

# 3SHAMBHUNATH INSTITUTE OF PHARMACY

4I<sup>st</sup> Sessional Examination 2019-2020

B. Pharm. 2<sup>nd</sup> Year 3<sup>rd</sup> sem.

Subject- PHYSICAL PHARMACEUTICS-I

Time: - 1.30 hrs.

Max. Marks: -30

Paper Code: BP302T

Roll No

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

## SECTION-A

1. Attempt all the questions:

(5X2=10)

- i. Write the full form of EDTA. Which type of example it is among the following: -  
a)Tetradentate ligand or b)Hexadentate ligand.

Ans:- Ethylene diaminetetraacetic acid, Hexadentate ligand

- ii. What is stagnant layer? What is rate limiting step?

Ans:-Solution of the solid to form a thin layer or film at the solid/liquid interface called as stagnant layer and diffusion of the soluble solute from the stagnant layer to the bulk of the solution is slower. And In chemical kinetics, the overall rate of reaction is often determined by the slowest step known as rate limiting step

- iii. What should be the nature of drugs which usually bind to the human serum albumin?

Ans:- Acidic nature

- iv. What is BCS? Give classes of BCS with example.

Ans:- Biopharmaceutical Classification System is useful for predicting the intestinal drug adsorption provided by USFDA. Type 1 ( Metoprolol), Type 2( Glibenclamide), Type 3( Ranitidine), Type 4(Hydrochlorthiazide)

- v. Give the equation of Fick's law. The rate of diffusion of drug across the biological is depending on concentration gradient. True/False

Ans:-

$$= \frac{DAKm/w}{h}(C_{GIT} - C), \text{ True}$$

## SECTION-B

2. Attempt any two of the following:

(2X5=10)

i. What is protein binding? Gives the methods for determining the protein binding.

Ans:-

Protein Binding  
 The formation of a drug-protein complex is often named as protein binding.  
 Plasma proteins such as Albumin, Globulin and

α<sub>1</sub> acid glycoprotein — α<sub>1</sub> lipoprotein

→ Among the plasma proteins albumin is the most important one. It has ability to bind both acidic & basic drugs.

→ Another plasma protein, lysozyme has been shown to bind with numerous drugs.

→ α<sub>1</sub> acid glycoprotein appears to have greater affinity for basic drug than acidic drugs.

→ A protein molecule is a macromolecule which is composed of many hundreds of amino acids linked together.

→ The functional groups present in the side-chains of the amino acids provides sites for binding of drug molecule.

\* Diagrammatic representation of Protein Binding

```

    graph TD
      Drug[Drug] --> Elimination[Elimination]
      Drug --> Metabolism[Metabolism]
      Metabolism --> ActiveMetabolites[Active Metabolites]
      Elimination --> InactiveMetabolites[Inactive Metabolites]
      subgraph Plasma [plasma]
        Unbound[Unbound drug]
        Bound[Bound drug]
        Unbound <--> Bound
      end
      Unbound --> Elimination
      Unbound --> Metabolism
      Bound --> Unbound
      ActiveMetabolites --> Receptors[Receptors]
      Receptors --> Therapeutic[Therapeutic effect]
      Receptors --> Side[Side effect]
  
```

① The binding of drugs to proteins content in the body can influence their action in number of ways.

① May facilitate the distribution of drug throughout the body.

- ② May inactivate a drug by binding so firmly <sup>or tightly</sup> that sufficient concn is not available at the receptor site
- ③ May alter the duration of action of a drug.
- ④ May alter the therapeutic effect.

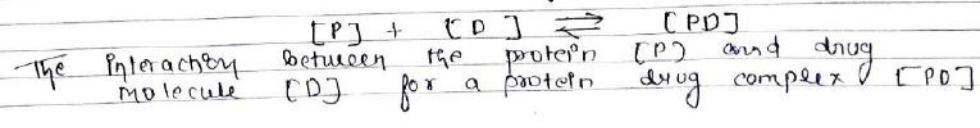
\* Binding of drugs to protein

Protein	Drugs that bind
$\alpha_1$ acid glycoprotein	Basic drugs, Imipramine, Lidocaine
Lipoprotein	Basic, lipophilic drug chlorpromazine
$\alpha_1$ globulin	Steroids
$\alpha_2$ globulin	Vit. A, D, E & K

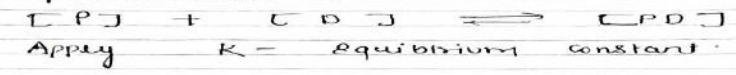
\* Order of binding drugs

Albumin >  $\alpha_1$  acid glycoprotein > Lipoprotein >  $\alpha_2$  globulin.

\* Protein [P] and Drug molecule [D]



may be represented as -



$$K = \frac{[PD]}{[P][D]} \text{ or}$$

where  $K = \text{Equilibrium constant}$  or  $\text{association constant}$

[P] = conc. of unbound protein

[D] = conc. of unbound drug

[PD] = conc. of protein-drug complex

Total protein conc. in the body [Pt]

$$[Pt] = [P] + [PD]$$

$$[P] = [Pt] - [PD] \implies \textcircled{2}$$

Substitute eqn ② in ①

$$[PD] = K [D] ([Pt] - [PD])$$

$$[PD] = K [D] [Pt] - K [D] [PD]$$

$$[PD] + K [D] [PD] = K [D] [Pt]$$

$$[PD] (1 + K [D]) = K [D] [P_T]$$

$$\frac{[PD]}{[P_T]} = \frac{K [D]}{1 + K [D]}$$

where  $\frac{[PD]}{[P_T]}$  represent the average number of drug molecules bound per mole of protein

$$\frac{[PD]}{[P_T]} = r \quad \gamma$$

$$r = \frac{K [D]}{1 + K [D]}$$

We have assume that only one bind site exist for 1 molecule of protein. Suppose there are many  $r = n \frac{K [D]}{1 + K [D]}$  no. of binding site (n) they the eqn follows

$n$  = Number of binding site

$$r = n \frac{K [D]}{1 + K [D]}$$

$$r (1 + K [D]) = n K [D]$$

$$r + r K [D] = n K [D]$$

$$r = n K [D] - r K [D]$$

$$r = [D] [nK - rK]$$

$$\frac{r}{[D]} = nK - rK$$

### Scatchard plot

$$\frac{r}{[D]}$$

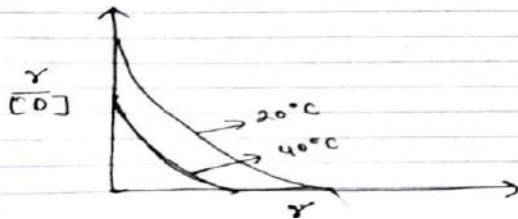
$$r = \frac{[PD]}{[P_T]} = \text{Bound drug / total protein}$$

In Scatchard plot  $\frac{r}{[D]}$  is plotted against  $r$   $\left[ \frac{r}{[D]} = \frac{[PD]}{[P_T]} \right]$   
 $= \frac{\text{Bound drug}}{\text{Total protein}}$

It gives a straight line or linear relationship, if only one class of binding site is present

If more than one class of binding site exist the graph is not linear but showing a curvature.

Example Binding of Brhydroxycoumarin to Albumin at 20°C to 40°C

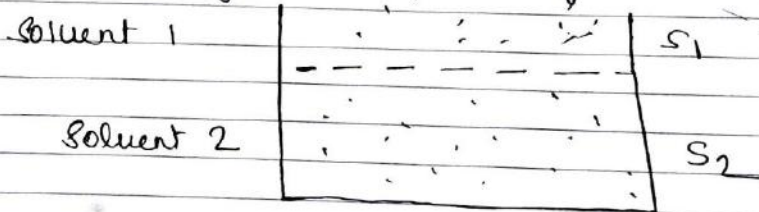


ii. Explain distribution law, its limitations and applications.

• Distribution law or Nernst Equation.

It is firstly given by Nernst therefore it is also known as Nernst Distribution law.

→ It can be stated as "That a solute will distribute itself between two immiscible solvents in such a manner that, at equilibrium, the ratio of conc<sup>n</sup> of the solute in the two phase at a particular temp. will be constant provided the solute has the same molecular weight in each of the phases."



For a solute (S) distributing between solvent ① and ②, we can write

$$KD = \frac{[S_2]}{[S_1]}$$

where KD is known as the distribution coefficient or extraction coefficient.

It is independent of the total conc<sup>n</sup> of the solute and the phases volume.

→ Hence, S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub> denotes the conc<sup>n</sup> of solute in phase ① and ② respectively.

of the total conc<sup>n</sup> to be increased until one phase is saturated and reach the conc<sup>n</sup>.

The second phase merged simultaneously become a saturated solution.

Limitations of Distribution law.

\* There are basically two limitations of distribution law :-

① The solute is to be distributed should not react with any of the solvent.

Example :- X = solute, P & Q = Solvent



OR

What is ideal solubility parameters and give the mechanism of solute solvent interactions.

\* Solubility Parameters  
 In 1936 Joel H. Hildebrand  

$$\delta = \left[ \frac{\Delta H_v}{V_1} - \frac{RT}{V_1} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\Delta H_v = \text{Heat of vapourisation of Molar}$$

$$V_1 = \text{Molar vol. of liquid at the desired temp.}$$

$$R = \text{gas constant} \quad T = \text{Temperature}$$

Another solubility parameter  
 In 1966 Charles M. Hansen this was developed by  
 Charles M. Hansen in 1966.  
 This Hansen parameter consist of three parts  
 → A Dispersion component, a Polar component and Hydrogen bonding component. So Hansen parameter is shown as  

$$\delta_t^2 = \delta_d^2 + \delta_p^2 + \delta_h^2$$

$$\delta_t^2 = \text{Total Hildebrand parameter}$$

$$\delta_d^2 = \text{Dispersion component}$$

$$\delta_p^2 = \text{polar component}$$

$$\delta_h^2 = \text{Hydrogen bonding component}$$

Adhesive - Attraction between <sup>unlike</sup> molecules

Dielectric - Attraction between positive & negative charges - Interaction between positive & negative charges or opposite charges

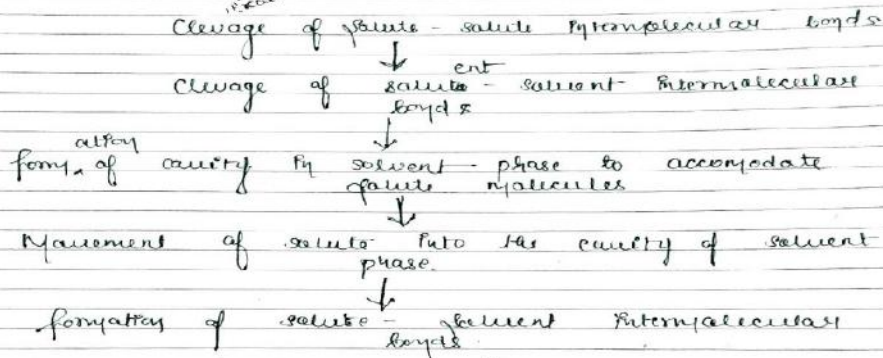
## Solute-Solvent Interaction

When the adhesive forces are more than the cohesive forces, the solubility of a solute in a solvent is generally enhanced.

Additives of \_\_\_\_\_

- Polar solvents dissolve polar solutes and non polar solvents dissolve non polar solutes.
- Semi polar solvents such as acetone & alcohol act as intermediate solvent.
- Crystalline solids have low solubility. The insoluble nature is due to the crystalline arrangement and low intermolecular forces between solute & solvent.
- We can measure the intermolecular forces among solute molecules by melting point. Higher the melting point of a solute the less soluble is the solute.
- Electrolyte have good solubility & their solubility is largely governed by electrostatic forces. They are easily soluble in solvent with high dielectric constant.  
for ex. water has high dielectric constant & it is a good solvent for polar substances (electrolyte).

### Mechanism of solute-solvent interaction.



### \* Solubility Parameters

In 1936 Joel H. Hildebrand

$$\delta = \left[ \frac{\Delta H_v}{V_1} - \frac{RT}{V_1} \right]^{1/2}$$

$\Delta H_v$  = Heat of Vaporisation Molar

$V_1$  = Molar vol. of liquid at the desired temp.

$R$  = gas constant,  $T$  = Temperature.

iii. What is Raoult's law? Explain the Critical solution temperature and its applications.

### Raoult's Law

According to Raoult's law at a definite temperature, the partial pressure of a component in a liquid mixture is equal to the vapour pressure of a pure state multiply by the mole fraction of the component.

$$P_A = P_A^0 \times X_A$$

where  $P_A$  = Partial pressure of a component

$P_A^0$  = Vapour pressure in pure state

$X_A$  = mole fraction of the component

Ideal sol<sup>n</sup> obey Raoult's law. when deviation in sol<sup>n</sup> is called real or non ideal. If deviation is negative then solubility increases due to hydrogen bonding.



If deviation is positive the solubility decrease with increase of association of molecules.

→ Two liquid either completely miscible or partially miscible.

Completely miscible liquid mix in all proportion and hence do not create solubility problem.

The mutual solubility of phenol and water, two conjugated liquid phases increases with temp. and at a temp. called critical soln temp. or consolute temp. and at this temp. a homogeneous or a single phase result for any composition.

Phenol and water show an upper critical solubility temp. at  $66.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  and are miscible at this temperature.

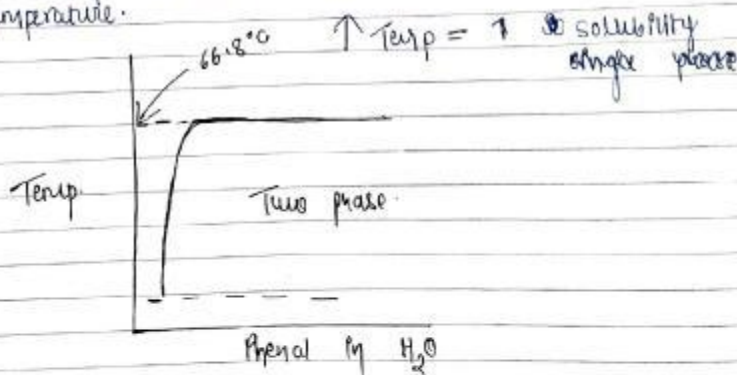
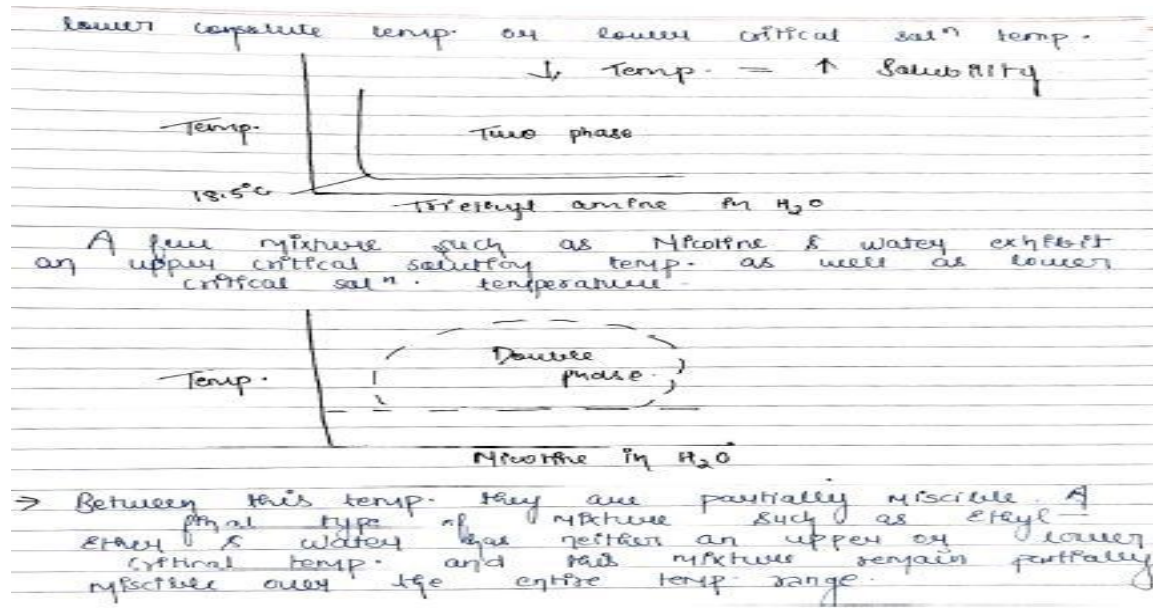


Fig. of Consolute temp or critical soln temp

In certain liquid pairs such as diethyl amine & water, solubility increase as the temp. lower and hence this is known as



OR

What is the difference between ideal solution and real solution? Explain the factors influencing solubility of drugs.

Non Ideal Solution.

When heat of sol<sup>n</sup> is positive then it is non ideal sol<sup>n</sup>. It is due to various attractive forces between solute, solvent and solute-solvent molecules.

Application.

- Help in practical demonstration
- It enhance the solubility.
- It decrease the partial miscibility.

## Factor affecting solubility of drug.

- Effect of pressure: when pressure increases then solubility also increases. According to Henry's law:  $C = P \times K$  where  $C$  = concn of dissolved in gas per volume (solvent)  $P$  = partial pressure in mm Hg  $K$  = solubility constant or proportionality constant.
- Effect of temperature: In gaseous form temp. increases then solubility and in liquid form temp. increases the solubility. In gaseous form solubility decreases because of greater tendency of the gases to expand in comparison of solvent.
- Effect of electrolyte and non-electrolyte: electrolyte also increases solubility & non-electrolyte such as sugar is also known as salting out.
- Effect of chemical reaction: when the chemical reaction increases then solubility also increases. Chemical reactions of any between gas or solvent greatly increases the solubility of gases in the solvent.

Ex - HCl reaction with  $H_2O$  by H-bonding. When dissolved in water.

- Particle size effect: when particle size is small then solubility is increases and vice-versa.
- Effect of pH: Most of the drugs are weak acid and weak bases, it is partially soluble in water. For weak acidic drug in its unionized form, generally less soluble than ionized form. When the pH decreases the solubility of weak acidic drug increases. For weak basic drug solubility decreases with increase in pH.
- Effect of complex formation: it may be increases or decrease in complex formation.
  - Soluble complexing like iodine with potassium to form water soluble potassium iodine complex.  $I_2 + Potassium \rightarrow Potassium \text{ iodine complex}$
  - Insoluble complexing. It decreases the solubility. Ex - Tetra cycline with calcium ions present in milk or any other preparation is less soluble.

## \* Solubility of gas in liquid, solubility of liquid

Ex solubility of gas in liquid like  $O_2$  and  $N_2$  in liquid. - gas used as propellant in pharmaceutical aerosol formulation.

Solubility of gas in liquid represent the concn of dissolved gas in the liquid when it is in equilibrium with some of the pure gases above the solution. → liquid in liquid like aromatic water such as chloroform water and peppermint water, spirit and elixir. Lotray, spray - also consider as salt of one liquid to another.

## SECTION-C

3. Attempt any one of the following:

(1x10=10)

- i. Define the term Diffusion and explain its mechanism. Describe the diffusion principles in biological system.

**\* Diffusion** - The movement of molecules from a area in which they are highly concentrated to a area in which they are less concentrated.

**Absorption** - The process of movement of drug from its site of administration to the systemic circulation called as absorption.

**Mechanism** -

- ① Passive diffusion
- ② Pore transport
- ③ Facilitated diffusion
- ④ Active transport
- ⑤

① **Passive diffusion** - It is also called non-ionic diffusion. More than 90% drugs are absorbed through passive diffusion. In the transportation of drug there is no energy required, therefore process is called passive diffusion. Passive diffusion is expressed by Fick's law of diffusion.

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{DAK_m}{h} (C_{out} - C)$$

$\frac{dQ}{dt}$  = Rate of drug diffusion  
 $D$  = Diffusion coefficient of drug  
 $A$  = Surface area  
 $K_m$  = Partition coefficient of drug b/w lipidal membrane and a.s fluid  
 $h$  = thickness of the membrane.

**# Carrier-mediated transport** -

→ Carrier may be an enzyme or other membrane component.

→ As more carriers are present in the intestinal tract - so more absorption of drug from that site.

(A) **Facilitated diffusion** - It is down-hill transport as passive transport but at a much faster rate.

→ As no energy required, the process is not inhibited by metabolic poisons.

eg - Entry of glucose in to RBC  
 Intestinal absorption of Vit B<sub>1</sub> and B<sub>2</sub>  
 a.s absorption of VPE B<sub>12</sub>

(B) **Active transport** - It is more important in the absorption of nutrients and drugs.

→ Transport against the conc<sup>n</sup> or uphill transport.

→ Energy is required.

→ **Endocytosis** - It is a minor transport mechanism.

→ It involves engulfing extracellular materials with the help of its cell membrane.

It includes two type processes -

(i) Phagocytosis (cell eating) - In this large particles including microorganisms, are engulfed in a body cell.

(ii) Pinocytosis (cell drinking) - In this small particles including nutrients are engulfed in the cell membrane.

**Principle** - In Biological system -

- (i) Diffusion layer model (film theory)
- (ii) Danckwert's model (penetration or surface renewal theory)
- (iii) Interfacial barrier model (Double barrier mechanism or limited saturation theory).

① **Diffusion layer model (Film theory)** -

It is a simplest model where dissolution of crystals, immersion in liquid takes place without involving reactive or electrical forces.

It consists of two consecutive steps -

→ **Sol<sup>n</sup>** of the solid to form a thin film or stagnant layer at the solid/liquid surface called as stagnant film or diffusion layer which is saturated with the drug. This layer step is usually rapid.

→ **Diffusion** of the soluble solid from the stagnant layer to the bulk of the sol<sup>n</sup>. This step is slower and is therefore, the rate determining step in the drug dissolution.

solid liquid interface  
 → stagnant layer thickness h  
 → diffusion of molecules A  
 bulk of sol<sup>n</sup> with conc<sup>n</sup> C<sub>b</sub>

Also can occur only diffusion under steady state conditions - modifying the Noyes & Whitney established equation -

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = k(C_s - C_b)$$

$\frac{dC}{dt}$  = dissolution rate of the drug.

$k$  = dissolution rate constant (first order)

$C_s$  = conc. of drug in stagnant layers

$C_b$  = conc. of the drug in bulk of the soln time  $t$ .

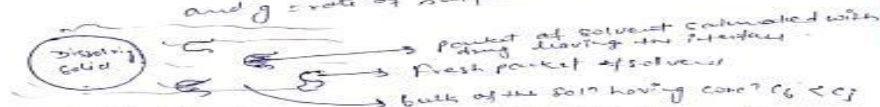
### ② Danckwert's Model (penetration or surface renewal theory)

As to this model, the agitated fluid consist of mass of eddies or packets of fresh solvent are continuously being exposed to new surface of solid, and then can due to unmixing the drug conc<sup>n</sup> at the solid/liquid interface never reaches  $C_s$  and has a lower limiting value of  $C_i$ . Since, the solvent packets are exposed to new solid surface each time, the theory is called as surface renewal theory.

The Danckwert's model is expressed by eqn -

$$V \frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{dm}{dt} = A(C_s - C_b)j$$

where  $m$  = mass of solid dissolved  
and  $j$  = rate of surface renewal.



### ③ Interfacial Barrier Model (Double Barrier or Limited Solvation theory)

The diffusion layer model and the Danckwert's model were based on two assumptions:

- ① the rate determining step that controls dissolution is the mass transport.
  - ② solid-soln equilibrium is achieved at the solid/liquid interface.
- A/c to interfacial barrier model, an interfacial conc  $C_i$  exists at the interface as a result of solvation mechanism and is a function of solubility rather than diffusion.

$$k_d C_i = k_j (C_s - C_b)$$

where,  $k_d$  = dissolution rate parameter

and  $k_j$  = effective interfacial transport constant.

→ In this theory, diffusibility  $D$  may not be independent of saturation conc  $C_s$ . The interfacial barrier model can be extended to both diffusion layer model and the Danckwert's model.

- ii. Define complexation. Give the classification. Explain the crystalline structures of complexes and thermodynamic treatment of stability constant.

**Complexation** :- It is defined as an association of two or more chemical constituent complexes generally result from a donor acceptor mechanism between two or more chemical constituent forming a coordinate compound.

→ The donor should be a non metallic ligand atom to donate a pair of e<sup>-</sup> to the acceptor, the acceptor should be a metallic ligand atom.

→ During the formation of complex various types of forces are involved these are Vanderwaal forces, Electrostatic force, Dipolar & sometime hydrogen bonding & also Inductive.

**Classification of Complexes** :- According to the type of complex which form there are classified into the following type.

1. Metal Ion compound
  - Inorganic type
  - chelates
  - olefin type
  - Organometallic type
  - σ-bond
  - π-bond
2. Organic Molecular Complexes
  - formic acid
  - caffeine
  - polymer type

3. No bond Compound
  - Cathrate
  - Channel lattice type
  - layer type
  - Monomolecular
  - Macromolecular

① **Metal Ion (Inorganic type)** :- In this an inorganic metal complex is formed which ligand is co-ordinated with co-valent bond. During this process the intermolecular forces involved are electrostatic forces.

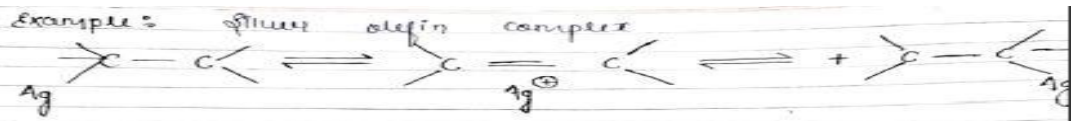
② **Co-ordinate Number**  
It is defined as maximum number of group that can combined or coordinate with central atom.  
Example :- Hexa ammonia is co-ordinating with the central atom.  
i.e. Cobalt chloride forming a inorganic metal complex of hexammine cobalt (III) chloride  $[Co(NH_3)_6]^{3+} Cl^-$   
In this co-ordinate number is 6.

### Chelates

A substance containing two or more donor group combined with a metal ion to forming complex known as chelates.

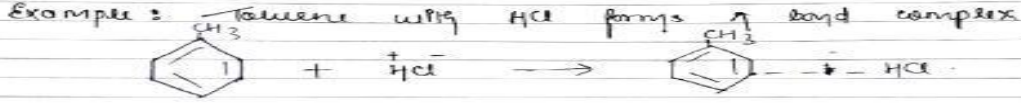
Example :- EDTA - It is a popular chelating agent is a hexadentate.

**Olefin type** :- Appraisal solution of certain metal ion such as Fe, Pt, Hg. It can absorb olefin such as ethylene to yield water soluble coordination complexes.

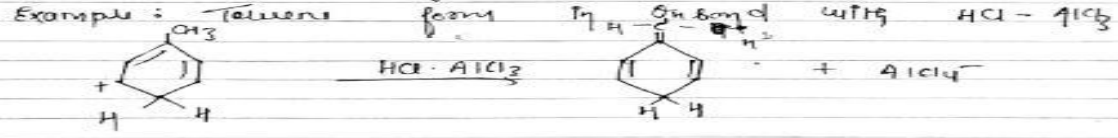


① Aromatic Complexes

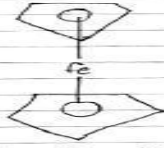
①  $\pi$  bond complexes: Aromatic bases such as benzene, toluene & xylene form  $\pi$  bond complexes



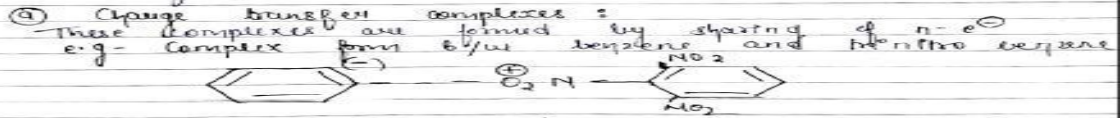
②  $\sigma$  bond: involves the formation of  $\sigma$  bond with HCl



③ Sandwich: In HCl's one  $e^-$  of each ring is used in binding metal atom and it exhibit an aromatic character. Such compounds are known as sandwich compound e.g. ferrocene



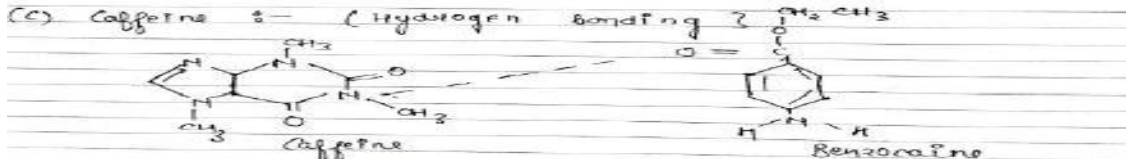
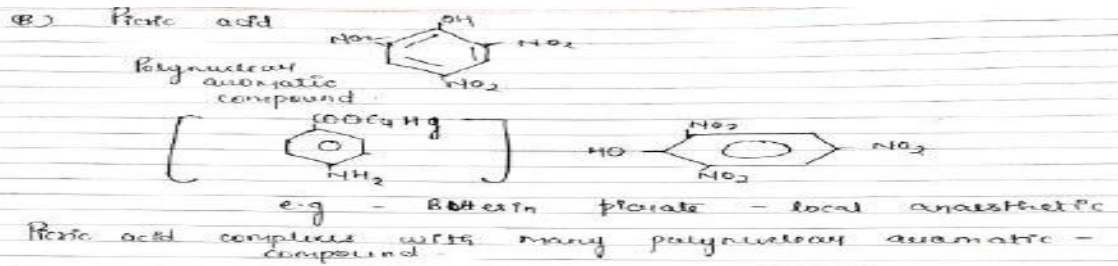
2. Organic molecular complexation: These are also known as addition complexes which are formed by the union of two organic molecules held together by electrostatic forces or hydrogen bond.



(A) Quinhydrone Complexes: Mixing of alcoholic solutions of equally molar quantities of hydroquinone and benzoquinone, great crystals of quinhydrone settle down

Hydroquinone  $\rightleftharpoons$  Benzoquinone

Quinhydrone green crystals complex



A large number of H-bonding compound linkage containing H-bonding

$\rightarrow$   $H_2O$   $H_2O$   $H_2O$  the hydrogen atoms of one molecule are attracted to the oxygen atom of another molecule.

Hydrogen bonds are relatively weak bonds with 1-7% of the strength of covalent bonds.

(B) No bond complexes are formed due to the ability of the complex to get trapped in the cage like crystal structure of the solvent.

$\rightarrow$  These complexes generally do not have any adhesive force also known as van der Waals complex.

$\rightarrow$  Colgate ex: Warfarin, propyl salicylate (anti coagulant) - water.

$\rightarrow$  Appear lattice complex.

Vitamin A palmitate  
 $\downarrow$   
 Vitamin A palmitate can be easily complex with layer type.

Benzoin  $\rightarrow$  Mono crystallite hydrocarbon - 10% of H<sub>2</sub>O, Alcohols glycols.

Monomolecular type: 10% palmitate constituents of benzoin as a layer of H<sub>2</sub>O, alcohol and glycol.

IV Monomolecular type: Cyclo dextrin molecular  $\rightarrow$  monomolecular.

(A) Not mention of the guest of the guest molecules.

Cyclodextrin molecular structure represent a monomolecular host molecule in which a 10% of guest molecules get entrapped.

V Macromolecular type: Synthetic Dextrins gel  $\rightarrow$  H<sub>2</sub>O.

Macromolecular zeolite inclusion compound cyclodextrin gel.

Thermodynamic treatment of stability constant  $K_{st}$  and binding constant  $K_b$ .

$\rightarrow$  A stability constant is a binding constant, equilibrium constant for the formation of a complex by sol<sup>n</sup>.

$\rightarrow$  It is a measure of the strength of the interaction between the reagents that come together to form the complex.

The stability constant of the metal complexes are related to thermodynamic property such as:

- Free energy change ( $\Delta G$ )
- Enthalpy change ( $\Delta H$ ) Internal energy along with Temp. Pressure & volume.
- Entropy ( $\Delta S$ ) Energy which is available to do work.

The relationship between standard free energy change  $\Delta G$  of complexation and the equilibrium constant  $K$  can be given by the eqn:

$$\Delta G = -2.303RT \log K$$

Standard enthalpy change  $\Delta H$  may be obtained from the slope of a plot of  $\log K$  versus  $1/T$

$$\log K = \frac{-\Delta H}{2.303R} \frac{1}{T} + \text{constant}$$



When the values of  $K$  at two temp. are known then the following eqn may be used.

$$\log \frac{K_2}{K_1} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303R} \left( \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right)$$

The standard entropy change  $\Delta S$  may be obtained by the following eqn.

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

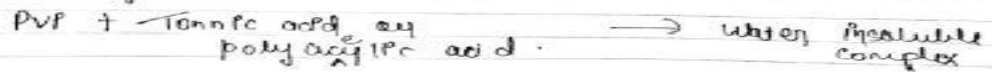
As the stability constant for complexation increases,  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  become more negative.

As the binding between the donor and the acceptor becomes stronger the  $\Delta H$  becomes more negative.

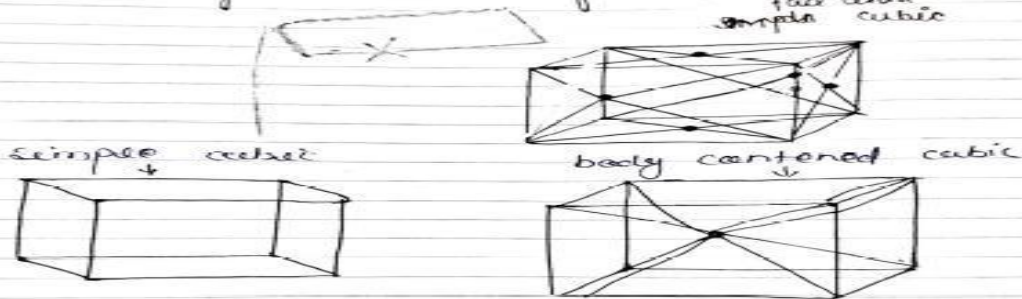
### Inorganic molecules type - Polymer complexes.

- Polymeric materials such as poly ethylene glycols, poly styrene, poly vinyl pyrrolidone, sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (SCMC) forms complexes with a large number of drugs. Such interactions can result in precipitation, flocculation, salubilization and alteration in pharmacological effects.

PVP has been shown to form molecular complexes with many substances.



### Crystalline structure of Complexes



Crystal structure is a description of the ordered arrangement of atoms, ions, or molecules in a crystalline material.

The smallest group of particles or atoms in the material that constitutes the repeating pattern in the unit cell of the structure.