

The Fundamental Unit of Life – The Cell



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To study cells, biologists use microscopes and the tools of biochemistry

• Though usually too small to be seen by the unaided eye, cells can be complex

Microscopy

- Scientists use microscopes to visualize cells too small to see with the naked eye
- In a **light microscope (LM)**, visible light passes through a specimen and then through glass lenses, which magnify the image

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Contrast, visible differences in parts of the sample

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- **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 an LM



Microscopy - Applications

- 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, providing images that look 3-D.
- Transmission electron microscopes (TEMs) focus a beam of electrons through a specimen. TEMs are used mainly to study the internal structure of cells.

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http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YAva4g3Pk6k

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4TGDPotbJV4

Moving vesicle http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=y-uuk4Pr2i8

http://www.se.kanazawau.ac.jp/bioafm_center/movies/Walking_myosinV-2.gif

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Cell Fractionation

- Cell fractionation takes cells apart and separates the major organelles from one another
- Ultracentrifuges fractionate cells into their component parts
- Cell fractionation enables scientists to determine the functions of organelles
- Biochemistry and cytology help correlate cell function with structure

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- Ribosomes (make proteins)

Comparing Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells

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

Eukaryotic cells have internal membranes that compartmentalize their functions

Comparing Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells

- Prokaryotic cells are characterized by having
 - No nucleus
 - DNA in an unbound region called the nucleoid _
 - No membrane-bound organelles
 - **Cytoplasm** bound by the plasma membrane

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Comparing Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells · Eukaryotic cells are characterized by having - DNA in a nucleus that is bounded by a membranous nuclear envelope - Membrane-bound organelles Cytoplasm in the region between the plasma _

- membrane and nucleus
- Eukaryotic cells are generally much larger than prokaryotic cells



- The **plasma membrane** is a selective barrier that allows sufficient passage of oxygen, nutrients, and waste to service the volume of every cell
- The general structure of a biological membrane is a double layer of phospholipids

- The logistics of carrying out cellular metabolism sets limits on the size of cells
- The surface area to volume ratio 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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see: 5 5 1	The surface area to volume ratio of a cell is critical				Surface area increases while total volume remains constant	
Total surface area [Sum of the surface areas (height × width) of all boxes sides × number of boxes]6150750Total volume [height × width × length × number of boxes]1125125Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio [surface area \pm volume]61.26	see: brain surface – and: mitochondria, chloroplast		<		5	
Total volume [height × width × length × number of boxes] 1 125 125 Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio [surface area ÷ volume] 6 1.2 6		Total surface area [Sum of the surface areas (height × width) of all boxes sides × number of boxes]		6	150	750
Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio 6 1.2 6		Total volume [height × width × length × number of boxes]		1	125	125
(Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio [surface area ÷ volume]		6	1.2	6



Chloroplast

Plasmodes



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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

- 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

Mitochondrie

Peroxisome

Plasma

Wall of adjacent cel

Cell w

membrane









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

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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, which lacks ribosomes
 - Rough ER, with ribosomes studding its surface

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Functions of Smooth ER
The smooth ER
Synthesizes lipids
Metabolizes carbohydrates
Detoxifies poison
Stores calcium

Functions of Rough ER

- The rough ER
 - 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

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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

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Lysosomes: Digestive Compartments

- A **lysosome** is a membranous sac of hydrolytic enzymes that can digest macromolecules
- Lysosomal enzymes can hydrolyze proteins, fats, polysaccharides, and nucleic acids



- 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 (---> cell death and disease)



- A plant cell or fungal cell may have one or several vacuoles
- Food vacuoles are formed by phagocytosis
- **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



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trans Golgi



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Plasma membrane





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

• Mitochondria and chloroplasts

- Are not part of the endomembrane system
- Have a double membrane
- Have proteins made by free ribosomes
- Contain their own DNA

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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

- The chloroplast is a member of a family of organelles called **plastids**
- 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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