Animal Development

[Note: This is the text version of this lecture file. To make the lecture notes downloadable over a slow connection (e.g. modem) the figures have been replaced with figure numbers as found in the textbook. See the full version with complete graphics if you have a faster connection.] Fertilization in mammals: 1) swim past follicle cells, 2) <u>acrosome</u> reaction (enzymes), 3) bind to receptors \Rightarrow <u>cortical reaction</u> with depolarization and release of cortical granules = fast and slow block of <u>polyspermy</u>, 4) fuse and enter (both head and tail)

[See Fig. 47.5]

Establishment of Body Axis

 In amphibians and most other animals, the point of sperm entry <u>determines the</u> <u>ventral axis</u>, whereas the poles of the egg (animal and vegetal poles) <u>determine anterior and</u> <u>posterior axes</u>.

[See Fig. 47.7]

Uneven division of cytoplasmic components starts the process of <u>determination</u>

[See Fig. 21.9]

• In mammals, cleavage and other divisions are more even in size

 <u>Morphogenesis</u> = change in cell shape, adhesion to other cells, and movement to other locations in embryo and organ

[See Fig. 21.2a]

Three stages of development

- 1) <u>Cleavage</u>: no enlargement of zygote
 - first divisions create a solid ball of cells = <u>morula</u>
 - later divisions create a hollow ball called a <u>blastula</u> (center is <u>blastocoel</u>)
- 2) <u>Gastrulation</u>: <u>involution</u> of cells in ball create <u>gastrula</u>, ectoderm, mesoderm, and endoderm are created

3) <u>Organogenesis</u>: formation of organs from ectoderm, mesoderm, and endoderm

Detail of gastrulation

[See Fig. 47.10]

Organogenesis

- <u>Ectoderm</u> becomes the nervous system and outer epithelium
- <u>Mesoderm</u> becomes internal organs (skeletal system, muscles, circulatory system, reproductive system, excretory system, and dermis)
- <u>Endoderm</u> becomes internal epithelia (lungs and digestive system), liver, pancreas, and thyroid glands.

[See Fig. 47.11]

Focus on development of human embryo

[See Fig. 47.15]

Extraembryonic membranes

• <u>chorion</u> surounds everything

• <u>amnion</u> grows to surround embryo = amniotic sac

 <u>yolk sac</u> doesn't contain yolk, is site of fetal <u>blood</u> production

 <u>allantois</u> becomes part of the <u>umbilical cord</u> • Mammalian cells after the first cleavages are <u>totipotent</u> (can become anything if separated)

e.g. <u>identical</u> twins

 Later

 (sometimes as late as the blastocyst stage)
 <u>developmental</u>
 <u>potential</u>
 becomes
 restricted to
 certain tissues
 and organs

 [See Fig. 47.21]

• The placement of cells in the blastula determines which tissues and organs they will become = <u>cell fate</u>

[See Fig. 47.20]

Map of cell fate in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*

[See Fig. 21.4]

Inductive signals

 contact with neighboring cells can regulate development

• cells in different regions secrete different growth factors (e.g. NGF for nerves, FGF for fibroblasts, IGF for skeletal system)

• receptors for growth factors are present or active on some cells and not on others.

e.g. <u>Speeman &</u> <u>Mangold's</u> <u>organizer</u> [See Fig. 47.22]

Inductive signals

• gradients of growth factors trigger expression of genes that regulate differentiation of organs in different body segments

• <u>Hox genes</u> (homeobox containing genes) are generally conserved genes that regulate expression of other proteins (like <u>transcription factors</u>)

[See Fig. 21.14]

a genetic cascade

The *myoD* gene is an example of a gene in the cascade that turns undifferentiated cells into muscle cells

[See Fig. 21.8]

If cell fate is determined early in development, how can an adult animal be cloned?

• the nucleus of an adult animal cell can be inserted into a *denucleated* donor egg and stimulated to divide

• surrogate mother carries the egg

 "clone" is genetically identical to original but has different cytoplasmic factors (primarily mitochondria) [See Fig. 21.7]