

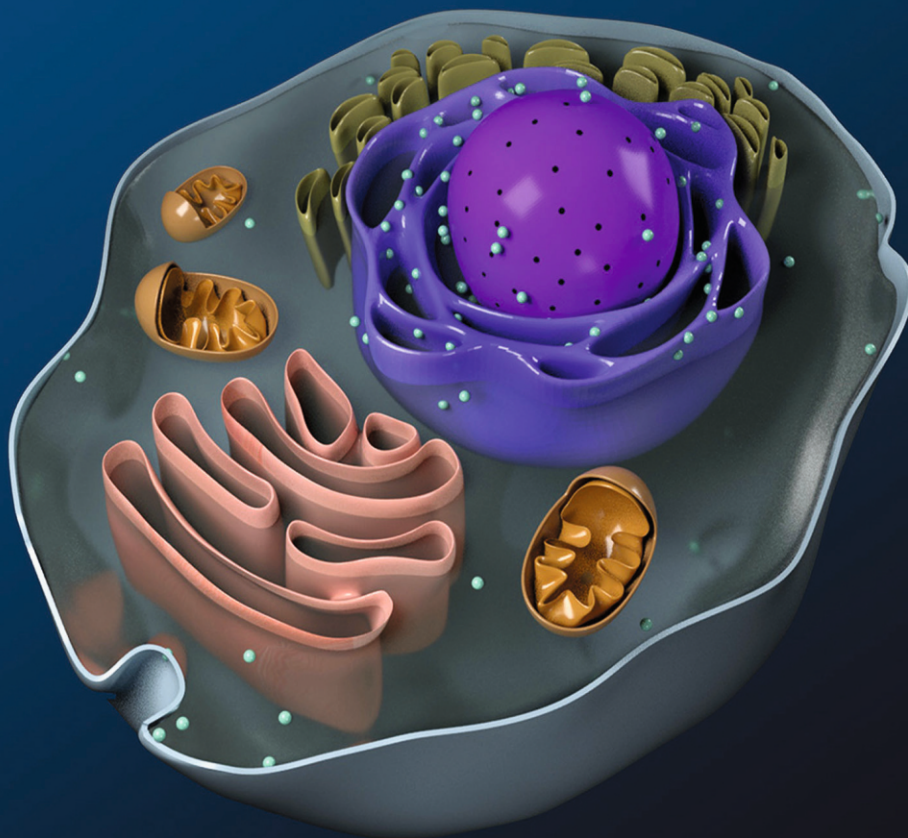


Pathfinder Publication

BIOTECHNOLOGY

A PROBLEM APPROACH

Sixth Edition



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BIOTECHNOLOGY

A PROBLEM APPROACH

Sixth Edition

Revised and Updated

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Contents

Chapter 1

Chemical foundations of life

- 1.1 Matter and Energy 1
- 1.2 Water 2
- 1.3 Buffer 8
- 1.4 Chemical interactions in living systems 10
- 1.5 Bioenergetics and thermodynamics 14
- 2.3.3 Ubiquitin-mediated protein degradation 68
- 2.3.4 N-end rule 70
- 2.4 Protein sequencing and assays 71
- 2.5 Nucleic acids 77
- 2.5.1 Nucleotides 77
- 2.5.2 Chargaff's rules 81

Chapter 2

Biomolecules and Catalysis

- 2.1 Amino acids and Proteins 24
 - 2.1.1 Absolute configuration 27
 - 2.1.2 Optical activity 28
 - 2.1.3 Standard and non-standard amino acids 29
 - 2.1.4 Titration of amino acids 33
 - 2.1.5 Peptide and polypeptide 39
 - 2.1.6 Peptide bond 40
 - 2.1.7 Protein structure 43
 - 2.1.8 Denaturation of proteins 50
 - 2.1.9 Solubilities of proteins 50
 - 2.1.10 Simple and conjugated proteins 51
- 2.2 Fibrous and globular proteins 52
 - 2.2.1 Collagen 53
 - 2.2.2 Elastin 55
 - 2.2.3 Keratins 56
 - 2.2.4 Myoglobin 56
 - 2.2.5 Hemoglobin 58
- 2.3 Protein folding 64
 - 2.3.1 Molecular chaperones 66
 - 2.3.2 Amyloid 67
- 2.6 Structure of dsDNA 82
 - 2.6.1 B-DNA 83
 - 2.6.2 Z-DNA 85
 - 2.6.3 Triplex DNA 86
 - 2.6.4 G-quadruplex 87
 - 2.6.5 Stability of the dsDNA helix 88
 - 2.6.6 DNA denaturation 88
 - 2.6.7 Quantification of nucleic acids 90
 - 2.6.8 Supercoiled forms of DNA 91
 - 2.6.9 DNA: A genetic material 94
- 2.7 RNA 96
 - 2.7.1 Alkaline hydrolysis of RNA 97
 - 2.7.2 RNA World hypothesis 98
 - 2.7.3 RNA as genetic material 98
- 2.8 Carbohydrates 99
 - 2.8.1 Monosaccharides 99
 - 2.8.2 Epimers 100
 - 2.8.3 Cyclic forms 102
 - 2.8.4 Derivatives of monosaccharide 104
 - 2.8.5 Disaccharides and glycosidic bond 106
 - 2.8.6 Polysaccharides 107
 - 2.8.7 Glycoproteins 110
 - 2.8.8 Reducing and non-reducing sugar 110

2.9	Lipids	111
2.9.1	Fatty acids	111
2.9.2	Triacylglycerol and Wax	113
2.9.3	Phospholipids	114
2.9.4	Glycolipids	115
2.9.5	Steroid	116
2.9.6	Eicosanoid	116
2.9.7	Plasma lipoproteins	119
2.10	Vitamins	119
2.10.1	Water-soluble vitamins	119
2.10.2	Fat-soluble vitamins	124
2.11	Reactive oxygen species and antioxidants	126
2.12	Enzymes	128
2.12.1	Naming and classification of enzymes	129
2.12.2	How enzymes operate?	130
2.12.3	Catalytic strategies	132
2.12.4	Enzyme kinetics	133
2.12.5	Enzyme inhibition	141
2.12.6	Regulatory enzymes	146
2.12.7	Isozymes	148
2.12.8	Zymogen	149
2.12.9	Nucleic acids as catalysts	149
2.12.10	Abzyme	150
2.12.11	Examples of enzymatic reactions	151
3.1.10	ATP synthase	181
3.1.11	Uncoupling agents and ionophores	183
3.1.12	ATP-ADP exchange across the inner mitochondrial membrane	184
3.1.13	Shuttle systems	185
3.1.14	P/O ratio	186
3.1.15	Fermentation	187
3.1.16	Pasteur effect	189
3.1.17	Warburg effect	190
3.1.18	Respiratory substrate and respiratory quotient	190
3.2	Glyoxylate cycle	191
3.3	Pentose phosphate pathway	192
3.4	Entner-Doudoroff pathway	194
3.5	Photosynthesis	195
3.5.1	Photosynthetic pigments	196
3.5.2	Absorption and action spectra	200
3.5.3	Fate of light energy absorbed by photosynthetic pigments	201
3.5.4	Concept of photosynthetic unit	203
3.5.5	Hill reaction	203
3.5.6	Oxygenic-Anoxygenic photosynthesis	204
3.5.7	Concept of pigment system	204
3.5.8	Photosynthesis in green plants	206
3.5.9	Light reactions	207
3.5.10	Carbon-fixation cycle	216
3.5.11	Starch and sucrose synthesis	221
3.6	Photorespiration	222
3.6.1	C ₄ cycle	223
3.6.2	CAM pathway	226
3.7	Carbohydrate metabolism	229
3.7.1	Gluconeogenesis	229
3.7.2	Glycogen metabolism	233
3.8	Lipid metabolism	238
3.8.1	Synthesis and storage of triacylglycerols	238
3.8.2	Biosynthesis of fatty acids	240
3.8.3	Fatty acid oxidation	244
3.8.4	Biosynthesis of cholesterol	251
3.8.5	Steroid hormones and Bile acids	252

Chapter 3

Metabolism

3.1	Respiration	160
3.1.1	Aerobic respiration	161
3.1.2	Glycolysis	162
3.1.3	Pyruvate oxidation	167
3.1.4	Citric acid cycle	169
3.1.5	Anaplerotic reaction	172
3.1.6	Oxidative phosphorylation	173
3.1.7	Inhibitors of electron transport	177
3.1.8	Electrochemical proton gradient	178
3.1.9	Chemiosmotic theory	180
3.1.10	ATP synthase	181
3.1.11	Uncoupling agents and ionophores	183
3.1.12	ATP-ADP exchange across the inner mitochondrial membrane	184
3.1.13	Shuttle systems	185
3.1.14	P/O ratio	186
3.1.15	Fermentation	187
3.1.16	Pasteur effect	189
3.1.17	Warburg effect	190
3.1.18	Respiratory substrate and respiratory quotient	190
3.2	Glyoxylate cycle	191
3.3	Pentose phosphate pathway	192
3.4	Entner-Doudoroff pathway	194
3.5	Photosynthesis	195
3.5.1	Photosynthetic pigments	196
3.5.2	Absorption and action spectra	200
3.5.3	Fate of light energy absorbed by photosynthetic pigments	201
3.5.4	Concept of photosynthetic unit	203
3.5.5	Hill reaction	203
3.5.6	Oxygenic-Anoxygenic photosynthesis	204
3.5.7	Concept of pigment system	204
3.5.8	Photosynthesis in green plants	206
3.5.9	Light reactions	207
3.5.10	Carbon-fixation cycle	216
3.5.11	Starch and sucrose synthesis	221
3.6	Photorespiration	222
3.6.1	C ₄ cycle	223
3.6.2	CAM pathway	226
3.7	Carbohydrate metabolism	229
3.7.1	Gluconeogenesis	229
3.7.2	Glycogen metabolism	233
3.8	Lipid metabolism	238
3.8.1	Synthesis and storage of triacylglycerols	238
3.8.2	Biosynthesis of fatty acids	240
3.8.3	Fatty acid oxidation	244
3.8.4	Biosynthesis of cholesterol	251
3.8.5	Steroid hormones and Bile acids	252

3.9	Amino acid metabolism	254
3.9.1	Amino acid synthesis	254
3.9.2	Amino acid catabolism	257
3.9.3	Molecules derived from amino acids	262
3.10	Nucleotide metabolism	263
3.10.1	Nucleotide synthesis	263
3.10.2	Nucleotide degradation	269

Chapter 4

Cell Biology

4.1	What is a cell?	275
4.2	Plasma membrane	277
4.2.1	ABO blood group	287
4.2.2	Transport across plasma membrane	290
4.3	Membrane potential	298
4.4	Transport of macromolecules across plasma membrane	308
4.4.1	Endocytosis	308
4.4.2	Fate of receptor	313
4.4.3	Exocytosis	314
4.5	Ribosomes	315
4.5.1	Protein targeting and translocation	317
4.6	Endoplasmic reticulum	318
4.6.1	Transport from cytosol to ER	323
4.6.2	Transport from ER to <i>cis</i> -Golgi	328
4.7	Golgi complex	330
4.7.1	Transport of proteins through cisternae	332
4.7.2	Transport from the TGN to lysosomes	332
4.8	Membrane fusion	334
4.9	Lysosome	336
4.10	Vacuoles	338
4.11	Mitochondria	338
4.12	Plastids	342
4.13	Peroxisome	344
4.14	Nucleus	346
4.15	Cytoskeleton	350

4.15.1	Microtubules	350
4.15.2	Microtubule-based motor proteins: Kinesins and Dyneins	353
4.15.3	Cilia and Flagella	354
4.15.4	Centriole	356
4.15.5	Actin filament	357
4.15.6	Myosin	360
4.15.7	Muscle contraction	361
4.15.8	Intermediate filaments	365

4.16	Cell junctions	366
4.17	Cell adhesion molecules	369
4.18	Extracellular matrix of animals	371
4.19	Plant cell wall	372
4.20	Cell signaling	374
4.20.1	Signal molecules	374
4.20.2	Receptors	375
4.20.3	GPCR and G-proteins	378
4.20.4	Ion channel-linked receptors	387
4.20.5	Enzyme-linked receptors	388
4.20.6	Chemotaxis in bacteria	397
4.20.7	Quorum sensing	399
4.21	Cell Cycle	401
4.21.1	Role of Rb in cell cycle regulation	412
4.21.2	Role of p53 in cell cycle regulation	413
4.21.3	Replicative senescence	415
4.22	Mechanics of cell division	416
4.22.1	Mitosis	416
4.22.2	Meiosis	423
4.22.3	Nondisjunction and aneuploidy	428
4.23	Apoptosis	431
4.24	Cancer	435

Chapter 5

Prokaryotes and Viruses

5.1	Phylogenetic overview	452
5.2	Structure of bacterial cell	453
5.3	Bacterial genome	465

5.4	Bacterial nutrition	469	6.6.1	MHC and antigen presentation	546
5.4.1	Culture media	470	6.6.2	Antigen processing and presentation	547
5.4.2	Bacterial growth	472	6.7	Immunoglobulins: Structure and function	550
5.5	Horizontal gene transfer and recombination	475	6.7.1	Basic structure of antibody molecule	550
5.5.1	Transformation	476	6.7.2	Different classes of antibody	553
5.5.2	Transduction	477	6.7.3	Antigenic determinants on antibodies	555
5.5.3	Conjugation	481	6.8	Organization and expression of Ig genes	556
5.6	Mapping of chromosomal genes	484	6.9	Generation of antibody diversity	562
5.7	Bacterial taxonomy	489	6.10	B cell maturation and activation	564
5.8	General features of important bacterial groups	490	6.11	Kinetics of the antibody response	577
5.9	Archaeobacteria	492	6.11.1	Humoral immune response	579
5.10	Bacterial toxins	494	6.12	Monoclonal antibodies and Hybridoma technology	581
5.11	Control of microbial growth	495	6.13	T cells and cell-mediated immunity	583
5.12	Viruses	499	6.13.1	Superantigens	596
5.12.1	Bacteriophages (Bacterial virus)	501	6.14	The complement system	596
5.12.2	Life cycle of bacteriophage	502	6.15	Hypersensitivity	600
5.12.3	Plaque assay	505	6.16	Autoimmunity	602
5.12.4	Genetic analysis of phage	508	6.17	Transplantation	602
5.12.5	Animal viruses	511	6.18	Immunodeficiency diseases	605
5.12.6	Plant viruses	521	6.19	Failures of host defense mechanisms	605
5.13	Prions and Viroids	522	6.20	Vaccines	607
5.13.1	Bacterial and viral diseases	524			

Chapter 6

Immunology

6.1	Innate immunity	527
6.2	Adaptive immunity	533
6.3	Cells of the immune system	535
6.3.1	Common lymphoid progenitor	535
6.3.2	Common myeloid progenitor	537
6.4	Organs involved in the adaptive immune response	539
6.4.1	Primary lymphoid organs	539
6.4.2	Secondary lymphoid organs/tissues	540
6.5	Antigens	541
6.6	Major histocompatibility complex	544

Chapter 7

Genetics

7.1	Mendel's principles	613
7.1.1	Mendel's laws of inheritance	615
7.1.2	Incomplete dominance/codominance	620
7.1.3	Multiple alleles	621
7.1.4	Lethal alleles	623
7.1.5	Penetrance and expressivity	623
7.1.6	Probability: Predicting the outcome of genetic crosses	623
7.2	Chromosomal basis of inheritance	626
7.3	Gene interaction	628
7.3.1	Genetic dissection	634
7.3.2	Complementation analysis	635

7.3.3	Pleiotropy	638	7.10.9	<i>E. coli</i> genome	704
7.4	Genetic linkage and gene mapping	638	7.10.10	Organelle genome	704
7.4.1	Genetic mapping	644	7.10.11	Transposable elements	706
7.4.2	Gene mapping from two point cross	645	7.11	Eukaryotic chromatin and chromosome	714
7.4.3	Gene mapping from three point cross	647	7.11.1	Packaging of DNA into chromosomes	716
7.4.4	Interference and coincidence	649	7.11.2	Heterochromatin and euchromatin	721
7.5	Tetrad analysis	651	7.11.3	Polytene chromosomes	724
7.5.1	Analysis of ordered tetrad	652	7.11.4	Lampbrush chromosomes	725
7.5.2	Analysis of unordered tetrad	654	7.11.5	B-chromosomes	726
7.6	Sex chromosomes and sex determination	655	7.12	DNA replication	727
7.6.1	Sex chromosome	655	7.12.1	Semiconservative replication	727
7.6.2	Sex determination in animals	656	7.12.2	Replicon and origin of replication	728
7.6.3	Sex determination in plants	661	7.12.3	DNA replication in <i>E. coli</i>	732
7.6.4	Mosaicism	661	7.12.4	Telomere replication	746
7.6.5	Sex-linked traits and sex-linked inheritance	661	7.12.5	Rolling circle replication	747
7.6.6	Sex-limited traits	663	7.12.6	Replication of mitochondrial DNA	748
7.6.7	Sex-influenced traits	663	7.13	Recombination	749
7.6.8	Pedigree analysis	664	7.13.1	Homologous recombination	749
7.7	Quantitative inheritance	668	7.13.2	Site-specific recombination	754
7.7.1	Quantitative trait locus analysis	672	7.14	DNA repair	756
7.7.2	Heritability	672	7.14.1	Direct repair	756
7.8	Extranuclear inheritance and maternal effect	673	7.14.2	Excision repair	757
7.8.1	Maternal effect	678	7.14.3	Mismatch repair	758
7.9	Cytogenetics	679	7.14.4	Recombinational repair	759
7.9.1	Human karyotype	679	7.14.5	Repair of double strand DNA break	761
7.9.2	Chromosome banding	680	7.14.6	Gene conversion	762
7.9.3	Chromosomal abnormalities	682	7.14.7	SOS response	763
7.9.4	Position effect variegation	690	7.15	Transcription	764
7.10	Genome	691	7.15.1	Transcription unit	764
7.10.1	Genome complexity	693	7.15.2	Prokaryotic transcription	767
7.10.2	Gene	695	7.15.3	Eukaryotic transcription	773
7.10.3	Introns	696	7.15.4	Role of activator and co-activator	778
7.10.4	Gene duplication	699	7.15.5	Regulatory elements	779
7.10.5	Acquisition of new genes	700	7.15.6	DNA binding motifs	781
7.10.6	Gene families	701	7.16	RNA processing	784
7.10.7	Human nuclear genome	703	7.16.1	Processing of eukaryotic pre-mRNA	784
7.10.8	Yeast <i>S. cerevisiae</i> genome	704	7.16.2	Processing of pre-rRNA	795
			7.16.3	Processing of pre-tRNA	798

7.17	mRNA degradation	799
7.18	Regulation of bacterial gene transcription	801
7.18.1	Operon model	802
7.18.2	Tryptophan operon in <i>E. coli</i>	810
7.18.3	Riboswitches	815
7.19	Genetic switch in phage lambda	816
7.20	Regulation of transcription in eukaryotes	820
7.20.1	Chromatin structure on transcription	821
7.20.2	DNA methylation and gene regulation	825
7.20.3	Post-transcriptional gene regulation	827
7.21	RNA interference	828
7.22	Epigenetics	832
7.23	Genetic code	833
7.24	Protein synthesis	838
7.24.1	Translational frameshifting	855
7.24.2	Antibiotics and toxins	856
7.24.3	Post-translational modification	858
7.25	Mutation	860
7.25.1	Mutagens	865
7.25.2	Types of mutation	869
7.25.3	Fluctuation test	874
7.25.4	Ames test	875
7.26	Population genetics	877
7.26.1	Calculation of allelic frequencies	877
7.26.2	Hardy-Weinberg principle	878
7.26.3	Inbreeding	883
7.27	Evolutionary processes	889

Chapter 8

Recombinant DNA technology

8.1	DNA cloning	901
8.2	Enzymes for DNA manipulation	903
8.2.1	Template-dependent DNA polymerase	903
8.2.2	Nucleases	903
8.2.3	End-modification enzymes	907
8.2.4	Ligases	908

8.3	Vectors	910
8.3.1	Vectors for <i>E. coli</i>	911
8.3.2	Cloning vectors for yeast, <i>S. cerevisiae</i>	915
8.3.3	Vectors for plants	917
8.3.4	Vectors for animals	920
8.4	Introduction of DNA into the host cells	920
8.4.1	In bacterial cells	920
8.4.2	In plant cells	921
8.4.3	In animal cells	924
8.5	Selectable and screenable marker	926
8.6	Selection of transformed bacterial cells	927
8.7	Selection of recombinant containing transformed bacterial cells	928
8.8	Expression vector	930
8.8.1	Expression system	931
8.8.2	Fusion protein	932
8.9	DNA library	932
8.10	Genetic markers	936
8.11	Genome mapping	942
8.11.1	Radiation hybrids	944
8.12	DNA profiling	945
8.13	Genetic manipulation of animal cells	946
8.13.1	Transgenesis and transgenic animals	946
8.13.2	Gene knockout	948
8.13.3	Formation and selection of recombinant ES cells	950
8.14	Nuclear transfer technology and animal cloning	951
8.15	Gene therapy	952
8.16	Transgenic plants	956
8.16.1	Procedure to make a transgenic plant	956
8.16.2	Antisense technology	960
8.16.3	Molecular farming	961
8.17	Plant tissue culture	961
8.17.1	Cellular totipotency	962
8.17.2	Tissue culture media	962
8.17.3	Types of cultures	964
8.17.4	Somaclonal and gametoclonal variation	969

- 8.17.5 Somatic hybridization and cybridization 969
- 8.17.6 Applications of cell and tissue culture 970
- 8.18 Animal cell culture 973**
 - 8.18.1 Primary cultures 973
 - 8.18.2 Cell line 973
 - 8.18.3 Growth cycle 975
 - 8.18.4 Culture media 976

Chapter 9

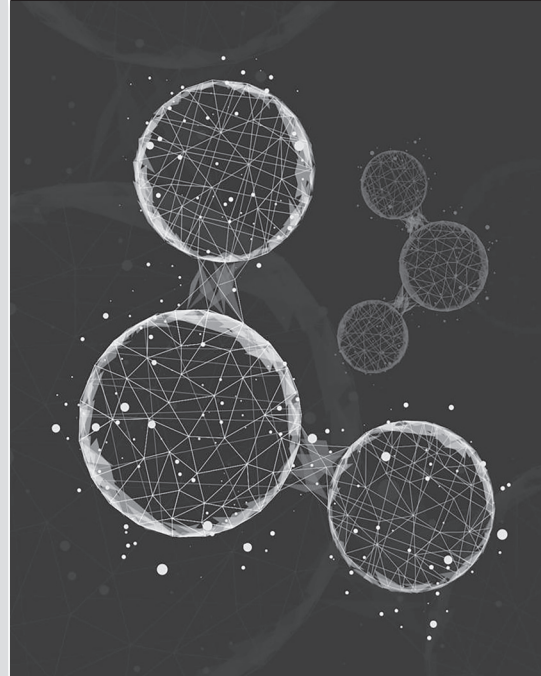
Bioprocess Engineering

- 9.1 Concept of material and energy balance 981**
 - 9.1.1 Energy balance 988
- 9.2 Cell growth in batch culture 990**
- 9.3 Fermentation 998**
 - 9.3.1 Fermentation processes 998
 - 9.3.2 Fermentation media 999
- 9.4 Bioreactor 1000**
 - 9.4.1 Agitation and aeration 1000
 - 9.4.2 Types of bioreactors 1001
 - 9.4.3 Mass balances for bioreactor 1005
 - 9.4.4 Ideal batch reactor 1005
- 9.5 Basic operation and process control 1010**
- 9.6 Sterilization 1012**
- 9.7 Genetic instability 1015**
- 9.8 Mass and Heat transfer 1016**
 - 9.8.1 Mass transfer 1016
 - 9.8.2 Heat transfer 1020
- 9.9 Rheology of fermentation fluids 1023**
- 9.10 Enzyme immobilization 1024**
- 9.11 Scale up 1028**
- 9.12 Downstream processing 1029**
- 9.13 Industrial production of chemicals 1035**
- 9.14 Wastewater treatment 1038**
- 9.15 Bioremediation 1040**

Index 1048

Chapter 1

Chemical foundations of life



Biological processes in living organisms follow the laws of physics and chemistry, so in order to understand how biological systems work, it is important to understand the underlying physics and chemistry. Therefore, the fundamentals of chemistry are important to understand biological processes. In this section, we have described some important chemical concepts necessary to understand cellular chemistry.

1.1 Matter and Energy

Matter is anything that has mass and occupies space. All bodies consist of matter. Matter can exist in three physical states – solid, liquid and gas. **Solids** have definite volume and definite shape. **Liquids** have definite volume but not the definite shape. They take the shape of the container in which they are placed. **Gases** have neither definite volume nor definite shape. They completely occupy the container in which they are placed.

Law of conservation of matter or mass

In a closed system, the total quantity of matter during a chemical reaction or during a physical change remains constant over time. In other words, matter cannot be created or destroyed in a chemical reaction or during a physical change; it can only be rearranged or transformed from one form to another.

Energy is defined as the capacity to do work or produce heat. Energy can be classified into two principal types: kinetic energy and potential energy. A body in motion possesses energy because of its motion. Such energy is called **kinetic energy**. The energy a body possesses because of its position, condition, or composition is called **potential energy**.

Law of conservation of energy

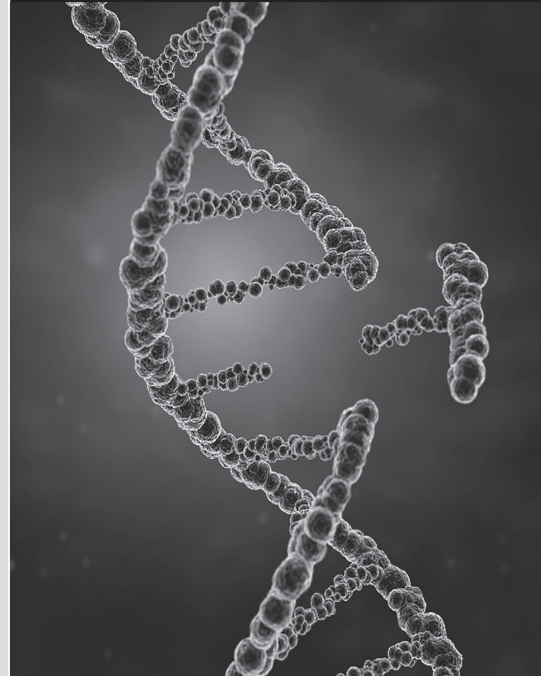
Energy cannot be created or destroyed in a chemical reaction or in a physical change. It can only be converted from one form to another.

Atom and molecules

Matter is composed of one or more elements. The smallest particle of an element is called an **atom**. Atoms consist principally of three fundamental sub-atomic particles: *electrons*, *protons*, and *neutrons*.

Chapter 2

Biomolecules and Catalysis



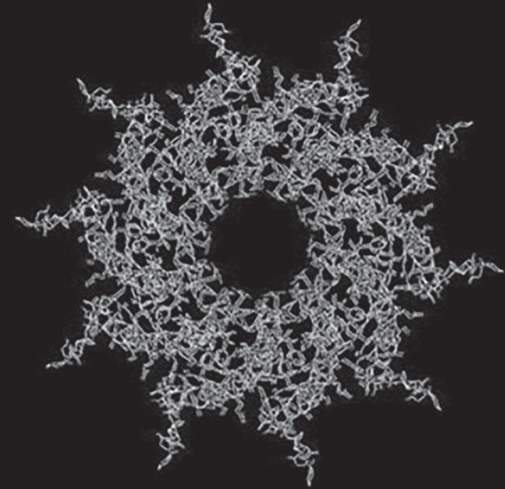
Biomolecules are carbon-based organic compounds that are produced by living organisms. Most biomolecules can be regarded as derivatives of hydrocarbons, with hydrogen atoms replaced by a variety of functional groups that confer specific chemical properties on the molecule. These molecules consist of a relatively small number of elements. Approximately 25 naturally occurring chemical elements are found in biomolecules, and most of these elements have a relatively low atomic number. In terms of the percentage of the total number of atoms, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and carbon together makeup over 99% of the mass of most cells. Biomolecules include both small as well as large molecules. The **small biomolecules** are low molecular weight (less than 1000) compounds which include sugars, fatty acids, amino acids, nucleotides, vitamins, hormones, neurotransmitters, primary and secondary metabolites. Sugars, fatty acids, amino acids, and nucleotides constitute the four major families of small biomolecules in cells. Each of these small biomolecules is composed of a small set of atoms linked to each other in a precise configuration through covalent bonds. **Large biomolecules** which have high molecular weight are called *macromolecules* and mostly are polymers of small biomolecules. These macromolecules are proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids.

Small biomolecules	Macromolecules
Sugars	Polysaccharides
Amino acids	Polypeptides (proteins)
Nucleotides	Polynucleotides (nucleic acids)
Fatty acids	

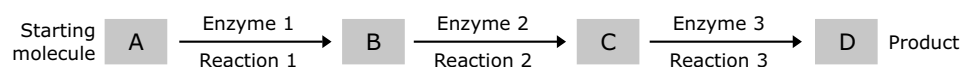
Nucleic acids and proteins are **informational macromolecules**. Proteins are polymers of amino acids and constitute the largest fraction (besides water) of cells. The nucleic acids, DNA and RNA, are polymers of nucleotides. They store, transmit, and translate genetic information. The polysaccharides, polymers of simple sugars, have two primary functions. They serve as energy-yielding fuel stores and as extracellular structural elements.

Chapter 3

Metabolism



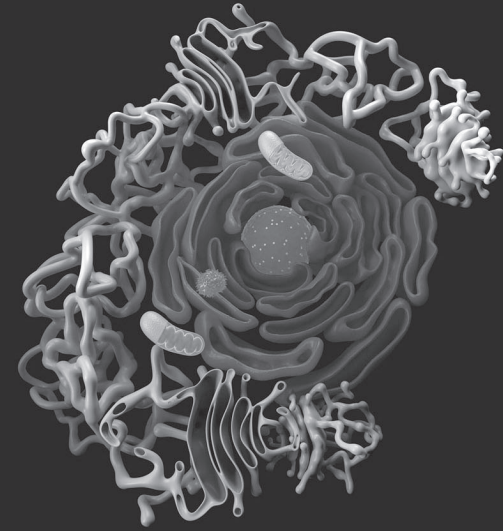
All cells function as biochemical factories. Within the living cell, biomolecules are constantly being synthesized and transformed into some other biomolecules. This synthesis and transformation constantly occur through enzyme-catalyzed chemical reactions. More than a thousand chemical reactions take place in a cell. Most of these chemical reactions do not occur in isolation but are always linked to some other reactions. All the interconnected chemical reactions occurring within a cell are called **metabolism** (derived from the Greek word for a *change*). Metabolism serves two fundamentally different purposes: 1. Generation of energy to drive vital functions and 2. Synthesis of biological molecules. The precursor is converted into a product during metabolic processes through a series of metabolic intermediates called **metabolites**. Cell metabolism is organized by enzymes. Enzyme-catalyzed reactions are connected in series so that the product of one reaction becomes the starting material, or substrate, for the next. The series of enzyme-catalyzed reactions transform substrates into end products through many specific chemical intermediates constitutes a **metabolic pathway**. Metabolism is sometimes referred to as **intermediary metabolism**. The term *intermediary metabolism* is often applied to the enzyme-catalyzed reactions that extract chemical energy from nutrient molecules and use it to synthesize and assemble cell components. The flow of metabolites through the metabolic pathway has a definite rate and direction. Metabolism is highly organized and regulated. Metabolic pathways are regulated through control of (1) the amounts of enzymes, (2) their catalytic activities, and (3) the availability of substrates. In multicellular organisms, the metabolic activities of different tissues are also regulated and integrated by growth factors and hormones that act from outside the cell.



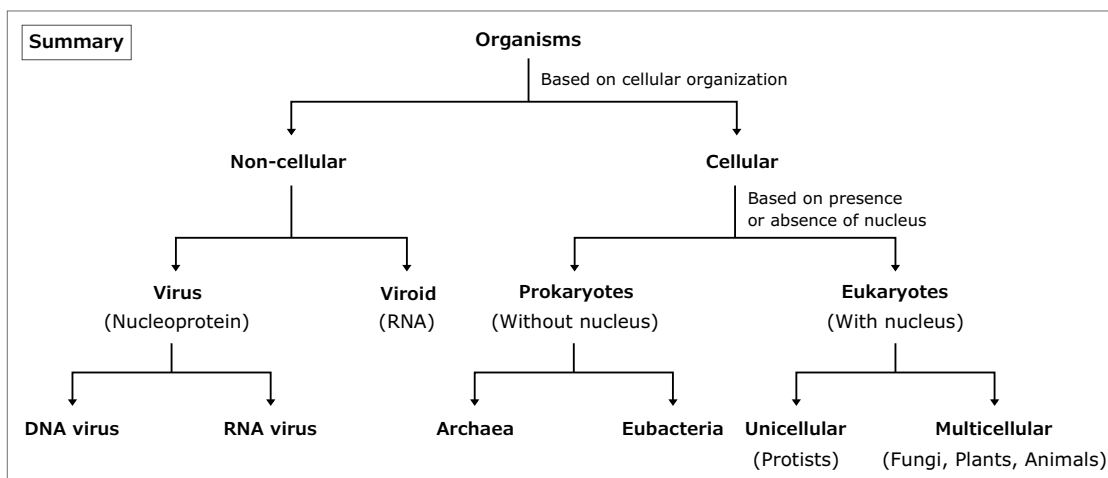
Metabolism consists of energy-yielding and energy-requiring reactions. The oxidation of carbon compounds is an important source of cellular energy. An energy currency common to all life forms, ATP, links energy-releasing pathways with energy-requiring pathways. ATP serves as the principal immediate donor of free energy in biological systems rather than as a long-term storage form of free energy.

Chapter 4

Cell Biology



A great diversity of organisms are present on the earth. These organisms can be classified into two broad categories- **cellular organisms** and **non-cellular organisms**. Cellular organisms belong to three distinct domains of life. These domains are bacteria and archaea and eukarya. Bacteria and archaea are prokaryotes. All eukaryotic organisms belong to domain eukarya which includes protists, fungi, plants and animals. Both prokaryotes and eukaryotes are cellular organisms. Viruses and viroids are non-cellular organisms because they lack cell or cell-like structure.

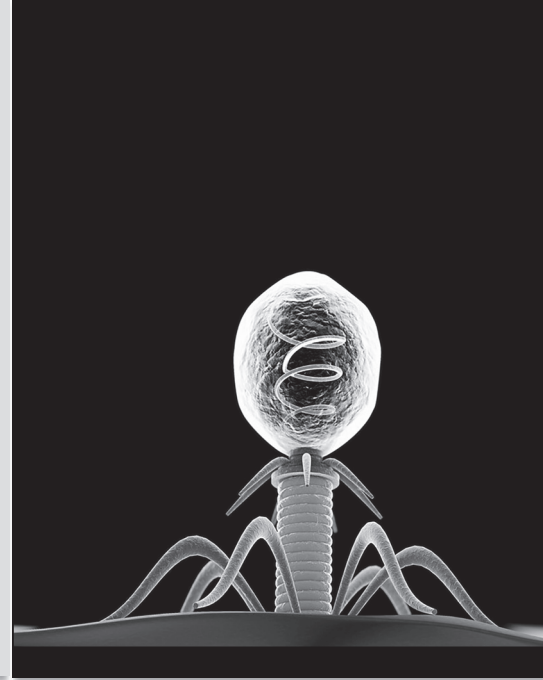


4.1 What is a cell?

The basic structural and functional unit of cellular organisms is the *cell*. It is an aqueous compartment bound by cell membrane, which is capable of independent existence and performing the essential functions of life. All cellular organisms consist of cell(s). Cellular organisms may be **unicellular** or **multicellular**. Unicellular organisms are made up of one cell. They are simple organisms and perform all functions in single cell. Most of prokaryotes are unicellular in nature. Multicellular organisms

Chapter 5

Prokaryotes and Viruses

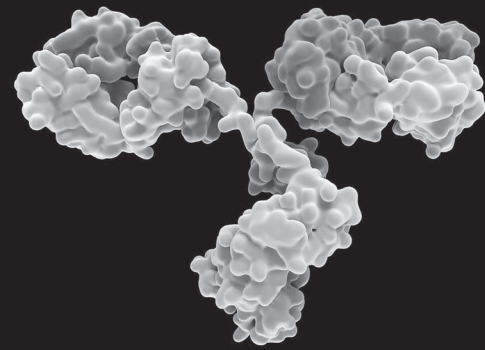


Prokaryotes (*pro* means before and *karyon* means kernel or nucleus) are cellular organisms that include two domains– **Bacteria** (sometimes referred to as *true bacteria* or *eubacteria*) and **archaea** (also termed as *archaebacteria* or *archaeobacteria*). The term *bacteria* or *eubacteria* refers to those that belong to the domain Bacteria, and the term *archaea* is used to refer to those that belong to domain Archaea. *The informal name 'bacteria' is occasionally used loosely in the literature to refer to all the prokaryotes, and care should be taken to interpret its meaning in any particular context.* Prokaryotic organisms are usually microscopic, single-celled organisms that have a relatively simple structure – neither nucleus nor unit membrane-bound organelles. Prokaryotes can be distinguished from eukaryotes in terms of their cell structure and molecular make-up. Prokaryotic cells have a simpler internal structure than eukaryotic cells. Although many structures are common to both cell types, some are unique to prokaryotes. Most prokaryotic cells lack extensive, complex internal membrane systems. The major distinguishing characteristics of prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells are as follows:

Feature	Prokaryotic cells	Eukaryotic cells
Membrane-bound nucleus	Absent	Present
DNA complexed with histone	Absent	Present
Number of chromosomes	One (mostly)	More than one
Mitosis and meiosis	Absent	Present
Sterol (in plasma membrane)	Absent, except <i>Mycoplasma</i>	Present
Ribosome	70S (cytosol)	80S (cytosol)
Unit-mem. bound organelle	Absent	Present
Cell wall	Present in <i>most</i> of prokaryotic cells. In eubacteria, it is made up of peptidoglycan.	Made up of cellulose in plant and chitin in fungi. Absent in animal cells.

Chapter 6

Immunology



Immunology is the science that is concerned with immune response to foreign challenges or simply, study of the body's defense against infection. It addresses the questions such as how does the body defend itself against infection, when an infection does occur, how does the body eliminate the pathogens and how does long-lasting immunity to many infectious diseases develop? The ability of an organism to resist infections by pathogens or state of protection against foreign organisms or substances is called **immunity** (derived from Latin term *immunis*, meaning 'exempt'). The array of cells, tissues and organs which carry out this activity constitute the **immune system**. The immune response is a complex process and is divided into two categories — **innate** (or **native**) and **adaptive** (or **acquired**) immunity. *Innate immunity* is a general, non-specific immune response which presents in all individuals at all times. In contrast to innate immunity, *adaptive immunity* is highly specific to the particular pathogen that induced it. It develops during the lifetime of an individual as a response to infection and adaptation to the infection. Thus, when a given pathogen is new to the host, it is initially recognized by the innate immune system and then the adaptive immune response is activated. Innate immunity is the most ancient form of defense, found in most multicellular organisms, while adaptive immunity is a recent evolutionary phenomenon, having arisen in vertebrates. Thus, vertebrates are protected by both innate immunity and adaptive immunity.

6.1 Innate immunity

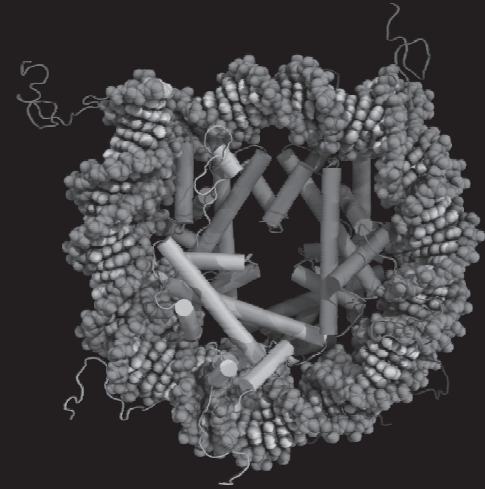
Innate immunity is present since birth, evolutionarily primitive and is relatively nonspecific. It provides the *early defense* against pathogens, before adaptive immune responses can develop. It is not specific to any one pathogen but rather acts against all foreign molecules and pathogens. It also does not rely on previous exposure to a pathogen and response is functional since birth and has no memory.

Components of the innate immune system

An organism can adopt three strategies to deal with the threat posed by pathogens (the agents that are capable of causing infectious diseases): *avoidance*, *resistance* and *tolerance*. **Avoidance**

Chapter 7

Genetics



All living organisms reproduce. Reproduction results in the formation of offspring of the same kind. However, the resulting offsprings need not and, most often, do not completely resemble the parents. Several characteristics may differ between individuals belonging to the same species. These differences are termed **variations**. The mechanism of transmission of characters, resemblances, and differences from the parental generation to the offspring is called **heredity**. The scientific study of heredity and variations is known as **genetics** (from the Greek word *genno* = give birth). The word 'genetics' was first suggested by prominent British scientist William Bateson. Genetics can be divided into three areas: *classical genetics*, *molecular genetics*, and *evolutionary genetics*. **Classical genetics** is concerned with the basic principles of heredity and how traits are passed from one generation to the next. It also addresses the relationship between chromosomes and heredity and the arrangement of genes on chromosomes. **Molecular genetics** covers the chemical nature of the gene and how genetic information is replicated and expressed, i.e., cellular processes of replication, transcription, and translation. **Evolutionary genetics** is the study of how genetic variation leads to evolutionary change. It is concerned with the evolution of genome structure, the genetic basis of speciation and adaptation, and genetic change in response to evolutionary processes such as natural selection, genetic drift, mutation, and gene flow in populations.

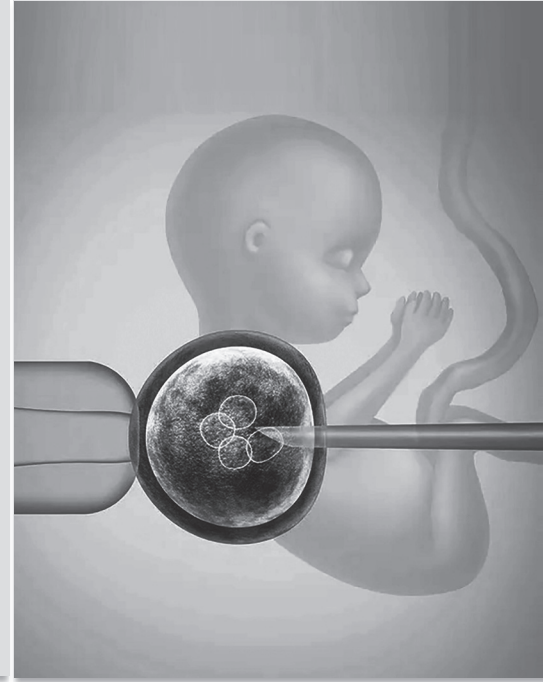
Classical genetics

7.1 Mendel's principles

Gregor Johann Mendel (1822–1884), known as the *father of genetics*, was an Austrian monk. He conducted a series of experiments using pea plants and showed that traits are passed from parents to offspring in predictable ways. By quantitative data analysis of results, he concluded that each trait in the pea plant is controlled by a pair of factors and that during gamete formation, members of a gene pair separate from each other. In 1865, he published the results of *hybridization experiments* titled *Experiments on Plant Hybridization* in a journal 'The proceeding of the Brunn

Chapter 8

Recombinant DNA technology



Recombinant DNA technology (also known as genetic engineering) is the set of techniques that enable the DNA from different sources to be identified, isolated and recombined so that new characteristics can be introduced into an organism. The invention of recombinant DNA technology—the way in which genetic material from one organism is artificially introduced into the genome of another organism and then replicated and expressed by that other organism—was largely the work of Paul Berg, Herbert W. Boyer and Stanley N. Cohen, although many other scientists also made important contributions to the new technology as well. Paul Berg developed the first recombinant DNA molecules that combined DNA from the SV40 virus and lambda phage. Later in 1973, Herbert Boyer and Stanley Cohen develop recombinant DNA technology, showing that genetically engineered DNA molecules may be cloned in foreign cells.

One important aspect of recombinant DNA technology is **DNA cloning**. It is a set of techniques that are used to design recombinant DNA molecules and to direct their replication within host organisms. The use of the word 'cloning' refers to the method used to generate identical DNA molecules.

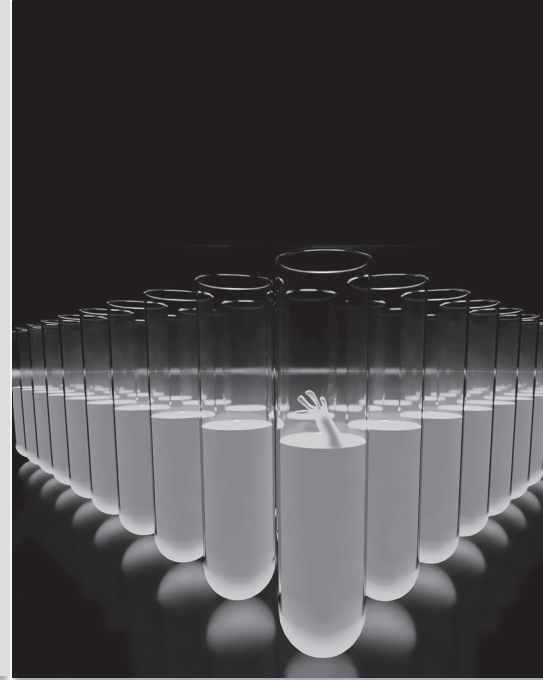
8.1 DNA cloning

DNA cloning is the production of a large number of identical DNA molecules from a single ancestral DNA molecule. The essential characteristic of DNA cloning is that the desired DNA fragments must be *selectively amplified*, resulting in a large increase in copy number of selected DNA sequences. In practice, this involves multiple rounds of DNA replication catalyzed by a DNA polymerase acting on one or more types of the template DNA molecule. Essentially two different DNA cloning approaches are used: *Cell-based* and *cell-free DNA cloning*.

Cell-based DNA cloning: This was the first form of DNA cloning to be developed and is an *in vivo* cloning method. The first step in this approach involves attaching foreign DNA fragments *in vitro* to DNA sequences, capable of independent replication. The recombinant DNA fragments are then transferred into suitable host cells where they can be propagated selectively. The essence of cell-based DNA cloning involves the following steps:

Chapter 9

Bioprocess Engineering



Bioprocess engineering is a specialization of chemical engineering that deals with the design and development of equipment and processes for the manufacturing of products such as food, pharmaceuticals and polymers from biological materials. It uses the capabilities of organisms in industrial, medical, environmental or agricultural processes in order to produce useful biological materials. Application of bioprocess engineering includes:

- Design and operation of fermentation systems,
- Development of food processing systems,
- Application and testing of product separation technologies,
- Design of instrumentation to monitor and
- Control biological processes and much more.

Bioprocess engineers work at the frontiers of biological and engineering sciences to *bring engineering to Life* through the conversion of biological materials into other forms needed by mankind. One of the main tasks of a bioprocess engineer is to control and maintenance of a biological processes such as the production of beverages, pharmaceuticals, antibiotics, enzymes, biochemicals, food processing and biological waste treatment. These processes require a well-designed growth environment to obtain the maximum yield of the product and consequently, these conditions need to be carefully controlled. Environmental design comprises the determination of the environment of the process, while fermentation engineering provides the means for meeting those requirements.

9.1 Concept of material and energy balance

Concepts of material (or mass) and energy balance is important in process engineering. The term 'balance' implies that the masses and energy entering and leaving the system should be equal. The *law of conservation of mass* provides the theoretical framework for mass balances. Similarly, the principle underlying all energy balance calculations is the *law of conservation of energy*, which states that energy can be neither created nor destroyed.