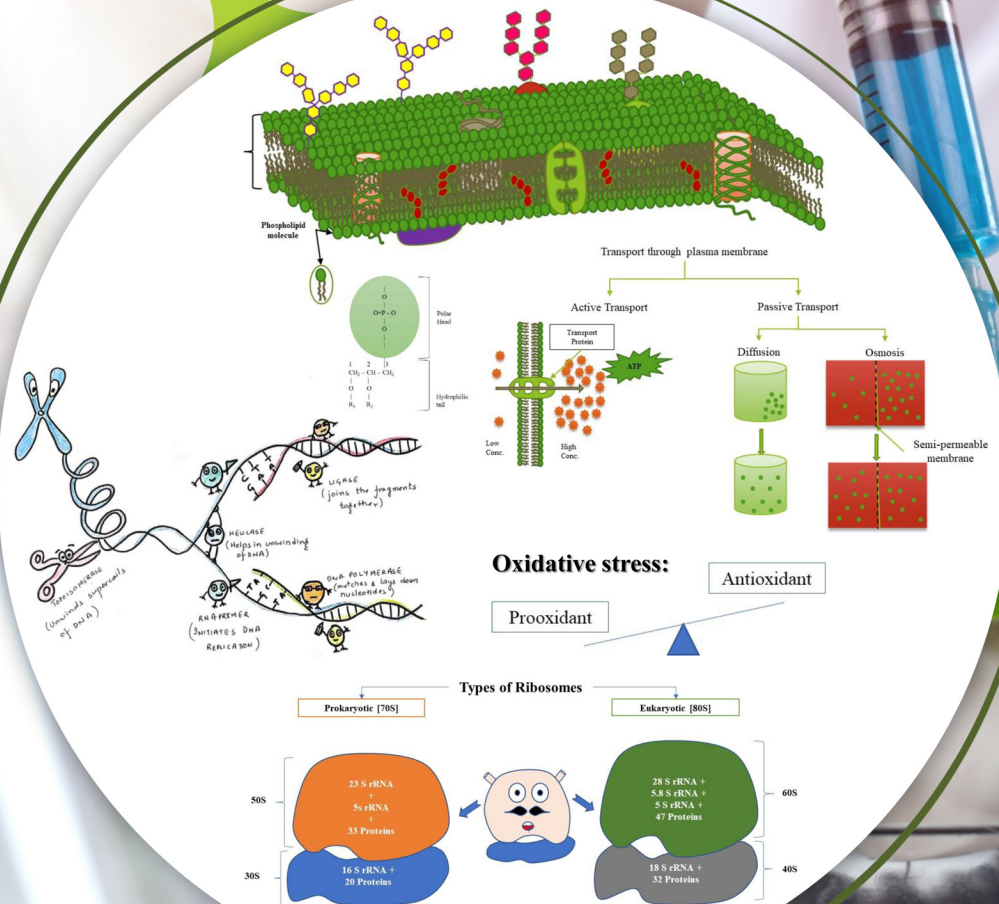


# MIND MAPS IN BIOCHEMISTRY



Simmi Kharb

Bentham Books

# **Mind Maps in Biochemistry**

**Authored by**

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## **Mind Maps in Biochemistry**

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## FOREWORD

Undersigned is excited to record personal impressions on book, “Mindmaps in Biochemistry” authored by Dr. Simmi Kharb working at Department of Biochemistry, Pt. B. D. Sharma Postgraduate Institute of Medical Sciences (PGIMS), Rohtak, Haryana, India as a Professor and Nodal Officer at the Multidisciplinary Research Unit of the Institute.

The first textbook on Biochemistry was written by Alexander Thomas Cameron in 1928. Since then, ginormous development has taken place in the field of Biochemistry into different scientific canals. On one hand the whole genome has been unfurled and on other hand, there has been great demand of traditional knowledge. When the world is passing through turmoil of knowledge bank, there has been great development in understanding the ‘Chemistry of Biological Systems’. Professor Simmi Kharb has generated literature by virtue of her book in the arena of Biochemistry with an aim (ambition in mind) that the present day students studying Biochemistry need comprehensive information at one place in understandable language that can act as unstoppable orientation in young minds that would lead to formation of strong grass root for becoming passionate Biochemists.

It was being felt by the teachers and students of Biochemistry that a composite collection of Biochemical Principles which can find place in the minds of learners just like map, was missing in the literate world. Dr. Simmi Kharb accepted the challenge of producing a book on Biochemistry that has simple, consolidated, easy to read and retain, all in one, mixture of basic and advanced knowledge module.

The issues covered in this book are: Biochemical concepts, Organization of chemical and biological approach, Principles in balance of biological systems, Acquiring meaningful understanding of Biochemistry, Real-time world relevance and Problem-solving mechanisms. The book runs through cell to body.

*ii*

I am confident that this book shall make its place in libraries, minds of teachers and vocal cord of students all over the world.

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## PREFACE

Students often view Biochemistry as a pile of facts or equations to be memorized rather than as concepts to be understood. The author proposes to create a series of concept and knowledge maps about the biochemical contents to illustrate graphically the relationships between the ideas presented in a given proposed chapter, as well as to show how information can be grouped or organized.

In order to facilitate the student's understanding of the metabolic pathways and providing greater interaction with the contents, an approach to better learning metabolic diagrams will be developed through:

- i. Flow diagrams and illustrations: showing substrates and enzymes of the metabolic pathways, their control, inhibition, role of vitamins in their correct functioning, and their connection with other systems
- ii. Reading the functions and characteristics of metabolic pathways in illustrations
- iii. Solving of essay and multiple-choice questions
- iv. Recent advances and applied aspects of biochemistry, applied therapeutics and microbiology will be discussed

Also, students will be encouraged to make their own flow diagrams and tables and sample questions will be provided to improve their analytical skills.

As a learning tool, it can be used by the student to, *e.g.*, making notes, solving problems, planning the study and/or writing of essays, preparing for examinations, and identifying the connection of topics.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENT & CONFLICT OF INTEREST

No potential conflict of interest is declared by the author. It is also declared the complete work is an individual effort by the author and there was no financial/ administrative/ academic support availed from any individual/ institution /organization.

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**Cell, Plasma Membrane, Membrane Transport**

<b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Illustrate the cellular components and their significance.</li> <li>• Appraise the structure and function of the cell membrane.</li> <li>• Explain the transport mechanisms operating across the plasma membrane.</li> </ul>		<b>Keywords:</b> Active transport, Eukaryotic cells, Prokaryotic cell, Plasma membrane, Passive transport, Sub-cellular component.
<b>KEY FEATURES OF CELL</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Cell: structural and functional unit of life.</li> <li>2. Most chemical reactions take place within cells.</li> <li>3. Cells are of two types:           <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Prokaryotic cell</li> <li>ii. Eukaryotic cell</li> </ol> </li> </ol> <p>- The human body is composed of <math>10^{14}</math> cells.</p>	<p>Cells possess a genetic program and the mean to use it: capable of producing more of themselves.</p> <p>Cells acquire and utilize energy, carry out a variety of chemical reactions: metabolism.</p> <p>Cells engage in mechanical activity able to respond to stimulant.</p> <p><b>PROKARYOTIC CELL</b></p> <p>Lack well-defined nucleus.</p> <p>Contain rigid cell wall.</p> <p><b>EUKARYOTIC CELL</b></p> <p>Cells are highly complex and organized.</p> <p>Contain well defined nucleus, more complicated internal structure.</p>	
<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Prokaryotic Cell</b>	<b>Eukaryotic</b>
<b>Size</b>	Small 1-10 $\mu$	Large 10-100 $\mu$

<b>Cell Wall</b>	Present	As extracellular matrix
<b>Cell Membrane</b>	Rigid, cell wall	Flexible, plasma membrane
<b>Nucleus</b>	No well-defined nucleus	Well-defined nucleus, contain membrane
<b>DNA</b>	Found as nucleoid	DNA associated with histones
<b>Histones</b>	Absent	Present
<b>Nucleolus</b>	Absent	Present
<b>Genome</b>	Single, circular chromosome	Multiple chromosomes
<b>Metabolism</b>	Both aerobic and anaerobic	Aerobic
<b>Respiratory Enzymes</b>	Located in the plasma membrane	Located in mitochondria
<b>Cell Division</b>	Cleavage, fission	Mitosis, meiosis
<b>Cytoplasm</b>	Lack organelle and cytoskeleton	Contain organelle and cytoskeleton
<p><b>CYTOSOL</b></p> <p>Fluid compartment: soluble part, viscous gel. Represents 50-60% of total cell volume It is in contact with all sub-cellular organelle. Contains: enzyme, metabolites and salts.</p> <p><b>Functions</b></p> <p>Carbohydrate metabolism Fat metabolism Nucleotide metabolism</p>		<p><b>COMPOSITION OF CYTOSOL</b></p> <p><b>1. Proteins:</b></p> <p><i>a. Enzymes</i></p> <p>i. Carbohydrate metabolism ii. Protein metabolism iii. Fat metabolism</p> <p><i>b. Transporter, carrier proteins</i></p> <p><b>2. Metabolites:</b></p> <p>Of carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism.</p> <p><b>3. Other Molecules:</b></p> <p><math>\text{Na}^+</math>, <math>\text{K}^+</math>, <math>\text{Ca}^{2+}</math>, <math>\text{Mg}^{2+}</math>, <math>\text{HCO}_3^-</math>, <math>\text{Cl}^-</math>, <math>\text{PO}_4^-</math></p>

<p><b>METABOLIC PATHWAYS IN CYTOSOL</b></p> <p><b>1. Carbohydrate Metabolism</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Glycolysis</li> <li>b. PPP</li> <li>c. Glycogen</li> </ul> <p><b>2. Fatty Acid Synthesis (<i>de novo</i>)</b></p> <p><b>3. Amino Acid Metabolism</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Oxidation</li> <li>b. Deamination</li> <li>c. Decarboxylation</li> <li>d. Transamination</li> </ul>	<p><b>4. Pathway present:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. <i>Initial step of:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Heme synthesis</li> <li>ii. Urea synthesis</li> </ul> </li> <li>b. <i>Nucleotide synthesis:</i> many steps occur in cytosol: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. <u>CPS II</u></li> <li>ii. <u>ATCase</u></li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p><b>CYTOSKELETON</b></p> <p>Composed of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o <b>Actin filament:</b> 7 nm thick, attached to adherens junction, reacts with myosin filament during contraction.</li> <li>o <b>Intermediate filament:</b> 10 nm thick, attaches to desmosomes and hemidesmosomes.</li> <li>o <b>Microtubules:</b> 25 nm thick, hollow, composed of <math>\alpha</math> and <math>\beta</math> tubulin subunits.</li> </ul> <p><b>Functions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Allows cells to move and adopt different shapes.</li> <li>o Play role in cell division: microtubules form mitotic spindle.</li> <li>o Cell movement, determining cell shape, axonal transport.</li> </ul> <p><b>Cilia</b></p> <p>Move fluid over epithelial surfaces <i>e.g.</i> respiratory tract</p>	<p><b>Applied aspect</b></p> <p>Immotile cilia can cause Kartagener's syndrome: Sinusitis, Bronchitis, Situs inverses</p> <p>Immotile cilia caused by:</p> <p>Fault in motor protein <i>dynein</i>: responsible for the rhythmic movement of cilia and flagella.</p> <p><b>CELL JUNCTIONS</b></p> <p>Four classes of junction that form epithelial cells: tight, adherens, desmosomes, gap junctions</p> <p><b>NUCLEUS</b></p> <p>Large fragmental structure bounded by a double membrane, contains nucleolus.</p> <p>Generally, cells in human body have a single nucleus except:</p> <p>Skeletal muscle cells have many nuclei.</p> <p>Mature RBC have no nucleus.</p>

## Introduction of Metabolism: Anabolism, Catabolism and Energy Metabolism

<b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b>		<b>Keywords:</b>
<p>Explain the metabolic role of catabolic and anabolic activities in a cell.</p> <p>Describe the processes of how cell obtain energy to perform 'Cellular work.</p>		<p>ATP, NAD (P)H, Anabolism, Catabolism, Metabolic integration, Sugar phosphates.</p>
<b>QUICK SUMMARY</b>		<b>MACROMOLECULAR SYNTHESIS</b>
<p><b>Metabolism: Five Functional Blocks</b></p> <p><i>Catabolic Activities</i></p> <p>Foods oxidized to carbon dioxide and water; ATP and NADPH produced.</p> <p><i>Anabolic Activities</i></p> <p>Metabolic intermediates from catabolism converted to a variety of molecules; ATP and NADPH consumed.</p>		<p><i>Anabolic Products used to Synthesize Biopolymers:</i></p> <p>ATP principle source of energy.</p> <p>GTP: Protein synthesis.</p> <p>CTP: Phospholipid synthesis.</p> <p>UTP: Polysaccharide synthesis.</p> <p>Photochemical activities.</p> <p>Light energy used to produce ATP and NADPH.</p> <p>Carbon dioxide fixation.</p> <p>ATP and NADPH used to fix carbon dioxide and convert to an intermediate.</p>
<b>Ten Key Intermediates</b>		
<i>Carbohydrates</i>	CoA derivatives	
Triose-P, tetrose-P, pentose-P, hexose-P.	Acetyl-CoA, succinyl-CoA	

<p><math>\alpha</math> Keto acids. Pyruvate, oxaloacetate, <math>\alpha</math> -ketoglutarate.</p>	<p>PEP. ADP/ATP and NAD/NADPH couple catabolism to anabolism.</p>
<p><b>METABOLISM FACT FILE</b></p> <p><b>Intermediates:</b> A number of intermediates that serve crucial roles in intermediary metabolism such as sugar phosphates, pyruvate, oxaloacetate, <math>\alpha</math> -ketoglutarate, acetyl-CoA, succinyl- CoA and PEP.</p>	
<p><b>1. Sugar phosphates:</b> Found in glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, and the pentose phosphate pathway.</p>	
<p><b>a. <u>Pyruvate:</u></b> Derived from glycolysis and amino acids. Port of entry into the citric acid cycle for glucose-derived carbons.</p>	<p><b>b. <u>Oxaloacetate and <math>\alpha</math> -ketoglutarate:</u></b> Citric acid cycle intermediates. Both can be produced from amino acids by deamination.</p>
<p><b>2. Acetyl-CoA:</b> Consumed in citric acid cycle The common denominator between fatty acids, sugars, and amino acid</p>	<p><b>3. Succinyl-CoA:</b> A citric cycle intermediate. Place of entry of propionate from dietary sources and odd-chain fatty acid catabolism. Product of amino acid catabolism. Used in heme biosynthesis.</p>
<p><b>4. ATP and NADPH:</b> Serve critical roles in coupling catabolism and anabolism.</p>	
<p><b>Catabolism:</b> Largely oxidative in nature. Leads to a reduction of cofactors <math>\text{NAD}^+</math> and FAD. <b>Catabolic pathways:</b> Exergonic and lead to the synthesis of ATP. ATP is then consumed in anabolic, energy requiring pathways. <b>Under physiological conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Complete oxidation of glucose: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gives high yields of ATP.</li> </ul> </li> <li>➤ The process is always far from equilibrium</li> </ul>	<p><b>Anabolic Pathways:</b> Reductive with NADPH. Usually serving as an immediate source of electrons. <b><u>NADPH:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This coenzyme is reduced in the pentose phosphate pathway.</li> <li>• Additionally, cycles exist to move electrons from NADH to <math>\text{NADP}^+</math></li> </ul>

**ATP Equivalents**

The metabolic unit of energy exchange is ATP.

Defined as the amount of energy released upon hydrolysis of ATP to ADP.

**ATP Equivalent of Key Metabolic Reactions**

ATP hydrolysis: 1.0.

PPi hydrolysis: 1.0.

ATP to AMP and 2 Pi, 2.0.

**NADH Oxidation**

3.0 ATP (2.5 in mitochondria)

FADH<sub>2</sub> oxidation, 2.0 ATP (1.5 in mitochondria).

**METABOLIC INTEGRATION****Key Features:**

The major organs specialize in the metabolism of particular fuels:

- There is the interplay among liver, muscles, heart, adipose tissue, and brain.
- This ensures that energy demands are met.

For example, glucose:

Can be supplied to other tissues by:

- Liver by gluconeogenesis, glycogenolysis.
- Muscle can produce lactic acid during times of intense energy demands and this lactic acid is sent to the liver for reprocessing into glucose.

Energy demands are ultimately met by diet and humans have a complex system of hormonal regulation to regulate energy storage and appetite.

Brain, stomach, small intestines, pancreas, and adipose tissue play a role in stimulating or suppressing appetite.

## Chemistry of Carbohydrates

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Describe the role of carbohydrates in biochemistry Categorize different types of sugars.</li> <li>Illustrate structural formulas of different carbohydrates.</li> <li>Identify and describe isomerism in carbohydrates</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Aldoses, Asymmetric carbon, Disaccharide, Enantiomers, Epimers, Glycosaminoglycans, Heteropolysaccharides, Isomerism, Ketoses, Monosaccharide, Oligosaccharide, Polysaccharide, Reducing sugars</p>
--	--

### CARBOHYDRATES: STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION

<p>Compounds having hydroxyl groups with aldehyde or keto group (CH<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>n</sub></p> <p><b>Importance</b></p> <p>Major fuel for all tissues</p> <p>Structural component of membrane</p> <p>Form carbohydrate with a specific function:</p> <p>Ribose (nucleotides), Galactose (lactose in milk), Glycolipid, Glycoprotein</p>		<p><b>Classification</b></p> <p><i>Based on no. of Sugar Units</i></p> <p>Monosaccharide, Disaccharide, Oligosaccharide, Polysaccharide</p> <p><i>Based on Functional groups:</i> Aldehyde (aldose), Ketone (Ketose)</p>			
<p><b>Class</b></p>	<p><b>Sub-class</b></p>	<p><b>Examples</b></p> <table border="1" data-bbox="662 1617 1461 1686"> <tr> <td data-bbox="662 1617 1125 1686"> <p><b>Aldose</b></p> </td> <td data-bbox="1125 1617 1461 1686"> <p><b>Ketose</b></p> </td> </tr> </table>		<p><b>Aldose</b></p>	<p><b>Ketose</b></p>
<p><b>Aldose</b></p>	<p><b>Ketose</b></p>				
<p><i>Monosaccharide</i></p>	<p>Triose</p>	<p>Glycerol</p>	<p>Dihydroxy acetone</p>		



	Tetrose	Erythrose	Erythrulose
	Pentose	Ribose	Ribulose
	Hexose	Glucose	Fructose
<b>Disaccharide</b> (Composed of Two Monosaccharides)	Maltose	2 glucose units $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 4$ glycosidic bond	Disaccharide (Composed of Two Monosaccharides)
	Sucrose	$\alpha$ D glucose + $\beta$ D fructose $\alpha 1 \rightarrow \beta 2$ bond	
	Lactose	$\alpha$ D galactose + $\beta$ D glucose $1 \rightarrow \beta 4$ bond	
<b>Oligosaccharide</b> (Composed of 2-10 Monosaccharide Units)	Malto-triose	Maltose and $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 6$ glucose	
<b>Polysaccharide</b> (10 or more monosaccharide unit)	-	Amylose $\alpha$ D: $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 4$ bond  Amylopectin 24-30, monomers  ( $\alpha$ D glucose) $1 \rightarrow 4$ linkage plus $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 6$ branching	
<b>Homopolysaccharides</b>		Starch: $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 4$ linkage and $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 6$ branching and Glycogen: 12-14 monomers of D-glucose $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 4$ linkage and $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 6$ branching	
		Cellulose	$\beta$ D glucose: $\beta 1 \rightarrow 4$ bond
		Inulin	$\beta$ D fructose
		Dextran (break down product of starch)	$\alpha$ D glucose linked at $\alpha 1 \rightarrow 6$ bond, with few branches

<b>ISOMERISM</b>		
<b>Asymmetric Carbon</b>	Carbon atom bonded to four different atoms or groups of atoms is asymmetric carbon.	
<b>Isomers</b>	Presence of asymmetric carbon allows the formation of isomers. Number of isomers of a compound depends on the number of asymmetric carbon atoms $(n) = 2^n$ <i>E.g.</i> glucose has 4 asymmetric carbon atoms, thus $2^4 = 16$ isomers.	
<b>Isomerism</b>	<b>Reasoning</b>	<b>Example</b>
<b>DL isomerism (stereo isomer)</b>	The same chemical formula differs in the position of –OH group on one or more asymmetric carbon ( <i>E.g.</i> C5 in glucose). Mirror images of each other.	D, L glucose
<b>Optical isomerism (Enantiomer)</b>	Presence of asymmetric carbon rotate plane polarized light either to right [dextrorotatory, (+)] or to left [levorotatory (-)]	Enantiomer (+) isomer (-) isomer
<b>Epimerism</b>	Differ in the configuration of –OH and –H glucose on C-2, 3 and 4 of glucose, galactose at C <sub>4</sub> and mannose at C-2  Or Conformation that differs only at one carbon atom	Mannose at C-2 Galactose at C-4
<b>Anomerism</b>	Differ in configuration at carbonyl or anomeric carbon  $\alpha$ :- OH on anomeric is below the plane of the ring $\beta$ :- OH is above the plane of the ring	$\alpha$ anomer $\beta$ anomer
<b>Aldose-ketose isomerism</b>	Same molecular formula differ in the position of carbonyl carbon: Glucose C-1 is aldehyde; fructose C-2 is keto	Glucose and fructose

## Metabolism of Carbohydrates

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explain different anabolic and catabolic pathways of carbohydrate metabolism.</li> <li>• Describe the role of different enzymes and hormones involved in carbohydrate metabolism.</li> <li>• Identify the metabolic diseases related to carbohydrates.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Diabetes, Digestion and assimilation of carbohydrates, Enzymes of carbohydrate metabolism, glycolysis, Glycogen metabolism, Gluconeogenesis, Glucose homeostasis, Regulation of glucose metabolism, Tricarboxylic acid cycle.</p>
---	--

<b>CARBOHYDRATE STORAGE</b>		<b>Starch</b>	<b>Glycogen</b>	
Storage form of carbohydrates:		Stored in plants	Stored in animals	
		Both amylose and amylopectin	Liver and muscle cells	
<b>DIGESTION AND ASSIMILATION OF CARBOHYDRATES:</b> Pathway for digestion of carbohydrates:				
<b>Substrate</b>		<b>Site</b>	<b>Enzyme</b>	<b>Products</b>
Starch	Fructose	Mouth	Salivary amylase $\alpha$ 1-4 glycosides	Maltose
Lactose	Glucose	↓		Maltotriose
Sucrose				Limit dextrin
		Stomach	NO DIGESTION	
		↓		
Starch		Intestine	PANCREATIC AMYLASE ( $\alpha$ 1-4)	Maltose

Polysaccharides	↓		Maltotriose Limit dextrin
	Epithelial brush border	<b>OLIGOSACCHARIDASE &amp; DISACCHARIDASES</b>	
Sucrose Maltotriose Maltose $\alpha$ - limit dextrans	↓	Sucrase ( $\alpha$ 1-4) – Isomaltase ( $\alpha$ 1-4)	Glucose Fructose
Maltotriose Maltose		Maltase ( $\alpha$ 1-4) – Glucoamylase ( $\alpha$ 1-4)	Glucose
Lactose		Lactase ( $\beta$ 1-4)	Glucose Galactose
	Portal vein ↓		
	Liver (metabolism) ↓		
	Circulation (glucose) ↓		
	Liver Muscle Adipose tissue		

**DEFECTS IN CARBOHYDRATE ABSORPTION**

S. No.	Disease	Defect	Clinical Feature
1.	Lactase deficiency	Lactose intolerance	Abdominal discomfort
		Inherited lactase deficiency	Cramps, diarrhea

		Secondary lactase deficiency	Intolerance to milk
2.	Inherited Sucrase deficiency	Sucrase deficiency	Same as lactase deficiency
3.	Disaccharidases deficiency	Disacchariduria	Fructose, sorbitol malabsorption
4.	Defect in SGLT-1	Monosaccharide malabsorption	Fructose, sorbitol malabsorption, watery diarrhea
<b>Oral Hydration Therapy:</b>		In cholera infection: NaCl absorption is inhibited, but not the facilitative transport of Na & glucose	
<b>ORS (oral rehydration solution) provides:</b> →		110mM	Glucose
SGLT-1 is not inhibited and in the presence of glucose Na uptake takes place to replenish stores.		99 mM	Na <sup>+</sup>
		74 mM	Cl <sup>-</sup>
		39 mM	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>
		4 mM	K <sup>+</sup>

Enzyme	Site of Production/ Action	Substrate	Product
<b>Salivary Amylase</b>	Salivary glands/ Oral cavity	Starch	Disaccharides (maltose), oligosaccharides
<b>Oligosaccharidases</b>	Lining of the intestine; brush border membrane/ Small intestine	Oligosaccharides Disaccharides	Monosaccharides ( <i>e.g.</i> , glucose, fructose, galactose)
<b>Pancreatic Amylase</b>	Pancreas/ Small intestine	Starch	Disaccharides (maltose), monosaccharides ( <i>e.g.</i> , glucose, fructose, galactose)

## Chemistry of Lipids

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify the structure and name the lipids.</li> <li>• Classify the types of lipids.</li> <li>• Understand the biological role of lipids.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords</b></p> <p>Ceramides, Eicosanoids, Fatty acids, Glycosphingolipids, Phospholipids, Saturated and unsaturated fats, Sphingolipids, Sphingomyelin, Triacylglycerols.</p>
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<p><b>Lipids</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hydrophobic, Insoluble in water-soluble in polar solvents.</li> <li>• Composed of saturated or unsaturated long-chain hydrocarbons with a carboxyl group at end of chains.</li> <li>• Important dietary constituent.</li> <li>• Serve as a source of energy, thermal insulator, an important component of cell membrane, lipoprotein serves transport function, storage for TAG, stored in adipose tissue, precursor for steroid hormones.</li> </ul>	<p><b>General Formula</b></p> <p>Saturated fatty acid:</p> $\text{CH}_3 - [\text{CH}_2]_n - \text{COOH}$ <p>n = number of methylene groups</p>
<p><b>Fatty Acids (FA)</b></p> <p>Exist as free or esterified to glycerol</p>	<p><b>Nomenclature</b></p> <p><i>Systemic name:</i> number of carbons</p> <p>Saturated FA are named by chain length</p> <p>Unsaturated FA are named by position of double bonds</p> <p><i>Suffix</i> - <i>anoic</i>, followed by acid</p> <p>- <i>anoic</i> for saturated FA</p> <p>- <i>enoic</i> for unsaturated FA</p>

<p><b>Position of Double Bond</b></p> <p><math>\Delta^9</math>: Double bond between C9 and 10 from the carboxylic end.</p> <p><math>\omega^6</math>: Double bond on sixth carbon from the omega end.</p>	<p><i>E.g.</i> Palmitic acid, 16C: hexadecanoic acid.</p>		
<p><b>Naming</b></p> <p>Carbons are numbered from carboxyl carbon (carbon no. 1).</p> <p>Carbon adjacent to it is carbon number 2 (<math>\alpha</math>-carbon).</p> <p>Terminal methyl carbon: <math>\omega</math>-carbon or n-carbon.</p>	<p><b>Delta Numbering System</b></p> <p>Based on the number of carbons, the number of double bonds, and position of double bonds</p> <p><i>E.g.</i>, linoleic acid is designated as 18: 2: <math>\Delta^9_{12}</math></p>		
<p><b>Classification</b></p>	<p>(18 carbons, two double bonds, and position of the double bond after C9 and C12 from carboxyl end).</p>		
<p><b>Simple Lipids</b> — Esters of FA with alcohol:</p>	<p><b>Complex lipids</b> —Esters of FA with alcohol and contain an additional group:</p>		
<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="162 1102 438 1228">Fats—esters of FA with glycerol.</td> <td data-bbox="438 1102 860 1228">Waxes—esters of FA with higher molecular weight alcohols.</td> </tr> </table>	Fats—esters of FA with glycerol.	Waxes—esters of FA with higher molecular weight alcohols.	<p><b><u>a. Phospholipids</u></b></p> <p><i>Phosphatidic acid</i>: Esters of FA with alcohol and phosphoric acid residue.</p>
Fats—esters of FA with glycerol.	Waxes—esters of FA with higher molecular weight alcohols.		
<p><b>Precursor and Derived Lipids</b></p> <p>Include FA, glycerol, steroids, and alcohol.</p> <p>In addition, derived lipids include ketone bodies, steroids, fatty aldehydes,</p> <p>Prostaglandins, lipid soluble vitamins, and hormones.</p> <p>Neutral Lipids.</p>	<p>-If alcohol is glycerol: glycerophospholipids (GPL).</p> <p>-If alcohol is sphingosine: sphingophospholipids.</p>		

<b><u>b. Glycolipids</u></b>		<b><u>c. Other Complex Lipids</u></b>	
Glycolipids (glycosphingolipids [GSL]): -Esters of FA, with sphingosine and a carbohydrate.		Sulfolipids, aminolipids, and lipoproteins. Phosphatidic acid: glycerol + 2 acyl residues +PO <sub>4</sub> .	
<b>Systemic Names of Lipids</b>			
<b><i>Name</i></b>	<b><i>No. Of Carbon Atom</i></b>	<b><i>Systemic Name</i></b>	<b><i>Double</i></b>
Lauric acid	12	Dodecanoic acid	-
Myristic acid	14	Tetradecanoic acid	-
Palmitic acid	16	Hexadecanoic acid	-
Stearic acid	18	Octadecanoic acid	-
Palmitoleic acid	16	Cis Hexadecenoic acid	1:9 (ω9)
Oleic acid	18	Cis. Octadecenoic acid	1:9 (ω9)
Elaidic acid	18	Trans-octadecenoic acid	1:9 (ω9)
Linoleic acid	18	Cis-9, 12 Octadecadienoic acid	2:9, 12 (ω6)
Linolenic acid	18	Cis-9, 12, 15 Octadecatrienoic acid	3:9, 12, 15 (ω3)
Arachidonic acid	20	Cis 5, 8, 11, 14 Eicosatetraenoic acid	4:5, 8, 11, 14 (ω6)
<b>Unsaturated Fatty Acid</b>		<b><i>Isomerism in Unsaturated Fatty Acid</i></b>	
May contain one or more double bonds		Naturally occurring unsaturated FA has is double bonds.	
<b><i>Monounsaturated</i></b>	One double bond		



## Metabolism of Lipids

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Illustrate the assimilation of lipids by the human body.</li> <li>• Explain fatty acid synthesis and degradation.</li> <li>• Explain the metabolism of cholesterol, eicosanoids, ketone bodies and lipoproteins.</li> <li>• Appraise clinical correlation of lipid metabolic disorders.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Alpha and omega oxidation, Beta-oxidation, Cholesterol, Eicosanoids, Ketone bodies, Lipid absorption and digestion, Lipid metabolism syndromes, Lipoproteins, Saturated and unsaturated fatty acid synthesis.</p>
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<p><b>DIGESTION AND ABSORPTION OF LIPID</b></p>	<p><b>Fact file:</b> Adult human digests 60-150g lipid/day and TAG constitute &gt;90% of intake</p>		
<p><i>Difficulty in the Absorption of Lipids</i></p> <p>Lipids are hydrophobic TAG too large to be absorbed Digestive enzymes are water soluble</p>	<p><i>Solution</i></p> <p>Lipids (including cholesterol) fats absorbed dissolved in lipid micelle Digestive enzymes act at water lipid interfaces</p>		
<p><b>Digestion of Fats: Steps of Digestion</b></p>			
	<i>Location</i>	<i>Step</i>	<i>Enzyme</i>
1.	<i>Mouth, stomach: Minor</i>	TAG → DAG+FFA	<i>Lingual/gastric lipase</i>
2.	<i>Small intestine: Major</i>	TAG → MAG + FFA CE → Cholesterol + ester PL → FA + LysoPL	<i>Pancreatic lipase</i> <i>Cholesterol esterase</i> <i>PLA<sub>2</sub></i>
3.	<i>Small intestine lumen:</i>	Formation of mixed micelle	-

4.	<i>Intestinal epithelial cells:</i>	Passive absorption of lipolytic products	-
5.	<i>Lymphatics:</i>	Assembly and export of chylomicrons	-
<b>Lipid Absorption:</b>			
<i>Site</i>	<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Enzyme</i>	
<b><u>Stomach:</u></b> Gastric lipase	TG ↓ diacyl glycerol+ FA (MCFA)	CE	PL
<b><u>Small Intestine:</u></b>	↓	↓	↓
Pancreatic lipase	Sn-1 Sn-2	Cholesterol esterase	PLA <sub>2</sub>
Colipase	→	↓	↓
Phospholipid	2MAG	Cholesterol	sn <sub>2</sub> FA
Bile acid	→	+	+
Micelle	IMAG	FA	Lysophosphatidylcholine
	↓ Micelle	bile acid FA PL MAG	Enteric brush border
<b><i>Lipid Malabsorption</i></b>			
Defect: due to defective intestinal lipolysis or defective mucosal cell metabolism.	Features: Steatorrhea, loss of fat-soluble vitamins in stools.	Causes: Tropical sprue, Non-tropical sprue, Celiac sprue, intestinal lipodystrophy (Whipple's disease).	

<b>METABOLISM: Comparison</b>		
	<b>FA Synthesis</b>	<b>FA Degradation (Oxidation)</b>
Intermediates	Linked to –SH in proteins (acyl carrier proteins)	Linked to CoASH
Site	Cytosol	Mitochondria
Enzymes	Components of a single peptide	Separate polypeptides
Reducing equivalents	NADP <sup>+</sup> / NADPH	NAD <sup>+</sup> /NADH
Energy	Requires ATP	Produces ATP
Starts at	Carboxyl end	Methyl end
Carrier	Acyl Carrier protein	CoA
Activation by citrate	Yes	No
Inhibited by palmitate	Yes	No
Acyl/acetyl group carrier	Citrate (into cytosol)	Carnitine (cytosol to mitochondria)
Product	Palmitate	Acetyl CoA
Higher activity	Fed state	Fasting, starvation
Insulin/glucagon	High	Low
Malonyl CoA	Source of two carbon	Not involved

## Chemistry of Proteins

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Appraise the protein structure and function.</li> <li>• Summarize the properties and classification of amino acids.</li> <li>• Illustrate the classification of proteins.</li> <li>• Identify the diseases related to structural anomalies in proteins.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Amino acids – optical activity, Amphoteric nature, Alpha-helix, Beta-sheet, Diseases related with structural anomalies in proteins, Fibrous and globular proteins, Glycogenic, Ketogenic amino acids, Non- polar, essential, Non-essential, Polar, Primary, Protein misfolding, Proteins, Secondary, Tertiary and quaternary structure of proteins.</p>
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### PROTEINS: STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION

<p><b>Functions of Proteins</b></p> <p>Structural: Make up cytoskeleton</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Component of collagen, elastin, keratin</li> </ul> <p>Enzyme catalysis</p> <p>Transport</p> <p>Storage</p>	<p><b>Amino Acids</b></p> <p>Functional units of proteins</p> <p>Composed of:</p> <p>Two functional groups:</p> <p>Amino (-NH<sub>2</sub>)</p> <p>Carboxyl (-COOH)</p>	$  \begin{array}{c}  \text{H} \\    \\  \text{H}_2\text{N} - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\    \\  \text{R}  \end{array}  $ <p>Fig. (7.1) structure of amino acid:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- NH<sub>2</sub> = amino group (basic)</li> <li>- COOH = carboxyl group (acidic)</li> <li>- R = side chain</li> </ul>
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Hormone Blood coagulation Immunity Control of gene expression	Hydrogen atom (-H)  Distinctive side-chain (-R), attached to a central carbon termed $\alpha$ -carbon.  Except for glycine, all acids contain at least one asymmetric carbon atom ( $\alpha$ -carbon atom)	Of these 20 amino acids, only proline is imino acid (-NH-), and not an $\alpha$ -amino acid.
<b>PROPERTIES OF AMINO ACIDS</b>		
<b>Optical Activity</b>  Amino acids exhibit optical isomerism: <i>enantiomers</i>  Two amino acid configurations: D- (dextro or right) and L- (levo or left).  <b>Only L - <math>\alpha</math>-amino acids</b> occur in proteins	<b>Amphoteric</b>  Exist as Zwitter ions in solutions at neutral pH (both positive and negative charges)  $\alpha$ -carboxyl group is negatively charged, and $\alpha$ -amino group is positively charged	
<b>CLASSIFICATION OF AMINO ACIDS</b>		
<b>Based on Structure:</b>	On the basis of the side chain (-R) attached to $\alpha$ -carbon atom:-	<b>Based on their Metabolic Fate</b>
<b>Polar (Hydrophilic):</b> Glycine, Serine, Threonine, Cysteine, Arginine, Histidine, Lysine, Aspartate, Asparagine, Glutamate, Glutamine	<b>Non polar (Hydrophilic):</b> Alanine, Leucine, Isoleucine, Valine, Methionine, Proline, Tyrosine, Phenylalanine, Tryptophan	<b>Glycogenic</b> (Ala, Arg, Asp, Cys, Glu, Gly, His, Met, Pro, Ser, Thr, Val)  <b>Ketogenic</b> (Leu)
<b>Based on Nutritional Requirement</b>		<b>Both</b> (Ile, Lys, Phe, Trp, Tyr)
<b>Essential Amino Acid:</b> Cannot be synthesized by the body and must be supplied in diet - Methionine, Arginine, Threonine, Tryptophan, Valine, Isoleucine, Leucine,	<b>Non-essential Amino Acid:</b> Can be synthesized by the body to meet its demands - Glycine, Alanine, Serine, Cysteine, Aspartate, Asparagine, Glutamate, Glutamine, Tyrosine, Proline	

Phenylalanine, Lysine, Histidine			
<b>STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION OF PROTEINS</b>			
<b>Two Categories of Proteins</b>			
<i>Fibrous proteins</i> - structural proteins, are more filamentous or elongated  <i>E.g.</i> , connective tissue, tendon, muscle fibers		<i>Globular protein</i> – compactly folded and coated and are water soluble.  They act as transporters.	
Key levels of proteins are primary, secondary and tertiary structures and quaternary structure			
<b>Primary Structure</b>  Synthesized on ribosome as a linear sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide chain.  Determined by the sequence of amino acids.  Serves as a foundation for higher levels of protein structure.	<b>Secondary Structure</b>  Short segments of polypeptide chain folds to form secondary structure.  Achieved through weak bonds <i>e.g.</i> , hydrogen bonding.  Types: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- <math>\alpha</math> helix</li><li>- <math>\beta</math> sheets</li><li>- <math>\beta</math> turn</li></ul>	<b>Tertiary Structure</b>  Entire 3- dimensional conformation of the polypeptide  Its structure indicates how secondary structure features assemble and relate to each other in 3- dimensional space.	<b>Quaternary Structure</b>  The structure is formed as a result of interactions between two or more polypeptide chains that give rise to a specific geometry and the aggregate formed is called <i>oligomer e.g.</i> , hemoglobin.
<b><math>\alpha</math> HELIX</b>  Cylindrical in shape  Formed by coiling of polypeptide chain on itself at every fourth peptide linkage		<b><math>\beta</math>- PLEATED SHEET (or Conformation)</b>  The polypeptide chain is fully stretched out and can fold on itself with its segments packed together.	

## Metabolism of Proteins

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe the assimilation of dietary proteins.</li> <li>• Illustrate the role and regulation of enzymes of protein metabolism.</li> <li>• Identify the disorders of protein metabolism and interpret clinical correlations.</li> <li>• Explain the metabolic fate of amino acids.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Amino acid metabolism, Digestion of proteins, Inherited metabolic disorders and other diseases of protein metabolism, Proteolytic enzyme, Zymogen.</p>
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### DIGESTION AND ABSORPTION OF DIETARY PROTEINS

Sources of Amino Acids	Fact File
<p><b>Dietary/ Exogenous Proteins:</b> Include animal products (meat, poultry, fish and dairy products) and plant products (grains, legumes and vegetables).</p> <p><b>Endogenous Breakdown Protein:</b> Include a breakdown of defective and unneeded cellular proteins. They can be desquamated mucosal cells, digestive enzymes and glycoproteins derived from secretions of salivary glands, stomach, intestine biliary tract and pancreas.</p> <p>Proteins of endogenous origin are digested and absorbed more slowly than that of exogenous origin.</p>	<p><b>Dietary Protein Intake:</b></p> <p>70-100 g/day</p> <p>50-60% of animal origin</p> <p>20-30 g in vegetarians</p> <p><b>Proteins Secreted into Intestine:</b></p> <p>30 g of desquamated cells and 1~2 g plasma proteins, enzymes and mucoprotein</p> <p>Fecal excretion of protein: ~10g/day</p>
<b>Digestion of Proteins</b>	The dietary proteins are cleaved by the action of proteolytic enzymes produced by stomach, pancreas and small intestine

<b>Enzymes for digestion of protein:</b>	Pepsin, trypsin, chymotrypsin, elastase, carboxy peptides, amino peptides.			
<b>Digestion of protein begins in the stomach with the action of pepsin:</b>	Produced as inactive zymogen pepsinogen by chief cells Activated to pepsin by H <sup>+</sup> and pepsin itself (auto catalysis) Optimum pH: 2.0			
<b>In the small intestine, protein digestion begins by enzymes:</b>	Serine protease Trypsin Chymotrypsin	Elastase Carboxy peptidase		
<b>Activation of Trypsinogen:</b>  Trypsinogen is activated by enterokinase secreted from intestinal brush border in response to secretin and CCK.  Once trypsin is formed, it attacks additional molecules of trypsinogen and other zymogens:  Chymotrypsinogen, proelastase, procarboxy peptidase to yield active proteolytic enzymes.	<b>Trypsin:</b>  Endopeptidase  Secreted by intestinal mucosa  Hydrolysis of the lysine peptide bond in zymogen:  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Releases a small peptide from trypsinogen</li> <li>- Allows molecule to unfold as active trypsin</li> </ul>			
<b>Enzymes for Digestion of Proteins &amp; Activation of Zymogen form of Proteolytic Enzyme and their Actions:</b>				
<b>Zymogen</b>	<b>Activators</b>	<b>Active form</b>	<b>Bond specificity</b>	<b>Site of action</b>
Pepsinogen	HCL, pepsin	pepsin	Most amino acid	Stomach
Trypsinogen	Enteropeptidase Trypsin	Trypsin	Basic amino acid	Intestine
Chymotrypsinogen	Trypsin	Chymotrypsin	Aromatic amino acid	Intestine



Proelastase	Trypsin	Elastase	Broad specificity	Intestine
Pro carboxy peptidase	Trypsin	Carboxy-peptidase A, B	Carboxyterminal (exo-peptidase) aromatic, neutral amino acid, basic amino acids	Intestine
<b>Digestion in Small Intestine Brush Border</b>		Several peptidases are produced by the brush border of the small intestine and they complete the digestive process.		
<b>Enzymes of Small Intestine Brush Border:</b>		Endopeptidase, Exopeptidase, Aminopeptidase, Tripeptidase, Dipeptidase.		
<b>Enzyme</b>		<b>Mechanism of Action</b>		
Carboxy peptidase		Exopeptidase attack carboxy-terminal peptide		
Amino peptidase		Exopeptidase attack peptide bond next to the amino terminal.		
Tripeptidase		Digest tripeptides to yield dipeptide and free amino acid.		
Dipeptidase		Digest dipeptides to free amino acids.		
<b>End Products of Protein Digestion</b>		Peptides, dipeptides, tripeptides, and free amino acids		
<b>Fate:</b> They get absorbed across the brush border of intestinal mucosal cells. Free amino acids and dipeptides can enter enterocyte by carrier-mediated membrane transport to finally enter the bloodstream.		<b>Absorption of Amino Acids</b> L-isomer of amino acids is actively absorbed by active transport.		<b>Amino acid transporters present at brush-border:</b> <b><u>1. Na – dependent symporters</u></b> <b><u>2. H dependent symporters:</u></b> H-dependent transport is 'E' dependent and may require pyridoxal phosphate.

## Intermediary Metabolism

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify the intermediates that interconnect the metabolic pathways.</li> <li>• Illustrate the inter-organ metabolic pathways and tissue specific pathways.</li> <li>• Explain the metabolism of body fuels and energetics in different organs.</li> <li>• Describe the diseases associated with failure in metabolic integration.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Alpha-keto acids, Fasting, Intermediary metabolism, Obesity, Phosphoenol pyruvate, Starvation and fed state, Sugar phosphates.</p>
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The central interconnecting metabolic pathway (pathways of synthesis, degradation, and interconversion of important metabolites) common to most cells and organisms are referred to as intermediary metabolism.

<b>INTERMEDIATES INTERCONNECTING THE MAJOR METABOLIC PATHWAYS:</b>			
<b>Sugar Phosphates:</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math>-Ketoacids:</b>	<b>Coenzyme A (CoA) Derivatives:</b>	<b>Phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP)</b>
Triose-P	Pyruvate	Acetyl-CoA	
Tetrose-P	Oxaloacetate [OAA]	Succinyl-CoA	
Pentose-P, Hexose-P	$\alpha$ -ketoglutarate [ $\alpha$ -KG]		
<b>Three metabolic key crossroads:</b> Glucose-6-phosphate. Pyruvate Acetyl-CoA.			
<b><i>Integration of organ metabolism in different physiological states</i></b>	The co-ordination of metabolic activities of different organs serves to support glucose homeostasis and provides a steady supply of glucose to meet the needs of the brain and RBCs. This also helps in the storage of fuel when available in plenty.		
<b><i>Three storage forms of fuel</i></b>	Glycogen, fat and proteins		

<b><i>Four major tissues with specialized metabolic function</i></b>	Liver, muscle, adipose tissue and brain.  No one tissue can survive metabolically without the other.
<b><i>Metabolic fuels are used during</i></b>	<b><u>Fed state:</u></b> Fuels used by tissues may be derived from ingested, digested and absorbed food.  <b><u>Fasting state:</u></b> Fuels used by tissues are derived from mobilized stores of fuel.  <b><u>Starvation:</u></b> Occurs after extended fasting.
<b><i>Interorgan metabolic pathways</i></b>	The liver supplies glucose, ketone bodies to other tissues.  Adipocytes make FA available to other tissues.  The circulatory system transports metabolic fuels, intermediates and waste products among tissues.
<b><i>Certain metabolic pathways occur in multiple tissues</i></b>	Cori cycle; Glucose alanine cycle.
<b><i>Metabolic specialization of organs</i></b>	Various organs have a different metabolic role and metabolic specialization of organs occur as a result of differential gene expression. All metabolic pathways are under precise regulation to adjust the synthesis and degradation of metabolites to physiological requirements. This is mainly determined by the activity of key enzymes.

#### Major Organs Involved in the Integration of Metabolism

<b><i>Organ</i></b>	<b><i>Fuel Storage Pool</i></b>	<b><i>Mobilized Fuel</i></b>	<b><i>Conditions</i></b>
Liver	Glycogen	Glucose	Fasting, exercise
		Ketone bodies	Fasting
		VLDL-TAG	Fed

Muscle	Glycogen Protein	Lactate Alanine, glutamine	Exercise (intense) Fasting
Adipose	TAG	FFA, glycerol	Fasting (moderate) Exercise

### Utilization of Body Fuels in Various Organs

	<i>Liver</i>	<i>Muscle</i>	<i>Adipose</i>	<i>Brain</i>
<i>Function</i>	Maintains blood glucose, makes fat, ketone bodies, stores glycogen	Provides movement:  Stores glycogen for its own use; stores proteins.	Manages fat stores	Central control Reliant on glucose for energy
<i>Fed state</i>	Stores glycogen  Fat synthesis	Stores glycogen  Fat and glucose oxidation  Protein synthesis	Stores fat	Uses glucose
<i>Fasting</i>	Glycogen breakdown to make glucose  Fat breakdown	Glycogen breakdown  Fat Oxidation	Releases stored fat	Uses glucose

### ENERGY METABOLISM IN VARIOUS ORGANS

Organ	Energy Reservoir	Preferred Substrate	Energy Exported
Brain	None	Glucose  KB (Starvation)	None

**CHAPTER 10****Chemistry of Nucleotide**

<b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Define the nucleic acid structure and nomenclature.</li> <li>• Describe the biological significance of nucleotide derivatives.</li> <li>• Summarize the role of nucleic acids in our body.</li> </ul>	<b>Keywords:</b> Nucleoside, Nucleotide, Nucleotide derivatives, Purines, Pyrimidine.
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<b>NUCLEIC ACID STRUCTURE</b>	
<b>Nucleotide</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Combination of heterocyclic amine, a pentose and phosphoric acid.</li> <li>• Monomeric unit of nucleic acids.</li> <li>• Purine and pyrimidines supply building blocks of nucleic acid.</li> <li>• Also, they are high energy intermediates.</li> <li>• Form part of coenzyme: FAD, NAD, NADP, CoA, SAM.</li> <li>• Have regulatory function: signal transduction, second messenger (cAMP, cGMP).</li> <li>• Free nucleotides/ N-bases: Xanthine, hypoxanthine, uric acid.</li> </ul>	<b>The Numbering of Sugars is Primed</b> <i>Nucleoside</i> Pentose sugar added to N <sub>9</sub> or N <sub>1</sub> by βN – glycosidic bond <i>Nucleotides</i> Linking one or more phosphates with a nucleoside onto 5' and of the molecule through esterification
<b>NAMING CONVENTIONS</b>	<b>Nucleoside</b>
<b>Nucleotides</b>	Purine: end in 'sine' Adenosine, guanosine

Start with nucleotide name and add mono-, di-, or triphosphate to it.	Pyrimidine end in 'dine'
Adenosine monophosphate	Thymidine, cytidine, uridine
Deoxythymidine diphosphate	
<b>Nucleotide</b>	<b>Function</b>
1.	<b><i>Adenosine Nucleotides</i></b>
	ATP
	Source of energy
	cAMP
	Second messenger
	Active sulfate (adenosine 3'phosphate 5'phospho sulfate PAPS)
	Sulfur donor (proteoglycans) Sulfur conjugation of drugs
	Active methionine (5-adenosyl methionine SAM)
	Methyl donor, source of propylamine, in polyamines
2.	<b><i>Guanosine Derivative</i></b>
	GDP
	Coupled to substrate-level phosphorylation
	GTP
	Allosteric regulation, energy source
	cGMP
	Intracellular signal second messenger (NO)
3.	<b><i>Hypoxanthine IMP</i></b>
	Purine salvage pathway
4.	<b><i>Uracil</i></b>
	Glycogen synthesis
	UDP-G
	Glycoprotein synthesis

	UDP-Gln	Glucuronide conjugation reaction of bilirubin, drugs
5.	Cytosine	
	CTP	Phosphoglycerate synthesis
	CDP	CDP choline: formation of sphingomyelin with ceramide
II	<i>Coenzyme</i>	NAD, FAD, NADP, CoA, SAM
III	<i>Monomeric precursors</i>	Monomeric unit of RNA, DNA

Function	Example
Energy Metabolism	ATP, muscle contraction, active transport, ion gradient, phosphate donor
Monomeric Unit	NTP, dNTP (for RNA, DNA)
Physiological Mediators	cAMP, cGMP (second messenger) Signal transduction (GTP binding protein) Adenosine (coronary blood flow)
Precursor Function	GTP (mRNA capping)
Activate Intermediates	UDP-G (glycogen) CDP-choline (phospholipid) SAM (methylation) PAPS (Sulfation)
Allosteric Affects	ATP (negative for PFK) AMP (positive for phosphorylase B) dATP (negative effective RNP reductase)

**CHAPTER 11****Nucleotide Metabolism**

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe the pathways of purine and pyrimidine biosynthesis and degradation.</li> <li>• Define the significance and regulation of nucleic acid metabolism.</li> <li>• Correlate the clinical significance of nucleotide metabolic disorders.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p><i>De novo</i> and salvage pathways, Gout, Lesch Nyhan Syndrome, One-carbon metabolism, OPRT, PRPP, SCID, THF.</p>
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**FACTS**

<b>Characteristic Features of Purines</b>	<b>Function</b>				
<p>Purine synthesis occurs in the liver.</p> <p>Nitrogenous bases and nucleotides are then transported to other tissues by red blood cells (RBCs).</p> <p>The brain can also synthesize nucleotides.</p> <p>Purines are not metabolized to central metabolites.</p> <p>The ring structure is retained in birds, reptiles, and primates.</p> <p>Other organisms can further breakdown the ring before excretion.</p>	<p>Provides bases (A and G) for energy metabolism and for DNA and RNA synthesis.</p> <tr> <td data-bbox="162 1541 1015 1610"><b>Connected to the Following Pathways</b></td> <td data-bbox="1015 1541 1451 1610"><b><i>Purine Ring Built-up Using the Following Substances</i></b></td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="162 1610 1015 1755"> <p>Folate metabolism.</p> <p>One-carbon metabolism.</p> </td> <td data-bbox="1015 1610 1451 1755"> <p>Amidotransferase.</p> <p>Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), guanosine triphosphate (GTP).</p> <p>Amino acids glycine, aspartate, glutamine.</p> </td> </tr>	<b>Connected to the Following Pathways</b>	<b><i>Purine Ring Built-up Using the Following Substances</i></b>	<p>Folate metabolism.</p> <p>One-carbon metabolism.</p>	<p>Amidotransferase.</p> <p>Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), guanosine triphosphate (GTP).</p> <p>Amino acids glycine, aspartate, glutamine.</p>
<b>Connected to the Following Pathways</b>	<b><i>Purine Ring Built-up Using the Following Substances</i></b>				
<p>Folate metabolism.</p> <p>One-carbon metabolism.</p>	<p>Amidotransferase.</p> <p>Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), guanosine triphosphate (GTP).</p> <p>Amino acids glycine, aspartate, glutamine.</p>				



<p>Hexose monophosphate (HMP) shunt (<i>via</i> phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate [PRPP], ribose)</p> <p>Deoxyribonucleotides (<i>via</i> regulation: PRPP ribonucleotide reductase).</p>	<p>Tetrahydrofolate (THF). CO<sub>2</sub>.</p> <p><b>Energetics</b></p> <p>Require <i>six molecules of ATP</i> per purine synthesized.</p> <p><b>Precursors</b></p> <p>Glycine, ribose-5-phosphate, glutamine, aspartate, CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sup>10</sup>-formyl THF shown in Fig. (11.1).</p>
<p><i>First purine synthesized: Inosine monophosphate (IMP).</i></p> <p><b>NEXT STEPS:</b></p> <p>Then, glycine molecule is added to growing purine precursor</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• C<sub>8</sub> by formyl THF</li> <li>• N<sub>4</sub> by glutamine</li> <li>• C<sub>6</sub> by CO<sub>2</sub></li> <li>• N<sub>1</sub> by aspartate</li> <li>• C<sub>2</sub> by formyl THF</li> </ul> <p>IMP can be converted to free base in liver or to nucleotide (by dephosphorylation).</p> <p>Inosine monophosphate, IMP which contains base hypoxanthine is generated.</p> <p>IMP is precursor for both AMP and GMP and IMP is converted to XMP by IMP dehydrogenase</p> <p>And finally to GMP by GMP synthetase.</p>	

Fig. (11.1). Synthesis of GMP.

Purine Synthesis	Salvage	<i>De novo</i>
Synthesis of purines occurs in two ways:	Activated ribose (PRPP) + base → nucleotide	Activate ribose (PRPP) + A.A. + ATP + CO <sub>2</sub> → nucleotide
Salvage and <i>de novo</i>	Base is attached	The base is synthesized (require ATP)
	Preformed bases recovered and reconnected to ribose unit	Nucleotide base assembled first then attached to ribose: pyrimidine  In purine: base synthesized piece by piece over the ribose-based structure

<p><b>1<sup>st</sup> Step:</b></p>	<p>PRPP (phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate) synthesis</p> $\text{Ribose-5-P} + \text{ATP} \xrightarrow{\text{PRPP synthase}} \text{PRPP} + \text{AMP}$	<p>PRPP provides ribose moiety to glutamine to form PRA (phosphoribosylamine)</p>
	<p>5 phosphoribosyl -1-pyrophosphate</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Phosphoribosyl aminotransferase</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">5 phosphoribosylamine (PRA)</p>	<p><i>Aminotransferase:</i></p> <p>Committed step</p> <p>Important regulated step</p> <p>Inhibit by IMP, GMP, AMP</p>
<p><b>Next Steps:</b></p>	<p>Then, the glycine molecule is added to growing purine precursor</p> <p>C<sub>8</sub> by formyl THF.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">N<sub>4</sub> by glutamine</p> <p>C<sub>6</sub> by CO<sub>2</sub></p> <p>N<sub>1</sub> by aspartate</p> <p>C<sub>2</sub> by formyl THF</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">Inosine monophosphate, IMP generation (contains base hypoxanthine)</p>	<p>IMP can be converted to a free base in the liver or to the nucleotide (by dephosphorylation).</p> <p>IMP is a precursor for both AMP and GMP and IMP is converted to XMP by IMP dehydrogenase and finally to GMP by GMP synthetase.</p>
<p><b>Salvage Pathway</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Requires less energy than denovo</li> <li>• Involves ribosylation of free purine</li> <li>• Occurs in the brain, RBC, polymorphs: →</li> </ul>	<p>→ Lack APRT: cannot synthesize PRA and utilize exogenous purines to form nucleotides</p>

**CHAPTER 12****Molecular Biology**

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe the characteristics, structure, types and functions of DNA and RNA.</li> <li>• Explain cell cycle events and replication of DNA in prokaryotes and eukaryotes.</li> <li>• Appraise process and role of transcription and translation in cells.</li> <li>• Summarize the significance of genetic code and mutations in organisms.</li> <li>• Illustrate the regulation of gene expression.</li> <li>• Identify the basis of cancer and apoptosis.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Apoptosis, Cell cycle, Chargaff's Rule, Cancer, Caspases, DNA, Gene, Mutation, Operons, Oncogene, Polymerases, RNA, Replication, Reverse transcriptase, Ribosomes, Translation, Transcription.</p>
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**12.1. DNA AND RNA STRUCTURE**

<b>Structure of DNA</b>	DNA is composed of a nitrogen base (A, G, C, T) deoxyribose and phosphates.
<p><i>DNA Double Helix</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Double stranded helix with major and minor grooves</li> <li>• Composed of two polynucleotide chains joined by hydrogen bonds between bases</li> <li>• Chains are antiparallel: Chain runs in 5' to 3' direction and other in 3' to 5'</li> <li>• In the interior of molecule base pairs of strands are stacked (like a spiral staircase)</li> </ul>	<p>Four nitrogenous bases:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purines: A, G</li> <li>• Pyrimidines: C, T</li> <li>• Adenine base pairs with thymine (two bonds)</li> <li>• Guanine base pairs with cytosine (three bonds)</li> </ul> <p>Base pairing on two strands are complementary:</p>

and phosphate groups are on the outer side of the double helix.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PURINE always pairs with PYRIMIDINE</li> </ul>
<b>Chargaff's Rule</b> - concentration of $[A] = [T]$ ; $[C] = [G]$		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adenine on one strand base pairs with thymine on other strands</li> <li>• Guanine on one strand base pairs to cytosine</li> </ul>
<b>Structure of RNA</b>		
RNA is usually a single-stranded molecule. Three types of RNA namely, <i>mRNA</i> , <i>rRNA</i> and <i>tRNA</i> :		RNA differs from DNA since RNA contains ribose sugar instead of deoxyribose and uracil (U) rather than thymine.
<b><i>mRNA</i></b> <b>(<i>messenger RNA</i>)</b>	Contains a cap (of methylated GTP) and poly A tails mRNA is a source of coding information for protein synthesis	
<b><i>rRNA</i></b> <b>(<i>ribosomal RNA</i>)</b>	Contains many loops and base-pairing They are associated with proteins to form ribosomes	
<b><i>tRNA</i></b> <b>(<i>transfer RNA</i>)</b>	Act as adaptors that can bind an amino acid at one end and interact with mRNA at other They have a clover leaf structure and contain modified nucleotides  The first loop of clover leaf at 5' end comprising of dihydrouridine; middle loop contains anticodon which base pairs with a codon in mRNA and third loop are T $\psi$ C containing both ribothymidine and pseudouridine  At 3' end, the CCA sequence carries the amino acid	
<b>REPLICATION</b>		<b>Cell Cycle Phases</b>
<b><i>Cell Cycle in Eukaryotes</i></b>  It is a cell's lifetime of growth and division (Fig. 12.1).	<i>S Phase</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• DNA synthesized</li> <li>• Eukaryotes replicate only once per cell division cycle</li> </ul>

Regulated by cyclins and kinases.  When cell cycle checkpoints are broken or the cell cycle goes wrong, cells may undergo apoptosis or become cancerous.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lasts for 8 hrs in humans</li> </ul>
	<i>G<sub>2</sub> and M phase</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gap phase G<sub>2</sub> occurs before mitosis and cell division (M phase)</li> <li>• The variable time between two phases</li> </ul>
<b>Applied</b>  Paclitaxel (Taxol) prevents cytoskeleton remodeling during cell division: Used in cancers.	<i>G<sub>1</sub> phase</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Normal cellular functions take place during this phase</li> </ul>
	<i>G<sub>0</sub> phase</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Resulting phase</li> <li>• Variable time</li> <li>• Tumor cells do not enter the G<sub>0</sub> phase</li> </ul>
<b>Semi Conservative Replication</b>	Process of making an identical copy of a portion of DNA, using existing DNA as a template for synthesis of new complementary DNA strand	

**Facts**

*S phase of Interphase*

Occurs in a semi-conservative manner

Each strand of ds parental DNA molecule:

- Separates from its complement during replication
- Serves as a template on which a new complementary strand is synthesized

**Fig. (12.1).** Phases of the Cell Cycle.

## Genetic Engineering

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe the tools, techniques and applications of genetic engineering.</li> <li>• Explain the procedures and applications of PCR and cloning.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Cloning, Electrophoresis, PCR, Recombinant DNA Technology, Taq polymerase, Vectors.</p>
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### MOLECULAR BIOLOGY TECHNIQUES: APPLICATIONS

<p><b>Recombinant DNA Technology</b></p> <p><i>Three Basic Approaches</i></p>	<p><i>Fact File</i></p> <p>A gene might be 1/1,000,000 of genome</p>	
<p><u>PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction)</u></p>	<p>Makes any copies of a specific region of DNA</p>	
<p><u>Cell-Based Molecular Cloning</u></p>	<p>Create and isolate a bacterial strain that replicates a copy of the gene of interest</p>	
<p><u>Hybridization</u></p>	<p>Make DNA single-stranded.</p> <p>Allow double-stands to reform using a labeled version of the selected gene to make it easy to detect.</p>	
<p><b>PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) (Fig 13.1)</b></p>	<p>Based on DNA polymerase property of creating a second strand of DNA</p>	
<p><i>Requirements</i></p>	<p>Template DNA</p>	<p>Two primers to flank the region to be amplified</p>

<b>Primers</b>	Short (18-30 bases) DNA oligomers complementary to the ends of the region being amplified	
<b>DNA Polymerase</b>	Adds new bases to 3' ends to primer to create a new second strand	
DNA polymerase from <i>Thermus aquaticus</i> : <b>Taq polymerase</b> →	A bacterium that lives in nearly boiling water in Yellow stone Natural Park Hot springs	Can with strand temperature cycle of PCR that would till DNA pol from <i>E. coli</i> .
<b>Uses of PCR</b>	Diagnosis of diseases: - infectious, cancer  Forensic medicine  Antenatal diagnosis  Prenatal sex determination.  Paternity contesting	Construction of useful organisms:  - Bacteria of biological waste handling, marine spills, nitrogen fixation.  Detection of mutations  Preimplantation diagnosis of genetic diseases.  Anthropology
<b>Advantages of PCR</b>	Rapid  Sensitive	Robust  Works even with partly degraded DNA
<b>Disadvantages</b>	Only a short region (up to 2kbp) can be amplified.	A limited amount of product is made.
<b>Problems in PCR</b>	Contamination, impurities, improper sample	
<b>PCR Cycle</b>	Based on the cycle of three steps that occur at different temperatures	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Each cycle doubles the number of DNA molecules: 25-35 cycles produce enough DNA to be visualized on an electrophoresis gel.</li> <li>• Each step takes one minute to complete</li> </ul>		
<b>Steps</b>	<b><u>Denaturation</u></b> Makes DNA single-stranded by heating to 94°C.	<b><u>Annealing</u></b> Hybridize primers to single strands Temperature around 50°C	<b><u>Extension</u></b> Build second strand with DNA pol and dNTP: 72°C.
<b>Electrophoresis</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Separation of charged molecules in the electric field</li> <li>• Nucleic acid have one charged phosphate (negative charged) per nucleotide</li> <li>• Separation based on length: longer molecule moves slower.</li> <li>• Done in a gel matrix to stabilize: agarose or acrylamide</li> <li>• Average run: 100 volts across 10cm gel, run for 2 hours</li> <li>• Stain with ethidium bromide: intercalates with DNA bases and fluoresces orange.</li> <li>• Run alongside standards of known sizes to get the length.</li> </ul>		
<b>Cloning</b>			
<b>Sources of DNA</b>	Genomic DNA: Whole-genome is cut into small pieces and cloned.		
<b>Methods</b>	Random shear by <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Partial digestion to generate recognition site at every 256bp by restriction enzyme</li> </ul>		



## Maintenance of Body Composition

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe the sources, biological significance and associated disorders of vitamins and minerals.</li> <li>• Explain the regulation and importance of acid-base, water and electrolyte balance in the body.</li> <li>• Identify and define inherited metabolic disorders.</li> <li>• Categorize xenobiotics and provide their significance.</li> <li>• Illustrate the mechanisms of oxidative stress and antioxidant defences.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Acids, Antioxidants, Bases, Buffers, Deficiency diseases, Dehydration, Electrolytes, Free radicals, Genetic screening, ICF and ECF, IMD, Minerals, pI, pH, ROS, Vitamins, Water, Xenobiotics.</p>
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### VITAMINS

#### Sources, Active Form and Importance of Various Vitamins

	<i>Pro Vitamin (Source)</i>	<i>Active Form</i>	<i>Metabolic Importance</i>
<b><u>Fat-soluble Vitamins</u></b>			
1.	<i>Vitamin A:</i>		
	β carotene (vegetable fruit) ↓	Retinal  Retinol  Retinoic acid	Visual pigment (vision)  Coenzyme (sugar transport)  Signal molecule (development and differentiation)
	Retinol (Milk, liver, egg yolk)		
2.	Vitamin D	Calcitriol	Hormone

	(Cholesterol → Cholecalciferol (Cod liver oil, milk, egg yolk)  ↓  Calcitriol		(Calcium metabolism)
3.	Vitamin E:  Tocopherols  (Cereals, liver, egg, oil seeds)	Tocopherols	Reducing agent (antioxidant)
4.	Vitamin K:  Phylloquinones  (Intestinal bacteria, vegetables, liver)	Phylloquinones	Blood clotting
<b><u>Water- soluble Vitamins</u></b>			
<i>Vitamin B complex:</i>			
5.	Thiamin (grain, yeast)	Thiamin diphosphate (TDP)	Transfer of hydroxyalkyl residues
6.	Riboflavin (milk, egg)	FMN, FAD	Hydrogen transfer
7	Nicotinate, nicotinamide (Meat, yeast, fruit, vegetable)	NAD, NADP	Hydride transfer
8.	Pantothenate (wide distribution)	CoA	Activation of carboxylic acid
9.	Pyridoxal, pyridoxol, pyridoxamine  (Meat, vegetable, grains)	PLP (pyridoxal phosphate)	Activation of amino acids

10.	Cobalamin (Meat, liver, egg, milk)	5-deoxy adenosyl cobalamin  Methyl cobalamin	Isomerization	
11	Biotin (yeast)	Biotin	Transfer of carboxyl groups	
<b><u>Other Water-soluble Vitamins</u></b>				
12	Ascorbic acid (Fruit, vegetables)	Ascorbate	Stabilization of enzyme systems, coenzyme, antioxidant.	
<b>Fat-Soluble Vitamin: Function and Deficiencies</b>				
	<b><i>Pro Vitamin</i></b>	<b><i>Functional or Active Form</i></b>	<b><i>Metabolic Importance</i></b>	<b><i>Features of Deficiency</i></b>
1.	Vitamin A  Beta carotene  Retinol	Retinal  Retinol  Retinoic acid	Visual pigment (vision)  Coenzyme (sugar transport)  Signal molecule (development and differentiation)	Defective night vision or night blindness  Keratinization of epithelium:  Cornea  Lungs  Conjunctiva  GIT  Genitourinary tract Bitot's spots  Xerophthalmia  Blindness  Increased susceptibility to infections

**CHAPTER 15****Clinical Biochemistry, Physiology & Genetic Disorders**

<p><b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explain the biochemistry of blood, its functions and associated disorders.</li> <li>• Illustrate the concepts of immunology, constituents and diseases of the immune system.</li> <li>• Describe the biochemical basis of structure and functions of muscle, nerves and eye.</li> <li>• Identify and interpret organ function tests.</li> <li>• Define and diagnose genetic disorders.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Keywords:</b></p> <p>Action Potential, Antibody, Antigens, Blood, Clotting factors, Calcium, Genetic disorders, Homeostasis, Immunity, Immunoglobulins, Jaundice, Kidney, Lens, LFT, Mucin, Neurons, Platelets, Sarcomere, Tear, Vaccines.</p>
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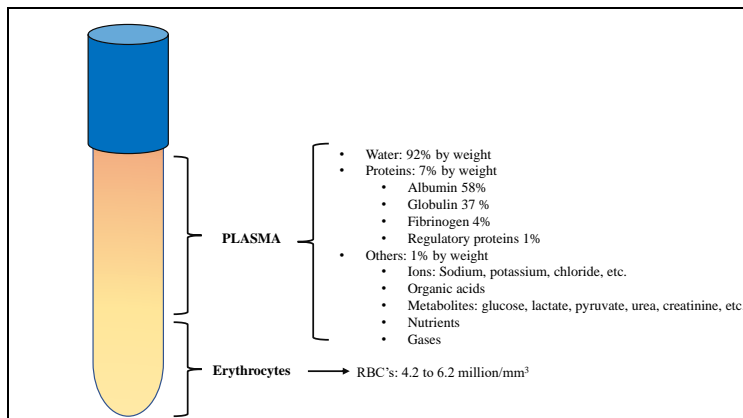
**15.1. BLOOD**

<b>Biochemistry of Blood</b>	<b>Blood Performs Three Major Functions (Fig. 15.2)</b>		
<b>Composition of Blood (Fig. 15.1)</b>	<b>Transport</b>		<b>Defense</b>
8% of the body weight (5–6 L) Suspension of cells in carrier fluid: Water (90%) Proteins (7%) Inorganic (1%) Organic (2%) Plasma: 55% Leucocytes and platelets: 2%	Oxygen and carbon dioxide  Food molecules (glucose, lipids, amino acids)	Ions ( <i>e.g.</i> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup> , HCO <sup>3-</sup> )  Wastes ( <i>e.g.</i> , urea)  Hormones	Defending the body against infections or other harmful foreign materials.  All types of WBCs participate in the body's defence mechanism.
	<b>Homeostatic Functions</b>		
	Heat  Water- salt balance  Acid-base balance	Osmosis  Blood clotting  Formation of hormones	

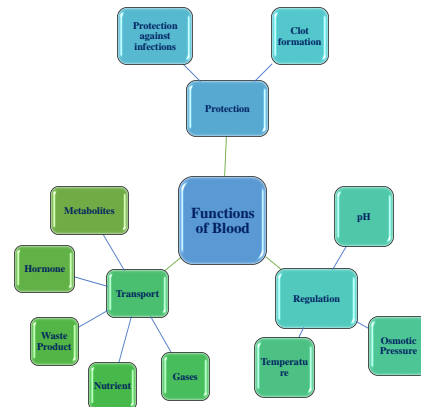
Simmi Kharb

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Erythrocytes: 43%		
<b>Red Blood Cells (Erythrocytes)</b>	Does not contain nucleus, chromatin  Does not contain mitochondria	ATP produced from anaerobic glycolysis mainly and ends in lactate (~90%).
<p><b>Structure</b></p> <p>In an adult human, hemoglobin (Hb) molecule comprises of four polypeptides</p> <p>Two alpha (<math>\alpha</math>) chains consisting of 141 amino acids</p> <p>Two beta (<math>\beta</math>) chains consisting of 146 amino acids</p> <p>Each of these chains is attached to the prosthetic heme group.</p> <p>One Fe-atom is present at the center of each heme group.</p> <p>One O<sub>2</sub> molecule binds to each heme group.</p> <p>It is a reversible reaction.</p>		<p><b>Glycolysis in RBCs has the Following Features</b></p> <p>2,3 BPG will be produced and not 1,3 BPG.</p> <p>2,3 BPG binds O<sub>2</sub> to hemoglobin:</p> <p>Low concentration of 2,3 BPG will increase affinity hemoglobin (Hb) to O<sub>2</sub></p> <p>PPP is the main pathway for producing of reductive equivalents NADPH</p> <p>It is accountable for transporting O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>.</p>
<b>Diseases Associated with the Inadequate Synthesis of Hemoglobin Components</b>		
Porphyria	Thalassemia	Iron deficiency anemia



**Fig. (15.1).** Composition of Blood.



**Fig. (15.2).** Functions of Blood.

Normal proteins levels: 65-85 g/l

Albumins: 35-50 g/l.

Fibrinogen: 2-4 g/l.

Globulins:

$\alpha$ 1 globulins: 1-4 g/l

$\alpha$ 2 globulins: 4-8 g/l

$\beta$  globulins: 6-12 g/l

$\gamma$  globulins: 8-16 g/l

**Hemostasis**

Definition: Inhibition of loss of blood due to broken blood vessel

- Achieved by several mechanisms:
- Vascular constriction
- Platelet plug formation
- Blood coagulation

**Vascular Constriction**

Damage to blood vessel wall causes the contraction of smooth muscle which results from:

- Myogenic local spasm
- Factors/ chemicals released from the damaged tissues & blood platelets
- Reflexes of the nervous system

**CHAPTER 16****The Endocrine System**

<b>LEARNING OBJECTIVES:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explain the synthesis, biological significance and diseases of hormones.</li> </ul>	<b>Keywords:</b> Adreno-corticoids, Catecholamines, Growth hormone, Para-thyroid, Thyroid.
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<b>GH (GROWTH HORMONE)</b>		
<b>Fact File: GH</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 19 residue polypeptide</li> <li>• Produced by the anterior pituitary.</li> <li>• Stimulates growth and metabolism in muscles, bone and cartilage cells.</li> <li>• Acts indirectly via growth factors (produced by the liver following its stimulation).</li> <li>• GH is an anabolic hormone, it stimulates protein synthesis in bone and muscle.</li> </ul>	GH is also called somatotropin and is secreted by the anterior pituitary. The secretion of GH is mediated by two hypothalamic hormones: growth hormone-releasing hormone (HRH) and somatostatin (growth hormone inhibiting hormone).	<b>Synthesis of GH</b> GH is synthesized in somatotrophs (a subclass of acidophilic cells) in the anterior pituitary gland. It is also called somatotrophin. It stimulates the production of growth factors IGF (insulin-like growth factors) in the liver. Release of GH from the pituitary is stimulated by GHRH (GH releasing hormones) and inhibited by somatostatin (SS) It is released in pulses.
<b>Metabolic Effects of GH</b>		
	<i>Decrease</i>	<i>Increase</i>

Carbohydrate metabolism	Glucose uptake in extrahepatic tissues Insulin sensitivity	Hepatic glucose output hepatic glycogen stores Plasma glucose
Lipid metabolism	-	Lipolysis Plasma FFA Plasma ketone bodies
Protein metabolism	Nitrogen excretion	Amino acid uptake Protein synthesis

<b>GH Disorder</b>	
<b><i>GH Deficiency</i></b>	
It occurs both in children and adults. In children, it can be familial or may be due to tumors (cranio-pharyngioma). In adults, it is as a result of structural or functional abnormalities of pituitary.	
<b><u>Manifestations</u></b>	
In children, there is growth failure. In adults, GH deficiency occurs in case of partial or complete failure of the anterior pituitary. Symptoms include fatigue, loss of motivation, diminished feeling of well-being even social withdrawal, osteoporosis and alteration in body composition.	
GH deficiency causes a condition called dwarfism. If GH is produced in excess before bone growth stops, a person is taller than normal. This condition is called gigantism. If excess GH is released in an adult, acromegaly results. Bones cannot elongate in acromegaly, soft tissue enlargement occurs namely skin, muscle, hands, feet, nose, ears, tongue and chin.	
<b>Acromegaly</b>	
<b><i>Cause</i></b>	Pathologic GH excess Autonomous GH excess
<b><i>Pathology</i></b>	Pituitary tumor



	Ectopic production of GHRH or GH.
<b>Features</b>	<p>Progressive enlargement of hands, feet, facial bones (including mandible, skull), coarsening of facial features.</p> <p>Hypertension, accelerated atherosclerosis, proximal muscle weakness, sleep apnoea, increased risk of insulin resistance/diabetes.</p> <p>Organomegaly is common. Excessive sweating or heat intolerance.</p> <p>Local effects of the tumor (headache or visual complaints) or symptoms related to other anterior pituitary hormones.</p> <p>Features of co-secretion of prolactin are seen in 40% of patients of acromegaly.</p>
<b>Thyroid Glands: Functions of Thyroid Hormone</b>	
1. Calorigenesis:	Thyroid hormones generate heat by stimulating mitochondrial O <sub>2</sub> consumption and the production of ATP required for Na pump.
2. Carbohydrate and fat metabolism: (i) Carbohydrate	<p><i>Catabolic action</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stimulate intestinal absorption of glucose</li> <li>• Stimulate hepatic glycogenolysis</li> <li>• Potentiate glycogenolytic actions of epinephrine</li> <li>• Stimulate insulin breakdown</li> </ul>
(ii) Lipid:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lipolytic- Direct action</li> <li>• Indirect action via potentiating action of other hormones like: GC glucagon, GH, epinephrine.</li> <li>• Increase the oxidation of FFA.</li> <li>• Decreased plasma cholesterol by: inhibition of bile acid formation in the liver.</li> </ul>

## SUBJECT INDEX

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