ۿ۬᠈</sup>ૹૼ[੶]ૼઽ૾૽ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ૹૣૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱੶ਗ਼ਲ਼૾ૺૼ<u>ᠵ</u>੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼



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ETSI Life Sciences Primer III Development and Physiology

Written and organized by **Dr. Arri Eisen** Translated by **Geshe Dadul Namgyal**

Emory - Tibet Science Initiative science primers

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(Book authored by Emory faculty with Tibetan translation created by Emory and LTWA)

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A joint project of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India and Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia.

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Written and organized by:	Dr. Arri Eisen
Translated by:	Geshe Dadul Namgyal
Translation Reviewed by:	Geshe Lhakdor, Tsondue Samphel, and Karma Tenzin
Layout and design by:	Tenzin Migmar
Printed by:	Norbu Graphics, New Delhi

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Foreword and acknowledgements



THE DALAI LAMA

FOREWORD

Despite their obvious differences, science and Buddhism share several key features in common. Both are committed to empirical observation, the testing of hypotheses, avoiding blind adherence to dogma, and cultivating a spirit of openness and exploration. Most importantly, Buddhism and science share as a fundamental aim the contribution they can make to humanity's well-being. While science has developed a deep and sophisticated understanding of the material world, the Buddhist tradition has evolved a profound understanding of the inner world of the mind and emotions and ways to transform them. I have no doubt that improving collaboration, dialogue and shared research between these two traditions will help to foster a more enlightened, compassionate, and peaceful world.

I have long supported the introduction of a comprehensive science education into the curriculum of the traditional Tibetan monastic educational system. When I first heard that Emory University proposed to develop and implement such a science education program for Tibetan monks and nuns in collaboration with the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, I thought it would take many years. When I visited Emory University in October 2007, I was genuinely surprised to be presented with the first edition of a science textbook for Tibetan monks and nuns, the result of more than a year's work by a team of dedicated scientists and translators at Emory.

By extending the opportunities for genuine dialogue between science and spirituality, and by training individuals well versed in both scientific and Buddhist traditions, the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative has the potential to be of great meaning and significance to the world at large. Once more, the creation of this primer series, presented in both Tibetan and English, is a clear tribute to the commitment and dedication of all those involved in this project. With the preparation having been done with such care, I am confident that the long-term prospects for this project are bright.

I congratulate my friend Dr. James Wagner, President of Emory University, the science faculty and translators of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, and everyone who has lent their support to this project for achieving so much in such a short time and offer you all my sincere thanks.

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4 October 2010

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THE DALAI LAMA



Office of the President



Education is one of the most potent tools we have for ensuring a better world for ourselves and for generations to come. To be truly effective, however, education must be used responsibly and in service to others. This ideal of an education that molds character as well as intellect is the vision on which Emory University was founded, and the challenges of our time show that the need for such education is as great as ever.

This vision is one that His Holiness the Dalai Lama shares deeply, and it is the reason for the close relationship that has emerged between His Holiness and Emory over the past two decades. On October 22, 2007, it was my pleasure and privilege to welcome His Holiness to Emory to be installed as Presidential Distinguished Professor and to join our community as a most distinguished member of our faculty.

The interdisciplinary and international nature of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, the most recent and ambitious project of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, is an example of Emory University's commitment to courageous leadership for positive transformation in the world. This far-reaching initiative seeks to effect a guiet revolution in education. By introducing comprehensive science instruction into the Tibetan monastic curriculum, it will lay a solid foundation for integrating insights of the Tibetan tradition with modern science and modern teaching, through genuine collaboration and mutual respect. The result, we trust, will be a more robust education of both heart and mind and a better life for coming generations.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership was established at Emory in 1998 to bring together the western and Tibetan traditions of knowledge for their cross-fertilization and the discovery of new knowledge for the benefit of humanity. This primer and its three companion primers are splendid examples of what can be accomplished by the interface of these two rich traditions. We at Emory University remain deeply committed to the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative and to our collaboration with His Holiness and Tibetan institutions of higher learning.

To the monastic students who will benefit from these books, I wish you great success in your studies and future endeavors.

ans W. Wagner James W. Wagner

President

Emory University Atlanta, Georgia 30322 An equal opportunity, affirmative action university

Emory University Atlanta, Georgia 30322 An equal opportunity, affirmative action university

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નર્યેવન્દુ ગ્વલુગુરુષ્ય પ્રસ્યવેશ્વશ્વ શ્વર્ય ગ્રુદ વાદ્વે ગ્વનુગાં ક્રોં ક્ષુન્ય ન્દ્ર ગ્વે ગ્વે ક્રોં ક્ષુન્ય ન્દ્ર ગ્વે ગ્વે સ્થય બેવા

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Translation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative (ETSI) grew out of the longstanding vision of His Holiness the Dalai Lama and is sustained by His Holiness's continued guidance and support at every step of the way. Not only has His Holiness provided annual operational funds, but he has also provided \$1 million towards the ETSI endowment fund thereby ensuring the long-term sustainability of the program. The ETSI also owes its existence to the patronage of Dr. James W. Wagner, President of Emory University, who has allocated considerable funding on behalf of Emory University and from his personal discretionary fund.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership (ETP) was established in 1998 in the presence of His Holiness the Dalai Lama through the collaborative vision and work of Dr. Robert Paul and Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi. ETSI is the most ambitious project to grow out of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, and in 2010 ETSI was renamed the Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative in honor of Dr. Paul's visionary leadership and guidance. We express our heartfelt thanks to both these individuals for helping to establish the many programs of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, including ETSI.

We gratefully acknowledge Geshe Lhakdor, Director of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India, whose leadership has been invaluable to the establishment and development of this initiative.

The project would also not have been possible without the support of Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President at Emory University, who has guided ETP from the beginning and continues to be one of ETSI's strongest supporters. Additionally, ETSI is greatly indebted to Dr. Robin Forman, Dean of Emory College of Arts and Sciences, for providing critical resources and faculty from Emory College, which houses this initiative, to assist the ongoing development and implementation of the ETSI.

We thank also the ETSI science faculty, who have worked tirelessly to develop the science textbooks and who have traveled to India each summer to teach the science intensives, and the ETSI science translators who have given of their skills and time to contribute an entirely new scientific vocabulary to the Tibetan literary tradition and lexicon. In particular, Drs. Carol Worthman, Arri Eisen, John Malko, and Mark Risjord, team leaders for neuroscience, biology, physics, and philosophy of science respectively, oversee all of the curricular aspects of the ETSI and have been integral to any success experienced by the ETSI. Additionally, the principal ETSI translators, Tsondue Samphel and Geshe Dadul Namgyal oversee the entire translation of all ETSI materials, and with the assistance of ETSI staff members Michael Romano and Carol Beck, manage logistics for the production of the video lectures and textbooks. Without this dedicated team of exceptional faculty members and translators, the ETSI would not be where it is today.

Along with the hard-working staff of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, everyone has labored far beyond the call of duty, showing time and again that their efforts are not only work, but also an act of love.

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ळत्र'रेण'मे'र्श्वेच'नेप'खेन'पदि'ईं अ'क्कुप'छ'पनन'द्रभ'में के'रेग्रे भ'येन'र्ग्वे भ'येन'ने के'र्न्च भार्थ के'र्न्य के'र्या के'प्रि के'र्या के'प्र के'र्या के'र के'र्वा के'र्या के' के'र्वा विपाय के'र्या के'र्या ने'र्या के'र्या के'य के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के' स्वा ने पाय के'र्या के'र्या ने पत्र के'र्या व्य के'र्या प्र के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के' स्वा ने पाय के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या प्र के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्य के'रेपा भ्या के'र्या ने पत्र के'र्य त्य के'र्या के'र्या प् त्य के'रेपा भ्या के'र्य प्य के'र्य प्या के'र्या के'र्या प्य के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्या के'र्य के'र्य के'र्य के'र्या के'र्य के'र्या के'र्य के'र्य के'र्य के'र्य के'र्य के' स्वा नेपा भ्य के'र्य विप्र के'र्य के'र्या के'र्या

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নিবাম'বার্ইন্যে

We thank all those who have contributed the financial support needed to operate ETSI and ensure its longterm sustainability. We are particularly indebted to Joni Winston for her long-term generous support to ETSI and for her unwavering conviction in the worth of this endeavor. Funding for ETSI has also come from Emory University and Emory College, including the Office of Global Strategy and Initiatives.

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- The Joni Winston Fund
- The John Templeton Foundation
- Judith McBean Foundation
- Lostand Foundation
- Jaynn Kushner
- Drepung Loseling Monastery, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia

We would also thank these individuals for their guidance and advice:

- Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President, Emory University
- Geshe Thupten Jinpa, Principal English Language Translator for H.H. the Dalai Lama and President, Institute of Tibetan Classics
- Geshe Lhakdor, Director, Library of Tibetan Works and Archives
- Dr. Alan Wallace, President, Santa Barbara Institute
- Dr. Preetha Ram, former Associate Dean for Pre-Health and Science Education, Emory University
- Dr. Arthur Zajonc, former President, Mind and Life Institute
- Dr. Richard Davidson, Director, Center for Investigating Healthy Minds, University of Wisconsin, Madison
- Dr. Robert A. Paul, Charles Howard Candler Professor of Anthropology and Interdisciplinary, Emory
 University
- Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi, Director of Emory-Tibet Partnership, Emory University

We would like to thank the venerable abbots and the administration of the Tibetan monastic institutions for embracing the ETSI curriculum and incorporating this material into the Tibetan monastic core curriculum. Lastly, we thank the highly dedicated monastic students of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, who are not only beneficiaries, but also essential collaborators in the success of this program. May the knowledge that they gain through this program and these materials benefit them greatly, and through them, all of humankind.

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- हॅं'वे'सेव'भे'र्टेव'वेनभ'ङ।
- দু'মরি'ন্নু'য়রি'র্রনম'স্তা

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SUPPORT AND INSPIRATION

This primer on Development & Physiology was developed with the help of many scien-tist-educators from the Emory Tibet-Science Initiative and beyond. The teaching and development of this material involved Emory University Biology Department faculty members Arri Eisen, Rustom Antia, Chris Beck, and Alex Escobar. Arri Eisen wrote and organized most of this text with significant contributions from Rustom Antia and Alex Escobar, as well as Veronique Perrot. The interpreters in our classes and the trans-lators of this text have not simply translated words, but transformed difficult concepts from one culture to another, and have taught us professors much more than we could have imagined. The main translator of this text is Geshe Dadul Namgyal. He was assisted by Tsondue Samphel. The interpreters for our classes include Tsondue Samphel, Tenzin Sonam, Sangye Tashi, Karma Thupten, Tenzin Paldon, Nyima Gyaltsen.

Catherine Cai was vital in support of the teaching of the material and played a key role in editing this volume and in identifying and developing the complementary materials included. Jim Wynn is the glue that holds it all together.

The spiritual leaders and guiding lights of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative are Geshe Lhakdor, Director of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, and Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi, Director of the Emory-Tibet Partnership. The seed and inspiration for this work is His Holiness the 14th Dalai Lama of Tibet.

The Emory-Tibet Science Initiative Life Sciences Team

Emory University, 2016.

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ᠺ᠋᠋᠊ᡲ᠊᠋ᢋᡄᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡅᡱᢩᢓᡊ᠊ᡊᠽ᠋ᠵ᠋ᠵ᠋ᢍᢅᡇ᠂ᠴ᠋ᡊᡆ᠋᠋ᡣᡆ᠋ᠴᡱᢆ᠍ᢓᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠲ᠋ᠴᠵᢙᢩᢍ᠄ᠵ᠍ᢧᢍ᠋᠋᠋᠉᠋ᢓ᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴᢙ᠋ᢆᢓ᠋᠋ <u>઼</u>઼ૣઌૹૻૻઃॻૻૡ૽૾ૺૡઽ૾૽૾ઽૻૡ૽ઙ૽૽ઌ[ૻ]૾ઌૻૣ૱ૻૢઽૻૻૡ૱ૡૢૼ૱ૡઙ૽૽ઌૻૹૡૢઽૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૺઌૹૻૡૢૻૻ૱ૹૣઌ૱ૹૢૻૡઌૹૻૻ૽ૡ૾૱ૡ૽૾૱ૻ૱

୩୫.ସ୍ପୁସଂସହ୍ମର୍ଣ୍ଣା ସହ୍ମସଂଦର୍ଶିଙ୍ଗ ମଧ୍ୟଦ୍ୟ ହିଁଶୁ ବିଂଷଂକ୍ରୁଦ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ଧର୍ଶ୍ୱ ମହଷ୍ୟ ଦିନ୍ୟ ନିମ୍ବା

ณฑะริลาศ์รีรฑาฏิ์วซ์สาริๆานารราศิพาพ์สาธิราณฑานาสุมพารรา ๆ ฤลสาพราษิไว้เพรารูญาร์ามรารๆาชิๆาๆารมา २२ेणन्यायायहेवावन्यायह्रीणन्यायांवीणाधीवा २२ेदेार्डेयाङ्ग्रीणाट्राटाय्रीयाय्रीटायन्यार्यव्यादेवायां क्रांक्यव्यायवेन्या ພે'દ્દેં વ'ત્દ' ન રાજે તુરા છે વ'તે' આ ગે 'રે' જે 'રે ગ છે 'યે ગ' જે 'જે 'ગે' જે સંગે 'ગે' જ્યુર પઠ જે 'બેં તુ ૹૼૡૡઽ૾ૺૡૡૻૼૡૹૢૡ૾ૺૡઽૹૣ૾ૼઌૡ૽ૢૺઽ૱ૢૺઽૹૣઌૹૡૡ૱ૹૣ૾ઌૡૹૡ૾૽ૡ૽ૹૡ૾ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡૹૡ૾ૻૡૼૡૹૡ૾ૻૹ૾ૣૡ૽ૡૹૡૻઌ૾ૺૡૼૢૻૡ૱ૹૡ૾ૻૹ૽૾ૡૺૡૹૣઽ ฏญาพิสาดิรา | โล้ราญารส์สาวของกลามหาวิจามีสาวสาวริกาพี่รายสาวริกาษีสาวสราสราสราชกา

ਫ਼ૼਗ਼[੶]ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਜ਼ੵੑੑੑ੶੶ੑੑੑੑ<u>ੑ</u>

Life Sciences Primer III

Development and Physiology

Did you ever stop to wonder how you came to be you, yourself, one biological organism composed of millions and millions of cells? How is it that your brain cells wound up in your brain and your hand cells in your hand? And how is it possible that your hand cells and your brain cells can communicate with each other if, for example, you burn your hand or, for another example, when I touch the computer keyboard to type these words?

In this primer, we will investigate these questions at two levels. First, we will look at the processes involved in making an organism, starting with one cell; these processes are collectively known as development. Then, we will look at the results of development in mature humans, our diverse physiological systems and how they support life.

DEVELOPMENTAL BIOLOGY: THE CENTRAL QUESTIONS

Even for seemingly simple organisms like amoebae, we still do not fully understand how development occurs in detail, but we're beginning to get some good ideas. The more work and thinking we do, the better idea we have at least of the right questions to ask. As you know, half the battle in figuring out any problem is knowing what question to ask in the first place.

The big developmental biology question is how can one cell—the fertilized egg—become two cells, then four, and eventually develop into you, a walking, talking person composed of 50,000,000,000,000 cells?!!

Developmental biologists break down this one big question further into these questions:

- What makes one cell in a multi-celled organism different from another (given, as we've learned, that all the DNA in each cell is the same)? And how does each cell reach its final state and maintain it?
- How do cells that are at first all the same become different? How do these cells move and sort themselves out so they're in the right place at the right time for the next stages of development?
- How, why, and when do cells divide and proliferate?
- How do cells organize into spatial patterns?
- How do cells accomplish coordinated movement and growth?

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নর্য্রীনআ

- <u>५</u>८-द्रींग'गठेग'ग्रुर'भेव'यरे'ख'खुर'ने'५ग'५ुब'छेब'यव'र्द्धव'बे'र्य्र्ड'मर'हे'क्षर'तग्रुर'रय| रळ'र' ุ ุ ณิณาฏิ ริมานาริมามาสุมมาญารสาวสมมาฏิ รู มาสิทมามี มีการสาวสมมาฏิ มาญามามีรับการ

णनेत्र:ग्रेन्:न्या

ᠵᡄᠵᡄ᠋ᡆᢆ᠋᠋ᡝᡆᢆᠬᡆ᠋ᠠ᠊᠍ᢆ᠍ᢓᡆ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢌᡃᡄᡭ᠄ᡆᢩᠯ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋ᢦᠠ᠄ᡨᠴᢦ᠋ᢍ᠋᠄᠋᠋ᡶ᠊ᠵᠼᡠᢩᠬ᠄᠋᠊ᡛ᠄᠙ᡔ᠄ᡬᠯᢋ᠋᠊ᢌᠯ᠍᠕᠋ᡆᢂ᠄᠉ᢑᡄ᠋ᢦ᠈ᡬᡃ᠖᠋᠆ᢄ᠂᠙ᠵᠴᡆᡪ᠊ᡨ

สผาฏกพารๆ (ภารายาต่างกายิราณา รารๆ สา

<u>ج</u>را

ᠵᠯ᠋᠉᠂᠋᠋ᢋ᠈ᠺ᠋ᢍᠯ᠊᠈ᠺᡈᡐ᠈᠄᠊ᡍᢆ᠂ᡪᡬ᠋ᢆᡘ᠆᠋ᡎᢄ᠆ᡎᢣᡭ᠄᠋ᠳ᠋ᢋ᠆᠋ᡠ᠈ᠴᡭ᠂᠋ᠫᠴᠴᡭ᠋᠄᠋ᠫ᠃ᠴᢃ᠋ᢩᢂᢂᢂ᠈ᠺᢋᢐ᠉ᠱᢋ᠖᠋ᢋ᠋ᡃᢋ᠋᠁ᡭᡆ᠋᠂ᡍ᠋ᠴ᠄᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠁ᡍ᠆᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡆᠮ᠆ᢋ

५र्वेब्रायदे द्वे प्रणूट भेष के के के दिन

ૹૣઽૻૹૻૼૼૼૢઽૢૼૻૹ૾૾ૹૻ૾ૹ૾ૣૼૼૹૻૻ૱ૢૡૻઌૹૻૻઌ૽૾૾ૺૡૻૻઌ૽૾ૡ૽ૺૹ૽ૢ૾ૺૻૢૻૢ૽ૢૼૻૢ૽ૢૼૻૼ૾ૼૹૻૻૹૻૹ૽૿૱ૡૢૻૹૻૹ૾૾ૡૻૹૡૻ૾ૡૻૹૻ૽ૡૻૻૡ૽ૻઌ૾ૻૡ૽ૼૹૻઌ૽૾ૼ૱ૻૻ૱ૻ૽ૼૹ૾ૻૹ૽ૻઌ૽૾ૼૻૻ <u>ଌୖ୳</u>ቚ୳୳ୖୡୖ୵ଢ଼୕୶୵୲ୡୖ୳୶୲ୢୖୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୖୄଌୄ୷ୄୢ୲ୠ୶୲ଽୢୄୢୖୄୢୄୖୄୢଵ୶୲ଽୢୖୄୢଵ୶୲୰ୡୄୖ୶୲୵ୄୖ୷୷୷୲ୄୖୄ୷୷୷୲ୄୖୄୢୢ୷୷୲୲ୄୖୄୢ ะหลังเลสมงาณๆลาริ ซัล เลขี สูตุ่งเพิ่า ราสังเริ เช่มเลราะมีตามาราย ริเชมเลงเลตูเลเมรา

ੑੑ<u>ੑ</u>ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼ੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ

ષિર મુદ્દ લેવા વચારવોં ગ સ્ટરૂ અચારે સું કરે આ વાર પેં લેવા તુ લાવા પરિ છું કરે સારવા બાગવણ ગરા છું બા છું કરે સા

ୄ_{ୖଌୄୖ}୶ୖ୲ଌ୵ୄୖ୲ୠ୕ୖ୵ୄୖ୕୕୬୶ୖୄୖୄୖଢ଼୕୶୕ଌ୵୳୵୵ୖଵ୳୳୴ୢଈ୕ୖ୶<u>୕</u>ୖୄୖୄଌ୵୲୵୶୲ୖ*୲*ୠୄ୕୵ୖୢୄୄ୰ୣ୷୵୳ୡୖ୲ଽ୲ଽ୶ୡ୲ଽୠ୵୲ୡ୲୳ୄ୰ นลิ่งอิรารัพ สุพ ฏิ์ๆ ฏราชิ พยิน ๆ ตุราชิราวิๆ ซูล อิราว ส ฏรานลิ ซ ซ รารา นา นลิ ซ ซูรารา พยายนิ ซ ซูราสุมพ Developmental biologists study all these questions drawing heavily on the underlying themes of biology that emerge in Life Science Primers I and II, since developmental biology relies on the basic principles of evolution, and of genes and cells we discuss in those two primers.

In Life Sciences Primer II we talked about what makes cells different—in genes and cells, like hair cells or nerve cells. The fates of these cells are already decided—they are committed to being and remaining hair or nerves—and if all works well, they stay that way. But how do they get to be that kind of cell in the first place? What strategies do cells and communities of cells use to take on their diverse personalities?

The beginnings of answers to many questions in developmental biology like in any branch of biology—are found in natural history, in the evolution of life on Earth, past and present. Remember from LSPI that since life began to evolve on our planet, evolution has saved strategies that work, conserving strategies that allow one population of organisms to survive and reproduce better than another population in any given environment. And when strategies are conserved, the life molecules that underlie those strategies—genes and the proteins they encode, as well as lipids, and carbohydrates— also tend to be conserved.

As we discussed in LSPI, this basic principle has enormous implications that resonate through biology, society, and culture. For our purposes, as developmental biologists trying to understand the basic questions we ask above about how cells develop different personalities, the power of evolution is especially relevant at two levels.

ONE ORGANISM, MANY JOBS

How is it biologically possible for one organism to do two or three or more very different biological jobs—eat, sleep, make energy, think, communicate? For millions of years, all organisms on earth were singlecelled. So, the only way one of these cells could do more than one job was to alter the expression of its own genes, that is the DNA being transcribed into RNA and then into proteins within that one cell at any given moment (These processes are described in LSPII).

For example, if the single-celled organism needed energy, genes would be turned on that were responsible for helping search for, digest, and use food to create the needed energy. Of course, this is still true of any single-celled organism living today. But there is at least one more way one organism can do several jobs at once.

YOUR TURN: THE POSSIBILITIES OF SINGLE-CELLED ORGANISMS

How might single cells of a singlecelled organism collaborate to improve the chances each single cell will survive longer and have more offspring? Draw pictures of single-celled organisms like bacteria and see if you can come up with different ways that acting together as a community of single cells, instead of acting alone as single cells, in response to certain challenges from the environment might help these cells.

ᠵᠵ᠊᠋᠊ᡲ᠋᠆ᠵᢆᡵᡄ᠇ᠧ᠋ᢁᢅᡸᠴ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡔ᠆ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠋ᢆ᠆ᡷᠴ᠋᠉ᢓᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡣ अः क्रुेन रे दिन्धा मारे अनुव भया मना में गहिन ૹ૾૾ૢઽ[੶]ૹ઼ૡૢઽૻૹ૾૾ઌૻૡૣ૱૽૽ૹ૽ૢ૾ૺૢૻૢ૽ૢ૽ૻઽૣઽૼૼૹૻઽઌૻઌ૾ૻઌૼૻૻઌ૽૾ૼ ૹ૾ૢ૾ૹૡૻૹ૾૽૱ૡૢૻૡૢૡ૽ૡૡૡૻૡૡૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ઌૡૻૡૡ૽ૻ૱ न्वाःवीःयरःरेश्वःदेः ५५५ भाषे देहेश्वधेदे विर खुवा वसारखन छेन परि नगार विवा नवा लया ॻॕॖ॔ऀ॒॒॓ॵक़ऀऀॖॸख़ॖॱख़ॖॸॱॺॎ॓ड़ॻॿॖॖॻॺॱॸऀॱॸॻॱॻऀॺॱॻॖॕॻॺॱ ۿڔ؆ڟۿؙٵڹٳ؉؆ٳڂٚڐٮڟؘ؋۬ٷٛڔ؉ڹ؋ۣڹؾ۬ۿ؋؉ڹ؉ٳ ध्र:सु८:विर:माह्यमात्र:ग्री: २९ म.ळॅमात्र:मेपानी रहे... ૬'ને ૬વા વીશ્વ જ્યુવા સુન મારે કવર્ષ અઢા જે વ્યુચ્છે તે છે. ฏิ ริ่ๆนาร่าวราษีราฏิ่งาวรัสายจามสามาลิง

ष्ठिंत ग्री रे बार् बा सास र के गा ख त ग्री के न्देर्बाग्रीबादगुनाहीन्यते मुम्बिव

য়ৣৢ৾৾৾ৼ৽ঊ৾৾য়

नियेत्तत्वा णयने स्वस्तुत्तः क्वेणस्वतः ग्रेः क्रेन्द्रे स्वतेत्तत्वयादीण तुषायाये न्वींषायार्वे सुत्तः क्वे वषा यर्वे यापन्ता

ন্দ্পন্-ভূম্ণান্নীকা)

. สพาสารารา ୩ଡ଼ିମାଡ଼ଦାସ। ଶ୍ୟାସାସକ୍ଷୁଣ୍ୟା ସକ୍ଷାର୍ଶ୍ଯି୩ନିଁନାସା ସଙ୍କାଦଶାର୍ଶ୍ଧିକାଦିମାର୍ଯ୍ୟାନ୍ତ୍ରିକାର୍ଯ୍ୟାନ୍ତ୍ରାକ୍ଷି କରିବାଦ <u>झसुमल्दी नगांविन वर्षणमम्ल</u>ीषाय्येषाय्ये विग वनमः अअग्ववत्रेन् रेनमः ह्याः ग्रे क्यां प्राण्यत् केषा प्रतः तुषा क्रिंगवा देषा नज्जत्वी वी क्षेत्र खासुंतः वरि

ਭ਼੍ਹੇ'ਰਵੇੱਕਾਂਸ਼ੁਣੇਸ ਕੁਕਾੜੇਂ'ਨੁ'ਕ

য়ঀ৾৽৾৾য়য়৾৾ঀৣ৾৽ৼৢ৾৽ঀ৾৾ৼ৾৾ঀ นายุสณาญ วิรามาสา แหน่งระสมสาวายสี่าารายุสิลายาราชสาวาริเลรา เริ่านายุสายสู่ณาราวริเนารณ์ ٵؚڟۥڿؗۮۦٛڲۥؾ۬ػٕڋ۬ڛڐڹۮۿٚڋڒۮڟؚڡڹڲۣۛڹڗڴؚ؆ۥؗڴٵؗڹٮؾڟڎ۬ڴ؆ۼڔ۬۬ۄٚ؆ڂڔۜڴۿ؆ڷ؆ٵؚۜۿڔۛۜۮڴؘڡڹڟؽٵ

ઽ૮૪) ગૃલિવ બાદ બે જેવા ૨૮૮ વિષ્ટ ર્શ્વે અદર વસુદ દ્વા બાદ દાર્શ્વે જંગુરુ દેવના દેવા સે દેવા સે દેવા દેવા દેવા $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$

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<u>ख़ॱख़ॖ</u>ॸ॔ॱॻऀॱॾॖॆॸॱळॕॱॸ॒ॻॱॻऀॱॸॕक़ॱढ़ॺॱॿॸॺॱॻॖॖॺॱॻॸॱढ़ऀॻॱॾॖॖॖॕॸॱॾॖॕॸॱॻॾॖ॓ढ़ॱढ़ॺ।</u>

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MULTICELLULARITY AND SPECIALIZATION

Through the processes of evolution we discuss in LSPI, some single-celled organisms began to evolve strategies that went beyond just their own individual welfare.

Imagine that cell A begins to spend time in the same area as a closely related single-celled organism B. Cell B is especially good at finding food. So, cell B finds food and as long as cell A stays nearby, it also has access to food. In such a case, cell A doesn't need to spend its own resources finding food, and perhaps could concentrate on something else, like making its eating or digesting processes more efficient. In this way, cell A and B begin to collaborate, and may even share nutrients or energy. Cell B finds food really well (which helps cell A), and cell A now turns that food into useful nutrients really well (and shares them with cell B). Both cells become really good at their particular jobs and become more and more dependent on each other—eventually becoming inseparable: a two-celled organism, a two-celled organism that may well be better at both finding and digesting food than cell A alone or cell B were originally.

Such cooperative strategies are also seen in bacteria, single-celled organisms living on earth today. To help understand collaboration, imagine cells as people. Individual people can achieve success, but often a community of people with a diversity of expertise—some good at making food, some good at teaching, some good at growing food, some good at music—results in a more successful set of individuals and thus a more successful overall community.

At some point in evolution, then, it is likely that single-celled organisms, probably ones already working together in ways like those described above and in the sidebar, found such great mutual benefits that they became inseparable. And the first multicellular organism was born.

Here is the second major solution that evolved to handle the problem of how an organism can do more than one thing: specialization. Instead of one cell having to do all the work, now we had subsets of cells within one organism that could specialize in one particular task—some might be responsible for covering and protecting the organism, others for movement, and still others for different roles.

While all these cells share the same genetic material and the same basic cellular functions, different groups of cells would have specific talents, and these cells would evolve over time to become especially effective at one or just a few processes. What do you think are some of the benefits and costs of this type of specialization?

IN-DEPTH: BACTERIAL COLONIES ARE COMMUNITIES OF SINGLE-CELLED ORGANISMS

Even though bacteria are singlecelled organisms, they interact and form communities much like multicellular organisms. In certain environments, bacteria form colonies, single communities composed of thousands of cells. Depending on where in the colony each cell is and in response to communication among the different cells of the colony, different single bacteria in the colony express different genes and have different functions within the colony community. Single bacteria cells of the same species also communicate with each other by quorum sensing; this process allows the cells to sense how many of them are present, and when they reach a critical mass they form a community called a biofilm. Biofilms help protect all the single cells in the community and make infectious bacteria more infectious and resistant to the immune systems of their hosts. Another recently discovered cooperative strategy of bacteria is that cells that are resistant to a drug will protect other bacteria of the same species who are not resistant to the drug.

<u>श्वःश्वेवःवैःश्वःश्वरःक्वेणः</u>क्ष्वनग्रीःक्रीःनर्देश्वःविःरुणः พืवाभना ने नगा सासुन सन ख्वा ग्री की नरेंग न्दःबद्धद्यायरायवाद्धवारहोवाः झुँराष्ट्रीं युःचर रेन् ने भारा विर खुवा देश मजुर रमवा र रे दिन <u>श्वःश्चेवःग्रीः</u>गविषःगःश्चे। ञ्चासुम् क्रेंम् खुण, तु. य ध्रासुर रे.रे.वृष्पर्र केन णर रु.णहेंगुषा শা १षायाराभेवाद्येव् नयरायीषायविषायायविया ५[.]देर गर्हे गुरू पदे खुद रें रें र रे गुरू हरा अन्' सुषाब' स' से' रद्र' न' सेंन' केंग' स'न्द्र' वार्विब' याधीवायदीखाश्चीवाग्चीखाखुदायितामुदायाह्वयुवा ୡ୕ଵ୵୶ୖୠ୶୲୶ୡୢୢୢ୶ୄ୵ୄୄ୷ଽୄୖୢୖୠୖ୕ୣ୵୲ଵୄ୕ <u>भः</u>नहेव वृष: दे : दणा गी शः रूट गी . दे : रैण श. सु गर्नेगर्भायदे रेगर्भा अद लुट है उठ अ लिगा क्रेंगर्भ नेरायेंन सेन में के राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में के राष्ट्र में के राष्ट्र में के राष्ट्र में के राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में के राष्ट में के राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में के राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में ता राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र में राष्ट में राष्ट्र में राष्ट में राष्ट्र में राष्ट तर्चेत्रःग्रेःळन्गविःर्येत्राळेन्देन्पाणीः रेव्रात्रेः तुत्रः <u>ગ</u>જાબાલેવા ગુન છું. ચેન કેન કે ને તે ગુજા બાકો देणचेरपरेता क्रुदिणतेत्मामेषररणे हेन ळें र्शे र्श्वेर महिंगुश्र पदि खुर विर मुझुग शरे न्गानसुन्यरात्रवीग्रांग्रेन्छेना गलन्याय ૹૣૻૼઽઽઌૡ૾ૺ૾ૡૢૻૹ૾૾ૡ૱૱ૹૹૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૢ૽ૻઌૻઌૡ૱ૹૣ૽ૼૼઽઽઽઽઌૡ૾ૺૹ दे वन हु महिन मन्दा मुब्ब कर खर रादे वृत त्वींग अंग्येग भार्त्वोग के भे छेन कु अप्य मई थे สาพ สาขายุสาติยา ธัสาริยาน สุมพายาวิ બઅરંક્રેનર્સેળચાર્ટ્યુન્ટમાં વે તર્ન સુરક્ષે જ્ઞુવર્સ્ચ બેળ. भाष्यम्याः
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IN DEPTH: COSTS AND BENEFITS OF SPECIALIZATION

Benefits of specialization are evident in the discussion in the text you can cooperate, share energy and resources, become expert as a community in more areas. But can you think of any disadvantages of specialization? The more specialized and refined a system becomes, the more things can go wrong, the more energy you have to make to monitor more things. More and more specialized is not always better.

SEARCHING FOR A MODEL

If evolution from single- to multi-celled organisms proceeded as we hypothesize, then we might be able to identify a currently living organism that represents a transition state between single and multicelllular organisms, that is, an organism that shows characteristics of both a singlecelled and a multi-celled organism. Identification of such a system would allow us to examine the above questions as that system evolves, thus giving us great insight into the process at its relatively simple evolutionary beginnings.

As you know, the core processes evolved and understood in such 'simple' organisms are conserved by evolution and tend to change very little over the eons. We already see, in the sidebar about cooperating bacteria above, a step toward cell-to-cell interactions among single-celled organisms. Are there contemporary organisms that have taken the next step and evolved into a lifestyle that includes both single-celled stages and multi-celled stages?

SLIME MOLD: LIFE CYCLE

John Tyler Bonner, a scientist at Princeton University, has been studying just such an organism—a slime mold called Dictyostelium discoideum—for more than 70 years. These slime molds have a fascinating life cycle shown in sum in Figure 1 and in action in the video found at *http://www.youtube. com/watch?v=bkVhLJLG7ug*. Slime mold live on forest floors throughout the world. As long as the bacteria they eat are plentiful, slime mold exist as single-celled amoebae (single cells with the capacity to crawl and search for food), crawling along the ground and eating. But once food runs short, the slime mold amoebae begin to aggregate and form a many-celled slug that crawls around like a bag of amoebae. This 'bag' has a clearly defined front (anterior) and back (posterior) and it moves away from the fooddepleted area, searching for food.

If no food is found, the bag of single cells undergoes a dramatic transition (Figure 1) into two distinctive types of cells, stalk cells and spore cells, and forms a structure containing both. Spores contain live amoebae encapsulated in a fruiting body with a tough protective coat. The stalk cells die, sacrificing themselves for the spore cells at the top of the stalk. These spores now have the potential when the fruiting body breaks



Figure 1: Slime molds have a fascinating life cycle.

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<u>ક્રી</u>ત્ર[:]સેંગ'યત્ર:કેની

ᡶ᠋᠈᠊ᡭ᠋᠋ᢋ᠄᠗ᡝᠯ᠋ᢋ᠇᠋᠋ᡨᡩ᠋᠋ᡎ᠉ᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠈᠈ᡬᡆ᠋᠆ᡎᢙᡔ᠂ᡎᡄ᠆ᡃᡆ᠋ᢆᢁ᠋ᢋ᠆ᡘᡆ᠋᠋᠄ᠺᠴ᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡆᢙ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᡆᢆᢂ᠆᠋ᢋᢁᢋ ૡૻૻ૽ૼઽૻૼઌઽૢૼૡૻઙૢૡૢ૿ઌ૿ૻ૾૽ઽૻૻઽઌૼૼૼૼૼૼૻઌ૱ઌૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૹ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૼૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿૱ૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૽૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૺ (भ्रि) मर्देश वर्दी यादा ઌૢૼ૾ૻઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌૻૹૡ૾ૺ૾૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌ૽ૻ૱૾૾ઌૻ૾૾૾૾ૡ૽૾ઌ૾૾ૡૻૹ૽ઌ૽૾ૡ૾૾ઌ૾૾ૡ૽૾૱ૡ૾ૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ শ্বিশস্বাহ্বব্যর্গর্গ মtp://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bkVhLJLG7ug৭বিশ্বস্কুর্ ૡૢઽ੶ઽૢૺૠૢૢૹૹૻૻૹૢઽૻૡઙૡૻૢઽૻૹ૾૾ઌૻૡૣ૱ૹ૽૿ૢૺૻૹ૽ૻ૱૽ૣૻૢૻૡૻૹ૾૾૱ૹ૽૾ૢૺૡૢૼૡૻઌૢૻૻ૱ૹૡૻૻ૾ૼૡૻઌૼૡ૾૾ૡૼૡૻ૱ૡૹૻ૽ૼૹ૾ૣૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ ૽૿૽ૡૢૼૼૡઽૢૻૼૡૼૡૡૢૼૡૼૡૢૼ૱ૡૹૻૡૼૼૺૻૼઌ૽ૻઽૺૺઽૢૺ૾ૻ૿૽ૼૢૡઌૻૻૡ૿ૡૢૻૡ૽ૢૼૡ૾ૺૡૢૹૻૡૢઽૻૡઽ૾ૺઽૹ૾ૢઌૻ૱ૢૡૼ૾ૡૡ૽ૼૼૻ૱૬ૢઌૻૻ)ૹ૾૾ૢૺ૱ૹૼૹૹૻ ૹ૽૾ૺઌૹૻૹૻ૾૾૾ૼૼૹૻઌ૽ૹઌ૽੶ૢૻૼૼ૾ૻઌ૾ૻ૽ૼૻઌૹૡ૾૾૾૾ઌ૽૾ૺઌ૽ૻ૱ૹૻઌ૾ૼૼૻૻઌ૱ૡ૽૾ૺઌૻૹ૾૽ૡ૾ૻઌૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૾ૻઌ૽૿૱ૡૻ૾ૹ૽૿ૢૹૡૻઌ૽૾૱ૻઌ૽૾ૼૺૡૻૺ૱ૻૹ૾૽ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૽૱ૡૻ

ଷ୍ଡ୩'ୟ' के दे' पर्मि म'कु वा

ૹર્વેદ્ર જીુ ખેંદ્ર ટેચો

શુઃઽૢૹઃઽ૾૱ઽૣਗ਼੶ઽઽઃઙૣઃૹૢઽૻ૱ઽૡૣ૱ૹ૽ૢ૿ૺઽૢૹઃઽ૾૱ૹ૱૱ઌ૽ૼૢ૾ૺ૽ૻૡૢૼ૱ૻઌ૾૾૾ૺૡૹૼ૽૱ૹૻ૾૾ૼૼૼ૱ૡ૾૾૱ૻૡ૾૱ૡ૽૾ૺ૱ૻૻ૱ૡ૽૾ૺ૱ૻ

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קשִׁישְׁפּׁיפּוים

देः अर्घेत्रः ग्रुत्रायां दे दिवायां मुन्द्रात् प्रायां विषायां विषायी वा

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ૻવાં તે માર્ગ જ આ માર્ગ છે. તે માર્ગ સાથ પ્રાપ્ત નાં માર્ગ સાથ સાથ માર્ગ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સા

because they are raised up above the forest floor to disperse across a wide area, increasing the chance they will fall in an area containing food. When spores do land near food, they lose their protective coats and become active single-celled amoebae again; if no food is present where they land, the spores can stay alive and stable for long periods of time, until food is again available.

SLIME MOLD: EVOLUTION OF DEVELOPMENT

What has happened here? How did it happen? You should see that in addressing these questions, we are addressing the central questions of development outlined above, because in the slime mold we have an organism that can be either single- or multi-celled. *The single-celled version in which all the cells are the same changes into a multi-celled version in which new and different kinds of cells occur.*

To accomplish these stages, slime mold cells move and grow in a coordinated fashion. So, here we have a perfect model system to study. If the 'simple' slime mold can lead us to answers to the basic questions of developmental biology, this will also help us understand who we are.

Although slime molds might at first seem unrelated to us, they do indeed hold answers, or at least the beginnings of answers, to many basic questions about what makes us what we are. Let's see if we can convince you of this. We'll start with the question 'what has happened here?' and then consider how it happened.

In a very general sense, Figure 1 and the slime mold video outline what happens in the slime mold life cycle. But, let's look at this cycle from an evolutionary perspective and ask more specifically this question: In evolutionary time, how might a single-celled organism, an ancestor of Dictyostelium, have evolved into the multi-celled slug and stalk-and-spore?

In a research paper in Evolution & Development, Dr. Bonner outlines a proposed answer for this question that is based very much on the logic of Darwin we used above for why a single cell might benefit from spending time with another single cell.

Bonner starts with the assumption that evolution here was driven by selection for better dispersal of slime mold spores; better dispersal means more spores get spread over a wider area, increasing the chance of a spore landing near food, increasing the chance of that organism and its genes being passed on to more offspring. Perhaps the first event (step 1) was **a chance interaction between two spores** (sometimes called cysts in different mold species). Maybe a 'glue molecule' usually involved in building

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the spores' protective coats accidentally glued together two spores instead (Figure 2). This interaction gave these two cells an advantage in dispersal because, for example, they may have been more likely to be eaten by a worm and then spread around when that worm excreted its waste at another location. These spores are unable to be digested, so the worms served as dispersal agents. Consistent with such a sequence of events, there are contemporary species of mold that disperse spores in this way, rather than by the formation of stalks with spores.

Next (step 2), across thousands and millions of generations, since aggregation of spores gave an advantage to an evolving slime mold, any strategy that evolved to increase aggregation therefore gave advantage. Perhaps a signaling molecule that these cells were using for something else (sending messages inside the cell) was 'borrowed' to instead signal externally to encourage aggregation. Such a process of movement in response to a molecule or chemical is called **chemotaxis**.

Aggregates or collections of spores that happened to be the biggest and stuck up in the air from the forest floor the highest would have an advantage because their spores could be dispersed further, increasing chances of finding food and reproducing. These evolving organisms could also take their chemotaxis ability a step further and evolve the ability to move together as many cooperating cells (a slug) to look for new food. This would of course also be an advantage in terms of finding more food; here the evolving organism would be carrying out the same role on its own that the worm does for other mold species, that is, carrying far and wide the source of its future generations, its genes and cells.

The evolution of a stalk would make it easier to get the spores higher in the air and thus to increase dispersal distance. Bonner points out that this evolutionary moment is the key point where we move, as discussed above, from one type of cell to two. This is the evolution of a **division of labor**; two types of cells arise from one—one type of cell does one job, build a stalk and die, and another type does another job, stay as living cells (in the spores) to pass on to the next generation.

In Bonner's model, the most active, energetic amoebae are at the front of the slug and eventually are the cells that form a stalk, lifting the other amoebae into the air as spores. With time, this process would evolve to be carefully regulated, monitoring, for example how long slugs search before stopping to form stalks and spores, how fast the slugs move or the stalks grow, and how many spores appear in the fruiting body.



by chance, give molecules come into contact



Figure 2: Spores produce a 'glue molecule' to help build a protective outer coat, but these glue molecules may have accidentally glued two neighboring spore cells together instead.

ૹ઼ૻ૱૽ૺ૱ૢૻૡૼૼૼૼૡૼ૱ઌૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱ ५.वावर्षातश्चर श्रे छेन्दर्भ अपने छेन्दर्भ वर्षा पर्यापा न्व खिन स्नूम्ला वहें व गों प्रथेर खेगा हु पश्चर प्रथा नियेर व ૡૢઌઃશુ: ૬: પ્રયુવ ન્વીય સેવ ન્દરા સ્ર્યુવય ત્વુ નવા સુર વા સુર નવા સુર નવા સુર નવા સાથ નવા સાથ નવા સ્ટ્રીન સેવા સુંદ બવા ૠૼૺૼૼૼૹ[ૻ]ૡઽ૾ૼૺૼૼૹૻૻૹૻૡૼૼૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૼૼૹૼ૱ૡ૽૾ૼૡ૿૽ઌૻૻ૱૱

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สารภูลาขุลอาร์สาวิรานาสิโ สลอาสภูมาภูลพลานรายุรายาสลานาร์ เป็นเราะรารราชิลามันเลื่าเรื่าเราะบานดูสารเล้าเป็นเป็ ॻऻऀॿऺॖॺॱ(ॺॕ॔ॺॱऄॖॱਘ॓ॱऻॺॕॻॱॺॸॱॸॖॖॱ)ख़ख़ॸॱॻऻॺॕॺॱय़ॕय़ऀॱॸॕॱय़ॕॸॱॻॏॺॺॱॸॖ॓ॱक़ॖॖॖॸॱॸॸॺॱॾॆॺॱॺॸॱॻक़ॖॗॸॱॾॕ॒ॸॱऄॖॸॱॻय़ऀॱ ୶୶ୄୖୢଈ୕୷୲ଵଵ୵ୖୖୖ୵ୖୖୄୖଽ୶ୖ୶୲୲

มเกลารุฏิกลาสูานรามส์สีลาสูารุวิทสามากกานสาวการกามสายรังกามสายการสีลาสุมาร์ नेदे.नगट.चील.न.नग.ल.डल.क्रेन.म.द.नश्चेगुल.झॅ. न्रेयेषाबार्श्वाप्पटःश्वरायबार्योदायधेरावशुरुरदेषा देश्वराशुरुळेश्वराशुरुर्युत्राश्चेत्राशुकाशुयासुरायी हेर्रयाबायावता ୳ୖଽ୶ୖୖ୵ୖୠ୵ୄୖୢୢୖୢୗ୶୲ୣୠୣୢୢୢୠୣ୷୲ୄୣୠୣୠ୲୷୲ୡୄୢୠୄୢୄ୷ୖଽୄ୲

<u>બા</u>દ્યનાલકોબાર્ક્યું વર્ષા વર્ક્સું ન કેર વ રેનુ

^{*}र्गेत्र⁻ छेन्द्र-पार्श्वना मुखायाने वा राये वा राये का राय अगर राये का राय नेते:हेबा ર્શેર (વીંચાસ્ટ્રનશળવિશ્વાયર) ગ્રુન રનશ સ્ટ્રેન લાગ નન શાળાનુ અવે રેન સેવ છે ખાલનુ શાસાન વા વા પર સેન સાથા ॻऻॿक़ॱॖॖॱ(ॷॱॷॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॱज़ॾॱख़ॣॖॻऻॱॖॖॖॱज़ॾॱढ़ॾॖॖॖऺक़ॱॻऻॸॖॕॾॱख़॓ॖॖॖॖॖॖऺज़ऒॕॖॷॱज़ढ़ऀॱढ़ॾॖॖऺक़ॱज़ज़ॕॾॱख़ॖॻॱक़ॖऀॻॱख़ॷॱख़ऀॻॱॷॷॱख़ऀॸॱॷॖॻक़ॱ

ઞ૧૫ૡઽૢૹૻૻૢૻૢૼૹૻઽૢૢૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌૻૻૢ૾૾૾ૡૻ૾ઌ૾ૻ૱ૻૹ૾ૢૺૹૻૻઽ૱ઽૻ૽૽૿ૣ૽ૹૻૹૼ૱૱૽ૻઌ૾ૺૹૻૻ૱ૻઌ૾૱ૹ૽૾૱ૻઌ૾૱૱ૻ૽૾૾૱ૻૻ૱૱૱૱૱ ૹ૾ૄ૱ૡઽ૾૾૾ઽ૾ઌૹૻ૾ૹ૽૾ૹૻૹૺૡૻૡૢૻૡૻૻ૾ૺૼૻઌ૽ૼૢ૾ૺૹૻ૾ૡૻૡ૾૿૱ૡૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૼૹ૽૾ૣ૽૱ૡ૽ૺ न्येरवार्श्वेवा छेन्दे न्या प्रमु श्वेवा षियायोवन.र.प्रयोधन्नात्र क्रायत्र हिर्मा दे.त्यास्त्र मही.पट्ट.र्या ही.संग्रह याया प्रयागवन महेर. <u>५१७, २९, खेव क्षया ने ते त्वोधया छेन् उधा नु खुर परेना ने न रनया ग्रे छान खन ले रे ने या होन् न ते र स्थर</u> स्थर

ॱॸॺॱ෬ॸॖऺऀऺॻॺॱ෬ॺॕॸॱक़ॆॸॱक़ॕक़ॱय़ॖॖ॓ॱॸॻॱॻऀॺॱय़ॻॖॸॱॸॻॱ ૡઽૢૹૻૻૢૡૢૻૡૻૻ૾૾ૹ૾ૣ૽ૡૻૹ૽ૣ૾ૡૻ૽૱૱૱૱ ายาเวาหารณ่าวริเสลมท่าระว่าปีามีกล่าวเริ่าเรา ૡૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૺ૾ૻૼૹ૾૾ૢ૾ૼઌૻૻૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹૢૻૡ૾ૻ૱ૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻ૱ૻૢૢૢૢૺૻૼૹૼ૱૱ૺ (নৃশাব্য ক্রিঁশা

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13

FROM ONE CELL TO MANY: HOW DOES IT HAPPEN?

We've looked at a description of what happens in slime mold development and at an explanation of how such a developmental program may have evolved. Now, let's look at the underlying principles of what is known about how this program happens.

MONKS BUILD A TEMPLE

First, an analogy: imagine you want to build a small temple in your monastery. You have 1,000 monks in a huge room at your disposal. At first, in the room, all the monks are doing their own independent thing—studying, eating, and singing. You are about to start your temple-building project, so you enter in the main door of the room and you call out loudly: 'Everyone, I have a project! We need to build a temple! Please come with me!'The monks closest to you hear your yelling the best, the ones further away less well; the sound of your voice is distributed in a **gradient**—loudest closest to you and then less loud the further from you (Figure 3).

The monks closest to you receive the signal; inside each monk, just like inside each cell, the signal is interpreted, and the bodies of the monks arrange so that they orient toward you and start moving. Once other monks, ones that didn't hear your yelling as well or even at all, get the message of what's going on from watching or asking other monks, they begin to move toward you also. Finally there's a large group of monks clustered around you. You start talking to the first monks right away and giving them directions. They respond to you and send other signals to later arriving monks. As new monks join the group from far across the room, the first monks are already taking on new jobs.

You have assigned the first few monks that reach you to lead three separate groups and to recruit others of the 1000 monks to help them. One group is to gather building materials for the temple; another is to clear out the land for the temple, and a third is to study the architectural plans. There are about 330 monks in each group. Once assigned to a group, the monks in each group have to move as a group to a particular location (and must communicate to do so); also monks **within one group** take on more specific tasks. For example, in the group assigned to gather building materials, some are directing the others, some are lifting wood, some are carrying tools. Within each group, the monks communicate with and rely on each other to get their particular jobs done; in addition, each group relies on each of the other groups and adjusts what they do both to monks within their own group and to what the other groups are doing.

IN DEPTH: AN EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE ON ALTRUISM

We already saw in the previous sidebar that even single-celled organisms appear to exhibit some altruism. Now we have a case, of many more to come, of what might be considered the ultimate altruistic act: self-sacrifice. The slime mold stalk cells die in order to allow their close genetic relative spore cells to survive and pass on their genes. Evolutionary and developmental biologists have spent a lot of time studying altruism and selfsacrifice—some reducing it to simply a means of allowing one's genes to continue, others adding more nuanced interpretationsfrom the mathematical to the psychological



Figure 3: Monks Building a Temple. If you call to a group of people to come help you with your project, those closest to you will be able to hear you better than the people in the back. The people in the front will begin moving toward you immediately, while the people in the back take longer to respond. This creates a gradient.

In the end, if all goes well (which it often doesn't), the temple is built. Given

ન્સુવ મંચઢેંવ પ રેંન



धुँगमासुप्रचेंगप्तविवर्ण्यन

ᡏᡝᡏ᠆ᠭ᠊᠍᠍ᢋᠵᢄ᠋ᡬ᠊᠋ᢆᢦ᠃᠊ᢔ᠋᠆᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡏ᠋ᡶ᠋᠈᠋ᡬ᠊ᠯ᠋᠉᠄ᡬᡇ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡜ᠆ᡸ᠋ᢩᡜ᠆ᡘᢆᠼ᠉ᢆᢧ ॡॺॱॻॖऀॱक़ॖॖ॓ॱॸ॒२ॕॺॱॸॻॱॻऀॺॱॻॖॖॖॾॱॻढ़ॺॱख़ॺॱॖॖॱक़ॖॖॖ॔ॱ พरंदेनळेंदेखनुवःश्वरःररः र्ह्वेषणिर्हराणे वण गर्हेन ने गलन मन मुर्गे स्वर मुर्ग में स्वर तशुरानुग्नन्न्रबार्केणायते न्ये अर्केवाविणाञ्चेयवा थेंन भा ने भूवे नये अर्कें न अर नया हैन भवे विंद्र विंग्य के रिंग्य के मारे के रहे के राज क तेते.रेणबाह्य के तड़े आर्टु णहिंग् बायते सेंद हुे. ૡ઼ૡૢઽ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ รุ่ๆาป้ารุ่มฟ.รีฆมส.ชีวิเวรขม. ริรา ผมิญหาลูารริ รร้างริยายยารราสสรา तयेगः भ्रु नर्देशः रेगायायान्गा गैशानायरा गविता न्मु दिन क्रुव रेट नक्रुट राय रे र र दुवा तम्र रा रा नेरात्रमेणायमनाक्रुमार्खणाक्रयाम्राम्यायमार्वेवः พี่รายลา เล่าว่าริสายารัฐราราชิรารราชาริบุล इर्षाणे क्रुवा संयव्या राज्या विषाय रे विर्यालय कर्षा रा बेग्रबाम्बर्बा रेगापति पर रेगा गुरुब रे रेगुबा यदे स र दे व ग्रे मुग यहन हे भू मुर म रु र नग

नेरायवियात्र में झानरा रहोय ही यहा हरा रव रक्ष ही र विया रही

 f^{unc} မြိုင်းဦးကို အိုးရားသည့်အားရားကို ကို အိုးရားခဲ့ရားခဲ့ကြောက်ကားခဲ့ကျောက်ကားခဲ့ကျောက်ကားခဲ့က ကားကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကားသားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့က ကားကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကားကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကာကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကာကာကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားခဲ့ကားက

สุมพาพพาสู้าส้าส์รักสุทุพายู่รานายู่รา

<u>ਗ਼</u>ੑ੶ਜ਼੶ਫ਼ਁੑੑੑੑੑਲ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼ੑ

ઽૺૼૢૹૻૼૹ੶ૼૢૻૻઌઽૻૹ૾ૢઌૻૡૢઽૻઌ૽૿ૺૡૹૼૼૼઽૻૡૡૺઌૻૹૢૢૢૼૢૼૻૺઽ૾ૺ૱ૡૢઽૻઙ૽૾ૡ૾ૺઌૻૡ૱ૢૢઽૻૹ૾ૣૼૼઽૻૹ૾૽ૺૻઌૡૢઽૻઌૹૣઌૡ૾ૻૡૺ૱ૡ૱ૣૺઽૺૡૢૡ૽ૺ ૡૹૼઽૻૡૡૺઌૻૹૄૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૡ૾ૺૡૡૺઌૻૡૹ૿ૢૢઽૻ૱ૢૢૢઽૻૹ૾ૼૼૼઽૹ૽ૺૡ૽ઌૡૢઽૻૹૡ૽ૼઽૻૡ૾ૻૺૢૺૻૻૡૡૻૻૺૼૻઌૡ૽ૢૻૺૼૻૻ૱ૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૢૻૣ૽ૢ ૾૾૱ૡઽ૾ૺ૾ૣૺૼ૿ૡૢઽૼ૱ૢૢૢઽૼૹ૾ૼઌૻૡૡૺૹૣ૾ૼઽૻઌઽૡૺૡૻૻ૱ૹૹૻૹ૽૿ૢૺૹઽૻઌૡૺ૱ૹૢ૱ૡ૾ૺૡૼ૱ૢઌૻઌૡૡૢૻઌઽ૱ૢૼૡૼૺ

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a different group of 1,000 monks and the same architectural plan, chances are in the end, you would probably get a very similar, but not identical temple.

This is development.

One important difference between the building-the-temple analogy and the development of an actual organism is that the organism, even after it matures, never really stops being built, growing, and changing. An organism and all of its cells are dynamic, always interacting with and responding to its environment.

CHEMOTAXIS: THE SLIME MOLD VERSION

Peter Devreotes has done some of the more intriguing research in slime molds toward giving us a greater understanding of basic developmental processes, especially chemotaxis. As we mention above chemotaxis is defined as directed movement of cells in response to a chemical signal.

Chemical signals, like the sound of your voice calling the people in the analogy above, is most concentrated at its source and then, as we saw, decreases with distance from the source. As noted, this gradual change in concentration with distance is called a gradient. The theme of gradients returns again and again in developmental biology because gradients establish a difference in space, and exposure to a gradient establishes a corresponding difference in cell shape and orientation key to the initiation of many developmental processes.

For example slime mold amoebae use gradients to move toward bacteria, their food source; slime mold move and respond to a gradient of folate, a waste product of bacteria, and, therefore, a sign of their presence. Similarly, the major signal that establishes a gradient for single slime-mold cells to aggregate upon starvation, is cyclic AMP (cAMP) (Figure 4 Above). As we'll see, this molecule is also used for signaling in mammals and other multicellular organisms. Once a single slime-mold cell has run out of food, it emits waves of cAMP into its surrounding environment, establishing gradients of the molecule in all directions (Figure 4 Below).

Other single-celled slime mold amoebae respond to this cAMP signal through the process of chemotaxis. Chemotaxis, response to cAMP or any other gradient, can be broken down into three discrete steps—polarization, directional sensing and migration. In polarization a cell, like a monk in the example above, must first develop a difference on one of its sides versus the others in response to the chemical signal. The difference in





Figure 4: Above, molecular structure of cAMP. Below, as cAMP is released from the single slime-mold cell, a gradient of the molecule is established. Here the black line represents the cell, and the orange area the nearby external environment of the cell.

નચે रेश ९ हेन्। निर्मेर क्रुव रन्म विव क्रे खे खे खे . ٵؗڛٛڔڂۭ؆ڿ؆ػؚ؇ٮڂ؆ؿڝ؆ڡ؆ٳ र्वेग] सुग ૡુઽૻઌ૽૿ૺૡૻૢૡૢૻઽૻૡ૽ૺૼઽૻઽૺ૱ૡ૽૾ૺઌ૿ૻ૾ૻ૱ૡ૽૾ૺૡૻૹ૱ ୖ୳୵ୠ୶ୄଽ୶ୄୢୖଈ୕୲୵୶ୖଽ୶୵ଌୄୢୄଌ୕ୖ୷ୄୢ୶୳୶୵ୠ୕୶ୄଽ୶ୖୢୠୡୖ ୩ୣ୕ୣୢ୶ଽ୷ୄୢୗ୶୶ଽୡ୶୳୵ୡୢୢ୴୳ୄୖୄୢୗ୰ୖ୶ୣୄୗୄ ଵ୩[੶]ଘୖୖ୳୶ଞ୍ଜଞ୍ଜଟ୍ୟାଇଁଶ୍ୟାମ୍ନକ୍ରୀ ଶ୍ୱାର୍ଥିକ ଭିଂଖକନ୍ଦିଶଂ ૡ઼ૻૡૢઽ ૡ૽ૺૼઽૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽ૽ ૹ૽ૢૺ૽૿૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૢ૽ઌૻૻ૱ૼૺ૱





વેષા છેંત્ર છેનુ ત્યા ગવતા દ્વેંત્ર છેનુ ત્ય ગઠતા બેવા ને બાદ જે ત્સવા છેનુ ત્યતે ગદ તે આ જ્ઞાવતા વેંદ ગે નવે અજે વાંદ્ર ન गुंभाविणायाः गुरूपादि मविता स्थातगुरुपग्रि पद्मत्य वाया स्थापाया स्वापायाः स्वापायाः स्वापादाः स्वापादाः स्वापायाः स्वापाय ๚ธิทาทิ ลิร. รู รัพทุศสารทางเพรีร์ นดิเยรานร ยิรสมนาศิทริพนร เฉยูนรทัศท์ รุนราสายเซรา นरःग्रे) क्वयायः विषायक्नेन्यः सुःसुः धीवा इत्यायत्यार्थे वायेन्यः विषाया ग्रुणासुत्यः सुत्रः षीः ग्रिन्तुः भाया जुत्या

ने'यम्'नयेत्र'वा ॻऻठेण हि. ५२.२२ छेन भून भारे गावर गाविश द्वया भा खेग मुझुव भारे गद्द राधेव गाई में ने दी राषित क्रुव छे। ૹેચઃધેઃવર્તુચાર્ક્વઃ(તઘેઃસૈચા ૯ ક્ષેન્ડા)લેસઃઘ'તેરા દાર્જીચાર્વેવાવચારીચાર્જીઃક્ષુઃક્ષરઃવર્દી વૈઃવાર્ચેચાચેચચારુવા [ุ]ยูตาซูราซฺซูราศิราวิามาดิตาสพาฏิพาซ์รพายรายูรายาสาริพารราติาศ์ราศ์รา ર્ત્રભઃશેુ:**ફ્રચ**ઃચઃલિયા:રેન્

ઌ૽ૼૼૼૼઽ[੶]૽૽ૢ૾ૻૡૺૻૻ૱ૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૡૻૻૡૼૡ૱ૹ૽ૢ૿ૺૻ૽૾ૼૹૣઽૻૡઌ૿ૢ૽ૼૼઌૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૹ૽૾ૡ૽૿૱ૻૹ૾૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡૻૻ૽ૻ૱ૡૻ૽ઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૡૻ หูรารา สูรายๆ เฉยูรายารรามดุมารา เฉยูมพาธีรายายิยพาย์ เฉยูรายาเรา เกา ๆสรายใจเลาราให้ เลา ᠵ᠋ᢍ᠋ᢂ᠊᠋ᡊᡭ᠄ᡌᡃ᠊᠋᠊᠋ᢋᢄ᠋ᠴ᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠋᠄ᡩᢆᡆᢩᡰ᠋ᢦ᠋᠂ᠫᠴ᠋ᡨᢂ᠋ᠴᡅᠯᢅ᠆ᠬ᠈᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠿ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠆ᠴ᠋᠈ᡬᠯ *৾৸*ৄ৾য়৾৽ঀ৾৾৶য়য়৾৽ৠৢ৾৾৾৻ঀৢঢ়৾৾৾ঢ়৾৾য়৾৾৾৾

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नेरप्पायमञ्चेन्यतेवर्ायवर्षस्य

᠊᠋ᡩ᠈᠊᠋᠊᠋ᡒᡊᡄ᠆ᡔᡇᡎᡄ᠆ᠴᢙᡄ᠋ᢦ᠇᠄ᠷᢩᡆ᠊ᡃᢆᡃᢆᡃ᠋᠆ᡪ᠋ᡶ᠈᠕ᢅ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢍᠯᡆ᠂ᡅᠲ᠂ᡪᡄ᠄᠊ᡍᡃ᠂᠆ᠮᡬ᠉ᡬᡸ᠉᠄ᡬᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠙ᠴ᠋᠋ᢍ᠆ᠬᡆᢋ᠆᠋᠗

त्री'वे'त्रळ'र'त्रयेल'ग्री'र्र्र् प्वेव'रेन्।

બદા દે સાદે વલેવ ૬ શુવાય કે ખબા છે રાશે વેંદા

YOUR TURN: WHAT MOLECULES ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR CREATING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CELLS?

Think about our discussions in Life Sciences Primer II, Genes and Cells, about cells, their parts and how they work. Based on what types of molecules might be involved in setting up a difference, an asymmetry, within cells, a difference between one side of a cell and another based what you learned there, predict on response to a signal. Where in the cell do you think these molecules are? How might you experimentally identify candidates for such molecules, and then how would you test to see if you were correct in your hypotheses?

cAMP concentration outside the cell is translated into a difference inside the cell.

Not surprisingly, most of the molecules that establish an asymmetry or polarization in the slime mold cells are in the cell membrane, since that is the part of the cell in contact with the environment external to the cell where the cAMP gradient forms. Remember from LSPII that the cell membrane is composed of membrane proteins and a class of molecules called phospholipids. Several membrane proteins and at least one membrane phospholipid move into the part of the amoeba closest to where cAMP is released, that is, closer to the highest concentration of cAMP relative to that cell. In addition, some proteins involved in cell movement concentrate at the opposite end of that cell. So the proteins themselves form a kind of gradient inside the cell, reflecting the gradient outside the cell (Figure 5).

The cAMP-binding receptor proteins are called cAR's (cA for cAMP, R for receptor). cAR's are evolutionarily related in structure to receptors that bind signals called neurotransmitters in the nervous system. We discussed such receptors in LSPII and in the Neurosciences primers. It shouldn't be too surprising that cAR's and neurotransmitter binding receptors are similar in structure, given their similarity in function.

Interestingly, the cAMP-binding receptors are spread equally around the amoebae cell membranes and so are not concentrated on the end closest to high cAMP concentration. Clearly, though, the cAR's at that end are more occupied by cAMP than receptors at the other end, and this, together with the intracellular molecules that are more concentrated on the high-concentration end, helps send a signal to the movement proteins (actins and myosins) inside the cell, a signal that tells them to contract and move the cell toward the greater concentration of cAMP, eventually leading to the source.

In addition to activating cell directional movement, binding of cAR's at the high-concentration end of the cell also activates many other cellular processes. These include (1) turning on the genes encoding the proteins that cluster at one end or another of the amoebae and (2) activating the production by each cell of more waves of cAMP that leave the cell and begin to polarize, orient, and move other amoebae. These amoebae



Figure 5: Gradients form within a cell in response to the cAMP gradient outside of that cell. Here one cell (in blue and green) is attracted to the gradient of cAMP released by the other (in orange). The blue and green within the attracted cell represents gradients of molecules within that cell.

નચે રેશ ५ झ सुर वी છે રે બ ह युन य दे भ कि . कु द ૹ૽ૺ[੶]ૹ૾૱૾૽૱ૡૢૡૻૡૢૡૻૹ૽૿ૢ૽ૡ૽૱ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૱૱ૡૻૡ૽ૻ ક્રયાયાંને લદ્દાં લગ્નુવાળા લદ્દીત્ર ર્શેન ચેંગ્દ્ર ભૂટાલુ र्देबाबराग्वयानदेखासुराने केना (वे सराठवा શુઃ)લ્લઽૻૻઌૡ૱ઽૺૹૹ૽ૣૼૼૼૼઽૻૻૡ૾૽૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૹૢ૾ૢ૱ૹૺૹ धैः ५८ तृषः द्युः योः ग्वत्रः गविषः ग्रीः भ्रेंगवा सः सुः ५ गुगवा माम्राहेवार्येना ने स्नित्तानगामित्रास्तास्तराने दे र्शिव ग्री. ᢟᠯ᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋ᡨᡄᢦᠠ᠄ᢓᢆ᠋᠊ᠯ᠄ᡗ᠋᠋᠋᠆᠆᠆᠂ᢓᡄ᠆ᡁ᠋᠋ᠿᢌ᠄᠊ᡜ᠂ᢋ᠋ᠵᡬᡭ᠄ᡬᠯ᠋᠋ᡏ वर्णा ५८ मा हुया ग्री पात्र राष् मि मा स्थाय दे आर्के वाया ইনা



૽૾ૺૺ૾ૡઽૢૹૻૻૻૢૻૢૼૡૻૹૢ૾ૺ૾૽ૡ૽૾૱ૻૻૡૻઌ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૿૾ૺૼૼૼઌૡૻઌૡૻઌૡૻૡ૽૾ૡૻૹ૾૾ૡૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૡૻૻ૱૾ૡ૽ૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ร้ัสุลาตชั่ยๆลาฐีราวารกา ผยรายสุลาฐีรายิราวารการการการระเพิ่มาสามริสาวรายายิลายีกายลา

ૡઽૢૹૻૻૻૢૻૼૡૻૡઽૢૻ૾ૻઌૻૹ૾૽ૼઌૻૹ૽૾ૺૹ૽૾ૺૡૻ૾ૺઌૻ૾ૹ૽ૻઌૺઌ૽ૻૹ૽ૺ૱ૼૡૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૡ૾૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૼૡૻ૱૱૱૱ૡૡૻ૽૱ૡૡૡ ૹૻ૾ૼૹૻૹ૾૾ૺૼૼૼૼઽૻૻ૱ૢૢૻૡૡ૱ૡૻૡૻૡૡૻ૱ૹૢૻૡૹ૽ૹ૽ૹૻ૾ૡ૽૿ૡૼૢૹૻૡૻૡૼૢૹૻૡૼૡૡૼૢૻૡૻૹ૽ૼૼૼૡૻૹ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૼૹ૽ૺ૱ૻ૽ૡૼૹૻૡૼૺ૱૱ૻ૽ૡૼૡૻૡૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ ॑*ॻ*ड़ॱय़ॺॖऀॺॱॺऻॺॕॱॻऻॸॕॸॱॼॖॖऀॸॱॕॻॸॱॸॺॱय़ॸॖऺॻऻॺॱॼॖॖ॓ॸॱऄॸॱऻक़ॾक़ॱय़ॺॖऀॺॱय़ॸऀॱॻक़ॗॖॸॱॸॕॱॻॸॖॻॱख़॔ॱख़ॖॸॱॸॆॸॱॠॻॺॱॻॸॱॸॖॱ

<u>क्र</u>ो:न्योंग:यःवियाः येवा

इस्रमायः cAR's क्षे। वर्षित्रः क्रुवाको क्षेस्राये व्युवाके के स्वाये व्युवाके के स्वाये के स्वाय २८५ूषाह्त्यायार्थी मान्द्रा R देश्वे येव यरार्थी मारेद्र्या) याँकरक्तुवाक्षे क्षेत्राधायदुषाह्त्याञ्च येव यायदी द्वा नरायी ૹઌૣ૽ૼૹ[ૻ]ઌૻ૾ઌૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૡૺઌ[ૻ]ૡૹૢ૱૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹ૾ૢૺૡૻૹૢ૾ૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻ૱ૡૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૼૡ૾ૻૡ૽૿ૡૡ૽ૺૡૻ૽ૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽૿ૡ ૽૿૽ૺૺૼૼ૱ૣૼૡ૽ૼૼૡ૾ૺૼૼૹ૾ૣૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻઌૺઌ૾૾ૡૻઌૻઌૻૡૻ૾૱ૡૻૡૼૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૱ૡૻૡૼૡ শ্বন্টিশ্ব' ร์จระสะสมิสายราคสิราฐีรายิร่ายคำมิจายาๆดิจาฏิเลอๆจากที่ร่าครามสูรจาสู้เพิร์ายาคราร์สมสรา

(न्ये:रैष्ण् ५)]

᠊᠋ᡲ᠂᠋᠋ᡭᠯ᠄ᡩ᠋᠀᠋᠊ᡸᠡᡃᢡᠧᢄᡃᢆ᠍ᡷᡬᠬᡃᢆ᠋᠊ᢆᡃᢆᢧ᠂ᡏ᠋ᡬ᠊ᠬᡃ᠋ᡁᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᠳ᠋ᡊ᠊᠋᠋ᢋ᠂ᠺᡬᠯᡘ᠊᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡍᢩᡆ᠄᠔᠄᠗᠉᠄ᡬ᠘ᠺᢋᢩᢂ᠄ᢋᠬ᠋ᢆᡚ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡜᢈ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡰᡭᠯ᠋᠉᠄ᢍᡆᡰᢂ᠉᠋ᠬᡃᡗ᠂ᡪᠵ *ઘ*૬'ગૃરુભ્લક્ષ્ડુન્ટ્ર પ્લેટ્સ સુદર્ખી રહે 'ને પ્યેન્ન પ્લેટ 'ને પર પ્લે પ્લેન્ટ પ્લેટ પ્લેટ પ્લેટ પ્લેન્ટ પ્લે પ્લેન્ટ પ નરુષાન્વર્ગુનાઓ ને કે સાસારાને આવાલેવાયાને સવિત્ર જીવાયા છે છે આ ગામ છે. આ ગામ આ ᠵ᠋᠋᠋ᡩ᠋ᢋᡄᢂ᠋᠋ᠳᢄ᠂᠋ᢙᠵ᠄ᠴᡄ᠋ᢂ᠂ᠴ᠋᠋ᡩᡩᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᢒᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡷ᠋ᡪ᠋᠉᠄᠋ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᡜ᠋ᢩᡌ᠄᠊ᡆᡎᢆᡐᠴ᠈ᢆᡜ᠆᠋ᡘᢁ᠋ᢆᠼ᠋ᡎᡭᡆ᠋ᢩᡱ ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਫ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼੶੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਜ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶੶ਜ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑ੶੶੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਸ਼ੑਜ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਸ਼

นนิ้าที่สามู่ราสมสาผริรายรารสายรารที่สา มาลหาริรายราชิสายรายรมสายดินานสูราสสายสายสายสายสายรายสายรายรายรายรายราย

ᢔᢅ᠋᠋᠆ᢧᢧᢆ᠊᠋᠋ᡷ᠋᠊᠋ᠬ᠈ᢅᡘᢦ᠋᠋ᡜ᠋ᡸ᠋᠋ᢋᡄ᠋ᡙᠬᠬ᠉ᢣᢩᢩᡦᡄᠴᡆᡭ᠄᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡦ᠆᠋ᠴᠵ᠍᠊᠍ᢋᢂ᠋ᢦᡊᠭ᠋᠊ᢐ᠋᠊ᢩᢋᠬ᠋᠋ᠳᡄ᠋᠋᠋ᠴ᠆ᡎ᠋᠋᠆ᡆ᠋ᢆᢂ᠋ᠴᢓ

then follow the same processes and begin to line up behind the first cell. Then other cells line up behind that one, and the result is a stream of amoebae seen in the video moving toward the original center of aggregation from which cAMP was produced (Figure 6).

SLUG OR NOT

At this point, the aggregated amoebae of thousands of cells have a developmental decision to make—a decision which depends on the environment. The aggregate may form a slug that searches for food, or alternatively it may form a stalk and fruiting body full of spores. Just prior to this decision, the cells in the aggregate begin to take on different personalities from each other. The process by which cells become different during development is called **differentiation**.

Remember that before aggregation, the cells all change their core activity, in the sense that they orient themselves and their molecules in such a way so that they move along the cAMP gradient toward the highest level of concentration; in this case, the cells are all changing from doing the same amoebae-searching-for-food activity into cells doing the same amoebae-moving-in-one-defined-direction activity.

Now, after aggregation, the story shifts. We have many cells in one bag/ aggregate—a nearly-multicellular organism; the cells now have a more direct relationship to each other, they communicate with each other, and orient themselves to form one organism with cells in different places and in different relation to each other (Figure 7). Now the cells change their personalities. This is differentiation.

The relationships of the cells to each other in these pre-slug/pre-stalk aggregates are determined by their past history, which thereby helps determine their future. The cells move around in an organized fashion, probably determined again by cAMP gradients (both within the mound and the migrating slug), and sort themselves out. The 'hungriest' cells, that is the cells who first sent out the cAMP signal to gather all the cells together, form a tip that rises up out of the aggregate. Other cells gather in the back to become spore cells. The tip becomes either the head of the slug or the stalk of the fruiting body.

The personality or differentiation state of the cells in this aggregated nearmulticellular organism is based on the proteins that are produced within particular populations of cells. Which proteins are produced is determined by a cell's environment. Developmental biologists classify cells in the aggregate or mound into three major types: those destined to become stalk cells (pre-stalk), those destined to become spore cells (pre-spore), and a group of cells that become the disk or spore cup of the fruiting body



Figure 6: Gradients develop within nearby cells and cause them to move toward the original source of cAMP.



Figure 7: Cells begin to differentiate. Some of the cells are pre-spore cells, others are pre-stalk cells.



Figure 8: The pre-spore cells develop into spore cells (which make up the spore cup), and the pre-stalk cells develop into stalk cells. Once they have reached their final stage, they are determined.
નયે જેવા ગાય જેવા છે ગાય જેવું નું છેવા ચાયતે સાસુન ૻૼૼૼૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૡઌ૽ૻૢૻૼૡૻૻ૱ૡૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૡૻૡૻ ਫ਼ੑਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ শ্ব:ধ্রন สุ่มพารรารร่าๆ มองามรู่ๆาๆ มูราริมางาพัสา



ळेन् न्यते रत्वी र्डेयाया ने न्वा यश्व वात विवा र्श्वेव खे <u>઼</u>઼ૣૡૻ૱ૡૻૢૡૻૹૻૣૡ૱ૡૹૢૻ૱ૡ૽૾ઽૻ त्यातःवियाः र्जेुटः <u>બષા બ અદેવ ૬ કેવ</u>ષા પર તશુરા



านี้เริง เกาสาวการ์านาร์เนราย์เนามายิ संसुरानगणीवराञ्चगरुर्वानणां नेर्वाससुराने ક્રચર્ચ વર્ષિંત્ર સુવ હો હોય ચે વર્ત્ ચં સ્વાગી દેવા અવે ୶ୄୠ୷୲ୠ୵୶ୄୖୄୖୢୄୖୢ୰ୖୢଌ୕ଡ଼୲୶୲ୠୄୄୄୠୣୄ୶୲୳୳ୖୖ୵ୄୖୠୣ



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અદ્દાર્વ લગ્ન જોઈ વાય છે દુર તે છે દેર તે છે દુર તે છે દેર તે છે દેર તે છે દેર તે છે

ने न्वार्श्व र्श्वरि यन्त्र यदे हुट न्व राग्री य देश याह के ही न या ૾ૡઽૻઌૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૡૻઌૼૻૹૢૣૢૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹ૾ૺૹ૾ૹ૾ઌ૾ૺૡઽૢૹૻૻૢૡૻઌ૽૽૾ૢૺૼ૽૾ઌૣ૱ૻઌૢ૾ૡ૾ૺૡૻૡ૾ૡ૱ૻઌ૾ૡ૽ૺૡૻૡૡ૱ૹ૽ૣૺૡૡૡ૱ૹ૽ૣૺ ने विकिशगति मिन्दु र या अस्य मान्य) इयं प्रस्य वाहन र विवय गुरूप विवय के र भी न ही न ने प्रविन दु ख खुर <u></u>র্ঝমার্বদ'শ্বরস্তুর'রের্জঝারগ্রীণা'শ্রুদার্শ্বনমানগ্রী ঀ৾ঀয়৻য়৻য়ৢ৻৾য়য়য়ড়৾ঀয়৾৾য়ঀ৾৾য়ঀ৾৾ঢ়৻৾ঀয়ৄৼ৾ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৾ঀ৾৾ঢ়৾৾ড়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ড়৾য়৾য়৾ড়৾য়৾য়৾৾৽৻ঀ৾য়৾ড়৾য়৾য়৾ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৾৾৾ ह्रयमः कुपः र्धुणमः सुः ५८ गमेंगायीमः मेंदर ये दा सुरः २ भया में दिया में दिया में दे के दे के

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᠙᠋ᡭᠯ᠊᠋ᠵᡃᢆ᠍ᢓᠵ᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠵᡜᡝ᠋᠋ᡏᡏᠯᢩᢂ᠇ᠴᡃᢙᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡆ᠋᠋ᢃᢆ᠙ᠺ᠋ᡩ᠙ᢟᢩ᠍᠍ᢂ᠙ᠭᢩᢂ᠄ᡦᢧᠴ᠋ᡬᠻ᠅ᡬᡀ᠋ᢤ᠋᠉᠋ᢓᠴ᠄ᡘᠯᢅᡷ᠋ᡷᡄ᠈ᠮᡝᢆ᠋ᢋ᠉ᡚᠵ ؞ڔڷڡٚڗۥ؈ۣٙڟڗۿۥۿڡ؞ؽۥۮڔ؆ۥڿ؞؈؈ٛڛٵۼ؉ٮؠڵٵ؇ۥ؈ۣ٦ؚ؈ٛڹؽ؞ۮڔ؞ڛٳۿٚۺۊۜۿڹڟ؆؈ٛؾٷٛڛٵ؇ۥؿ؈ڡۣ؆ڹڋ؇ۦڴٵ؊

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वगागर्रेन ने' ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੵੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑ<u></u>ਫ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑ ইনা

*ଞ୍ଗୄୖ*୶୶੶୶ୠ੶ୄୢଽ୵୶ୄୄ<mark>ଞ</mark>ୢ୷୵୷୶ୡୖ୲୶ୄୄୄୠୄ

ઞઢ્ઠવ લક્ષેવ ને મળા બાખા માલે વે બાર્ષે માહુવ છે છે અમે બનુ જ દ્વારે વા અમ ગામ બાજ દ્વારા માલે બનુ જ દ્વારા મું

(Figure 8). When cells reach their final state of differentiation, they are **determined**.

STALK/SPORE FORMATION

Let's assume that our near-multicellular mound of slime mold cells aggregates and, rather than sensing more food in the area and becoming a slug that goes and eats that food, the aggregate mound of cells senses no food, so instead begins to develop into a stalk and spore.

There is constant feedback communication among the cells and their external environment, which in turn affects their internal environment and personality. This should remind you very much of our discussion in LSPI/Evolution of the ongoing and circular conversation between the environment and the organisms in it. Environmental change affects an organism and its behavior, which then affects the environment, which then affects the organism. This is also true at the cellular level.

So, each cell in the developing slime mold, or in any developing organism (while and after it develops!), is in constant communication with its environment. 'The environment' here for each cell includes: other slime mold cells nearby, space between the cells nearby, space outside the mound. This environment sends each cell information, to which the cell responds, thereby changing the environment.

A genetic approach to understanding how development works is to remove genes suspected to be important from the slime molds and then observing what happens. For example, if gene X is thought to be necessary for amoeba aggregation, scientists remove gene X and then see if aggregation still occurs. If it still does as normal, the conclusion is gene X and its product are not necessary for aggregation; if aggregation doesn't occur or occurs but not very well, gene X is then shown to be at least partially involved in the aggregation process.

As we mentioned above, a critical question in developmental biology is how cells take on different personalities. The differentiation into pre-stalk or pre-spore cells happens soon after aggregation in slime molds. After the mound/aggregate develops, cAMP levels increase to a high level; it is no longer released in waves. This cAMP acts through its receptors to activate transcription factors, which turn on specific genes. Genes that are only expressed in cells that eventually become uniquely one type of cell are known as 'markers' for that type of cell. For example, in the slime mold mound, cells that begin to express the ecmA gene (that encodes a protein involved in sticking cells together) become only spore cells. So, ecmA is a marker for spore cells: if you find ecmA protein

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ગુદ ને ઇચાવદ્યુષા ઇદાવર ચાંચુવ છે| ને યારે વાયા સ્થા X ફવાયા છવાને વર્ડ થાયુદાવ ચુવા પવે છે ને સાંચ દાલુદા ลย[ุ]สายนายิ่าสุขายามส์ลขานรัสายนายลูสายร่า ૿૽ૺૡૻૡૢઽ_ૻૡ૱ૹૡૻૹૼૡૻૹ૾ૢૺૼૡૻ૱ૡૻૡૼૡ૱ૢૻૹ૾ૺૡૻૡ૾૾૱૾૾૾ૻૡ૽ૻઌ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾૾ૡૻૡ૾૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ઌ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ઌ૾ באיעה יש שרילי הביוד אלי ולשייםריק ישריאק יעה אקידים אישיאי באייר אלי אישאייעי שישרילי איש אייעי איש אייעי איש "अर्ळेवन्हणुष्गः"सुन्देषग्वद्दिवन्धेनन्धनेना नधेनन्त्रा सुणासुमणी सुन्नम्तर्भेदन्त्रीन्त्रीन् सुन्नम्त्राद्वेषणभाषेषा <u>स्र</u>श्ले से लेख ले (श्व श्वर क्य करे जा रे ज ૹ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૹૺૹ૾ૹૺ૽૾ૺૼૼૺ૽૾ૣ૽ૻૣ૽ૻૣૻૹૻઌ૾ૻૼૡૼૻૻઽ૽ૡૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૡૻૹૻૣ૱ૡ૽ૢૺૡૻૡૢઽૻ૾૾ૡ૾૾૱ૻઌ૾૱ૻઌ૱ૢૡૻૡ૱૱ૻ૾ૡૼ૱ૡ૽ૢૺૡૻૡૢઽૻૡૼઌૄૻૢૢૢૢૢૻઽૻઽૺૹ ৸৲ৼ৾য়৽ঀ৾ৼ৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀৢয়৾৾৾৾য়৾ঀ

रैषग्राह्सस्यावयसाहयाः श्री अश्व स्वायत्ते 'क्षेये यस्य स्वयेया क्रुत् 'रेश श्री 'यसाह त्याया क्रुसायें व छेत हि सुर में 'असाह र वसाय पारसा के पर पह पास का स्वार्थ पर र छेर पह छेर पह का खा स्वार के खा स्वार के स्वार के स्वार यह से 'असाह र वसाय पारसा के पर पह मां स्वार के पर पह छेर पह छेर पह का खा स्वार के लिया यह से 'असाह र वसाय पारसा के पर पह जा स्वार पाया हि स्वार के प्रायत्त्र के स्वार के स् त स्वार के स्वार के स्वार के स्वार के स्वार का स्वार के स्वार का स्वार के स्वार का स्वार के स्वार के स्वार का स्वार के स्वार के स्वार का स्वार के स्वार के स्वार के स्वार

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present in a slime mold cell, you know that cell is or will become a spore cell.

Whether a cell becomes a pre-stalk or a pre-spore cell is mostly a result of which stage of the cell cycle the particular cell is in when it receives the starvation signal (pulses of cAMP). Remember from LSPII that all cells—whether in unicellular or multicellular organisms—participate in their own individual life cycle, known as the cell cycle (Figure 9), which involves doubling the DNA and all the material within a cell and then dividing (through the process of mitosis) into two new cells. Slime mold cells grow and divide. Slime mold cells that happen to be in S-phase of the cell cycle (undergoing DNA synthesis) when starvation occurs, for example, differentiate primarily into pre-stalk cells.

In addition, cAMP is important *inside* the cells for sending signals involved in gene activation. After the initial activation of cell-type-specific genes, the pre-stalk and pre-spore cells move to different areas of the aggregate mound, so that the pre-stalk cells are in the front third of the developing



organism and the pre-spore cells are in the back two-thirds (Figure 9). This sorting probably occurs in response to extracellular gradients also, perhaps cAMP and other factors. These signal gradients are also important in establishing the relative proportion of pre-stalk to pre-spore cells. Genes that play a role in slime mold development after cAMP signaling have been identified. When these genes are removed or mutated, the relative proportion of cell types is altered.

Figure 9: The cell life cycle. Before mitosis, each chromosome duplicates to form two identical chromosomes called sister chromatids. Mitosis separates the sister chromatids into two separate diploid daughter cells.

Other molecules are then synthesized to signal the 'terminal differentiation' of pre-spore and pre-stalk cells, and they become determined, that is, they are then mature spore cells and stalk cells whose fates are set. Many of these molecules that serve as 'determining molecules' in slime mold carry out similar functions in insect, frog, and human development.

PROGRAMMED CELL DEATH IN HUMANS

As we noted earlier, slime mold stalk cells die as a natural part of their development. These cells sacrifice themselves, program themselves to die, so that other cells (the spore cells) containing similar genetic information to theirs, can live. Therefore, as you might imagine, the regulation of programmed cell death, technically termed **apoptosis**, is much like the development of living cells—carefully monitored.

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ષાયાનું મુંચુરાયાય છે છે ગુમાં આવેલી પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્રાથમિક પ્

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૾ઌૺૺૼૣૻ૽૽ૼૡૢૢૺૹૻઌ૽૾ૺ૽ૹૢૢ૾૱૽ઽૼૼૹૻઌ૽૾ૢૺૻૻૣૹૢ૱૱ઌૢૻૺૺૹ૾૾ઌ૽ઌ૽ૺૡૻ૽ઌૻઌૻઌ૽ૼ૱ૡૻઌૼૡૻ૱ૻૡૡ૽ૢ૱ૻૡ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૼ૱ૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૺૡૼ૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱ ગલવ દ્વાયાયાય વાર્શ્વ દ્વારાય દ ॸॾॱॡॺॖऀॺॱॻॖऀॱॸॕॱॸॕॶॸॱॻऄॱॻॾॸॱॻऄॺॱॾॺॱॻॱढ़ॸऀॱ ૡૼ૱ૹૻૠૢૼૺૼૼૢૼૼ૾ઌઌૢૻ૾ઌ૱ઽૼૡૼૢૼૻઙ૾ૢૻઌૣૹૻૻઌ૽ૼૺૻૡૻૡૢઽઽૢૼૻૹ૾ૼૡૼઙ૽ૢૺ૾ઌૻ૱ઽૼૡૼૢૼૼૼઙ૾ૢૻઌૣૹૻઌૡૺૼૡૻૡૢઽૻઽ૽ૼઌૣૹૻઌ૽ૼૡ૾ૢૺૹૻૻઽૻૡ૾ૺઽૢઌઽૼ યવ રહુંવ 'ફેંશ્વ'ગરુશ્વ'શું બર્ચેર રહેનુ 'બેશેવો જીૂર' યવે કેવાય ખેની ૡૡ૾ૻૠ૾ૼૢૣ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻ૾ૹ૾ૺૹૡ૽૾ૺ૾૾ઌ૾૿૾ૡૻ૽૱ૡઙ૾ૣ૾૱ૡઙ૾ૣ૾૱ૡ ๛๛ัรุตุลาสัราพีราชิรา ริตุลาสุสาวราวที่ชาวอราวที่สายผล พราสาวาที่ขางเรารูราชิตายกรายสารรา



શેુ સામુન રેસાવર્ષે સાર્ત્સવાયાર્થે નાર્જ્સ સુંદ રે રે વલેવા

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ૡઙૡૢઽ૱ઽૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૹૄૢ૱ૹૺૹૺૹ૱૽૾ૡઽૣૹૡૣઌૡ૽ૼૼઽ भग्वत्को सःसुरुष्ठेः ज्ञवास्र वर्णे रेगेषः स्य *भविःस्यःसुरः* द्वअष्यः स्वर्द्धान् वि्रायुव्यः की रिं की र नमा अवर्त्त्ते राज्याया अर्देव राष्ट्री में मार्ट्य खुर ٵؗۥૡૢૹ੶૱૽ૻૣૻૣૡૹ૱ૡૢૻૻ૱૽ૻૡૼૹ૽ૻૹ૽૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ૻ૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ ૱ૡૺૺૺૺૡૢઌૡૡઌ૱૾ૻૡૼૡૼૡૢ૾ૺૡૻ૱ૡૻૡૼૡૡૼૡ૾૽ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૡ૽ ૡૢઽ[੶]ૠૹૹ੶ૡૹૼૼૼૣૡૡ૽ઌઙ૽ૢ૽ઽૢૢઽૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૼ૾ૢ૽ૼૢ૾ૺૢઽૣઽૼૼૹ

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Think about it: if cells, like the stalk cells that are 'supposed' to die, do not, the organism could have serious problems. Let's also consider examples of apoptosis that occurs in human development. Well-studied examples occur during the development of our feet and hands and during the development of our brains. Our feet and hands originally develop with skin cells between the digits, like the webbing that ducks have on their feet. Later in development, before birth, the webbing cells die a programmed death, leaving us with our individual, moveable fingers and toes. In some people, this cell death doesn't occur. In this case, though, this is not a major problem, because the skin between digits can be easily and painlessly removed by physicians, and the fingers and toes heal quickly.

On the other hand, in the case of our brains' development, when normal cell death does not occur in development, the result can be very deleterious. To give us a full appreciation of this case, we'll need to take a deep breath and discuss how what we learned from slime molds can be applied to organisms like us—how things are similar (and different) between the two species.

So far we have outlined general strategies slime mold (and most cells) use during development—providing a few specific examples to give you an idea of what's involved. Although developmental biologists do know many more details of slime mold development than we have discussed here, we are still a long way from a thorough understanding of the process—and this is just in slime molds. However, in our discussions here so far and in the additional work biologists have done, we *have* been able to delineate some of the basic questions in developmental biology with which we started and even have started to provide a few answers. Such answers from organisms like slime mold allow scientists a way into studying key processes of development—cell growth and proliferation and movement, signaling, differentiation, and pattern formation—in other organisms.

A REVIEW OF THE BASICS OF DEVELOPMENT

Before we extend what we have learned from slime mold to human development, let's review the basic principles of developing cells:

- Cells **divide**. As we discussed briefly here and in LSPII, the timing and location of cell division is regulated.
- Similarly, cells **die** in a regulated fashion.
- Cells **move** to form organized and different patterns.
- This living, dividing, moving, and dying of cells is monitored and

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नक्रुरःविनः चेनः व रदी स्रर हे।

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*ਜ਼ਫ਼ਁ*ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੵੑ੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶੶ਖ਼ੑ

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regulated largely through their communication with each other.

- This **communication** is accomplished through **signaling molecules** that:
 - 1. distribute through space in concentration **gradients**, resulting in differential effects on recipient cells
 - **2. bind to receptors** to activate a series of intracellular reactions to effect change.
- During development, due to differential gene expression, cells **differentiate** in response to these signals, which result in different personalities and functions.
- Mature cells are **determined**, set to maintain one personality or function.

Now, let's take these basic principles and apply them to some examples of development in humans.

Because evolution saves strategies across time that work, and because it is much easier, faster, and more ethically justifiable to experiment with slime mold than with humans, we do just that. When we discover an important molecule in signaling, for example, cAMP in slime mold, we can test in humans and see if that molecule is also important for signaling and development in us (it is); and conversely, if we discover a human development disease involving cAMP signaling, we can test drugs and therapies and study their mechanisms first in slime molds and other organisms before testing them in humans.

So, what about us humans? How do we develop similarly and differently than slime mold?

DEVELOPMENT OF THE HUMAN BRAIN: INTEGRATING LIFE SCIENCES AND NEUROSCIENCE

We will now apply the basic principles to the development of the human nervous system we discuss in the Neuroscience primers. This discussion will also integrate the Life Sciences Primers I and II, because it is the theory of evolution that underlies this development story and because it is cells and their genes that make all this possible, that are the substrates for biological phenomena.

Let's begin at the beginning and then work our way back to cell death and developing brains.

<u></u> न`वै`८`ळॅंब्र`गें८'गब्रि'द्य'ग्वेदि'र्स'दद्देंव'त्त्रअब्र'नगर'र्स'ळंव'रेग'गे'र्श्वेव'दर्गेदे'नेग'ये्र'र्न्य'र्न् ग्रेंब'श्वर' ગુષ્ર માંદે સેવે નુવર જ આવા વી વર્જર બચે બ છે ર સેવાય વસે વર્ષે વર્ષ છે. <u>ग्रेंबग्सूतर्वत्रेकं र्</u>ज्ञेणळवर्त्तणणी ᠵ᠋ᡬᠯ᠋᠉᠊ᡘᢅᡭ᠙ᡘᢩᡆ᠋ᠴᡃᡢᡭᡆᢣ᠄᠊᠋ᡎᢩᠵ᠄ᠴ᠄᠊ᡌ᠄ᡪ᠋ᢋᢄ᠆ᡪᡄᡃᡸ᠋ᡃᢋᡄ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋ᢤ᠋ᢋ᠉ᡬᢓᢩᡄ᠆ᠴᡬ᠄ᢓᢧᠵ᠄ᡬ᠋᠋

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<u> ૡઽ</u>ૠૻઽઽૠ૽ૺૡઽૠૡૺૻૻૼૹૻૻ૽ૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻૡ૽૾ૡૻૻ૱૱

<u>ને</u>શન શેલે બર્શે નવે ગવત જુદ જ તે છે તર લેવા ખેત નથા શે સચાય જ ત્યને બારી દુર બુવા જે તે જુવા સુદ દ દ

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*ॾ्रेट्-*रेग्रबान्द्री'नर'गर्विय'र्ये॥

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FERTILIZATION AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT

Although studying slime molds gives us a lot of information about development of other organisms, including humans, they are limited in what they can tell us about mammalian development. One major reason is that slime molds are haploid organisms, that is, they only contain one complement of their genes. This is as opposed to most multicellular organisms, which are diploid. You, for example (if you remember from LSPII), are diploid, that is, you contain two copies of almost all of your genes—one from your mother and one from your father (Figure 10). The major exception to this rule is, if you are a male, you have only one copy of all the genes on your sex chromosomes (Figure 11). This is because males have only one X chromosome (which came from their mothers) and only one Y chromosome (which came from their fathers), so any gene on either of those **chromosomes only exists in one copy in each cell of a male. Females have two copies of** all their genes, since they have two X chromosomes. Otherwise, humans normally have two copies of all genes.

Through a distinctive kind of cell division called meiosis, humans and other diploid organisms develop cells called gametes or sex cells. Meiosis is very similar to the process of mitosis described in LSPII (Figure 12), but has an additional round of division that results in haploid cells. Mitosis of a diploid cell results in two diploid cells; meiosis of a diploid cell results in four haploid gametes. The evolutionary advantages (and disadvantages) of meiosis and sexual reproduction are discussed in previous Life Sciences Primers.

Meiosis in males produces sperm and meiosis in females produces eggs (or ova). These sperm and eggs, collectively known as gametes or germ cells, unlike any other cells in our bodies, are haploid. When two diploid organisms mate, the haploid female egg can be fertilized by the haploid

male sperm, resulting in a diploid fertilized egg. This egg then undergoes mitosis to make two cells and the resulting cells continue to divide to eventually make an entire organism.

In the remainder of this primer's discussion of development, we will take what we've learned about development from **the haploid organism slime mold and apply and expand it to examine how this one diploid cell—the fertilized egg—is able** that make up a body. Along the way, we will



Figure 10: In diploid cells, each individual chromosome has a homologous pair. One set comes from the mother, the other set comes from the father.

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Figure 11: The normal male human karyotype. Females have two X chromosomes, while males, as shown, have one X chromosome and one Y-chromosome.



Figure 12: Meiosis is another form of cell division. Unlike mitosis, meiosis involves two rounds of cell division. In meiosis, homologous pairs of duplicate chromosomes join to form tetrads. Thus, the first round of division separates the duplicate chromosome pairs, while the second round separates the chromatids.

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^{*}ईव र्योते [•]श्चेंन नेन स्या सम्बन्ध के स्वत्र स्वत्य स

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explore the relatively simple developmental strategies organisms use many of which we saw in the slime mold case— to optimize survival and develop astonishing complexity. Using the nervous system as our example, we will examine the development of whole populations of cells of similar personality (known as organs and organ systems).

FERTILIZATION AND CHEMOTAXIS

A mature sperm cell fuses with a mature egg cell through a process called fertilization. Females of reproductive age, monthly release an egg from their ovaries. These females have moved through the developmental stage known as puberty, which we will discuss later. Changes during this time—which usually occurs between ages 12-15—alter the cells and organs of people so that they now are able to reproduce. In males, sperm are made for the first time and then produced daily. In females, eggs, all of which they have had since before birth, now mature, one per month, until women reach the post-reproductive stage called menopause at age 45-50.

The egg released from the ovaries travels through the fallopian tubes (Figure 13). During sexual intercourse, the male sperm enter into the female's vagina, and then some into her uterus. There, a very few sperm undergo a chemical process called **capacitation**. During capacitation, sperm undergo changes in cell membrane proteins and other changes analogous to those that occur in slime mold amoebae when they sense cAMP. And, in fact, cAMP is also involved in capacitation of human sperm. Capacitated sperm, upon binding cAMP and like slime mold, become more mobile and are able to enter the Fallopian tube, where one sperm can fertilize the egg (*if* this happens to be at the stage of the monthly female cycle (see below) at which the egg is present there).

How do you think the sperm are able to 'find' the egg? Think about the slime mold cells and how they were able to orient and aggregate themselves. In much the same way, the sperm finds the egg by chemotaxis—a gradient of chemicals. Chemicals are released by the egg and its surrounding fluids. At least five or six chemicals—including hormones and some short proteins—are involved in chemotaxis of sperm to the egg.

Just as the process that attracts the sperm—chemotaxis—is conserved across millions of years of evolution from slime mold to humans, so are the events later in the developmental process. Like the single cells of the slime mold, sperm have specific receptors for the chemoattractants that gather on the side of the sperm where that chemical is at its highest level. And, again similarly, the signal of their binding is transferred to the movement proteins of the sperm, so that it moves toward the source of the chemoattractant, and other genes are activated that are important for



Figure 13: Lutenizing hormone causes ovulation, or the release of an egg during a woman's menstrual cycle. The egg moves from the ovary through the Fallopian tubes.

รุนิ: ริพ เพ เพมพารมราที่ราวรัสาริ ยูรามิรา ୖଵୣୣୄୖୖ୩୲୷୲୷ଈୡ୶୵ୡୖ୲୶୵ୄୖୢ୶୳ଵ୶୲୳୶୶୶୲୵୶ଽୄୢୖୖୠ୵୲ બેંન ને ભ્રુંતે વિશ્વર્યન્સ મેને પ્રથમ છે. તે છે. *દ્દેજાપચ્ચચાનચત્ર*ાલદ્વેન સુવાનજીન નું તે પ્રેન્ગ પ્રત્ને ન



ૡૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૢૹૢૢૣઌૢૻૡૢઽૻૡૹૻૡઌ૽ૼૺૻ૽ઌૼૼૼૼૼૹ૾૾ૡ૽૾ઌ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૹૻ૾૾ૡૻૺૢૼૼૻૡ૾૾ૻઌ૾ૻૻ૽ૢૼૻૡ૾૽ૼૻ૽ૼૻ૾ૹૻ૾ૡ૾ૻ૽ૻૼૻૢૼૻૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽૾ૡૻ૾૾૾ૼૡૻ૾૾૾ૡૻ૾ઌૻ૾૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡૻ मुदःग्वह्यग्रबाद्यात्रायां में प्रदेवरा विद्यात् विद्यात् विद्यात्र का राज्य का क [ૻ]બૅનપલે લુવાને માસ્યાલો વાય છે. આ પ્રાયુધ પ્રાય પ્રાયુધ પ देवे किंगा वर्ष गी त्या वा होता ही सबाब रामसरांवा दे वा प्रदेश का प्रधान के त्या राम के दिया के देवे का प्रधान के किंगा क के किंगा के क के किंगा के किंग के किंगा के क के किंगा के क

สมสานมสารมาริ'छेर् रार्ट्र दे अधय योगर ग्री क्रव परिर राष्ट्र का परि रार्ट्र का मुका के राज्य का का राज्य के प Ũᢩᠯ᠋᠉᠋ᡏᡆ᠌ᢂ᠋᠊ᡪᡏ᠕᠄ᢓᢆᡆ᠋ᠯ᠋᠉᠄᠊ᢎ᠍᠂᠋ᡨ᠋᠋ᠵ᠋᠋᠋ᡏ᠆ᢣᡅᡭ᠂᠊᠌ᡛᢩ᠊ᠭ᠈ᠺᠴ᠋ᢩ᠗᠃ᢓᢅᠳᢩᢂ᠂ᠴᢢᢅ᠆᠂ᡃᢧᢆᡃ᠍᠍ᢓ᠆᠋ᡃ᠋ᡭ᠗᠋᠆᠋ᡘ᠊ᠷᠯ᠋ᢋ᠂᠊ᡛᢩᢦ᠋᠉᠊ᡃᢧ᠋᠄ᡭᠳᢂ᠂᠆ᠵ᠆ᢩ᠍᠍᠂

ন্র্ন্র্র্ম্ম)

र्बेदि पष्ययाप्रकेतु द्वा याषा छेर सुद्र पादे वियया द्वर दे वियया द्वर रहेव झुवा पक्कु त्व या (दरे दे व) ११) ૡ૾ૻૼૹૻૺૡ૾ૣ૾ઌૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૼૼૢૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૢૡૹૡૻૡ૾ૺૡૹૡૻૡઌૻૻૣઌૻૡૹૡૻૹ૾ૡ૽૾ૺૹૹૼૼ૱ૹૡ૾ૺ૱ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ૾ૡ૽ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ૹૢ૽ૢૻ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૣૢૢૻૻઌૻૡૡ૾ૺૡૹૢૢૢૢૻૻઌ૽ૻૡૡ૱ૡૡૻૡૹૹૻૡઌૣૻૻૡૹૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ รมรร์รายมพารทราศักลาสัตร์ริสาดานเดิญที่ตามสีตารริกาตารัฐานริรา (อาการรายการราย)

ૹૻૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૢૡઽૢ૾ૹૻ૾ૼ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૼૼૻૼૢૼૡૡ૽ૼૼૢૻૻૡ૾ૺ૽૱ૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹૢૻૡૢૻૡૻૹૡ૽ૻૡૹૹૻૡૻૹૡ૽ૺૡૹૹૻૡૻૹૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡૡ କ୍ଲିମ ଐ କିଁ ବ ଧରି ସ୍ତମ ଛିମ ମସା ସିବ୍ୟ สาวาลิสามันิ ว่าพมากพิญสุพ เพมพารมาริศาษฐา เลรา อิรามา อุรามาราชาราชาราชา ર્શેજ સુર ગુ ક્રુતે બદ કે તે દુષ સુ તરે દુષ સે તરે દુષ સે તરે દુષ સે તરે દુષ સે દુષ સે દુષ સે દુષ સે દુષ સે દુ <u>५८४५२२२२२४४</u> दिल्ला त्र क्रिंग्य राजे देव ते क्रिंग् देव का क्रिंग् देव का देव ते क्रिंग ते क्रेंग ते क्रिंग ते क्रिंग ते क्र เกมพ์ รุ่มรั้วรุญาสิ่าพีร ซรรรรรษร์ เมื่อรายสาย เกมพ์ เมื่อรายสาย เมื่อราย เมื่อราย เมื่อราย เมื่อราย เมื่อราย

[ੑ]ੑੑੑੑ[ੑ]ਲ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑ

વૅંત્ર ગ્રુવ પ:)લેવાવી લર્જર લયેલ જીૂન તૈયાલન કુર્વા લેવા ગુર્વે (

(દેન-જીંશ-જીવાસુદ-વી-અર્ઢન-વાલિવે-ક્ષેદ-લનશ-દ્યુશ-લને-દેવાય-અદ-નવા-ઠેવાઅર્ધદ-બેન))વાદ-નવા-ક્ષેશ-નઠશ- this process in order to get the sperm ready to meet and fuse with the egg. And just as in the slime mold, one of the molecules that increases in amount inside the sperm during these processes is: cAMP!

Human cells are also different from slime mold cells in other levels of complexity. From fertilization, humans must differentiate into many more than just two or three types of cells, and the human organism is also much larger and has trillions more cells than a slime mold stalk with spores. So, clearly human development involves much more cell division and

IN DEPTH: MECHANISMS FOR ENSURING SUCCESS IN EGG FERTILIZATION

Many animals' reproduction pathways begin with sperm and egg getting together to start de-velopment. The molecules that control chemotaxis and allow the two haploid gametes to fuse, signaling molecules and recep-tors, are similar but highly specific to each species, so that only sperm and egg from the same species can form a fertilized egg. This is not so much of a problem for mammals and other animals that require the male and female to physically engage and for fer-tilization to occur inside the female in order for sperm and egg to unite; however, in many animals, especially those like fish and amphibians who spend much or all of their lives in the water, fertilization occurs in the water, outside the female. In addition to these mechanisms to ensure species specificity, once one sperm fertilizes an egg, it is important to prevent additional sperm, even of the same species, from also fertilizing the egg. Such multisperm fertiliza-tion is called polyspermy. Why would this be detrimental to a fertilized egg, a developing or-ganism? How might the egg prevent/block further sperm from fertilizing it?

movement. All this complexity also takes more time to happen: while slime mold move from single to multi-cells in minutes or hours, humans take nine months just to be born and then continue to change and develop for the rest of their lives. This is especially true of our brains, which undergo significant development and change into our early twenties and can undergo physical change in response to learning throughout our entire lifetime.

EMBRYOGENESIS: CLEAVAGE

Embryogenesis is the overall process of embryo development (watch

the video animation of human embryogenesis at *http://www.youtube. com/watch?v=UgT5rUQ9EmQ&fe ature=related* to get an idea of the process we're about to discuss). How do we get so many cells so fast after starting from just one diploid cell, the fertilized egg? Directly after fertilization, many cells are formed very rapidly. This stage of developing an embryo (embryogenesis) is called cleavage and in most animals it involves cell divisions *without the production of new cytoplasm*. That is, as one cell divides into two and two into four, etc. the same pre-existing egg cytoplasm is used but divided into more and more cells; this is as opposed to the more typical cell division we discussed earlier and in LSPII in which before a cell divides, it doubles all of its components—cytoplasmic and otherwise— before dividing. During cleavage cells divide faster in animals than at any other point in their lives; depending on the species,

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ลาณๆสุลาสสารฏิโล๊อสารอีนารูสารูสา

๛ๆ๙๛ฑัศางกรรณิซิ:ริณานี้หาดฃูหารริกางกรุหารณิสารณิษิภา

ۼڎٮؚؾۘڿڗٮٛۺڗٳۦ؋۪ٞڡٳٮڋڐؚڎٮۿڹڿڛؾٷۣؾڋ؞ؾڡؖ؋ڟڋڮڋڔۣ؆ؚؽٵڹڡۅٛڹ؉ڛۊ؞ڛڎڹڴڎؾڛۺڗ؇ڛٳڮػؾ؋ڟڲڡ सुद विगाय सुद केग स्व ग्री क्वा प वका स सुद अंद स्व ग्री क्वा पर त्वर्य का पर क्वा रा विग गाय के कें त्यादः विणायमा की र्षेणमा ग्रामा के दि रे वर्षे मा झुम्मा छेन्द्र मार्डद्र मार्डद्र या द्या प्रदान मा दे दे द का की

हे.क्षेत्र.यञ्चेत्री.तर्यातत्त्रीत्र.यथा

นพี่ ราชี้การสีมาพากพบาชีสาลิ ซิกาพี้สา วิรามีสิสาลิ ริกาพากชี้ทานลิ ซึ่กาชกาพายี่กานลิ เกลพารทารารมราวรู้พายาศัสพายี่ทาบ วรุพารู้กานภูมา ฏิ พัรา เวริ યાં વૈ યાવે નું છે. જુબાલનું ભૂરાવચર્ચ નું મુરુદ્વચર્ચ વીવે યાવે યાવે થયું બાળ વર્ષે આવે નું પ્રત્ય પર છે. તે આવે તે પ્રત્ય સંસ્થાય તે પ્ ู้เฉข่ายวิรานสิสานลิ ฏิรรัพ ผิญามาที่สีราชนพ ซสารา เวยู่ราชูเมาะ เหลา ผิสาสมท์ แผมพ่ารทราผูญหม่ารทาที่พบพัฒนารินพมาร์ เรียา ราเผมพาร์มาร์ ผิญที่พาร์ เมาะ เลิ้มาที่ พาร์ เลิ้มาที่ พาร์ เมาะ เลิ้มาที่ พาร์ เมาะ เลิ้มาที่ พาร์ เมาะ เลิ้มาที่ พาร์ เลิ้มาที

ढ़ॕॖऺऀॻॱय़Êऀॸॱॻऀॱड़ॺॱॻॖॸॺॱॻऻॿक़ॱॸॻॱॻऀॱख़ॱॺॖॺॱऄय़ऀॱख़ॖॱख़ॖॸॱक़ॖॺॺॱॺॖॖॻॱख़ॖॸॱॻऀॱख़ॱख़ॖॸॱॸॻॱ॒ॺॺॱऄॱ ร้าหูาสุณรา ୶୲ୖ୳୕ୣଵ୵୳ୖୢଽ୶ୄୖୢୠ୕୵ୄୖୢୄୗ୰ୖୄୢୠୄୄୄୣୄୠୄୖ୵ଽୖ୶୲୶୶୲୵ଡ଼ୖୄୗ୕୕୳ଽୡ୶୶ୖୄୠୖଈୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୖ୷୵ଢ଼ୖୢୗ୕୕ୖ୰୲ଽୡ୶୶ୣ୲ଽ୲ୄଽ୲ଽୖଽୣଡ଼୶୲ଡ଼ୖୗଡ଼୶୲୶୶୲ ନ୍ୟ ସଂଘିଶ୍ୱ णसुआर्डअ:२:५३):प:क्रेन्:५म्बा क्रेश्वे्र-पन् दे'याबा केरंप्त्र नामया हे:इ:इड्र-रेगाब:२;'आय२२,बायदे'झ्आपर:५३):प: ૱ૼૹૢ૱ૻઌૺૼ૽ૹૢૢ૾ૺૢૢૻૻૢઽૻૼૹૻૻ૱ૹૹૻૹૼૼૼૼૡૢ૽ૺૡૻૹૢઽૻઌ૱ૼૻઌૼૺૹૢ૿ઌૡૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡ૽૾ઌ૽ૻ૾ૡ૾૽ૼૹૻૻઌૼૹૻ૱ૼ૱ ชิ้า ราวที่จางจา <u>श्वःश्वरः</u>गीःग्रूरूगःदर्वेत्रः भराव्रुणः वि्षाक्वेप्वः श्वणः तुः आयरः यः भेति वि्षायः वि्षायः वि्षायः वि्षायः वि <u></u>क्रट:क्रेव:र्ये:ਘेव:ॴ ୩୍ୟୁ ଅନ୍ୟୁ ઐૡ૽ૺ*ૻ*ૡૹૼૻૻૼઽૡૡૺઌૻૻ૽ૹૄૢૢૼૢૼૻઽૺ૱ૻ૱ઽૻૡૻૢૡૢૻ૱ઌ૽૽ૺૻૡૹ૽ૢ૽ૺૼૡૹ૽ૢૢ૱ૻૡ૱ૻૡઌૢૻઌૻઌૹ૽ૢ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૢૻૼ૽ૼૺૢ૽ૺૼૼૼૼ૱ૹૻ૽ૡૻૻૻૡૼૻૹ૾૽ૹ૽

୲ଵ୶୶୳୵୶୵ୖୄ୵୲ଵ୶୶୲୵୶୵ୖ୵୵ଽଽ୵ୖ୵୲ଌ୲ଡ଼୶୲୴ୖଈ୶୲ଌୖଵ୶୲ୖ୶୵ୖୠ୷୴୵ୖୠ୵୲୲୲୲୶୶୶୷ୖୄଽ୵୲ୖୖୢୄଌ୲ୄଌଡ଼ୄ୲ଽଽ୵୲୵ଽ ॺॱढ़ऺऀॻॱॴॖॾॖॖॖॖऺऀॸॱॸऺऺॺॱढ़ॸॖऀॱॸॺॱय़ॹॖॸॱॸढ़ऀॱॹॗॸॱॸॖ॓ॸॱॺॎॺॺॱॸग़ॸॱॸॖ॓ढ़ऀॱॺॎॕॺॱॺॖॸॱज़ॖॱॿ॒ॸॺॱख़॔ॸॱढ़ॺ॓ॴॸढ़ऀॱढ़ॸॖॖॺॱड़ॖॖॖॖॵॱड़ॖॖऒ

cleavage can result in thousands of new cells per hour.

The embryo will eventually have to differentiate into many different types of cells. How does the developing embryo begin to set up differences within itself, so that these differences can then be translated into a diversity of cell types with a diversity of functions? Well, the embryos of humans and other animals again use the same basic strategy as the slime mold: the distribution of chemical gradients in space.

The chemicals that establish gradients within the single fertilized egg cell before it divides is called **cytoplasmic determinants**. They have this name because depending on where and in what concentration they exist in the cytoplasm, they help determine the different personalities of the cells in which they will eventually wind up.

These gradients of cytoplasmic determinants are set up along the three possible axes in three dimensions: from head to tail (also called anterior to posterior), left to right, and back to front (also called dorsal to ventral) (Figure 14). Cytoplasmic determinants (or their direct precursors) are present in the egg before fertilization even occurs. Fertilization and the reactions following it activate the establishment of these gradients.

One of the first identified and most well-studied cytoplasmic determinants was discovered by Nobel Laureate Christine Nüsslein-Volhard and her collaborators in their study of fruitflies. It is an mRNA and its associated protein called bicoid, and since its discovery molecules like it have been found to serve similar functions in other animals, including humans. Bicoid got its name because when it is mutant in a fly, the resulting phenotype is that the fly embryo has two tails (bi means two, and coid means tail).

Bicoid is distributed along the front to back axis of the embryo and is most concentrated at the front. Like most cytoplasmic determinants, bicoid is a transcription factor. If you remember from LSPII, transcription factors are molecules (usually proteins) that enter into the cell's nucleus and regulate specific genes by physically interacting with regions of the DNA that control those genes, and thereby turning on their transcription.

It makes sense that bicoid and other cytoplasmic determinants would be involved in controlling the transcription of genes, since cell function is largely determined by which genes are being expressed and when. So, look carefully at Figure 15 of the bicoid concentration established very early in development in the fruitfly, and then follow the **dark stain** that represents bicoid as **the embryo ages** and more cell division occurs.



Figure 14: Cytoplasmic determinants can be set up along three possible axes: head to tail, left to right, and back to front. These orientations are shown both in a single cell and in the human body.

᠊᠋ᡩ᠃ᠬᢧ᠊ᡓ᠋᠊᠍ᢖᡄ᠋᠋᠆ᠵ᠆ᡪ᠋ᢆ᠃ᠬᢦ᠉ᡃᡢᡰᡆ᠋᠋ᢋ᠇᠋ᢣᡭ᠄ᢩᢞᢄ᠋ᢁ᠃ᠺᡛᢅᢋ᠄᠋ᠴᡃ᠋᠊᠋ᢋᢂ᠋ᢁ᠄ᢞᡎ᠉ᡃᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠊᠉᠔ᢋ᠄ᡚᡃ᠋᠑ᡃᠴ᠄ᢩ᠉ᠵ᠋᠉ᠺᡛᢅᢋᡃᢓᡪ र्धते प्यत्र क्रें र तुमान र के मान न र जुमान क्रम र दिमा भी न मार र मान के न दा स स र के मान र के र के र के र ያዛ ୳୕ଽୖ୲ଵୖୣ୕ୖୖୖ୳୶ୄୢୖ୶ୢୖୄୄୄୖୄଈ୶୲୶୲ୖୣୄୣୖୖୖୖୠ୵୶୷୷୴ଵୄ୶୳୷ଌୖ୶୵୲୵ୡୄୖୄ୰୷୳ଵୄୖୠୄ୰୷ୠୄୖ୶୷୰୷୷ୠୄୖ୶୷ୠୄୖ୶୷ୠୄୖ୶୷ୠୄ

ૡઽ૾ૺૻઽૣਗ਼ૻ૽૿ઌ૽૾ૹૻૻૻઽૻૼૹૻૹૢૻઽ૾ૺઌૻૹૢ૿ઌૻૹ૽ૢૢ૾ૺૼ૱૽૽ૢૺઽૻૻ૱ઽૻૡ૽૾ૼૹૻૣૼૻૼૡૹૻઽ૽ઌૹૻૻૡૼૹૻઽૺૼૼૼૼૼૻૹૢૻઽૹૻૡ૽૾ૼૼૡૼ૽૱૽૾ૢૺૼૼૼૻૼ૾૾૱૾૾ૡ૽૾ૼૹૻ૾ૻૡૹૻૡૹૻ

अणिहेष'(bi बे्बायणाहेकान्म) coid बे्बायस्य अन्यमुग) झेुबार्थेन यबानेना

੶ਖ਼੶**ଈୖ**੶ਙੵઽૹ੶ૡਞୖੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑੑ ઽૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻૻૡૢૻઽૻઽૡૼૺ૽ૼૹ૽ૢ૾ઽૻઽૡ૽ૢૺ૽ૡ૽૾ૺૡૻ૽૽૽ૢૺઽૼૹૢૻઌૹૻૻઌૻૹૻૻઽ૽ૹ૽ૢૺઽૼૡૢૻઽૻૡ૽ૡ૽૿ઌ૿૾૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૺઌૻ૾૾૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૺ૱ૻૡ૽૾ૡૻૹૻ૱ૹ૽ૡૻૹ૽ૺ૱ૹૺ

ঀয়৸য়য়৾য়৾ৼ৾য়ৢ৾৾ঀৼ৾৾ঀৢ৾ঀ৾৾ঀ

੶ਖ਼੶**ଈୖ**੶ਲ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਲ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਲ਼੶ਲ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼ੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਲ਼ਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ੑੑਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਫ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑ ๚๚ัส สุลายุพลายรารา สูยาสุลามุรูสายรา(คริากาลยารัสาสุลาผู้ทรัสายราพราสิรา)ยอลาพิสา(รุวิา रेषा १९)। इक्तें स्नूटब वहें व य द्या (अट व) दे दया यी स्थायेण कर द्या ही का सेंव वहे का र्श्वे र स युव येंट व क

<u>ञ</u>णर्शेर्श्वेग्अवरर्ग्स् ग्वनिषाहे पदारुव लेगातु पशुरुश्वेव ने गतन्व प्रविधान्ने राषारु राषारेता

ૡશુંત્ર શું ન્ નેં ભારત નાં નાં મુદ્દે સુદે સાથે સુદે સાથે સુદે સાથે સુધાર તે સ ڛٛٷٚڡٳ؆ٮڡڗ؞۬ۿٳڡٳۥۘڹۣۥٚۛڐؚ؆ٮۮٷۣ؉ڂػٚ؆ٮٚٚڒٮۮڔٛۦڂڡٳٮڡٳ؊ٮؘۺڗ؈ٛڸٷڲۿڂڐڮۥۼ؆؞ۿڡٳ؈؞؇ؠۅڂٵڲڔ؊ڣ؆ۼٳڟڂڲ

<u> ମ</u>୩⁻୩୩୬.ଅଅ.ଅଞ୍ଚି**ସ**ି.ଆୁ.ଆୁ.ଆୁ

<u></u> ને 'વૃષ્ય'વૃષ્ય'લેવા'વ'અદયાયાવૃષ્ય'ને 'સ'સુદ'વી'ને વૃષ્ય બદ્દ એવુ 'સુ'ર્સેવાય'સુ'નુ છું 'વૃષ્ય'ન જ્યુનુ'નુ વૈષ્યું તે 'વૃષ્ય & 'વૃ ุ่ดนิ่ณาฏิรานดิสายถ้ามรณาทุสุฆาติทาทิฆารราศัรฆาสู่ราฏิาธิ์ราริาจราจภูมายด้าดที่เริ่าผูรารัสมามม

ᡊᠲᢆᠵ᠂ᠭᢩ᠊᠋᠊ᠭ᠉᠊᠍᠊᠋ᡃ᠍ᡁᢩᡆ᠄ᠼᡃ᠋ᢅᢜ᠆᠋᠋ᠳᢒᡆ᠋᠋ᡜ᠋ᡄ᠊ᡃ᠍ᡜᡃ᠍᠊᠍ᢋ᠋᠋ᠧ᠋᠋ᡜ᠋᠋ᠴ

न्येःरैश्रा १९ खळेःस्रूटशः दह्तिं यः न्यावे ळटशः वेयः योः देन् मुन्युः मुन्युः मुनः दुः मुनः केया से वियः वर्योवतः अह्यामी भ्रियाय सु र्र्ा याप्पय वया याये के में मिया ଷ୍ଟ୍ର୍ବ ବ୍ୟାକ୍ତ୍ର ମାହିମ୍ବା ସେହିବ୍ୟ କ୍ରା ସେହିବ୍ୟ ସେହିବ୍ୟ न्द्रं बेदि खुब रें महिब कें रें र महिन हुब हे त्र में ग มธิ์สฺ ฐฺฆฺ พัฦ



As you can see some areas have more bicoid than others; some have very little. Thus, different genes are being turned on in different cells *depending* on how much bicoid is in that cell, which *depends on where in the front-to-back-axis each particular cell resides*. So, bicoid allows the cell to 'know' where it is in relation to the back and front of the developing organism.

Bicoid then sets off a cascade of reactions, which are specific to the cells in a given region of the developing embryo. This next level of an interacting network of genes is turned on by a 'master regulator', like bicoid. This gene expression further refines the personalities, structures, and functions of the cells in distinct regions.

Now, bicoid is only one protein, one cytoplasmic determinant along one axis. Imagine a similar determinant establishing another gradient along the same axis, but in the other direction (back to front), or along a different dimension/axis—dorsal to ventral or left to right. So, then we have a handful of cytoplasmic determinants working together to provide cells with more and more information about where they are in the developing embryo and what they, therefore, should be doing and developing into.

You begin to see how gradients of just a few molecules can lay the foundation for building what eventually develops into amazingly complex organisms like us. For example, look at Figure 16, which illustrates the distribution of just two chemical gradients, both in the same dimension, represented by two different symbols and originating from the opposite ends of the embryo. Pick any particular region (representing a group of cells) in this imaginary organism, and you can see how they have different combinatorial amounts of the two chemicals depending on their position in the organism. Different combinations of the determinants activate different genes in those cells, which in turn activate another different set of genes. And, thus, complexity arises from relative simplicity.

Remember that all these cells are in one developing organism, so that they must communicate with each other; not surprisingly, then, many of the genes in these developmental networks are involved with cellcell communication. So that one cell knows what its neighbor cells are doing; this often affects what each cell does also, as we will see in the next stages of development in which cells make concerted movements toward building an organism.

GASTRULATION

Eventually, cell division slows and the cleavage stage of embryogenesis ends. The next stage is gastrulation. During this stage, cell movement, rather than cell proliferation, becomes the predominant and most



Figure 15: From Driever and Nüsslein-Volhard's original paper on bicoid (Cell 54, 1988, 83-93). Fruitfly embryos are stained (the dark color) for the presence of bicoid protein. A-F show different stages of development starting from earliest egg stage (A) to late embryonic stage (F). In all pictures, anterior is to the left, posterior to the right, dorsal at the top, and ventral at the bottom.



Figure 16: This imaginary multicellular organism ex-periences two chemical gradients originating from opposite ends. Any particular cell or group of cells will see a different combination of the two chemi-cals.

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<u>װַרָּיך</u>פֿיאייבפָריבא

॑ऀऀऀऀॸऀॱॾॖॖॖऀॸॱड़ॖॺॱॸॺॊ॔ॺॱय़ॱऀॿ॓ऀॻऻॱॺॖऀऻॱॖॾॱख़ॖॸॱढ़ॸऀॱग़ॖॖॺॱढ़ळ॔ॸॱढ़ऄ॒ऀऀऀॱॻऄऀॖॸॱॸॿऀऀॺॱॻऄऀॱग़ॾऀॻॱॻऀऀॱॶॵॱॿॸॱॸॖॱ યલે છેંગુજારા સું સું સું દ દ નગા ગીયા રહું બાદ ભૂન અનુરા જ્યું ભાર છે છું છું તા ગુબા જો બાદ રહે થયા સું દેવી

ঀঀৢয়৾৾৾৾৾ঀ

૱ૹૻૻૻૼૻૡ૾ૼૹૻૻૻૡ૽૾ૼૺ૾ૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૢ૽ૻૢઽૢૻ૽૾ૼૹૻૻ૽૾ૢૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૡ૽૿ૼૺૻ૾ૻ૱૱ૡ૽૾ૺૡ૿ૻઌૢૻૡૻૹૼૻૻૡૡ૾ૺૡઙ૽૽ૢૺૼૼૼૼૻૢૻૼૼૻૻઌ૽૾૾૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾૱ૡૻ૾ૼ૱ૡૻૼૡૼૡૹ૾ૢૼૼ૱ૡ૽ૼૼૼ૱ ૹૡૢૼઽૻૼૹૻૻૻઽઽૻ੶૬ૢૻૻૡૺૡૻૼૼૢૻૼૻૻઌૡ૾ૺ ૡૻૣૹૻૡૹૄૻૢઽૻૹૻઽૢૼૻૻઽ૽ૹૻૹૣ૽ઌ૽ૻૻઌૡ૽૾ૺઌ૽ૻ૱૱ઌ૽ૼૡ૾૾ૡ૽ૹૻ૽૱ઌ૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ ૡૢૡૢૹૻૹ૾૾ૡઽૻૡૹૡૻૡૢઽૡૺ૾૾ઽૡ૽ૻૡૻૢૺૼઽઌ૽૿ૢૺ૾૾ઽ૾૽ઌૹૻૻૡૼૹૻૹ૾ૡઽૼૡૹૼૡૻઌ૱ૡ૽૾ૺૼૼૡૹ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽૾ૺઽ૾ૹ૽ૡૹૻૹ૾ઌ૽૾ૺૼૹૻ૾ૡ૽૾ૡૻ

ઙ૾ૢ૽ૼૼઽૻૼૹ૽૾ૢ૾ૹૻૻૹૡ૱ૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૻ

ॻऻठैणार्ठयाविणारेन्। ने'मविव'न्'ण्वर्राणविषांधे'मठिणायाविणार्यमुपार्थां पविंथामदी'ञ्चूम्षायहिं व'यायळुम्षाया ૹૻૺૻૹૢઽૹ૽ૡ૽ૻૼૼૼૡૼૻૡૻૹૣ૽ૹૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡૻઌ૱ૡૢૼૡૻૹઌ૱ૹ૾ૣૺૡૻૹ૽૾૱૾૿૱૾ૻ૱ૻૹ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡૻૹ૾ૡૼૡૼ૱૱૽ૺૡૻૹ૾૾ૡૼૡૼ૱૱

শন্ট্রনা

ॻऻॺॺॱॸऺऀढ़ऀॱॶॺॱॻॖॖॖॖऀॱख़ॱय़ॿॖॸॱढ़ऀॺॱॸॖॖॖॖॖॾज़ऺॺज़ढ़ॱख़ॱख़ॖॸॱॸॺऻॱॴॱॸॾऀॺॺॱॸॻऻॸॱॻॖऀॺॱढ़ड़ॖ॓ॴॸॱऒ॔ॸॱय़ॱढ़ऀॱ <u> </u>रुग'भेवा

ગ્રુદ્ર ગે ગ્રેન પ્રાથેના

᠊᠋ᡲ᠊᠋ᠭ᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢋ᠋ᡃᡸ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᡔᡘ᠋ᡎ᠋ᠯ᠋᠉᠄᠊ᢄ᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡘ᠋᠋᠋᠉᠄᠆᠋ᡘ᠉᠋᠆ᡘ᠉᠆᠋ᡘ᠉᠆ᡘ᠉᠆᠋ᡘ᠉᠆ᡘ᠉᠆ᠺ᠉᠆᠙ᡁᡄ᠉ ૻઽૢૻૢૻૢૣઌૡૹૻૻ૾૾ઌૢૢૢ૾૾૾૾ૻૡૡ૽ૻૼઽૻૹૼૼૢૻૹૻૻઽૻૡૢ૾ઽૻૡઽ૾ૺ૾ૡ૽૾ૺૻૹૢ૱ૡૻૢૼઌૻૹ૾ૢૼઌૣૹૻૹૢ૽ઌૻૣૹ૾ૢઌૻૻૢૻઌૡ૾ૺૹૼઽૹ૾ૹ૾૽ઌ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૺૼૼૼૺૺૼૼૡૻૹૺૻ <u>षिलामेर</u> खिना मुं झ सुर छे हामा मारे हे न सकिन थेन के का जान का ज ᠋ᠵᡄᡃ᠋᠋ᡍᢆ᠆᠙ᠵ᠋᠋᠋ᠣᡯ᠋ᡘᡊᡭᡆ᠃᠋ᠫ᠆᠋ᡊᡭᡆ᠋᠆ᠵᡅᡭ᠂ᡷ᠍ᢩ᠂ᢩ᠉ᡓᡆ᠄ᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃᡅᡅᢆᠯ᠉ᢋ᠋ᢋᡜ᠋ᢧ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢖᠴᡃ᠋᠊᠋ᢧᢆ᠄ᢓᢆ᠋ᡎᢂ᠋᠋ᠳ᠆ᠺ᠋ᠶᠺᠱ᠋ᡪ᠆ᡭ᠕ᢋᡗᡇᢂ᠋᠋᠊ᡘ᠋ᡭᠼ

<u>નચે:국제</u> 16 폭파다. 표도. 한 관리. ॸऀ॒ॸॕॺॱॾॺॱॻॱय़ॸऺऀॸॱॸॸॱॻऀऻॱऄॗ॔ग़ऻॱॿॖॆय़ऀॱऄॖॖऀॻऻॺॱॺॕॱॺॕॱॺॺॱ <u>स्ता</u>त्युराग्री पात्रराप्ति नार्यायनार् यापी नार्याय का ॑ ॸॆॺॱॺॱख़ॱख़ॖॖॖॸॱय़ॱऀॺ॓ॻॱॻॺऻ ୳୴ୖୖ୶ୖ୶ୖ୴ୄ୕ୣଽ୲ षढिश्वां में दे तर्दुश्व खेषात्र ग्री इस्राय के तदाय थेंदा ন্দইনা





חְשִׁמִיִיםימִישָּר באזוֹמִישָשּו מליקחים בישָר עוֹקי

શં સચય ગયત્ર સ્વેવ છેન છેન (અને ગ વગ રેવે) જેવ

ปิสุล่านาพิสุ ว่านา ๆ ไสล่า ธา พิเกราชิ่าก่ะา

નુષાંત્રેયા ગ]] વર્ષાયદવ્યાળવૃષાનુષાંત્રેયાંગ્રી જ્ઞુન રહેવે

a) าร. เลซ์ร์ เลซิณาฏิ : รู้พ่ ซิ้ตุพามิ เลรี รารีมพา

᠊ᡪᡃᢆᡊ᠋ᡃᡎᡆᡕ᠋᠊᠋ᡪ᠅ᠵᡄ᠄᠋᠋ᠯ᠂᠋ᡷᡄ᠂ᡬ᠊᠋ᢦ᠋᠂᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢖᠴ᠄᠍ᢧᢆ᠋ᡎᢦ᠂ᡪᠵ᠋

শশ্ৰম ক্লিব ট্ৰব

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यर रेषा वर्न गुव वार्य राष्ट्र वी

YOUR TURN: HOW DID COMPLEX BODY PARTS EVOLVE?

One of the major questions in evolution is how dramatic changes in body plans occurred. Across the millions of years of evolution on earth, body plans with increasing complexity have evolved from organisms like slime mold to worms to flies to birds to humans. Evidence from comparing master regulator development genes like bicoid among these many different organisms suggest that changes in these genes—in their number and in how many other genes they interact with— probably played important roles in evolving more complex body plans. This makes sense, since these genes and their resulting mRNAs and proteins build the foundation of organisms. If the foundation is altered, likely the rest of the building will be, too.

dramatic process, and the body axes that began to be laid down earlier by bicoid and other cytoplasmic determinants become evident. Layers of cells form; the layers are known as tissues (recall from LSPII that tissues are groups of functionally related cells, such as nerve tissue).

Most early animal embryos (at this point called **gastrulas**) have three layers of tissue: ectoderm, mesoderm and endoderm—meaning outer skin, middle skin, and inner skin, respectively. Figure 17 shows these layers in a typical embryo, and from which layer the eventual adult human tissues are initially derived. Notice that the tissues we are focusing on, those of the nervous system, are derived from the ectoderm layer of the embryo.

ORGANOGENESIS IN THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

During the next stage of embryonic development, the cells in the three layers that formed during gastrulation move and proliferate, becoming more specialized based on their gene expression patterns, and eventually develop into the tissues and organs with which we are familiar.

When organogenesis begins, in addition to the endoderm, mesoderm, and ectoderm formed during gastrulation, we see a new structure, the notochord, that runs through the mesoderm for the full length of the embryo. Unlike in other species, the notochord in humans does not stay around long during development, but shows up only briefly during embryogenesis. Many notochord cells die a programmed death soon after the beginning of organogenesis.

YOUR TURN: HOW DO COORDI-NATED CELL MOVEMENTS OCCUR IN GASTRULATION?

Dramatic cell movements occur during gastrulation. To see these happen in frogs and sea urchins (the process looks very similar in humans), watch the videos at http:// www.youtube.com/watch?v=ojq XV062CNI&feature=related and http://www.youtube.com/watch? v=Lgb4wMsZwZA&feature=rela ted. What proceswses do you think are necessary for such stunningly coordinated movements? Consider our discussions in this primer so far.





गवित्र पष्ठित्र पशुष्ण

ર્વેનિ:ક્રુંશ:તગ્રુન:પંત:નુંશ:ત્રેશ:ક્રેનશ:સ:સુદ:તગુંભ: ્ નુષાર્રે ઢા'ને તે 'સ્નુનષાસુવ્યાય'ન ન્દા સુ અર્ઢે તે ' ũSI ૡૹૣૻૻઽૢૢૢૻ૾ૻઽૣૣઌૻ૾૾૽ૻ૽૾ૡ૽ૹૢ૱૱૽ૻઽ૽ૡૹ૽ૢ૱ૡૼૡૡ૽ૻ૱૱૱ ळेन हिन ग्री श्राम्म स्थाग्री इ विषान पा हु मलगाय दे ୳ୄୢୖ୶ୠ୵୳ୖୢୡୠ୵ୣ୳୲୷୲୳ୄୡ୕ୖୖୖ୶୲୶୲http:// www.youtube.com/watch?v=ojq XV062CNI&feature=related 55' http://www.youtube.com/watch? v=Lgb4wMsZwZA&feature=relat ed ଦମ୍ପିଂଖ୍ନୁମ୍ମ୍ମ୍ ମିଁ ଅର୍ଦ୍ଧମ୍ଲି ନି ଶ୍ୱିମ୍ ଅର୍ଷା ଛ୍ରିଦା ૹ૾ૣૼૹૡૹૢ૱ૠૡ૾ૺૻૡઌૢૡૹ૾ૢૢૼૼૼૼૢૼઌ૽૾ૢૺ૽૱૱૱ૡ૱ ଶ୍ରିଦ୍ୟ ସମ୍ପାର୍ଯ୍ୟ ସ୍ଥାନ ସିଥିକ ସେଥିବି ସେଥିବ ळूटरन्येत्रा म्यू द्वायावूर वर्ने र अवसावह्या.

ฏัราลูมากฏุรายดิ รุฆา ট্রিন্-শ্রী-ইন্সার্রিমা रैबावटाखाखटाह्मबायवाह्नवाबनुबाह्नेण ર્જ્વે વચાર શુભા ર્ દુન છે કુન દે ભૂન રો બાય આ

ร์จระรักร์รายสิวฏิราริมาณฑีเจสิมพาสุฆามิวร์ราจรามูณายิ่ๆเข้ายุรามรารๆเชิญายาพาสุฆาณฑาณธรา

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พิมพาธสามิเพศญาศุลพาณที่เพาชญาธิเกา (ๆสุลพาสุกลาณริการิเกๆ ญาฏีกาสุมาสิการริเมา શેુ : ત્ર્યાય છે. આ પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય છે. આ પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ્રાયય પ ૡૹુના ૡઽ૾ૺૠૻઽૺૼૢૻૐૹૻૡૼ૱૾૾ઌૹૼૡૻૹ૱ૡૢૻૹૡ૾ૺૡૢઽૹૢ૱૱ૹૹ૽૾૱ૻ૱ૻૹૻૹૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱૱૱૱૱

શુવર્ દુર્દેશ્વર્વે નુશ્વર્યપ્ય વર્ષે ર છે ર દ્વારી દુર્વે જો

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Before they die, notochord cells send out signals to the cells in the ectoderm just above it, telling those cells to fold. One way the signals do this is by affecting the cytoskeletons of the ectoderm cells to change so that these cells grow longer and constrict at their dorsal end, while widening at their ventral end. This results in a continued folding (Figure 18) that eventually folds around to form a tube called the **neural tube**. The notochord helps support the tube newly formed above it.

After the neural tube forms, nearby mesodermal cells communicate and change their cell surface glue molecules to stick together in such a way that the cells form clumps of tissues called somites (Figure 19). Somites form all along the neural tube on both sides. The cells in somites eventually migrate to different parts of the developing embryo and continue to proliferate to seed other body parts, including back muscles, skin tissues, limb muscles and bone. When they are formed along the neural tube, the cells of somites are already determined to become these particular cell types long before they move to particular locations and develop into tissues.

Early **determination** of somite cell personalities results from distinct combinations of signals from surrounding cells, signals received and translated by differential gradient combinations, virtually the same mechanism we have already seen many times during development.

MAKING A CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM

How does a tube turn into the nervous system? Review the anatomy of the nervous system discussed in NPI. As pointed out by Scott Gilbert in his excellent developmental biology text, this differentiation process is best described as occurring at three levels at once. First, at the level of visible parts of the developing embryo, the neural tube bulges and constricts to outline the first crude formation of the parts of the brain and of the spinal cord. Second, at the level of the tissues, cells in the wall of the neural tube



Figure 18: The cytoskeleton of the ectoderm cells modifies to induce a continual folding that gives rise to the neural tube.



Figure 19: Nearby mesodermal cells clump together on either side of the neural tube.

IN DEPTH: THE IMPORTANCE OF PROPER NEURAL TUBE CLOSURE

Proper closure of the neural tube is vital. Neural tube defects due to incomplete closure are seen fairly commonly—about 1 in 500 births—in humans. If the anterior (front) of the tube doesn't close, the developing brain is not protected and degenerates. This lethal disease is called an encephaly. If the posterior (rear) part of the tube doesn't close, spina bifida results. The severity of this disease depends on how much of the tube is left open, and thus how much of the spinal cord is unprotected. Complete neural tube formation is vitally dependent on a combination of genetic and environmental influences. Several genes are known to be essential for the process as are at least two dietary components, vitamin B₁₂ and cholesterol.

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rearrange to form the functioning regions of those visibly-forming brain and spinal cord. And third, at the level of the cell, cells differentiate into neurons and their supporting cells.

The neural tube bulges out, as seen in Figure 18 above, and grows rapidly while separating into first three and then five parts of the future central nervous system. The bulging is driven by pressure from fluid inside the neural tube. The pressure also eventually forces the tube to close off between what will become the brain and spinal cord. Figure 20 shows which parts of the developing tube will become which parts of the brain.

Now, once again, we see an important role for gradients in development. This time, cells outside of the neural tube, probably in the notochord, send signals to the neural tube cells. The timing (i.e., when these chemicals are released) and their resulting gradients help establish which type of neurons the neural tube cells will differentiate into. By a strategy we've seen before, these signals facilitate differentiation by activating transcription factors inside the cells; the transcription factors enter the nucleus and turn on or off genes that determine the particular personality of these neurons.

Here we see another dimension—time—development uses to build complexity from relatively simple strategies and relatively few components. When we add time to the dimensions of space, we introduce many more possibilities for variation. For example, the establishment of a gradient of chemical X during embryo cleavage might have one effect, whereas the establishment of the same gradient with the same chemical during gastrulation would undoubtedly have a very different effect. No new chemical or development strategy is needed; they are simply employed at a different time.

Which cells in the neural tube develop which personality depends on their location along the dorsal-ventral axis of the tube; the cells receive their signals in differently-timed gradients from their nearest neighbor cells. Depending where in the tube the cell is, signals might be sent from the ectoderm on the dorsal side of the tube, the notochord on the ventral side, or the somites on the other two sides. Results of these interacting gradient signals include, in the future spinal cord for example, the development of motor neurons ventrally and sensory neurons dorsally along the neural tube.

The spinal cord develops in the neural tube from a specific layer of stem cells called the germinal neuroepithelium (germ means seed, neuro refers to neuron, and epithelium refers to cells on the outside of something). Stem cells are cells that have the potential to become many different types of cells, as opposed to non-stem cells that always divide to make two cells with the same function as the parent cell.

YOUR TURN: DISCOVERING THE ONSET OF DEVELOPMENT

Can you think of experiments that would allow you to determine when during development tissues and their cells have become determined, that is when their life fate has been fixed, and what that life fate is?



Figure 20: From top to bottom, the sections become the telencephalon, the diencephalon, the mesen-cephalon, the metencephalon, the myelencepha-lon, and the spinal cord.

न्ये रेषा २० हेट वर्षा वादिट र्धेवाषा सु र या ना र र जुराक्षेत्रायत्का नुजुर्गल्यित्यात्का हेर्गल्यित्यात् a दिंग्दिरग्यन्क क्रूटबग्पानरुबारेना



ૡૹૼૻૻૼઽૡૡૺઌૻ૾ૹૄૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹ૾૾૱ૹૻૹૻૻૹૻૻૡ૽૿ઌ૽ૻૡ૽૿ઌ सुरः ग्रुमः नृरः सुं सुरः नृगा गै। नङ्ग्रें श्वरः गृहवाया यनायाङ्गे क्रुनार्भसाने दिखळव्यमायामालेयानाने . न्गागी मङ्गेषावराणहवावियामरा गुरामदे केंना विषायाणा छिनाक्षरावान्देषायवेरायहणान्छन हे दर्ज विया छ नुर्वे राष्ट्रया हे किर योध्वे राष्ट्र योग यते नर्झे या घटा दे गाटा विया थेव के या या या

ট্রিন্-শ্রী-ইন্সার্রিমা तक्षन्तःतस्रेत्यःतर्वे र्स्तुवा्राः นนิ มธ์มฐานธิ์ ณ ป

<u> </u>ৰীম'ম'ম্বা

र्वेद्र'झुंस्'रु्र्स्'र्'य्र्येन्'य्ये'(पर्म्'ळन्'य्द्रिये' germ देश्र'य'श्र'येंद्र'य'यहुंण'य'न्म्') neuro देशय'न्म्म्' स्' ๚ลูทุลาระท่ epithelium ดิลานาร์รัลานี้าชิ้ารูราสนิษิรัลาสูาธทุลานนิายายุราณานุรูทุ)มากระยายุรา [৾]ঀ৾*ॱ*ळ्णॺॱॸॆॺॱॸॺऀॻॺॱॸग़ॸॱढ़ऀऀऀज़ॱ॒ॺॱय़ग़ॖॖॖॖॖ॑नॱग़ॖॖॖऀॱॲॸॖऻॱऀऀॱऀॱॺॱॺॱग़ॸॱख़ॱख़ॖॖॱॸॱज़ॵक़ॱॸॱढ़ऀऀऀॸॱख़ॱख़ॖॖॖॖॸॱख़ॱख़ॖॸॱॻऀॱॸॆऀॻॺॱॺऀॱ

<u>श्वःश्वरः</u>त्वांगैःशःवशःतुशःळेवांशःवःतृतःयःगृतृगशःधदेःग्वत्रःगविशःतरःपविवःग्रीःगस्ःदर्धवःदर्धेतःग्रीःथॅन्। श्वः ૡૢઽઃ૱ૢ૽ૺૹૣਗ਼ૡૹ૽ૼૡૼૡૹૹૢૣૻઌૢૻઽ૾૽૾ૺ૱ૹૡૢઌૡૻૡઽૼૢૡૡૼૼૼઽૹ૾ૡૼઌૹ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡૹ૽૽ૢૺ૾૾ૻઽ૾ૡૻૡ૾૽૱ૡ૾ૡ૽ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ ૡઽૻૡૼૹૣૻૣઌ૽ૣૡૺૹ૽ૢૺઽૻઽૼૼૹૻ૽૾૽ૢૺૼ૾ૺૺઙૢૻઌૢૼૡૻૡૹૡ૽ૼૼઽૻૼૼૼૢૢૼૻઽૺૼૻઌૣૢૢૢૢ૽૾ૡઽૡૻૡૻ૽ઽ૽ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૽૾૽ૡૻ૽ૹ૽૿૾ૺૹ૾ૣ૾ઌૹ૽૾ઌૻ૱૿૽ૡૻૻૹૻૻ૾ र्रे अभूग अग्वविग्वरिष में ते रुष करनग व रे रिंग के रे राष्ट्र रे राष्ट्र रे राष्ट्र रे राष्ट्र राष्ट्र राष्ट्र ૡૡૡૢૼૡૼૼૼૡ૽ૢૢૣૢૢૺૡૹ૾ૣૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽ૽૽૾ૢૺૢૼૡૡ૾ૺ૱ૡૢઌ૿ઌઙૢૹ૾ઌ૽ૢૺ૾ૺૡ૽ૼૼઽૹૹૢૢૺ૾ૡ૽ૼઽૹૹૡૼૡૹઌૻૡઌૡૢઌૹૢ૾ૡ૾ૺૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઽૹૡઌૹૹ૾ૼૡૡ અદ્ર જ્ઞુગ્ દેર

ૡૢ૾ૼૹૻૻઞ૱ૹૻઌ૽ૢ૾ૺૹઌૹૻૡૢ૿ૹૹૢઌૹૻઌઽૺૡ૾૽ૺઌૻઽૢઽ૾ૺૺ૾૾૾ૡ૽ૺૹૻૻઌ૱ૹૻઌ૽૿ૺ૱ઌઌૻૻૡૺૼૡૻૡૺૹૻૻઌઌૻૹ૾ઌૻૡૹૻ૾ૡ૾ૢૼૼઌૻૡ૽ઽૼ૽ૻ૱ૻ रैअङ्ग्रेनसंस्थादशुरूग्धे दर्रसार्ये X हनसंख्वा शुःगवरण्यविषाद्वयाया विषा शुनाया देशा हे साद युषा रे संख्वा विषा $ilde{\mathbf{x}}$ ਸਿੱਸ ਸੰਸੰ ਦੇ ਸ਼ਾਨ ਸ਼ੁੱਕ ਸੰਸੰ ਦੇ ਸ਼ੁੱਕ ਸ਼

<u>-</u> न्नदः ऋदेः ञ्चुः गुःधेः श्चः श्वरः गद्विगः न्नदः ऋः श्वः गह्वगुरुः गद्वगः तुः त्ययुः त्रः क्षेत्रः गत्वत्र योवयः छेनः ग्रीः योन्।

᠙᠋ᡭᠯ᠊᠋ᠵ᠊ᠭᡵᠵᡃ᠋ᢍᡄᢄ᠋ᠧ᠆ᢅ᠋ᢅ᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢅᠯ᠋ᢦ᠈ᠺᡆ᠋ᠴ᠈ᡊᡆᡎᠴ᠋ᡷ᠋ᡆ᠋ᢓ᠆ᡊᢋᠯ᠆ᡊᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠉ᢄᢜ᠆ᢓᡨ ૬૧૧ વી શા નગર સર્વે સું શું ગું ખે સંસ્કૃત્વ ગયા ગર ત્વરે કે ગાઉં દે વી ખેતી કે ખેત્ર સ્થાય શુરુ તર તે કે ગાઉં સંસ્કૃત તે કે ગાઉં છે. র্বান ने निवा संस्ति हो हो र वर विवाय र का र नर साम का मह साम की साम

वे नये रेश १० धेष अळेव त्रा मेण मेन

ૹ૾ઌૹૻૻ૾ઙ૽૾ઌૻઽૢૺ૽ૺૡૺઌૼૹૢૻૼૺૢૺૼૢૻ૱ૻૡૻૼઽૹૻૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡૢ૽ૺઌૡ૽ૺૺૻૢઌઽૻૹૻૹ૿૿ઌ૿૿ઌૻૻ૱૾ૺૡૹૻઌ૾ૹૻઌૻૡૻૹૢ૾ૹૻૻૼઌૻૺઽૻઽૻઽૼૻૻૣૻૻ૾ૻ૾ૻૻ૱ૡ ૹૻૹ૿ઌૡૻૻઽૺૡ૾ૺૻૹૡૹૻૡૺૻૻૼૡૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾ૼ૱ૹ૽૿ૢ૾ૡૻૡ૽૿ૺૢૻૡૹ૿ૢૢૢૢૢૻૣૢૢૻઽૡૺઌૹૻૡૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾ૢ૾ૡ૾ૺઽૻૡૻૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡૻૡૺૺૻૡ૽ૡૺ

ॻऻॺज़ॱज़ॱॻॸॱॸॺॱॸॱॷॱढ़ॹॖज़ॱॸऺढ़ॏॺॱॸॱॸॆॱॸॺॱॺॊॱऒॱख़ॺॱढ़ॖॺऻॺॱक़ॱख़ॖज़ॱॠॺॺॱढ़ॹॖज़ॱॸढ़ॎॏॺॱज़ॸॖॸॱऻॎॺऻॹॖॖॺॱॸऻॱॾॱॱ . सुरः मी 'रेक्ष'मन्त्र) स्र सुरः इक्रबादनम् र सं मात्रुमात्र महत्त्र प्र मित्र सं मात्रुमात्र में दियो भाषा सि

The germinal neuroepithelium cells divide quickly within the embryonic neural tube. Cells resulting from these rapid divisions migrate around the tube to form a new layer of cells that thickens with yet more cells arising from the stem cells. Cells in this new thick layer differentiate into neurons and their supporting cells. These neurons are coated by protective proteins provided by their supporting cells and begin to extend projections and make connections among themselves.

Recall from NSI the parts of the brain (Figure 21). The cerebellum and cerebrum of our brains develop in a similar layered fashion as the spinal cord, combining stem cells dividing and their daughter cells migrating, differentiating and occasionally dying in a controlled fashion—all to form

IN DEPTH: THE POSSIBILITIES OF STEM CELLS

Stem cells are cells that have potential to become many other types of cells. As we've seen, as cells move through development in time, they become 'in-creasingly differentiated', until eventually they are determined and their function becomes set. During this process stem cells move from being totipotent (able to differentiate into any kind of cell) to pluripotent (able to differentiate into a more lim-ited number of cell types) and eventually to determined (no longer able to differentiate). This process turns out not to be true for all cells. Some cells maintain their identity as plu-ripotent stem cells in case they are needed later for repair or re-placement within damaged tis-sues. If for example, your brain sustains damage, neural stem cells can move in and then dif-ferentiate into the particular cell type that needs replacing. Many people are excited about the potential medical benefit of stem cells. What if, for ex-ample, we could take totipotent stem cells or pluripotent neural stem cells and transplant them into a person who is paralyzed. Perhaps these cells could differ-entiate into the person's missing cells, re-establishing their broken nervous system and al-lowing them to move and walk once again. Experiments and ideas like these are currently be-ing explored, although they are fraught with ethical issues.

interacting layers of neurons that grow axons and make connections among neurons. Neurons' growth involves their traveling down 'tracks' of **glial cells** to their destinations. Neural activity typical of humans is first seen in neurons at about 7 months after fertilization. All of this central nervous system development happens in an organized way in time and space; however, the organization is plastic and varies with environmental affects both before and after birth.

Growth of the cerebrum, especially the neocortex, which includes the highest functions of human thought, continues at the same high speed and with the same plasticity for at least a year after birth in humans. And neural plasticity and growth continue until old age and death.

Millions and millions of neurons are produced within the central nervous system during human development. Again, depending on their immediate environments in the neural tube, stem cells on the lining of the tube differentiate into diverse types of neurons and glial cells. From their cell bodies, neurons grow extensions called dendrites (Figure 22) and axons,



Figure 21: A side (above) and medial (below) view of the human brain, with lobes illustrated in differ-ent colors.

૱ૡઽ઼ૡ੶ਜ਼ૢૢਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ੵ੶ਸ਼ૐੑੑੑਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑ੶੶ ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ঝॅਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑਜ਼੶ਗ਼ੑ੶ਜ਼ਗ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਲ਼ੑਸ਼੶ รฏิณ ซ. (ส์ๆ ๆ รุวิ ริจ) พิ สุม น



র্মনাপর্কু মার্মা বিদ্বিবায়ী শ্বিবারী শ্বি

؞ػڔٓٚڟ۪ٷڗ؆ۣٛڹڛٚڗٳ؞؞ٚڋ؉ڛڐٳؗۦڔٵڐۥڿۿۼۣ؈۫ۯڎڟڐٮٵ؞ڟڋ؊ٳۿڹۺڋڛٵڛڟڟڟ؇ڹڮۼڽٵ؞ڂ؊ؚۼ न्नरः सः याग्रुगमाय्रे नगागी में में दे यायुरागी खुमानगात्रमानराये वास्यवा (नयेः रेषा ११) वेषग्यन्तना र्वेतन्तुःचस्नूवायदेः यहः स्नुेभासः खवन्तुः पर्वेतन्यदेः वरुः यत्त्ववाषः ग्रीः इव्ययने पद्र ध्रीः ध्रुंवाषाः

য়ঀয়য়য়৾৾য়

᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋ᡢᠹ᠋ᢩᢂ᠂ᡪ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᠵᡄᠴᢙ᠋ᢋ᠇ᠴᢐ᠋ᠬᠴ᠈ᡏᢅ᠂ᠳ᠋ᡪ᠋᠋ᡎ᠊᠍ᡍ᠂ᡏᡝᢅᢋ᠉᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠉ᡚ᠉ᠴ᠋ᢋ᠉᠂᠋ᠿ᠉ᡘᡘᠴᡘᢋ᠉ᡘ᠍ᡀ᠆ᡪ

નર્જર્ભાયલે દ્વેષાગાલું ભાગામાં ગોં મેઢા મે લેન બાદ્યુમાય સુવિ ચેલે મન <u>ୖ</u>ୖୖନ୍ନାନ୍ସନ୍ନ୍ୟୁକ୍ତିଷ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ୍ୟୁକ୍ତି ଅନ୍ମ

ॵॸॣॸॱख़ॱख़ॖॸॱॸॖॖऺॻऻऄऀॱॸॸॱऄॖॸॱख़ख़ॸॻऀऻऀॱॸऀॻॺॱॻऻॿॺॱऒढ़ॱॸॕऄऀॱॸॕॸॕॱय़ॹॗॸॱॸॖॖॸॱॻढ़ऀॱख़ॱख़ॸॱॸऄॎॷॱऒॾॸॱॸॱॸऀॿऀॺऻॱॵॱॻॵढ़ॱख़ॱख़ॖॸॱॾॵॺॱज़ॖॺॱॵॖॱ રેશપ્વગ્રુષ્ટચરાજ્યાલેળાળી દેવેંગ્લર્થે સુદર્ગ) નૃષ્ટા ચંઘર "ળાતુ વાયેયાવવે" (લાલુષ્ટળાલુ તુ પર્થે ચે સુદર્ગ) દેવેંગ્લર્થે વેં તુ ગ્રુષ્ટ વર્ષે વાયુર વર્ષે શાંતુ ને સાંતુષ્ટ 'સાંતુ પ્ર मञ्चेणन्वेर्षायदे भ्रम्भन्यन्पह देवायी प्रयेत पर प्रमुता ने प्पेतन्यरे याळेव वर्षायम्तवा गये हे छिन में याने पर खर्षा क्रेंव विणर्थेण वा नगत खरी यां मत्य खंत ने प्रता खर्ण के #ૡૺૹૹૡૺ૾ૻૻ૽૽ૼૡઽાૹ૾ૺૻઌ૽૾ૺૹ૾૾ૢ૱ૹ૾ૢૼૺૡૹૼૼૼૼૼૻૻઌૡ૾ૺૹ૾ૢ૾ઌૼૡ૾ૺૡ૾ૢૹ૽ૡૡૡ૾ૼઌૡૻઌ૾૱૱૱ૡ૾ૺૡૡ૱ૣૻૡ૾ૻૡૡ૱૱૱ૡૡ૾ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ

णहिरः स्वायायते भूः विना अम्हाद्य सुरः द्या भाषा कहे व वया र या परि की दिन कि निया का का कि कि कि के कि कि कि क

ભાદ્યું માં સ્વાર્યું મુખ્ય સ્વ ᠊ᠲ᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆᠋ᠺ᠋ᢍ᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᠴ᠆᠋ᢋᢧ᠋ᡊᡙᢧ᠆ᡘᢓᡆ᠋ᢦ᠋᠉ᡩᡄ᠆ᡪ᠋ᢩᡪᢐ᠉ᠼᡷᡄ᠉᠄য়ᢩ᠂ᠫ᠋᠂ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᠳ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡆ᠂ᠼᠧ᠆ᢋ᠋᠈ᢋ᠋ᢧ᠆ᡘᢓᡆ᠋ᢩᢂ᠉ᡬᠱᡯ᠋

<u>୷</u>୲୶ଈଈ୶୲ୖୢୄଈ୕ୢ୕୷ୢୖୠୄୣୣୢ୷ୖୄୖ

ૡઽ૾ૺૡૢઽૻઽૢૼૢ૱ૢૻઽૠૼૼૻઌૼૼૡૼૼૺઌૄૢૻઽ૽ૹૺઌૹૻઌૺૼૹ૬ૢ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૡૼૹૻૹૢ૽૾ૼૼૹૼૡૡ૾ૺૡૻૢૡૢઽૻ ઽઽ·ઽૠૼૼૺૻૡૹૄૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૣૢૢૢૢૢૻ૱ૹ૽ૻૹૻ૾ઌૼૢૻ૾ૻ इस्रबाः क्युंग् प्रिये अध्वयः प्रियः दुः णवु बार्श्वे रामुबा के दिरः खुरुप् गिः क्वणबारी आणुबारा प्राविण प्राया दिरः खाझदाः ฆ'मूराख'सुराने नगाभाषा विराय से खासुरा तयर खादगुरा रेथा पति गीरा गाय का का रेथा रेरा तरु या पया हो? <u>न्नन्स्य वाह्यप्राय</u>ीय के संस्थित के संस्थान न्नरः सः भाषा व्यापार्वियायायने याया येत्र भाषा स्वार्या संस्थान के स्वार्या संस्थान के स्वार्या संस्थान के स्व ^{*}र्गरः छेन् प्यरः तशुरु वर्षिवायः तनेवायः छेन् प्यतेः खाखुनः नवाय्ययः र्वेनः प्यतेः खुनः छेनः च्चेनः च्चेन्याः वीयः नवनः सः खः ऺॻऻड़ॖॻऻॺॱय़ॸॖऀॱॸॖॻॱऄॖॖॱॺॺॱॻऻऄ॔ॻऻॺॱऄ॔ॸ॔ॱॸॺऻॱ॒य़ॸऀॱॸय़ऻॖॵॺॱक़ॸॻऻड़ॖॻऻॺॱख़ॱऄॕय़ऀॱॸऀॻऻॺॱय़ज़ॖॺॱफ़ॖ॓ॱॸॆॱॸॻॱख़ॺॱॡॖ॔ॺॱ referred to above, that communicate via electrical signals with other neurons. While at birth neurons tend to have few dendrites, in the first year of life cortical neurons, for example, develop an average of 10,000 new dendritic connections and sometimes as many as 100,000. This represents a vast growth in cell surface area and cell-to-cell interactions and is vital for the stunning higher functions of the human brain: memory, reasoning, art, meaning, and interpretation.

Axons are like dendrites but extend much farther from the main neuron cell body. In the dramatic case of the squid neuron, axons can be several feet long. Axons search out their connections using an exploratory mechanism that looks strikingly similar to how single-celled slime molds go about finding each other during aggregation following starvation. Compare the videos of the aggregating slime molds and the searching axon http://www. youtube.com/watch?v=_1zGQHrvoRo&feature=related. So, you shouldn't be surprised that the cellular and molecular phenomena involved in the two processes are similar: both the **neural growth cone** (the end of the axon) and the slime mold cell are following gradients of chemicals, both have receptors on their surfaces to receive signals and pass them on through cascades inside the cell to alter cell movement and response via, for example, the cytoskeletal components that allow the cells to move.

Nerve development depends on the gradients described above and the response to them, as well as on genes encoding the molecules that produce and respond to the gradients. In addition, neural connections are often made or not depending on the experiences of the organism during specific developmental windows of time. Whereas, neural fine-tuning and readjustment of connections made during development can continue to be altered by experience throughout life, early experiences are especially important.

For example, experiments in rodents have shown that the diversity and frequency of sounds a mouse pup hears when it is very young affect the very shape of the auditory cortex, the part of the brain involved in hearing (Figure 23).

Once neural connections are made, the neurons are wrapped in cell-protein insulation via a process called myelination. Schwann cells surround the axons and dendrites and wrap them up. Myelination protects the neurons, increases their speed of information transmission, and supports repair of any nerve cell damage.

As we mentioned above and will discuss in more detail in future Neuroscience Primers, your nervous system, especially the brain, changes and makes new neuronal connections all throughout your life. In other words, your brain, in a way, never stops developing, and changing.



Figure 22: A nerve cell. Neurons grow extensions called dendrites. Many have another long process known as an axon.



primary auditory cortex

Figure 23: The auditory cortex is part of the brain involved in hearing. This is a human brain; the auditory cortex of a mouse is discussed in the text.

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୳ୖୖୡୄ୲୷ୄ୵୳ୖୡ୕୲ଌୄ୲ୠ୶ୖୄୣୖୣୖୖୠୖୄୡ୲୷ୖୄୖ୶୷୷ୖ୶୷ୖ าลาลิหลายานลาสม่นเดิญเพลา ซึ่งชิลิษ์สุม ซัง

র্ষমার্ক্টর-র্দ্রা শ্রু-র্মিয়ায়-পেরা



รนิกาสา ธิตาส์เธลาญาส์ตาอตาลานาลสูกลานนิกรุตารยุการยู่การญิเดิการตาติสาตลนาส์สายสานเดิตานาธิ์ ૼૺૼૡ૾ૺૡૢૺૼ૿૽ૢૻૡ૽૿ઌ૽ૻ૿૽ઌ૾૿ઌૻૻઌ૾ૻ૱ૻૡૢૻઽૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹ૾ૺ૾૽ૼઌૡ૽ૺૼૼૼૼૼૹ૾૾ઌ૽ૻઽૡૻૻૢ૽ૼૡ૾ૻ૱ૻૹ૾૽ઌૻ૾ૡ૾ૻઌૻ૾ૡ૾ૻ૱ૡ૿૾ઌ

नगमास्ति अन्नुन क्वेंग क्व का भाव के मा मुन के न નન્સુવાલગ્રુનાર્સઅન્દુાલર્વેન્પ્યલે છેન્દ્રાસેઓલેળાન્સ જીનુનવા <u>अ</u>रसुमान्गागीलानम् क्रियानमानम् योवासाधवास्त्रकार्यवत्वकामक्रीमा ग्रीवानु मेन्गप्रह्ययकार्यमा छेन् <u>5</u>.4. नन्भुव त्युन रे अ छेन् रे आ छे आ नगर स ख गात्रु गाय गाय हा दे दे में के आ छे जा के दे दे में के आ छे आ जा के द

ઽૺૼૢૻૹૻૼૼૹૻૻ૽૽ૼૼૼઽૼૢૻ૽ૹૣ૽ૺઽૻ૽૽ૼૺૼૼૢૢૢૻૡૻૻૻૡૻૻૻૻ૱ૻઌૻૡૻૻઌૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૺૡ૽ૻૹ૾ૣૺૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻૻૡૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻઌૹૣ૿ૻૻ

નગ્નેલેવા દેન ટેંતે નગર સંચાયવા શું નરા સુવાયર ગ્રાનય ગઠય વે સે છે વાર પેંત્ર સુચાલુ નુ વશુર ગલેવનુ

¹ שָּׁיַם שָּׁישָׁריאַמימלַ מוּאיַ שָּׁר

ริร์ ๆดิฤพาลพารุกระสีลิเลริณาพยุรุรีวเลราพรุกพาริเลขูกาญ พราพรุกพาริเพาลขุกานาพราพัง ริ નરુષા બાસો સે વાદ પેંત સુંદ દાય સાયકાર દાય સુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસુંદ વાસું સાય સાયકાર વાસુંદ વાસ

<u>ने</u>'ॴप्तमर स्वे'पळंत्र'प्रयेण'वे'मॅन्ट्'प्रग्रेभ'म्बेंट्'गुरू'प्ये ग्वत्र'गविषा हवाया सवाया प्रा क्रबायान् न्या ૡાખાવત ક્રિંદ પર જાર કે બાદ ના વા ગાય પ્રાથમિક છે. તે ના જાર કે બાદ પ્રાથમિક છે. તે ના જાર કે બાદ પ્રાથમિક જાર જોય પ્રાથમિક <u> ন</u>িম'ঝ'

À॔॔॓**वॱॻॖ**ॸॱॸॖ॓ॱॸ॒ॻॱॸ₹ॱऄॺॱॾॱख़ॺॱ <u></u>&ેશર્'રેંચર્સ્ટર છે. નવે ચર્સે તવુ રવા ઌૡૼૹૢ૾ૢૺઌ੶ૹૻૻઙૡ૱ઽઌૻઌ૿૾૾૾ૡૻ૾ઌ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૼઌૻૡઌૹૻ૽૽ૢૢૹૻઌ૾ૻઌૡ૾ૢ૽૱ૡૹૻ૱ૻઌ૽૿ૡ૽૾ૺઌ૾ૹ૽૾ૺઌૹ૾ૼઌૡૢઌૹૻ૾૾૱૱૱ ૱ૢૣઌૻૡઽૣઽૣઌૻૻઽઽૻૡૹૻ૾ૡ૾ૻ૽૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻૻ૽૽૱ૢૺૼૻૻ૱ૡ૾ૺૡૼૻૻ૱ૻૻૹ૾ૢૺૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૹૢ૾ૡૻૹૻૹૻૡૻૡ૽ઌ૾૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૾૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡૡૡ ৸ttp://www.youtube.com/watch?y= 1zGOHrvoRo&feature=related नेश्व चेन रेश्व प्रेन पार्वेश्व न्द्र या की साम के साम क र्धर्धराणविश्वगाश्वर्स्त्रातग्रुराग्रेणवत्राग्वर्भित्रकायान्त्राण्याद्देशयनेन्द्रीन्याक्षर्द्धर्त्रायदिष्टिरान्दा गविश्वगारा र्तरः गै भ्रि र्देषः सु ग्रे भेव पा भें न पवट अर्द्धटषा पदि भ्रिता हो भोव पा न गा गैषा महा दर्धवा हार हा व हा न पे र व खा

<u></u>ਛे'ସ'ਘିବ୍ୱା

२इ भेव इ अव ही

ळेनावमुदि ह्याम

न्येरेश्व ११ नग नगरः इते खुसुरः विषानगरः इख

ॻऻञ्चग्रम् नगायायहायोवा साधवानु पर्यत् भर्ते केंट्र

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<u>ุลุธุละา</u>ชิ์ขุฆาพิ์รุา

ભવાર્શ્વેન બેવા છેન મારે તે આ છે છે આ પા છે આ પ ૬. બાષા એન્ રસુદા નજાય વાય બાંચ ન વારુ વાય વાય અજયય સુદ્ર મેર વાય નુવાય સુધાય સ ने'ने'नेर'क'र्श्नेव्रबग्शु'नम्'येव'स'स्वग्गी'यधुन'गा'ग्वाबर'य' १०००० तनुबार्येन'य'नर' झ्रानबारगरने'याबायर' નં ૧૦૦૦૦૦ ઇંચ ગુન ખેંન પરેના વર્ન ચાલ સુદ ગે છે દેવ કુ હિંવ ના સાલુદ વેય સું સું ના સાલુદ ના સાલ સાલ સું દ ના સાલુદ સું સું સું તે છે સ રેઢાગરુષાયાં જી હેર અહેન ખેંન પા અહેં વ પા ચાલના ને ભૂર અહેન પા વને કલા ગામના છે. છે. ગામ જી જાળા વોં ર્ને વ સુંતરવા ગ્રેવા વવા બાજ અને સેવે ગ્રાન પાયે છે. અથતર વેં આપવે અર્થે ત્રે આવેનુ બાજ ત્વા બાજ અદ વા વને જ



This so-called neuroplasticity has huge implications for development, for explaining how meditation can change the brain and for many other phenomena at the borders of Buddhism and neuroscience, borders His Holiness the Dalai Lama is exhorting western and eastern practitioners to explore.

BACK TO CELL DEATH IN NERVOUS SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT

Do you and your brain neurons remember that we started this conversation about brain development with a discussion of cell death? And remember our conversation of cell death started with the programmed cell death that occurs in the stalks of slime mold and continued to include harmless cell death in humans. This cell death process, known as apoptosis, also occurs in brain development; for example, cells are programmed to die early in the neural tube, and if this does not happen the result can be severely misshapen nervous systems, and even death of the developing person.

Another particularly intriguing example of apoptosis occurs during development as the axons and dendrites make their millions of connections to other neurons. Early in development, the neurons form large trees of dendrites and many axon links. Then, depending on which connections get made and used (which partly depends on experiences the organism has during this developmental time), the dendrites are pruned back and axon projections are decreased. Cells that do not make productive contacts with their target neurons, signal themselves to die. Other cells that are making redundant contacts are pruned back. Much like organisms fighting for survival, neurons compete for connections and territory.

In this way, the brain develops and fine-tunes itself in sync with the environment. This makes sense in that our brain genes and other brain molecules make connections *in collaboration with* the environment. This allows the brain to be adaptable and flexible and in conversation with the environment. The brain's very development and future capacity is linked to what the brain is experiencing as it develops; the brain is still flexible after development; it can still change, but the capacity limits for what can be built are laid down during this developmental foundation building.

So, you see the importance of living cells and of *dying* cells. It is just as important that, during development, the right cells die as it is that the right cells live. If cells don't cut back their connections and if other cells don't die as appropriate, the results can be profound, resulting in serious neurological defects.

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ਗ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ ^{מָ}שִׁיש<u></u>

ઌર્ગેઽૢ૽૽ૼ૱ૡૢૼૼૡૹ૽ૣ૾ઽૻઌૡ૾૾ૺઽ૱ૹ૽ઌ૽૾ૼૡૡ૽ૼૼૡૹૼૹૹૻઌ૾ૼઽૡ૾ૢૻઽૻૡ૾૾૱ૡ૾ૡ૾૽૱ૡ૾ૡ૱ૡ૾ૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡ ^{*}રે&ग्वावर्षःर्नेव[·]हे। नेषःर्नेग्वन्यांश्वेतेःदर्योग्वनेतः यार्वेनः र्भ्रेवग्वन्ण्यः श्वेन्द्रेन्द्राः स्वरुप्रस्य स्वन्द्रः यार्थः स्वन्द्रः स्वर्यस्वन्द्रः यार्थः स्वन्द्रः स्वर्यस्वन्द्रः स्वर्यस्व นาพราศรีรารสารทัศบุ รราดิขาริมายราศจัรายายุษฐราขาศธิบริษัตริษฐราริมาริาฏรายศิวสุรารุศราศฐรา નવુી નુચેર્વી લાલન સંચયન્નન સંદે સું ગુવે વેન નુ અર્સ સંસે સવે ત્વી સું નુ વે સંસે સંસે સ્વે સુન નુ સં

ૡૹૼૼૼૼૼઽૡૡૺઌઃૹૄૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹ૾૾ૹ૽૿ઌૣ૾ૹૻઌૣઽૡૢૻૡૻૻૡૢૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹૼૹૣૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ๚ุดสาขามยูร" ซู้ราพานามตาซี ตลี หลังผิดหาริการกลิยาริมานดิรมิยาลายที่รามสราวังเรา

યેવ સંસવ ૬ ચાલ્યવ પહે ર્શ્વેલ મત્ક હેવ પેંદે બદા દા બાદ ગર સુવા છે અદ્યુદ્ય છે અદ્ય દા ગયા અને પેંદે બદા લાવવા ભા ને દેશ માંદ નાયલ અક્ષર કેંગ્ર ને નવા ભાષા નાય લેવા મેં ભવા દેવાય અપ શું ર કેટ કેંગ્ર કેંગ કેંગ લેવાય. (બને ગુર ન ઐવ ભાષાં વિષય છે નર્ ભેવ સલ્લ સ્થય પર્ફેન બાદ્ય ના સાથ માં ત્ર સાથ માં સાથ માં સાથ માં સાથ માં સાથ માં સાથ માં મ ॻ॒८ॺॱय़ऄ॔ॸॱॸॺॢॖॸॱॸॸॱय़ॻॗॸऻ ॸॸॱॸॸॱॻऀॱॸऺऄॻॺॱय़ॸ॓ॺॱॸॖॱॻॖॸॱॻय़ऀॱॸ॔ॻॸॱख़ॱख़ॱॻऻॖॶॻॺॱॸॻॱॸॸॺॺॖॸॱऄॗॖॕॸॱ รุทิาราร์ลิเฉขูถายนิเซเซีราสุมพารราทิเฉลิเรารราชิราฏิพาร์รีราญ ซาซูราทุศสาทรารทาทิพารศัพเพิรา

नदे रत्मे वा विनायहुवा नधुन मङ्घाय नवीं का यदे झुवा आवा वा वा रागे थेना

ସରଷ'ୟଷ'ସ୍ମଷ୍ୟ ଅନି-ସ୍ଥିମ୍

गविग्गवत्र विगः शुरु ग्री थेंन

ୖଵଡ଼୲ୣଵଵ୲୕୳୶୳ୠୄ୵୲ଵୄ୲ୖଽ୵ୖୖୖୖୖଌୖୖ୳ୢ୕୷୵୳୶୲ୖୖଵୄ୵ୢଵ୲ଵୡ୶୴୷୕୵୵ୖଡ଼୲୳୷୕୵୳ୖୖ୶୲୰ୖ୶୵୲୰ୢୖ୰୷୲ୡ୶୲ୡ୲୲ୡୖୄଽଡ଼୲ୖୖୖୖୠ୵ୄ୲୕୲ୡୄୢ୲୴୵ ุณดิาฐามเมธิ์ๆ ที่พาดสุมาฏิรายราสูรา ฏิาศมพานิสายาสมพาณาที่รายพณาฐิณามธมพารารๆ ๆ รารณิณา

51

ळॅंद्र अर्घेट र्थेट्र ग्वेविश्व वळंट रवयेवा क्रुट्र देया वट हे क्षेट्र ग्वेश्वेय तर र्द्र का राव संस्टर हे का ग्वेश्व र म्वीका रा ग्वेय. ૹશુ $\Gamma^{*}_{\widetilde{\mathfrak{B}}}$ ર રે ચા ગામ જ તે જા બ અ અા સુર ગા સુર સુચા ચા ગુજા ચા ગ મા ગા ના ગા ના ગા તે જા બ અ ચા ગા તે સામ સ્વાય સુર છે ના ગા ના ગા તે ગો તે ગા ૱'ક્ષુવઃઢો નેવે અદુવા વગ્ર શાસુ નગર સવે બેચરા ર્સ્સુવ ઢનશ છે જેવા ઢેવા નશા અદુવા વગ્ર શે ચે વગ્ર દ્વા ના સામ

धुण'न्दः त्रुदः रद्रोशः र्झेलः अधुनः र्ध्वेरः ग्रीः इवायः स्नुवः यादे श्वर्णने विषाधुना वावनाः स्नूदर्णः दर्दे लग्यानः यात्रस्नुवः दशुरः ॸॸॖॖ॓ॱॸॱॸॸॱॺढ़ॖऺॺॱॷॖग़॑ॱॼक़॔ढ़ॎऀॸॱऻॱक़ग़ॱग़ॖऀॱऻॺॕॸॱॶग़ॱॸॱॷॺॱॸॖॱॻॕॖॺॱऄ॔ऀऀऀऀॱॵढ़ग़ॺॱख़ऀग़ॱज़ऀय़ॸॱॸॕऀॾॕॱॸॱॸ॓ॸऻ ૢૼૢ૾ૺૼૹૻ૾ૹ૾૾ઽૡ૽૾ૺઽ૾ૹ૾૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽઌૻઽૡ૿ૻૢૡૺૡૻઌૼૺૣૺ૾ૹૻૣ૾ૢૢૢૢૼૢૻૡૡ૽૾ૼૡૹ૽ૼૼૼૼૼઽૡૡ૾ૺૡૺૢ૿ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઽૡ૽ૡ૾ૺૡ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૹૢૡૢૻઌૻ૱ૡૢ૿૱ૡૢ૿ૢૢૡૻૻઽૼૡ૾ૣૺ૱ૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼ

OUR OTHER PHYSIOLOGICAL SYSTEMS AND LIFE PROCESSES

We have focused here on development of the nervous system, because we have already explored this system in detail in the earlier Life Sciences primers and in the Neuroscience primers. But, of course, our bodies have many other functions and many other systems to perform those functions; while these other systems are connected to the nervous system, they are considered functionally separate. These other systems arise from the embryo and develop—from cells to tissues to organs—using the same basic principles and mechanisms as the nervous system. Look at Figure 24 (shown earlier as Figure 17) to see from which specific parts of the embryo those systems arise.

We have previously talked about several types of tissues and organs when we discussed touch and other parts of our sensory and nervous systems.



Figure 24: The three layers of the embryo give rise to different tissues and organ systems in the adult organism.

Think of the major functions your body performs. Figure 25 illustrates the organ systems of your body: (1) the nervous system we have already discussed that senses and regulates; (2) the skin that covers and protects; (3) the skeletal system that supports and protects; (4) the muscle system that allows movement and is vital to the heart and other internal organs; (5) the immune system to fight disease; (6) the cardiovascular system for transportation of materials (7) the respiratory system to supply oxygen to the body; (8) the endocrine system, another major regulator; (9) the digestive system to convert food to energy and waste; (10) the urinary system for monitoring blood chemistry and remove waste; and (11) the reproductive system to further our species.

Let's look at the different types of tissue that make up all these systems and organs.



system

system

cardiovascular



Figure 25: Our body consists of several systems working together.



ད་ནི་ང་ཆོམ་ལུས་ཀྱི་མ་ལག་དང་དབང་པོ་འདི་ནམས་རྒིན་གང་གིས་གྱབ་ པའི་ཕུང་གྱུབ་ཀྱི་རིགས་ཐ་དད་དག་ལ་བལ্ལ་བརཕྱོནོ།།

ଌୖୖୖୖୖୖ୕ୖ୕ୖୖ୶୲୳ୢୠଽୖ୳ଵୄ୶୲୵ୢୢୄ୴ୣ୵୲୵୳ୖୖୡୖ୵ୠ୲୴୲୷ୖୄ୶୷୲୷୲୷୷୶୷୲୷୲ୡୗ୶୲ ธิตาฏิราณีฟ รนิ วิน หนิ หนิ สุราวิราชีนิ ผูฟาฏิ รุกรารีนี้ พ่า ณๆ่สุลล่าน่าวิล่าญญายาลาณีราชีกา่าริราวารีการสายงารสีลายีกรรา า न्यर स्थायम १२ मध्यमा केर यशुर पर्व मुग्यर लुगय पर्व क्री सुगया भो मर्बिमार्श्वर्तमेषार्श्वर्त्त् सुदः झुँदः मी छुः मरः खुमार्श्वरे रु शः झुँग्राया भम ૡુર્વાજ્ઞુવાયો નગર દેશ અરુદ્ય સ્વારથ છે. ગયે ગયા નગર જે ગયા છે. આ ગયા છે રૈષાયાં બાલવેંવાર્ક્વે બાકુેન પલે વન ત્વેવા ચાલવા હો ક્યું રાજે સુવાલ દેવ र्वेर पदेव ग्रे जुम्मर लुगवाय परि पद्येव हुन आ भग भी स्नुम्ब पदेंव ग्री કેન્પ્યાયર્જે છે. માંગલવાલે વા છે વર્ત્ર છે. તે વ્યાય જો સાથે છે. છે. છે. તે છે. તે છે. છે. છે. છે. છે. છે. છે. ૢૢૼૡ[ૢ]ૡૡ૾ૺ૾ઽૼ૾ૻૡૼૼૼૼૼૻઽૢૻૢઽૻૹૢ૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻઌ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૢ૽ૡ૽૽ૢૻૢ૽૽ૼૢૺૼૢૻ૱ઌ૽ૻઌૺ ૡૻૻૼૼૼૼ<mark>ਗ਼</mark>੶૽ਗ਼૿*ૻ*ૡૹૡૹૢ૽ૢ૽ૼ૾ૼૹ૽ૻૡૺૻ૱ૻૻઽ૽૱ૼૺ૱ૻૹ૾ૢ૽ઌૹૻૻૻૡૹૡૼૼૼૼૼઽૼૻઌ૱ૡૢઌૹ૽ ୶ୖୄୠ୵୶ୄୖୢୄୢୗୢୢୖୄ୲ୠ୲୳୵୲ୡ୲୳୶୳ୡ୲ୄଈୖୄ୷୷୰୶୲୶୲୷ଡ଼୲୳ୠ୶୲ୖ୶୲୲





ગદ્રવશ્વન્દ્રસ્થન છેત્ર ત્વું સેવે બાં સુંશ્વર્યેવ છેંશ

ਸ਼*ੑ*ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼੶ੑਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ੑਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼੶ੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼

Do you remember our story back in LS primer II, *Genes and Cells*, the story about touching hot chai? We learned about the nervous system and touch by considering someone drinking a cup of hot chai. Let's pick up that story again and consider how all the systems in our bodies in Figure 25 play a role in drinking that chai. To make it interesting, let's say it's a couple, a man and woman who are in love and recently married who are sitting down for a cup of chai after a long week at work.

How is each system involved in this story? We'll talk primarily about each system separately, but of course, they are all interacting with each other all the time in order to make for a happy living being.

We have already discussed how the couple's sense of touch works. In Neurosciences I, we discussed how the couple is able to visually see the chai and each other. The nervous system responsible for touch and sight also monitors and regulates all the other systems and their roles in this story. The skeletal systems together with the muscle system, all covered by the integumentary system, allows the couple to reach out for their chai and then to sit down and interact with the chai and each other. The couple's immune systems immediately begin fighting any bacteria or other foreign agents that might be on the edge of their cups or otherwise gain access to their bodies. The couple's skins are protecting them from other

foreign agents and holding the bodies together along with the muscle. As they move and talk and drink, they must be constantly breathing in oxygen and breathing out carbon dioxide via their respiratory systems, and then these gases must be moved via their circulatory systems to and from the rest of their bodies. When the two people drink their chai, it moves through the digestive system, where the nutritive value is taken from the food and moved again through the circulatory system to where it's needed, while unused waste from the chai is excreted through the urinary and other systems. The endocrine system signals that the couple is thirsty or hungry or hot or cold and it even helps signal their love for each other. And perhaps their love and desire to raise a family then leads the couple to reproduce, create a fertilized egg, that will develop—through the processes we described in the first part of this primer— from an embryo inside the mother into another new human being with all these same systems for itself (Figure 26).

THE TISSUES THAT BUILD THE ORGANS

Animals have four basic types of tissues that in some combination compose all of our organs; these are epithelial, connective, muscle, and nerve tissues



Figure 26: While the couple is drinking chai together, many bodily processes are occurring.

קפריביימיתשָרישָֿק'שָּרישָר

गलरायाविगावगुरार्ये (द्रयेर्रेका १७)

નચે તેથા ૧૯ કિંશુવા વાલેશ ચેં અલચ લદ્દે અચ ગ્રીશ દ વા ત્રેવા વલે તુ પલે તુ થ ને ત્ર હ્યુ શે ગ્રી ગ્રીનુ તે અગ્ર અન્ નવા જેવા નન-વી ચાલ્યુન વલે તુ બેંનુ



ସ୍ୱମ୍ କ୍ରିନ୍ଆ

यःविषाः श्चेरः यविरुग्वहर देगा

 (Figure 27). As we discuss these different types of tissues, remember the structure/function theme of biology that we've seen again and again in our studies and remember from where in the developing embryo these tissues arise (refer back to earlier Figure 23). Cells and tissues have evolved in the same way that molecules have, so that their shape fits their function and vice versa.



Figure 27: Microscopic images of different types of real tissue. From left to right: epithelial, connective, muscle and nervous tissue.

Epithelial tissues cover the body and the outsides of organs, as well as the internal linings of body cavities (called an epithelial membrane in this case). Because their role is in covering and protecting, epithelial tissue cells occur tightly packed in layers or sheets, as you can see in Figure 27 above. They serve as boundaries between us and the environment; thus, epithelial cells are gateways to what can and cannot get into us or our organs—an important first line of regulation and security. **Glands**, organs specialized to secrete products like hormones, sweat or milk, are also composed of epithelial tissue. **Secretion** is a process that involves the production of a substance in a cell and then the regulated removal of that substance out of the cell to be carried to a specific location.

Connective tissues provide an underlying support, a cushioning network of cells, for nearly all organs. Connective tissue cells are connected in a loose fibrous gel. These tissues vary depending on their location and function; some compose bone and cartilage (early bone in embryos), others body fat (called adipose tissue) and blood. Connective tissues connect the skin to muscle and fill in spaces between body organs.

Muscle tissues' specialty is the ability to grow and shrink, to contract. Skeletal muscle tissue connects bones to the body. Cardiac muscle allows the heart to work and pump blood throughout the body. Smooth muscle tissue lines our digestive tract, blood vessels and other organs.

And, as we know, the nervous system's specialty is signaling among all these other tissues, organs, and the brain.
୶ଵ୵୲ଽୖୖୖୖୖଌ୶୲ୖଵ୶୕୕ୣୄୣୗ୶୶୳୴୶ୖ୳୶ୖୖୡୄୡ୲୵୳୴ୖ୳ୄୖ୲୵ୡୖ୳୷୶୶୷୲ୄଡ଼୵ୖଌ୕୶ୖୡ୲ୠ୵ୢୢୄୠ୵ୄଽ୵ୄଽ୳ୖଽ୲୰୲ଡ଼ୠୖ ୶ୢୠ୵୵୵୲ୢ୷୵୰୳ୠଵ୶ୖୄୄୄୠୄ୵୳୵୳ୄଽ୕୵ୡୖଌ୶୕୴ୖୗୄଽ୵ୄୄୄୠୖ୵ୖ୵୵୲

वरः भः तशुयः ग्रीः थेंना

୶ୢୠ୕୵୳୕୵ୖୄୠୣ୕୵୳୵ୣ୵୵ୄୗ ୠଵ୲ୄୖୄୄୄୠୖ୳୷ୖଽ୶୷ୡ୶ୄୖ୶ୠୄ୷୵୶ୖୄ୶ୖୢୖଢ଼୵୲ଌ୕୲୵୶ୖ୷୵ୖ୵୲

भाषत्र सुरः गुमा नगरः रि. सुरः गुमामरुषः नेना



दर्द्रेण.क्षम्ब.सं.पहिंट.ट्रेब.लुबी

INTEGUMENTARY, SKELETAL, AND MUSCLE SYSTEMS

The skin, skeletal, and muscle systems give the man and the woman in the couple drinking chai support and protection, while helping them reach for the chai, sit down in their chairs, and stay upright and in place while sitting or standing.

In *Genes and Cells*, we talked about the integumentary system (skin) in terms of touch and feeling heat from the hot chai on skin. In mammals, structures that emerge from developing skin cells include hair, nails, sweat glands and sensory receptors like those involved in detecting the heat of the chai. The **epidermis** is the outside waterproof layer of skin; beneath this is the dermis, made of fibrous connective tissue.

Most animals have an internal skeleton just below the skin. The skeleton, made of bone and cartilage, gives support to the skin and provides an infrastructure for muscles to interact with. Figure 28 shows the human skeleton; of our 206 bones, of particular importance to our chai-drinking couple are the skulls protecting their brains, the sternums protecting their hearts, the vertebrae of their backbone protecting their spinal cords and their arm and leg bones allowing them to reach, touch, sit, and stand. The skeleton allows all this by working *together with* all the other systems, especially their muscles.

Bones and muscles work together. For example when the couple reaches for their cups of chai (based on a signal from their nervous system), the bones of their arms—the humerus, radius, and ulna—move easily because muscle attachments to the bone are arranged so that the bone acts as a lever (see Physics Primer I) and amplifies the motion of the muscles. This motion is also facilitated by the elbow and shoulder, examples of freely movable joints between two bones. At the joint on the ends of the bones, a cap of connective tissue secretes fluid to make the bones move together easily.

The couple's skeletal muscles and tendons, connective tissue that links muscle to bone, pass over the shoulder and elbow joints to attach the bones on either side. Contracting muscles pull bones toward or away from each other. Muscles work against each other, so that in the movement, for example the movement made by the chai-drinking man to lift his cup from the table to his lips, his biceps muscle contracts, while his triceps muscle relaxes. Then, when he puts the cup down, the muscles work against each other in reverse, that is, the biceps relax and the triceps contract (Figure 29).



Figure 28: The human skeleton has 206 bones.



Figure 29: The biceps and triceps are two muscle groups in the arm that work against each other.

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न्ये रेष् १९ नस्त मान कु ज्ञ न न न मान कु ข่าสูมาดีสามาสิารุยู่รารว่าเขาออกสามนิเคามีมายิ่า ฮัตกลามิเฉราราตาดิสาณสาณา ริเทศิลาณสาณา



দ্বথ-ইক্ষ্ম ૧૮ શ્રે દે ભુનાસુદ થી રુના પાટ ના રુના સા 706 2551



णमुख्यादायुखायारेट्र (ट्रयेरेका १९)

ૡા શાસા મના ગી માં રુ માં પા સ્વરૂપ મને સંસ્થાય સ इस्रबास्यव स्तुव में स्थिन हे ज्या या जहां ना मा ही ना मेर का ही सुवा महिका रेंदि वट वका हा या रें या पदि ही का या दे का ऄ॔ॺऻऄ॓ऄ॓ॱऄॢॖॖॖऺॖॖऺॖॖॖय़ॱॺॖॺॱॺॕॸॱॻॱ⋓ॸॱढ़ॶॖॕॖॺऻॱऄॢॱॸॸॱॺऀॱॺॎॸॱय़ॸऺऀॺऻॺॱॻऄॱॺग़ॖऀऒॶऀॱॶॖॖॻऻॿॺऻॱॸॖऺॸऻ ऻॕॺऀॱॸॖॷॖॾॱॾॺॺॱॺॕॸॱॻॱॼॸॱढ़ॶॖॕॺऻॱऄॣॱॸॸॱॺऀॱॺॎॸॱय़ॸऺऀॺऻॺॱॻऄॱॺग़ॖऀऒख़ॏॱय़ॶॖॻॱॿॖॖऀॱॻॖॱॺऻॿॺऻॱॸॖऺॸऻ

ય સ્થયા નને સુવા મન ત્વા બાર્ સુન છેન સુવા

<u>ने</u>ॱॷॸॱक़ॖॖॺॱॻॱक़ऀॱॸॖॺॱॻॱ॒य़ख़ॖॸॱॻक़ऀॱॿॱॻॺॖॸॱॸॆॱॸॖॻॱॻऀॱक़ॎऀॺ॔ॸॱॶॖॻॺॱग़ॖॖ॓ॱॸॻॸॱॻऀॺॱॸॖॺॱॻॱॸ॓ॱढ़ऀॸ॓ॻॺॱक़॒ਞक़ॱ (५र्देबाय्यबारीणायतेर्श्वेवार्य्यतेर्श्वेयारीयात्तव्यकार्थार्थ्वका)वेषाणीत्त्र्याणत्रुपाणत्रुपाणिय्रेनाया ५२रपहेवानेबायावना ५वाची वर्षि त्याया अर्धे र त्वनेवा का छेत तु का यदे क्यु अळं तर ग्री का रेता हे र अ जना हे क्षेत्रे वर्षे त्वय ᡪ᠋᠊᠋᠋ᡁ᠋ᠧ᠆᠋ᠴ᠋ᢂᡊᡭᡆᠯ᠋ᡎᡑᡃᢆ᠍ᢖ᠋᠋᠆᠋ᡗ᠃ᡎᢆᡱᡝ᠊᠋ᡪ᠆ᠵ᠄ᢩᡌᡆ᠋᠋᠆ᡘ᠋᠋᠇ᡆ᠋ᢆᠹᢂᡃᢅ᠋᠊ᢋ᠉ᡔᠴ᠋ᡢᢆᡷᢂ᠆ᡪᠴᡘ᠋᠋ᡜᠴ᠘ᡬᠴᠴᠻ᠄ᡜ᠋ᠳ᠋᠋᠊ᡍ᠙ᠽᠭᢩᠬ सुंदः युपः ग्रीगः युपः परि पर्धिण विपन्नः नेपा थेंदः ठेटा देशः द्वव पनिरः विपार्श्वेदः पर्देवः छेतः यः देशः परं केव वन्नः रुनः

तह्यायी थेंना

ล้อสางอลายกระดิเกราผูลาฏิเกกลายเรารัฐกระสุกาญระณารัฐกระการสายกระการสายกระการสายกระการสายกระการสายกระการสายกระกา [ੑ]ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ੑੑੑਲ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶੶ วิวา รนิวาสา 1 ภูลาลิลิวาลาลีสมลสัสาดิรา ลิเดิญานาณีรานลิวาลาง กัรสารสารสารสารสารสาร ᠉᠂᠋ᡘᠯᡧᡊᡭᡆᢋ᠊ᡅᡭ᠂ᠹᢆ᠄᠊ᠻᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡍ᠋ᢀ᠅ᠯᡗᢆ᠊ᠷ᠆ᡪ᠋ᠫᡭᡆ᠋ᠯ᠋ᠭᠴᡆᠬᠴᠯᠬ᠋ᡎᡎ᠋ᡨᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡜᡄ᠂ᠴ᠋ᡃᢋ᠋᠂ᡏᡄ᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢅ᠋ᢜᡬ᠄ᡎᠲ᠊᠋ᠴ᠂ᡘᢋᢩ᠆ᠺ᠋ᢙ᠋ᡄ᠂ᢅ᠍᠊ᢢᠳ นลิฑานิร์กา กักระสัลิริกาลสมาร์สู่กลุ่านสมาร์สู่กลุ่านลิร์สกรร์มาร์การ์การ์การ์การ์การ์สายการ์สู่กลุ่าน นลิ ฮูฉาๆดูการูลานารกา ศักริสัสารกัสาอสาขารสูจานารกา ริๆนารกา สราวสุรานารกาพรายกา

શ૾ૢ૽ૺઃચક્ષુઽૢૻ૾ૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૼઽ:ૡૢઽઃશૣૢૢૢૢૣૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹ૾૾ૣૹૣ૽ૹૻૹૣ૽ૢૢઌૻૻઽૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૺૼૼ૽૿૽૾ઌ૽૿૱

"રેષજાાદ્વજા૧૮૮૬૧૬૮૨" (જે:ર્જ્ઞેષાં જીવરીયો પૈસ્વર્યો સેંસ્ટ્રેય સ્ટ્રેય સેંચર્યો સેંસ્ટેય સેંગે સ્ટેર્સ્ટ્રેય સેંગે સ્ટેર્સ્ટ્રેય સેંગે સ્ટેર્સ્ટ્રેય સેંગે સ્ટેર્સ્ટ્રેય સેંગે સ્ટેર્સ્ટ્રેય સેંગે સે સેંગે સે સેંગે સે ઼઼ૣૣઌૹૻ૽૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌ૽૾ૺૼૻઽ૽ઌૻૻઽૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૢૹૻૼૼૼૼૼૻૹૻૼૼૼૼૻૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૻૡ૽૽ૼ૾ૡ૽૽ૼ૾૾ૡ૽ૻઌ૽૾ૡૻ૽ૼૻૻઌ૽૾ૼૡૻૻઌ૽૾ૼૢૻૼૻૻઌ૽૿ૢૼૼૻૻઌ૽૿ૼૼૡૻૻઌ૾૾ૢ૽ૼૡ૿૾ઌ૾૾ૹ૽૿૾ૺૡ૿ૣઌ૾૾ૡૻૻઌ૾૾ૡ૽ૻૡૻૻઌૻ૾૾૾ૢ૽ૼૼૻ ૹું ગ્રુવાયલે 'રેશ્વય'ને રાંગ્રે રાંગ્યો નેલે 'લેંવા' વી'રેશ'ય'ને રાંગે 'વર 'ધવાય' લેશ' પાર્ટેનું 'છે દા'ને 'ગ્રે' સેન' ને સ્ટેન્ 'રેન્સ' સ્ટાયલેવ'

ૹ૾ૢ<u>ૼ</u>ૼૺૼૣૻૼઽૻૢૻઽૻૹૢૻૣઽૼૹ૽ૢૢૼૼૼૼૼ૱૱

ี สาขาลลูการารกา กรากการที่ารี้การิตาลาสูาสราวการกา กาลสาพกาลการรากรากการการการการการกา

ឆ្លិ'ម្មោង'קבין אַא'ផ្ទឹא'קבין קיחַקקיִםאּא'ຫຼີ'אימחיקחיחֿ'אָזאן

Skeletal muscles like the triceps and biceps in our couples' arms have evolved a fibrous structure that fits their contracting function. Figure 30 shows the different levels of muscle organization in our man's arm. The biceps, like all skeletal muscle, is composed of fibers wrapped in a connective package. Each fiber is in turn composed of smaller fibers (called myofibrils; 'myo' means muscle). It is the sliding of these fibers across each other that is responsible for contraction. Figure 31 shows the molecular mechanism of muscle contraction. Contraction in skeletal muscle involves electrical signals from neurons (as discussed in previous primers) together with life's major energy source (ATP) working on the fibrous proteins that compose muscle (myosin, actin, troponin, and tropomyosin most prominently). We will discuss metabolism, the production and use of energy in more detail below.

Cardiac muscle that drives the fast-beating hearts of our newlyweds and smooth muscle that helps regulate blood pressure by squeezing the walls of blood-bearing vessels are the two other major types of muscle tissue. They use the same basic components and mechanisms to contract as does skeletal muscle, but adapted to fit their particular jobs.

THE IMMUNE SYSTEM

The immune system is a fascinating and complex one that we will spend much more time with in Life Sciences Primer IV. In general, suffice it to say that if any potential pathogens—like bacteria, viruses, fungi—are on the cups when our couple lifts their chai to their lips, our immune systems will get right to work. This is our internal security force, and we have two different types: a non-specific response force and a specific response force.

Imagine a foreign bacterium infects the woman in our chai-couple. Bacteria have different proteins on their cell surfaces (called antigens) than her cells do, so these pathogens' proteins are recognized immediately by her immune system. Figure 32 shows the different kinds of phagocytic cells of





Dendritic cells

Neutrophils

Monocytes



Figure 32: Micrographs from left to right of different phagocytic cells: macrophages, dendritic cells, neutrophils, and a cluster of monocytes and neutrophils.



Figure 30: Muscles have many levels of organization.



Figure Calcium 31: binds to totroponin(in(in red)red)to reveal binding(in to-vealmyosin green) sitesbindingonactinsites(in onpink) the foractinthefilamentsmyosin (in green).

. બેવ સુંસુદા (વાબલા સુત્ર) વર્ષ્ઠવા સુવ સુંસુદ વી સ્વેન ૐવાલા ૧૮ ગતર ખેવ સુંસુદ ગરુ જો તે દ્વ



<u> শ্বাম্বাস্থ্যস্থ্যস</u>্থা



ष्ठ्रय.जग्र.स.स.





<u></u>᠊᠋᠋ᡪᡶ᠋ᠵ᠊᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠄᠋᠊᠋᠋ᠵ᠋ᡎ᠃ᠴᢙᢆᢋ᠂ᠴᡭᡆ᠂ᡄᢆ᠋᠆᠄ᢅ᠋᠋᠋ᡱᢙᢆᡗᢩᡦ᠄ᠻᢩᡨ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡩᡭ᠄ᢩ᠒ᠫ᠋ᢋ᠉᠄ᢋ᠋᠋ᡪ᠊ᢋ᠉᠄ᢋ᠋ᡪ᠅ᡷᡭ᠈ᡧ᠉᠄ᡨᢄᢋ᠉ᡷᢋ᠄ᡚ᠉᠄ᢋ᠄ᢓᡆ᠄ᢙᢩᡣ યલે ક્રી સ્વાદ્યસ્યાત્વસાય નું દે દ્વાયા વાર્ષેન લુયા ને વે સંજ્ઞેવ નવા વી સંસુદ લિન દેશા જી જ્યાય પલે ક્રી સ્વાદ્યસ્ય સ્યા พิสานนิ สูงสสลาขิงาวิวา วิวาวิจา สราวิจางสามสานนิ สรานที่ๆ มายๆ การกับจานนิ สาย

ठतःग्रु[:]ଆ'ୟଗ'୍ର୍ଞ୍ରିମ୍ୟରି'ମ୍ୟ୍ରମ'ମ୍ୟସ୍ୟ ସାସରଷ୍ୟ ଭିଗ୍ୱା

ळॅॅबरग्नेटरणविररपिष्ठेररपि हिं.सुर्गाणवेवर्थरे देवर्थरे देवर्थर दे रहर दे रहर दे राष्ट्र राष्ट મલે અઢઅષાને ત્રાગબાને વેંત્રાયલે ાવાગ્રુત્રાનુ નયેત્રાના લાજ્યેવાન્તા નુગાજ્યેવાન્તા વાર્ચા ભાષાનું હોવા ાવર્ચે જ્ઞાન યવે વૃત્યાવે સેંદ તેવે શે સ્થવે ત્રાવે છે સ્યાય તેવા જે સ્યાય તેવા છે સ્યાય તેવા છે સ્યાય તેવા સે સ્થવે સાથ સાથ

สุราสสีตามหตุ

ૹ૾ૢૢૺઽૻઌ૽૿ૺઃૼૼૺ?ૼૺૺૺૺૺ૿૽ૹ૽ૻૹૢ૽ૺૢૺ૾૾૾૾ઌૻ૾ઽ૽ૡ૾૽ઌૻઌ૽૾ૡ૾ૺૡૻૹ૾૽ૡૻઌૡ૽ૺૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૡૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૡૻ૾ૡૻ૱૱૱ૡ वर्षः विगानिनः स्रूट्यायद्दितः चुनः यास्रे। नः मुत्रियाने गतिषाने नाम्रीयासुटः मुनः ग्रीः रेमायामर्थेः केः नः मलितः मतिषाधिता

ૹુૹપ્પત્ર ગ્રેંજા સુત્ર ગ્રુ જી થીઠા

᠋᠊᠋ᡳ᠋ᡃᢁ᠋᠆᠋ᡗᢆᡠ᠋᠊᠋᠊ᡆ᠋ᠯᢙ᠋᠉᠂ᡬᡗ᠊ᡭ᠄ᡪ᠋᠊᠋ᢋᠾ᠆ᠵ᠋᠆ᠵ᠉᠄ᢍᡆᡰᢩᢂ᠂ᢣᢙ᠂ᡪᡀ᠆᠋ᢧᡀᠵ᠋᠋ᢋᢄᢋ᠆ᡪ᠋ᢋ᠉᠋ᡇᢓ᠆ᡘ᠉᠄ᡚᢂ᠋ᠼ ક્રચલ લાવ્ર શ્રુન્ છે છુ ગર લર્ચેન યવે રેન ન ર છે ક્રચ પર લયેલ લા રા છુ ર છુ ર ખેંના ન ચે રેલ જ વર શેવે ન સર -2'র্শ্ব-এই-শ্র-র্ম্রাপ্র, *"*ગુ૱ૢઽઽૹૡૢૼઽૹ੶ઽઽઽૡૢઽૻૠઽૻૡૢૺ૽૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌૻ૱ૹૢૢૡૢૼૻૹ૾ૢૢૢૣૢૢૼૼ૱ૻઽઽૻૡૡ૾ૢૺ૱૿૽ૹૢ૾૾ૡૢ૽ૺૹ૿ૡ૽ૺૼૼૼૼૺૼૼઌ૽ૻ૽૽ૼ૱ૻૡ૾૽ૼૹૻૻૡૼૹૻૻઌ૽ૼૼૼૼ & a સ્વ સુન વ જ બાળ જ યલે બહ્ય સુદ્દ ગું ગ દેવે બદુ જ દુવા દેવા વાયે બન્ને રહેવા દેવા છે દેવા છે દેવા છે દેવા છે છે. સાથે પ્રાપ્ત છે સંસ્થા સુદ્દ ગુ -पन्दे त्यान लुँणाबा देवा (क्रेंद त्यों ते क्रेंगनेन क्राया द्या क्राया क्राया क्राया न क्रिया प्राया क्राया क्राय क्राया क क्राया क्राय क्राया क क्राया क्रा क्राया क्राय क्राया क्र क्राया क्राय શે ચેત ત્વનુ શા કુંબા વસુય શે દર્ડો છે તે ચે તુક શક્યા કુંબા કુંચા શુરા શુરા સુચયા ગુરા વા ચારે કે દર્દે તે પ્ ૻૡ૽૾ૡૺૹ૽૿૾ૺૹ૽૿ૢ૾ૻૡૻૹ૾ૻ(ઌૻ૽ૺૺૼૼૼૼૼૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾૱ૻૻ૱ૻૺૼૼૼ૾૾ૢ૾ૻ૾૽ૼૻ૾ૡૻ૽૱ૻૹ૾ૣૺૻ૾ૡૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ઞર્நે ન પાયા બાયા બાયા નાં છે. જ્યાં ને બાયા બાયા રે. લે બાયા કે બાય કે બાયા કે જ જે બાયા કે બાય કે બાયા ક

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the non-specific immune system. Specifically, receptors of **phagocytes** bind the antigens and swallow and digest these foreign materials.

This early, non-specific recognition stimulates the other parts of the woman's non-specific immune response. Her phagocytes get more efficient, and, much like the binding of cAMP in slime mold activates transcription factors to turn on genes, binding to phagocytes also activate many genes to produce proteins signaling that an invasion has taken place. Many of these invader-signaling proteins are known as cytokines, and they help regulate both the non-specific and the specific immune response. Different cytokines are secreted by different immune system cell types and some cytokines are only made in response to certain types of infection (Figure 33).

Some cytokines secreted by phagocytes activate another part of the nonspecific immune response called **complement** (because it complements the rest of the immune system); some pathogens also activate complement directly. Complement is present in species evolutionarily as far away from humans as crabs, suggesting that it has been around as a pathogenfighting strategy for millions of years.

Complement attacks pathogens using four distinct strategies, including lysing the invaders, covering them with molecules that make it easier for phagocytes to eat them, and activating other parts of the immune system to help in the attack. For example, complement uses chemotaxis to attract **leukocytes** (the white blood cells of the immune system) to the pathogen. The leukocytes then help destroy pathogens.

Inflammation is another non-specific immune response and is activated and regulated by cytokines after infection. Inflammation causes an increase in the diameter of blood vessels near the site of infection, allowing more blood and thus more pathogen-fighting molecules to reach the area. At the same time, inflammation increases the permeability of the blood vessels, so immune response molecules can leak into the infected area to help fight infection; this process of inflammation causes swelling, which can be painful. More macrophages and other phagocytic cells also leave the blood and move into the infected area to attack the pathogens. Sometimes this local response can raise the temperature of your whole body, causing fever. Fever, thus, is beneficial in that it helps the immune system fight infection, but it can also cause problems if it continues for too long or if your body temperature goes too high.

Interferons (IFN)	Tumor Necrosis Factor (TNF)	
 interfere with	- can cause cell	
viral replication	death	
- activate other	- may be involved in	
immune cells	tumor regression	
Interleukin (IL)	Chemokines	
- promote the	- bring immune cells	
development and	to sites of infection	
differentiation of	- direct cells in normal	
T-cells and B-cells	tissue development	

Figure 33: Different types of cytokines and their functions.

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र्श्वेत्र[.]मुविः इध्रण्याविंधः क्रुरः रुधाः देषाण्यः येताः

ณ ยาลานรูณริาาทาทิศักลาพูเสาร์สัญราสุมลาณพิมากลุ่มาทรัการารา มีการสุมลาณรูลารุณ व। विःर्क्वेत्प्भवाय्यवाय्दीत्रावन्याविःर्क्वेत्यत्याय्यन्यान्यस्यत्वात्वाय्यवान्त्याक्र्यवान्त्याक्र्यायान्यान्यान्याः

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. सुरूपी रेणबाबे प्दरपाने प्दर अर्ळेव प्रग्रेण गुरूपोंने सुणर्नेवा इग्रिरास सुरूपणी भ्रिर्मे का सुरक्ष का प्रदे हो યેવ પઃ સચર્ષા શે થા વર્ષો વા સુદર્ષા સુન સ્થા સચરા બે છે દા વે દા સુધા પા છુ ર ચે દા વા દે દા રા રે દા વા દે દા

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শ্বীর দ্রী এই প্রথম শ্বী

র্ত্রন:গ্রিনা

વર્ન શાસાસનાથી વર્ત્તક ક્રોંસ

अत्र तृ न म सु र वे व हे न यथे।

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<u>इ.ध्</u>रुयोक्ष.झु.इ.ज्री

દુવા-શ્રેક્ રેંગ્વ-બુલે-છેન રેશ-કર-કે-વર્ણને ગુરુ-છેના

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हे-झ्सुदःवीदेवस्प्ट्रन्धे-झ सुदःदेवस्तिविष्ट्रन्थे व्यव्हर

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নশন-গুন-প্র-শ্রি

AT:35

SPECIFIC IMMUNE RESPONSE

Chances are that the non-specific immune responses we just discussed would be enough to kill bacteria invading the couple's bodies. The nonspecific system is always ready to respond and fight foreign invaders at a moment's notice. We also have a powerful partner to the non-specific response and that is the adaptive, specific immunity response. The specific immune response, on the other hand, takes a few days to get going, but amazingly it develops in us to specifically kill particular types of pathogen, even though we've never experienced those pathogens before.

How does this happen? Two general types of cells are important here: **T-cells** and **B-cells**. Both types begin their lives inside bones in bone marrow, where B-cells continue to develop and from where T-cells move to the thymus (a gland near your heart) to finish maturing. Mature T and B-cells, also referred to as **lymphocytes**, are in **lymph nodes**. Lymph is the material that contains immune system molecules and resides in the lymph nodes and lymph-containing organs like the spleen and tonsils. Figure 34 shows the lymphocytes and their life histories.



Figure 34: Life histories of human lymphocytes, from New Human Physiology, 2nd Edition, Paulev-Zubieta

Viruses and bacteria have the advantage of being able to adapt quickly, literally within hours and within one organism. Some of the most insidious human diseases in history have resulted from these pathogens directly attacking the very system that is attacking

IN DEPTH: SELF VS. NON-SELF

Although this sounds like some profound Buddhist philosophical problem, it is how immunologists refer to a major challenge of the immune system: to ensure the system only attacks foreign cells and not its own host cells. An intricate system has evolved in humans, so that during development immune system cells that are made that would attack self are removed from the system early. Nevertheless, many debilitating diseases known as auto-immune diseases do exist in which immune systems attack normal host cells, causing, as you can imagine serious health issues.

المالي المي ال

५र्नूरःञ्चरःस्टॅन्ट्रव्रायते क्षे. मुमान्दा रहीया नदेंग्वत्र देवं चन कें लेग क्ये र न क्षं सुर क्षर ર્શેના વેંત્ર ગુપ્તર્જે ત્ર નર્જે શાંસા તે વર્ત્ત વર્ત્તા વાય २वींवार्भवायायात्वायी क्षेत्र्व्वया क्षेत्र्व्य की काल्य के कि ચેંનુ અર્થે ર્ક્રેળ ને કે છે તે ગળજ ન તર્દ્વ છે ન ગ ૹૢૢૢૹૻઐઽૻઌ૽ૢ૿ૺૡૻૡૢઽૡ૽ૼ૱ઌૻૻ૱ઌઌૻૻૼૼૼૹૻૡઌ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌ र्धर्सुटर्न्यायानेकालयेगा केंला के मुन्यरायया वेण गुः क्रुं दे 'देन दे 'भूद हु र व र दे भा र कुर ๛ๆเธิญเฉลิญเลยูรายูราพักเธิราไว้เพารสุส. ลุฬาลสาวอุชิญารุฐาริสาสราลิราลิสายสา यदे वृत्त द्वीवा साथवा वित्त खुर वार विवा रहा ปีสารรายเล่ปุ้มาสิ้อเริราดิสาษัราริบาลเสมสา *ૹુ*ૢૡૡ૽ૼૼૢૡૡૢૹૻૹ૾ૢૼઌૹૹૢૼૢૡ૽ૢ૾ૢ૽ૢૢૢૡ૽ૢ૽ૢ૽૱ૢૹ૱ઽૡૣ ธิ์ๆเฉยู่ เขิสเพิรเญ เจริเรๆ ซิลเราะเขิรสา गवर्गकर देवे सुसुर द्वया महुव दे पडा भवर वर्षेषाः केंशः चुनः सः नेना ᠆ᠫᢆ᠊᠋ᢂ᠂᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠄ᢓᢆᢖ᠋᠊ᡃᠭᢆᢧᢂ᠂᠊ᡃᢧᠵ ळॅन्न्यण कुषाया मविता ने या महेवा वेषा य खेना าลิ่ส ๆ - หลิงาาลิ ๆ สาร์สาธาลาสิ ริๆลา

यहिन्द्र्यायायते क्षेत्रे वन्यायायायन्यायाया

ท่สุลาญๆลาๆลรามาติลานนิรานรายิกลายาติสายานลายกา



ਕਗ਼ੋਕਾਜ਼ੂਨ।

ਗ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ŵਫ਼੶੶ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਗ਼

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them. This is the case with AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome), the plague of the 20th and 21st century. AIDS is caused by a virus that specifically attacks human immune systems; the virus enters T-cells by binding to one of its receptors and quickly begins to kill those T-cells and spread to others. When the immune system of someone with AIDS is thus decimated, it is no longer able to fight off infections, and infections that would normally be quickly vanquished by the immune system, can instead lead to serious illness and death.

T-cells are responsible for one type of specific immune response called cellmediated immunity. B-cells are responsible for the other type of specific immune response called antibody-mediated immunity.

Macrophages and **dendritic cells** become activated when they detect proteins (referred to as **antigens**) on the surface of invading pathogens. The macrophages and dendritic cells then eat the pathogens, entirely degrading most of them, but saving some proteins from the pathogens to display on their surfaces. This is how macrophages get their name: antigen-presenting cells (APCs). The cells then carry the information in their antigens, very specific information about the invader, to the T-cells in the lymph nodes. The APCs find the lymph nodes thanks to chemotaxis. The T-cells have receptors that recognize the antigens presented by the APCs.

Two general types of T-cells in the lymph nodes await the antigenpresenting cells: Helper T-cells and Cytotoxic ('cyto' for cell, 'toxic' for deadly) T-cells. The T-cells have thousands of different T-cell receptors. When one Helper T-cell receptor recognizes the antigen being presented by the APC, the two cells bind and the Helper T-cell secretes a growth factor that stimulates it and other activated Helper T's to grow bigger and divide by mitosis. This process is called clonal expansion, because now clones, or exact copies, of Helper T-cells which happened to recognize the antigen of the pathogen invaded. Some of the activated Helpers move to the site of infection and attract other parts of the immune system to come and attack the invaders, others remain as Memory T cells to remember this specific type of infection in case it happens again, and still others are involved in activating specific immune response (antibody-mediated immunity).

At the same time APCs are activating Helper T-cells in the lymph nodes, they are also activating Cytotoxic T-cells in a similar manner. Once these Cytotoxic T-cells receive the antigen information about the invader, they also expand clonally and move to the site of infection. Here, as their name suggests, these cells attack and destroy the pathogen.

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त्रेवॱअनुनॱवनःभ्रुणॱॸॖॱते-ध्र'सुनःणे वनःणयेवाःरेणयाधुनः निनन्दन्याणेकेषाण्रेयायर्गेण ज्जन्याभ्रीन स्थायर्नेवाधते अःसुरः क्रंबगः गः क्रुंगा वृषाः मक्षराध्येना ने 'नगा वै 'र्रेगाषां प्रदेगाषां ने - अःसुरः नगा नरः नुगा रुव ते - अःसुरः (पर्ने दे ' 'cyto' वेषग्य संसुद द्म (toxic' वेषग्य दुवा ठव यावीं या रेता) यठषा रेता दे याद ति-संसुद द्वाया ते स ૡૢઽૹૢૣૺઌ૽૱ઽ૱ઽ૾ઌૹૻ૱ઌૹ૾૾ઌૻૹ૾ૡૻઌૡૡ૱ૻઌૻૡ૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡૡ૱૱ बि८ मानन भरे अर्थोमा इत्य क्रेन स्य निम वय बिम र्रेमय अनेमय के स्व प्र के के का के का की का के का की का के कि યંગ્વ ને બદ્દ વે રેંગુ જાયદેવા જ તે ન્લાલુ દ ને જાય છે રાષ્ટ્રી સેંદર તે વે ગય છે રાયદેવા સેંદર તે સે સાથ સાથ સ २देवाबात्ते-झासुरादे दराबादी कार्यते सेवाबायदेवाबात्ते-झासुरावविदादवा झरावबादे केरा झे उपहुवायादरा ૡૢૻૺૡ૽ૺૹૄૢૻૹૹૡૢૼૡ૽ૢ૾ૺૹૹૹૹૡૡ૾ૣ૾ૺૡૹૻૡૼૡૻૹૻૡૡૺઌૣૻૹઌ૽ૺૺૼૢૹૻૡઙઽૡૡૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૼૡ૱ૡૢ૽ૺ૾૾૾૾૾૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૹૡૡ૽ૻ ٵٞ؆ۥٵڔۦٵۄٛۥڲٚڎۦڽۘٶڗڂٵٵۥؽ؆ؚڡ؞ڡڡٳ؆؞ٮۮ؞ڝٵٚٵۥ؏ڂ؆ۥڲۣڂڐ؆ۥۼڡ؆ڎ؞ڿڡٳ؆؞ٮٳڮٚڂ؆ۮ؞ڲٚٳٵ ญ่นส์ที่ยาสี่ญ อิรานที่สู่ยาลางลาวรา วานการน่า รับคลานริยาลาวราย เราะ ठेणायां जेवा त्वर्य का खिला देन र ही विनाय प्रत्या में प्रत्य का त्वर्य का रहे हो का से र र ही का से र र र ही क में विश्व राषा यात्र राष्ट्र रा ॸ॔देश्चेन्ॱक़ॕन्ॱऀऀऀॱॻॱॼॖॱॾॖॖऀॻऻॺॊॱऄॖॖ॔ॻॏॺॱख़ॖॱ॔॑क़॓ॱॾक़ॱढ़ॾऺऀक़ॱॾॱख़ॖ॑ॸॱॻॏॱॸॕॱॸॕॸॱॻऻक़ॺॱॺॺॵॻऻढ़क़ॱॻॎढ़क़ॱॻऄॖॱड़ॻॻॱय़ॱड़ऀॱ · ??२४ महेर्न् भरगवहर्त्या देन्न्यायकर्त्न् द्राय्या छैया देन्द्र र्य्यायाया व्यक्ति कर्त्र र व्याया व्यक्त प्र यते वृत्त र्वोगारू प्रते विवः) दे रदा भार होता र विवा भारती

थॅन यन्त्री

᠊᠋ᡩ᠉ᢣ᠋᠋᠊ᢎᡝ᠊ᡳ᠋᠊ᡏᡝ᠋ᠬᡃ᠍᠍ᢖ᠋᠆ᡃᡅᡭ᠂᠋᠋ᢋ᠆᠋ᡢᡰᡥ᠋ᢤ᠋ᡘ᠆ᢧ᠋᠋ᢖ᠋ᡆ᠂ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᡨ᠋᠋᠋ᢪ᠋᠍᠍ᢓ᠆ᠮ᠊ᠬ᠈ᡚ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋᠋᠋᠉᠋ᢋᡬ᠋ᡜ *ৼ*য়৽৾ঀ৾য়৽য়ৢ৽৾৾৾ঀ৾৾ঀৗ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾য়য়য়৾৾য়ঀয়৾৽য়৾৾ৼয়৾ড়ৢৼ৾৾ঀৼ৾৾ঢ়৾৾য়৾ঀয়৾ড়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়ৢঢ়৾৾য়৾য়৾ড়ৢৼ৾৾ঀ৾৾৽য়৾য়৾ড়ৢৼ৾৾ঀ৾৾৽য়৾ ᠊᠋ᡩ᠋᠊᠋ᡇ᠋ᢦ᠈ᡔ᠋ᠳᢩᢂ᠄ᡜ᠄ᡸᡃ᠋᠊ᢎᡁᡄ᠂ᡪ᠆ᡄ᠈ᢅᡠᡆ᠈ᡎ᠋᠋ᠳᢩᡸᡕ᠋ᢋ᠋᠆ᡘᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠉᠋ᡆ᠋ᡪ᠄ᡢᡎᡆ᠉ᡜ᠋᠁᠄ᡜ᠄ᠴᠴᡪ **พ**รานสาดฏิสาณ નજીવામાં તે જ્યાં યે તે માં છે તે છ *ૡૢઽ*ॱઽਗ਼[੶]ॻ៝ॺ੶ૡਲ਼ॖੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਫ਼ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶

<u>नुः त्वर्वेन् न्यां देशः ठवः ग्रीः वनः त्वर्गेवाः पः यवः त्रेवाशः वालवः विवाः यः त्वावः तत्वरः नः त्रेनाः</u>

ॖॖऀॱ୴ॸॱॽऺॖऀॖॾग़ख़ॖॸॱक़ऺऺख़ख़ॸॱॸॹॖॖॸॣॱय़ढ़ॖऀॱॺॸॱय़ॺऀॺॱॸॖॱढ़ॺॕॸॱॸऻॿढ़क़ॱॖॱढ़ॺॕॸॱॴॱक़ॺॏ॔ॺऻॱॴॵज़ॱॸक़ॏॖॱय़ॵक़ॵक़ॵख़ॱॷ ॸऀॻऻॺॱॻऻऄॻॱ॒॒ग़ख़ग़ढ़ख़ॖॸॱॴ॒॓ॕऀऀॱॸढ़ॎॏॺॱज़ॖॱॾॖॏ॓੶ॶॱॶॖॸॱॾॺॺॱय़॔ॻॕॏॻॱॻॾॖॻऻॺॱॸॹॗॖॖॖॖॸॱय़ढ़ऀॱॺॸॱय़ॺऀॺॱ

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 B-cells do two things: (1) just like macrophages and dendritic cells, they digest pathogens and display antigens on their surfaces and (2) they produce antibodies. Antibodies are proteins that bind very specifically to pathogens' antigens; the shapes of the antigen and the antibody are complementary. Each single B-cell makes only one specific antibody, but it can make many copies of it. Much like T-cells then, B-cells must learn, via antigen presentation, specific information about the invader. When they do, they too become activated, growing in size and dividing to make many copies of themselves, each of which can produce large amounts of antibody specific to the pathogen. This process is assisted by HelperT-cells.

Activated Helper T-cells recognize the B-cells that are binding foreign antigen; the Helper T's secrete cytokines that then stimulate those B-cells to grow and divide. The mature B-cells then produce **antibodies**, proteins specific to the invader. The antibodies leave the lymph nodes and travel to the site of infection where they bind the antigens on the surface of the invaders and kill them. As is the case with T-cells, some mature B-cells, rather than produce antibodies, stay in the lymph as Memory B-cells.

Because the specific immune system remembers specific infections by storing mature B- and T-cells that were made in response to that infection, if the same infection occurs again, the specific immune response is much faster. So, let's say our couple drinking chai both get exposed to bacteria A from their chai cups, but it so happens that a few years ago the woman suffered from and fought off an infection by this bacteria, while the man has never experienced bacteria A before. The man's non-specific immune system starts attacking the bacteria, but it takes his specific immune system a few days to get going, so he might be sick for a few days. On the other hand, the woman's immune system remembers the previous infection and her B- and T-cells that had been made years ago to fight bacterium A, quickly respond without a lag time to the infection of bacteria A. Thus, the woman probably does not get sick, or gets much less sick than her husband.

CIRCULATION

How does energy and different molecules—such as all the immune system molecules we've just discussed—move long distances from one part of our couple's bodies to the other? Organisms have evolved circulatory systems to solve this challenge; our system is a cardiovascular system that includes the heart, blood vessels, and blood (Figure 35).

The transport medium of our cardiovascular systems is blood, and blood is composed of three kinds of cells—the white blood cells or leukocytes of the immune system we just learned about, red blood cells, and platelets. The blood is pumped by the heart, the special muscle we discussed above, through blood vessels to and from all parts of your body.

IN DEPTH: PATHOGEN EVOLUTION

Battles between pathogens and hosts are continually occurring during evolution. The pathogen is evolving mechanisms to evade the host immune system and the host is evolving mechanisms to counter them. This is a back and forth and eternal battle. Recall from our discussion earlier in this primer, that one theory of why sex evolved in the first place is as a mechanism to evolve and develop new and diverse respones to pathogens.



Figure 35: The circulatory system consists of the heart, blood vessels, and the blood itself.

न्देःरेषा भर दर्षित्रः क्रुव्रायः भवायी वित्यास्तु ह्वायाः यवित्रः यद्यत्यः क्रुव्राये न्द्रते क्रुत्तः क्रुट्राययाः न्द्रः



<u>नू</u>दादे न्यायी यात्र का कर्तर के सुर्र के सुर्य से सुर्य के सुर्य क ન્નર લાવા લે દેર સ સાકન નુ લ ગુર વી તે જેના ราพราสรายสิาสัราฮิสารยายาสรายสุพ.ฮรา ริ่นิ สุรานที่ๆ มามๆ เม่น เริ่ม เราน่น เลาน कुलाक्तुन अर र देव गर गुर पुर ला दे दर द ग अर्ह्स् शुःगवत्र कर दे ते वर दे तर वर पावे र्श्वेन न्यायायायात्र यार्डेयाये व्ययं रहेया ક્યુવ ૬ તથે બાલ શુર સુદ ખેતી તેથ વાલી લેખરા ଶ୍ରୁମାଟ୍ଟ୍ ମଶ୍ରମାନ୍ତ୍ର ମନ୍ସ ସ୍ୟାରଣ ଅକ୍ଟରା ଅନିକ୍ ସେଁଶି ଶ୍ରିସ ନିସ ନେନି ଶ୍ରେମ୍ବର ନିର୍ବ ନ ମହା ସହା ନିର୍ବ ନ ନିର୍ବ ନିର ମହା ନିର୍ବ ମହା ନିର୍ବ ନ ମହା ନିର୍ବ ନ ମହା ନିର୍ବ ନି ૡ૽ૼૼૹૹૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣઌૡ૾૾ૺ૱ૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺ૱ૡ૽ૢૻ૱ૡ૽ૼૹૻૻ૱૱ #ुःबळव् रत्यो॒यायईॅन् मेुन् र्यते र्सेयाया सु। ने लेन वनुःणविःर्श्वेनः क्रुवान्णायः र्श्वेनः क्रुविः भाष्यवः श्रेः क्रुवा ^{रा} श्रे गरिंग स'न्द झय म गर्षर स' क्रेन र र देव

বদশানী স্ক্রিঁদ ক্রীবা สุมฆาฏิ ิ ณิชิณ ณฏิ า ฏิ า วิ

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ઽેઽૢૼૹૻૺૡ૾ૺૹૢ૽ૺઽૻૼૹૻૻૹૻૻઌૡ૽ૻૢૻૡૻૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૻૢૻૡૻૻઌૻૹૻ૱ૻૡ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡૻૹૻ૽ૡૻૡૻૹ૾૱ૹ૽૿ૹૻૻૹ૽ૻૡૻ र्छता ने त्वा वे विवानरगान ख़ख़तत्वा श्रेत्यावन वन वर्षावाय ज्या यी नगान खुत त्वा झे। यात्र विवा यी झ्रेंत देन ૹ૾ૼૼૹૻૹૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻઌૼૢૻૹૄૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌ૽ૼૻ૱ૢૻૹૣઌૻઌ૱ૡૻૹૻૹ૱ૡૻૹ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૻૡ૱ૡૡ૽ૼૡ <u>ॺ</u>ॊ॔౯ॱॖॖॖॱॸ॓ॸॱऄॕॺॱॻॕॖॺॱॸॖॖऀॺॱॸ॑य़ऀॱऀऀॻॏ॒ॺॱॻॖॖऀऒ॔ॸॱज़ॖॱॸऄऀॻऻॺॱॸॺऀऀऀऀॱॼक़ड़ॱऄॕय़ऀॱॹॖॖॖऀॱॶॖॏॱॶॖॎॺऻॱॻऻऄॖॸॱॸॆॱॸॱऄॕय़ऀॱ

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<u>ૺ</u>ને ભારતાયે છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મું આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે. આ પ્રાંગ મુંચ્યુ છે. આ પ્રાંગ <u></u> नृषाः वृत्तः दर्षोषाः अण्याः नृश्चेषायः नगानः नः नेत्रः अन्तः क्रयायः ज्ञेषः योत् नः अण्याः नेत्रः यायः वृत्तवाः चुः झयाः यायः चुः झयाः यायः चुः झयाः यायः वित्तवाः वित्तवाः वित्तवाः चुः झयाः यायः वित्तवाः चुः झयाः य यंने इव यदे खुभानु महार मरा गुराया नेर महेव गाय के पालन पिते रेपाल ने हिन रामहेत कार पहुर के พุกพาลวิลิาราณารัณาลดิสามสิวาสลาซี ๆดิพานีราชังส์ลิาราชีราสพายาชิสา"ๆ"ลขัพามลาราราวกรา યંત્ર ચાલના ને બાજા સઘાયંત્ર જીવાયત્ર શુત્ર ખેતુ ગુના કે સુવાય તે સ્વાય સાથે તે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સ ઙાજીવ ને માર્યવોવાર્ સે બાદીન માર્ય બાદ્ય બાદી કે સાંચારી પ્રિયાયી છે. આ બાદીન સાંચાયી સાથ માર્ય સાથ મુખ્ય સાથ ૡૻૡ૬ૢૻઌૻૻૡૻૻ૾૾૾ૢ૽ૺ૱ૡૹ૾૾ૹ૽૾ૺૡૻઌ૾ૻઌૻૻૼૻૡૹ૾ૻ૱ૻૡૹૢૻૣૻૻ૾ૻૻૡૹૡૹ૾૾ૢૹ૽ૻૡૻૻૻૻૼ૽૾ૼૢ૾ૺૼ૱ૡૹૻૻ૱ૻ૱૽૾ૼ૾૽ૢ૾૱ૡૹૻ૱ૻૡ૽૽૱૱ૡ૽ૻ૽ૼ૾૽૱ રેન ને બાજા સેવા કે સુન એન ને તે જીન છે વન બર્થેવા અ બાન ને જ સર છે વાલવા વને અ વદેન અન્ન દ્વારા તે સુન અને સા ૡઽ૾ૣઽૻૹૻૹ૾૽ૡૼૹ૽૾ૢૹૻૻઌૹ૽ૢૢ૾ૢૺૢૼૻૻૼૼૻૡ૽૾ૺૼૻૻૼૼૼઌૢૻૡૼૡૻઌ૽ૼૡૻૻૹ૽ૼઌૻૻૹૻ૾ઌૻૻૻૻૻૻૻૻઌૻૻૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻૡૻ૽ૼઌૻૻૹ૽ૻઌૻૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻઌૻૻઌ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૼઌૻૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻઌૻૻઌ૽ૻઌૻ૽ૼૡૻૻઌૻૻઌ૽ૻૡૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻ૽ૡૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻ૽ૡૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻ

२२्वामःति-ख्रुद्र-द्ववायीमः दिन्हवामः वर्ष्ठिद् तुमः या दे'वरू'र्रेणरू'त्दीगरू'ते-ख'सुर'दग'गेरू'न्द्र'हे प्रकेर' ते-ख़'सुम्'न्वा'श'अर्धेम्'न'म्बित् विंश्यमार्हेषाबामदे'श्चे-ख़'सुम्'र्यवाद'नेब'यर्गेवा'गत्रुवाबा क्रीम'यर्भेत'छिन' क्रुदि'

रबालनेग्राम् केरायारेना

ને ભાજ્ય ન્લાસુદ દ્વાવીયા ગુપ્ત વાલેયા તથી તે દ્વારા છે. આ પ્લાય સાથે પ્રત્ય પ્રદાય પ્રદાય પ્રદાય પ્રદાય સાથે પ ૡ૾ઽ૾૾ઽૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻ૾૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૹ૾ૼૼૼઽૼૹ૽૾ૢૡ૽ૼ૱ૹૡૻૻઌ૾ૻૹ૾ૢૺઽૻૡૼૹઽ૽ૺઽઌૻૻૼઌ૿ૹ૽૿ૡૡૻૼૡૹ૽૿ૡૡૻૼૡૹ૽૾ૡૡૻઌૺૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿૱ૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૽૾ૡૡ૽ રે રે જ બર્ષોવા વારૂ વાલ છે 'રે વાલ ન કે વાલ પ્રગામ મારે 'જ અ ખર્સે 'બર્મે લ છે ન 'શે'ના દેવે 'છે ન 'ગે બે 'બર ન બુલ 'સંતુ' ୵ୄୖ୳୷ୖୄୖୠ୵୕୳୕୶୲ୢ୶ଽ୶ଽୖ୵୵ଡ଼୲ୖ୶୵ୄଡ଼୵୴ଽ୕୶ଽୖୖୖଵଽୖ୶ଽଢ଼୲ଢ଼୵ୢୖଈ୶୲୰ଽ୕୵ୡୄୄଡ଼୵୲ୖ୶ଢ଼ଽୖଽଽଡ଼ୖ୵୰ଡ଼ୗ୕୲ୡୄୢୄଡ଼୵୲ୖଌ୳ଵୖ ᡃᠭᢆ᠋᠋᠆ᢋ᠂ᡏᡝ᠈ᡏᡭ᠙ᠺᠴ᠄ᠴ᠋᠊᠋᠊ᠻᡃ᠋ᢦ᠉ᠴᡄ᠂ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡃ᠋ᢒᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᠴ᠋ᡱᢅᠴ᠋᠂ᡪᡄ᠋᠋᠋᠆᠋ᡝ᠆ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡘ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡭ᠋ᢤᡄ᠂ᡍᢆᡆ᠄ᡏᠱ᠈ᠱᠵ᠂ᡪᡭᡆ᠋ᢩᢂ᠋ᠴᡢ᠋᠇ᠵᢋ We just discussed white blood cells in detail. The additional, important thing to realize here is that the cardiovascular system is the mechanism (along with the lymphatic system discussed below) that allows both specific and non-specific immune cells to reach infected parts of the body. A superb video of this process in the larger context of cell biology is available at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MMrvmZ2i1sE&feature=rel ated.

Besides providing cells and transport for the immune system to fight infections, blood also provides transport for oxygen, a required resource for energy production. Without oxygen provided from the cardiovascular system, cells and organs die. It is the erythrocytes or red blood cells that carry oxygen. Red blood cells have a shape and flexibility that allows them to easily and quickly flow through your blood vessels. Like leukocytes, erythrocytes are made inside your bones. The specific protein that carries oxygen in red blood cells is called **hemoglobin** (Figure 36).

Platelets, another blood component, are like small pieces of cells; they do not even have nuclei, but move through the blood waiting for any damage to blood vessels to occur. When it does, platelets bind to the edges of the injured vessels and begin to send out signals to other platelets, which then, again using chemotaxis, gather and clump at the injury, forming an initial clot or blockage, so that bleeding stops.

While this first platelet-clot forms, a more permanent clotting mechanism gets going. Like many of the signaling processes we've discussed in biology, this process happens via a cascade of reactions (Figure 37) among proteins, known specifically as clotting factors, that activate in a series to form a fibrous plug at the site of injury. This plug traps other cells in the blood and becomes stronger.

The fluid non-cell part of your blood is called plasma and it makes up a bit more than half of your blood by volume. Plasma is about 90% water and about 10% proteins. Plasma proteins are divided into three separate classes: one class is involved in regulating blood clotting; another class includes hormones and hormone-carriers which play a role both in blood-clotting and in carrying fats and cholesterol; and the third class contains proteins involved in the immune response. Plasma proteins are also important in maintaining the pressure of your blood in the vessels and the proper pH (see LSPII) in your vessels.

IN DEPTH: HOW VACCINES WORK

The use of vaccinations to prevent illness is based on the principle of 'priming' the specific immune sys-tem. The vaccine contains anti-gens of a particular diseasecausing agent—not enough of the antigen to make you seriously ill, but enough to activate your specific immune system to make memory Tand B-cells. Thus, if you are exposed to the full-blown actual pathogen later, you have a much quicker and more efficient response to it and are less likely to become ill.



Figure 36: A heme. Hemoglobin consists of four heme groups bound to a globin protein. Each heme group contains an iron ion which can bind oxygen.



Figure 37: In the blood clotting cascade, many factors are activated. Here are shown two different types of damage (intrinsic and extrinsic) and the protein factors they activate to eventually cause clotting. III, IIIA, VII, VIIA, IX, IXA, X, XA, XI, XIA, XII and XIIA are all different protein clotting factors activating each other in cascades as indicated that ultimately result in the production of fibrin which causes a permanent blood clot.





<u> </u> ଵୄୄୣ<mark>ୄ</mark>ୖ ୷୲ଢ଼ୄୖ୶୶୷ଢ଼ୄୖ୶୷୷ଢ଼ୄୖ୶୷୷ଢ଼ୄୖ୶୷୷ଢ଼ୄୖ୶୷ୢୄୡ୶ୢୢଞ୍ଚ</u> ઞેનં ફ્રોંનં કેનં મ⁻તે તે માં જે તે કુન છે તે જ જ જ જ वन् दर्मेषा अपगे ने लेन अर गे अर हो ये व र हो क्तुति स तहे व गवि भागविषा म विषा मे] ने भाम ²रेंबर्ट्सवीयार्थ्वयोग र्थेवर्ट्स वे स्टिल्स् विर्ह्सेटर ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ <u> २५:ख</u>्र रॉन देख्र वर्द र वींग तुर क क्रिट ह ને તે અનુ ગાલે ને ને ખનગા ક્યુ 'સે ને ન ગાલે કુ સે . विगः क्वेन्द्र के के दि कुन गी र्डयानु गिंदबा थेन् ने या महेव वबाया ययाने का इवर्ग्सेवर्ग्न-संसुम्रानमाइवर्ग्सेवर्ग्ध-संसुम्र ॻऻॾऀॸ॒ॱऻॕॎॱॴॻॱॾॕऀॻऻॺॱॸऺॎऄॱॺॖॸॖॱॻऻढ़ऀॱऄॣऀॸॱक़ॖॖॖऺॖॖॺॱॸ॒ॸॕॺॱ गुक्राराःविगान्दारस्रमाकृत्दा नेत्रारस्रयायत्रा अवादनेमबादद्युबाळटान्ग्रेनावुबायबा याटात्रयाने. ลาาฏิจาลลางกลายสายสาย

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BLOOD VESSELS

Our couple's cardiovascular systems use three types of tubes or vessels to transport blood and its molecules (Figure 38): (1) **arteries** carry blood from the heart to the rest of the body; (2) at the sites of delivery, arteries narrow into vessels called **capillaries** that penetrate deep into tissues and organs; and (3) capillaries join to form **veins** that carry blood that's released its oxygen back to the heart to get more oxygen. There are so many capillaries (around 50 miles worth!) in us that every single one of our trillions of cells is close to at least one.

The walls of arteries and veins are rubbery and strong and little can pass through them, but gases and other nutrients are exchangeable through the capillaries between blood and cells and tissues. In response to signals from the nervous system, blood vessels grow wider (dilate) and narrower (constrict) in order to regulate the blood's pressure and to which organs it is distributed.

THE HEART

All blood vessels lead to or from the heart, since your blood moves in a constant circle throughout your body. Your heart is made of strong muscle attached to a protein network and has four parts or chambers (Figure 39). The septum separates the right atrium and ventricle from the left atrium and ventricle. Your heart has one-way valves, atrioventricular (AV) valves, to ensure that the blood moves through it in only one direction.

The chai-drinking couple's blood moves through two circuits: **pulmonary circulation** and **systemic circulation** (Figure 40). Pulmonary refers to the lungs. The lungs are a pair of large organs in the couple's chests that fill with air when they breathe in. This air contains oxygen needed by their bodies—all cells—to produce energy. So, the pulmonary and systemic circulation systems are devoted to obtaining oxygen from air in their lungs and moving it to all their cells. Later in the cycle, the systems circulate carbon dioxide, obtained from the cells in exchange for oxygen, back to their lungs to be breathed out when they exhale.

The blood leaves the heart through the pulmonary arteries, the only arteries in the body in which the blood holds very little oxygen. The pulmonary arteries bring this blood into the lungs where it moves into smaller and smaller vessels, eventually reaching the thin-walled pulmonary capillaries that cover the air sacs in the lungs; the air sacs contain the oxygen in the air you have breathed in. Here, this oxygen diffuses into the blood and then into the pulmonary veins (the only veins in the body that carry blood with a lot of oxygen) and then to the left atrium.



Figure 38: Arteries carry blood from the heart to the rest of the body. Veins carry blood back to the heart. Capillaries are sites of oxygen exchange.



Figure 39: Here we see the heart in two perspectives: on the top (A) is the whole heart and below (B) is a cross-section.



Figure 40: Blood moves through the pulmonary circuit to the lungs and through the systemic circuit to the rest of the body.





御新新史

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 Systemic circulation moves oxygenated blood, pumped from the left ventricle to the aorta and then to the arteries that reach all parts of the body. Each artery again narrows into smaller and smaller vessels and eventually capillaries that reach all our cells (where oxygen is left) and then fuse into narrow veins and then wider veins, eventually leading back to the heart. Blood returns from the tissues (where the hemoglobin from its red blood cells has left its oxygen) via large veins, the **vena cavae**, and fills the right **atrium**; this forces the valves to open and blood is pumped into the right ventricle, and the cycle repeats.

The couple can feel their hearts beat simply by putting their hands over their hearts. You can do the same. How does your heart beat and how is the heartbeat regulated? This process involves a specialized version of nerve and muscle signaling. We will discuss such signaling in more detail in NSII, but briefly: The heart has a collection of muscle fibers called the sinoatrial node that starts each beat of the heart, and the beat signal is carried throughout the heart. The signaling contracts the muscles of the heart so that it beats about 70 times per minute. The heart can beat independently of the body and heart cells in a dish also beat on their own; nevertheless, the heart beat and rate is closely regulated by signals from the nervous system and endocrine system to ensure all cells beat continuously and synchronously. For example, stress of any kind induces one endocrine gland, the adrenal, to release hormones that signal the heart to speed up its beat-rate. Other glands secrete hormones in our couple that play a role in love and reproduction.

THE LYMPHATIC SYSTEM

We have another circulatory system, the lymph system, which we already referred to in our discussion of the immune system, since it is the system that initiates immune response. The lymphatic system is spread throughout the body and also absorbs fluids from the digestive tract and other parts of the body. Lymph tissue is most dense in areas called lymph nodes (Figure 41). Like the cardiovascular system, the lymph system has vessels and capillaries to move materials throughout the body.

THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM: EXCHANGING GASES O₂ AND CO₂

Clearly, if we didn't breathe, we wouldn't live. So, at the most fundamental level, we must breathe to survive. Why?



Figure 41: A lymph node.

નચે રેશ્વ છે જ્ઞેવ ચનુના



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૽૽ૺૼ૾ૡૻઌ૽ૼૼઽૻઌ૽૿ૺ૾૾ઌ૱ૡૻૹ૽૾ૻૡૻૹૻ૾૱ૻૻઌ૾૿ૻ૽ૹ૾ૢૺઽૻૡ૱ૡઌ૽ૻૡૻૻઌૡૻ૾ૼૡૻૻ૱ૹ૾૾ૹ૾૽ૡ૽૾ૡૻૹ૾૽ૡ૾ૺૹ૽૾ૣ૾૱ૡ૱ૹૻૻ૾૽૱ૡ૱ ข้าฐานขุณริเมสมพริมิขพริมงธุรานขุการวิกราริเพรานอูกรมติเล่า อิราริมาณริเราระรารา देन ळेंब नगर ड ळव ने गणी र्श्व तर्योते होंग ने गणी वा पर मुबायर र्ये ब शूर गुणा तेंव गुर रे गुषा पर शूंबर ૹ૾ૢૢૺ૮ૻ૽૽૿ૡૡૻૻૠૼૡ૾ૣૺૡૻૻૻ૽ૼૼૻૺઌૻ૾ૡૻૹૻ૾ૣૼૻૡ૽૾ૺ૮ૻૢૻ૾૾૾ૻૡ૽ૻૹૻૡૡૻૻૠૡૣ૾ૺઌૻૡ૽૿ઌૡૻૹૡ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡૻૻૡૻૡૻૹૡ૽ૻ૱૿૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ พ้า กรุเลยิสาลยี้สานส์ าารานาทิพาสิราณสพาพิเศาสุราลเลมารูเลรูทาย รายารสาสพารูพาผลาสุรา ૡૢઽઽૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૢૻૻઌૢ૾ઌૻઌૻ૾ઌ૾ૻૡૡૻૻઽૡ૾ૢઽ૽ઙ૽ૢૺૼઽૢૡૢૻઌૢૻ૾૾૾ૼૡૢૻ૱ૡઽ૽ૹ૾ૢઽ૽૽૽ૼૡૡૻૼઽૡ૾ઽઽૼઽૡૡૼઽૻૼૻ૾ૼૼૼઽૡૡૼઽૻૡૼઽૻૡૡૼઽૻૡૼઽ इयायणान्दः वदः क्वेवः यायणाणविषावषाः सेवायदे पद्दः दर्शवः दणाणीषाः स्नूदरायद्दिवः दयार्थे छेदाया देतिः स्तुया ાયુવા દોવા દોનું નુરાય છે. આ ગામ આ ઙાવા રેવા સે આવય સેંદ સેવ રાગ્ય સુયા છે સેવ દ્વારા સુવા સેવ દ્વારા સેવ દેવરા સેવ દ્વારા સેવ દ્વારા સેવ દ્વારા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવ દેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવ સેવ દેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવરા સેવ દેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવ સેવરા સેવ સેવરા સે

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In addition, breathing and focus on the breath has a central place in Tibetan meditation. Why the breath? Perhaps by understanding the physiology of respiration and how it is connected to our other systems, we will get some hints.

Breathing allows us to bring in oxygen from the air. Oxygen as we learned above in our discussion of circulation must be provided to cells for the process of energy production. Oxygen is actually produced by plants as a waste product of *their* energy production process (photosynthesis). In complementary fashion, a waste product of our energy production is a different gas, carbon dioxide (CO₂), and this gas is in turn used by plants to produce energy during photosynthesis.

While our couple is sitting at the café drinking chai, they are breathing without consciously thinking about it. While you are meditating, you might be more consciously focusing on your breath. In either case, let's follow what happens to a breath when you breathe in. Whether you breathe through your nose or mouth, the incoming air goes into the pharynx at the back of the throat (Figure 42). In the nose, bacteria and other contaminants in the air are filtered out by mucus, a viscous, sticky substance produced by cells in the nasal lining. The contaminants are eventually passed along in the mucus when you swallow to the digestive system and disposed of.

A flap of tissue covers the larynx and closes to separate food, going through your pharynx and into your digestive system, from air continuing through the larynx and into the lungs and respiratory system. Air moves from the larynx to the trachea, which branches into two bronchi, one leading to each lung. These parts of the respiratory system are also lined with cells that secrete mucus to help remove particles from the air moving through the system.

The lungs are spongy, elastic organs filled with extensive surface area in which to allow gas exchange. The right lung has three lobes and the left one two. Much like the diameter of the arteries becomes smaller and smaller when they deliver blood, the bronchi become smaller and smaller as they move further into the lungs, and they eventually end in small sacs called alveoli. Your lungs have millions of these, and if they were all spread out their area would be equal to that of a basketball court. Like the capillaries, alveoli are one-cell thick, and it is through this alveoli that gas exchange occurs. In fact it is at the border of the capillaries and the alveoli where gas exchange occurs.

In the alveoli, the concentration of oxygen is higher than in the blood, so the oxygen moves by diffusion from the alveoli and into the blood (recall that substances naturally move from areas where they are more concentrated





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to areas where they are less so). Carbon dioxide, the waste gas of cellular energy production, on the other hand has been carried from the tissues in the blood to the lungs. So, here, in the lungs, the carbon dioxide moves into the alveoli and will eventually be breathed out (exhaled) and used from the air by plants (Figure 43).

Once the hemoglobin in the blood picks up oxygen, and therefore becomes oxygenated, it moves back to the tissues, where it moves into capillaries deep in the tissues and this time diffuses out of the capillaries and into the cells of the tissue that need the oxygen for energy production. Because these cells are constantly working, they are now in need of more oxygen, and they have a lower concentration of it than is in the capillaries bringing it, so oxygen diffuses from the capillaries to the tissues. At the same time, the working cells have produced CO_2 as a consequence of their energy production, and this diffuses from the cells into the capillaries, and the process is repeated.

BREATHING REGULATION

We have seen how breathing happens, and how it is intimately linked to circulation. But how is breathing regulated on a day-to-day basis? Like we said, our couple at the café does not sit around thinking about the need to breathe; they just do it. This involuntary breathing process also involves the nervous system and the muscle system and is regulated by groups of neurons in your brain stem called respiratory centers. The neurons, through mechanisms we discussed in previous primers, send a signal to the diaphragm and other muscles to contract; after a few seconds, the signal stops being sent, and the muscles relax, so you breathe out (exhale). And this repeats.

As your body needs more oxygen (and is thus producing more carbon dioxide it needs to get rid of) like during exercise or other stress (for example, when one of the couple burns his hand on the chai cup, or when they are both worried about plans for their new child), their breathing rhythm speeds up.

The more energy your cells produce, the more CO_2 they produce, and special receptors in your nervous and circulatory systems bind this carbon dioxide and signal your rate of breathing to increase. Other receptors are sensitive to oxygen levels and pH levels (more CO_2 results in more H+ ions, because CO_2 is converted into carbonic acid, and more H+ ions means lower pH) and also help regulate breathing.



Figure 43: Humans use oxygen and breathe out car-bon dioxide, which is then used by plants.

परेग^{्र} छेर रें।

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अर्ग्रेग्नगःसु दर्ग्रा

ने "अन्तरे खुर्बर हुन्दि न संस्थान मुख्य अन्य में के स्वय के साम के साम के साम साम के साम के साम के साम के साम ๚่ดิพานั่าพพ่าทุกาพการุกาน ดิทาทิพาศาฮานี้วิจันานกาพทานารอกานดิสารูาพทานารอิทานาผูายูเรม $w \in a$ $\tilde{a} \in a$ $\tilde{a} \in a$

<u>៹੶ᡆᠵ᠊ᡄ᠊</u>᠌ᢆᢜᢀᡃᠭ᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᡆᢩᠯᢀᡊ᠋᠊ᢓᡆ᠊ᢩᡓᡆᡃ᠋ᡃᢧᢆᡃᢖᡃ᠋ᡭᢍᡃᢆᠷ᠄᠙ᡃᡵᢈᠺᢩᡎᡆ᠄ᢅᢡᠭ᠃ᡪᡄ᠋ ने'र्स्ट'है'क्षूर'द्युर'र्स्य वॉर्ट्'नु'रेन'ळॅंब'अर्घेर छूंप'र्म्यन्यत्र यात्वित क्येर पविते'र्म्य कें पविकार्ये रस्य नमुवाया ૹ૽ૢૺ૽૱ઌઽઽઽૡૹૣઌ૽ૼૢૻૡ૱ૢઽ૾ૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૼૼૢૺ૾ૺૼ૽ૣ૾૾ૢૺઽૡૡ૾૾ૡૢઽ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૹ૽૱ૻઽઽૡૹૣ૽ઌૹ૽૾ૡ૽૾૱ૻૢ૱૱૱ૡૼ૱ૻ૱ ने'भर' ઽૢૣઌઽૻ;ૹૼૻૡૢૻ૽ઌૣૢૢૡૢૢ૿ઌૣૹૻૡૺૻઌ૽૾ૡૻૹૻૣ૱ૡૻૣ૽ૼૡૺૼ૾ૺૹૣ૽ૼઌઽૢ૾ઌૻૹૻૣ૱ૹૹૻૹૢૻઽ૽૾ઽૼૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹ૾ૣ૱ૻૺૡ૾૾ૡૻૻૡૼૡૻ૾ૡૻ ने'न्या'चक्तुन'अक्रेब'र्रे'न्ट्र-'य'याबन'या'बन'पा'श्र'द्र'दिष्ठभ्यम्भुश्यमदे'म्ह्र'दक्षेब'यार्हेर्ट्रम्'न्ट्र' ने'वर्ष'भूभर' ૹૡઌૡઽ૽ૡ૾ૺઽ૽ૺૣ૾ૼૹૻઌૡૼૡઙ૾ૣૡૼઌૡૻૼૼ૱૱ૹૹૡૡૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻઌૡૡૻઌૡૻઌૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡૻૻૡૡૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૻૻૡૡૻૻૡૡૻૻૡ

ؗۘؗؗؗۘؗۘؠڮٙٵؚؾ؇ڂ؆ٵ؋ٵڮٵؿ

૫ંર્ચેન ત્રહે સુંત રુવ નુ શુર રુવ ને છેને સર ખત્લુ ગુમ છેળાય છું છુળા છેના ને ર સ લવ મહુન લુન શુર શુર શુર શુર શુ ૹૣૣૣਗ਼૱ૻૻઽૹૣ૽ૺૻૼૼૼૼૹૻૻઌૻૻ૱ૻ૱ૻૡૢૻ૱ૡૢૻ૱ૡૢ૽ૺ૱ૡૢ૾ૺઌૻૡ૽૾૽૾ઌૻ૱૾૽ઌ૽૾ૡ૽ૻ૱૾ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૽૱ૡ૽ শ্ব:শ্বন ૡૺૡૢૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૡૻૹૻૻૡૹૻૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻઌ૾ૻૡૻૻૡૼૹૻૼૼૼૡૢૻૼૼૼૡૻૻ૽૽ૺૼૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૻૹ૽ૻૡૻૼૼૹ૾૾ૡૻઌૼૡૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡૼૡ૾ૻ૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ઌ૽૿ૡ૽૾ૼૻ૽ૡ૽ૼૻ૾ૼૻ૽ૡૼૼૻ ᠵᡄᡃᡆᢆᡰ᠋᠉᠊ᢋᢩᢐ᠈ᠽ᠈᠊ᡍᢆ᠆᠙ᠺᡏᢅᢩ᠊ᢋ᠊᠋᠊ᢖᢐ᠆ᡅᡭ᠂ᢍ᠋᠋ᠳᡎ᠙ᠴᢆᢩ᠋ᢦ᠉ᠭᡎ᠉᠙ᠺᠳ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠆ᡆᡭᡆ᠆ᢣᡭ᠄ᡩ᠄ᢞᡁᡄ᠂ᠺᡭ᠂ᡪ᠋᠋ᡃᡆᢆᠯᢀ᠂᠋᠋ᡪ᠂ᢍ᠋ᡎᠴᠵ ૹ૾ૣૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻઌ૾૾ૼૺૼ૾ૻ૱ૢૻૢૼૼૻઌ૾ૢ૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻઌ૾ૻૡૼ૱ૢૻૹૻ૾ઌૼૡૼ૱૱ૡૻઌૼ૱૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡૡ

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น่ดิ พุธรายราลีสาผส์ สูราจิุลาดมูรามิ สูรายิรา

વેંદ્રશ્વ ર્શું નુપ્ય રેનુ

METABOLISM: ENERGY USE AND PRODUCTION

The couple drinking chai is drinking it because it tastes good and drinking chai has become a cultural and social ritual in some cultures. But both the taste and the social and cultural aspect most likely relate to the energy chai provides. As we discussed in LSPII, we have evolved to like the taste of things that provide us with a lot of energy, that is sugars (carbohydrates) and fats and proteins. Chai has these.

We have seen how the cells making the energy get the oxygen they need for energy production—via the circulatory and respiration systems. Oxygen turns out to be necessary for the very last step of energy production, but materials like proteins, sugars and fat are needed at the very beginning. As we learned in talking about the basic life molecules in LSPII, certain chemical compounds store energy in their chemical bonds. Metabolism breaks down those bonds and uses the energy in them to carry out work.

As soon as our couple drinks the chai, the amylase enzyme in their saliva begins to break down the components of the chai. Now, instead of going down the larynx like air we inhale, the chai moves down the pharynx. Swallowing muscles move the chai down the esophagus and into the stomach, a large muscular organ that swells when food enters it. The stomach is lined with more mucus-producing cells interspersed with pits that lead into millions of gastric glands deep in the stomach. In the glands, specialized cells secrete powerful digestive substances like hydrochloric acid and precursors of digestive enzymes like pepsin to break down proteins and other molecules. Over several hours food in the stomach is digested into a kind of soup, which eventually moves into the small intestine, where digestion is completed.

More chemical digestion happens in the duodenum, the first part of the small intestine, than in the stomach. Enzymes and other digestive substances from other organs, especially the pancreas and liver, as well as from the cells lining the small intestine, complete food digestion. The small intestine is lined with projections called villi, which expand the surface area of the organ (analogous to the capillaries of circulation and the alveoli of respiration), slowing down the digestive slurry moving through and increasing the amount of its nutrients that are absorbed.

The liver secretes bile to digest fats like those in the milk in our couple's chai, and the pancreas secretes digestive enzymes like trypsin and chymotrypsin that digest proteins in the chai milk into amino acids, amylase that digests the chai carbohydrates (the sugars in milk and table sugar), lipase that degrades fat in the milk into basic gycerols, and nucleases that break down RNA and DNA into nucleotides. The liver also helps maintain the balance of nutrients in the blood by adding or removing them, and the liver stores extra glucose for later use.

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عَنَّم

 नगरः यॅग्गबिवानमः क्षेणायमाणविमः क्षेवानमा अक्रेवायावर्षा ग्रुमायतेः क्षेवाह्र्यानमा विमुख्यानमा विभागतेः नमेला ૡૺઽૹૻૡૼૹૻઌ૾ૻૼૢૼ૾ઌ૿૾ૢ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૡૻઌ૾ૻૡૻ૾ૡ૾૾ૡૢૻઌ૽ૻૹ૽ૢૢૢ૽ઌૹ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌ૾ૡ૽ૼ૱ૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹ૾ૻઌ૿૾ઌ૿ૻઌૻૹ૾૾ૼૡૼૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૹ૾ૺૼૡૼૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿૽૽૱

*ૡ*ૹૻૹ૾ૢૺૹૻૻ૬ૡ૽ૺ૱ઽઌ૽૿ૢૺૻઌૹઌૹૻૻૢૼૼૼૼૹૻ૱ૹ૱ૢૼૼ૱ૡૢ૱ઌૻૹૼઌૻૻઌૡ૽ૺૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૹ૽ૡૹ૽૽ઽ૽ૺ૾ૺ૾૾૽૾૾૾૾૽૱૱ૹ૾૾ૹ૽૾ૹૻઌૡૢૻઌૹ૽ૺ૱ૣ૽ૢૼઽૻઌૣ૱ૢઌૹૻ Řੱਛੇਕ⁻ਧੇੱਯਟਿੰਕ੍ਰੈਗ੍ਰਹੀ ਕਟਯੂੜਕ ਲੱਕ ਸ਼ੇਹਿਆਪ ਕ ਨੇ ਉਨਾਉਣਾ ਸ਼ੁੱਆ ਘੇਂਟਾਰ ਨੇ ਨਾ ਤੇ ਨਾ ਕੇਂ ਰਟਾ ਦੇ ਰਕਾ ਹੈ 'ਟੇਕਾ ਸ਼੍ਹਾ ਹੁਾ <u></u> ५ुःअन्दःञ्च्रेष् ५ुःमेःञ्च्र्य्यत्रः ञ्चेदःवर्देषः द्वेदःयः द्वस्य स्वरूप्ये द्वस्य विष्ट्रयाण् विष्याः द्वयाद्वीः विष्याः द्वयाद्वीः विष्याः द्वयाद्वयाः द ભાષા સાસારા ના ગોષા જ બેટે ગો બેંગે ના સુરાદ્ય ના ના ચેન સેવા સુવાદ્ય સાસારા તે ના સુવાદ ના બેંગે સું સુરા ગોવે સું <u></u>᠊<u></u>₹ᠭ᠈᠋ᡢᡰ᠋ᡊᡆ᠄ᡃᢆᡚ᠄ᡷᡆᡰᢩᢂ᠋᠈᠋ᡨᢅᡠ᠋ᡣ᠄ᡪᢩᡒᠵ᠄᠋ᠿ᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠆ᢣᡭ᠄ᢅ᠋ᢍᠲ᠆ᡷᠺ᠋᠋ᡰ᠋ᡭ᠊᠋᠉᠋ᡎᠴᢋᢁ᠋ᢍ᠉ᠼ᠉᠋ᢅᠼ᠉ᡸ᠋ᡬ᠋ᢋᡄ᠈᠊᠋ᡍᢅ᠄᠉᠈ᠺ᠋᠋ᠴ᠂ᡬ

ڛڗۥ؏ۣ؆ٮٚٵڲۣٳؖ٦ؚ؞ۮػؚٞ؏؞ؚٮۥۜۄۣڡٳ؆؞ٮۮؙ؞ۼۥۼڕڐ٦ڡٳٮٵٛ؆؞ڂڐٮٵٛؾؾٮٛ٦ٛ؞ۮؠٵۣڝڹڂڎڲ؆؞ڹڂ؆ۿڵڟڟۮۿڰٚۦ؏ۣڐٵٛ؈ ᠊᠋ᡍ᠍ᢆ᠋ᡇ᠂ᢅᠫ᠄᠊ᢎᠬ᠈ᢄ᠙᠋᠋᠋ᠹᠵ᠂ᡬ᠈ᢆᡱᠳ᠈᠊᠙ᢆᡎᢂᡷ᠆᠋ᡄᠡᢅ᠋᠋᠋ᢄᠯ᠅ᠺᡬᠯᡘ᠄ᢓᢆ᠆ᡗ᠋᠋ᠺᡬᠯᡘ᠄ᢓᢆ᠆ᢋ᠋ᠧ᠉ᡬᡐ᠋᠋ᠳ᠈ᠴ᠋ᢧᢩ᠆ᡗ᠈ᠺ᠈᠍ᡱᠳ᠈ᡃᡅ᠄ᠺᢋ ᠵᡃᡪᠵ᠋᠆᠋ᡱᢆᠬ᠋᠉᠋᠊᠋ᡃᡒᡃᢆᡆ᠄ᠼᢩ᠄ᢍ᠄ᢋᢆ᠉᠋ᡨᡃᡱ᠄ᡱᡃ᠆ᡷ᠉ᡩᡭ᠂ᠺᡆᠯᢅ᠄ᡷᢅᢩ᠆ᢙ᠋᠋᠋᠀ᢋᢦ᠉ᡘᡏᠴ᠋᠄ᠵᡗ᠋ᢩᢟᡳ᠋᠄ᡷ᠋ᡜ᠉ᢍᢆᡆ᠄ᢜ᠋᠋᠋ᡃ᠋ᡥ᠍᠄ᢓᠲᡃ᠄ᢜ᠉ᡩᡬ ૹૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻઽ૽ઌૻઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌ૽ૻૺ૱ૻઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૢઌ૽ૻૡૢ૽ૡ૱ઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૢૡ૱ઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૼૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૼૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ <u>પષ્યવૃષ્ય દ્વપાયવા ર</u>ેવા વીષ સ્ટર્સ્ટ વો સ્થયો છે બહેટ પર દેવરા વેર્ટ્સ્ટ સુષ ચાલર વાર્ષવા છે તે છે. આ સુષ જી</u>ર છે તે સા

ጞ፞፞፞፞ቑቚי)ᡪᠵ᠋᠋ٵ۪ۿؙٚٙᠭᡅᡃᡪᠵ᠋᠋᠋᠄᠍ᢓᡃᡝᢩᡛ᠋ᢦᡃᢙᡃᢋ᠋ᡃᡆᢆᢙ᠋᠋᠋ᠵ᠋᠋ᢩᠯ᠋ᡬᢋᡭᡭᠴᠺᢩ᠍᠍ᢋᡄᡃᠧᠬ᠈ᢋ᠈ᡍᢋ᠈ᠺᢩᡪᢌ᠈ᡅᢅᡪ᠋

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Digestion is regulated by the enteric nervous system embedded in digestive tissues and by hormones released from cells lining the digestive tract. Merely smelling or thinking about food activates the brain to send signals to the stomach, and digestion gets ready to go. Similarly, when the stomach is full, stretch receptors send signals back to the brain so that it further stimulates digestion with more signals for digestive juice release.

The digestive process breaks down the chai and other food eaten by the couple into its most basic components, and these components move across the membrane of the small intestine into the blood to be transported to their final destinations. Some nutrients diffuse into the capillaries, others require specialized channel receptors to cross into the blood. Figure 44 illustrates how these basic components are used and where they are used once they are received from blood. Carbohydrates and lipids are broken down to provide energy, lipids are also used to build other life molecules, and similarly amino acids are used to build proteins that provide structure and serve as enzymes. Metabolic processes that build new things are anabolic; **metabolic** processes that break things down are **catabolic**.

Material that is not absorbed in the small intestine moves onto the large intestine, so-called because it has a larger diameter than the small intestine—although the large intestine is shorter than the small one. Water and sodium are absorbed from the remaining material as it gradually takes on the consistency of feces. At this point in digestion, bacteria in the large intestine gain sustenance from the soon-to-be waste material. At the same time, the bacteria secrete vitamins that we absorb and use to our benefit.

Vitamins are organic compounds required in relatively small amounts by us for life, but which we cannot produce within our own bodies. Inorganic compounds known as minerals—like sodium, potassium, iron, calcium, and magnesium—are also required in our diets for survival.

Figure 44 gives a very general description of the biochemical balance that is going on inside us. This is only the bare skeleton of the vast number of interacting metabolic processes going on in our cells all the time. In sum, the basic life molecules that are broken down in the digestive system are used in two different ways: to build new molecules (which requires energy) or to provide energy. Let's follow one example of a metabolic path to demonstrate what ultimately happens to our couple's chai after they drink it.

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નચે⁻રેશ ૯૯ ધેશ-૯૨૪દેવે બુલાસુ૯૧ન૯ શુન્૬ લશુન્ પ્લેન્ પાલે ક્રો ક્રે દ્ર દેશ-૬૯ સ્થાવશુન્ સુદ ક્રે ભાગી ક્રેંગ્રથા ᠙ᡏᢆᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡆ᠋᠋ᢦᠴᠴᡃᢆᡃᢧ᠄᠋᠋ᢆᠣ᠋ᢦᡃ᠄ᢓᡃᢩᠵ᠄ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᡔᠵᡆ᠋ᡪ᠆᠋ᡃᡅᢙᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠇ᢧᠳ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠊ᡚ᠋᠋ᡎᢆᡅ᠋᠋᠋ᢧᠳ᠋᠋ᡅ᠋ᢆᢧᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᢧᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᢧᡎ᠋᠋᠋

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૾ઌ૱ૹ૽૾ૢૺૡ૾ૣઌૹૻૻ૽ૼૼૹૻૻૹૢૻૻ૱ઌૹૻૻઌૺૡૻૡૢૻૡૻૡૢૻૢૢૻૡૻૻઌ૾ૻઌૻૻૹ૽ૻ૱ૻઌ૾૽૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ สพาฏิริาลัสมานคม พราสาสพาพารัศานาครูๆานาชมาฏิพาฏรานราพราลูญายิกพาติรา รำพากริสาสพา र्थेपात्रकार्ग्रीकावित्रकायात्रा र्र्तेतान्नेतायत्र पात्रकार्या कार्यातायतात्र प्रतार्थे कार्यात्र प्रतार्थे का



Figure 44: A schematic representation of how food is broken down into different components and used in the body.

Sucrose, the table sugar in the chai, is converted by enzymes to glucose (see chemical reaction in Figure 45) and moves from the small intestine villi into the blood through a glucose transporter protein. Glucose has at least three different metabolic destinations. Excess glucose, that is glucose that isn't needed at the moment elsewhere, is stored in the liver in long chains called glycogen. Later if it is needed, glycogen is broken back down to glucose and sent through the blood to the cells and tissues where it is needed for energy. Alternatively, glucose can be used in an anabolic process as one of the building blocks for the production of the nucleic acids RNA and DNA; remember, both of these contain a sugar portion (Figures 46 shows the structure of sample RNA and DNA nucleotides with their sugars noted).



Figure 45: This chemical reaction shows how sucrose, the table sugar in chai, is converted into glucose, which is then digested by the body.

Glucose can also go into the blood and directly to cells and tissues where the energy stored in glucose's chemical bonds (see LSPII) is converted to ATP, the major driver of chemical reactions in the cell. Glucose is the first





component of several metabolic chemical processes, some themselves requiring ATP, that eventually produce a lot of ATP through cellular respiration. Glucose is first broken down by enzymes in the cell cytoplasm to produce pyruvate and then acetyl coA which enters into the mitochondria, organelles of the cell where ATP production takes place. In the mitochondria (see LSPII), a set of enzymatic reactions called the Krebs cycle, transfers the energy in chemical bonds, in the form of electrons, to molecules that carry that energy to a final set of reactions. This final set of reactions is -- collectively known as the **electron transport chain** also occurs in the mitochondria (some products from the Krebs cycle can also be used as precursors for the synthesis of amino acids). The electron transport chain occurs in nearly all organisms. In humans, it involves dozens of proteins that come together to use the energy originally stored in the chemical bonds of glucose to drive an enzyme called **ATPase**. This enzyme produces the vast majority of ATP we use.

The final electron transfer of the electron transport chain requires oxygen. Thus, this entire metabolic system we just described is also known as **cellular respiration**. Electrons are transferred to oxygen converting it into water. If this oxygen is not carried to cells (thanks to plants and our respiration and circulation systems, as described above), the transport chain ceases, no ATP is produced, cells are unable to carry out their functions, and they die.

Proteins in our diet are another significant source of amino acids, in addition to those built in the body from Krebs cycle precursors. Proteins from milk in the chai are broken down into amino acids during digestion. These amino acids can be carried to cells in the blood. Inside cells the amino acids are used to synthesize new proteins through the translation process we discussed in LSPII, the last step in that process that converts the DNA code into proteins. Excess amino acids, like excess glucose, can go to the liver. In the liver the amino acids are further metabolized and can eventually wind up in stored fat or as additional precursors (pyruvate, acetyl coA) for energy production via cellular respiration.

Fats in the milk of the chai also have several potential metabolic destinations, including, again, the liver where they are converted to products used in cellular respiration or stored in fat cells, and which can then later be used to make more energy.

EXCRETION: REMOVAL OF METABOLIC WASTE

In the previous section, we discussed digestion and its useful endproducts that help us and our chai-drinking couple grow and maintain ourselves. In the digestive process, everything that is not used from the



Figure 46: On top, an RNA nucleotide structure and below, a DNA nucleotide structure.

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food is eliminated as feces. Although still involved in waste processing, our excretory system has a subtly different function than the elimination process involving feces. Excretion functions to remove metabolic wastes, ions, and other harmful substances from our bodies. Many of the metabolic processes we discussed above produce both 'useful' molecules and toxic or un-needed molecules. These non-useful products must be removed; the urinary system carries out this removal.

Figure 47 illustrates the human urinary system, which is composed of the **kidneys**, the **bladder**, and associated **ducts**. The two kidneys are each about the size of a fist. **Urine** (waste to be excreted) flows from collection ducts into the kidneys, then out through the ureter to the bladder. The bladder can hold as much as 800 milliliters of urine; smooth muscle in the bladder walls allow it to expand and shrink dramatically.

When one of our couple excuses him or herself and goes to the bathroom to urinate, urine is released from the bladder, flows through the urethra and out. In males, the urethra is long and moves through the penis, the same organ through which semen moves (see below); in females, the urethra is much shorter and is responsible only for carrying urine.



Figure 47: The human urinary system.

Kidneys regulate overall balance (homeostasis) in the body by regulating fluid balance and excreting waste. They secrete hormones to facilitate these processes. The functional unit of the kidneys is called the nephron; each kidney has about a million nephrons. Urine forms as blood is filtered through the nephrons. Blood enters the kidneys through the renal artery and moves through smaller and smaller vessels where it is filtered before leaving (now 'clean' and free of waste) out the renal vein.

The blood filtered through the nephrons is under very high pressure as it moves through the kidneys. The pressure allows parts of the blood—fluid, ions, glucose, salts, amino acids—to move through membranes in special filtration cells. Larger elements of blood, like proteins and blood cells cannot pass through the membrane. As the blood continues to move through the kidney, just the right amounts of vital substances, like glucose, amino acids, and vitamins, that have been filtered out of the blood are put back into it, while unneeded ions and salts are not replaced and thus become part of urine and are excreted. The removal and replacing of ions in the kidney is also carefully maintained in terms of pH, so that the blood keeps just the right amount of hydrogen ions in it to allow for the right conditions for the many functions of the blood, especially the vital ones of binding and delivering oxygen and carbon dioxide.

वे क्षमायत्रमावन के

ผเทนามนิเาฮูราราเนๆเสามสูรารานดูรานดิสาราชุราเนๆ इस्रमाः क्रुं भ्विमामा ने ते नक्तुन वमा तक्त से मुन યાં ભારે મેં આ પ્રાંગ પ્રાંગ મું આ પ્રાંગ મું આવે મું આવ્યું આવે મું આ પ્રાંગ મું આ પ આ બાળ પ્રાંગ મું આ પ્રાંગ મું આવ્યુ આવ્યું આવ્યું આવ્યું આવ્યું આવ્યું આવ્યું આ પ્રાંગ મું આ પ્રાય મ આ પ્રાંગ મું આવ્યુ આપે મું આ પ્રાય મું આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આપ્ર પ્રાય મું આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્યુ આવ્ય ผยูนา มเตนามนิ สุนาขามสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายา และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และส และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และสุมพายาน และส શેષાદ્વયાશે અન્યાવી સ્વાયઅચારે તે કે સાથે તે સા ณฑาร์ามาริาสมพาณฐานนามโข้านนิายาหิสานสานสมาร์ๆานที่ๆามรามสานโย้มพาญฐมานายระ ૽૽ૼૺૢૻઽૼૼૡૻૻૢૡૻૼૼઽૻૡૹૻઌૼૹૻ૾ૼૼ૾ૻ૱ૢૻૡૻઌૼૹૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૹૻ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૹ૽ૻૡૹ૽૿ઌૹ૽ૻૡૡૹ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૺૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ

(ราะสาขาชิกาขช์กามหิตาจารักรการเกมส์จาร์)มหาราชการส์ รัฐการียาการส์สาร์ไป

᠗ᡁᢦ᠋ᠬ᠉᠋᠊᠋ᠳᠿ᠋ᢦ᠋᠄ᡬᠯ᠋᠋ᢦ᠃ᡚ᠄ᠻᡃᡎ᠋ᠲᢦ᠂ᡬ᠄ᠺᡭ᠋ᡛ᠋ᡘ᠂ᠺᡬᢩᠯᢋ᠊᠍᠍ᢖ᠋᠆᠋ᡃᠴ᠆ᡪᠺᡃᢐᢩᡑ᠉ᡚᡃ᠋᠋ᡢᠹᠵ᠙ᡁᡬ᠄ᠻᢅᢩᡒ᠉ᡱᢔ᠋ᠳᡃ᠋᠊ᢖ᠄ᠴ᠄᠋᠉ᡔ᠋ᠺᠺᡬᡬᢩᢋ ૽ુેન પરિ સેં વૃષા સુષા મેં તે સેંગ્ર સું ગા છુ. પર (શાસા ગાવ થા પર) સુર થા તરી વે છુેન પા રેના ને ના ગા થા સે વ દ્વા રેળાં બદ્દે માર્ગ્વે છે માર્ગ્વે સંગુન માર્ગ્વે માર્ગ્વે માર્ગ્વે માર્ગ્વે માર્ગ્વે માર્ગ્વે સંગુન માર્ગ્વે સંગુન માર્ગ્વે સંગુન માર્ગ્વે સંગુને માર્ગ્વે સંગુને માર્ગ્વે સંગુને માર્ગે છે માર્ગે સંગુન માર્ગે સંગુને માર્ગે સંગુને સંગ સંગુને સંગે સંગુને સંગુને સંગે સંગુને સંગે સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગે સંગે સંગે સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગે સંગુને સંગુને સંગુને સંગ સંગે સંગ સંગુને સંગે સંગે સંગુને સંગે સંગુને સંગ સંગે સંગે સંગ સંગે સંગે સંગુને સંગ સંગે સંગુને સંગે સંગતે સંગે સંગે સંગુને સંગે સંગે સંગે સંગે સંગુને સંગે સંગ સંગે સંગે સં

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<u>᠊</u>ᡲ᠊ᢙ᠋᠆᠋ᠯᢆᢖᡄ᠄ᡍᢩᢂ᠋ᠼᠴ᠋ᢦᢩᠭᡅ᠋᠊᠋᠗᠊ᠵ᠂᠋᠊᠋ᢖᠲᡃ᠍᠍᠍᠍

લુમ્ટર્ન્ટા વાલવ અટલ્સોબ એંન સુવાબયાન જય ગ્રીય ગ્રુન ય લેવા રેના દેન ઝેંલે અવબાય વાલેય રેંગ્રે રેન્સ સું ੶ਖ਼ૼᡭ੶ᢉ᠍ૢ੶ਫ਼ੑੑ੶ੑ੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ੑੑਸ਼ੑ੶੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶੶ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਙੵੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਲ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਲ਼ਫ਼੶੶੶ੑਖ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑਖ਼ ล่ต่ามสารณ์ การพัดการพัดการที่สารที่การที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สารที่สาร

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REPRODUCTION

Now we come full circle in this primer. We began talking about development and the process involved in getting one cell to become many different cells within one organism. Here we return to the system, **reproduction** in multicellular organisms, that results in the production of new generations of organisms. In humans, of course, reproduction is more than just a way to produce another generation; an elaborate system of social interactions, actually, the large majority of social interactions, revolve around reproduction: marriage, families, larger communities, or, conversely, as in the case of monks and nuns, the promise to not engage in sexual activities nor to reproduce are similarly important and explicit parts of life. Probably, much of the evolution of the human species grows originally from the drive to reproduce and all of its repercussions.

Back in LSPI, we introduced evolution, the principles and processes that underlie all of life. We have often referred to evolution through the Neurosciences and Life Sciences primers. In LSPI we talked about how evolution requires mechanisms that allow diversity to occur in organisms. That diversity, as we discussed, originates within the conversation between genes and environment; changes in DNA sequence can lead to new and different proteins and then different phenotypes, different characteristics. The environment acts on these diverse phenotypes, selecting the ones that 'work best' to continue more effectively, that is, to reproduce more than other phenotypes. Over many, many generations, this process of evolution leads to entirely new species.

So, reproduction is clearly key to evolution and to life. From a purely biological point of view, reproduction is the key to life. In other words, everything an organism does is eventually focused on passing on his or her genes to the next generation. And this passing on of genes happens through reproduction.

Most theories that try to explain why reproductive sex evolved in the first place posit that it did so as a way to increase genetic diversity, especially in response to infectious or toxic agents, the biggest threats to any population. Reproduction, then, is not only the mechanism of passing on your genes, but in sexual organisms (in which two haploid genomes combine to make a new diploid genome), it is also a mechanism for passing on 'more diverse' genes and thus more diversity. According to evolution (and intuition), the more diversity you can pass on, the more likely your offspring will have the potential to thrive in the environment in which they develop, the more capacity your offspring will have for survival.

Let's explore this a bit more. Organisms, like bacteria and the slime mold

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યંર નર્શ્વેષાય યાં લેવા ધોવ બા વજીન ર્ટ્યુન કેન કેન સરજા વધે કે બાય વજીન વજા છેન ત્યારેની

<u>দ</u>িম'লা ५र्देशःणवृष्यःशुणश्रापेत्रःमुद्रःणे ळःवृषाःगुप्तःक्नेः त्रयेवाःवैःळें र्श्रेणःमुद्दःदेश्यवृत्तः स्वाणाः संदेश्येवाः वदीः कुदः क्वेणाण्ववृ

<u>ञ्च</u>प्देवप्परेता

૿૾ૺૼૼૼૼ૿૽ૡૻૻૹૻ૾ૡૻૹૼૡૻૻ૾૾ૡૻૻઌૻઌ૽૿ૡ૽ૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૺૡૻૡૻ૽ૼૡૻૺૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૻ૽ૡૡૻ૽ૡૡૻ૽ૡૡૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡ देनु ૡૢૼૼૼૼૢૹૣ૽ૺૡૹૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹૼૡઌ૽ૼૼૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૡૻઌ૽ૼૡૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽૿ૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽૿ૢ૱ૡ૽ૡૡૡૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ૱ૻૡઽૻ[੶]૱ૹ૾ૢૺૢૼ૾ૻઌ૾ૢ૽ૻ૾ૻઽ૽ઌ૾ૻઌૻ૾ૢ૽ૼ૱૱ૡૻૻ૽૾૽ઌ૽ૻૡૻૹૻૻ૾ૻૹૻ૽ૻ૾ૼ૱૱ઌૻૻૡૻૻ૱ૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૻ૾૽ૼ૱ૡૻૻ૽ૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻૻ૽ૻ૱૱ ૉર્વરપુવા વીષાને બદ્દતિ રેવાષા સંચાઅદેવ સચાવ ૮૮૫૫૮ વા બાલવાષા સુવાય સુવાય સુવાય તે બધા તે બધાર છે. જે તે તે આ વીષા વીષા સ્ટે બધાર પુરાય તે તે બધાર પુરાય તે તે બધાર પુરાય તે બધાર તે બધાર પુરાય તે બધાર પુરાય તે બધાર પુરાય તે બધાર તે બધાર પુરાય તે બધાર તે ને બધાર તે બધાર તે બધાર તે ને બધ สมานาริ यिंत वर्षाणार विण "मजत में ग "भेव या हे पत्र अषा हे हे भाष्य हुव यहाँत पर भुणाषा क्रेव सा यहात हु यही नका

દ્દેૡાલકોળઃગ્રી:ગ્રુદ:વ:નગભાષાલગ્રુદ:વર:વભ્નેશ:દેવ

ૹૹૼૹૹ[੶]ૡઽ૾ૺૣૻૻૻૻૻૹૻ૾ૼૹૻૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼૻૻઌૻૻૹૻૻૹૼૻૻૻઌૼૡ૽ૻઌૻ૿ૡૻૻઌૻ देन केंबा वेगा अन्तर तक ना तथे या नृत्त गवित यह हो नहें बा ૡર્વે ન્વ ક્લાર બાય વર્ષ મુખ્યત્વે સાચવાય છે. સાચાય સાચ ٦٦ ڲؘؚٵ؆؆؆ڛٚڗٳ٦٦٦٣٩ٵ؆؋ٵ؆؋؆ڲٵ؆ٵڮ٦٦٦٦ ڮٛ؆؆ۊ٦٦٦٩ ؈ڰڟ؆؆؆؆ڰٚ؆؆ۿ؆؆؆؇؆؆؇؆ નરુલ ભુંસુલર સે જેવે વર તે અહુર જ છું ગાય ગાવન હે બા સે સે સે સે સર્વે અવે છે છે છે છે તે ગાય તે ગાય તે ગાય તે આ

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with which we started this primer, can reproduce only **asexually** and have only one copy of all of their genes per cell. This means for one bacterium to make another new bacterium, it simply doubles all its genetic material and then divides by mitosis. And so, if you remember from LSPII and Figure 9 earlier in this primer, the result of mitosis is two daughter cells that are virtually exact genetic clones of their initial mother cell. Thus, asexual organisms, by definition, do not pass on much diversity to their offspring. They make up for this limitation by producing many times extremely quickly (for example, it takes minutes for bacteria to reproduce and nearly a year (around 400,000X longer!) for humans to do so), so that the chances of gene changes occurring are increased.

How does sex increase diversity? First of all, sexually reproducing organisms' cells all have two copies of all their genes—one from each parent. So immediately you can see this allows for more diversity, because each new generation is formed from *two different* individuals and their genomes. As we discuss at the beginning of this primer, to enable this to happen, two separate genomes unite during sexual reproduction to make a new organism. Sexually reproducing organisms like humans have a special cell division process different from mitosis specifically for making their gametes or sex cells. Meiosis results in the production of cells, sperm or egg, with only one copy of a genome. In addition, during a certain stage of meiosis, the two copies of an individual's genome mix and match, building even more diversity potential into the next generation.

When we discussed development above, we outlined the process of fertilization. Here we'll briefly review the basics of the reproductive systems in each member of our couple sitting at the café.

Female sex cells, also known as eggs or ova, are made in the ovaries (Figure 13). The process of ovum production—called **oogenesis**—begins in the ovaries with the formation of **oogonia**. All the oogonia in the woman of our couple formed while *she* was a developing embryo inside her mother. Before she was born, the oogonia increased in size and then froze in development until the woman reached puberty, when in response to hormones egg maturation (called **ovulation**) begins.

Ovulation occurs monthly through the reproductive years of a woman. During ovulation the oocyte, previously frozen in developmental time, matures, moves into the wall of the ovary, and eventually is released into the oviduct, where it is swept along by the long cilia of cells. This is the point at which fertilization of the oocyte can occur if sperm released by the male during sexual intercourse enter the vagina of the woman and find the oocyte by the process of chemotaxis explored earlier in the primer.
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નચર સું ગુતે વૃત્ત દુ: શ્રેં ન પર બશુર લેતા નેર સંસ્ટર પ્રત્વેવ શે સે સ્ટેન્સર્પે નગા ગે જ બનેન પર છેના ગળ นดิ:สุขาด้มิดาชีตาลากลี้รายิราริมากสูราลีรารุณาริารราชราชิโ ลุกลาริราลีรารุณาริเดิราณาทลังเทารา

(เกมสารมาร์ส์ราวรัสาษิราวิมา)ฏิริสมายาวทั้งสัมายาวิรา

୴୴୕୶୲୳୶୶୶୕୵୶୵ୖଽ୶ୢ୵୲୵ୖ୳ୄ୕୳ୖ୳ୢୠୄ୵ୖୄଌ୲ୖ୶୷ୡୄ୶ୖ୶ୡୖ୶ୢଽ୲ୄୖୡ୲ଽ୵ଽୣଡ଼୲ୖୖୄଵ୲ୖୖୖୖୡ୲ୖୖୡ୲ଽ୳୶୶୲୰୶ୖ୶ୄୠୖ୲୴୲ୠ୷ ক্র্রীন:ন্দরমা ᢧᢆᢂ᠋ᢅᡈᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᢅᡄ᠋᠋᠆ᢆ᠊᠋ᢜᢙᢆ᠇ᡜᡄᡃᡎᡭᡆᡭ᠄ᡆ᠍ᡆ᠂᠍ᡜ᠈ᢅ᠋ᡘᠯᡬ᠙ᡁᢩᠭ᠉᠄ᢆ᠊ᡀ᠆ᡇᠵ᠊᠋ᠲ᠋ᢉᡆᢂ᠊᠋ᡊᢂᠴ᠋᠊᠉᠋᠂ᡬᠯ᠋ᢋ᠂ᡍᡇᡝ᠊ᠫ᠇᠋᠋᠋ᢇᢋ᠋᠋ᠳ᠄ᢋ᠋᠋᠋᠆᠄ᡷ าซ์พ่าสุพานุสูราพราชี่ามาริสานราคมพารมหาพานัสาวิารุญาติาผนิณาผฐัพาวิรพานา อ ઼ૣૡઽ૽ૹ૾ૺૼ૾ઙૣ૾ૢૣ૽ૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌ૾૾ૺ૱ૹૹૹૻૻૹ૽ૢૡૢૹૻઌ૽ૢ૿ૺૹ૽ૢૺ૱<u>ૻ</u>ૡૻૹૻૻૢઌૻઌૻઌૻૡૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹૣ૾ૢૢૢૻ૱ૻૡૻ૾૾૾ૡૹૼૼૼૼૼૻઌૼૡૼૻૻ

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ઽેઽૢૹૻૺૹૻઌૼૣૼઽૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૹ૾ૻઽૡૹ૾ૡૻૹ૾ૣૺૹૻૡૻૢૹૻઙ૽ૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૹૻૹૻૻૡૼૡઽૺૹૻઙ૾ૣૢૼૺૼૼૼૹ૽૽ૢૼૢૼૺૻ૱ૢૻૺૼૼૼૻૹ૽ૻૹ૾ૣૻૼૼૻૹૼૡૻૡૹૣ૾ૹૻઌ૽૿ૡૡ૽૾ૡ

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Each month during ovulation, the walls of the uterus thicken in preparation for possible pregnancy. If the oocyte is fertilized, it moves to the uterus and implants in its wall. Here the new embryo begins to develop, gathering energy, and nutrition from its mother's surrounding blood vessels. If fertilization does not occur, the walls of the uterus slough off and are discharged through a process called menstruation.

In females and males, as we'll discuss below in more detail, reproduction is regulated by a number of hormones. In males, the primary sex hormone is testosterone, and it is maintained at a more or less constant level. In females, **estrogen** and **progesterone** are the major sex hormones, and their amount cycles monthly.

The primary reproductive organs in males are the testes. In the **testes**, male gamete production analogous to oogenesis occurs; in males, it is called **spermatogenesis**. After the period of initial sexual maturation (**puberty**), spermatogenesis takes place daily in males in tiny tubes within testes. Diploid cells called spermatogonia go through meiosis in the tubes to become haploid spermatocytes and eventually mature sperm (Figure 48) in a larger tube called the epididymis. From here, during sexual intercourse, the sperm pass through the male's urethra in the penis and into a woman's vagina.



Figure 48: Sperm cells are derived from precursor cells called spermatogonia.

REGULATION: ENDOCRINE SYSTEM AND NERVOUS SYSTEM

In this primer, like true biologists we have separated our bodies into distinct physiological systems in order to make them easier to study and understand. But, of course, as we've pointed out throughout the primer, all these systems *work together* in each of us to allow life. The two systems that are especially important in connecting and regulating all the other systems are the nervous system and the endocrine system. These two systems work together very closely to ensure they and all the other systems stay in balance, work well and as one.

The nervous system is reviewed extensively in other primers, but it is important to see here how it interacts with other systems. The endocrine system is a network of organs and glands that secrete hormones (usually into the blood or fluid between cells), hormones that respond to, and cause response from the nervous system and the other systems we just discussed. These hormones regulate every phenomenon and biological system we've discussed in this primer: development, growth, metabolism, fluid and chemical homeostasis in the blood and urine, reproduction, and stress/immune response.

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ने भ्रः वत्र र्श्वे माने मा तने ते पर्वो ૻૡ૽૾ૺ૾ૡ૽૾૱ૻૹ૾ૡૺૼૡૢૡૻૡૢૻઽૡ૽ૺૡૢૹૡૹૹ૽૽૽૽ૢૺ૱ૡઌૻૻૡૻ૽૱૱ૹ૽ૼૼૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૢૺૡ૽ૻૡૢ ॺड़ॖॖऀॻग़ग़ॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ ॴॖॺज़ॱक़ॕॣॖॖॖड़ॱॖॖॖॖॖॖऺॖॸॱय़ॱॸढ़ऺॖॎक़ॖऻ ऄॱढ़ऺऀॻऻॻऀॱक़ॕॱॺॕॖॻॱक़ॖॖॖॾॱय़ॸॱख़ॱऀऀॻॻॱॸॎड़ऀज़ॱय़ॶॖॾॱॸॸॱख़ॱऀऀॻॻॱय़ड़ऀॺॱड़ॶ ૹ૾ૢ૾ૹૻઌૹૻઌૻૡૢ૿ઌૣૻૹૻઽઌ૽ૼૹ૾ૻ૾૾ઽૺઽૡૻઌ૽૿ઌ૿૽ૡ૽ૼઽૻૻ૱ઌૡૻૻઌૡૡ૱ઌ૽ૻૢૡૻૡૼૡૼૡૼૡૼ૱ૹૢૡઽૻૹ૾૽ૡૻઌૻૡૼૡૡૼૡૡૼૡૼૡૼૡૼૡૼૡ૽ૼ૱ૹ૾૾ૢ૽ૡૻૹ૾૾ૡ न्भेषासानगार ग्री पायापावन पाहार परि सायापा पहि साथेना ने न्या है वर हो व सायापान र न्यर साथा ये न ૹૹ૾ૢૼૢૢૼૢૢૢૹૹૻૻઽઽૻઽૡ૱ૡૢૼ૱ૡ૽ૼૼઽૻૡૢૻૻઌ૾ૢ૾ૹ૽૿ૡ૽૿૽૽ૡૢ૾ૼૡૻઽૢૻૡૹૻૡૻૡ૾ઌૡ૾૽ૡૹૻૻૹૻૡૡૢૼૡૻૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૡૻ૽૱૿૽ૡ

दयेःरैष्ण ७४ विषण्यात्रात्रास्त्रस्तरावी रत्तात्रम्याः स्राय्वेजन्मी सासुतावृत्त्वीयाः याव्यकार्यात्रस्यात्रेत्रः 5ु.जर्चेनु.म.नेषी.जब्र हिंद.म.नु.म



এম:ন্:নের্যার্যী

<u></u>૽ૺૼૡૻૹૢ૾ૢૢ૽ૺૹૻૻૻૡ૾૾ૺૡૢૻૹૻૻૡૻૻૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૹૢ૽ૢ૾ૢ૽ૢૻૢૻૢૼૡૻૺૹ૽૾ૡૻૻઌૻ૽ૼ૱૽ૼ૱૽૾ૼૡ૽૿૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾૱ૡૡ ાવચલાનચર સેનુન રેચ ન ન બાદ ન સે સેવા ગાય છે. સેને ન સે સેવા ગાય છે. સેને ન સે સેવા ગાય છે. સેને ન સે સેવા ગાય સ સુદ ને તર સુવા હિ ને નવા થી વ સે સુન સુદ નલે છે જ છે સે વ જ ત છે આ તે વ જ જ मत्दंधेणन्दुयःग्रीव्ह्रयःयत्य्युत्तवृष्य्यवत्रःक्षेत्त्वुत्रन्तुःवर्येतृत्यःक्षुणासुत्तःक्वेत्यःविणाणीः विंदर्तु विंग्यवार्द्देवव्ययते विययमन्त्रात्र दे दुर्युत्त (द्ये त्रेषा २४)। यळव्यय पदी वया ૹૻૡૻૼૼૼ૱ૻ૽ૼ૽૾ૼૢ૽ૺૼૢૼૻૹ૽ૼૻૡૼૢૹૻૹ૾૽ૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૹૢ૽ઌૹૻઌ૾૽ૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ

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ઽૻૹૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૢૻૢૻૢૻૼ૾ૢૻૼૻ૾ઌૻ૾ૡૻૼૼૼૼૹૻૻૹૻૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૺૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ ૡઽ[੶]ૹૢૢ૾ૺૹૻૻઌૻૻઽૻ૾૾૾ૻઌ૽ૼ૾ૻ૱ૹૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૻૡ૽૾ૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૽ઌૻ૽ૼ૱ૻ૽૱ૻ૽ૼઌ૽૾ૼ૱ૻ૽ૼ૱ૻ૽ઌ૽ૼ૱૿૽ૡ૽૾૱ૻ

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Figure 49: Different types of hormones.

Hormones are secreted by cells, and they act by reaching target cells and activating or suppressing specific cell functions. They do this in much the same way as the chemicals involved in chemotaxis—cAMP and others—we discussed above. Figure 50 shows different types of endocrine signaling: classical signaling in which endocrine cells release hormones into the blood, which carries them to the target cells; **neuroendocrine signaling** involves hormones transferred (from cells signaled by neurons) into the blood or fluid between cells and thus carried to their targets; **autocrine signaling** in which the released hormone affects the very cell that secreted it; and **paracrine signaling** in which secreted hormones move through inter-cell fluid to nearby target cells.

Most hormones regulate processes through a mechanism known as **feedback**. Figure 51 illustrates negative feedback. If the product of a process is C, and A causes B to turn into C, an easy way to ensure not too much C is made is for C to *feedback* and *negatively* inhibit A. This mechanism is one of the most common in biological systems. Positive feedback works similarly, but the product of a process instead *stimulates* its own production.

Let's take one example that demonstrates feedback and signaling and, at the same time, shows how the endocrine and nervous systems interact. Here they do so to regulate the reproductive system. We will look specifically at the ovulation cycle of human females. Early in the month-long human ovulation cycle, nerve cells in a part of the brain called the hypothalamus express a gene encoding a protein called kisspeptin.

After it is made, kisspeptin is cut up into several short peptide hormones. These hormones are secreted and bind to target cells in the hypothalamus. The hormones specifically bind to receptor proteins in the target cell



Figure 50: Different types of endocrine signaling.



Figure 51: In negative feedback, a process is inhibited by its own product.

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ร୍ୟି:रैष्ण ५७ ร्याया:ସ୍ଥିଦ୍ୟଷ:ग्रे:ख्यायाक्ष:च्चेन:ख्याषः कृत्रा यात्र:यञ्चुक्:स्वर:क्वेन:क्रुन:दे:कृत:ग्रे:र्न्य-योषः भ्रूनष:दह्येव:ग्रे:च्चेन:रैक्ष:नेत्र:यगाया दर्योया वेनषःग्रे: व्यता



দ্য৾:२ेष्ण ५० वृष्टःक्षेव्र'(ध्र'सुष्ट'पृण'गै))न₹'२धेवृ' गहिष्ट'२र्ग्रेष'श्रे'२८५'म'क्ष्यषा



membrane. These receptors signal the cells internally to secrete another protein, **gonadotropin releasing hormone** (GnRH). The hormone is named for its function, which is to stimulate the release of other hormones that will 'turn toward the gonads'-'gonad' means sex organ and 'tropin' means to move toward. GnRH moves to target cells in another part of the brain just below the hypothalamus called the pituitary gland.

GnRH stimulates pituitary gland cells to secrete two other hormones that move through the blood to the ovaries. One of these hormones stimulates an oocyte there in the ovary to mature; another one stimulates the ovaries to produce yet another hormone, this one a steroid hormone mentioned above called estrogen. Estrogen has many important functions, but in this story, its most important roles are (1) to stimulate the thickening of the uterine wall in case a mature oocyte gets fertilized and (2) to feedback to the hypothalamus and pituitary glands in the brain to inhibit the production of GnRH and the other hormones.

But, later in the ovulatory cycle, once the level of estrogen reaches a high level, it now has a *positive* feedback effect on the pituitary gland, so that this gland secretes more of the same oocyte-maturing hormone. This time the hormone stimulates the release of the oocyte, ovulation itself, from the ovaries and into the uterus. Now the developing oocyte and its associated support cells secrete even more estrogen and another hormone, progesterone. Progesterone also further prepares the uterus for a fertilized egg. But, if fertilization does not occur, progesterone feeds back to inhibit secretion of GnRH and the other hormones from the brain. This in turn inhibits the secretion of progesterone, leading to the break down of the developing oocyte and the thickened uterine wall.

MEDITATION AND ITS REGULATION; REGULATING THE REGULATION

We have taken a tour through the life cycle and physiologic systems of our newly-married couple enjoying chai at a café.

What good does all this knowledge, all we have learned on this tour, do us? Well, there is certainly simply the satisfaction of knowledge, knowing how our bodies, our cells, tissues and organs work. But also, at a more profound level, such knowledge enables us to better address two questions: (1) How do we help heal our biological systems when they don't work well or become diseased, and how can we prevent such problems in the first place? and (2) How can we live better, healthier lives? That is, as humans we don't simply want to live and have all our systems working, we also want to contribute, to help others, to grow and learn, to feel compassion and act on it.

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 Western science has traditionally used its biologic knowledge to address these questions *from the bottom up*. The assumption is if one wants to address, for example, depression, one should first change the molecules involved in depression, and then, working up through the cells, tissues, and organs, this will result in altered, hopefully improved mood and behavior.

Buddhism on the other hand, especially recently with His Holiness the Dalai Lama, has traditionally begun to address the same questions *from the top down*. The assumption here is that behaviors, such as meditation and thoughts, change the body, through the brain and other organs, and then perhaps down to tissues, cells, and molecules.

Both practices, Western science and Buddhism, offer significant evidence to support their claims. These Emory-Tibet Science Initiative primers are full of such evidence from the scientific perspective, and your lives as practicing Buddhists are full of such evidence from that perspective. His Holiness the Dalai Lama's elegant insight and hypothesis is that *integrating* the two approaches—from the bottom up and from the top down—may well provide some of the best and strongest answers to the questions of how we best heal and how we best live.

Recent collaborations demonstrating the brain's ability to change in response to learning and other environmental interactions suggests His Holiness is correct. Research involving both Western scientists and practitioners of meditation is beginning to get at *how* thoughts, meditation, and behaviors can change molecules and vice versa. One of the most likely physiologic interaction points for such effects is the neuroendocrine regulation of the other systems we are discussing here.

In experiments, most notably at the University of Wisconsin led by Richard Davidson and at Emory University led by Charles Raison and Geshe Lobsang Negi, researchers are documenting connections between meditation and biological changes. Davidson and his colleagues demonstrate that people who have been meditating for many years have a greater sensitivity and control of many of their basic emotions than do novices or non-meditators; meditators also report feeling less pain than non-meditators and their attention and focus are better. These differences in behavior are reflected in differences in electrical activity in the brain and even in the size and distribution of the parts of the brain known to be involved in these functions. The data suggesting that mental exercise induces neurogenesis (new neural growth) are consistent with other data demonstrating physical exercise also induces neurogenesis.

Raison and Negi have expanded Davidson's findings to people who are not longtime meditators and even to people who are only learning to meditate

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 during the research project. The researchers find that, even after only a few weeks of compassion meditation practice, meditators demonstrate more balanced response to stressful situations; and, strikingly, but perhaps not surprisingly, these improvements in behavioral response are mirrored at the molecular level. Meditators' immune systems and stress molecules are healthier than those of non-meditators.

And so, it appears such collaborations lead us to the brink of a new era, an era in which the expanding knowledge of science, such as that you are learning in these primers, and the centuries-old Buddhist knowledge of mind and body will together take us to even further and more profound understandings of how life works. It is the children of our chai-drinking couple, the children of the next generation and the next who will lead the world down these paths of new discovery.

Acetyl CoA લાસે ત્વાર્ગો લાગો સુરા સૂત્ર ભૂતુ જાર સુવા Acquired immune deficiency syndromes (AIDS) নম্রন্য र्वेन वन दर्गे न जिन्न मुर्जे के मुर्गे के माने क Actin filaments মুদ শ্রী পৃশ শ্রবা Actin মুদ স্থ্রা Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) هَ'جَ ۖ عَلَى اللَّهُ اللَّهُ عَلَى اللَّهُ اللَّ વર્તુ શરૂ ના છે. તે. મુ. તર્ શરૂ ના Alveolar Cell ର୍ମ୍ଲି ଖୁନି ସ୍ୱଂଶ୍ୱମ୍ବା Amino acids ঐশ্বি স্ক্রিম স্থাম Amylase enzyme ঐশ্বি'ষ্ট্রীবৃ'শ্র্শা Anaerobic respiration ५कॅं.५नुगुषायायायानहेवायदी ५डीवाहुग ५कें. สูราฐณาจดิาดอูราสูจาฏาจ Anencephaly ૹઽૻૹ૾ૢૼઽ૾૾ૻૣૹઽૻૻ૱ઽૻૻ૱ૼૹૻૻ૱ૹૻૻ૱ૼૹ૾ૢૼઽૼ૽૱ૺૹૹૻ ૡ૱૱ઌ૾ૼઽૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૱ૢૢ૾ૡૻ૱ૼઌ૽ૼ૱૱ Anterior interventricular artery क्षेत्र क्षुनब्ब क्षान स्वन क्षान स য়<u>ঢ়</u>ৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢ Anterior pre-stalk cells र्क्तेन्य्यायायायां कर्देव तुः र्धुवायायाये स्वासुम्यत्वा <u>ग</u>ी'ঝर्देव'र्देब'हब'ম| Antibody-mediated immunity বর্ষীবা দার্যাম কর্মুন মেরি বিন এর্ফীয়া সদা দাবীৰা Antigen य्येवा जुम्बर क्रिट स्वा Antigen-presenting cells (APCs) द्योंग जुम्ल क्रेन स्थाय के क्रिया के क्रिया के क्रिया के क्रिया के क्रिया के क ধ্রস্থদা Aorta দেশন স্ত'ক্টব'র্ঝা Apex श्रुै८ से Arteriole বল্বসস্থাৰ্থ্য Artery দেশন স্থা Auricle of left atrium गर्थेव ग्रे न्ने न्द्रन्म र्न्नेन ग्री ज्ञान Auricle of right atrium གཔལ་ཀྱི་སྐྱིང་སྒྱུབས་སྐོད་ཀྱི་ན་གོོགག Autocrine signaling সদান্দ্রীর আর্দ্রি নার্দ্রি নার্দ্র নার্দে নার্দ্র নার্দ্র নার্দ্র নার্দ্র নার্দের নার্দের্দের নার্দ্র নার্দের নার্দের নার্দে B-cells শ্বি-শ্বন্থা Biceps न्युम् न्युन् जुःजुम् B-immunocyte श्चे-वृत्त्रवींगाञ्चासुत्ता Bladder শ্বদ'ন্য Blood vessel প্রশাস্থামণা স্থ্রদশ B-lymphocyte শ্ব-স্তু^{ন্থ্}ন স্থাস্থ্য ব্য B-memory cell শ্বি-রব দেই ব শ্ব শ্বদা Bone marrow न्द अर Bone স্তৃন্থায Brainstem 🕮 🏹 🖓 🖓 🖓 Calcium नगानः मुम्रा र्रेनः वि

cAMP (Cycle adenosine monophosphate) अर्थित्र क्युव खेखेय ચૈ'વર્ક્ಷ,≚ઓ Capillaries দ্রিশ'স্ত'শ্র'র্ঝা Carbohydrates ભર્મ્સ અંતર મહુન શ્રસ્તે સ્નેન્ટ ર્યો Cardiac Muscle শ্বীন্দ শেষকাপ দ্বীমা Cardiovascular system श्रेष्ट राज्य व्यायया CD 4 protein মিন্টাও খ্রীস্থাম CD 8 protein মিনি'ৰ খ্ৰী শ্ৰুআ Cellular and Humoral immunity લ્ર'લુમ'નમંદ્ર જેમ'મેસ'મંદ્ર' વૃદ્ নৰ্মীমামাৰ্বশ্বস্বা Cellular immunity झासुमानेवायते वृत्तार्वांगासुमान् ह्या Central Sulcus ମୁଅନ୍ୟୁମ୍ୟୁମ୍ୟୁନ୍ୟୁଦ୍ୟ Cerebellum শ্রন্ স্ট্রিন্ ব্ Cervix মদন্দ স্থ্রী Chemokines ধ্র্মাণ্ডবান্থ্রীধ্র্মা Cholesterol অশ্রিমান্দ্রশ Chymotrypsin শির্মিনিমামীর স্ট্রীর স্থেমা Circulatory system এমিন ক্রুর অ এম สู่จุจางเฉขู่วา/ฉฏิเฉขู่วารุจาวิณ Cleavage Clonal expansion দহস্কম অক্রিন দেশী Clump ক্রঁম'ন্য্ Conus arteriosus brevis ण्याया गुर्भे से सुनय क्षेत्र की सुनय के सुनय के सिंह क *ঀ*য়[੶]ঀৢৼ[৽]ঀ৾৾ৣ৽৻ৼৼৼ৾৾ৼৼৼৢঢ়৾৾৾ঢ় Convergence ৫নুন্গ স্থ্রিন Cytokines দ্বশ্বগ্ৰা Daughter nuclei I नः रुप्तः से र्याया की रेगाया नाम Dendritic cells ঊঁন'ঝল্'শ্ৰ'শ্ত্ৰদ' Deoxygenated ५क्वें ज़ूर से ख्वाया Deoxyribose વર્ळे નુનુગુગરા ગાલેન અન્ર સંગ Diagonal artery द्येन् ज्यूग दयर ह Diencephalon শ্রন্ रेब पर बा Digestive system འརྒྱ་ཕྱིད་མ་ལག ecmA gene રૈવાચા સ્થાહી ચાલે સાથે Ectoderm (External Layer) છેંશુત્રા (છેંન્ટ્રેંગ ગ્રે ગ્રેન્ડ્રેગ) Electron transport chain श्रेंग'र्न्य'क्ने आप देव देन' Endocrine signaling র্ষ্রিশ:রূব সম্বর্ধব স্র্রিম্বর্ম্বর্মা Endocrine system বৃদ্দ ক্লি আৰু আৰু Endoderm ब्रद्भुबा Endomysium বৃদ্ধ শ্বামান্ত্র মার্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় বিদ্যায় ব

Enteric nervous system क्षें.क्रुते नगम संस्थाया Epide এন্সস্থা Epidermis ষ্ট্ৰ মন্যম্য Epiglottis ঈশিদিনশ্ব Epimysium ध्रैः क्लेंगुरू सुदः शुना Epinephrine छे'र्य'त्रे'रें ते से न से न मिन Epithelium शुन`रें। Esophagus ৯২ শ Estrogen बेंदि सेव गमेना Excretory system क्षेग्रायर्ने रायाया Extrinsic খ্রি'রশ্ Fallopian tubes দ্ব্যমান্যমন্দ্রিবাস্থ্রশ Fascicle हैं झुन कुन र्ये Fats ଝିଁନ୍ୟା Fatty Acid Derivatives ઢેંભઃગ્નુર ભાષા દૂદથાયલે દુદે જા સાથ Fatty acids ঠিন্দান্থ্ৰাস্থ্ৰুমা Fibrin (la) යුතු කි Fibrinogen (I) দ্রণাস্ট'নেয়ুন'শ্রুমা Folate र्दे भे ते भें कण्रा हुन Frontal Lobe অ্যূব শ্র্টা দেশনা Fructose सु'रु'यदर'स्य Fruiting body এর্মার্র্যামার্শ্বান্দার্যা Germinal neuroepithelium cells छन् कण्णरानम् स्वेरियार्भेन् ह्य <u>सु</u>८न द्रम् सुः सुः सुर् रे का के का सुर सुर न Globin protein ব্লুম'ষ্ট্রা Glucose 新说· Na K X 美利 Glycerol भ्रे'गे'र्श अपर ग्विर Glycolysis ૹ૾ૣ૾ૺ[·]વ[·]ૡ૾૾ૺ૽ૼૼ૾૽ૼૡ૽૾ૺ૾ૻૹ૾૾ૺૹ૽૿ૢ૽[·]ૡ[·]ૡ૾૾ૺ૽ૼ૾૽ૼૡ૽૾ૺૼૼૼૡૻૻૡૼ૱ૻૢૻૼૼૢૻૼ૾૽ૼ૱ Gonad (sex organ) ষ্ট্ৰিন্টাৰা মৰ্চ্চৰাইবা Gonadotropin releasing hormone (GnRH) ঈব্ দ্বेব্ স্ত্রিণ শ্র্ষণ Great cardiac vein श्लेम में क्वेंन के के के कि Guanine मु⁻अ⁻नैन् Heme group ર્ઝે.ચર્લે.સ્ટ્રી ઝેચ.સ્ટ્રો Homologous chromosomes क्रेंब अर्हु दबायदे क्रेंब सुदा Hydrochloric acid रुप्धे ट्रेंगों यें रेण झुर स्था Immune cells বৃদানশীশাস্থাস্থদা Immune system वृद्र स्वीया सः त्यया Immunoglobulins दर्गेषाः श्चेः ज्ञुयः गज्जुषाया वनः दर्गेषाः श्चेः स्या Infection শান্তব শো Interferons (IFN) ইার্টিশাশ্বাস্থ্রী স্থান Interleukin (IL) দৃশ্বশস্ত্রশন্ত্রণষ্ট্রা Interphase সমাজ আৰু শ্ৰী দ্বিবা সমাল

Intrinsic বৃদাস্কম্য Kidney ঝাম্বন্য'ঝ' Killer T-cells ते-णनिव हे ख़रा KREBS CYCLE गे'रेप की ज़ुव पर्वित्ता Larynx opening into pharynx ୩୮୯୮୮୮ଅନ୍ତ୍ର୍ୟାୟଂକ୍ଷିୟାକ୍ରିମ୍ବାମ୍ Larynx শ্রী'শা Lateral Fissure শাৰ্কিশশ্বাস্থাস্থা Lateral View ঐত্যক্ষ হৈম শ্রী ক্রম শ্ব Left coronary artery श्लेमःगर्थेवः तयमः स Left pulmonary artery क्रेंग्वरे प्रयत्तर संग्वें द्राया Left ventricle गर्थेव ग्रे क्वेन्सु म्यूनयः क्वना Leukotrienes अुगात्राधेवाक्षेवायमिना Lipase વે જેવા જ્ઞેવ સ્થા Lips মক্ Lung Cell ର୍ଶ୍ୱି ସନ୍ଦି ଞ୍ରଙ୍କ୍ୟୁ କ୍ୟୁ Lutenizing hormone श्चे ख़ग रेन्स सेव ग्वेन्स Lymphokines রੋব ন্দু শ র্ষি স্থা Macrophage ন্যামারাধ্রাধ্রনা Medial View নৃশ্রীশকট্মাস্কমাশ Meiosis I (1st meiotic division) ક્રોન્'સુદ્દ વ્લે ગ્રેચ ગ્રેન્'સેચ ગ્રે वर्षित्र वेदबादद र्थे। Meiosis II (2nd meiotic division) ક્રોન્'સ્ડ્ર-'ગ્લે' ગ્રેચ'ગ્રે' तर्षित्र वेदरू गुहेरूया Mesencephalon नृतुर्गंगवृत्रंग्यन् का Mesoderm (Middle Layer) પર લુવા (ત્ર્યીવાર્ સ્થાયી પ્રા Metencephalon युन् रेब देगा वा Mitosis ક્રોનુ સુન લુશ્વ શેય છે. જે સાથે તે સ Monocytes শৃউণ'শ্বিশ্বস্থিন' Muscle fiber প্রাণ্বব্যস্টিরাস্ত্রনা Muscular system প্রশান্বন্ রাজ্যনা Myelencephalon শ্রন্থ্য ইশ্বির্থা প্রন্থা Myosin খ্রীয় শ্রী Nasal cavity শ্ব'ন্যশ Nervous system দ্বদ্যস্থান্থন Neural crest দ্বদ্যস্থনি নিশ্ Neural fold નગન સંવે કેના નગન સવે જાળ Neural plate border দ্দ্দ স্থন অৰ্চ্চমৰ্য Neural plate দ্বদ্দ স্কর্ম স্ক্লবা Neural tube দ্দদ স্থন স্থ্ৰ শ্ৰা Neuroendocrine signaling দ্বদক্ষের দের দের্ধার আর্ট্র দের্জা Neurogenesis দ্বদ:স্ত'শ্ৰ্ষ্ণ জ্ঞা Neutrophils দম শৌৰ স্থ্ৰ স্থ্ৰদা O2 ଦର୍ଙ୍ଗି : ଅନ୍ମୁ ମୁ ନିକ୍ଷ : ଦ୍ ଶ୍ରୁ କା

Occipital Lobe क्षुण मते वन्य आ Oral cavity শ্বি'ন্ত্র'শ Ovaries র্রিনি'নন্মর'নন্দীন্ত্রা Oxygenated দক্ষী ক্রুদ শ্বিশা Palate धाःमना Pancreatic Cell गुमेर सेव खुर न Paracrine signaling हें दर्श्वेव यहिंद दर्शेव Parietal Lobe শৃর্ন্ত্রশাশী দেবন্য আ Pepsin येयःश्वेवःश्चेवःस्य Peptide Hormones हैं। है से दर्भ Pericardium (cut away) छै:मार्येग्नर्गः क्ले;युग Perimysium ক্র্ণান্দ্র্যান্দ্র্যান্দ্র্যা Pharynx মর্ক্রশা Phosphate র্বিন'ট্র'ম'ম'ডবা Pigment Cell ঐঁর স্ট শ্র প্রদা Posterior pre-spore cells र्शेक् छे या सर्देक रु: र्धे मुनाय प्रदे खाल रुप <u>ঀ৾</u>'ॹॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ ज़ॱॸॖॕॕॕॺॱड़ॺॱॴ Primary auditory cortex र्वेष्यक्रेंत्र ग्रे स्थ यान् सुन Primary spermatocyte वैणऱ्त्यान्दार्या Progesterone क्ले'ग्रेंगर्भ सेव'ग्रेन Prolactin र्श्वेर्ने लेगा तेव केव गविना Proteins খ্রি'<u>র্</u>শা Prothrombin (II) ผฺๆ ซิ ลู ๚ ๕ ๚ ฏิ อู Pulmonary circulation क्वेंन्ध्नेमायप्रिमा Pulmonary trunk क्रेंग्वरे क्रेंट मृटा Pyruvate જ્વ[ા]રુ સેત જીૂર સ્થા Red Blood Cells দ্রিশান্মনান্ত্রান্ত্রনা Reproductive system क्रें 'त्रयेल' स' लग Respiratory system ५५५४ दुन:स्प्रायाया Ribose ええう art エモシ Right coronary artery हैंद्र नायस्य रहा Right marginal artery यह्यतः वृत्यकाः ग्री जयत्रः सः याध्यकाः या Right ventricle न्याया के सुरु म्युन्य ख्रुन्य Right ventricular artery and vein གལག་ཀྱི་སྒྱིང་སྒྱགག་སྒྱོ་ཀྱི་ ঀয়৾৾য়ৼ৾৾ঀ৾৾ঢ়৾৾য় Sea urchins স্ত্র'মর্ক্রি'অস্থ্র' Secondary spermatocyte वैषाऱ्त्रयात्रीक्रामा Single cells শ্ব'শ্বদ'শ্বর্ণাশ্ব Skeletal Muscle Cells રુજાપ્યત્ર ક્વેબાપવે લાવી સાલાલુદા Skeletal system স্ত্রন্থার্স্র্রির'রা'এল্ Skin Cells of Epidermis ষ্ট্রিম্য্যেম্বার্ষ্য শ্র্রান্ত্র্য Skin শ্লী শ্বশাশ্য Slug স্ক্রিঁশশ্বন্ধা

Smooth Muscle (in Gut) দ্র্ম্বান্দ্র্র্ম্বার্থ্বা (র্য্র্র্র্ম্ব্র্র্র্য্র্ Somites সুম'ক Sperm শ্বির্ঝান্দান্দার্শী Spermatids ব্যেমান্য ব্যান বিষয় জুব Spermatogonium य्ययान्यानः वाने Spinal cord ক্রুন্মান্য Spore cells শ্বিন্ট্ৰাস্থ্যন্য Spore release र्शेव्राष्ट्रेष्ट्रेरायप्रीवाया Stalk cells র্ক্তিন অব্যস্থাস্থাস্থাস্থা Steroid Hormones শ্রীশ'গ্রুস'রীব'শ্রুশা Sucrose 到'因'对下不是到 Sugars শৃ'শ্ Superior vena cava শিঁশা স্থ্যিন স্থ্যান্য স্থান স্থা স্থান স Systemic circulation व्यायाणा ह्यमा प्रविन्ता T-cells ন-শ্ব'শ্বদা Telencephalon यूनःर्रेवर्गेन्य Temporal Lobe র'ঞ্জিযা'নেন্ন'মা Tendon স্কৃ'না Testosterone र्देवि सेव ग्विन् T-helper ते-र्रेण्इय्द्रियात्रा सुम्य Thrombin (lla) ব্রশ্র 🛱 স্থান্থ হা Thymus দ্রদ'ঈবা Thyroid Cell ঈশেষ্ত্র্র শ্রহণ T-immunocyte ते-वन् त्वींग खाखना Tissue cells স্তৃদ'য়ুদ'শ্ব'স্তৃদ' T-lymphocyte तै-क्रु'शेर ख़ासुमा T-memory cell ন-রবাদেইবাস্থাস্থনা Tongue ਵੇ| Triceps দ্ধ্যমাদ প্রামা Tropomyosin নগ্রুন শ্রীমা Troponin শ্র্যুস ষ্ট্রা Trypsin দীন্দামীৰ স্থ্ৰীৰ স্থা T-suppressor ते-क्षर्वे वार्वे वार्श्व स्वास्वरू । Tubule Cell of the Kidney આવ્યા અંતે સુવા સુદ્ર સંસ્ડા Tumor Necrosis Factor (TNF) झुत्र क्यु प्दर्दे अल्प च्चे Two diploid cells রুদ'শ্র্ব'শ্র'শ্রেদ'শ্রিমা Ureter ग्रेव रदेव क्षु ग्। Urethra শৃঙীৰ অম Urinary system ण्रहेव यर्नेव याया Uterus ন্ত স্থ্রিঁনা Vein ই্থ্বি'স্কা Venule ই্থিন'স্থ'ৰ্ঝা Viral replication तुग श्चेन में मसूते छेन मेबा Vitamin B12 দন্তন স্থ্রন শ্বী দণ