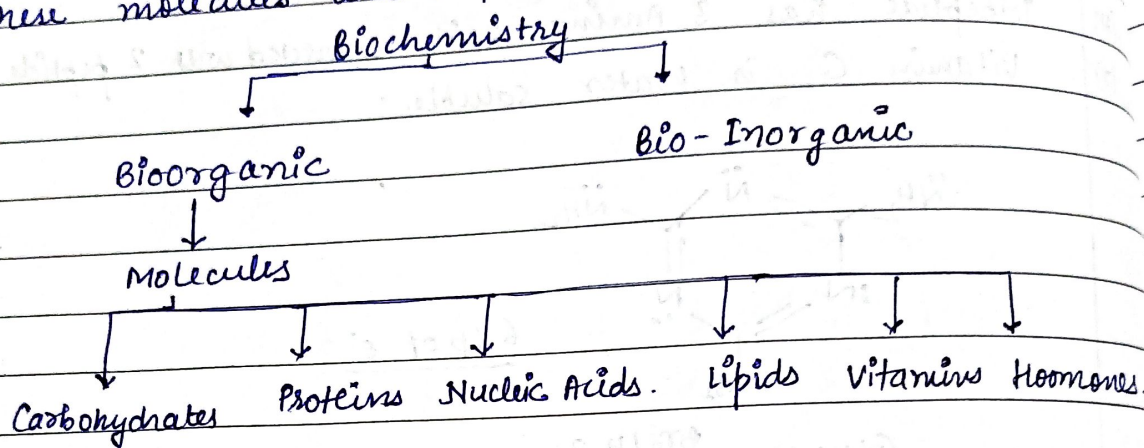


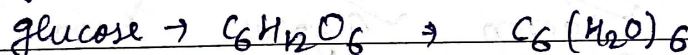
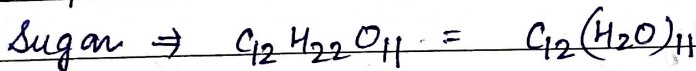
BIOMOLECULES

Biochemistry → A study of what goes on within the living system.

These molecules are important for biological processes.



* CARBOHYDRATES



Initially, carbohydrates were defined as $C_x(H_2O)_y$.

But this was not correct fully.

as other molecules also follow $C_x(H_2O)_y$.

ex. Acetic acid $CH_3COOH \rightarrow C_2(H_2O)_2$ but this isn't a carbohydrate.

\therefore This definition was wrong.

→ At the same time, some carbohydrates don't have molecular formula $C_x(H_2O)_y$.

Classic definition: These are hydrates of carbon.

General formula is $C_x(H_2O)_y$.

The structures that are known to satisfy this formula are glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$) or sucrose ($C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$).

ex of carbohydrates that don't have $C_x(H_2O)_y \rightarrow$
Rhamnose: $C_6H_{12}O_5$ but it is still a carbohydrate.

Modern Definition →

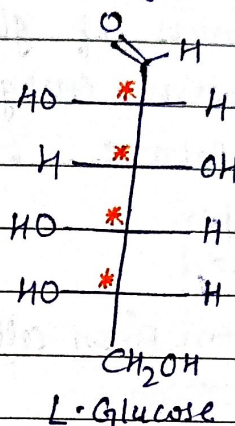
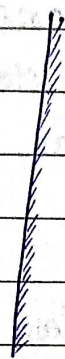
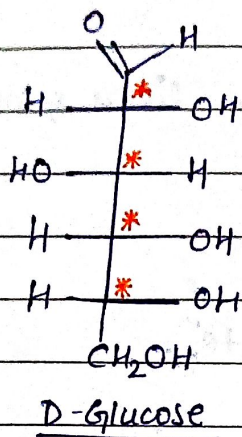
Carbohydrates are optically active polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones or any such compounds which produce these on hydrolysis.

* Classification and Naming

(+) D Glucose

(+) represents dextrorotatory.

D, L ⇒ naming → no relation with optical activity



4 chiral carbons

★ If the 2nd carbon from bottom has -OH gp. on right side, it is called D-compound.

If 2nd carbon from bottom has -OH gp. on left side, it is called L-compound.

→ (+) D glucose is most abundant substance in biomolecules.

→ "ose" represents sugar or saccharide.

Sources: (1) Photosynthesis in plant leaf ($\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$).

External Conditions - Sunlight and chlorophyll

Chlorophyll is a metal ion complex of Magnesium.

Storage:

starch

D-Glucose

cellulose.

Glycogen

(Animal starch)

D glucose is interconvertible in Starch, Glycogen, Cellulose.

Starch → in plant seeds as food

Glycogen → Animal starch

Transported via blood stream

Stored in liver

Cellulose → Framework of structure of plants

Uses of biopolymers of glucose

Glycogen: long term energy storage in livers & muscles

Starch: Food (Potatoes, bread, rice).

Cellulose: → Paper

→ wood

→ Cotton Finen cellulose Acetate.

⊕ Classification of Carbohydrates.

I. on the basis of Functional Group

1) Polyhydroxy Aldehyde ex. Glucose

2) Polyhydroxy Ketone ex. Fructose

II. on the basis of Reducing Nature

(1) Non Reducing Sugars — which don't reduce Tollen's and Fehling solution.

ex. sucrose

The Aldehyde group isn't available for reducing

(2) Reducing Sugars — which reduce Tollen's & Fehling solution

→ All monosaccharides are reducing sugars

ex. glucose, fructose, maltose, lactose, etc.

→ maltose and lactose are not monosaccharides.

→ Fructose is reducing due to the presence of 1° Alcohol which converts to Aldehyde.

III. on basis of sweetness.

(1) Sugar

(2) Non-sugar.

Saccharide came from Latin word saccharum which means sugar.

IV. on the basis of NO. of Carbon atoms

3

4

5

6

Triose

Tetrose

Pentose

Hexose

-CHO Aldose

-C=O ketose

So, if a carbohydrate has 4 carbon and 1 ~~CHO~~ CHO
It is "ALDO-PENTOSE".

Carbohydrate 5 carbon & 1 C=O \Rightarrow Keto hexose.

V. on the basis of NO. of Products of Hydrolysis.

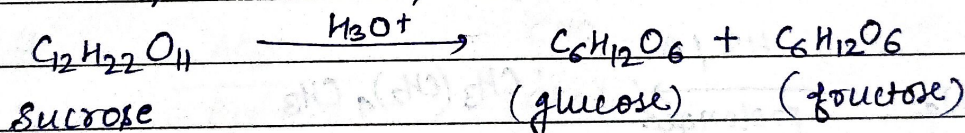
(1) Monosaccharides \rightarrow Don't undergo hydrolysis.

ex. Glucose, Fructose, Ribose.

(2) Oligosaccharides \rightarrow give 2-10 units on hydrolysis; Crystals

ex. Sucrose, Maltose.

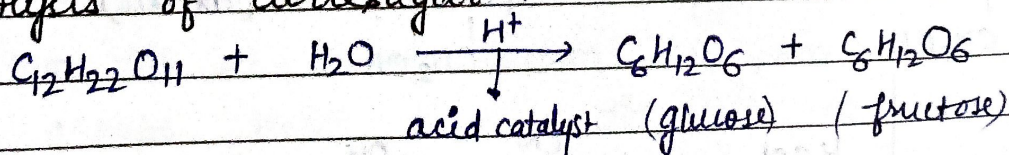
solids, water, sweet

(3) Polysaccharides \rightarrow give more than 10 units on hydrolysis

ex. starch, cellulose, Glycogen. | amorphous, insoluble in water, test

* Preparation of Glucose.

(1) Hydrolysis of Cane sugar:



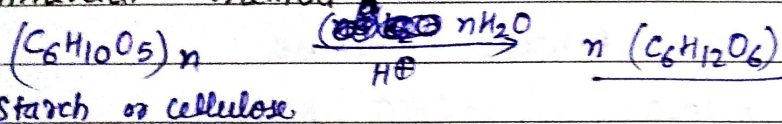
Boil in the presence of alcohol or the enzyme "Invertase" can cause this reaction.

For a typical hydrolysis of polysaccharides.

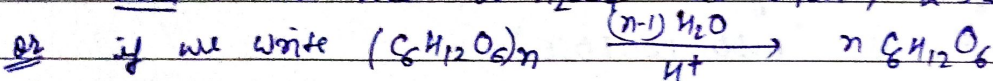
$$(M-M-M-M)_n \xrightarrow[\text{(n-1) H}_2\text{O}]{\text{hydrolysis}} n \times M$$

for a polysaccharide containing n monomeric units
 $(n-1)$ H_2O molecules are required for hydrolysis.

(2) Commercial method:



acid \rightarrow dil. HCl or H_2SO_4 at 393K , $2-3$ atmp.



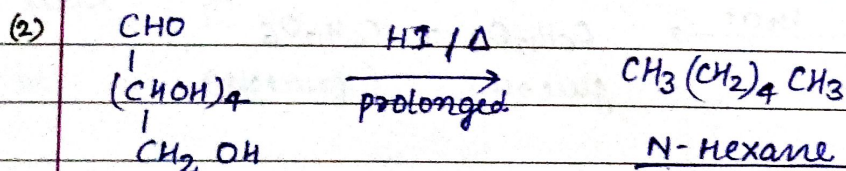
$(n-1)$ mole water required.

* Evidence of Glucose structure

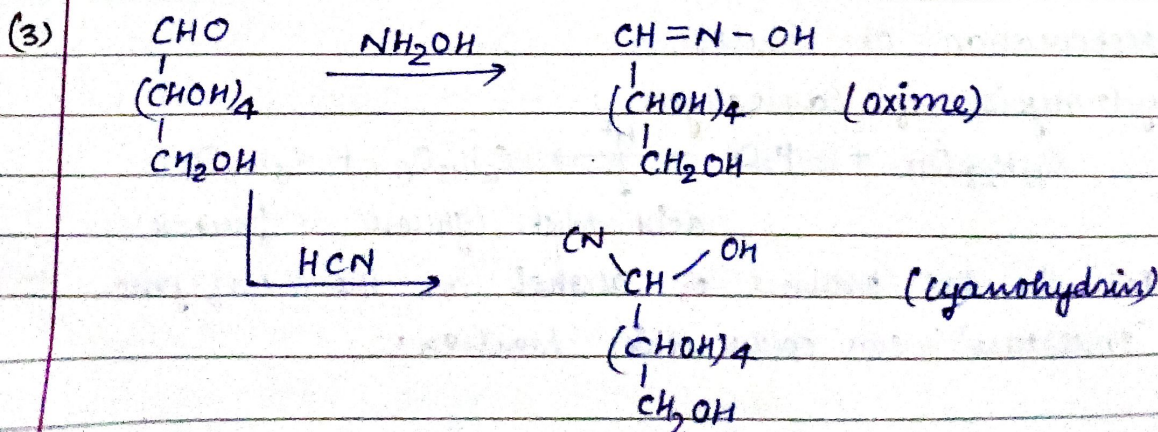
(1) Molecular formula of Glucose is:

using mole concepts like mass percent or combustion products percent we find empirical formula -

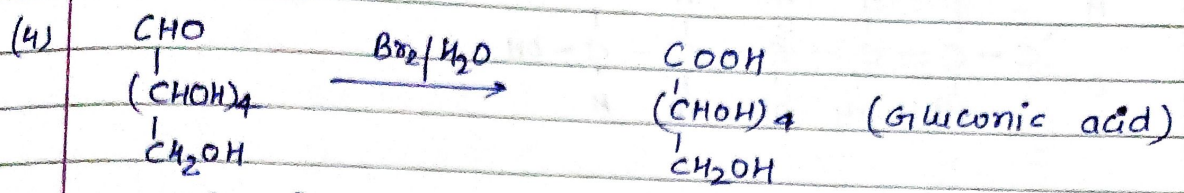
So. m.f. was determined to be $C_6H_{12}O_6$.



It proves that all carbon are connected in straight chain.



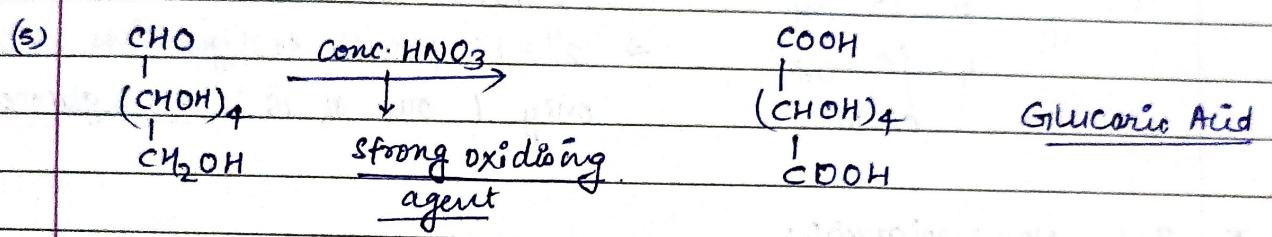
It proves that carbonyl group is present in glucose.



Bromine water is a mild oxidising agent. So, it oxidises only carbonyl group; not -OH group.

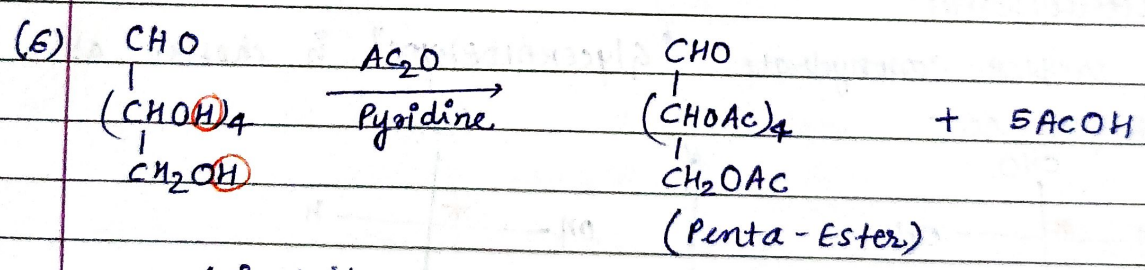
Aldose \rightarrow Aldonic acid

As $\text{Br}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ oxidises it; presence of aldehydic group is confirmed.

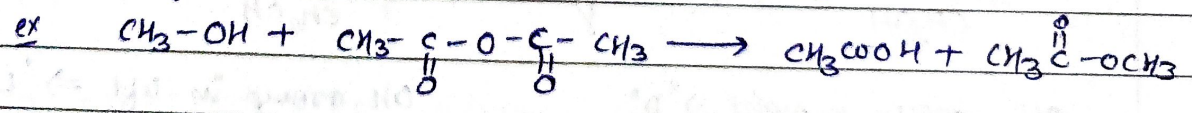


Thus it was confirmed that first carbon is -CHO & last carbon is 1° Primary alcohol.

Aldose \rightarrow Aldaric Acid



Anhydride + ROH \rightarrow Ester + Acid

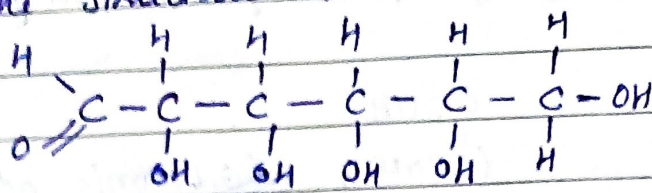


It was confirmed that 5 alcohol gp. are present in it.

As two -OH on same carbon are unstable, so these 5 -OH groups must be on different carbons as glucose is stable.

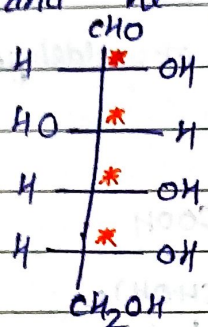
Aldehydic group is present on 6th carbon.

The structure is \rightarrow



* Stereochemistry of Structure

The examination of stereochemistry was done by Fischer and he gave following structure.



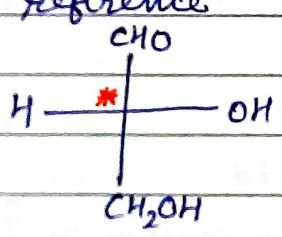
\Rightarrow carbon backbone

4 chiral carbons

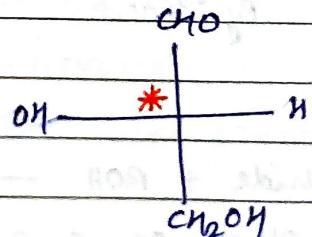
$\Rightarrow 2^4 = 16$ possible configurations exist only 1 out of 16 is (+) D-glucose.

* D-L Nomenclature.

- \rightarrow "D" represents the configuration & not related to optical activity or optical nature.
- \rightarrow They indicate the relative configuration of a particular stereoisomer.
- \rightarrow The simplest carbohydrate "GLYCERALDEHYDE" is chosen as reference.

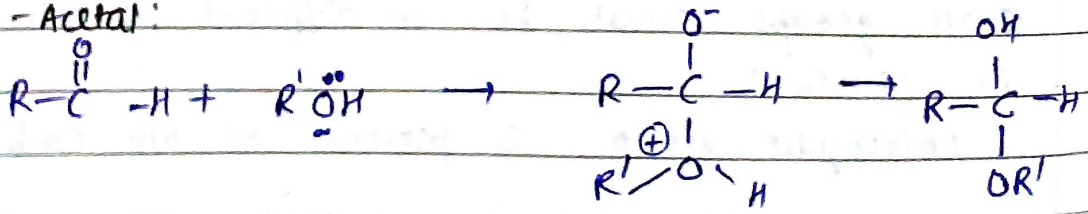


OH group in right \Rightarrow "D"
D-glyceraldehyde

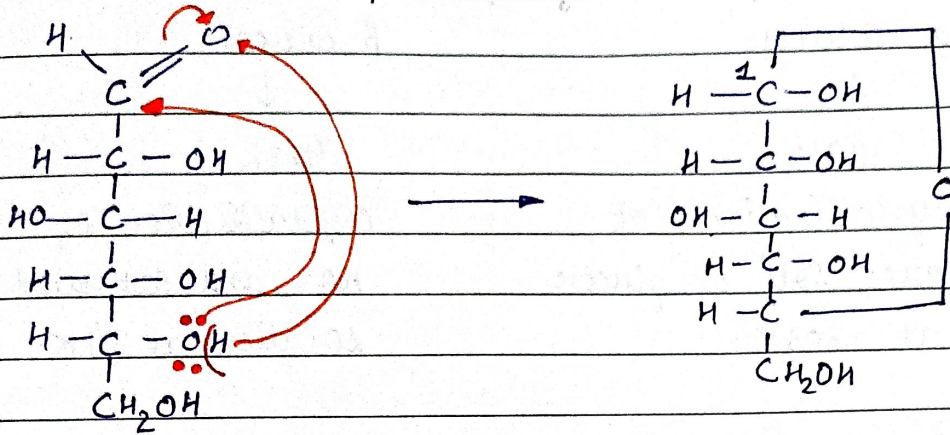


OH group in left \Rightarrow "L"
L-glyceraldehyde.

* Hemi-Acetal:



CYCLIC STRUCTURE OF GLUCOSE

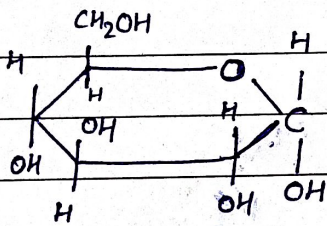


6 membered ring formation

Intramolecular Hemi-Acetal formation.

★ Why this particular -OH was chosen?

Because 6-membered ring is the most stable ring.



"HAWORTH STRUCTURE"

* Why did need of cyclic structure arise?

Failures of straight chain structure.

The straight chain structure fails to explain the following properties or reactions shown by glucose-

- (1) Glucose doesn't show 2,4 DNP test, Schiff's Base test, NaHSO₃ Adduct product.

⇒ It was concluded that oxygen of the aldehydic group is not free and busy in ring formation.

- (2) The pentaacetate of Glucose doesn't react with NH₂OH to form oximes.

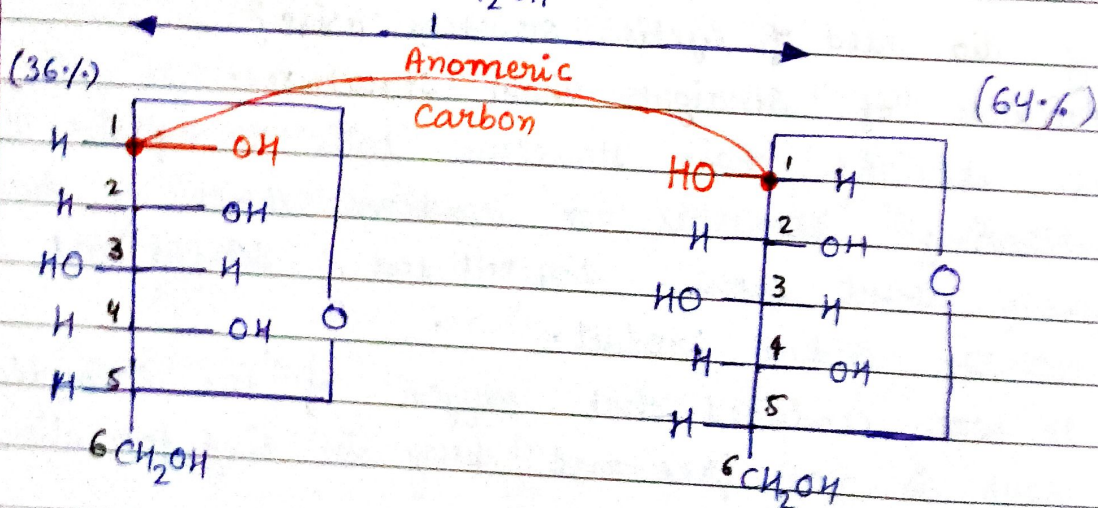
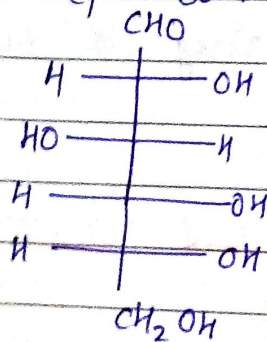
But straight chain reaction form oximes and cyclic structure doesn't, so, cyclic structure preferred.

Crystalline forms of Glucose

	α -Glucose	β -Glucose
Melting pt.	419K	423K
Preparation	Crystallization of conc. sol ⁿ of glucose at 303K	Crystallisation of hot and saturated solution at 371K.

On the cyclisation of straight chain structure, if -OH on C_1 comes on right \Rightarrow α -D glucose.

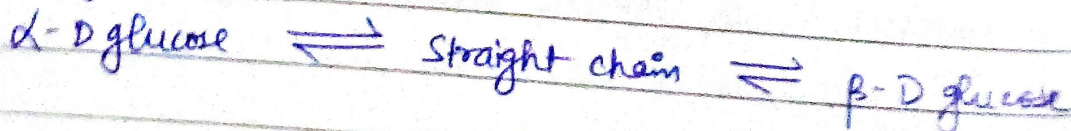
If -OH on C_1 comes on left \Rightarrow β -D glucose.



α -D-(+) Glucose

β -D-(+) Glucose

There exists equilibrium. α & β can interconvert via straight chain.



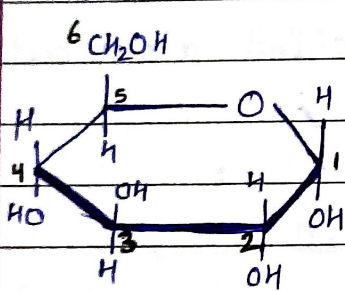
Q. Which anomer is more stable: α or β ?
 Due to less steric repulsion of bulky groups, β -form is more stable. Hence it is favored 64%. (-OH is equatorial in β forms).



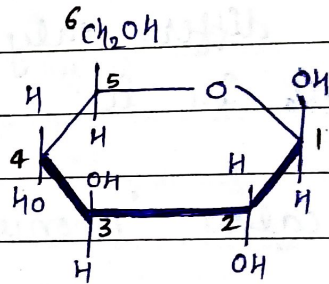
As glucose also has 1 O atom in 6 membered ring, these structures are pyranose. For glucose derivatives, all are Gluco pyranose.

\rightarrow The front bonds of Haworth structure are darkened to highlight 3-D nature.

Hence the final structures are \rightarrow



α -D-(+)-Gluco-Pyranose



β -D-(+)-GlucoPyranose.

* MUTAROTATION

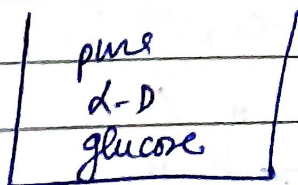
The specific rotation of pure α -D glucose or β -D glucose changes over time to reach an equilibrium value and this phenomenon is called mutarotation.

specific rotation of:

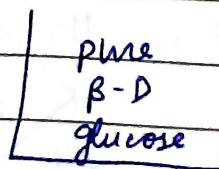
$$\alpha\text{-D glucose} = +112.2^\circ$$

$$\beta\text{-D glucose} = +18.7^\circ$$

$$\text{optical activity at equilibrium} = +52.6^\circ$$



$$112.2^\circ$$



$$18.7^\circ$$

as $\alpha \rightleftharpoons \beta$.

optical rotation decreases till equilibrium reached

At eq^m

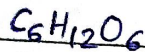
$\beta = 64\%$

$\alpha = 36\%$

So, rotation at eq^m

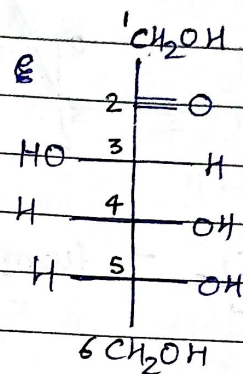
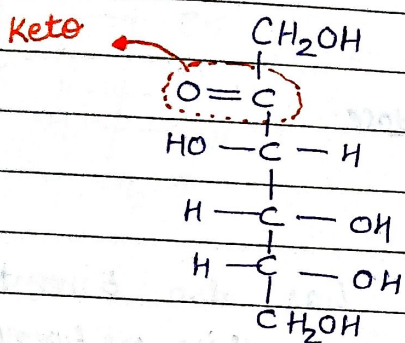
$$\theta_{eqm} = 0.36 \times 112.2^\circ + 0.64 \times 18.7^\circ = \boxed{52.6^\circ} \checkmark$$

"FRUCTOSE"



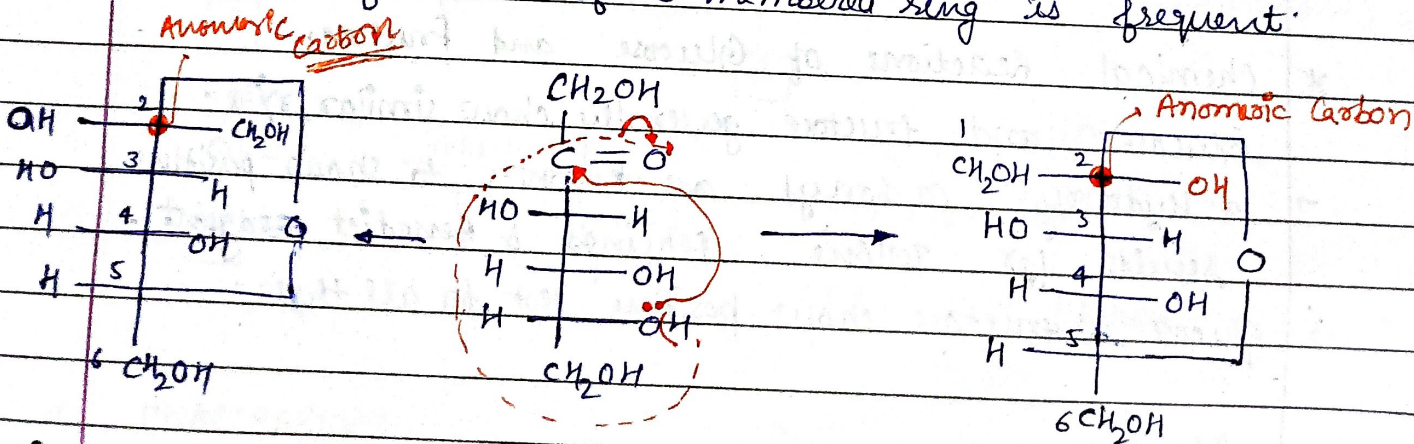
Keto Hexose

Laevose (leavo rotatory).



As -OH on C₅ is on right, D-fructose.
 Since it is leavo rotatory, D-(-)-fructose.
 \rightarrow C₂ is Anomeric carbon.

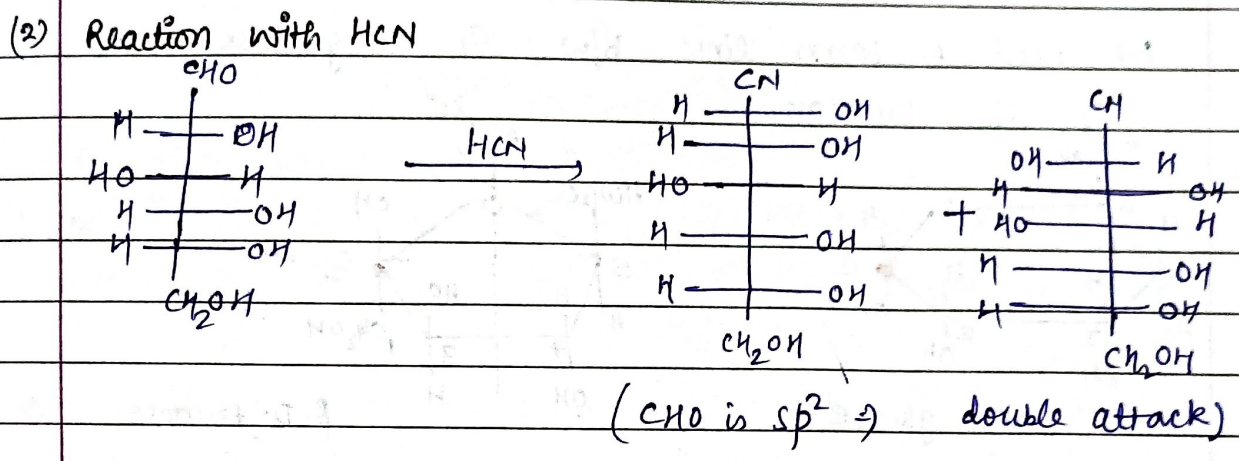
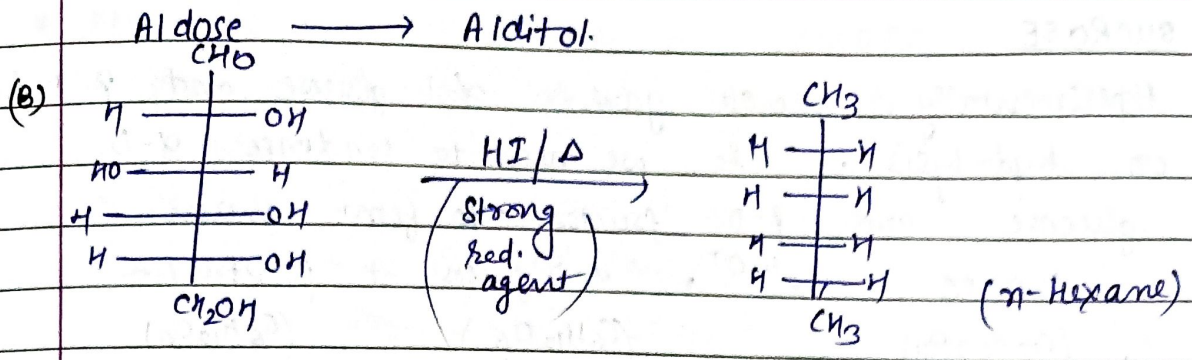
\rightarrow unlike glucose, in fructose practically it is seen that 6 membered ring is formed in very small quantity & relative formation of 5 membered ring is frequent.



β -D-(-)-Fructose

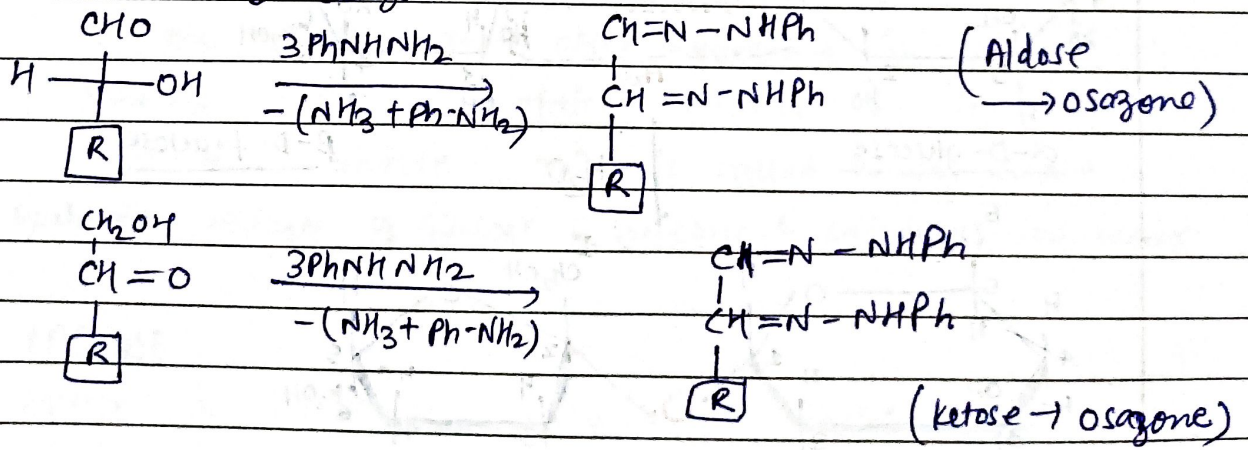
α -D-(-)-Fructose

This is due to the sp² nature of C₂ due to which attack can occur from both sides.



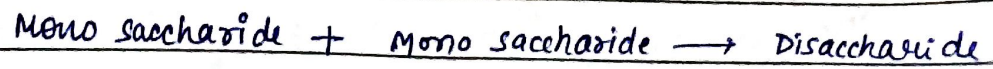
OSAZONE FORMATION

Aldose and ketones react with 3 mole phenyl hydrazine (PhNHNH_2) to form osazone. Epimers will give same osazone.



* **DISACCHARIDES**

To form a disaccharide, we need to join two mono saccharides.



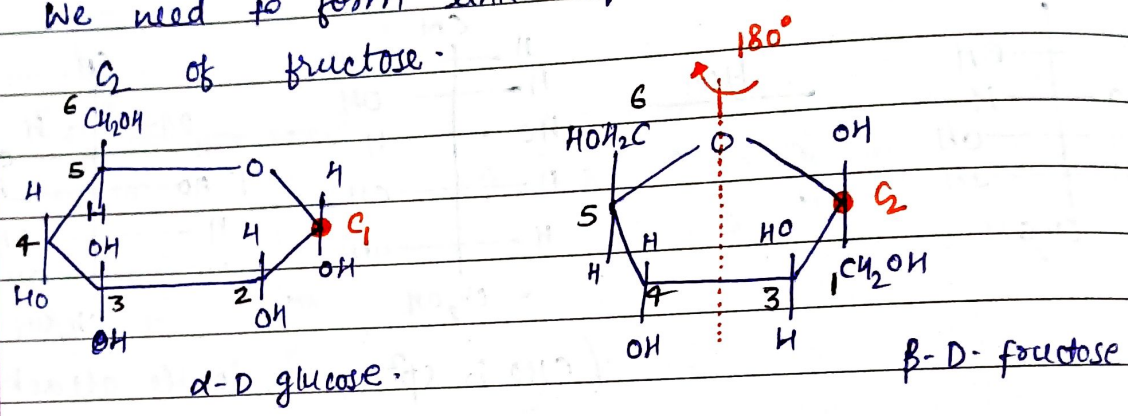
EX. Lactose, Maltose, Sucrose.

SUCROSE

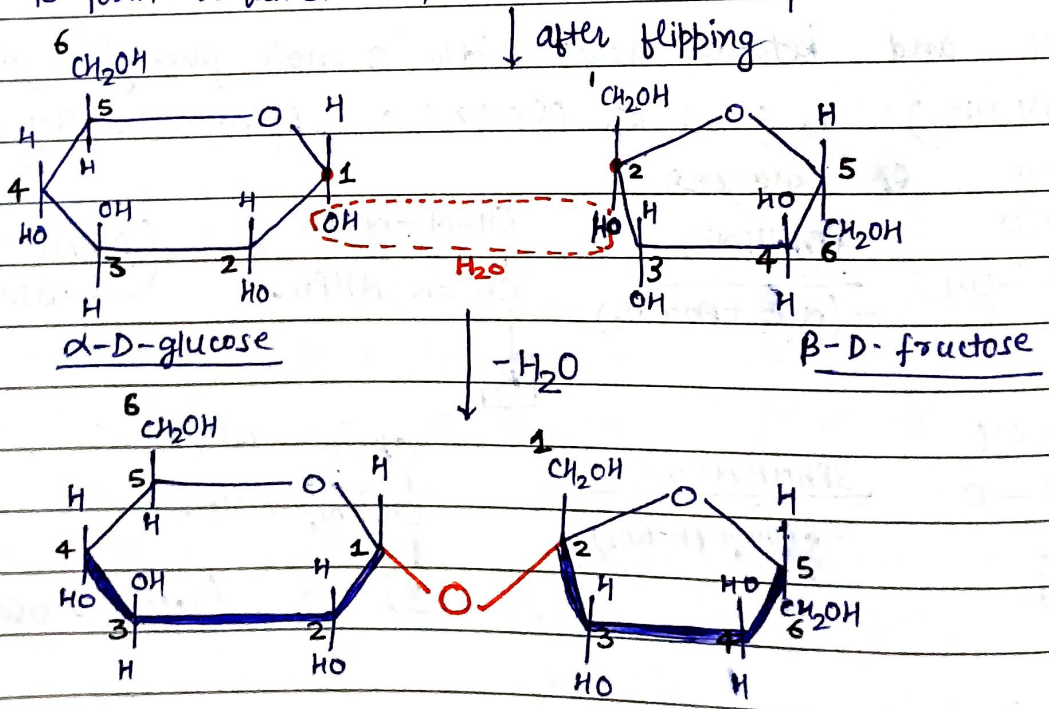
Experimentally, sucrose gave α -D-glucose and β -D-fructose on hydrolysis. So, we need to condense α -D-glucose and β -D-fructose to form sucrose.

$$\text{Sucrose } (C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}) \xrightarrow{H_3O^+} \alpha\text{-D-glucose } (C_6H_{12}O_6) + \beta\text{-D-fructose } (C_6H_{12}O_6)$$

We need to form link b/w C_1 of glucose and C_2 of fructose.



To form required link, we need to rotate β -D-fructose by 180° .



C_1-O-C_2 linkage is called "GLYCOSIDIC LINKAGE".

* REDUCING AND NON-REDUCING SUGARS.

Hemi acetal or Hemi ketal is present \Rightarrow it is reducing sugar.

To identify hemi acetal or hemi ketal:

Hemi Acetal \rightarrow -OH, ether, H on same Carbon.

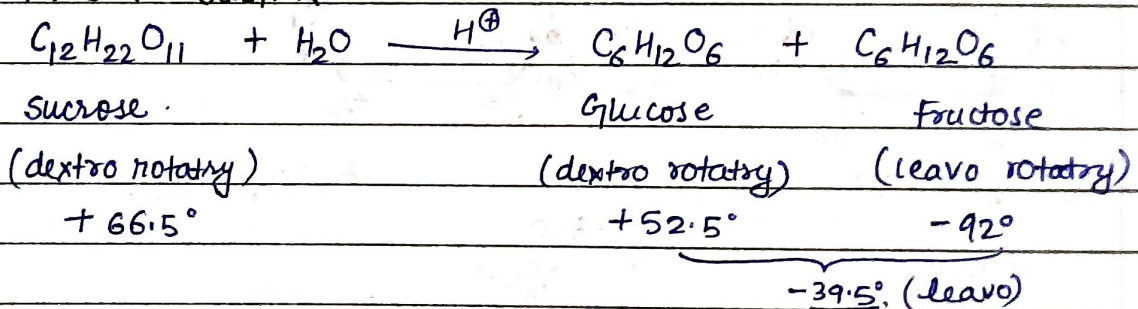
Hemi Ketal \rightarrow -OH, ether, R on same carbon.

ex. In glucose, C_1 has H, OH, and ether \Rightarrow reducing sugar.

ex. In fructose, C_2 has OH, ether, and R. \Rightarrow reducing sugar.

ex. In sucrose, there is no carbon which has hemi ketal or hemi acetal. Hence, sucrose is non reducing.

* INVERT SUGAR.

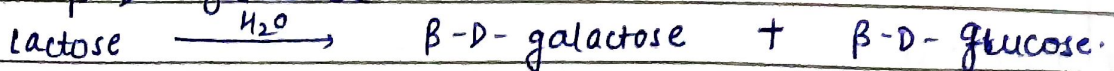


So, the overall mixture after hydrolysis is leavo rotatory and the optical rotation is inversed w.r.t. pure sucrose. This is called invert sugar.

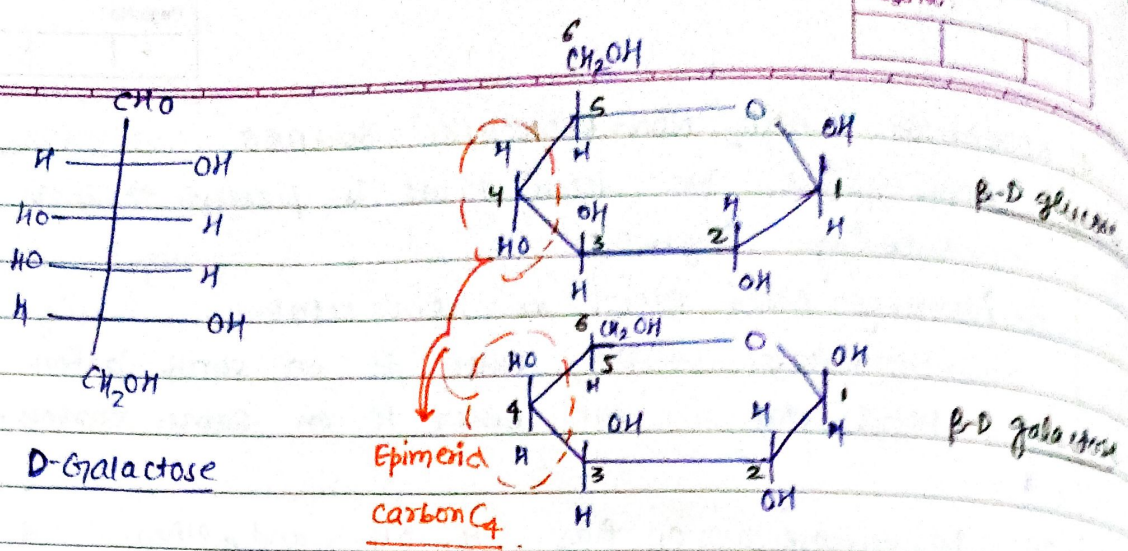
* Equimolar mixture of glucose & fructose is called invert sugar.

LACTOSE

Lactose on hydrolysis gives β -D-glucose and β -D-galactose.

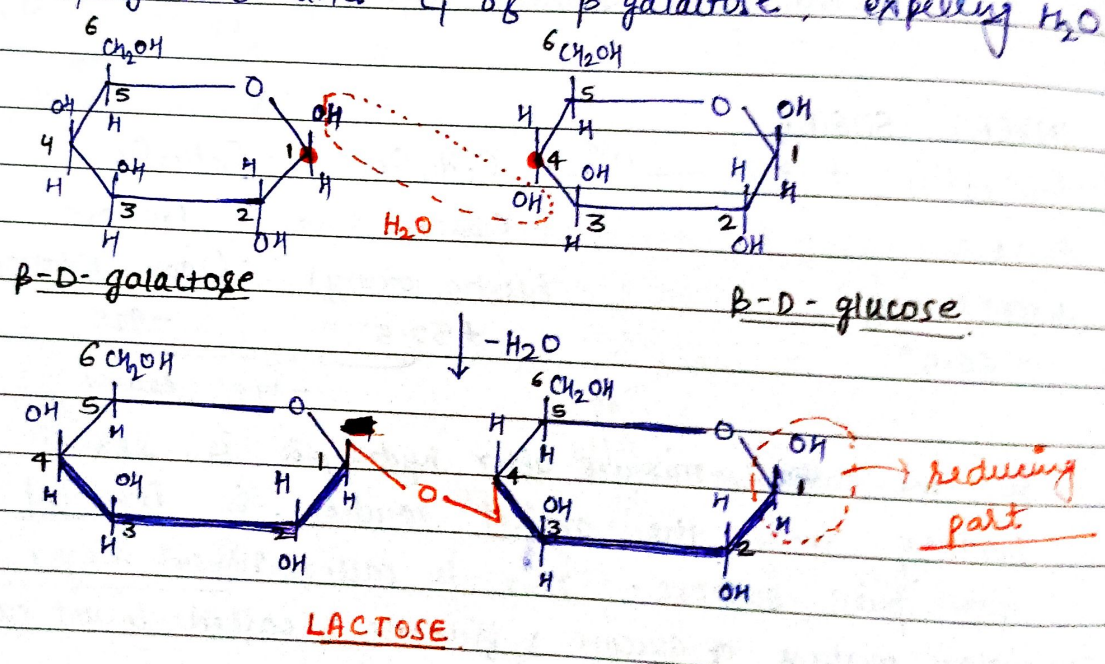


* Galactose: Glucose and galactose are C_4 Epimers formed by C_4 flipping of glucose.



Formation of Lactose:

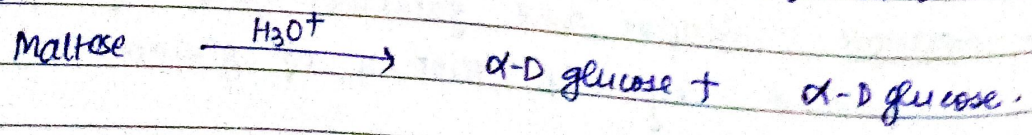
It is formed by glycosidic linkage b/w C₄ of β glucose and C₁ of β galactose, expelling H₂O.



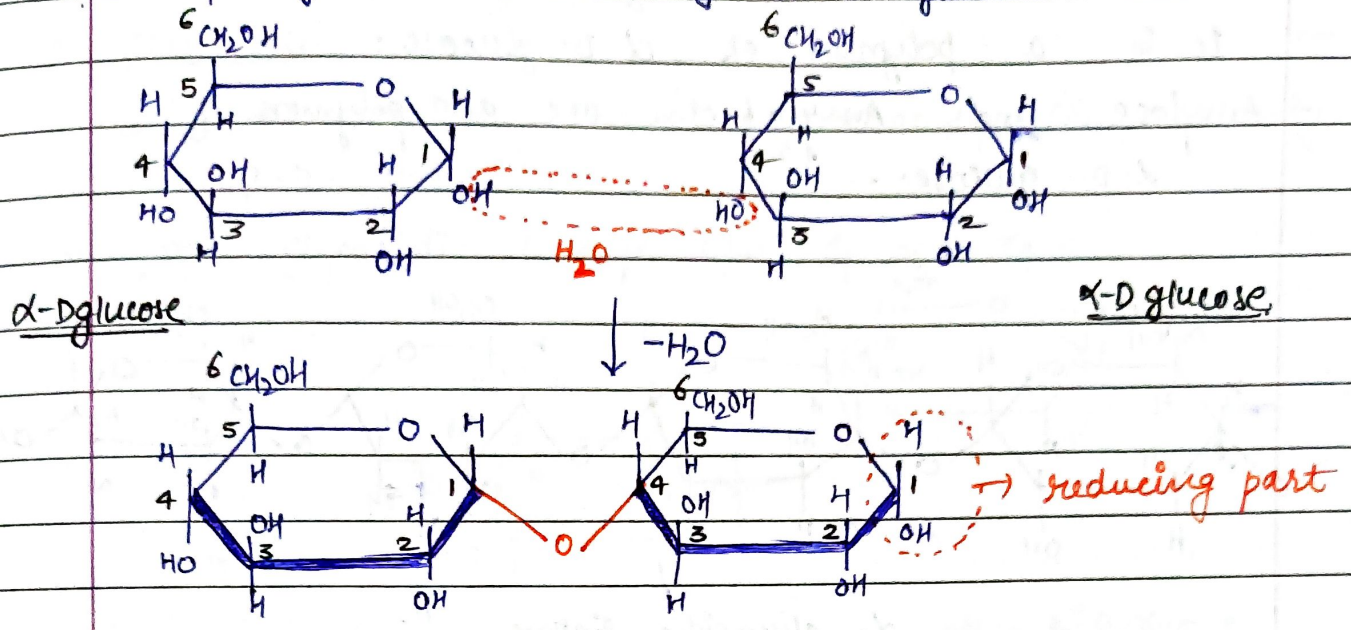
Lactose is a reducing sugar as C₁ of β -D-glucose has hemi-acetal.

MALTOSE

Maltose on hydrolysis gives 2 units of α -D-glucose.



We need to form glycosidic link b/w C₄ of 1 molecule & C₁ of other molecule of α-D glucose.



MALTOSE "α-GLYCOSIDIC LINKAGE"

→ Maltose is a reducing sugar due to C₁ of α-D glucose.

* **POLYSACCHARIDES.**

give many units of monomers on hydrolysis.

- 1) Starch ┌→ Amylose
└→ Amylopectin
- 2) Glycogen
- 3) Cellulose.

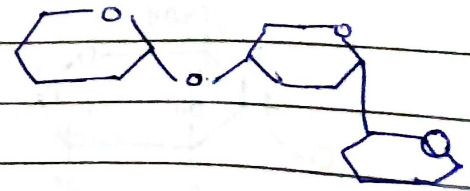
→ **Amylose**

- 1) Straight chain structure.
- 2) only C₁-C₄ link present.
- 3) soluble in water.
- 4) 15-20% of starch.



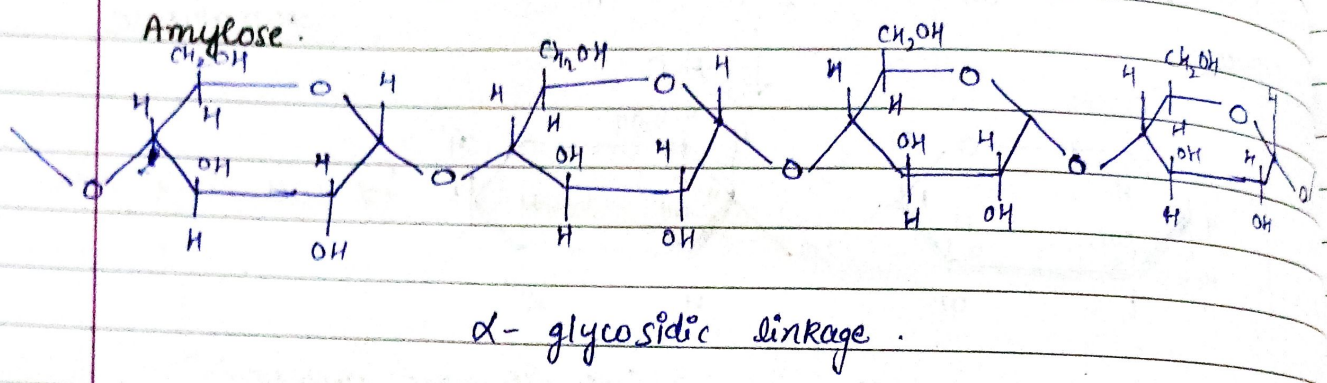
Amylopectin

- Branched chain structure.
- C₁, C₄ and C₁-C₆ link present.
- insoluble in water.
- 80-85% of starch.



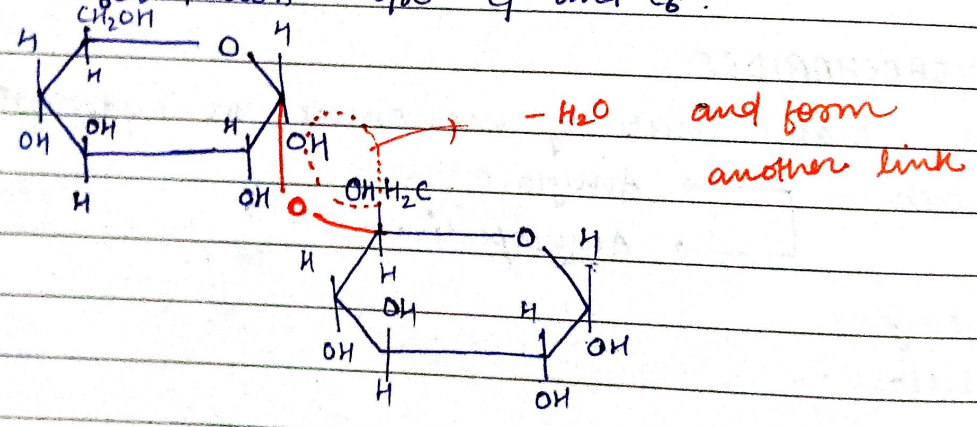
STARCH

- starch is constituted of Amylose & Amylopectines.
- It is a polymer of α -D-glucose.
- Amylose and Amylopectin are also polymers of α -D-glucose.

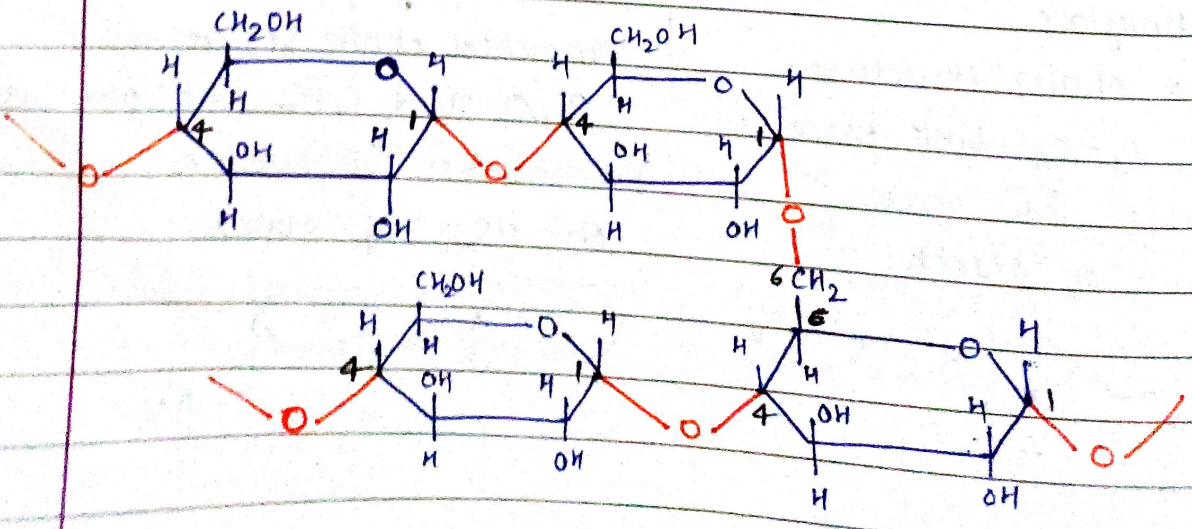


Amylopectin

Bond formation b/w C_1 and C_6 !



structure looks like :



Important points about carbohydrates:

- Fructose also shows mutarotation.
- Fructose isn't oxidised by Br_2/H_2O .
- on oxidation with HNO_3 , fructose gives glycolic and tartaric acid.
- under alkaline conditions, fructose rearranges to give a mixture of glucose, mannose and fructose. This is called Lobry de Bruyn Van Ekenstein rearrangement.
- on reduction with $Na/Sn/H_2O$, fructose gives sorbitol and mannitol.
- Zymase enzyme ferments it to ethanol & CO_2 .
- Osazone of glucose, fructose, mannose are identical.
- Fructose molecule in sucrose exists in furanose form but when sucrose is hydrolysed, it goes in pyranose form.
- Cattle have cellulase enzyme which can digest cellulose but human beings cannot.

Cellulase hydrolyses cellulose to glucose.

- Gun cotton is cellulose trinitrate. It is explosive.
- Blasting gelatin is mixture of ~~70%~~ nitroglycerine and 70% gun cotton.
- cellulase acetate is used in making non inflammable photographic & motion picture films.
- Amylose + iodine \rightarrow blue
- Amylopectin + iodine \rightarrow brown
- Carbohydrates sp^h should be carried out in acidic or neutral medium as they undergo rearrangement in alkaline medium.

* Sweetness of sugars.

Sugar	Degree of Sweetness
• cane sugar (sucrose)	100
• Lactose	16
• Maltose	33

- Glucose 74
- Fructose 175
- Invert sugar 130
- Galactose 32

→ Fructose present in invert sugar makes it sweeter than normal sugar (sucrose)

Some compounds which are not sugar but much sweeter than sucrose →

- (1) Saccharin → O-sulphobenzoic imide, 500 times sweeter than sucrose
- (2) Monellin → A protein, (2000 times sweeter)
- (3) Aspartame: ~~peptide~~ peptide (160 times sweeter)

Tests for Carbohydrates

(1) MOLISCH'S TEST

Carbohydrate + phenol (usually α -naphthol or resorcinol)
= Test solⁿ.

Test solⁿ + sulfuric acid (or HCl) → Violet red ring

Mechanism: Carbohydrate + H_2SO_4 → aldehyde

Aldehyde + 2(phenol) → Violet coloured product.

- All carbohydrates (mono, di, poly) show positive result.
- Nucleic Acids & glycoproteins also show positive result.
- Trioses and tetroses show negative result.
- Glucose, Fructose, Maltose, Lactose, Sucrose \equiv (+ve result)

(2) BENEDICT TEST

A test for reducing and non reducing sugars.

→ red ppt of Cu_2O confirms reducing sugar.

Glucose ✓ Fructose ✓ Maltose ✓ Lactose ✓

Sucrose X

All reducing sugars show positive result.

(3) BARFOED'S TEST

- Reagent \rightarrow 0.33M copper(II) Acetate + 1% acetic acid
- \rightarrow Monosaccharides reduce Cu(II) to Cu(I) forming brick red ppt. of Cu_2O .
 - \rightarrow The brick red ppt. confirms presence of monosaccharides.
 - \rightarrow Disaccharides react much slowly.
 - All monosacc. show positive results.
- Glucose \checkmark Fructose \checkmark Sucrose \times Lactose \times Maltose \times

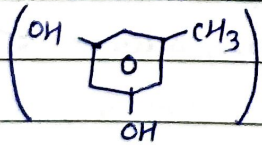
(4) SELWANOFF'S TEST

- Reagent \rightarrow Resorcinol + conc. HCl (6M).
- \rightarrow Based on dehydration: ketose gets dehydrated rapidly on heating than aldoses.
 - So, Ketose + reagent \rightarrow deep cherry red colour
 - Aldose + reagent \rightarrow faint pink colour.
 - \rightarrow Aldoses react so slowly that they show (-)ve results.
 - \rightarrow The disaccharides which produce ketoses on hydrolysis also give (+) test.
- Glucose \times Fructose \checkmark Lactose \times Maltose \times
Sucrose \checkmark (as it hydrolyses into fructose).

(5) BIAL'S TEST

used to differentiate b/w pentose and hexose.

Reagent: orcinol + FeCl_3 + HCl



Ketose/Aldose + Bial's reagent

\rightarrow Blue green product \Rightarrow Pentose
 \rightarrow Muddy brown grey product
 \downarrow Hexose.

(6) I_2/KI Test

Carbohydrate + I_2/KI \longrightarrow No reaction \Rightarrow Simple Carbohydrate
 \hookrightarrow Blue black complex \Rightarrow Starch

(7) OSAZONE FORMATION TEST

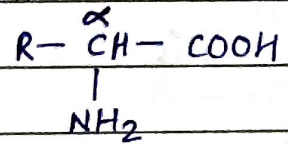
- depends on specific crystal structure of osazones.
- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>Carbohydrate</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Glucose 2) Fructose 3) Maltose 4) Lactose 5) Sucrose | <p>Shape of osazone formed</p> <p>needle shaped crystals } <u>Identical</u></p> <p>needle shaped crystals }</p> <p>Sunflower shaped crystals</p> <p>Powder puff shaped crystals</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>- NO osazone</u></p> |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

"PROTEINS"

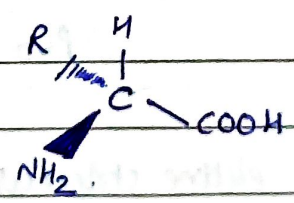
derived from greek word 'Proteios' → which means something of vital importance.

- Proteins are polymers of α-Amino Acids.
- Polymers of β, γ amino acids also exist but proteins contain α- amino acids only.

Amino Acids.



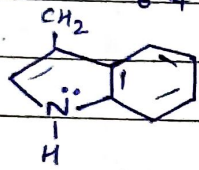
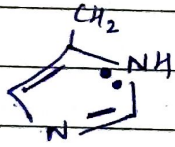
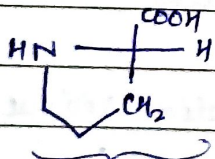
→ Natural Amino Acids are L-Amino Acids.



R' is called residue of amino acids.

	R	Name	Symbol	Code
1)	-H	Glycine	Gly	G
2)	-CH ₃	Alanine	Ala	A
* 3)	(CH ₃) ₂ CH-	Valine	Val	V
* 4)	(CH ₃) ₂ CHCH ₂ -	Leucine	Leu	L
* 20)	CH ₃ -CH ₂ -CH- CH ₃	Isoleucine	Ile	I

Neutral amino acids have pI < 7

* 5)	$H_2N-(CH_2)_4-$	Lysine	Lys	K
6)	$HOOC-(CH_2)_2-$	Glutamic Acid	Glu	E
7)	$HS-CH_2-$	Cysteine	Cys	C
* 8)	$\cdot Ph-CH_2-$	Phenyl Alanine	Phe	F
* 9)	$\begin{matrix} \text{HN}=\text{C}-\text{NH}-(\text{CH}_2)_3- \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 \end{matrix}$	Arginine	Arg	R
10)	Aspartic Acid	$COOH-CH_2-$	Asp	D
11)	$\begin{matrix} H_2N-C-CH_2-CH_2- \\ \\ O \end{matrix}$	Glutamine	Gln	Q
12)	$H_2N-\overset{O}{\parallel}C-CH_2-$	Asparagine	Asn	N
* 13)	$\text{CH}_3-\text{CHOH}-$	Threonine	Thr	T
14)	$HO-CH_2-$	Serine	Ser	S
* 15)	$CH_3-S-CH_2-CH_2-$	methionine	Met	M
16)	$(P)HO-C_6H_4-CH_2$	Tyrosine	Tyr	Y
* 17)		Tryptophan	Trp	W
* (18)		Histidine	His	H
(19)		Proline	Pro	P

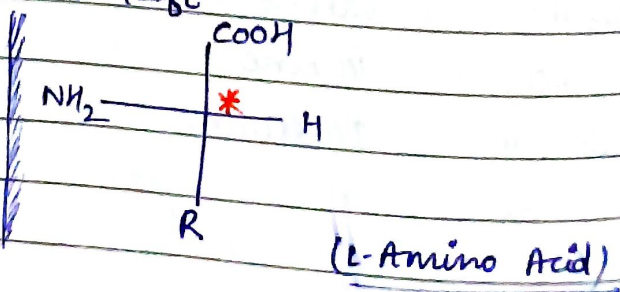
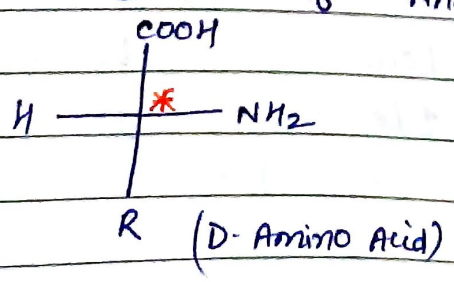
This is amino acid entire structure.

* essential Amino Acids.

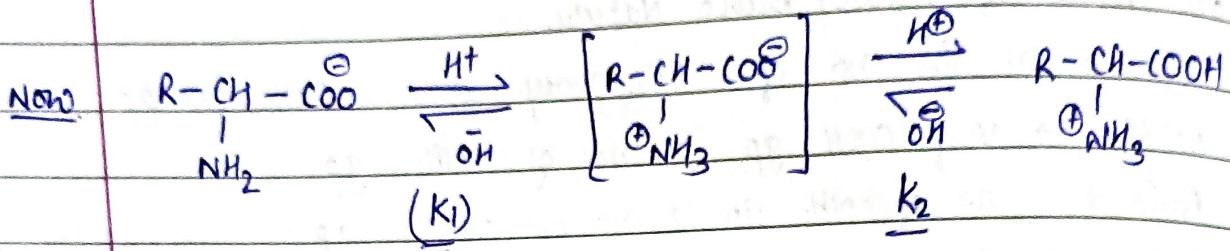
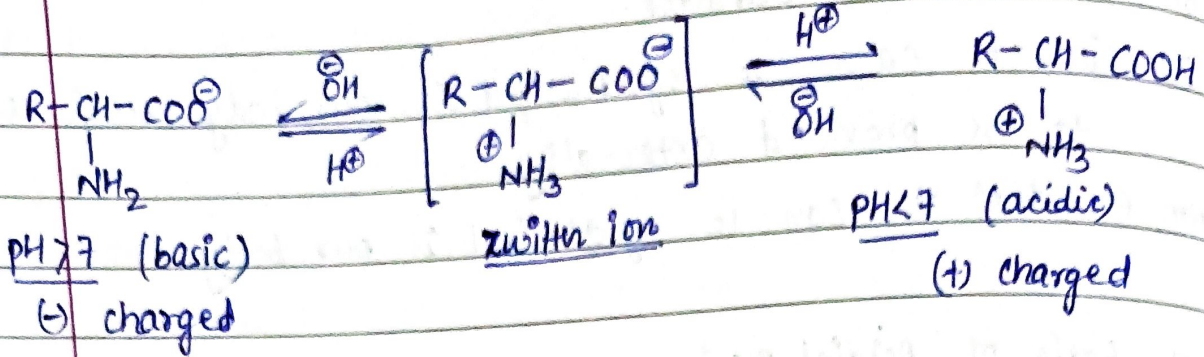
* Naming of Amino Acids

D \Rightarrow if $-NH_2$ on right

L \Rightarrow if $-NH_2$ on left.



Zwitter ion exist in 3 forms in aq. solⁿ.



The (+) species move to cathode during electrolysis.
 The (-) species move to anode in electrolysis.

* Isoelectric point: The pH at which zwitter ion is uncharged and migrates nowhere.

$$\text{pI} = \frac{\text{p}K_1 + \text{p}K_2}{2}$$

* The zwitter ion is amphiprotic in nature.

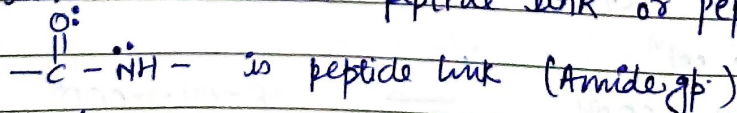
Ex: Alanine $\text{p}K_1 = 2.34$ $\text{p}K_2 = 9.64$

$$\text{pI} = \frac{2.34 + 9.64}{2} = \frac{11.98}{2} = \boxed{5.99}$$

PEPTIDES

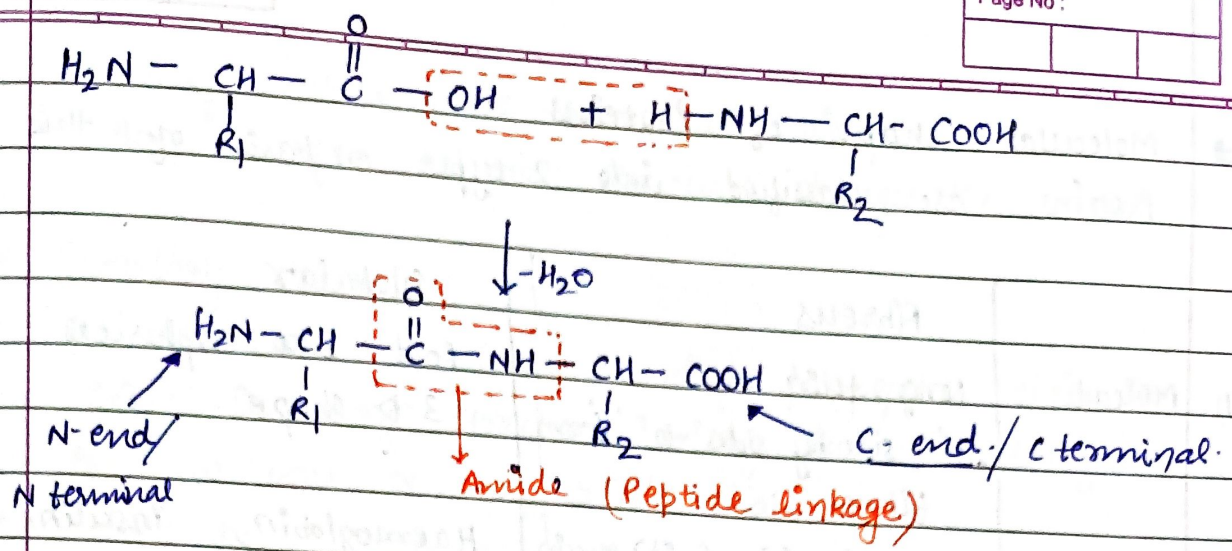
Small polymers of α -amino acids are called peptides.

These links are called peptide link or peptide bond.



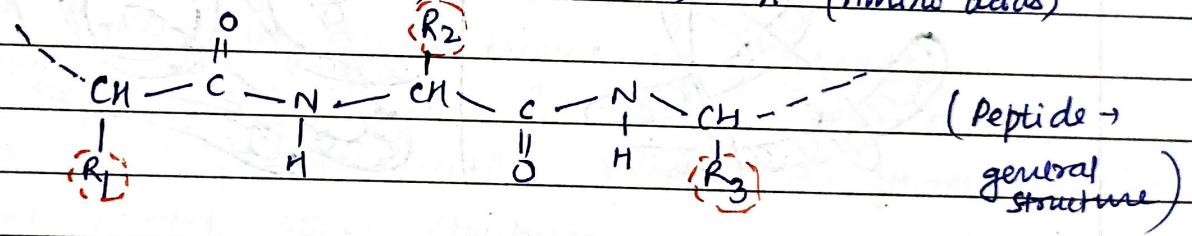
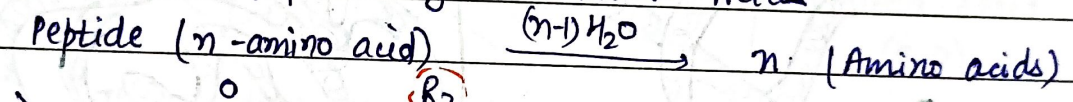
→ (Resonance)

→ all bonds about N lie in one plane.



- 2 amino acid → di peptide
- 3 amino acid → tri peptide
- 4 amino acid → tetrapeptide
- > 10 u → polypeptides
- > 100 u → proteins (have mass > 10000 u)

→ Hydrolysis of peptides gives Amino Acids.



The R's are away to reduce steric hindrance.

→ As resonance takes place along Amide bond, we get trans configurations.

→ Insulin is only protein with 51 amino acids.

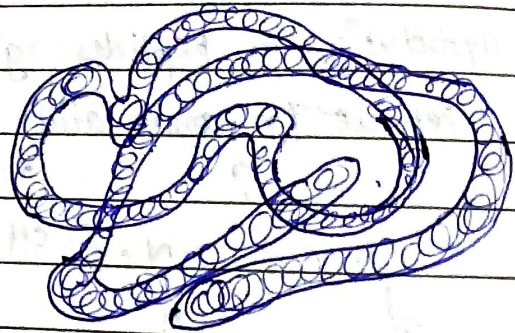
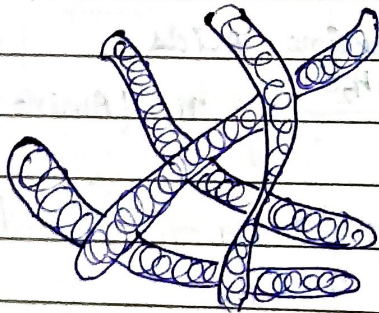
* Proteins

A polypeptide with more than 100 amino acids and molar mass (> 1000 u) are called proteins.

M. mass > 10000 amu (Dalton).

Molecular shape of Proteins
 Proteins are classified into 2 types on basis of this.

	Fibrous	Globular
1) Molecules	long, thin. Lie side by side to form fibres	fold into spherical 3-D shape
2) Examples	Keratin (in hair), Myosin Collagen (skin & bone)	Haemoglobin, Insulin, Enzymes; Albumin
3) Solubility	Insoluble in H_2O	Soluble in water
4) Roles	Structural: - Collagen in bone & cartilage - Keratin in finger nails & hairs	Metabolic: - Enzymes in all organisms - Plasma proteins, antibodies in mammals

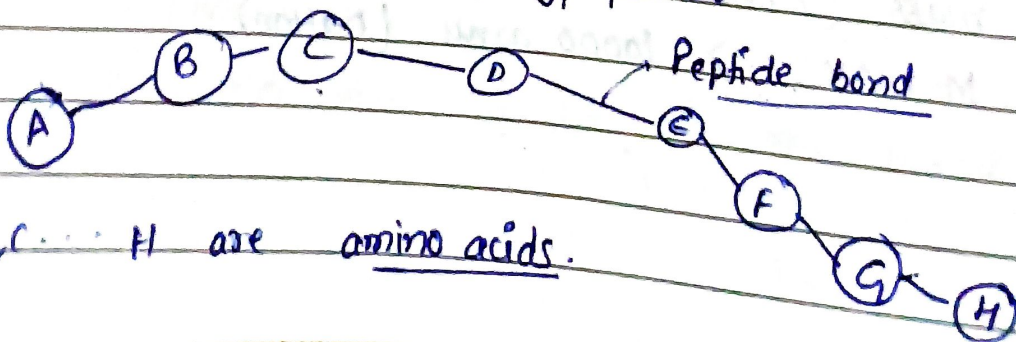


The structure and shape of protein can be studied at 4 diff. levels: Primary, Secondary, Tertiary, Quaternary.

Each subsequent level is more complex than previous one.

Primary structure of proteins →

It describes the sequence of amino acids connected together to form polypeptide.



A, B, C... H are amino acids.

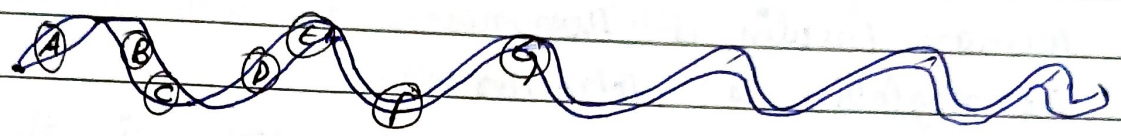
It may contain more than one chains
 Any change in prim. structure changes the protein.

* Secondary structures

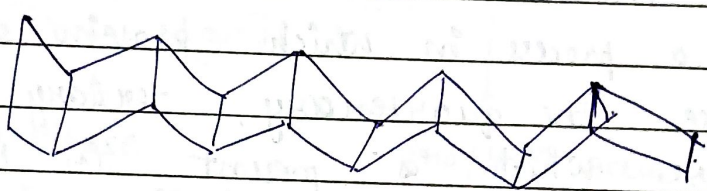
It describes the shape in which polypeptide chain can exist. Secondary structure arises due to folding of the backbone of polypeptide chain.

→ Two types can exist -

α -Helix , β -Pleated sheets



3 Dimensional α -Helix



β pleated sheet (2-D)

The folding occurs because of H bonding.

→ A single polypeptide can have both secondary structures.

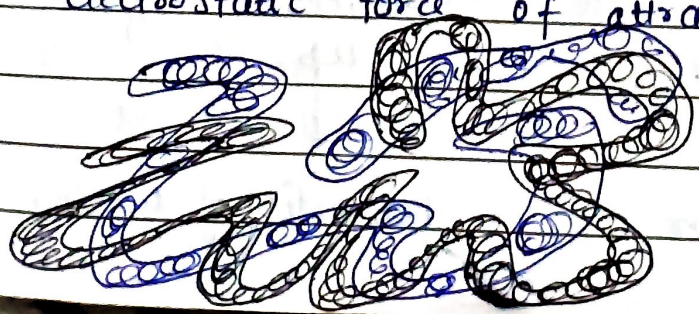
→ In α -Helix, all possible H-bonds are formed to give right handed screw structures.

→ In β pleated structure, the peptide chains are stretched out to max. extension and then joined by intramolecular H bonds.

* Tertiary structures

→ describe overall folding of polypeptide chain, further folding of secondary structure.

This is due to disulphide linkages, Van der Waals and electrostatic force of attraction.



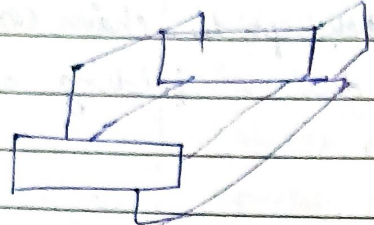
Two secondary structures are folded.



* Quaternary Structures

on joining multiple tertiary structure, we get Quaternary ~~tertia~~ structure.

→ It is like conformation of tertiary structure.



Quaternary structure describes different tertiary structures in particular spatial arrangement.

human insulin is Hexamer.

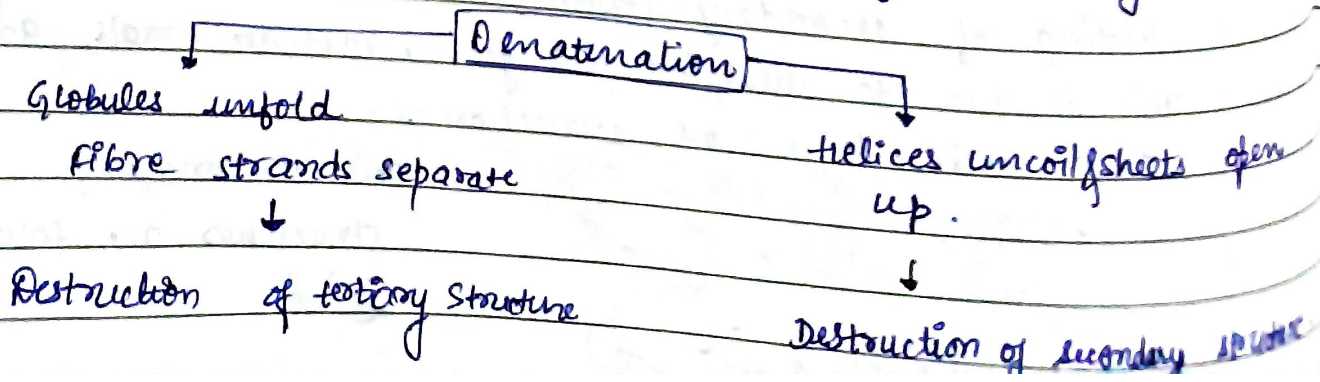
Haemoglobin is tetramer.

* Denaturation of Proteins

Denaturation is a process in which proteins or nucleic acids lose the quaternary, tertiary & secondary structure which is present in their native state.

It is due to external stress or compound such as a strong acid or base, a concentrated inorganic salt, an organic solvent (eg. C_2H_5OH , $CHCl_3$), radiation or heat. If proteins in a living cell are denatured, this results in disruption of cell activity and possibly cell death.

Native protein → protein found in a biological system with unique 3-D structure & biological activity.



→ Primary structure remain intact in denaturation.

* Reasons of denaturation

→ Physical change (change in temperature)

→ Chemical change (change in pH)

NUCLEIC ACIDS:

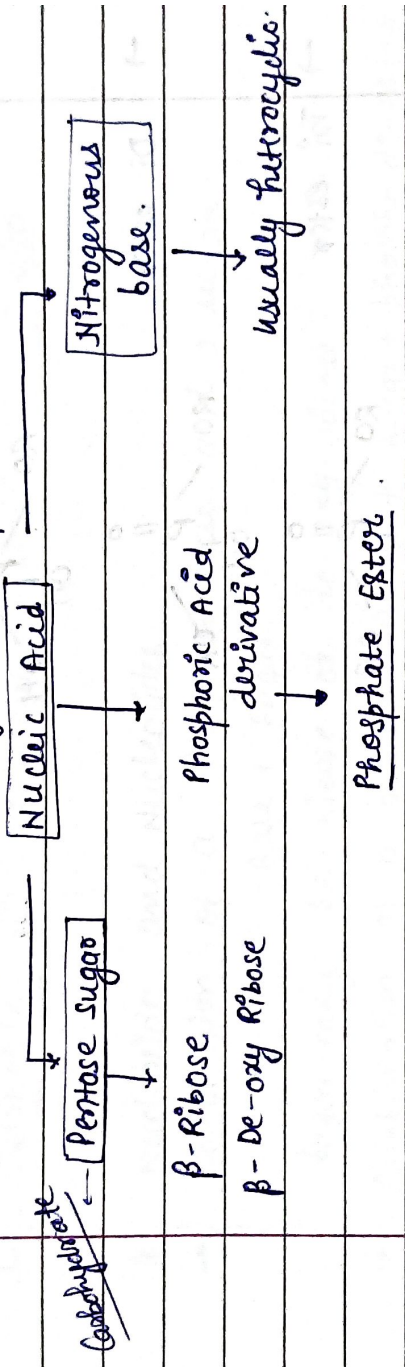
Cell → nucleus → chromosome → Nucleic acids.

They are responsible for Heredity

→ Nucleic acids are poly-nucleotides

Nucleic Acid

it is formed by these particular substances.

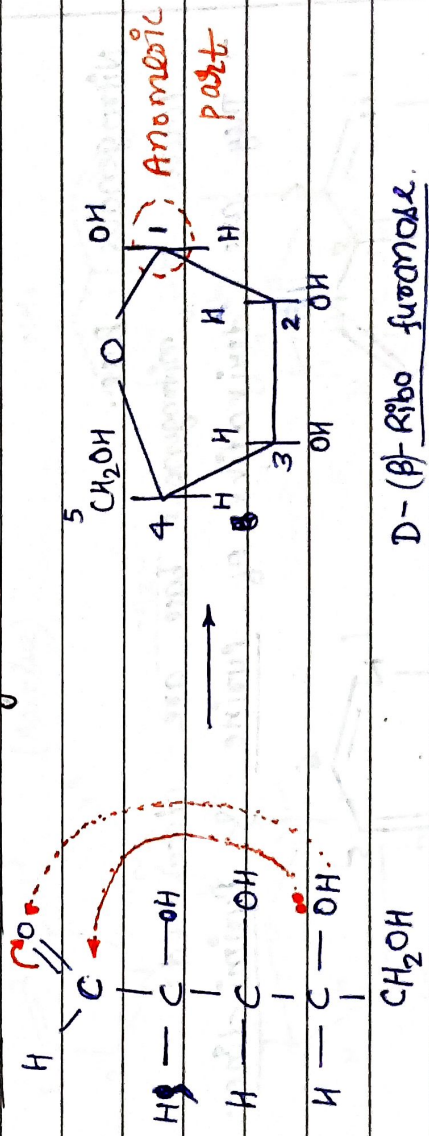


β-Ribose

β-De-oxy Ribose

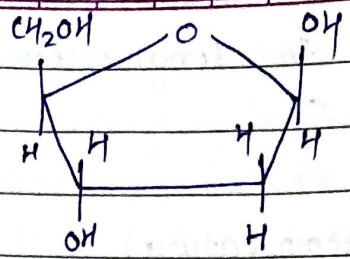
usually heterocyclic.

* Ribose and De-oxy Ribose.



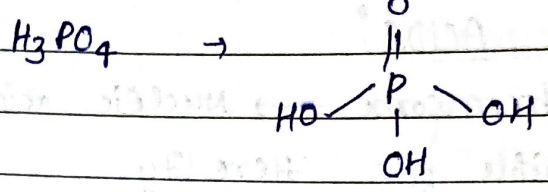
In nucleic acids, only β-form is present.

→ For de-oxy ribose, just replace -OH at C2 by H.



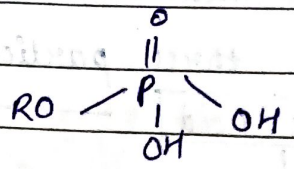
β-D-Deoxy ribose.

* Phosphoric Acid Derivatives

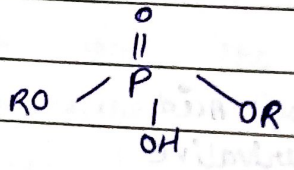


Replace H by R (carbon chain) to form phospho esters -

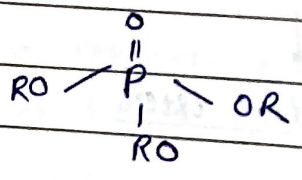
→ Mono ester



→ Di ester



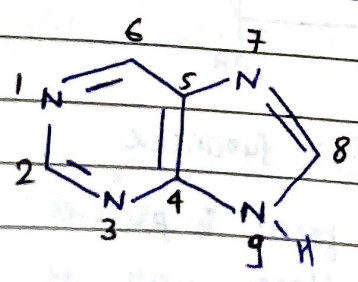
→ Tri ester



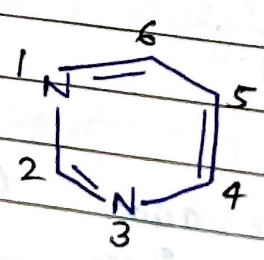
Nucleic Acids contain only mono-ester.

* Nitrogenous Base.

Total 5 nitrogenous base are discovered.
 → They are derivative of Purine & Pyrimidine.



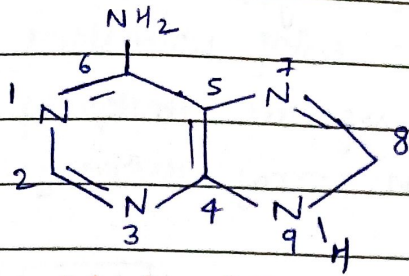
Purine



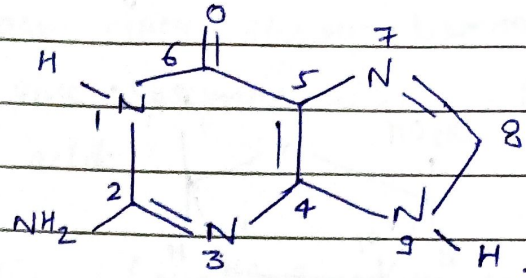
Pyrimidine

The 5 derivatives of Purine and Pyrimidine are →

Purine

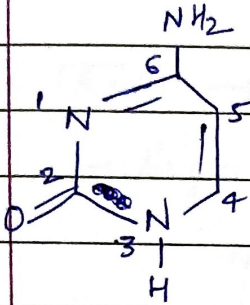


Adenine (A)

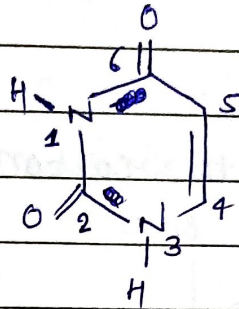


Guanine (G)

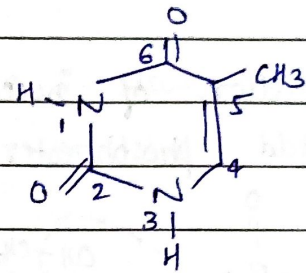
Pyrimidine



Cytosine (C)



Uracil (U)



Thymine (T)

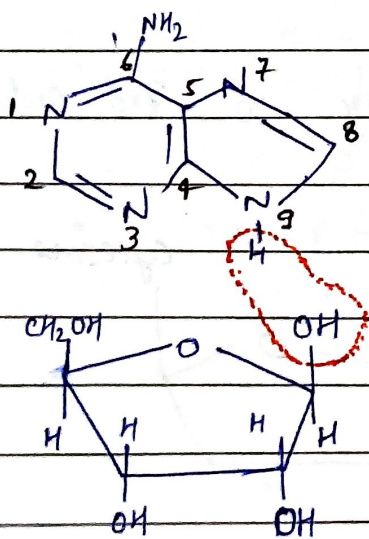
* Nucleosides and Nucleotides.

→ Combination of a nitrogenous base and a sugar.
Base + Sugar

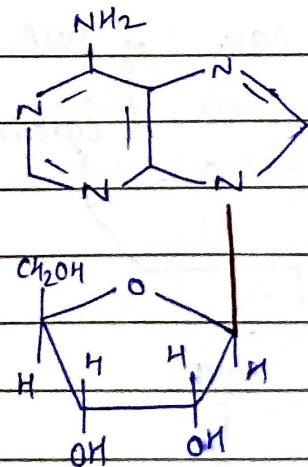
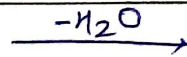
Sugar may be ribose or de-oxy ribose

→ Combination of a nitrogenous base + sugar + phospho di-ester
Base + Sugar + Phosphate

ex.



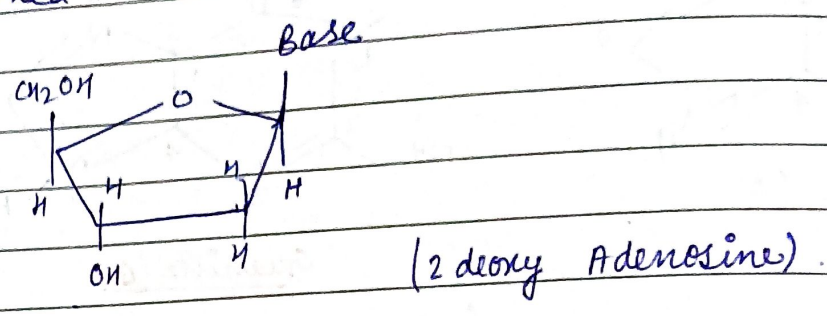
(β -D-Ribose)



(Adenosine)

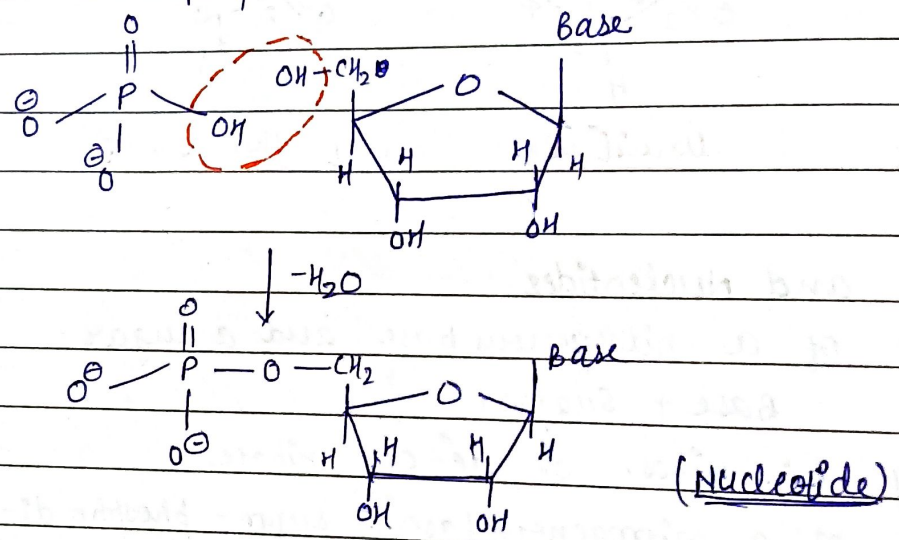
(Nucleoside)

If we use deoxyribose \rightarrow 2-deoxy-Adenosine is formed.



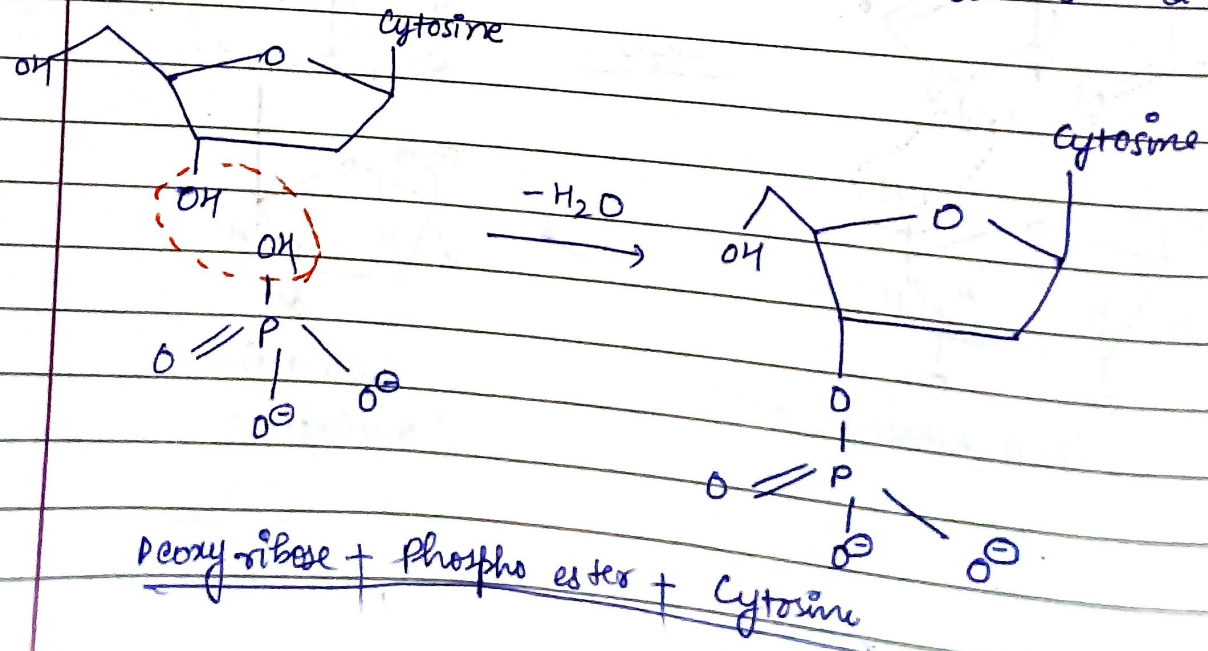
formation of nucleotide

Add phosphate to 5th carbon.



Adenosine 5'-monophosphate : a ribonucleotide.

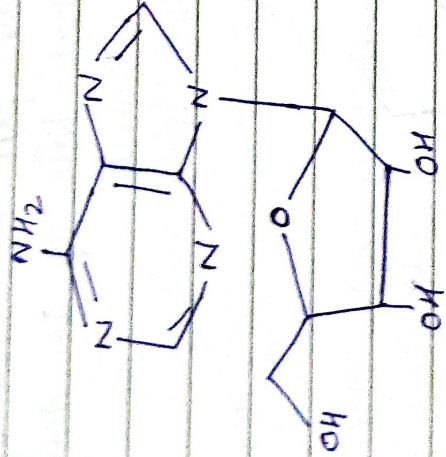
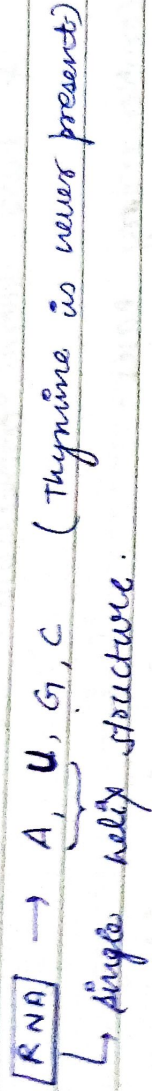
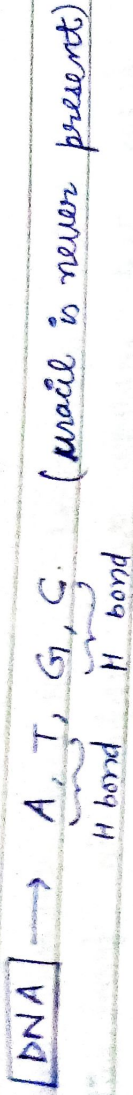
\rightarrow In case of DNA add phospho-ester to 3rd carbon.



*** DNA and RNA**

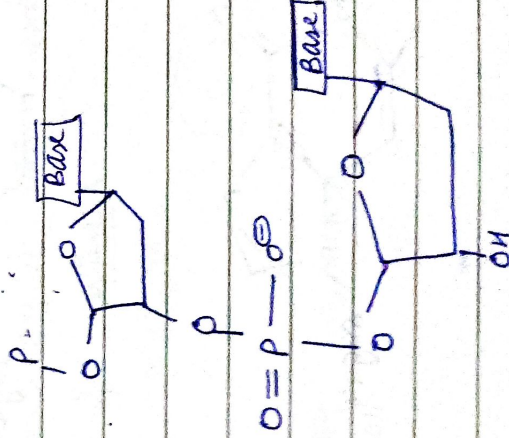
Nucleotides joins with each other through 3' and 5' phosphate linkages to give polynucleotides which further forms nucleic acids.

double helix structure



The link b/w sugar and base is forming a kind of an acetal, which has one N atom and one O atom instead of 2 O atoms.

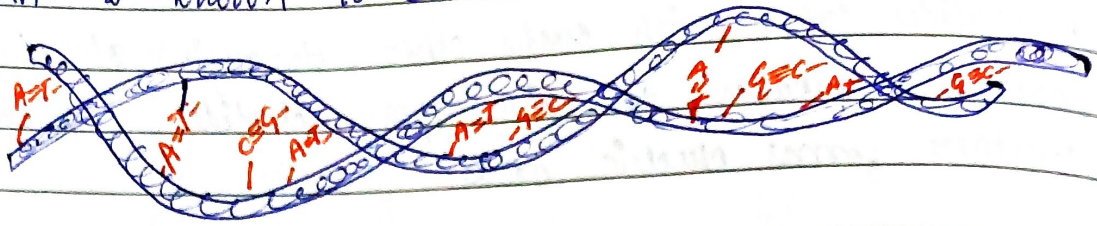
Structure of DNA



chain extends continuously.

Phospho group starts at 3 and ends at 5. This is an alternating structure of an di-ester.

DNA is known to be double helical structure.



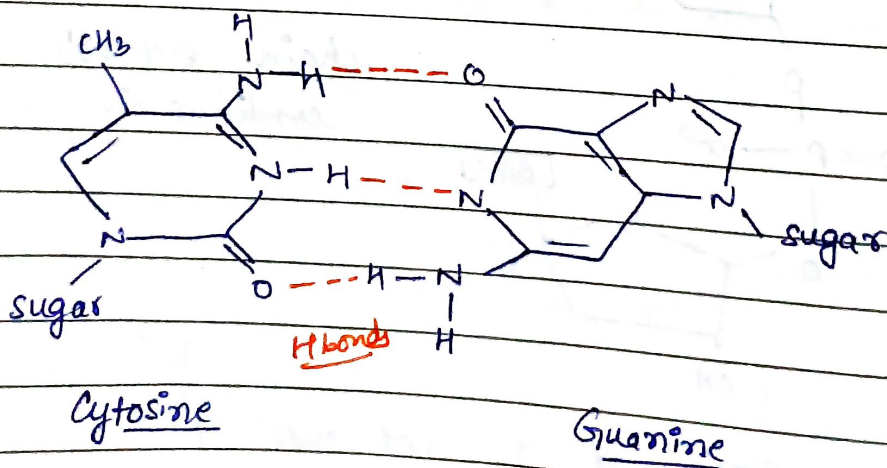
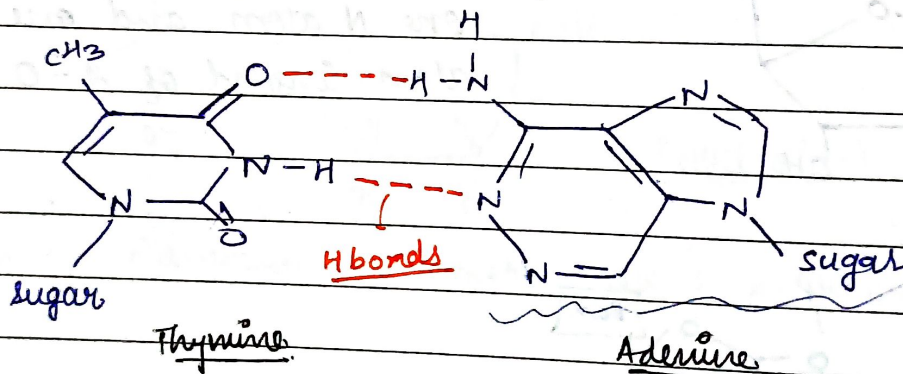
Two helices are bonded by H bond between base. Sugar and phospho groups appear to form rails & bases form connections.

* Complementary bases -

In DNA, bases don't randomly pair with each other but there are fixed pairs that pair up in double strands.

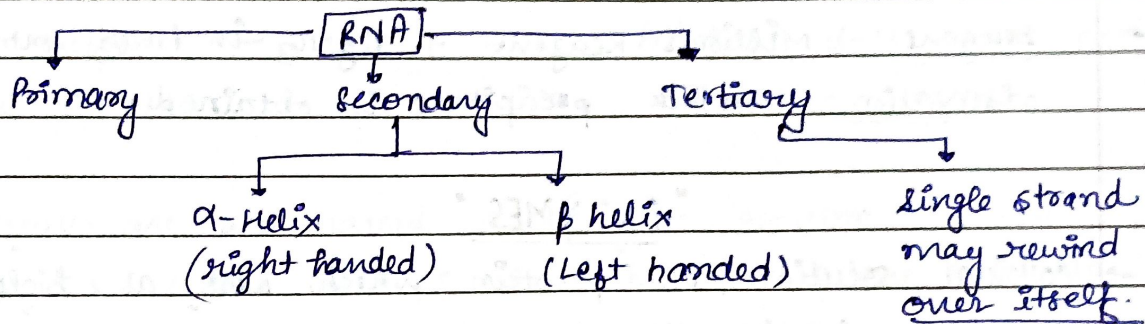
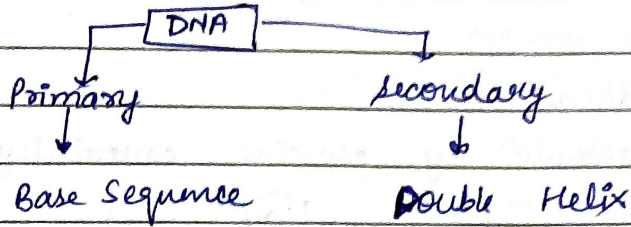
Adenine \leftrightarrow Thymine

Guanine \leftrightarrow Cytosine.



* Hydrolysis of Nucleic acids

Hydrolysis of nucleic acid gives sugar, base, Phosphoric Acid.

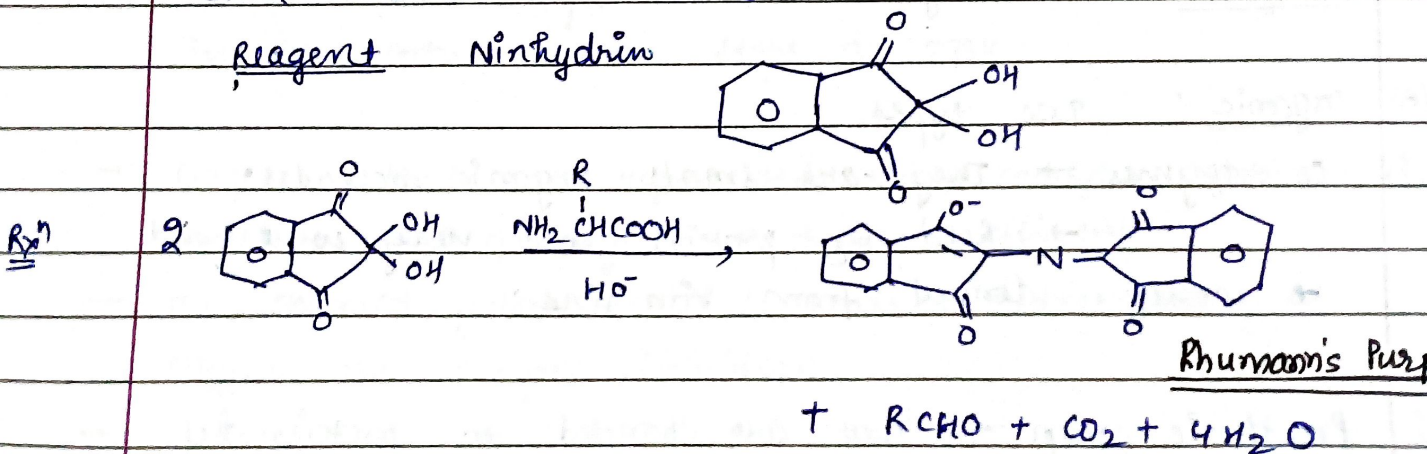


TESTS FOR PROTEINS.

1. NINHYDRIN TEST

Protein treated with a pyridine solution of ninhydrin give colour ranging from deep blue to violet pink or even red in some cases.

Reagent Ninhydrin



→ α-Amino acids → purple-blue

Proline (secondary amine) → yellow

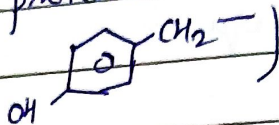
2. BIURET TEST (PIOTROWSKI'S TEST)

Reagent: $Aq. CuSO_4$ + alkaline medium

Observation: deep blue colour (violet bluish)
It confirms presence of peptide bond.

3. MILLION'S REACTION

This test is shown by proteins containing phenol group.

eg Tyrosine ($R =$ )

Reagent: Million's Reagent $\rightarrow HgNO_3$ in HNO_3 containing HNO_2

Observation: white precipitate is obtained.

"ENZYMES"

\rightarrow Colloidal solution of protein which work as biological catalyst is known as enzyme.

\rightarrow Enzymes are globular proteins.

\rightarrow The non protein component present in enzymes is called the cofactor of their activity.

Co-factors are of two types -

(A) Inorganic: Zn^{+2} , Mg^{+2} , K^+ , Mo^{+4} , Cu^{+1} , Fe^{+2} , etc.

(B) Organic: Two types

(i) Co enzymes \rightarrow They are small organic molecules.

\rightarrow held by protein with very weak bond.

\rightarrow mostly derived from vitamins.

(ii) Prosthetic groups \rightarrow They are bonded to protein by covalent bond.

★ All enzymes are conjugated proteins.

→ Naming of enzyme & function are inter related.

Name of Enzyme

function.

1. Zymase
glucose & fructose → C_2H_5OH
2. Invertase
Sucrose → Invert sugar
3. Maltase
Maltose → Glucose
4. Lactase ✓
Lactose → Glucose + Galactose
5. Emulsin
Cellulose → Glucose
6. Urease
Urea → $CO_2 + NH_3$
7. Pepsin
Proteins → α -amino acids
8. Trypsin
Proteins → α -(L) amino acids
9. α -Amylase
Starch → Glucose.

→ Enzymes are also named according to function as the enzymes which catalyse the oxidation of one substrate and simultaneous reduction of other substrate is called oxido reductase enzyme.

* Mechanism of Enzyme Action & Temperature Dependence.

They are biological catalysts and reduce activation energy.

→ They work best at optimum temperature of 298 to 313K. Their activity decreases with increase or decrease in temperature and stops at 273K.

→ Enzyme molecules are regenerated during catalytic activity. so, small amount of enzymes are highly efficient.

→ The chemical substance which tends to reduce activity of enzyme are enzyme inhibitors.

→ streptokinase used to dissolve blood clot.

→ deficiency of tyrosinase causes albinism.

→ deficiency of phenylalanine hydroxylase causes disease phenylketonuria.