

Name:

## Cell Types





Nerve cells

iver cells



Cardiac muscle cells

Cells may be grouped into somatic cells, germline cells and stem cells.

### Differentiation in somatic cells

Somatic cells These are non-sex cells (e.g. muscle, skin, bone, blood e \_\_\_\_\_\_ They have **two sets** of chromosomes, so somatic cells are \_\_\_\_\_\_ cells.

**Differentiation** The process which results in cells becoming **specialised** - i.e. they have their own specific **structure** and \_\_\_\_\_

**Somatic cells** divide by \_\_\_\_\_\_ to form more somatic cells. These cells then differentiate to form different body tissue types of which the main ones are:

- **Epithelial** these cells cover the body surface and line body cavities (e.g. bladder, windpipe etc),
- **Connective** includes bone, cartilage, and \_\_\_\_\_\_ cells. These cells form tissues and the body organs are formed from a variety of these tissues.

Body organs are formed from a variety of these tissues. During cell division the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of a somatic cell divides by mitosis to **maintain** the diploid \_\_\_\_\_\_ number. Human, diploid cells have \_\_\_\_\_ pairs of

homologous chromosomes.

## Differentiation in germline cells

Germline cells are \_\_\_\_\_ cells, and in humans they are called gamete mother cells. The nucleus of a germline cell can either divide by:

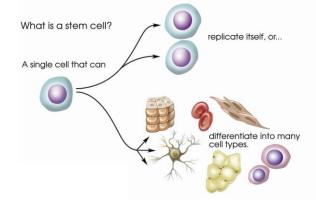
- MITOSIS to produce more diploid germline cells or
- MEIOSIS to produce haploid \_\_\_\_\_

**Mutations** that occur in **germline** cells **will be passed on** to offspring (where as mutations in **somatic** cells **will not be passed to offspring)**.

## Differentiation in stem cells

There are **two** different types of stem cells:

- Embryonic
- Adult (or tissue)



1

Stem cells are relatively **unspecialised** cells. They can continue to make copies of themselves (self-renew) and can \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ into specialised cells of one or more types. (*See National 5 notes, Unit 2 page 11*).

#### Embryonic Stem Cells

In the very early embryo, embryonic stem cells can	differentiate into any type
of human cell. For this reason they are said to be	This
is because <b>most</b> of their <b>genes</b> are still	(or <b>expressed</b> ).

#### Adult stem cells

Adult (or tissue) stem cells are involved in the growth and repair and renewal of the cells found in that tissue. Unlike embryonic stem cells, they can only produce a **limited range** of cell types. For example, the stem cells in our bone marrow will only give rise to different types of **blood** cells e.g. red blood cells, platelets, and the various forms of white blood cells e.g. phagocytes and lymphocytes. For this reason adult stem cells are said to be \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Once a cell differentiates, it can only **express** the **genes** that produce the **proteins** that in turn make cells different. For example the gene for the production of the oxygen carrying protein \_\_\_\_\_\_ will only be **expressed** in red blood cells. Although **all cells** will possess this gene, it **will not be expressed** (i.e. "switched on") and this is why these cells **do not produce** haemoglobin.

#### Research and therapeutic value of stem cells

Stem cell research provides information on how cell processes such as cell growth, differentiation and gene regulation work. Stem cells can also be used as model cells to study how \_\_\_\_\_\_ develop or for drug testing.

Therapeutic uses of stem cells includes:

- ✓ bone marrow transplants
- ✓ skin grafts for burns
- ✓ repair of damaged or diseased organs (or tissues)

#### Ethical issue of stem cell use

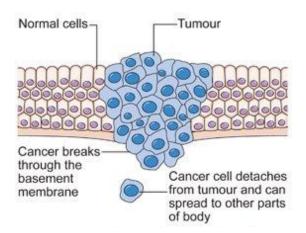
Since one source of stem cells is embryonic tissue, their use can be **controversial**. Current UK law states that embryonic cells cannot be allowed to develop beyond 14 days (around the time an embryo would implant into the uterus). Ethical concerns have led to **regulations** on the use of embryonic stem cells.



#### Cancer cells

Cancer cells **do not respond** to signals that regulate them. As a result, these cells divide excessively to produce a mass of **abnormal cells** (a \_\_\_\_\_\_). If the cancer cells fail to <u>attach</u> to each other, they can spread throughout the body where they form tumours.

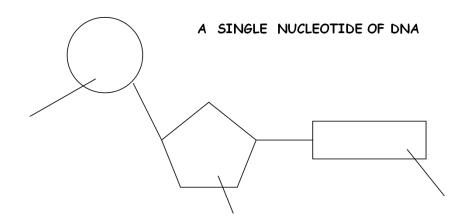
Web site <u>http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8LhQllh46yI</u>



## Structure and Function of DNA

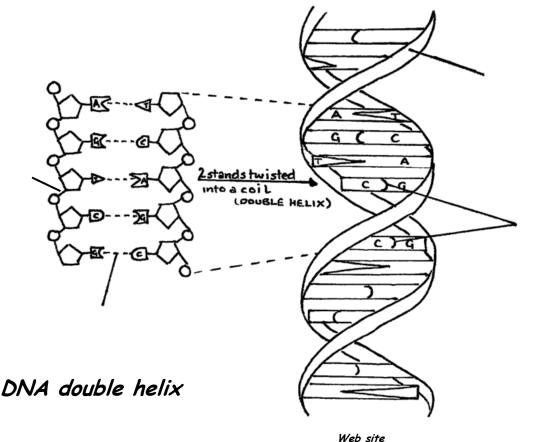
#### Structure of DNA

DNA is an example of a \_\_\_\_\_\_ acid. Nucleic acids like DNA are made from repeating units called \_\_\_\_\_\_ like the one shown below.



The four bases in DNA are \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_, It is only the **bases** which makes one nucleotide **different** from another. So, since there are only four different bases, there can only be four different \_\_\_\_\_\_ in DNA .

Nucleotides join together to form a s	Sugar-phosphate <b>backbone</b> – s	see next page.
The bases pair off and are held toge	ther by weak	bonds,
forming a twisted double	as shown on the next pag	ge. Adenine is
always opposite; _	is always oppo	site cytosine.



Web site http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qy8dk5i51f0

The two strands of the DNA run in **opposite directions** - i.e. they are <u>anti-</u> <u>parallel</u> with deoxyribose at the 5' end and phosphate at the 3' end of each strand. (One strand runs in a 5' to 3' direction; the other runs in a 3' to 5' direction.)

Chromosomes consist of DNA that is tightly coiled around **proteins**. This is so that all 2 metres of it can fit into the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of a cell.

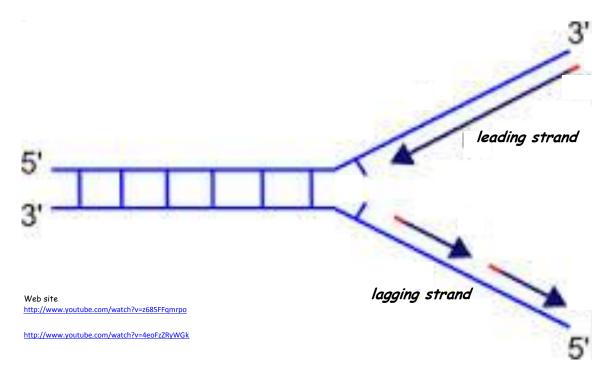
## **DNA** replication

**Before** cells **divide**, an **exact copy** of the DNA must be made. This process is called DNA \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. This process is important because it ensures that each **new cell** receives a full set of \_\_\_\_\_\_\_, and therefore no genetic information will have been \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Two enzymes are involved in DNA replication. The two enzymes are:

- 1. DNA \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. ligase

DNA replication begins when DNA is **unwound** and **unzipped** to form two single template strands. DNA polymerase needs a \_\_\_\_\_\_ to **start** DNA replication. DNA polymerase can only add free **complementary** DNA \_\_\_\_\_\_ to the deoxyribose **3' end** of a DNA strand. This results in one of the strands of DNA being replicated continuously – this is called the leading strand. The other strand is replicated in fragments. These fragments are then joined together by the enzyme \_\_\_\_\_\_ - this is called the lagging strand. (Ligase joins single nucleotides together in the continuous leading strand and also joins the DNA fragments together in the lagging strand.)

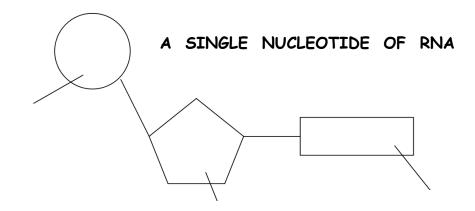


#### Structure of RNA

There are three different types of RNA. These are:

1.	mRNA	(messenger RNA which carries the genetic code from DNA
		in the nucleus to a).
2.	rRNA	(ribosomal RNA. rRNA and proteins form the ribosome)
3.	†RNA	(transfer RNA - each tRNA carries a <b>specific</b> amino acid to
		a <u>ribosome</u> ).

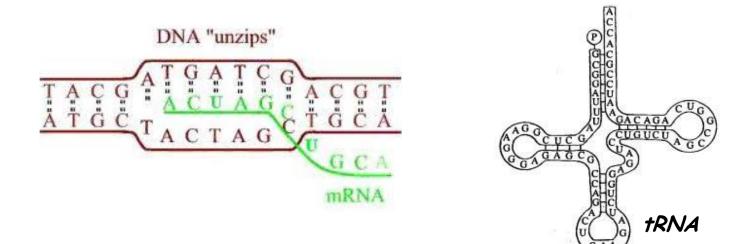
All three types of RNA are also made from nucleotides.



The table below summarises the differences between the structure of DNA and  $\underline{m}$ RNA.

	DNA	mRNA
SUGAR		
BASES		
STRANDS		

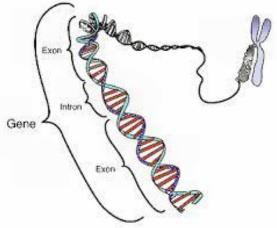
The diagram below shows a typical mRNA and tRNA molecule.

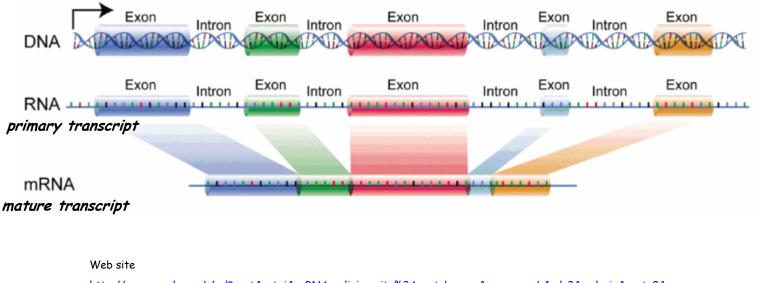


## Transcription (of DNA into mRNA)

RNA polymerase moves along DNA unwinding a section of the double helix (this represents a \_\_\_\_\_\_), and synthesising a primary transcript of mRNA by complementary base pairing (A-U; T-A; C-G and G-C). Genes have **introns** (non coding region of a gene) and **exons** (coding regions of a gene).

During transcription the **introns** in the primary transcript are **removed**. This process is called RNA \_\_\_\_\_\_. The exons are then **joined together** to form the mature transcript mRNA as shown in the diagram at the top of next page.





http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=RNA+splicing+site%3Ayoutube.com&source=web&cd=3&cad=rja&uact=8& ved=0CD8QtwIwAg&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.youtube.com%2Fwatch%3Fv%3DaVgwr0QpYNE&ei=roBrU7jtDIeGO Pa8gPgN&usg=AFQjCNGZ\_SShG3NSuKIR3H4XA1IZoZRuaQ

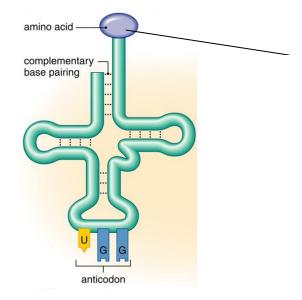
#### One gene, many proteins

**Different** mRNA molecules are produced from the **same primary transcript**. This is due to the fact that during RNA <u>splicing</u>, exons are sometimes removed **along with** the intron(s) next to them. [All the \_\_\_\_\_\_ are always removed from the primary RNA transcript]. This is called \_\_\_\_\_\_ **RNA splicing**.

This means that the same primary mRNA transcript has the potential to produce several different mRNA molecules. Each mRNA molecule will have a different sequence of base triplets and each mRNA molecule will therefore code for a different polypeptide/protein. In other words, one gene can code for several different proteins - remember this depends on which exons have been discarded during mRNA splicing.

#### tRNA structure and function

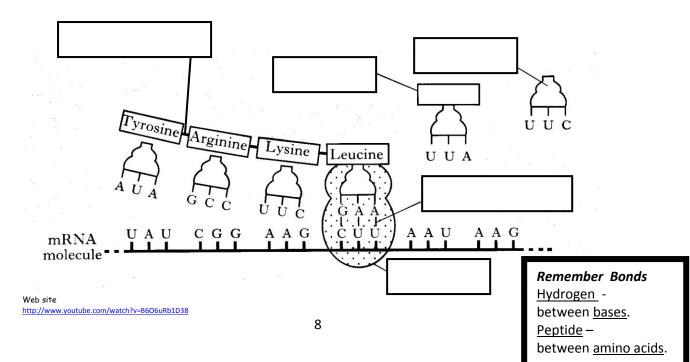
The **folds** in a tRNA molecule are due to base pairing as shown in the diagram below.



At one end of each tRNA molecule is a **triplet** of bases called an \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. At the opposite end is an \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ which the tRNA molecule is responsible for carrying to a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. It is the **anticodon** that will **determine** the \_\_\_\_\_\_ amino acid that each tRNA molecule will pick up and then carry to a ribosome.

## Translation (of mRNA into a polypeptide chain)

mRNA is translated into a \_\_\_\_\_\_ chain (a short chain of 6 - 8 amino acids joined together) at a \_\_\_\_\_\_. The diagram below shows what happens during **translation** (of mRNA into a polypeptide**)**.



Before translation can **begin**, a ribosome must bind to **one** of the ends of the mRNA strand. The **first three bases** on this mRNA strand (i.e. the first codon) is called a \_\_\_\_\_\_ codon. Eventually a final codon, called the \_\_\_\_\_\_ codon on the mRNA is reached and the ribosome releases the newly synthesised polypeptide chain. This process **requires energy** which is provided by <u>ATP</u>.

The **sequence** of the **codons** on the mRNA strand will determine the sequence of the \_\_\_\_\_\_ in the polypeptide that will be synthesised. Note that the anticodons on the \_\_\_\_\_\_ are **complementary** to the \_\_\_\_\_\_ on the mRNA strand as shown in the diagram on the previous page. After a \_\_\_\_\_\_ bond has formed between two adjacent amino acids, the tRNA molecule is released from the amino acid and it then leaves the ribosome to go and pick up another one of its specific amino acid present in the cytoplasm.

Remember: <u>Transcription</u> in nucleus. <u>Translation</u> at ribosome After translation, the structure of the protein is modified. This is done through the cutting and joining of polypeptide chains or by the addition of a carbohydrate or a phosphate group to the final protein molecule.

Web site

http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=translation+animation&source=video&cd=17&cad=rja&ct=8&ved=0CHIQtwIwBjgK&url =http%3A%2F%2Fwuw.youtube.com%2Fwatch%3Fv%3D\_ zb6r1MMTkc&ei=2I5wU47u0Yin0AW\_iICoCw&usq=AFQjCNEw4L7w\_4hsU3B3aAIcCQUN9wmyJq

#### mRNA versus tRNA

Structural differences between mRNA and tRNA are summarised below.

Similarities	Differences			
<ul> <li>Both contain the bases A, U, C and G</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>tRNA is folded, mRNA is not</li> <li>tRNA has base pairing, mRNA hasn't</li> <li>mRNA is single-stranded; tRNA is double stranded</li> </ul>			

#### Gene expression - through protein synthesis

Gene expression (i.e. whether a gene is "switched on" or "switched off") is controlled by regulating the processes of transcription and \_\_\_\_\_\_. mRNA is **transcribed** from \_\_\_\_\_\_ in the nucleus and then it is **translated** into a \_\_\_\_\_\_ by ribosomes in the cytoplasm. An organism's \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ is determined by the **proteins** produced as a result of genes **being expressed** (i.e. "switched on"). Only a fraction of the genes in any one cell are actually expressed. The genes that are expressed are influenced by intraand extra-cellular environmental factors.

#### Genes and proteins in health and disease

Proteins have a large variety of structures and shapes. This results in them having a wide range of \_\_\_\_\_\_. Amino acids are linked by \_\_\_\_\_\_ bonds to form a \_\_\_\_\_\_ chain. The polypeptide chains then fold to form a particular **three dimensional shape**. These chains are held together by peptide bonds, hydrogen bonds and other interactions that form between different amino acids. The diagram below shows the structure of the oxygen-carrying protein \_\_\_\_\_\_ present in red blood cells.

Haemoglobin molecule - do not learn

Refer to page 16 of the Unit 1 National 5 Biology booklet for further examples of proteins.

#### Mutation and genetic disorders

Genetic disorders are caused by changes to genes or \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ - these changes are called \_\_\_\_\_\_. Mutations result in \_\_\_\_\_\_ either **not being synthesised** at all or proteins which are synthesised not \_\_\_\_\_\_ properly.

#### Single gene mutations

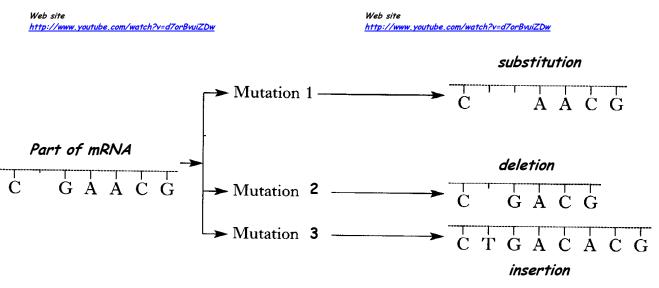
Single gene mutations happen when the \_\_\_\_\_ of the bases (nucleotides) in the DNA that a gene is made of is altered.

There are **three** different types of single gene mutations:

- 1. <u>substitution</u>
- 2. <u>insertion</u>
- 3. deletion

of DNA bases/nucleotides

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD), cystic fibrosis (CF) and PKU are just three examples diseases/conditions that are caused by a single gene mutation. These are not diseases that can develop, people are **born** with them because they have **inherited** a \_\_\_\_\_\_ gene from one or both of their parents. The diagram below shows how these three **single gene mutations** can affect the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of the bases in the DNA of which a gene is made, which in turn affects the order of the bases in \_\_\_\_\_.



Single base/nucleotide substitution mutations include:

Missense:	where one amino acid <b>codon</b> is <b>replaced</b> with another <b>different</b> amino acid <b>codon</b> . In the above example (mutation 1) the amino acid codon CUG is <b>replaced</b> by the amino acid codon <u>CGG</u> . This results in <b>only one</b> in the sequence being <b>changed</b> .
Nonsense:	where <b>one</b> amino acid codon is <b>replaced</b> with a premature codon. The effect of this type of mutation is to bring the process of to a <b>premature stop</b> and the polypeptide chain will be than it should be. This is the type of mutation that causes Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy(DMD).

Web site

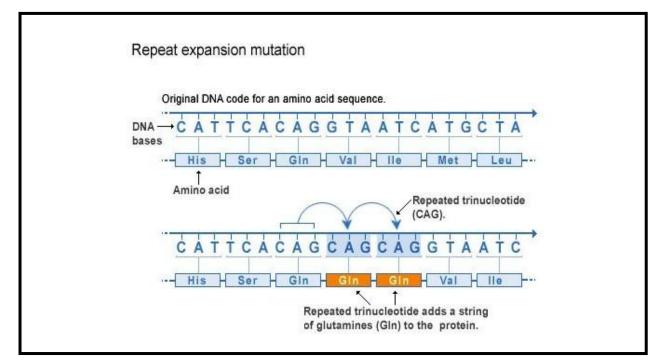
http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&g=duchenne%20muscular%20dystroophy%20site%3Ayoutube.com&source=web&cd=8&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0C6wQtwIwBw&url=http% 3A%2F%2Fwww.youtube.com%2Fwatch%3Fv%3DAF4D4TyE9NM&ei=IldrU4n0LKrX0QXPh46wCw&usg=AFQjCN6xEjNA=8NnaepYgzVQwKLEXsEHCg&bvm=bv.66330100.d.d2k 

 Splice-site:
 RNA splicing is controlled by specific base/nucleotide sequences found at a splice site on the primary RNA transcript where introns flank exons. (Remember RNA splicing is when \_\_\_\_\_\_ are removed from the primary mRNA transcript leaving only the \_\_\_\_\_\_ which then produces the mature mRNA transcript - see pages 6/7). If a mutation occurs in an intron in the primary RNA transcript it will not be \_\_\_\_\_\_. Instead, it will be retained in error and so ends up in the mature mRNA transcript. If one or more introns are retained in the mature mRNA transcript, this results in the production of a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ that does not \_\_\_\_\_\_ properly.

## Insertion and deletion mutations

Insertion and deletion mutations result in **frameshift** mutations. During translation, mRNA is read as a series of \_\_\_\_\_\_ (triplets). Therefore if a base/nucleotide is **inserted** or **deleted** from a gene (DNA), **every codon** <u>after</u> where the mutation has occurred will be altered during transcription. This in turn, alters every \_\_\_\_\_\_ **after** the mutation site. The protein formed is almost certain to be non-functional - in other words the protein **will not work**.

Another type of insertion mutation is a nucleotide sequence repeat expansion. This occurs when the same triplet i.e. when the same sequence of 3 \_\_\_\_\_\_ bases (e.g. CAG) on the original DNA is inserted into the same DNA strand after the original triplet of bases/nucleotides as shown in the diagram below.



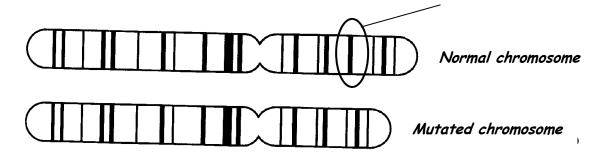
Again, this will result in a protein being synthesised that is almost certain to be non-functional.

These gene mutations **can affect** the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of individuals as they can result in conditions such as Tay-Sachs syndrome.

## Altered Chromosome Structure and Genetic Disorders

A chromosome mutation occurs when the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of a chromosome is altered. There are three main types of chromosome mutation:

1. <u>Deletion</u> (the loss of a segment of a chromosome)



2. <u>Duplication</u> (the repetition of a segment of a chromosome)

	В	С	$\times$	DE	F	G	)	norm	al chro	moso	me	
A	в	С	$\times$	) E	D	E	F	G	one	segme	ent rep	eated
A	В	C	$\sim$	) 2	D	Ε	D	E	D	thre E	e repe F	ats

3. <u>Translocation</u> (when a section of one chromosome breaks off and becomes attached to another chromosome that **is not** its \_\_\_\_\_ partner).



These substantial changes in chromosome \_\_\_\_\_\_ often results in these mutations being **lethal** (i.e. they result in the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of the organism.

## Human Genomics



Advances in faster and cheaper computer processing has made it possible to determine the sequence of DNA bases for individual \_\_\_\_\_ and entire genomes. A genome is the complete DNA of an organism.

Bioinformatics is when \_\_\_\_\_\_ are used to analyse the sequence of \_\_\_\_\_\_ in proteins.

Systematics compares the human genome to the genomes of other species. This then provides information on \_\_\_\_\_\_ relationships and the origins of related species.

**Personalised medicine** is based on an **individual's genome**. By understanding the link between a person's genes and certain diseases could lead to **personalised** medicine. For example, it may be that individuals carrying a particular allele of a gene have an \_\_\_\_\_\_ **risk** of developing a particular disease like breast cancer. Once this is known, a patient's medicines will be specifically geared **to them** resulting in **increased drug efficiency** whilst reducing side effects. This means that in the future, "the one size fits all" approach would be consigned to history.

## Sequencing DNA

callec	ب	ent of DNA can be produced usin (PCR for sh	ort). The
	-	) of this DNA segment is done <i>i</i>	
the d	ody. In order to amplify	(copy) DNA, three things must be	e present:
1.	many of the four free _	of DNA	
2.	<u>primers</u>	these are	•
		target sequence of bases at the	e <b>two ends</b> of
		the region of DNA that is to be	amplified
3.	DNA <u>polymerase</u>	this is a heat-tolerant The DNA polymerase synthesise complementary strands of DNA free DNA	es two A by joining the

## Stages of PCR

1

- DNA is firstly heated in order to \_\_\_\_\_\_ the two strands (by breaking the \_\_\_\_\_\_ bonds between the complementary bases). This is called \_\_\_\_\_\_.
- 2. The DNA is then **cooled**. Cooling allows the \_\_\_\_\_\_ to bind to the complementary target sequences. This is called \_\_\_\_\_\_.
- 3. Heat-tolerant \_\_\_\_\_ then replicates (copies) the of DNA (by joining free DNA \_\_\_\_\_\_ together) using the \_\_\_\_\_ as a starting point.

**Repeated cycles** of heating and cooling are used to amplify this section of DNA. It would take \_\_\_\_\_ cycles to produce 64 molecules of DNA from **one** DNA double helix. After only 21 cycles, one molecule of DNA can be amplified to produce over a million copies!!!! This is called \_\_\_\_\_.

Web site - McGraw Hill PCR

http://highered.mcgraw-hill.com/olc/dl/120078/micro15.swf

The diagram below outlines what happens during PCR.

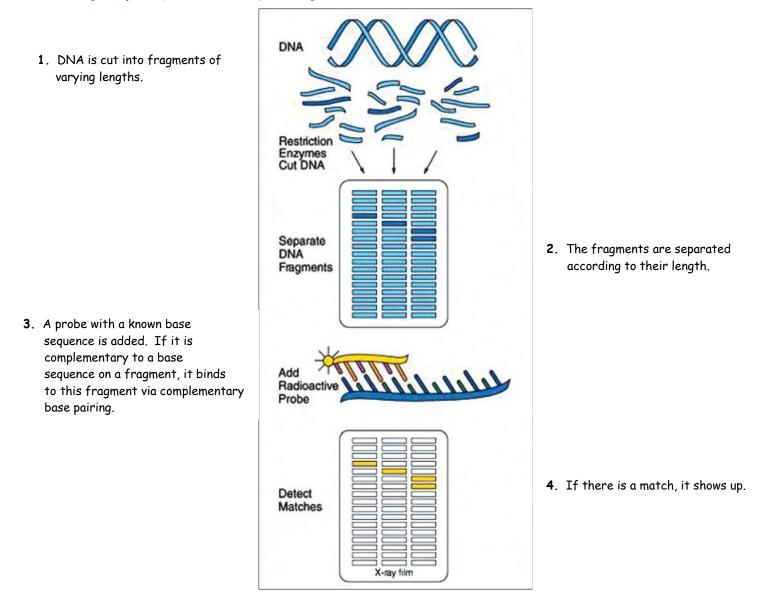
3' Gene of interest 5'

## DNA probes

DNA probes are used to detect the presence of specific DNA base sequences in a sample of DNA - this is called DNA \_\_\_\_\_\_. A DNA probe is a short, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ -stranded man-made fragment of DNA that is complementary to the specific sequence of DNA bases that are being tested for. If the target sequence is present, the probe will bind to it via complementary \_\_\_\_\_\_ pairing. The probe can then be detected using a fluorescent or <u>radioactive</u> label. DNA probes can be used to detect single gene mutations. They are also used to determine who the \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ of a child is (Jeremy Kyle would be out of a job without DNA paternity tests!!) or for solving \_\_\_\_\_\_. Many different DNA probes can be used on a microarray (1000's of genes) to give a fuller DNA profile.

Web site

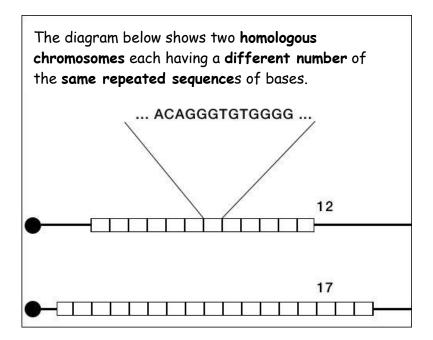
http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=what+is+a+microarray&source=web&cd=4&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CEcQFjAD& url=http%3A%2F%2Flearn.genetics.utah.edu%2Fcontent%2Flabs%2Fmicroarray%2F&ei=1SUwU47D05Hy7AbZs4G4Bg& usq=AFQjCNEMqM5YIBI30nFPfe7alpK7r7JeNq



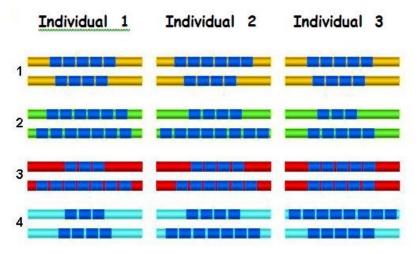
## Medical and Forensic Application

By screening a cell sample from a patient for the presence or absence of a particular nucleotide / base sequence (called DNA profiling), a diagnosis of a **disease** can be made **or** how **at risk** they might be of getting a disease or **passing** a disease on to their children can be worked out. DNA profiling allows the identification of individuals through comparison of regions of the genome with **highly variable** numbers of **repetitive sequences** of DNA.

These highly variable number of repetitive sequences of DNA are located on chromosomes. An example of a repeated sequence of DNA bases is shown below.



These repetitive sequences of DNA have been useful in forensic crime investigations as the possibility of two people having the same number of these repeated sequences is **extremely low** as shown below.



The numbers of repeat sequences even between \_\_\_\_\_\_ chromosomes are usually different as demonstrated by the diagram on the previous page. Since these repetitive sequences are a part of a chromosome, they are **inherited** from **both** parents. Family relationships can then be confirmed by the number of repetitive sequences that they \_\_\_\_\_.

## Cell Metabolism

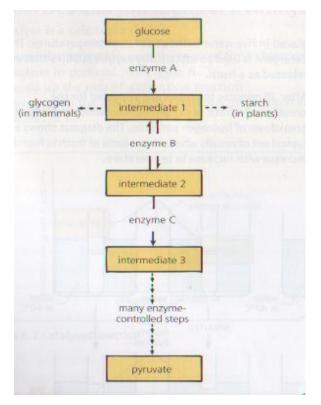
Metabolism is all the \_\_\_\_\_\_-controlled reactions that occur in a cell at the same time. These reactions involve pathways where one compound is converted into a different compound. Compounds can either be broken down (catabolism) or synthesised (anabolism). Anabolic reactions require an input of energy: catabolic reactions usually release energy.

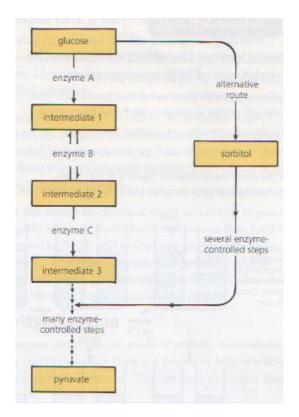
**Aerobic respiration** is an example of \_\_\_\_\_\_ which releases energy. This energy can then be used for the synthesis of proteins from amino acids Which is an example of \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Metabolic pathways can be reversible or irreversible e.g. during fermentation,

- 1 pyruvate to lactic acid in \_\_\_\_\_ cells is reversible
- 2 pyruvate to ethanol and CO<sub>2</sub> in \_\_\_\_\_ cells is irreversible.

Alternative routes that can bypass steps in a pathway may also exist as shown below.





Example of a metabolic pathway

Alternative route

#### Control of metabolic pathways

Metabolic pathways are controlled:

- 1 by the **presence** or **absence** of particular \_\_\_\_\_\_ in the metabolic pathway <u>and</u>
- 2 through the **regulation** of the \_\_\_\_\_ (speed) of reaction of key enzymes within the pathway. (Regulation can be controlled by intracellular or extracellular \_\_\_\_\_ molecules.)

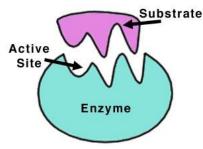
#### Enzyme action

http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/gcsebitesize/

science/videos/enzymes\_video1.shtml

Web site

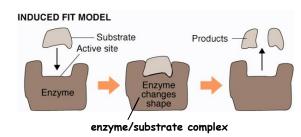
Enzymes are \_\_\_\_\_\_ because they only react with **one** substrate. The activity of enzymes is linked to their \_\_\_\_\_\_. The part of an enzyme molecule into which the **substrate fits** is called the \_\_\_\_\_\_ as shown in the diagram below.



#### Induced fit model of enzyme activity

The basic mechanism by which enzymes catalyse reactions begins with the binding of the **substrate** (or substrates) to the active site on the enzyme. The **active site** has a unique shape that is \_\_\_\_\_\_ to the shape of the substrate molecule(s).

When the enzyme and substrate form a complex, structural changes occur so that the active site fits precisely **around** the substrate, in other words, the substrate **causes** (induces) the **active site** to change \_\_\_\_\_\_.



Enzymes **speed up reactions** by orientating then holding the reactants **close together** and by **reducing** the \_\_\_\_\_\_ energy required for the reaction to occur. The end products of the reaction have a \_\_\_\_\_\_ **affinity** for the enzyme than the substrate and are therefore \_\_\_\_\_\_ from the active site. The direction and speed of an enzyme-controlled reaction can be affected by the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of **both** the substrate and end product.

Most metabolic reactions are reversible and the **presence** of a **substrate** or the **removal** of a **product** will drive a sequence of reactions in a particular **direction**.

Enzymes often act in **groups** where the product of one reaction becomes the substrate for the next, or as **multi-enzyme complexes** where a number of enzymes work **together** <u>at the same time</u> on the **same substrate molecule(s)**, as demonstrated by pyruvate dehydrogenase which is a complex of **three** <u>different</u> enzymes that collectively catalyse the breakdown of pyruvate at the end of \_\_\_\_\_\_.

#### Regulation (control) of metabolic pathways

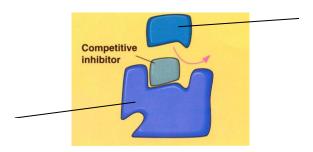
The \_\_\_\_\_\_ that are responsible for the production of some enzymes are continuously expressed ("switched on"). These enzymes are therefore always present in the cell. Control of enzymes activity is achieved via regulating the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of the reaction that they catalyse. An enzyme inhibitor is a molecule that can affect the rate of a reaction. It does this by either \_\_\_\_\_\_ the active site of an enzyme or by \_\_\_\_\_\_ the enzyme.

Control of metabolic pathways can be achieved in three different ways:

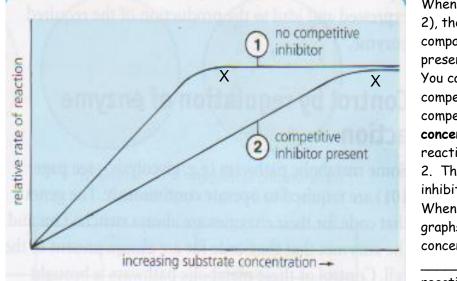
- 1. competitive inhibition
- 2. non-competitive inhibition <u>or</u> stimulation
- 3. feedback inhibition

#### 1 Competitive inhibition

This type of inhibition occurs when a molecule that resembles the **shape** of the **substrate** competes with the \_\_\_\_\_\_ for the active site as shown in the diagram below.



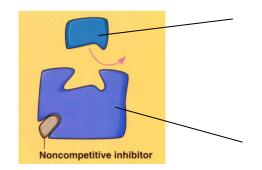
This can be **reversed**, and therefore the rate of the reaction can be increased by \_\_\_\_\_\_ the **concentration** of the **substrate** molecules as shown in the graph on the following page.



When a **competitive** inhibitor **is** present (graph 2), the rate of the reaction is \_ compared to a reaction when **no** inhibitor is present (graph1). You can tell from a graph if an inhibitor is a competitive or non-competitive inhibitor. With a competitive inhibitor, when the substrate concentration is increased, the rate of the reaction \_\_\_\_\_ as shown in graph 2. This does not happen with a non-competitive inhibitor. When the graph levels off (at point X on both graphs) some factor other than substrate concentration must now be \_\_\_\_\_ the rate of the reaction e.g.

#### 2 Non-competitive inhibition/stimulation

These molecules affect the activity of an enzyme by changing the shape of the enzyme's \_\_\_\_\_\_ when they bind to it. This prevents the binding of the \_\_\_\_\_\_ as shown below and can either inhibit **or** stimulate enzyme activity.



Note that this type of molecule binds to a part of the enzyme molecule **away from the active site**.

These molecules can either inhibit or \_\_\_\_\_\_ a reaction. One type of molecule when it binds to the enzyme, stabilises the **active** form of the enzyme and this \_\_\_\_\_\_ the **rate** of the reaction. (This type of molecule is called an \_\_\_\_\_\_). Another different type of molecule, when it binds to the enzyme, stabilises the **inactive** form of the enzyme and this \_\_\_\_\_\_ the rate of the reaction. (This type of molecule is called an \_\_\_\_\_\_). This is shown by the diagram on the next page.

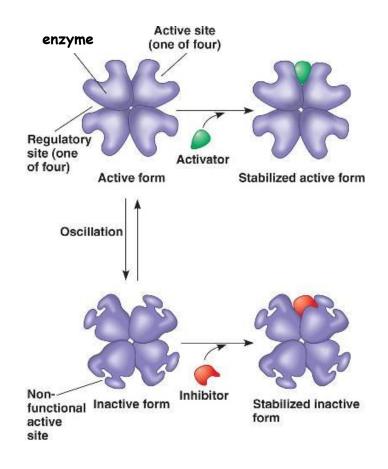
 Web site

 http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&g=mcGraw%20Hill%20enzyme%20inhibitors%

 20site%3Ayoutube.com&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CDEQtwIwAA&url=h

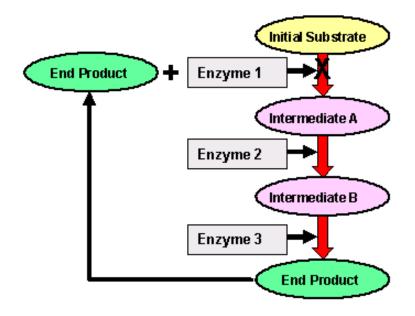
 ttp%3A%2F%2Fwww.youtube.com%2Fwatch%3Fv%3DPILzvT3spCQ&ei=sZ5fU\_7wGIyv

 ZQb161H1Cq&usg=AFQjCN6q7erOYQ0964BpEGEzURy7m7oyKa



#### 3. Feedback inhibition

This occurs when the end product of a metabolic pathway binds to the \_\_\_\_\_\_ enzyme involved in the pathway, thus reducing that enzyme's activity. This slows down the metabolic pathway by preventing the production of more of the \_\_\_\_\_\_ until its concentration falls and the inhibition is removed.



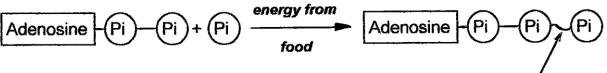
Web site http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4Y0mxJ7BPGA

## **Cellular Respiration**

Respiration involves a series of \_\_\_\_\_\_-controlled metabolic steps which releases the \_\_\_\_\_\_ energy in food. Some of this energy from food ends up being **transferred** to a high energy compound called \_\_\_\_\_.

## ATP

ATP is made by joining a **ADP** with a single inorganic phosphate (**Pi**) molecule. To join these two molecules together requires **energy**. This energy comes from food (e.g. \_\_\_\_\_\_).



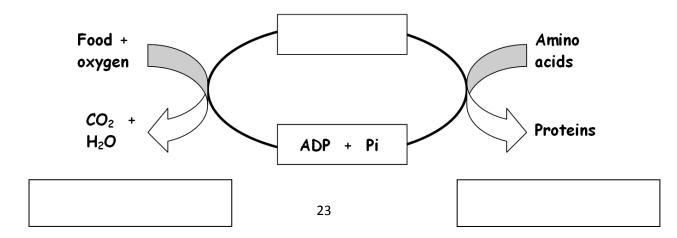
high energy bond

When cells require an \_\_\_\_\_\_ source of energy, the "high energy" bond between the last two \_\_\_\_\_\_ molecules **breaks** and energy is released for **cellular processes** that include:

- muscle \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_ transport
- mitosis/meiosis (to separate the chromosomes)
- DNA \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_ synthesis

Cells need a **constant supply** of ATP, so it is re-generated as quickly as it is broken down. The importance of ATP to cells is that it \_\_\_\_\_

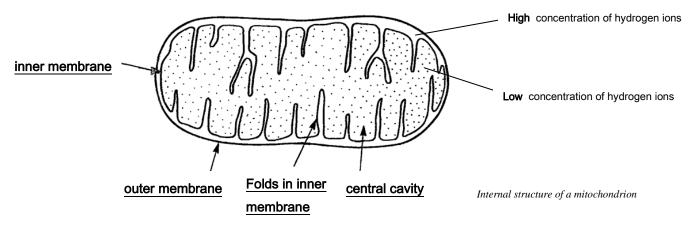
**chemical energy** by acting as a **link** between aerobic respiration and other cellular processes which require ATP to drive them e.g. protein synthesis as shown in the diagram below.



## Phosphorylation

Phosphorylation occurs when a \_\_\_\_\_\_ group (supplied by the breakdown of ATP) is \_\_\_\_\_\_ to a molecule. The addition of this phosphate group **alters the reactivity** of the molecule to which it has been added.

To synthesise the bulk of its ATP requirements, a cell uses a source of high energy \_\_\_\_\_\_ to pump \_\_\_\_\_\_ ions across the inner membrane of a mitochondrion \_\_\_\_\_\_ a concentration gradient. This helps to maintain a higher concentration of hydrogen ions on one side of the membrane as shown below.



The **return flow** of these hydrogen ions (from a high to lower concentration by \_\_\_\_\_\_\_) **rotates** part of an inner membrane protein which is called ATP synthase. ATP synthase is an \_\_\_\_\_\_ and it is involved in the synthesis of ATP from ADP and Pi.

#### Web site

http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&g=atp%20synthase%20animation&source=web&cd=2&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CDgQFjAB&url=http%3A%2F %2Fvcell.ndsu.edu%2Fanimations%2Fatpgradient%2Fmovie-flash.htm&ei=eJtoU-7fLIOb0AWlhIDACA&usg=AFQjCNHTkQAg92xKN0zsVVufS3kZM1YY3w

## The Chemistry of respiration

The metabolic pathways of cellular respiration are central to metabolism. In short, the whole point of respiration is to break down glucose in a series of enzyme-controlled steps during which \_\_\_\_\_\_ and high energy \_\_\_\_\_ are removed from the original glucose molecules and then

used to produce \_\_\_\_\_.

Respiration can be divided into **3** separate but **continuous** processes:

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. The \_\_\_\_\_ cycle
- 3. The \_\_\_\_\_ transport chain

## Glycolysis

Glycolysis takes place in the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of a cell. No \_\_\_\_\_\_ is needed for glycolysis to occur. Glycolysis a chain of enzyme-controlled steps where glucose is broken down into \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Glycolysis itself, is split into two enzyme-controlled phases:

#### Phase 1: <u>Investment</u> phase

The first phase is the energy \_\_\_\_\_\_ phase where <u>2</u> ATP molecules are used up per molecule of glucose. This is because two intermediate compounds in the pathway are \_\_\_\_\_\_ (i.e. a phosphate (Pi) from the breakdown of ATP is added to these compounds). The first of these phosphorylations leads to a product that can continue to a number of pathways and the second phosphorylation which is catalysed by an enzyme called

\_\_\_\_, is an \_\_\_

**reaction** as the resulting compound only leads to the final stage of the **glycolytic pathway**.

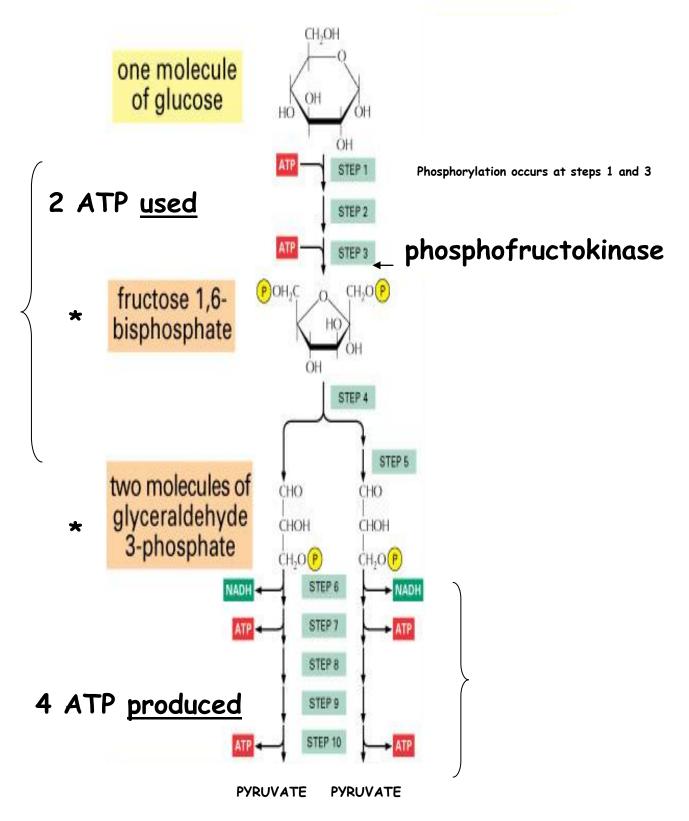
#### Phase 2: <u>Pay off</u> phase

The second phase is the **energy** \_\_\_\_\_\_ **phase** where <u>4</u> molecules of ATP are produced per molecule of glucose. In addition, during this phase, an enzyme called \_\_\_\_\_\_ releases **hydrogen** ions from some of the compounds in this part of the pathway. These hydrogen ions are picked up by a carrier molecule called \_\_\_\_\_\_ which in turn becomes \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Web site http://vcell.ndsu.edu/animations/glycolysis\_overview/index.htm

The diagram on the following page outlines these two phases of glycolysis.

# GLYCOLYSIS

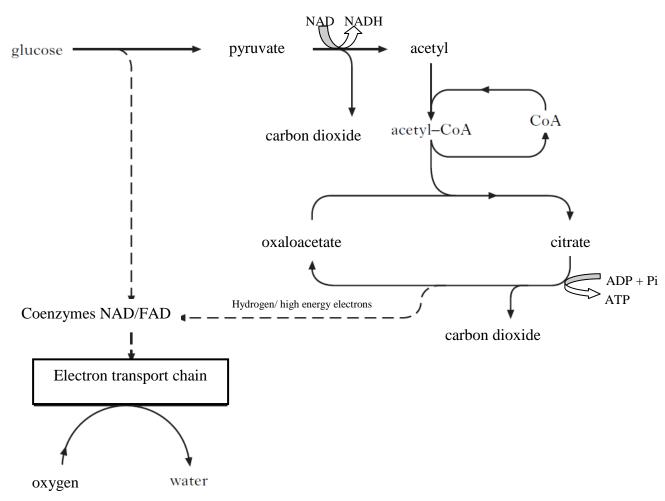


\* Don't learn name of compounds

Since \_\_\_\_\_ molecules of ATP are **produced** (in the pay off phase), but \_\_\_\_ molecules of ATP are **used** (in the investment phase), the **NET GAIN** during glycolysis is <u>2</u> molecules of ATP (i.e. 4ATP - 2ATP = 2ATP).

#### Citric acid cycle

If \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ is present, pyruvate is broken down into carbon dioxide and an acetyl group. The carbon dioxide is \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. The acetyl group then combines with coenzyme A temporarily forming acetyl coenzyme A. Coenzyme A joins the acetyl group with \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ in the citric acid cycle to form \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. (Coenzyme A is released to pick up more \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.) Citrate is regenerated back to oxaloacetate in a series of enzyme-controlled steps during the citric acid cycle. During these steps, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ is also released. Also during the citric acid cycle, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ ions along with associated high energy \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ enzymes. These hydrogen ions and high energy electrons are then passed to other coenzymes called \_\_\_\_\_\_ forming NADH or FADH2. The coenzymes carry these hydrogen ions to theelectron transport chain.



### The electron transport chain

It is during this third and final stage of respiration that **most** ATP is synthesised. The electron transport chain consists of a collection of \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ that are attached to the \_\_\_\_\_\_ membrane of a mitochondrion. NADH and FADH2 from the glycolytic and/or citric acid pathways release high energy \_\_\_\_\_\_. The electrons are then released from these two coenzymes to the electron transport chain where they cascade down the chain and **release energy**. This energy is used to pump hydrogen ions \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the inner mitochondrial membrane from the inner cavity side to the inter-membrane space, where a **higher concentration** of hydrogen ions drives ATP \_\_\_\_\_\_ and produces the **bulk** of ATP (from ADP and Pi) generated by cellular respiration.

Web site

When the electrons come to the	end of the electron transport chain, they
combine with	. Oxygen is therefore the
	At the same time, the oxygen combines
with a pair of hydrogen ions to f	orm In the <b>absence of</b>
, the electron trai	nsport chain (and the ctric acid cyle)
does not operate.	

Web sites

http://highered.mcgraw-hill.com/sites/0072507470/student\_view0/chapter25/animation\_electron\_transport\_system\_and\_formation\_of\_atp\_\_quiz\_1\_html

http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&g=electron%20transport%20chain%20animation&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CCwQtwIwAA&url=http%3A%2 F%2Fwww.youtube.com%2Fwatch%3Fv%3DxbJ0nbzt5Kw&ei=Vu1oU-PaJvPL0AW0soHgAw&usg=AFQjCNG4HjrZMb0wDZypzrMzSNzd40FUew

#### Substrates for respiration

The following molecules can be used as \_\_\_\_\_ respiratary substrates to glucose:

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_ (in plant cells) and \_\_\_\_\_ (in animal cells) are both storage carbohydrates which are boken down to <u>glucose</u>.
- 2. Other sugar molecues (e.g. maltose and sucrose) can be converted to glucose or intermediate compounds produced during glycolysis.
- **3**. **Proteins** can be broken down to \_\_\_\_\_\_ and converted to intermediate compounds produced during glycolysis and/or the citric acid cycle.
- **4**. **Fats** can also be broken down into intermediate compounds produced during glycolysis and/or the citric acid cycle.

http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=atp%20synthase%20animation&source=web&cd=2&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CDgQFjAB&url=http%3A%2F %2Fvcell.ndsu.edu%2Fanimations%2Fatpgradient%2Fmovie-flash.htm&ei=eJtoU-7fLIOb0AWlhIDACA&usg=AFQjCNHTkQAg92xKN0zsVVufS3kZM1YY3w

#### Regulation of the pathways of cellular respiration

During glycolysis, the **activity** of the enzyme \_\_\_\_\_\_, can be \_\_\_\_\_\_ by the **accumulation** of ATP and/or citrate. This is an example of \_\_\_\_\_\_ inhibition. This meachanism helps to synchronise and regulate the **rate** of glycolysis and the citric acid cycle. Its **importance** to a cell is that:

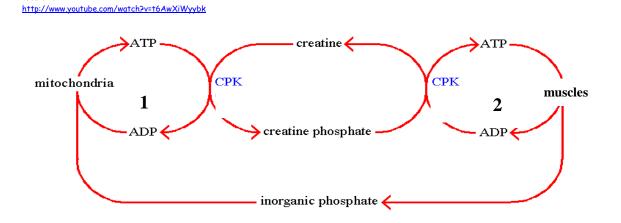
- > it **prevents** the needles \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ of an intermediate compounds
- ATP is only produced when it is \_\_\_\_\_
- > it conserves \_\_\_\_\_

#### The creatine phosphate system

Web site

Only ATP can transfer energy to cells for cellular processes e.g. muscle conraction. During strenuous activity, muscle cells break down ATP releasing ADP and phosphate (Pi) along with \_\_\_\_\_\_ that muscle cells use for contraction. However, each muscle cell only **stores enough** ATP for a **few contractions**. At this point, the energy required for **repetitive** muscular contraction comes from a compound called \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ muscle breaks down to provide energy and a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ which are then used to convert ADP to ATP by phosphorylation (as shown by **2** in the daigram below). The creatine phosphate system therefore helps an athlete to sustain **maximum muscle contraction** for a \_\_\_\_\_\_ period of time e.g. about a 100metre sprint lasting 9 - 10 \_\_\_\_\_\_.

When the demand for energy in muscle cells is \_\_\_\_\_\_ (e.g. during rest), the ATP that is produced during cellular respiration (in the mitochondria) acts as a source of \_\_\_\_\_\_ and energy for the phosphorylation of creatine into creatine phosphate (as shown by 1 in the daigram below) which acts as a high energy reserve available to muscle cells during strenuous activity.



## Lactic acid metabolism

During **vigorous** exercise, muscle cells don't get **sufficient oxygen** which is needed to support the electron transport chain. Under these conditions, pyruvate is converted to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ - a process called fermentation (\_\_\_\_\_\_ respiration).

This conversion of pyruvate to lactic acid involves the transfer of \_\_\_\_\_\_ from NADH molecules that are produced during glycolysis (see page 26).

(fre	NADH om glycolysis)	NAD	
PYRUVATE			>>> LACTIC ACID
	no oxygen		(transported in bloodstream to liver)

The NAD that is **regenerated** returns to the glycolytic pathway where it is needed to maintain ATP production.

Over time, the lactic acid \_\_\_\_\_\_ in the muscle cells causing \_\_\_\_\_\_ and an \_\_\_\_\_\_ to build up. The oxygen debt is repayed when exercise **stops**. This then allows aerobic respiration to provide the **energy** to convert the lactic acid back to pyruvate and glucose in the liver.

## Types of skeletal muscle fibres

There are two different type of skeletal muscle fibres:

- 1. <u>slow</u> twitch (type 1)
- 2. <u>fast</u> twitch (type 2)
- 1. Slow twitch

These type of muscle fibres are good for \_\_\_\_\_\_ activities (e.g. long distance running or cycling). They can therfore **sustain contractions** for **long periods of time**. They rely on aerobic respiration to generate ATP and therfore these cells have:



- many \_\_\_\_\_
- a large \_\_\_\_\_
- a high concentration of the oxygen-storing protein called



Cardiac muscle cell

Skeletal muscle cell

Smooth muscle cell

The major storage fuel of slow twitch muscle fibres is FATS.

#### 2. Fast twitch

These type of muscle fibres **contract more quickly**, but **can't sustain** these contractions for as long as slow twitch muscle fibres. These muscle fibers are good for activities like \_\_\_\_\_\_ or weightlifting. Fast twiitch muscle fibers can generate ATP through **glycolysis** only and therfore these cells have:

• few \_\_\_\_\_

o a \_\_\_\_\_ blood supply

The **major storage fuels** of fast twitch muscle fibres are <u>GLYCOGEN</u> and **CREATINE PHOSPHATE**.

Web site -start at 4 minutes http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=207K-862nwU