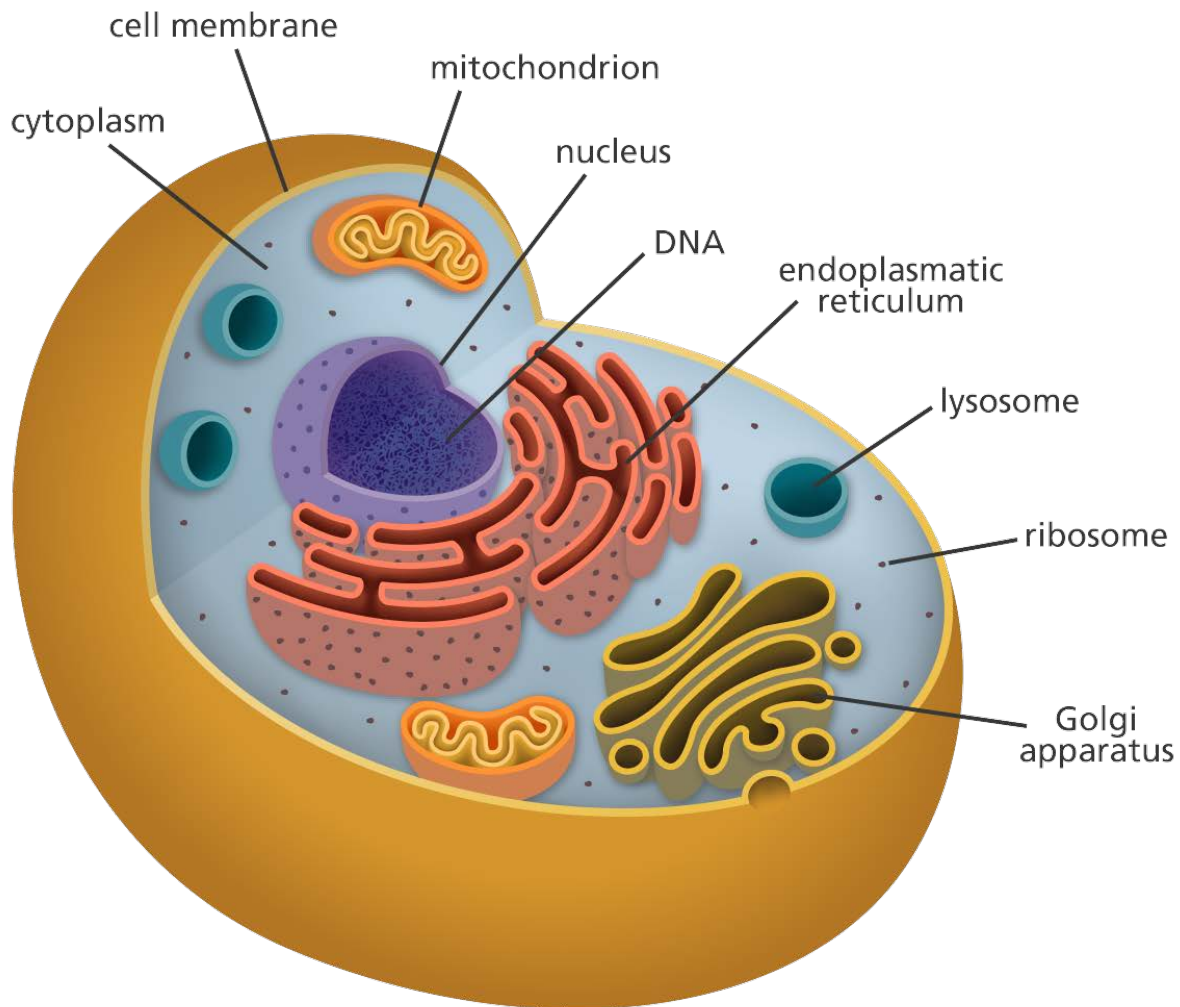


Unit 1 Cell Structure



<https://www.yourgenome.org/facts/what-is-a-cell>

Most knowledge about biological science has been acquired by carefully observing naturally occurring phenomena in living systems. These observations are compared with the data obtained from other relevant information. This process, well known as the scientific method, helps us explain phenomena.

The scientific method involves a series of steps that are always followed in the same order:

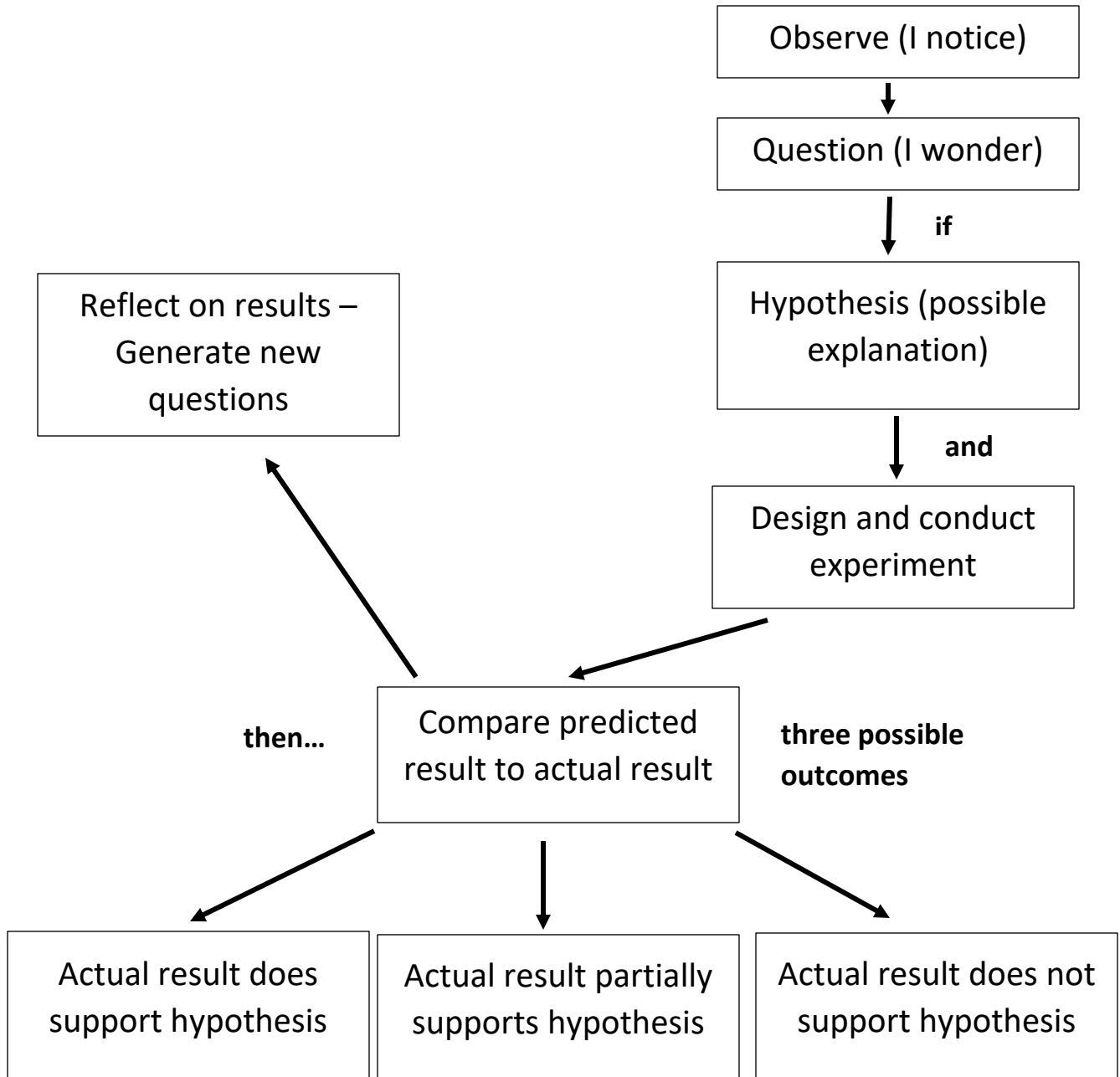
1. Answerable questions are created.
2. Predictions or hypotheses are made that are testable by experiment.
3. Experimental results are interpreted.
4. A conclusion or conclusion are made from interpretations, and new questions and predictions are often created.

In this lesson we will learn how to test a hypothesis by correctly conducting a systemic experiment.

Experimental Design

Once an answerable question has been created, data or evidence must be collected. Scientists gather data by observation or experimentation. For the collected data to be considered valid, the observations must be repeatable when the experiment is performed under the same conditions. AT some point in this process, a hypothesis (a tentative explanation or educated guess about a problem) can be made based on available evidence.

The following graph outlines the typical steps in the scientific method. Refer back to it as you continue reading through this lesson.



Hypothesis must explain the scientist's observations, they must be testable, and they should help to predict future findings. Hypotheses often are composed of if-and-then statements for which only one variable is changed at a time. The variable that is deliberately changed is called the independent variable or manipulated variable. The observed variable that changed in response to the independent variable is called the dependent variable or responding variable.

For example, a simple hypothesis could be if a plant is left in a room with no light, then the plant will die.

A hypothesis:

1. Must explain the observations
2. Must be testable
3. Should predict future findings

Observations or experiments must be done to test a hypothesis. If an experiment does not support the hypothesis, the hypothesis is rejected and a new hypothesis is proposed or accepted. However, experimental data cannot prove that a hypothesis is correct, only that it is supported in that particular case.

When conducting a systematic experiment, it is important that it be a controlled experiment. This means that all variable except the one being tested must remain constant. The group that remains constant is called the control group. An additional experiment is done in which the variable factor is introduced. This group is called the experimental group. Since all factors but one are constant, that scientist can determine if the one variable is responsible for the results.

For example, to look at the effects of placing a plant in an area with non-light, the scientist would conduct an experiment with several plants of the same type. Each plant would be given the same amount of water and nutrients. The plant(s) in the control group would be placed in normal light conditions. The plants in the experimental group would be placed where in an area with no light. This method ensures that the amount light received by the plants is the only variable between the two groups.

The more often a hypothesis is tested and supported by the data, the more scientists trust its validity. When a hypothesis is tested several times and the data seems to support it, the hypothesis becomes a theory. A theory implies that the scientific community has confidence in the interpretation of a particular phenomenon. Using the example of the plants, a theory would be that plants require light to live.

VIDEO: The Scientific Method: Steps, Examples, Tips and Exercise

LINK: <https://youtu.be/yi0hwFDQTSQ>

Cell Structure and Function

Did you know that at one time you were a single cell called a zygote – a fertilized egg? After fertilization, that began to multiply, through the process of mitosis, to produce your body that is now made up of an estimated 70 trillion cells?

Cell theory states that:

- All organisms are composed of one or more cells
- Cells are the basic units of structure and function in living organisms
- All cells come from previously existing cells

Cells perform the basic functions that keep us alive. They acquire nutrients, dispose of metabolic wastes, and respire (produce ATP energy) synthesize molecules used by the cell, and grow. Many cells undergo cell division.

Cell Organelles

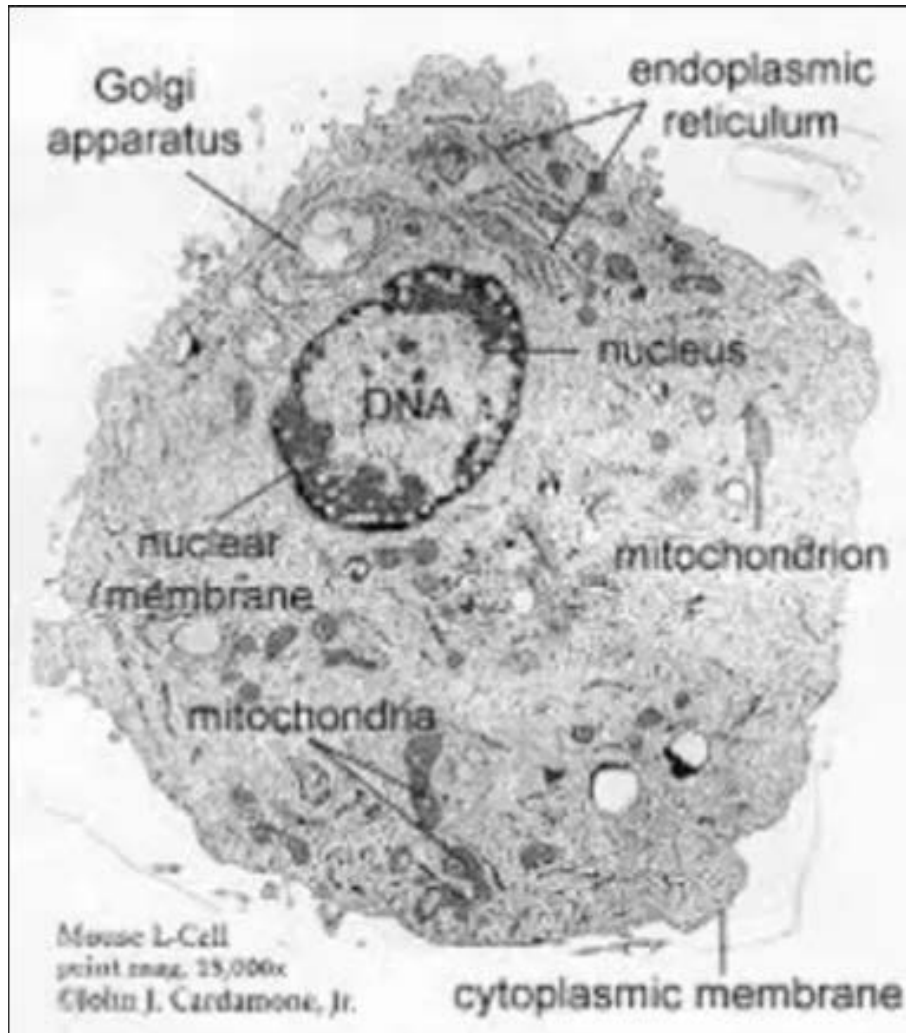
Biologists divide cells into two main categories. These categories include eukaryotes (cells that have a nucleus) and prokaryotes (cells that do not contain a nucleus). Eukaryotic cells are the structural units of animals.

Humans have an estimated 200 different types of cells. For example:

- Epithelial cells (skin cells)
- Hepatocytes (liver cells)
- Neurons (brain cells)
- Osteocytes (bone cells)
- Erythrocytes and lymphocytes (blood cells)

Cells consist mainly of cytoplasm (fluid) surrounded by a membrane made of phospholipids and proteins. Inside the cell are a number of organelles – subcellular structures surrounded by membranes – that work together to keep the cell functioning.

The image below is an electron micrograph of an animal cell. Electron micrographs are produced by electron microscopes. The magnification of images taken with electron microscopes is about 50X greater than with a light microscope. A light microscope can help us view living tissues and even large cells, but the electron microscope allows us to look at cell structures and even smaller things, such as molecules. So, we can use a light microscope to look at a cell, or an electron microscope that will let us look at a protein molecule produced by the cell.



<https://www.quora.com/What-does-an-animal-cell-look-like-under-an-electron-microscope>

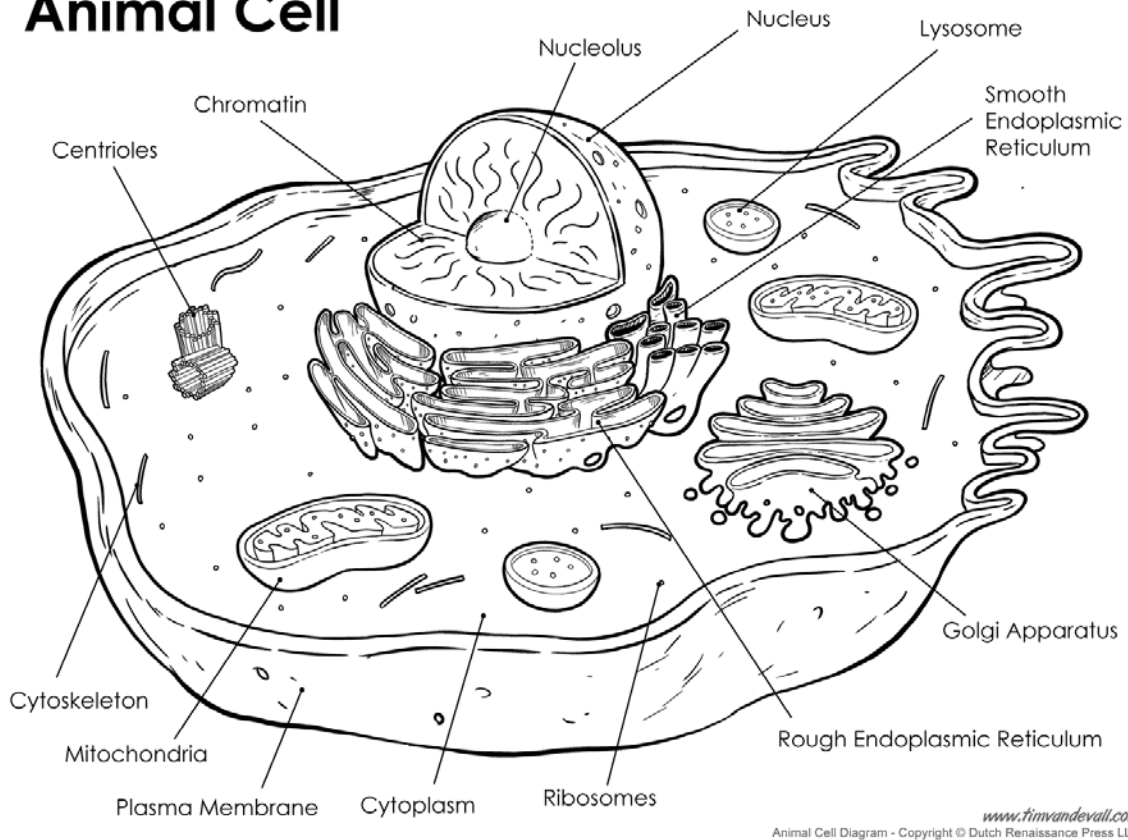
VIDEO: Biology: Cell Structure I Nucleus Medical Media

LINK: <https://youtu.be/URUJD5NEXC8>

VIDEO: Cell Structure and Function

LINK: https://youtu.be/HBvfBB_oSTc

Animal Cell



The following table describes each cell organelle and its function. Be sure to refer to the graphics of a plant and animal cell as you read through the table. Your main goal is to be able to recognize each organelle and identify its function.

NOTE: Cell components with one asterisk* means the component is in plant cells only. Components with two asterisks ** means it is in animal cells only.

ANIMATION: Plant and Animal Cell Organelles

LINK: https://www.cellsalive.com/cells/cell_model.htm

Component	Structure and Function
Cell membrane/plasma membrane	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A phospholipid bilayer with embedded globular proteins (referred to as the fluid mosaic model) • Forms a semi-permeable barrier between the cell and its environment • Controls the flow of matter in and out of the cell • The structural support of the membrane comes from the cytoskeleton – a three dimensional network of protein fibres
Cell wall*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contains cellulose and fibres that support and protect the plant cell
Mitochondrion (powerhouse)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The site of cellular respiration – the powerhouses of the cell • Made of a double membrane, with the inner membrane folded into cristae that increase the surface area available for cellular respiration • The inner fluid space called the matrix; contains DNA, ribosomes, and enzymes that break down carbohydrates the provide energy used to produce ATP during cellular respiration • Cellular respiration produces ATP (adenosine triphosphate) from glucose (sugar) • Cells with high energy needs, such as muscle cells, retinal cells, liver cells, or spermatozoa, which have 100s to 1000s of mitochondria • The balanced chemical equation for cellular respiration is: $6O_2 + C_6H_{12}O_6 \rightarrow CO_2 + 6H_2O + \text{energy}$ Oxygen + glucose → carbon dioxide + water + energy
Centrioles**	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short cylinders with a 9 + 0 pattern of microtubule triplets; may be involved in microtubule formation and in the organization of cilia and flagella
Chloroplast*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contains the green pigment chlorophyll; used in the process of photosynthesis
Smooth and rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ER is a network of transporting canals attached to the nuclear envelope • Rough ER is characterized by large numbers of ribosomes on the surface; responsible for the production of proteins for export from the cell • Smooth ER lacks ribosomes; responsible for the production of lipids, such as testosterone (steroid hormones)
Ribosomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Small dense-staining granules that show up as black dots on electron micrographs • Structures that assemble proteins by creating peptide bonds between amino acids and arranging the amino acids in a particular sequence under the direction of genes • Can be found on rough ER • Polysomes (also called polyribosomes) are a series of ribosomes strung along a single strand of messenger RNA that translates the genetic information during protein synthesis (covered in more detail in a future lesson).

Component	Structure and Function
Golgi apparatus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Structures made of groups of flattened sacs used to store, package, and export proteins and other materials produced in the cell Materials are packaged in small vacuoles (membrane-enclosed vesicles) that are transported within the cytoplasm or moved to the cell membrane where the contents can be secreted from the cell by exocytosis
Vesicle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Small vacuoles used to transport materials Often produced by the Golgi bodies when packaging materials for exocytosis, or by the cell membrane when it imports material by endocytosis
Vacuoles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A membrane-enclosed storage structure that is usually filled with water and chemicals (food on the way into the cell or waste on the way out) A large vacuole is present in a plant cell
Lysosome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special kind of vacuole that contains digestive, hydrolytic enzymes produced by the Golgi bodies Fuses with vacuoles and other structures to help digest food, break down entire cells, or breakdown old structures for recycling or removal
Nuclear envelope	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A double-layer membrane (nuclear membrane) surrounding the nucleus Contains nuclear pores and controls the movement of materials into and out of the nucleus
Nucleus (structure surrounded by the nuclear envelope)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The cell's control centre About 5 micrometers in diameter, on average Contains DNA in the form of chromosomes Is the site of DNA replication and transcription of mRNA for protein synthesis
Nucleolus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The dark spherical area in the nucleus Important in the production of rRNA – a structural component of ribosomes
Chromosomes (chromatin when uncoiled)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Long strand of DNA found within the nucleus Chromosomes contain all of the genetic information for the development, growth, and function of an organism
Cytoplasm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All of the material outside the nucleus, other than the organelles Provides cushioning for the organelles within the cell The site of most chemical activity within the cell

Organelle Cooperation

Just as we have organs that work together to make our bodies function, cells have organelles. Each of membrane-bound organelle has its own purpose and function within the cell, and the organelles work together to ensure the cell's overall function.

Functional Interrelationships of Cell Structures

The presence of cells can mark the boundary between what is living and what is not. Each cell has many small bodies called organelles. Each type of organelle has a specific structure and function, but they all work together to help the cell to function as a unit.

The following sequence of events describes how cell organelles cooperate to digest food.



<https://www.metrochicago.com/blog/your-amazing-digestive-system>

Imagine a cell that makes up part of the lining of your intestine. After you eat, the cell receives a message saying there is food that needs to be broken down and digested.

The nucleus (the control centre of the cell) sends a message to the organelle responsible for making digestive enzymes (proteins).

This organelle is the ribosome. To send this message, the ribosome requires ATP energy, which was generated by another organelle, the mitochondria.

After ribosomes make the digestive enzymes (DE), the enzymes must move through the transport canals (endoplasmic reticulum) to the Golgi apparatus where they will be packaged into vacuoles.

Once in vacuoles, the digestive enzymes will be shipped through the cell membrane to the intestine.

This is just one example of how organelles work together to help the cell function.

Familiarize yourself with the human body by exploring the website Health Line.

LINK: <https://www.healthline.com/human-body-maps>

Organelle Analysis

To gain a better understanding of how some specific organelles compartmentalize the cell and move materials through it, let's revisit some of the organelles and learn a little more about them.

Cell structure and function is a complex science, so it's a good idea to continually review information you've learned about this topic.

Nucleus

The nucleus is the most important organelle in the cell because it stores the genetic material (DNA) that determines the cell's characteristics and metabolic function.

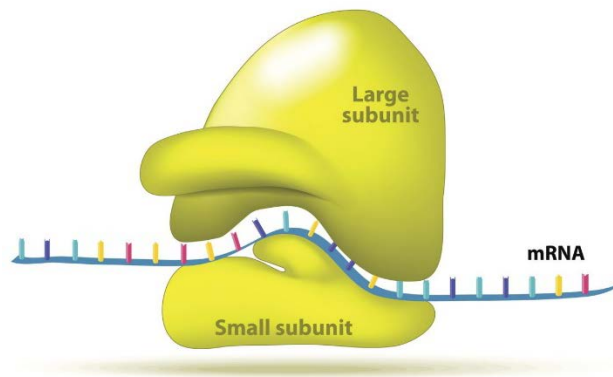
The nucleus sends messages to all parts of the cell, giving instructions for what needs to be done. Without the nucleus, the organelles would have no "boss" telling them what to do. Cell function would come to a stop and the cell would die.

Think of an amoeba, which is a single-celled organism. All the information it needs to survive is in the genetic information located within its nucleus. If the nucleus is removed, amoeba will die because it could not grow, eat, or reproduce.

Nucleolus

The nucleolus is responsible for assembling ribosomes. It receives all its instructions for ribosomal assembly from the nucleus.

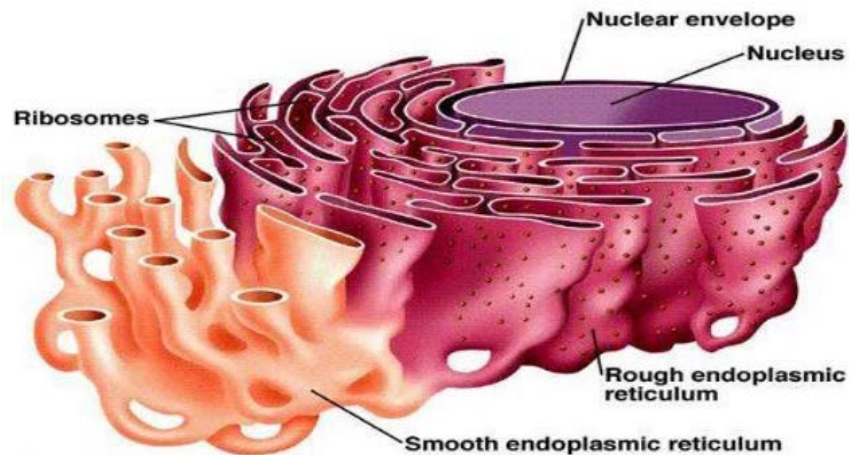
Ribosomes



<https://www.thoughtco.com/ribosomes-meaning-373363>

Ribosomes make proteins. These structures receive their instructions from the nucleus and are assembled in the nucleolus. Ribosomes can be found attached to the rough ER or within the cytoplasm, either singly or in groups called polyribosomes (poly means many). Proteins made in ribosomes attached to the rough ER are eventually secreted from the cell or become part of the external surface of the cell. Polyribosomes are strings of ribosomes simultaneously translating regions of the same mRNA strand during protein synthesis. You will learn more about this process in a later section of this course.

Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)



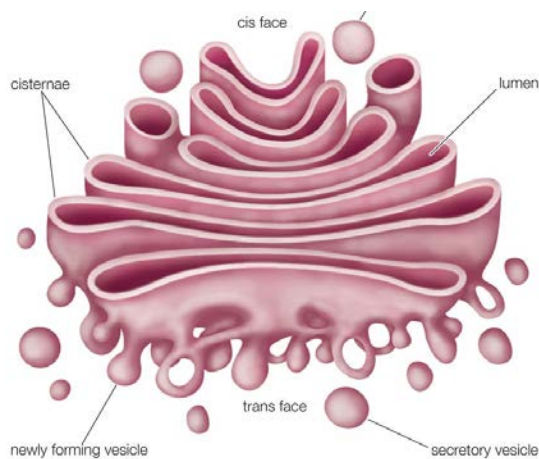
<https://www.slideshare.net/AshishNain/endoplasmic-reticulum-cell-organelle>

The surface of rough ER is characterized by large numbers of ribosomes. This rough ER is responsible for the production of proteins for export from the cell. Once the ribosome makes the protein, the protein enters the ER interior where it is modified by the addition of a sugar chain, making it a glycoprotein.

After the protein is modified, it is packaged in a transport vesicle and sent to the Golgi apparatus.

Smooth ER lacks ribosomes. It is responsible for the production of lipids, such as steroid hormones and the lipids that make up the cell's membrane.

Golgi Apparatus

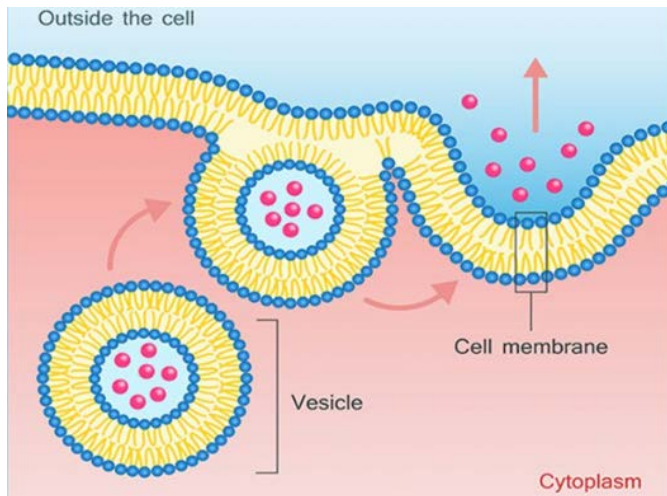


<https://www.britannica.com/science/Golgi-apparatus>

The Golgi apparatus is involved in processing, packaging, and secretion. It receives lipid-filled vesicles that bud from the smooth ER and protein-filled vesicles from the rough ER. These molecules then move from the inner face to the outer face of the Golgi apparatus. During this transition, the glycoproteins have their chains modified before they are repackaged and secreted via vesicles.

The Golgi apparatus is also involved in the formation of lysosomes.

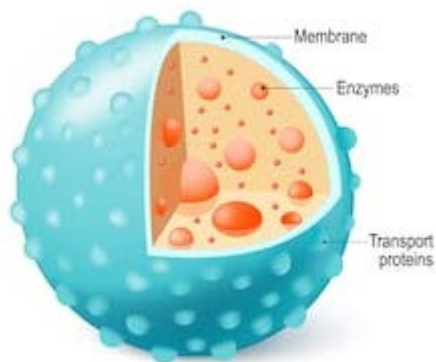
Vesicles



<https://www.quora.com/Which-cell-organelles-are-called-the-secretory-vesicles>

Vesicles are small vacuoles (membrane-bound sacs that store fluid and a variety of other substances) used to transport materials. Vesicles are often produced by the Golgi bodies when packaging materials for exocytosis or by the cell membrane when it imports material by endocytosis.

Lysosomes



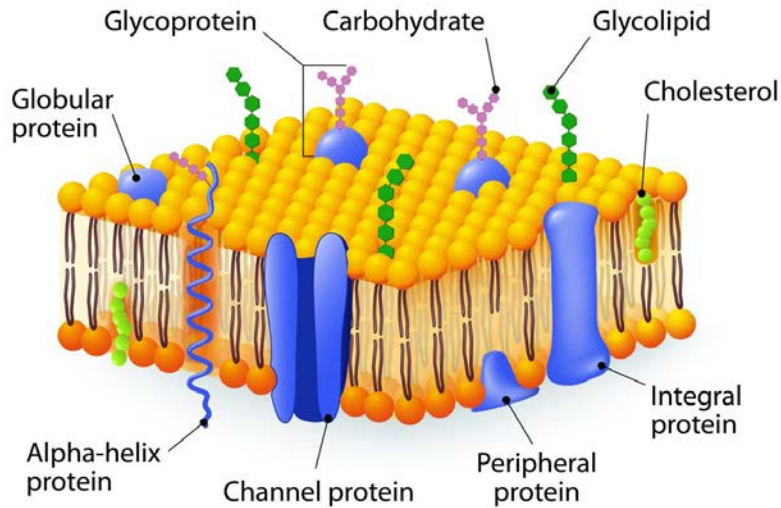
<https://www.shutterstock.com/search/lysosome>

Lysosomes are vesicles filled with hydrolytic enzymes produced by the Golgi bodies. Lysosomes move throughout the cell and fuse with vacuoles and other structures to help digest food or break down old structures for recycling or removal.

The lysosomes are also related to the processes of autolysis and apoptosis in cells. Autolysis is the process by which a cell self-destructs for the health of the entire organism. This usually occurs in injured cells or dying tissue. Autolysis occurs when a lysosome allows the digestive enzymes to leave through its membranes. The cell then, in effect, digests itself.

Apoptosis is a cascade of specific cellular events that lead to the ultimate death and destruction of the cell. This process is programmed in the cell's nucleus.

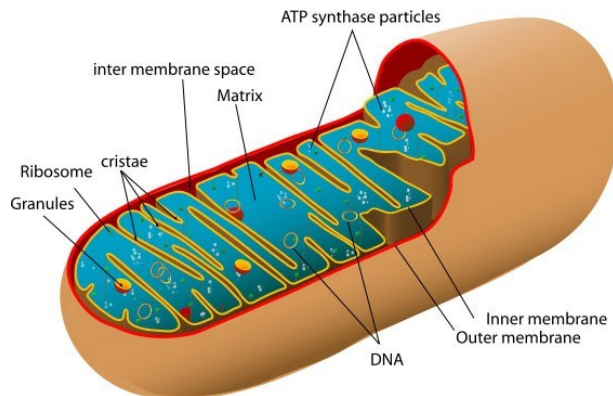
Cell Membrane



<https://biologywise.com/cell-membrane-structure-function>

The cell membrane separates the internal environment of the cell from the external environment. It is selectively permeable, and regulates the entrance and exit of molecules into and out of the cell. Proteins that are packaged and secreted by the Golgi apparatus leave the cell through the cell membrane via transport vesicles.

Mitochondria



<https://www.umdf.org/what-is-mitochondrial-disease/>

A mitochondrion (plural: mitochondrial) is the powerhouse of the cell because it has the ability to convert the intermediate breakdown products of glucose into carbon dioxide and water.

When this occurs, large amounts of energy are released. This process is called cellular respiration.

This energy is stored in the bonds of a molecules called adenosine triphosphate (ATP). To be efficient, the process requires oxygen. Without ATP energy, the cell could not function or survive.

Cellular respiration can be represented by this equation:



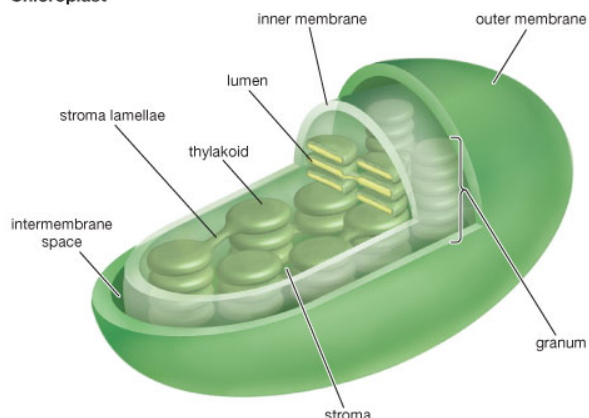
The chemical equation for this process is:



In addition to cellular respiration, the mitochondria also recycle the chemicals produced by the chloroplasts during photosynthesis.

Chloroplast

Chloroplast



© 2008 Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.

<https://www.britannica.com/science/chloroplast>

Photosynthesis occurs within plants and algae that have chloroplasts. A chloroplast is bounded by two membranes that surround a fluid-filled space (stroma). Within the stroma are flattened sacs called thylakoids. Thylakoids are stacked up into structures called grana.

Chloroplasts contain the pigment chlorophyll, which is located within the thylakoid membranes. Chlorophyll captures the solar energy required for photosynthesis and the production of carbohydrates.

Only plants, cyanobacteria, and algae are able to carry out photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is represented by this equation:



Photosynthesis and cellular respiration are often called complimentary process because the products of one are the reactants of the other. To carry out photosynthesis, the chloroplasts require the carbon dioxide produced by cellular respiration in the mitochondria. To respire, the mitochondria require the oxygen and the carbohydrates produced by photosynthesis.

VIDEO: Photosynthesis and respiration | Chemistry for All | The Fuse School

LINK: <https://youtu.be/3XlyweZg6Sw>