



<p>Chemistry of Life Unit 1 ↓</p>	<p>Cell Structure and Function Unit 2 ↓</p>	<p>Cellular Energetics Unit 3 ↓</p>	<p>Cell Communications and Cell Cycle Unit 4 ↓</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Water has hydrogen bonds that allow it to have special properties like cohesion (water molecules stick to each other), adhesion (water molecules stick to other surfaces), and surface tension. Monomers form polymers via dehydration synthesis; in hydrolysis, polymers are broken down into monomers. Nucleic acids are what make up DNA and RNA, and hold a lot of genetic information. They are made up of nucleotides, which are composed of a deoxy/ribose, a phosphate, and a nitrogen base. Amino acids make up a protein, and the specific order of the polypeptide determines the protein's structure and function. Sugar monomers bond to form complex carbohydrates. Lipids are nonpolar and can vary in saturation (which affects the structure and function). They are most commonly seen as the cell membrane. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All lifeforms have ribosomes since they synthesize proteins. Cellular respiration occurs in the mitochondria. Chloroplasts have thylakoids and stroma. These organelles are responsible for converting light into usable energy for the organism. Cell size is very important to its survival, especially the surface area-to-volume ratio. The SA should be big enough to be able to exchange materials and eliminate waste products. (High SA, smaller volume = ideal ratio for cells!) Phospholipid bilayers are semipermeable membranes. For nutrients that are unable to pass on its own, they require channel proteins, which can facilitate either passive or active transport. Particles in passive transport follow a concentration gradient (high to low), while those in active transport go AGAINST the gradient (low to high). Organisms like plants, prokaryotic cells, and fungi, have cell walls, which act as a permeability barrier as well as maintain cell structure and function. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enzymes catalyze a chemical reaction by lowering the activation energy required. Enzymes interact with substrates at its active site, but are only functional in certain conditions, otherwise they denature. Reactions can be inhibited by competitive inhibitors (which will bind to the enzymes' active sites) or by noncompetitive inhibitors (which bind to allosteric sites to change the shape/activity of the enzyme). Every enzyme has an optimal pH, temperature, and substrate concentration before it slows down activity and denature. There are two parts of photosynthesis. First, chlorophylls utilize light energy to charge electrons in photosystems I and II. Those electrons are transferred to power the production of carbohydrates in the Calvin cycle Cellular respiration produces ATP. Fermentation will occur in the absence of oxygen. Electron transfers result in the formation of a proton gradient, which results in the storage of energy in ATP, which is then used throughout the organism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Paracrine signaling consists of a signaling molecule being released into the intracellular space between molecules when they are close by. Endocrine signaling happens over long distances. Signal Transduction Pathways consist of three stages: Reception, Transduction, and Response. Reception is the process by which a ligand binds to a receptor on the cell membrane, such as an ion-gated channel or a G-protein coupled receptor. Transduction amplifies the signal by converting it to a form that the cell recognizes. The response can activate gene transcription or whatever the cell response was meant to be. Negative Feedback works to reduce the stimulus (ex. insulin regulation of glucose). Positive Feedback works to increase responses (ex. oxytocin to help with contractions in childbirth). The cell cycle has 3 stages of interphase (G1, S, G2), followed by mitosis (produces identical daughter cells). Cell cycle checkpoints at the end of G1, G2-M transition, and metaphase prevent cell abnormalities.
<p>Heredity Unit 5 ↓</p>	<p>Gene Expression and Regulation Unit 6 ↓</p>	<p>Natural Selection Unit 7 ↓</p>	<p>Ecology Unit 8 ↓</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meiosis has two parts to form haploid gamete cells. Each gamete receives a haploid (1n) set of chromosomes after the homologous chromosomes separate. This is when crossing over may occur to increase genetic diversity Mendelian genetics can help predict outcomes of single-gene traits from parent to offspring. Some traits do not follow Mendel's laws and therefore will not fit within these predictions. They are more difficult to track, as they are less likely to separate from each other. There are three major sources of genetic diversity: crossing over in prophase I of meiosis, independent assortment (2²³ combination in humans!) in metaphase I of meiosis, and random fertilization. Genetic disorders are caused if an allele mutates or a sequence changes (nondisjunction). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> DNA and RNA store genetic information. Chromosomes in prokaryotes are circular while ones in eukaryotes are linear. Bases are purines (G and A) with a double ring structure and pyrimidines (C, T, U) with a single ring structure. DNA replicates from 5' to 3' and is semi-conservative. Helicase unwinds the DNA while topoisomerase prevents coiling. RNA primers initiate DNA polymerase's DNA synthesis on the leading and lagging strands. Ligase combines the fragments in the lagging strand. After transcription (copying of DNA to RNA), a GTP cap and poly-A tail are added and introns are removed. Translation creates proteins by ribosomes reading mRNA and tRNA matching amino acids to codons. Mutations in DNA lead to a protein losing functions, having more functions, or no change at all. Gel Electrophoresis separates DNA fragments by size while PCR amplifies DNA segments. DNA sequencing determines the order of nucleotides in a DNA molecule. Bacterial transformation introduces DNA to bacterial cells. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evolutionary fitness is measured by reproductive success. Competition is what creates natural selection. As environments change, different selective pressures are put on populations that affect phenotypes Evolution is also driven by random events like mutations, and genetic drifts. The Hardy-Weinberg equation (see formula sheet!) is used to predict equilibrium frequencies. Fossil age can be estimated using carbon-14 dating, geographical data, and identifying the age of rocks surrounding it. Organisms are linked thanks to common ancestry, and they keep evolving. Phylogenetic trees and cladograms both show relationships between lineages. Extinction provides newly available niches. Variation affects population dynamics. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Homeostasis is how organisms respond to external events to maintain internal equilibrium. A net gain in energy allows growth in an organism. Endotherms can use thermal energy to maintain internal temperatures, while exotherms cannot. Some factors, like population size, population change over time, and carrying capacity, limit populations. These relationships are represented in an s-curve. Simpson's Diversity Index calculates the diversity in an ecosystem. The more biodiversity an ecosystem has, the more resilient it is to disruptions. There are many kinds of species interactions: commensalism, mutualism, parasitism, predator-prey, competition, etc. When you go up a trophic level, only 10% of the energy is transferred; most energy is lost in the form of heat from one trophic level to another.