

Cells

Topics covered:

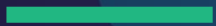
Cell cycle

Cell death

Mitosis and meiosis

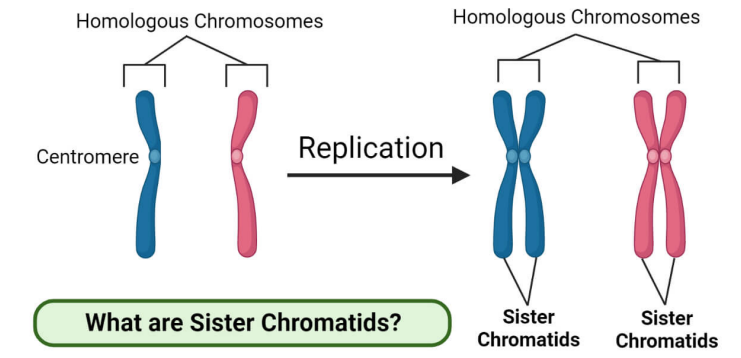
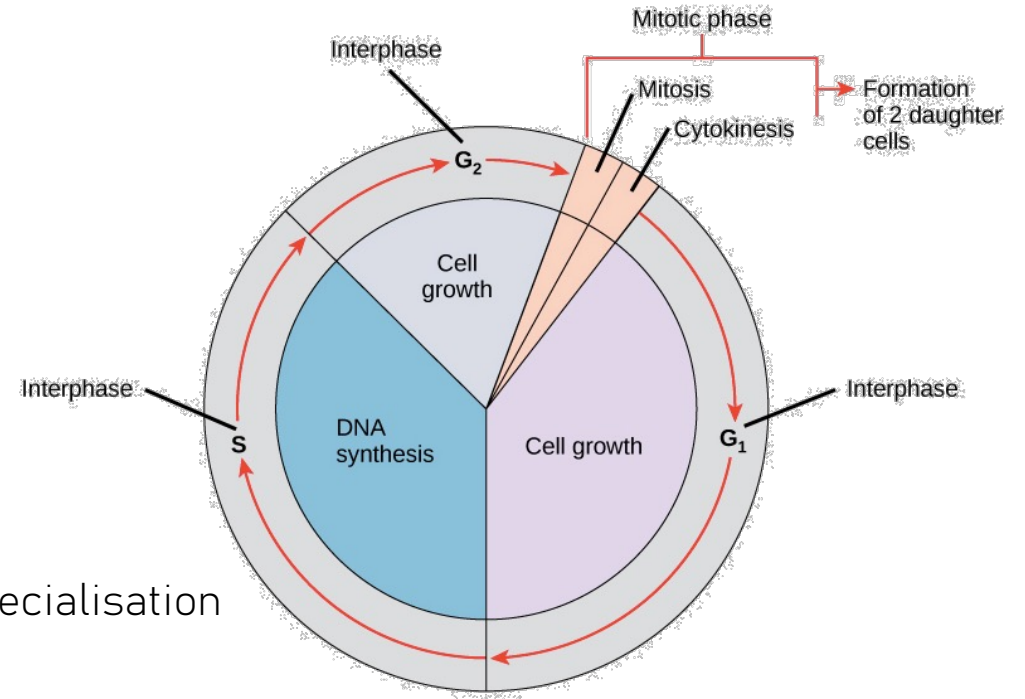
Stem cells

Membrane transport



Cells cycle

- Stages
- G₀ phase – when the cell are in a quiescent phase – specialisation takes place here
- G₁ phase – preparation for replication
- S phase – DNA replication – chromosomes number stay the same but it now exists are 2 sister chromatids
- G₂ phase – Cell growth and prep for mitosis
- M phase – mitosis
- Cytokinesis – the cytoplasm is pinched to form 2 cells



Cell cycle regulation

P53 activates CDK inhibitor proteins to block cyclin-CDK activity. P53 then activates the repair enzymes to repair the DNA, if its isn't repairable then the p53 triggers programmed cells death so damaged DNA is not passed on

- There are checkpoints –
- G1 – p53 acts on this site – to check cell size, nutrients, growth factors and DNA integrity
- S – checks if DNA is replication properly
- G2 – ensures DNA fidelity (to ensure low error replication)
- Spindle chromosome – ensures chromatids attach to the spindles correctly



DNA fidelity = the ability of DNA polymerase to accurately synthesize a new strand from the template strand.

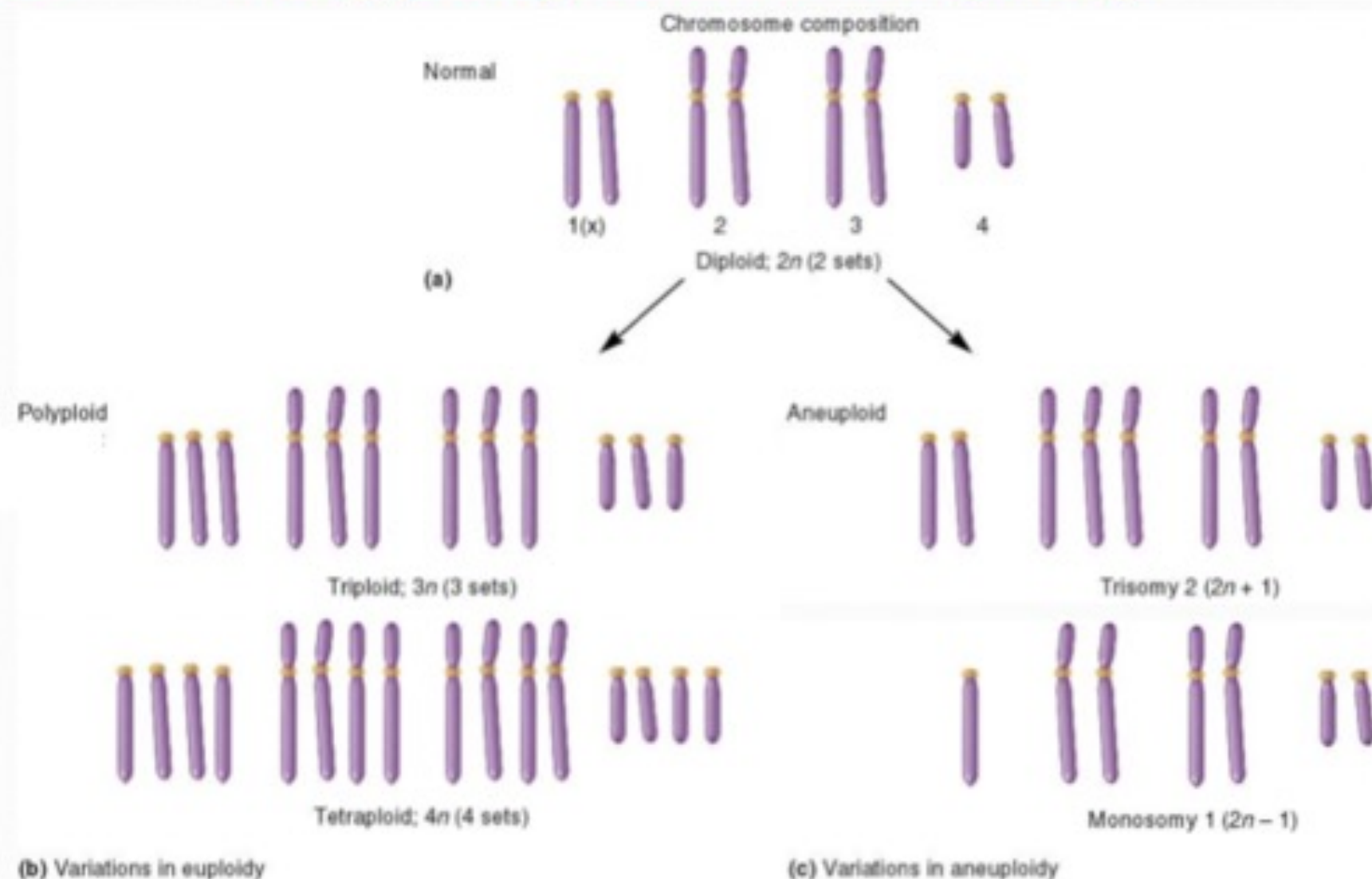
High Fidelity Copy= Means a very low-error DNA copy is produced from replication



Polyploidy and Aneuploidy

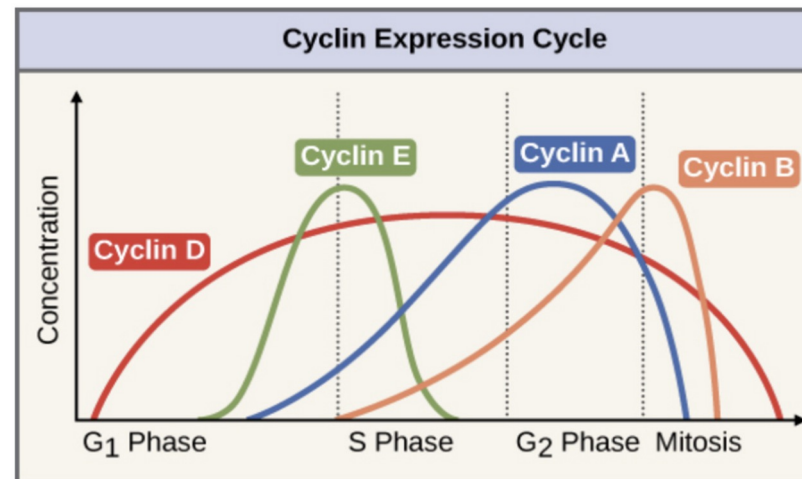
- Polyploidy = a numerical chromosomal abnormality in which an entire set of chromosomes has been added.
- Aneuploidy = the presence of an abnormal number of chromosomes in a cell (eg. trisomy 21 = 3 copies of chromosome 21 -> Down's syndrome) (eg monosomy= loss of one chromosome.)

Polyploidy *versus* Aneuploidy



Cyclins and CDK

- Cyclin – group of related proteins that control the progression of a cell through the cell cycle by activating CDKs
- CDK – cyclin dependent kinases
 - they activate the cyclin by binding, which phosphorylates the cyclin, activating it
- Different cyclins are present in different amounts
 - G₁ – S transition = Cyclin D
 - S = Cyclin E
 - G₂ – M transition = Cyclin A
 - Mitosis = Cyclin B





Cells death

- Apoptosis – controlled and programmed cell death
- Necrosis – cell death due to acute cellular injury and it isn't regulated
- Anoikis – controlled cell death, only in cells that are in contact with other cells i.e epithelial
- Autophagy – degradation and recycling of cellular components (damaged organelles, unused proteins) – may or may not lead to death

Apoptosis

Intrinsic	Extrinsic
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Pro-apoptotic molecules BAX and BAC get activated2. Cause an increase the permeability of the mitochondria3. Causing it to release cytochrome C which cause the formation of apoptosome4. Leads to the activation of caspase	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Death ligand FAS and TRAIL bind to death receptors on the cell surface receptors2. This leads to the activation of caspase molecules

Caspase - are proteolytic enzymes that are responsible for the proteolytic cleavage and breakdown of cellular components



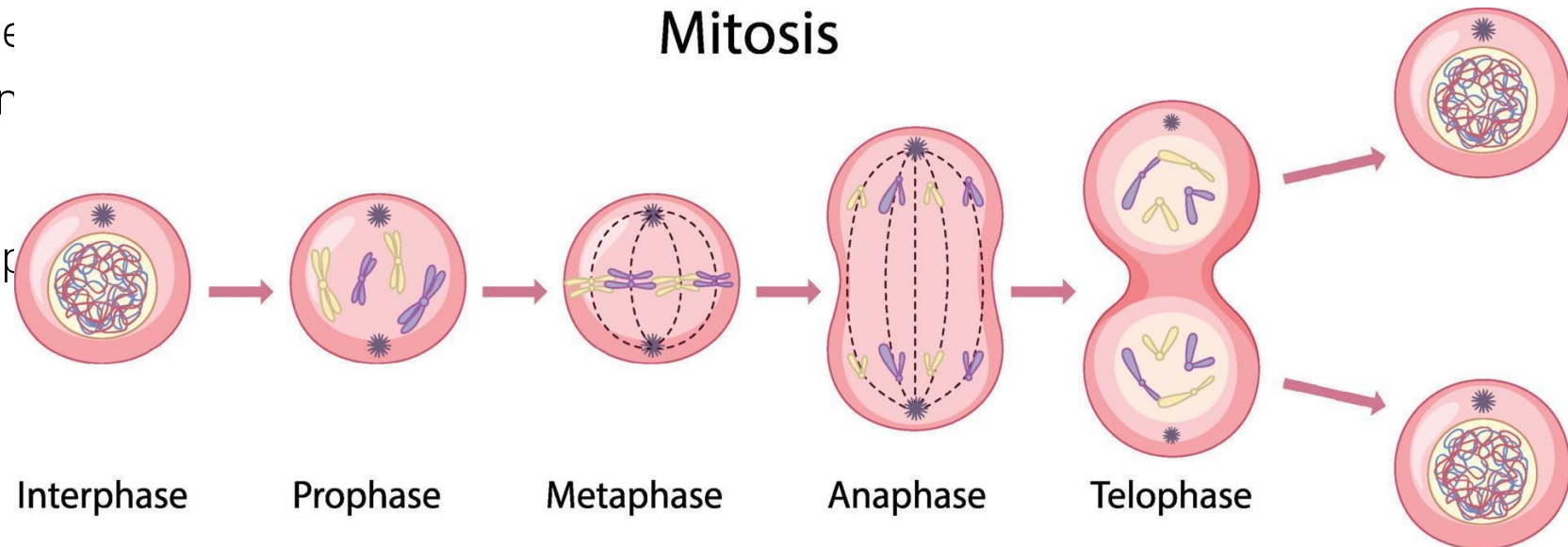
Necrosis, Anoikis, Autophagy

- Necrosis - Loss of membrane Integrity, Initiates an inflammatory response
- Anoikis -
 - Due to loss of cell-ECM (extracellular matrix) interaction
 - No inflammatory response
- Autophagy - Involves formation of an autophagosome(double membrane vesicle) that encapsulates cytoplasm, malformed proteins, organelles, or pathogens and then fuses with lysosome for degradation.

Mitosis and interphase

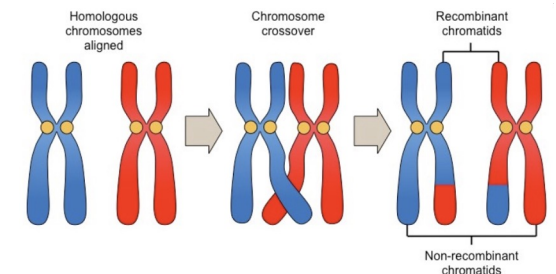
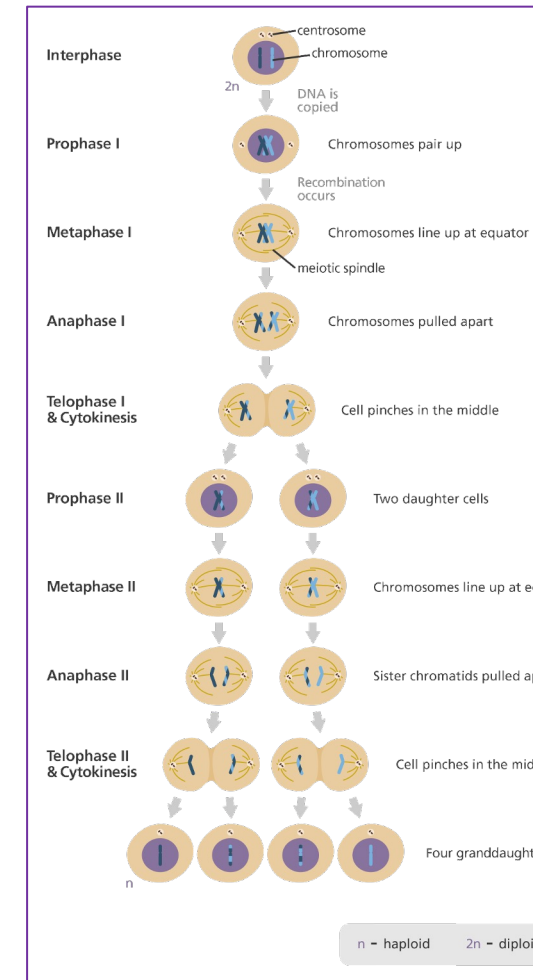
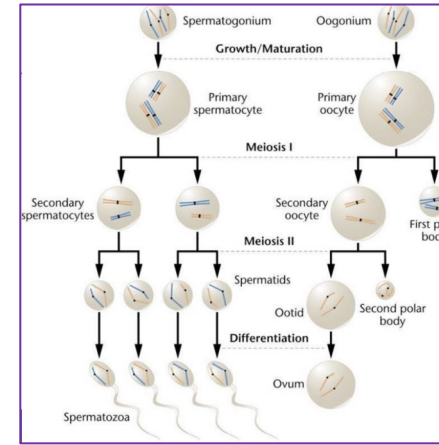
Interphase – the period where the cell increases its chemical composition to prepare for mitosis (nuclear division).

- Prophase = chromosomes condense, spindle forms, nucleolus degrades
- Metaphase = sister chromatids line up at equator. Spindle checkpoint before proceeding to anaphase.
- Anaphase = sister chromatids split at centromere & pulled apart to opposite poles of cell
- Telophase = mitotic spindle disassembles, chromosomes decondense, chromatin (chromatin).
- Cytokinesis = cytoplasm splits



Meiosis

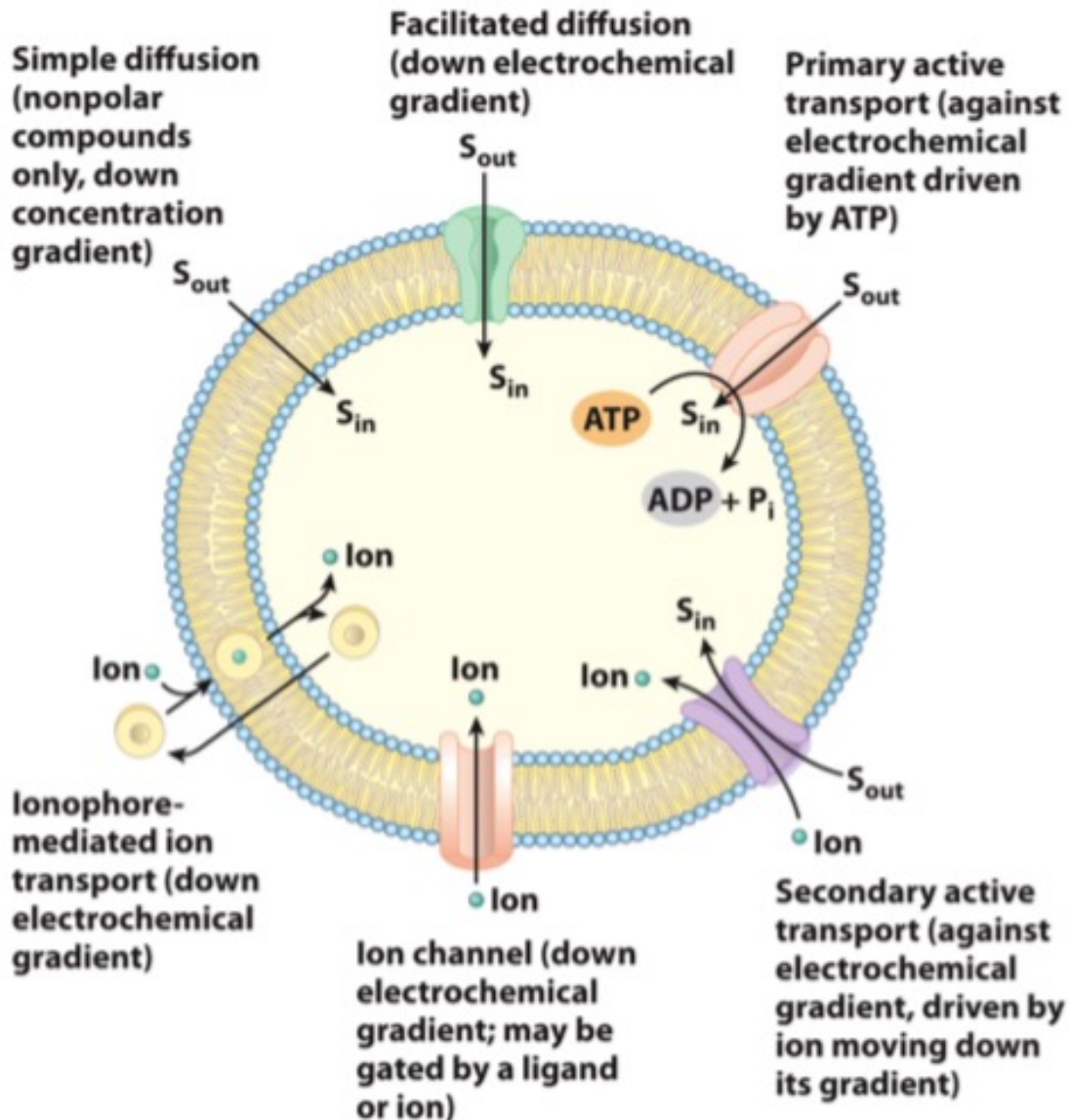
- 1 diploid cell undergoes 2 rounds of division → resulting in 4 haploid cells
- Metaphase 1 – independent assortment of homologous chromosomes
- Prophase 1 – Chiasmata = exchanging of genetic material between homologous non-sister chromatids.
- Problems that might happen-
 - Germline mutation – heritable change in the DNA that occurred in a germ cell (egg or sperm) → more DNA replication = higher the chance of error
 - Hence older people are more likely to have an offspring with disorder
 - Chromosome Non-disjunction – is a failure of the sister chromatids to separate properly during cell division





STEM CELLS– undifferentiated cells that have the ability to specialise into cells of different potency

- Totipotent – can differentiate into any cells type (embryonic and extraembryonic)
- Pluripotent = can develop into cells of the 3 germs layers (endoderm, ectoderm and mesoderm)
- Multipotent – can develop into several different cells types (haematopoietic and epithelial stem cells)
- Potency increases the more differentiated it gets, i.e the totipotent stem cell has the highest potency



Types of transport

- Endocytosis – brings substance into the cells from a vesicle around cell
- Exocytosis – expels vesicles from cells -> releases to extracellular space
- Pinocytosis – process by which the liquid droplets are ingested by living cells
- Phagocytosis – Uptake of solid particles by cell

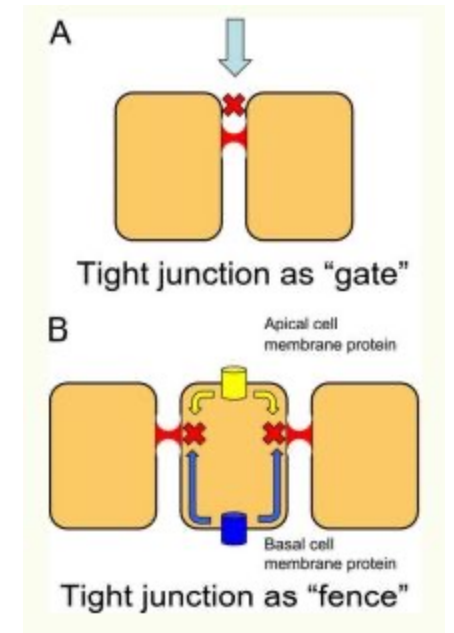


Cell signalling

- Endocrine – releases hormones that travel in the blood
- Autocrine – cell secretes hormone that acts on it self e.g prostaglandin
- Paracrine – cell secretes hormone that acts on nearby cells e.g nitrous oxide
- Juxtracrine/synaptic – neurotransmitters from pre synaptic neuron to post synaptic neuron
- Neurocrine – neurotransmitters acting on nervous tissue

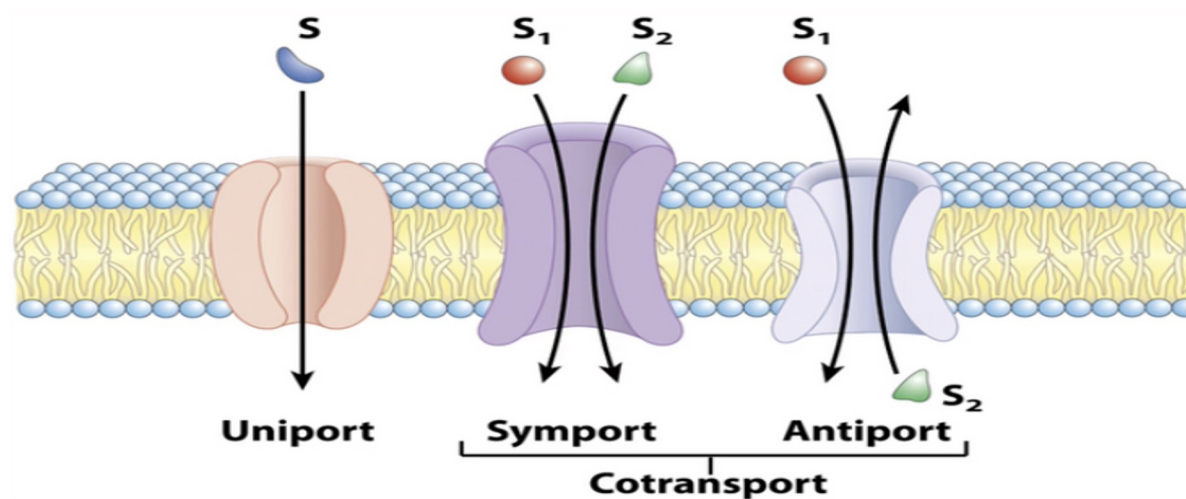
Direct cell to cell communication

- Tight junctions – joins cells
 - Restricts passage of molecules, stops movement of substances between cells
 - Fence and gate function
- Gap junctions – allows movement of molecules
 - Formed by connexons aligned together to form a channel between 2 cells
 - Allows passage of excitatory signals
- Cell adhesions – attaching to neighbouring cells
 - Maintain cell position via integrins



Types of transporters

- Uniporter = single substance moves in a single direction
- Symporter = two substances move in the same direction. (eg. Na⁺ Glucose transport)
- Antiporter = two substances move in opposite direction. (eg. Na⁺/H⁺ transport).

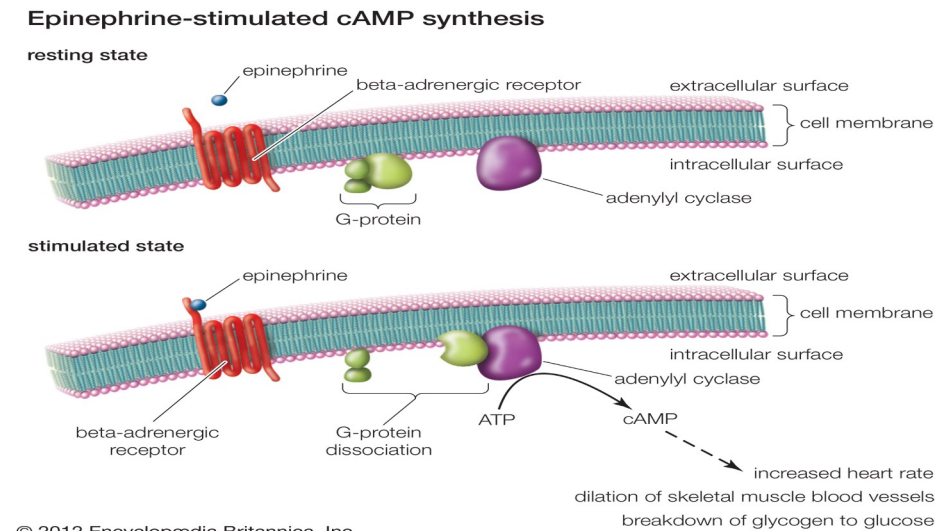


GPCR – G-protein coupled receptors

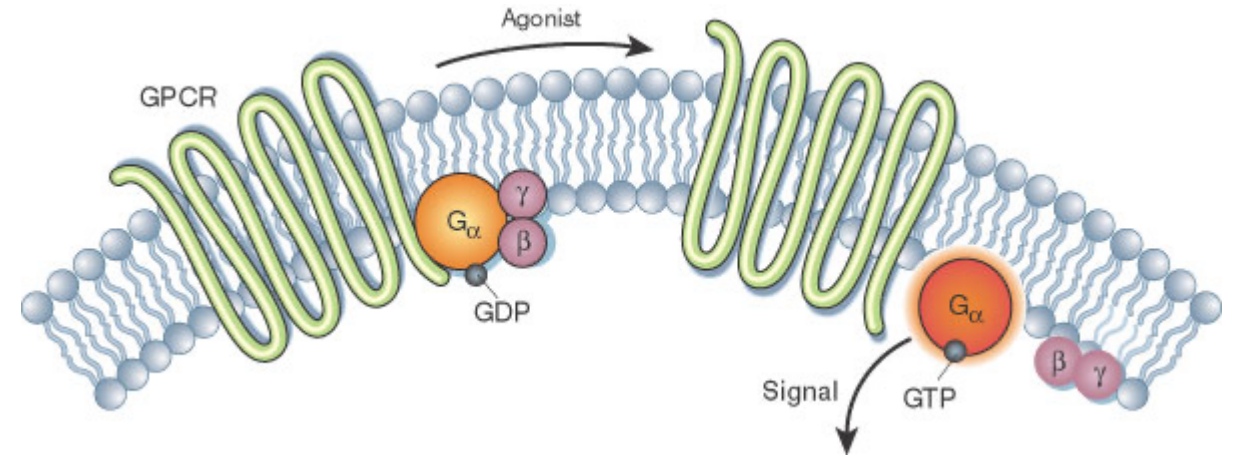
- G proteins consists of an alpha, beta and gamma subunit
- It forms GDP when inactive, which turns into GTP when active

Molecules bind to these receptors and activate an internal signal transduction pathway to eventually lead to a cellular response

Example in adrenergic receptors



Pathway for GPCR

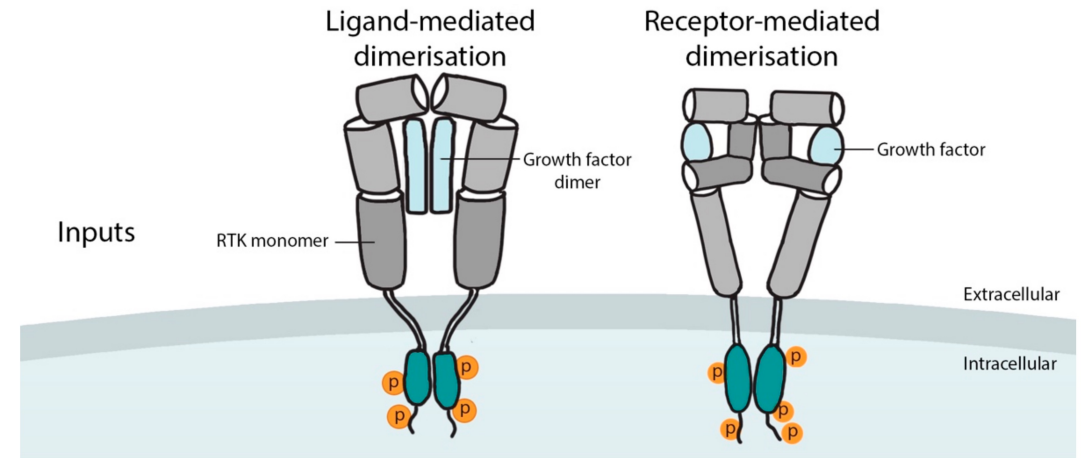


1. Extracellular ligand binds to the receptor creating a conformational change in the tertiary structure of the receptor
2. This causes an interaction between the receptor and G-protein
3. GDP (initially bound to alpha subunit) is replaced by GTP
4. The G-protein then dissociates
 - Alpha-GTP complex binds and activates adenylate cyclase or phospholipase C
 - Beta and gamma complex mainly bind and activate ion channels and kinases
5. Alpha subunit stimulates the AC to convert ATP to cyclic AMP → activates protein kinase A → phosphorylates enzymes and proteins

An example in a sympathetic response – causes the release of glucose when glucagon binds

Tyrosine Kinase receptors

- Kinase – enzyme that phosphorylates compounds
- These receptors are formed by amino acid tyrosine
- STEPS
 1. Ligand binds to the receptors
 2. The tyrosine polypeptide join together to form a dimer
 3. The ligand activates the tyrosine regions to phosphorylate each other → response in the cell



Example is insulin causes GLUT4 channels to be presented → more glucose moves in

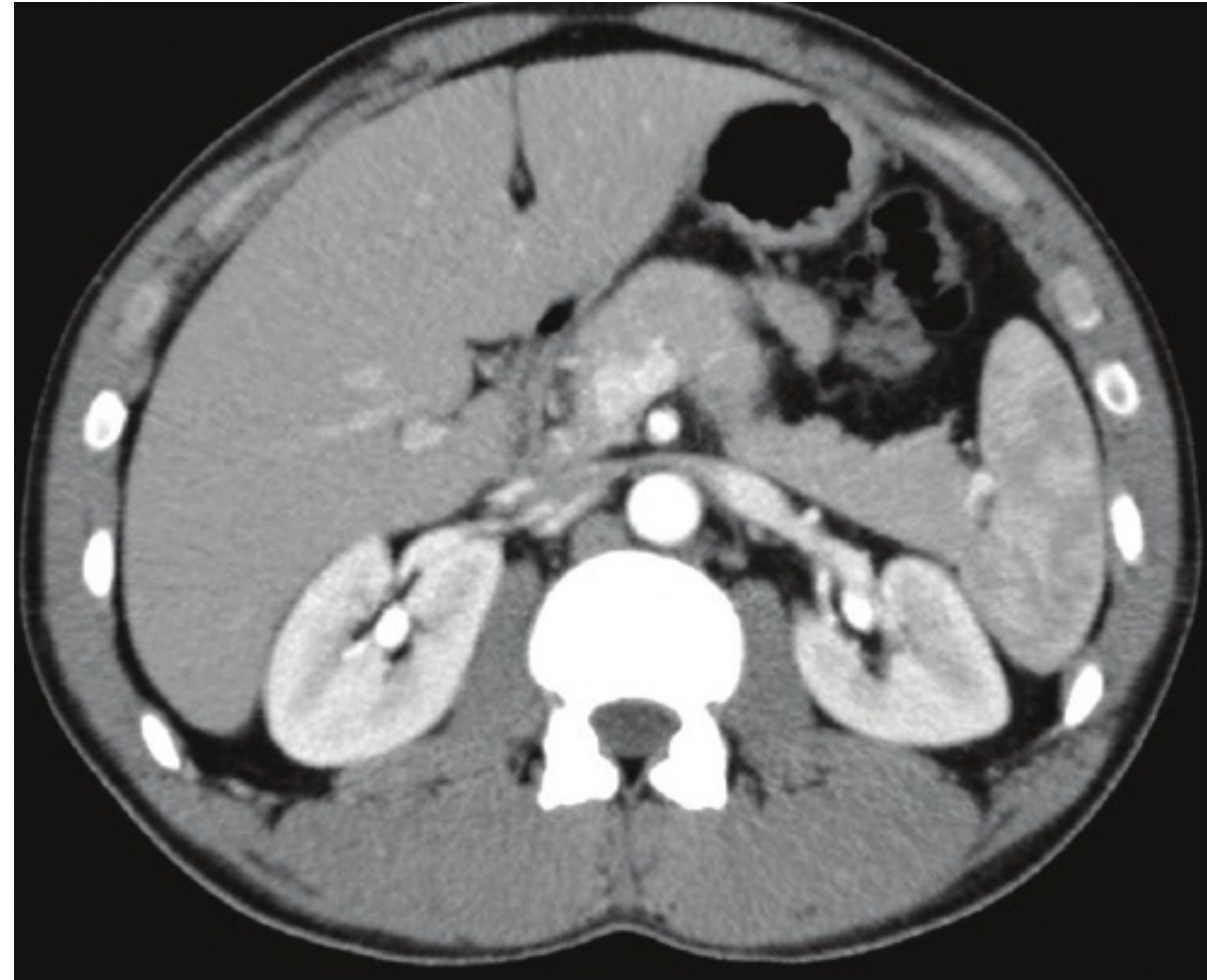



Definitions

- Hormones – Chemical messengers that are released from a cell, travel in the blood to a target site, and affect change at the target site
- Nervous system –
 - Sympathetic – fight or flight
 - Parasympathetic – rest and digest
- Homeostasis – Maintenance of stable conditions in the body's internal, physical & chemical environment.

CT Scans

- Dense tissues like bone show up as white areas
- Both air and fat show up as dark gray or black
- Soft tissues and any fluid, including blood, will show up in various shades of gray
- Different types of contrast (which shine bright white on the films) are used to better define the structures inside you






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- A. Cys-loop pentameric
- B. GPCR
- C. Histidine kinases
- D. Tyrosine kinase
- E. Nuclear

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- A. G0
- B. G1
- C. G2
- D. S
- E. Mitosis

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