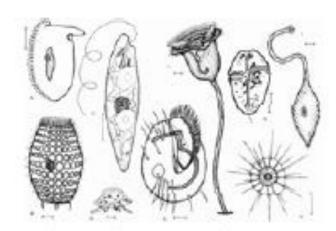
Basic Biological Crash Course

A "small" part of biology



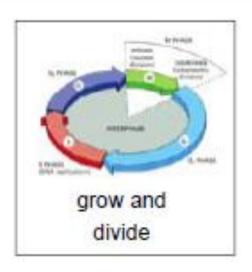
There's a long way from single cells to complex organisms, but cells are the building blocks of more complicated beings and therefore are worth studying.

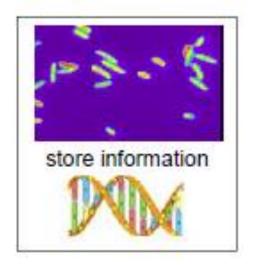
Besides, cells are difficult to understand already. And they can be very complex as well!



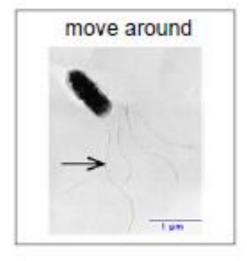
[this and other images were taken from Alberts et al, Molecular Biology of the Cell - 3rd ed]

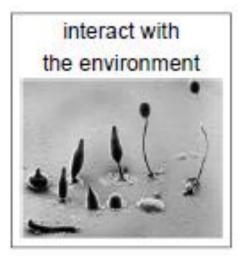
What do cells do?









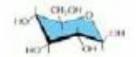


and so on...

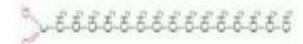
What's in a cell?

4 basic types of small organic molecules

sugars — energy sources, food



fatty acids — membranes

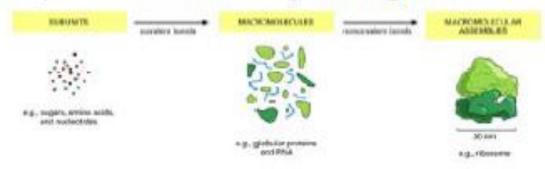


subunits of nucleic acids (DNA,
 nucleotides — RNA); can also act as energy carriers (ATP)

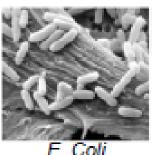


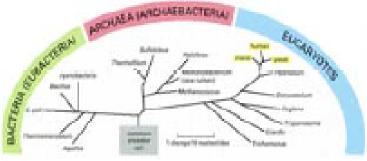
 amino acids — subunits of proteins, the "workhorses" of the cells

And also ions (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, K⁺, etc), lots of water, some other organic molecules, and structures that arise by combining these basic constituents



Two classes of cells







E. COII fadar

[adapted from Alberts et al, Molecular Biology of the Cell]

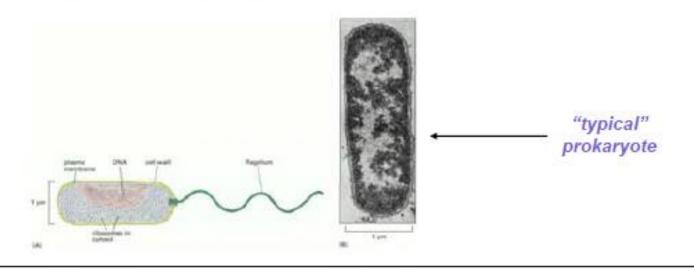
- bacteria and cyanobacteria
- 1 to 10 μm
- anaerobic or aerobic
- few or none organelles
- circular DNA in cytoplasm
- RNA and protein synthesis in same compartment
- no cytoskeleton
- chromosomes pulled apart by attachments to plasma membrane
- mainly unicellular

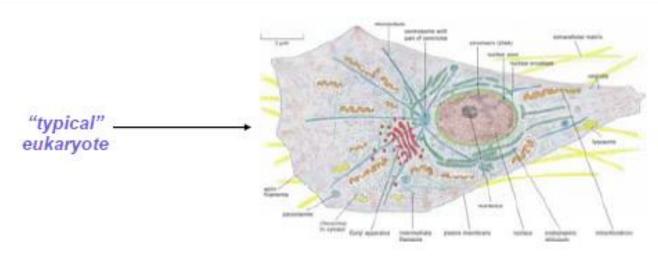
bacteria

- · protists, fungi, plants and animals
- 5 to 100 µm
- aerobic.
- many organelles
- long linear DNA bounded by nucleus
- RNA synthesis in nucleus, protein synthesis in the cytoplasm
- cytoskeleton
- chromosomes pulled apart by spindle apparatus
- mainly multicellular

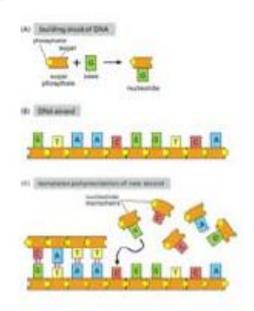
eukaryotes

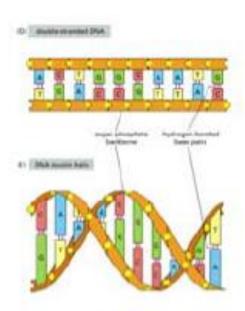
Cell structure





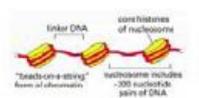






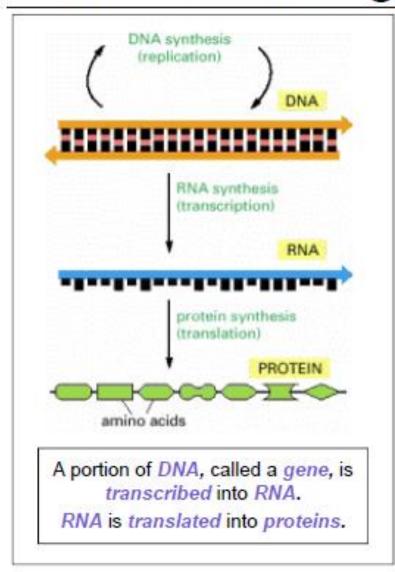
DNA encodes information. It defines the genotype of a cell.

- In prokaryotes it is a circular chain that floats around in the cytoplasm.
- In eukaryotes it consists of several long linear chains called chromosomes, with specialized structures that guarantee a faithful duplication (centromere, telomeres); everything heavily packed inside the nucleus.
- The collection of all the DNA in one cell is referred to as its genome.
- Composed of A, T, C, G bases
- Double helix structure, but it can also be fold in other ways.
- Negatively charged
- Human: 24 chromosomes, each with 10⁷ 10⁸ base pairs.

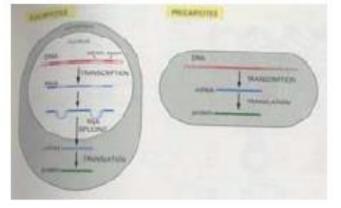


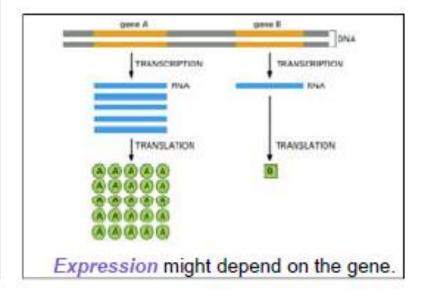


The central dogma

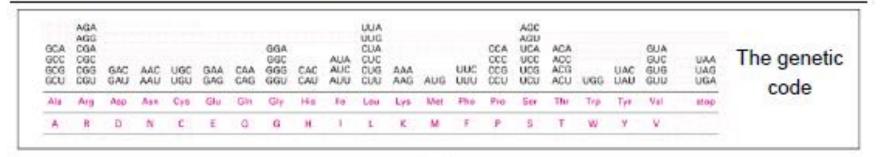


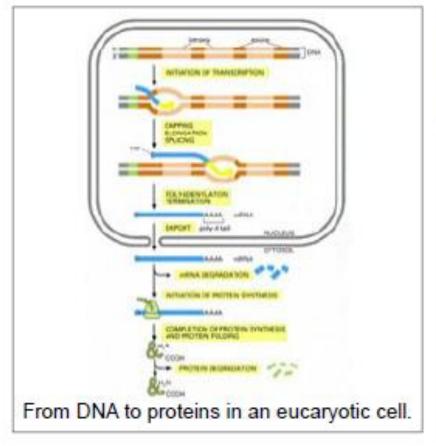
Details of the process are different in eukaryotes / prokaryotes.

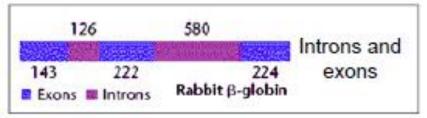


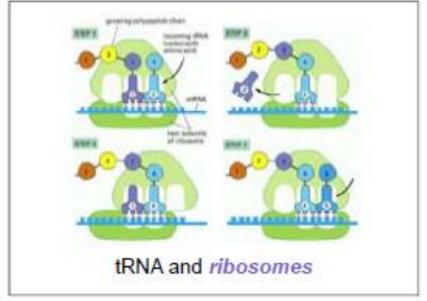


More details...

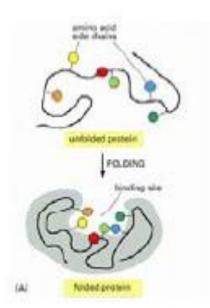








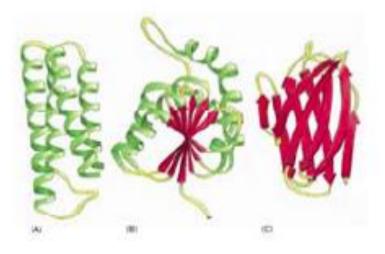
Proteins



AMINO AI	CID		SIDE CHAIN
Aspartic acid	Asp	D	negative
Glutamic acid	Glu	E	negative
Arginine	Arg	A.	positive
Lysine	Lys	K	positive
Histidine	His	H	positive
Asparagine	Asn	N	uncharged pola
Glutamine	Gin	0	uncharged pola
Serine	Ser	S	uncharged pola
Threonine	Thr	T	uncharged pola
Tyrosine	Tyr	٧	uncharged pola

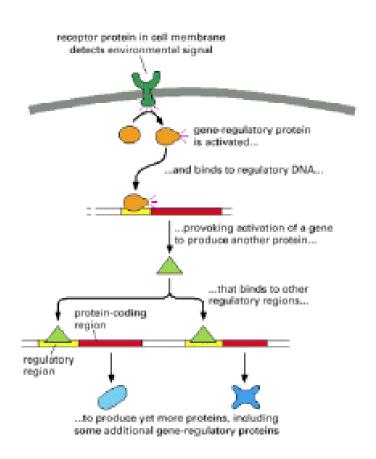
Alanine	Ala.	A	nonpolar
llycine	Gly	G	nonpolar
/aline	Val	V	nonpolar
eucine	Leu	L	nonpolar
soleucine	lle	1	nonpolar
Proline	Pro.	P	nonpolar
Phenylalanine	Phe	F	nonpolar
Methionine	Met	M	nonpolar
Tryptophan	Trp	W	nonpolar
Cysteine	Cys	C	nonpolar

NONPOLAR AMINO ACIDS



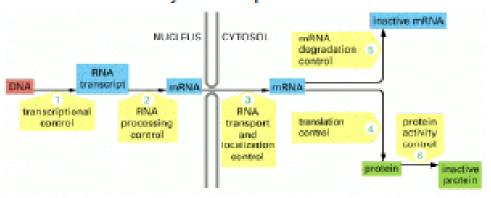
- The function of a protein is basically given by its geometric shape.
- After translation a protein has to be folded properly for rendering it functional.
- Predicting the shape of a protein given its sequence is a huge open problem!

Regulation of *gene expression*



Some proteins, known as transcription factors, bind to DNA and regulate the activity of RNA polymerase, the enzyme in charge of the transcription process.

Regulation can take place all along the protein synthesis process.



To start transcription, RNA polymerase has to bind to a portion of DNA right before the gene to be translated. That region is known as the gene *promoter*.

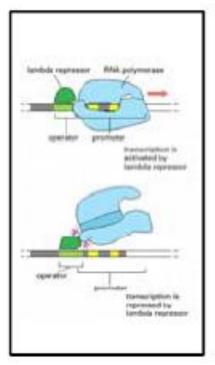
"Activity" of promoters is regulated by the binding / unbinding of transcription factors to some "neighboring" pieces of DNA

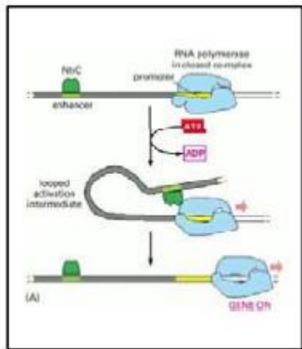
Being able to predict where a transcription factor will bind to and what its effect will be it is also a huge open problem.

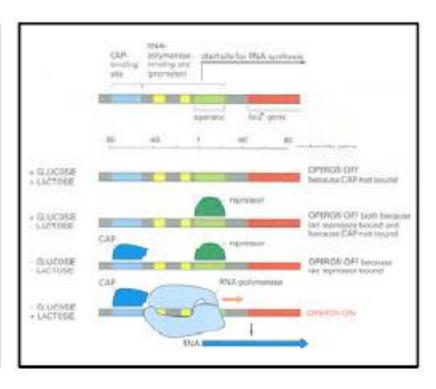
Regulation of gene expression

Examples of models of regulation of gene expression at the transcriptional level.

Transcription factors bind to promoter sites and influence the rate of transcription of a gene.

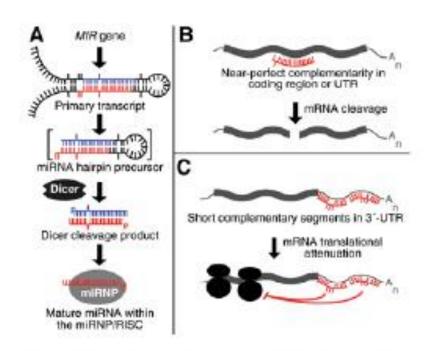






Regulation of gene expression

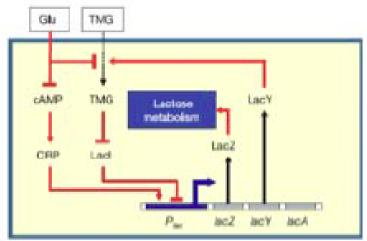
Gene expression can also be regulated at the RNA level, for instance through micro RNAs (miRNA) and/or short interfering RNA molecules (siRNA)



[Douglas Steinberg, The Scientist, 17(12):22 (2003)] [see also B. Bartel and D. P. Bartel, Plant Physiol, 132:1-9 (2003)]

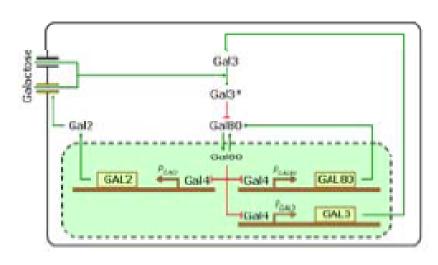
Gene expression

Two examples



Ozbudak et al, Nature 427 (2004)

Lactose consumption regulation in E.Coli.



Galactose signaling network in S. Cerevisiae.

The amount of proteins produced is a dynamic process. It is not entirely determined by the genotype, it will also depend on the environment and the cell history. Cells can use this fact to store information in the amounts of proteins that they hold; different patterns of protein concentrations can lead to macroscopic changes in cell behavior. Any information encoded in this way is referred to as the *phenotype* of a cell.

Part I

Single reaction

'A living cell is a well-stirred bioreactor'

Michaelis-Menten Kinetics

To develop the mathematical techniques to model fundamental biochemical reactions, e.g.

- Conversion of glucose (S) into glucose-6-phosphate (P) by protein hexokinase (E)
- Transcription: binding of RNA polymerase (E) to the promoter of the DNA (S) results in the transcription of the mRNA (P)
- 3. Phosphorylation of a protein: CheY (S) is phosphorylated by CheZ (E) resulting in CheY-p (P)

The reaction

$$E + S \xrightarrow{k_1} ES \xrightarrow{k_2} E + P$$

$$\frac{d[S]}{dt} = -k_1[E][S] + k_{-1}[ES]$$

$$\frac{d[E]}{dt} = -k_1[E][S] + (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES]$$

$$\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = k_1[E][S] - (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES]$$

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[ES] \equiv V$$

Simplified equations

$$E_o = [E] + [ES]$$
 Total amount of enzyme is constant

$$\begin{split} &\frac{d[S]}{dt} = -k_1 E_o[S] + (k_1[S] + k_{-1})[ES] \\ &\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = k_1 E_o[S] - (k_1[S] + k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] \\ &\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[ES] \equiv v \end{split}$$

psuedo-steady state

Assuming formation and breaking of enzyme-substrate reach a balance

$$d[ES]/dt = d[E]/dt = 0$$

[ES] =
$$\frac{k_1[S]E_o}{k_1[S] + k_{-1} + k_2}$$

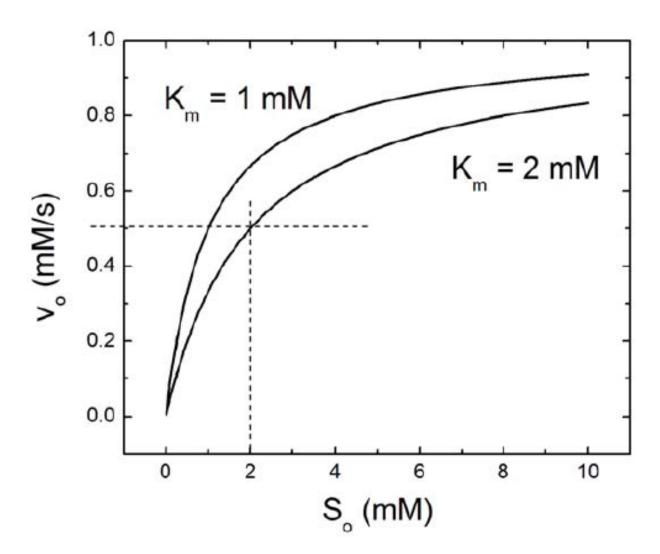
$$v = \frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{k_2[S]E_o}{\frac{k_{-1} + k_2}{k_1} + [S]}$$

Michaelis-Menten equation

$$v_o = \frac{v_{max}S_o}{K_m + S_o}$$

$$K_m = (k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1$$

 $V_{max} = k_2 E_0$



The initial turnover rate as given by the Michaelis-Menten formula

How about the dynamics of the reaction?

Solve the equations

$$\frac{d[S]}{dt} = -k_1 E_o[S] + (k_1[S] + k_{-1})[ES]$$

$$\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = k_1 E_o[S] - (k_1[S] + k_{-1} + k_2)[ES]$$

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[ES] \equiv V$$

With initial condition: $[S]_{t=0}=S_0$, $[ES]_{t=0}=0$ and $[P]_{t=0}=0$

How do we do that?

Meet your next best friend Matlab!

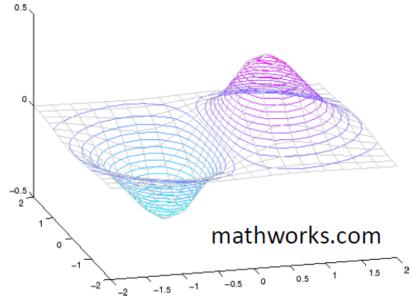
What is Matlab?

- Matlab = Matrix Laboratory
- Problem-solving environment
- Designed for convenient numerical computations (e.g. matrix manipulation, differential eqns, stats, and graphics)
- Developed by Cleve Moler in 1970s as a teaching tool
- Now ubiquitous in education and industry



Why Matlab?

- Great tool for simulation and data analysis
- User-friendly interface
- Many easy to use built-in functions and tool boxes
- Easy visualization
- Easy to get help:
 - help function_name
 - lookfor topic
 - www.mathworks.com





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商业数学软件——MATLAB (数学系采购)

软件介绍:

MATLAB 是美国MathWorks公司出品的商业数学软件,用于算法开发、数据可视化、数据分析以及数值计算的高级技术计算语言和交互式环境,主要包括MATLAB和Simulink两大部分。

安装激活指南:

南科大正版matlab安装激活指南

联系方式:

数学系 - 易豪安: yiha@mail.sustc.edu.cn

MATLAB技术支持电话: 86-10-5982-7000