

why do cells divide

growth, repair, reproduction

mitosis produces 2 genetically identical daughter cells (called clones)

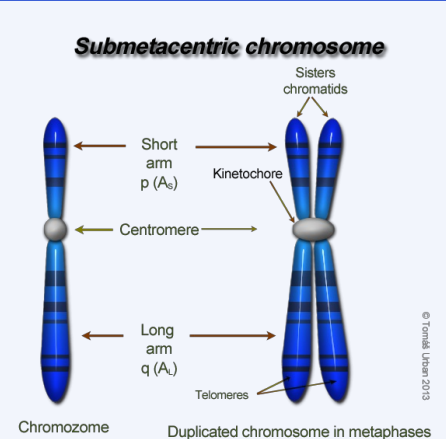
preserves diploid (2n) chromosome number

passes a complete genome from parent to child

genome whole of its hereditary information encoded in its DNA, includes both the genes and the non-coding sequences of the DNA

meiosis in sexually reproducing organisms, results in haploid cells (have half the chromosome # of the parent)(n)

structure of a replicated chromosome



replicated chromosome consists of two sister chromatids where one is an exact copy of the other.

centromere is a specialized region that holds the two chromatids together

kinetochore is a disc-shaped protein on the centromere that attaches the chromatid to the mitotic spindle during cell division

cell cycle basics

bone marrow cells always dividing to produce constant supply of red and white blood cells

liver cells arrested in G₀ (have stopped dividing) can be induced to divide about/regenerate when liver tissue is damaged

human intestine cells divide about twice a day to renew tissue destroyed during digestion

specialized cell ex (nerve cells) do not divide at all

process is regulated in any case by a complex mechanism involving kinases and allosteric interactions

ratio of volume of cell to SA and capacity of nucleus to control the entire cell limit cell size and promote cell division

ratio of cell volume to sa

as cell grows, sa increases as the square of the radius and volume increases as the cube of the radius

volume inside cell grows at faster rate than cell membrane

determines when cell divides

capacity of nucleus

nucleus must be able to provide enough info to produce adequate quantities of all substances to meet the cells needs

bc of this metabolically active cells are usually small

can be large active cells like paramecium

-has two nuclei that each control diff cell functions

human skeletal muscle cells giant multinucleate cells

fungus slime molds consist of one giant cell that has thousands of nuclei

cell division and cancerous cells

contact inhibition//density dependent inhibition normal cells grow and divide until they become too crowded then they stop and enter G₀

anchorage dependence (ANIMALS) to divide, cell must be attached or anchored to some surface

can be Petri dish (in vitro) or extracellular membrane (in vivo)

cancer cells show none of these two things divide uncontrollably, and do not have to be anchored to any membrane

^is why cancer cells can migrate or metastasize to other regions of body

regulation and timing of the cell cycle

cell cycle control system regulates the rate at which cells divide

check points act as stop signals that halt cell unless overridden by go signals

checkpoints in G1, G2, and M

G1 is most important, if receive go ahead, cell will most likely complete cycle

if it doesn't, it will go to G0 and become a non dividing cell

timing of cell cycle is initiated by growth factors and controlled by 2 molecules

cyclins and protein kinases

cyclins get name bc levels cyclicly rise and fall in dividing cells

synthesized during every S and G2 phase

broken down after M phase

kinases are and ubiquitous class of proteins that activate other proteins by phosphorylating them

only activated when bound to a cyclin

named cyclin dependent kinases (cdk)

when cdk binds to a cyclin, cyclin cdk complex is formed

ex of this is mpf which triggers cells passage from G2 to mitosis

maturation (mitosis) promoting factor

contributes to molecular events required for chromosome condensation and spindle formation during prophase

after M phase, during anaphase, mpf switches off by initiating process that leads to the breakdown of cyclin

regulation and timing of the cell cycle (cont)

cdk persists in cell in inactive form until becomes part of mpf again

interphase

G1 intense **growth** and **biochemical activity**

S synthesis/**replication of DNA**

G2 cell continues to **grow** and complete preparations for cell division

more than **90%** of cells life is in interphase in interphase, **chromatin** is threadlike, not condensed

centrosome consisting of two centrioles may be seen in the cytoplasm of ANIMAL cell

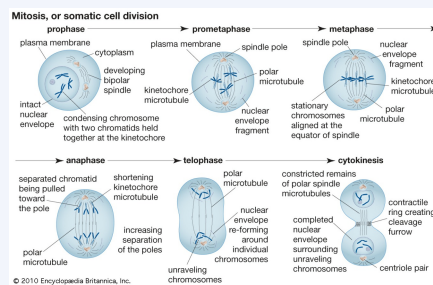
centrosome is **duplicated** during s phase

G2 - M transition two centrosomes separate from one another and move to opposite poles

plant cells **lack** centrosomes but have microtubule organizing centers (MTOCs)

these have the same function

mitosis



consists of the actual dividing of the nucleus

prophase



prometaphase



metaphase



equatorial plate=metaphase plate

centrosomes at opp poles of cell

spindle fibers run from centrosome to kinetochores in the centromeres

anaphase



telophase



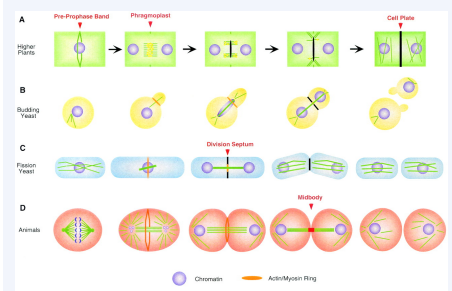
supercoiled chromosomes uncoil back to chromatin

telophase



supercoiled chromosomes uncoil back to chromatin

cytokinesis



dividing of the cytoplasm

begins during anaphase



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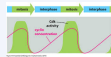
animal cells: cleavage furrow forms down middle of cell as actin and myosin microfilaments pinch in the cytoplasm

plant cells: cell plate forms during telophase as vesicles from golgi coalesce down middle of cell, daughter plant cells DO NOT separate

new cell wall forms and sticky middle lamella cements adjacent cells together

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cyclin vs cdk



activity of cdk rises and falls depending on changes in concn of cyclin

peaks of mpf activity correspond to rise in cyclin concentration

cyclin levels rise during S and G2 phases and then fall abruptly during the M phase

meiosis

generates genetic diversity that is the raw material for natural selection and evolution

produces gametes (ova and sperm)

have haploid or monoploid chromosomes (n)

half genetic material of parent cell

nucleus divides twice

each gamete differs genetically from every other gamete

sexual reproduction involves fusion of two haploid gametes and restores diploid chromosome # to offspring

meiosis I homologous chromosomes separate
reduction division

each chromosome pairs up w homologue in synaptonemal complex by process called synapsis

forms structure called tetrad (set of 4) or bivalent (in pairs)

by aligning/binding crossing over is likely

^process by which non sister chromatids exchange genetic material

results in recombination of genetic material

ensures greater variation among gametes

meiosis II like sister chromatids
mitosis separate into diff cells

prophase I



-synapsis, pairing of homologues occurs crossing over, exchange of homologous bits of chromosomes

-chiasmata, visible manifestations of the crossover events are visible

-sets stage for separation (segregation of DNA)

metaphase 1



spindle fibers from poles of the cell are attached to the centromeres of each pair of homologues

anaphase 1



telophase 1 / cytokinesis 1



in telophase: each pole has haploid # of chromosomes

cytokinesis occurs simultaneously w telophase 1

in some species interphase occurs bet meiosis 1 and 2, in other none

NO chromosome replication in bet meiosis 1 and 2

meiosis 2

meiosis and genetic variation

3 types of genetic variation occur from meiosis and fertilization

independent assortment of chromosomes, crossing over, random fertilization of an ovum by a sperm

independent assortment of chromosomes

homologous pairs separate depending on the random way they line up on the metaphase plate during metaphase 1

each pair of chromosomes can line up in two possible orientations

50% chance receive maternal chrom	50% chance receive paternal chrom
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possible # of combinations of chromosomes is 2^{23}	bc 23 pairs of chromosomes in humans
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crossover

produces recombinant chromosomes that combine genes inherited from both parents

may be 2 to 3 crossover events in humans

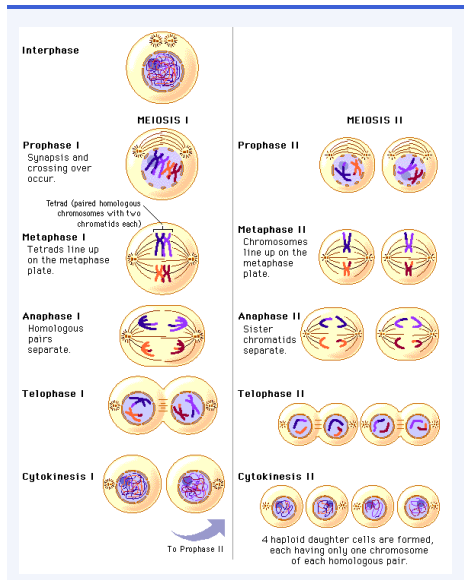
metaphase 2 recombinant chromosomes line up on metaphase plate in random fashion

^increases possible types of gametes even more

random fertilization

human ovum and sperm represent 8 million possible chromosome combinations **respectively**

when one sperm fertilizes one ovum	8 million x 8 million recombinations can occur
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same as mitosis

chromosome # remains haploid



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