

No cell lives in isolation

- survival depends on an elaborate intercellular communication network that coordinates growth, differentiation and metabolism
- cells adjacent to one another frequently communicate through cell-cell contact
- other forms of communication cover larger distances = extracellular signaling molecules

Extracellular Signalling

- signaling molecules are released by **signaling cells**
- the signal is called the **ligand**
- the ligand binds to its specific **receptor** on a **target cell**
- this ligand-receptor interaction induces a conformational or shape-change in the receptor
- produces a specific response - called the cellular response
- can include a vast array of compounds
 - e.g. small amino acid derivatives, small peptides, proteins

Cell-to-cell communication by extracellular signaling usually involves six steps

- (1) synthesis of the signaling molecule by the signaling cell
- (2) release of the signaling molecule by the signaling cell
- (3) transport of the signal to the target cell
- (4) detection of the signal by a specific receptor protein – receptor-ligand specificity
- (5) a change in cellular metabolism, function, or development = **cellular response**
 - triggered by the receptor-ligand complex – specific to the ligand-receptor complex
- (6) removal of the signal, which usually terminates the cellular response – degradation of ligand

Signaling molecules operate over various distances in animals

(a) Endocrine signaling: Hormone secretion into blood by endocrine gland, Blood vessel, Distant target cells.

(b) Paracrine signaling: Secretory cell, Adjacent target cell.

(c) Autocrine signaling: Target sites on same cell.

Key: Extracellular signal, Receptor, Membrane-attached signal.

-extracellular signaling can occur over:

- 1. large distances or endocrine signaling** – signaling molecules are called **hormones**
 - act on target cells distant from their site of synthesis
 - usually carried through the bloodstream
- 2. short distances or paracrine signaling** – affects target cells within proximity to the cell that synthesized the molecule
 - usually mediated by neurotransmitters and some growth factors

Signaling molecules operate over various distances in animals

(c) Autocrine signaling

Key: Extracellular signal, Receptor, Membrane-attached signal.

-extracellular signaling can occur over:

- 3. no distance or autocrine signaling** – the signal feeds-back and affects itself
 - action of many growth factors
 - these compounds generally act on themselves to regulate proliferation
 - seen frequently in tumor cells

-many compounds can act through two or even three types of cell signaling
e.g. growth factors (e.g. EGF) – paracrine and autocrine and endocrine
-epinephrine – endocrine and paracrine

Circulating & Local Hormones

(a) Circulating hormones (endocrines)

(b) Local hormones (paracrines and autocrines)

- o **Circulating hormones**
 - o act on distant targets
 - o travel in blood
 - o endocrine hormones
- o **Local hormones**
 - o paracrine hormones & autocrine hormones

Hormones

- o two types
 - o lipid soluble
 - o water soluble
- o Pages 978-979

Lipid-Soluble Hormones

(a) Intracellular receptors

- lipid-soluble hormones can easily enter a cell by diffusing through the plasma membrane
- PROBLEM:** how do they travel in the water-based blood??
- SOLUTION:** they are carried by carrier-proteins
- these hormones then enter their target cell where they result in a specific cellular effect or response

Action of Lipid-Soluble Hormones

- Free hormone diffuses through phospholipid bilayer & into cell
- Lipid-soluble hormone binds to intracellular receptor
- Activated receptor-hormone complex enters nucleus and binds to DNA, altering gene expression
- Newly formed mRNA directs synthesis of specific proteins on ribosomes
- New proteins alter cell's activity

- o Hormone diffuses through phospholipid bilayer & into cell
- o Binds to receptor **turning on/off specific genes**
- o New mRNA is formed & directs synthesis of new proteins
- o **New protein alters cell's activity**

Lipid-soluble Hormones

Steroids

CC12CCC3C(C1CC2=O)CC(=O)O

Aldosterone

Biogenic amines

CC1=CC=C(C=C1)OC2=CC(=C(C=C2)I)C(=O)O

Triiodothyronine (T₃)

- o **Steroids**
 - o lipids derived from cholesterol in SER
 - o different functional groups attached to core of structure provide uniqueness
 - o interact with specific intracellular receptors (within the cell) to turn specific genes on or off
 - o effective for hours or days
- o **Thyroid hormones**
 - o tyrosine ring plus attached iodines are lipid-soluble
 - o activate enzymes involved in the catabolism of fats and glucose
 - o help set our basal metabolic rate
- o **Retinoids**
 - o vitamin A derivatives
 - o have dramatic effects on cell proliferation and differentiation plus cellular death (i.e. apoptosis)

Water-soluble Hormones

(b) Cell surface receptors

Low concentration of "second messengers" → High concentration of "second messengers"

- water soluble hormones can easily travel within the blood
- PROBLEM:** how do they enter a cell and result in a cellular response??
- SOLUTION:** binding to specific cell-surface receptors; this binding activates the receptor and results in a series of cellular events called the second messenger system

Action of Water-Soluble Hormones

- Can not diffuse through plasma membrane
- Hormone receptors are integral membrane proteins
 - act as first messenger
- Receptor protein activates G-protein in membrane
- G-protein activates adenylyl cyclase to convert ATP to cAMP in the cytosol
- Cyclic AMP is the **2nd messenger**
- Activates kinases in the cytosol to speed up/slow down physiological responses
- Phosphodiesterase inactivates cAMP quickly
- Cell response is turned off unless new hormone molecules arrive

Water-soluble Hormones

Peptides and proteins

- **Amino acid derivatives, small peptides and protein hormones**
 - modified amino acids or amino acids put together
 - serotonin, melatonin, histamine, epinephrine
 - larger peptide hormones
 - insulin and glucagon

Eicosanoids

- prostaglandins

A leukotriene (LTB₄)

- <http://learn.genetics.utah.edu/content/cells/cellcom/>

The Cellular "Internet"

- Within multicellular organisms, cells must communicate with one another to coordinate their activities
- A **signal transduction pathway** is a series of steps by which a signal on a cell's surface is converted into a specific cellular response
- Signal transduction pathways are very **similar in all organisms**, even organisms as different as unicellular yeasts and multicellular mammals

Local (Short-Distance) Signaling

- Cells may communicate by direct contact
 - **Plasmodesmata** in plant cells
 - **Gap junctions** in animal cells
- Animal cells can also use **cell-cell recognition**
 - Membrane-bound surface molecules can interact and communicate

Local (Short-Distance) Signaling

- Messenger molecules can also be secreted by the signaling cell
- **Paracrine signaling:**
 - One cell secretes (releases) molecules that act on nearby "target" cells
 - Example: growth factors
- **Synaptic Signaling:**
 - Nerve cells release chemical messengers (**neurotransmitters**) that stimulate the target cell

Long-Distance Signaling

- Endocrine (hormone) signaling
 - Specialized cells release hormone molecules, which travel (usually by diffusion through cells or through the circulatory system) to target cells elsewhere in the organism

Long-distance signaling

Endocrine cell Blood vessel

Hormone travels in bloodstream to target cells

Target cell

(c) Hormonal signaling

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The Three Stages of Cell Signaling

- There are 3 stages at the "receiving end" of a cellular conversation:
 - Reception
 - Transduction
 - Response

ETRACELLULAR FLUID

Plasma membrane

CYTOPLASM

Reception

Transduction

Response

Signal molecule

Receptor

Relay molecules in a signal transduction pathway

Activation of cellular response

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Stage 1: Reception

- The target cell "detects" that there is a signal molecule coming from outside the cell
 - The signal is detected when it binds to a protein on the cell's surface or inside the cell
 - The signal molecule "searches out" specific receptor proteins
 - The signal molecule is a **ligand**
 - It is a molecule that specifically binds to another one (think enzymes!)

G-protein-linked receptor

Plasma membrane

CYTOPLASM

G protein (inactive)

Enzyme

Activated receptor

Signal molecule

Inactivate enzyme

Activated enzyme

Cellular response

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Three major classes of cell-surface receptors

- G-protein coupled receptors
 - Coupled with G-protein
 - Ligand binding activates the receptor, which activates the G protein, which activates an **effector enzyme** to generate an **intracellular second messenger**
 - e.g. *adenylyl cyclase* – converts ATP to **cAMP**
 - Depending on regulation at the effector enzyme – this pathway can be either activated or inhibited

G-protein-linked receptors

- Very common

G-protein-linked Receptor

Plasma Membrane

CYTOPLASM

G protein (inactive)

Enzyme

Activated Receptor

Signal molecule

Inactivate enzyme

Activated enzyme

Cellular response

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G-protein-linked receptor

Plasma membrane

CYTOPLASM

G protein (inactive)

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Activated receptor

Signal molecule

Inactivate enzyme

Activated enzyme

Cellular response

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3 classes of receptors

- o Ion-channel receptors
 - o Numerous in neuron membranes (Na/K pumps)
 - o Also in muscle cell membranes—binding of ACh to muscle receptors allows ion movement & ultimately contraction of muscle

(b) Ion-channel receptors (acetylcholine)

Labels: Ligand, Ligand binding-site, Receptor protein, Exterior, Cytosol, Ion.

Ion channel receptors

When ligand binds, channel can open or close.

Ex: neurotransmitters bind as ligands for Na⁺ ion channels

Labels: Signal molecule (ligand), Gate closed, Ions, Plasma Membrane, Ligand-gated ion channel receptor, Gate open, Cellular response, Gate close.

Figure 11.7

3 classes of receptors

- o Receptor Tyrosine-kinases
 - o Produce MANY cellular responses (unlike G-receptor)

(c) Tyrosine kinase-linked receptors (erythropoietin, interferons)

Labels: Ligand, Protein-tyrosine kinase (inactive), Substrate protein, Phosphorylated substrate protein, ATP, ADP, P, HO.

Receptor tyrosine kinases

- o Multiple pathway response

Labels: Signal molecule, Signal-binding site, α-helix in the Membrane, Tyrosines, Receptor tyrosine kinase proteins (inactive monomers), Dimer, Activated tyrosine-kinase regions (phosphorylated dimer), Fully activated receptor tyrosine-kinase (phosphorylated dimer), Activated relay proteins, Inactive relay proteins, Cellular response 1, Cellular response 2.

Figure 11.7

*Intracellular Receptors

- o Target protein is INSIDE the cell
- o Must be hydrophobic molecule

Why can the signal molecule meet its target INSIDE the cell?

- 1 The steroid hormone testosterone passes through the plasma membrane.
- 2 Testosterone binds to a receptor protein in the cytoplasm, activating it.
- 3 The hormone-receptor complex enters the nucleus and binds to specific genes.
- 4 The bound protein stimulates the transcription of the gene into mRNA.
- 5 The mRNA is translated into a specific protein.

Labels: Hormone (testosterone), EXTRACELLULAR FLUID, Plasma membrane, Receptor protein, Hormone-receptor complex, NUCLEUS, DNA, mRNA, New protein, CYTOPLASM.

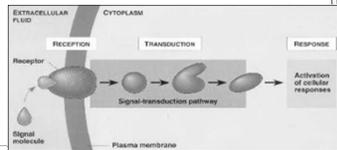
Figure 11.6

Stage 2: Transduction

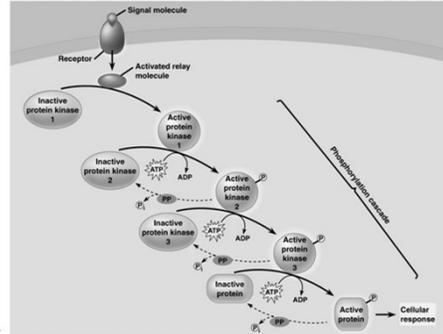
- o This stage converts the signal into a form that can bring about a specific cellular response
 - o One signal-activated receptor activates another protein, which activates another molecule, etc., etc.
 - o These act as **relay molecules**
 - o Often the message is transferred using **protein kinases**, which transfer phosphate groups from ATP molecules to proteins

Step Two - Transduction

- Signal initiated by *conformational change* of receptor protein
- Signal is turned into a *cellular response*.
- Signaling cascades relay signals to target
- Multistep pathways can **amplify a signal**
 - Second messengers** involved



Stage 2: Transduction



A phosphorylation cascade

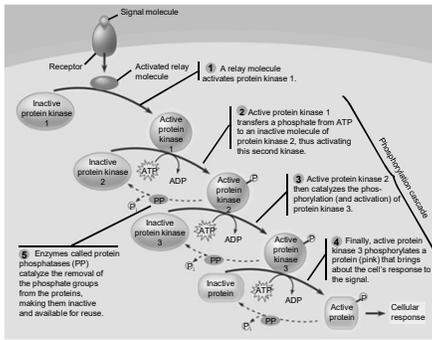
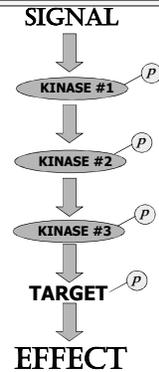


Figure 11.8

Signal transduction cascades

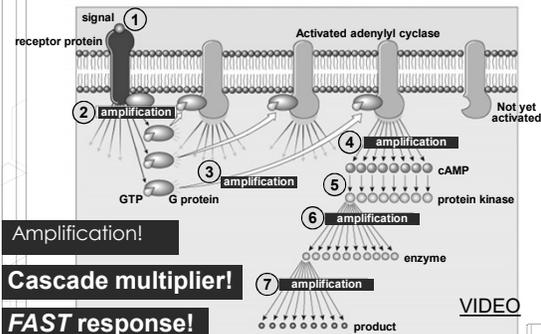
- the successive phosphorylation/activation of multiple kinases results in a cascade of phosphorylation/activation
- this cascade is frequently called a **signal-transduction cascade**
- this cascade eventually leads to a specific cellular response
 - e.g. changes in cell physiology and/or patterns of gene expression
- RTK pathways are involved in regulation of cell proliferation and differentiation, promotion of cell survival, and modulation of cellular metabolism



Second messengers

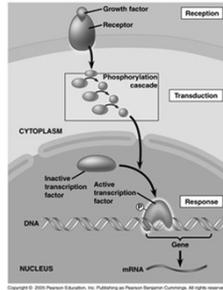
- produced by the activation of GPCRs and RTKs
- Hormone stimulation of G protein-coupled receptors leads to activation of **adenylyl cyclase** and synthesis of the second messenger **cAMP**
 - most commonly studied second messenger
 - cAMP does not function in signal pathways initiated by RTKs
 - cAMP and other second messengers, such as Ca^{++} activate specific protein kinases (cAMP-dependent protein kinases or **PKAs**)
- second messenger systems allow for **amplification** of an extracellular signal
 - one epinephrine molecule can bind one GPCR – this can result in the synthesis of multiple cAMP molecules which can go on to activate an amplified number of PKAs

Benefits of a 2° messenger system



Stage 3: Response

- The signal that was passed through the *signal transduction pathway* triggers a specific cellular response
- Examples: enzyme action, cytoskeleton rearrangement, activation of genes, etc., etc.
- Diagram example: transcription of mRNA

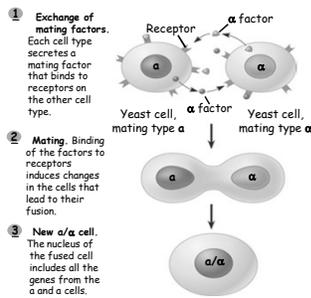


2 Types of Cellular Responses

- Nuclear
 - Regulation/alteration of protein synthesis (turning genes on/off)
- Cytoplasmic
 - Activity of proteins (not their synthesis)
 - Ex. Epinephrine breaking down glycogen into glucose
 - Ex. Yeast mating (see book)

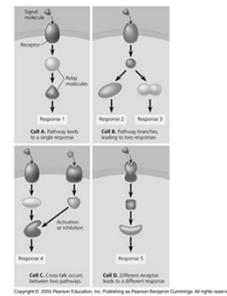
Yeast Sexual Reproduction

Yeast cells identify their mates by cell signaling.



The Specificity of Cell Signaling

- The particular proteins that a cell possesses determine which signal molecules it will respond to and how it will respond to them
- Liver cells and heart cells, for example, do not respond in the same way to epinephrine because they have different collections of proteins



Evolutionary Significance

- Unicellular and multicellular cell communication have similarities
- Yeast cells signal for sexual reproduction through signal transduction process.
- Bacteria secrete molecules to sense density of own population.
 - ◆ Quorum Sensing (survival purpose)

TEDED on Quorum Sensing