

Lecture Series 5
Cell Cycle & Cell Division

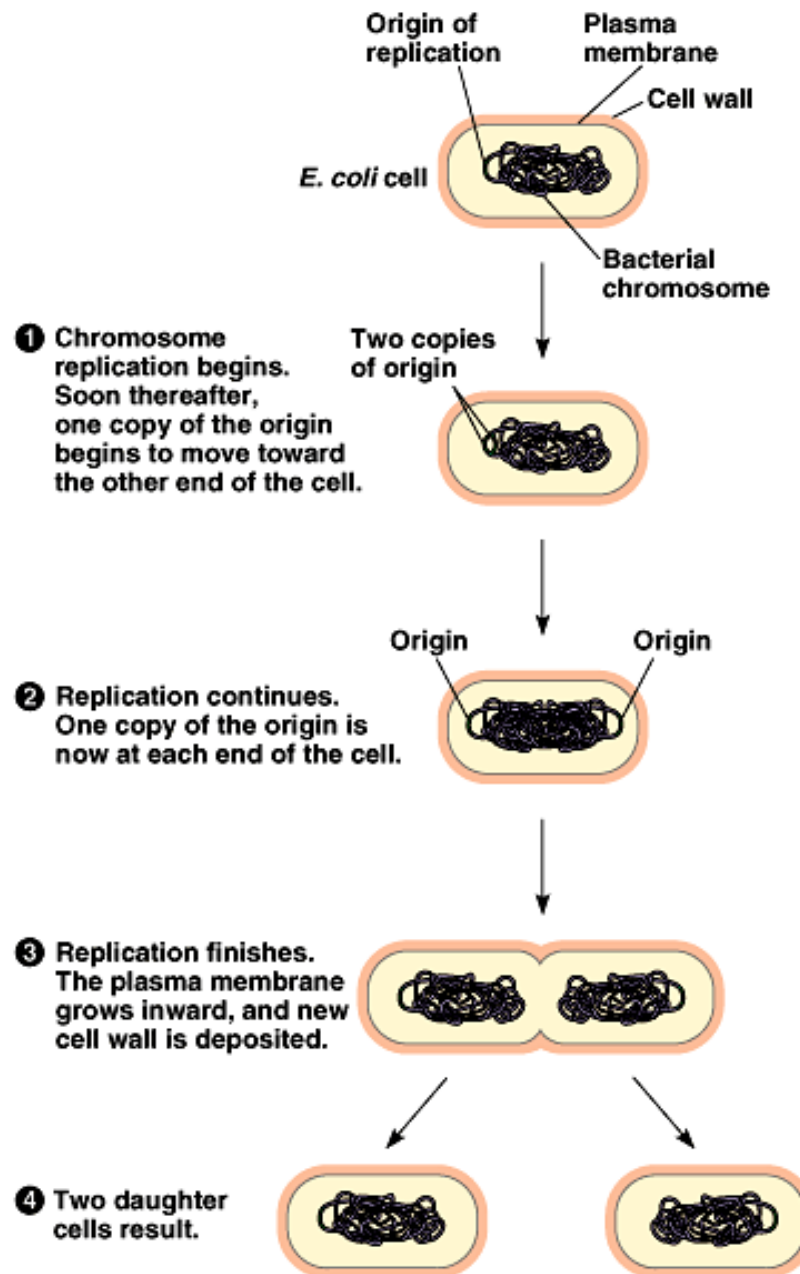
Reading Assignments

- Read Chapter 18
Cell Cycle & Cell Death
- Read Chapter 19
Cell Division
- Read Chapter 20
pages 659-672 only
(Benefits of Sex & Meiosis sections)

A. Systems of Cell Division

- Cell division is necessary for reproduction, growth, and repair of an organism.
- Cell division must be initiated by three steps: DNA replication, DNA separation, and then division of the cytoplasm.
- In prokaryotes, cellular DNA is a single molecule, or chromosome. Prokaryotes reproduce by cell fission aka binary fission.
- In eukaryotes, nuclei divide by either mitosis or meiosis.

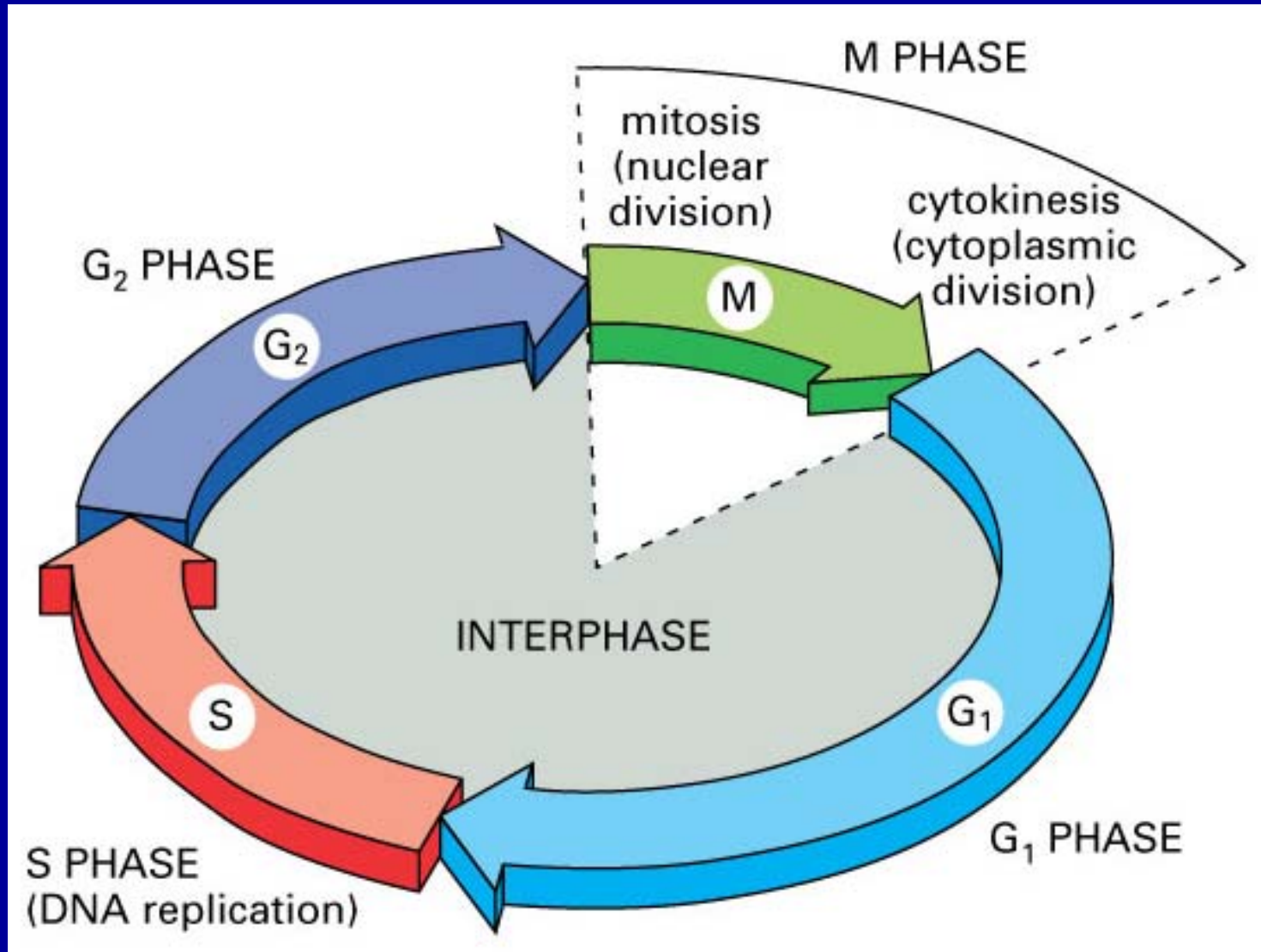
Bacterial cell division (binary fission):



B. Interphase and the Control of Cell Division

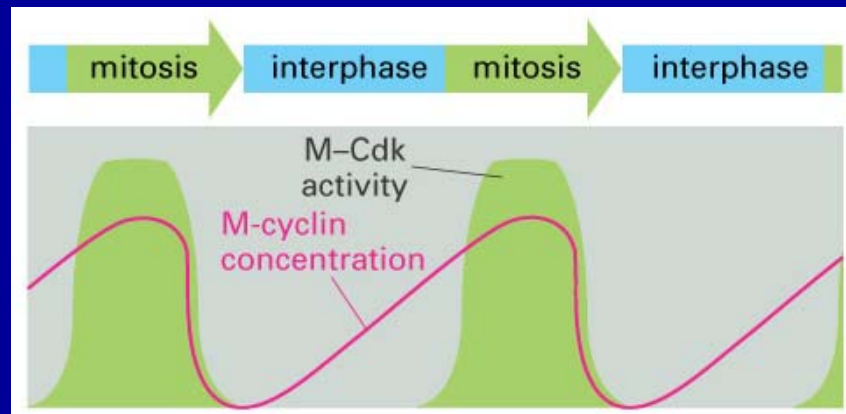
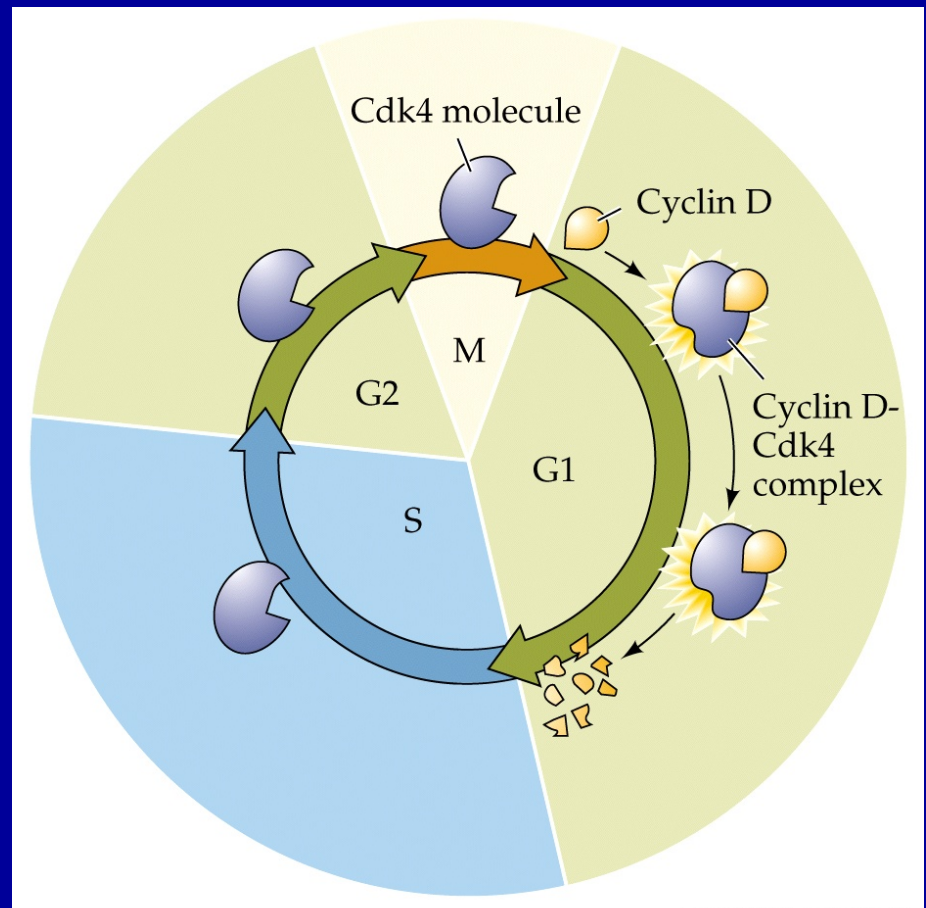
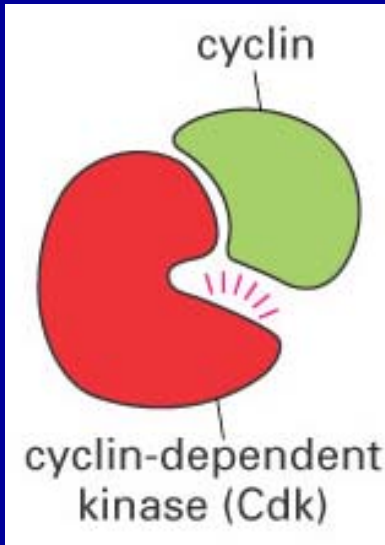
- The mitotic cell cycle has two main phases: interphase and mitosis.
- Interphase is the period between divisions in the cytoplasm.
- During most of the cell cycle the cell is in interphase, which is divided into three subphases: S, G₁, and G₂.
- DNA is replicated during S phase.

The mitotic cell cycle



B. Interphase and the Control of Cell Division

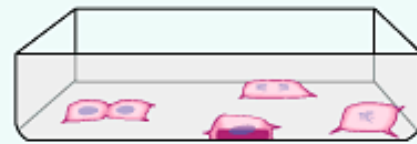
- Cyclin-Cdk complexes regulate the passage of cells from G1 into S phase and from G2 into M phase.
- Cyclin binding to Cdk exposes the active site of the protein kinase but breaks down quickly.
- These complexes act as checkpoints regulating the cells progression through the cell cycle.



B. Interphase and the Control of Cell Division

- In addition to the internal cyclin-Cdk complexes, external controls to the cell, such as growth factors and hormones, can also stimulate a division cycle.
- Cancer cells often have defective Cyclin-Cdk complexes or lose external control over their growth factors.

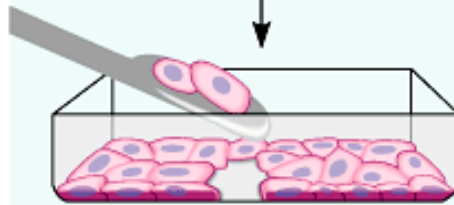
Density-dependent inhibition of cell division



Cells anchor to dish surface and divide (anchorage dependence).



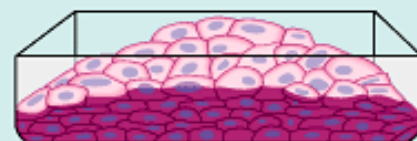
When cells have formed a complete single layer, they stop dividing (density-dependent inhibition).



If some cells are scraped away, the remaining cells divide to fill the gap and then stop (density-dependent inhibition).



(a) Normal mammalian cells



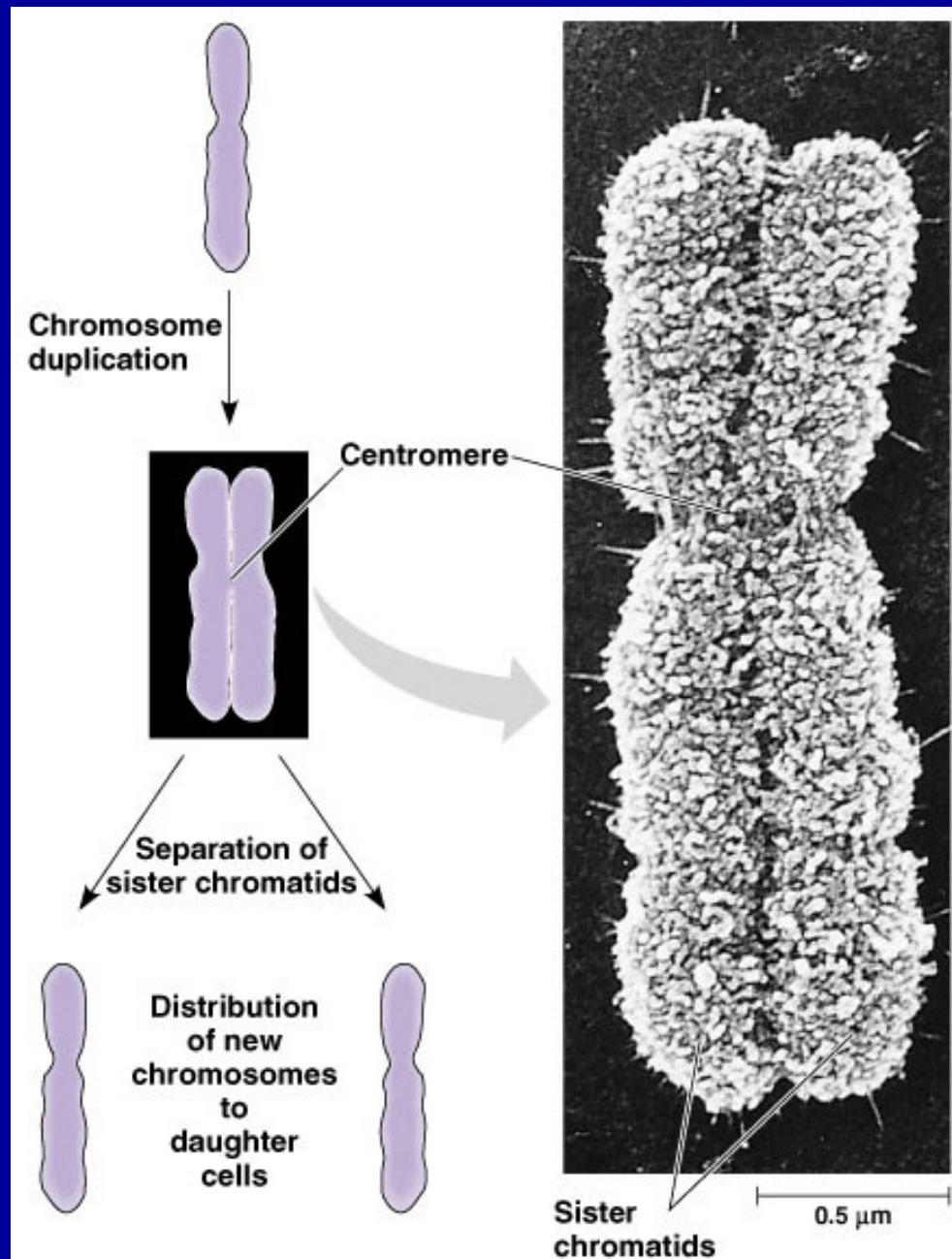
Cancer cells do not exhibit anchorage dependence or density-dependent inhibition.

(b) Cancer cells

C. Eukaryotic Chromosomes

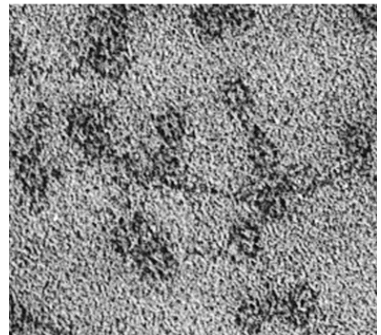
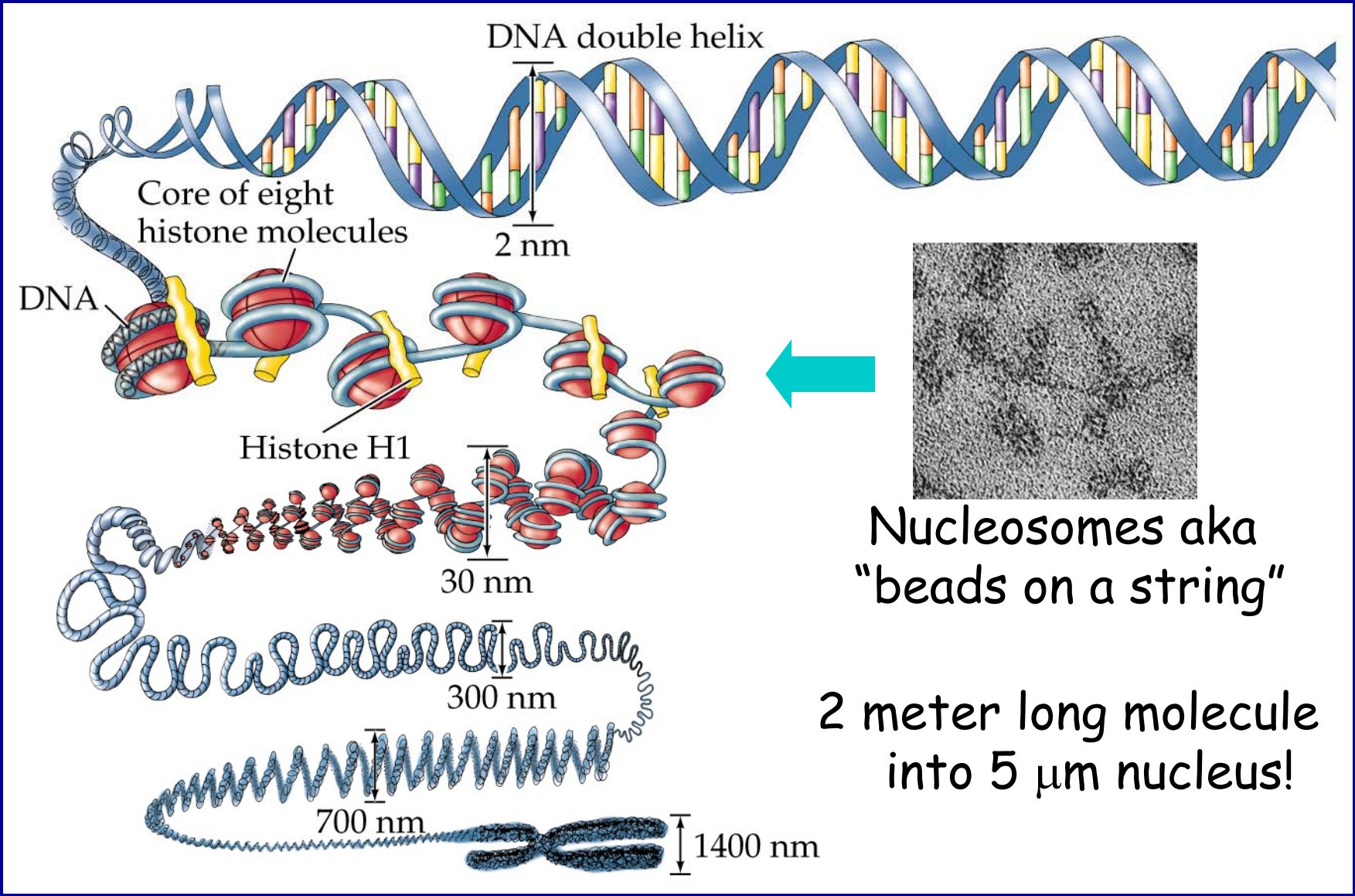
- Chromosomes contain DNA and proteins. At mitosis, chromosomes initially appear double because two sister chromatids are held together at the centromere.
- Each sister chromatid consists of one double-stranded DNA molecule complexed with proteins and referred to as chromatin.

Chromosome duplication and distribution during mitosis



C. Eukaryotic Chromosomes

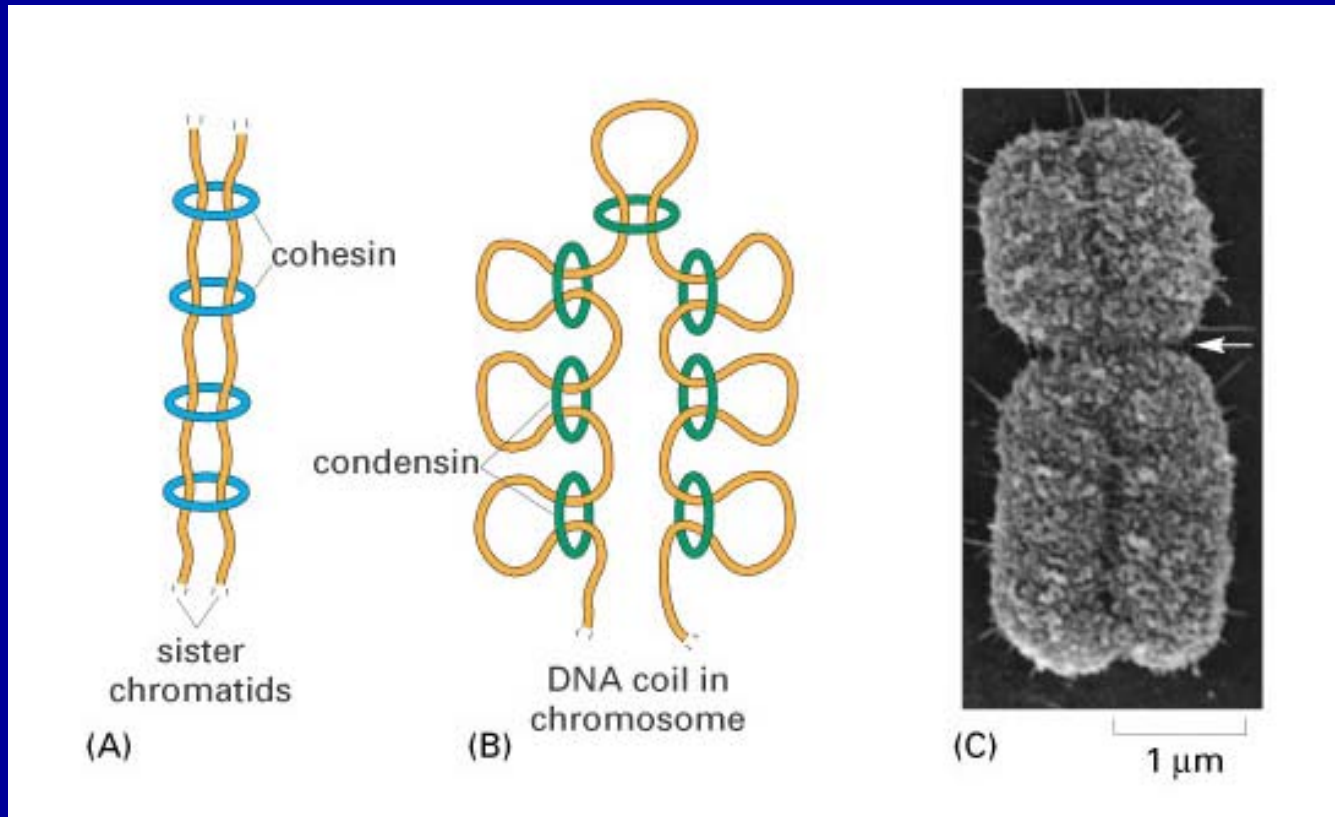
- During interphase, DNA in chromatin is wound around histone core proteins to form nucleosomes.
- DNA folds repeatedly, packing within the nucleus. When mitotic chromosomes form, it supercoils and condenses even more.



Nucleosomes aka "beads on a string"

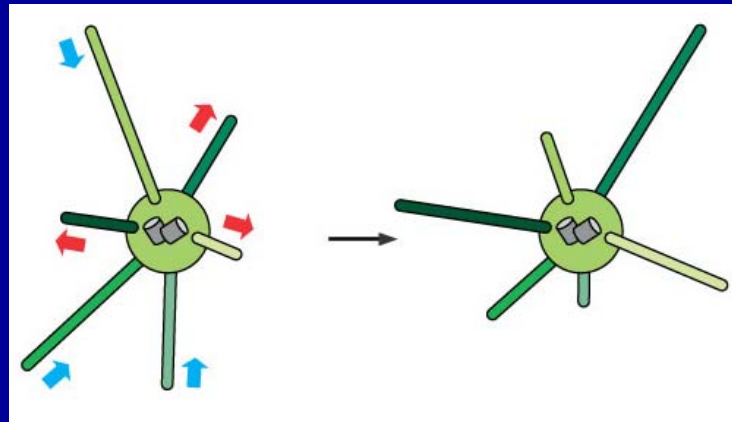
2 meter long molecule into 5 μm nucleus!

Cohesins and condensins help prepare replicated chromosomes for mitosis.

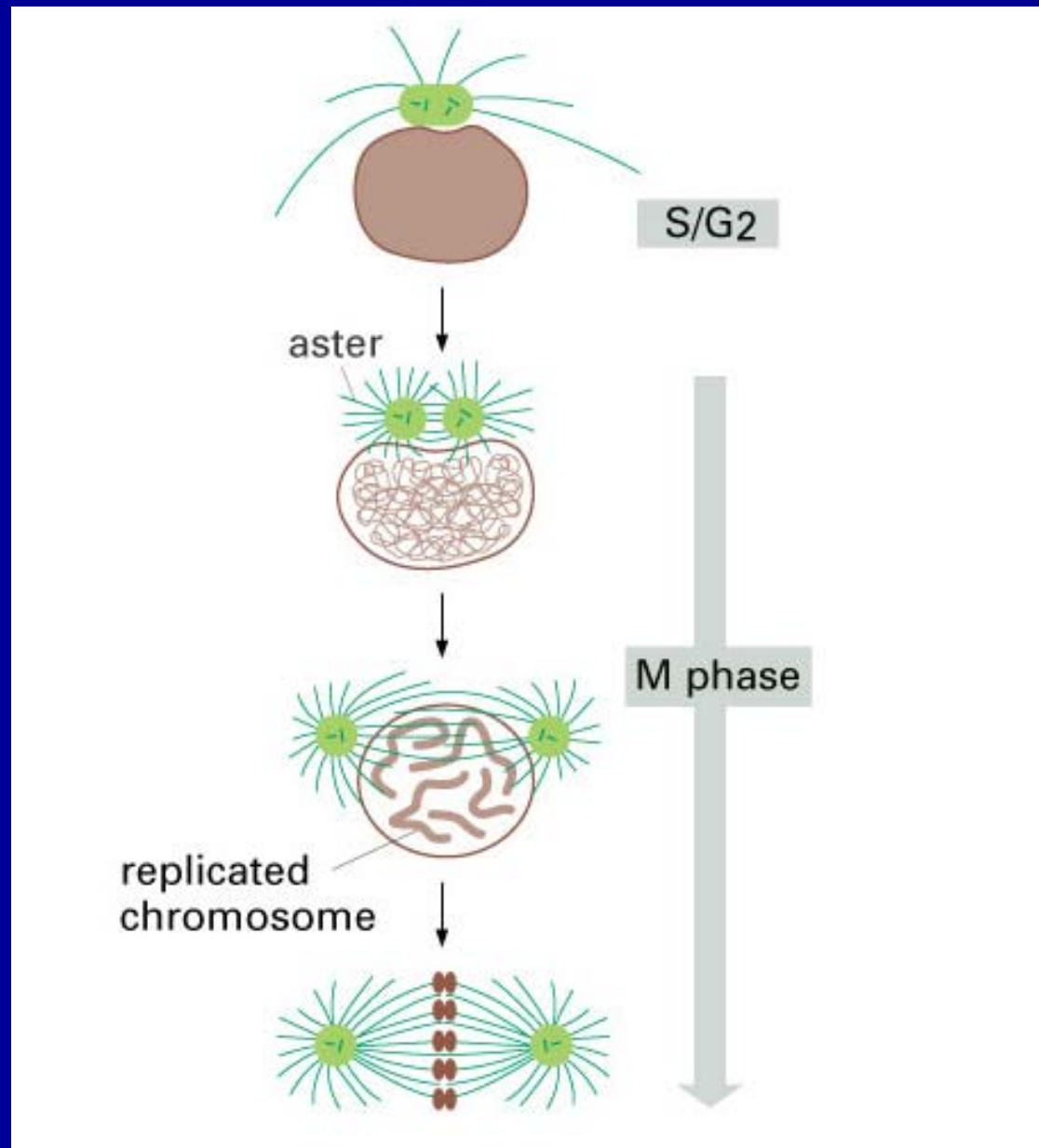


D. Mitosis: Distributing Exact Copies of Genetic Information

- After DNA is replicated during S phase, the first sign of mitosis is the duplication of the centrosome, which initiates microtubule formation for the spindle.
- Rem: dynamic instability.



The centrosome duplicates to form the two poles of a mitotic spindle.



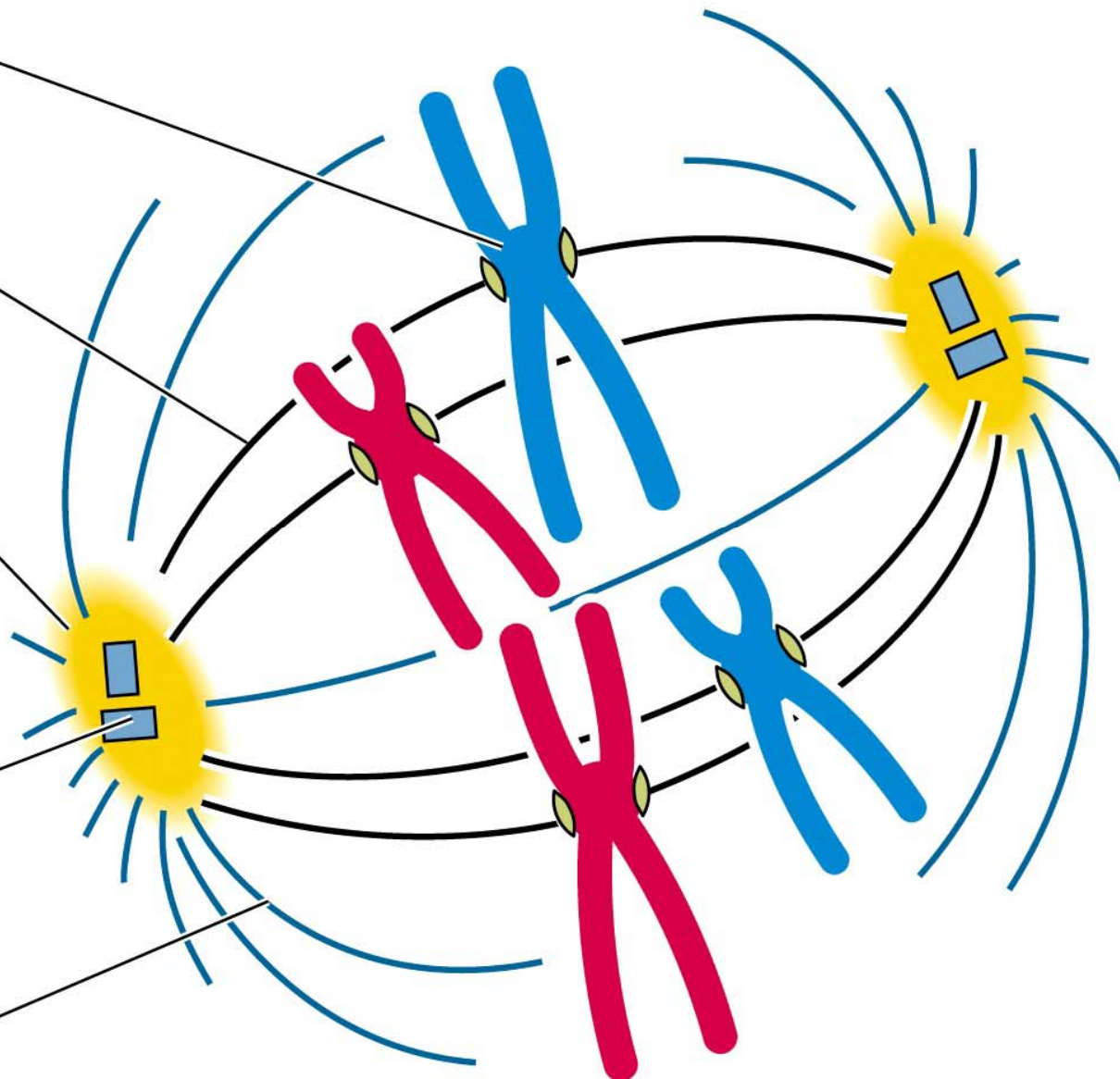
Kinetochores

Kinetochores
microtubule

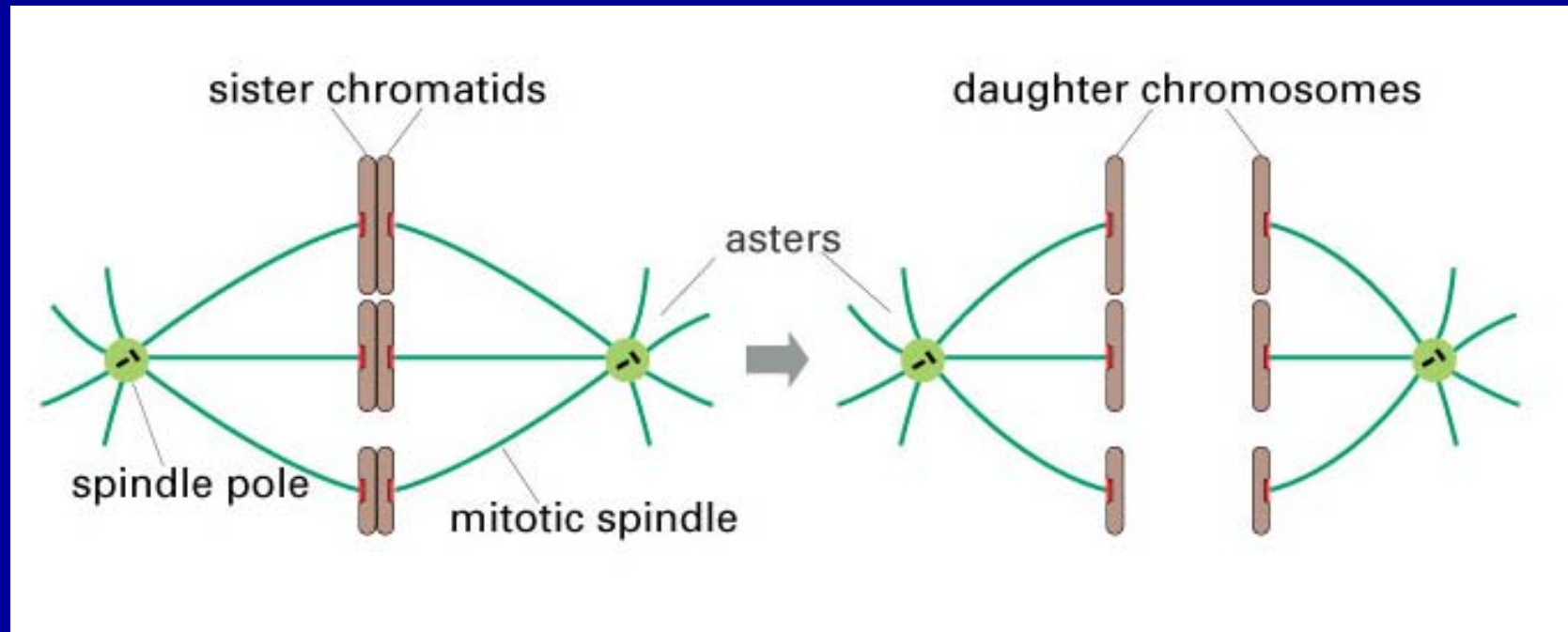
Mitotic center
(centrosome)

Centrioles

Polar
microtubule



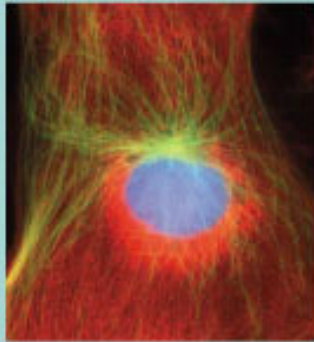
Each pair of sister chromatids separates to become two daughter chromosomes.



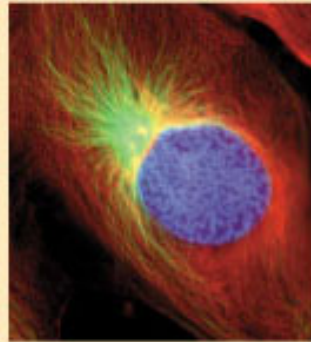
D. Mitosis: Distributing Exact Copies of Genetic Information

- Mitosis is continuous, but can be divided into 5 stages: prophase, prometaphase, metaphase, anaphase, and telophase.
- Cytokinesis occurs in the 6th stage, overlapping with the end of mitosis.

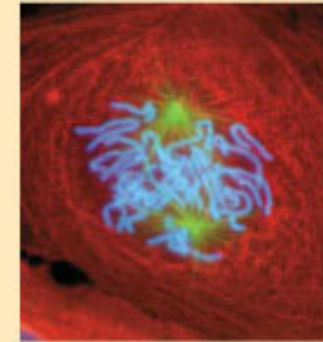
Mitotic cell division stages (animal cell): prophase; prometaphase.



G₂ OF INTERPHASE

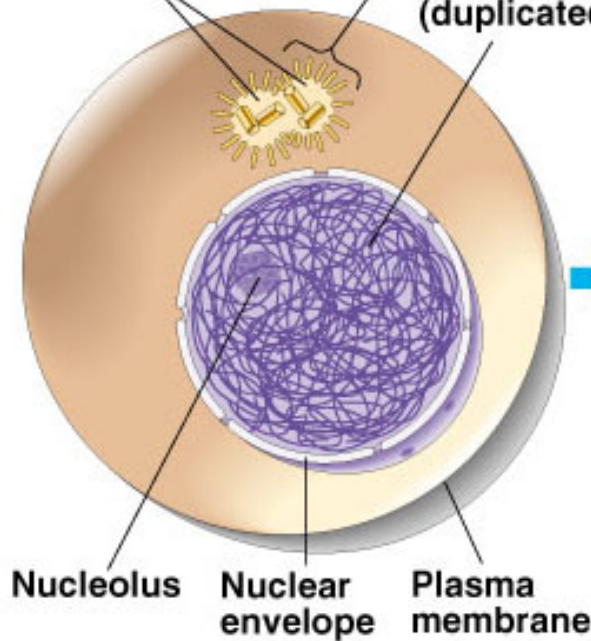


PROPHASE

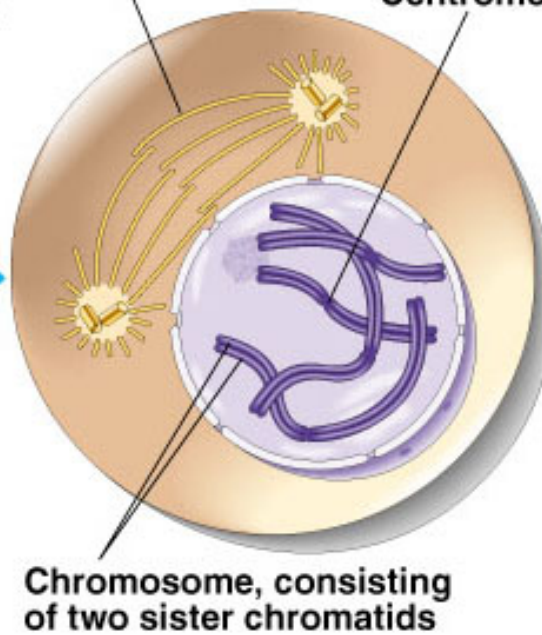


PROMETAPHASE

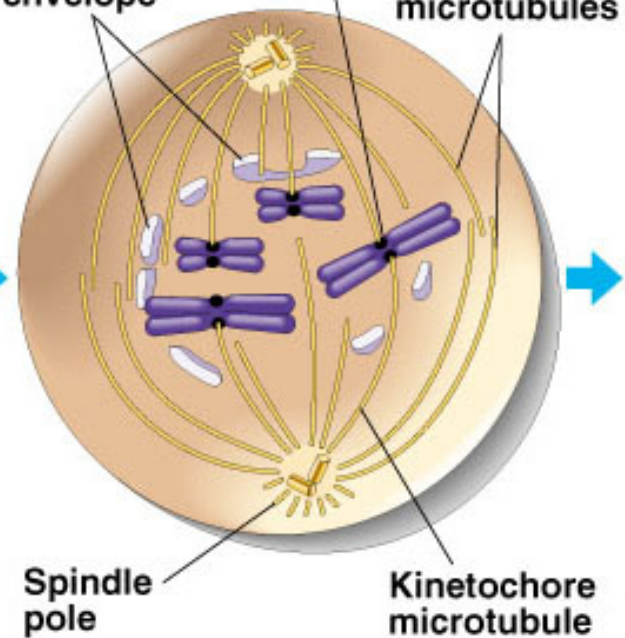
Centrosomes (with centriole pairs) Aster Chromatin (duplicated)



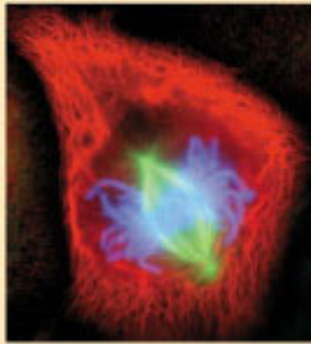
Early mitotic spindle Centromere



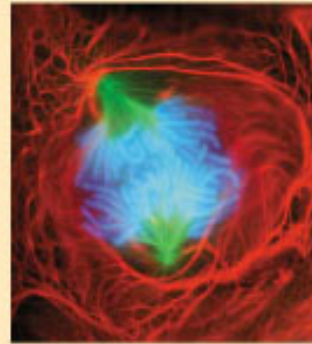
Fragments of nuclear envelope Kinetochores Nonkinetochore microtubules



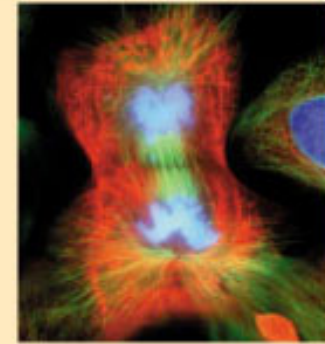
Mitotic cell division stages (animal cell): metaphase; anaphase; telophase.



METAPHASE

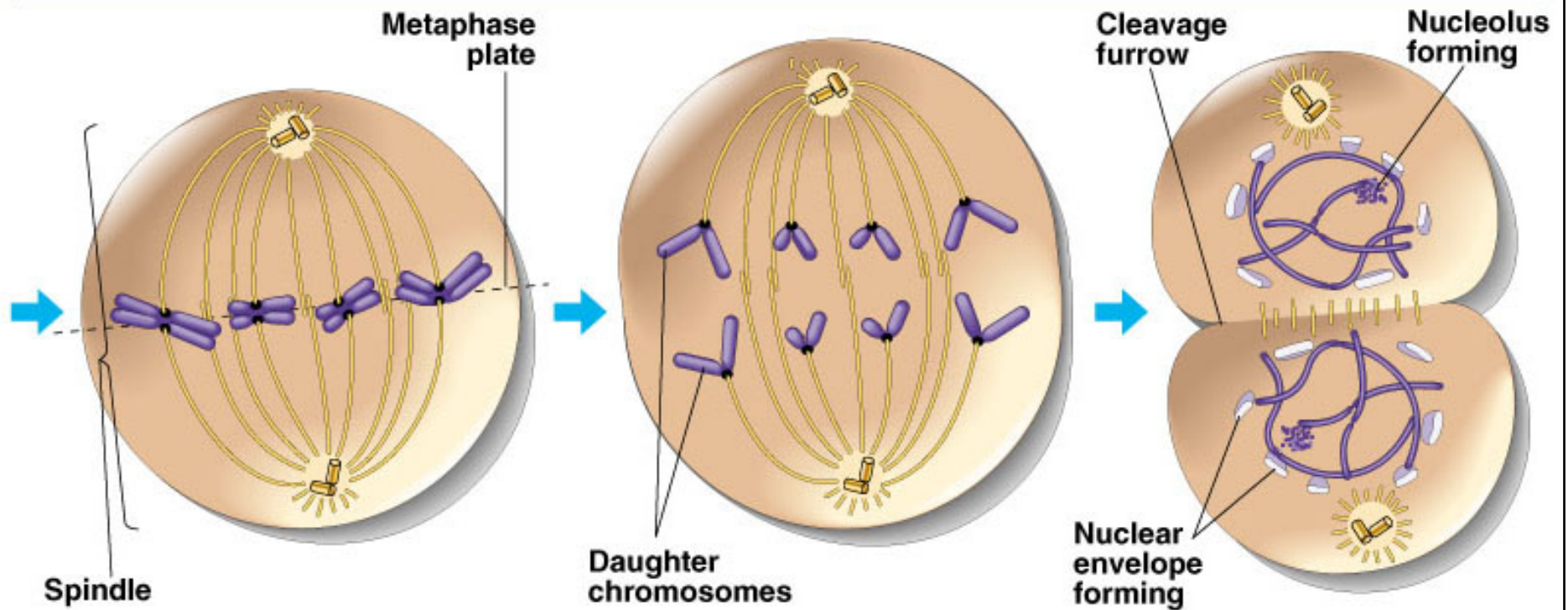


ANAPHASE



25 μm

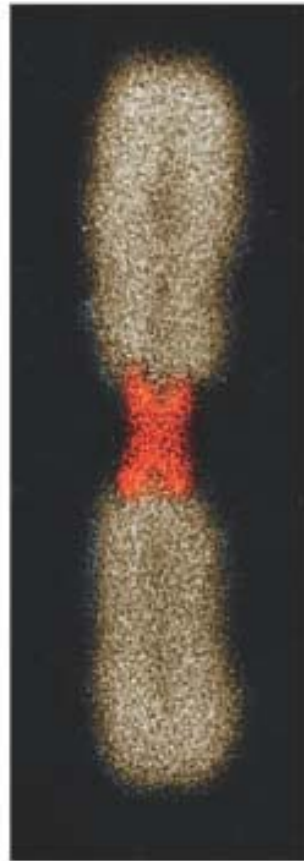
TELOPHASE AND CYTOKINESIS



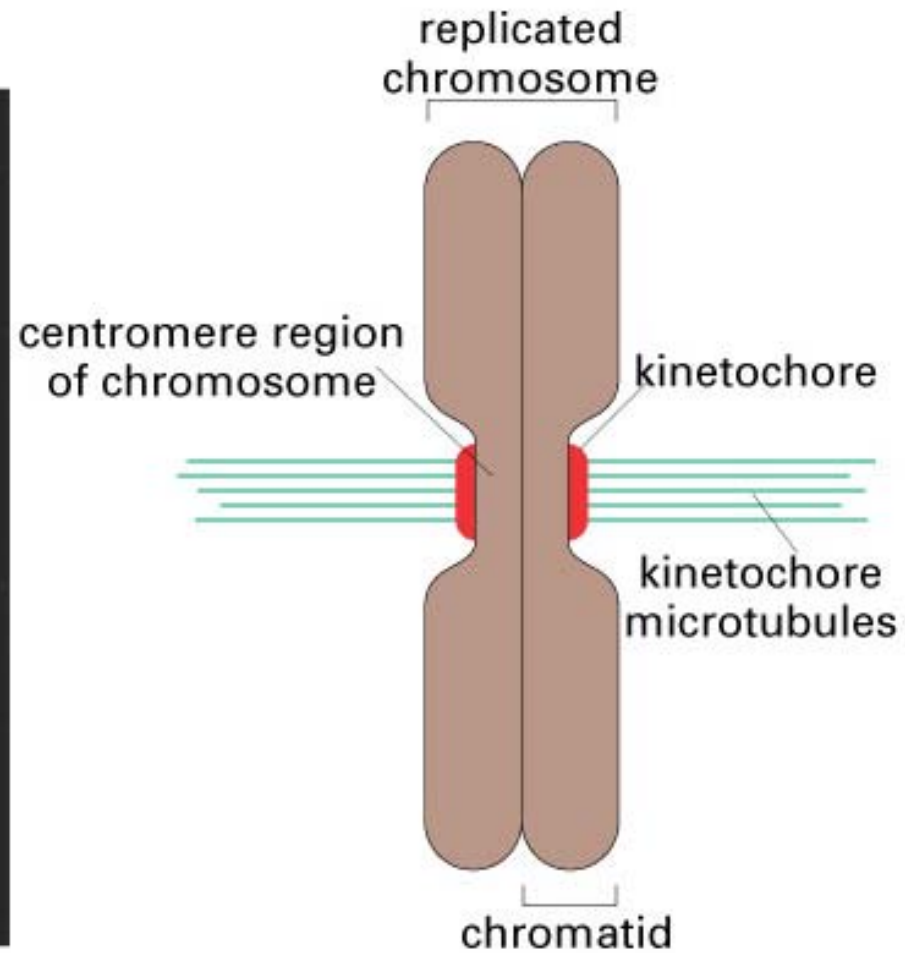
D. Mitosis: Distributing Exact Copies of Genetic Information

- During prophase, the chromosomes condense and appear as paired chromatids.
- During prometaphase, the chromosomes move toward the middle of the spindle. The nuclear envelope breaks down. Kinetochore microtubules appear and attach the kinetochores to the centrosomes.

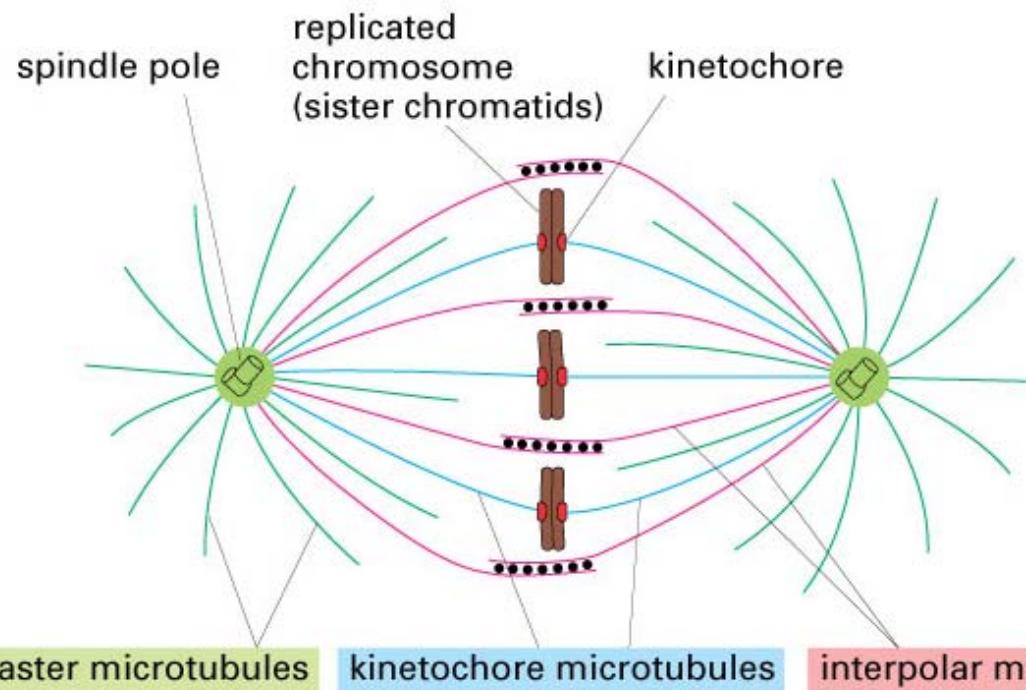
The centromere region of a chromosome.



(A)

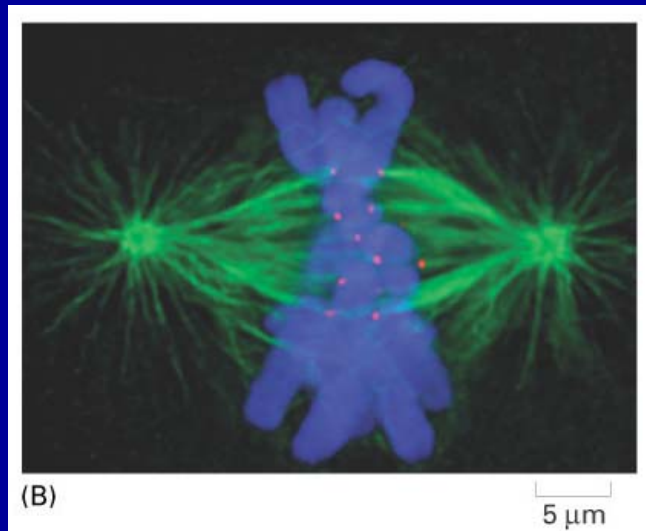


(B)



(A)

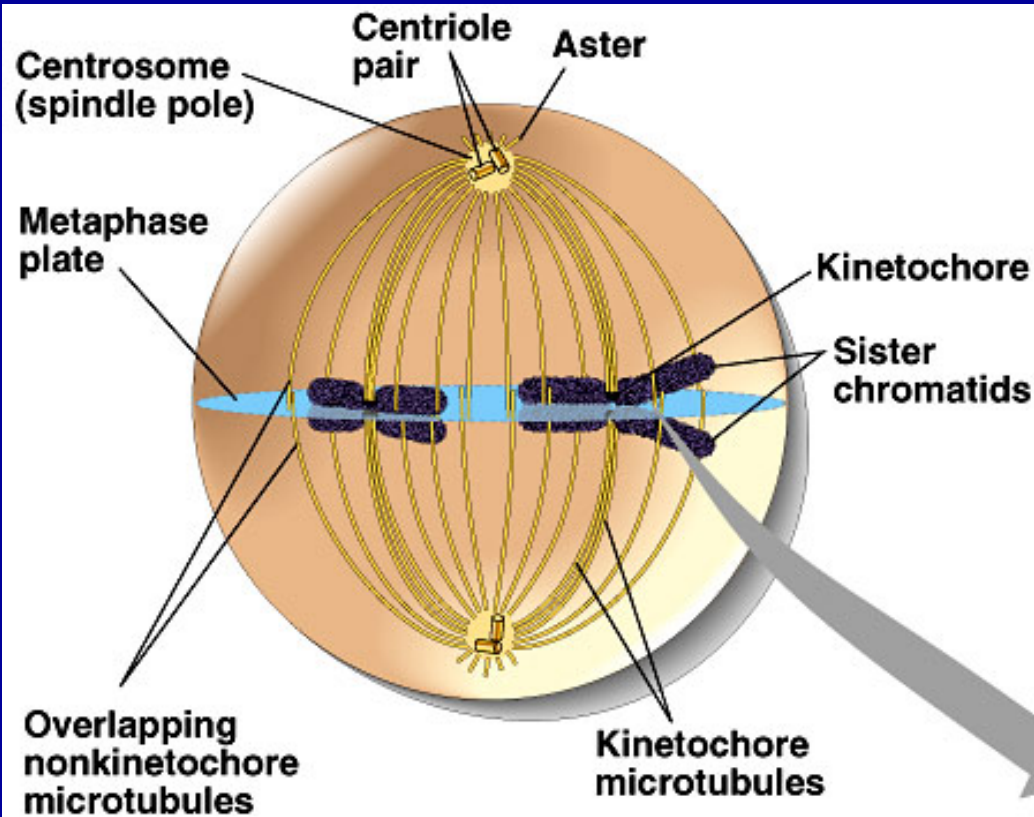
Three classes of microtubules make up the mitotic spindle



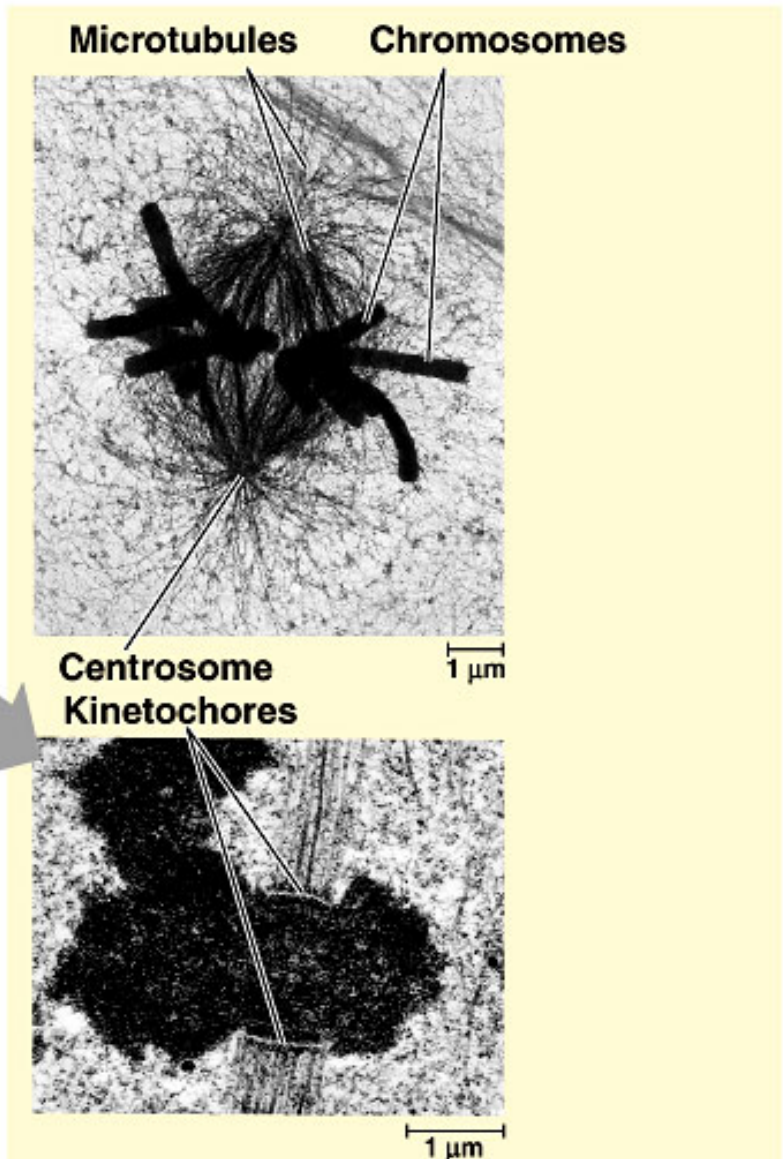
D. Mitosis: Distributing Exact Copies of Genetic Information

- In metaphase, chromatids gather at the middle of the cell, their centromeres on the metaphase plate.
- In anaphase, the centromeres holding the chromatid pairs together separate. Each member of the pair, now called a daughter chromosome, migrates to its pole along the microtubule track.

The mitotic spindle at metaphase



(a) Diagram of two duplicated chromosomes arrayed at the metaphase plate



(b) Transmission electron micrographs

From Dr. Matthew Schibler, *Photoplasma* 137 (1987):29-44. Reprinted by permission of Springer-Verlag.

D. Mitosis: Distributing Exact Copies of Genetic Information

- During telophase, the chromosomes become less condensed. The nuclear envelopes and nucleoli re-form, producing two nuclei whose chromosomes are identical to each other and to those of the cell that began the cycle.

Mitosis in a plant cell (sans centrosome)



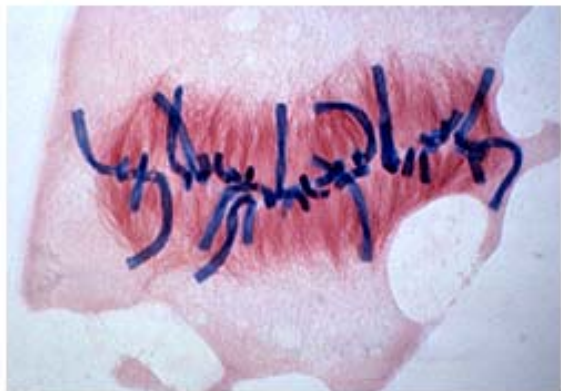
Interphase



Prophase



Prometaphase



Metaphase



Anaphase

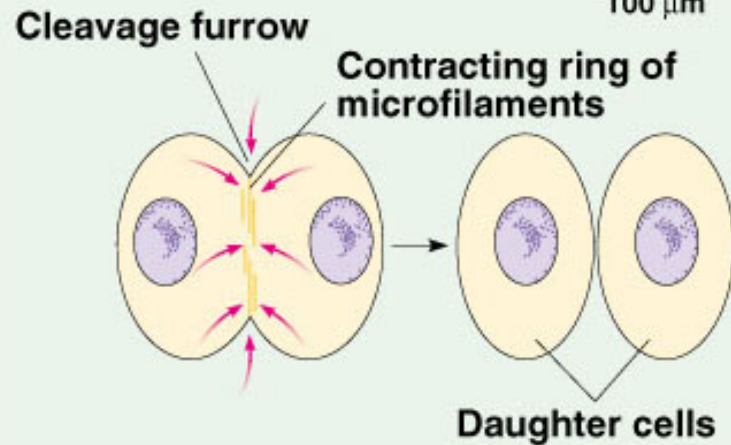
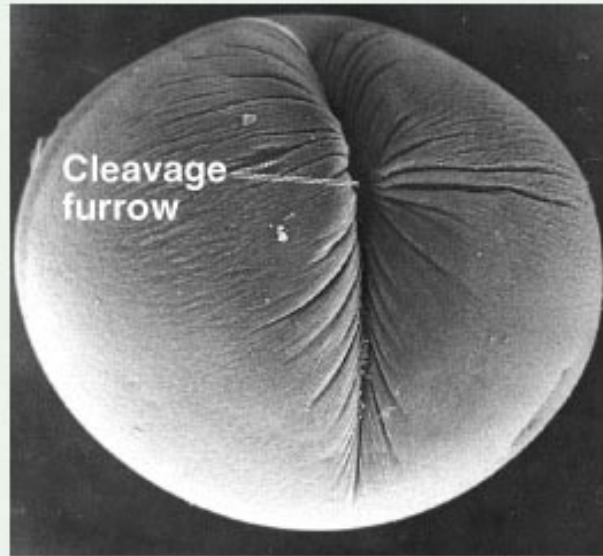


Telophase

E. Cytokinesis: The Division of the Cytoplasm

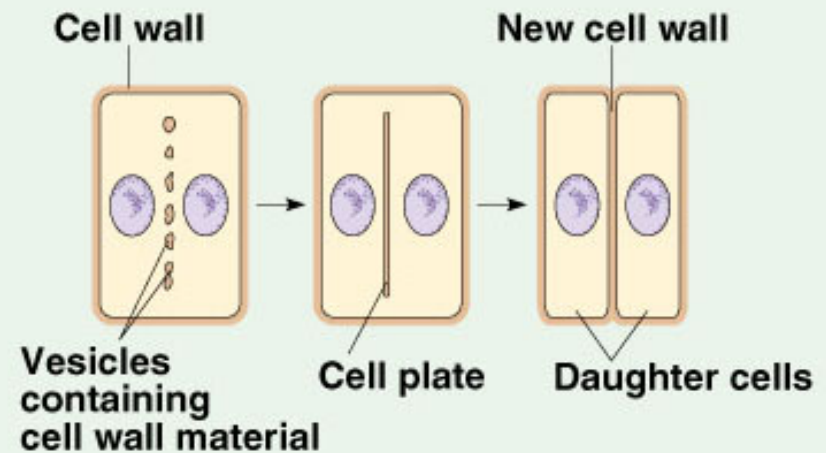
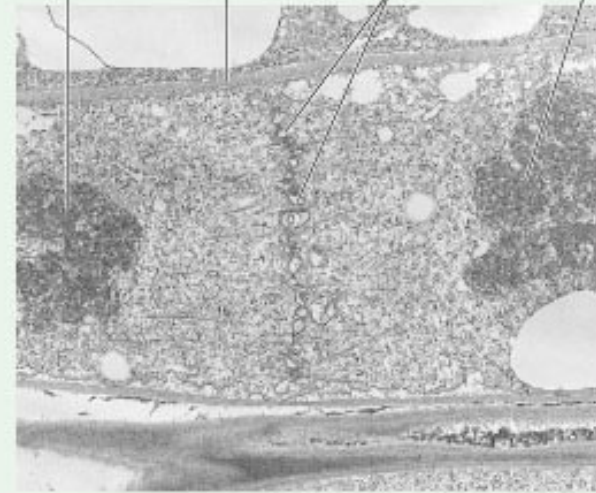
- Cytokinesis usually follows nuclear division. Animal cell cytoplasm usually divides by plasma membrane furrowing caused by contraction of cytoplasmic actin filaments.
- In plant cells, cytokinesis is accomplished by vesicle fusion and the synthesis of new cell wall material by phragmoplast.

Cytokinesis in animal and plant cells



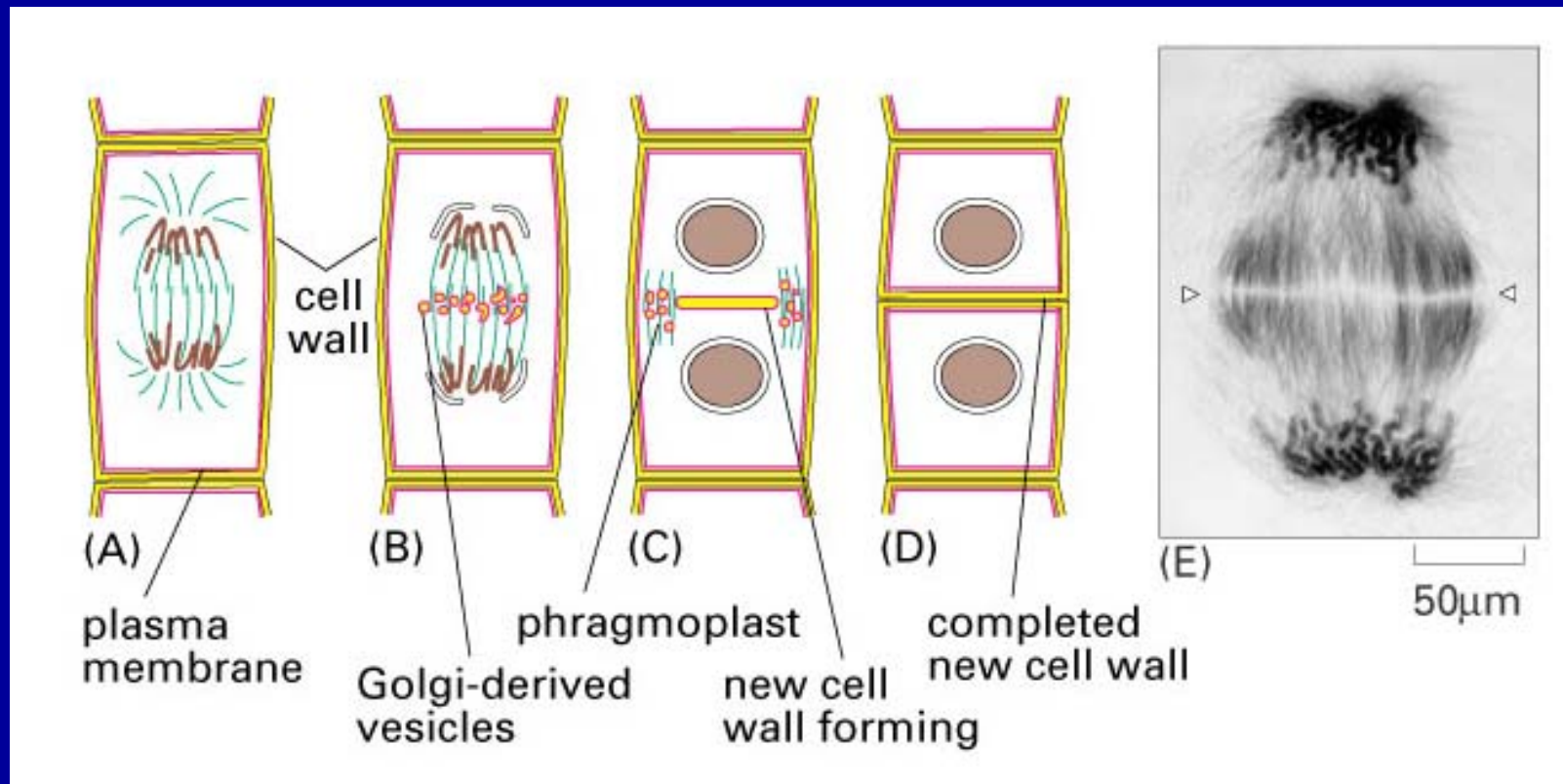
(a) Cleavage of an animal cell

Nucleus of daughter cell Wall of parent cell Vesicles forming cell plate Nucleus of daughter cell

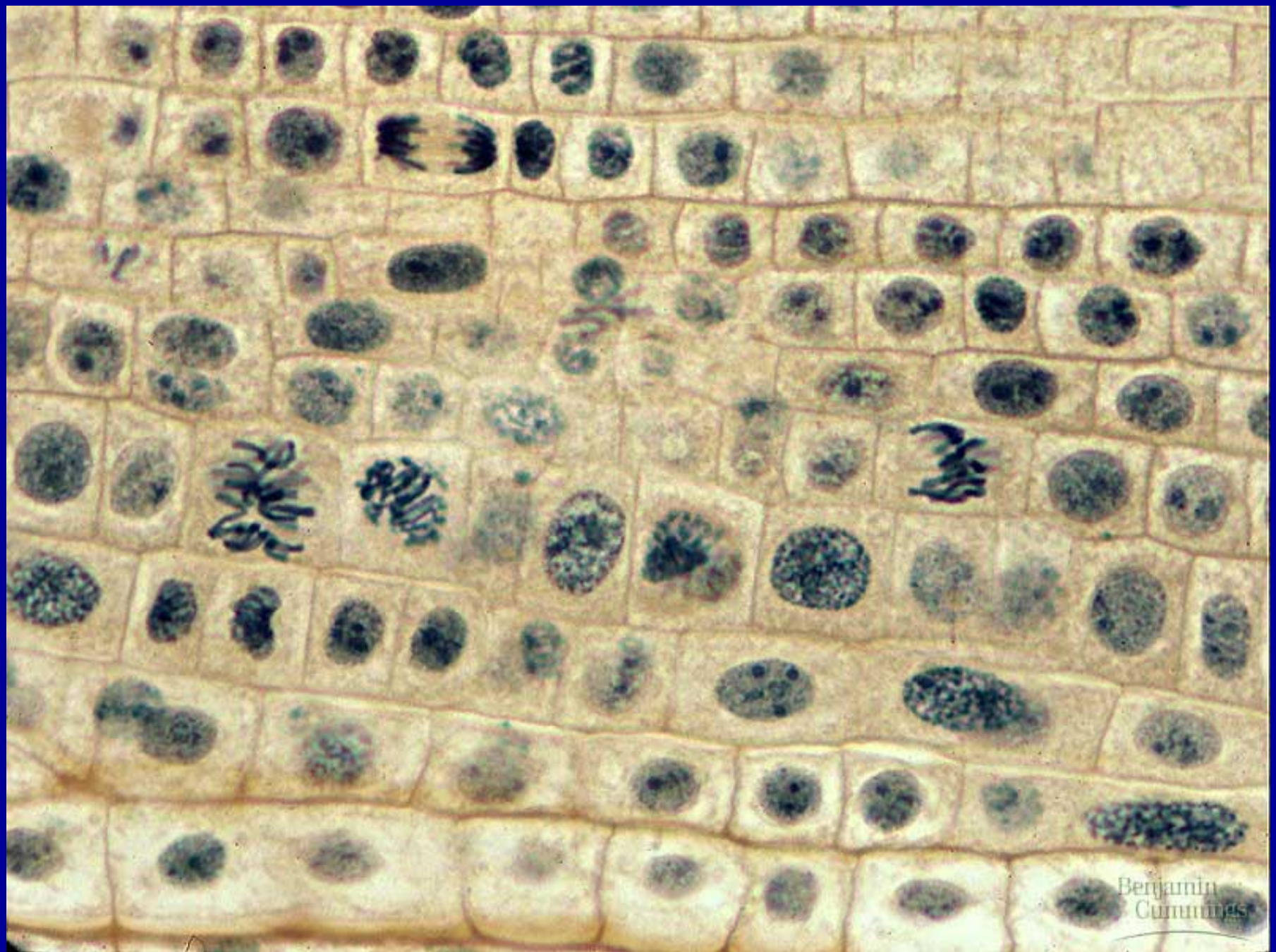


(b) Cell plate formation in a plant cell

Cytokinesis in plant cells is guided by microtubule-based phragmoplast.

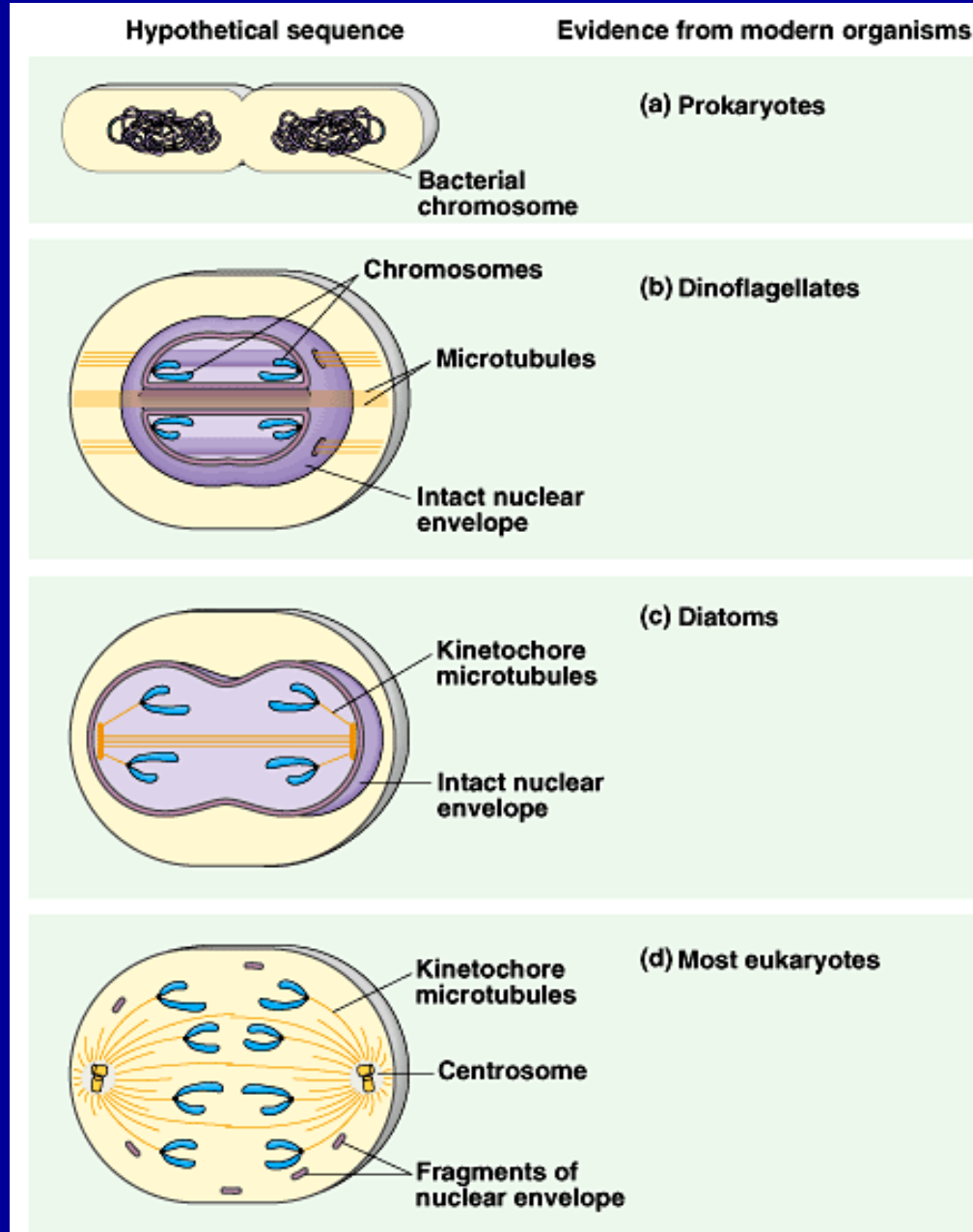


Mitosis in an onion root



Benjamin
Cummings

A hypothesis for the evolution of mitosis



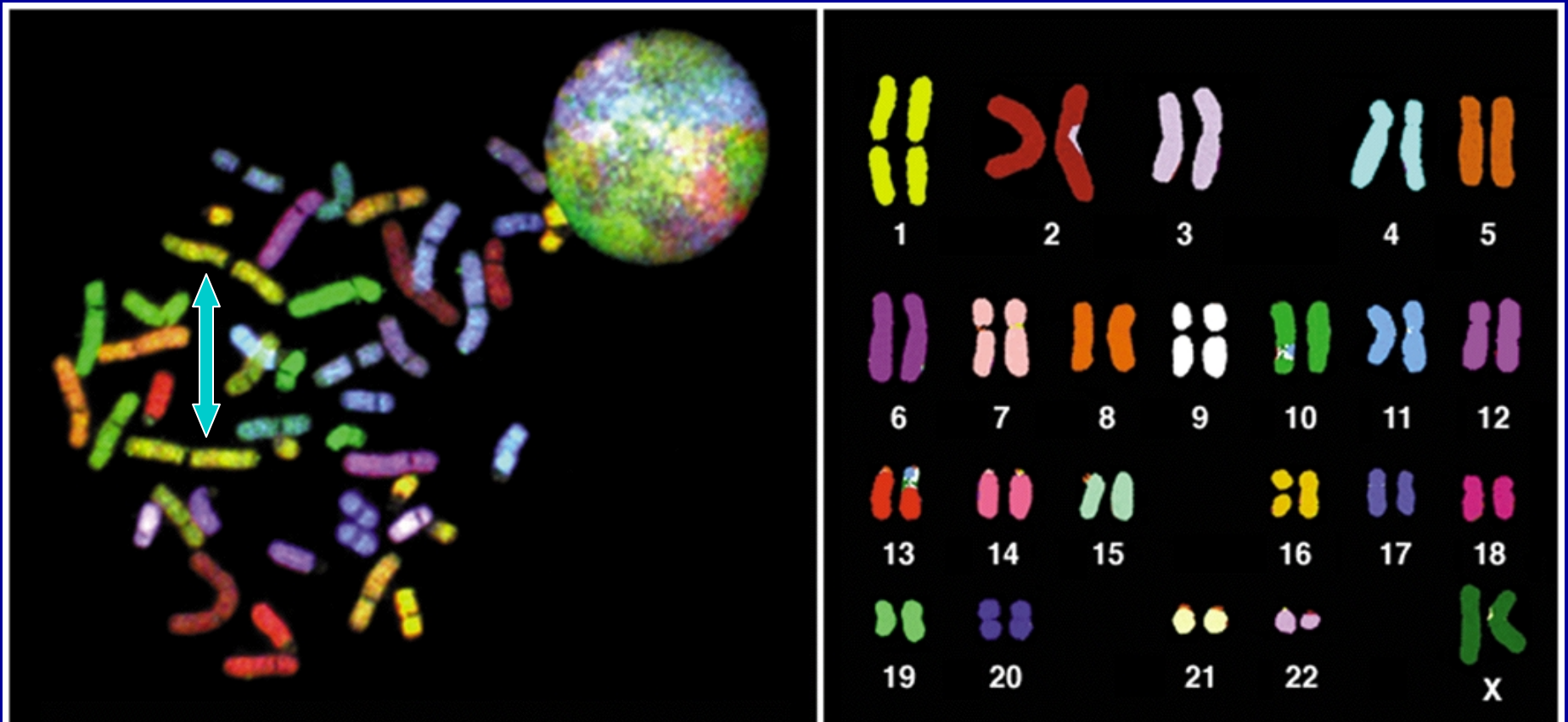
E. Cytokinesis: The Division of the Cytoplasm

- The cell cycle can repeat itself many times, forming a clone of genetically identical cells.
- Asexual reproduction produces an organism genetically identical to the parent. Any genetic variety is the result of mutations.

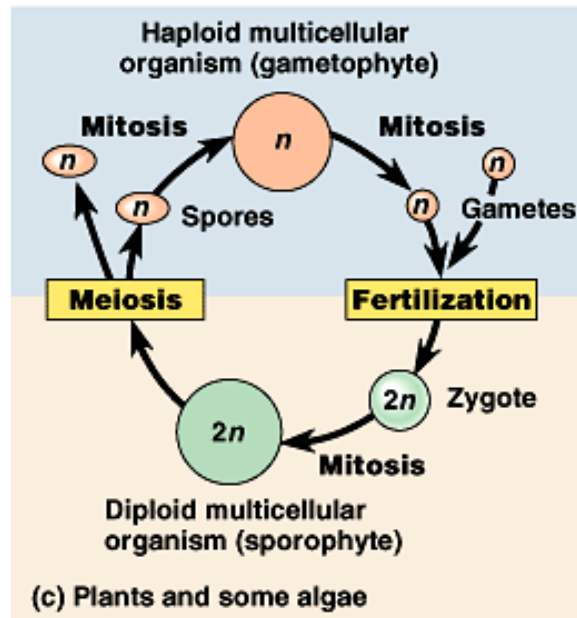
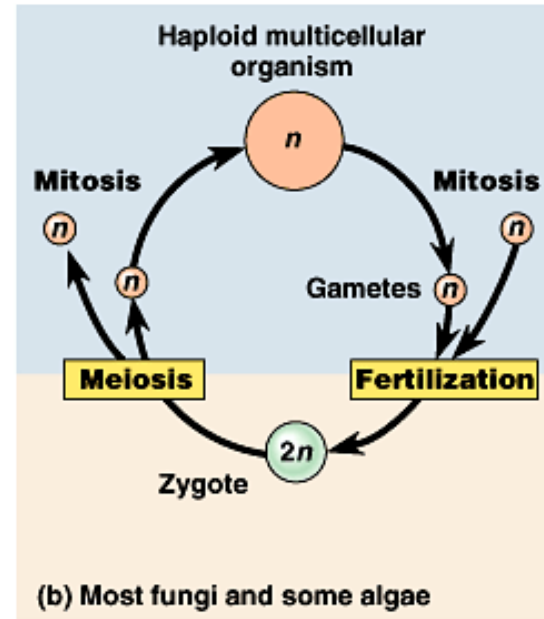
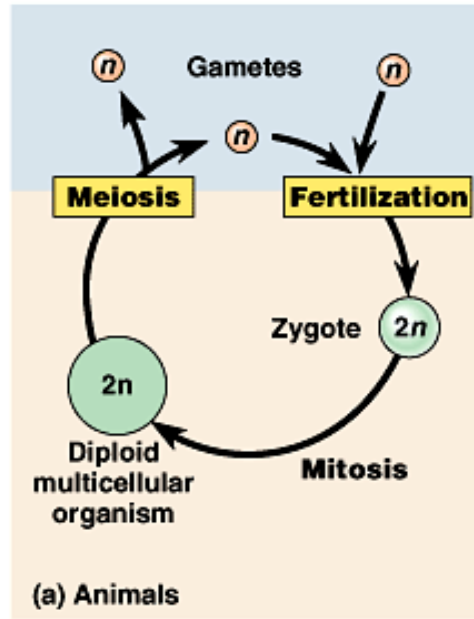
F. Meiosis: Sexual Reproduction and Diversity

- In sexual reproduction, two haploid gametes—one from each parent—unite in fertilization to form a genetically unique, diploid zygote.
- The number shape and size of metaphase chromosomes constitute a karyotype.
- The more chromosome pairs there are in a diploid cell, the greater the diversity of chromosome combinations generated by meiosis.
- Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes.

Chromosome Painting and respective Karyotype



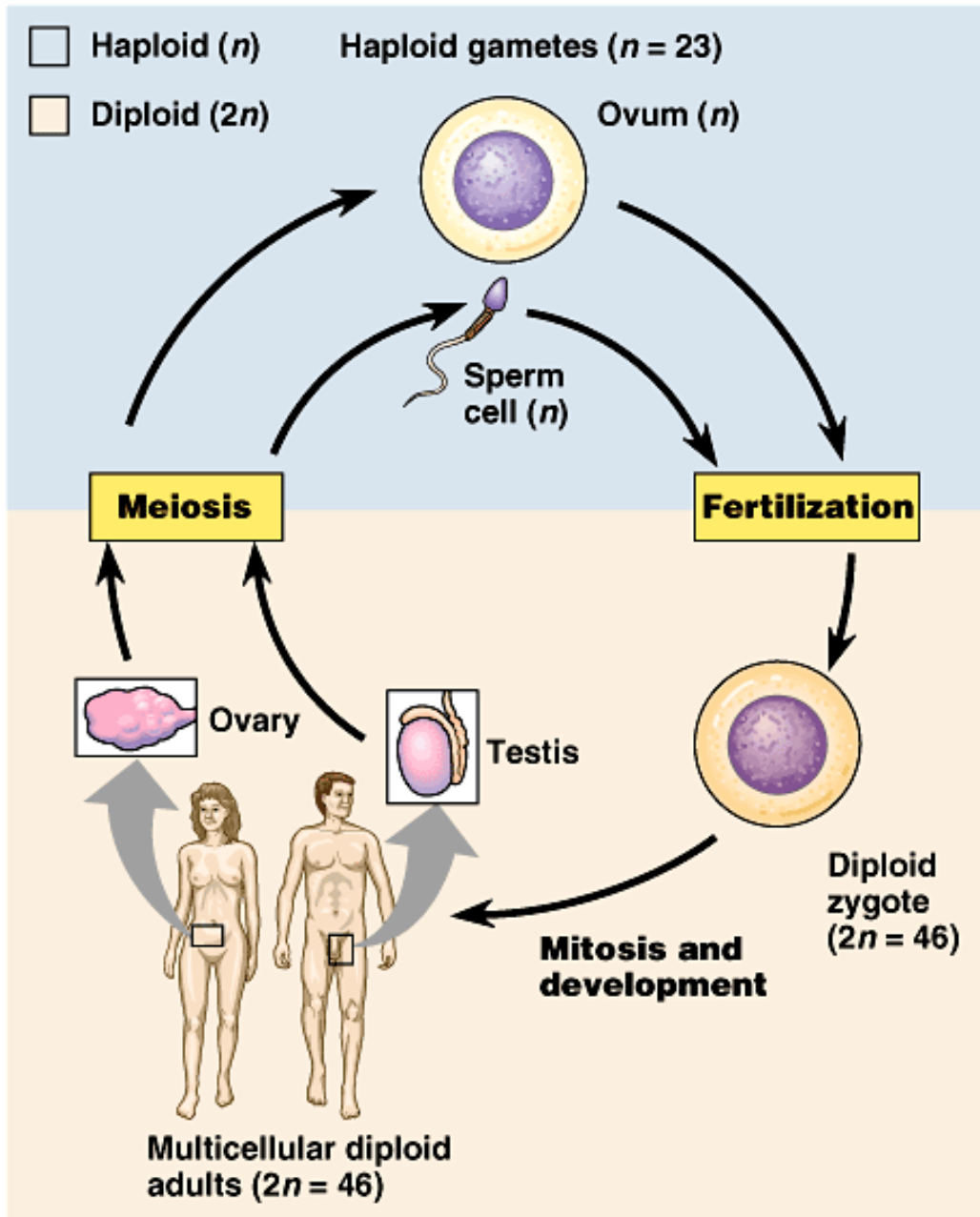
Three sexual life cycles differing in the timing of meiosis and fertilization (syngamy)



- Alternation of generations

□ Haploid
□ Diploid

The human life cycle



- Random Fertilization

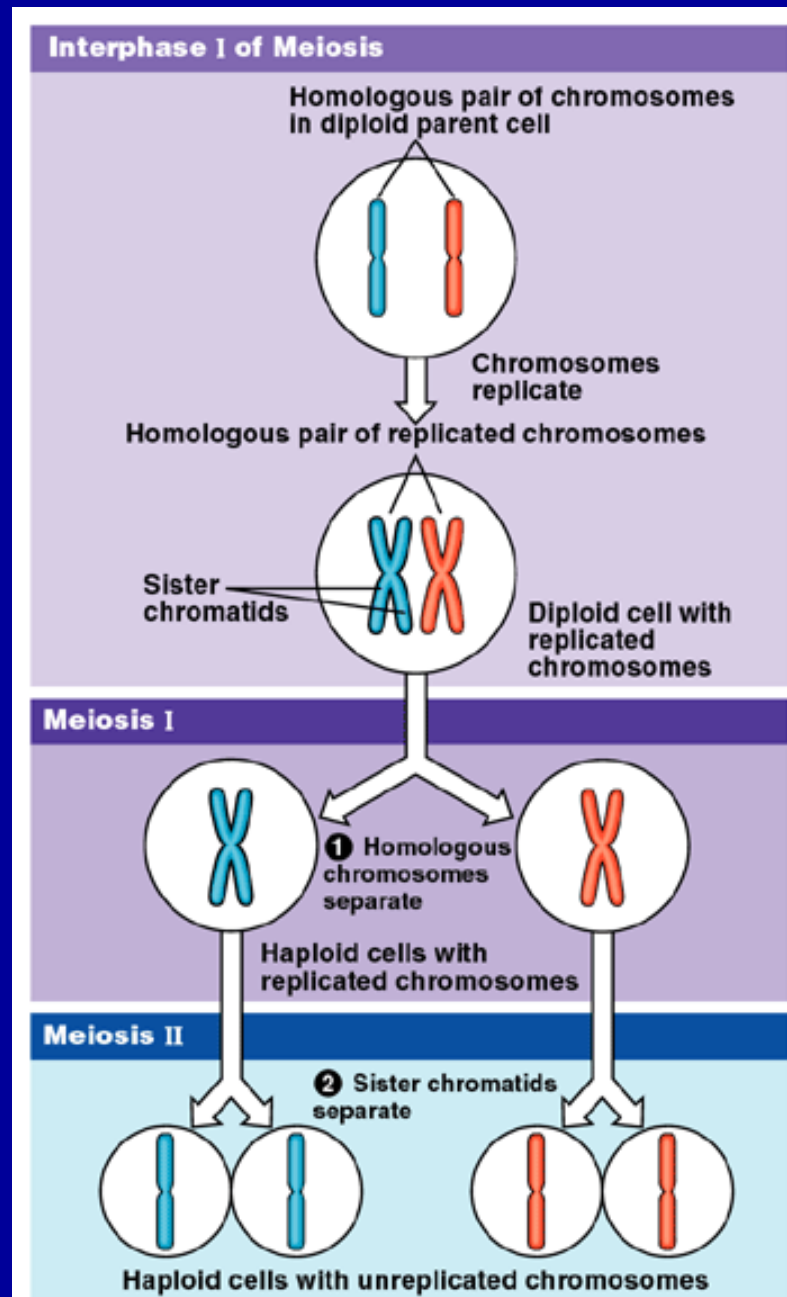
F. Meiosis: Sexual Reproduction and Diversity

- In sexually reproducing organisms, certain cells in the adult undergo meiosis, whereby a diploid cell produces haploid gametes.
- Each gamete contains a random mix of one of each pair of homologous chromosomes from the parent.
- Zygotes are formed by random fertilization which increases diversity.

G. Meiosis: A Pair of Nuclear Divisions

- Meiosis reduces the chromosome number from diploid to haploid and ensures that each haploid cell contains one member of each chromosome pair. It consists of two nuclear divisions.
- We often refer to meiosis as reduction-division.

Overview of meiosis: how meiosis reduces chromosome number



The stages of meiotic cell division: Meiosis I

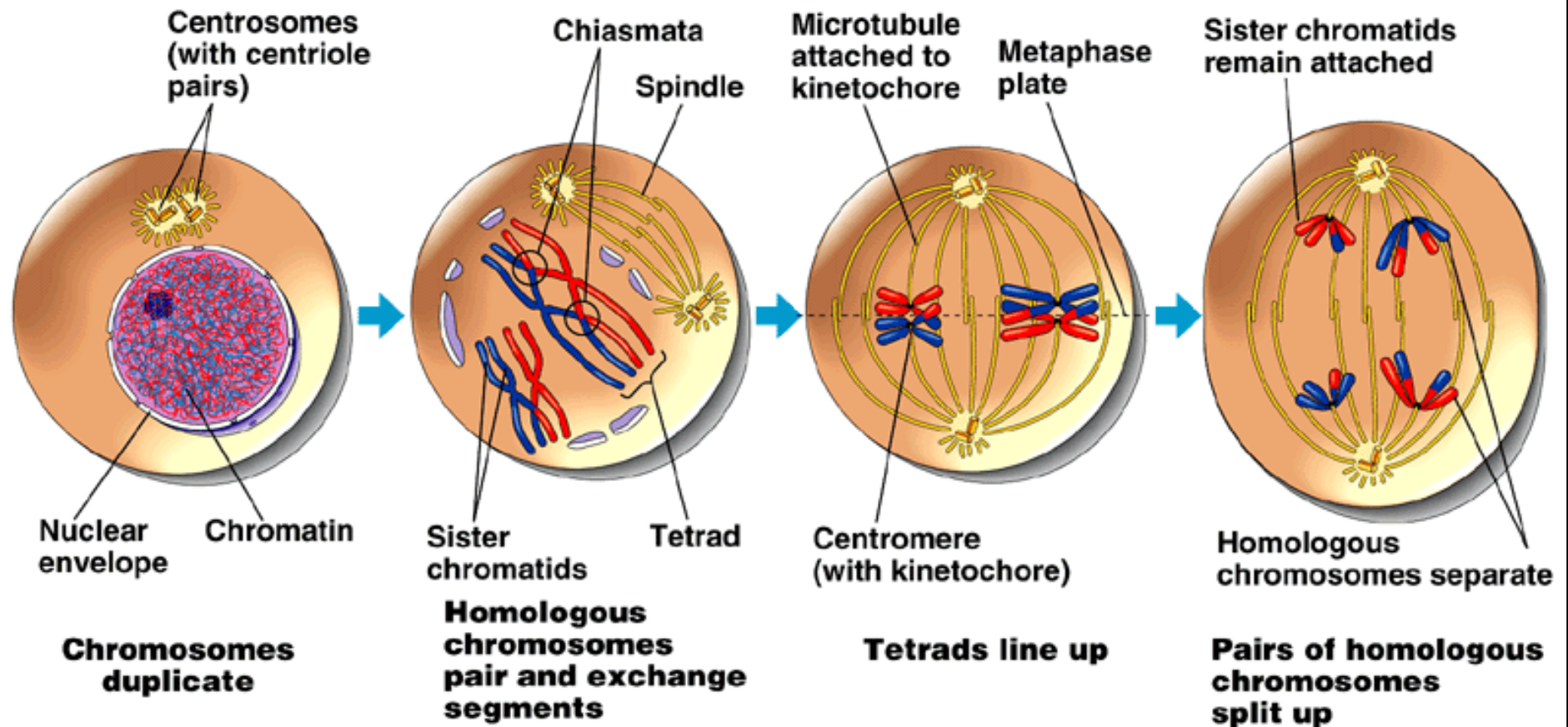
MEIOSIS I: Separates homologous chromosomes

INTERPHASE

PROPHASE I

METAPHASE I

ANAPHASE I



The stages of meiotic cell division: Meiosis II

MEIOSIS II: Separates sister chromatids

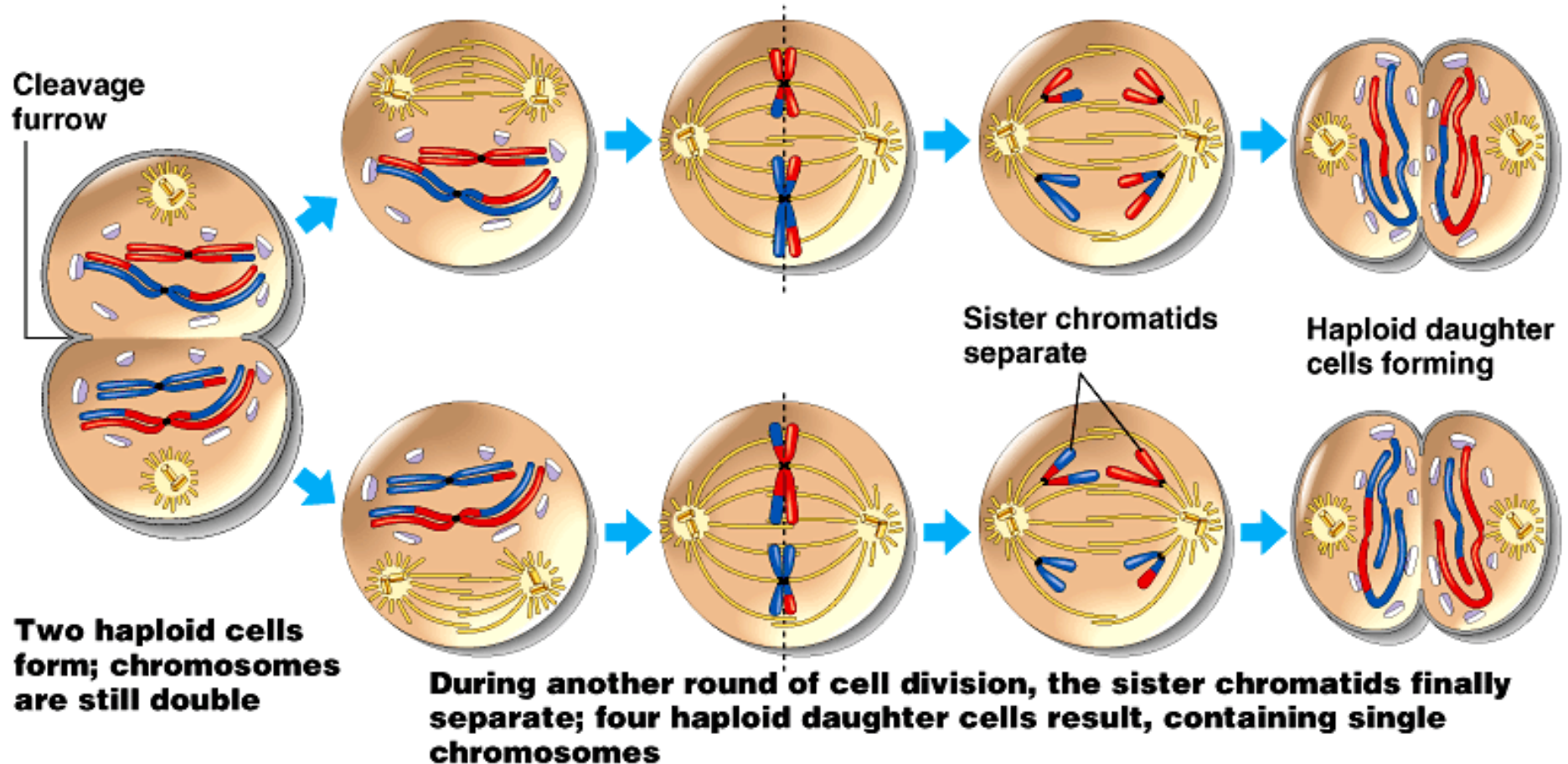
TELOPHASE I
AND CYTOKINESIS

PROPHASE II

METAPHASE II

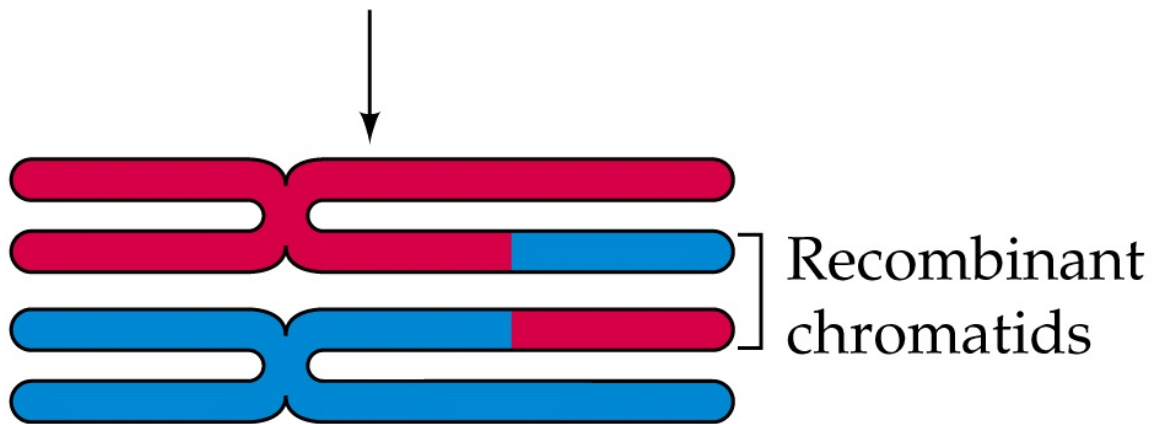
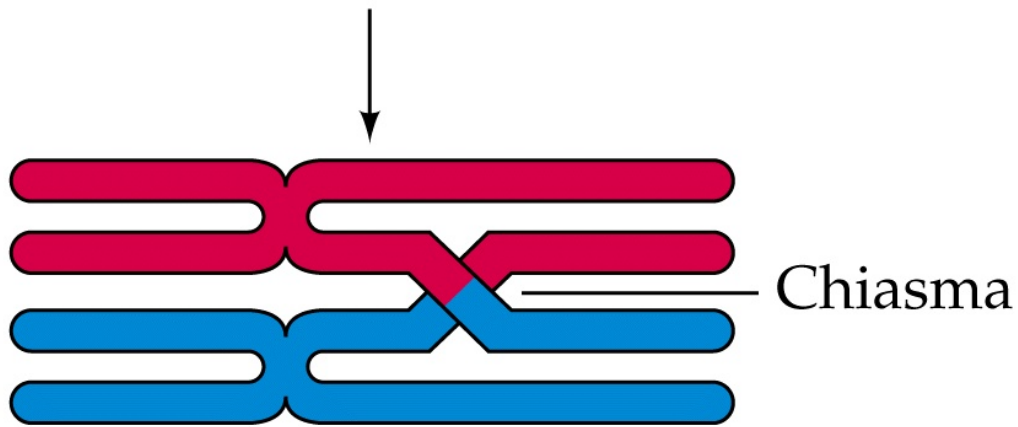
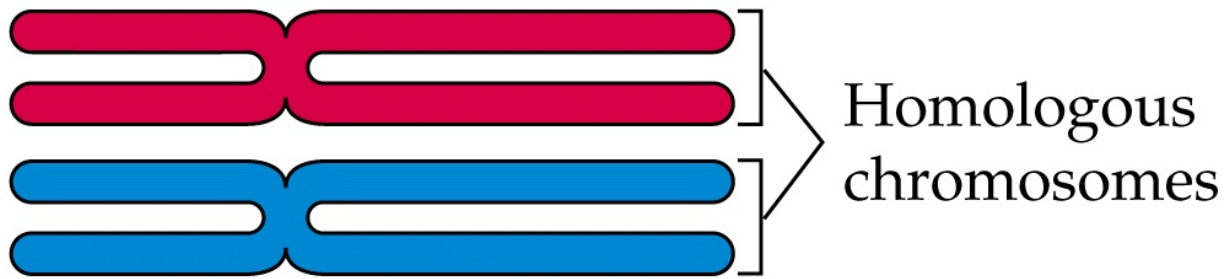
ANAPHASE II

TELOPHASE II
AND CYTOKINESIS



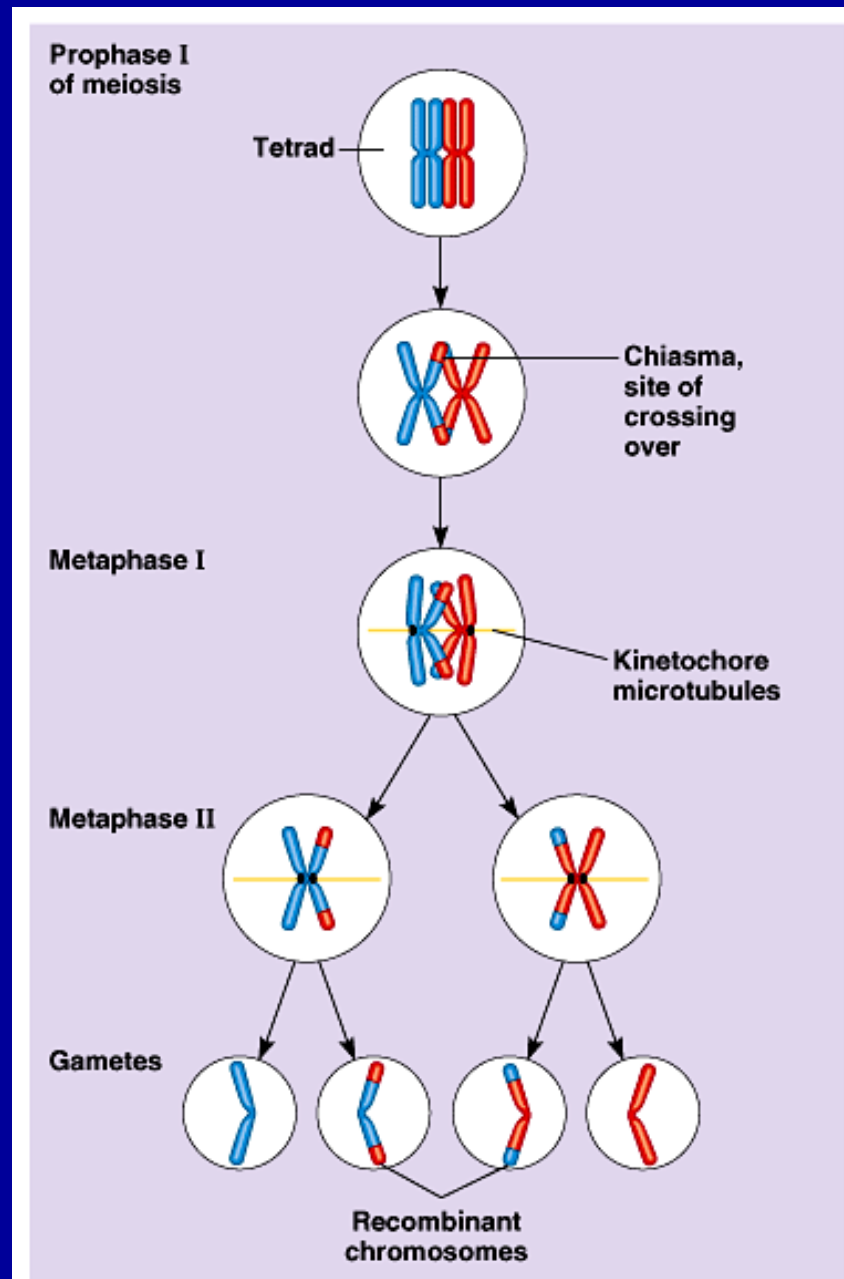
G. Meiosis: A Pair of Nuclear Divisions

- During prophase I of the first meiotic division, homologous chromosomes pair, and material may be exchanged by crossing over between nonsister chromatids of two adjacent homologs.
- In metaphase I, the paired homologs gather at the equatorial plate. Each chromosome has one kinetochore and associates with polar microtubules for one pole.
- In anaphase I, entire chromosomes, each with two chromatids, migrate to the poles. By the end of meiosis I, there are two nuclei, each with the haploid number of chromosomes but with two sister chromatids.



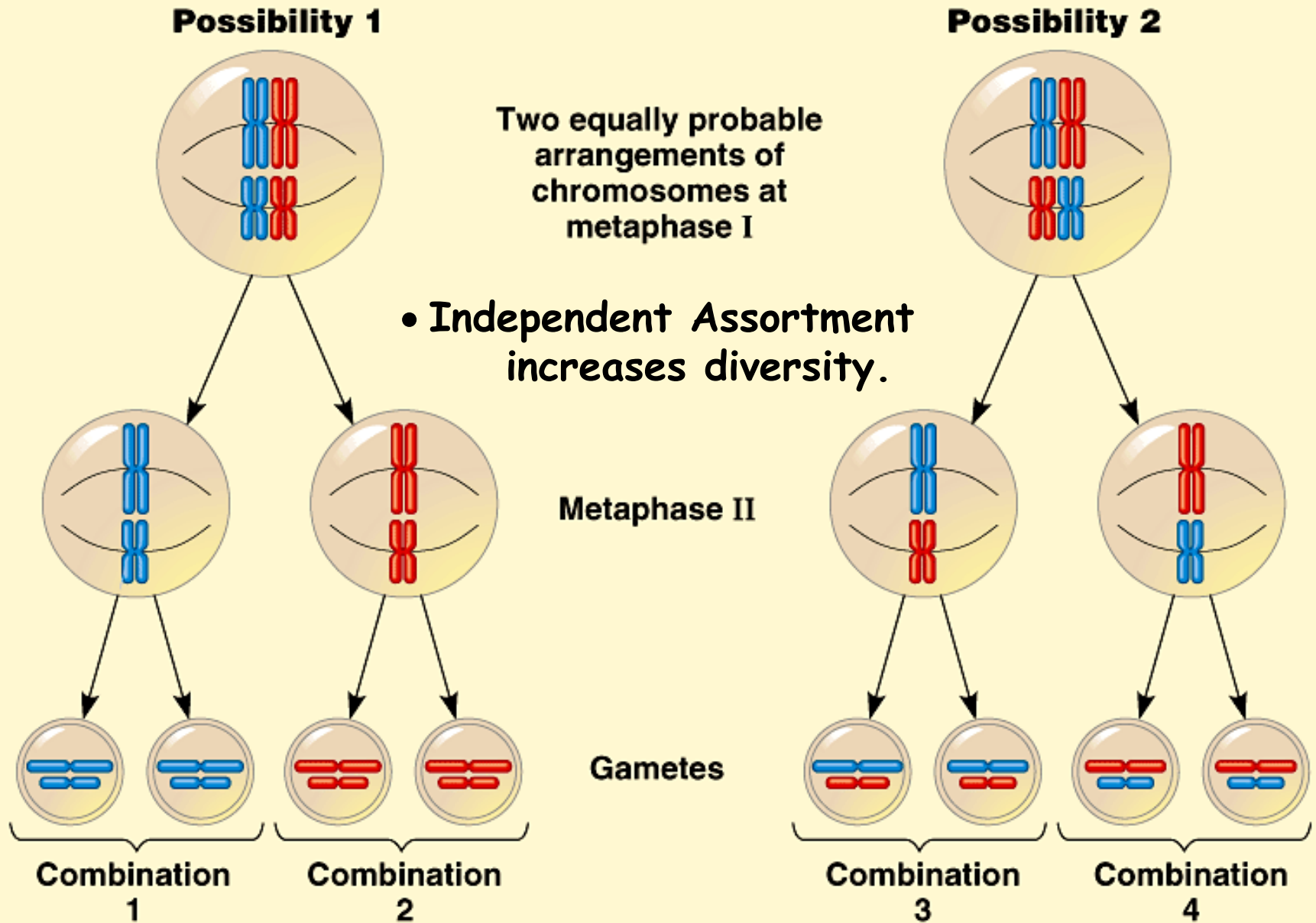
Synapsis: Crossing over of nonsister chromatids.

The results of crossing over during meiosis



- Crossing over increases diversity.

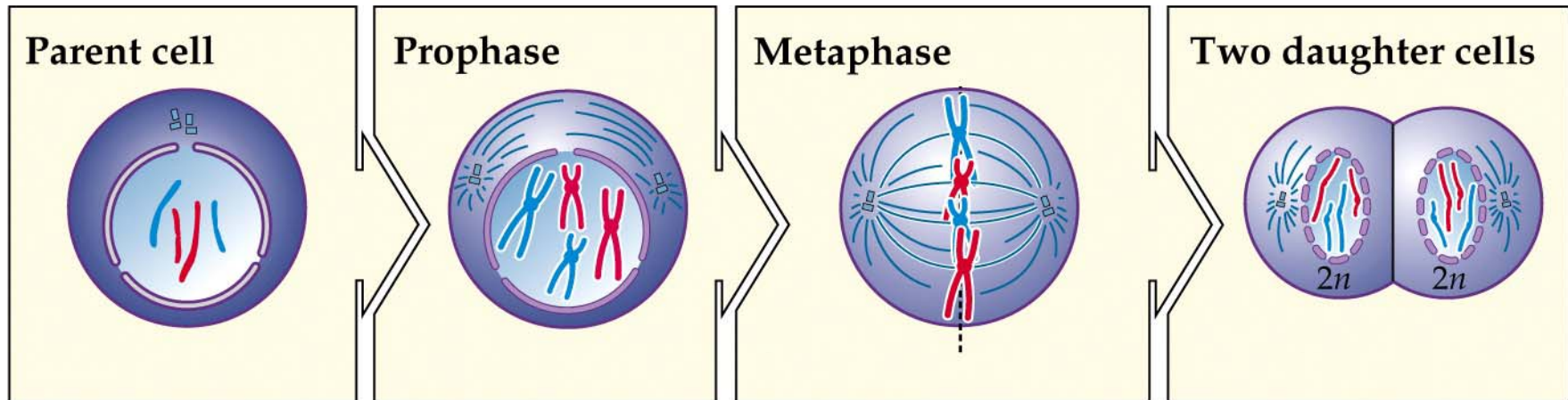
The results of alternative arrangements of two homologous chromosome pairs on the metaphase plate in meiosis I aka Independent Assortment



G. Meiosis: A Pair of Nuclear Divisions

- In meiosis II, the sister chromatids separate. No DNA replication precedes this division, which in other aspects is similar to mitosis. The result of meiosis is four cells, each with a haploid chromosome content.

MITOSIS



Mitosis is a mechanism for *constancy*:
The parent nucleus produces two
daughter nuclei, *identical* to the
parent and to each other.

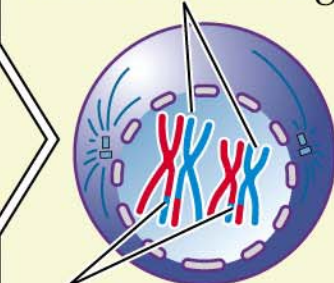
MEIOSIS

Parent cell



Prophase I

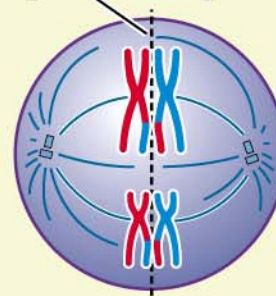
Pairs of homologs



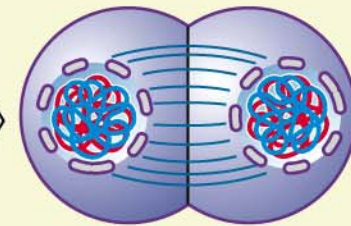
Chiasmata

Metaphase I

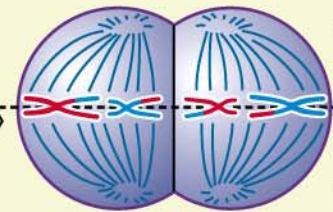
Equatorial plate



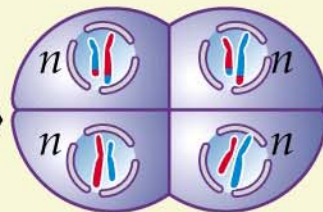
Interkinesis



Metaphase II



Four daughter cells



Chromatids separate.

Meiosis is a mechanism for *diversity*:
The parent nucleus produces four haploid daughter nuclei, each *different* from the parent and from its sisters.

H. Origins of Genetic Variation Among Offspring

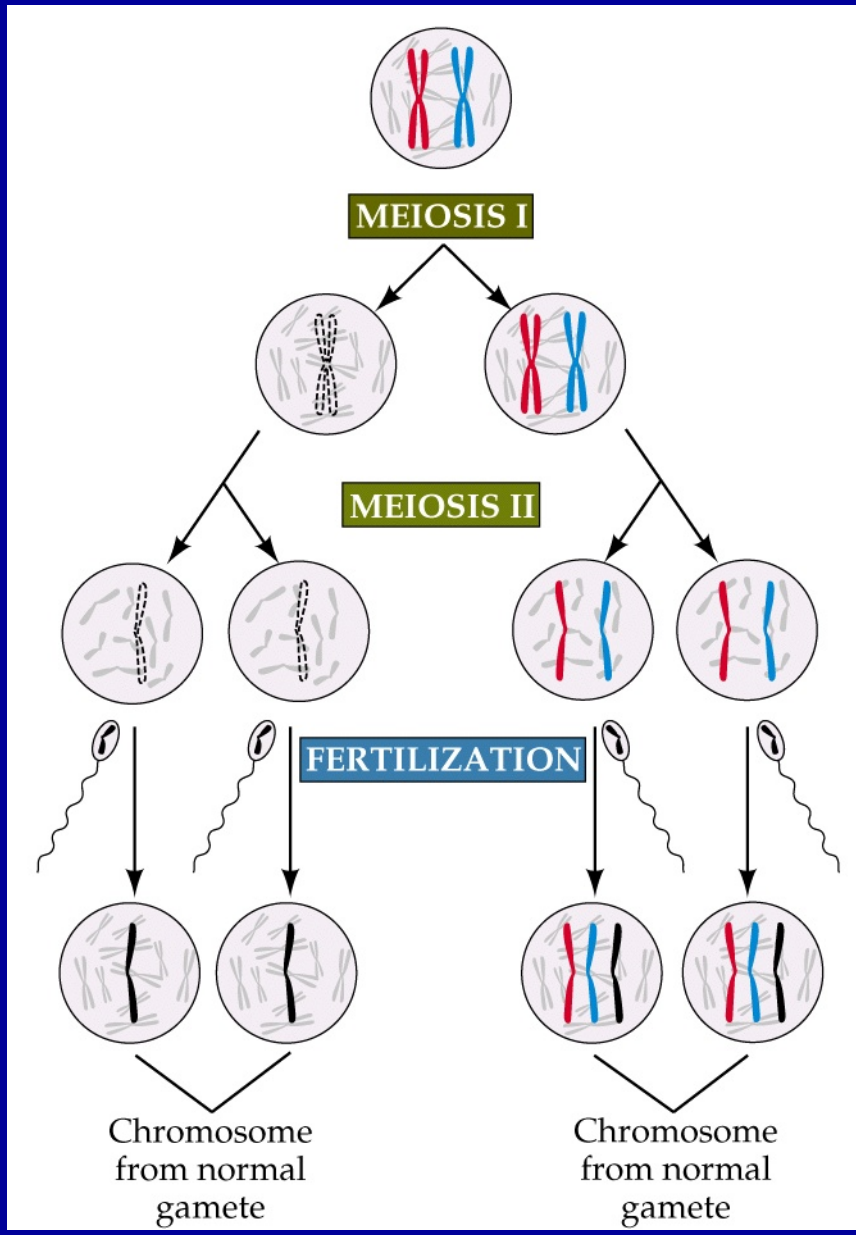
- Mutations
 - ◆ Are the original source of genetic variation.
- Sexual Reproduction
 - ◆ Produces new combinations of variant genes, adding more genetic diversity.

H. Origins of Genetic Variation Among Offspring

- In species that produce sexually, the behavior of chromosomes during meiosis AND fertilization is responsible for most of the variation that arises each generation. *Genetics = Applied Meiosis!*
 - ◆ *Independent Assortment of Chromosomes*
 - ◆ Homologous pairs of chromosomes orient randomly at metaphase I of meiosis.
 - ◆ *Crossing over*
 - ◆ Produces recombinant chromosomes that carry genes derived from two different parents during prophase I of meiosis.
 - ◆ *Random Fertilization*
 - ◆ The fusion of gametes will produce a zygote with any of about 64 trillion diploid combinations.

I. Meiotic Errors: Source of Chromosomal Disorders

- In nondisjunction, one member of a homologous pair of chromosomes fails to separate from the other, and both go to the same pole. This event leads to one gamete with an extra chromosome and another other lacking that chromosome.
- Fertilization with a normal haploid gamete results in aneuploidy and genetic abnormalities that are invariably harmful or lethal to the organism.



← Nondisjunction in gamete



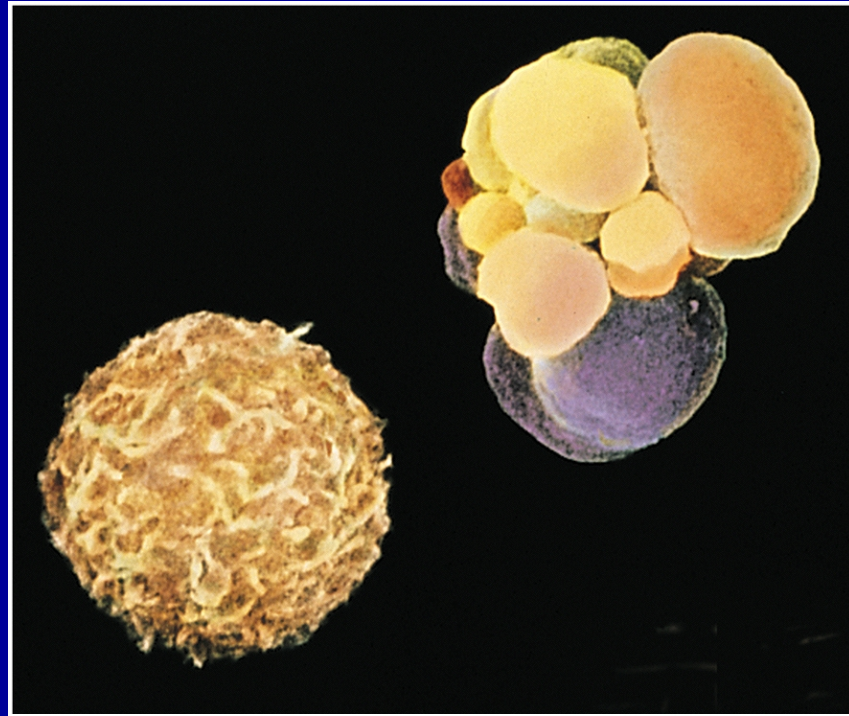
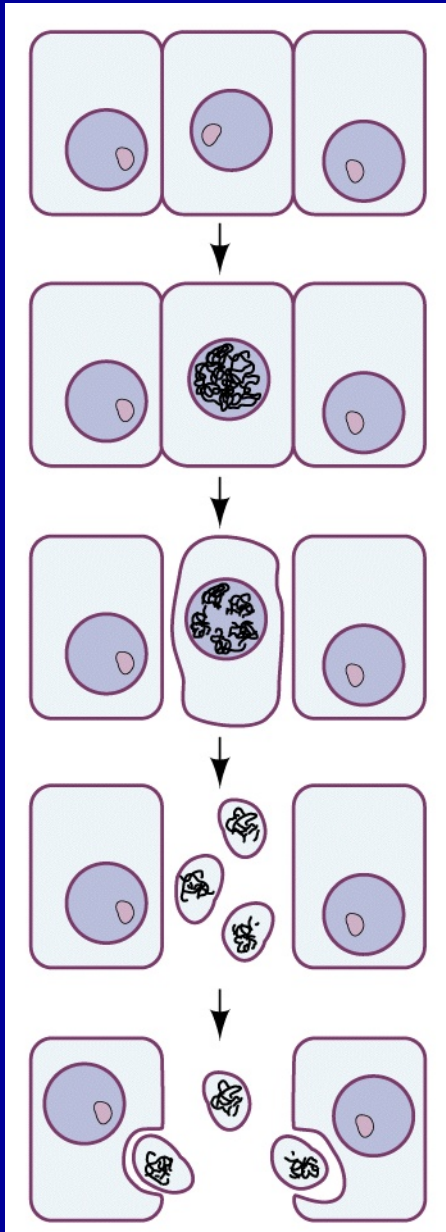
← Aneuploidy in zygote

J. Cell Death

- Cells may die by necrosis or may self-destruct by apoptosis, a genetically programmed series of events that includes the detachment of the cell from its neighbors and the fragmentation of its nuclear DNA.

9.2 *Two Different Ways for Cells to Die*

	NECROSIS	APOPTOSIS
Stimuli	Low O ₂ , toxins, ATP depletion, damage	Specific, genetically programmed physiological signals
ATP required	No	Yes
Cellular pattern	Swelling, organelle disruption, tissue death	Chromatin condensation, membrane blebbing, single-cell death
DNA breakdown	Random fragments	Nucleosome-sized fragments
Plasma membrane	Burst	Blebbled
Fate of dead cells	Ingested by phagocytes	Ingested by neighboring cells
Reaction in tissue	Inflammation	No inflammation



Membrane "Blebbing"
by a WBC via apoptosis.