, Tolbert BM, Lonberg-Holm K, Calvin M (1958) The effect of deuterium oxide on survival of mice with ascites tumor. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 28:58–61
- Ikeda M, Hirono M, Kishio M et al (2000) Examination of microgravity effects on spontaneous Ca²⁺ oscillations in AtT20 pituitary cells using heavy water. *J Gravit Physiol* 7(2):P63–P64
- Johnstone DB (1962) Growth of *Azotobacter* in deuterium oxide. *J Bacteriol* 83:867–870
- Johnston NC, Goldfine H, Malthaner M (1987) 2H-NMR studies on ether lipid-rich bacterial membranes: deuterium order profile of clostridium butyricum. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 899(2):302–306
- Kalkur RS, Ballast AC, Triplett AR et al (2014) Effects of deuterium oxide on cell growth and vesicle speed in RBL-2H3 cells. *Peer J* 2:e553
- Kampmeyer C, Johansen JV, Holmberg C et al (2020) Mutations in a single signaling pathway allow cell growth in heavy water. *ACS Synth Biol* 9(4):733–748
- Koruza K, Lafumat B, Vegvari A et al (2018) Deuteration of human carbonic anhydrase for neutron crystallography: cell culture media, protein thermostability, and crystallization behavior. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 645:26–33
- Kselikova V, Zachleder V, Bisova K (2021) To divide or not to divide? How deuterium affects growth and division of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Biomol Ther* 11(6):861
- Kselikova V, Vítova M, Bišova K (2019) Deuterium and its impact on living organisms. *Folia Microbiol (Praha)* 64(5):673–681
- Lamprecht J, Schroeter D, Paweletz N (1989) Disorganization of mitosis in HeLa cells by deuterium oxide. *Eur J Cell Biol* 50(2):360–369
- Lamprecht J, Schroeter D, Paweletz N (1990) Mitosis arrested by deuterium oxide. Light microscopic, immunofluorescence and ultrastructural characterization. *Eur J Cell Biol* 51(2):303–312
- Lin PS, Hefter K, Ho KC (1984) Modification of membrane function, protein synthesis, and heat killing effect in cultured Chinese hamster cells by glycerol and D₂O. *Cancer Res* 44:5776–5784
- Luchini A, Delhom R, Deme B et al (2018) The impact of deuteration on natural and synthetic lipids: a neutron diffraction study. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces* 168:126–133
- McIver DJ, Schurch S, Sridhar R (1980) Deuterium oxide protects against hyperthermic cell death: evidence for role of interfacial water. *Physiol Chem Phys* 12(4):369–372
- Moulin M, Strohmeier GA, Hirz M et al (2018) Perdeuteration of cholesterol for neutron scattering applications using recombinant *Pichia pastoris*. *Chem Phys Lipids* 212:80–87
- Murray MR, Benitez HH (1967) Deuterium oxide: direct action on sympathetic ganglia isolated in culture. *Science* 155(3765):1021–1024

- Opitz C, Ahrné E, Goldie KE et al (2019) Deuterium induces a distinctive *Escherichia coli* proteome that correlates with the reduction in growth rate. *J Biol Chem* 294(7):2279–2292
- Rosalie de Giovanni (1961) The effects of deuterium oxide on bacteria. *Zeitschrift für Vererbungslehre* 92:389–402
- Salvagno A (2013) The biophysical effects of deuterium oxide on biomolecules and living cells through open notebook science. Univ of New Mexico, UNM Digital Repository, Sept
- Sestili P, Brigotti M, Calcabrini C et al (2019) Deuterium incorporation protects cells from oxidative damage. *Oxidative Med Cell Longev* 2019:6528106
- Shibabe S, Yoda K (1985) Water and potassium ion absorption by deuterium oxide resistant winter rye seedlings. *Radioisotopes* 34(5):266–269
- Takeda H, Nio Y, Omori H et al (1998) Mechanisms of cytotoxic effects of heavy water (deuterium oxide: D₂O) on cancer cells. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* 9(8):715–725
- Uemura T, Moritake K, Akiyama Y (2002) Experimental validation of deuterium oxide-mediated antitumoral activity as it relates to apoptosis in murine malignant astrocytoma cells. *J Neurosurg* 96(5):900–908
- Vergara F, Itouga M, Becerra RG et al (2018) *Funaria hygrometrica* hedw elevated tolerance to D₂O: its use for the production of highly deuterated metabolites. *Planta* 247(2):405–412

Chapter 10

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Health Issues



Deuterium oxide exhibits a variety of biologic activities different from normal water, which makes it possible to gain a deeper insight into the role of water in biology by using deuterium oxide. Deuterium solvent isotope effects are derived from special properties of deuterium oxide as a solvent. As discussed above, differences in structures, functions, and activities for biomolecules are observed in D_2O and H_2O solvents. Deuterium oxide is also a promising component in the areas of chemistry, medicine, and biotechnology.

D_2O has been used in studies related to human health, for example, biomedical applications as therapeutic agent against hypertension, cancer, cardiac, aging, and other diseases. D_2O exhibits cytotoxic and cytostatic activities against cancer cell lines in the human digestive organ, leading to investigating deuterium oxide as a potential therapeutic agent against cancers. However, D_2O in high concentrations is toxic to multicellular organisms. A concentration of >20% of body weight can be toxic to animal cells.

Investigations of dose-dependent effects of deuterium oxide in drinking water on systolic blood pressure and aortic calcium uptake revealed that the usual increase in systolic blood pressure and the associated increase in aortic calcium uptake in rats were lowered by deuterium oxide in a dose-dependent manner. In addition, D_2O was also found to be more toxic to malignant cells than normal cells.

Deuterium oxide and deuteration effects have also gained attention due to their potential to affect the pharmacokinetic and metabolic profiles of drugs. In pharmaceutical industries, deuteration goes beyond simple progress of pharmacokinetic parameters of a drug. Beyond the progress of the pharmacokinetic parameters of a drug, deuterium oxide and deuteration can also provide an opportunity to study issues in terms of metabolism-mediated toxicity.

Deuterated drug might provide an opportunity when facing problems in terms of metabolism and drug interactions. The use of deuterium also offers the opportunity to reduce the dose of a drug and the discovery of new drugs. In the case of

deutetrabenazine, this deuterated drug can provide a more favorable adverse effect profile than tetrabenazine in the therapeutic treatment of Huntington's disease.

The effects of deuterium on living organisms are generally negative. However, some of the D_2O applications are of biotechnological potential. Deuterium oxide has a lower ionization constant than that of hydrogen oxide. The ratio of D^+ to H^+ is approximately 1–15,000 in biological fluids. Comparing D_2O with H_2O , O-D bond length is shorter than O-H, and D-O-D angle is lesser than H-O-H. Deuterium forms stronger **hydrogen bonds** than protium. Hydrophobic interaction is also stronger in D_2O than H_2O . Deuteration effects are derived from the compounds containing C-D bonds rather than C-H bonds, where C-D bonds are more stable than C-H bond.

Deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on human health, including diseases, health-related issues, deuterium-depleted water, and deuterated drugs, are discussed below.

10.1 Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Diseases

As mentioned above, deuterium oxide and deuteration are a promising component in the areas of human health, pharmacology, and biotechnology. D_2O has numerous therapeutic applications to various disease conditions such as hypertension, cancers, and cardiac and liver diseases. Deuterium-depleted water was found to be an anti-cancer agent with potential clinical application. Deuterium oxide has also been applied to determine body water.

10.1.1 Hypertension

Hypertension, a common public health problem, could lead to degenerative diseases such as congestive heart failure, renal disease, and peripheral vascular disease. Factors related to hypertension and the effects of deuterium oxide are presented below.

10.1.1.1 High Salt

There are strong evidences that excess dietary salt is a major factor contributing to the development of hypertension. Studies of systolic blood pressure and vascular calcium uptake suggested that increased calcium uptake mechanisms are associated with hypertension in salt-sensitive rats. Systolic blood pressure and uptakes of calcium are significantly higher in rats on the high salt diet for 6 weeks, as compared with those on the low salt diet.

Deuterium oxide was found to improve systolic blood pressure and aortic calcium uptake in hypertensive rats on high salt diet. Intake of 25% D_2O normalizes

systolic blood pressure and aortic calcium uptake in hypertensive rats with high salt diet. This finding suggested that an increased cytosolic free calcium is involved in the pathophysiology of hypertension, and deuterium oxide helps to prevent hypertension by normalizing cytosolic free calcium.

10.1.1.2 High Calcium

Increased calcium uptake in vascular tissues leading to elevated cytosolic free calcium has been implicated in the pathophysiology of hypertension. D_2O appears to prevent hypertension by normalizing calcium uptake in vascular smooth muscle. A minimum dose of 10% deuterium oxide is needed to prevent elevated aortic calcium uptake, platelet cytosolic free calcium, and renal vascular changes in hypertensive rats.

Moreover, high calcium uptake induced by phenylephrine in rats via receptor-operated and KCl voltage-operated channels was found to be effectively reduced by D_2O in a concentration-dependent manner. These findings revealed that the increased calcium uptake mechanism is associated with hypertension, and D_2O acts like a calcium channel blocker that effectively normalizes vascular calcium uptake mechanisms.

10.1.1.3 Alcohol Consumption

Systolic blood pressure, platelet cytosolic calcium, and aortic calcium uptake are significantly higher in rats given ethanol for 14 weeks. Ethanol-treated rats also showed smooth muscle hyperplasia with thickening of the wall and narrowing of the lumen in small arteries and arterioles of the kidney. D_2O given to ethanol-treated rats was found to normalize their blood pressure, cytosolic free calcium, and aortic calcium uptake.

10.1.1.4 D_2O -Containing Water

Investigations of the effects of 5, 10, or 20% deuterium oxide in drinking water on systolic blood pressure and aortic calcium uptake were carried out in hypertensive rats. The observed increases in systolic blood pressure and the associated aortic calcium uptake in hypertensive rats are lowered by D_2O in a dose-dependent manner. A minimum dose of 10% deuterium oxide is needed to prevent the development of hypertension in rats.

The effects of 5% deuterium oxide in drinking water on systolic blood pressure were also examined in rats with fructose-induced hypertension. Deuterium oxide given together with fructose prevented the development of high blood pressure and the associated increases in platelet cytosolic calcium, aortic calcium uptake, and plasma triglycerides. Such parallel increases in systolic blood pressure, cytosolic

free calcium, and vascular calcium uptake suggested that an increased cytosolic free calcium is involved in the pathophysiology of hypertension, while D₂O prevents this hypertension by normalizing cytosolic free calcium.

10.1.2 Cancers

The antineoplastic effect of D₂O on the growth of human carcinoma was compared to that of cytostatic drugs and 5-fluorouracil. Drinking water containing 30% D₂O effectively retards the growth of the human carcinomas in mice, and D₂O in combination with cytostatic drug showed synergistic effects on tumor. In addition, deuterium-enriched water was found to exhibit an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors.

10.1.2.1 Cancer Cell Lines

Heavy water was also shown to be active in various cancer cell lines in vitro and in vivo. D₂O at concentrations higher than 10% was found to significantly inhibit the invasion of tumor cells. D₂O also showed significant cytotoxic and cytostatic activities against human digestive organ cancer cell lines, suggesting that D₂O may be a potential anticancer agent.

10.1.2.2 Pancreatic Cancer

Pancreatic cancer constitutes an entity that is difficult to treat and mostly fatal. The effect of deuterium oxide in human pancreatic tumor cells and the cytotoxic effects of D₂O were examined in three pancreatic cancer cell lines. D₂O was found to induce apoptosis when compared to untreated controls. The possibility of D₂O as a therapeutic agent against human pancreatic cancer was also investigated. In vitro, the growth of pancreatic cancer cells was found to be significantly inhibited by 10%–30% D₂O, suggesting that D₂O may be applied for the therapeutic use against pancreatic cancer.

10.1.2.3 Others

The effect of deuterium oxide on the survival of mice with ascites tumor has also been studied. Mice maintained on 25%–30% D₂O drinking water showed an improved survival time of about 6 days. Such effect was interpreted in terms of inhibition of tumor cell division and systemic toxicity by D₂O. Deuterium-enriched water was also reported to exhibit an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors.

After tumor inoculation, the mice were given drinking water containing 30% D₂O. Heavy water was found to effectively retard the growth of human carcinomas. Deuterium-enriched water also has an antiproliferative effect on transplantable mouse tumors. The influence of D₂O on the growth of xenotransplanted human carcinomas was investigated. After tumor inoculation, the mice were given drinking water containing 30% D₂O, which effectively retarded the growth of the human carcinomas. The nucleic acid and protein synthesis inhibition assay suggested that the inhibition of DNA synthesis may be one of the mechanisms responsible for the antitumor effects of D₂O.

10.1.3 Cardiac Disease

Studies of cardiac injury induced by ischemia and reperfusion in rats revealed that the dialysate myoglobin levels were increased in the presence of D₂O, suggesting that D₂O might have a beneficial effect against cardiac injury in rats. Measurements of dialysate myoglobin levels during coronary occlusion and reperfusion showed that D₂O attenuates myocardial myoglobin release.

To determine whether deuterium affects heart rate, flies *Drosophila melanogaster* were raised on protium and deuterated media, and their heartbeat was monitored. The rate of heartbeat decreased with increasing concentrations of deuterium. The higher the concentration of deuterium oxide, the less temperature-sensitive was the heart rate.

The effects of D₂O on the myocardial injury-induced ischemia and reperfusion in rat heart were also examined. D₂O was found to attenuate myocardial myoglobin release during coronary occlusion, reperfusion, and local perfusion. To confirm the effect of D₂O on NaCN-induced myocardial injury, the dialysate myoglobin levels were measured in the absence and presence of D₂O. D₂O was found to attenuate myocardial myoglobin release during 15–30 min of coronary occlusion and 0–30 min of reperfusion and 15–60 min of local perfusion of NaCN. These findings suggested that D₂O might exhibit a beneficial effect of the myocardium against ischemia, reperfusion, and chemical hypoxia.

10.1.4 Liver Disease

Drinking D₂O-H₂O mixed water (30 to 70%) for 6 weeks was performed to investigate the effects of D₂O on rat liver activities. The liver showed marginal increase in weight, while gradual decrease in the body weight was found. Moreover, acid phosphatase, glucose-6-phosphatase, and adenosine triphosphatase were decreased, while alkaline phosphatase was increased.

The effect of moderate deuteration of body fluids on bleomycin-induced lung damage in mice was also studied. Three weeks after bleomycin injection, deuterated

mice lacked signs of irreversible bleomycin-induced pulmonary damage. Lung parameters in deuterated mice were lower than those in non-deuterated mice.

These findings revealed that moderate concentrations of deuterium may prevent the development of fibrosing alveolitis in bleomycin-treated mice, possibly by reducing proliferation of alveolar fibroblasts. However, the toxicity of bleomycin is enhanced by ingestion of deuterium, which could result in morphological liver alterations.

10.1.5 Degenerative Eye Disease

The reactivity of vitamin A leading to its dimerization is believed to play a key role in forming granular deposits in the retinal pigment epithelium, which is a cause of major degenerative eye diseases. A method to slow vitamin A dimerization by enriching it with the stable isotope deuterium at carbon 20 position was investigated to elucidate the pathogenesis of macular degenerations and to develop a therapeutic intervention.

The results showed that dimerization of deuterium-enriched vitamin A was considerably slower than that of vitamin A at natural abundance as measured *in vitro*. This study suggested that administration of vitamin A enriched with the stable isotope deuterium at carbon 20 position may be a useful approach to retard vitamin A dimerization and to slow the progression of degenerative eye diseases.

The above-discussed deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on various diseases in animal models are briefly summarized in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1 Deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on diseases

Diseases	D ₂ O and deuteration effects
Hypertension	D ₂ O improves hypertensive rats with high salt diet.
	10% D ₂ O prevents elevated aortic calcium uptake.
	D ₂ O normalizes blood pressure of ethanol-treated rats
Cancers	D ₂ O shows against digestive organ cancer cell lines.
	D ₂ O inhibits growth of pancreatic cancer cells.
	30% D ₂ O retards the growth of carcinomas
Cardiac disease	D ₂ O shows benefits against cardiac injury in rats.
	Heartbeat rate in flies is decreased with D ₂ O.
	D ₂ O benefits the myocardium against ischemia, reperfusion, and chemical hypoxia
Liver disease	D ₂ O affects liver enzyme activities.
	Deuterated mice lack signs of bleomycin-induced pulmonary damage
Degenerative eye diseases	Slower dimerization in deuterium-enriched vitamin A

10.2 Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration on Health-Related Issues

Deuterium oxide increases the temperature tolerance of *Drosophila pseudoobscura* flies, when it is administered as a sucrose solution. This finding implies an increased resistance of biomolecules to thermal denaturation in deuterium oxide. Such conformational stability is attributed to the enhancement of hydrophobic interaction. Nevertheless, the increased strength of deuterated hydrogen bonds cannot be excluded.

Moreover, at the cellular level, D₂O may affect mitosis and membrane function. A low toxicity of lower concentration of D₂O toward mammals is reflected in its widespread use for measuring water spaces in humans and other animals. However, higher concentrations (usually >20% of body weight) can be toxic to animals and animal cells.

D₂O is more toxic to malignant than normal animal cells but at concentrations too high for regular therapeutic use. The effects of deuterium oxide on other health-related issues, including aging, body water, deuterium-depleted water, lipid autooxidation, and stabilization of enzymes, are discussed below.

10.2.1 Aging

Since O-D bond length is shorter than O-H, D-O-D angle is lesser than H-O-H, and deuterium bonds are stronger than proton bonds, an increase of deuterated macromolecules with aging would be expected. Once a deuterium is exchanged with a proton in a biomolecule, a conformational change in biomolecule may occur. A comparison of the mean life spans for populations of *Drosophila melanogaster* (a species of fly), which were maintained on media prepared with H₂O and with 50% D₂O, revealed that deuteration decreases longevity.

Deuteration may also slow down electron transfer in the electron transport chain by interfering with proton-coupled electron transport reactions. In the course of ATP synthase and the electron transport chain, deuteration may interfere with the conformation and function of biomolecules, leading to deuterium oxide effects on aging.

10.2.2 Body Water

The human body needs water to function the right way. *Body water is the total amount of fluid in a human body.* It helps to regulate the internal body temperature and strengthen muscles and moisturize skin. Being the primary building block for cells, *body water* is an important measure when it comes to a healthy body.

The human body contains an average of about 60% of water. However, the amount of water in the body changes slightly with age, sex, and hydration levels. The low toxicity of D₂O toward mammals is reflected in its widespread use for measuring water spaces in humans and other animals. However, higher concentrations (usually >20% of body weight) can be toxic.

A tracer dose of deuterium oxide can be applied to determine the total body water using the deuterium NMR technique. The infrared spectrophotometric method using a tracer dose of D₂O is also used to determine the total body water.

10.2.3 Deuterium-Depleted Water

In contrast to the above-discussed inhibition of tumor cell division by a low concentration of D₂O, deuterium-depleted water was found to be a promising anticancer agent with potential for future clinical application. Deuterium-depleted water has a lower concentration of deuterium (less than 145 ppm) than that occurs naturally.

10.2.3.1 Cancers

A clinical study was performed on patients with lung cancers who consumed deuterium-depleted drinking water as a nontoxic agent in addition to conventional chemotherapy and radiotherapy. The results revealed that such therapy prolongs the survival time of lung cancer patients, suggesting that deuterium-depleted drinking water may be used as a nontoxic anticancer dietary supplement. Thus, daily intake of deuterium depleted water (10–20 ppm lower deuterium content) may be a promising treatment for cancer patients.

Despite empirical evidence that deuterium-depleted water (25–125 ppm deuterium) has anticancer effect, the molecular mechanism remains unclear. A concept that is based on deuterium affecting cell signaling and tumor growth has been introduced.

10.2.3.2 Cardiovascular System

Moreover, the effects of deuterium-depleted water on the cardiovascular system were also investigated. Blood pressure and selected biochemical parameters were measured in hypertensive rats. Deuterium-depleted water treatment was found to decrease the total cholesterol and triglyceride levels in rats.

10.2.3.3 Depression

Environmental factors can significantly affect disease prevalence, including neuropsychiatric disorders such as depression. The link between deuterium content of water and depression was investigated to examine a correlation analysis between deuterium content of tap water and rates of depression. The effect of deuterium depletion on sleep electrophysiology was also evaluated in mice. Depressive-like features were reduced in mice fed with deuterium-depleted water. The result suggested that the deuterium content of water may influence the incidence of affective disorder-related pathophysiology and major depression.

10.2.3.4 Obesity

The hypothesis that deuterium-depleted water can alleviate diet-induced obesity and its associated metabolic impairments was tested by rats fed with a high-fat diet. In obese animals treated with deuterium-depleted water, the tested results indicated a reduction in inflammation, decrease in the level of oxidative stress, and an enhancement of antioxidant enzyme activities.

10.2.4 Lipid Oxidation

Due to the kinetic isotope effect, the substitution of hydrogen at the bis-allylic methylene of essential fatty acids with the isotope deuterium was found to significantly slow the lipid oxidation reaction. Such approach has the advantage of preventing the accumulation of reactive oxygen species by inhibiting the propagation of lipid peroxidation.

10.2.4.1 Neurological Conditions

Oxidative damage resulting from increased lipid peroxidation is considered an important factor in the development of late-onset/age-related Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimer's disease involves progressive deposition of amyloid β -peptide, synapse loss, and neuronal death, which occur in brain regions critical for learning and memory. Considerable evidence suggests that lipid peroxidation contributes to synaptic dysfunction and neuronal degeneration.

Essential fatty acids are useful in fighting age-related diseases such as Alzheimer and other neurological conditions. Polyunsaturated fatty acids undergo autoxidation, which generates reactive carbonyl compounds that are toxic to cells in association with age-related neurodegenerative diseases. Their autoxidation process is initiated by the abstraction of bis-allylic hydrogen atoms.

Replacement of the bis-allylic hydrogen atoms with deuterium atoms arrests polyunsaturated fatty acid autoxidation due to the isotope effect. The replacement of just one bis-allylic hydrogen atom with deuterium was found to be sufficient to significantly inhibit lipid autoxidation.

10.2.4.2 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids

Recent findings suggest that lipid peroxidation can be inhibited by the replacement of polyunsaturated fatty acids (H-PUFA) with deuterated PUFA (D-PUFA). Investigations of the effect of dietary D-PUFA on amyloid β -peptide pathology concluded that a D-PUFA diet reduces the brain tissue concentration of amyloid β -peptide.

Moreover, D-PUFAs are more resistant to the reactive oxygen species-initiated chain reaction of lipid peroxidation than H-PUFAs. Investigation of the effect of D-PUFA treatment on lipid peroxidation and cognitive performance in mice established a model of oxidative stress-related cognitive impairment that exhibits Alzheimer's disease-like pathologies. D-PUFAs were found to represent a promising new strategy to broadly reduce rates of lipid peroxidation.

10.2.5 Stabilization of Enzymes

D₂O was found to protect enzyme cholinesterase against acid denaturation. Studies of irreversible thermal inactivation of the tetrameric form of butyrylcholinesterase revealed a stabilizing effect and a shift in the transition temperature in D₂O medium. Moreover, *E. coli* ATPase located at the surface of the membrane and enzyme cytochrome c oxidase are also stabilized by deuterium oxide.

The above-discussed deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on health-related issues are summarized in Table 10.2.

10.3 Deuteration Effects on Drugs

Carbon-hydrogen bonding is particularly relevant for understanding important properties of drug molecules. Deuterated drug refers to the selective replacement of protium hydrogen in small molecule drugs with deuterium isotope. Deuteration of a drug is most likely to affect pharmacokinetic properties. The metabolism of drugs may be favorably influenced when deuterium is substituted for protium, resulting in improved safety, tolerability, or efficacy.

Development of deuterated drugs such as deutetrabenazine is briefly described below. A more detailed description of deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on pharmacology is discussed in the following chapter.

Table 10.2 Deuterium oxide and deuteration on health-related issues

Health-related issues	D ₂ O or deuteration effect
Aging	Deuteration decreases longevity. D ₂ O slows electron transport chain
Body water	< 20% D ₂ O used for measuring body water. Tracer dose of D ₂ O used to determine body water
Deuterium-depleted water	Potential anticancer agent for clinical applications. A promising treatment for cancer patients. Decrease in cholesterol and triglyceride levels in rats
Lipid autoxidation	Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids are more resistant to the reactive oxygen-initiated lipid peroxidation than hydrogenated ones
Neurotransmitter related enzyme	D ₂ O protects cholinesterase against acid denaturation

10.3.1 Development of Deuterated Drugs

Deuterated compounds may offer advantages over nondeuterated forms through alterations in clearance. Deuteration may also redirect metabolic pathways in directions that reduce toxicities. To improve pharmacokinetics, metabolism, and excretion of medicine, deuterated drugs are being developed to treat various diseases.

Deuterated versions of existing drugs can exhibit improved pharmacokinetic or toxicological properties, due to the stronger deuterium-carbon bond that modifies their metabolism. Deuteration may change the pathway of drug metabolism, leading to increased duration of action and lower toxicity. Some deuterated drugs may also show different transport processes.

For example, deutetetrabenazine is a deuterated form of tetrabenazine. It is the first deuterated medication that has been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for therapeutic use to treat chorea in Huntington's disease. The substitution of deuterium for hydrogen at key positions in the tetrabenazine molecule allows a longer drug half-life and less frequent daily dosing. Deutetetrabenazine also improves chorea in Huntington's disease with less adverse effects.

10.3.2 Deutetetrabenazine

Deuterated drugs that have been evaluated in clinical trials include tetrabenazine, paroxetine, and dextromethorphan. Deutetetrabenazine is a derivative of tetrabenazine in which two trideuteromethoxy groups substitute two methoxy groups. It is the first deuterated drug to receive approval for the treatment of chorea associated with Huntington's disease. Chorea is the most common motor manifestation of Huntington's disease, an inherited neurodegenerative disorder that can interfere with daily activities, reduce the quality of life, and cause injury.

Deutetrabenazine has been shown to be as effective as tetrabenazine but has a lower risk of adverse effects. Moreover, the active metabolites of deutetrabenazine have a longer half-life than those of tetrabenazine, together with a greater overall absorption. Deutetrabenazine's favorable pharmacokinetic profile permits a lower dosage than tetrabenazine, thereby potentially improving the safety profile of deutetrabenazine versus tetrabenazine, while maintaining its efficacy.

Bibliography

- Altermatt HJ, Gebbers J-O, Laissue JA (1988) Heavy water delays growth of human carcinoma in nude mice. *Cancer* 62:462–466
- Altermatt HJ, Gebbers JO, Laissue JA (1990) Heavy water enhances the antineoplastic effect of 5-fluoro-uracil and bleomycin in nude mice bearing human carcinoma. *Int J Cancer* 45(3):475–480
- Bashir H, Jankovic J (2018) Deutetrabenazine for the treatment of Huntington's chorea. *Expert Rev Neurother* 18(8):625–631
- Bila WC, Mariano RM, Silva VR et al (2017) Applications of deuterium oxide in human health. *Isot Environ Health Stud* 53(4):327–343
- Das A, Sinha S, Acharya BR et al (2008) Deuterium oxide stabilizes conformation of tubulin: a biophysical and biochemical study. *BMB Rep* 41(1):62–67
- Dean M, Sung VW (2018) Review of deutetrabenazine: a novel treatment for chorea associated with Huntington's disease. *Drug Des Devel Ther* 12:313–319
- Dufner D, Previs SF (2003) Measuring in vivo metabolism using heavy water. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 6(5):511–517
- Elharram A, Czegledy NM, Golod M et al (2017) Deuterium-reinforced polyunsaturated fatty acids improve cognition in a mouse model of sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *FEBS J* 284(23):4083–4095
- Gaeng DP, Geiser M, Cruz-Orive LM et al (1995) Paradoxical effects of bleomycin and heavy water (D₂O) in mice. *Int J Cancer* 62(6):784–790
- Gyongyi Z, Budan F, Szaboo I et al (2013) Deuterium depleted water effects on survival of lung cancer patients and expression of Kras, Bcl2, and Myc genes in mouse lung. *Nutr Cancer* 65(2):240–246
- Halenova T, Zlatskiy I, Syroeshkin A et al (2019) Deuterium-depleted water as adjuvant therapeutic agent for treatment of diet-induced obesity in rats. *Molecules* 25(1):23
- Hartmann J, Bader Y, Horvath Z et al (2005) Effects of heavy water (D₂O) on human pancreatic tumor cells. *Anticancer Res* 25(5):3407–3411
- Hill S, Lamberson CR, Xu L et al (2012) Small amounts of isotope-reinforced polyunsaturated fatty acids suppress lipid autoxidation. *Free Radic Biol Med* 53(4):893–906
- Howland RH (2015) Deuterated Drugs. *J Psychosoc Nurs Ment Health Serv* 53(9):13–16
- Hughes AM, Tolbert BM, Lonberg-Holm K et al (1958) The effect of deuterium oxide on survival of mice with ascites tumor. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 28:58–61
- Ishikawa Y, Kitagawa H, Sawada T et al (2019) Deuterium oxide protects against myocardial injury induced by ischemia and reperfusion in rats. *Scand Cardiovasc J* 53(6):329–336
- Kanwar KC, Verma R (1977) Biologic effects of orally administered deuterium oxide on rat liver. *Exper Pathol* 13(4–5):255–261
- Kaufman Y, Ma L, Washington I (2011) Deuterium enrichment of vitamin a at the C20 position slows the formation of detrimental vitamin a dimers in wild-type rodents. *J Biol Chem* 286(10):7958–7965

- Khaled MA, Lukaski HC, Watkins CL (1987) Determination of total body water by deuterium NMR. *Am J Clin Nutr* 45(1):1–6
- Kleemann J, Reichenbach G, Zöller N et al (2020) Heavy water affects vital parameters of human melanoma cells in vitro. *Cancer Manag Res* 12:1199–1209
- Krempels K, Somlyai I, Somlyai G (2008) A retrospective evaluation of the effects of deuterium depleted water consumption on 4 patients with brain metastases from lung cancer. *Integr Cancer Ther* 7(3):172–181
- Kushner DJ, Baker A, Dunstall TG (1999) Pharmacological uses and perspectives of heavy water and deuterated compounds. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 77(2):79–88
- Mariano RM, Bila WC, Trindade MJ et al (2017) Biotechnological patents applications of the deuterium oxide in human health. *Recent Pat Biotechnol* 11(2):76–84
- Marissa Dean M, Sung VW (2018) Review of deutetrabenazine: a novel treatment for chorea associated with Huntington's disease. *Drug Des Devel Ther* 12:313–319
- McWilliam TM, Liepins A, Rankin AJ (1992) The effect of chronic and acute administration of deuterium oxide (D₂O) on vascular smooth muscle contraction in spontaneously hypertensive and Wistar-Kyoto rats. *Gen Pharmacol* 23(4):709–713
- Olgun A, Oztürk K, Bayir S et al (2007) Deuteronation and aging. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1100:400–403
- Pittendrigh CS, Cosbey ES (1974) On the very rapid enhancement by D₂O of the temperature-tolerance of adult drosophila. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 71(2):540–543
- Pirali T, Serafini M, Cargnin S et al (2019) Applications of deuterium in medicinal chemistry. *J Med* 62(11):5276–5297
- Raefsky SM, Furman R, Milne G et al (2018) Deuterated polyunsaturated fatty acids reduce brain lipid peroxidation and hippocampal amyloid β -peptide levels, without discernable behavioral effects in an APP/PS1 mutant transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 66:165–176
- Rehakova R, Klimentova J, Cebova M et al (2016) Effect of deuterium-depleted water on selected cardiometabolic parameters in fructose-treated rats. *Physiol Res* 65(Suppl 3):S401–S407
- Russak EM, Bednarczyk EM (2019) Impact of deuterium substitution on the pharmacokinetics of pharmaceuticals. *Ann Pharmacother* 53(2):211–216
- Samis HV, Baird MB, Massie HR (1974) Deuterium oxide effect on temperature-dependent survival in populations of *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Science* 183(4123):427–428
- Strekalova T, Evans M, Chernopiatko A et al (2015) Deuterium content of water increases depression susceptibility: the potential role of a serotonin-related mechanism. *Behav Brain Res* 277:237–244
- Takeda H, Nio Y, Omori H (1998) Mechanisms of cytotoxic effects of heavy water (deuterium oxide: D₂O) on cancer cells. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* 9(8):715–725
- Uemura T, Moritake K, Akiyama Y (2002) Experimental validation of deuterium oxide-mediated antitumoral activity as it relates to apoptosis in murine malignant astrocytoma cells. *J Neurosurg* 96(5):900–908
- Vasdev S, Prabhakaran VM, Whelan M et al (1994) Fructose-induced hypertension, hypertriglyceridemia and elevated cytosolic calcium in rats: prevention by deuterium oxide. *Artery* 21(3):124–147
- Vasdev S, Gupta IP, Sampson CA, Longrich L, Parai S (1993) Deuterium oxide normalizes blood pressure and elevated cytosolic calcium in rats with ethanol-induced hypertension. *Can J Cardiol* 9(9):802–808
- Vasdev S, Sampson CA, Longrich L, Parai S (1991) Deuterium oxide prevents hypertension and elevated cytosolic calcium in hypertensive rats. *J Hypertens* 18:550–557
- White LA, Ringo JM, Dowse HB (1992) Effects of deuterium oxide and temperature on heart rate in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *J Comp Physiol B* 162(3):278–283

Part VI
Applications of Deuterium Oxide and
Deuteration to Pharmacology

Chapter 11

Deuterium Oxide Effects on Thermostability of Vaccines



Live-attenuated vaccines such as polio, influenza, yellow fever, measles, and mumps vaccines are made up of proteins, nucleic acids, lipids, and carbohydrates. The stability of these vaccines is a key factor to preserve their potency and efficiency. In addition to being affected by pH and ionic strength, vaccines also undergo changes on exposure to heat.

The thermal degradation rate of a vaccine is determined by the storage temperature. For instance, reconstituted measles vaccine rapidly loses potency at room temperature. At 22–25 °C, there is usually a 50% loss in potency in 1 h. At higher temperatures, the reconstituted vaccine loses potency even more rapidly.

Moreover, oral polio virus vaccine, an effective immunizing agent, is a living, attenuated virus. Like most viruses, it is unstable, except when held at very low temperatures in the frozen state. Polio vaccine strains lose infectivity, when they are stored above refrigerator temperatures. These losses increase rapidly at a higher temperature.

Developing vaccine formulations with good thermostability and immunogenicity remains a great challenge. Consequently, research to reduce vaccine storage problems in heat climates is an active area of research. To improve the stability of vaccine, a number of additives have been studied, including sugars (lactose and sorbitol), amino acids (histidine and alanine), and divalent cations (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) in phosphate buffer. For instance, MgCl_2 has been incorporated to stabilize oral poliovirus vaccine.

Biomolecular stabilization has been applied to stabilize biologicals such as pirodavir, a class of antipicornavirus compounds. Pirodavir inhibits the thermal denaturation of viral capsid. A combination of pirodavir and deuterium oxide leads to an additive effect. Similarly, research to reduce poliovirus vaccine storage problems in heat climates in deuterium oxide medium has also been carried out.

Oral polio vaccine containing deuterium oxide, instead of ordinary water, was found to allow potency to be maintained for 7 days at 37 °C without significant loss. Moreover, the addition of deuterium oxide to MgCl_2 was even more promising,

making the poliovirus vaccine more thermostable than in ordinary water containing MgCl_2 alone.

The addition of deuterium oxide to tissue culture cell harvests stabilizes oral poliovirus vaccine, prompting the examination of the effect of deuterium oxide on the stabilization of other viral vaccines. In live influenza vaccines, thermal stabilization with deuterium oxide was found to be greater than seen with standard stabilization with sucrose-phosphate-glutamate.

Such stabilization effect afforded by deuterium oxide also includes influenza A and B vaccines, yellow fever vaccine, and Newcastle disease virus vaccine. Nevertheless, in spite that deuterium is a stable isotope without radioactivity, concerns have been raised about clinical applications of deuterium oxide-containing vaccines.

11.1 Stabilizers of Vaccines

Viruses are grown in primary cells or on continuous cell lines, while bacteria are grown in bioreactors. Antigen that triggers the immune response is generated and isolated from the cells. Vaccines contain tiny fragments of their active component. The immune system recognizes the invading germ, virus, or bacteria. A vaccine works with the body to produce antibodies by the immune system to fight disease.

Vaccine is manufactured by adding adjuvants to increase the immune response of the antigen. Stabilizers are then added to enhance the storage life of the vaccine. Preservation of biological products is an important task in maintaining the quality of medical products. Potency and thermal stability are crucial for the control of the effectiveness of a vaccine.

Vaccines, such as polio, influenza, yellow fever, measles, and mump vaccines, consist of proteins, nucleic acids, lipids, and carbohydrates, which undergo changes when expose to heat. Hence, live-attenuated viral vaccines usually require cold chain maintenance during storage and distribution. In addition, the thermostability of vaccine in solution is also influenced by pH and ionic strength. The stability of vaccine must be determined empirically through various testing. Hence, a number of stabilizers are currently used to help retain the quality of vaccines.

Deuterium oxide has previously been reported to have a protective effect on biomolecules, cells, and organisms against thermal degradation. D_2O has been applied to demonstrate its potential in the stabilization of vaccines such as polio, yellow fever, and others.

The potential of applying D_2O in the stabilization of veterinary vaccines is also under investigations.

11.1.1 Preservation of Vaccines

Preservation of vaccines and other biologicals is one of the important tasks in maintaining the quality of the products from manufacture until they reach the users. Live-attenuated viral vaccines, serum immunoglobulins, plasma fractions, and clinical samples including tissues and body fluids are all materials that usually require cold chain maintenance during storage and distribution.

Among these medical products, the stability of vaccine is a key factor to preserve vaccine potency and efficiency, as its potency decays over time. Like many biological preparations, vaccines are unstable during storage. The instability can reduce the safety and efficacy of vaccines. The choice of stabilizers for viral vaccine formulation depends mainly on the structure and property of viral antigen in the vaccine or its active pharmaceutical ingredient.

11.1.2 Temperature Factor

Significant changes in the stability of vaccines may occur following their exposure to temperature stresses. For example, reconstituted measles vaccine rapidly loses potency at room temperature. At 22–25 °C, there is usually a 50% loss in potency in 1 h. At higher temperatures, measles vaccine loses potency even more rapidly and cannot be used. Moreover, vaccine, such as oral polio vaccine, loses infectivity when it is stored above refrigerator temperatures. Yellow fever vaccine is also subject to potentially adverse conditions under thermal stress. The sensitivity of vaccines to temperature has led to the development of storage requirements for them.

Enhancement of thermostability of vaccines can lead to the improvement of vaccine effectiveness. Knowledge of the stability of vaccine, particularly the rate of decline in potency at a given temperature, can be helpful in determining the vaccine storage requirements. Physical and chemical analyses enable the characterization of the degradative pathways of thermally labile vaccines, leading to the development of approach to the stabilization of them.

11.1.3 Additives to Stabilize Vaccines

As indicated above, potency and thermal stability are crucial for the control of the final vaccine product. Specifically, at room temperature, reconstituted measles vaccine rapidly loses potency with a 50% loss in potency in 1 h. At higher temperatures, the measles vaccine loses potency even more rapidly and cannot be used. To improve the thermal stability of vaccine, a number of additives have been investigated.

One conventional method is the addition of a stabilizer, such as 1 molar MgCl_2 or 35–50% sucrose to vaccines. Other successful formulation includes sugars,

amino acids, or divalent cations, such as lactose (4%), sorbitol (2%), histidine (0.01 M), and alanine (0.01 M) in phosphate buffered saline with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} . The vaccine produced with such stabilizers commonly loses about 20% of its effectiveness after being maintained at 37 °C for 14 days.

For example, when molar MgSO_4 is added, measles vaccine is more stable, losing about 0.3 log10 in 30 min at 50 °C. Yellow fever, an acute mosquito-borne viral fever, is preventable by use of the live-attenuated vaccine. To improve its stability, a number of additives have been systematically investigated, including sugars, amino acids, and formulated solution [lactose (4%), sorbitol (2%), histidine (0.01 M), alanine (0.01 M)] in phosphate buffered saline with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} .

Moreover, deuterium oxide has been known for a long time to exhibit a protective effect on biomolecules, cells, and organisms against thermal shock. For instance, effects of deuterium oxide on the thermostability of recombinant p26 protein were shown in carbonate-bicarbonate coating buffer prepared in 60% and 80% D_2O for the diagnosis of equine anemia virus infection. A gradual increase in the stabilization effect of D_2O at elevated temperature was observed, which provides the thermal protection to p26 protein up to 2 months of incubation at 45 °C.

The applications of deuterium oxide as the stabilizer for biomolecules and medical products against thermal destabilization are further elaborated below.

11.1.4 Deuterium Oxide as Stabilizer

Understanding the basis of D_2O action is an important step that may improve the way that thermolabile medical products are stored. D_2O has been reported to stabilize attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation. A considerable increase in the stability of its folded basin leads to a higher melting temperature in D_2O as compared with H_2O .

The hydration dynamics of the RNA has also been explored in both H_2O and D_2O media, which revealed a considerable increase in the stability of the folded basin in D_2O medium. Such increase in the stability of the folded basin in the D_2O medium has been studied through intramolecular hydrogen bonding and flexibility of RNA structures. RNA hairpin contains a base pair motif, which is conserved in poliovirus-like enteroviruses.

Two different inactivation mechanisms are believed to be responsible for the thermolability of the vaccine. They are the denaturation of the viral capsid and the degradation of the viral RNA within the capsid. Research to reduce vaccine storage problems in heat climates in deuterium oxide medium has also been actively carried out.

The observation that the addition of deuterium oxide to tissue culture cell harvests stabilizes oral poliovirus vaccine prompts the examination of the effect of

deuterium oxide on stabilization of other viral vaccines, such as influenza A and B vaccines, yellow fever vaccine, and Newcastle disease virus vaccine. The implications of deuterium oxide for stabilization of these vaccines have important practical applications.

Despite D_2O having been known to stabilize attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation, its molecular mechanism of action is still under investigation. D_2O is assumed to strengthen the hydrogen bonding network in the solvent, lengthen inter-residue water-bridge lifetime, and weaken dynamical coupling of the hairpin to its solvation environment.

In the following, thermal stabilization effects on various vaccines, including oral poliovirus vaccine, influenza virus vaccine, Newcastle disease virus vaccine, and measles vaccine, are discussed.

11.2 Thermostability of Polio Vaccine

Eradication of poliomyelitis is based on the mass administration of oral poliovirus vaccine, which is widely accepted as an effective immunizing agent. The vaccine has essentially prevented the appearance of new poliomyelitis cases in the world. Poliovirus vaccine contains a living, attenuated virus, which is considered the most thermolabile of all the common childhood vaccines.

Like most viruses, polio vaccine is unstable except when held at very low temperatures in the frozen state. The major difficulty in assuring good vaccine coverage, especially in hot climates, is the thermostability of the vaccine. Delivery of effective vaccines in the developing world, especially in tropical areas, is compromised when refrigeration cannot be assured.

11.2.1 Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by $MgCl_2$

To maintain its potency, oral polio vaccine is stored and shipped frozen. After thawing, it is held in the refrigerator at no more than $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for a period not to exceed a week. Attempts to minimize the losses of polio vaccine effectiveness generally rely on the addition of salts such as $MgCl_2$. A concentration of one molar $MgCl_2$ is currently used as stabilizer for oral poliovirus vaccine.

The $MgCl_2$ -stabilized vaccine elicits an antibody response in humans equal to that of standard vaccine maintained in the frozen state, which is thawed just before administration. Although oral poliovirus vaccine can be held for long at $4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with $MgCl_2$ as the stabilizer, the vaccine cannot hold in 3 days at $37\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and in 3 h at $45\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

11.2.2 Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by D₂O

As mentioned above, efforts to reduce polio vaccine storage problems in high heat climates were carried out. A most reported effective condition is the maintenance of the pH at 6.5 as well as the incorporation of deuterium oxide. Oral polio vaccine containing deuterium oxide instead of ordinary water allows potency to be maintained for 7 days at 37 °C without significant loss, which is a significant improvement in comparison with other additives, such as sucrose or MgCl₂, detergents, albumin, or antiviral compounds.

In spite that D₂O has been shown to increase the thermostability of polio vaccine, especially at temperatures that are commonly encountered during transportation, safety considerations regarding the human use of deuterium oxide-containing bio-products have been raised due to deuterium being an isotope of hydrogen, in spite that deuterium exhibits no radioactivity.

11.2.3 Thermal Stabilization of Polio Vaccine by D₂O and MgCl₂

As discussed above, the effect of different stabilizers on the loss of infectivity of live polio vaccine at various temperatures has been examined, which revealed that maintaining at pH 6.5 and the use of deuterium oxide at a concentration of 90% are the most effective conditions. All other additives such as detergents, albumin, antiviral compounds, sucrose, and magnesium chloride (alone or in combination) exhibit no comparative effectiveness. Poliovirus vaccine is the most extensively studied vaccine that is stabilized by deuterium oxide.

The oral poliovirus vaccines prepared with three live-attenuated polioviruses (Sabin strains, serotypes 1, 2, and 3) are considered as most thermolabile of vaccines. Improved thermostabilizing effect was found in all three Sabin strains with a combined 87% D₂O and one molar MgCl₂. Attempts were made to elucidate the mechanisms underlying the thermal stabilization of these three serotypes of poliovirus vaccine strains by D₂O and MgCl₂.

Temperature-dependent fluorescence emission studies showed that the effects of D₂O and MgCl₂ on the stability and conformation of poliovirus are correlated with those of the infectivity of poliovirus. The rigidity of poliovirus conformation is increased in the presence of D₂O-MgCl₂. The involvement of hydrogen bonding in the D₂O effect was also demonstrated by the greatly increased value of relative fluorescence intensity.

With stronger hydrogen bonds, D₂O protects virus proteins against denaturation and enhances the thermostability of poliovirus. D₂O and MgCl₂ were also found to reduce the interaction of the virus with water, which leads to a decline in the extent of water penetration into the poliovirus capsid. These observations were found to be more profound in a combination of D₂O and MgCl₂ than in D₂O or MgCl₂ alone.

By inducing a conformation favorable to maintaining the poliovirus assembly and by reducing virus-water interaction to decrease water penetration into the poliovirus capsid, a combination of D₂O and MgCl₂ enables to exert their thermal stabilization effect. Maintaining the assembly and conformation of the virus and reducing the swelling of the virus capsid are two mutually complementary factors. The latter can provide a favorable environment for the former, and the former, in turn, lead to the latter.

Although clinical data have shown the safety of deuterium oxide at the dosage that would be given with polio vaccine, reservations are raised about the public acceptability of polio vaccine with the addition of deuterium oxide. As a result, this area of research has not been pursued further. Nevertheless, this issue deserves further investigation.

11.3 Thermostability of Other Vaccines by D₂O

As indicated above, preservation of vaccines, viruses, and other biologicals is one of the critical tasks in maintaining the quality of medical products from manufacture until they reach the users. Live-attenuated viral vaccines usually require cold-chain maintenance. Deuterium oxide has been reported to have a protective effect on biomolecules and organisms against thermal shock.

In addition to the above-discussed poliovirus vaccine, D₂O has also been demonstrated in the stabilization of other vaccines, including influenza vaccine, yellow fever vaccine, and Newcastle disease virus vaccine. Thermal stabilization effects on these vaccines by deuterium oxide are described below.

11.3.1 *Influenza Vaccine*

Influenza vaccination represents the basis of influenza prevention. In manufacture, influenza vaccines are formulated as liquid, which is unstable at ambient temperatures and required to be stored and distributed under refrigeration. In order to maintain stabilization, influenza vaccines can be brought into the dry state using suitable stabilizers and drying processes. The resulting stabilized influenza vaccine powder is independent of cold-chain facilities.

However, the status of influenza vaccine development remains a challenge. The ultimate market is the introduction of a stable and effective dry-powder influenza vaccine. The above finding that the addition of deuterium oxide to tissue culture cell harvests stabilizes oral poliovirus vaccine leads to the examination of D₂O effect on stabilization of influenza vaccine.

Investigations of the thermal stabilization effect of deuterium oxide on live-attenuated influenza A and B vaccines grown in embryonated eggs revealed that thermal stabilization with D₂O is much greater than seen with standard stabilization

of these live influenza vaccines with sucrose-phosphate-glutamate. Such findings that D₂O is able to stabilize influenza vaccine have important practical application.

11.3.2 Yellow Fever Vaccine

Yellow fever, an acute mosquito-borne viral fever, is preventable by the use of the live, attenuated vaccine produced using the 17D strain of yellow fever attenuated virus. The vaccine is used principally in tropical climates and is subject to potentially adverse conditions. Lyophilized vaccine without stabilizers deteriorates rapidly when exposed to temperatures above -20 °C.

A successful formulation used by various manufacturers employs sugars, amino acids, lactose (4%), sorbitol (2%), histidine (0.01 M), and alanine (0.01 M) in phosphate-buffered saline with divalent cations Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺. Despite its stability when freeze-dried, yellow fever 17D vaccine is quite unstable after reconstitution.

Several stabilizers are currently used to help retain the quality of vaccines during transit. Deuterium oxide has previously been reported to have a protective effect on biomolecules, cells, and organisms. The stabilizing effect of D₂O was also demonstrated in the yellow fever 17D vaccine virus strain. Analyzing its stability using different reconstitution solutions revealed that 90% D₂O shows the best stabilizing effect for yellow fever vaccine under thermal treatment of 37 °C up to 24 h.

11.3.3 Newcastle Disease Virus Vaccine

Newcastle disease virus is a paramyxovirus that bears two envelope glycoproteins at the virion surface. The development of Newcastle disease virus vaccine is based on immunization with avian cells expressing glycoprotein. Then, recombinant cells constitutively expressing at the surface of this glycoprotein are generated. They are used to immunize chickens and birds.

The loss in vaccine potency due to inactivation of the virus was studied in vitro at various time intervals. The thermostability of Newcastle disease virus vaccine was compared by reconstituting commercially available vaccine with diluents prepared in H₂O and 80% D₂O at ambient temperature. Reconstitution of freeze-dried Newcastle disease virus vaccine in 80% D₂O diluent was found to maintain the vaccine stability for 50 h or more at 35 °C temperatures without significant deterioration in potency.

The above-discussed D₂O protection effects on various vaccines, including polio vaccine, influenza vaccine, yellow fever vaccine, and Newcastle disease virus vaccine, imply that the potential of using deuterium oxide to stabilize other biologicals is anticipated. For instance, it has also been known that deuterium oxide exhibits protective effects on attenuated viral RNA as discussed above.

Table 11.1 Deuterium oxide effects on thermostability of vaccines

Vaccine	D ₂ O or deuteration effect
Polio vaccine	D ₂ O exhibits significantly thermal stabilization effect
	More stabilized by a combination of D ₂ O and MgCl ₂ than D ₂ O alone
Influenza vaccine	D ₂ O is a greater stabilizer than standard stabilization with sucrose-phosphate-glutamate
Yellow fever vaccine	90% D ₂ O shows the best stabilizing effect
Newcastle disease	D ₂ O maintains the vaccine stability for more
Virus vaccine	Than 50 h at 35 °C
Heroin vaccine	Deuterated vaccine produces greater efficacy than protium vaccine
Veterinary vaccines	Exploration of stabilization by D ₂ O is under investigation

In summary, deuterium oxide effects on thermal stabilization of various vaccines are briefly described in Table 11.1. These findings imply the potential development of thermal stabilization of veterinary vaccines by deuterium oxide. Future exploration in this area of research is needed.

11.4 Mechanism of D₂O as Vaccine Stabilizer

An important issue in the applications of deuterium oxide to thermal stabilization of various vaccines is the elucidation of the mechanism of stabilization. As mentioned above, experimental evidence indicates that D₂O reduces the interaction of the virus with water, leading to the enhancement of the rigidity conformation of the virus by increasing hydrophobic interaction of the virus and the decrease of the penetration of water into the virus capsid.

In vaccines, D₂O was found to reduce the interaction of the virus with water, resulting in a decline in the extent of water penetration into the virus capsid. Consequently, the rigidity of virus conformation is increased in the presence of D₂O. The involvement of hydrogen bonding in the D₂O effect was demonstrated by a significant increase in relative fluorescence intensity and changes in circular dichroism spectra. For example, the induction of conformation favorable to maintaining the poliovirus assembly and the reduction of virus-water interaction leads to decreasing water penetration into the poliovirus capsid. Consequently, D₂O enables to exert its thermal stabilization effect on polio vaccine.

The proposed involvement of hydrogen bonding is consistent with the finding that D₂O stabilizes attenuated viral RNA against thermal degradation by enhancing the stability of the folded basin. As monitored through intramolecular hydrogen bond, D₂O strengthens the hydrogen bonding network of RNA and lengthens inter-residue water bridge lifetime.

Maintaining the virus assembly and conformation and reducing the swelling of the virus capsid are the two key factors that contribute to the increase in the

thermostability of poliovirus by deuterium oxide. Future investigations in vaccine systems other than poliovirus vaccine are needed to further elucidate the mechanism of D₂O effect on thermostability of vaccines in general.

11.5 Stabilization by Deuteration: Heroin Vaccine

Development of a heroin vaccine is a major research focal point. An efficient vaccine against heroin is required to generate not only a potent immune response but also respond against heroin and its multiple psychoactive molecules. Selective deuteration of a heroin hapten and its impact on the immune response against heroin and its psychoactive metabolites was investigated and compared for deuterium and protium heroin haptens. The results revealed that the deuterated vaccine exhibited a greater efficacy as compared to the protium vaccine. These findings suggested that selective deuteration of heroin hapten could be useful for developing vaccine against heroin abuse.

11.6 Concerns About Deuterium as an Isotope

Although deuterium is a nonradioactive isotope of hydrogen and has been extensively applied to various medical fields, concerns have been raised in clinical research due to deuterium being an isotope. Further research is needed to address such a concern, particularly, the clinical applications of deuterium oxide to thermal stabilization of various vaccines.

Besides the concern of deuterium as an isotope, another issue that also requires attention is that deuterium oxide exhibits toxicity toward mammals at a concentration >20%. Accordingly, further research concerning the applications of D₂O to health-related issues may also require to address its effects on cells, including cytotoxicity, cytostatic activity, antineoplastic effect, antimetabolic activity, and nucleic acid synthesis.

Bibliography

- Adebayo AA, Sim-Brandenburg JW, Emmel H et al (1998) Stability of 17D yellow fever virus vaccine using different stabilizers. *Biologicals* 26(4):309–316
- Ahlers J, Foret M, Lemm U (1983) Does 2H₂O also protect membrane-bound enzymes? *Enzyme* 30(1):70–73
- Amorij J-P, Huckriede A, Wilschut J et al (2008) Development of stable influenza vaccine powder formulations: challenges and possibilities. *Pharm Res* 25(6):1256–1273
- Belz TF, Bremer PT, Zhou B et al (2020) Enhancement of a heroin vaccine through hapten deuteration. *J Am Chem Soc* 142(31):13294–13298

- Brandau DT, Jones LS, Wiethoff CM et al (2003) Thermal stability of vaccines. *J Pharm Sci* 92(2):218–231
- Cardoso FMC, Petrovajová D, Horňáková T (2017) Viral vaccine stabilizers: status and trends. *Acta Virol* 61(3):231–239
- Chen CH, Wu R, Roth LG et al (1997) Elucidating mechanisms of thermostabilization of poliovirus by D₂O and MgCl₂. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 342(1):108–116
- Cosset FL, Bouquet JF, Drynda A et al (1991) Newcastle disease virus (NDV) vaccine based on immunization with avian cells expressing the NDV hemagglutinin-neuraminidase glycoprotein. *Virology* 185(2):862–866
- Crainic R, Wu R, Otelea D et al (1996) The replacement of water with deuterium oxide significantly improves the thermal stability of the oral poliovirus vaccine. *Dev Biol Stand* 87:161–166
- Galazka A, Milstien J, Zaffran M (1998) Thermostability of vaccines. Global programme for vaccine and immunization. World Health Organization
- Gandge R, Londhe SP, Sherikar AA (2012) Thermostabilization of live Newcastle disease virus (La Sota) vaccine using deuterium oxide (D₂O). *Indian J Animal Sciences* 82(12):1518–1520
- Gross PR, Harding CV (1961) Blockade of deoxyribonucleic acid synthesis by deuterium oxide. *Science* 133(3459):1131–1133
- Heyde C, Wenzel M (1991) Heavy water (D₂O) as a protective protein containing medium. Example: human cholinesterase. *Z Naturforsch C J Biosci* 46(9–10):789–793
- Ikizler MR, Wright PF (2002) Thermostabilization of egg grown influenza viruses. *Vaccine* 20(9–10):1393–1399
- Lovalenti PM, Anderl J, Yee L et al (2016) Stabilization of live attenuated influenza vaccines by freeze drying, spray drying, and foam drying. *Pharm Res* 33(5):1144–1160
- Masson P, Laurentie M (1988) Stability of butyrylcholinesterase: thermal inactivation in water and deuterium oxide. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 957(1):111–121
- Melnick JL (1996) Thermostability of poliovirus and measles vaccines. *Dev Biol Stand* 87:155–160
- Melnick JL, Ashkenazi A, Midulla VC et al (1963) Immunogenic potency of MgCl₂ - stabilized oral poliovaccine. *JAMA* 185(5):406–408
- Milstien JB, Lemon SM, Wright PF (1997) Development of a more thermostable poliovirus vaccine. *J Infect Dis* 175(Suppl 1):S247–S253
- Milstien JB, Lemon S (1996) Regulatory considerations for new stabilized poliovaccines. *Dev Biol Stand* 87:181–189
- Newman JF, Tirrell S, Ullman C et al (1996) Stabilizing oral poliovaccine at high ambient temperatures. *Dev Biol Stand* 87:103–111
- Monath TP (1966) Stability of yellow fever vaccine. *Dev Biol Stand* 87:219–225
- Pathak AK, Bandyopadhyay T (2017) Water isotope effect on the thermostability of a polio viral RNA hairpin: a metadynamics study. *J Chem Phys* 146(16):165104
- Perraut R, Girault G, Moreau JP (2000) Stability-related studies on 17D yellow fever vaccine. *Microbes Infect* 2(1):33–38
- Pipkin PA, Minor PD (1998) Studies on the loss of infectivity of live type 3 poliovaccine on storage. *Biologicals* 26(1):17–23
- Sen A, Balamurugan V, Rajak KK et al (2009) Role of heavy water in biological sciences with an emphasis on thermostabilization of vaccines. *Expert Rev Vaccines* 8(11):1587–1602
- Singha H, Goyal SK, Malik P, Singh RK (2014) Use of heavy water (D₂O) in developing thermostable recombinant p26 protein based enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for serodiagnosis of equine infectious anemia virus infection. *Sci World J Jan* 9:620906
- Sood DK, Aggarwal RK, Sharma SB et al (1993) Study on the stability of 17D-204 yellow fever vaccine before and after stabilization. *Vaccine* 11(11):1124–1128
- Verheyden B, Andries K, Rombaut B (2001) Capsid and RNA stabilization of the oral polio vaccine. *Vaccine* 19(15–16):1899–1905
- Wu R, Georgescu MM, Delpyroux F et al (1995) Thermostabilization of live virus vaccines by heavy water (D₂O). *Vaccine* 13(12):1058–1063

Chapter 12

Deuterium Oxide and Deuteration Effects on Pharmacology



A critical area of pharmacologic research involves the study of how a body processes a drug, including the time course of absorption, distribution, bioavailability, metabolism, and excretion. To improve the effectiveness of therapeutics of drugs, research has been carried out to prolong the residence time of drug in plasma to achieve greater efficacy and alter the rate of metabolism to afford greater tolerability.

Another critical area of pharmacologic research is the studies of the reactions between drugs and living systems, including the investigation of the body's biological responses to drugs as well as biochemical or molecular interactions between the drug and the human body.

The above two important areas of research are referred to as pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics, respectively. In pharmacodynamics, the drug molecule interacts with the target receptor to create the desired therapeutic effect, where the interaction is directly correlated to the drug concentration. While the pharmacokinetic process involves adsorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity of the drug. The present chapter is most focused on pharmacokinetics than pharmacodynamics.

Improvement of the half-life of a drug can lower the dose of the medication and limits the formation of toxic metabolites. If the drugs are metabolized and excreted too quickly during the pharmacokinetics, then they are unable to produce the desired therapeutic effect. Thus, change in metabolism may affect the duration of drug action and the toxicity of metabolites.

Deuteration is commonly used in the studies of metabolism of drugs or toxic substances in human health. To slow down the metabolic process and improve the half-life of the drugs, incorporation of deuterium in the drugs (referred to as deuterated drugs) has been carried out. In many cases, the metabolism of the drugs may be favorably influenced when deuterium is substituted for protium in drug molecules, resulting in improved safety, tolerability, or efficacy.

If the deuterium is strategically located in a drug's chemical structure, the extra stability of the bond will be more resistant to metabolic breakdown, and the duration of drug action can be prolonged, leading to deuterated drugs often being more resistant to metabolic changes. Thus, due to the stronger deuterium-carbon bond that modifies their metabolism, deuterated versions of existing drugs can exhibit improved pharmacokinetic or toxicological properties.

Moreover, the deuteration effect also involves chemical reactions, such as changes in the rate of cleavage of covalent bonds to an atom located adjacent to deuterium in a reactant molecule. Such changes in the rate of bond breaking can lead to the primary kinetic isotopic effect, resulting in slowing down the metabolic pathway, reducing systemic clearance, and an improved half-life and bioavailability of a drug.

The effects of deuterium oxide on living systems can be classified into two categories: (a) solvent effect based on the properties of D_2O molecule as a whole in particular its effects on the structure of water around biological macromolecules and (b) deuteration effect resulting from the ability of deuterium to replace with hydrogen in biological molecules.

The physical basis of deuterium oxide solvent effect is mainly due to the differences in polarities and noncovalent interactions, including ionic, Van der Waals interaction, hydrogen bonding, and hydrophobic interaction. While deuteration effects can affect noncovalent interactions between biomolecules and solvent. The sizes of deuterated versus nondeuterated molecules and the extent of noncovalent interactions depend on the site of deuteration within a biomolecule.

Moreover, since the C-D bond is stronger than the C-H bond, C-D bond is more resistant to enzymatic cleavage, such as oxidative processes catalyzed by cytochrome P450 or by other enzymes which are involved in metabolism where the C-H bond cleavage is the rate-limiting step. A strategy to take advantage of deuterium over hydrogen is in terms of atomic mass.

Deuterium forms bonds with carbon that vibrate at a lower frequency. Therefore, C-D bonds are thus stronger than C-H bonds. If a particular C-H bond in a drug molecule is known to be broken during metabolisms, then swapping that hydrogen for deuterium can slow the process down. Hence, deuterium versions of drugs may last longer in the body.

12.1 Pharmaceutical Processes

Potential effects of deuterium oxide and deuteration on pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics that drugs encounter in the body are summarized in Table 12.1. Pharmacologic research on deuterium oxide not only investigates its effect on the reactions between drugs and living systems but also biochemical or molecular interactions between the drug and the human body.

As mentioned before, pharmacokinetics studies how the body processes a drug, such as the time course of absorption, distribution, bioavailability, metabolism, and

Table 12.1 Examples of pharmacological and biochemical processes that deuterium oxide and deuteration encounter

Deuterium oxide/ deuteration effect	Pharmacological/biochemical process
Deuterium oxide solvent effects	Strengthening hydrogen bonding network
	Affecting degradation of biomolecules, enzyme catalytic reactions, and drug degradation reactions
	Toxicity to cells at D ₂ O > 20% of body weight
Deuteration substitution effects	Stronger C-D bond than C-H bond
	Potential improvement of the safety, efficacy, and tolerability of a therapeutic agent

excretion. Various factors affecting pharmacokinetics of drugs include the water solubility and the degree of drug dissociation. If the drug is metabolized and excreted too quickly, then it is no longer available to produce the desired therapeutic effect. In contrast, *pharmacodynamics* refers to the studies of the reaction between a drug and the living systems, including the body's response to drugs and the interactions between the drug and the human body.

12.2 Deuterium Oxide Solvent Effects

Deuterium oxide solvent effects occur when deuterium replaces hydrogen in many pharmacological and biological systems. Among them is the degradation rate of drug and its related mechanism. Distinctive physical and chemical properties of deuterium oxide in comparison with hydrogen oxide leads to variations in molecular properties of biomolecules as H₂O is replaced with D₂O as the solvent, such as hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interaction.

For example, the strengthening of hydrogen bonding network by D₂O was demonstrated in studying RNA stability, which revealed that deuterium oxide stabilizes attenuated viral RNA hairpin against its thermal degradation and lengthens its lifetime of inter-residue water bridge. A significant increase in the stability of RNA hairpin due to a higher melting temperature in D₂O as compared with H₂O was also found.

Other investigations of deuterium solvent effects on pharmacology and biomolecules include enzyme-catalyzed reactions and the degradation of drug-related metabolism. For instance, D₂O affects catalytic reactions of **cytochrome** P450s (CYP450s), the most important enzyme in the activation metabolism of drugs. Moreover, D₂O was found to affect hydroxide ion-catalyzed degradation reaction of penicillin. At below pH (pD) 6, penicillin exhibits a ratio of 1.53 for the rate constants for the H- and D-substituted reactants.

In contrast to the above beneficial effects, potential toxic effect of deuterium oxide on living cells was also examined. At a higher concentration (usually >20% of body weight), deuterium oxide can be toxic to human cells. Nevertheless, at a low concentration, deuterium oxide can be helpful to health-related issues, such as its effects on human diseases and its application to measure body water.

Examples of pharmacological and biochemical processes that deuterium oxide encounters are briefly summarized in Table 12.1.

12.3 Deuteration Effects

Since many drugs are carbon-based compounds, carbon-hydrogen bonding is particularly important for understanding the properties of drug molecules. A deuterated drug is a drug in which the hydrogen atom in one or more of the carbon-hydrogen bonds in its chemical structure is replaced by deuterium-carbon bonds.

Selective replacement of hydrogen atoms with deuterium (deuteration) in drug has a benefit of retaining the pharmacologic profile of active drug compound. In addition, it also has an impact on drug metabolism, leading to potential benefit to improve the safety, efficacy, and tolerability of a therapeutic agent.

In spite that the complexity of biological systems can make the applications of deuteration to drugs highly unpredictable, deuterated drugs with well-defined pharmacological effects can potentially provide an efficient approach to creating new medicines that meet important medical requirements (Table 12.2).

Table 12.2 Potential D₂O and deuteration effects on drug molecules

D ₂ O/deuteration	Effect on drug molecules
Deuterium oxide as solvent	Deuterium bonding versus hydrogen bond
	Affecting the degradation rate of drug
	Slower rate of metabolic breakdown
Deuteration	Affecting catalytic reactions of drug metabolism enzymes
	Stronger C-D bond than C-H bond
	Slowing down metabolic process
	Changing the pathway of drug metabolism
	Increasing half-life of drug
	Lowering the dose of medication
	Reducing toxic metabolites

12.3.1 *Effects of Deuteration on C-H Bond*

A larger atomic mass of **deuterium** (D) implies a C-D bond having a lower **vibrational frequency** and lower zero-point energy than a corresponding C-H bond. A lower zero-point energy translates to a higher **activation energy**, which leads to a slower reaction rate constant for C–D bond. Because a C-D bond is more stable than a C-H bond, a chemical bond is harder to break with a heavier deuterium isotope.

When the cleavage of a C-H bond is the rate-determining step, a slower rate of bond cleavage can result in deuterium kinetic isotope effect. Such an effect has the potential to affect biological processes of many drugs that are metabolized by involving C-H bond. As a result, the substitution of C-H bond by C-D bond can lead to enhancing pharmacokinetic profile of a drug.

Selective deuteration has a unique effect of retaining the pharmacologic profile of drugs. Due to the higher mass of deuterium (D) compared with hydrogen (H), the C-D bond is much more resistant toward oxidative processes, such as shown in cytochrome P450-catalyzed reactions.

Since it is harder for a metabolizing enzyme to break the C-D bond, the replacement of H with D can slow the related reaction as bond breaking is a rate-determining step. Slowing down the metabolic pathway can lead to reduced systemic clearance, which results in an improved half-life and bioavailability of drugs.

12.3.2 *Deuteration Kinetic Isotope Effect*

Deuteration kinetic isotope effect is the relative change in the rate of a chemical reaction when one of the atoms in the reactants is substituted with one of its isotopes. A lower zero-point energy translates to a higher **activation energy** for C-D bond cleavage and a slower reaction rate (k). The primary deuteration **isotope** effect is expressed as k_H/k_D , the ratio of the **reaction rate constants** of C–H versus C–D bond cleavage.

The deuteration effect on drugs is associated with an increase in the kinetic isotope effect of pharmaceutical substances. The substitution of C-H bond by C-D bond leads to enhancing the pharmacokinetic profile of drugs, which allows developing pharmaceuticals that exhibit improvement in pharmacokinetics, decreasing their toxicity, and changing the mechanism of their action. Deuterated drugs may also offer advantages over nondeuterated drugs through alterations in clearance and metabolic pathways.

Accordingly, the goals of deuterated drugs are to improve half-life, lower the dose of the medication, limit the formation of toxic metabolites, and enhance the metabolic profile. Since deuteration is an effective tool for the enhancement of a drug's metabolic profile, medicinal chemists have also used deuterated drug candidate to slow enzyme metabolisms, especially those changes mediated by the enzyme cytochrome P450s.

Moreover, the deuterated forms of drugs often have different actions than the protonated forms by showing different transport processes. Deuteration may also change the pathway of drug metabolism, referred to as metabolic switching. Changes in metabolism may lead to increased duration of action and lower toxicity. For example, deuteration can lower the genotoxicity of anticancer drugs, such as tamoxifen.

Selective replacement of hydrogen with deuterium can also lead to increased bond strength. In turn, deuteration can enhance the biological half-life and metabolic stability of the drug. Meanwhile, selective replacement of hydrogen with deuterium has the unique benefit of retaining the drug pharmacologic profile.

12.3.3 Deuteration Effects on Pharmacokinetics

Two broad areas of clinical pharmacology are pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. Pharmacokinetics is concerned with what the body does to the drug, including absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of drugs, while pharmacodynamics is involved with the body's biological response to drugs.

The pharmacokinetic properties of drugs may be altered by deuteration effects. To gain information on the application of deuteration to alter drug pharmacokinetics, it is important to understand the drug clearance mechanism, the metabolic enzymes involved, and the differences in systemic clearance mechanisms.

Drug metabolism involves the breaking of chemical bonds. Selective replacement of hydrogen with deuterium can lead to increased bond strength, which in turn increases the half-life and metabolic stability of the drug. Factors that delay or inhibit the breaking of chemical bonds can lead to increasing the half-life of a drug.

Researchers in the pharmaceutical industry use deuterium as a tool to improve drug properties. Deuterated drugs that have been evaluated in clinical studies are such as paroxetine, tetrabenazine, and dextromethorphan. Since deuteration of a drug is most likely to affect pharmacokinetic rather than pharmacodynamic properties, deuteration has gained attention on its potential effects on the pharmacokinetic metabolic profiles.

The kinetic isotope effect was explored by studying reaction mechanisms as the cleavage of an isotope bond is the rate-determining reaction. An understanding of enzymatic reaction mechanism, metabolic clearance of drug, and systemic clearance mechanisms is critically important to the pharmacokinetic application of deuteration kinetic isotope effects.

One important factor for most drugs is the rate of metabolism. Slowing the rate of metabolism of a drug will increase its half-life. The dosage of drugs is designed such that the blood concentration of the drug falls between below the required threshold and the high exhibiting toxicity. Knowledge of the dose, time, and frequency keeps the blood level of the drug within the therapeutic window as much as possible throughout the course of therapy.

The applications of deuteration as a strategy to alter drug pharmacokinetics are elaborated below, using cytochrome oxidases, anthocyanins, and peptide drugs as examples.

12.3.3.1 Enzymes

Investigations of deuterium isotope effects on pharmacokinetics of enzyme CYP450s (CYP3A4 and CYP2C19) with specifically deuterated form revealed the complexity of deuteration as an approach for improving their pharmacokinetics when enzymes are involved in metabolic clearance. Pharmacologists have also used the deuterium kinetic isotope effect to slow the CYP450 metabolism of the deuterated versions of drug candidates.

Interestingly, the magnitude of the intrinsic clearance isotope effect is dependent on the position and extent of deuteration. With one chemotype, no intrinsic clearance deuterium isotope effect was found, whereas with the other chemotype, the rate-limiting step was isotopically sensitive.

12.3.3.2 Anthocyanins

Anthocyanins are plant metabolites that have valuable applications as natural food colorants. Due to their antioxidant and anticancer properties, anthocyanins are also known for their beneficial health effects. Stable versions of these molecules are applied to investigate pharmacokinetic properties of anthocyanins and to obtain the effectiveness of their therapeutic results.

Deuterated anthocyanin from *Escherichia coli* was produced in the culture medium containing deuterated glycerol and D₂O, which resulted in the formation of deuterated cyanidin 3-glucoside, an anthocyanin. Studies of the deuterium exchange of O-D and C-D bonds revealed that deuterated cyanidin 3-glucoside is more stable as compared to nondeuterated one.

12.3.3.3 Peptide Drugs

The main problem for peptide-based drugs is their low degree of cellular uptake. Due to the conformational flexibility and the interaction of proteases with backbone amide bonds, peptide drugs tend to exhibit poor pharmacokinetic properties. To improve this problem, *stapled peptides* were developed, which bring an external brace to force the peptide structure into an α -helical conformation by using hydrocarbon cross-linking strategy.

Studies of the conformational dynamics of peptide drugs revealed that in stapled peptides, amide exchange is reduced depending on staple placement and deuteration kinetics is correlated directly with the rate of proteolysis for improving the properties of peptide drugs.

12.4 Deuterated Drug Molecules

As discussed above, deuterium is gaining increasingly applied as a component of active pharmaceutical ingredients, in which selective hydrogen atoms in a drug molecule are replaced with deuterium atoms. The kinetic isotope effect of deuterated drugs allows a new direction in the development of pharmaceuticals. While deuterium drugs retain the potency of their hydrogen analogs, they often exhibit different pharmacokinetic properties in comparison with protonated ones, such as improved safety, tolerability, or efficacy.

Deuterated-containing drugs may also offer advantages in metabolic pathways, including lowering metabolic rate and more resistant to metabolic changes. Beyond the improvement of such pharmacokinetic parameters, deuteration in medicinal chemistry may also provide an opportunity to improve problems in terms of metabolism-mediated toxicity, drug interactions, and bioactivation in addition to lowering the degree of epimerization and reducing the dose of administered drug.

Examples of pharmacological effects on deuterated drugs, including paroxetine, delta-tocotrienol, 7-ethoxy coumarin, enzalutamide, vismodegib, deutetrabenazine, and 2',3',5',5''-tetradeuterated uridines, are briefly discussed below.

12.4.1 *Paroxetine*

In deuterated paroxetine, the two hydrogen atoms at the methylenedioxy carbon are substituted with deuterium atoms. Although deuterated paroxetine shows similar selectivity for serotonin receptor and neurotransmitter uptake inhibition as unmodified paroxetine, human liver microsomes clear deuterated paroxetine faster than nondeuterated one.

Moreover, deuterated paroxetine is metabolized more rapidly and exhibits a lower pharmacokinetic accumulation index than nondeuterated one. These results revealed that deuteration can improve the metabolism profiles of existing pharmacotherapies of paroxetine without affecting its intrinsic pharmacology.

12.4.2 *Delta-tocotrienol*

Delta-tocotrienol is a member of vitamin E family. The deuterium substituted delta-tocotrienol derivative, d_6 -delta-tocotrienol, was synthesized to examine the metabolic stability of delta-tocotrienol. The result showed that deuterated delta-tocotrienol improved its metabolic stability as compared to the nondeuterated one.

12.4.3 7-Ethoxy Coumarin

7-Ethoxy coumarin was employed as a model substrate in the reactions catalyzed by enzyme CYP450s. Kinetic isotope effects were applied to probe the aspects of CYP450 kinetics. Enzymes CYP450 1A2 and 2E1 are known to be major catalysts of 7-ethoxy coumarin O-deethylation in human liver microsomes.

In addition, human CYP450 1A2 was known to catalyze 3-hydroxylation of 7-methoxy coumarin at appreciable rates, where the C-H bond-breaking step is a major contribution to the reaction rate. Deuterium isotope effects were applied to estimate the intrinsic kinetics of 7-methoxy or 7-ethoxy coumarin dealkylation reaction.

12.4.4 Enzalutamide

Enzalutamide is a competitive inhibitor of the androgen receptor and is used for the treatment of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. To attenuate the N-demethylation pathway, hydrogens of the N-CH₃ moiety are replaced by deuterium atoms. The results revealed that deuterated d₃-enzalutamide shows similar pharmacological activities but exhibits more favorable pharmacokinetic properties. The maximum velocity and Michaelis constant of d₃-enzalutamide in human liver microsomes were found to be 72.9% lower than those of the nondeuterated compound, and the exposure of the N-demethyl metabolite is many folds lower.

12.4.5 Vismodegib

Vismodegib is a drug used for the treatment of basal cell carcinoma. Analogs of vismodegib with deuterium for hydrogen replacement at certain metabolically active sites were found to have better pharmacokinetic properties than nondeuterated vismodegib. By prolonging blood circulation half-life time, the deuterated vismodegib also alters better blood circulation behavior as compared to the nondeuterated one.

12.4.6 Deutetrabenazine

The pharmacokinetics and safety of deutetrabenazine in comparison with tetrabenazine were investigated to evaluate the impact of deuteration on pharmacokinetics of their active metabolites (alpha-dihydrötetrabenazine and beta-dihydrötetrabenazine) with respect to their metabolite profile, safety, and tolerability. Deutetrabenazine

Table 12.3 Pharmacological effects of deuterated drug molecules

Deuterated drug	Pharmacological effects
Deutetrabenazine	Better pharmacokinetic profiles
	Longer half-lives for active metabolites
Delta-tocotrienol	Improvement of metabolic stability
Enzalutamide	Favorable pharmacokinetic properties
7-Ethoxy coumarin	Kinetic isotope effects for probing
	CYP450 catalyzed reaction
Paroxetine	Improvement of metabolism profiles lowering pharmacokinetic accumulation
2',3',5',5''-tetradeuterated uridines	Synthesizing deuterium-substituted nucleic acid probes
Vismodegib	Prolonging blood circulation half-life time
	Better blood circulation
Peptide drugs	Affecting rates of proteolysis to improve drug properties
	Better pharmacokinetic properties

was found to result in a better pharmacokinetic profile and an increase in the ratio of active to inactive metabolites. These findings confirmed that deutetrabenazine exhibits longer half-lives for active metabolites as compared with tetrabenazine.

12.4.7 2',3',5',5''-Tetradeuterated Uridines

2',3',5',5''-Tetradeuterated uridine derivatives are synthesized from 2,3,5,5'-selectively tetradeuterated ribose. The deuterium content of the tetradeuterated uridines is over 92%. These derivatives are expected as building blocks for the synthesis of deuterium-substituted nucleic acid probes for tracking the pharmacokinetics of nucleic acid drugs.

In summary, the above-discussed pharmacological effects of deuterated drugs are briefly presented in Table 12.3.

12.5 Metabolic Actions of Deuterated Drugs

Since a carbon-deuterium (C-D) bond is more stable than a carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bond, the extra stability of C-D bond will be more resistant to metabolic breakdown, and the duration of drug action will be prolonged if the deuteration is strategically located in a drug's chemical structure.

One of the most important contributing to the half-life of drugs is the rate of drug metabolism. Factors that slow the rate of drug metabolism will enhance its half-life. Since drug metabolism involves the breaking of chemical bonds, inhibition or

delaying the breaking of chemical bonds will increase the drug half-life. To slow down the metabolic process and improve the half-life of drugs, researchers have incorporated deuterium in the drug structures.

Moreover, due to having a longer half-life than nondeuterated counterparts, deuterated drugs would produce different metabolites. The improved half-life may lower the dose of the medication, so as to limit the formation of toxic metabolites. Consequently, the toxicity of many known drugs can be modified by selective deuteration.

12.6 Deuterabenazine: First Approved Deuterated Drug

As discussed above, researchers are interested in replacing C-H bond with C-D bond in drug molecules to extend the lifetime of active drugs, so as to improve their pharmacokinetic and toxicological properties for better efficacy with reducing clinical dosage. One of the deuteration ideas is to prolong the residence time of the active drug species in plasma to achieve greater efficacy and to avoid its adverse side effects. Using deuterium to replace hydrogen in drug molecules was also sought to inhibit metabolic conversion to less active or inactive molecules.

Deutetabenazine, a version of [tetrabenazine](#), is the first deuterated drug molecule approved by US Food and Drug Administration to use for treating chorea associated with Huntington's disease. Chorea is the most common motor manifestation of Huntington's disease. The disease may interfere with daily activities. [Tetrabenazine](#) has been used for the treatment of such movement disorders.

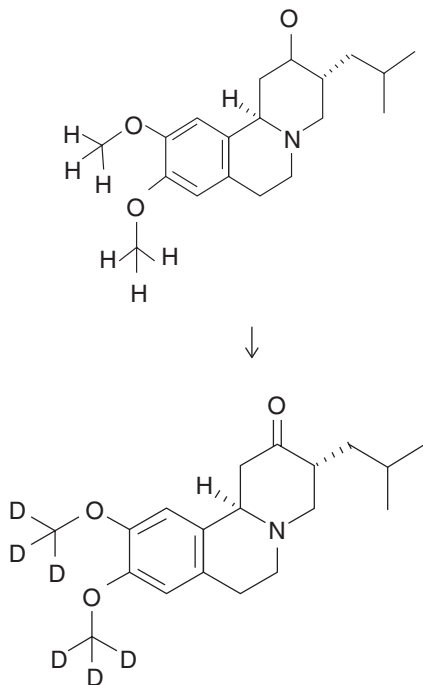
In deuteration, the two methoxy groups are replaced by two trideuteromethoxy groups in deutetabenazine. Differences in pharmacokinetics are shown in comparison of deutetabenazine with [tetrabenazine](#), including alteration of the rate of metabolism, leading to greater tolerability and improving dosing regimen.

Moreover, deutetabenazine hinders oxidative metabolism of the methoxy groups, thus providing the primary kinetic isotope effect. In addition to being as effectiveness as tetrabenazine in the treatment of Huntington's disease, deutetabenazine also has a lower risk of adverse effects than [tetrabenazine](#).

Deuteration of tetrabenazine to deutetabenazine is presented in Fig. 12.1, where the two methoxy groups on its aryl ring and the methoxys are demethylated to the phenol or catechol. Such replacement of OCH_3 with OCD_3 alters pharmacokinetic and toxicological properties of this drug.

Comparative assessment of deutetabenazine and tetrabenazine on their pharmacokinetics and safety has been performed. Deutetabenazine is as effective as tetrabenazine in the treatment of chorea but has a lower risk of adverse effects. The effects of food on absorption of the deuterated active metabolites, α - and β -dihydroxytetrabenazines, were also examined. Both studies confirmed longer half-life for active metabolites and lower metabolites in comparison of deutetabenazine with tetrabenazine.

Fig. 12.1 Deuteration of tetrabenazine to deutetrabenzazine



Moreover, enzymes CYP450s are most responsible for the activation metabolism of most drugs. Other enzymes in drug metabolism include [monoamine oxidase](#), [alcohol dehydrogenase](#), and [aldehyde oxidase](#). Deutetrabenzazine was found to exhibit a lower rate of metabolism of its active metabolites, α - and β -dihydrotetrabenazines, by CYP2D6 enzyme.

In addition, the pharmacokinetics and safety of deutetrabenzazine and its metabolites were also assessed by examining the effects of paroxetine, a potent CYP2D6 inhibitor. Paroxetine administration was found to increase the exposure of the deuterated active metabolites, α - and β -dihydrotetrabenazines. Such increases were shown to be less than those previously reported for tetrabenazine. These findings implied that deutetrabenzazine reduces the burden of drug interaction.

12.7 Other Deuterated Drugs

Among other deuterated drugs are dextromethorphan/quinidine and paroxetine. *Dextromethorphan/quinidine* belongs to a class of medications called central nervous system agents, which is used to treat agitation in patients with Alzheimer-type dementia. Paroxetine is a class of medications called selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors, which is used to treat depression.

Deuterated (d6)-dextromethorphan/quinidine is a compound under recent clinical development. Deuteration appears to prolong dextromethorphan's plasma half-life and facilitate brain penetration. Its pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic profiles and safety issues were under discussion. A clinical development program of deuterated (d6)-dextromethorphan/quinidine for Alzheimer-type dementia agitation has been initiated.

Moreover, the two hydrogen atoms at the methylenedioxy carbon of paroxetine were substituted with deuterium. This new chemical entity is called CTP-347, which demonstrates similar selectivity for the serotonin receptor and the neurotransmitter uptake inhibition as unmodified paroxetine. However, human liver microsomes clear CTP-347 faster than unmodified paroxetine. In addition, CTP-347 is metabolized more rapidly in humans and exhibits a lower pharmacokinetic accumulation index than paroxetine.

12.8 Future of Deuterated Drugs

Drugs are mainly metabolized in the liver, which is often carried out through breaking C-H bonds in drug molecules. The placement of hydrogen with deuterium can also have a significant effect on slowing down the liver's clearance mechanism. The ideas of deuteration also include prolonging the residence time of the active drug species in plasma to achieve greater efficacy and to avoid adverse side effects. Ongoing clinical trials suggest that a number of other deuterated drug molecules are being developed and evaluated for the treatments of various diseases.

As discussed above, deuteration is an effective method for the enhancement of metabolic profile of drugs. Selective replacement of hydrogen with deuterium leads to increased bond strength, which in turn increases the biological half-life and the metabolic stability of drugs. Accordingly, many known drugs can be modified by selective deuteration, leading to improving their pharmacokinetic properties.

Moreover, the incorporation of deuterium into pharmacologically active agents offers potential benefits resulting in a decrease in the production of toxic metabolites and improvements in efficacy, tolerability, or safety. Deuterated drugs can also resist metabolic degradation and remain active for longer in the body than the non-deuterated ones.

In conclusion, deuterium oxide and deuteration have potential utilization in pharmaceutical industries, leading to developing new medications. An increase in recent interests in deuterated medicines is reflected by a greater number of patent filings. Deuterium-modified drugs that are being developed include dextromethorphan, ruxolitinib, ivacaftor, pioglitazone, and linoleic acid. Early clinical results have been encouraging. The advancement of these deuterated drug candidates should play an important role in the applications of deuterium oxide and the developments of deuterated drugs for clinical applications.

Bibliography

- Bashir H, Jankovic J (2018) Deutetrabenazine for the treatment of Huntington's chorea. *Expert Rev Neurother* 18(8):625–631
- Blake MI, Crespi HL, Katz JJ (1975) Studies with deuterated drugs. *J Pharm Sci* 64(3):367–391
- Cargnin S, Serafini M, Piralì T (2019) A primer of deuterium in drug design. *Future Med Chem* 11(16):2039–2042
- DeWitt SH, Maryanoff BE (2018) Deuterated drug molecules: focus on FDA-approved deutetrabenazine. *Biochemist* 57(5):472–473
- Dunsaed C, Dornish J, Aastveit T, Pettersen E (1993) In vivo pharmacokinetics of the antitumor agent 4,6-benzylidene-d-glucose (bg) and a deuterated analog 4,6-benzylidene-d1-d-glucose (p-1013) in mice, rats and dogs. *Int J Oncol* 2(1):61–66
- Dunsaed CB, Dornish JM, Pettersen EO (1995) The bioavailability and dose dependency of the deuterated anti-tumour agent 4,6-benzylidene-d1-D-glucose in mice and rats. *Cancer Chemo Pharmacol* 35(6):464–470
- Eric Shi XE, Wales TE, Elkin C et al (2013) Hydrogen exchange-mass spectrometry measures stapled peptide conformational dynamics and predicts pharmacokinetic properties. *Anal Chem* 85(23):11185–11188
- Garay RP, Grossberg GT (2017) AVP-786 for the treatment of agitation in dementia of the Alzheimer's type. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 26(1):121–132
- Gupta M, Zha J, Zhang X et al (2018) Production of deuterated Cyanidin 3- O-glucoside from recombinant *Escherichia coli*. *ACS Omega* 3(9):11643–11648
- Harbeson SL, Tung RD (2011) Deuterium in drug discovery and development. *Ann Rep Med Chem* 46:403–417
- Howland RH (2015) Deuterated drugs. *J Psych Nurs Ment Health Serv* 53(9):13–16
- Jiang J, Pang X, Li L et al (2016) Effect of N-methyl deuteration on metabolism and pharmacokinetics of enzalutamide. *Drug Des Devel Ther* 10:2181–2191
- Kaur S, Gupta M (2017) Deuteration as a tool for optimization of metabolic stability and toxicity of drugs. *Global J Pharm Pharma Sci*:2573–2250
- Kerrigan S (2009) Deuterated therapeutics: forensic toxicology consequences. *J Anal Toxicol* 33(7):393–394
- Kim K-H, Isin EM, Yun C-H et al (2006) Kinetic deuterium isotope effects for 7-alkoxycoumarin O-dealkylation reactions catalyzed by human cytochromes P450 and in liver microsomes. Rate-limiting C-H bond breaking in cytochrome P450 1A2 substrate oxidation. *FEBS J* 273(10):2223–2231
- Kumar V, Dhyani A, Singh N (2019) Deuteration as a tool for enhancing the half-life of drug. *Inter J Engin Adv Tech* 8(6S4):19–20
- Kushner DJ, Baker A, Dunstall TG (1999) Pharmacological uses and perspectives of heavy water and deuterated compounds. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 77(2):79–88
- Liu X, Gao Z, Fu Q et al (2020) Deuteration of the farnesyl terminal methyl groups of δ -tocotrienol and its effects on the metabolic stability and ability of inducing G-CSF production. *Bioorg Med Chem* 28(11):115498
- Lowe D (2017) The first deuterated drug arrives. *Sci Transla Med*. April 20
- Miyamoto N, Ohno H, Kitamura Y et al (2020) Practical and reliable synthesis of 2',3',5',5"-tetra-deuterated uridine derivatives. *Nucleotides Nucleic Acids* 39(1–3):236–244
- Moiola M, Memeo MG, Quadrelli P (2019) Stapled peptides - a useful improvement for peptide-based drugs. *Molecules* 24(20):3654
- Mullard A (2016) Deuterated drugs draw heavier backing. *Nature Rev Drug Disc* 15:219–221
- Pathak AK, Bandyopadhyay T (2017) Water isotope effect on the thermostability of a polio viral RNA hairpin: a metadynamics study. *J Chem Phys* 146(16):165104
- Piralì T, Serafini M, Cargnin S et al (2019) Applications of deuterium in medicinal chemistry. *J Med Chem* 62(11):5276–5297

- Raffa RB, Pergolizzi JV, Taylor R (2018) The first approved “deuterated” drug: a short review of the concept. *Pharmacol Pharma* 9:440–446
- Russak EM, Bednarczyk EM (2018) Impact of deuterium substitution on the pharmacokinetics of pharmaceuticals. *Ann Pharmacother*:1–6
- Russak EM, Bednarczyk EM (2019) Impact of deuterium substitution on the pharmacokinetics of pharmaceuticals. *Ann Pharmacother* 53(2):211–216
- Schneider F, Bradbury M, Baillie TA et al (2020a) Pharmacokinetic and metabolic profile of deutetribenazine (TEV-50717) compared with tetrabenazine in healthy volunteers. *Clin Transl Sci* 13(4):707–717
- Schneider F, Stamler D, Bradbury M et al (2020b) Pharmacokinetics of deutetribenazine and tetrabenazine: dose proportionality and food effect. *Clin Pharmacol Drug Dev* 10(6):647–659
- Schneider F, Stamler D, Bradbury MJ et al (2022) The effect of potent CYP2D6 inhibition on the pharmacokinetics and safety of deutetribenazine in healthy volunteers. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 78(1):11–18
- Sharma R, Strelevitz TJ, Gao H et al (2012) Deuterium isotope effects on drug pharmacokinetics. I. System-dependent effects of specific deuteration with aldehyde oxidase cleared drugs. *Drug Metab Dispos* 40(3):625–634
- Shao L, Michael C, Hewitt MC (2010) The kinetic isotope effect in the search for deuterated drugs. *Drug News Perspect* 23(6):398–404
- Stephen MR (2017) Heavy drugs: an emerging tool for an improved half life of the drugs and lead compounds. *Biorg Org Chem* 1(1):3–4
- Sun H, Piotrowski DW, Orr S et al (2018) Deuterium isotope effects in drug pharmacokinetics II: substrate-dependence of the reaction mechanism influences outcome for cytochrome P450 cleared drugs. *PLoS One* 13(11):e0206279
- Syroeshkin V, Elizarova TE, Pleteneva TV et al (2020) The influence of deuterium on the properties of pharmaceutical substances. *Drug Develop Regist* 9(2):24–32
- Timmins GS (2014) Deuterated drugs: where are we now? *Expert Opin Ther Pat* 24(10):1067–1075
- Timmins GS (2017) Deuterated drugs; updates and obviousness analysis. *Expert Opin Ther Pat* 27(12):1353–1361
- Tung RD (2014) Deuterium medicinal chemistry - concert pharmaceuticals. *Medchem News* 2:8–22
- Tung RD (2016) Deuterium medicinal chemistry comes of age. *Future Med Chem* 8(5):491–494
- Uttamsingh V, Gallegos R, Liu JF et al (2015) Altering metabolic profiles of drugs by precision deuteration: reducing mechanism-based inhibition of CYP2D6 by paroxetine. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 354(1):43–54
- Wade D (1999) Deuterium isotope effects on noncovalent interactions between molecules. *Chem Biol Interact* 117(3):191
- Wang E, Jiang H, Deng Y et al (2018) Design, synthesis and biological evaluation of deuterated Vismodegib for improving pharmacokinetic properties. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 28(14):2399–2402
- Yamana T, Tsuji A, Kiya E, Miyamoto E (1977) Physicochemical properties of beta-lactam antibacterials: deuterium solvent isotope effect on penicillin G degradation rate. *J Pharm Sci* 66(6):861–866
- Yarnell AT (2009) Heavy-hydrogen drugs turn heads, again *Chem. Eng News* 87(25):36–39

Index

C

- Circular dichroism
 - nucleic acids, 111
 - protein and peptide, 110

D

- Deuterabenazine, 173–174
- Deuterated biomolecules
 - preparations, 8–9
- Deuterated drug molecules
 - delta-tocotrienol, 170, 172
 - deutetrabenazine, 170–172
 - enzalutamide, 170–172
 - 7-ethoxy coumarin, 170–172
 - paroxetine, 170, 172
 - 2',3',5',5"-tetradeuterated uridines, 170, 172
 - vismodegib, 170–172
- Deuteration effects
 - effects of deuteration on C-H bond, 167
 - health, 10, 11, 135–146
 - kinetic isotope effect, 167–168
 - pharmacology, 12, 163–175
 - thermal stabilization of vaccines, 11
- Deuteration effects on biochemical reactions
 - enzyme-lipid interaction, 98
 - lipid transition, 97
 - nucleotide binding, 97
 - protein dynamics, 97–98
 - protein stability, 96–97
- Deuteration effects on biological membranes
 - essential fatty acids, 74
 - lipid bilayers, 74
 - membrane proteins, 74
- Deuteration effects on biomolecules
 - lipid, 66–68
 - nucleic acids, 66, 68
 - proteins, 66–67
- Deuteration effects on drugs
 - deuterated drugs, 145
 - deutetrabenazine, 145–146
- Deuteration effects on hydrogen bonding
 - lipids, 40
 - nucleic acids, 40
 - proteins, 39–40
- Deuteration effects on hydrophobic interaction
 - lipids, 54
 - nucleic acids, 54
 - proteins, 54
- Deuteration effects on lipid
 - antioxidants, 130
 - lipid peroxidation, 130
- Deuteration effects on pharmacokinetics
 - anthocyanins, 169
 - cytochrome oxidases, 169
 - peptide drugs, 169
- Deuteration of biomolecules
 - kinetics of deuteration, 24
 - metabolism of deuteration, 24
- Deuterium bond
 - bond energy, 30–31
 - vibrational energy, 30
- Deuterium effects on hydrogen bond
 - lipids, 37–39
 - nucleic acids, 37, 38
 - proteins, 37–38
- Deuterium nuclear magnetic resonance
 - cellulose, 114
 - lipid, 114
 - protein, 113

- Deuterium oxide (D₂O), 3–5, 7, 9–11, 16–18, 20–22, 35, 37, 43, 50–53, 59–66, 73–79, 87, 88, 90–92, 94–96, 101, 102, 106, 107, 110, 111, 121, 123–128, 135–142, 144, 145, 151, 152, 154–160, 164–166, 175
- Deuterium oxide and deuteration effects on diseases
- cancers, 136, 138–139
 - cardiac disease, 139
 - degenerative eye disease, 140
 - hypertension, 136–138
 - liver disease, 136, 139–140
- Deuterium oxide and deuteration on health-related issues
- aging, 141, 145
 - body water, 141–142, 145
 - cancers, 142, 145
 - cardiovascular system, 142
 - enzymes, 141, 144
 - lipid oxidation, 143–144
 - obesity, 143
- Deuterium oxide effects on biomembranes
- ion channel, 76, 77
 - lipid phases, 78, 79
 - membrane potentials, 75
 - membrane transports, 77
 - structures and functions, 74, 75
- Deuterium oxide effects on biomolecules
- enzyme, 62
 - lipid, 63, 64, 66–68
 - nucleic acids, 64, 65
 - peptide, 62
 - protein, 9, 60–66
- Deuterium oxide effects on hydrophobic interaction
- lipids, 51–52
 - nucleic acids, 51, 52
 - proteins, 50–52
- Deuterium oxide kinetic effects
- primary kinetic isotope effects, 92, 93
 - secondary kinetic isotope effects, 92, 93
 - solvent kinetic isotope effects, 92, 94
 - vibrational energies, 92–93
- Deuterium oxide solvent effects
- diseases, 10, 166
 - health, 166
 - pharmacokinetics
- Deuterium oxide thermodynamic effects
- bacteria, 91, 92
 - lipids, 88
 - nucleic acids, 88, 90
 - proteins, 88
- Differential scanning calorimetry
- lipid, 108
 - nucleic acid, 108
 - peptide, 108, 109
 - protein, 108
 - virus, 108
- D₂O effects on enzyme-catalyzed reactions
- effects on hydrolysis reaction, 96
 - primary kinetic isotope effects, 95
 - secondary kinetics isotope effects, 95
- D₂O vs. H₂O as the solvent
- membrane transport, 21–23
 - molecular interaction, 21–23
 - structure stability, 21–23
- E**
- Effects of deuterium oxide on cells
- antimitotic action, 127, 128
 - antineoplastic effect, 125, 126, 128
 - antiproliferative effect, 127
 - cytostatic activity, 125, 126, 128
 - cytotoxicity, 125, 128
 - nucleic acid synthesis, 125, 127–128
- F**
- Fluorescence spectroscopy
- lipid, 106
 - peptide, 106
 - protein, 106
 - vaccine, 106
- Future of deuterated drugs, 175
- G**
- Growth of organism in D₂O
- algae, 123
 - animal cells, 124
 - bacteria, 124
 - moss, 123
 - yeast, 123
- H**
- Health, 4, 10, 11, 131, 135, 136, 141, 160, 163, 166, 169
- Hydrogen bond
- bond energy, 38
 - donors and acceptors, 30
 - vibrational energy, 30
- Hydrogen oxide (H₂O), 5, 16–18, 20, 43, 136, 165

Hydrophobic interaction

D₂O vs. H₂O, 6–7, 43–54

Hydrophobicity in biomolecules

lipids, 48–49

nucleic acids, 48

proteins, 48

I

Infrared (IR) spectroscopy

body water, 105

lipid, 39

membrane, 105, 106

nucleotide, 114

peptide, 114

polysaccharide, 105

protein, 114

Isolation of deuterated biomolecules

deuterated lipids, 130

deuterated nucleic acids, 129

deuterated proteins, 129

K

Kinetics effects, 92, 96

M

Metabolic actions of deuterated

drugs, 172–173

Mixture model of water structure

enthalpy-entropy compensation, 36

entropy factor, 36

flickering cluster model, 34, 35

virtual single particle energy

distribution, 34, 35

Molecular dynamic simulation, 102, 107, 111

N

Neutron scattering

lipids, 78

peptide and protein, 112

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)

spectroscopy

lipid, 103, 104

membrane, 103, 104

nucleic acid, 103

protein, 103

O

Other deuterated drugs, 174, 175

P

Pharmaceutical process, 164–165

Physical methods, 101, 102, 111

Physical properties

C-D bond vs. C-H bond, 18–19

dissociation constants of acids, 19–20

pD vs. pH, 19

preservation of vaccines, 153, 157

S

Stabilizers of vaccine

additives to stabilize vaccines, 153–154

deuterium oxide as stabilizer, 154–155

temperature factor, 153

Structure maker and breaker, 47

Structure of water

continuum model, 33

interstitial model, 33

mixture model, 33

T

Thermodynamic effects, 88, 90–92

Thermostability of other vaccines by D₂O

influenza vaccine, 157–158

newcastle disease virus vaccine, 158–159

yellow fever vaccine, 158

Thermostability of polio vaccine

D₂O, 156

D₂O and MgCl₂, 156–157

MgCl₂, 155

U

Ultra-violet (UV) spectroscopy

peptide, 107

protein, 107

W

Water

interface water, 5

integral component of biomolecules, 4–5

role of water in biological systems,

4–5, 15–16

zero-point energy, 7