CHAPTER 6

ANATOMY OF FLOWERING PLANTS

You can very easily see the structural similarities and variations in the external morphology of the larger living organism, both plants and animals. Similarly, if we were to study the internal structure, one also finds several similarities as well as differences. This chapter introduces you to the internal structure and functional organisation of higher plants. Study of internal structure of plants is called anatomy. Plants have cells as the basic unit, cells are organised into tissues and in turn the tissues are organised into organs. Different organs in a plant show differences in their internal structure. Within angiosperms, the monocots and dicots are also seen to be anatomically different. Internal structures also show adaptations to diverse environments.

6.1 THE TISSUES

A tissue is a group of cells having a common origin and usually performing a common function. A plant is made up of different kinds of tissues. Tissues are classified into two main groups, namely, meristematic and permanent tissues based on whether the cells being formed are capable of dividing or not.

6.1.1 Meristematic Tissues

Growth in plants is largely restricted to specialised regions of active cell division called **meristems** (*Gk. meristos*: divided). Plants have different kinds of meristems. The meristems which occur at the tips of roots and shoots and produce primary tissues are called **apical meristems** (Figure 6.1).
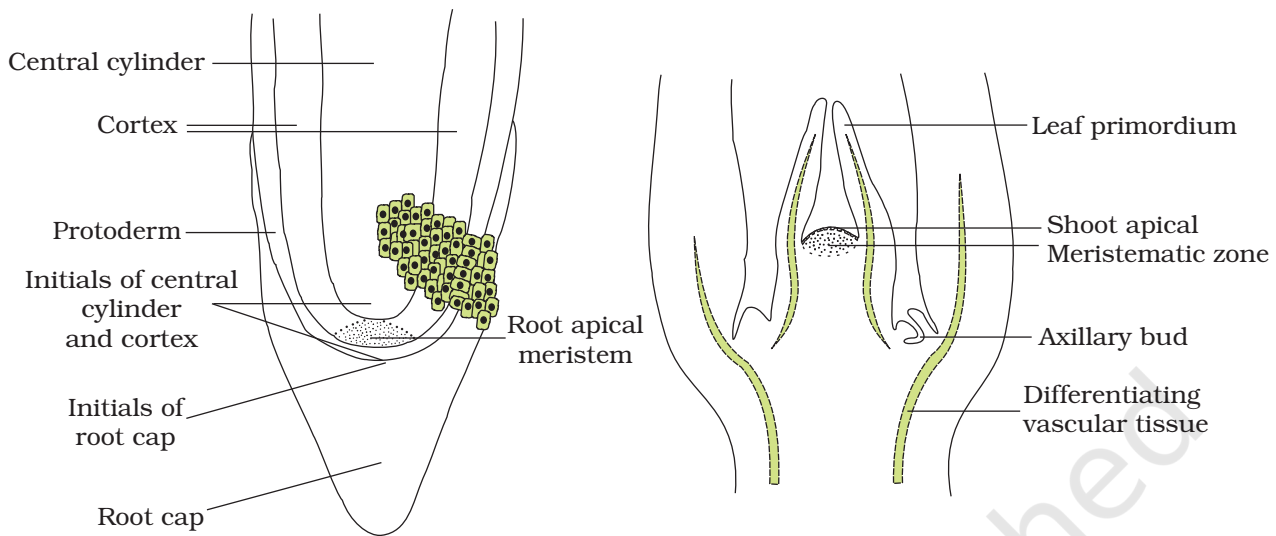
Figure 6.1 Apical meristem: (a) Root (b) Shoot

Root apical meristem occupies the tip of a root while the shoot apical meristem occupies the distant most region of the stem axis. During the formation of leaves and elongation of stem, some cells 'left behind' from shoot apical meristem, constitute the **axillary bud**. Such buds are present in the axils of leaves and are capable of forming a branch or a flower. The meristem which occurs between mature tissues is known as **intercalary meristem**. They occur in grasses and regenerate parts removed by the grazing herbivores. Both apical meristems and intercalary meristems are **primary meristems** because they appear early in life of a plant and contribute to the formation of the primary plant body.

The meristem that occurs in the mature regions of roots and shoots of many plants, particularly those that produce woody axis and appear later than primary meristem is called the **secondary** or **lateral meristem.** They are cylindrical meristems. Fascicular vascular cambium, interfascicular cambium and cork-cambium are examples of lateral meristems. These are responsible for producing the secondary tissues.

Following divisions of cells in both primary and as well as secondary meristems, the newly formed cells become structurally and functionally specialised and lose the ability to divide. Such cells are termed **permanent** or **mature cells** and constitute the permanent tissues. During the formation of the primary plant body, specific regions of the apical meristem produce dermal tissues, ground tissues and vascular tissues.
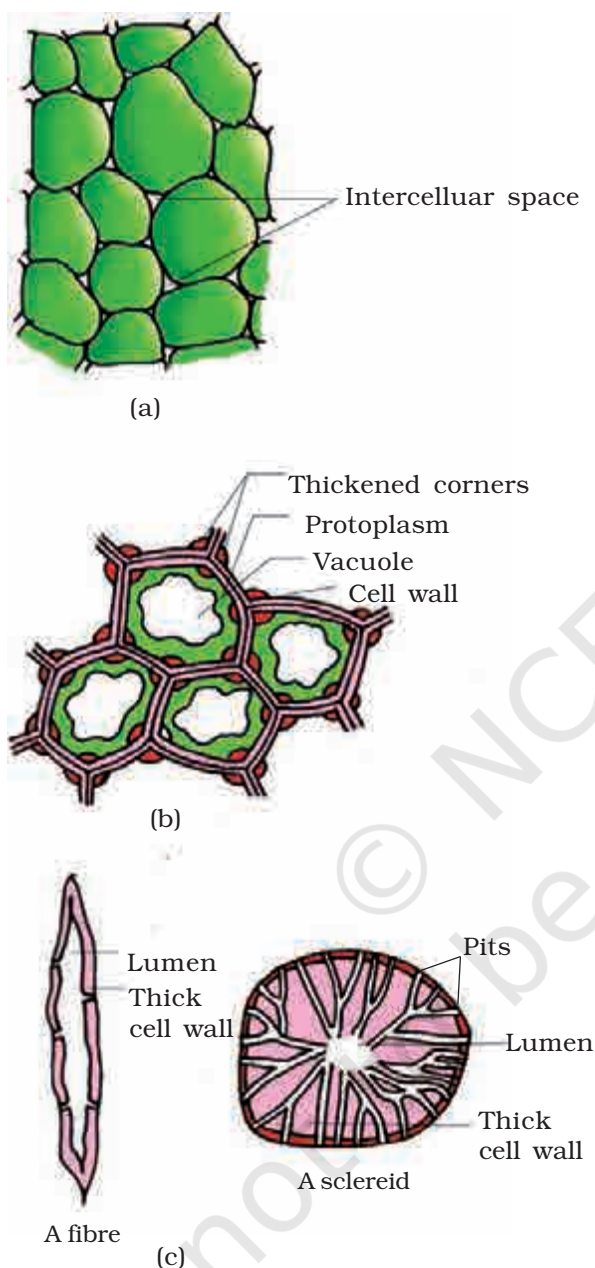
(a)

Intercelluar space

Thickened corners
Protoplasm
Vacuole
Cell wall

(b)

Lumen
Thick
cell wall

Pits

Lumen

Thick
cell wall

A sclereid

A fibre

(c)

Figure 6.2 Simple tissues :
(a) Parenchyma
(b) Collenchyma
(c) Sclerenchyma

6.1.2 Permanent Tissues

The cells of the permanent tissues do not generally divide further. Permanent tissues having all cells similar in structure and function are called **simple tissues**. Permanent tissues having many different types of cells are called **complex tissues**.

6.1.2.1 Simple Tissues

A simple tissue is made of only one type of cells. The various simple tissues in plants are parenchyma, collenchyma and sclerenchyma (Figure 6.2). **Parenchyma** forms the major component within organs. The cells of the parenchyma are generally isodiametric. They may be spherical, oval, round, polygonal or elongated in shape. Their walls are thin and made up of cellulose. They may either be closely packed or have small intercellular spaces. The parenchyma performs various functions like photosynthesis, storage, secretion.

The **collenchyma** occurs in layers below the epidermis in most of the dicotyledonous plants. It is found either as a homogeneous layer or in patches. It consists of cells which are much thickened at the corners due to a deposition of cellulose, hemicellulose and pectin. Collenchymatous cells may be oval, spherical or polygonal and often contain chloroplasts. These cells assimilate food when they contain chloroplasts. Intercellular spaces are absent. They provide mechanical support to the growing parts of the plant such as young stem and petiole of a leaf.

Sclerenchyma consists of long, narrow cells with thick and lignified cell walls having a few or numerous pits. They are usually dead and without protoplasts. On the basis of variation in form, structure, origin and development, sclerenchyma may be either fibres or sclereids. The **fibres** are thick-walled, elongated and pointed cells, generally occuring in groups, in various parts of the plant. The **sclereids** are spherical, oval or cylindrical, highly thickened dead cells with very

narrow cavities (lumen). These are commonly found in the fruit walls of nuts; pulp of fruits like guava, pear and sapota; seed coats of legumes and leaves of tea. Sclerenchyma provides mechanical support to organs.

6.1.2.2 Complex Tissues

The complex tissues are made of more than one type of cells and these work together as a unit. Xylem and phloem constitute the complex tissues in plants (Figure 6.3).

Xylem functions as a conducting tissue for water and minerals from roots to the stem and leaves. It also provides mechanical strength to the plant parts. It is composed of four different kinds of elements, namely, tracheids, vessels, xylem fibres and xylem parenchyma. Gymnosperms lack vessels in their xylem. **Tracheids** are elongated or tube like cells with thick and lignified walls and tapering ends. These are dead and are without protoplasm. The inner layers of the cell walls have thickenings which vary in form. In flowering plants, tracheids and vessels are the main water transporting elements. **Vessel** is a long cylindrical tube-like structure made up of many cells called vessel members, each with lignified walls and a large central cavity. The vessel cells are also devoid of protoplasm. Vessel members are interconnected through perforations in their common walls. The presence of vessels is a characteristic feature of angiosperms. **Xylem fibres** have highly thickened walls and obliterated central lumens. These may either be septate or aseptate. **Xylem parenchyma** cells are living and thin-walled, and their cell walls are made up of cellulose. They store food materials in the form of starch or fat, and other substances like tannins. The radial conduction of water takes place by the ray parenchymatous cells.

Primary xylem is of two types – protoxylem and metaxylem. The first formed primary xylem elements are called **protoxylem** and the later formed primary xylem is called **metaxylem.** In stems, the protoxylem lies towards the centre (pith) and the metaxylem lies towards the periphery of the organ. This type of primary xylem is called **endarch**. In roots, the protoxylem lies towards periphery and metaxylem lies towards the centre. Such arrangement of primary xylem is called **exarch.**

Phloem transports food materials, usually from leaves to other parts of the plant. Phloem in angiosperms is composed of sieve tube elements, companion cells, phloem parenchyma
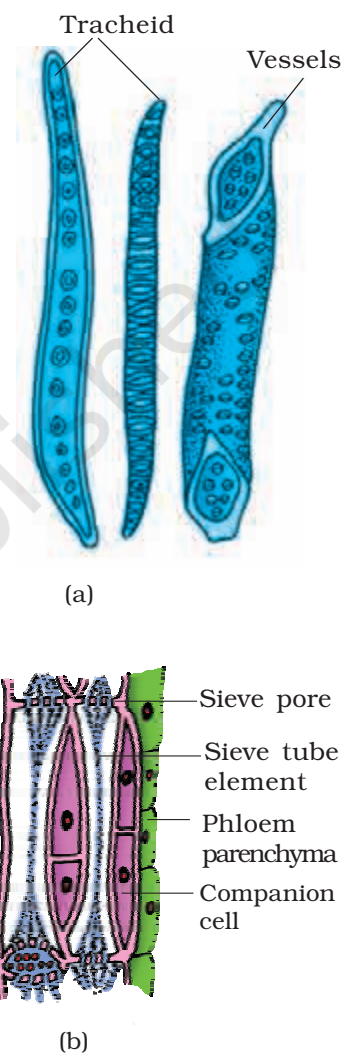

(a)

(b)

Figure 6.3 (a) Xylem
(b) Phloem

and phloem fibres. Gymnosperms have albuminous cells and sieve cells. They lack sieve tubes and companion cells. **Sieve tube elements** are also long, tube-like structures, arranged longitudinally and are associated with the companion cells. Their end walls are perforated in a sieve-like manner to form the sieve plates. A mature sieve element possesses a peripheral cytoplasm and a large vacuole but lacks a nucleus. The functions of sieve tubes are controlled by the nucleus of companion cells. The **companion cells** are specialised parenchymatous cells, which are closely associated with sieve tube elements. The sieve tube elements and companion cells are connected by pit fields present between their common longitudinal walls. The companion cells help in maintaining the pressure gradient in the sieve tubes. **Phloem parenchyma** is made up of elongated, tapering cylindrical cells which have dense cytoplasm and nucleus. The cell wall is composed of cellulose and has pits through which plasmodesmatal connections exist between the cells. The phloem parenchyma stores food material and other substances like resins, latex and mucilage. Phloem parenchyma is absent in most of the monocotyledons. **Phloem fibres** (bast fibres) are made up of sclerenchymatous cells. These are generally absent in the primary phloem but are found in the secondary phloem. These are much elongated, unbranched and have pointed, needle like apices. The cell wall of phloem fibres is quite thick. At maturity, these fibres lose their protoplasm and become dead. Phloem fibres of jute, flax and hemp are used commercially. The first formed primary phloem consists of narrow sieve tubes and is referred to as **protophloem** and the later formed phloem has bigger sieve tubes and is referred to as **metaphloem**.

6.2 THE TISSUE SYSTEM

We were discussing types of tissues based on the types of cells present. Let us now consider how tissues vary depending on their location in the plant body. Their structure and function would also be dependent on location. On the basis of their structure and location, there are three types of tissue systems. These are the epidermal tissue system, the ground or fundamental tissue system and the vascular or conducting tissue system.

6.2.1 Epidermal Tissue System

The epidermal tissue system forms the outer-most covering of the whole plant body and comprises epidermal cells, stomata and the epidermal appendages – the trichomes and hairs. The **epidermis** is the outermost layer of the primary plant body. It is made up of elongated, compactly

arranged cells, which form a continuous layer. Epidermis is usually single-layered. Epidermal cells are parenchymatous with a small amount of cytoplasm lining the cell wall and a large vacuole. The outside of the epidermis is often covered with a waxy thick layer called the **cuticle** which prevents the loss of water. Cuticle is absent in roots. **Stomata** are structures present in the epidermis of leaves. Stomata regulate the process of transpiration and gaseous exchange. Each stoma is composed of two bean-shaped cells known as **guard cells** which enclose stomatal pore. In grasses, the guard cells are dumb-bell shaped. The outer walls of guard cells (away from the stomatal pore) are thin and the inner walls (towards the stomatal pore) are highly thickened. The guard cells possess chloroplasts and regulate the opening and closing of stomata. Sometimes, a few epidermal cells, in the vicinity of the guard cells become specialised in their shape and size and are known as **subsidiary cells**. The stomatal aperture, guard cells and the surrounding subsidiary cells are together called **stomatal apparatus** (Figure 6.4).
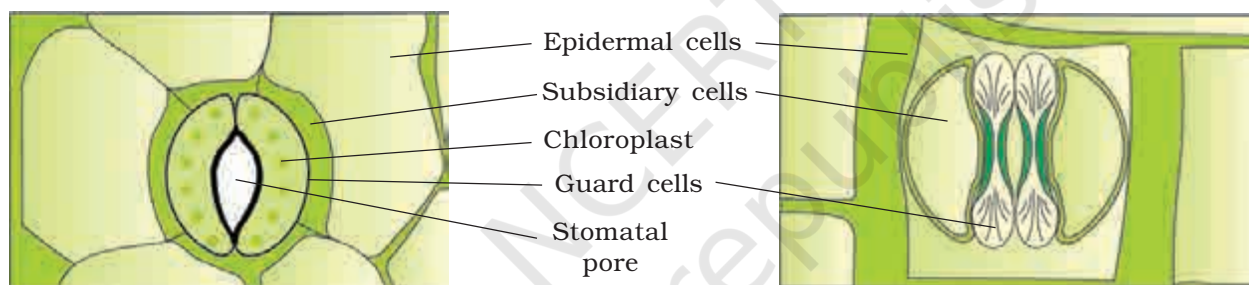

Epidermal cells
Subsidiary cells
Chloroplast
Guard cells
Stomatal pore

Figure 6.4 Diagrammatic representation: (a) stomata with bean-shaped guard cells (b) stomata with dumb-bell shaped guard cell

The cells of epidermis bear a number of hairs. The **root hairs** are unicellular elongations of the epidermal cells and help absorb water and minerals from the soil. On the stem the epidermal hairs are called **trichomes**. The trichomes in the shoot system are usually multicellular. They may be branched or unbranched and soft or stiff. They may even be secretory. The trichomes help in preventing water loss due to transpiration.

6.2.2 The Ground Tissue System

All tissues except epidermis and vascular bundles constitute the **ground tissue**. It consists of simple tissues such as parenchyma, collenchyma and sclerenchyma. Parenchymatous cells are usually present in cortex, pericycle, pith and medullary rays, in the primary stems and roots. In leaves, the ground tissue consists of thin-walled chloroplast containing cells and is called **mesophyll**.
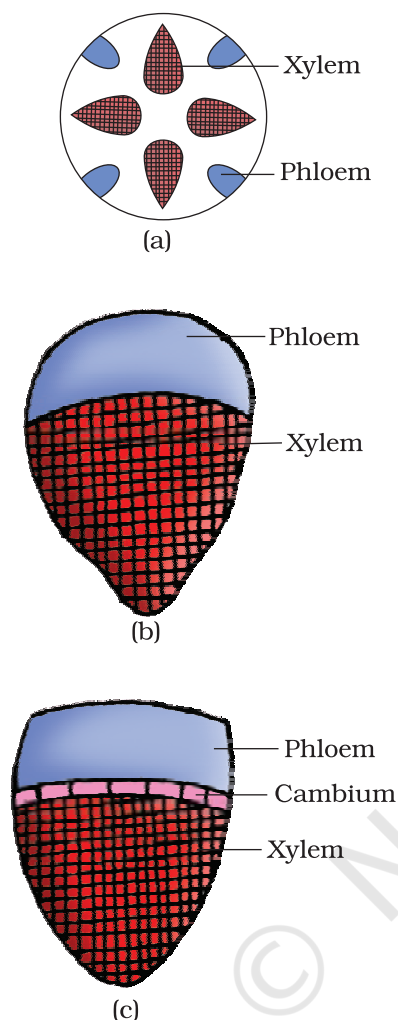
Figure 6.5 Various types of vascular bundles : (a) radial (b) conjoint closed (c) conjoint open

6.2.3 The Vascular Tissue System

The vascular system consists of complex tissues, the phloem and the xylem. The xylem and phloem together constitute vascular bundles (Figure 6.5). In dicotyledonous stems, **cambium** is present between phloem and xylem. Such vascular bundles because of the presence of cambium possess the ability to form secondary xylem and phloem tissues, and hence are called **open vascular bundles**. In the monocotyledons, the vascular bundles have no cambium present in them. Hence, since they do not form secondary tissues they are referred to as **closed**. When xylem and phloem within a vascular bundle are arranged in an alternate manner along the different radii, the arrangement is called **radial** such as in roots. In **conjoint** type of vascular bundles, the xylem and phloem are jointly situated along the same radius of vascular bundles. Such vascular bundles are common in stems and leaves. The conjoint vascular bundles usually have the phloem located only on the outer side of xylem.

6.3 ANATOMY OF DICOTYLEDONOUS AND MONOCOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS

For a better understanding of tissue organisation of roots, stems and leaves, it is convenient to study the transverse sections of the mature zones of these organs.

6.3.1 Dicotyledonous Root

Look at Figure 6.6 (a), it shows the transverse section of the sunflower root. The internal tissue organisation is as follows:

The outermost layer is **epiblema.** Many of the cells of epiblema protrude in the form of unicellular root hairs. The **cortex** consists of several layers of thin-walled parenchyma cells

with intercellular spaces. The innermost layer of the cortex is called **endodermis.** It comprises a single layer of barrel-shaped cells without any intercellular spaces. The tangential as well as radial walls of the endodermal cells have a deposition of water-impermeable, waxy material suberin in the form of **casparian strips**. Next to endodermis lies a few layers of thick-walled parenchyomatous cells referred to as **pericycle**. Initiation of lateral roots and vascular cambium during the secondary growth takes place in these cells. The pith is small or inconspicuous. The parenchymatous cells which lie between the xylem and the phloem are called **conjuctive tissue**. There are usually two to four xylem and phloem patches. Later, a cambium ring develops between the xylem and phloem. All tissues on the innerside of the endodermis such as pericycle, vascular bundles and pith constitute the **stele**.

6.3.2 Monocotyledonous Root

The anatomy of the monocot root is similar to the dicot root in many respects (Figure 6.6 b). It has epidermis, cortex, endodermis, pericycle, vascular bundles and pith. As compared to the dicot root which have fewer xylem bundles, there are usually more than six (polyarch) xylem bundles in the monocot root. Pith is large and well developed. Monocotyledonous roots do not undergo any secondary growth.

6.3.3 Dicotyledonous Stem

The transverse section of a typical young dicotyledonous stem shows that the **epidermis** is the outermost protective layer of the stem
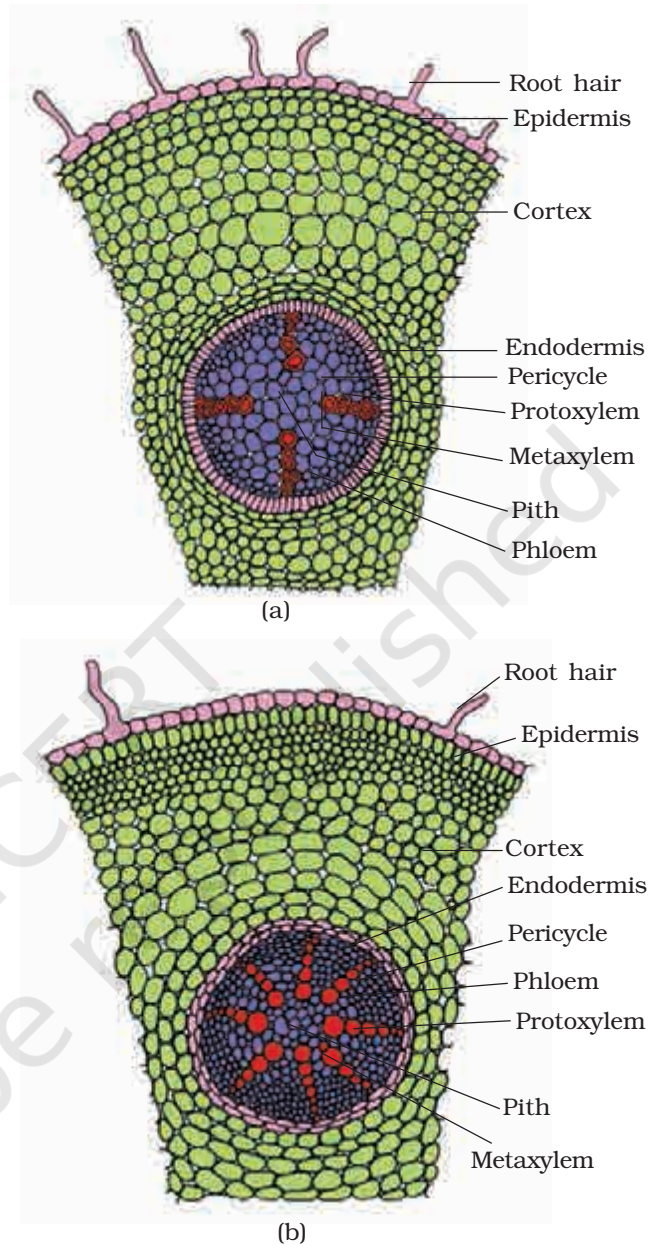

(a)

(b)

Figure 6.6 T.S. : (a) Dicot root (Primary) (b) Monocot root

(Figure 6.7 a). Covered with a thin layer of cuticle, it may bear trichomes and a few stomata. The cells arranged in multiple layers between epidermis and pericycle constitute the cortex. It consists of three sub-zones. The outer **hypodermis**, consists of a few layers of collenchymatous cells just below the epidermis, which provide mechanical strength to the young stem. **Cortical layers** below hypodermis consist of rounded thin walled parenchymatous cells with conspicuous intercellular spaces. The innermost layer of the cortex is called the **endodermis.** The cells of the endodermis are rich in starch grains and the layer is also referred to as the **starch sheath. Pericycle** is
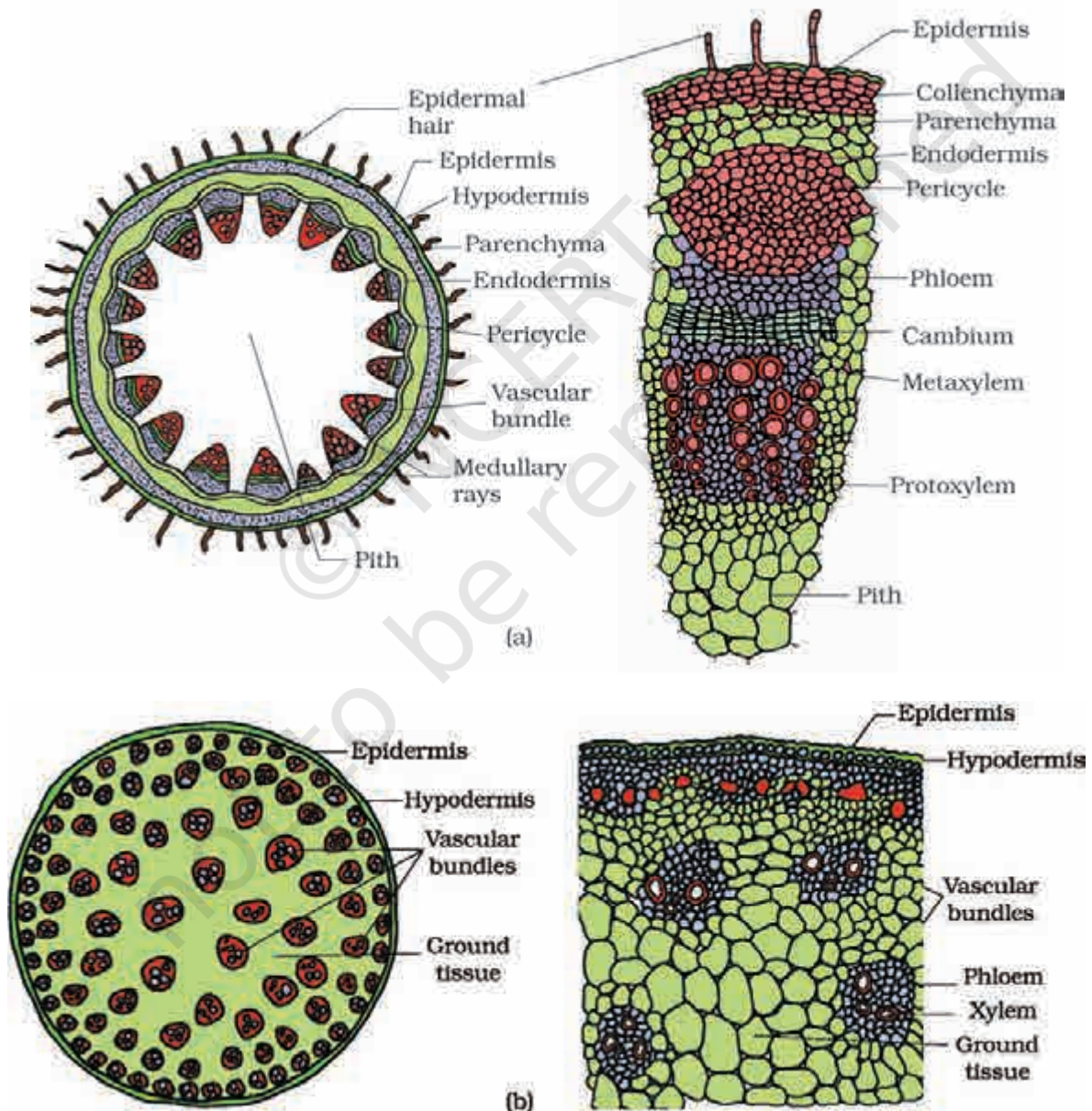

Figure 6.7 T.S. of stem : (a) Dicot (b) Monocot

present on the inner side of the endodermis and above the phloem in the form of semi-lunar patches of sclerenchyma. In between the vascular bundles there are a few layers of radially placed parenchymatous cells, which constitute medullary rays. A large number of **vascular bundles** are arranged in a ring ; the 'ring' arrangement of vascular bundles is a characteristic of dicot stem. Each vascular bundle is conjoint, open, and with endarch protoxylem. A large number of rounded, parenchymatous cells with large intercellular spaces which occupy the central portion of the stem constitute the **pith**.

6.3.4   Monocotyledonous Stem

The monocot stem has a sclerenchymatous hypodermis, a large number of scattered vascular bundles, each surrounded by a sclerenchymatous bundle sheath, and a large, conspicuous parenchymatous ground tissue (Figure 6.7b). Vascular bundles are conjoint and closed. Peripheral vascular bundles are generally smaller than the centrally located ones. The phloem parenchyma is absent, and water-containing cavities are present within the vascular bundles.

6.3.5   Dorsiventral (Dicotyledonous) Leaf

The vertical section of a dorsiventral leaf through the lamina shows three main parts, namely, epidermis, mesophyll and vascular system**.** The **epidermis** which covers both the upper surface (adaxial epidermis) and lower surface (abaxial epidermis) of the leaf has a conspicuous cuticle. The abaxial epidermis generally bears more stomata than the adaxial epidermis. The latter may even lack stomata. The tissue between the upper and the lower epidermis is called the **mesophyll**. Mesophyll, which possesses chloroplasts and carry out photosynthesis, is made up of parenchyma. It has two types of cells – the **palisade parenchyma** and the **spongy parenchyma**. The adaxially placed palisade parenchyma is made up of elongated cells, which are arranged vertically and parallel to each other. The oval or round and loosely arranged spongy parenchyma is situated below the palisade cells and extends to the lower epidermis. There are numerous large spaces and air cavities between these cells. **Vascular system** includes vascular bundles, which can be seen in the veins and the midrib. The size of the vascular bundles are dependent on the size of the veins. The veins vary in thickness in the reticulate venation of the dicot leaves. The vascular bundles are surrounded by a layer of thick walled **bundle sheath cells**. Look at Figure 6.8 (a) and find the position of xylem in the vascular bundle.

6.3.6   Isobilateral (Monocotyledonous) Leaf

The anatomy of isobilateral leaf is similar to that of the dorsiventral leaf in many ways. It shows the following characteristic differences. In an
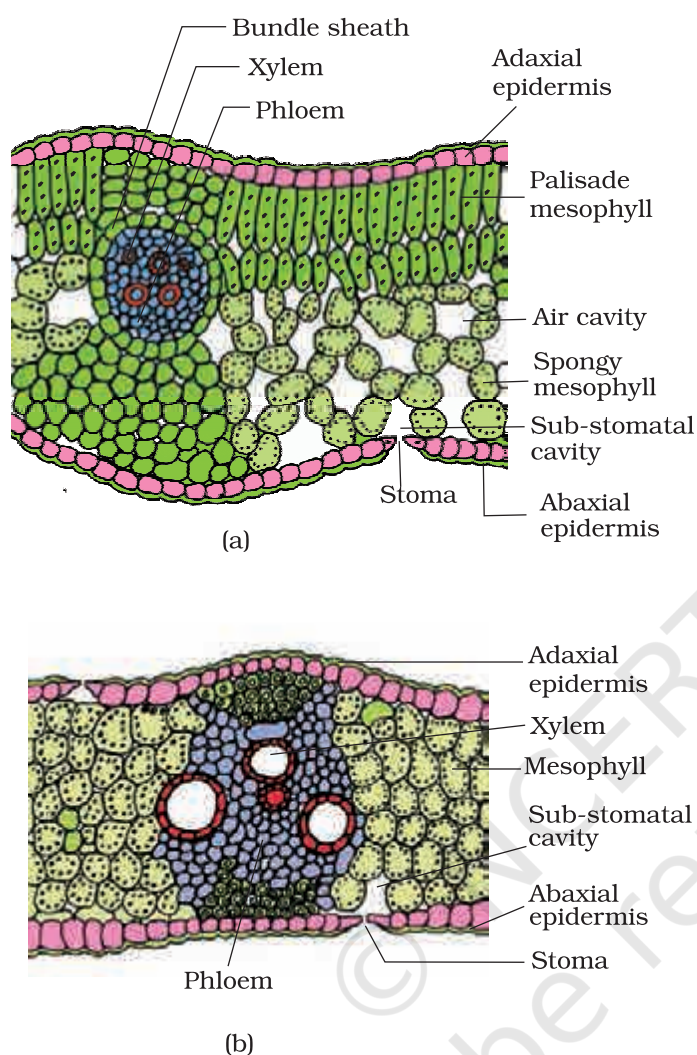
Figure 6.8 T.S. of leaf : (a) Dicot (b) Monocot

isobilateral leaf, the stomata are present on both the surfaces of the epidermis; and the mesophyll is not differentiated into palisade and spongy parenchyma (Figure 6.8 b).

In grasses, certain adaxial epidermal cells along the veins modify themselves into large, empty, colourless cells. These are called **bulliform cells.** When the bulliform cells in the leaves have absorbed water and are turgid, the leaf surface is exposed. When they are flaccid due to water stress, they make the leaves curl inwards to minimise water loss.

The parallel venation in monocot leaves is reflected in the near similar sizes of vascular bundles (except in main veins) as seen in vertical sections of the leaves.

6.4 SECONDARY GROWTH

The growth of the roots and stems in length with the help of apical meristem is called the primary growth. Apart from primary growth most dicotyledonous plants exhibit an increase in girth. This increase is called the **secondary growth**. The tissues involved in secondary growth are the two **lateral meristems: vascular cambium** and **cork cambium**.

6.4.1 Vascular Cambium

The meristematic layer that is responsible for cutting off vascular tissues – xylem and pholem – is called vascular cambium. In the young stem it is present in patches as a single layer between the xylem and phloem. Later it forms a complete ring.

6.4.1.1 Formation of cambial ring

In dicot stems, the cells of cambium present between primary xylem and primary phloem is the **intrafascicular cambium**.

The cells of medullary rays, adjoining these intrafascicular cambium become meristematic and form the **interfascicular cambium**. Thus, a continuous ring of cambium is formed.

6.4.1.2 *Activity of the cambial ring*

The cambial ring becomes active and begins to cut off new cells, both towards the inner and the outer sides. The cells cut off towards pith, mature into **secondary xylem** and the cells cut off towards periphery mature into **secondary phloem**. The cambium is generally more active on the inner side than on the outer. As a result, the amount of secondary xylem produced is more than secondary phloem and soon forms a compact mass. The primary and secondary phloems get gradually crushed due to the continued formation and accumulation of secondary xylem. The primary xylem however remains more or less intact, in or around the centre. At some places, the cambium forms a narrow band of parenchyma, which passes through the secondary xylem and the secondary phloem in the radial directions. These are the **secondary medullary rays** (Figure 6.9).
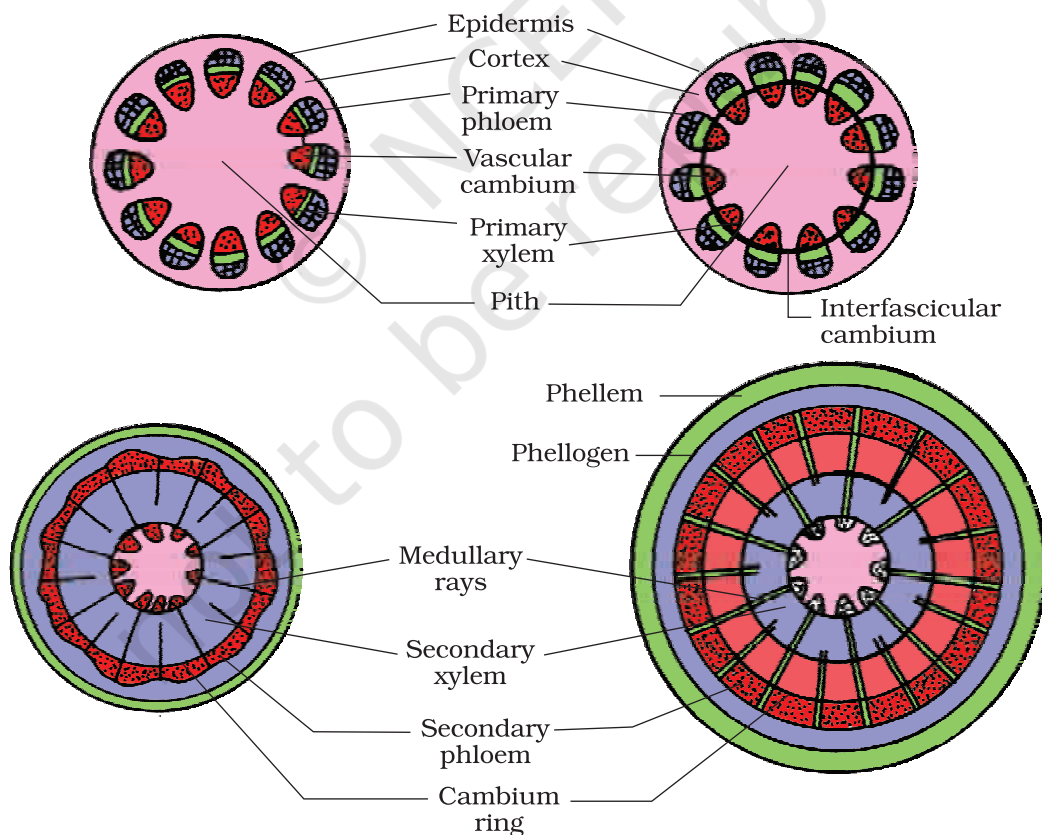
Figure 6.9 Secondary growth in a dicot stem (diagrammatic) – stages in transverse views

6.4.1.3 Spring wood and autumn wood

The activity of cambium is under the control of many physiological and environmental factors. In temperate regions, the climatic conditions are not uniform through the year. In the spring season, cambium is very active and produces a large number of xylary elements having vessels with wider cavities. The wood formed during this season is called **spring wood** or **early wood**. In winter, the cambium is less active and forms fewer xylary elements that have narrow vessels, and this wood is called **autumn wood** or **late wood**.

The spring wood is lighter in colour and has a lower density whereas the autumn wood is darker and has a higher density. The two kinds of woods that appear as alternate concentric rings, constitute an **annual ring**. Annual rings seen in a cut stem give an estimate of the age of the tree.

6.4.1.4 Heartwood and sapwood

In old trees, the greater part of secondary xylem is dark brown due to deposition of organic compounds like tannins, resins, oils, gums, aromatic substances and essential oils in the central or innermost layers of the stem. These substances make it hard, durable and resistant to the attacks of micro-organisms and insects. This region comprises dead elements with highly lignified walls and is called **heartwood.** The heartwood does not conduct water but it gives mechanical support to the stem. The peripheral region of the secondary xylem, is lighter in colour and is known as the **sapwood.** It is involved in the conduction of water and minerals from root to leaf.

6.4.2 Cork Cambium

As the stem continues to increase in girth due to the activity of vascular cambium, the outer cortical and epidermis layers get broken and need to be replaced to provide new protective cell layers. Hence, sooner or later, another meristematic tissue called **cork cambium** or **phellogen** develops, usually in the cortex region. Phellogen is a couple of layers thick. It is made of narrow, thin-walled and nearly rectangular cells. Phellogen cuts off cells on both sides. The outer cells differentiate into **cork** or **phellem** while the inner cells differentiate into **secondary cortex** or **phelloderm.** The cork is impervious to water due to suberin deposition in the cell wall. The cells of secondary cortex are parenchymatous. Phellogen, phellem, and phelloderm are collectively known as **periderm**. Due to activity of the cork cambium, pressure builds up on the remaining layers peripheral

to phellogen and ultimately these layers die and slough off. **Bark** is a non-technical term that refers to all tissues exterior to the vascular cambium, therefore including secondary phloem. Bark refers to a number of tissue types, viz., periderm and secondary phloem. Bark that is formed early in the season is called **early** or **soft** bark. Towards the end of the season, **late** or **hard** bark is formed. *Name the various kinds of cell layers which constitute the bark.*

At certain regions, the phellogen cuts off closely arranged parenchymatous cells on the outer side instead of cork cells. These parenchymatous cells soon rupture the epidermis, forming a lens-shaped openings called lenticels. **Lenticels** permit the exchange of gases between the outer atmosphere and the internal tissue of the stem. These occur in most woody trees (Figure 6.10).

6.4.3 Secondary Growth in Roots

In the dicot root, the vascular cambium is completely secondary in origin. It originates from the tissue located just below the phloem bundles, a portion of pericycle tissue, above the protoxylem forming a complete and continuous wavy ring, which later becomes circular (Figure 6.11). Further events are similar to those already described above for a dicotyledon stem.
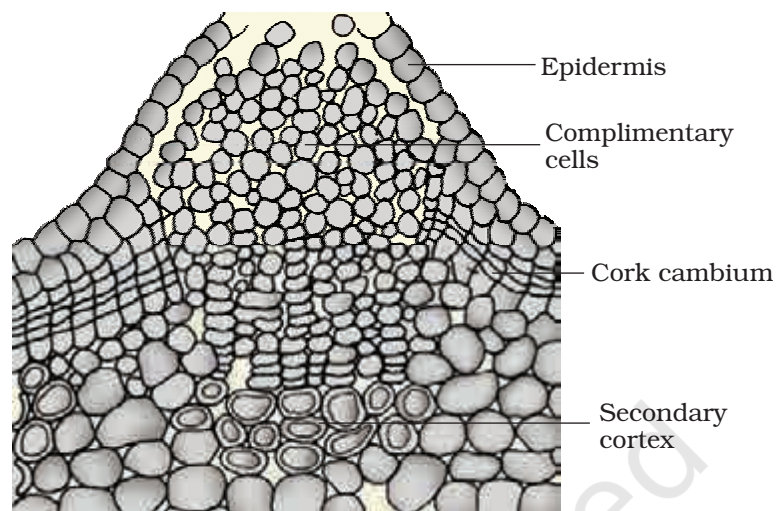
(a)

(b)

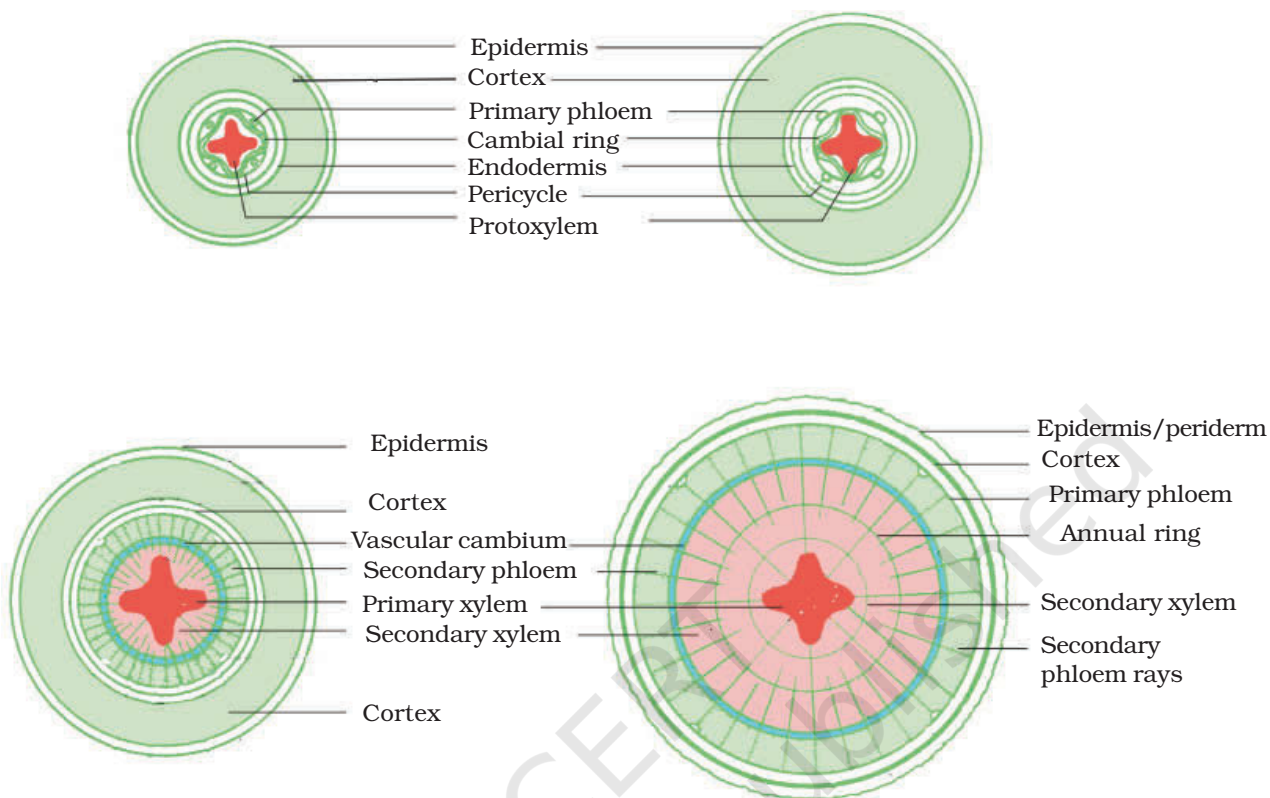**Figure 6.10** (a) Lenticel and (b) Bark

Figure 6.11 Different stages of the secondary growth in a typical dicot root

Secondary growth also occurs in stems and roots of gymnosperms. However, secondary growth does not occur in monocotyledons.

SUMMARY

Anatomically, a plant is made of different kinds of tissues. The plant tissues are broadly classified into meristematic (apical, lateral and intercalary) and permanent (simple and complex). Assimilation of food and its storage, transportation of water, minerals and photosynthates, and mechanical support are the main functions of tissues. There are three types of tissue systems – epidermal, ground and vascular. The epidermal tissue systems are made of epidermal cells, stomata and the epidermal appendages. The ground tissue system forms the main bulk of the plant. It is divided into three zones – cortex, pericycle and pith. The vascular tissue system is formed by the xylem and phloem. On the basis of presence of cambium, location of xylem and phloem, the vascular bundles are of different types. The vascular bundles form the conducting tissue and translocate water, minerals and food material.

Monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants show marked variation in their internal structures. They differ in type, number and location of vascular bundles. The secondary growth occurs in most of the dicotyledonous roots and stems and it increases the girth (diameter) of the organs by the activity of the vascular cambium and the cork cambium. The wood is actually a secondary xylem. There are different types of wood on the basis of their composition and time of production.

EXERCISES

1. State the location and function of different types of meristems.
2. Cork cambium forms tissues that form the cork. Do you agree with this statement? Explain.
3. Explain the process of secondary growth in the stems of woody angiosperms with the help of schematic diagrams. What is its significance?
4. Draw illustrations to bring out the anatomical difference between

   (a) Monocot root and Dicot root

   (b) Monocot stem and Dicot stem
5. Cut a transverse section of young stem of a plant from your school garden and observe it under the microscope. How would you ascertain whether it is a monocot stem or a dicot stem? Give reasons.
6. The transverse section of a plant material shows the following anatomical features - (a) the vascular bundles are conjoint, scattered and surrounded by a sclerenchymatous bundle sheaths. (b) phloem parenchyma is absent. What will you identify it as?
7. Why are xylem and phloem called complex tissues?
8. What is stomatal apparatus? Explain the structure of stomata with a labelled diagram.
9. Name the three basic tissue systems in the flowering plants. Give the tissue names under each system.
10. How is the study of plant anatomy useful to us?
11. What is periderm? How does periderm formation take place in the dicot stems?
12. Describe the internal structure of a dorsiventral leaf with the help of labelled diagrams.

CHAPTER 7

STRUCTURAL ORGANISATION IN ANIMALS

In the preceding chapters you came across a large variety of organisms, both unicellular and multicellular, of the animal kingdom. In unicellular organisms, all functions like digestion, respiration and reproduction are performed by a single cell. In the complex body of multicellular animals the same basic functions are carried out by different groups of cells in a well organised manner. The body of a simple organism like *Hydra* is made of different types of cells and the number of cells in each type can be in thousands. The human body is composed of billions of cells to perform various functions. How do these cells in the body work together? In multicellular animals, a group of similar cells alongwith intercellular substances perform a specific function. Such an organisation is called **tissue**.

You may be surprised to know that all complex animals consist of only four basic types of tissues. These tissues are organised in specific proportion and pattern to form an organ like stomach, lung, heart and kidney. When two or more organs perform a common function by their physical and/or chemical interaction, they together form organ system, e.g., digestive system, respiratory system, etc. Cells, tissues, organs and organ systems split up the work in a way that exhibits division of labour and contribute to the survival of the body as a whole.

7.1 ANIMAL TISSUES

The structure of the cells vary according to their function. Therefore, the tissues are different and are broadly classified into four types : (i) Epithelial, (ii) Connective, (iii) Muscular and (iv) Neural.

7.1.1 Epithelial Tissue

We commonly refer to an epithelial tissue as epithelium (pl.: epithelia). This tissue has a free surface, which faces either a body fluid or the outside environment and thus provides a covering or a lining for some part of the body. The cells are compactly packed with little intercellular matrix. There are two types of epithelial tissues namely **simple epithelium** and **compound epithelium**. Simple epithelium is composed of a single layer of cells and functions as a lining for body cavities, ducts, and tubes. The compound epithelium consists of two or more cell layers and has protective function as it does in our skin.

On the basis of structural modification of the cells, simple epithelium is further divided into three types. These are (i) Squamous, (ii) Cuboidal, (iii) Columnar (Figure 7.1).
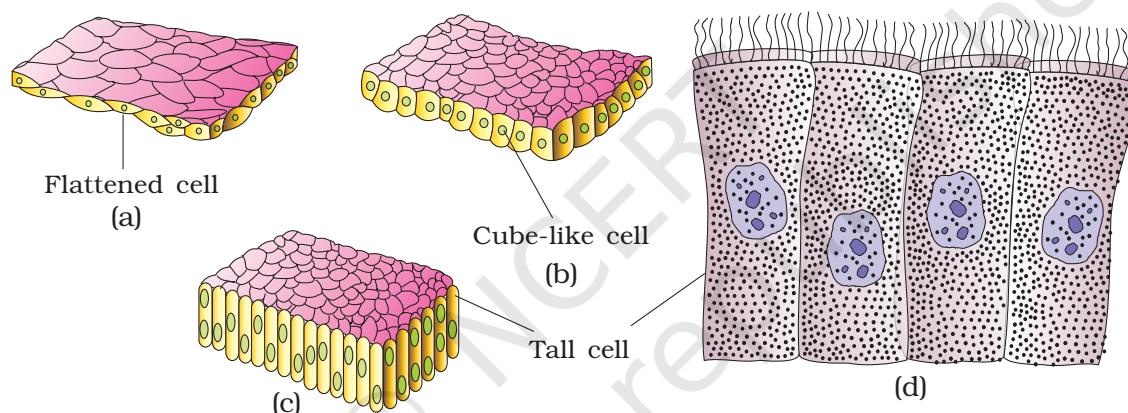

Flattened cell
(a)

Cube-like cell
(b)

Tall cell
(c)

(d)

Figure 7.1 Simple epithelium: (a) Squamous (b) Cuboidal (c) Columnar (d) Columnar cells bearing cilia

The **squamous epithelium** is made of a single thin layer of flattened cells with irregular boundaries. They are found in the walls of blood vessels and air sacs of lungs and are involved in functions like forming a diffusion boundary. The **cuboidal epithelium** is composed of a single layer of cube-like cells. This is commonly found in ducts of glands and tubular parts of nephrons in kidneys and its main functions are secretion and absorption. The epithelium of proximal convoluted tubule (PCT) of nephron in the kidney has microvilli. The **columnar epithelium** is composed of a single layer of tall and slender cells. Their nuclei are located at the base. Free surface may have microvilli. They are found in the lining of stomach and intestine and help in secretion and absorption. If the columnar or cuboidal cells bear cilia on their free surface they are called **ciliated epithelium** (Figure 7.1d). Their function is to move particles or mucus in a specific direction over the epithelium. They are mainly present in the inner surface of hollow organs like bronchioles and fallopian tubes.
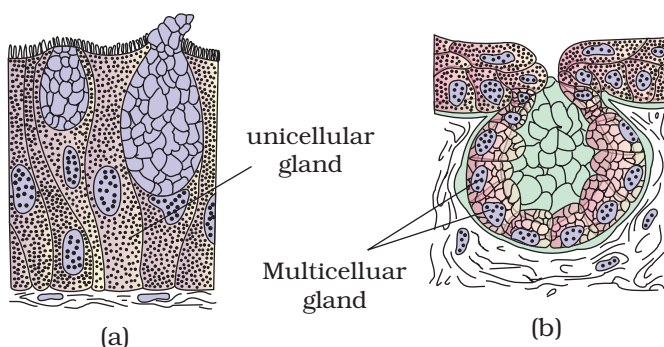
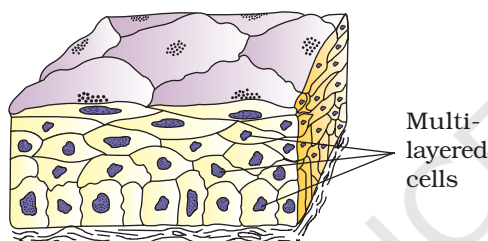**Figure 7.2** Glandular epithelium : (a) Unicellular (b) Multicellular

Figure 7.3 Compound epithelium

Some of the columnar or cuboidal cells get specialised for secretion and are called **glandular epithelium** (Figure 7.2). They are mainly of two types: unicellular, consisting of isolated glandular cells (goblet cells of the alimentary canal), and multicellular, consisting of cluster of cells (salivary gland). On the basis of the mode of pouring of their secretions, glands are divided into two categories namely **exocrine** and **endocrine** glands. Exocrine glands secrete mucus, saliva, earwax, oil, milk, digestive enzymes and other cell products. These products are released through ducts or tubes. In contrast, endocrine glands do not have ducts. Their products called hormones are secreted directly into the fluid bathing the gland.

Compound epithelium is made of more than one layer (multi-layered) of cells and thus has a limited role in secretion and absorption (Figure 7.3). Their main function is to provide protection against chemical and mechanical stresses. They cover the dry surface of the skin, the moist surface of buccal cavity, pharynx, inner lining of ducts of salivary glands and of pancreatic ducts.

All cells in epithelium are held together with little intercellular material. In nearly all animal tissues, specialised junctions provide both structural and functional links between its individual cells. Three types of cell junctions are found in the epithelium and other tissues. These are called as tight, adhering and gap junctions. **Tight junctions** help to stop substances from leaking across a tissue. **Adhering junctions** perform cementing to keep neighbouring cells together. **Gap junctions** facilitate the cells to communicate with each other by connecting the cytoplasm of adjoining cells, for rapid transfer of ions, small molecules and sometimes big molecules.

7.1.2 Connective Tissue

Connective tissues are most abundant and widely distributed in the body of complex animals. They are named connective tissues because of their special function of linking and supporting other tissues/organs of the body. They range from soft connective tissues to specialised types, which
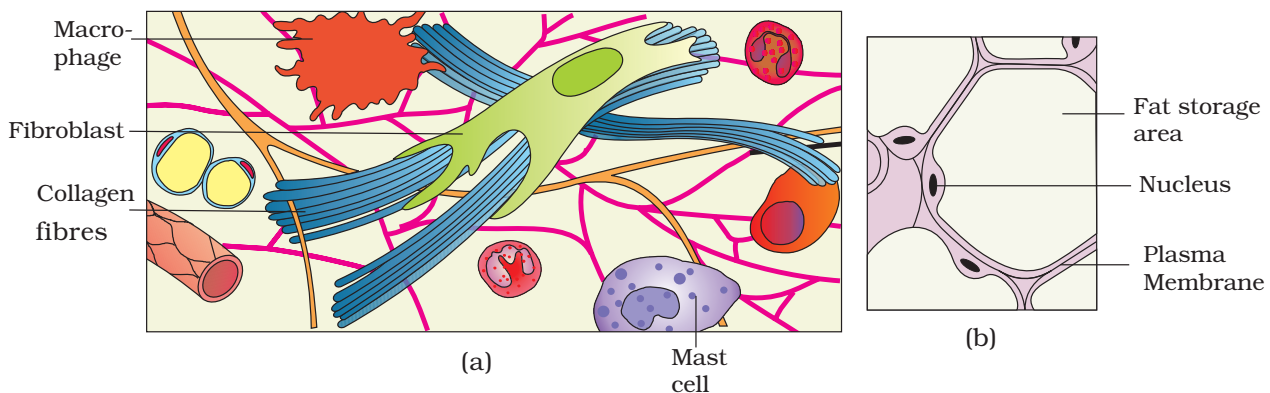
Figure 7.4 Loose connective tissue : (a) Areolar tissue (b) Adipose tissue

include cartilage, bone, adipose, and blood. In all connective tissues except blood, the cells secrete fibres of structural proteins called collagen or elastin. The fibres provide strength, elasticity and flexibility to the tissue. These cells also secrete modified polysaccharides, which accumulate between cells and fibres and act as matrix (ground substance). Connective tissues are classified into three types: (i) Loose connective tissue, (ii) Dense connective tissue and (iii) Specialised connective tissue.

Loose connective tissue has cells and fibres loosely arranged in a semi-fluid ground substance, for example, **areolar tissue** present beneath the skin (Figure 7.4). Often it serves as a support framework for epithelium. It contains fibroblasts (cells that produce and secrete fibres), macrophages and mast cells. **Adipose tissue** is another type of loose connective tissue located mainly beneath the skin. The cells of this tissue are specialised to store fats. The excess of nutrients which are not used immediately are converted into fats and are stored in this tissue.

Fibres and fibroblasts are compactly packed in the **dense connective tissues**. Orientation of fibres show a regular or irregular pattern and are called **dense regular** and **dense irregular tissues**. In the dense regular connective tissues, the collagen fibres are present in rows between many parallel bundles of fibres. Tendons, which attach skeletal muscles to bones and ligaments which attach one bone to another are examples of this tissue. Dense irregular connective tissue has fibroblasts and many fibres (mostly collagen) that are oriented differently (Figure 7.5). This tissue is present in the skin. Cartilage,
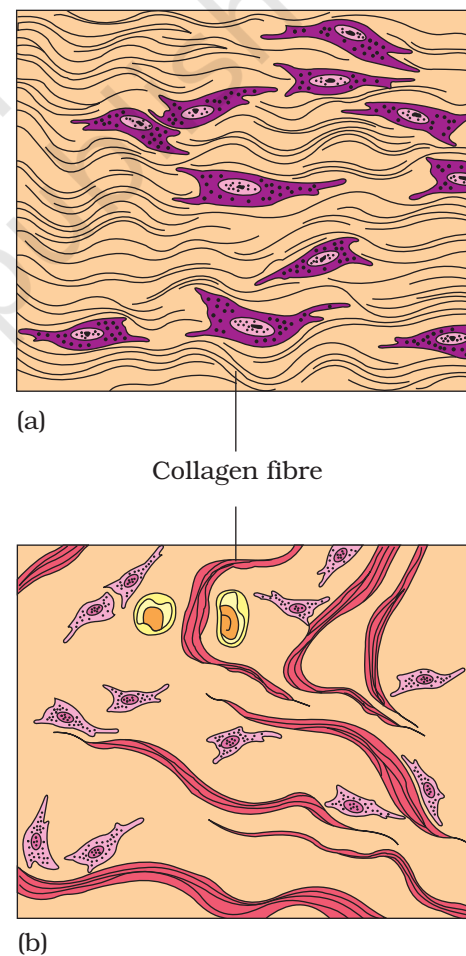

Collagen fibre

Figure 7.5 Dense connective tissue:
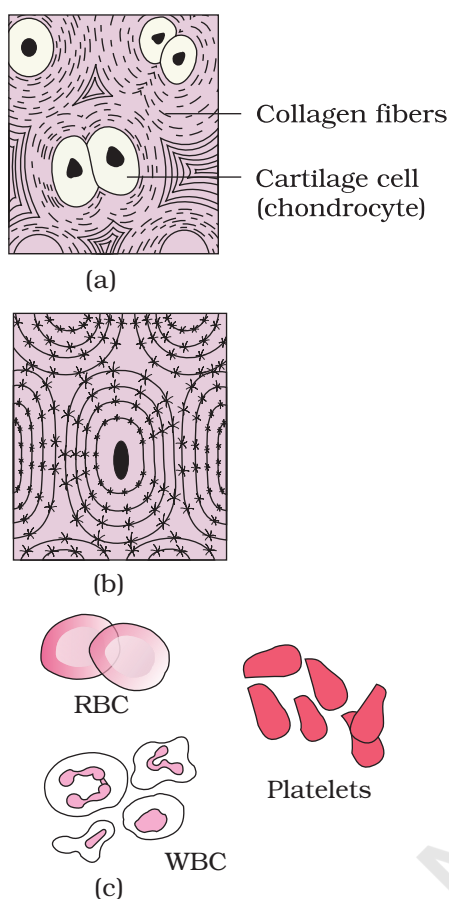(a) Dense regular
(b) Dense irregular

Figure 7.6 Specialised connective tissues : (a) Cartilage (b) Bone (c) Blood

bones and blood are various types of **specialised connective tissues**.

The intercellular material of **cartilage** is solid and pliable and resists compression. Cells of this tissue (chondrocytes) are enclosed in small cavities within the matrix secreted by them (Figure 7.6a). Most of the cartilages in vertebrate embryos are replaced by bones in adults. Cartilage is present in the tip of nose, outer ear joints, between adjacent bones of the vertebral column, limbs and hands in adults.

Bones have a hard and non-pliable ground substance rich in calcium salts and collagen fibres which give bone its strength (Figure 7.6b). It is the main tissue that provides structural frame to the body. Bones support and protect softer tissues and organs. The bone cells (osteocytes) are present in the spaces called lacunae. Limb bones, such as the long bones of the legs, serve weight-bearing functions. They also interact with skeletal muscles attached to them to bring about movements. The bone marrow in some bones is the site of production of blood cells.

Blood is a fluid connective tissue containing plasma, red blood cells (RBC), white blood cells (WBC) and platelets (Figure 7.6c). It is the main circulating fluid that helps in the transport of various substances. You will learn more about blood in Chapters 17 and 18.

7.1.3 Muscle Tissue

Each muscle is made of many long, cylindrical fibres arranged in parallel arrays. These fibres are composed of numerous fine fibrils, called myofibrils. Muscle fibres contract (shorten) in response to stimulation, then relax (lengthen) and return to their uncontracted state in a coordinated fashion. Their action moves the body to adjust to the changes in the environment and to maintain the positions of the various parts of the body. In general, muscles play an active role in all the movements of the body. Muscles are of three types, skeletal, smooth, and cardiac.

Skeletal muscle tissue is closely attached to skeletal bones. In a typical muscle such as the biceps, striated (striped) skeletal muscle fibres are bundled together in a parallel fashion (Figure 7.7a). A sheath of tough connective tissue encloses several bundles of muscle fibres (You will learn more about this in Chapter 20).
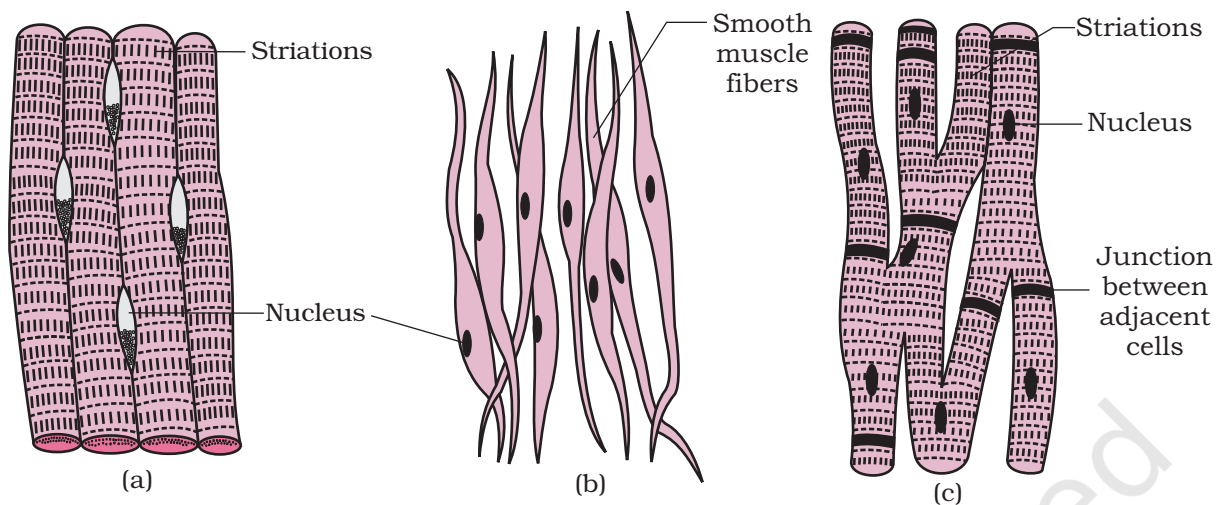
Figure 7.7 Muscle tissue : (a) Skeletal (striated) muscle tissue (b) Smooth muscle tissue (c) Cardiac muscle tissue

The **smooth muscle** fibres taper at both ends (fusiform) and do not show striations (Figure 7.7b). Cell junctions hold them together and they are bundled together in a connective tissue sheath. The wall of internal organs such as the blood vessels, stomach and intestine contains this type of muscle tissue. Smooth muscles are 'involuntary' as their functioning cannot be directly controlled. We usually are not able to make it contract merely by thinking about it as we can do with skeletal muscles.

Cardiac muscle tissue is a contractile tissue present only in the heart. Cell junctions fuse the plasma membranes of cardiac muscle cells and make them stick together (Figure 7.7c). Communication junctions (intercalated discs) at some fusion points allow the cells to contract as a unit, i.e., when one cell receives a signal to contract, its neighbours are also stimulated to contract.

7.1.4 Neural Tissue

Neural tissue exerts the greatest control over the body's responsiveness to changing conditions. Neurons, the unit of neural system are excitable cells (Figure 7.8). The neuroglial cell which constitute the rest of the neural system protect and support neurons. Neuroglia make up more than one-half the volume of neural tissue in our body.

When a neuron is suitably stimulated, an electrical disturbance is generated which swiftly travels along its plasma
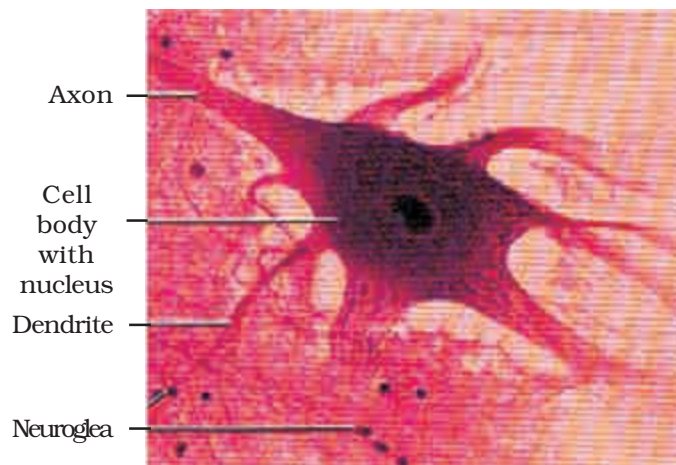

Figure 7.8 Neural tissue (Neuron with neuroglea)

membrane. Arrival of the disturbance at the neuron's endings, or output zone, triggers events that may cause stimulation or inhibition of adjacent neurons and other cells (You will study the details in Chapter 21).

7.2 ORGAN AND ORGAN SYSTEM

The basic tissues mentioned above organise to form organs which in turn associate to form organ systems in the multicellular organisms. Such an organisation is essential for more efficient and better coordinated activities of millions of cells constituting an organism. Each organ in our body is made of one or more type of tissues. For example, our heart consists of all the four types of tissues, i.e., epithelial, connective, muscular and neural. We also notice, after some careful study that the complexity in organ and organ systems displays certain discernable trend. This discernable trend is called evolutionary trend (You will study the details in class XII). You are being introduced to morphology and anatomy of three organisms at different evolutionary levels to show their organisation and functioning. Morphology refers to study of form or externally visible features. In the case of plants or microbes, the term morphology precisely means only this. In case of animals this refers to the external appearance of the organs or parts of the body. The word anatomy conventionally is used for the study of morphology of internal organs in the animals. You will learn the morphology and anatomy of earthworm, cockroach and frog representing invertebrates and vertebrates.

7.3 EARTHWORM

Earthworm is a reddish brown terrestrial invertebrate that inhabits the upper layer of the moist soil. During day time, they live in burrows made by boring and swallowing the soil. In the gardens, they can be traced by their faecal deposits known as worm castings. The common Indian earthworms are *Pheretima* and *Lumbricus.*

7.3.1 Morphology

Earthworms have long cylindrical body. The body is divided into more than hundred short segments which are similar (metameres about 100-120 in number). The dorsal surface of the body is marked by a dark median mid dorsal line (dorsal blood vessel) along the longitudinal axis of the body. The ventral surface is distinguished by the presence of genital openings (pores). Anterior end consists of the mouth and the prostomium, a lobe which serves as a covering for the mouth and as a wedge to force open cracks in the soil into which the earthworm may crawl. The prostomium is sensory in function. The first body segment is called the peristomium (buccal segment) which contains the mouth. In a mature worm, segments
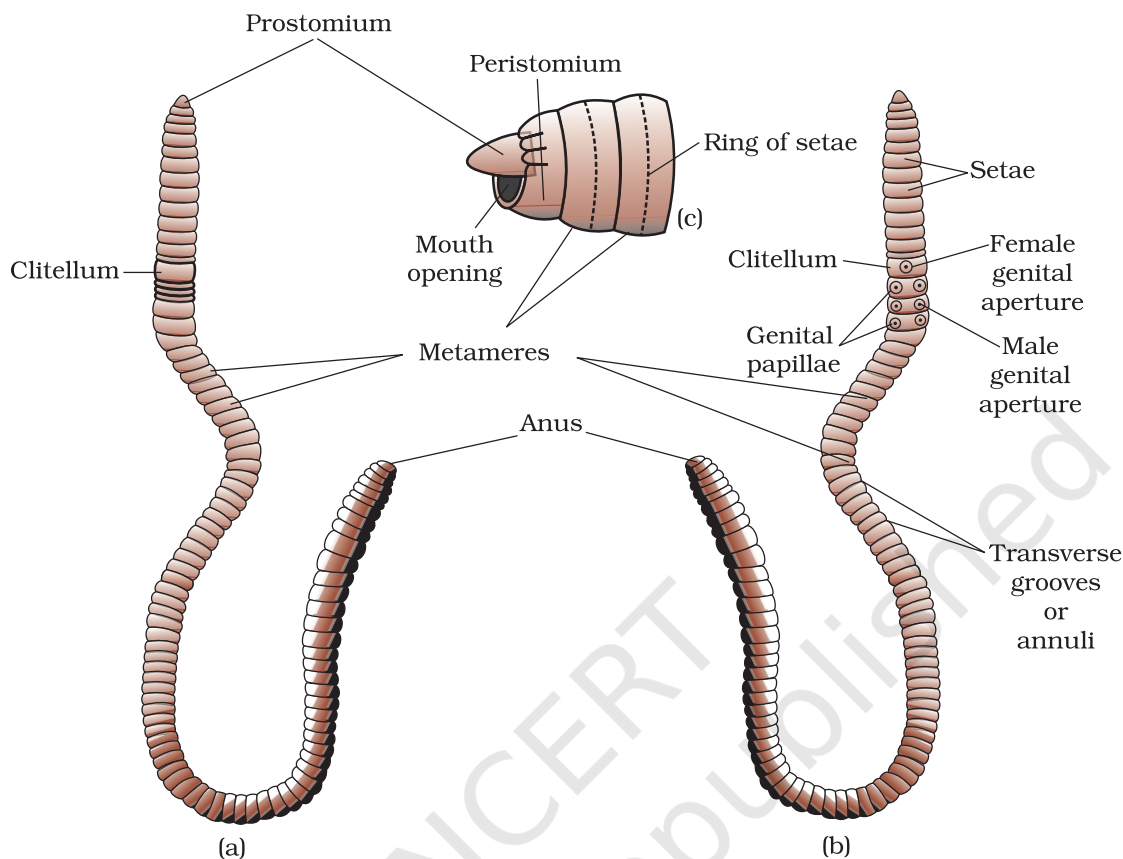
Figure 7.9 Body of earthworm : (a) dorsal view (b) ventral view (c) lateral view showing mouth opening

14-16 are covered by a prominent dark band of glandular tissue called **clitellum**. Thus the body is divisible into three prominent regions – preclitellar, clitellar and postclitellar segments (Figure 7.9).

Four pairs of spermathecal apertures are situated on the ventro-lateral sides of the intersegmental grooves, i.e., 5th -9th segments. A single female genital pore is present in the mid-ventral line of 14th segment. A pair of male genital pores are present on the ventro-lateral sides of the 18th segment. Numerous minute pores called nephridiopores open on the surface of the body. In each body segment, except the first, last and clitellum, there are rows of S-shaped **setae**, embedded in the epidermal pits in the middle of each segment. Setae can be extended or retracted. Their principal role is in locomotion.

7.3.2 Anatomy

The body wall of the earthworm is covered externally by a thin non-cellular cuticle below which is the epidermis, two muscle layers (circular and longitudinal) and an innermost coelomic epithelium. The epidermis is made
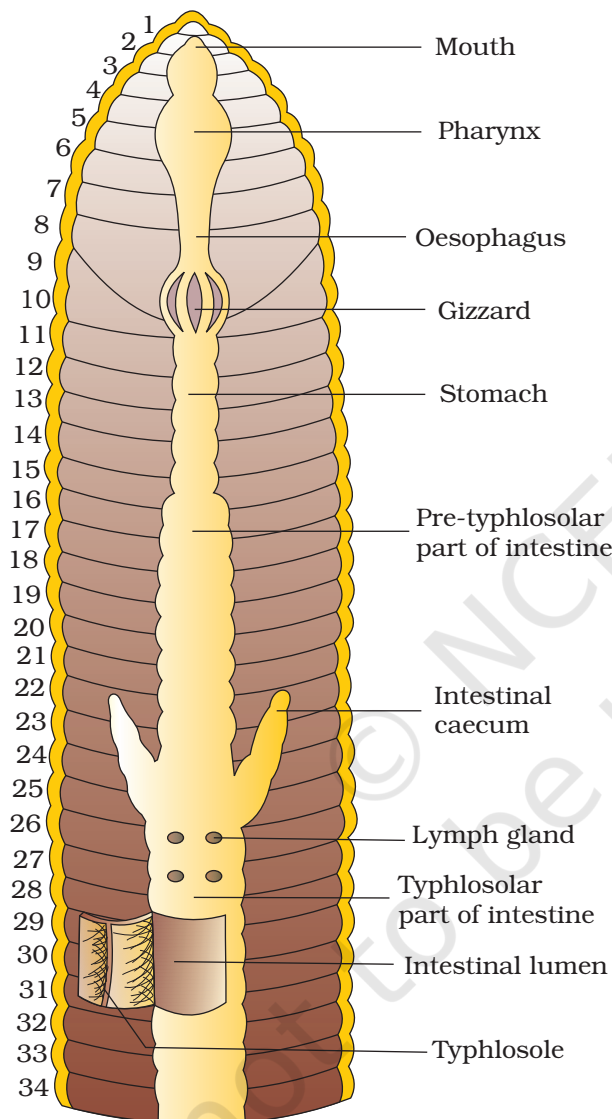
up of a single layer of columnar epithelial cells which contain secretory gland cells.

The alimentary canal is a straight tube and runs between first to last segment of the body. (Figure 7.10). A terminal mouth opens into the buccal cavity (1-3 segments) which leads into muscular pharynx. A small narrow tube, oesophagus (5-7 segments), continues into a muscular gizzard (8-9 segments). It helps in grinding the soil particles and decaying leaves, etc. The stomach extends from 9-14 segments. The food of the earthworm is decaying leaves and organic matter mixed with soil. Calciferous glands, present in the stomach, neutralise the humic acid present in humus. Intestine starts from the 15th segment onwards and continues till the last segment. A pair of short and conical intestinal caecae project from the intestine on the 26th segment. The characteristic feature of the intestine after 26th segment except the last $23^{rd}-25^{th}$ segments is the presence of internal median fold of dorsal wall called **typhlosole**. This increases the effective area of absorption in the intestine. The alimentary canal opens to the exterior by a small rounded aperture called anus. The ingested organic rich soil passes through the digestive tract where digestive enzymes breakdown complex food into smaller absorbable units. These simpler molecules are absorbed through intestinal membranes and are utilised.

Pheretima exhibits a closed type of blood vascular system, consisting of blood vessels, capillaries and heart. (Figure 7.11). Due to closed circulatory system, blood is confined to the heart and blood vessels. Contractions keep blood circulating in one direction. Smaller blood vessels supply the gut, nerve cord, and the body wall. Blood glands are present on the 4th, 5th and 6th segments. They produce blood cells and haemoglobin which is dissolved in blood plasma. Blood cells are phagocytic in nature. Earthworms lack specialised breathing devices. Respiratory exchange occurs through moist body surface into their blood stream.
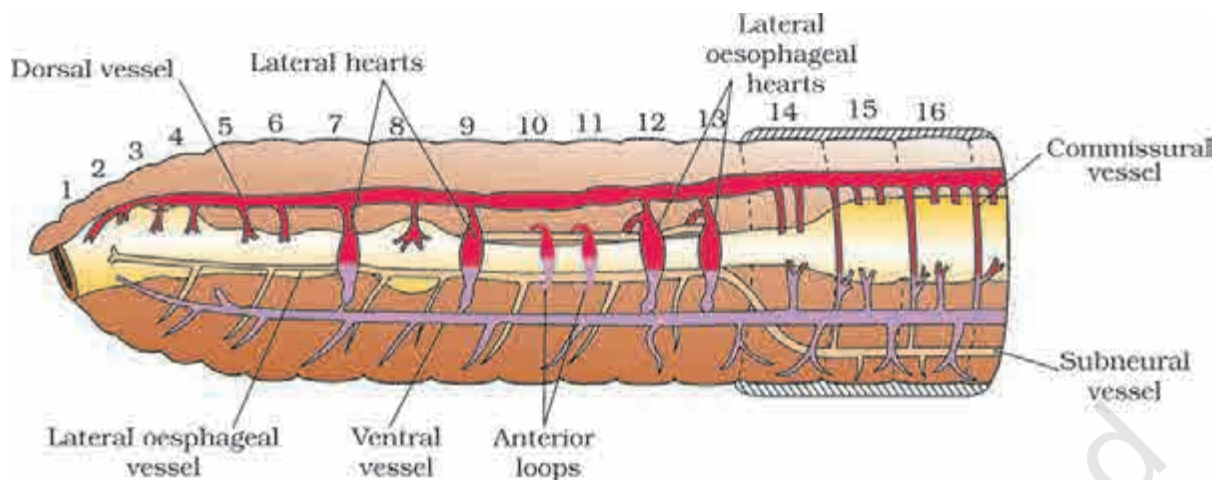

Figure 7.10 Alimentary canal of earthworm

Figure 7.11 Closed circulatory system

Figure 7.12 Nephridial system in earthworm

The excretory organs occur as segmentally arranged coiled tubules called nephridia (sing.: *nephridium*). They are of three types: (i) septal nephridia, present on both the sides of intersegmental septa of segment 15 to the last that open into intestine, (ii) integumentary nephridia, attached to lining of the body wall of segment 3 to the last that open on the body surface and (iii) pharyngeal nephridia, present as three paired tufts in the 4th, 5th and 6th segments (Figure 7.12). These different types of nephridia are basically similar in structure. Nephridia regulate the volume and composition of the body fluids. A nephridium starts out as a funnel that collects excess fluid from coelomic chamber. The funnel connects with a tubular part of the nephridium which delivers the wastes through a pore to the surface in the body wall into the digestive tube.

Nervous system is basically represented by ganglia arranged segmentwise on the ventral paired nerve cord. The nerve cord in the anterior region (3rd and 4th segments) bifurcates, laterally encircling the pharynx and joins the cerebral ganglia dorsally to form a nerve ring. The cerebral ganglia alongwith other nerves in the ring integrate sensory input as well as command muscular responses of the body.
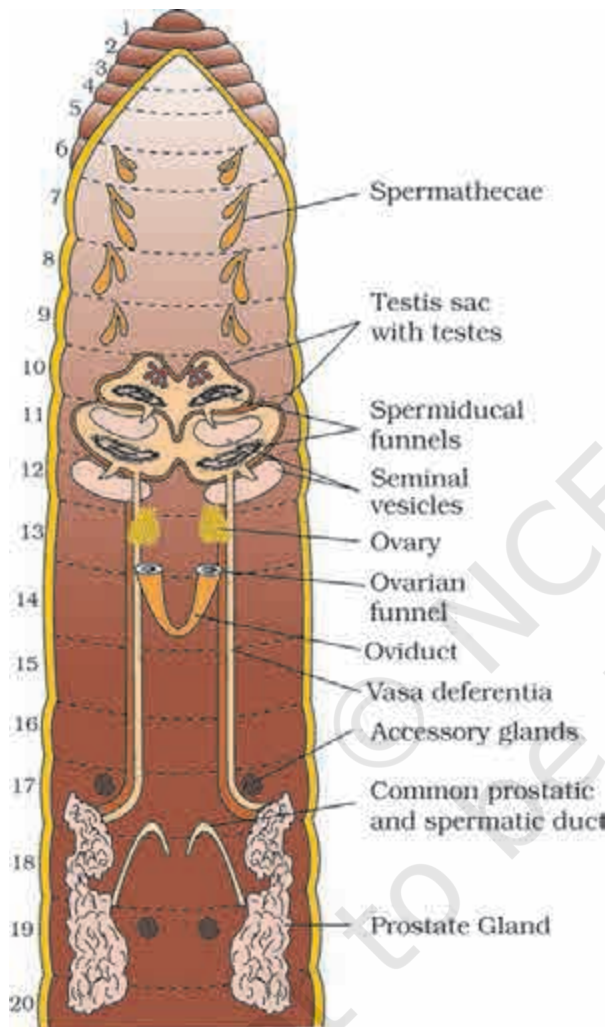
Sensory system does not have eyes but does possess light and touch sensitive organs (receptor cells) to distinguish the light intensities and to feel the vibrations in the ground. Worms have specialised chemoreceptors (taste receptors) which react to chemical stimuli. These sense organs are located on the anterior part of the worm.

Earthworm is hermaphrodite (bisexual), i.e., testes and ovaries are present in the same individual (Figure 7.13). There are two pairs of testes present in the 10th and 11th segments. Their vasa deferentia run up to the 18th segment where they join the prostatic duct. Two pairs of accessory glands are present one pair each in the 17th and 19th segments. The common prostate and spermatic duct (*vasa deferentia*) opens to the exterior by a pair of male genital pores on the ventro-lateral side of the 18th segment. Four pairs of spermathecae are located in 6th-9th segments (one pair in each segment). They receive and store spermatozoa during copulation. One pair of ovaries is attached at the inter-segmental septum of the 12th and 13th segments. Ovarian funnels are present beneath the ovaries which continue into oviduct, join together and open on the ventral side as a single median female genital pore on the 14th segment.

A mutual exchange of sperm occurs between two worms during mating. One worm has to find another worm and they mate juxtaposing opposite gonadal openings exchanging packets of sperms called spermatophores. Mature sperm and egg cells and nutritive fluid are deposited in cocoons produced by the gland cells of clitellum. Fertilisation and development occur within the cocoons which are deposited in soil. The ova (eggs) are fertilised by the sperm cells within the cocoon which then slips off the worm and is deposited in or on the soil. The cocoon holds the worm embryos. After about 3 weeks, each cocoon produces two to twenty baby worms with an average of four. Development of earthworms is direct, i.e., there is no larva formed.

Figure 7.13 Reproductive system of earthworm

Earthworms are known as 'friends of farmers' because they make burrows in the soil and make it porous which helps in respiration and penetration of the developing plant roots. The process of increasing fertility of soil by the earthworms is called vermicomposting. They are also used as bait in game fishing.

7.4 COCKROACH

Cockroaches are brown or black bodied animals that are included in class Insecta of Phylum Arthropoda. Bright yellow, red and green coloured cockroaches have also been reported in tropical regions. Their size ranges from ¼ inches to 3 inches (0.6-7.6 cm) and have long antenna, legs and flat extension of the upper body wall that conceals head. They are nocturnal omnivores that live in damp places throughout the world. They have become residents of human homes and thus are serious pests and vectors of several diseases.

7.4.1 Morphology

The adults of the common species of cockroach, *Periplaneta americana* are about 34-53 mm long with wings that extend beyond the tip of the abdomen in males. The body of the cockroach is segmented and divisible into three distinct regions – head, thorax and abdomen (Figure 7.14). The entire body is covered by a hard chitinous exoskeleton (brown in colour). In each segment, exoskeleton has hardened plates called sclerites (tergites dorsally and sternites ventrally) that are joined to each other by a thin and flexible articular membrane (arthrodial membrane).
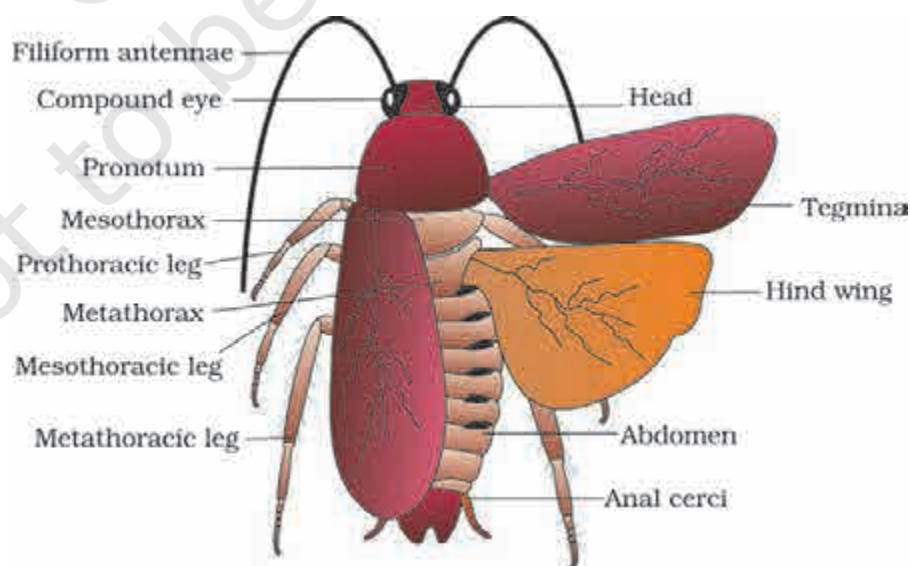

Figure 7.14 External features of cockroach

Head is triangular in shape and lies anteriorly at right angles to the longitudinal body axis. It is formed by the fusion of six segments and shows great mobility in all directions due to flexible neck (Figure 7.15). The head capsule bears a pair of compound eyes. A pair of thread like antennae arise from membranous sockets lying in front of eyes. Antennae have sensory receptors that help in monitoring the environment. Anterior end of the head bears appendages forming biting and chewing type of mouth parts. The mouthparts consisting of a labrum (upper lip), a pair of mandibles, a pair of maxillae and a labium (lower lip). A median flexible lobe, acting as tongue (hypopharynx), lies within the cavity enclosed by the mouthparts (Figure 7.15b). Thorax consists of three parts – prothorax, mesothorax and metathorax. The head is connected with thorax by a short extension of the prothorax known as the neck. Each thoracic segment bears a pair of walking legs. The first pair of wings arises from mesothorax and the second pair from metathorax. Forewings (mesothoracic) called tegmina are opaque dark and leathery and cover the hind wings when at rest. The hind wings are transparent, membranous and are used in flight.

The abdomen in both males and females consists of 10 segments. In females, the 7th sternum is boat shaped and together with the 8th and 9th sterna forms a brood or genital pouch whose anterior part contains female gonopore, spermathecal pores and collateral glands. In males, genital pouch or chamber lies at the hind end of abdomen bounded dorsally by 9th and 10th terga and ventrally by the 9th sternum. It contains dorsal anus, ventral male genital pore and gonapophysis. Males bear a pair of short, thread-like anal styles which are absent in females. In both sexes, the 10th segment bears a pair of jointed filamentous structures called anal cerci.
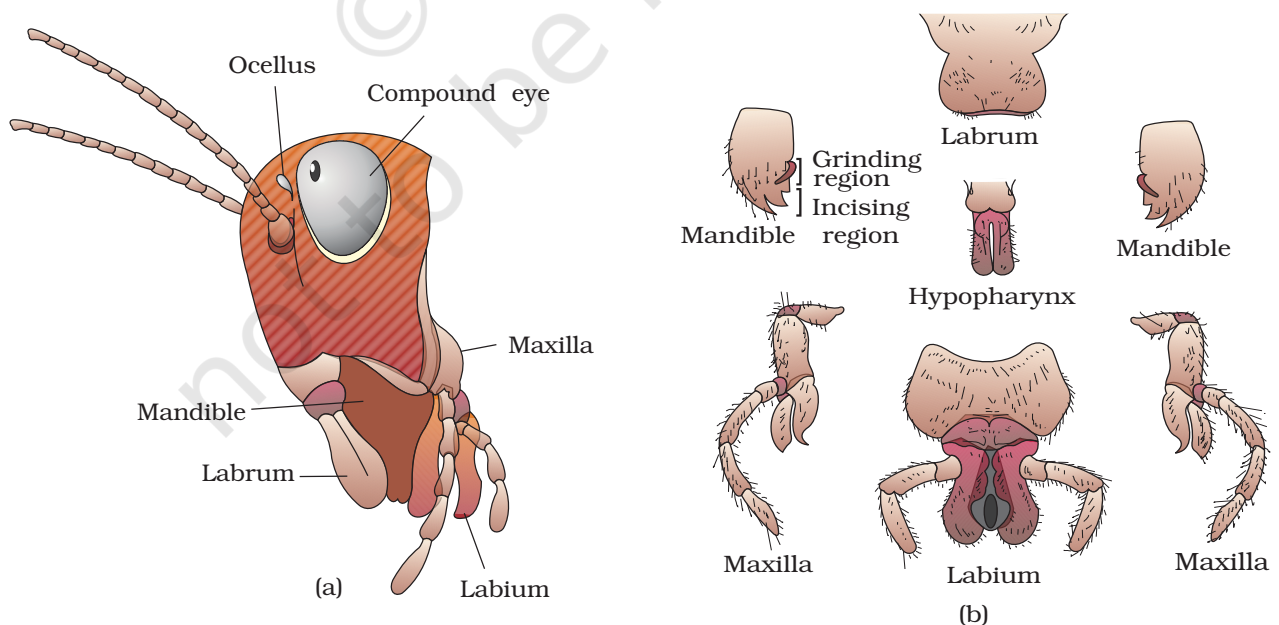

Figure 7.15 Head region of cockroach : (a) parts of head region (b) mouth parts

7.4.2 Anatomy

The alimentary canal present in the body cavity is divided into three regions: foregut, midgut and hindgut (Figure 7.16). The mouth opens into a short tubular pharynx, leading to a narrow tubular passage called oesophagus. This in turn opens into a sac like structure called crop used for storing of food. The crop is followed by gizzard or proventriculus. It has an outer layer of thick circular muscles and thick inner cuticle forming six highly chitinous plate called teeth. Gizzard helps in grinding the food particles. The entire foregut is lined by cuticle. A ring of 6-8 blind tubules called hepatic or gastric caeca is present at the junction of foregut and midgut, which secrete digestive juice. At the junction of midgut and hindgut is present another ring of 100-150 yellow coloured thin filamentous **Malpighian tubules**. They help in removal of excretory products from haemolymph. The hindgut is broader than midgut and is differentiated into ileum, colon and rectum. The rectum opens out through anus.

Blood vascular system of cockroach is an open type (Figure 7.17). Blood vessels are poorly developed and open into space (haemocoel). Visceral organs located in the haemocoel are bathed in blood (haemolymph). The haemolymph is composed of colourless plasma and haemocytes. Heart of cockroach consists of elongated muscular tube lying along mid dorsal line of thorax and abdomen. It is differentiated into funnel shaped chambers with ostia on either side. Blood from sinuses enter heart through ostia and is pumped anteriorly to sinuses again.

The respiratory system consists of a network of trachea, that open through 10 pairs of small holes called spiracles present on the lateral side of the body. Thin branching tubes (tracheal tubes subdivided into tracheoles) carry oxygen from the air to all the parts. The
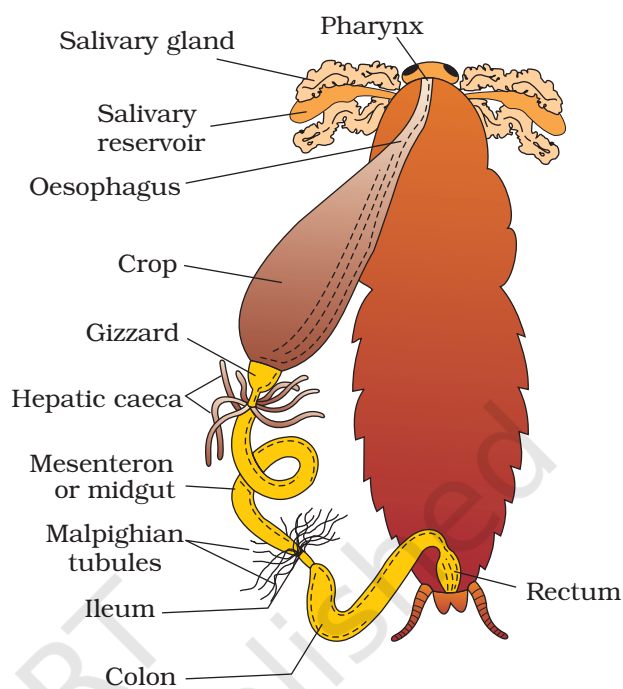

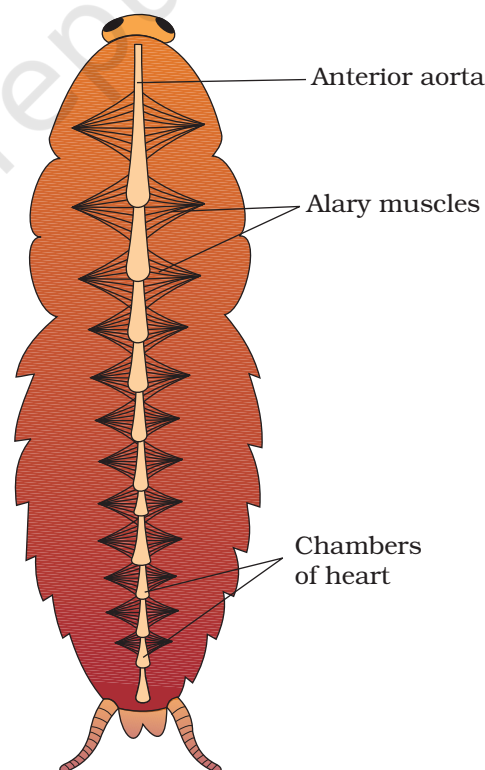**Figure 7.16**   Alimentary canal of cockroach

Figure 7.17 Open circulatory system of cockroach

opening of the spiracles is regulated by the sphincters. Exchange of gases take place at the tracheoles by diffusion.

Excretion is performed by Malpighian tubules. Each tubule is lined by glandular and ciliated cells. They absorb nitrogenous waste products and convert them into uric acid which is excreted out through the hindgut. Therefore, this insect is called **uricotelic**. In addition, the fat body, nephrocytes and urecose glands also help in excretion.

The nervous system of cockroach consists of a series of fused, segmentally arranged ganglia joined by paired longitudinal connectives on the ventral side. Three ganglia lie in the thorax, and six in the abdomen. The nervous system of cockroach is spread throughout the body. The head holds a bit of a nervous system while the rest is situated along the ventral (belly-side) part of its body. So, now you understand that if the head of a cockroach is cut off, it will still live for as long as one week. In the head region, the brain is represented by supra-oesophageal ganglion which supplies nerves to antennae and compound eyes. In cockroach, the sense organs are antennae, eyes, maxillary palps, labial palps, anal cerci, etc. The compound eyes are situated at the dorsal surface of the head. Each eye consists of about 2000 hexagonal ommatidia (sing.: *ommatidium*). With the help of several ommatidia, a cockroach can receive several images of an object. This kind of vision is known as mosaic vision with more sensitivity but less resolution, being common during night (hence called nocturnal vision).

Cockroaches are dioecious and both sexes have well developed reproductive organs (Figure 7.18). Male reproductive system consists of a pair of testes one lying on each lateral side in the 4th -6th abdominal segments. From each testis arises a thin vas deferens, which opens into ejaculatory duct through seminal vesicle. The ejaculatory duct opens into male gonopore situated ventral to anus. A characteristic mushroom-shaped gland is present in the 6th-7th abdominal segments which functions as an accessory reproductive gland. The external genitalia are represented by male gonapophysis or phallomere (chitinous asymmetrical structures, surrounding the male gonopore). The sperms are stored in the seminal vesicles and are glued together in the form of bundles called spermatophores which are discharged during copulation. The female reproductive sysytem consists of two large ovaries, lying laterally in the 2nd – 6th abdominal segments. Each ovary is formed of a group of eight ovarian tubules or ovarioles, containing a chain of developing ova. Oviducts of each ovary unite into a single median oviduct (also called vagina) which opens into the genital chamber. A pair of spermatheca is present in the 6th segment which opens into the genital chamber.

Sperms are transferred through spermatophores. Their fertilised eggs are encased in capsules called oothecae. Ootheca is a dark reddish to blackish brown capsule, about 3/8" (8 mm) long. They are dropped or
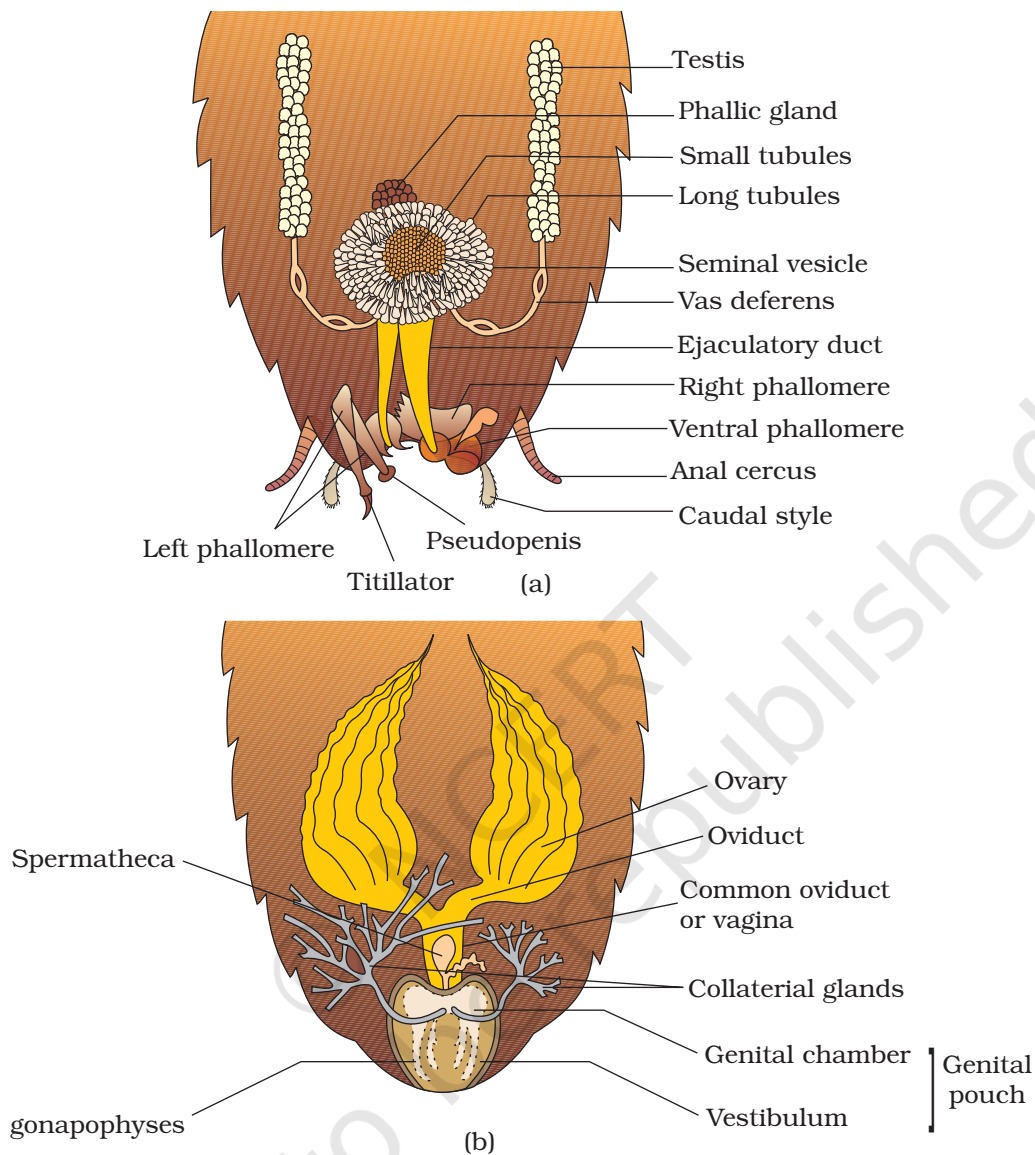
Figure 7.18 Reproductive system of cockroach : (a) male (b) female

glued to a suitable surface, usually in a crack or crevice of high relative humidity near a food source. On an average, females produce 9-10 oothecae, each containing 14-16 eggs. The development of *P. americana* is paurometabolous, meaning there is development through nymphal stage. The nymphs look very much like adults. The nymph grows by moulting about 13 times to reach the adult form. The next to last nymphal stage has wing pads but only adult cockroaches have wings.

Many species of cockroaches are wild and are of no known economic importance yet. A few species thrive in and around human habitat. They are pests because they spoil food and contaminate it with their smelly excreta. They can transmit a variety of bacterial diseases by contaminating food material.

7.5 FROGS

Frogs can live both on land and in freshwater and belong to class Amphibia of phylum Chordata. The most common species of frog found in India is *Rana tigrina.*

They do not have constant body temperature i.e., their body temperature varies with the temperature of the environment. Such animals are called cold blooded or poikilotherms. You might have also noticed changes in the colour of the frogs while they are in grasses and on dry land. They have the ability to change the colour to hide them from their enemies (camouflage). This protective coloration is called mimicry. You may also know that the frogs are not seen during peak summer and winter. During this period they take shelter in deep burrows to protect them from extreme heat and cold. This is called as summer sleep (aestivation) and winter sleep (hibernation) respectively.

7.5.1 Morphology

Have you ever touched the skin of frog? The skin is smooth and slippery due to the presence of mucus. The skin is always maintained in a moist condition. The colour of dorsal side of body is generally olive green with dark irregular spots. On the ventral side the skin is uniformly pale yellow. The frog never drinks water but absorb it through the skin.

Body of a frog is divisible into head and trunk (Figure 7.19). A neck and tail are absent. Above the mouth, a pair of nostrils is present. Eyes are bulged and covered by a nictitating membrane that protects them while in water. On either side of eyes a membranous tympanum (ear) receives sound signals. The forelimbs and hind limbs help in swimming, walking, leaping and burrowing. The hind limbs end in five digits and they are larger and muscular than fore limbs that end in four digits. Feet have webbed digits that help in swimming. Frogs exhibit sexual dimorphism. Male frogs can be distinguished by the presence of sound producing vocal sacs and also a copulatory pad on the first digit of the fore limbs which are absent in female frogs.
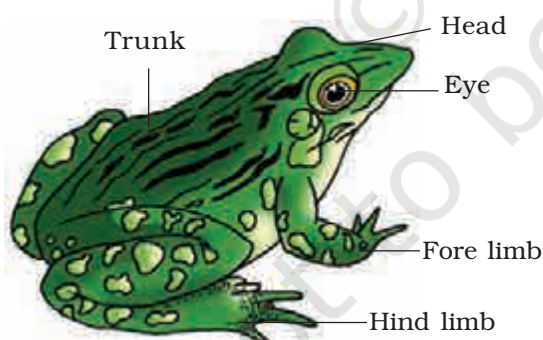
Figure 7.19 External features of frog

7.5.2 Anatomy

The body cavity of frogs accommodate different organ systems such as digestive, circulatory, respiratory, nervous, excretory and reproductive systems with well developed structures and functions (Figure 7.20).

The digestive system consists of alimentary canal and digestive glands. The alimentary canal is short because frogs are carnivores and hence the length of intestine is reduced. The mouth opens into the buccal cavity that
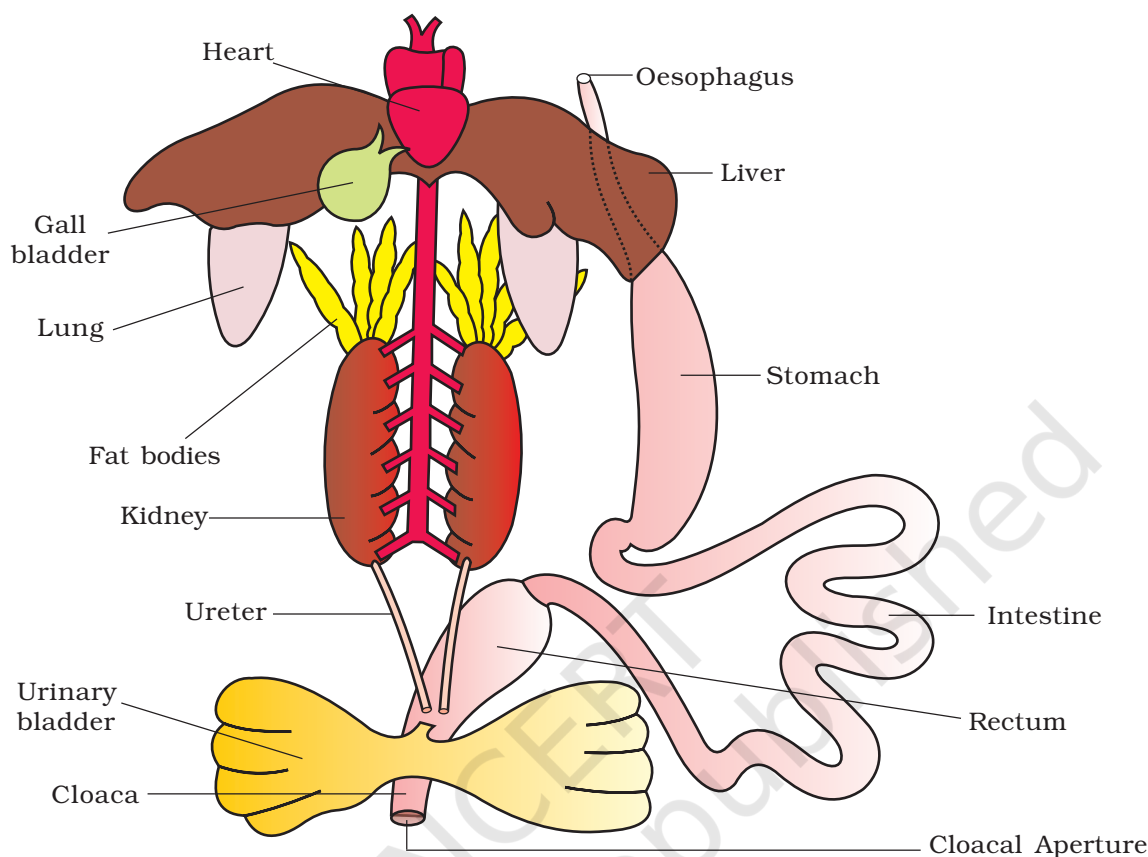
Figure 7.20 Diagrammatic representation of internal organs of frog showing complete digestive system

leads to the oesophagus through pharynx. Oesophagus is a short tube that opens into the stomach which in turn continues as the intestine, rectum and finally opens outside by the cloaca. Liver secretes bile that is stored in the gall bladder. Pancreas, a digestive gland produces pancreatic juice containing digestive enzymes. Food is captured by the bilobed tongue. Digestion of food takes place by the action of HCl and gastric juices secreted from the walls of the stomach. Partially digested food called chyme is passed from stomach to the first part of the small intestine, the duodenum. The duodenum receives bile from gall bladder and pancreatic juices from the pancreas through a common bile duct. Bile emulsifies fat and pancreatic juices digest carbohydrates and proteins. Final digestion takes place in the intestine. Digested food is absorbed by the numerous finger-like folds in the inner wall of intestine called villi and microvilli. The undigested solid waste moves into the rectum and passes out through cloaca.

Frogs respire on land and in the water by two different methods. In water, skin acts as aquatic respiratory organ (cutaneous respiration). Dissolved oxygen in the water is exchanged through the skin by diffusion.

On land, the buccal cavity, skin and lungs act as the respiratory organs. The respiration by lungs is called pulmonary respiration. The lungs are a pair of elongated, pink coloured sac-like structures present in the upper part of the trunk region (thorax). Air enters through the nostrils into the buccal cavity and then to lungs. During aestivation and hibernation gaseous exchange takes place through skin.

The vascular system of frog is well-developed closed type. Frogs have a lymphatic system also. The blood vascular system involves heart, blood vessels and blood. The lymphatic system consists of lymph, lymph channels and lymph nodes. Heart is a muscular structure situated in the upper part of the body cavity. It has three chambers, two atria and one ventricle and is covered by a membrane called pericardium. A triangular structure called sinus venosus joins the right atrium. It receives blood through the major veins called vena cava. The ventricle opens into a sac-like conus arteriosus on the ventral side of the heart. The blood from the heart is carried to all parts of the body by the arteries (arterial system). The veins collect blood from different parts of body to the heart and form the venous system. Special venous connection between liver and intestine as well as the kidney and lower parts of the body are present in frogs. The former is called hepatic portal system and the latter is called renal portal system. The blood is composed of plasma and cells. The blood cells are RBC (red blood cells) or erythrocytes, WBC (white blood cells) or leucocytes and platelets. RBC's are nucleated and contain red coloured pigment namely haemoglobin. The lymph is different from blood. It lacks few proteins and RBCs. The blood carries nutrients, gases and water to the respective sites during the circulation. The circulation of blood is achieved by the pumping action of the muscular heart.

The elimination of nitrogenous wastes is carried out by a well developed excretory system. The excretory system consists of a pair of kidneys, ureters, cloaca and urinary bladder. These are compact, dark red and bean like structures situated a little posteriorly in the body cavity on both sides of vertebral column. Each kidney is composed of several structural and functional units called uriniferous tubules or nephrons. Two ureters emerge from the kidneys in the male frogs. The ureters act as urinogenital duct which opens into the cloaca. In females the ureters and oviduct open seperately in the cloaca. The thin-walled urinary bladder is present ventral to the rectum which also opens in the cloaca. The frog excretes urea and thus is a **ureotelic** animal. Excretory wastes are carried by blood into the kidney where it is separated and excreted.

The system for control and coordination is highly evolved in the frog. It includes both neural system and endocrine glands. The chemical coordination of various organs of the body is achieved by hormones which are secreted by the endocrine glands. The prominent endocrine glands found in frog are pituitary, thyroid, parathyroid, thymus, pineal body, pancreatic islets, adrenals and gonads. The nervous system is organised

into a central nervous system (brain and spinal cord), a peripheral nervous system (cranial and spinal nerves) and an autonomic nervous system (sympathetic and parasympathetic). There are ten pairs of cranial nerves arising from the brain. Brain is enclosed in a bony structure called brain box (cranium). The brain is divided into fore-brain, mid-brain and hind-brain. Forebrain includes olfactory lobes, paired cerebral hemispheres and unpaired diencephalon. The midbrain is characterised by a pair of optic lobes. Hind-brain consists of cerebellum and medulla oblongata. The medulla oblongata passes out through the foramen magnum and continues into spinal cord, which is enclosed in the vertebral column.

Frog has different types of sense organs, namely organs of touch (sensory papillae), taste (taste buds), smell (nasal epithelium), vision (eyes) and hearing (tympanum with internal ears). Out of these, eyes and internal ears are well-organised structures and the rest are cellular aggregations around nerve endings. Eyes in a frog are a pair of spherical structures situated in the orbit in skull. These are simple eyes (possessing only one unit). External ear is absent in frogs and only tympanum can be seen externally. The ear is an organ of hearing as well as balancing (equilibrium).

Frogs have well organised male and female reproductive systems. Male reproductive organs consist of a pair of yellowish ovoid testes (Figure 7.21), which are found adhered to the upper part of kidneys by a double fold of peritoneum called mesorchium. Vasa efferentia are 10-12 in number that arise from testes. They enter the kidneys on their side and open into Bidder's canal. Finally it communicates with the urinogenital duct that comes out of the kidneys and opens into the cloaca. The cloaca is a small, median chamber that is used to pass faecal matter, urine and sperms to the exterior.

The female reproductive organs include a pair of ovaries (Figure 7.22). The ovaries are situated near kidneys and there is no functional connection with kidneys. A pair of oviduct arising
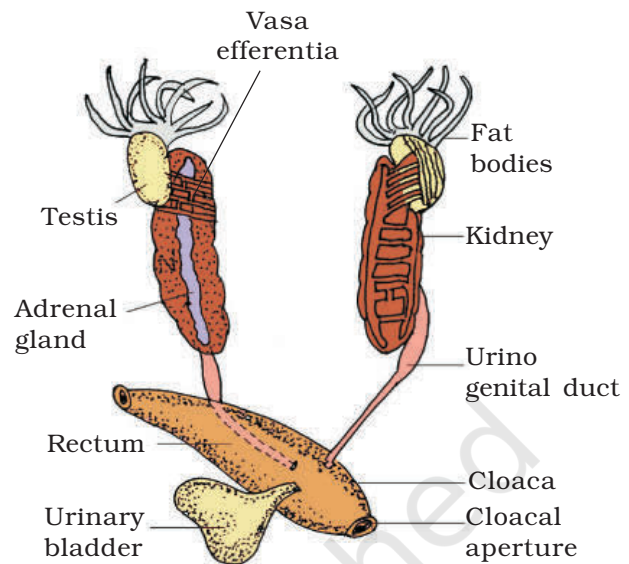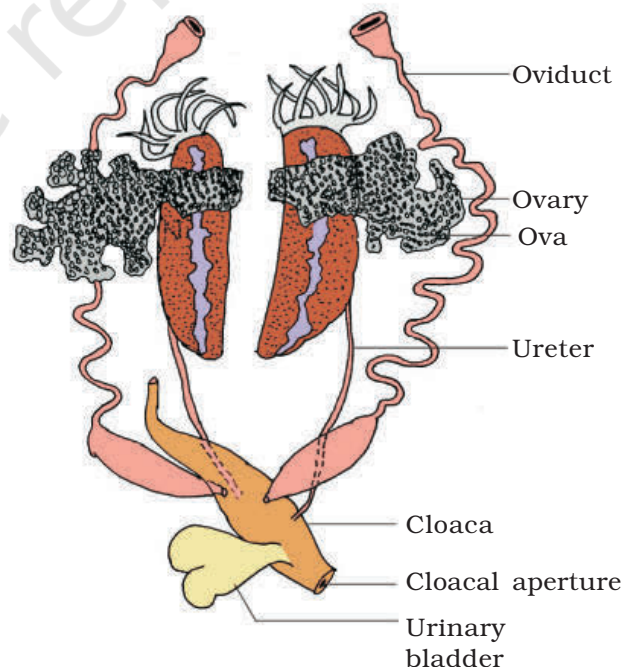

Figure 7.21 Male reproductive system

Figure 7.22 Female reproductive system

from the ovaries opens into the cloaca separately. A mature female can lay 2500 to 3000 ova at a time. Fertilisation is external and takes place in water. Development involves a larval stage called tadpole. Tadpole undergoes metamorphosis to form the adult.

Frogs are beneficial for mankind because they eat insects and protect the crop. Frogs maintain ecological balance because these serve as an important link of food chain and food web in the ecosystem. In some countries the muscular legs of frog are used as food by man.

SUMMARY

Cells, tissues, organs and organ systems split up the work in a way that ensures the survival of the body as a whole and exhibit division of labour. A tissue is defined as group of cells along with intercellular substances performing one or more functions in the body. Epithelia are sheet like tissues lining the body's surface and its cavities, ducts and tubes. Epithelia have one free surface facing a body fluid or the outside environment. Their cells are structurally and functionally connected at junctions.

Diverse types of connective tissues bind together, support, strengthen, protect, and insulate other tissue in the body. Soft connective tissues consist of protein fibres as well as a variety of cells arranged in a ground substance. Cartilage, bone, blood, and adipose tissue are specialised connective tissues. Cartilage and bone are both structural materials. Blood is a fluid tissue with transport functions. Adipose tissue is a reservoir of stored energy. Muscle tissue, which can contract (shorten) in response to stimulation, helps in movement of the body and specific body parts. Skeletal muscle is the muscle tissue attached to bones. Smooth muscle is a component of internal organs. Cardiac muscle makes up the contractile walls of the heart. Connective tissue covers all three types of tissues. Nervous tissue exerts greatest control over the response of body. Neurons are the basic units of nervous tissue.

Earthworm, Cockroach and Frog show characteristic features in body organisation. In P*heretima posthuma* (earthworm), the body is covered by cuticle. All segments of its body are alike except the 14th, 15th and 16th segment, which are thick and dark and glandular, forming clitellum. A ring of S-shaped chitinous setae is found in each segment. These setae help in locomotion. On the ventral side spermathecal openings are present in between the grooves of 5 and 6, 6 and 7, 7 and 8 and 8 and 9 segments. Female genital pores are present on 14th segment and male genital pores on 18th segment. The alimentary canal is a narrow tube made of mouth, buccal cavity, pharynx, gizzard, stomach, intestine and anus. The blood vascular system is of closed type with heart and valves. Nervous system is represented by ventral nerve cord. Earthworm is hermaphorodite. Two pairs of

testes occur in the 10th and 11th segment, respectively. A pair of ovaries are present on 12 and 13th intersegmental septum. It is a protandrous animal with cross-fertilisation. Fertilisation and development take place in cocoon secreted by the glands of clitellum.

The body of Cockroach *(Periplaneta americana)* is covered by chitinous exoskeleton. It is divided into head, thorax and abdomen. Segments bear jointed appendages. There are three segments of thorax, each bearing a pair of walking legs. Two pairs of wings are present, one pair each on 2nd and 3rd segment. There are ten segments in abdomen. Alimentary canal is well developed with a mouth surrounded by mouth parts, a pharynx, oesophagus, crop, gizzard, midgut, hindgut and anus. Hepatic caecae are present at the junction of foregut and midgut. Malpighian tubules are present at the junction of midgut and hindgut and help in excretion. A pair of salivary gland is present near crop. The blood vascular system is of open type. Respiration takes place by network of tracheae. Trachea opens outside with spiracles. Nervous system is represented by segmentally arranged ganglia and ventral nerve cord. A pair of testes is present in 4th-6th segments and ovaries in 2nd-6th segments. Fertilisation is internal. Female produces 9-10 ootheca bearing developing embryos. After rupturing of single ootheca sixteen young ones, called nymphs come out.

The Indian bullfrog, *Rana tigrina,* is the common frog found in India. Body is covered by skin. Mucous glands are present in the skin which is highly vascularised and helps in respiration in water and on land. Body is divisible into head and trunk. A muscular tongue is present, which is bilobed at the tip and is used in capturing the prey. The alimentary canal consists of oesophagous, stomach, intestine and rectum, which open into the cloaca. The main digestive glands are liver and pancreas. It can respire in water through skin and through lungs on land. Circulatory system is closed with single circulation. RBCs are nucleated. Nervous system is organised into central, peripheral and autonomic. The organs of urinogenital system are kidneys and urinogenital ducts, which open into the cloaca. The male reproductive organ is a pair of testes. The female reproductive organ is a pair of ovaries. A female lays 2500-3000 ova at a time. The fertilisation and development are external. The eggs hatch into tadpoles, which metamorphose into frogs.

EXERCISES

1. Answer in one word or one line.
    (i) Give the common name of *Periplanata americana.*
    (ii) How many spermathecae are found in earthworm?
    (iii) What is the position of ovaries in cockroach?
    (iv) How many segments are present in the abdomen of cockroach?
    (v) Where do you find Malpighian tubules?

2. Answer the following:
   (i) What is the function of nephridia?
   (ii) How many types of nephridia are found in earthworm based on their location?

3. Draw a labelled diagram of the reproductive organs of an earthworm.

4. Draw a labelled diagram of alimentary canal of a cockroach.

5. Distinguish between the followings
   (a) Prostomium and peristomium
   (b) Septal nephridium and pharyngeal nephridium

6. What are the cellular components of blood?

7. What are the following and where do you find them in animal body.
   (a) Chondriocytes
   (b) Axons
   (c) Ciliated epithelium

8. Describe various types of epithelial tissues with the help of labelled diagrams.

9. Distinguish between
   (a) Simple epithelium and compound epithelium
   (b) Cardiac muscle and striated muscle
   (c) Dense regular and dense irregular connective tissues
   (d) Adipose and blood tissue
   (e) Simple gland and compound gland

10. Mark the odd one in each series:
    (a) Areolar tissue; blood; neuron; tendon
    (b) RBC; WBC; platelets; cartilage
    (c) Exocrine; endocrine; salivary gland; ligament
    (d) Maxilla; mandible; labrum; antennae
    (e) Protonema; mesothorax; metathorax; coxa

11. Match the terms in column I with those in column II:

Column I		Column II	
(a)	Compound epithelium	(i)	Alimentary canal
(b)	Compound eye	(ii)	Cockroach
(c)	Septal nephridia	(iii)	Skin
(d)	Open circulatory system	(iv)	Mosaic vision
(e)	Typhlosole	(v)	Earthworm
(f)	Osteocytes	(vi)	Phallomere
(g)	Genitalia	(vii)	Bone

12. Mention breifly about the circulatory system of earthworm

13. Draw a neat diagram of digestive system of frog.

14. Mention the function of the following
    (a) Ureters in frog
    (b) Malpighian tubules
    (c) Body wall in earthworm
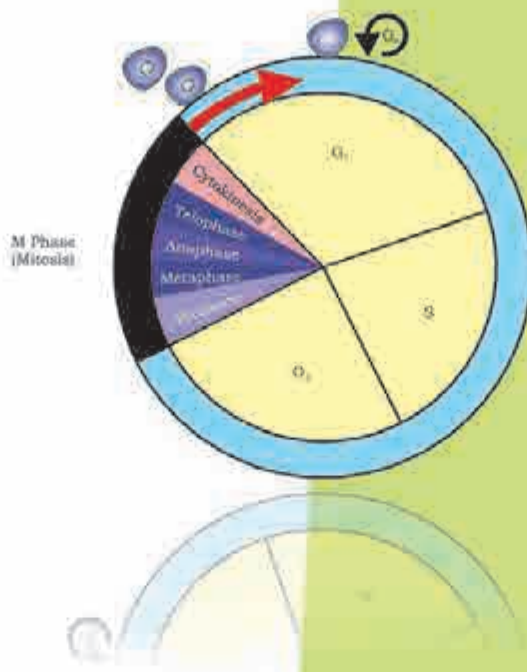
UNIT 3

CELL: STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS

Biology is the study of living organisms. The detailed description of their form and appearance only brought out their diversity. It is the cell theory that emphasised the unity underlying this diversity of forms, i.e., the cellular organisation of all life forms. A description of cell structure and cell growth by division is given in the chapters comprising this unit. Cell theory also created a sense of mystery around living phenomena, i.e., physiological and behavioural processes. This mystery was the requirement of integrity of cellular organisation for living phenomena to be demonstrated or observed. In studying and understanding the physiological and behavioural processes, one can take a physico-chemical approach and use cell-free systems to investigate. This approach enables us to describe the various processes in molecular terms. The approach is established by analysis of living tissues for elements and compounds. It will tell us what types of organic compounds are present in living organisms. In the next stage, one can ask the question: What are these compounds doing inside a cell? And, in what way they carry out gross physiological processes like digestion, excretion, memory, defense, recognition, etc. In other words we answer the question, what is the molecular basis of all physiological processes? It can also explain the abnormal processes that occur during any diseased condition. This physico-chemical approach to study and understand living organisms is called 'Reductionist Biology'. The concepts and techniques of physics and chemistry are applied to understand biology. In Chapter 9 of this unit, a brief description of biomolecules is provided.

G.N. Ramachandran
(1922 – 2001)

G.N. RAMACHANDRAN, an outstanding figure in the field of protein structure, was the founder of the 'Madras school' of conformational analysis of biopolymers. His discovery of the triple helical structure of collagen published in *Nature* in 1954 and his analysis of the allowed conformations of proteins through the use of the 'Ramachandran plot' rank among the most outstanding contributions in structural biology. He was born on October 8, 1922, in a small town, not far from Cochin on the southwestern coast of India. His father was a professor of mathematics at a local college and thus had considerable influence in shaping Ramachandran's interest in mathematics. After completing his school years, Ramachandran graduated in 1942 as the top-ranking student in the B.Sc. (Honors) Physics course of the University of Madras. He received a Ph.D. from Cambridge University in 1949. While at Cambridge, Ramachandran met Linus Pauling and was deeply influenced by his publications on models of the α-helix and β-sheet structures that directed his attention to solving the structure of collagen. He passed away at the age of 78, on April 7, 2001.

CHAPTER 8

CELL: THE UNIT OF LIFE

When you look around, you see both living and non-living things. You must have wondered and asked yourself – 'what is it that makes an organism living, or what is it that an inanimate thing does not have which a living thing has' ? The answer to this is the presence of the basic unit of life – the cell in all living organisms.

All organisms are composed of cells. Some are composed of a single cell and are called unicellular organisms while others, like us, composed of many cells, are called multicellular organisms.

8.1 WHAT IS A CELL?

Unicellular organisms are capable of (i) independent existence and (ii) performing the essential functions of life. Anything less than a complete structure of a cell does not ensure independent living. Hence, cell is the fundamental structural and functional unit of all living organisms.

Anton Von Leeuwenhoek first saw and described a live cell. Robert Brown later discovered the nucleus. The invention of the microscope and its improvement leading to the electron microscope revealed all the structural details of the cell.

8.2 CELL THEORY

In 1838, Matthias Schleiden, a German botanist, examined a large number of plants and observed that all plants are composed of different kinds of cells which form the tissues of the plant. At about the same time, Theodore

Schwann (1839), a British Zoologist, studied different types of animal cells and reported that cells had a thin outer layer which is today known as the 'plasma membrane'. He also concluded, based on his studies on plant tissues, that the presence of cell wall is a unique character of the plant cells. On the basis of this, Schwann proposed the hypothesis that the bodies of animals and plants are composed of cells and products of cells.

Schleiden and Schwann together formulated the cell theory. This theory however, did not explain as to how new cells were formed. Rudolf Virchow (1855) first explained that cells divided and new cells are formed from pre-existing cells (*Omnis cellula-e cellula*). He modified the hypothesis of Schleiden and Schwann to give the cell theory a final shape. Cell theory as understood today is:

(i)   all living organisms are composed of cells and products of cells.

(ii) all cells arise from pre-existing cells.

8.3 AN OVERVIEW OF CELL

You have earlier observed cells in an onion peel and/or human cheek cells under the microscope. Let us recollect their structure. The onion cell which is a typical plant cell, has a distinct cell wall as its outer boundary and just within it is the cell membrane. The cells of the human cheek have an outer membrane as the delimiting structure of the cell. Inside each cell is a dense membrane bound structure called nucleus. This nucleus contains the chromosomes which in turn contain the genetic material, DNA. Cells that have membrane bound nuclei are called eukaryotic whereas cells that lack a membrane bound nucleus are prokaryotic. In both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells, a semi-fluid matrix called cytoplasm occupies the volume of the cell. The cytoplasm is the main arena of cellular activities in both the plant and animal cells. Various chemical reactions occur in it to keep the cell in the 'living state'.

Besides the nucleus, the eukaryotic cells have other membrane bound distinct structures called **organelles** like the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), the golgi complex, lysosomes, mitochondria, microbodies and vacuoles. The prokaryotic cells lack such membrane bound organelles.

Ribosomes are non-membrane bound organelles found in all cells – both eukaryotic as well as prokaryotic. Within the cell, ribosomes are found not only in the cytoplasm but also within the two organelles – chloroplasts (in plants) and mitochondria and on rough ER.

Animal cells contain another non-membrane bound organelle called centrosome which helps in cell division.

Cells differ greatly in size, shape and activities (Figure 8.1). For example, Mycoplasmas, the smallest cells, are only 0.3 µm in length while bacteria
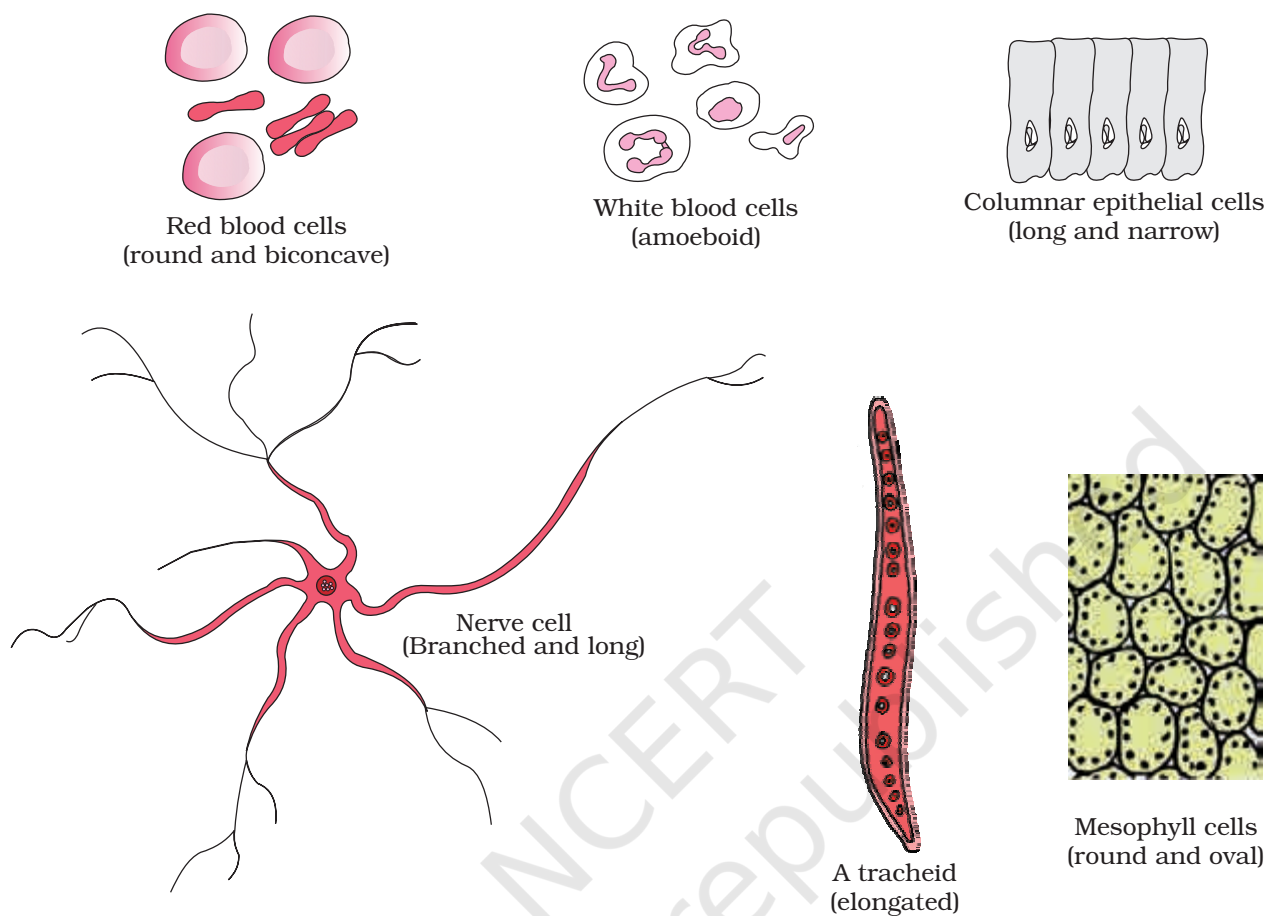
Red blood cells
(round and biconcave)

White blood cells
(amoeboid)

Columnar epithelial cells
(long and narrow)

Nerve cell
(Branched and long)

A tracheid
(elongated)

Mesophyll cells
(round and oval)

Figure 8.1 Diagram showing different shapes of the cells

could be 3 to 5 µm. The largest isolated single cell is the egg of an ostrich. Among multicellular organisms, human red blood cells are about 7.0 µm in diameter. Nerve cells are some of the longest cells. Cells also vary greatly in their shape. They may be disc-like, polygonal, columnar, cuboid, thread like, or even irregular. The shape of the cell may vary with the function they perform.

8.4 PROKARYOTIC CELLS

The prokaryotic cells are represented by bacteria, blue-green algae, mycoplasma and PPLO (Pleuro Pneumonia Like Organisms). They are generally smaller and multiply more rapidly than the eukaryotic cells (Figure 8.2). They may vary greatly in shape and size. The four basic shapes of bacteria are bacillus (rod like), coccus (spherical), vibrio (comma shaped) and spirillum (spiral).

The organisation of the prokaryotic cell is fundamentally similar even though prokaryotes exhibit a wide variety of shapes and functions. All
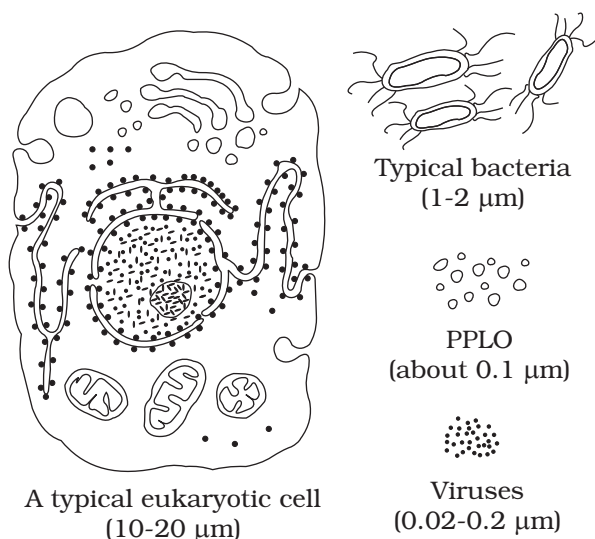
Typical bacteria
(1-2 µm)

PPLO
(about 0.1 µm)

Viruses
(0.02-0.2 µm)

A typical eukaryotic cell
(10-20 µm)

Figure 8.2 Diagram showing comparison of eukaryotic cell with other organisms

prokaryotes have a cell wall surrounding the cell membrane except in mycoplasma. The fluid matrix filling the cell is the cytoplasm. There is no well-defined nucleus. The genetic material is basically naked, not enveloped by a nuclear membrane. In addition to the genomic DNA (the single chromosome/circular DNA), many bacteria have small circular DNA outside the genomic DNA. These smaller DNA are called plasmids. The plasmid DNA confers certain unique phenotypic characters to such bacteria. One such character is resistance to antibiotics. In higher classes you will learn that this plasmid DNA is used to monitor bacterial transformation with foreign DNA. Nuclear membrane is found in eukaryotes. No organelles, like the ones in eukaryotes, are found in prokaryotic cells except for ribosomes. Prokaryotes have something unique in the form of inclusions. A specialised differentiated form of cell membrane called mesosome is the characteristic of prokaryotes. They are essentially infoldings of cell membrane.

8.4.1 Cell Envelope and its Modifications

Most prokaryotic cells, particularly the bacterial cells, have a chemically complex cell envelope. The cell envelope consists of a tightly bound three layered structure i.e., the outermost glycocalyx followed by the cell wall and then the plasma membrane. Although each layer of the envelope performs distinct function, they act together as a single protective unit. Bacteria can be classified into two groups on the basis of the differences in the cell envelopes and the manner in which they respond to the staining procedure developed by Gram viz., those that take up the gram stain are **Gram positive** and the others that do not are called **Gram negative** bacteria.

Glycocalyx differs in composition and thickness among different bacteria. It could be a loose sheath called the **slime layer** in some, while in others it may be thick and tough, called the **capsule**. The **cell wall** determines the shape of the cell and provides a strong structural support to prevent the bacterium from bursting or collapsing.

The plasma membrane is selectively permeable in nature and interacts with the outside world. This membrane is similar structurally to that of the eukaryotes.

A special membranous structure is the **mesosome** which is formed by the extensions of plasma membrane into the cell. These extensions are in the **form of vesicles, tubules and lamellae**. They help in cell wall

formation, DNA replication and distribution to daughter cells. They also help in respiration, secretion processes, to increase the surface area of the plasma membrane and enzymatic content. In some prokaryotes like cyanobacteria, there are other membranous extensions into the cytoplasm called chromatophores which contain pigments.

Bacterial cells may be motile or non-motile. If motile, they have thin filamentous extensions from their cell wall called flagella. Bacteria show a range in the number and arrangement of flagella. Bacterial flagellum is composed of three parts – **filament, hook** and **basal body**. The filament is the longest portion and extends from the cell surface to the outside.

Besides flagella, Pili and Fimbriae are also surface structures of the bacteria but do not play a role in motility. The **pili** are elongated tubular structures made of a special protein. The **fimbriae** are small bristle like fibres sprouting out of the cell. In some bacteria, they are known to help attach the bacteria to rocks in streams and also to the host tissues.

8.4.2 Ribosomes and Inclusion Bodies

In prokaryotes, ribosomes are associated with the plasma membrane of the cell. They are about 15 nm by 20 nm in size and are made of two subunits - 50S and 30S units which when present together form 70S prokaryotic ribosomes. Ribosomes are the site of protein synthesis. Several ribosomes may attach to a single mRNA and form a chain called **polyribosomes** or **polysome**. The ribosomes of a polysome translate the mRNA into proteins.

Inclusion bodies: Reserve material in prokaryotic cells are stored in the cytoplasm in the form of inclusion bodies. These are not bound by any membrane system and lie free in the cytoplasm, e.g., phosphate granules, cyanophycean granules and glycogen granules. Gas vacuoles are found in blue green and purple and green photosynthetic bacteria.

8.5 EUKARYOTIC CELLS

The eukaryotes include all the protists, plants, animals and fungi. In eukaryotic cells there is an extensive compartmentalisation of cytoplasm through the presence of membrane bound organelles. Eukaryotic cells possess an organised nucleus with a nuclear envelope. In addition, eukaryotic cells have a variety of complex locomotory and cytoskeletal structures. Their genetic material is organised into chromosomes.

All eukaryotic cells are not identical. Plant and animal cells are different as the former possess cell walls, plastids and a large central vacuole which are absent in animal cells. On the other hand, animal cells have centrioles which are absent in almost all plant cells (Figure 8.3).
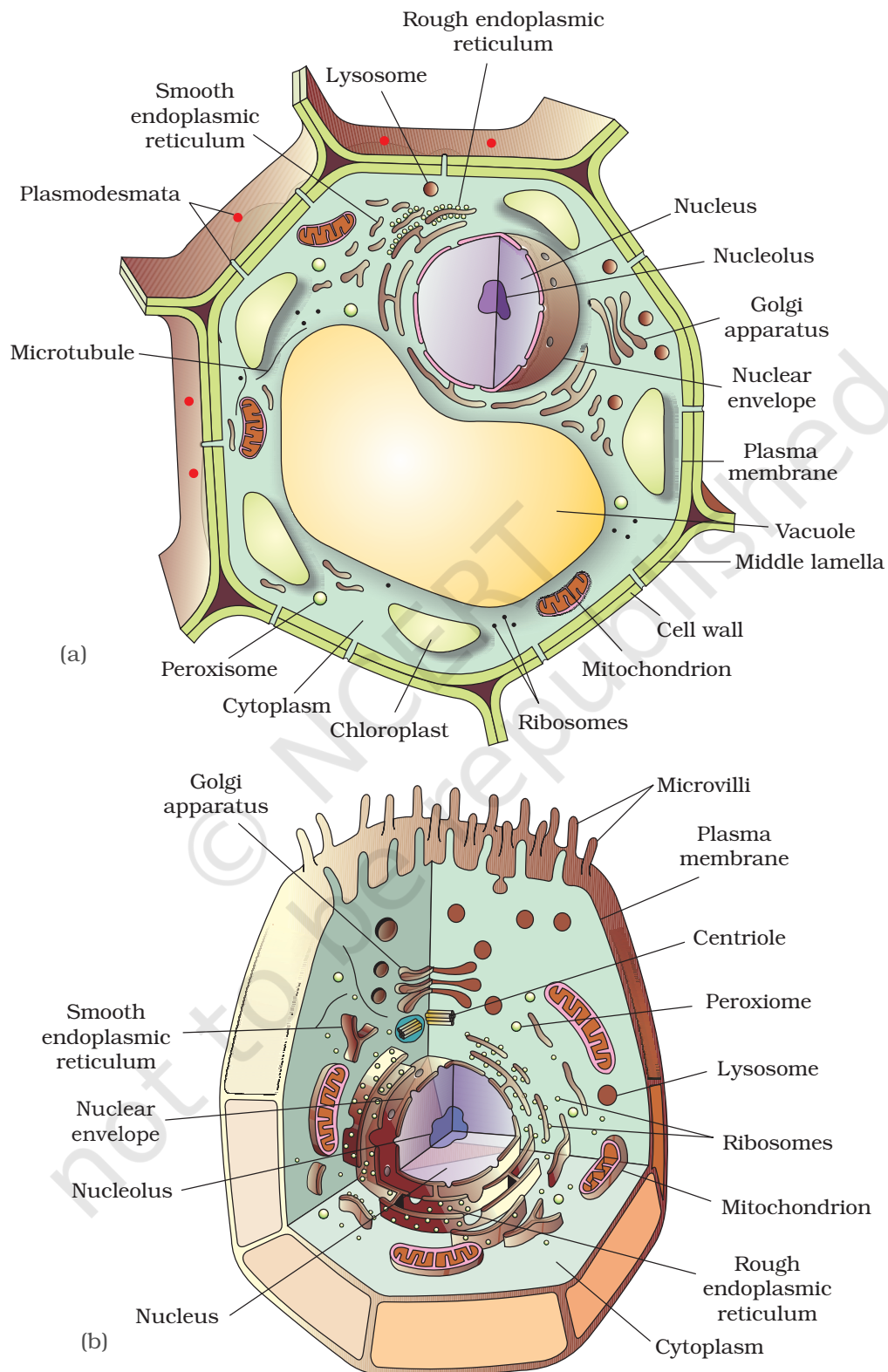
Figure 8.3 Diagram showing : (a) Plant cell (b) Animal cell

Let us now look at individual cell organelles to understand their structure and functions.

8.5.1 Cell Membrane

The detailed structure of the membrane was studied only after the advent of the electron microscope in the 1950s. Meanwhile, chemical studies on the cell membrane, especially in human red blood cells (RBCs), enabled the scientists to deduce the possible structure of plasma membrane.

These studies showed that the cell membrane is mainly composed of lipids and proteins. The major lipids are phospholipids that are arranged in a bilayer. Also, the lipids are arranged within the membrane with the polar head towards the outer sides and the hydrophobic tails towards the inner part.This ensures that the nonpolar tail of saturated hydrocarbons is protected from the aqueous environment (Figure 8.4). In addition to phospholipids membrane also contains cholesterol. The lipid component of the membrane mainly consists of phosphoglycerides.

Later, biochemical investigation clearly revealed that the cell membranes also possess protein and carbohydrate. The ratio of protein and lipid varies considerably in different cell types. In human beings, the membrane of the erythrocyte has approximately 52 per cent protein and 40 per cent lipids.

Depending on the ease of extraction, membrane proteins can be classified as integral and peripheral. Peripheral proteins lie on the surface of membrane while the integral proteins are partially or totally buried in
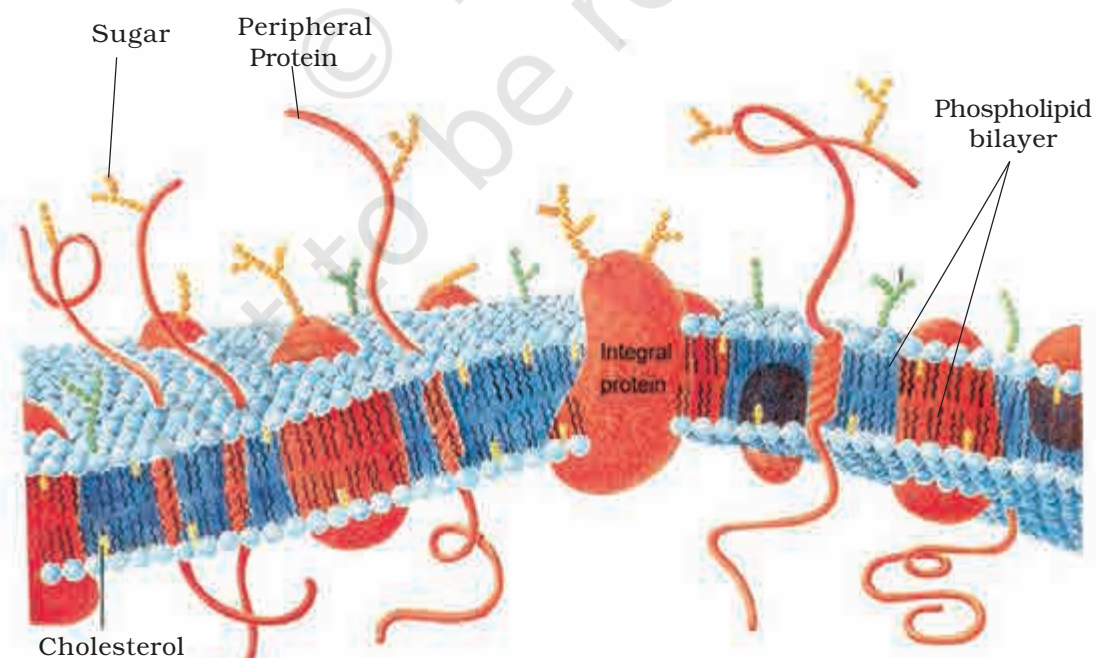

Figure 8.4 Fluid mosaic model of plasma membrane

the membrane.

An improved model of the structure of cell membrane was proposed by Singer and Nicolson (1972) widely accepted as **fluid mosaic model** (Figure 8.4). According to this, the quasi-fluid nature of lipid enables lateral movement of proteins within the overall bilayer. This ability to move within the membrane is measured as its fluidity.

The fluid nature of the membrane is also important from the point of view of functions like cell growth, formation of intercellular junctions, secretion, endocytosis, cell division etc.

One of the most important functions of the plasma membrane is the transport of the molecules across it. The membrane is selectively permeable to some molecules present on either side of it. Many molecules can move briefly across the membrane without any requirement of energy and this is called the **passive transport**. Neutral solutes may move across the membrane by the process of simple diffusion along the concentration gradient, i.e., from higher concentration to the lower. Water may also move across this membrane from higher to lower concentration. Movement of water by diffusion is called **osmosis**. As the polar molecules cannot pass through the nonpolar lipid bilayer, they require a carrier protein of the membrane to facilitate their transport across the membrane. A few ions or molecules are transported across the membrane against their concentration gradient, i.e., from lower to the higher concentration. Such a transport is an energy dependent process, in which ATP is utilised and is called **active transport**, e.g., Na^+/K^+ Pump.

8.5.2 Cell Wall

As you may recall, a non-living rigid structure called the cell wall forms an outer covering for the plasma membrane of fungi and plants. Cell wall not only gives shape to the cell and protects the cell from mechanical damage and infection, it also helps in cell-to-cell interaction and provides barrier to undesirable macromolecules. Algae have cell wall, made of cellulose, galactans, mannans and minerals like calcium carbonate, while in other plants it consists of cellulose, hemicellulose, pectins and proteins. The cell wall of a young plant cell, the **primary wall** is capable of growth, which gradually diminishes as the cell matures and the secondary wall is formed on the inner (towards membrane) side of the cell.

The middle lamella is a layer mainly of calcium pectate which holds or glues the different neighbouring cells together. The cell wall and middle lamellae may be traversed by plasmodesmata which connect the cytoplasm of neighbouring cells.

8.5.3 Endomembrane System

While each of the membranous organelles is distinct in terms of its

structure and function, many of these are considered together as an endomembrane system because their functions are coordinated. The endomembrane system include endoplasmic reticulum (ER), golgi complex, lysosomes and vacuoles. Since the functions of the mitochondria, chloroplast and peroxisomes are not coordinated with the above components, these are not considered as part of the endomembrane system.

8.5.3.1 *The Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)*

Electron microscopic studies of eukaryotic cells reveal the presence of a network or reticulum of tiny tubular structures scattered in the cytoplasm that is called the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Figure 8.5). Hence, ER divides the intracellular space into two distinct compartments, i.e., luminal (inside ER) and extra luminal (cytoplasm) compartments.

The ER often shows ribosomes attached to their outer surface. The endoplasmic reticulun bearing ribosomes on their surface is called rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER). In the absence of ribosomes they appear smooth and are called smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER).

RER is frequently observed in the cells actively involved in protein synthesis and secretion. They are extensive and continuous with the outer membrane of the nucleus.

The smooth endoplasmic reticulum is the major site for synthesis of lipid. In animal cells lipid-like steroidal hormones are synthesised in SER.

8.5.3.2 *Golgi apparatus*

Camillo Golgi (1898) first observed densely stained reticular structures near the nucleus. These were later named Golgi bodies after him. They consist of many flat, disc-shaped sacs or cisternae of 0.5µm to 1.0µm diameter (Figure 8.6). These are stacked parallel to each other. Varied number of cisternae are present in a Golgi complex. The Golgi cisternae are concentrically arranged near the nucleus with distinct convex *cis* or the forming
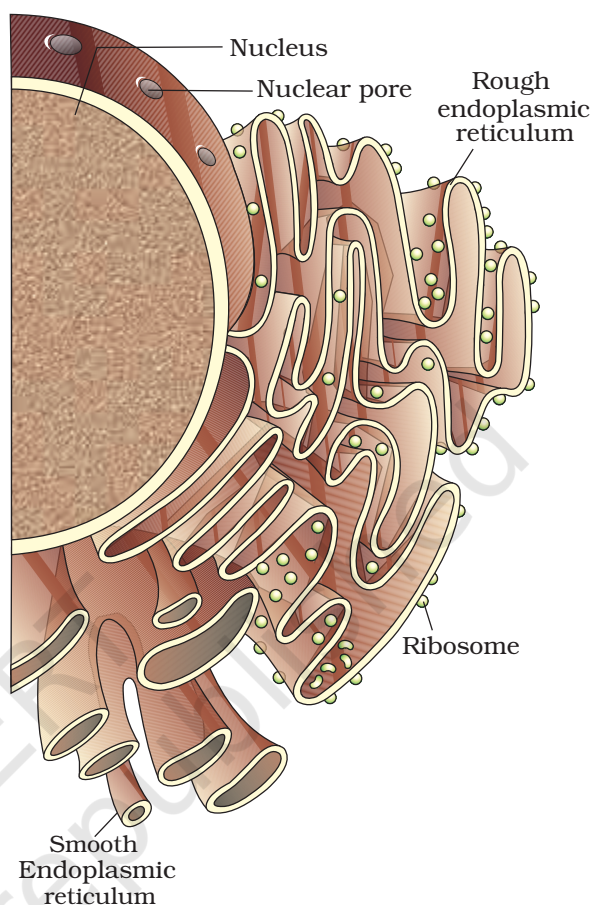

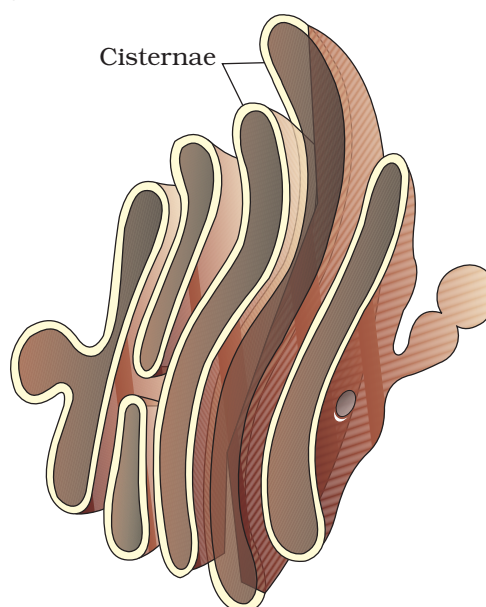**Figure 8.5** Endoplasmic reticulum

Figure 8.6 Golgi apparatus

face and concave *trans* or the maturing face. The *cis* and the *trans* faces of the organelle are entirely different, but interconnected.

The golgi apparatus principally performs the function of packaging materials, to be delivered either to the intra-cellular targets or secreted outside the cell. Materials to be packaged in the form of vesicles from the ER fuse with the *cis* face of the golgi apparatus and move towards the maturing face. This explains, why the golgi apparatus remains in close association with the endoplasmic reticulum. A number of proteins synthesised by ribosomes on the endoplasmic reticulum are modified in the cisternae of the golgi apparatus before they are released from its *trans* face. Golgi apparatus is the important site of formation of glycoproteins and glycolipids.

8.5.3.3 Lysosomes

These are membrane bound vesicular structures formed by the process of packaging in the golgi apparatus. The isolated lysosomal vesicles have been found to be very rich in almost all types of hydrolytic enzymes (hydrolases – lipases, proteases, carbohydrases) optimally active at the acidic pH. These enzymes are capable of digesting carbohydrates, proteins, lipids and nucleic acids.

8.5.3.4 Vacuoles

The vacuole is the membrane-bound space found in the cytoplasm. It contains water, sap, excretory product and other materials not useful for the cell. The vacuole is bound by a single membrane called tonoplast. In plant cells the vacuoles can occupy up to 90 per cent of the volume of the cell.

In plants, the tonoplast facilitates the transport of a number of ions and other materials against concentration gradients into the vacuole, hence their concentration is significantly higher in the vacuole than in the cytoplasm.

In *Amoeba* the **contractile vacuole** is important for excretion. In many cells, as in protists, **food vacuoles** are formed by engulfing the food particles.

8.5.4 Mitochondria

Mitochondria (sing.: mitochondrion), unless specifically stained, are not easily visible under the microscope. The number of mitochondria per cell is variable depending on the physiological activity of the cells. In terms of shape and size also, considerable degree of variability is observed. Typically it is sausage-shaped or cylindrical having a diameter of 0.2-1.0µm (average 0.5µm) and length 1.0-4.1µm. Each mitochondrion is a double
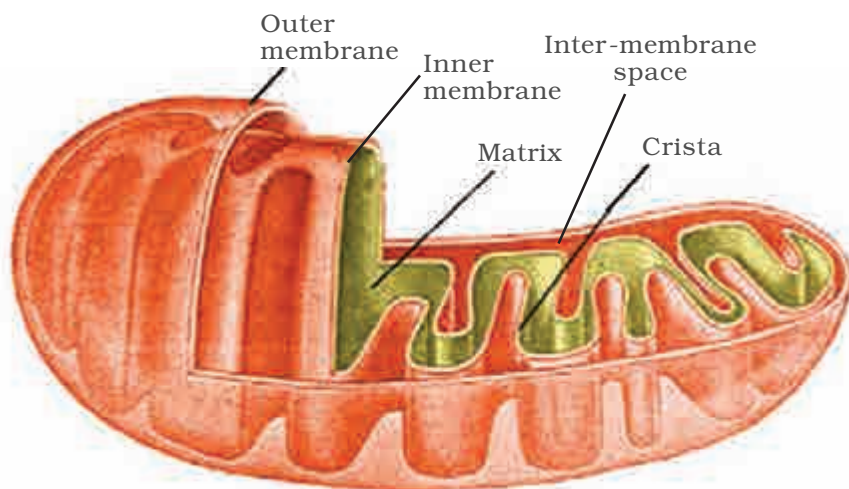
Figure 8.7 Structure of mitochondrion (Longitudinal section)

membrane-bound structure with the outer membrane and the inner membrane dividing its lumen distinctly into two aqueous compartments, i.e., the outer compartment and the inner compartment. The inner compartment is filled with a dense homogeneous substance called the **matrix**. The outer membrane forms the continuous limiting boundary of the organelle. The inner membrane forms a number of infoldings called the cristae (sing.: crista) towards the matrix (Figure 8.7). The cristae increase the surface area. The two membranes have their own specific enzymes associated with the mitochondrial function. Mitochondria are the sites of aerobic respiration. They produce cellular energy in the form of ATP, hence they are called 'power houses' of the cell. The matrix also possesses single circular DNA molecule, a few RNA molecules, ribosomes (70S) and the components required for the synthesis of proteins. The mitochondria divide by fission.

8.5.5 Plastids

Plastids are found in all plant cells and in euglenoides. These are easily observed under the microscope as they are large. They bear some specific pigments, thus imparting specific colours to the plants. Based on the type of pigments plastids can be classified into **chloroplasts, chromoplasts** and **leucoplasts.**

The chloroplasts contain **chlorophyll** and carotenoid pigments which are responsible for trapping light energy essential for photosynthesis. In the chromoplasts fat soluble **carotenoid** pigments like carotene, xanthophylls and others are present. This gives the part of the plant a yellow, orange or red colour. The leucoplasts are the colourless plastids of varied shapes and sizes with stored nutrients: **Amyloplasts** store carbohydrates (starch), e.g., potato; **elaioplasts** store oils and fats whereas
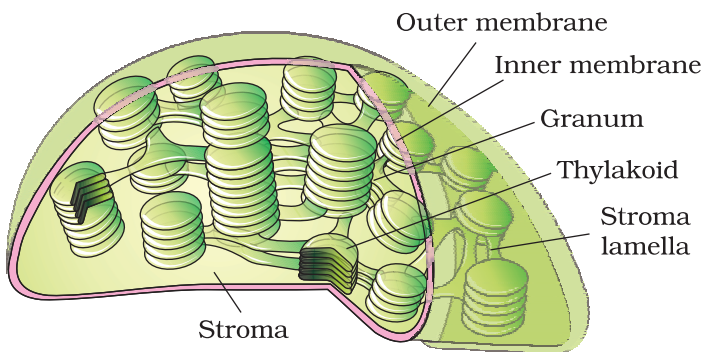
Outer membrane
Inner membrane
Granum
Thylakoid
Stroma lamella
Stroma

Figure 8.8 Sectional view of chloroplast

the **aleuroplasts** store proteins.

Majority of the chloroplasts of the green plants are found in the mesophyll cells of the leaves. These are lens-shaped, oval, spherical, discoid or even ribbon-like organelles having variable length (5-10μm) and width (2-4μm). Their number varies from 1 per cell of the *Chlamydomonas*, a green alga to 20-40 per cell in the mesophyll.

Like mitochondria, the chloroplasts are also double membrane bound. Of the two, the inner chloroplast membrane is relatively less permeable. The space limited by the inner membrane of the chloroplast is called the stroma. A number of organised flattened membranous sacs called the **thylakoids**, are present in the stroma (Figure 8.8). Thylakoids are arranged in stacks like the piles of coins called grana (singular: granum) or the intergranal thylakoids. In addition, there are flat membranous tubules called the stroma lamellae connecting the thylakoids of the different grana. The membrane of the thylakoids enclose a space called a lumen. The stroma of the chloroplast contains enzymes required for the synthesis of carbohydrates and proteins. It also contains small, double-stranded circular DNA molecules and ribosomes. Chlorophyll pigments are present in the thylakoids. The ribosomes of the chloroplasts are smaller (70S) than the cytoplasmic ribosomes (80S).

8.5.6   Ribosomes

Ribosomes are the granular structures first observed under the electron microscope as dense particles by George Palade (1953). They are composed of ribonucleic acid (RNA) and proteins and are not surrounded by any membrane.

Large subunit
Small subunit

Figure 8.9 Ribosome

The eukaryotic ribosomes are 80S while the prokaryotic ribosomes are 70S. Each ribosome has two subunits, larger and smaller subunits (Fig 8.9). The two subunits of 80S ribosomes are 60S and 40S while that of 70S ribosomes are 50S and 30S. Here 'S' (Svedberg's Unit) stands for the sedimentation coefficient; it is indirectly a measure of density and size. Both 70S and 80S ribosomes are composed of two subunits.
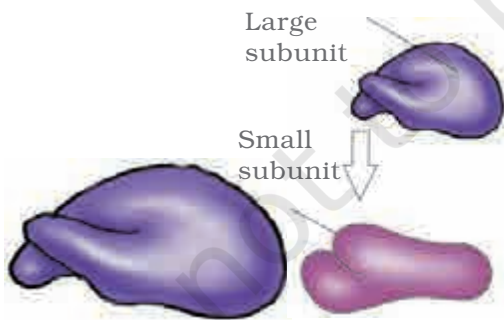
8.5.7   Cytoskeleton

An elaborate network of filamentous proteinaceous structures present in the cytoplasm is collectively referred to as the **cytoskeleton**. The cytoskeleton in a cell are involved in many functions such as mechanical support, motility, maintenance of the shape of the cell.
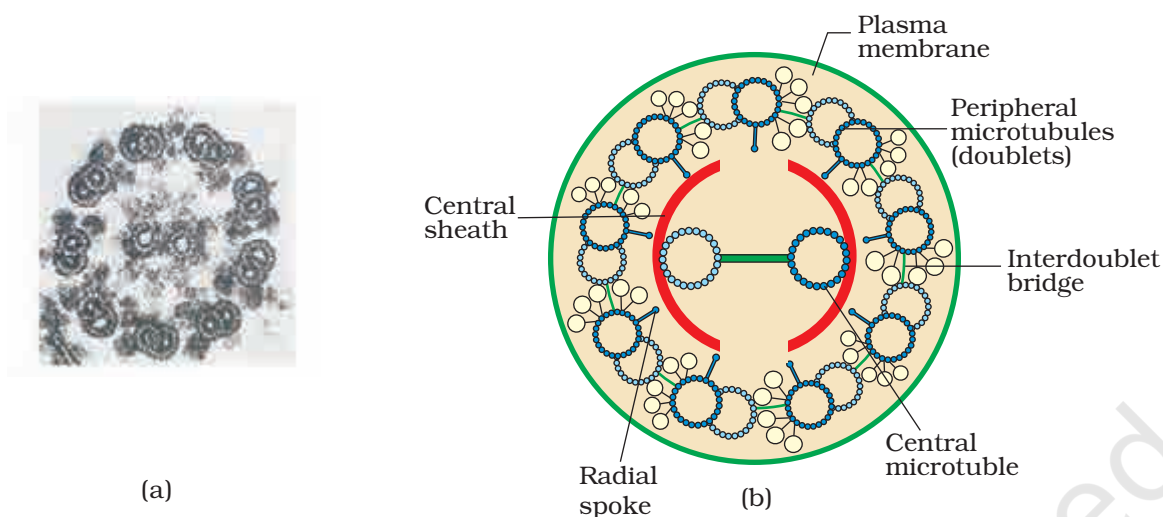
Figure 8.10 Section of cilia/flagella showing different parts : (a) Electron micrograph (b) Diagrammatic representation of internal structure

8.5.8 Cilia and Flagella

Cilia (sing.: cilium) and flagella (sing.: flagellum) are hair-like outgrowths of the cell membrane. Cilia are small structures which work like oars, causing the movement of either the cell or the surrounding fluid. Flagella are comparatively longer and responsible for cell movement. The prokaryotic bacteria also possess flagella but these are structurally different from that of the eukaryotic flagella.

The electron microscopic study of a cilium or the flagellum show that they are covered with plasma membrane. Their core called the **axoneme,** possesses a number of microtubules running parallel to the long axis. The axoneme usually has nine pairs of doublets of radially arranged peripheral microtubules, and a pair of centrally located microtubules. Such an arrangement of axonemal microtubules is referred to as the 9+2 array (Figure 8.10). The central tubules are connected by bridges and is also enclosed by a central sheath, which is connected to one of the tubules of each peripheral doublets by a radial spoke. Thus, there are nine radial spokes. The peripheral doublets are also interconnected by linkers. Both the cilium and flagellum emerge from centriole-like structure called the basal bodies.

8.5.9 Centrosome and Centrioles

Centrosome is an organelle usually containing two cylindrical structures called centrioles. They are surrounded by amorphous pericentriolar materials. Both the centrioles in a centrosome lie perpendicular to each other in which each has an organisation like the cartwheel. They are

made up of nine evenly spaced peripheral fibrils of tubulin protein. Each of the peripheral fibril is a triplet.The adjacent triplets are also linked. The central part of the proximal region of the centriole is also proteinaceous and called the **hub**, which is connected with tubules of the peripheral triplets by radial **spokes** made of protein. The centrioles form the basal body of cilia or flagella, and spindle fibres that give rise to spindle apparatus during cell division in animal cells.

8.5.10 Nucleus

Nucleus as a cell organelle was first described by Robert Brown as early as 1831. Later the material of the nucleus stained by the basic dyes was given the name **chromatin** by Flemming.
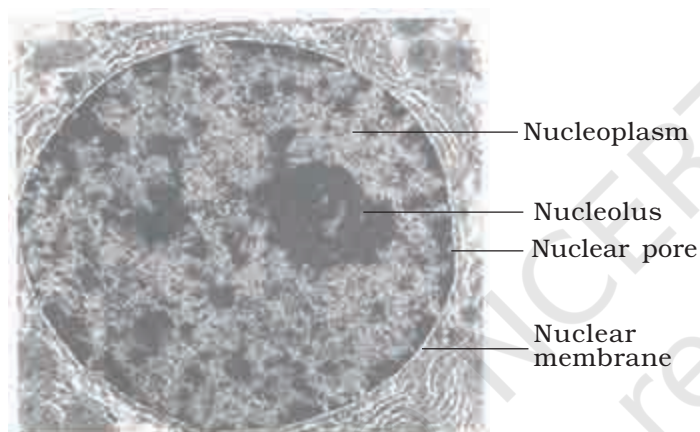
The interphase nucleus (nucleus of a cell when it is not dividing) has highly extended and elaborate nucleoprotein fibres called chromatin, nuclear matrix and one or more spherical bodies called **nucleoli** (sing.: nucleolus) (Figure 8.11). Electron microscopy has revealed that the nuclear envelope, which consists of two parallel membranes with a space between (10 to 50 nm) called the **perinuclear space**, forms a barrier between the materials present inside the nucleus and that of the cytoplasm. The outer membrane usually remains continuous with the endoplasmic reticulum and also bears ribosomes on it. At a number of places the nuclear envelope is interrupted by minute pores, which are formed by the fusion of its two membranes. These nuclear pores are the passages through which movement of RNA and protein molecules takes place in both directions between the nucleus and the cytoplasm. Normally, there is only one nucleus per cell, variations in the number of nuclei are also frequently observed. *Can you recollect names of organisms that have more than one nucleus per cell?* Some mature cells even lack nucleus, e.g., erythrocytes of many mammals and sieve tube cells of vascular plants. *Would you consider these cells as 'living'?*

Nucleoplasm

Nucleolus

Nuclear pore

Nuclear membrane

Figure 8.11   Structure of nucleus

The nuclear matrix or the **nucleoplasm** contains nucleolus and chromatin. The nucleoli are spherical structures present in the nucleoplasm. The content of nucleolus is continuous with the rest of the nucleoplasm as it is not a membrane bound structure. It is a site for active ribosomal RNA synthesis. Larger and more numerous nucleoli are present in cells actively carrying out protein synthesis.

You may recall that the interphase nucleus has a loose and indistinct network of nucleoprotein fibres called chromatin. But during different stages of cell division, cells show structured **chromosomes** in place of the nucleus. Chromatin contains DNA and some basic proteins called **histones**, some non-histone proteins and also RNA. A single human cell has approximately two metre long thread of DNA distributed among its forty six (twenty three pairs) chromosomes. You will study the details of DNA packaging in the form of a chromosome in class XII.

Every chromosome (visible only in dividing cells) essentially has a primary constriction or the **centromere** on the sides of which disc shaped structures called **kinetochores** are present (Figure 8.12). Centromere holds two chromatids of a chromosome. Based on the position of the centromere, the chromosomes can be classified into four types (Figure 8.13). The **metacentric** chromosome has middle centromere forming two equal arms of the chromosome. The **sub-metacentric** chromosome has centromere slightly away from the middle of the chromosome resulting into one shorter arm and one longer arm. In case of **acrocentric** chromosome the centromere is situated close to its end forming one extremely short and one very long arm, whereas the **telocentric** chromosome has a terminal centromere.
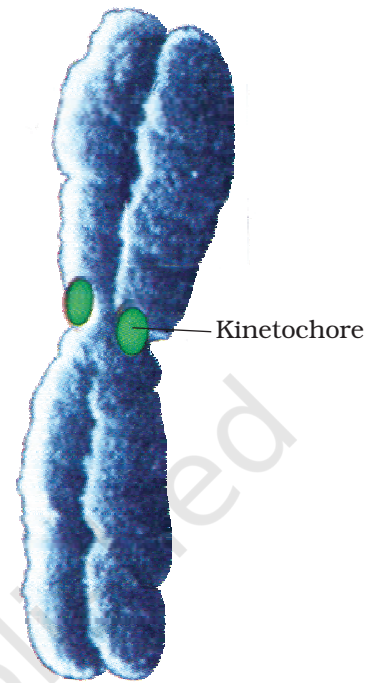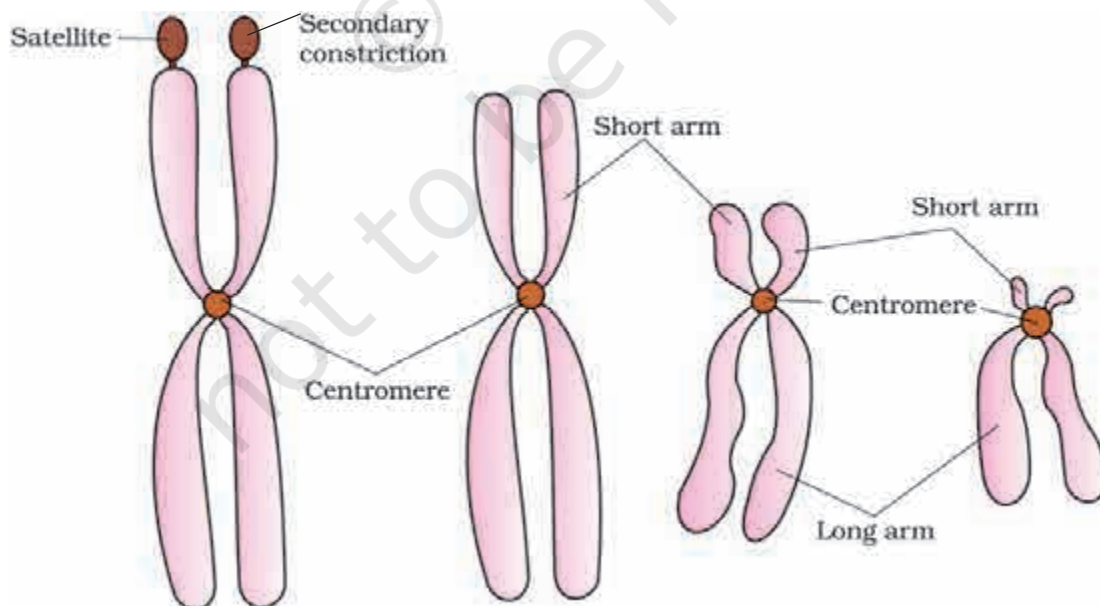

Figure 8.12 Chromosome with kinetochore

Figure 8.13 Types of chromosomes based on the position of centromere

Sometimes a few chromosomes have non-staining secondary constrictions at a constant location. This gives the appearance of a small fragment called the **satellite**.

8.5.11 Microbodies

Many membrane bound minute vesicles called microbodies that contain various enzymes, are present in both plant and animal cells.

SUMMARY

All organisms are made of cells or aggregates of cells. Cells vary in their shape, size and activities/functions. Based on the presence or absence of a membrane bound nucleus and other organelles, cells and hence organisms can be named as eukaryotic or prokaryotic.

A typical eukaryotic cell consists of a cell membrane, nucleus and cytoplasm. Plant cells have a cell wall outside the cell membrane. The plasma membrane is selectively permeable and facilitates transport of several molecules. The endomembrane system includes ER, golgi complex, lysosomes and vacuoles. All the cell organelles perform different but specific functions. Centrosome and centriole form the basal body of cilia and flagella that facilitate locomotion. In animal cells, centrioles also form spindle apparatus during cell division. Nucleus contains nucleoli and chromatin network. It not only controls the activities of organelles but also plays a major role in heredity.

Endoplasmic reticulum contains tubules or cisternae. They are of two types: rough and smooth. ER helps in the transport of substances, synthesis of proteins, lipoproteins and glycogen. The golgi body is a membranous organelle composed of flattened sacs. The secretions of cells are packed in them and transported from the cell. Lysosomes are single membrane structures containing enzymes for digestion of all types of macromolecules. Ribosomes are involved in protein synthesis. These occur freely in the cytoplasm or are associated with ER. Mitochondria help in oxidative phosphorylation and generation of adenosine triphosphate. They are bound by double membrane; the outer membrane is smooth and inner one folds into several cristae. Plastids are pigment containing organelles found in plant cells only. In plant cells, chloroplasts are responsible for trapping light energy essential for photosynthesis. The grana, in the plastid, is the site of light reactions and the stroma of dark reactions. The green coloured plastids are chloroplasts, which contain chlorophyll, whereas the other coloured plastids are chromoplasts, which may contain pigments like carotene and xanthophyll. The nucleus is enclosed by nuclear envelope, a double membrane structure with nuclear pores. The inner membrane encloses the nucleoplasm and the chromatin material. Thus, cell is the structural and functional unit of life.

EXERCISES

1. Which of the following is not correct?

   (a) Robert Brown discovered the cell.
   (b) Schleiden and Schwann formulated the cell theory.
   (c) Virchow explained that cells are formed from pre-existing cells.
   (d) A unicellular organism carries out its life activities within a single cell.

2. New cells generate from

   (a) bacterial fermentation   (b) regeneration of old cells
   (c) pre-existing cells   (d) abiotic materials

3. Match the following

Column I	Column II
(a) Cristae	(i) Flat membranous sacs in stroma
(b) Cisternae	(ii) Infoldings in mitochondria
(c) Thylakoids	(iii) Disc-shaped sacs in Golgi apparatus

4. Which of the following is correct:

   (a) Cells of all living organisms have a nucleus.
   (b) Both animal and plant cells have a well defined cell wall.
   (c) In prokaryotes, there are no membrane bound organelles.
   (d) Cells are formed *de novo* from abiotic materials.

5. What is a mesosome in a prokaryotic cell? Mention the functions that it performs.

6. How do neutral solutes move across the plasma membrane? Can the polar molecules also move across it in the same way? If not, then how are these transported across the membrane?

7. Name two cell-organelles that are double membrane bound. What are the characteristics of these two organelles? State their functions and draw labelled diagrams of both.

8. What are the characteristics of prokaryotic cells?

9. Multicellular organisms have division of labour. Explain.

10. Cell is the basic unit of life. Discuss in brief.

11. What are nuclear pores? State their function.

12. Both lysosomes and vacuoles are endomembrane structures, yet they differ in terms of their functions. Comment.

13. Describe the structure of the following with the help of labelled diagrams.

    (i) Nucleus   (ii) Centrosome

14. What is a centromere? How does the position of centromere form the basis of classification of chromosomes. Support your answer with a diagram showing the position of centromere on different types of chromosomes.

CHAPTER 9

BIOMOLECULES

There is a wide diversity in living organisms in our biosphere. Now a question that arises in our minds is: Are all living organisms made of the same chemicals, i.e., elements and compounds? You have learnt in chemistry how elemental analysis is performed. If we perform such an analysis on a plant tissue, animal tissue or a microbial paste, we obtain a list of elements like carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and several others and their respective content per unit mass of a living tissue. If the same analysis is performed on a piece of earth's crust as an example of non-living matter, we obtain a similar list. What are the differences between the two lists? In absolute terms, no such differences could be made out. All the elements present in a sample of earth's crust are also present in a sample of living tissue. However, a closer examination reveals that the relative abundance of carbon and hydrogen with respect to other elements is higher in any living organism than in earth's crust (Table 9.1).

9.1 HOW TO ANALYSE CHEMICAL COMPOSITION?

We can continue asking in the same way, what type of organic compounds are found in living organisms? How does one go about finding the answer? To get an answer, one has to perform a chemical analysis. We can take any living tissue (a vegetable or a piece of liver, etc.) and grind it in trichloroacetic acid (Cl_3CCOOH) using a mortar and a pestle. We obtain a thick slurry. If we were to strain this through a cheesecloth or cotton we would obtain two fractions. One is called the filtrate or more technically, the acid-soluble pool, and the second, the retentate or the acid-insoluble fraction. Scientists have found thousands of organic compounds in the acid-soluble pool.

In higher classes you will learn about how to analyse a living tissue sample and identify a particular organic compound. It will suffice to say here that one extracts the compounds, then subjects the extract to various separation techniques till one has separated a compound from all other compounds. In other words, one isolates and purifies a compound. Analytical techniques, when applied to the compound give us an idea of the molecular formula and the probable structure of the compound. All the carbon compounds that we get from living tissues can be called 'biomolecules'. However, living organisms have also got inorganic elements and compounds in them. How do we know this? A slightly different but destructive experiment has to be done. One weighs a small amount of a living tissue (say a leaf or liver and this is called wet weight) and dry it. All the water, evaporates. The remaining material gives dry weight. Now if the tissue is fully burnt, all the carbon compounds are oxidised to gaseous form (CO_2, water vapour) and are removed. What is remaining is called 'ash'. This ash contains inorganic elements (like calcium, magnesium etc). Inorganic compounds like sulphate, phosphate, etc., are also seen in the acid-soluble fraction. Therefore elemental analysis gives elemental composition of living tissues in the form of hydrogen, oxygen, chlorine, carbon etc. while analysis for compounds gives an idea of the kind of organic (Figure 9.1) and inorganic constituents (Table 9.2) present in living tissues. From a chemistry point of view, one can identify functional groups like aldehydes, ketones, aromatic compounds, etc. But from a biological point of view, we shall classify them into amino acids, nucleotide bases, fatty acids etc.

Amino acids are organic compounds containing an amino group and an acidic group as substituents on the same carbon i.e., the α-carbon. Hence, they are called α-amino acids. They are substituted methanes. There are four substituent groups occupying the four valency positions. These are hydrogen, carboxyl group, amino group and a variable group designated as R group. Based on the nature of R group there are many amino acids. However, those which occur in proteins are only of twenty

TABLE 9.1 A Comparison of Elements Present in Non-living and Living Matter*

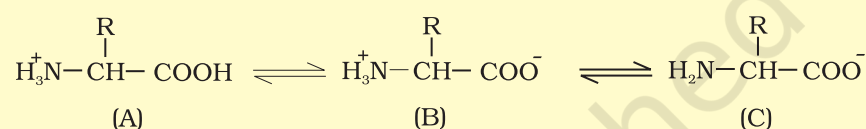| Element	% Weight of Earth's crust	Human body
Hydrogen (H)	0.14	0.5
Carbon (C)	0.03	18.5
Oxygen (O)	46.6	65.0
Nitrogen (N)	very little	3.3
Sulphur (S)	0.03	0.3
Sodium (Na)	2.8	0.2
Calcium (Ca)	3.6	1.5
Magnesium (Mg)	2.1	0.1
Silicon (Si)	27.7	negligible

* Adapted from CNR Rao, *Understanding Chemistry*, Universities Press, Hyderabad.

TABLE 9.2 A List of Representative Inorganic Constituents of Living Tissues

Component	Formula
Sodium	Na^+
Potassium	K^+
Calcium	Ca^{++}
Magnesium	Mg^{++}
Water	H_2O
Compounds	NaCl, $CaCO_3$, PO_4^{3-} , SO_4^{2-}

types. The R group in these proteinaceous amino acids could be a hydrogen (the amino acid is called glycine), a methyl group (alanine), hydroxy methyl (serine), etc. Three of the twenty are shown in Figure 9.1.

The chemical and physical properties of amino acids are essentially of the amino, carboxyl and the R functional groups. Based on number of amino and carboxyl groups, there are acidic (e.g., glutamic acid), basic (lysine) and neutral (valine) amino acids. Similarly, there are aromatic amino acids (tyrosine, phenylalanine, tryptophan). A particular property of amino acids is the ionizable nature of $-NH_2$ and $-COOH$ groups. Hence in solutions of different pHs, the structure of amino acids changes.

$$\overset{R}{\underset{|}{H_3^+N-CH-COOH}} \rightleftharpoons \overset{R}{\underset{|}{H_3^+N-CH-COO^-}} \rightleftharpoons \overset{R}{\underset{|}{H_2N-CH-COO^-}}$$

$$\qquad\qquad (A) \qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad (B) \qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad (C)$$

B is called zwitterionic form.

Lipids are generally water insoluble. They could be simple fatty acids. A fatty acid has a carboxyl group attached to an R group. The R group could be a methyl ($-CH_3$), or ethyl ($-C_2H_5$) or higher number of $-CH_2$ groups (1 carbon to 19 carbons). For example, palmitic acid has 16 carbons including carboxyl carbon. Arachidonic acid has 20 carbon atoms including the carboxyl carbon. Fatty acids could be saturated (without double bond) or unsaturated (with one or more C=C double bonds). Another simple lipid is glycerol which is trihydroxy propane. Many lipids have both glycerol and fatty acids. Here the fatty acids are found esterified with glycerol. They can be then monoglycerides, diglycerides and triglycerides. These are also called fats and oils based on melting point. Oils have lower melting point (e.g., gingelly oil) and hence remain as oil in winters. Can you identify a fat from the market? Some lipids have phosphorous and a phosphorylated organic compound in them. These are phospholipids. They are found in cell membrane. Lecithin is one example. Some tissues especially the neural tissues have lipids with more complex structures.

Living organisms have a number of carbon compounds in which heterocyclic rings can be found. Some of these are nitrogen bases – adenine, guanine, cytosine, uracil, and thymine. When found attached to a sugar, they are called nucleosides. If a phosphate group is also found esterified to the sugar they are called nucleotides. Adenosine, guanosine, thymidine, uridine and cytidine are nucleosides. Adenylic acid, thymidylic acid, guanylic acid, uridylic acid and cytidylic acid are nucleotides. Nucleic acids like DNA and RNA consist of nucleotides only. DNA and RNA function as genetic material.
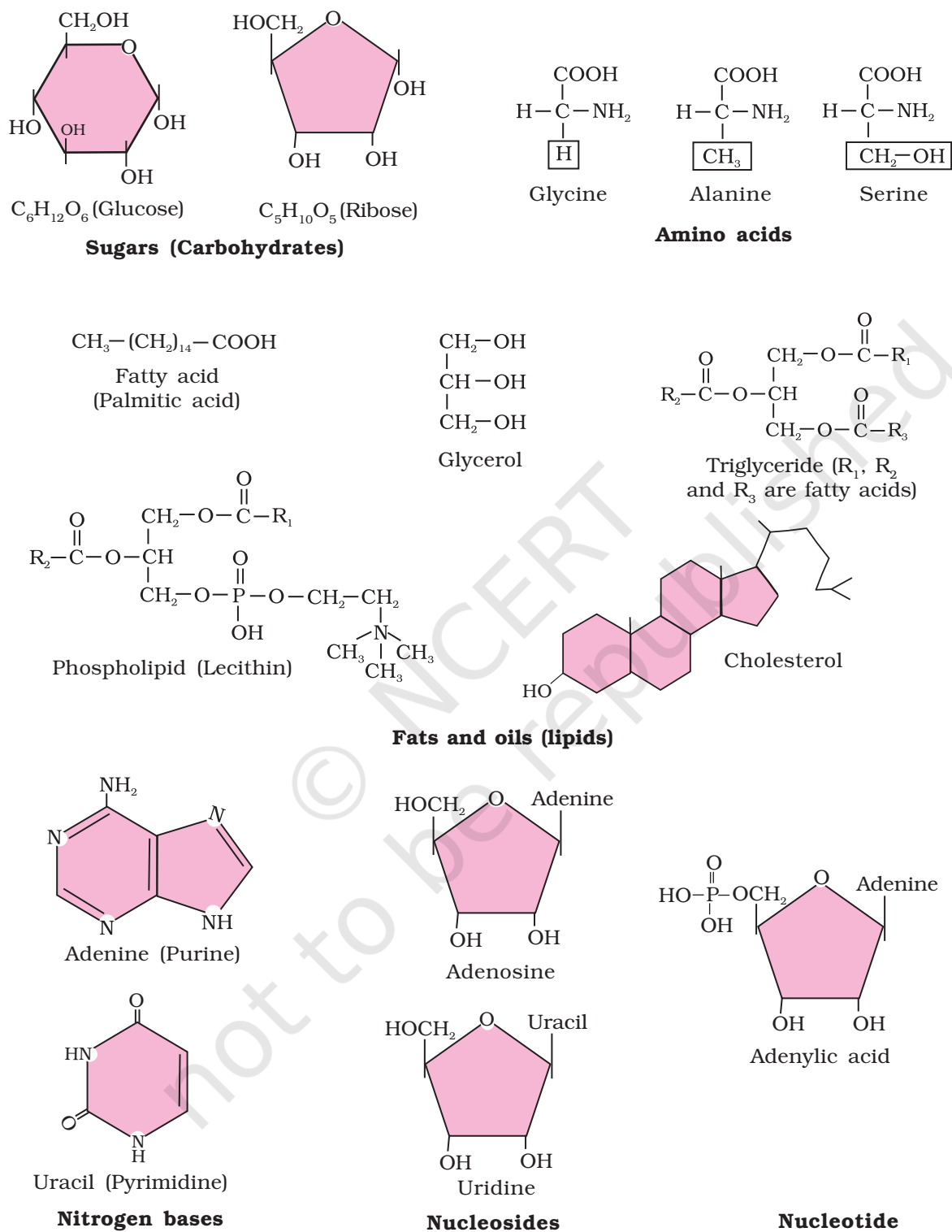
Figure 9.1 Diagrammatic representation of small molecular weight organic compounds in living tissues

9.2 PRIMARY AND SECONDARY METABOLITES

The most exciting aspect of chemistry deals with isolating thousands of compounds, small and big, from living organisms, determining their structure and if possible synthesising them.

If one were to make a list of biomolecules, such a list would have thousands of organic compounds including amino acids, sugars, etc. For reasons that are given in section 9.10, we can call these biomolecules as 'metabolites'. In animal tissues, one notices the presence of all such categories of compounds shown in Figure 9.1. These are called primary metabolites. However, when one analyses plant, fungal and microbial cells, one would see thousands of compounds other than these called primary metabolites, e.g. alkaloids, flavonoids, rubber, essential oils, antibiotics, coloured pigments, scents, gums, spices. These are called **secondary metabolites** (Table 9.3). While primary metabolites have identifiable functions and play known roles in normal physiolgial processes, we do not at the moment, understand the role or functions of all the 'secondary metabolites' in host organisms. However, many of them are useful to 'human welfare' (e.g., rubber, drugs, spices, scents and pigments). Some secondary metabolites have ecological importance. In the later chapters and years you will learn more about this.

TABLE 9.3 Some Secondary Metabolites

Pigments	Carotenoids, Anthocyanins, etc.
Alkaloids	Morphine, Codeine, etc.
Terpenoides	Monoterpenes, Diterpenes etc.
Essential oils	Lemon grass oil, etc.
Toxins	Abrin, Ricin
Lectins	Concanavalin A
Drugs	Vinblastin, curcumin, etc.
Polymeric substances	Rubber, gums, cellulose

9.3 BIOMACROMOLECULES

There is one feature common to all those compounds found in the acid soluble pool. They have molecular weights ranging from 18 to around 800 daltons (Da) approximately.

The acid insoluble fraction, has only four types of organic compounds i.e., proteins, nucleic acids, polysaccharides and lipids. These classes of compounds with the exception of lipids, have molecular weights in the range of ten thousand daltons and above. For this very reason, biomolecules, i.e., chemical compounds found in living organisms are of two types. One, those which have molecular weights less than one thousand dalton and are usually referred to as micromolecules or simply biomolecules while those which are found in the acid insoluble fraction are called macromolecules or **biomacromolecules**.

The molecules in the insoluble fraction with the exception of lipids are polymeric substances. Then why do lipids, whose molecular weights do not exceed 800 Da, come under acid insoluble fraction, i.e., macromolecular fraction? Lipids are indeed small molecular weight

compounds and are present not only as such but also arranged into structures like cell membrane and other membranes. When we grind a tissue, we are disrupting the cell structure. Cell membrane and other membranes are broken into pieces, and form vesicles which are not water soluble. Therefore, these membrane fragments in the form of vesicles get separated along with the acid insoluble pool and hence in the macromolecular fraction. Lipids are not strictly macromolecules.

The acid soluble pool represents roughly the cytoplasmic composition. The macromolecules from cytoplasm and organelles become the acid insoluble fraction. Together they represent the entire chemical composition of living tissues or organisms.

In summary if we represent the chemical composition of living tissue from abundance point of view and arrange them class-wise, we observe that water is the most abundant chemical in living organisms (Table 9.4).

9.4 PROTEINS

Proteins are polypeptides. They are linear chains of amino acids linked by peptide bonds as shown in Figure 9.3.

Each protein is a polymer of amino acids. As there are 20 types of amino acids (e.g., alanine, cysteine, proline, tryptophan, lysine, etc.), a protein is a heteropolymer and not a homopolymer. A homopolymer has only one type of monomer repeating 'n' number of times. This information about the amino acid content is important as later in your nutrition lessons, you will learn that certain amino acids are essential for our health and they have to be supplied through our diet. Hence, dietary proteins are the source of essential amino acids. Therefore, amino acids can be essential or non-essential. The latter are those which our body can make, while we get essential amino acids through our diet/food. Proteins carry out many functions in living organisms, some transport nutrients across cell membrane, some fight infectious organisms, some are hormones, some are enzymes,

TABLE 9.4 Average Composition of Cells

Component	% of the total cellular mass
Water	70-90
Proteins	10-15
Carbohydrates	3
Lipids	2
Nucleic acids	5-7
Ions	1

TABLE 9.5 Some Proteins and their Functions

Protein	Functions
Collagen	Intercellular ground substance
Trypsin	Enzyme
Insulin	Hormone
Antibody	Fights infectious agents
Receptor	Sensory reception (smell, taste, hormone, etc.)
GLUT-4	Enables glucose transport into cells

etc. (Table 9.5). Collagen is the most abundant protein in animal world and Ribulose bisphosphate Carboxylase-Oxygenase (RuBisCO) is the most abundant protein in the whole of the biosphere.

9.5 POLYSACCHARIDES

The acid insoluble pellet also has polysaccharides (carbohydrates) as another class of macromolecules. Polysaccharides are long chains of sugars. They are threads (literally a cotton thread) containing different monosaccharides as building blocks. For example, cellulose is a polymeric polysaccharide consisting of only one type of monosaccharide i.e., glucose. Cellulose is a homopolymer. Starch is a variant of this but present as a store house of energy in plant tissues. Animals have another variant called glycogen. Inulin is a polymer of fructose. In a polysaccharide chain (say glycogen), the right end is called the reducing end and the left end is called the non-reducing end. It has branches as shown in the form of a cartoon (Figure 9.2). Starch forms helical secondary structures. In fact, starch can hold I_2 molecules in the helical portion. The starch-I_2 is blue in colour. Cellulose does not contain complex helices and hence cannot hold I_2.
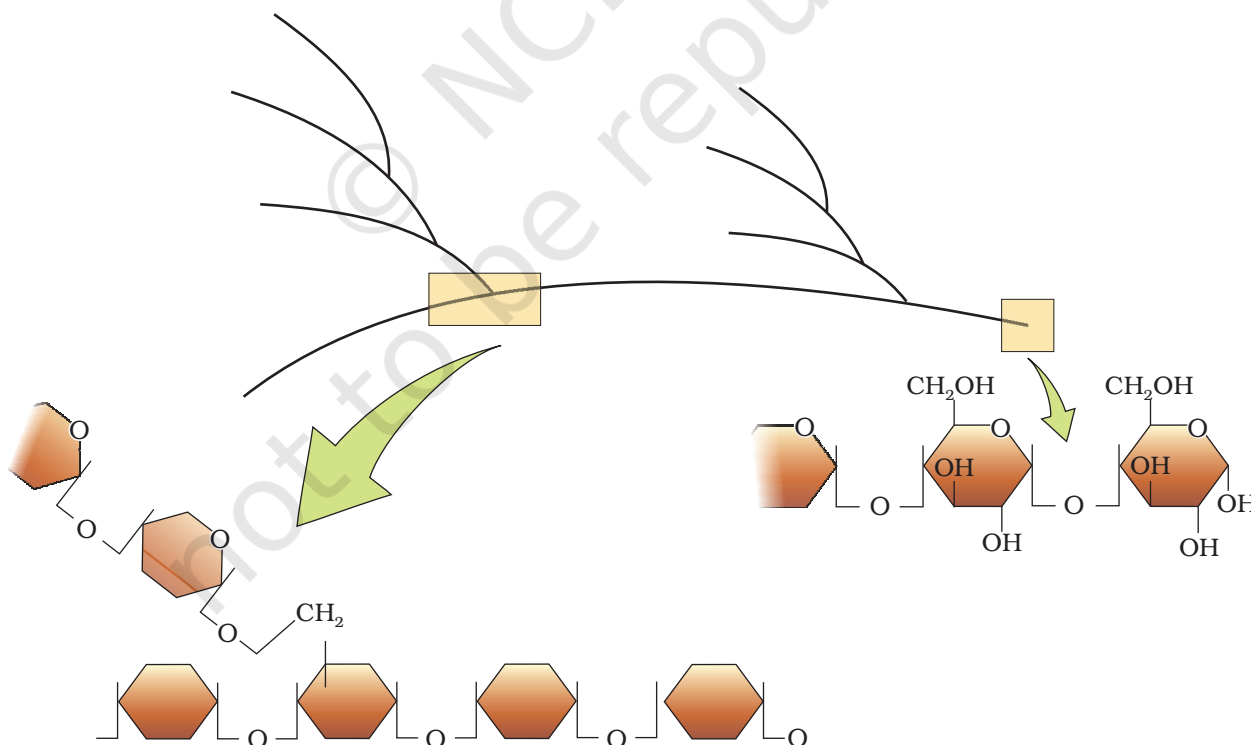

Figure 9.2 Diagrammatic representation of a portion of glycogen

Plant cell walls are made of cellulose. Paper made from plant pulp and cotton fibre is cellulosic. There are more complex polysaccharides in nature. They have as building blocks, amino-sugars and chemically modified sugars (e.g., glucosamine, N-acetyl galactosamine, etc.). Exoskeletons of arthropods, for example, have a complex polysaccharide called chitin. These complex polysaccharides are mostly homopolymers.

9.6 NUCLEIC ACIDS

The other type of macromolecule that one would find in the acid insoluble fraction of any living tissue is the nucleic acid. These are polynucleotides. Together with polysaccharides and polypeptides these comprise the true macromolecular fraction of any living tissue or cell. For nucleic acids, the building block is a nucleotide. A nucleotide has three chemically distinct components. One is a heterocyclic compound, the second is a monosaccharide and the third a phosphoric acid or phosphate.

As you notice in Figure 9.1, the heterocyclic compounds in nucleic acids are the nitrogenous bases named adenine, guanine, uracil, cytosine, and thymine. Adenine and Guanine are substituted purines while the rest are substituted pyrimidines. The skeletal heterocyclic ring is called as purine and pyrimidine respectively. The sugar found in polynucleotides is either ribose (a monosaccharide pentose) or 2' deoxyribose. A nucleic acid containing deoxyribose is called deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) while that which contains ribose is called ribonucleic acid (RNA).

9.7 STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

Proteins, as mentioned earlier, are heteropolymers containing strings of amino acids. Structure of molecules means different things in different contexts. In inorganic chemistry, the structure invariably refers to the molecular formulae (e.g., NaCl, $MgCl_2$, etc.). Organic chemists always write a two dimensional view of the molecules while representing the structure of the molecules (e.g., benzene, naphthalene, etc.). Physicists conjure up the three dimensional views of molecular structures while biologists describe the protein structure at four levels. The sequence of amino acids i.e., the positional information in a protein – which is the first amino acid, which is second, and so on – is called the **primary structure** (Figure 9.3) of a protein. A protein is imagined as a line, the left end represented by the first amino acid and the right end represented by the last amino
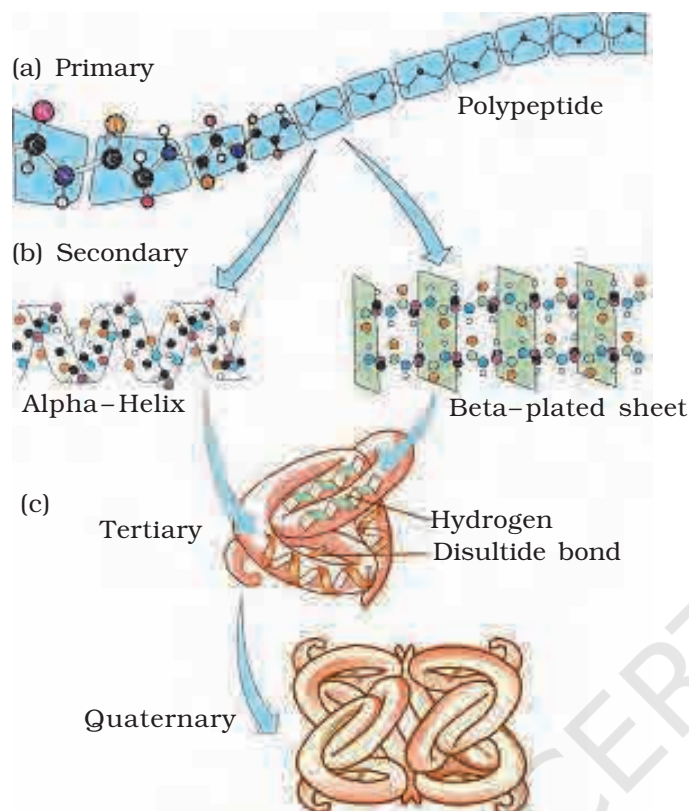
(a) Primary

Polypeptide

(b) Secondary

Alpha–Helix   Beta–plated sheet

(c)

Tertiary   Hydrogen
                                     Disultide bond

Quaternary

Figure 9.3 Various levels of Protein Structure
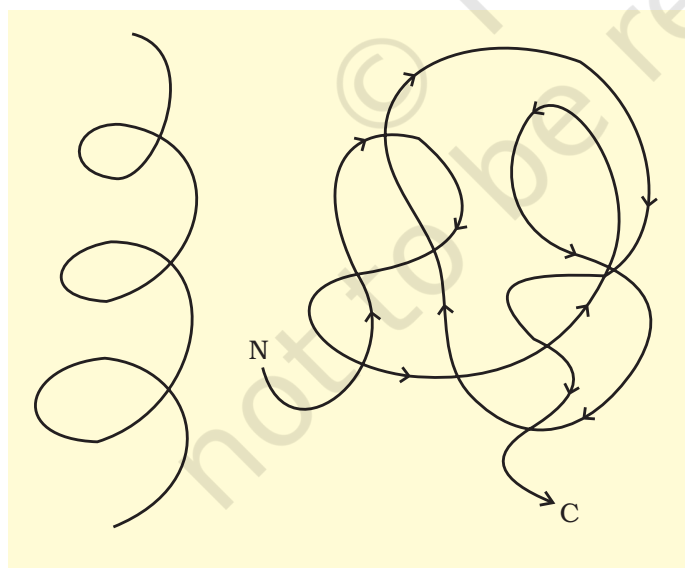
N

C

Figure 9.4 Cartoon showing : (a) A secondary structure
               and (b) A tertiary structure of proteins

acid. The first amino acid is also called as N-terminal amino acid. The last amino acid is called the C-terminal amino acid. A protein thread does not exist throughout as an extended rigid rod. The thread is folded in the form of a helix (similar to a revolving staircase). Of course, only some portions of the protein thread are arranged in the form of a helix. In proteins, only right handed helices are observed. Other regions of the protein thread are folded into other forms in what is called the **secondary structure**. In addition, the long protein chain is also folded upon itself like a hollow woolen ball, giving rise to the **tertiary structure** (Figure 9.4 a, b). This gives us a 3-dimensional view of a protein. Tertiary structure is absolutely necessary for the many biological activities of proteins.

Some proteins are an assembly of more than one polypeptide or subunits. The manner in which these individual folded polypeptides or subunits are arranged with respect to each other (e.g. linear string of spheres, spheres arranged one upon each other in the form of a cube or plate etc.) is the architecture of a protein otherwise called the **quaternary structure** of a protein. Adult human haemoglobin consists of 4 subunits. Two of these are identical to each other. Hence, two subunits of α type and two subunits of β type together constitute the human haemoglobin (Hb).

9.8 NATURE OF BOND LINKING MONOMERS IN A POLYMER

In a polypeptide or a protein, amino acids are linked by a **peptide bond** which is formed when the carboxyl (-COOH) group of one amino acid reacts with the amino (-NH$_2$) group of the next amino acid with the elimination of a water moiety (the process is called dehydration). In a polysaccharide the individual monosaccharides are linked by a **glycosidic bond**. This bond is also formed by dehydration. This bond is formed between two carbon atoms of two adjacent monosaccharides. In a nucleic acid a phosphate moiety links the 3'-carbon of one sugar of one nucleotide to the 5'-carbon of the sugar of the succeeding nucleotide. The bond between the phosphate and hydroxyl group of sugar is an ester bond. As there is one such ester bond on either side, it is called phosphodiester bond (Figure 9.5).

Nucleic acids exhibit a wide variety of secondary structures. For example, one of the secondary structures exhibited by DNA is the famous Watson-Crick model. This model says that DNA exists as a double helix. The two strands of polynucleotides are antiparallel i.e., run in the opposite direction. The backbone is formed by the sugar-phosphate-sugar chain. The nitrogen bases are projected more or less perpendicular to this backbone but face inside. A and G of one strand compulsorily base pairs with T and C, respectively, on the other strand.
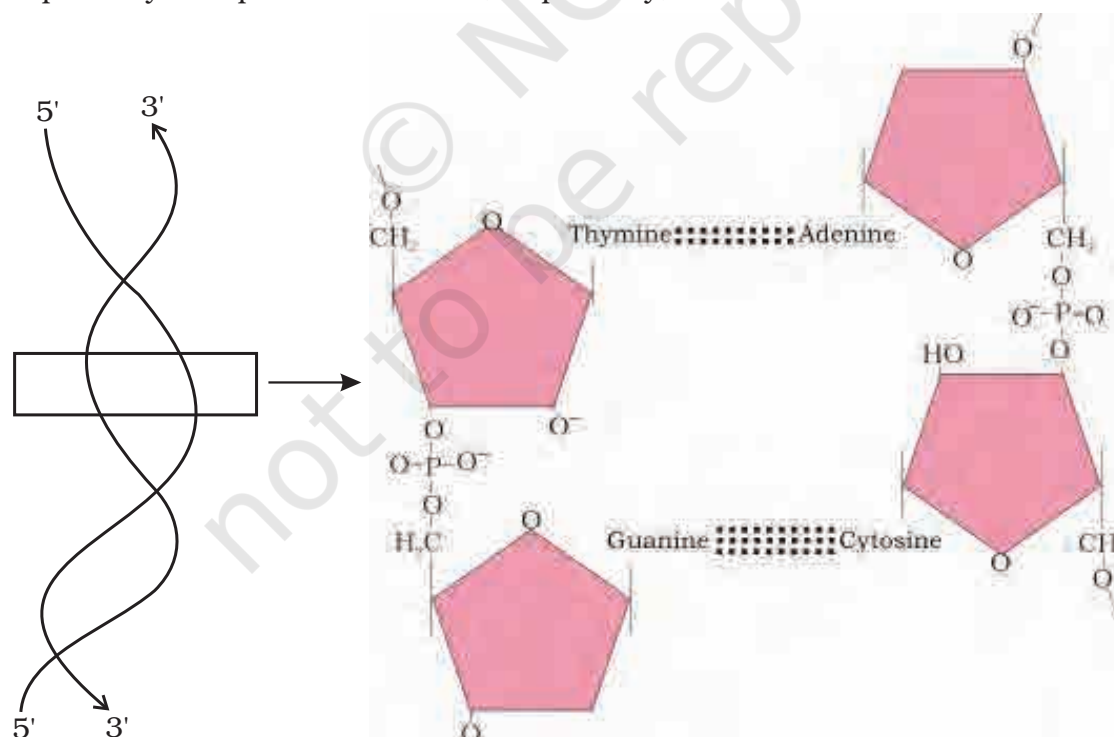

Figure 9.5 Diagram indicating secondary structure of DNA

There are two hydrogen bonds between A and T and three hydrogen bonds between G and C. Each strand appears like a helical staircase. Each step of ascent is represented by a pair of bases. At each step of ascent, the strand turns 36°. One full turn of the helical strand would involve ten steps or ten base pairs. Attempt drawing a line diagram. The pitch would be 34Å. The rise per base pair would be 3.4Å. This form of DNA with the above mentioned salient features is called B-DNA. In higher classes, you will be told that there are more than a dozen forms of DNA named after English alphabets with unique structural features.

9.9 DYNAMIC STATE OF BODY CONSTITUENTS – CONCEPT OF METABOLISM

What we have learnt till now is that living organisms, be it a simple bacterial cell, a protozoan, a plant or an animal, contain thousands of organic compounds. These compounds or biomolecules are present in certain concentrations (expressed as mols/cell or mols/litre etc.). One of the greatest discoveries ever made was the observation that all these biomolecules have a **turn over**. This means that they are constantly being changed into some other biomolecules and also made from some other biomolecules. This breaking and making is through chemical reactions constantly occuring in living organisms. Together all these chemical reactions are called **metabolism**. Each of the metabolic reactions results in the transformation of biomolecules. A few examples for such metabolic transformations are: removal of CO_2 from amino acids making an amino acid into an amine, removal of amino group in a nucleotide base; hydrolysis of a glycosidic bond in a disaccharide, etc. We can list tens and thousands of such examples. Majority of these metabolic reactions do not occur in isolation but are always linked to some other reactions. In other words, metabolites are converted into each other in a series of linked reactions called metabolic pathways. These metabolic pathways are similar to the automobile traffic in a city. These pathways are either linear or circular. These pathways criss-cross each other, i.e., there are traffic junctions. Flow of metabolites through metabolic pathway has a definite rate and direction like automobile traffic. This metabolite flow is called the dynamic state of body constituents. What is most important is that this interlinked metabolic traffic is very smooth and without a single reported mishap for healthy conditions. Another feature of these metabolic reactions is that every chemical reaction is a **catalysed reaction**. There is no uncatalysed metabolic conversion in living systems. Even CO_2 dissolving in water, a physical process, is a catalysed reaction in living systems. The catalysts which hasten the rate of a given metabolic conversation are also proteins. These proteins with catalytic power are named **enzymes**.

9.10 METABOLIC BASIS FOR LIVING

Metabolic pathways can lead to a more complex structure from a simpler structure (for example, acetic acid becomes cholesterol) or lead to a simpler structure from a complex structure (for example, glucose becomes lactic acid in our skeletal muscle). The former cases are called biosynthetic pathways or **anabolic** pathways. The latter constitute degradation and hence are called **catabolic** pathways. Anabolic pathways, as expected, consume energy. Assembly of a protein from amino acids requires energy input. On the other hand, catabolic pathways lead to the release of energy. For example, when glucose is degraded to lactic acid in our skeletal muscle, energy is liberated. This metabolic pathway from glucose to lactic acid which occurs in 10 metabolic steps is called glycolysis. Living organisms have learnt to trap this energy liberated during degradation and store it in the form of chemical bonds. As and when needed, this bond energy is utilised for biosynthetic, osmotic and mechanical work that we perform. The most important form of energy currency in living systems is the bond energy in a chemical called **adenosine triphosphate (ATP)**.

How do living organisms derive their energy? What strategies have they evolved? How do they store this energy and in what form? How do they convert this energy into work? You will study and understand all this under a sub-discipline called 'Bioenergetics' later in your higher classes.

9.11 THE LIVING STATE

At this level, you must understand that the tens and thousands of chemical compounds in a living organism, otherwise called metabolites, or biomolecules, are present at concentrations characteristic of each of them. For example, the blood concentration of glucose in a normal healthy individual is 4.5-5.0 mM, while that of hormones would be nanograms/mL. The most important fact of biological systems is that all living organisms exist in a steady-state characterised by concentrations of each of these biomolecules. These biomolecules are in a metabolic flux. Any chemical or physical process moves spontaneously to equilibrium. The steady state is a non-equilibrium state. One should remember from physics that systems at equilibrium cannot perform work. As living organisms work continuously, they cannot afford to reach equilibrium. **Hence the living state is a non-equilibrium steady-state to be able to perform work**; living process is a constant effort to prevent falling into equilibrium. This is achieved by energy input. Metabolism provides a mechanism for the production of energy. Hence the living state and metabolism are synonymous. Without metabolism there cannot be a living state.

9.12 ENZYMES

Almost all enzymes are proteins. There are some nucleic acids that behave like enzymes. These are called ribozymes. One can depict an enzyme by a line diagram. An enzyme like any protein has a primary structure, i.e., amino acid sequence of the protein. An enzyme like any protein has the secondary and the tertiary structure. When you look at a tertiary structure (Figure 9.4 b) you will notice that the backbone of the protein chain folds upon itself, the chain criss-crosses itself and hence, many crevices or pockets are made. One such pocket is the 'active site'. An active site of an enzyme is a crevice or pocket into which the substrate fits. Thus enzymes, through their active site, catalyse reactions at a high rate. Enzyme catalysts differ from inorganic catalysts in many ways, but one major difference needs mention. Inorganic catalysts work efficiently at high temperatures and high pressures, while enzymes get damaged at high temperatures (say above 40°C). However, enzymes isolated from organisms who normally live under extremely high temperatures (e.g., hot vents and sulphur springs), are stable and retain their catalytic power even at high temperatures (upto 80°-90°C). Thermal stability is thus an important quality of such enzymes isolated from thermophilic organisms.

9.12.1 Chemical Reactions

How do we understand these enzymes? Let us first understand a chemical reaction. Chemical compounds undergo two types of changes. A physical change simply refers to a change in shape without breaking of bonds. This is a physical process. Another physical process is a change in state of matter: when ice melts into water, or when water becomes a vapour. These are also physical processes. However, when bonds are broken and new bonds are formed during transformation, this will be called a chemical reaction. For example:

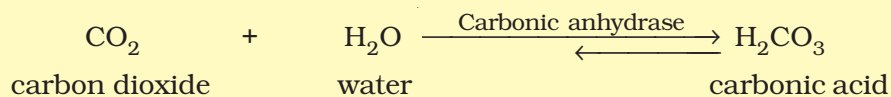$$Ba(OH)_2 + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow BaSO_4 + 2H_2O$$
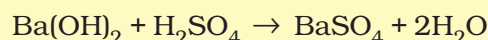
is an inorganic chemical reaction. Similarly, hydrolysis of starch into glucose is an organic chemical reaction. Rate of a physical or chemical process refers to the amount of product formed per unit time. It can be expressed as:

$$\text{rate} = \frac{\delta P}{\delta t}$$

Rate can also be called velocity if the direction is specified. Rates of physical and chemical processes are influenced by temperature among other factors. A general rule of thumb is that rate doubles or decreases by half

for every 10°C change in either direction. Catalysed reactions proceed at rates vastly higher than that of uncatalysed ones. When enzyme catalysed reactions are observed, the rate would be vastly higher than the same but uncatalysed reaction. For example

$$CO_2 \quad + \quad H_2O \quad \xrightarrow[\longleftarrow]{\text{Carbonic anhydrase}} \quad H_2CO_3$$

carbon dioxide water carbonic acid

In the absence of any enzyme this reaction is very slow, with about 200 molecules of H_2CO_3 being formed in an hour. However, by using the enzyme present within the cytoplasm called carbonic anhydrase, the reaction speeds dramatically with about 600,000 molecules being formed every second. The enzyme has accelerated the reaction rate by about 10 million times. The power of enzymes is incredible indeed!

There are thousands of types of enzymes each catalysing a unique chemical or metabolic reaction. A multistep chemical reaction, when each of the steps is catalysed by the same enzyme complex or different enzymes, is called a metabolic pathway. For example,

$$\text{Glucose} \rightarrow 2 \text{ Pyruvic acid}$$

$$C_6H_{12}O_6 \ + \ O_2 \rightarrow \ 2C_3H_4O_3 + 2H_2O$$
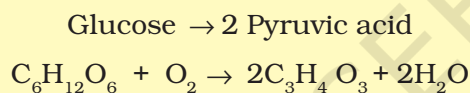
is actually a metabolic pathway in which glucose becomes pyruvic acid through ten different enzyme catalysed metabolic reactions. When you study respiration in Chapter 14 you will study these reactions. At this stage you should know that this very metabolic pathway with one or two additional reactions gives rise to a variety of metabolic end products. In our skeletal muscle, under anaerobic conditions, lactic acid is formed. Under normal aerobic conditions, pyruvic acid is formed. In yeast, during fermentation, the same pathway leads to the production of ethanol (alcohol). Hence, in different conditions different products are possible.

9.12.2 How do Enzymes bring about such High Rates of Chemical Conversions?

To understand this we should study enzymes a little more. We have already understood the idea of an 'active site'. The chemical or metabolic conversion refers to a reaction. The chemical which is converted into a product is called a 'substrate'. Hence enzymes, i.e. proteins with three dimensional structures including an 'active site', convert a substrate (S) into a product (P). Symbolically, this can be depicted as:

$$S \rightarrow P$$

It is now understood that the substrate 'S' has to bind the enzyme at its 'active site' within a given cleft or pocket. The substrate has to diffuse
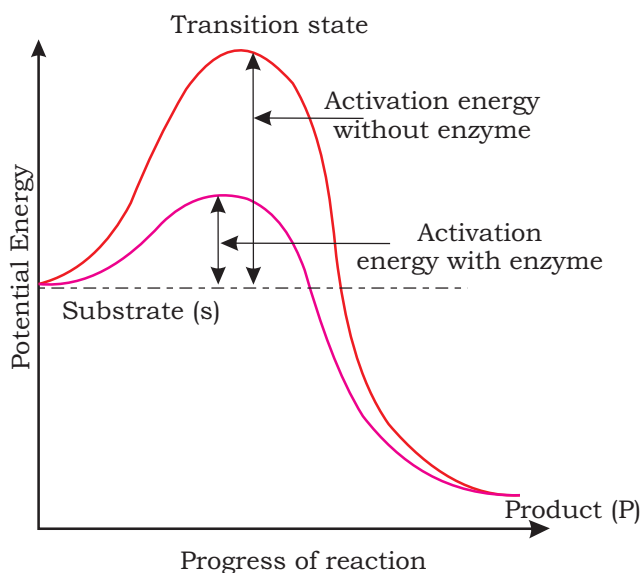
Figure 9.6 Concept of activation energy

towards the 'active site'. There is thus, an obligatory formation of an 'ES' complex. E stands for enzyme. This complex formation is a transient phenomenon. During the state where substrate is bound to the enzyme active site, a new structure of the substrate called transition state structure is formed. Very soon, after the expected bond breaking/making is completed, the product is released from the active site. In other words, the structure of substrate gets transformed into the structure of product(s). The pathway of this transformation must go through the so-called transition state structure. There could be many more 'altered structural states' between the stable substrate and the product. Implicit in this statement is the fact that all other intermediate structural states are unstable. Stability is something related to energy status of the molecule or the structure. Hence, when we look at this pictorially through a graph it looks like something as in Figure 9.6.

The y-axis represents the potential energy content. The x-axis represents the progression of the structural transformation or states through the 'transition state'. You would notice two things. The energy level difference between S and P. If 'P' is at a lower level than 'S', the reaction is an exothermic reaction. One need not supply energy (by heating) in order to form the product. However, whether it is an exothermic or spontaneous reaction or an endothermic or energy requiring reaction, the 'S' has to go through a much higher energy state or transition state. The difference in average energy content of 'S' from that of this transition state is called 'activation energy'.

Enzymes eventually bring down this energy barrier making the transition of 'S' to 'P' more easy.

9.12.3 Nature of Enzyme Action

Each enzyme (E) has a substrate (S) binding site in its molecule so that a highly reactive enzyme-substrate complex (ES) is produced. This complex is short-lived and dissociates into its product(s) P and the unchanged enzyme with an intermediate formation of the enzyme-product complex (EP).

The formation of the ES complex is essential for catalysis.

$$E + S \rightleftharpoons ES \longrightarrow EP \longrightarrow E + P$$
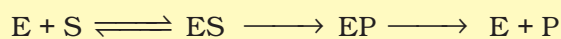
The catalytic cycle of an enzyme action can be described in the following steps:

1. First, the substrate binds to the active site of the enzyme, fitting into the active site.

2. The binding of the substrate induces the enzyme to alter its shape, fitting more tightly around the substrate.

3. The active site of the enzyme, now in close proximity of the substrate breaks the chemical bonds of the substrate and the new enzyme- product complex is formed.

4. The enzyme releases the products of the reaction and the free enzyme is ready to bind to another molecule of the substrate and run through the catalytic cycle once again.

9.12.4 Factors Affecting Enzyme Activity

The activity of an enzyme can be affected by a change in the conditions which can alter the tertiary structure of the protein. These include temperature, pH, change in substrate concentration or binding of specific chemicals that regulate its activity.

Temperature and pH

Enzymes generally function in a narrow range of temperature and pH (Figure 9.7). Each enzyme shows its highest activity at a particular temperature and pH called the optimum temperature and optimum pH. Activity declines both below and above the optimum value. Low temperature preserves the enzyme in a temporarily inactive state whereas high temperature destroys enzymatic activity because proteins are denatured by heat.
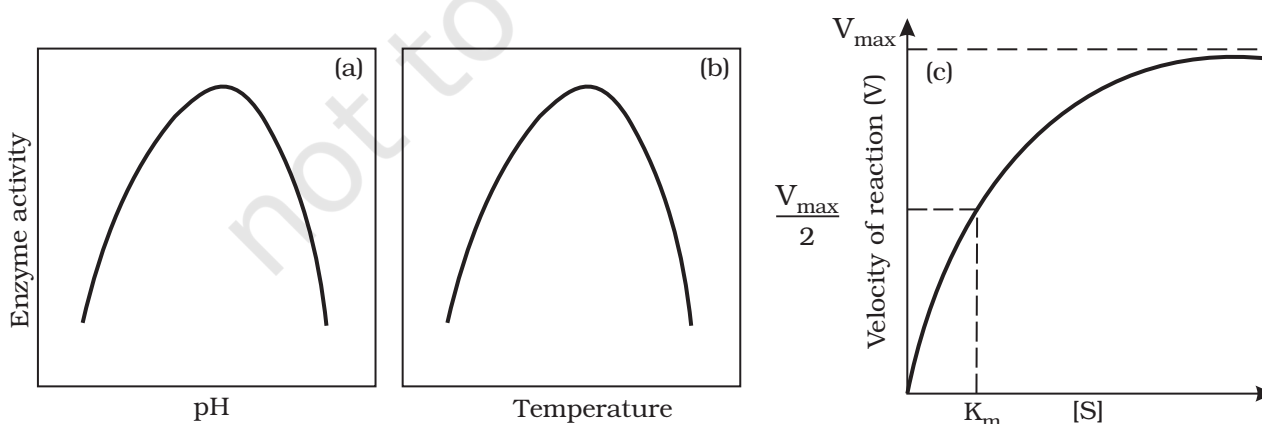

Figure 9.7 Effect of change in : (a) pH (b) Temperature and (c) Concentration of substrate on enzyme activity

Concentration of Substrate

With the increase in substrate concentration, the velocity of the enzymatic reaction rises at first. The reaction ultimately reaches a maximum velocity (V_{max}) which is not exceeded by any further rise in concentration of the substrate. This is because the enzyme molecules are fewer than the substrate molecules and after saturation of these molecules, there are no free enzyme molecules to bind with the additional substrate molecules (Figure 9.7).

The activity of an enzyme is also sensitive to the presence of specific chemicals that bind to the enzyme. When the binding of the chemical shuts off enzyme activity, the process is called **inhibition** and the chemical is called an **inhibitor**.

When the inhibitor closely resembles the substrate in its molecular structure and inhibits the activity of the enzyme, it is known as **competitive inhibitor**. Due to its close structural similarity with the substrate, the inhibitor competes with the substrate for the substrate-binding site of the enzyme. Consequently, the substrate cannot bind and as a result, the enzyme action declines, e.g., inhibition of succinic dehydrogenase by malonate which closely resembles the substrate succinate in structure. Such competitive inhibitors are often used in the control of bacterial pathogens.

9.12.5 Classification and Nomenclature of Enzymes

Thousands of enzymes have been discovered, isolated and studied. Most of these enzymes have been classified into different groups based on the type of reactions they catalyse. Enzymes are divided into 6 classes each with 4-13 subclasses and named accordingly by a four-digit number.

**Oxidoreductases/dehydrogenases:** Enzymes which catalyse oxidoreduction between two substrates S and S' e.g.,

$$\text{S reduced} + \text{S' oxidised} \longrightarrow \text{S oxidised} + \text{S' reduced.}$$
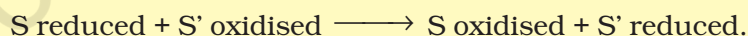
Transferases: Enzymes catalysing a transfer of a group, G (other than hydrogen) between a pair of substrate S and S' e.g.,

$$\text{S - G} + \text{S'} \longrightarrow \text{S} + \text{S' - G}$$
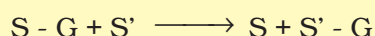
Hydrolases: Enzymes catalysing hydrolysis of ester, ether, peptide, glycosidic, C-C, C-halide or P-N bonds.

Lyases: Enzymes that catalyse removal of groups from substrates by mechanisms other than hydrolysis leaving double bonds.

$$\begin{array}{cc} X & Y \\ | & | \\ C{-}C \end{array} \longrightarrow X - Y + C = C$$
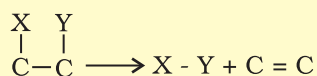
Isomerases: Includes all enzymes catalysing inter-conversion of optical, geometric or positional isomers.

Ligases: Enzymes catalysing the linking together of 2 compounds, e.g., enzymes which catalyse joining of C-O, C-S, C-N, P-O etc. bonds.

9.12.6 Co-factors

Enzymes are composed of one or several polypeptide chains. However, there are a number of cases in which non-protein constituents called co-factors are bound to the the enzyme to make the enzyme catalytically active. In these instances, the protein portion of the enzymes is called the apoenzyme. Three kinds of cofactors may be identified: prosthetic groups, co-enzymes and metal ions.

Prosthetic groups are organic compounds and are distinguished from other cofactors in that they are tightly bound to the apoenzyme. For example, in peroxidase and catalase, which catalyze the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide to water and oxygen, haem is the prosthetic group and it is a part of the active site of the enzyme.

Co-enzymes are also organic compounds but their association with the apoenzyme is only transient, usually occurring during the course of catalysis. Furthermore, co-enzymes serve as co-factors in a number of different enzyme catalyzed reactions. The essential chemical components of many coenzymes are vitamins, e.g., coenzyme nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) and NADP contain the vitamin niacin.

A number of enzymes require metal ions for their activity which form coordination bonds with side chains at the active site and at the same time form one or more cordination bonds with the substrate, e.g., zinc is a cofactor for the proteolytic enzyme carboxypeptidase.

Catalytic activity is lost when the co-factor is removed from the enzyme which testifies that they play a crucial role in the catalytic activity of the enzyme.

SUMMARY

Although there is a bewildering diversity of living organisms, their chemical composition and metabolic reactions appear to be remarkably similar. The elemental composition of living tissues and non-living matter appear also to be similar when analysed qualitatively. However, a closer examination reveals that the relative abundance of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen is higher in living systems when compared to inanimate matter. The most abundant chemical in living organisms is water. There are thousands of small molecular weight (<1000 Da)

biomolecules. Amino acids, monosaccharide and disaccharide sugars, fatty acids, glycerol, nucleotides, nucleosides and nitrogen bases are some of the organic compounds seen in living organisms. There are 20 types of amino acids and 5 types of nucleotides. Fats and oils are glycerides in which fatty acids are esterified to glycerol. Phospholipids contain, in addition, a phosphorylated nitrogenous compound.

Only three types of macromolecules, i.e., proteins, nucleic acids and polysaccharides are found in living systems. Lipids, because of their association with membranes separate in the macromolecular fraction. Biomacromolecules are polymers. They are made of building blocks which are different. Proteins are heteropolymers made of amino acids. Nucleic acids (RNA and DNA) are composed of nucleotides. Biomacromolecules have a hierarchy of structures – primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary. Nucleic acids serve as genetic material. Polysaccharides are components of cell wall in plants, fungi and also of the exoskeleton of arthropods. They also are storage forms of energy (e.g., starch and glycogen). Proteins serve a variety of cellular functions. Many of them are enzymes, some are antibodies, some are receptors, some are hormones and some others are structural proteins. Collagen is the most abundant protein in animal world and Ribulose bisphosphate Carboxylase-Oxygenase (RuBisCO) is the most abundant protein in the whole of the biosphere.

Enzymes are proteins which catalyse biochemical reactions in the cells. Ribozymes are nucleic acids with catalytic power. Proteinaceous enzymes exhibit substrate specificity, require optimum temperature and pH for maximal activity. They are denatured at high temperatures. Enzymes lower activation energy of reactions and enhance greatly the rate of the reactions. Nucleic acids carry hereditary information and are passed on from parental generation to progeny.

EXERCISES

1. What are macromolecules? Give examples.

2. Illustrate a glycosidic, peptide and a phospho-diester bond.

3. What is meant by tertiary structure of proteins?

4. Find and write down structures of 10 interesting small molecular weight biomolecules. Find if there is any industry which manufactures the compounds by isolation. Find out who are the buyers.

5. Proteins have primary structure. If you are given a method to know which amino acid is at either of the two termini (ends) of a protein, can you connect this information to purity or homogeneity of a protein?

6. Find out and make a list of proteins used as therapeutic agents. Find other applications of proteins (e.g., Cosmetics etc.)

7. Explain the composition of triglyceride.

8. Can you describe what happens when milk is converted into curd or yoghurt, from your understanding of proteins.

9. Can you attempt building models of biomolecules using commercially available atomic models (Ball and Stick models).

10. Attempt titrating an amino acid against a weak base and discover the number of dissociating (ionizable) functional groups in the amino acid.

11. Draw the structure of the amino acid, alanine.

12. What are gums made of? Is Fevicol different?

13. Find out a qualitative test for proteins, fats and oils, amino acids and test any fruit juice, saliva, sweat and urine for them.

14. Find out how much cellulose is made by all the plants in the biosphere and compare it with how much of paper is manufactured by man and hence what is the consumption of plant material by man annually. What a loss of vegetation!

15. Describe the important properties of enzymes.