

① Cell Biology

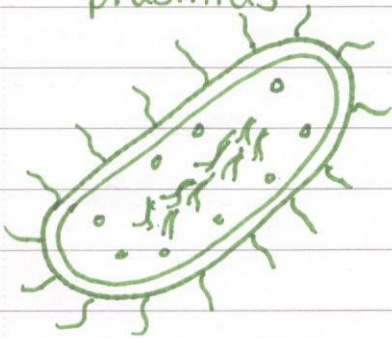
'eu' sounds like 'you' so think these are the kind of cells found in you!

• Cells can be **prokaryotic** or **eukaryotic**

cells found in bacteria. They have no nucleus

only contain:

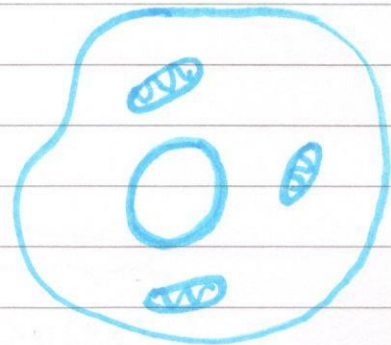
- cell wall
- cell membrane
- cytoplasm
- circular DNA
- plasmids



cells found in plants + animals. They have a nucleus

contain:

- cell membrane
- cytoplasm
- Nucleus with DNA



Determining the size of a cell:

- 10^1 bigger than another cell = The cell is 10 times bigger
- 10^3 bigger than another cell = The cell is 1000 times bigger
- 10^{-1} smaller than another cell = The cell is 10 times smaller

3 times bigger so 3 zeros

| | |
|-------|-----------------------------|
| Centi | = multiply by 0.01 |
| Milli | = multiply by 0.001 |
| Micro | = multiply by 0.000,001 |
| Nano | = multiply by 0.000,000,001 |

Active Transport

The movement of particles from an area of low concentration to an area of high concentration against their concentration gradient.

↳ It requires energy, which comes from RESPIRATION.

In root hairs :

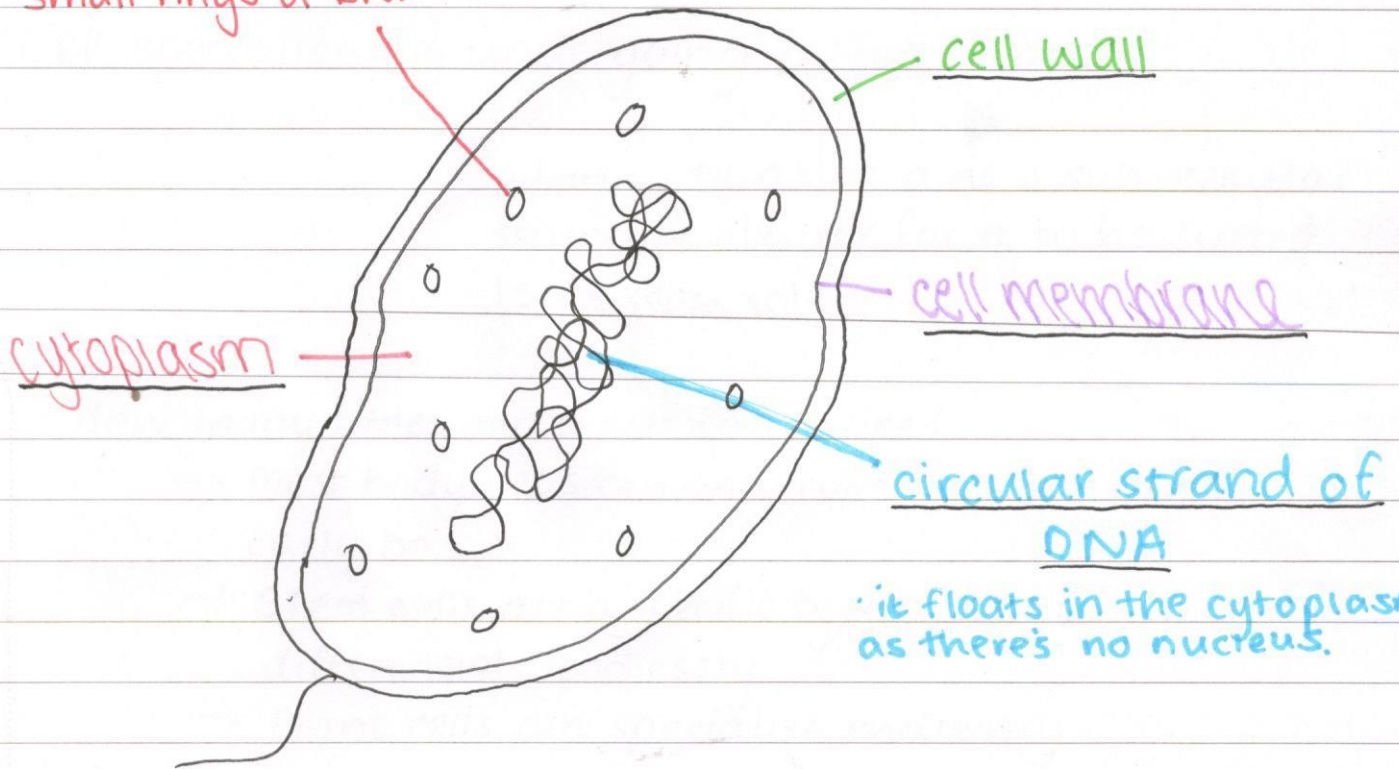
• mineral ions are higher in root hairs than in the soil so they cannot move diffusion. They therefore need to use active transport to go against the concentration gradient.

In the gut :

Often theres more sugar molecules in the blood than in the gut so diffusion cannot occur. Active transport is used to move sugar to the blood against its gradient.

Bacterial cell

plasmids
· small rings of DNA



· it floats in the cytoplasm as there's no nucleus.

How to calculate the size of structures:

1. Find the structure on the diagram
2. If it is rectangular \rightarrow length \times width = size/area

Cell Specialisation

★ Cell specialise by undergoing differentiation.

↓
when a cell gains a new sub-cellular structure in order for it to be suited to its new role.

How many times can a cell specialise?

- Most body cells can only differentiate **once** early on.
- **Stem cells** are a specific type of cells which can differentiate endlessly.
- Plant cells can specialise endlessly

examples of specialisation:

- **Sperm cells** - They have changed to have a tail for swimming, many mitochondria to provide energy to swim.
- **Nerve cells** - These cells differentiate to have a long axon and lots of extensions to form connections with other nerve cells.
- **Muscle cells** - They develop lots of mitochondria for energy for contraction.
- **Root hair cells** - They've developed a large surface area to reach more water.

Calculations:

① magnification = magnification of eyepiece * magnification of objective lens

② size of object = size of image \div magnification

Cell division

Chromosomes = contains coils of DNA

Gene

= short section of DNA that codes for a protein and therefore controls characteristics

* Humans have **23 pairs** of chromosomes in each body cell.

↳ This makes a total of 46 chromosomes.

* 23 chromosomes come from the mother + 23 from father

except sex cells! (ana gametes)

→ They have half the number of chromosomes (i.e. half of 46)
WHY?

Because sex cells eventually join up.
i.e. 23 cell join up with another 23 cell to make the usual 46.

Mitosis

→ cell division

→ Mitosis is important to replace damaged cells

Stages:

so that when it splits there is the same amount in each

① interphase

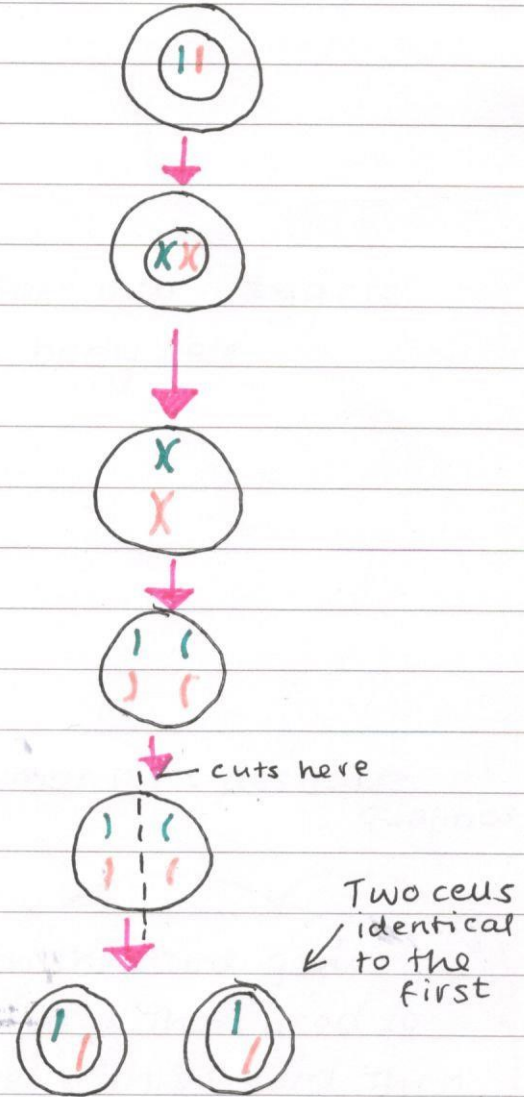
DNA is replicated.

② mitosis

chromosomes line up at the equator and are pulled to either side of the cell.

③ cytokinesis

cell divides, forming 2 identical 'daughter' cells.



Stem cells



An undifferentiated cell which can undergo division to produce many more cells, some will then differentiate to have different functions.

Types:

① EMBRYONIC STEM CELLS

- They form when an egg + sperm fuse into a zygote
- They can differentiate into any body cell

② ADULT STEM CELLS

- found in bone marrow

③ MERISTEMS (in plants)

- found in root + shoot tips
- This means you can clone plants that have desirable qualities

Therapeutic cloning = producing an embryo with the same genes as the patient. The embryo is then used to get its embryonic stem cells. This could then be grown into any cells the patient needs.

Using stem cells in research

BENEFITS

- can be used to replace diseased body parts
- We could use unwanted embryos from fertility clinics so they're not destroyed

PROBLEMS

- It may be hard to control stem cells to form the cells we want
- Removing stem cells destroys the embryo
- People might have ethical or religious objections as it is interfering with the normal reproduction process
- Growing them could result in contamination with a virus which is then transferred into the person

TRANSPORT in CELLS.

① DIFFUSION

→ The spreading out of particles resulting in net movement from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration.

* Substances can move across cell membranes by diffusion. However, the particles have to be small e.g. glucose + oxygen but starch and proteins are too big.

examples of diffusion:

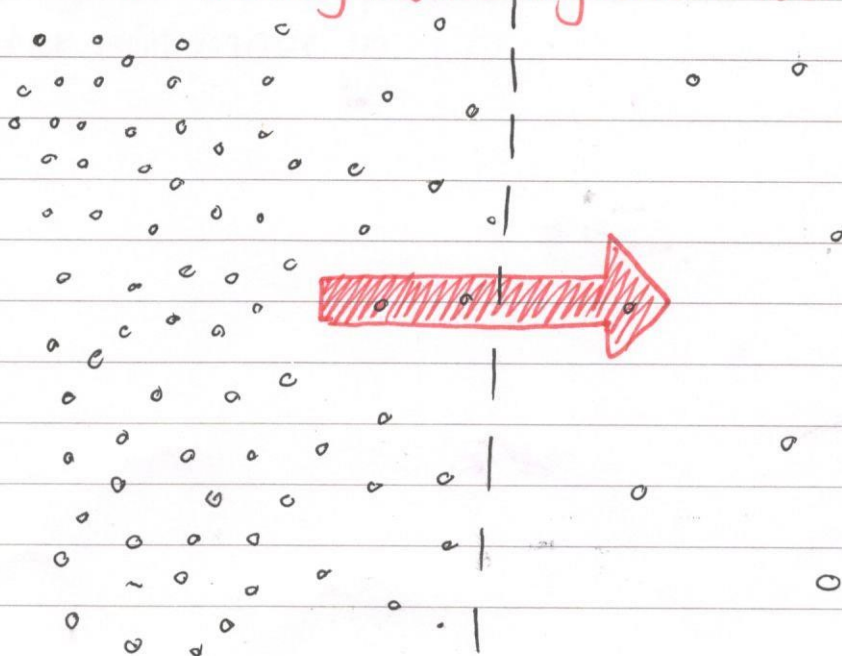
- **Breathing** - Oxygen moves through membranes in the lungs and into red blood cells by diffusion
- **Urea** - This is a waste product which moves from liver cells and into the blood by diffusion.

— # —

what affects the rate of diffusion?

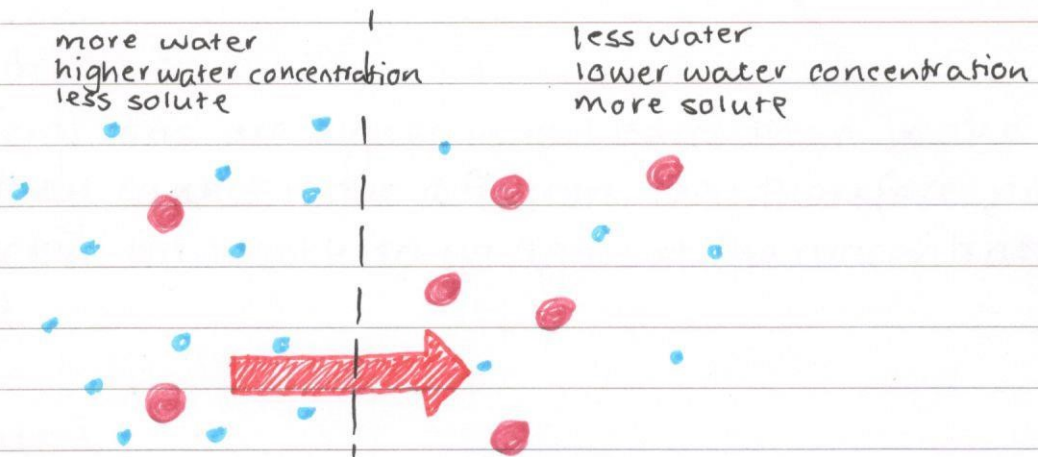
- ① **Concentration gradient** → greater the concentration, faster diffusion.
- ② **temperature** → higher temperature = particles move more = more collisions = faster diffusion.
- ③ **surface area** → Greater surface area = more space for particles to move through = faster diffusion.

→ moving from a higher to a lower concentration →



OSMOSIS

The movement of water from a high concentration (i.e. low solute concentration) to a low water concentration (i.e. higher solute concentration) through a partially permeable membrane.



★ In simple, water always moves from the area with less solute to the area with more solute.

examples of osmosis:

- The cytoplasm in plants contains salt + sugars (i.e. high solute). So when placed in water (i.e. low solute) water will move in.

Active Transport

The movement of particles from an area of low concentration to an area of high concentration against their concentration gradient.

↳ It requires energy, which comes from RESPIRATION.

In root hairs :

• mineral ions are higher in root hairs than in the soil so they cannot move diffusion. They therefore need to use active transport to go against the concentration gradient.

In the gut :

Often there's more sugar molecules in the blood than in the gut so diffusion cannot occur. Active transport is used to move sugar to the blood against its gradient.

ANIMAL TISSUES, ORGANS, + ORGAN SYSTEMS

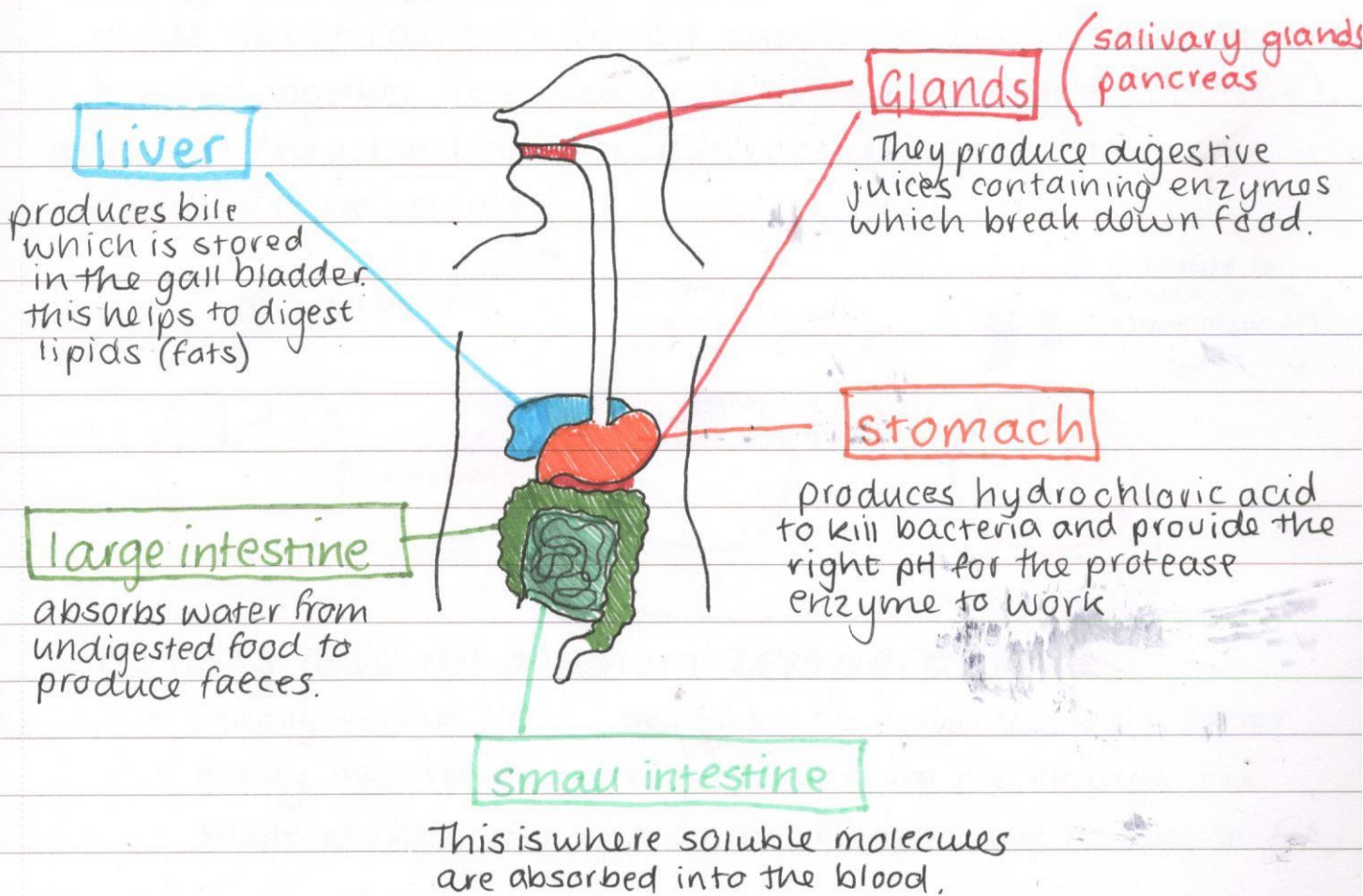
TISSUE = A group of specialised cells with a similar structure + function.

ORGAN = A number of different tissues, working together for a specific function.

ORGAN SYSTEM = A group of organs working together to perform a certain function.

The human digestive system

— It is an ORGAN SYSTEM



Bile from liver is released into small intestine. so it can neutralise the hydrochloric acid from the stomach, and to break down large drops of fat into smaller ones.

enzymes

- enzymes are biological catalysts, this means they increase the rate of reactions without being used up.

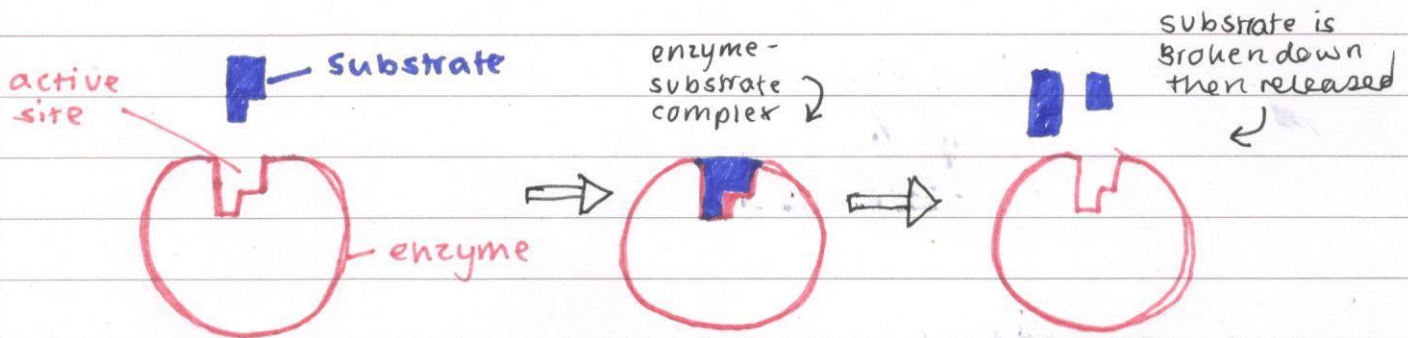
↳ Enzymes can break up large molecules

↳ Enzymes can join together small molecules

↳ Each enzyme has a uniquely shaped active site where the substrate binds.

The lock + key hypothesis

- ★ Enzymes have an active site with a shape that is made specifically to fit the substrate. (when they are bonded together its called an ENZYME-SUBSTRATE COMPLEX)
- ★ When they bind, the reaction occurs, and the products are released.



enzymes need an optimum temperature

- Usually around 37°C - this makes the molecules collide faster
- Really high temperatures will denature (ie. change the shape of the active site so the substrate will no longer fit)

enzymes also need an optimum pH;

- Optimum is pH 7 for most enzymes
- If pH is too high or too low, the amino acids that make up the enzyme will be affected so substrate will no longer fit.

ENZYMES IN DIGESTIVE SYSTEM:

Enzymes are used in the digestive system to break down large molecules.

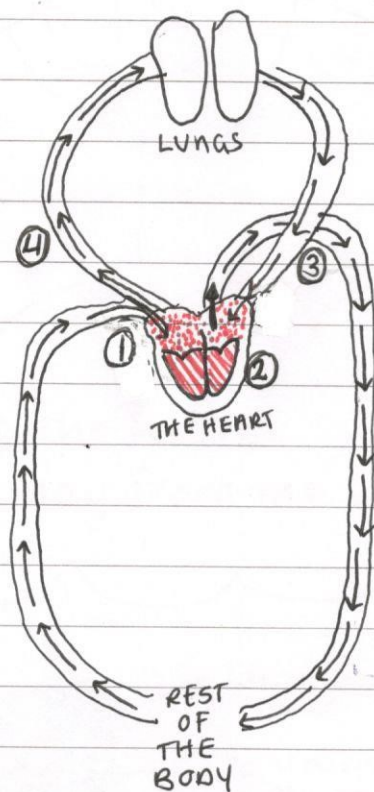
- **CARBOHYDRASE** - converts carbohydrate into sugar
- **PROTEASE** - converts proteins into amino acids.
- **LIPASE** - converts lipids into fatty acids and glycerol

THE HEART AND BLOOD VESSELS

The heart pumps blood around the body in a **double circulatory system**

i.e. there are 2 circuits;

- ① Deoxygenated blood going away from heart + into lungs
- ② Oxygenated blood going from lungs into the heart



- ① Blood flows into the heart via the vena cava and the pulmonary vein.
- ② Atria contracts forcing blood into the ventricles
- ③ Ventricles contract pushing blood through the ventricles.
On the left side blood goes out the pulmonary artery to the lungs
- ④ On the right side blood goes out the aorta to the rest of the body
- ⑤ Valves close so blood doesn't flow backwards.