



Physiology

Mammalian cell, Homeostasis and
Intercellular Communication

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Medicine is not just about recognizing symptoms;
it's about understanding **why** they occur and **how** the
body responds.

Physiology is the study of **how** the human body functions from the cellular level to complex organ systems working together to maintain life.



The three fundamental topics in physiology:

1. The **Structure and Functions of a Mammalian Cell**

“ Understanding how cells are built and how they operate.

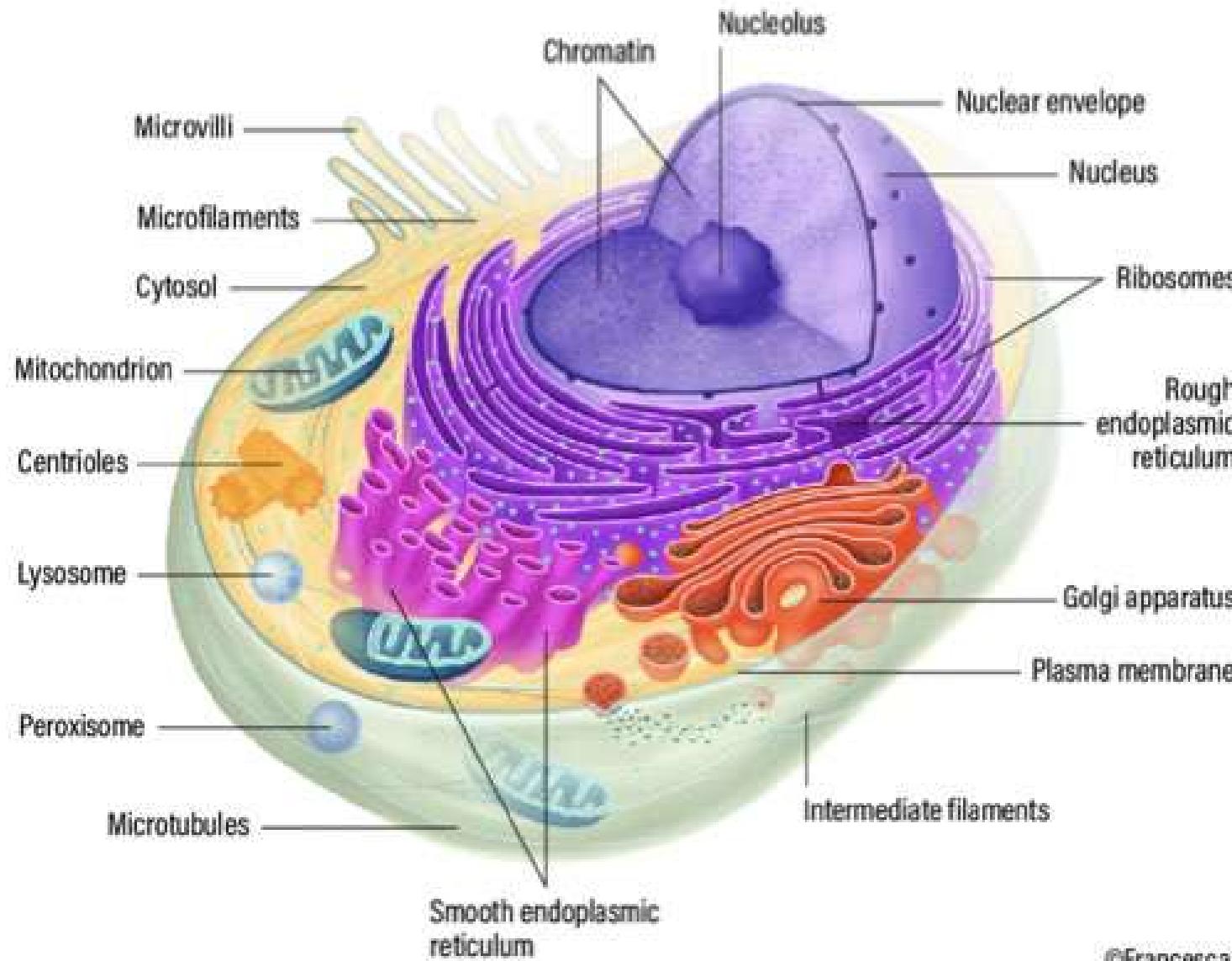
2. The **Principles of Homeostasis** “ How the body maintains a stable internal environment.

3. **Intercellular Communication** “ How cells communicate with each other to coordinate body functions.

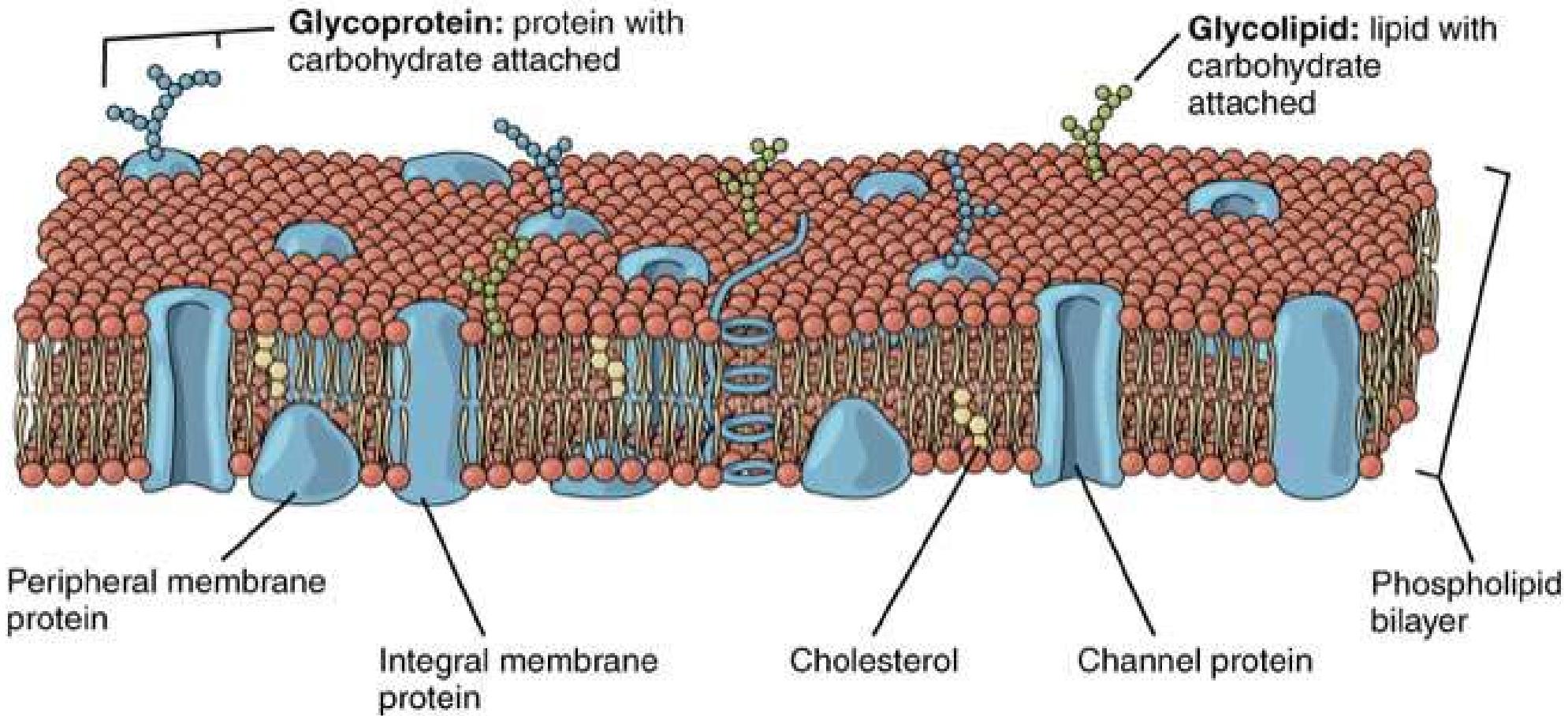
Structure and Functions of a Mammalian Cell

“ Understanding how cells are built and how they
operate.

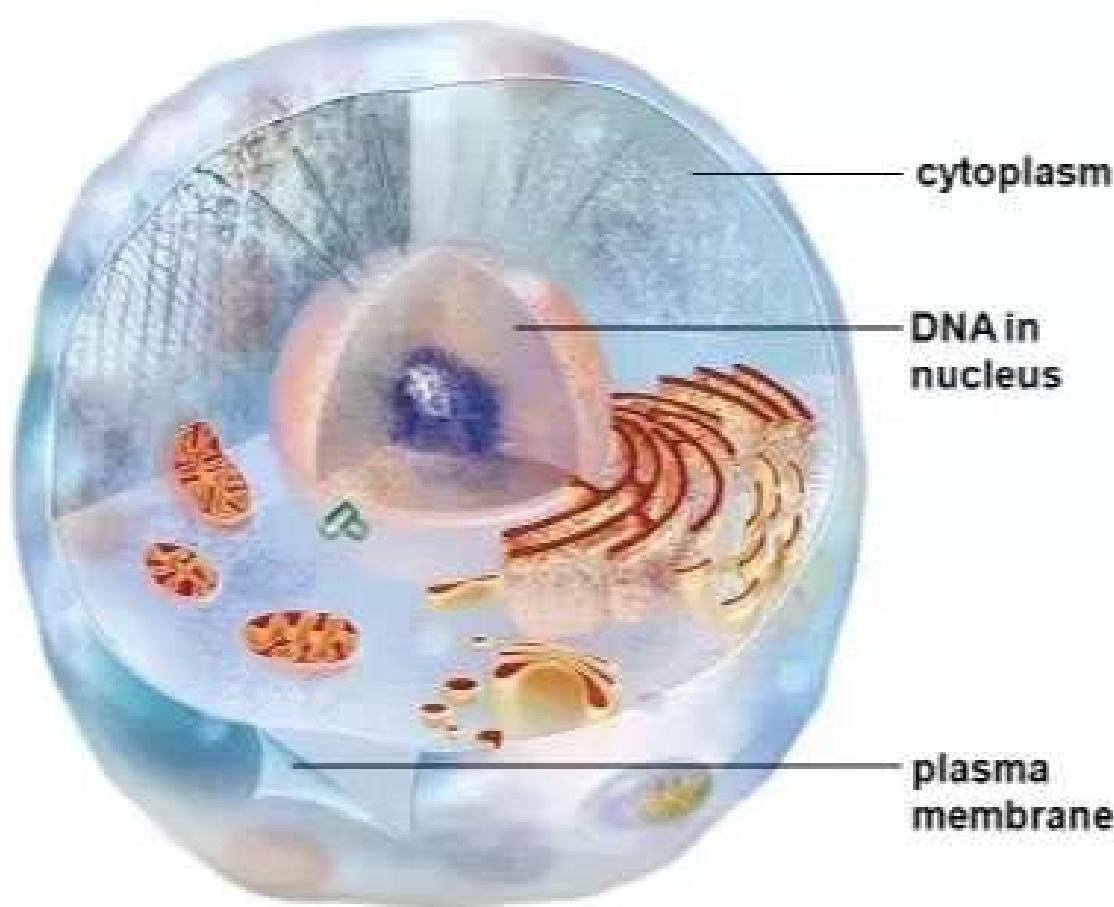
A mammalian cell is the basic unit of life in the body. It consists of different organelles, each with a specific function.



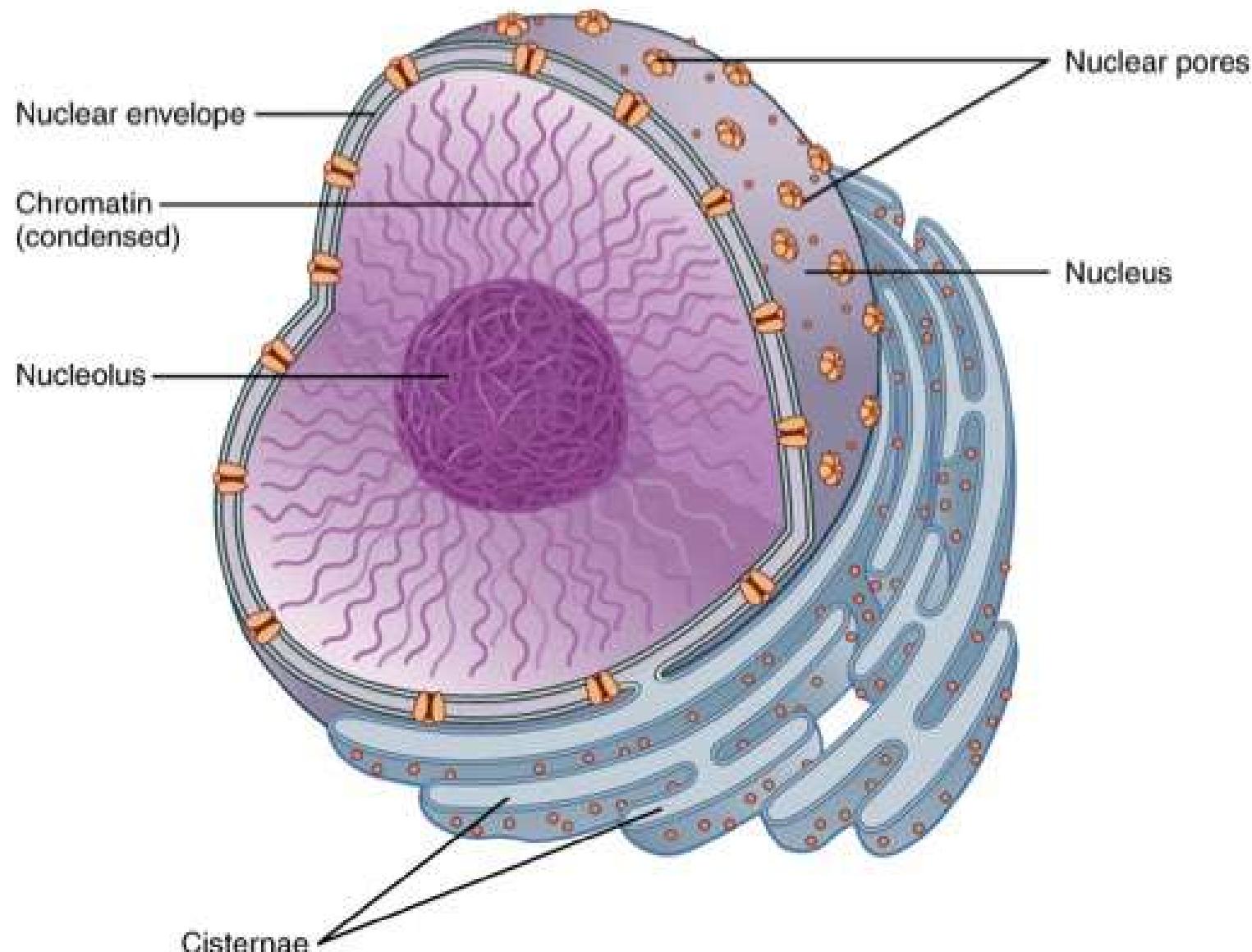
Plasma Membrane: A selectively permeable barrier composed of a phospholipid bilayer with embedded proteins. It regulates the movement of substances in and out of the cell and is involved in cell signaling.



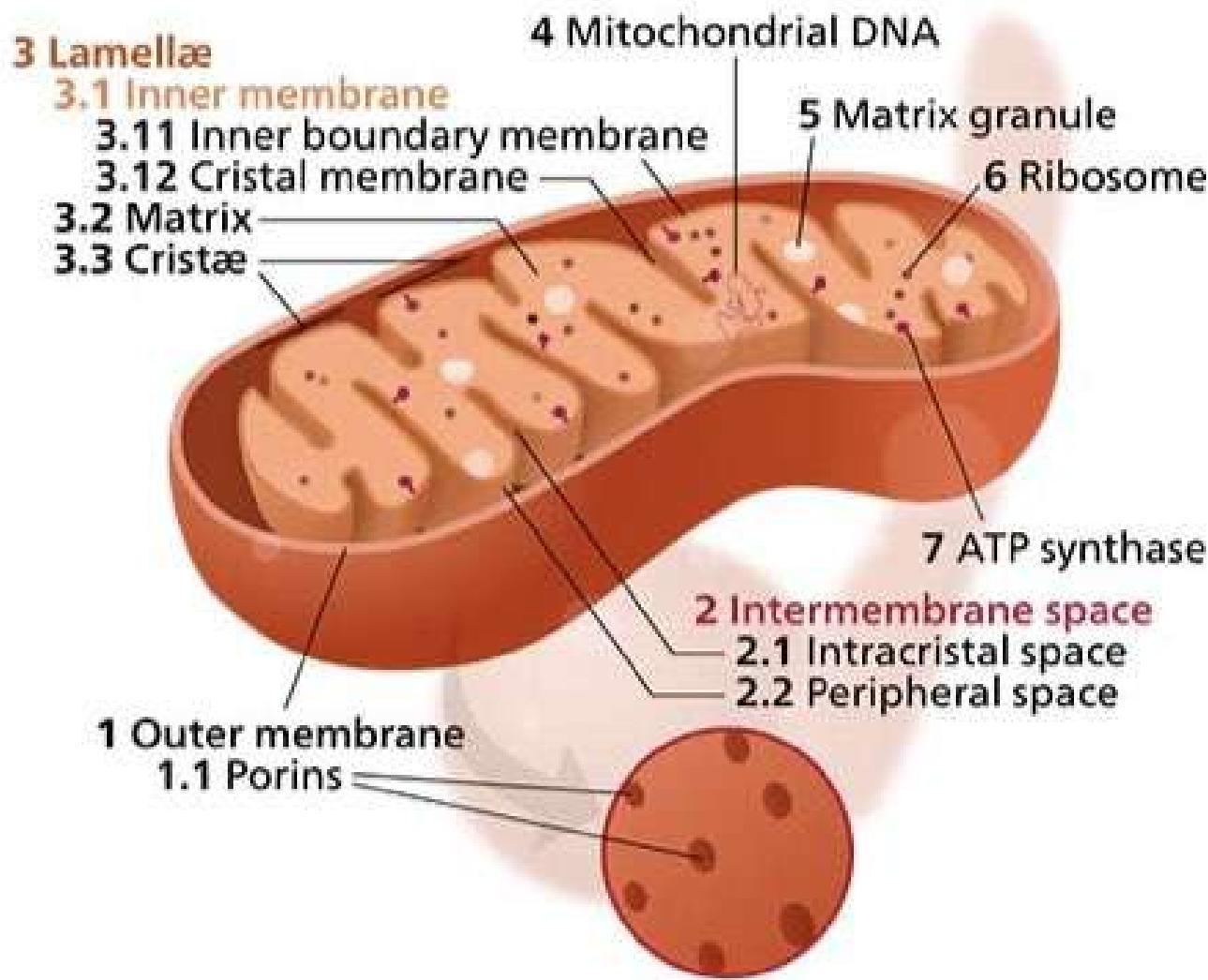
Cytoplasm: The fluid that fills the cell, containing organelles, enzymes, and ions.



Nucleus: Contains DNA and controls cell activities through gene expression.



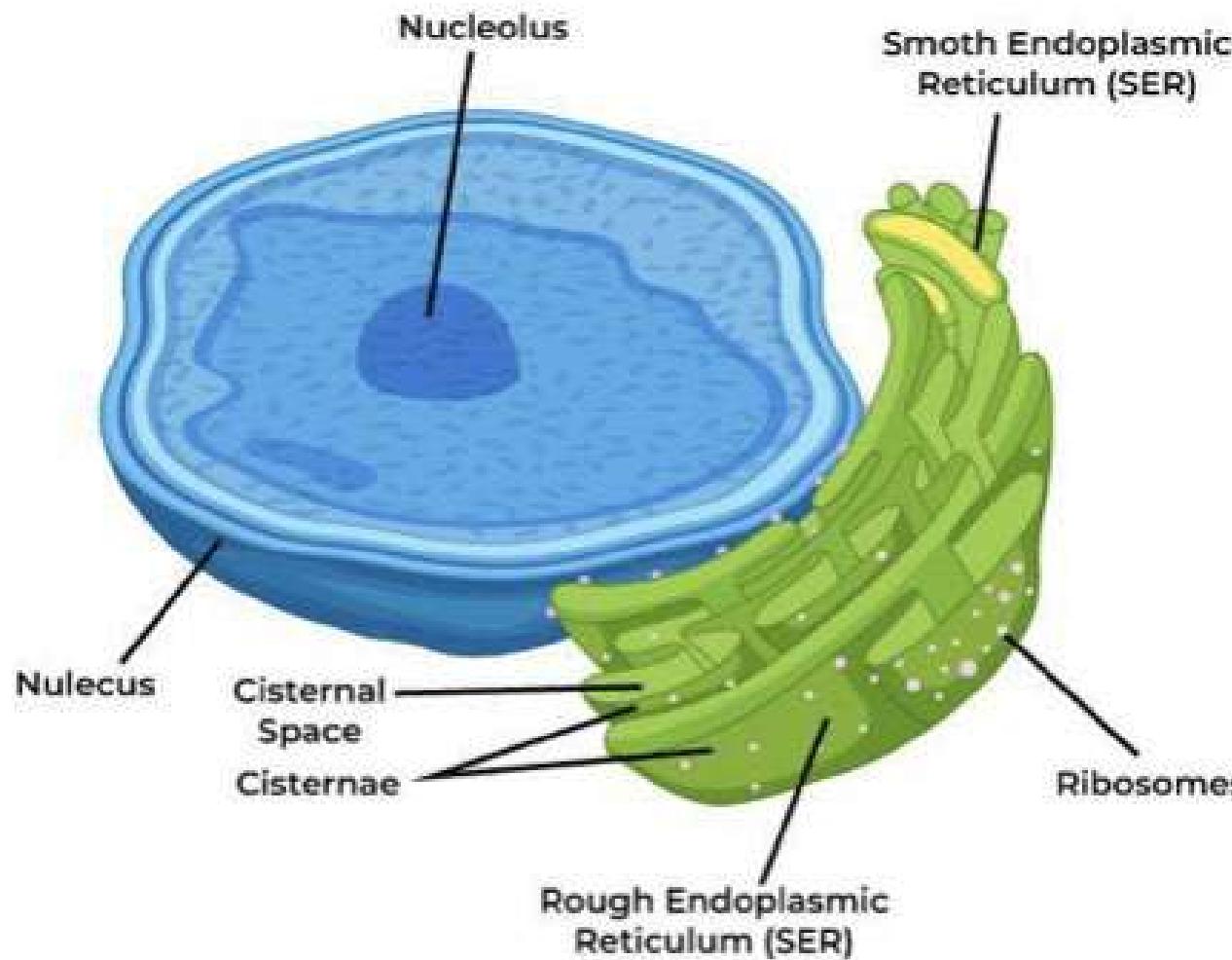
Mitochondria: The powerhouse of the cell, responsible for ATP production via cellular respiration.



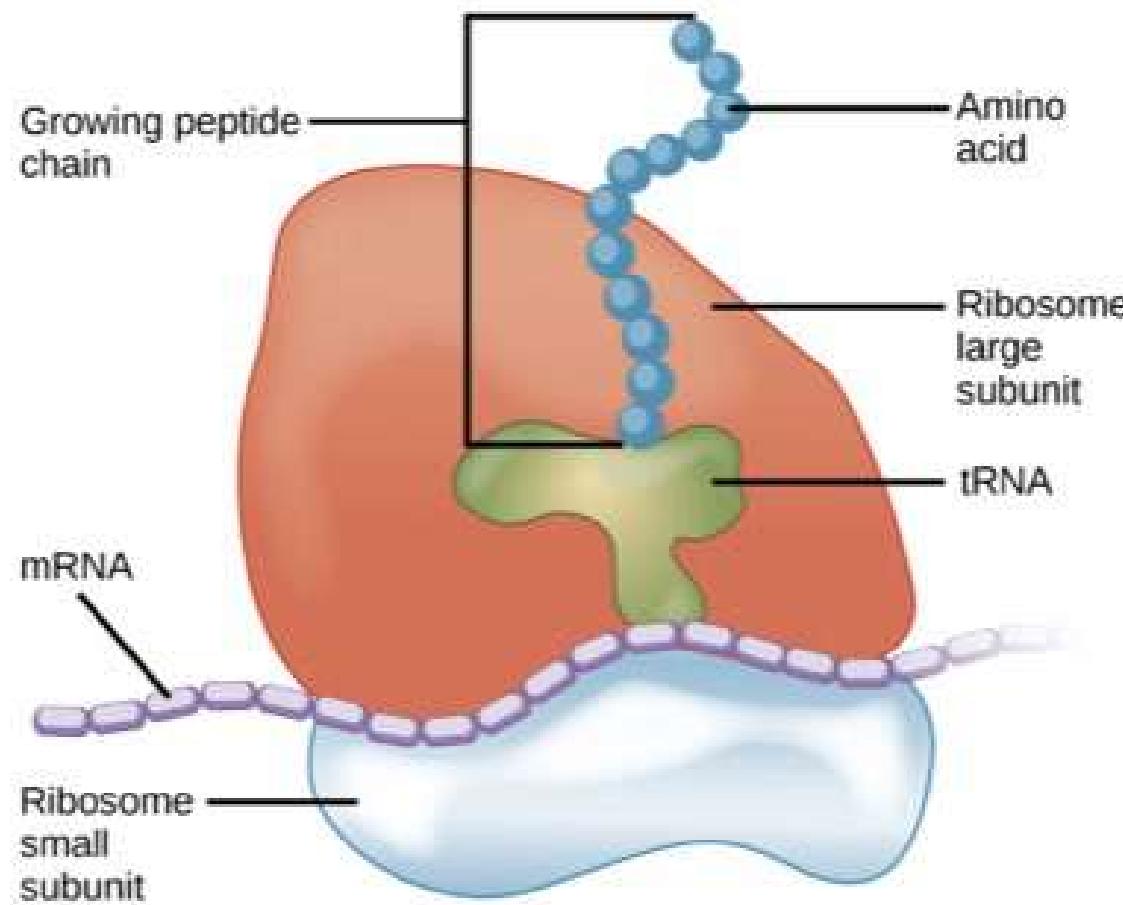
Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)

Rough ER: Studded with ribosomes; involved in protein synthesis.

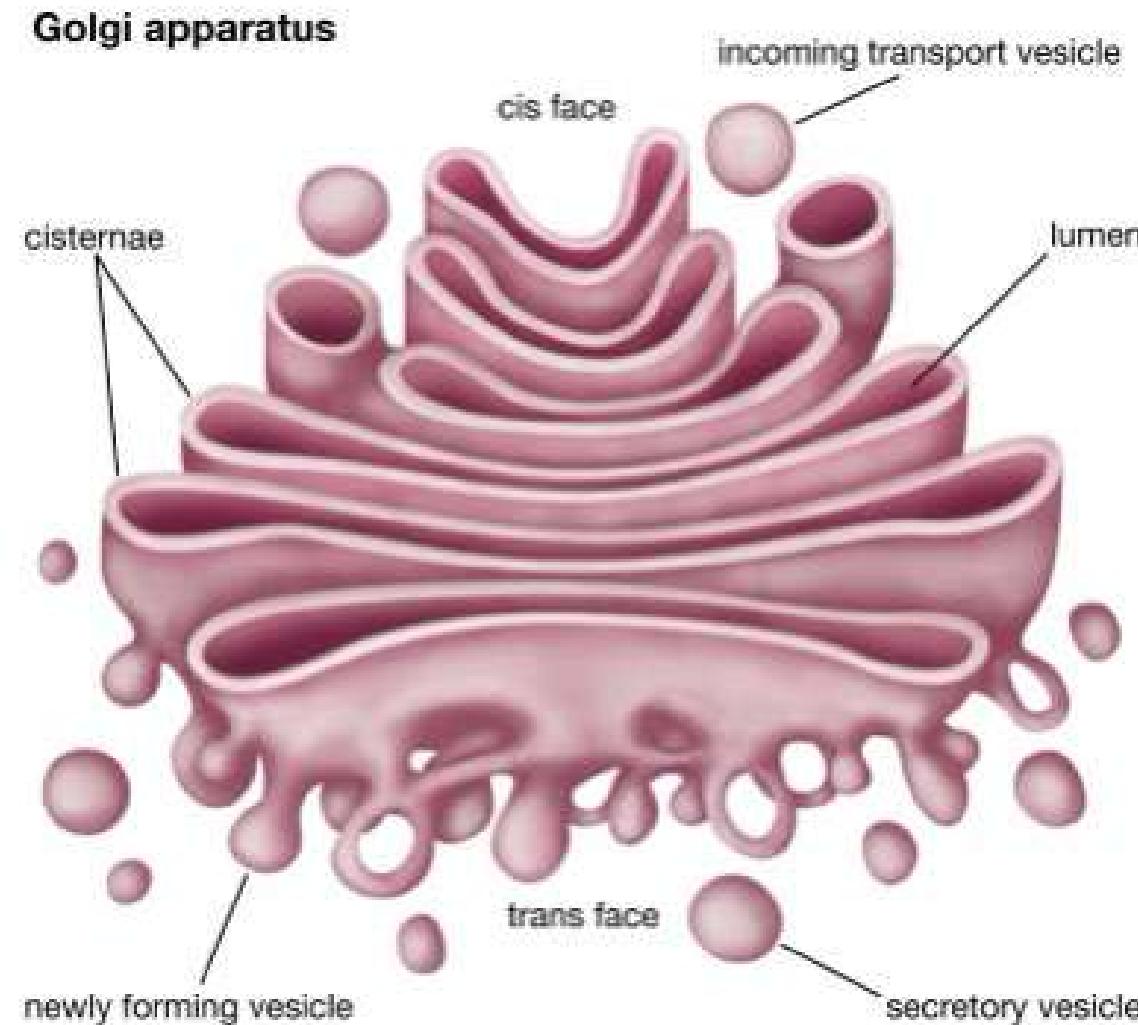
Smooth ER: Involved in lipid synthesis and detoxification.



Ribosomes: Sites of protein synthesis, either floating in the cytoplasm or attached to the rough ER.

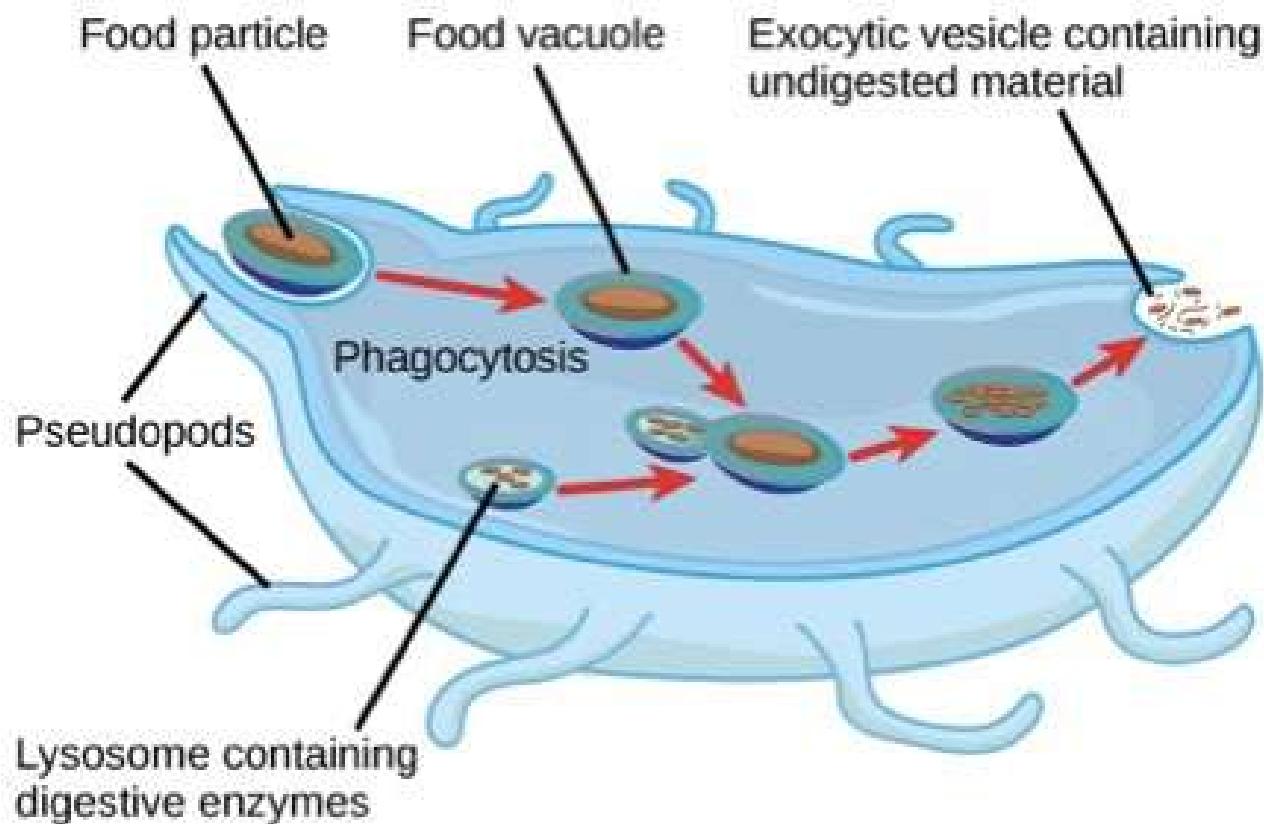


Golgi Apparatus, Modifies, sorts, and packages proteins for secretion or transport within the cell.

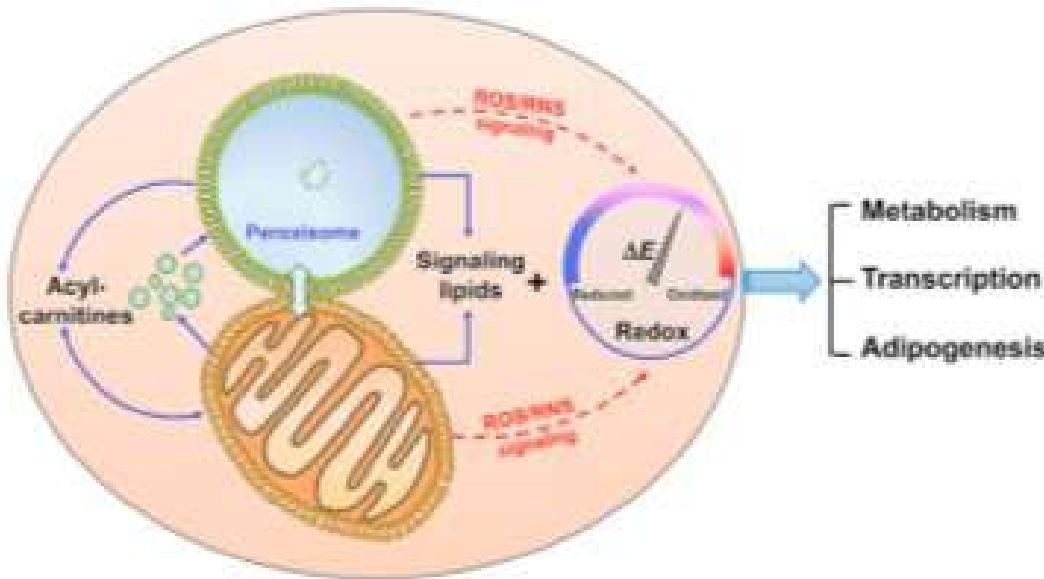


Lysosomes: Contain digestive enzymes to break down waste and cellular debris.

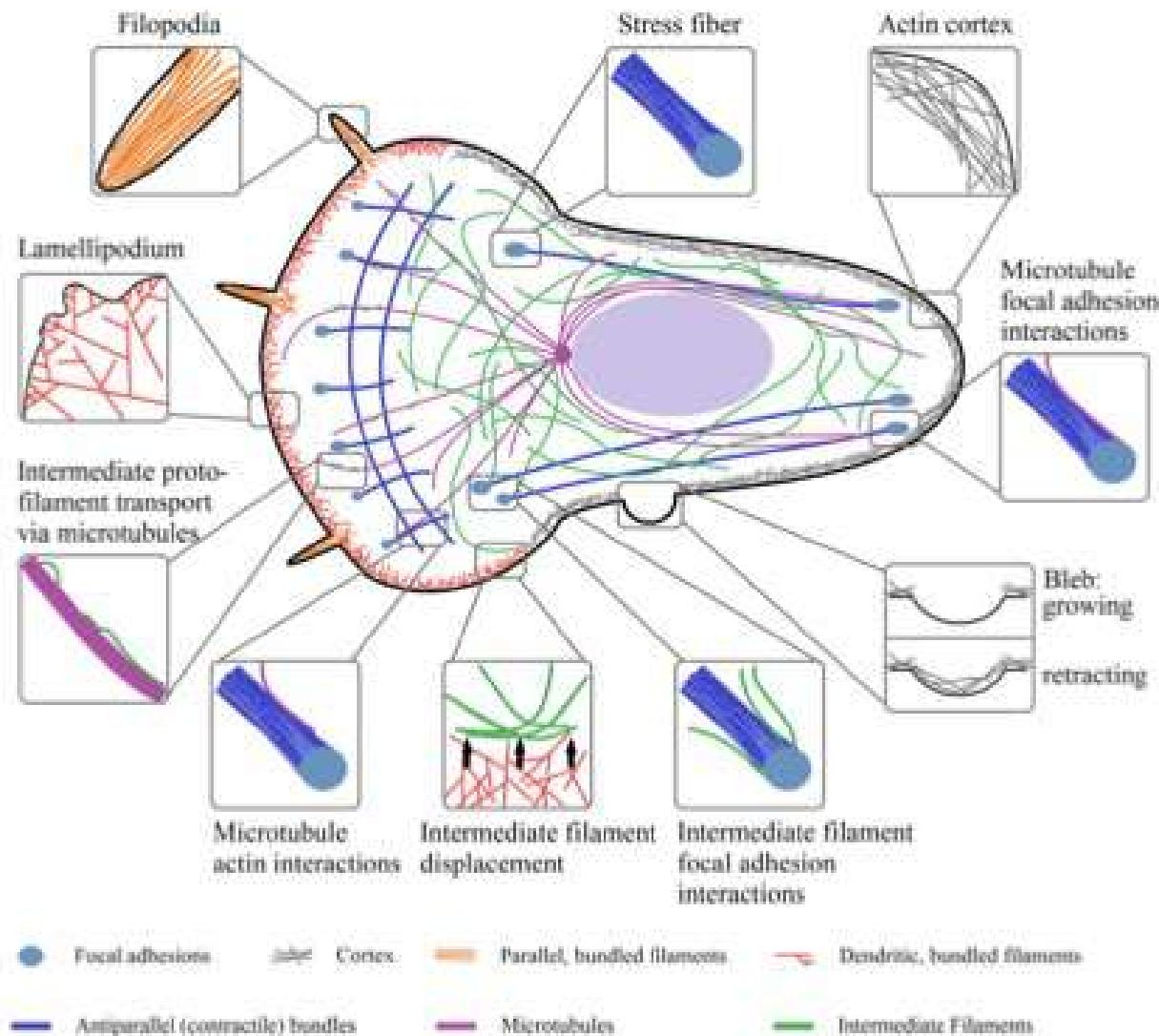
Phagocytosis



Peroxisomes: Detoxify harmful substances and break down fatty acids.



Cytoskeleton: A network of protein filaments (microtubules, actin filaments, and intermediate filaments) that provide structure, support, and intracellular transport.



Functions of a Mammalian Cell

Metabolism: Cells carry out biochemical reactions to generate energy and build molecules.

Protein Synthesis: The nucleus directs the production of proteins, which carry out essential functions.

Growth and Division: Cells grow and divide through the processes of mitosis and meiosis.

Communication: Cells send and receive signals to coordinate functions.

Transport: The plasma membrane regulates the movement of nutrients, gases, and waste products.

The Principles of Homeostasis

Homeostasis is the body's ability to maintain a stable internal environment despite external changes.

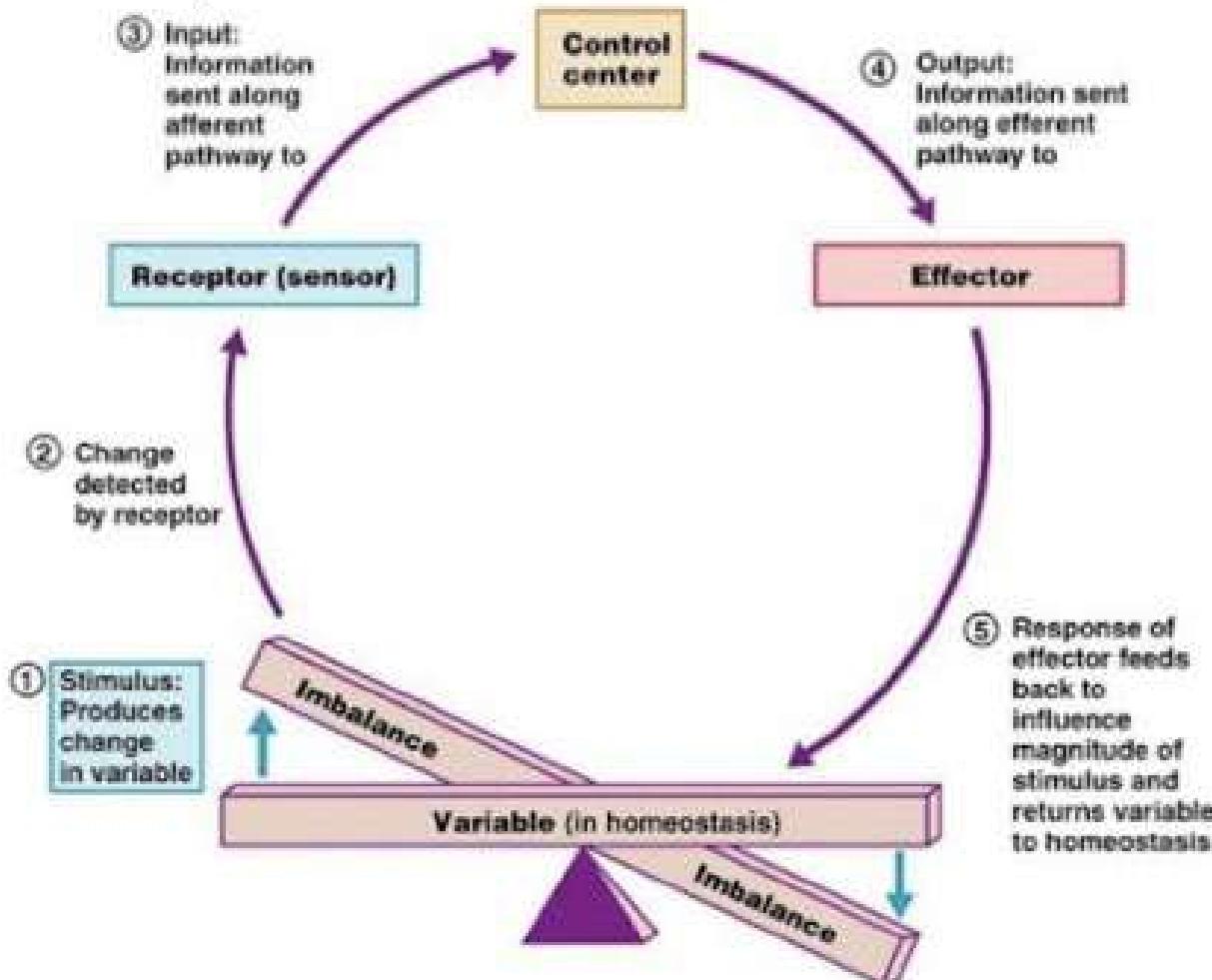
Key Components of Homeostasis

Stimulus: A change in the internal or external environment.

Receptor: Detects the stimulus and sends signals to the control center.

Control Center (usually the brain or endocrine glands): Processes the information and determines the response.

Effector: Carries out the response to restore balance.

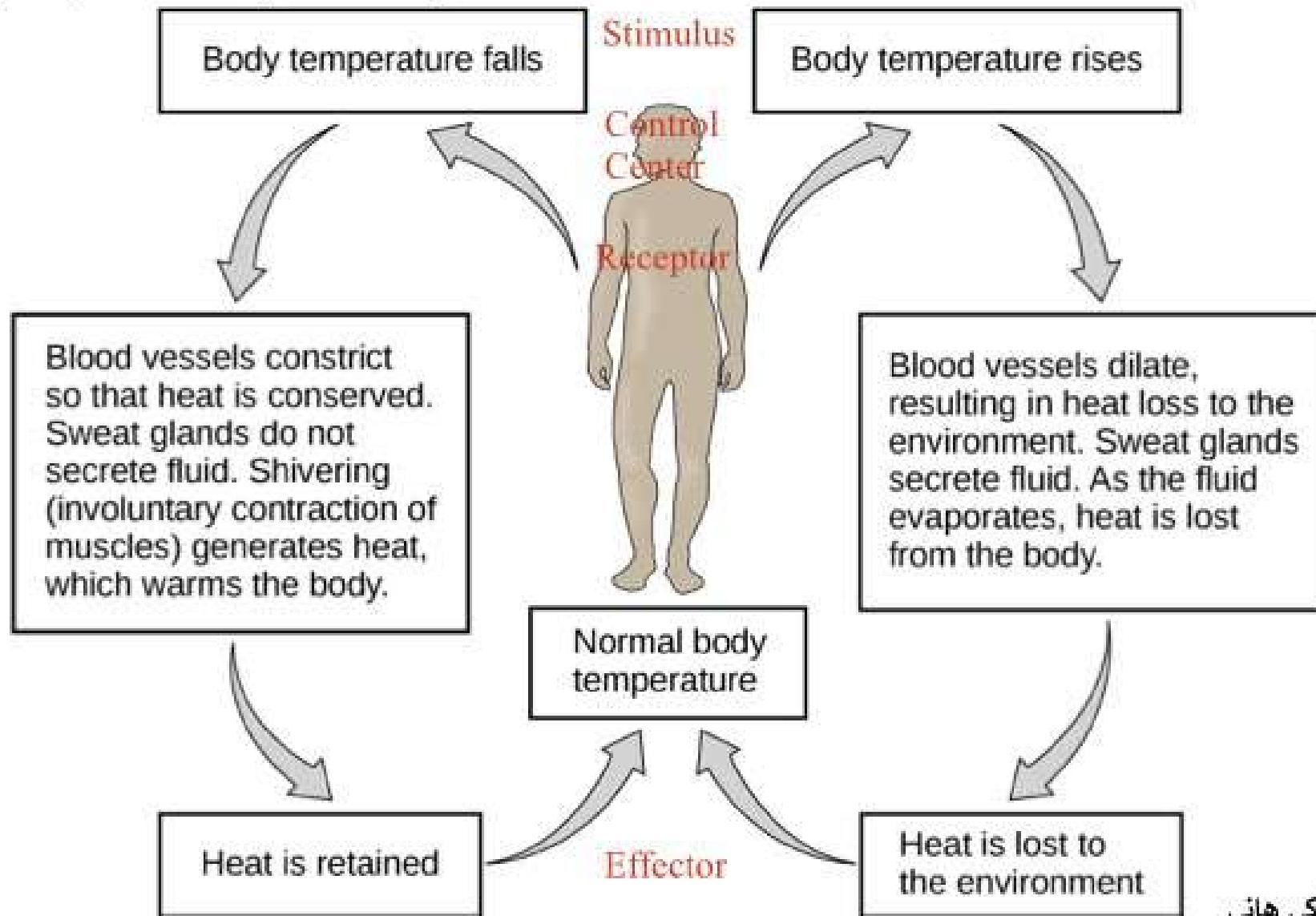


Examples of Homeostatic Mechanisms

Body Temperature Regulation

If body temperature rises, sweat glands activate, and blood vessels dilate to release heat.

If body temperature drops, shivering and vasoconstriction occur to conserve heat

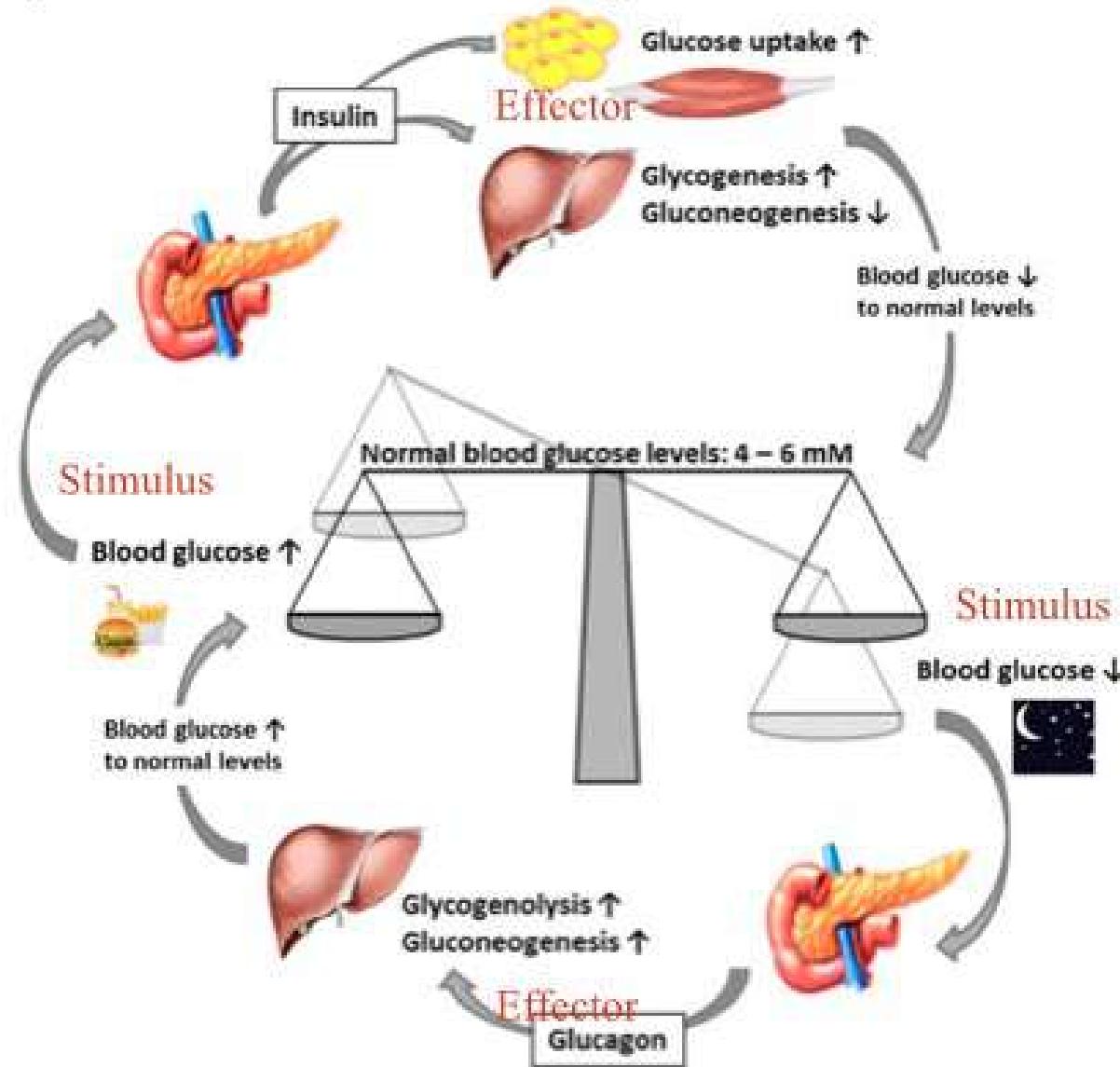


Examples of Homeostatic Mechanisms

Blood Glucose Regulation

After a meal, insulin is released to lower blood glucose.

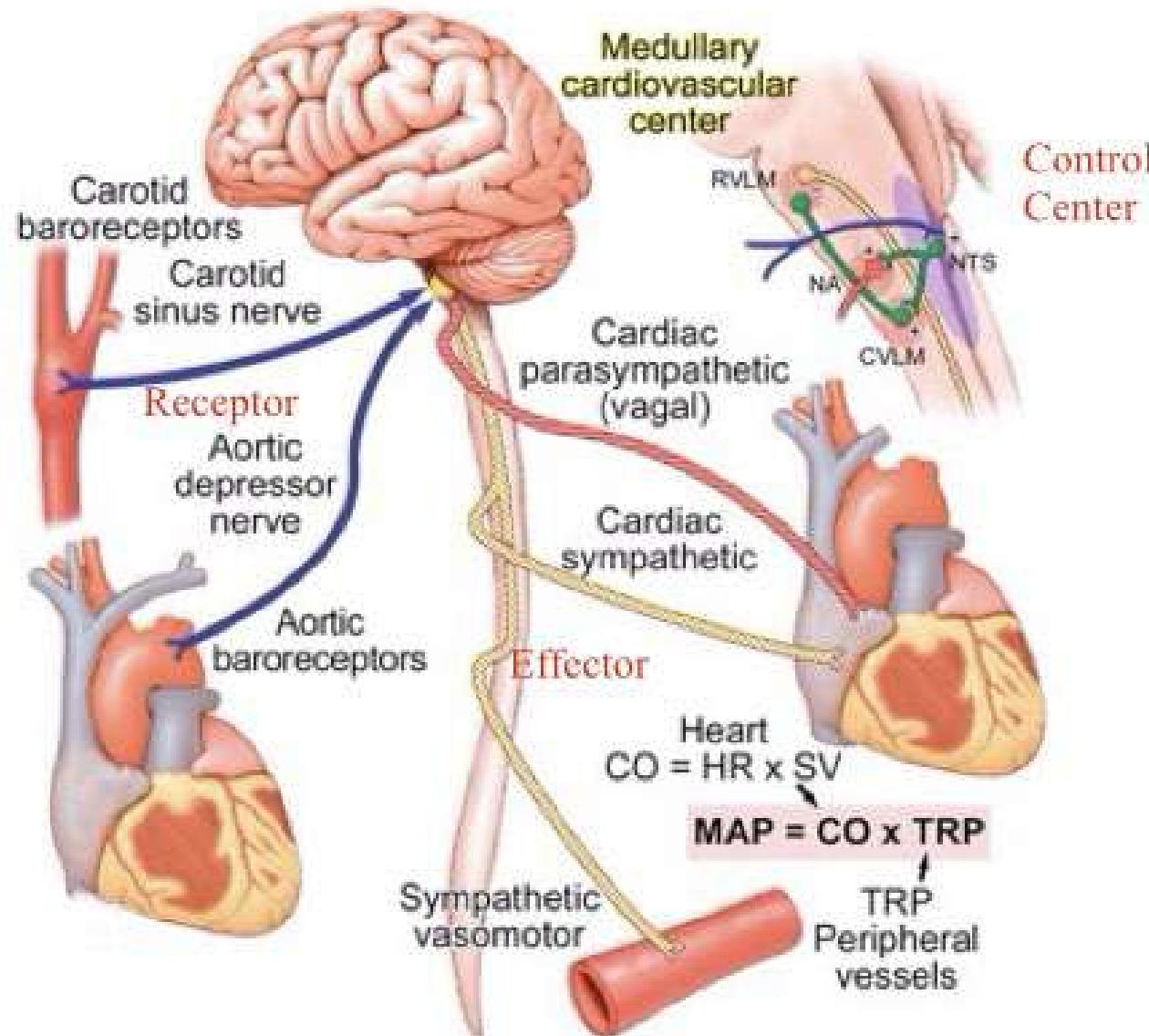
When fasting, glucagon is released to increase blood glucose.



Examples of Homeostatic Mechanisms

Blood Pressure Regulation

The heart and blood vessels adjust to maintain proper circulation.



Negative and Positive Feedback Loops

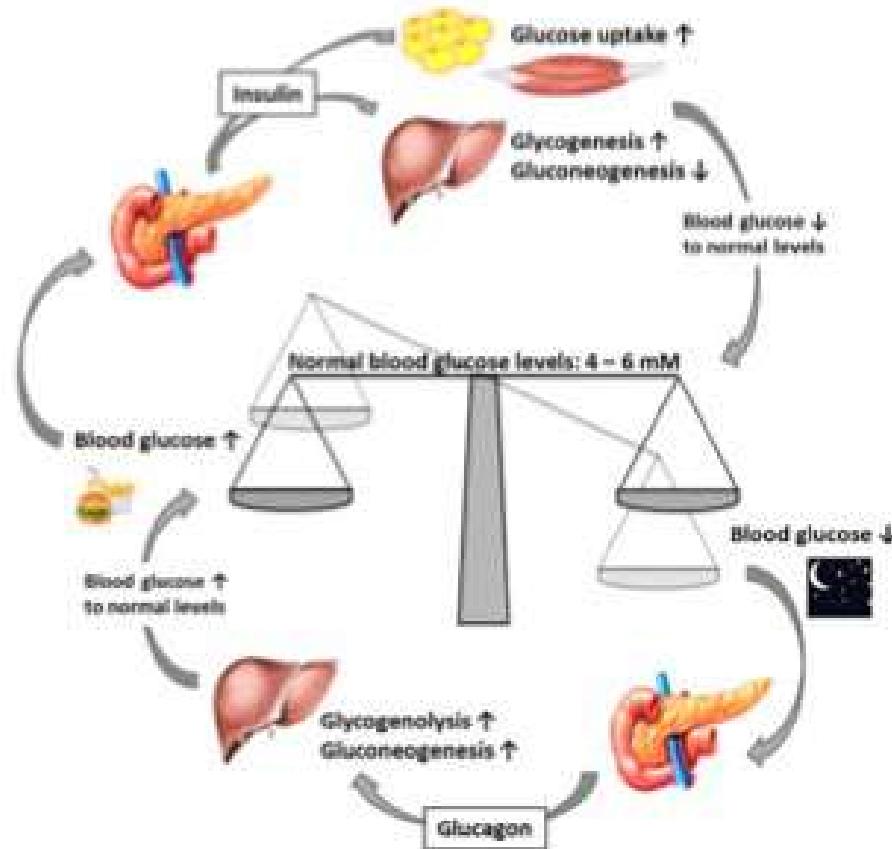
Negative Feedback: The most common homeostatic mechanism that **counteracts** a change. (Example: Blood sugar regulation)

Positive Feedback: Reinforces a change until an event is completed. (Example: Childbirth and blood clotting)

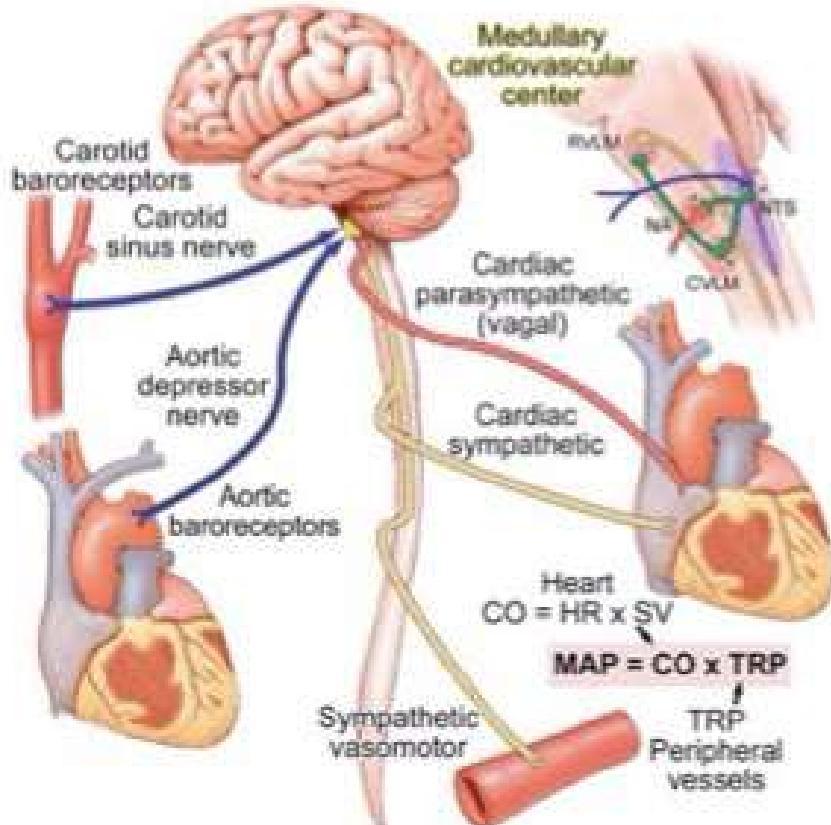
Negative Feedback:

This mechanism works to **reverse** a change and restore balance. It is the most common feedback mechanism in the body.

Blood Sugar Regulation

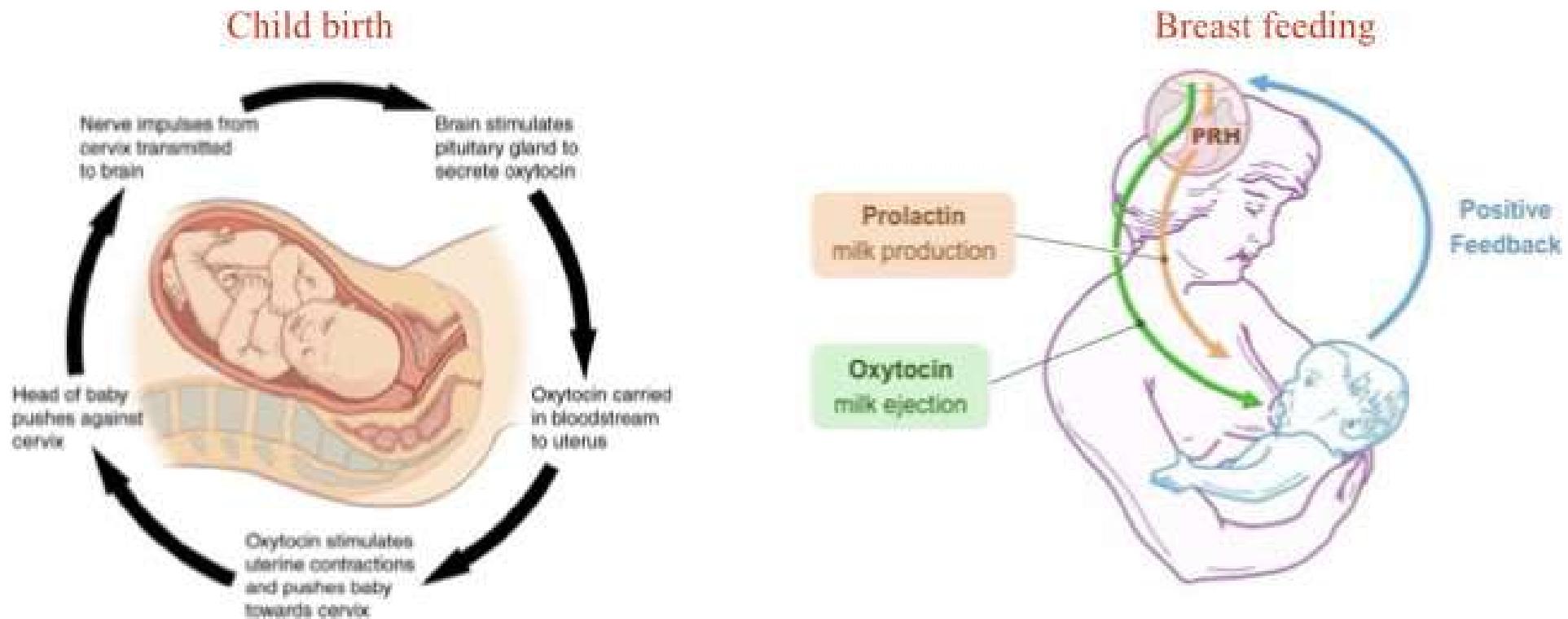


Blood Pressure Regulation



Positive Feedback:

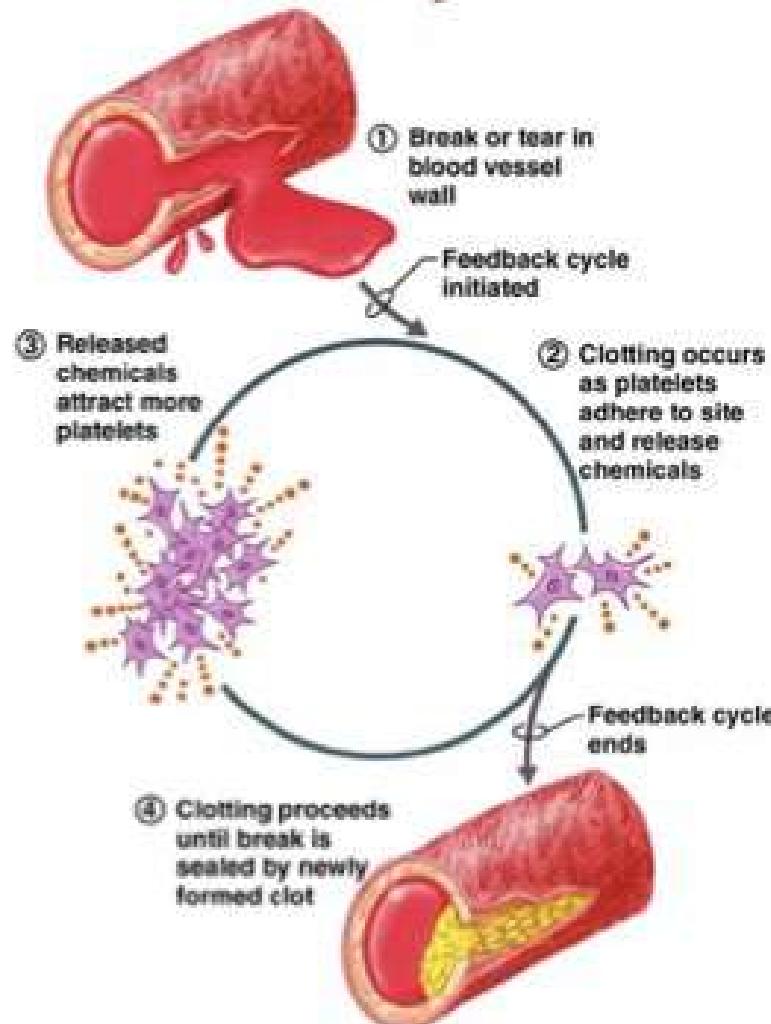
This mechanism **amplifies** a change rather than reversing it. It is less common and usually occurs in special situations.



Negative feedback **maintains stability**, while positive feedback **enhances** specific processes until a desired outcome is achieved.

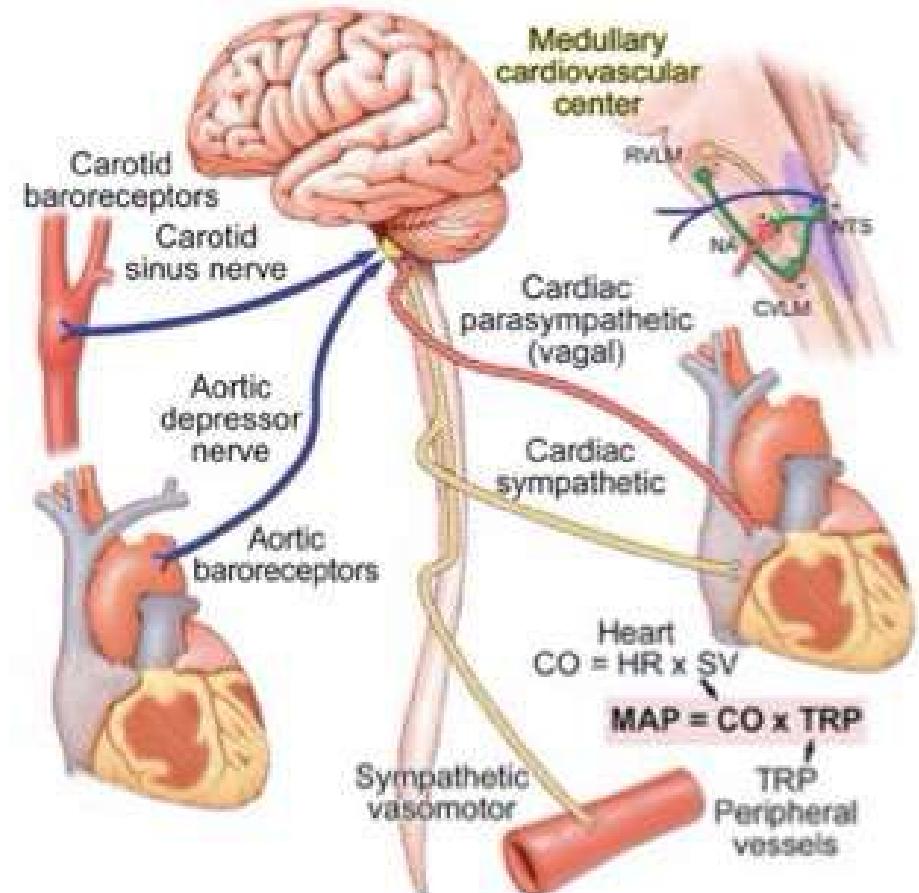
Positive Feedback:

Blood clotting



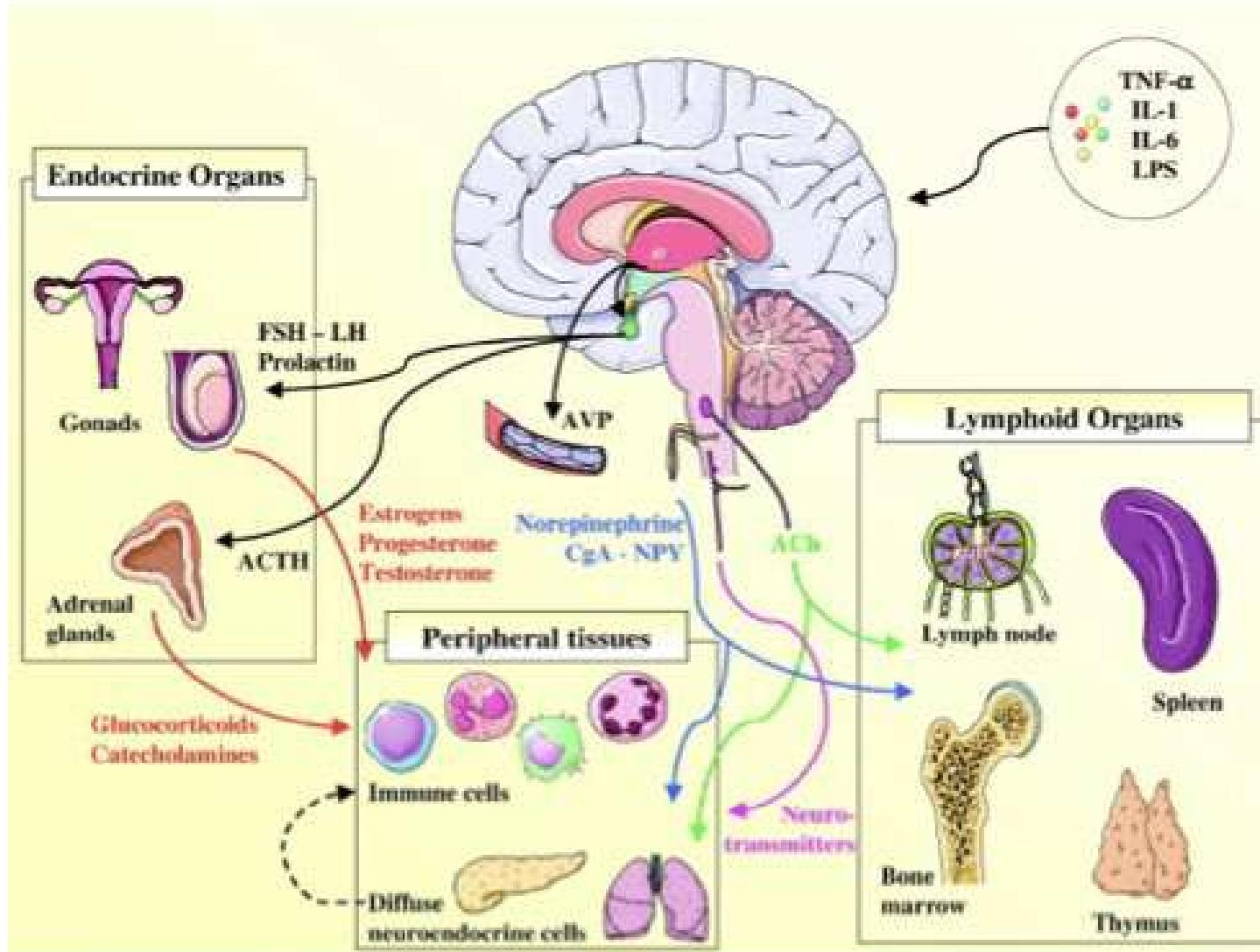
Negative Feedback:

Blood Pressure Regulation



Intercellular Communication

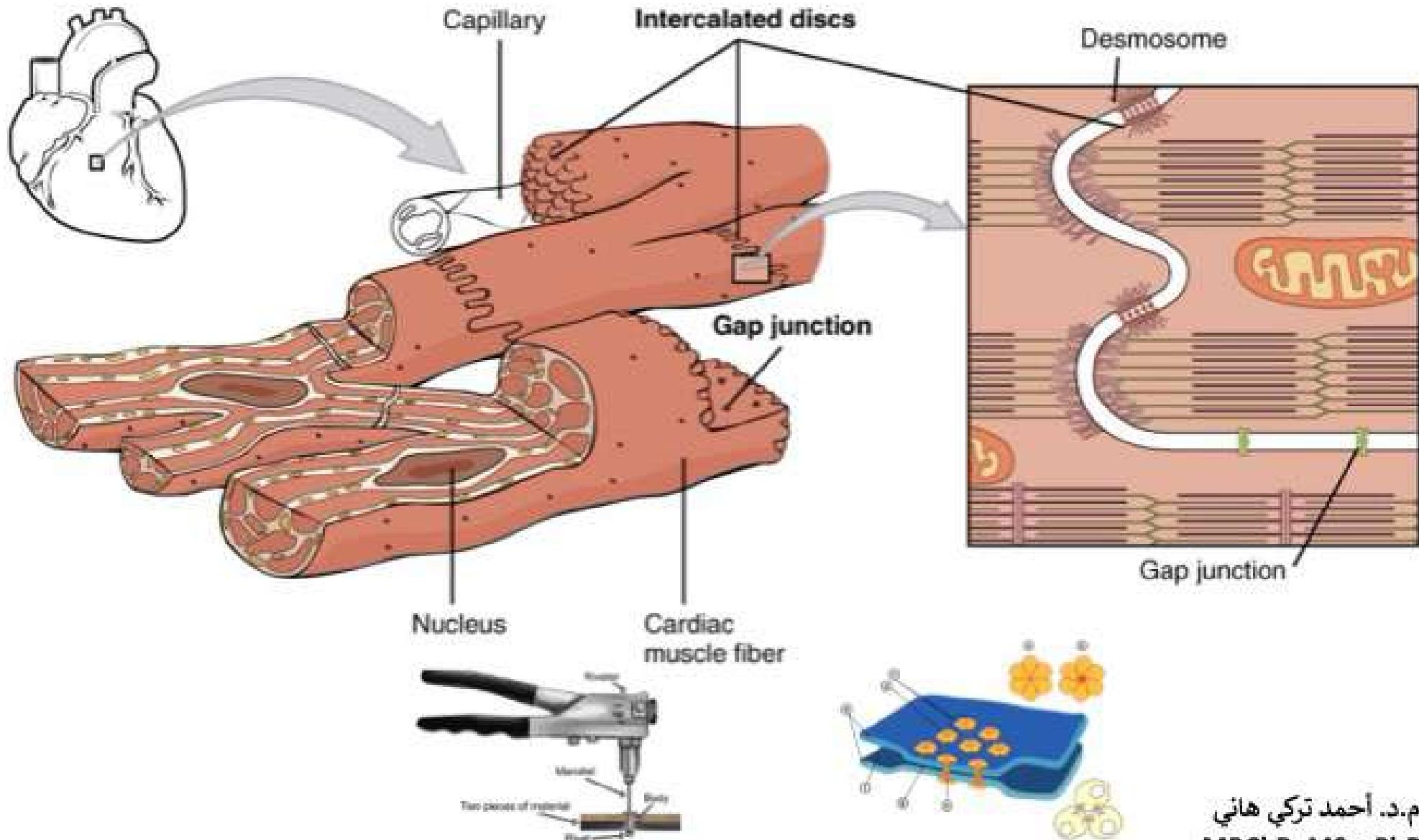
Cells communicate to coordinate body functions
and respond to their environment.



Types of Intercellular Communication

1. Direct Cell-to-Cell Contact

Gap junctions allow ions and molecules to pass directly between neighboring cells (e.g., heart muscle cells).



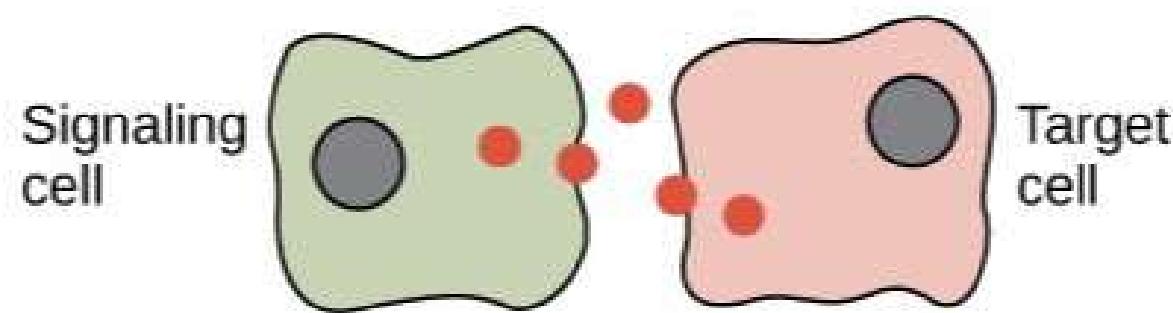
Types of Intercellular Communication

2. Paracrine Signaling

Cells release signaling molecules that act on nearby target cells (e.g., immune response).

Paracrine

A cell targets a nearby cell.



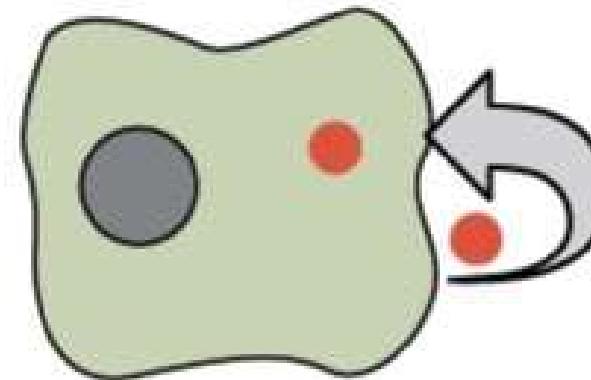
Types of Intercellular Communication

3. Autoocrine Signaling

A cell releases signals that act on itself (e.g., some immune cells).

Autocrine

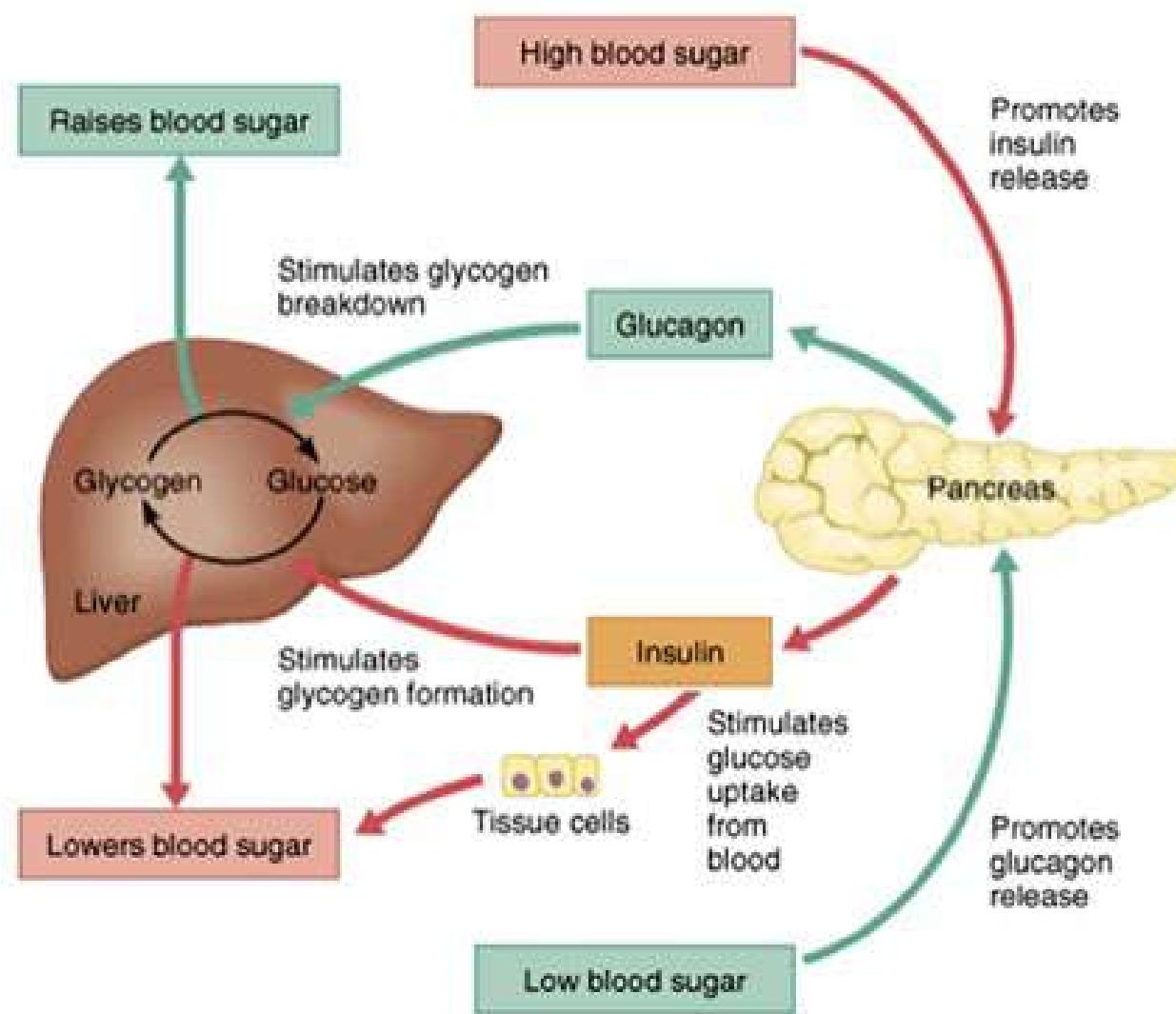
A cell targets itself.



Types of Intercellular Communication

4. Endocrine Signaling

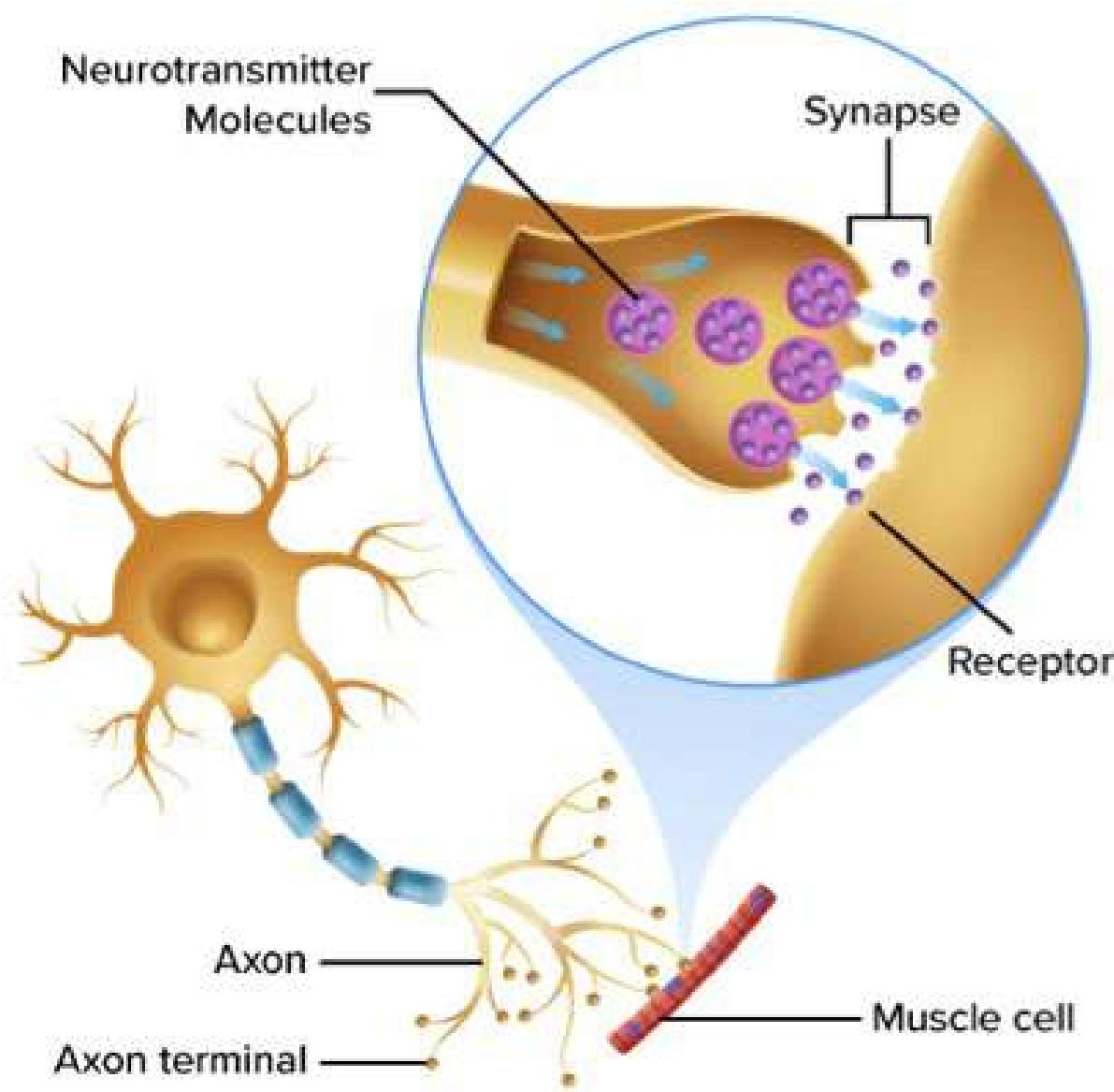
Hormones are released into the bloodstream and act on **distant targets** (e.g., insulin from the pancreas regulating blood glucose).



Types of Intercellular Communication

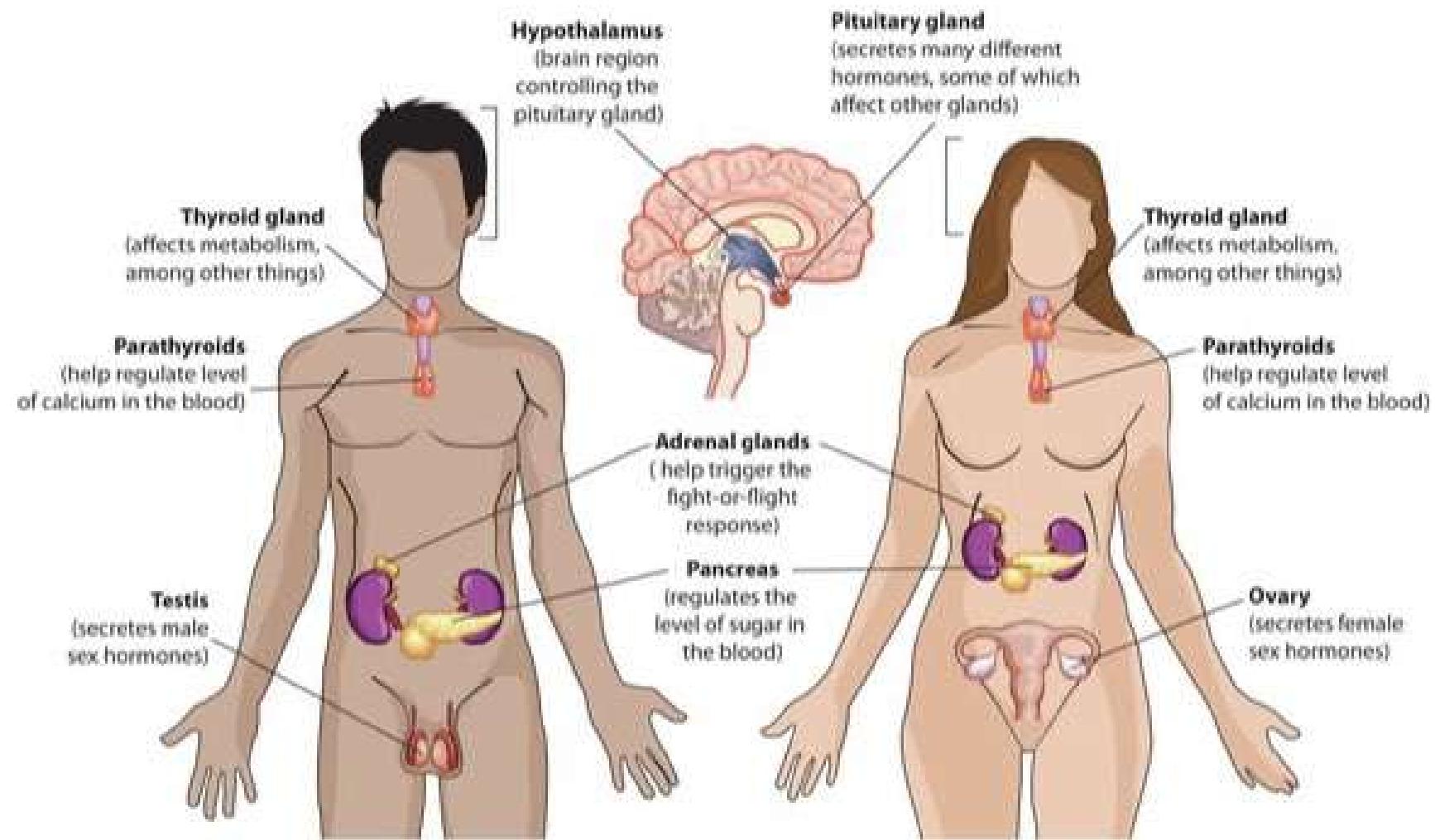
5. Synaptic (Neuronal) Signaling

Neurotransmitters are released from nerve cells to transmit signals across synapses (e.g., acetylcholine in muscle contraction).



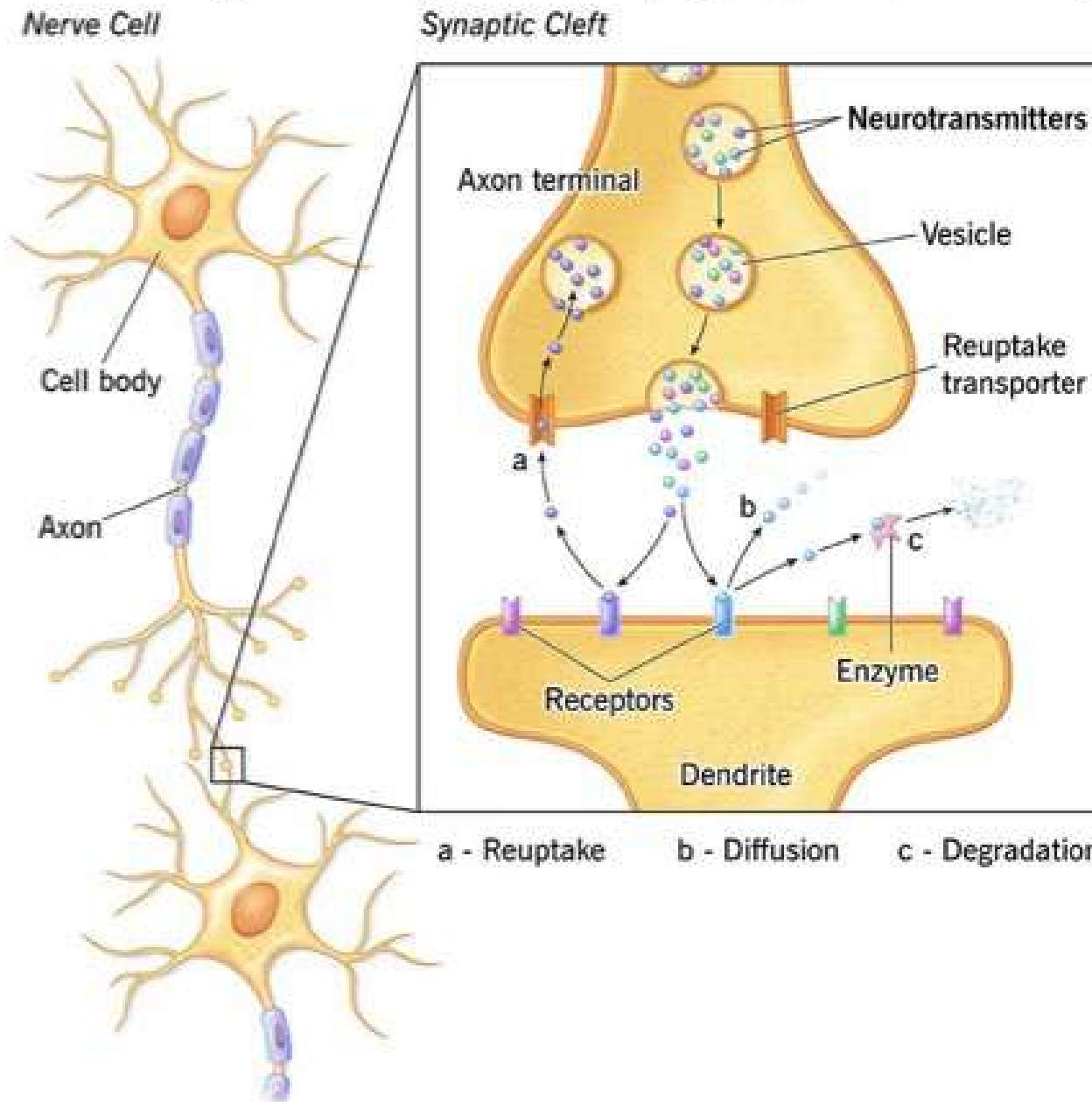
Key Signaling Molecules

Hormones: Chemical messengers secreted by endocrine glands (e.g., insulin, adrenaline).



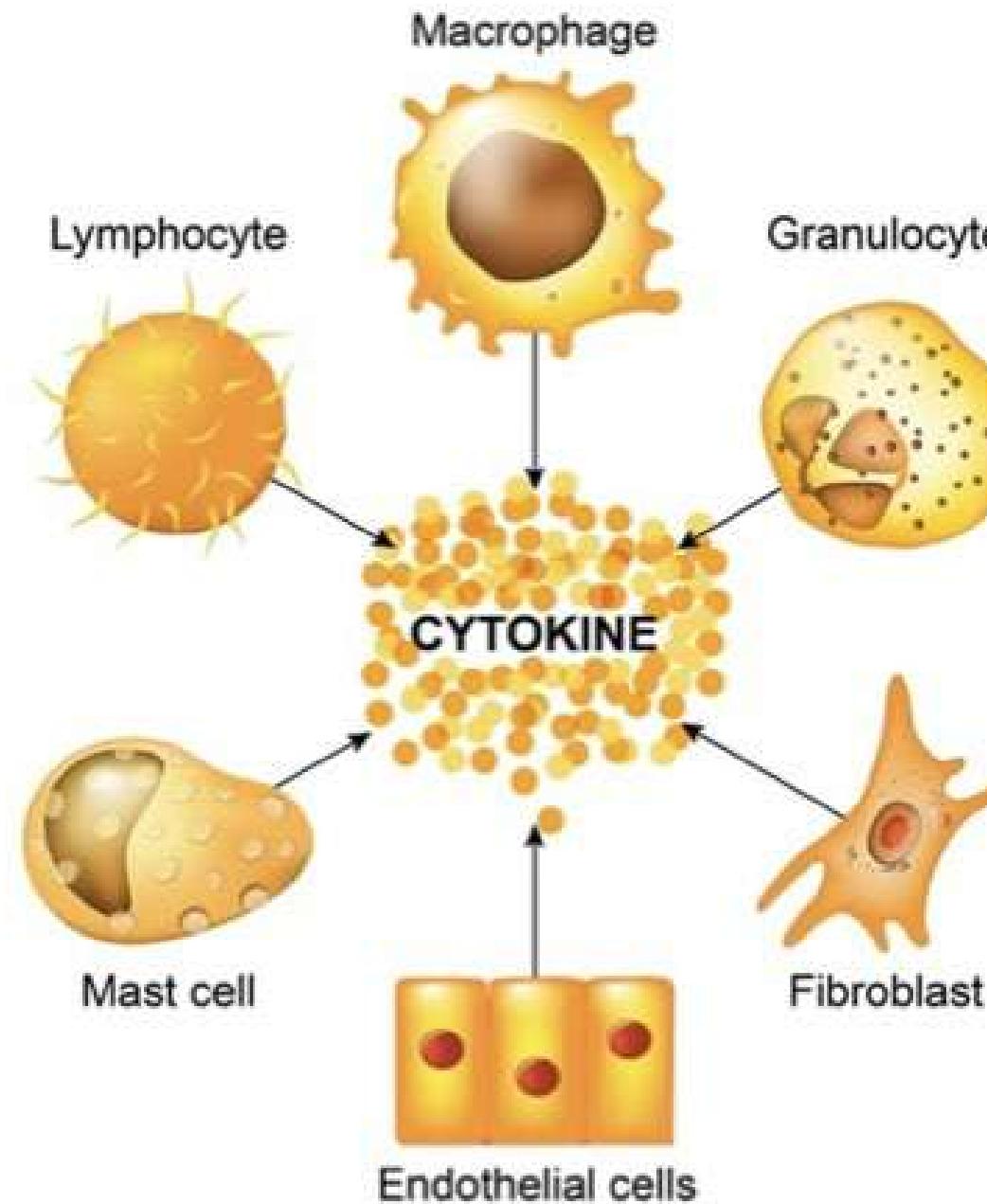
Key Signaling Molecules

Neurotransmitters: Chemical signals used by nerve cells (e.g., dopamine, serotonin).



Key Signaling Molecules

Cytokines: Molecules that regulate immune responses.



Key Signaling Molecules

Growth Factors: Proteins that control cell growth and repair.



✓ hydrogel material,
wound dressing
VEGF, NTs, FGFs



✓ chronic wounds healing
FGFs



✓ neurodegenerative diseases treatment
■ Alzheimer's disease
● Parkinson's disease
NTs, VEGF



✓ age-related retina degeneration
diabetic and retinopathy treatment
VEGF, NT

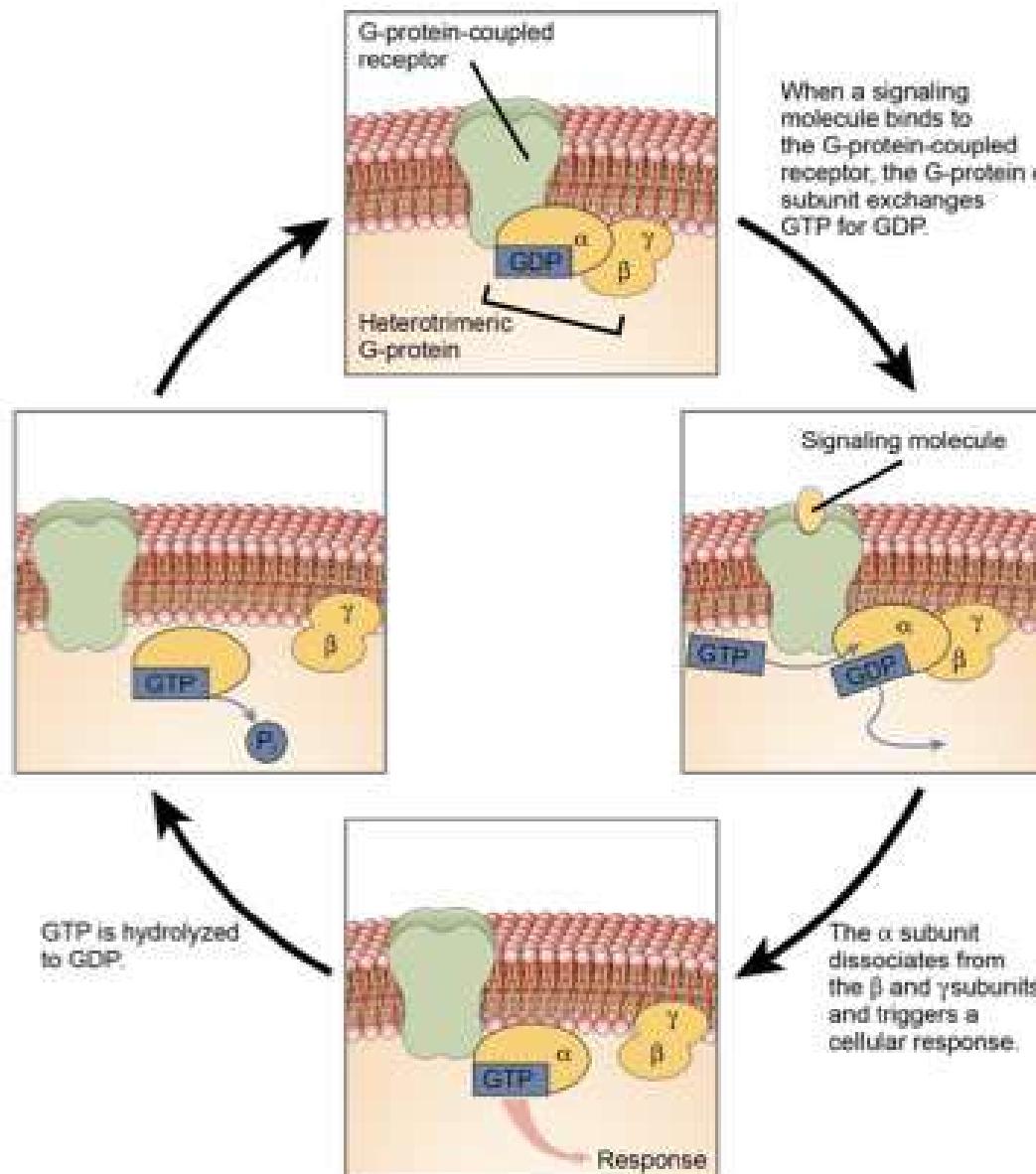


✓ obesity treatment
FGFs



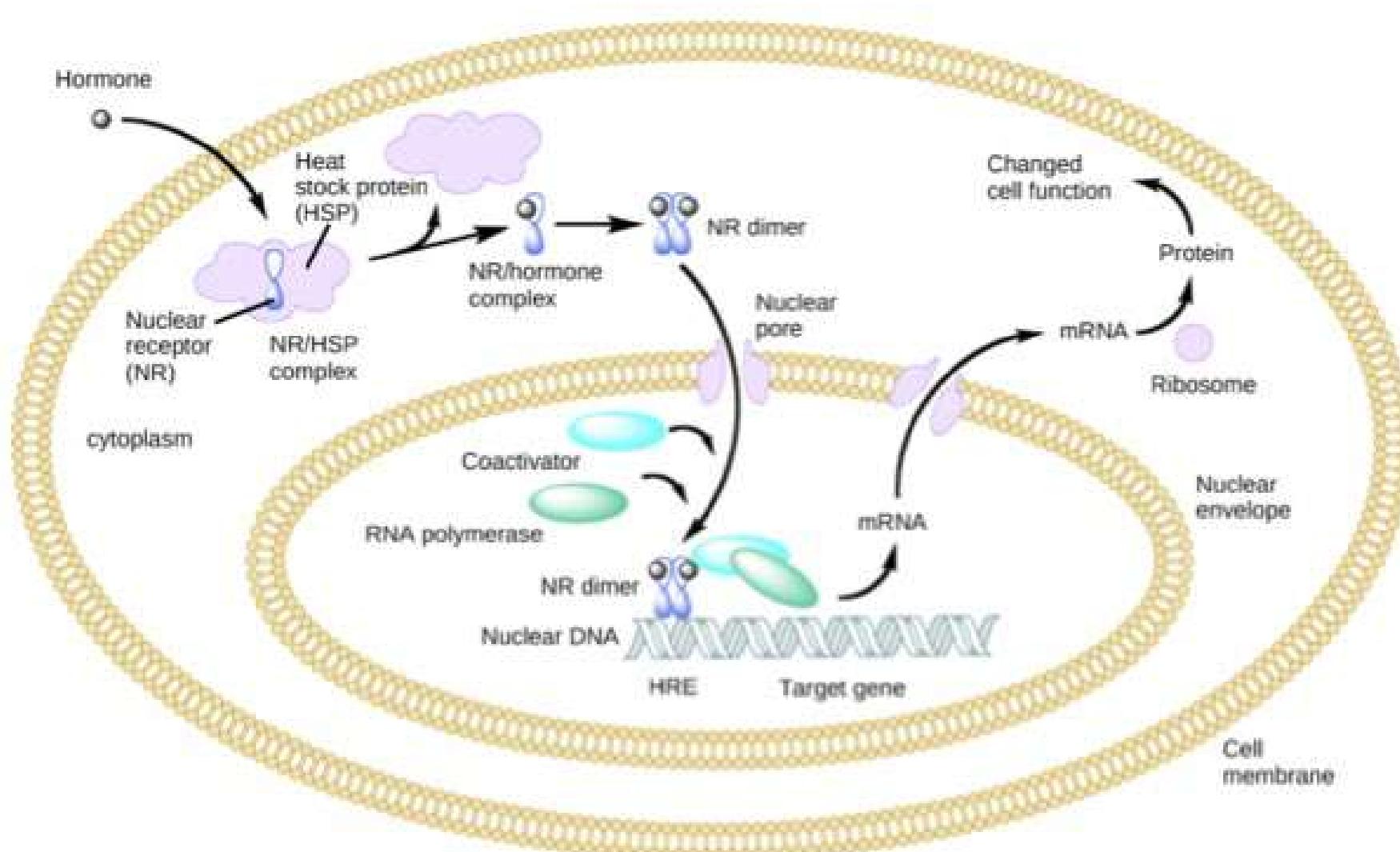
Receptor Types and Signal Transduction

Cell-Surface Receptors: Detect signals from outside the cell and trigger an internal response (e.g., G-protein-coupled receptors).



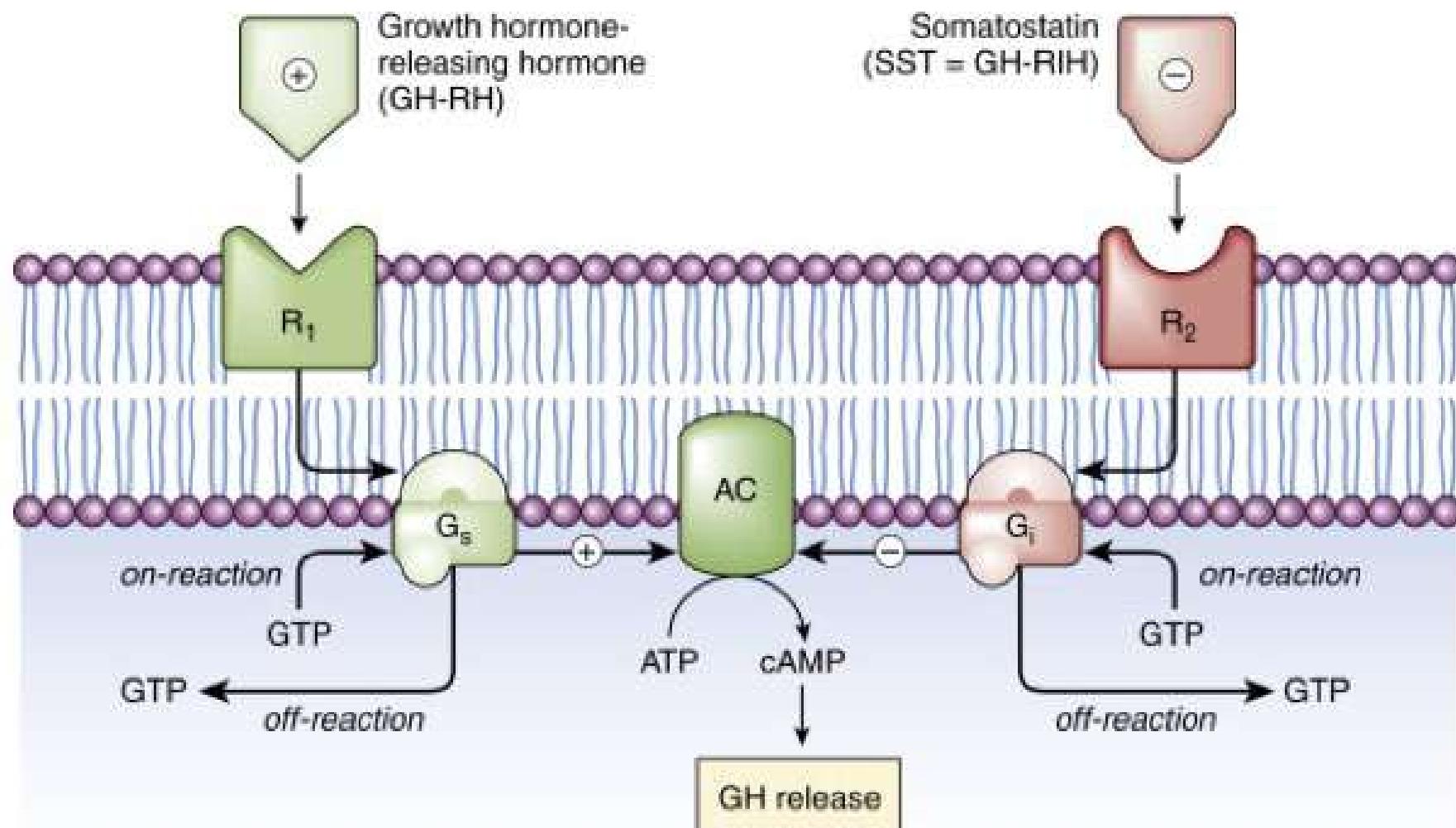
Receptor Types and Signal Transduction

Intracellular Receptors: Located inside the cell; activated by lipid-soluble signals like steroid hormones.



Receptor Types and Signal Transduction

Second Messenger Systems: Relay signals inside the cell (e.g., cAMP pathway).



Conclusion

- Mammalian cells are the basic units of life, with specialized structures and functions.
- Homeostasis is essential for maintaining a stable internal environment, using feedback mechanisms.
- Intercellular communication ensures coordination between cells through chemical and electrical signals.