

KY.NT.17 SENSORS AND ACTUATORS: SMART CRYSTALS.

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One of the qualities that distinguishes living systems from inanimate matter is the ability to adapt to changes in the environment. Smart materials have the ability to perform both sensing and actuating functions and are, therefore, capable of imitating this rudimentary aspect of life. Four of the most widely used smart materials are piezoelectric $\text{Pb}(\text{Zr,Ti})\text{O}_3$, electrostrictive $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg,Nb})\text{O}_3$, magnetostrictive $(\text{Tb,Dy})\text{Fe}_2$, and the shape memory alloy NiTi. All four are ferroic with active domain walls, and two phase transformations which help tune the properties of these active materials. $\text{Pb}(\text{Zr,Ti})\text{O}_3$ is a ferroelectric ceramic which is cubic at high temperature and becomes ferroelectric on cooling through the Curie temperature. At room temperature, it is poised on a rhombohedral-tetragonal phase boundary which enhances the piezoelectric coefficients. Terfenol, $(\text{Tb,Dy})\text{Fe}_2$, is also cubic at high temperature and then becomes magnetic on cooling through its Curie temperature. At room temperature, it too, is poised on rhombohedral-tetragonal transition which enhances its magnetostriction coefficients. $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg,Nb})\text{O}_3$ and Nitinol (NiTi) are also cubic at high temperatures, and on annealing, undergo an order-disorder transformation to a different cubic space group. On further cooling, the partially ordered $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg,Nb})\text{O}_3$ structure goes through a diffuse phase transformation at room temperature where it exhibits very large dielectric and electrostrictive coefficients. Just below room temperature, it transforms to a ferroelectric rhombohedral phase. The ordered shape memory alloy NiTi undergoes an austenitic (cubic) to martensitic (monoclinic) phase change just above room temperature. It is easily deformed in the martensitic state but recovers its original shape when reheated to austenite. The structural similarities between these four superb actuator materials is remarkable. A review of the applications and structure-property relationships in these and other smart materials will be presented.

KY.NT.18 HELICAL POLYAMIDES AND RINGS: A BRIDGE BETWEEN NYLONS AND PROTEINS.

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In order to bridge the gap between nylons and proteins, synthetic polyamides with a conformation similar to that found in proteins have been studied. Analogies in the folding process are discussed in the last part. We have found that it is possible to obtain structures very similar to the α helix by introducing side chains in nylon 3 and in nylon 4, which is equivalent to introducing one or two methylene groups in the polypeptide main chain. Although the density of intramolecular hydrogen bonds decreases, the helical structure is stable. In some cases, even two different types of helix are found, which crystallize in different structures. In solution it is possible to study the helix-coil transition. The helices may also give rise to liquid crystals and fibers with piezoelectric properties.

In another line of endeavour we have investigated polyamides in which glycine and related monomer units ($-\text{NHCOCH}_2\text{CONH}-$; $-\text{CONHCH}_2\text{NHCO}-$) have been introduced. We find a strong preference of the conformational angles of the glycine units and related monomers to be similar with those found in helical polyglycine II. It is striking that in the presence of glycine fully extended chains, typical in polyamides, are seldom found. These polymers are organized with either one, two or three directions of hydrogen bonding which form new unique structures instead of the familiar extended chains of polyamides and pleated sheets of proteins. Besides the intrinsic interest of these new polymers, our studies open the way to new types of protein engineering based on new monomeric building blocks. We have also used oligomers and rings as model compounds. In some cases, they form hydrogen bonded columns with an appearance similar to the α helix.

With respect to the folding process, many of these polymers form lamellar crystals with 40-80Å thickness, a value which depends on the density of hydrogen bonds. The crystallization process appears to be

strongly influenced by the coil-globule transition which takes place in the dilute polymer solution before crystallization. In this way **polymer crystallization appears to have some analogies with the protein folding process.** It is striking that the thickness of polymer lamellae is similar to the common dimensions of proteins.

KY.NT.19 STUDIES ON THE LOADING AND RECOGNITION OF ANTIGENS ON MHC MOLECULES

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In the cellular immune response, antigen specific cell-cell recognition results from the binding of an antigen receptor (TCR) to the complex of an antigenic peptide bound to a class I or class II major histocompatibility complex (MHC) glycoprotein. The TCR is a glycoprotein on the membrane of T lymphocyte and the MHC molecule is on the surface of a target cell. Specific receptor binding triggers signals within T cells that are central to the development of the T-cell repertoire, regulation of the immune response, and activation of cytolytic T cells (CTL). Generalizations about the mechanisms of peptide recognition by class I and class II MHC molecules derived from X-ray crystal structures and biochemical analyses will be reported^{1,2,3,4}.

The loading of antigenic peptide on class II MHC molecules involves an escort protein called the Invariant chain (Ii). This molecule stabilizes class II molecules and escorts them to a cellular compartment where they bind antigenic peptides. Our NMR and biochemical experiments indicate that Ii may be partially unfolded so that a segment of it can bind into the peptide binding site^{5,6}. The X-ray structure of a fragment of this peptide-loading intermediate has been determined by X-ray crystallography⁷.

The recognition of peptide/MHC molecule complexes is being studied by assembly of a ternary complex of TCR/peptide/MHC class I molecule. The ectodomains of human TCR class I MHC have been expressed as insoluble inclusion bodies in bacteria and refolded. The antigen specific cell-cell interaction complex has been assembled and shown to retain the binding specificity of the *in vivo* intercellular interaction. This complex has been crystallized⁸ and its structure is being determined.

¹Bouvier, M. and Wiley, D.C., PNAS in press, 1996.

²Guo, H-C et al., in preparation.

³Stern, L.J. et al., Nature **368**, 215-221, 1994.

⁴Jardetzky, T.S. et al., PNAS **93**, 734-738, 1996.

⁵Jasanoff, A. et al., PNAS **92**, 9900-9904, 1995.

⁶Park, S.-J. et al., PNAS **92**, 11289-11293, 1995.

⁷Ghosh, P. et al., Nature **378**, 457-462, 1995.

⁸Garboczi et al., in preparation.

KY.NT.20 STRUCTURAL CHEMISTRY OF ORGANIC-INORGANIC MESOPHASES.

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Since the discovery of highly ordered silicates mesoporous materials of the MCM-41 family in 1992 (pore size in the range 20-100 Å), much effort has been devoted to the study of organic-inorganic supramolecular self-assemblies and their subsequent polymerization, leading to highly structured mesoporous materials. The research in this field is largely fueled by the search of new materials to be used as heterogeneous catalysts, ultrasensitive molecular sieves, mesoscopically structured hosts, for optically or biologically active guests, or more marginally, as substrates to enter into the realm of mesoscale electronic devices.

Several morphologies, most of which correspond to various phases already known in the water-surfactant lyotropic liquid crystal systems, were synthesized as silicate mesoporous materials. However, a thorough understanding of the various molecular forces acting cooperatively for the formation of organic-inorganic mesophases is crucial in order to improve the quality and increase the variety of the targeted mesoporous materials. This quest represent a research topic on its own, and it is the goal of this talk to present the current status of this topic at both the