APPAIDIDES

Answers to Self-assessment Exercises	<i>7</i> 45
Abbreviations used in this Book	751
Greek Alphabets (Commonly used as symbols)	756
Origins of Important Biochemical Words	757
Common Confusables in Biochemistry	760
V Practical Biochemistry—Principles	764
VI Clinical Biochemistry Laboratory	770
€ 3	
To	

Answers to Self-assessment Exercises

CHAPTER 2

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Sucrose,
- 2. Glyceraldehyde,
- 3. Epimers,
- 4. Anomers,
- 5. Aglycone,
- 6. Streptomycin,
- 7. α-1,6-Glycosidic bond,
- 8. Inulin,
- 9. Hyaluronic acid,
- 10. N-Acetylneuraminic acid,
- 11. b.
- 12. d,
- 13. a,
- 14. d,
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 3

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Triacylglycerolds,
- 2. Geometric isomerism (cis-trans isomerism),
- 3. Chaulmoogric acid,
- 4. Triacylglycerols,
- 5. Stereospecific number,
- 6. Saponification number,
- 7. Dipalmitoyl lecithin,

- 8. Phosphatidylinositol,
- 9. Gangliosides,
- 10. Cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene,
- 11. a,
- 12. d,
- 13. d,
- 14. c,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 4

- 1. 16%,
- 2. L-α-Amino acids,
- 3. Methionine,
- 4. Zwitterion,
- 5. β-Alanine,
 - 6. Peptide bonds,
- 7. Tryptophan,
- 8. 9,
- 9. 1-Fluro 2,4-dinitrobenzene (FDNB),
- 10. Denaturation,
- 11. b,
- 12. d,
- 13. b,
- 14. d,
- 15. a.

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Gene.
- 2. RNA,
- 3. Nucleotides,
- 4. Thymine,
- 5. 2,
- 6. Base + sugar + phosphate,
- 7. Erwin Chargaff,
- 8. 3 Hydrogen bonds (in place of 2 in A-T),
- 9. B-Form,
- 10. CCA(5' to 3'),
- 11. d,
- 12. b,
- 13. c,
- 14. d,
- 15. d.

CHAPTER 6

Answers to III and IV

- 1. In yeast,
- 2. Ligases,
- 3. Coenzyme,
- 4. Denaturation,
- 5. Alcohol dehydrogenase, carbonic anhydrase,
- 6. Active site,
- 7. NADP+,
- 8. E.C. 1.1.1.1,
- 9. AMP/ADP,
- 10. Creatine phosphokinase (CPK),
- 11. c,
- 12. d,
- 13. b,
- 14. d,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 7

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Acetylation,
- 2. Riboflavin,
- 3. Vitamin E (tocopherol),
- 4. Pyridoxine (B₆),
- 5. Avidin,
- 6. Pantothenic acid,
- 7. Cobalamin (B₁₂),
- 8. Dermatitis, diarrhea and dementia,
- 9. Vitamin K,
- 10. Folic acid,
- 11. b,
- 12. d,
- 13. a,
- 14. d,
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 8

- 1. β-Glycosidic bonds,
- 2. Raffinose,
- 3. Lactase (β-galactosidase),
- 4. Fiber,
- 5. Parietal (oxyntic) cells,
- 6. Glutathione,
- 7. Hartnup's disease,
- 8. Arginine, lysine,
- 9. Colipase
- 10. Mixed micelles,
- 11. a,
- 12. d.
- 13. c,
- 14. b.
- 15. a.

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Fibrinogen,
- 2. Electrophoresis,
- 3. Hemoglobin,
- 4. B-Lymphocytes,
- 5. lgG,
- 6. IgE,
- 7. 40-50°C.
- 8. C-reactive protein,
- 9. Staurt factor (Xa),
- 10. Plasmin,
- 11. c,
- 12. d,
- 13. a.
- 14. b,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 10

Answers to Ili and IV

- 1. 574,
- 2. Methemoglobin,
- 3. Carbonic anhydrase,
- 4. 2,3-Bisphosphoglycerate,
- 5. Deoxyhemoglobin,
- 6. Thalassemias,
- 7. Succinyl CoA,
- 8. Uroporphyrinogen synthase I,
- 9. δ -Aminolevulinate synthase,
- 10. Biliverdin,
- 11. a,
- 12. a.
- 13. b.
- 14. d,
- 15. c.

CHAPTER 11

Answers to ill and IV

- 1. $\Delta G = \Delta H T\Delta S$ (T = Absolute temperature),
- 2. Exergonic or spontaneous,
- 3. Phosphoanhydride bonds,
- 4. Phosphoarginine,
- 5. Electrons,
- 6. Inner mitochondrial membrane.
- 7. Heme (porphyrin with iron),
- 8. Cytochrome oxidase (cyt $a + a_3$),
- 9. Cytochrome a + a₃,
- 10. Superoxide dismutase,
- 11. d,
- 12. a,
- 13. b,
- 14. d.
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 13

- 1. Thiamine, riboflavin, lipoic acid, niacin, pantothenic acid,
 - 2. Absence of glucose 6-phosphatase,
 - 3. L-Gulonolactone oxidase.
 - 4. Sorbitol,
 - 5. Galactose 1-phosphate uridyltransferase.
 - 6. Leucine and lysine.
 - 7. Succinate thiokinase.
 - 8. Uronic acid pathway,
 - 9. Glycogenin,
 - 10. Oxaloacetate,
 - 11. d,
 - 12. c,
 - 13. b,
 - 14. a,
- 15. b.

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Triacylglycerols,
- 2. HMG CoA reductase,
- 3. Ampipathic,
- 4. Sphingomyelinase,
- 5. HDL,
- 6. 129 ATP,
- 7. Zellweger syndrome,
- 8. Citrate.
- 9. HDL,
- 10. Unsaturated fatty acid,
- 11. d.
- 12. a.
- 13. d,
- 14. c,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 15

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Pyridoxal phosphate,
- 2. Glutamate dehydrogenase,
- 3. Carbamoyl phosphate synthase I,
- 4. Glycine transaminase,
- 5. Tetrahydrobiopterin,
- 6. Dopamine,
- 7. Homogentisate,
- 8. Malignant carcinoid syndrome,
- 9. Ornithine decarboxylase,
- 10. Leucine,
- 11. b.
- 12. d,
- 13. a,
- 14. c,
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 17

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Glutamine and aspartate,
- 2. Allopurinol,

- 3. Sodium urate,
- 4. Xanthine oxidase,
- 5. Lesch-Nyhan syndrome,
- 6. Thioredoxin,
- 7. Inosine monophosphate,
- 8. Alloxanthine,
- 9. Aspartate,
- 10. Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase II,
- 11. d,
- 12. a,
- 13. c,
- 14. b,
- 15. d.

CHAPTER 18

Answers to III and IV

- 1. 9-11 mg/dl. (4.5-5.5 mEq./l.),
- 2. Calcitriol.
- 3. Phosphorus,
- 4. Magnesium,
- 5. Sodium,
- 6. 3.5-5.0 mEq/l,
- 7. Transferrin,
- 8. Ceruloplasmin,
- 9. Gusten,
- 10. Selenium,
- 11. d,
- 12. a.
- 13. b,
- 14. c,
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 19

Answers to ill and IV

- 1. Adenylate cyclase,
- 2. Ca2+,
- 3. Anterior pituitary,
- 4. Endorphins and enkephalins,
- 5. Thyroperoxidase,
- 6. Aldosterone.
- 7. Vanillyl mandelic acid (VMA),

- 8. Dihydrotestosterone (DHT),
- 9. Cholesterol,
- 10. Cholecystokinin (CCK),
- 11. a,
- 12. d,
- 13. b,
- 14. c,
- 15. a.

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Heme,
- 2. van den Bergh reaction,
- 3. Alanine transaminase,
- 4. Alkaline phosphatase,
- 5. Bromosulphthalein (BSP),
- 6. 180 mg/dl,
- 7. Inulin,
- 8. 2ml/min,
- 9. Ryle's tube,
- 10. Pentagastrin,
- 11. a.
- 12. d,
- 13. c.
- 14. b.
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 21

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Antidiuretic hormone (ADH),
- 2. Na+,
- 3. 285-295 milliosmoles /kg,
- 4. Aldosterone.
- 5. Carbonic acid (H2CO2),
- 6. Bicarbonate buffer,
- 7. 20:1.
- 8. Ammonium ion (NH⁺),
- 9. Bicarbonate (HCO₃),
- 10. Carbonic acid (H2CO3) or CO2,
- 11. d,

- 12. a,
- 13. c,
- 14. b.
- 15. d.

CHAPTER 22

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Collagen,
- 2. Glycine,
- 3. β-oxalyl aminoalamine,
- 4. Fibrillin,
- 5. Glycosaminoglycans,
- 6. Sarcomere,
- 7. Actin,
- 8. Calcium caseinate,
- 9. Lecithin/Sphingomyelin,
- 10. Vitamin C.
- 11. c,
- 12. d.
- 13. a,
- 14. c,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 23

- 1. 4.128,
- 2. Thyroid gland,
- 3. Fiber,
- 4. Carbohydrates,
- 5. Chemical score,
- 6. 1g/kg body weight/day,
- 7. Biological value (BV) of protein,
- 8. Sulfur containing amino acids,
- 9. Iron,
- 10. Plasma albumin,
- 11. a,
- 12. d.
- 13. c,
- 14. d,
- 15. a.

Answers to III and IV

- 1. DNA helicase,
- 2. Okazaki pieces,
- 3. DNA polymerase III,
- 4. DNA topoisomerases,
- 5. Cyclins,
- 6. Telomere,
- 7. Transposons or transposable elements,
- 8. Mutation,
- 9. Missense,
- 10. Hereditary nonpolyposis colon cancer,
- 11. c.
- 12. a,
- 13. b,
- 14. a,
- 15. b.

CHAPTER 25

Answers to III and IV

- 1. Genome,
- 2. hnRNA.
- 3. Introns,
- 4. Reverse transcriptase,
- 5. Wobble hypothesis,
- 6. Ribosomes.
- 7. rRNA.
- 8. Chaperones,
- 9. Prion diseases,
- 10. Protein targeting,
- 11. d,
- 12. c,

- 13. a,
- 14. b.
- 15. a.

CHAPTER 26

Answers to III and IV

- 1. 30,000-40,000,
- 2. Constitutive genes,
- 3. One cistron-one subunit concept,
- 4. Protein-DNA complex,
- 5. a,
- 6. b,
- 7. a,
- 8. d.

CHAPTER 27

- 1. Escherichia coli,
- 2. RNA,
- 3. Dot-blotting,
- 4. Thermus aquaticus,
- 5. Genomic library/DNA library,
- 6. Site-directed mutagenesis,
- 7. Humulin,
- 8. Hepatitis B vaccine,
- 9. Mouse,
- 10. Sheep (Dolly),
- 11. c,
- 12. d,
- 13. d,
- 14. a,
- 15. c.

Appendix I: Abbreviations used in this Book

BP	blood pressure	COHb	carboxyhemoglobin
bp	base pair	CoA or CoASH	coenzyme A
BOAA	β-oxalylaminoalanine	CNS	central nervous system
BMR	basal metabolic rate	CMP	cytidine monophosphate
BHT	butylated hydroxy toluene		peptide
ВНА	butylated hydroxyanisole	CLIP	corticotropin like intermediate lobe
BAO	basal acid output	C_{l}	constant light chain
BAL	British antilewisite	Chl	chlorophyll
ATP	adenosine triphosphate	ChE	cholinesterase
ATCase	aspartate transcarbamoylase	CHD	coronary heart disease
AT	α_{7} -antitrypsin	$C_{\mathcal{H}}$	constant heavy chain
AST	aspartate transaminase	COIVII	phate
AP sites	apurinic sites	cGMP	3',5'-cyclic guanosine monophos
Apo-A	apoprotein-A	CFTR	cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator
APC	antigen presenting cell	CF	cystic fibrosis
AMP	adenosine monophosphate	CEA	carcinoembryonic antigen
ALT	alanine transaminase	CDP	cytidine diphosphate
ALP	alkaline phosphatase	CD ₄	cluster determinant antigen 4
ALA	δ-aminolevulinic acid		complementary DNA
AIDS	acquired immunodeficiency syndrom	CCK	cholecystokinin
A/G	albumin/globulin (ratio)	CBG	corticosteroid binding globulin
Ag	antigen	CAP	catabolite activator protein
ALL	amplified fragment length polymorphism	CAR	monophosphate (cyclic AMP)
AFLP	α-fetoprotein	cAMP	3',5'-cyclic adenosine
ADP AFP	adenosine diphosphate	Cam	calmodulin
ADH	antidiuretic hormone	Cal	calorie
ADH	alcohol dehydrogenase	CA	carbonic anhydrase
ADA	adenosine deaminase	С	cytosine, cytidine
Acyl (,		biological value
ACTI		BUN	blood urea nitrogen
ACP	acyl carrier protein	BSP	bromosulphthalein
Ab	antibody		1,3-BPG)
A	adenine, adenosine	BPG	bisphosphoglycerate (2,3-BPG,

COMT	catechol-o-methyltransferase	ELISA	enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
CoQ	coenzyme Q (ubiquinone)	EM	Embden-Meyerhof
CPK (CK)	creatine phosphokinase (creatine	ER	endoplasmic reticulum
	kinase)	ES	enzyme-substrate complex
CPPP	cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene	ES cells	embryonic stem cells
CPS	carbamoyl phosphate synthase	E-site	exist site
CRH	corticotropin releasing hormone	ETC	electron transport chain
CS	chorionic somatomammotropin	FA	fatty acid
CSF	cerebrospinal fluid	Fab	antigen binding fragment
CT	calcitonin	FAD	flavin adenine dinucleotide
CTP	cytidine triphosphate	FADH ₂	reduced FAD
dA	deoxyadenosine	FAS	fatty acid synthase
dADP	deoxyadenosine diphosphate	F 1, 6-BP	fructose 1, 6-bisphosphate
DG	diacylglycerol	F 2, 6-BP	fructose 2, 6-bisphosphate
DAM	diacetyl monoxime	Fc	crystalline fragment
dAMP	deoxyadenosine monophosphate	FDNB	1-fluoro 2, 4-dinitrobenzene
dATP	deoxyadenosine triphosphate	FFA	free fatty acid
dCMP	deoxycytidine monophosphate	FGF	fibroblast growth factor
DCT	distal convoluted tubule	FH ₄	tetrahydrofolate
DEAE.	diethyl aminoethylamine	FIGLU	formiminoglutamic acid
DFP or DIFP	diidopropyl fluorophosphate	fMet	N-formylmethionine
dGMP	deoxyguanosine monophosphate	FMN	flavin mononucleotide
DHAP	dihydroxyacetone phosphate	FMNH ₂	reduced FMN
DHCC	dihydroxycholecalciferol (1, 25-	F 1-P	fructose 1-phosphate
	DHCC; 24, 25-DHCC)	F 6-P	fructose 6-phosphate
DHEA	dehydroepiandrosterone	Fp	flavoprotein
DHF	dihydrofolate	FSH	follicle stimulating hormone
DHT	dihydrotestosterone	FTM	fractional test meal
DIT	diiodotyrosine	G	guanine, guanosine
dl	deciliter	g	gram
DMB	dimethyl benzimidazole	ΔG	free energy change
DMS	dimethyl sulfate	GABA	γ-aminobutyric acid
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid	GAG	glycosaminoglycans
DNase	deoxyribonuclease	Gal-Cer	galactocerebroside
DNP	2, 4-dinitrophenol	GAR	glycinamide ribotide
DOPA	dihydroxy phenylalanine	GDH	glutamate dehydrogenase
DPG	diphosphoglycerate	GDP	guanosine diphosphate
DPP	dimethyl allyl pyrophosphate	GFR	glomerular filtration rate
dTMP	deoxythymidine monophosphate	GGT (GT)	v alutamyl transportidase
Eo	redox potential	GH (GI)	groudh hamman
EC	enzyme commission	GHRH	growth hormone releasing hormone
ECF	extracellular fluid	GIP	and the first of the second of
EDRF	endothelium-derived releasing factor	GIT	
EDTA	ethylene diamine tetraacetate	Gla	
EF	elongation factor	GLC	the second second
EFA	essential fatty acids	Glu-Cer	gas liquid chromatography glucocerebroside
elFs	eukaryotic initiation factors	Glu-Cei Gly	glycine
EGF	epidermal growth factor	GLUT	glucose transporters
	opidelinai growni idetti	GLUI	gracose transporters

GN	glucose-nitrogen (ratio)	Ig	immunoglobulin
GMP	guanosine monophosphate	lgG	immunoglobulin G
GnRH	gonadotropin releasing hormone	IGF	insulin-like growth factor
GRH	growth hormone releasing hormone	IL.	interleukins
GRIH	growth hormone release-inhibiting	IMP	inosine monophosphate
Oldin i	hormone	INH	isonicotinic acid hydrazide
G 6-P	glucose 6-phosphate	11 41 1	(isoniazid)
G 6-PD	glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase	InsP ₂ (IP ₂)	inositol 1, 4-bisphosphate
GPP	geranyl pyrophosphate	InsP ₃ (IP ₃)	inositol 1, 4, 5-triphosphate
GSH	glutathione (reduced form)	IPP	isopentenyl pyrophosphate
GSSG	glutathione (oxidized form)	IR	infrared
GTP	guanosine triphosphate	ITP	inosine triphosphate
GTT	glucose tolerance test	IU	international unit
ΔΗ	change in enthalpy	IV	intravenous
HAC	human artificial chromosome	K	dissociation constant
Hb	hemoglobin	KA	King Armstrong
HbA,	1.64	K _a	dissociation constant of acid
HbA _{1C}	1 1 11 111	Kbp	kilo base pair
HbF		KDP	kilodalton
	fetal hemoglobin	Keq	equilibrium constant
HbO ₂	oxyhemoglobin	α-KG	α-ketoglutarate
HBsAg	hepatitis B surface antigen	Ki	inhibition constant
HbS	sickle-cell hemoglobin		Michaelis constant
hCG	human chorionic gonadotropin	K _m KJ	kilojoule
HDL	high density lipoproteins	LATS	long acting thyroid stimulator
HGPRT	hypoxanthine guanine	LCAT	
1.04.4	phosphoribosyltransferase	LDH	lecithin cholesterol acyltransferase
HIAA	hydroxy indole acetic acid	LDL	lactate dehydrogenase
HIF	Hypoxia inducible transcription factor	LFT	low density lipoproteins liver function tests
LUV			
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus	LH	luteinizing hormone
HLA	human leukocyte antigen	LPH	Long interspesed elements
HLH	helix-loop-helix	LT	lipotrophic hormone (lipotropin)
HMG CoA	β-hydroxy β-methylglutaryl CoA		leukotrienes
HMP	hexose monophosphate	Lp-a	lipoprotein-a
HNPCC	hereditary nonpolyposis colon	LSD	lysergic acid diethylamide
L. DATA	cancer	M	molar
hnRNA	heterogeneous nuclear RNA	MAO	maximal acid output
Нр	haptoglobin	MAO	monoamine oxidase
HPLC	high performance liquid	Mb	myoglobin
LIDE	chromatography	MbO ₂	oxymyoglobin
HRE	hormone responsive element	MCAD	medium chain acyl CoA
Hsp	heat shock protein	MDII	dehydrogenase
5HT	5-hydroxytryptamine	MDH	malate dehydrogenase
HTH	helix-turn-helix	mEq	milliequivalents
ICD	isocitrate dehydrogenase	mg	milligram
IDDM	insulin dependent diabetes mellitus	MHC	major histocompatibility complex
IDL	intermediate density lipoproteins	MI	myocardial infarction
IDP	inosine diphosphate	MIT	monoiodotyrosine
IF	initiation factor	moi	mole(s)

mM	millimolar	PFK	phosphofructokinase
mol. wt.	molecular weight	PG	prostaglandins
mRNA	messenger RNA	PGA	pteroyl glutamic acid
MSH	melanocyte stimulating hormone	рН	negative log of (H+)
mtDNA	mitochondrial DNA	PI	phosphatidyl inositol
MW	molecular weight	Pi	inorganic phosphate
NAD+	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide	pl	isoelectric pH
NADH	reduced NAD*	PIF	prolactin inhibitory factor
NADP+	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide	PIP,	inositol 4, 5-bisphosphate
NADP	phosphate	pKa	negative log of Ka
NADPH	reduced NADP+	PKU	phenylketonuria
NAG	N-acetylglutamate	PL	phospholipid
NANA	N-acetylneuraminic acid	PLP	pyridoxal phosphate
NDP	nucleoside diphosphate	pO ₂	partial pressure of O ₂
NE	niacin equivalents	POMC	pro-opiomelanocortin
NEFA	non esterified fatty acid	PPi	inorganic pyrophosphate
	nanogram (10 ⁻⁹ g)	ppm	parts per million
ng	nerve growth factor	PRIH	prolactin release-inhibiting
NGF			hormone
NIDDM	non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus	PRL	prolactin
NMP	nucleoside monophsphate	PRPP	5-phosphoribosyl 1-pyrophosphate
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance	PT	prothrombin time
NPN	non-protein nitrogen	PTH	parathyroid hormone
NPU	net protein utilization	PTH	phenyl thiohydantoin
OAA	oxaloacetate	PUFA	polyunsaturated fatty acids
	obese	QPRT	quinolinate
Ob		- Done	phosphoribosyltransferase
OD	optical density	RACE	rapid amplification of cDNA ends
OMP	orotidine monophosphate	RAIU	radioactive iodine uptake
Osm	osmoles	RAPD	random amplified polymorphic DNA
PABA	para amino benzoic acid	ras	rat sarcoma
PAF	platelet-activating factor	RBC	red blood cells
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis	RBP	retinol binding protein
PAH	para amino hippurate	RDA	recommended dietary (daily)
PAPS	phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate		allowance
PBG	porphobilinogen	rDNA	recombinant DNA
PBI	protein bound iodine	RE	retinol equivalents
PCM	protein-calorie malnutrition	RER	rough endoplasmic reticulum
PCNA	proliferating cell nuclear antigen	RF	releasing factor
pCO ₂	partial presence of CO ₂	Rf	ratio of fronts
PCR	polymerase chain reaction	RFC	replication factor C
PCT	proximal convoluted tubule	RFLP	restriction fragment length
PDGF	platelet derived growth factor		polymorphism
PDH	pyruvate dehydrogenase	R-form	relaxed form
PEG	polyethylene glycol	RIA	radioimmunoassay
PEM	protein-energy malnutrition	RMR	resting metabolic rate
PEP	phosphoenol pyruvate	RNA	ribonucleic acid
PER	protein efficiency ratio	RNAP	RNA polymerase
PEST	proline, glutamine, serine, threonine	RNase	ribonuclease

R 5-P	ribose 5-phosphate	TGF	transforming growth factor
RPA	replication protein A	THF	tetrahydrofolate
RQ	respiratory quotient	TIBC	total iron binding capacity
rRNA	ribosomal RNA	TLC	thin layer chromatography
RSV	rouse sarcoma virus	Tm	tubular maximum
RT	reverse transcriptase	TMP	thymidine monophosphate
rT ₃	reverse T ₃	TNF	tumor necrosis factor
SAM	S-adenosylmethionine	tPA	tissue plasminogen activator
SCID	severe combined immunodeficiency	TPP	thiamine pyrophosphate
SDA	specific dynamic action	TRH	thyrotropin releasing hormone
Sf	Svedberg floatation	tRNA	transfer RNA
SGOT	serum glutamate oxaloacetate	TSH	thyroid stimulating hormone
	transaminase	TX	thromboxane
SGPT	serum glutamate pyruvate		micrometer (10 ⁻⁶ m)
CLIDC	transaminase	μm UBG	
SHBG	sex hormone binding globulin		urobilinogen
SIDS	sudden infant death syndrome	UCP	uncoupling protein
SINEs	short interspersed elements	UDP	uridine diphosphate
sn SNPs	stereospecific number	UDPG	uridine diphosphate glucose
snRNA	single nucleotide polymorphisms small nuclear RNA	μΙ	microliter (10 ⁻⁶ l)
snRNP		μМ	micromoles (10 ⁻⁶ M)
sRNA	small nuclear ribonucleoprotein soluble RNA	UMP	uridine monophosphate
SRS	slow reacting substance	UTP	uridine triphosphate
STRs	simple tandem repeats	UV	ultraviolet
T	thymine, thymidine	V _H	variable heavy chain
T	thymus (T-lymphocyte)	VIP	vasoactive intestinal peptide
T ₃	3,5,3'-trilodothyronine	V _L	variable light chain
T ₄	3,5,3',5'-tetraiodothyronine	VLDL	very low density lipoproteins
'4	(thyroxine)	VMA	vanillyl mandelic acid
TBG	thyroxine binding globulin	V _{max}	velocity maximum
TBPA	thyroxine binding prealbumin	VNTRs	variable number tandem repeats
TCA	tricarboxylic acid	WBC	white blood cells
TF	tissue factor	XMP	xanthosine monophosphate
T-form	taut or tense form	XP	xeroderma pigmentosum
TG	triacylglycerol	Xyl	xylose
Tgb	thyroglobulin	YAC	yeast artificial chromosome

Appendix II: Greek Alphabets (Commonly used as symbols)

mil	lm.	Symbol
+44	Tall Havening	α
	m 2	β
*** []	The second	γ
10/1/16	FIEL	δ
***	1111	ε
***	D	ζ
***	Total Land	η
***		θ
IO.IV	***	κ
***		λ
SET MAN	1864 1888	μ
	111 T. 200	ξ
444		π
	***	ρ
		σ
	HITT	ф
	344	χ
		Ψ
***	***	ω

Appendix III: Origins of Important Biochemical Words

Acid (Latin) acidus-sour

Acidosis (Latin) acidus-sour; osis-condition

Albinism (Greek) albino-white

Alkali (Arabic) al-gite-ashes of saltwort

Allergy (Greek) allos-other; ergon-work

Alloseric (Greek) allo-the other

Amentia (Latin) amentis-mental deficiency

Amnesia (Greek) a-not; mnesis-memory

Amphipathic (Greek) amphi-both; pathos-feeling

Amphiphilic (Greek) amphi-both; philic-love

Anaerobe (Greek) a-not; aer-air; bios-life

Anaplerotic (Greek) ana-up; plerotikos-to fill

Androgen (Greek) aner-man; genesis-production

Anemia (Greek) a-not; haima-blood

Anorexia (Greek) a-not; orexis-appetite

Anticoagulant anti (Greek)—against; coagulare (Latin)—to curdle

Antimetabolite (Greek) anti-against; metabolechange

Arteriosclerosis arteria (*Latin*)–artery; sclerosis (*Greek*) hardening.

Arthritis (Greek) arthron-joint; itis-inflammation

Atherosclerosis (Greek) athere-porridge; sclerosishardening

Beri-beri (Singhalese)-I cannot (said twice)

Biochemistry (Greek) bios-life; chymos-juice

Biology (Greek) bios-life; logos-discourse

Bovine (Latin) bovinus-pertaining to cow or ox

Calorie (Latin) calor-heat

Cancer (Latin) crab

Carbohydrate carbo (Latin)—coal; hydor (Greek) water

Caries (Latin)-decay

Casein (Latin) caseus-cheese

Catabolism (Greek) kata-down; ballein-to throw

Catalysis (Greek) kata-down; lysis-degradation

Cathepsin (Greek) to digest

Cephalins (Greek) kephale-head

Cheilitis (Greek) cheilos-lip; itis-inflammation

Cheilosis (Greek) cheilos-lip; osis-condition

Chirality (Greek) cheir-hand

Chlorophyll (Greek) chloros-pale green; phyllonleaf

Cholelithiasis (Greek) chole-bile; lithos-stone; asiscondition

Cholesterol (Greek) chole-bile; sterol-solid alcohol

Chromatography (Greek) chroma-colour; graphein -to write

Chromosome (Greek) chroma-colour; soma-body

Chyle (Greek) chylos-juice

Chyluria (Greek) chylos-juice; auron-urine

Chyme (Greek) chymos-juice

Cirrhosis (Greek) kirrhos-orange-tawny; osiscondition

Cis (Latin) same side

Coagulation (Greek) coagulare-to curdle

Collagen (Greek) kolla-glue; genesthai-to be produced

Colloid (Greek) kolla-glue; eidos-form

Consanguinity (Latin) con-with; sanguis-blood

Creatine (Greek) kreas-flesh

Cristae (Latin) crests

Cutaneous (Latin) cutis-skin

Cytology (Greek) kytos-cell; logos-discourse

Cytoplasm (Greek) kytos-cell; plassein-to mould

Dermatitis (Greek) derma-skin; itis-inflammation

Diabetes mellitus (*Greek*) diabetes–running through (or a siphon); mellitus–sweet

Eicosanoids (Greek) eikosi-twenty

Embolism (Greek) embolos-to plug

Emphysema (Greek) emphysan-to inflate

Enkephalin (Greek) in the brain

Enthalpy (Greek) to warm within

Entropy (Greek) in turning

Enzyme (Greek) in yeast

Erythrocyte (Greek) erythros-red; kytos-cell

Eukaryotes (Greek) eu-true; karyon-nucleus

Ferrous (Latin) ferrum-iron

Folate (Latin) folium-leaf

Galactose (Greek) gala-milk

Gastritis (Greek) gaster-belly; itis-inflammation

Gene (Greek) genesis-descent

Genome (Greek) genos-birth

Globin (Latin) globus-ball

Globulin (Latin) globulus-little ball

Glossitis (Greek) glossa-tongue; itis-inflammation

Glycolysis (Greek) glycos-sweet; lysis-dissolution

Goitre (Latin) gultur-throat

Gonadotrophin (Greek) gona-generation; trophenourishment

Hemoglobin haima (Greek)-blood; globus (Latin)-ball

Hepatitis (Greek) hepar-liver; itis-inflammation

Hormone (Greek) hormain-to excite

Hydrophilic (Greek) hydro-water; philic-living

Hydrophobic (Greek) hydro-water; phobic-hating

Hyperglycemia (*Greek*) hyper–above; glycos-sweet; haima–blood

Hypertonic (Greek) hyper-above; tonos-tension

Hypoglycemia (*Greek*) hypo-below; glycos-sweet; haima-blood

Hypotonic (Greek) hypo-below; tonos-tension

Icterus (Greek) ikteros-jaundice

Immunity (Latin) immunis-exempt from public burden

Inflammation (Latin) inflammare-to set on fire

In situ (Latin) in the correct position

In vitro (Latin) in a test tube

In vivo (Latin) in the living tissue

Isomerism (Greek) iso-equal; mesos-part

Isotonic (Greek) iso-equal; tonos-tension

Isotope (Greek) iso-equal; topos-place

Jaundice (French) jaune-yellow

Keratin (Greek) keras-horn

Kwashiorkor (Ga-African) sickness of the deposed child

Lactalbumin (Greek) lac-milk; albumin-white

Lecithin (Greek) lekithos-egg yolk

Lipids (Greek) lipos-fat

Lactosuria lac (Latin)-milk; ovron (Greek)-urine

Leukocytes (Geek) leukos-white; kytos-cell

Leukoderma (Greek) leukos-white; derma-skin

Ligase (Greek) ligate-to bind

Malaria (Italian) bad air

Malnutrition (Latin) malus-bad; nutrirenourishment

Marasmus (Greek) to waste

Melanin (Greek) melan-black

Menopause (Greek) men-month; pausis-stopping

Metabolism (Greek) metabole-change

Mitochondria (Greek) mitos-thread; chondros-granule

Mitosis (Greek) mitos-thread; osis-condition

Monosaccharide (Greek)-mono-one; saccharinsugar

Myeloma (Greek) myelos-marrow; oma-tumor

Nephritis (Greek) nephros-kidney; itis-inflammation

Neurosis (Greek) neuron-nerve; osis-condition

Oedema or edema (Greek) oidema-swelling

Oligosaccharides (Greek) oligo-few; saccharonsugar

Osmosis (Greek)-push

Osteomalacia (Greek) osteon-bone; malakia-softness

Oxyntic (Greek) oxynein-to make acid

Oxytocin (Greek)-rapid birth

Palindrome (Greek)-to run back again

Pantothenic acid (Greek) pantos-everywhere

Pathogenesis (Greek) pathos-disease; genesisproducing

Pellagra (Italian)-rough skin

Pepsin (Greek) pepsis-digestion

Phagocytosis (Greek) phagein-to eat; kytos-cell; osis-condition

Phobia (Greek) phobos-fear

Polysaccharide (Greek) poly-many; saccharinsugar Porphyrin (Greek) porphyra-purple colour Post-prandial (Latin)-after food

Prokaryotes (Greek) pro-before; karyon-nucleus

Proteins (Greek) proteios-holding first place

Rickets (Old English) wrickken-to twist

Serum (Latin)-whey

Sphingosine (Greek) sphingein-to bind tight

Steatorrhea (Greek) stear-fat; rheein-to flow

Stereoisomerism (Greek) stero-space

Sterol (Greek) steros-solid; ol- alcohol

Thalassemia (Greek) thalassa-sea

Thermodynamics (*Greek*) therme–heat; dynamics–power

Thermogenesis (Greek) therme-heat; genesisproduction

Thrombosis (Greek) thrombos-clot; osis-condition

Thylakoid (Greek) thylakos-a sac or pouch

Tocopherol (*Greek*) tokos-child birth; pheros-to bear; ol-alcohol

Trans (Latin) across

Tumor (Latin) swelling

Vitamin (coined inappropriately in 1906) (Latin) vita-life; amine

Xanthoma (Greek) xanthos-yellow

Xenobiotics (Greek) xenos-strange

Zwitterion (German) zwitter-hybrid.

Appendix IV: Common Confusables in Biochemistry

- Acetone; acetate Acetone is a ketone; acetate is a carboxylic acid.
- Acetyl CoA; acyl CoA Acetyl CoA is a specific compound containing acetate bound to coenzyme A; acyl CoA is a general term used to refer to any fatty acid (acyl group) bound to coenzyme A.
- Albumin; albinism Albumin is a serum protein; albinism is a genetic disease in tysosine metabolism.
- Amino; imino Amino group (-NH₂) is found in majority of amino acids; imino group (=NH) is present in a few amino acids like proline and hydroxyproline.
- Anabolism; catabolism Anabolism refers to the biosynthetic reactions involving the formation of complex molecules from simpler ones; catabolism is concerned with the degradation of complex molecules to simpler ones with a concomitant release of energy.
- Anomers; epimers Anomers refer to two stereoisomers of a sugar that differ in configuration around a single carbonyl atom; epimers are two stereoisomers that differ in configuration around one asymmetric carbon of a sugar possessing two or more asymmetric carbon atoms.
- Apoenzyme; coenzyme Apoenzyme is the protein part of the functional enzyme (holoenzyme); coenzyme is the non-protein organic part associated with enzyme activity.
- Bile pigments; bile salts Bile pigments (biliverdin, bilirubin) are the breakdown products of

- heme; bile salts are the sodium and potassium salts of bile acids (glycocholate, taurocholate) produced by cholesterol.
- Biliverdin; bilirubin Both are bile pigments.

 Biliverdin is produced from heme in the reticuloendothelial cells; bilirubin is formed by reduction of biliverdin.
- Biotin; biocytin Biotin is a B-complex vitamin; biocytin refers to the covalently bound biotin to enzymes (through ε-amino group of lysine).
- B-Lymphocytes; T-lymphocytes B-lymphocytes produce immunoglobulins (antibodies) and are involved in humoral immunity; T-lymphocytes are responsible for cellular immunity.
- Bisphosphate; diphosphate Bisphosphate has two phosphates held separately e.g. 2,3-BPG; diphosphate has two phosphates linked together e.g. ADP.
- Calcitriol; calcitonin Calcitriol (1,25-DHCC) is the physiologically active form of vitamin D; calcitonin is a peptide hormone, synthesized by thyroid gland.
- Calorimetry; colorimetry Calorimetry deals with the measurement of heat production by organism; colorimetry is concerned with the measurement of colour compounds.
- Carboxyl; carbonyl These two are functional groups found in organic substances; carboxyl group –COOH; carbonyl –C–.
- Carnitine; creatine; creatinine Carnitine transports activated fatty acids (acyl CoA) from

- cytosol to mitochondria; creatine is mostly found in the muscle as creatine phosphate, a high energy compound; creatinine is the anhydride of creatine.
- Choline; cholic acid Choline is a trimethyl quaternary base and is a constituent of acetylcholine; cholic acid is an important bile acid.
- Chyle; chyme Chyle refers to lymph with milky appearance due to chylomicrons; chyme is the partially digested food in the stomach that passes to deodenum.
- Configuration; conformation Configuration is the geometric relationship between a given set of atoms (e.g. L- and D-amino acids). Conformation is the special relationship of every atom in a molecule (e.g. secondary structure of protein).
- Cysteine; cystine Both are sulfur containing nonessential amino acids. Cysteine contains sulfhydryl (–SH) group; cystine is formed by condensation of two cysteine residues and contains a disulfide (–S–S–) group.
- Dextrins; dextrans; dextrose The first two are polysaccharides composed of glucose. Dextrins are the breakdown products of starch; dextrans are gels produced by bacteria from glucose. Dextrose is glucose in solution (dextrorotatory) used in medical practice.
- Diabetes mellitus; diabetes insipidus Diabetes mellitus is primarily an impairment in glucose metabolism due to the deficiency of, or inefficient insulin; diabetes insipidus is characterized by excretion of large volumes of urine (polyuria), caused by the deficiency of antidiuretic hormone (ADH).
- Endocytosis; exocytosis Endocytosis is the intake of macromolecules by the cells; exocytosis refers to the release of macromolecules from the cells to the outside.
- Epinephrine; norepinephrine Both are catecholamines synthesized from tyrosine. Epinephrine is methylated while norepinephrine does not contain a methyl group.
- Exons; introns Exons are the DNA sequences coding for proteins; introns are the intervening DNA sequences that do not code for proteins.
- GABA; PABA γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA) is a neurotransmitter; p-aminobenzoic acid (PABA) is a vitamin.

- Gene; genome A gene refers to the DNA fragment of a chromosome that codes for a single polypeptide; all the genes of a cell or an organism are collectively known as genome.
- Glu; Gla Glu is the code for glutamic acid; Gla is the code for γ -carboxy glutamic acid.
- Glucuronic acid; gluconic acid Both are derived from glucose; oxidation of C₆ results in glucuronic acid while oxidation of C₁ yields gluconic acid. Glucuronic acid is produced in uronic acid pathway; gluconic acid is formed in hexose monophosphate shunt.
- Glutaric acid; glutamic acid Glutaric acid is a dicarboxylic acid; glutamic acid (α-amino glutaric acid) is an amino acid.
- Glycogen; glycogenin Glycogen is a storage form of carbohydrate (polysaccharide) in the animal body; glycogenin is a protein which serves as a primer for the initiation of glycogen synthesis.
- Glycoproteins; mucoproteins Both are conjugated proteins containing carbohydrate as the prosthetic group. The term glycoprotein is used if the carbohydrate content is <4%; mucoprotein contains >4% carbohydrate.
- Hydrophilic; hydrophobic Hydrophilic refers to affinity to water; hydrophobic means hatred towards water.
- Insulin; inulin Insulin is a peptide hormone; inulin is a polysaccharide composed of fructose.
- In vivo; in vitro In vivo refers to within the cell or organism; in vitro means in the test tube.
- Isoniazid; iproniazid Isoniazid is an antituberculosis drug; iproniazid is an antidepressant drug.
- Lactam; lactim These terms are used to represent tautomerism. Lactam indicates the existence of a molecule in keto form; lactim represents a molecule in enol form.
- Lactose; lactase Lactose is a disaccharide; lactase is an enzyme that cleaves lactose to glucose and gulactose.
- Linoleic acid; linolenic acid Both are 18 carbon unsaturated fatty acids. Linoleic acid has two double bonds; linolenic acid has three double bonds.
- Lipoproteins; lipotropic factors Lipoproteins are molecular complexes composed of lipids and proteins; lipotropic factors are the substances (e.g. choline, betaine), the deficiency of which causes accumulation of fat in liver.

762 BIOCHEMISTRY

β-Lipoprotein; β-lipotropin – β-Lipoprotein refers to the low density lipoproteins; β-lipotropin is a peptide hormone derived from proopiomelanocortin (POMC) peptide.

Lyases; ligases - Lyases are the enzymes that catalyse the addition or removal of water, ammonia, CO₂ etc.; ligases catalyse the synthetic reactions where two molecules are joined together.

Malate; malonate; mevalonate – Malate is an intermediate in the citric acid cycle; malonate is a competitive inhibitor of the enzyme succinate dehydrogenase; mevalonate is an intermediate in cholesterol biosynthesis.

Melanin; melatonin - Melanin is the pigment of skin and hair; melatonin is a hormone synthesized by pineal gland.

Maltose; maltase - Maltose is a disaccharide; maltase is an enzyme that cleaves maltose to two molecules of glucose.

Methyl, methenyl; methylene – All the three are one-carbon fragments as shown in brackets, methyl (-CH₃); methenyl (-CH=); methylene (-CH₂-).

Molarity; molality - Molarity is defined as the number of moles of a solute per liter solution; molality represents the number of moles of a solute per 1,000 g of solvent.

Nicotinic acid; nicotine - Nicotinic acid is a B-complex vitamin; nicotine is an alkaloid present in tobacco leaves.

Nucleoside; nucleotide – A nucleoside is composed of a nitrogen base and a sugar; nucleotide contains one or more phosphate groups bound to nucleoside.

Osmolarity; osmolality - Osmolarity represents osmotic pressure exerted by the number of moles (milli moles) per liter solution; osmolality refers to the osmotic pressure exerted by the number of moles (milli moles) per kg solvent.

Palmitate; palmitoleate - Both are even chain (16-carbon) fatty acids. Palmitate is a saturated fatty acid; palmitoleate is a monounsaturated fatty acid.

Phosphatidyl ethanolamine; phosphatidal ethanolamine - Both are phospholipids. In phosphatidyl ethanolamine, the fatty acid is bound by an ester linkage. The fatty acid is

held by an ether linkage in phosphatidal ethanolamine.

Phytic acid; phytanic acid - Phytic acid is formed by the addition of six phosphate molecules to inositol, it is an inhibitor of the intestinal absorption of calcium and iron; phytanic acid is an unusal fatty acid derived from phytol, a constituent of chlorophyll.

Prokaryotes; eukaryotes - Prokaryotes are the cells that lack a well defined nucleus; eukaryotes possess a well-defined nucleus.

Prolamines; protamines – Both are simple proteins.

Prolamines are soluble in alcohol; protamines are basic protein soluble in NH₄OH.

Pyridine; pyrimidine; pteridine – All the three are heterocyclic rings containing nitrogen, as depicted below.

Pyridine ring is found in niacin and pyridoxine; pyrimidine is present in thiamine (vitamin B₁), thymine, cytosine and uracil; folic acid contains pteridine ring.

Pyridoxine; pyridoxal – Pyridoxine is the primary alcohol form of vitamin B₆; pyridoxal is the aldehyde form of B₆.

RDA; SDA - RDA (recommended dietary/daily allowance) represents the quantities of nutrients to be provided in the diet daily for maintenance of good health and physical efficiency; specific dynamic action (SDA) is the extra heat produced by the body over and above the caloric value of foodstuffs.

Renin; Rennin - Renin is synthesized by the kidneys and is involved in vasoconstriction causing hypertension; rennin is an enzyme found in gastric juice responsible for coagulation of milk.

Ribosomes; ribozymes – Ribosomes are the sites of protein biosynthesis; ribozymes refer to the RNA molecules which function as enzymes.

Retinol; retinal – Retinol is the alcohol form of vitamin A; retinal is the aldehyde form obtained by the oxidation of retinol.

- Scleroproteins; selenoproteins Scleroproteins are a group of fibrous proteins; selenoproteins contain the amino acid selenocysteine.
- Serotonin; melatonin Serotonin is a neurotransmitter synthesized from tryptophan; melatonin is a hormone derived from serotonin in the pineal gland.
- Somatotropin; somatostatin; somatomedin Somatotropin is the other name for growth hormone (GH); growth hormone release inhibiting hormone (GRIH) is also called somatostatin; somatomedin refers to the insulin-like growth factor -I (IGF-I), produced by liver in response to GH action.
- Sucrose; sucrase Sucrose is a disaccharide; sucrase is an enzyme that cleaves sucrose to glucose and fructose.
- Synthase; synthetase Both the enzymes are concerned with biosynthetic reactions. Synthase does not require ATP; synthetase is dependent on ATP for energy supply. (Note: This distinction between synthase and synthetase however, is not maintained strictly by most authors).

- Thiamine; thymine Thiamine is a vitamin (B₁); thymine is a pyrimidine base found in DNA structure.
- Thiokinase; thiolase Thiokinase activates fatty acids to acyl CoA; Thiolase catalyses the final reaction in β-oxidation to liberate acetyl CoA from acyl CoA.
- Transcription; translation Transcription refers to the synthesis of RNA from DNA; translation involves the protein synthesis from the RNA.
- Uric acid; uronic acid Uric acid is the end product of purine metabolism; uronic acids are formed by the oxidation of aldehyde group of monosaccharides (e.g. glucuronic acid).
- Ureotelic; uricotelic Ureotelic organisms (e.g. mammals) convert NH₃ to urea; uricotelic organisms (e.g. reptiles) convert NH₃ to uric acid.
- Vitamin A; coenzyme A Vitamin A is fat soluble vitamin; coenzyme A is derived from water soluble vitamin, pantothenic acid.

Appendix V: Practical Biochemistry—Principles

QUALITATIVE EXPERIMENTS

Several laboratory qualitative experiments are performed to indentify the compounds of biochemical importance (carbohydrates, proteins/amino acids, non-protein nitrogenous substances) and to detect the abnormal constituents of urine. The principles of the reactions pertaining to the most widely employed qualitative tests are described here.

I. REACTIONS OF CARBOHYDRATES

The carbohydrates used in the laboratory for the qualitative tests include glucose and fructose (monosaccharides), sucrose, lactose and maltose (disaccharides) and starch (polysaccharide). The principles of the reactions of carbohydrates are given:

- 1. Molisch test: It is a general test for the detection of *carbohydrates*. The strong H₂SO₄ hydrolyses carbohydrates (poly- and disaccharides) to liberate monosaccharides. The monosaccharides get dehydrated to form furfural (from pentoses) or hydroxy methylfurfural (from hexoses) which condense with α-naphthol to form a violet coloured complex.
- lodine test: Polysaccharides combine with iodine to form a coloured complex. Thus, starch gives blue colour while dextrins give red colour with iodine.
- 3. Benedict's test: This is a test for the identification of *reducing sugars*, which form enedicls (predominantly under alkaline conditions). The enedicl forms of sugars reduce cupric ions (Cu²+) of copper sulfate to cuprous ions (Cu+) which form a yellow precipitate of cuprous hydroxide or a red precipitate of cuprous oxide.
- 4. Barfoed's test: The principle of this test is the same as that of Benedict's test except that the

reduction is carried out in mild acidic medium. Since acidic medium is not favourable for reduction, only strong reducing sugars (monosaccharides) give this test positive. Thus, Barfoed's test serves as a key reaction to distinguish *monosaccharides* form disaccharides.

- 5. Seliwanoff's test: This is a specific test for ketohexoses. Concentrated hydrochloric acid dehydrates ketohexoses to form furfural derivatives which condense with resorcinol to give a cherry red complex.
- 6. Foulger's test: This is also a test for *ketohexoses*. The furfural derivatives formed from ketohexoses condense with urea in the presence of stannous chloride to give a blue colour.
- 7. Rapid furfural test: **Ketohexoses** are converted to furfural derivatives by HCl which form a purple colour complex with α-naphthol.
- 8. Osazone test: Phenylhydrazine in acetic acid, when boiled with reducing sugars forms osazones. The first two carbons (C₁ and C₂) are involved in this reaction. The sugars that differ in their configuration on these two carbons give the same type of osazones, since the difference is marked by binding with phenylhydrazine. Thus, glucose, fructose and mannose give the same type (needle shaped) of osazones. However, the osazones of reducing disaccharides differ maltose gives sunflower-shaped while lactose powder-puff shaped.
- 9. Sucrose hydrolysis test: Sucrose is a non-reducing sugar, hence it does not give Benedict's and Barfoed's tests. Sucrose can be hydrolysed by concentrated HCl, to be converted to glucose and fructose (reducing monosaccharides) which answer the reducing reactions. However, after sucrose hydrolysis, the medium has to be made alkaline (by adding Na₂CO₃) for effective reduction process.

II. REACTIONS OF PROTEINS

The proteins employed in the laboratory for the qualitative tests include albumin, globulins, casein, gelatin and peptones. The principle of the most common reactions of proteins/amino acids performed in the laboratory are given hereunder.

A. PRECIPITATION REACTIONS

Proteins exist in colloidal solution due to hydration of polar groups (—COO⁻, —NH⁺₃, —OH). They can be precipitated by dehydration or neutralization of polar groups. Several methods are in use to achieve protein precipitation.

1. Precipitation by neutral salts: The process of protein precipitation by the addition of neutral salts such as ammonium sulfate or sodium sulfate is referred to as salting out. This phenomenon is explained on the basis of dehydration of protein molecules by salts. This causes increased protein-protein interaction, resulting in molecular aggregation and precipitation.

The amount of salt required for protein precipitation depends on the size (molecular weight) of the protein molecule. In general, the higher is the protein molecular weight, the lower is the salt required for precipitation. Thus, serum globulins are precipitated by half saturation with ammonium sulfate while albumin is precipitated by full saturation.

- 2. Precipitation by salts of heavy metals: Heavy metal ions like Pb²⁺, Hg²⁺, Fe²⁺, Zn²⁺, Cd²⁺ cause precipitation of proteins. These metals being positively charged, when added to protein solution (negatively charged) in alkaline medium result in precipitate formation.
- 3. Precipitation by anionic or alkaloid reagents: Proteins can be precipitated by trichloroacetic acid, sulphosalicylic acid, phosphotungstic acid, picric acid, tannic acid, phosphomolybdic acid etc. By the addition of these acids, the proteins existing as cations are precipitated by the anionic form of acids to produce protein-sulphosalicylate, protein-tungstate, protein-picrate etc.

The anionic reagents such as phosphotungstic acid and trichloroacetic acid are used to prepare protein-free filtrate of blood needed for several estimations (e.g., urea, sugar) in the laboratory.

4. Precipitation by organic solvents: Organic solvents such as alcohol are good protein

precipitating agents. They dehydrate the protein molecule by removing that water envelope and cause precipitation.

B. COLOUR REACTIONS

The proteins give several colour reactions which are often useful to identify the nature of the amino acids present in them as shown in the table.

Colour reactions of proteins/amino acids

	Reaction	Specific group or amino acid
1.	Biuret reaction	Two peptide linkages
2.	Ninhydrin reaction Xanthoproteic	α-Amino acids Benzene ring of aromatic
	reaction	amino acids (Phe, Tyr, Trp)
4.	Millons reaction	Phenolic group (Tyr)
5.	Hopkins-Cole reaction	Indole ring (Trp)
6.	Sakaguchi reaction	Guanidino group (Arg)
7.	Nitroprusside reaction	Sulfhydryl groups (Cys)
8.	Sulfur test	Sulfhydryl groups (Cys)
9.	Pauly's test	Imidazole ring (His)
10.	Folin-Coicalteau's test	Phenolic groups (Tyr)

1. Biuret reactions: Biuret is a compound formed by heating urea to 180°C. When biuret is treated with dilute copper sulfate in alkaline medium, a purple colour is obtained. This is the basis of biuret test used for identification of proteins and peptides.

Biuret test is answered by compounds containing two or more CO—NH groups i.e., *peptide bonds*. All proteins and peptides possessing atleast two peptide linkages i.e., tripeptides (with 3 amino acids) give positive biuret test. The principle of biuret test is conveniently used to detect the presence of proteins in biological fluids. The mechanism of biuret test is not clearly known. It is believed that the colour is due to the formation of a copper co-ordinated complex.

 Ninhydrin reaction: The α-amino acids react with ninhydrin to form a purple, blue or pink colour complex (Ruhemann's purple).

- 3. Xanthoproteic reaction: Xanthoproteic reaction is due to nitration of *aromatic amino acids* (tryptophan, tyrosine and phenylalanine) on treatment with strong nitric acid at high temperature.
- 4. Millon's test: This test is given by the amino acid *tyrosine*, or any other compound containing hydroxyphenyl ring. A red colour or precipitate is obtained in this reaction due to the formation of mercury complex of nitrophenol derivative.
- 5. Hopkins-Cole reaction: This reaction is specific for the indole ring of *tryptophan*. It combines with formaldehyde in the presence of the oxidizing agent (sulfuric acid with mercuric sulfate) to form a violet or purple coloured compound.
- 6. Sakaguchi reaction: Arginine, containing guanidino group, reacts with α-naphthol and alkaline hypobromite to form a red colour complex.
- 7. Sulfur test: This is a test specific for sulfur containing amino acids namely *cysteine* and *cystine*, but not methionine. When cysteine and cystine are boiled with sodium hydroxide, organic sulfur is converted to inorganic sodium sulfide. This reacts with lead acetate to form a black precipitate of lead sulfide. Methionine does not give this test, since sulfur of methionine is not split by alkali.
- 8. Pauly's test: This reaction is specific for histidine (imidazole ring). Diazotised sulfanilic acid reacts with imidazole ring in alkaline medium to form a red coloured complex.
- 9. Molisch test: This is a specific test for the detection of carbohydrates. The proteins containing carbohydrates (e.g., glycoproteins) give this test positive. Albumin contains carbohydrate bound to it, hence answers Molisch test.

III. REACTIONS OF NON-PROTEIN NITROGENOUS SUBSTANCES

The non-protein nitrogenous (NPN) substances of biochemical importance include urea, uric acid and creatinine.

- Sodium hypobromite test: This is a test for the detection of urea. Sodium hypobromite decomposes urea to liberate nitrogen. The latter can be identified by brisk effervescence.
- Specific urease test: The enzyme urease (sourcehorse gram) specifically acts on urea to liberate ammonium carbonate (alkali). The latter can be

identified by a colour change in phenophthalein indicator (pink colour in alkaline medium).

- 3. Benedict's uric acid test: *Uric acid*, being a strong reducing agent, reduces phosphotungstate to tungsten blue in alkaline medium.
- 4. Murexide test: *Uric acid* is oxidized by nitric acid to give purpuric acid (reddish yellow). This in turn combines with ammonia to form purple red colour ammonium purpurate (murexide).
- Jaffe's test: Creatinine reacts with picric acid in alkaline medium to form orange red colour complex.

IV. ABNORMAL CONSTITUENTS OF URINE

Urine is the most important excretory fluid from the body. Some of the diseases are associated with an excretion of abnormal constituents in urine. The identification of such compounds in urine is of great diagnostic importance.

Urine abnormal constituent	Associated disorder(s)
Albumin	Kidney damage (glomerulonephritis)
Hemoglobin	Damage to kidneys or urinary tract.
Glucose	Diabetes mellitus, renal glycosuria.
Ketone bodies	Diabetes mellitus, starvation.
Bile salts	Obstructive jaundice
Bile pigments	Obstructive jaundice and hepatic jaundice.

- 1. Sulfosalicylic acid test: **Proteins** get precipitated by sulfosalicylic acid by forming protein-sulfosalicylate.
- 2. Heat coagulation test: This is a test for the detection of albumin and/or globulins in urine. Heat coagulation test is based on the principle of denaturation of proteins, followed by coagulation.

(Note: Small amounts of dilute acetic acid are added to dissolve the phosphates and sulfates that get precipitated on heating.)

3. Benzidine test: This test detects the presence of **blood**. Hemoglobin (acts like peroxidase) decomposes hydrogen peroxide to liberate nascent oxygen (O-) which oxidises benzidine to a green or blue coloured complex.

(Note: Pus cells of urine possess peroxidase activity which interferes in benzidine test. This can be eliminated by boiling the urine prior to the test to inactivate the enzyme).

- 4. Benedict's test: This is a semiquantitative test for the detection of urine reducing sugars (primarily glucose). Benedict's test is based on the principle of reducing property of sugars (described in detail under reactions of carbohydrates). Colour of the precipitate formed indicates the approximate amount of *glucose* present in urine. Thus, green turbidity = traces; green precipitate = 0.5%; yellow precipitate = 1%; orange precipitate = 1.5% brick red precipitate = 2%. (Note: Benedict's test is not specific to glucose, since it can be answered by any reducing substance).
- 5. Glucose oxidase test: This is a strip test for the specific detection of glucose. The enzyme glucose oxidase oxidizes glucose to liberate hydrogen peroxide which in turn is converted to nascent oxygen (O-) by peroxidase enzyme. The compound O-diansidine combines with nascent oxygen to form a coloured (yellow to red) complex.
- 6. Rothera's test: Nitroprusside in alkaline medium reacts with keto group of **ketone bodies** (acetone and acetoacetate) to form a purple ring. This test is not given by β -hydroxybutyrate.
- 7. Hay's test: This test is based on the surface tension lowering property of bile salts (sodium glycocholate and sodium taurocholate). Sulfur powder sprinkled on the surface of urine containing bile salts sinks to the bottom.
- 8. Petternkofer's test: This test is employed for the detection of *bile salts*. The furfural derivatives (by reacting sugar with concentrated H₂SO₄) condense with bile salts to form a purple ring.
- 9. Gmelin's test: Nitric acid oxidizes the bile pigment bilirubin to biliverdin (green) or bilicyanin (blue). Gmelin's test gives a play of colours and is used for the identification of bile pigments.
- 10. Fouchet's test: This test is also employed for the detection of *bile pigments*. Bile pigments are adsorbed on barium sulfate. Fouchet's reagents (containing ferric chloride in trichloroacetic acid) oxidizes bilirubin to biliverdin (green) and bilicyanin (blue).

QUANTITATIVE EXPERIMENTS

Quantitative experiments, dealing with the determination of concentrations of several biologically important compounds and the assay of many enzymes, are of great significance in the laboratory practice. Very often, the ultimate diagnosis and prognosis of a large number of diseases are guided by the quantitative biochemical investigations.

The principles involved in some of the quantitative experiments, commonly employed in the biochemistry laboratory by an undergraduate student, are briefly described here.

1. Blood glucose estimation

The quantitative determination of blood (plasma/ serum) glucose is of great importance in the diagnosis and monitoring of diabetes mellitus.

- (i) Folin Wu method: Alkaline copper (cupric ions) is reduced by glucose when boiled with protein free blood filtrate to cuprous oxide. The cuprous oxide in turn reacts with phosphomolybdic acid to form blue coloured oxides of molybdenum. The intensity of the colour can be measured in a colorimeter at a wavelength 680 nm. [Folin Wu method is rather old and is not specific for glucose determination, since other substances (e.g., fructose, lactose, glutathione) also bring about reduction. Consequently the blood glucose level when estimated by Folin Wu method is higher i.e., normal fasting is 80-120 mg/dl against true glucose 60-100 mg/dl]
- (ii) O-Toluidine method: Glucose combines with O-toluidine when boiled in acid medium to form a green coloured complex which can be measured in a colorimeter at a wavelength 630 nm. (This method determines glucose alone).
- (iii) Glucose oxidase-peroxidase (GOD—POD) method: This is an enzymatic determination of blood glucose. Glucose gets oxidized by glucose oxidase to

gluconic acid and hydrogen peroxide. The enzyme peroxidase converts hydrogen peroxide to water and oxygen. The oxygen in turn reacts with 4-aminophenzone in the presence of phenol to form a pink coloured complex, the intensity of which can be measured at 530 nm.

2. Blood urea estimation

Determination of blood urea (reference range 10-40 mg/dl) is important for the evaluation of kidney (renal) function. Elevation of blood urea is associated with pre-renal (diabetic coma, thyrotoxicosis), renal (acute glomerulonephritis, polycystic kidney) and post-renal (obstruction in the urinary tract, due to tumors, stones) conditions.

Diacetyl monoxime (DAM) method: Urea when heated with diacetyl monoxime forms a yellow coloured complex of dioxime derivatives which can be measured at 520 nm.

3. Serum creatinine estimation

Estimation of serum creatinine (reference range 0.5-1.5 mg/dl) is used as a diagnostic test to assess kidney function. Serum creatinine is not influenced by endogenous and exogenous factors, as is the case with urea. Hence, some workers consider serum creatinine as a more reliable indicator of renal function.

Alkaline picrate method: This method is based on Jaffe's reaction. Creatinine reacts with alkaline picrate to form creatinine picrate, an orange red coloured complex, which can be measured in a colorimeter at 530 nm.

(**Note**: Urinary creatinine can also be determined by employing the same principle given above).

4. Determination of serum proteins

The normal concentration of total serum proteins is in the range 6-8 g/dl (albumin 3.5-5.0 g/dl; globulins 2.5-3.5 g/dl; A/G ratio is 1.2 to 1.5 : 1). The A/G ratio is lowered either due to a decrease in albumin or an increase in globulins.

Serum albumin concentration is decreased in liver diseases, severe protein malnutrition, and excretion of albumin in urine (due to renal damage). Serum globulin concentration is elevated in chronic infections and multiple myeloma.

Biuret method: Peptide bonds (—CO—NH) of proteins react with cupric ions in alkaline medium to form a violet colour complex which is measured at a wavelength 530 nm. This method is suitable for total serum proteins with estimation.

Bromocresol green (BCG) dye method: This technique is employed for the estimation of serum albumin. BCG dye reacts with albumin to form an intense blue-green coloured complex which can be measured at 628 nm.

5. Estimation of serum bilirubin

The total bilirubin concentration in serum is 0.2-1 mg/dl (conjugated ~ 0.6 mg/dl; unconjugated ~ 0.4 mg/dl). Elevation in serum bilirubin concentration is observed in jaundice. Unconjugated bilirubin is increased in hemolytic jaundice, conjugated bilirubin in obstructive jaundice, while both of them are increased in hepatic jaundice.

van den Bergh reaction: Serum bilirubin estimation is based on van den Bergh reaction. The principle of the reaction is that diazotised sulfanilic acid (formed by mixing equal volumes of sulfanilic acid in HCl and sodium nitrite) reacts with bilirubin to form a purple coloured azobilirubin which can be measured at 540 nm.

6. Estimation of serum cholesterol

Serum cholesterol concentration (reference range 150-225 mg/dl) is elevated in atherosclerosis, diabetes mellitus, obstructive jaundice and hypothyroidism. Decreased levels are observed in hyperthyroidism.

Acetic anhydride method: Serum cholesterol reacts with acetic anhydride in the presence of glacial acetic acid and concentrated H₂SO₄ to form a green coloured complex. Intensity of this colour is measured at 560 nm.

7. Estimation of serum uric acid

Uric acid is the end product of purine metabolism. Its concentration in serum is increased (reference range - men 4-8 mg/dl; women 3-6 mg/dl) in gout.

Henry-Caraway's method: Uric acid in the protein-free filtrate when treated with phosphotungstic acid in the presence of sodium carbonate (alkaline solution) gives a blue coloured complex which can be measured at 660 nm.

8. Estimation of serum calcium

Serum calcium level is elevated (reference range 9-11 mg/dl) in hyperparathyroidism and decreased in hypothyroidism.

O-Cresolphthalein complexone method: Calcium reacts with the dye, O-cresolphthalein complexone (CPC) in alkaline solution to form a complex which can be measured at a wavelength 660 nm.

9. Estimation of serum phosphorus (inorganic)

Serum phosphate (reference range 3-4.5 mg/dl) is increased in hypoparathyroidism, and decreased in hyperparathyroidism and renal rickets.

For the determination of serum phosphate, serum proteins are precipitated by trichloroacetic acid. The protein-free filtrate containing inorganic phosphate is reacted with molybdic acid reagent to form phosphomolybdate. The latter in turn is reduced to molybdenum blue by treatment with 1-amino 2-naphthol-4 sulfonic acid (ANSA). The intensity of the blue colour is measured at 689 nm.

10. Determination of SGPT and SGOT

Serum glutamate pyruvate transaminase (SGPT; alanine transaminase) and serum glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase (SGOT; aspartate transaminase) are two important diagnostic enzymes. SGPT activity (reference range 5-40 IU/L) is more specifically increased in liver diseases (hepatic jaundice). SGOT activity is elevated (reference range 5-45 IU/L) in heart diseases (myocardial infarction).

Principle of assay: SGPT catalyses the following reaction

L-Alanine + α -ketoglutarate \longrightarrow L-glutamate + pyruvate SGOT brings about the following reaction L-Aspartic acid + α -ketoglutarate \longrightarrow

L-glutamate + oxaloacetate

The keto acid (pyruvate or oxaloacetate), formed in the above reaction, when treated with 2, 4-dinitrophenyl hydrazine forms dinitrophenyl hydroazone (brown colour) in alkaline medium which can be measured at 505 nm.

11. Determination of serum alkaline phosphatase

The activity of the enzyme serum alkaline phosphatase (normal range 3-13 KA Units/dl) is elevated in rickets and obstructive jaundice.

Principle of assay: Alkaline phosphatase hydrolyses disodium phenylphosphate liberating phenol. On treatment with 4-amino antipyrine in alkaline medium, phenol gives ferricyanide (reddish colour) which can be measured at 520 nm.

12. Determination of serum amylase

Serum amylase activity is increased (reference range 80-180 Somogyi Units/dl) in acute pancreatitis.

Principle of assay: Amylase acts on starch and hydrolyses to dextrins and maltose. Starch forms blue coloured complex with iodine, a decrease in the colour (measured at 670 nm) is proportional to the activity of amylase.

13. Analysis of cerebrospinal fluid

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is the aqueous medium surrounding the brain and spinal cord. From the biochemical perspective, estimation of proteins and glucose in CSF is important. Increase in protein (reference range 15-40 mg/dl) and decrease in glucose (reference range 50-75 mg/dl) in the cerebrospinal fluid are observed in tuberculosis meningitis.

CSF protein estimation: Sulfosalicylic acid (in sodium sulfate solution) precipitates CSF proteins and the turbidity is measured at 680 nm.

CSF glucose estimation: Any one of the standard methods employed for the determination of blood glucose (already described) can be used for CSF glucose estimation.

Appendix VI: Clinical Biochemistry Laboratory

The ultimate application of the biochemistry subject is for the health and welfare of mankind. Clinical biochemistry (also known as clinical chemistry or chemical pathology) is the laboratory service absolutely essential for medical practice. The results of the biochemical investigations carried out in a clinical chemistry laboratory will help the clinicians to determine the diseases (diagnosis) and for follow-up of the treatment/recovery from the illness (prognosis). Biochemical investigations hold the key for the diagnosis and prognosis of diabetes mellitus, jaundice, myocardial infarction, gout, pancreatitis, rickets, cancers, acid-base imbalance etc. Successful medical practice is unimaginable without the service of clinical biochemistry laboratory.

The **biological fluids** employed in the clinical biochemistry laboratory include **blood**, **urine**, **cerebrospinal fluid** and pleural fluid. Among these, blood (directly or in the form of plasma or serum) is frequently used for the investigations in the clinical biochemistry laboratory.

COLLECTION OF BLOOD

Venous **blood** is most commonly used for a majority of biochemical investigations. It can be drawn from any prominent vein (usually from a vein on the front of the elbow). **Capillary blood** (<0.2 ml) obtained from a finger or thumb, is less frequently employed. **Arterial blood** (usually drawn under local anesthesia) is used for blood gas determinations.

Precautions for blood collection: Use of sterile (preferably disposable) needles and syringes, cleaning of patients skin, blood collection in clean and dry vials/tubes are some of the important precautions.

CHOICE OF BLOOD SPECIMENS

Biochemical investigations can be performed on 4 types of blood specimens-whole blood, plasma, serum and red blood cells. The selection of the specimen depends on the parameter to be estimated. *Whole blood* (usually mixed with an anticoagulant) is used for the estimation of hemoglobin, carboxyhemoglobin, pH, glucose, urea, non-protein nitrogen, pyruvate, lactate, ammonia etc. (Note: for glucose determination, plasma is prefered in recent years).

Plasma, obtained by centrifuging the whole blood collected with an anticoagulant, is employed for the parameters—fibrinogen, glucose, bicarbonate, chloride, ascorbic acid etc.

Serum is the supernatant fluid that can be collected after centrifuging the clotted blood. It is the most frequently used specimen in the clinical biochemistry laboratory. The parameters estimated in serum include proteins (albumin/globulins), creatinine, bilirubin, cholesterol, uric acid, electroylets (Na+, K+, Cl-), enzymes (ALT, AST, LDH, CK, ALP, ACP, amylase, lipase) and vitamins.

Red blood cells are employed for the determination of abnormal hemoglobins, glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase, pyruvate kinase etc.

ANTICOAGULANTS

Certain biochemical tests require unclotted blood. Anticoagulants are employed for collecting such specimens.

Heparin: Heparin (inhibits the conversion of prothrombin to thrombin) is an ideal anticoagulant, since it does not cause any change in blood composition. However, other anticoagulants are prefered to heparin, due to the cost factor.

Potassium or sodium oxalate: These compounds precipitate calcium and inhibit blood coagulation. Being more soluble, potassium oxalate (5-10 mg per 5 ml blood) is prefered.

Potasium oxalate and sodium fluoride: These anticoagulants are employed for collecting blood to estimate glucose. Further sodium fluoride inhibits glycolysis and preserves blood glucose concentration.

Ammonium oxalate and potassium oxalate: A mixture of these two compounds in the ratio 3: 2 is used for blood collection to carry out certain hematological tests.

Enthylene diaminetetracetic acid (EDTA): It chelates with calcium and blocks coagulation. EDTA is employed to collect blood for hematological examinations.

HEMOLYSIS

The rupture or lysis of RBC, releasing the cellular constituents interferes with the laboratory investigations. Therefore, utmost care should be taken to avoid hemolysis when plasma or serum are used for biochemical tests. Use of dry syringes, needles and containers, allowing slow flow of blood into syringe are among the important precautions to avoid hemolysis.

PRESERVATION OF BLOOD SPECIMENS

Plasma or serum should be separated within 2 hours after blood collection. It is ideal and advisable to analyse blood, plasma or serum, immediately after the specimen collection. This however, may not be always possible. In such a case, the samples (usually plasma/serum) can be stored at 4°C until analysed. For enzyme analysis, the sample are preserved at – 20°C.

TYPES OF LABORATORY TESTS

The biochemical investigations (on blood/ plasma/serum) carried out in the clinical biochemistry laboratory may be grouped into different types.

- 1. Discretionary or on-off tests: Most common clinical biochemistry tests that are designed to answer specific questions. e.g., does the patient have increased blood urea/glucose concentration? Normally, these tests are useful to support the diagnosis.
- 2. Biochemical profiles: These tests are based on the fact that more useful information on the patients disease status can be obtained by analysing more constituents rather than one e.g., plasma electrolytes (Na+, K+, Cl-, bicarbonate, urea); liven function tests (serum bilirubin, ALT, AST).

- 3. Dynamic function tests: These tests are designed to measure the body's response to external stimulus e.g., oral glucose tolerance test (to assess glucose homeostasis): bromosulphthalein test (to assess liver function).
- 4. Screening tests: These tests are commonly employed to identify the inborn errors of metabolism, and to check the entry of toxic agents (pesticides, lead, mercury) into the body.
- Metabolic work-up tests: The programmed intensive investigations carried out to identify the endocrinological disorders come under this category.

The term *emergency tests* is frequently used in the clinical laboratory. It refers to the tests to be performed immediately to help the clinician for proper treatment of the patient e.g., blood glucose, urea, serum electrolytes.

COLLECTION OF URINE

Urine, containing the metabolic waste products of the body in water is the most important excretory fluid. For biochemical investigations, urine can be collected as a single specimen or for 24 hours. Single specimens of urine, normally collected in the morning, are useful for qualitative tests e.g., sugar, proteins. Twenty four hour urine collections (done between 8 AM to 8 AM) are employed for quantitative estimation of certain urinary constituents e.g., proteins, hormones, metabolites.

Preservatives for urine: For the collection of 24 hr urine samples, preservatives have to be used or else urine undergoes changes due to bacterial action. Hydrochloric acid, toluene, light petroleum, thymol, formalin etc., are among the common preservatives used.

CEREBROSPINAL FLUID (CSF)

CSF is a fluid of the nervous system. It is formed by a process of selective dialysis of plasma by the choroid plexuses of the ventricles of the brain. The total volume CSF is 100-200 ml.

Collection of CSF: CSF is collected by puncturing the interspace between the 3rd and the 5th lumbar vertebrae, under aseptic conditions and local anesthesia.

Biochemical investigations on CSF: Protein, glucose and chloride estimations are usually performed in the clinical biochemistry laboratory.

QUALITY CONTROL

Quality control in clinical biochemistry laboratory refers to the reliability of investigative service. Any error in the laboratory will jeopardize the lives of patients. It is therefore utmost important that the laboratory errors are identified and rectified.

Quality control comprises of four interrelated factors namely precision, accuracy, specificity and sensitivity.

Precision refers to the reproducibility of the result when the same sample is analysed on different occasions (replicate measurements) by the same person. For instance, the precision is good, if the blood glucose level is 78, 80 and 82 mg/dl on replicates.

Accuracy means the closeness of the estimated result to the true value e.g., if true blood urea level is 50 mg/dl, the laboratory reporting 45 mg/dl is more accurate than the one reporting 35 mg/dl.

Specificity refers to the ability of the analytical method to specifically determine a particular parameter e.g., glucose can be specifically estimated by enzymatic glucose oxidase method.

Sensitivity deals with the ability of a particular method to detect small amounts of the measured constituent.

METHODS OF QUALITY CONTROL

Internal quality control refers to the analysis of the same pooled sample on different days in a laboratory, the results should vary within a narrow range.

External quality control deals with the analysis of a sample received from outside, usually from a national or regional quality control centre. The results obtained are then compared.

AUTOANALYSERS IN CLINICAL CHEMISTRY

The heavy work load in the clinical biochemistry laboratory has lead to the discovery of autoanalysers. These modern equipment are useful to analyse hundreds of samples in a short time. Single channel and multi-channel machines (autoanalysers) based on the principles of either continuous or discrete analysis are available on the market.

ANALYSIS IN CLINICAL BIOCHEMISTRY LABORATORY AND REFERENCE VALUES

As already stated, clinical biochemistry laboratory is a service-oriented establishment for the benefit of patient health care. The reader may refer tools of biochemistry (*Chapter 41*) and principles of practical biochemistry (*Appendix-V*) for a brief knowledge on the principles of some of the equipment used and the laboratory investigations employed.

The details on the biochemistry of health and disease states in relation to the normal and abnormal biochemical data are described in the text of this book. For ready reference, the most common reference biochemical values are given on the inside of back cover.

Index



A-site, 558 Abasic sites, 535 Abetalipoproteinemia, 521 Abnormal hemoglobins, 202 Abzymes, 88 Acetaldehyde, 327 Acetanilide, 640 Acetohexamide, 682 Acetazolamide, 477 Acetic acid, 640, 642 Acetoacetate, 293 Acetone, 293 Acetylcholine, 149 Acetylcholine esterase, 94 Acetyl CoA, 149, 242, 252, 287, 297, 309, 381, 642 Acetyl CoA carboxylase, 147, 298 N-Acetylcysteine, 51 N-Acetylglucosamine, 24, 281 N-Acetylglutamate, 337, 369 N-Acetylneuraminic acid, 6, 18, 281 Achlorhydria, 179 Achrodextrin, 21 Acid(s), 474, 709 Acid-base balance, 474 Acid-base catalysis, 99 Acid-base disorders, 474 Acidemia, 480 Acidic amino acids, 47 Acid maltase, 266 Acid number, 34 Acidosis, 480 Acid phosphatase, 107, 113

Aconitase, 256 Acquired porphyria, 214 Acrodermaticis enteropathica, 463 Acromegaly, 434 ACTH (adrenocorticotropic hormone), 435, 678 Actin, 404, 492 Actinomycin D, 549 Active iodine, 438 Active methionine (see S-adenosylmethionine) Active site, 91 Active transport, 652 Acute glomerulonephritis, 341 Acute intermittent porphyria, 212 Acute pancreatitis, 107,179 Acute phase protiens, 186 Acute porphyria, 214 Acyladenylate, 288 Acyl carrier protein, 298 Acyl CoA, 149, 288 Acyl CoA dehydrogenase, 289 Acyl CoA synthetase, 288 Acylglycerols, 32 Adaptive enzymes, 104 Addison's disease, 411, 444 Adenine, 70, 391 Adenohypophysis, 431 Adenosine, 72, 394 Adenosine deaminase, 397 Adenosine deaminase deficiency, 397, 628 Adenosine diphosphate, 72 Adenosine monophosphate, 72, 390 Adenosine triphosphate, 72, 223, 231, 249, 290, 430

S-Adenosylmethionine, 97, 343, 359, 375, 641 Adenylate cyclase, 267, 268, 430 Adrenal cortical hormones, 441 Adrenal cortex, 441 Adrenaline (see epinephrine) Adrenal medulla, 444 Adrenocorticosteroids, 441 Adrenocorticotropic hormone (see ACTH) Adsorption, 716, 722 Aerobic dehydrogenases, 235 Aerobic glycolysis, 245 Affinity chromatography, 586, 724 Aflatoxins, 667 A/G ratio, 183, 458 Agarose gel electrophoresis, 588 Ageing, 7, 658 Aglycone, 17 Agmatine, 368 AIDS, 695 Air pollution, 663 Alanine, 45, 371 β-Alanine, 52, 371, 400 Alanine transaminase (alanine aminotransferase), 108, 112, 144, 455, 457 ALA synthase, 210 Albinism, 353, 549 Albumin, 183, 458 Albumin/globulin ratio, 185, 458 Albuminuria, 185 Alcohol, 179, 263, 327, 394, 639, 679 Alcohol dehydrogenase, 112, 327 Alcoholism, 107, 179, 322, 328 Alcohol test meal, 464

Alditols, 18

S-Adenosylhomocysteine, 359

Aromatic amino acids, 47, 345

Animal starch, 21 Aldohexoses, 10 protein biosynthesis, 553 standard, 44 Anion gap, 480 Aldolase, 107, 246, 278 structures, 44 Annealing, 594 Aldolase B, 278, 280 titration, 50 Anomers, 14 Aldopentoses, 13 Amino acid pool, 330 Anorexia nervosa, 326 Aldose, 10, 12 D-Amino acid oxidase, 334 Anterior pituitary, 432 Aldosterone, 314, 411, 442, 472 L-Amino acid oxidase, 334 Antibodies, 187, 729 Aldotetroses, 13 Aminoacyl tRNA, 554 Antibodies, monoclonal, 730 Aldotriose, 13 Aminobenzene, 640 Antibody enzymes, 88 Alimentary glycosuria, 681 p-Aminobenzoic acid, 150, 159, Anticoagulants, 191 Alkalemia, 480 390 Anticodon, 552 Alkaline phosphatase, 107, 111, Y-Aminobutyrate, 144, 369 Antidiuretic hormone, 437, 469, 112, 127, 408, 456 p-Aminohippuric acid, 461 472, 669 Alkalies, 709 β-Aminoisobutyric acid, 400 Anti egg-white injury factor, 146 Alkaline tide, 463 α-Amino β-ketoadipate, 211 Antifreeze glycoproteins, 25 Alkali reserve, 476 δ-Amino levulinic acid, 145, 210 Antigen, 729, 733 Alkaloids, 61 p-Aminophenol, 639 Antigen therapy, 631 Alkalosis, 480 Aminopeptidase, 170 Anti-inflammatory drugs, 396 Alkapton, 352 Aminopterin, 94, 152 Antimetabolites, 92 Alkaptonuria, 352 Amino sugars, 18, 280 Antimycin A, 227, 232 Allantoic acid, 394 Antioncogenes, 690 Aminotransferases Allantoin, 394 (see transaminases) Antioxidant(s), 33, 128, 132, 274, Allergy, 189 Ammonia, 335 394, 510, 658 Allograft, 736 Ammonium ions, 335, 478 Antioxidant enzymes, 659 Allopurinol, 94, 396 Antioxidant system, 659 Ammonium sulfate, 60 Allosteric enzymes, 101 Antioxidant vitamins, 659 Ammoniotelic, 336 Allosteric effectors, 101, 200 Antipernicious anemia vitamin, Amniotic fluid, 498 Allosteric regulation, 95, 100, 266 152 AMP (see adenosine Allosteric site(s), 101 Antiport system, 653 monophosphate) Alloxanthine, 396 Antiproteinase, 185 Amphibolism, 241 Alpha fetoprotein, 691 Antisense therapy, 631 Amphipathic lipids, 39, 650 Alport syndrome, 489 Antisterility vitamin, 128 Amphipathic pathways, 257 Antithyroid drugs, 438 Alu sequences, 534 Ampholytes, 709 Alzheimer's disease, 495, 561 α,-Antitrypsin, 183, 185 Amylase, 21, 107, 166, 179 Antivitamins, 93, 159 α-Amanitin, 549 Amylodextrin, 21 Apoenzyme, 87 Ames assay, 686 Amyloidosis, 189, 495 Apoferritin, 415 Amethopterin, 152 Amyloid proteins, 495 Apolipoproteins (apoproteins), 318 Amino acid(s) Amylose, 20 Apoptosis, 8, 691 absorption, 171 Amylopectin, 20 Apurinic sites, 535 activation, 554 Amytol, 227 as drugs, 51 Aqueous humor, 499 Anabolism, 242 biosynthesis, 324 Arabinosyl adenine, 73 Anaerobic dehydrogenases, 236 chemical reactions, 50, 61 Arabinosyl cytosine, 73 Anaerobic glycolysis, 249 classification, 44 Arachidonic acid, 31, 509, 645 Anaphylaxis, 648 decarboxylation, 96, 375 Argentaffinomas, 356 essential, 48 Anaplerosis, 257 Arginase, 339 glycogenic, 48, 372 Anderson's disease, 269 Arginine, 48, 336, 339, inborn errors, 374, 376 Androgens, 446 Arginosuccinase, 339 ketogenic, 48, 373 Anemia, 201, 416 Arginosuccinate, 337 metabolism, 330 Aneuploidy, 741 non-protein, 51 Arginosuccinic aciduria, 340 Angiotensin, 66 non-standard, 51 Aromatic aminoacid decarboxylase, Angiotensinogen, 472 optical isomers, 44 350 properties, 49 Aniline, 639

Arsenate, 246 Arsenite, 256 Arthritis, 7, 352, 394, 647 Ascorbic acid, 18, 132, 275, 414 Asparaginase, 106, 371 Asparagine, 46, 370 Aspartame, 67 Aspartate transaminase (aspartate aminotransferase), 107, 112, 144, 455 Aspartate transcarbamoylase, 102, Aspartic acid (aspartate), 46, 337, 370 Aspirin, 640, 646 Asymmetric carbon, 44, 706 Atherosclerosis, 316, 326 ATP (see adenosine triphosphate) ATP-ADP cycle, 223 ATPase, 230 ATP synthase, 230 Atractyloside, 234 Atrial natriuretic peptides, 472 Atropine, 640 Augmentation histamine test, 464 Autoantibodies, 736 Autograft, 736 Autoimmune diseases, 736 Autoimmunity, 736 Automated DNA sequencer, 591 Autoradiography, 589, 718 Autosomal dominant inheritance, 739 Autosomal recessive inheritance, 740 Autosomes, 739 Avidin, 146, 667 8-Azaguanine, 73 Azathioprine, 73 Azotemia, 341 Azure-A-resin, 465

B

Bacteriophages, 583 Bad cholesterol, 316 Balanced diet, 514 Barbiturates, 641 Barfoed's test, 16 Basal acid output, 464

Basal metabolic rate, 504 Basal metabolism, 504 Base (s), 474, 709 Base excision repair, 537 Basic amino acids, 47 Beer-Lambert law, 726 Bence-Jones proteins, 189 Benedict's test, 16 Benedict-Roth apparatus, 504 Bent DNA, 76 Benzaldehyde, 639 Benzene, 639 Benzoic acid, 342, 639 Benzyl alcohol, 639 Bergstrom theory, 175 Beri-beri, 136 Betaine, 324 Bicarbonate buffer, 475 Bifunctional enzyme(s), 250, 265, 398 Biguanides, 682 Bile, 173 Bile acids, 173, 313 Bile pigments, 214, 454 Bile salts, 173, 313 Bilirubin, 215, 454, 641 Bilirubin diglucuronide, 216, 641 Bilirubin glucuronyltransferase, 216 Bilirubin metabolism, 217 Biliverdin, 214 Biliverdin reductase, 215 Binding change model, 231 Biocatalyst, 85 Biocytin, 146 Bioenergetics, 221 Bioflavonoids, 159 Biogenic amines, 375, 667 Bioinformatics, 634 Biological databases, 636 Biological oxidation, 221 Biological value of proteins, 512 Biomembranes, 650 Biopterin, 345, 356 Biotin, 146, 259, 292, 298 Biotransformation, 638 1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate, 247 2,3-Bisphosphoglycerate, 200, 251 Bisphosphoglycerate mutase, 251 Biuret reaction, 61 Bitot's spots, 123 Blood buffers, 475 Blood clotting, 190

Blood gas analysis, 484 Blood group antigens, 26 Blood pH, 474 Blood urea nitrogen, 341 Blotting techniques, 587 B-Lymphocytes, 733 Body fluids, 496 BMR (see basal metabolic rate), Body mass index, 325 Bohr effect, 199 Bone marrow cells Bovine spongiform encephalopathy, 495 Bowman's capsule, 459 Bradshaws test, 189 Bradykinin, 67 Branched chain amino acids, 45, 363 Branched chain a-keto acid dehydrogenase, 135, 365 Branched chain ketonuria, 365 Brig's-Haldane's constant, 88 British antilewisite, 227, 642 Broad beta disease, 321 Bromosulphthalein test, 455 Bronze diabetes, 416 Brown adipose tissue, 233, 326 Brownian movement, 712 Buffering capacity, 711 Buffers, 475, 710 Buffer systems of blood, 475 Burkitt's lymphoma, 688 Burning feet syndrome, 150 Butyric acid, 30



CAAT box, 547
Cachexia, 326
Cadaverine, 638
Cadmium, 403
Caffeine, 71,
Calcidiol, 125
Calciol, 125
Calcitonin, 407
Calcitriol, 125, 407, 459
Calcium, 125, 268, 404
Calcium binding protein, 125
Calmodulin, 268, 405

Caloric requirements (see energy Cardiac glycosides, 18 Chargaff's rule, 73, 79 requirements) Cardiac troponins, 112 Chaulmoogric acid, 31 Calorie, 503 Cardiolipin, 36, 303 Chemical carcinogens, 686 Calorific value of foodstuffs, 503 Cardiomegaly, 412 Chemical coupling, 229 Calorigenic action, 505 Carnitine, 288, 368 Chemical messengers, 427 cAMP (see cyclic AMP) Carnitine acyltransferase, 288 Chemical score, 512 Cancer, 539, 685 β-Carotene, 119, 123, 659 Cheilosis, 138 antioncogenes, 690 B-Carotene dioxygenase, 119 Chemiosmotic hypothesis, 229 carcinogenesis, hypothesis, 691 Carotenoids, 122, 659 Chenodeoxycholic acid, 313 chemical carcinogens, 686 Casein, 60, 65 Chimeric DNA, 579 environmental factors, 686 Catabolism, 241 Chiral, 706 etiology, 685 Catabolite gene activator protein, Chitin, 22 free radicals, 658 569 glycolysis, 249 Chloral, 639 Catalase, 236, 292, 394, 659 incidence, 685 Chloramphenicol, 560 Catalyst, 85 malignant, 685 Chloride shift, 476 metastasis, 685, 693 Catalytic RNAs, 105 Chlorine, 413 molecular basis, 687 Catalytic site, 92 Chlorophyll, 152, 293 oncogenes, 687 Cataract, 277, 658 Cholecalciferol, 124 phototherapy, 208 Catechins, 660 Cholecystokinin, 170, 450 suppressor genes, 690 Catechol, 349, 445, 639 Cholelithiasis, 314 tumor markers, 691 Catecholamine(s), 144, 349, 445 viruses, 687 Cholera, 473 Catechol-O-methyltransferase, 445 Candidate hormones, 458 Cholesterol, Cathepsin, 7 absorption, 176 Carbamoyl aspartate, 102 CD4 cells, 697 biomedical importance, 315 Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I, CDP (see cytidine diphosphate) biosynthesis, 309 CDP-choline, 303 degradation, 313 Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase II, effect of drugs, 316 CDP-ethanolamine, 303 398 functions, 309 Celera Genomics, 619 Carbidopa, 351 nutrition, 510 Cell Carbohydrate(s), structure, 38 cycle, 530 chemistry, 9 transport, 314 enzyme distribution, 103 classification, 9 Cholesterol esterase, 174 structure, 3 definition, 9 Cholesterol ester transfer protein, membrane, 650 digestion and absorption, 166 319 Cell cycle and cancer, 530 functions, 9, 507 Cholesterol stones, 178 Cell-mediated immunity, 734 Cholesteryl ester, 174 metabolism, 244 Cellobiose, 19, 22 nutritional importance, 506 Cholestyramine, 316 Cellulose, 22, 508 Cholic acid, 313 Carbon dioxide in pH regulation, Central dogma of life, 69, 523 479 Choline, 34, 156, 324 Centrifugation, 728 Carbon dioxide transport, 199 Chondroitin sulphates, 24 Cephalin, 36, 303 Carbonic acid, 199, 476 Christmas disease, 193 Ceramide, 36 Carbonic anhydrase, 199, 476 Christmas factor, 191 Cerebral edema, 714 Carbon monoxide, 202, 227, 232 Chromane ring, 128 Cerebrocuprein, 417 Carbon tetrachloride, 323 Cerebrohepatorenal syndrome, 293 Chromatin, 79 Carboxybiotin, 147 Chromatography, 720 Cerebronic acid, 37 y-Carboxyglutamate, 130 Chromium, 422 Cerebrosides, 37, 307 Carboxyhemoglobin, 202 Chromoproteins, 65 Cerebrospinal fluid, 497 Carboxylation, 147, 389 Chromosomal recombination, 532 Ceruloplasmin, 109, 186, 415, Carboxypeptidase, 171 417 Chromosomal translocation, 688 Carcinoembryonic antigen, 691 cGMP (see cyclic GMP) Chromosomes, 6, 79, 528, 688 Carcinogenesis, 686, 691 Chain isomerism, 705 Chylomicrons, 176, 317 Carcinogenic viruses, 687 Chaperones, 560 Chymotrypsin, 170 Carcinogens, 686 Chaperonin, 561 Chymotrypsinogen, 170

Circadian rhythms, 358 Cirrhosis, 322, 458 Cistron, 567 Citrate, 254 Citrate synthase, 254 Citric acid cycle, 254, 381 Citrovorum factor, 151 Citrulline, 337, 366 Citrullinemia, 340 Clathrin, 320, 654 Clearance tests, 460 Clone, 584 Cloning, 584 Clofibrate, 293, 316 Clotting of blood, 190 Clotting factors, 130, 190, 369 Clotting time, 131 CMP (see cytidine monophosphate) Coagulated proteins, 65 Coagulation, 62 Coagulation factors, 191 Coated pits, 654 Cobalamin, 152, 292, 420 Cobalt, 152, 420 Cocarboxylase, 135 Coding strand, 543 Codon, 551 Coenzyme A. 148 Coenzyme Q, 228 Coenzymes, 87, 96 Coenzymes of B-complex vitamins, 97 Colchicine, 396 Colestipol, 316 Colipase, 174 Collagen, 64, 132, 487 Collagenase, 407 Colloids, 711 Colorimeter, 726 Colour vision, 122 Committed step, 250, 389, 398 Common cold, 134 Compactin, 312 Competitive inhibition, 92 Competitive inhibitors, 94 Complementary bases, 75 Complementary DNA, 550, 588 Complement system, 734 Computational biology, 634 Congenital erythropoietic porphyria, 213

Conjugated proteins, 64

Conjugation, 313, 342, 640 Connective tissue proteins, 487 Constitutive enzymes, 104 Constitutive genes, 567 Contact inhibition, 406, 692 Contaminant, 663 Contractile proteins, 63, 490 Copper, 91, 416 Copper coordinated complex, 61 Coprophagy, 117 Coproporphyrin, 208 Coproporphyrinogen, 209 Cori cycle, 261 Cori's disease, 269 Coronary heart diseases, 316, 326, 649 Corpus luteum, 449 Corrin ring, 152 Corticosteroids, 442, 647 Corticosterone, 442 Corticotropin releasing hormone, 431 Cortisol, 314, 441 Cortisone, 442 Cosmids, 583 C-peptide, 670 Cosubstrate, 96 Cotransport systems, 653 Covalent bonds, 58 Covalent modifications, 562 Crabtree effect, 251 Creatine, 342 Creatine phosphate, 224, 344 Creatine phosphokinase, 107, 111, 112 Creatinine, 344 Creatinine clearance test, 461 Creatinine coefficient, 344 Creatinuria, 344 C-reactive protein, 186 Crenation, 713 Cretinism, 441 Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease, 495 Criggler-Najjar syndrome, 218 Cristae, 6, 226 Curcuminoids, 660 Curie, 717 Cushing's syndrome, 412, 444 Cutaneous hepatic porphyria, 213 Cyanide, 227, 233, 642 Cyanide poisoning, 233

Cyanocobalamin, 153

Cyanogen bromide, 55 Cyclic AMP, 250 Cyclic GMP, 121, 266, 287, 430 Cyclins, 530 Cyclooxygenase pathway, 645 Cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene. 37 Cystathionine, 145, 361 Cysteine, 46, 360, 641 Cystic fibrosis, 626 Cystine, 46, 58, 374 Cystine-lysinuria, 361 Cystine reductase, 361 Cystine storage disease, 361 Cystinuria, 361 Cystinosis, 361 Cytidine, 72 Cytidine diphosphate, 97 Cytidine monophosphate, 72 Cytidine triphosphate, 102, 303, 398 Cytochalasin B, 172 Cytochromes, 228, 414 Cytochrome oxidase, 228 Cytochrome P₄₅₀, 210, 274, 293, 639 Cytogenetic map, 620 Cytokines, 735 Cytosine, 70 Cytoskeleton, 8 Cytosol, 8



Dansyl chloride, 55
Dark adaptation, 121
Davson and Danielle model, 650
DEAE Cellulose, 723
Deamination, 145, 334
Debranching enzyme, 265
Decarboxylation, 144, 375
Degeneracy (of genetic code), 551
Dehydratase, 335
Dehydration, 472
Dehydration in cholera, 473
Dehydroascorbic acid, 132
7-Dehydrocholesterol, 124, 310
Dehydrogenases, 235

Deiodinase, 439 Denaturation, 61, 78, 90 Dental caries, 420 Dental fluorosis, 420 Deoxyadenosine, 72 5-Deoxyadenosylcobalamin, 153, 155 Deoxyadenylate (dAMP), 73 Deoxycholic acid, 313 Deoxycytidylate (dCMP), 73 Deoxyguanylate (dGMP), 73 Deoxyhemoglobin, 201, 204 Deoxyribonucleases, 179 Deoxyribonucleic acid (see DNA) Deoxyribonucleosides, 71 Deoxyribonucleotides, 72, 387, 392 Deoxyribose, 71 Deoxysugars, 18 Deoxythymidylate phosphate, 73 Derepression, 567 Dermatan sulfate, 24 Dermatitis, 141 Derived lipids, 29 Derived proteins, 65 Desamido-NAD+, 140 Desaturase, 301 Detoxification, 274, 342, 454, 638 Deuterium, 717 Dextrins, 21 Dextrorotatory, 10, 706 Dextrose, 12 Diabetes insipidus, 437, 469, 669 Diabetes mellitus blood glucose, 669, 674 classification, 679 hemoglobin A1c, 683 insulin-dependent, 679 management, 682 metabolic acidosis, 481 metabolic changes, 681 non-insulin dependent, 679 sorbitol pathway, 279 Diabetic ketoacidosis, 481, 682 Diacetyl monoxime, 340 Diacylglycerol, 303 Diagnex blue, 465 Diagnostic enzymes, 106 Diaminobenzidine, 730 Diastereomers, 13 Dicarboxylic monoamino acids, 47 Dicumarol, 94, 130 Dictyosomes, 6

Dideoxynucleotide, 590 Diffusion, 712 Digestion and absorption of carbohydrates, 166 of lipids, 173 of nucleic acids, 178 of proteins, 169 Dihydrobiopterin, 346, 350 Dihydrofolate reductase, 150, 152, 575 Dihydroorotase, 399 Dihydroorotate, 399 Dihydrotestosterone, 446 Dihydroxyacetone phosphate, 246 1,25-Dihydroxycholecalciferol, 124, 407 24,25-Dihydroxycholecalciferol, Diisopropyl fluorophosphate, 95, 640 Dimethylallyl pyrophosphate, 310 Dimethyl selenide, 422 Dinitrocresol, 233 2,4-Dinitrophenol, 233 Diketo L-gulonic acid, 135 Diodrast, 461 Dioxygenases, 236 Dipalmitoyl lecithin, 36, 716 Dipeptidases, 171 Diphosphatidyl glycerol, 303 Dipolar ions, 49, 60 Diptheria toxin, 560 Disaccharidases, 167 Disaccharides, 10, 18 Dissociation constant, 710 Disulfide bonds, 58 Disulfiram, 95, 327 Diurnal variations, 358 DNA amplification, 594 chips, 593 composition, 73 damage and repair, 534 finger printing, 602 helicase, 525 hybridization, 599 isolation and purification, 585 libraries, 597 ligase, 526 methylation, 572 polymerase III, 525

polymerases, 527

probes, 597

Didanosine, 699

profiling, 602 recombination, 532 repair, 537 sequencing, 589 structure, 73 topoisomerases, 527 types, 76 vaccines, 610 dna A, 524 Dolichols, 310 Domains, 58, 398 Donnan membrane equilibrium, 712, 714 DOPA (dihydroxyphenylalanine), Dopamine, 349 Dopaquinone, 348 Dot-blotting, 589 Double helix, 74 Double reciprocal plot, 89 Double-strand break repair, 539 Douglas bag method, 504 Down's syndrome, 741 Du Bois and Du Bois formula, 504 Duchenne muscular dystrophy, 626 Dulcitol, 16, 277 Duodenal ulcer, 179 Dyslipidemias, 321 Dystrophin, 494

E

ECoRI, 580 Edman's reagent, 56 Edward's syndrome, 741 Ehlers-Danlos syndrome, 489 Eicosanoids, 32, 644 Eicosapentanoic acid, 649 Elaidic acid, 31 Elastins, 64, 689 Electrolyte balance, 470 Electron transport chain, components, 226 inhibitors, 232 in prokaryotes, 236 organization, 225 oxiditive phosphorylation, 228 sites of ATP synthesis, 227 Electrophoresis, 724

Extracellular matrix, 487 inhibition, allosteric, 95, 100 a membedons 206 inhibition, competitive, 92 Extrinsic factor of Castle, 153 m parma proteins, 182 inhibition, irreversible, 94 poproteins, 317 Extrinsic pathway (of blood inhibition, non-competitive, 93 coagulation), 191 inhibition, reversible, 92 584 584 Ex vivo gene therapy, 627 intracellular, 86 Branch bonds, 59 kinetics, 88 # ezmelinked K., value, 88, 92 minurosorbant assay), 729 mechanism of action, 98 Him aucr factors, 557 monomeric, 87 - Veverhof pathway, 245 oligomeric, 87 <u>=</u>-тот честа, 185 specificity, 95 Emus Scation of lipids, 173 substrate complex, 98 Fab fragment, 187 therapeutic agents, 105 Emulsions, 40, 712 Facilitated diffusion, 651 units, 104 Enantromers, 13 Vmax, 88, 92 FAD, 137, 139, 225, 252, 335 Encocytosis, 172, 654 Epidermal growth factor, 688 Familial hypercholesterolemia, 626 Endopeptidases, 170 Epidermolysis bullosa, 489 Farber's disease, 307 Endoplasmic reticulum, 6 Epimerases, 12 Farnesyl pyrophosphate, 310 Endorphins, 436 Epimers, 12 Fat(s) Endothelium derived releasing Epinephrine, 144, 267, 287, 349, chemistry, 32 factor, 367 444, 678 digestion and absoprtion, 174 End product inhibition, 102 nutrition, 509 Epoxide, 131 Enediols, 15 Fat soluble vitamins, 118 Epstein-Barr virus, 687 Energy metabolism, 242 Fatty acid(s) Ergocalciferol, 124 Energy requirements, 506 activation, 288 Ergosterol, 38 Engine driving model, 231 deficiency, 31 Erythrodextrin, 21 Enhancers, 547, 572 elongation, 302 Erythromycin, 560 Enkephalin, 67, 436, 450 essential, 31 Erythropoietic protoporphyria, 214 isomerism, 31 Enolase, 248 Erythropoietin, 420, 459 nomenclature, 29 Enolization, 15 Erythrose, 13 oxidation, 287, 381 Enteroglucagon, 450 peroxidation, 33, 128, 656 Essential amino acids, 48, 511 Enterohepatic circulation, 314 polyunsaturated, 31, 128, 316, Essential fatty acids, 31, 509 Enteropeptidase, 171 509 Essential fructosuria, 280 Enterokinase, 171 saturated, 29 Essential pentosuria, 276 Enthalpy, 221 synthesis, 147, 297 Estradiol, 314, 447 unsaturated, 29, 292 Entropy, 221 Estriol, 447 Environmental biochemistry, 662 Fatty acid synthase, 298 Estrogens, 314, 442, 446 Fatty liver, 322 Enzyme(s), Ethanol, 263, 327, 639 active site, 91 Favism, 275 Ethanolamine, 36, 303 adaptive, 104 Fc fragment, 187 affinity, 89 Ethereal sulphate, 414 Feedback inhibition, 102, 389, analytical reagents, 106 Ethics and human genome, 624 classification, 86 Ethylene, 360 Feedback regulation, 102, 312, clinical (diagnostic) Eugenics, 741 392 importance, 166 Eukaryotes, 4, 546 Fehling's test, 16 commission (EC), 87 Eutrophication, 665 Ferritin, 415 compartmentation, 103 Exergonic reaction, 221 constitutive, 104 Ferrochelatase, 210 effect of activators, 91 Exit site, 558 Ferroxidase, 415 effect of pH, 90 Exocytosis, 654 Fetal hemoglobin, 197, 201 effect of substrate, 88 Exons, 548 Fetal lung maturity, 498 effect of temperature, 90 Exopeptidases, 170 Fetal maturity, 498 extracellular, 86 Extracellular enzymes, 86 α-Fetoprotein, 691 immobilized, 106 Extracellular fluid, 468 Fiber, 22, 168, 316, 508 induction and repression, 104

Gastric ulcers, 179 Fructosamine, 683 Fibrillin, 489 Fructosan, 20 Fibrin, 190 Fructose 14, 21, 168, 278 Fibrin monomer, 190 Fructose 1.6-bisphosphatase, 261 Fibrinogen, 190 Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate, 246, Fibrinolysis, 192, 327 261 Fibronectin, 489 Fructose 2,6-bisphosphate, 250 Fibrinopeptides, 190 Fructose 6-phosphate, 246 Fibrous proteins, 64 Fructose intolerance, 280 Fischer projections, 13 Fructosuria, essential, 280 Fischer's short hand models, 209 FSH (see follicle stimulating Fischer's template theory, 98 hormone) Flame photometer, 727 Fucose, 26 Flatulence, 169 Fumarase, 256 Flavin adenine dinucleotide Fumaric acid, 706 (see FAD) Furnarate, 256, 339 Flavin mononucleotide (see FMN) Functional isomerism, 705 Flavoproteins, 137, 227 Furanose, 14 Flocculation, 62 Furfural, 17 Fluid mosaic model, 650 Futile cycles, 268 Fluoridation, 421 Fluoride, 248, 420 Fluorine, 420 Fluoroacetate, 257, 420 Fluorometer, 727 Fluorosis, 420 5-Fluorouracil, 73 Gabapentin, 51 FMN, 137, 139, 227, 334 G-proteins, 430 Folacin, 153 G-quartets, 77 Folate conjugase, 150 👺 G-tetraplex, 77 Folate trap, 156 GABA shunt, 370 Folic acid (folate), 150 Galactitol, 277 Folinic acid, 151 Galactocerebroside, 307 Follicle stimulating hormone, 434, Galactoflavin, 138 449 Galactokinase, 277 Follicular phase, 449 Galactosamine, 280 Food allergy, 172 Galactose, 12, 276 Forbe's disease, 269 Galactosemia, 277 Formaldehyde, 638 Galactose 1-phosphate Formimino glutamic acid, 152, uridyltransferase, 277 366 Galactose tolerance test, 457 N-Formylmethionine, 557 β-Galactosidase, 167, 276, 308, Fouchets test, 455 568 Four-stranded DNA, 77 Galactosuria, 277 Fractional test meal, 464 Gall stones, 178, 314 Fragility test, 713 Ganciclovir, 630 Frame shift mutations, 536, 553 Gangliosides, 37, 308 Frederickson's classification, 321 Gas-liquid chromatography, 721 Free energy, 221 Gastric function tests, 463 Free radicals, 66, 422, 510, 655, Gastric HCl, 170, 463 Gastric inhibitory polypeptide, 450 Friedewald formula, 315 Gastric juice, 170 Fructokinase, 278, 280 Gastric lipase, 173

Gastrin, 450, 463 Gastrointestinal hormones, 67, 450, 672 Gastrointestinal tract, 165 Gaucher's disease, 308 Geiger counters, 717 Gelatin, 65 Gel electrophoresis, 725 Gel-filtration chromatography, 724 amplification, 574, 688 chip, 600 constitutive, 567 expression, 571 inducible, 567 library, 597 mutations, 535 rearrangement, 575 regulation of expression, 566 therapy, 625 Gene augmentation, 625 Gene augmentation therapy, 625 Gene cloning, 578 Gene delivery by viruses, 629 Gene family, 202 Gene inhibition therapy, 625 Gene libraries, 596 Gene linkage map, 620 Gene therapy, 625 Genetic code, 551 Genetic engineering, 578, 585 Genetic immunization, 609 Genetics, 737 Genome, 542, 619 Genomic library, 596 Genu valgum, 421 Geometric isomerism, 31, 706 Geranyl pyrophosphate, 311 Germ cell gene therapy, 625 Gibbs-Thomson principle, 716 Gigantism, 434 Gilbert's disease, 219 Glibenclamide, 682 Globin(s), 64, 196, 202 Globular protein, 64 Globulins, 64, 185 Glomerular filtration rate, 459 Glomerulus, 459 Glossitis, 138 Glucagon, 262, 267, 288, 312, 674, 678 Glucan, 20

Glucocorticoids, 312, 441, 678 Glucogenic amino acids, 48, 261, 372 Glucokinase, 246 Gluconeogenesis, 147, 258, 381, 675 Gluconic acid, 16 Glucosamine, 280 Glucosan, 20 Glucose absorption, 168 alanine cycle, 262 blood level, 244, 674 homeostasis, 674 insulin secretion, 670 metabolism, 244 monitor-liver, 244 structure, 13 tolerance test, 679 uptake by tissues, 671 Glucose 6-phosphatase, 261, 266, 269, 395 Glucose 6-phosphate, 246, 266, 271 Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase, 109, 271, 274 Glucose transporters, 245 β-Glucosidase, 308 Glucosuria (see glycosuria) Glucuronic acid, 16, 275, 640 β-Glucuronidase, 216 Glucovanillin, 18 Glutamate dehydrogenase, 274, Glutamic acid (glutamate), 46, 150, 333, 365, 369, 479 Glutaminase, 336, 369, 479 Glutamine, 336, 369, 398, 479, 641 Glutamine synthetase, 336 -Glutamyl cycle, 66, 172 -Glutamyi transpeptidase, 107, 113, 454 Clutaric acid, 92 Clutathione, 65, 172, 342, 369, 641 Turantione peroxidase, 274, 422, 659 reductase, 138, 274, 396, 659

Cilutelins, 64

Chicars, 20

Dwated hemoglobin

a cos, ated hemoglobin)

Glyceraldehyde, 10, 44, 707 Glycemic index, 507 Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase, 246, 252 Glycerol, 32, 259, 287 Glycerokinase, 287 Glycerol-phosphate shuttle, 234 Glycerophospholipids, 29, 34 Glycine, 45, 210, 341, 641 Glycinuria, 344 Glycine oxidase, 343 Glycocalyx, 650 Glycocholic acid, 173, 313, 641 Glycine synthase, 342 Glycogen, 21, 263, 382 Glycogenesis, 263 Glycogenin, 264 Glycogenic amino acids, 48 (see glucogenic amino acids) Glycogenolysis, 265, 675 Glycogen phosphorylase, 103, 145,265 Glycogen storage diseases, 269 Glycogen synthase, 264 Glycolipids, 29, 37, 307 Glycolysis, 245, 381 Glycoprotein hormones, 434 Glycoproteins, 25, 64, 190 Glycosaminoglycans, 22, 281 Glycosidases, 166 Glycosides, 17 Glycosidic bonds, 17 Glycosphingolipids, 37 Glycosuria, 674, 681 Glycosylated hemoglobin, 197, 683 Glycosylation, 562 Glyoxylate cycle, 281 Glyoxysomes, 7, 282 Gmelin's test, 455 Goiter, 418, 440 Goitrogens, 440, 667 Golgi apparatus, 6 Gonadal hormones, 445 Gonadotropin releasing hormone, 431 Gonadotropins, 434 Good cholesterol, 316 Gramicidin, 67 Gratuitous inducers, 568 Gout, 394, 396

Gouty arthritis, 270, 394

Grave's disease, 440 Growth factors, 689 Growth hormone, 433, 678 Growth hormone releasing hormone, 431 Guanidoacetate, 343 Guanine, 70, 391 Guanosine, 72, 393 diphosphate, (GDP), 391 monophosphate (GMP), 390 triphosphate (GTP), 391 L-Gulonate, 275 L-Gulonolactone, 276 L-Gulonolactone oxidase, 132, 275 Gusten, 419 Guthrie test, 352 Gyrase, 528



Hagemen factor, 191 Hair waving, 490 Half-maximal velocity, 89 Hapten, 729 Haptoglobin, 185 Hartnup's disease, 173, 358 HAT medium, 731 Haworth projections, 15 Hay's test, 716 Heat shock protein, 560 Heat stroke, 663 Heat syncope, 663 Heavy meromyosin, 493 Helicobacter pylori, 179 α-Helix, 56 Helix-loop-helix motif, 574 Helix-turn-helix motif, 573 Hematocrit, 182 Heme, 197, 210, 214, 342, 414 Heme oxygenase, 214 Heme synthase, 210 Hemicellulose, 508 Hemin, 210 Hemochromatosis, 416 Hemocuprein, 417 Hemocyanin, 417 Hemoglobin(s) abnormal, 202

as buffer, 476

Hemoglobin(s) contd. High-energy phosphates, 223 Human artificial chromosome, 583 biochemical functions, 197 High performance liquid Human body composition, 4 CO2 transport, 199 chromatography, 624 Human chorionic gonadotropin, derivatives, 202 Hippuric acid, 342, 458 glycated, 683 Hirudin, 599 Human genome project, 619 O2 transport, 198 Human leukocyte antigen, 734 Histamine, 144, 366, 377, 464 oxygen dissociation curve, 200 Humoral immunity, 733 Histamine stimulation test, 464 structure, 196 Humulin, 608 T and R forms, 198 Histidase, 335, 366 Hurler's syndrome, 281 types, 197 Histidine, 46, 366 Hunters syndrome, 281 Hemoglobin A_{1c}, 197 Histidinemia, 366 Hvaluronic acid, 23 Hemoglobin C, 206 Histone acetylation, 571 Hyaluronidase, 24 Hemoglobin D, 206 Histones, 64, 79 Hybrid enzymes, 87 HIV (human immunodeficiency Hemoglobin E, 206 Hybridoma technology, 730 virus), 695 Hemoglobin H disease, 207 Hydrochloric acid, 170 HMG CoA, 294, 310 Hemoglobinopathies, 203 Hydrogen bonds, 58, 75 HMG CoA reductase, 102, 312 Hemolysis, 275, 714 Hydrogen ion concentration, 710 Hogness box, 546 Hemolytic jaundice, 216, 457 Hydrogen peroxide, 236, 394, 655 Hollander's test, 465 Hemophilia, 193 Hydrolases, 7, 87, 170 Holliday model, 532 Hemoproteins, 414 Hydrolysis, 640 Holoenzyme, 87 Hemosiderin, 415 Hydroperoxidases, 236 Homeostasis of plasma calcium, Hemosiderosis, 416 Hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid, Hemostasis, 190 648 Homeostasis of blood glucose, 674 Henderson-Hasselbach equation, Hydrophobic bonds, 58 Homocyclic rings, 703 475 Hydrops fetalis, 207 Homocysteine, 154, 360 Heparin, 24, 191 Hydroxyapatite, 404, 420 Homocysteine methyltransferase, Hepatic jaundice, 217, 457 B-Hydroxy butyrate, 294 156 Hepatitis, 107 25-Hydroxycholecalciferol, 125 Homocystinuria(s), 362 Hepatitis B, 609 6-Hydroxychromane, 128 Homogentisate, 346, 352 Hepatitis B vaccine, 609 Hydroxycobalamin, 153 Homogentisate oxidase, 352 Hepatocuprein, 417 5-Hydroxy indole acetate, 358 Homologous recombination, 532 Hepatoflavin, 137 Hydroxylysine, 132 Homopolysaccharides, 10, 20 Hepatolenticular degeneration, 417 B-Hydroxy B-methyglutaryl CoA, Homoserine, 52, 145 Heptose, 11 (see HMG CoA) Hoogsteen hydrogen bonds, 76 Hereditary coproporphyria, 214 Hydroxyproline, 132 Hopkins-Cole test, 61 Hereditary fructose intolerance, 17-Hydroxysteroids, 444 Hormone(s), 427 280 5-Hydroxytryptamine (see serotonin) adrenal cortex, 441 Heredity, 738 Hyperammonemia, 336 adrenal medulla, 444 Her's disease, 269 Hyperargininemia, 366 anterior pituitary, 432 Heterocyclic rings, 704 Hyperbetalipoproteinemia, 320 classification, 427 Heteroduplex DNA, 533 Hyperbilirubinemic toxic gastrointestinal, 449 encephalopathy, 218 Heterogeneous nuclear RNA, 81, gonads, 445 547 hypothalamic, 431 Hypercalcemia, 408 mechanism of action, 428 Heteropolysaccharides, 10, 20, 22 Hypercholesterolemia, 315 ovarian, 446 Hexose monophosphate shunt, Hyperchloremia, 413 pancreatic, 670, 674 270, 381 Hyperglycemia, 669, 674, 681 posterior pituitary, 437 Hexokinase, 246, 250 Hyperhomocysteinemia, 152 receptors, 428 Hexoses, 11 Hyperkalemia, 412 second messengers, 430 HGPRTase, 391, 396 Hyperlipidemia, 269, 321 thyroid, 437 High density lipoproteins Hyperlipoproteinemias, 142, 321 vitamin D, 127 (see HDL) Hormone sensitive lipase, 287 Hypernatremia, 411 High-energy bonds, 223 Host cells in cloning, 581 Hyperoxaluria, 344 High-energy compounds, 222 Hyperparathyroidism, 408 House keeping genes, 567

INDEX 783

Hyperprolinemia, 366 Hyperproteinemia, 471 Hypertonic solution, 713 Hyperthyroidism, 440 Hypertriglyceridemia, 682 Hyperuricemia, 270, 394 micervalinemia, 366 - pervitaminosis A, 123 Hypervitaminosis D, 128 Hypoalbuminemia, 714 Hypobetalipoproteinemia, 321 Hypocalcemia, 408 Hypocholesterolemia, 317 Hypochloremia, 413 Hypoglycemia, 269, 465, 674, 678 Hypoglycin A, 291 Hypokalemia, 412 Hypolipoproteinemias, 321 Hyponatremia, 411 Hypoparathyroidism, 408 Hypopigmentation, 353 Hypothyroidism, 316, 441 Hypotonic solution, 713 Hypouricemia, 398 Hypoxanthine, 71, 391 Hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase (see HGPRTase) Hypoxia, 201 Hypoxia-inducible transcription factor, 250

I

Icterus index, 454
IDDM (insulin dependent diabetes mellitus), 679
Imidazole group, 46, 146
Imino acids, 48
Immune system, 733
Immunity, 732
Immunodeficiency, 697
Immunoelectrophoresis, 725
Immunoglobulins, 186, 575
Immunology, 732
Immunosuppression, 698
IMP (see inosine monophosphate)
Inborn errors of amino acids, 376
Indole ring, 47, 354

Induced fit theory, 98 Inducible enzymes, 104 Inducible genes, 567 Infantile beri-beri, 137 Initiation codons, 551 Initiation factor(s) of DNA synthesis, 524 of protein synthesis, 555 of transcription, 544 Inorganic pollutants, 666 Inosine, 201, 393 Inosine monophosphate, 389 Inositol, 19, 35, 157 Insecticides, 210 Insulin blood glucose regulation, 676 deficiency, 679 glucose transport, 673 history, 669 mechanism of action, 672 metabolic effects, 671 receptors, 672 recombinant, 607 resistance, 679 structure, 59, 670 synthesis, 670 Insulinase, 671 Insulin like growth factor, 434 Insulin test meal, 465 Interferon, 609 Intergenic DNA, 623 Interleukin, 735 Intermediary metabolism, 242 International Union of Biochemistry, 86 International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium, 619 Intermediate density lipoproteins, 321 Internet, 635 Intracellular fluid, 468 Intracellular enzymes, 86 Intrinsic factor, 153 Intrinsic pathway, 190 Introns, 548 Inulin, 21, 461 Inulin clearance, 461 Invertase, 20 Invert sugar, 20 lodide, 438 In vivo gene therapy, 628 Iodine, 418, 438 lodine number, 33

Iodoacetate, 246

lodothyroglobulin, 418 Ion-exchange chromatography, 723 Ionophores, 233 Iproniazid, 356 Iron, 133, 414 Iron-sulfur proteins, 227 Islets of Langerhans, 669 Isoalloxazine, 137 Isocitrate, 256 Isocitrate dehydrogenase, 256 Isoelectric focussing, 725 Isoelectric pH, 49, 60, 725 Isoenzymes, 109, 112 Isohydric transport, 476 Isoleucine, 45, 363 Isomaltose, 19 Isomerases, 87 Isomerism, 704 Isomers, 704 Isoniazid (see isonicotinic acid hydrazide) Isonicotinic acid hydrazide, 146 Isopentenyl pyrophosphate, 311 Isoprene, 118 Isoprenoid(s), 118, 228, 310 Isotonic solution, 713 Isotopes, 243, 717 Isovaleric acidemia, 366 Isozymes (see isoenzymes)



J-polypeptide chain, 188
Jacob and Monod operon concept, 567
Jamaican vomiting sickness, 291
Jaundice, 216, 456
Joule, 503
Junk DNA, 623
Juvenile onset diabetes, 679



K_a (dissociation constant of acid., 475 K_m (Michaelis constant, 88, 92

Luteal phase, 449

Lutein, 659

K, (dissociation constant of H,O), Lactate (lactic acid), 248, 259 digestion and absorption, 173 709 dynamic state, 286 Lactate dehydrogenase, 109, 248 functions, 29 Kallidin, 67 Lactic acidemia, 269 membrane composition, 650 Kallikrein, 191 Lactic acidosis, 248 metabolism, 285 Katal, 104 Lactim form, 70 nutritional importance, 509 Keratan sulfate, 25 Lactoflavin, 137 peroxidation, 33 Keratin, 64, 490 Lactose, 19, 276, 567 plasma composition, 286 Keratinization, 123 Lactose intolerance, 169 transport, 286 Keratomalacia, 123 Lactose synthase, 277 Lipid bilayer, 650 Kernicterus, 218 Lagging strand, 525 Lipid esterase, 174 Keshan disease, 422 Laminin, 489 Lipid storage diseases, 309 Keto acid(s), 332 Lanosterol, 312 Lipofection, 584 α-Keto acid dehydrogenase, 365 Lathyrism, 489, 667 Lipofuscin, 7 Ketoacidosis, 296, 481, 682 Lauric acid, 30 Lipogenesis, 245, 672 Ketogenesis, 294, 672 LCAT (lecithin-cholesterol Lipoic acid, 157, 660 Ketogenic amino acids, 48, 373 acyltransferase), 314, 320 Lipolysis, 287, 672 α-Ketoglutarate, 256, 333, 373 LDL (low density lipoproteins), Lipoproteins, 38, 65, 317 o-Ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, 129, 317 atherosclerosis, 320 135, 252, 256 Lead, 394, 403, 666 characteristics, 317 Ketone bodies, 293, 385, 481 classification, 317 Leading strand, 525 Ketonemia, 296 coronary heart disease, 327 Leber's hereditary optic myopathy, electrophoresis, 317 Ketonuria, 296 232 metabolism, 318 Ketoses, 10, 12 Lecithin, 34, 303 structure, 317 Ketosis, 296 Lesch-Nyhan syndrome, 391, 395 Lipoprotein-a (Lp-a), 327 17-Ketosteroids, 444 Leucine, 45, 363, 373 Lipoprotein lipase, 318 B-Ketothiolase, 294 Leucine zipper, motif, 574 Liposomes, 40 Kidney function, 340, 344, 459 Leucodopachrome, 348 Lipotropic factor(s), 157, 324 Kidney functions tests, 459 Leukemia, 396 β-Lipotropin, 436 Kidney hormones, 459 Leukoderma, 353 Lipoxygenase, 647 Kidney threshold (see renal Leukotrienes, 648 threshold substances) Leptin, 325 Leuteinizing hormone, 435 Lipostet, 325 Killiani-Fischer synthesis, 12 Levodopa, 350 Kjeldahls method, 44 Lipoxins, 649 Levorotatory, 10, 706 Liquid scintillation counter, 717 Koshlands model, 98 Liebermann-Burchard reaction, 38 Lithocholic acid, 313 Krabbe's disease, 308 Ligandin, 216 Krebs cycle, 254, 291, 372, 381 Liver function markers, 454 Ligands, 724 Krebs-Henseleit cycle, 337 Liver function tests, 453 Ligases, 87 Kupffer cells, 322 Lobry de bruyn-von Ekenstein Light chains, 187 transformation, 16 Kuru, 495 Light meromyosin, 493 Kwashiorkor, 183, 516 Local hormones, 646 Lignin, 508 Lock and key theory, 98 Kynureninase, 145,354 Liki Lorand factor, 191 Kynurenine, 354 Loop of Henle, 459 Limeys, 132 Kynurenine pathway, 354 Long interspersed nuclear Limit dextrin, 265 elements, 622 Lineweaver-Burk plot, 89 Lovastatin, 312, 316 Linoleic acid, 31, 508 Low-energy phosphates, 222 Linolenic acid, 31, 508 Lumirhodopsin, 121 Lipase, 173 Lumiflavin, 137 Lipid(s), Lumirubin, 218 amphipathic, 39 Lac operon, 567 Lung surfactant, 716 classification, 28

definition, 28

dietary requirements, 510

Lac operon, 567 Lactam form, 70 Lactase, 167, 169, 276 Luteinizing hormone. 435
Lyases, 87
Lycopene, 660
B-Lymphocytes. 733
Lymphoma. Burkitt's, 688
Lyophilic, 712
Lyophobic, 712
Lysine, 46, 368
Lysolecithin, 36, 306
Lysosomal storage diseases, 281
Lysosomes, 7
Lysozyme, 91
Lysyl hydroxylase, 132

M

Macroglobulins, 105 Macrocytic anemia, 152 Macronutrients, 403 Macrophages, 214 Mad cow disease, 495 Magnesium, 410 Major histocompatibility complex, 734 Malaria, 205, 275 Malate, 256, 260 Malate-aspartate shuttle, 234 Malate dehydrogenase, 260, 298 Maleic acid, 706 Malic enzyme, 298 Malignant carcinoid syndrome, 356 Malnutrition, 458, 516 Malonate, 256 Majondialdehyde, 657 Majonic acid, 93 Waters ! CoA 289 297 Watase 167 Waterse 18 167 Manganese 418 Manufaction 15, 714 Nannosamine, 280 Charles II same surus urme disease 365

Carrier Str

wante time theme. 409

Markey Speciments 40.5

THE STATE THE

Maxam and Gilbert technique, 590 Maximal acid output, 464 M-band, 189 McArdle's disease, 269 Megaloblastic anemia, 156 Meister cycle, 66, 172 Melanin, 348, 353 Melanochrome, 348 Melanocytes, 353 Malanocyte stimulating hormone, Melanosomes, 353 Melatonin, 358 Melting temperature, 78 Membrane antioxidant, 659 Membrane hydrolysis, 715 Membranes, 650 Menadione, 130 Menaguinone, 130 Mendel's experiments, 737 Menke's disease, 417 Menopause, 449 Menstrual cycle, 499 Meprobamate, 639 6-Mercaptopurine, 73, 390 Mercapturic acid, 641 Mercury, 666 Meselson-Stahl experiment, 524 Messenger RNA, 81, 547, 554 purification, 586 Metabolic acidosis, 481 Metabolic alkalosis, 482 Metabolic heat, 663 Metabolic integration, 380 Metabolic pathways, definition, 241 Metabolic probes, 243 Metabolic water, 293, 469 Metabolism, definition, 241 Metabolism in starvation, 383 Metabolomics, 543 Metalloenzymes, 91 Metalloflavoproteins, 137 Metalloproteins, 65 Metanephrine, 445 Metallothionein, 417, 419 Metaproteins, 65 Metarhodopsin, 121 Metastasis, 685, 693 Methanol, 639 Methemoglobin, 202, 274

Methionine, 46, 156, 358 Methionine enkephalin, 67 Methionine sulfoxide, 185 Methotrexate, 152, 390, 575 Methylation (see transmethylation) Methylcobalamin, 153 Methylcytosine, 71 Methyldopa, 351 Methylfolate trap, 156 Methyl malonic acid, 155 Methyl malonyl CoA, 155, 292 N-Methylnicotinamide, 140 N5-Methyl THF, 151, 364 Methyltransferases, 359 Mevalonate, 310 Micelles, 39, 175 Michaelis-Menten constant, 88, 92 Microalbuminuria, 684 Microarrays, 600 Microbodies, 7 Microcytic hypochromic anemia, 416 Microminerals, 403 Microsatellites, 620 Microsomes, 6 Microtubules, 8 Migraine, 647 Milliequivalents, 711 Millons reaction, 61 Milk composition, 496 Mineralocorticosteroids, 442 Mineral metabolism, 403 Minisatellites, 620 Mismatch repair, 538 Missense mutations, 536 Mitochondria, 6, 225, 563 Mitochondrial DNA, 563 Mitochondrial myopathies, 564 Mixed acid-base disorders, 483 Mixed function oxidase, 640 Molality, 711 Molarity, 711 Molecular exclusion chromatography, 724 Molecular motor, 231 Molecular sieve, 724 Molisch test, 17 Molybdenosis, 420 Molybdenum, 420 Monoacylglycerol, 32 Monoamine oxidase, 356, 445

Monochromatic light, 726 Monoclonal antibodies, 731 Monogenic disorders, 738 Monomers, 58 Monooxygenases, 236 Monosaccharides, 10, 15, 18 Monosodium glutamate, 49 Morphine, 436 Motilin, 450 mRNA (see messenger RNA) mRNA editing, 549 Mucoids, 22 Mucopolysaccharides, 22 Mucopolysaccharidoses, 281 Mucoproteins, 22 Multienzyme complexes, 87, 252, Multifunctional enzyme, 398 Multiple myeloma, 183, 189 Muscle proteins, 492 Muscle structure, 490 Muscular contraction, 404, 493 Muscular dystrophy, 494 Mutagens, 535 Mutarotation, 14 Mutation(s), 535 Myeloma cells, 730 Myelin, 351 Myocardial infarction, 107, 112 Myofibril, 491 Myoglobin, 197, 414 myo-inositol, 35 Myosin, 493 Myristic acid, 30 Myxoedema, 316, 441

N

NAD+, 140, 253, 290, 354 NADP+, 140, 271, 354 NADPH, 142, 274, 297, 334 Na*-K* ATPase, 168, 653 Na*-K* pump, 470, 504, 652 Naphthoquinones, 130 National Human Genome Research Institute, 619 Neonatal-physiologic jaundice, 217 Neonatal tyrosinemia, 352 Nephron, 459 Nephrotic syndrome, 183, 185, 316 Nerve gas, 95 Nerve growth factor, 690 Net protein utilization, 512 Neurodegenerative diseases, 495 Neurohypophysis, 431 Neuroretinal degeneration, 232 Neurotensin, 450 Neurotoxins, 667 Neurotransmitter, 356, 370 Niacin, 138, 354 Niacin equivalents, 141 Nicotine, 139 Nicotinamide, 140 Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (see NAD+) Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (see NADP+) Nicotinamide nucleotides, 140, 226 Nicotinic acid (see niacin) NIDDM (non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus), 679 Niemann-Pick disease, 307 Nigercin, 233 Night blindness, 123 Ninhydrin reagent, 51 Nitric oxide, 366 Nitric oxide synthase, 366 Nitrocellulose, 589 Nitrocobalamin, 153 Nitrogen balance, 511 Nitrogen dioxide, 604 Nitrogen equilibrium, 511 Noise pollution, 666 Non-competitive inhibition, 93 Non-essential amino acids, 48 Nonheme iron, 414 Non-homologous recombination, Non-oxidative deamination, 335 Non-protein nitrogen, 341 Nonsense mutations, 537 Noradrenaline (see norepinephrine) Norepinephrine, 349, 445 Normality, 711 Northern blot technique, 589 Nucleic acids, 69

(see DNA and RNA)

Nucleolus, 6 Nucleoplasm, 6 Nucleoproteins, 64 Nucleosidases, 179 Nucleosides, 72 Nucleosome(s), 6, 79 Nucleotidase, 107, 179, 393, 456 Nucleotide excision repair, 538 Nucleotides, 69, 274, 387 Nucleus, 5 Nutrient antioxidants, 659 Nutrition, 502 Nutritional anemias, 517 Nutritional disorders, 515 Nutritional importance of carbohydrates, 506 lipids, 509 proteins, 510 Nyctalopia (night blindness),123



Obesity, 325 Obesity and fat absorption, 178 Obesity and leptin, 325 Ob gene, 325 Obstructive jaundice, 217, 316, 457 Ochronosis, 352 Oculocutaneous albinism, 353 Olestra, 178 Okazaki pieces, 525 Oleic acid, 30 Oligomer, 58 Oligomeric enzymes, 87 Oligomycin, 233 Oligonucleotide chip, 593 Oligonucleotides, 593 Oligosaccharidases, 167 Oligosaccharides, 10, 169 OMP (orotidine monophosphate), 399 OMP decarboxylase, 398 Oncogenes, 687 Oncogenic viruses, 550, 687 Oncoproteins, 689 Oncotic pressure, 713 One-carbon metabolism, 150, 157, 363

One-carbon units, 151, 363, 390 Operon, 567 Opioid peptides, 436 Opsin, 121 Optical activity, 12 Optical density, 726 Optical isomerism, 706 Oral anticoagulant, 192 Oral rehydration therapy, 168, 473 Orcinol, 79 Organ function tests, 453 Organic pollutants, 665 Organophosphorus compounds, 95 Orlistat, 178 Ornithine, 336 Ornithine decarboxylase, 375 Ornithine transcarbamoylase, 337 Orotate phosphoribosyltransferase, 399 Orotic acid, 399 Orotic aciduria, 400 Osazones, 17 Osmolality, 470 Osmolarity, 470 Osmole, 713 Osmosis, 713 Osmotic diuresis, 714 Osmotic pressure, 713 Osteocalcin, 130 Osteoblasts, 407 Osteoclasts, 407 Osteogenesis imperfecta, 489 Osteomalacia, 127 Osteopetrosis, 409 Osteosarcoma, 688 Osteoporosis, 409, 449 Ouabain, 18 Overhydration, 473 Oxalic acid (oxalate), 93, 132, 344 Oxaloacetate, 256 Oxalosis, 344 Oxalosuccinate, 256 B-Oxalylamino alanine, 667 Oxidases, 235 Oxidoreductases, 87 Oxidation, 224, 639 α-Oxidation, 293 B-Oxidation, 287

ω-Oxidation, 293

Oxidative deamination, 334

Oxidative decarboxylation, 252, 364
Oxidative phosphorylation, 228, 381
Oxidoreductases, 87, 140, 235
Oxygenases, 236
Oxygen dissociation curve, 198
Oxyhemoglobin, 198
Oxyntic cells, 170
Oxythiamine, 137
Oxytocin, 66, 437
Ozone layer, 664

PABA (see p-amino benzoic acid)



P-site, 554

Paget's disease, 108

Palindromes, 544 Palmitic acid (palmitate), 30, 290, Palmitoleic acid, 30 Palmitoyl CoA, 290 Pancreatic function tests, 465 Pancreatic lipase, 174 Pancreatitis, 179 Pantoic acid, 149 Pantothenic acid, 149 Papain, 187 Paper chromatography, 720 Paper electrophoresis, 725 PAPS (see phosphoadenosyl phosphosulfate) Parathyroid hormones, 124, 407 Parietal cells, 120 Parkinson's disease, 350 Partition chromatography, 720 Passive diffusion, 651 Pasteur effect, 251 Paulys test, 61 PCR (see polymerase chain reaction) Pectins, 168, 508 Pellagra, 138, 141 Pellagra preventive (PP) factor, 138 Penicillamine, 51, 146 Pentose phosphate pathway (see hexose monophosphate shunt) Pentoses 11 274

Pentosuria, essential, 276 Pentagastrin stimulation test, 464 Pepsin, 170 Pepsinogen, 170 Peptic ulcers, 179 Peptide(s), 53, 65 Peptide antibiotics, 67 Peptide bond, 53 Peptidyl site (see P-site) Peptidyltransferase, 558 Peptones, 64 Peripheral neuropathy, 136 Peristalsis, 174 Pernicious anemia, 155 Peroxidase, 659 Peroxidation, 656 Proxisome biogenesis disorders, 8 Peroxisomes, 7 Pesticides, 665 pH, 90, 710 Phagocytosis, 274 Phenanthrene ring, 37 Phenobarbitol, 210, 640 Phenol, 641 Phenylalanine, 47, 345 Phenylalanine hydroxylase, 346, 351, Phenylhydrazine, 17 Phenyl isothiocyanate (see Edman's reagent) Phenylketonuria, 347, 351 Pheochromocytoma, 445 Phlorizin, 168 Phosphate buffer, 476 Phosphatidic acid, 34, 305 Phosphatidylcholine, 34, 303 Phosphatidylethanolamine, 36, 303 Phosphatidylglycerol, 303 Phosphatidylinositol, 36, 303 Phosphatidylserine, 36, 303 Phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate, 362 Phosphocreatine (see creatine phosphate) Phosphodiester bonds, 74 Phosphoenol pyruvate, 247, 259 Phosphoenol pyruvate carboxykinase, 260 Phosphofructokinase, 247 Phosphoglucomutase, 265 Phospholipase(s), 36

Polyethylene glycol,

Polygenic disorders, 738

Phospholipids, 28, 34 Polyglutamate, 150 Propionyl CoA carboxylase, 292 Phosphoprotein(s), 65 Polymerase chain reaction, 534 Prostacyclins, 644, 648 Phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate, Polynucleotides, 73 Prostaglandins, 302, 644 389, 391 Polyol pathway, 279 Prostanoic acid, 644 Phosphorus, 409 Polypeptides, 52 Prostanoids, 644 Phosphorylation, Polyribosomes, 554 Prostate cancer, 107, 692 oxidative, 224, 228 Polysaccharides, 10, 20, Prostate specific antigen, 113 substrate level, 224 Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Prosthetic group, 63, 87 Photoisomerization, 218 31, 128, 316, 509 Protamines, 64 Photometry, 726 Polysomes, 554 Protease inhibitors, 667 Photophobia, 353 Polyuria, 437 Proteases, 170 Phototherapy, 218 Pompe's disease, 269 Protein(s), Phrynoderma, 31, 510 Porphobilinogen, 210 biological value, 512 Phylogenetics, 596 Porphyria cutanae tarda, 213 biosynthesis, 553 Phytanic acid, 293 classification, 63, 65 Porphyrias, 212 denaturation, 61 Phylloquinone, 130 Porphyrins, 208 digestion and absorption, 169 Phytanic acid α-oxidase, 293 Position isomerism, 705 functions, 43 Phytate, 406, 414 Post-transcriptional modifications, metabolism, 330 Phytol, 293 547 misfolding, 494 Picric acid, 640 Post-translational modifications, mutual supplementation, 513 Piercidin A, 227 130, 132, 561 nitrogen balance, 511 Potassium, 412, 483 Pineal gland, 358 nutritional importance, 510 nutritive value assessment, 512 Pign-pong model, 652 Potassium in acid-base disorders, properties, 60 481 Pinocytosis,172 requirements, 513 Prealbumin, 184 Pituitary hormones, 431 structure, 52, 59 Pregnenolone, 314, 446 pKa (dissociation constant of acid), Protein buffer, 476 475 Preproinsulin, 59, 670 Protein C, 192 PKU (see phenylketonuria) Pribnow box, 544 Protein-bound iodine, 441 Primary hyperoxaluria, 344 Plasma cell cancer, 189 Protein-calorie malnutrition, 516 Primary structure of protein, 54 Plasmalogens, 36, 303 Protein efficiency ratio, 512 Primase, 524 Plasma proteins, 182 Protein-energy malnutrition, 516 Primosome, 524 Plasma transport proteins, 184 Protein engineering, 597 Prion diseases, 494 Plasmids, 582 Protein kinase(s), 562 Prions, 494 Plasmin, 192 Protein kinase C, 430 Proanthocyanidins, 660 Plasminogen, 192 Protein misfolding, 494 Procarcinogens, 686 Platelet-activating factor, 303 Protein sorting, 563 Proenzymes, 102, 171 Platelet aggregation, 648 Protein sparing action, 507 Progesterone, 314, 448 Platelet derived growth factor, 690 Protein targeting, 562 Prohormone, 127, 435, 670 B-Pleated sheet, 57 Proteinuria, 185 Proinsulin, 591, 670 P: O ratio, 228 Proteoglycans, 22 Prokaryotes, 4, 543, 557, 563 Point mutations, 535 Proteolysis, 349 Prolactin, 434 Poiar amino acids, 48 Proteolytic degradation, 562 Pollutant, 665 Prolamines, 64 Proline, 47, 366 Proteome, 542 Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, 718 Proline oxidase, 366 Proteomics, 542 Polyamines, 375 Prolyl hydroxylase, 132 Prothrombin, 130, 190, 458 Poly A tail, 548 Prothrombin time, 458 Pronase, 54 Polycistronic, 555, 567 Pro-opiomelanocortin, 435 Protomer, 58 Polycythemia, 396 Proparathyroid hormone, 407 Proton gradient, 229

Propionic acid, 258

Propionyl CoA, 155, 292

Protooncogenes, 687

Protoporphyria, 214

Renal function tests, 459 47 HJ9 Renal glycosuria, 460, 681 210 Renal plasma flow, 459 Renal regulation of pH, 477 124 C 124 Q10, 90 Renal rickets, 128, 408 tubule, 459 Quaternary structure of protein, Renal threshold substances, 460 - 189 Renaturation of DNA, 79 - INC. 515 Renaturation of protein, 62 Quercetin, 660 ne esterase, 109 Renin, 459, 472 Quinol, 639 Personerut 396 Rennin, 170 Ouinolinate, 354 ** andine 82 Renin-angiotensin, 472 Quinolinate 250 25 £ 396, 646 Replication. phosphoribosyltransferase, 356 ≥endine, 150 in eukaryotes, 527 in prokaryotes, 524 French glutamic acid, 150 Replication bubbles, 524 Palin, 166 Replication factor C, 528 PLFA (see polyunsaturated fatty Replication fork, 526 acids) Replication protein A, 528 Purgatives, 714 Repression, 566 Purines(s), Racemic mixture, 12 Repressor protein, 566 biosynthesis, 387 Radioactivity, 717 Reserpine, 356 degradation, 392 Radioactive isotopes, 717 Respiratory acidosis, 482 disorders, 394 Respiratory alkalosis, 482 nucleotide analogs, 73 Radioactive pollution, 666 salvage pathway, 391 Radioimmunoassay, 729 Respiratory burst, 657 structures, 70 Raffinose, 169 Respiratory chain (see electron tautomeric forms, 70 transport chain) Rancidity, 33 Puromycin, 560 Respiratory distress syndrome, 36 Rapaport-Leubering cycle, 200, Putrescine, 375 251 Respiratory regulation of pH, 476 Pyranose, 14 Repiratory quotient, 503 Reactive oxygen species, 656 Pyridoxal, 143 Resting metabolic rate, 504 Recombinant DNA technology, Restriction endonucleases, 579 Pyridoxal kinase, 143 Recombinant insulin, 607 Restriction fragment length Pyridoxal phosphate, 143 polymorphisms, 603 Recombinant vaccines, 688 Pyridoxamine, 143 Restriction fragment map, 620 Recommended dietary (daily) Pyridoxine, 143 allowance, 514 Retina, 121 Pyrimidine(s), Redox potential, 224 Retinal, 119 biosynthesis, 398 Retinoic acid, 119 Reducing equivalents, 234 degradation, 400 Retinol, 119 disorders, 400 Reducing sugars, 16 Retinol binding protein, 11 nucleotide analogs, 73 Reduction, 224 salvage pathway, 400 Retrotransposition, 534 Refsum's disease, 293 structure, 71 Retroviruses, 550, 688 Regulation of, tautomeric forms, 70 Reverse transcriptase, 550, 688 citric acid cycle, 257 Pyrithiamine, 137 Reverse transcription, 550 fatty acid synthesis, 301 Pyrophosphate, inorganic, 288 gene expression, 566 Reverse triidothyronine, 438 gluconeogenesis, 262 Pyrophosphatase, 289 Rf value, 721 glycogenesis, 266 Pyrrole 208 Reye's syndrome, 400 glycogenolysis, 266 Rhamnohexose, 9 Pumpivsine 49 heme synthesis, 210 Rheumatoid arthritis, 647 Pyruvate carbony ase, 147, 259, ketogenesis, 296 76" Rhodopsin, 121 purine synthesis, 392 Rhodopsin cycle, 121 Pyrunate pervorpaenase 135, 252 pyrimidine synthesis, 398 Rho factor, 544 Pyrtivate surase 148, 150 urea cycle, 339

Release factors, 558

Reichert-Meissl number, 34

Partitive and partition 148, 258,

250 373

Ribitol, 137

Riboflavin, 137

Ribonuclease P. 105 Ribonucleases, 179 Ribonucleic acid (see RNA) Ribonucleosides, 71 Ribonucleotide reductase, 392 Ribonucleotides, 72, 79, 387 Ribose, 71 Ribose 5-phosphate, 272, 387 Ribosomal RNA, 79, 82 Ribosomes, 553, 557 Ribozymes, 105, 558 Ribulose, 11, 14 Ribulose 5-phosphate, 271 Richner-Hanhart syndrome, 352 Rickets, 127, 408 Rifampin, 549 RNA, 79, 523, 542, 589 RNA editing, 549 RNA polymerase, 543, 546 RNA primer, 524 RNA viruses, 550, 688 Rods, 121 Rotary motor model, 230 Rotenone, 227 Rothera's test, 295 Rous sarcoma virus 687 Ruhemann's purple, 51 Ryle's tube, 646



Sakagauchi reaction, 61 Salicylic acid, 640 Salivary amylase,166 Salkowski's test, 38 Salting in, 60 Salting out, 60, 182 Salvage pathways, 303, 391, 400 Sanfilippo syndrome, 281 Sanger's reagent, 56 Saponification, 33 Saponification number, 33 Schiff base, 143, 333 Scleroproteins, 64 Scurvy, 134 Secondary messengers, 428, 430 Secondary structure of protein, 56 Secretin, 170, 450 Sedimentation coefficient, 728 Sedoheptulose, 14 Sedoheptulose 7-phosphate, 273

Selenium, 49, 128, 421, 659 Selenocysteine, 48, 422 Selenoproteins, 48 Selenosis, 422 Sequenator, 56 Serine, 45, 361,371 Serine proteases, 95, 171 Serotonin, 144, 356 Serotonin pathway, 354 Severe combined immunodeficiency, 397 Sex chromosomes, 738 Sex hormones, 445 Sex-linked inheritance, 740 SGOT (see aspartate transaminase) SGPT (see alanine transaminase) Shine-Dalgarno sequence, 557 Short interspersed nuclear elements, 622 Short (simple) tandem repeats, 603, 620 SI units, 104 Sialic acid, 18 Sickle-cell anemia, 203, 601 Sickle-cell hemoglobin, 203 Sickle-cell trait, 204 Sigma factor, 543 Silent mutations, 536 Simple tandem repeats, 603 Single nucleotide polymorphisms, 606, 622 Single-stranded DNA binding proteins, 525 Site-directed mutagenesis, 597 Sitosterol, 39 Small nuclear ribonucleoprotein particles, 548 Small nuclear RNA, 81, 550 Snake venom, 306 Sodium, 411 Sodium fluoride, 284, 421 Soluble RNA, 81 Solutions, 711 Somatic cell gene therapy, 625 Somatomedin C, 434 Somatostatin, 433 Somatotropin, 433 Sorbitol, 16 Southern blot technique, 587 Specific dynamic action, 505 Specific optical rotation, 14 Spectrophotometer, 726 Spermidine, 375 Spermine, 375 Sphingolipidoses, 308

Sphingolipids, 308 Sphingomyelinase, 308 Sphingomyelins, 36 Sphingosine, 36 Splicing of introns, 548 Squalene, 310 Standard free energy, 221 Starch, 20 Starvation, 383 Stearic acid, 30 Steatorrhoea, 117 Stercobilin, 216 Stereoisomerism, 10, 705 Stereoisomers, 10, 705 Stereospecificity, 95 Steroid (s), 37 Steroid derivative(s), 37 Steroid hormones, 38, 314 Sterols, 38 Stigmasterol, 39 Streptokinase, 105, 193 Streptomycin, 18, 560 Subcellular organelles, 727 Substrate level phosphorylation, 224 Substrate strain theory, 99 Subunit vaccines, 608 Succinate (succinic acid), 93, 255 Succinate dehydrogenase, 93, 227, 255 Succinyl CoA, 149, 210, 255, 292 Sucrase, 167 Sucrose, 19 Sudden infant death syndrome, 291 Sugars, 10 Suicide enzyme, 645 Suicide inhibition, 95 Suicide substrate, 257 Sulfate, 362, 413, 642 Sulfatides, 37 Sulfhydryl groups, 46, 59, 659 Sulfite, 362 Sulfonamides, 94, 153, 159, 390, 642 Sulfonylureas, 682 Sulfur, 413 Sulfur amino acids, 46, 357 Sulfur dioxide, 663 Sun-shine vitamin, 124 Superoxide, 655 Superoxide dismutase, 659 Surface tension, 716 Surfactants, 716 Svedberg units, 728 Symport system, 653

Synovial fluid, 716

mili - -173, 313 - February 10 mg 70 a meguti 705 e citric acid cycle) Total 154 dis (III) 530 - recoefficient, 90 member and, 543 me Tation, transcription, 544 translation, 558 nation codons, 551, 558 Terr ary structure of protein, 58 Testosterone, 446 Tetany, 408 Tetracycline, 560 Tetrahydrobiopterin, 346, 357 Tetrahydrofolate, 150, 363, 389 Tetramer, 58 Tetroses, 11 Thalassemia(s), 206 Theobromine, 71 Theophylline, 71 Thermodynamics, 221 Thermogenesis, 327 Thermogenic action, 505 Thermogenin, 327 Thiamine, 135 Thiamine pyrophosphate, 135, 252, 272 Thiazole ring, 135 Thin layer chromatography, 721 Thiobarbituric acid reactive substances, 657 Thiocyanate, 642 Thioether group, 46 Thiokinase, 177, 288 Thiolase, 289, 296, 311 Thiophene ring, 146 Thiophorase, 296 Thioredoxin, 392 Thiosulfate, 642

Thiouracil, 438 Thiourea, 438 Three Ds. 141 Threonine, 45, 372 Threshold substances, 460 Thirst centre, 469 Thrombin, 190 Thromboplastin, 191 Thrombosis, 648 Thromboxanes, 644, 648 Thymine, 70 Thyroglobulin, 349, 438 Thyroid function tests, 441, 465 Thyroid hormones, 349, 431 Thyroid stimulating hormone, 434, Thyrotropin releasing hormone. 431 Thyroxine (T_4) , 233, 349, 418. 438, 504 Thyroxine binding globulin, 438 Tissue factor, 191 Tissue plasminogen activator, 599 Tissue-specific gene expression, 572 Titratable acid, 478 T-Lymphocytes, 737 TMP (thymidine monophosphate), 72 Toad skin, 31, 510 Tocopherols, 128, 659 Tocotrienols, 128 Tolbutamide, 682 Tophi, 394 Topoisomerases, 527 Total iron binding capacity, 415 Trace elements, 405 Tracer technique, 718 Transaminases, 86, 107, 332 Transamination, 143, 332 Transcobalamin, 154 Transcription, 542 Transcriptome, 542 Transcriptomics, 543 Transdeamination, 334 Transducin, 122 Transferases, 87 Transferrin, 186 Transfer RNA, 81, 554 Transformation, 583 Transforming growth factor, 690 Transgene, 611 Transgenesis, 611 Transitions, 536 Transketolase, 135, 272

Translation, 550 Transmethylation, 359 Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies, 495 Transport across membranes, 651 Transport proteins, 184 Transport systems, 653 Transposable elements, 533 Transposition, 533 Transposition of genes, 533 Transposons, 533 Transsulfuration, 360 Transversions, 536 Triacylglycerol lipase, 287 Triacylglycerols, 32, 174, 287 Triglycerides (see triacylglycerols) Triiodothyronine, 349, 439 Trimethoprim, 152 Trioses, 11 Tripeptide, 65, 342 Triple-stranded DNA, 76 Triplet codons, 551 Tropomyosin, 492 Troponins, 112, 492 Trisaccharides, 10 Trisomy, 741 Tritium (3H), 717 tRNA (see transfer RNA) Trypsin, 171 Trypsin inhibitor, 179 Trypsinogen, 170 Tryptamine, 377 Tryptophan, 47, 354 Tryptophan operon, 569 Tryptophan pyrrolase, 354 Tryptophan repressor, 569 Tubeless gastric analysis, 465 Tuberculosis, 146, 601 Tuberculosis meningitis, 497 Tubular maximum (Tm), 460 Tumor cells, 692 Tumor markers, 691 Tumor suppressor genes, 631 (see cancer suppressor genes) Tyramine, 377 Tyrosinase, 348 Tyrosine, 46, 345 Tyrosine hydroxylase, 350 Tyrosine transaminase, 347 Tyrosinemia type II, 352 Tyrosinosis (tyrosinemia type II) 353

Ubiquinone (CoQ), 228 Ubiquitin, 331 UDP, 398 UDP-galactose, 276 UDP-glucose, 263 UDP-glucuronate, 275 UDP-glucuronyltransferase, 215 Ultracentrifugation, 727 UMP, 72 Uncouplers, 233 Uncoupling protein, 233 Undernutrition, 515 Uniform resource locator, 636 Uniport systems, 653 Uracil, 70 Urea, 337, 340 Urea clearance test, 461 Urea cycle, 337 Urease, 90 Uremia, 341 Ureotelic, 336 Uric acid, 71, 394 Uric acid pool, 396 Uricase, 394 Uricotelic, 336 Uridine, 72, 398 Uridylic acid (see UMP) Urinary stones, 134 Urine formation, 459 Urine production, hormonal regulation, 469 Urobilin, 216 Urobilinogen, 215 Urocanate, 335 Uronic acid pathway, 275 Uroporphyrin, 209 Uroporphyrinogen, 211

Vmax, 88

Valeric acid, 30

Valine, 45, 363

Valinomycin, 233

van den Bergh reaction, 455

Vanillyl mandelic acid, 445

Van der Waals forces, 59

Variable number tandem repeats, 604, 620

Variegate porphyria, 214 Vasoactive intestinal peptide, 450

Vasopressin, 66, 437 Vectors, 582

Viral RNA, 688

Viscosity, 715

Visual cycle, 121 Vital force theory, 703

Vitamers, 118, 143

Vitamin A, 118

Vitamin B₁ (see thiamine)

Vitamin B, (see riboflavin)

Vitamin B₆ (see pyridoxine) Vitamin B₁₂ (see cobalamin)

Vitamin C (see ascorbic acid)

Vitamin D, 123

Vitamin E, 128

Vitamin E and selenium, 129

Vitamin K, 129

Vitamin P, 159

Vitamins, 116

classification, 117

definition, 116 fat soluble-general, 118

nomenclature, 116

synthesis, 117

water soluble-general, 118

Vitellin, 65

Vitiligo, 353

Vitreous body, 715

VLDL (very low density

lipoproteins), 315

von Gierke's disease, 269

Von Willenbrand's disease, 193

Etillai (C.G.)

Wald's visual cycle, 129

rfarin, 131

lance, 468 sociation, 709 distribution, 46

endogenous, 469 exogenous, 469

functions, 468

intake, 469 output, 469

structure, 709

Water pollution, 664

Water tank model, 473 Watson and Crick model, 74

Waxes, 28

Wernicke-Korsakoff syndrome, 137 Western blot technique, 589

Whey proteins, 497

White adipose tissue, 326

Williams syndrome, 489

Wilson's disease, 417

Wobble hypothesis, 552

World wide web, 636

Xanthine, 71, 393 Xanthine oxidase, 393 Xanthine stone, 398 Xanthinuria, 398 Xanthoproteic reaction, 61 Xanthurenate, 145, 354 X-chromosome, 397, 740 Xeaxanthin, 659 Xenobiotics, 638 Xenograft, 736 Xeroderma pigmentosum, 538 Xerophthalmia, 123 Xylitol, 273 Xvlitol dehydrogenase, 273 Xylose, 11 Xylulose, 11

Zak's test, 38 Zein, 65 Zellweger syndrome, 8 Zidovudine, 699 Zinc, 419 Zinc finger motif, 573 Zona fasciculata, 441 Zona glomerulosa, 441 Zona reticularis, 441 Zollinger-Ellison syndrome, 465 Zn-proteases, 171 Zone electrophoresis, 725 Zymogens, 102, 170, 562 Zymosterol, 310 Zwitterion, 49, 60

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Dr. U. SATYANARAYANA, Ph.D., posseses over 30 years (20 years as Professor) of experience in teaching the subject of Biochemistry to Medical, Dental, and Science students. He has authored three other popular books Essentials of Biochemistry, Biochemistry Review, and Biotechnology—besides publishing about 50 research papers in national and international journals. A gold medalist of Nagpur University and a recipient of the Dr. Krishnaswamy Best Teacher Award (of Siddhartha Medical College). Dr. Satyanarayana has been honoured twice (Hong Kong 1989, Japan 1991) with the Regional Service Award by the Asian-Pacific Congress of Clinical Biochemistry. He is a Fellow of both the National Academy of Clinical Biochemistry, USA, and the Institution of Chemists, India. Besides, he is also Advisor, Research Board, American Biographical Institute, USA.

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