STRUCTURE and ULTRASTRUCTURE of MICROORGANISMS

E. M. BRIEGER

Structure and Ultrastructure of Microorganisms

AN INTRODUCTION TO A
COMPARATIVE SUBSTRUCTURAL
ANATOMY OF CELLULAR ORGANIZATION

by

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Acknowledgments

πάυτ ρει-all is flux—(Heraclitus). Since I first started on this book a flood of publications on the subject has filled the pages of the leading journals, and there seems to be little hope of keeping pace with the ever-increasing volume of new material.

However, this book is not an encyclopedia of work in this field. Only those works which determine the direction of flow are quoted. At one stage complete reconstruction became necessary due to rapid developments in the application of the electron microscope to the study of submicroscopical organization. My thanks are due to the publishers for their patience and co-operation; to Mrs J. Brimley for her expert secretarial help in preparing the manuscrips; to Miss J. M. Allen B.Sc., to whom I am most grateful for help in the reorganization of the book, and to Dr Ewen, the Chief Medical Officer of the East Anglian Hospital Board, and members of his Board, for their continued support of my researches on the structure of bacteria. I would like to acknowledge the technical assistance given by Mrs Crawford and Miss Wettsteni and the help I received from my colleagues at the Strangeways and Cavendish laboratories, and thank all those who read through the sections referring to their own work: Dr J. R. G. Bradfield, Dr D. H. Northcote, Dr M. A. Rudzinska, Miss A. M. Glauert and Dr D. A. Hopwood. My thanks are also due to those who responded so willingly to my request for their original photographs which has made it possible for every illustration to be made from an original print.

Introduction

Progress in the biological branches of science when plotted against time is not represented by a straight and continuous line. The history of science produces ample evidence of the fact that there are sudden rises of the curves, followed by plateaux when no major discoveries are made for some time. The peaks coincide with discoveries made in other branches of science which have provided the biologist with new tools of observation. A good example of this phenomenon is the changing concept of the cell and its structural organization.

Galileo built his first microscope in the early years of the 17th century. In 1664 Robert Hooke produced his beautifully illustrated "Micrographia", including a chapter headed "Schematism and Texture of Plants"; in 1675 Malpighi published his "Anatome Plantarum", preceded by similar studies of the texture of animal tissues ("De Pulmonibus", 1661, and "De Viscerum Structura, 1666"). Nehemias Grew, in 1682, suggested to the Royal Society that a new branch of science should be created which should be called the "Anatomy of Plants".

The next phase began when Euler, who in 1796 published his treatise on dioptrics, gave the biologist a much improved tool of research which led to the construction of the modern compound microscope. In Robert Hooke's atlas the ultimate structural units of the plant tissues were described as "cellulae": compartments serving as containers of the life-maintaining juices. He estimated that one cubic inch of cork contained 1200 million cells. Schwann and Schleiden about 200 years later showed with the help of their new microscope that the cell was "the ultimate unit of structure and function in all live organisms—the primary agent of plant and animal tissues".

At the time that the "Cell Theory" was taking shape the new research tool was applied to the study of "Infusoria" (Ehrenberg, 1839) and Bacteria (Ferdinand Cohn, 1850). Ehrenberg produced his illustrated atlas of the microscopical structure of Protozoa, which is a classic. Ferdinand Cohn presented his first studies on Bacteria using, as he mentioned in his autobiography, one of the first commercial types of microscope manufactured in Vienna, and the only one of its kind used in German universities: an instrument as big as our present electron microscope and very tiresome to operate.

The invention and development of the electron microscope in the twentieth century created a situation which was very similar to that when the microscope was first introduced; the biologist was given a new optical tool of research extending the range of observable structures far beyond the limits imposed by the physics of optics. It is outside the province of this work to discuss the structure or principle of operation of the electron microscope. Leading textbooks should be consulted, cf. V. E. Cosslett's "Electron Microscopy", 1951). Nor is it the purpose of the electron microscope to microbiological problems. Sufficient to say that while the invention of the microscope initiated a new branch of science—the Anatomy of Plants—we have today seen a whole conference devoted to Bacterial Anatomy, and microbiologists are becoming more and more interested in the submicroscopical organization of the bacterial cell.

This new line of research is often said to be concerned with ultrastructure or, better, substructure, i.e. structure observable on the submicroscopical level.

The term ultrastructure is somewhat misleading since beyond the ultrastructure is still another structure that is not seen with the eye; as Hippocrates said 2500 years ago, what cannot be seen with the naked eye can be seen with "the eyes of the mind"—meaning the use of indirect methods of observation. Beyond the observable microstructure and ultrastructure is the large field of the molecular structure of the biochemists and biophysicists. In the past, when the microscope was the only tool for observation, there was a wide gap between the two. One of the leading workers in this field recently said: "During the past six years molecular biology has changed from a subject of speculation and uncertainty to an exact science. . . . If the rapid development of molecular biology continues, gaps may gradually be filled and more and more of the fundamental workings of living systems may become understood in terms of the interaction between molecules and known structure." (Perutz, 1958).

The electron microscope has helped to bridge this gap. In fact, a border science is now developing where biochemists and physicists join the biologist, using the electron microscope as a tool for the exploration of this border territory between the observable and the non-observable structure.

But it is not only the morphological field in which the electron microscope today is leading research; we also speak of "biochemical anatomy" with the idea of establishing the "relationship between morphological units underlying biochemical machinery" (Pomerat, 1957). Dubos (1957) called for "more ingenuity and new techniques to recognise within the

live cell biochemical functions localised by certain sites". Stuart Mudd at the same time complained that "many biochemists do not believe in anatomy and many morphologists have no background of biochemistry to pursue profitably the question of biochemical functions in relationship to the sub-cellular structure". These warning words call to mind a similar situation of about one hundred years ago when Claude Bernard drew attention to the inseparable relationship between structure of organs and their function. He held up a peculiarly shaped pair of scissors and pointed out to his audience of students that they could never understand its "forme particulaire" without being told that this pair of scissors was constructed for the special purpose of opening up an access to the pituitary gland. Anatomists have succeeded in demonstrating the adaptation of structure and function as far as the mechanics of the skeleton are concerned: but it is quite a different matter to demonstrate the correlation of substructure and function in the organelles of the cell. However, whether practicable or not it must be the aim of the biologist and electron microscopist to establish this relationship whenever biochemical or enzymatic operations are "structure-bound".

Pantin (1951) and in his address to the International Conference of Zoology, London 1959, underlined the fact that in the living world different species solve the same functional problems in different ways: "the structure of the machinery by which these functions are brought about differs and different structural solutions of the same basic functional problems are sought and tried out." The time has not yet come to present a comprehensive study of a comparative functional anatomy of subcellular organization; this book may serve as an introduction to such a study.

There is a tendency today among microbiologists to show that microorganisms "are as complete organisms as the cells of higher species" (Mudd, 1952). The electron microscope is used to search for bacterial nuclei, chromosomes, mitochondria, microsomes—i.e. for replicas of the organelles which are normal constituents of the "cell". However, in assessing the results of this search we shall see that there is hardly one organelle in the bacterial cell which is a structural replica of a similar functional unit in the cell of higher organisms or that of algae and protozoa. Bacteria are no longer just the smallest living organisms ("die kleinsten Lebewesen", F. Cohn); they are not miniature cells. They are, with regard to sub-structure, nearer to the viruses than to the "cells".

The aim of molecular biology in both viruses and bacteria is the resolution of structure at the molecular level. With existing techniques only the viruses show evidence of sub-unit organization which agree in some detail with results obtained by chemical and physical methods, as explained in the appendix on "Viral Macromolecular Structure", by

Horne and Waterson. The same technique should be applied (and is being applied) to similar problems in bacteria, i.e. the nucleoprotein "granule" (ribosomes) and more recently to bacterial flagella.

The electron microscope already shows the truth of the concepts developed by Aristotle in his "Metaphysics", and expressed by the Renaissance philosophers as "Physis est forma"; each biological structure has its substructure and each substructure has its sub-substructure, and so on, until matter has been replaced by form.

Frey-Wyssling, who was one of the first to become interested in sub-microscopical structure, in paraphrasing the old saying of Virchow "Omnis cellula e cellula" or Fleming's "Omnis nucleus e nucleo", found an adequate expression to characterize the new situation created by the introduction of the electron microscope: "Omnis structura e structura."

CONTENTS

Int	roduction				xii
1.	Ultrastructure of the Cell				1
	I. Reconstruction of Classical Concepts				,
	II. Survey Map of the Cell	:	•	•	2
	SECTION I: THE NUCLEUS				
2.	The Nuclear Envelope				
<i>.</i>	•	•	•	•	1 1
	I. Introduction	•	•	•	11
	II. Microdissection of the Nucleus	•	•		11
	III. Electron Micrographs of Whole Mounts	•	•		12
	IV. Electron Micrographs of Thin Sections				15
	V. Relation to Endoplasmic Reticulum	•			19
	VI. The Nuclear Envelope in Single Cell Organisms .			•	20
	A. The Nuclear Envelope in Protozoa	• .			20
	B. The Nuclear Envelope in Green Algae and Fungi				20
	VII. The Dissolution and Reformation of the Nuclear En	velor	e dur	ing	
	Cytokinesis				22
	VIII. The Absence of a Nuclear Envelope in Bacteria .			·	23
	•		•	•	-3
3.	Chromatin and Chromosomes				25
	I. Chromatin in Non-dividing Tissue Cells				
	II Ourse in a Character in Assistant Division College	•	•	•	25
	III. Electron Microscopy of the Mitotic Cycle A. Firstian Problems		•	•	25
	A. Fixation Problems	٠	•	•	26
	A. Fixation Problems. B. The Organization of Chromatin in Interphase.	٠	•	•	26
			•	•	29
	C. Chromosomes in Metaphase	•	•	•	31
	D. Chromosomes in Anaphase IV. Submicroscopical Organization of Prophase Chromosom	•	•	• .	32
	IV. Submicroscopical Organization of Prophase Chromoson Division	nes ii	n Meio	otic	
	A. Substructure of Chromosomes in the Pachytene St.	· ·	e Mai		32
	Prophase .	rRc o	i wier	otic	
	B. Ordered Structure of Chromosomes in Meiotic Prop	1	•	•	32
	V. The Organization of the DNA in Chromosomes .	nase	•	•	35
	A The Anatomy of the Observation of the Observation	• .	•	•	36
	A. The Anatomy of the Chromosome	• 1	•	•	_38
	B. The Life-History of the Chromosome	•	•		40
	C. Genetics and Fine Structure VI. The A-Chromatic Apparatus	•			45
		٠			46
	A. The Fine Structure of the Spindle				46
	B. The Life-History of the Spindle Fibre				47
_					
4.	The Structure of the Macronucleus of Protozoa	l . '	•	•	49
	I. The Fine Structure of the Macronucleus				49
	A. The Macronucleus in Spirostomum.	•		•.	
	B. The Macronucleus in Stentor .	:	•	•.	49
	C. The Macronucleus of Tokophrya	•	•	•	49
	D. Chromosomes and Reorganization Band in Euplotes	has-11 .		• ,	50
	II. The Fine Structure of the Nucleus in Amoeba and in Di	ruieila 		• "	55
	A. The Feulgen-Positive Structures in Amoeba proteus		genate	S .	58
	D C1 D. C 11	•	•	•	58
	TIT C	•	. •	•	59
	III. Summary		_		6,

5.	The	Fine Structure of ophyceae and Fu	the	Nuc	ieus	ìn	Gre	en .	Algae	,		6.
	•	· ·	iiyi .	·	٠ _	٠	•	•	•	•	•	65
	I.	Nuclear Organization	ı ın sor	ne Pr	ytona	gella	tes	•	•	٠	•	6
	II.		ation i	n the	Blue-	Gree	n Alg	ae		•	•	68
	III.	The Fungal Nucleus A. A Cytological Stu-			٠.	•	•	•	•	•	•	79
		A. A Cytological Stu	dy of I	Muco	rales			•	•	•		79
		B. The Nucleus in th	e Cocci	droide:	ımmı	tes a	nd N	eurosp	ora.			70
		C. Organization of the	ie Nuc	leus i	n Yea	st	•	٠	•	•	•	71
6.	The	Problem's of the	Racte	arial	Nuc	امرا	2					-
Ÿ.								•	•	•	•	75
	I.	The Historical Aspect		٠.	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	75
	II.	Structure in the Livin	g Orga	anısm	١.	•	•	•	•	•	•	76
		The Historical Aspect Structure in the Livin A. Light Microscopy B. Phase Microscopy	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	76
		B. Phase Microscopy	•	٠ ۾	٠,	٠, ,			,	٠.	•	76
		C. Single Cell Obse		ns K	ecorde	ed b	y Hi	gh	Phase	Con	trast	
	***	Microscopy . Feulgen's "Nucleal R	•	٠,,	•	•		•	•	•	•	76
	III.	reuigen's "Nucleal K	eaction	n.''	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	77
		A. The Staining Tecl	nnique	S	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	77
		B. Hydrolysis .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	81
		C. Ribonuclease	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	81
	** 7	D. Differential Staini	ng	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	82
	IV.	The "Chromatinic Bo	odies.,		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	83
		B. Hydrolysis C. Ribonuclease D. Differential Staini The "Chromatinic Bo A. Their Configuration B. Division of the Ch	on		• • •	•	•	•	•	•	•	83
		B. Division of the Ch	romati	nic B	odies	•	٠	•	•	•	•	85
		C. Cores of Chrom	aun B	oaies					•	•		85
		D. Chromosomes E. The Mitotic Cycle	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	86
		E. The Mitotic Cycle F. Isolation of Bacter		٠	•	•			•	•	•	86
		F. Isolation of Bacter	iai Nu	cleı	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	88
		G. Assessment .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	88
							,					
7.	Tech	niques Applied to	the	Sp	ecial	Pro	oblei	ms	Studi	ed	hv	
	Electi	on Microscopy o	f Wh	ole	(Uns	sect	ione	d)	Bacte	ria	~,	91
	I.				(•			-,			•	_
		Introduction .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	91
	II. III.	Support Films .	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	91
		Inoculation .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	92
		Fixation	·	٠	•	٠.			٠.	_:	•	92
	V.		Same	Org	anısm	ın	the 1	Light	and	Elec	tron	
	X 7 F	Microscope . Preparation Technique	·			·			•	· ·		92
	V1.	reparation Technique	ies for	Stuc	iying	Grov	vin C	inang	ges by	Liec	tron	
		Microscopy .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	93
				,								
8.	Atten	npts to Demonstr	ata t	ha [Racto	rial	Nin	برماء	e in			
O.	Flacti	on Micrographs	of Hr	100	tione	d E	liaes	Cieu Ii	3 111			
	LIGCLI	on wiclographis	01 01	1366	LIUITE	u L	oacii	"	•	٠	•	95
	I.								•			95
	II.	The Nucleoids or Nuc	lei of l	Bacte	ria			•				95
^	C4	turn of the DAID	C	.:	CL	_4	4.					
9.	Struc	ture of the DNP-	-	_				•	•	•	•	97
	I.	The Technique of Pr	eparin	g Th	in Sec	tions	of B	acte	ia for	Elec	tron	
		Microscopy .	• 1									97
	II.	The Nuclear Apparate	us .			•						97
		The Nuclear Vacuole									-	21

10.	Stand Demo	ardization of the Preparation Technique for instration of the Nuclear Material in Bacter	r th			103
	I.	The First Attempts to Improve Preparation Techniques	•			103
	II.	The Ryter and Kellenberger Technique	•			104
	III.	Comments on the Ryter and Kellenberger Technique	•	•		107
						107
		A. Fixation B. Temperature C. Stabilizing Agents				109
		C. Stabilizing Agents .				109
		D. Embedding				109
		E. Microtome for Ultrathin Sectioning				110
		D. Embedding			•	110
11.	The S	Standard Image of the Nuclear Organelle	of B	acte	ria	111
	I.	The Nuclear Organelle in Gram-negative Organisms				111
	II.					111
	III.					116
		A. Previous Studies				116
		B. Application of Standard Technique to Bacillus subtilis	•			117
	TV	The Nuclear Element in Carvobhanan latum		·	·	125
	1V.	The Nuclear Element in Caryophanon latum The Nuclear Organelle of Mycobacteria	•	·		131
	٧.	A The Standard Growth Type in Tubercle Bacilli		•	·	131
		B. The Mycelial Growth Type in Avian Tubercle Bacil	Ii			135
12.	Bacte "Stre	rial Genetics and the Nuclear Organization ptomyces coelicolor"	n in		•	143
13.	Variat	tions of the "Standard Image"		•		151
	I.	The Nuclear Region in Spirillum serpens				151
	11.		cteriun	n lepra	e.	153
		A. The Human Leprosy Bacillus			•	153
		B. M. lebraemurium				158
	III.	The Nuclear Element in an "Unidentified Bacterium"				158
	IV.		use	•	•	159
14.	Exper Subs	imentally Produced Changes in the DNA-	Carr	ying		161
	_					0-
		The Effect of Ultra-Violet on the Nuclear Organelle		•	•	161
	II.		•	•	•	161
	III.		•	•	•	164
	IV.	Summing Up	•	. •	٠	165
15.	Omni	s Nucleus e Nucleo?	•	•	•	167
16.	Integ	ration			•	177
	I.	Have Bacteria a Nucleus?				177
	ıî.	Have Bacteria Chromosomes?		•	•	178
	III.	The DNA Pool in Phage-Infected Bacteria	•	•	•	181
	IV.	Have Bacteria a Reproductive Organelle?	•	•	•	182
	IV.	mave paciena a reproductive Organicie:	•	•	•	102

SECTION II: ENZYME CARRYING STRUCTURES

17.	Mitoc	hondria									187
	I.	Mitochondrial Function	m.								187
	II.	Structural Organization	•	chand	ria	•	•	•	•	•	188
		A. The Membrane	ar or ware	CALORAG		•	•	N. •	•	•	188
		B. Cristae Mitochondrial		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
		~ ~		•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	191
				•	•	•	•	•		• .	193
	***	D. The Mitochondrial					•	•	٠.	•	194
	III.	The Sites of Enzyme A			hond	rıa	•	•	•	•	194
	IV.		in Structu	re	•	•	•	•	•	•	197
	V.	Omne Mitochondrion	e Mitocho	ndrio		•	•	•	•	•	199
18.	Piasti	ds and Preplastid	s								മറമ
		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	203
	I.	The Fine Structure of	-	sts	•	•		•		•	203
	11.	Preplastids	•	•		•			. •		206
19.	Hava	Bacteria Mitochor	d-land								
19.				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	209
	I.	Cytochemical Evidence	e of the Si	tes of	Resp	iratory	Enz	yme /	Activi	у.	209
		A. Is there any Struct									_
		Micrographs?				•			•		210
		B. Intra-cytoplasmic I	Membrane	Syste	m						210
		• •		•							
20.	ldont	fication of the Mi	02000	.) C-	41	!-	· T:.				
20.					acu	on ir	1 118	ssue			
	Homo	genates	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	217
	I.	The Microsomal Fracti	ion in Hon	nogen	ates o	f Live	r .	_	_		217
	II.			_		2 231 (0.	•	•	•	•	217
	III.		n and Ras	onhili		•	•	•	•	•	220
	IV.	The Palade Granules .		opinii		•	•	•	. •	•	
	v.		Palada Ca	anıılar	•	•	•	•	•	٠	220 221
	*•	The specificity of the	i alauc Gi	andres	•	•	•	•	•	•	221
			_			_					
21.	ident	fication of Granula	ar Comp	one	nts (of Sı	imdı	cros	copi	cal	
	Size	in the Bacterial C	ytoplasr	n					•		225
		The Granular Textur			:-1 (٠:	
	1.	Electron Micrographs	of This C	Dattier	ıaı (yy topia	13111 S		vealed	ın	
	17	Testation of Contestance	or rum se	ction	•		•	•	•	•	225
	II.	Isolation of Cytoplasm			acter	1a	•	•	•	•	226
	III.		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	228
	17.	Have Bacteria "Respir	osomes":	• .	•		•	•	•	•	229
		The Problem of the "I	.arge" Gr	anules	• ′	•	•	• '			230
	VI.		nes Struct	ure-Bo	ound i	?.	•	• '			231
	VII.	The Cytoplasmic Mer	nbrane as	Carri	er of	the I	Respir	atory	Enzy	me	
		System			•						232
											_
00	The	lataniatan atau 1990	- ^ -	1	4 4						
22.		dentification of th	e Gran	ular	ınci	usior	is o	Ī			
	Micro	scopical Size .	•		•	•					235
	I.	-									
		The Metachromatic G		•	•		•	•	•	•	235
		The 'Granules' of the			•	•	•	•	•	•	235
						•	•	•	•	•	238
		Sulphur Granules	•	•	•	•	•	• .	•	•	239
	₩.	Fatty Inclusions	• •	•		•	•	•		•	240

SECTION III: THE CELL ENVELOPES

23.	The Plasma Membrane or Plasmalemma of Cells Higher Organisms	s of		243
	I. Theories of its Architecture		•	243
	III. Plasma Membrane in Thin Sections			244 244
24.	The Cytoplasmic Membrane in Bacteria			247
	I. Cytological Evidence			247
	II. The Cytoplasmic Membrane in the Electron Microscope III. The Cytoplasmic Membrane of Protoplasts		•	248 250
25.	Fine Architecture of the Cell Wall		•	253
	I. The Structure of the Plant Cell Wall			253
	II. The Primary Cell Wall in Growing Cells		•	254
26.	The Macromolecular Organization of the Cell W in Algae and Fungi	all 		259
27.	Bacterial Cell Wall			263
	I. Chemical Constituents			263
	II. The Macromolecular Pattern III. The Bacterial Cell Wall in Thin Sections IV. The Morphogenesis of the Bacterial Cell Wall			265
	III. The Bacterial Cell Wall in Thin Sections		•	266
	IV. The Morphogenesis of the Bacterial Cell Wall		•	268
	 A. Protoplasts: their Inability to Regenerate Cell Walls B. The Formation of the Cell Envelopes of the Endospor 		•	268
	V. Capsule Formation	е.	•	268
	VI. The Cell Envelope of Blue-Green Algae	•		272 274
28.	Electron Microscopy of Cell Division			275
	I. Bud Formation in Yeast		•	277
29.	The Mechanism of Cell Division in Bacteria			279
	I. Electron Microscopy of Whole Mounts			279
				28o
	A. The Cytoplasmic Membrane Septum			280
	B. Peripheral Bodies			284
	C. Cell Division in Mycobacteria		•	285
	D. Time Sequence of Division Processes		•	286
30.	A Comparative Study of the Structural Organizat of Flagella	ion		289
	I. Flagella of Protozoa	•	•	
	II Florelle of Postario	•	•	289
	III. The Trichocysts of Protozoa		•	292 295
Dof	erences	•	•	
		•	•	299
App	endix: The Structure of Viruses	•	•	313
Sub	ject Index			222

CHAPTER I

Ultrastructure of the Cell

I. RECONSTRUCTION OF CLASSICAL CONCEPTS

The introduction of electron microscopy as a method of research in biology has given birth to a new branch of cytology, often referred to as submicroscopical anatomy of the cell.

Anatomy is the "Science of Organization", i.e. of structural organization; the functional organization of the living body has to be destroyed, and its machinery dismantled so that each component part or structure can be studied separately.

In studying the submicroscopical anatomy of the cell in ultrathin sections of tissues or of single-cell organisms a similar dismembering technique has to be applied. The cell is also dissected: cut into thin slices of the order of 0.05 μ from which a three-dimensional model may be reconstructed.

It has been said "that basically the problems of tissue fine structure involve the identification and description of the microscopically visible structures within the cell" (Dempsey, 1956). The same structures are studied with two different methods of observation. Description of the structures seen in the electron micrographs of thin sections of the cell is only a preliminary to the more intricate and serious problem of identification.

In describing structures discovered by the use of a new optical tool for observation, pioneers in the field prefer to introduce their findings by names or terms of their own making—where this seems necessary—developing a language which the reader of electron micrographs can understand. Some concepts of classical cytology no longer fit the new findings. Therefore traditional names have been replaced by new descriptive terms, establishing in this way the identity of the newly discovered structures. Although, for example, the ergastoplasm of the cytologists and the endoplasmic reticulum of the electron microscopists refer in general terms to the same structure, the findings of the electron microscopists have led to a completely new concept and it is quite legitimate to introduce a new term for it. In a similar way the microsomes of the

cytologists supposed to be granular bodies at the limit of the resolution of the light microscope have lost their identity and here again new concepts replace old ones.

Anatomy is a descriptive science. It has been suggested for the sake of description of the structural organization of the cell to distinguish between "particulate bodies" and the "matrix" in which they are embedded. The cytoplasm of the cytologist becomes the "ground substance" of the electron microscopist.

"What is left over after removal of all particulate bodies from the cytoplasm is a homogeneous mass as seen in the electron microscope which we call the groundplasma. This matrix consists of a macromolecular mixture, and, in the manner in which its constituents are chemically and morphologically identified as definite macromolecular fractions, the 'groundplasm' will gradually wane into nothing unless it can be proved that it is characterized by an a-microscopical structure which then would have to be cleared up by indirect methods. As a result of this discussion we find that the term cytoplasm is defined by its negative property of comprising that fraction of the living substance that escapes our morphological analysis"! (Frey-Wyssling, 1957, p. 71).

The distinction between a groundplasma which shows no structure in the electron microscope and particulate bodies embedded in it, should be regarded only as a proposition. We shall follow this recipe in describing the submicroscopical anatomy of the cell at various levels of organization.

II. SURVEY MAP OF THE CELL

- a. In the metazoan cell, the structure of which will serve as a prototype of the subcellular organization, the main particulate bodies or structures as revealed in thin sections in the electron microscope are shown in Fig. 1. They are:
 - (i) the nucleus bounded by the nuclear envelope;
 - (ii) the nucleolus;
 - (iii) the mitochondria;
 - (iv) a structural pattern of vesicles and lamellae known as the endoplasmic reticulum with granules attached to it known as the Palade granules;
 - (v) the Golgi apparatus; and
 - (vi) various types of inclusions or products of cytoplasmic differentiation.

These particulate bodies are easily identifiable by reference to the microscopical findings; they are embedded in the cytoplasm which at its surface is bounded by a structure which appears in the electron micro-

graphs of thin sections as a membrane—the plasma membrane of the cytologist.

b. The protozoan cell shows a structural organization which can be recognized as a special form of the basic design, although, as each in-



Fig. 1. Survey picture of cell of pituitary gland of the rat. For description see text. × 22,500. By courtesy of Mrs. B. Barnes, Cavendish Laboratory.

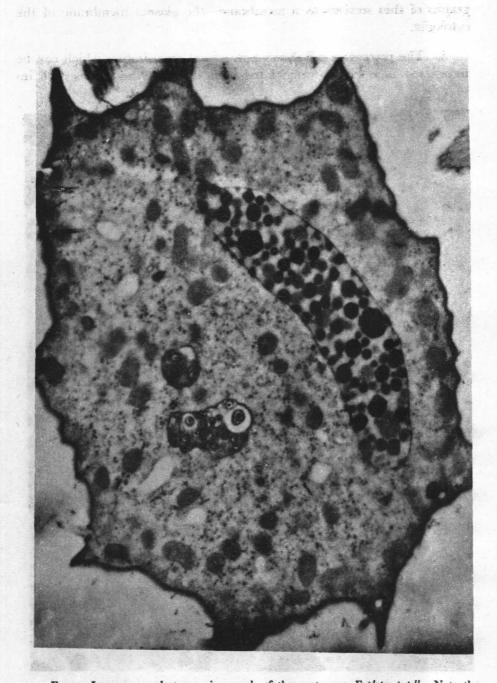


Fig. 2. Low power electron micrograph of the protozoon *Euplotes patella*. Note the large macronucleus with the nucleolar inclusions, and the granular structure of the cytoplasm. \times 5,000. From Roth (1957).