

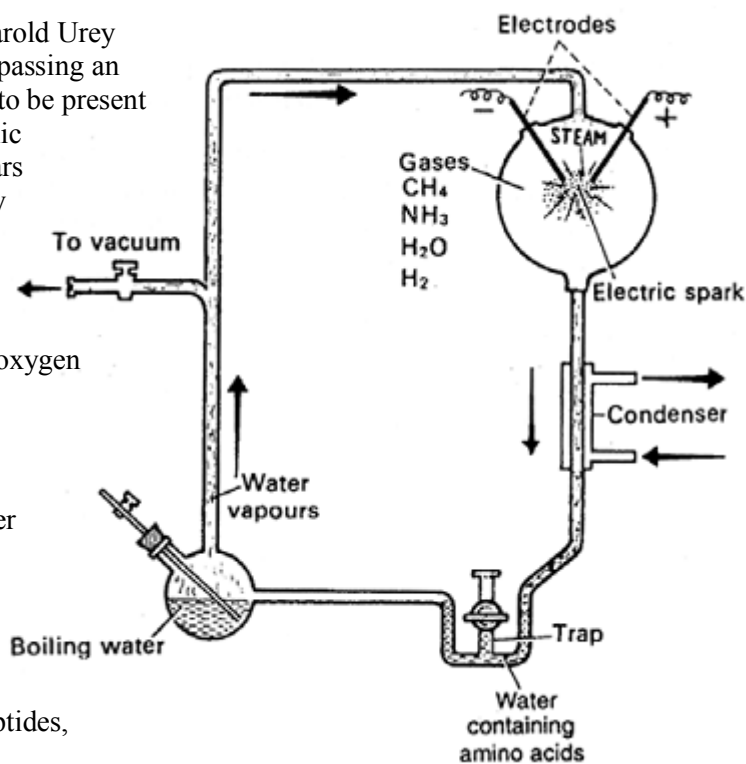
Abiogenesis Theory: From Molecules to Cells

The Earth was formed about 4.54 billion years ago and the earliest life on Earth arose at least 3.5 to 3.8 billion years ago. Conditions on Earth at that time were very different than they are today. The atmosphere was probably a mixture of gases including: H_2O , CO_2 , H_2 , N_2 , CH_4 , NH_3 , H_2S and HCN . There was a great deal of energy available from volcanic activity, ultraviolet light and lightning. The oceans were very warm, about 95°C .

In 1953, two scientists named Stanley Miller and Harold Urey set up a simple experiment (shown to the right). By passing an electric current through a mixture of gases believed to be present in the early atmosphere, they created complex organic molecules including more than 20 amino acids, sugars and other organic molecules. Similar experiments by other researchers also produced nucleic acids and phospholipids.

Notice that there is little or no free oxygen present in these early conditions. This is important because oxygen would have quickly reacted with, and destroyed, the organic molecules.

Many of these organic molecules dissolved into the oceans, where they continued to react with each other in a “primordial soup”. Along the shore of the ocean, puddles of this “soup” evaporated, concentrating the molecules and drying them on the water’s surface. Molecules also stuck to layers of moist clay. These conditions have been shown to encourage the formation of simple polypeptides, RNA and phospholipid molecules.



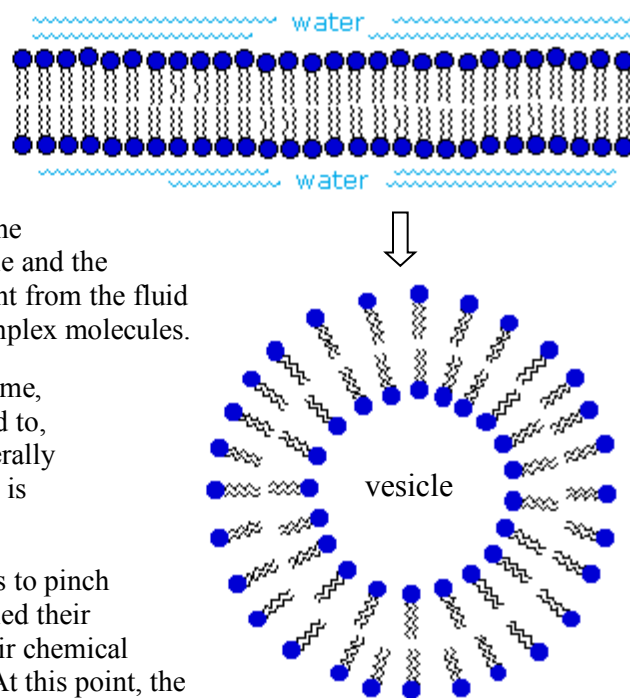
Recall from the note on macromolecules that phospholipids have a hydrophilic (water-loving) phosphate “head” and two hydrophobic (water-fearing) fatty acid “tails”. The phosphate head is attracted to water, while water repels the fatty acids. This automatically orients the phospholipid into a “bilayer”.

The bilayer formed naturally into spherical vesicles, creating a membrane which separated the fluid on the inside of the vesicle from the fluid on the outside. The membrane restricted the movement of substances into and out of the vesicle and the composition of the internal fluid gradually became very different from the fluid outside. Chemical reactions inside the vesicle formed more complex molecules.

The development of this membrane was critical for life. Over time, substances such as protein, cholesterol and sugars were attached to, or imbedded in, the membrane. These substances can move laterally (from side to side) through the phospholipids, so the membrane is described as a “fluid mosaic”.

The fluidity of the membrane made it possible for large vesicles to pinch apart into smaller vesicles. Eventually vesicles actually controlled their reproduction and passed on the instructions they needed for their chemical reactions using single stranded RNA as their genetic material. At this point, the vesicles are called cells, which means “little rooms” (like a prison cell) and life has begun.

NOTE: while scientists have been able to create macromolecules and vesicles in the lab, they have never been able to create “life”. No one knows exactly what it is that makes molecules “come alive”.



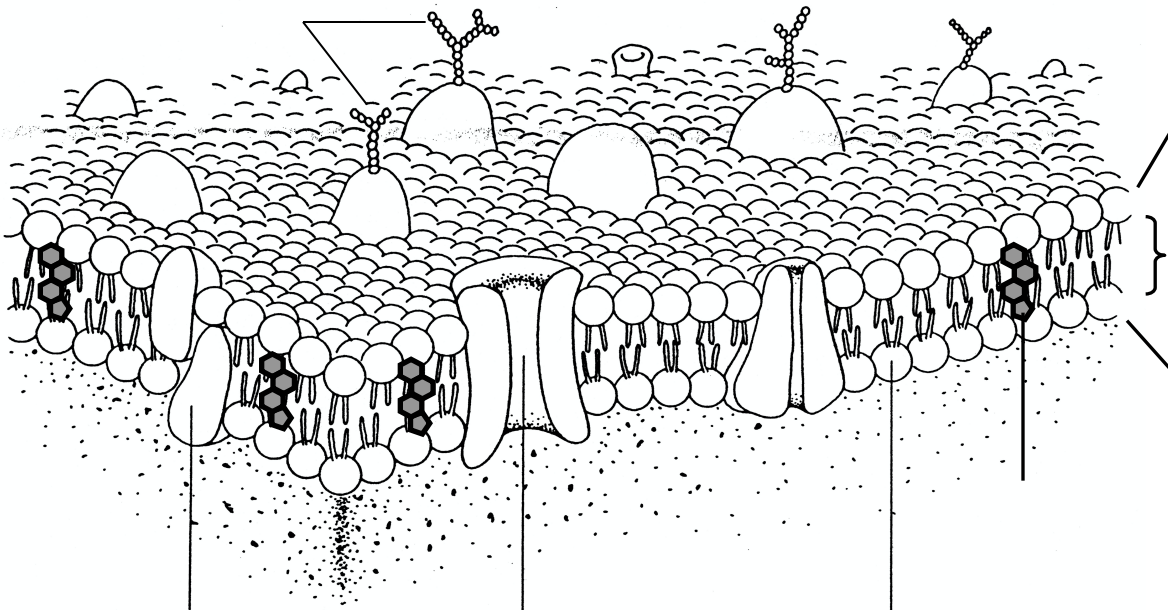
The first cells were very simple. They did not have any membrane-bound organelles such as a nucleus or mitochondria. These cells did have ribosomes made of RNA combined with proteins. Later cells developed DNA to store their genetic information. Because DNA is double stranded, it is more stable than RNA. Cells without DNA became extinct. Scientists suggest that one form of the DNA-based cell was so successful that it became the ancestor of all subsequent cells. This cell is called the Last Universal Common Ancestor (LUCA). Many chemicals and reactions are the same in all cells, which suggests that there was a single common ancestor for all living things.

The DNA in the earliest cells was a single DNA loop floating loosely in the cell's fluid. Other early cells 'clumped' their DNA in a "nucleoid" region. Neither the DNA loop nor nucleoid is surrounded by a nuclear membrane so these simple cells are called "prokaryotes" which literally means "before kernel" ('kernel' refers to the nucleus which looked like a small nut or popcorn kernel under early microscopes).

Over time, some cells became more complex and developed a membrane-bound nucleus. Cells which have a membrane-bound nucleus are called eukaryotes. "Eu" means "good or true", so these cells have a "good kernel" or "true nucleus". (FYI: Other words also use the prefix "eu": the Nazis practiced "*eu*genics" to select for "good genes" to make a master race, *euthanasia* means "good death".)

Modern cells have a phospholipid bilayer membrane which separates the intracellular fluid (ICF, inside the cell) from the extracellular fluid (ECF, outside the cell). The cell membrane is selectively permeable, which means that it allows only some substances to move through it freely (for example, very small molecules such as H₂O, CO₂ or O₂) while it blocks the movement of other substances (larger polar molecules or ions which can not pass through the non-polar fatty acid tails). In the next lesson, we will learn how substances are moved, or transported, from one side of the membrane to the other.

A eukaryotic cell membrane (the fluid mosaic model):



Questions: (Textbook reference pages 417 -418)

1. Describe the composition of the atmosphere when the first cells developed. What is the most significant difference between the very early atmosphere and the atmosphere today?
2. What molecules were produced in the Miller-Urey experiment?
3. Explain how the properties of phospholipids enable them to arrange themselves into a bilayer and create vesicles.
4. Why is the development of vesicles critical to the development of life?
5. Why is the development of RNA critical to the development of life?
6. How did the development of DNA affect the development of cells?
7. Why are 'modern' cell membranes described as a "fluid mosaic"? Explain the significance of both words.
8. Humans share 50% of their genetic material with bananas!! How does this fact relate to the idea of a LUCA?
9. Explain the fundamental difference between a prokaryotic and a eukaryotic cell.

Introduction to Cells

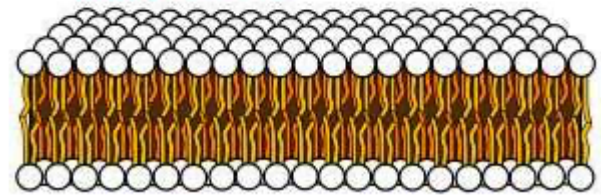
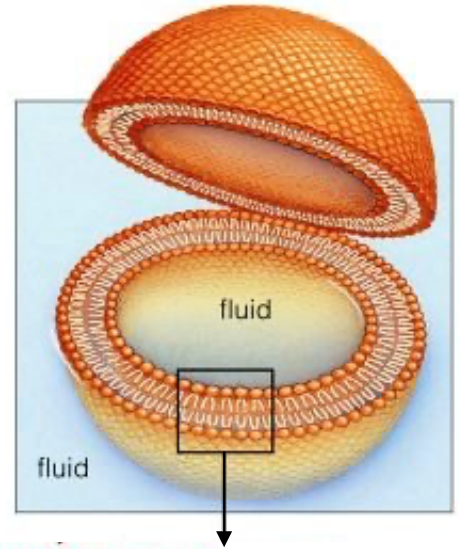
Early experiments by Stanley Miller, Harold Urey and others showed that simple molecules such as _____ (CH_4), _____ (NH_3), carbon dioxide (CO_2) and _____ (H_2S) can be converted into large _____ molecules such as _____, _____, _____ and _____.

Also seen in Miller and Urey's experiment, large organic molecules can naturally and spontaneously form a _____. Membranes can form _____ and enclose a _____ within them.

These vesicle membranes are critical for cells because they separate the _____ fluid from the external _____ and control the _____ of substances _____, and _____, the vesicle.

Over time, these vesicles accumulated large organic molecules such as _____ and _____ within them. Some RNA and proteins combined to make _____. Other RNA formed _____.

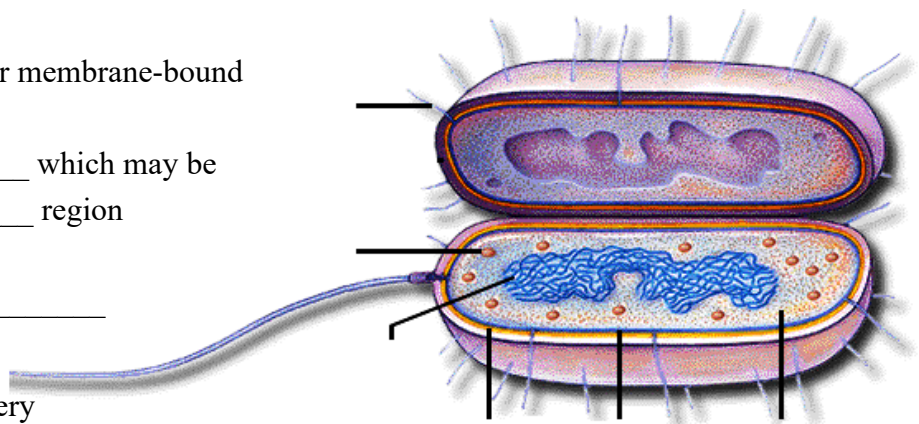
At some point, the vesicles and macro-molecules became able to _____ themselves, becoming simple _____ which have the characteristics of _____ (see note from Day 1, Introduction to Biology and Biochemistry).



The earliest and simplest cells are called _____ cells

- they are very _____, about the size of a _____
- they have no _____ or membrane-bound _____
- they have a single loop of _____ which may be condensed in a _____ region
- they have _____
- _____ and _____ are prokaryotic cells

Over time, these early cells became very _____. Some developed new structures such as _____ for locomotion and _____ for _____. Some cells got quite _____.



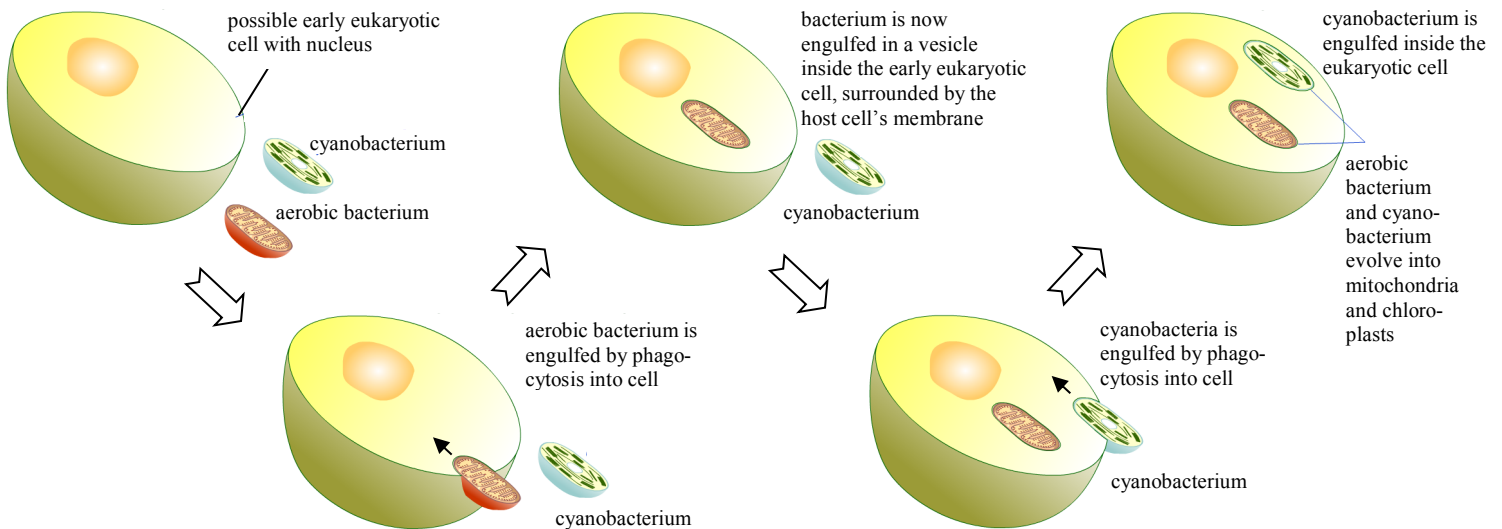
In some of the larger cells, the cell membrane _____ in and eventually _____ the _____ inside a _____, creating the _____ and giving rise to the earliest _____ cell.

There is an interesting theory called “_____” that suggests that an early eukaryotic cell _____ a simple, aerobic _____ cell such as a _____ by _____, possibly as a meal. However, instead of dying, the prokaryotic cell continued to _____, _____ the eukaryotic cell. The eukaryotic _____ cell provided _____ and a _____, protected environment for the prokaryotic cell. The prokaryotic cell used the food and provided _____ for the eukaryotic host cell. Because _____ cells _____ by living together with the other, it is called a “_____ relationship”. (In contrast, if one living thing benefits at the _____ of another, it is called a _____ relationship.)

Over time, both cells became _____ on each other and could not live _____. At this point, the prokaryotic cell has become a _____ of the host cell. It has become an _____: the _____.

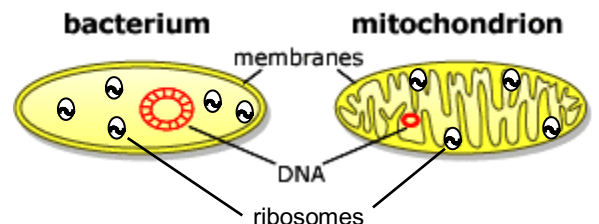
Similarly, at a later time, a eukaryotic cell that has mitochondria engulfed another simple cell, perhaps a _____ that is capable of _____. This cyanobacteria becomes a permanent resident inside the eukaryotic cell, producing _____ for the host cell by _____. It becomes an _____: the _____.

Endosymbiosis Theory: (<http://bugs.bio.usyd.edu.au/learning/resources/CAL/Microconcepts/moviePages/incorporation.html>)

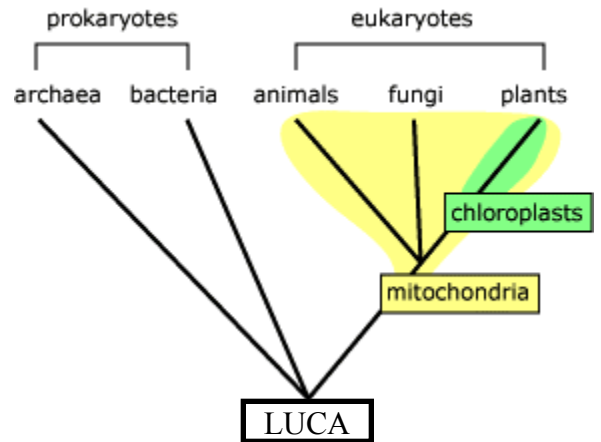


Endosymbiosis Theory is supported by the many similarities between bacteria, mitochondria and chloroplasts. Both mitochondria and chloroplasts:

- are about the same _____ as a simple bacteria
- are surrounded by _____ which suggests that they were engulfed by _____

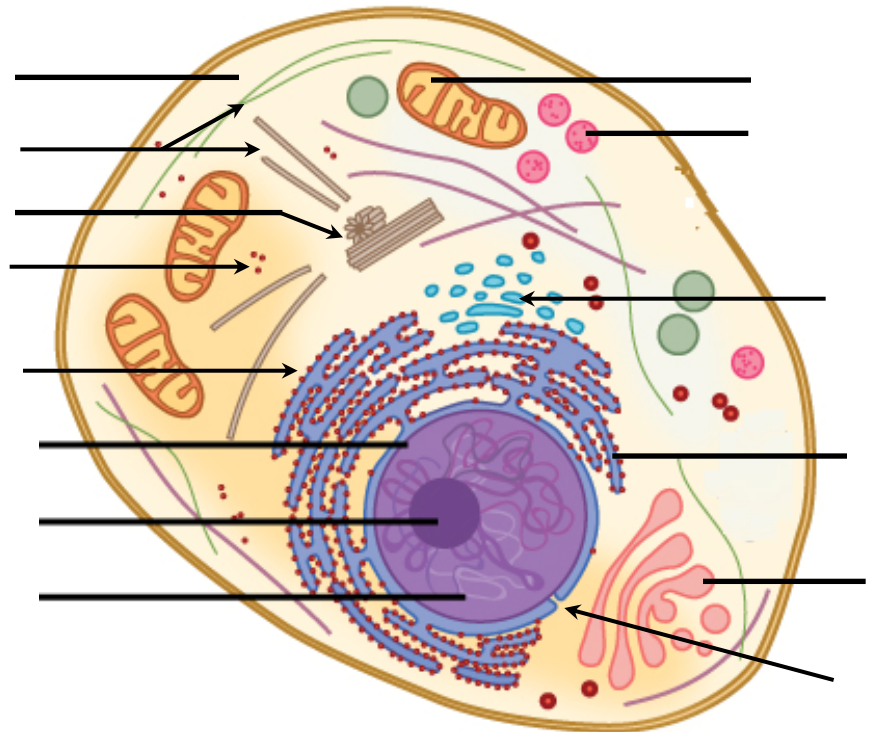
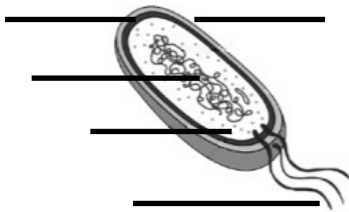


- have their own simple _____ of _____, which is similar to the DNA of early _____
- have their own _____, which are similar to _____ ribosomes and significantly different from _____ ribosomes
- reproduce by simple _____ (splitting in _____) _____ of the host cell cycle and _____



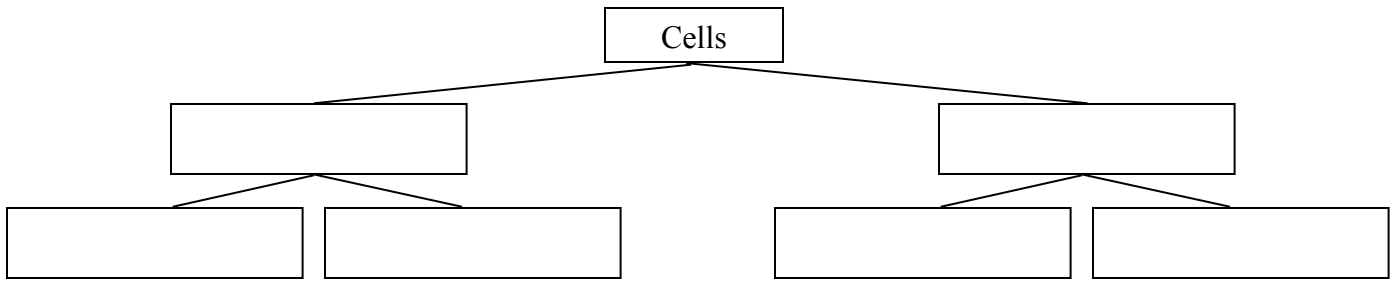
When you look at it this way, mitochondria and chloroplasts resemble tiny _____ living inside eukaryotic cells! Mitochondria must have been added _____ because _____ eukaryotic cells have them. Chloroplasts must have been added _____ to only _____ cells because only _____ cells have them.

Comparing Prokaryotic & Eukaryotic Cells



	Prokaryotic Cells	Eukaryotic Cells
Relative Size		
Presence of a membrane-bound nucleus?		
Describe the genetic material		
Presence of membrane-bound organelles?		
Presence of ribosomes?		
Examples		

Notes about Some of the Cell Parts



Plant cells contain _____ mitochondria and chloroplasts. Chloroplasts are one type of _____.

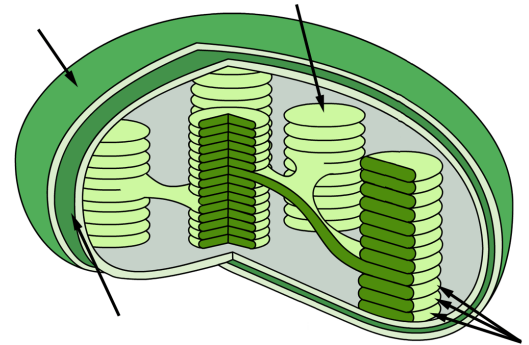
Plastids:

- plastids have both an _____ and an _____ membrane
- they have their own _____ and _____ which are similar to those of _____
- plastids divide on their own, _____ of cell division, so it is believed that they probably originated from _____ by _____
- there are different types of plastids found in different types of cells, depending on their function:

a) Chloroplasts

- these are _____ plastids that contain _____ (a green pigment)
- they perform _____ by using energy from _____ to turn _____ and _____ into _____:

- _____ for photosynthesis are found on the _____ of _____ (stacks of thylakoids are called “grana”) which provide a large _____ for the chemical reactions



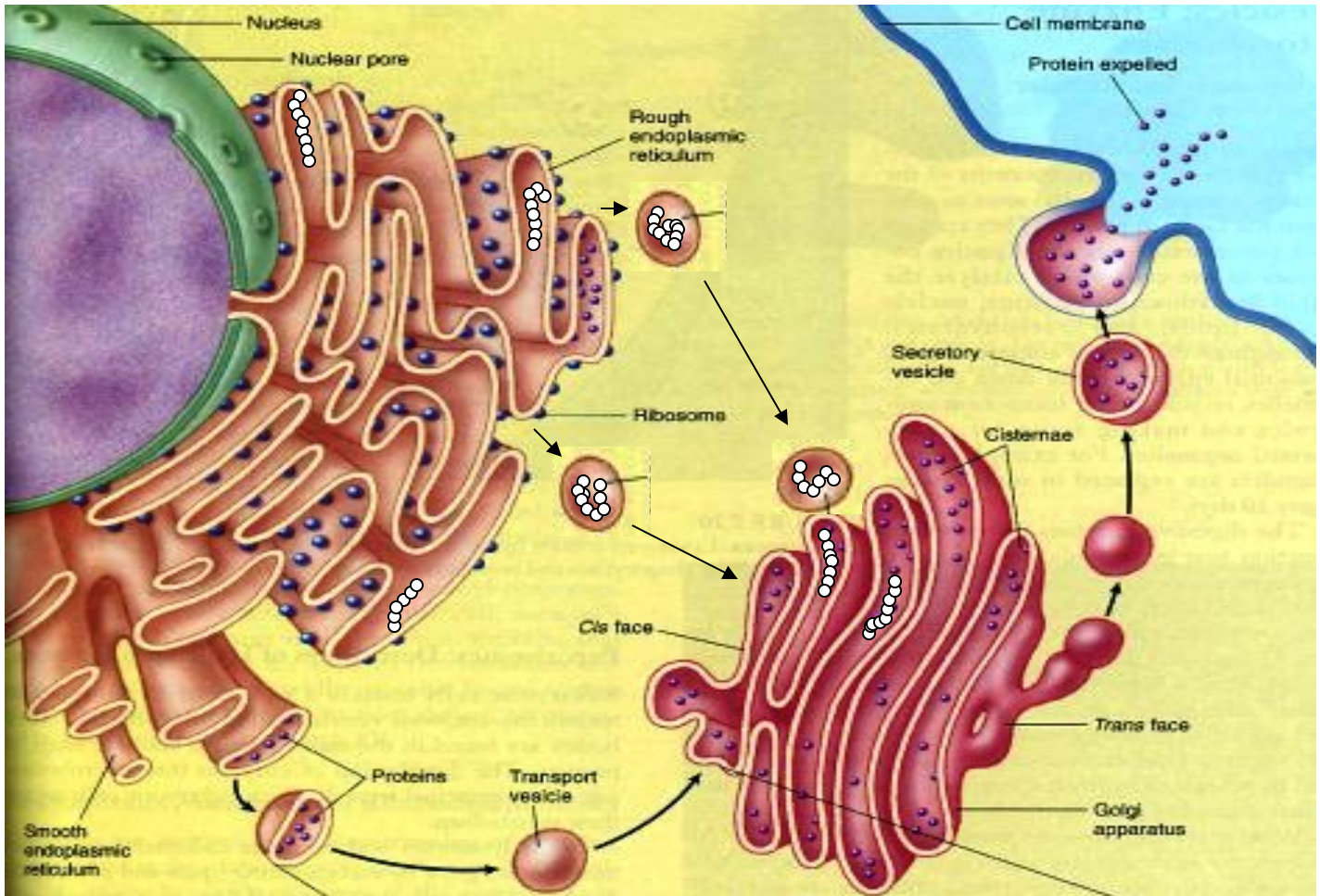
b) Chromoplasts

- these are plastids which contain pigments that can be a _____ of colours, such as _____, _____ and _____
- they give specific parts of the plant a distinctive _____
- example: the _____ of a flower may be brightly coloured to attract _____, _____ or other _____
- example: the _____ of a plant may be brightly coloured to attract _____ which eat the _____ and then spread the _____ in their _____

b) Leucoplasts

- these are _____ or _____ plastids that are specialized to store _____ (when they are stained with iodine they turn _____ / _____)
- _____, _____ (such as beans and corn) and other “_____” foods contain a large number of _____

Endomembrane System



Vesicles

Vesicles are _____ that keep their contents _____ from the _____. There are many types of vesicles and they are classified by their _____ and _____.

- Vacuoles** are vesicles that are generally used for _____ of materials such as _____, _____ (salts) and _____. In animal cells, vacuoles tend to be very _____. Plant cells often have a very large _____ that stores water, salts and sugars.
- Lysosomes** are vesicles that store powerful _____ (digestive) _____ which are needed to break down _____, worn out _____, _____, large food particles and other materials. This allows the molecules from these materials to be _____ and _____.
- Peroxisomes** are vesicles that store powerful _____ which are needed to break down _____ and also some types of _____ (_____).
- Transport vesicles** _____ from the _____ and _____ _____ (ER) and carry the contents to the _____. The transport vesicles _____ (join) with the "cis" face of the Golgi and empty their contents inside.
- Secretory vesicles** _____ from the _____ and carry the contents to the _____. Secretory vesicles fuse with the cell membrane and empty their contents _____ of the cell by _____. The vesicle membrane becomes part of the _____.

Microscope Calculations

It can be difficult to know the sizes of objects seen under a microscope. How big is a human cell compared to a bacterial cell? Compared to a virus?



There are two calculations we can do:

1) **Total Magnification of the Object:**

- How many times larger does the object appear than the original specimen?

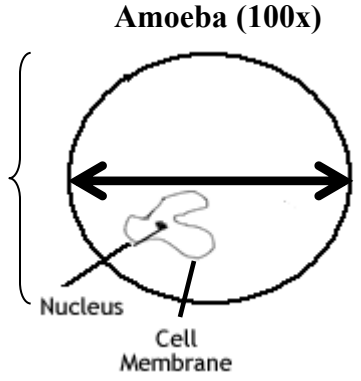
Total magnification =

eg. If a specimen is viewed using a 10x ocular lens and the 40x high power lens, what is the total magnification?

2) **Actual Size of the Object:**

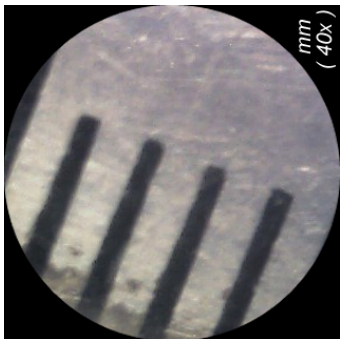
- an object's _____ can be measured or calculated if the size of the _____ is known
- the field of view can be measured using a clear plastic _____ under _____ magnification
- place the ruler on the _____ of the microscope and adjust to _____
- line up the ruler so that it is measuring the field _____ (the _____ part of the field of view). Put one of the millimetre markings right against the _____ of the circle
- using the ruler markings, measure the _____ in millimetres ()

The _____ you see through the microscope is called the _____ ().



Calculations:

- convert the FOV from mm to _____ () using the conversion factor:



As the magnification _____, the amount of the object that you see _____ in exact proportion. Mathematically, this can be written:

$$FOV_{low} \times \text{magnification}_{low} = FOV_{medium} \times \text{magnification}_{medium} = FOV_{high} \times \text{magnification}_{high}$$

Once you have measured the FOV under low power, you can use the magnification of the lenses to calculate the FOV for either _____ or _____ power. For the above microscope under medium power (100x):

Now that you know the size of the field of view under medium or high power, you can _____ the size of the object you are viewing.

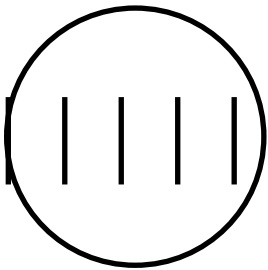
eg. estimate the length and width of the mite in the microscope image to the right. It is viewed under medium power using the microscope from the calculations on the front of the page.

The width of the mite is about _____ of the FOV under medium power:



The length of the mite is about _____ of the FOV under medium power:

eg. A student measured the field of view under low power and then studied onion cells under low, medium and high magnification. He took pictures of the field of view under each power. Using the microscope information, estimate the actual width and length of one onion cell using the image under high power:



Ruler Under Low Power



Low Power



Medium Power



High Power

Microscope Information:

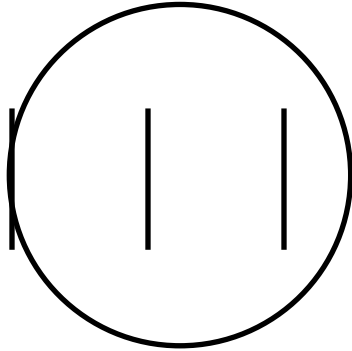
Ocular lens = 10X
Objective Lenses:
low power = 10X
med. power = 30X
high power = 60X

Microscope Calculations Homework

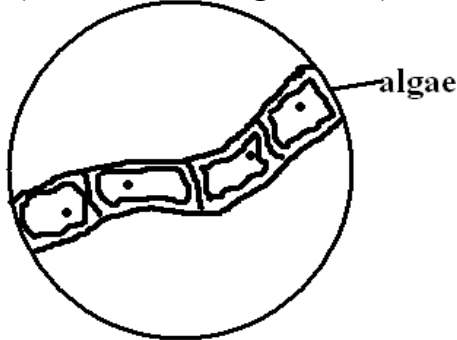
Use the diagrams and microscope information to estimate the approximate sizes of the objects in micrometers (μm) seen under the magnifications given. Show all calculations and include all units.

1. Estimate the Width of the Algae

Ruler Under Low Power



Green Algae
(as seen under High Power)



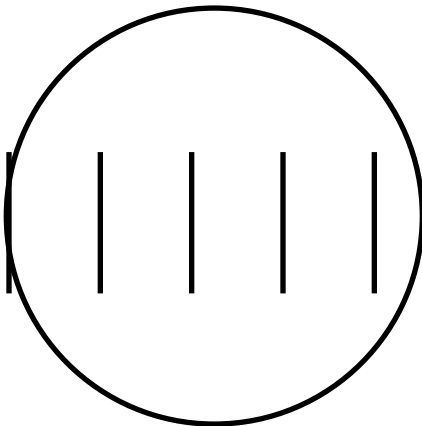
Microscope Information:

Ocular lens = 10X

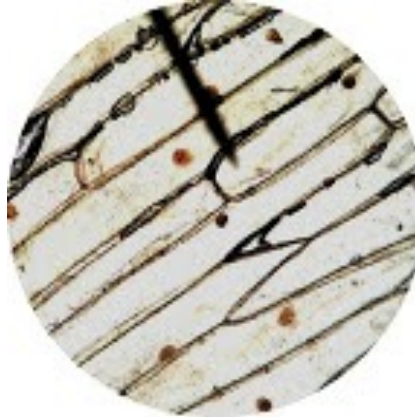
Objective Lenses:
low power = 10X
med. power = 20X
high power = 40X

2. Estimate the Width of an Onion Cell

Ruler Under Low Power



Onion Cells
(as seen under Medium Power)



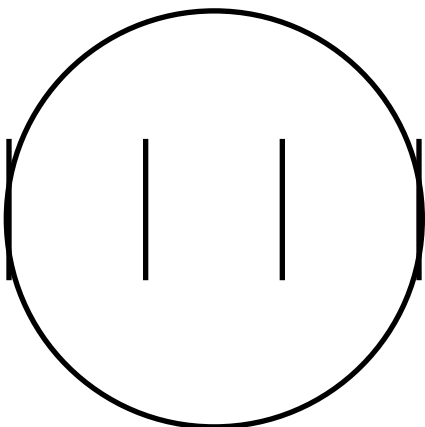
Microscope Information:

Ocular lens = 5X

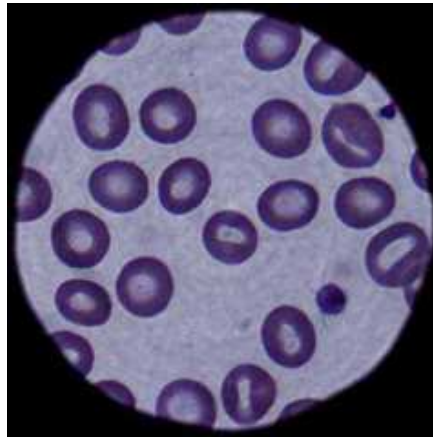
Objective Lenses:
low power = 10X
med. power = 25X
high power = 50X

3. Estimate the Width of a Red Blood Cell

Ruler Under Low Power



Red Blood Cells
(as seen under High Power)



Microscope Information:

Ocular lens = 10X

Objective Lenses:
low power = 10X
med. power = 30X
high power = 60X

Answers:

1. FOV low = 2500 μm , FOV high = 625 μm , algae about 1/5 – 1/6 FOV, width = 100 – 140 μm
2. FOV low = 4500 μm , FOV med = 1800 μm , cell about 1/8 – 1/9 FOV, width = 180 – 200 μm
3. FOV low = 3000 μm , FOV high = 500 μm , red blood cell about 1/7 – 1/8 FOV, width = 55 – 72 μm

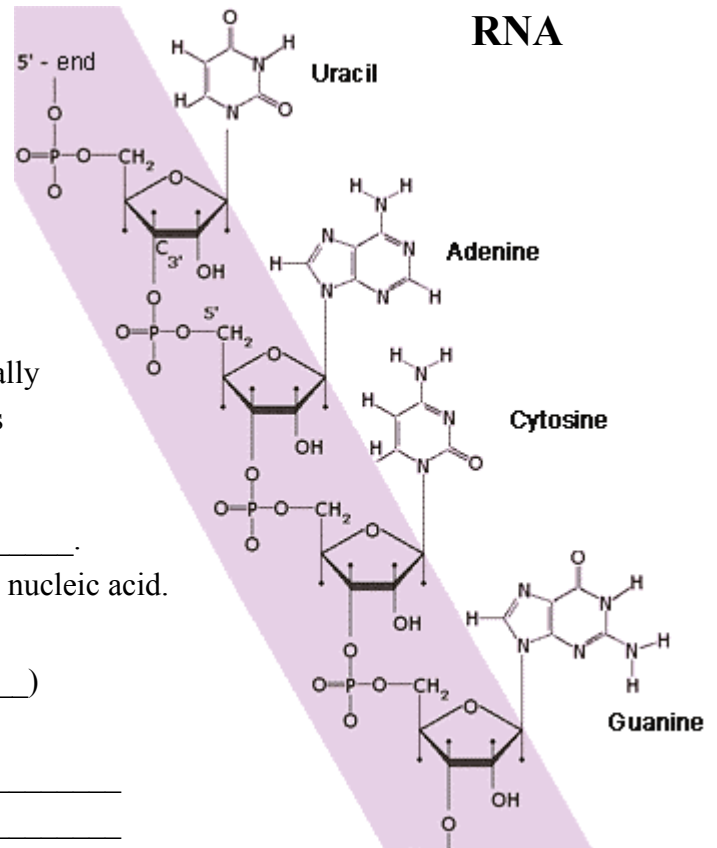
The Nucleic Acids: DNA and RNA

DNA and RNA are _____ known as _____ because they are found primarily in the _____ of cells. They are made of subunits called _____ attached together in a long chain.

Each nucleotide is made of a _____, a _____ and a _____. The sugar and phosphate groups are _____ bonded to form a strong _____. The nitrogen base is chemically bonded to the _____. These chemical bonds are _____!

RNA stands for _____. It is the _____ and _____ nucleic acid.

- RNA is a _____
- its sugar is _____ (_____)
- RNA has four nitrogen bases:
 - _____
 - _____
- RNA is primarily involved in making _____



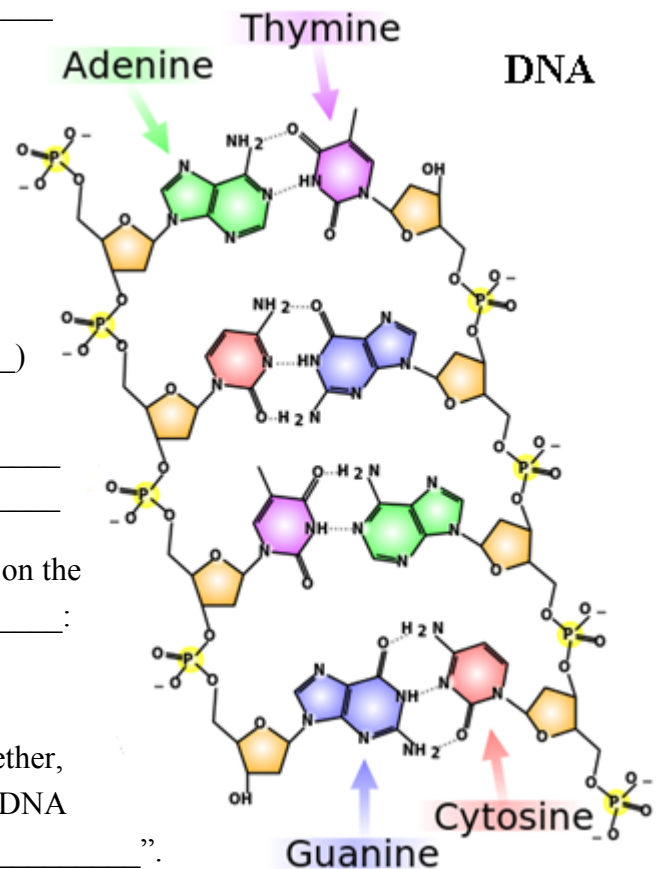
DNA stands for _____. It is _____, which makes it much more _____ than RNA. Because of its stability, DNA is ideally suited to store the cell's _____.

- its sugar is _____ (_____)
- DNA has four nitrogen bases:
 - _____
 - _____

Each nitrogen base is attracted to its complementary base on the opposite strand of DNA by _____:

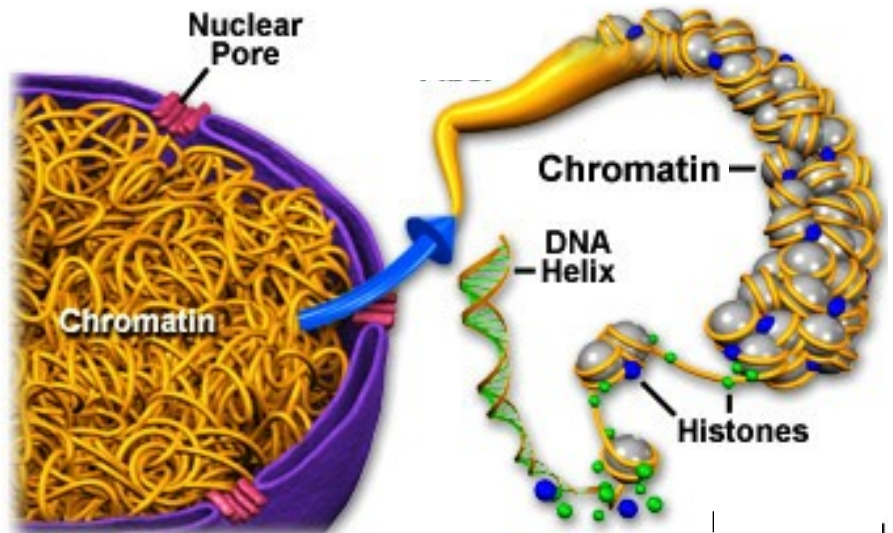
- adenine is attracted to _____
- guanine is attracted to _____

The hydrogen bonding holds the two strands of DNA together, forming the _____ of the _____. The DNA molecule _____ to form a “_____”.



It is the _____ of the _____ (A, T, C and G) in DNA that stores the genetic information. A “_____” is a section of DNA which has the information to make one _____. Humans have _____ protein-coding genes but this makes up only _____ of the total DNA. The rest of the DNA used to be called “_____” but now we suspect that it is important in making _____ and _____ cell activities.

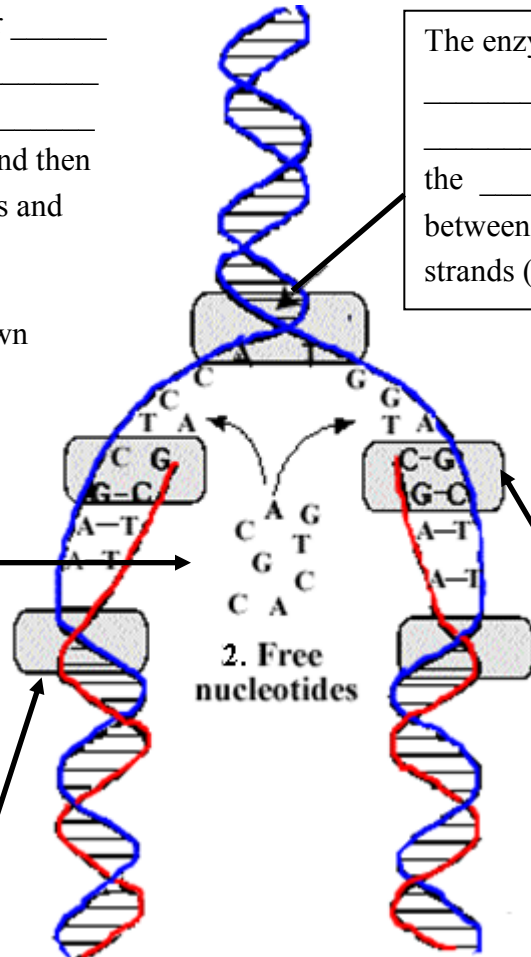
If you take all of the _____ from a single human cell and lay it out, end to end, it measures about _____. But the average human cell is only _____ (_____) in diameter and the _____ is even smaller. How does all of the DNA _____ into the nucleus?



When a cell is not dividing, the DNA is found in the nucleus as _____. Chromatin is made of DNA wrapped around _____ called _____, as shown in the diagram above. While the length of the DNA is 2 meters, the length of the _____ chromatin is only _____.

When the DNA needs to be copied for _____ or _____, it is _____ from the histones, _____ and then wrapped back up again. This preserves and protects the valuable DNA.

The steps of DNA replication are shown in the diagram to the right:



The enzyme _____ and _____ the DNA, breaking the _____ between the complementary strands (like unzipping a zipper).

The exposed _____ attract their complementary _____ (_____, _____ and _____) that are free in the _____.

The two new strands of DNA are _____ into _____ by another enzyme.

An enzyme called _____ chemically bonds the _____ and _____ on adjacent _____ together to form the _____ backbone.

Mutations

Sometimes there is a _____ when the DNA molecule is being _____ and this changes the _____ of the _____ (A,T,C or G). A change in the order of the nucleotides is called a _____. Mutations may change the order of the _____ in the _____ chain and this changes the shape of the _____.

Two common types of mutations caused by DNA replication (copying) errors are:

1. A _____ (also called a _____) which replaces a _____ with another nucleotide.

eg. The sequence is AATCGCTTAGAG could become: _____

2. A _____ mutation which _____ (adds in) or _____ (leaves out) one or more nucleotides.

eg. The sequence AATCGCTTAGAG could become: _____

The DNA sequence is read in groups of _____ nucleotides. Each set of three nucleotides is called a _____ and it is the code for a single _____.

As an analogy, the DNA sequence (a _____) is like a _____ written with only _____ letter words (_____). A mutation is similar to changing one _____ in a word, or changing the _____ of the letters, and this changes the _____ of the sentence.

eg. Read this sentence: Thedaywashotbuttheoldmandidnotgethishat.

If we group the letters into three letter words we get:

If we replace the “d” in day with an “e” (a base-pair substitution), we get:

If we change the “d” in day with an “r” (a base-pair substitution), we get:

If we insert an “r” after the d in “day” (a frameshift mutation), we have:

A mutation may be a:

1. _____ (helpful) mutation that makes a protein or cell function _____
2. _____ (harmful) mutation that makes a protein or cell function _____, the cell may even _____
3. _____ mutation that does not _____ or _____ the cell

Summary:

The structure of the DNA molecule has three properties which are critical to how it functions:

1. **Because A always pairs with T and C always pairs with G, DNA can make copies of itself.** If you pull the two strands apart, each can be used as a pattern to make the matching (complementary) strand (and a new DNA molecule).
2. **DNA can carry information.** The order of the bases along a strand is a code - a code for making proteins and these control all cell functions.
3. **DNA can be greatly condensed:**
 - the total length of the completely uncoiled DNA in a single cell is about 6 meters
 - the total length of the chromatin (partially coiled DNA) is 28 cm
 - the total length of the chromosomes (completely coiled DNA during mitosis) is approximately 0.060 cm or just 0.6 millimeters

Homework:

1. Re-read the above note very carefully.
 - a) What molecules make up a nucleotide?
 - b) What are three significant differences between DNA and RNA?
 - c) What is a gene?
 - d) What are the TWO components (parts) of chromatin?
 - e) What is a codon?
 - f) What three properties make DNA an excellent molecule to carry the genetic code?
2. For the genetic code (gene): TATAGCGTGAAATTCACGG
 - a) write it in codons: _____
 - a) write one possible point mutation: _____
 - b) write one possible frameshift mutation: _____
3. Read pages 199 – 203. (up to but not including Cloning)
4. Write a brief outline of the steps of DNA replication. Include the information from our class note and the diagram on the top of pages 200 – 201.
5. What is one way that cells protect themselves against copying errors during replication?
6. Give an example of a “condition” caused by a genetic mutation.
7. What is a mutagen? Give examples of two different types of mutagens.
8. Explain how some mutations may cause cancer.
9. A common form of cystic fibrosis is caused by a single point mutation. Read the BioFact on page 30 about cystic fibrosis (you read this earlier when we were discussing cell transport). How does the point mutation (a genetic disorder) cause cystic fibrosis? How does cystic fibrosis affect cells and then people?