

III. Cell Structure

Cells have particular structures or organelles that perform specific jobs. These structures perform the life activities within the cell

Cell organelles carry out:

- transport of materials,
- energy capture and release,
- protein building,
- waste disposal
- information storage.

Each cell is covered by a membrane that performs a number of important functions for the cell as well.

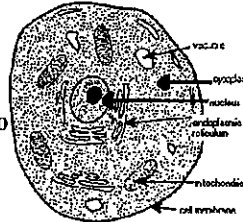
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THE CELL THEORY

- The cell is the unit of structure in all living things.
- The cell is the unit of function in all living things.
- All cells come from preexisting cells.

A Few Exceptions:

- 1) Viruses lack typical cellular structure.
- 2) There also is some question as to how the first cell arose

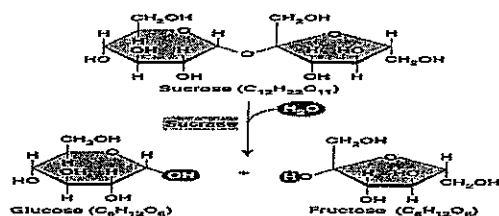


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Some Cell Organelles	
Cell Organelle	Function
nucleus	control center of the cell contains DNA which directs the synthesis of proteins by the cell
mitochondrion	carries on the process of cell respiration converting glucose to ATP energy the cell can use
endoplasmic reticulum	transport channels within the cell
ribosome	found on the endoplasmic reticulum and free within the cell responsible for the synthesis of proteins for the cell
cell membrane	selectively regulates the materials moving to and from the cell
food vacuole	stores and digests food
contractile vacuole	pumps out wastes and excess water from the cell
chloroplast	found in plant cells and algae carries on the process of photosynthesis
cell wall	surrounds and supports plant cells

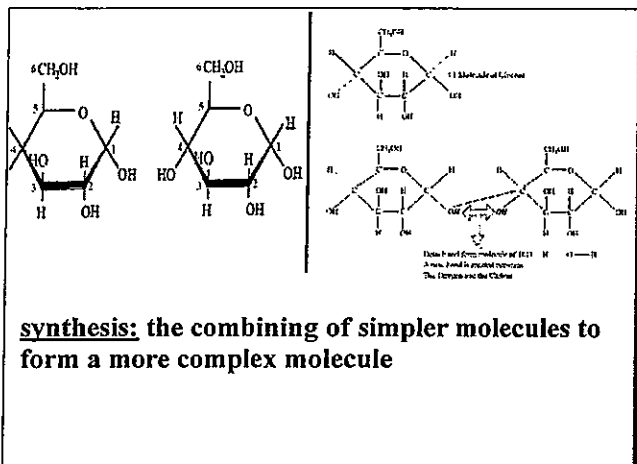
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Types of Reactions



hydrolysis: reaction in which large molecules are broken down into smaller molecules. Chemical digestion is an example of a hydrolysis reaction

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synthesis: the combining of simpler molecules to form a more complex molecule

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Biochemical processes, both hydrolysis and synthesis, are made possible by enzymes. Enzymes and other molecules, such as hormones and antibodies, have specific shapes that influence both how they function and how they interact with other molecules.

Enzyme Structure and Function

catalyst: inorganic or organic substance which speeds up the rate of a chemical reaction without entering the reaction itself.

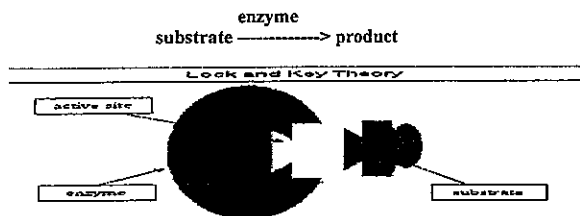
enzymes: organic catalysts made of protein.

- * most enzyme names end in -ase
- * enzymes lower the energy needed to start a chemical reaction. (activation energy), thus speeding the reaction

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How do enzymes work?

substrate: molecules upon which an enzyme acts. The enzyme is shaped so that it can only lock up with a specific substrate molecule .



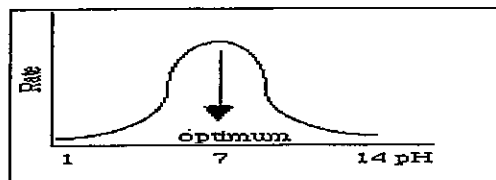
Each enzyme is specific for one and ONLY one substrate (one lock - one key)
 active site: part of the enzyme that fits with the substrate
 Note that the active site has a specific fit for this particular substrate and no other.
 This theory has some weaknesses, but it explains many basic things about enzyme function.

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Factors Influencing Enzyme Activity

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1. pH: the optimum (best) in most living things is close to 7 (neutral). High or low pH levels usually slow enzyme activity



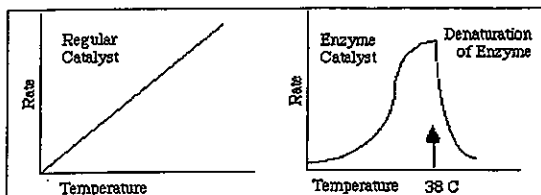
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2. Temperature: strongly influences enzyme activity

* optimum (best) temperature for maximum enzyme function is usually about 35-40 C.

* reactions proceed slowly below optimal temperatures

* above 45 C. most enzymes are denatured (change in their shape so the enzyme active site no longer fits with the substrate and the enzyme can't function)



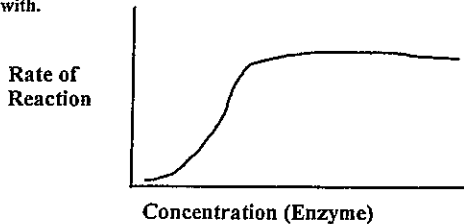
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3. Concentrations of Enzyme and Substrate

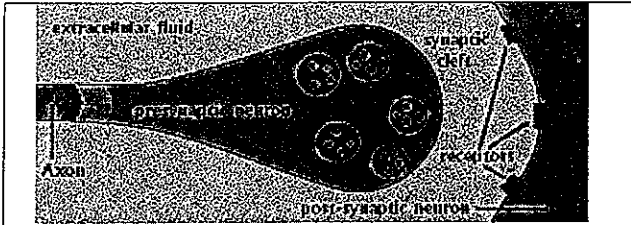
When there is a fixed amount of enzyme and an excess of substrate molecules the rate of reaction will increase to a point and then level off.

This leveling off occurs because all of the enzyme is used up and the excess substrate has nothing to combine with.

If more enzyme is available than substrate, a similar reaction rate increase and leveling off will occur. The excess enzyme will eventually run out of substrate molecules to react with.



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Neurotransmitters:

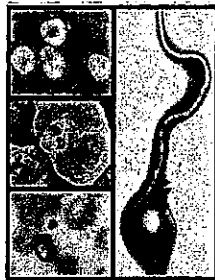
Chemicals used by a neuron to transmit a nerve impulse across a synapse from one neuron to the next neuron.

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Disease

Some Causes of Disease

Living organisms which cause disease are known as pathogens.
viruses, bacteria, fungi are examples.



An antigen is any foreign substance which invades the body of an organism, while a pathogen is a living antigen (such as viruses or bacteria) which invade an organism.

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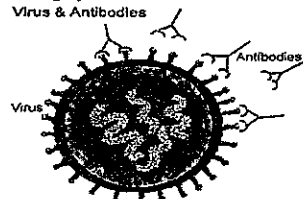
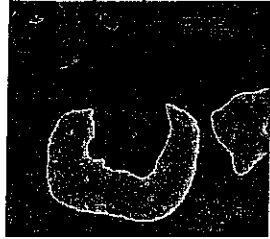
Immunity describes the ability of an organism to resist foreign organisms or invaders which enter its body.

The immune system is designed to protect against microscopic organisms (bacteria, viruses) and foreign substances which enter an organism from outside its body.

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Many different kinds of **white blood cells** exist which are able to help the body fight foreign invaders in various ways. These various ways include:

- **engulfing (eating)** invaders (phagocytes are white blood cells doing this)
- **producing antibodies** (chemicals which destroy or neutralize antigens) (lymphocytes are the kind of white blood cells which produce antibodies)
- **marking antigens** for attack and killing by other white blood cells



Antibodies surround the virus and bind to it. This prevents the virus from reproducing or being transported throughout the body.

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Immune System Memory and Vaccinations

When organisms are exposed to disease, they make **specific antibodies** which **destroy that antigen** during their first exposure to it.

Our immune system has a Memory

This means that if we ever are exposed to that same particular disease antigen again, our immune system has a **memory** and will make antibodies so rapidly in response to another exposure that we will not get the disease

Vaccinations use dead or weakened microbes or parts of them to stimulate the primary immune response or first production of antibodies. Using dead or weakened microbes has the advantage of not making the organism sick as they would become if they caught and recovered from a disease.

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Allergies and Auto-immune Diseases

Allergies: the body's immune system produces chemicals in response to normally harmless substances

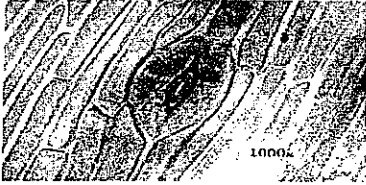
Auto-immune diseases: the body's immune system for usually unknown reasons may attack and destroy some its own cells. Some kinds of arthritis and degenerative diseases result from auto-immune

AIDS: a viral disease which destroys the ability of the immune system to produce antibodies, so the afflicted individual is unable to cope with infections and cancer cells which arise within the body.

Cancer: a group of diseases resulting from gene mutations which cause cells to divide uncontrollably. Exposure of cells to certain chemicals and radiation appears to increase the chance of mutations and thus cancer.

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Homeostasis by Plants Maintenance of Water






The ability of the guard cell to close during periods of limited water availability for the plant allows the plant to maintain water homeostasis

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Reproduction

Asexual reproduction is a method of reproduction with all the genetic information coming from one parent.

Some Methods of Asexual Reproduction

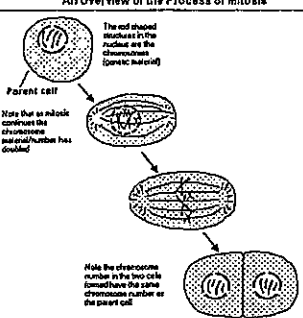
<p>1. Binary fission -- involves an equal division of both the vegetative cytoplasm and nucleus to form two identical organisms</p> <p>-- the diagram of the protist at the right is an example of this</p>	
<p>2. vegetative -- involves one parent dividing its nucleus (genetic material) equally, but cytoplasm unequally</p> <p>-- the diagram of a yeast at the right is an example of this</p>	
<p>3. spores -- involves specialized cells forming from one parent</p> <p>-- the diagram of mold spores being formed at the right is an example of this</p>	

Cloning is the production of identical genetic copies.

Mitosis is associated with asexual reproduction, as well as growth and repair in sexually reproducing organisms.

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An Overview of the Process of Mitosis



The rod shaped structures in the nucleus are the chromosomes (genetic material)

Parent cell

Note that as mitosis continues the chromosome material number has doubled

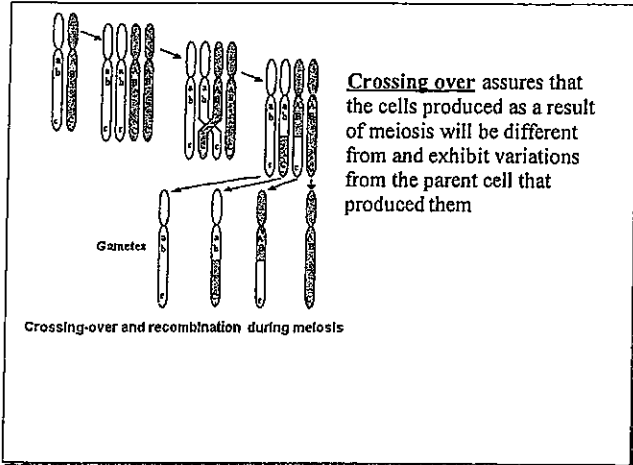
Note the chromosome number in the two cells (each) have the same chromosome number as the parent cell

Mitosis

Key Results of Mitosis

1. The same chromosome number is retained from generation to generation.
2. Each daughter cell receives an exact copy of the chromosomes of the parent cell. (clones)

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Comparative Reproduction and Development

External fertilization: Organisms like fish tend to lay their eggs in great numbers (thousands) in the water

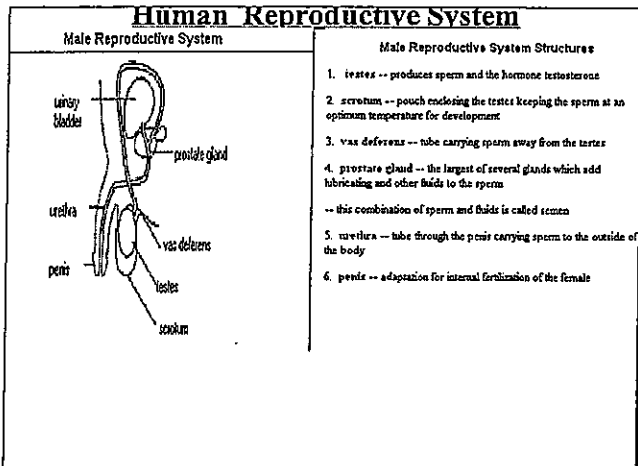
Internal fertilization: the male of the species deposits his sperm inside the female

External development: The young organisms then develop outside the mother in the water

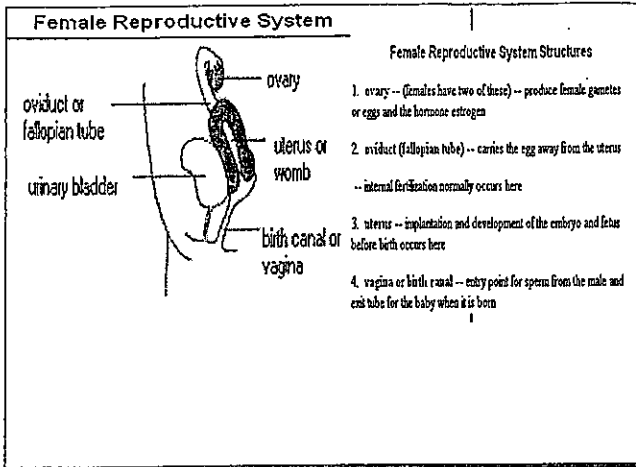
Internal development: development occurs within the female organism.

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Human Reproductive System



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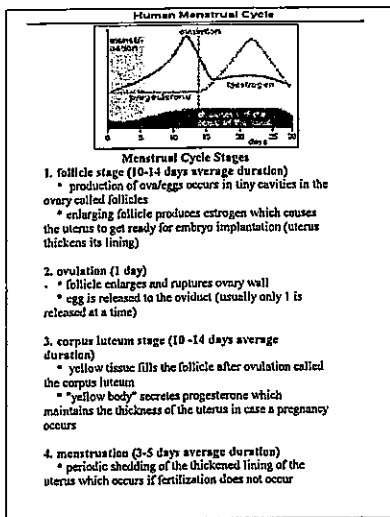
Endocrine Interactions

testosterone - produced by the testes in the male and stimulates the development of male secondary sex characteristics (like facial hair and deeper voice).

estrogen -- produced by ovaries in the female and stimulates the development of female secondary sex characteristics (wider hips and mammary glands) as well as starting the thickening of the uterus lining in preparation for a possible pregnancy after the egg is released by the female each month.

progesterone - produced by yellow tissue called corpus luteum in the empty ovarian follicle (place in ovary producing and releasing the egg) -- this hormone maintains the thickness of the uterus lining in case fertilization occurs and development of a fetus occurs.

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