

Water

Hydrolysis:

Addition of H₂O to break it apart.

Dehydration:

Removal of H₂O to form a bond.

Carbohydrates

Monosaccharide: 2 common types

Glucose (Hexopyranose RLRR), fructose

Disaccharide: 3 common types

glucose + fructose alpha glucosidic bond = sucrose (table sugar)

glucose + galactose beta galactosidic bond = lactose

glucose + glucose = maltose

Polysaccharide: 4 common types

Starch: alpha 1,4 & 1,6 bonds btwn glucoses. amylose and amylopectin

Glycogen: different branching than starch. Found in animals

Cellulose: beta glucose polymer. Plant cell walls

Chitin: similar to cellulose with extra nitrogen containing group. Fungus cell wall and exoskeleton

Lipids

Triglyceride

3 fatty acids attached to glycerol.

Phospholipid

One fatty acid in triglyceride replaced with a R containing phosphate group

Steroids

4 carbon rings. 3 cyclohexane and 1 cyclopentane

Proteins

Primary structure

AA sequence

Secondary

3D shape resulting from hydrogen bonding btwn amino and carboxyl group. Alpha helix and beta pleated sheets

Tertiary

Hydrogen bonding btwn R groups

Ionic bonding btwn R groups

Hydrophobic and hydrophilic effects

Disulfide bonds btwn Cysteine

Quaternary

Multiple tertiary structures come together. H-bond, disulfide bond, hydrophilic/phobic interactions

Nucleic acids

Polymer of what?

nucleotides

Parts of DNA

Nitrogen base, 5 carbon sugar, phosphate group

Structure

1' attached to base, 5' attached to phosphate group, 3' attached to another nucleotide, antiparallel

Base types & number of H-bonds

A-G: Purine - two rings

C-T: Pyrimidine - one ring

C-G: 3 h-bonds

A-T: 2 h-bonds

RNA vs DNA

2' extra OH in RNA; Single stranded; U instead of T

Chemical reactions in metabolic processes

Breakdown/synthesis of products is called

Catabolism/anabolism(synthesis)

***** CELLS *****

Structure and functions of cell

Basic structure

Plasma membrane (lipid bilayer) surrounds cytoplasm with suspended organelles

Plasma membrane composition

Lipid bilayer with integral and peripheral proteins, and cholesterol. Everything flows like fluid.

What molecules may/may not pass freely across membrane?

Small, uncharged, polar & hydrophobic molecules may pass. H₂O, O₂, Hydrocarbons

Large, charged polar molecules may not pass. Charged particles, glucose

Proteins of the plasma membrane

Channel proteins

Open passageway for certain hydrophilic molecules

Ion channels

Allow ions to pass

Porins

Allow passage of certain ions and small polar molecules. E.G. Aquaporins in kidneys for H₂O

Carrier proteins

Binds to specific molecule and carry them across. E.G. Glucose

Transport proteins

Use energy to transport against gradient

Recognition proteins

Fingerprint of cell types

Adhesion proteins

Anchors cells with neighbor. Gives stability

Receptor proteins

Binding site for hormones or other trigger molecules

Organelles

Endoplasmic reticulum

Stacks of flattened sacs.

Rough: Ribosomes attach. Creates glycoproteins for secretion and cell membrane

Smooth: Synthesis of hormones, lipids, breakdown of toxins, drugs.

Golgi apparatus

Group of flattened sacs arranged like stack of bowls

Modify and package proteins and lipids into condensed transport vesicles.

Lysosomes

Acidic environment containing enzymes to breakdown food, cell debris, and foreign invaders.

Peroxisomes

Breakdown of substances including H₂O₂, fatty acids, and AA.
Common in liver and kidney cells in animals to break down toxins
Modify by-products of photorespiration in plants

Mitochondria

Carry out aerobic respiration

Chloroplasts

Carry out photosynthesis

Microtubules, intermediate filaments, microfilaments

3 protein fibers in decreasing diameter.

Microtubules

Composed of Tubulin; provide support and motility; found in spindle apparatus

Intermediate filaments

Support for maintaining shape of cell

Microfilaments

Composed of actin. Provide cell motility.

Flagella & cilia

9+2 array of microtubules

Centrioles and basal bodies

Microtubule organizing centers (MTOCs).

Centrioles are located in centrosome. Give rise to microtubules that make up the spindle apparatus

Basal bodies are located at base of flagellum and cilium and appear to organize their development

Vacuoles and vesicles

Fluid filled, membrane-bound bodies

Vacuoles

Temporary receptacles of nutrients. Often merge with lysosomes to breakdown food

Transport vesicles

Move material between organelles or plasma membrane

Storage vacuoles

Store starch, pigments, toxic substances (e.g. nicotine) in plants

Central vacuoles

Large bodies occupying most of the interior of plant cells. Exert turgor (pressure) on cell walls.

Contractile vacuoles

Specialized organelles in single celled organism that pump excess water out of cell

Extracellular region

Cell walls

Found in plants, fungi, and bacteria.

Extracellular matrix

Found in animals; occupied by fibrous structural proteins, adhesion proteins and polysaccharides

Cell junctions

Anchoring junctions

Desmosome (spot welding). Provide mechanical support and stability

Tight Junctions

Tightly stitched seams between animal cells. Provides a seal that prevent passage of materials btwn cell

communicating junctions

Gap junctions

Narrow tunnels btwn animal cells. No free exchange of cytoplasm except for ions

Plasmodesma

Narrow channels between plant cells. Allows for exchange of materials.

Movement of substances

Hypo/hypertonic

Refers to the concentration of ions. Hyper=high concentration. H₂O will move from hypo to

hyper

Bulk flow

Collective movement of substance in the same direction due to a force or pressure. E.G. blood

flow

Passive transport

Movement of substance from higher to lower concentration

Simple diffusion

Net movement of substance from higher to lower concentration

Osmosis

Diffusion of water across selective permeable membrane

Dialysis

Diffusion of solutes across selective permeable membrane

Plasmolysis

Movement of water out of a cell that results in collapse

Facilitated diffusion

Diffusion of water or solutes through channel proteins

Active transport

Movement of solutes against gradient. ATP required.

Vesicular transport

Use vesicles to move macromolecules across plasma membrane

Exocytosis

Expel contents to the outside of cell

Endocytosis

Phagocytosis

Engulfing undissolved materials into the cell

Pinocytosis

"to drink" dissolved materials enter the cell

Receptor-mediated

Form of pinocytosis. Occurs when specific molecules enter through binding of receptors

***** CELLULAR RESPIRATION *****

Overall equation



Glycolysis



Krebs Cycle



How many ATP per NADH & FADH?

NADH = 3 ATP (2ATP if NADH needs to cross mito membrane)

FADH = 2 ATP

Mitochondria

Outer membrane

Inner membrane

H⁺ ions accumulate btwn here and outer membrane

Has cristae and contain ETC protein complex.

Matrix

Where Krebs cycle and pyruvate to acetylCoA occurs here

Chemiosmosis in Mito

Definition

Mechanism of ATP generation from H⁺ concentration gradient

Steps

NADH and FADH₂ generated in matrix

Electrons removed from FADH₂ and NADH; e⁻ moves along ETC from one protein to the next

H⁺ ions transported from matrix to intermembrane space. Inc. [H⁺] in intermembrane space.

pH and electrical gradient is created.

ATP synthase generates ATP using the flow of H⁺ into matrix

Two types of phosphorylation

Substrate level

Occurs when a phosphate group AND energy is donated by the substrate to ADP to form ATP.

Oxidative phosphorylation

Occurs when a phosphate group is donated to ADP to form ATP, but the energy comes from the ETC.

Anaerobic Respiration

Alcohol vs lactic acid fermentation: regenerates NAD⁺

Alcohol Fermentation

Occurs in plants, fungi, and bacteria; 2ATP formed from 1 glucose

Steps

Pyruvate -> acetaldehyde + CO₂ + NADH

Acetaldehyde + NADH -> EtOH + NAD⁺

Lactic Acid fermentation

Occurs in animals; Pyruvate + NADH -> lactate + NAD⁺

Liver converts lactic acid back into glucose when ATP is available

***** PHOTOSYNTHESIS

Overall equation

$6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{light} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$

Noncyclic Photophosphorylation

Generates NADPH & ATP. Uses P700 and P680

Steps

Photosystem II. P680 energize two electrons

Two electrons passed to the primary electron acceptor
e- passed through electron transport chain
e- losses energy and generate ATP
Photosystem I. P700 energize the two electrons again
e- moved through a second ETC. The energy is used to move H⁺ into thylakoid
NADPH is generated from NADP⁺, H⁺, and 2 e⁻.
H₂O -> 2H⁺ and 1/2O₂ + 2e⁻; e⁻ is regenerated

Cyclic Photophosphorylation

Generates ATP only. Uses P700 Photosystem I

Calvin cycle

"Fixes" CO₂ by taking inorganic CO₂ and incorporate into useful organic molecule

Overall reaction for each cycle of Calvin

1 CO₂ used. Therefore 6 cycles req'd to form 1 glucose

Steps

Carboxylation - 6CO₂ + 6 RuBP -> 12PGA catalyzed with rubisco

Reduction - 12ATP + 12NADPH + 12 PGA -> 12G3P (PGAL)

Regeneration - 6ATP + 10G3P -> 6RuBP

Carbohydrate synthesis - 2G3P -> 1 glucose

Chloroplasts

Site of light dep and indep rxn

Double phospholipid bilayer - like mito.

Stroma

Calvin cycle takes place here

Thylakoid

Pancake-like membrane. Site of light-dependent rxn

Grana

Stacks of thylakoid

Thylakoid lumen

H⁺ accumulates here

Chemiosmosis in chloroplasts

Mechanism of ATP generation from proton gradient. Similar to mito ATP generation

Steps

H⁺ ions accumulate inside thylakoids from splitting of H₂O

ATP synthase generate ATP from H⁺ gradient

Photorespiration

"Fixing" of O₂ with RuBP catalyzed with rubisco

Competing reaction with calvin cycle due to rubisco non-specificity

A waste product which is broken down by peroxisomes inside thylakoid

C4 photosynthesis

Compartmentalize CO₂ from O₂. Increase rubisco efficiency

CAM photosynthesis

Desert plant adaptation to allow for photosynthesis during the day when the stroma is closed.

Note: normal plants open their stroma during the day to allow CO₂ in. Desert plant require closed to save H₂O

***** CELL DIVISION *****

Two phases

Nuclear division - occurs first, division of genetic material

Cytokinesis - division of cytoplasm

Mitosis

Prophase

Nucleoid disappear & chromatin condense into chromosomes

Nuclear envelope disappears

Mitotic spindle assemble. MTOC forms and segregate to opp side of cell. Microtubule connects to kinetichore

Metaphase

Chromosomes line up at metaphase plate.

Anaphase

Chromosomes separate and migrate towards the MTOC

Telophase

Nuclear envelope reappears. Chromosome disperse into chromatin. Nucleoid reappear

Cytokinesis

Plants

Forms cell plate from golgi bodies

Animals

Forms cleavage furrow

Circular micro filaments decrease in radius and pulling the cell membrane inwards

Meiosis

Gemetophyte

Multicellular haploid structure. Produces haploid gametes via mitosis

Regulation fo cell cycle

surface to volume ratio

Proper maintenance of extracellular communication limits the ratio

Genome to volume ratio

Limited genome products limits the ratio

Checkpoints

G1 checkpoint:

end of G1. Determines whether cell should divide

G2 :

End of G2. Evaluate accuracy of DNA replication

M :

checks proper attachment of micro tubule to all kinetichore

Cdk's:

Phosphorylates cell cycle regulation proteins

Growth factors:

stimulates cell division

Density-dependent inhibition:

may cells stop dividing when neighbors reach a certain density

Anchorage dependence:

Most cell only divide when anchored to adjacent cell or flat surface

***** HEREDITY

Incomplete dominance

Phenotype expressed is a combination of the two alleles. E.G. pink flower from red and white alleles

Codominance

Both genotype expressed. E.G. Blood type

Multiple Alleles

Phenotype is a combination of multiple alleles. E.G. blood type. i, IA, IB

Epistasis

One gene affects the phenotypic expression of a second gene. E.G. Pigment. One gene turn on/off pigment.

Another controls the amount or color of pigment

Pleiotropy

Occurs when single gene has more than one phenotypic expression.

Polygenic inheritance

Continuous varieties of phenotype. E.G. height

Linked genes

Genes that reside on the same chromosome. Segregates dependently

X-inactivation

One of two X chromosomes in each cell does not uncoil creating a Barr body.

Thus, 1/2 of the cells express one X while the other half express the other

E.G. Calico cats

Human genetic defects

Point mutation

single nucleotide in DNA of gene is incorrect

Aneuploidy

A genome containing extra or missing chromosomes. Often caused by non-disjunction

Chromosome aberrations

Changed chromosome segment

Duplication: a segment of chromosome is repeated

Inversion: a segment of chromosome is inverted

Translocation: a segment of chromosome is moved to another chromosome

***** MOLECULAR GENETICS

Replication

Semiconservative replication

Bidirectional

Reads 3' to 5', but synthesizes the complimentary strand 5' to 3'

Steps:

1. Helicase unzips the double helix;
2. RNA Polymerase builds an RNA primer;
3. DNA Polymerase assembles the leading and lagging strands;
4. the primers are removed;
5. Okazaki fragments are joined by DNA ligase

Telomerase: repeated 6 nucleotide units that protects chromosomes from being eroded through multiple replication.

Mutations

Silent

New codon codes for the same AA.

Missense

New codon codes for a different AA

Nonsense

New codon codes for a stop codon

DNA organization

Euchromatin

Region where DNA is loosely bound to nucleosomes. Active transcription

Heterochromatin

Region where DNA is tightly compacted and inactive

Bacterial gene regulation

Operon

Unit of DNA that control gene expression

Components

Promoter - Place where RNA pol attach to begin transcription

Operator - Region that can block action of RNA pol if bound by repressor

Structural genes - codes for desired genetic product

Regulatory genes - codes for repressors or activators for the operon

***** MOLECULAR GENETICS

Lamarckian

Inheritance of acquired characteristics - inheritance based upon use or disuse. Wrong.

Darwin

Natural selection. Survival of the fittest.

Homologous structure

Body parts that resemble one another in different species due to same origin. May look different.

E.G. forelimbs of cats, dogs, whales, human.

Analogous structure

Independent adaptation to same environment. E.G. body shape and fins of sharks, penguin, dolphins

Natural selection

stabilizing selection

Favor middle instead of extremes

Directional

Favors one extreme out of a set of extremes

Disruptive selection

Environment favors extremes instead of common trait.

Sexual selection

Differences btwn male vs female

Speciation

Allopatric

Geographic isolation

Sympatric

Non-geographic isolation

Adaptive radiation

Rapid evolution of many species from single ancestor

Maintaining reproductive isolation

Mechanisms that prevent gene flow

Prezygotic isolating mechanism

Mechanism that prevent fertilization

Habit isolation

Occurs when species do not encounter one another

Temporal isolation

Occurs when species mate or flower during different seasons or a different time of the day

Behavioral isolation

Occurs when species do not encounter one another due to mating rituals, signals, etc

Mechanical isolation

Genetic isolation

Postzygotic isolating mechanism

Mechanism that prevent the formation of fertile progeny

Hybrid inviability

Occurs when zygote fails to develop properly and aborts

Hybrid sterility

Occurs when hybrids become functional adults but are sterile

Hybrid breakdown

Occurs when offspring that have reduced viability or fertility

Patterns of evolution

Divergent evolution

Two or more species that originate from common ancestor and become different over time

Convergent evolution

Two unrelated species converge together due to environmental factors

Parallel evolution

Two related species make similar adaptation after diverging from same ancestor

Coevolution

Two or more species evolve together, responding to each other's new feature

Macroevolution

Describes patterns of evolution for groups of species over extended period of geologic time

Phyletic gradualism

Argues that evolution occurs by gradual accumulation of small changes over long periods of time

Punctuated equilibrium

Argues that evolutionary history consists of long periods of stasis with little change punctuated with short, rapid evolution

Origins of life

Primordial soup -> complex molecules -> polymers -> isolation of organic molecules in cells (protobionts) ->

Heterotrophs -> autotrophs -> O₂ & ozone -> Eukaryotes.

***** BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY *****

Eukaryotic cells characteristics

Linear DNA in histones

Nucleus

Distinct organelles

Flagella & cilia in 9+2 arrangement

Prokaryotic cells

Single circular chromosome

NO nucleus

No organelles

Flagella composed of flagellin

Domain Archaea

Prokaryotes

Distinct characteristics

Cell walls and plasma membrane contain distinct polysaccharides NOT peptidoglycans, cellulose, or chitin

Plasma membrane is distinct from prok. or euk.

Similarity to eukaryotes

DNA associates with histones

Ribosome not inhibited by antibiotics targeted towards bacteria

Methanogens (produce methane); extremophiles - halophiles (salt lovers), thermophiles (heat lovers)

Domain Bacteria

Distinct features

peptidoglycan cell wall

DNA bare, not associated with histones

Ribosome activity inhibited by streptomycin and chloramphenicol

Common groups of bacteria

Cyanobacteria

Photosynthetic bacteria, blue green algae

Nitrogen fixing bacteria

Many are mutualistic with plants to fix nitrogen
Spirochetes
Coiled bacteria that moves with a corkscrew motion

Domain Eukarya

Kingdom Protista

Algae-like

Obtain energy by photosynthesis.

Types

Euglenoids - 1 to 3 flagella.

Dinoflagellates - 2 flagella. Some bioluminescent. Others produce toxin concentrates in shellfish.

Diatoms - have silica shells that fit together like box with lid

Brown algae - Kelps

Rhodophyta - red algae.

Chlorophyta - green algae.

Protozoa

Animal like protists.

Types

Rhizopoda - amoebas that moves by extending pseudopods

Foraminifera - made up of calcium carbonate

Apicomplexans - parasites of animals.

Ciliates - move with cilia. E.G. paramecium

Fungus-like

Similar to fungus. duh.

Types

Slim molds - plasmodial or cellular.

Oomycota - water molds, mildew, white rusts. Form filaments, lack septa so they are coenocytic

Kingdom Fungi

Growth

Grows as filaments called hyphae.

Mycelium

Mass of hyphae

Coenocytic

Some lack septa, so they are multi nucleated.

Sexual reproduction steps

Predominantly haploid, but forms diploid during sexual reproduction

Plasmogamy - fusion of cells from two different fungal strain to produce single cell with two nuclei

Karyogamy - fusion of two haploid nuclei of dikaryon to form single diploid nucleus

Meiosis - diploid nucleus restores to haploid condition. Germinates and forms haploid hyphae

Asexual reproduction

Spores

Sporangiospores - produced in sacklike capsules

Conidia - formed at tips of specialized hyphae, not enclosed in a sack

Types

Zygomycota - lack septa. Reproduce sexually. Bread mold

Glomeromycota - mutualistic relationship with roots of plants

Ascomycota - have septa. Yeast, truffles
Basidiomycota - have septa. Mushrooms
Deuteromycota - imperfect fungi. artificial group. Penicillium
Lichens - Mutualistic relationship btwn fungi and algae.

Kingdom Plantae

Bryophytes

Moss, liverworts, hornworts

Gametophytes.

Male antheridium produce flagellated sperm that swim to fertilize female archegonium

Tracheophytes

Seedless plants

Lycophyta - club moss.

Pterophyta - ferns

Seeded plants

Microsprangium - produce male spores

Macrosprangium - produce female spores

Gymnosperms

Coniferophyta. Cone bearing. Pine, fir, spruce, juniper, cedar, etc

Angiosperms

Anthophyta. Flowering plants.

Female reproductive system

Pistil - made from ovary, style, and stigma

Male reproductive system

Stamen - made from anther, stalk, and filament

Sepals - aka petals. Function to attract pollinators

Kingdom Animalia

The coelom

Fluid filled body cavity arising from the mesoderm

Acoelomates

Primitive animals that have no coelom.

Pseudocoelomates

Nematoes

Coelomates

Animals having coelom

Protosomes

1st opening forms the mouth

Deuterostomes

1st opening forms the anus. 2nd forms the mouth.

Porifera

Sponges

Water drawn through spongocoel by coenocytes (cells having cilia).

Amoebocytes takes food from coenocytes and distributes them.

Water exits through osculum.

Cnidarians

Jellyfish, corals, hydrozoans, sea anemones

Two body forms - medusa (floating umbrella-shaped body typical of jellyfish) or polyp (sessile cylinder shaped)

Acolomates.

Cindocytes - stinging cells

Platyhelminthes

Flatworms such as tapeworm

Acolomates

3 layer cells

true tissues and organs

One opening for both digestion and ingestion

Flat to increase surface area for O₂ exchange

Nematoda

Round worms

Protostomic pseudocoelomate

Many are parasitic. E.G. Trichinella from uncooked pork

Annelida

Earth worms, leeches

Protostomic coelomate

Open circulatory system

Contains nephridia which expells nitrogenous waste

Molluska

Snails, cuttlefish, squid, octopus

Largest class

Visceral body contains organs

Open circulatory system with large opening called hemocoel

Protostomic coelomate

Arthropod

Insects, spiders

Chitin exoskeleton

Jointed appendages

Malpighian tube to remove Nitric acid waste

Open circulatory system

protostomic coelomate

Echinoderm

Starfish, sea urchins, sand dollars

Deuterostomic coelomate

Radial symmetry

Regenerates lost limbs

Chordate

Deuterostomic coelomate

Dorsal hollow nerve cord

Pharyngeal gill slits

Notochord arised from mesoderm

Tail

***** PLANTS *****

Di vs monocots

Dicots

2 cotyledons (storage tissue that provide nutrients to teh developing seedling)

Netted leaf venation

Circular vascular bundles (xylem and phloem) in stems

Taproot (single large root)

Monocots

- 1 cotyledons
- Parallel leaf venation
- Scattered vascular bundles
- Fibrous root (cluster of many roots)

Plant tissues

- 3 distinct groups

Ground tissues

- Parenchyma - most common. Thin walls. Storage, photosynthesis, secretion
- Collenchyma - thick but flexible cell walls. Mechanical support
- Sclerenchyma - thick cell walls. Mechanical support

Dermal tissues

- Epidermis cells that cover the outside of plant parts. Guard cells, hair cells, stinign cells, glandular cells

Vascular tissue

- Xylem and phloem. usually occurs together in vascular bundle
- Xylem - water and mineral conduction. Secondary cell wall to give additional strength
- Phloem - conduction of sugars.

The seed

Parts of the seed

- Epicotyl - top portion of the embryo
- Hypocotyl - becomes the young shoot
- Cotyladon - endosperm (major storage material) E.G. Peas have two halves so they are dicots

Germination and development

- imbibition (absorption) of water swells and cracks the seed cloat.

- Growth occurs at the tip of roots and shoots called apical meristems

For roots

- Meristematic cells actively divide protected by root cap.
- Zone of cell division - actively dividing cells of the meristem
- Zone of elongation - elongation of tip. Perception of growth occurs due to this region
- Zone of maturation - forms xylem, phloem, parenchyma (epidermal cells)

For shoots

- Same as for roots, except for lack of root cap

Primary vs secondary growth

Primary

- Growth occuring at the apical meristems. Increase length of shoot or root. E.G. primary xylem, phloem

Secondary

- Growth that increase the girth.
- Vascular cambium and cork cambium responsible for growth. Makes secondary xylem and

phloem

Primary structure of roots

Epidermis

- Lines the outside surface of root.
- Protection and absorption (may increase absorption by producing root hairs)

Cortex

- Bulk of the root. Storage of starch

Endodermis

- Ring of tightly packed cells at th einnermost portion of cortex.
- Contains casparian strip around the packed cells to control water flow into, but not out of the

cortex

Vascular cylinder

Tissues of the endodermis. Xylem, phloem, endodermal cells

Primary structure of the stem

same as root, except for lack of casparian strip, instead cutin forms in the epidermis for protection

Leaf structure

Epidermis

Protective covering covered by cuticle (protective layer consisting of waxy material cutin). Reduce

H₂O loss

Palisade mesophyll

Cells with large surface areas specializing in photosynthesis

Spongy mesophyll

Paranchyma cells with numerous intercellular space that provide air chambers for CO₂ and O₂

exchange

Guard cells

Specialized epidermal cells that control opening and closing of stomata (opening allowing for gas exchange)

Vascular bundles

"leaf veins" Composed of xylem, phloem, bundle sheath cells

Water transportation

Osmosis

From soil through root and into xylem cells. Too small for significant contribution to water movement

Capillary action

Comes from adhesion forces. Small contribution

Cohesion-tension theory

Transpiration

evaporation of water from plant leaves create negative pressure to pull water up

Cohesion

Btwn water molecules to create a polymerlike water train from root to leaves

Bulk flow

One water molecule evaporating from leaves pull a "train" of water upwards

Stomata control

When stomata are open CO₂ may enter, but plant risk desiccation from transpiration. Two guard cells controls the opening

Close when temp are high

Open when CO₂ low inside leaf allows for photosynthesis to continue

Sugar transportation

Translocation

movement of carbs through phloem from a source (leaves) to a sink

Sugars enter sieve-tube members

Active transport of soluble sugars into phloem sieve-tube member of phloem

Water enters sieve-tube members

Osmosis occurs to move water into the sieve-tube member

Pressure increase

Pressure inside sieve-tube member increase because cell wall is rigid. Water and sugar moves via bulk flow

Pressure reduced at sink

Active transport of sugar out of sieve tube member decrease osmolarity. Water diffuse out,

dropping pressure

Sink vs source

depends on which cell is converting sugar -> starch and vice versa. Starch is not soluble vs sugar

is.

Sink = sugar -> starch

Source = starch -> sugar

Plant hormones

Auxin (IAA)

promote plant growth by facilitating elongation of developing cells

Gibberlins

Promote cell growth, flowering, stem elongation

Cytokinins

Promote cytokinesis (cell division)

Ethylene

Promote fruit ripening

Abscisic acid (ABA)

Growth inhibitor

Plant response to stimuli

Phototropism

Light response

Gravitropism (aka geotropism)

response to gravity

Thigmotropism

Touch. E.G. climbing plants

Photoperiodism

Response due to change in photoperiod (length of day/night)

Phytochrome is involved

Flash of red during night will reset plant clock. Brief period of night during day have no effect

***** ANIMAL FORM AND FUNCTION

Thermoregulation

Two groups of animals based upon thermoregulation

Ectotherms

Animals that obtain body heat from environment. E.G. invertebrates, reptiles, fish

Endotherms

Animals that generate own body heat

Mechanisms of temp regulation

Cooling by evaporation

Warming by metabolism

Adjust surface area to regulate temp

The respiratory system

Direct with environment - Small animals w/ large surface area. O₂ exchange directly. E.G.

Platyhelminthes

Gills - E.G. Internal gills in fish using countercurrent exchange. External gills on Annelida.

Tracheae - Insects have chitin lined tracheae opening on spiracles

Lungs

Human control of respiration

Chemoreceptors monitor $[H^+]$ in the carotid arteries.

Circulatory system

Open circulatory system

Pump blood into an internal cavity called hemocoel which tissues are bathed in. The fluid is called hemolymph.

Insects and mollusks

Closed circulatory system

Blood is confined to vessels.

Annelida, certain mollusks such as octopuses and squids, and vertebrates

Excretory system

Marine fish

Hypoosmotic relative to environment. Water constantly lost by osmosis.

Constantly drink, rarely urinate, and excrete accumulated salts through gills

Fresh water fish

Hypoosmotic relative to environment. Water constantly diffuse into fish.

Rarely drink, urinate constantly, and absorb salts through gills

Types of excretory system

Contractile vacuoles

Found in cytoplasm of protists. Release water into environment by exocytosis.

Flame cells (protonephridia)

Platyhelminthes.

Nephridia

Annelids.

Malpighian tubules

Arthropods. Nitric acid solid waste.

Kidney

Ammonia -> Urea. Less toxic, require less H₂O to excrete.

Digestive system

Mouth

Salivary amylase. Starch -> maltose.

Mechanical breakdown

Pharynx

Epiglottis blocks trachea so bolus can pass

Esophagus

Peristaltis moves bolus into stomach

Stomach

Stores food so we can eat less often

Mixes food with gastric juice

Physical breakdown

Chemical breakdown

Pepsinogen -> Pepsin - break down proteins

Pepsin may cause peptic ulcers if mucus membrane breaks down

Small intestine

Duodenum -> Ilium -> Jijunum

Duodenum digests food.

Walls contain many digestive enzymes such as maltase, lactase, aminopeptidase, and phosphatase

(nucleotide digest)

Pancrease

Trypsin, chymotrypsin (proteases)

Lipase (fat digestion)

Pancreatic amylase (starch digestion)

These along with bicarbonate solution to neutralize food digest from stomach

Liver

Bile - emulsifies fat. Does not digest food. Stored in gall bladder and released as necessary.

Ilium and Jijunum

Absorbs the digested food through villi and microvilli

AA, sugar, and nucleotides are absorbed into the blood capillaries

Fatty acids and glycerol absorbed into the lymph system

Large intestine

Reabsorb water to form solid waste

Hormones involved in digestion

Gastrin

Produced by cells of the stomach lining when food enters the stomach or stimulated by smell.

Stimulate gastric juice production

Secretin

Produced by cell lining of the duodenum when food enters. Stimulate bicarbonate production

Cholecystokinin

Produced by small intestine in the presence of fats. Stimulates bile release and pancreas enzymes.

Nervous system

Nerve impulse

Resting

Na/K pump constantly pumps 2K in and 3Na out of cell. K/Na leaks through cell. In equilibrium. Negative potential

Action potential

Threshold reached, Na channels flood in, cell potential spike into the positive, polarizing cell.

All or nothing event

Repolarization

K channels open in response to polarizatoin. K floods out, repolarizing the cell. Na channels close.

Hyperpolarization

K channels open too long, the cell potential becomes less negative than resting.

Refractory period

Period of time where stimulus will not trigger an action potential

Myelin

Insulation for neurons.

Created by Schwann cells in PNS and oligodendrocytes in CNS

causes saltatory conduction, increase transmission speed.

Synaptic cleft and signal transduction

Calcium gates open on the presynaptic cleft

synaptic vesicles release neurotransmitter via exocytosis

Neurotransmitter binds with postsynaptic receptors

Postsynaptic membrane is excited or inhibited

If Na⁺ channels open -> excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP)

If K⁺ channels open -> inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP)

Neurotransmitter is degraded and recycled

Nervous system composition

Central nervous system

Brain, spinal cord

PNS

Sensory neurons and motor neurons

Two divisions of motor neurons

Somatic nervous system

Directs contraction of skeletal muscles. Voluntary

Autonomic nervous system

Controls activities of organs and other involuntary muscles

Two divisions of ANS

Sympathetic

Fight or flight

Parasympathetic

Rest or digest

Muscular system

Sarcolemma

Plasma membrane of the muscle cell. Highly invaginated by transverse tubules (T tubules)

Sarcoplasm

Cytoplasm of the muscle cell. Contains Ca⁺⁺ storing sarcoplasmic reticulum.

Myofibrils fill nearly the entire volume of the muscle cell

Composed of two types of filaments

Thin filament

Two strands of actin in a double helix

Troponin with Ca⁺⁺ binding sites dot the length of tropomyosin

Thick filament

groups of filamentous protein myosin with protruding head

Muscle contraction

ATP bind to myosin head and forms ADP + Pi. Head is cocked and ready for binding

Ca⁺⁺ expose binding site on actin

Myosin head bind to actin

ADP released, head position moves to resting state, sliding the filaments past each other

ATP bind to head, causing release of cross bridge

Neuromuscular junction

Steps of muscle stimulation

Action potential release acetylcholine into neuromuscular junction

Action potential generated on sarcolemma and throughout the T-tubules

Sarcoplasmic reticulum release Ca⁺⁺

Myosin bridge form

Muscle types

Skeletal

Attached to bones. Multinucleated. Striated

Smooth

Involuntary non striated. Mononucleated

Cardiac

Involuntary striated. Multinucleated.

Highly branched, connected by gap junctions.
Ca⁺⁺ required. Causes longer contraction

Immune system

First line of defense

Skin - physical barrier of all invading organisms

Antimicrobial proteins - contained in saliva, tears, and other mucous membranes

Cilia - line the lungs to sweep microbes out

Gastric juice - kills most microbes

Symbiotic bacteria - in digestive tract and vagina to outcompete invading microbes

Second line of defense

Phagocytes

WBC that engulf pathogens via phagocytosis. Neutrophils. Monocytes turn into macrophages.

Natural killer cells kill abnormal body cells or pathogen infected cells

Complement

Proteins that complement defense reactions. Help attract phagocytes and promote cell lysis.

Interferons

Substance secreted by cells invaded by viruses. Helps neighbors to produce anti viral proteins

Inflammatory response

Series of non-specific events that occur in response to pathogens

Sequence of events

Histamine released by basophils

Vasodilation increase blood supply to damaged area

phagocytes attracted to injury by chemical gradient

Complements help phagocytes to engulf foreign body

Third line of defense

Targets specific antigens (any substance that can be identified as foreign: toxin, bacteria, virus, etc)

Major histone complex

Collection of glycoproteins that exist on cell membranes of all cells that identify self-cells.

Unique among individuals. Coded by 20 genes. Extremely unlikely that two people will possess same set of MHC

Two major kinds of lymphocytes

B cells

Originate and mature in the bone marrow (B is for bone)

Generate antibodies

Antibodies are proteins

Each antibody identifies one antigen

5 types: M, A, D, E, G

Inactivate antigens by binding to them followed by phagocytosis.

Once B cell encounters antigens that it recognizes, it proliferates into two cells with the help of

T-helper

Plasma cells

Actively manufactures antibodies

Memory cells

Long-lived B cells that remember and quickly react to subsequent infection of the

antigen

T cells

Lymphocytes that originate in bone marrow and mature in the Thymus gland (T for thymus)

Receptors on plasma membrane recognize sites for nonself cells

Recognition of self cells

MHC markers on plasma membrane of cells

Cells display random markers on surface. T cells react to potential foreign proteins

When activated

Divide into two type of cells

Cytotoxic T cells (aka killer T cells) - lyse nonself cells

Helper T cells - stimulate proliferation of B cells and cytotoxic T cells

Two types of reaction

Cell-mediated response

T cells responds to nonself cells

T cells produce cytotoxic T cells that destroy nonself cells

T cells produce helper T cells

Bind to macrophages that engulfed nonself cells

Produce interleukins "between leukocytes" to stimulate production of T and B cells

Humoral response

Involves responding to antigens that are circulating the body

B cells produce plasma cells to create antibodies

Helper T cells stimulate B cell production

Endocrine system

Produce hormones that help maintain homeostasis and regulate reproduction and development

Posterior pituitary

Peptide hormones. Stores the following hormones.

ADH (increase water retention in collecting tubule)

Oxytocin (increase uterine contraction during labor and milk let down)

Anterior pituitary

Peptide hormones

ACTH (adrenal corticotrophic hormone) stress response to stimulate increase in blood glucose

LH

FSH

TSH (thyroid stimulating hormone) stimulates thyroid

Prolactin (production of milk)

Hypothalamus

Produce ADH and Oxytocin

Produce GnRH (gonadotropin releasing hormone)

Adrenal cortex

Steroid hormones

Mineral corticoids

Aldosterone

Glucocorticoids

Cortisol - increase blood glucose

Pancreas

Peptide hormones

Insulin - decrease blood glucose (beta islet cells)

Glucagon - increase blood glucose (alpha islet cells)

Adrenal medulla

Tyrosine derivative, catecholamines

Epinephrine and norepinephrine

Thyroid

Tyrosine derivatives

T3 (triiodal.), T4(thyroxine)

Calcitonin (Decrease blood Ca⁺⁺ level)

Parathyroid

PTH (increase blood Ca⁺⁺ level)

***** ANIMAL REPRODUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT *****

Primary sex characteristics

Structures directly involved in reproduction - testes, ovaries, etc.

Secondary sex characteristics

E.G breasts, hair distribution, body shape, antlers in deer, mane in lion

Human reproduction anatomy

Female

Ovary, oviduct (fallopian tube), Uterus, vagina

Male

Testies

contains seminiferous tubules and leydig cells to produce testosterone

Epididymis

coiled tube attached to each testies that act as a final maturation site of sperm

Vas deferens

Two tubes transfers sperm from epididymis to urethra

Seminal vesicles

Two glands secrete mucus, fructose, and prostagladins (stimulate uterine contraction)

Prostate gland

Secrete milky fluid into urethra to neutralize acidity of urine and vagina

Bulbourethra glands (aka cowper's glands)

Two glands secrete unknown fluid into urethra

Penis

Sperm composition

Sperm head

Contain DNA

Tip of head contains acrosome, a lysosome containing hyaluronidase to digest zona pallucida.

Midpiece

9+2 microtubule array. lots of mitochondria for energy production

Tail

Remainder of flagellum

Gemetogenesis in humans

Oogenesis

Primary oocyte arrested at prophase I until puberty

One primary oocyte per cycle continues to secondary oocyte (arrested at metaphase II)

Granulosa cells secrete zona pellucida around primary oocyte

Spermatogenesis

Spermatogonia divide by mitosis to produce primary spermatocyte

Primary spermatocyte begin meiosis

Sertoli cells in semeiniferous tubule provide nurishment as they mature into sperm

Leydig cells produce testosterone, a necessary hormone for sperm production

Hormonal control of human reproduction

Steps

Hypothalamus monitor estrogen and progesterone in negative feedback fashion. Low level stimulate GnRH production

Anterior pituitary produce FSH and LH stimulated by GnRH

Follicular stage

FSH stimulates development of follicle development

Follicle secrete estrogen (estradiol)

Rising estrogen stimulate LH spike from anterior pituitary

Endometrium thickens due to estrogen and progesterone

Ovulation stage

Ovulation occurs due to LH spike.

Luteal stage

Secretion of estrogen and progesterone by follicle (now called corpus luteum)

Endometrium thickens due to estrogen and progesterone

Hypothalamus and anterior pituitary terminates cycle via negative feedback

Corpus luteum disintegrates due to low levels of FSH and LH

Endometrium disintegrates in the absence of estrogen and progesterone secreted by corpus luteum.

If embryo implants, HCG is secreted which maintains the corpus luteum.

Embryonic development

Fertilization

Recognition

Sperm recognize zona pellucida to ensure proper reproduction

Penetration

Plasma membranes of sperm and egg fuse. Sperm nucleus enters oocyte

Formation of fertilization membrane

Ca⁺⁺ mediated polarization of membrane blocks polyspermy

Completion of meiosis II in secondary oocyte

In humans, penetration triggers meiosis II.

Fusion of nuclei and replication of DNA

Fusion of nuclei, forming a zygote.

Cleavage

Series of divisions without cell growth.

Embryo polarity

Animal pole and vegetal pole.

Polar and equatorial cleavages

Polar - divide egg into segments that stretch from pole to pole

Equatorial - parallel cleavages with the equator

Radial and spiral cleavages

Deuterostomes - radial

Protostomes - spiral

Indeterminate and determinate cleavages

Deuterostomes - radial cleavage usually indeterminate

Protostomes - spiral cleavage usually determinate

Morula

Solid ball of cells with 8 or more cells

Bastula

Liquid filled cavity ball of cells. The fluid filled cavity is called blastocoel.

Gastrula

Gastrulation forms gastrula. group of cells invaginate, forming two layerd embryo with a central cavity.

3 germ layers

a 3rd cell forms between inner and outer layer of invaginated embryo

Archenteron

Center cavity formed by gastrulation. Primitive gut

Blastopore

The opening into the archenteron. Becomes the mouth in protosomes. Or becomes the anus in deuterostomes.

Extraembryonic membrane development

Outside of the embryo proper. In birds, reptiles, and humans

Chorion

Outer membrane. Implants into endometrium. Combines with maternal tissue to form placenta.

Exchange gas, nutrients and waste.

Allantois

Begins as sac that buds off from archenteron. Eventually encircles the embryo, forming a layer below chorion

Eventually forms the embillical cord to transport gas, nutrients, and waste btwn embryo and placenta

Amnion

Encloses amniotic avity. Cushins and protect developing embryo

Yolk sac

Degests enclosed yolk in birds and reptiles

In mammals, yolk sac is empty

Organogenesis

Development of tissues and organs

Notochord

Derived from the mesoderm. Stiff rod that provide support for lower chordates

Neural tube

A layer of cells from ectoderm directly above the notochord forms the neural plate

The neural plate indents forming the neural groove

The neural groove rolls up into a cylinder and forms the neural tube, forming the CNS

Important differneces of specific species.

Frog

Gray crescent

A grey crescent region derived from reorganizatin of the cytoplasm where the sperm penetrates the egg.

An experiment done showed that individual cells will develop into a frog if and only if parts of

the gray crescent is attached to the cell.

Bird

Blastodisc

blastulation in birds

Primitive streak

Flattened disk where gastrulation occurs, instead of a round blastopore

Humans and most other mammals

Blastocyst

The blastocyst consists of two parts -

Trophoblast

outer ring of cells

Produce HCG

Embed into endometrium of uterus

Forms the chorion which develops into the placenta

Inner cell mass "embryoblast"

inner mass of cells clusters at one pole and flattens into the embryonic disc

Analogous to blastodisc of birds and reptiles where gastrulation occurs

***** ANIMAL BEHAVIOR

Kinds of behavior

Instinct

Mammals taking care of offspring

Fixed action pattern

Innate behavior that once triggered, will follow to completion. E.G. herding pattern

Imprinting

Innate programming of behavior if stimulus is experienced during critical period. E.G. gosling imprinting on mom

Associative learning

Classical conditioning - where animal performs a behavior in response to a substitute stimulus rather than

the normal stimulus

Trial-and-error learning

Operant conditioning - where animal learns by feedback from environmental response (positive or negative)

Spatial learning

type of associative learning. associate spatial cues with return to an important location. E.G. nest

Habituation

Repeat stimulus decreases response

Observational learning

Animal copy behavior of another without experiencing positive reinforcement beforehand

Insight

Animal exposed to new behavior uses prior experience to gain desirable outcome

Social behavior

Agonistic behavior

Most are ritualized aggression and submission to reduce injuries and time

Dominance hierarchies

Indicate power and status in a group

Territoriality

Active possession and defense of a region of space

Altruistic behavior

Risk of self to help another. Seemingly unselfish, but most increase fitness of the group as a whole.

***** ECOLOGY

Population

Group of same species living in the same area

Community

Group of populations living in the same area

Ecosystem

Interrelationships between organisms and environment

Biosphere

All regions of the earth that contain living things

Habitat

Type of place where an organism lives

Niche

Describes all the biotic and abiotic resources in the environment that an organism uses.

Population ecology

Dispersion

Describes how individuals in a population are distributed

Age structure

Abundance of individuals of each age

Survivorship curves

Describes how mortality of individuals in a species varies during their lifetime

Population growth

Biotic potential

maximum growth rate of population under ideal conditions

Carrying capacity

maximum number of individuals of a population that can be sustained by a particular habitat

Limiting factors

Factors that limit population from reaching biotic potential

Density-dependent factors

Limiting effects become more intense as population density increases. E.G. predation, resource.

K selection do better due to competition

Density-independent factors

Factors that occur independently of the density of population. E.G. flood, extreme climate

R selection do better due to quick reproduction

Symbiosis

Mutualism

both species benefit

Commensalism

One species benefits while the other is neither helped nor harmed

Parasitism

One species benefits while harming the other

Coevolution

Contests between predator and prey evolve together to outcompete each other

Secondary compounds

Toxic chemicals in plants to discourage herbivores

Camouflage

Blending in of color & pattern with surrounding

Aposematic coloration

Warning coloration

Mullerian mimicry

Two or more species with some special defense mimic each other's coloration

Batesian mimicry

An animal without any special defense mimics coloration of animal with special defense

Ecological succession

Taking over a community over time. Eventually a climax community is reached. (equilibrium)

Pioneer species

Initial plant and animals to inhabit a newly exposed community. Lichen, r-selected insects, etc.

Two types

Primary succession

Occurs on substrate that never before previously supported living things

Secondary succession

Occurs in communities that was partially destroyed by some kind of damaging event such as flood, fire, etc

Ecosystems

Primary producer

Autotrophs such as Plants, photosynthetic protists, cyanobacteria

Primary consumer

Herbivores

Secondary consumer

Eat primary consumer

Detritivores

Consumers that obtain energy by consuming dead plants and animals

Biogeochemical cycles

Hydrologic cycle

Reservoir - ocean, air, glaciers

Assimilation - Plants absorb water, animals drink

Release - Plants transpire; decomposition of animals & plants

Carbon cycle

Reservoir - Atmosphere (CO₂), fossil fuels

Assimilation - Photosynthesis, animals consume

Release - release CO₂ by respiration

Nitrogen cycle

Reservoir - Atmosphere (N₂), soil (NH₄, NO₂⁻, nitrate)

Assimilation - plants absorb NO₂⁻ or NH₄⁺. Animals eat plant

Nitrogen fixation - N₂ to NH₄⁺ by prokaryotes

Nitrification - NH₄⁺ to NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻ by nitrifying bacteria

Release - Denitrifying bacteria NO₃⁻ to N₂; animals release urine

Phosphorus cycle

Reservoir - rocks and ocean sediments

Assimilation - plants absorb PO₄⁻; animals eat plants

Release - decomposition

Biomes

Tropical rain forest

high temp. Heavy rain fall

Savannas

Grassland with scattered trees. Tropical, but less rain

Temperate grasslands

Less rain & temp. E.G. North american prairie

Temperate deciduous forest

Warm summer, cold winters, moderate precipitation. Trees shed leaves during winter.

Deserts

Hot, dry.

Taigas

Coniferous forests. Cold winters.

Tundras

Cold. Ground freezes in winter. Permafrost in summer. Grass, sedges.