



Overview: The Fundamental Units of Life

All organisms are made of cells

- The cell is the simplest collection of matter that can be alive
- All cells are related by their descent from earlier cells
- Though cells can differ substantially from one another, they share common features







Concept 4.1: Biologists use microscopes and the tools of biochemistry to study cells

Most cells are too small to be seen by the unaided eye

Microscopy

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- Scientists use microscopes to observe cells too small to be seen with the naked eye
- In a light microscope (LM), visible light is passed through a specimen and then through glass lenses
- Lenses refract (bend) the light, so that the image is magnified

• Three important parameters of microscopy

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- Magnification, the ratio of an object's image size to its real size
- Resolution, the measure of the clarity of the image, or the minimum distance between two distinguishable points
- · Contrast, visible differences in parts of the sample

- LMs can magnify effectively to about 1,000 times the size of the actual specimen
- Various techniques enhance contrast and enable cell components to be stained or labeled
- Most subcellular structures, including organelles (membrane-enclosed compartments), are too small to be resolved by light microscopy

















- Two basic types of electron microscopes (EMs) are used to study subcellular structures
- Scanning electron microscopes (SEMs) focus a beam of electrons onto the surface of a specimen, producing images that look three-dimensional
- Transmission electron microscopes (TEMs) focus a beam of electrons through a specimen

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 TEM is used mainly to study the internal structure of cells















































- Recent advances in light microscopy
 - Labeling molecules or structures with fluorescent markers improves visualization of details
 - Confocal and other types of microscopy have sharpened images of tissues and cells
 - New techniques and labeling have improved resolution so that structures as small as 10–20 μm can be distinguished

Cell Fractionation

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- **Cell fractionation** breaks up cells and separates the components, using centrifugation
- Cell components separate based on their relative size
- Cell fractionation enables scientists to determine the functions of organelles
- Biochemistry and cytology help correlate cell function with structure

Concept 4.2: Eukaryotic cells have internal membranes that compartmentalize their functions

- The basic structural and functional unit of every organism is one of two types of cells: prokaryotic or eukaryotic
- Organisms of the domains Bacteria and Archaea consist of prokaryotic cells
- Protists, fungi, animals, and plants all consist of eukaryotic cells

Comparing Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells

- Basic features of all cells
 - Plasma membrane
 - Semifluid substance called cytosol
 - Chromosomes (carry genes)
 - Ribosomes (make proteins)

- In a eukaryotic cell most of the DNA is in the nucleus, an organelle that is bounded by a double membrane
- Prokaryotic cells are characterized by having
 - No nucleus

- DNA in an unbound region called the nucleoid
- No membrane-bound organelles
- Both types of cells contain cytoplasm bound by the plasma membrane









- Eukaryotic cells are generally much larger than prokaryotic cells
- Typical bacteria are 1–5 μ m in diameter

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- Eukaryotic cells are typically 10–100 μm in diameter



• The general structure of a biological membrane is a double layer of phospholipids







- Metabolic requirements set upper limits on the size of cells
- The ratio of surface area to volume of a cell is critical
- As the surface area increases by a factor of n^2 , the volume increases by a factor of n^3
- Small cells have a greater surface area relative to volume

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Figure 4.6	Surface area increases while total volume remains constant		creases while ains constant
	1 🍞	5	1
Total surface area [sum of the surface areas (height X width) of all box sides X number of boxes]	6	150	750
Total volume [height X width X length X number of boxes]	1	125	125
Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio [surface area ÷ volume]	6	1.2	6
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A Panoramic View of the Eukaryotic Cell

- A eukaryotic cell has internal membranes that divide the cell into compartments—organelles
- The plasma membrane and organelle membranes participate directly in the cell's metabolism

































Concept 4.3: The eukaryotic cell's genetic instructions are housed in the nucleus and carried out by the ribosomes

- The nucleus contains most of the DNA in a eukaryotic cell
- Ribosomes use the information from the DNA to make proteins

The Nucleus: Information Central

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- The **nucleus** contains most of the cell's genes and is usually the most conspicuous organelle
- The **nuclear envelope** encloses the nucleus, separating it from the cytoplasm
- The nuclear membrane is a double membrane; each membrane consists of a lipid bilayer

- Nuclear pores regulate the entry and exit of molecules
- The shape of the nucleus is maintained by the nuclear lamina, which is composed of protein

















- In the nucleus, DNA is organized into discrete units called chromosomes
- Each chromosome is one long DNA molecule associated with proteins
- The DNA and proteins of chromosomes together are called **chromatin**
- Chromatin condenses to form discrete chromosomes as a cell prepares to divide
- The **nucleolus** is located within the nucleus and is the site of ribosomal RNA (rRNA) synthesis

Ribosomes: Protein Factories

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- Ribosomes are complexes of ribosomal RNA and protein
- Ribosomes carry out protein synthesis in two locations
 - In the cytosol (free ribosomes)
 - On the outside of the endoplasmic reticulum or the nuclear envelope (bound ribosomes)















Concept 4.4: The endomembrane system regulates protein traffic and performs metabolic functions in the cell

- Components of the endomembrane system
 - Nuclear envelope
 - Endoplasmic reticulum
 - Golgi apparatus
 - Lysosomes
 - Vacuoles

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- Plasma membrane
- These components are either continuous or connected through transfer by vesicles

The Endoplasmic Reticulum: Biosynthetic Factory

- The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) accounts for more than half of the total membrane in many eukaryotic cells
- The ER membrane is continuous with the nuclear envelope
- There are two distinct regions of ER
 - Smooth ER: lacks ribosomes
 - Rough ER: surface is studded with ribosomes

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Functions of Smooth ER

The smooth ER

- Synthesizes lipids
- Metabolizes carbohydrates
- Detoxifies drugs and poisons
- Stores calcium ions

Functions of Rough ER

The rough ER

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- Has bound ribosomes, which secrete glycoproteins (proteins covalently bonded to carbohydrates)
- Distributes transport vesicles, proteins surrounded by membranes
- Is a membrane factory for the cell

The Golgi Apparatus: Shipping and Receiving Center

- The Golgi apparatus consists of flattened membranous sacs called cisternae
- Functions of the Golgi apparatus
 - Modifies products of the ER

- Manufactures certain macromolecules
- Sorts and packages materials into transport vesicles















Lysosomes: Digestive Compartments

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- A **lysosome** is a membranous sac of hydrolytic enzymes that can digest macromolecules
- Lysosomal enzymes work best in the acidic environment inside the lysosome
- The three-dimensional shape of lysosomal proteins protects them from digestion by lysosomal enzymes

- Some types of cell can engulf another cell by phagocytosis; this forms a food vacuole
- A lysosome fuses with the food vacuole and digests the molecules
- Lysosomes also use enzymes to recycle the cell's own organelles and macromolecules, a process called autophagy

























Vacuoles: Diverse Maintenance Compartments

- Vacuoles are large vesicles derived from the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus
- The solution inside a vacuole differs in composition from the cytosol

• Food vacuoles are formed by phagocytosis

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- **Contractile vacuoles**, found in many freshwater protists, pump excess water out of cells
- Central vacuoles, found in many mature plant cells, hold organic compounds and water
- Certain vacuoles in plants and fungi carry out enzymatic hydrolysis like lysosomes









The Endomembrane System: A Review

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 The endomembrane system is a complex and dynamic player in the cell's compartmental organization





Concept 4.5: Mitochondria and chloroplasts change energy from one form to another

- Mitochondria are the sites of cellular respiration, a metabolic process that uses oxygen to generate ATP
- Chloroplasts, found in plants and algae, are the sites of photosynthesis
- Peroxisomes are oxidative organelles

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The Evolutionary Origins of Mitochondria and Chloroplasts

- Mitochondria and chloroplasts display similarities with bacteria
 - Enveloped by a double membrane
 - Contain ribosomes and multiple circular DNA molecules
 - Grow and reproduce somewhat independently in cells

The endosymbiont theory

- An early ancestor of eukaryotic cells engulfed a nonphotosynthetic prokaryotic cell, which formed an endosymbiont relationship with its host
- The host cell and endosymbiont merged into a single organism, a eukaryotic cell with a mitochondrion
- At least one of these cells may have taken up a photosynthetic prokaryote, becoming the ancestor of cells that contain chloroplasts

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Mitochondria: Chemical Energy Conversion

- Mitochondria are in nearly all eukaryotic cells
- They have a smooth outer membrane and an inner membrane folded into **cristae**
- The inner membrane creates two compartments: intermembrane space and **mitochondrial matrix**
- Some metabolic steps of cellular respiration are catalyzed in the mitochondrial matrix
- Cristae present a large surface area for enzymes that synthesize ATP















Chloroplasts: Capture of Light Energy

- Chloroplasts contain the green pigment chlorophyll, as well as enzymes and other molecules that function in photosynthesis
- Chloroplasts are found in leaves and other green organs of plants and in algae

- Chloroplast structure includes
 - Thylakoids, membranous sacs, stacked to form a granum
 - Stroma, the internal fluid

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 The chloroplast is one of a group of plant organelles called **plastids**













Peroxisomes: Oxidation

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- **Peroxisomes** are specialized metabolic compartments bounded by a single membrane
- Peroxisomes produce hydrogen peroxide and then convert it to water
- Peroxisomes perform reactions with many different functions





Concept 4.6: The cytoskeleton is a network of fibers that organizes structures and activities in the cell

- The cytoskeleton is a network of fibers extending throughout the cytoplasm
- It organizes the cell's structures and activities















Roles of the Cytoskeleton: Support and Motility

- The cytoskeleton helps to support the cell and maintain its shape
- It provides anchorage for many organelles and molecules

- It interacts with motor proteins to produce motility
- Inside the cell, vesicles and other organelles can "walk" along the tracks provided by the cytoskeleton









Components of the Cytoskeleton

- Three main types of fibers make up the cytoskeleton
 - Microtubules are the thickest of the three components of the cytoskeleton
 - Microfilaments, also called actin filaments, are the thinnest components
 - Intermediate filaments are fibers with diameters in a middle range





















Table 4.1 The Structure and Function of the Cytoskeleton			
Property	Microtubules (Tubulin Polymers)	Microfilaments (Actin Filaments)	Intermediate Filaments
Structure	Hollow tubes	Two intertwined strands of actin	Fibrous proteins colled into cables
Diameter	25 nm with 15-nm lumen	7 nm	8–12 nm
Protein subunits	Tubulin, a dimer consisting of α-tubulin and β-tubulin	Actin	One of several different proteins (such as keratins)
Main functions	Maintenance of cell shape; cell mo- tility; chromosome movements in cell division; organelle movements	Maintenance of cell shape; changes In cell shape; muscle contraction; cy- toplasmic streaming (plant cells); cell motility; cell division (animal cells)	Maintenance of cell shape; anchor- age of nucleus and certain other organelles; formation of nuclear lamina
Flucescence mitro- graphs of fibroblasts, Fibroblasts, Fibroblasts, eallype for cell blobgy studies because they spread structures are assy to see. Instruct has been taggeted instruct has been taggeted instructure and the second structure instructure are assy to see. The DNA in the mechanism has also been tagged in the first micrograph (broke and third micrograph (orange).	10 µm 10 µm Column of tubulin dimors		
	a Tubulin dimer	Actin subunit	Keratin proteina Fibrous subunit (keratins coiled together) 8-12 n





















Microtubules

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- Microtubules are hollow rods constructed from globular protein dimers called tubulin
- Functions of microtubules
 - Shape and support the cell
 - Guide movement of organelles
 - Separate chromosomes during cell division

Centrosomes and Centrioles

- In animal cells, microtubules grow out from a centrosome near the nucleus
- The centrosome is a "microtubule-organizing center"
- The centrosome has a pair of **centrioles**, each with nine triplets of microtubules arranged in a ring



























Cilia and Flagella

- Microtubules control the beating of cilia and flagella, microtubule-containing extensions projecting from some cells
- Flagella are limited to one or a few per cell, while cilia occur in large numbers on cell surfaces
- Cilia and flagella also differ in their beating patterns

• Cilia and flagella share a common structure

- A group of microtubules sheathed by the plasma membrane
- A **basal body** that anchors the cilium or flagellum
- A motor protein called **dynein**, which drives the bending movements of a cilium or flagellum





















- Dynein arms alternately contact, move, and release the outer microtubules
- The outer doublets and central microtubules are held together by flexible cross-linking proteins
- Movements of the doublet arms cause the cilium or flagellum to bend

Microfilaments (Actin Filaments)

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- Microfilaments are thin solid rods, built from molecules of globular actin subunits
- The structural role of microfilaments is to bear tension, resisting pulling forces within the cell
- Bundles of microfilaments make up the core of microvilli of intestinal cells





- Microfilaments that function in cellular motility interact with the motor protein myosin
- For example, actin and myosin interact to cause muscle contraction, amoeboid movement of white blood cells, and cytoplasmic streaming in plant cells

Intermediate Filaments

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- Intermediate filaments are larger than microfilaments but smaller than microtubules
- Intermediate filaments are only found in the cells of some animals, including vertebrates
- They support cell shape and fix organelles in place
- Intermediate filaments are more permanent cytoskeleton elements than the other two classes

Concept 4.7: Extracellular components and connections between cells help coordinate cellular activities

- Most cells synthesize and secrete materials that are external to the plasma membrane
- These extracellular materials are involved in many cellular functions

Cell Walls of Plants

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- The **cell wall** is an extracellular structure that distinguishes plant cells from animal cells
- The cell wall protects the plant cell, maintains its shape, and prevents excessive uptake of water
- Plant cell walls are made of cellulose fibers embedded in other polysaccharides and protein

Plant cell walls may have multiple layers

- Primary cell wall: relatively thin and flexible
- Middle lamella: thin layer between primary walls of adjacent cells
- Secondary cell wall (in some cells): added between the plasma membrane and the primary cell wall
- Plasmodesmata are channels between adjacent plant cells































Cell Junctions

- Neighboring cells in an animal or plant often adhere, interact, and communicate through direct physical contact
- There are several types of intercellular junctions that facilitate this
 - Plasmodesmata
 - Tight junctions
 - Desmosomes
 - Gap junctions

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Plasmodesmata in Plant Cells

- Plasmodesmata are channels that perforate plant cell walls
- Through plasmodesmata, water and small solutes (and sometimes proteins and RNA) can pass from cell to cell

Tight Junctions, Desmosomes, and Gap Junctions in Animal Cells

- Animal cells have three main types of cell junctions
 - Tight junctions

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- Desmosomes
- Gap junctions

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All are especially common in epithelial tissue



























The Cell: A Living Unit Greater Than the Sum of Its Parts

- None of the components of a cell work alone
- For example, a macrophage's ability to destroy bacteria involves the whole cell, coordinating components such as the cytoskeleton, lysosomes, and plasma membrane
- Cellular functions arise from cellular order

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Cell Component	Structure	Function
Nucleus (ER)	Surrounded by nuclear envelope (double membrane) perforated by nuclear pores; nuclear envelope continuous with endoplasmic reticulum (ER)	Houses chromosomes, which are made of chromatin (DNA and proteins); contains nucleoli, where ribosomai subunits are made; pores regulate entry and exit of materials
Ribosome	Two subunits made of ribosomal RNA and proteins; can be free in cytosol or bound to ER	Protein synthesis



Cell Component	Structure	Function
Endoplasmic reticulum (Nuclear envelope)	Extensive network of membrane-bounded tubules and sacs; membrane separates lumen from cytosol; continuous with nuclear envelope	Smooth ER: synthesis of lipids metabolism of carbohydrates, ca ²⁺ storage, detoxfication of drugs and poisons Rough ER: aids in synthesis of secretory and other proteins from bound ribosomes; adds carbohydrates to proteins to make glycoproteins; produces new membrane
Golgi apparatus	Stacks of flattened membranous sacs; has polarity (<i>cis</i> and <i>trans</i> faces)	Modification of proteins, carbohydrates on proteins, ann phospholipids; synthesis of many polysaccharides; sorting of Golgi products, which are then released in vesicles
Lysosome	Membranous sac of hydrolytic enzymes (in animal cells)	Breakdown of ingested substances, cell macromolecules, and damaged organelles for recycling
Vacuole	Large membrane-bounded vesicle	Digestion, storage, waste disposal, water balance, plant cell growth and protection



Cell Component	Structure	Function
Mitochondrion	Bounded by double membrane; inner membrane has infoldings (cristae)	Cellular respiration
Chloroplast	Typically two membranes around fluid stroma, which contains thylakoids stacked into grana (in cells of photosynthetic eukaryotes, including plants)	Photosynthesis
Peroxisome	Specialized metabolic compartment bounded by a single membrane	Contains enzymes that transfer hydrogen atoms from certain molecules to oxygen, producing hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂) as a by-product; H ₂ O ₂ is converted to water by another enzyme



