

Life Is Cellular

Key Questions

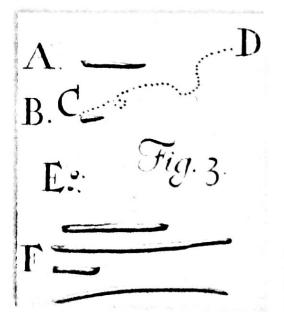
- What is the cell theory?
- How do microscopes work?
- How are prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells different?

Vocabulary

cell • cell theory • cell membrane • nucleus • eukaryote • prokaryote

Taking Notes

Outline Before you read, make an outline using the green and blue headings in the text. As you read, fill in notes under each heading.



THINK ABOUT IT What's the smallest part of any living thing that still counts as being "alive"? Is a leaf alive? How about your big toe? How about a drop of blood? Can we just keep dividing living things into smaller and smaller parts, or is there a point at which what's left is no longer alive? As you will see, there is such a limit, the smallest living unit of any organism—the cell.

The Discovery of the Cell

What is the cell theory?

"Seeing is believing," an old saying goes. It would be hard to find a better example of this than the discovery of the cell. Without the instruments to make them visible, cells remained out of sight and, therefore, out of mind for most of human history. All of this changed with a dramatic advance in technology—the invention of the microscope.

Early Microscopes In the late 1500s, eyeglass makers in Europe discovered that using several glass lenses in combination could magnify even the smallest objects to make them easy to see. Before long, they had built the first true microscopes from these lenses, opening the door to the study of biology as we know it today.

In 1665, Englishman Robert Hooke used an early compound microscope to look at a nonliving thin slice of cork, a plant material. Under the microscope, cork seemed to be made of thousands of tiny empty chambers. Hooke called these chambers "cells" because they reminded him of a monastery's tiny rooms, which were called cells. The term cell is used in biology to this day. Today we know that living cells are not empty chambers, that in fact they contain a huge array of working parts, each with its own function.

In Holland around the same time, Anton van Leeuwenhoek used a single-lens microscope to observe pond water and other things. To his amazement, the microscope revealed a fantastic world of tiny living organisms that seemed to be everywhere, in the water he and his neighbors drank, and even in his own mouth. Leeuwenhoek's illustrations of the organisms he found in the human mouth—which today we call bacteria—are shown in Figure 7-1.

FIGURE 7-1 Early Microscope Images Using a simple microscope, Anton van Leeuwenhoek was the first to observe living microorganisms. These drawings, taken from one of his letters, show bacteria in the human mouth.

The Cell Theory Soon after van Leeuwenhoek, observations by scentists made it clear that cells are the basic units of life. In 1838, German botanist Matthias Schleiden concluded that all plants are made of cells. The next year, German biologist Theodor Schwann stated that all animals are made of cells. In 1855, German physician Rudolf Virchow concluded that new cells can be produced only from the division of existing cells, confirming a suggestion made by German Lorenz Oken 50 years earlier. These discoveries, confirmed by many biologists, are summarized in the cell theory, a fundamental concept of biology. The cell theory states:

- . All living things are made up of cells.
- Cells are the basic units of structure and function in living things.
- New cells are produced from existing cells.

Exploring the Cell

How do microscopes work?

A microscope, as you know, produces an enlarged image of something very small. Most microscopes use lenses to magnify the image of an object by focusing light or electrons. Following in the footsteps of Hooke, Virchow, and others, modern biologists still use microscopes to explore the cell. But today's researchers use technology more powerful than the pioneers of biology could ever have imagined.

Light Microscopes and Cell Stains The type of microscope you are probably most familiar with is the compound light microscope. A typical light microscope allows light to pass through a specimen and uses two lenses to form an image. The first lens, called the objective lens, is located just above the specimen. This lens enlarges the image of the specimen. Most light microscopes have several objective lenses so that the power of magnification can be varied. The second lens, called the ocular lens, magnifies this image still further. Unfortunately, light itself limits the detail, or resolution, of images in a microscope. Like all forms of radiation, lightwaves are diffracted, or scattered, as they pass through matter. Because of this, light microscopes can produce clear images of objects only to a magnification of about 1000 times.

Another problem with light microscopy is that most living cells are nearly transparent. Using chemical stains or dyes, as in Figure 7-2, can usually solve this problem. Some of these stains are so specific that they reveal only certain compounds or structures within the cell. Many of the slides you'll examine in your biology class laboratory will be stained this way.

A powerful variation on these staining techniques uses dyes that give off light of a particular color when viewed under specific wavelengths of light, a property called fluorescence. Fluorescent dyes can be attached to specific molecules and can then be made visible using a special fluorescence microscope. New techniques, in fact, enable scientists to engineer cells that attach fluorescent labels of different colors to specific molecules as they are produced. Fluorescence microscopy makes it possible to see and identify the locations of these molecules and even allows scientists to watch them move around in a living cell.

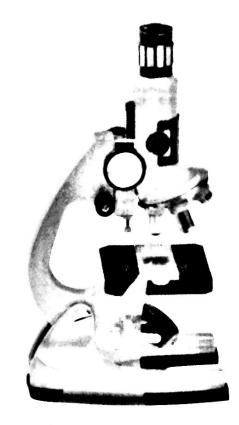




FIGURE 7-2 Light Microscope and Cell Stains This specimen of onion leaf skin has been stained with a compound called toluidine blue. The dye makes the cell boundaries and nuclei clearly visible.

A Researcher Working With a Transmission Electron Microscope

FIGURE 7-3 Micrographs Different types of microscopes can be used to examine cells. Here, yeast cells are shown in a light micrograph (IM 500×), transmission electron micrograph (IEM 4375×), and a scanning electron micrograph (SEM 3750×).

Infer If scientists were studying a structure found on the surface of yeast, which kind of microscope would they likely use?

Electron Microscopes Light microscopes can be used to see cells and cell structures as small as 1 millionth of a meter—certainly pretty small! But what if scientists want to study something smaller than that, such as a virus or a DNA molecule? For that, they need electron microscopes. Instead of using light, electron microscopes use beams of electrons that are focused by magnetic fields. Electron microscopes offer much higher resolution than light microscopes. Some types of electron microscopes can be used to study cellular structures that are 1 billionth of a meter in size.

There are two major types of electron microscopes: transmission and scanning. Transmission electron microscopes make it possible to explore cell structures and large protein molecules. But because beams of electrons can only pass through thin samples, cells and tissues must be cut into ultrathin slices before they can be examined. This is the reason that such images often appear flat and two dimensional.

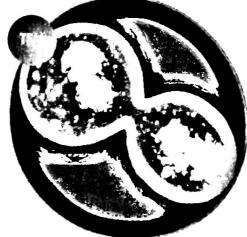
In scanning electron microscopes, a pencil-like beam of electrons is scanned over the surface of a specimen. Because the image is formed at the specimen's surface, samples do not have to be cut into thin slices to be seen. The scanning electron microscope produces stunning three-dimensional images of the specimen's surface.

Electrons are easily scattered by molecules in the air, which means samples must be placed in a vacuum to be studied with an electron microscope. As a result, researchers must chemically preserve their samples. Electron microscopy, then, can only be used to examine nonliving cells and tissues.

Look at Figure 7-3, which shows yeast cells as they might look under a light microscope, transmission electron microscope, and scanning electron microscope. You may wonder why the cells appear to be different colors in each micrograph. (A micrograph is a photo of an object seen through a microscope.) The colors in light micrographs come from the cells themselves, or from the stains and dyes used to highlight them. Electron micrographs, however, are actually black and white. Electrons, unlike light, don't come in colors. So scientists often use computer techniques to add "false color" to make certain structures stand out.

In Your Notebook You are presented with a specimen to examine. What are two questions you would ask to determine the best microscope to use?









What Is a Cell?

- Look through a microscope at a slide of a plant leaf or stem cross section. Sketch one or more cells. Record a description of their shape and internal parts.
- **2** Repeat step 1 with slides of nerve cells, bacteria, and paramecia.

② Compare the cells by listing the characteristics they have in common and some of the differences among them.

Analyze and Conclude

1. Classify Classify the cells you observed into two or more groups. Explain what characteristics you used to put each cell in a particular group.

Prokaryotes and Eukaryotes

How are prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells different?

Cells come in an amazing variety of shapes and sizes, some of which are shown in Figure 7–4. Although typical cells range from 5 to 50 micrometers in diameter, the smallest *Mycoplasma* bacteria are only 0.2 micrometer across, so small that they are difficult to see under even the best light microscopes. In contrast, the giant amoeba *Chaos chaos* can be 1000 micrometers (1 millimeter) in diameter, large enough to be seen with the unaided eye as a tiny speck in pond water. Despite their differences, all cells, at some point in their lives, contain DNA, the molecule that carries biological information. In addition, all cells are surrounded by a thin flexible barrier called a **cell membrane**. (The cell membrane is sometimes called the *plasma membrane* because many cells in the body are in direct contact with the fluid portion of the blood—the plasma.) There are other similarities as well, as you will learn in the next lesson.

Cells fall into two broad categories, depending on whether they contain a nucleus. The **nucleus** (plural: nuclei) is a large membrane-enclosed structure that contains genetic material in the form of DNA and controls many of the cell's activities. **Eukaryotes** (yoo KAR ee ohts) are cells that enclose their DNA in nuclei. **Prokaryotes** (pro KAR ee ohts) are cells that do not enclose DNA in nuclei.

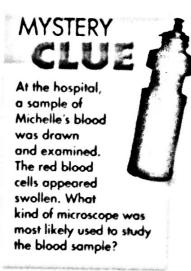
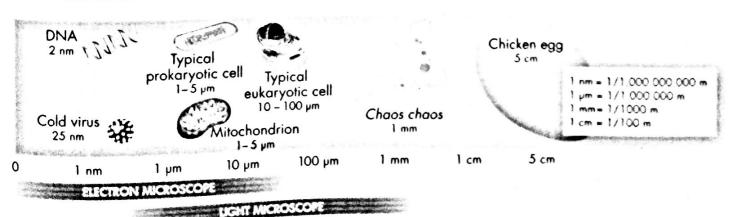


FIGURE 7-4 Cell Size Is Relative

The human eye can see objects larger than about 0.5 mm. Most of what interests cell biologists, however, is much smaller than that. Microscopes make seeing the cellular and subcellular world possible.

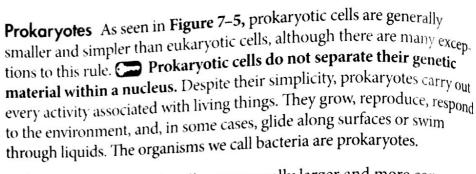


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BUILD Vocabulary

WORD ORIGINS The noun prokaryote comes from the Greek word karyon, meaning "kernel," or nucleus. The prefix pro-means "before." Prokaryotic cells first evolved before nuclei developed.

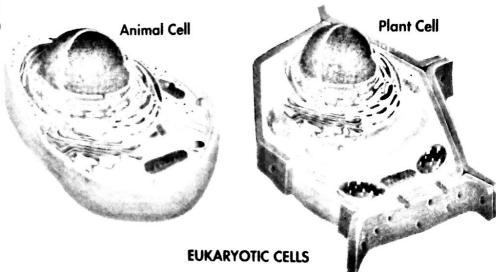
FIGURE 7-5 Cell Types In general, eukaryotic cells (including plant and animal cells) are more complex than prokaryotic cells.



Eukaryotes Eukaryotic cells are generally larger and more complex than prokaryotic cells. Most eukaryotic cells contain dozens of structures and internal membranes, and many are highly specialized. In eukaryotic cells, the nucleus separates the genetic material from the rest of the cell. Eukaryotes display great variety: some, like the ones commonly called "protists," live solitary lives as unicellular organisms; others form large, multicellular organisms—plants, animals, and fungi.







Review Key Concepts

- 1. a. Review What is a cell?
 - **b.** Explain What three statements make up the cell theory?
 - **c.** *Infer* How did the invention of the microscope help the development of the cell theory?
- 2. a. Review How do microscopes work?
 - **b.** Apply Concepts What does it mean if a micrograph is "false-colored?"
- 3. a. Review What features do all cells have?
 b. Summarize What is the main difference between prokaryotes and eukaryotes?

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A light microscope can magnify images up to 1000 times. To calculate the total magnification of a specimen, multiply the magnification of the eyepiece lens by the magnification of the objective lens used. (For more information on microscopes, see Appendix B.)

- **4. Calculate** What is the total magnification of a microscope that has an eyepiece magnification of 10× and an objective lens magnification of 50×.
- **5.** Colculate A 10 micrometer cell is viewed through a 10× objective and a 10× eyepiece. How large will the cell appear to the microscope user?

areers

Cells are the basic unit of all known life. If cells interest you, you might want to consider one of the following careers.

Ever wonder what happens to the blood your doctor collects during your annual physical? It goes to a laboratory technician. Laboratory technicians perform routine procedures using microscopes, computers, and other equipment. Many laboratory technicians work in the medical field, evaluating and analyzing test results.

The images in Figure 7–3 were captured by a microscopist. Microscopists make it possible to study structures too small to be seen without magnification. There are a variety of microscopy techniques, including staming and fluorescence, that microscopists can use to make images clear and informative for researchers. Some of these images are so striking that they have become a form of scientific art,

Pathologists are like detectives: They collect cellular information and tissue evidence to diagnose illness. Using a broad knowledge of disease characteristics and the best-available technology, pathologists analyze cells and tissues under a microscope and discuss their diagnoses with other doctors.

Dr. Tanasa Osborne studies osteosarcoma, the most co malignant bone tumor in children and adolescents. Her res with the National Institutes of Health and the National Ca titute is focused on improving outcomes for patients whose cancer has spread from one organ or system to a Dr. Osborne is not a medical doctor, howeverveterinarian. Animals are often used as models to stud disease. Dr. Osborne's research, therefore, contributes to both animal and human health. Veterinary pathologists inv many important issues in addition to cancer, including Wes ile virus, avian flu, and other emerging infec oach science from a global (o) and systemic perspect

Careers and Biology



Cell Structure

Key Questions

- What is the role of the cell nucleus?
- What are the functions of vacuoles, lysosomes, and the cytoskeleton?
- What organelles help make and transport proteins?
- What are the functions of chloroplasts and mitochondria?
- What is the function of the cell membrane?

Vocabulary

cytoplasm • organelle •
vacuole • lysosome •
cytoskeleton • centriole •
ribosome •
endoplasmic reticulum •
Golgi apparatus •
chloroplast • mitochondrion •
cell wall • lipid bilayer •
selectively permeable

Taking Notes

Venn Diagram Create a Venn diagram that illustrates the similarities and differences between prokaryotes and eukaryotes.

THINK ABOUT IT At first glance, a factory is a puzzling place. Machines buzz and clatter; people move quickly in different directions. So much activity can be confusing. However, if you take the time to watch carefully, what might at first seem like chaos begins to make sense. The same is true for the living cell.

Cell Organization

What is the role of the cell nucleus?

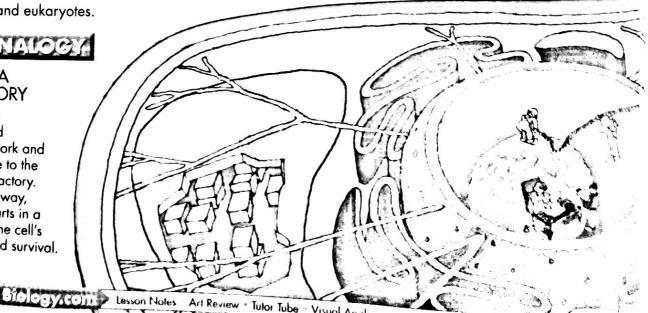
The eukaryotic cell is a complex and busy place. But if you look closely at eukaryotic cells, patterns begin to emerge. For example, it's easy to divide each cell into two major parts: the nucleus and the cytoplasm. The cytoplasm is the portion of the cell outside the nucleus. As you will see, the nucleus and cytoplasm work together in the business of life. Prokaryotic cells have cytoplasm too, even though they do not have a nucleus.

In our discussion of cell structure, we consider each major component of plant and animal eukaryotic cells—some of which are also found in prokaryotic cells—one by one. Because many of these structures act like specialized organs, they are known as **organelles**, literally "little organs." Understanding what each organelle does helps us understand the cell as a whole. A summary of cell structure can be found on pages 206–207.

VISUAL ANALOGY

THE CELL AS A LIVING FACTORY

FIGURE 7-6 The specialization and organization of work and workers contribute to the productivity of a factory. In much the same way, the specialized parts in a cell contribute to the cell's overall stability and survival.



Comparing the Cell to a Factory In some respects, the eukaryotic cell is much like a living version of a modern factory (Figure 7-6). The different organelles of the cell can be compared to the specialized machines and assembly lines of the factory. In addition, cells, like factories, follow instructions and produce products. As we look through the organization of the cell, we'll find plenty of places in which the comparison works so well that it will help us understand how cells work.

The Nucleus In the same way that the main office controls a large factory, the nucleus is the control center of the cell. The nucleus contains nearly all the cell's DNA and, with it, the coded instructions for making proteins and other important molecules. Prokaryotic cells lack a nucleus, but they do have DNA that contains the same kinds of instructions.

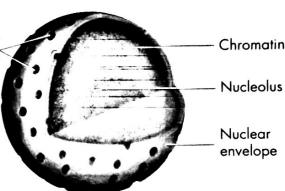
The nucleus, shown in Figure 7-7, is surrounded by a nuclear envelope composed of two membranes. The nuclear envelope is dotted with thousands of nuclear pores, which allow material to move into and out of the nucleus. Like messages, instructions, and blueprints moving in and out of a factory's main office, a steady stream of proteins, RNA, and other molecules move through the nuclear pores to and from the rest of the cell.

Chromosomes, which carry the cell's genetic information, are also found in the nucleus. Most of the time, the threadlike chromosomes are spread throughout the nucleus in the form of chromatin—a complex of DNA bound to proteins. When a cell divides, its chromosomes condense and can be seen under a microscope. You will learn more about chromosomes in later chapters.

Most nuclei also contain a small dense region known as the nucleolus (noo klee uh lus). The nucleolus is where the assembly of ribosomes begins.

In Your Notebook Describe the structure of the nucleus. Include the words nuclear envelope, nuclear pore, chromatin, chromosomes, and nucleolus in your description.





Nuclear

pores

FIGURE 7-7 The Nucleus The nucleus controls most cell processes and contains DNA. The small, dense region in the nucleus is known as the nucleolus.

