Contents

Chapter 1 Cells, Genomes, and the Diversity of Life 1

THE UNIVERSAL FEATURES OF LIFE ON EARTH 2
All Cells Store Their Hereditary Information in the Form of Double-Strand DNA Molecules 2
All Cells Replicate Their Hereditary Information by Templated Polymerization 3
All Cells Transcribe Portions of Their DNA into RNA Molecules 5
All Cells Use Proteins as Catalysts 6
All Cells Translate RNA into Protein in the Same Way 6
Each Protein Is Encoded by a Specific Gene 7
Life Requires a Continual Input of Free Energy 7
All Cells Function as Biochemical Factories 8
All Cells Are Enclosed in a Plasma Membrane Across Which Nutrients and Waste Materials Must Pass 8
Cells Operate at a Microscopic Scale Dominated by Random Thermal Motion 9
A Living Cell Can Exist with 500 Genes 10
Summary 10

GENOME DIVERSIFICATION AND THE TREE OF LIFE 10
The Tree of Life Has Three Major Domains: Eukaryotes, Bacteria, and Archaea 11
Eukaryotes Make Up the Domain of Life That Is Most Familiar to Us 13
On the Basis of Genome Analysis, Bacteria Are the Most Diverse Group of Organisms on the Planet 13
Archaea: The Most Mysterious Domain of Life 15
Organisms Occupy Most of Our Planet 15
Cells Can Be Powered by a Wide Variety of Free-Energy Sources 15
Some Cells Fix Nitrogen and Carbon Dioxide for Other Cells 17
Genomes Diversify Over Evolutionary Time, Producing New Types of Organisms 18
New Genes Are Generated from Preexisting Genes 19
Gene Duplications Give Rise to Families of Related Genes Within a Single Genome 20
The Function of a Gene Can Often Be Deduced from Its Nucleotide Sequence 20
More Than 200 Gene Families Are Common to All Three Domains of Life 21
Summary 21

EUKARYOTES AND THE ORIGIN OF THE EUKARYOTIC CELL 22
Eukaryotic Cells Contain a Variety of Organelles 23
Mitochondria Evolved from a Symbiotic Bacterium Captured by an Ancient Archaeon 25
Chloroplasts Evolved from a Symbiotic Photosynthetic Bacterium Engulfed by an Ancient Eukaryotic Cell 26
Eukaryotes Have Hybrid Genomes 27
Eukaryotic Genomes Are Big 28
Eukaryotic Genomes Are Rich in Regulatory DNA 28
Eukaryotic Genomes Define the Program of Multicellular Development 29
Many Eukaryotes Live as Solitary Cells 30
Summary 31

MODEL ORGANISMS 31
Mutations Reveal the Functions of Genes 32
Molecular Biology Began with a Spotlight on One Bacterium and Its Viruses 33
The Focus on *E. coli* as a Model Organism Has Accelerated Many Subsequent Discoveries 35
A Yeast Serves as a Minimal Model Eukaryote 36
The Expression Levels of All the Genes of an Organism Can Be Determined 37
Arabidopsis Has Been Chosen as a Model Plant 38
The World of Animal Cells Is Mainly Represented by a Worm, a Fly, a Fish, a Mouse, and a Human 38
Studies in the Fruit Fly *Drosophila* Provide a Key to Vertebrate Development 39
The Frog and the Zebrafish Provide Highly Accessible Vertebrate Models 40
The Mouse Is the Predominant Mammalian Model Organism 41
The COVID-19 Pandemic Has Focused Scientists on the SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus 42
Humans Are Unique in Reporting on Their Own Peculiarities 44
To Understand Cells and Organisms Will Require Mathematics, Computers, and Quantitative Information 44
Summary 45
Problems 46
References 47

Chapter 2 Cell Chemistry and Bioenergetics 49

THE CHEMICAL COMPONENTS OF A CELL 49
Water Is Held Together by Hydrogen Bonds 50
Four Types of Noncovalent Attractions Help Bring Molecules Together in Cells 51
Some Polar Molecules Form Acids and Bases in Water 52
A Cell Is Formed from Carbon Compounds 53
Cells Contain Four Major Families of Small Organic Molecules 53
The Chemistry of Cells Is Dominated by Macromolecules with Remarkable Properties 54
Noncovalent Bonds Specify Both the Precise Shape of a Macromolecule and Its Binding to Other Molecules 55
Summary 56

CATALYSIS AND THE USE OF ENERGY BY CELLS 57
Cell Metabolism Is Organized by Enzymes 57
Biological Order Is Made Possible by the Release of Heat Energy from Cells 58
Cells Obtain Energy by the Oxidation of Organic Molecules 61
Oxidation and Reduction Involve Electron Transfers 62
Enzymes Lower the Activation-Energy Barriers That Block Chemical Reactions 63
Enzymes Can Drive Substrate Molecules Along Specific Reaction Pathways 64
How Enzymes Find Their Substrates: The Enormous Rapidity of Molecular Motions 65
The Free-Energy Change for a Reaction, ΔG, Determines Whether It Can Occur Spontaneously 66
The Concentration of Reactants Influences the Free-Energy Change and a Reaction's Direction 67
The Standard Free-Energy Change, $\Delta G°$, Makes It Possible to Compare the Energetics of Different Reactions 67
The Equilibrium Constant and $\Delta G°$ Are Readily Derived from Each Other 68
The Free-Energy Changes of Coupled Reactions Are Additive 69
Activated Carrier Molecules Are Essential for Biosynthesis 69
The Formation of an Activated Carrier Is Coupled to an Energetically Favorable Reaction 70
ATP Is the Most Widely Used Activated Carrier Molecule 71
Energy Stored in ATP Is Often Harnessed to Join Two Molecules Together 72

NADH and NADPH Are Important Electron Carriers 73
There Are Many Other Activated Carrier Molecules in Cells 75
The Synthesis of Biological Polymers Is Driven by ATP Hydrolysis 76
Summary 78

HOW CELLS OBTAIN ENERGY FROM FOOD 80
Glycolysis Is a Central ATP-producing Pathway 80
Glycolysis Illustrates How Enzymes Couple Oxidation to Energy Storage 83
Fermentations Produce ATP in the Absence of Oxygen 84
Organisms Store Food Molecules in Special Reservoirs 85
Between Meals, Most Animal Cells Derive Their Energy from Fatty Acids Obtained from Fat 86
Sugars and Fats Are Both Degraded to Acetyl CoA in Mitochondria 87
The Citric Acid Cycle Generates NADH by Oxidizing Acetyl Groups to CO_2 88
Electron Transport Drives the Synthesis of the Majority of the ATP in Most Cells 90
Many Biosynthetic Pathways Begin with Glycolysis or the Citric Acid Cycle 90
Animals Must Obtain All the Nitrogen and Sulfur They Need from Food 91
Metabolism Is Highly Organized and Regulated 92
Summary 93
Problems 112
References 114

Chapter 3 Proteins 115

THE ATOMIC STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS 115
The Structure of a Protein Is Specified by Its Amino Acid Sequence 115
Proteins Fold into a Conformation of Lowest Energy 121
The α Helix and the β Sheet Are Common Folding Motifs 121
Four Levels of Organization Are Considered to Contribute to Protein Structure 123
Protein Domains Are the Modular Units from Which Larger Proteins Are Built 124
Proteins Also Contain Unstructured Regions 126
All Protein Structures Are Dynamic, Interconverting Rapidly Between an Ensemble of Closely Related Conformations Because of Thermal Energy 126
Function Has Selected for a Tiny Fraction of the Many Possible Polypeptide Chains 126
Proteins Can Be Classified into Many Families 127
Some Protein Domains Are Found in Many Different Proteins 129
The Human Genome Encodes a Complex Set of Proteins, Revealing That Much Remains Unknown 130
Protein Molecules Often Contain More Than One Polypeptide Chain 130
Some Globular Proteins Form Long Helical Filaments 131
Protein Molecules Can Have Elongated, Fibrous Shapes 132
Covalent Cross-Linkages Stabilize Extracellular Proteins 133
Protein Molecules Often Serve as Subunits for the Assembly of Large Structures 134
Many Structures in Cells Are Capable of Self-Assembly 136
Assembly Factors Often Aid the Formation of Complex Biological Structures 136
When Assembly Processes Go Wrong: The Case of Amyloid Fibrils 137
Amyloid Structures Can Also Perform Useful Functions in Cells 139
Summary 140

PROTEIN FUNCTION 140
All Proteins Bind to Other Molecules 140
The Surface Conformation of a Protein Determines Its Chemistry 142
Sequence Comparisons Between Protein Family Members Highlight Crucial Ligand-binding Sites 142
Proteins Bind to Other Proteins Through Several Types of Interfaces 143
Antibody Binding Sites Are Especially Versatile 144
The Equilibrium Constant Measures Binding Strength 145
Enzymes Are Powerful and Highly Specific Catalysts 146
Substrate Binding Is the First Step in Enzyme Catalysis 146
Enzymes Speed Reactions by Selectively Stabilizing Transition States 148
Enzymes Can Use Simultaneous Acid and Base Catalysis 148
Lysozyme Illustrates How an Enzyme Works 149
Tightly Bound Small Molecules Add Extra Functions to Proteins 152
The Cell Regulates the Catalytic Activities of Its Enzymes 155
Allosteric Enzymes Have Two or More Binding Sites That Interact 155
Two Ligands Whose Binding Sites Are Coupled Must Reciprocally Affect Each Other's Binding 157
Symmetrical Protein Assemblies Produce Cooperative Allosteric Transitions 158
Many Changes in Proteins Are Driven by Protein Phosphorylation 159
A Eukaryotic Cell Contains a Large Collection of Protein Kinases and Protein Phosphatases 159
The Regulation of the Src Protein Kinase Reveals How a Protein Can Function as a Microprocessor 161
Regulatory GTP-binding Proteins Are Switched On and Off by the Gain and Loss of a Phosphate Group 162
Proteins Can Be Regulated by the Covalent Addition of Other Proteins 162
An Elaborate Ubiquitin-conjugating System Is Used to Mark Proteins 163
Protein Complexes with Interchangeable Parts Make Efficient Use of Genetic Information 164
A GTP-binding Protein Shows How Large Protein Movements Can Be Generated from Small Ones 166
Motor Proteins Produce Directional Movement in Cells 167
Proteins Often Form Large Complexes That Function as Protein Machines 167
The Disordered Regions in Proteins Are Critical for a Set of Different Functions 168
Scaffolds Bring Sets of Interacting Macromolecules Together and Concentrate Them in Selected Regions of a Cell 170
Macromolecules Can Self-assemble to Form Biomolecular Condensates 171
Classical Studies of Phase Separation Have Relevance for Biomolecular Condensates 173
A Comparison of Three Important Types of Large Biological Assemblies 174
Many Proteins Are Controlled by Covalent Modifications That Direct Them to Specific Sites Inside the Cell 175
A Complex Network of Protein Interactions Underlies Cell Function 176
Protein Structures Can Be Predicted and New Proteins Designed 178
Summary 179
Problems 179
References 181

Chapter 4 DNA, Chromosomes, and Genomes 183

THE STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF DNA 185
A DNA Molecule Consists of Two Complementary Chains of Nucleotides 185
The Structure of DNA Provides a Mechanism for Heredity 187
In Eukaryotes, DNA Is Enclosed in a Cell Nucleus 189
Summary 189

CHROMOSOMAL DNA AND ITS PACKAGING IN THE CHROMATIN FIBER 189
Eukaryotic DNA Is Packaged into a Set of Chromosomes 190
Chromosomes Contain Long Strings of Genes 191
The Nucleotide Sequence of the Human Genome Shows How Our Genes Are Arranged 193
Each DNA Molecule That Forms a Linear Chromosome Must Contain a Centromere, Two Telomeres, and Replication Origins 195
DNA Molecules Are Highly Condensed in Chromosomes 197
Nucleosomes Are a Basic Unit of Eukaryotic Chromosome Structure 197
The Structure of the Nucleosome Core Particle Reveals How DNA Is Packaged 198
Nucleosomes Have a Dynamic Structure and Are Frequently Subjected to Changes Catalyzed by ATP-dependent Chromatin-remodeling Complexes 200

Attractions Between Nucleosomes Compact the Chromatin Fiber 202
Summary 203
THE EFFECT OF CHROMATIN STRUCTURE ON DNA FUNCTION 203
Different Regions of the Human Genome Are Packaged Very Differently in Chromatin 204
Heterochromatin Is Highly Condensed and Restricts Gene Expression 204
The Heterochromatic State Can Spread Along a Chromosome and Be Inherited from One Cell Generation to the Next 205
The Core Histones Are Covalently Modified at Many Different Sites 206
Chromatin Acquires Additional Variety Through the Site-specific Insertion of a Small Set of Histone Variants 208
Covalent Modifications and Histone Variants Can Act in Concert to Control Chromosome Functions 208
A Complex of Reader and Writer Proteins Can Spread Specific Chromatin Modifications Along a Chromosome 210
Barrier DNA–Protein Complexes Block the Spread of Reader–Writer Complexes and Thereby Separate Neighboring Chromatin Domains 212
Centromeres Have a Special, Inherited Chromatin Structure 213
Some Forms of Chromatin Can Be Directly Inherited 215
The Abnormal Perturbations of Heterochromatin That Arise During Tumor Progression Contribute to Many Cancers 215
Summary 217
THE GLOBAL STRUCTURE OF CHROMOSOMES 217
Chromosomes Are Folded into Large Loops of Chromatin 217
Polytene Chromosomes Are Uniquely Useful for Visualizing Chromatin Structures 218
Chromosome Loops Decondense When the Genes Within Them Are Expressed 220
Mammalian Interphase Chromosomes Occupy Discrete Territories in the Nucleus, with Their Heterochromatin and Euchromatin Distributed Differently 220
A Biochemical Technique Called Hi-C Reveals Details of Chromosome Organization 221
Chromosomal DNA Is Organized into Loops by Large Protein Rings 223
Euchromatin and Heterochromatin Separate Spatially in the Nucleus 225
Mitotic Chromosomes Are Highly Condensed 227
Summary 228
HOW GENOMES EVOLVE 229
Genome Comparisons Reveal Functional DNA Sequences by Their Conservation Throughout Evolution 230
Genome Alterations Are Caused by Failures of the Normal Mechanisms for Copying and Maintaining DNA, as Well as by Transposable DNA Elements 231
The Genome Sequences of Two Species Differ in Proportion to the Length of Time Since They Have Separately Evolved 232
Phylogenetic Trees Constructed from a Comparison of DNA Sequences Trace the Relationships of All Organisms 233
A Comparison of Human and Mouse Chromosomes Shows How the Structures of Genomes Diverge 234
The Size of a Vertebrate Genome Reflects the Relative Rates of DNA Addition and DNA Loss in a Lineage 236
Multispecies Sequence Comparisons Identify Many Conserved DNA Sequences of Unknown Function 237
Changes in Previously Conserved Sequences Can Help Decipher Critical Steps in Evolution 238
Mutations in the DNA Sequences That Control Gene Expression Have Driven Many of the Evolutionary Changes in Vertebrates 239
Gene Duplication Also Provides an Important Source of Genetic Novelty During Evolution 240
Duplicated Genes Diverge 240
The Evolution of the Globin Gene Family Shows How DNA Duplications Contribute to the Evolution of Organisms 241
Genes Encoding New Proteins Can Be Created by the Recombination of Exons 242
Neutral Mutations Often Spread to Become Fixed in a Population, with a Probability That Depends on Population Size 243
We Can Trace Human History by Analyzing Genomes 244
The Sequencing of Hundreds of Thousands of Human Genomes Reveals Much Variation 245
Most of the Variants Observed in the Human Population Are Common Alleles, with at Most a Weak Effect on Phenotype 246
Forensic Analyses Exploit Special DNA Sequences with Unusually High Mutation Rates 247
An Understanding of Human Variation Is Critical for Improving Medicine 248
Summary 248
Problems 249
References 251

Chapter 5 DNA Replication, Repair, and Recombination 253

THE MAINTENANCE OF DNA SEQUENCES 253
Mutation Rates Are Extremely Low 253
Low Mutation Rates Are Necessary for Life as We Know It 254
Summary 255
DNA REPLICATION MECHANISMS 255
Base-pairing Underlies DNA Replication and DNA Repair 255
The DNA Replication Fork Is Asymmetrical 256
The High Fidelity of DNA Replication Requires Several Proofreading Mechanisms 258
DNA Replication in the 5′-to-3′ Direction Allows Efficient Error Correction 260
A Special Nucleotide-polymerizing Enzyme Synthesizes Short RNA Primer Molecules 260
Special Proteins Help to Open Up the DNA Double Helix in Front of the Replication Fork 261
A Sliding Ring Holds a Moving DNA Polymerase onto the DNA 262
The Proteins at a Replication Fork Cooperate to Form a Replication Machine 263
DNA Replication Is Fundamentally Similar in Eukaryotes and Bacteria 265
A Strand-directed Mismatch Repair System Removes Replication Errors That Remain in the Wake of the Replication Machine 267
The Accidental Incorporation of Ribonucleotides During DNA Replication Is Corrected 269
DNA Topoisomerases Prevent DNA Tangling During Replication 269
Summary 272
THE INITIATION AND COMPLETION OF DNA REPLICATION IN CHROMOSOMES 272
DNA Synthesis Begins at Replication Origins 272
Bacterial Chromosomes Typically Have a Single Origin of DNA Replication 273
Eukaryotic Chromosomes Contain Multiple Origins of Replication 273
In Eukaryotes, DNA Replication Takes Place During Only One Part of the Cell Cycle 276
Eukaryotic Origins of Replication Are "Licensed" for Replication by the Assembly of an Origin Recognition Complex 276
Features of the Human Genome That Specify Origins of Replication Remain to Be Fully Understood 277
Properties of the ORC Ensure That Each Region of the DNA Is Replicated Once and Only Once in Each S Phase 277
New Nucleosomes Are Assembled Behind the Replication Fork 279
Termination of DNA Replication Occurs Through the Ordered Disassembly of the Replication Fork 280
Telomerase Replicates the Ends of Chromosomes 281
Telomeres Are Packaged into Specialized Structures That Protect the Ends of Chromosomes 282
Telomere Length Is Regulated by Cells and Organisms 282
Summary 284
DNA REPAIR 284
Without DNA Repair, Spontaneous DNA Damage Would Rapidly Change DNA Sequences 286
The DNA Double Helix Is Readily Repaired 288
DNA Damage Can Be Removed by More Than One Pathway 288

Coupling Nucleotide Excision Repair to Transcription Ensures That the Cell's Most Important DNA Is Efficiently Repaired 290
The Chemistry of the DNA Bases Facilitates Damage Detection 290
Special Translesion DNA Polymerases Are Used in Emergencies 292
Double-Strand Breaks Are Efficiently Repaired 292
DNA Damage Delays Progression of the Cell Cycle 295
Summary 295

HOMOLOGOUS RECOMBINATION 296
Homologous Recombination Has Common Features in All Cells 296
DNA Base-pairing Guides Homologous Recombination 296
Homologous Recombination Can Flawlessly Repair Double-Strand Breaks in DNA 297
Specialized Processing of Double-Strand Breaks Commits Repair to Homologous Recombination 298
Strand Exchange Is Directed by the RecA/Rad51 Protein 298
Homologous Recombination Can Rescue Broken and Stalled DNA Replication Forks 299
DNA Repair by Homologous Recombination Entails Risks to the Cell 300
Homologous Recombination Is Crucial for Meiosis 301
Meiotic Recombination Begins with a Programmed Double-Strand Break 302
Holliday Junctions Are Recognized by Enzymes That Drive Branch Migration 302
Homologous Recombination Produces Crossovers Between Maternal and Paternal Chromosomes During Meiosis 304
Homologous Recombination Often Results in Gene Conversion 305
Summary 306

TRANSPOSITION AND CONSERVATIVE SITE-SPECIFIC RECOMBINATION 306
Through Transposition, Mobile Genetic Elements Can Insert into Any DNA Sequence 307
DNA-only Transposons Can Move by a Cut-and-Paste Mechanism 307
Some DNA-only Transposons Move by Replicating Themselves 309
Some Viruses Use a Transposition Mechanism to Move Themselves into Host-Cell Chromosomes 309
Some RNA Viruses Replicate and Express Their Genomes Without Using DNA as an Intermediate 311
Retroviral-like Retrotransposons Resemble Retroviruses, but Cannot Move from Cell to Cell 313
A Large Fraction of the Human Genome Is Composed of Nonretroviral Retrotransposons 313
Different Transposable Elements Predominate in Different Organisms 314
Genome Sequences Reveal the Approximate Times at Which Transposable Elements Have Moved 314
Conservative Site-specific Recombination Can Reversibly Rearrange DNA 315
Conservative Site-specific Recombination Can Be Used to Turn Genes On or Off 316
Bacterial Conservative Site-specific Recombinases Have Become Powerful Tools for Cell and Developmental Biologists 317
Summary 317
Problems 318
References 320

Chapter 6 How Cells Read the Genome: From DNA to Protein 321

FROM DNA TO RNA 323
RNA Molecules Are Single-Stranded 324
Transcription Produces RNA Complementary to One Strand of DNA 325
RNA Polymerases Carry Out DNA Transcription 325
Cells Produce Different Categories of RNA Molecules 327
Signals Encoded in DNA Tell RNA Polymerase Where to Start and Stop 328
Bacterial Transcription Start and Stop Signals Are Heterogeneous in Nucleotide Sequence 329
Transcription Initiation in Eukaryotes Requires Many Proteins 331
To Initiate Transcription, RNA Polymerase II Requires a Set of General Transcription Factors 332
In Eukaryotes, Transcription Initiation Also Requires Activator, Mediator, and Chromatin-modifying Proteins 334
Transcription Elongation in Eukaryotes Requires Accessory Proteins 335
Transcription Creates Superhelical Tension 335
Transcription Elongation in Eukaryotes Is Tightly Coupled to RNA Processing 337
RNA Capping Is the First Modification of Eukaryotic Pre-mRNAs 338
RNA Splicing Removes Intron Sequences from Newly Transcribed Pre-mRNAs 339
Nucleotide Sequences Signal Where Splicing Occurs 341
RNA Splicing Is Performed by the Spliceosome 341
The Spliceosome Uses ATP Hydrolysis to Produce a Complex Series of RNA–RNA Rearrangements 343
Other Properties of Pre-mRNA and Its Synthesis Help to Explain the Choice of Proper Splice Sites 345
RNA Splicing Has Remarkable Plasticity 346
Spliceosome-catalyzed RNA Splicing Evolved from RNA Self-splicing Mechanisms 347
RNA-processing Enzymes Generate the 3′ End of Eukaryotic mRNAs 348
Mature Eukaryotic mRNAs Are Selectively Exported from the Nucleus 349
Noncoding RNAs Are Also Synthesized and Processed in the Nucleus 351
The Nucleolus Is a Ribosome-producing Factory 353
The Nucleus Contains a Variety of Subnuclear Biomolecular Condensates 355
Summary 357

FROM RNA TO PROTEIN 358
An mRNA Sequence Is Decoded in Sets of Three Nucleotides 358
tRNA Molecules Match Amino Acids to Codons in mRNA 359
tRNAs Are Covalently Modified Before They Exit from the Nucleus 361
Specific Enzymes Couple Each Amino Acid to Its Appropriate tRNA Molecule 361
Editing by tRNA Synthetases Ensures Accuracy 363
Amino Acids Are Added to the C-terminal End of a Growing Polypeptide Chain 364
The RNA Message Is Decoded in Ribosomes 365
Elongation Factors Drive Translation Forward and Improve Its Accuracy 368
Induced Fit and Kinetic Proofreading Help Biological Processes Overcome the Inherent Limitations of Complementary Base-Pairing 369
Accuracy in Translation Requires a Large Expenditure of Free Energy 370
The Ribosome Is a Ribozyme 371
Nucleotide Sequences in mRNA Signal Where to Start Protein Synthesis 373
Stop Codons Mark the End of Translation 374
Proteins Are Made on Polyribosomes 375
There Are Minor Variations in the Standard Genetic Code 375
Inhibitors of Prokaryotic Protein Synthesis Are Useful as Antibiotics 376
Quality-Control Mechanisms Act to Prevent Translation of Damaged mRNAs 378
Stalled Ribosomes Can Be Rescued 379
The Ribosome Coordinates the Folding, Enzymatic Modification, and Assembly of Newly Synthesized Proteins 380
Molecular Chaperones Help Guide the Folding of Most Proteins 380
Proper Folding of Newly Synthesized Proteins Is Also Aided by Translation Speed and Subunit Assembly 383
Proteins That Ultimately Fail to Fold Correctly Are Marked for Destruction by Polyubiquitin 384
The Proteasome Is a Compartmentalized Protease with Sequestered Active Sites 384
Many Proteins Are Controlled by Regulated Destruction 386
There Are Many Steps from DNA to Protein 387
Summary 388

THE RNA WORLD AND THE ORIGINS OF LIFE 389
Single-Strand RNA Molecules Can Fold into Highly Elaborate Structures 390
Ribozymes Can Be Produced in the Laboratory 390

RNA Can Both Store Information and Catalyze Chemical Reactions 391
How Did Protein Synthesis Evolve? 392
All Present-Day Cells Use DNA as Their Hereditary Material 393
Summary 393
Problems 394
References 395

Chapter 7 Control of Gene Expression 397

AN OVERVIEW OF GENE CONTROL 397
The Different Cell Types of a Multicellular Organism Contain the Same DNA 397
Different Cell Types Synthesize Different Sets of RNAs and Proteins 398
The Spectrum of mRNAs Present in a Cell Can Be Used to Accurately Identify the Cell Type 400
External Signals Can Cause a Cell to Change the Expression of Its Genes 400
Gene Expression Can Be Regulated at Many of the Steps in the Pathway from DNA to RNA to Protein 401
Summary 402

CONTROL OF TRANSCRIPTION BY SEQUENCE-SPECIFIC DNA-BINDING PROTEINS 402
The Sequence of Nucleotides in the DNA Double Helix Can Be Read by Proteins 402
Transcription Regulators Contain Structural Motifs That Can Read DNA Sequences 403
Dimerization of Transcription Regulators Increases Their Affinity and Specificity for DNA 406
Many Transcription Regulators Bind Cooperatively to DNA 407
Nucleosome Structure Promotes Cooperative Binding of Transcription Regulators 408
DNA-Binding by Transcription Regulators Is Dynamic 409
Summary 410

TRANSCRIPTION REGULATORS SWITCH GENES ON AND OFF 410
The Tryptophan Repressor Switches Genes Off 410
Repressors Turn Genes Off and Activators Turn Them On 411
Both an Activator and a Repressor Control the *Lac* Operon 412
DNA Looping Can Occur During Bacterial Gene Regulation 412
Complex Switches Control Gene Transcription in Eukaryotes 414
A Eukaryotic Gene Control Region Includes Many *cis*-Regulatory Sequences 414
Eukaryotic Transcription Regulators Work in Groups 415
Activator Proteins Promote the Assembly of RNA Polymerase at the Start Point of Transcription 416
Eukaryotic Transcription Activators Direct the Modification of Local Chromatin Structure 417
Some Transcription Activators Work by Releasing Paused RNA Polymerase 418
Transcription Activators Work Synergistically 419
Condensate Formation Likely Increases the Efficiency of Transcription Initiation 420
Eukaryotic Transcription Repressors Can Inhibit Transcription in Several Ways 420
Insulator DNA Sequences Prevent Eukaryotic Transcription Regulators from Influencing Distant Genes 422
Summary 422

MOLECULAR GENETIC MECHANISMS THAT CREATE AND MAINTAIN SPECIALIZED CELL TYPES 423
Complex Genetic Switches That Regulate *Drosophila* Development Are Built Up from Smaller Modules 423
The *Drosophila Eve* Gene Is Regulated by Combinatorial Controls 424
Transcription Regulators Are Brought into Play by Extracellular Signals 426
Combinatorial Gene Control Creates Many Different Cell Types 427
Specialized Cell Types Can Be Experimentally Reprogrammed to Become Pluripotent Stem Cells 428
Combinations of Master Transcription Regulators Specify Cell Types by Controlling the Expression of Many Genes 429
Specialized Cells Must Rapidly Turn Some Genes On and Off 430
Differentiated Cells Maintain Their Identity 431
Transcription Circuits Allow the Cell to Carry Out Logic Operations 433
Summary 434

MECHANISMS THAT REINFORCE CELL MEMORY IN PLANTS AND ANIMALS 435
Patterns of DNA Methylation Can Be Inherited When Vertebrate Cells Divide 435
CG-Rich Islands Are Associated with Many Genes in Mammals 436
Genomic Imprinting Is Based on DNA Methylation 438
A Chromosome-wide Alteration in Chromatin Structure Can Be Inherited 440
The Mammalian X-Inactivation in Females Is Triggered by the Synthesis of a Long Noncoding RNA 442
Stable Patterns of Gene Expression Can Be Transmitted to Daughter Cells 443
Summary 445

POST-TRANSCRIPTIONAL CONTROLS 445
Transcription Attenuation Causes the Premature Termination of Some RNA Molecules 445
Riboswitches Probably Represent Ancient Forms of Gene Control 446
Alternative RNA Splicing Can Produce Different Forms of a Protein from the Same Gene 446
The Definition of a Gene Has Been Modified Since the Discovery of Alternative RNA Splicing 448
Back Splicing Can Produce Circular RNA Molecules 449
A Change in the Site of RNA Transcript Cleavage and Poly-A Addition Can Change the C-terminus of a Protein 449
Nucleotides in mRNA Can Be Covalently Modified 450
RNA Editing Can Change the Meaning of the RNA Message 451
The Human AIDS Virus Illustrates How RNA Transport from the Nucleus Can Be Regulated 452
mRNAs Can Be Localized to Specific Regions of the Cytosol 453
Untranslated Regions of mRNAs Control Their Translation 456
The Phosphorylation of an Initiation Factor Regulates Protein Synthesis Globally 457
Initiation at AUG Codons Upstream of the Translation Start Can Regulate Eukaryotic Translation Initiation 458
Internal Ribosome Entry Sites Also Provide Opportunities for Translational Control 458
Changes in mRNA Stability Can Control Gene Expression 459
Regulation of mRNA Stability Involves P-bodies and Stress Granules 461
Summary 462

REGULATION OF GENE EXPRESSION BY NONCODING RNAs 462
Small Noncoding RNA Transcripts Regulate Many Animal and Plant Genes Through RNA Interference 462
miRNAs Regulate mRNA Translation and Stability 463
RNA Interference Also Serves as a Cell Defense Mechanism 464
RNA Interference Can Direct Heterochromatin Formation 465
piRNAs Protect the Germ Line from Transposable Elements 466
RNA Interference Has Become a Powerful Experimental Tool 467
Cells Have Additional Mechanisms to Hold Transposons and Integrated Viral Genomes in Check 467
Bacteria Use Small Noncoding RNAs to Protect Themselves from Viruses 468
Long Noncoding RNAs Have Diverse Functions in the Cell 469
Summary 471
Problems 472
References 474

Chapter 8 Analyzing Cells, Molecules, and Systems 475

ISOLATING CELLS AND GROWING THEM IN CULTURE 476
Cells Can Be Isolated from Tissues and Grown in Culture 476
Eukaryotic Cell Lines Are a Widely Used Source of Homogeneous Cells 478
Hybridoma Cell Lines Are Factories That Produce Monoclonal Antibodies 478
Summary 480

PURIFYING PROTEINS 480
Cells Can Be Separated into Their Component Fractions 480
Cell Extracts Provide Accessible Systems to Study Cell Functions 482
Proteins Can Be Separated by Chromatography 483

Immunoprecipitation Is a Rapid Affinity Purification Method 486
Genetically Engineered Tags Provide an Easy Way to Purify Proteins 486
Purified Cell-free Systems Are Required for the Precise Dissection of Molecular Functions 486
Summary 487

ANALYZING PROTEINS 487
Proteins Can Be Separated by SDS Polyacrylamide-Gel Electrophoresis 487
Two-dimensional Gel Electrophoresis Provides Greater Protein Separation 489
Specific Proteins Can Be Detected by Blotting with Antibodies 490
Hydrodynamic Measurements Reveal the Size and Shape of a Protein Complex 490
Mass Spectrometry Provides a Highly Sensitive Method for Identifying Unknown Proteins 491
Sets of Interacting Proteins Can Be Identified by Biochemical Methods 493
Optical Methods Can Monitor Protein Interactions 493
Protein Structure Can Be Determined Using X-ray Diffraction 494
NMR Can Be Used to Determine Protein Structure in Solution 496
Protein Sequence and Structure Provide Clues About Protein Function 497
Summary 498

ANALYZING AND MANIPULATING DNA 498
Restriction Nucleases Cut Large DNA Molecules into Specific Fragments 498
Gel Electrophoresis Separates DNA Molecules of Different Sizes 499
Purified DNA Molecules Can Be Specifically Labeled with Radioisotopes or Chemical Markers *in Vitro* 501
Genes Can Be Cloned Using Bacteria 501
An Entire Genome Can Be Represented in a DNA Library 503
Hybridization Provides a Powerful but Simple Way to Detect Specific Nucleotide Sequences 505
Genes Can Be Cloned *in Vitro* Using PCR 506
PCR Is Also Used for Diagnostic and Forensic Applications 507
PCR and Synthetic DNA Are Ideal Sources of Specific Gene Sequences for Cloning 510
DNA Cloning Allows Any Protein to Be Produced in Large Amounts 511
DNA Can Be Sequenced Rapidly by Dideoxy Sequencing 512
Next-Generation Sequencing Methods Have Revolutionized DNA and RNA Analysis 514
To Be Useful, Genome Sequences Must Be Annotated 516
Summary 518

STUDYING GENE FUNCTION AND EXPRESSION 518
Classical Genetic Screens Identify Random Mutants with Specific Abnormalities 519
Mutations Can Cause Loss or Gain of Protein Function 522
Complementation Tests Reveal Whether Two Mutations Are in the Same Gene or Different Genes 523
Gene Products Can Be Ordered in Pathways by Epistasis Analysis 523
Mutations Responsible for a Phenotype Can Be Identified Through DNA Analysis 524
Rapid and Cheap DNA Sequencing Has Revolutionized Human Genetic Studies 524
Linked Blocks of Polymorphisms Have Been Passed Down from Our Ancestors 525
Sequence Variants Can Aid the Search for Mutations Associated with Disease 526
Genomics Is Accelerating the Discovery of Rare Mutations That Predispose Us to Serious Disease 527
The Cellular Functions of a Known Gene Can Be Studied with Genome Engineering 527
Animals and Plants Can Be Genetically Altered 528
The Bacterial CRISPR System Has Been Adapted to Edit Genomes in a Wide Variety of Species 530
Large Collections of Engineered Mutations Provide a Tool for Examining the Function of Every Gene in an Organism 531
RNA Interference Is a Simple and Rapid Way to Test Gene Function 533
Reporter Genes Reveal When and Where a Gene Is Expressed 534
In Situ Hybridization Can Reveal the Location of mRNAs and Noncoding RNAs 535
Expression of Individual Genes Can Be Measured Using Quantitative RT-PCR 536
Global Analysis of mRNAs by RNA-seq Provides a Snapshot of Gene Expression 536
Genome-wide Chromatin Immunoprecipitation Identifies Sites on the Genome Occupied by Transcription Regulators 538
Ribosome Profiling Reveals Which mRNAs Are Being Translated in the Cell 538
Recombinant DNA Methods Have Revolutionized Human Health 539
Transgenic Plants Are Important for Agriculture 540
Summary 542

MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS OF CELL FUNCTION 542
Regulatory Networks Depend on Molecular Interactions 543
Differential Equations Help Us Predict Transient Behavior 545
Promoter Activity and Protein Degradation Affect the Rate of Change of Protein Concentration 546
The Time Required to Reach Steady State Depends on Protein Lifetime 547
Quantitative Methods Are Similar for Transcription Repressors and Activators 548
Negative Feedback Is a Powerful Strategy in Cell Regulation 549
Delayed Negative Feedback Can Induce Oscillations 549
DNA Binding by a Repressor or an Activator Can Be Cooperative 551
Positive Feedback Is Important for Switchlike Responses and Bistability 551
Robustness Is an Important Characteristic of Biological Networks 553
Two Transcription Regulators That Bind to the Same Gene Promoter Can Exert Combinatorial Control 554
An Incoherent Feed-forward Interaction Generates Pulses 555
A Coherent Feed-forward Interaction Detects Persistent Inputs 556
The Same Network Can Behave Differently in Different Cells Because of Stochastic Effects 557
Several Computational Approaches Can Be Used to Model the Reactions in Cells 557
Statistical Methods Are Critical for the Analysis of Biological Data 558
Summary 558
Problems 559
References 561

Chapter 9 Visualizing Cells and Their Molecules 563

LOOKING AT CELLS AND MOLECULES IN THE LIGHT MICROSCOPE 563
The Conventional Light Microscope Can Resolve Details 0.2 μm Apart 564
Photon Noise Creates Additional Limits to Resolution When Light Levels Are Low 567
Living Cells Are Seen Clearly in a Phase-Contrast or a Differential-Interference-Contrast Microscope 567
Images Can Be Enhanced and Analyzed by Digital Techniques 568
Intact Tissues Are Usually Fixed and Sectioned Before Microscopy 569
Specific Molecules Can Be Located in Cells by Fluorescence Microscopy 570
Antibodies Can Be Used to Detect Specific Proteins 572
Individual Proteins Can Be Fluorescently Tagged in Living Cells and Organisms 573
Protein Dynamics Can Be Followed in Living Cells 575
Fluorescent Biosensors Can Monitor Cell Signaling 576
Imaging of Complex Three-dimensional Objects Is Possible with the Optical Microscope 577
The Confocal Microscope Produces Optical Sections by Excluding Out-of-Focus Light 578
Superresolution Fluorescence Techniques Can Overcome Diffraction-limited Resolution 580
Single-Molecule Localization Microscopy Also Delivers Superresolution 583
Expanding the Specimen Can Offer Higher Resolution, but with a Conventional Microscope 585
Large Multicellular Structures Can Be Imaged Over Time 586
Single Molecules Can Be Visualized by Total Internal Reflection Fluorescence Microscopy 587
Summary 588

LOOKING AT CELLS AND MOLECULES IN THE ELECTRON MICROSCOPE 588
The Electron Microscope Resolves the Fine Structure of the Cell 588
Biological Specimens Require Special Preparation for Electron Microscopy 589
Heavy Metals Can Provide Additional Contrast 590
Images of Surfaces Can Be Obtained by Scanning Electron Microscopy 591
Electron Microscope Tomography Allows the Molecular Architecture of Cells to Be Seen in Three Dimensions 593
Cryo-electron Microscopy Can Determine Molecular Structures at Atomic Resolution 595
Light Microscopy and Electron Microscopy Are Mutually Beneficial 597
Using Microscopy to Study Cells Always Involves Trade-Offs 598
Summary 599
Problems 600
References 601

Chapter 10 Membrane Structure 603

THE LIPID BILAYER 604
Glycerophospholipids, Sphingolipids, and Sterols Are the Major Lipids in Cell Membranes 605
Phospholipids Spontaneously Form Bilayers 606
The Lipid Bilayer Is a Two-dimensional Fluid 608
The Fluidity of a Lipid Bilayer Depends on Its Composition 609
Despite Their Fluidity, Lipid Bilayers Can Form Domains of Different Compositions 610
Lipid Droplets Are Surrounded by a Phospholipid Monolayer 611
The Asymmetry of the Lipid Bilayer Is Functionally Important 612
Glycolipids Are Found on the Surface of All Eukaryotic Plasma Membranes 613
Summary 614

MEMBRANE PROTEINS 615
Membrane Proteins Can Be Associated with the Lipid Bilayer in Various Ways 615
Lipid Anchors Control the Membrane Localization of Some Signaling Proteins 616
In Most Transmembrane Proteins, the Polypeptide Chain Crosses the Lipid Bilayer in an α-Helical Conformation 617
Transmembrane α Helices Often Interact with One Another 619
Some β Barrels Form Large Channels 619
Many Membrane Proteins Are Glycosylated 621
Membrane Proteins Can Be Solubilized and Purified in Detergents 622
Bacteriorhodopsin Is a Light-driven Proton (H^+) Pump That Traverses the Lipid Bilayer as Seven α Helices 625
Membrane Proteins Often Function as Large Complexes 627
Many Membrane Proteins Diffuse in the Plane of the Membrane 627
Cells Can Confine Proteins and Lipids to Specific Domains Within a Membrane 629
The Cortical Cytoskeleton Gives Membranes Mechanical Strength and Restricts Membrane Protein Diffusion 630
Membrane-bending Proteins Deform Bilayers 632
Summary 633
Problems 634
References 635

Chapter 11 Small-Molecule Transport and Electrical Properties of Membranes 637

PRINCIPLES OF MEMBRANE TRANSPORT 637
Protein-free Lipid Bilayers Are Impermeable to Ions 638
There Are Two Main Classes of Membrane Transport Proteins: Transporters and Channels 638
Active Transport Is Mediated by Transporters Coupled to an Energy Source 639
Summary 640

TRANSPORTERS AND ACTIVE MEMBRANE TRANSPORT 640
Active Transport Can Be Driven by Ion-Concentration Gradients 642
Transporters in the Plasma Membrane Regulate Cytosolic pH 644
An Asymmetric Distribution of Transporters in Epithelial Cells Underlies the Transcellular Transport of Solutes 645
There Are Three Classes of ATP-driven Pumps 646
A P-type ATPase Pumps Ca^{2+} into the Sarcoplasmic Reticulum in Muscle Cells 647
The Plasma Membrane Na^+-K^+ Pump Establishes Na^+ and K^+ Gradients Across the Plasma Membrane 648
ABC Transporters Constitute the Largest Family of Membrane Transport Proteins 649
Summary 651

CHANNELS AND THE ELECTRICAL PROPERTIES OF MEMBRANES 651
Aquaporins Are Permeable to Water but Impermeable to Ions 652
Ion Channels Are Ion-selective and Fluctuate Between Open and Closed States 653
The Membrane Potential in Animal Cells Depends Mainly on K^+ Leak Channels and the K^+ Gradient Across the Plasma Membrane 655
The Resting Potential Decays Only Slowly When the Na^+-K^+ Pump Is Stopped 655
The Three-dimensional Structure of a Bacterial K^+ Channel Shows How an Ion Channel Can Work 657
Mechanosensitive Channels Allow Cells to Sense Their Physical Environment 659
The Function of a Neuron Depends on Its Elongated Structure 661
Voltage-gated Cation Channels Generate Action Potentials in Electrically Excitable Cells 662
Myelination Increases the Speed and Efficiency of Action Potential Propagation in Nerve Cells 666
Patch-Clamp Recording Indicates That Individual Ion Channels Open in an All-or-Nothing Fashion 666
Voltage-gated Cation Channels Are Evolutionarily and Structurally Related 668
Different Neuron Types Display Characteristic Stable Firing Properties 668
Transmitter-gated Ion Channels Convert Chemical Signals into Electrical Ones at Chemical Synapses 669
Chemical Synapses Can Be Excitatory or Inhibitory 670
The Acetylcholine Receptors at the Neuromuscular Junction Are Excitatory Transmitter-gated Cation Channels 671
Neurons Contain Many Types of Transmitter-gated Channels 672
Many Psychoactive Drugs Act at Synapses 673
Neuromuscular Transmission Involves the Sequential Activation of Five Different Sets of Ion Channels 673
Single Neurons Are Complex Computation Devices 674
Neuronal Computation Requires a Combination of at Least Three Kinds of K^+ Channels 675
Long-term Potentiation in the Mammalian Hippocampus Depends on Ca^{2+} Entry Through NMDA-Receptor Channels 677
The Use of Channelrhodopsins Has Revolutionized the Study of Neural Circuits 678
Summary 679
Problems 680
References 681

Chapter 12 Intracellular Organization and Protein Sorting 683

THE COMPARTMENTALIZATION OF CELLS 683
All Eukaryotic Cells Have the Same Basic Set of Membrane-enclosed Organelles 683
Evolutionary Origins Explain the Topological Relationships of Organelles 686
Macromolecules Can Be Segregated Without a Surrounding Membrane 688
Multivalent Interactions Mediate Formation of Biomolecular Condensates 690
Biomolecular Condensates Create Biochemical Factories 690
Biomolecular Condensates Form and Disassemble in Response to Need 693
Proteins Can Move Between Compartments in Different Ways 694
Sorting Signals and Sorting Receptors Direct Proteins to the Correct Cell Address 695
Construction of Most Organelles Requires Information in the Organelle Itself 697
Summary 697

THE ENDOPLASMIC RETICULUM 698
The ER Is Structurally and Functionally Diverse 698
Signal Sequences Were First Discovered in Proteins Imported into the Rough ER 701
A Signal-Recognition Particle (SRP) Directs the ER Signal Sequence to a Specific Receptor at the ER 702
The Polypeptide Chain Passes Through a Signal Sequence–gated Aqueous Channel in the Translocator 705
Translocation Across the ER Membrane Does Not Always Require Ongoing Polypeptide Chain Elongation 707
Transmembrane Proteins Contain Hydrophobic Segments That Are Recognized Like Signal Sequences 709
Hydrophobic Segments of Multipass Transmembrane Proteins Are Interpreted Contextually to Determine Their Orientation 710
Some Proteins Are Integrated into the ER Membrane by a Post-translational Mechanism 711
Some Membrane Proteins Acquire a Covalently Attached Glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) Anchor 712
Translocated Polypeptide Chains Fold and Assemble in the Lumen of the Rough ER 712
Most Proteins Synthesized in the Rough ER Are Glycosylated by the Addition of a Common *N*-Linked Oligosaccharide 714
Oligosaccharides Are Used as Tags to Mark the State of Protein Folding 715
Improperly Folded Proteins Are Exported from the ER and Degraded in the Cytosol 716
Misfolded Proteins in the ER Activate an Unfolded Protein Response 717
The ER Assembles Most Lipid Bilayers 720
Membrane Contact Sites Between the ER and Other Organelles Facilitate Selective Lipid Transfer 722
Summary 723

PEROXISOMES 723
Peroxisomes Use Molecular Oxygen and Hydrogen Peroxide to Perform Oxidation Reactions 724
Short Signal Sequences Direct the Import of Proteins into Peroxisomes 724
Summary 726

THE TRANSPORT OF PROTEINS INTO MITOCHONDRIA AND CHLOROPLASTS 726
Translocation into Mitochondria Depends on Signal Sequences and Protein Translocators 727
Mitochondrial Proteins Are Imported Post-translationally as Unfolded Polypeptide Chains 728
Protein Import Is Powered by ATP Hydrolysis, a Membrane Potential, and Redox Potential 730
Transport into the Inner Mitochondrial Membrane Occurs Via Several Routes 731
Bacteria and Mitochondria Use Similar Mechanisms to Insert β Barrels into Their Outer Membrane 733
Two Signal Sequences Direct Proteins to the Thylakoid Membrane in Chloroplasts 733
Summary 735

THE TRANSPORT OF MOLECULES BETWEEN THE NUCLEUS AND THE CYTOSOL 735
Nuclear Pore Complexes Perforate the Nuclear Envelope 736
Nuclear Localization Signals Direct Proteins to the Nucleus 738
Nuclear Import Receptors Bind to Both Nuclear Localization Signals and NPC Proteins 739
The Ran GTPase Imposes Directionality on Nuclear Import Through NPCs 740
Nuclear Export Works Like Nuclear Import, but in Reverse 741
Transport Through NPCs Can Be Regulated by Controlling Access to the Transport Machinery 742
The Nuclear Envelope Disassembles and Reassembles During Mitosis 743
Summary 745
Problems 746
References 748

Chapter 13 Intracellular Membrane Traffic 749

MECHANISMS OF MEMBRANE TRANSPORT AND COMPARTMENT IDENTITY 751
There Are Various Types of Coated Vesicles 751
The Assembly of a Clathrin Coat Drives Vesicle Formation 752
Adaptor Proteins Select Cargo into Clathrin-coated Vesicles 753
Phosphoinositides Mark Organelles and Membrane Domains 754
Membrane-bending Proteins Help Deform the Membrane During Vesicle Formation 755
Cytoplasmic Proteins Regulate the Pinching off and Uncoating of Coated Vesicles 756
Monomeric GTPases Control Coat Assembly 756
Coat-recruitment GTPases Participate in Coat Disassembly 758
The Shape and Size of Transport Vesicles Are Diverse 759
Rab Proteins Guide Transport Vesicles to Their Target Membrane 760
Rab Proteins Create and Change the Identity of an Organelle 761
SNAREs Mediate Membrane Fusion 762
Interacting SNAREs Need to Be Pried Apart Before They Can Function Again 763
Viruses Encode Specialized Membrane Fusion Proteins Needed for Cell Entry 764
Summary 764

TRANSPORT FROM THE ENDOPLASMIC RETICULUM THROUGH THE GOLGI APPARATUS 765
Proteins Leave the ER in COPII-coated Transport Vesicles 765
Only Proteins That Are Properly Folded and Assembled Can Leave the ER 766
Vesicular Tubular Clusters Mediate Transport from the ER to the Golgi Apparatus 766
The Retrieval Pathway to the ER Uses Sorting Signals 768
Many Proteins Are Selectively Retained in the Compartments in Which They Function 768
The Golgi Apparatus Consists of an Ordered Series of Compartments 769
Oligosaccharide Chains Are Processed in the Golgi Apparatus 771
Proteoglycans Are Assembled in the Golgi Apparatus 772
What Is the Purpose of Glycosylation? 773
Transport Through the Golgi Apparatus Occurs by Multiple Mechanisms 774
Golgi Matrix Proteins Help Organize the Stack 775
Summary 776

TRANSPORT FROM THE *TRANS* GOLGI NETWORK TO THE CELL EXTERIOR AND ENDOSOMES 776
Many Proteins and Lipids Are Carried Automatically from the *Trans* Golgi Network to the Cell Surface 777
A Mannose 6-Phosphate Receptor Sorts Lysosomal Hydrolases in the *Trans* Golgi Network 777
Defects in the GlcNAc Phosphotransferase Cause a Lysosomal Storage Disease in Humans 779
Secretory Vesicles Bud from the *Trans* Golgi Network 780
Precursors of Secretory Proteins Are Proteolytically Processed During the Formation of Secretory Vesicles 781
Secretory Vesicles Wait Near the Plasma Membrane Until Signaled to Release Their Contents 782
For Rapid Exocytosis, Synaptic Vesicles Are Primed at the Presynaptic Plasma Membrane 782
Synaptic Vesicles Can Be Recycled Locally After Exocytosis 783
Secretory Vesicle Membrane Components Are Quickly Removed from the Plasma Membrane 784
Some Regulated Exocytosis Events Serve to Enlarge the Plasma Membrane 785
Polarized Cells Direct Proteins from the *Trans* Golgi Network to the Appropriate Domain of the Plasma Membrane 786
Summary 787

TRANSPORT INTO THE CELL FROM THE PLASMA MEMBRANE: ENDOCYTOSIS 788
Pinocytic Vesicles Form from Coated Pits in the Plasma Membrane 789
Not All Membrane Invaginations and Pinocytic Vesicles Are Clathrin Coated 789
Cells Use Receptor-mediated Endocytosis to Import Selected Extracellular Macromolecules 791
Specific Proteins Are Retrieved from Early Endosomes and Returned to the Plasma Membrane 792
Recycling Endosomes Regulate Plasma Membrane Composition 793
Plasma Membrane Signaling Receptors Are Down-regulated by Degradation in Lysosomes 794

Early Endosomes Mature into Late Endosomes 795
ESCRT Protein Complexes Mediate the Formation of Intralumenal Vesicles in Multivesicular Bodies 796
Summary 798

THE DEGRADATION AND RECYCLING OF MACROMOLECULES IN LYSOSOMES 798
Lysosomes Are the Principal Sites of Intracellular Digestion 798
Lysosomes Are Heterogeneous 799
Plant and Fungal Vacuoles Are Remarkably Versatile Lysosomes 800
Multiple Pathways Deliver Materials to Lysosomes 801
Cells Can Acquire Nutrients from the Extracellular Fluid by Macropinocytosis 802
Specialized Phagocytic Cells Can Ingest Large Particles 802
Cargo Recognition by Cell-surface Receptors Initiates Phagocytosis 803
Autophagy Degrades Unwanted Proteins and Organelles 804
The Rate of Nonselective Autophagy Is Regulated by Nutrient Availability 805
A Family of Cargo-specific Receptors Mediates Selective Autophagy 806
Some Lysosomes and Multivesicular Bodies Undergo Exocytosis 807
Summary 807
Problems 808
References 810

Chapter 14 Energy Conversion and Metabolic Compartmentation: Mitochondria and Chloroplasts 811

THE MITOCHONDRION 813
The Mitochondrion Has an Outer Membrane and an Inner Membrane 814
Fission, Fusion, Distribution, and Degradation of Mitochondria 815
The Inner Membrane Cristae Contain the Machinery for Electron Transport and ATP Synthesis 817
The Citric Acid Cycle in the Matrix Produces NADH 817
Mitochondria Have Many Essential Roles in Cellular Metabolism 818
A Chemiosmotic Process Couples Oxidation Energy to ATP Production 821
The Energy Derived from Oxidation Is Stored as an Electrochemical Gradient 822
Summary 823

THE PROTON PUMPS OF THE ELECTRON-TRANSPORT CHAIN 823
The Redox Potential Is a Measure of Electron Affinities 823
Electron Transfers Release Large Amounts of Energy 824
Transition Metal Ions and Quinones Accept and Release Electrons Readily 824
NADH Transfers Its Electrons to Oxygen Through Three Large Enzyme Complexes Embedded in the Inner Membrane 827
The NADH Dehydrogenase Complex Contains Separate Modules for Electron Transport and Proton Pumping 828
Cytochrome *c* Reductase Takes Up and Releases Protons on Opposite Sides of the Crista Membrane, Thereby Pumping Protons 829
The Cytochrome *c* Oxidase Complex *Pumps* Protons and Reduces O_2 Using a Catalytic Iron–Copper Center 831
Succinate Dehydrogenase Acts in Both the Electron-Transport Chain and the Citric Acid Cycle 832
The Respiratory Chain Forms a Supercomplex in the Crista Membrane 833
Protons Can Move Rapidly Through Proteins Along Predefined Pathways 834
Summary 835

ATP PRODUCTION IN MITOCHONDRIA 835
The Large Negative Value of ΔG for ATP Hydrolysis Makes ATP Useful to the Cell 835
The ATP Synthase Is a Nanomachine That Produces ATP by Rotary Catalysis 837
Proton-driven Turbines Are Ancient and Critical for Energy Conversion 839
Mitochondrial Cristae Help to Make ATP Synthesis Efficient 840
Special Transport Proteins Move Solutes Through the Inner Membrane 841
Chemiosmotic Mechanisms First Arose in Bacteria 842
Summary 842

CHLOROPLASTS AND PHOTOSYNTHESIS 843
Chloroplasts Resemble Mitochondria but Have a Separate Thylakoid Compartment 843
Chloroplasts Capture Energy from Sunlight and Use It to Fix Carbon 844
Carbon Fixation Uses ATP and NADPH to Convert CO_2 into Sugars 845
Carbon Fixation in Some Plants Is Compartmentalized to Facilitate Growth at Low CO_2 Concentrations 846
The Sugars Generated by Carbon Fixation Can Be Stored as Starch or Consumed to Produce ATP 849
The Thylakoid Membranes of Chloroplasts Contain the Protein Complexes Required for Photosynthesis and ATP Generation 849
Chlorophyll–Protein Complexes Can Transfer Either Excitation Energy or Electrons 850
A Photosystem Contains Chlorophylls in Antennae and a Reaction Center 851
The Thylakoid Membrane Contains Two Different Photosystems Working in Series 852
Photosystem II Uses a Manganese Cluster to Withdraw Electrons from Water 853
The Cytochrome b_6-*f* Complex Connects Photosystem II to Photosystem I 854
Photosystem I Carries Out the Second Charge-Separation Step in the Z Scheme 855
The Chloroplast ATP Synthase Uses the Proton Gradient Generated by the Photosynthetic Light Reactions to Produce ATP 855
The Proton-Motive Force for ATP Production in Mitochondria and Chloroplasts Is Essentially the Same 856
Chemiosmotic Mechanisms Evolved in Stages 856
By Providing an Inexhaustible Source of Reducing Power, Photosynthetic Bacteria Overcame a Major Evolutionary Obstacle 857
The Photosynthetic Electron-Transport Chains of Cyanobacteria Produced Atmospheric Oxygen and Permitted New Life-Forms 857
Summary 860

THE GENETIC SYSTEMS OF MITOCHONDRIA AND CHLOROPLASTS 861
The Genetic Systems of Mitochondria and Chloroplasts Resemble Those of Prokaryotes 861
Over Time, Mitochondria and Chloroplasts Have Exported Most of Their Genes to the Nucleus by Gene Transfer 862
Mitochondria Have a Relaxed Codon Usage and Can Have a Variant Genetic Code 864
Chloroplasts and Bacteria Share Many Striking Similarities 865
Organellar Genes Are Maternally Inherited in Animals and Plants 866
Mutations in Mitochondrial DNA Can Cause Severe Inherited Diseases 866
Why Do Mitochondria and Chloroplasts Maintain a Costly Separate System for DNA Transcription and Translation? 867
Summary 868
Problems 869
References 871

Chapter 15 Cell Signaling 873

PRINCIPLES OF CELL SIGNALING 873
Extracellular Signals Can Act Over Short or Long Distances 874
Extracellular Signal Molecules Bind to Specific Receptors 875
Each Cell Is Programmed to Respond to Specific Combinations of Extracellular Signals 876
There Are Three Major Classes of Cell-Surface Receptor Proteins 878
Cell-Surface Receptors Relay Signals Via Intracellular Signaling Molecules 879
Intracellular Signals Must Be Specific and Robust in a Noisy Cytoplasm 881
Intracellular Signaling Complexes Form at Activated Cell-Surface Receptors 882
Modular Interaction Domains Mediate Interactions Between Intracellular Signaling Proteins 883
The Relationship Between Signal and Response Varies in Different Signaling Pathways 885
The Speed of a Response Depends on the Turnover of Signaling Molecules 886

Cells Can Respond Abruptly to a Gradually Increasing Signal 887
Positive Feedback Can Generate an All-or-None Response 888
Negative Feedback Is a Common Feature of Intracellular Signaling Systems 890
Cells Can Adjust Their Sensitivity to a Signal 890
Summary 892

SIGNALING THROUGH G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS 892
Heterotrimeric G Proteins Relay Signals from GPCRs 893
Some G Proteins Regulate the Production of Cyclic AMP 895
Cyclic-AMP-dependent Protein Kinase (PKA) Mediates Most of the Effects of Cyclic AMP 896
Some G Proteins Signal Via Phospholipids 898
Ca^{2+} Functions as a Ubiquitous Intracellular Mediator 899
Feedback Generates Ca^{2+} Waves and Oscillations 900
Ca^{2+}/Calmodulin-dependent Protein Kinases Mediate Many Responses to Ca^{2+} Signals 902
Some G Proteins Directly Regulate Ion Channels 904
Smell and Vision Depend on GPCRs That Regulate Ion Channels 905
Nitric Oxide Gas Can Mediate Signaling Between Cells 908
Second Messengers and Enzymatic Cascades Amplify Signals 909
GPCR Desensitization Depends on Receptor Phosphorylation 909
Summary 910

SIGNALING THROUGH ENZYME-COUPLED RECEPTORS 911
Activated Receptor Tyrosine Kinases (RTKs) Phosphorylate Themselves 911
Phosphorylated Tyrosines on RTKs Serve as Docking Sites for Intracellular Signaling Proteins 913
Proteins with SH2 Domains Bind to Phosphorylated Tyrosines 913
The Monomeric GTPase Ras Mediates Signaling by Most RTKs 915
Ras Activates a MAP Kinase Signaling Module 916
Scaffold Proteins Reduce Cross-Talk Between Different MAP Kinase Modules 918
Rho Family GTPases Functionally Couple Cell-Surface Receptors to the Cytoskeleton 919
PI 3-Kinase Produces Lipid Docking Sites in the Plasma Membrane 920
The PI-3-Kinase–Akt Signaling Pathway Stimulates Animal Cells to Survive and Grow 921
RTKs and GPCRs Activate Overlapping Signaling Pathways 923
Some Enzyme-coupled Receptors Associate with Cytoplasmic Tyrosine Kinases 923
Cytokine Receptors Activate the JAK–STAT Signaling Pathway 924
Extracellular Signal Proteins of the TGFβ Superfamily Act Through Receptor Serine/Threonine Kinases and Smads 926
Summary 927

ALTERNATIVE SIGNALING ROUTES IN GENE REGULATION 928
The Receptor Notch Is a Latent Transcription Regulator 928
Wnt Proteins Activate Frizzled and Thereby Inhibit β-Catenin Degradation 930
Hedgehog Proteins Initiate a Complex Signaling Pathway in the Primary Cilium 932
Many Inflammatory and Stress Signals Act Through an NFκB-dependent Signaling Pathway 934
Nuclear Receptors Are Ligand-modulated Transcription Regulators 935
Circadian Clocks Use Negative Feedback Loops to Control Gene Expression 937
Three Purified Proteins Can Reconstitute a Cyanobacterial Circadian Clock in a Test Tube 938
Summary 939

SIGNALING IN PLANTS 940
Multicellularity and Cell Communication Evolved Independently in Plants and Animals 940
Receptor Serine/Threonine Kinases Are the Largest Class of Cell-Surface Receptors in Plants 941
Ethylene Blocks the Degradation of Specific Transcription Regulatory Proteins in the Nucleus 941
Regulated Positioning of Auxin Transporters Patterns Plant Growth 943
Phytochromes Detect Red Light, and Cryptochromes Detect Blue Light 944
Summary 945
Problems 946
References 948

Chapter 16 The Cytoskeleton 949

FUNCTION AND DYNAMICS OF THE CYTOSKELETON 949
Cytoskeletal Filaments Are Dynamic, but Can Nevertheless Form Stable Structures 951
The Cytoskeleton Determines Cellular Organization and Polarity 952
Filaments Assemble from Protein Subunits That Impart Specific Physical and Dynamic Properties 953
Accessory Proteins and Motors Act on Cytoskeletal Filaments 955
Molecular Motors Operate in a Cellular Environment Dominated by Brownian Motion 956
Summary 957

ACTIN 957
Actin Subunits Assemble Head-to-Tail to Create Flexible, Polar Filaments 958
Nucleation Is the Rate-limiting Step in the Formation of Actin Filaments 958
Actin Filaments Have Two Distinct Ends That Grow at Different Rates 962
ATP Hydrolysis Within Actin Filaments Leads to Treadmilling at Steady State 962
The Functions of Actin Filaments Are Inhibited by Both Polymer-stabilizing and Polymer-destabilizing Chemicals 963
Actin-binding Proteins Influence Filament Dynamics and Organization 964
Actin Nucleation Is Tightly Regulated and Generates Branched or Straight Filaments 964
Actin Filament Elongation Is Regulated by Monomer-binding Proteins 967
Actin Filament–binding Proteins Alter Filament Dynamics and Organization 968
Severing Proteins Regulate Actin Filament Depolymerization 970
Bacteria Can Hijack the Host Actin Cytoskeleton 971
Actin at the Cell Cortex Determines Cell Shape 971
Distinct Modes of Cell Migration Rely on the Actin Cytoskeleton 972
Cells Migrating in Three Dimensions Can Navigate Around Barriers 974
Summary 975

MYOSIN AND ACTIN 976
Actin-based Motor Proteins Are Members of the Myosin Superfamily 976
Myosin Generates Force by Coupling ATP Hydrolysis to Conformational Changes 977
Sliding of Myosin II Along Actin Filaments Causes Muscles to Contract 977
A Sudden Rise in Cytosolic Ca^{2+} Concentration Initiates Muscle Contraction 981
Heart Muscle Is a Precisely Engineered Machine 984
Actin and Myosin Perform a Variety of Functions in Non-Muscle Cells 984
Summary 986

MICROTUBULES 987
Microtubules Are Hollow Tubes Made of Protofilaments 988
Microtubules Undergo a Process Called Dynamic Instability 988
Microtubule Functions Are Inhibited by Both Polymer-stabilizing and Polymer-destabilizing Drugs 991
A Protein Complex Containing γ-Tubulin Nucleates Microtubules 991
The Centrosome Is a Prominent Microtubule Nucleation Site 991
Microtubule Organization Varies Widely Among Cell Types 993
Microtubule-binding Proteins Modulate Filament Dynamics and Organization 995
Microtubule Plus End–binding Proteins Modulate Microtubule Dynamics and Attachments 996
Tubulin-sequestering and Microtubule-severing Proteins Modulate Microtubule Dynamics 998
Two Types of Motor Proteins Move Along Microtubules 999
Microtubules and Motors Move Organelles and Vesicles 1002
Motile Cilia and Flagella Are Built from Microtubules and Dyneins 1004
Primary Cilia Perform Important Signaling Functions in Animal Cells 1005
Summary 1006

INTERMEDIATE FILAMENTS AND OTHER CYTOSKELETAL POLYMERS 1007
Intermediate Filament Structure Depends on the Lateral Bundling and Twisting of Coiled-Coils 1007
Intermediate Filaments Impart Mechanical Stability to Animal Cells 1009
Linker Proteins Connect Cytoskeletal Filaments and Bridge the Nuclear Envelope 1011

Septins Form Filaments That Contribute to Subcellular Organization 1012
Bacterial Cell Shape and Division Depend on Homologs of Eukaryotic Cytoskeletal Proteins 1013
Summary 1016

CELL POLARITY AND COORDINATION OF THE CYTOSKELETON 1016
Cell Polarity Is Governed by Small GTPases in Budding Yeast 1016
PAR Proteins Generate Anterior–Posterior Polarity in Embryos 1018
Conserved Complexes Polarize Epithelial Cells and Control Their Growth 1019
Cell Migration Requires Dynamic Cell Polarity 1020
External Signals Can Dictate the Direction of Cell Migration 1022
Communication Among Cytoskeletal Elements Supports Whole-Cell Polarity and Locomotion 1023
Summary 1023
Problems 1024
References 1025

Chapter 17 The Cell Cycle 1027

OVERVIEW OF THE CELL CYCLE 1027
The Eukaryotic Cell Cycle Usually Consists of Four Phases 1028
Cell-Cycle Control Is Similar in All Eukaryotes 1030
Cell-Cycle Progression Can Be Studied in Various Ways 1030
Summary 1031

THE CELL-CYCLE CONTROL SYSTEM 1031
The Cell-Cycle Control System Triggers the Major Events of the Cell Cycle 1032
The Cell-Cycle Control System Depends on Cyclically Activated Cyclin-dependent Protein Kinases 1033
Protein Phosphatases Reverse the Effects of Cdks 1035
Hundreds of Cdk Substrates Are Phosphorylated in a Defined Order 1035
Positive Feedback Generates the Switchlike Behavior of Cell-Cycle Transitions 1036
The Anaphase-promoting Complex/Cyclosome (APC/C) Triggers the Metaphase-to-Anaphase Transition 1038
The G_1 Phase Is a Stable State of Cdk Inactivity 1040
The Cell-Cycle Control System Functions as a Linked Series of Biochemical Switches 1041
Summary 1042

S PHASE 1042
S-Cdk Initiates DNA Replication Once Per Cell Cycle 1043
Chromosome Duplication Requires Duplication of Chromatin Structure 1045
Cohesins Hold Sister Chromatids Together 1045
Summary 1046

MITOSIS 1046
M-Cdk and Other Protein Kinases Drive Entry into Mitosis 1047
Condensin Helps Configure Duplicated Chromosomes for Separation 1047
The Mitotic Spindle Is a Dynamic Microtubule-based Machine 1050
Microtubules Are Nucleated in Multiple Regions of the Spindle 1051
Microtubule Instability Increases Greatly in Mitosis 1052
Microtubule-based Motor Proteins Govern Spindle Assembly and Function 1052
Bipolar Spindle Assembly in Most Animal Cells Begins with Centrosome Duplication 1053
Spindle Assembly in Animal Cells Requires Nuclear-Envelope Breakdown 1054
Mitotic Chromosomes Promote Bipolar Spindle Assembly 1055
Kinetochores Attach Sister Chromatids to the Spindle 1056
Bi-orientation Is Achieved by Trial and Error 1057
Multiple Forces Act on Chromosomes in the Spindle 1059
The APC/C Triggers Sister-Chromatid Separation and the Completion of Mitosis 1060
Unattached Chromosomes Block Sister-Chromatid Separation: The Spindle Assembly Checkpoint 1062
Chromosomes Segregate in Anaphase A and B 1062
Segregated Chromosomes Are Packaged in Daughter Nuclei at Telophase 1063
Summary 1064

CYTOKINESIS 1064
Actin and Myosin II in the Contractile Ring Guide the Process of Cytokinesis 1065
Local Activation of RhoA Triggers Assembly and Contraction of the Contractile Ring 1065
The Microtubules of the Mitotic Spindle Determine the Plane of Animal Cell Division 1066
The Phragmoplast Guides Cytokinesis in Higher Plants 1068
Membrane-enclosed Organelles Must Be Distributed to Daughter Cells During Cytokinesis 1069
Some Cells Reposition Their Spindle to Divide Asymmetrically 1069
Mitosis Can Occur Without Cytokinesis 1070
Summary 1070

MEIOSIS 1071
Meiosis Includes Two Rounds of Chromosome Segregation 1071
Duplicated Homologs Pair During Meiotic Prophase 1073
Homolog Pairing Culminates in the Formation of a Synaptonemal Complex 1073
Homolog Segregation Depends on Several Unique Features of Meiosis I 1075
Crossing-Over Is Highly Regulated 1076
Meiosis Frequently Goes Wrong 1077
Summary 1077

CONTROL OF CELL DIVISION AND CELL GROWTH 1077
Mitogens Stimulate Cell Division 1078
Cells Can Enter a Specialized Nondividing State 1078
Mitogens Stimulate G_1-Cdk and G_1/S-Cdk Activities 1079
DNA Damage Blocks Cell Division 1080
Many Human Cells Have a Built-In Limitation on the Number of Times They Can Divide 1082
Cell Proliferation Is Accompanied by Cell Growth 1083
Proliferating Cells Usually Coordinate Their Growth and Division 1084
Summary 1084
Problems 1085
References 1087

Chapter 18 Cell Death 1089

Apoptosis Eliminates Unwanted Cells 1090
Apoptosis Depends on an Intracellular Proteolytic Cascade Mediated by Caspases 1091
Activation of Cell-Surface Death Receptors Initiates the Extrinsic Pathway of Apoptosis 1093
The Intrinsic Pathway of Apoptosis Depends on Proteins Released from Mitochondria 1094
Bcl2 Proteins Are the Critical Controllers of the Intrinsic Pathway of Apoptosis 1095
An Inhibitor of Apoptosis (an IAP) and Two Anti-IAP Proteins Help Control Caspase Activation in the Cytosol of Some Mammalian Cells 1098
Extracellular Survival Factors Inhibit Apoptosis in Various Ways 1098
Healthy Neighbors Phagocytose and Digest Apoptotic Cells 1100
Either Excessive or Insufficient Apoptosis Can Contribute to Disease 1100
Summary 1102
Problems 1103
References 1104

Chapter 19 Cell Junctions and the Extracellular Matrix 1105

CELL–CELL JUNCTIONS 1108
Cadherins Form a Diverse Family of Adhesion Molecules 1108
Cadherins Mediate Homophilic Adhesion 1108
Cadherin-dependent Cell–Cell Adhesion Guides the Organization of Developing Tissues 1110
Assembly of Strong Cell–Cell Adhesions Requires Changes in the Actin Cytoskeleton 1112
Catenins Link Classical Cadherins to the Actin Cytoskeleton 1113
Adherens Junctions Respond to Tension from Inside and Outside the Tissue 1113
Tissue Remodeling Depends on the Coordination of Actin-mediated Contraction with Cell–Cell Adhesion 1114
Desmosomes Give Epithelia Mechanical Strength 1116
Tight Junctions Form a Seal Between Cells and a Fence Between Plasma Membrane Domains 1116

Tight Junctions Contain Strands of Transmembrane Adhesion Proteins 1119
Scaffold Proteins Organize Junctional Protein Complexes 1120
Gap Junctions Couple Cells Both Electrically and Metabolically 1121
A Gap-Junction Connexon Is Made of Six Transmembrane Connexin Subunits 1122
In Plants, Plasmodesmata Perform Many of the Same Functions as Gap Junctions 1123
Selectins Mediate Transient Cell–Cell Adhesions in the Bloodstream 1125
Members of the Immunoglobulin Superfamily Mediate Ca^{2+}-independent Cell–Cell Adhesion 1126
Summary 1127

THE EXTRACELLULAR MATRIX OF ANIMALS 1127
The Extracellular Matrix Is Made and Oriented by the Cells Within It 1128
Glycosaminoglycan (GAG) Chains Occupy Large Amounts of Space and Form Hydrated Gels 1129
Hyaluronan Acts as a Space Filler During Tissue Morphogenesis and Repair 1129
Proteoglycans Are Composed of GAG Chains Covalently Linked to a Core Protein 1130
Collagens Are the Major Proteins of the Extracellular Matrix 1132
Collagen Chains Undergo a Series of Post-translational Modifications 1133
Secreted Fibril-associated Collagens Help Organize the Fibrils 1135
Elastin Gives Tissues Their Elasticity 1136
Cells Govern and Respond to the Mechanical Properties of the Matrix 1137
Fibronectin and Other Multidomain Glycoproteins Help Organize the Matrix 1138
Fibronectin Binds to Integrins 1139
Tension Exerted by Cells Regulates the Assembly of Fibronectin Fibrils 1140
The Basal Lamina Is a Specialized Form of Extracellular Matrix 1141
Laminin and Type IV Collagen Are Major Components of the Basal Lamina 1141
Basal Laminae Have Diverse Functions 1143
Cells Have to Be Able to Degrade Matrix, as Well as Make It 1144
Matrix Proteoglycans and Glycoproteins Regulate the Activities of Secreted Proteins 1145
Summary 1146

CELL–MATRIX JUNCTIONS 1147
Integrins Are Transmembrane Heterodimers That Link the Extracellular Matrix to the Cytoskeleton 1147
Integrin Defects Are Responsible for Many Genetic Diseases 1148
Integrins Can Switch Between an Active and an Inactive Conformation 1149
Integrins Cluster to Form Strong Adhesions 1151
Extracellular Matrix Attachments Act Through Integrins to Control Cell Proliferation and Survival 1151
Integrins Recruit Intracellular Signaling Proteins at Sites of Cell–Matrix Adhesion 1152
Cell–Matrix Adhesions Respond to Mechanical Forces 1153
Summary 1154

THE PLANT CELL WALL 1154
The Composition of the Cell Wall Depends on the Cell Type 1155
The Tensile Strength of the Cell Wall Allows Plant Cells to Develop Turgor Pressure 1155
The Primary Cell Wall Is Built from Cellulose Microfibrils Interwoven with a Network of Pectic Polysaccharides 1156
Oriented Cell Wall Deposition Controls Plant Cell Growth 1157
Microtubules Orient Cell Wall Deposition 1158
Summary 1159
Problems 1160
References 1162

Chapter 20 Cancer 1163

CANCER AS A MICROEVOLUTIONARY PROCESS 1163
Cancer Cells Bypass Normal Proliferation Controls and Colonize Other Tissues 1164
Most Cancers Derive from a Single Abnormal Cell 1165
Cancer Cells Contain Somatic Mutations 1166
A Single Mutation Is Not Enough to Change a Normal Cell into a Cancer Cell 1166
Many Cancers Develop Gradually Through Successive Rounds of Random Inherited Change Followed by Natural Selection 1167
Cancers Can Evolve Abruptly Due to Genetic Instability 1168
Some Cancers May Harbor a Small Population of Stem Cells 1170
A Common Set of Hallmarks Typically Characterizes Cancerous Growth 1171
Cancer Cells Display an Altered Control of Growth and Homeostasis 1172
Human Cancer Cells Escape a Built-in Limit to Cell Proliferation 1173
Cancer Cells Have an Abnormal Ability to Bypass Death Signals 1174
Cancer Cells Have Altered Sugar Metabolism 1175
The Tumor Microenvironment Influences Cancer Development 1175
Cancer Cells Must Survive and Proliferate in a Foreign Environment 1176
Summary 1178

CANCER-CRITICAL GENES: HOW THEY ARE FOUND AND WHAT THEY DO 1178
The Identification of Gain-of-Function and Loss-of-Function Cancer Mutations Has Traditionally Required Different Methods 1179
Retroviruses Led to the Identification of Oncogenes 1180
Genes Mutated in Cancer Can Be Made Overactive in Many Ways 1181
Studies of Rare Hereditary Cancer Syndromes First Identified Tumor Suppressor Genes 1182
Both Genetic and Epigenetic Mechanisms Can Inactivate Tumor Suppressor Genes 1183
Systematic Sequencing of Cancer Cell Genomes Has Transformed Our Understanding of the Disease 1184
Many Cancers Have an Extraordinarily Disrupted Genome 1185
Epigenetic and Chromatin Changes Contribute to Most Cancers 1185
Hundreds of Human Genes Contribute to Cancer 1186
Disruptions in a Handful of Key Pathways Are Common to Many Cancers 1187
Mutations in the PI 3-kinase/Akt/mTOR Pathway Drive Cancer Cells to Grow 1188
Mutations in the p53 Pathway Enable Cancer Cells to Survive and Proliferate Despite Stress and DNA Damage 1189
Studies Using Mice Help to Define the Functions of Cancer-critical Genes 1190
Cancers Become More and More Heterogeneous as They Progress 1192
Colorectal Cancers Evolve Slowly Via a Succession of Visible Changes 1192
A Few Key Genetic Lesions Are Common to a Large Fraction of Colorectal Cancers 1194
Some Colorectal Cancers Have Defects in DNA Mismatch Repair 1195
The Steps of Tumor Progression Can Often Be Correlated with Specific Mutations 1196
The Changes in Tumor Cells That Lead to Metastasis Are Still Largely a Mystery 1197
Summary 1197

CANCER PREVENTION AND TREATMENT: PRESENT AND FUTURE 1198
Epidemiology Reveals That Many Cases of Cancer Are Preventable 1198
Sensitive Assays Can Detect Those Cancer-causing Agents That Damage DNA 1199
Fifty Percent of Cancers Could Be Prevented by Changes in Lifestyle 1200
Viruses and Other Infections Contribute to a Significant Proportion of Human Cancers 1201
Cancers of the Uterine Cervix Can Be Prevented by Vaccination Against Human Papillomavirus 1202
Infectious Agents Can Cause Cancer in a Variety of Ways 1203
The Search for Cancer Cures Is Difficult but Not Hopeless 1204
Traditional Therapies Exploit the Genetic Instability and Loss of Cell-Cycle Checkpoint Responses in Cancer Cells 1204
New Drugs Can Kill Cancer Cells Selectively by Targeting Specific Mutations 1204
PARP Inhibitors Kill Cancer Cells That Have Defects in *Brca1* or *Brca2* Genes 1205

Small Molecules Can Be Designed to Inhibit Specific Oncogenic Proteins 1207
Many Cancers May Be Treatable by Enhancing Immune Responses 1209
Immunosuppression Is a Major Hurdle for Cancer Immunotherapy 1210
Cancers Evolve Resistance to Therapies 1212
We Now Have the Tools to Devise Combination Therapies Tailored to the Individual 1212
Summary 1213
Problems 1214
References 1216

Chapter 21 Development of Multicellular Organisms 1217

OVERVIEW OF DEVELOPMENT 1218
Conserved Mechanisms Establish the Core Tissues of Animals 1218
The Developmental Potential of Cells Becomes Progressively Restricted 1219
Cell Memory Underlies Cell Decision-Making 1220
Several Model Organisms Have Been Crucial for Understanding Development 1220
Regulatory DNA Seems Largely Responsible for the Differences Between Animal Species 1220
Small Numbers of Conserved Cell–Cell Signaling Pathways Coordinate Spatial Patterning 1221
Through Combinatorial Control and Cell Memory, Simple Signals Can Generate Complex Patterns 1221
Morphogens Are Diffusible Inductive Signals That Exert Graded Effects 1222
Lateral Inhibition Can Generate Patterns of Different Cell Types 1223
Asymmetric Cell Division Can Also Generate Diversity 1224
Initial Patterns Are Established in Small Fields of Cells and Refined by Sequential Induction as the Embryo Grows 1225
Developmental Biology Provides Insights into Disease and Tissue Maintenance 1225
Summary 1226

MECHANISMS OF PATTERN FORMATION 1226
Different Animals Use Different Mechanisms to Establish Their Primary Axes of Polarization 1226
Studies in *Drosophila* Have Revealed Many Genetic Control Mechanisms Underlying Development 1228
Gene Products Deposited in the Egg Organize the Axes of the Early *Drosophila* Embryo 1228
Three Groups of Genes Control *Drosophila* Segmentation Along the A-P Axis 1230
A Hierarchy of Gene Regulatory Interactions Subdivides the *Drosophila* Embryo 1231
Egg-Polarity, Gap, and Pair-Rule Genes Create a Transient Pattern That Is Remembered by Segment-Polarity and *Hox* Genes 1233
Hox Genes Permanently Pattern the A-P Axis 1233
Hox Proteins Give Each Segment Its Individuality 1234
Hox Genes Are Expressed According to Their Order in the *Hox* Complex 1234
Trithorax and Polycomb Group Proteins Regulate *Hox* Expression to Maintain a Permanent Record of Positional Information 1235
The D-V Signaling Genes Create a Gradient of the Transcription Regulator Dorsal 1236
A Hierarchy of Inductive Interactions Subdivides the Vertebrate Embryo 1238
A Competition Between Secreted Signaling Proteins Patterns the Vertebrate Embryonic Axes 1239
Hox Genes Control the Vertebrate A-P Axis 1240
Some Transcription Regulators Can Activate a Program That Defines a Cell Type or Creates an Entire Organ 1241
Notch-mediated Lateral Inhibition Refines Cellular Spacing Patterns 1242
Cell-fate Determinants Can Be Asymmetrically Inherited 1244
Evolution of Regulatory DNA Explains Many Morphological Differences 1245
Summary 1247

DEVELOPMENTAL TIMING 1248
Molecular Lifetimes Play a Critical Part in Developmental Timing 1248
A Gene Expression Oscillator Acts as a Clock to Control Vertebrate Segmentation 1249
Cell-intrinsic Timing Mechanisms Can Lead to Different Cell Fates 1251
Cells Rarely Count Cell Divisions to Time Their Development 1252
MicroRNAs Can Regulate Developmental Transitions 1252
Cell and Nuclear Size Relationships Schedule the Onset of Zygotic Gene Expression 1254
Hormonal Signals Coordinate the Timing of Developmental Transitions 1255
Environmental Cues Determine the Time of Flowering 1256
Summary 1257

MORPHOGENESIS 1257
Imbalance in Physical Forces Acting on Cells Drives Morphogenesis 1258
Tension and Adhesion Determine Cell Packing Within Epithelial Sheets 1258
Changing Patterns of Cell Adhesion Molecules Force Cells into New Arrangements 1259
Repulsive Interactions Help Maintain Tissue Boundaries 1259
Groups of Similar Cells Can Perform Dramatic Collective Rearrangements 1261
Planar Cell Polarity Orients Cell Behaviors Within an Embryo 1261
An Epithelium Can Bend During Development to Form a Tube 1263
Interactions Between an Epithelium and Mesenchyme Generate Branching Tubular Structures 1264
The Extracellular Matrix Also Influences Tissue Shape 1265
Cell Migration Is Guided by Environmental Signals 1266
The Distribution of Migrant Cells Depends on Survival Factors 1267
Cells Migrate in Groups to Achieve Large-Scale Morphogenetic Movements 1268
Summary 1269

GROWTH 1269
The Proliferation, Death, and Size of Cells Determine Organ and Organism Size 1270
Changes in Cell Size Usually Result from Modified Cell Cycles 1271
Animals and Organs Can Assess and Regulate Total Cell Mass 1272
Various Extracellular Signals Stimulate or Inhibit Growth 1273
The Hippo Pathway Relays Mechanical Signals Regulating Growth 1273
Hormones Coordinate Growth Throughout the Body 1274
The Duration of Growth Influences Organism Size 1275
Summary 1275
Problems 1276
References 1278

Chapter 22 Stem Cells in Tissue Homeostasis and Regeneration 1279

STEM CELLS AND TISSUE HOMEOSTASIS 1279
Stem Cells Are Defined by Their Ability to Self-renew and Produce Differentiated Cells 1280
The Epithelial Lining of the Small Intestine Is Continually Renewed Through Cell Proliferation in Crypts 1281
Epidermal Stem Cells Maintain a Self-renewing, Waterproof, Epithelial Barrier on the Body Surface 1282
Cell Lineage Tracing Reveals the Location of Stem Cells and Their Progeny 1284
Quiescent Stem Cells Are Difficult to Identify by Lineage Tracing 1285
Hematopoietic Stem Cells Can Be Identified by Transplantation 1286
Some Tissues Do Not Require Stem Cells for Their Maintenance 1289
In Response to Injury, Some Differentiated Cells Can Revert to Progenitor Cells and Some Progenitor Cells Can Revert to Stem Cells 1289
Some Tissues Lack Stem Cells and Are Not Renewable 1290
Summary 1290

CONTROL OF STEM-CELL FATE AND SELF-RENEWAL 1291
The Stem-Cell Niche Maintains Stem-Cell Self-Renewal 1291
The Size of the Niche Can Determine the Number of Stem Cells 1292
Asymmetric Stem-Cell Division Can Maintain Stem-Cell Number 1293
In Many Symmetric Stem-Cell Divisions, Daughter Cells Choose Their Fates Independently and Stochastically 1294
A Decline in Stem-Cell Function Contributes to Tissue Aging 1294

Summary 1296
REGENERATION AND REPAIR 1296
Planarian Flatworms Contain Stem Cells That Can Regenerate a Whole New Body 1297
Some Vertebrates Can Regenerate Entire Limbs and Organs 1298
Stem Cells Can Be Used Clinically to Replace Lost Hematopoietic or Skin Cells 1299
Neural Stem Cells Can Be Manipulated in Culture and Used to Repopulate a Diseased Central Nervous System 1299
Summary 1300
CELL REPROGRAMMING AND PLURIPOTENT STEM CELLS 1300
Nuclei Can Be Reprogrammed by Transplantation into Foreign Cytoplasm 1301
Reprogramming of a Transplanted Nucleus Involves Drastic Changes in Chromatin 1301
Embryonic Stem (ES) Cells Can Generate Any Part of the Body 1302
A Core Set of Transcription Regulators Defines and Maintains the ES-Cell State 1303
Fibroblasts Can Be Reprogrammed to Create Induced Pluripotent Stem (iPS) Cells 1303
Reprogramming Involves a Massive Upheaval of the Gene Control System 1304
An Experimental Manipulation of Factors That Modify Chromatin Can Increase Reprogramming Efficiencies 1305
ES and iPS Cells Can Be Guided to Generate Specific Adult Cell Types and Even Organoids 1306
Cells of One Specialized Type Can Be Forced to Transdifferentiate Directly into Another 1306
ES and iPS Cells Are Also Useful for Drug Discovery and Analysis of Disease 1308
Summary 1309
Problems 1310
References 1312

Chapter 23 Pathogens and Infection 1313
INTRODUCTION TO PATHOGENS 1313
Pathogens Can Be Viruses, Bacteria, or Eukaryotes 1314
Pathogens Interact with Their Hosts in Different Ways 1314
Bacteria Are Diverse and Occupy a Remarkable Variety of Ecological Niches 1315
Bacterial Pathogens Carry Specialized Virulence Genes 1317
Bacterial Virulence Genes Encode Toxins and Secretion Systems That Deliver Effector Proteins to Host Cells 1319
Fungal and Protozoan Parasites Have Complex Life Cycles Involving Multiple Forms 1321
All Aspects of Viral Propagation Depend on Host-Cell Machinery 1322
Summary 1325
CELL BIOLOGY OF PATHOGEN INFECTION 1325
Pathogens Breach Epithelial Barriers to Infect the Host 1326
Pathogens That Colonize an Epithelium Must Overcome Its Protective Mechanisms 1326
Extracellular Pathogens Use Toxins and Contact-dependent Secretion Systems to Disturb Host Cells Without Entering Them 1328
Intracellular Pathogens Have Mechanisms for Both Entering and Leaving Host Cells 1329
Viruses Bind to Virus Receptors at the Host-Cell Surface 1329
Viruses Enter Host Cells by Membrane Fusion, Pore Formation, or Membrane Disruption 1330
Bacteria Enter Host Cells by Phagocytosis 1331
Intracellular Eukaryotic Parasites Actively Invade Host Cells 1333
Some Intracellular Pathogens Escape from the Phagosome into the Cytosol 1334
Many Pathogens Alter Membrane Traffic in the Host Cell to Survive and Replicate 1335
Bacteria and Viruses Use the Host-Cell Cytoskeleton for Intracellular Movement 1338
Many Microbes Manipulate Autophagy 1340
Viruses Can Take Over the Metabolism of the Host Cell 1340
Pathogens Can Evolve Rapidly by Antigenic Variation 1341
Error-prone Replication Dominates Viral Evolution 1343
Drug-resistant Pathogens Are a Growing Problem 1344
Summary 1346
THE HUMAN MICROBIOTA 1347
The Human Microbiota Is a Complex Ecological System 1347
The Microbiota Influences Our Development and Health 1348
Summary 1349
Problems 1350
References 1351

Chapter 24 The Innate and Adaptive Immune Systems 1353
THE INNATE IMMUNE SYSTEM 1354
Epithelial Surfaces Serve as Barriers to Infection 1354
Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs) Recognize Conserved Features of Pathogens 1354
There Are Multiple Families of PRRs 1355
Activated PRRs Trigger an Inflammatory Response at Sites of Infection 1356
Phagocytic Cells Seek, Engulf, and Destroy Pathogens 1358
Complement Activation Targets Pathogens for Phagocytosis or Lysis 1358
Virus-infected Cells Take Drastic Measures to Prevent Viral Replication 1360
Natural Killer Cells Induce Virus-infected Cells to Kill Themselves 1361
Dendritic Cells Provide the Link Between the Innate and Adaptive Immune Systems 1362
Summary 1362
OVERVIEW OF THE ADAPTIVE IMMUNE SYSTEM 1364
B Cells Develop in the Bone Marrow, T Cells in the Thymus 1365
Immunological Memory Depends on Both Clonal Expansion and Lymphocyte Differentiation 1366
Most B and T Cells Continually Recirculate Through Peripheral Lymphoid Organs 1368
Immunological Self-tolerance Ensures That B and T Cells Do Not Attack Normal Host Cells and Molecules 1370
Summary 1372
B CELLS AND IMMUNOGLOBULINS 1372
B Cells Make Immunoglobulins (Igs) as Both Cell-Surface Antigen Receptors and Secreted Antibodies 1373
Mammals Make Five Classes of Igs 1373
Ig Light and Heavy Chains of Antibodies Consist of Constant and Variable Regions 1375
Ig Genes Are Assembled from Separate Gene Segments During B Cell Development 1377
Antigen-driven Somatic Hypermutation Fine-Tunes Antibody Responses 1379
B Cells Can Switch the Class of Ig They Make 1379
Summary 1381
T CELLS AND MHC PROTEINS 1382
T Cell Receptors (TCRs) Are Ig-like Heterodimers 1382
Activated Dendritic Cells Activate Naïve T Cells 1383
T Cells Recognize Foreign Peptides Bound to MHC Proteins 1384
MHC Proteins Are the Most Polymorphic Human Proteins Known 1388
CD4 and CD8 Co-receptors on T Cells Bind to Invariant Parts of MHC Proteins 1389
Developing Thymocytes Undergo Positive and Negative Selection 1389
Cytotoxic T Cells Induce Infected Target Cells to Undergo Apoptosis 1391
Effector Helper T Cells Help Activate Other Cells of the Innate and Adaptive Immune Systems 1392
Naïve Helper T Cells Can Differentiate into Different Types of Effector T Cells 1393
Both T and B Cells Require Multiple Extracellular Signals for Activation 1394
Many Cell-Surface Proteins Belong to the Ig Superfamily 1396
Vaccination Against Pathogens Has Been Immunology's Greatest Contribution to Human Health 1396
Summary 1400
Problems 1402
References 1404

Glossary G:1
Index I:1