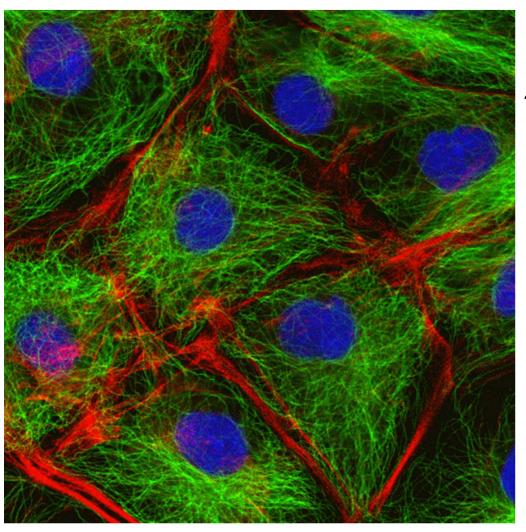


World of the Cell



Chapter 1: A preview of the Cell

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Department of Life Science

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分子與細胞生物學一

Molecular and Cell Biology I

Spring, 2019

<u>教科書(Textbook)</u>: **Becker's World of the Cell** (9th Edition) by Hardin, Bertoni, and Kleinsmith

上課時間 Time: T3T4R4. <u>學分 Credit</u>: 3. <u>教室 Room</u>: LSB || R109.

授課老師(Lecturers):

王歐力(Prof. Oliver Wagner), LSBI R507, 03-574-2487, owagner@life.nthu.edu.tw TA: Odvogmed Bayansan, LSBI R509, 03-571-5131 ext. 33479, odgoob@yahoo.com

Course Schedule (Tuesdays marked bold/ Dr. Oliver Wagner's lecture offered in English):

Feb 19	王歐力	Chapter 1 (& Class Overview/Grading)
Feb 21	王歐力	Chapter 13
Feb 26	王歐力	Chapter 13 / Quiz 1
Feb 28	王歐力	NO CLASS: Memorial Day
Mar 05	王歐力	Chapter 14 / Quiz 2
Mar 07	王歐力	Chapter 14
Mar 12	王歐力	Chapter 15 / Quiz 3
Mar 14	王歐力	Chapter 15
Mar 19	王歐力	Chapter Appendix / Quiz 4
Mar 21	王歐力	Chapter Appendix
Mar 26	王歐力	NO CLASS: Class Review and Exam Preparation
Mar 28	王歐力	FIRST EXAM

成績評量 (Grading) 王歐力授課部分 (Lecture held by Prof. Wagner):

60% first exam, 40% quizzes

Language for exam and quizzes: English ONLY

FOR CLASS INQUIRIES PLEASE EMAIL TO THE RESPECTIVE TA. PLEASE AVOID EMAILING TO THE PROFESSORS FOR GENERAL QUESTIONS. THANKS.

Syllabus overview (Wagner part)

New text book: Artwork in this lecture only updated if important additional *content*!

TA: odgoob@yahoo.com

Tuesdays

10:10-11:00

11:10-12:00

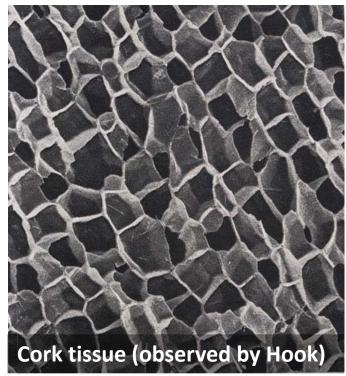
Thursdays

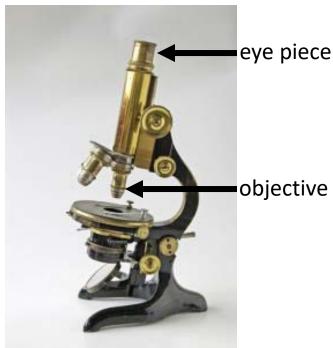
11:10-12:00

Quiz is 10 min

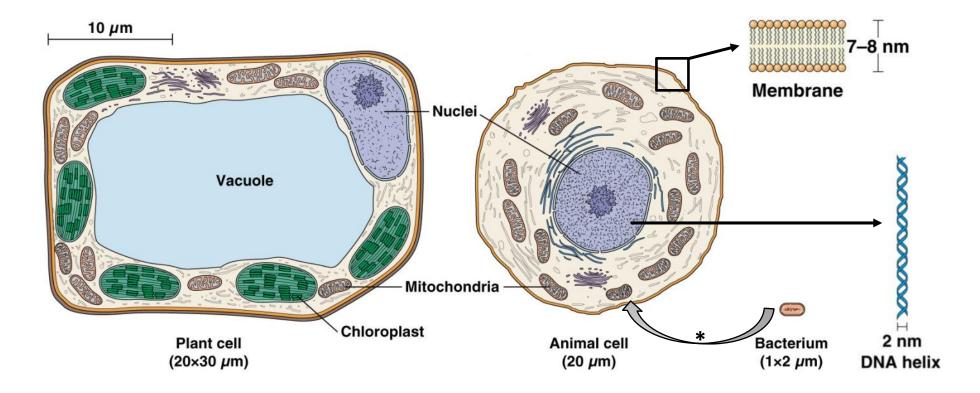
The Cell Theory: A Brief History

- The cell is the <u>basic unit of biology</u>: every <u>organism</u> <u>consists of cells</u> (e.g., <u>eukaryotes</u>) or <u>is a cell itself</u> (e.g., <u>prokaryotes</u>)
- The <u>knowledge</u> of the structure and function of cells has <u>increased dramatically</u> in the past decades
- But <u>how do we know what we know</u>? => Cell Theory ("hypothesis driven research")
- How does everything started? => With the microscope
- Robert Hooke 1665 examined plant tissue and found that the tissue consist of several small compartments = cells (cellula = "<u>little room</u>") (cork: 軟木)
- Antonie van Leeuwenhoek (late 1600s) developed a microscope with a much higher resolution (300x)
- He <u>observed for the first time</u> living cells (blood cells, sperm, bacteria, algae)
- Only <u>much later</u> in the 1830s the <u>resolution</u> ("ability to see fine details") of microscopes <u>was largely improved</u>:
 compound microscopes = one lens (eyepiece) magnifies the image created by a second lens (objective)
- Now structures around 1 micrometer (1 μm) can be seen
- But what is a micrometer?





What is a micrometer? What is a nanometer?



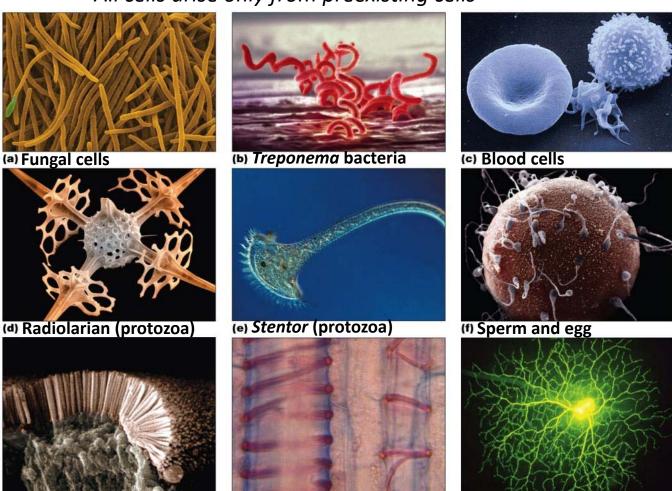
- The size of many cells and organelles (mitochondria, nucleus and chloroplasts) is in the micrometer range (10-6 m). Bacteria are of similar size as mitochondria (*"endosymbiotic theory": bacteria merged with cells and became mitochondria).
- Structures in the size of <u>few nanometers</u> are <u>not possible to be seen by light</u> <u>microscopes</u> due to the **limitations by the wavelength of light** (around 200 nm)
- One nanometer 10⁻⁹ m. One angstrom (Å) = 0.1 nm.

Cell theory postulated by Schwann and Virchow (around 1850)

Theodor Schwann 1839:

(g) Intestinal cells

- "All organisms consist of one or more cells"
- "The cell is the basic unit of structure for all organisms"
- Rudolf Virchow 1855 (observed cell divisions):
 - "All cells arise only from preexisting cells"



(h) Plant xylem cells

(i) Nerve cell (neuron)

- The diversity of cell form and function is huge
- In many cases
 specialized cell
 shape is also
 related to
 specialized
 function of the cell:
 "microvilli" in
 intestinal cells
 (surface
 enlargement)
 neuron "processes"
 (for networking)

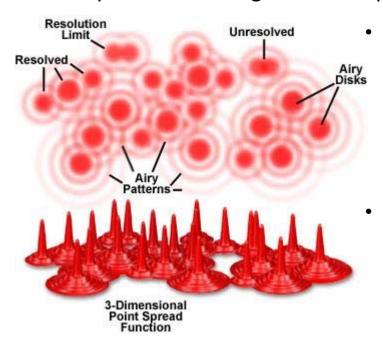
Cell Biology emerged from three different disciplines in the mid 1950s

- Cell Biology is a rather modern discipline. It is based on the <u>emergence of three</u> <u>different</u> biological <u>majors</u>: Cytology, Biochemistry and Genetics
 - Cytology is the oldest discipline back to the early 1600s. "Cyto" is from the Greek language and means "hollow vessel" (or cell). Mostly based on observations of cell structures ("descriptive science") employing optical techniques.
 - Biochemistry with its roots in the early 1800s. Investigates the function of cell structures. <u>Techniques</u>: Ultracentrifugation, electrophoresis, chromatography, mass spectrometry ("separating and identifying cellular components").
 - **Genetics** emerged in the late 1800s. **Gregor Mendel** (1860) established fundamental laws of genetics. **Watson and Crick** (1950) uncovered the double helix structure of DNA. Later, cloning of mammals and sequencing of human genome.
- Thus, modern cell biologists must acquire basic knowledge of all three strands as well as
 of the basic principles of chemistry and physics but also computer science and
 engineering.

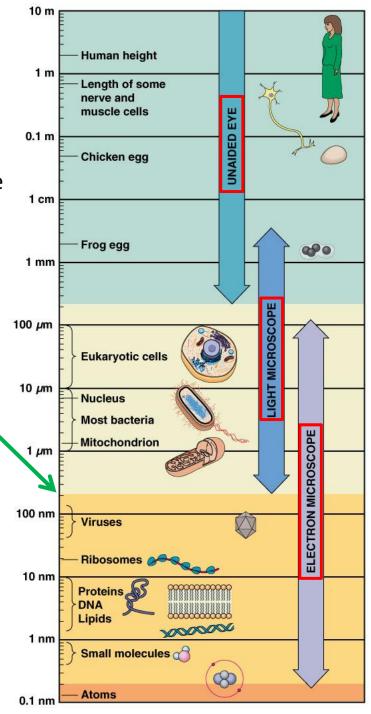
CELL BIOLOGY Cell Biology emerged Nanotechnology allows rapid sequencing of 2010 Advanced light microscopes begin to entire genomes to become routine surpass the theoretical limit of resolution from three different Quantum dots used to improve fluorescent imaging Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) disciplines in the mid microscopy used to study molecular interactions Yeast two-hybrid systems used to analyze protein-protein interactions Bioinformatics developed to analyze sequence data Mass spectrometry used to study proteomes 1950s: Human genome sequenced Stereoelectron microscopy used for three-dimensional imaging 2000 Green fluorescent protein used to detect Dolly the sheep cloned functional proteins in living cells Cytology, Biochemistry First transgenic animals produced Allen and Inoué perfect video-enhanced contrast light microscopy DNA sequencing methods developed Heuser, Reese, and colleagues develop and Genetics 1975 deep-etching technique Berg, Boyer, and Cohen develop **DNA** cloning techniques Genetic code elucidated Palade, Sjøstrand, and Porter develop Kornberg discovers DNA polymerase techniques for electron microscopy Watson and Crick propose double helix for DNA Hershey and Chase establish DNA as the genetic material Avery, MacLeod, and McCarty show DNA Claude isolates first mitochondrial fractions to be the agent of genetic transformation Birth of cell biology Krebs elucidates the TCA cycle Invention of the electron microscope by Knoll and Ruska Svedberg develops the ultracentrifuge Levene postulates DNA as a repeating Embden and Meyerhof describe 1925 tetranucleotide structure the glycolytic pathway Morgan and colleagues develop genetics of Drosophila Feulgen develops stain for DNA 1900 Rediscovery of Mendel's laws by Chromosomal **Buchner and Buchner** Correns, von Tschermak, and de Vries Golgi theory of heredity demonstrate fermentation complex is formulated with cell extracts described Roux and Weissman Chromosomes carry genetic information 1875 Invention of Miescher discovers DNA Flemming identifies the microtome chromosomes Mendel formulates his Pasteur links Development of fundamental laws of genetics living organisms to dyes and stains GENETICS specific processes Kölliker describes Virchow: Every cell 1850 mitochondria comes from a cell in muscle cells Schleiden and Schwann formulate cell theory Wöhler synthesizes 1825 **Brown describes** urea in the laboratory nuclei **BIOCHEMISTRY** Van Leeuwenhoek improves lenses Hooke describes cells in cork slices 1600 CYTOLOGY

Going into details: The cytology branch

- Cytology is the study of cells. In <u>earlier times</u> is was restricted to the observation of cell structures by using <u>limited optical techniques</u>.
- Mid 1800s: light microscopy (can visualize <u>organelles</u> in the <u>micrometer range</u>), dyes and stains (to visualize <u>specific organelles and structures</u>) and <u>microtome</u> (thin slices of cells embedded in resin => <u>histology</u> = <u>tissue analysis</u>)
- **Limit of resolution** of a microscope = "how far apart adjacent objects must be in order to be distinguished as separate units". Light microscope: 200 nm



Randomly
distributed point
light sources of a
specimen appear
as "airy disks"
(light diffraction
patterns around)
Some of these
single point light
sources are well
resolved and
some not.

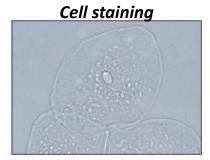


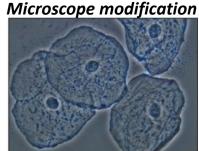
The diverse microscope techniques



- The greater the resolving power of a microscope the smaller the limit of resolution.
- Resolving power can be <u>increased by</u> several modifications of the microscopes and by using different <u>specimen preparation techniques</u>
- Specimen preparation (chemical fixation for example), however, can lead to artifacts (a structure caused by preparation but not a legitimate/"real" cellular structure)

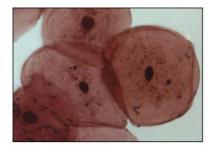
Brightfield (unstained specimen): Passes light directly through specimen; unless cell is naturally pigmented or artificially stained, image has little contrast.

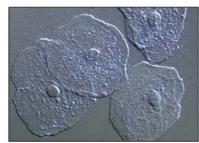




Phase contrast: Enhances contrast in unstained cells by amplifying variations in refractive index within specimen; especially useful for examining living, unpigmented cells.

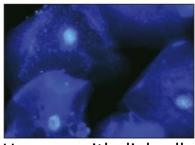
Brightfield (stained specimen):
Staining with various dyes enhances contrast, but most staining procedures require that cells be fixed (preserved).



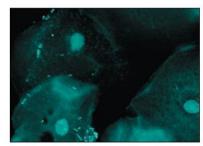


Differential interference contrast: Also uses optical modifications to exaggerate differences in refractive index.

Fluorescence: Shows the locations of specific molecules in the cell. Fluorescent substances absorb ultraviolet radiation and emit visible light. The fluorescing molecules may occur naturally in the specimen but more often are made by tagging the molecules of interest with fluorescent dyes or antibodies.

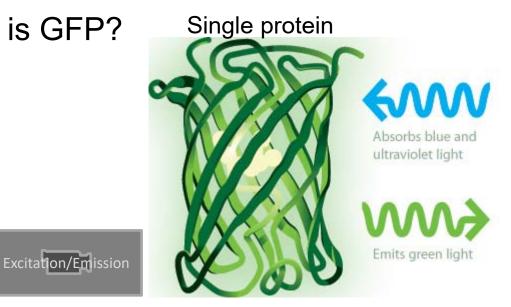


Human epithelial cells



Confocal: Uses lasers and special optics to focus illuminating beam on a single plane within the specimen. Only those regions within a narrow depth of focus are imaged. Regions above and below the selected plane of view appear black rather than blurry.

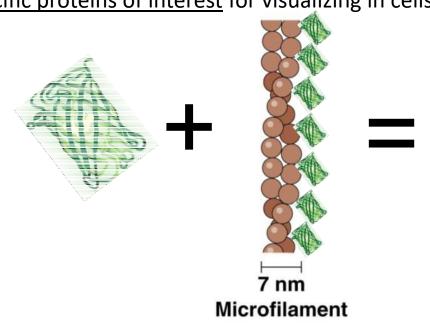
What is GFP?

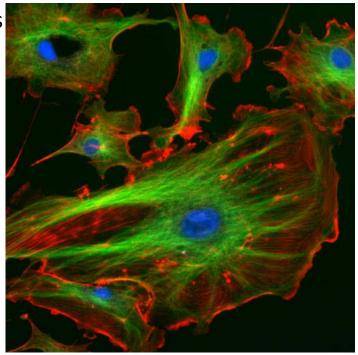


Green fluorescent protein isolated from jellyfish Aequorea victoria



Engineering genes that express GFP fused to specific proteins of interest for visualizing in cells







The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2008

"for the discovery and development of the green fluorescent protein, GFP"

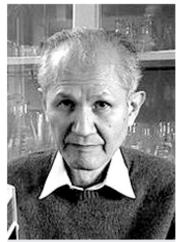


Photo: J. Henriksson/SCANPIX

Osamu Shimomura

O 1/3 of the prize

USA

Marine Biological Laboratory (MBL) Woods Hole, MA, USA

b. 1928



Photo: J. Henriksson/SCANPIX

Martin Chalfie

O 1/3 of the prize

USA

Columbia University New York, NY, USA

b. 1947



Photo: UCSD

Roger Y. Tsien

 \bigcirc 1/3 of the prize

USA

University of California San Diego, CA, USA

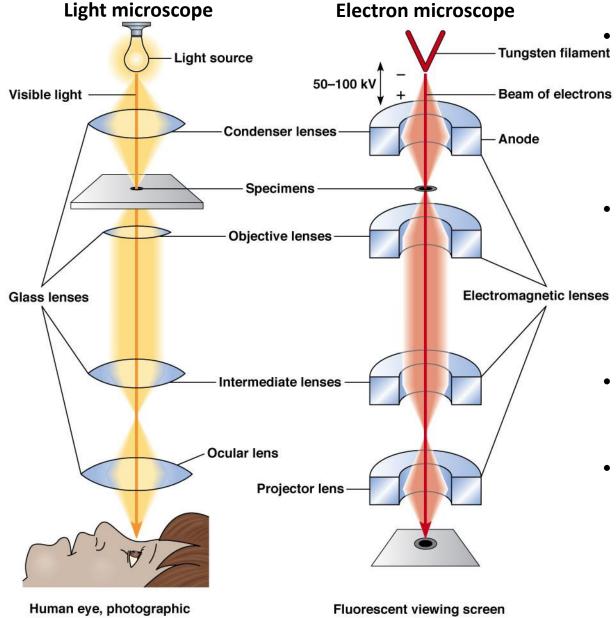
b. 1952







Breaking the micrometer resolution limit: The Electron Microscope



or photographic film

film, or electronic detector

(digital video camera)

- Invented 1931 by Germans
 Max Knoll and Ernst Ruska:
 visible light is replaced by
 electron beam and optical
 lenses are replaced by
 electromagnetic lenses
- Wavelength of electrons is much shorter than wavelength of visible light.
 Thus, resolving power is very high with spatial resolution of **0.1 0.2 nm** (1-2 Å)
- Magnification up to 100,000X (compare to light microscope: 1000-1500X)
- Requires demanding specimen preparation as embedding, fixing, dehydrating and ultra-thin slicing of cells or tissues

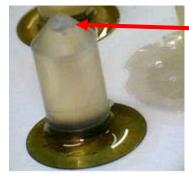
Electron microscopy requires delicate specimen preparation



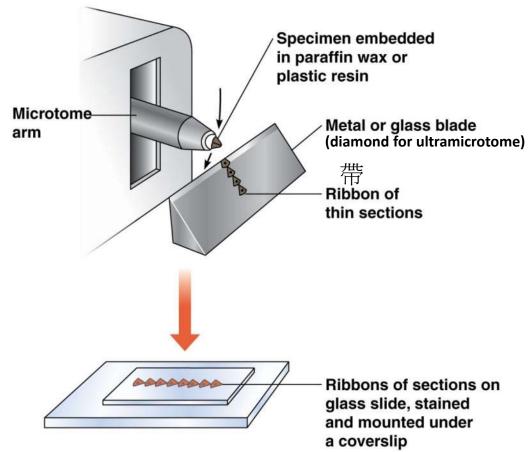
(a) Ultramicrotome



(b) Microtome arm of ultramicrotome

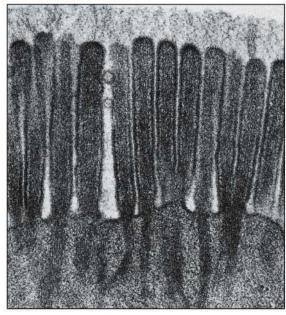


Cells **chemically fixed** (formaldehyde cross-links proteins) and **embedded** in **resin** (樹脂)

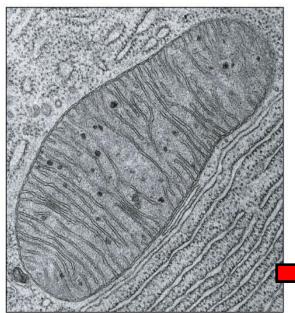


Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM)





Intestinal cell with microvilli (increase surface for resorption of metabolites from the intestinal fluid)



Mitochondria with cristae (membrane invaginations to increase surface for embedded ATP generating enzymes)



Scanning electron microscope (SEM): Providing depth of an TEM image

The principle of an SEM is similar to an TEM, however, it includes a **scan generator** for scanning on surfaces providing images with "**3D properties**"

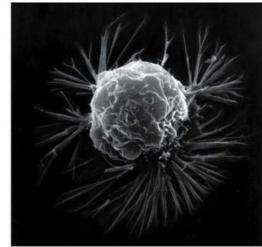
TEM (endoplasmic reticulum)



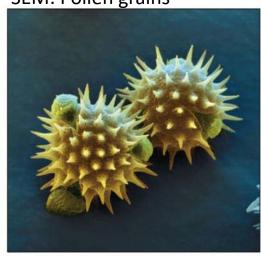
SEM (endoplasmic reticulum)

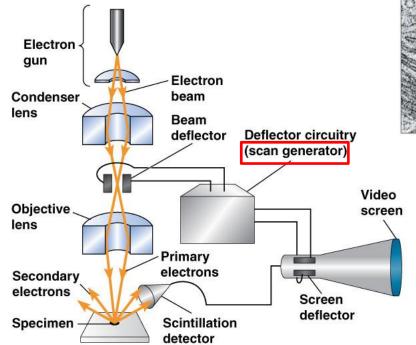


SEM: Human cancer cell



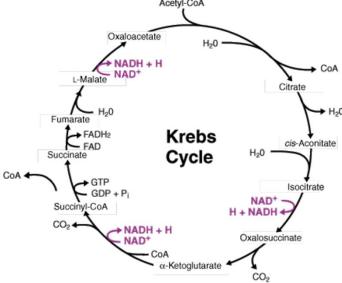
SEM: Pollen grains





Going into details: The **biochemistry** branch

- Biochemistry <u>developed almost parallel to Cytology</u>
- In 1828 German chemist Friedrich Wöhler has shown that an organic ("vital") compound (urea) can be made from an inorganic ("dead") compound (ammonium cyanide): Before it was thought that organic compounds can only be made by "living things" (as cells). The strict distinction between the living and non-living world ("vitalists") was then lifted
- In 1870s French chemist Louis Pasteur has shown that yeast can ferment sugar into
 alcohol and in 1897 German scientists Eduard and Hans Buchner have shown that specific
 compounds (enzymes) are responsible for this process.
- In the 1920/30s German biochemists Gustav Embden, Otto Meyerhof, Otto Warburg and Hans Krebs have resolved the pathways of glycolysis and aerobic respiration (Krebs) cycle
- At the same time American biochemists Fritz Lipmann has uncovered the function of ATP
- In the 1940/50s the **radioisotope method** (e.g., ¹⁴C) was used by American chemist **Melvin Calvin** to trace single molecules and atoms in complicated pathways as the **Calvin cycle**(carbon metabolism in plant cells)
- The development of ultracentrifugation technique by Swedish chemist Theodor Svedberg contributed enormously to the <u>isolation of subcellular fractions</u> (nucleus, ribosomes, mitochondria, membranes)
- **Chromatography** separates molecules by their sizes and charges. **Electrophoresis** separates DNA and proteins.
- Mass spectrometry analyses a protein's size and amino acid compositions (important for the *proteomics* field)

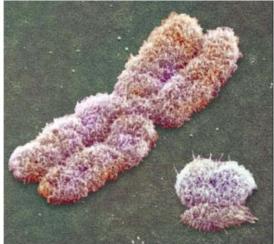


Going into details: The genetics branch

- In the 1860s Austrian Georg Mendel laid the foundation for genetics by his discovery of "hereditary factors" (now known as genes) when hybridizing pea plants
- In 1890 German Walther Flemming and Wilhelm Roux identified chromosomes during cell mitosis. Chromosomes were linked to the theory of heredity much later in the 1900.
- In 1869 Swiss biologist Friedrich Miescher discovered **DNA** as the <u>chemical compound of</u> <u>inheritance</u> but it was not clear how this "monotonous structure" could replicate.
- In 1953 James Watson and Francis Crick proposed their model of the DNA double helix.
- In the late 1960s the **genetic code** was unraveled (<u>relation</u> of the <u>order of nucleotides</u> in DNA/RNA to the <u>order of amino acid</u> composition in proteins).
- The discovery of restriction enzymes (that cleave/split DNA at defined positions) and polymerases (that synthesize DNA/RNA strands from nucleotides) lead to recombinant DNA technology and gene cloning

Mendel's peas (9:3:3:1 ratio) X and Y Chromosome

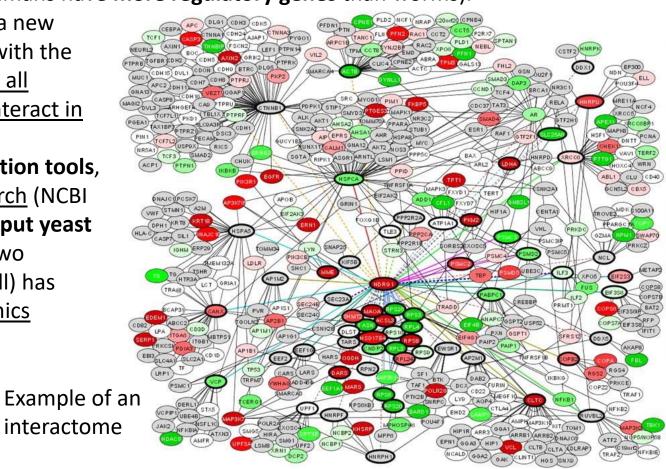






Going into details: The genetics branch

- **DNA sequencing** and **bioinformatics** allowed for the sequencing of **whole genomes** (total DNA content of a cell)
- 1998 whole genome of an animal (nematode worm C. elegans) was sequenced
- 2003 whole human genome was sequenced. Surprise: the number of protein coding genes in humans is almost similar to that of the worm (around 25,000), though the human genome contains about 3.2 billion bases and the worm only 100 million bases (it is thus assumed that humans have more regulatory genes than worms).
- Genomics then lead to a new challenge: Proteomics with the goal to <u>understand how all</u> <u>proteins function and interact in</u> <u>the cell</u> (interactome)
- Computer-based prediction tools, advanced literature search (NCBI PubMed), high-throughput yeast two-hybrid (detects if two proteins interact in a cell) has helped to <u>push proteomics</u> forward



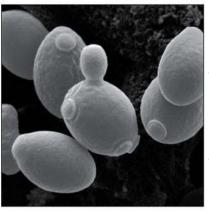
(a) E. coli



(c) Drosophila



(e) Mus musculus



(b) S. cerevisiae



(d) C. elegans



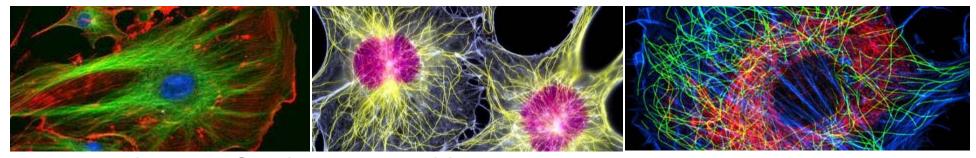
(f) Arabidopsis

From single cells to whole animal study

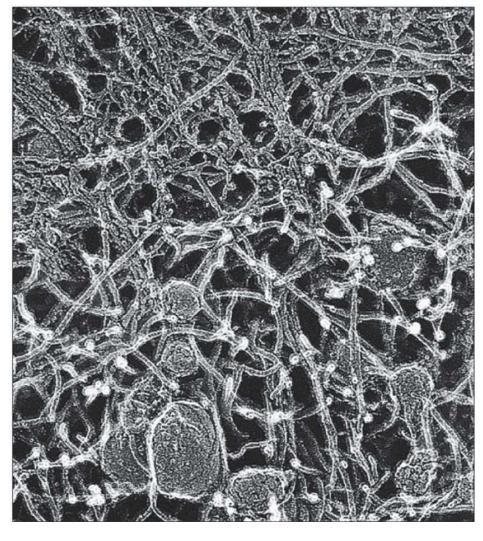
- To fully understand how cells work, we need to study cells in their natural context (tissues, organs or whole animals)
- Model organisms <u>ideally</u> have their <u>whole</u> <u>genome sequenced</u> and have a **fast reproduction** (life) **cycle** that makes crossing (breeding/hybridization) and mutagenesis easier
- In **mutagenesis** a mutagen (for example chemical) is used to <u>randomly introduce</u> <u>mutations in the genome</u>. **Screening** for new phenotypes (how the animals looks and behaves) leads to <u>conclusions about the function of the affected gene</u> (**forward genetics**)
- Much from what we now know about (e.g.):
 - DNA synthesis has come from E. coli
 - Cell cycle has come from S. cerevisia
 - Homeotic genes (control the development of body parts) comes from *Drosophila* (Nobel prize 1995)
 - Apoptosis (Nobel prize 2002), RNAi (Nobel prize 2006) and GFP expression (Nobel prize 2008) comes from C. elegans

The scientific method: How do we know what we know?

- So called <u>facts evolve from a theory</u>, however, <u>facts</u> do not always reflect the truth and <u>might be proven wrong in the future</u>
- With increasing knowledge, facts might be <u>recognized as **previous misconceptions**</u>, thus <u>altered and modified by **newer theories**</u>
- A fact is simply an <u>attempt to state **our best understanding**</u> of, e.g., a cellular context
- A fact is valid only until it is revised or replaced by a better understanding based on more careful observations or sharper experiments
- New (and better) information becomes available with the scientific method:
 - After making observations and assessing prior studies a hypothesis is stated
 - This hypothesis (or tentative model) is then tested by a series of experiments
 - Control experiments are designed to exclude false explanations of the experiment
 - After <u>data collection</u>, <u>statistical analysis</u>, <u>interpretation</u> of the data and <u>comparing</u> <u>previous studies</u>, the **hypothesis is either accepted or rejected**
- Experiments using <u>purified chemicals</u>, <u>proteins</u> or <u>cellular components</u> are called *in vitro* (in the "glass"; in the test tube)
- Experiments using <u>live cells</u> or model organism are called *in vivo* ("in life")
- <u>Computer-based</u> experiments (e.g., simulations) are named *in silico* ("silicon" in chips)
- A **theory** is usually **stronger than a hypothesis** and evolves from <u>many rounds of</u> <u>critically testing a hypothesis</u> or a model (ideally by many different research groups)
- A law is even stronger than a theory but can be very seldom found in cell biology, based on the complex characters of cells. (Mendel's law of heredity is an example though.)



World of the Cell



The end of chapter 1!

Thank you!