

4

Cells: The Basic Units of Life



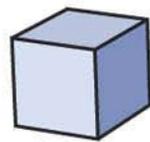
- The Cell: The Basic Unit of Life
- Prokaryotic Cells
- Eukaryotic Cells
- Organelles that Process Information
- The Endomembrane System
- Organelles that Process Energy
- Other Organelles
- The Cytoskeleton
- Extracellular Structures

- Life requires a structural compartment separate from the external environment in which macromolecules can perform unique functions in a relatively constant internal environment.
- These “living compartments” are cells.

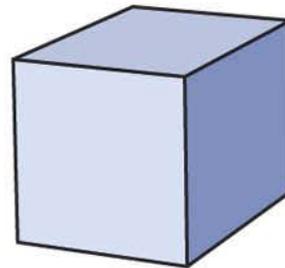
- The **cell theory** states that:
 - Cells are the fundamental units of life.
 - All organisms are composed of cells.
 - All cells come from preexisting cells.

- Cell size is limited by the surface area-to-volume ratio.
- The surface of a cell is the area that interfaces with the cell's environment. The volume of a cell is a measure of the space inside a cell.
- Surface area-to-volume ratio is defined as the surface area divided by the volume. For any given shape, increasing volume decreases the surface area-to-volume ratio.

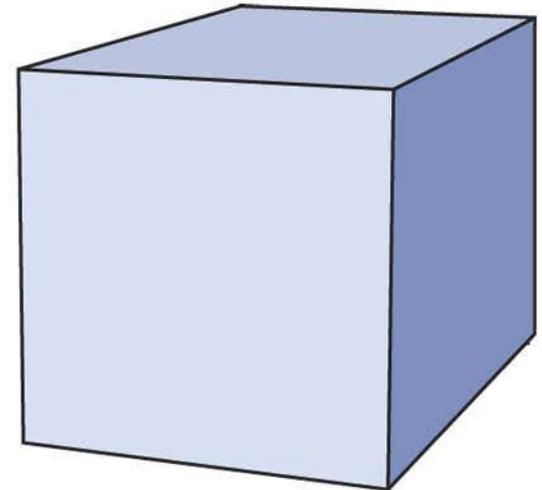
Figure 4.3 *Why Cells are Small*



1-mm cube



2-mm cube



4-mm cube

	1-mm cube	2-mm cube	4-mm cube
Surface area	6 sides $\times 1^2$ = 6 mm ²	6 sides $\times 2^2$ = 24 mm ²	6 sides $\times 4^2$ = 96 mm ²
Volume	$1^3 = 1$ mm ³	$2^3 = 8$ mm ³	$4^3 = 64$ mm ³
Surface area- to-volume ratio	6/1	3/1	1.5/1

- Because most cells are tiny, with diameters in the range of 1 to 100 μm , microscopes are needed to visualize them.
- With normal human vision the smallest objects that can be resolved (i.e., distinguished from one another) are about 200 μm (0.2 mm) in size.

Figure 4.2 The Scale of Life

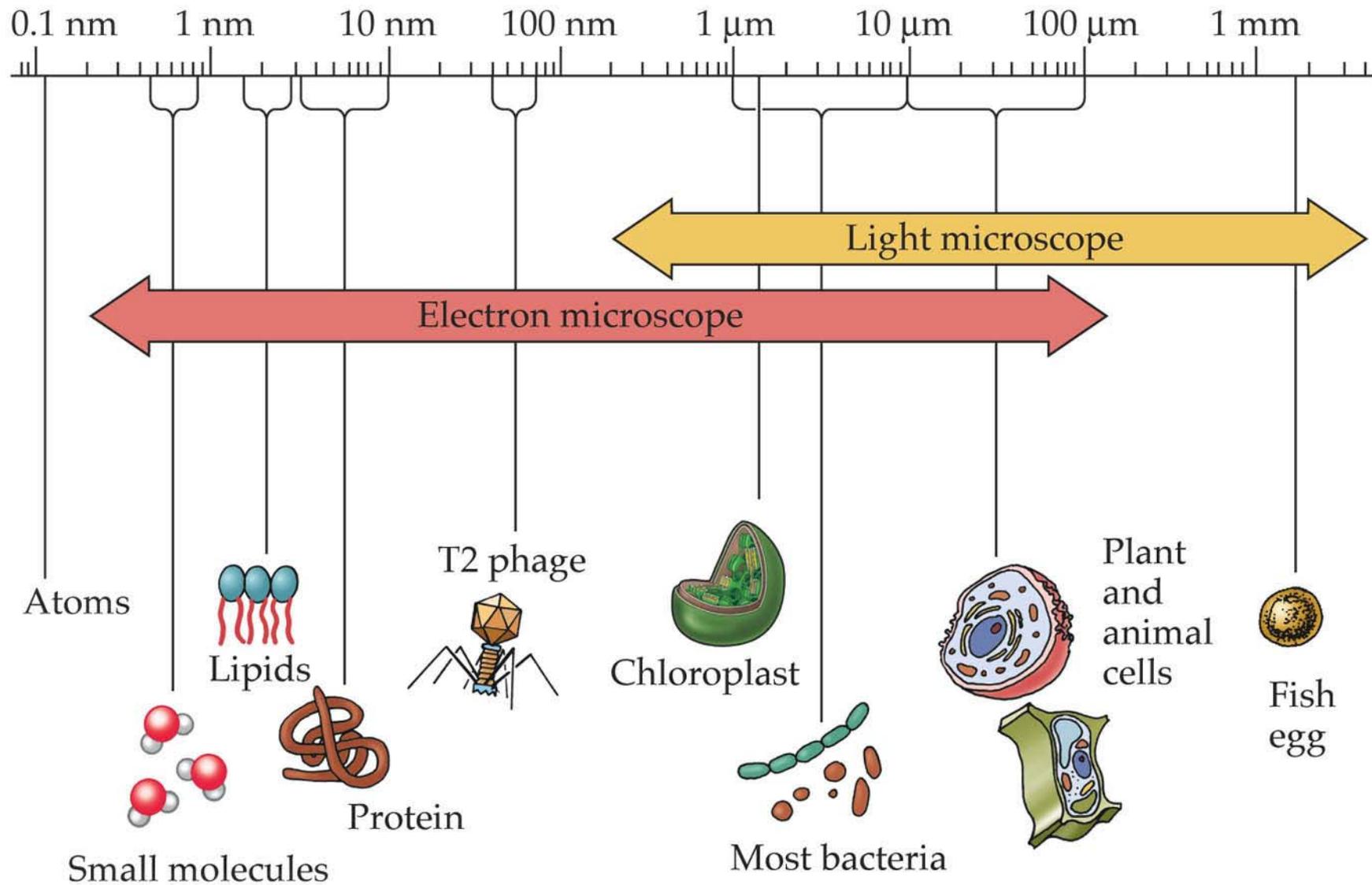
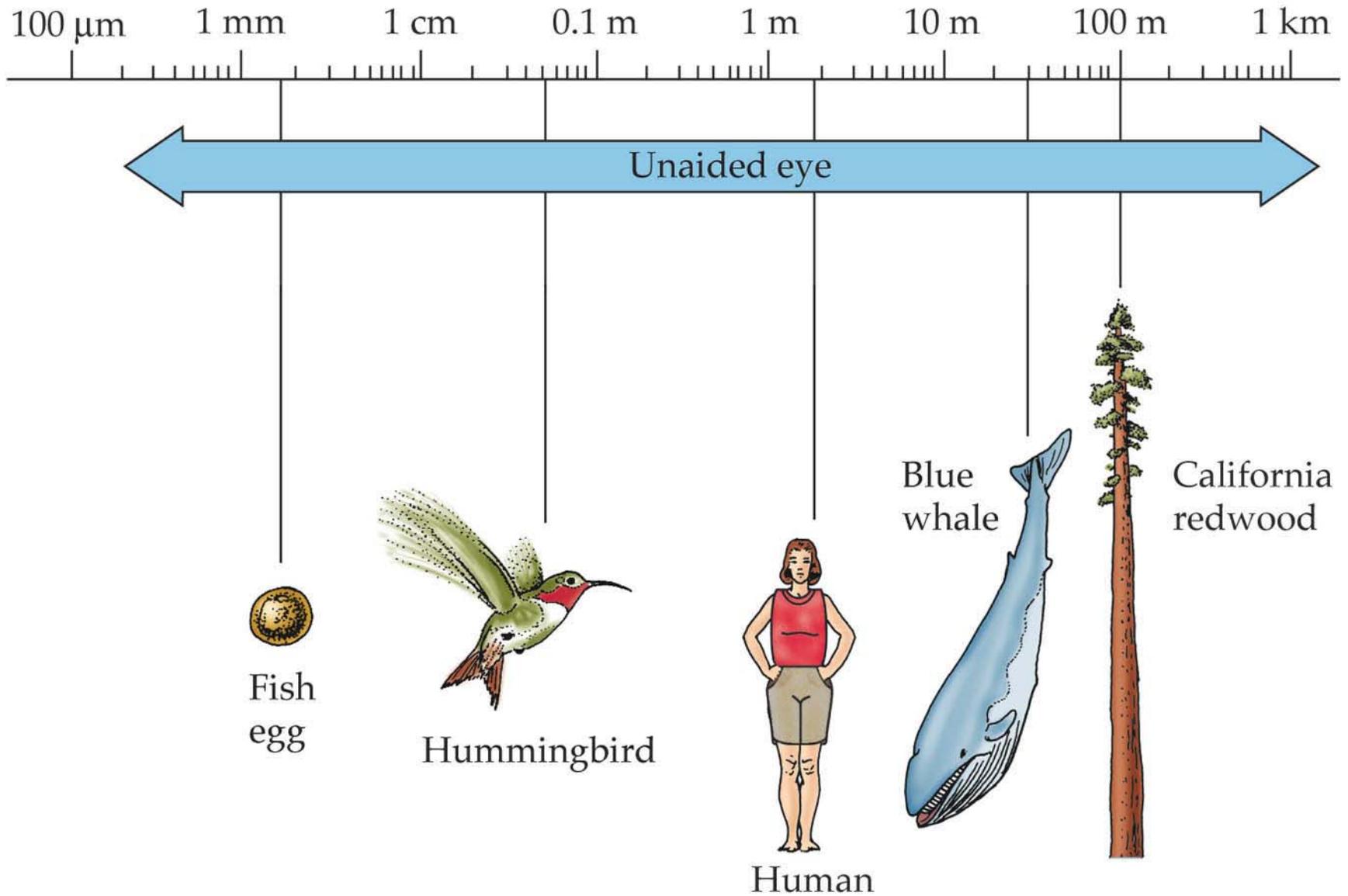


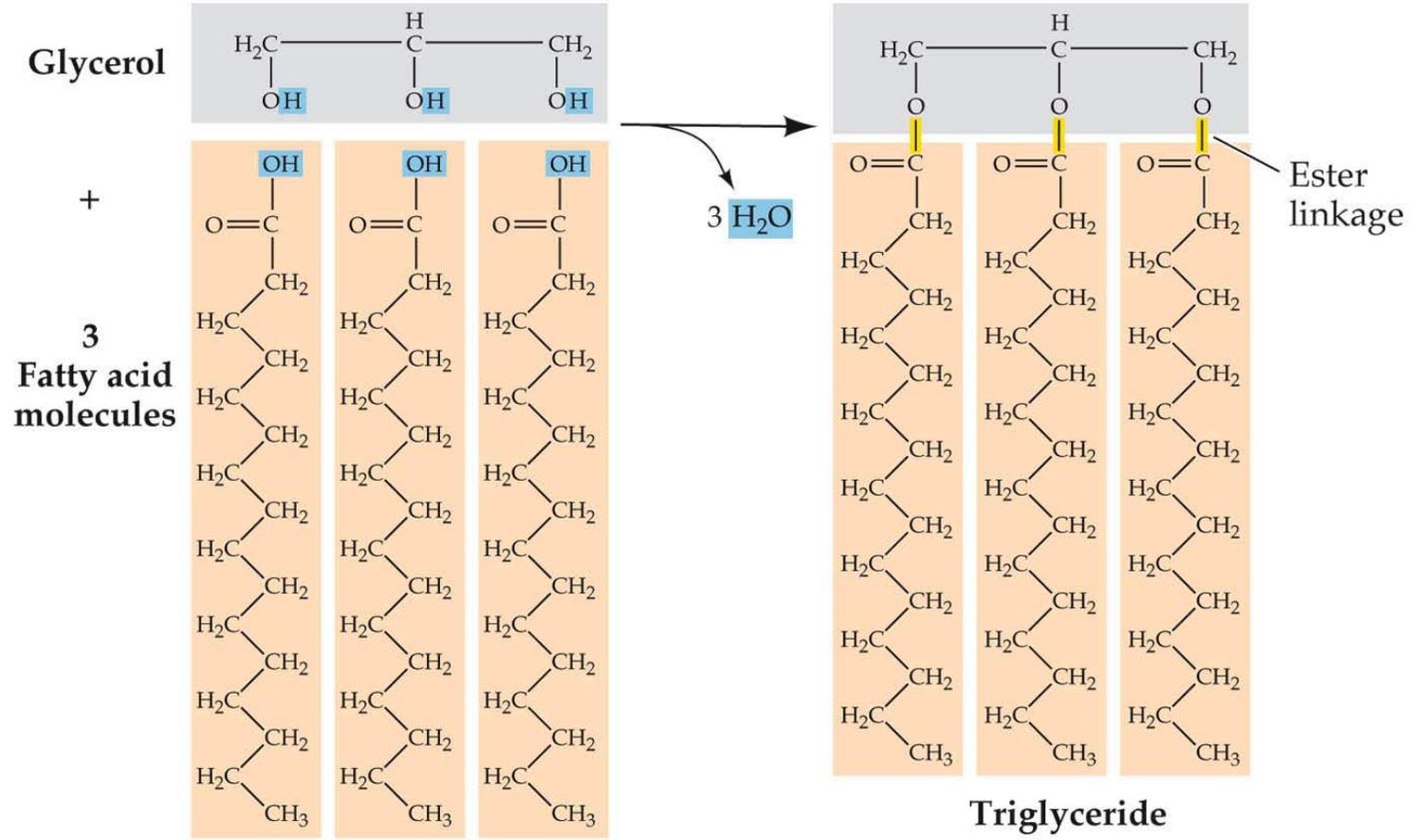
Figure 4.2 The Scale of Life



- Every cell is surrounded by a **plasma (cell) membrane**, a continuous membrane composed of a lipid bilayer with proteins floating within it and protruding from it.
- **Lipids** are insoluble in water.
- This insolubility results from the many nonpolar covalent bonds of hydrogen and carbon in lipids.
- Lipids aggregate away from water, which is polar, and are attracted to each other via weak, but additive, van der Waals forces.

- Roles for lipids in organisms include:
 - Energy storage (fats and oils)
 - Plasma (cell) membranes (phospholipids)
 - Capture of light energy (carotinoids)
 - Hormones and vitamins (steroids and modified fatty acids)
 - Thermal insulation
 - Electrical insulation of nerves
 - Water repellency (waxes and oils)

- Fats and oils store energy.
- Fats and oils are **triglycerides**, composed of three fatty acid molecules and one glycerol molecule.
- **Glycerol** is a three-carbon molecule with three hydroxyl (—OH) groups, one for each carbon.
- **Fatty acids** are long chains of hydrocarbons with a carboxyl group (—COOH) at one end.

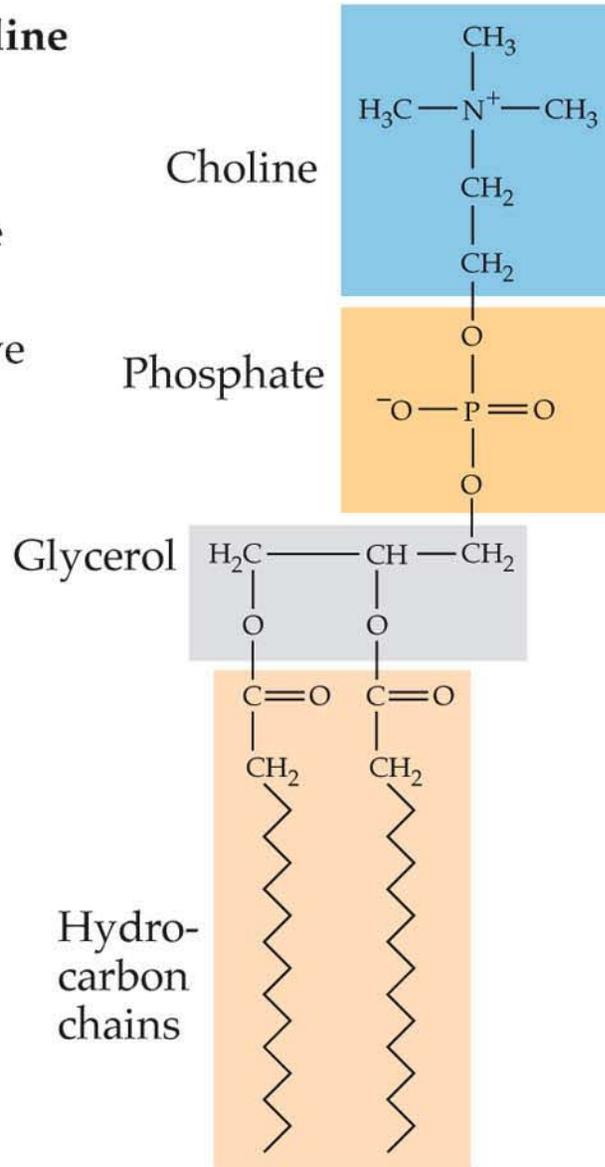
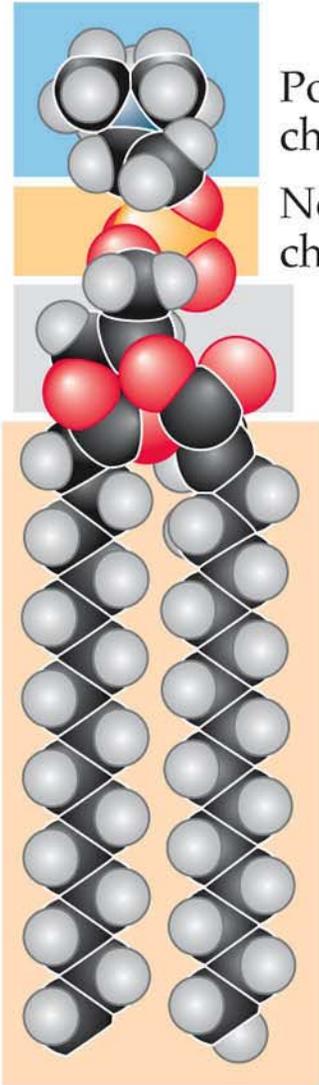


- **Saturated fatty acids** have only single carbon-to-carbon bonds and are said to be saturated with hydrogens.
- Saturated fatty acids are rigid and straight, and solid at room temperature. Animal fats are saturated (think about fat in meat)

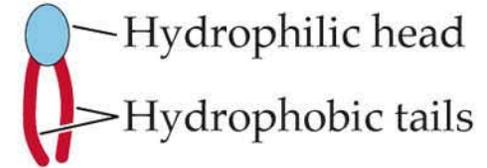
- **Unsaturated fatty acids** have at least one double-bonded carbon in one of the chains —the chain is not completely saturated with hydrogen atoms.
- The double bonds cause kinks that prevent easy packing. Unsaturated fatty acids are liquid at room temperature. Plants commonly have unsaturated fatty acids.

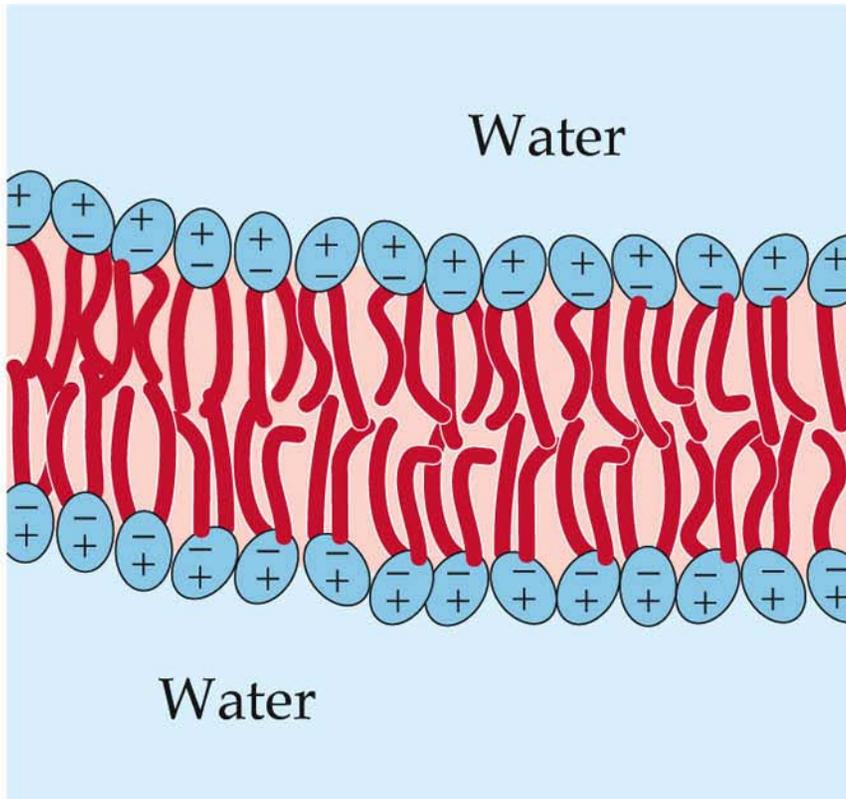
- **Phospholipids** have two hydrophobic fatty acid tails and one hydrophilic phosphate group attached to the glycerol.
- As a result, phospholipids orient themselves so that the phosphate group faces water and the tail faces away.
- In aqueous environments, these lipids form **bilayers**, with heads facing outward, tails facing inward. Cell membranes are structured this way.

(a) Phosphatidylcholine



(b) Membrane phospholipid, generalized symbol





Hydrophilic
“heads”

Hydrophobic
fatty acid “tails”

Hydrophilic
“heads”

Phospholipid
bilayer

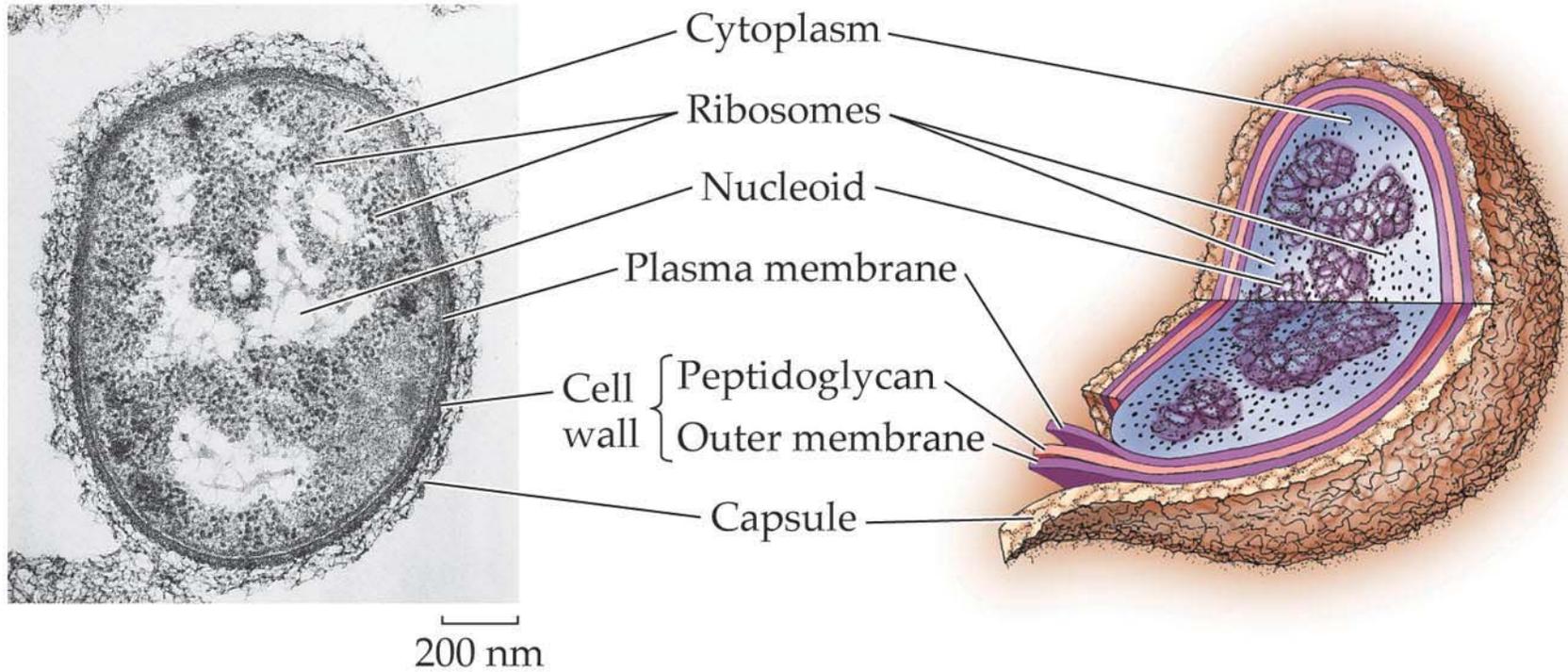
- Roles of the plasma membrane:
 - Acts as a selectively permeable barrier.
 - Is an interface for cells where information is received from adjacent cells and extracellular signals.
 - Allows cells to maintain a constant internal environment.
 - Has molecules that are responsible for binding and adhering to adjacent cells.

- Cells show two organizational patterns:
 - **Prokaryotes** have no nucleus or other membrane-enclosed compartments. They lack distinct organelles.
 - **Eukaryotes** have a membrane-enclosed nucleus and other membrane-enclosed compartments or organelles as well.

- Prokaryotes inhabit the widest range of environmental extremes.
- Prokaryotic cells are generally smaller than eukaryotic cells.
- Each prokaryote is a single cell, but many types can be found in chains or clusters.

- Features shared by all prokaryotic cells:
 - All have a plasma membrane.
 - All have a region called the **nucleoid** where the DNA is concentrated.
 - The **cytoplasm** (the plasma-membrane enclosed region) consists of the nucleoid, ribosomes, and a liquid portion called the **cytosol**.

Figure 4.5 A Prokaryotic Cell



- Specialized features of some prokaryotic cells:
 - A cell wall just outside the plasma membrane (made of carbohydrates).
 - Some bacteria have another membrane outside the cell wall, a polysaccharide-rich phospholipid membrane.
 - Some bacteria have an outermost slimy layer made of polysaccharides and referred to as a **capsule**.
 - In lab today, you will have the opportunity to examine several different bacterial strains and look up their properties!

- Some bacteria, including cyanobacteria, can carry on photosynthesis. The plasma membrane is infolded and has chlorophyll.
- Some bacteria have **flagella**, locomotory structures shaped like a corkscrew.
- Some bacteria have **pili**, threadlike structures that help bacteria adhere to one another during mating or to other cells for food and protection.

- **Eukaryotes**, (animals, plants, fungi, and protists), have a membrane-enclosed nucleus in each of their cells.
- Eukaryotic cells:
 - tend to be larger than prokaryotic cells.
 - have a variety of membrane-enclosed compartments called **organelles**.
 - have a protein scaffolding called the **cytoskeleton** – we mentioned this when talking about trafficking of things around the cell – molecular highways.

- Compartmentalization is the key to eukaryotic cell function.
- Each organelle or compartment has a specific role defined by chemical processes.
- Membranes surrounding these organelles keep away inappropriate molecules and also act as traffic regulators for raw materials into and out of the organelle.

AN ANIMAL CELL

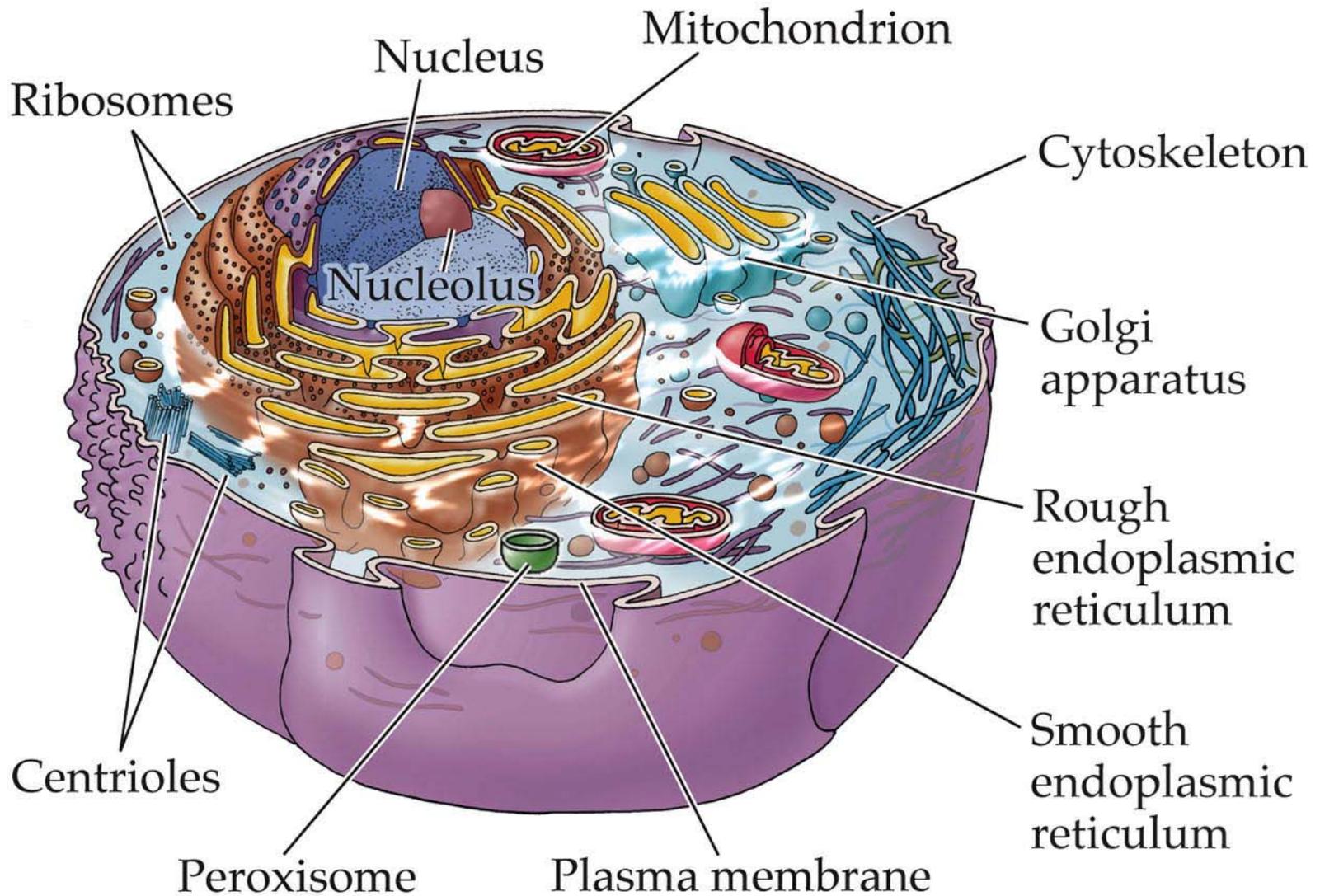


Figure 4.7 Eukaryotic Cells (Part 1)

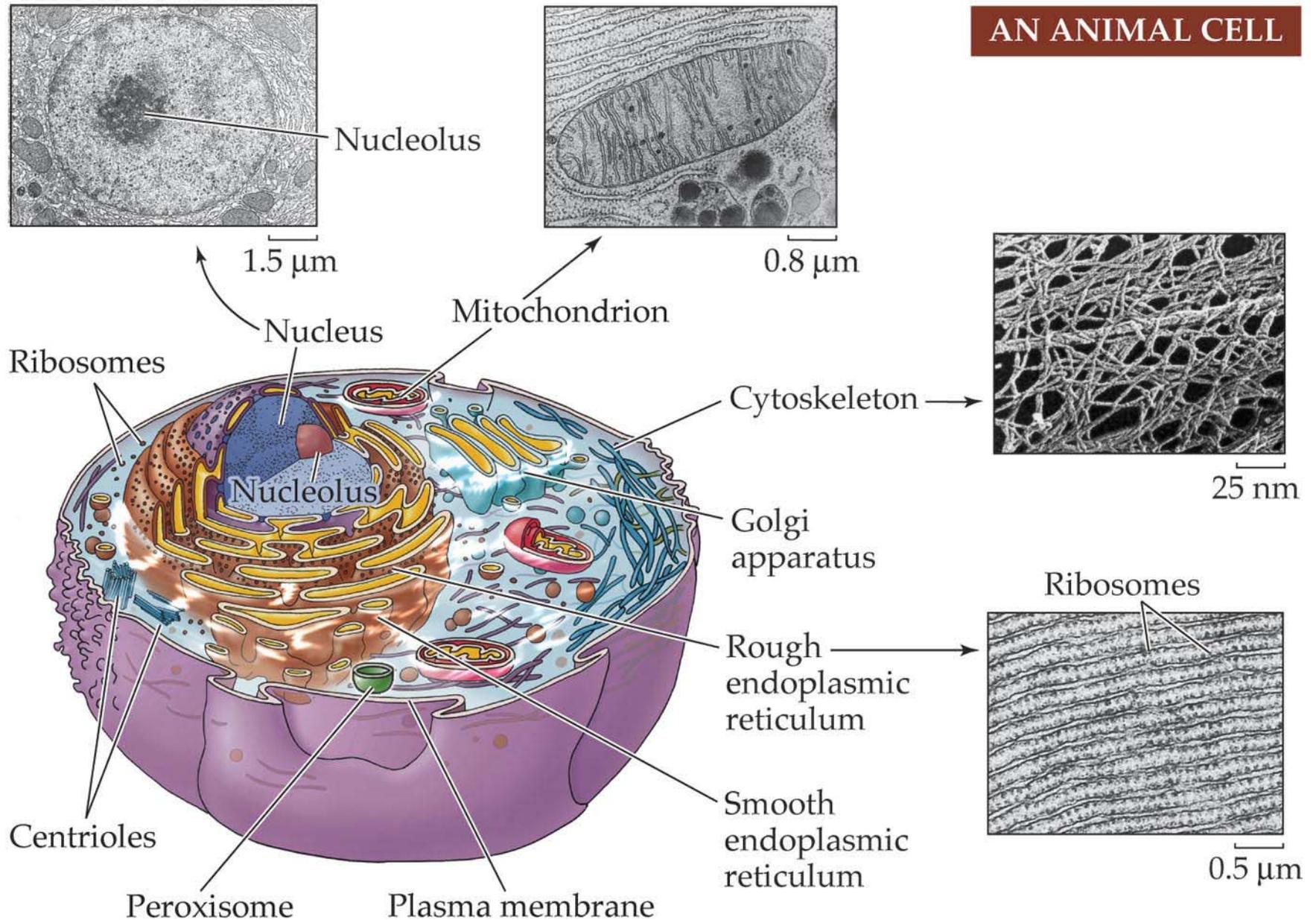
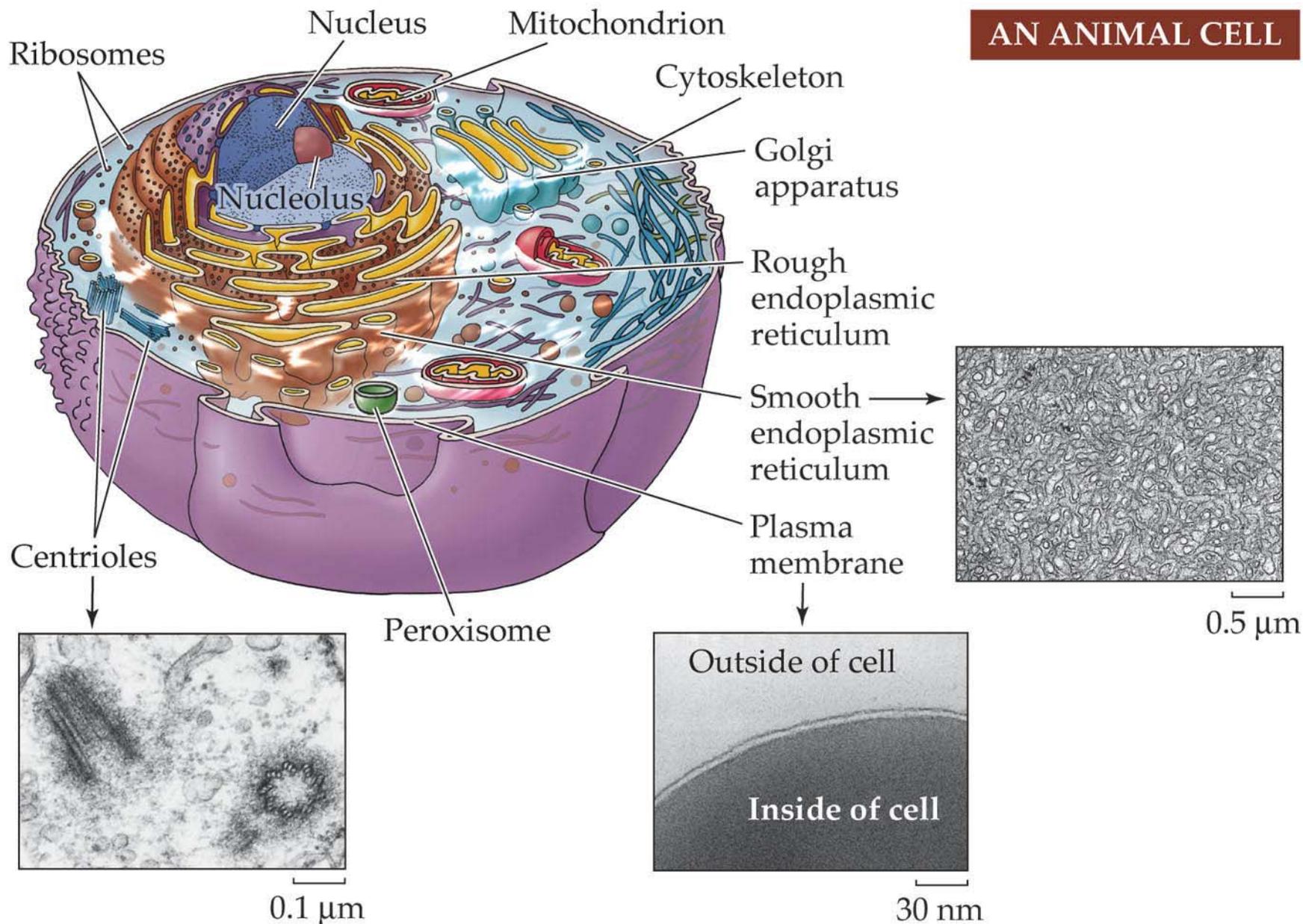
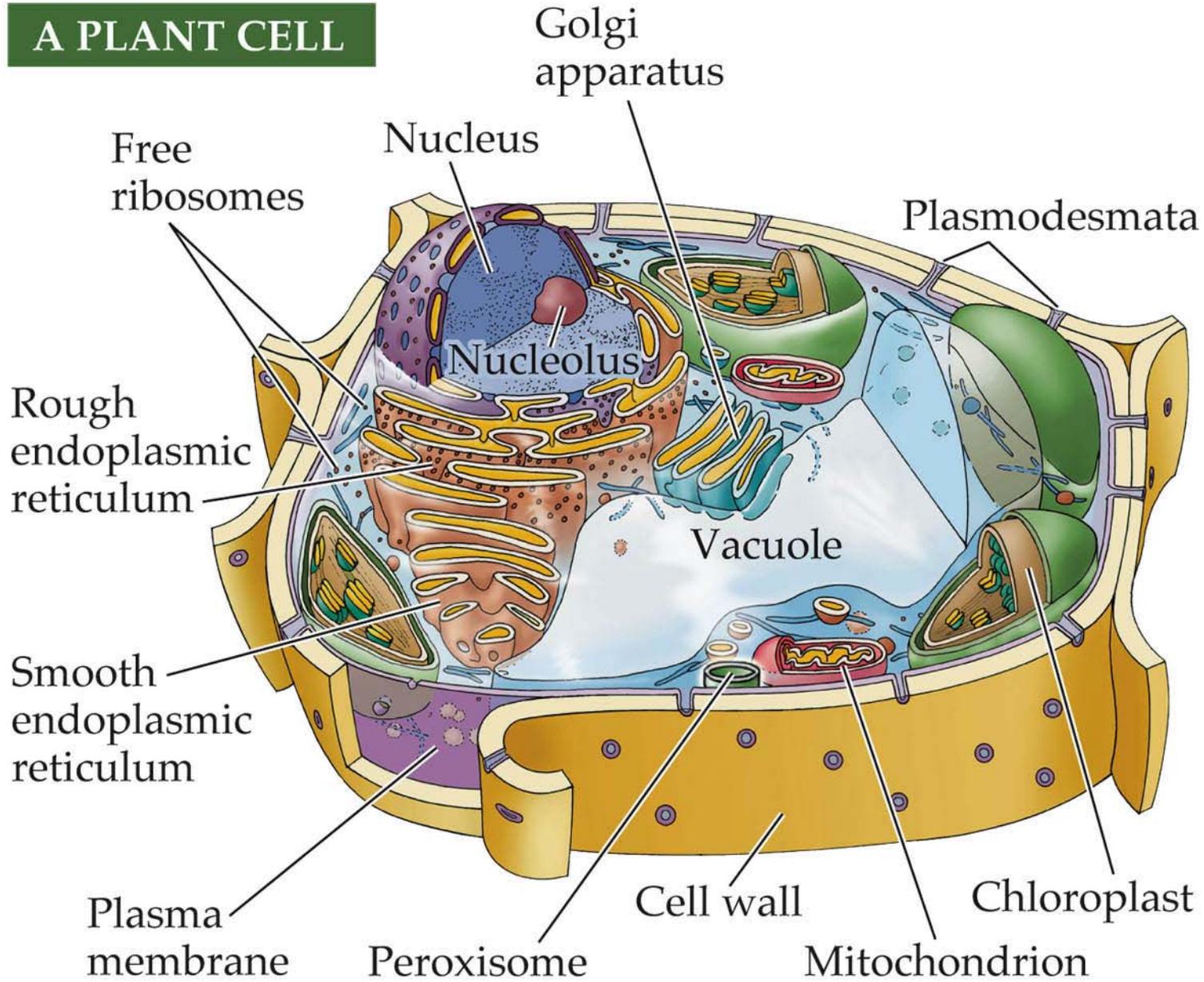


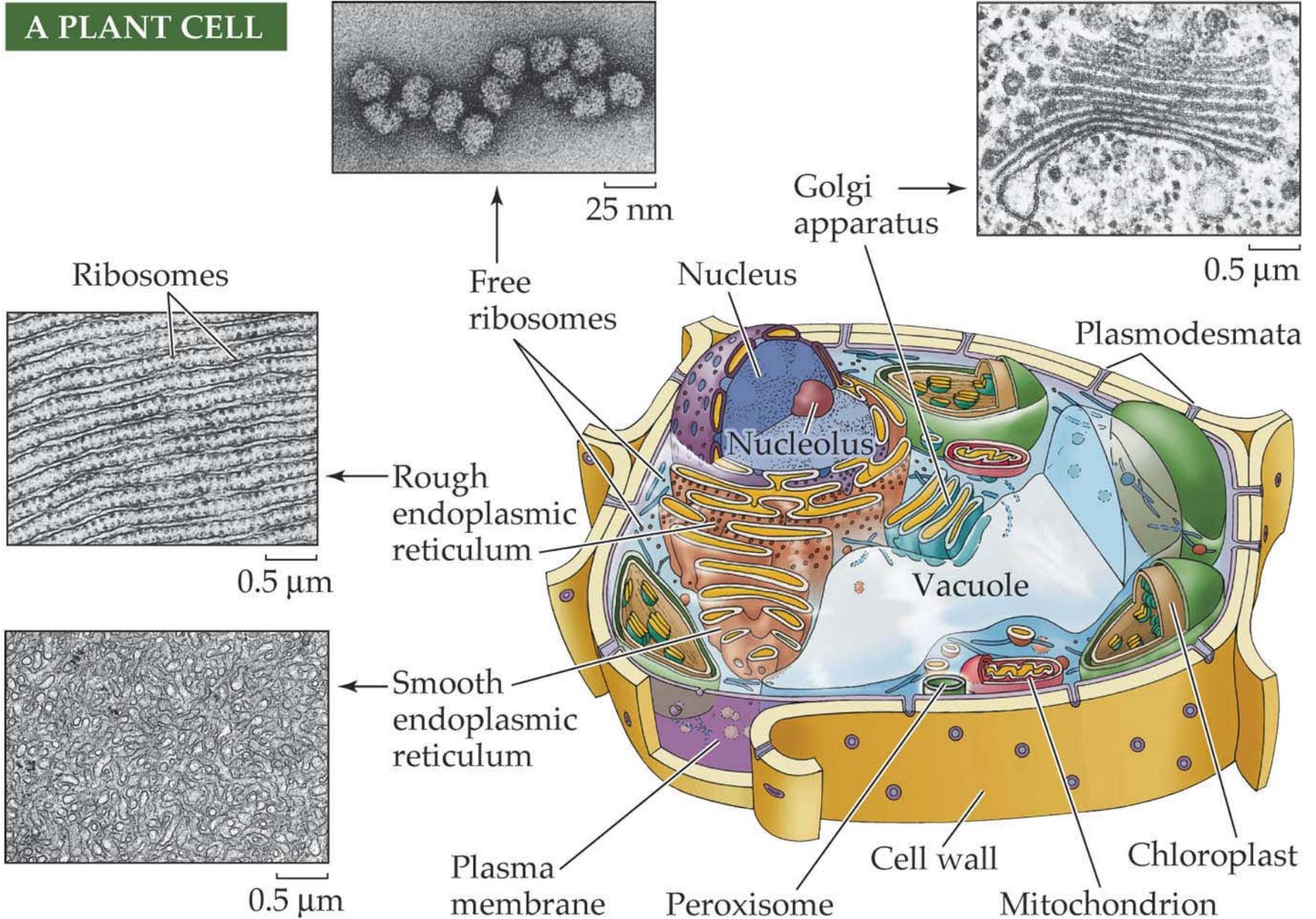
Figure 4.7 Eukaryotic Cells (Part 2)



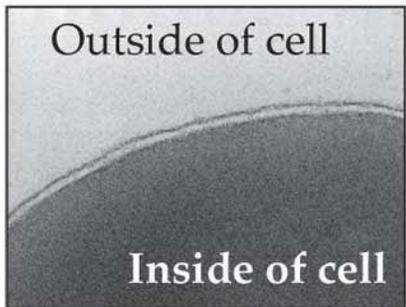
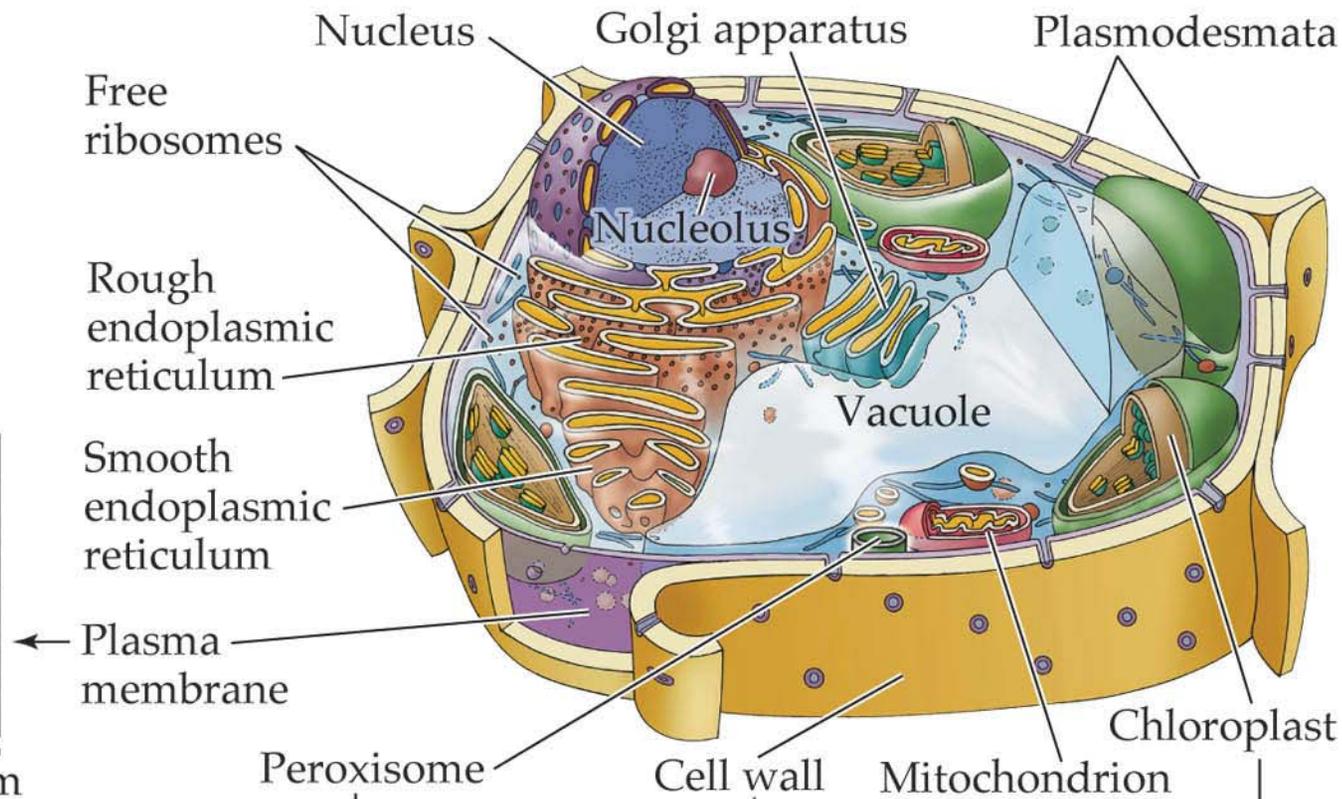
A PLANT CELL



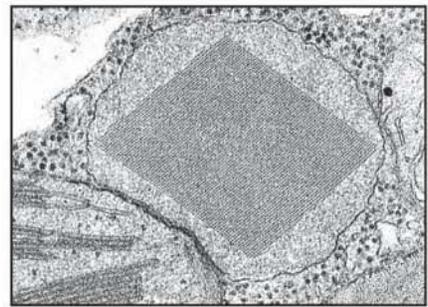
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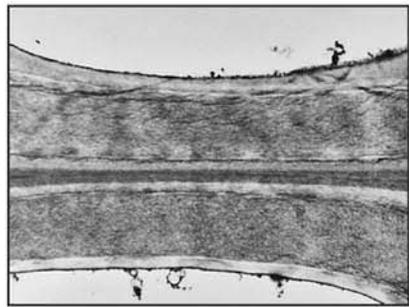
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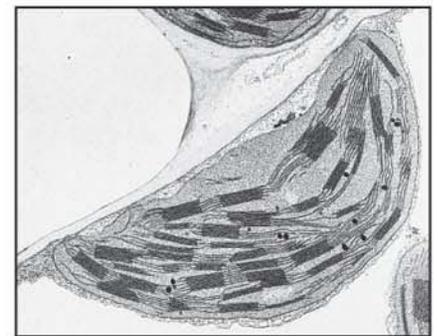
30 nm



0.75 μm



0.75 μm



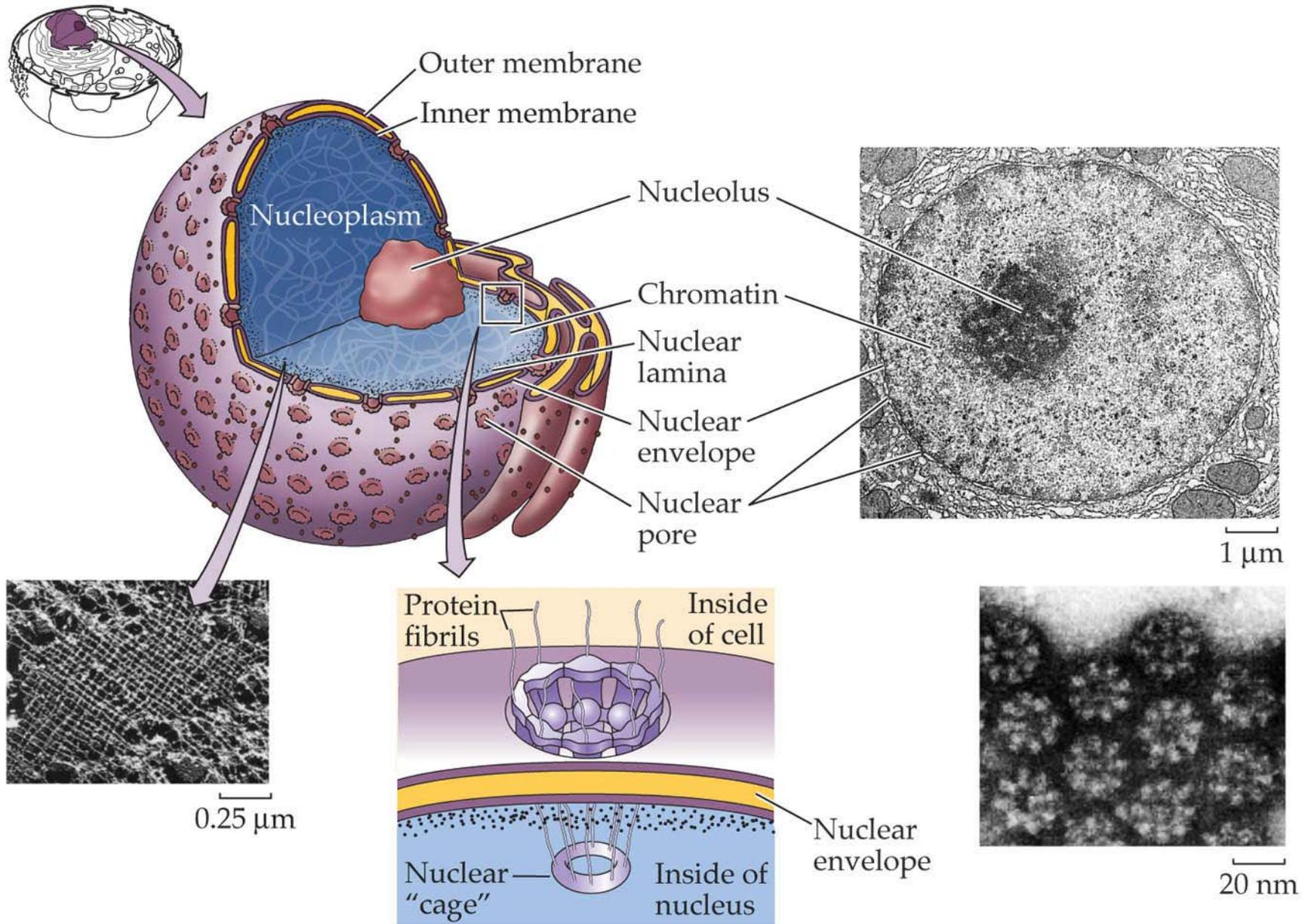
1 μm

- Cell organelles can be studied by light and electron microscopy.
- Stains are used to target specific macromolecules and determine chemical composition.
- Cell fractionation is used to separate organelles for biochemical analyses. **We will do a lab to isolate mitochondria next week**

- The **nucleus** contains most of the cell's DNA and is the site of DNA duplication to support cell reproduction.
- The nucleus also plays a role in DNA control of cell activities.
- Within the nucleus is a specialized region called the **nucleolus**, where ribosomes are initially assembled.

- Two lipid bilayers form the **nuclear envelope** which is perforated with **nuclear pores**.
- The nuclear pores connect the interior of the nucleus with the rest of the cytoplasm.
- A pore complex, consisting of eight large protein granules, surrounds each pore.
- RNA and proteins must pass through these pores to enter or leave the nucleus.

Figure 4.9 The Nucleus is Enclosed by a Double Membrane



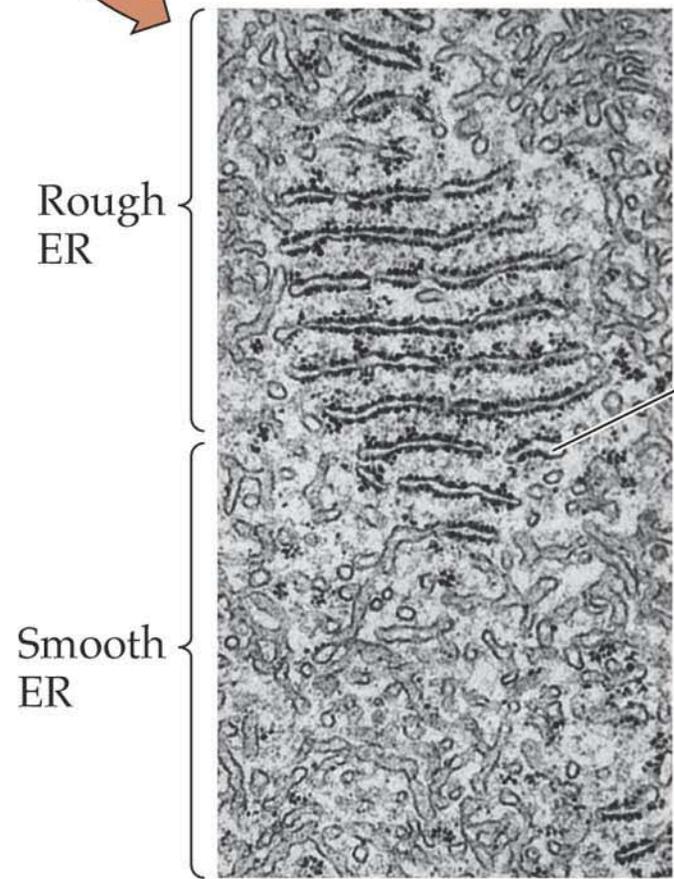
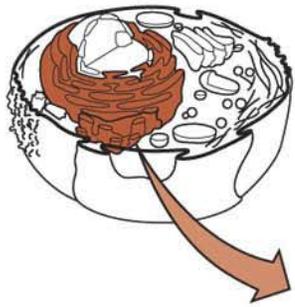
- The **chromatin** consists of diffuse or very long, thin fibers in which DNA is bound to proteins.
- Prior to cell division these condense and organize into structures recognized as **chromosomes**.
- Surrounding the chromatin is the **nucleoplasm** – basically the nuclear cytoplasm.
- The **nuclear lamina** is a meshwork of proteins which maintains the shape of the nuclear envelope and the nucleus.

- **Ribosomes** are the sites of protein synthesis.
- In eukaryotes, functional ribosomes are found free in the cytoplasm, in mitochondria, bound to the endoplasmic reticulum, and in chloroplasts.
- They consist of a type of RNA called ribosomal RNA, and more than 50 other proteins.

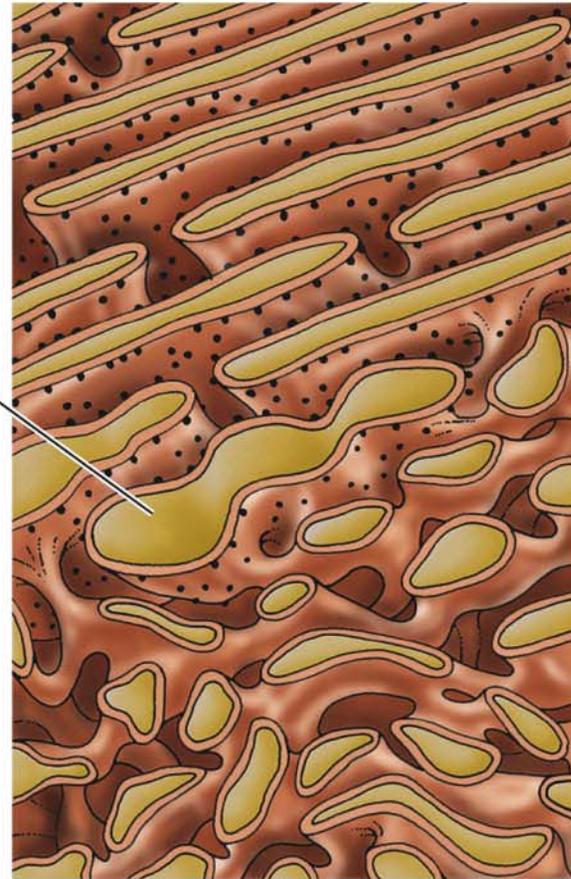
- The **endoplasmic reticulum** (ER) is a network of interconnecting membranes distributed throughout the cytoplasm.
- The internal compartment, called the lumen, is a separate part of the cell with a distinct protein and ion composition.
- The ER's folding generates a surface area much greater than that of the plasma membrane.
- At certain sites, the ER membrane is continuous with the outer nuclear envelope membrane.

- The rough ER (RER) has ribosomes attached is one of the places proteins are synthesized.
- The smooth ER (SER) is a ribosome-free region of the ER. It doesn't synthesize ribosomes. It functions to synthesize lipids, detoxification.
- Cells that are specialized for synthesizing proteins for extracellular export have extensive ER membrane systems.

Figure 4.11 The Endoplasmic Reticulum



Lumen

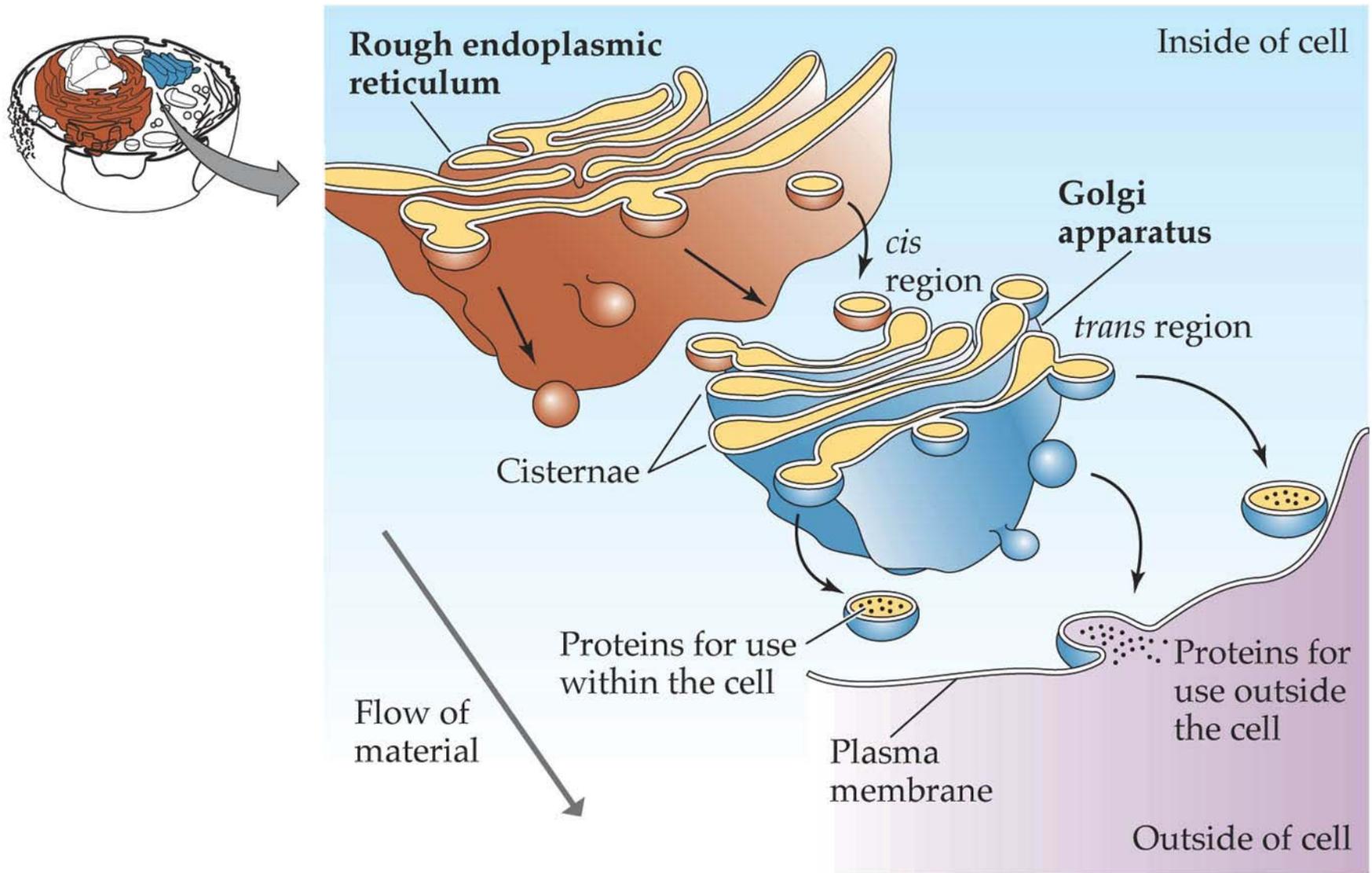


Rough ER

Smooth ER

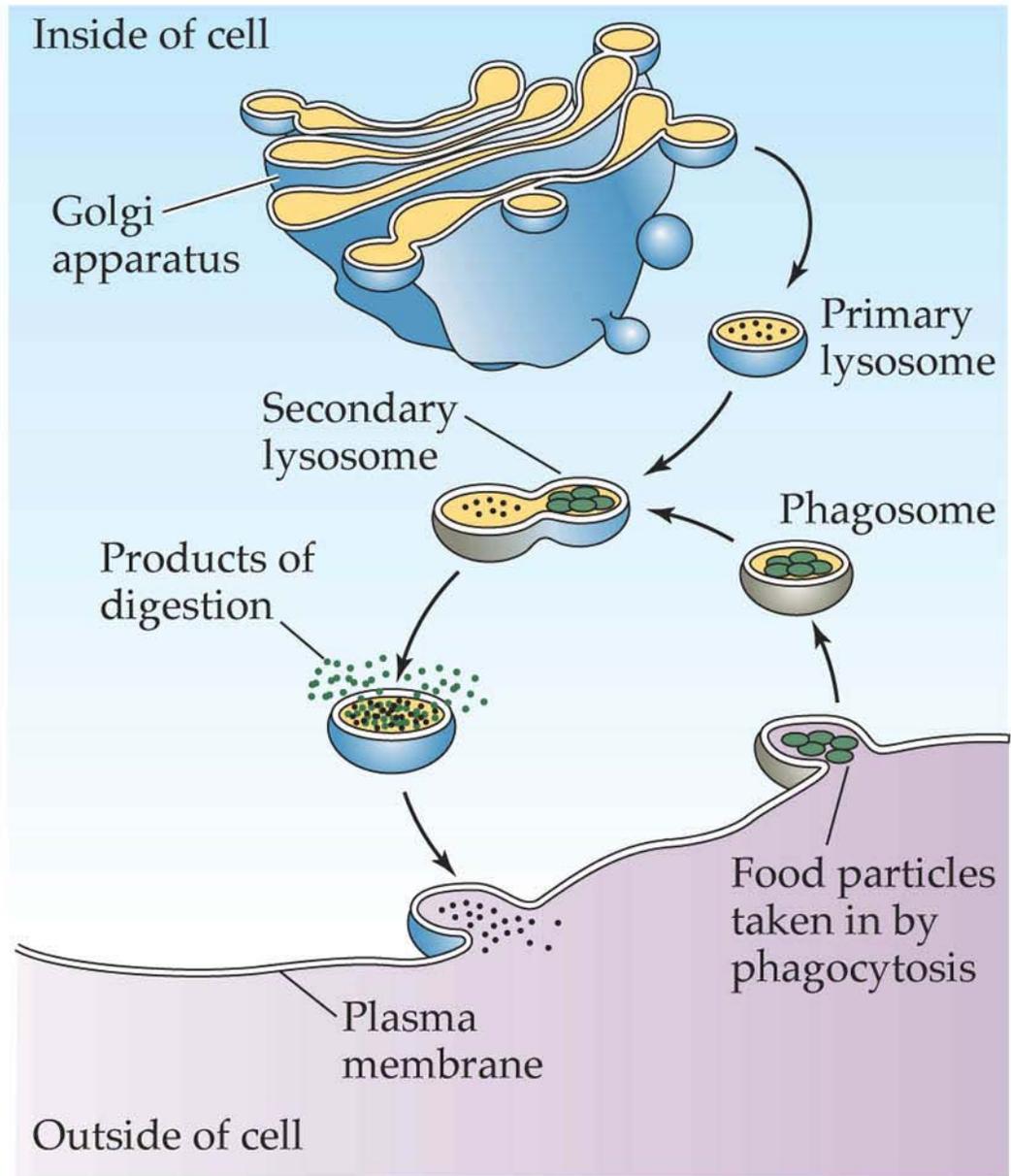
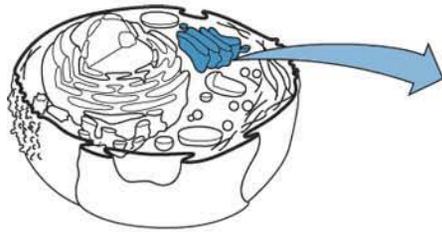
- The **Golgi apparatus** consists of flattened membranous sacs and small membrane-enclosed vesicles.
- The Golgi apparatus has three roles:
 - Receive proteins from the ER and further modifies them.
 - Concentrate, package, and sort proteins before they are sent to their destinations.
 - Some polysaccharides for plant cell walls are synthesized.

Figure 4.12 The Golgi Apparatus



- **Lysosomes** are vesicles containing digestive enzymes that come in part from the Golgi.
- Lysosomes are sites for breakdown of food and foreign material brought into the cell by **phagocytosis**.
- Lysosomes are also the sites where digestion of spent cellular components occurs, a process called **autophagy**.

Figure 4.13 *Lysosomes Isolate Digestive Enzymes from the Cytoplasm*



- The primary function of **mitochondria** is to convert the potential chemical energy of fuel molecules into a form that the cell can use (ATP).
- The production of ATP is called **cellular respiration**.
- *We will study this in depth later in the course.*

- Mitochondria have an outer lipid bilayer and a highly folded inner membrane.
- Folds of the inner membrane give rise to the **cristae**, which contain large protein molecules used in cellular respiration.
- The region enclosed by the inner membrane is called the **mitochondrial matrix**.

Figure 4.14 A Mitochondrion Converts Energy from Fuel Molecules into ATP (Part 1)

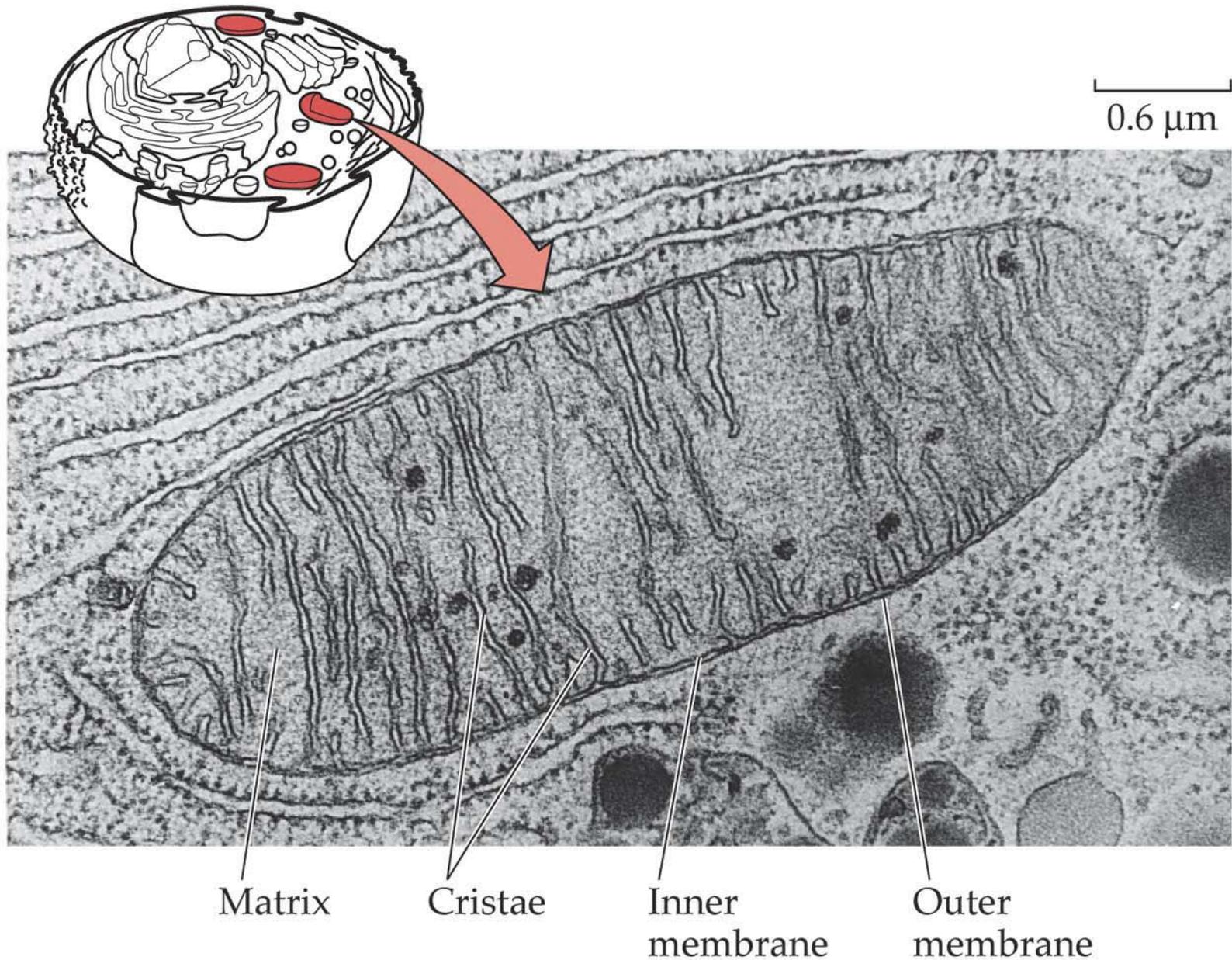
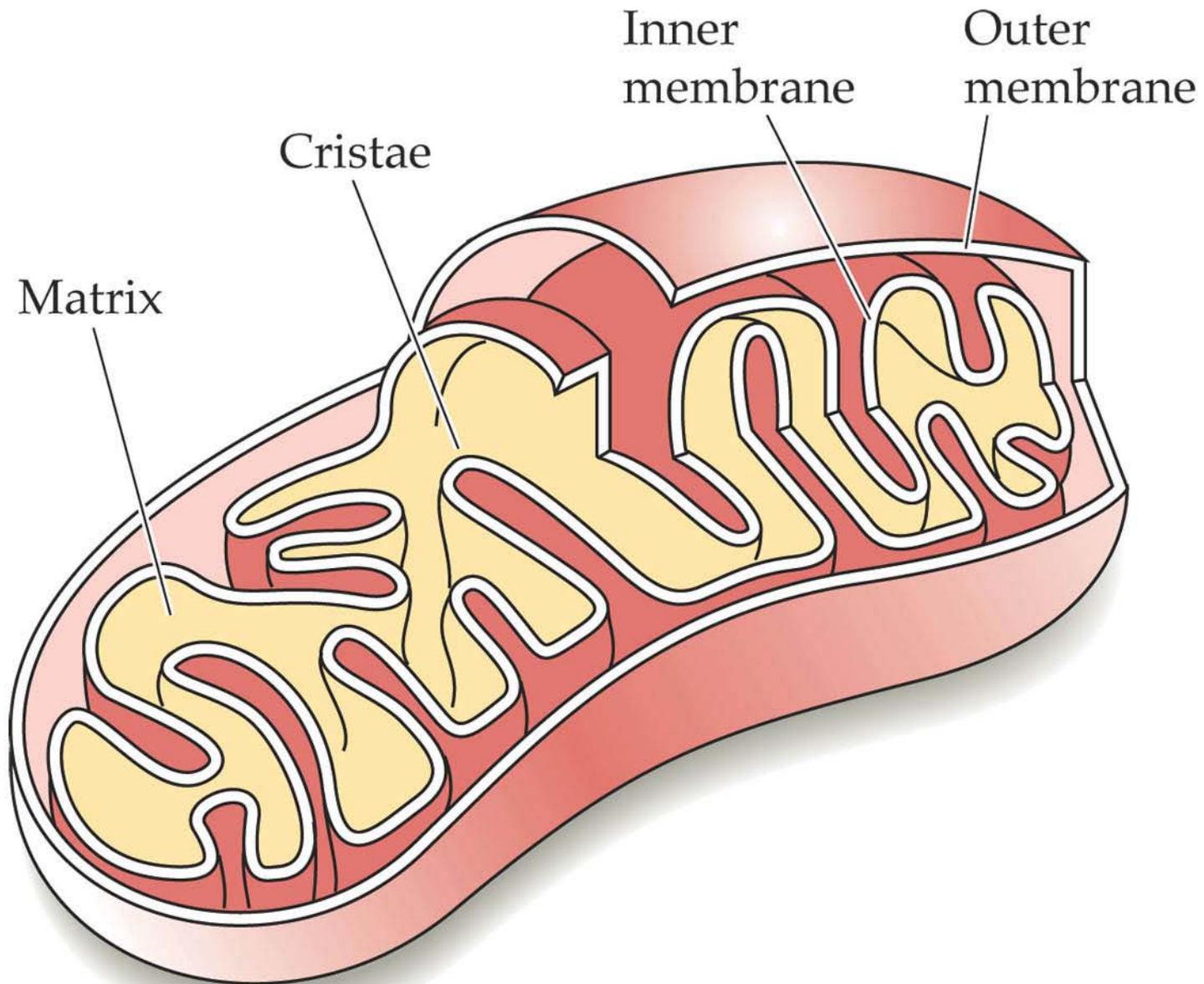


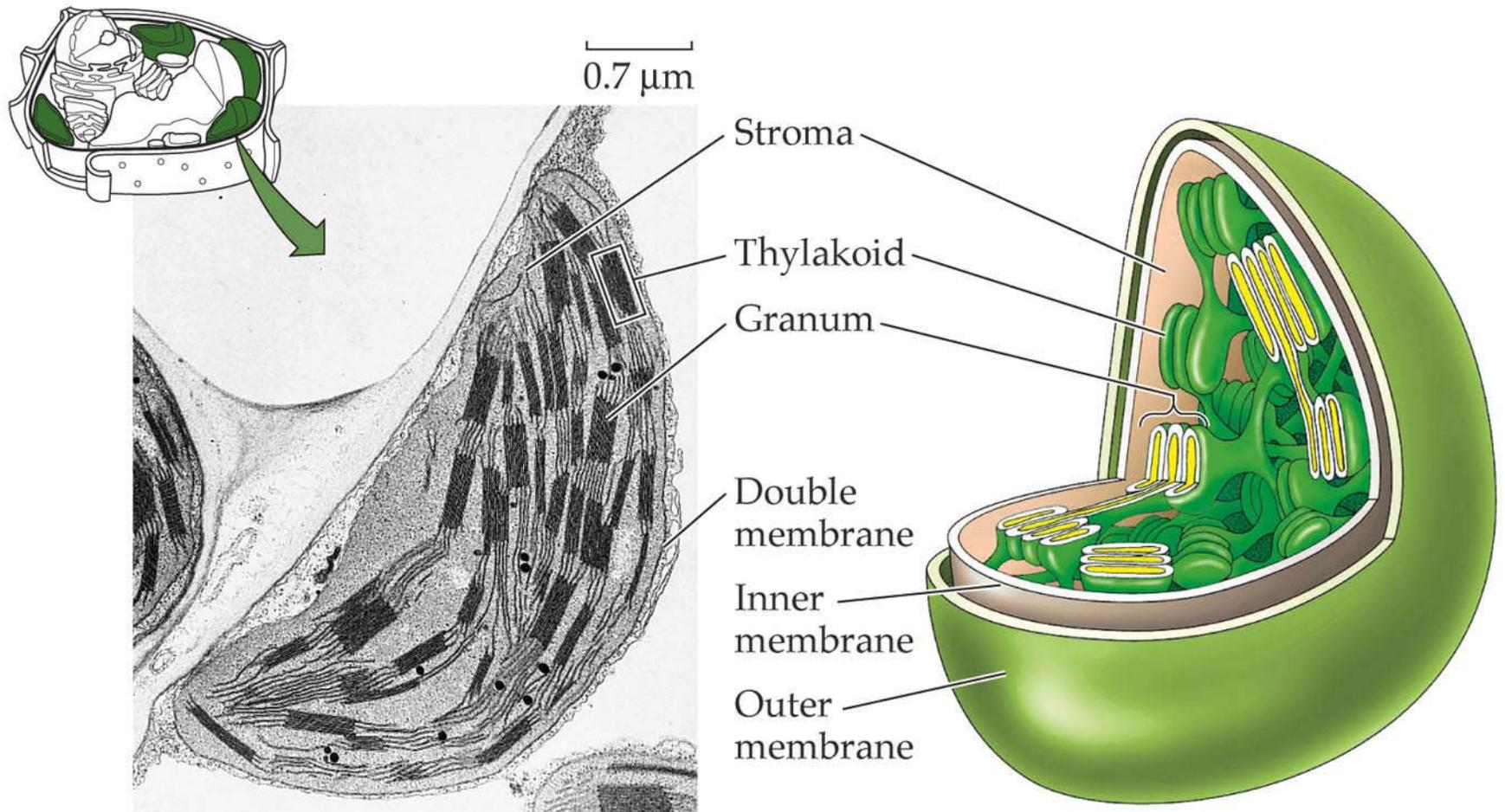
Figure 4.14 A Mitochondrion Converts Energy from Fuel Molecules into ATP (Part 2)



- **Plastids** are organelles found only in plants and some protists.
- **Chloroplasts**, the sites where photosynthesis occurs, are one type of plastid.

- Chloroplasts are surrounded by two layers, and have an internal membrane system similar to mitochondria.
- The internal membranes are arranged as **thylakoids** and **grana**. These membranes contain chlorophyll and other pigments.
- The fluid in which the grana are suspended is called the **stroma**.

Figure 4.15 *The Chloroplast: The Organelle That Feeds the World*



- **Endosymbiosis** may explain the origin of mitochondria and chloroplasts.
- According to the endosymbiosis theory, both organelles were formerly prokaryotic organisms that somehow became incorporated into a larger cell.
- Today, both mitochondria and chloroplasts have DNA and ribosomes, and are self-duplicating organelles.

- **Peroxisomes**, also called microbodies, are small organelles that are specialized to compartmentalize toxic peroxides and break them down.
- **Glyoxysomes** are structurally similar organelles found in plants.

- **Vacuoles**, found in plants and protists, are filled with an aqueous solution and are used to store wastes and pigments.
- Vacuoles may develop turgor pressure, a swelling that helps the plant cell maintain support and rigidity.
- Food vacuoles are formed in single-celled protists.
- Many freshwater protists have a contractile vacuole that helps eliminate excess water and restore proper salt balance.

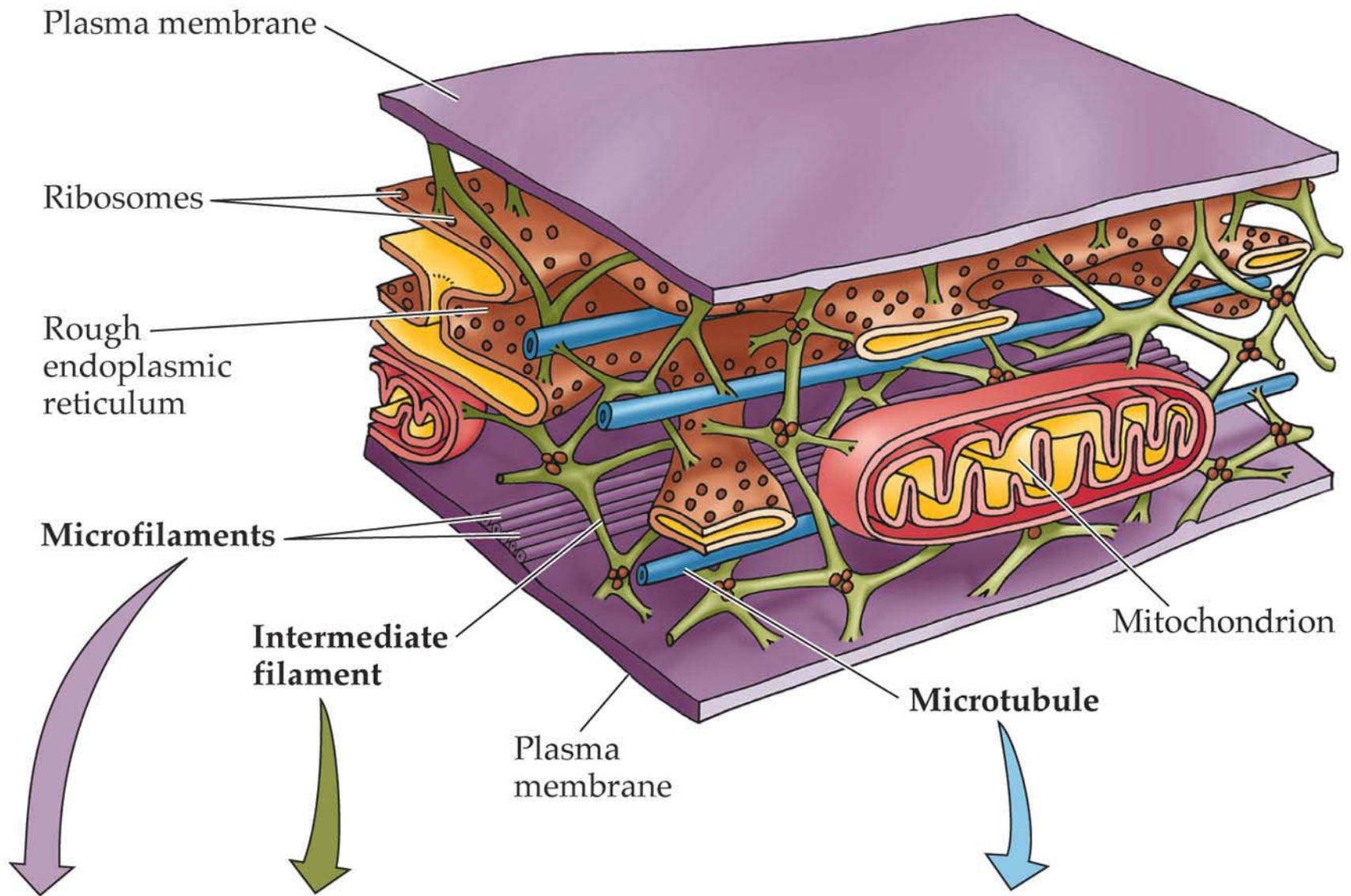
- The **cytoskeleton**:
 - maintains cell shape and support.
 - provides the mechanisms for cell movement.
 - acts as tracks for “motor proteins” that help move materials within cells.
- There are three major types of cytoskeletal components: microfilaments, intermediate filaments, and microtubules.

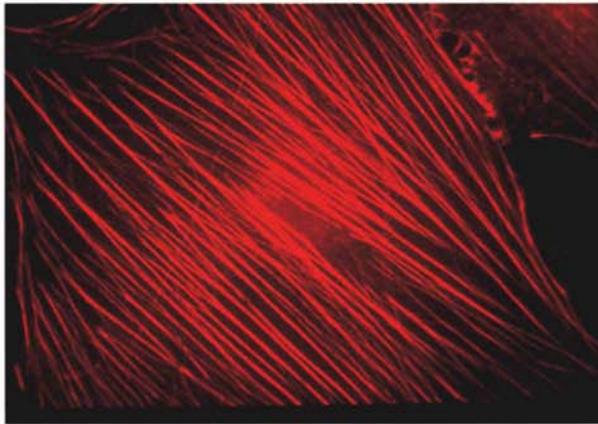
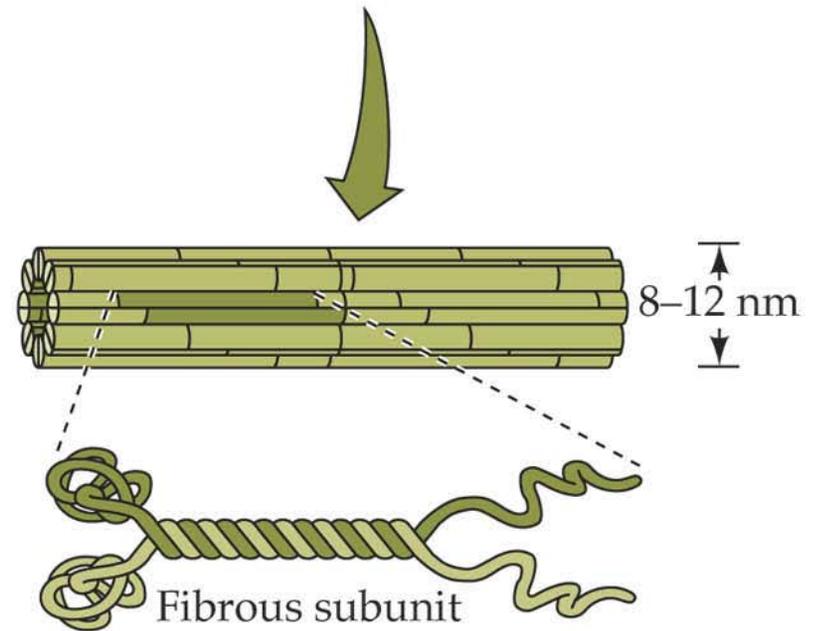
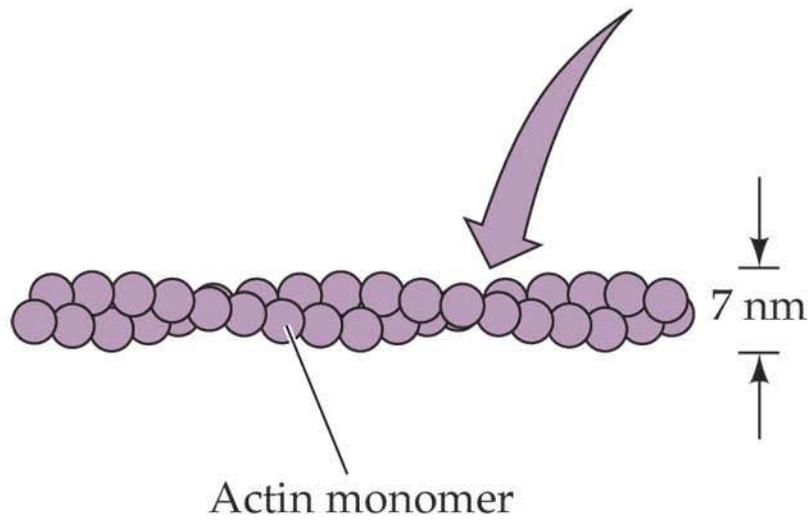
- **Microfilaments** are made of the protein **actin**, and may exist as single filaments, in bundles, or in networks.
- Microfilaments are needed for cell contraction, as in muscle cells, and add structure to the plasma membrane and shape to cells.
- They are involved in cytoplasmic streaming, and the formation of pseudopodia.

- **Intermediate filaments** are found only in multicellular organisms, forming ropelike assemblages in cells.
- They have two major structural functions: to stabilize the cell structure, and resist tension.
- In some cells, intermediate filaments maintain the positions of the nucleus and other organelles in the cell.

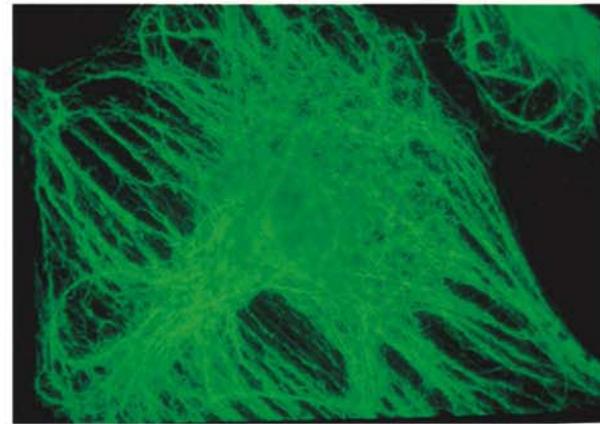
- **Microtubules** are hollow cylinders made from **tubulin** protein subunits.
- Microtubules provide a rigid intracellular skeleton for some cells, and they function as tracks that motor proteins can move along in the cell.
- They regularly form and disassemble as the needs of the cell change.

Figure 4.21 *The Cytoskeleton (Part 1)*

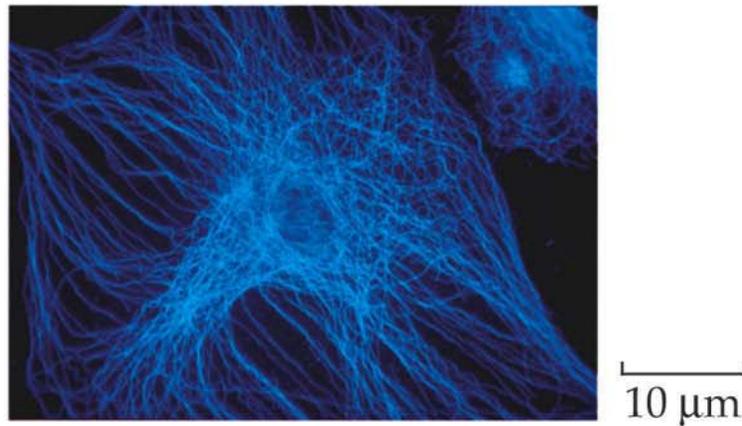
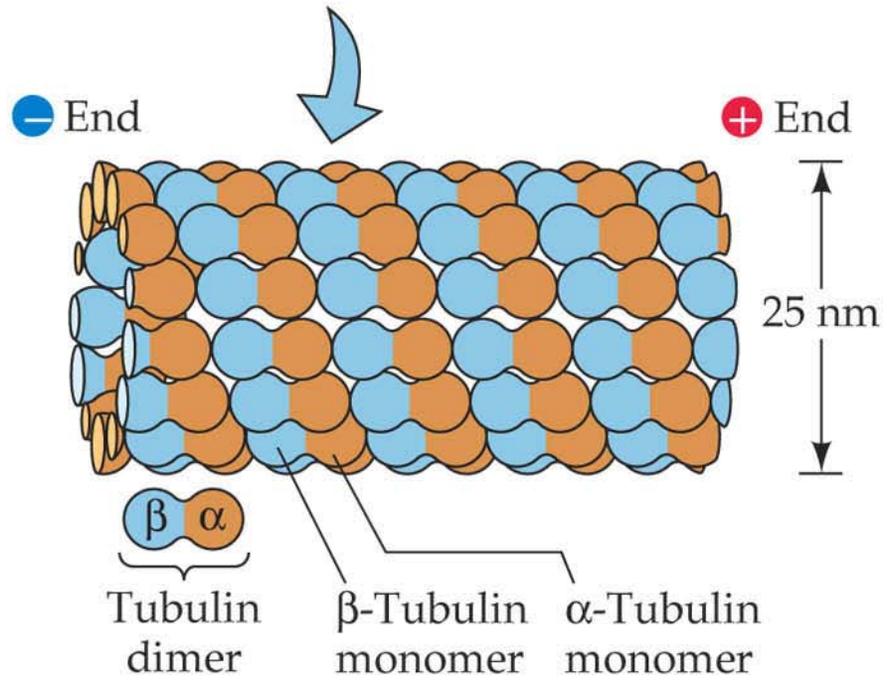




Microfilaments



Intermediate filaments

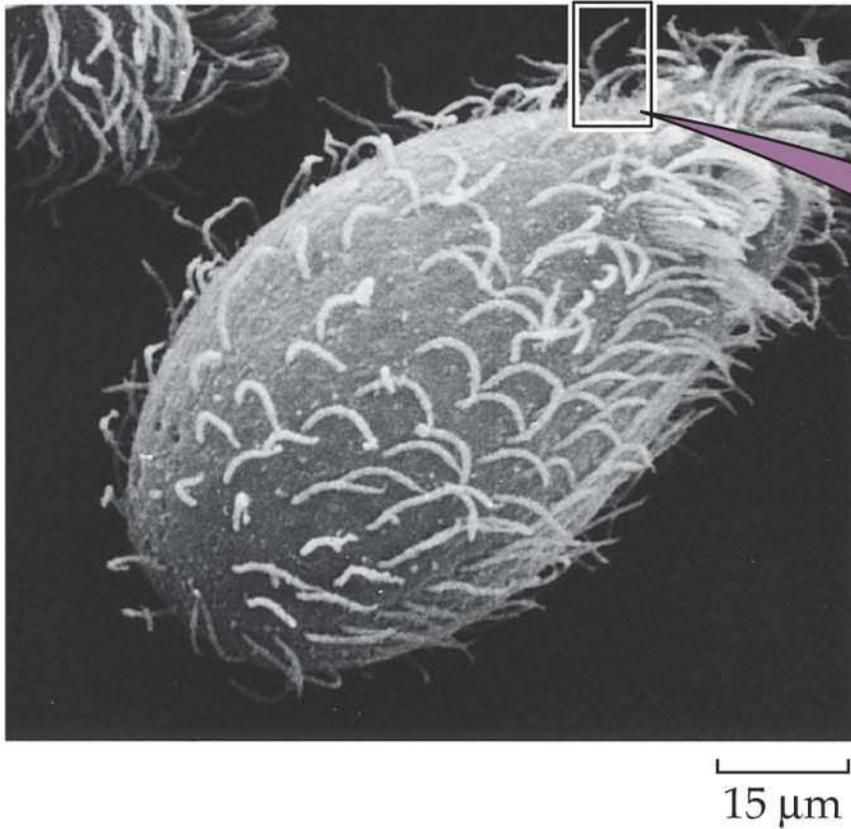


Microtubules

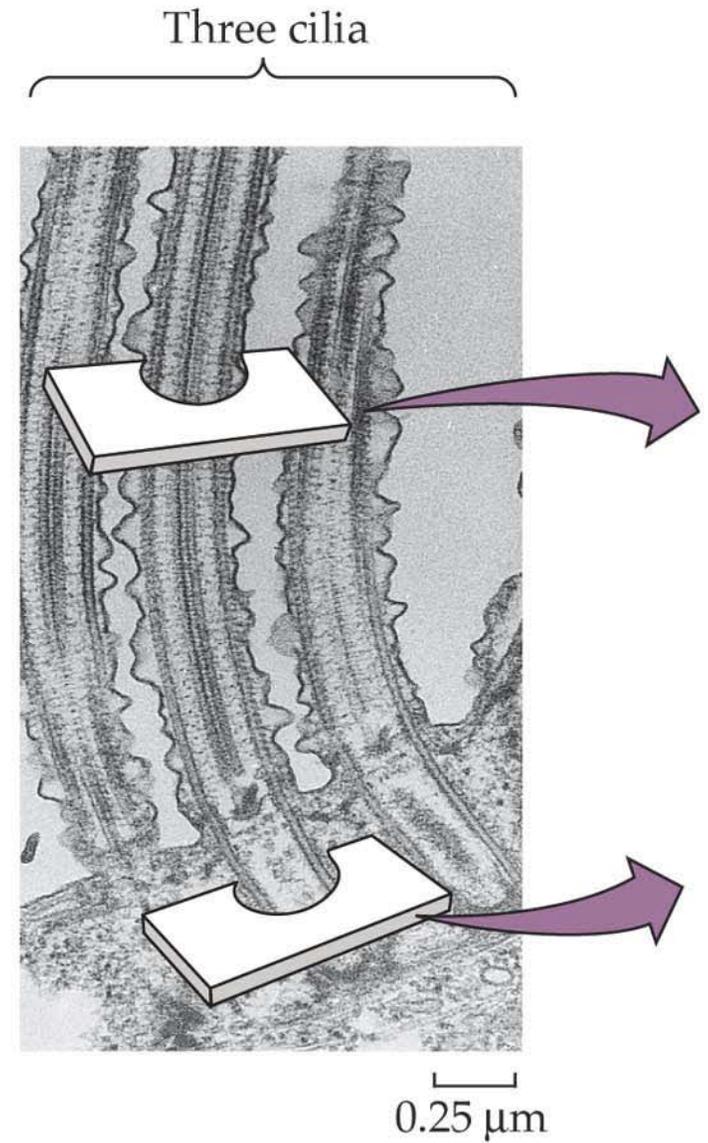
- Cilia and flagella, common locomotary appendages of cells, are made of microtubules.
- **Flagella** are typically longer than cilia, and cells that have them usually have only one or two.
- **Cilia** are shorter and usually present in great numbers.

Figure 4.23 Cilia are Made of Microtubules (Part 1)

(a)

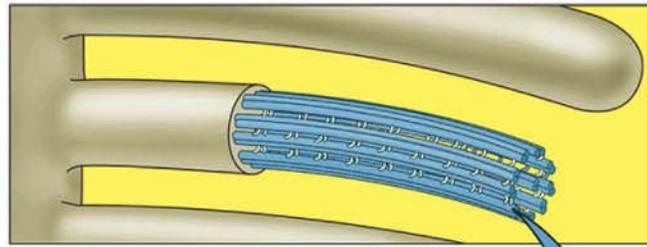


(b)

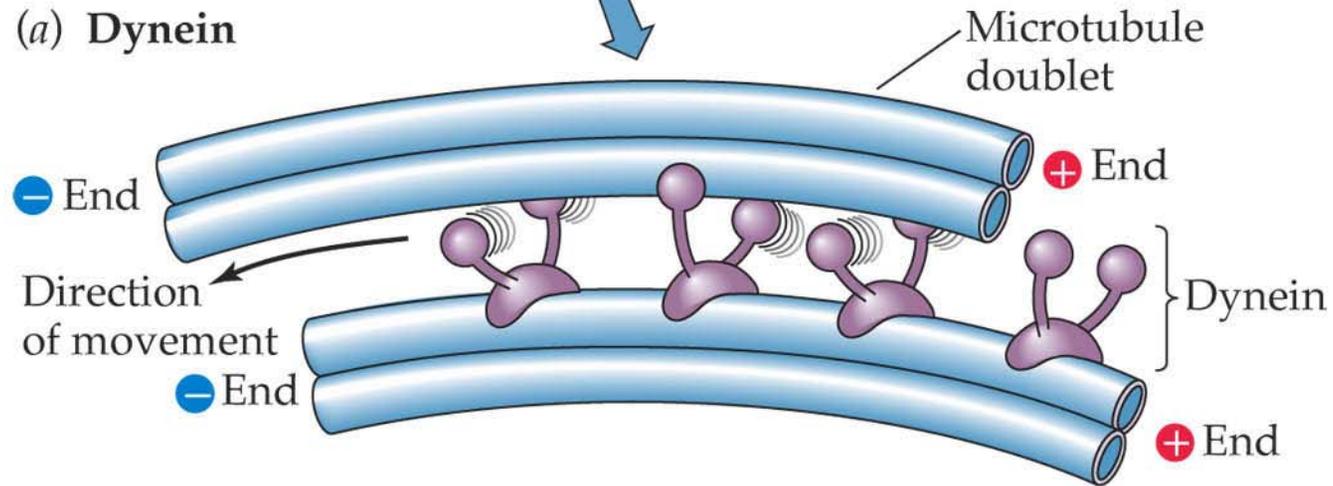


- Motor proteins move along microtubules.
- In both cilia and flagella, the microtubules are cross-linked by spokes of the motor protein called **dynein**.
- Dynein changes its shape when energy is released from ATP. Many dynein molecules associate along the length of the microtubule pair.
- Dynein moves vesicles toward the minus end of the microtubule. **Kinesin**, another motor protein, moves them toward the plus end.

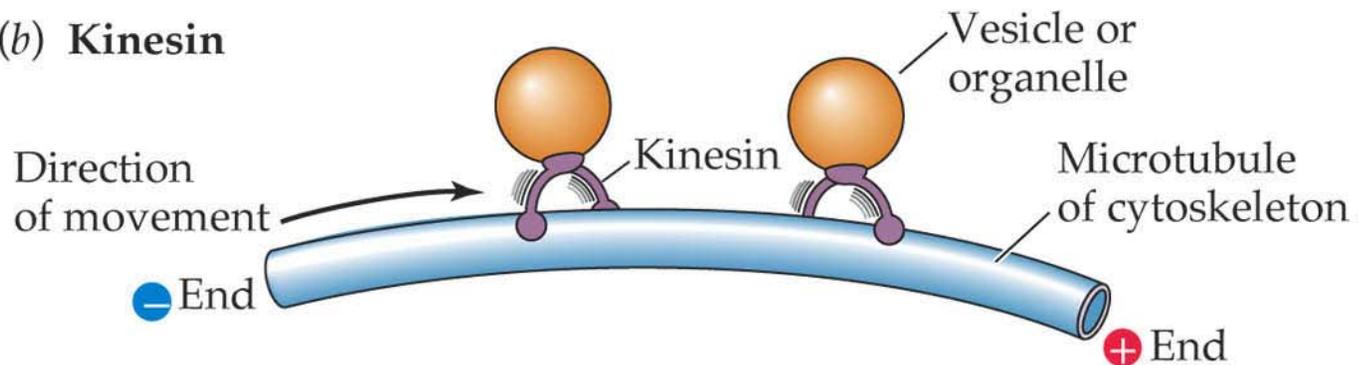
Figure 4.24 Motor Proteins Use Energy from ATP to Move Things (Part 1)



(a) Dynein



(b) Kinesin



- The plant **cell wall** is composed of cellulose fibers embedded in a matrix of other complex polysaccharides and proteins.
- The cell wall provides a rigid structure for the plasma membrane under turgor pressure, giving important support.
- It is a barrier to many fungi, bacteria, and other organisms that may cause plant diseases.

- Multicellular animals have an **extracellular matrix** composed of fibrous proteins, such as collagen, and glycoproteins.
- Functions of the extracellular matrix:
 - Holds cells together in tissues.
 - Contributes to physical properties of tissue.
 - Helps filter material passing between tissues.
 - Helps orient cell movements.
 - Plays a role in chemical signaling.
- Epithelial cells, which line the human body cavities, have a basement membrane of extracellular material called the basal lamina.

Figure 4.26 An Extracellular Matrix (Part 1)

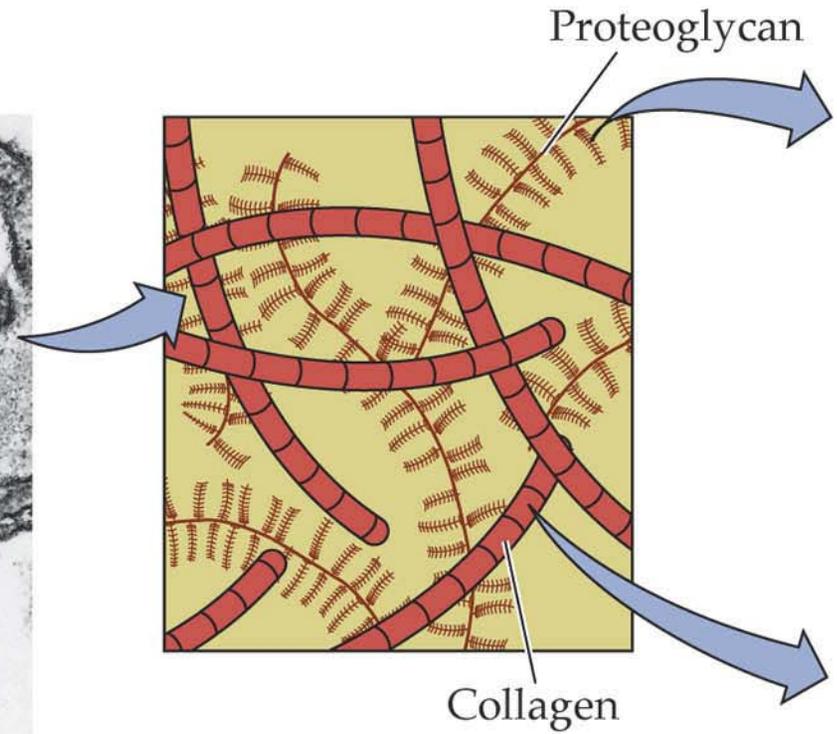
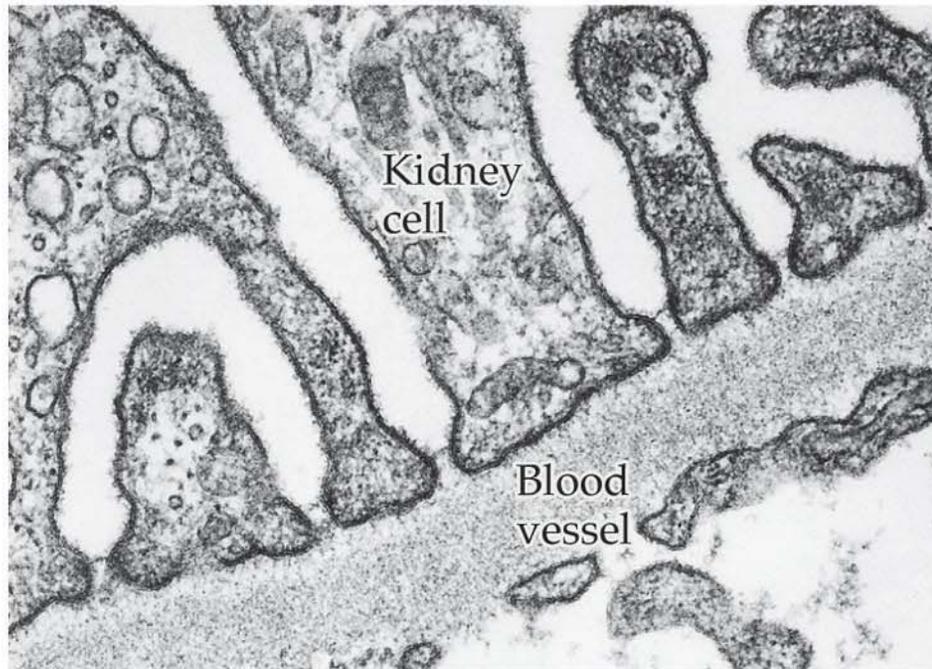


Figure 4.26 An Extracellular Matrix (Part 2)

