

CHAPTER - 2ND

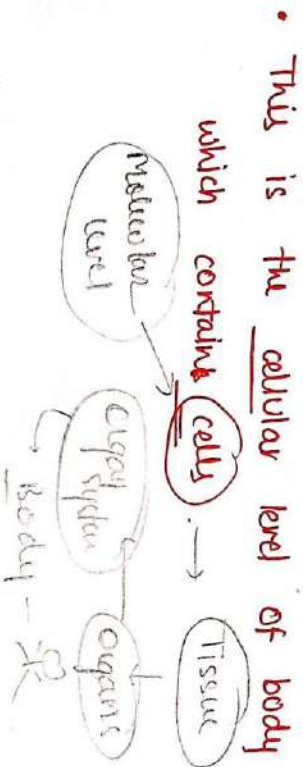
CELLULAR LEVEL OF ORGANISATION

• Syllabus →

Structure and functions of ^① cell

Transport across cell membrane, cell division, cell functions.

General principles of cell communication, intracellular signalling pathway activation by extracellular signal molecule, forms of intracellular signalling; a) contact-dependent b) paracrine c) synaptic d) endocrine



• Cell →

It is a structural, basic and functional unit of our body.

all living organism

- A human body consist of

about 10^{14} or 100 trillions cells with a size and mass of about 10 μ m and 1 nanogram respectively.

- cells are of two types :-

i) Prokaryotic cells →

These are those cells

which are not fully developed.

they have less developed nucleus and some organelles. eg. bacteria etc.

ii) Eukaryotic cells →

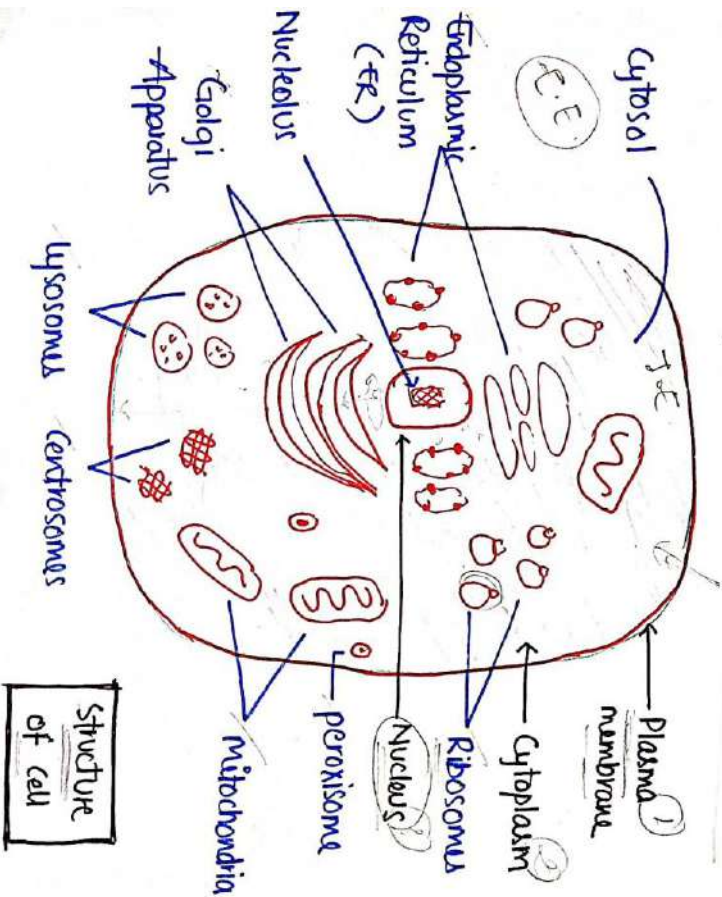
These are those cells

which are fully developed, they

have well developed nucleus and other organelles present in cell.

eg plants, animals, fungi etc..

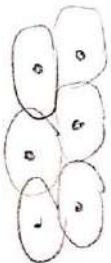
CELL → A cell is the basic living structural and functional unit of body enclosed within a membrane.



- There are about 200 different types of cells in our body.

① functions of cell →

- Movement of substance across the cell membrane
- cell growth and metabolism by cell division.
- protein synthesis by transcription and translation.

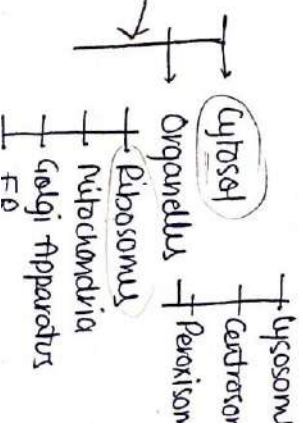


② Structure of the cell →

It is divided into three

major parts :-

- Plasma membrane
- Cytoplasm and
- Nucleus.



i) Plasma Membrane →

Also known as cell

membrane.

- It is the outermost membrane of cell which separate out the internal environment of cell to the external environment.

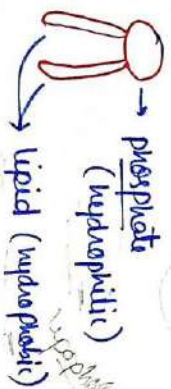
- It is selectively permeable which allowing substances to pass through it.

• Structure →

The fluid-mosaic model of plasma membrane was given by S.T. Singer and G.L. Nicholson.

• It is made up with bilayer of phospholipids.

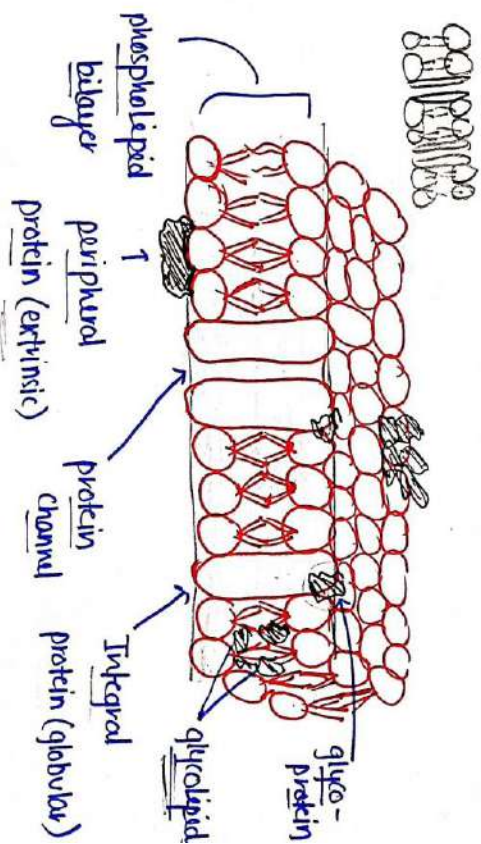
• Chemical composition →
- Phospholipid →
phospho + lipids



• Functions →

- It provides protection from external environment.
- It gives shape to the cell.
- It regulates the flow of material into and out of the cell.

- proteins, the lipid bilayer is embedded with proteins of various shapes and sizes.
eg. Integral, Transmembrane & Peripheral proteins.
- Carbohydrates, these molecules are attached with proteins (glycoprotein) and lipids (glycolipid).



out to the cell.

- It also play a keyrole in communication with other cells or external environment.

ii) Cytoplasm →

It is the total area between the plasma membrane to the nucleus.

It further divided into two parts



2) Organelles 4) Cytosol

1) Cytosol → It is the fluid present inside the cells. It is transparent,

viscous which contain about 75% to 90%.

mostly water, proteins, lipids & carbohydrates.

10% organelles.

Cytoplasmic

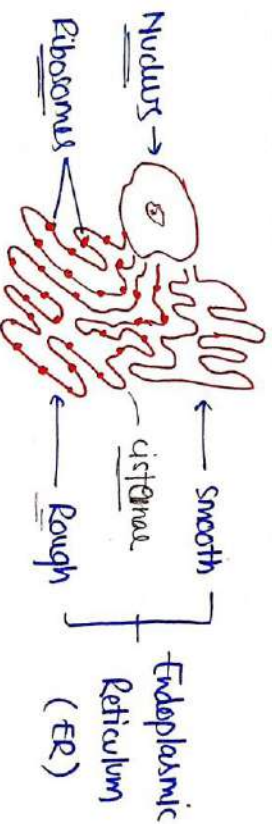
2) Organelles → These are the organelles present in cytoplasm and perform specific function for cell.

- Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)
- Golgi Apparatus / Body / comp
- Ribosomes
- Mitochondria
- Lysosomes
- Centrosomes
- Peroxisome

© Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER) →

It is a complex channel

system enclosed within the membrane in the form of three dimensional network that consists of vesicles, flattened sacs and branched tubules.



• It is of two types :-

- i) Rough ER → those ^{ER} which have ribosomes attached, helped in protein and membrane synthesis.
- ii) smooth ER → Ribosomes are not attached.

• functions →

- Act as a structural framework of cytoplasm
- exchange materials
- SER → help in synthesis of phospholipids, cholesterol and triglycerides.

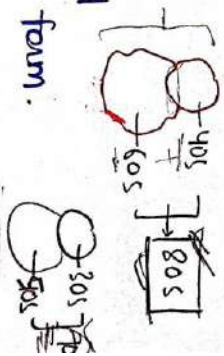
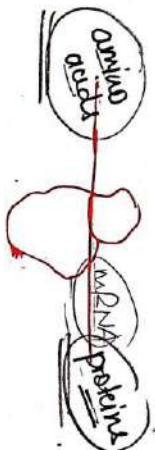
③ Ribosomes →



- These are tiny spheres that contain ribosomal RNA & several ribosomal proteins.
- Also known as factory of proteins, because they protein synthesis is takes place in it.

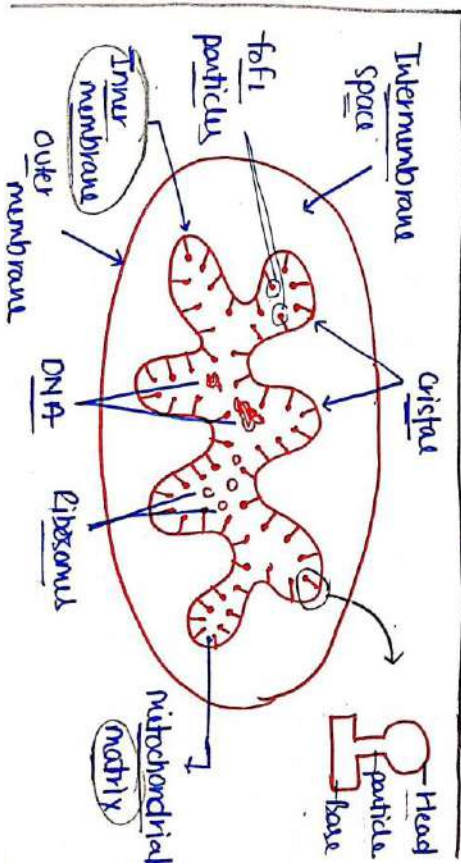
• These are made up with two subunits i.e. smaller subunits (40s) and the larger subunit (60s).

- two types → One is attached with E.R. and one is present in free form.



④ Mitochondria →

It is known as the Power House of cell, because it generate [ATP].

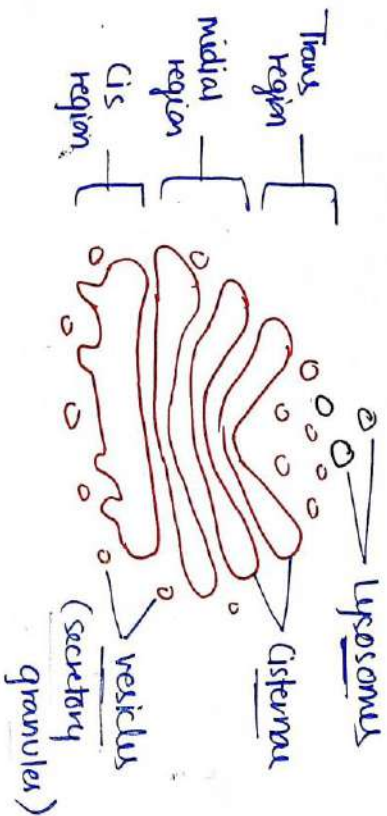


- It is made up with two membranes i.e. inner and outer.

- the main function is to generate energy.
- also perform cellular signalling and regulates cellular proliferation - spread..

⊙ Golgi Apparatus / Body →

It consists of four to six flattened sacs called as cistern placed upon each other, like a pile of plates with expanded bulges at their ends.



- they store proteins, modify them and also moved to the plasma membrane through secretory granules, when required.
- also helping in excreting excess amount of water

⊙ lysosomes →

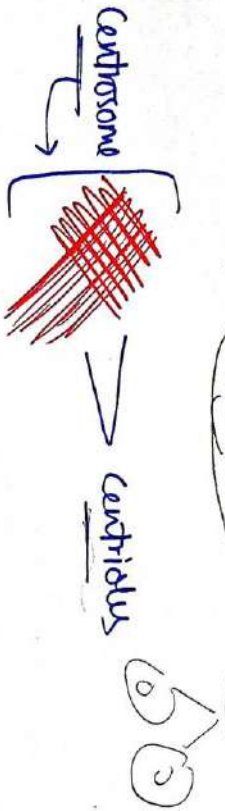
they are secretory formed from the golgi complex.



- they worked as the digestive system of cell, which contain digestive and hydrolytic enzymes and hydrolyse large molecules, such as RNA and DNA, proteins and lipids.
- Vary in size, ranging from 0.1 - 1.2 micrometer.
- they also work as defence against microorganism.

② Centrosome →

It consists of a pair of centrioles and play an important cell division role during

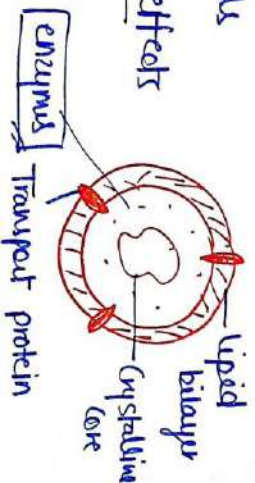


③ Peroxisome →

It contain many oxidases enzymes that can oxidize various organic substances such as fatty acid, amino acids, uric acid etc..

- It contain the enzyme catalase, and

protect the cells against toxic effects of substances.



iii) Nucleus →

The nucleus is usually a spherical and oval shaped structure, which is largest in the cell.

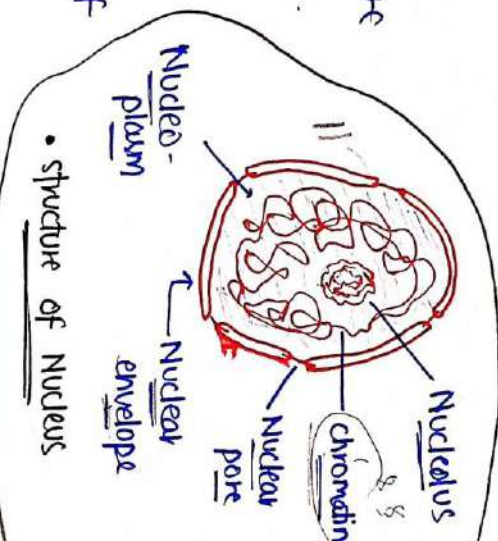
- It consist of double membrane, which separate nucleus from the cytoplasm.

- It contain a spherical structure called nucleolus.

- It is also known as the "control centre" of the cell.

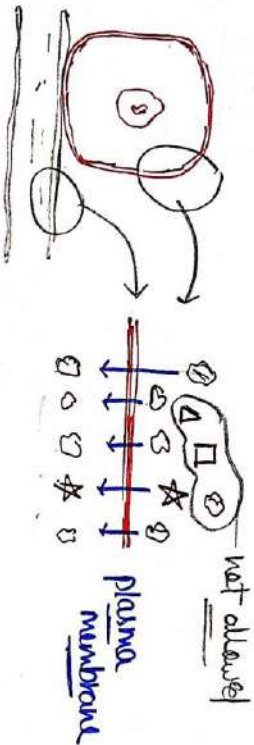
- It contains the genetic material including aggregation of protein DNA & RNA.

- It directly involves in the reproduction, and transfer all genetic information from parent cell to daughter cells.



TRANSPORT ACROSS MEMBRANES

- Plasma membrane of cells are selectively permeable, which allow only some substance to cross it.



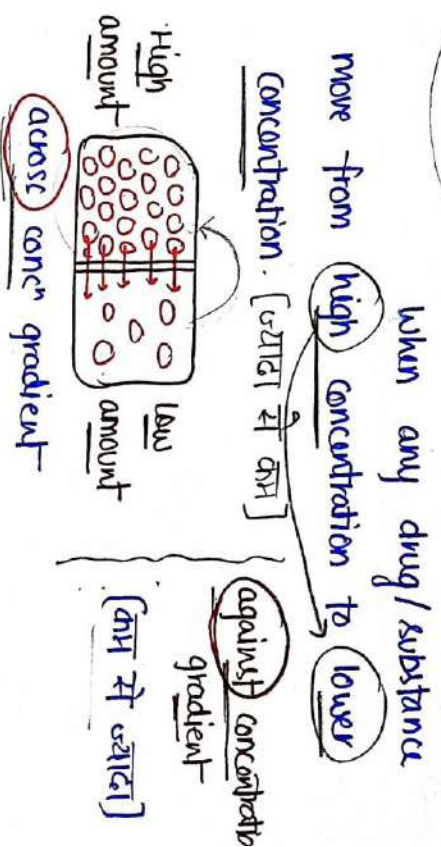
- Membrane is a biological membrane, which is made up with phospholipids bilayer and allow substance to move through it,

It is known as membrane transport

- Substances are transported across the cell membrane through :-

- Passive transport
 - Passive diffusion
 - facilitated diffusion
 - Primary transport
 - Secondary transport
- Active transport
- Endocytosis

- Concentration Gradient →



- Passive transport →

In this, substance transport across the [conc gradient] i.e. High to low

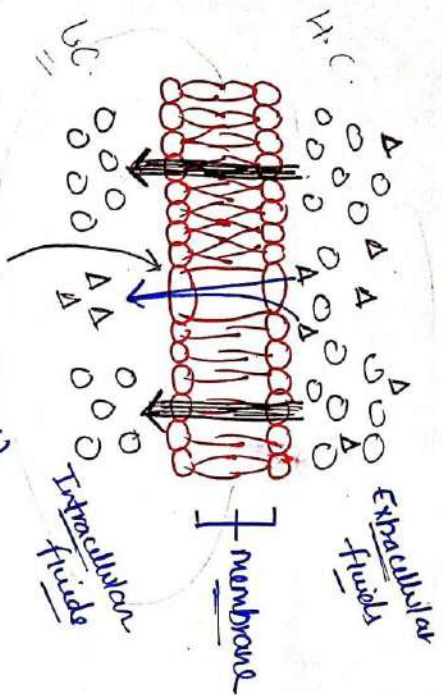
- Passive diffusion →

It is the transport of substance across the conc gradient i.e.

from the region of higher conc to lower conc without use of energy.

eg diffusion of lipid soluble molecules like O_2 &

CO₂ across the cell membrane



for water
soluble drugs

• facilitated diffusion →

filtration + eq. diffusion
high to low, through eq. protein channel.

In this, substance transport

across the concⁿ gradient, but with the help of any **carrier bodies** (that's why

it is also called **carrier mediated transport**).

- It is suitable for poorly diffusible substance.

- carrier used such as SLC (Solute carrier

transporter).
eg) Entry of glucose into RBCs.

Intestinal absorption of vit. B₁ & B₂.

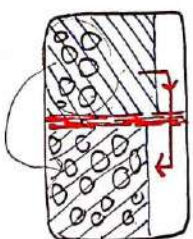


• Osmosis →

It is the movement of solvent (water)

particle from high to (solvent)
low concⁿ through semipermeable

membrane. (from low solute concⁿ to
high solute concⁿ).



ii) Active transport →

In this, substance transport

opposite against the concⁿ gradient with the

help of energy.

• In this, **ATP** is used,

ATP hydrolyses → **ADP**

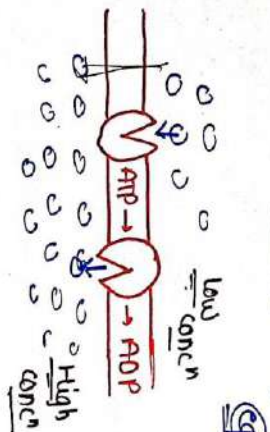
• It is of two types:-

- Primary active transport

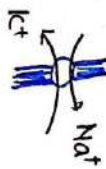
- Secondary active transport

• Primary active transport →

In this, ATP is used as a energy. (eg) Absorption of glucose.



(eg) Na⁺K⁺ ATPase pump.

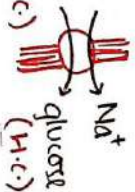


• Secondary active transport →

In this, electrochemical gradient are used instead of energy.

Symport (co-transport) → movement of both substance in same direction.

(eg) Na⁺-glucose symporter (i.e.)



Antiport (counter-transport) → movement of

molecules in opposite direction.

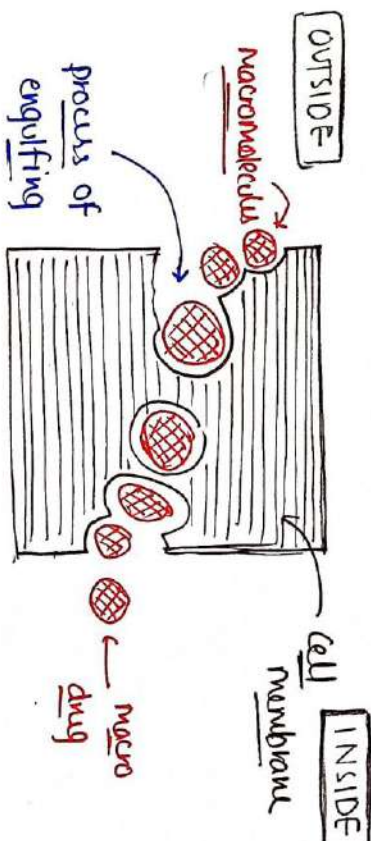
(eg) H⁺ Na⁺ pump.



iii) Endocytosis →

In this transport, drugs of very large size molecules get transported via engulfment by cell membrane.

(eg) cellular uptake of macromolecular like fat, starch, oil-soluble vitamins like A, D, E, K and drug like insulin.



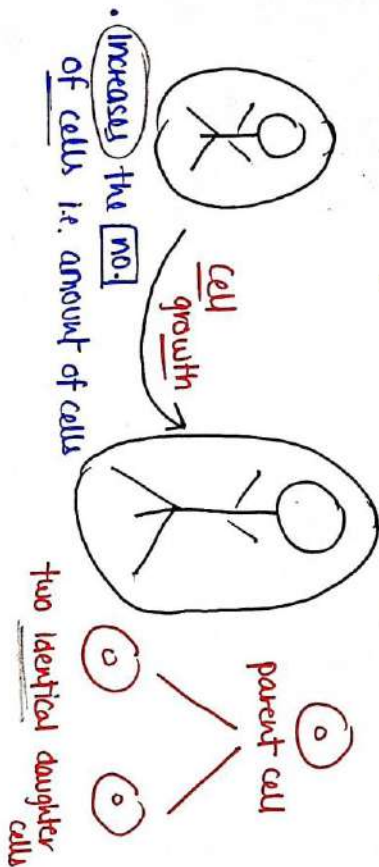
• Phagocytosis [cell eating] → adsorptive uptake of solid particulates.

• Pinocytosis [cell drinking] → uptake of fluid solute.

CELL DIVISION

It is a process by which a parent cell divides into two daughter cells.

The genetic content (DNA) of newly formed cell is exactly same to the parent cell.



Cell division is of two types :-

i) Mitosis → responsible for growth of cells.

no. of chromosome same [equational division]
occurs in somatic cells.

ii) Meiosis → responsible for formation of gametes cells.
occurs in reproductive cells and no. of chromosome decreased [Reductional division]

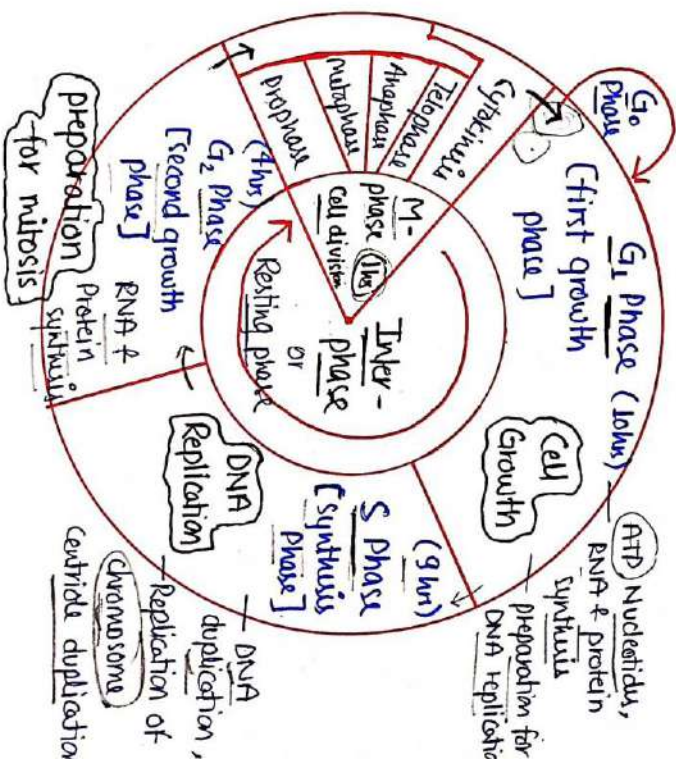
Cell cycle →

(24hrs)

The sequence of events by which a cell duplicates its genome, synthesis the other constituents of the cell and eventually divides into two daughter cells.

- It has two phases :-

- i) Interphase - preparation.
- ii) M-phase - cell division



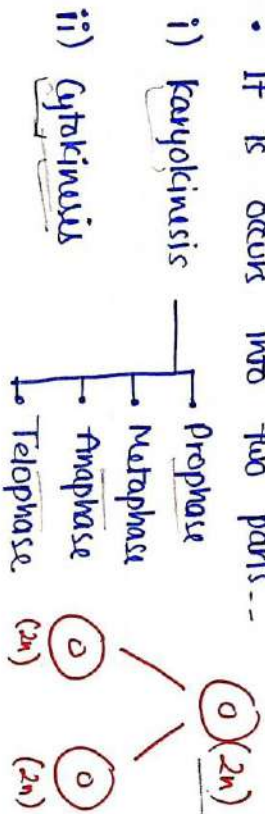
1) Mitosis →

Also known as M-phase or mitotic phase [equational division]. animal cells

• It is occurs in somatic cell in which already existing parent cell divides into two identical daughter cells.

• In this, the no. of chromosomes in daughter cell is same as the no. of chromosome in parent cell.

• It is occurs into two parts--



i) karyokinesis →

It is a process by which the cell nucleus divides into two daughter nuclei.



• Prophase → This phase begins with initiation of condensation of the chromosomal material i.e. chromatin

- centrioles (centrosome) move towards the opposite poles of the cell.
- Organelles like golgi complex, ER, Nucleolus, and Nuclear envelope disappear at the end of prophase



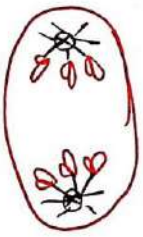
• Metaphase → This phase begins with complete disintegration of nuclear envelope.

- chromosomal condensation completed and two sister chromatids are held together by centromere
- kinetochores (small disc shaped) at the surface of centromere
• Spindle fibre attaches to kinetochores and chromosomes are moved to spindle equator and get aligned.



• Anaphase → Begins with splitting of each chromosome.

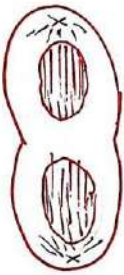
- Separation of chromatids and move towards opposite poles.



• Telophase →

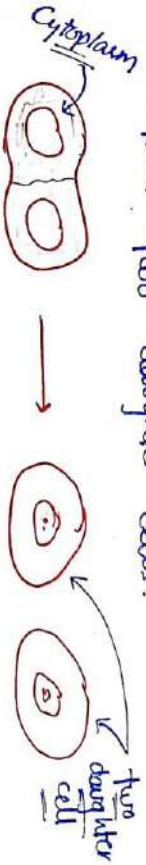
last stage of mitosis and in this, chromosomes loose individuality (decondensation) and chromatin material is collected as a mass at two poles.

- Nuclear membrane reappear and two nuclear formed
- other organelles reappear..



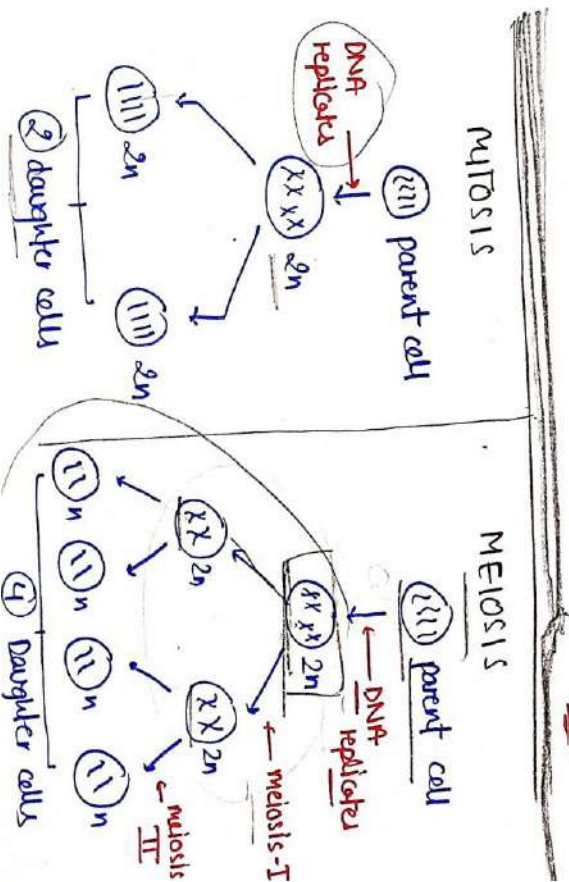
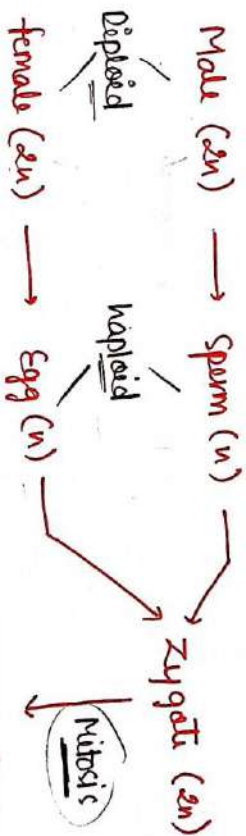
ii) Cytokinesis →

It is the division of parent cell cytoplasm after nucleus division to form two daughter cells.

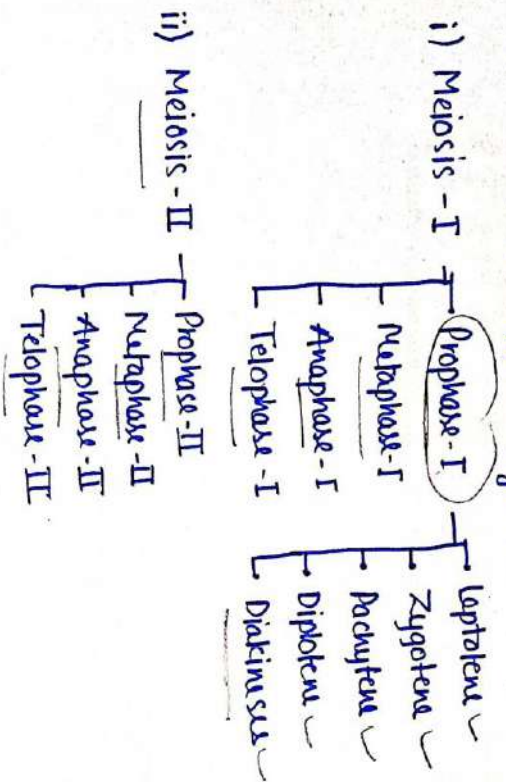


2) Meiosis →

It occurs in gamete cells (reproductive cells). In this, offsprings are produced by the fusion of a female gamete and a male gamete.



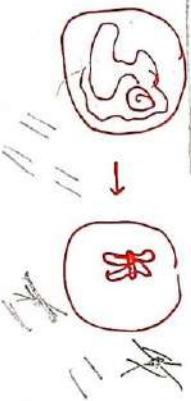
• It occurs in two stages :-



i) Meiosis - I → It is divided into four phases.

• Prophase - I → It is longer and more complex, It is further sub-divided into five phases -

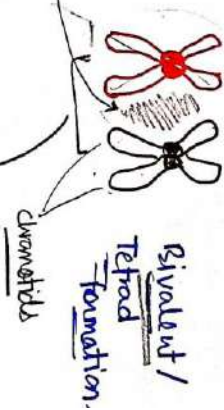
a) Leptotene phase → Condensation of chromosomes starts.



b) Zygotene phase →

pairing of chromosomes, and the paired chromosome referred as homologous chromosome.

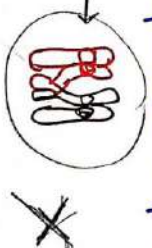
- Process is known as synapsis and form synaptonemal complex.



c) Pachytene phase → exchange of genetic material b/w two homologous chromosomes. i.e. crossing over



d) Diploctene phase → dissolution of synaptonemal complex and formed X-shaped structure termed as chiasmata



e) Diakinesis phase → separation

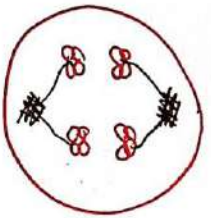
terminalisation of chiasmata, chromosome condensation completed, mitotic spindle is assembled, Nucleolus and nuclear envelope disappear.



• Metaphase - I →

chromosomes

align at the equatorial plate. microtubules are seen attaching to the pair.



• Anaphase - I

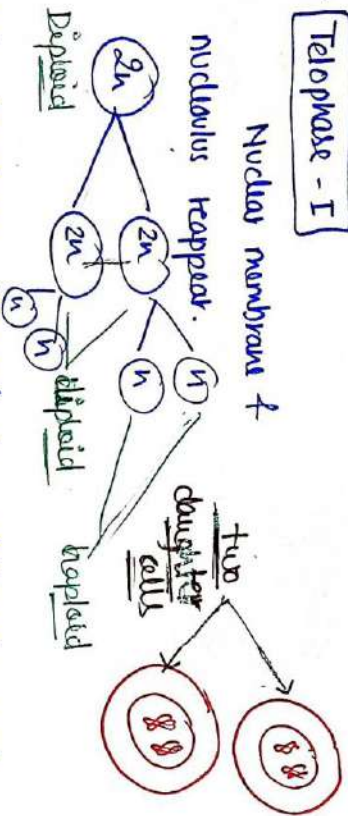
Homologous chromosomes separated.



• Telophase - I

Nuclear membrane &

nucleolus reappear.



this telophase followed by cytokinesis and formed two haploid (gametes) cells.

• Interkinesis →

It is the stage between two meiotic divisions and usually lasts for a short period of time.

ii) Meiosis II →

It is similar as normal mitosis.

It also comprises of four stages:-

• Prophase - II →

condensation of chromosomes, formation of

spindle and disappearance of nucleus.

• Metaphase - II

equatorial alignment of chromosomes.

• Anaphase - II

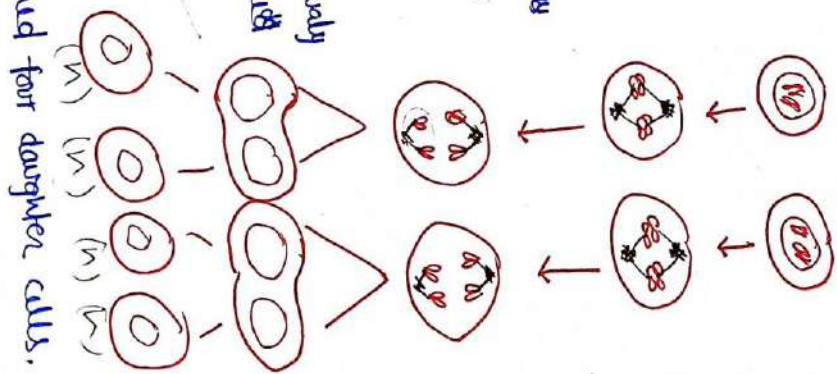
separation of chromatids and move towards opposite poles.

• Telophase - II

chromosomes loose individuality and chromatin material is called as mass of two poles.

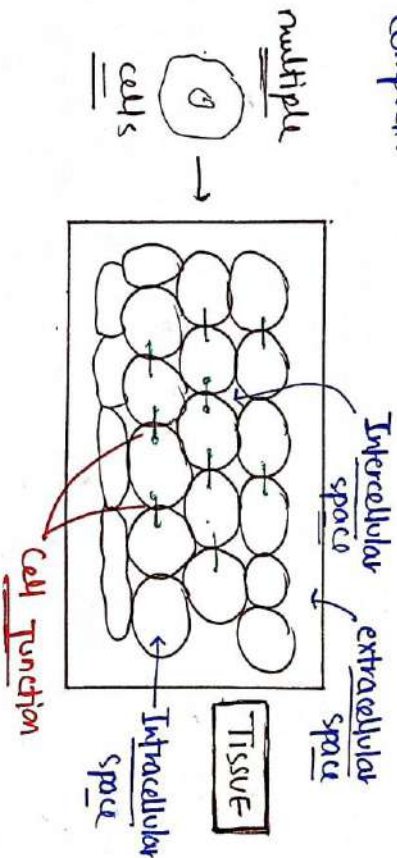
Nuclear membrane reappear & organelles -

separation of cytoplasm & formed four daughter cells.



CELL JUNCTION

- It is the contact/connction ^{adhesion} between the neighboring cells or between a cell and the extracellular matrix.
- These are made up with multiprotein complex.



- They are present in various cells, but their number is more in epithelial tissue

Skin, glands, organs like kidney & lungs.

- functions →
 - they create the communications between the cells.
 - they maintain the paracellular barrier and prevent the movement of unwanted water solutes and other substances.
 - helps in attachment of cells and also responsible for transfer of substances & ions.
 - also provide strength to the cells.

• Types →

they are divided into five parts :-

- Tight junction — seal / prevent leakage
- Adherens Junction
- Desmosome
- hemidesmosome
- Gap Junction — communication

prevent separation of cells

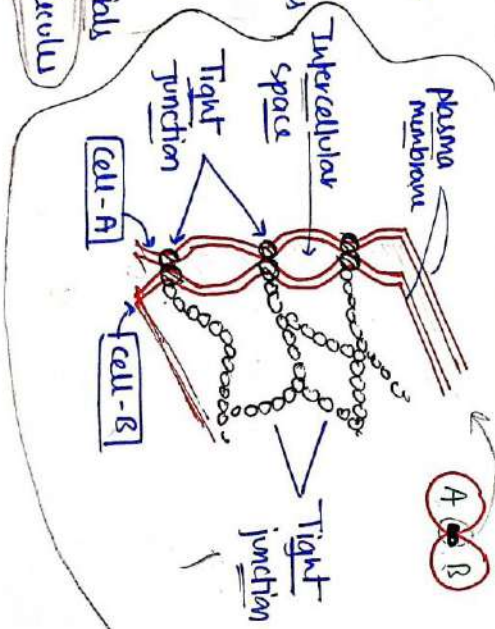
i) Tight Junction →

It is also known as zonula occludens junctions.

• It is a tight, seal packed junction b/w two adjacent cells.

• In this, cells are held tightly against each other by proteins i.e. claudins & occludins.

- Prevent the leakage of various substances b/w cells.
- Prevent the entry of materials like macromolecules and fluids.



• They are mostly found in epithelial tissue includes organs (ie skin), blood vessels and cavities.

(eg) Urinary bladder.

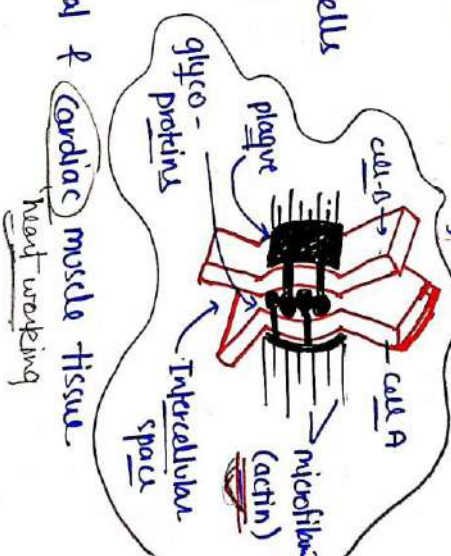
ii) Adherens junction →

These are the strong adhesion site b/w the cells.

- they provide strong mechanical attachment b/w the adjacent cells through the linkage of cytoplasmic face with cytoskeleton.

- they prevent separation of cells during contractile process.

- (eg) present in cells of epithelial & cardiac muscle tissue.



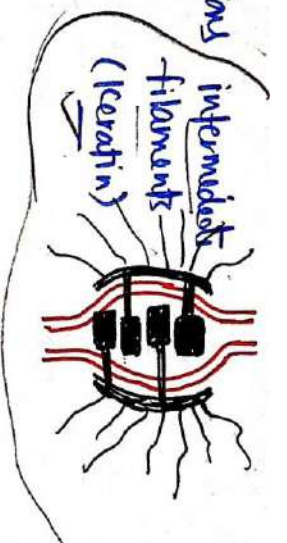
iii) Desmosomes →

they are also work same as

adherens junction, i.e. they are the type of these junctions.

- they present in the form of continuous, belt like or scattered filaments i.e. keratin

- Spot-like adhesive junctions
- function, location same.



iv) Hemidesmosome →

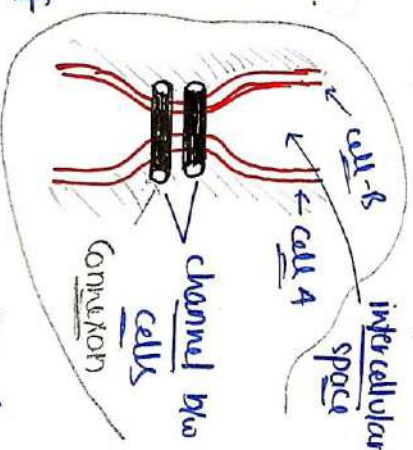
Another type of adhering junction. In this, cell is connect with the base of epithelial cells.



v) Gap Junction →

Also known as Nexus.

- In this junctions, channels are formed which connect the cytoplasm of two adjacent cells.

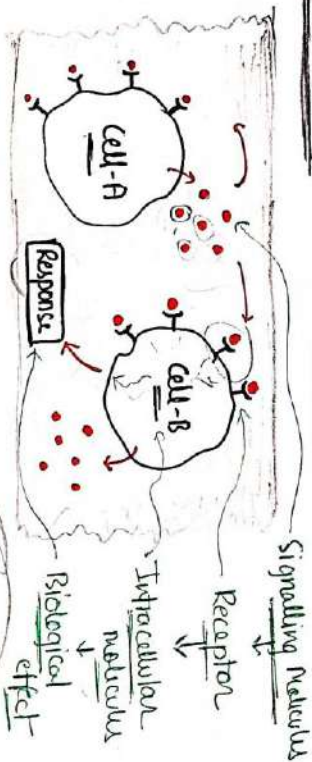


- It allows rapid transfer of ions, small molecules, nutrients etc. (substances) through channels.
- conduction of electrical signals from one cell to another. (eg. b/w adjacent cardiac muscle cells. b/w smooth muscle cells.)

CELL COMMUNICATION

Also known as "cell signalling".

- It is the communication b/w the cells.
- In this, the cell transmit (send), receive and process the signal from one cell to another cell or with itself.



- It is important to maintain homeostasis.
- for growth and development of cells.
- they communicate with each other to help in transport substances, generate electrical potential across cell membrane and respond to change occurring in internal & external environment.

- General principle →

In cell communication, one cell

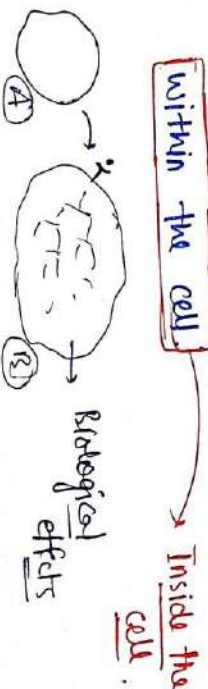
send it signals (i.e. ligands) which received by the receptor of another cell, then receptor activates and give response target cell through secondary messengers [eg. cAMP, IP3].

- Intracellular signalling Pathway activation by extracellular signal molecule →

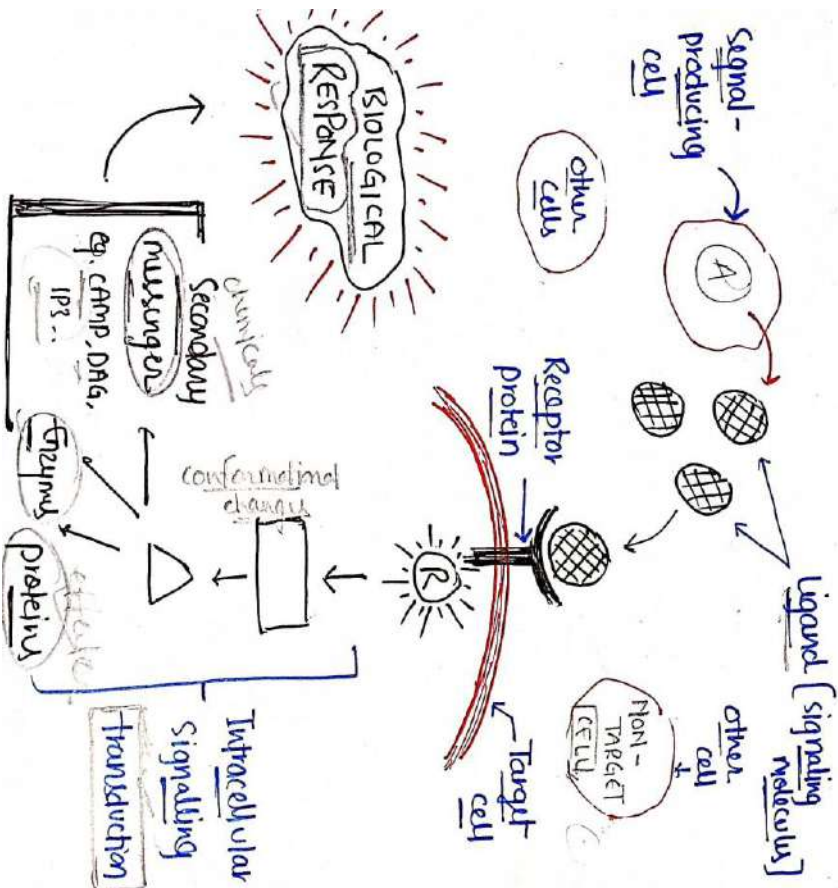
cell communication is of two types:-

- i) Intercellular signalling [extracellular] → It refers to the communication between the cells.

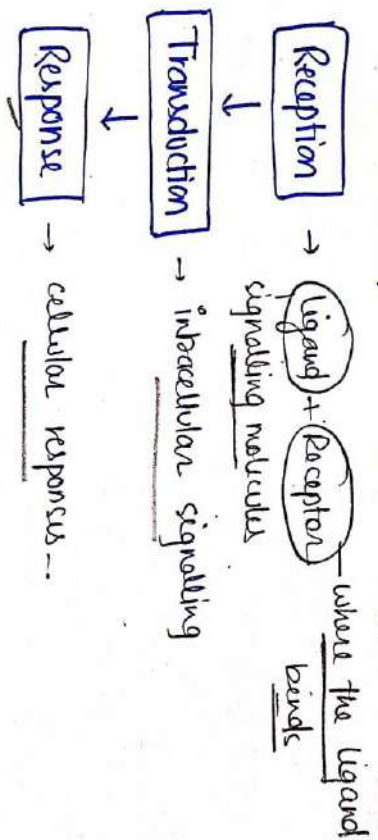
- ii) Intracellular signalling → It refers to the Pathway which involves various chain



- Intracellular signalling primarily uses external signal in the form of messenger or hormones
- these signal are produced by 'signal-producing cells' and recognised by 'target cells' (receptors).
- these signals then transduced into an intracellular signalling chain.



- It is completed in three steps:-



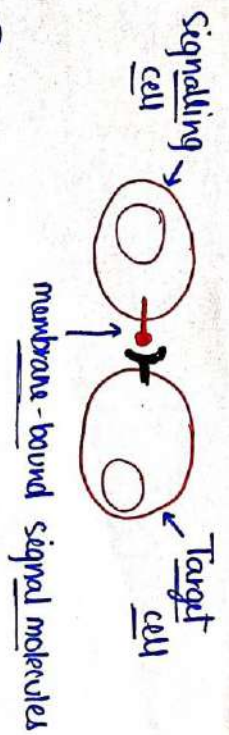
• forms of Intracellular Signalling

these are of following types:-

- a) Contact-dependent
- b) Paracrine
- c) Synaptic
- d) Endocrine
- e) Autocrine signalling

a) Contact-dependent →

In this, one cell is directly in contact with another cell through membrane-membrane contact.



eg b/w immune cells - initiation of immune response

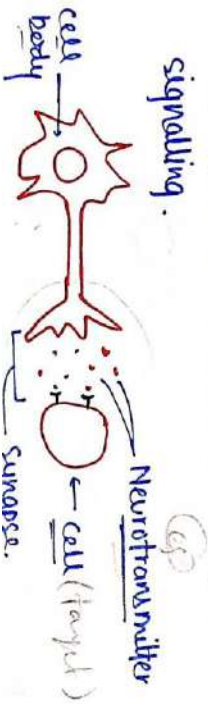
b) Paracrine signalling →

In this, target cell is very close signalling cell and communication occurred b/w nearby cells.



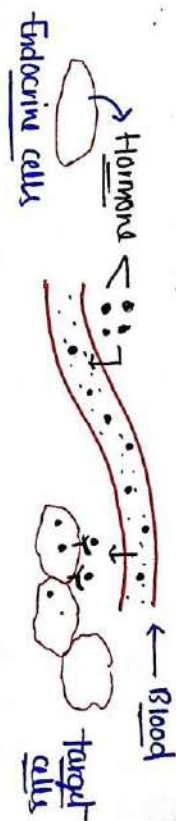
c) Synaptic signalling →

It occurs between neurons and target cells, which is one type of juxtacrine (electrical) and paracrine (chemical) signalling.



d) Endocrine signalling →

In this, signalling molecules i.e. hormones reached into its target cells through blood. eg. estrogen etc..



e) Autocrine signalling →

In this, signalling molecules attached on the receptor of same cell from which signalling molecule was produced

