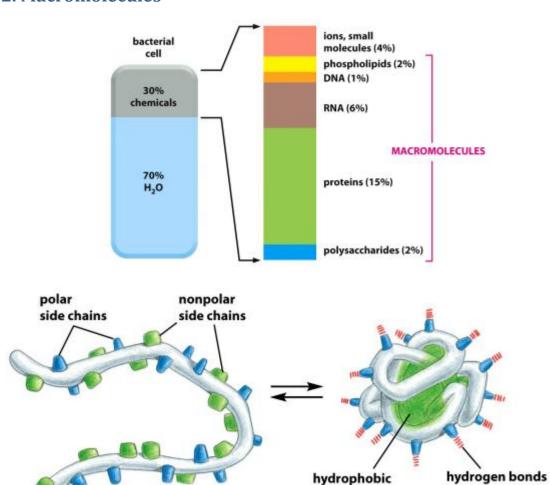
Cell Structure and Function

1. Microscopes

Table 4.2 Comparison of Types of Microscopes					
Type of Microscope	Typical Image	Description of Image	Special Features	Typical Uses	
Light Microscopes		Useful magnification 1× to 2000×; resolution to 200 nm	Use visible light; shorter, blue wavelengths provide better resolution		
Bright-field	34	Colored or clear specimen against bright background	Simple to use; relatively inexpensive; stained specimens often required	Observation of killed stained specimens and naturally colored live ones; also used to count microorganisms	
Dark-field		Bright specimen against dark background	Use a special filter in the condenser that prevents light from directly passing through a specimen; only light scattered by the specimen is visible	Observation of living, colorless, unstained organisms	
Phase-contrast	**	Specimen has light and dark areas	Use a special condenser that splits a polarized light beam into two beams, one of which passes through the specimen, and one of which bypasses the specimen; the beams are then rejoined before entering the oculars; contrast in the image results from the interactions of the two beams	Observation of internal structures of living microbes	
Differential interference contrast (Nomarski)	4	Image appears three-dimensional	Use two separate beams instead of a split beam; false color and a three-dimensional effect result from interactions of light beams and lenses; no staining required	Observation of internal structures of living microbes	
Fluorescent	H ₁	Brightly colored fluorescent structures against dark background	An ultraviolet light source causes fluorescent natural chemicals or dyes to emit visible light	Localization of specific chemicals or structures; used as an accurate and quick diagnostic tool for detection of pathogens	
Light Microscopes			11. 0.1 04. 00. 00. 00. 00. 00. 00. 00. 00. 00.	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	
Confocal		Single plane of structures or cells that have been specifically stained with fluorescent dyes	Use a laser to fluoresce only one plane of the specimen at a time	Detailed observation of structures of cells within communities	
Electron Microscopes		Typical magnification 1000× to 100,000×; resolution to 0.001 nm	Use electrons traveling as waves with short wavelengths; require specimens to be in a vacuum, so cannot be used to examine living microbes		
Transmission	0	Monotone, two-dimensional, highly magnified images; may be color-enhanced	Produce two-dimensional image of ultrastructure of cells	Observation of internal ultrastructural detail of cells and observation of viruses and small bacteria	
Scanning		Monotone, three-dimensional, surface images; may be color-enhanced	Produce three-dimensional view of the surface of microbes and cellular structures	Observation of the surface details of structures	
Probe Microscopes	-	Magnification greater than 100,000,000× with resolving power greater than that of electron microscopes	Use microscopic probes that move over the surface of a specimen		
Scanning tunneling	\$	Individual molecules and atoms visible	Measures the flow of electrical current between the tip of a probe and the specimen to produce an image of the surface at atomic level	Observation of the surface of objects; provide extremely fine detail, high magnification, and great resolution	
Atomic force		Individual molecules and atoms visible	Measure the deflection of a laser beam aimed at the tip of a probe that travels across the surface of the specimen	Observation of living specimens at the molecular and atomic levels	

2. Macromolecules



unfolded polypeptide

Peptide Bond

Amino Acid Structure

folded conformation in aqueous environment

core region

contains

nonpolar

side chains

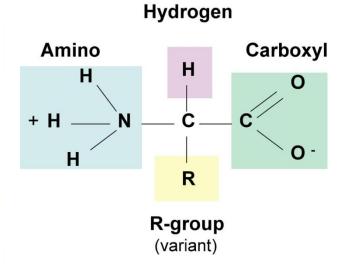
can be formed to

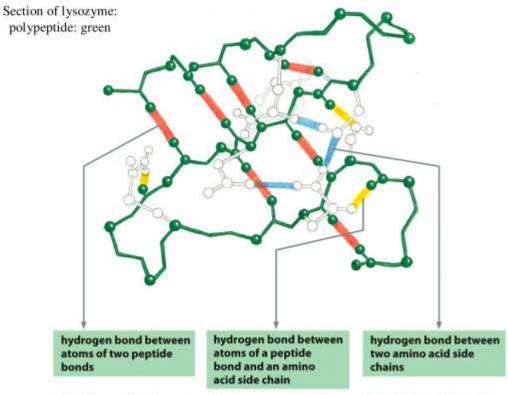
on the outside of

the molecule

the polar side chains

Amino acid Amino acid R H-N-C-C-OH - C - C - OH 0 ö H H H,O Polypeptide chain R C-OH H- N-0 0 H H

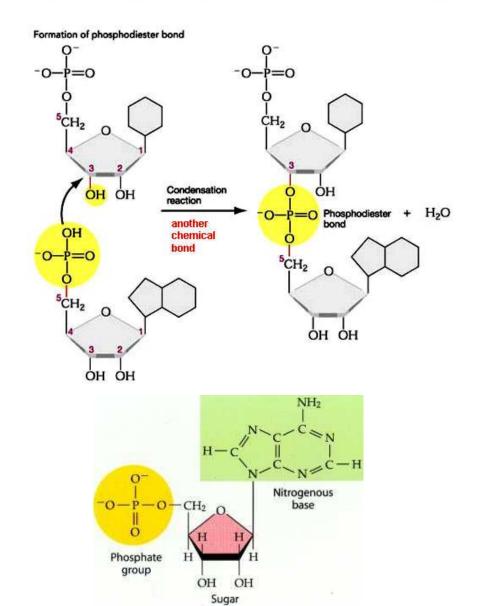


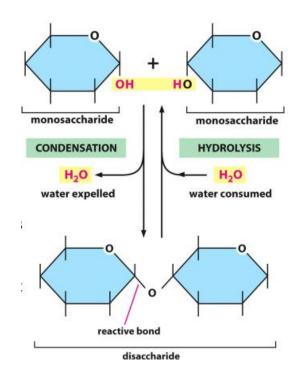


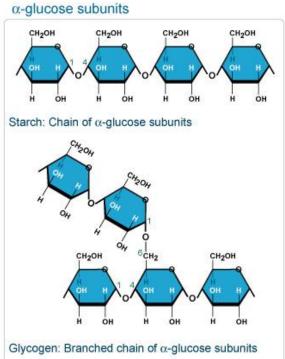
backbone to backbone

backbone to side chain

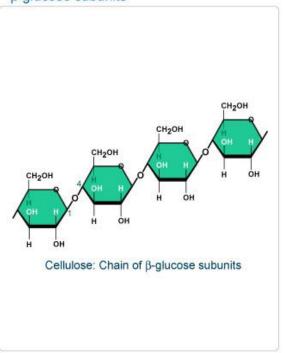
side chain to side chain





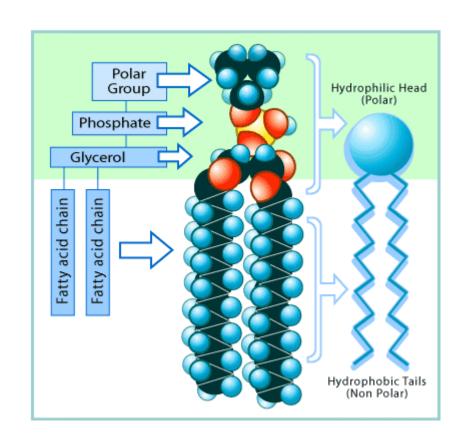


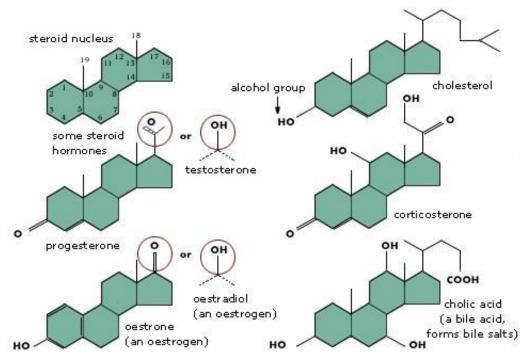
β-glucose subunits



glycerol

3 fatty acids

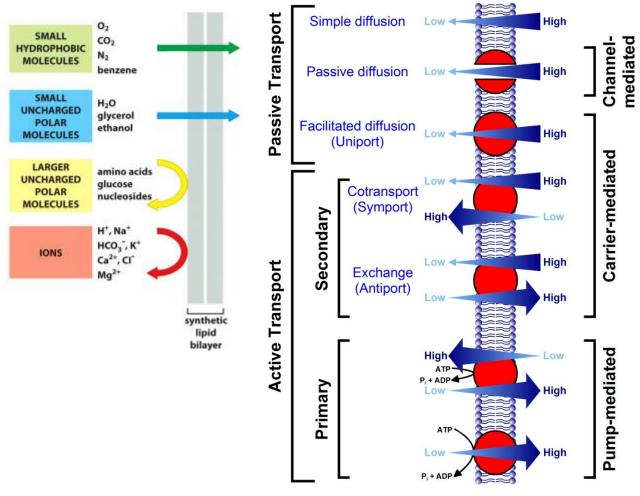




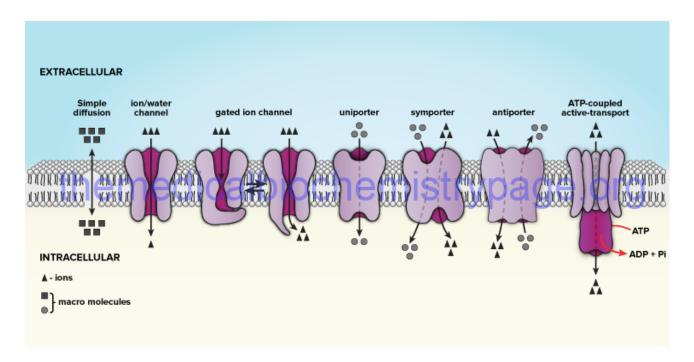
3. Cell Membrane

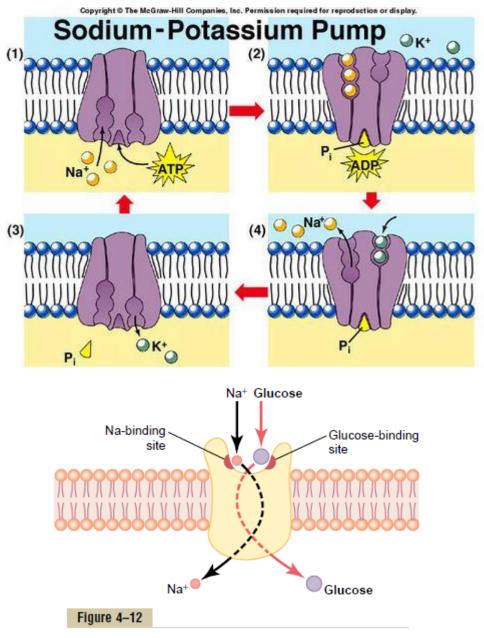
COMPONENT	INTRACELLULAR CONCENTRATION (mM)	ATION (mM) EXTRACELLULAR CONCENTRATION (m		
Cations				
Na ⁺	5-15	145		
K+	140	5		
Mg ²⁺	0.5	1-2		
Ca ²⁺	10-4	1-2		
H [,]	7 × 10 ⁻⁵ (10 ^{-7,2} M or pH 7.2)	4 × 10 ⁻⁵ (10 ^{-7,4} M or pH 7.4)		
Anions*				
CI-	5-15	110		

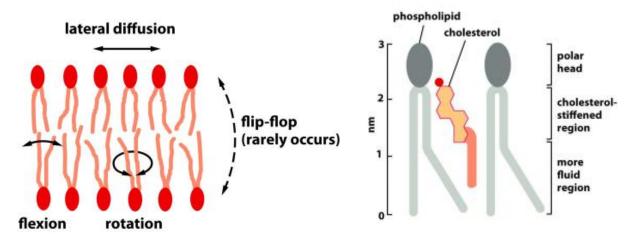
^{*}The cell must contain equal quantities of positive and negative charges (that is, be electrically neutral). Thus, in addition to Cl⁻, the cell contains many other anions not listed in this table; in fact, most cellular constituents are negatively charged (HCO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻, proteins, nucleic acids, metabolites carrying phosphate and carboxyl groups, etc.). The concentrations of Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ given are for the free ions. There is a total of about 20 mM Mg²⁺ and 1–2 mM Ca²⁺ in cells, but this is mostly bound to proteins and other substances and, for Ca²⁺, stored within various organelles.



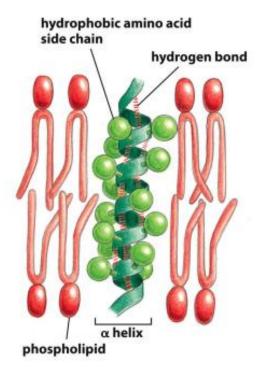
© PhysiologyWeb at www.physiologyweb.com

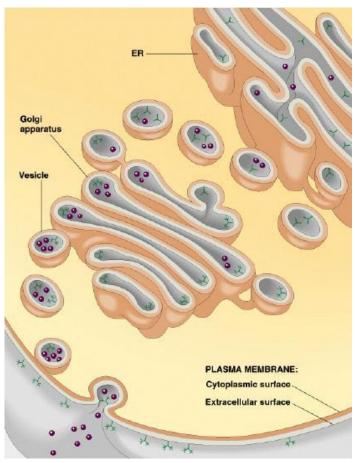






Sidedness of Membranes





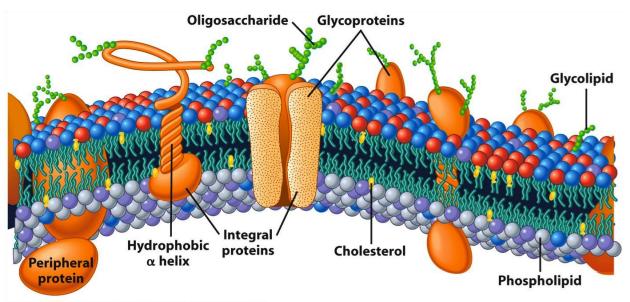
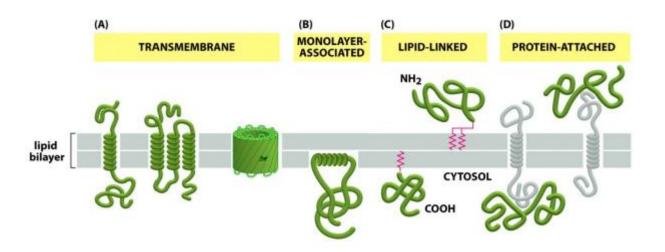
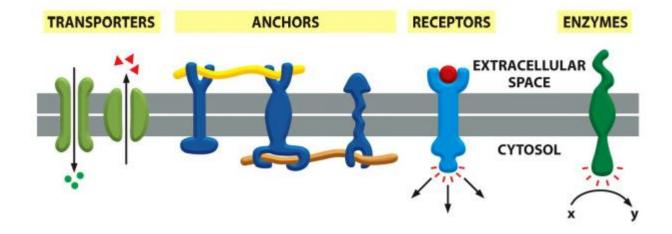
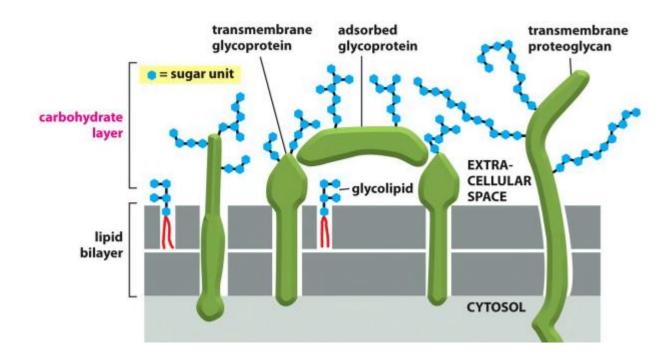
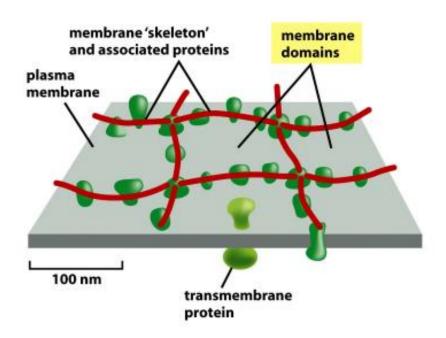


Figure 4-4c Cell and Molecular Biology, 5/e (© 2008 John Wiley & Sons)





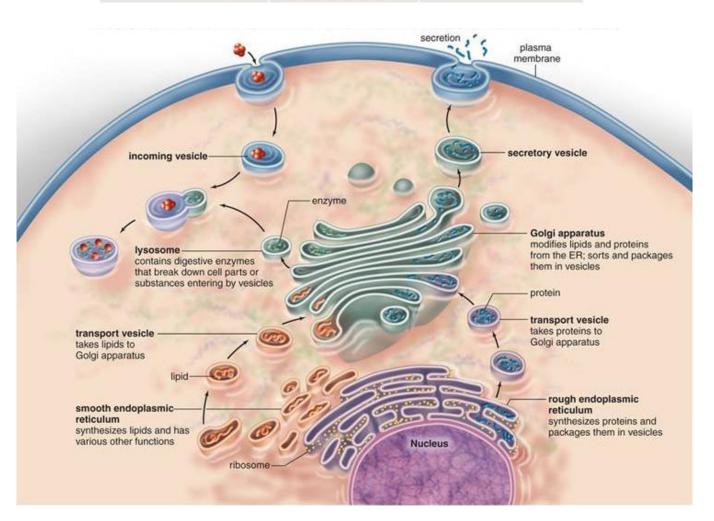


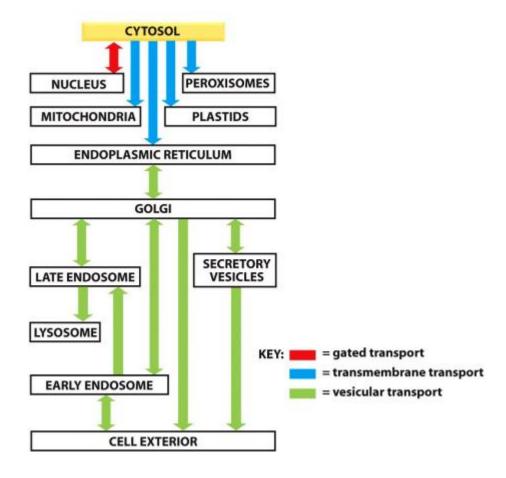


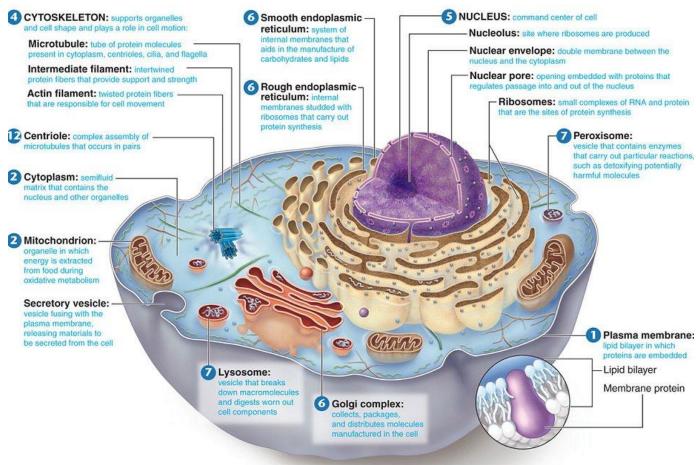
4. Cell Organelles

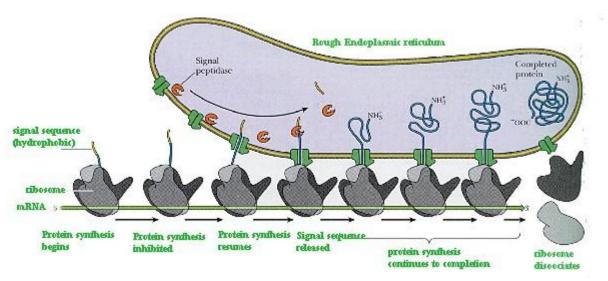
TABLE 15-2 THE RELATIVE VOLUMES OCCUPIED BY THE MAJOR MEMBRANE-ENCLOSED ORGANELLES IN A LIVER CELL (HEPATOCYTE)

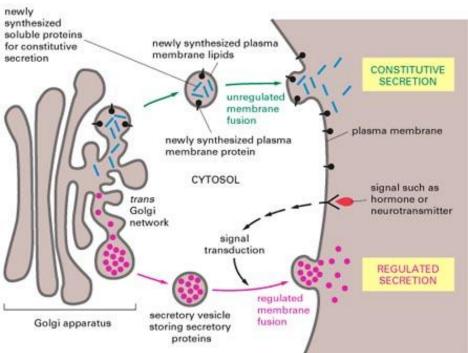
INTRACELLULAR COMPARTMENT	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL CELL VOLUME	APPROXIMATE NUMBER PER CELL
Cytosol	54	1
Mitochondria	22	1700
Endoplasmic reticulum	12	1
Nucleus	6	1
Golgi apparatus	3	1
Peroxisomes	1	400
Lysosomes	1	300
Endosomes	1	200

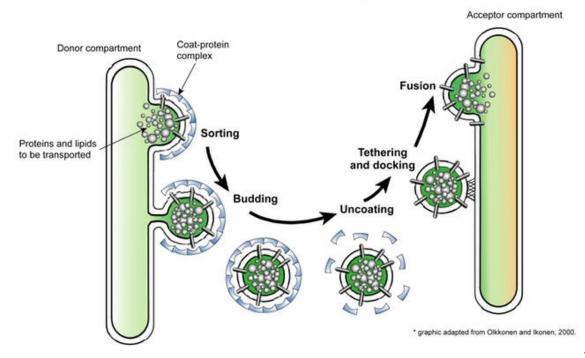


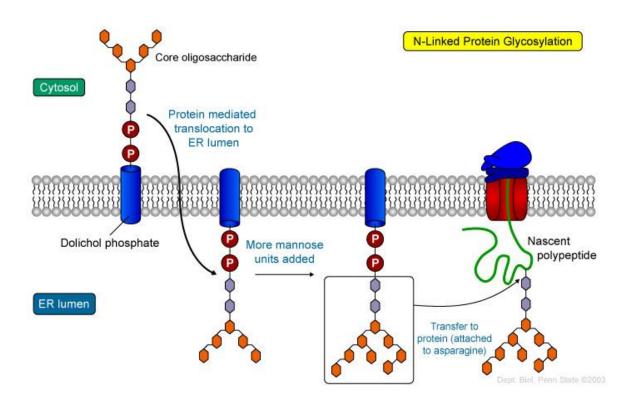


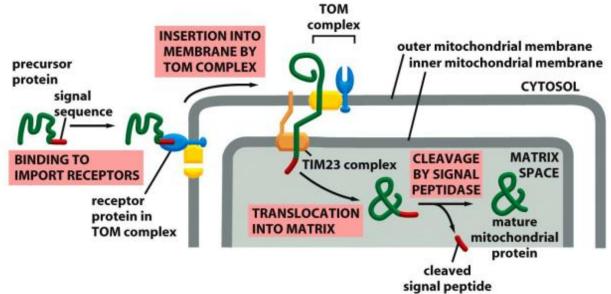




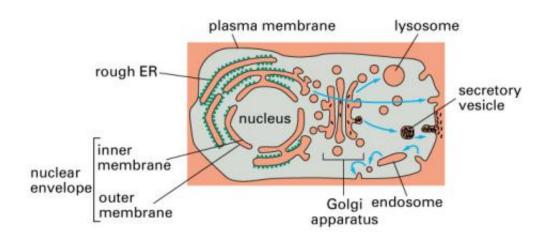


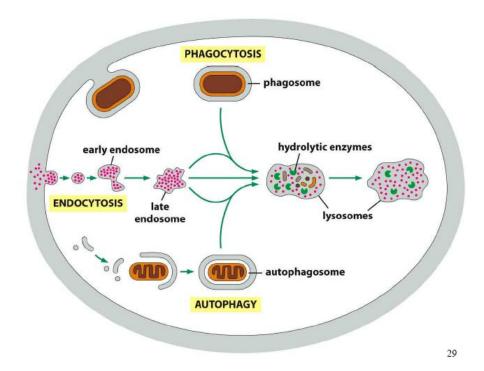


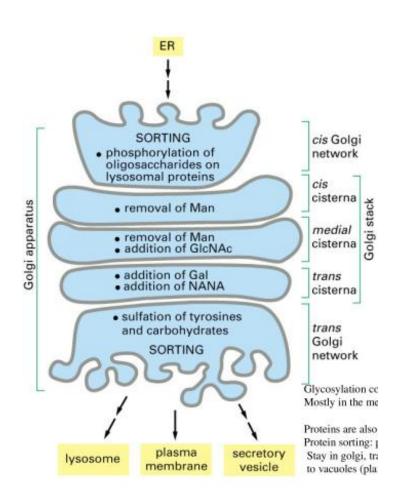


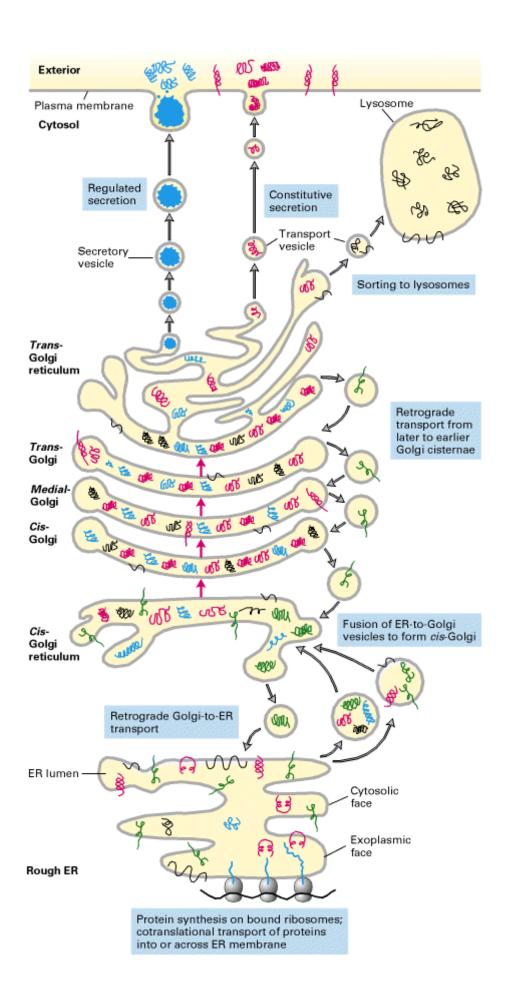


•Proteins Unfold to Enter Mitochondria and Chloroplasts

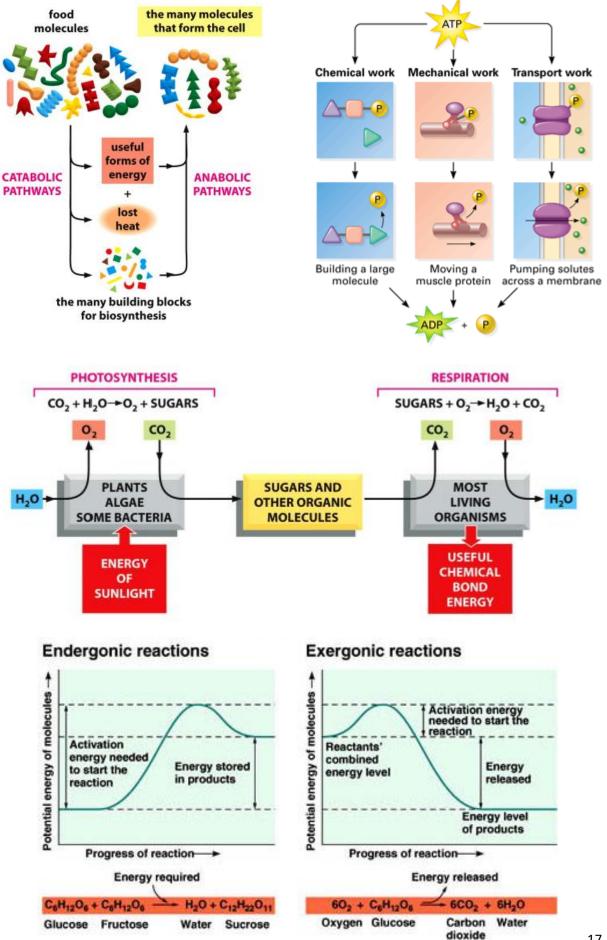








5. Bioenergetics



6. Enzymes

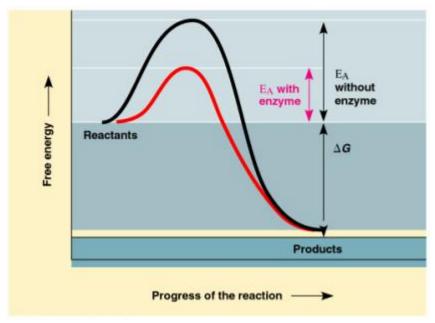
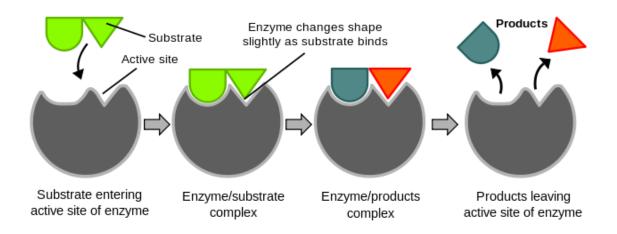


TABLE 4-1 SOME COMMO	N FUNCTIONAL CLASSES OF ENZYMES		
ENZYME CLASS	BIOCHEMICAL FUNCTION		
Hydrolase	General term for enzymes that catalyze a hydrolytic cleavage reaction.		
Nuclease	Breaks down nucleic acids by hydrolyzing bonds between nucleotides.		
Protease	Breaks down proteins by hydrolyzing peptide bonds between amino acids.		
Synthase	General name used for enzymes that synthesize molecules in anabolic reactions by condensing two molecules together.		
Isomerase	Catalyzes the rearrangement of bonds within a single molecule.		
Polymerase	Catalyzes polymerization reactions such as the synthesis of DNA and RNA.		
Kinase	Catalyzes the addition of phosphate groups to molecules. Protein kinases are an important group of kinases that attach phosphate groups to proteins.		
Phosphatase	Catalyzes the hydrolytic removal of a phosphate group from a molecule.		
Oxido-reductase	General name for enzymes that catalyze reactions in which one molecule is oxidized while the other is reduced. Enzymes of this type are often called oxidase reductases, or dehydrogenases.		
ATPase	Hydrolyzes ATP. Many proteins with a wide range of roles have an energy- harnessing ATPase activity as part of their function, including motor proteins such as myosin and membrane transport proteins such as the sodium–potassium pump		





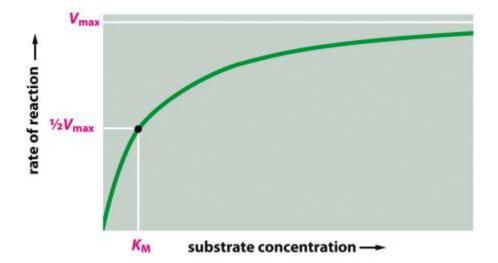
(A) enzyme binds to two substrate molecules and orients them precisely to encourage a reaction to occur between them

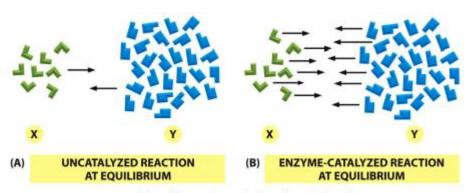


(B) binding of substrate to enzyme rearranges electrons in the substrate, creating partial negative and positive charges that favor a reaction



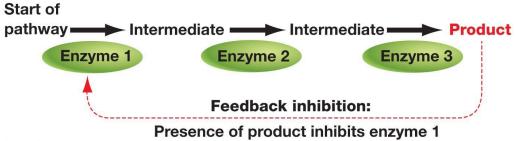
(C) enzyme strains the bound substrate molecule, forcing it toward a transition state to favor a reaction



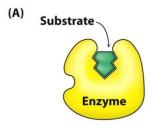


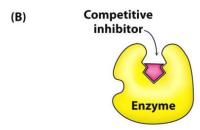
Reaction rate and direction (extent) are different

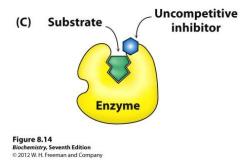
 Enzymes, biological catalysts, enhance reaction rates but have no effect on reaction

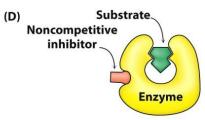


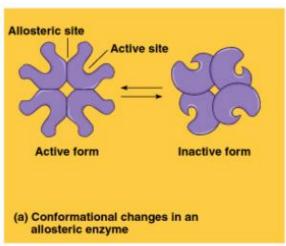
© 2011 Pearson Education,

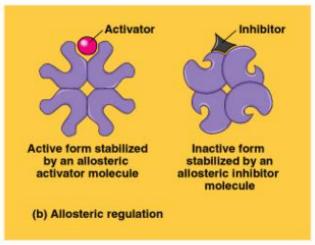


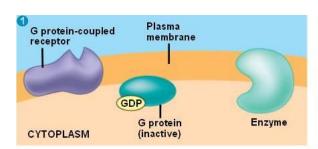


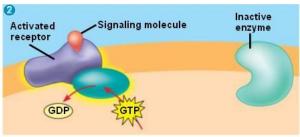


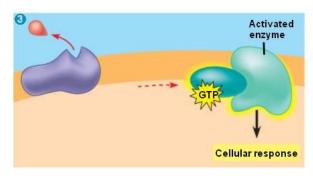


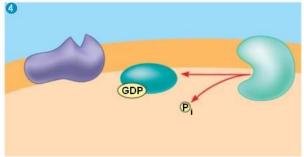




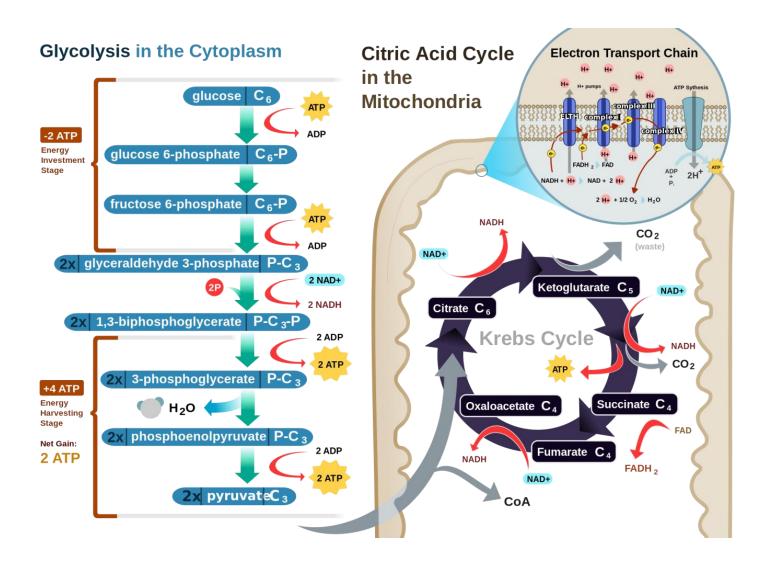


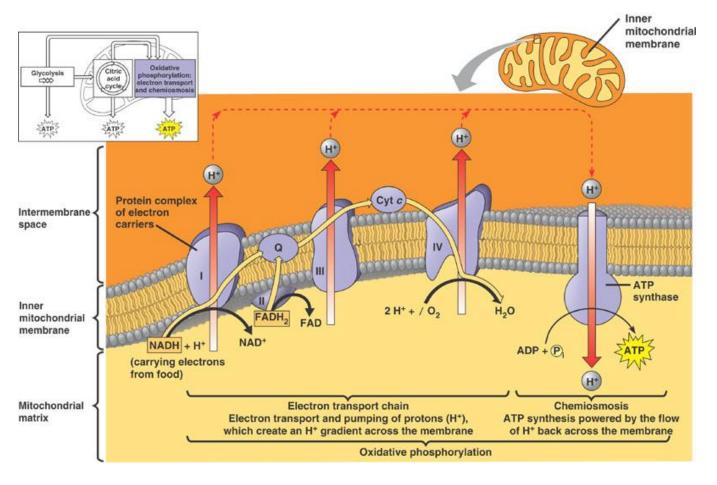


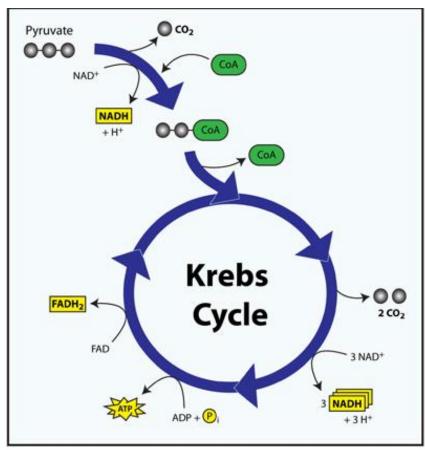


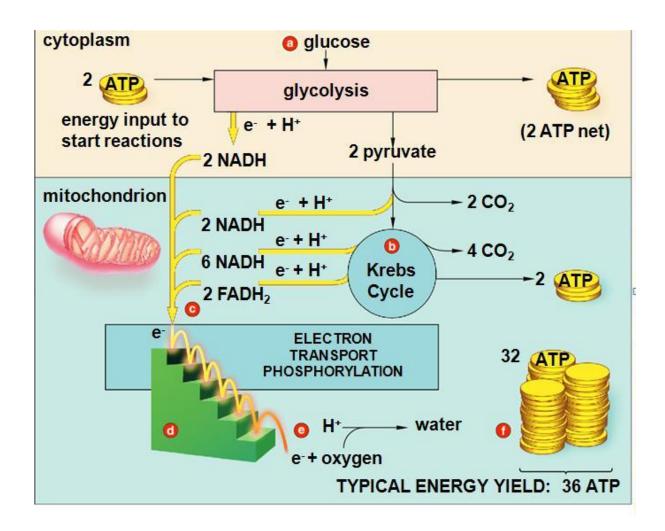


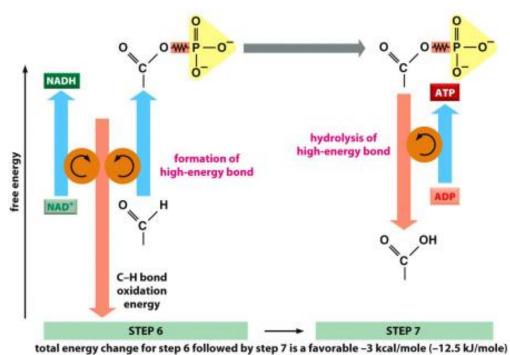
7. Cellular Respiration



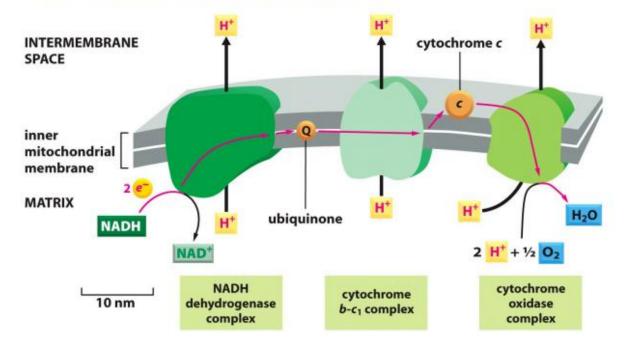




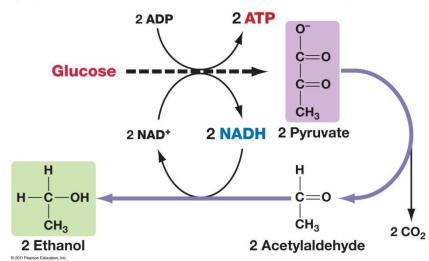




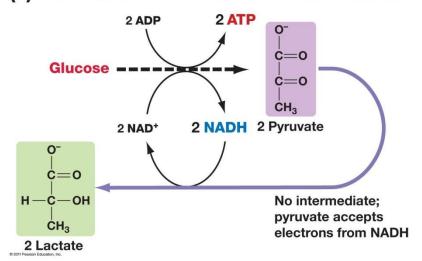
The Electron-Transport Chain Pumps Protons Across the Inner Mitochondrial Membrane



(b) Alcohol fermentation occurs in yeast.

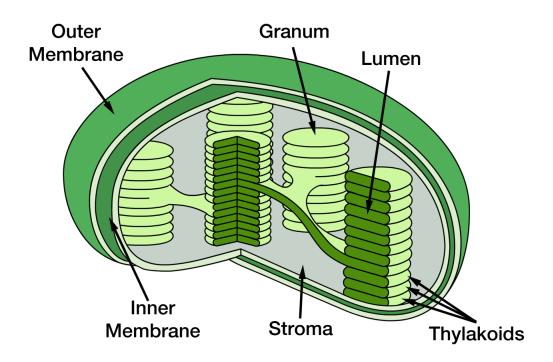


(a) Lactic acid fermentation occurs in humans.

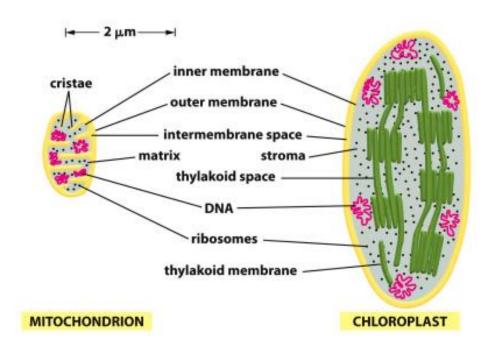


8. Photosynthesis

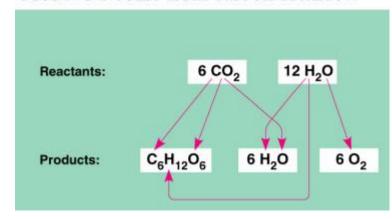
Chloroplast

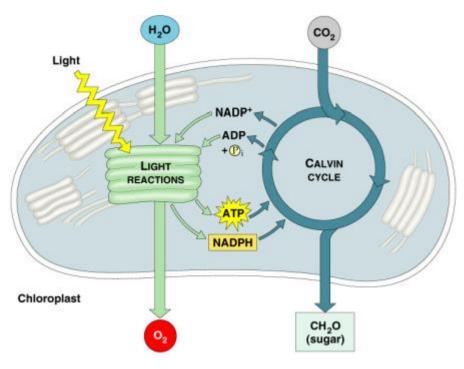


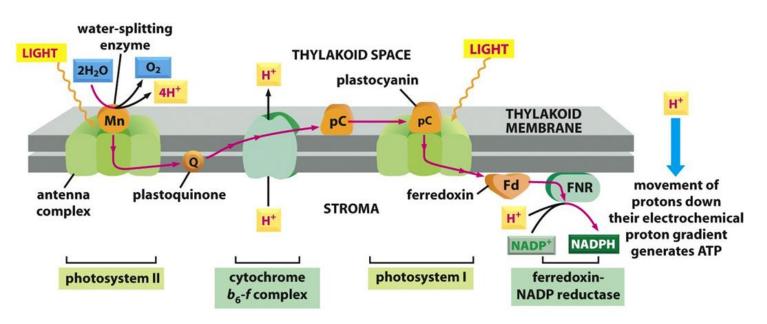
Structural similarities/differences

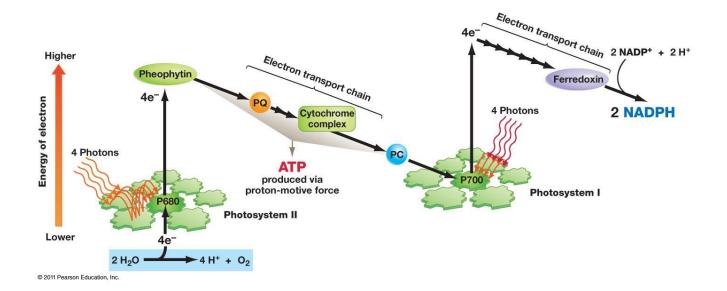


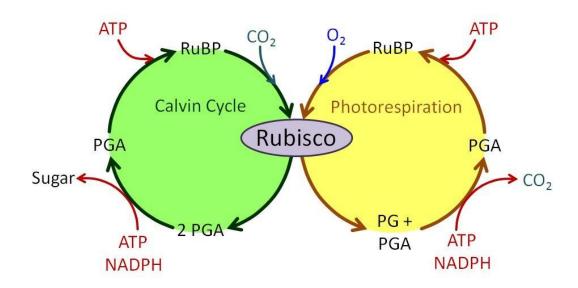
Key thing to note is that the evolved O₂ does NOT come from carbon dioxide!!

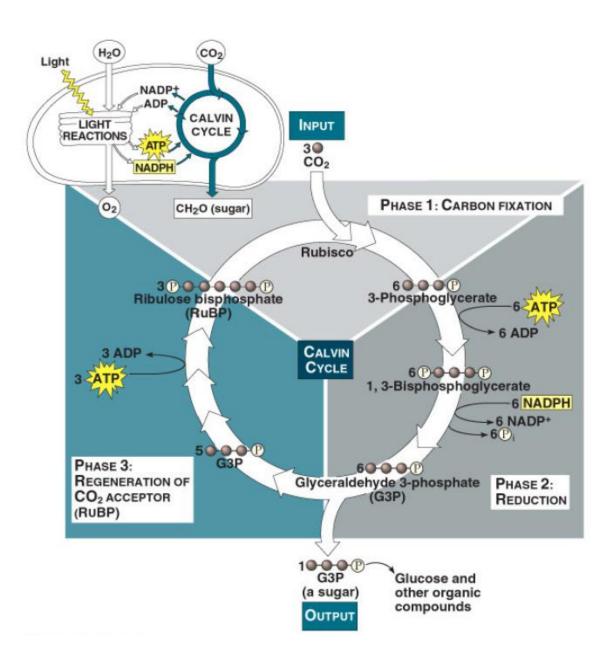




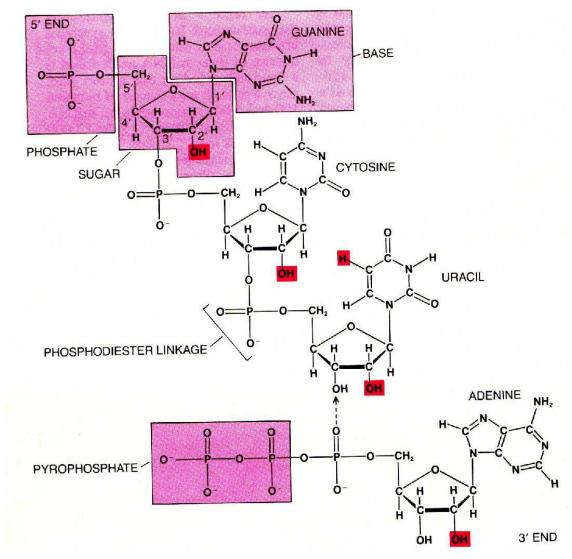


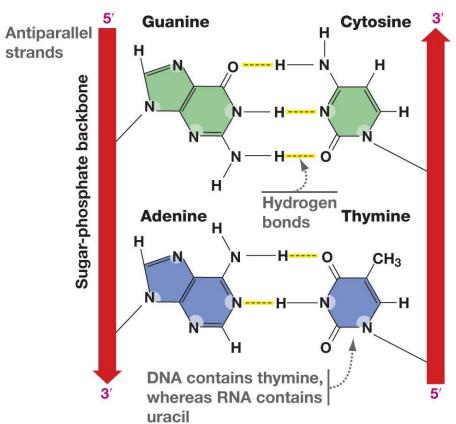


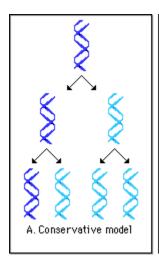


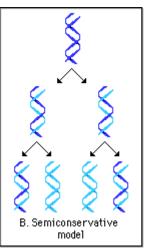


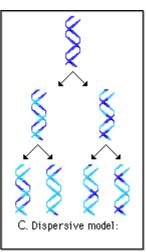
9. DNA Replication and Protein Synthesis

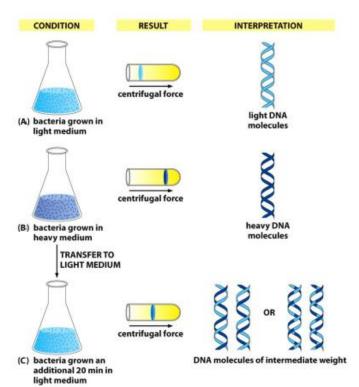


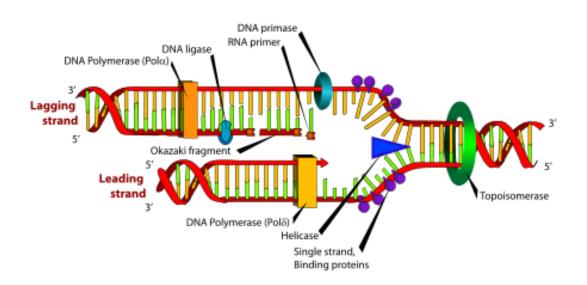


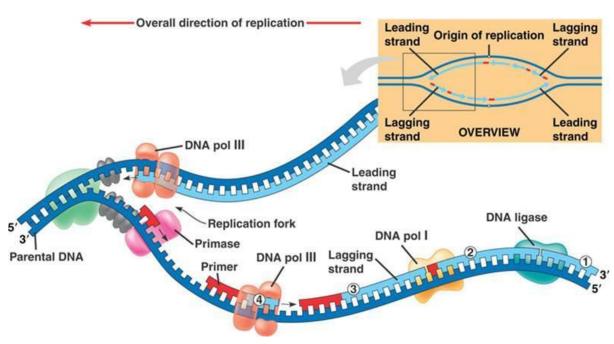


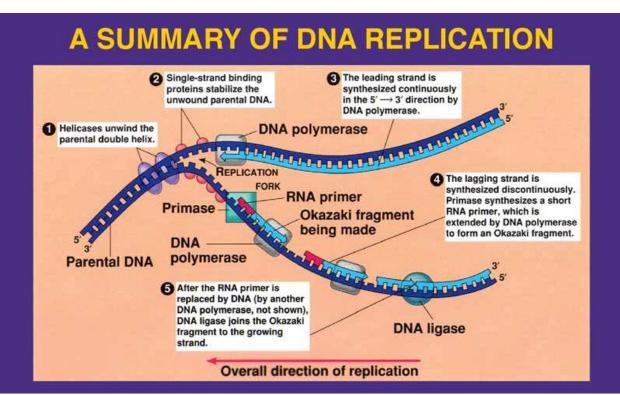






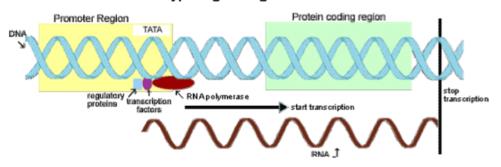


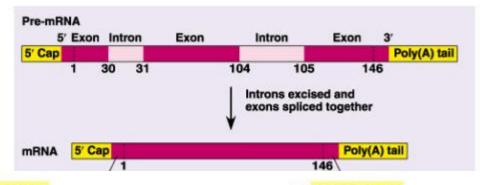




The Roles of Different Kinds of RNA			
RNA Type	Size	Function	
Transfer RNA	Small	Transports amino acids to site of protein synthesis	
Ribosomal RNA	Several kinds— variable in size	Combines with proteins to form ribosomes, the site of protein synthesis	
Messenger RNA	Variable	Directs amino acid sequence of proteins	
Small nuclear RNA	Small	Processes initial mRNA to its mature form in eukaryotes	
Small interfering RNA	Small	Affects gene expression; used by scientists to knock out a gene being studied	
Micro RNA	Small	Affects gene expression; important in growth and development	

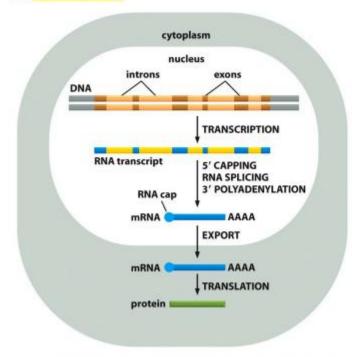
Typical gene organization

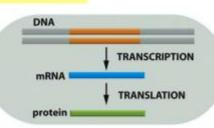


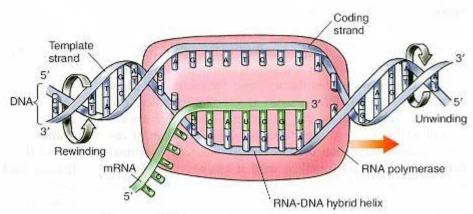


(A) EUCARYOTES

(B) PROCARYOTES

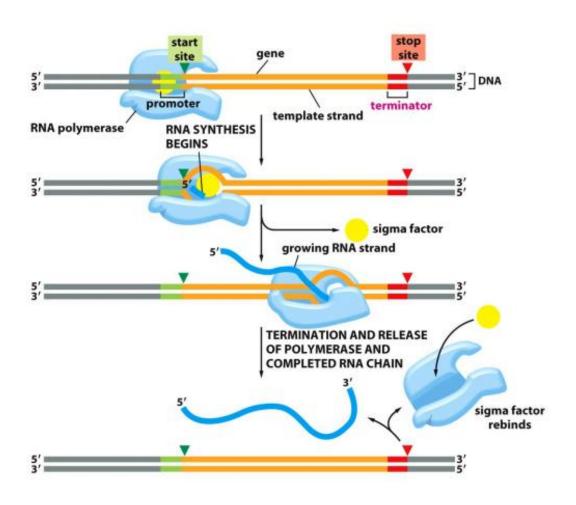


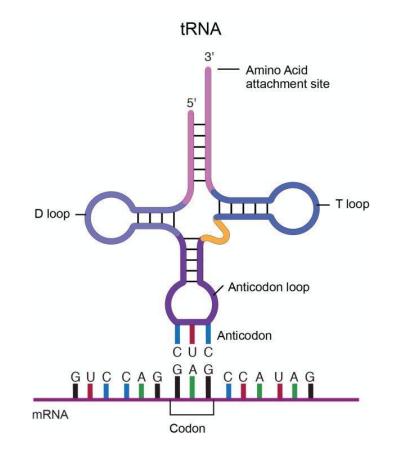


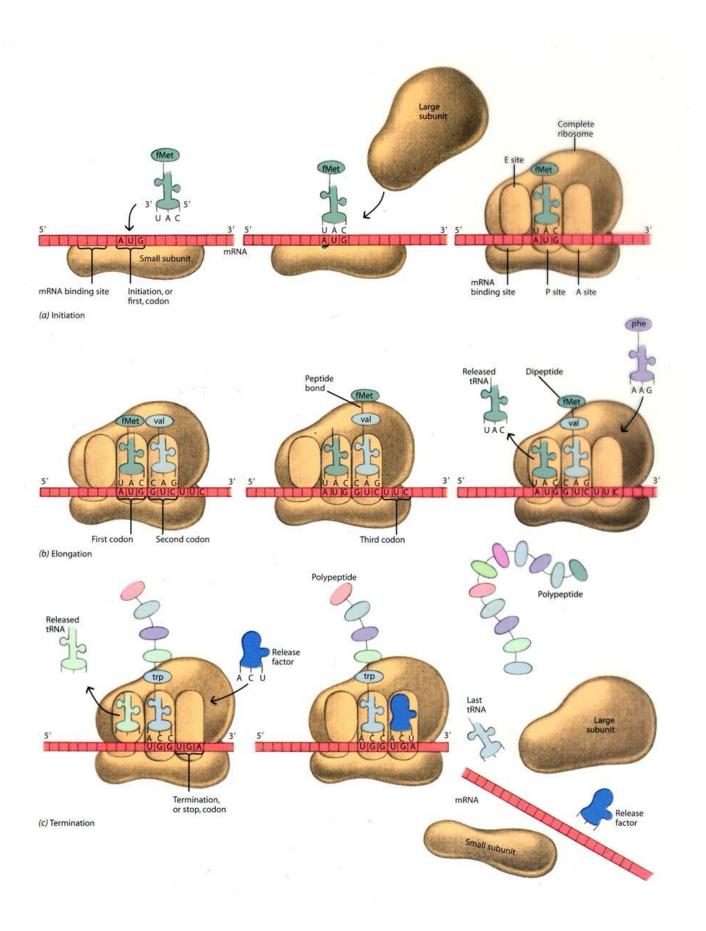


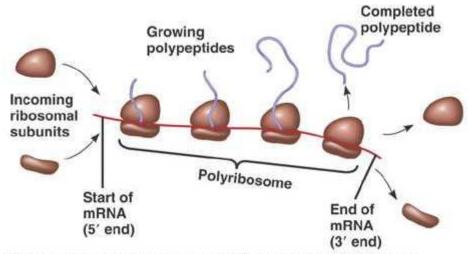
Transcription

One of the strands of DNA functions as a template on which nucleotide building blocks are assembled into mRNA by RNA polymerase as it moves down the DNA strand.

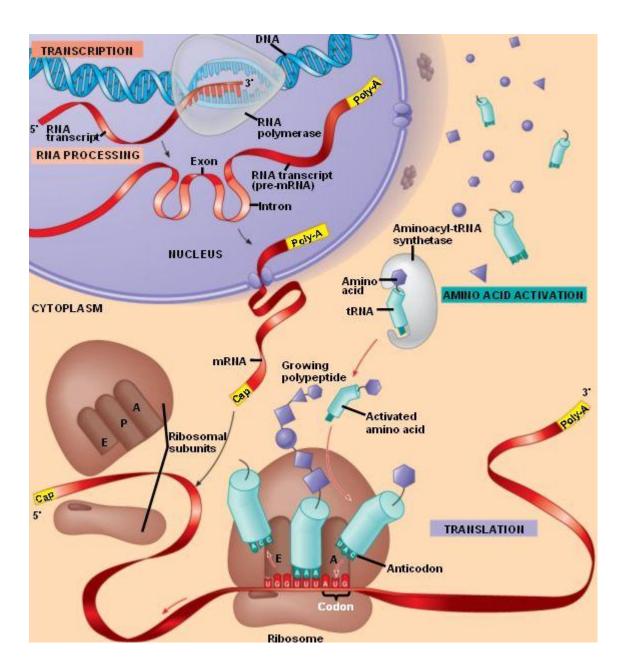




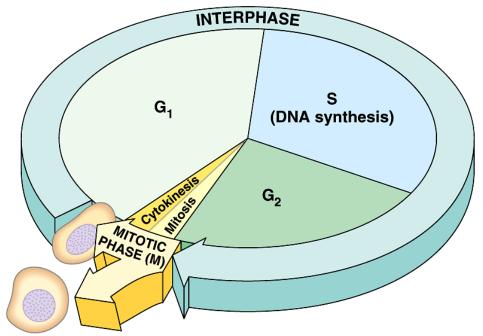




(a) An mRNA molecule is generally translated simultaneously by several ribosomes in clusters called polyribosomes.



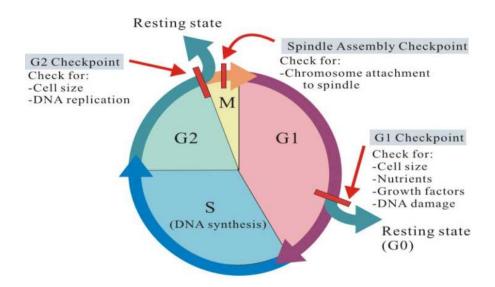
10. Cell Division

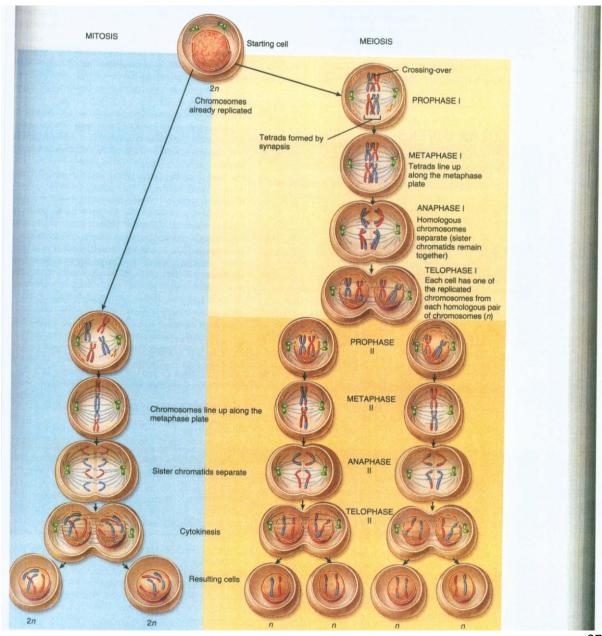


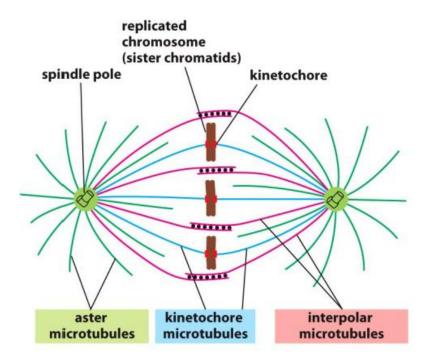
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Prophase	Prometaphase	Metaphase	Anaphase	Telophase	Cytokinesis
		X			
Chromosomes condense and become visible Spindle fibers emerge from the centrosomes Nuclear envelope breaks down Centrosomes move toward opposite poles	Chromosomes continue to condense Kinetochores appear at the centromeres Mitotic spindle microtubules attach to kinetochores	Chromosomes are lined up at the metaphase plate Each sister chromatid is attached to a spindle fiber originating from opposite poles	Centromeres split in two Sister chromatids (now called chromosomes) are pulled toward opposite poles Certain spindle fibers begin to elongate the cell	Chromosomes arrive at opposite poles and begin to decondense Nuclear envelope material surrounds each set of chromosomes The mitotic spindle breaks down	Animal cells: a cleavage furrow separates the daughter cells Plant cells: a cell plate, the precursor to a new cell wall, separates the daughter cells
5 μm	5 µm	5 µm	5 µm	• Spindle fibers continue to push poles apart	<u>-</u> μm

MITOSIS







Animal cell

