LECTURE PRESENTATIONS

For CAMPBELL BIOLOGY, NINTH EDITION

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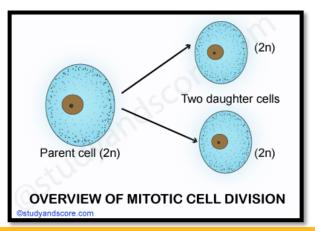
Mitosis

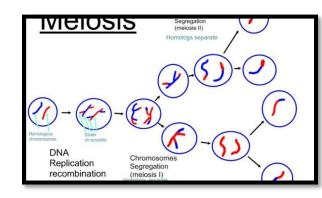


Overview: The Key Roles of Cell Division

 The ability of organisms to <u>produce more of</u> <u>their</u> own kind best distinguishes living things from nonliving matter

 The continuity of life is based on the reproduction of cells, or <u>cell division</u>

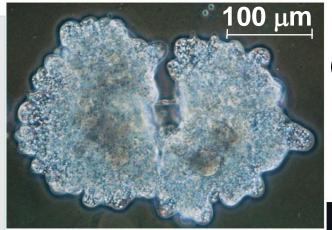




 In <u>unicellular</u> organisms, division of one cell reproduces the entire organism

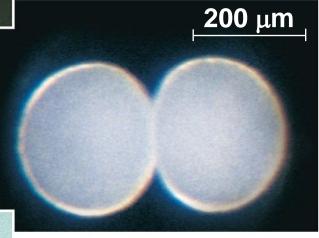
- <u>Multicellular</u> organisms depend on cell division for
 - -Development from a fertilized cell
 - -Growth
 - -Repair

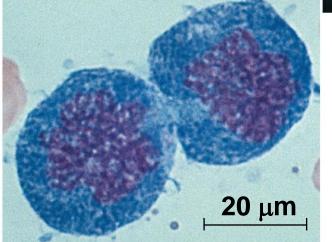
The functions of cell division



(a) Reproduction

(b) Growth and development





(c) Tissue renewal

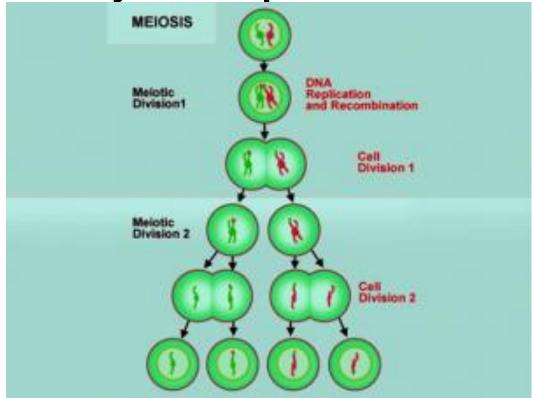


Concept 12.1: Most cell division results in genetically identical daughter cells

 Most cell division results in daughter cells with identical genetic information, DNA

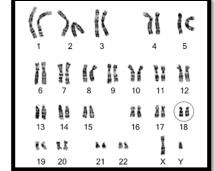
 The exception is meiosis, a special type of division that can produce sperm and egg cells Gametes are produced by a variation of cell division called meiosis

 Meiosis yields <u>nonidentical daughter cells</u> that have only one set of chromosomes, half as many as the parent cell



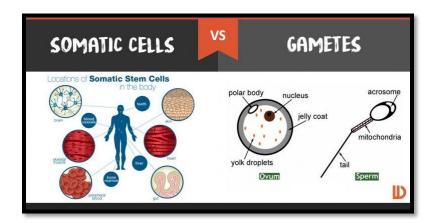
 Eukaryotic chromosomes consist of chromatin, a complex of DNA and <u>protein</u> that condenses during cell division

 Every eukaryotic species has a <u>characteristic</u> <u>number of chromosomes</u> in each cell nucleus >> <u>Karyotype</u>



 Somatic cells (nonreproductive cells) have two sets of chromosomes

 Gametes (reproductive cells: sperm and eggs) have <u>half</u> as many chromosomes as somatic cells

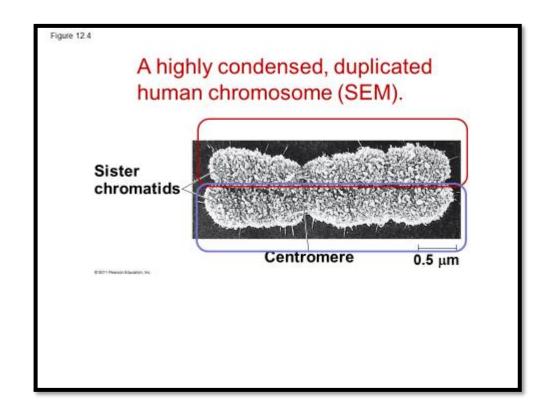


Distribution of Chromosomes During Eukaryotic Cell Division

 In preparation for cell division, <u>DNA is</u> replicated and the <u>chromosomes</u> condense

• Each duplicated chromosome has <u>two</u>
<u>sister chromatids</u> (joined copies of the original chromosome), which separate during cell division

• The centromere is the narrow "waist خَاصِرَة" of the duplicated chromosome, where the two chromatids are most closely attached



 During cell division, the two sister chromatids of each duplicated <u>chromosome</u> <u>separate and move into two nuclei</u>

 Once separate, the chromatids are called chromosomes

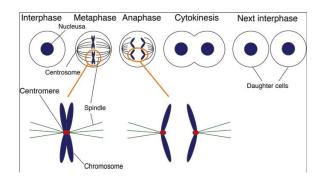
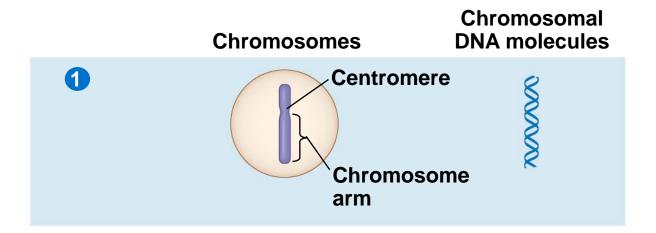
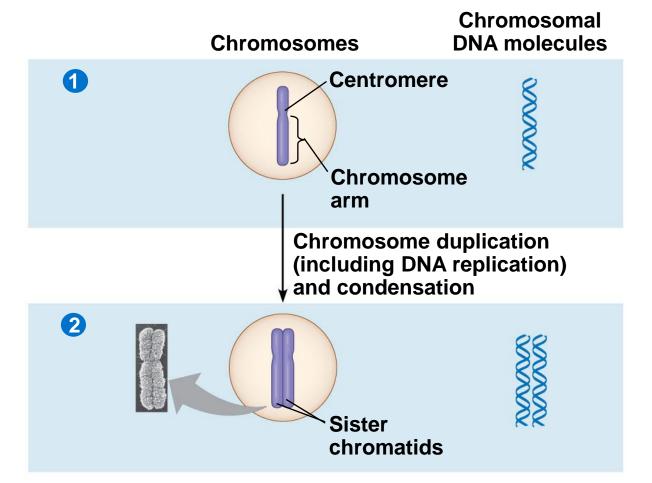
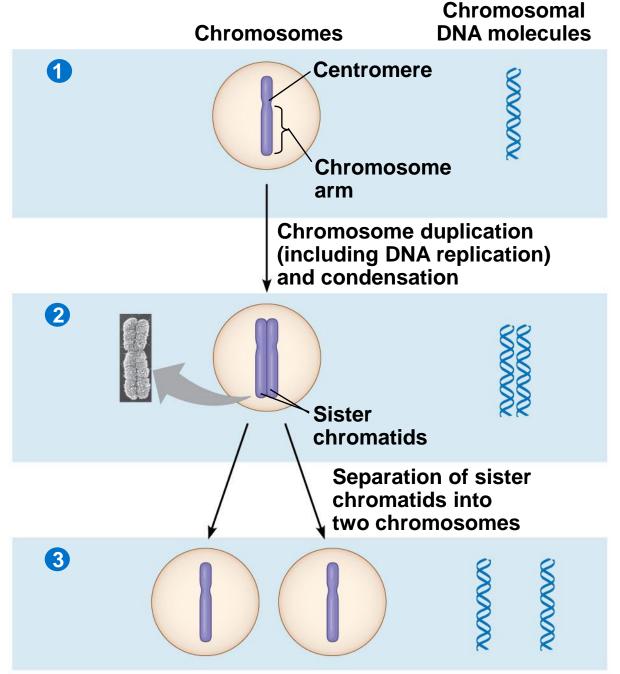


Figure 12.5-1



Chromosome duplication and distribution during cell division.

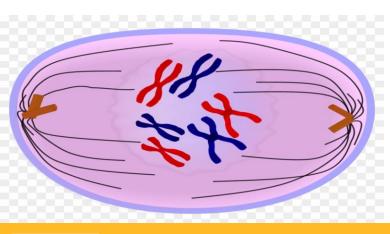


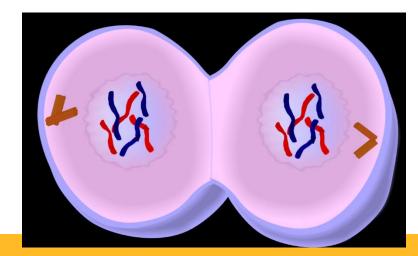


Eukaryotic cell division consists of

 Mitosis, the division of the genetic material in the nucleus

Cytokinesis, the division of the cytoplasm





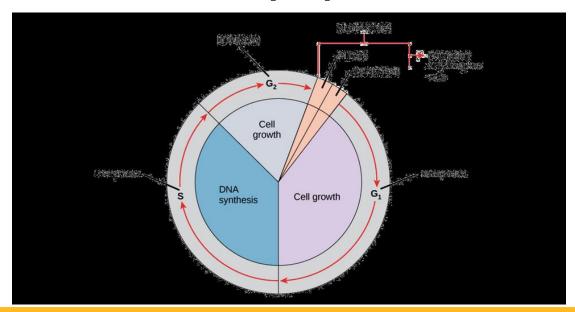
Human Karyotype X X Female X Y Male

Concept 12.2: The mitotic phase alternates with interphase in the cell cycle

In 1882, the German anatomist Walther
 Flemming developed dyes to observe chromosomes during mitosis and cytokinesis

Phases of the Cell Cycle

- The cell cycle consists of
 - Mitotic (M) phase (mitosis and cytokinesis)
 - Interphase (cell growth and copying of chromosomes in preparation for cell division)



- Interphase (about 90% of the cell cycle) can be divided into subphases
 - G₁ phase ("first gap")
 - S phase ("synthesis")
 - G₂ phase ("second gap")
- The cell grows during all three phases, but <u>chromosomes are duplicated</u> <u>only during the S phase</u>

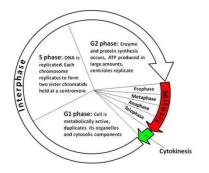
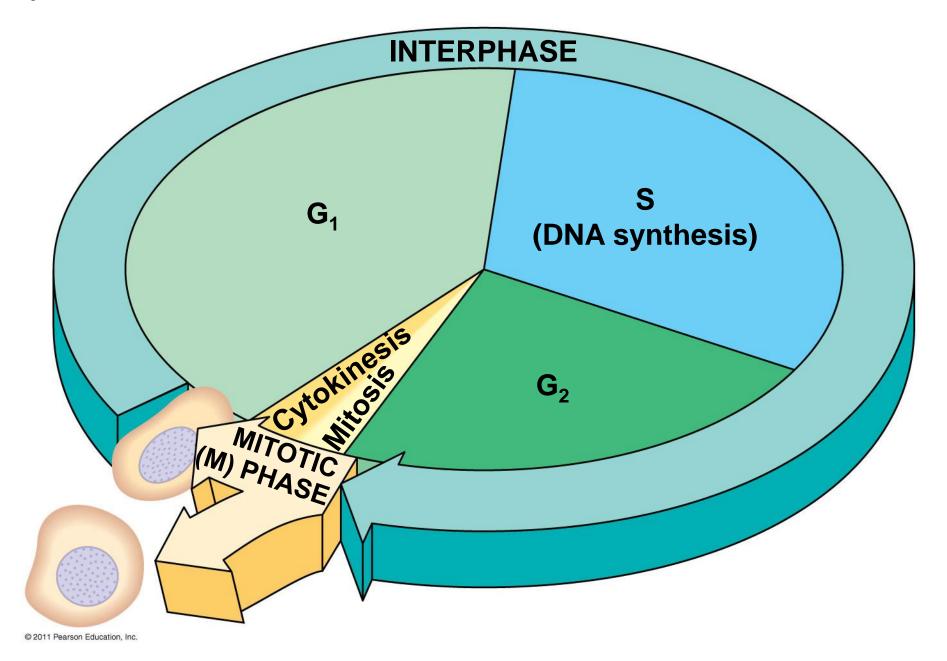


Figure 12.6

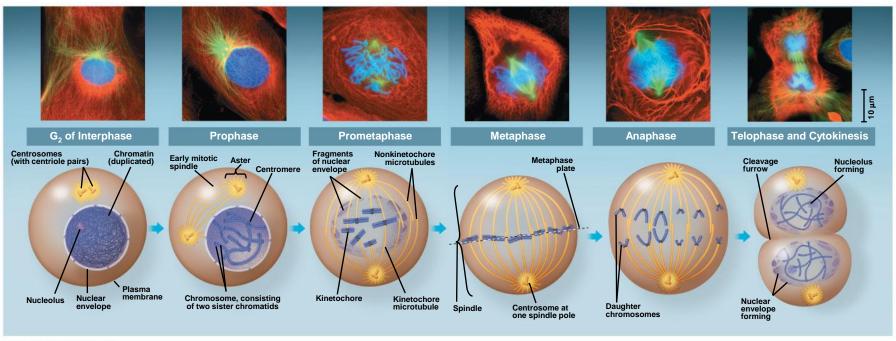


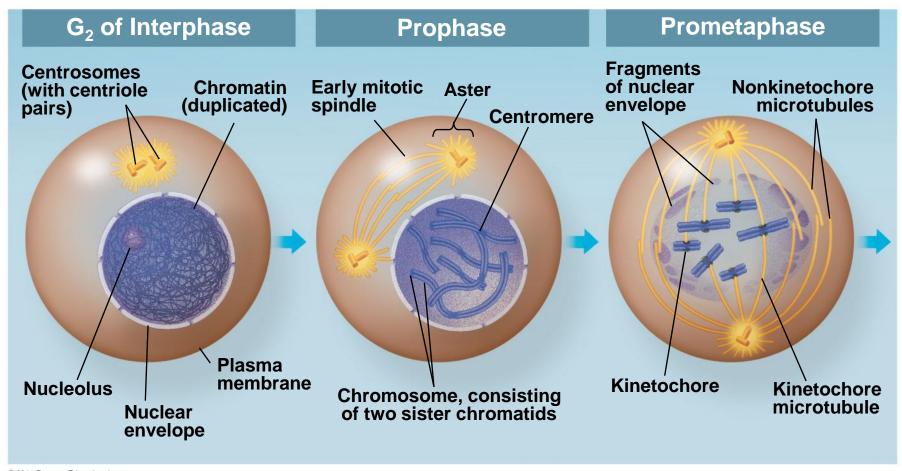
 Mitosis is conventionally divided into five phases

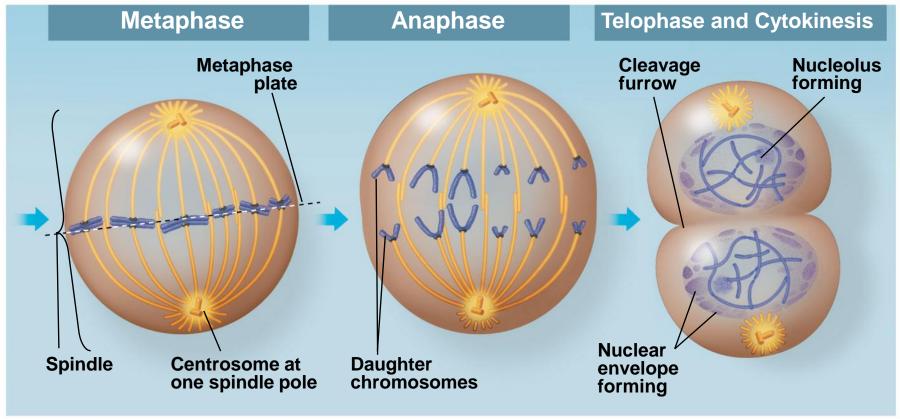
- ما قبل =Prophase (pro
- Prometaphase
- وسطى = Metaphase (meta –
- Anaphase (ana = انفصال
- Telophase (telo= نِهايَة

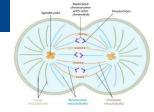
 Cytokinesis overlaps the latter stages of mitosis

Exploring: Mitosis in an Animal Cell









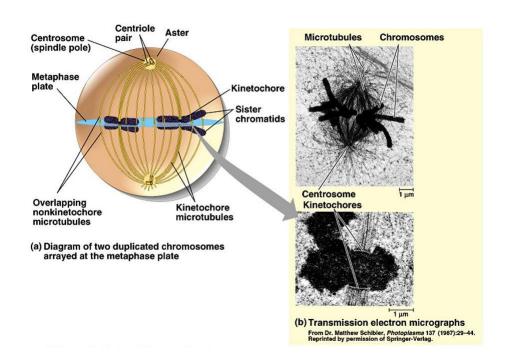
The Mitotic Spindle: A Closer Look

The mitotic spindle is a structure made of microtubules that controls
 chromosome movement during mitosis

 In animal cells, assembly of spindle microtubules begins in the centrosome, the microtubule organizing center The centrosome replicates
 during interphase, forming two
 <u>centrosomes</u> that migrate to
 <u>opposite ends</u> of the cell during
 prophase and prometaphase

 An <u>aster</u> (a radial array of short microtubules) extends from each centrosome

 The spindle includes the centrosomes, the spindle microtubules, and the asters



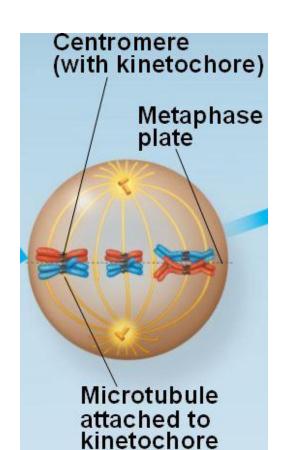
 During prometaphase, some spindle microtubules attach to the kinetochores of chromosomes and begin to move the chromosomes

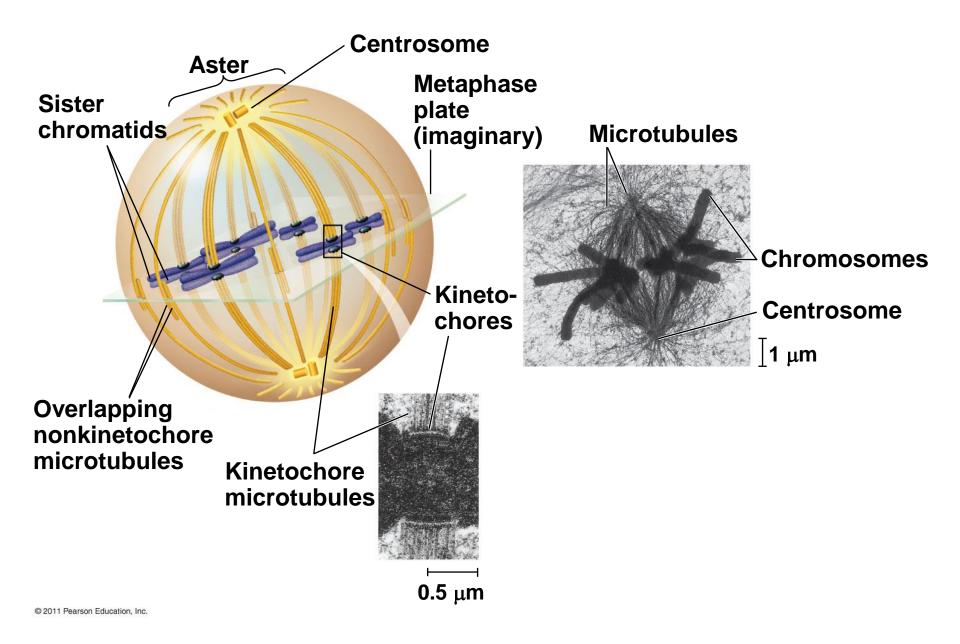
Mitotic spindle

Kinetochore

Sister chromatids

 Kinetochores are protein complexes associated with centromeres At metaphase, the chromosomes are all lined up at the metaphase plate, an imaginary structure at the midway point between the spindle's two poles

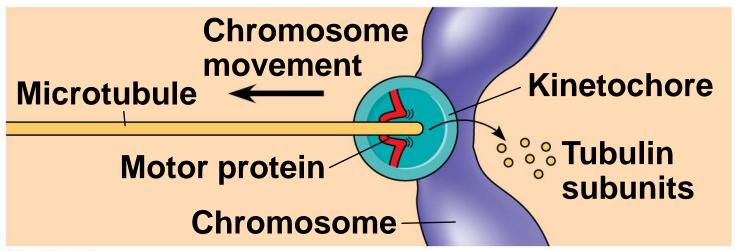




In anaphase, <u>Sister</u>
 <u>Chromatids separate</u>
 and move along the kinetochore microtubules toward opposite ends of the cell

 Anaphase begins when the Cohesins holding together sister chromatids of each chromosome are cleaved by an enzyme called separase

CONCLUSION



Nonkinetochore microtubules from opposite poles overlap and <u>Push against</u>
 each other, elongating the cell

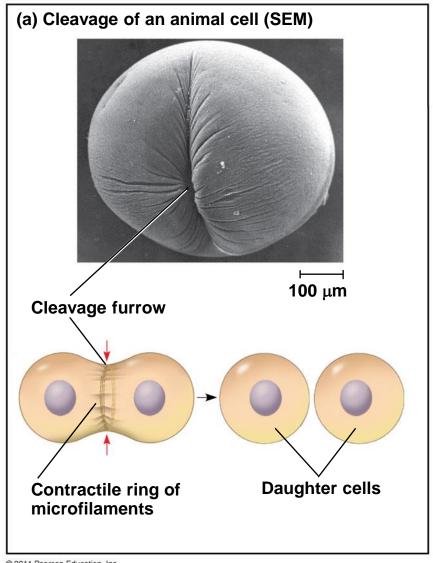
 In telophase, genetically identical daughter nuclei form at opposite ends of the cell

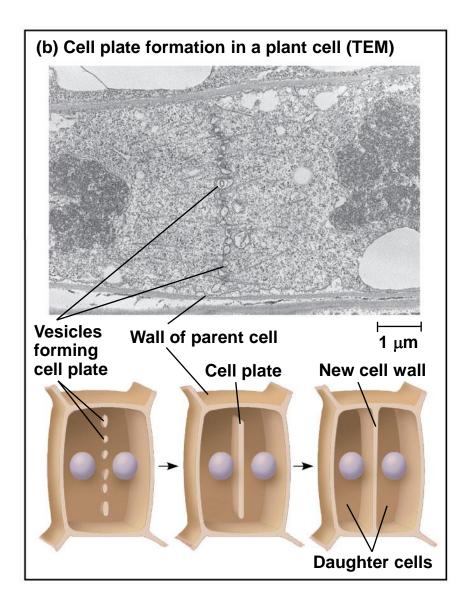
 Cytokinesis begins during anaphase or telophase and the spindle eventually disassembles

Cytokinesis: A Closer Look

 In animal cells, cytokinesis occurs by a process known as cleavage, forming a cleavage furrow

 In plant cells, a Cell plate forms during cytokinesis



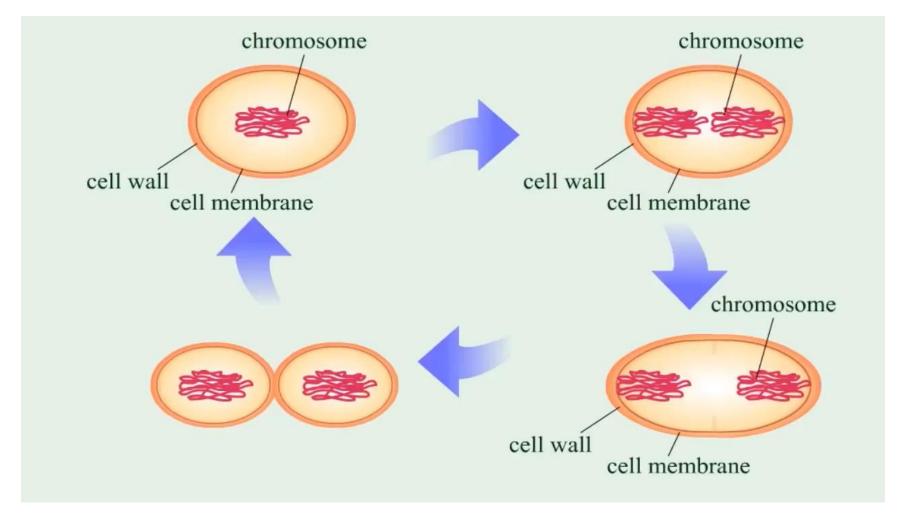


Binary Fission in Bacteria

 Prokaryotes (bacteria and archaea) reproduce by a type of cell division called binary fission

- In binary fission, the chromosome replicates (beginning at the origin of replication), and the two daughter chromosomes actively move apart
- The plasma membrane <u>pinches inward</u>, dividing the cell into two

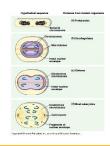
Binary Fission



The Evolution of Mitosis

 Since prokaryotes evolved before eukaryotes, <u>mitosis probably evolved</u> <u>from binary fission</u>

 Certain protists exhibit types of cell division that seem <u>intermediate between binary fission</u> and mitosis



Concept 12.3: The eukaryotic cell cycle is regulated by a molecular control system

 The <u>frequency of cell division</u> varies with the type of cell

 These differences result from <u>regulation</u> at the molecular level

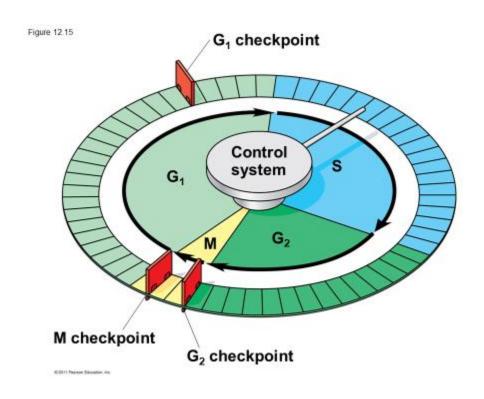
 Cancer cells manage to escape the usual controls on the cell cycle

The Cell Cycle Control System

 The sequential events of the cell cycle are directed by a distinct cell cycle control system, which is similar to a clock

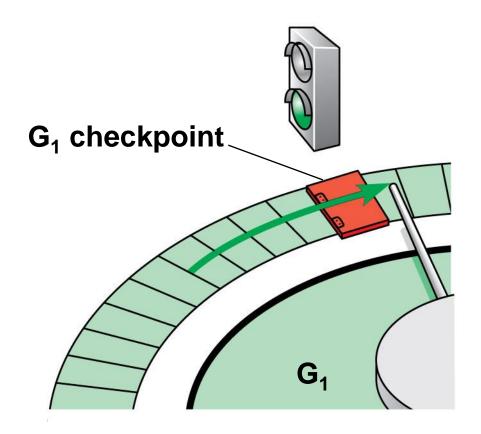
The cell cycle control system is <u>regulated by</u>
 both internal and external controls

 The clock has specific <u>Checkpoints</u> where the cell cycle stops until a go-ahead signal is received



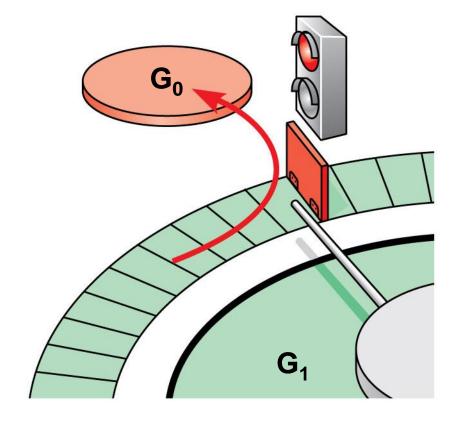
 For many cells, the G₁ checkpoint seems to be the most important

 If the cell does not receive the go-ahead signal, it will exit the cycle, switching into a nondividing state called the G₀ phase



(a) Cell receives a go-ahead signal.

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(b) Cell does not receive a go-ahead signal.

The Cell Cycle Clock: Cyclins and Cyclin-Dependent Kinases

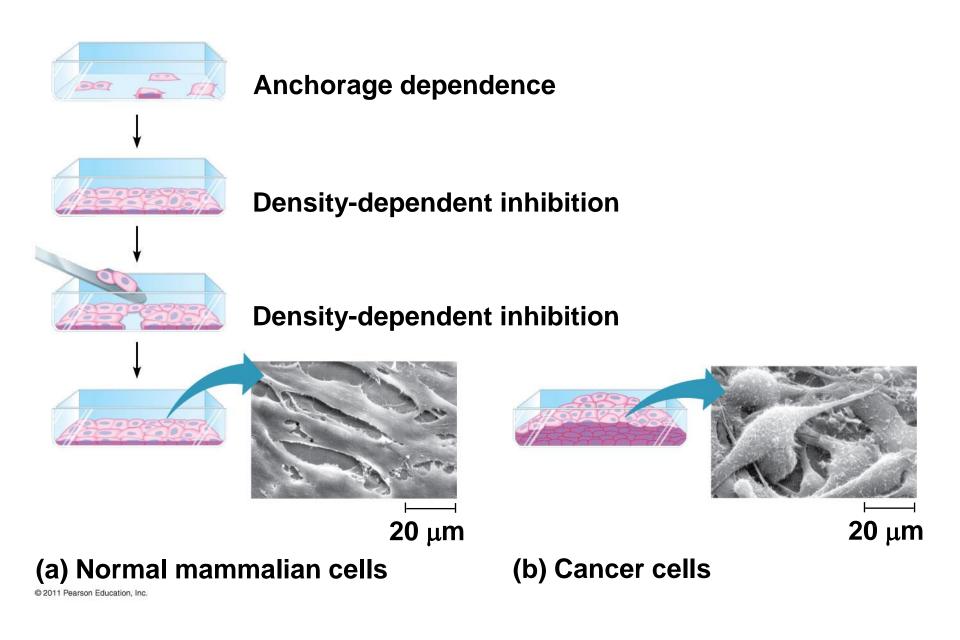
 Two types of regulatory proteins are involved in cell cycle control: cyclins and cyclindependent kinases (Cdks)

 Cdks activity fluctuates during the cell cycle because it is controlled by cyclins, so named because their concentrations vary with the cell cycle An example of an internal signal is that kinetochores not attached to spindle microtubules send a molecular signal that delays anaphase

 Some external signals are growth factors, proteins released by certain cells that stimulate other cells to divide A clear example of external signals is <u>density-dependent inhibition</u>, in which crowded cells stop dividing

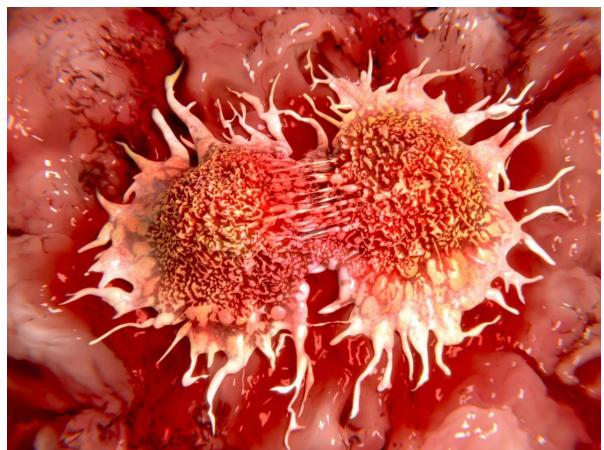
Most animal cells also exhibit <u>anchorage</u>
 <u>dependence</u>, in which they must be attached to a substratum in order to divide

 Cancer cells exhibit neither density-dependent inhibition nor anchorage dependence



Loss of Cell Cycle Controls in Cancer Cells

 Cancer cells do not respond normally to the body's control mechanisms



 Cancer cells may not need growth factors to grow and divide

-They may <u>make their own</u> growth factor

They may <u>convey a growth factor's signal</u>
 <u>without the presence</u> of the growth factor

They may have an <u>abnormal</u>
 <u>cell cycle</u> control system

 A normal cell is converted to a cancerous cell by a process called transformation

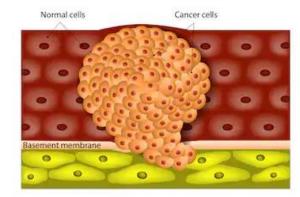
 Cancer cells that are not eliminated by the immune system, form tumors, masses of abnormal cells within otherwise normal tissue

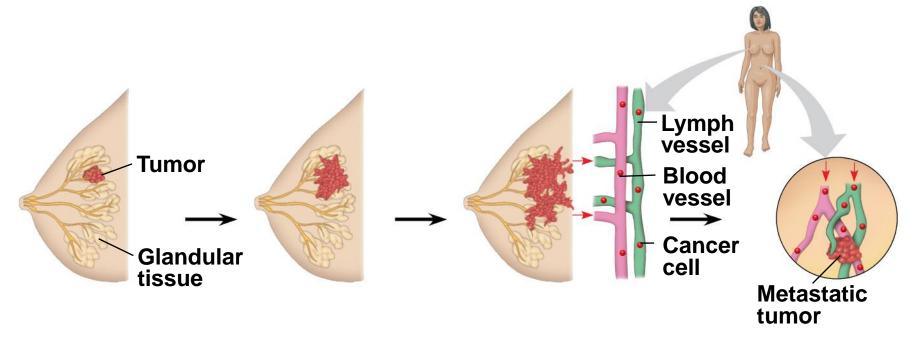
 If abnormal cells <u>remain at the original site</u>, the lump is called a <u>benign tumor</u>



Malignant tumors invade
 surrounding tissues and can
 metastasize, exporting cancer cells to
 other parts of the body, where they may
 form additional tumors

GROWING MALIGNANT TUMOR





- 1 A tumor grows from a single cancer cell.
- Cancer cells invade neighboring tissue.
- 3 Cancer cells spread through lymph and blood vessels to other parts of the body.
- Cancer cells may survive and establish a new tumor in another part of the body.

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 Recent advances in understanding the cell cycle and cell cycle signaling have led to advances in cancer treatment

