BIOLOGY Life on Earth WITH PHYSIOLOGY Tenth Edition

Audesirk Audesirk Byers

Animal Development

42

Lecture Presentations by Carol R. Anderson Westwood College, River Oaks Campus

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显微镜下,"她"(卵)仿若一个神秘的星球,美不胜收



在一次受精过程中,无数赛跑的精子只 为争取一个卵细胞,比例很夸张 100 million to 400 million sperms



hundreds of sperm reach the egg



一个成功受精的卵细胞,它宣告着一个鲜活生命的开始



- 42.1 What Are the Principles of Animal Development?
- 42.2 How Do Indirect and Direct Development Differ?
- 42.3 How Does Animal Development Proceed?
- 42.4 How Is Development Controlled?
- 42.5 How Do Humans Develop?
- 42.6 Is Aging the Final Stage of Human Development?

- Cellular level: control cell proliferation and differentiation
- Molecular level: control gene expression

42.1 What Are the Principles of Animal Development?

- Development is the process by which multicellular organisms grow and increase in organization and complexity
 - Development is usually considered to begin with a fertilized egg and end with a sexually mature adult

Life cycle of Xenopus



42.1 What Are the Principles of Animal Development?

- Three principle mechanisms contribute to development
 - First, individual cells multiply (proliferation)
 - Second, some of their daughter cells differentiate, or specialize in both structure and function; for example, as nerve cells or muscle cells (differentiation)
 - Third, as they differentiate, groups of cells move about and become organized into multicellular structures, such as a brain or a biceps muscle (morphogenesis)



42.1 What Are the Principles of Animal Development?

- All of the cells of an individual animal's body are genetically identical to one another and to the fertilized egg from which they came
- Genetically identical cells differentiate and become remarkably different structures through the use of different genes in different places in an animal's body and at different times during an animal's life (differential expression)

Mechanisms of cellular differentiation





42.2 How Do Indirect and Direct Development Differ?

 Baby mammals and reptiles (including birds) are miniature versions of the adults of their species, undergoing a process called direct development

No Metamorphosis

 Many animal species, however, undergo indirect development, in which the newborn has a very different body structure than the adult

indirect development



- 1. occurs in amphibians and in most invertebrates.
- 2. typically produces huge numbers of eggs.
- 3. The yolk nourishes the developing embryo until **larva** stage.
- 4. **larva** feeds by itself for a period of time
- 5. Metamorphosis



(a) Caterpillar (larva) (b) Butterfly (adult)

42.2 Direct Development

- Newborn resemble miniature adults
 - the newborn animal closely resembles the adult.
 including some snails and fish, all mammals and reptiles (including birds)

W/o undergoing metamorphosis
 arow bigger, but does not fundamentally.

grow bigger, but does not fundamentally change its body form



(a) Seahorses



(b) Snails



(c) Polar bears

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- Most of the mechanisms of development are similar in all animals
- Amphibians have long been favored subjects for the study of development because:



- breed at any time of year
- produce numerous large eggs and embryos
- develop in water and can be easily observed
- Most aspects of amphibian development are comparable to
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 The zebrafish is quickly being established as the model for fish development.

The short life cycle of ~12 weeks and the transparent 0.7 mm embryo are great advantages.

^{© 2014 Pearson Effective} in a <u>zygote forming on top of the yolk</u>



SerRS-MO +

Cleavage

Cleavage of the zygote begins development

- **Zygote:** a fertilized egg
- Cleavage: a series of mitotic cell divisions collectively called Cleavage

The zygote is a very large cell

 A frog zygote, for example, may be a million times larger than an average cell in an adult frog

During cleavage, there is **little or no cell growth** between cell divisions

Figure 42-3a Zygote



- Cleavage of the zygote begins development (continued)
 - After a few cell divisions, a solid ball of cells, the morula, is formed
 - As cleavage continues, a cavity opens within the morula, and the cells become the outer covering of a hollow structure called the blastula

Figure 42-3b Cleavage of the zygote forms a morula



(b) Cleavage of the zygote forms a morula

ectoderm mesoderm endoderm



The **blastopore** is the site at which gastrulation will begin

(c) The blastula just before gastrulation

Comparison of Cell cycle in somatic and blastomere cells



biphasic cell cycleof early blastomeres

The early divisions of most species tend to be rapid and synchronous. © 2014 Pearson Education, Inc.

- Cleavage of the zygote begins development (continued)
 - The details of cleavage differ by species

partly determined by the amount of yolk



blastula in birds and other reptiles

Gastrulation forms three tissue layers

Gastrulation : literally, "producing the stomach"

Gastrulation is a phase early in the <u>embryonic</u> <u>development</u> of most <u>animals</u>, during which the single-layered <u>blastula</u> is reorganized into a trilaminar ("three-layered") structure known as the gastrula. These three <u>germ layers</u> are known as the <u>ectoderm</u>, <u>mesoderm</u>, and <u>endoderm</u> Figure 42-3d Cells migrate at the start of gastrulation



(d) Cells migrate at the start of gastrulation

Gastrulation begins when a dimple called the **blastopore** forms on one side of the blastula The dimple enlarges, going deeper and deeper into the blastula and forming a cavity that will eventually become the digestive tract.

The migrating cells form the three tissue layers in the embryo, which is now called the gastrula

-The cells that move through the blastopore to line the future digestive tract are called **endoderm**



-The cells remaining on the outside of the developing gastrula are called **ectoderm**

-Cells that migrate between the endoderm and ectoderm form the third layer, called the **mesoderm**

(e) A three-layered gastrula has formed

TABLE 42-1Derivation of Adult Tissuesfrom Embryonic Cell Layers

Embryonic Layer	Adult Tissue
Ectoderm	Epidermis of the skin; hair; lining of the mouth and nose; glands of the skin; nervous system
Mesoderm	Dermis of the skin; muscle, skeleton; circulatory system; gonads; kidneys; outer layers of the digestive and respiratory tracts
Endoderm	Lining of the digestive and respiratory tracts; liver; pancreas



Animation: Overview of Animal Development

- The major body parts develop during organogenesis
 - Organogenesis is the development of the body's organs from the three embryonic layers
 - Two major processes influence organogenesis
 - 1. A series of "master switch" genes turn on and off in specific cells
 - 2. In development, the sculpting of body parts often requires the death of excess cells

extraembryonic membranes

- 1. reptiles and mammals
- 2. many amphibians
- 3. Fish
 - By being immersed in water, the embryo does not dehydrate
 - The water surrounding the embryo supplies it with oxygen and carries away its waste, including CO₂

Fully terrestrial vertebrate -----amniotic egg

- reptiles, birds, mammals
- It allows members of these groups to complete their development into the adult form in their own "private pond"

Table 42-2 Vertebrate Embryonic Membranes

TABLE 42-2 Vertebrate Embryonic Membranes



Reptile

Mammal

Membrane	Structure	Function	Structure	Function
Chorion	Membrane lining the inside of the shell	Acts as a respiratory surface; regulates the exchange of gases and water between the embryo and the air	Fetal contribution to the placenta	Provides for the exchange of gases, nutrients, and wastes between the embryo and the mother
Amnion	Sac surrounding the embryo	Encloses the embryo in fluid	Sac surrounding the embryo	Encloses the embryo in fluid
Allantois	Sac connected to the embryonic urinary tract; a capillary-rich membrane lining the inside of the chorion	Stores wastes (especially urine); acts as a respiratory surface	Membranous sac arising from the gut; varies in size	May store metabolic wastes; contributes to the umbilical cord blood vessels
Yolk sac	Membrane surrounding the yolk	Contains yolk as food; digests yolk and transfers its nutrients to the embryo	Small, membranous, fluid- filled sac	Helps absorb nutrients from the mother; forms blood cells; contributes to the umbilical cord
42.3 How Does Animal Development Proceed?

- Development in reptiles and mammals depends on extraembryonic membranes (continued)
 - In mammals (except for platypuses(鸭嘴兽) and echidnas(针鼹), which lay eggs), the embryo develops within the mother's body until birth
 - Nevertheless, all four extraembryonic membranes still persist, and in fact are essential for development



- A zygote contains all of the genes needed to produce an entire animal
 - Nearly every cell of the body also contains all of these genes
 - In any given cell, however, some genes are used, or expressed, while others are not
 - The differentiation of cells during development arises because of these differences in gene expression

- There are several methods of controlling gene expression
 - Transcription----- mRNA,

Every cell contains proteins, called *transcription factors*, that bind to specific genes and turn their transcription on or off



- Embryonic development is driven by one or both of two processes
 - 1. The actions of **transcription factors** and other generegulating substances inherited from the mother's egg (Maternal transcripts)

The sperm contributes little more than a nucleus

2. Cell-embryo chemical communication (Signaling transduction)

-In the sea squirt egg, cells that receive certain parts of the cytoplasm will form the skin, cells that receive other cytoplasmic portions will form the nervous system



During later development, the fate of each cell is determined by chemical interactions between cells in a process called **induction**



- Homeobox genes regulate development of entire segments of the body
 - Homeobox genes are found in animals as diverse as fruit flies, frogs, and humans (evolutionarily conserved)
 - master genes coding for transcription factors
 - Each homeobox gene has major responsibility for the development of a particular region in the body

Figure 42-5 Homeobox genes regulate development of body segments



A Four-winged Fruit Fly Constructed by Putting Together Three Mutations in cis Regulators of the



Homeotic mutants

Ultrabithorax gene is deleted T3 to T2 transformationewral BNOLOGYK Seventh Edition, Figure 9.29 Strater Associates, Inc.

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- Human development is controlled by the same mechanisms that control the development of other animals
- In fact, our development strongly reflects our evolutionary heritage



Illustration of von Baer's law

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- Differentiation and embryonic growth are rapid during the first two months
 - Fertilization of a human egg usually takes place in the uterine tube

zygote → morula → blastocyst → Implantation (chorion) (blastula)

chorion + endometrium -----placenta

Figure 42-6 The journey of the egg





inner cell mass: source of embryonic stem cells



produces the embryo and the three remaining extraembryonic membranes.

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zygote $\xrightarrow{d4}$ morula $\xrightarrow{d5}$ blastocyst $\xrightarrow{d7}$ late blastocyst (end of second week)

gastrulation

Gastrulation is a phase early in the <u>embryonic development</u> of most <u>animals</u>, during which the single-layered <u>blastula</u> is reorganized into a trilaminar ("three-layered") structure known as the **gastrula**. These three <u>germ layers</u> are known as the <u>ectoderm</u>, <u>mesoderm</u>, and <u>endoderm</u>



Figure 42-7 A blastocyst implants



After implantation, **two cavities form** and **gastrulation** occurs *(continued)*

- Gastrulation begins near the end of the second week
 - Cells migrate through a slit in the amnion side of the embryonic disk (primitive streak)
 - This slit is the disk's equivalent of the amphibian blastopore
 - Once inside the disk, the migrating cells form mesoderm, endoderm, and the fourth extraembryonic membrane, the allantois
 - The cells remaining on the surface become the ectoderm



Figure 42-8 Human development during the fourth week



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- Organogenesis begins during weeks three to eight
 - During the third week of development, the embryo begins to form the spinal cord and brain
 - The heart starts beating about the beginning of the fourth week
 - The embryo bulges into the uterine cavity, bathed in fluid contained within the amnion



From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia



Folic acid (also known as vitamin M, vitamin B9,vitamin Bc (or folacin), pteroyl-<u>L-glutamic acid</u>, and pteroyl-<u>L-glutamate</u>)[*dubious* – *discuss*] is a <u>form</u> of the <u>water-soluble vitamin B9</u>. Folate is a naturally occurring form of the vitamin, found in food, while folic acid is synthetically produced, and used in <u>fortified foods</u> and <u>supplements</u>. Folic acid is itself not biologically active, but its biological importance is due to <u>tetrahydrofolate</u> and other derivatives after its conversion to <u>dihydrofolic acid</u> in the <u>liver</u>.

叶酸在人体的许多功能中起着极重要的作用:细胞分离、DNA的合成、头脑化学物质和神经传递素的生产。没有一定水平的叶酸,细胞不能完全分离。叶酸在胎儿的神经系统的发展中是至关重要的。在怀孕期间缺乏叶酸会造成胎儿先天缺陷,例如神经管缺陷和脊骨分裂。因此,每天服用至少400微克的叶酸对育龄期女性是极为重要。另外,叶酸对心脏的健康也扮演着重要角色

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- Meanwhile, the umbilical cord forms from the fusion of the yolk stalk and body stalk
 - The yolk stalk connects the yolk sac to the embryonic digestive tract

- Differentiation and growth are rapid during the first two months (continued)
 - Organogenesis begins during weeks three to eight (continued)
 - The body stalk contains the allantois, which contributes the blood vessels that will become the umbilical arteries and vein
 - The umbilical cord now connects the embryo to the placenta, which has formed from the merger of the chorion of the embryo and the lining of the uterus

- Differentiation and growth are rapid during the first two months (continued)
 - Organogenesis begins during weeks three to eight (continued)
 - During the fourth and fifth weeks, the embryo develops a prominent tail and pharyngeal (gill)
 grooves—indentations behind the head that are homologous to the fish embryo's developing gills
 - These structures are reminders that we share ancestry with other vertebrates that retain their gills in adulthood

-In humans, however, they disappear as development continues

- Differentiation and growth are rapid during the first two months (continued)
 - Organogenesis begins during weeks three to eight (continued)
 - In humans, however, they disappear as development continues
 - By the seventh week, the embryo has rudimentary eyes and a rapidly developing brain, and the webbing between its fingers and toes is disappearing



- Differentiation and growth are rapid during the first two months (continued)
 - After two months, the embryo is recognizably human
 - As the second month draws to an end, nearly all of the major organs have at least begun to develop
 - The gonads appear and develop into testes or ovaries
 - Sex hormones are secreted—either testosterone from the testes or estrogen from the ovaries
 - These hormones will affect the development of many structures, including the reproductive organs and brain

- Differentiation and growth are rapid during the first two months (continued)
 - After two months, the embryo is recognizably human (continued)
 - At the end of the second month, the embryo has taken on a generally human appearance and is now called a fetus
 - The first two months of pregnancy are a time of extremely rapid differentiation and growth for the embryo, and a time of considerable danger



- Growth and development continue during the last seven months
 - The fetus grows and develops for another seven months
 - As the brain and spinal cord grow, they begin to generate behaviors
 - As early as the third month of pregnancy, the fetus can move, respond to stimuli, and even suck its thumb
 - The lungs, stomach, intestine, and kidneys enlarge and become functional

- Growth and development continue during the last seven months (continued)
 - Fetal urine, in fact, makes up most of the amniotic fluid during the last 6 months of pregnancy
 - Although a full-term pregnancy lasts about 38 weeks, nearly all fetuses 32 weeks or older can survive outside the womb with medical assistance
 - Most infants born as early as 26 weeks survive if they are given intensive care

Figure 42-11 A calendar of development from zygote to birth

week 1	week 2	week 3	week 4	week 5	week 6
zygote to late blastocyst		embryo			
zygote blastocyst morula late blastocyst		0.06-0.1 inch (1.5-2.5 mm)	0.12-0.20 inch (3-5 mm)	0.28-0.35 inch (7-9 mm)	0.32–0.43 inch (8–11 mm)
Cleavage of zygote forms the morula and then the blastocyst, which implants in the uterus.	The blastocyst burrows into the endometrium; forms the yolk sac, amnion, and embryonic disk.	Gastrulation occurs; the notochord and beginning of the neural tube form.	The neural tube closes; arm buds, tail, and pharyngeal (gill) grooves form; the heart beats.	The eyes begin to form; leg buds form; the brain enlarges.	External ears and webbed fingers form; the pharyngeal (gill) grooves and tail disappear.





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- The placenta exchanges materials between mother and embryo
 - During the first few days after implantation, the embryo obtains nutrients directly from the endometrium of the uterus
 - During the following week or so, the placenta begins to develop from the interlocking structures produced by the embryo and the endometrium

- The placenta exchanges materials between mother and embryo (continued)
 - The outer layer of the blastocyst forms the chorion, which grows fingerlike chorionic villi that extend into the endometrium
 - Blood vessels of the umbilical cord connect the embryo's circulatory system with a dense network of capillaries in the villi

- The placenta exchanges materials between mother and embryo (continued)
 - Meanwhile, some of the blood vessels of the endometrium erode away, producing pools of maternal blood that bathe the chorionic villi
 - The embryo's and mother's blood remain separated by the walls of the villi and their capillaries, so the two blood supplies do not actually mix
 - Many small molecules move across their villi and capillary walls

- The placenta exchanges materials between mother and embryo (continued)
 - Walls of the capillaries and chorionic villi act as barriers to some substances, including large proteins and most cells
 - Some disease-causing organisms and many harmful chemicals can penetrate the placenta



- Pregnancy culminates in labor and delivery
 - During the last months of pregnancy, the fetus usually becomes positioned head downward in the uterus, with the crown of the skull resting against and held up by the cervix
 - Childbirth generally begins around the end of the ninth month
 - Birth results from a complex interplay between uterine stretching caused by the growing fetus and maternal and fetal hormones that finally cause labor

- Pregnancy culminates in labor and delivery (continued)
 - Unlike skeletal muscles, the smooth muscles of the uterus can contract spontaneously, and stretching enhances their tendency to contract
 - As the baby grows, it stretches the uterine muscles, which occasionally contract weeks before delivery
 - No one knows what triggers labor in humans, but chemical signals from both the placenta and maturing fetus may be involved

- Pregnancy culminates in labor and delivery (continued)
 - Whatever the initial stimulus, the placenta releases prostaglandins, which make the uterine muscles more likely to contract
 - As the uterus contracts, it pushes the fetus' head against the cervix, stretching it
 - Stretching the cervix sends nervous signals to the mother's brain, causing the release of the hormone oxytocin

- Pregnancy culminates in labor and delivery (continued)
 - Oxytocin stimulates contractions of the uterine muscles, pushing the baby harder against the cervix, which stretches further, causing still more oxytocin to be released
 - This positive feedback cycle continues until the cervix expands far enough for the baby to emerge
 - After a brief rest following childbirth, the uterus resumes its contractions and shrinks remarkably



The baby orients head downward, facing the mother's side; the cervix begins to thin and expand in diameter (dilate) P The cervix dilates completely to 10 centimeters (almost 4 inches wide), and the baby's head enters the vagina, or birth canal; the baby rotates to face the mother's back







• The baby rotates to the side once again as the shoulders emerge

- Pregnancy culminates in labor and delivery (continued)
 - During these contractions, the placenta is sheared from the uterine wall and expelled through the vagina
 - The umbilical cord now releases prostaglandins that cause the muscles surrounding fetal blood vessels in the umbilical cord to contract and shut off blood flow
 - Although tying off the umbilical cord is standard practice, it is not usually necessary; if it were, other mammals would not survive birth

- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy
 - During pregnancy, large quantities of estrogen and progesterone are secreted by the placenta
 - Estrogen and progesterone, acting together with several other hormones, stimulate the milk-producing mammary glands in the breasts to swell and develop the capacity to secrete milk
 - The mammary glands are arranged in a circle around the nipple, each with a milk duct leading to the nipple

Figure 42-14 The structure of the mammary glands



- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy (continued)
 - Prolactin, a hormone secreted by the anterior pituitary gland, promotes both mammary gland development and the actual secretion of milk, a process called lactation
 - Prolactin release is stimulated by the high levels of estrogen produced by the placenta, so you might think that milk secretion would begin even before the child is born

- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy (continued)
 - However, lactation is inhibited by progesterone
 - When the placenta is ejected from the uterus right after childbirth, progesterone level plummets, allowing prolactin to cause lactation

- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy (continued)
 - Milk is released when the infant's suckling stimulates nerve endings in the nipples, which signal the hypothalamus to cause the pituitary gland to release an extra surge of prolactin and oxytocin

- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy (continued)
 - Oxytocin causes muscles surrounding the mammary glands to contract, ejecting the milk into the ducts that lead to the nipples
 - The prolactin surge stimulates rapid milk production for the next feeding

- Milk secretion is stimulated by the hormones of pregnancy (continued)
 - During the first few days after birth, the mammary glands secrete a yellowish fluid called colostrum
 - Colostrum is high in protein and contains antibodies from the mother that help protect the infant against some diseases as its immune system is developing
 - Colostrum is gradually replaced by mature milk, which is higher in fat and milk sugar (lactose) and lower in protein

- Aging is the gradual accumulation of damage to essential biological molecules, particularly DNA, resulting in defects in cell functioning, declining health, and ultimately death
 - This damage results from natural errors in DNA replication, radiation from the sun or the rocks beneath our feet, and chemicals in food, cigarettes, and industrial products

- As an individual ages, however, its repair abilities diminish; eventually, the body's tolerance for damage is exceeded
 - Muscle and bone mass are lost
 - Skin elasticity decreases
 - Reaction time slows
 - Senses such as vision and hearing become less acute
- A less-robust immune response renders the aging individual more vulnerable to disease
 - The animal eventually dies



- For thousands of years, people have attempted to delay aging and extend the human life span
 - Modern care can prevent or cure many diseases, and can fix or replace some damaged organs
 - Some dietary changes, particularly not eating very much food, can prolong life, at least in animal experiments
- However, what seems to be the maximum human life span, about 130 years, has not changed

- Several evolutionary hypotheses suggest that aging is unavoidable
 - For example, natural selection favors organisms that leave the largest number of healthy, successful offspring
 - Even a hypothetically immortal animal that wouldn't die from "inside" so to speak, will eventually succumb to predation, accident, or disease

- Therefore, perhaps natural selection favors devoting more of the body's resources to reproduction than to the continuous bodily repair required for immortality
- The fact that humans can live so long after they stop reproducing is probably evidence of the selective advantage conferred by the care and teaching given to young by their elders