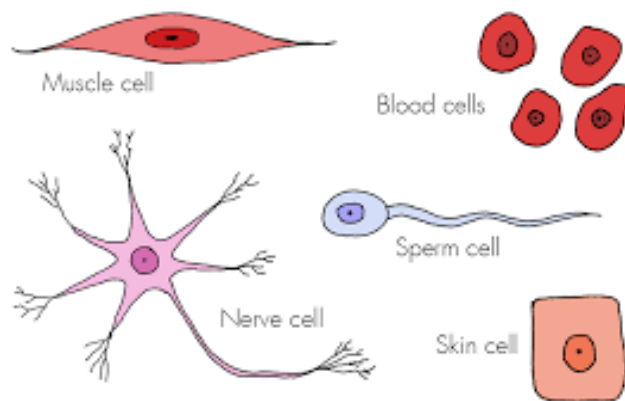


Name \_\_\_\_\_

# Unit 1 - Human Cells



Learning Outcome  
Checklists  
and  
Glossaries

	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
<b>Division in Somatic and Germline</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Somatic cells are any cell in the body other than cells involved in reproduction</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Germline cells are gametes (sperm and ova) and the stem cells that divide to form gametes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Somatic stem cells divide by mitosis to form more somatic cells.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Germline stem cells divide by mitosis to produce more germline stem cells</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Germline stem cells divide by meiosis to produce haploid gametes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Mitosis maintains the diploid chromosome number of 23 pairs of homologous chromosomes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> In meiosis the nucleus divides twice. 1<sup>st</sup> division separates the homologous chromosomes. 2<sup>nd</sup> division separates the chromatids.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Meiosis creates haploid gametes containing 23 single chromosomes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> The nucleus of germline cells have 23 pairs of chromosomes and are said to be diploid.</li> </ul>
<b>Cellular Differentiation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Cellular differentiation is the process by which a cell expresses certain genes to produce proteins characteristic for that type of cell.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Differentiation allows a cell to carry out specialised functions</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Embryonic stem cells are in the very early embryo</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> All the genes in embryonic stem cells can be switched on, so these cells can differentiate into any cell type and so are pluripotent</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Tissue stem cells are involved in growth, repair and renewal of the cells found in that tissue.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Tissue stem cells can differentiate into all the types of cell found in a particular tissue type and so are multipotent</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Blood stem cells in the bone marrow are an example of tissue stem cells, they can differentiate into red blood cells, platelets, phagocytes and lymphocytes</li> </ul>
<b>Therapeutic and Research use of Stem cells</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Stem cells can be used therapeutically for the repair of damaged or diseased organs or tissues</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Therapeutic uses of stem cells include corneal repair and regeneration of damaged skin</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Stem cell research provides information on how cell processes such as cell growth, differentiation and gene regulation work.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Stem cells can also be used as model cells to study how diseases develop or for drug testing.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Embryonic stem cells can self-renew, under the right conditions, in the lab</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Embryonic stem cells can be used to treat disease of injury</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Using Embryonic stem cells involves destroying embryos and so causes ethical issues</li> </ul>
<b>Cancer cells</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Cancer cells divide excessively to produce a mass of abnormal cells (a tumour) that do not respond to regulatory signals and may fail to attach to each other.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> If the cancer cells fail to attach to each other they can spread through the body to form secondary tumours.</li> </ul>

	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
DNA structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> DNA is a long double stranded molecule</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the two strands of DNA are twisted in to a double helix</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the sub units of DNA are nucleotides</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> each nucleotide contains deoxyribose sugar, phosphate &amp; base.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> DNA has a 3'-5' sugar-phosphate backbone, where the phosphate joined to carbon 5' on one nucleotide is joined to the carbon 3' of the next nucleotide</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> there are four different bases - (A) adenine, (T) thymine, (G) guanine and (C) cytosine. The base sequence of DNA forms the genetic code</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> complementary base pairing means A and T pair &amp; C and G pair</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> two DNA strands are held together by hydrogen bonds between the bases</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the two DNA strands run in opposite directions = antiparallel</li> </ul>
DNA replication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Replication of DNA occurs before cell division (mitosis &amp; meiosis) to make identical copies of the chromosomes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> an enzyme called DNA polymerase adds complementary DNA nucleotides to the deoxyribose (3') end of a DNA strand.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> DNA polymerase requires a primer to start replication</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> primers are short complimentary sequences of DNA that allow the binding of DNA polymerase</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> DNA is unwound and the hydrogen bonds between bases are broken to form two template strands.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the 3'-5' strand is called the lead strand and is replicated continuously from the 3' end to the 5' end</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the 5'-3' strand is called the lagging strand and is replicated in fragments which are joined together by the enzyme ligase</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> ATP is required to provide the energy for replication</li> </ul>
PCR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Polymerase Chain Reaction is a process which amplifies DNA</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Primers are short strands of DNA and are used in PCR to target base sequences at both ends of the region of DNA to be amplified</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> PCR involves repeated cycles of heating and cooling</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Heating the DNA to 92-98oC to separate the two strands of DNA</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Separated strands are then cooled to 50-60oC to allow primers to bind to target sequences</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> It is then heated to 70-80oC and heat tolerant DNA polymerase replicate the region of DNA</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> PCR can be used to amplify DNA to- help solve crime, settle paternity suits, diagnose genetic disorders</li> </ul>

	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
gene expression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>□ Gene expression involves the transcription and translation of DNA sequences</li> <li>□ only a fraction of the genes in a cell are expressed</li> <li>□ gene expression involves three kinds of ribonucleic acid - RNA.</li> <li>□ RNA is single stranded and is composed of nucleotides containing ribose sugar, phosphate and one of four bases : cytosine, guanine, adenine and uracil.</li> <li>□ messenger RNA (mRNA) carries a copy of the DNA code from the nucleus to the ribosome, it is transcribed from DNA in the nucleus and translated into proteins by ribosomes in the cytoplasm</li> <li>□ each triplet of bases on the mRNA molecule is called a codon and codes for a specific amino acid</li> <li>□ ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and proteins form the ribosome.</li> <li>□ transfer RNA (tRNA) folds due to complementary base pairing and carries a specific amino acid to the ribosome</li> <li>□ a tRNA molecule has an anti-codon, an exposed triplet of bases, at one end and a site for amino acid attachment at the other end</li> </ul>
Transcription	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>□ in transcription, DNA is transcribed to into primary mRNA transcripts in the nucleus</li> <li>□ RNA polymerase unwinds the double helix, breaks the hydrogen bonds between the bases and aligns RNA nucleotides by complementary base pairing (C-G&amp; A-U/T-A)</li> <li>□ the primary transcript includes introns (non-coding DNA sequence) and exons (coding DNA sequence)</li> <li>□ during RNA splicing the introns of the primary transcript of mRNA are removed and the exons are joined together to form mature transcript.</li> <li>□ alternative RNA splicing allows different mature transcripts to be formed</li> <li>□ Different proteins can be expressed from one gene because of alternative RNA splicing</li> </ul>
Translation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>□ in translation, the mRNA code is turned into a polypeptide by tRNA at the ribosome.</li> <li>□ Translation begins at a start codon and ends at a stop codon</li> <li>□ Anticodons bond to codons by complementary base pairing, translating the genetic code into the correct sequence of amino acids.</li> <li>□ adjacent amino acids are joined by a peptide bond to form a polypeptide</li> <li>□ tRNA exits from the ribosome to collect more amino acids.</li> </ul>
Protein	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>□ an organism's phenotype is determined by the proteins produced as the result of gene expression</li> <li>□ environmental factors also affect phenotype</li> <li>□ amino acids are linked by peptide bonds to form polypeptides</li> <li>□ polypeptide chains fold to form the three-dimensional shape of a protein, held together by hydrogen bonds and other interactions between individual amino acids</li> <li>□ proteins have a large variety of shapes which determines their functions</li> </ul>

HHB Unit 1.4 MUTATIONS LOs

	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
mutations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> mutations are random changes in genetic information</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> mutations can alter genes or chromosomes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> mutations result in no protein or a faulty protein being expressed.</li> </ul>
single gene mutations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Single gene mutations involve the alteration of a DNA nucleotide sequence</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> single gene mutations include the substitution, insertion or deletion of nucleotides.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> single-nucleotide substitutions include: missense, nonsense and splice-site mutations</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> missense mutations result in one amino acid being changed for another</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> missense mutations may result in a non-functional protein or have little effect on the protein</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> nonsense mutations results in a premature stop codon being produced</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> nonsense mutations result in the production of a shorter protein</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> splice site mutations change the bases at the point where intron and exon meet</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> splice site mutations result in some introns being retained and/or some exons being removed</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> insertions or deletions result in frame-shift mutations</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> frame shift mutations cause all the amino acids after mutation to be affected, causing a major effect on structure of the protein produced</li> </ul>
chromosome mutations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> deletion - a section of a chromosome is removed</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> duplication - a section of a chromosome is added from its homologous (matching) chromosome</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> inversion - a section of chromosome is reversed</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> translocation - a section of a chromosome is added to a chromosome that is not its homologous partner (ie not its matching chromosome)</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the substantial changes in chromosome mutations often make them lethal.</li> </ul>

## HHB Unit 1.5 HUMAN GENOMICS LOs

Lesson(s)	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
Genome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the genome of an organism is its entire hereditary information encoded in DNA</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> a genome is made up of genes that code for proteins and other DNA sequences that do not code for proteins</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> in genomic sequencing the sequence of nucleotide bases can be determined for individual genes and entire genomes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> computer programs can be used to identify base sequences by looking for sequences similar to known genes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Bioinformatics is the use of computer technology to identify DNA sequences.</li> </ul>
Personalised medicine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> An individual's genome can be analysed to predict the likelihood of developing certain diseases</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Pharmacogenetics is the use of the genome information in the choice of drug treatment</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> personalised medicine is based on an individual's genome</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> an individual's personal genome sequence can be used to select the most effective drugs and dosage to treat their disease</li> </ul>

Lesson(s)	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
<b>Types of metabolic pathways</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Metabolic pathways are integrated and controlled pathways of enzyme-catalysed reactions within a cell</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Metabolic pathways can involve anabolic reactions or catabolic reactions</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Anabolic reactions build up small molecules into large molecules and require energy</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Catabolic reactions breakdown large molecules into smaller molecules and release energy</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> metabolic pathways can have reversible and irreversible steps and alternative routes.</li> </ul>
<b>Enzymes</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> metabolic pathways are controlled by the presence or absence of particular enzymes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> metabolic pathways are controlled by the regulation of the rate of reaction of key enzymes</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> substrate molecules have an affinity for the active site of an enzyme</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the enzyme is flexible, and the substrate can induce the active site to change shape by induced fit to fit the substrate better</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the active site can orientate the substrate molecules so that they fit more closely</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Activation energy is the energy required to initiate a chemical reaction. Enzymes lower the activation energy.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> products of reactions have a low affinity for the active site and are released</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> some metabolic reactions are reversible, the concentrations of substrate and end product concentration affect the direction and rate of an enzyme reaction</li> </ul>
<b>Control of metabolic pathways</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> competitive inhibitors are molecules that resemble the substrate and compete with it for the active site of the enzyme</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> competitive inhibition can be reversed by increasing substrate concentration</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> non-competitive inhibitors are molecules that bind to the enzyme away from the active site but change the shape of the active site preventing the substrate from binding</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> non-competitive inhibition cannot be reversed by increasing substrate concentration</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> feedback inhibition occurs when the end-product in the metabolic pathway reaches a critical concentration</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> in feedback inhibition the end-product inhibits an earlier enzyme blocking the pathway and preventing further synthesis of the end-product.</li> </ul>

	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
glycolysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> cellular respiration is the release of energy from food molecules in cells</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> glycolysis is the breakdown of glucose to pyruvate in the cytoplasm</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> ATP is required for the phosphorylation of glucose and intermediates during the energy investment phase of glycolysis</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> More ATP is generated in the energy pay-off phase, leading to a net gain of ATP</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Dehydrogenase enzymes remove hydrogen ions and electrons and pass them to the coenzyme NAD, forming NADH</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> In aerobic conditions (when oxygen is present) pyruvate is broken down to an acetyl group.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> The acetyl group combines with coenzyme A to form acetyl coenzyme A</li> </ul>
citric acid cycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the citric acid cycle happens in the matrix of the mitochondria</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the acetyl group from acetyl coenzyme A combines with oxaloacetate to form citrate</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> during a series of enzyme-controlled steps, citrate is gradually converted back into oxaloacetate</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> ATP is generated</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> carbon dioxide is released</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Dehydrogenase enzymes remove hydrogen ions and electrons and pass them to the coenzyme NAD, forming NADH</li> </ul>
electron transport chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> The electron transport chain is a series of carrier proteins attached to the inner membrane of the mitochondria</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Hydrogen ions and electrons are passed to the electron transport chain by from NADH</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the electrons are passed along the electron transport chain releasing energy</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> this energy is used to pump hydrogen ions across the inner mitochondrial membrane</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> return flow of hydrogen ions, through the ATP synthase protein on the inner mitochondrial membrane, synthesises ATP</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> most ATP is generated from the electron transport chain</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> the final acceptor is oxygen, which combines with hydrogen ions and electrons to form water</li> </ul>
ATP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> ATP is used to transfer energy to cellular processes which require energy</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> cellular processes which require energy include DNA replication, protein synthesis, muscle contraction</li> </ul>



	..by the end of the lesson(s) I should know...
lactate metabolism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> during vigorous exercise the muscle cells do not get enough oxygen to support the electron transport chain</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> in oxygen-deficient conditions pyruvate from glycolysis is converted to lactate</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> hydrogen from the NADH formed during glycolysis is transferred to the pyruvate to produce lactate</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> this regenerates NAD needed to maintain ATP production through glycolysis</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> lactate accumulates in muscle cells when oxygen is in short supply during strenuous exercise</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> lactate build-up in muscle cells can cause muscle fatigue &amp; oxygen debt</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> oxygen debt is repaid in a recovery period following strenuous exercise</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> during the recovery time lactate is converted back into pyruvate and glucose in the liver</li> </ul>
skeletal muscle fibres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> skeletal muscle contracts to bring about the movements of the body</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> skeletal muscle has slow-twitch fibres and fast-twitch fibres</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> slow-twitch fibres contract more slowly but can sustain contractions for longer</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> slow twitch muscle fibres             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- are useful for endurance activities e.g. long-distance running, cycling, cross country skiing</li> <li>- rely on aerobic respiration to generate ATP</li> <li>- have many mitochondria</li> <li>- have a large blood supply</li> <li>- have high concentration of oxygen storing protein called myoglobin</li> <li>- mainly store fuel as fat</li> </ul> </li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> fast-twitch fibres contract more quickly over short periods and are effective for short bursts of strenuous activity e.g. sprinting, weight lifting</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> fast twitch muscle fibres             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- can generate ATP through glycolysis only</li> <li>- have fewer mitochondria</li> <li>- have a lower blood supply</li> <li>- mainly store fuel as glycogen</li> </ul> </li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> most human muscle tissue contains a mixture of slow &amp; fast twitch fibres</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> athletes show distinct patterns of muscle fibres that reflect their sporting activity</li> </ul>