

Chapter 12: The Cell Cycle

I. Cell division in prokaryotes

- A. typically, a prokaryotic cell divides by **binary fission**, **splitting** into two nearly equal halves
 1. the main circular DNA molecule of the cell is replicated (replication begins **at a replication origin**)
- B. prokaryotic cells can have a **generation time** (the period from start of one cell division to start of next cell division; 20min.)

II. Eukaryotic DNA molecules are organized in **chromosomes**

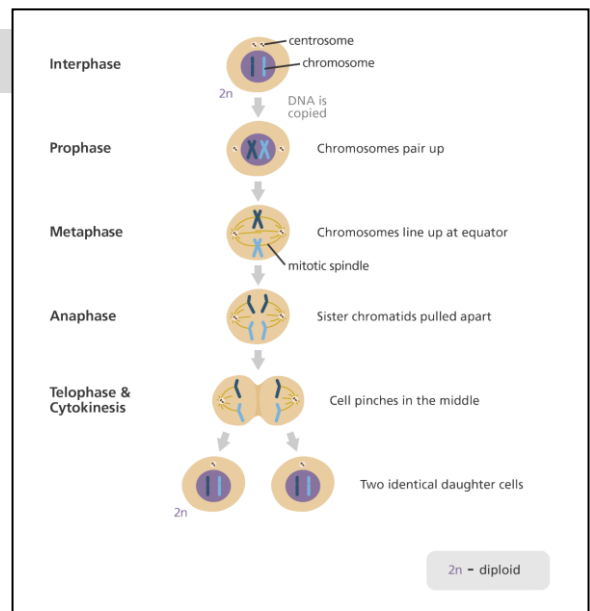
- A. each chromosome is made of **chromatin**, **a long DNA molecule with associated proteins**
 1. chromatin is packaged into **dense chromosomes during cell division**
 2. the chromosomes are unpacked ("**decondensed**") when cells are not dividing
- B. each chromosome contains hundreds to thousands of **genes**
 1. the complete DNA sequence for an organism is the **genome**; it contains the complete set of instructions for that organism
 2. humans apparently have ~40,000 genes in the now-sequenced human genome
 3. each species has a characteristic number of chromosomes (number varies between species)
 4. chromosome number does not reflect the complexity of the organism
 5. the assortment of chromosomes for an individual is the **karyotype** (humans have 46 chromosomes)
- C. chromosomes carry the genetic information: from one cell generation to the next, and from one organism to its offspring

III. The eukaryotic cell cycle

- A. the **cell cycle** describes the status of cells in relationship to growth and division
 1. **when cells reach a certain size, growth either stops or the cell must divide**
 2. most, **but not all**, eukaryotic cells are capable of dividing
 3. cell division is generally **a highly regulated process (OTHERWISE CANCER)**
 4. the generation time for eukaryotic cells varies widely, but is usually 8-20 hours
- B. cell cycle has two main phases – **interphase** and **cell division** (mitosis + cytokinesis)
- C. **interphase** is divided into **three parts**, defined **with respect to DNA replication**
 1. the DNA is completely replicated (genetic information duplicated) during the synthesis phase or **S phase**
 - the period before the S phase is a "gap" phase, **G₁ phase** (most cellular growth occurs in this phase)
 - this phase is usually the most variable with respect to time, and is **typically longest**
 - **cells that do not divide become arrested in this phase, then called G₀**
 2. the period between the S phase and cell division is the **G₂ phase**
 - the G₂ phase is usually short; cells in this phase are committed to and preparing for cell division
- D. **cell division** has two main parts – **mitosis** and **cytokinesis**
 1. **mitosis** is the process that **distributes a complete copy of the duplicated genetic information to each daughter cell**
 2. **cytokinesis** is the process of **dividing the cytoplasm** into two separate cells
 3. some cells can have **mitosis without cytokinesis** (most common in fungi)= **Dikaryotic**
- E. the current model of **cell cycle regulation** involves a **highly conserved, genetically-controlled program** that can be influenced by external signals
 1. there are three major **checkpoints**, found in **G₁**, **G₂** and **mitosis**
 2. key regulatory components for checkpoints are **cyclins** and **cyclin-dependent protein kinases**
 3. hormones such as **cytokinins** in plants and various protein **growth factors** in animals can stimulate progression through checkpoints in the right cells under the right conditions
 4. other factors can serve as **suppressors** of cell division
 5. **cancer cells** generally grow without needing stimulation by external growth factors and fail to respond to normal suppressors of cell division

IV. **mitosis** is generally be divided into 4 stages: **prophase**, **metaphase**, **anaphase**, and **telophase (PMAT)**

- A. be aware that mitosis is a continuous process,
 - the stages are defined only for our convenience
- B. **prophase** – chromatin condenses to form chromosomes
 1. each chromosome (duplicated during S phase) forms a pair of **sister chromatids**
 - sister chromatids are joined at a **centromere** by protein tethers
 - centromeres contain a **kinetochore** where microtubules will bind
 - each sister chromatid has its own kinetochore
 2. a system of microtubules, called the **mitotic spindle**, organizes between the two poles (opposite ends) of the cell
 - each pole has a **microtubule organizing center** (MTOC)
 - in animals and some other eukaryotes, centrioles are found in the MTOC; their exact role, if any, is unclear



3. by the end of prophase:
 - the **nuclear membrane has disappeared** (actually divided into many small vesicles)
 - **nucleoli have disintegrated**
 - the sister chromatids are attached by their **kinetochores** to microtubules from opposite poles

4. some call the later part of prophase **prometaphase**, usually defined to include vesicularization of the nuclear membrane and attachment of kinetochores to microtubules

C. **metaphase** – chromosomes line up along the **midplane** of the cell (**metaphase plate**)

1. **chromosomes are most condensed, most visible, and most distinguishable**

2. the **mitotic spindle**, now complete, has two types of microtubules
 - **kinetochore microtubules** extend from a pole to a kinetochore
 - **polar microtubules** extend from a pole to the midplane area, often overlapping with polar microtubules from the other pole

3. the mitosis **checkpoint** appears to be here; *progress past metaphase is typically prevented until the kinetochores are all attached to microtubules*

D. **anaphase** – sister chromatids **separate** and are moved toward opposite poles

1. protein tethers **حبال** at the centromere between the chromatids are **broken**

2. **each former sister chromatid can now be called a chromosome**

3. model for the mechanism that moves chromosomes to the poles

- **motor proteins** move the chromosomes towards the poles **along the kinetochores microtubules**
- kinetochore microtubules **shorten** as behind the moving chromosomes
- polar microtubules **lengthen** the entire spindle
 - motor proteins on the polar microtubules slide them past each other, **pushing them apart** (the microtubules may grow a bit, too)
 - this pushes the **MTOCs (microtubule organizing centers) away from each other**, and thus has the effect of **pushing kinetochore microtubules from opposite poles away from each other**

4. this process assures that each daughter cell will receive one of the duplicate sets of genetic material.

E. **telophase** – *the processes of prophase are reversed*

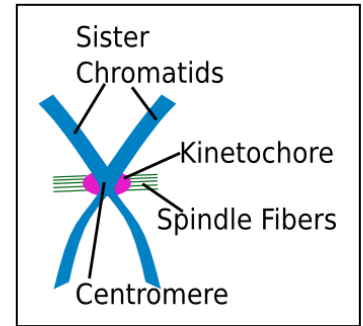
1. the **mitotic spindle is disintegrated**
2. the chromosomes **decondense**
3. nuclear membranes **reform** around the genetic material to form two nuclei
4. nucleoli **reappear**, and interphase cellular functions resume

V. **cytokinesis** divides the cell into two daughter cells

A. **cytokinesis** usually **begins in telophase** and ends shortly thereafter

1. in animals, a **cleavage furrow** develops – usually close to where the metaphase plate was
 - a microfilament (**actin**) ring **contracts** due to **interactions with myosin molecules**, forming a deepening **furrow**
 - eventually, the ring closes enough for spontaneous separation of the plasma membrane
2. in plants, a **cell plate** develops – usually close to where the metaphase plate was
 - **vesicles that originate from the Golgi line up in the equatorial region**
 - vesicles fuse and add more vesicles, growing outward until reaching the plasma membrane ~ separating the cells
 - the vesicles contain materials for making the **primary cell wall** and a **middle lamella**

B. cytoplasm (and with it most organelles) is usually distributed randomly but roughly equally between daughter cells



Centromere: the primary constriction **تضييق** of a chromosome.

Kinetochores: two discs of proteins located at the centromere, on opposite sides of the chromosome. *Microtubules attach to the chromosomes actually attach to the kinetochores (called **kinetochore microtubules**).*

