Biochemistry

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO BIOCHEMISTRY

Biochemistry

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Biochemistry deals with chemical or metabolic processes which take place in tissue cells. These metabolic reactions take place in the material called protoplasm which is the basis of all forms of life. As long as these reactions take place in an organized form, we remain healthy. The moment there occur disorganization in these reactions; we fall ill or even die.

It is amazing to note that all the elements that collectively give rise to living organisms are by themselves inanimate. However, when present in optimum amounts and in optimum combinations, they make life possible. An Urdu poet (Birj Narayan Chaksbat), a non-scientist, has best illustrated this in the following verse: - Compared to other biological sciences, biochemistry is quite young. This is because investigators in this field had to wait for developments to take place in other branches of chemistry, i.e. inorganic, organic and physical. It is only in the second half of the twentieth century that biochemistry that started as an offshoot of physiology emerged as an independent discipline.

In 21st century it is one of the most dynamic sciences whose frontiers are expanding at a fantastic rate. This great leap forward in biochemistry has been of enormous help in providing explanations for the mechanisms of many physiological processes which were hitherto unknown or were shrouded in mystery. Other medical sciences, i.e. physiology, pharmacology, bacteriology and Pathology and even therapeutics have also greatly benefited from new discoveries in biochemistry. All these medical sciences have contributed to the great strides made in medicine and a major part of the credit goes to biochemistry.

Biochemistry has assumed an increasingly important role in various branches of medicine and biochemists have frequently been called upon to provide the special techniques and knowledge to the solution of clinical problems. Biochemical investigations can lead quite directly to the suggestion of remedies. For example, the discovery of specific biochemical deficiencies in rickets, pellagra, beriberi, scurvy and pernicious anemia led rapidly to the successful therapy by a rational method. The biochemist has provided vitamins and hormones in pure conditions and has aided in the preparation of vaccines, antitoxins, sera, etc.

The fields of enzyme inhibitors, recombinant DNA technology, genetic engineering, gene mapping, DNA profiling and cloning have opened a new era in medicine. Last, but not the least, he has provided a large number of chemical tests as aids in the diagnosis of diseases.

CHAPTER 2

CARBOHYDRATES

Definition

The definition of the carbohydrates is given as:carbohydrates are polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones or their complex substances which on hydrolysis give polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones‖The carbohydrates are the organic compounds. They are made up of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen. The literally meanings of carbohydrates are the hydrated carbons. Carbohydrates also called sugar‖

General formula

As the carbohydrates are the hydrated carbons so the no. of water molecules attach to the carbon are equal in number to the no. of carbon atoms. Thus the general formula is given as Cn (H2O) n. here —n‖ is the whole number.

Exception to the general formula and definition

There are some such carbohydrates which contain nitrogen, phosphorous or sulphur also in addition to carbon. Rhamnose has a Formula C6H12O5.
Also all the compounds having formula $Cn(H2O)_n$ may not becarbohydrates formic, acetic and lactic acids are some examples of such compounds.

Characteristics of carbohydrates

In general carbohydrates are white solids, sparingly soluble in organic liquids but except for certain polysaccharides are soluble in water. Many carbohydrates of low molecular weight have a sweet taste.

Functional groups of carbohydrates

The carbohydrates have two major categories on the basis of functional group. Two functional groups.
Aldehyde group: --CHO‖ it is on the first carbon and the carbohydrate with aldehyde group is called aldoses (aldose suger)
Keto group:

is on the second carbon, the sugars with ketonic group are called ketoses (keto-suger)

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Source of carbohydrates

Carbohydrates are the natural compounds and their basic source is plants. The chief source of carbohydrates is the cereals. Starch is the abundant in the cereals.

The other source of carbohydrates is:

(i) **Vegetables**: e.g. potato, carrot, beats etc.

(ii) **Legumes:** e.g. peanut, lenticle etc.

(iii) **Fruits:** both sweet and non-sweet fruits provide carbohydrates.

Chain or cyclic structure of carbohydrates

Carbohydrates are both in cyclic forms and chain forms and they both forms are in equilibrium state.

Straight chain carbohydrates → Cyclic carbohydrates

1

H— C= O

2|

H— C— OH

3|

HO— C— H

4|

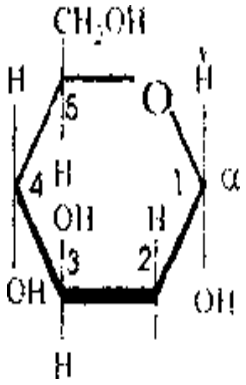
H— C— OH

5|

H— C— OH

6|

CH2OH OH



Occurrence of carbohydrates

Carbohydrates are the 2nd most occurring substance in nature after water. The surprising quantity of carbohydrates can be known by considering the point that cell wall of all plants made up of cellulose 50-80% of dry weight of plants is due to cellulose.

Natural production of carbohydrates

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The carbohydrates are prepared by the plants by the process of photosynthesis. The photosynthesis involves the following reaction.$CO_2 + H_2O \longrightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + O_2$

Carbohydrates Major source of energy

Carbohydrates are the macronutrients as 55% of our daily calories come from carbohydrates. 1g of carbohydrates provides 4 cal.

-when the molecules are oxidized so produced a high amount of energy - this is the principle used by carbohydrates to give energy. The process of oxidation of carbohydrates (also all other nutrients) is called respiration. The reaction involve in respiration

$C_6H_{12}O_6 + O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O + E$

How carbohydrates supply energy

The simple sugars are absorbed directly by the small intestine into blood stream. But the disaccharide and polysaccharide do not absorbed in blood directly first convert into monosaccharide. This bond breaking also provides energy. Then the monosaccharides are absorbed by blood.

Function of carbohydrates in animal body

The carbohydrates form the following major role in the living body.

- Construction of body organs.
- Assist in body's absorption of calcium.
- Helps in lowering cholesterol level.
- Provides nutrients to the friendly bacteria in digestive track that help in digestion.
- Balance water-mineral balance.

Sweetness in carbohydrates

Carbohydrates who has lower molecular mass are sweet in taste as the complexity and molar mass increases the sweetness decreases. In fruits the sweetness very from time to time sweetness increases as fruits ripen e.g. banana and apple b/c during ripening the starch converted to simple sugar.

Classification of carbohydrates

The carbohydrates are classified into four groups.

Monosaccharide : having one sugar molecule and cannot hydrolyze to smaller units

Disaccharide: Having two sugar molecule and give two monosaccharide on hydrolysis.

Oligosaccharides: Having 3-10 sugar molecules. on hydrolysis yield 3-10 monosaccharides.

Polysaccharide: having more than ten sugar molecules and give disaccharide on hydrolysis and on further hydrolysis the monosaccharide are met.

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Monosaccharide

Mono_____one Saccharides sugar

1. They are sweet in taste.
2. It cannot further hydrolysis.
3. Generally they are water soluble.
4. Two types of functional group are present in it.

i) Aldehyde group: **(–CHO)**

ii) Keto group: **O**

||

R-C-R

Classification of monosaccharide

Monosaccharide can be classified on the basis of functional group

i) Aldose ii) Ketose

Aldose

i) Glucose: ($C_6H_{12}O_6$)

It is also called grape sugar. It is widely distributed in nature.

It combines with other sugars to form important disaccharides such as sucrose, maltose, and lactose. It is commercially obtained from starch. It is the main sugar of human body. Normal blood glucose level of human in fasting 60_110 mg /dl and in random is 100-180 mg/dl.
Glucose is also called dextrose.

ii) Ribose:

iii) Erythrose:

iv) Glucoheptose:

Ketose

i) Fructose: ($C_6H_{12}O_6$)

The most common source of fructose is sucrose. It is sweetest of all the sugars. Pure honey contains fructose. It is present in appreciable amount in seminal fluid and act as source of energy for spermatozoa.

ii)

iii) Erythrulose:

iv) Ribulose:

v) Sedoheptulose

Disaccharides

Definition:

Having two sugar molecules, give Two monosaccharide on hydrolysis Disaccharides occur naturally. They are less sweet than monosaccharide. The two monosaccharide units with glycosidic linkage they are white crystalline solids. They are soluble in (H2O) water .Their molecular mass greater than monosaccharide.

Classification of disaccharides

Homogeneous

If all sugar molecules in disaccharides are same it is called homogeneous disaccharides .e.g. maltose.

Heterogeneous

If all sugar molecules are different in disaccharide is called heterogeneous e.g. sucrose.

Examples of disaccharides

Sucrose. (Glucose + fructose)

It is also called saccharine. It is a common table sugar.

Lactose. (Glucose + galactose) It is also called milk sugar.

Maltose.

It is composed of two monosaccharide (glucose + glucose) It is also called fruit sugar.

Oligosaccharides

On hydrolysis these sugars yield three to ten monosaccharide units. Not important physiologically.

Polysaccharides

Definition

Having more than ten sugar molecules and give disaccharides on hydrolysis and on further hydrolysis the monosaccharide are met. Many saccharides join to form poly saccharides. They are tasteless and not optically active

Classification of polysaccharides

There are two types of polysaccharide.

(i)**Homopolysaccharides:**

The polysaccharides which yield one type of monosaccharide on hydrolysis is called homo polysaccharides.e.g Starch, Glycogen

(ii) **Heteropolysaccharides:**

The polysaccharides which yield different types of monosaccharide on hydrolysis called heteropolysaccharides.e.g Mucilage's, Hemi cellulose

Examples of polysaccharides

Cellulose: Most abundant on earth present in cell wall of plants.
Starch: It is stored food material in plants, in corns, grains etc.
Glycogen: It mainly occurs in animal muscles and liver.
Starch: It occurs in grains, seeds and tubers Types: (i) Amylose (ii)Amylopectin

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CHAPTER 3

LIPIDS

INTRODUCTION

LIPO MEANS FAT

Definition

The lipids are organic substances occurring in plant and animal tissues belong to a very heterogeneous group of compounds related to fatty acids. Lipids include fats, oils, waxes, steroids, & defined as substances having the following properties:

- They are insoluble in water (hydrophobic) but soluble in non-polar solvents (ether, chloroform, benzene).
- Their primary building blocks are fatty acids, glycerol, sphingosine and sterols.
- In most cases, they can be utilized by the living organisms. Most common lipid is fat in animals & plants
- Lips used to store energy because of higher proportion of C-H bonds and very low proportion of oxygen , oxygen store double the amount of energy as compared to the same amount of any carbohydrates

CLASSIFICATION OF LIPIDS

These are classified as,

I. Simple Lipids
II. Compound Lipids
III. Derived Lipids

SIMPLE LIPIDS

This class includes fats oil & waxes.

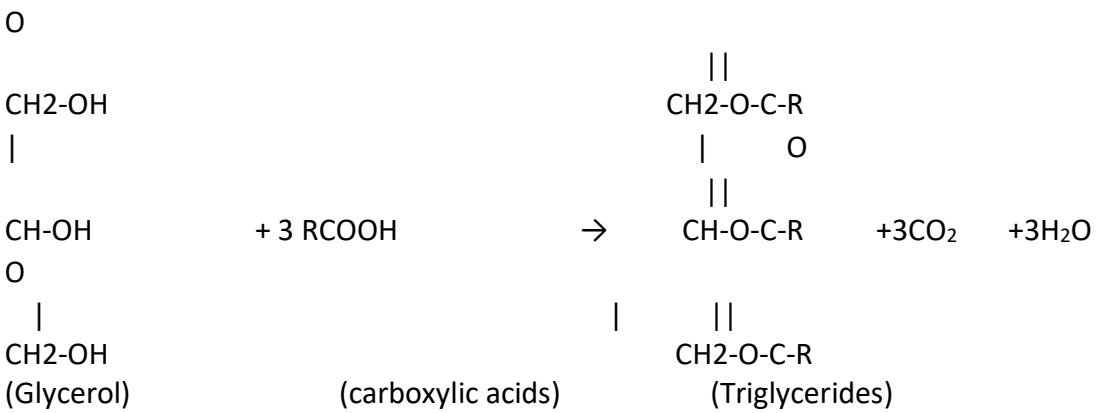
FATS AND OILS

These are esters of fatty acids with glycerol. (Trihydroxy alcohol). They are known as triglyceride or triacylglycerol or fat.

A fat in liquid state called oil Fats & oils are lighter than water and have specific gravity of about 0.8

Glycerol+3Carboxylic acid $\rightarrow$Triglycerides+$3CO_2$+$3H_2O$

OR



WAXES

Definition

These are esters of fatty acids with long chain monohydric alcohols. RCOOH +

$$ROH \longrightarrow RCOOR + H_2O$$

Occurrence

Waxes are widespread in nature as secretion of certain insects as protective coating of skin, e.g. honey bee wax, fur of animals, certain animal oil & whale largely composed of waxes.

Human secretion (sebum wax)

Sebum is a secretion of human skin having waxes. It helps skin to be moist and flexible. Plant waxes present in cuticle of plant cell.

COMPOUND OR COMPLEX LIPIDS

Definition

These are esters of fatty acids containing groups in addition to an alcohol and fatty acids.

These are sub divided as follows:

1. **Glycolipids also called Glycosphingolipids**

These contain sphinogosine, fatty acid and a monosaccharide or an oligosaccharide unit.

2. **Sulphosides**

These contain sphingosine, fatty acids, a sugar & a phosphate group.

3. **Phospholipids**

These are lipids that contain an alcohol, fatty acid and phosphoric acid in addition they frequently have N-containing bases & other sustituents.

4. **Lipoproteins**

These are complex of lipid with proteins.

DERIVED LIPIDS

These include fatty acids, glycerol, steroids, sterols, fatty aldehyde, lipid soluble vitamins, ketones etc.

Fatty acids

Definition

Hydrolysis of fats is called fatty acid.

Fatty acid contain long hydrocarbon chain bonded to –COOH Group.

-They are aliphatic monocarboxylic acids‖

Classification

Fatty acid may classified as,

1.Saturated Fatty acids

They do not contain double bond.—Animal fat are usually saturated Fats containing saturated fatty acids are solids at room temperature

Example

Butyric acid C3H7COOH

2. Unsaturated fatty acids

They contain one or more double bond in their formula.

Plant fats are mostly unsaturated.

Fats containing unsaturated fatty acids are liquid at room temperature

Types:

Monounsaturated fatty acids

i.e. Oleic acid $C_{18}H_{33}COOH$

Polyunsaturated fatty acids

i.e. Archidonic acid $C_{19}H_{31}COOH$

STEROIDS

A large number of compounds found in nature occurring in non saponifiable fraction of lipids belong to the class of compounds called steroids.

STEROLS

A sub group of steroids is sterols which contain one or more –OH groups and no carbonyl and carboxyl groups; their names end in -oil.

Examples

Some of natural compound belonging to steroids are cholesterol, ergo sterol, bile acids, male and female sex hormones and the hormones of adrenal cortex.

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CHOLESTEROLS

- It is most abundant animal sterol.
- It occurs in animal tissues most abundant in the adrenal gland followed by nervous system. Normal plasma level ranges from 150 to 220mg/dl.
- Some 140 grams of cholesterol may be present in an adult human being.
- It also present in plasma membranes of tissue cells & in plasma lipoproteins.

FUNCTIONS OF LIPIDS

They are good source of energy.

Lipid in food also acts as a carrier of fat-soluble vitamins and nutritionally essential fatty acids.

Energy source

Carrier of fat – soluble vitamins

Dietary Lipids

Stability

The dietary lipids decrease gastric motility and have a high satiety value.

Body fat gives anatomical stability to organs like kidney. When a person loses weight rapidly, his kidney is liable to become floating kidneys.

Good Reservoir

Fats are good reservoir in the body. Adipose tissue is best suited for this purpose due to its very little water content.

Insulating Effect

Lipids exert an insulating effect on the nervous tissue.

Integral part

Lipids are integral part of cell protoplasm and cell membranes.

Precursor

Some lipids act as precursors of very important physiological compounds .e.g. cholesterol is precursor of steroid hormones.

CHAPTER 4

Proteins

The proteins are extremely complicated substances and are nitrogenous compound made up of a variable no. of amino acids joined to each other by specific type of covalent bond called peptide

Definition/ Derivation

bond or peptide linkage.

The name protein derived from Greek —protos‖ which means the first or the supreme. Proteins are polymers of amino acids‖

General formula of amino acid

H

|

R-C-COOH

| NH_2

Amino Acids have two characteristics functional groups the amino group _NH_2. The functional group _COOH which is Carboxylic group.R represents the side chain which varies from one Amino acid to other Most amino acid have one _NH_2 group and other _COOH group but some have more than one of these. They are 20 amino acid which have been found to occur in all proteins and for which genetic codons exist. If R changes the amino acid changes structurally

Amino acids are building blocks of proteins

Functions of proteins

Proteins present in cytoplasm as well as the cell membrane of cells without exceptions.

Mammalian muscles contain	20%
Blood plasma	7%
Cows	3.5%
Cereals	12%
Beans, nuts, pulses, contain protein	20%

Besides forming structural elements of body and important food constituents as well. They are also present in daily use articles such as silk, leather, and wool. A group of substances called enzymes which are biocatalyst of the body,

—Enzymesaremainlyproteininnature.‖ Hormonal effect

Many of the hormones which regulate the chemicals and other process or the body are also protein in nature.

Structure of proteins

Each type of proteins contains a specific number of amino acids, Different kinds of proteins have different shapes are related to their particular function in life processes.Proteins molecules have different several different level of structure.

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Primary structure of proteins

Definition

Linear sequence of Amino acids.

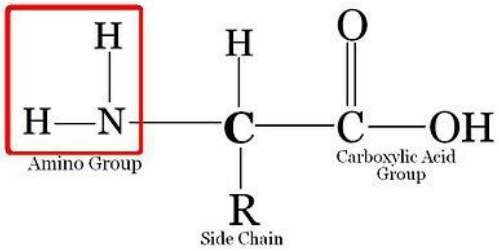
Amino group is in one side and left hand side and carboxylic group on right hand side.

Length

Length is vary according to proteins, length of chain depend upon type of proteins which is under discussion. But it must be polypeptide long chain.

No additional hydrogen bonding in primary structure of proteins and it is present in other structure.

Only covalent bond is present in primary structure.



Secondary structure

Definition

The regular arrangements of amino acid that are located near to each other in linear sequence these arrangements are termed as **Secondary structure** of polypeptide

Tertiary structure

Definition

The tertiary structure of proteins means it's over all three—Dimensional shape‖ Complex secondary structure will take on three dimensional structures. In which there is folding, looping and binding of chain including all of its secondary structure. The final shape may be a globe or an irregular shape and is entirely determined by intermolecular forces and bond polypeptides chain form a complex structure known as proteins structure.**e.g Myoglobin:** It has been calculated that if the chain of myoglobin could be extended the length of its molecule would be 20 times its width.

Quaternary structure

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Definition

Association of multiple polypeptides, not found in all proteins. The structure formed by aggregation of two or more polypeptide chain is called quaternary structure the aggregation of such polypeptides chain form one functional macromolecule. Each poly peptide chain is called subunit.
E.g. Hemoglobin, Collagen etc.

Biological role of Proteins

Proteins have following some important role:

1. Proteins as structural material

Proteins are the structural material for the plant and animal. Protein form the major part of dry weight of plant and animal protein are the major part of all the membrane system of cell. Proteins take an essential part in the formation of protoplasm which is the essence of all forms of life.

2. Energy source

Proteins provide energy to body proteins is breakdown into amino acid during digestion the deamination of these amino acid take place. Ammonia is released and different compounds are formed. The compound enters into the respiratory pathway (glycolysis and Kreb's cycle) at different points.

3. Defense of body

Proteins are used against disease in higher animals. Antibodies and interferon are proteins in nature in they defend the body from attack of bacteria and viruses (immunoglobulin). Protein is an integral part of all viruses which are very important from a pathogenic point of view.

4. Dietary protein

The supply of nitrogen and sulphur is regulated by dietary protein e.g. each one gram of dietary protein furnishes 4.1 kcal or 4100cal.

5. Enzymes

Some proteins act as enzymes, enzymes play important role in metabolic reaction, and they enter and speed up specific chemical reaction.

6. Hormones

The hormones are protein in nature have great effect a metabolic and reproduction.

7. Reserve food

Most part of fruits and vegetables is composed of proteins. Thus proteins are as storage composed e.g albumin is stored in egg white casein present in milk.Certain proteins is present cell

membrane bind vitamin hormones etc. to mediate the cellular action.

8. Contractility

Most proteins are involved in contractility e.g. dyne in cilia and flagella. Tubulin in spindle fibres,actin and myosin in muscles.

9. Exchange of gases

They execute their activities in the transport of O2 and CO2 by hemoglobin. Some act as hormones e.g. insulin, growth hormones and parathyroid hormones etc. Muscles proteins have a role in contraction of muscle fibres.e.g Antarctic fish contain antifreeze proteins which protect their blood from freezing.

10.Homeostatic control

The function is the homeostatic control of volume of the circulating blood and that of the interstitial fluids through plasma protein. Plasma proteins take part in blood coagulation and transport of substances such as hormones drugs, metal like iron and copper.

11.Blood clotting

They are involved in blood clotting through thrombin fibrinogen and other protein factors.
The proteins present in blood plasma act as a colloidal particles and exert and osmotic pressure of 25_30mmHg. The role of proteins in the plasma membranes where they act as transporting or carrier molecules and receptors.

12.Heredity transmission

They perform hereditary transmission by nucleoproteins of the cell nucleus.

13.Chromosomes movement

Movement of organs in plant cells is due to movement of chromosomes. During anaphase of cell division

CLASSIFICATION OF PROTEINS

Proteins have been classified in several ways. The following classification is based upon physicochemical properties of proteins.
A protein may belong to one of the three types, i.e.

I. **Simple proteins.**
II. **Compound or conjugated proteins.**
III. **Derived proteins.**

SIMPLE PROTEINS

On hydrolysis, these proteins yield only amino acids or their derivatives. These consist of

the following types.

1. Albumins:

These are water-soluble proteins and occur in both plant and animal kingdoms. Examples are serum albumin, ovalbumin and lactalbumin m animals and legume in plants.

2. Globulins:

These are insoluble in water but soluble in dilute salt solutions and are heat- coagulable to a variable extent.They are found in animals,e.g. lactoglobulin, myosin in muscle, ovoglobulin, serum globulins and also in plants, e.g. legumin.

3. Globins

These are rich in histidine but are not basic. They unite with heme to form hemoglobin.Hemoglobin of different species differs only with respect to globin, but the heme part is the same in all cases.

4. Prolamins

These are soluble in 70 to 80% ethanol but are insoluble in water and absolute alcohol. Examples are gliadin of wheat and zein of maize. These are rich in the amino acid proline but deficient in lysine.

5. Histones

These are very strongly basic proteins as they are rich in arginine. In combination with deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) they form nucleoproteins (nucleohistones). The association of DNA and histones gives rise to complexes called nucleosomes.

6. Protamines

These are present in sperm cells like histones; they form nucleoproteins with nucleic acids and are rich in arginine. These proteins lack in both tyrosine and tryptophan.

7. Albuminoids

These are also called scleroproteins [sclero = hard] and occur only in animals; they do not occur in plants. These proteins includes

i) Collagen
ii) Elastin
iii) Keratin

COMPOUND OR COUNJUGATED PROTIENS

In these molecules the protein is attached or conjugated to some non – protein groups which are called prosthetic groups. The following types of proteins belongs this group.

i) Nucleoproteins.
ii) Phosphoprotien
iii) Lipoproteins
iv) Carbohydrate - containing proteins
v) Chromoproteins

vi) Metalloproteins

DERIVED PROTEINS

This class of proteins includes substances which are derived from simple and conjugated proteins. These proteins are sub divided into primary and secondary derived proteins.

i) Primary derived proteins: These are synonymous with denatured proteins. Denaturation takes place when some or all of the cross-linkages which normally keep the molecular structure of protein intact are split.

ii) Secondary derived proteins: These substances are intermediate formed in the progressive hydrolysis of protein molecule. The area of different sizes and different amino acid composition and are roughly grouped according to their molecular size into

a) Proteoses
b) Peptones
c) Peptides
d) Polypeptides
e) Oligopeptides

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Chapter 5

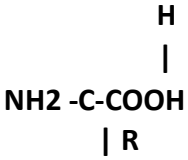
Amino Acids

INTRODUCTION

Amino acids are the building blocks of proteins‖Amino acids are the monomer of a bio-polymer which is called as proteins. They form protein by a biochemical bond called Peptide bond or peptid linkage. Various number of amino acid joins to one another with peptide bond to form ‑protein‖. There are twenty different kinds of amino acids but with Different combination they form different kinds of protein.

STRUCTURE

Amino acid has very simple structure. It contain a central alpha carbon (The carbon attached with the functional Group is called alpha carbon).



There are present an acidic group on one side and an amino group on other side of alpha carbon. Hydrogen is present on alpha carbon with a R group. The R group may vary to produce different types of Amino acids. It means the kinds of all amino acids depend upon the nature of R group. So comprehensively we can say that (except glycine) all the amino acids.

Contain following unit with alpha carbon.

1. R group
2. carboxylic group(_COOH)
3. Amino group (_NH2)
4. Hydrogen atom (_H)

2. AMINO ACIDS OCCURRING IN PROTEIN MOLECULES

(STANDARD AMINO ACIDS)

Although more than 300 naturally occurring amino acids are known, but only twenty amino acids take part in the formation of all types of proteins, plant as well as animal in origin. These twenty amino acids are called primary, standard or normal amino acids.

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Classification of Standard Amino Acids

This is based upon the type of side chain, i.e. R group present because it is the side chain which gives distinctive properties to amino acids.

1-Amino acids with non-polar aliphatic side chains

These include glycine Alanine, Valine. Leucine and Isoleucine.

2. Amino acids with aromatic side chains

These include phenylalanine tyrosine and tryptophan and are said to be relatively polar.

3. Side chain containing hydroxyl (-OH) group

These include serine and threonine.

4. Amino acids with side chains containing sulfur (S)

These include cysteine and methionine.

5. Amino acids with acidic side chains

These include glutamic acid and aspartic acid;

6. Amino acids with basic side chains

These include lysine, arginine and histidine.

7. Amino acid

The only example of this type is proline.

NON-STANDARD AMINO ACIDS

The non-standard amino acids are those amino acids which, contrary to the standard amino acids already described, do not take part in protein synthesis but many of them play important role in the body. There are several hundreds of such amino acids, a few of which having important physiological functions are given below.

1. **Citrulline**
2. **Ornithine**
3. **Argininosuccinic acid**

4.β-alanine

It is a part of the molecule of a vitamin namely pantothenic acid.

5. Pantothenic acid

It is a widely distributed vitamin; it forms a part of the of coemzyme A (abbreviated as CoA-SH or just CoA) which takes of metabolic reactions.

6. γ – Amino- Butyric Acid (GABA)

It occurred in brain and other tissues it has an important physiological role as neurotransmitter.

7. Dihydroxyphenylalanine

It is formed in tissues during the metabolism of phenylalanine and tyrosine. L- Dopa is being used in treating Parkinsonism as in the brain it give rise to dopamine which is a neurotransmitter.

8. Homocysteine

Homocysteine is a non-proteinogenic α-amino acid. It is a homologue of the amino acid cysteine, differing by an additional methylene bridge

9. Iodinated amino acids

These are mono - iodotyrosine (MIT), di-iodotyrosine (D1T), tri- iodothyronine (T3) and tetra-iodothyronine (T4). The last two are thyroid hormones,

Functions of Amino acids

—Amino acids are building blocks of Proteins‖

So all the functions which proteins perform are the function of amino acids

i) Proteins are present in cytoplasm as well as in the cell membrane of cells without exceptions.

ii) Beans, nuts, pulses, contain 20% proteins.

iii) Besides forming structural elements of body and important food constituents as well. They are also present in daily use articles such as silk, leather, and wool.

iv) A group of substances called enzymes which are biocatalyst of the body,—Enzymes are mainly protein in nature.

v) **Hormonal effect.** Many of the hormones which regulate the chemicals and other process or the body are also protein in nature.

vi) **They play role as:**

- Hormone biosynthesis
- N2 metabolism
- Tolerance of certain environmental stresses e.g. Proline stores under salt stress condition in plants

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Chapter 6

NUCLEIC ACIDS

INTRODUCTION

Nucleic acids were first demonstrated in the nuclei of pus cells in 1869 and in sperm heads in 1872 by a Swedish doctor Friedrich Miescher and named as nucleon. Nucleic acids are present in every living cell as well in viruses and have been found to be the essential substance of the genes and the apparatus by which the genes act.

Types of nucleic acids

The **two** main types of nucleic acids are deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA). DNA is the genetic material found in all living organisms and is found in the nucleus of eukaryotes and in the chloroplasts and mitochondria.

COMPONENTS OF NUCLEIC ACIDS

Both DNA and RNA are formed by joining together of a large number of nucleotide units or mononucleotides, each of which is a nitrogenous base- sugar-phosphoric acid complex. In other words, nucleic acids are polynucleotide.

Nitrogenous bases

These are aromatic heterocyclic bases and include purine and pyrimidine derivatives.

Purines –

These include adenine and guanine, which are abbreviated as A and G respectively.

Pyrimidines-

These include cytosine, uracil, thymine abbreviated as C,U.T respectively.

Mononucleotides-

In nucleotides, a phosphoric acid molecule forms an ester linkage with one of the hydroxyl groups of the sugar of a nucleoside,

Nucleotides-

A nucleotide is a nucleoside phosphate.

Nucleoside-

The combination of a Nitrogen Base and 5-Carbon Sugar

SOME OTHER BIOLOGICALLY IMPORTANT NUCLEOTIDES

Nucleotides which are not combined in nucleic acids are also found in tissues. They have important special functions. Some of these compounds are given below.

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Derivatives of adenine

ATP, ADP and AMP - ATP has two high energy phosphate bonds. NAD+, NADP+, FAD and coenzyme A.

Characteristics of RNA and DNA

Characteristics	RNA	DNA
i. Nitrogenous base (a) Purines	Adenine and Guanine	Adenine and Guanine
(b) Pyrimidines	Cytosine and Uracil	Cytosine and Thymine
2. Relative amounts of complementary bases	Highly variable	AisalwaysequaltoTand G is equal to C. Total purines = Total pyrimidines (Chargaffs law).
3. Sugar (as p-furanoside form)	Ribose	2 -Deoxyribose
4. Phosphoric acid	Present	Present
5. Location in the cell	Mainly cytoplasm; some in the nucleus	Mainly in the nucleus; some in the cytoplasm (mitochondria)
6. Molecular weight	Much smaller than DNA	Much larger than RNA;
7, Molecular shape .	Single-stranded which may be coiled on itself and in certain cases has double helix parts. Rarely double stranded RNA has also been found even in humans.	Double-strandedforming a double helix;

RIBONUCLEIC ACIDS (RN As)

There are three main types of RNA

1. Messenger or mRNA
2. Transfer or tRNA
3. Ribosomal or rRNA.

It is estimated that tRNA forms 10 to 15%, mRNA 5 to 10% and rRNA 75 to 80% of the total RNA of the cell. mRNA encodes the amino acid sequence of one or more polypeptides specified by a gene or set of genes. tRNAs read the information coded in the mRNA and transfer the appropriate amino acids to a growing polypeptide chain during protein synthesis.

rRNAs are constituents of ribosomes that synthesize proteins. RNA is a polynucleotide, i.e. it contains a large number of nucleotides in its molecule. The nucleotides forming RNA consist of the following components:-

1. A nitrogenous base which may be either a purine (adenine or guanine) or a pyrimidine (cytosine or uracil).
2. Ribose which actually is D-ribose.
3. Phosphoric acid.

DEOXYRIBONUCLEIC ACIDS (DN As)

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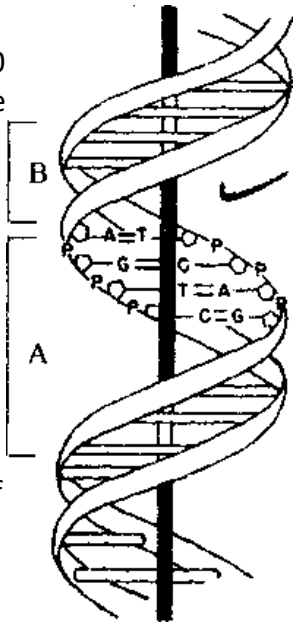
DN A contains the genetic information that gives rise to the chemical and physical properties of living organisms the nucleotides in DNA are linked to each other in the same way as in RNA. However unlike RNA, DNA is a double-stranded molecule or a double helix and sugar present in it is 2'-deoxyribose. Moreover DNA has the pyrimidine thymine and not uracil.

Shape of DNA molecule :

Watson and Crick in 1953 hypothesized that the DNA molecule is a double helix. The double helix of DNA (nicknamed as coil of life) can be visualized as a spiral staircase wound around a cylindrical axis.The bases are on the inside of the helix and the deoxyribose and phosphates on the outside. The helix in most of the DNA is of right handed type, i.e. the helix rises towards the right.
Double helix of DNA. A and B represent major and minor grooves respectively.

In DNA there are actually two antiparallel long molecules(each made up of a very long polydeoxyribonucleotide chain) which are wound on each other.These two chains are joined to each other throughout the whole length of the molecule through their respective nitrogenous bases. In this joining together a purines only joins with pyrimidines.

The helical structure repeats at intervals of 3.4 nm and therefore there are. 10 base pairs in each completed helix the helix is 2 nm in diameter. The molecule shows a minor groove and a major groove.



Double helix of DNA a & B represents major & minor grooves respectively.

BIOLOGICAL ROLE OF DNA

DNA is the ultimate carrier of heredity in all eukaryotes and even most prokaryotes except certain viruses and phages. Genes are composed of DNA in which the genetic information is contained in the form of codes.

The double helical structure of DNA explains many of the properties of DNA. DNA has two important properties; to store genetic information and replicate, i.e. to synthesize double-stranded DNA exactly similar to the DNA originally present and to produce mRNA (transcription) which will dictate the synthesis of proteins.

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Chapter 7

Hormones

Introduction

These are chemical substances which are secreted into the body fluids by one cell or a group of cells and have a physiological control effect on other cells of the body.

This is the science concerned with the structures and functions of the endocrine glands and the diagnosis and treatment of the disorders of the endocrine system.

ENDOCRINOLOGY

Functions of hormones

- Help to control the internal environment by regulating its chemical composition and volume.
- Transport substances through the cell membrane.
- Play a key role of growth and development.
- Contribute to the basic processes of reproduction, Fertilization, nourishment of the embryo, and delivery of newborns.
- Regulate metabolism and energy balance in the body.

Types

1. **Local hormones:** These have specific local effects on the body. **Example:** Acetyl choline, secretin and Cholecystokinin.
2. **General hormones:** These affect body cells far away from their points of secretion. A few general hormones affect all the cells of the body, such as growth hormone and thyroid hormone. On the other hand, some hormones affect only on target cells because they have specific receptors for the hormone. **e.g.** ACTH, estrogen, and progesterone.

CLASSIFICATION OF HORMONE BASED ON THE CHEMICAL NATURE

1. Peptides

- Anterior pituitary hormones - GH, ACTH, prolactin
- Posterior pituitary hormones - ADH, oxytocin
- Islets of langerhans - Insulin, glucagon, somatostatin
- Thyroid gland - calcitonin

- Parathyroid gland - parathyroid hormone
- Hormones of the GIT, i.e substance P
- Releasing and inhibitory hormones of the hypothalamus
- Ovaries - relaxin

2. Glycoproteins

HCG, TSH, LH, and erythropoietin

3. Steroids

(Cholestrol derivatives)

- Adrenal cortex (aldosterone, cortisol adrenal androgens)
- Ovaries (estrogen and progesterone
- Testes (testosterone)

4. Aminoacids

(Tyrosine derivative) Thyroid gland - T3 - T4,(Tyrosine derivatives)

5. Amines

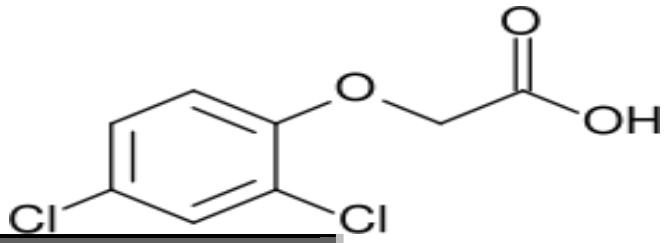
- Acetylcholine, epinephrine,
- -epinephrine and melatonin.

GROWTH HORMONE (GH)

Human growth hormone is a hormone of the anterior pituitary gland and is also known as somatotropin or somatotropic hormone (STH). Its basic function is to cause body cells to grow.

Nature

GH is a small protein (peptide)



Functions of Growth Hormone

1. **Effects on protein metabolism:**
   - GH has predominately anabolic effects on skeletal and cardiac muscles. It stimulates the synthesis of protein, RNA and DNA.
   - It promotes amino acid entry into cells, as does insulin.
   - It decreases the catabolism of protein because G.H mobilizes free fatty acids to supply energy.

2. **Effects on carbohydrate metabolism:** (Hyperglycemia)

GH is a diabetogenic hormone. Because of its anti-insulin effect, GH has a tendency to cause hyperglycemia.

3. **Effects on fat metabolism the:**

- GH has an overall catabolic effect in adipose tissue. It stimulates the mobilization of fatty acids from adipose tissue, leading to decreased triglycerides content in fatty tissue and increased plasma levels of fatty acids and glycerol.
- **Fatty liver:** This occurs due to excess mobilization of free fatty acids from adipose tissue.

4. **Effects on inorganic metabolism:**

- GH increase the retention of the phosphorus and Ca++ in body fluids by increasing absorption from the GIT and renal tubules.
- It also causes the retention of Na+, K+, Cl^- and Mg++.

5. **Effects on bone, cartilage, and soft tissues**:

- a).It acts on cartilage and bone, stimulating growth.
- Increases the deposition of connective tissue.
- Increases the thickness of skin.
- Increases the growth of viscera (liver, kidney) etc.
- Increases milk secretion in lactating animals.

OXYTOCIN

Introduction

This is a hormone of the posterior pituitary gland.

Chemical nature

Polypeptide containing 8- amino acids.

Actions of Oxytocin

1. **Effects on the uterus:**

It stimulates contraction of the smooth muscles of the pregnant uterus. It is released in large quantities just prior to delivery.

2. **Effects on milk ejection:**

It causes increase milk ejection in lactating breasts.

Stimulus for milk ejection:

i) Sucking of nipples of breasts by a baby
ii) Handling of breasts by a baby,
iii) Crying of a baby for feeding,
iv) Sight or sound of a baby.

3. **Effects on fertilization:**

Oxytocin is also released during coitus by a nervous reflex. It causes uterine contraction and has a sucking effect on seminal fluid. It accelerates transport of the seminal fluid towards the

fallopian tubes, favoring fertilization.

4. **Effects on blood vessels**:

In large doses oxytocin causes vasodilatations and decreases blood pressure.

5. **Effects on pituitary gland:**

i) It causes prolactin secretion.

ii) It inhibits ADH secretion.

Clinical indications for use of oxytocin:

i) Inducing labor. ii) Treatment of uterine hemorrhage.

INSULIN

Introduction

Insulin is a small protein which acts to lower the blood glucose level. This hormone is secreted by beta cells of the islets of Langerhans of the pancreas.

Chemical Nature

Insulin is small soluble protein containing 51 aminoacids.

Effects of insulin

1. **On carbohydrate metabolism:**
   - It increases the entry of glucose into cells by stimulating the process of facilitated diffusion, especially in muscles, adipose tissue, the heart, smooth muscles, of the uterus by activating glucokinase. But on the other hand, insulin does not facilitate glucose entry into the brain and RBCs.
   - It increases utilization of glucose for energy.
   - It increases glycogen storage in cells.
   - It increases the conversion of glucose into fat to be stored in adipose tissues.
2. **On fat metabolism**:
   - Forms fatty acids from excess liver glucose by activating acetyl-s- CoA carboxylase.
   - Fatty acids are utilized from triglycerides which are stored in adipose tissues.
   - It inhibits hydrolysis of triglycerides in fat cells by inhibiting hormone sensitive lipase.
3. **On protein metabolism:**
   - It causes active transport of amino acids into cells.
   - It promotes translation of mRNA in ribosomes to form new proteins.
   - It promotes transcription of DN A in I nucleus to form mRNA.
   - It inhibits protein catabolism.
   - It inhibits gluconeogenesis from amino acids.
4. **On growth:**
   - Insulin is essential for growth, as it increases protein formation.

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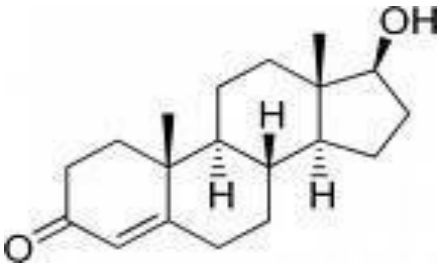
Testosterone

Introduction

This is the principle hormone of the testes which consists of 19 carbon atoms.

Nature



Steroid in nature.

Actions of testosterone

1. Effect on the male reproductive system

- During intrauterine life testosterone is secreted by the genital ridge. Later on it is secreted by the placenta. At this stage it causes the development of male sex organs including the penis, scrotum prostate, seminal vesicle, and male genital duct. This hormone also causes descent of the testes (during last 2months of gestation) and suppresses the formation of female genital organs.
- In adults testosterone is secreted by the Leydig cells of the testes. This hormone causes the enlargement of the male sexual organs. It acts on different male sex organs, increasing spermatogenesis and maintaining the motility and fertilizing power of sperm.

2. Effects on secondary sex characteristics

Introduction

These characteristics make their appearance under the influence of sex hormones at puberty. The effects of testosterone on secondary sex characteristics are:

- **Body hair**: Increased growth of hairs on the face (beard and moustaches), chest, Axilla, and pubis (male pattern is convex while the female pattern is concave).
- **Baldness:** Decreased growth of hairs on top of the head.
- **Voice**: Testosterone causes hypertrophy of the laryngeal mucosa and enlargement of the larynx. It also increases the length and thickness of the vocal cords, the voice becomes deeper.
- **Ski**n: Testosterone causes thickness of the skin, roughness of the subcutaneous tissue, deposition of melanin in skin, and also increase sebaceous gland secretion (may result in acne during puberty).
- **Body changes: Testosterone causes**

  Broadening of the shoulders and hypertrophy of muscles in males. It also decreases subcutaneous fat. This is why males have less subcutaneous fatty tissues as compared to

females.

- **Behavioral changes**: Testosterone is also responsible for aggressive moods, active attitudes, and interest in the opposite sex.

3. Effect on protein metabolism

- It increases protein synthesis and build up the musculature.
- Causes positive N^2 balance.
- Decreases blood urea levels.

4. Effect on CNS

Increases the libido by directly acting on CNS.

5. Effect on bone

- Increases thickness of bones.
- Increases total quantity of bone matrices.
- Increases the deposition of calcium salts in bones.
- Narrows the length of the male pelvis outlet.
- Increases the length of the male pelvis and makes it funnel shaped.
- Increases the strength of the pelvis and makes it strong.

6. Effect on body length

If testosterone is secreted in excessive amounts it decreases the length of the body due to the early fusion of the epiphyses.

7. Effect on BMR

It increases the BMR (12-16%) due to increased protein formation.

8. Effect on RBCs

Testosterone increases the number of RBCs (15- 20%). However, this difference may be due to the increased metabolic rate following testosterone administration rather than to a direct effect of testosterone on RBC production.

9. Effect on electrolyte and water balance

Testosterone can increase the reabsorption of Na+ and water in the distal tubules of the kidneys. This effect of testosterone is of a minor degree.

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Estrogen

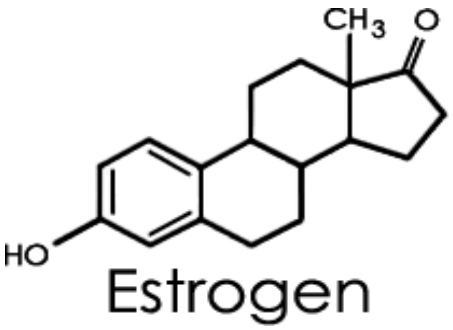
Introduction

Estrogen is a female sex hormone.

Nature

An 18-carbon steroid.

Structure



Estrogen

Types:

The naturally occurring estrogen is of three types:

- 17- β - estradiol
- Estrone
- Estriol

Actions of estrogens

A. Effects on reproductive system:

1. Effects on the vagina

- Increases the size of the vagina
- Causes enlargement of the musculature of the walls of the vagina.
- Changes the simple cuboidal epithelium to stratified epithelium, which is more resistant to trauma and infection.
- Increases the deposition of glycogen.
- The vaginal pH becomes more acidic due to conversion of glycogen into lactic acid by the bacteria.

2. Effects on external genitalia:

- Increases the size of the clitoris and labia minora.
- Increases the deposition of fat on the mons pubis and labia majora.

3. Effects on cervix:

- Causes slight enlargement of cervix.
- Epithelium becomes stratified.
- Increases the alkaline secretion of the cervix to neutralize the acidic pH of the vagina.

4. Effects on the uterus:

- Increases the size of the uterus.
- Changes the cuboidai epithelium into columnar epithelium.
- Causes growth of the uterine glands.
- Increases vascularity.
- Increases glycogen contents.
- Increases the sensibility of myometrium to oxytocin.

5. Effects on the fallopian tubes:

- Causes the proliferation of glandular tissue.
- Increases the number and activity of ciliated epithelial cells.
- Helps in fertilization by causing peristaltic contraction.

6. Effects on ovaries:

- Estrogen inhibits LH and FSH secretion by a negative feedback mechanism, decreasing the ovarian function. It is used as an oral contraceptive.

B. <u>Effects on secondary sexual characteristics:</u>

1) Effects on breast:

- Promotes the development of the tubular duct system.
- Synergistic with progesterone in stimulating the growth of the lobular-alveolar portion of the glands. Increases the deposition of fat.
- Responsible for their smooth appearance.

2) Effects on the skin:

- Increases vascularity of the skin. Causes softness and smoothness of the skin (This is why estrogen is used in creams, soaps, and oils for cosmetic- purposes)

3) Effects on the voice:

- The larynx of a female retains its prepubertal so size the voice remains high pitched.

4) Effects on the skeleton:

- Causes broadness of the pelvis.
- Increases the osteoblastic activity.

<u>C) Other effects:</u>

1. Effects on protein metabolism:

- Increases the synthesis and deposition of proteins. Positive N2 balance.

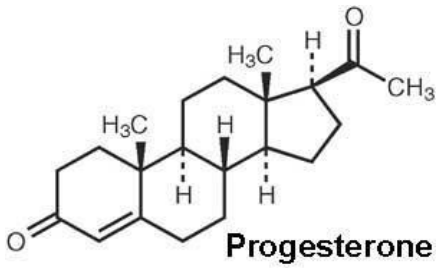
2. Effects on fat metabolism:

- Increases the synthesis of fat.ss
- Increases the deposition of fat in subcutaneous tissue, especially the breasts, medial side of the thigh, and buttocks.

3. **Effect-, on water and electrolytes:**
   - It increases the retention of Na+, Of, and water, increasing the E.C.F.
4. **Effects on the menstrual cycle:**
   - This hormone is responsible for the proliferative phase of the menstrual cycle.
5. **Effects on blood/cholesterol:**
   - Decreases blood cholesterol levels (this is why females have a low risk of heart disease).
   - Raises fibrinogen levels.

Progesterone

Introduction:
Progesterone is a female sex hormone.



Progesterone

Nature:
Steroid.

<u>Actions of progesterone:</u>

1. **Effects on uterus:**
   - Promotes secretory changes in the uterine endometrium during the secretory phase of the menstrual cycle.
   - It prepares the uterus for implantation of the fertilized ovum.
   - Decreases the excitability and sensitivity to oxytocin.
   - Decreases the frequency of uterine contractions, lengthening the period ot pregnancy (prevents expulsion of the implanted ovum).
2. **Effects on Fallopian tubes:**
   - Promotes secretory changes in the mucosa lining of the fallopian tubes for the nutritional needs of the fertilized ovary.
   - Increases peristaltic movements from the ovary to the uterus, aiding fertilization.
3. **Effects on cervix:**
   - Causes relaxation of the cervix
   - Relaxin may act only in the presence of progesterone.
4. **Effects on vagina:**
   - Increases cellular proliferation
   - Increases mucous secretion.
5. **Effects on breast:**
   - Stimulates the development of tubules ancalveoli of the mammary glands
   - Causes the alveolar cells to proliferate, enlarge, and become secretory
6. **Effects on ovulation:**
   - Inhibits ovulation by inhibiting the release of LH and FSH. During pregnancy ovulation is inhibited by luteal and placental progesterone.

7. **Effects on protein metabolism:**
   - Mobilzes proteins during pregnancy for the use of the fetus.
8. **Effects on electrolyte balance:**
   - Large doses of progesterone produce natriuresi (excretion of abnormal amounts of Na" in urine). This probably occurs by blocking the action of aldosterone on the kidneys
9. **Effects on skin:**
   - Increases the secretion of sebum on the skin and makes the hair of the scalp more oily.
   - Responsible for premenstrual .icne and hair changes during pregnancv.
10. **Effects on body temperature:**
    - After 24 hours of ovulation the body temperature increases due to the secretion of progesterone from the corpus luteum.

Chapter 8

Enzymes

The enzymes can be defined as —These are the catalysts of biological system that are produced by the living cell which are capable of catalyzing the biological reaction between certain reactants to yield specific product‖

OR

The enzymes are the organic catalysts produced by the living organisms that's why called as Biological Catalysts.

Catalysts

Catalyst is a chemical which is used to boost up chemical reaction but it is not utilized itself in the chemical reaction.

Substrates

These are the molecules on which enzymes can act.

PROPERTIES OF ENZYMES

Catalytic Property

Small amount of enzymes can catalyzed the large amount of substrate in a Biological reaction.

Example

Sucrase enzyme in its small amount easily catalyzed the hydrolytic reaction of the **sucrose**.

Solubility

Enzymes are mostly soluble in water and dilute alcohol solution. The Enzymes can precipitate in the following solvents.

- Concentrated Alcohol
- Ammonium Sulphate
- Tricholro Acetic Acid.

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Enzymatic Property

The velocity of the enzymatic reaction increases as the concentration of the substrates increases up to certain maximum. But after certain period of time it decreases.

pH

Acids:

Acids deactivate those enzymes that act at alkaline PH e.g. Trypsin act at alkaline PH 8.57. At acidic PH it will destroy. Trypsin is an enzyme that secreted by Pancreas and very important for proper digestion of food.

Bases:

Bases deactivate the enzymes that act at acidic pH e.g. pepsin act at acidic PH 1-2.
At alkaline PH, it will destroy.

Temperature

Optimum temperature is 96 F-to-99F. The optimum temperature for enzymatic activity is regard between
35 c - to - 40 c.

- At 0 °c---------- Inactive
- 10° c-to-20° c ---------- Very little active
- 35° c-to-40° c ----------Maximum active
- 50° c----------Inactive
- 60° c---------- Destroy
- In solid Condition it may be stable up to 100 ° c.

The mechanism of enzyme reactions

Following are the stage in a typical enzyme _catalyzed reaction.

1. Formation of enzyme _substrate (ES) complex

The three dimensional structure of enzymes [E] permits them to recognize their substrates [S] in a specific manner and to form an enzyme _substrate complex,
i.e. enzyme substrate → enzyme _ substrate complex or

E+ S → ES.

Active site

Definition:

The binding takes place between the substrate molecules and a place over the enzyme called the substrate site or active site.

Or

The catalytic site can be considered to the function as cleft that can trap the substrate for which it has a high affinity and great specificity.

2. Conversion of the substrate(s) to the product (p) forming EP .

ES → EP

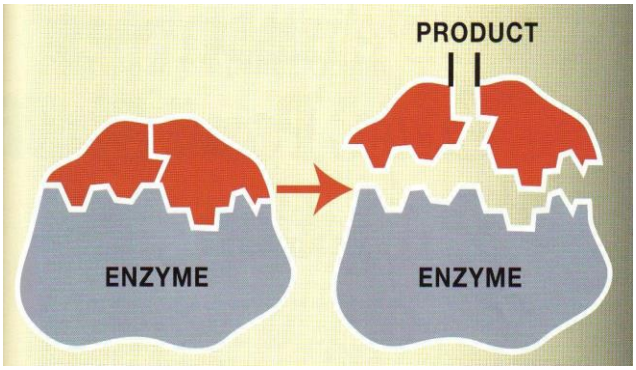
E P → E+P

3. Release of the product from the enzyme.

The sequence enzyme freed from the product can now on another molecule of the substrate and so on and on.

General reaction

E +S → ES → E P → E + P



(Enzyme Substrate Complex)

Chemical nature of enzyme

With a few exceptions (certain) RNA molecules called ribozymes) Enzymes are either pure proteins or contain proteins as essential components and in addition require small non-protein molecules and metal ions which are also essential for their activity. In the latter case the protein component is called apo-enzyme, while the non-proteins Components is either a prosthetic group, a cofactor or coenzyme. The Apo enzyme and the non-proteins component is a prosthetic group, a cofactor or coenzyme.

Holo Enzyme

The apo enzyme and the non_ protein part together constitute the whole or complete enzyme termed holo enzyme.

Non_ protein components needed for enzymatic activity. These include derivatives of B vitamins and metallic ions.

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Co-factors

These are inorganic ions e.g. Cu+2 (cytochrome oxidase), Fe+2 or Fe+3 (cytochrome oxidase)

Coenzymes

These are either organic or metallo _ organic molecules.

Prosthetic group

Those cofactors and coenzymes that are very tightly bound with the enzyme protein are designated as prosthetic groups.

Classification of enzymes

Enzymes have been named in many different ways. In many cases their names end in ht suffix as which is preceded by the name of its substrates, e.g. sucrase, lipase, urease, etc. in other cases their names describe the action of an enzymes, e.g. transmethylase, oxidase, in still other cases their names are trivial and don not at all point out their substrate or pancreatic lipase, other indicate some distinctive features of its action e.g. serine protease.

According to the enzyme commission (E.C) system, there are six main classes of enzymes and as mentioned above each one of these in further subdivided into subclasses and sub-classes. The main classes are the divided are the following.

- **Oxidoreductases.**
- **Transferases.**
- **Hydrolases.**
- **Lyases.**
- **Isomerases.**
- **Ligases.**

Oxidoreductases

These enzymes, also called redox enzymes, catalyze oxidation – reduction reaction by transferring H atoms or hydride [H-] ions. This group is further divided into four subgroups, i.e. oxidases, dehydrogenases, hydroperoxidases and oxygenases.

1. Oxidases

$H2O + O_2 \rightarrow H_2O_2$ $H_2O + O_2 \rightarrow H_2O_2$

Hypoxanthine →Xanthine→Uric Acid

2. Dehydrogenases

Pyruvic → lactic acid

3. **Hydroperoxidases**

4. **Oxygenases**

Transferases

These enzymes bring about a transfer of functional group such as phosphate, amino, acyl, methyl, from one molecule to another molecule.

Definition

TYPES.

1. Transaminases
2. Phosphotransferases (Kinases)
3. Transmethylases
4. Transpeptidases
5. Transacylases

Hydrolases

Definition

These enzyme catalyze hydrolysis (added water is instant decomposed & functional group of substrate transferred to water)

Subgroups

1**. Protease**
2. Carbohydrases
3. Lipid hydrolyzing enzymes
4. Deaminases
5. Deamidases

Lyases

These enzymes catalyze the addition of NH3, H2O OR CO2 to double bonds or removal of these groups leaving behind double bonds.
fumarase

Fumaric acid +H_2O ↔ Malic acid

Isomerases

Definition

These enzymes catalyze the structural change in a molecule by the transfer of

group in it & formation of isomeric form of substrate.

e.g

Glucose 6-phosphate → fructose 6-

phosphate (The enzyme is phosphohehexose isomerase)

Ligases

Definition

These enzymes catalyze condensation reaction joining two molecules by forming C-O,C-S,C-N, & C-C bonds along with energy releasing hydrolysis or cleavage of high energy phosphate ,
e.g ATP, GTP.etc

Acetyle-coA →Molonyle-coA (Acetyl-CoA carboxylase)

Factors affecting the enzyme Activity

1. Enzyme concentration

The rate of reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of enzyme Enzyme concentration in the body may fall or rise due to changes in the rate of its synthesis and /or degradation which are brought about many factors including hormones and metabolites.

2. Substrate concentration

The rate of reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of substrate upto the limit.

3. Effect of temperature

The rate of reaction increases with increase in temperature over limited range of temperatue and on reaching a certain high temperature the enzyme activity starts decreasing usually the enzyme reaction in man occur best at or round 37◦C which is the average normal body temperature.

Optimum Temperature

The temperature at which an enzyme reaction occurs fastest is called its optimum temperature.Some plant enzymes act best at temperature around 60◦C e.g.The enzyme DNA polymerase isolated from a bacterium named The rum aquaticus that grows in hot water springs is stable even at 90◦C.

Optimum PH

4. Effect of pH

Optimum PH is at which enzyme catalyzes the reaction at maximum rate. e.g Optimum PH of salivary amylase is 6.4 to 6.9 and that of trypsin is 8.0 to 9.0. Extreme changes in pH may actually denature the enzyme.

5.Presence of inhibitors

Presence of cofactors, coenzymes and prosthetic groups are also essential for enzymatic activity

Inhibitors

Certain substances inhibit the enzyme activity called enzyme inhibitor

Types:

1. Reversible inhibition
2. Irreversible inhibition

Functions of enzymes

Enzyme plays a vital role in our daily life. They perform following important functions,

1. Decrease in activation Energy

They decrease activation energy. Most enzymes catalyzed reaction is highly efficient Proceeding from 10^3 to 108 times faster than un catalyzed reaction. H_2O_2 →

H_2+O_2 ΔH=18000cal per mole

If the reaction is catalyzed by enzyme then

Enzyme

H_2O_2 → H_2+O_2 ΔH=2000cal per mole

2. Digestion

They play important role in digestion for the conversion of large complex & non diffusible molecules into smaller, simple and diffusible molecules e.g. Amylase, Trypsin, lipase etc

3. Cheese Making

Enzymes are also used in the manufacturing of cheese e.g Chemosin is obtained from fungus & is used in cheese making

4. Sweetner

Some enzymes are used as sweetener For example
Glucosidase

glucosidase

Sucrose →glucose+fructose Glucose is 70٪
sweeter while fructose is 60٪sweeter than sucrose.

5. As detergent

Carbohydrate & protein breaking enzymes are heat stabilizer & are used as detergent

e.g proteases

6. As drugs

some enzymes are used as drugs if there is any disturbance in the digestive system, for example if there is no formation of amylase, pepsin, trypsin or lipase in the stomach or intestine these are obtained from vegetables & other resources.

7.For cancer treatment

Some enzymes are used for cancer treatment for example L.asparginase

8.Curing of diseases

Enzymes are also play important role in curing of diseases such as rickets & jaundice etc For heart problem lactate dehydrogenase & for liver problem certain kinases are used.

9. Blood clotting

Enzymes also cause blood clotting by protein thrombin.

10. Alcoholic Beverages

Amylase is used in manufacturing of alcoholic beverages i.e bear in breaking of barley by fermentation process.

11. Meat tenderizing

Some enzymes like Trypsin pepsin and Papain etc s meat tenderizing to facilitate the process of digestion

CHAPTER 9

VITAMINS & Minerals

VITAMINS

Vitamins and minerals are nutrients, which act as coenzymes or cofactors in important metabolic activities, which occur in our body. As a coenzyme, a vitamin helps an enzyme to work. Enzymes are special proteins that change the rate of chemical reactions in our body. Enzymes are their own energy source which means they do not need any outside sources of energy to work and they don't need to change their forms while they are working. Enzymes are very specific. Each enzyme works.

Vitamins are of 2 types

- Fat soluble vitamin
- water-soluble vitamins.

FAT SOLUBLE VITAMINS:

The Fat Soluble Vitamins Fat soluble vitamins are A, D, E, and K. ''Fat soluble' means that they are found in the fatty component of vegetable and animal sources of foods. Fat soluble vitamins can be stored in our body tissues and therefore, it is possible totake in toxic amounts of these vitamins as supplements and food, if taken excessively

Vitamin A

Functions

- maintains integrity of epithelial membranes
- maintains resistance to infections
- Necessary for formation of rhodopsin and prevention of night blindness

Mild deficiency may result in:

- retarded growth
- increased susceptibility to infection
- abnormal function of gastrointestinal, genitourinary, and respiratory tracts due to altered epithelial membranes
- dry, shriveled, and thickened skin
- night blindness

Severe deficiency may result in:

- Exophthalmia – An eye disease and other local infections

Characteristics

- fat-soluble
- not destroyed by ordinary cooking temperatures
- destroyed by high temperatures when oxygen is present
- marked capacity for storage in liver
- carotene is a precursor to vitamin A

Good Sources Retinol

Milk fats, butter, cheese, cream, whole milk, egg yolk, liver, and fatty fish. Carotene: green leafy vegetables, carrots, fruits ,specifically those which are yellow and red.

Recommended daily Allowances

(DRV 700 microgram for men, 600 for women)

Vitamin D

Functions

Regulates absorption of calcium and phosphorus from the intestinal tract

Deficiency Mild

- interferes with the utilization of calcium and phosphorus in bone and teeth formation
- Irritability
- Weakness Severe
- Rickets in young children
- Childhood deficiency disease marked especially by soft deformed bones
- Osteomlacia in adults

Characteristics

- soluble in fats and organic solvents
- relatively stable under refrigeration
- stored in the liver
- precursor: UV-activated 7-dehydro-cholesterol

Good Sources

Natural	Butter	egg yolks	oily fish	salmon
Tuna fish,	herring,	sardines,	mackerel	bluefish
Catfish	oyster's liver			

Exposure to sunlight formed in the skin

Daily allowance (400IU)

Vitamin E

Functions

- Prevents damage to cell membrane
- Active in maintaining o Involuntary Nervous System; o Vascular System
- Involuntary Muscles Deficiency
- Red blood cell resistance to rupture is decreased Characteristics
- fat soluble
- stable to heat in absence of oxygen

Good Sources Natural

whole grains	green leafy vegetables	vegetable oils,	margarine
nuts, seeds	brown rice	olives	asparagus

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

Males (11 yrs. and older) o 15 mg o 8-10 mg

Females (11 yrs. and older) o 15 mg o 8 mg

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Vitamin K

Functions

- coenzyme in synthesis of fatty acids and glycogen
- important in blood clotting
- aids in bone formation

Deficiency

- hemorrhagic problems
- 30 percent higher risk of hip fractures Characteristics

Good Sources

- green leafy vegetables Broccoli Peas Soybeans Potatoes

Adequate Intakes (AI)

Males (Adult) o 120 mcg
Females (Adult) o 90 mcg

Water Soluble Vitamins

` Water Soluble Vitamins are divided into vitamin C and the B complex group of vitamins. The B complex includes B1 (thiamine, B2 (riboflavin), B3 (niacin), B5 (pantothenic acid), B6 (pyridoxine), B12 (cyanocobalamine), folic acid and biotin. The water soluble vitamins are not stored by the body and therefore excess of these vitamins is generally washed from our body through our urine.

VIATMIN C

Functions

- formation of intracellular cement substances in a variety of tissues; o skin, dentin, cartilage, and bone matrix o important in healing of wounds And fractures of bones
- increases resistance to infections
- Facilitates in the absorption of iron

Deficiency Mild

- lowered resistance to infections
- joint tenderness
- susceptibility to dental caries, pyorrhea, and bleeding gums

Severe deficiency

- hemorrhage
- anemia
- scurvy

Characteristics

- soluble in water
- easily destroyed by oxidation
- heat hastens process
- lost in cooking o particularly if the water in which food was cooked is discarded
- Loss is greater if cooked in iron or copper utensils
- quick-frozen foods lose little
- stored in the body to limited extent

Good Sources Natural

- Most fresh fruits and vegetables
- Fruits of citrus fruit, strawberries, and cantaloupe

- Vegetables: tomatoes, peppers, broccoli, potatoes, kale, cabbage, cauliflower, and Brussels sprouts

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males (11 yrs. and older) o 90 mg o 50-60 mg

• Females (11 yrs. and older) o 75 mg

B1 (Thiamine)

Vitamin B-1, which is otherwise known as thiamine, is necessary for most every cellular reaction in the body as a participant in an enzyme system known as thiamine pyrophosphate. It is vital to normal functioning of the nervous system and metabolism. It can be found in meat, whole grains, fish, and nuts.

Symptoms of Deficiency:

Symptoms include fatigue, depression, decreased mental functioning, muscle cramps, nausea, heart enlargement, and eventually, beriberi. Alcoholics have an increased risk of deficiency.

The Following May Benefit from this Vitamin:

Those with poor nutritional dietary intake

Anybody other than 55 years old

Women who are breastfeeding or pregnant

Recent surgery patients

Good Sources:

Baked Potatoes; Beef kidney/liver; Brewer's Yeast; Flour - rye and whole grain; Garbanzo Beans (chickpeas), dried;; Kidney beans, dried; Navy beans, dried; Orange Juice; Oranges; Oysters; Peanuts; Peas; Raisins; Rice - brown and raw; Wheat germ and products made up of wheat grains

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 1.2 mg
- Women: 1.1 mg
- Pregnancy: 1.4 mg
- Lactation: 1.5 mg

Vitamin B2 (riboflavin)

Vitamin B-2, otherwise known as riboflavin, is readily absorbed from foods, such as meat, dairy products, and fortified grains. This vitamin is essential to energy generation, nerve development, blood cell development, and the regulation of certain hormones.

How This Vitamin Works in the Body:

- Releases food energy; Normal growth and development
- Keeps healthy mucous membranes linings together with vitamin A
- Maintains healthy brain and nervous system, skin, hair, and blood cells
- Essential for iron, pyridoxine, and niacin functions
- Increases growth of body during
- important developmental stages; and Potential treatment for cheilitis
- and Participants in vigorous physical activity

Good Sources

Bananas	Beef liver	Dairy products	EggsEnriched
breads Fortified cereals	Mixed vegetables	Tuna and Wheat germs	

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 1.3 mg

- Women: 1.1 mg
- Pregnancy: 1.4 mg
- Lactation: 1.6 mg

Vitamin B3 (niacin)

Vitamin B-3, otherwise known as niacin, acts like other B vitamins to create enzymes that are essential to metabolic cell activity, synthesize hormones, repair genetic material, and maintain normal functioning of the nervous system. Great sources of this vitamin may be found in meat, fish, and whole grains. How This Vitamin Works in Your Body: May treat pellagra; Decreases cholesterol and triglycerides in blood; Large doses dilate blood vessels; Helps with ringing ears and dizziness; Essential for genetic material repair; Potential reduction in heart attacks, depression, and migraine headaches; and Poor digestion could be improved

The Following may benefit from this Supplement:

Anyone with poor dietary intake; Pregnant or breastfeeding women Substance abusers Patients who have suffered severe burns or injuries and Infants with congenital metabolic disorders

Good Sources:

- Beef liver Chicken - white meat Dried beans/peas Fortified cereals
- Peanut butter Peanuts Potatoes Salmon
- Soybeans Swordfish Tuna Turkey

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 16 mg
- Women: 14 mg
- Pregnancy: 18 mg
- Lactation: 17 mg

Vitamin B5 (Pantothenic Acid)

Vitamin B-5, which is otherwise known as Pantothenic Acid, is a coenzyme involved in energy metabolism of carbohydrates, protein, and fat. Great sources of this vitamin include eggs, nuts, and whole-wheat products

How This Vitamin Works in Your Body:

- Helps normal growth and development
- Helps release food energy
- Hastens the healing of wounds in animals
- May relieve stress
- May lessen fatigue

The following may Benefit most from this Supplement :

- Those with increased nutritional needs;
- Pregnant or breastfeeding women; Substance abusers;
- Those under prolonged stress;
- Those having undergone recent surgery; and
- People with vigorous physical activity levels.

Good Sources:

- Avocados Bananas Blue cheese Broccoli Chicken Collard greens
- Eggs Lentils Liver Lobster Meats Milk
- Oranges Peanut butter Peanuts
-

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 5 mg
- Women: 5 mg
- Pregnancy: 5 mg
- Lactation: 5mg

Vitamin B6 (Pyridoxine)

Vitamin B-6, which is otherwise known as Pyridoxine, performs as a coenzyme to carryout metabolic processes that affect the body's use of protein, carbohydrates, and fat. It helps to convert tryptophan to niacin, and may be found in meat, fish, eggs, milk, and whole grain foods.

How This Vitamin Works in Your Body:

- Promotes healthy cardiovascular, nervous, and immune systems
- Supports healthy skin, hair, and normal red-blood-cell formation
- Assists in production of food energy
- Can be used in anemia treatment
- Treatment of cycloserine and isoniazid poisoning
- Keeps normal homocysteine levels
- Functions as a tranquilizer
- Important for healthy nerve and muscle functioning
- Blood cholesterol may decrease
- Inflammation of arthritis and carpal-tunnel syndrome may be reduced; Reduction of PMS symptoms
- May reduce asthma symptoms; and Increases levels of serotonin to ease sleep

Good Sources:

Avocados	Bananas	Beef liver	Chicken	Fortified cereals	Ground beef
Hazelnuts (filberts)		Lentils	Potatoes	Salmon	Shrimp
Soybeans	Sunflower seeds		Tuna	Wheat germ	

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 1.3 mg
- Men (Over 50): 1.7 mg
- Women: 1.3 mg
- Women (Over 50): 1.5 mg
- Pregnancy: 1.9 mg
- Lactation: 2.0 mg

Vitamin B9 (Folic Acid)

Vitamin B-9, which is otherwise known as Folic Acid, serves as a coenzyme during the creation of DNA. This vitamin is also very important to the growth and reproduction of all body cells, including red blood cells. Great food sources of vitamin B-9 include liver and dark green leafy vegetables.

How This Vitamin Works in the Body :

- Aids in the formation of red blood cells
- Creation of genetic material
- Promotes a healthy pregnancy by regulating the nervous system development of the fetus
- Helps treat anemic patients resulting from folic acid deficiency

- Functions to metabolize proteins; and Cervical dysphasia may be reduced The

Following People May Benefit from the Consumption of This Vitamin:

Those with increased nutritional needs; Pregnant or breastfeeding women or those planning to become pregnant; Oral contraceptive users; Substance abusers; and Those who have undergone partial removal of the gastrointestinal tract

Good Sources:

Asparagus	Avocados	Bananas	Beans	Beets
Brewer's Yeast	Brussels sprouts	Cabbage	Calf liver	
Cantaloupe	Citrus fruits/juices	Endive	Fortified	
grain products	Garbanzo beans (chickpeas)			

Green leafy Vegetables, such as Lentils; Sprouts Wheat germ

Recommended Daily Intakes

- Men: 400 mg
- Women: 400 mg
- Pregnancy: 600 mg
- Lactation: 500 mg

Vitamin B12 (Cyanocobalamin)

Vitamin B-12, which is known as Cyanocobalamin, performs as a coenzyme for the creation of DNA material. It also promotes growth and cell development and is important to fat, carbohydrate, and protein metabolism. Although vitamin B-12 is not found in plant foods, good sources of this supplement include meats, fish, eggs, and dairy products.

How This Vitamin Works in the Body:

Growth and development of nerve, skin, hair, and blood cells Produces genetic material; Metabolizes amino and fatty acids Works to release food energy Helps treat Alzheimer's disease. May help sufferers of nervous disorders; Could improve immune system; and May see increase in energy and memory

Good Sources: • Beef • Beef liver • Blue cheese• Clams • Dairy products • Eggs;
• Milk • Oysters; • Sardines

Recommended Daily Intakes • Men: 2.4 mcg • Women: 2.4 mcg • Pregnancy: 2.6 mcg
• Lactation: 2.8 mcg

VITAMIN P

" **Vitamin P** " is the name once used to describe a group of plant-based substances we now known as flavonoids or bioflavonoids . When you're eating a salad with colorful plant foods, you're getting a dose of **vitamin P** .

MINERALS

Calcium

Functions

- Bones and teeth formation
- Nerves and muscles function
- Blood clotting
- Activation of enzymes that convert food to energy

Deficiency

- Muscle cramps

• Children o rickets (soft, deformed bones) o poor growth in children
• Adults o osteoporosis

Good Sources Natural

• Milk and dairy products
• Dark-green, leafy vegetables
• Spinach, collard greens, mustard greens, and turnip greens
• Broccoli soybean products tofu
• Garbanzo beans
• Bean sprouts
• Nuts
• Almonds, chestnuts, filberts
• Sunflower and sesame seeds
• Fish (with tiny bone particles)
• figs

Adequate Intakes (AI)

• Males and Females o Adults 1,000 mg

Chloride

Functions

• Nerve and muscle function
• Water balance (with sodium)

Deficiency

• impaired electrolyte balance

Sources • Salt

Adequate Intakes (AI) Males and Females (Adults) 2.3 g

Chlorium

Functions

• Glucose metabolism Deficiency
• Adult-onset diabetes

Good Sources Natural

• Meats o beef, chicken,, liver, oyster, and shrimp
• Vegetables o black pepper, green pepper, potato, spinach, parsnips, fresh chilli, and carrots
• Fruit o apple, banana, orange, and blueberries
• cheese
• egg
• whole grains
• beans

Adequate Intakes (AI) • Males (Adult) o 35 mcg • Female (Adult) o 25 mcg

Selenium

Functions

To protect immune system
To prevent free radical formation

Good Sources

• Brazil nuts

• Seafood
• Meat
• grains

Copper

Functions

• helps in formation of red blood cells
• helps keep bones, blood vessels, nerves, and immune system healthy
• enzyme function
• energy production

Deficiency

• anaemia
• Menkes' Syndrome

Good Sources Natural

• Meat • poultry • liver • seafood, fish, and oysters • green vegetables
• Whole grains • legumes, peas • nuts
• Raisins, papayas, and apples • mushrooms, carrots, and turnips • vegetable oils
• Butter • gelatine • black pepper, thyme, paprika, bay leaves, and ginger roots

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males and Females o 900 mcg

Fluoride

Functions

• Bone and teeth growth

Deficiency

• tooth decay
• Possibly osteoporosis

Good Sources Natural Sources

• Fish, seafood
• Milk
• Tea Artificial sources
• fluoridated drinking water

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males (adults) o 4 mg
• Females (adults) o 3 mg
• Pregnant female o 1.6 mg

Iodine

Functions

• Thyroid hormone formation
• Regulates oxidation in cells

Deficiency

• Hypothyroidism o disturbance in thyroid function
• Goiter o enlargement of thyroid gland
• Cretinism o stunting and mental retardation o in infants / new born

Good Sources Natural

• Seafood o salt-water fish o seaweed

• Dairy o milk o cheese o butter
• Whole-grain cereal

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males and Females (11 yrs. and older) o 150 mcg
• Pregnant females o 175 mcg
• Lactating females o 200 mcg
• Children o 7-10 yrs. 120 mcg

Iron

Functions

oxygen transport in red blood cells production of hemoglobin and myoglobin enzyme function

Deficiency

- fatigue
- weakness
- headaches
- shortness of breath
- iron deficiency anemia

Good Sources Natural

• Red meat, liver, and kidney shellfish
• Egg yolks beans
• Green leafy vegetables apricots
• Whole grains

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

- Males Adult 8 mg
- 19 years and older 12 mg
- 11-18 years 10 mg
- Females o Adult 18 mg

Magnesium

Functions

• Essential to bone growth and production of cells and genetic material
• Cofactor in enzymatic release of energy
• regulates neuromuscular sensitivity
• including regulation of normal heart rhythm

Deficiency

- muscle cramps and weakness
- twitching
- confusion
- irregular heartbeat
- insomnia
- deficiency most often seen in o Alcoholics people taking diuretics
- those dehydrated from prolonged diarrhea

Good Sources

- green, leafy vegetables (raw)
- nuts
- beans

- soybeans and soy products
- whole grains
- fish, crab, oysters, and scallops
- kelp
- potato, sweet potato, and beets
- avocado
- figs, apricots, dates, prunes, raisins, bananas, blackberries, and coconuts
- this is also found in plant and animal tissues but seldom occurs in high concentrations

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

350-450mg

Manganese

Functions

• Enzymatic function

Deficiency

Not known in humans

Good Sources

• Green, leafy vegetables
• Nuts
• Beans
• Whole grains
• Fruit
• Tea

Adequate Intakes (AI)

• Males (adults) o 2.3 mg
• Females (adults) o 1.8 mg

Phosphorus

Functions

• formation of bones and teeth
• helps form membranes and genetic material
• activation of enzymes that convert food to energy
• maintenance of body's proper acid/base balance
• nerve/muscle function

Deficiency

• Deficiency is rare
• Muscular weakness
• Pain in bones
• Loss of appetite

Good Sources Natural

• Milk and dairy products
• Egg yolks
• Meat, poultry, and fish
•whole grains
• Beans, peas, soybeans
• Nuts, seeds
• Green and root vegetables

• Fruits
• Nearly all food

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males and Females 700mg

Potassium

Functions

• Regulation of fluid balance of cells and blood
• Nerve impulse transmission
• Muscle contraction
• function of heart and kidneys

Deficiency

• Muscle weakness
• Irregular heart beat
• Kidney damage
• Deficiency most often seen in people o taking diuretics o dehydrated from prolonged Diarrhea

Good Sources Natural

• Bananas • citrus fruits • fresh vegetables • potatoes • legumes • whole grains • milk and dairy products meats, fish • nuts, seeds

Adequate Intakes (AI)

Males and Females (19-51+ yrs.) 4,700 mg (4.7 g) 2,000 mg

Sodium

Functions

• Nerve and muscle function
• Fluid balance

Deficiency

• Muscle cramps
• Weakness
• Headache
• Deficiency rare in developed countries
• Acute deficiency caused by extremely heavy perspiration

Good Sources

• Table salt
• Milk and dairy products
• Also found in many processed foods
• Drinking water

Adequate Intakes (AI)

• Males and Females (19-51+ yrs.) 1,500 mg (1.5 g) 500 mg

Zinc

Functions

• required to produce enzymes necessary for o digestion o cell division, growth, and repair (healing)
• helps immune system function properly
• plays role in acuity of taste and smell

Deficiency

• Wounds slow to heal loss of taste/appetite

• stunted growth and sexual development in children

Good Sources Natural

• Beef, chicken • liver • seafood o fish, shellfish • milk and dairy products • eggs • whole Grains • legumes, peas • nuts

Recommended Daily Allowances (RDA)

• Males (11 yrs. and older) o 11 mg o 15 mg

• Females (11 yrs. and older) o 8 mg o 12 mg

MALNUTRITION

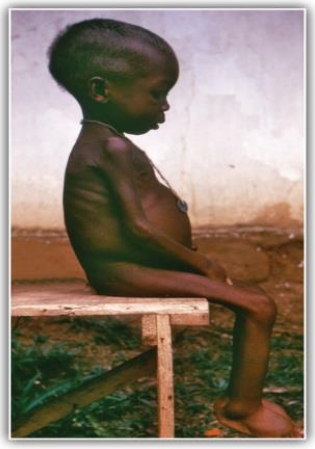
Inadequate intake of calories which leads to pathological state, the word inadequate caters both less and excess on the basis of clinical type, specificity and causes.

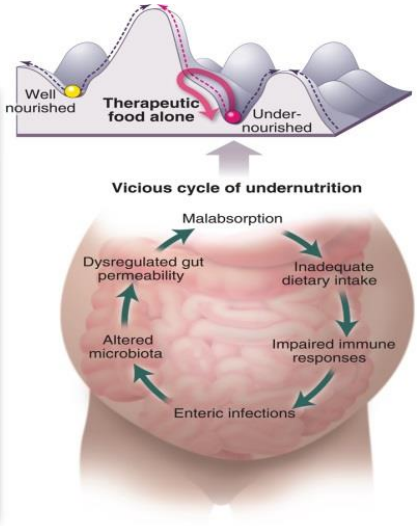
Malnutrition includes :

- UNDERNUTRITION
- OVERNUTRITION

1-UNDERNUTRITION

Less intake of diet as per RDA varies with age over and extended period of time. It Severe causes known as starvation.Low intake of essential nutrients leads to under nutrition. Under nutrition is often obvious: People are underweight, bones often protrude, their skinis dry and inelastic, and their hair is dry and falls out easily.





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PROTEIN ENERGY MALNUTRITION

Protein-energy under nutrition has two main forms:

- Marasmus
- Kwashiorkor

Marasmus

Marasmus is a severe deficiency of calories and protein. It tends to develop in infants and very young children. It typically results in weight loss, loss of muscle and fat, and dehydration. Breastfeeding usually protects against marasmus

Kwashiorkor

Kwashiorkor is a severe deficiency more of protein than of calories. Kwashiorkor is less common than marasmus. The term is derived from an African word meaning “first child–second child” because a first-born child often develops kwashiorkor when the second child is born and replaces the first-born child at the mother’s breast. Because children tend to develop kwashiorkor after they are weaned, they are usually older than those who have marasmus.

Kwashiorkor tends to be confined to certain areas of the world where staple foods and foods used to wean babies are deficient in protein even though they provide enough calories as carbohydrates. Examples of such foods are yams, cassava, rice, sweet potatoes, and green bananas. However, anyone can develop kwashiorkor if their diet consists mainly of carbohydrates. People with kwashiorkor retain fluid, making them appear puffy and swollen. If kwashiorkor is severe, the abdomen may protrude.

.RICKETS:

Rickets is the softening and weakening of bones in children, usually because of an extreme and prolonged vitamin D deficiency. Rare inherited problems also can cause rickets. Vitamin D helps your child's body absorb calcium and phosphorus from food.

SCURVEY:

Scurvy is a disease resulting from a lack of vitamin C (ascorbic acid). Early symptoms of deficiency include weakness, feeling tired and sore arms and legs. Without treatment, decreased red blood cells, gum disease, changes to hair, and bleeding from the skin may occur.

ANEMIA:

Anemia is a condition in which you lack enough healthy red blood cells to carry adequate oxygen to your body's tissues. Having anemia can make you feel tired and weak . Anemia is due to deficiency of iron .

PELLAGRA:

Is a disease caused by a lack of the vitamin niacin (vitamin B 3). Symptoms include inflamed skin, diarrhea, dementia, and sores in the mouth. Areas of the skin exposed to either sunlight or friction are typically affected first.

OSTEOMALACIA:

Is softening of bones, can result in fracture. most often caused by severe vitamin D deficiency. The softened bones of children and young adults with osteomalacia can lead to bowing during growth, especially in weight-bearing bones of the legs.

OVERNUTRITION:

Obesity what is Obesity?

Obesity is a condition in which excess fat leads to impairments in health. It's usually defined as a Body Mass Index (BMI) greater than 30 kg/m² where excess weight is gained due to energy intake exceeding

energy expenditure. Both being obese and being overweight increase the risk of a range of diseases that can have a significant health impact on individuals.

The risks are higher as BMI increases for those with the following diseases

- diabetes - the risk of developing type 2 diabetes is about 20 times greater for people who are very obese, compared with healthy weight individuals.
- Cancer - 10 percent of all cancer deaths among non-smokers are related to obesity.
- Coronary heart disease - leading to heart attack and stroke
- Hypertension - 85 percent of hypertension is associated with a BMI greater than 25.
- Liver disease - up to 90 percent of people who are obese will have fatty liver disease, Which may lead eventually to cirrhosis.

Causes of Obesity

There are many reasons for obesity. While its cause is definitely tied to an imbalance of calories taken in versus calories burned through physical activity, it also can be affected by:

- Family history and genes
- Medications. Some antidepressants, anti-seizure medications, diabetes medications, steroids, and beta blockers may cause weight gain
- Social networks and economics Research suggests people may be at greater risk for being overweight or obese if their friends are; other data shows people at lower economic levels have a greater chance of being obese
- Lifestyle habits, eating behaviours, and stress
- Too little sleep. This can affect hormones that increase appetite
- Medical problems, such as hypothyroidism, Prader-Willi and Polycystic Ovary Syndrome.

Biochemistry(B-Catagory)

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CHAPTER 10

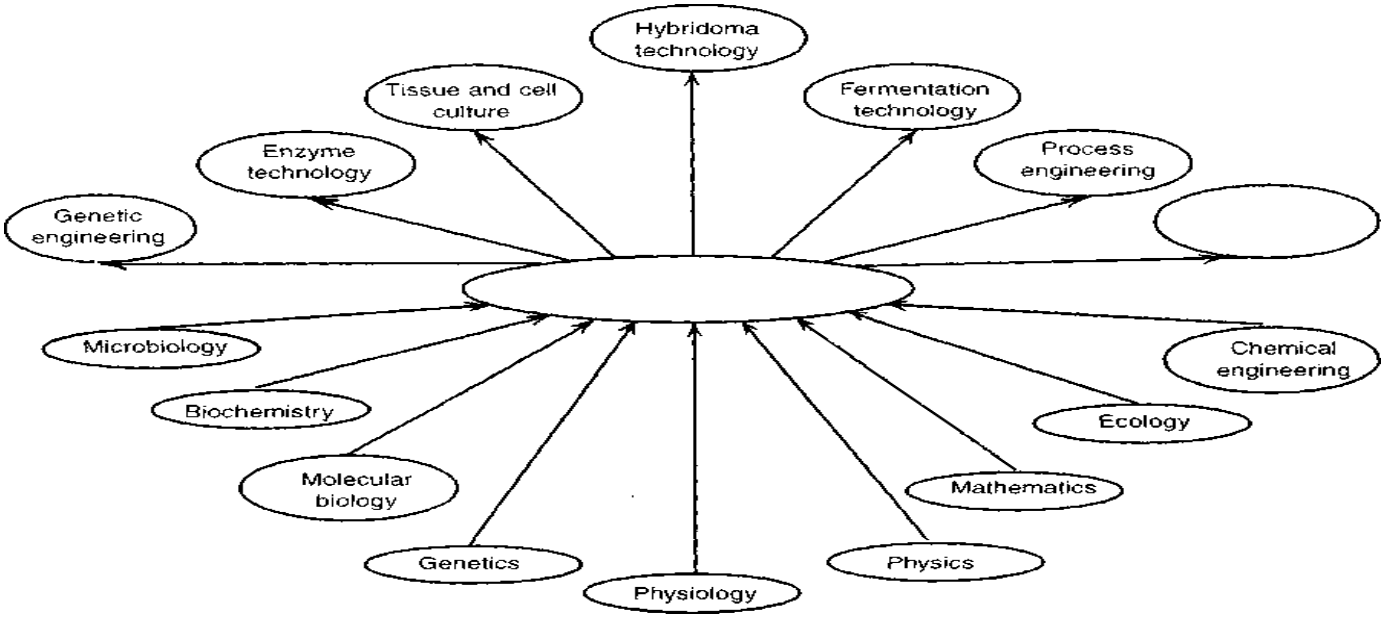
Introduction to Biotechnology

Biotechnology is a vast and rapidly growing branch of science. As the name indicates, biotechnology is the product of interactions between biology and technology. The British biotechnologists define biotechnology as "The application of biological organisms, systems, or processes to the manufacturing and service industries". It is an integrated application of techniques to draw benefits from the properties and capacities of living organisms especially microorganisms, for the welfare of mankind. Hence, European Federation of Biotechnology defines the term biotechnology as "The integration of natural sciences in order to achieve the applications of organisms, cells, parts thereof and molecular analogues for products and services.

Biotechnology is an applied science and has many basic sciences incorporated in it, Microbiology, physiology, Genetics, Biochemistry, Immunology, Chemistry, Mathematics,. Physics and Industrial technology are some of the basic sciences which are merged with each other to give birth to various branches of biotechnology.

Importance of Biotechnology

Modern biotechnology has its roots in two arenas of science namely molecular biology and



microbiology. Advancement in these two sciences has led to a better understanding of the biochemical processes and their inter relationship. This insight has been exploited for the development of biotechnology.

Many biotechnological products including drugs, vaccines, food products and enzymes, and techniques like new therapeutic methods (example: gene therapy) Many Nobel laureates including Hargobind Kliorana and Walter Gilbert are associated with the development of biotechnology. Many pharmaceutical companies like Genentech, Cetus and Hybritech are involved in biotechnology research and development.

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Areas of Interest in Biotechnology

The field of biotechnology can be divided into eight major areas namely,

- Recombinant DNA technology
- Hybridism technology
- Enzyme and biocatalysts technology
- Plant cell culture
- Animal cell culture
- Fermentation technologies
    - Waste treatment and utilization
    - Process engineering

APPLICATIONS OF BIOTECHNOLOGY

I) Perhaps the most exciting development in 1980's has been the development of methods in biotechnology to produce newer **drugs** and also to make known **chemotherapeutic agents** available in clinically useful quantities.

II) The techniques that are steering a revolution in drug therapy are hybridoma technology, recombinant DNA technology, tissue culture and cell culture technology and gene therapy.

III) The use of hormone replacement therapy for the persons who are deficient in a particular hormone is a well-established method for the treatment of endocrine disorders. The non-availability of these hormones in sufficiently large quantities are a limitation. However, biotechnology has made it possible to get these hormones in large quantities in pure form. This has given a hope for treatment of these disorders with purer products. Some of the examples are biotechno- logically produced hormones like insulin, somatostatin and human growth hormone (hGH).

IV) One of the most exciting applications of biotechnology is gene therapy. This involves removal of faulty genes from the cell and incorporation of correct gene in its place. Gene therapy promises cure to all genetic abnormalities including thalassemia, hemophilia and sickle cell anemia which were thought to be incurable till recent times. It also promises a better treatment to the infectious diseases likeAIDS.

V) In the tissue culture technology, the plant cells or tissues are grown in a test tube or a conical flask. A specific cell line can be selected and developed artificially by using growth factors and plant growth hormones. The grown up cell line can be used for development of clones of plants, elimination of pathogens from plants, production of secondary metabolites, biotrans formation of substrates, and also for improvement of crops and their respective yield.

VI) The advent of Biotechnology has led to newer and improved treatments for many of the diseases. It has helped in the development of betterandcheapervaccinestocounterthespread of infectious diseases. Recombinant DNA vaccines are being developed for viral, protozoal and bacterial infections.

VII) Biotechnology has created a revolution in the diagnosis of many epidemic diseases. Many rapid diagnostic tests and newer techniques for identification of the pathogens have been developed with the help of this science.

For example, plasmid profile analysis, genomic fingerprinting and multilocus enzyme electro-phoresis

are some of the techniques that have been developed for identification of causative organisms. Nucleic acid hybridization, poly-merase chain reaction and ELISA are some of the techniques developed for diagnosis of genetic diseases.

Hence, the US National Science Foundation has appropriately defined biotechnology as

"Controlled use of biological agents such as microorganisms or cellular components for the benefit of mankind".

Introduction to Genetic Engineering

The gross structures and physical characteristics of each of the organisms have their origin in the genes, which are transferred from parents to offspring. The information for the development, organization and functions of living system is stored in these discrete units, called genes. These genes are located in the nucleus of each cell in the form of either chromosome or chromatin thread.

Transcription and translation

As mentioned earlier, the process of synthesis of RNA from the DNA with the same sequence of nucleotides as DNA is called as transcription. This process is catalyzed by an enzyme, DNA dependent RNA polymerase. The process of transcription in prokaryotes differs slightly from that in eukaryotes. In prokaryotes, the exact copy of DNA is represented in RNA and it directly codes for amino acid sequence of the proteins.

Translation is the process of translating the nucleotide sequence mRNA into amino acid sequence of the protein. This occurs on the ribosomes which are present in cytoplasm. Translation occurs in 5 to 3 direction. The mRNA moves over the surface of ribosome, bringing successive groups of nucleotides that code for amino acid (codon) into position.

Concept of Genetic Engineering

Except few viruses, the genetic material in all the organisms is DNA. The process of DNA replication, transcription and translation occur in a similar manner in all the organisms. The genetic code, the triplet codon system and the enzymes are common in all organisms, from bacteria to human beings. The DNA of one organism can express its characters in another organism also. This is the main idea of genetic engineering.

Changes that occur in the DNA molecules (mutations) may lead to genetic disorders. The important tools of genetic engineering are listed below:

- Enzymes
- Vectors
- cDNA clone bank or cDNA library
- gene bank or genomic library

Enzymes required for rDNA Technology

Many enzymes are used as biological tools in rDNA technology. They include:

i. Restriction endonucleases
ii. SI nuclease

iii. DNA ligases
iv. Alkaline phosphatase
v. Reverse transcriptase
vi. DNA polymerase

Acid-Base & Electrolyte Balance in Human body

The body fluids must maintain a constant balance of acids and bases. In solutions such as intracellular and extracellular fluids, acids are dissociated into hydrogen ions (H+) and anions on the other hand; bases are dissociated into hydroxyl ions (OH-) and cautions.

Terms related with acid-base balance

Acid

This may be defined as a substance that dissociates into one or more hydrogen ions (H+) and one or more negative anions. It may also be defined as a proton donor or H+ donor.

Acidosis

This is the increase in H+ concentration or decrease in pH (pH below 7.4)

Base

This is the substance which combines with H+ and removes then - from a solution. It is also known as the proton acceptor.

Alkali

This is the combination of one of the alkaline e.g. sodium or potassium with a highly basic ion such as (OH-).

Alkalosis

This is a decrease in H+ concentration or an increase in pH (pH above 7.4)

pH

The pH may be defined as the negative log of H+ ion concentration. pH = -log (H+)

The pH of blood is regulated and controlled by various buffer systems, essentially consist of weak acids and its base of which the most important is bicarbonate-carbonic acid ratio HCO3: H2CO3 It is regulated by removal of CO2 by lungs and by excretion of both acids and bases by kidneys. The ratio of bicarbonate to carbonic acid is 20:1 alteration in this ratio alter the pH. A decrease in the ratio leads to increase in the acidity and vice versa.

Biochemistry(B-Catagory)

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Systems for Regulation of Acid-Base Balance

There are three systems which regulate acid-base balance in the body.

i) Acid-base buffer system
ii) Respiratory system
iii) Renal system

1. Acid-Base-Buffer System

This is the mechanism that maintains the homeostatic pH value in the body. The most important buffer system of the body consists of a weak acid and the salt of that acid, which functions as a weak base. The function of a buffer is to prevent rapid changes in the pH of a body fluid by changing strong acids and bases into weak acids and bases.

Time duration of buffer

Buffers work within fractions of a second.

Buffer systems of body fluids

The Principal Buffer systems of body fluids are:

i. Carbonic acid-bicarbonate system
ii. Phosphate system
iii. Hb-oxyhemoglobin system
iv. iv.Protein system

Functions

Many naturally occurring acids are necessary for life. For example, hydrochloric acid is secreted by the stomach to assist with digestion. The chemical composition of food in the diet can have an effect on the body's acid-base production. Components that affect acid-base balance include protein, chloride, phosphorus, sodium, potassium, calcium, and magnesium.In addition, the rate at which nutrients are absorbed in the intestine will alter acid-base balance.

Cells and body fluids contain acid-base buffers, which help to prevent rapid changes in body fluid pH over short periods of time, until the kidneys pulmonary systems can make appropriate adjustments. The kidneys and pulmonary system then work to maintain acid-base balance through excretion in the urine or respiration. Excess acid or base is then excreted in the urine by the renal system to control plasma bicarbonate concentration. Changes in respiration occur primarily in minutes to hours, while renal function works to alter blood pH within several days.

Electrolytes of body fluids

Electrolytes are electrovalent substances that form ions in solution which coduct electric current e.g. Sodium, Chloridecupper, Sulphate, potassium nitrate

Functions

A summary of the most important functions of electrolytes present in body fluid are given bellow,

i) They are responsible for the maintenance of most of the osmotic pressure of body fluids.

ii) They provide an optimum ionic balance for tissues to perform their activities

iii) They participate in the regulation of the pH of body fluids

iv) They regulate the neuromuscular irritability or excitability.