

Chapter 8

Cellular Reproduction: Cells from Cells

Biology and Society: Virgin Birth of a Dragon

- In 2002, zookeepers at the Chester Zoo were surprised to discover that their Komodo Dragon laid eggs.
 - The female dragon had not been in the company of a male.
 - The eggs developed without fertilization, in a process called parthenogenesis.
 - DNA analysis confirmed that her offspring had genes only from her.

Biology and Society: Virgin Birth of a Dragon

- A second European Komodo dragon is now known to have reproduced
 - asexually, via parthenogenesis, and
 - sexually.

Figure 8.0

WHAT CELL REPRODUCTION ACCOMPLISHES

- Reproduction
 - may result in the birth of new organisms but
 - more commonly involves the production of new cells.
- When a cell undergoes reproduction, or **cell division**, two “daughter” cells are produced that are genetically identical
 - to each other and
 - to the “parent” cell.
- Before a parent cell splits into two, it duplicates its **chromosomes**, the structures that contain most of the cell’s DNA.
- During cell division, each daughter cell receives one identical set of chromosomes from the lone, original parent cell.
- Cell division plays important roles in the lives of organisms.
- Cell division
 - replaces damaged or lost cells,
 - permits growth, and

allows for reproduction.

Figure 8.1a
Figure 8.1aa
Figure 8.1ab

- In **asexual reproduction**,
 - single-celled organisms reproduce by simple cell division and
 - there is no fertilization of an egg by a sperm.
- Some multicellular organisms, such as sea stars, can grow new individuals from fragmented pieces.
- Growing a new plant from a clipping is another example of asexual reproduction.

Figure 8.1b
Figure 8.1ba
Figure 8.1bb
Figure 8.1bc

- In asexual reproduction, the lone parent and its offspring have identical genes.
- Mitosis is the type of cell division responsible for
 - asexual reproduction and
 - growth and maintenance of multicellular organisms.
- **Sexual reproduction** requires fertilization of an egg by a sperm using a special type of cell division called meiosis.
- Thus, sexually reproducing organisms use
 - meiosis for reproduction and
 - mitosis for growth and maintenance.

- In a eukaryotic cell,
 - most genes are located on chromosomes in the cell nucleus and
 - a few genes are found in DNA in mitochondria and chloroplasts.

Eukaryotic Chromosomes

- Each eukaryotic chromosome contains one very long DNA molecule, typically bearing thousands of genes.
- The number of chromosomes in a eukaryotic cell depends on the species.

Figure 8.2

- Chromosomes are
 - made of **chromatin**, fibers composed of roughly equal amounts of DNA and protein molecules and
 - not visible in a cell until cell division occurs.

Figure 8.3

- The DNA in a cell is packed into an elaborate, multilevel system of coiling and folding.
- **Histones** are proteins used to package DNA in eukaryotes.
- **Nucleosomes** consist of DNA wound around histone molecules.

Figure 8.4

Figure 8.4a

Figure 8.4b

- Before a cell divides, it duplicates all of its chromosomes, resulting in two copies called **sister chromatids** containing identical genes.
- Two sister chromatids are joined together tightly at a narrow “waist” called the **centromere**.
- When the cell divides, the sister chromatids of a duplicated chromosome separate from each other.
- Once separated, each chromatid is
 - considered a full-fledged chromosome and
 - identical to the original chromosome.

Figure 8.5

The Cell Cycle

- A **cell cycle** is the ordered sequence of events that extend
 - from the time a cell is first formed from a dividing parent cell
 - to its own division into two cells.
- The cell cycle consists of two distinct phases:
 - interphase and
 - the mitotic phase.

Figure 8.6

Figure 8.6a

Figure 8.6b

- Most of a cell cycle is spent in **interphase**.
- During interphase, a cell
 - performs its normal functions,
 - doubles everything in its cytoplasm, and
 - grows in size.
- The **mitotic (M) phase** includes two overlapping processes:
 - **mitosis**, in which the nucleus and its contents divide evenly into two daughter nuclei and
 - **cytokinesis**, in which the cytoplasm is divided in two.

Mitosis and Cytokinesis

- During mitosis the **mitotic spindle**, a football-shaped structure of microtubules, guides the separation of two sets of daughter chromosomes.
- Spindle microtubules grow from structures within the cytoplasm called **centrosomes**.
- Mitosis consists of four distinct phases:

- **Prophase**
 - Figure 8.7a
 - Figure 8.7aa
 - Figure 8.7ab
 - Figure 8.7ac
 - Figure 8.7ad

- **Prophase**
- **Metaphase**
 - Figure 8.7b
 - Figure 8.7bb

- **Prophase**
- **Metaphase**
- **Anaphase**
 - Figure 8.7b
 - Figure 8.7bc

- **Prophase**
- **Metaphase**
- **Anaphase**

Telophase

Figure 8.7ba
Figure 8.7bd

Cytokinesis usually

- begins during telophase,
- divides the cytoplasm, and
- is different in plant and animal cells.

In animal cells, cytokinesis

- is known as cleavage and
- begins with the appearance of a cleavage furrow, an indentation at the equator of the cell.

Figure 8.8a
Figure 8.8aa
Figure 8.8ab

In plant cells, cytokinesis begins when vesicles containing cell wall material collect at the middle of the cell and then fuse, forming a membranous disk called the **cell plate**.

Figure 8.8b
Figure 8.8ba
Figure 8.8bb

Cancer Cells: Growing Out of Control

Normal plant and animal cells have a **cell cycle control system** that consists of specialized proteins, which send “stop” and “go-ahead” signals at certain key points during the cell cycle.

What Is Cancer?

Cancer is a disease of the cell cycle.

Cancer cells do not respond normally to the cell cycle control system.

Cancer cells can form **tumors**, abnormally growing masses of body cells.

If the abnormal cells remain at the original site, the lump is called a **benign tumor**.

The spread of cancer cells beyond their original site of origin is **metastasis**.

Malignant tumors can

- spread to other parts of the body and
- interrupt normal body functions.

A person with a malignant tumor is said to have **cancer**.

Figure 8.9

Cancer Treatment

Cancer treatment can involve

— **radiation therapy**, which damages DNA and disrupts cell division, and

— **chemotherapy**, the use of drugs to disrupt cell division.

Cancer Prevention and Survival

Certain behaviors can *decrease* the risk of cancer:

- not smoking,
- exercising adequately,
- avoiding exposure to the sun,
- eating a high-fiber, low-fat diet,
- performing self-exams, and
- regularly visiting a doctor to identify tumors early.

Sexual reproduction

— depends on meiosis and fertilization and

— produces offspring that contain a unique combination of genes from the parents.

Figure 8.10

Homologous Chromosomes

Different individuals of a single species have the same

- number and
- types of chromosomes.

A human **somatic cell**

- is a typical body cell and
- has 46 chromosomes.

A **karyotype** is an image that reveals an orderly arrangement of chromosomes.

Homologous chromosomes

Figure 8.11
Figure 8.11a

- Humans have
 - are matching pairs of chromosomes that can possess different versions of the same genes.
 - two different **sex chromosomes**, X and Y, and
 - 22 pairs of matching chromosomes, called **autosomes**.

Gametes and the Life Cycle of a Sexual Organism

- The **life cycle** of a multicellular organism is the sequence of stages leading from the adults of one generation to the adults of the next.
Figure 8.12
- Humans are **diploid** organisms with
 - body cells containing two sets of chromosomes and
 - **haploid** gametes that have only one member of each homologous pair of chromosomes.
- In humans, a haploid sperm fuses with a haploid egg during **fertilization** to form a diploid **zygote**.
- Sexual life cycles involve an alternation of diploid and haploid stages.
- Meiosis produces haploid gametes, which keeps the chromosome number from doubling every generation.

Figure 8.13-1
Figure 8.13-2
Figure 8.13-3

The Process of Meiosis

- In **meiosis**,
 - haploid daughter cells are produced in diploid organisms,
 - interphase is followed by two consecutive divisions, meiosis I and meiosis II, and
 - crossing over occurs.

Figure 8.14a
Figure 8.14aa
Figure 8.14ab
Figure 8.14ac
Figure 8.14ad
Figure 8.14b
Figure 8.14ba
Figure 8.14bb

Figure 8.14bc
Figure 8.14bd
Review: Comparing Mitosis and Meiosis

- In mitosis and meiosis, the chromosomes duplicate only once, during the preceding interphase.
- The number of cell divisions varies:
 - Mitosis uses one division and produces two diploid cells.
 - Meiosis uses two divisions and produces four haploid cells.
- All the events unique to meiosis occur during meiosis I.
Figure 8.15
Figure 8.15a
Figure 8.15b
The Origins of Genetic Variation

- Offspring of sexual reproduction are genetically different from their parents and one another.

Independent Assortment of Chromosomes

- When aligned during metaphase I of meiosis, the side-by-side orientation of each homologous pair of chromosomes is a matter of chance.
- Every chromosome pair orients independently of all of the others at metaphase I.
- For any species, the total number of chromosome combinations that can appear in the gametes due to independent assortment is
 - 2^n , where n is the haploid number.
- For a human,
 - $n = 23$.
 - With $n = 23$, there are 8,388,608 different chromosome combinations possible in a gamete.

Figure 8.16-1
Figure 8.16-2
Figure 8.16-3
Random Fertilization

- A human egg cell is fertilized randomly by one sperm, leading to genetic variety in the zygote.
- If each gamete represents one of 8,388,608 different chromosome combinations, at fertilization, humans would have $8,388,608 \times 8,388,608$, or more than 70 trillion different possible chromosome combinations.
- So we see that the random nature of fertilization adds a huge amount of potential variability to the offspring of sexual reproduction.

Figure 8.17
Crossing Over

- In **crossing over**,
 - nonsister chromatids of homologous chromosomes exchange corresponding segments and
 - **genetic recombination**, the production of gene combinations different from those carried by parental chromosomes, occurs.

Figure 8.18
Figure 8.18a
Figure 8.18b

The Process of Science:
Do All Animals Have Sex?

- **Observation:** No scientists have ever found male bdelloid rotifers, a microscopic freshwater invertebrate.
 - **Question:** Does this entire class of animals reproduce solely by asexual means?
- The Process of Science:**
Do All Animals Have Sex?
- **Hypothesis:** Bdelloid rotifers have thrived for millions of years despite a lack of sexual reproduction.
 - **Prediction:** Bdelloid rotifers would display much more variation in their pairs of homologous genes than most organisms.
 - **Experiment:** Researchers compared sequences of a particular gene in bdelloid and non-bdelloid rotifers.
 - **Results:**
 - Non-bdelloid sexually reproducing rotifers had a nearly identical homologous gene, differing by only 0.5% on average.
 - The two versions of the same gene in asexually reproducing bdelloid rotifers differed by 3.5–54%.
 - **Conclusion:** Bdelloid rotifers have evolved for millions of years without any sexual reproduction.

Figure 8.19

- What happens when errors occur in meiosis?
- Such mistakes can result in genetic abnormalities that range from mild to fatal.

How Accidents during Meiosis Can Alter Chromosome Number

- In **nondisjunction**,
 - the members of a chromosome pair fail to separate at anaphase,
 - producing gametes with an incorrect number of

chromosomes.

- Nondisjunction can occur during meiosis I or II.
- Figure 8.20-1
Figure 8.20-2
Figure 8.20-3

- If nondisjunction occurs, and a normal sperm fertilizes an egg with an extra chromosome, the result is a zygote with a total of $2n + 1$ chromosomes.
- If the organism survives, it will have
 - an abnormal karyotype and
 - probably a syndrome of disorders caused by the abnormal number of genes.

Figure 8.21

Down Syndrome: An Extra Chromosome 21

- **Down syndrome**
 - is also called **trisomy 21**,
 - is a condition in which an individual has an extra chromosome 21, and
 - affects about one out of every 700 children.

Figure 8.22
Figure 8.22a
Figure 8.22b

- The incidence of Down syndrome in the offspring of normal parents increases markedly with the age of the mother.

Figure 8.23

Abnormal Numbers of Sex Chromosomes

- Nondisjunction in meiosis
 - can lead to abnormal numbers of sex chromosomes but
 - seems to upset the genetic balance less than unusual numbers of autosomes, perhaps because the Y chromosome is very small and carries relatively few genes.

Table 8.1

Evolution Connection:
The Advantages of Sex

- Asexual reproduction conveys an evolutionary advantage when plants are
 - sparsely distributed and unlikely to be able to exchange pollen or
 - superbly suited to a stable environment.

- Asexual reproduction also eliminates the need to expend energy

- forming gametes and
- copulating with a partner.

Figure 8.24

- Sexual reproduction may convey an evolutionary advantage by

- speeding adaptation to a changing environment or
- allowing a population to more easily rid itself of harmful genes.

Figure 8.UN01
Figure 8.UN02
Figure 8.UN03
Figure 8.UN04
Figure 8.UN05
Figure 8.UN06