

Animal Development

PowerPoint® Lecture Presentations for



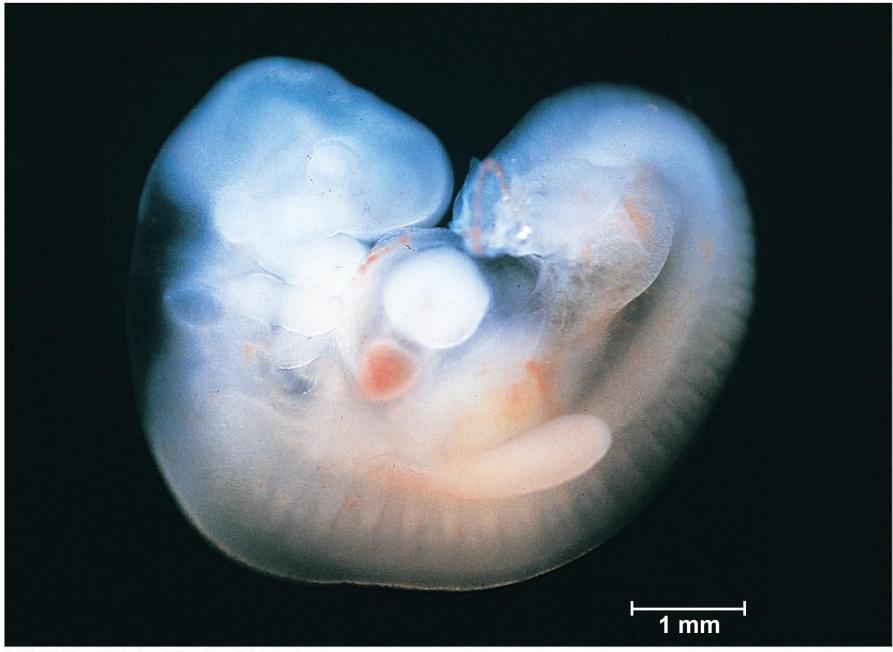
Eighth Edition Neil Campbell and Jane Reece

Lectures by Chris Romero, updated by Erin Barley with contributions from Joan Sharp

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- It is difficult to imagine that each of us began life as a single cell (fertilized egg) called a zygote.
- A human embryo at about 6–8 weeks after conception shows development of distinctive features.

How did this complex embryo develop from a single fertilized egg?



- Development is determined by the zygote's genome and molecules in the egg cytoplasm called *Cytoplasmic determinants*.
- **Cell differentiation** is the specialization of cells in structure and function.
- Morphogenesis is the process by which an animal takes shape / form.
- **Model organisms** are species that are representative of a larger group and easily studied. Classic embryological studies use the sea urchin, frog, chick, and the nematode *C. elegans*.

After fertilization, embryonic development proceeds through cleavage, gastrulation, and organogenesis

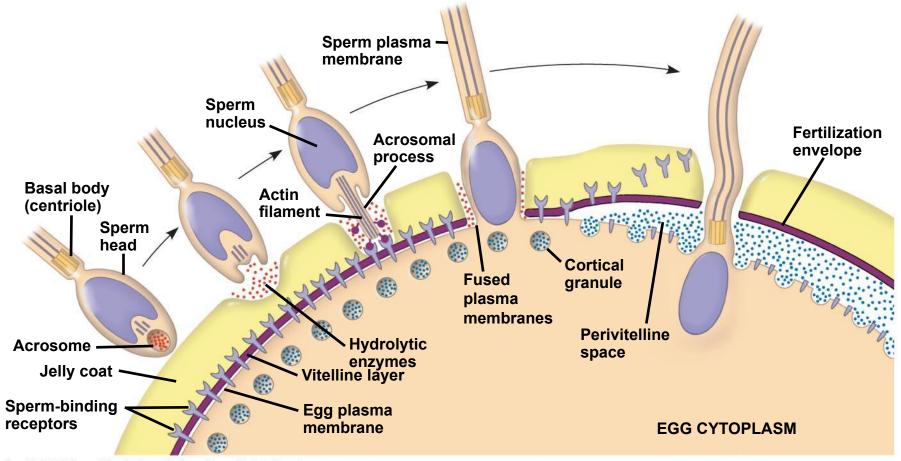
- Important events regulating development occur during fertilization and the three stages that build the animal's body
 - Cleavage: cell division creates a hollow ball of cells called a blastula
 - Gastrulation: cells are rearranged into a three-layered gastrula
 - Organogenesis: the three germ layers interact and move to give rise to organs.

Fertilization: sperm + egg = zygote n + n = 2n

- Fertilization brings the haploid nuclei of sperm and egg together, forming a diploid zygote.
- The sperm's contact with the egg's surface initiates metabolic reactions in the egg that trigger the onset of embryonic development:
 - Acrosomal Reaction
 - Cortical Reaction

- The *acrosomal reaction* is triggered when the sperm meets the egg.
- The acrosome at the tip of the sperm releases hydrolytic enzymes that digest material surrounding the egg.
- Gamete contact and/or fusion depolarizes the egg cell membrane and sets up a fast block to polyspermy.

The acrosomal and cortical reactions during sea urchin fertilization

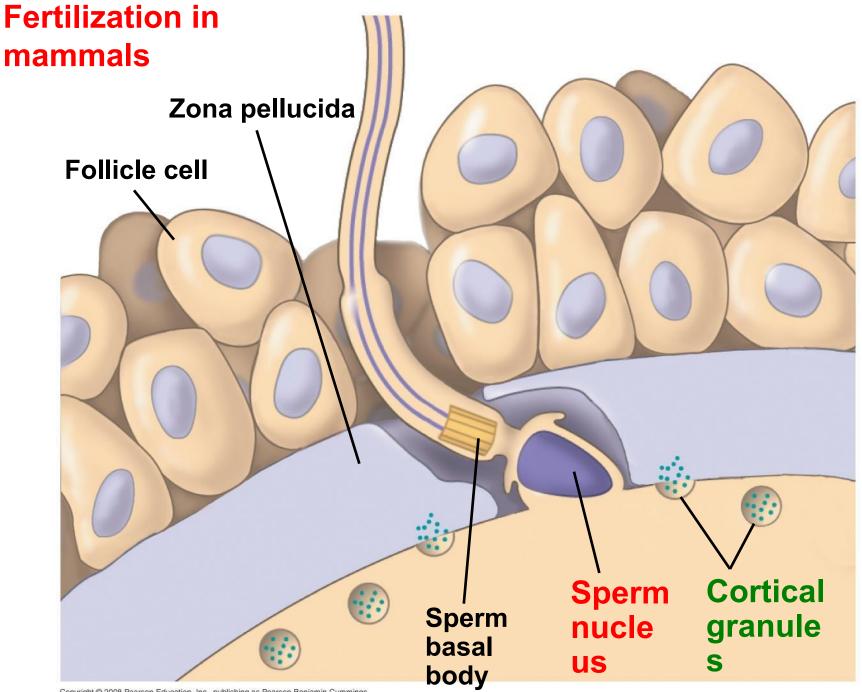


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- Fusion of egg and sperm also initiates the cortical reaction:
- This reaction induces a rise in Ca²⁺ that stimulates cortical granules to release their contents outside the egg.
- These changes cause formation of a fertilization envelope that functions as a slow block to polyspermy.

- The sharp rise in Ca²⁺ in the egg's cytosol increases the rates of cellular respiration and protein synthesis by the egg cell.
- With these *rapid changes in metabolism*, the egg is said to be activated.
- The sperm nucleus merges with the egg nucleus and cell division begins.

- Fertilization in mammals and other terrestrial animals is internal.
- In mammalian fertilization, the cortical reaction modifies the zona pellucida, the extracellular matrix of the egg, as a <u>slow</u> block to polyspermy.
- In mammals the first cell division occurs 12–36 hours after sperm binding.
- The diploid nucleus forms after this first division of the zygote.



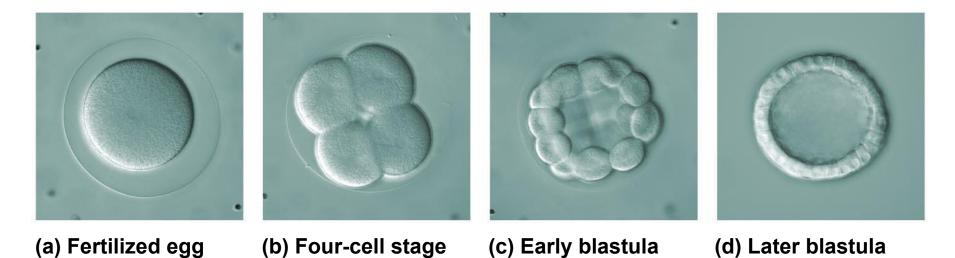
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Cleavage = Rapid Mitosis / No Mass change

- Fertilization is followed by cleavage, a period of rapid cell division without growth.
- Cleavage partitions the cytoplasm of one large cell into many smaller cells called blastomeres.
- The **blastula** is a ball of cells with a fluid-filled cavity called a **blastocoel**.

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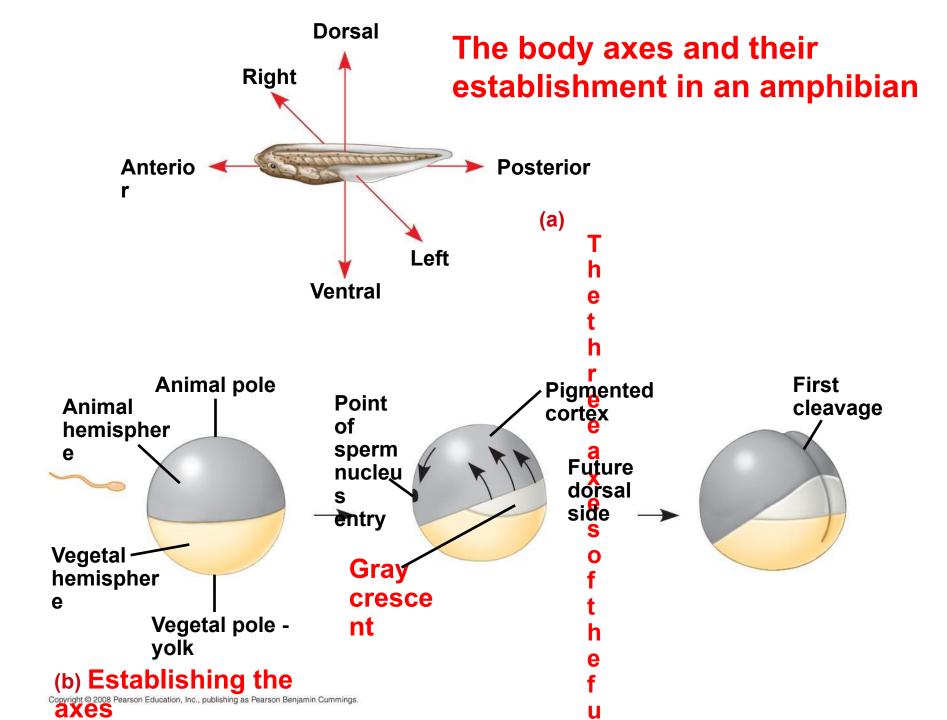
Cleavage in an echinoderm embryo



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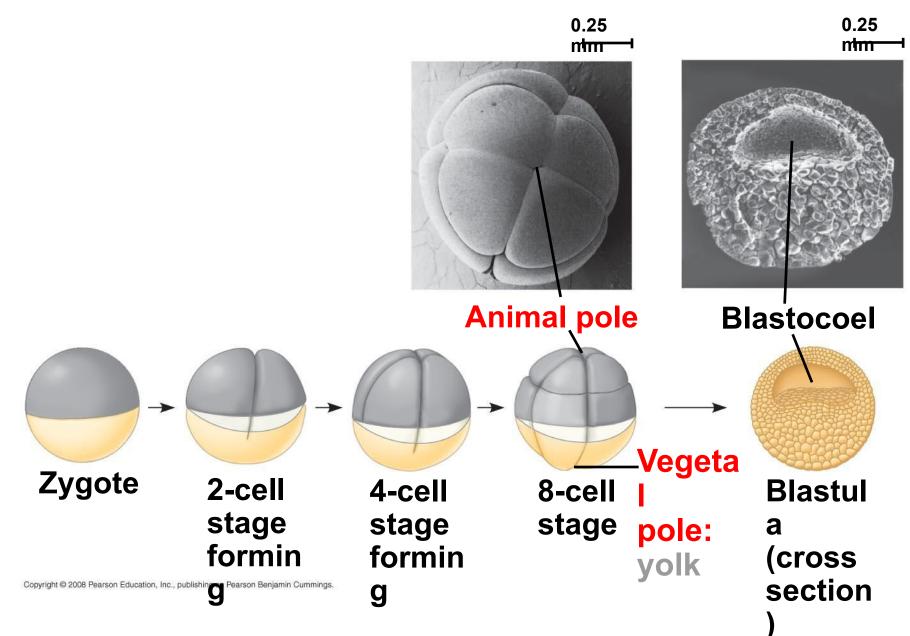
- The eggs and zygotes of many animals, except mammals, have a definite polarity.
- The polarity is defined by distribution of **yolk** (stored nutrients).
- The vegetal pole has more yolk; the animal pole has less yolk.

- The three body axes are established by the egg's polarity and by a cortical rotation following binding of the sperm.
- Cortical rotation exposes a gray crescent opposite to the point of sperm entry.



- Cleavage planes usually follow a pattern that is relative to the zygote's animal and vegetal poles.
- Cell division is slowed by yolk. Yolk can cause uneven cell division at the poles.
- Holoblastic cleavage, complete division of the egg, occurs in species whose eggs have little or moderate amounts of yolk, such as sea urchins and frogs.
- Meroblastic cleavage, incomplete division of the egg, occurs in species with yolk-rich eggs, such as reptiles and birds.

Cleavage in a frog embryo



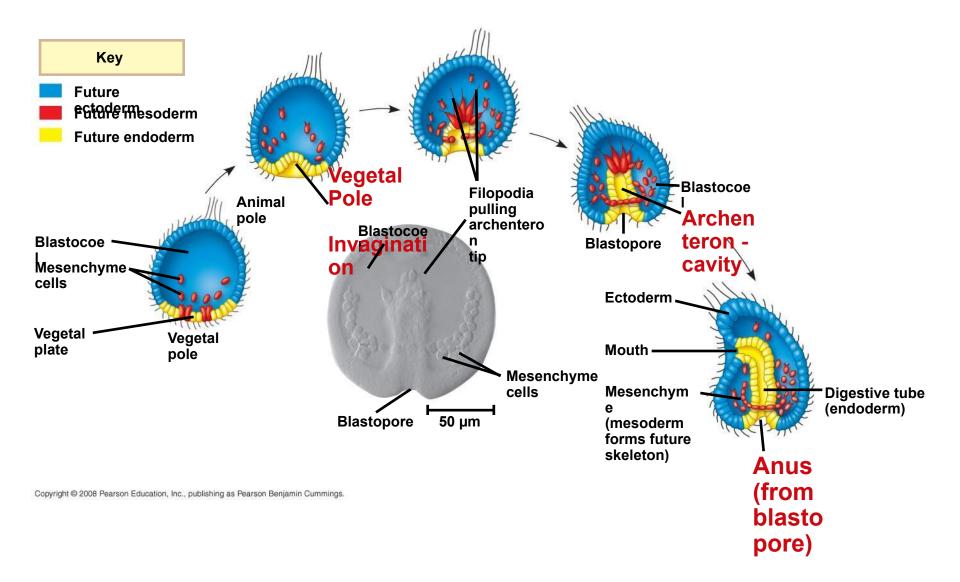
Gastrulation

- Gastrulation rearranges the cells of a blastula into a three-layered embryo, called a gastrula, which has a primitive gut.
- The three layers produced by gastrulation are called embryonic germ layers:
 - The ectoderm forms the outer layer
 - The endoderm lines the digestive tract
 - The mesoderm partly fills the space between the endoderm and ectoderm.

Gastrulation in the sea urchin embryo:

- The blastula consists of a single layer of cells surrounding the blastocoel.
- Mesenchyme cells migrate from the vegetal pole into the blastocoel.
- The vegetal plate forms from the remaining cells of the vegetal pole and buckles inward through **invagination**.
- The newly formed cavity is called the archenteron.
- This opens through the **blastopore**, which will become the anus.

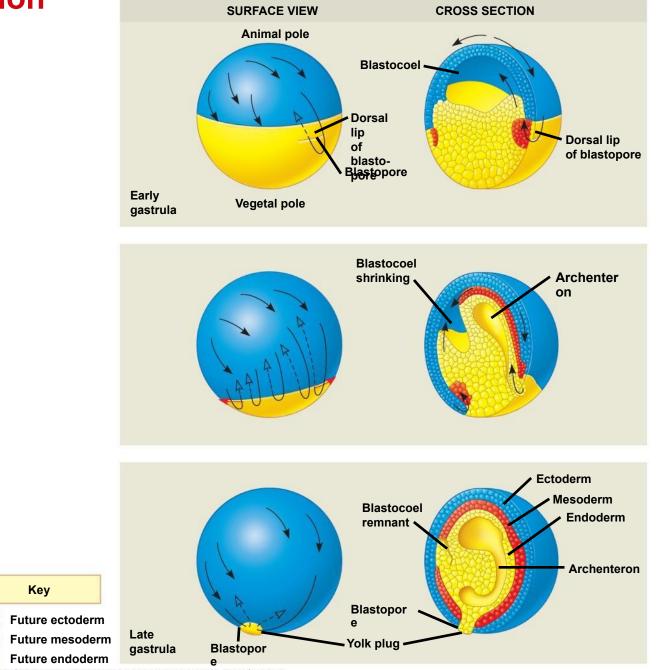
Gastrulation in a sea urchin embryo



Gastrulation in the frog

- The frog blastula is many cell layers thick. Cells of the dorsal lip originate in the Gray crescent and invaginate to create the archenteron.
- Cells continue to move from the embryo surface into the embryo by involution. These cells become the endoderm and mesoderm.
 - The blastopore encircles a **yolk plug** when gastrulation is completed.
 - The surface of the embryo is now ectoderm, the innermost layer is endoderm, and the middle layer is mesoderm.

Gastrulation in a frog embryo

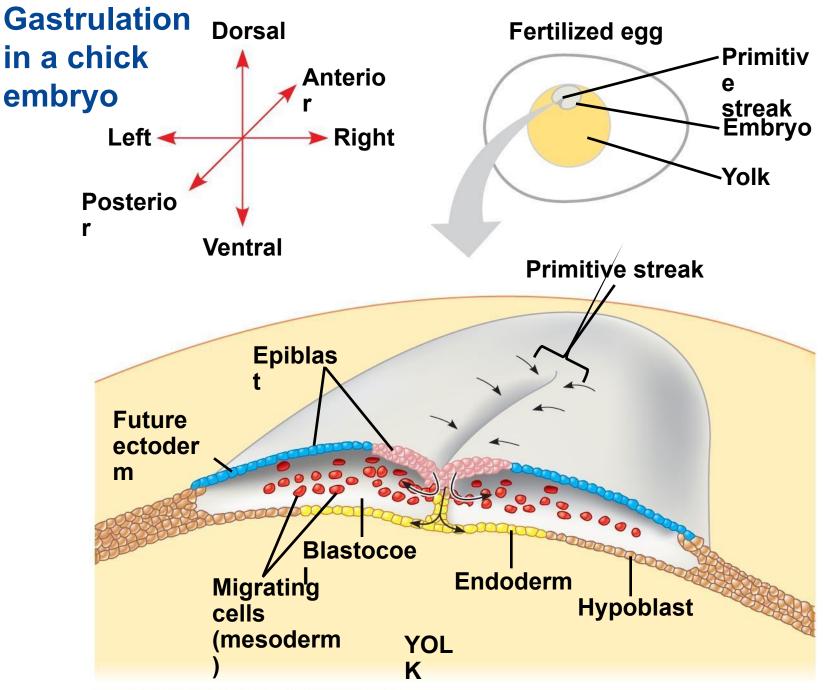


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Gastrulation in the chick

- The embryo forms from a blastoderm and sits on top of a large yolk mass.
- During gastrulation, the upper layer of the blastoderm (epiblast) moves toward the midline of the blastoderm and then into the embryo toward the yolk.
- The midline thickens and is called the primitive streak.
- The movement of different epiblast cells gives rise to the endoderm, mesoderm, and ectoderm.

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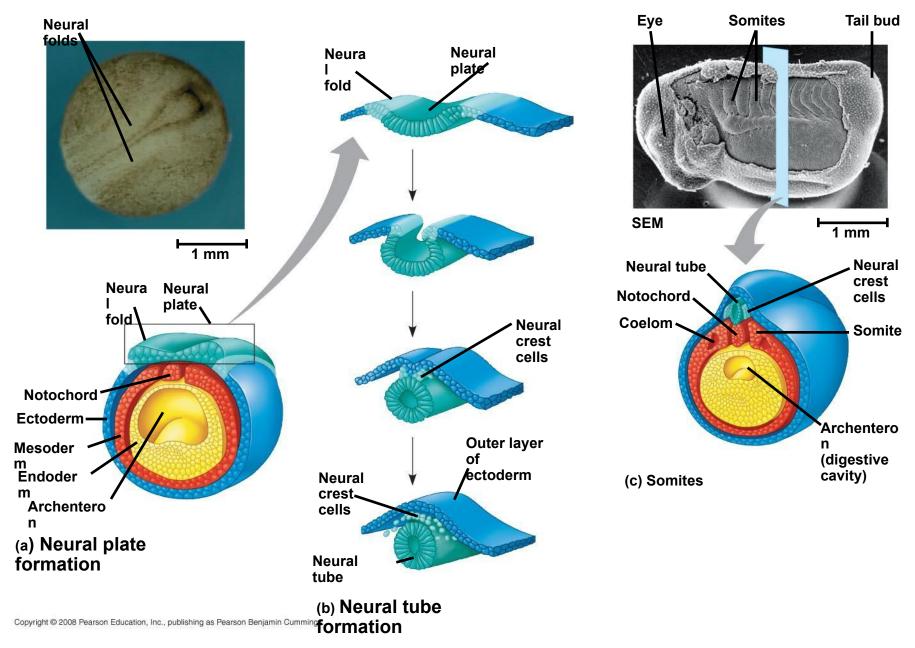


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Organogenesis

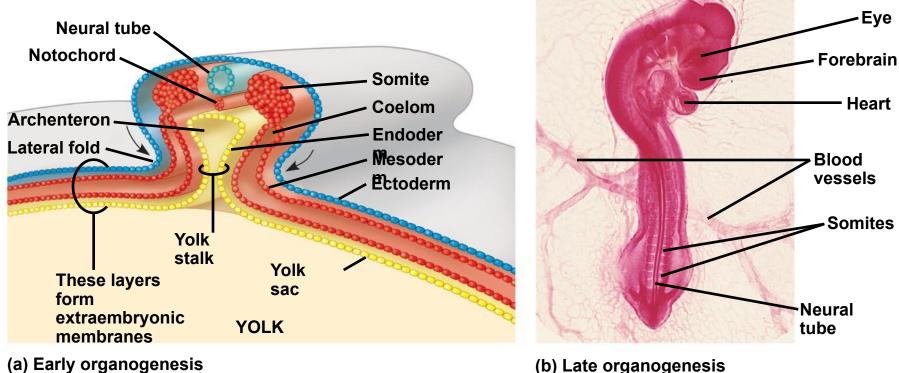
- During **organogenesis**, various regions of the germ layers develop into rudimentary organs.
- The frog is used as a model for organogenesis.
- Early in vertebrate organogenesis, the notochord forms from mesoderm, and the neural plate forms from ectoderm.

Early organogenesis in a frog embryo



- The neural plate soon curves inward, forming the neural tube. The neural tube will become the central nervous system = brain and spinal cord.
- Neural crest cells develop along the neural tube of vertebrates and form various parts of the embryo: nerves, parts of teeth, skull bones ...
- Mesoderm lateral to the notochord forms blocks called somites.
- Lateral to the somites, the mesoderm splits to form the coelom.

Organogenesis in a chick embryo is similar to that in a frog



(a) Early organogenesis

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Adult derivatives of the three embryonic germ layers in vertebrates

ECTODER

- Epidermis of skin and its
- derivatives (including
- sweat glands, hair follicles)
- Epithelial lining of
- mouth
- and anus Cornea and lens of eye
- Nervous system
- Sensory receptors in
- epidermis Adrenal medulla Tooth enamel

^{Copyri}Epithelium^{on}of pineal^a and^{min Cummings.} pituitary glands

MESODER

- Notochord
- Skeletal system
- Muscular system
- Muscular layer of stomach and intestine
- Excretory system
- Circulatory and lymphatic systems
- Reproductive system (except germ cells)
- Dermis of skin
- Lining of body cavity
- Adrenal cortex

ENDODER

- Epithelial lining of digestive tract
- Epithelial lining of respiratory system
- Lining of urethra, urinary bladder, and
- reproductive
- system
- Liver
- Pancreas Thymus Thyroid and
 - Thyroid and parathyroid glands

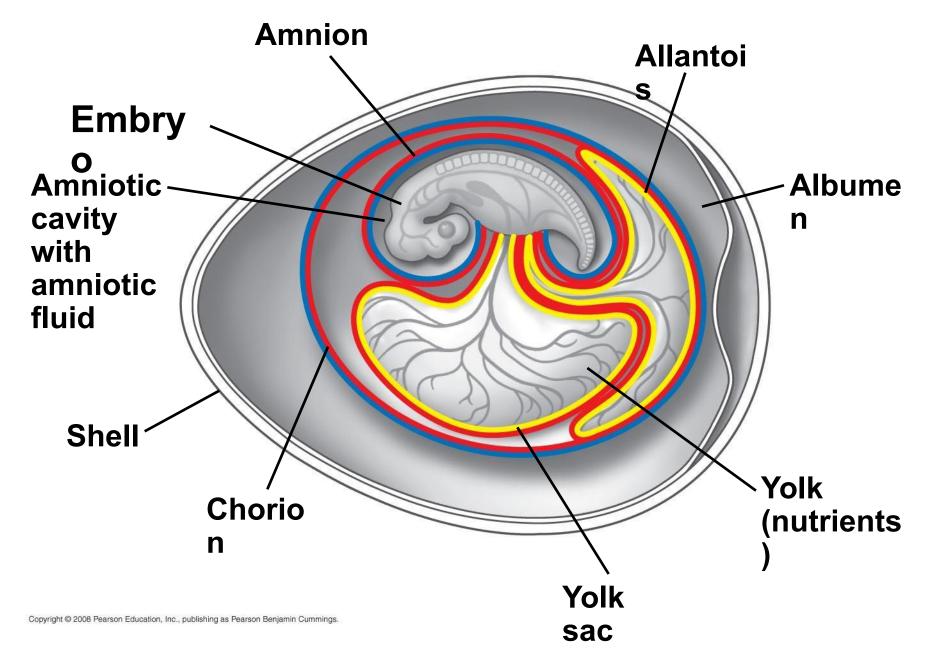
Developmental Adaptations of Amniotes

- Embryos of birds, other reptiles, and mammals develop in a fluid-filled sac in a shell or the uterus.
- Organisms with these adaptations are called amniotes.
- Amniotes develop extra-embryonic membranes to support the embryo.

Amniote ExtraEmbryonic Membranes

- During amniote development, four extraembryonic membranes form around the embryo:
 - The chorion outermost membrane / functions in gas exchange.
 - The **amnion** encloses the **amniotic fluid**.
 - The **yolk sac** encloses the yolk.
 - The allantois disposes of *nitrogenous waste* products and contributes to *gas exchange*.

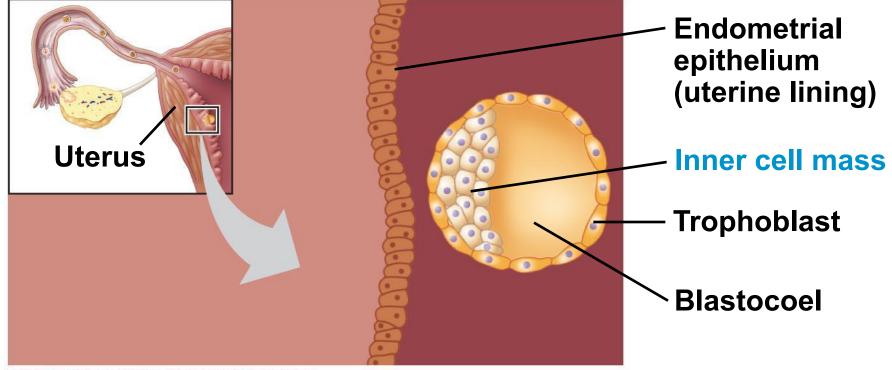
ExtraEmbryonic Membranes in birds and other reptiles:



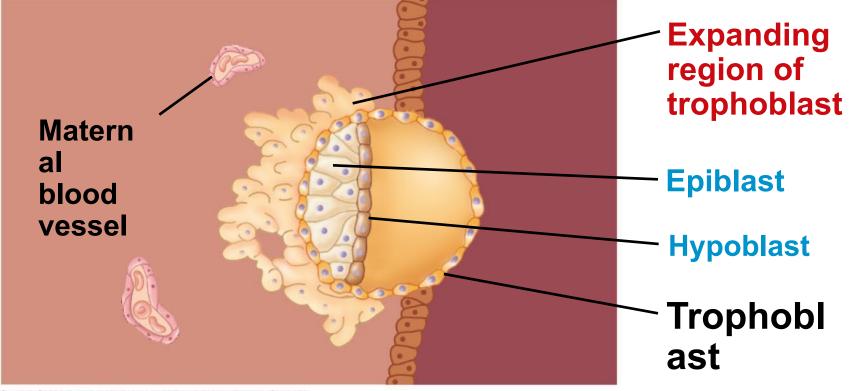
- The eggs of placental mammals
 - Are small yolk and store few nutrients
 - Exhibit holoblastic cleavage
 - Show no obvious polarity.
- Gastrulation and organogenesis resemble the processes in birds and other reptiles.
- Early cleavage is relatively slow in humans and other mammals.

- At completion of cleavage, the blastocyst forms.
- A group of cells called the **inner cell mass** develops into the embryo and forms the extraembryonic membranes.
- The **trophoblast**, the outer epithelium of the blastocyst, initiates implantation in the uterus, and the inner cell mass of the blastocyst forms a flat disk of cells.
- As implantation is completed, gastrulation begins.

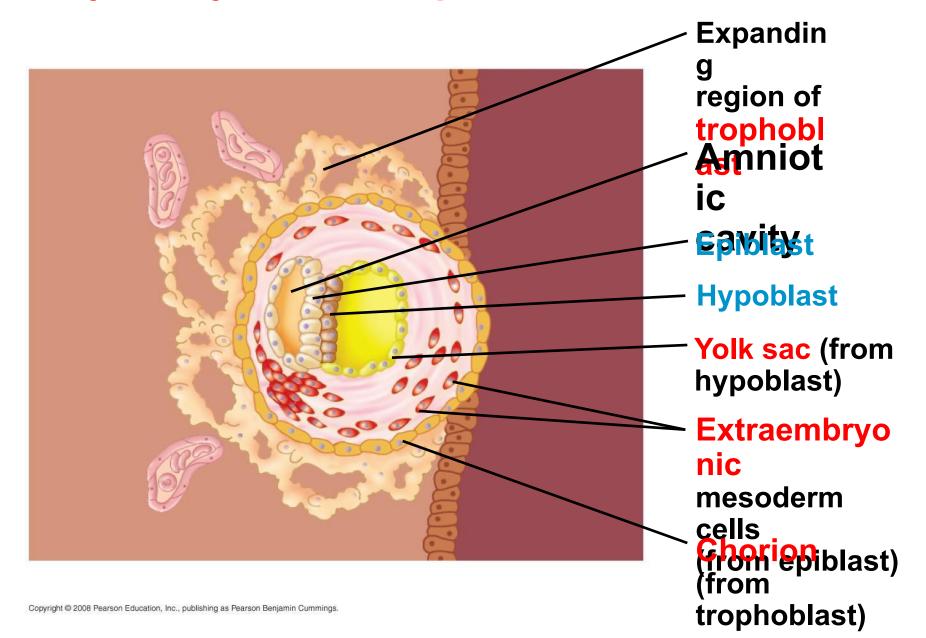
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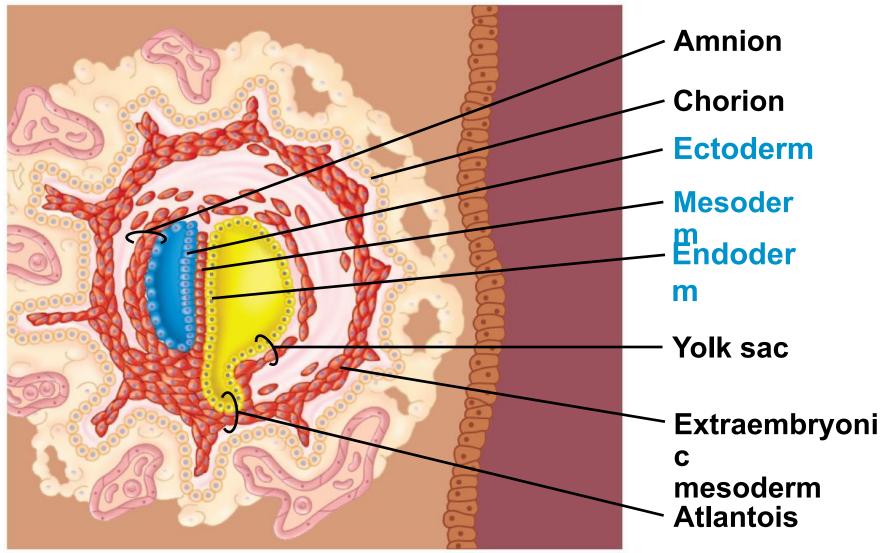


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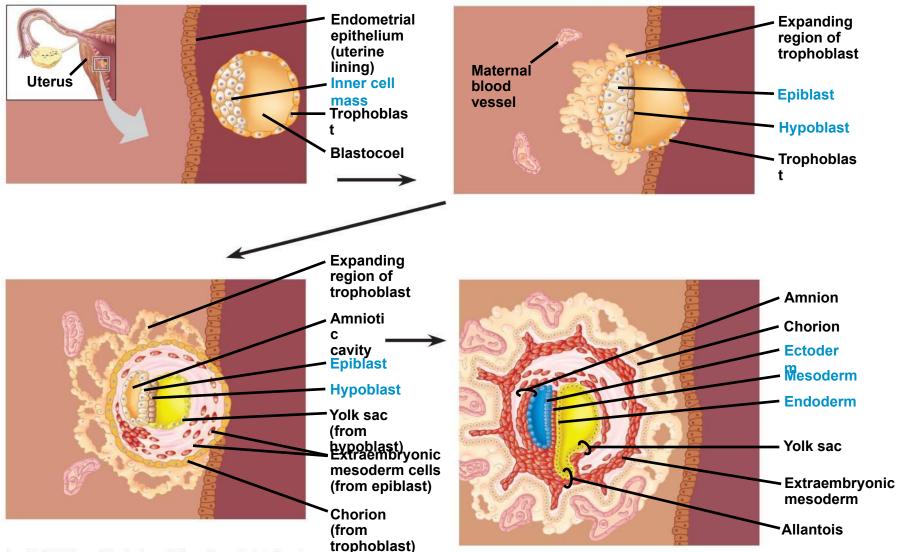


- The epiblast cells invaginate through a primitive streak to form mesoderm and endoderm.
- The placenta is formed from the trophoblast, mesodermal cells from the epiblast, and adjacent endometrial tissue.
- The placenta allows for the exchange of materials between the mother and embryo.
- By the end of gastrulation, the embryonic germ layers have formed. The extraembryonic membranes in mammals are homologous to those of birds and other reptiles and develop in a similar way.





Four stages in early embryonic development of a human

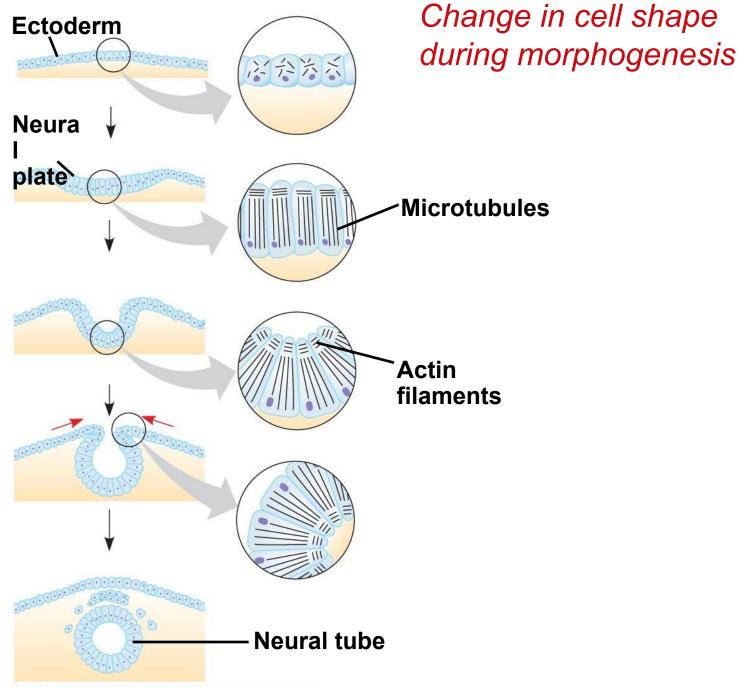


Morphogenesis in animals involves specific *changes in cell shape, position, and adhesion*

- Morphogenesis is a major aspect of development in plants and animals.
- Only in animals does it involve the movement of cells.

The Cytoskeleton, Cell Motility, and Convergent Extension

- Changes in cell shape usually involve reorganization of the cytoskeleton.
- Microtubules and microfilaments affect formation of the neural tube.



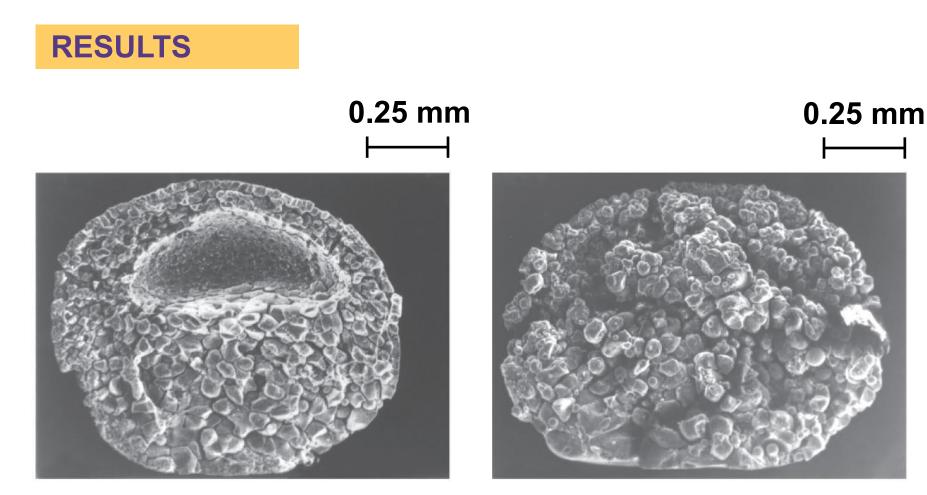
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- The cytoskeleton also drives cell migration, or cell crawling, the active movement of cells.
- In gastrulation, tissue invagination is caused by changes in cell shape and migration.
- Cell crawling is involved in convergent extension, a morphogenetic movement in which cells of a tissue become narrower and longer.

Role of Cell Adhesion Molecules and the Extracellular Matrix

- Cell adhesion molecules located on cell surfaces contribute to cell migration and stable tissue structure.
- One class of cell-to-cell adhesion molecule is the cadherins, which are important in formation of the frog blastula.

Cadherin is required for development of the blastula



Control embryo

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Embryo without EP cadherin

The developmental fate of cells depends on their history and on *inductive signals*

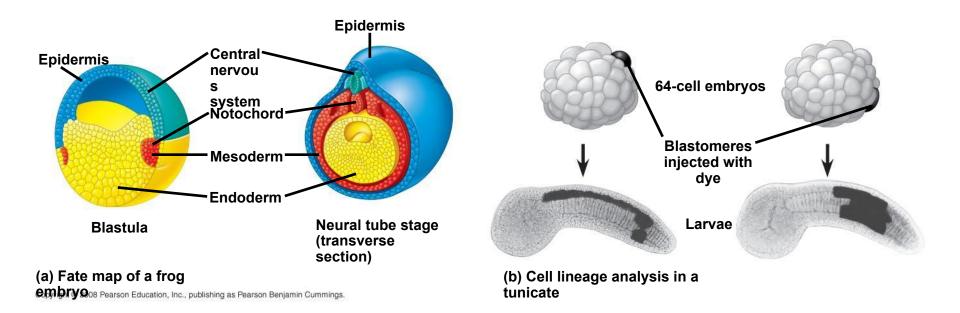
- Cells in a multicellular organism share the same genome.
- Differences in cell types is the result of differentiation, the expression of different genes = differential gene expression.

Two general principles underlie differentiation

- 1. During early cleavage divisions, embryonic cells must become different from one another.
 - If the egg's cytoplasm is heterogenous, dividing cells vary in the cytoplasmic determinants they contain.
- 2. After cell asymmetries are set up, *interactions among embryonic cells influence* their fate, usually causing changes in *gene expression*
 - This mechanism is called *induction*, and is *mediated by diffusible chemicals or cell-cell interactions*.

- Fate maps are general territorial diagrams of embryonic development.
- Classic studies using frogs indicated that cell lineage in germ layers is traceable to blastula cells.
- To understand how embryonic cells acquire their fates, think about how basic axes of the embryo are established.

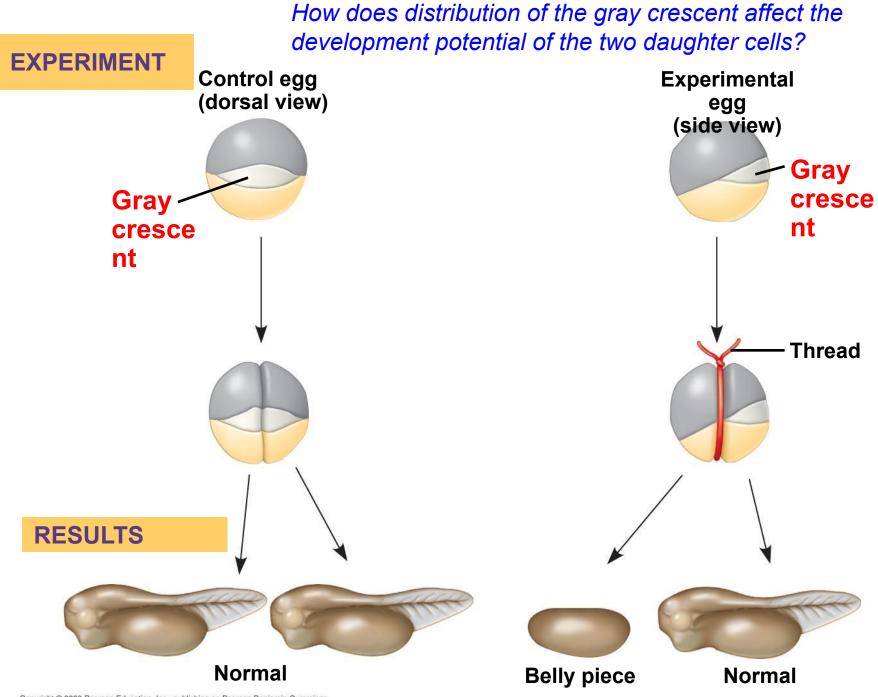
Fate Mapping for two chordates



The Axes of the Basic Body Plan

- In nonamniotic vertebrates, basic instructions for establishing the body axes are set down early during oogenesis, or fertilization.
- In amniotes, local environmental differences play the major role in establishing initial differences between cells and the body axes.
- In many species that have cytoplasmic determinants, only the zygote is totipotent.
- That is, only the zygote can develop into all the cell types in the adult.

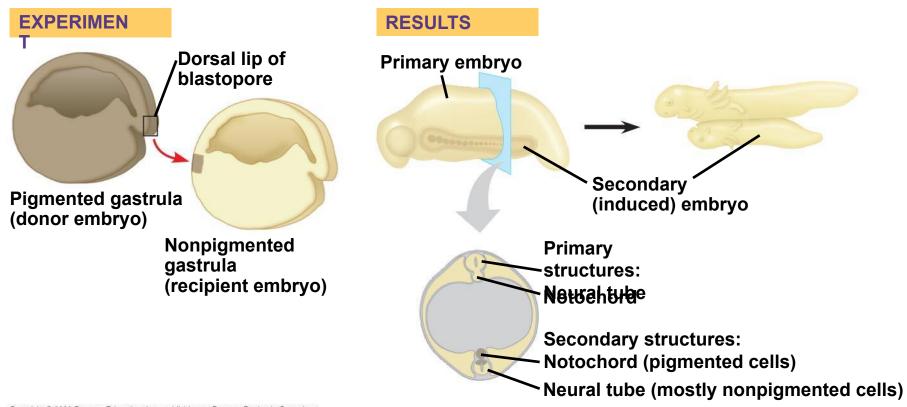
- Unevenly distributed *cytoplasmic* determinants in the egg cell help establish the body axes.
- These determinants set up differences in blastomeres resulting from cleavage.
- As embryonic development proceeds, potency of cells becomes more limited.
- After embryonic cell division creates cells that differ from each other, the cells begin to influence each other's fates by *induction signals*.



The Dorsal Lip = "Organizer" of Spemann and Mangold

- Based on their famous experiment, Hans Spemann and Hilde Mangold concluded that the *blastopore's dorsal lip* is an *organizer* of the *embryo*.
- The Spemann organizer *initiates inductions* that result in *formation of the notochord, neural tube, and other organs*.

Can the **dorsal lip** of the blastopore **induce cells** in another part of the amphibian embryo to **change their developmental fate?**

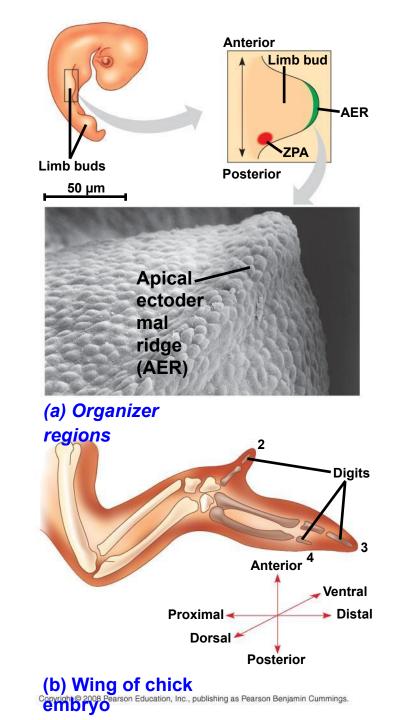


Formation of the Vertebrate Limb

- Inductive signals play a major role in pattern formation, development of spatial organization.
- The molecular cues that control pattern formation are called **positional information**.
- This information tells a cell where it is with respect to the body axes.
- It determines how the cell and its descendents respond to future molecular signals.

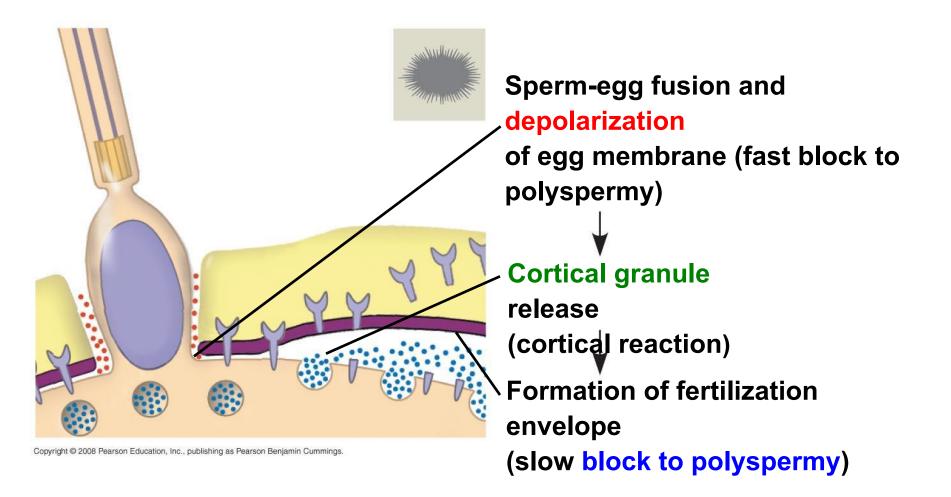
- The wings and legs of chicks, like all vertebrate limbs, begin as bumps of tissue called limb buds.
- The embryonic cells in a limb bud respond to positional information indicating location along three axes
 - Proximal-distal axis
 - Anterior-posterior axis
 - Dorsal-ventral axis

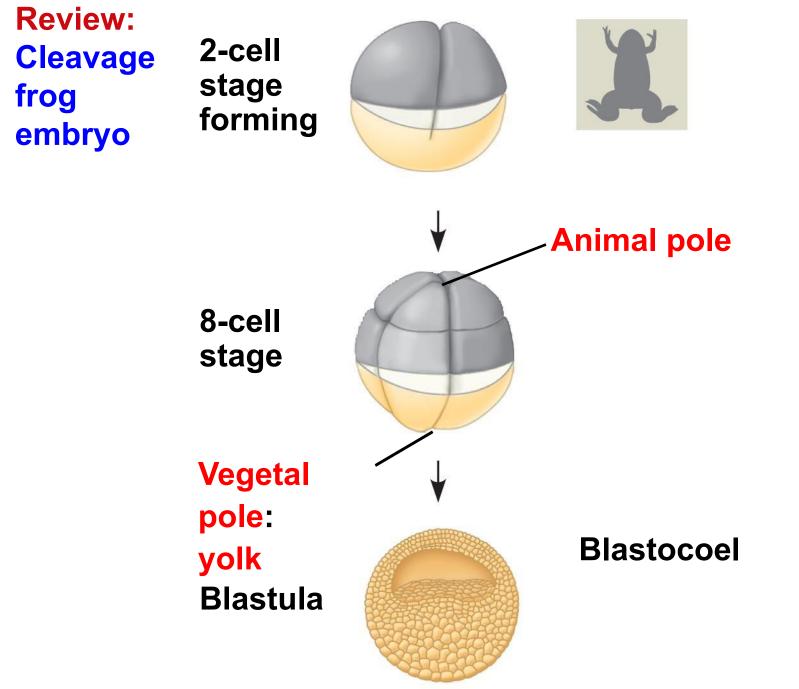
Vertebrate limb development



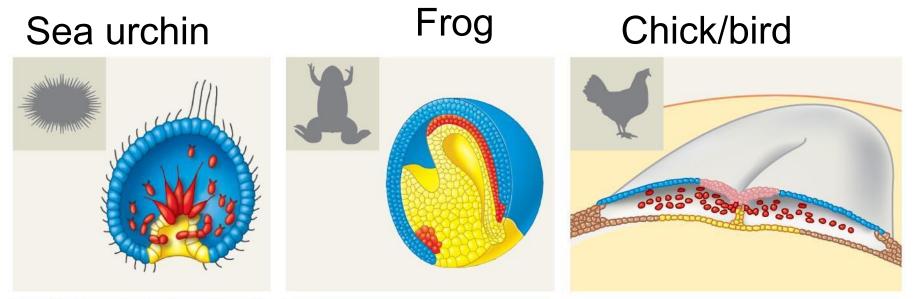
- Signal molecules produced by inducing cells influence gene expression in cells receiving them.
- Signal molecules *lead to differentiation* and the development of particular structures.
- Hox genes also play roles during *limb pattern* formation.

Review

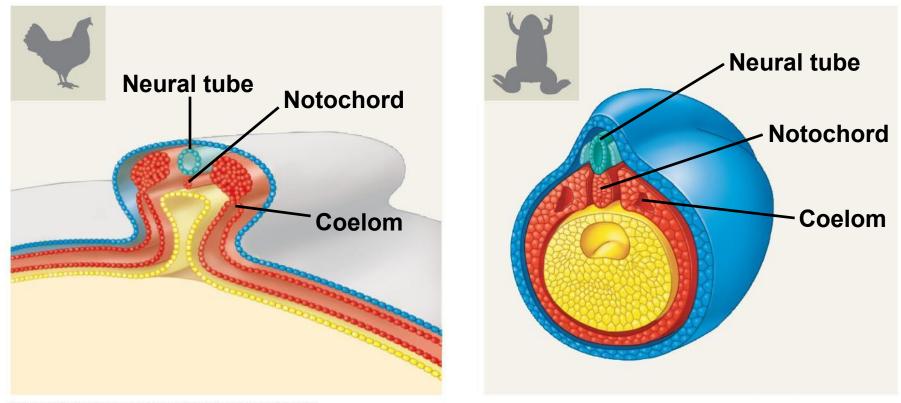




Review: Gastrulation / Early Embryonic Development

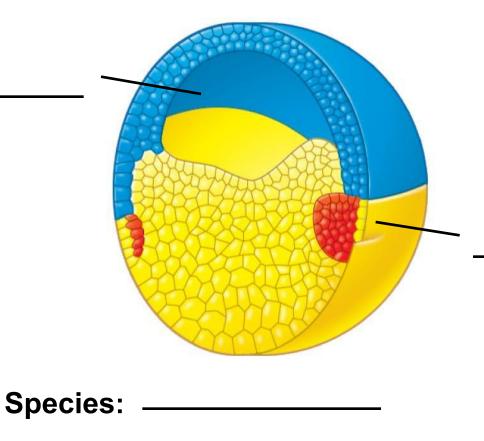


Review: Early Organogenesis



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Review: Fate Map of Frog Embryo



You should now be able to:

- 1. Describe the acrosomal reaction.
- 2. Describe the cortical reaction.
- 3. Distinguish among meroblastic cleavage and holoblastic cleavage.
- 4. Compare the formation of a blastula and gastrulation in a sea urchin, a frog, and a chick.
- 5. List and explain the functions of the extraembryonic membranes.

- 6. Describe the role of the extracellular matrix in embryonic development.
- Describe two general principles that integrate our knowledge of the genetic and cellular mechanisms underlying differentiation.
- 8. Explain the significance of Spemann's organizer in amphibian development.
- 9. Explain pattern formation in a developing chick limb.