

PRINCIPLES OF PHYSIOLOGY

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PRINCIPLES OF

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PREFACE

Principles of Physiology has been carefully designed to present the important features of mammalian physiology clearly and concisely. General principles and underlying mechanisms are emphasized, and nonvital details are minimized. Considerable attention is directed to cell physiology, which serves as the basis for body functions. The first section of the text is devoted to this topic, and a new chapter on the mechanisms of cell signaling has been added to this section. Furthermore, the relevant cell physiology has been included in each of the succeeding sections. We have tried to show that the processes that take place in living cells in general are usually also applicable to the specific cell types in the various organ systems.

The major emphasis in *Principles of Physiology* is on regulation. The mechanisms that regulate the functions of the individual organ systems are thoroughly described. These mechanisms are then applied to the complex interactions among the systems as they maintain the internal environment constant, a process that is so important for the optimal function of the constituent cells.

In this edition, Dr. Norman Staub has rewritten the section on respiratory physiology. At the end of the section on cardiovascular physiology, a chapter has been added on the responses to physical exercise and to hemorrhage. The purpose of this chapter is mainly to illustrate the ways in which the various components of the circulatory system are coordinated to allow the body to adapt to certain substantial stresses.

To contribute to our goal of clarity, multicolored illustrations are used to portray concepts as simply as possible. When sequential mechanisms are involved, multipaneled diagrams have been designed to illustrate each step clearly. Block diagrams are used to depict the interrelationships among the various factors that may affect

a specific function. Finally, figures are included to illustrate some of the concepts that appear in the text and to inform the reader about important investigative techniques.

Because the intent of this text is to offer, clearly and concisely, all information needed to master a complete course in physiology, the use of mathematics has been minimized, and succinct, lucid descriptions have been substituted wherever feasible. Controversial issues have been omitted to allow ample room for the explanation of important, generally accepted physiological mechanisms. We have refrained from citing the sources of the statements or assertions that appear in the text. Throughout the book, we have used italics to emphasize important concepts, and we have used boldface to denote new terms and definitions. We have also emphasized many of the important concepts by citing clinical conditions in which such concepts are involved. These clinical illustrations are highlighted in screened areas throughout the text.

Summaries are provided at the end of each chapter to emphasize the key points in the chapter, and brief bibliographies are included to direct the student to more detailed information. The references listed in these bibliographies are mainly review articles or recent, relevant scientific papers. At the end of the book, we have included a number of multiple-choice review questions and answers. These questions can serve as a guide for the readers to evaluate their comprehension of the material covered in the text.

Robert M. Berne Matthew N. Levy

CONTENTS

PART I **Cell Physiology**

Howard C. Kutchai

Cellular Membranes and Transmembrane Transport of Solutes and Water, 3

Cellular Membranes, 3 Membrane Composition, 4 Membranes as Permeability Barriers, 6 Transport Across, But Not Through, Membranes, 6 Transport of Molecules Through Membranes, 7 Osmosis, 10 Protein-Mediated Membrane Transport, 14 Summary, 18

Ionic Equilibria and Resting Membrane Potentials, 19

Ionic Equilibria, 19 Resting Membrane Potentials, 23 Summary, 26

Generation and Conduction of Action Potentials, 29

Action Potentials in Different Tissues, 29 Membrane Potentials, 29 Ionic Mechanisms of Action Potentials, 30 Properties of Action Potentials, 36 Conduction of Action Potentials, 37 Summary, 41

Synaptic Transmission, 43

Neuromuscular Junctions, 43 Synapses Between Neurons, 47 Neurotransmitters and Neuromodulators, 52 Summary, 56

Membrane Receptors, Second Messengers, and Signal Transduction Pathways, 59

Overview, 59

Protein Kinases and Second Messengers in Signal Transduction Pathways, 59 G-Protein-Mediated Signal Transduction Pathways, 61

Membrane Receptors for Regulatory Molecules, 63

Membrane Phospholipids and Signal Transduction Pathways, 62

GTP-Binding Proteins (G-Proteins), 63 Second Messenger-Dependent Protein Kinases, 66 Protein Tyrosine Kinases, 68 Protein Phosphatases and Their Modulation, 69 Atrial Natriuretic Peptide Receptor and Guanylyl Cyclases, 72 Summary, 72

PART II

Nervous System

William D. Willis, Jr.

Cellular Organization of the Nervous System, 77

General Functions of the Nervous System, 77 Organization of the Nervous System, 78 Composition of the Nervous Tissue, 78 Microscopic Anatomy of the Neuron, 79 Transmission of Information, 80 Reactions to Injury, 85 Environment of the Neuron, 87 Summary, 89

The General Sensory System, 91

Principles of Sensory Physiology, 91 Somatovisceral Sensory System, 96 Summary, 108

Special Senses, 111

Visual System, 111 Auditory System, 118 Vestibular System, 124 Chemical Senses, 128 Summary, 130

The Motor System, 133

Spinal Cord Motor Organization, 133 Organization of Descending Motor Pathways, 146 Brainstem Control of Posture and Movement, 149 Cortical Control of Voluntary Movement, 153 Cerebellar Regulation of Posture and Movement, 156 Regulation of Posture and Movement by the Basal Ganglia, 158

Summary, 158

10 The Autonomic Nervous System and its Control, 161

Organization of the Autonomic Nervous System, 161 Autonomic Functions, 165 Functions of the Hypothalamus, 166 The Limbic System, 167 Summary, 168

11 Higher Functions of the Nervous System, 169

The Electroencephalogram, 169 Evoked Potentials, 169 States of Consciousness, 169 Learning and Memory, 172 Cerebral Dominance, 173 Summary, 174

PART III Muscle

Richard A. Murphy

12 The Molecular Basis of Contraction, 177

The Contractile Unit, 177
The Crossbridge Cycle, 177
The Biological Response: Characterizing
Contraction, 178
Summary, 183

13 Muscles Acting on the Skeleton, 185

Musculoskeletal Relationships, 185 Regulation of Contraction and Relaxation, 188 Function Diversity in Skeletal Muscle, 190 Growth and Adaptation, 193 Summary, 194

14 Muscle in the Walls of Hollow Organs, 197

Muscle Function in Hollow Organs, 197
Control Systems: Inputs to the Sarcolemma and Ca⁺⁺
Mobilization, 201
Ca⁺⁺ and Crossbridge Regulation in Smooth
Muscle, 204
Cardiac Muscle, 208
Summary, 210

PART IV Cardiovascular System

Robert M. Berne Matthew N. Levy

15 Blood and Hemostasis, 213

Blood, 213 Hemostasis, 216 Summary, 218

16 Overview of the Circulation, 219

Summary, 222

17 Electrical Activity of the Heart, 223

Transmembrane Potentials of Cardiac Cells, 223
Ionic Basis of the Membrane Potential, 225
Conduction in Cardiac Fibers, 228
Cardiac Excitability, 229
Natural Excitation of the Heart, 231
Reentry, 238
Electrocardiography, 238
Summary, 239

18 The Cardiac Pump, 243

Anatomical Basis of Cardiac Function, 243 Heart Sounds, 251 Cardiac Cycle, 252 Measurement of Cardiac Output, 255 Summary, 257

19 Regulation of the Heartbeat, 259

Control of Heart Rate, 259 Regulation of Myocardial Performance, 265 Summary, 274

20 Hemodynamics, 277

Velocity of the Bloodstream, 277 Relationship Between Pressure and Flow, 278 Resistance to Flow, 280 Laminar Flow and Turbulent Flow, 283 Rheological Properties of Blood, 284 Summary, 286

21 The Arterial System, 289

Hydraulic Filter, 289 Arterial Compliance, 289 Determinants of the Arterial Blood Pressure, 291 Blood Pressure Measurement in Humans, 298 Summary, 299

22 The Microcirculation and Lymphatics, 301

Functional Anatomy, 301 Transcapillary Exchange, 304 Lymphatics, 310 Summary, 311

Vascular Smooth Muscle, 313

23 The Peripheral Circulation and Its Control, 313

Intrinsic or Local Control of Peripheral Blood Flow, 313 Extrinsic Control of Peripheral Blood Flow, 315 Balance Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in the Regulation of Peripheral Blood Flow, 320 Summary, 321

24 Control of Cardiac Output: Coupling of the Heart and Blood Vessels, 323

Controlling Factors, 323 Vascular Function Curve, 324 Coupling Between the Heart and the Vasculature, 329 Role of Heart Rate, 332 Ancillary Factors, 333 Summary, 336

xi

25 Special Circulations, 339

Cutaneous Circulation, 339 Skeletal Muscle Circulation, 341 Coronary Circulation, 342 Cerebral Circulation, 346 Splanchnic Circulation, 346 Fetal Circulation, 348 Summary, 350

26 Interplay of Central and Peripheral Factors in the Control of the Circulation, 353

Exercise, 353 Hemorrhage, 358 Summary, 365

PART V

Respiratory System

Norman C. Staub

27 An Overview of the Respiratory System, 369

Necessity of Respiration, 369 Blood Gas Transport and Tissue Gas Exchange, 370 Control System, 371 Structure-Function Relationships, 372 The Physiological Lung Unit, 377 Summary, 378

28 Mechanical Aspects of Breathing, 381

Ventilation, 381 The Chest Wall is the Breathing Pump, 382 The Breathing Cycle, 385 How the Lung is Supported in the Thorax, 393 Summary, 393

29 Pulmonary and Bronchial Circulations and the Distribution of Ventilation and Perfusion, 395

Overview, 395
Pressure and Resistance, 395
Pulmonary Blood Flow, 397
Regulation of the Pulmonary Circulation, 401
Bronchial Circulation, 402
Matching Ventilation to Perfusion, 403
Distribution of Ventilation, 404
Distribution of Perfusion, 406
The Effect of V/Q Mismatching, 406
Summary, 408

30 Transport of Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Between Lungs and Cells of the Body, 411

Arterial and Venous Streams, 411 Oxygen Transport, 411 Respiratory Gas Diffusion in the Body, 416 Carbon Dioxide Transport, 418 Summary, 421

31 Control of Breathing, 423

Central Organization of Breathing, 423 Spinal Integration, 427 Chemoreceptor Control of Breathing, 427 Mechanical Control of Breathing, 429 Respiratory Failure, 431 Abnormal Breathing Patterns, 431 Sleep, 431 Acclimatization to Altitude, 432 Summary, 433

PART VI

Gastrointestinal System

Howard C. Kutchai

32 Motility of the Gastrointestinal Tract, 437

Structure of the Gastrointestinal Tract, 437
Innervation of the Gastrointestinal Tract, 438
Gastrointestinal Smooth Muscle, 440
Integration and Control of Gastrointestinal
Motility, 442
Chewing (Mastication), 444
Swallowing, 444
Esophageal Function, 445
Gastric Motility, 447
Vomiting, 450
Motility of the Small Intestine, 452
Motility of the Colon, 455
Summary, 457

33 Gastrointestinal Secretions, 459

Secretion of Saliva, 459
Gastric Secretion, 462
Pancreatic Secretion, 470
Functions of the Liver and Gallbladder, 473
Intestinal Secretions, 478
Summary, 478

34 Digestion and Absorption, 481

Digestion and Absorption of Carbohydrates, 481
Digestion and Absorption of Proteins, 483
Intestinal Absorption of Water and Electrolytes, 485
Absorption of Calcium, 490
Absorption of Iron, 491
Absorption of Other Ions, 492
Absorption of Water-Soluble Vitamins, 493
Digestion and Absorption of Lipids, 494
Summary, 498

PART VII Renal System

Bruce M. Koeppen Bruce A. Stanton

35 Elements of Renal Function, 503

Overview of the Kidneys, 503
Functional Anatomy of the Kidneys, 503
Anatomy and Physiology of the Lower Urinary
Tract, 509
Assessment of Renal Function, 511
Glomerular Filtration, 515
Renal Blood Flow, 517
Summary, 520

36 Solute and Water Transport Along the Nephron: Tubular Function, 523

General Principles of Transepithelial Solute and Water Transport, 523 Proximal Tubule, 524 Henle's Loop, 529 Distal Tubule and Collecting Duct, 530 Regulation of NaCl and Water Reabsorption, 533 Summary, 536

37 Control of Body Fluid Volume and Osmolality, 537

The Body Fluid Compartments, 537 Control of Body Fluid Osmolality: Urine Concentration and Dilution, 539 Control of Extracellular Fluid Volume, 547 Summary, 553

38 Renal Regulation of Potassium, Calcium, Magnesium, and Phosphate Balance, 555

Potassium (K⁺), 555 Multivalent Ions, 562 Summary, 569

39 Role of the Kidney in Acid-Base Balance, 571

The CO₂/HCO₃⁻ Buffer System, 571 Production of Nonvolatile Acid, 572 Renal Acid Excretion, 572 Bicarbonate Reabsorption Along the Nephron, 573 Regulation of Bicarbonate Reabsorption, 575 Formation of New Bicarbonate, 575 Response to Acid-Base Disorders, 578 Simple Acid-Base Disorders, 579 Analysis of Acid-Base Disorders, 580 Summary, 581

PART VIII Endocrine System

Saul M. Genuth

40 General Principles of Endocrine Physiology, 585

Patterns of Hormone Synthesis, Storage, and Secretion, 586 Regulation of Hormone Secretion, 588 Hormone Turnover, 590 Hormone Action, 591 Summary, 596

41 Whole Body Metabolism, 599

Energy Metabolism, 599
Energy Generation, 600
Energy Storage and Transfers, 602
Carbohydrate Metabolism, 604
Protein Metabolism, 605
Fat Metabolism, 606
Metabolic Adaptations, 609
Regulation of Energy Stores, 611
Summary, 611

42 Hormones of the Pancreatic Islets, 613

Insulin, 613 Glucagon, 620 Insulin/Glucagon Ratio, 622 Islet Somatostatin, 623 Summary, 623

43 Endocrine Regulation of the Metabolism of Calcium and Related Minerals, 625

Calcium, Phosphate, and Magnesium Turnover, 625 Bone Turnover, 627 Vitamin D, 629 Parathyroid Gland Function, 632 Calcitonin, 636 Integrated Regulation of Calcium and Phosphate, 637 Summary, 638

44 The Hypothalamus and Pituitary Gland, 641

Anatomy and Embryological Development, 641 Hypothalamic Function, 643 Posterior Pituitary Function, 646 Anterior Pituitary Function, 649 Summary, 657

45 The Thyroid Gland, 659

Functional Anatomy, 659 Synthesis and Secretion of Thyroid Hormones, 659 Regulation of Thyroid Gland Activity, 663 Metabolism of Thyroid Hormones, 665 Actions of Thyroid Hormone, 667 Summary, 670

46 The Adrenal Cortex, 673

Synthesis of Corticosteroid Hormones, 673 Corticosteroid Hormone Metabolism, 675 Regulation of Cortisol Secretion, 676 Actions of Cortisol (Glucocorticoids), 678 Regulation of Aldosterone Secretion, 683 Actions of Aldosterone (Mineralocorticoids), 685 Summary, 686

47 The Adrenal Medulla, 689

Synthesis, Storage, and Secretion of Medullary Hormones, 689 Metabolism of Catecholamine Hormones, 690 Regulation of Adrenal Medullary Secretion, 690 Actions of Catecholamine Hormones, 691 Integration of the Response to Stress, 695 Summary, 695

48 Overview of Reproductive Function, 697

Synthesis of Sex Steroid Hormones, 697 Regulation of Gonadal Steroid Hormone Secretion, 699 Age-Related Changes in Reproduction, 700 Sexual Differentiation, 702 Summary, 706

49 Male Reproduction, 709

Anatomy, 709 The Biology of Spermatogenesis, 709 Delivery of Spermatozoa, 711 Male Puberty, 711 Regulation of Spermatogenesis, 711 Secretion and Metabolism of Androgens, 715 Actions of Androgens, 715 Summary, 717

50 Female Reproduction, 719

Biology of Oogenesis, 719 Development of the Ovarian Follicle, 719 Corpus Luteum Formation, 721 Atresia of Follicles, 721 Hormonal Patterns During the Menstrual Cycle, 721 Hormonal Regulation of Oogenesis, 722 Hormonal Regulation of Reproductive Tract Function, 726 Mechanisms of Action of Ovarian Steroids, 728 Metabolism of Ovarian Steroids, 728 Female Puberty, 728 Menopause, 728 Pregnancy, 729 Maternal-Fetal Metabolism, 733 Parturition, 734 Lactation, 735 Summary, 735

Multiple-Choice Review Questions, 739

CHAPTER

Cellular Membranes and Transmembrane Transport of Solutes and Water

CELLULAR MEMBRANES

Each cell is surrounded by a plasma membrane that separates it from the extracellular milieu. The **plasma membrane** serves as a permeability barrier that allows the cell to maintain a cytoplasmic composition far different from the composition of the extracellular fluid. The plasma membrane contains enzymes, receptors, and antigens that play central roles in the interaction of the cell with other cells and with hormones and other regulatory agents in the extracellular fluid.

The membranes that enclose the various organelles divide the cell into discrete compartments and allow the localization of particular biochemical processes in specific organelles. Many vital cellular processes take place in or on the membranes of the organelles. Striking examples are the processes of electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation, which occur on, within, and across the mitochondrial inner membrane.

Most biological membranes have certain features in common. However, in keeping with the diversity of membrane functions, the composition and structure of the membranes differ from one cell to another and among the membranes of a single cell.

Membrane Structure

Proteins and phospholipids are the most abundant constituents of cellular membranes. A **phospholipid** molecule has a polar head group and two very nonpolar, hydrophobic fatty acyl chains (Figure 1-1, *A*). In an aqueous environment phospholipids tend to form structures that allow the fatty acyl chains to be kept away from contact with water. One such structure is the **lipid bilayer** (Figure 1-1, *B*). Many phospholipids, when dispersed in water, spontaneously form lipid bilayers. Most

of the phospholipid molecules in biological membranes have a lipid bilayer structure.

The phospholipid bilayer is responsible for certain passive permeability properties of biological membranes. Substances that are highly soluble in water typically permeate cellular membranes very slowly, while nonpolar compounds that are more soluble in nonpolar organic solvents cross cell membranes more rapidly. High concentrations of barium salts are administered by mouth or by enema in order to make the interior of the gastrointestinal tract opaque to x-rays and improve the contrast of diagnostic x-ray films of the gastrointestinal tract. Barium ions in this concentration would be highly toxic, but because barium is highly water-soluble, it is barely absorbed at all from the gastrointestinal tract. Hence, the concentrations of barium in the blood rise very little after administration of barium salts.

Figure 1-2 depicts the **fluid mosaic model** of membrane structure. This model is consistent with many of the properties of biological membranes. Note the bilayer structure of most of the membrane phospholipids. The membrane proteins are of two major classes: (1) **integral** or **intrinsic membrane proteins** that are embedded in the phospholipid bilayer and (2) **peripheral** or **extrinsic membrane proteins** that are associated with the surface of the membrane. The peripheral membrane proteins interact with the membrane predominantly by charge interactions with integral membrane proteins. Thus peripheral proteins may often be removed from the membrane by altering the ionic composition of the medium. Integral membrane proteins have important hydrophobic interactions with the interior of the membrane.

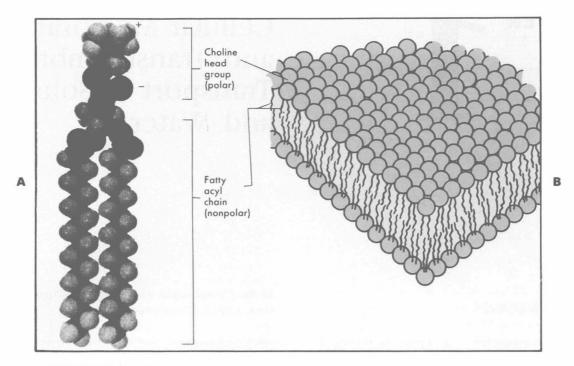


FIGURE 1-1 A, Structure of a membrane phospholipid molecule, in this case a phosphatidylcholine. B, Structure of a phospholipid bilayer. The open circles represent the polar head groups of the phospholipid molecules. The wavy lines represent the fatty acyl chains of the phospholipids.

These hydrophobic interactions can be disrupted only by detergents that make the integral proteins soluble by interacting hydrophobically with nonpolar amino acid side chains.

Cellular membranes are fluid structures in which many of the constituent molecules are free to diffuse in the plane of the membrane. Most lipids and proteins can move freely in the bilayer plane, but they "flip-flop" from one phospholipid monolayer to the other at much slower rates. A large hydrophilic moiety is unlikely to flip-flop if it must be dragged through the nonpolar interior of the lipid bilayer.

In some cases membrane components are not free to diffuse in the plane of the membrane. Examples of this motional constraint are the sequestration of acetylcholine receptors (integral membrane proteins) at the motor endplate of skeletal muscle and the presence of different membrane proteins in the apical and basolateral plasma membranes of epithelial cells. The cytoskeleton appears to tether certain membrane proteins. The anion exchanger, a major protein of the human erythrocyte membrane, is bound to the spectrin network that undergirds the membrane via a protein called ankyrin.

If the motor nerve that innervates a skeletal muscle is accidentally severed, the acetylcholine receptors are no longer sequestered at the motor endplate, but instead they spread out over the entire plasma membrane of the muscle cells. Then the entire surface of the cell becomes excitable by acetylcholine, a phenomenon known as denervation supersensitivity.

MEMBRANE COMPOSITION

Lipid Composition

Major Phospholipids In animal cell membranes the most abundant phospholipids are often the choline-containing phospholipids: the lecithins (phosphatidylcholines) and the sphingomyelins. Next in abundance are frequently the amino phospholipids: phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylethanolamine. *The phospholipid bilayer is primarily responsible for the passive permeability properties of the membrane*. Other important phos-

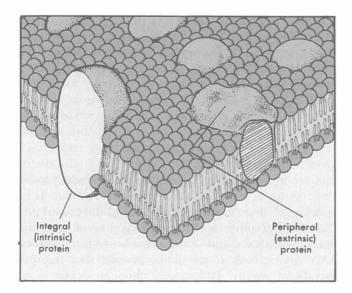


FIGURE 1-2 Schematic representation of the fluid mosaic model of membrane structure. The integral proteins are embedded in the lipid bilayer matrix of the membrane, and the peripheral proteins are associated with the external surfaces of integral membrane proteins.

pholipids present in smaller amounts are phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylinositol, and cardiolipin.

Certain phospholipids present in tiny proportions in the plasma membrane play a vital role in cellular signal transduction processes. **Phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate**, when cleaved by a receptor-activated phospholipase C, releases **inositol trisphosphate** (**IP**₃) and **diacyl glycerol**. **IP**₃ is released into the cytosol, where it acts on receptors in the endoplasmic reticulum to cause release of stored Ca⁺⁺, which affects a wide variety of cellular processes. Diacylglycerol remains in the plasma membrane, where it participates, along with Ca⁺⁺, in activating **protein kinase C**, an important signal transduction protein.

Cholesterol Cholesterol is a major constituent of plasma membranes, and its steroid nucleus lies parallel to the fatty acyl chains of membrane phospholipids. Cholesterol functions as a "fluidity buffer" in the plasma membrane in that its presence tends to keep the fluidity of the acyl chain region of the phospholipid bilayer in an intermediate range in the presence of agents, such as alcohols and general anesthetics, that tend to fluidize biological membranes.

Glycolipids Glycolipids are not abundant, but they have important functions. Glycolipids are found mostly in plasma membranes, where their carbohydrate moieties protrude from the external surface of the membrane. The carbohydrate parts of glycolipids frequently function as receptors or antigens.

The receptor for cholera toxin (Chapter 34) is the carbohydrate moiety of a particular glycolipid, ganglioside ($G_{\rm M1}$). The A and B blood group antigens (Chapter 15) are the carbohydrate moieties of other gangliosides on the human erythrocyte membrane.

Asymmetry of Lipid Distribution In many membranes the lipid components are not distributed uniformly across the bilayer. The glycolipids of the plasma membrane are located almost exclusively in the outer monolayer. Phospholipids are also distributed asymmetrically between the inner and outer monolayers of membranes. In the red blood cell membrane, for example, the outer monolayer contains most of the choline-containing phospholipids, whereas the inner monolayer contains most of the amino phospholipids.

Membrane Proteins The protein composition of membranes may be simple or complex. The functionally specialized membranes of the sarcoplasmic reticulum of skeletal muscle and the disks of the rod outer segment of the retina contain only a few different proteins. By contrast, plasma membranes, which perform many functions, may have more than 100 different protein constituents. Membrane proteins include enzymes, transport proteins, and receptors for hormones and neurotransmitters.

Glycoproteins Some membrane proteins are glycoproteins with covalently bound carbohydrate side chains. As with glycolipids, the carbohydrate chains of glycoproteins are located almost exclusively on the external surfaces of plasma membranes. The carbohydrate moieties of membrane glycoproteins and glycolipids have important functions. The negative surface charge of cells is caused by the negatively charged sialic acid of glycolipids and glycoproteins.

Fibronectin is a large fibrous glycoprotein that helps cells attach, via cell surface glycoproteins called **integrins**, to proteins of the extracellular matrix. This linkage mediates communication between the extracellular matrix and the cell's cytoskeleton during embryonic development.

The major membrane proteins of enveloped viruses are glycoproteins. Their carbohydrate moieties stud the outer surface of the virus with "spikes" that are required for the virus to bind to a host cell.

Asymmetry of Membrane Proteins The Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase of the plasma membrane and the Ca⁺⁺ pump

protein (Ca⁺⁺-ATPase) of the sarcoplasmic reticulum membrane are examples of the asymmetric disposition of membrane proteins. In both cases ATP is split on the cytoplasmic face of the membrane, and some of the energy liberated is used to pump ions in specific directions across the membrane. In the case of the Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase, K⁺ is pumped into the cell and Na⁺ is pumped out, whereas the Ca⁺⁺-ATPase actively pumps Ca⁺⁺ into the sarcoplasmic reticulum.

MEMBRANES AS PERMEABILITY BARRIERS

Biological membranes serve as **permeability barriers.** Most of the molecules present in living systems are highly soluble in water and poorly soluble in nonpolar solvents. Such molecules are poorly soluble in the nonpolar environment in the interior of the lipid bilayer of biological membranes. As a consequence, biological membranes pose a formidable barrier to most water-soluble molecules. *The plasma membrane is a permeability barrier between the cytoplasm and the extracellular fluid.* This barrier allows the maintenance of large concentration differences for many substances between the cytoplasm and the extracellular fluid.

The localization of various cellular processes in certain organelles depends on the barrier properties of cellular membranes. For example, the inner mitochondrial membrane is impermeable to the enzymes and substrates of the tricarboxylic acid cycle, and thus it allows the localization of the tricarboxylic cycle in the mitochondrial matrix. The spatial organization of chemical and physical processes in the cell depends on the barrier functions of cellular membranes, much as the walls of a house separate rooms with different functions.

The passage of important molecules across membranes at controlled rates is central to the life of the cell. Examples are the uptake of nutrient molecules, the discharge of waste products, and the release of secreted molecules. As discussed in the next section, molecules may move from one side of a membrane to another without actually moving through the membrane itself. In other cases molecules cross a particular membrane by passing through or between the molecules that make up the membrane.

TRANSPORT ACROSS, BUT NOT THROUGH, MEMBRANES

Endocytosis

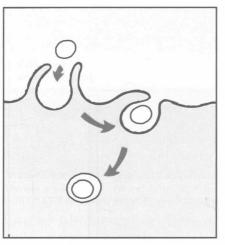
Endocytosis is the process that allows material to enter the cell without passing through the membrane (Fig-

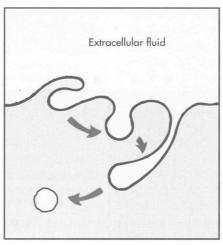
ure 1-3); it includes phagocytosis and pinocytosis. The uptake of particulate material is termed phagocytosis (Figure 1-3, A). The uptake of soluble molecules is called pinocytosis (Figure 1-3, B). Sometimes special regions of the plasma membrane are involved in endocytosis. In these regions the cytoplasmic surface of the plasma membrane is covered with bristles made primarily of a protein called clathrin. These clathrin-covered regions are called coated pits, and their endocytosis gives rise to coated vesicles (Figure 1-3, C). The coated pits are involved in receptor-mediated endocytosis. Proteins to be taken up are recognized and bound by specific membrane receptor proteins in the coated pits. The binding often leads to aggregation of receptorligand complexes, and the aggregation triggers endocytosis. Endocytosis is an active process that requires metabolic energy. Endocytosis also can occur in regions of the plasma membrane that do not contain coated pits.

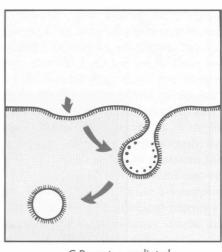
Most cells cannot synthesize cholesterol, which is needed for synthesis of new membranes (see also Chapter 41). Cholesterol is carried in the blood, predominantly in low-density lipoproteins (LDL). Many cells have LDL receptors in their plasma membranes. When LDL binds to these receptors, the receptor-LDL complexes migrate to coated pits, where they aggregate and are taken into the cell by receptor-mediated endocytosis. Individuals who lack LDL receptors have high levels of cholesterol-laden LDL in their blood. Consequently such individuals tend to develop arterial disease (atherosclerosis) at an early age, which makes them more likely to experience heart attacks prematurely.

Exocytosis

Molecules can be ejected from cells by **exocytosis**, a process that resembles endocytosis in reverse. The release of neurotransmitters, which is considered in more detail in Chapter 4, takes place by exocytosis. Exocytosis is responsible for the release of secretory proteins by many cells; the release of pancreatic enzymes from the acinar cells of the pancreas is a well-studied example. The pancreatic enzymes play vital roles in digestion of protein, carbohydrates, and lipids (see Chapter 33). In such cases the proteins to be secreted are stored in secretory vesicles in the cytoplasm. A stimulus to secrete causes the secretory vesicles to fuse with the plasma membrane and to release the vesicle contents by exocytosis.







A Phagocytosis

B Pinocytosis

C Receptor-mediated endocytosis

FIGURE 1-3 Schematic depiction of endocytotic processes. **A**, Phagocytosis of a solid particle. **B**, Pinocytosis of extracellular fluid. **C**, Receptor-mediated endocytosis by coated pits.

Fusion of Membrane Vesicles

The contents of one type of organelle can be transferred to another organelle by fusion of the membranes of the organelles. In some cells, secretory products are transferred from the endoplasmic reticulum to the Golgi apparatus by fusion of endoplasmic reticulum vesicles with membranous sacs of the Golgi apparatus. Fusion of phagocytic vesicles with lysosomes allows the phagocytosed material to be digested by proteolytic enzymes in the lysosomes. The turnover of many normal cellular constituents involves their destruction in lysosomes, followed by their resynthesis.

Influenza viruses have membrane proteins that undergo a dramatic conformational change to insert a "fusion peptide" into the host cell. The fusion peptide promotes the fusion of the viral membrane with the plasma membrane of the host cell, allowing entry of the viral genome into the host cell.

TRANSPORT OF MOLECULES THROUGH MEMBRANES

The traffic of molecules through biological membranes is vital for most cellular processes. Some molecules move through biological membranes simply by diffusing among the molecules that make up the membrane, whereas the passage of other molecules involves

the mediation of specific transport proteins in the membrane.

Oxygen, for example, is a small molecule that is fairly soluble in nonpolar solvents. It crosses biological membranes by diffusing among membrane lipid molecules. Glucose, on the other hand, is a much larger molecule that is not very soluble in the membrane lipids. Glucose enters cells via specific glucose transport proteins in the plasma membrane.

Diffusion

Diffusion is the process whereby atoms or molecules intermingle because of their random thermal motion, also called Brownian motion. Imagine a container divided into two compartments by a removable partition (Figure 1-4). A much larger number of molecules of a compound is placed on side A than on side B, and then the partition is removed. Every molecule is in random thermal motion. It is equally probable that a molecule that begins on side A will move to side B in a given time and that a molecule beginning on side B will end up on side A. Because many more molecules are present on side A, the total number of molecules moving from side A to side B will be greater than the number moving from side B to side A. In this way the number of molecules on side A will decrease, whereas the number of molecules on side B will increase. This process of net diffusion of molecules will continue until the concentration of molecules on side A equals that on side B. Thereafter the rate of diffusion of molecules from A to B will equal that from B to A, and