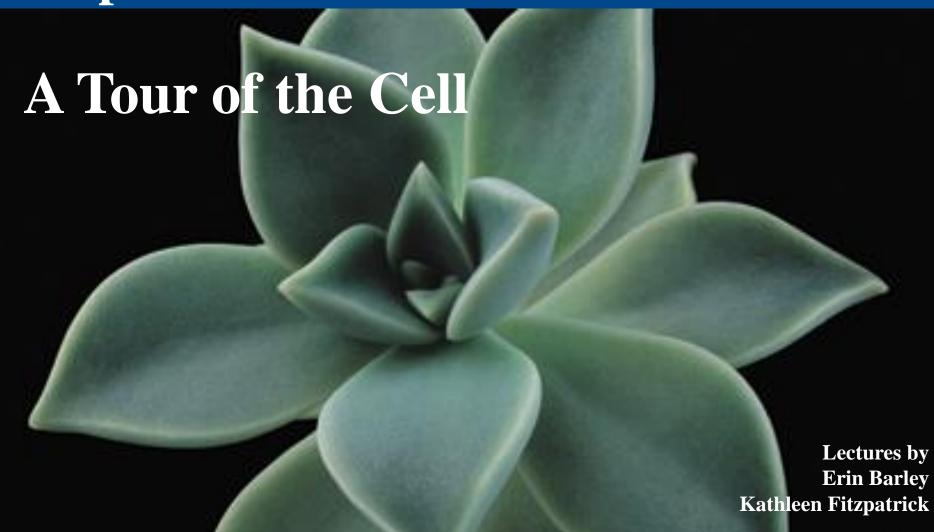
LECTURE PRESENTATIONS

For CAMPBELL BIOLOGY, NINTH EDITION

Jane B. Reece, Lisa A. Urry, Michael L. Cain, Steven A. Wasserman, Peter V. Minorsky, Robert B. Jackson

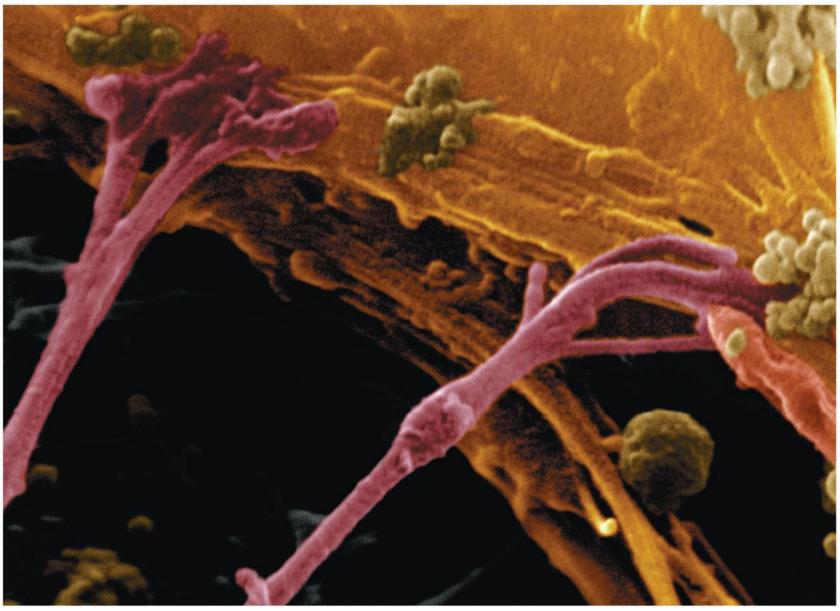




Overview: The Fundamental Units of Life

- All organisms are made of cells
- The cell is the simplest collection of matter that can be alive
- Cell structure is correlated to cellular function
- All cells are related by their descent from earlier cells

Figure 6.1



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Concept 6.1: Biologists use microscopes and the tools of biochemistry to study cells

 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 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
 - 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 of two distinguishable points
 - Contrast, visible differences in parts of the sample

Figure 6.2

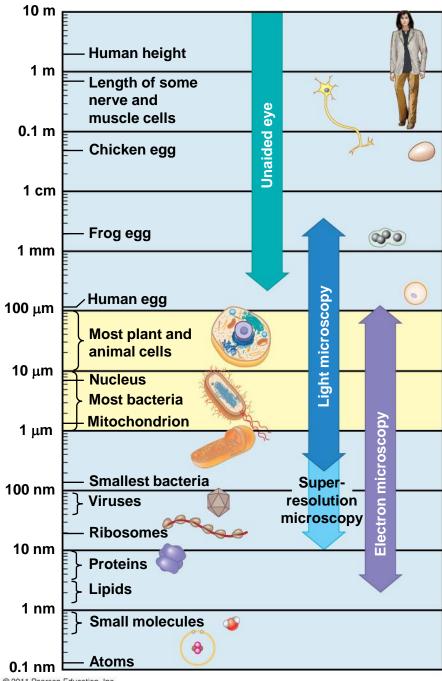


Figure 6.2a

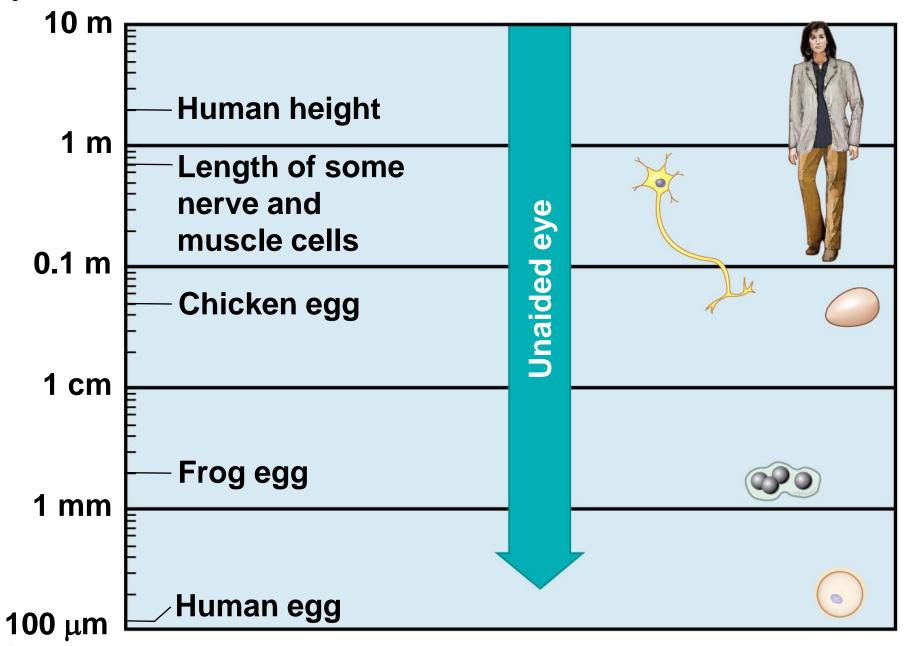


Figure 6.2b

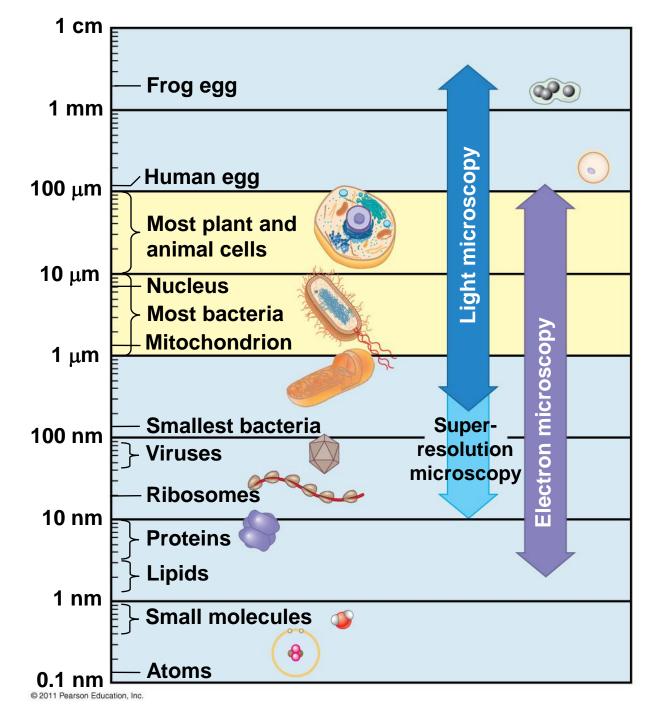
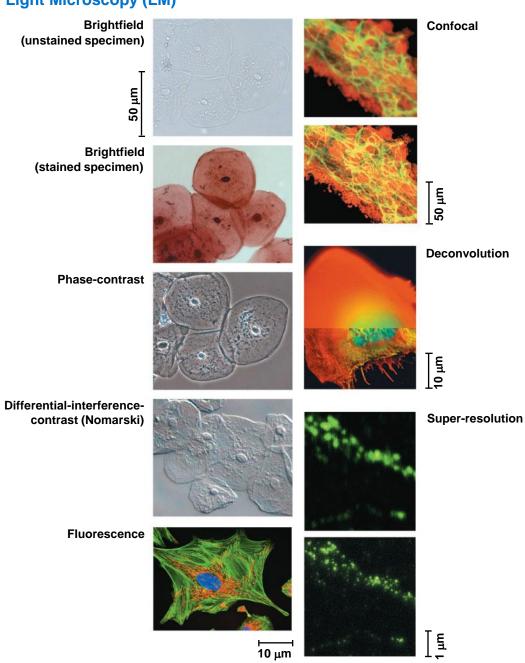
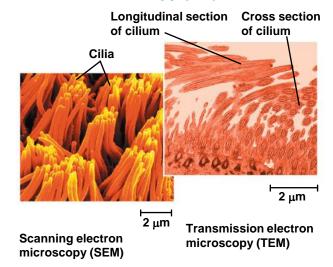


Figure 6.3 **Light Microscopy (LM)**

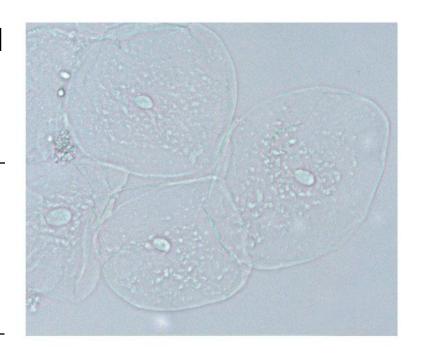


Electron Microscopy (EM)

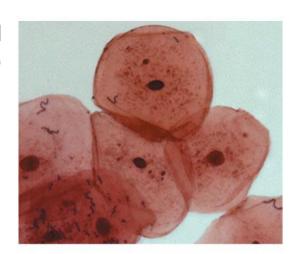


Brightfield (unstained specimen)

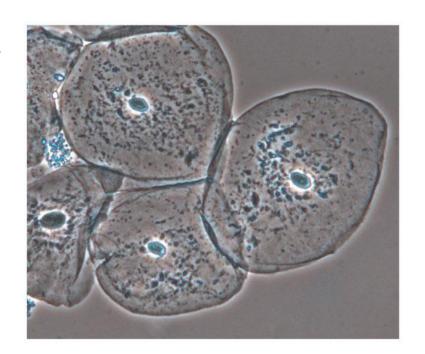
50 μm



Brightfield (stained specimen)



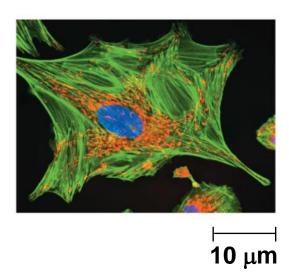
Phase-contrast

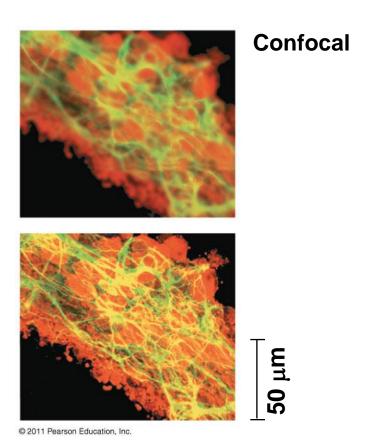


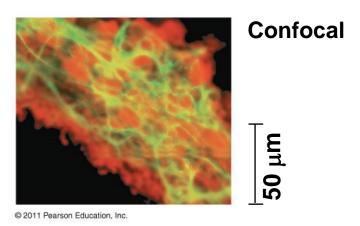
Differential-interferencecontrast (Nomarski)

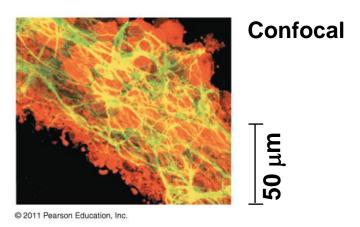


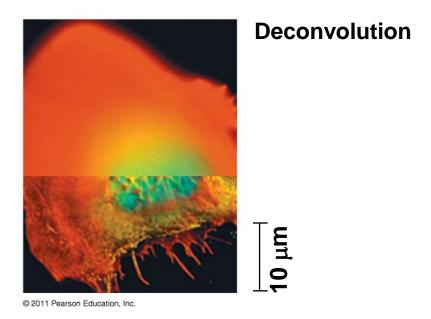
Fluorescence

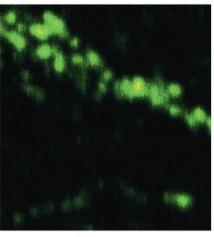




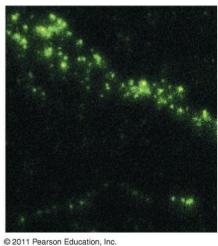






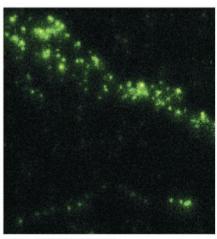


Super-resolution



Super-resolution

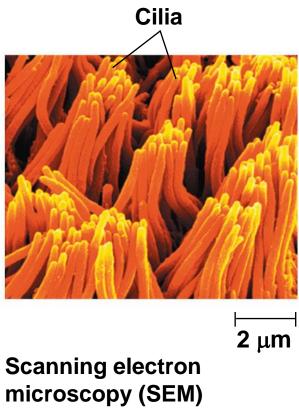
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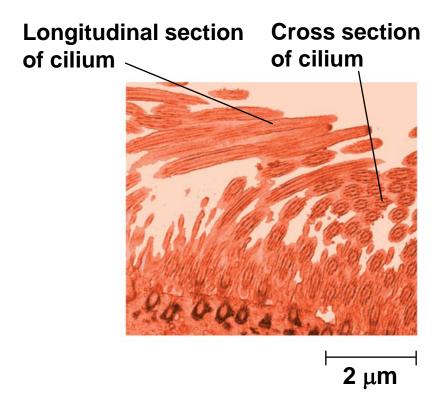


Super-resolution

_ E

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Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

- 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

- 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

- Recent advances in light microscopy
 - Confocal microscopy and deconvolution microscopy provide sharper images of threedimensional tissues and cells
 - New techniques for labeling cells improve resolution

Cell Fractionation

- Cell fractionation takes cells apart and separates the major organelles from one another
- Centrifuges 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

TECHNIQUE Homogenization Tissue cells Homogenate Centrifuged at 1,000 g (1,000 times the Centrifugation force of gravity) for 10 min Supernatant \ poured into next tube **Differential** centrifugation 20,000 g 20 min 80,000 g 60 min Pellet rich in nuclei and cellular debris 150,000 *g* 3 hr Pellet rich in mitochondria (and chloroplasts if cells are from a plant) Pellet rich in "microsomes" (pieces of plasma membranes and cells' internal

membranes)

Pellet rich in

ribosomes

TECHNIQUE

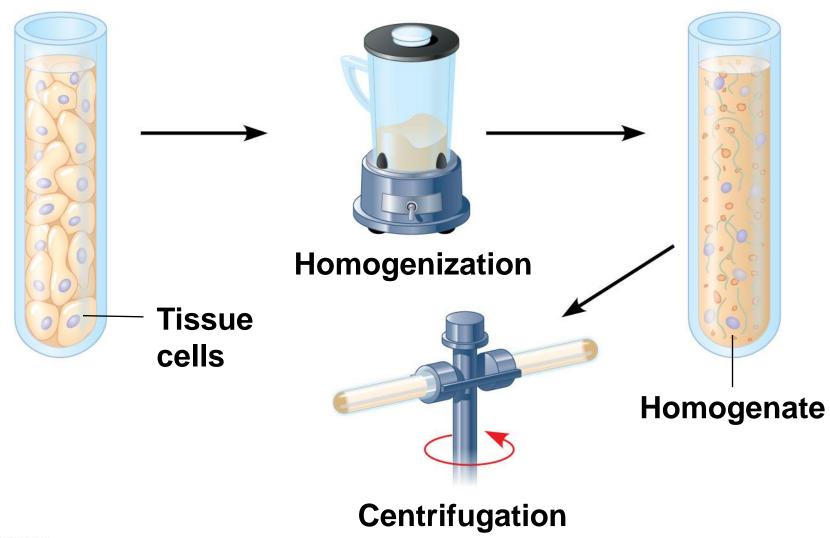


Figure 6.4b Centrifuged at **TECHNIQUE** (cont.) 1,000 *g* (1,000 times the force of gravity) for 10 min **Supernatant** poured into next tube **Differential** centrifugation 20,000 g20 min 80,000 *g* 60 min Pellet rich in nuclei and cellular debris 150,000 *g* 3 hr Pellet rich in mitochondria (and chloroplasts if cells are from a plant) Pellet rich in "microsomes" Pellet rich in

ribosomes

Concept 6.2: 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
- Only 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)

- 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

Figure 6.5

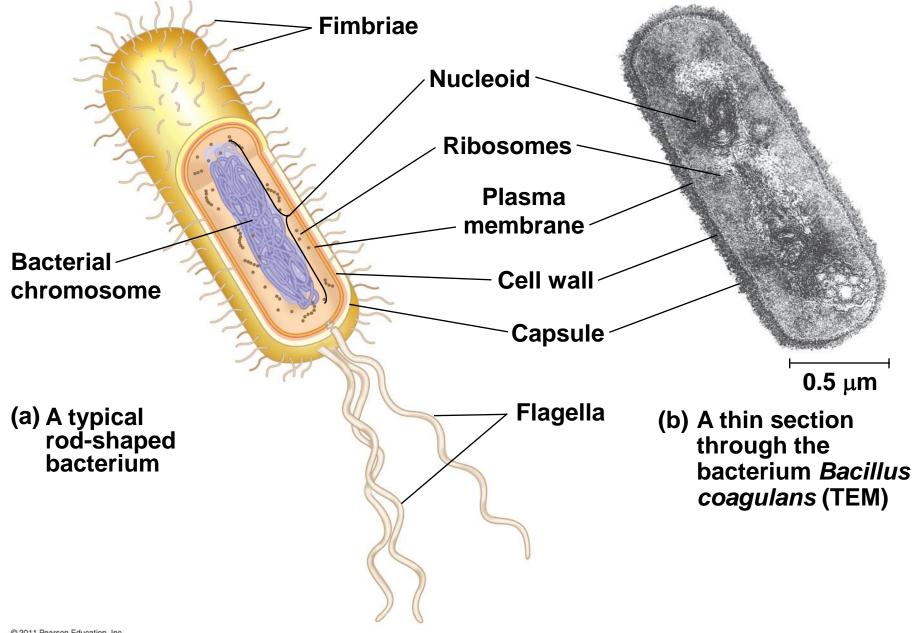


Figure 6.5a

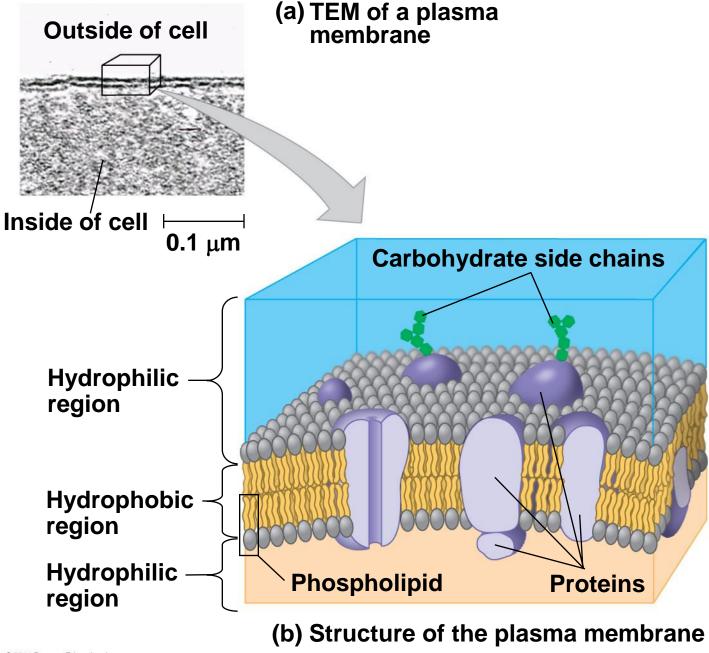


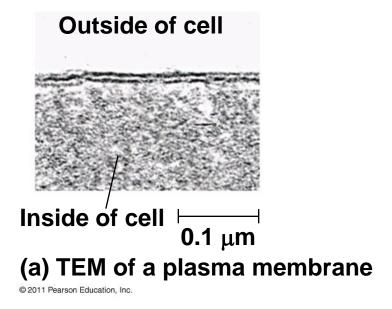
(b) A thin section through the bacterium *Bacillus coagulans* (TEM)

- 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

Figure 6.6





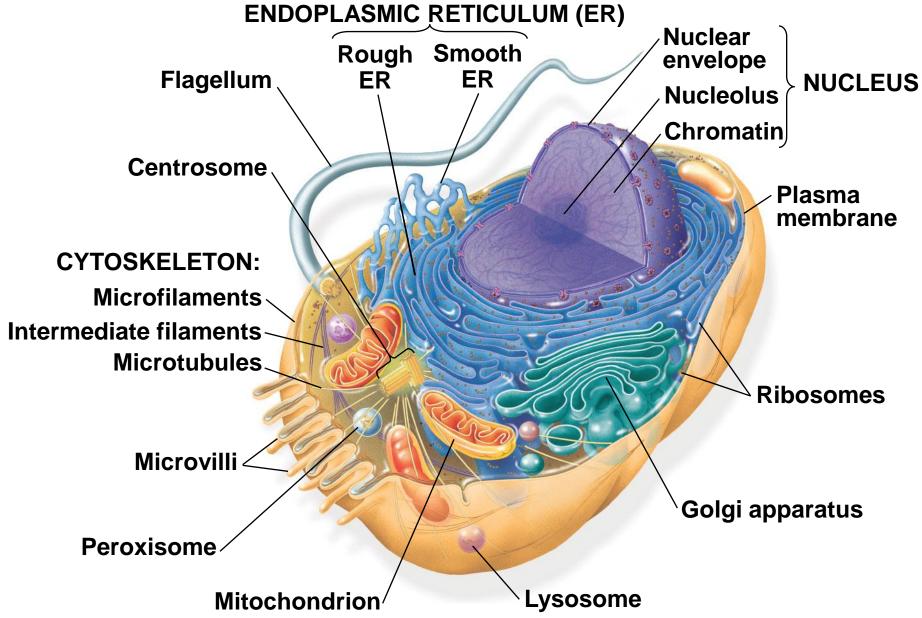
- Metabolic requirements set upper limits on the size of cells
- The surface area to volume ratio of a cell is critical
- As the surface area increases by a factor of n², the volume increases by a factor of n³
- Small cells have a greater surface area relative to volume

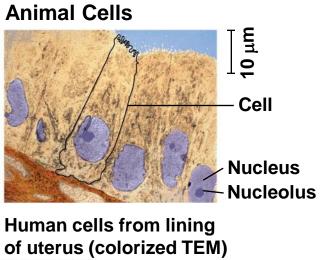
Surface area increases while total volume remains constant

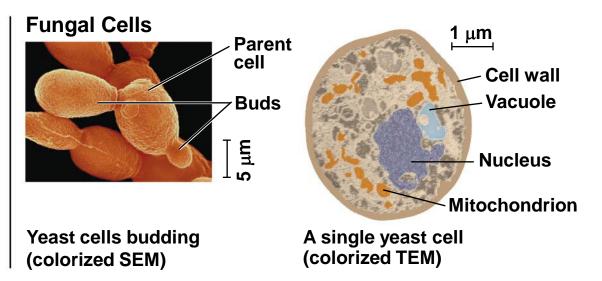
	1 ()		
Total surface area [sum of the surface areas (height × width) of all box sides × number of boxes]	6	150	750
Total volume [height × width × length × number of boxes]	1	125	125
Surface-to-volume (S-to-V) ratio [surface area ÷ volume]	6	1.2	6

A Panoramic View of the Eukaryotic Cell

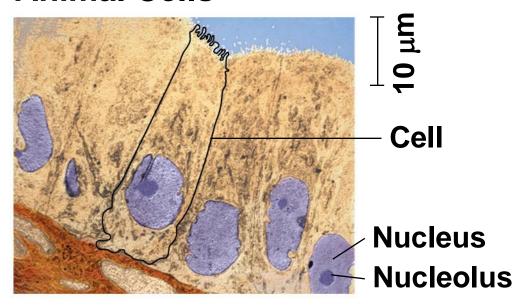
- A eukaryotic cell has internal membranes that partition the cell into organelles
- Plant and animal cells have most of the same organelles





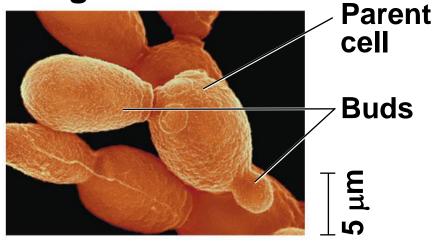


Animal Cells

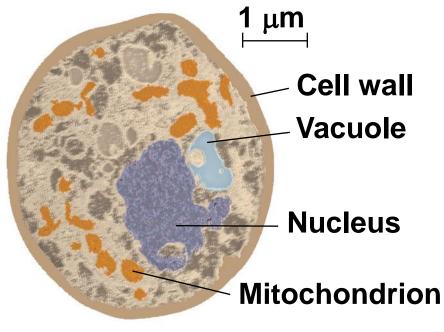


Human cells from lining of uterus (colorized TEM)

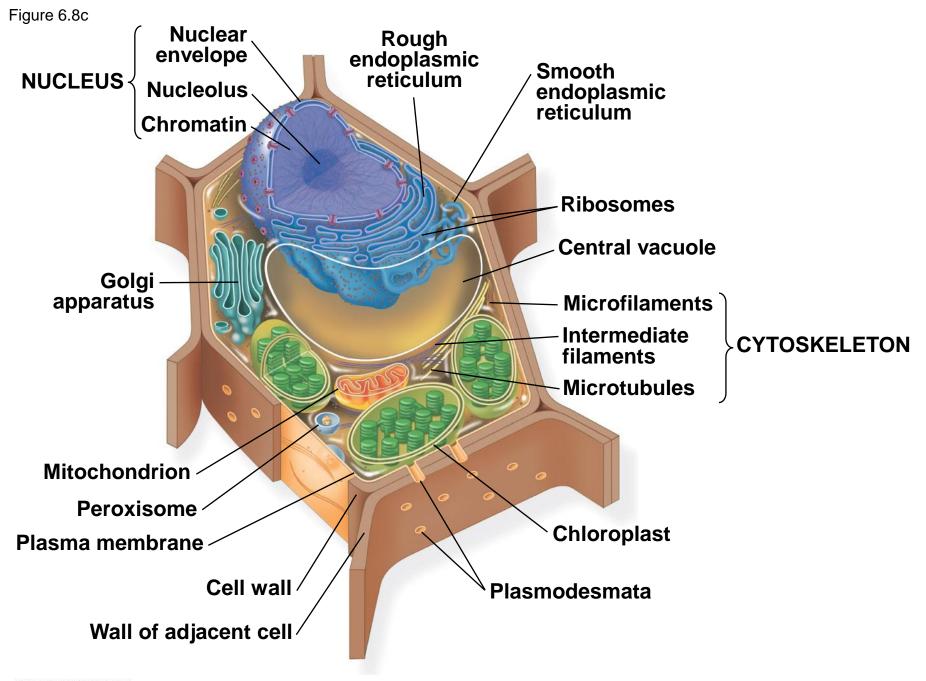
Fungal Cells

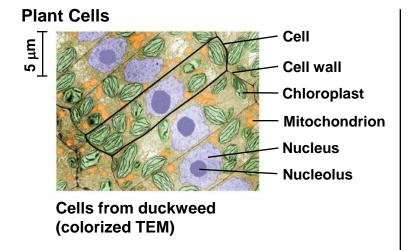


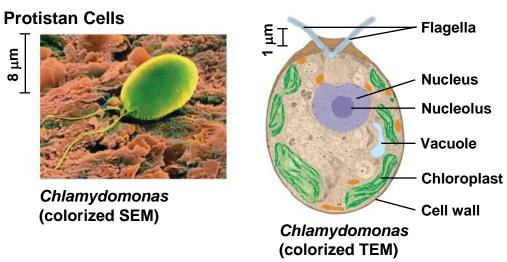
Yeast cells budding (colorized SEM)



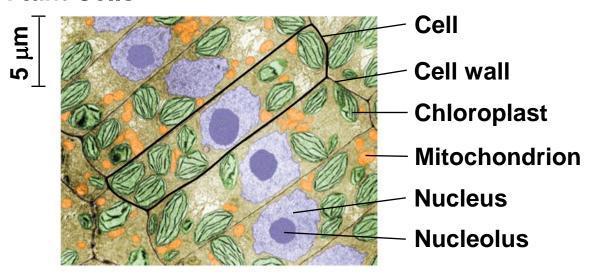
A single yeast cell (colorized TEM)







Plant Cells



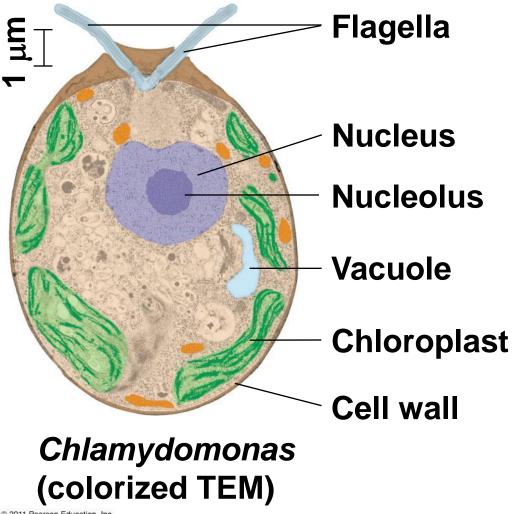
Cells from duckweed (colorized TEM)

Protistan Cells



Chlamydomonas (colorized SEM)

Protistan Cells

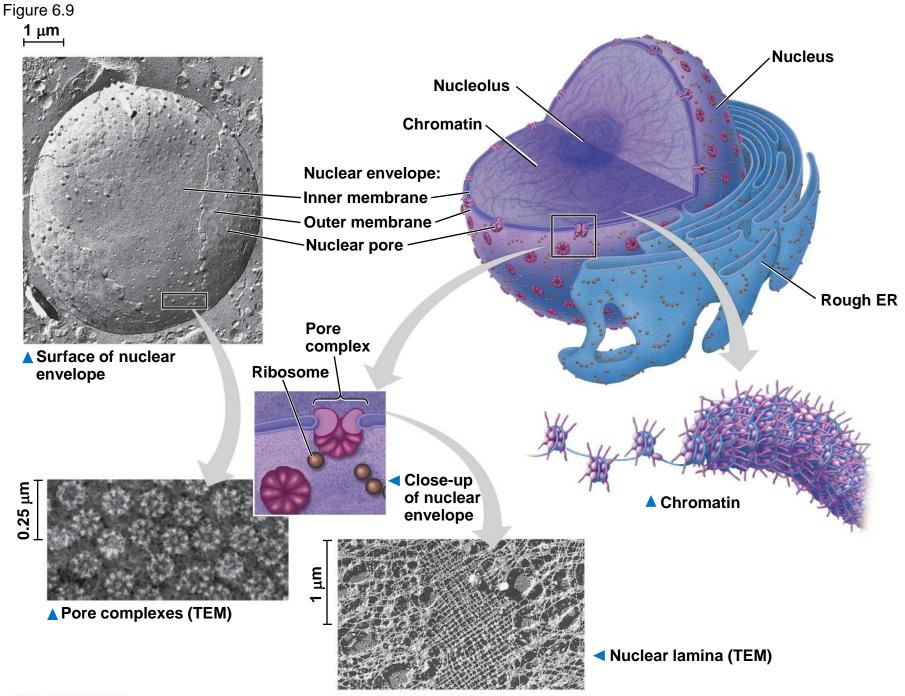


Concept 6.3: The eukaryotic cell's genetic instructions are housed in the nucleus and carried out by the ribosomes

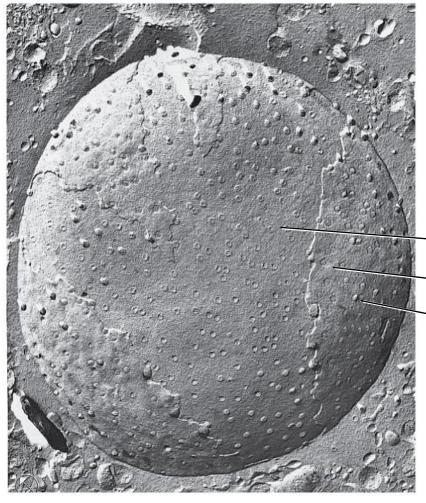
- The nucleus contains most of the DNA in a eukaryotic cell
- Ribosomes use the information from the DNA to make proteins

The Nucleus: Information Central

- 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

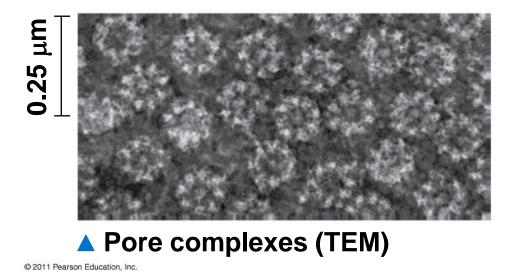


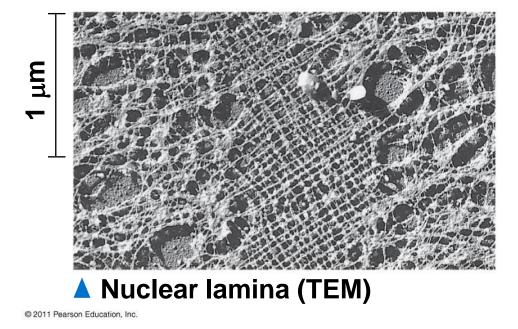
1 μm



Nuclear envelope: Inner membrane Outer membrane Nuclear pore

▲ Surface of nuclear envelope



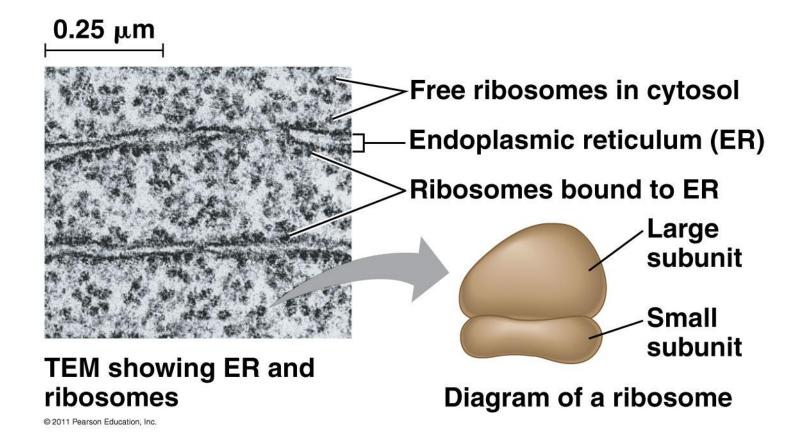


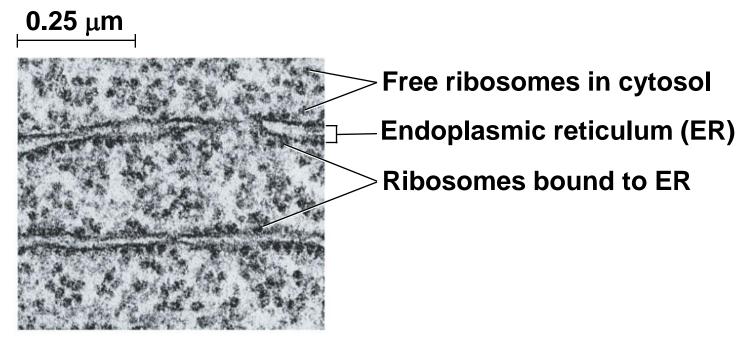
- Pores regulate the entry and exit of molecules from the nucleus
- The shape of the nucleus is maintained by the nuclear lamina, which is composed of protein

- In the nucleus, DNA is organized into discrete units called chromosomes
- Each chromosome is composed of a single DNA molecule associated with proteins
- The DNA and proteins of chromosomes are together 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

- Ribosomes are particles made 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)





TEM showing ER and ribosomes

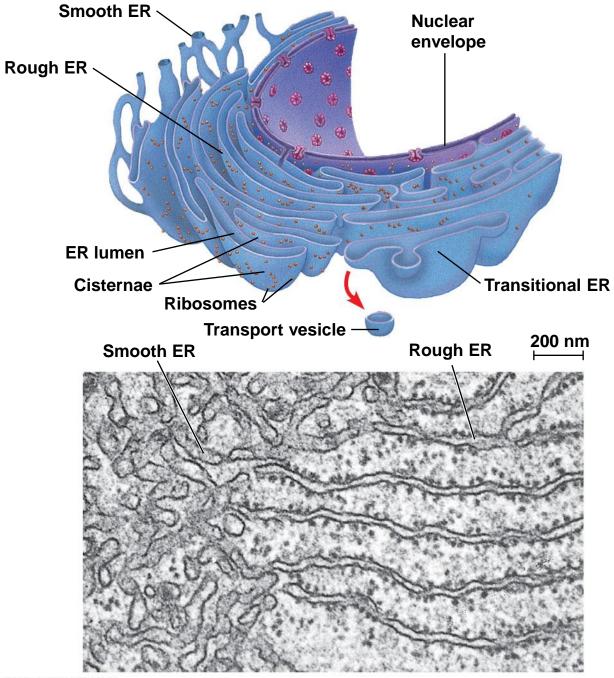
Concept 6.4: The endomembrane system regulates protein traffic and performs metabolic functions in the cell

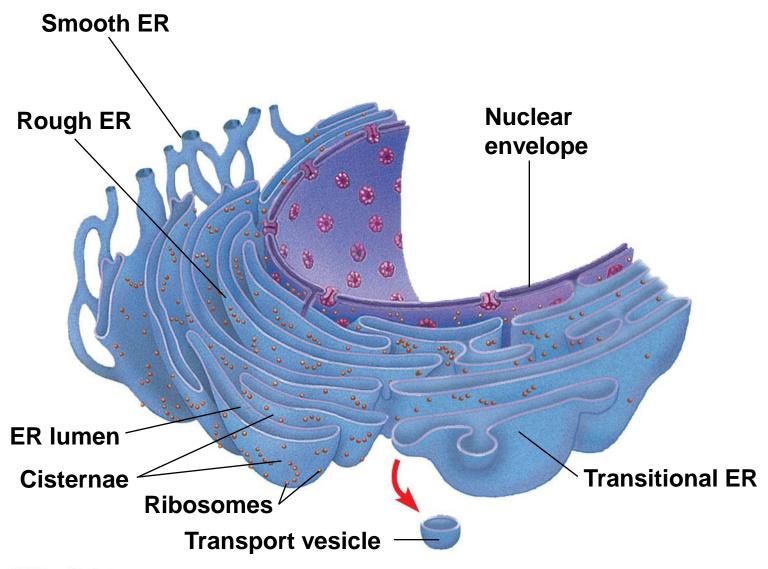
- Components of the endomembrane system
 - Nuclear envelope
 - Endoplasmic reticulum
 - Golgi apparatus
 - Lysosomes
 - Vacuoles
 - Plasma membrane
- These components are either continuous or connected via transfer by vesicles

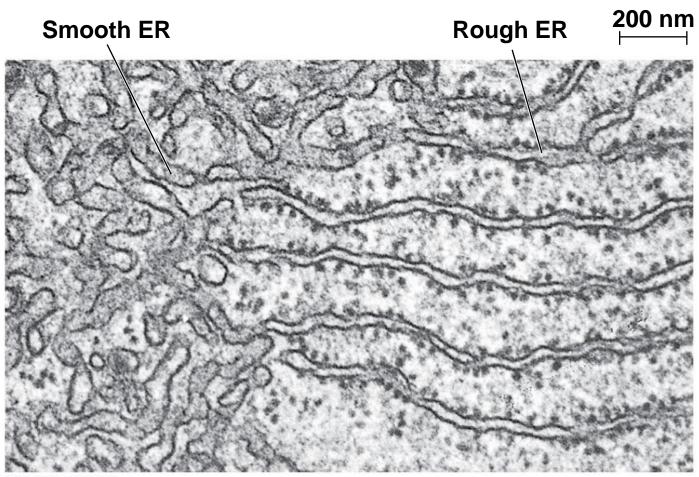
The Endoplasmic Reticulum: Biosynthetic Factory

- 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, which lacks ribosomes
 - Rough ER, surface is studded with ribosomes

Figure 6.11







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Functions of Smooth ER

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

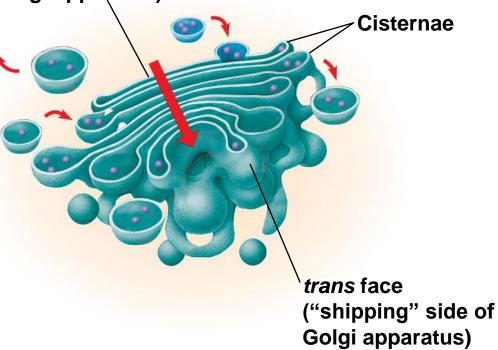
Functions of Rough ER

- The rough ER
 - 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

cis face ("receiving" side of Golgi apparatus)



0.1 μm



TEM of Golgi apparatus

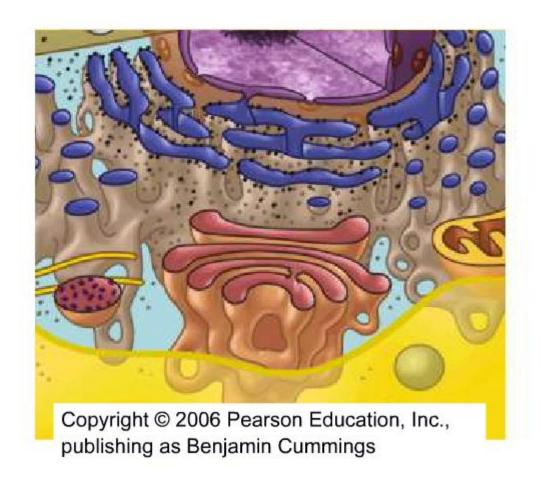
0.1 μm



TEM of Golgi apparatus

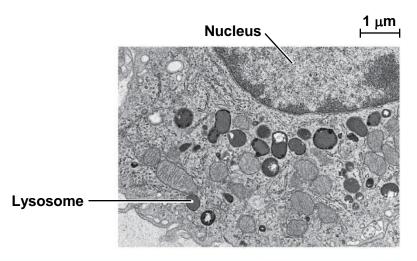
Lysosomes: Digestive Compartments

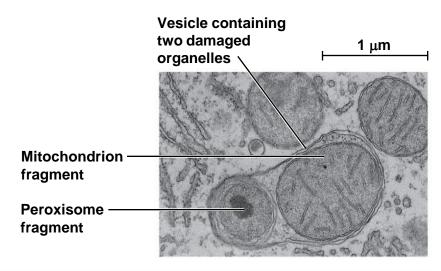
- A lysosome is a membranous sac of hydrolytic enzymes that can digest macromolecules
- Lysosomal enzymes can hydrolyze proteins, fats, polysaccharides, and nucleic acids
- Lysosomal enzymes work best in the acidic environment inside the lysosome

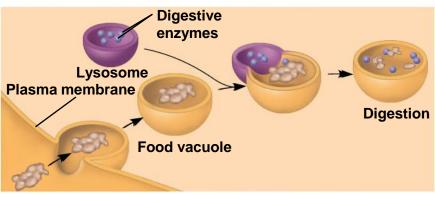


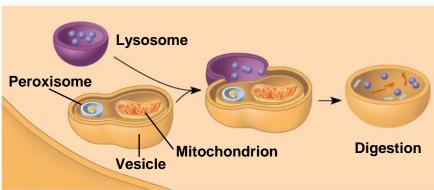
Animation: Lysosome Formation Right-click slide / select "Play"

- 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





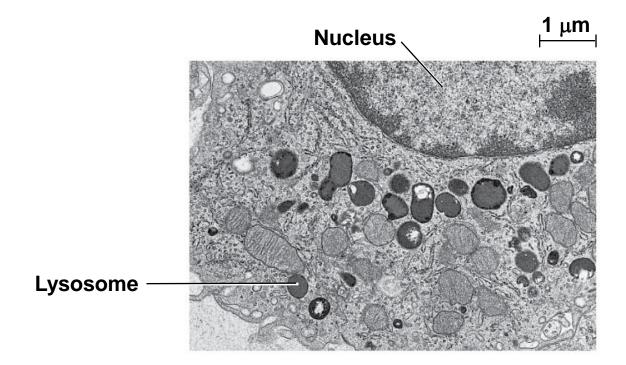


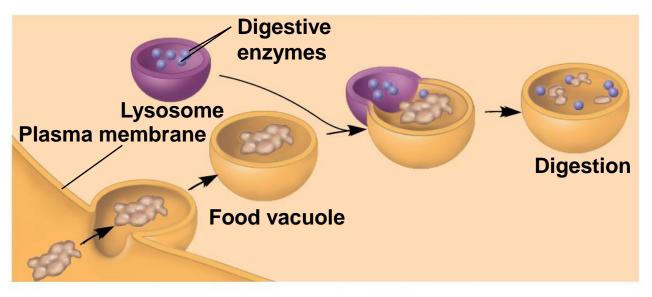


(a) Phagocytosis

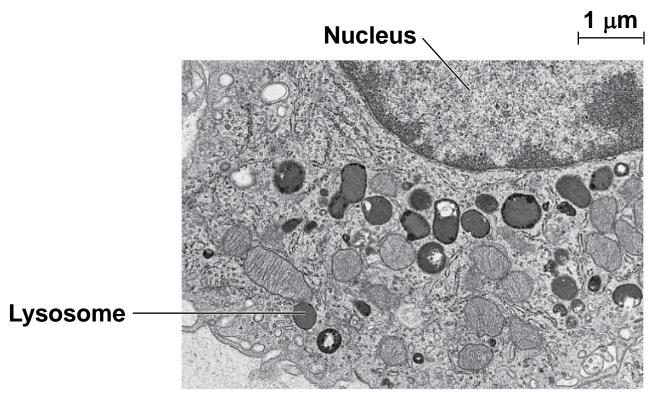
(b) Autophagy

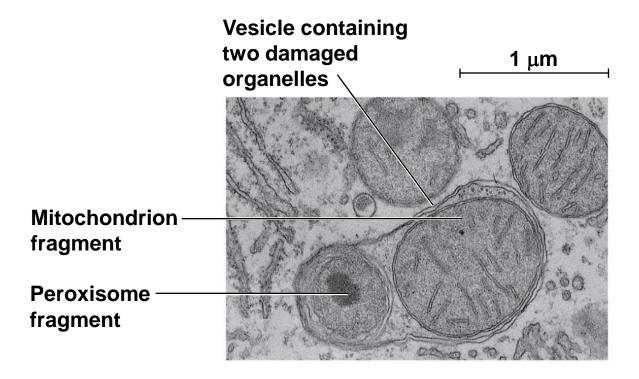
Figure 6.13a

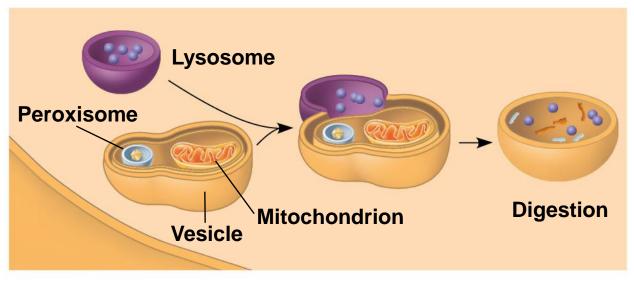




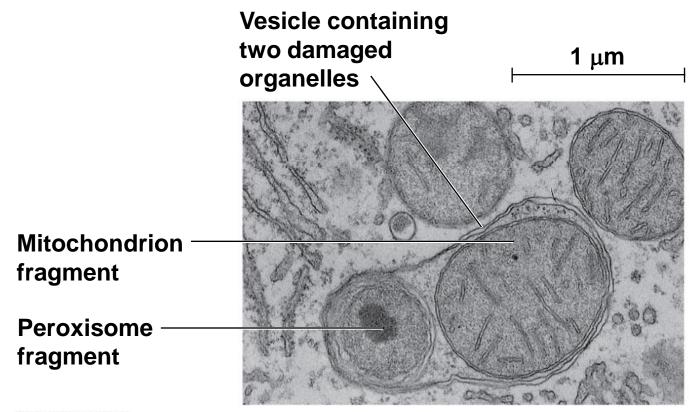
(a) Phagocytosis







(b) Autophagy
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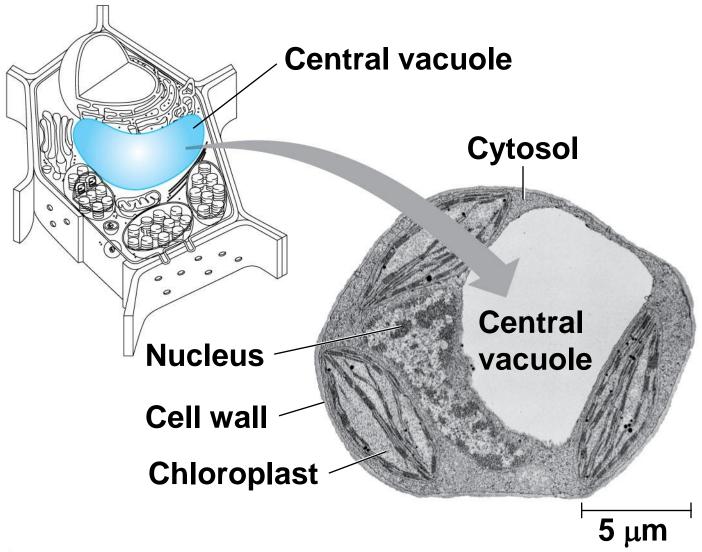


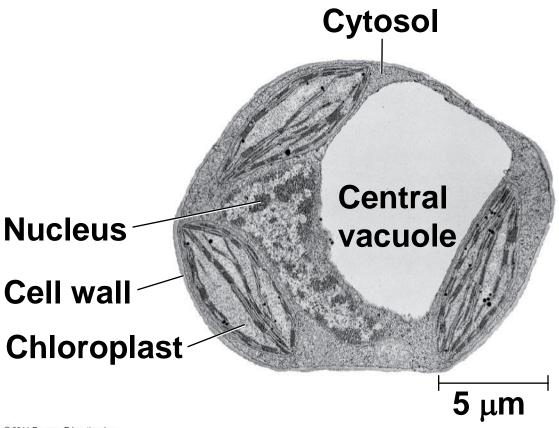
Vacuoles: Diverse Maintenance Compartments

 A plant cell or fungal cell may have one or several vacuoles, derived from endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus

- 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

Figure 6.14





The Endomembrane System: A Review

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

Figure 6.15-1

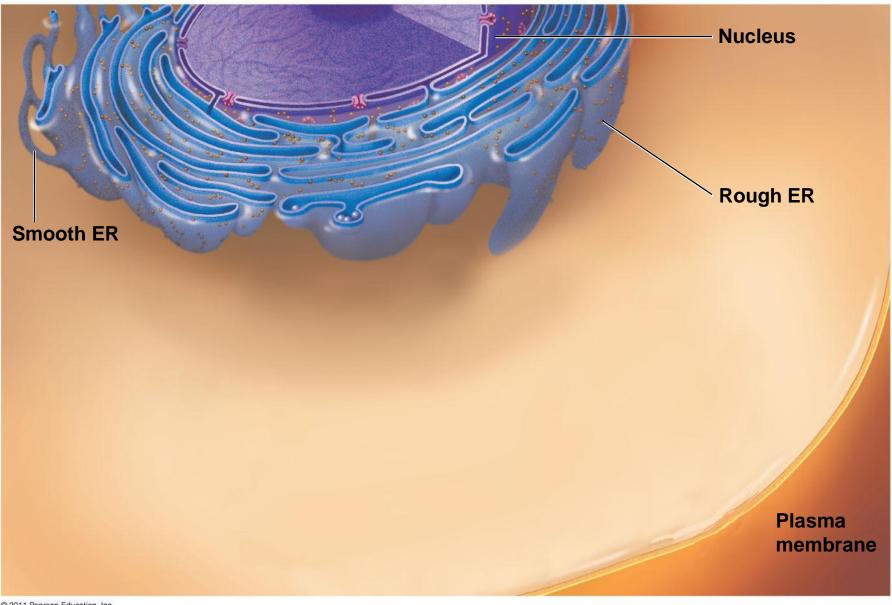


Figure 6.15-2

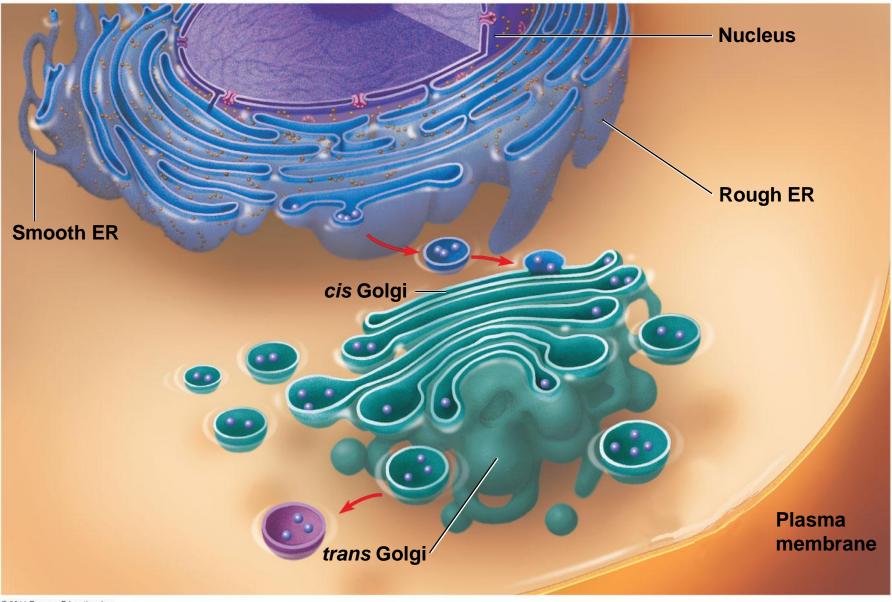
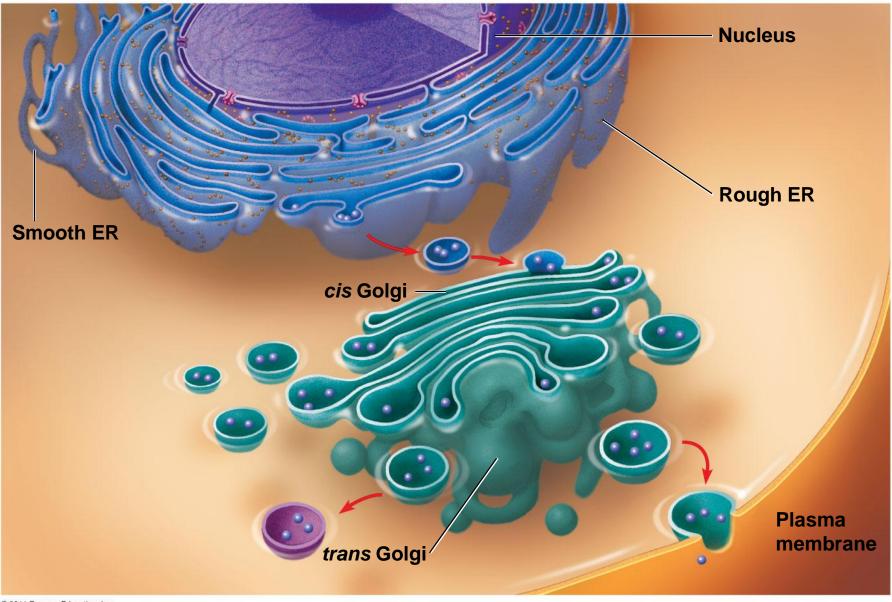


Figure 6.15-3



Concept 6.5: Mitochondria and chloroplasts change energy from one form to another

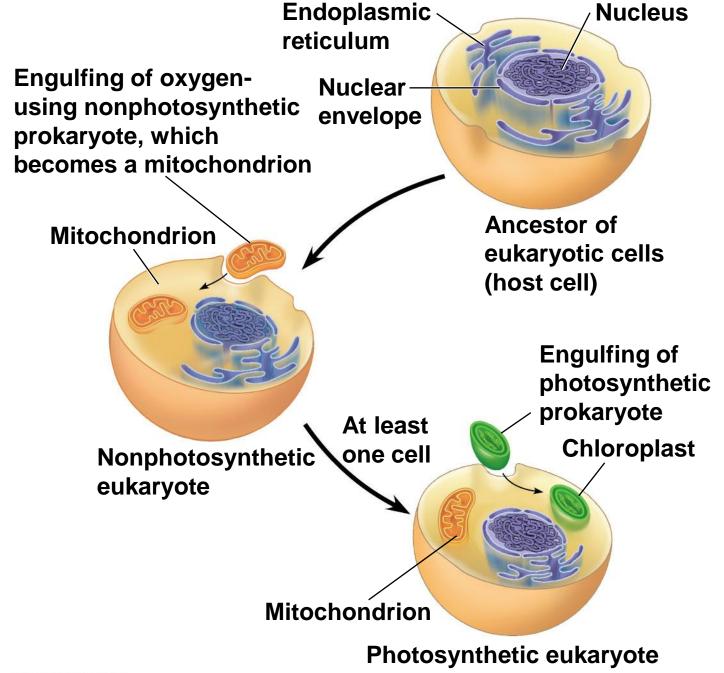
- Mitochondria are the sites of cellular respiration, a metabolic process that uses oxygen to generate ATP
- Chloroplasts, found in plants and algae, are the sites of photosynthesis
- Peroxisomes are oxidative organelles

The Evolutionary Origins of Mitochondria and Chloroplasts

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

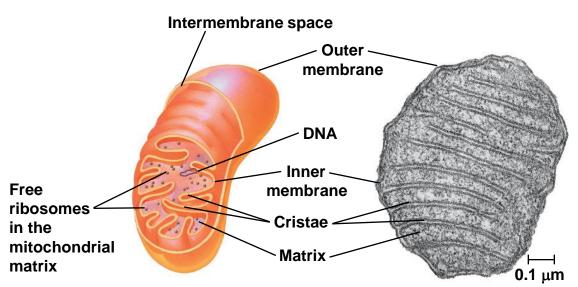
The Endosymbiont theory

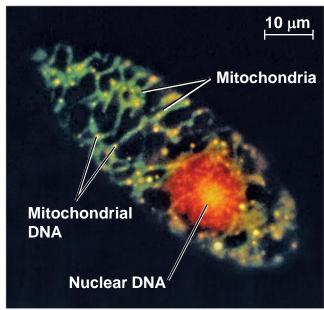
- An early ancestor of eukaryotic cells engulfed a nonphotosynthetic prokaryotic cell, which formed an endosymbiont relationship with its host
- The host cell and endosymbiont merged into a single organism, a eukaryotic cell with a mitochondrion
- At least one of these cells may have taken up a photosynthetic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



Mitochondria: Chemical Energy Conversion

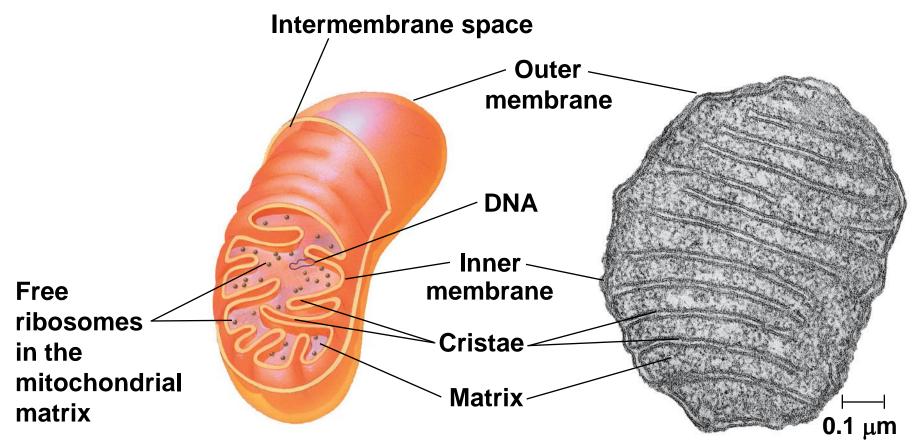
- Mitochondria are in nearly all eukaryotic cells
- They have a smooth outer membrane and an inner membrane folded into cristae
- The inner membrane creates two compartments: intermembrane space and mitochondrial matrix
- Some metabolic steps of cellular respiration are catalyzed in the mitochondrial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



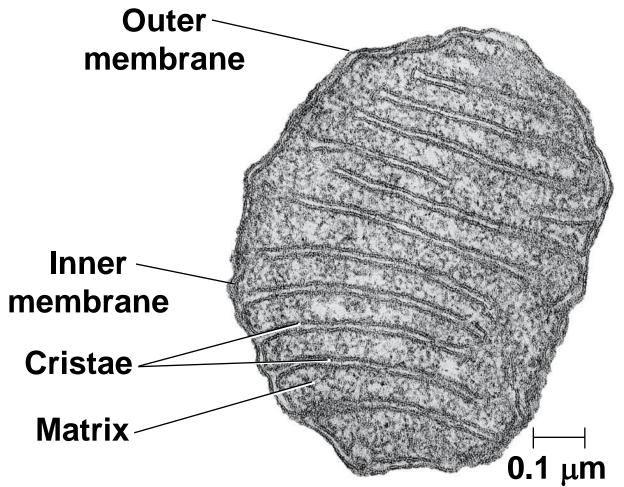


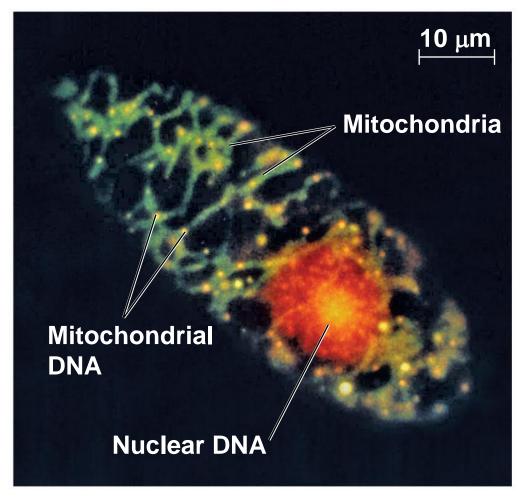
(b) Network of mitochondria in a protist cell (LM)

(a) Diagram and TEM of mitochondrion



(a) Diagram and TEM of mitochondrion



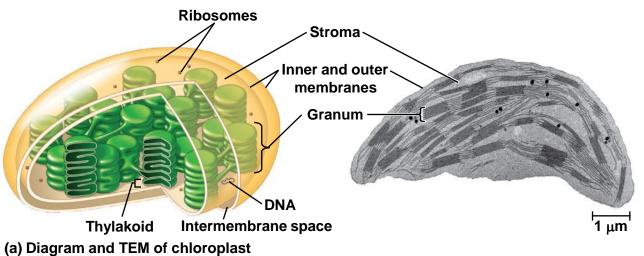


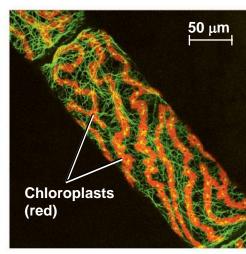
(b) Network of mitochondria in a protist cell (LM)

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

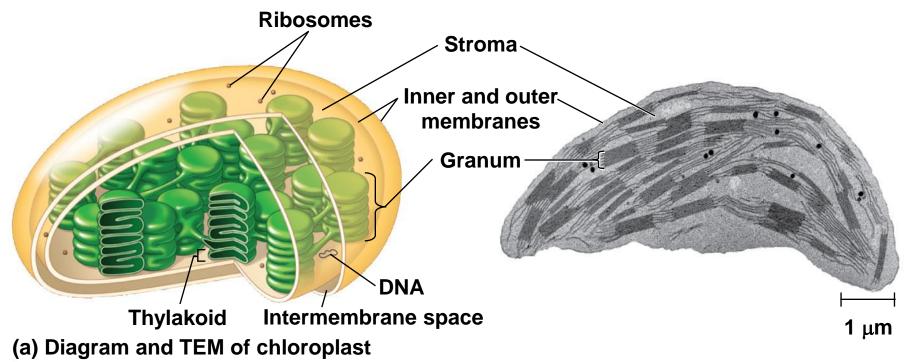
- Chloroplast structure includes
 - Thylakoids, membranous sacs, stacked to form a granum
 - Stroma, the internal fluid
- The chloroplast is one of a group of plant organelles, called plastids

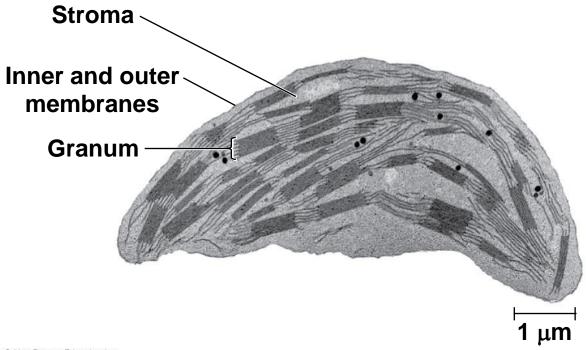


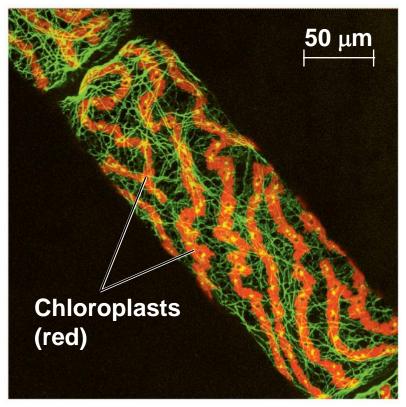


(b) Chloroplasts in an algal cell

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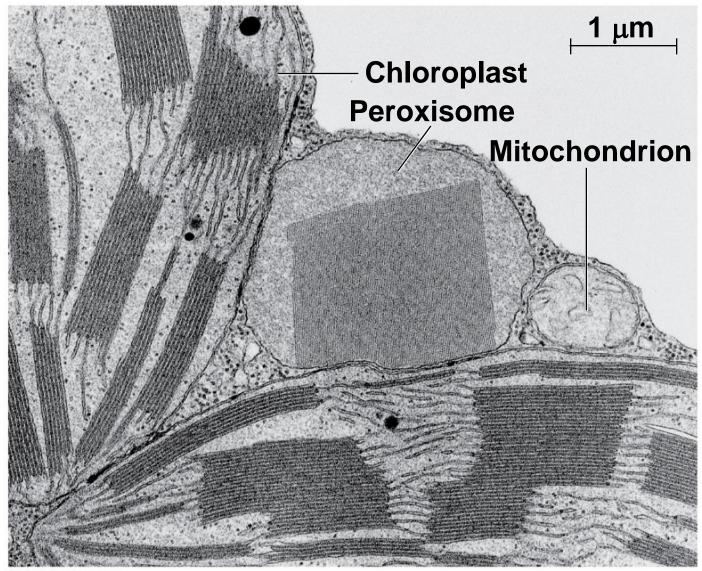




(b) Chloroplasts in an algal cell

Peroxisomes: Oxidation

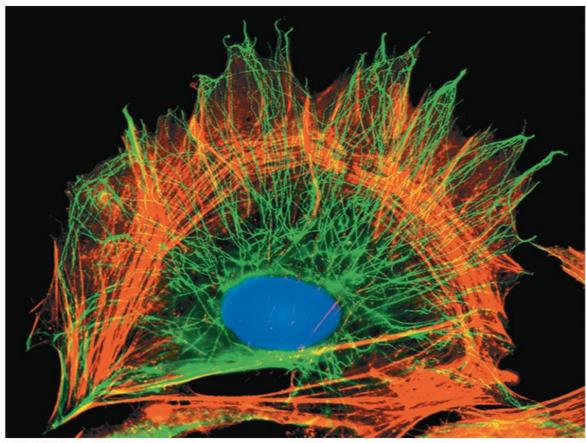
- Peroxisomes are specialized metabolic compartments bounded by a single membrane
- Peroxisomes produce hydrogen peroxide and convert it to water
- Peroxisomes perform reactions with many different functions
- How peroxisomes are related to other organelles is still unknown



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Concept 6.6: 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, anchoring many organelles
- It is composed of three types of molecular structures
 - Microtubules
 - Microfilaments
 - Intermediate filaments

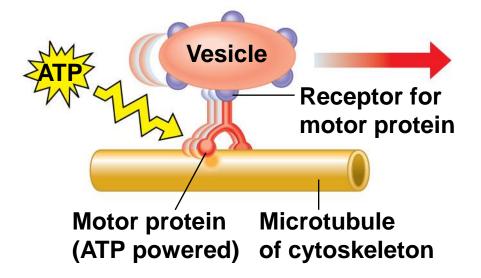


10 µm

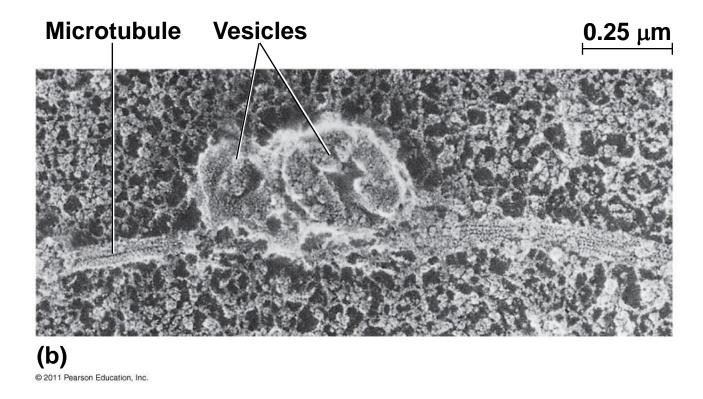
Roles of the Cytoskeleton: Support and Motility

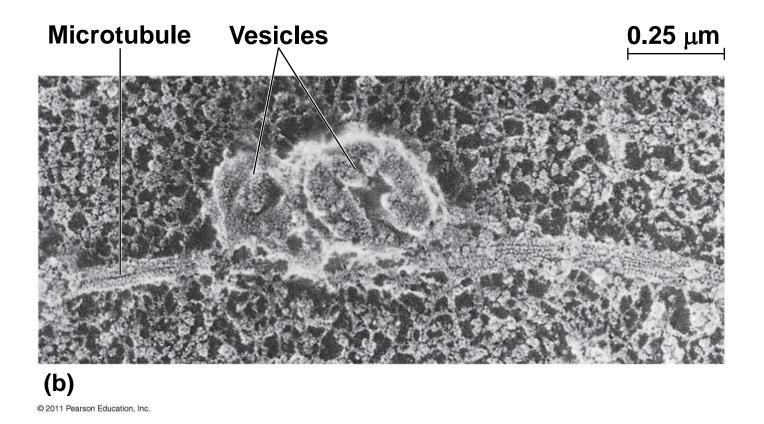
- The cytoskeleton helps to support the cell and maintain its shape
- It interacts with motor proteins to produce motility
- Inside the cell, vesicles can travel along "monorails" provided by the cytoskeleton
- Recent evidence suggests that the cytoskeleton may help regulate biochemical activities

Figure 6.21



(a)





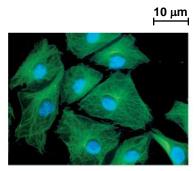
Components of the Cytoskeleton

- 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

Property	Microtubules (Tubulin Polymers)	Microfilaments (Actin Filaments)	Intermediate Filaments			
Structure	Hollow tubes; wall consists of 13 columns of tubulin molecules	Two intertwined strands of actin, each a polymer of actin subunits	Fibrous proteins supercoiled into thicker 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), depending on cell type			
Main functions	Maintenance of cell shape (compression-resisting "girders")	Maintenance of cell shape (tension- bearing elements)	Maintenance of cell shape (tension- bearing elements)			
	Cell motility (as in cilia or flagella)	Changes in cell shape	Anchorage of nucleus and certain other			
	Chromosome movements in cell	Muscle contraction	organelles Formation of nuclear lamina			
	division Organelle movements	Cytoplasmic streaming				
	Organelle movements	Cell motility (as in pseudopodia)				
	Cell division (cleavage furrow formation)					
	10 μπ	10 μ	m _5 μm _			
	Column of tubulin dim	ALC STATES OF THE STATES OF TH				
	25 nn	Actin subunit	Keratin proteins Fibrous subunit (keratins coiled together)			

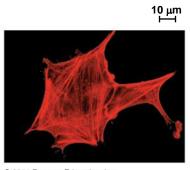
Table 6.1a

Property	Microtubules (Tubulin Polymers)	
Structure	Hollow tubes; wall consists of 13 columns of tubulin molecules	10 μm
Diameter	25 nm with 15-nm lumen	and the second
Protein subunits	Tubulin, a dimer consisting of α -tubulin and β -tubulin	
Main functions	Maintenance of cell shape (compression-resisting "girders")	
	Cell motility (as in cilia or flagella)	
	Chromosome movements in cell division	
	Organelle movements	
		Column of tubulin dimers
		25 nm
		α^{\prime} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \



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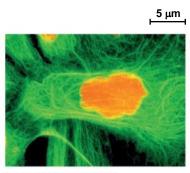
Property	Microfilaments (Actin Filaments)	
Structure	Two intertwined strands of actin, each a polymer of actin subunits	10 μm
Diameter	7 nm	
Protein subunits	Actin	AFF MANAGE
Main functions	Maintenance of cell shape (tension-bearing elements)	
	Changes in cell shape	
	Muscle contraction	8
	Cytoplasmic streaming	
	Cell motility (as in pseudopodia)	
	Cell division (cleavage furrow formation)	
	Ac	tin subunit
		↑ 7 nm



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Table 6.1c

Property	Intermediate Filaments	
Structure	Fibrous proteins supercoiled into thicker cables	<u>5 μm</u>
Diameter	8–12 nm	
Protein subunits	One of several different proteins (such as keratins), depending on cell type	
Main functions Maintenance of cell shape (tension-bearing elements)	WS PROPRIES	
	Anchorage of nucleus and certain other organelles	
	Formation of nuclear lamina	
		Keratin proteins
		Fibrous subunit (keratins coiled together)



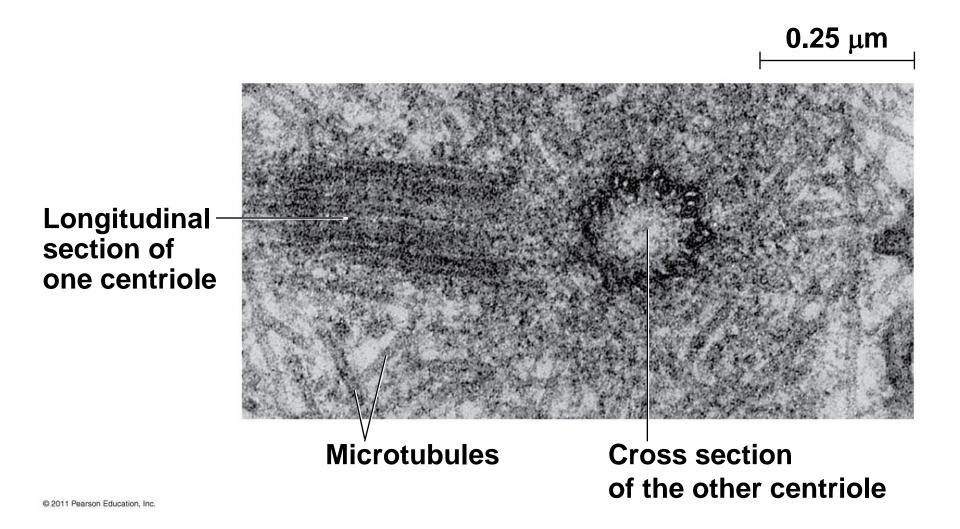
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Microtubules

- Microtubules are hollow rods about 25 nm in diameter and about 200 nm to 25 microns long
- Functions of microtubules
 - Shaping the cell
 - Guiding movement of organelles
 - Separating chromosomes during cell division

Centrosomes and Centrioles

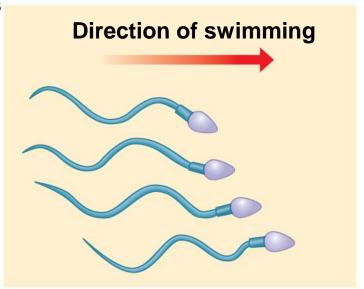
- In many cells, microtubules grow out from a centrosome near the nucleus
- The centrosome is a "microtubule-organizing center"
- In animal cells, the centrosome has a pair of centrioles, each with nine triplets of microtubules arranged in a ring



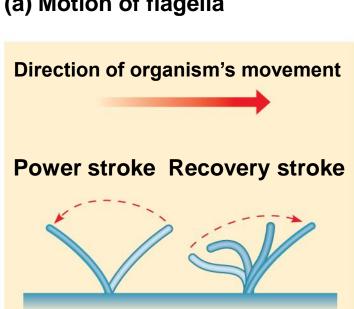
Cilia and Flagella

- Microtubules control the beating of cilia and flagella, locomotor appendages of some cells
- Cilia and flagella differ in their beating patterns

Figure 6.23



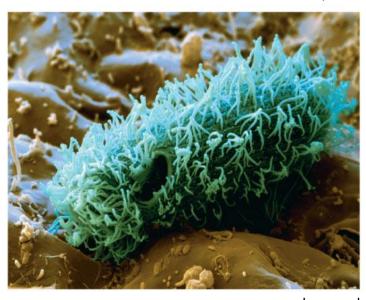
(a) Motion of flagella



(b) Motion of cilia



 $5~\mu m$

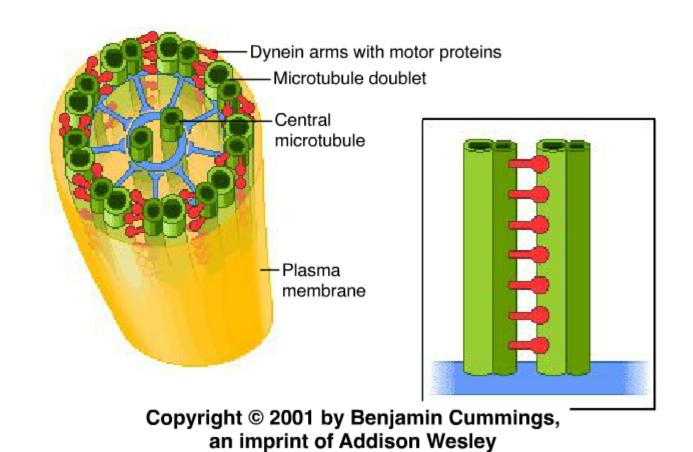


15 μm

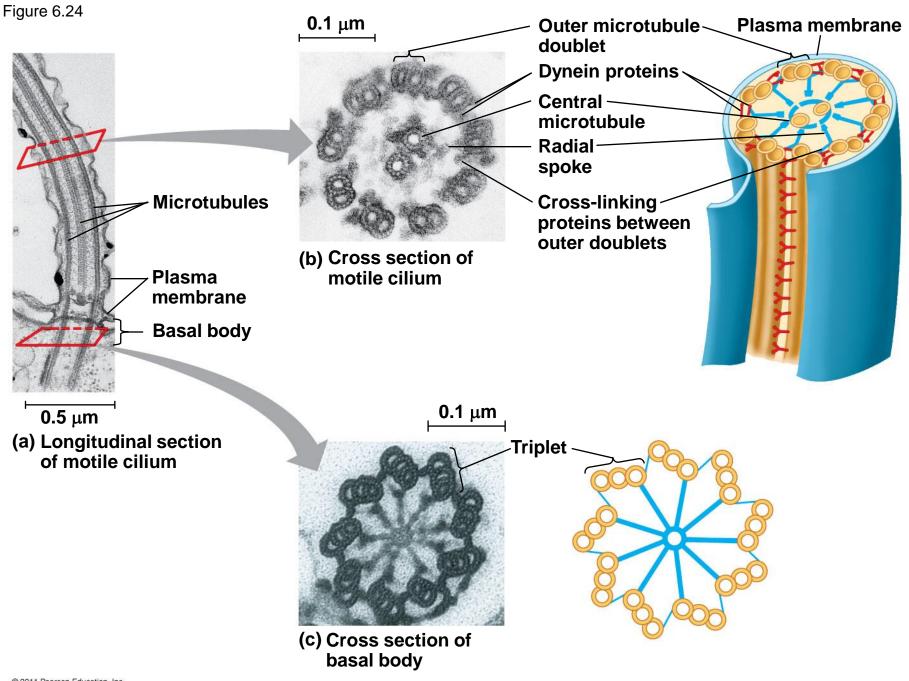


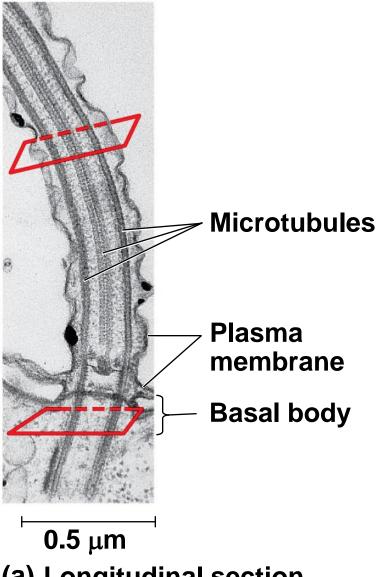


- Cilia and flagella share a common structure
 - A core of microtubules sheathed by the plasma membrane
 - A basal body that anchors the cilium or flagellum
 - A motor protein called **dynein**, which drives the bending movements of a cilium or flagellum

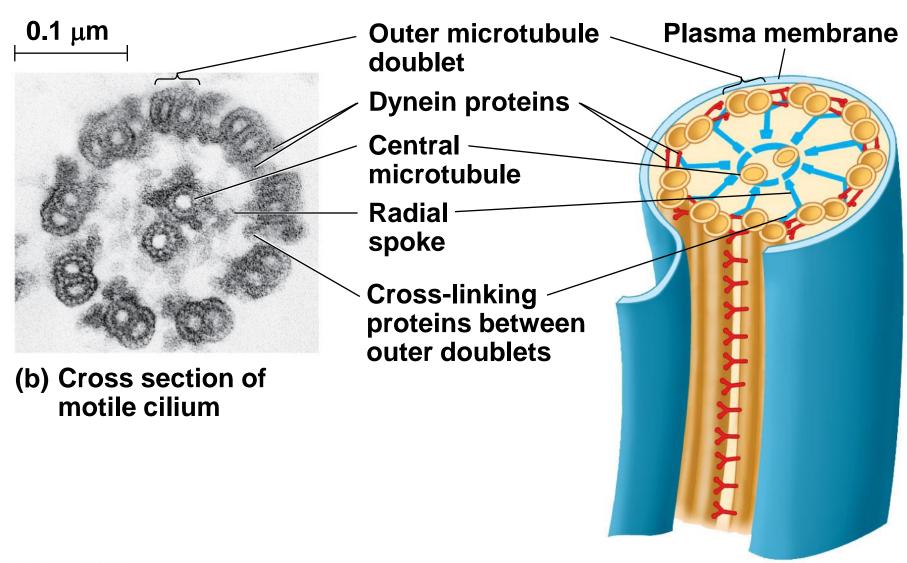


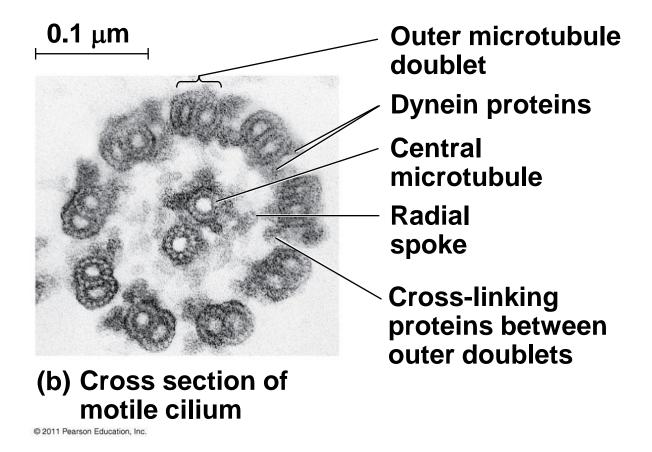
Animation: Cilia and Flagella Right-click slide / select "Play"

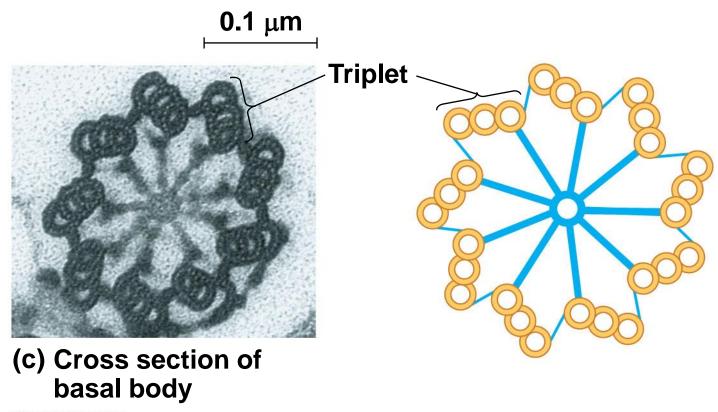


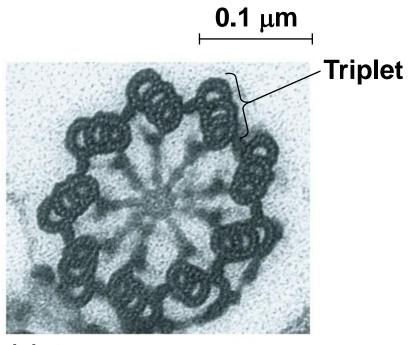


(a) Longitudinal section of motile cilium



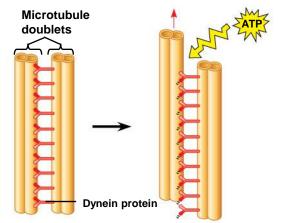




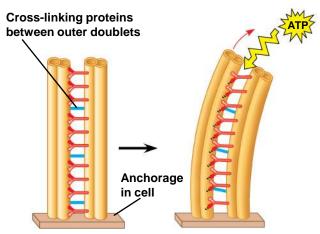


(c) Cross section of basal body

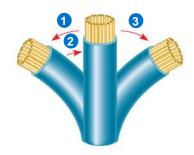
- How dynein "walking" moves flagella and cilia
 - Dynein arms alternately grab, move, and release the outer microtubules
 - Protein cross-links limit sliding
 - Forces exerted by dynein arms cause doublets to curve, bending the cilium or flagellum



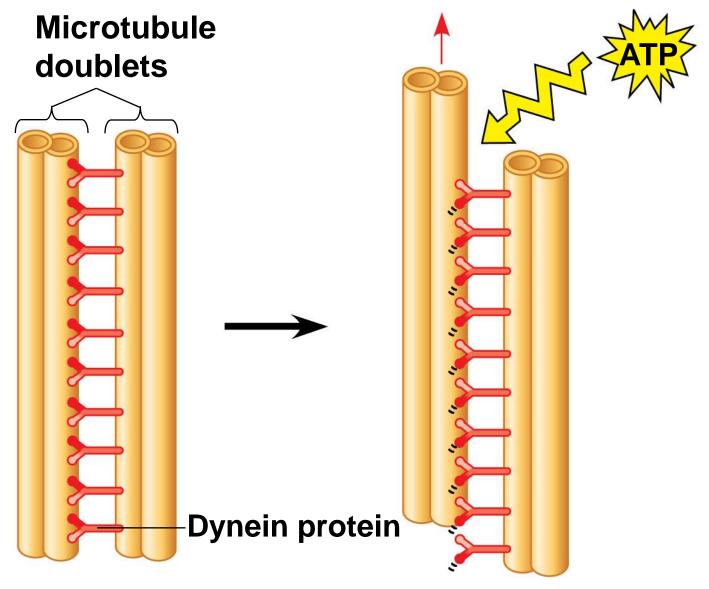
(a) Effect of unrestrained dynein movement



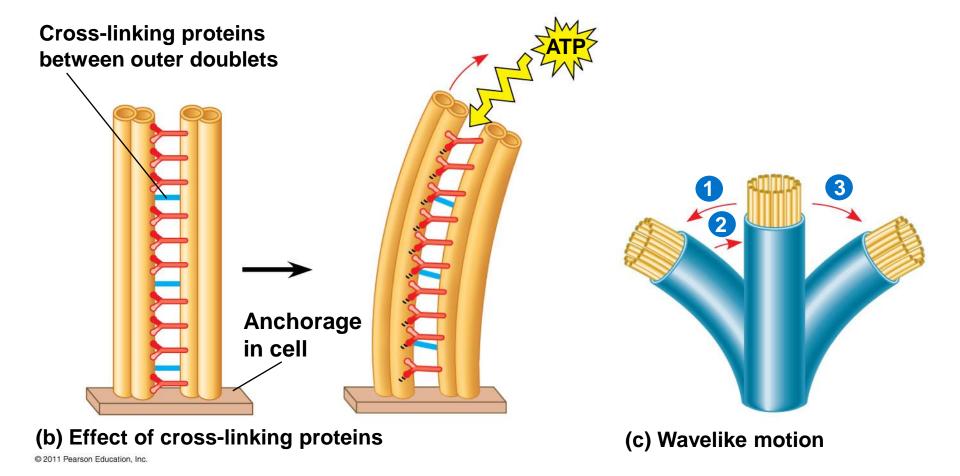
(b) Effect of cross-linking proteins



(c) Wavelike motion

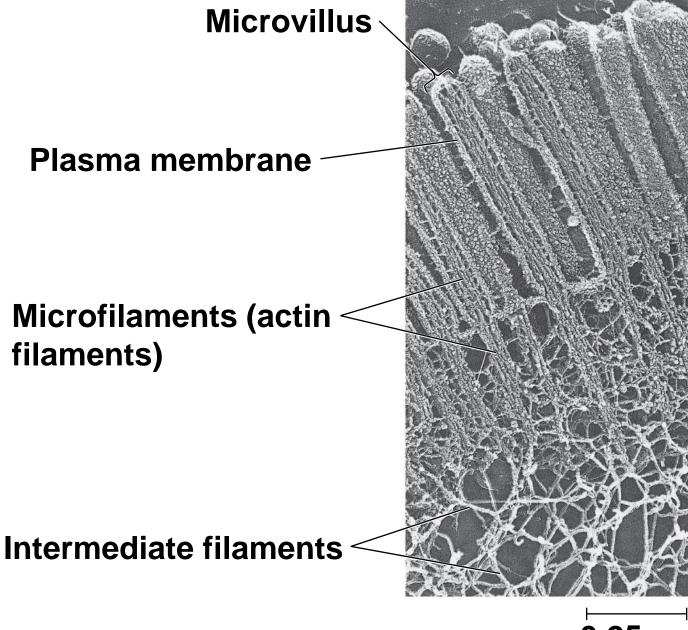


(a) Effect of unrestrained dynein movement



Microfilaments (Actin Filaments)

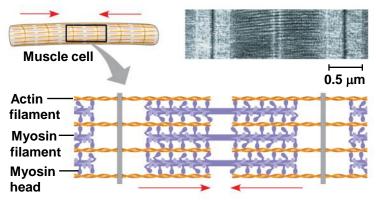
- Microfilaments are solid rods about 7 nm in diameter, built as a twisted double chain of actin subunits
- The structural role of microfilaments is to bear tension, resisting pulling forces within the cell
- They form a 3-D network called the cortex just inside the plasma membrane to help support the cell's shape
- Bundles of microfilaments make up the core of microvilli of intestinal cells



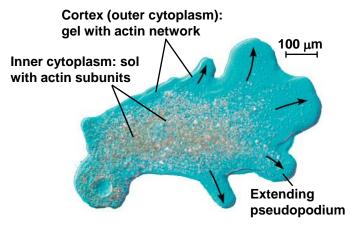
0.25 μm

- Microfilaments that function in cellular motility contain the protein myosin in addition to actin
- In muscle cells, thousands of actin filaments are arranged parallel to one another
- Thicker filaments composed of myosin interdigitate with the thinner actin fibers

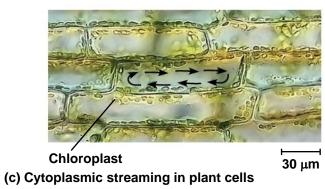
Figure 6.27

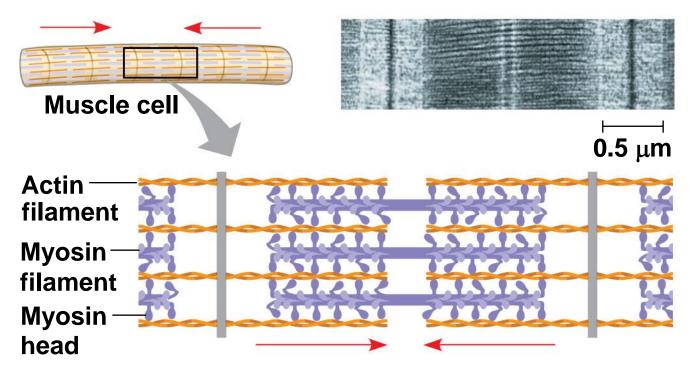


(a) Myosin motors in muscle cell contraction



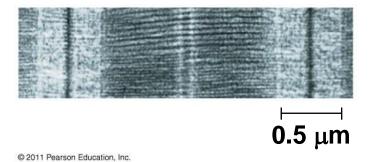
(b) Amoeboid movement

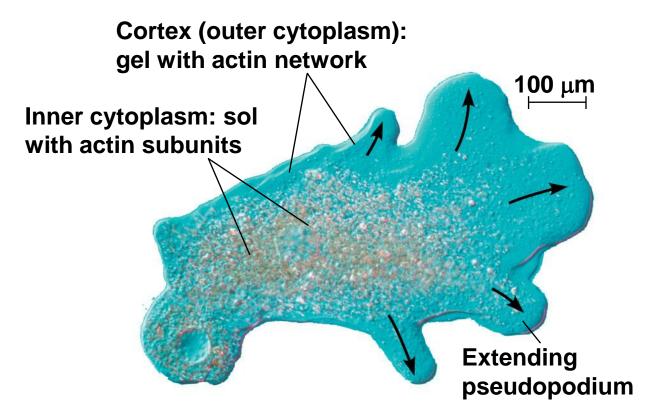




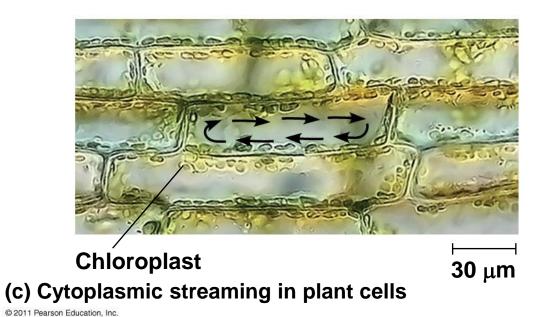
(a) Myosin motors in muscle cell contraction

Figure 6.27aa





(b) Amoeboid movement



- Localized contraction brought about by actin and myosin also drives amoeboid movement
- Pseudopodia (cellular extensions) extend and contract through the reversible assembly and contraction of actin subunits into microfilaments

- Cytoplasmic streaming is a circular flow of cytoplasm within cells
- This streaming speeds distribution of materials within the cell
- In plant cells, actin-myosin interactions and solgel transformations drive cytoplasmic streaming

Intermediate Filaments

- Intermediate filaments range in diameter from 8–12 nanometers, larger than microfilaments but smaller than microtubules
- They support cell shape and fix organelles in place
- Intermediate filaments are more permanent cytoskeleton fixtures than the other two classes

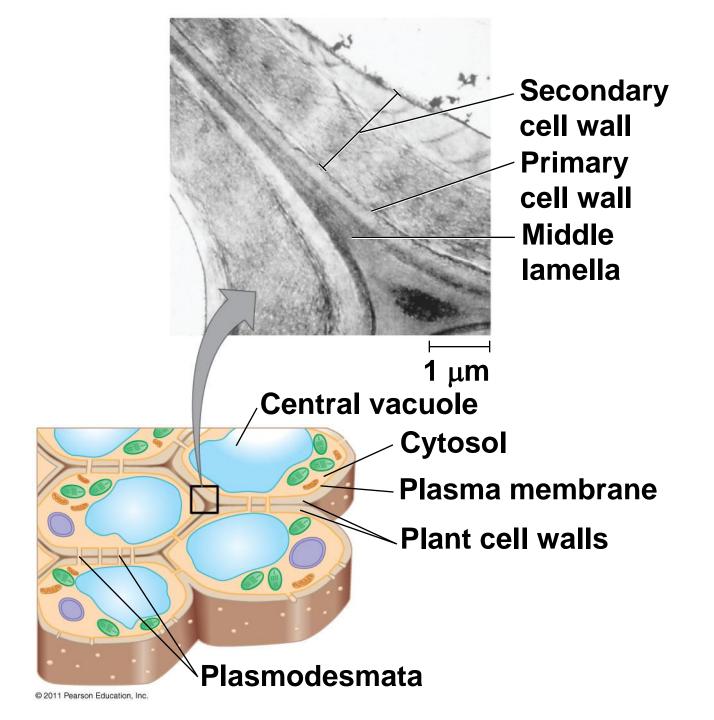
Concept 6.7: Extracellular components and connections between cells help coordinate cellular activities

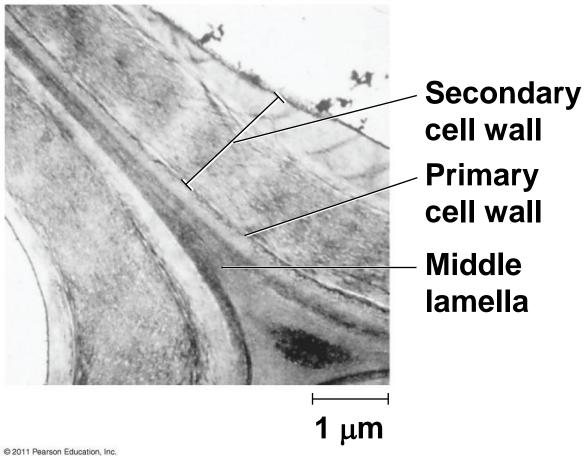
- Most cells synthesize and secrete materials that are external to the plasma membrane
- These extracellular structures include
 - Cell walls of plants
 - The extracellular matrix (ECM) of animal cells
 - Intercellular junctions

Cell Walls of Plants

- The cell wall is an extracellular structure that distinguishes plant cells from animal cells
- Prokaryotes, fungi, and some protists also have cell walls
- 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

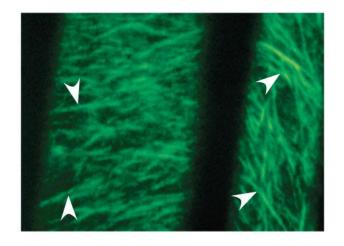
- Plant cell walls may have multiple layers
 - Primary cell wall: relatively thin and flexible
 - Middle lamella: thin layer between primary walls of adjacent cells
 - Secondary cell wall (in some cells): added between the plasma membrane and the primary cell wall
- Plasmodesmata are channels between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





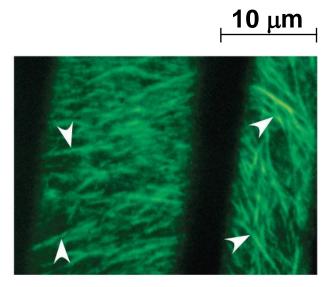
RESULTS

_10 μm



Distribution of cellulose synthase over time

Distribution of microtubules over time



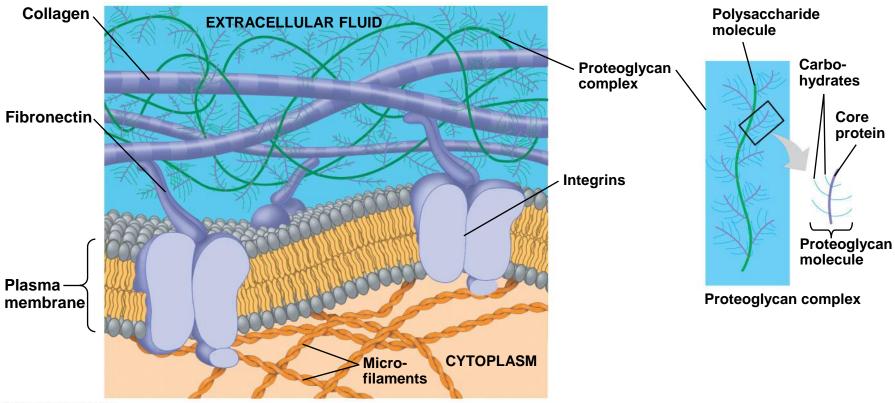
Distribution of cellulose synthase over time

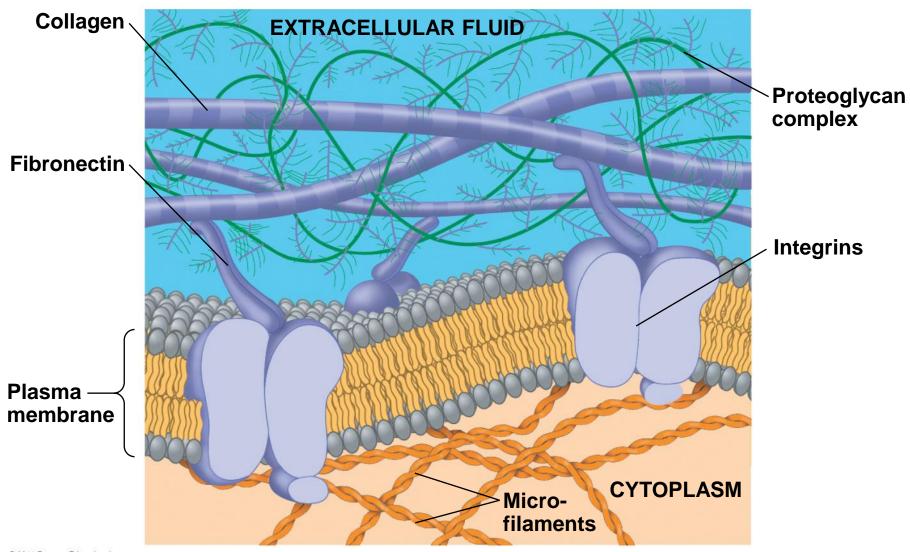
10 μm

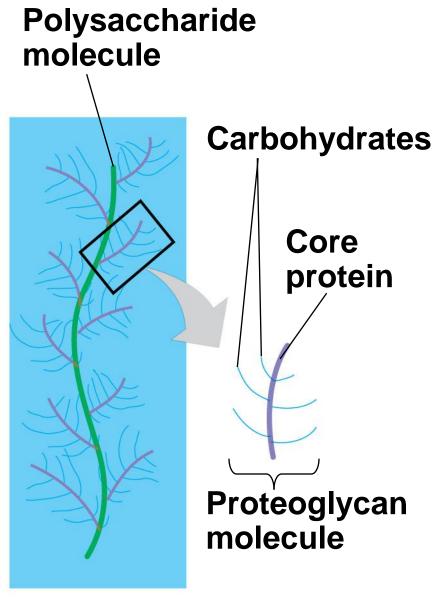
Distribution of microtubules over time

The Extracellular Matrix (ECM) of Animal Cells

- Animal cells lack cell walls but are covered by an elaborate extracellular matrix (ECM)
- The ECM is made up of glycoproteins such as collagen, proteoglycans, and fibronectin
- ECM proteins bind to receptor proteins in the plasma membrane called integrins







Proteoglycan complex

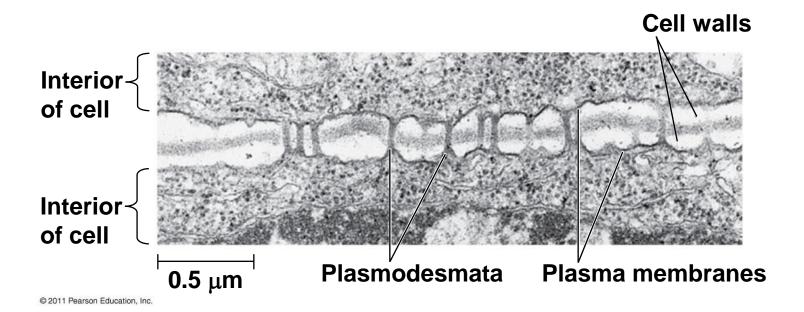
- Functions of the ECM
 - Support
 - Adhesion
 - Movement
 - Regulation

Cell Junctions

- Neighboring cells in tissues, organs, or organ systems often adhere, interact, and communicate through direct physical contact
- Intercellular junctions facilitate this contact
- There are several types of intercellular junctions
 - Plasmodesmata
 - Tight junctions
 - Desmosomes
 - Gap junctions

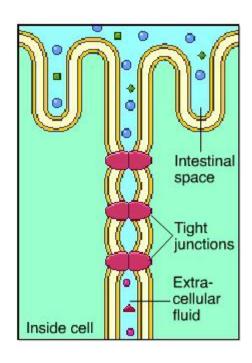
Plasmodesmata in Plant Cells

- 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

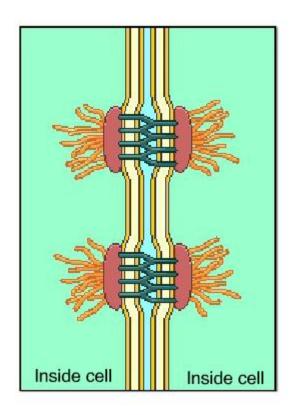


Tight Junctions, Desmosomes, and Gap Junctions in Animal Cells

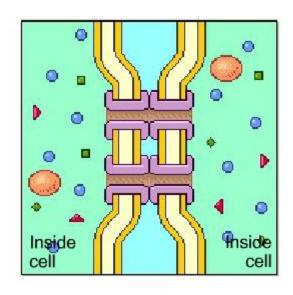
- At tight junctions, membranes of neighboring cells are pressed together, preventing leakage of extracellular fluid
- Desmosomes (anchoring junctions) fasten cells together into strong sheets
- Gap junctions (communicating junctions) provide cytoplasmic channels between adjacent cells



Animation: Tight Junctions Right-click slide / select "Play"



Animation: Desmosomes Right-click slide / select "Play"



Animation: Gap Junctions Right-click slide / select "Play"

Figure 6.32

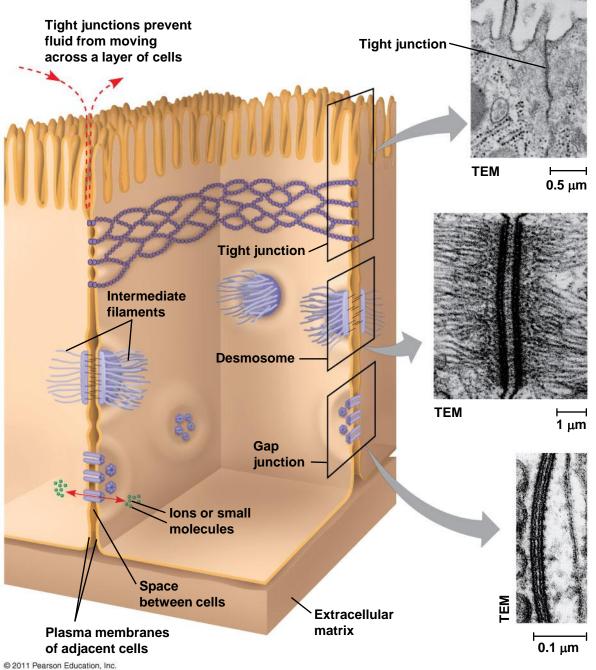
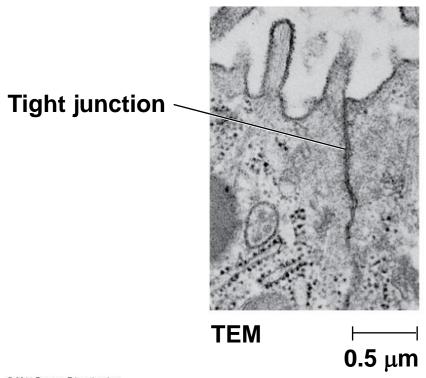
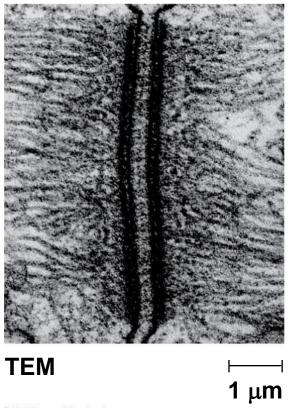


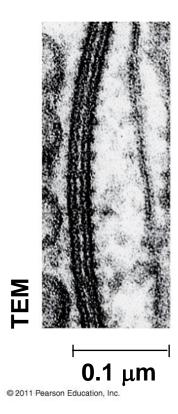
Figure 6.32a **Tight junctions prevent** fluid from moving across a layer of cells Tight junction Intermediate filaments **Desmosome** Gap junction lons or small Plasma membranesmolecules of adjacent cells Space between cells

Extracellular

matrix

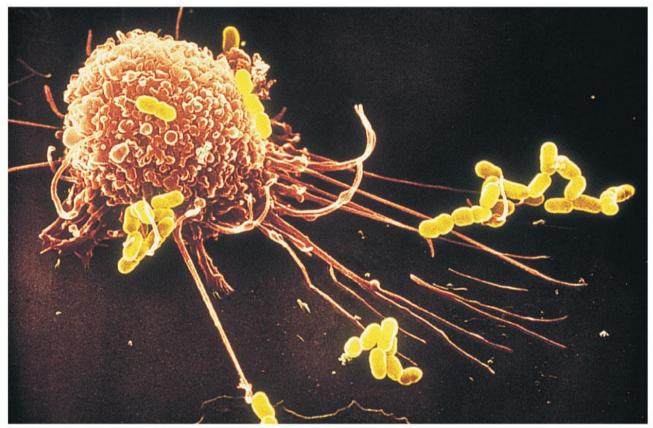






The Cell: A Living Unit Greater Than the Sum of Its Parts

- Cells rely on the integration of structures and organelles in order to function
- For example, a macrophage's ability to destroy bacteria involves the whole cell, coordinating components such as the cytoskeleton, lysosomes, and plasma membrane



5 µm

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Figure 6.UN01

	Cell Component	Structure	Function
The eukaryotic cell's genetic instructions are housed in the nucleus and carried out by the ribosomes	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 ribosomal 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
The endomembrane system regulates protein traffic and performs metabolic functions in the cell	Endoplasmic reticulum (Nuclear envelope)	Extensive network of membrane- bounded tubules and sacs; mem- brane separates lumen from cytosol; continuous with nuclear envelope	Smooth ER: synthesis of lipids, metabolism of carbohydrates, Ca ²⁺ storage, detoxification 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 (cis and trans faces)	Modification of proteins, carbo- hydrates on proteins, and phos- pholipids; 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 sub- stances, cell macromolecules, and damaged organelles for recycling
	Vacuole	Large membrane-bounded vesicle	Digestion, storage, waste disposal, water balance, cell growth, and protection
Mitochondria and chloroplasts change energy from one form to another	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 compart- ment bounded by a single membrane	Contains enzymes that transfer hydrogen atoms from substrates to oxygen, producing hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂) as a by-product; H ₂ O ₂ is converted to water by another enzyme

	Cell Component	Structure	Function
The eukaryotic cell's genetic instructions are housed in the nucleus and carried out by the ribosomes	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 ribosomal 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
The endomembrane system regulates protein traffic and performs metabolic functions in the cell	Endoplasmic reticulum (Nuclear envelope)	Extensive network of membrane- bounded tubules and sacs; mem- brane separates lumen from cytosol; continuous with nuclear envelope	Smooth ER: synthesis of lipids, metabolism of carbohydrates, Ca ²⁺ storage, detoxification 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 (cis and trans faces)	Modification of proteins, carbohydrates on proteins, and 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 sub- stances, cell macromolecules, and damaged organelles for recycling
	Vacuole	Large membrane-bounded vesicle	Digestion, storage, waste disposal, water balance, cell growth, and protection

	Cell Component	Structure	Function
Mitochondria and chloroplasts change energy from one form to another	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 compart- ment bounded by a single membrane	Contains enzymes that transfer hy drogen atoms from substrates to oxygen, producing hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂) as a by-product; H ₂ O ₂ is converted to water by an other enzyme