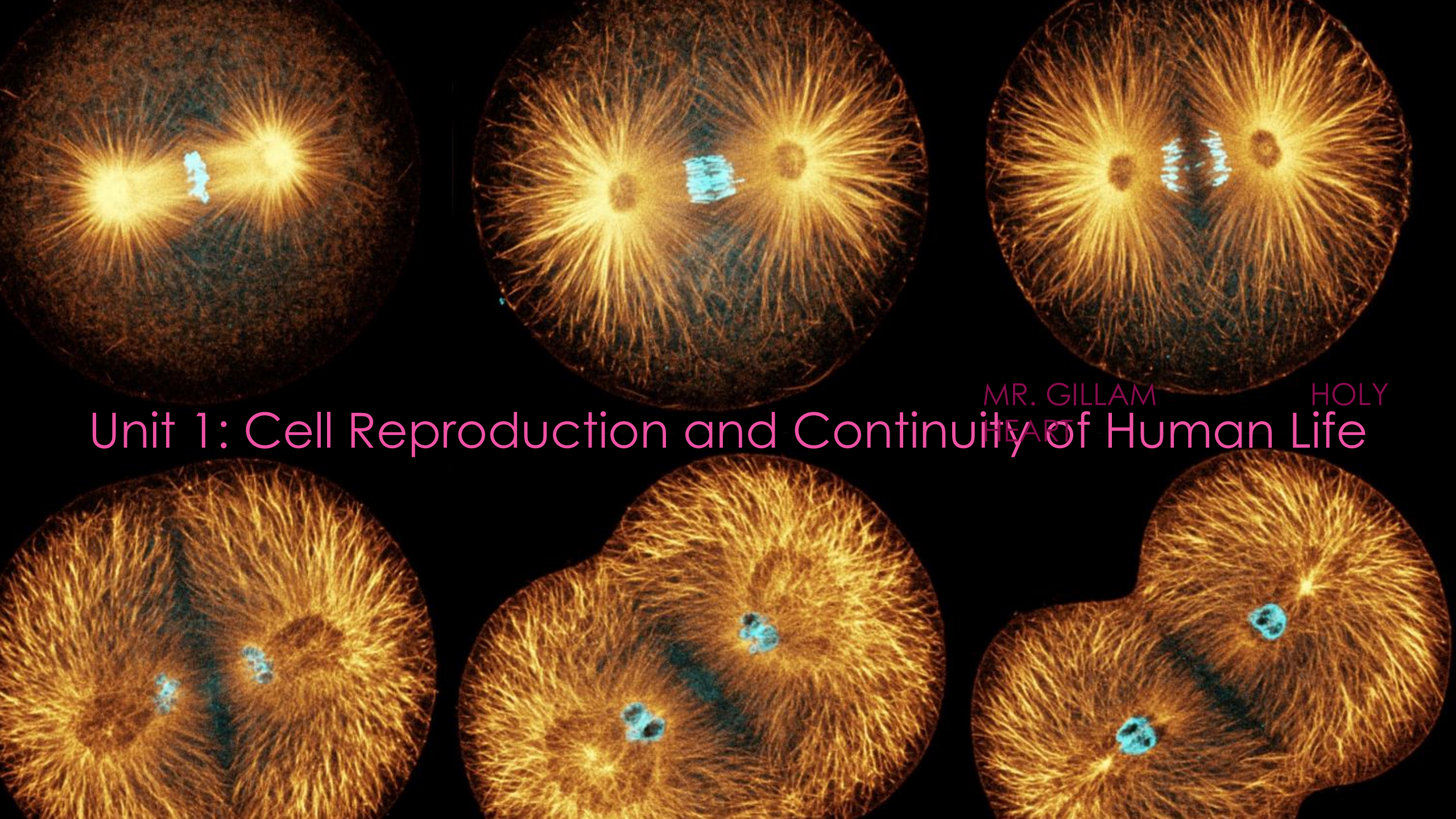


# Unit 1: Cell Reproduction and Continuity of Human Life

MR. GILLAM HOLY HEART


# Activity Launch Lab

- Cell Division


# Genetic Material in the Nucleus

- **chromosome** a length of DNA and associated protein; condensed form of genetic material

- Two Types:
- 1. **sex chromosome** X or Y chromosome; determines genetic sex
- 2.) **Autosome:** chromosome other than sex chromosome
- **chromatin** non-condensed form of genetic material that predominates for most of the life cycle of the cell

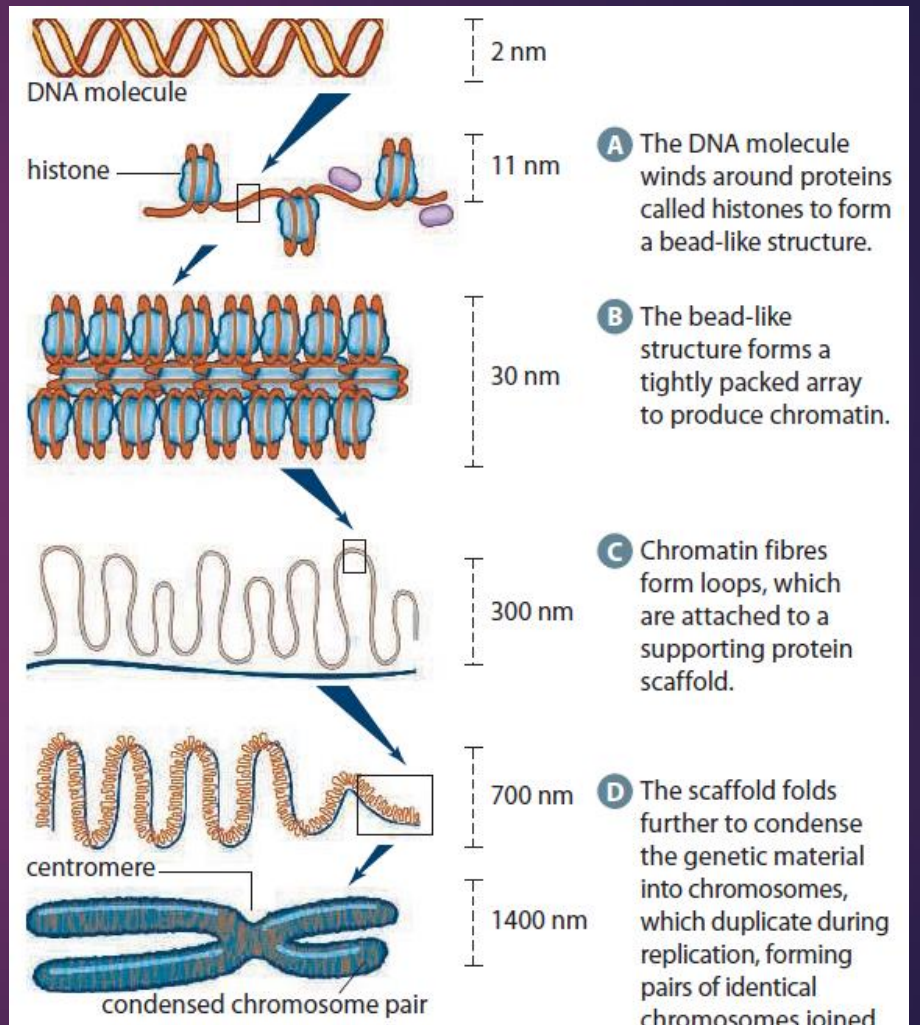
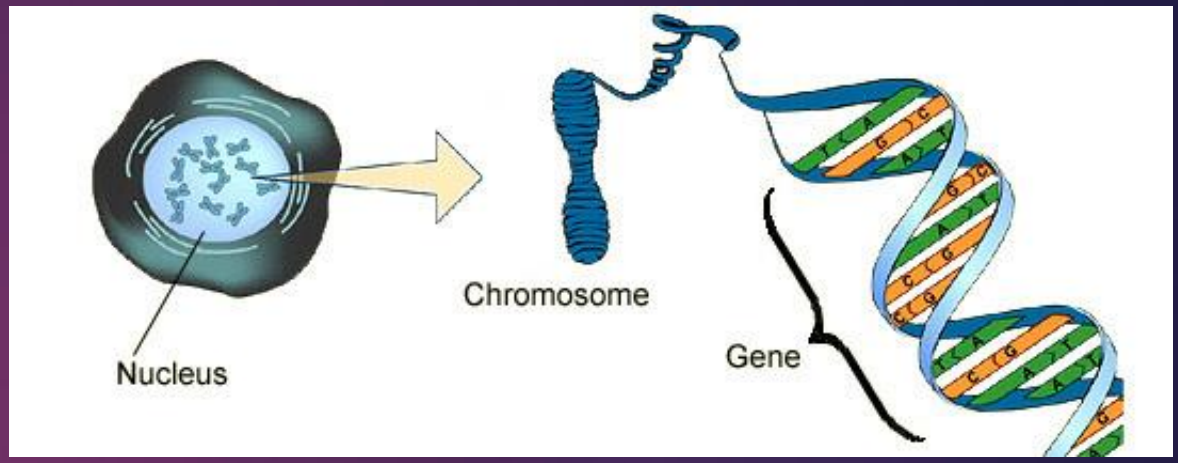
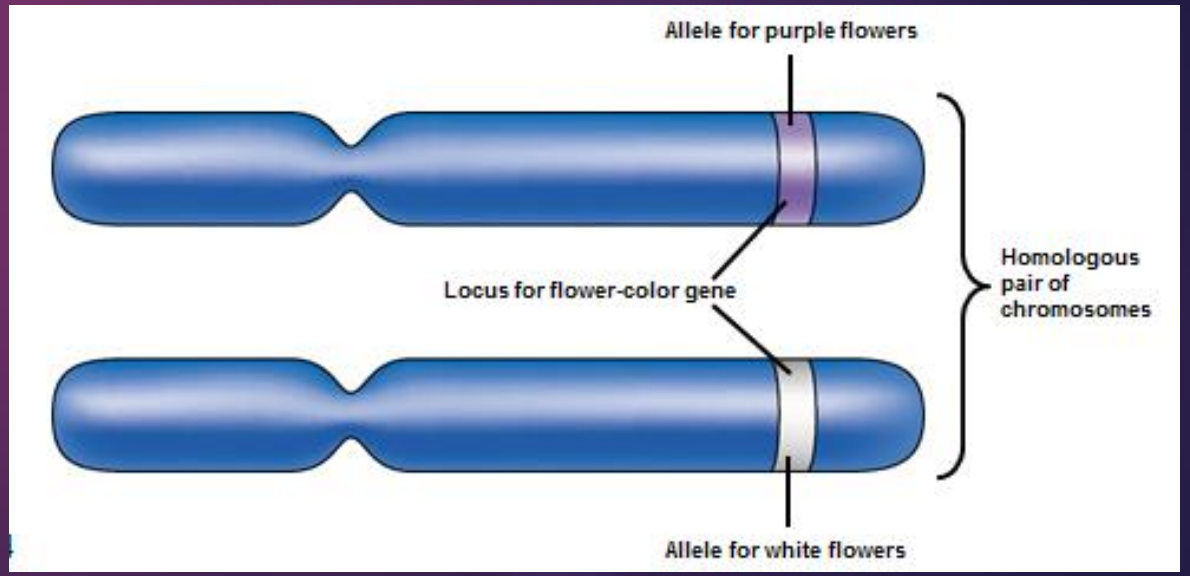



**Figure 12.2** The levels of organization of genetic material in a eukaryotic cell


# Genetic Material in the Nucleus

- The genetic information of a cell is contained in its ***DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid)***, a molecule of nucleic acid that governs processes of heredity in the cells of organisms.
- **gene** governs expression of a trait
- **allele** one of the different forms of the same gene




# Somatic Cells

- **cell cycle** life cycle of a cell
- **somatic cell** body cell
- **Human somatic cells have 46 chromosomes and are diploid.**
- 22 pairs of autosomes
- 1 pair of sex chromosomes

- **diploid** cell with two pairs of homologous chromosomes (2n)

- **homologous chromosomes** chromosomes with the same gene sequence

- The autosomes are numbered 1 through 22. The sex chromosomes are called X and Y.

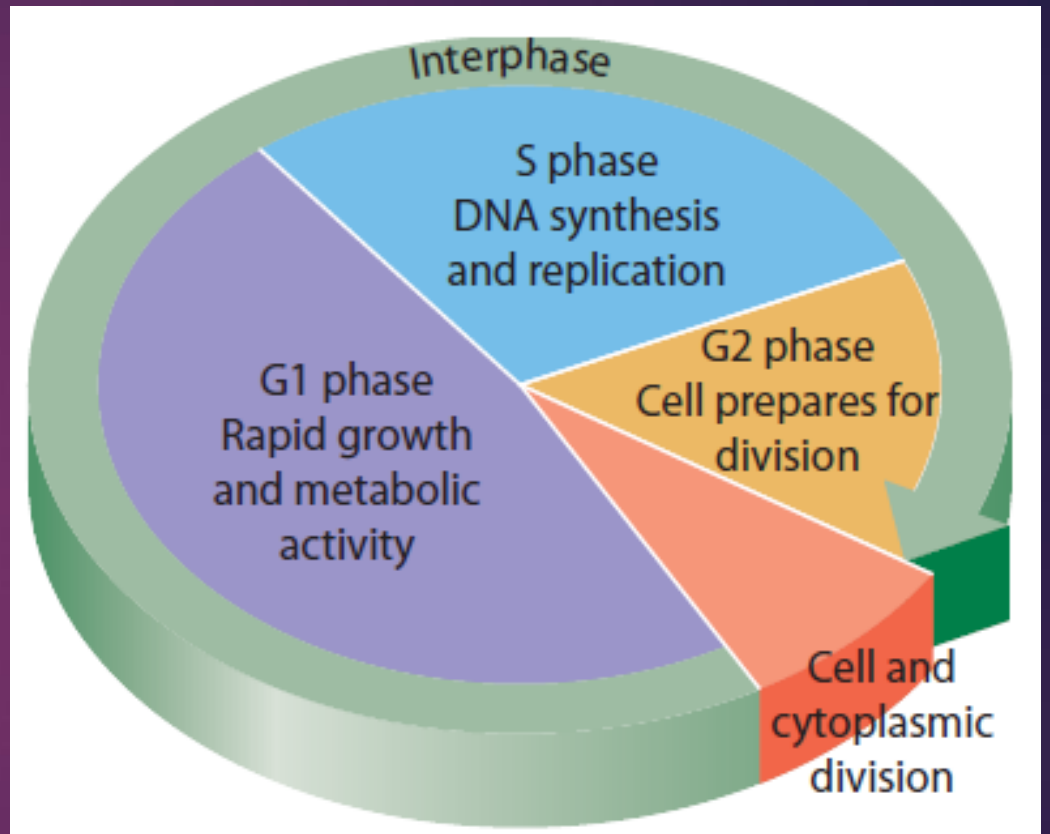



**Figure 12.4** The cell cycle. Interphase, the stage of growth and metabolic activity, occupies most of the cell cycle. The division stage involves the reproduction of the nucleus and the division of the cell contents.


# Somatic Cells

- The lives of somatic cells vary, based on their type and their environment.
- For example, skin cells, are replaced frequently, so the cells that produce them divide frequently.
- Nerve cells, divide infrequently or not at all.
- For the many somatic cells that divide, the cell cycle consists of a maintenance period during which a cell seems to be resting and a period during which it divides.

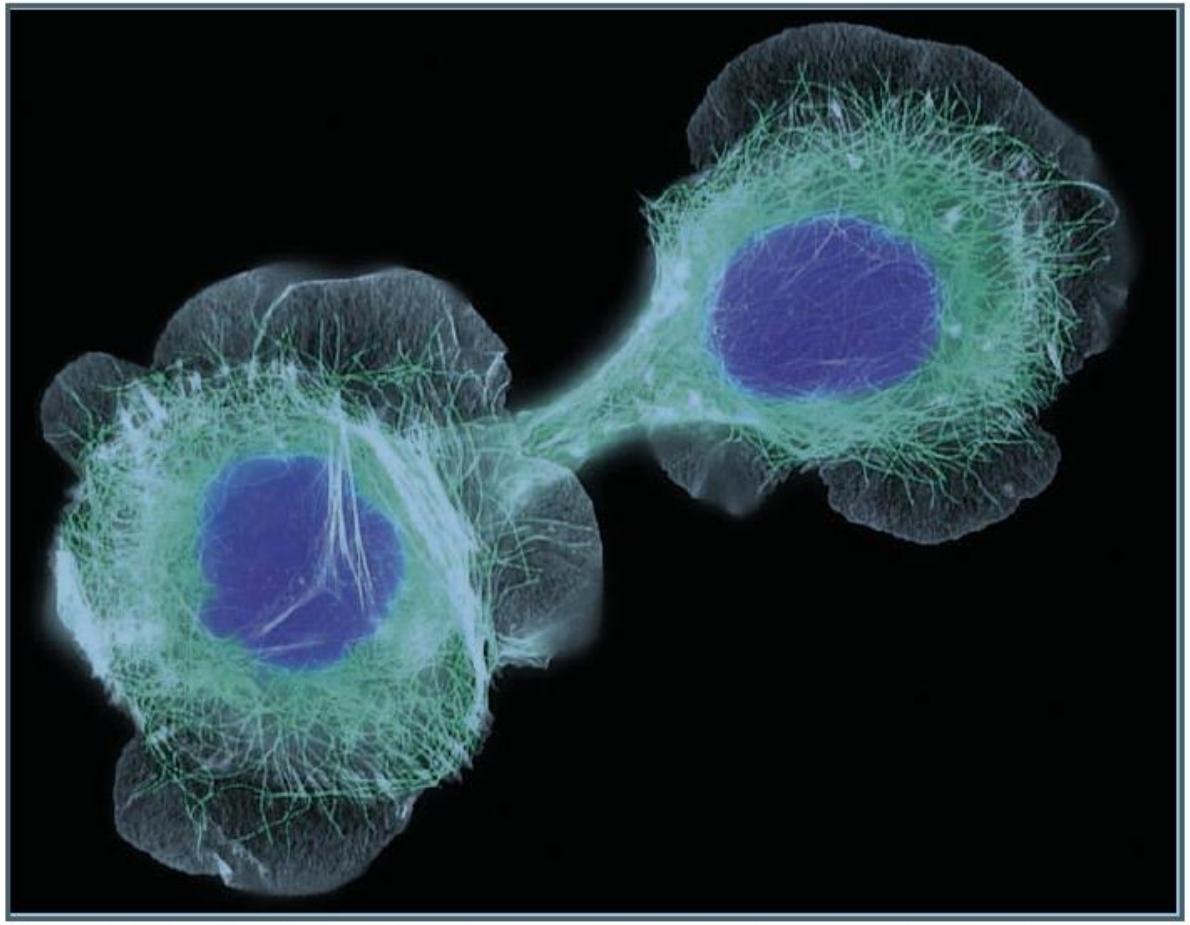


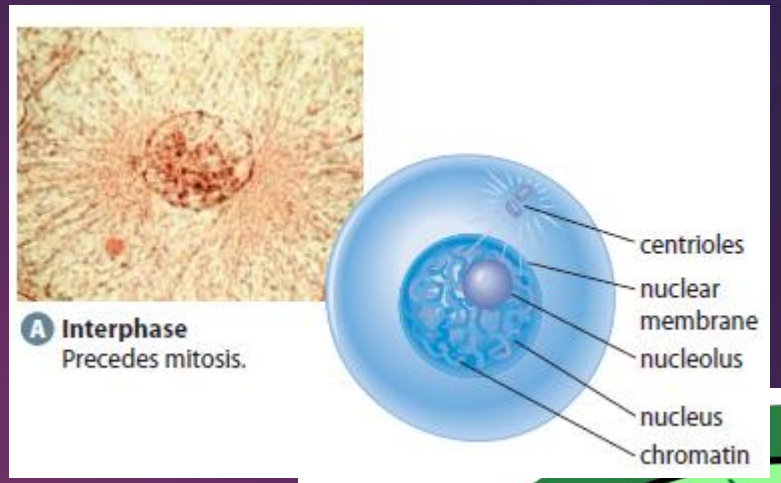
**Figure 12.1** Dividing human skin cells. On average, we lose and replace, through cell division, more than 30 000 skin cells each minute.

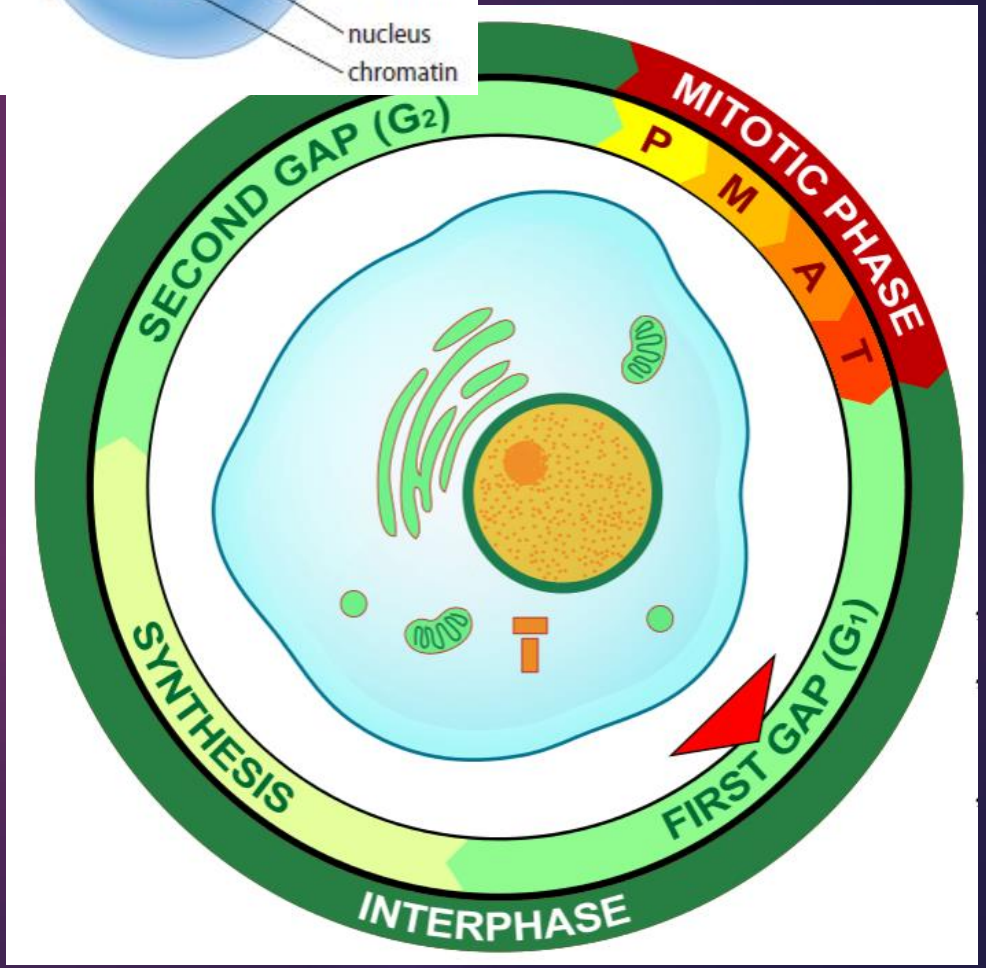

# The Cell Cycle

- **interphase** growth stage of cell cycle

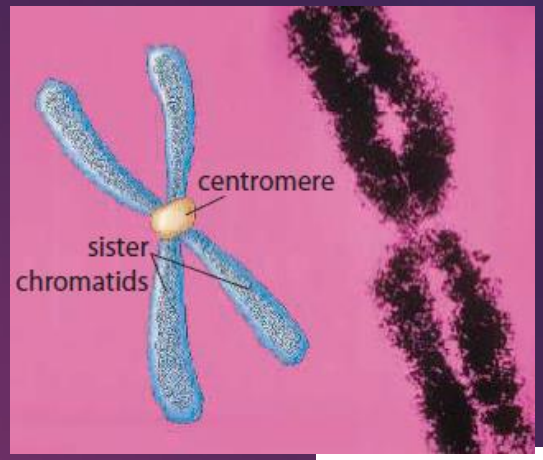
- There are three phases in interphase: G1, S, and G2.

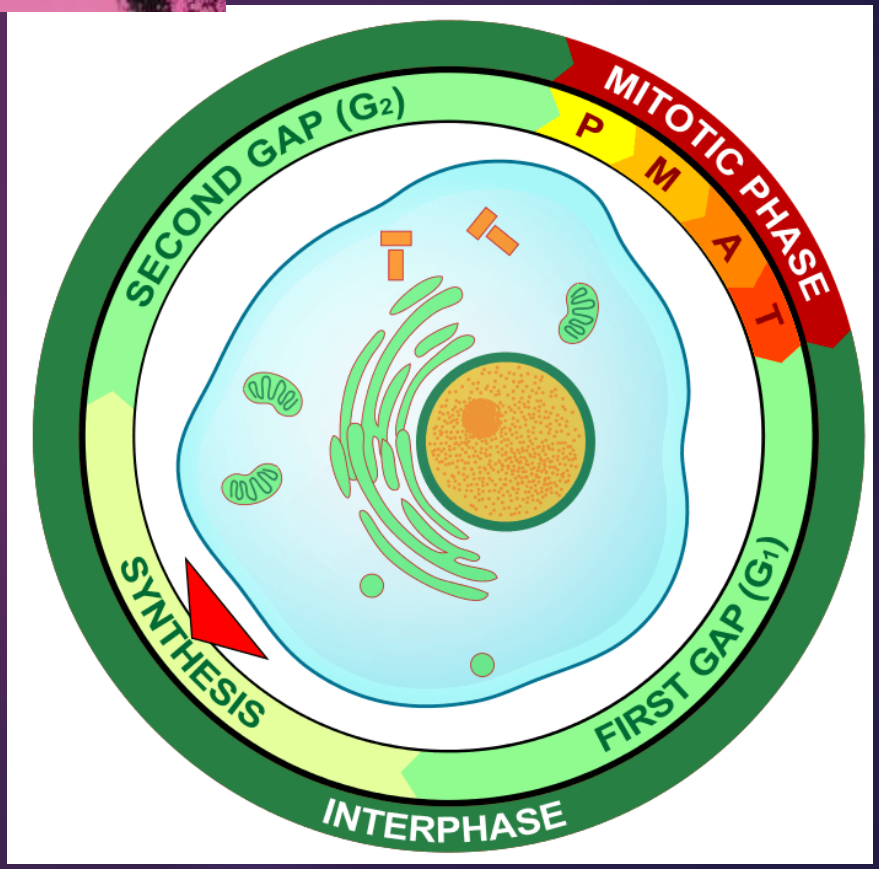
- **G1 phase:** The cell grows quickly during this phase, making many new cell molecules (except DNA).
- Protein Synthesis
- Organelles are produced
- Increase volume of the cytoplasm



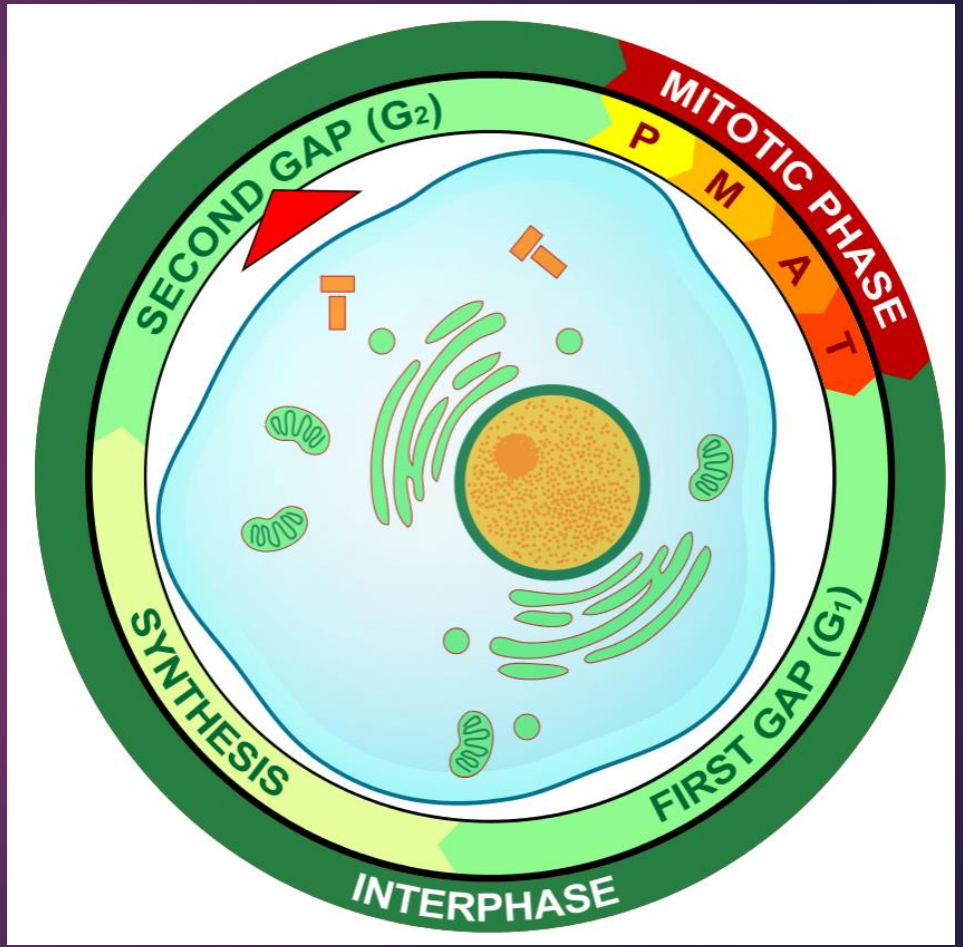




- **S phase:** The DNA in the chromatin replicates to create an identical copy of DNA.
- Cell duplicates its DNA
- These two identical chromosomes, called sister chromatids.
- **sister chromatid** one of two chromosomes that are genetically identical and held together at the centromere
- The **centromere** is the specialized DNA sequence of a chromosome that links a pair of sister chromatids



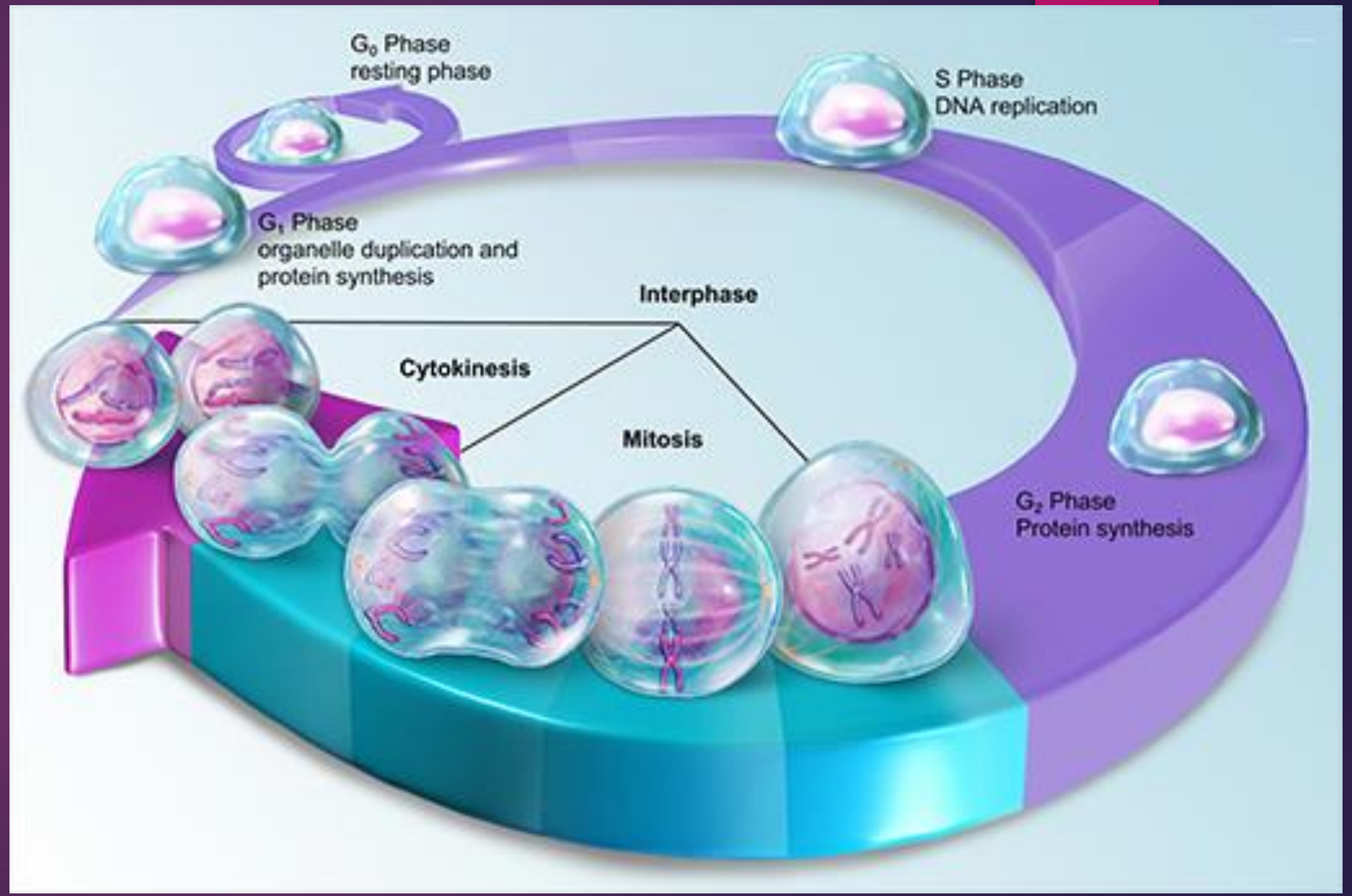

- **G2 phase:** This second growth stage lets the cell rebuild its reserves of energy to prepare for division. As well, the cell manufactures proteins and other molecules to make structures required for division of the nucleus and cell.
- Organelles are produced
- Increase volume of the cytoplasm
- Interphase ends when the cell begins the process of nuclear division.



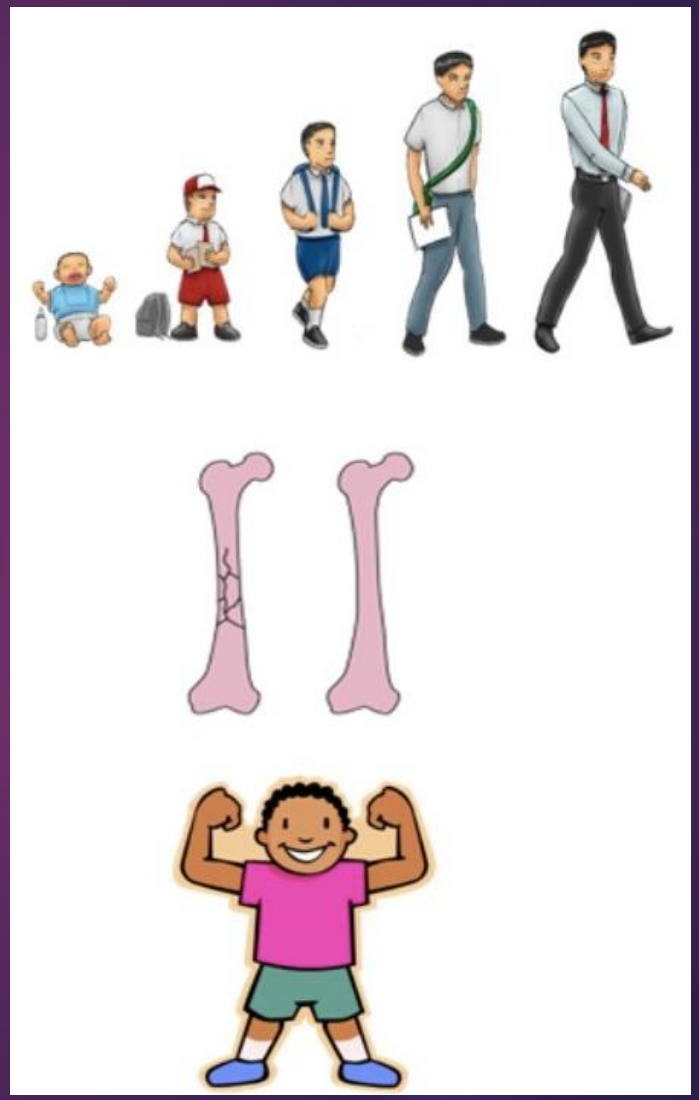

# Cell Division

- There are two main processes in cell division:
- **mitosis** division of genetic material and the cell's nucleus.
- Prophase
- Metaphase
- Anaphase
- Telophase

- **cytokinesis** separation of the cytoplasm and organelles to form two separate daughter cells

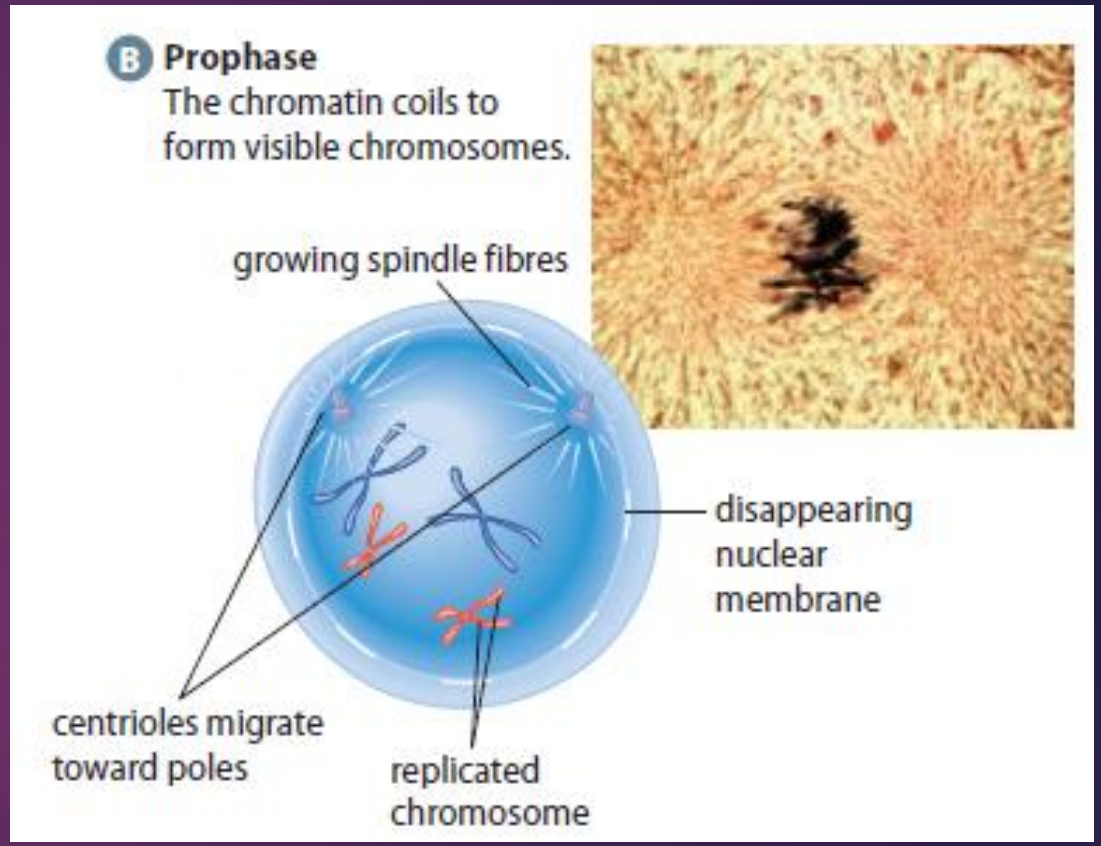



- The linked processes of mitosis and cytokinesis have three important functions:
- **Growth:** They enable organisms to grow from a single-celled zygote into a mature organism that may contain hundreds of trillions of cells.
- **Maintenance:** They produce new cells to replace worn out or dead cells.
- **Repair:** They can regenerate damaged tissues. If you cut your finger, skin cells reproduce so that new skin can grow over the injured area.



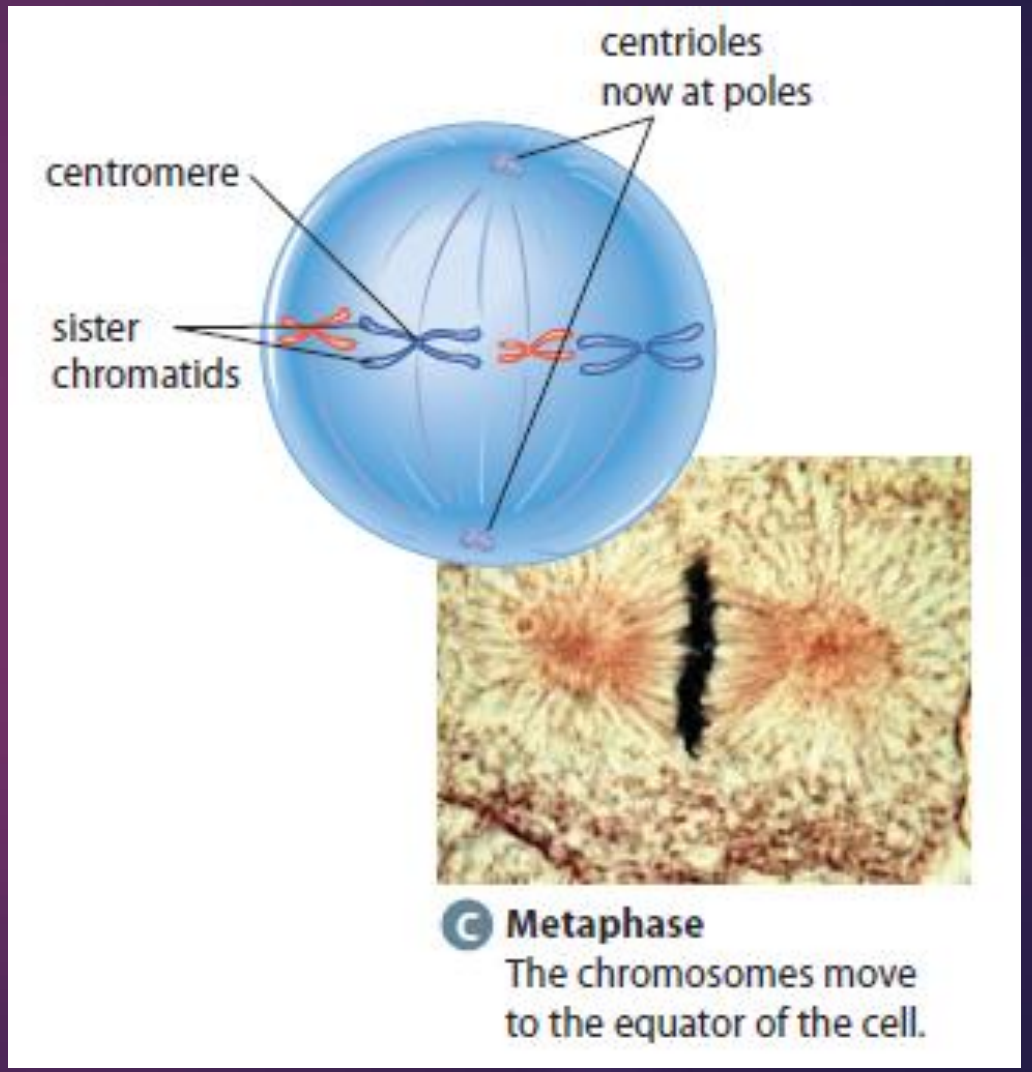

# Mitotic Phases - Prophase

- 1. The chromatin condenses into tightly packed chromosomes.
- 2. The nuclear membrane breaks down, releasing the chromosomes into the cytoplasm.
- 3. The nucleolus disappears.
- 4. One pair of cylindrical organelles, called centrioles, moves apart to opposite poles of the cell.
- **Centriole:** a cylindrical organelle near the nucleus in animal cells, occurring in pairs and involved in the development of spindle fibers in cell division.



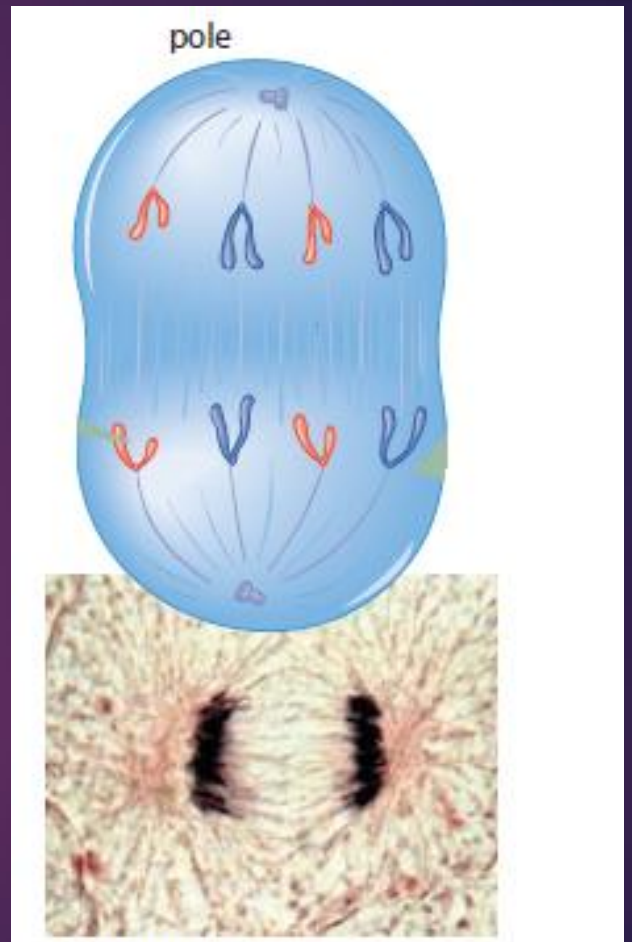

# Mitotic Phases - Metaphase

- 1. The spindle fibres guide the chromosomes to the equator, or centre line, of the cell.
- 2. The spindle fibres from opposite poles attach to the centromere of each chromosome.
- Each pair of sister chromatids is considered to be a single chromosome as long as the chromatids remain joined at the centromere.




# Mitotic Phases - Anaphase

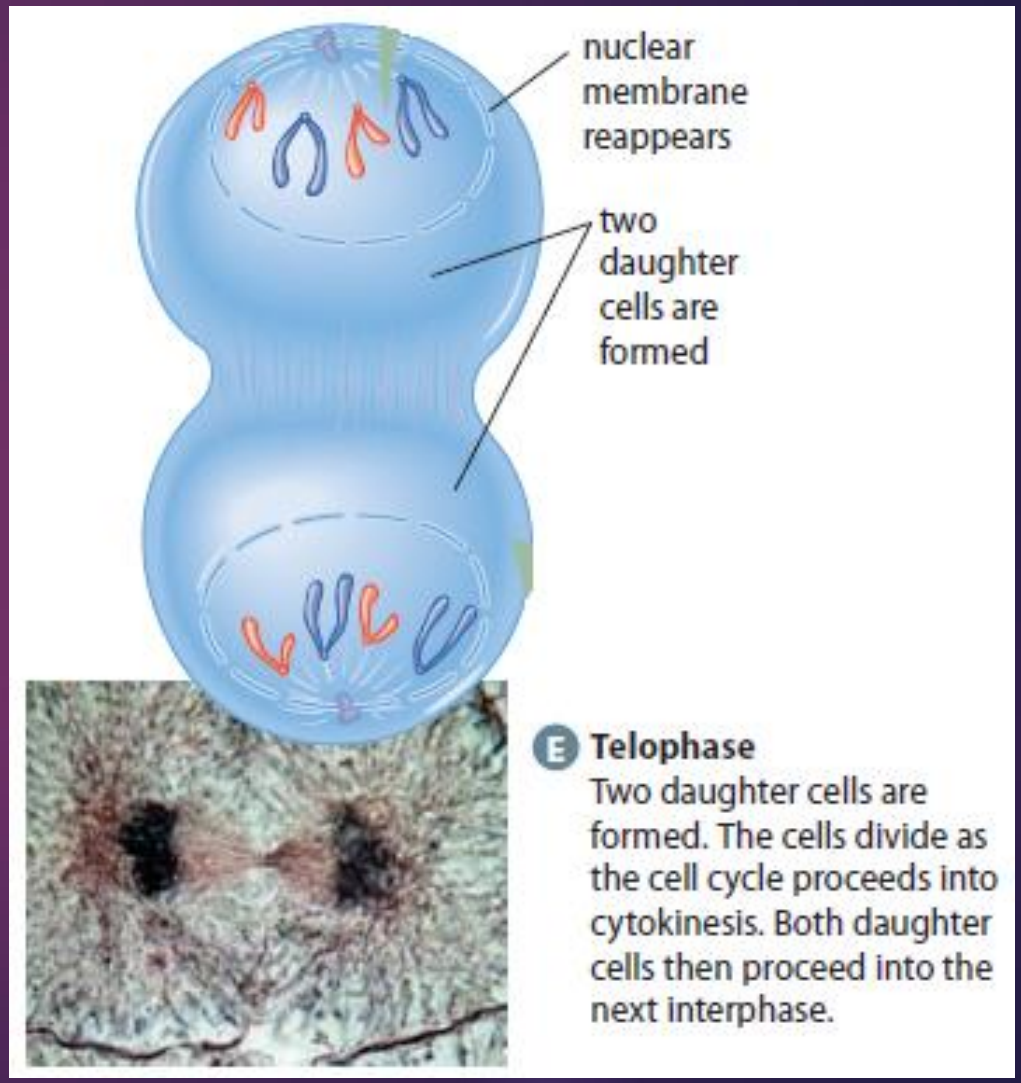
- 1. Each centromere splits apart and the sister chromatids separate from one another.
- 2. The spindle fibres that link the centromeres to the poles of the cell shorten.
- 3. As these fibres shorten, sister chromatids are pulled to opposite poles. At the same time, other microtubules in the spindle apparatus lengthen and force the poles of the cell away from one another.
- At the end of anaphase, one complete diploid set of chromosomes has been gathered at each pole of the elongated cell.




**D Anaphase**
The centromeres split and the sister chromatids are pulled apart to opposite poles of the cell.

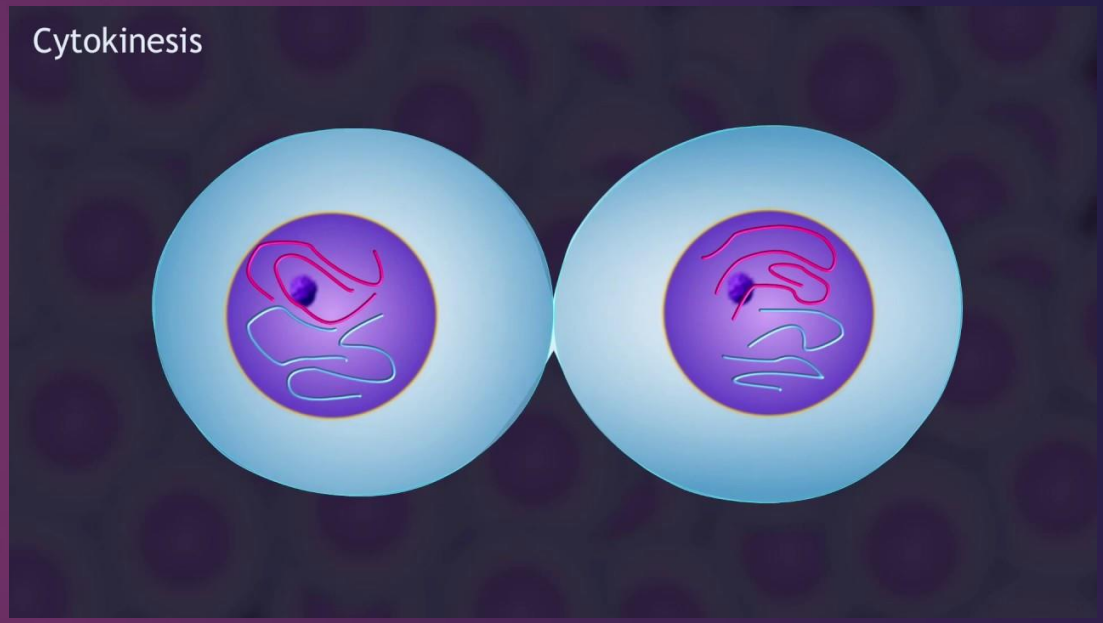

# Mitotic Phases - Telophase

- 1. Telophase begins when the chromatids have reached the opposite poles of the cell.
- 2. The chromatids begin to unwind into the longer and less visible strands of chromatin.
- 3. The spindle fibres break down.
- 4. A nuclear membrane forms around each new set of chromosomes, and a nucleolus forms within each new nucleus.



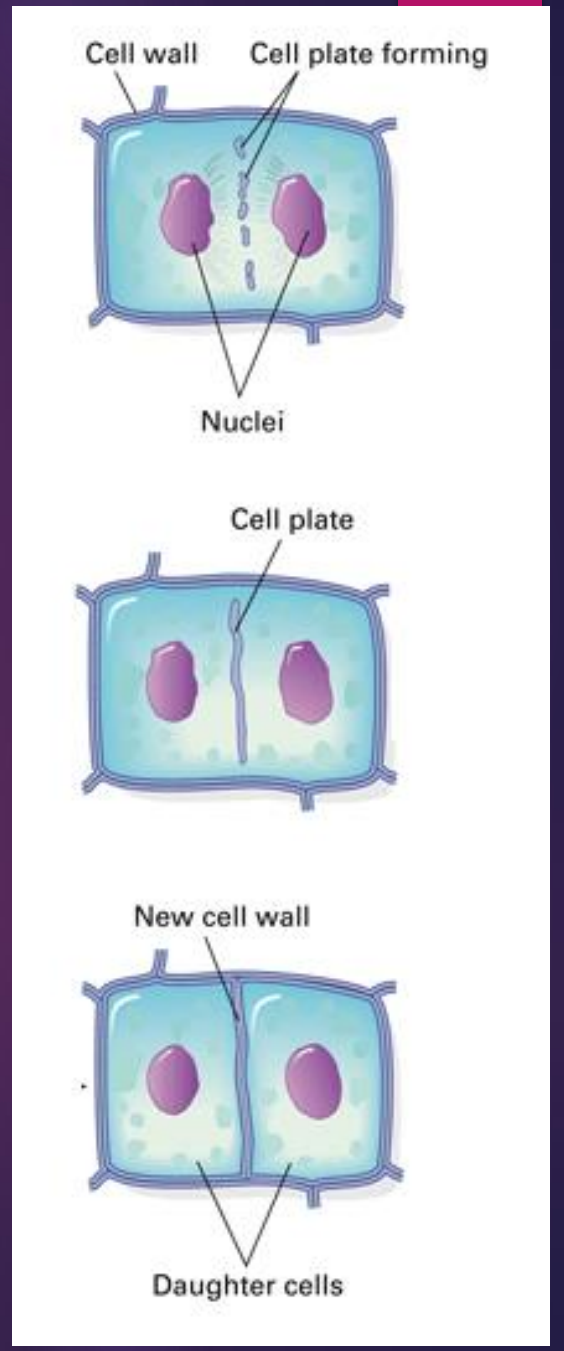

# Cytokinesis - Animals

- In animal cells, a cleavage furrow forms in the cell membrane along the cell equator. This indentation deepens until the cell is pinched in two.
- **Cleavage Furrow** an indentation that appears in a cell's surface when the cell is preparing to divide.
- The cytoplasm and organelles divide equally between the two halves of the cell.
- Cytokinesis ends with the separation of the two genetically identical daughter cells.



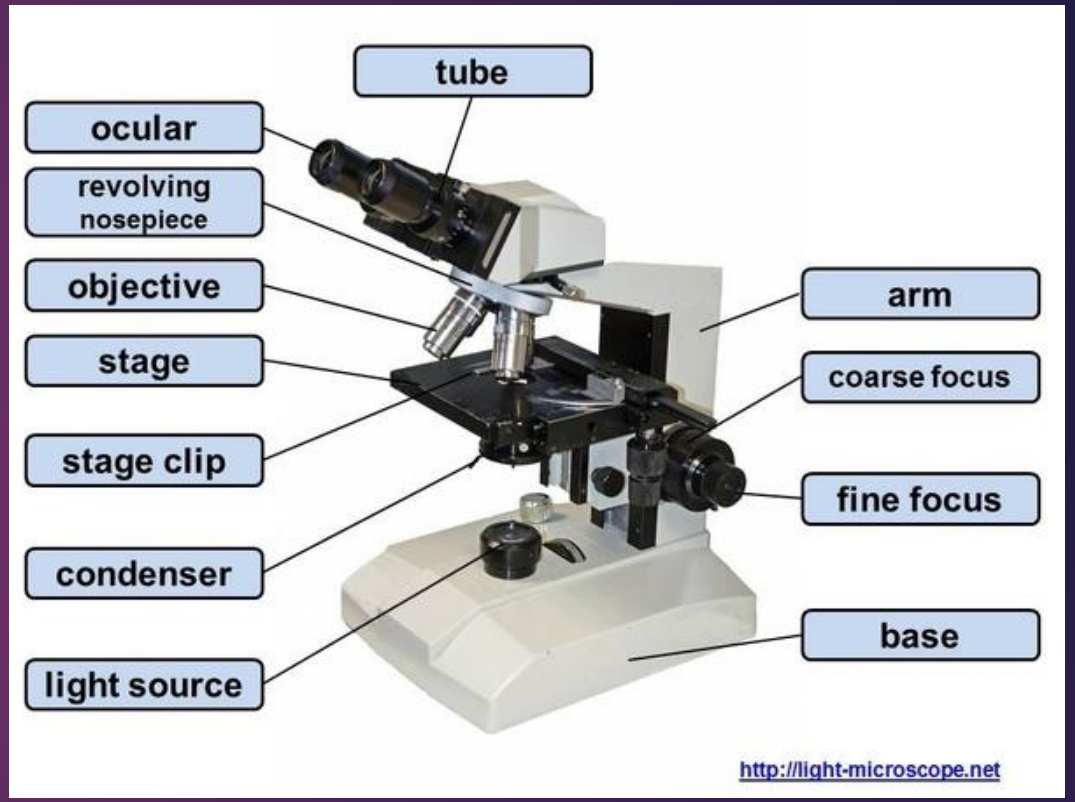

# Cytokinesis - Plants

- Plant cells do not have centrioles, but they do form a spindle apparatus.
- The rigid cell wall of a plant cell is much stronger than the membrane of an animal cell.
- The cell wall does not furrow and pinch in during cytokinesis.
- Instead, a membrane called a **cell plate** forms between the two daughter nuclei.
- This cell plate extends across the diameter of the cell, and it is then reinforced by the addition of cellulose and proteins to create a new cell wall.




# Using the Microscope

- 1. Make sure that the low-power objective lens is in position. If not, rotate the nosepiece until the low-power objective lens clicks into place.
- 2. Look through the eyepiece and adjust the diaphragm until the view is as bright as possible.
- 3. Place a prepared slide on the stage and secure it in place with the stage clips. Make sure the object you want to view is centred over the opening in the stage.

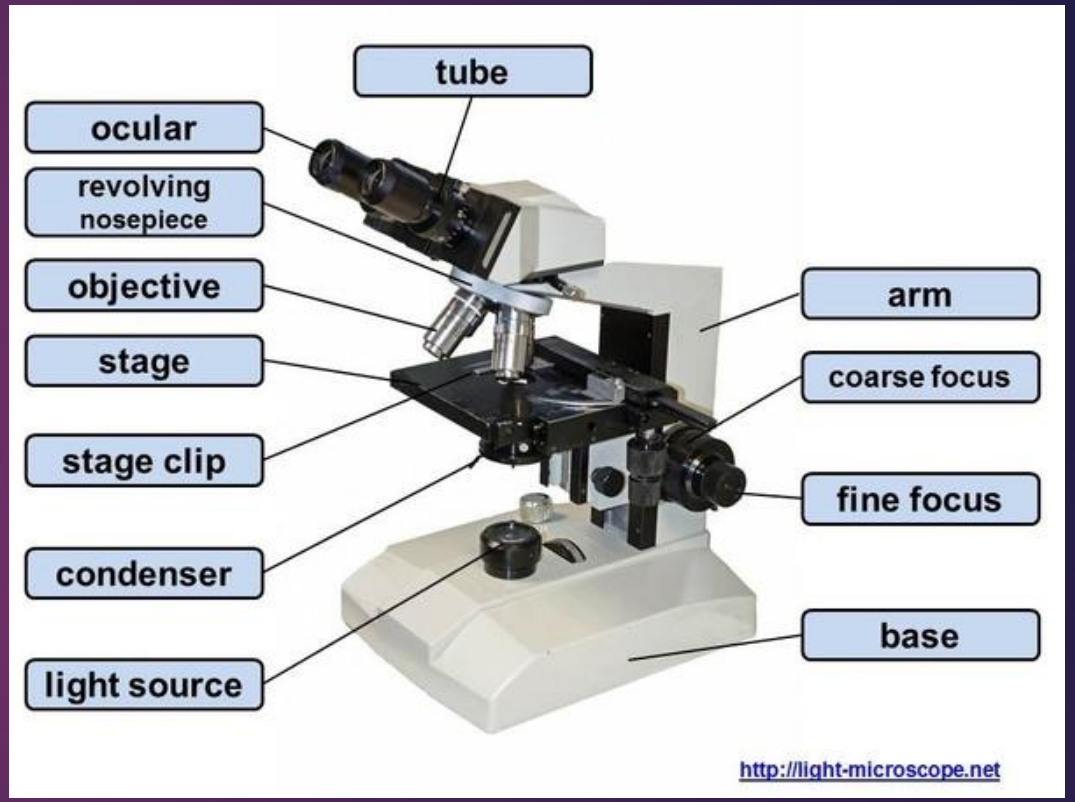



# Using the Microscope

- 4. Look through the eyepiece. Slowly turn the coarse adjustment knob until the object is in focus. Use the fine adjustment knob to sharpen the focus.

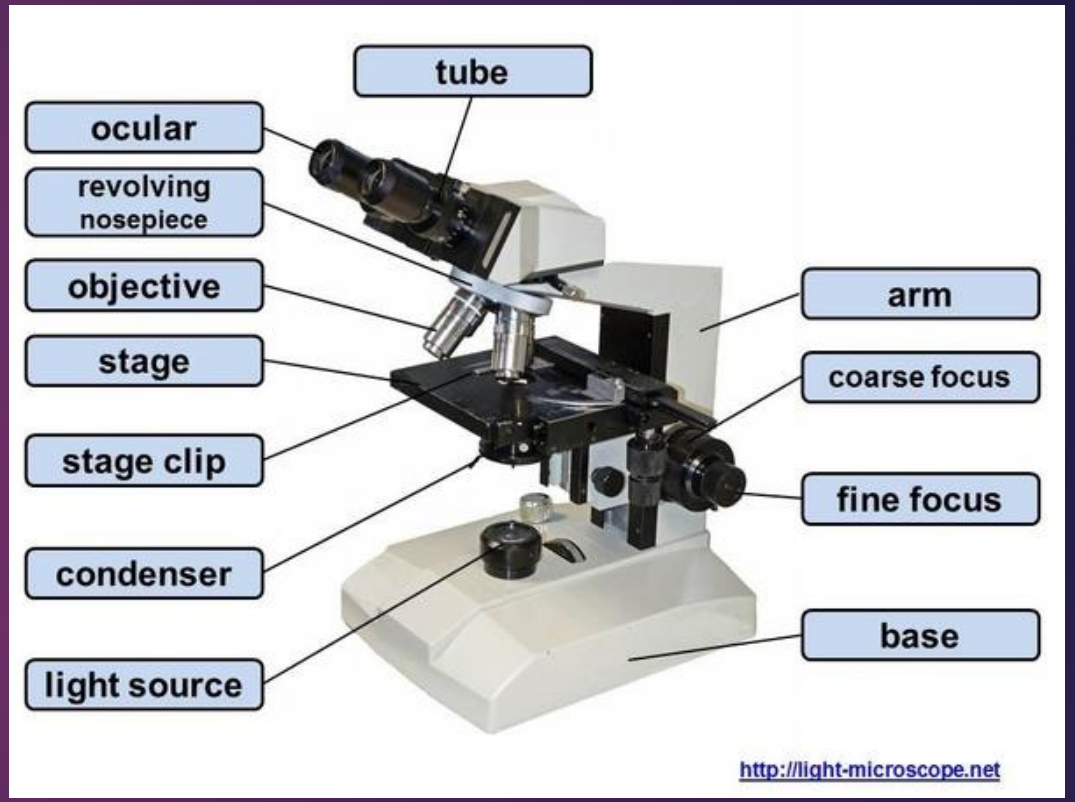
- 5. . Once the object is in focus using low power, carefully rotate the nosepiece to the medium-power objective lens making sure it does not strike the surface of the slide

- Adjust the focus using ONLY the fine adjustment knob. DO NOT use the coarse adjustment knob with the medium- or high-power objective lens.




# Using the Microscope

- 6. Once you have located it under medium power you may want to try and locate the specimen under high power.
- 7. Rotate the nosepiece to the high power objective making sure it does not hit the slide and use the fine adjustment knob to focus.




# Biological Drawings

- A clear, concise drawing can often replace words in a scientific description. Drawings are especially important when you are trying to explain difficult concepts or describe complex structures.
- Follow these steps to make a good scientific drawing:
- 1. Use an unlined (blank) sheet of paper and a sharp lead pencil, ideally 2H, for the drawing, title, and all labels.


# Biological Drawings

- 2. Make sure your drawing will be large enough to show all the necessary details; a drawing about half a page in size is usually sufficient. Also allow space for the labels, which identify parts of the object you are drawing.

- 3. Make your drawing as simple as is possible

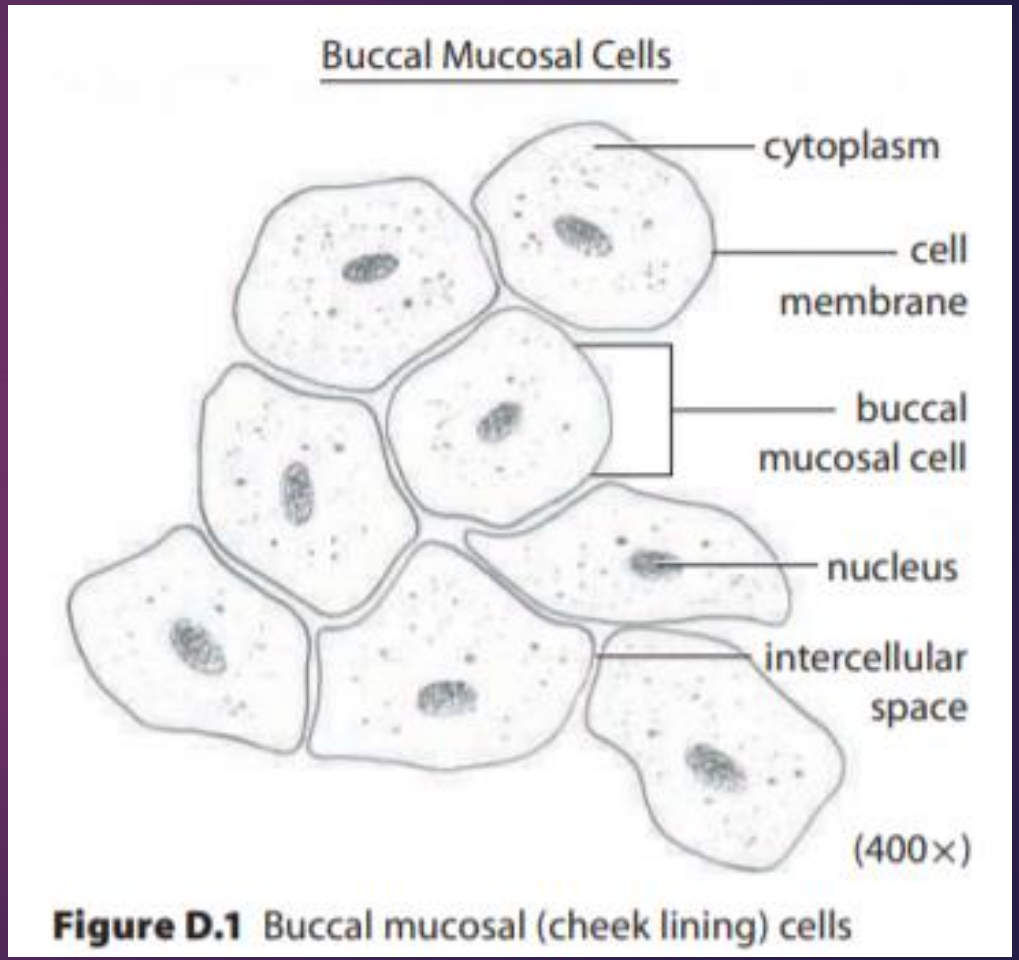



**Figure D.1** Buccal mucosal (cheek lining) cells


- 4. include the boundaries of the other cells surrounding.
- 5. Shading is not usually used in scientific drawings. To indicate darker areas in your drawing, use stippling (a series of dots)
- 6. Label your drawing carefully and completely. All labels should be horizontal, printed in lower-case, and placed in a column to the right of your drawing.

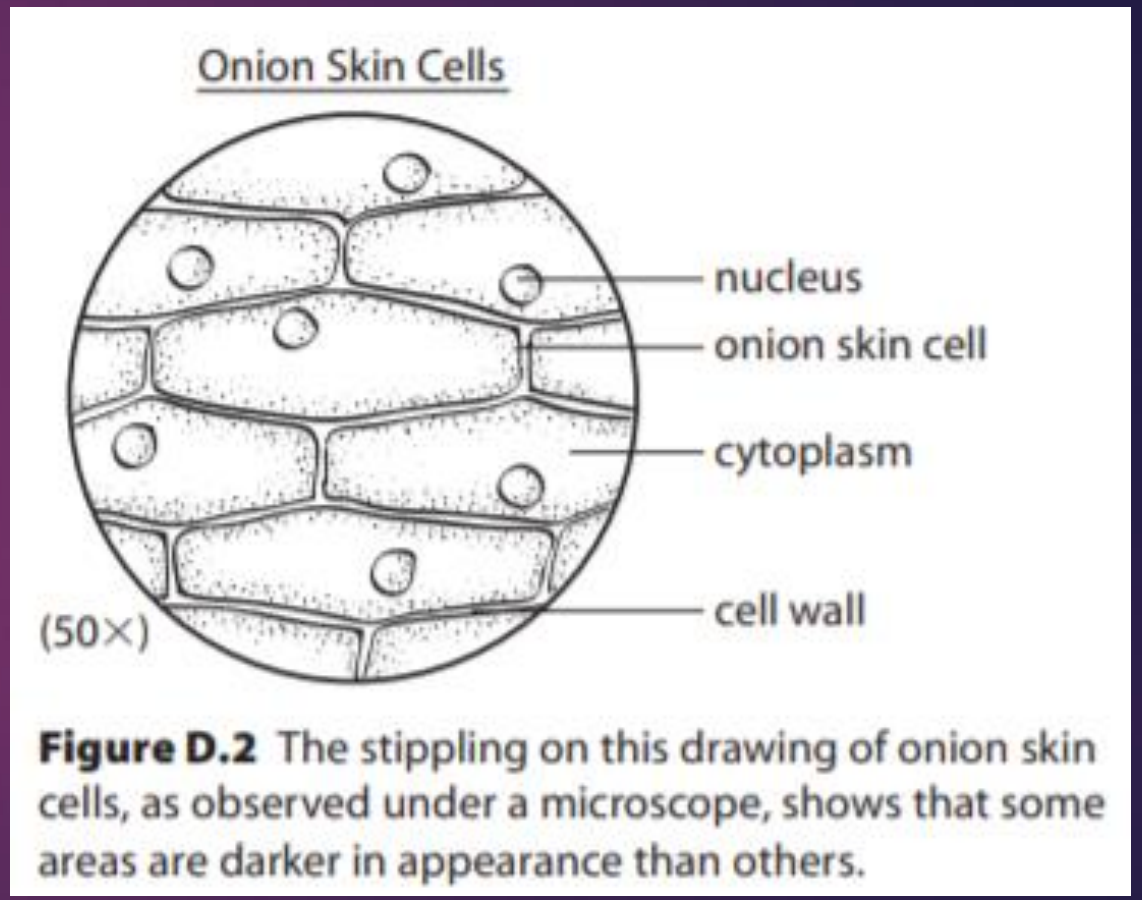



**Figure D.2** The stippling on this drawing of onion skin cells, as observed under a microscope, shows that some areas are darker in appearance than others.


- 7. Use a ruler to draw a horizontal line from each label to the structure you are identifying. Make sure that none of these label lines cross each other.

- 8. Give your drawing a title. The title should appear immediately above the drawing. The title should be printed and underlined. Indicate the magnification of the drawing in parentheses.

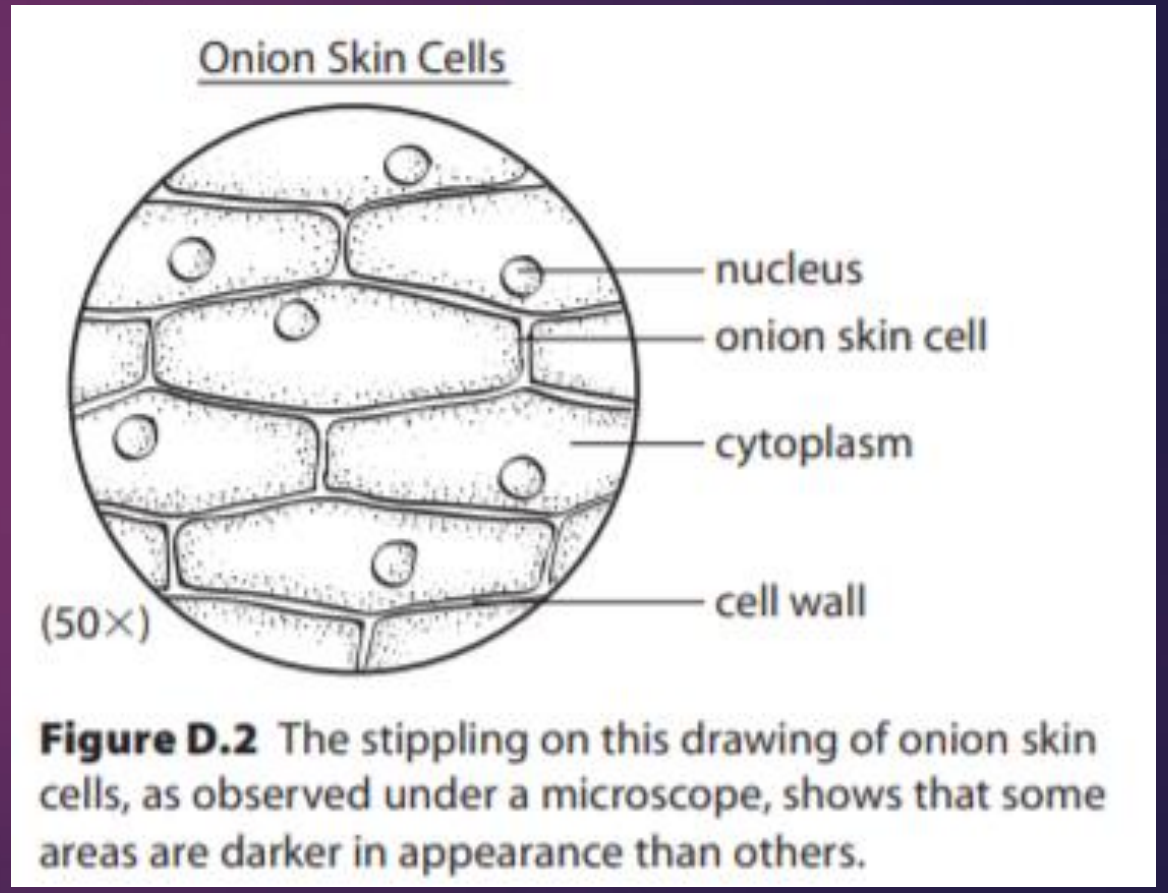
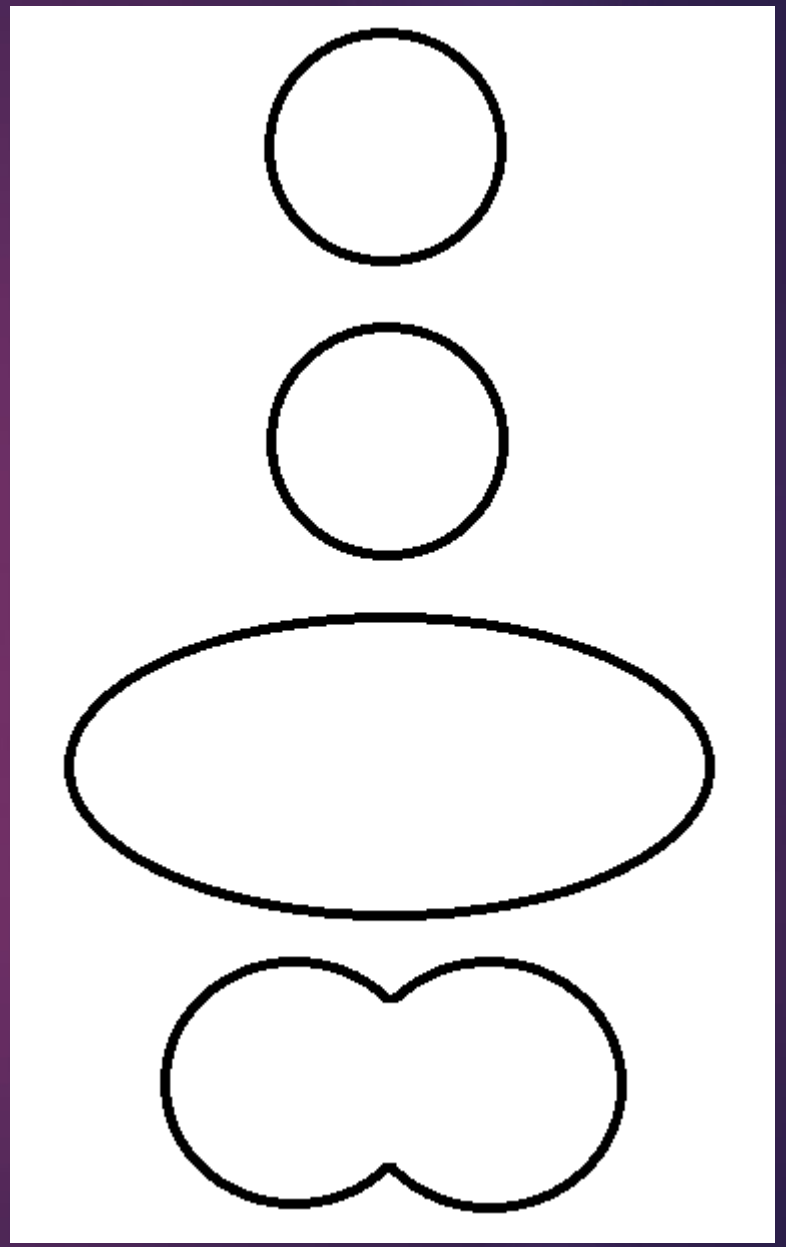



**Figure D.2** The stippling on this drawing of onion skin cells, as observed under a microscope, shows that some areas are darker in appearance than others.


# Modeling Mitosis

- Investigation 12.A

- Use the template provided to model a cell with a diploid number of 8. Include prophase, metaphase, anaphase and telophase.



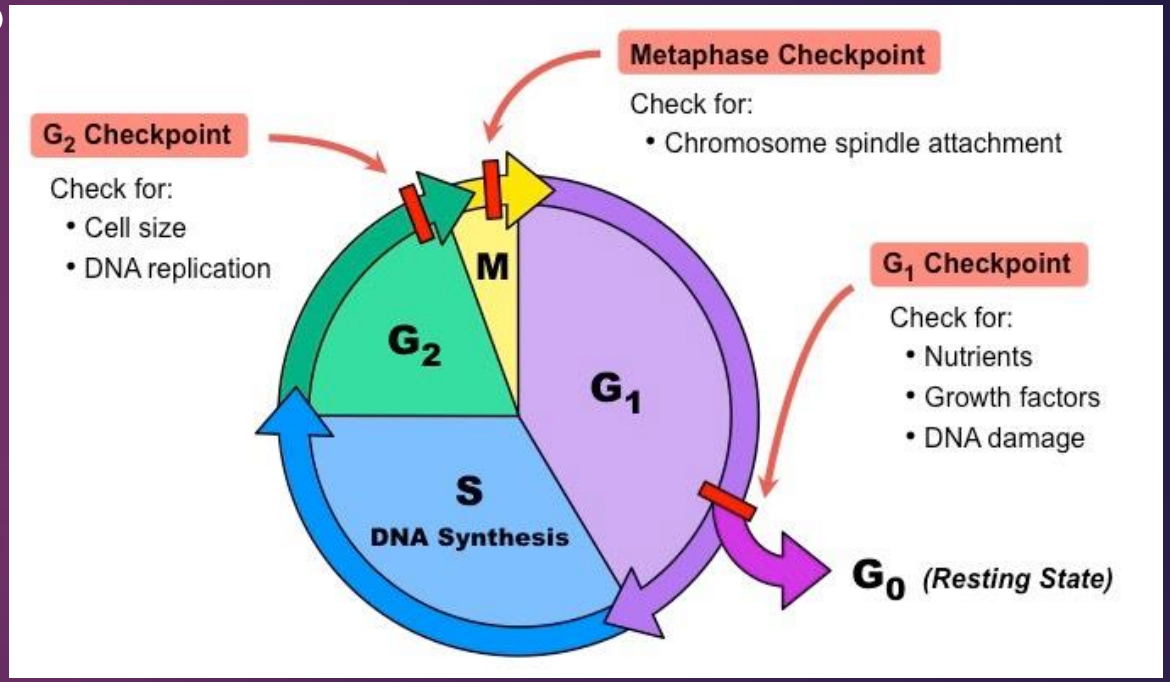

# Mitosis Lab

- Investigation 12.C

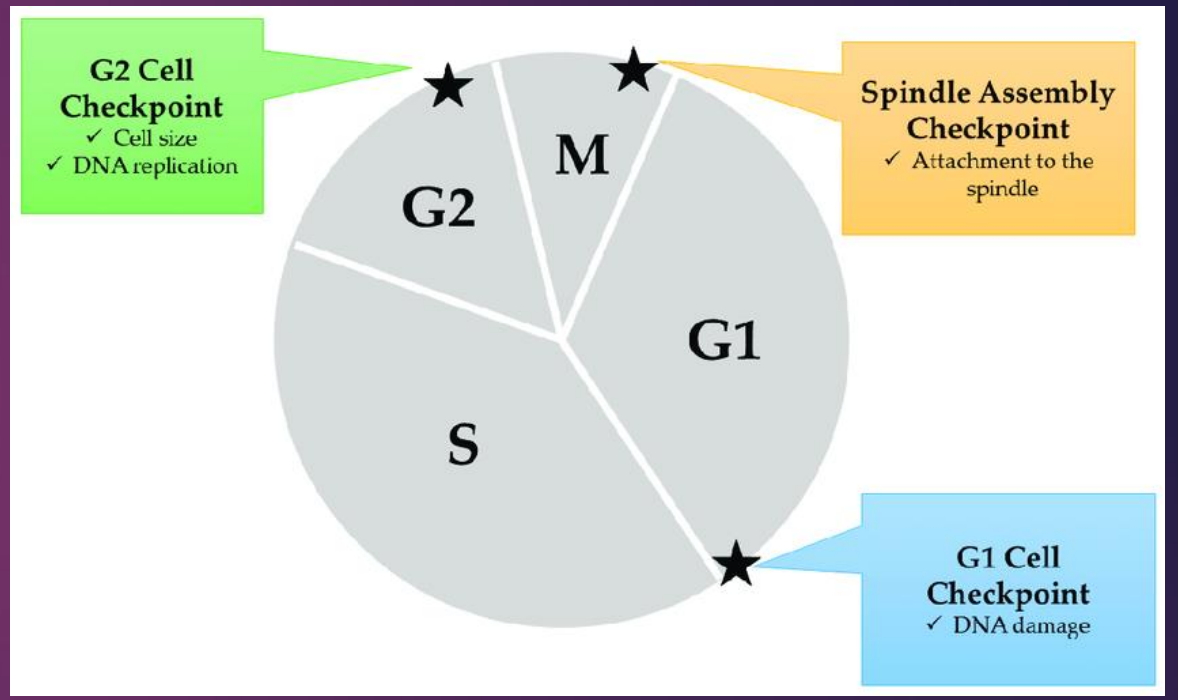
- **Sample Performance Indicators**
- Use a microscope to view a prepared slide of white fish embryos or onion root-tip cells. Locate a cell undergoing division and identify the mitotic phase.
- describe the phases of mitosis.


# Cancer and The Cell Cycle

- Cancer uncontrolled cell division.
- Quality control checkpoints are built into the cell cycle to ensure that each cell meets a certain standard.
- In the cell cycle, the role of inspector at each checkpoint is played by various regulatory proteins.
- As a cell approaches the end of the G1 phase, a period of rapid growth and metabolic activity, it passes through a checkpoint known as G1/S. The cell checks for DNA damage to ensure that DNA synthesis in S phase will be successful.

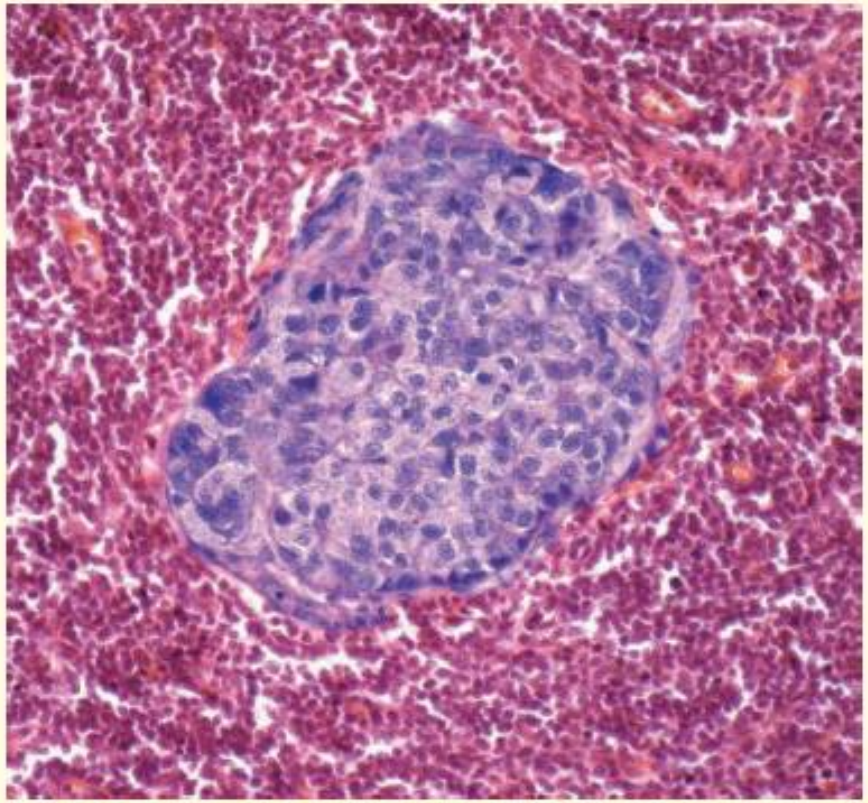



- Cells with undamaged DNA successfully pass through this checkpoint and proceed to S phase.
- Cells with damaged DNA either undergo repair or, if repair isn't possible, programmed cell death, called apoptosis.
- Cells pass through a similar checkpoint in the G2 phase, after DNA synthesis in S phase, prior to cell division.




# Cancer and The Cell Cycle

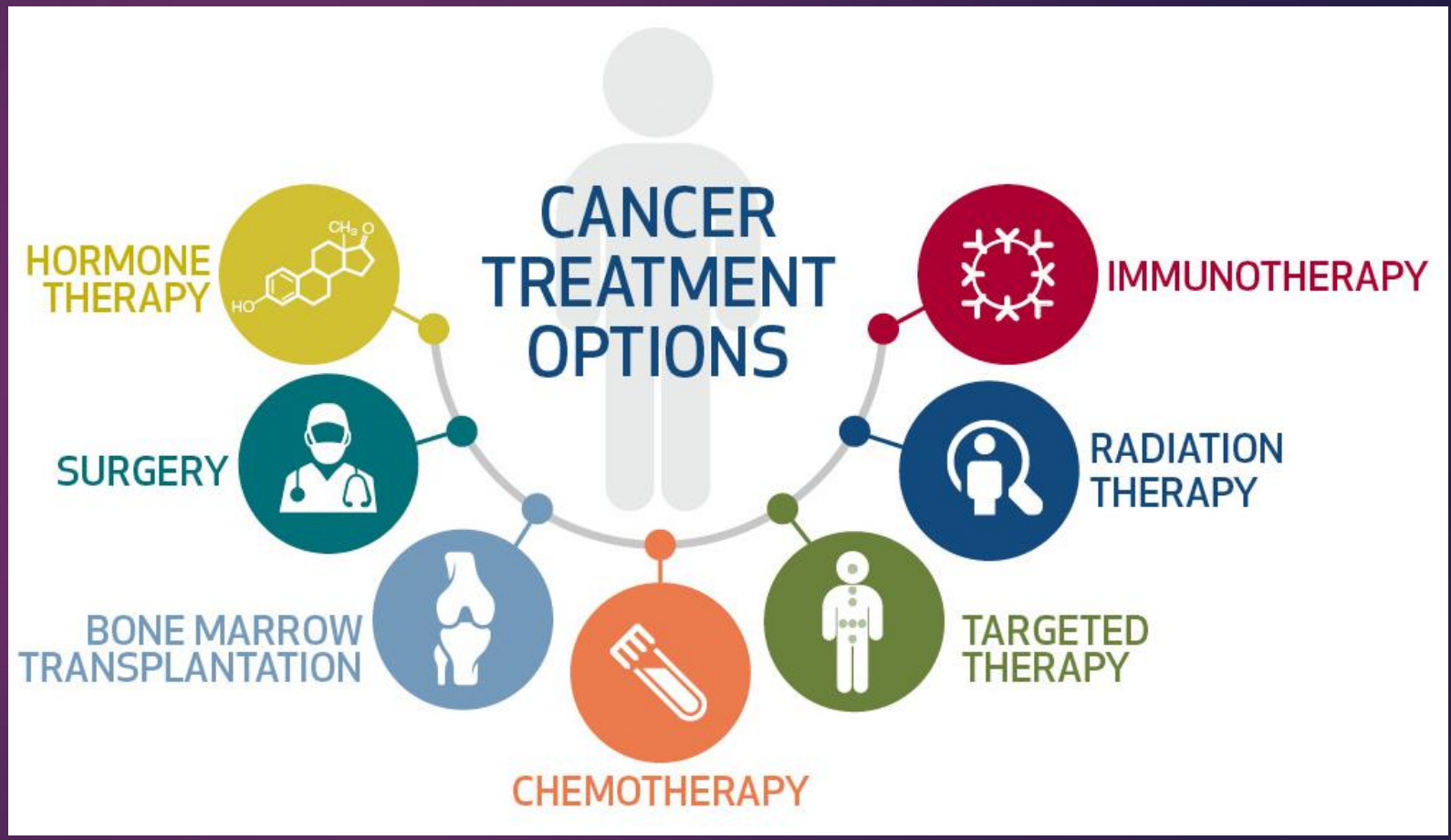
- When this checkpoint system is working properly, it maintains healthy cell reproduction throughout an organism's lifetime. However, sometimes the genes that code for the regulatory proteins become altered, producing a malfunctioning protein or no protein at all.
- As a consequence, uncontrolled cell division may occur, resulting in the development of cancer.
- Uncontrolled cell growth in cancer can result in the formation of a tumour, may alter the function of normal body tissues, and is able to invade other parts of the body. Typically, more than one change to DNA is needed to cause cancer.



This micrograph shows a cross-section through a lymph node with a malignant (cancerous) tumour (purple) that originated in the breast.


# Cancer Therapies

- Surgery
- Radiation Therapy
- Chemotherapy
- Immunotherapy
- Targeted Therapy
- Hormone Therapy
- Stem Cell Transplants



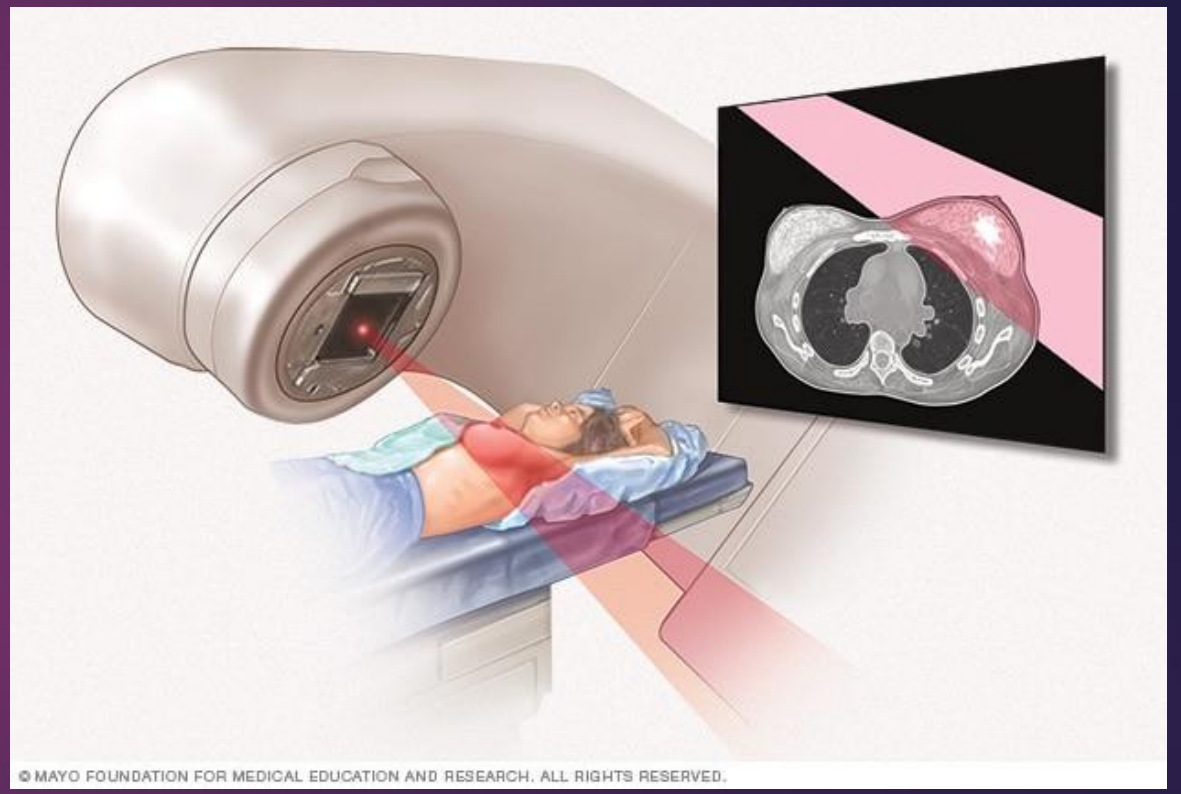

# Surgery

- **Cancer surgery** removes the tumor and nearby tissue during an operation.

- The types and severity of side effects vary from person to person based on several factors:
- Location and type of cancer
- Type of surgery
- Pain, fatigue, appetite loss, other organs, swelling, drainage, infection, bruising, numbness,  and bleeding.

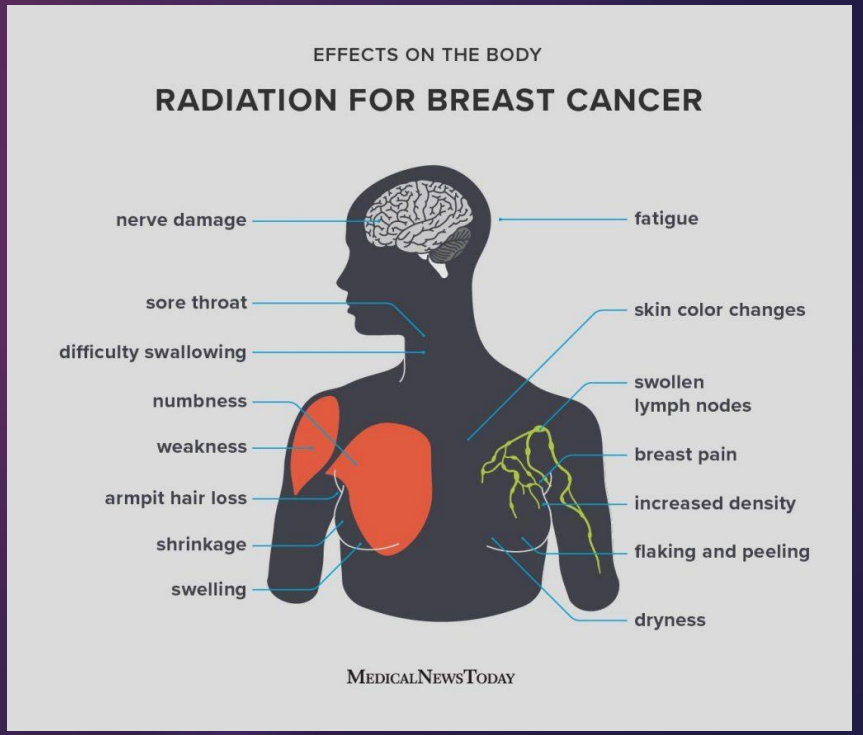

# Radiation Therapy

- Radiation Therapy is a cancer treatment that uses high doses of radiation to kill cancer cells and shrink tumors.
- At high doses, radiation therapy kills cancer cells or slows their growth by damaging their DNA. Cancer cells whose DNA is damaged beyond repair stop dividing or die. When the damaged cells die, they are broken down and removed by the body.
- Most commonly used to treat cancers of the head and neck, breast, cervix, prostate, and eye



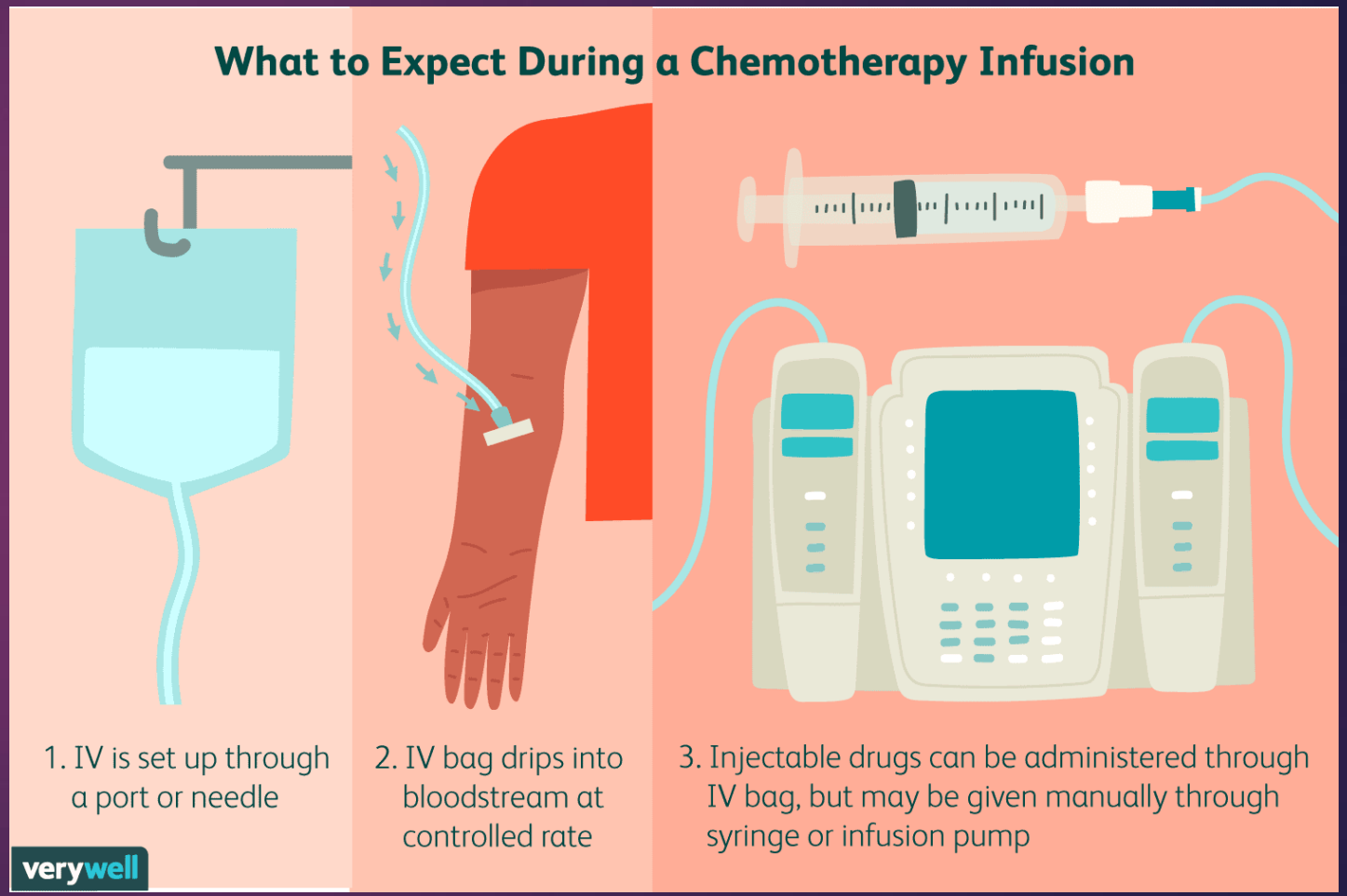

# Side Effects of Radiation Therapy

- Fatigue
- Hair loss
- Nausea and vomiting
- Skin changes
- Headache
- Blurry vision
- Swelling (Edema)
- Tenderness
- Cough
- Shortness of breath
- Sexual problems (men)
- Fertility problems (men)
- Sexual problems (women)
- Fertility problems (women)
- Urinary and bladder changes
- Diarrhea



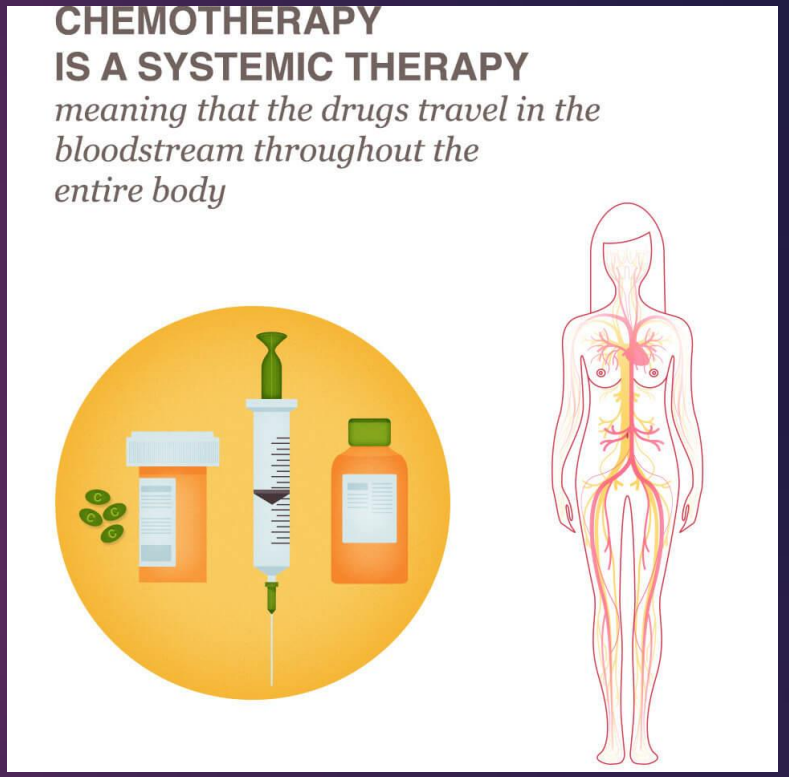

# Chemotherapy

- **Chemotherapy** is a drug treatment that uses powerful chemicals to kill fast-growing cells in your body.
- Chemotherapy is most often used to treat cancer, since cancer cells grow and multiply much more quickly than most cells in the body.



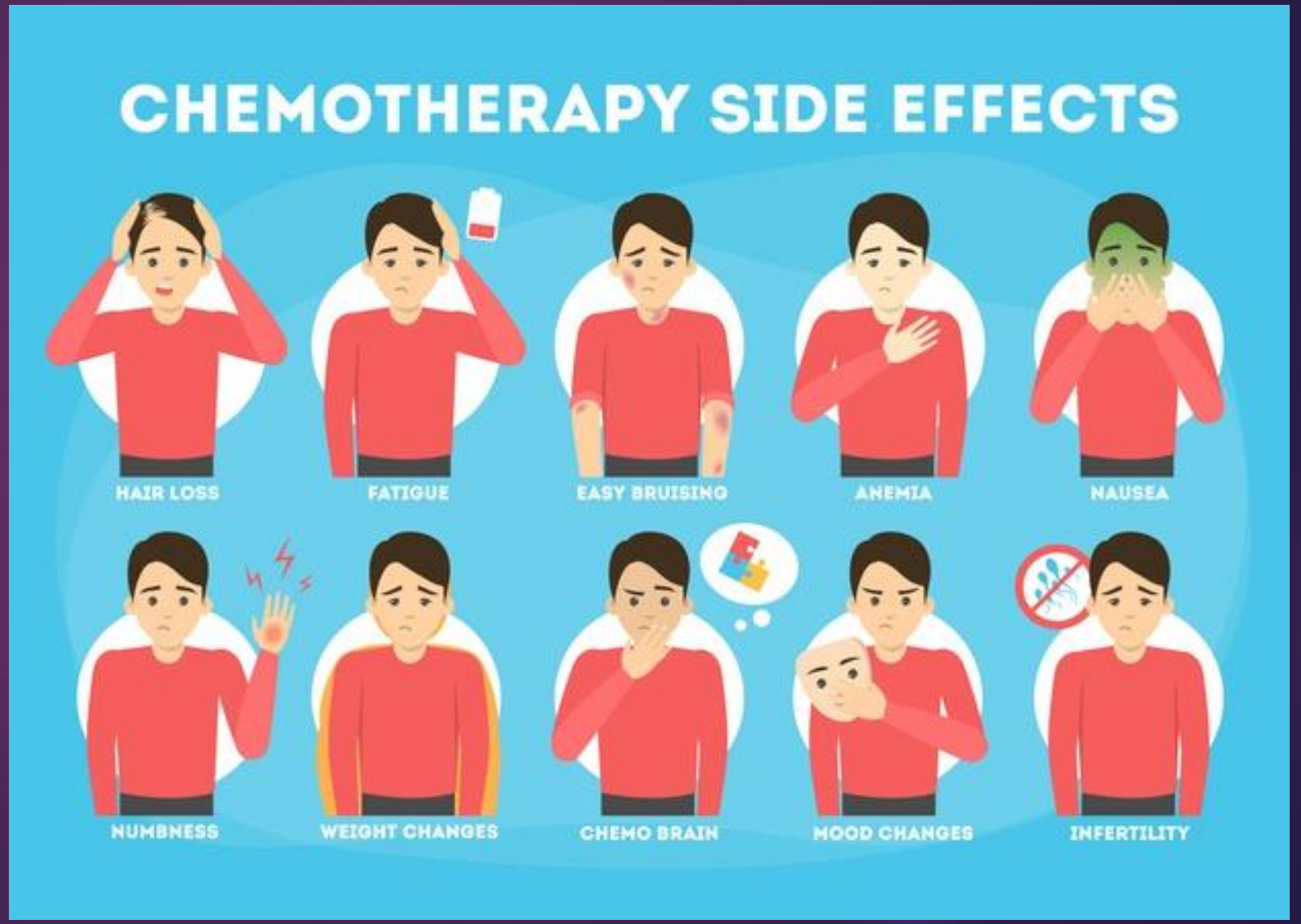

# When is Chemotherapy used?

- To cure the cancer without other treatments. Chemotherapy can be used as the primary or sole treatment for cancer.
- After other treatments, to kill hidden cancer cells. Chemotherapy can be used after other treatments, such as surgery, to kill any cancer cells that might remain in the body. Doctors call this adjuvant therapy.
- To prepare you for other treatments. Chemotherapy can be used to shrink a tumor so that other treatments, such as radiation and surgery, are possible.
- To ease signs and symptoms. Chemotherapy may help relieve signs and symptoms of cancer by killing some of the cancer cells. Doctors call this palliative chemotherapy.




# Side Effects of Chemotherapy

- Nausea
- Vomiting
- Diarrhea
- Hair loss
- Loss of appetite
- Fatigue
- Fever
- Mouth sores
- Pain
- Constipation
- Easy bruising
- Bleeding




# Immunotherapy

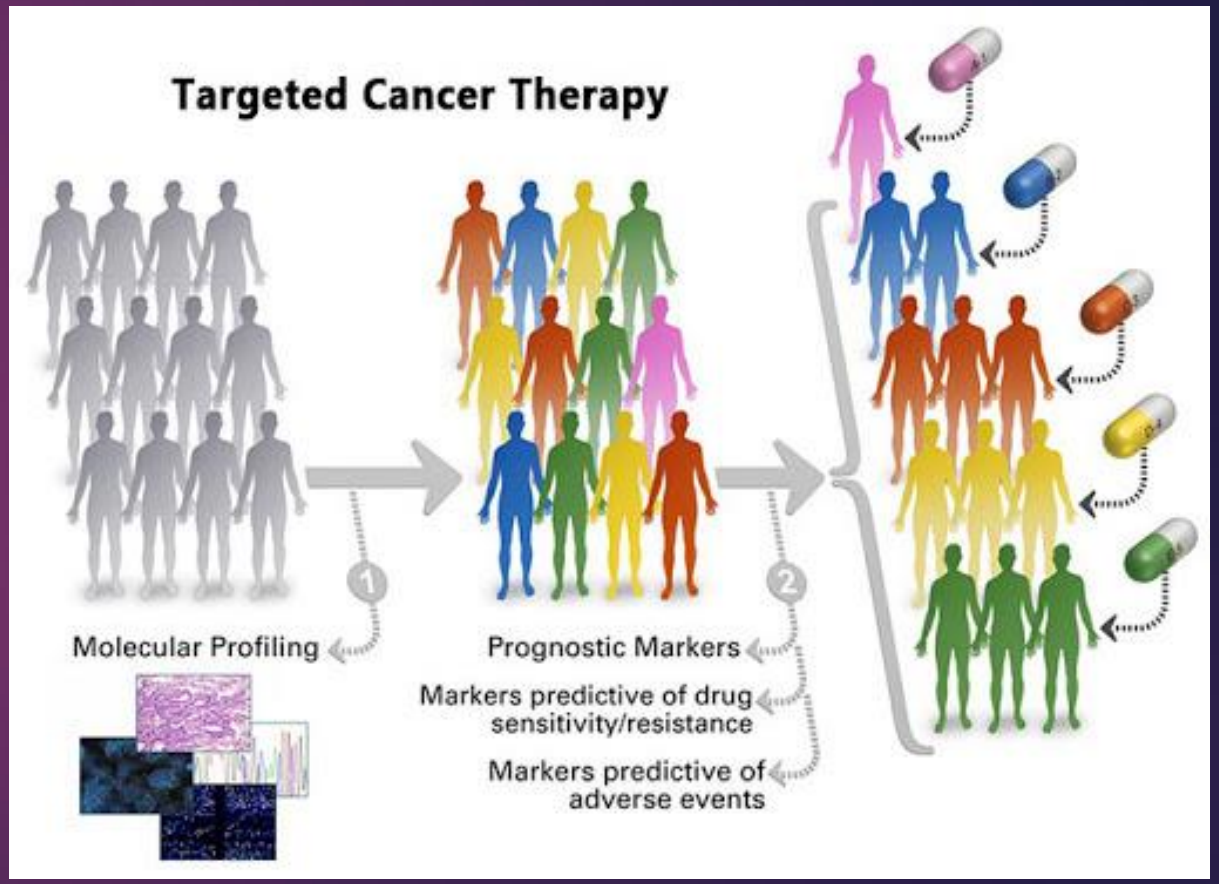
- Research Project

- a description of the therapy,
- an explanation of how it functions,
- clinical situations where it is used, and
- common side effects.

- **Sample Performance Indicator**
- Select one type of immunotherapy. Create a newspaper front page to creatively communicate a description of the therapy, an explanation of how it functions, clinical situations where it is used, and common side effects.

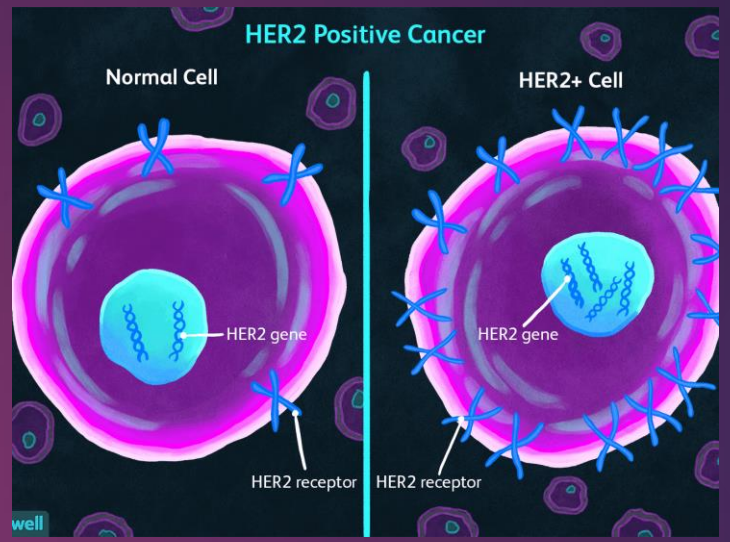

# Targeted Therapy

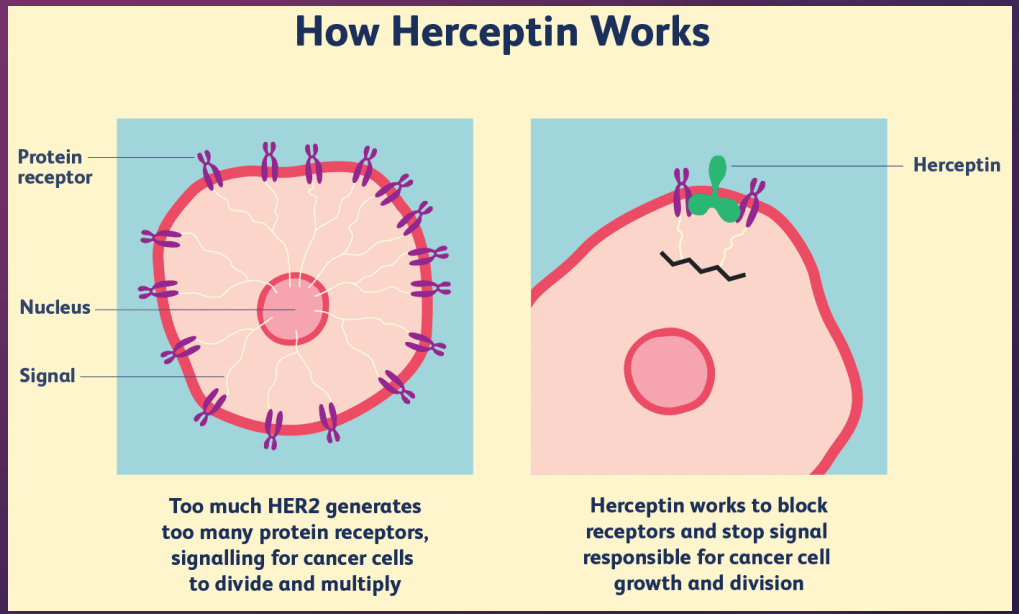
- Targeted therapy is a cancer treatment that uses drugs to target specific genes and proteins that are involved in the growth and survival of cancer cells.
- Targeted therapy can affect the tissue environment that helps a cancer grow and survive or it can target cells related to cancer growth, like blood vessel cells.
- Breast Cancer, Leukemia, Colorectal Cancer, Lung Cancer, Lymphoma, Melanoma




# What can Targeted Therapy do?

- Block or turn off signals that tell cancer cells to grow and divide
- Prevent the cells from living longer than normal
- Destroy cancer cells



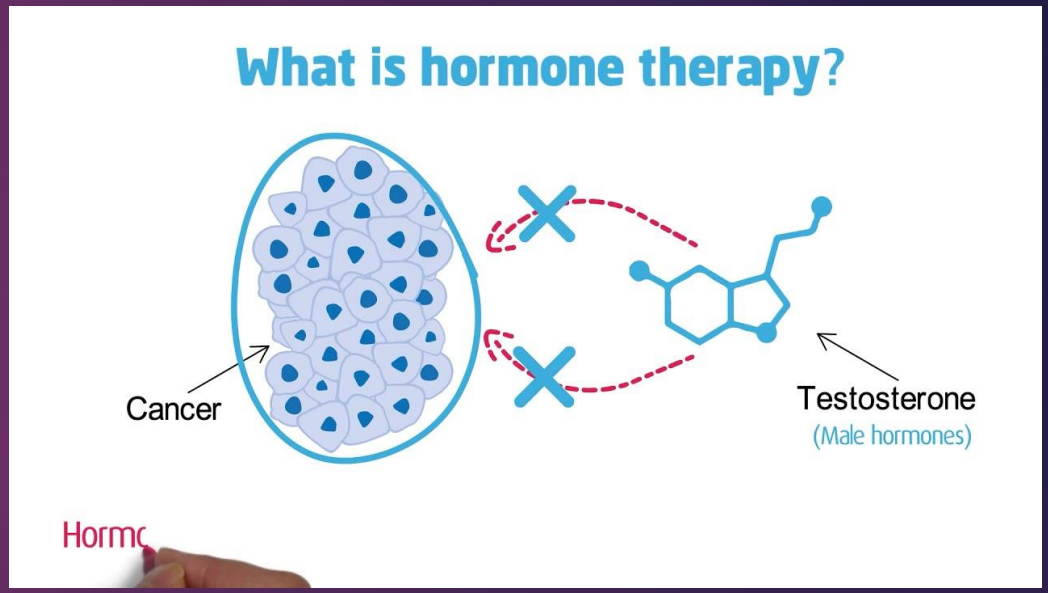

# Side Effects of Targeted Therapy

- Diarrhea
- Liver problems
- Blood clotting
- Slow wound healing
- High blood pressure
- Fatigue
- Mouth sores
- Nail changes
- Loss of hair color
- rash and dry skin.


# Hormone Therapy

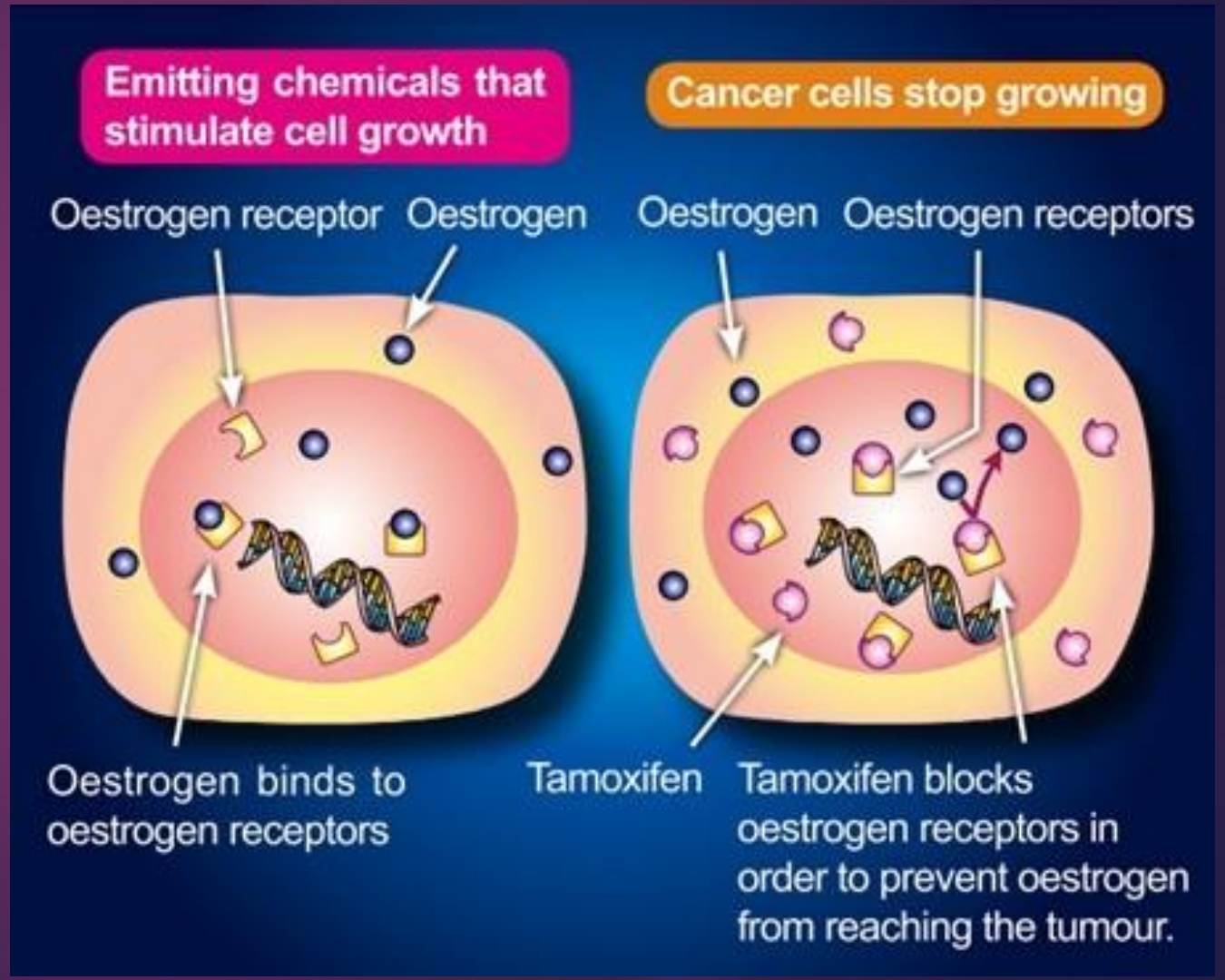
- Hormone therapy is a cancer treatment that slows or stops the growth of cancer that uses hormones to grow. Hormone therapy is also called hormonal therapy, hormone treatment, or endocrine therapy.

- Hormone therapy is used to:
- Treat cancer. Hormone therapy can lessen the chance that cancer will return or stop or slow its growth.
- Ease cancer symptoms. Hormone therapy may be used to reduce or prevent symptoms in men with prostate cancer who are not able to have surgery or radiation therapy.




# When is it used?

- Hormone therapy is used to treat prostate and breast cancers that use hormones to grow.
- Hormone therapy is most often used along with other cancer treatments.



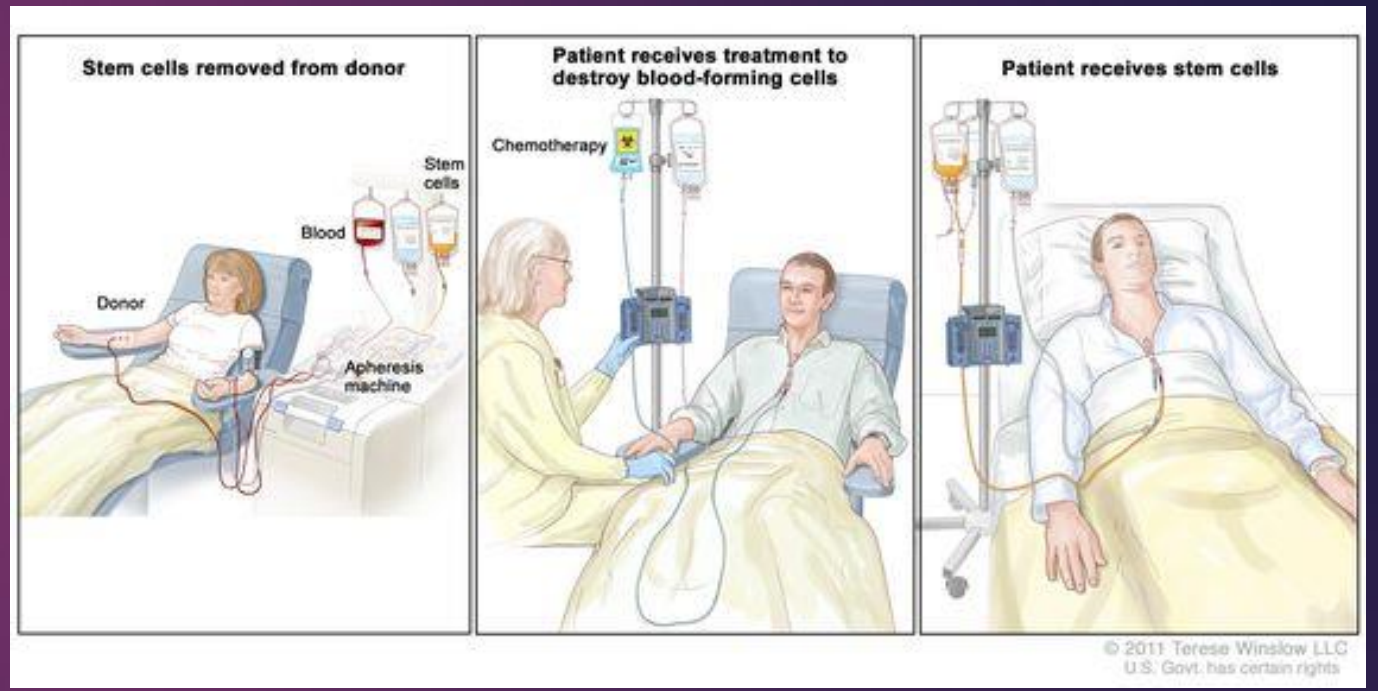

# Side Effects of Hormone Therapy

- Some common side effects for men who receive hormone therapy for prostate cancer include:
- hot flashes
- loss of interest in or ability to have sex
- weakened bones
- diarrhea
- Nausea
- enlarged and tender breasts
- fatigue

- Some common side effects for women who receive hormone therapy for breast cancer include:
- hot flashes
- vaginal dryness
- changes in your periods if you have not yet reached menopause
- loss of interest in sex
- nausea
- mood changes
- fatigue

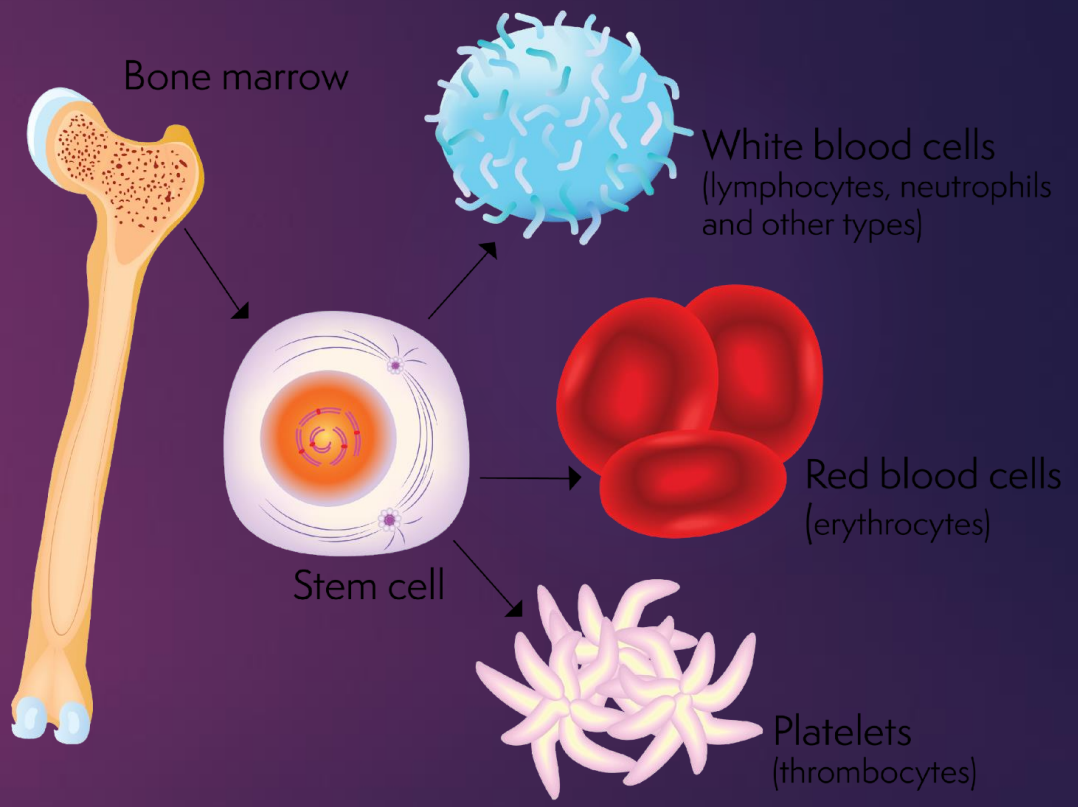

# Stem Cell Transplants

- In a stem cell transplant, healthy stem cells are placed in your body to help your bone marrow start to work properly. The new stem cells make healthy blood cells.
- It is used when stem cells or bone marrow have been damaged or destroyed by cancer or disease.
- Used to treat some cancers such as leukemia, lymphoma, multiple myeloma and neuroblastoma.
- It may also be used after high-dose radiation and chemotherapy to treat the cancer.

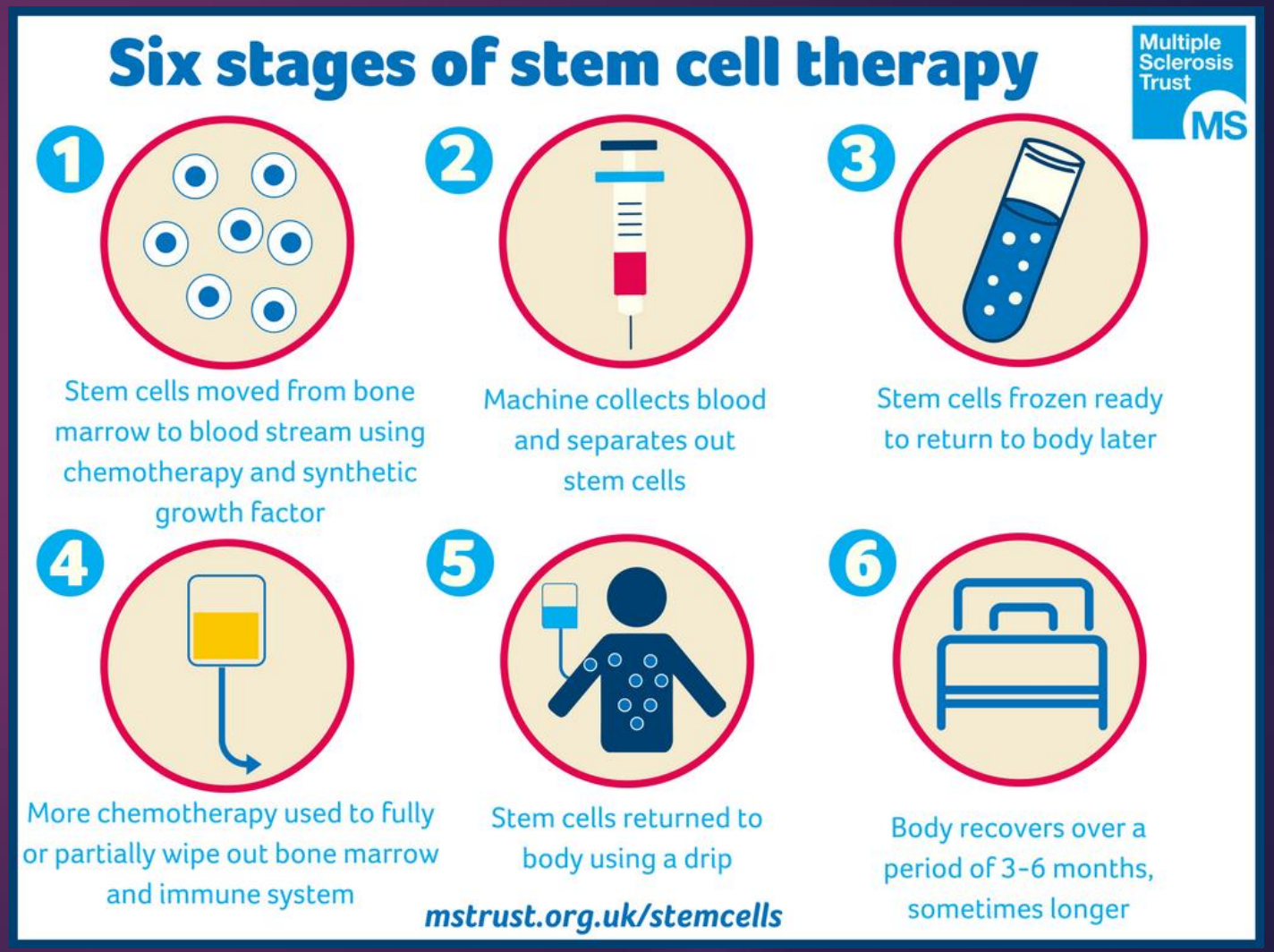



# How it works

- The stem cells in the bone marrow turn into red blood cells, white blood cells and platelets.
- When these blood cells mature they move into the peripheral blood (the blood that flows through the body).
- If the bone marrow is damaged or destroyed, it can't make normal blood cells.
- In a stem cell transplant, healthy stem cells are placed in your body to help your bone marrow start to work properly. The new stem cells make healthy blood cells.

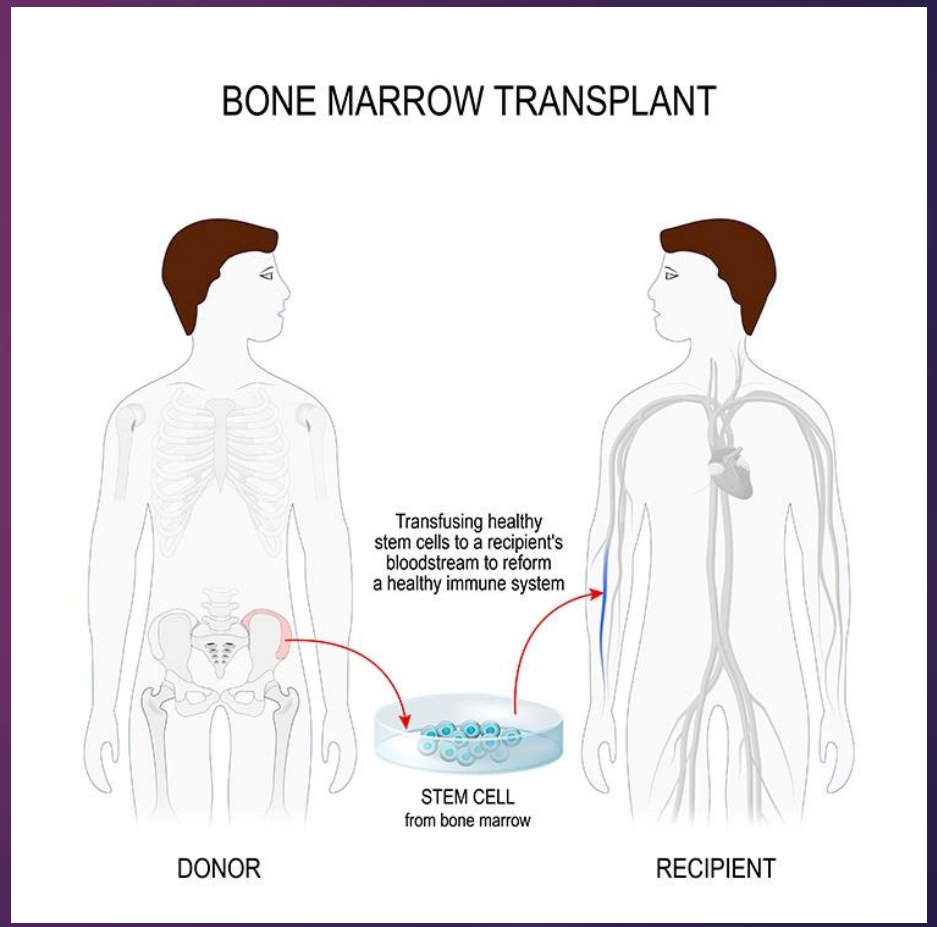



- A stem cell transplant is very complex.
- It can take 6 to 12 months or longer for your blood counts to be back to normal and your immune system to work well.
- Side effects of a stem cell transplant can be very serious or even life-threatening.



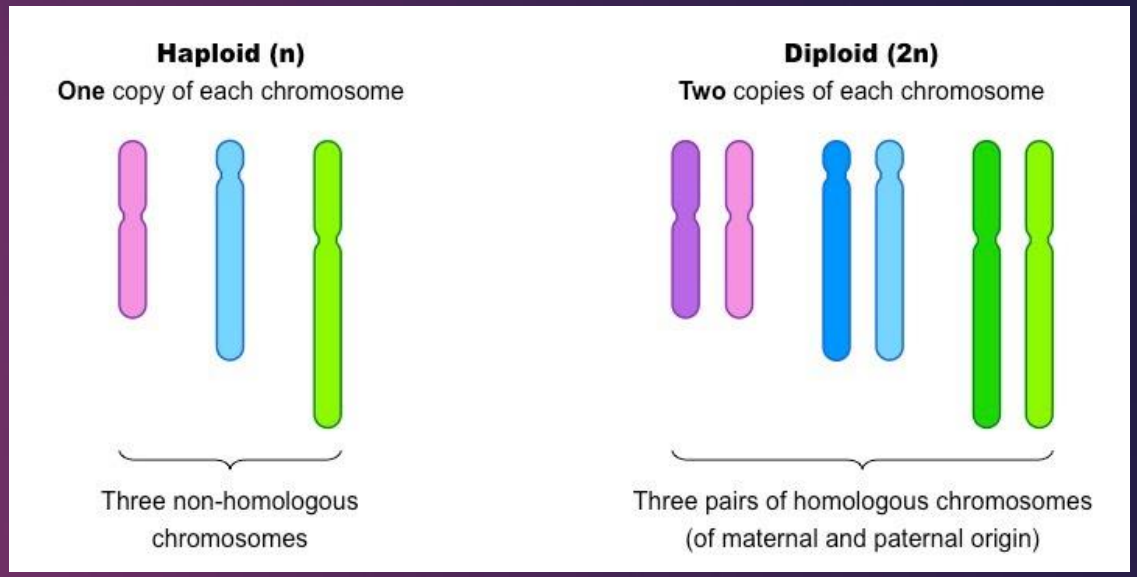

# Side Effects of Stem Cell Transplant

- All of the side effects associated with chemotherapy and radiation they are common as well as:
- Low blood cell counts
- Infection
- Bleeding
- Anemia
- Veno-occlusive disease
- Digestive system problems
  - sore mouth and throat
  - nausea and vomiting
  - loss of appetite
  - weight loss
  - Diarrhea




# The Formation of Reproductive Cells

- A cell that contains unpaired chromosomes is said to be haploid
- **haploid** cell with half the number of chromosomes
- **meiosis** cell division that produces haploid gametes from a germ cell
- **Germ cell** gamete producing cell
- **Gametes** are an organism's reproductive cells. They are also referred to as sex cells
- Female gametes are called ova or egg cells, and male gametes are called sperm.
- Gametes are haploid cells, and each cell carries only one copy of each chromosome.




- During sexual reproduction, however, a haploid gamete from the male organism and a haploid gamete from the female organism fuse to create a new cell.
- The resulting diploid zygote has genetic information from both parents and the same number of chromosomes as its parents.
- For this to be possible, the gametes of an organism must contain half the number of chromosomes as the somatic cells of the organism.

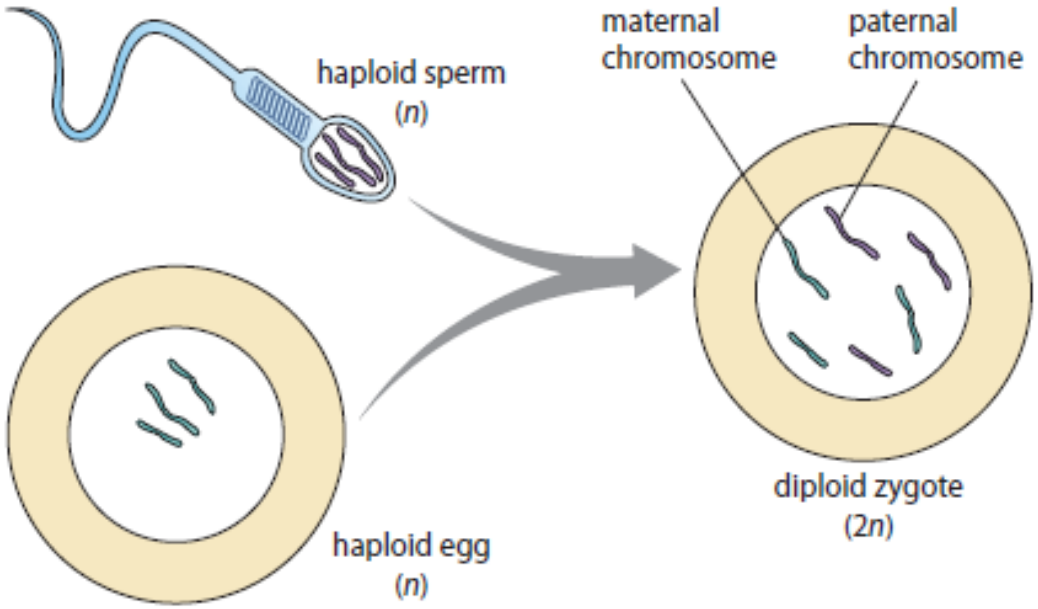
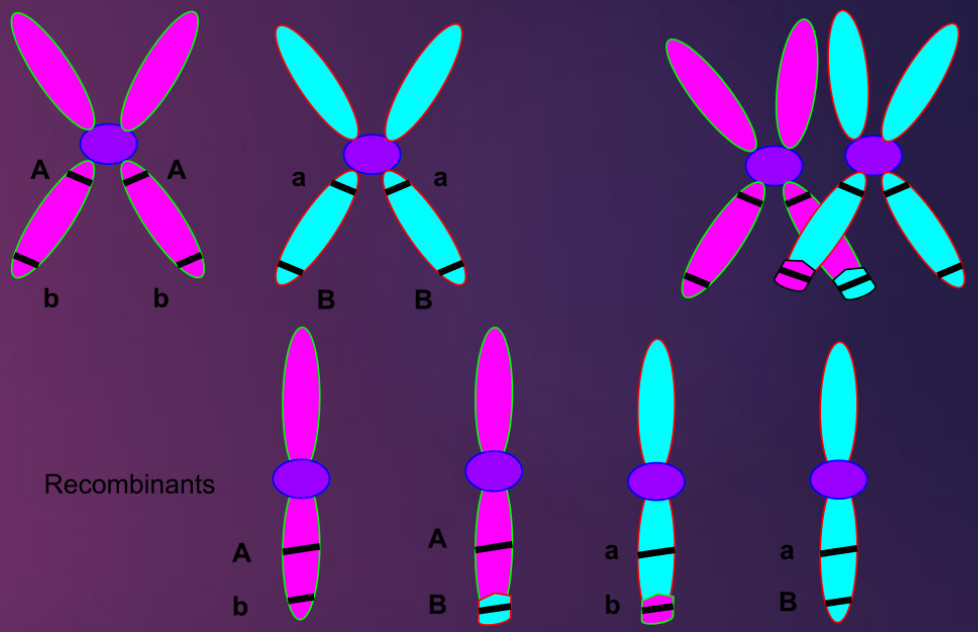



**Figure 12.8** The union of two haploid gametes forms a diploid zygote. The zygote contains chromosomes from each parent. The chromosomes that are donated from the ovum are of *maternal origin* and those from the sperm cell are of *paternal origin*.


# Meiosis

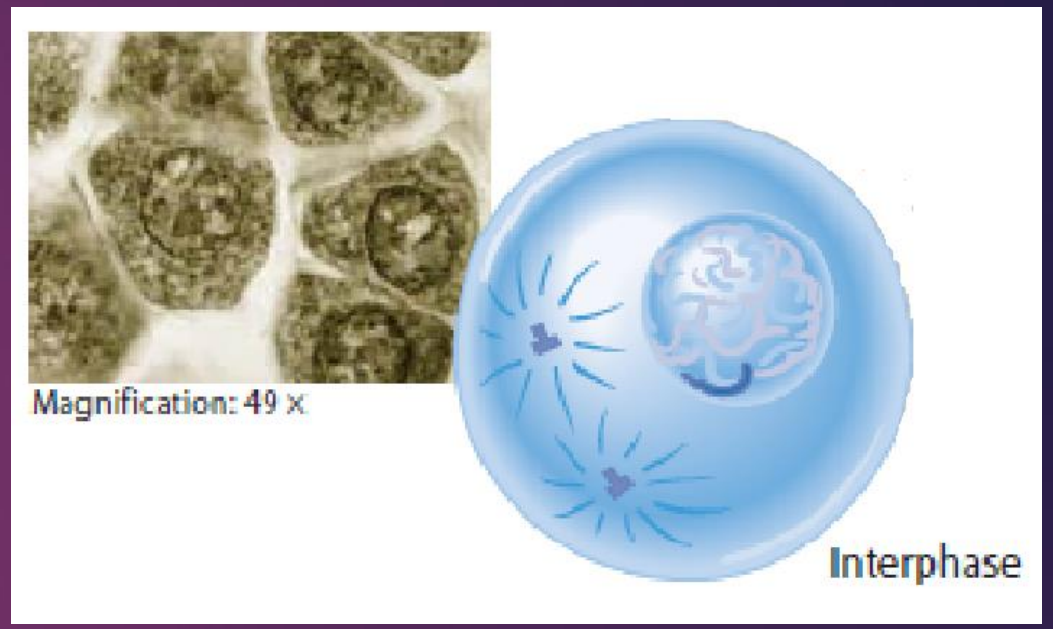
- ***Reduction division:*** Meiosis is sometimes referred to as a reduction division because it is a form of cell division that produces cells with fewer chromosomes than the parent cells.
- ***Recombination:*** The products of meiosis have different combinations of genes. Genetic recombination gives rise to offspring that are genetically distinct from one another and their parents.




- Meiosis, involves two complete rounds of phases, called ***meiosis I*** and ***meiosis II***.


# Interphase

- Germ cells proceed through the growth and synthesis phases of interphase before dividing.
- Chromosomes are replicated during the S phase of interphase.
- This also occurs before a germ cell begins meiosis. At the start of meiosis, therefore, a germ cell contains duplicated chromosomes.
- Each chromosome is made up of a pair of identical sister chromatids held together at the centromere.




# Meiosis 1– Prophase 1

- In prophase I, each pair of homologous chromosomes align side by side.
- **synapsis** aligning of homologous chromosomes in prophase I
- Because each consists of two chromatids, a pair of homologous chromosomes is made up of four chromatids and is called a tetrad.
- **Non-sister chromatids** chromatids in a tetrad that do not belong to the same chromosome
- **Chromatid** is one of two strands of a copied chromosome.
- **tetrad** homologous chromosome pair; contains four chromatids

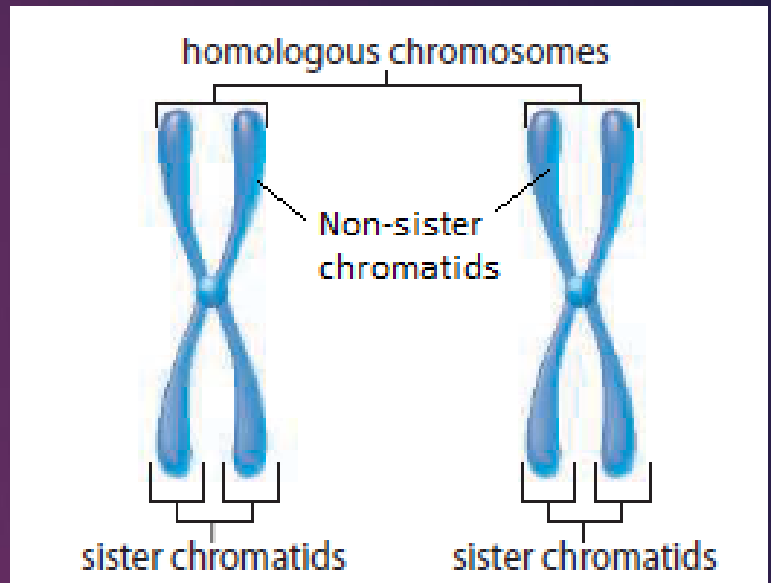
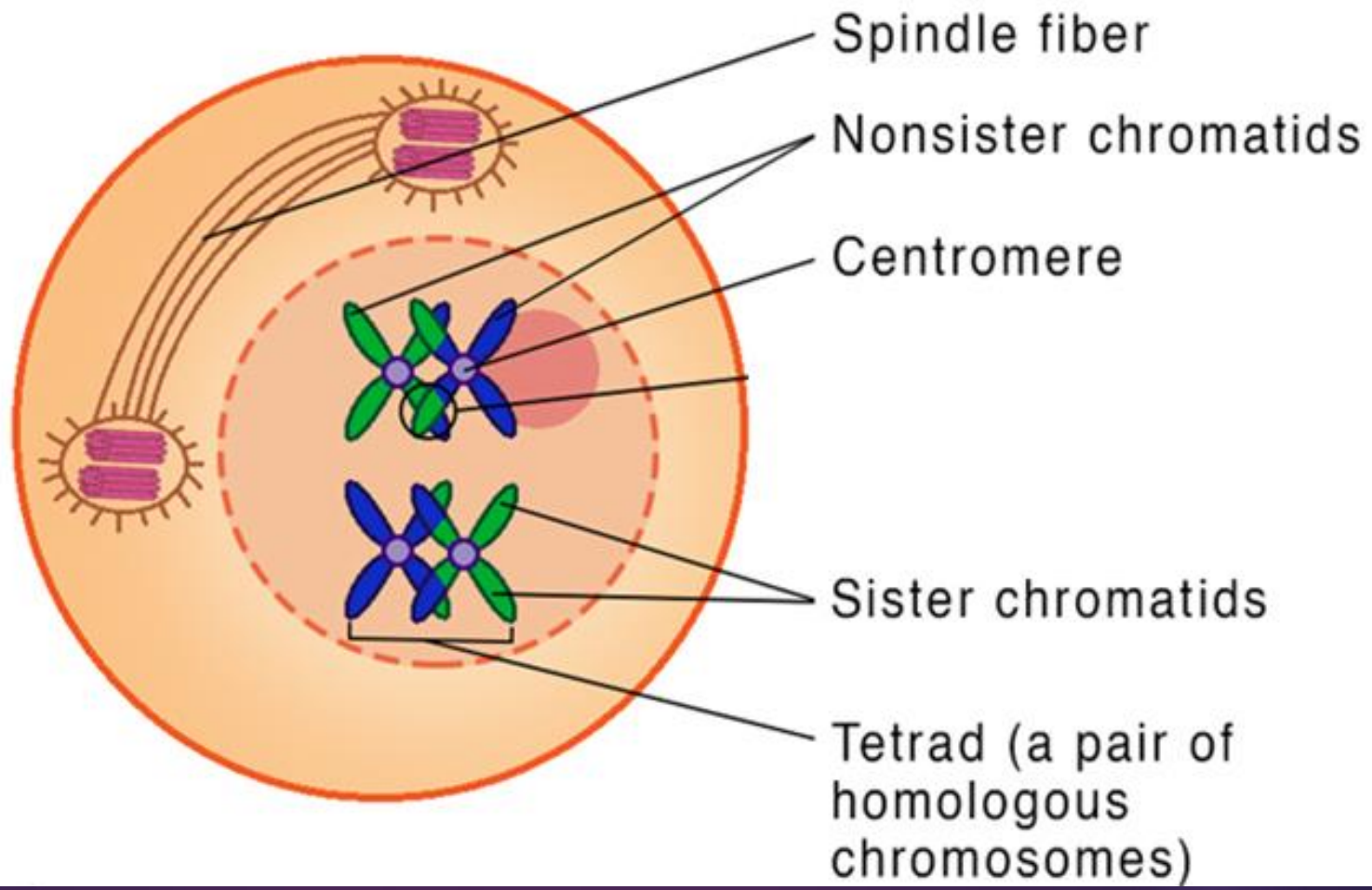


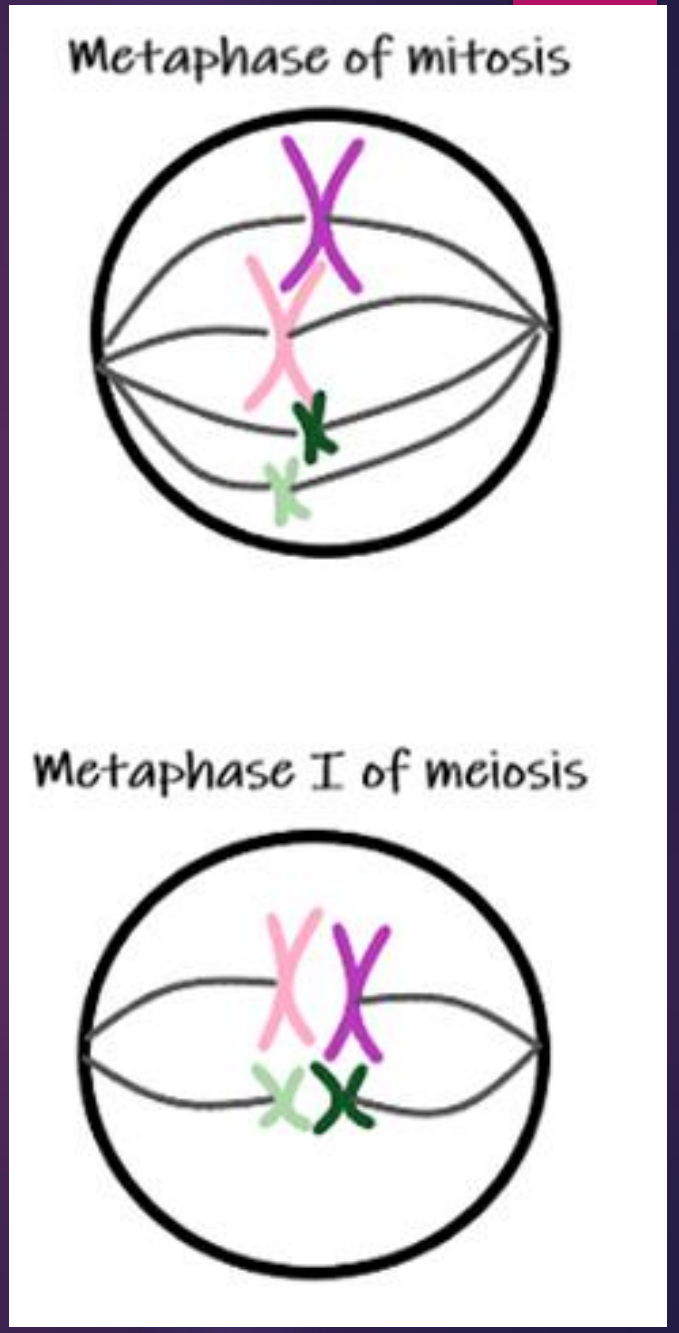

**Figure 12.10** A chromosome tetrad is made up of two pairs of non-sister chromatids arranged side by side. Homologous chromosomes carry the same genes at the same locations, but may carry different alleles of these genes. Sister chromatids, in contrast, are identical to each other.


# Prophase I of Meiosis

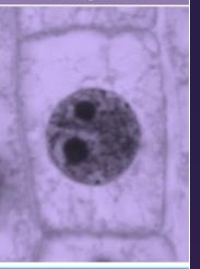



# Meiosis 1 – Metaphase 1

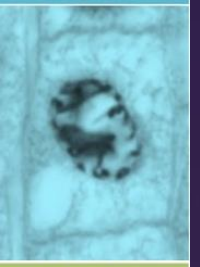
- A spindle fibre attaches to the centromere of each chromosome.
- A spindle fibre from one pole attaches to one pair of sister chromatids in the tetrad, and a spindle fibre from the opposite pole attaches to the other pair of sister chromatids.
- The spindle fibres guide each tetrad to the equator of the cell.
- The chromosomes, however, do not line up in single file as they do in mitosis.
- Instead, they line up as homologous pairs.
- In each pair, one homologous chromosome is positioned on one side of the cell's equator, and the other homologous chromosome is positioned on the other side of the cell's equator.



Interphase

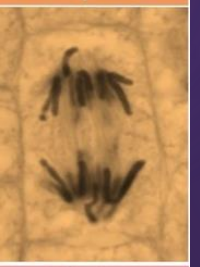


Prophase

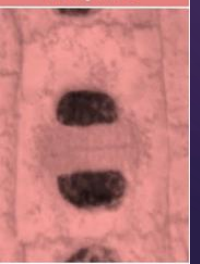


Metaphase

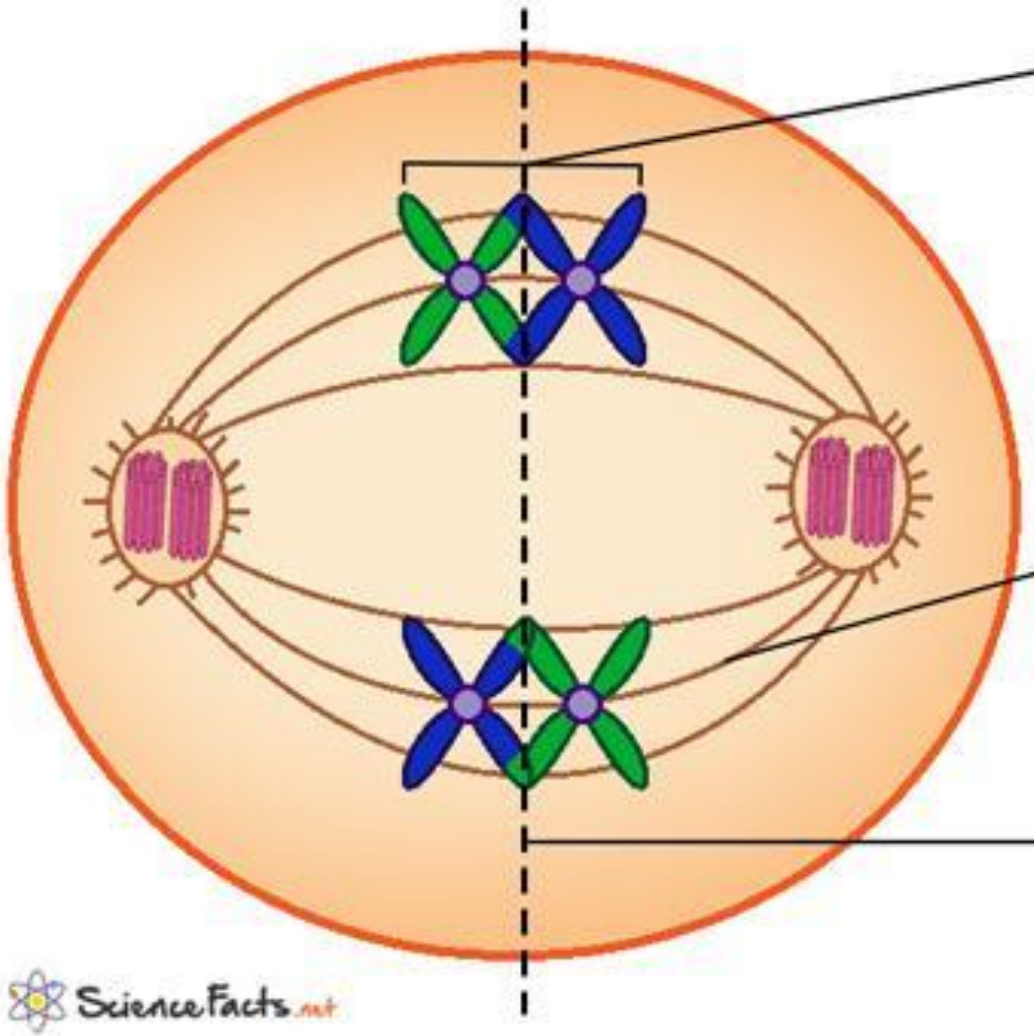
Anaphase



Telophase



# Metaphase I of Meiosis



Homologous pairs of chromosomes align along the center of the cell

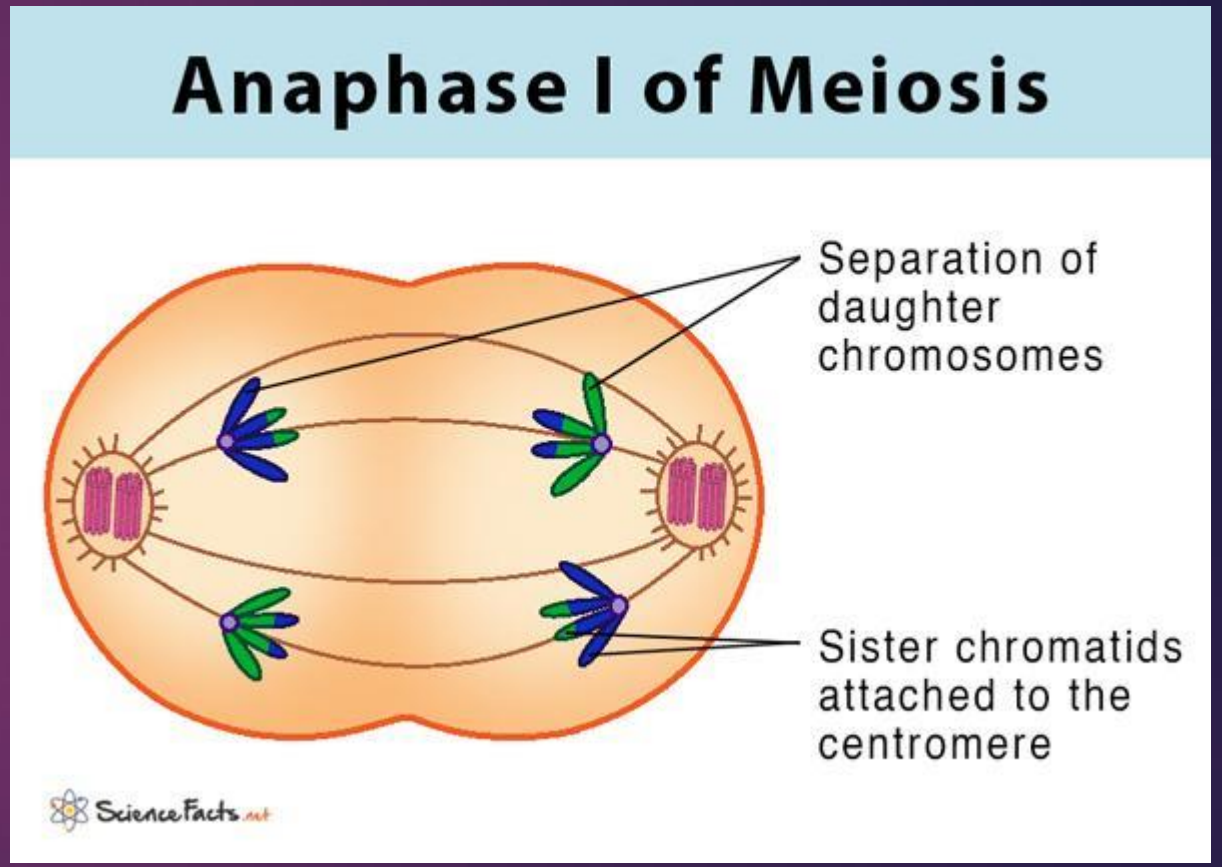
Spindle fiber attached to centromere

Metaphase plate (center of the cell)

ScienceFacts.net

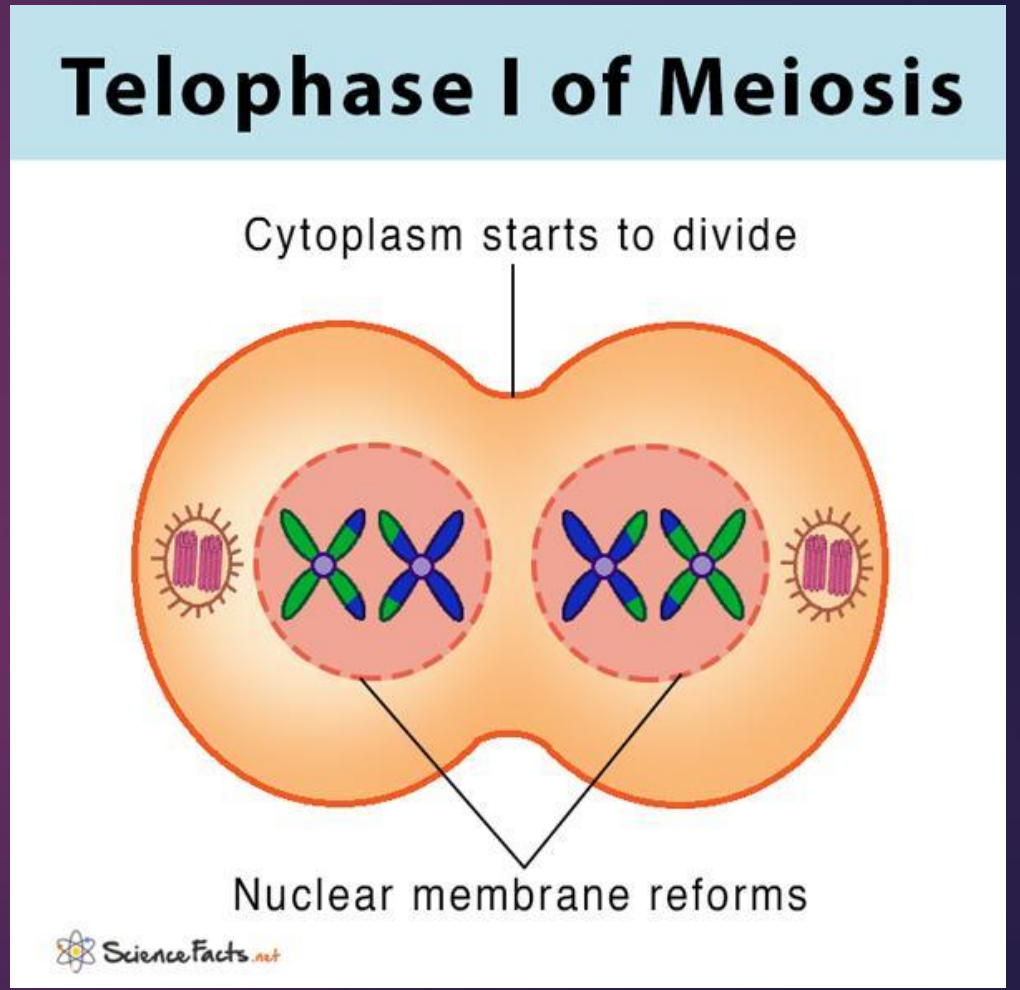

# Meiosis 1 – Anaphase 1

- During anaphase I, the spindle fibres shorten.
- This causes the homologous chromosomes to separate from one another.
- The homologues move to opposite poles of the cell.
- Because the sister chromatids are still held together, the centromeres do not split as they do in mitosis.
- The result is that a single chromosome (made up of two sister chromatids) from each homologous pair moves to each pole of the cell.




# Meiosis 1 – Telophase 1

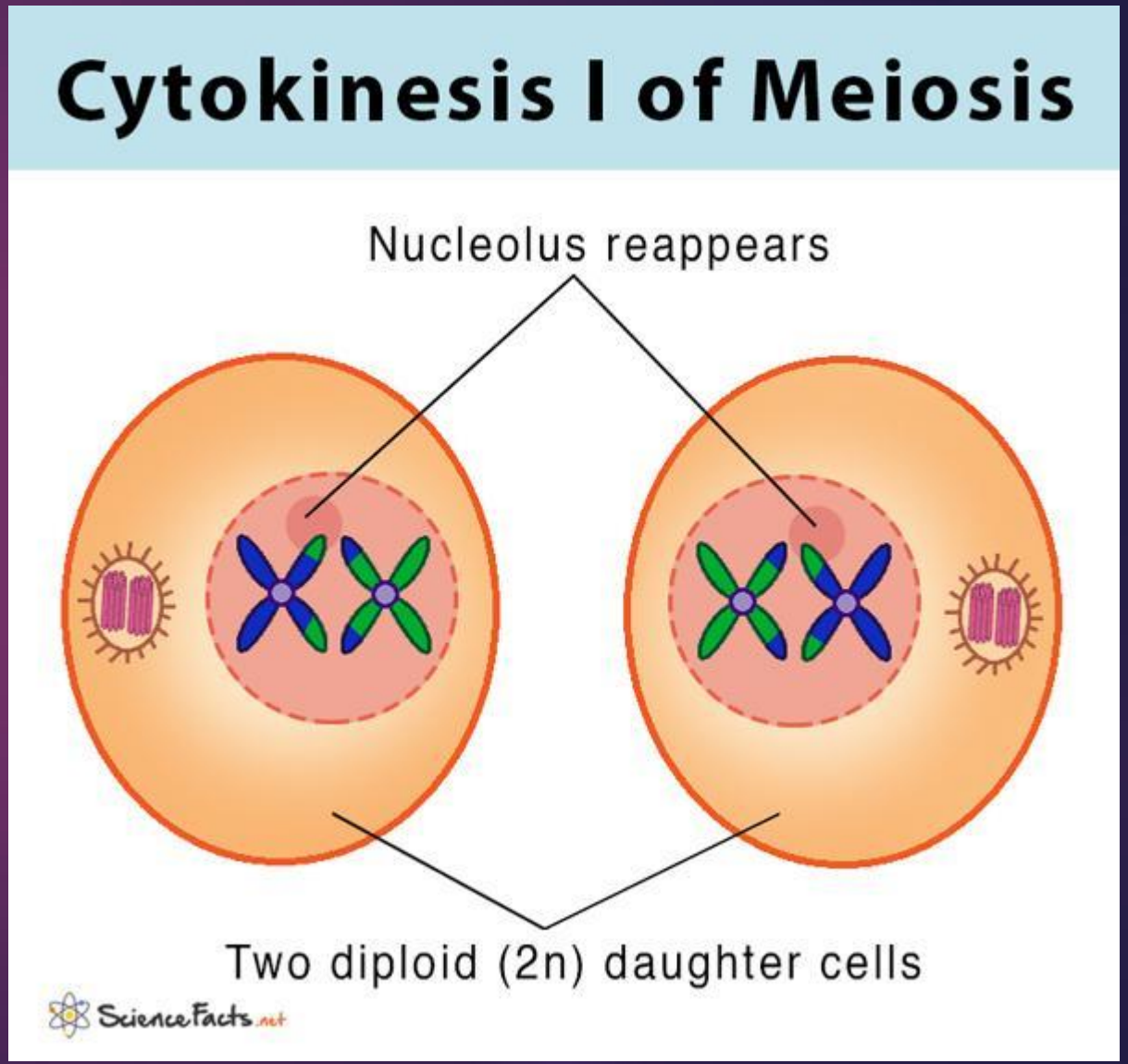
- Some cells move directly from anaphase I to meiosis II
- Other cells go through telophase I following anaphase I.
- In telophase I, the homologous chromosomes begin to uncoil and the spindle fibres disappear.
- The cytoplasm is divided, the nuclear membrane forms around each group of homologous chromosomes, and two cells are formed.
- Each of these new cells contains one set of sister chromatids and is now haploid.
- Chromosome replication *does not* take place before the next phase of meiosis.




# Meiosis 1 – Cytokinesis 1

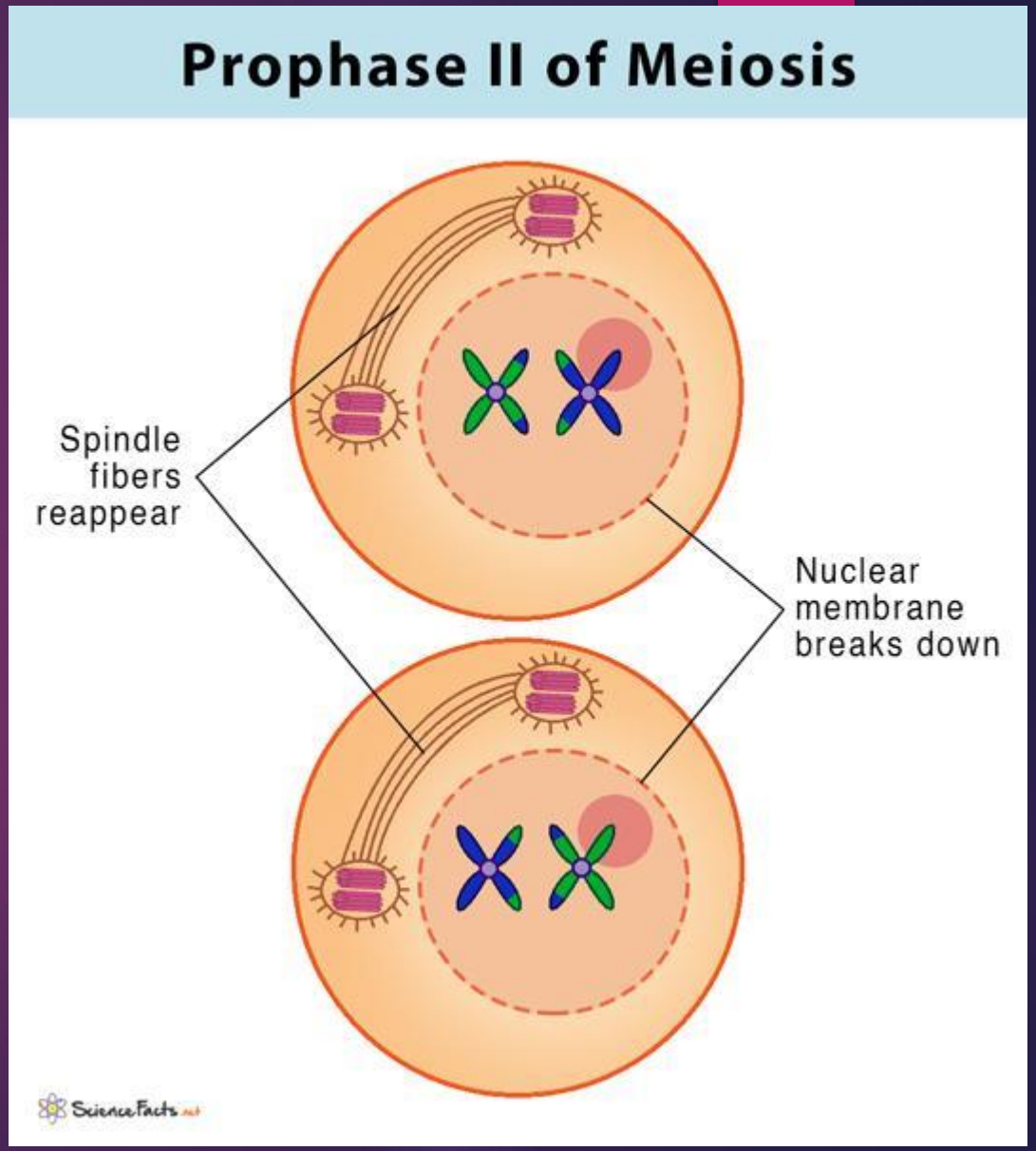
- It involves the division of the cytoplasm to produce two individual daughter cells.

- Result of Meiosis I
- At the end of cytokinesis I, two different daughter cells are formed, each with half the number of chromosomes as the parent cell (having 23 chromosomes having 23 pairs of chromatids).
- These chromosomes are often called double stranded
- Each cell that enters meiosis II is haploid but consists of replicated chromosomes.



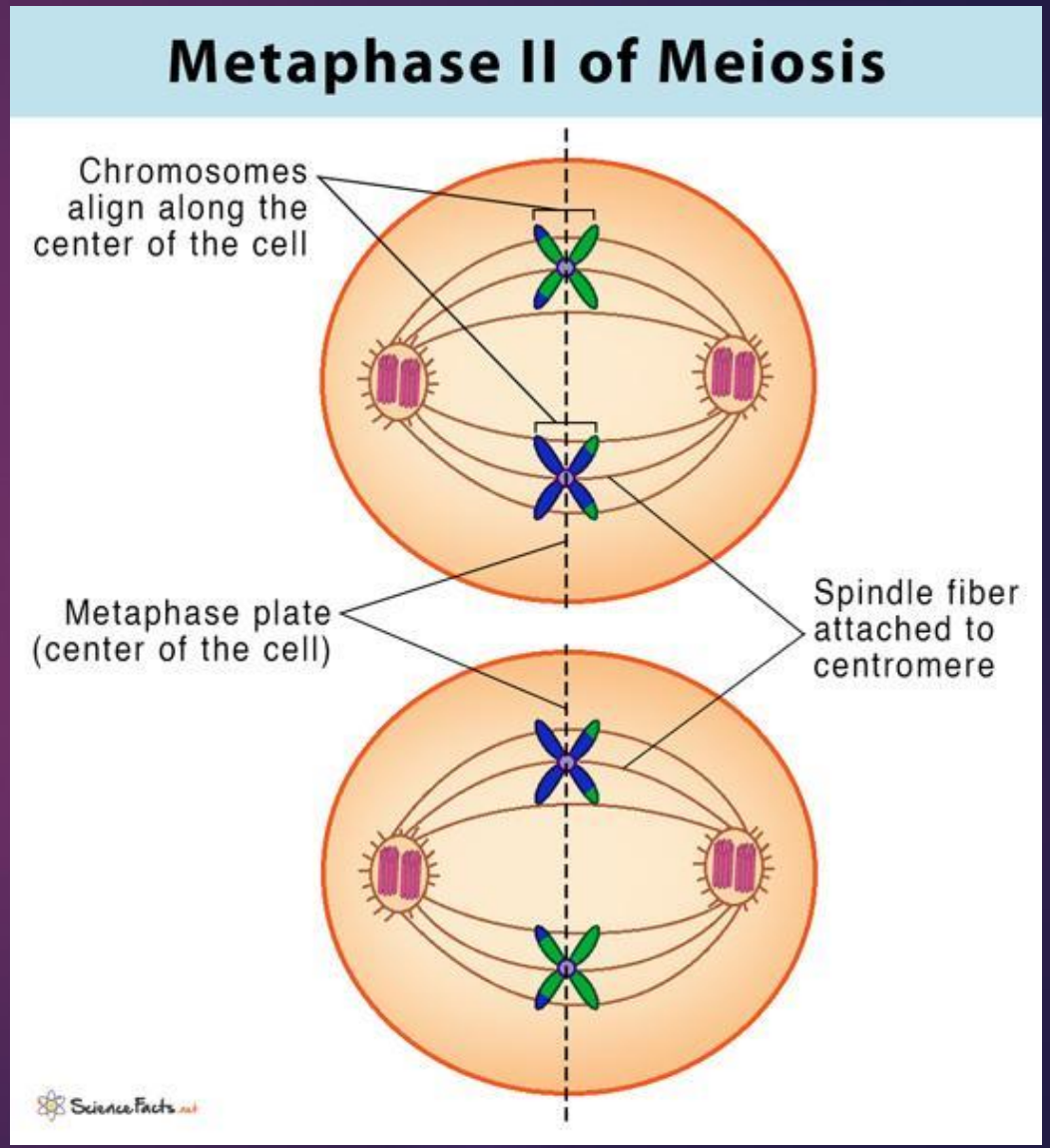

# Meiosis II – Prophase II

- The nuclear membrane initiates to break down, and the spindle fibers appear again.
- Each centriole divides, forming two pairs of centrioles.
- Chromosomes do not replicate any further in this phase of meiosis and begin migration towards the center of the cell.



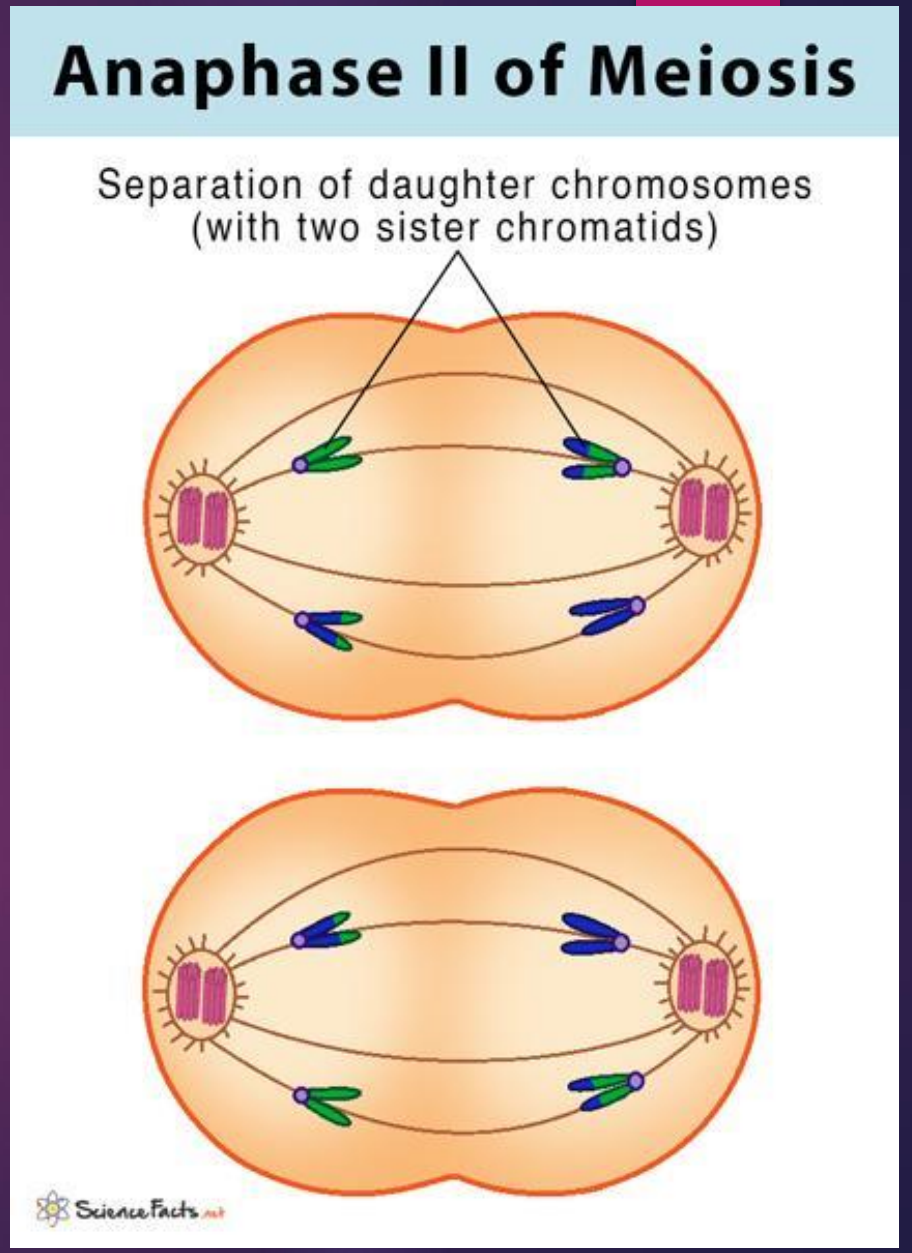

# Meiosis II – Metaphase II

- Chromosomes arrange on the equator of the cell with the help of the spindle fibers.
- The centrioles are now at opposite poles in each of the daughter cells.
- Centromere divides, producing two sister chromatids, now known as daughter chromosomes, with the spindle fibers attached to each chromosome.



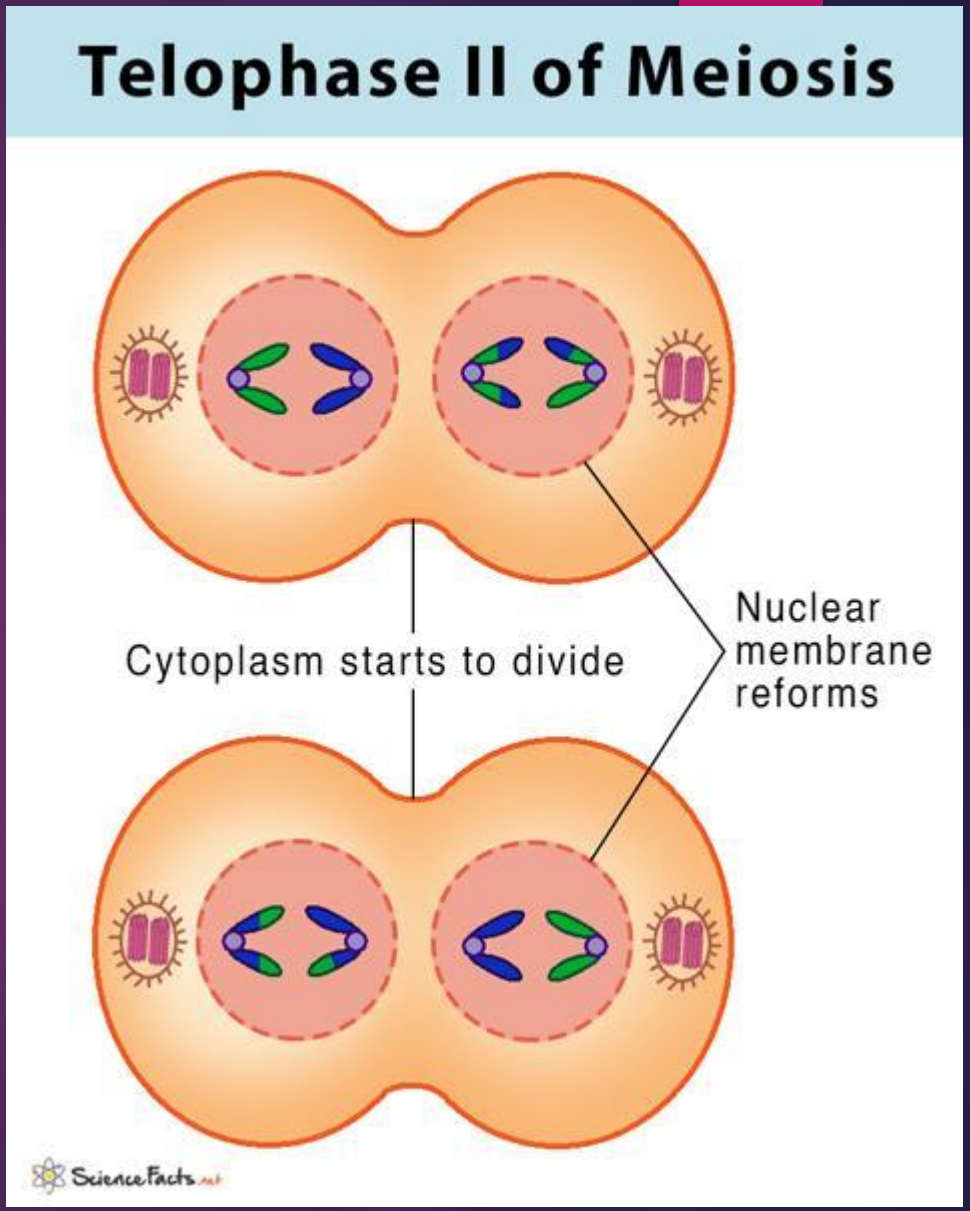

# Meiosis II – Anaphase II

- The daughter chromosomes are pulled towards the opposite poles of the cells with the help of the spindle fibers.
- At the end of anaphase II, each end of the cell contains a complete set of chromosomes.




# Meiosis II – Telophase II

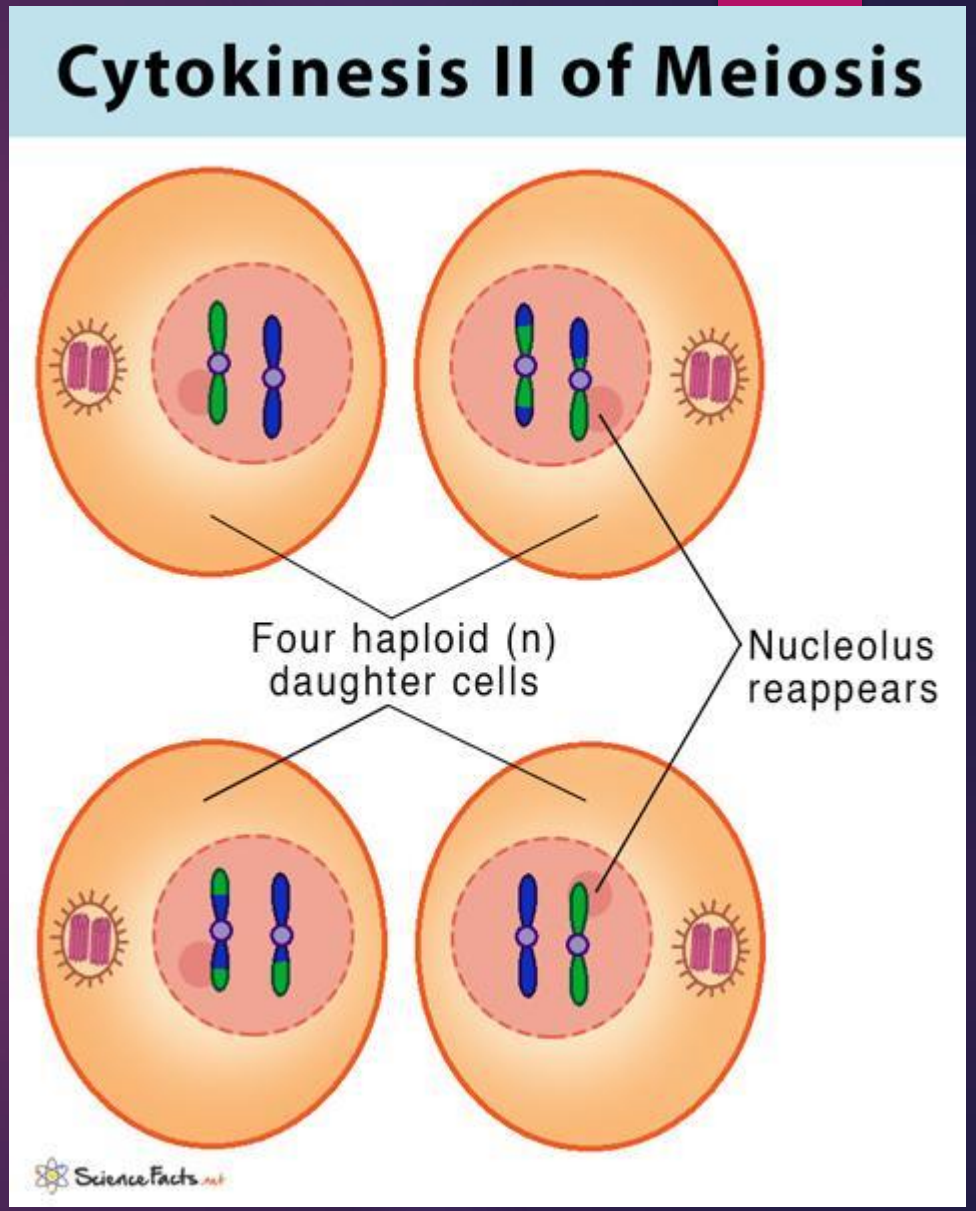
- The nuclear membrane forms around each chromosome with the disappearance of the spindle fibers.
- Nucleolus reappears as the cell prepares for the second round of cytoplasmic division.




# Cytokinesis II

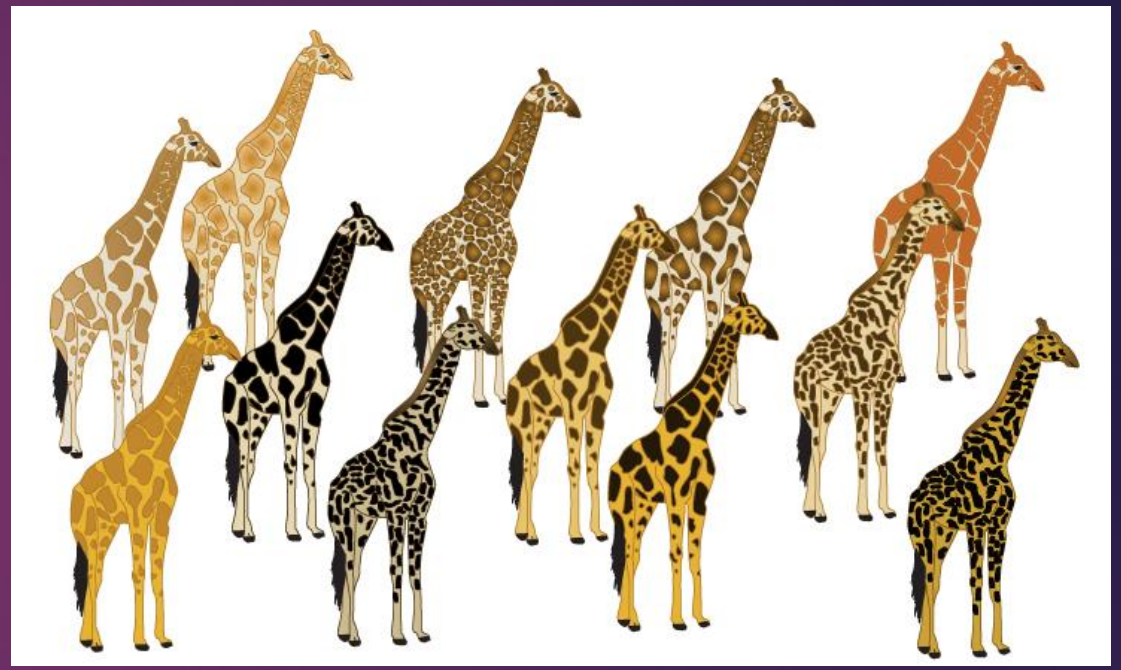
- This step is identical to cytokinesis I, involving the second cytoplasm division, resulting in the formation of two individual daughter cells.

- The End Result of Meiosis
- At the end of meiosis II, four non-identical, haploid daughter cells are formed, each having half chromosome number as the original parent cell.




# Meiosis and Genetic Variation

- During meiosis, genetic variation is ensured in two ways:
- 1. By the creation of gametes that carry different combinations of maternal and paternal chromosomes - Independent Assortment
- 2. By the exchange of genetic material between maternal and paternal chromosomes – Crossing over




# Independent Assortment

- The independent assortment of homologous chromosomes during metaphase I results in gametes that have different combinations of parental chromosomes.

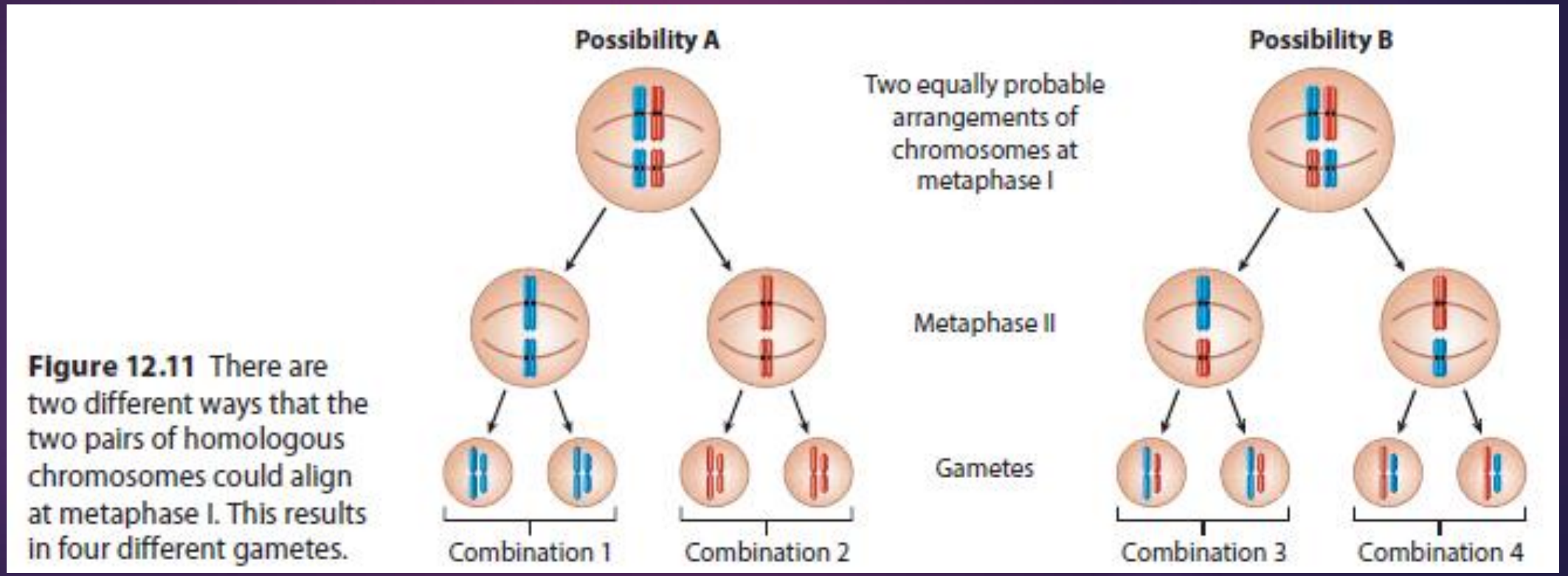



**Figure 12.11** There are two different ways that the two pairs of homologous chromosomes could align at metaphase I. This results in four different gametes.


# Crossing Over

- crossing over exchange of genetic material between non-sister chromatids
- While they are lined up side by side in prophase I, non-sister chromatids may exchange pieces of chromosome

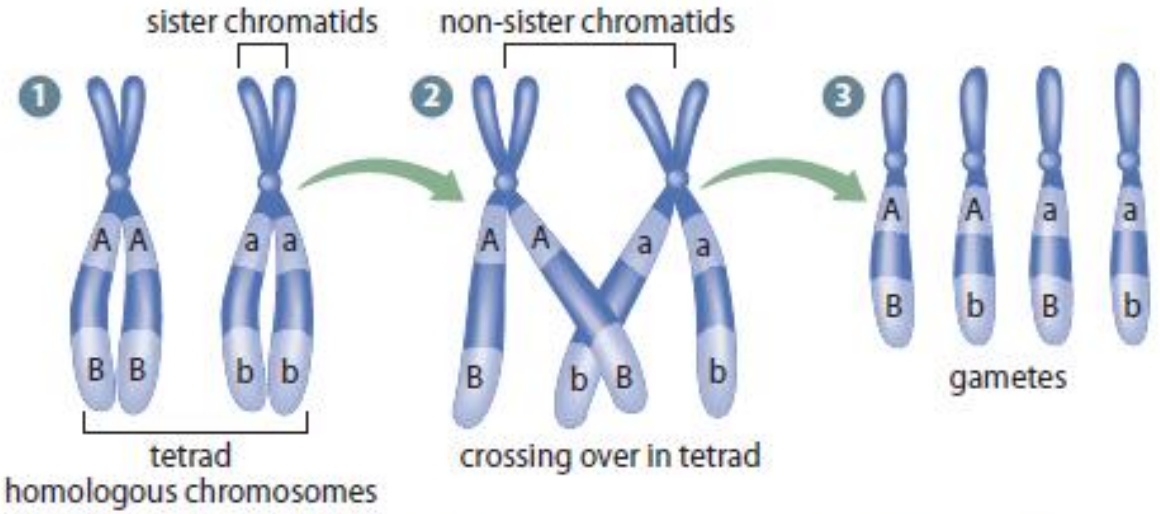



**Figure 12.12** Crossing over occurs at random between pairs of homologous chromosomes. In these chromosomes, upper-case and lower-case letters denote different alleles, or different versions of the same gene. **(1)** During prophase, homologous chromosomes form pairs. **(2)** Non-sister chromatids cross over each other and exchange segments of chromosomes. As a result, chromosomes in the gametes **(3)** contain new combinations of genetic material.

**Figure 12.13** Crossing over between non-sister chromatids can occur at several points simultaneously.


# Mitosis vs Meiosis

## Mitosis

- 4 stages in total (plus interphase)
- Happens in somatic cells
- Purpose is cellular proliferation
- Produces 2 diploid daughter cells
- Chromosome number remains the same
- Genetic variation doesn't change

## Same

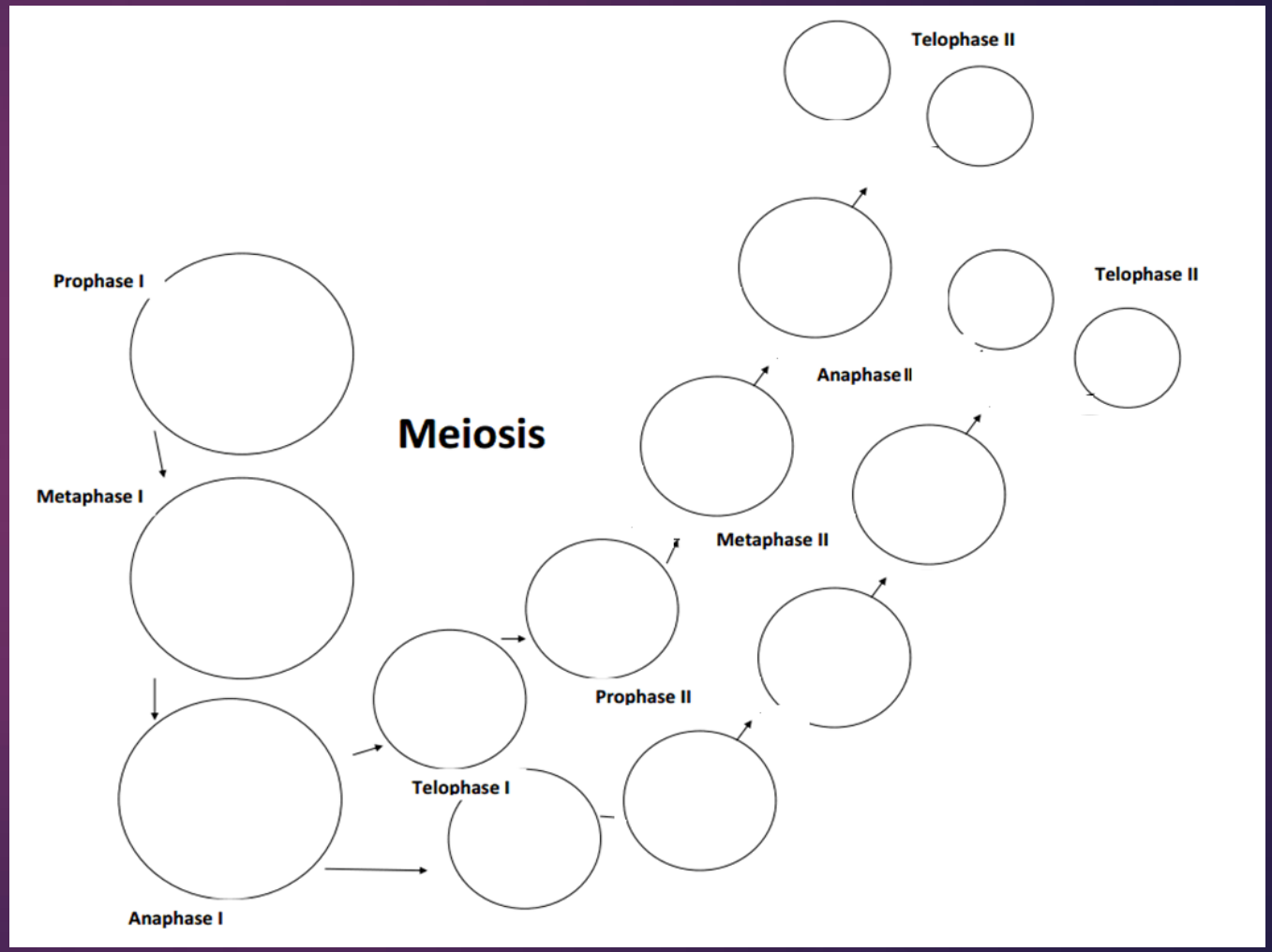
- Produce new cells
- Similar basic steps
- Start with a single parent cell

## Meiosis

- 8 stages in total (plus interphase)
- Happens in germ cells
- Purpose is sexual reproduction
- Produces 4 haploid daughter cells
- Chromosome number is halved in each daughter cell
- Genetic variation increased

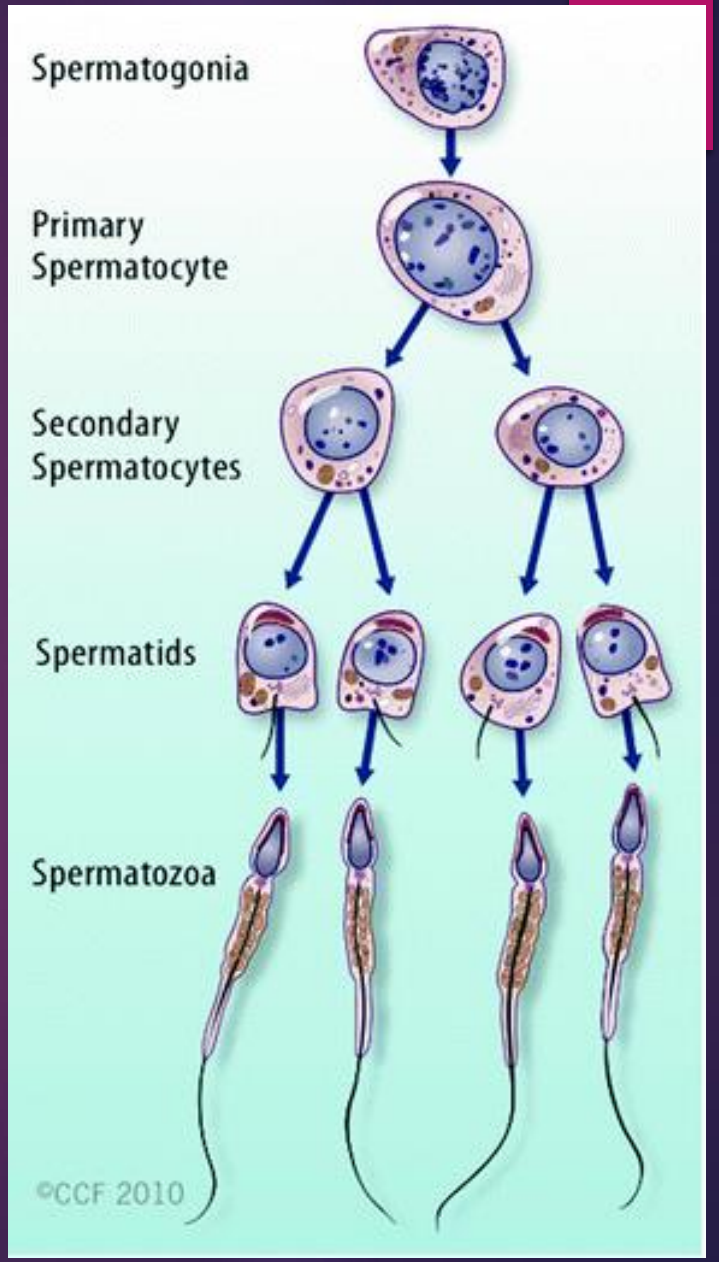

# Activity Modelling Meiosis

- Investigation 12.B
- Use the template provided to model a cell with a diploid number of 4.

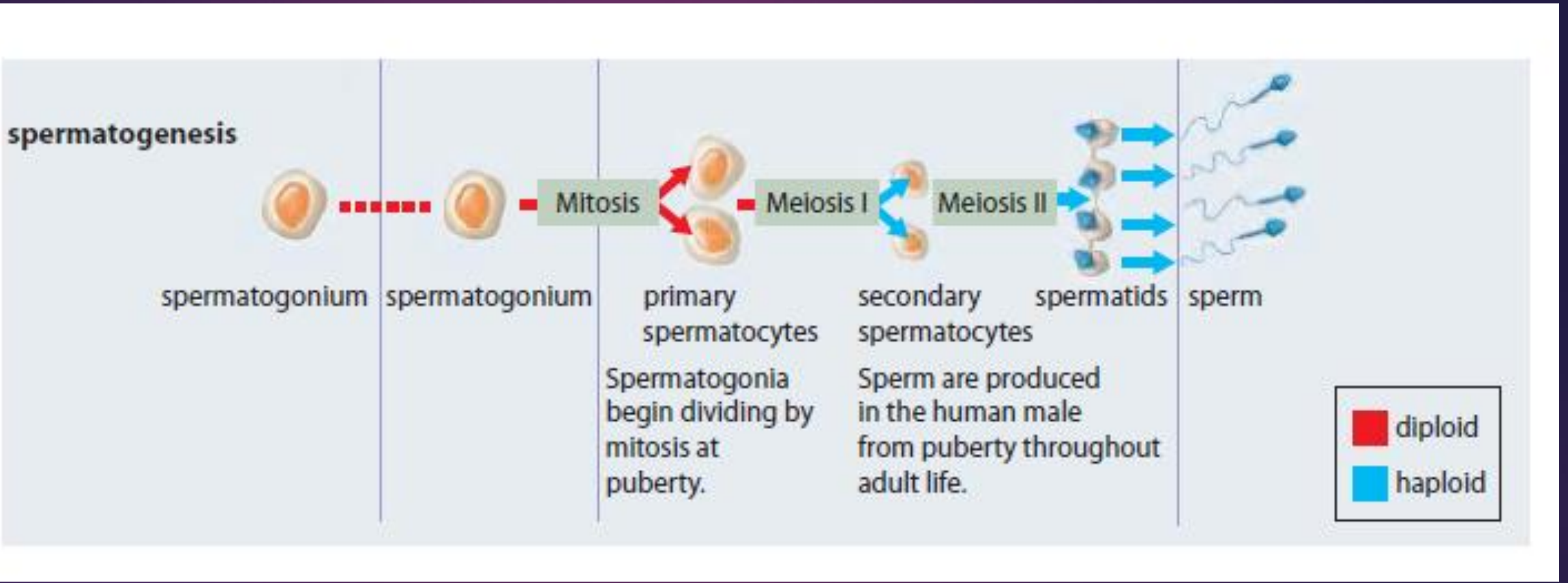



# Spermatogenesis

- **spermatogenesis** process of male gamete production
- **spermatogonium** diploid germ cell from which sperm are produced
- Beginning at puberty, spermatogonia are stimulated to divide by mitosis to form two daughter cells. One of these cells replenishes the spermatogonia cell population, and the other develops into a *primary spermatocyte*.
- The primary spermatocyte undergoes meiosis I to form two *secondary spermatocytes*. The secondary spermatocytes then undergo meiosis II to form four *spermatids*.
- Following meiosis II, the spermatids go through a final set of developmental stages in order to develop into mature sperm cell.
- **sperm cell** male gamete

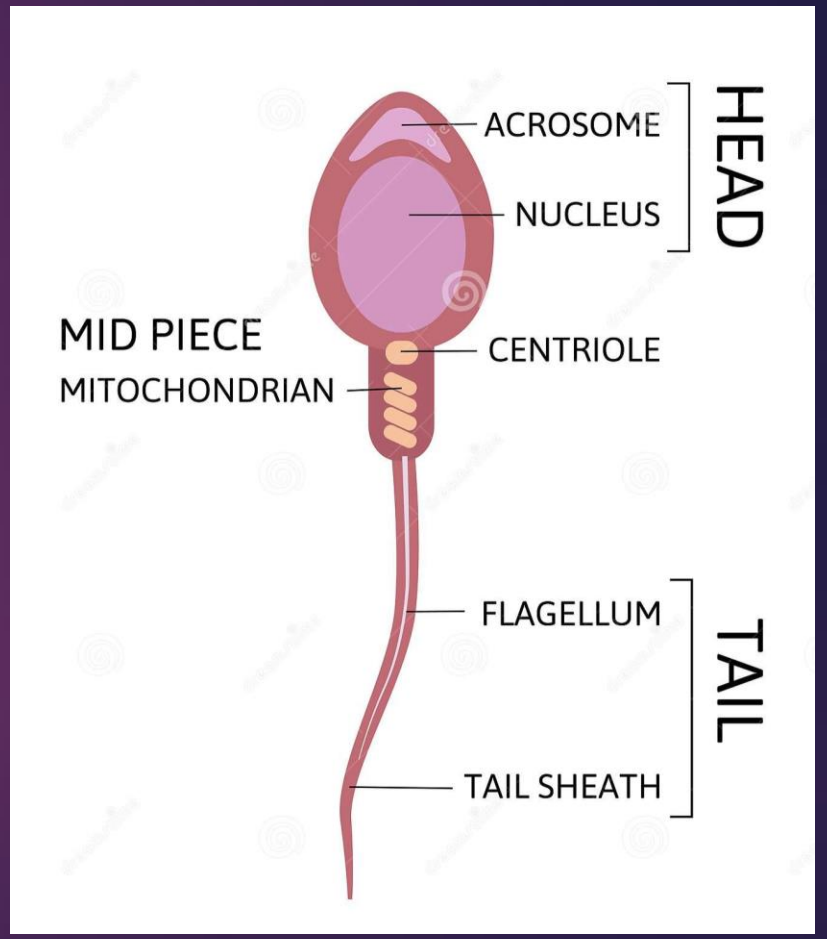



Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase


spermatogenesis
Mitosis
Meiosis I
Meiosis II
spermatogonium
spermatogonium
primary spermatocytes
secondary spermatocytes
spermatids
sperm
Spermatogonia begin dividing by mitosis at puberty.
Sperm are produced in the human male from puberty throughout adult life.
diploid
haploid

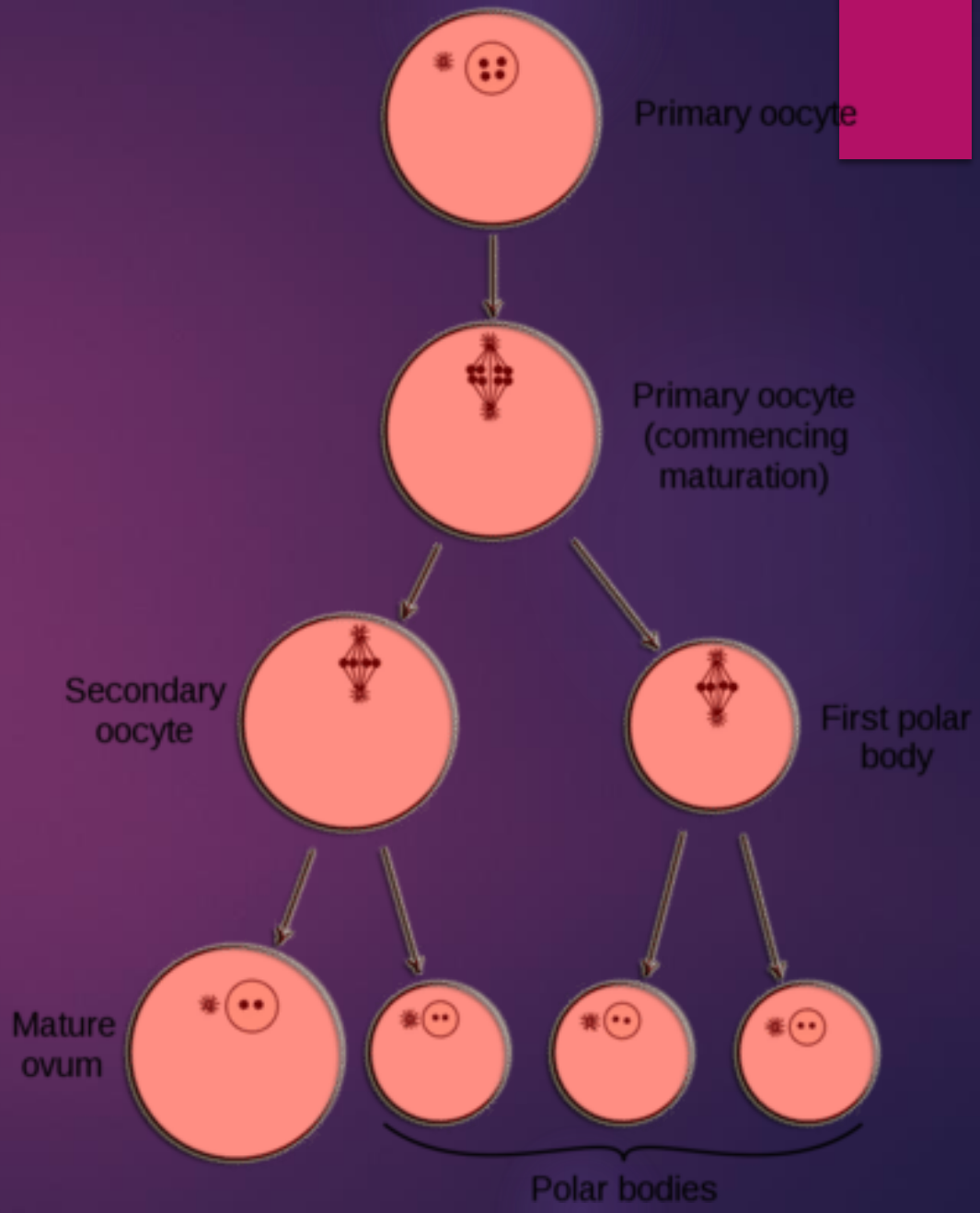

# Sperm Cell

- A mature sperm is a tadpole-shaped structure, about 0.05 mm long.
- Each sperm cell has three parts: an oval head, a cylindrical middle piece, and an extended tail.
- The head contains the nucleus. It is covered by a caplike structure called the acrosome. The acrosome stores enzymes that are needed to penetrate the protective layer surrounding a female egg.
- The middle piece contains 50 to 100 mitochondria, which provide energy for the movement of the tail.
- The tail propels the sperm with a lashing motion. The sperm can move at a rate of about 3 mm per hour. About 300 to 500 million sperm are produced each day in a male's lifetime.

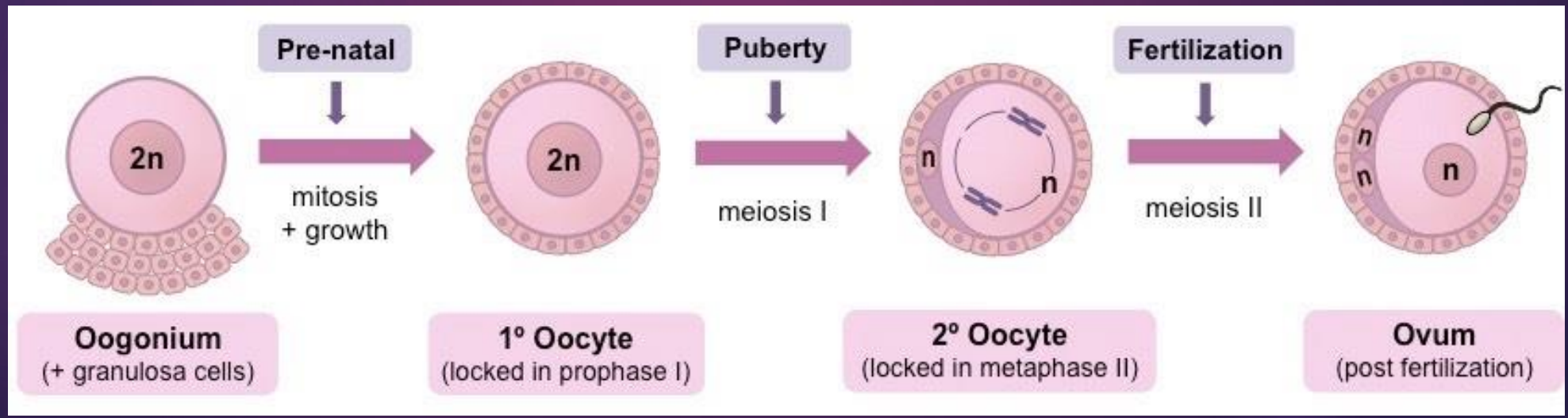



# Oogenesis

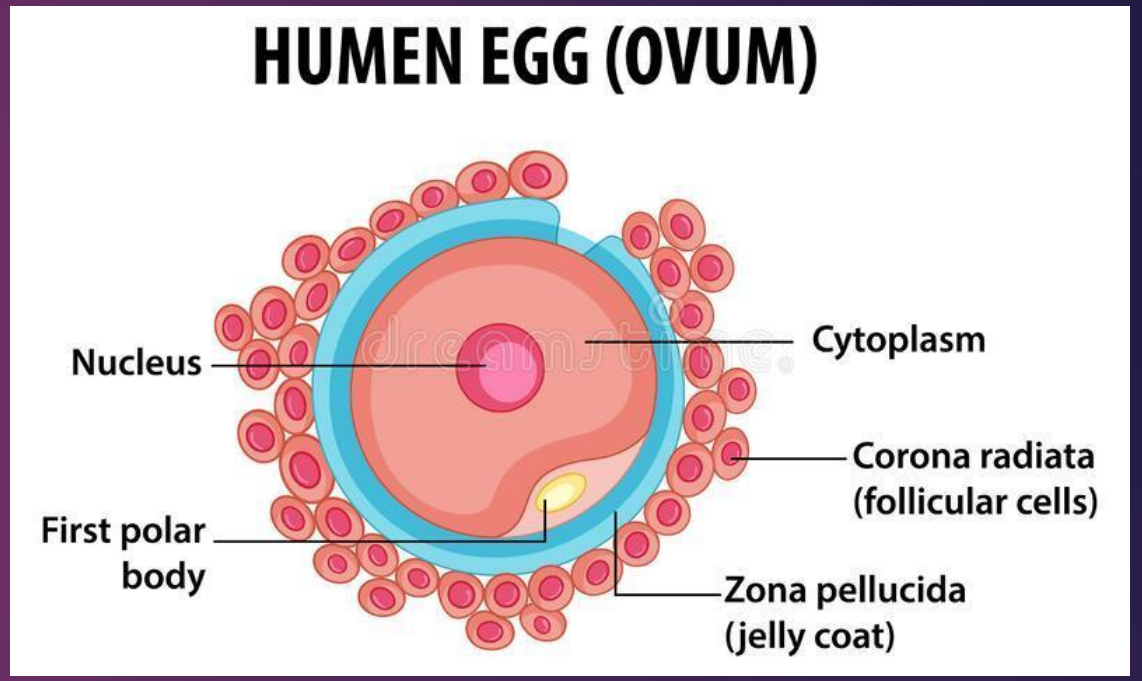
- In female animals, meiosis takes place in the ovaries.
- **oogenesis** process of female gamete production.
- **oogonium** diploid germ cell from which ova are produced. Each oogonium undergoes mitosis to form two primary oocytes.
- **primary oocytes** the oocyte that arises from the oogonium
- **polar body** a small haploid cell that is formed at the same time as an egg cell during oogenesis, but generally does not have the ability to be fertilized.



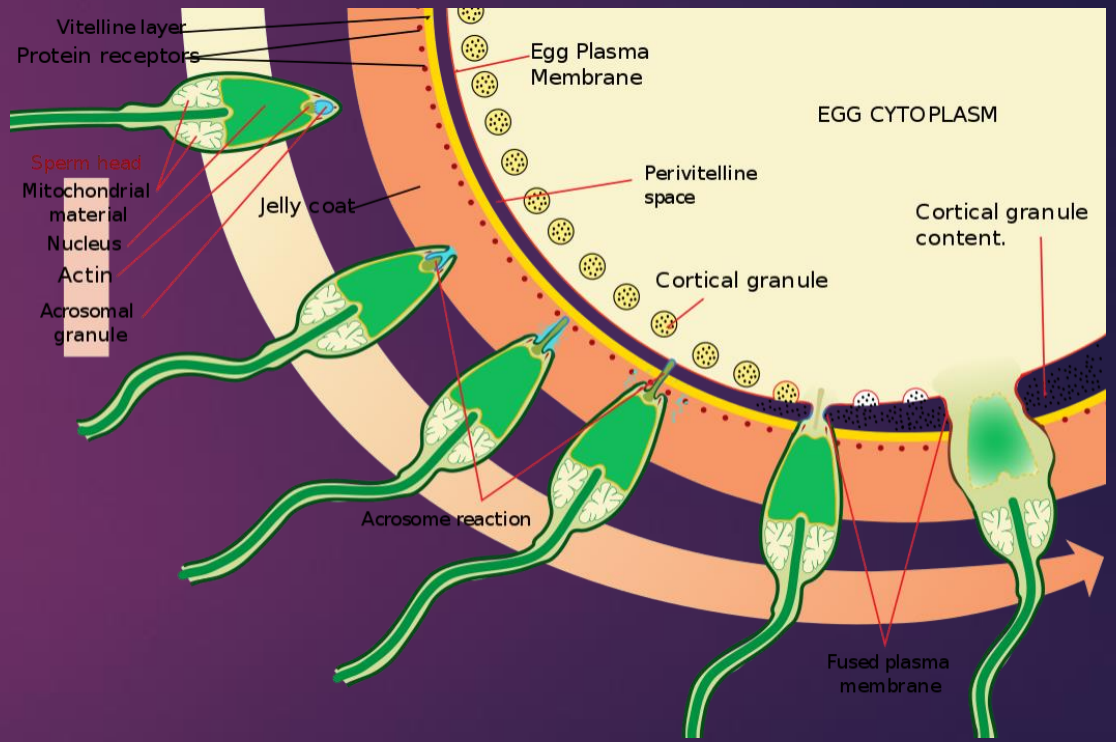

- Each oogonium undergoes mitosis to form two primary oocytes.
- About three months after conception, a female fetus has about two million primary oocytes in the ovaries.
- They are arrested in prophase I and remain that way until puberty. Every month after puberty, one *primary oocyte* undergoes meiosis.
- Oogenesis involves an unequal division of cytoplasm
- At the end of meiosis I, the cytoplasm is not equally divided between the two daughter cells.
- The cell that receives most of the cytoplasm is called the *secondary oocyte*.
- The other cell is called the *first polar body*. The first polar body may or may not go through a second division to produce a pair of second polar bodies. In either case, the polar bodies are not functional and soon degenerate.



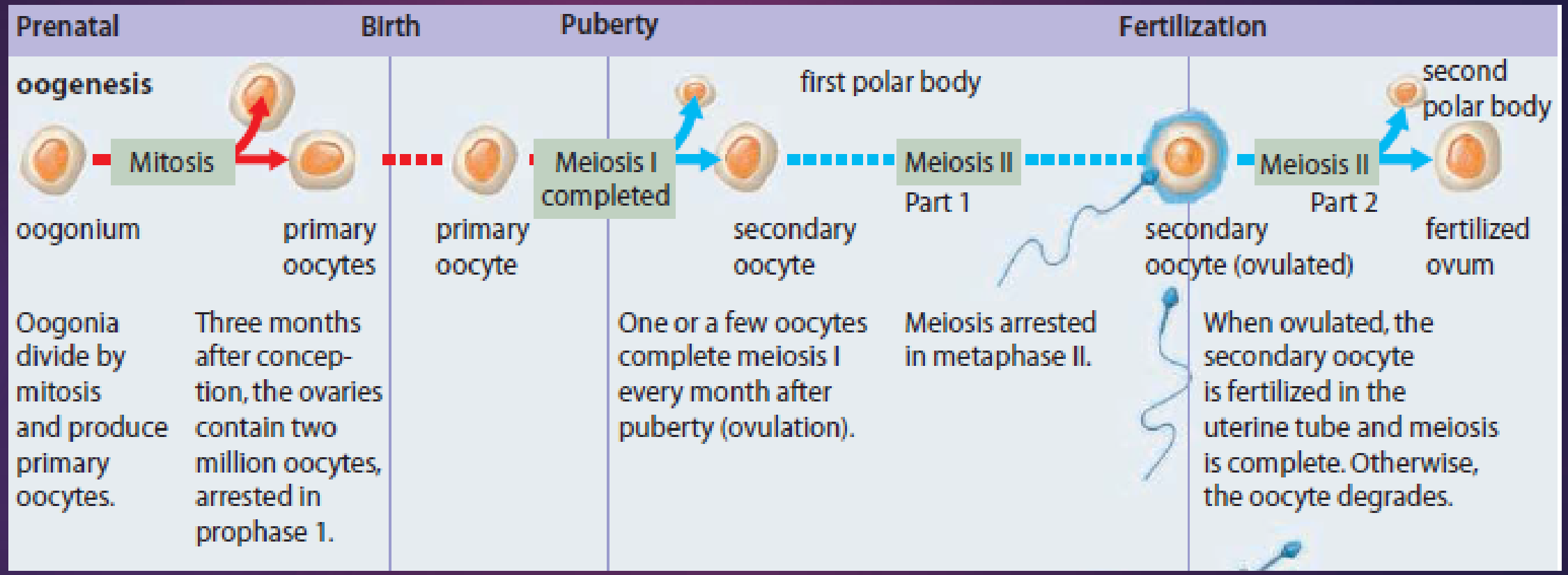

- When the secondary oocyte undergoes meiosis II, the cytoplasm is again unequally divided.
- The cell that contains most of the cytoplasm will eventually become a mature egg, or ovum (Ova plural). The other cell, another *second polar body*, is not a viable gamete.
- The unequal division of cytoplasm means that only one egg cell is produced from the division of the secondary oocyte.
- This egg cell contains a large quantity of nutrients that the zygote can use prior to implantation.



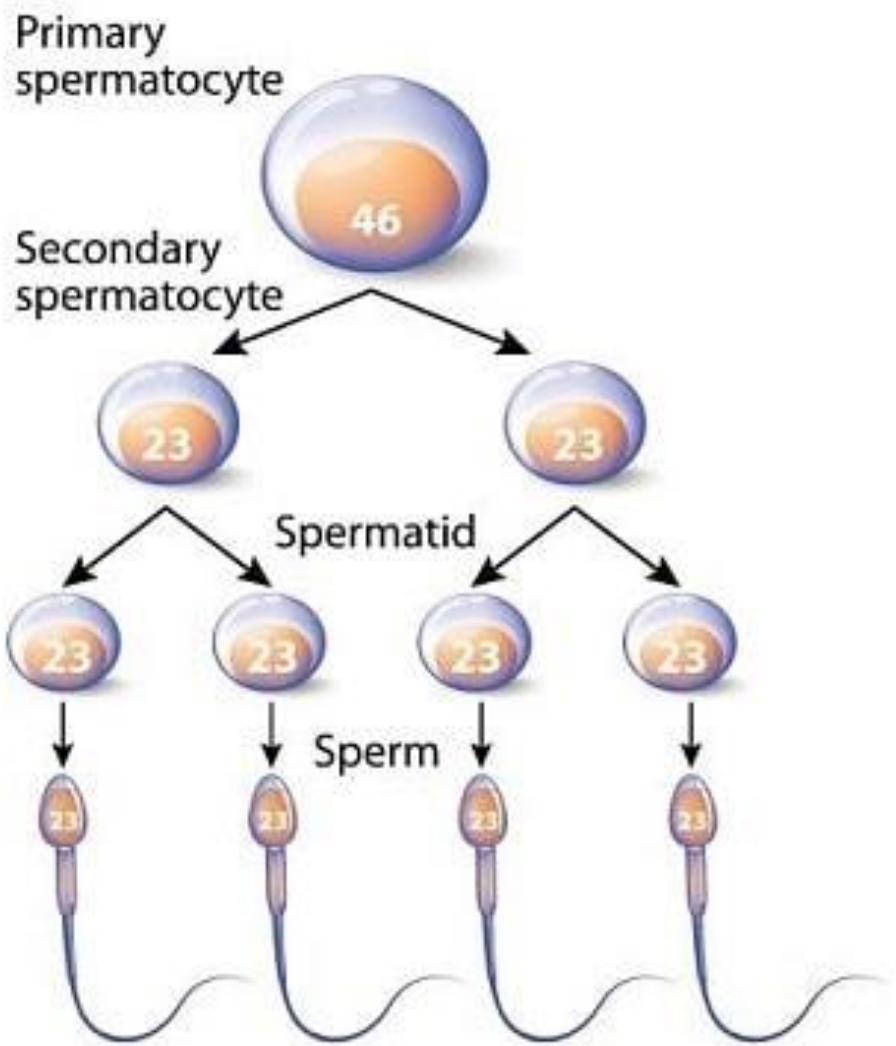

- The primary oocytes begin meiosis I before birth, but cell division stalls in prophase I.
- The cells remain in this suspended state until puberty.
- At puberty, a hormone signal triggers a single primary oocyte to resume meiosis. The primary oocyte completes meiosis I.
- The secondary oocyte is then released from the ovary and travels down the Fallopian tube.
- The secondary oocyte is arrested at metaphase II until fertilization occurs.
- If the secondary oocyte does not come into contact with a sperm cell, it will not complete a second meiotic division. If it does come into contact with a sperm cell and fertilization occurs, it will complete meiosis II.



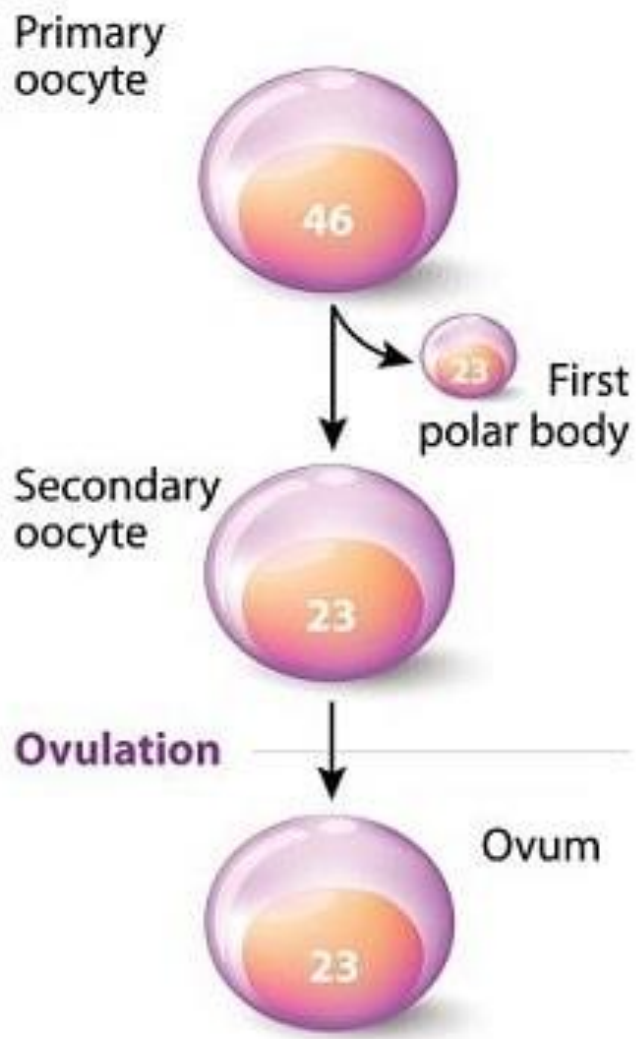

Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase


Prenatal
Birth
Puberty
Fertilization
oogenesis
Mitosis
Meiosis I completed
first polar body
Meiosis II
Part 1
Meiosis II
Part 2
second polar body
oogonium
primary oocytes
primary oocyte
secondary oocyte
secondary oocyte (ovulated)
fertilized ovum
Oogonia divide by mitosis and produce primary oocytes.
Three months after conception, the ovaries contain two million oocytes, arrested in prophase 1.
One or a few oocytes complete meiosis I every month after puberty (ovulation).
Meiosis arrested in metaphase II.
When ovulated, the secondary oocyte is fertilized in the uterine tube and meiosis is complete. Otherwise, the oocyte degrades.


# Spermatogenesis

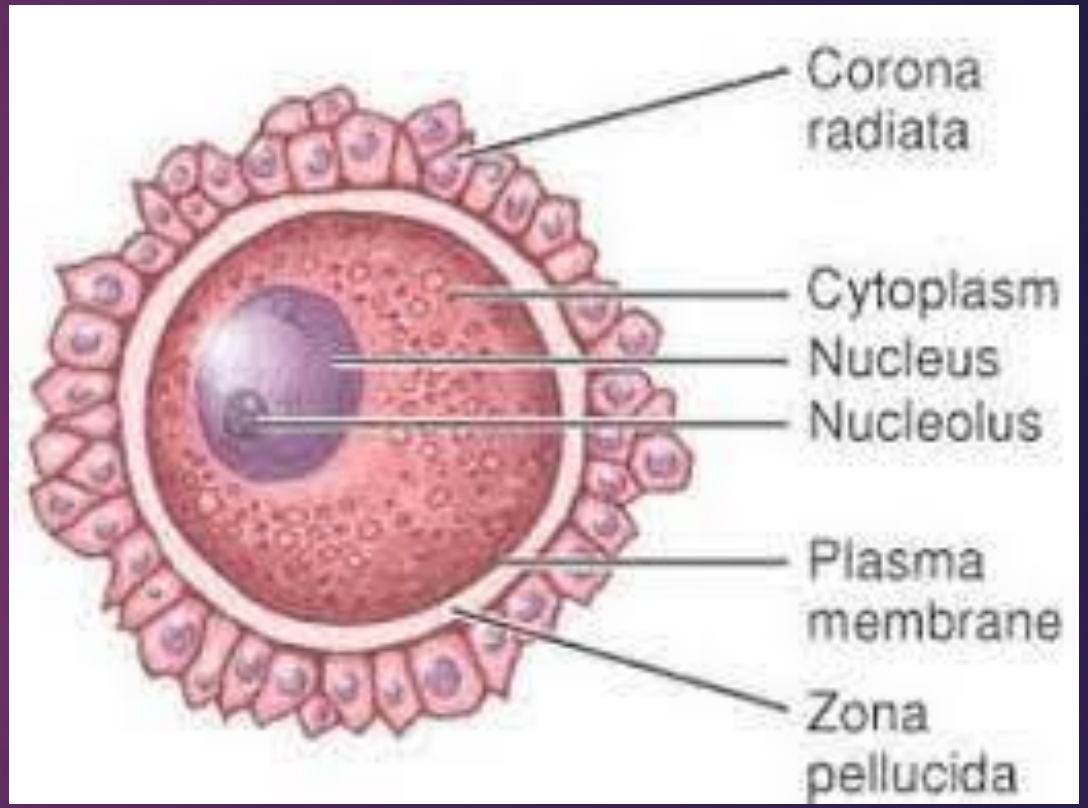


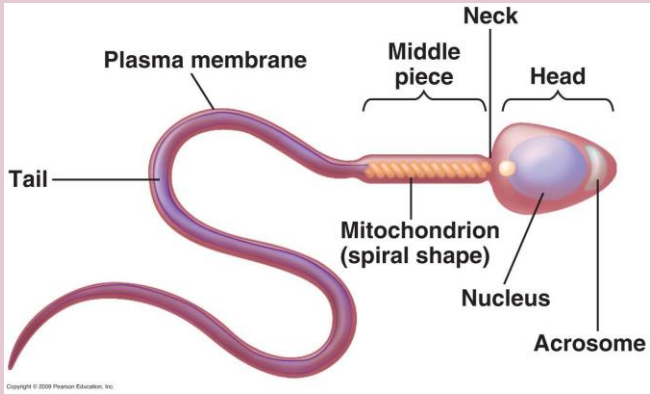
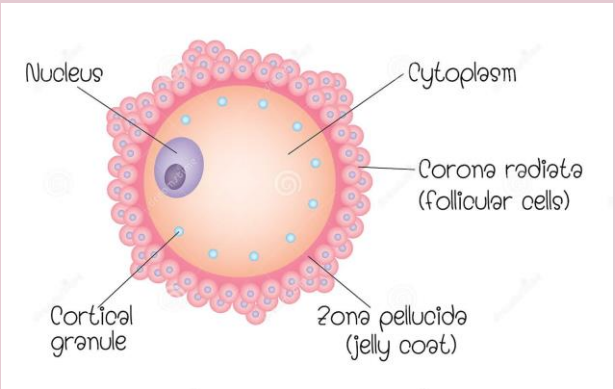

# Oogenesis




# Ovum

- A mature ovum is a non-motile, sphere-shaped cell approximately 0.1 mm in diameter (that is, over 20 times larger than the head of a sperm cell).
- The ovum contains a large quantity of cytoplasm, which contains nutrients for the first days of development after fertilization.
- The cytoplasm contains about 140 000 mitochondria. The ovum is encased in a thick membrane that must be penetrated by a sperm cell before fertilization can take place.

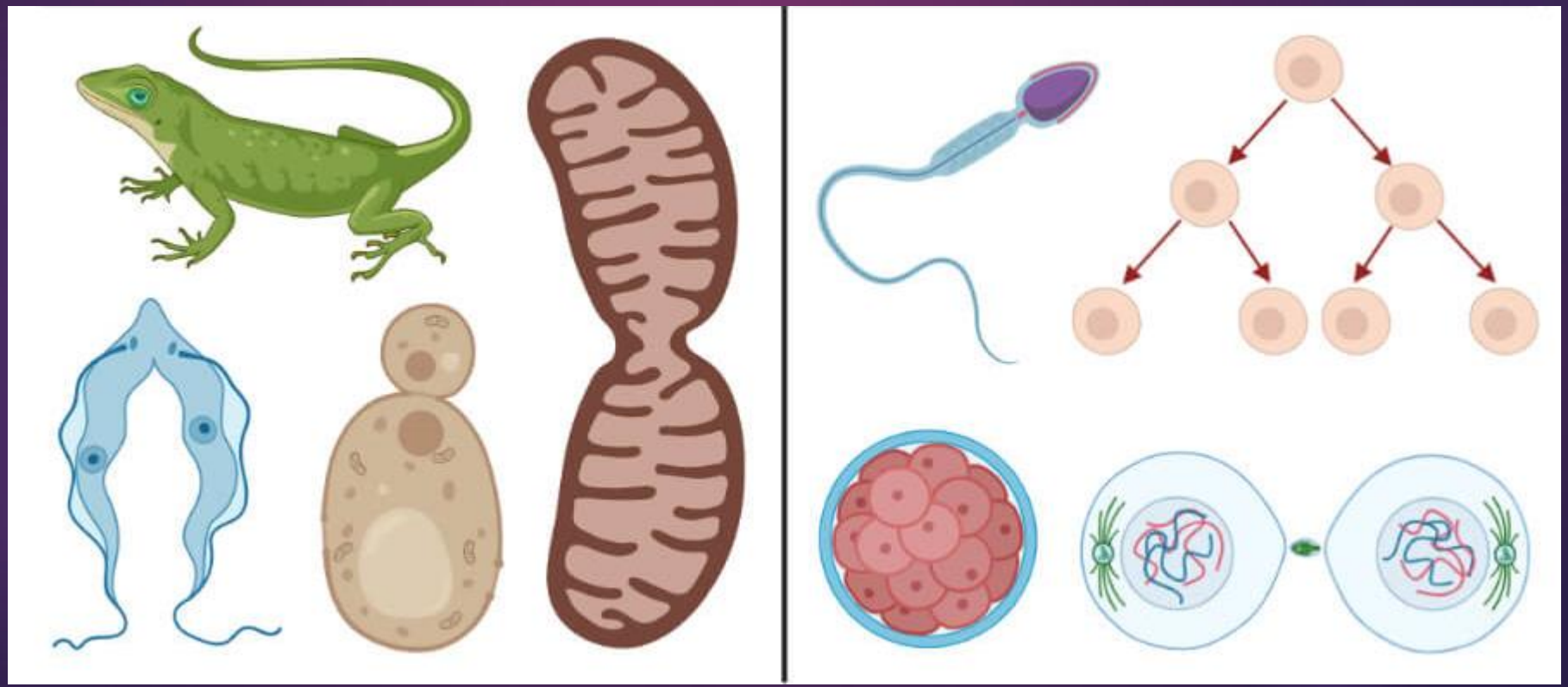



| | Sperm | Ovum |
|---|---|---|
| Size | 0.05 mm | 0.1 mm |
| Energy Reserve | None | Yes, nutrients in the cytoplasm |
| Mitochondria | 50 to 100 | 140,000 |
| How many | 300-500 million each day | 1 per cycle (month) |
| Motility | Yes | No |
| Special Structures | Acrosome<br>Head<br>Mid Piece<br>Tail | Zona Pellucida: Thick outer membrane<br>Cortical Granules: Enzyme packets in the cell |
| |  |  |


- **Sample Performance Indicators**
- Compare anaphase in mitosis, meiosis I, and meiosis II.
- Create a graphic organizer to compare oogenesis and spermatogenesis.
- Sea star cells have 36 chromosomes. If anaphase I does not occur, how many chromosomes will be present in daughter cells produced by meiosis?


# Reproductive Strategies

- **asexual reproduction**
  reproduction that requires only one parent
- **sexual reproduction**
  reproduction involving fertilization of gametes




# Asexual Reproduction

- **binary fission** asexual form of reproduction in prokaryotes (bacteria) that produces two identical cells

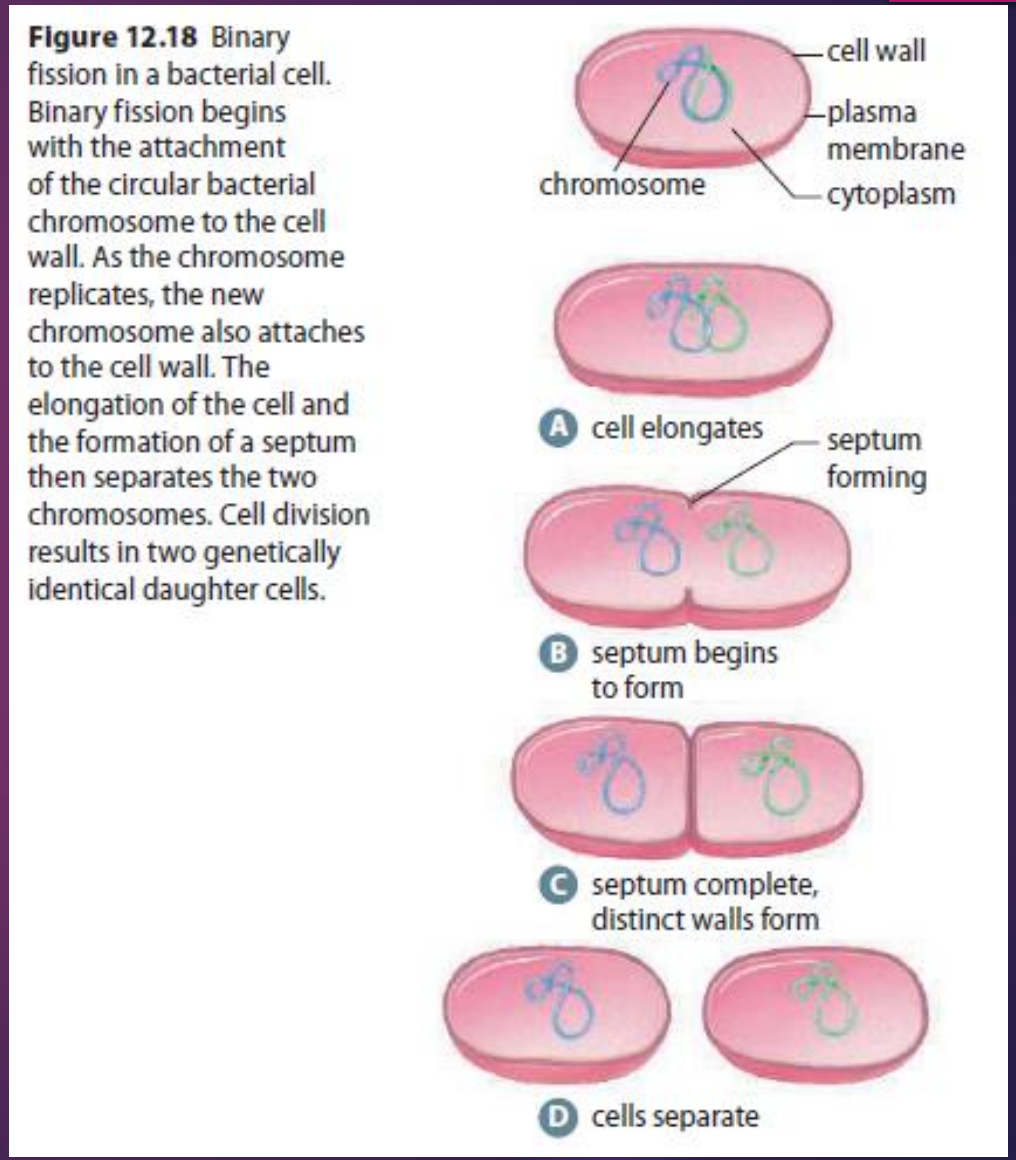


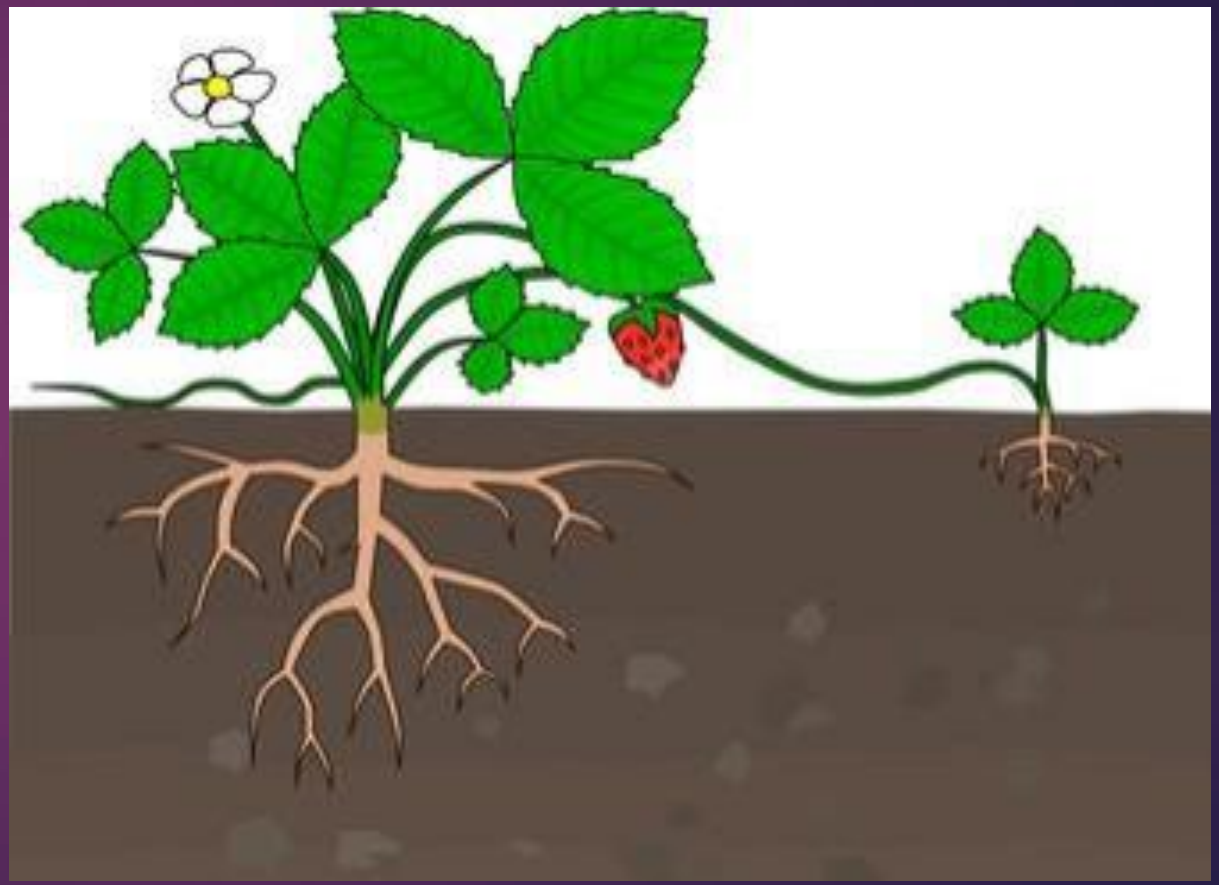

**Figure 12.18** Binary fission in a bacterial cell. Binary fission begins with the attachment of the circular bacterial chromosome to the cell wall. As the chromosome replicates, the new chromosome also attaches to the cell wall. The elongation of the cell and the formation of a septum then separates the two chromosomes. Cell division results in two genetically identical daughter cells.


- **budding** a new organism develops from an outgrowth of the parent
- The new organism then separates to become an independent organism.
- Example: Hydra

**Figure 12.20** This *Hydra* is reproducing by budding. The species can also reproduce sexually.

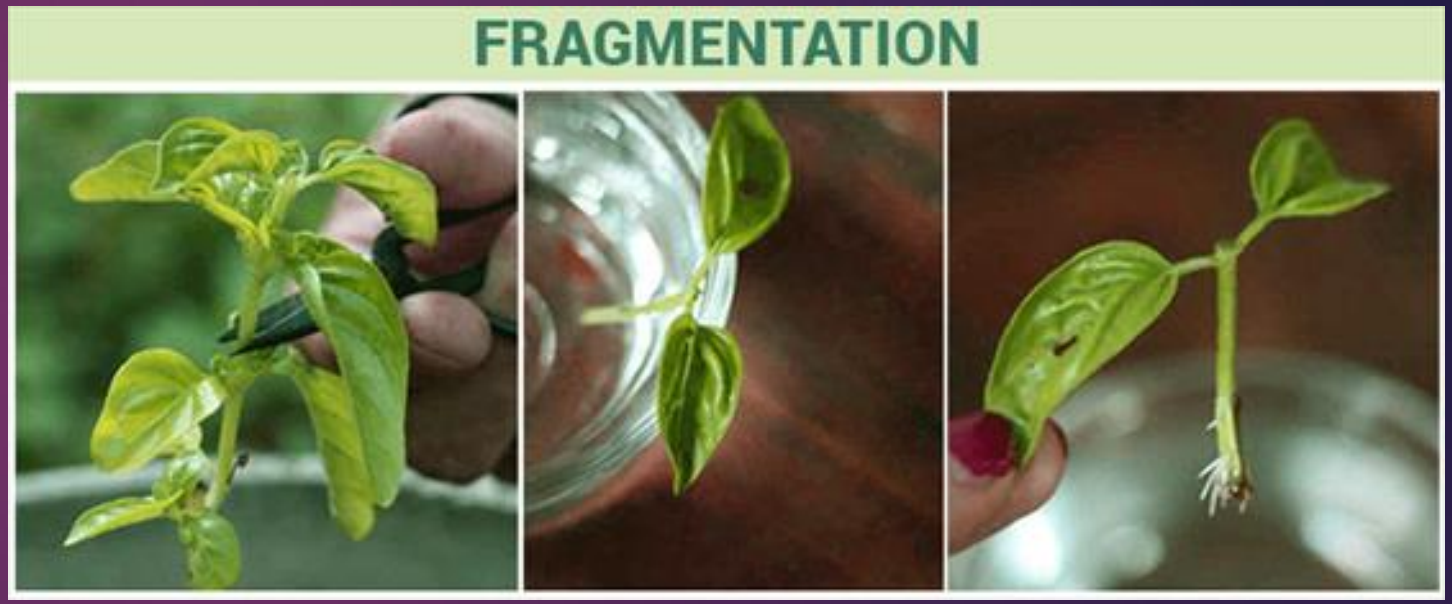

- **vegetative reproduction** growth of a new plant from a modified stem

- Strawberry plants can spread across a garden by extending thin creeping stems. A new strawberry plant develops at the end of each stem.
- Once the new plant has taken root, the stem disintegrates, separating the new plant from its parent.




- **fragmentation** a new organism forms from a part of a parent

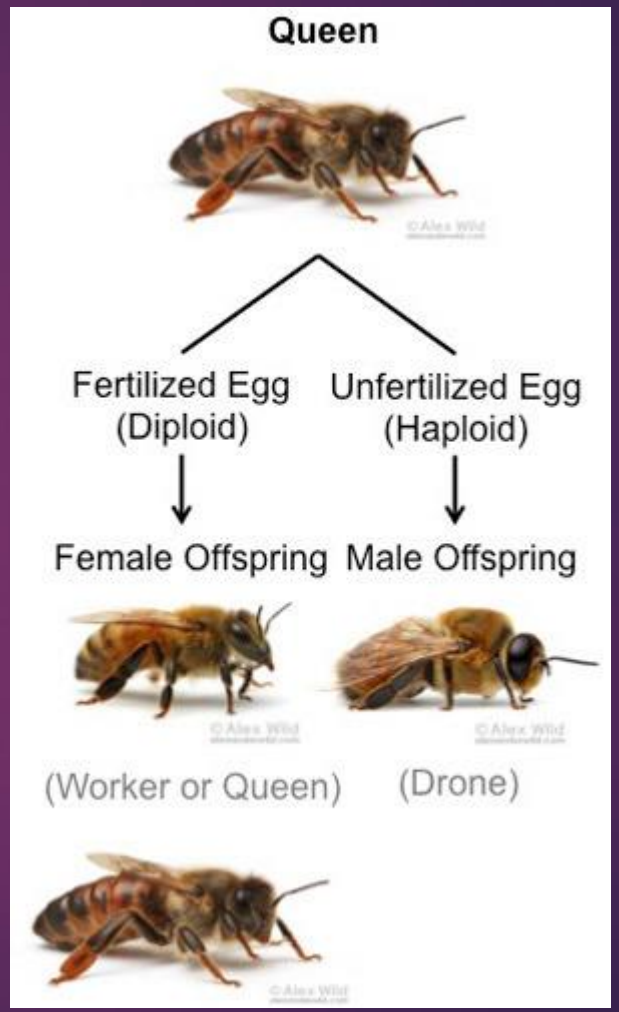
- In the cultivation of potatoes, for example, entire new plants are grown from a fragment, or tuber, of a parent plant.
- Gardeners rely on fragmentation to propagate new garden plants from cuttings.
- Some animals, such as sea stars, can reproduce by fragmentation.



- **Parthenogenesis** development of an adult organism from an unfertilized egg

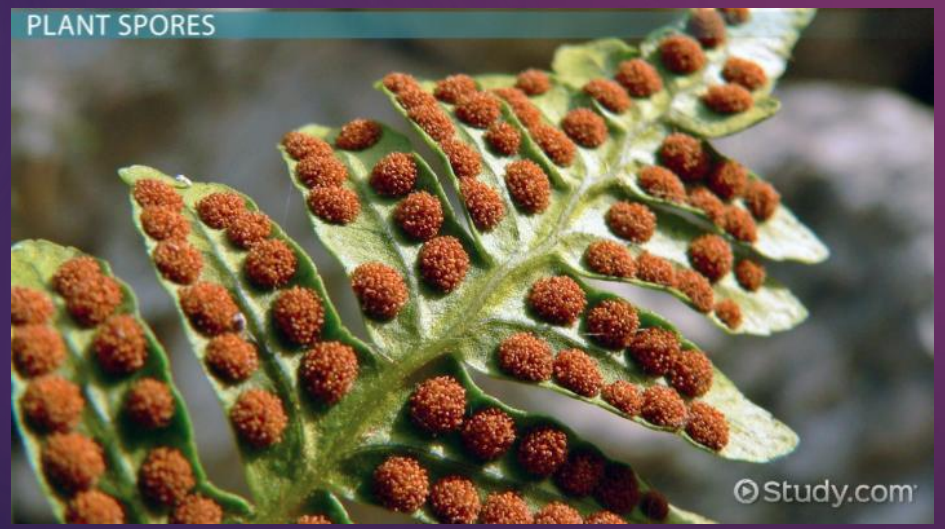
- In honeybees, for example, the queen bee lays both fertilized and unfertilized eggs.
- The fertilized eggs develop into female worker bees, while the unfertilized eggs develop into male drones.
- The whiptail lizard (*Cnemidophorus neomexicanus*) is another animal that reproduces by parthenogenesis.





- **spore** reproductive cell able to develop into a new organism

- Mushrooms, Mosses, Liverworts, Hornworts and Ferns



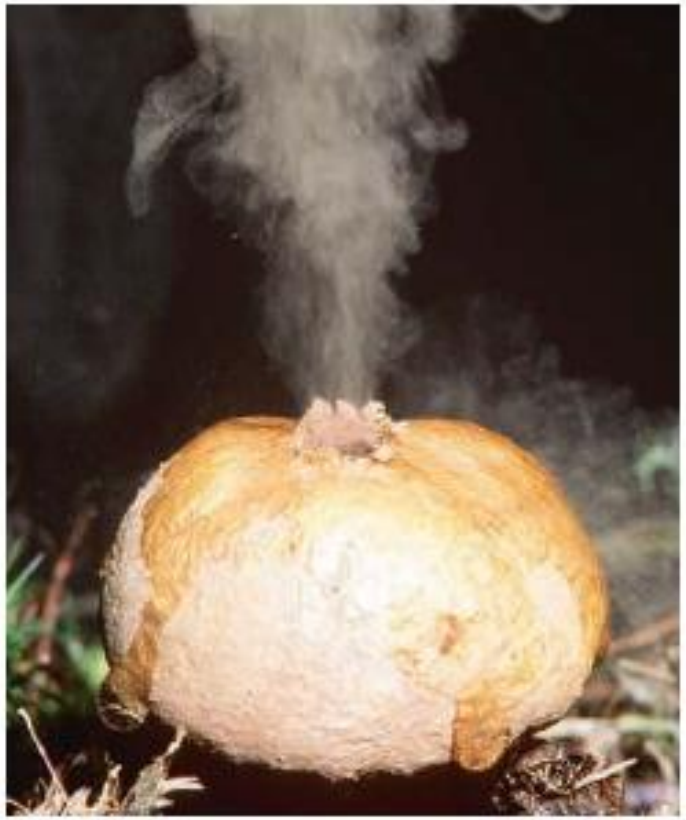
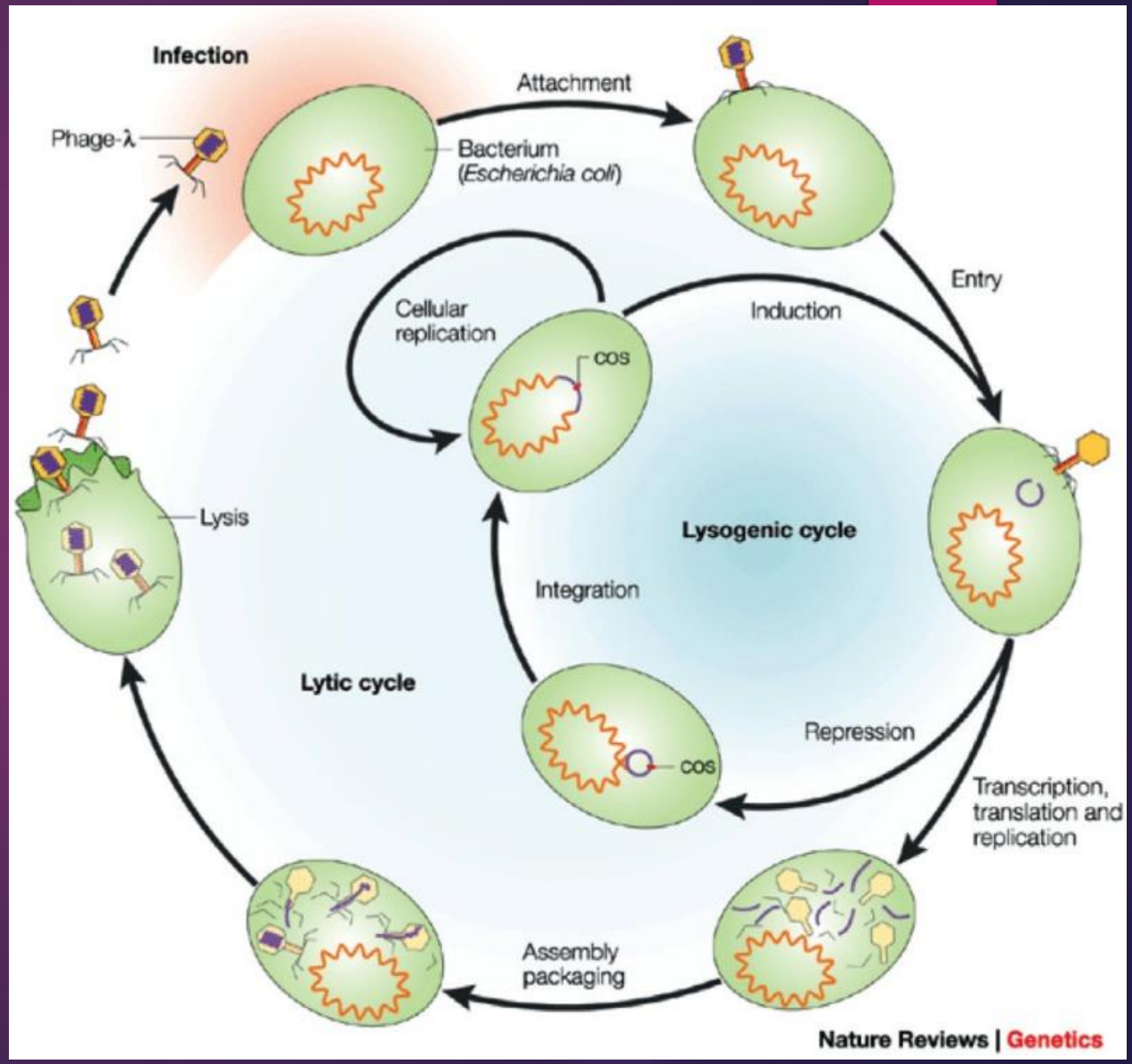



**Figure 12.22** The spores released by this puffball mushroom can be carried long distances by the wind.


# Virus Reproduction

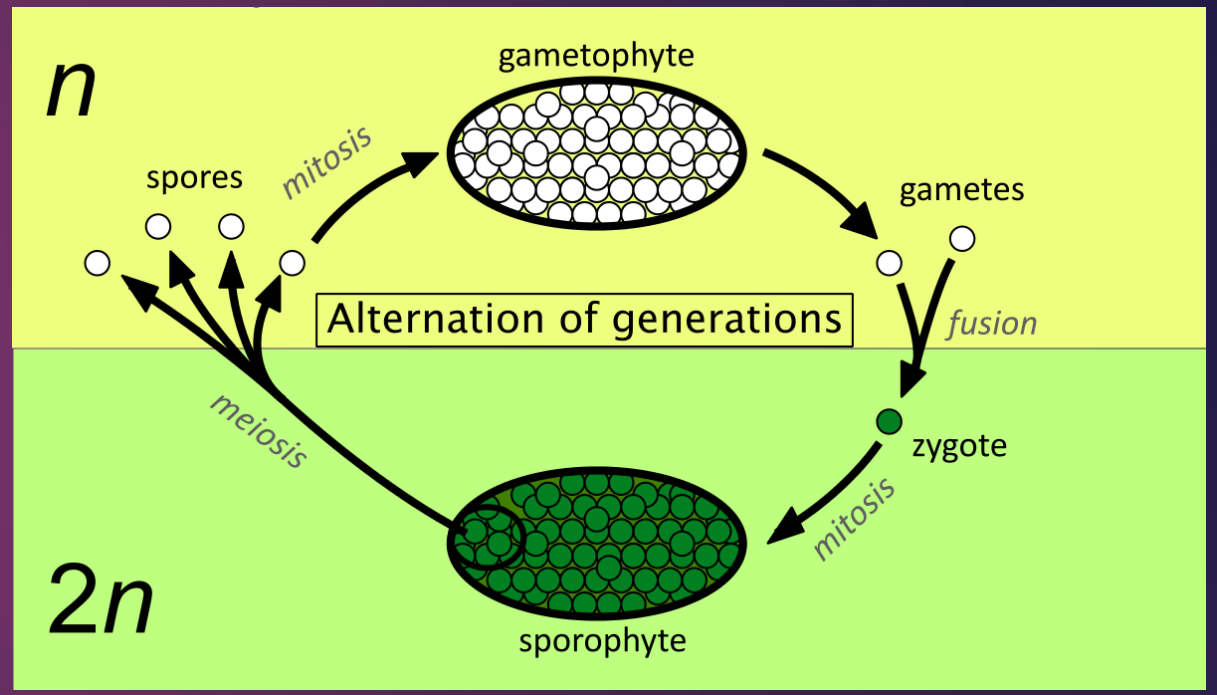
- The **lytic cycle** involves the reproduction of viruses using a host cell to manufacture more viruses; the viruses then burst out of the cell.
- The **lysogenic cycle** involves the incorporation of the viral genome into the host cell genome, infecting it from within




# Alternation of Generations

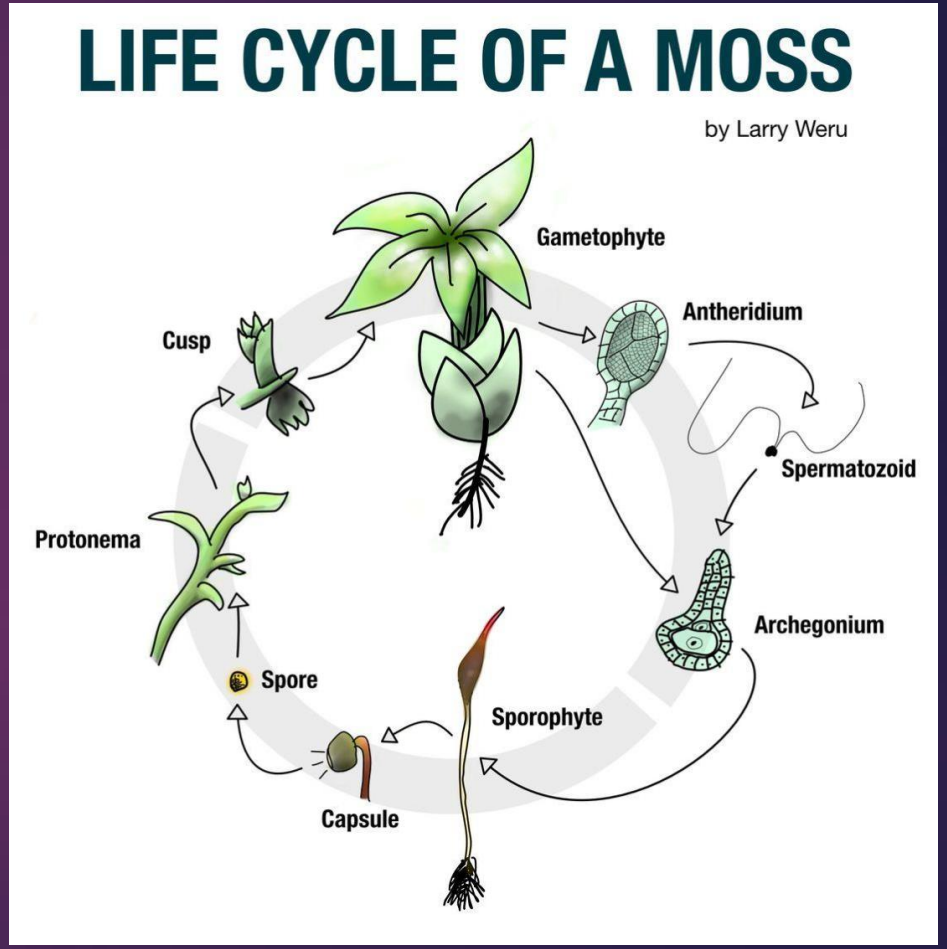
- ***Alternation of generations*** the life cycle of plants consists of two generations: a haploid generation and a diploid generation that alternate.

- The diploid generation of a plant is called the *sporophyte* (spore-making body). Through the process of meiosis, the sporophyte produces one or more haploid spores. These spores develop without fertilization.
- Each haploid spore grows into a plant body called the *gametophyte* (gamete-making body). Gametophytes produce male and female gametes, which fuse at fertilization and develop into another sporophyte.

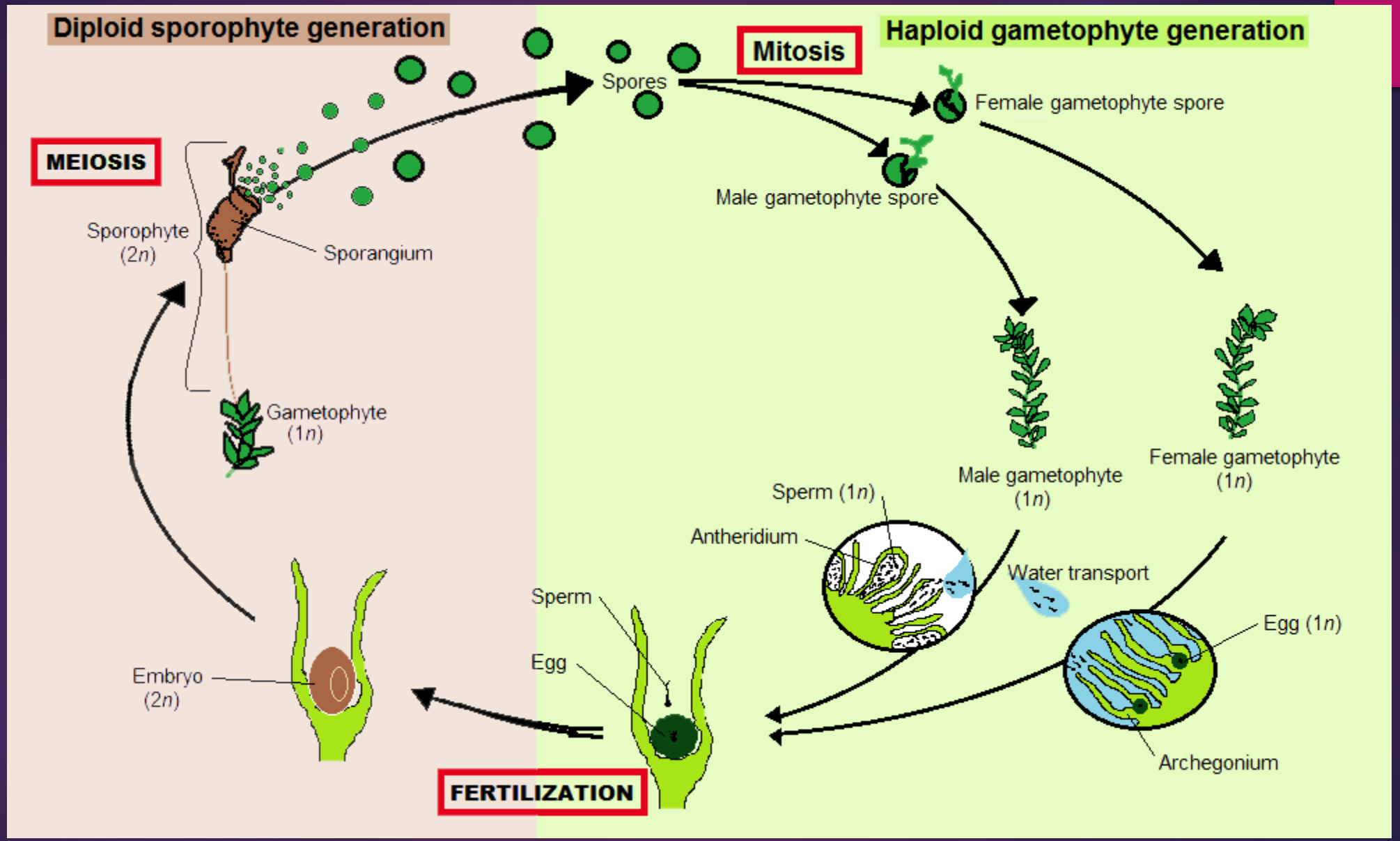



# Life Cycle of a Moss

- The life cycle of most mosses begins with the release of spores from a capsule, which opens when a small, lid like structure, called the operculum, degenerates.
- A single spore germinates to form a branched, filamentous protonema, from which a leafy gametophyte (n) develops.
- The gametophyte bears organs for sexual reproduction. Sperm, which are released by the mature antheridium (the male reproductive organ), are attracted into the neck of an archegonium (the female reproductive organ).
- Here, one sperm fuses with the egg to produce the zygote. After cell division, the zygote becomes the sporophyte (2n), and, at the same time, the archegonium divides to form the protective calyptra.
- The sporophyte usually consists of a capsule and a seta. Asexual reproduction occurs within the capsule and the whole process may begin again.

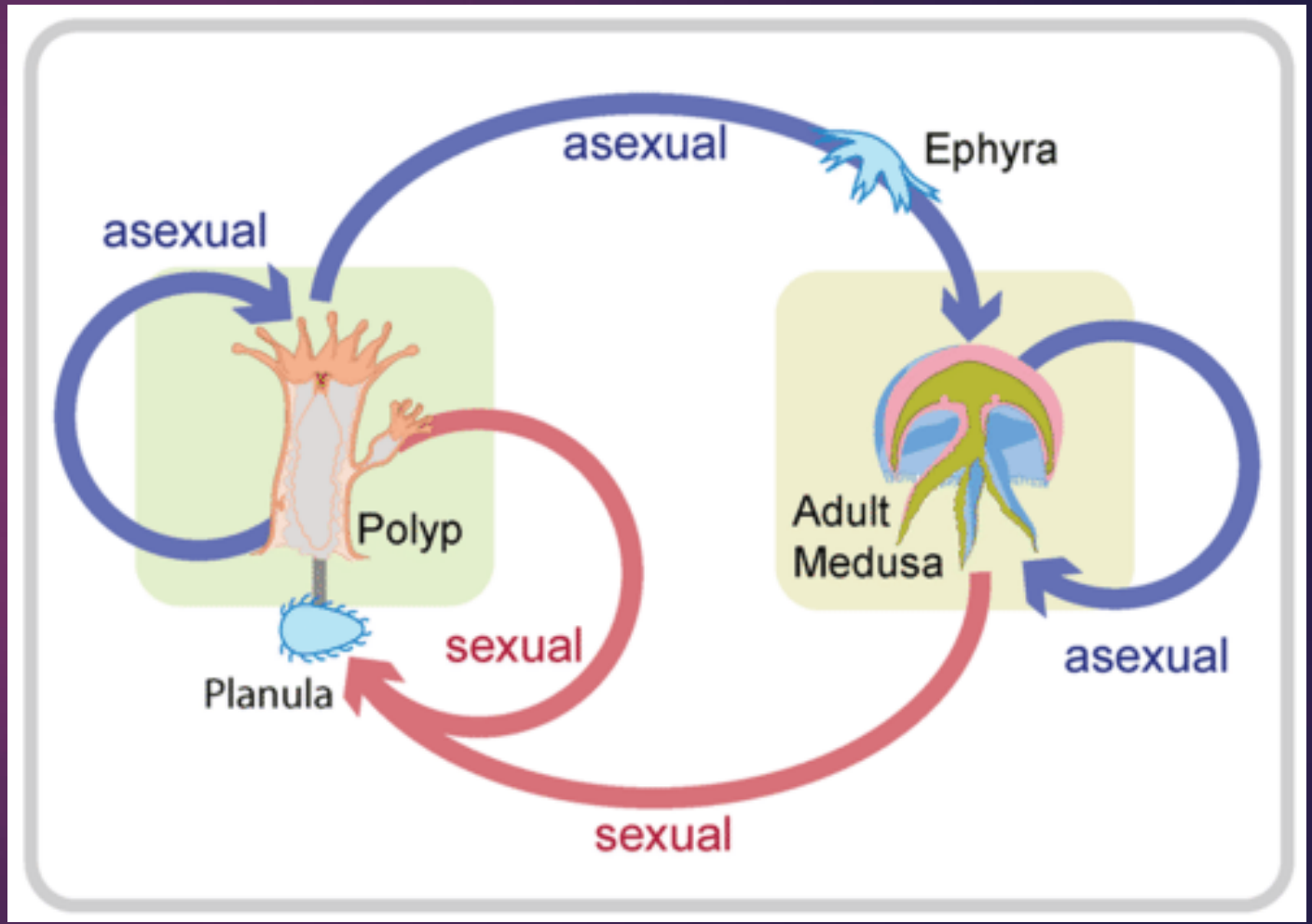



Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase

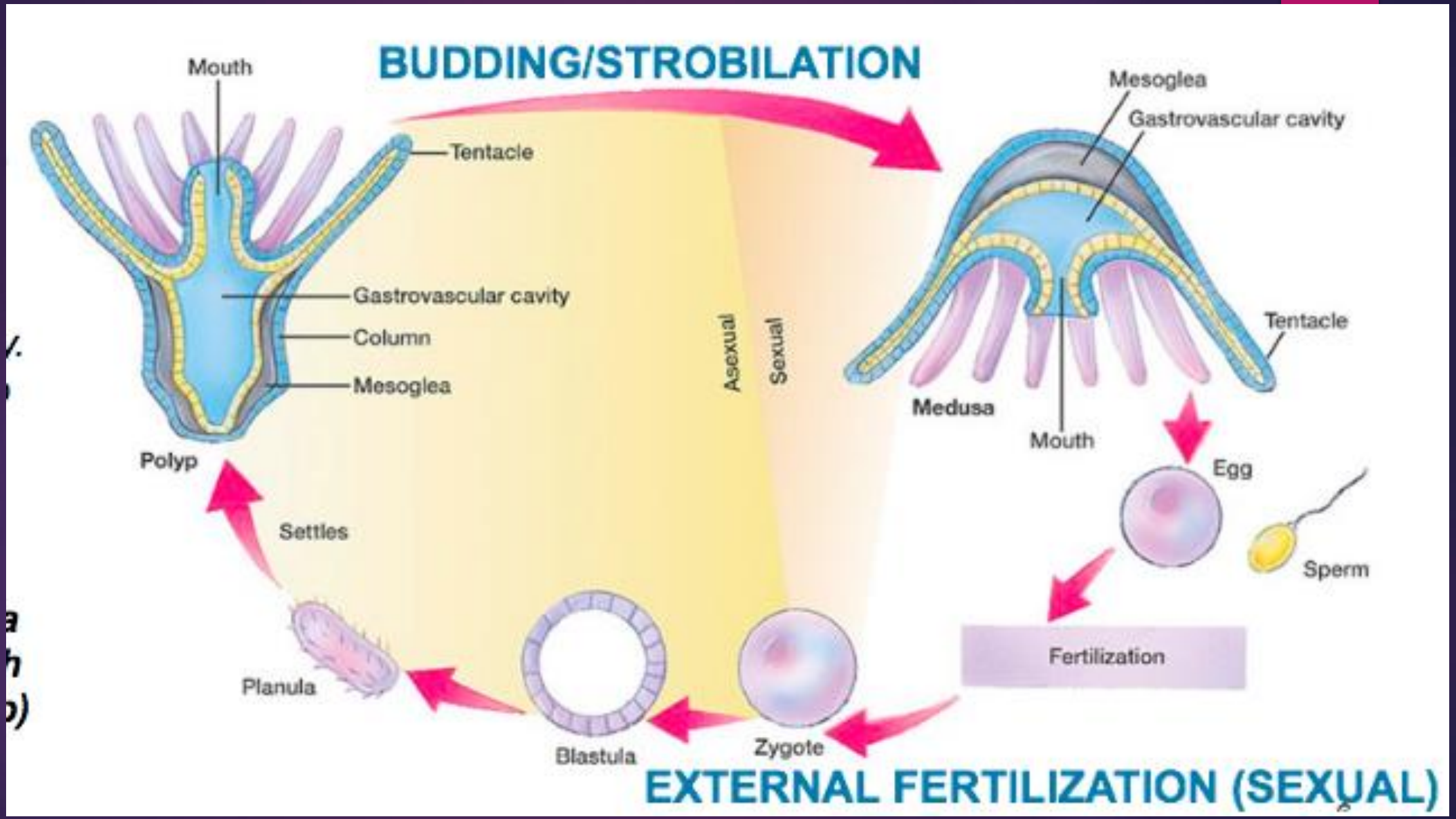

Diploid sporophyte generation
Haploid gametophyte generation
Mitosis
Spores
Female gametophyte spore
Male gametophyte spore
MEIOSIS
Sporophyte
(2n)
Sporangium
Gametophyte
(1n)
Male gametophyte
(1n)
Female gametophyte
(1n)
Sperm (1n)
Antheridium
Water transport
Egg (1n)
Archegonium
Sperm
Egg
Embryo
(2n)
FERTILIZATION


# Life Cycle of Cnidaria

- Cnidarians have separate sexes and many have a lifecycle that involves two distinct morphological forms—medusoid and polypoid—at various stages in their life cycles.
- In species with both forms, the medusa is the sexual, gamete-producing stage and the polyp is the asexual stage.
- Jellyfish

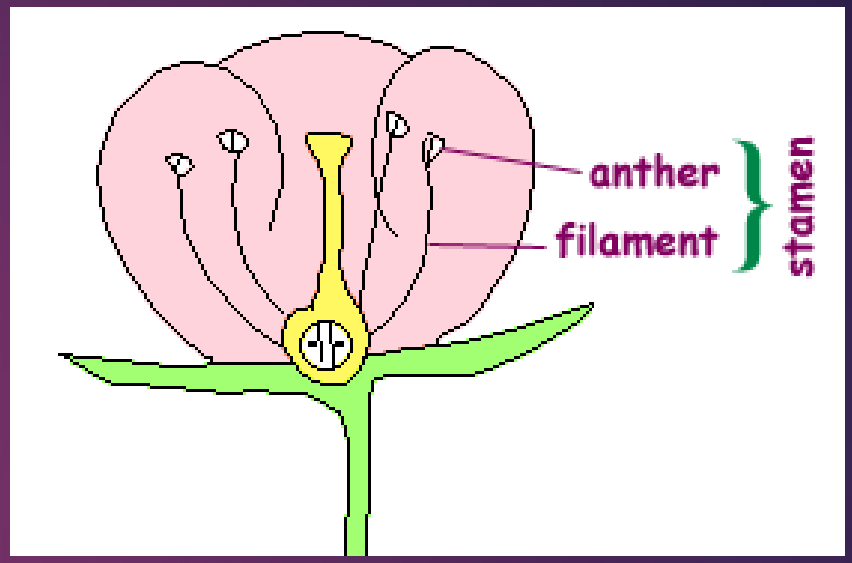



Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase

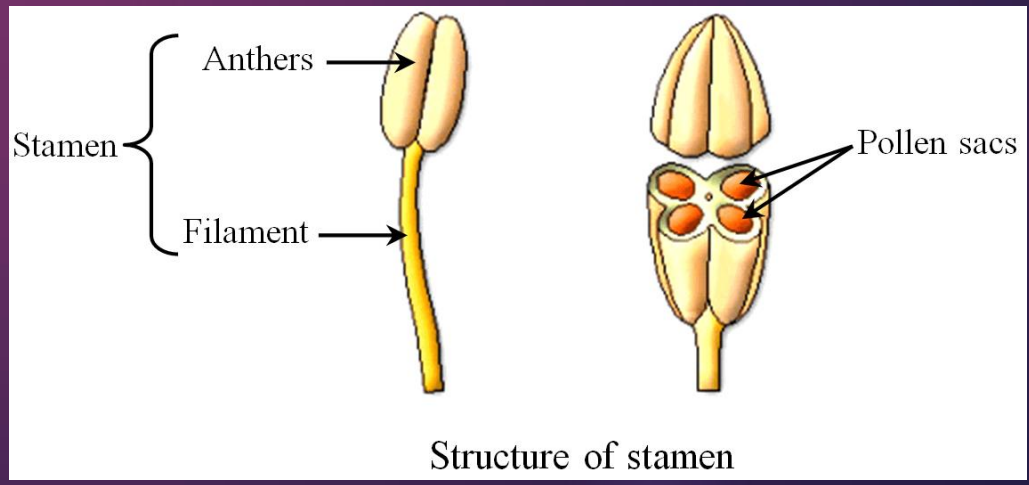

BUDDING/STROBILATION
Mouth
Tentacle
Gastrovascular cavity
Column
Mesoglea
Polyp
Asexual
Sexual
Mesoglea
Gastrovascular cavity
Tentacle
Medusa
Mouth
Egg
Sperm
Fertilization
Zygote
Blastula
Planula
Settles
EXTERNAL FERTILIZATION (SEXUAL)


# Sexual Reproduction in Flowering Plants

- **stamen** the male reproductive organ in flowering plants

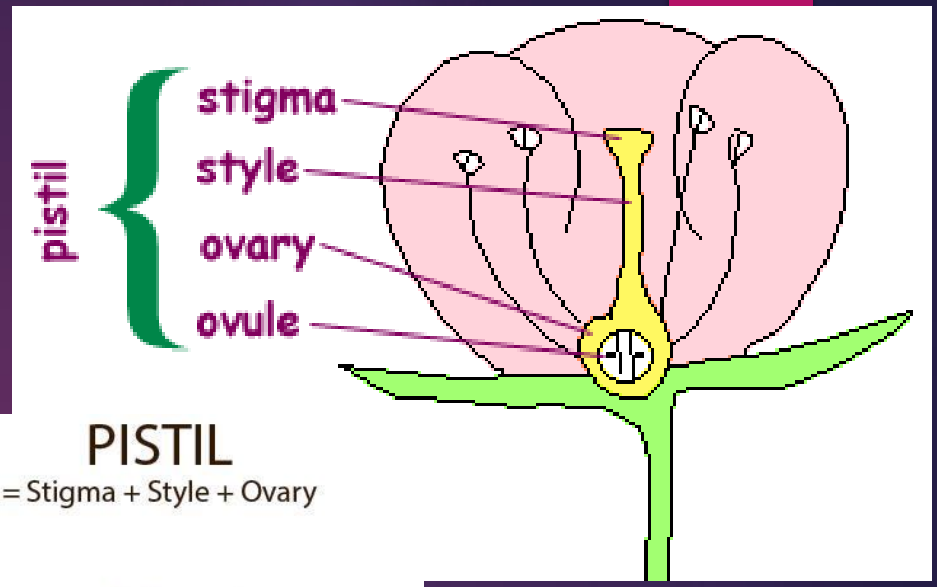


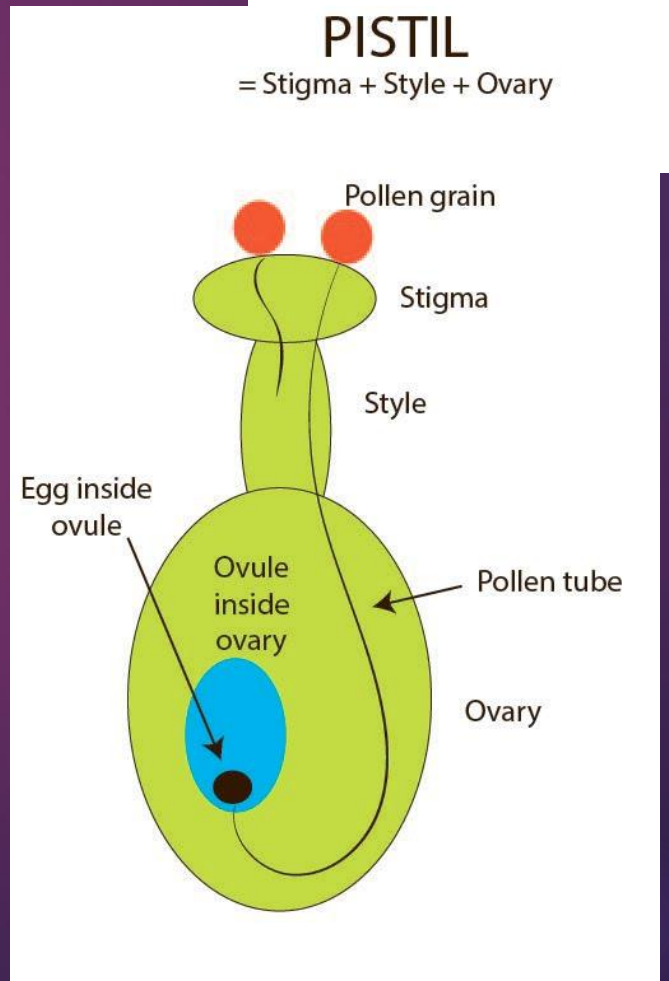

- A stamen is composed of a *filament* and the *anther*. The filament supports the anther, which contains cells that undergo meiosis and mitotic cell divisions to form pollen grains.
- Two sperm eventually form inside each pollen grain.
- pollen (male gametophyte)




- **pistil** the female reproductive organ in flowering plant

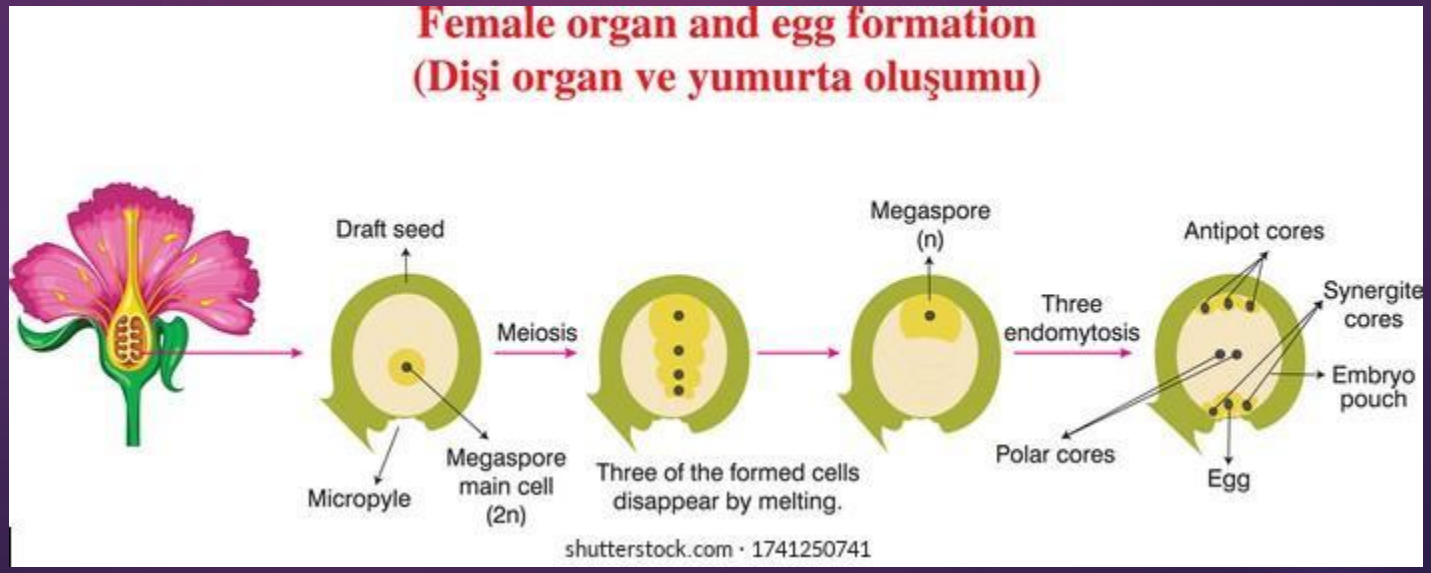
- In the centre of a flower are one or more pistils. A pistil usually has a *stigma*, a *style*, and an *ovary*.
- The stigma is the tip of the pistil and is the place where pollination takes place.
- The style connects the stigma to the ovary, which contains one or more ovules.
- A female gametophyte develops in each ovule, and an egg forms inside each female gametophyte.




# Life Cycle of a Flowering Plant

- The development of male and female gametophytes begins in an undeveloped flower.
- Inside the flower's ovary, an ovule containing the embryo sac begins to grow. Inside the ovule, meiosis results in four haploid megaspores. Usually, three of the four megaspores disintegrate, leaving one female gametophyte.
- Mitosis occurs in the remaining megaspore three times, until the one megaspore contains eight haploid nuclei divided into seven cells. One of the cells contains two nuclei, which are called *polar nuclei*.

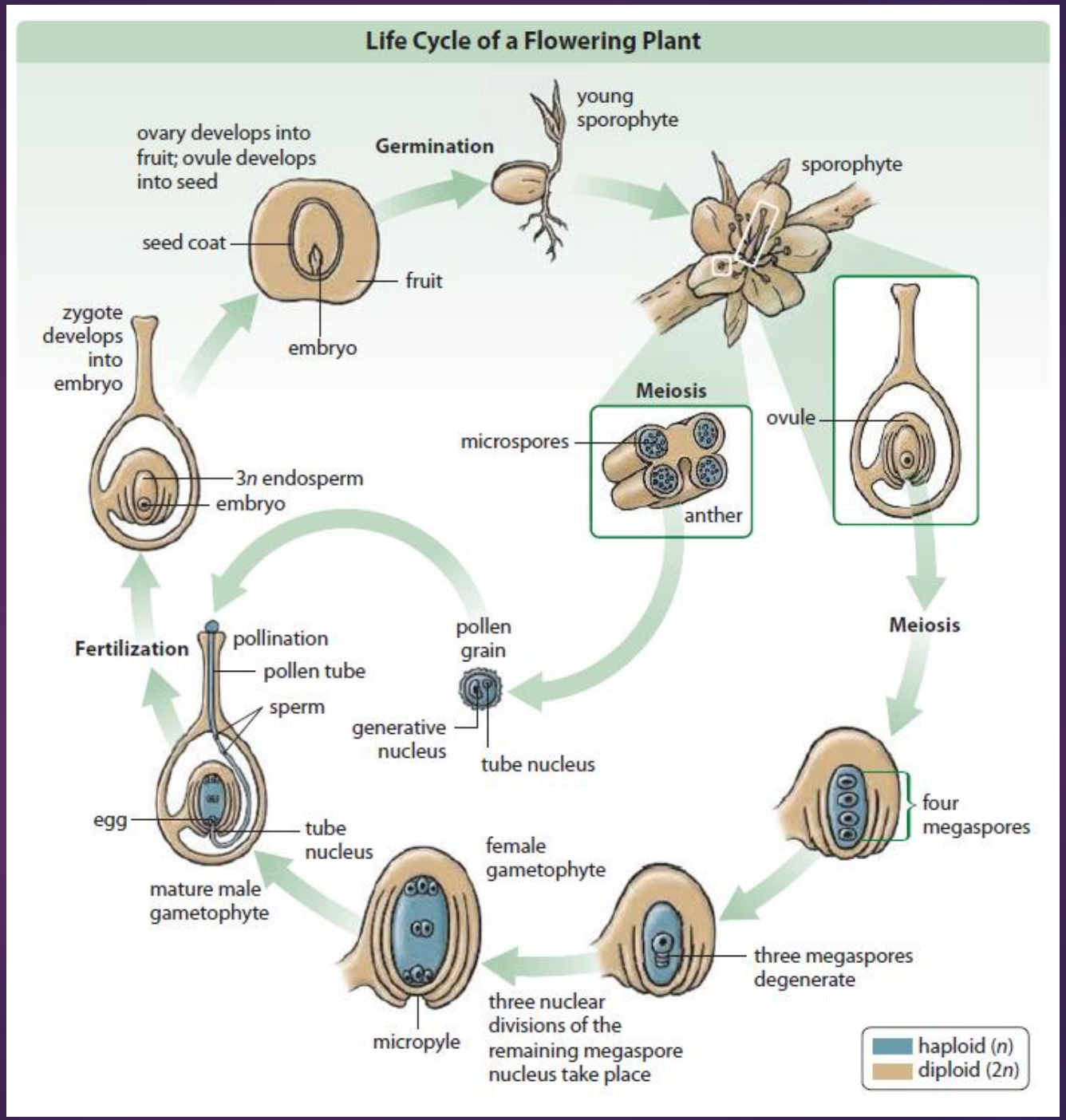



- In the **anther**, specialized cells undergo meiosis to produce **microspores**. Each microspore undergoes mitosis to form a tube cell and a generative cell. A thick, protective cell wall forms around a microspore.

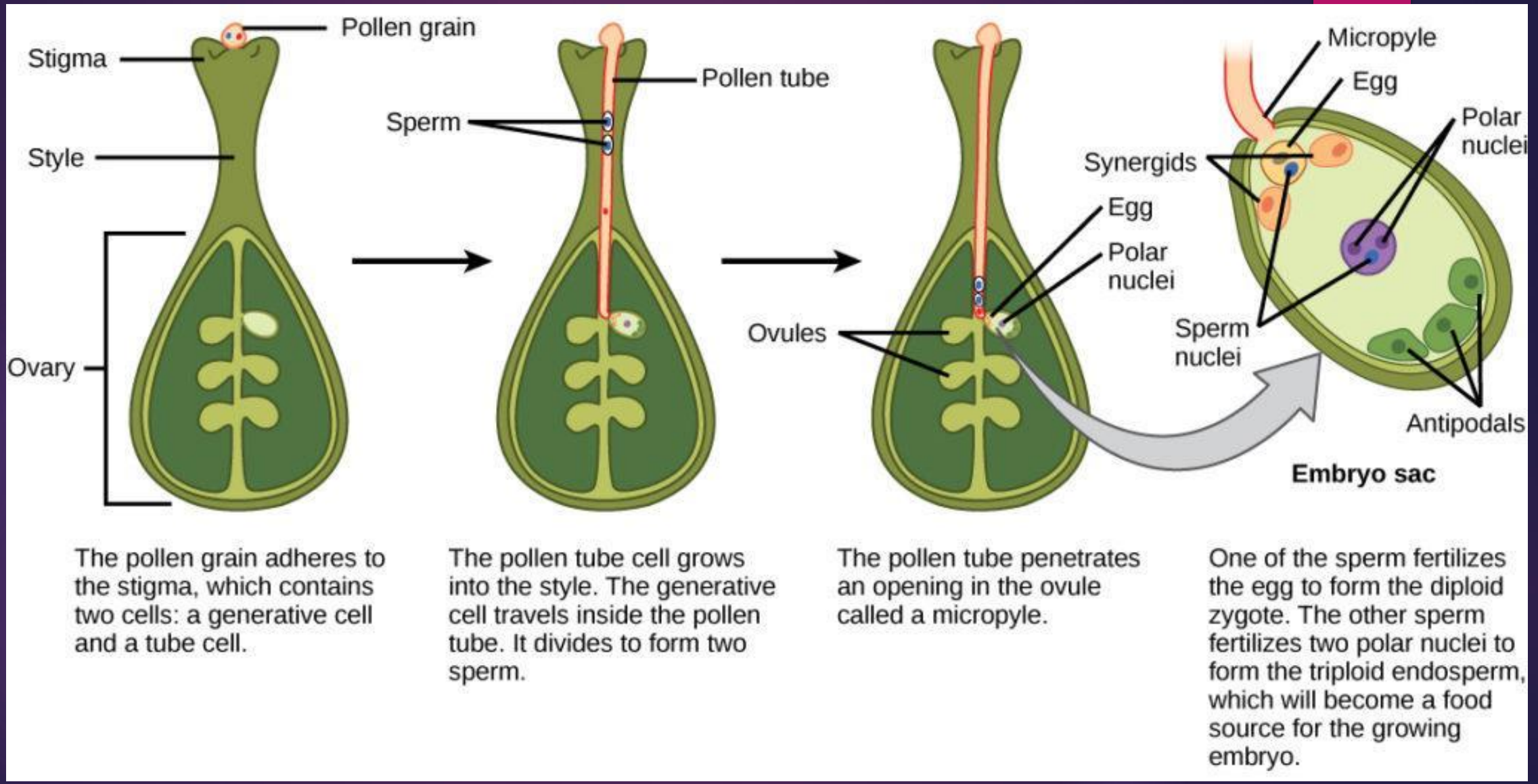
- At this point, the microspore is an immature male gametophyte, which is called a ***pollen grain***. Pollen is **haploid**


- When the pollen grain lands on a stigma of the correct species, the tube nucleus forms a pollen tube. As the pollen tube grows, the generative nucleus undergoes mitosis, forming two sperm cells. The pollen grain is now a mature male gametophyte.
- When the pollen tube reaches the ovule, it releases the two sperm cells. One fuses with the egg, forming the zygote (embryo)—the new sporophyte. The other fuses with the polar nuclei, forming a triploid (3*n*) cell that divides to form a nutrient-rich tissue called endosperm. The endosperm nourishes the embryo as it grows. The fertilization of an angiosperm egg is called double fertilization, because two fertilizations occur.
- After fertilization, the ovule develops into the seed, and the ovary develops into the fruit.


Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase


Life Cycle of a Flowering Plant
young sporophyte
Germination
ovary develops into fruit; ovule develops into seed
seed coat
fruit
embryo
zygote develops into embryo
3n endosperm
embryo
sporophyte
Meiosis
microspores
anther
ovule
Meiosis
pollen grain
generative nucleus
tube nucleus
Fertilization
pollination
pollen tube
sperm
egg
tube nucleus
mature male gametophyte
four megaspores
female gametophyte
three megaspores degenerate
three nuclear divisions of the remaining megaspore nucleus take place
micropyle
haploid (n)
diploid (2n)


Interphase
Prophase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase


Pollen grain
Stigma
Style
Ovary
Pollen tube
Sperm
Ovules
Micropyle
Egg
Polar nuclei
Synergids
Egg
Polar nuclei
Sperm nuclei
Antipodals
Embryo sac
The pollen grain adheres to the stigma, which contains two cells: a generative cell and a tube cell.
The pollen tube cell grows into the style. The generative cell travels inside the pollen tube. It divides to form two sperm.
The pollen tube penetrates an opening in the ovule called a micropyle.
One of the sperm fertilizes the egg to form the diploid zygote. The other sperm fertilizes two polar nuclei to form the triploid endosperm, which will become a food source for the growing embryo.


# Advantages and Disadvantages of Reproductive Strategies

| Sexual Reproduction | |
|---|---|
| **Advantages** | **Disadvantages** |
| Sexual reproduction offers a population a way to **adapt to a changing environment**. At least some offspring, for example, may have a greater ability to resist parasites or toxins in the environment or to take advantage of new food sources. | Costs Energy |
| **Competition** among siblings may be **reduced** if they are genetically diverse. | Risk of Genetic Problems |
| Pairing of homologous chromosomes and crossing over offer opportunities to **replace or repair damaged chromosomes**. | Time spent searching for mate |
| | May not be as adapted as the parent |


| Asexual Reproduction | |
|---|---|
| **Advantages** | **Disadvantages** |
| Asexual reproduction often proceeds more quickly than sexual reproduction, and it does not require the presence of a second parent organism. | Low genetic variation |
| Asexual reproduction usually requires less energy than sexual reproduction. | Adaptation to the environment is difficult |
| Many forms of asexual reproduction, such as vegetative reproduction and budding, help to maximize the chances that individual offspring will survive.<br>In these forms of asexual reproduction, the daughter organism does not fully separate from the parent until it is capable of independent survival. | Slows evolution |
| | Disease is likely to affect the entire population |


- Students are expected to dissect a flower (e.g., alstroemeria, daffodil, lily, tulip) to view and identify male and female reproductive structures. Dissection should include a cross section of the ovary.
- Students' effective use of hand lenses, safe use of dissection tools (SCO 9.0), and ability to work cooperatively (SCO 26.0) should be assessed. SCO 13.0 may also be assessed if students are required to create a labelled biological drawing of their dissected flower. Refer to the *Integrated Skills* unit for elaboration of these skills.
- Note, for individual students with allergies, virtual or video dissection should be used as an alternative.


# Quiz 1

- Date TBD