

Introduction on Biochemistry, Cell Biology, & TERM

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Current Life Science Topics

1. Fundamentals in Basic Biochemistry & Cell Biology
2. Introduction to Tissue Engineering & Regenerative Medicine
3. Developmental Tissue Reconstruction
4. Wound Healing & Regeneration
5. Natural Tissue Composition & Cell-ECM Interaction
6. Stem Cells & Cell-Based Therapy
7. Biomaterials
8. *Mid-Term Exam*
9. Mechano-transduction & Bioreactors
10. Discussions on Tissue Reconstruction
11. Regulation & Ethics
12. AI in Current Life Science
13. Machine Learning & Github
14. Deep Neural Network
15. Convolutional Neural Network
16. *Final Exam*

Study Materials & References

Lehninger Principles of Biochemistry (5th Edition)

- David L Nelson & Michael M Cox

Molecular Biology of the Cells (6th Edition)

- Bruce Alberts *et al.*

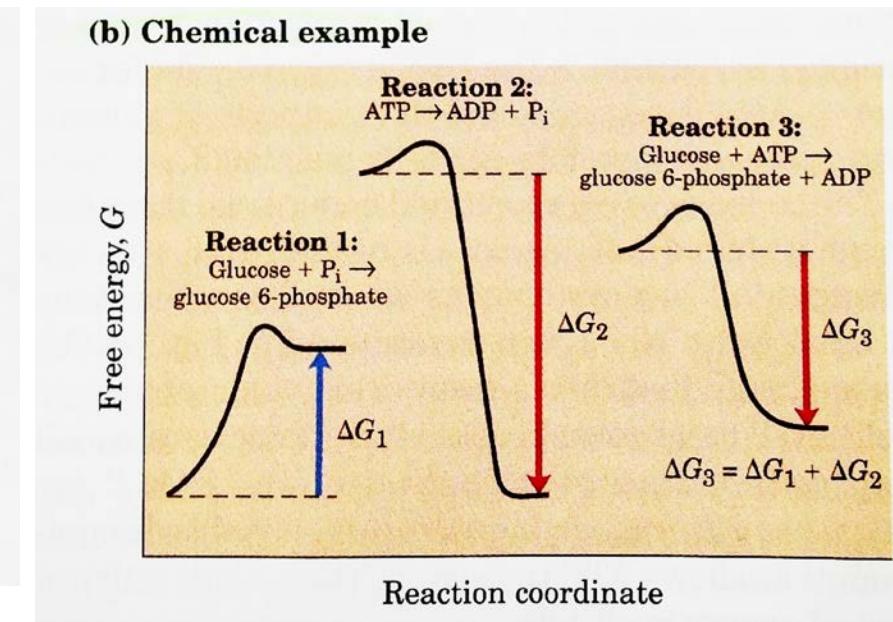
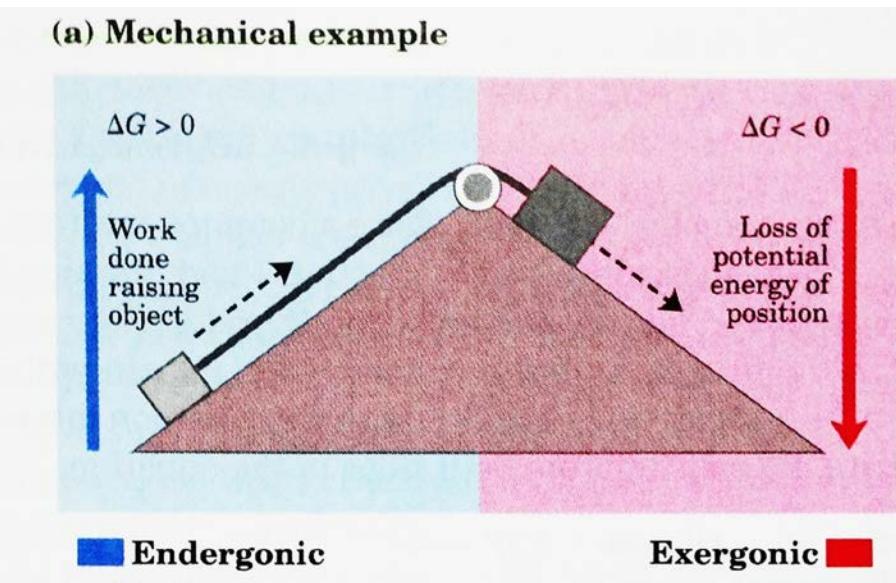
General Outline of Biochemistry

Physical Foundations of biochemistry

Entropy (S), Free-energy (G), & Enthalpy (H)

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

- A process tends to occur spontaneously only if ΔG is negative (if free energy is released in the process).
- **Endergonic** reaction: energy-requiring
- **Exergonic** reaction: reaction that liberate free energy



Dynamic Steady State & Energy Transformation

A living organism are different in composition from their surroundings and maintain a more or less constant composition in the face of constantly changing surroundings

However, the population of molecules within the organism is far from static

- Biomolecules are continuously synthesized and broken down in chemical reactions
- This involves a constant flux of mass and energy through the system
 - Hemoglobin - synthesized within the past month
 - Glucose - ingested with most recent meal is not circulating!
- The amounts of hemoglobin and glucose in the blood remain nearly constant because the rate of synthesis or intake of each balances the rate of its breakdown
- This constancy of concentration is the result of a *dynamic steady state*

Dynamic steady state \neq equilibrium

- It requires constant investment of energy
- When a cell can no longer generate energy, it dies and begins to decay

Pathways, Enzyme-Catalyzed Chemical Reactions

Metabolism

- Overall network of enzyme-catalyzed pathways

Catabolism

- Degenerative, free-energy-yielding reactions
- Degrade organic nutrients into simple end products
- Extract chemical energy and convert it into a form useful to the cell
- The energy release by catabolic reactions drives the synthesis of ATP

Anabolism

- Synthetic pathways that start with small precursor molecules and convert them to progressively larger and more complex molecules
- Require the input of energy

Enzymes, a Biocatalyst

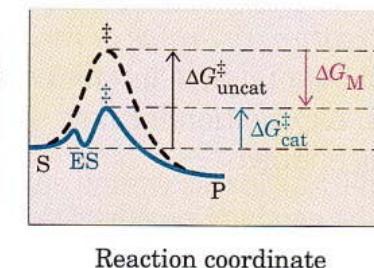
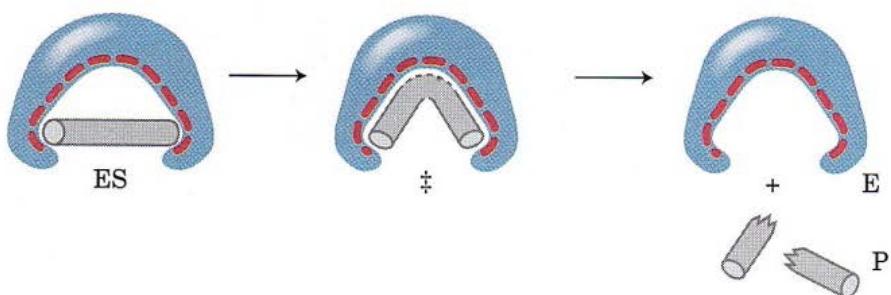
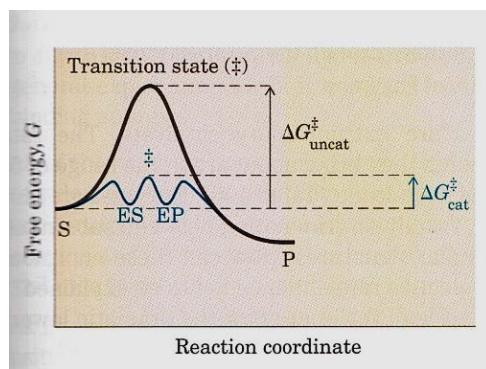
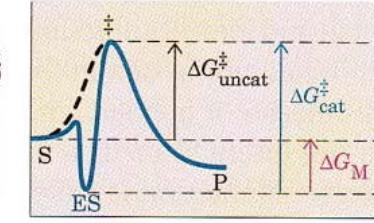
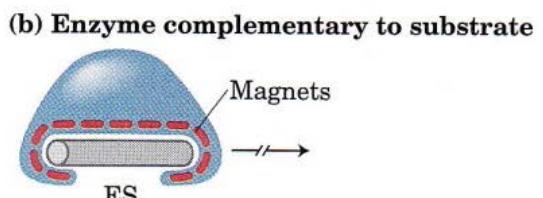
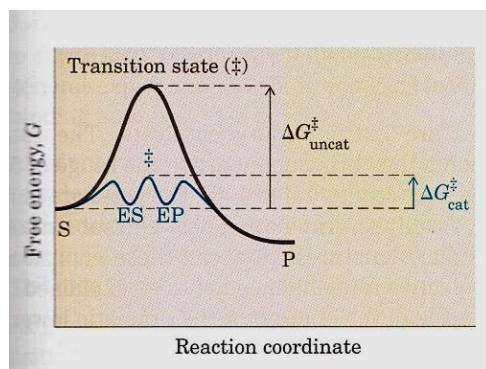
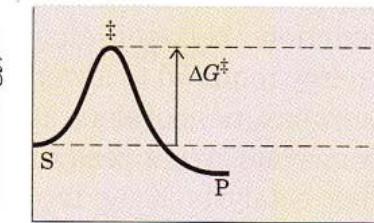
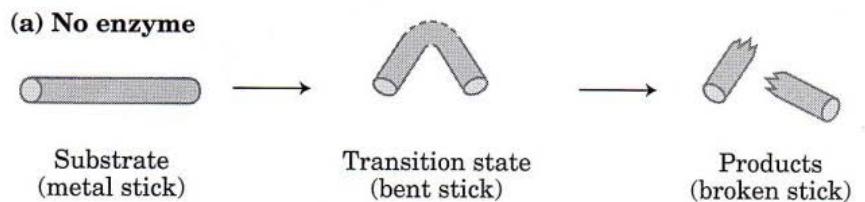
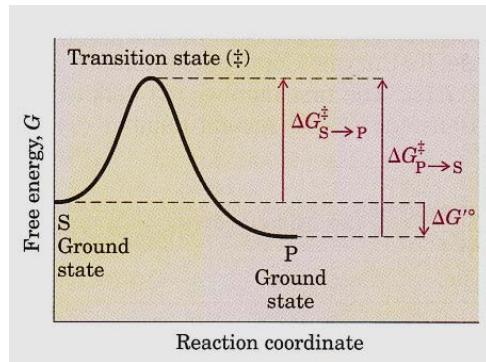
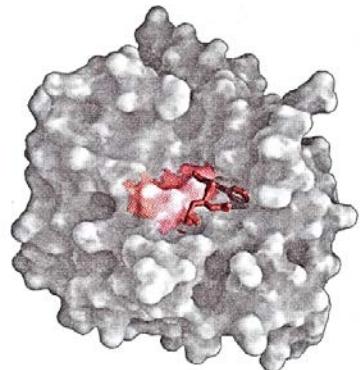
Virtually every chemical reaction in a cell occurs at a significant rate only because of the presence of enzymes.

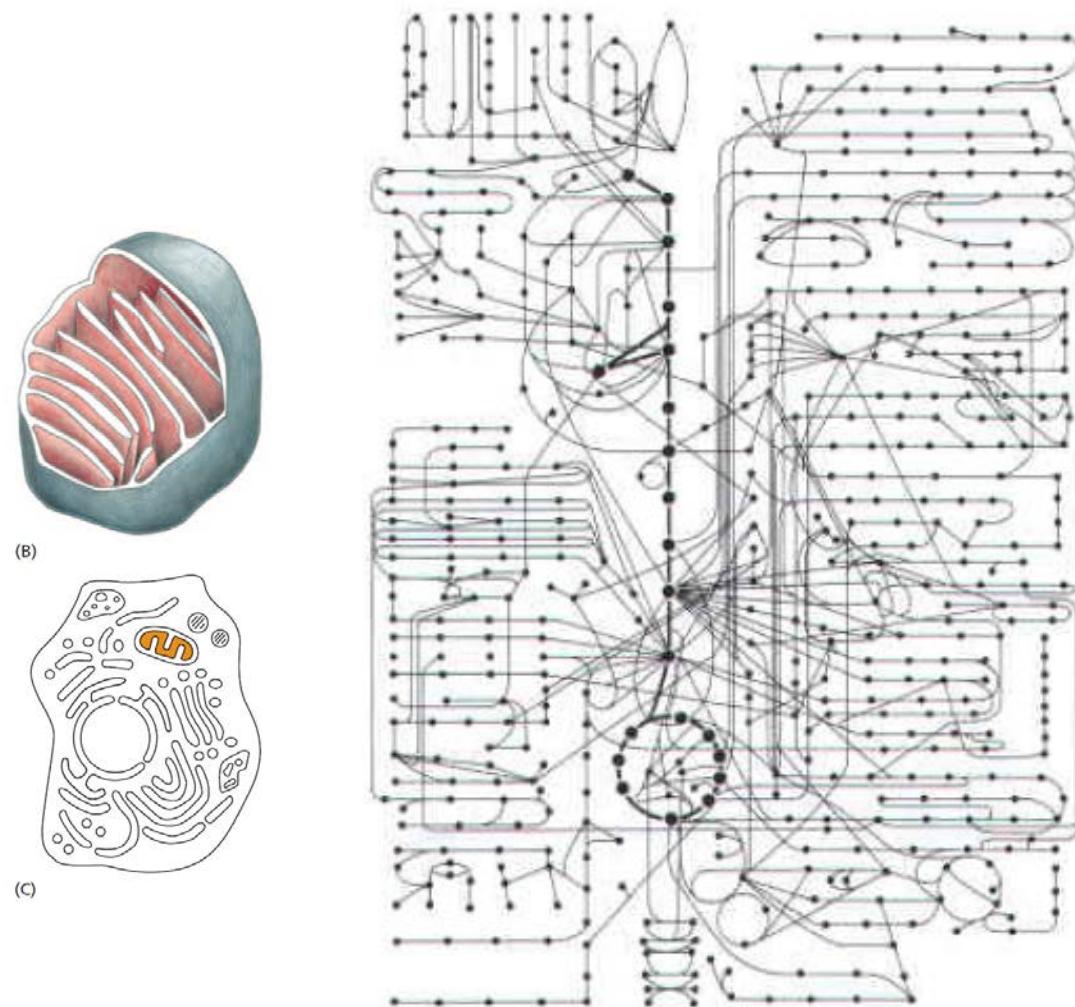
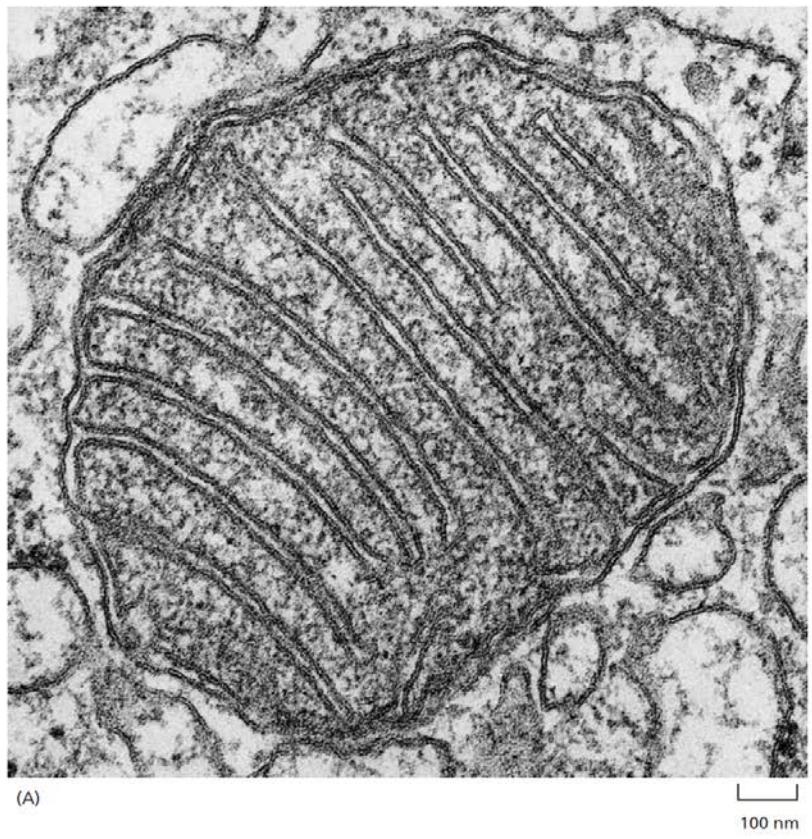
Transition state: created by distortion of the existing bonds

- Higher free energy than either reactant or product

Enzymes provide more comfortable fit for the transition state

The binding of enzyme to the transition state is exergonic, and the energy released by this binding reduces the activation energy for the reaction and greatly increases the reaction rate.





Distinguishing Features of Living Organisms

A high degree of chemical complexity and microscopic organization 화학적, 구조적 복잡성

Systems for extracting, transforming, and using energy from the environment 에너지 대사

Defined functions for each of an organism's components and regulated interactions among them 거시적 & 미시적 기능 분화 요소

Mechanisms for sensing and responding to alterations in their surroundings 환경 변화에 대한 반응(적응)

A capacity for precise self-replication and self-assembly 자기 복제 능력

A capacity to change over time by gradual evolution 진화 능력

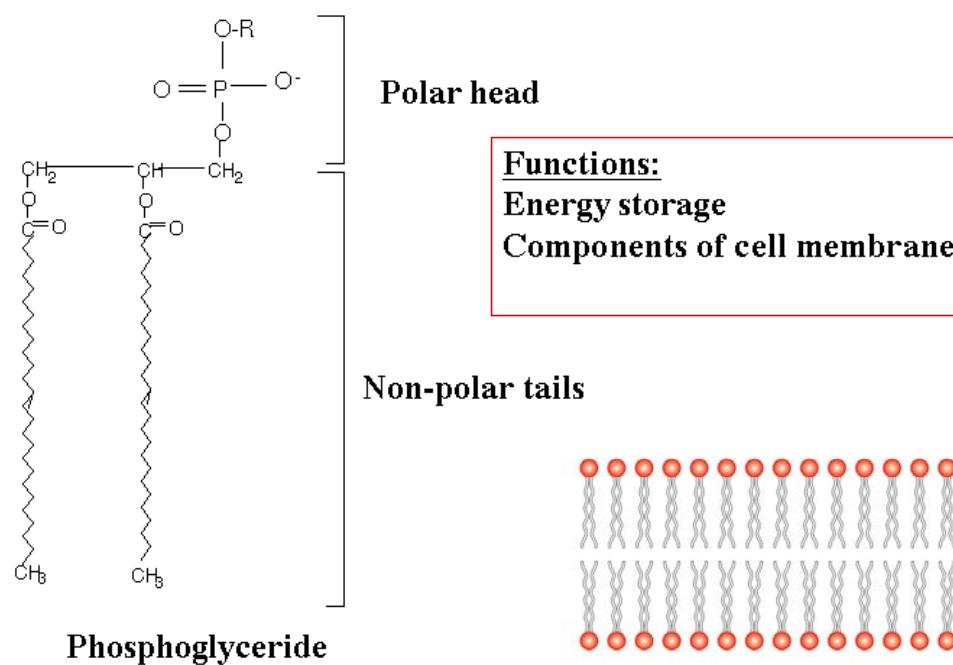
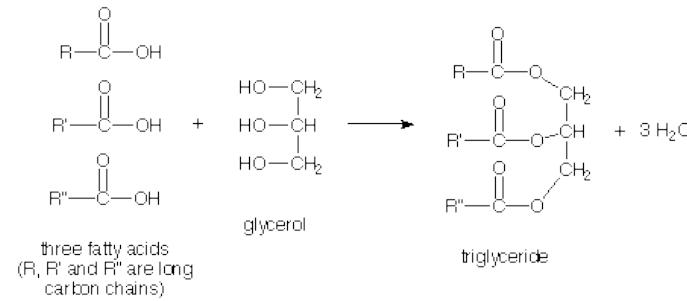
Biomacromolecules - building blocks of cells

4 Major Biomacromolecules (and their building blocks)

- Lipids (phospholipids)
- Carbohydrate (monosaccharide)
- DNA or RNA (nucleotides)
- Protein (amino acids)

Lipid

Glycerol & Fatty acid

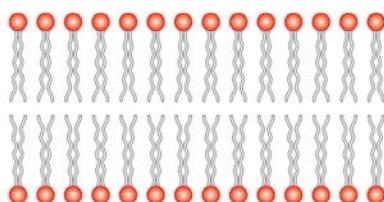


Characteristics lipid

- Consists of hydrophilic head hydrophobic tail
- Amphiphilic molecule

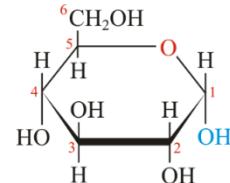
Characteristics & function of lipid bilayer

- Semi-permeable
- Protect cell
- Keep the cells compartmentalized
- Regulate the transport of molecules across the lipid bilayer

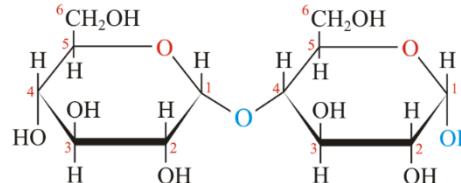


Sugar & Energy Metabolism

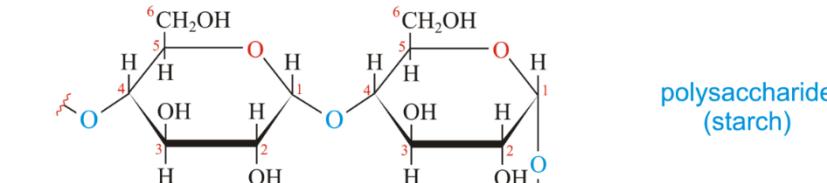
Carbohydrate - Sugar



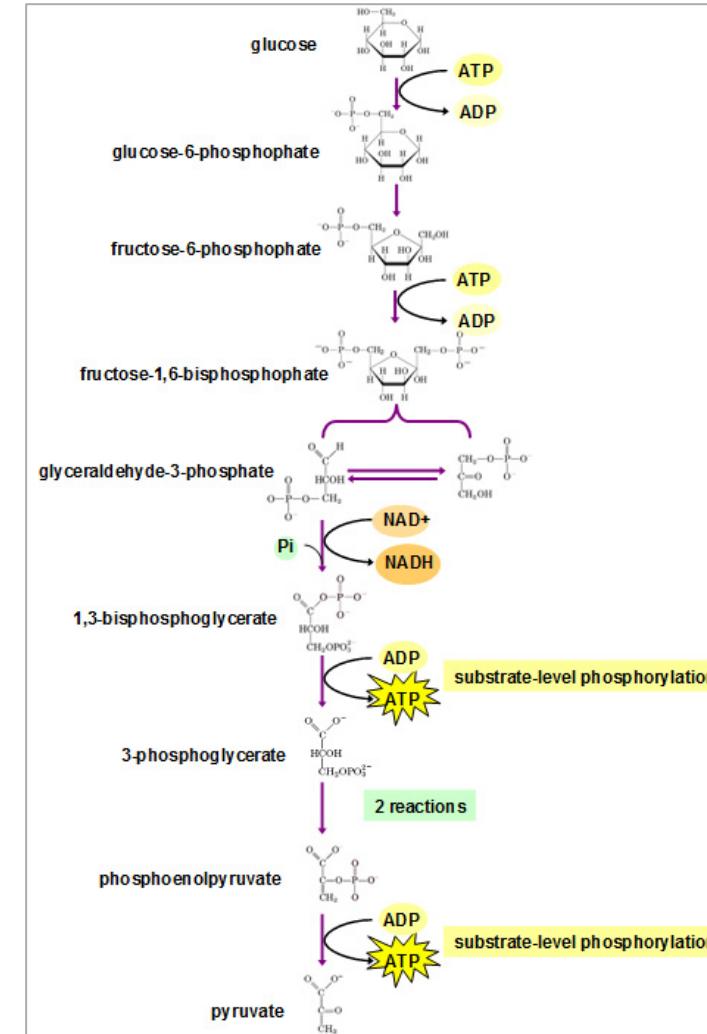
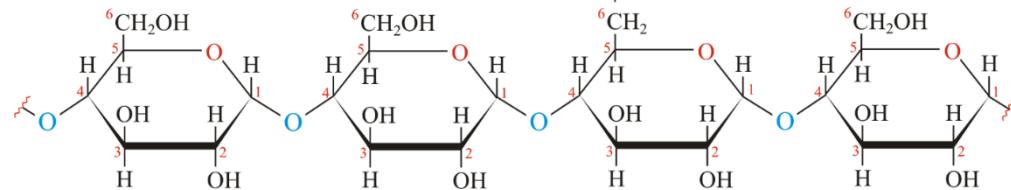
monosaccharide
(glucose)

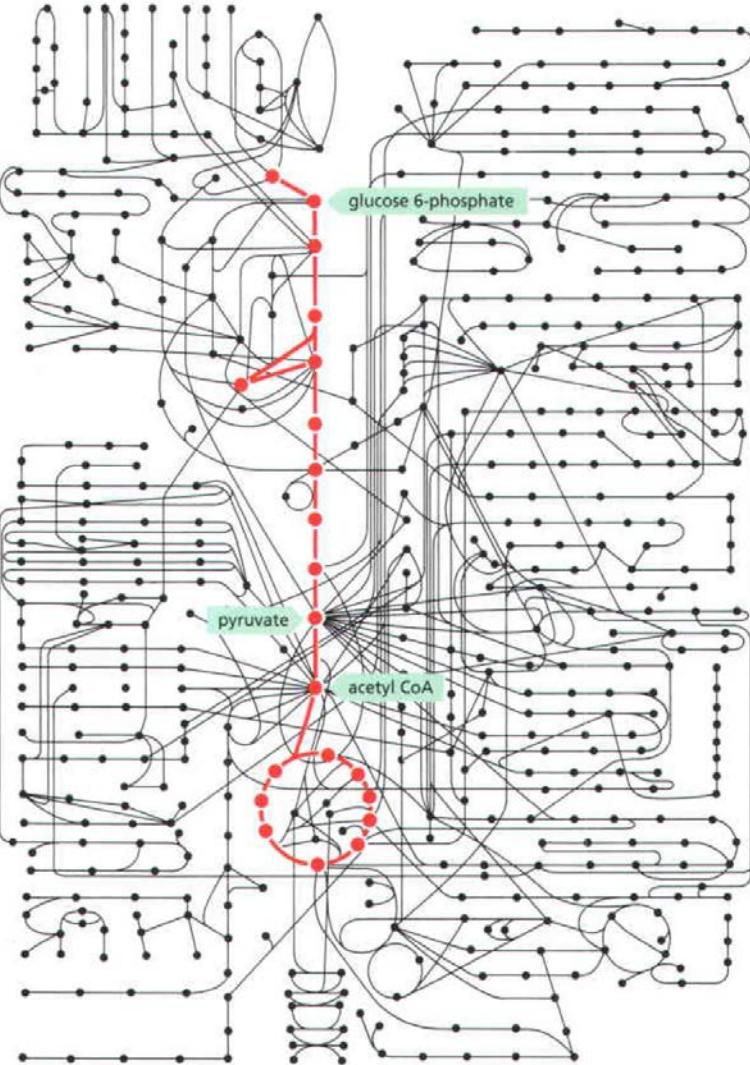
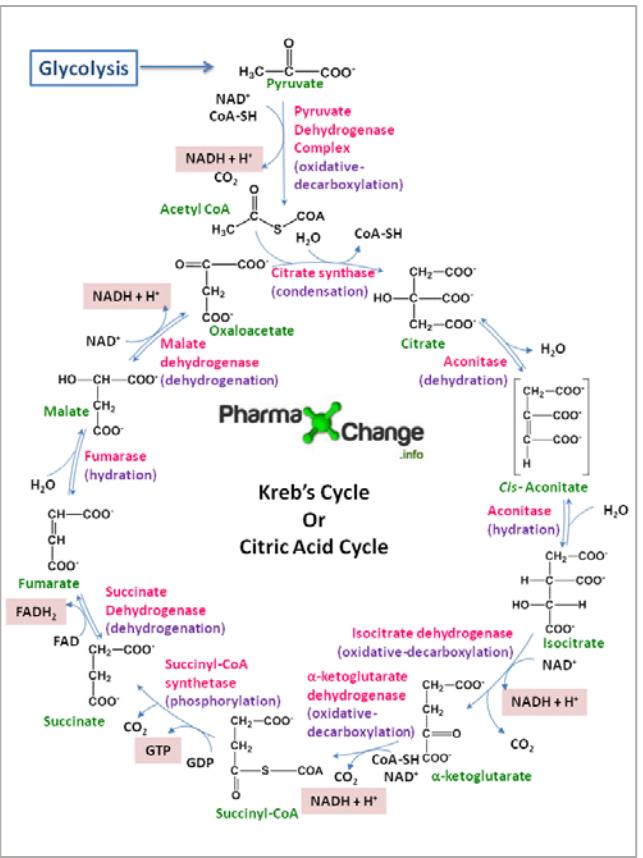
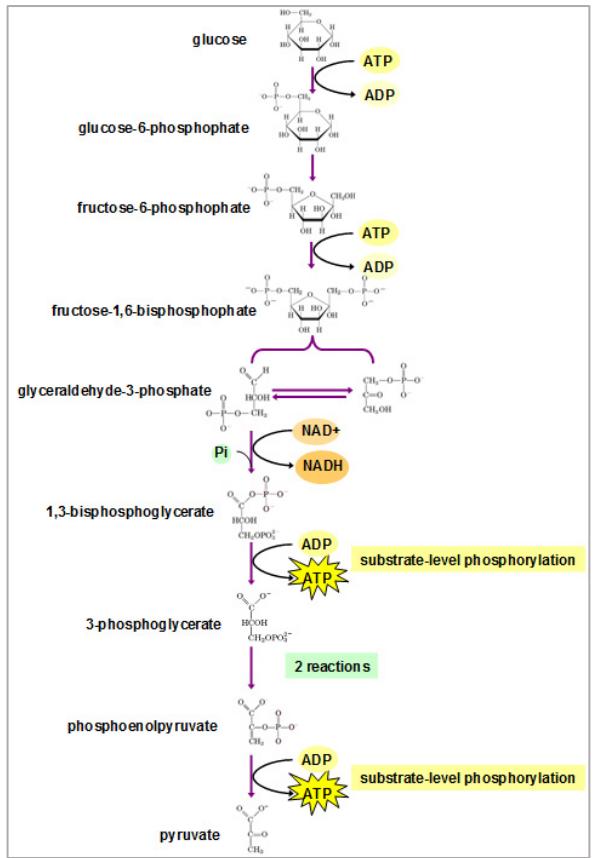


disaccharide
(maltose)

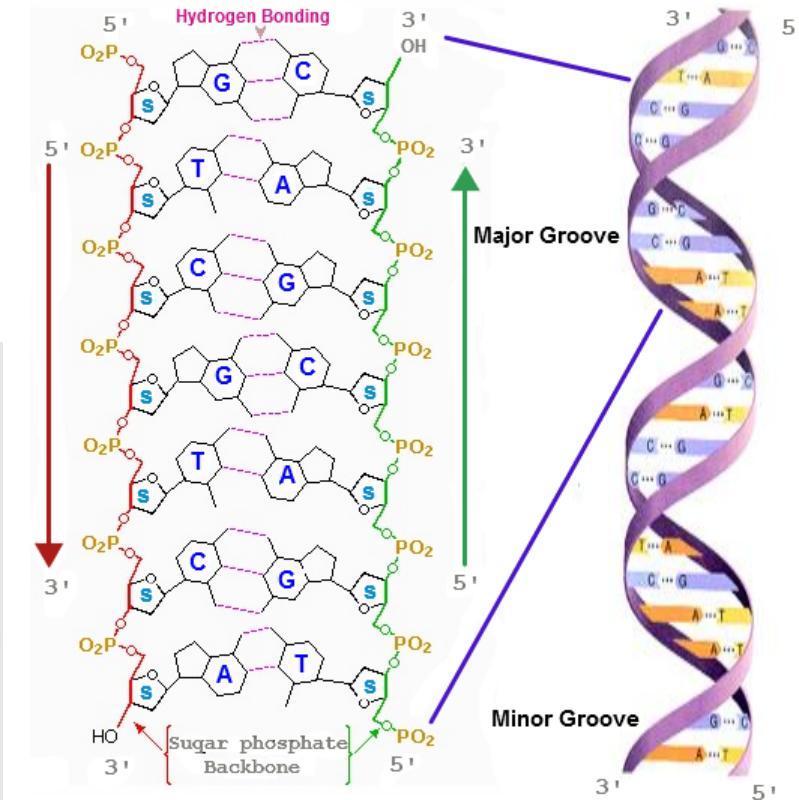
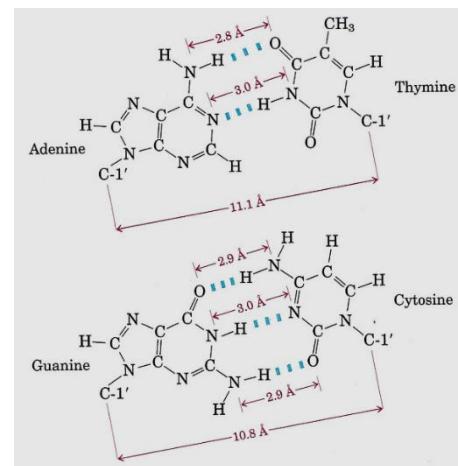
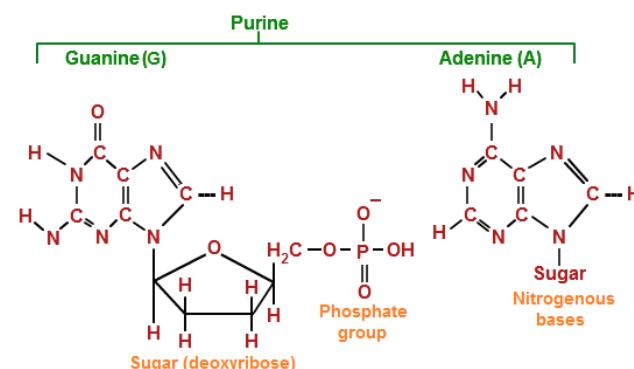
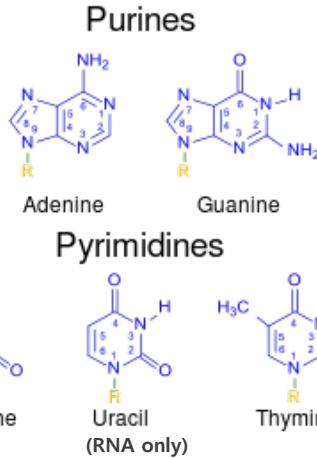
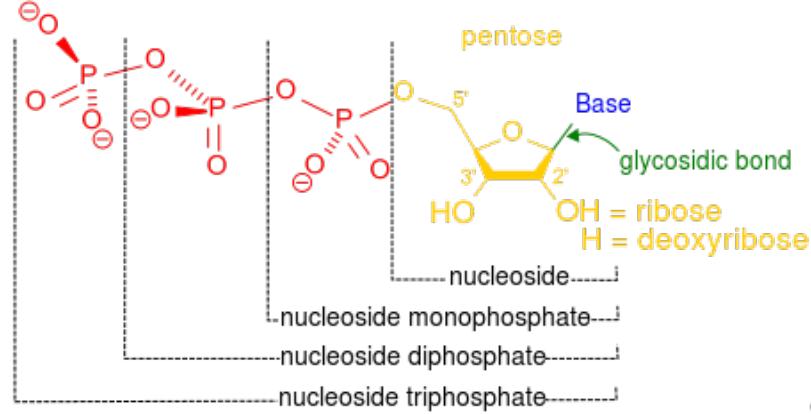


polysaccharide
(starch)



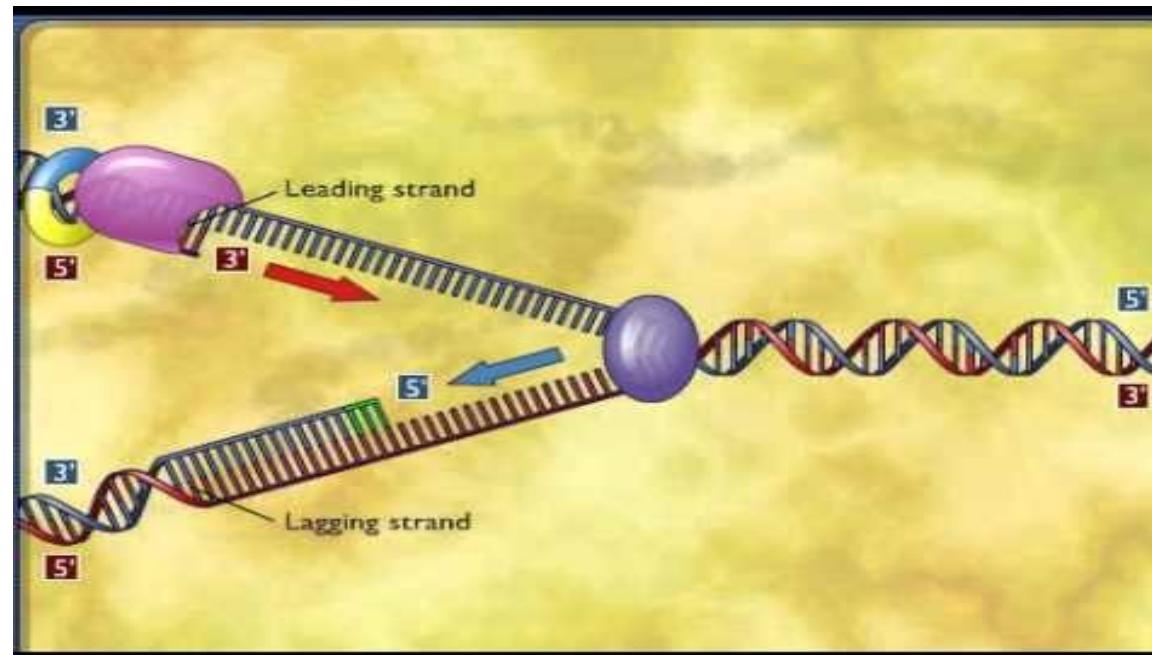


DNA & RNA Structure

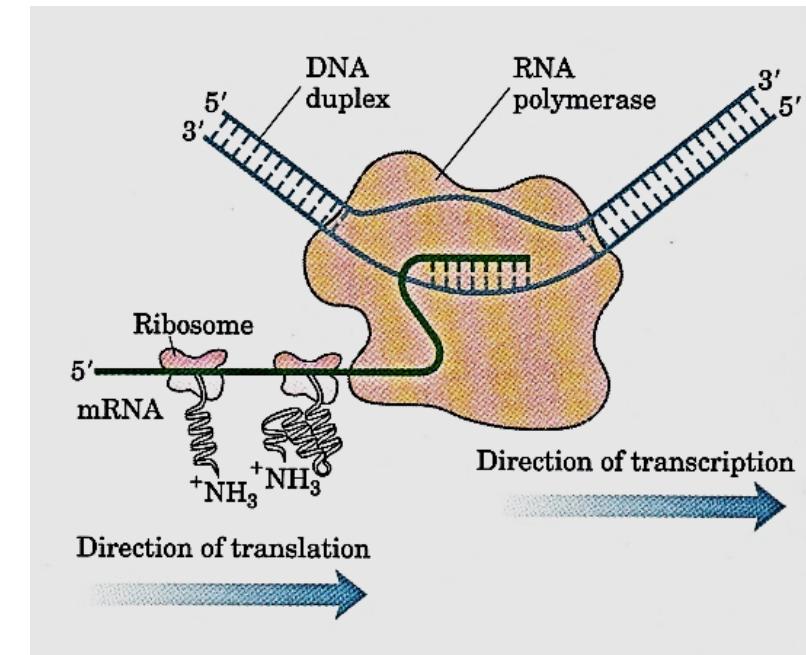


DNA Replication & Transcription

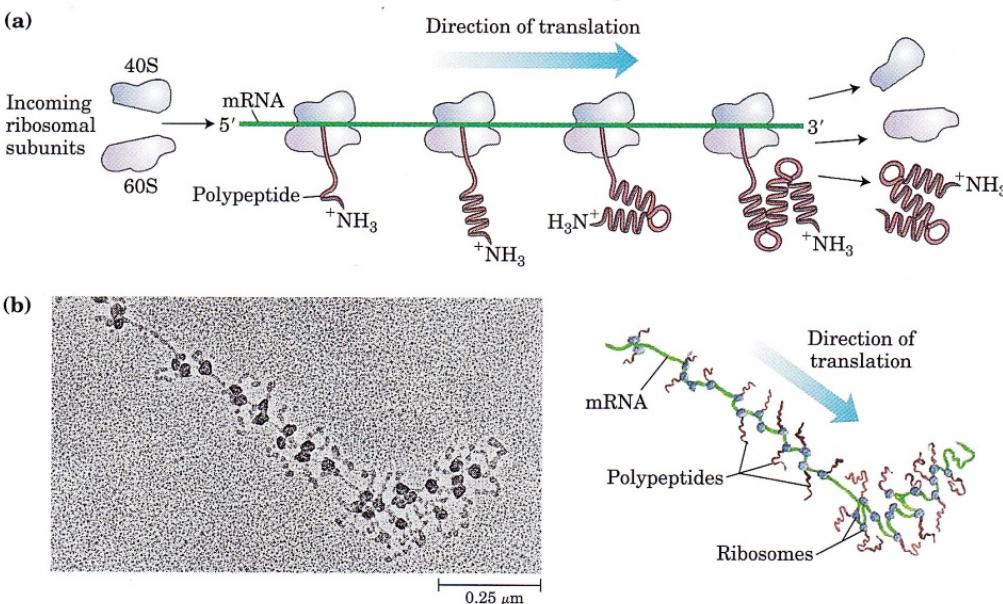
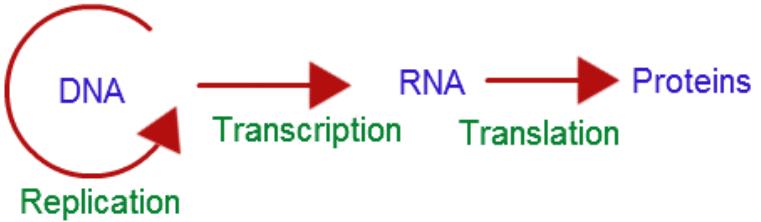
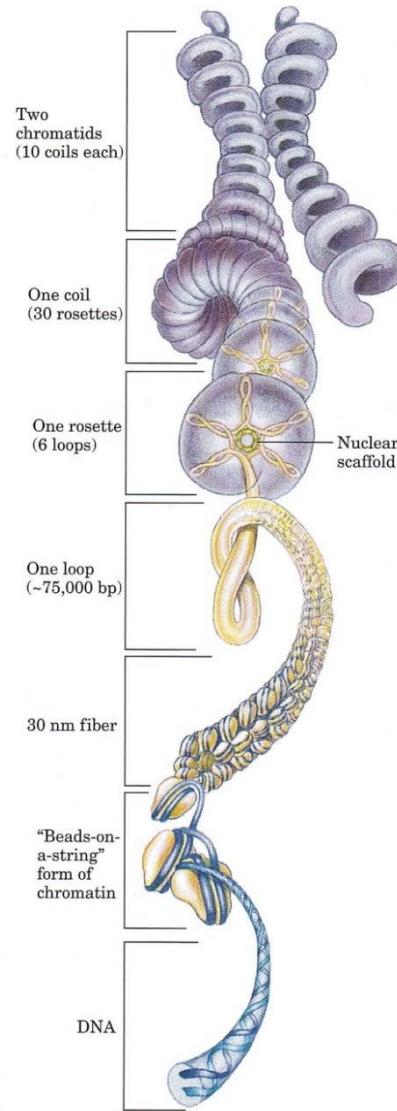
DNA Replication = DNA -> DNA²

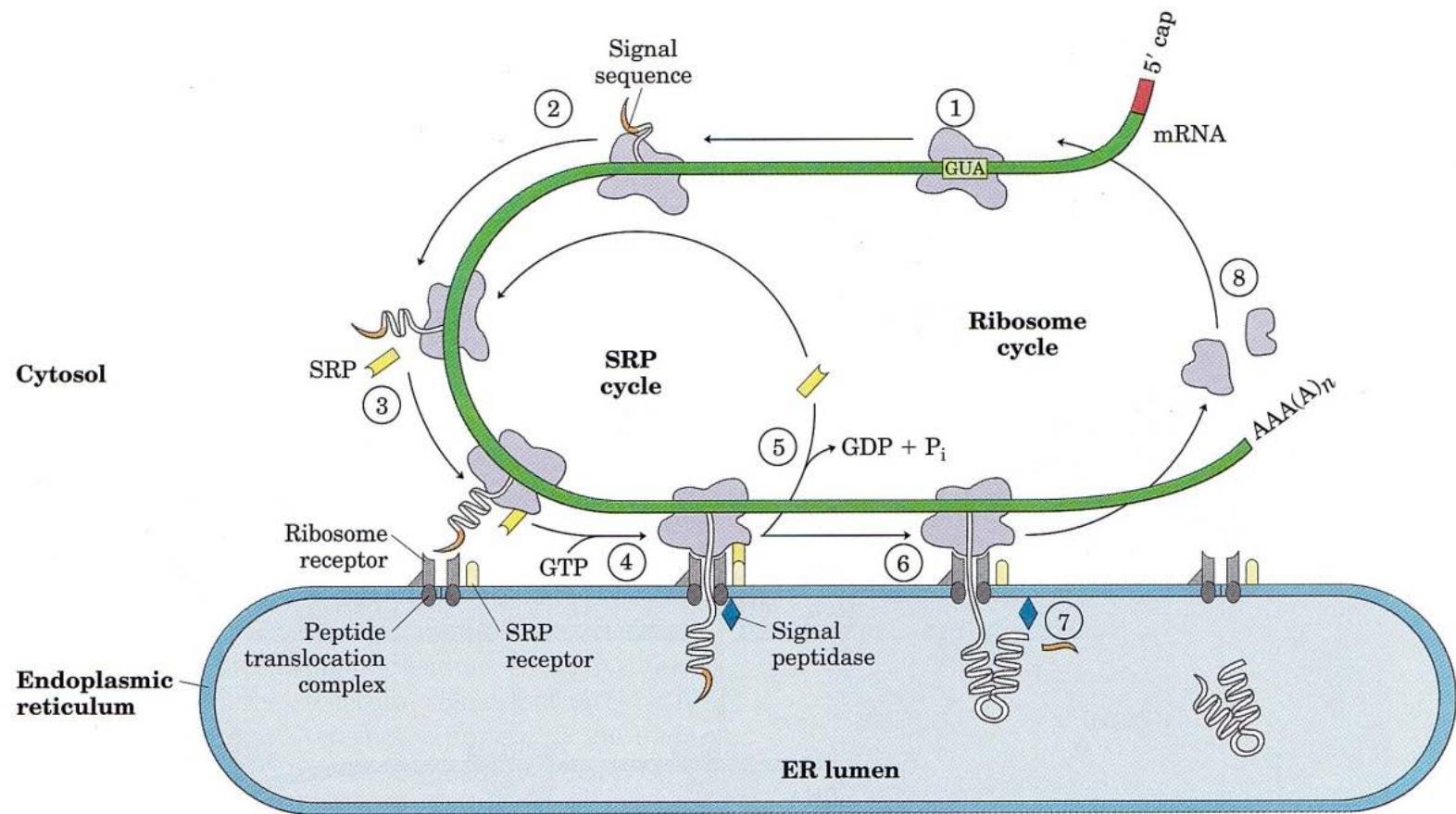


DNA Transcription = DNA -> RNA

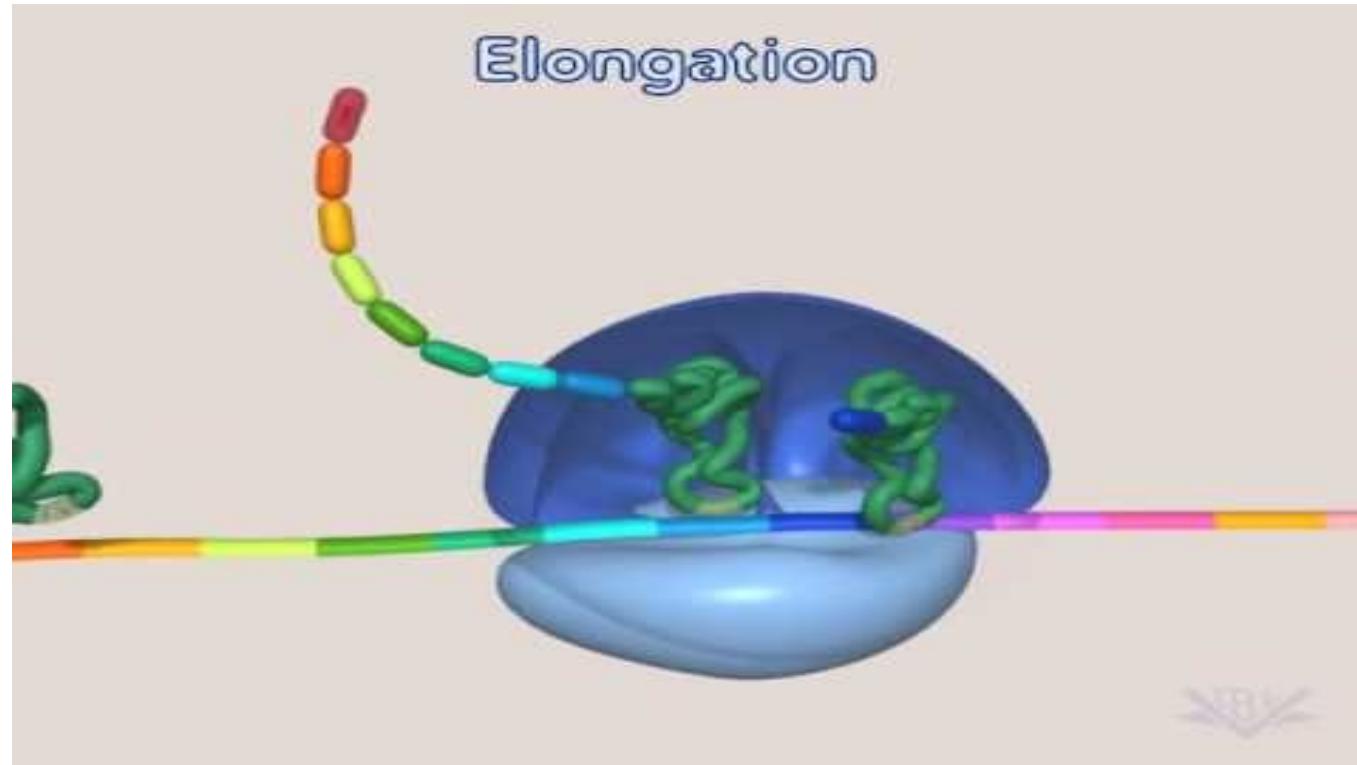


DNA to Proteins - An Information Pathways

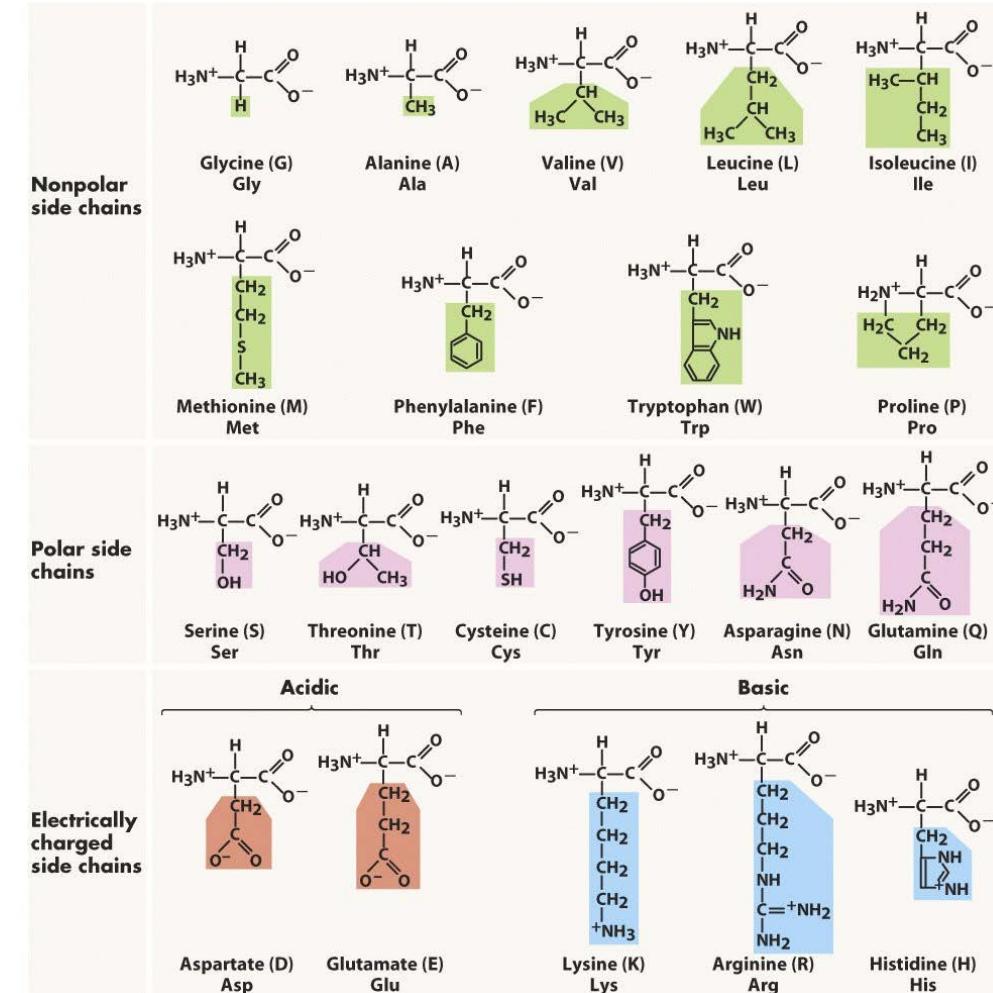
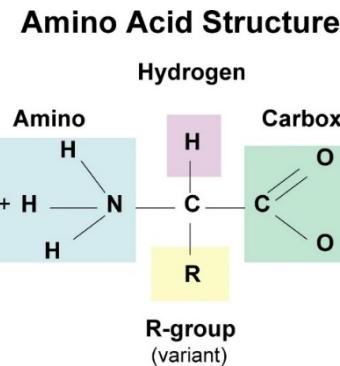
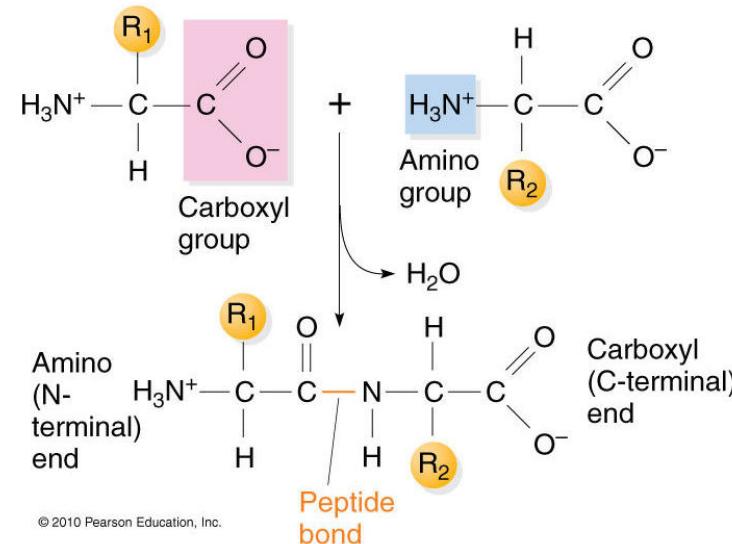
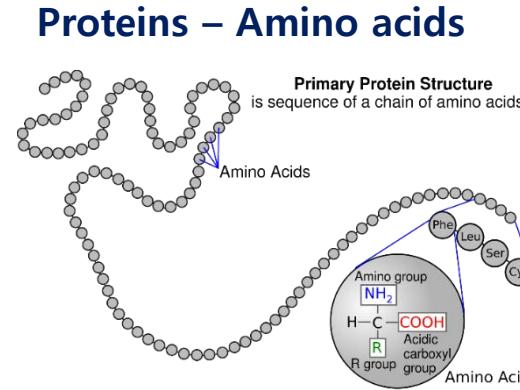




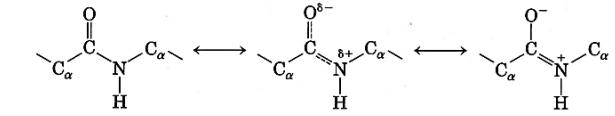
Protein Synthesis



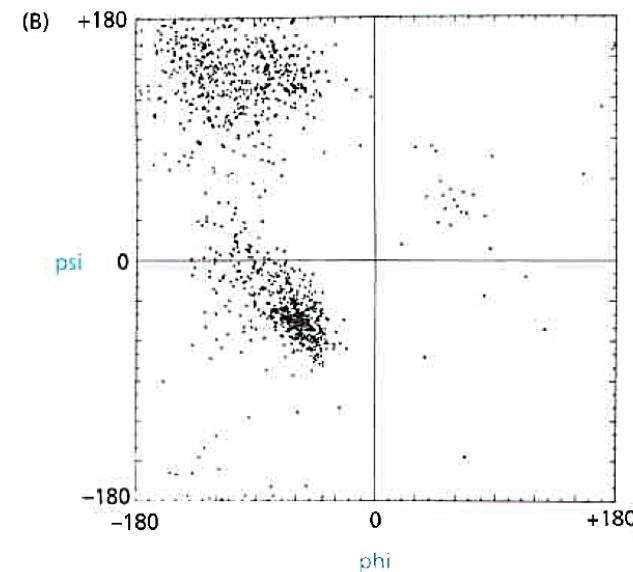
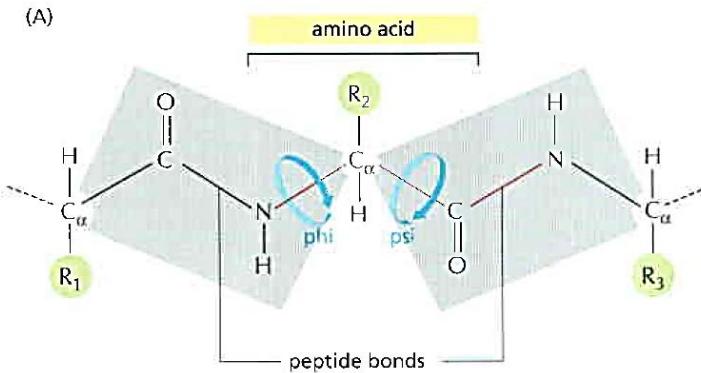
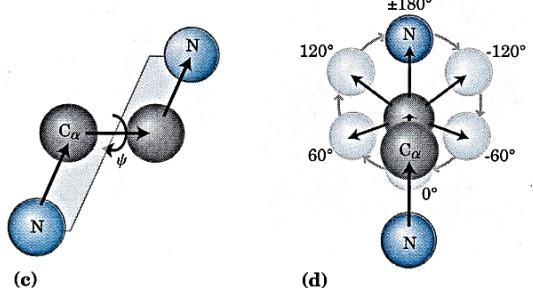
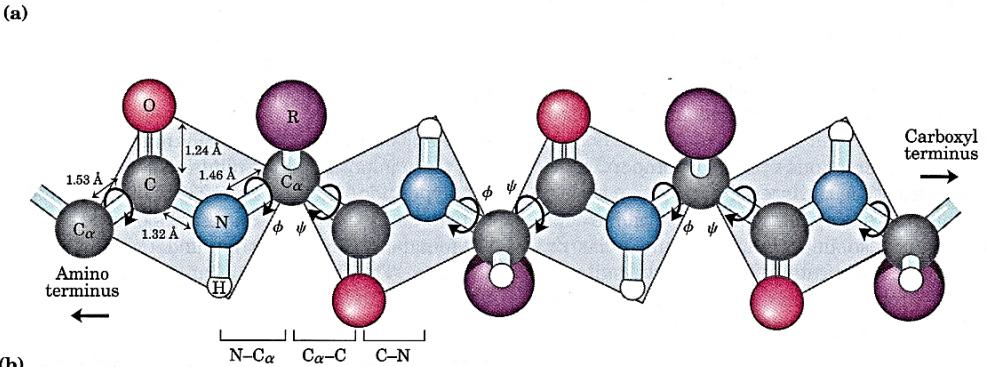
Amino Acid - Building Block of Protein



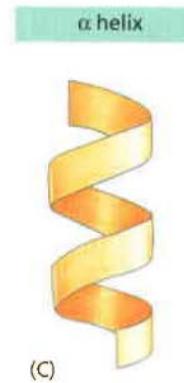
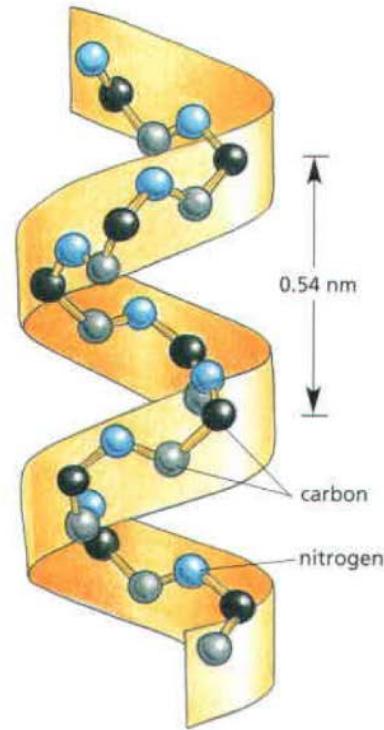
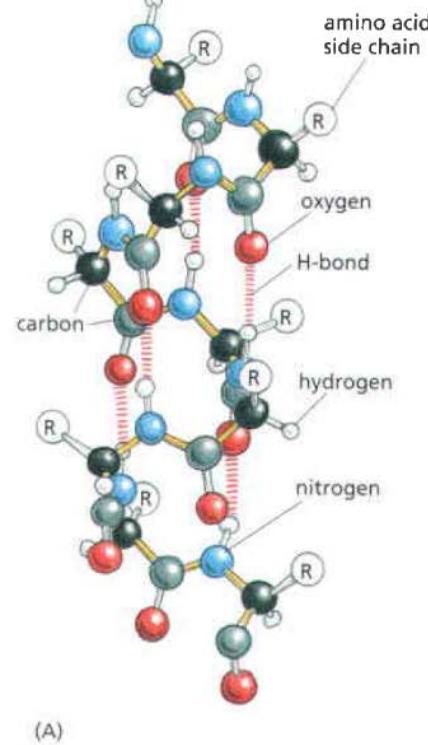
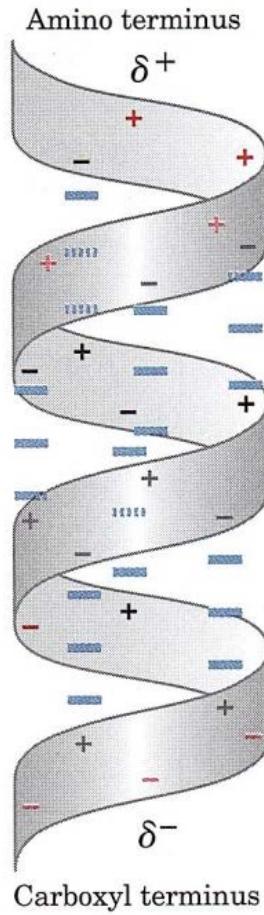
Determinant of Protein Conformation



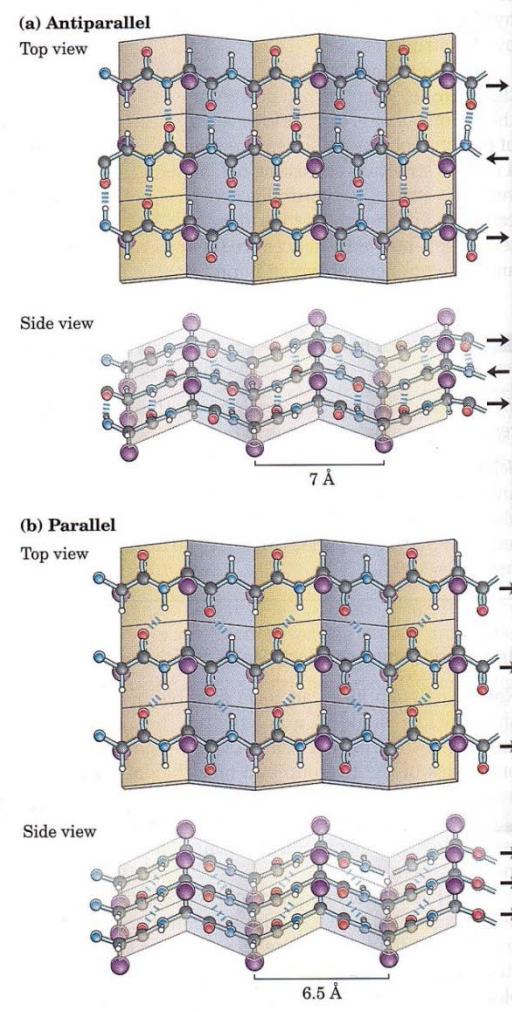
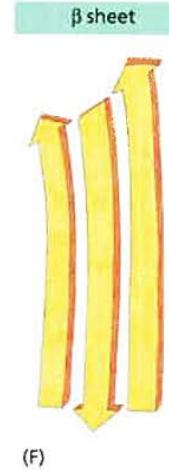
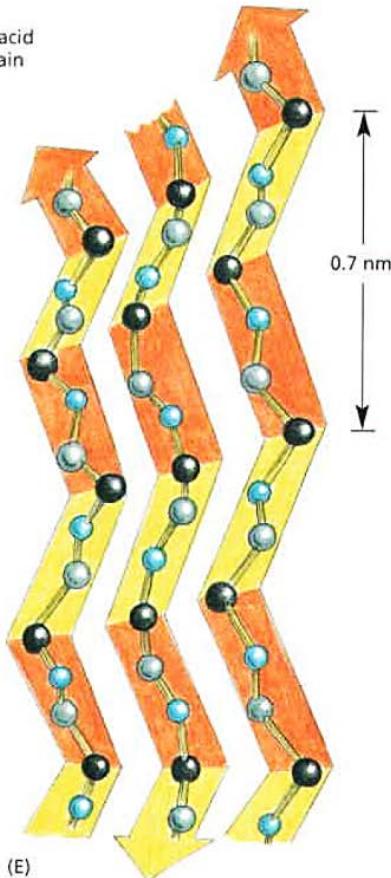
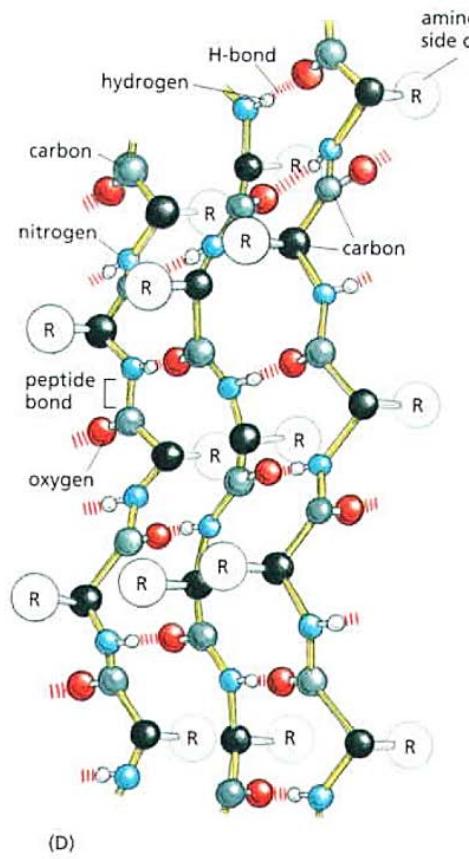
The carbonyl oxygen has a partial negative charge and the amide nitrogen a partial positive charge, setting up a small electric dipole. Virtually all peptide bonds in proteins occur in this trans configuration; an exception is noted in Figure 4-7b.



Protein Structure - α -Helix



Protein Structure - β -Pleated Sheet



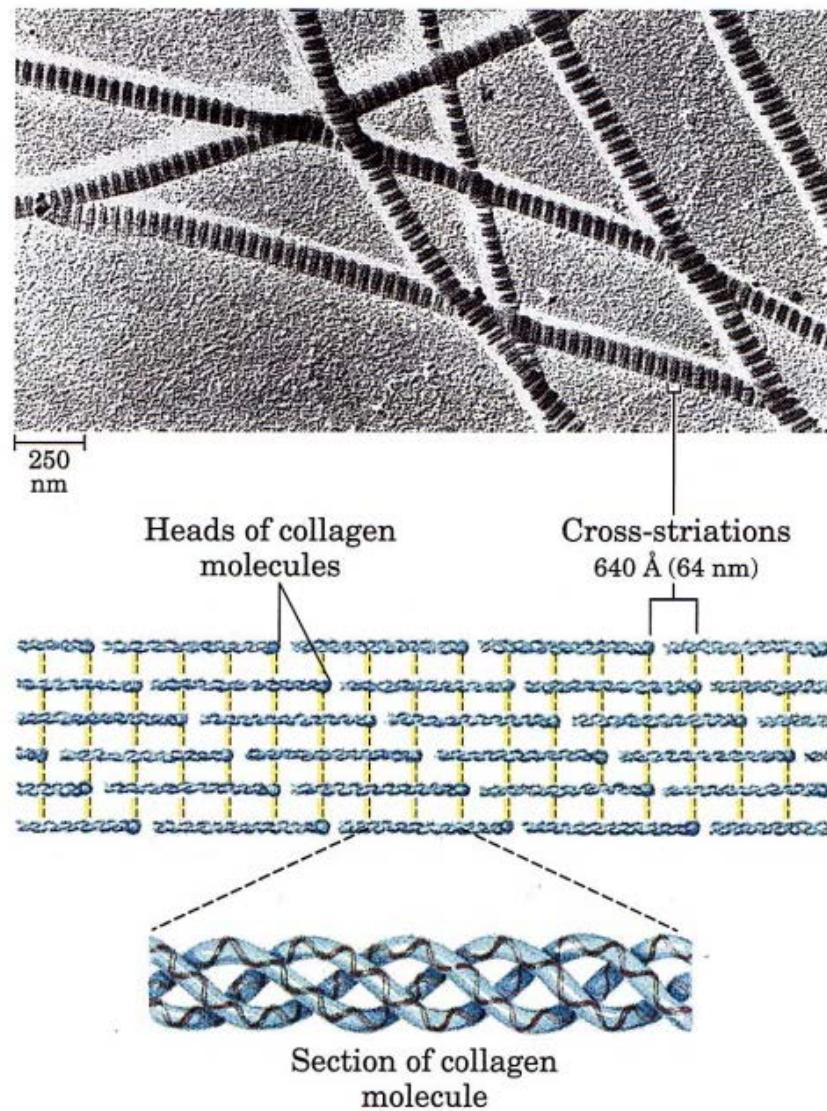
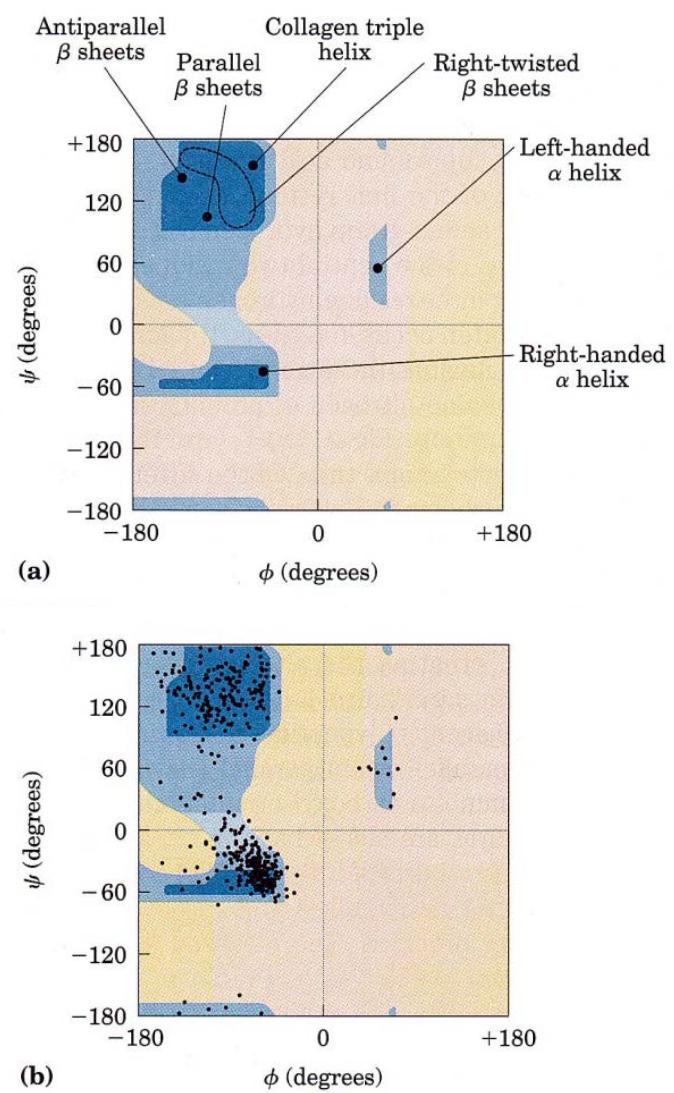
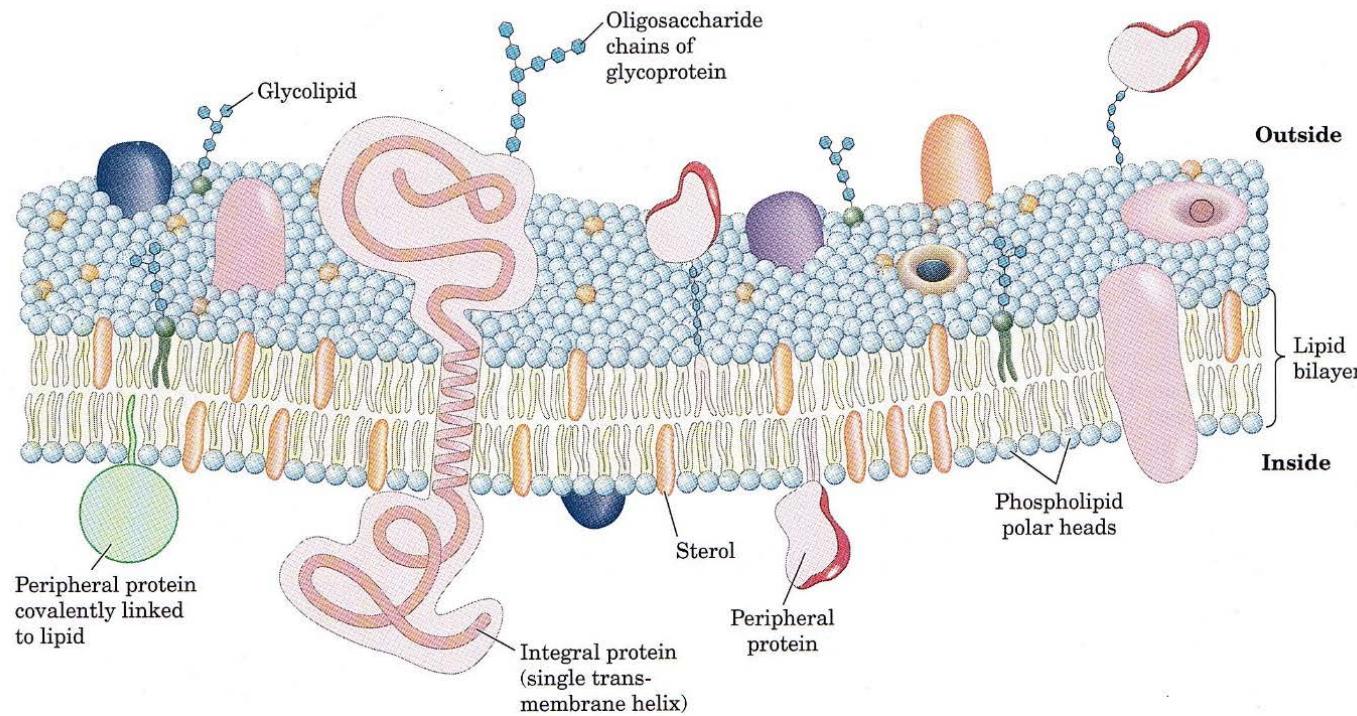


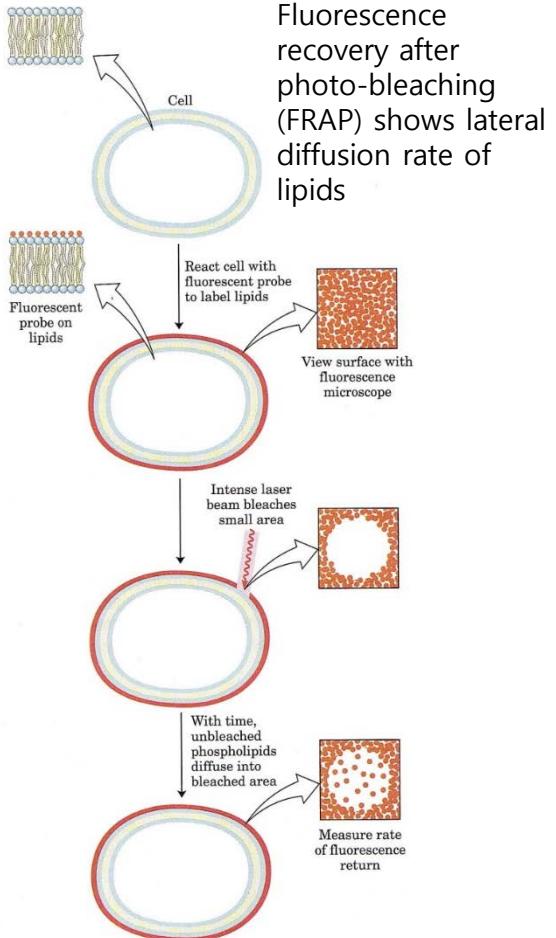
FIGURE 4–12 Structure of collagen. The collagen molecule is a rod-shaped molecule, about 1 nm in diameter, consisting of three helically intertwined α helices. Each α helix has about 1,000 amino acid residues. Three α helices form a collagen triple helix, which is stabilized by interactions between the molecules. A large number of collagen molecules align laterally to form a fiber. The specific arrangement of the molecules produces the characteristic cross-striations seen in the electron micrograph. In the example shown here, every fourth molecule is labeled.

Cell structure

Membrane Structure - Fluid Mosaic Model



The individual lipid and protein units in a membrane form a fluid mosaic with a pattern that is free to change constantly



Osmolarity

Semi-permeable membrane

- A membrane that allows some molecules to pass through but not others
 (=selectively permeable membrane)

Osmosis

- Water movement across a semipermeable membrane driven by differences in osmotic pressure

Isotonic

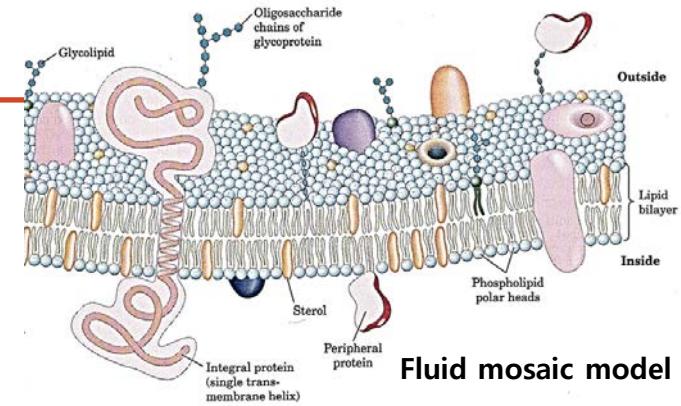
- Solutions of osmolarity equal to that of a cell's cytosol

Hypertonic

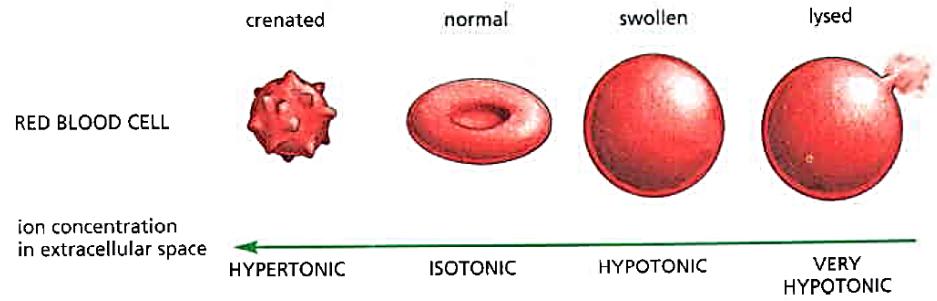
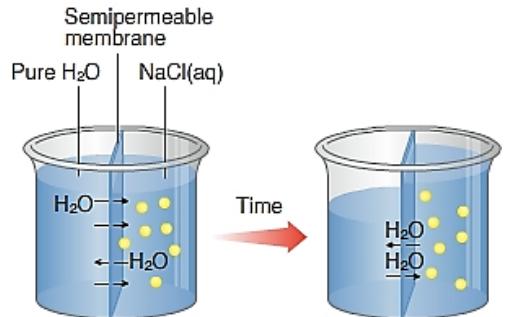
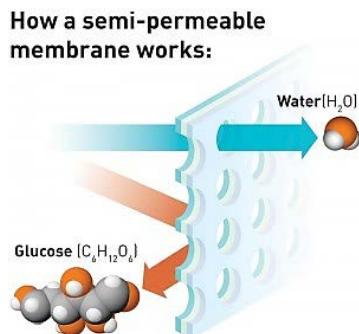
- Solution with higher osmolarity than that of the cytosol

Hypotonic

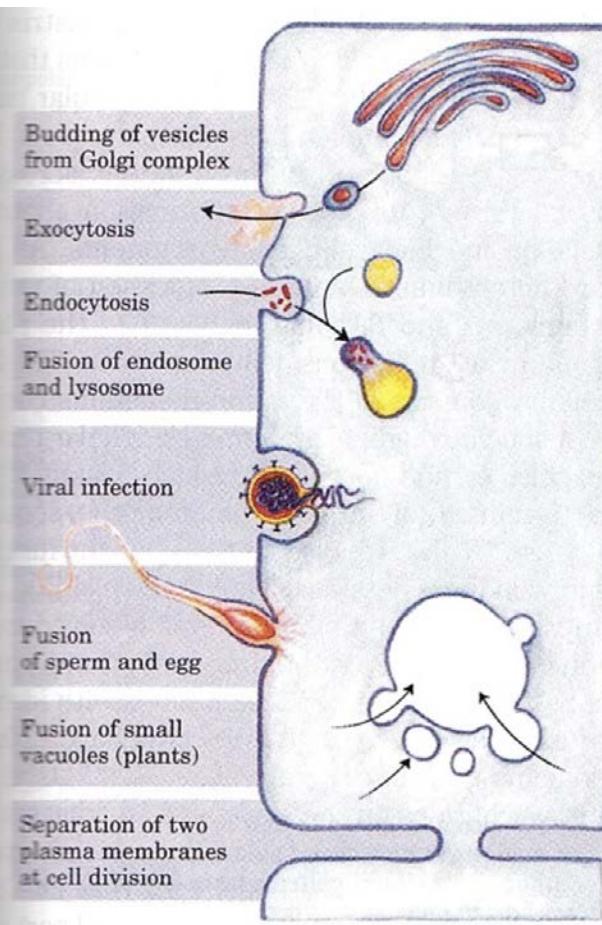
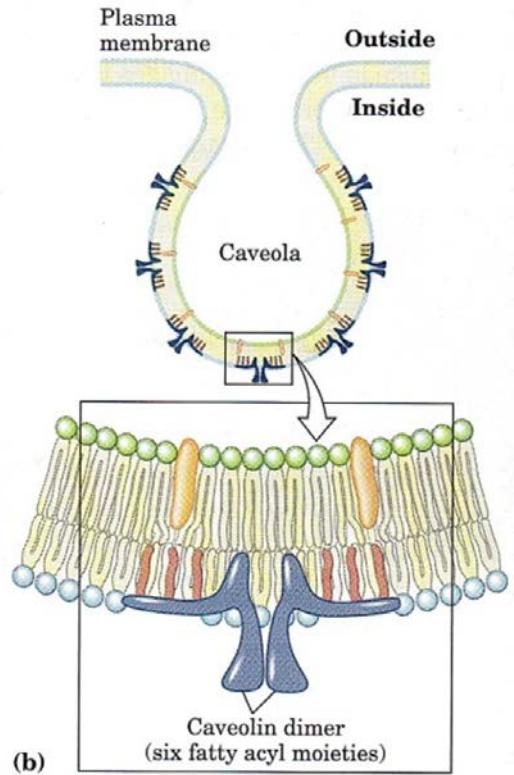
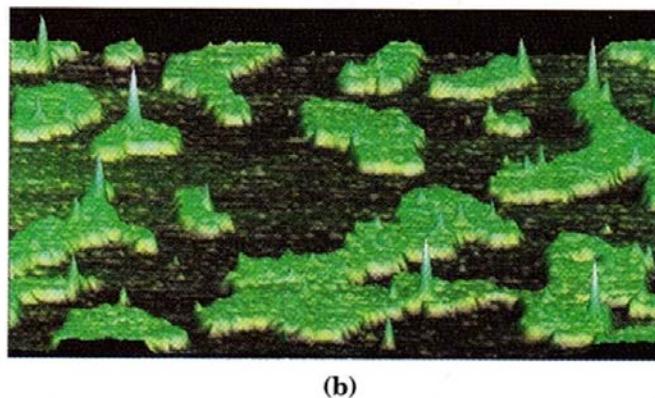
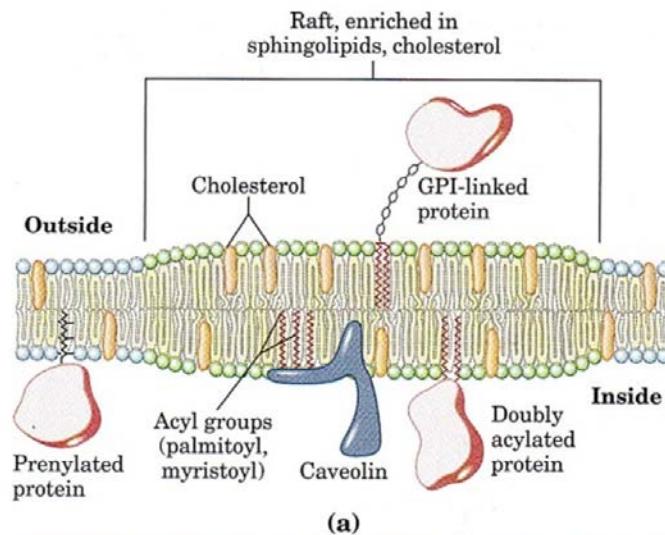
- Solution with lower osmolarity than the cytosol

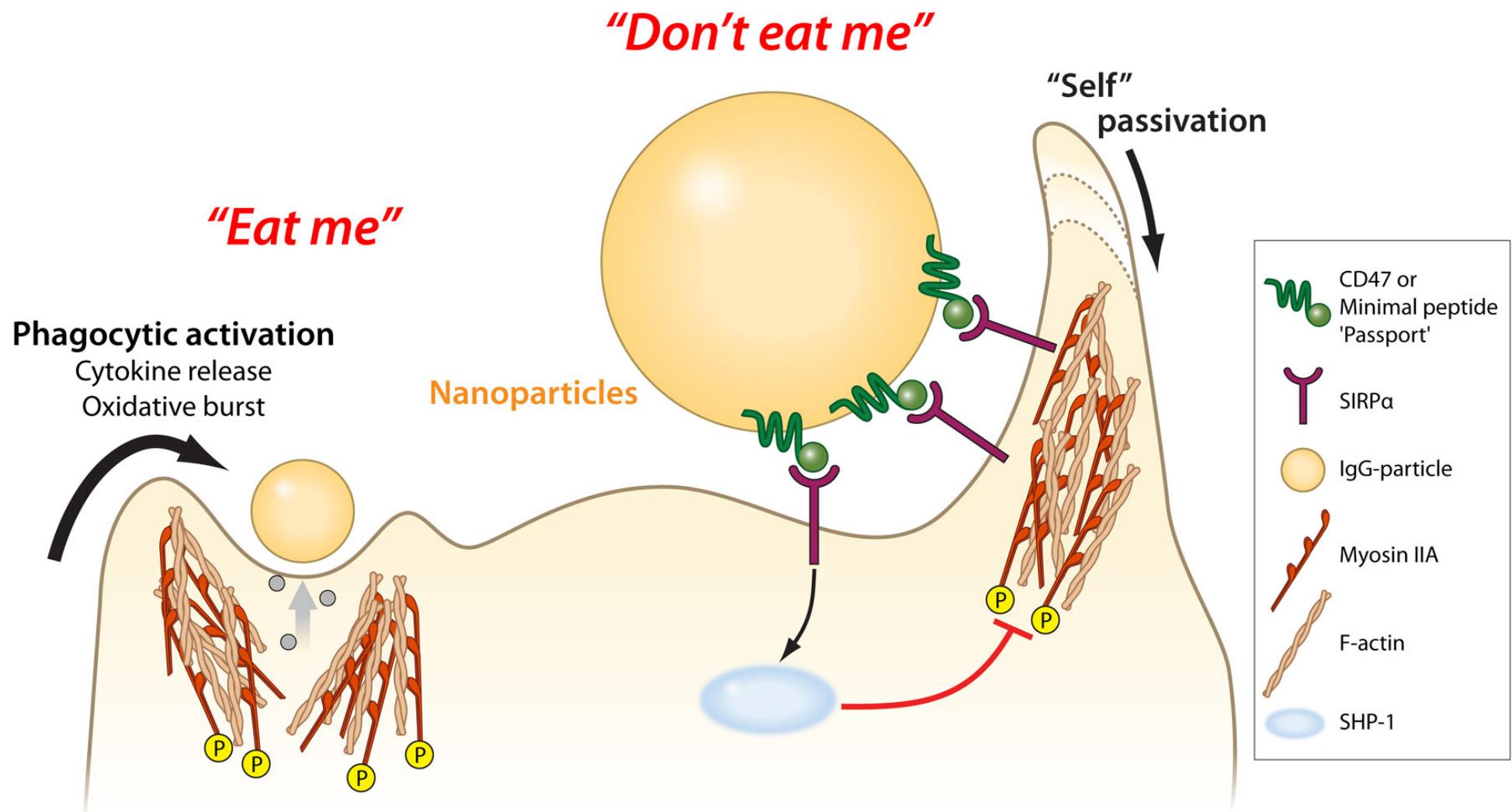


Fluid mosaic model

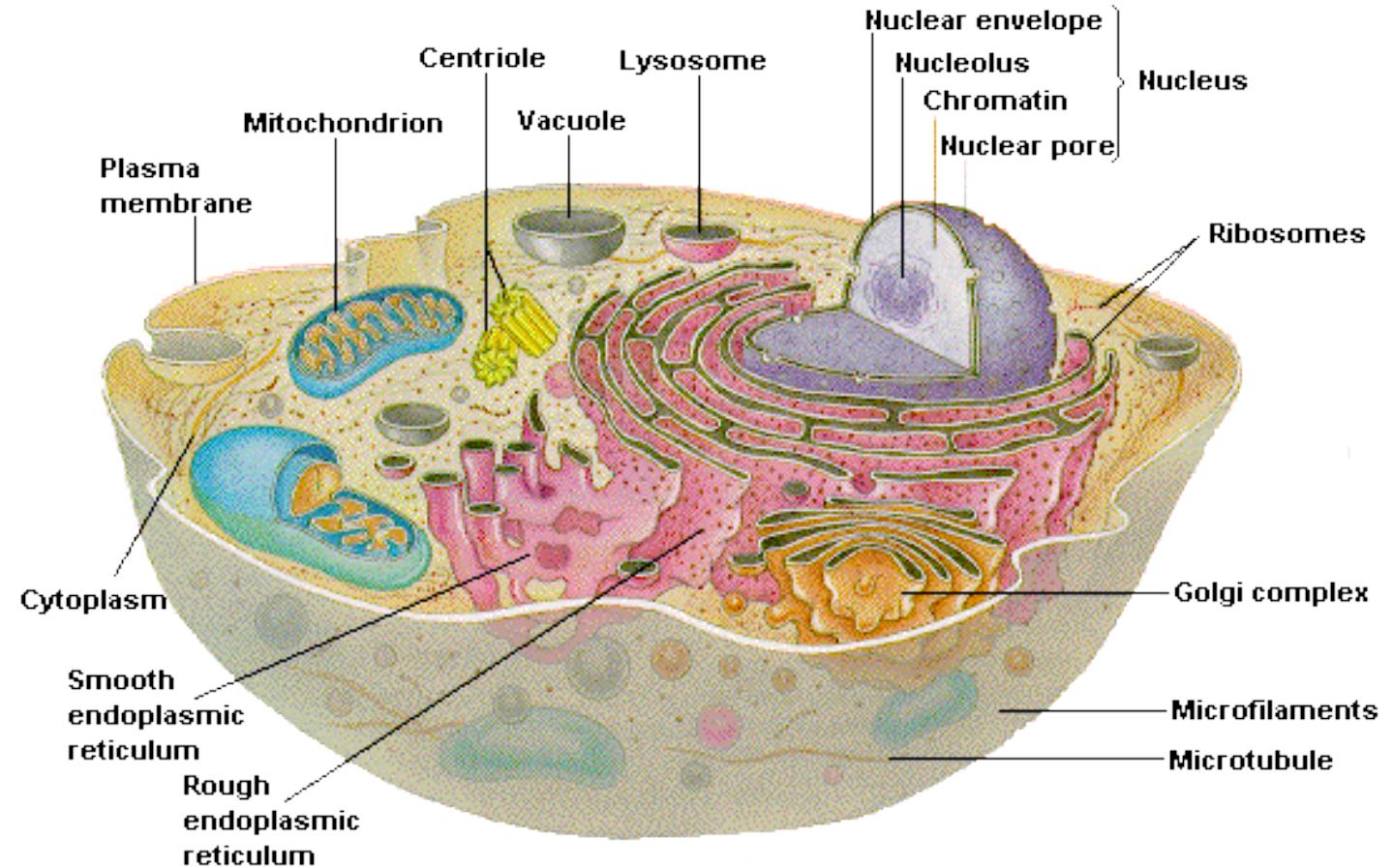


Membrane micro-domains (Rafts)

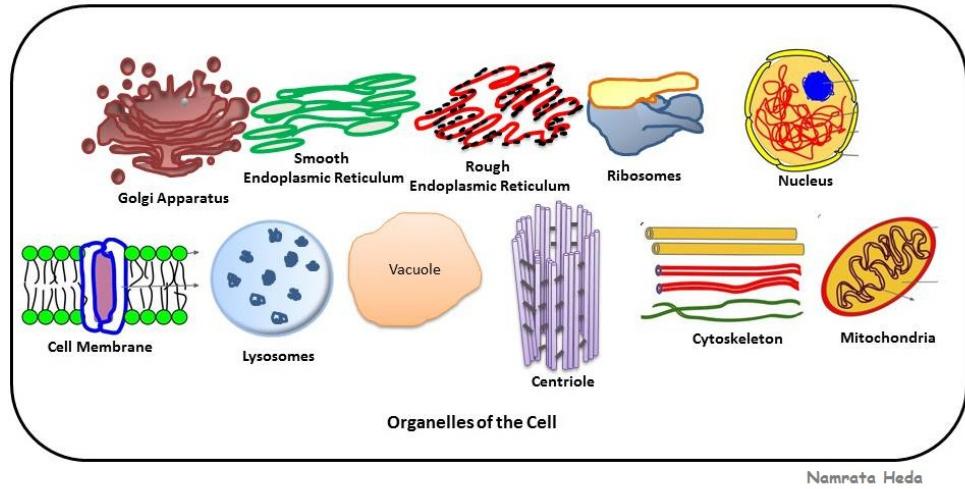




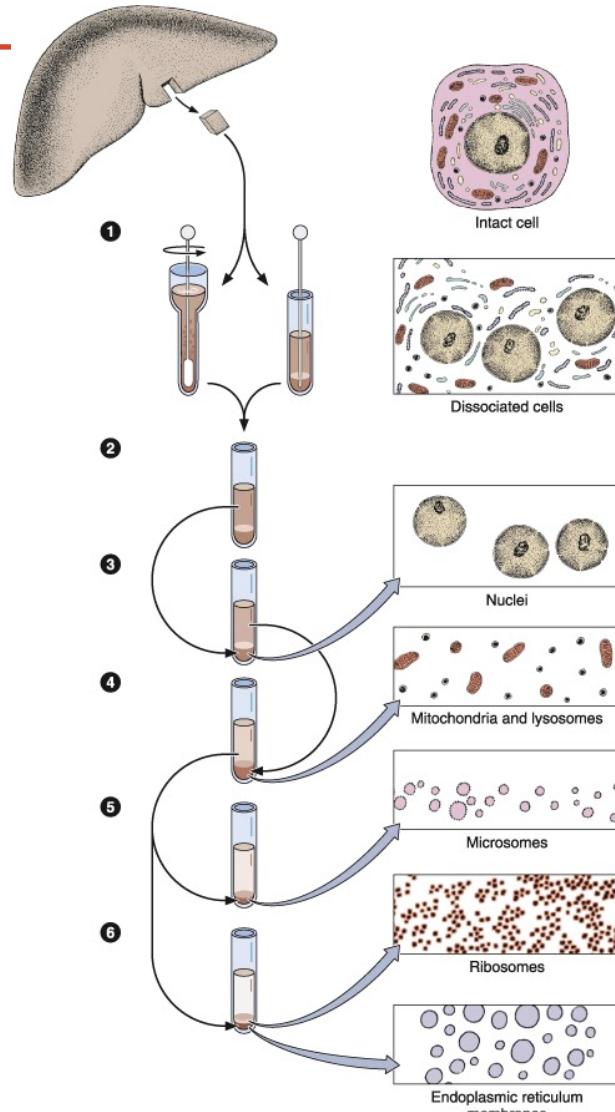
Cell Organelles



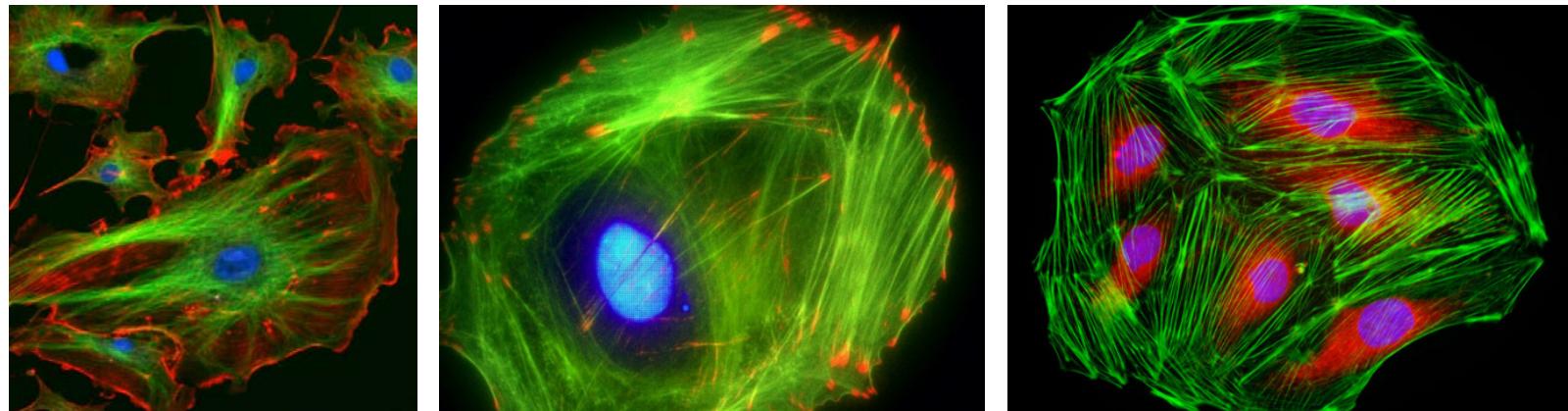
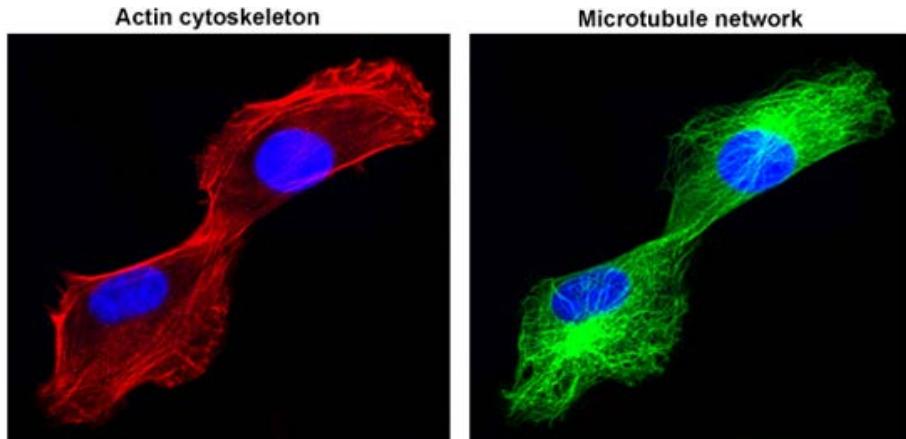
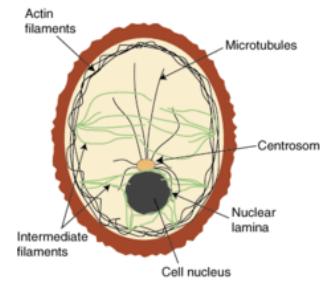
Cell Organelles

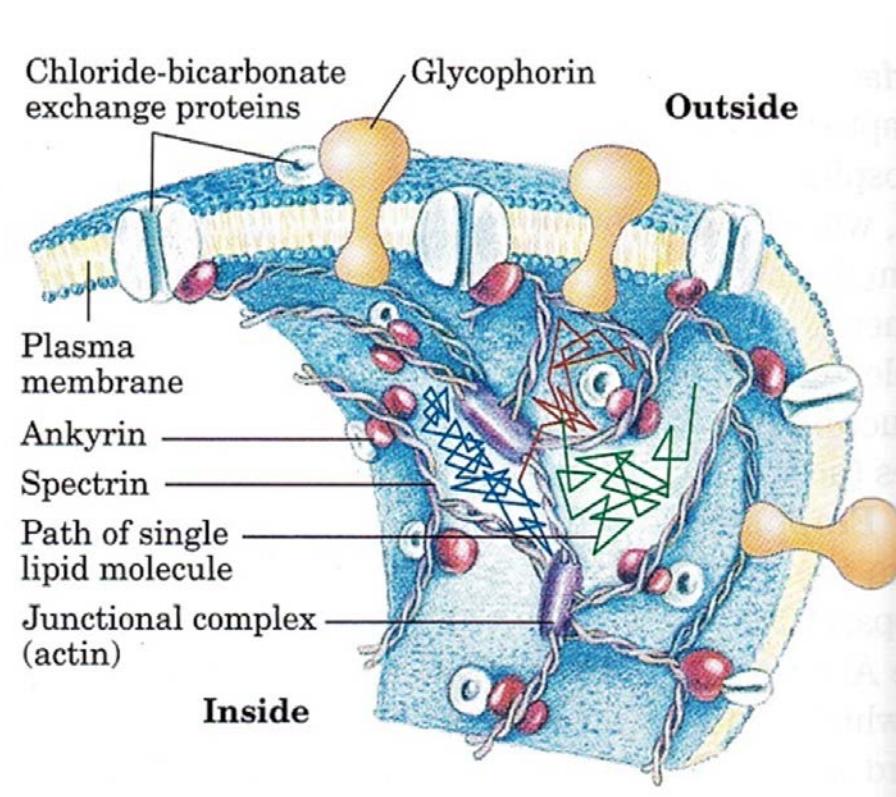
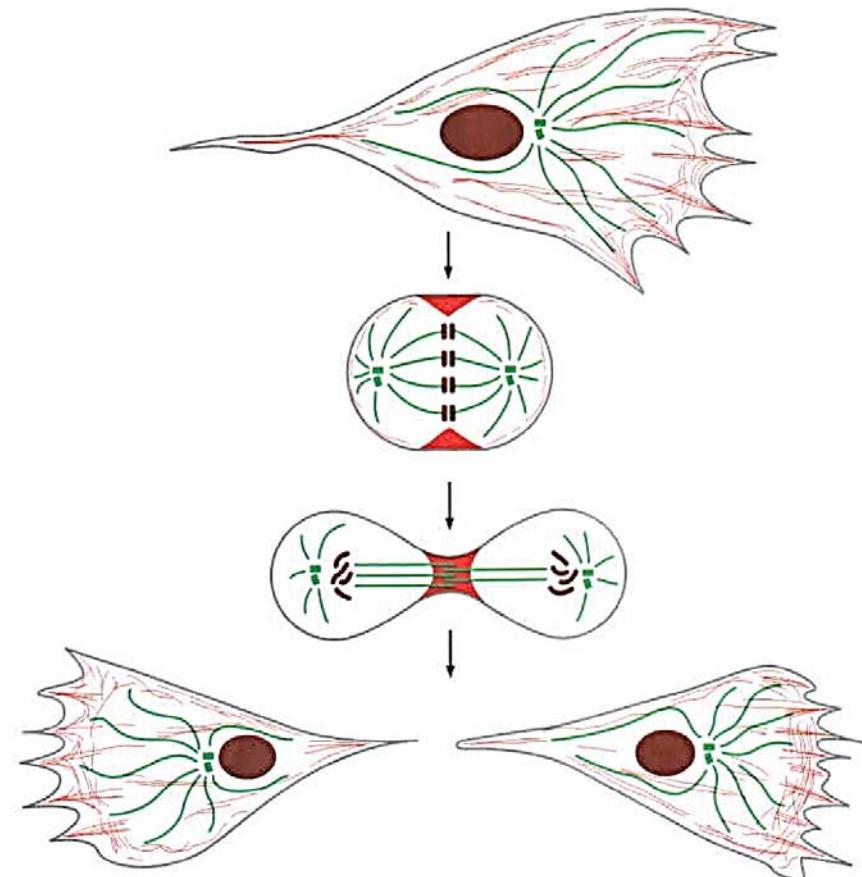


1. **Cell Membrane** - Robert Hooke in 1665 first view the cells under the microscope and hence, he is credited with the discovery of cell membrane.
2. **Centriole** - Discovered by Edouard Van Beneden in 1883 and was described and coined by Theodor Boveri in 1888.
3. **Centrosome** - Discovered by Edouard Van Beneden in 1883 and was described and coined by Theodor Boveri in 1888.
4. **Cytoskeleton** - Nikolai K Koltsov in 1903 proposed that the shape of the cell is determined by the tubular network, the cytoskelton. However, the word was introduced and coined by Paul Wintrebert in 1931 (in French, *cytosquelette*).
 - i. **Microtubules** - De Robertis and Franchi discovered microtubules in 1953 in nerve cell and later Sabatani, Bansch, Barnette in 1963 explained the structure of microtubule.
 - ii. **Microfilament/Actin Filaments** - Edward David Korn discovered microfilament in 1968 in *Acanthamoeba castellanii*.
 - iii. **Intermediate Filaments** - The group of Howard Holtzer in 1968 discovered intermediate filaments.
5. **Cytosol** - Discovered in 1835 and no single scientist can be accredited to its discovery.
6. **Golgi Apparatus** - Camillo Golgi identified it in 1897 and named after him in 1898.
7. **Lysosomes** - Discovered by Christian de Duve in 1949 (or 1950s).
8. **Mitochondria** - Albert von Kollar studied mitochondria in muscle cell in 1857; Richard Altmann first recognized them as cell organelle in 1894; Term "mitochondria" coined by Carl Benda in 1898.
9. **Nucleus** - Robert Brown discovered cell nucleus in 1833.
10. **Ribosomes** - Discovered by George Palade in 1955.
11. **Endoplasmic Reticulum** - Albert Claude in Belgium and Keith Porter at Rockefeller Institute in 1945.
12. **Vacuole** - Antony van Leeuwenhoek is credited with discovery of vacuole when he was studying bacteria in late 1500s or early 1600s.



Cytoskeleton





Introduction on Cell Biology

Distinguishing Features of Living Organisms

A high degree of chemical complexity and microscopic organization

화학적, 구조적 복잡성

Systems for extracting, transforming, and using energy from the environment

에너지 대사

Defined functions for each of an organism's components and regulated interactions among them

거시적 & 미시적 기능 분화 요소

Mechanisms for sensing and responding to alterations in their surroundings

환경 변화에 대한 반응(적응)

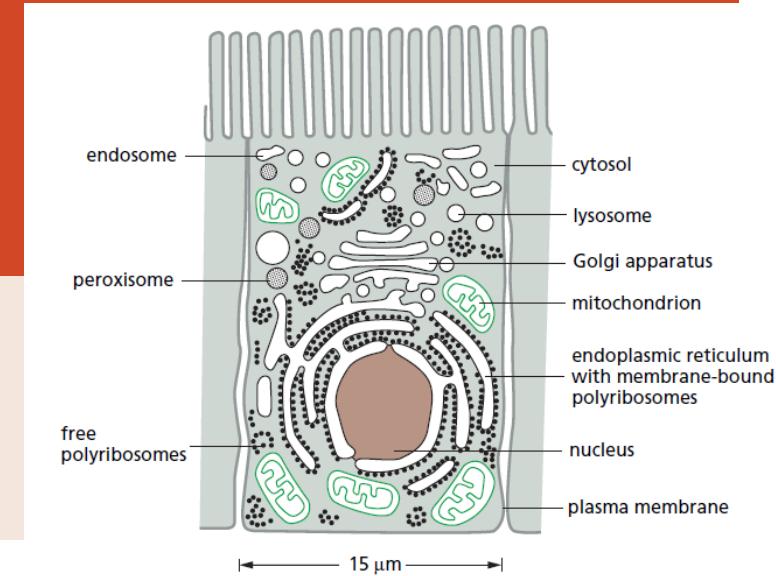
A capacity for precise self-replication and self-assembly

자기 복제 능력

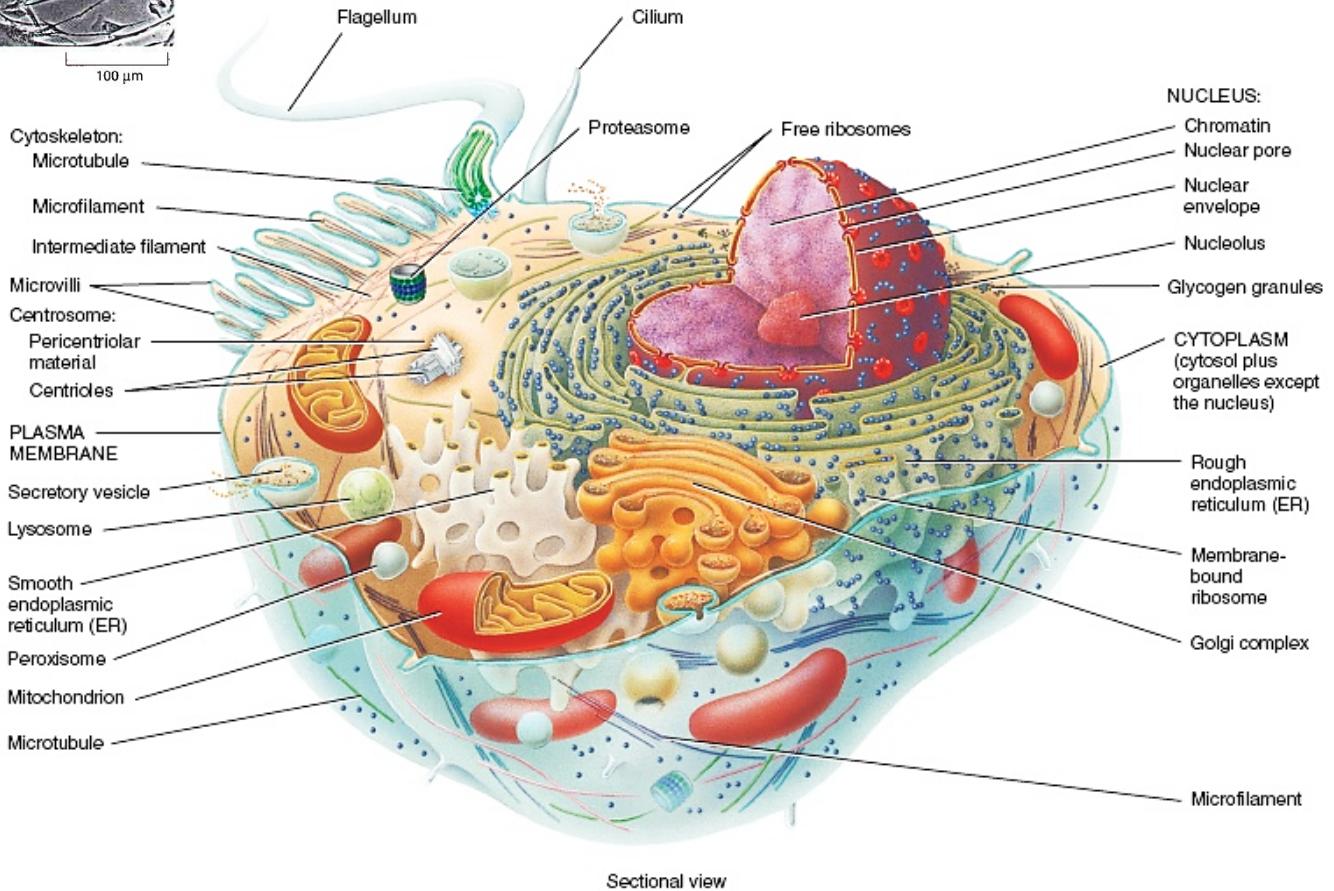
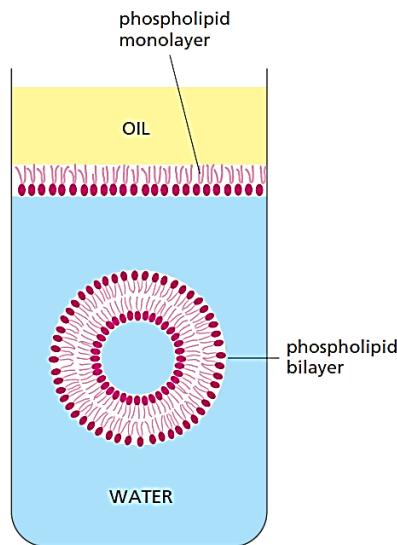
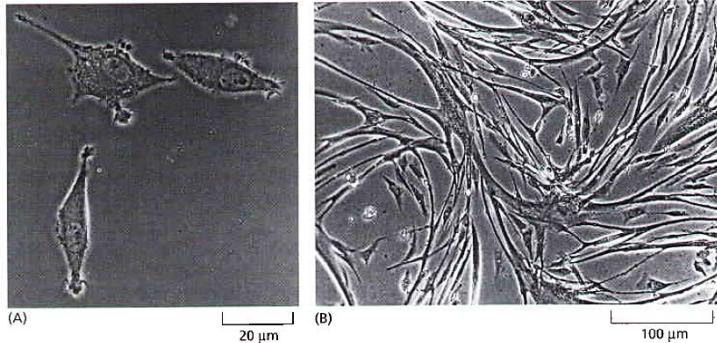
A capacity to change over time by gradual evolution

진화 능력

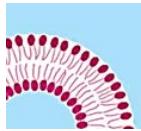
Internal organization of the cell



Universal Features of Living Cells



Cell Organelles

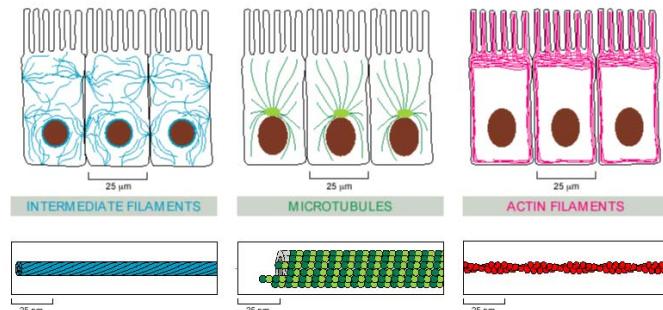


Cell Membrane - Robert Hooke in 1665 first view the cells under the microscope and hence, he is credited with the discovery of cell membrane.



Cytosol - Discovered in 1835 and no single scientist can be accredited to its discovery.

Centriole - Discovered by Edouard Van Beneden in 1883 and was described and coined by Theodor Boveri in 1888.

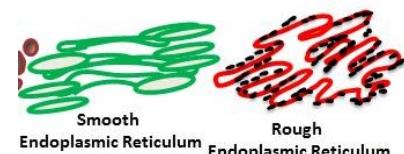


Cytoskeleton - Nikolai K Koltsov in 1903 proposed that the shape of the cell is determined by the tubular network, the cytoskelton. However, the word was introduced and coined by Paul Wintrebert in 1931 (in French, *cytosquelette*).

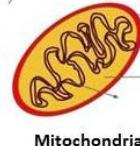
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Endoplasmic Reticulum - Albert Claude in Belgium and Keith Porter at Rockefeller Institue in 1945.



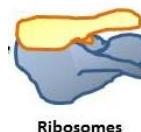
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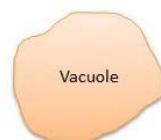
Golgi Apparatus - Camillo Golgi identified it in 1897 and named after him in 1898.



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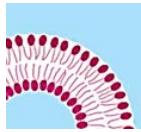


Ribosomes -Discovered by George Palade in 1955.



Vacuole - Antony van Leeuwenhoek is credited with discovery of vacuole when he was studying bacteria in late 1500s or early 1600s.

Cell Organelles



Cell Membrane

Composed of lipid bilayer

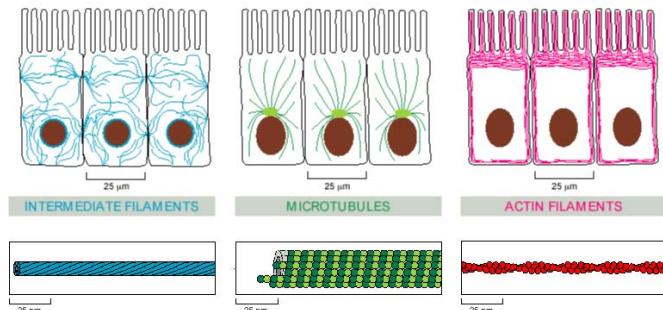
Compartmentalize (special, functional separation)



Cytosol Intracellular field composed of cytosolic fluid where the biochemical reactions are occurring

Centriole A cylindrical cell structure composed mainly of a protein called tubulin

Centrioles are involved in the organization of the mitotic spindle and in the completion of cytokinesis. The centrioles can self replicate during cell division.

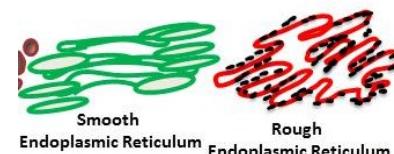


Cytoskeleton System of protein filaments in the cytoplasm of a eukaryotic cell that gives the cell shape and the capacity for directed movement. Its most abundant components are actin filaments, microtubules, and intermediate filaments

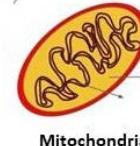
- Microtubules** Long hollow cylindrical structure composed of the protein tubulin
- Microfilament/Actin Filaments** Helical protein filament formed by polymerization of globular actin molecules. A major constituent of the cytoskeleton of all eukaryotic cells and part of the contractile apparatus of skeletal muscle.
- Intermediate Filaments** Fibrous protein filament that forms rope-like networks in animal cells. One of the three most prominent types of cytoskeletal filaments.



Lysosomes Membrane-bound organelle in eukaryotic cells containing digestive enzymes, which are typically most active at the acid pH found in the lumen of lysosomes.



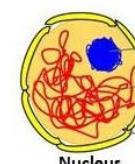
Endoplasmic Reticulum Labyrinthine membrane-bound compartment in the cytoplasm of eukaryotic cells, where lipids and proteins are synthesized.



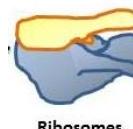
Mitochondria described as "the powerhouse of the cell" because they generate most of the cell's supply of adenosine triphosphate (ATP), used as a source of chemical energy.



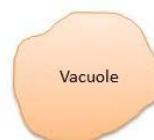
Golgi Apparatus Major site of carbohydrate synthesis as well as a sorting and dispatching station for products of ER – Proteins and Lipids



Nucleus Prominent membrane-bound organelle in eukaryotic cells, containing DNA organized into chromosomes

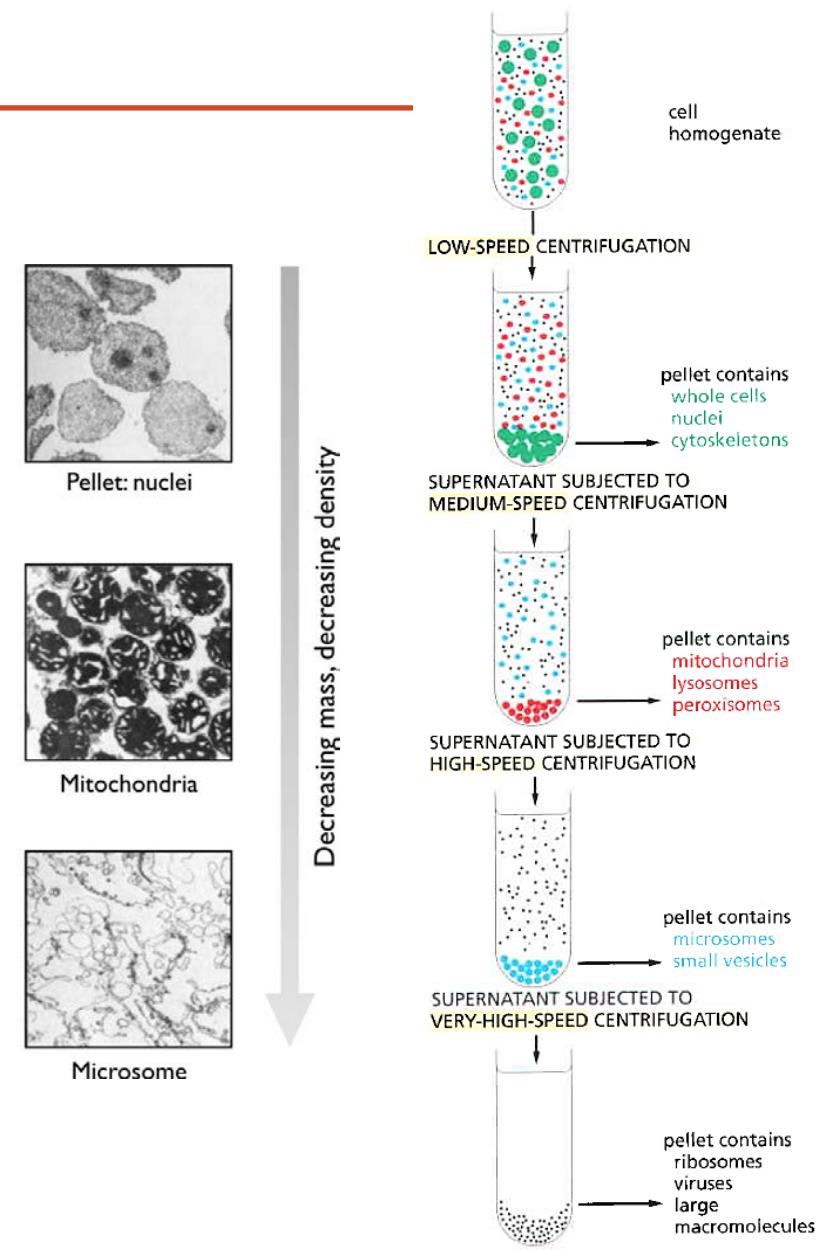
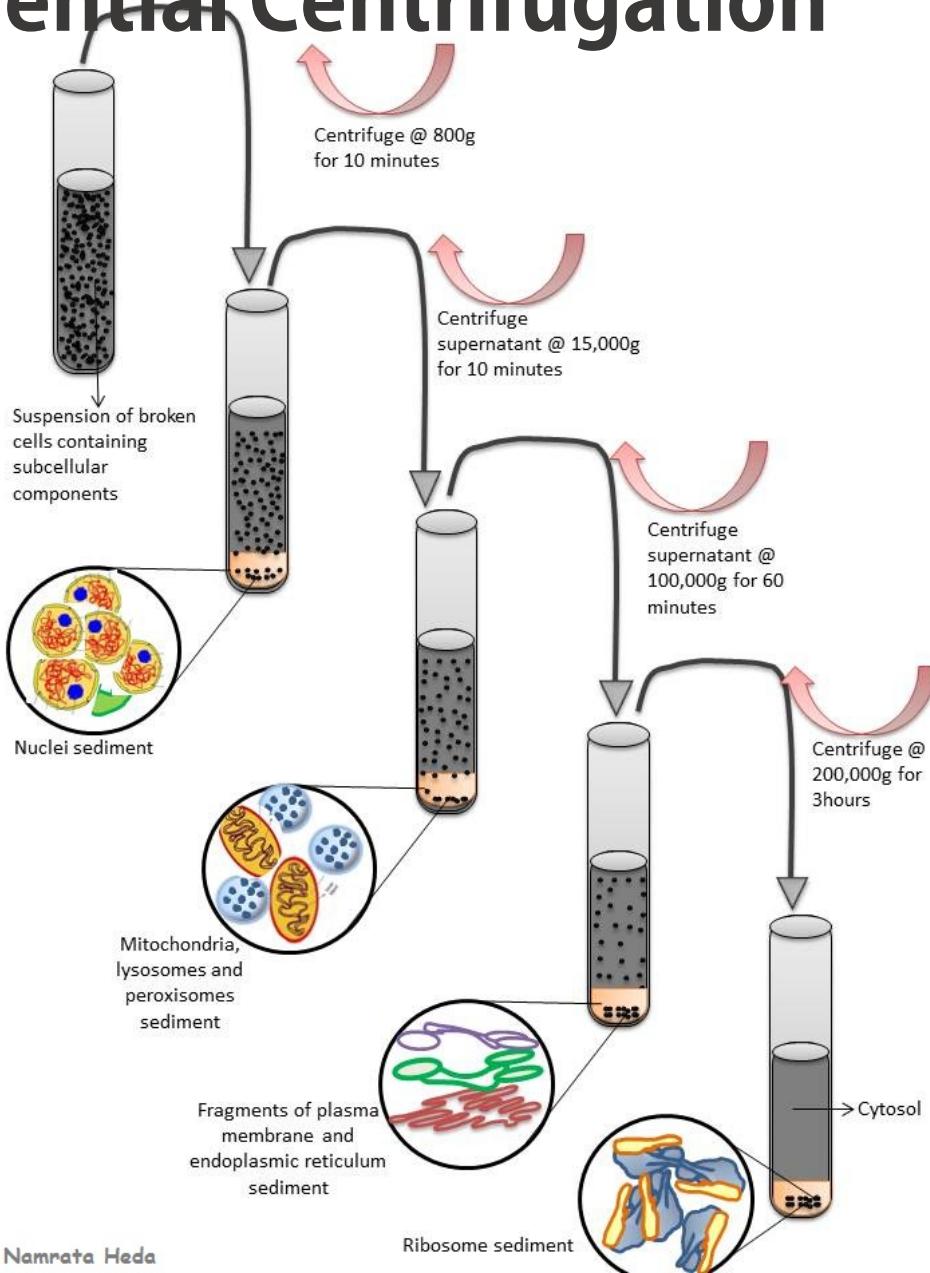


Ribosomes Particle composed of rRNA and ribosomal proteins that catalyzes the synthesis of protein using information provided by mRNA



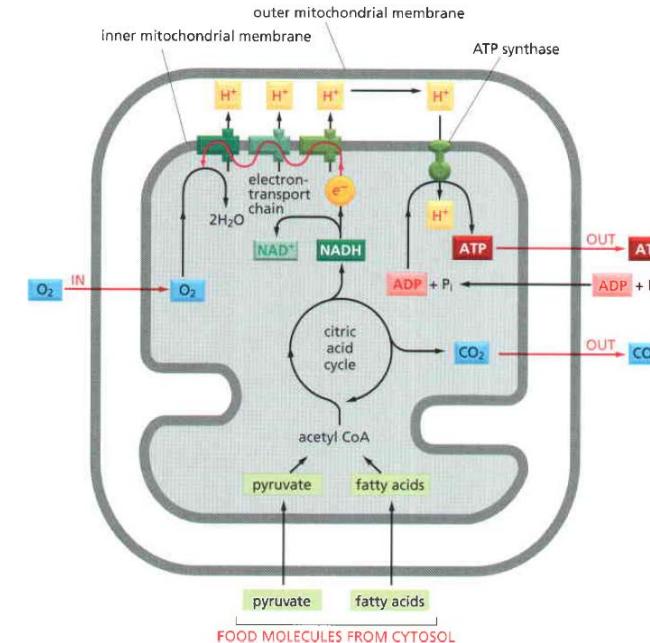
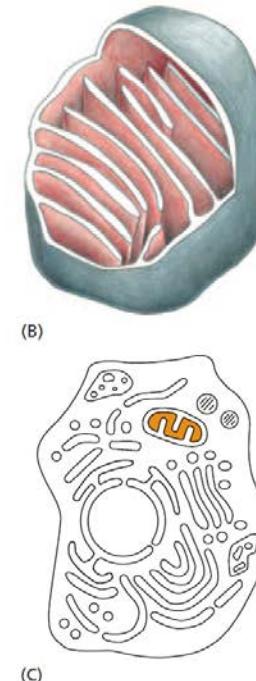
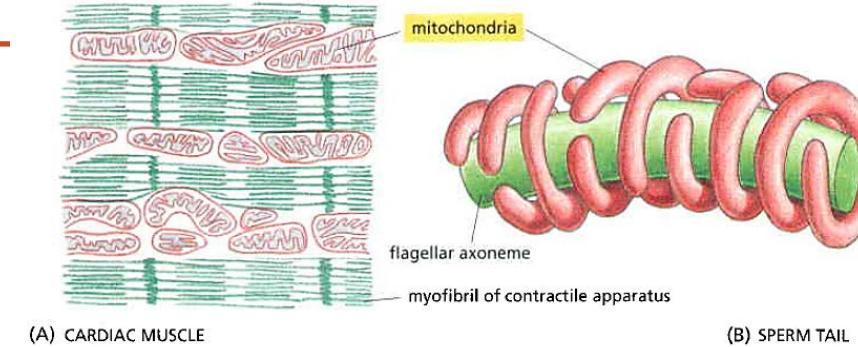
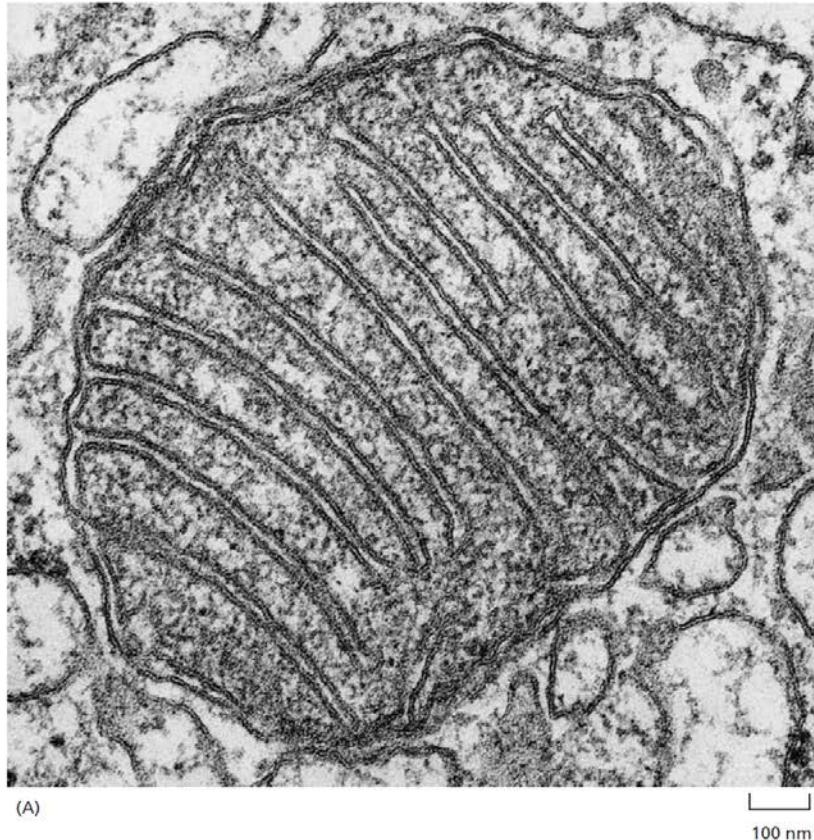
Vacuole Very large fluid-filled vesicle found in most plant and fungal cells, typically occupying more than a third of the cell's volume

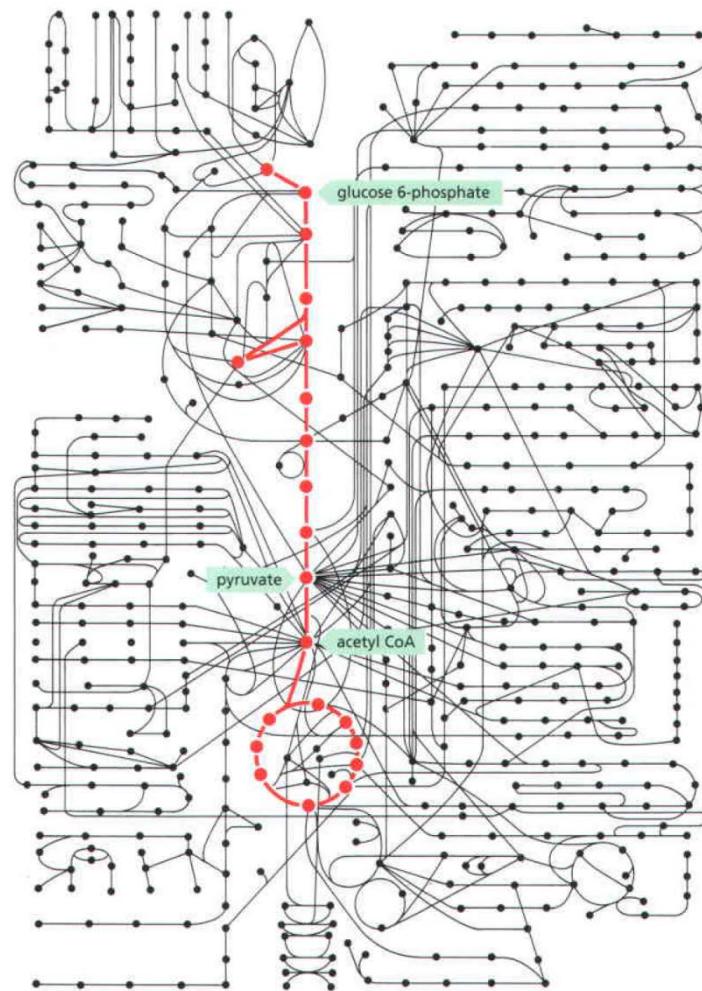
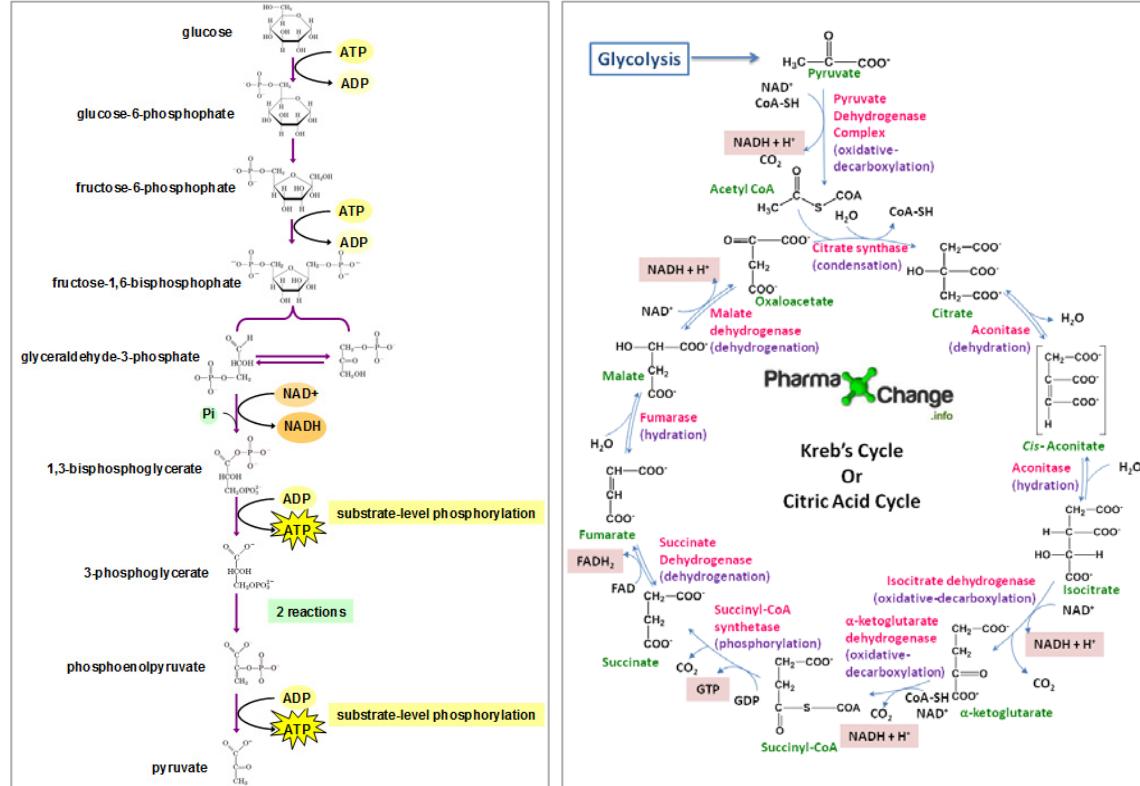
Differential Centrifugation



Functional Aspect of Cell Organelles

Mitochondria



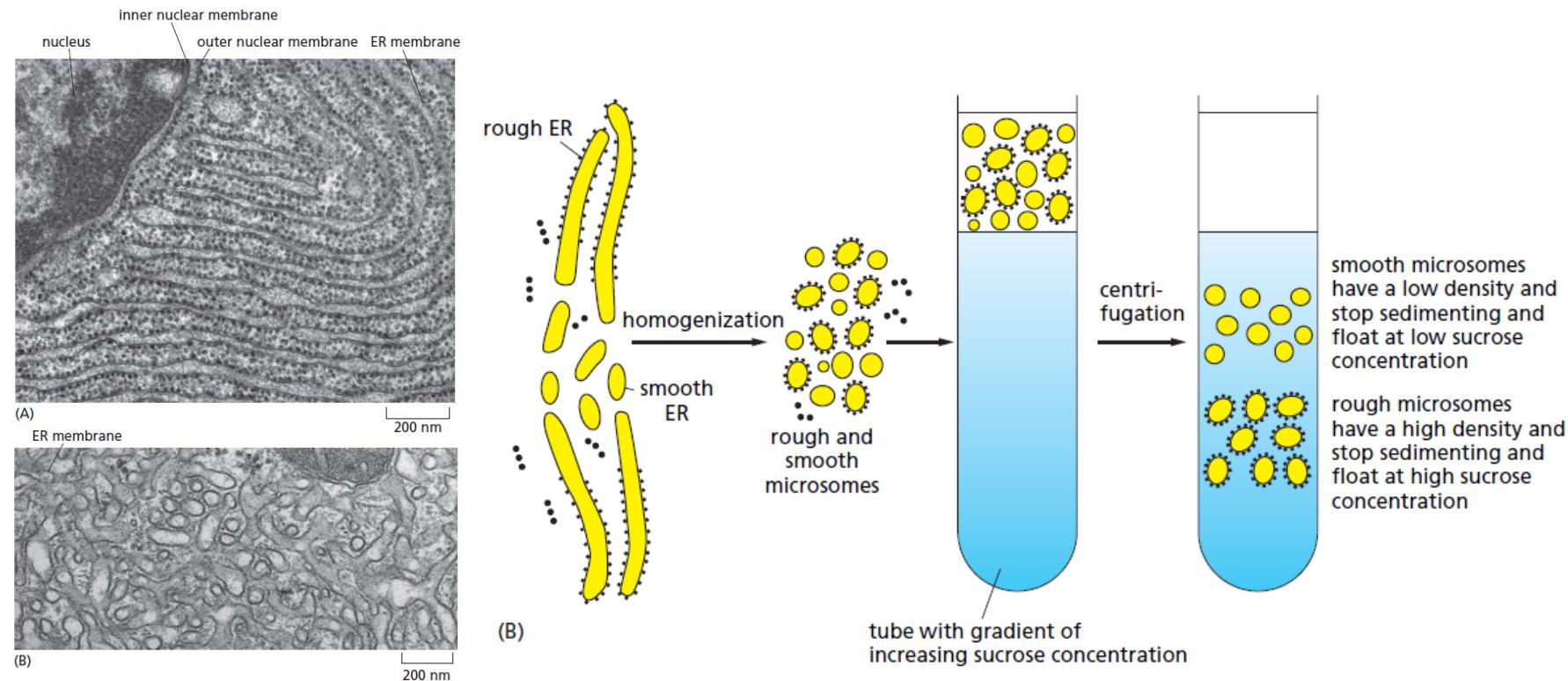


Endoplasmic Reticulum - RER & SER

Smooth ER Regions of ER that lack bound ribosomes

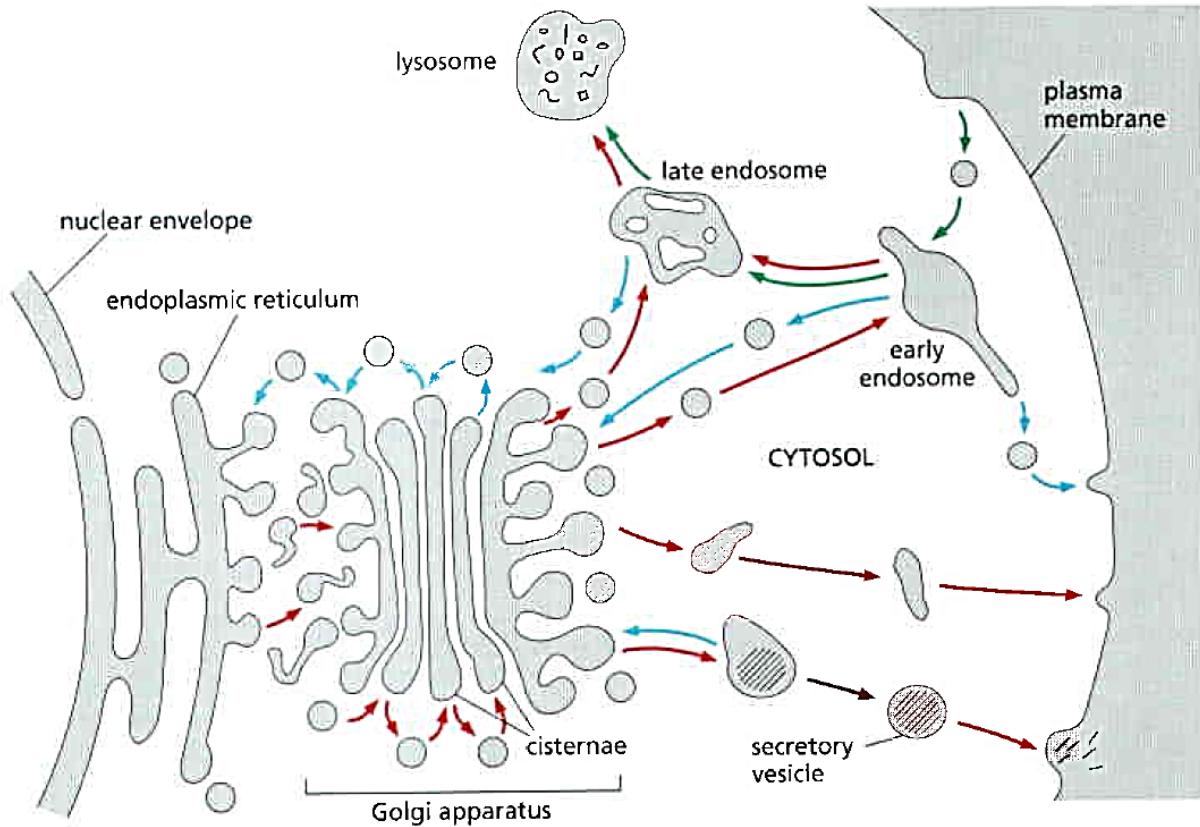
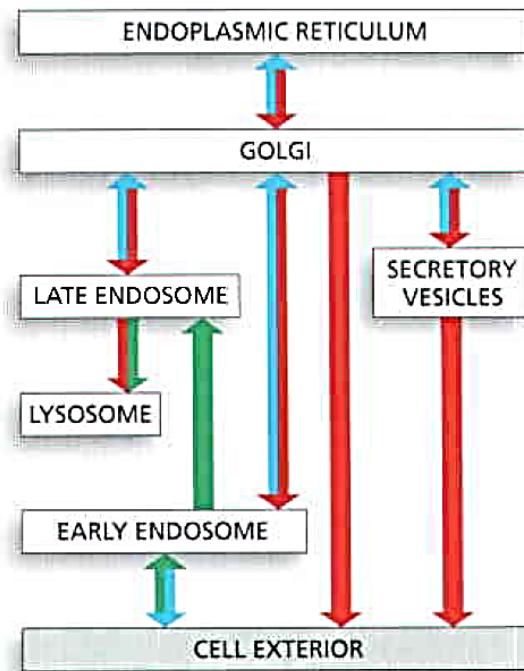
Hepatocytes has abundant *smooth ER*, which is the principal site of production of lipoprotein particles that carry lipids via the blood stream to other parts of the body.

The enzymes that synthesize the lipid components of the particles are located in the membrane of the smooth ER.

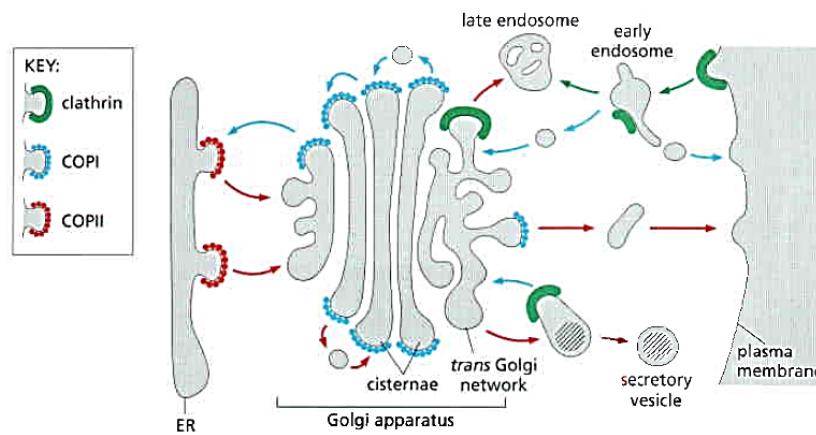


ER to Golgi Apparatus - Vesicular Traffic

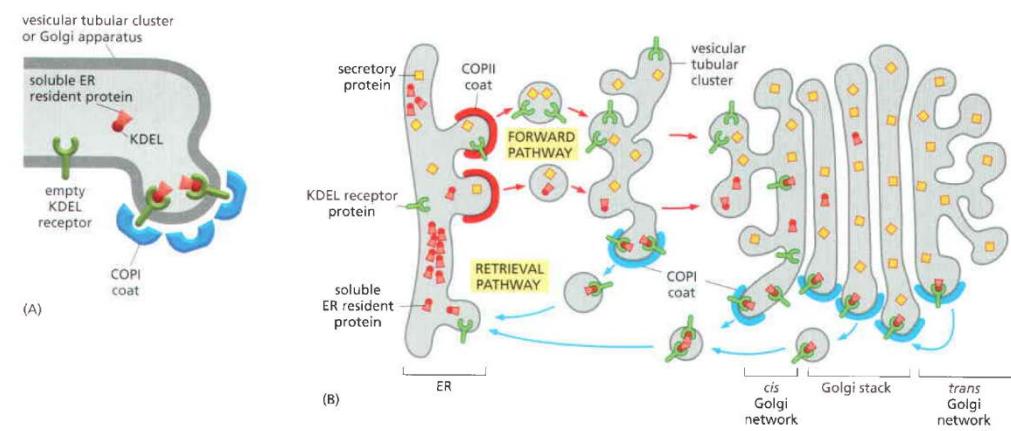
A road map of the biosynthetic-secretory and endocytic pathways



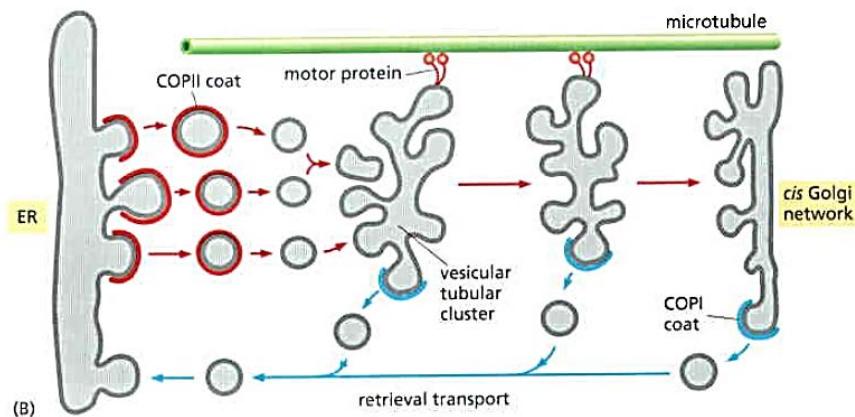
Use of different coats in vesicular traffic



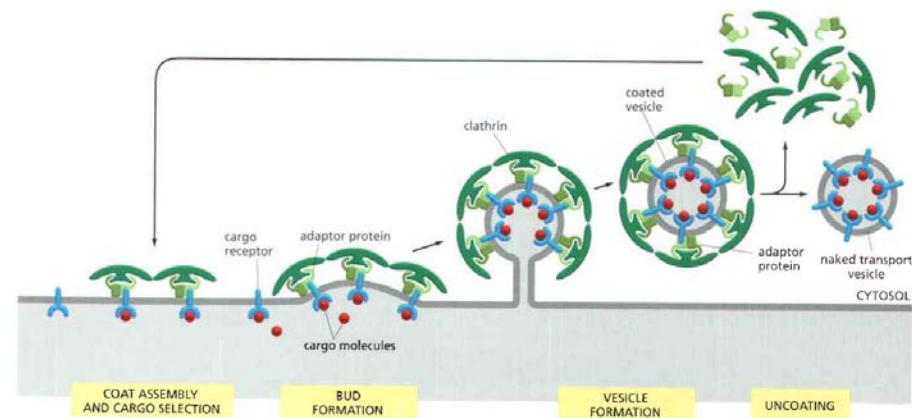
A model for the retrieval of soluble ER resident proteins



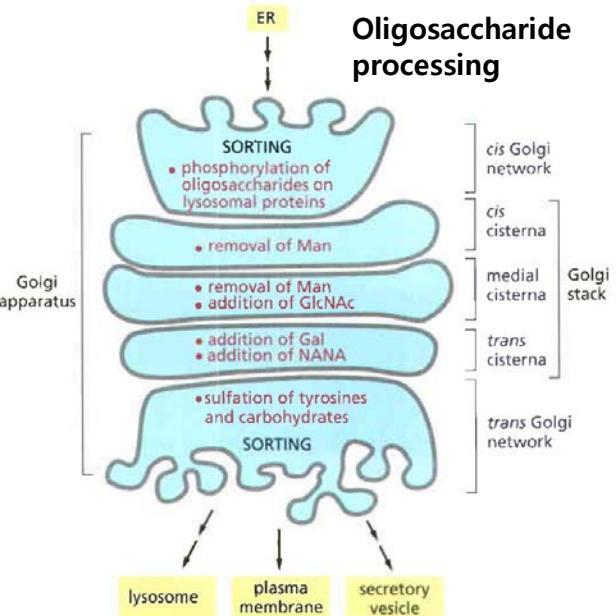
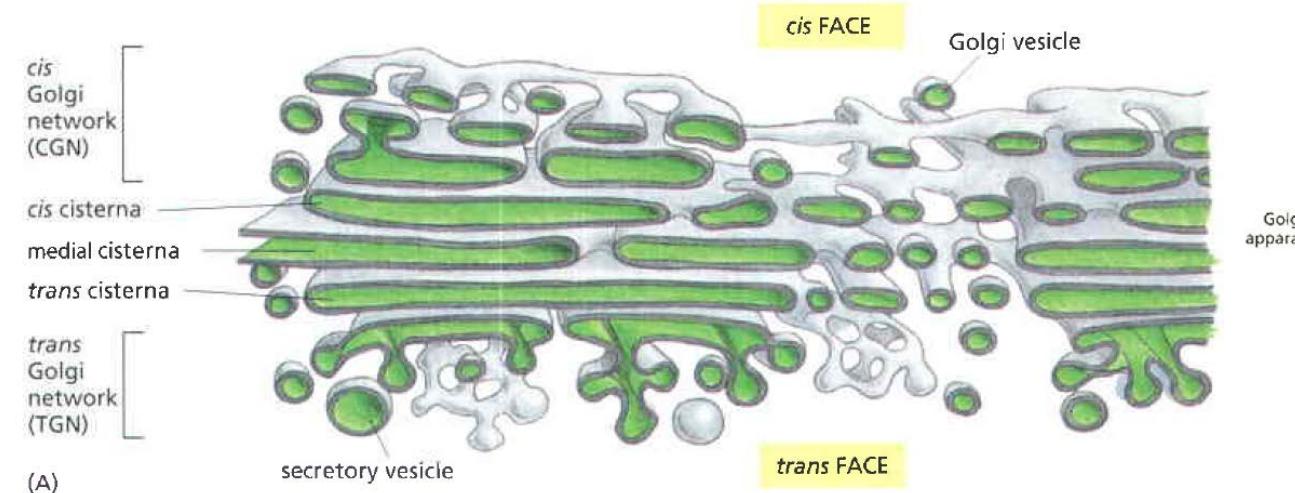
Vesicular tubular clusters



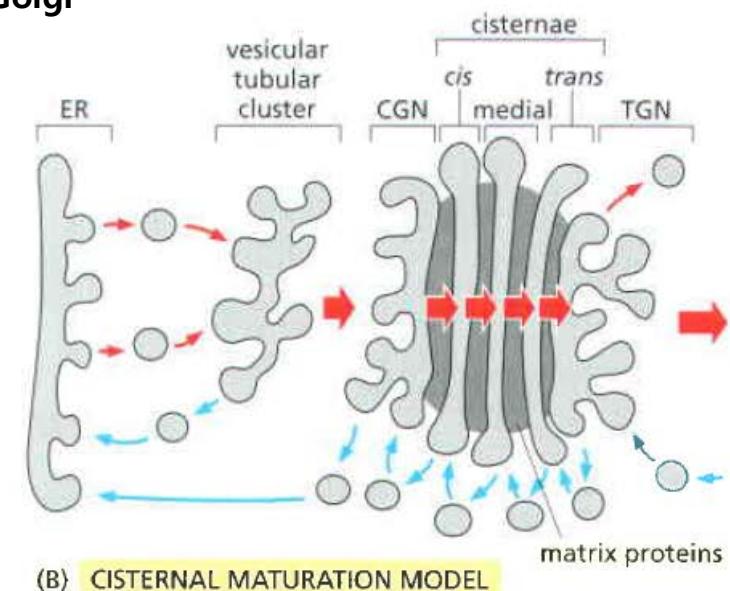
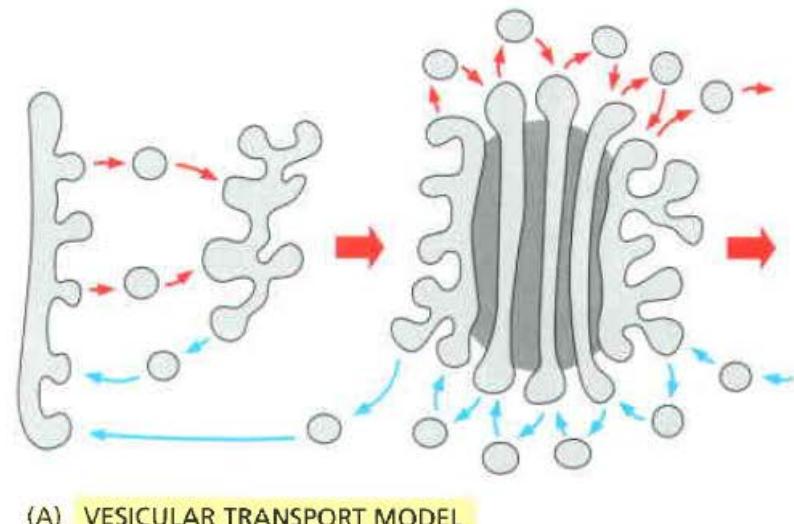
Assembly and disassembly of a clathrin coat



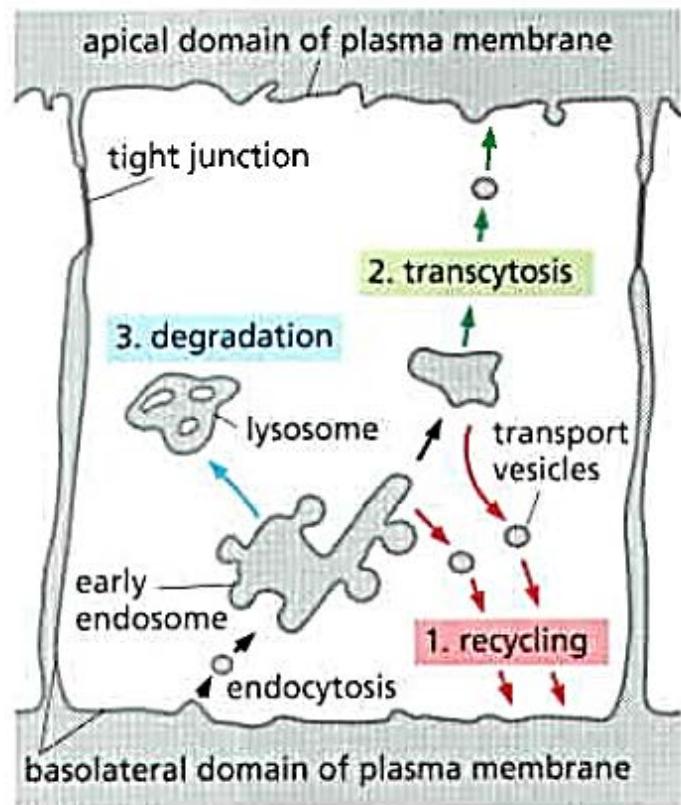
The Golgi Apparatus



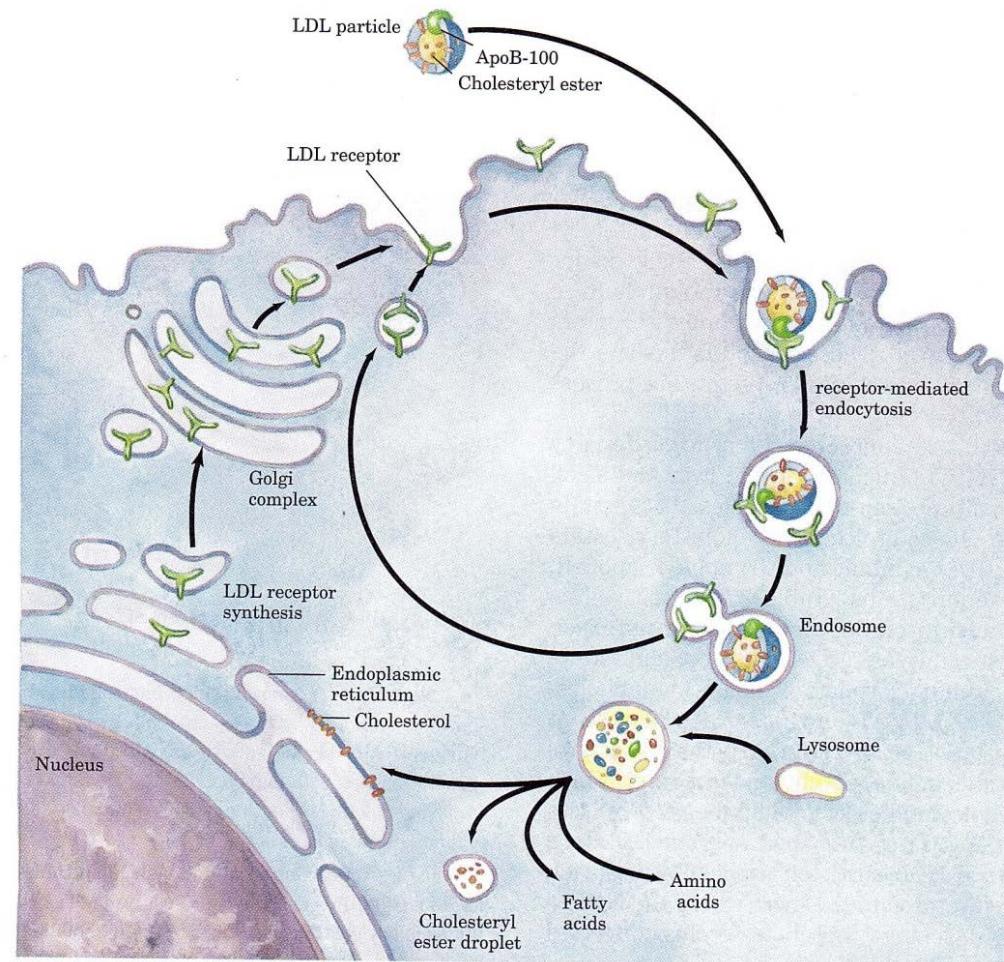
Two possible models explaining the organization of the Golgi apparatus and the transport of proteins

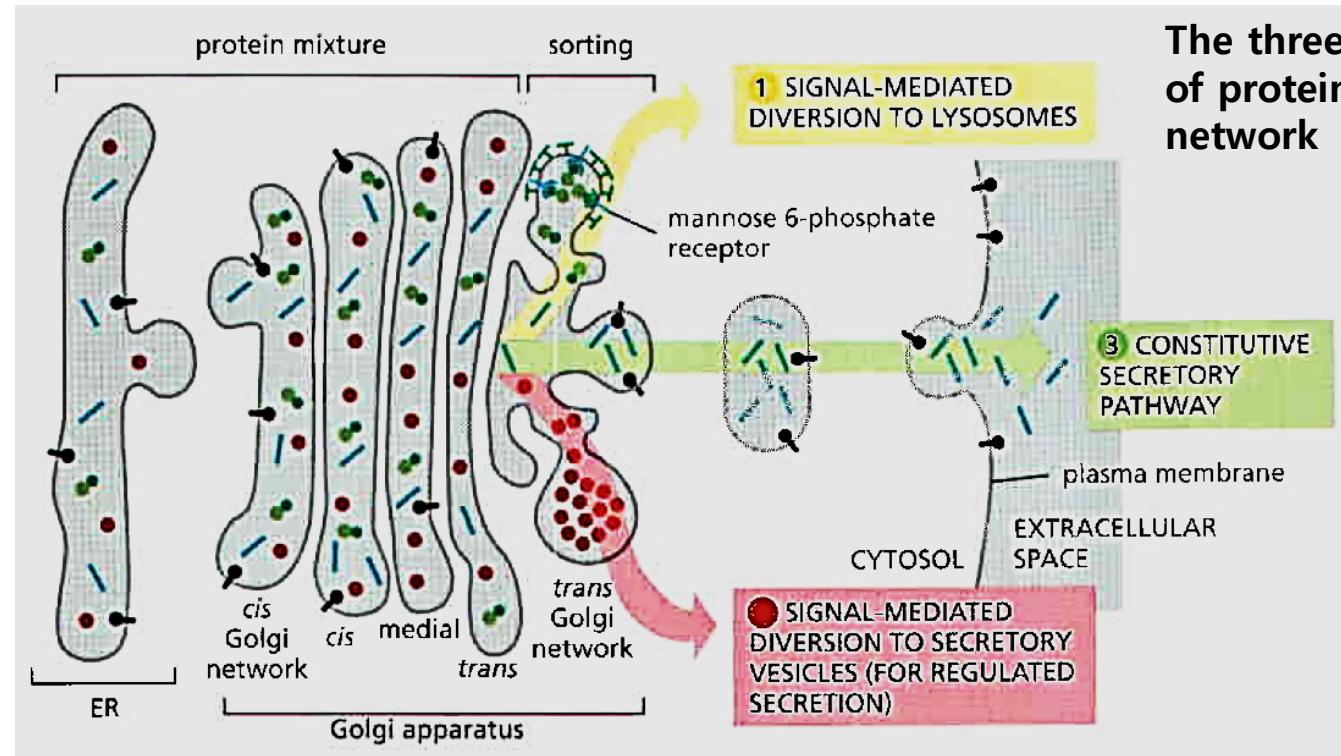


The receptor-mediated endocytosis of LDL



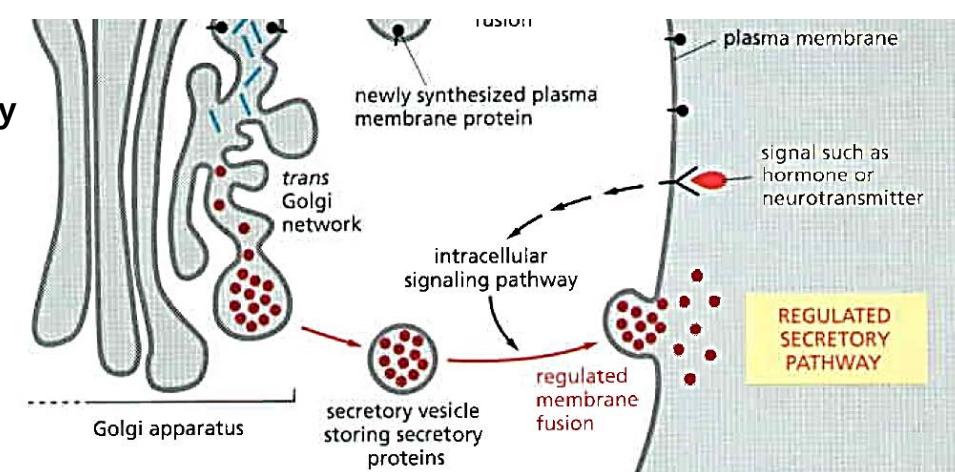
The receptor-mediated endocytosis of LDL



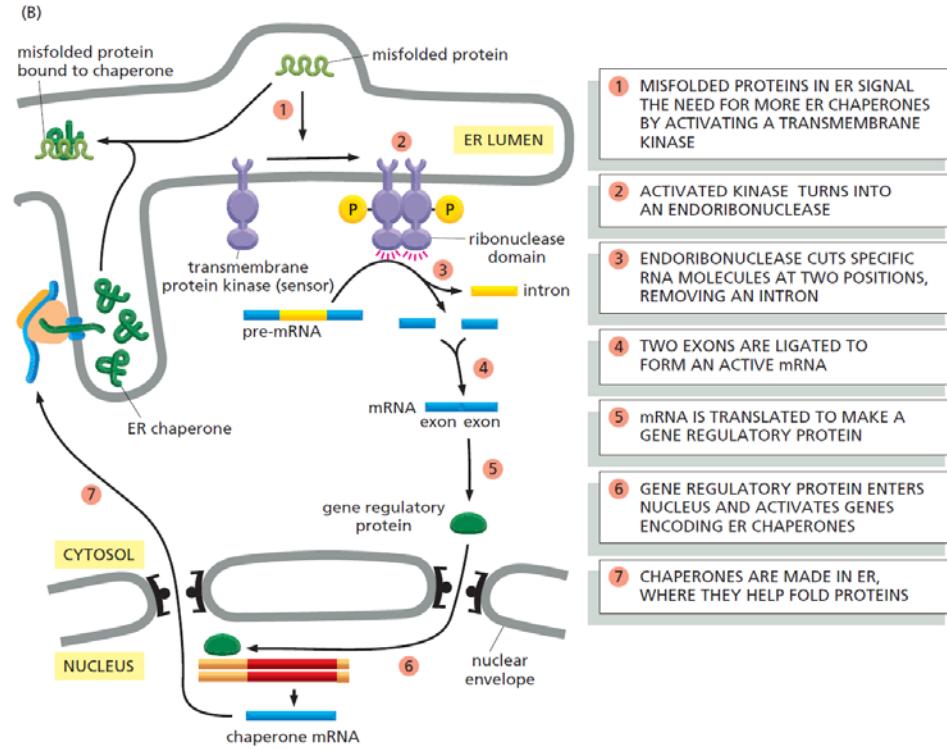
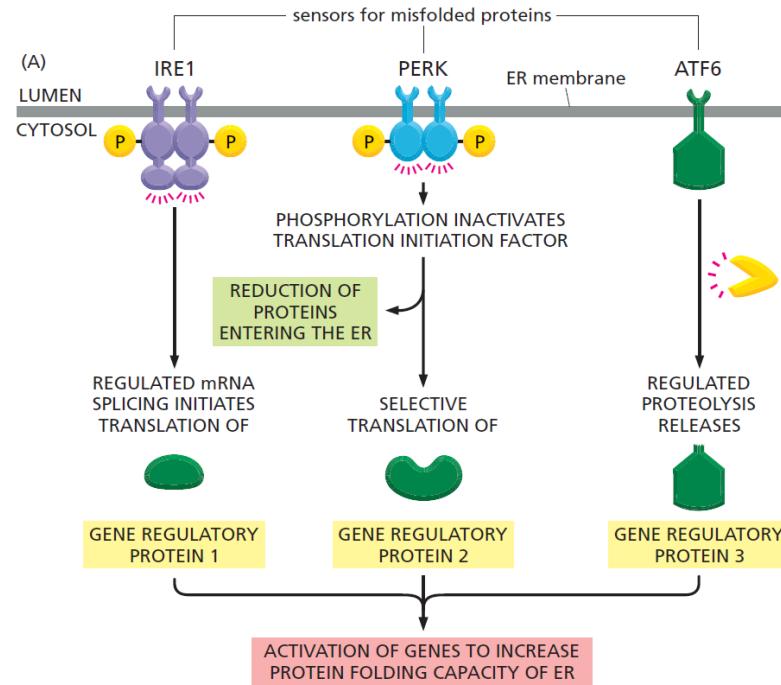


The three best-understood pathways of protein sorting in the *trans* Golgi network

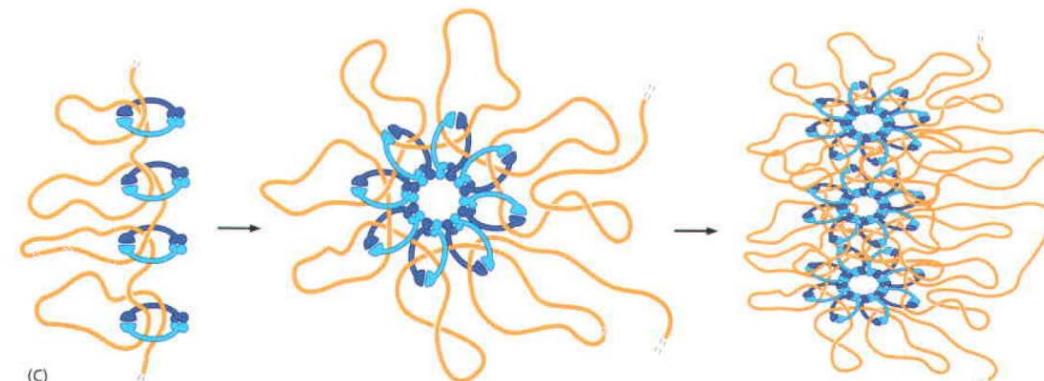
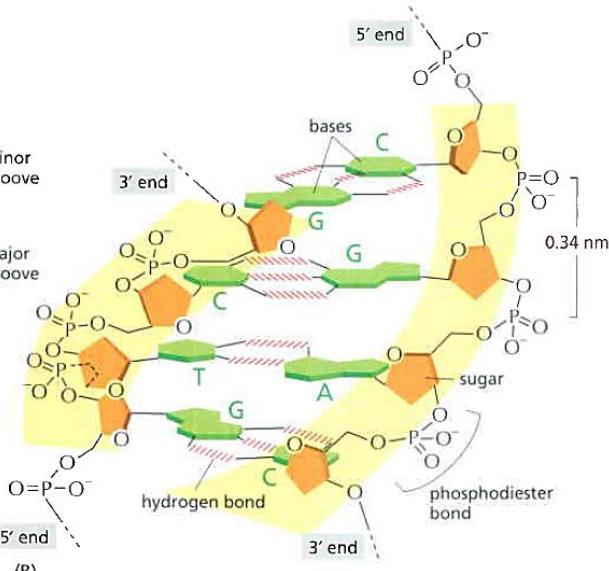
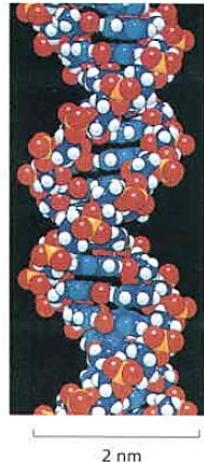
Regulated secretory pathway



ER stress - a stress caused by misfolded proteins



DNA Structure



short region of DNA double helix

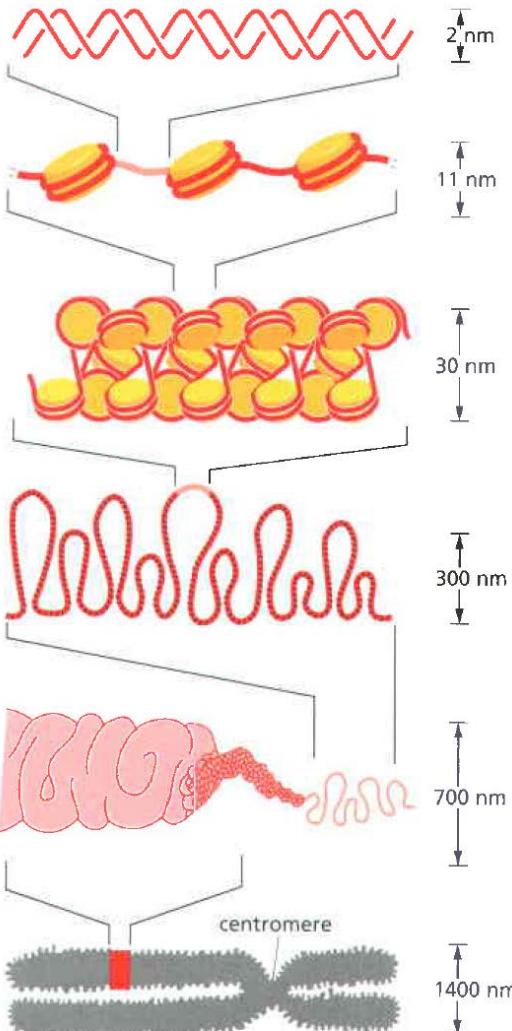
"beads-on-a-string" form of chromatin

30-nm chromatin fiber of packed nucleosomes

section of chromosome in extended form

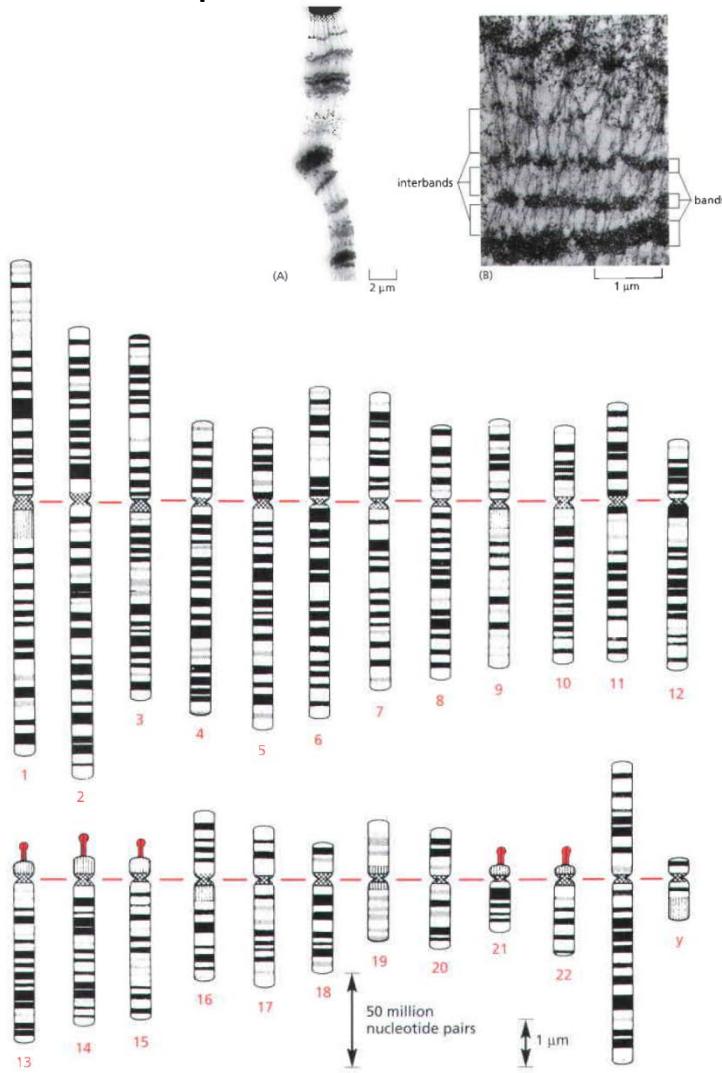
condensed section of chromosome

entire mitotic chromosome

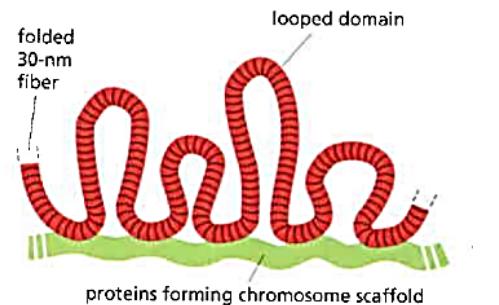
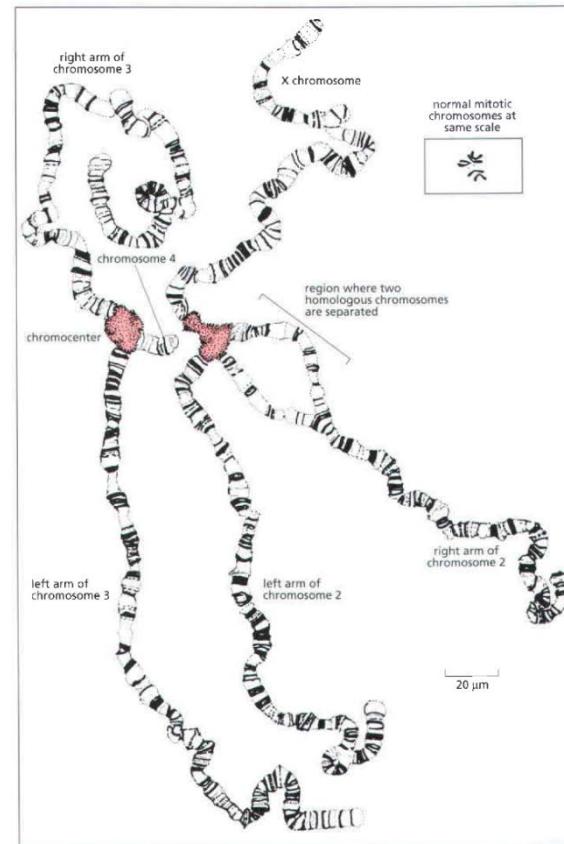


NET RESULT: EACH DNA MOLECULE HAS BEEN
PACKAGED INTO A MITOTIC CHROMOSOME THAT
IS 10,000-FOLD SHORTER THAN ITS EXTENDED LENGTH

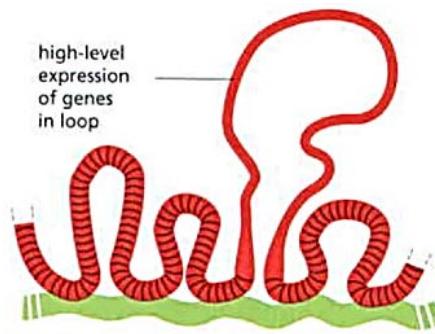
A distinct pattern of bands and inter-bands



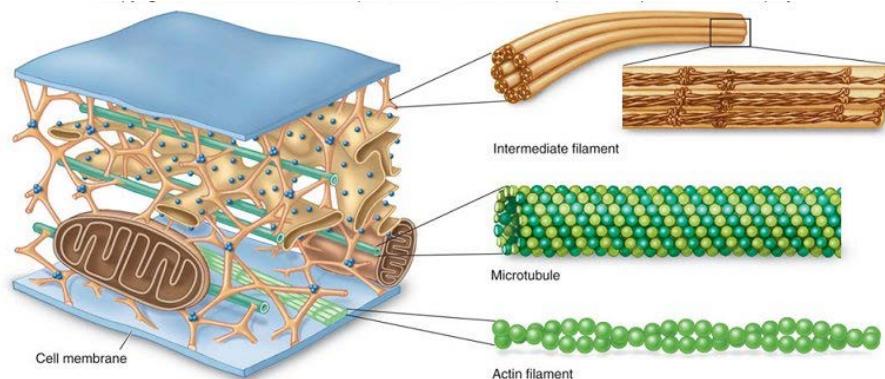
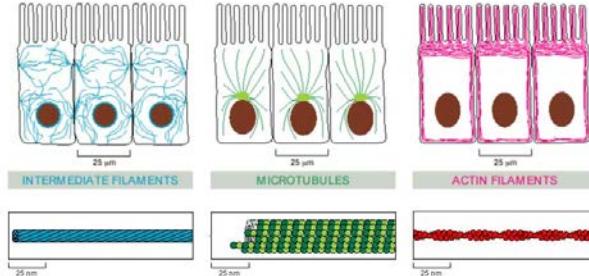
Polytene chromosomes in *Drosophila* salivary gland cell



Histone modifying enzymes
Chromatin remodeling complexes
RNA polymerase



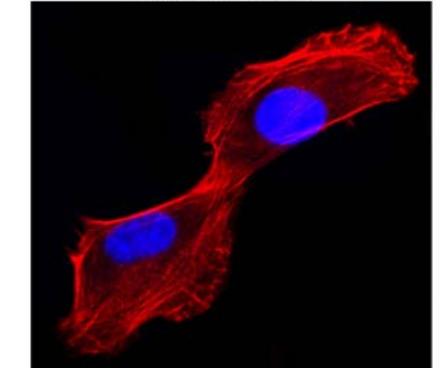
Cytoskeleton



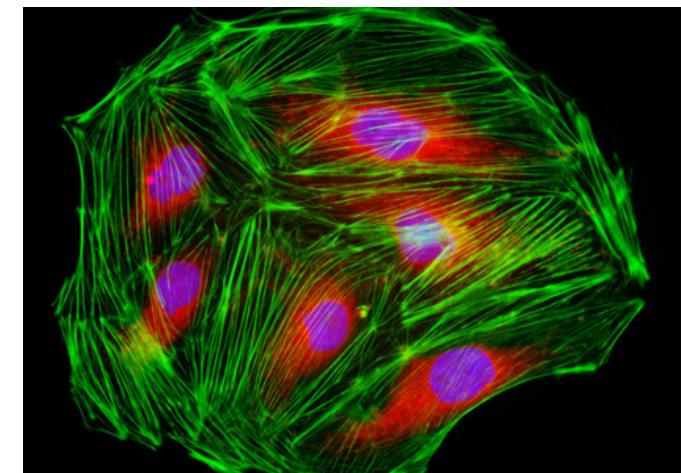
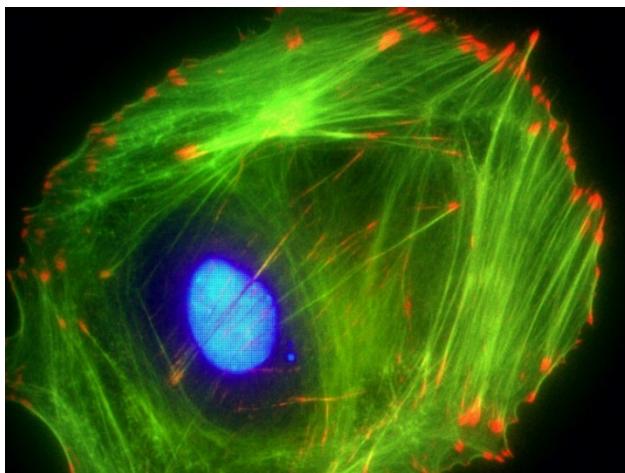
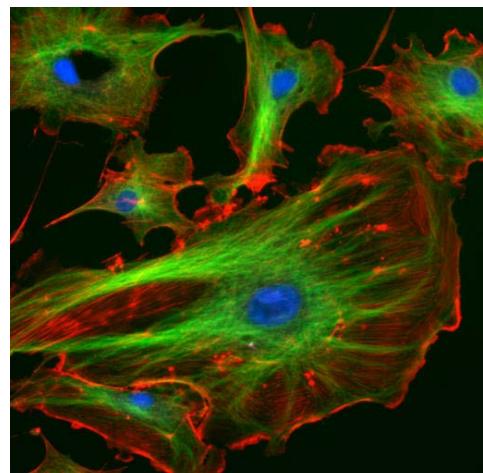
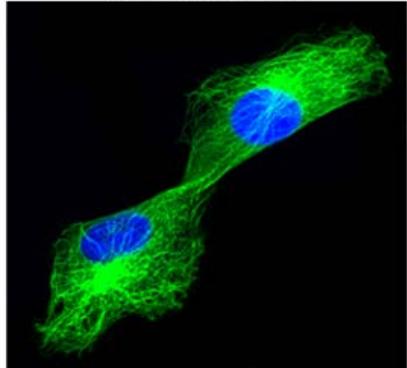
Cytoskeletal Functions

1. Structure and support
2. Intracellular transport
3. Contractility and motility
4. Spatial organization

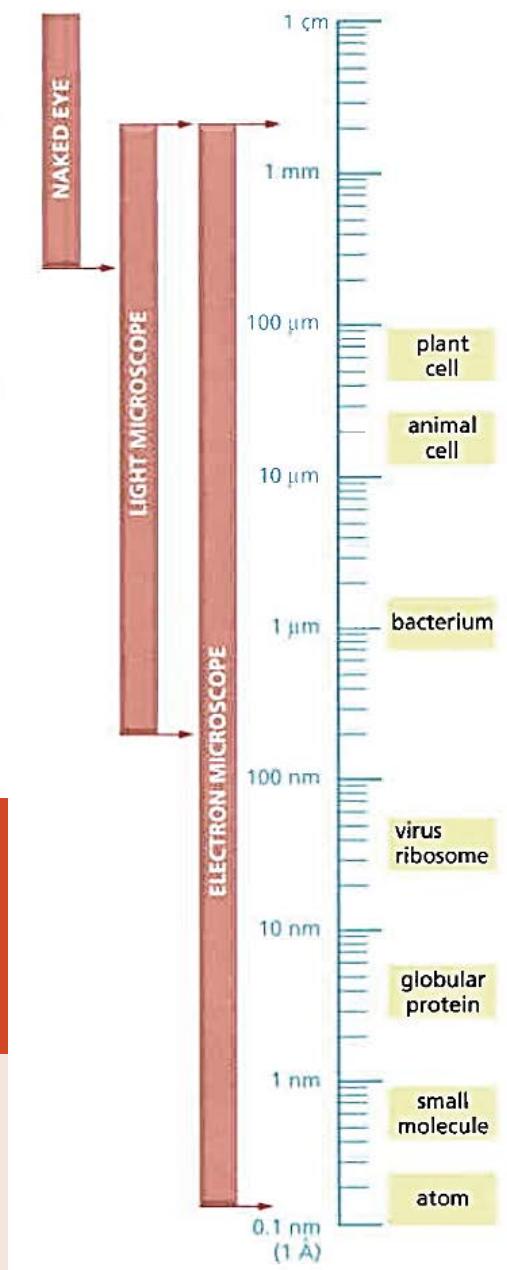
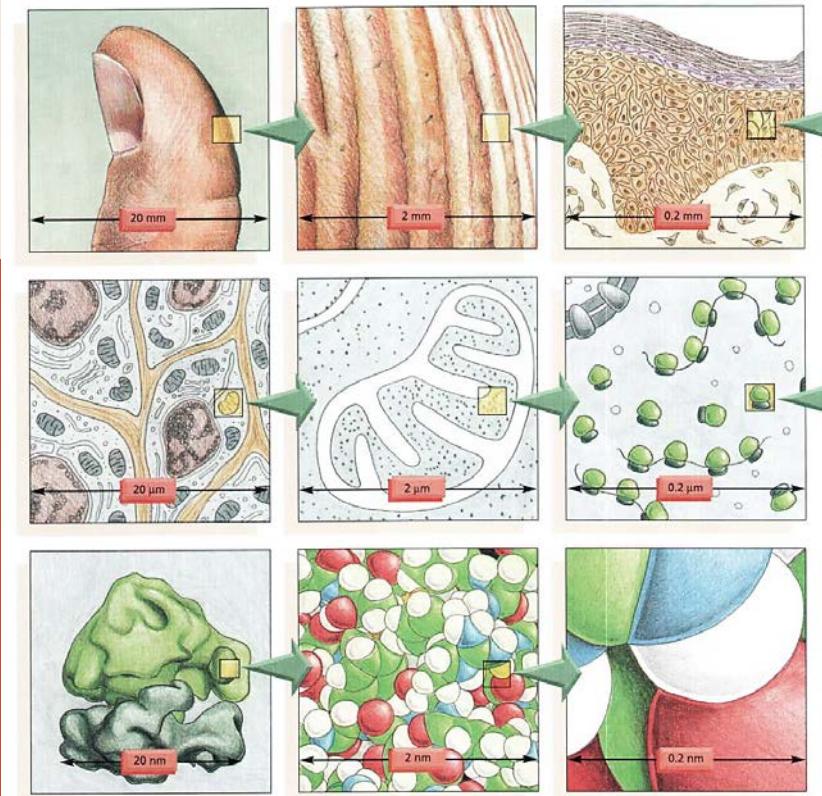
Actin cytoskeleton



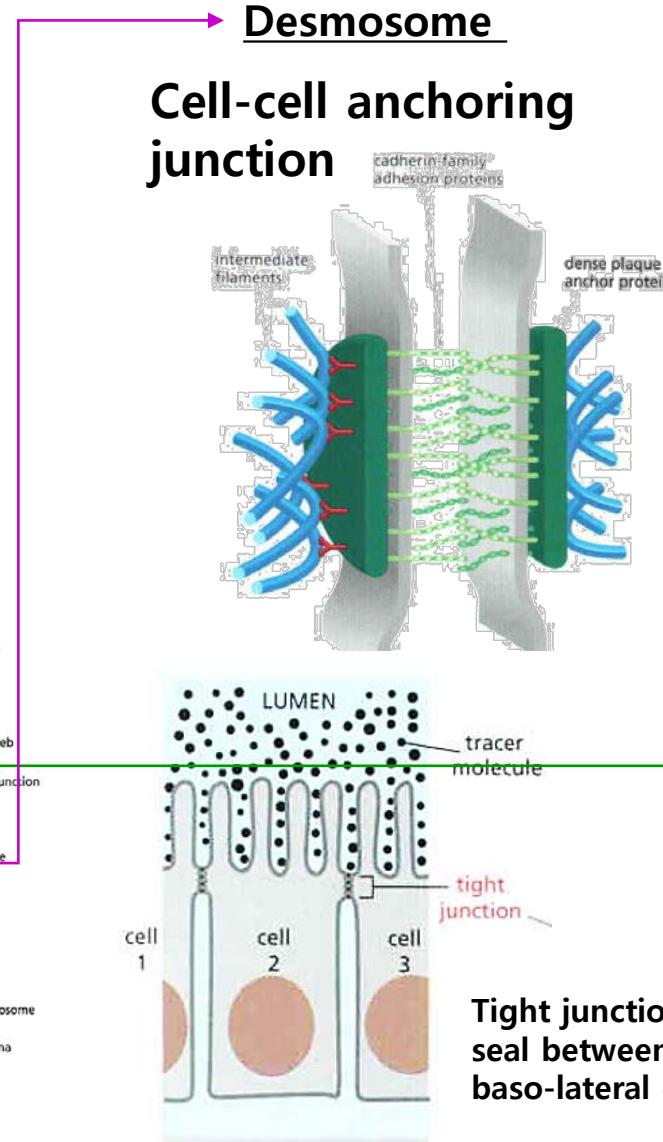
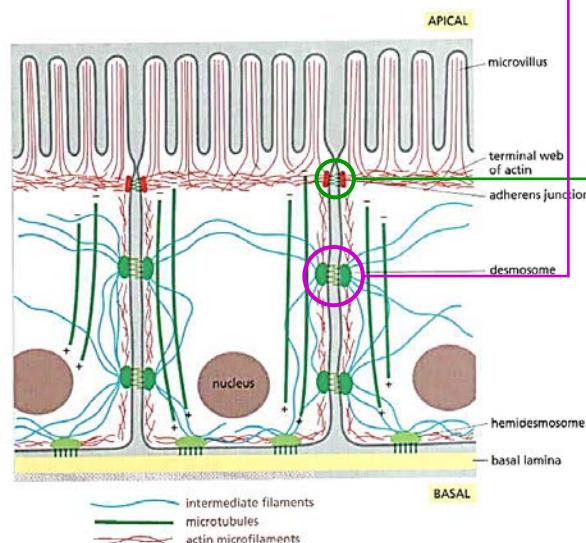
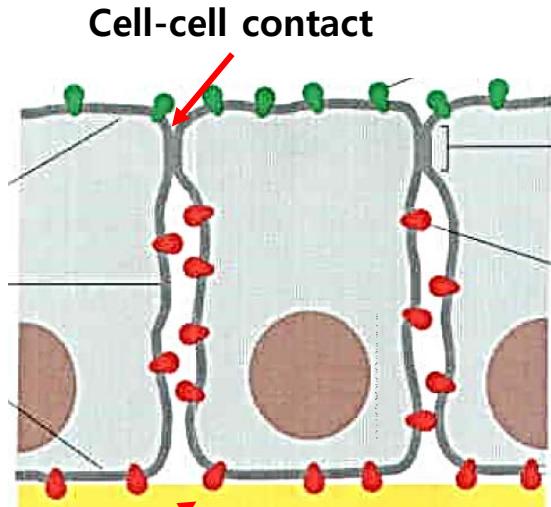
Microtubule network



Cells in tissue context



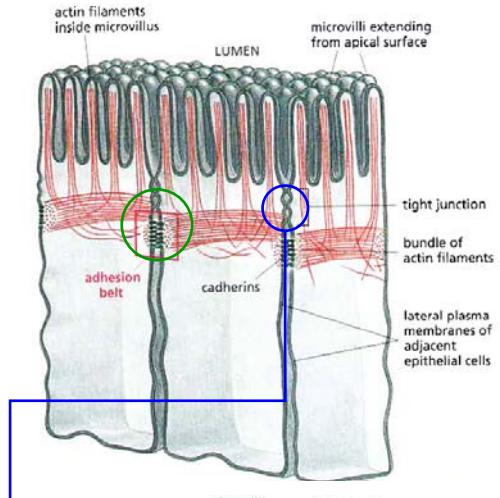
Cell Adhesion



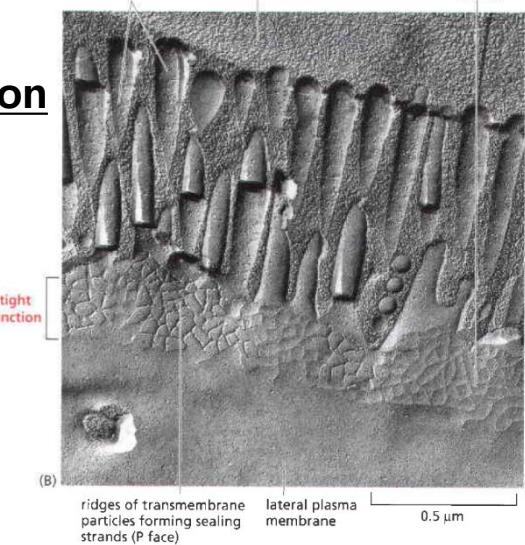
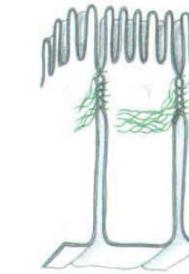
Tight junction constitutes seal between apical and baso-lateral domain

Adherens junction

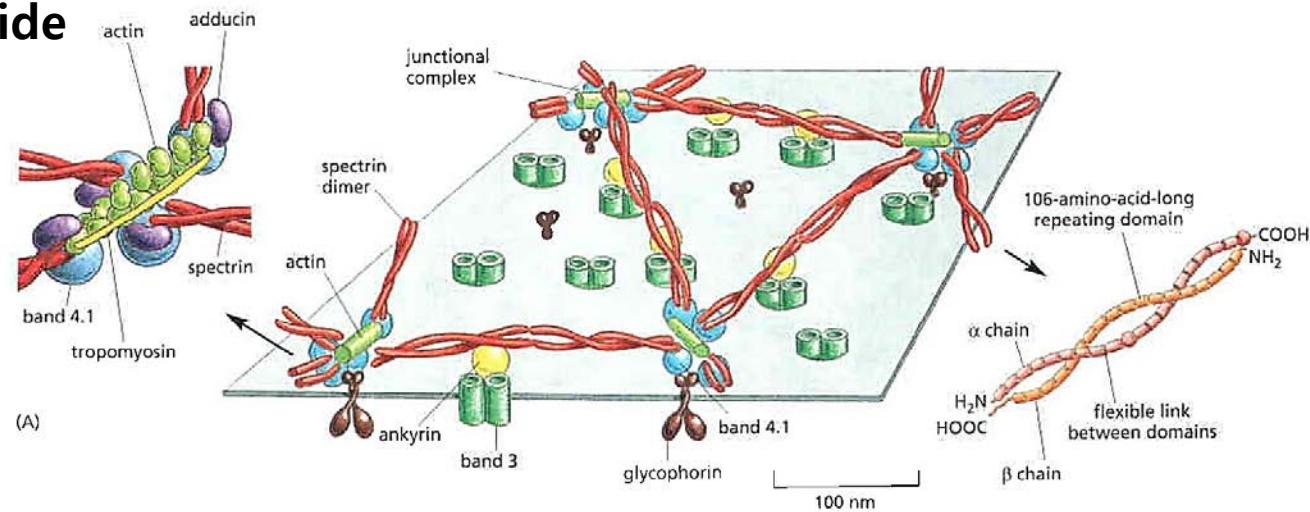
Adherens junction connects actin filament bundle



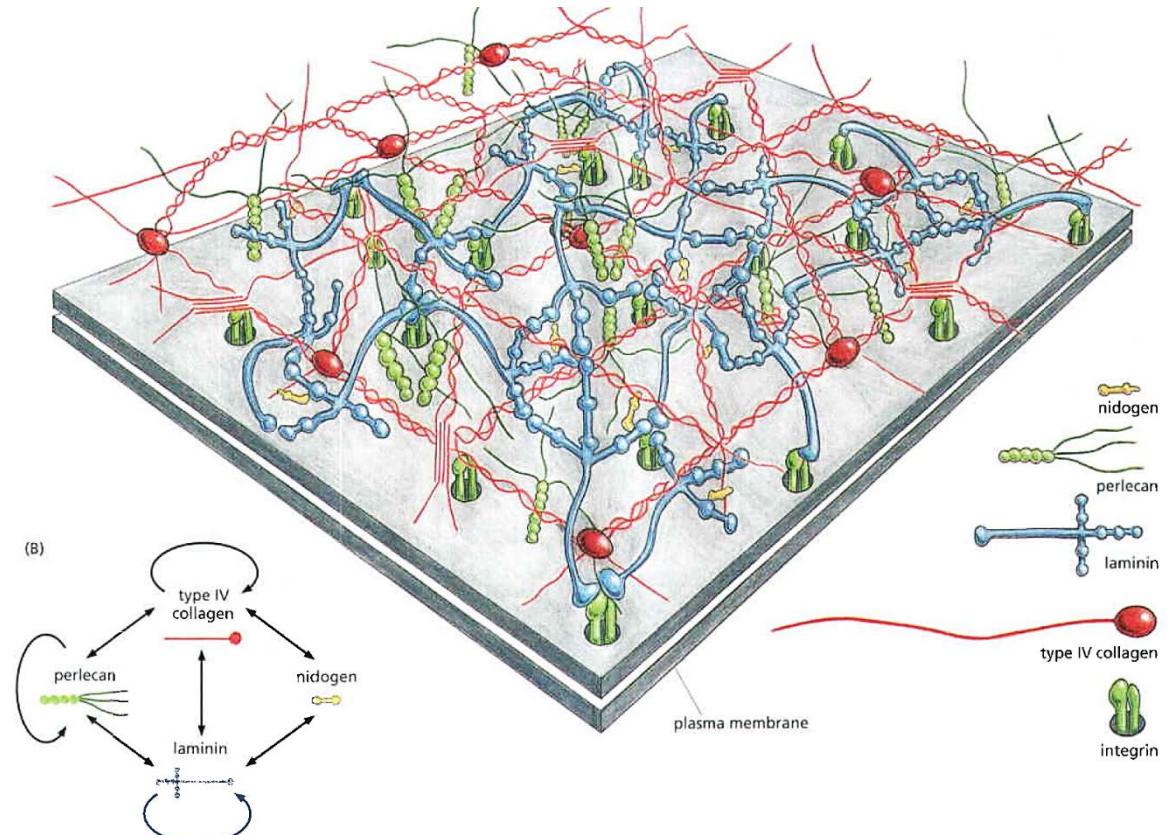
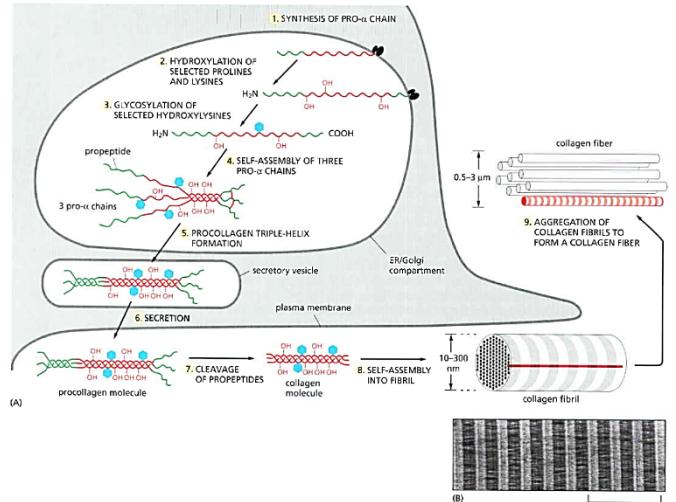
Tight junction



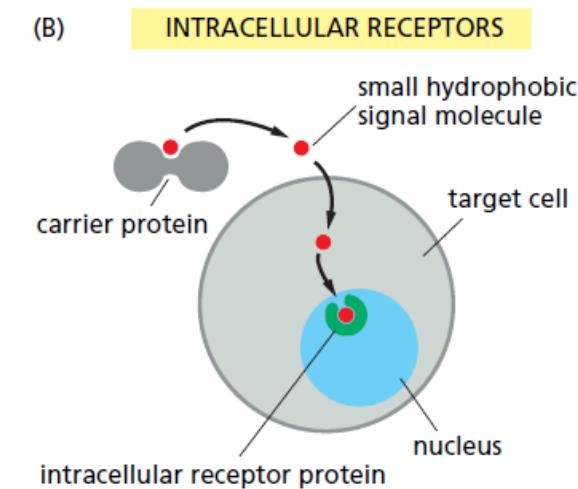
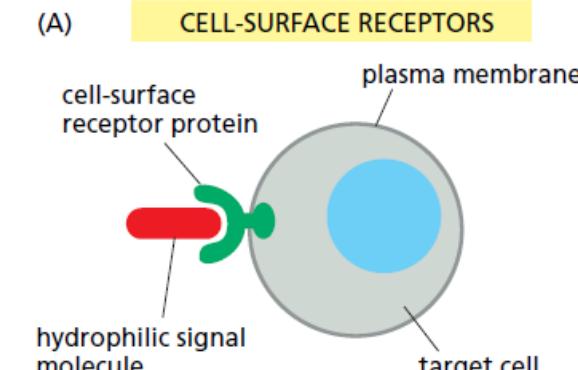
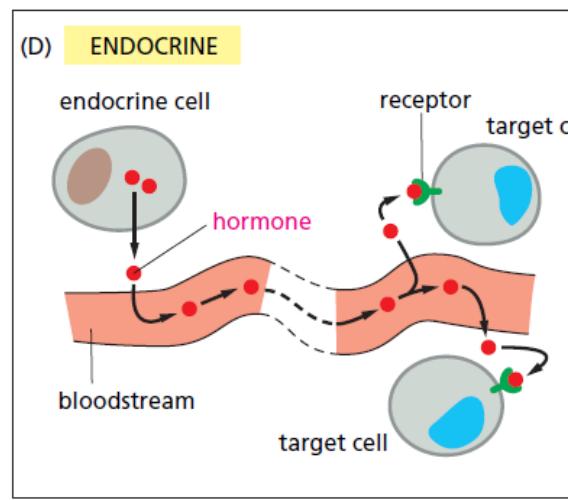
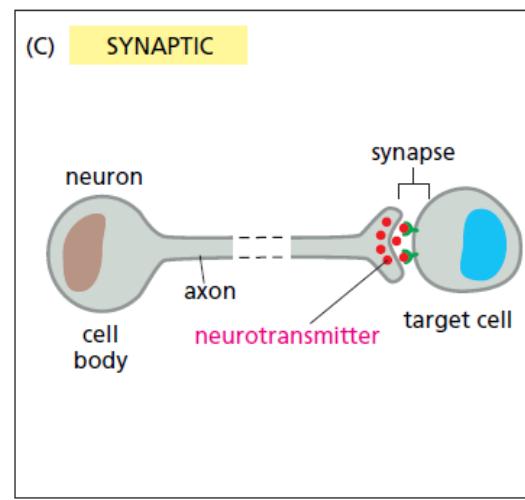
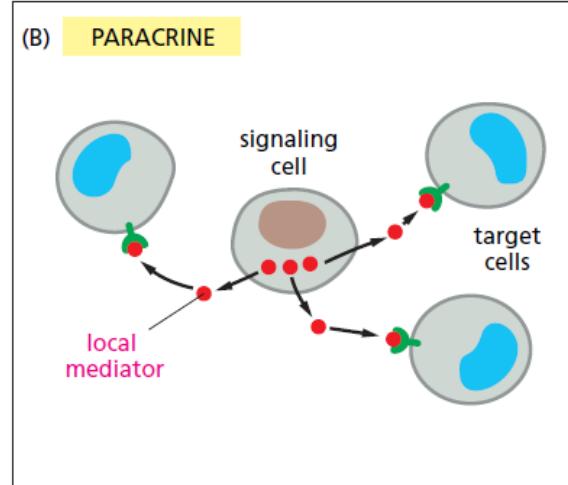
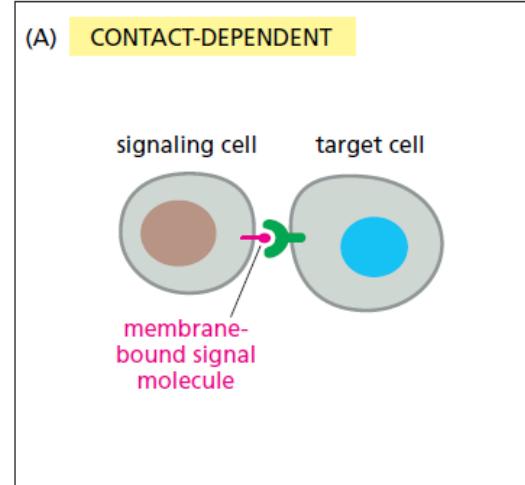
Cytoskeleton on the cytosolic side



Molecular structure of basal lamina on the extracellular side

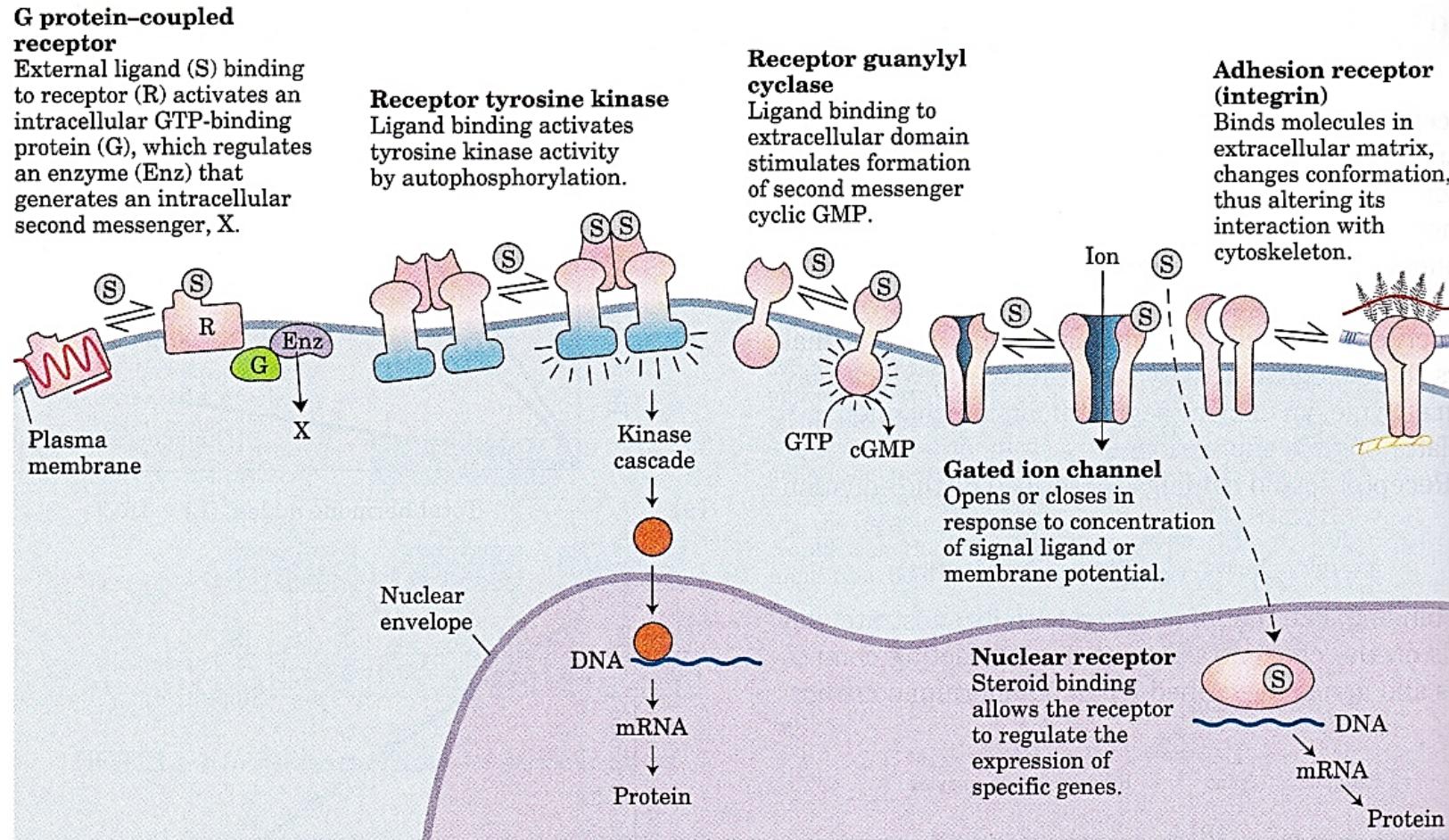


Endocrine, Paracrine, & Autocrine Signaling

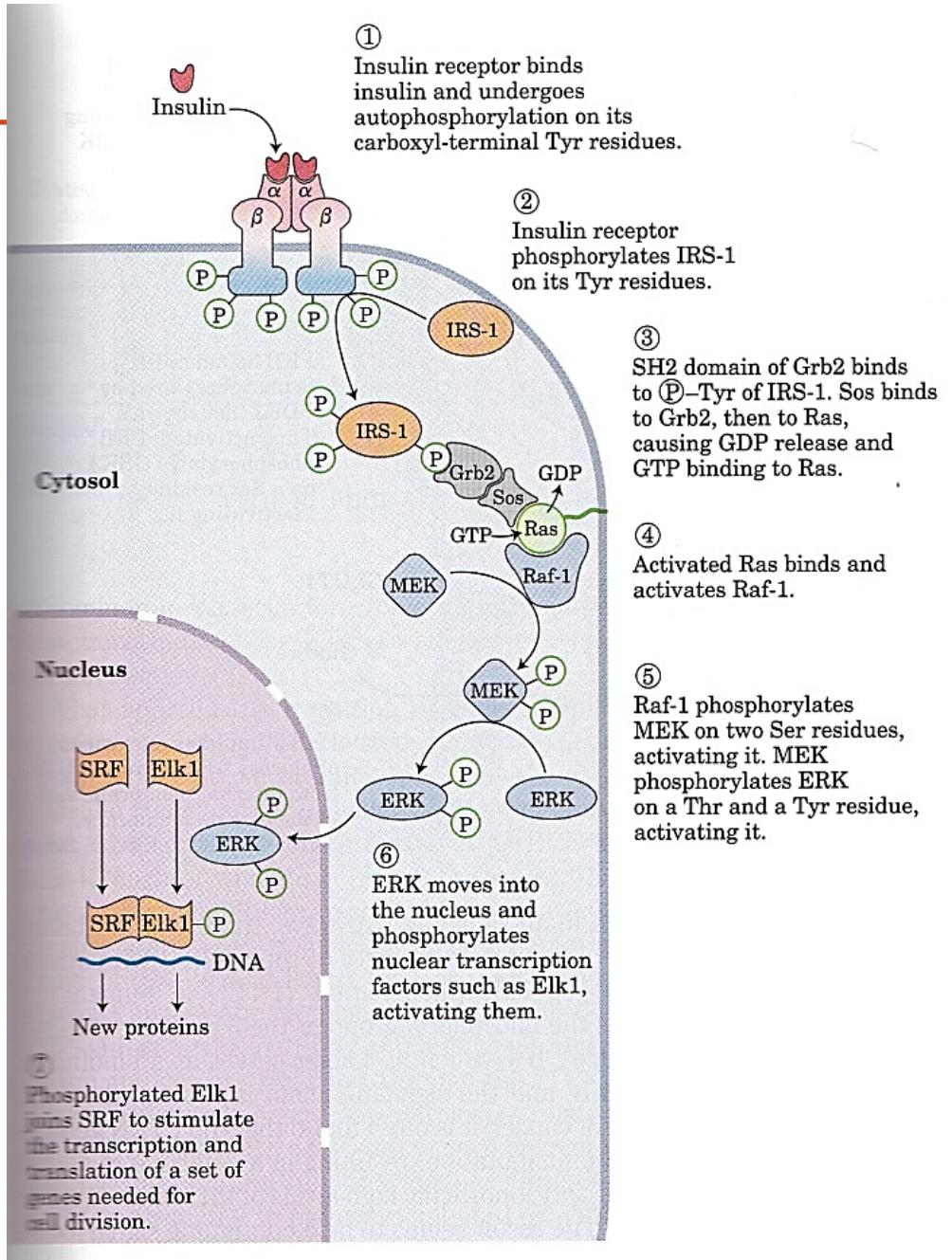


Cell Signaling

Types of signal transducers



Intracellular Signal Transduction



1. Ligand-receptor binding

2. Activation of receptor (phosphorylation)

3. Activation of adaptor proteins

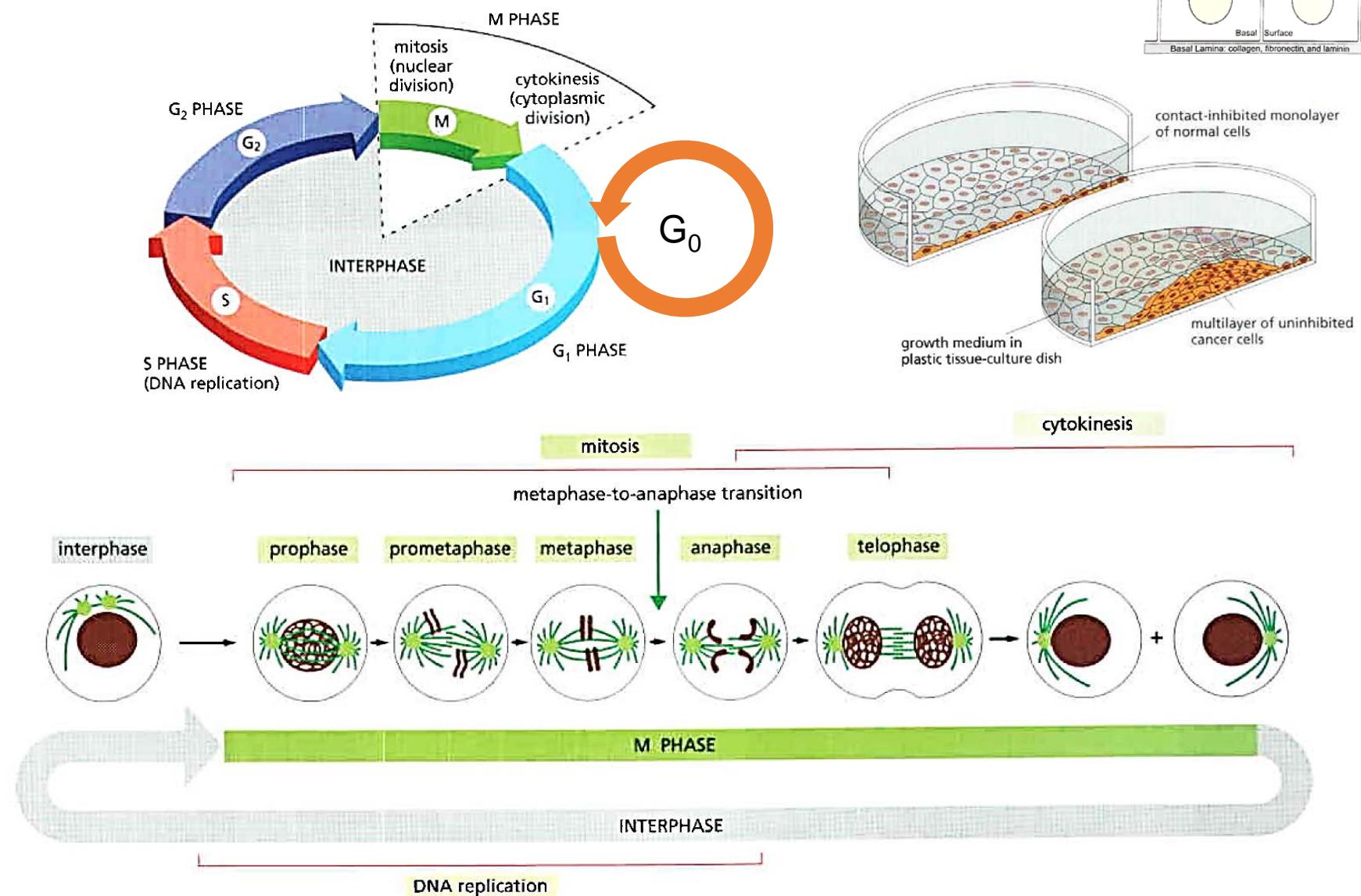
4. Activation of MAPK

5. Activation of transcription factors

6. Induction of gene expression

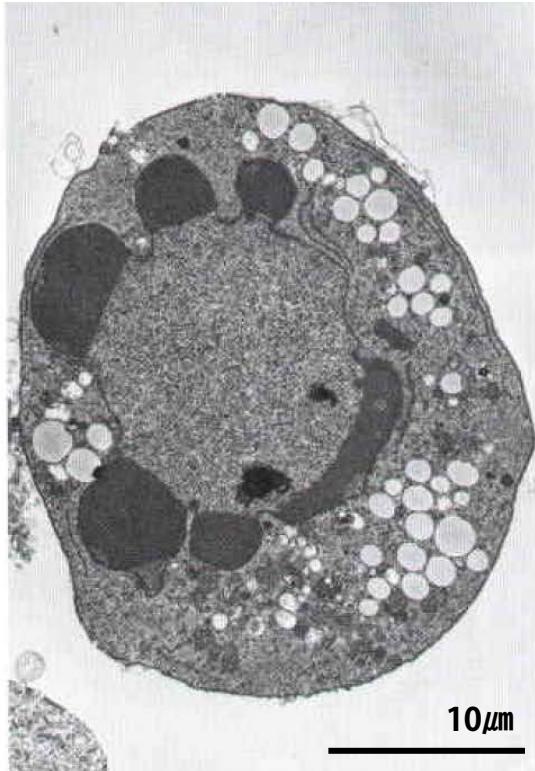
Cell physiology

Cell Cycle - Cell Proliferation

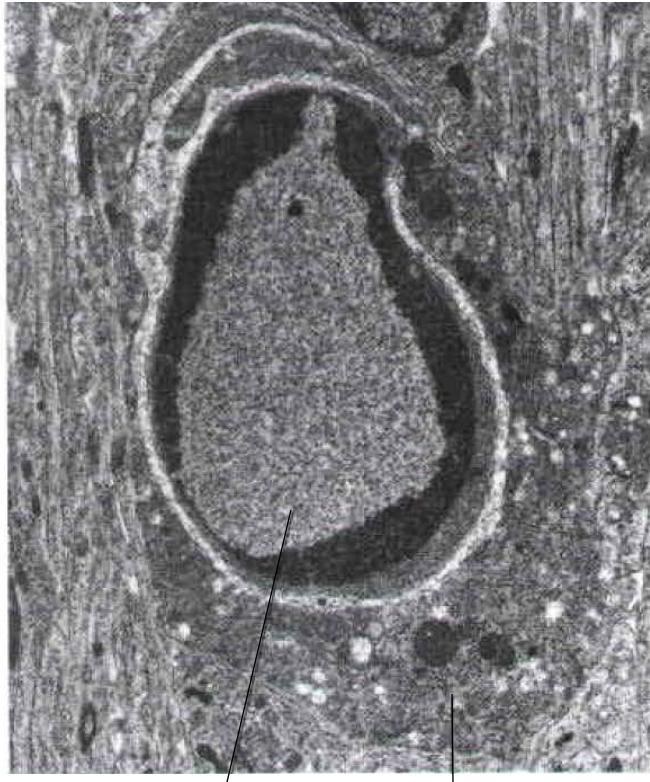


Cell Death - Apoptosis vs Necrosis

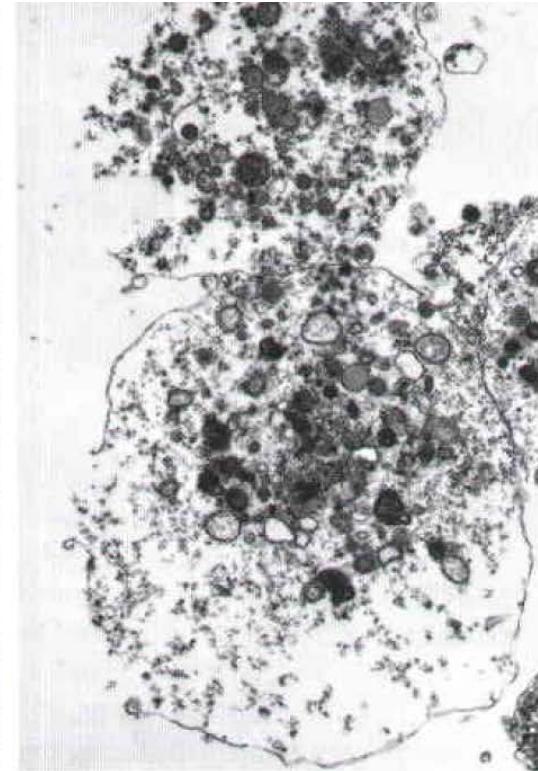
Apoptosis
– the altruistic cell death



Dead cell engulfed by phagocytic cell



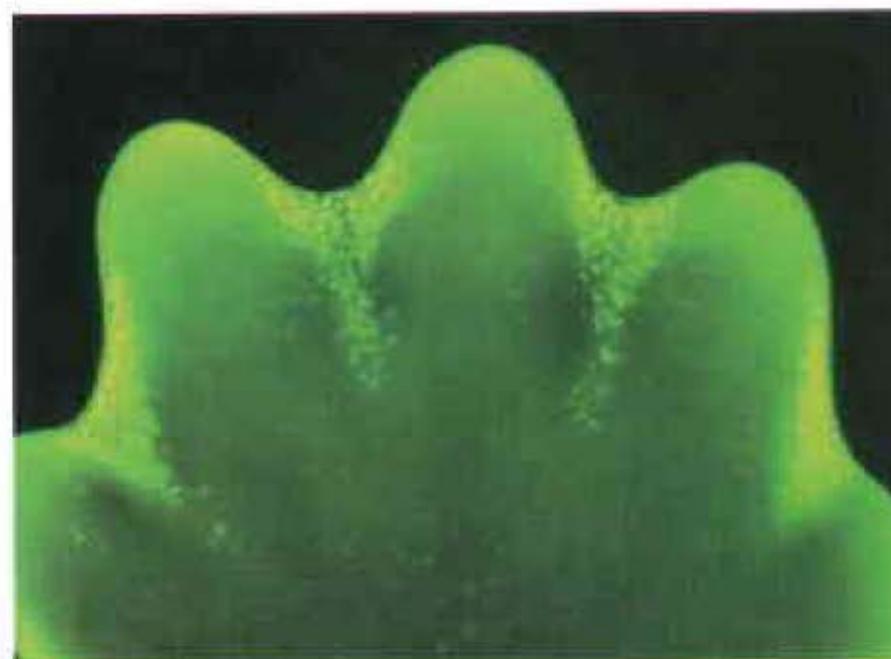
Necrosis
– uncontrolled cell death



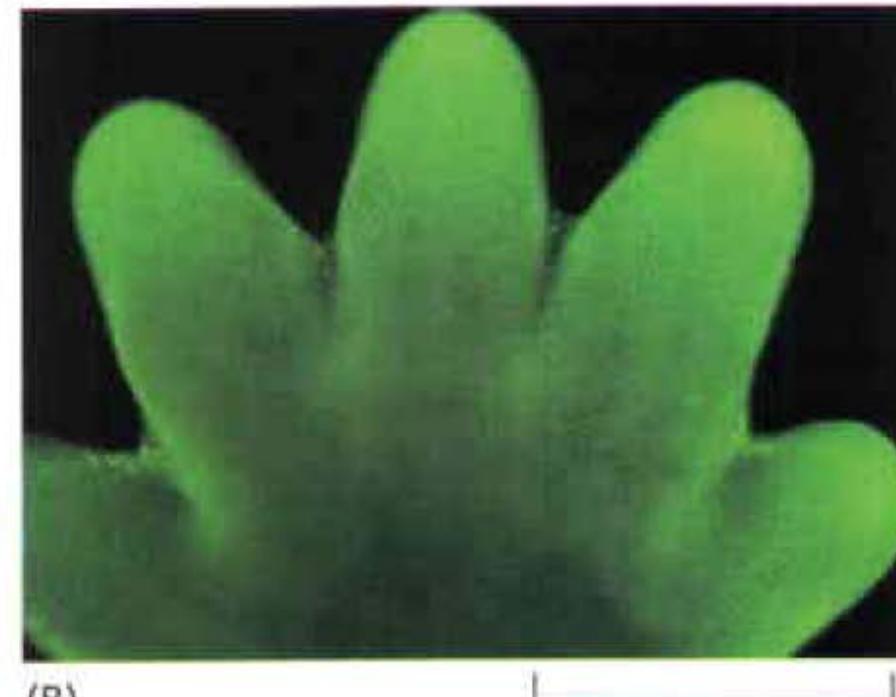
Condensed, intact morphology

Exploded morphology

Apoptosis during embryonic development



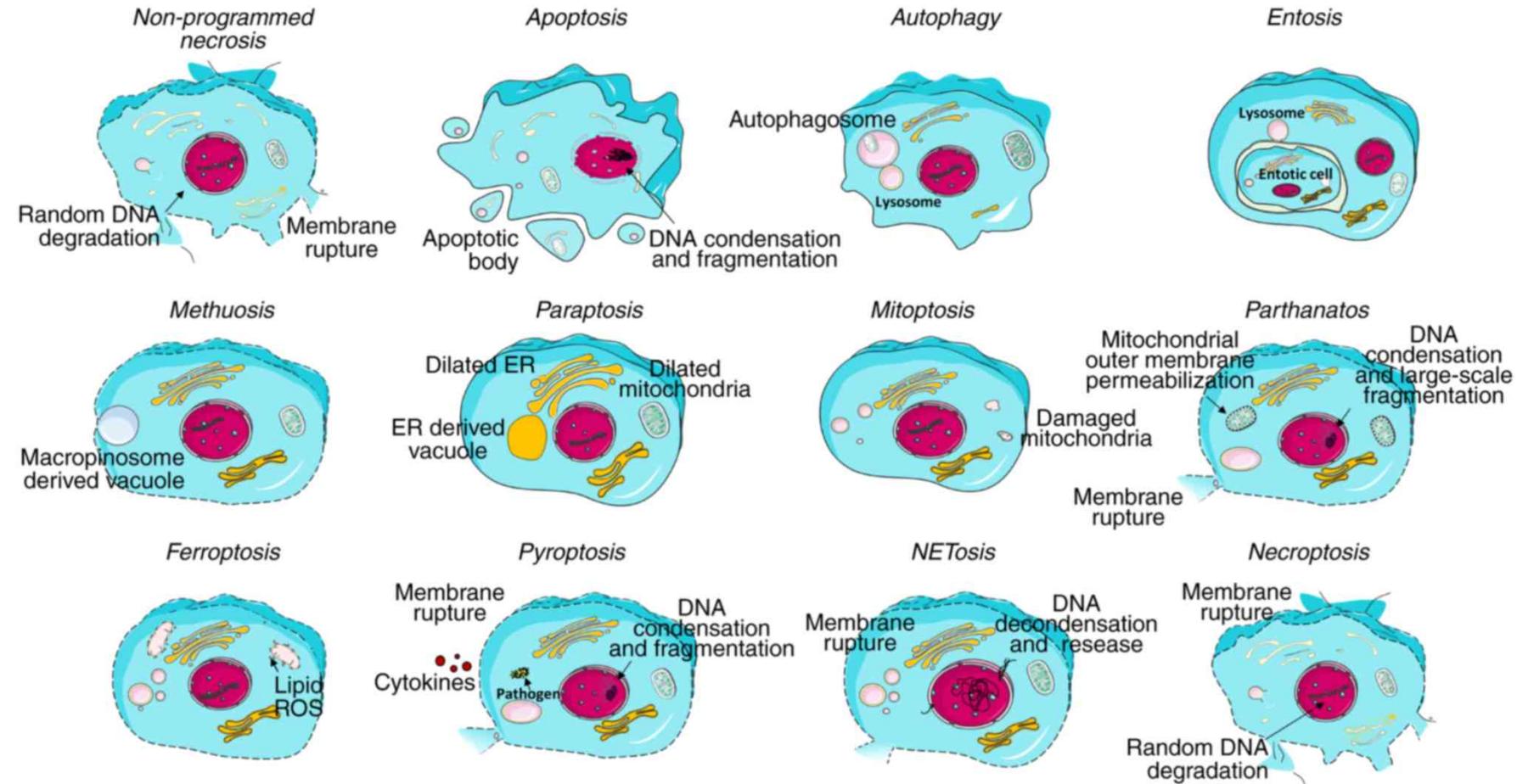
(A)



(B)

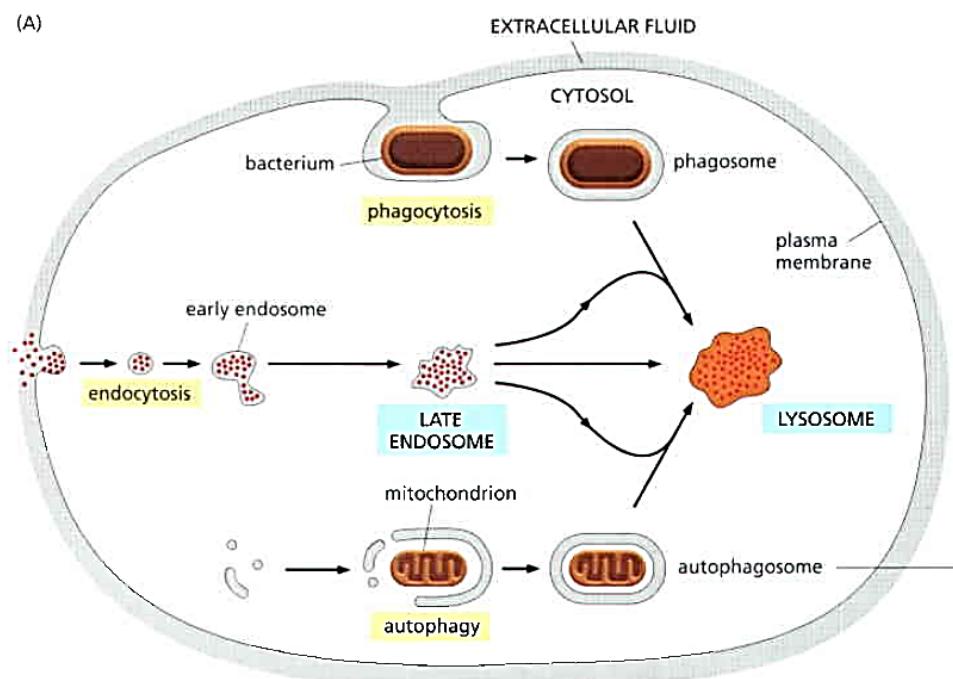
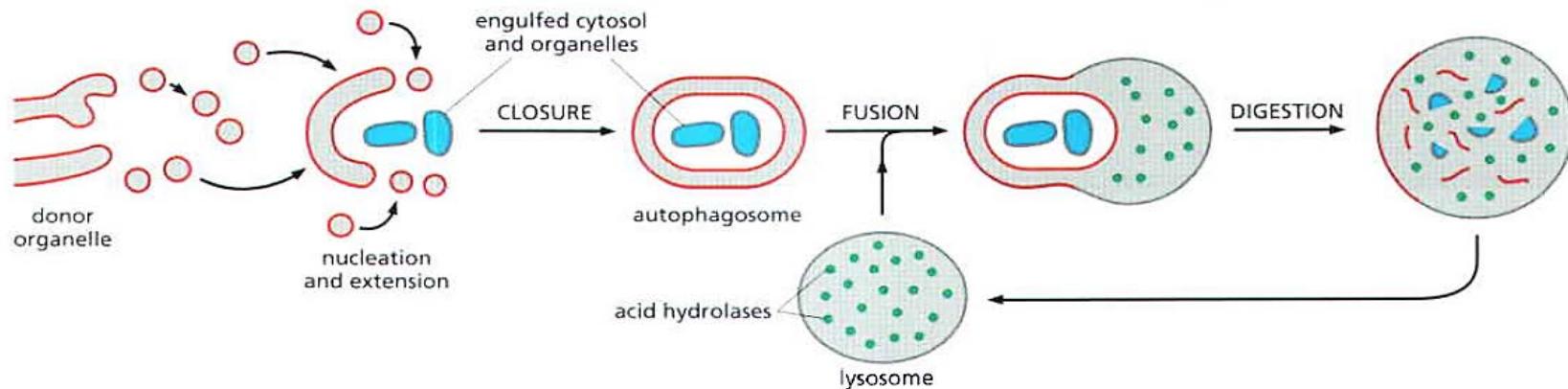
1 mm

Various Types of Programmed Cell Death



Autophagy

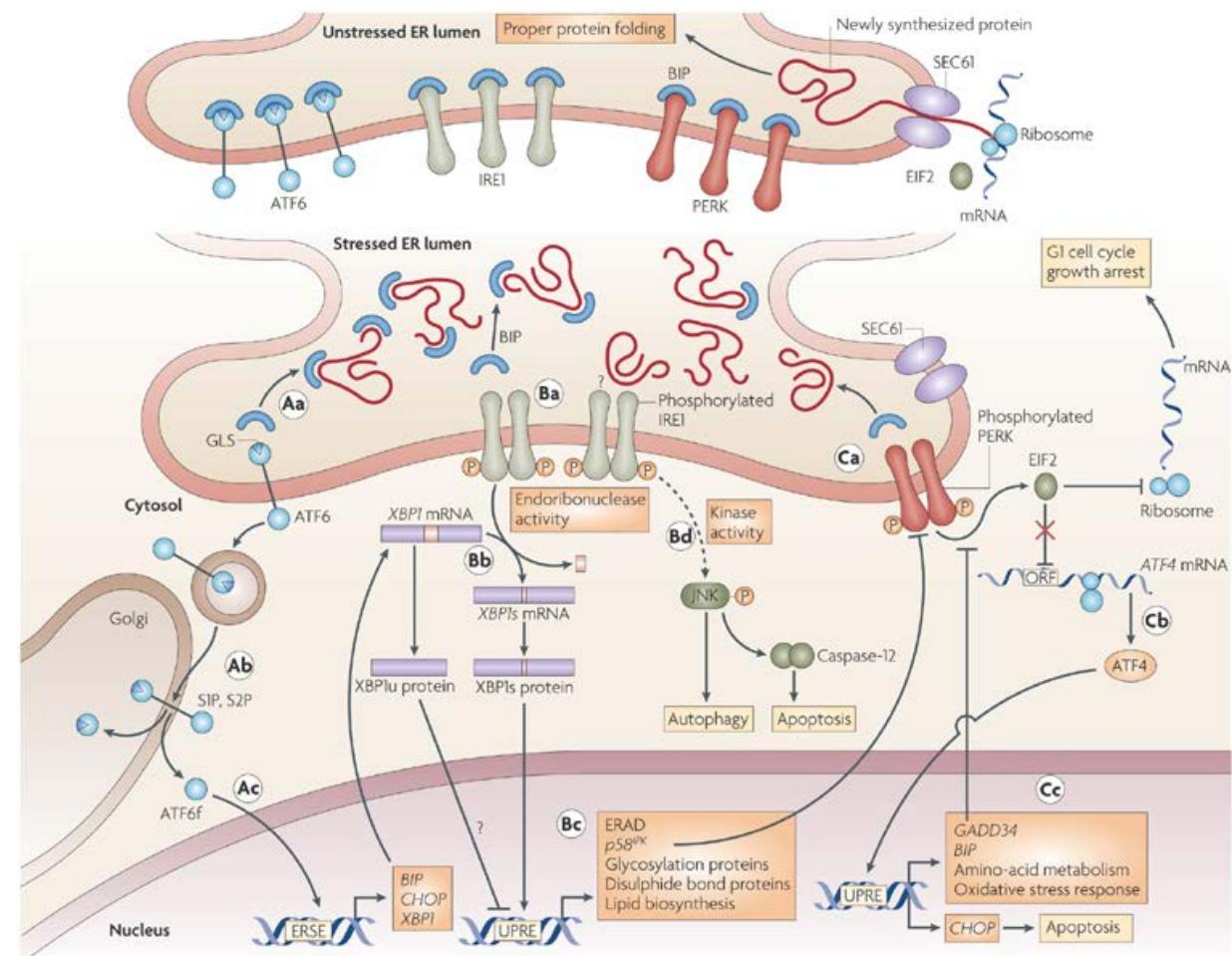
A model of autophagy



In the absence of survival factors, the cells cannot efficiently import nutrients. Such cells fuel their metabolic needs through *autophagy*, in which the cell sequesters organelles and bits of its cytoplasm within autophagosomes, which then fuse with lysosomes. The cells eventually die from starvation, but not by apoptosis.

ER Stress

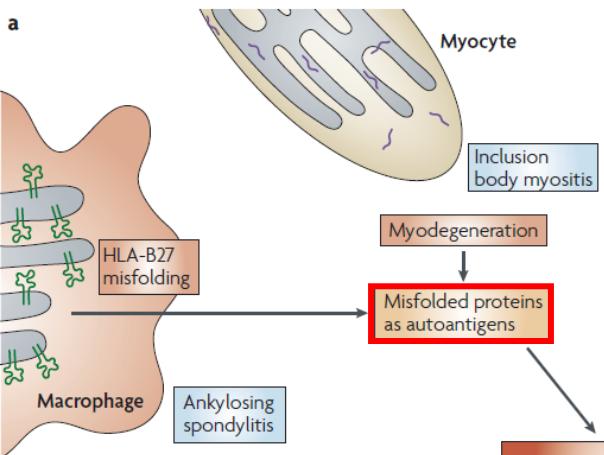
- **ER stress** (unfolded protein response, UPR) is a cellular stress response caused by unfolded or misfolded proteins accumulating in ER.
- The ER stress response three aims:
 - initially to restore normal function of the cell by halting protein translation, degrading misfolded proteins, and activating the signaling pathways that lead to increasing the production of molecular chaperones involved in protein folding.
 - If these objectives are not achieved within a certain time span or the disruption is prolonged, the UPR aims towards apoptosis.
- Sustained over-activation of the UPR has been implicated in prion diseases as well as several other neurodegenerative diseases, and inhibiting the UPR could become a treatment for those diseases.
- Diseases amenable to UPR inhibition include Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and Huntington's disease.



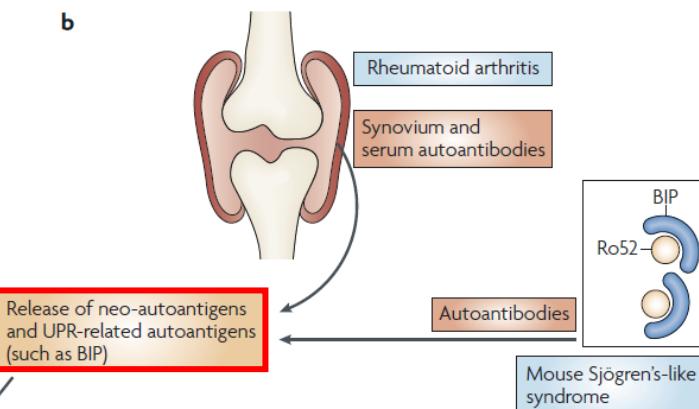
Potential Mechanisms Whereby the Unfolded-Protein Response Might Allow Autoimmunity

Eun Ah Lee @ KHU

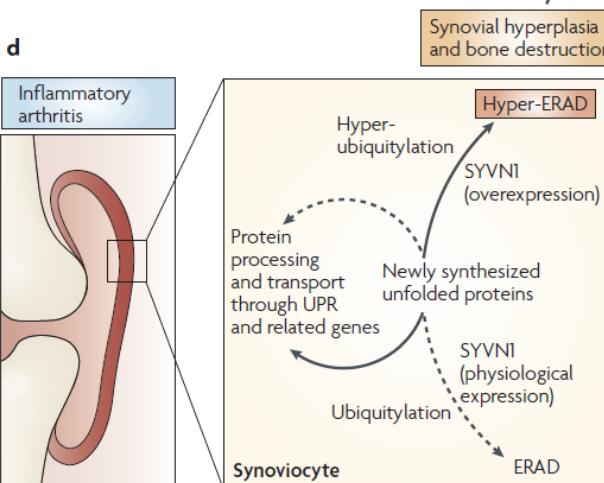
Myodegeneration



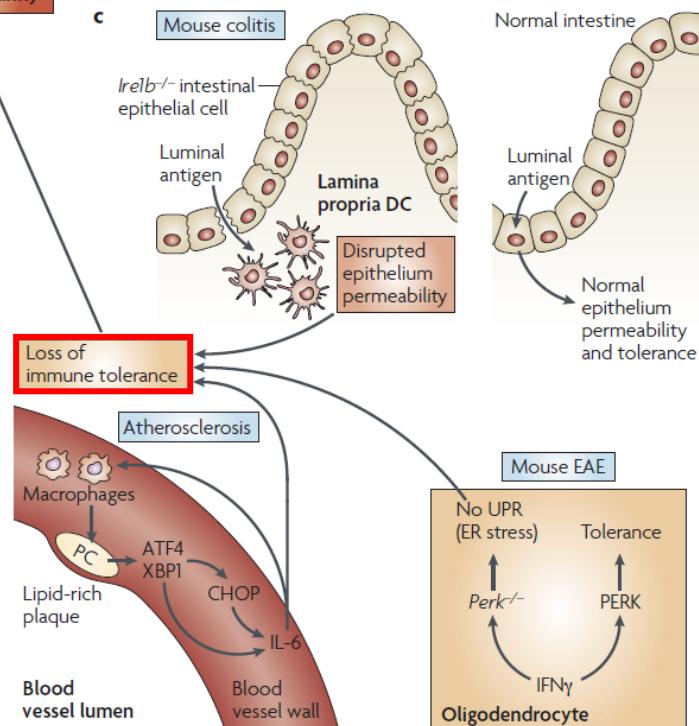
Rheumatoid arthritis



Synovial hyperplasia



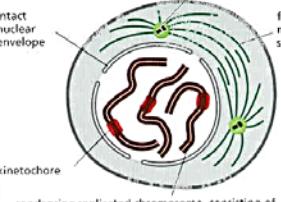
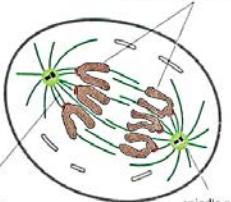
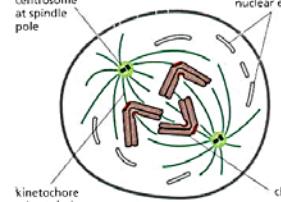
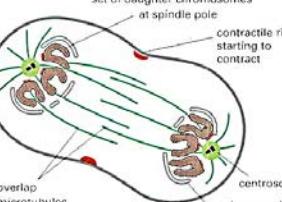
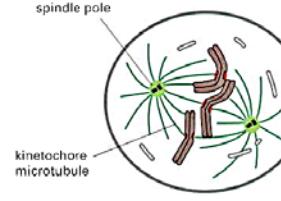
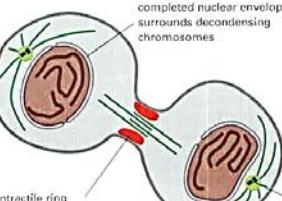
Bone destruction



EOD

Development of multi-cellular organisms

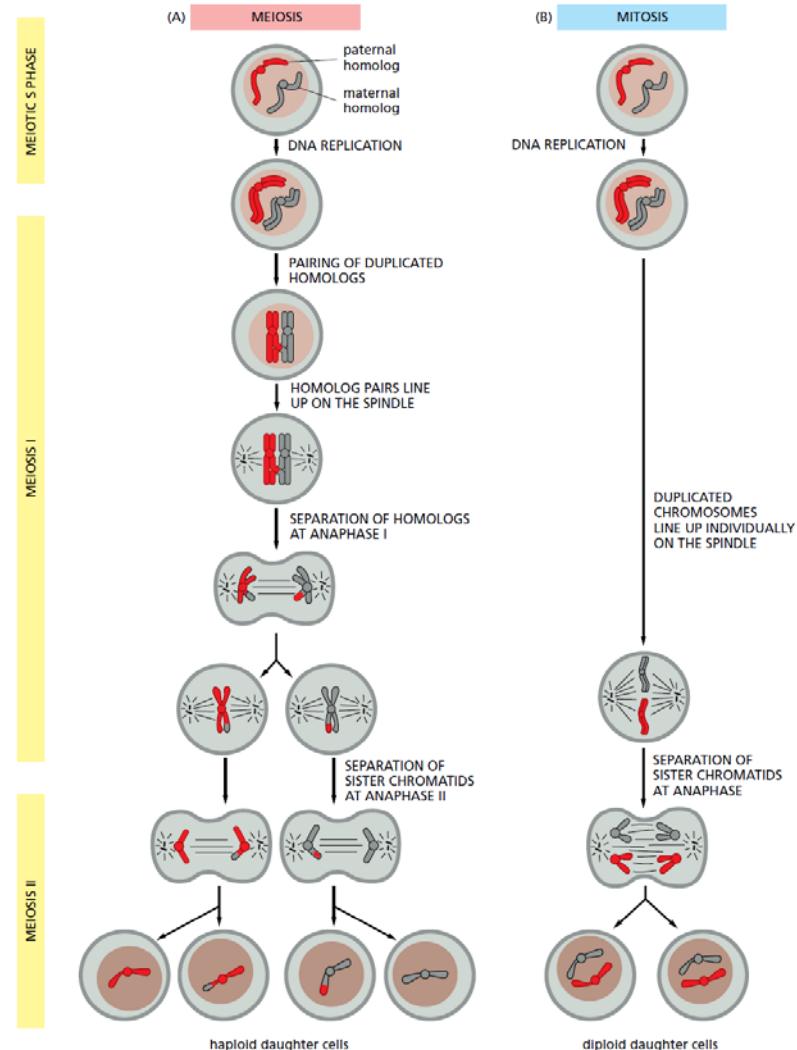
Cell Division - Mitosis

<p>1 PROPHASE</p>  <p>At prophase, the replicated chromosomes, each consisting of two closely associated sister chromatids, condense. Outside the nucleus, the mitotic spindle assembles between the two centrosomes, which have replicated and moved apart. For simplicity, only three chromosomes are shown. In diploid cells, there would be two copies of each chromosome present. In the photomicrograph, chromosomes are stained orange and microtubules are green.</p>	<p>4 ANAPHASE</p>  <p>At anaphase, the sister chromatids synchronously separate to form two daughter chromosomes, and each is pulled slowly toward the spindle pole it faces. The kinetochore microtubules get shorter, and the spindle poles also move apart; both processes contribute to chromosome segregation.</p>
<p>2 PROMETAPHASE</p>  <p>Prometaphase starts abruptly with the breakdown of the nuclear envelope. Chromosomes can now attach to spindle microtubules via their kinetochores and undergo active movement.</p>	<p>5 TELOPHASE</p>  <p>During telophase, the two sets of daughter chromosomes arrive at the poles of the spindle and decondense. A new nuclear envelope reassembles around each set, completing the formation of two nuclei and marking the end of mitosis. The division of the cytoplasm begins with contraction of the contractile ring.</p>
<p>3 METAPHASE</p>  <p>At metaphase, the chromosomes are aligned at the equator of the spindle, midway between the spindle poles. The kinetochore microtubules attach sister chromatids to opposite poles of the spindle.</p>	<p>6 CYTOKINESIS</p>  <p>During cytokinesis, the cytoplasm is divided in two by a contractile ring of actin and myosin filaments, which pinches the cell in two to create two daughters, each with one nucleus.</p>

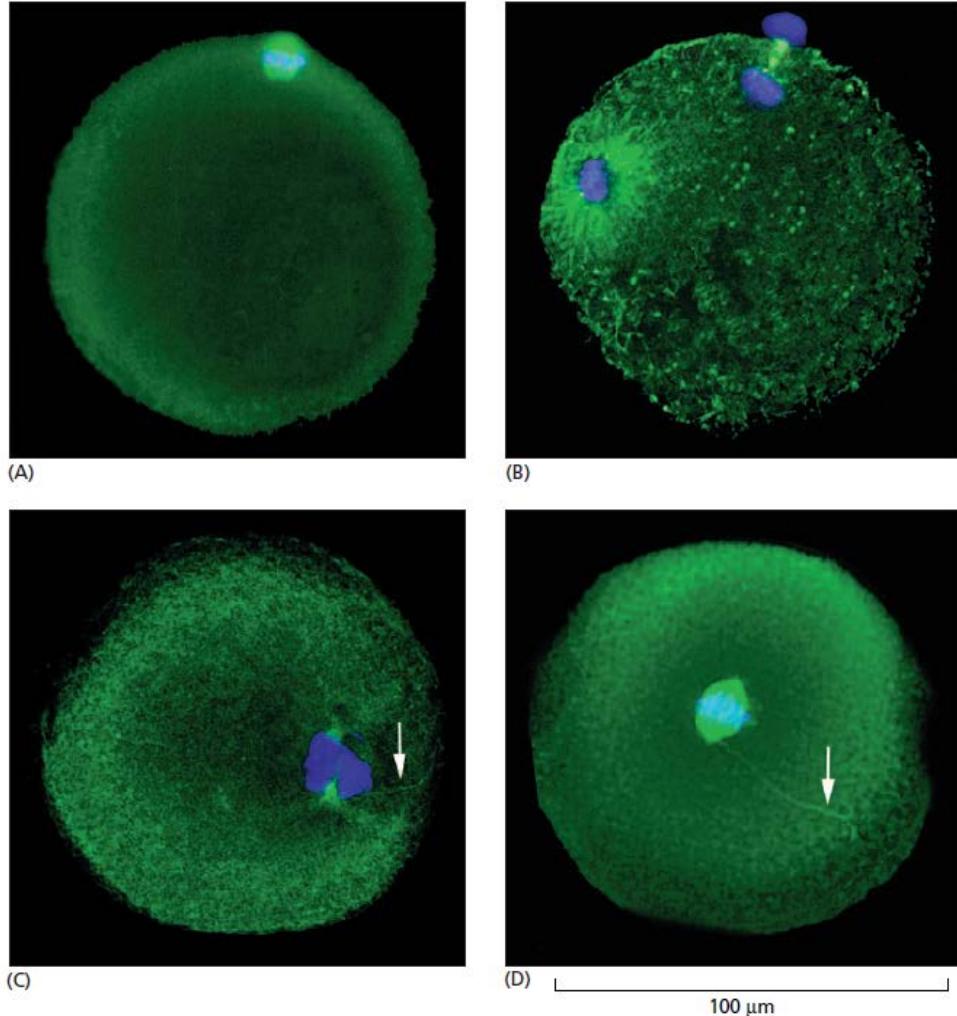
(Micrographs courtesy of Julie Canman and Ted Salmon.)

Germ Cells & Fertilization

Germ cell formation by meiosis

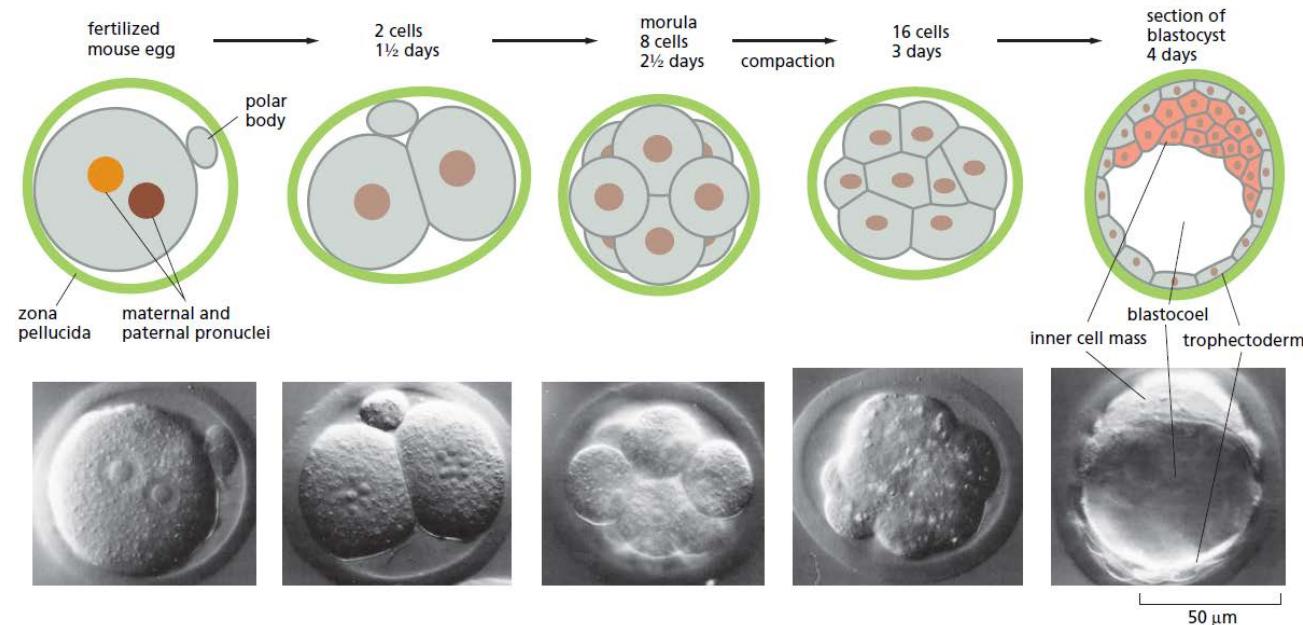


Fertilization



Early Development

The early stages of mouse embryonic development



8-cell-stage mouse embryo whose parents are white mice
8-cell-stage mouse embryo whose parents are black mice



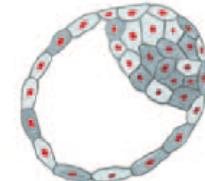
zona pellucida of each egg is removed by treatment with protease



embryos are pushed together and merge when incubated at 37°C



development of fused embryos continues *in vitro* to blastocyst stage



blastocyst transferred to pseudopregnant mouse, which acts as a foster mother



the baby mouse has four parents (but its foster mother is not one of them)

Tissue Formation

