

Νευροφυσιολογία και Αισθήσεις

Διάλεξεις 1&2

Φυσιολογία του Κυττάρου – Νευρώνες και Γλοιακά Κύτταρα

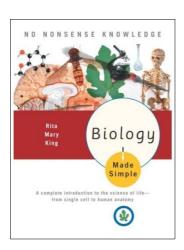
(Cell Physiology - Neuron and Glia)



Oh No!



What if I never had biology before?



- Online Courses
 - · Carnegie Mellon
 - http://www.cmu.edu/oli/courses/enter-biology.ht
 ml
 - Palomar College
 - http://waynesword.palomar.edu/bio100.htm

- Paperback: 208 pages
- Publisher: Made Simple Books (Aug 2003)
- Language English
- ISBN-10: 0767915429
- Price: 6 UKP form amazon.co.uk!



Lecture Objectives



Review of cell physiology

- · Overview of cell structure
- Major organelles
- Energy production
- Membrane structure and cell-to cell adhesions
- Endocytosis, phagocytosis
- Tissue/organ/system organization
- Homeostasis

(see notes for more details)

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Physiology

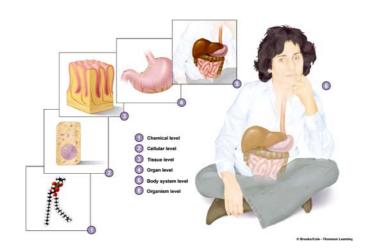


What is physiology?

- Study of the functions of living things
- Mechanistic approach (vs. teliologic approach)
 - Mechanisms of action instead of results

Levels of organization in the body

- Molecules
- Cells (differentiation vs. single cell organisms)
- Tissues
- Organs
- Systems
- Organisms



A



Cells

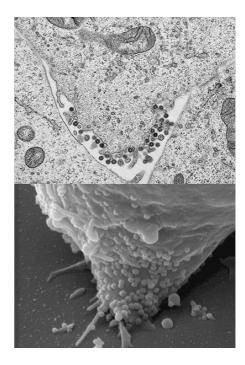


Most cells perform much the same functions

- Obtain nutrients and O₂
- Provide energy from nutrients and O₂
- Eliminate waste products
- Synthesize proteins needed fro cell structure, growth and function
- Control exchange of materials with the local environment
- Respond to changes in the local environment
- Reproduce (not all cells)

Specialization

 Use above functions to perform specific cells (kidney, liver, etc.)



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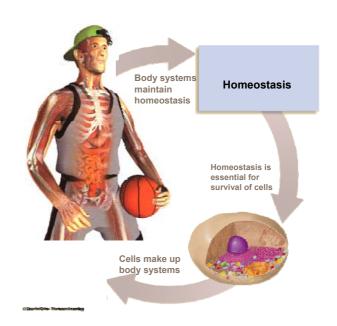


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Cell Physiology



- Cells are the smallest structural and functional units capable of carrying out life processes
- The functional activities of each cell depend on the specific structural properties of the cell
- An organisms structure and function depend on the individual and collective characteristics and organization of its cells
 - · Trillions of cells
 - More than 200 types
- To understand function must study structural components of cells





Membrane Structure

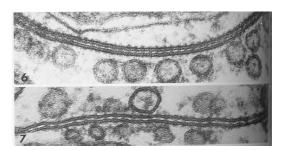


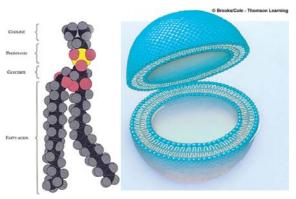
Plasma membrane

 Fluid lipid bilayer embedded with proteins and cholesterol

Phospolipid bilayer

- Phospholipids
 - Polar (charged) hydrophilic head
 - Two nonpolar hydrophobic fatty acid chains
- Assemble in a bilayer which separates two water-based volumes, the ICF and ECF
- Barrier to passage of watersoluble substances
- Not solid! "Fluid mosaic surface"
 → fluidity of membrane





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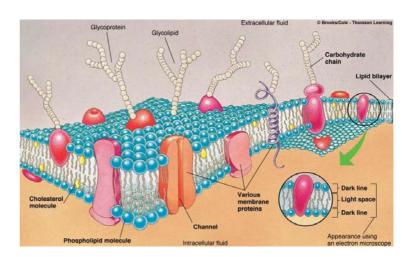
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Membrane Structure



Other constituents

- Cholesterol stabilizes the membrane
- Small amounts of carbohydrate "sugars" (glycoproteins or glycolipids)
- Proteins are attached or inserted in the membrane
 - Channels
 - · Carrier molecules
 - Receptors
 - Membrane bound enzymes
 - Cell adhesion molecules





Cell-to-Cell Adhesions



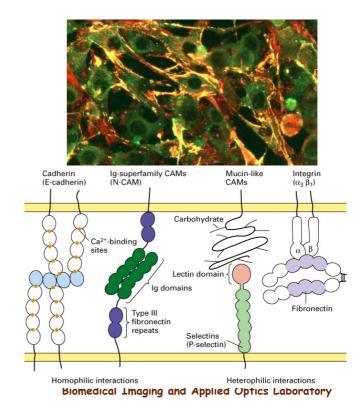
- Organization of cells into appropriate groupings
 - Extracellular matrix
 - · Cell adhesion molecules
 - Specialized cell junctions

Extracellular matrix

- · Secreted mostly by fibroblasts
- Fibrous proteins (Collagen, Elastin, Fibronectin)

Cell adhesion molecules (CAMs)

· Glycoproteins and glycolipids



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Cell-to-Cell Adhesions

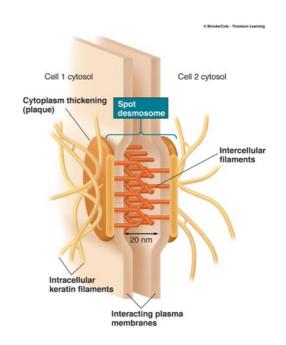


Cell Junctions

- Directly linking cells
 - Desmosomes
 - · Tight Junctions
 - · Gap Junctions

Desmosomes

- Connect adjacent but not touching cells
 - Plaques
 - · Glycoproein filaments
- Common in tissues that are subject to strain
 - · Skin, heart, etc
- Keratin connects them intracellularly forming continuous network



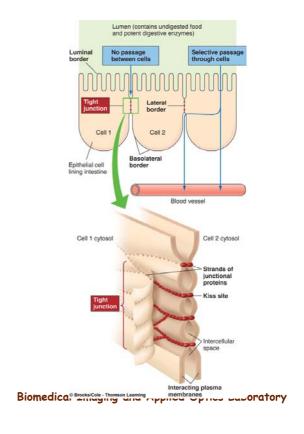


Cell-to-Cell Adhesions



Tight Junctions

- Bind tightly in contact, blocking passageways
 - Junctional proteins form "kiss" sites
 - Impermeable
 - Materials must pass through cells → well regulated
- Common in epithelial layers → barriers between compartments



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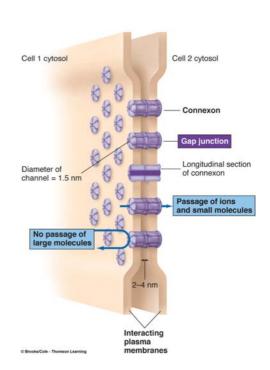


Cell-to-Cell Adhesions



Gap Junctions

- Connects adjacent cells with small tunells
 - Connexon → six protein subunits in a tube-like stucture
 - Two join end-to-end between two cells
 - Small, water soluble, particles can pass, e.g. ions
- Signaling
- Abundant in cardiac and smooth muscle → transmit electrical activity





Nucleus

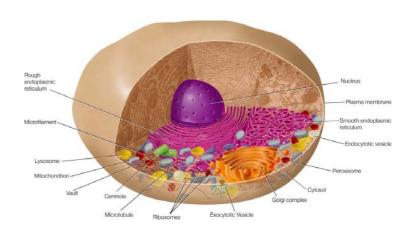


Basic Structure

- Nucleus
 - Surrounded by nuclear envelope with nuclear pores
 - Contains the genetic material of the cell → deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)

DNA

- Carries genetic information and serves as blueprint during cell replication
- Directs protein synthesis



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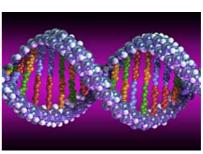
DNA and Protein Synthesis

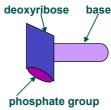


- Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is macromolecule
- Consists of Nucleotides
 - Sugar (deoxyribose)
 - Phosphate group
 - Bases
 - Adenine (A), guanine (G), cytosine (C) and thymine (T)

Complementarity rule

- · Adenine only pairs with Thymine
- Cytosine only pairs with guanine
- · And vice versa
 - A = T and G = C in all spieces
 - (A+T / G + C) is deferent between spiecies











DNA double helix

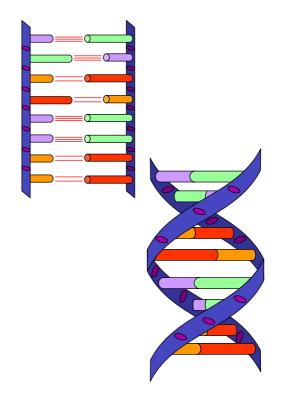
- 1953 Watson and Crick → model for DNA double helix
 - · X-ray diffraction
 - Perhaps the greatest biological discovery of the 20th century
- Unique properties
- Molecule ideal as genetic material

Two chains

- · Right-handed double helix
- The bases form hydrogen bonds with complimentaries

The two chains are complimentary

- · One defines the other
- One is the "mold" for synthesizing the other
 - Best molecule for carrying genetic information



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DNA and Protein Synthesis

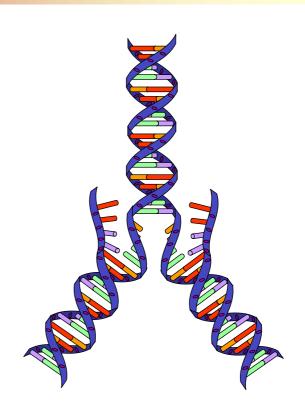


Self replications

- "Unzips"
- Each chain is used to form the complimentary chain
- Two identical copies of DNA are formed
 - · Special enzymes correct mistakes
 - Mistakes do happen (i.e. mutations)

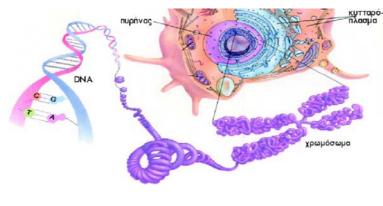
Two important characteristics for a genetic material

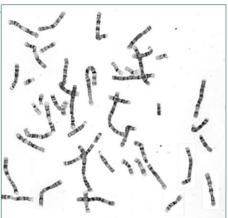
- Replicates without mistakes
 - Pass the information from generation to generation
- Allows for changes
 - · Know as mutations
 - · Leads to variations
 - Species adapt better to changing conditions











Chromosomes

- So called because the stain strongly
- · Form in the nucleus
- · The bearers of genetic information in eukaryotic cells
- · Independent "Inheritance units"
- · Main constituent is DNA

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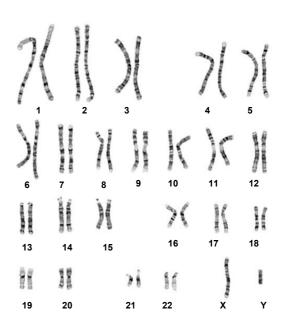


DNA and Protein Synthesis



Number of chromosomes

- · Specific for each species
 - humans → 46
 - Olive trees → 46
 - Worms → 1
 - Crabs → 200 και πλέον
 - In general between 10 and 50
- They differentiate one species from another
 - Not so much the number of chromosomes but the genetic information contained

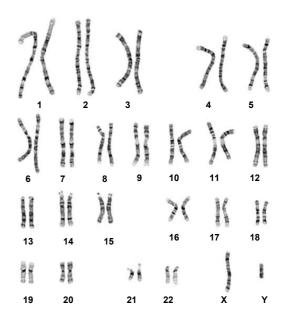






Chromosomes

- · In pairs in somatic cells
 - A pair of each → diploid cell (or 2n)
 - 46 chromosomes → 23 different pairs
- · Each pair
 - · Homologous chromosomes
 - · Same size and shape
 - Exception: sex chromosomes (X and Y)
- In gametes
 - only one chromosome of each
 → haploid cells (or 1n)



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DNA and Protein Synthesis



Chromosomes

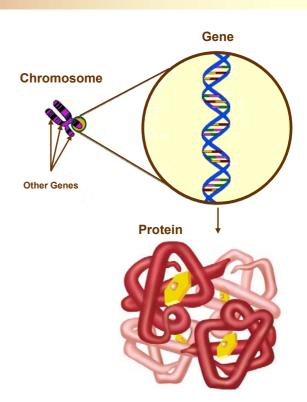
- Contain hundreds or thousand of genes
- · In linear order

Gene

- · Unit of information
- Defines a characteristic of the species
 - · Color of the iris in humans
 - · Length of wings in flies
 - Color of peas
 - · etc.
- A specific series of nucleotides
- Define the structure of all proteins
 - The function of the protein is related, directly (if it is a structural protein) or indirectly (if it is an enzyme), with a genetic feature

Number of different genes

- Viruses ~ 5-15
- Mammals ~ 50.000
- Humans > 100.000 (;)



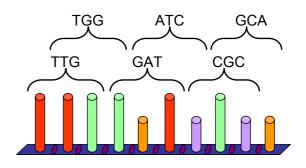


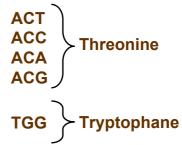


- Proteins
 - Combinations of 20 aminoacids
- How can you encode with 4 bases;
 - One base system
 - A, T, G, C
 - · 4 possible codes
 - Two base system
 - AA, AT, AG, AC, TA, TT, etc
 - 16 (4²) possible codes
 - Three base system
 - · AAA, AAT, ..., GCT, GTT, etc
 - 64 (4³) possible codes
 - Triplets → codons

DNA Code

- Three base system
- Start and Stop codons
- Degenerate
- Overlapping





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DNA and Protein Synthesis



Transcription

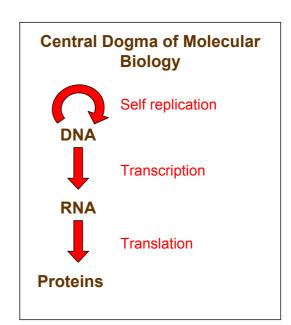
- Transfer of information from DNA
- Synthesis of RNA (mRNA)

RNA

- · Copy of one gene
- Same code
 - Uracil (U) instead of Thymine (T)

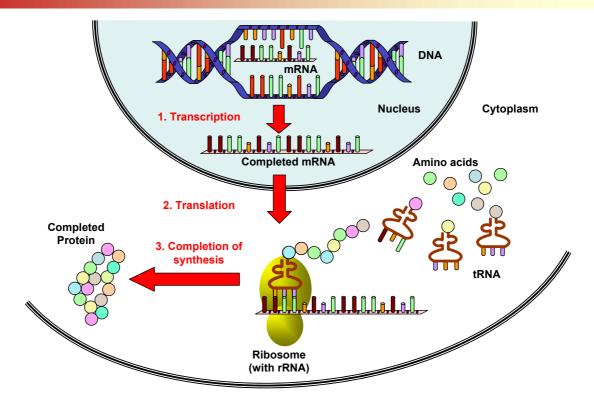
RNA Synthesis

- Precise
- Mistakes can happen
- Mistakes are not passed to next generation









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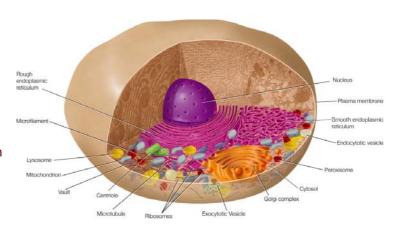


Cytoplasm



Basic Structure

- Cytoplasm
 - · Various organelles
 - · Endoplasmic reticulum
 - · Golgi complex
 - Lysosomes
 - Peroxisomes
 - · Mitochondria
 - Vaults
 - Cytosol (= cell, gel-like, liquid)
 - Enzymatic regulation of intermediary metabolism
 - Ribosomal protein synthesis
 - Storage of fat, carbohydrates
 - · Includes the cytoskeleton





Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)

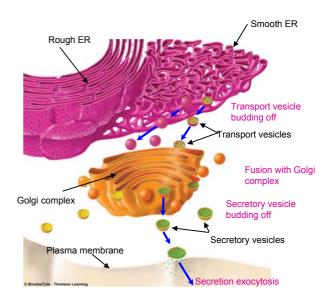


Endoplasmic Reticulum

- · Protein and lipid synthesis
- Elaborate fluid-filled membrane system
- Rough ER
 - Rough appearance, flattened sacks
 - Proteins synthesized and released in the ER lumen
 - · Lipids synthesized for cell walls
- Smooth ER
 - Smooth appearance, small interconnected tubules
 - Packaging for molecules to be released
 - Transport vesicles bud off → Golgi apparatus for further processing

Golgi Complex

- · Two major roles
 - Processing the raw proteins into their final form
 - Sorting and directing the destination
- Stack of flattened membraneenclosed sacs (a.k.a. cisternae)



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Lysosomes



- Serve as the intracellular digestive system
- Small sacs full of powerful hydrolytic enzymes
- Vary in size
- Break down organic molecules from foreign materials (e.g. bacteria)
- Material internalized by endocytosis

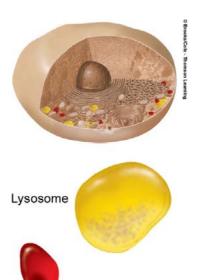




Peroxisomes



- <u>Detoxify waste products or</u> <u>foreign toxic compounds (e.g.</u> alcohol)
- Similar in structure to lysosomes, only smaller
- Contain oxidative enzymes
 - Use oxygen to strip hydrogen from organic molecules
- Major product generated is hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂)
 - Powerful oxidant
 - Must not accumulate or escape
 - Enzyme catalase breaks into H₂O and O₂



Peroxisome

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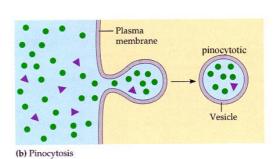


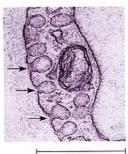


- Pinocytosis
- · Receptor-mediated endocytosis
- Phagocytosis

Pinocytosis

- Bring ECF into the cell or retrieve extra plasma membrane added by exocytotic vesicles
- Procedure
 - Coat proteins bind to the ECF side
 - Membrane dips
 - · Dynamin pinches the pouch off





0.5 µm

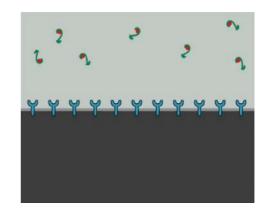


Endocytosis



Receptor-Mediated Endocytosis

- Highly selective process to internalized needed molecules
- Procedure
 - Molecule binds to receptor
 - · Proteins coat ICF side
 - Membrane sinks in and seals at the surface
- Important for cholesterol, vitamin B12, insulin, iron, etc, uptake
- Used by viruses to enter the cell (e.g. Flu and HIV)



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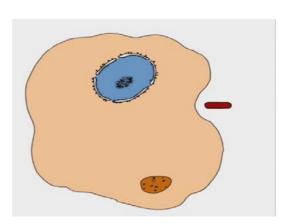


Endocytosis



Phagocytosis

- Internalization of large multimolecular particles
- Performed by phagocytes (mainly white blood cells)
- Procedure
 - · Encounter of particle
 - Extension of pseudopods
 - · Internalized into vesicle
 - · Fusion with lysosome
 - Break down of engulfed material
 - Useful byproducts

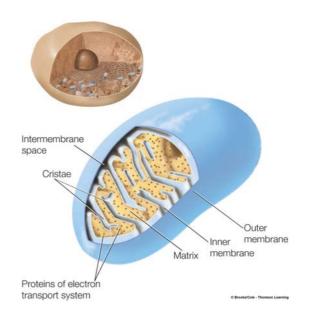




Mitochondria



- Generate 90% of the cells's energy
- Number varies (100s-1000s) depending on the cell type's energy needs
- About the size of bacteria → descendants of engulfed bacteria
- Possess their own DNA
 - Produce products needed to generate energy
 - Flaws
 - Can be passed from mother to children
 - Accumulate over time (implicated in aging and degenerative diseases)



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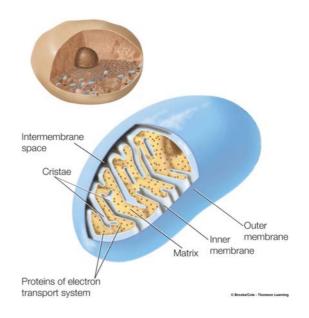


Mitochondria



Structure

- Double membrane
- Smooth outer membrane
- Inner membrane with cristae (infoldings)
 - · Increased surface area
 - Contains enzymes of the electron transport chain
- Matrix
 - Contains enzymes of the cytric cycle





Energy Production

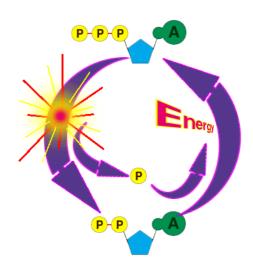


Energy derived from carbon bonds of ingested food

- Food broken up into smaller absorbable units
- E.g. carbohydrates → glucose
- · Absorbed into blood
- · Delivered to tissues
- Uptake of molecules into cells

Processed and stored into a usable form

- High energy phosphate bonds of adenosine triphospate (ATP)
- · Split of one P yields ADP and energy
- Thread Bleps (for Dyfule Bse) energy
 - · Glycolysis
 - · Citric acid cycle
 - · Electron transport chain



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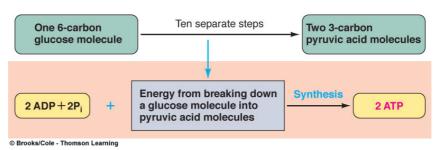


Energy Production



Glycolysis

- · Occurs in the cytosol
- 10 sequential reactions
- Break glucose into 3 pyruvic acid molecules
- Release 2 ATP molecules
- Not efficient
 - Most of the energy still in the pyruvic acid
- · Mitochondria come into play





Energy Production

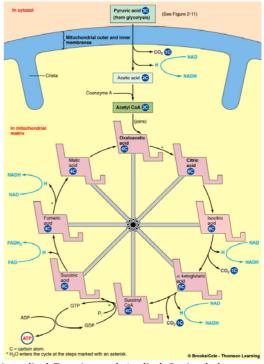


Citric Acid or Kerbs Cycle

- · Occurs in the mitochondria
- Requires O₂ (derived from molecules involved)
- 2 ATP molecules from each pyruvic acid

Important points

- Carbon atoms released
 - Form CO₂
- · Hydrogen released
 - · Binds to hydrogen carrier molecules
 - To be subsequently used in the electron transport chain
- · Hydrogen carrier molecules
 - Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide (NAD) from B vitamin niacin
 - Flavine Adenine Dinucleotide (FAD) from B vitamin riboflavin



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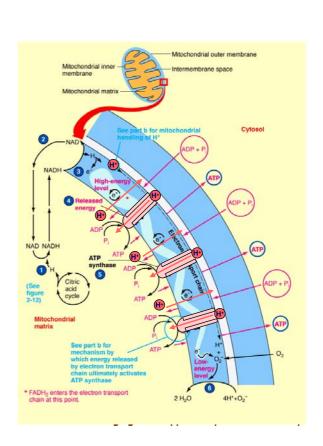


Energy Production



• Electron transport chain

- · Oxidative phosphorilation
- Electron carriers arranged in specific ordered structure within the cristae membrane
- Carrier molecules deliver hydrogen and high energy electrons to the chain
- Electrons move down the chain using their energy to transport hydrogen (against its concentration gradient) in the intermembrane space
- After 3 successive transports the weakened electrons are passed to O₂ (from breathing) → form H₂O
- The hydrogen returns back to the matrix through channels which activate ATP synthase

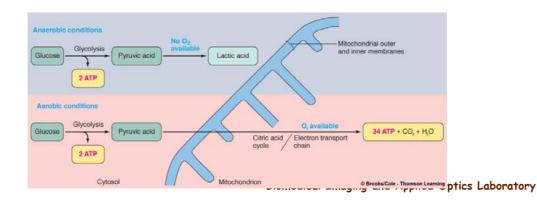




Energy Production



- Burn vs. Oxidative phosphorylation
 - · Controlled storage of energy
- Aerobic vs. Anaerobic Conditions
 - · Glycolysis alone not sufficient to sustain body
 - Exception
 - Muscle→ energy during short bursts of strenuous exercise
 - RBCs → no mitochondria but also not many metabolic needs



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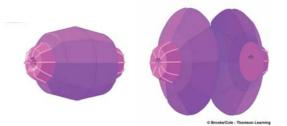


Vaults



- Newly discovered organelles (1990s)
- Octagonal shaped, barrel like, structures
- Sometimes can be seen open
- Function not well understood
 - <u>Transport of molecules from</u> <u>nucleus to cytoplasm</u> (nuclear pores are also octagonals of the same size)
 - · Ribosomal units
 - mRNA







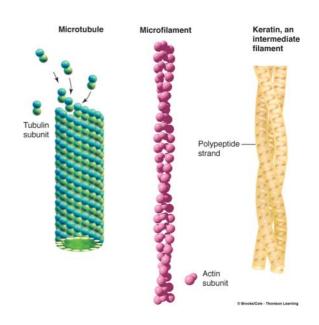


Structural proteins in the cells responsible for

- Maintaining structure and shape
- Movement of parts or the whole cell
- Signaling (?)

Three major components

- Microtubules
 - Tubulin forming tubes, 22 nm diameter
- Microfilaments
 - Actin and myosin forming twisted strands, 6 nm diameter
- Intermediate filaments
 - Various proteins forming irregular thread-like strands, 7-11 nm diameter



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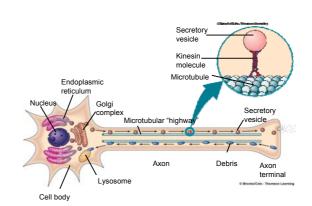


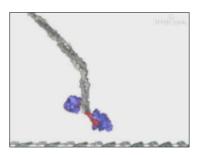
Cytoskeleton



Microtubules

- Function
 - Maintain asymmetric shapes
 - · Facilitate complex movements
- Maintain structure
 - · Stabilize long axons of neurons
- Transport of secretory vesicles
 - Secretory vesicles leave the Golgi apparatus
 - Transported along microtubules to the axon terminal – kinesin (globular protein with "feet") → expenditure of ATP
 - Debris transported back dynein → expenditure of ATP
 - Some viruses, like herpis, use the same transport mechanism

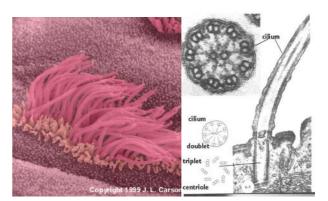


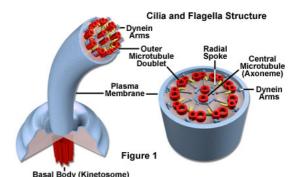






- Movement of cilia and flagella
 - Cilia
 - · Numerous tiny hair-like protrusions
 - · Beat in unison, e.g.
 - respiratory tract → move foreign bodies out
 - oviducts → move ovum to the uterus
 - Flagellum: single, whip-like appendage
 - Sperm → movement and alignment with oyum
 - Structure
 - Nine double (fused microtubules) arranged around two single microtubules
 - Accessory proteins including "arms" of dynein
 - Sliding of tubes along each other causes the motion
 - Control mechanisms of cilia not well understood





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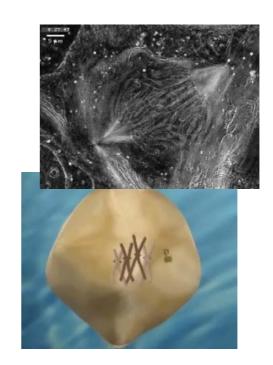
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Cytoskeleton



- · Formation of the mitotic spindle
 - During mitosis the DNAcontaining chromosomes are duplicated
 - Must be divided equally between the two daughter cells
 - Pulled apart by mitotic spindle
 → transiently assembled
 microtubules starting from tubelike structures, the centrioles

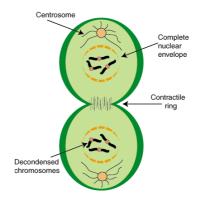


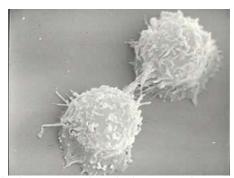




Microfilaments

- Function
 - · Cell contractile systems
 - Mechanical stiffeners for specific cell projections
- Contraction of muscle
 - Chapter 8
- Separation of cells during division
 - · Contractile ring





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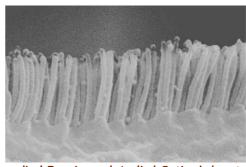


Cytoskeleton



- Cell locomotion
 - White blood cells and fibroblasts
 - · Amoeboid movement
 - Pseudopods extend and contract to move the cell -> actin networks which grow at the leading edge and simultaneously disassembled at the rear
- Mechanical stiffeners
 - Microvilli → Non-motile projections of epithelial cells (increased surface area for absorption)





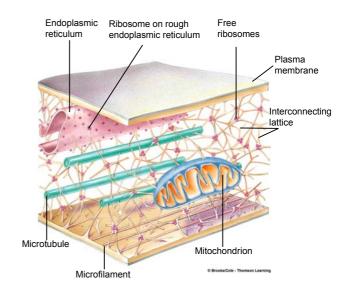
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Intermediate filaments

- Function
 - Maintain the structural integrity of the cell
 - · Resist externally applied stress
- Varying compositions to suit the cell type's needs
 - E.g. keratin network in skin cells



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Tissues

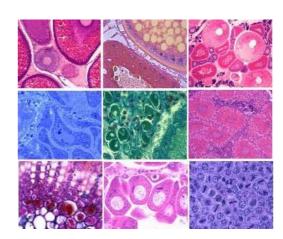


Combination of

- Cells of similar structure and function
- Varying amounts of extracellular material

Basic tissue types

- Muscle tissue
- Nerve tissue
- · Epithelial tissue
- Connective tissue





Tissues



Muscle tissue

- Contracting and generating force
- Skeletal muscle → movement
- Cardiac muscle → heart
- Smooth muscle → GI, blood vessels

Nerve tissue

- Information transport and processing
- Initiate and transmit electrical and chemical signals

Epithelial tissue

- Serve as boundaries and specialize in the exchange of materials
- Epithelial sheets and secretory glands (endocrine and exocrine)

Connective tissue

- Connect, support and anchor other tissues
 - Loose connective tissue, tendons, bone, blood, etc
- Few cells with abundant extracellular material
- Produce specific structural proteins (e.g. collagen, elastin)

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Organs and Systems

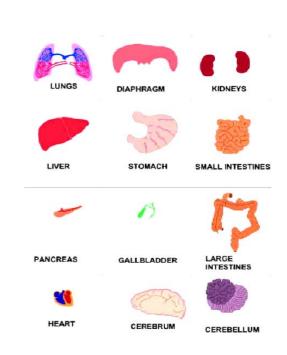


Organ

- Collection of two or more tissues
- Combine to perform specific task
- e.g stomach (epithelial sheets and glands, smooth muscle connective tissue) → food digestion

System

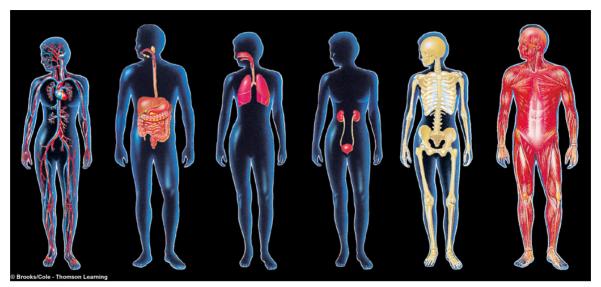
- A collection of organs which perform a specific task
- e.g. digestive system (mouth, larynx, esophagus, stomach, small and large intestine, pancreas) → absorption of food





Systems





Circulatory system heart, blood, blood vessels Digestive system mouth, pharynx, esophagus, stomach, small intestine, large intestine, salivary glands, exocrine pancreas, liver, gallbladder Respiratory system Nose, pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, lungs Urinary system kidneys, ureters, urinary bladder, Skeletal system bones, cartilage, joints Muscular system skeletal muscles

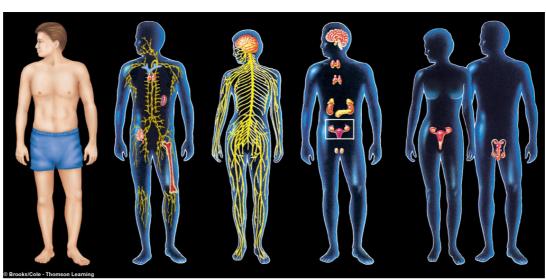
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Systems





Integumentary system skin, hair, nails

Immune system lymph nodes, thymus, bone marrow, tonsils, adenoids, spleen, appendix, and, not shown, white blood cells, gut-associated lymphoid tissue, and skin-associated lymphoid tissue

Nervous system brain, spinal cord, peripheral nerves, and, not shown, special sense organs Endocrine system all hormone-secreting tissues, including hypothalamus, pituitary, thyroid, adrenals, endocrine pancreas, gonads, kidneys, pineal, thymus, and, not shown, parathyroids, intestine, heart, and skin Reproductive system Male: testes, penis, prostate gland, seminal vesicles, bulbourethral glands, and associated ducts

Female: ovaries, oviducts, uterus, vagina, breasts



Internal Environment

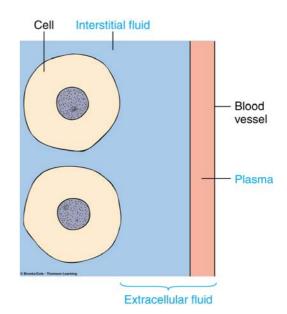


Cells in multicellular organisms

- Contribute to organism survival
- Most are not in contact with the external environment

Watery internal environment

- Appropriately maintained to support life and functioning
- Intracellular fluid (ICF)
 - · The fluid in all the cells
- Extracellular fluid (ECF)
 - · The fluid outside the cells
 - Interstitial fluid (in between cells)
 - Plasma (in blood vessels)



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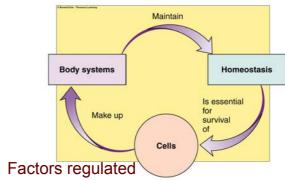


Homeostasis



Homeostasis

- A state of the internal environment which is compatible with life
- Maintained at approximately stable levels
 - All cells, tissues and systems contribute
 - · Many aspects are maintained
- Dynamic state
 - · External perturbations
 - Short term transient responses or long term adaptation
 - · Return to steady state



- · Concentration of nutrient molecules
- Concentration of O₂ and CO₂
- · Concentration of waste products
- pH
- Concentration of water, salt and other electrolytes
- · Volume and pressure
- Temperature



Homeostasis



Homeostatic control systems

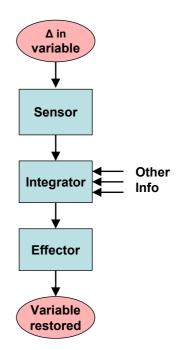
- 1. Detect deviation from normal
- 2. Integrate relevant information
- 3. Make appropriate adjustments

Intrinsic control

- · Local to the organ
- E.g. chemical changes in exercising muscle → vasodilation → more O₂

Extrinsic control

- Actions in response to changes outside the organ
- Coordinated action of organs and systems
- Mediated by the nervous and endocrine systems
- E.g. overall response to exercise (short term and long term)



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Homeostasis

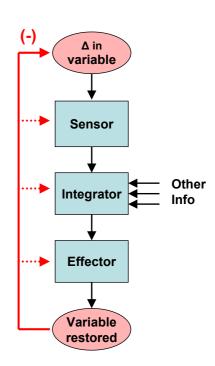


Feedback

 Mechanism that tends to stabilize the physiological factor being regulated

Negative feedback

- Change in a variable initiates response to the opposite direction
- Tends to correct the change and return the system to its steady state



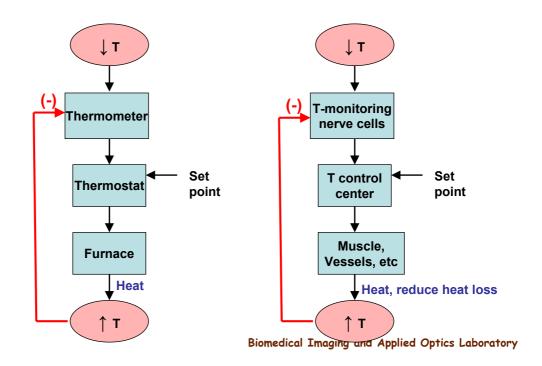


Homeostasis



Example of negative feedback

Temperature control – Home and Body





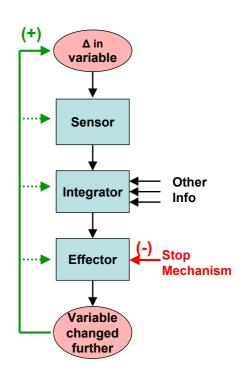
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Homeostasis



Positive feedback

- Change in a variable initiates response to the further amplify the change
- Tends to amplify the change initiated from the external perturbation
- Not as common as negative feedback
- Always a stop mechanism required
- Appears when abnormal circumstances disable negative feedback

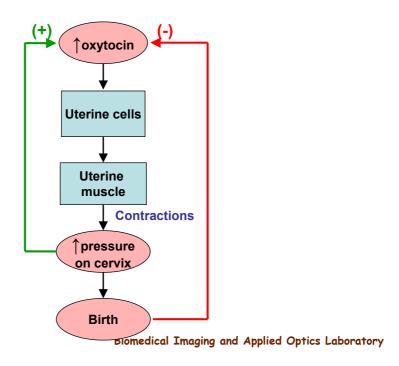




Homeostasis



- Example of positive feedback
 - Birth





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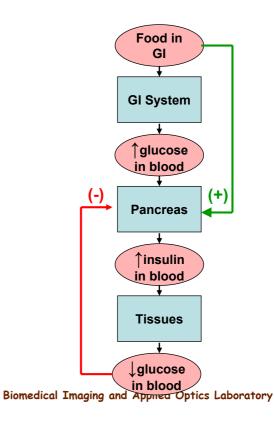


Homeostasis



- Feedforward Mechanisms
 - Initiate responses in anticipation of change
 - E.g. food in the gastrointestinal
 → insulin secretion in anticipation of glucose arrival
- Disruption in homeostasis

→pathophysiology

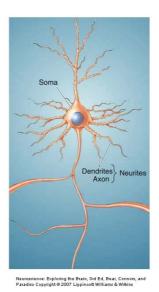


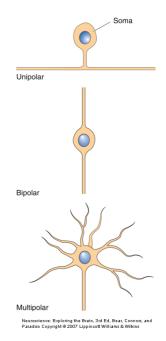


Neurons



- Neurons have two parts
 - · Soma and perikaryon
 - Neurites: Axons and dendrites
- Classified based on neurite number
 - One → Unipolar
 - Two → Bipolar
 - Many → Multipolar





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Neurons



- Classified based on morphology of dendrites
 - · Stellate and pyramidal
 - Spiny and aspinous
- Further classified by
 - · Their role in the CNS
 - · Sensory, motor, etc
 - · Their axon length
 - · Golgi Type I
 - · Golgi Type II
 - The type of their neurotransmitter
 - E.g. Cholinergic → Acetylcholine at the synapse





Neurons



Axon

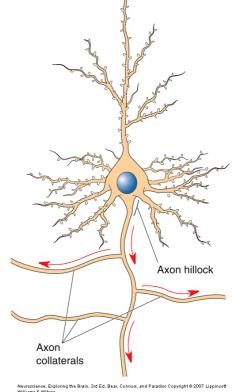
- Beginning → Axon hillock
- Middle → Axon proper
- End → Axon terminal

· Difference between axon and soma

- No ER in the axon
- Microtubule in the axon

Axon Terminal

- · In the axon terminal (unlike the axon)
 - · No microtubules
 - · Synaptic vesicles
 - · Plentiful cell membrane
 - · Large number of mitochondria



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Neurons

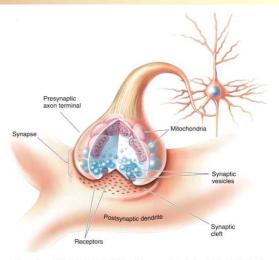


Synapse

- Communication between neurons
- Conversion of Electrical signals to Chemical
- Transmission of (chemical) information
- Synapse malfunction can cause mental disorders

Dendrites

- The "antennas" of neurons
- · Have receptors for the secretions of the synapses
- Dendritic spines
 - · Accept and modulate signals





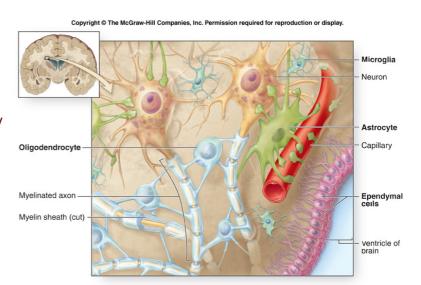
Glial Cells



- 90 % of all CNS cells or 50 % of CNS volume
- Communicate chemically (not electrically)
- Role
 - Support the neurons physically and metabolically
 - · Actively modulate the properties of synapses (important in learning and memory)

Types of glial cells

- **Astrocytes**
- Oligodendrocytes
- Microglia
- **Ependymal Cells**



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Glial Cells



Astrocytes

- Maintain neuron position and distance
- Guide the neurons (like scaffolds) during development
- Cause the formation, by blood vessels, of the blood-brain barrier
- · Heal traumas and form scar in the **CNS**
- Reabsorb and break down the neurotransmitters glutamate and GABA thus reducing their effect
- Reabsorb excess K+ (from the action of neurons) so that ECF concentrations remain constant
- Communicate chemically between them and with neurons and play a role in memory and learning





Glial Cells

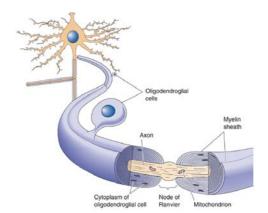


Myelinating Glia

- Oligodendrocytes in the CNS and Schwann cells in the PNS
- Form multilear myelin sheath
 - · No movement of ions through myelin
- · Nodes of Ranvier
 - · Areas between myelin sheaths
 - · Movement of ions
- Role will be explained in the action potential lecture

Microglia

- Immune cells of the CNS
 - When activated become spherical and attact with chemicals
 - Hyperactive microglia may play a role in neurodegenerative disorders
- Secrete Nerve Growth Factor
 - Necessary for proper function of all other CNS cells





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Glial Cells

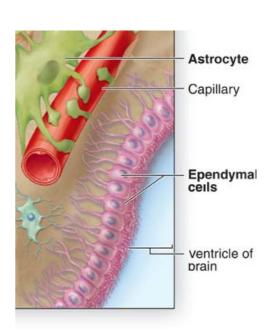


Ependymal Cells

- Cover the lumens which contain cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
 - · Ventricles and central canal
- Produce CSF
- Moving cilia help in the flow of CSF
- Stem cells for other glial cells and neurons in the hippocampus

Most cancers in the brain arise from glial cells (gliomas)

Neurons don't replicate!





Next Lecture ...



Διάλεξη 3 Κυτταρική Μεμβράνη Σε Ηρεμία (Membrane at Rest)

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