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MORPHOGENESIS _A VIEWPOINT; OR How does the tulip know it is spring.

Cell differentiation viz a viz morphogenesis has been one of the most challenging problems of cell biology. Our present knowledge of morphogenesis the growth of organism into the fullness of morphological and functional entity that it is, from the blueprints of a c t i o n and growth ; uniquely coded into the genetic complement of a single parent cell-the zygote ; is not yet capable answering a simple child's query that is the alternate title . The best one could imagine is that, all the genetic information is passed on to the primordial zygote like it were a written play and with all the charecters back drops and even the cues predefined . The complexity of the play make the cue sitters very relevant nay crucial though at intermediate acts the experienced players may well carry on for awhile without the cues.

The very morphology recreated in such precision over and over again tells one immediatly that in members of a species each cell of the organism has to find its unique placement in the organismic lattice and quite similarly in members of a species. This becomes evident by looking at fig]. The pattern [a can be reproduced only if cell] sits on top of cell2 which in turn sits on top of 3 This is trivial example but hopefully illustrates the point. The problem is made a little more complex since morphologically, there definitely is a lot of freedom in design, even amongst cells in a semiclone. Thus the problem of morphogenesis can be at best rationalised into one of finding a way of specifying cells uniquely in as simple a manner as possible; then proceeding to explain in terms of such uniqueness how one could specify the fundamental charecteristics of the cell

There is not a single question in biology which can be posed in isolation with respect to the other fundamental questions. Many times it has perhaps been more rewarding to keep in view the many other questions classical biology has asked . Any general formulation will have to take into account these questions like vegetative reproduction, transdetermination, polyploidy, polyembryonism, etcto name a few.

These are no way new thoghts, though biological fashion has a tendency to ignore old masters; it is worth recalling a few. [1900-Driesch, 'fate of an embryonic cell is a function of its position in the organism.' Even in 1878 H. Vochtung said that the way in which a cell differentiates is determined by its position in the plant. Even Nehemia Crew ([1678-1682) percieved that in "The beautiful architectural geometry of differentiated tissue all of these structures or conformations have been contrived and brought about in a mechanical way". D'Arcy Thomson ([1917) said that in every organic development involving metabolism growth and morphogenesis for which biologists have advanced interpretatins of a biological kind there must also be some understanding of the inseparable physical factors and mathematical relationships , for these are quite basic to all the phenomena where sceince is concerned. Wardlaw ([1965) said "that a cell may differentiate as it does because it is part of a holistic pattern derived from the working of unitary reaction system

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Of recent times the approaches have tended to be three fold;

1. The essentially pragmatic epigenetic approach; physiologists' approach in terms of general plant or cell physiology includes:

- Factors referable to stage reached in ontogeny
- Endogenous factors involved in cohesion and other organismal relationships.
- General and specific metabolites, sugars, amino acids, cytokinins, etc limiting or specifically active during morphogenesis.
- Environmental ; light, heat, etc.

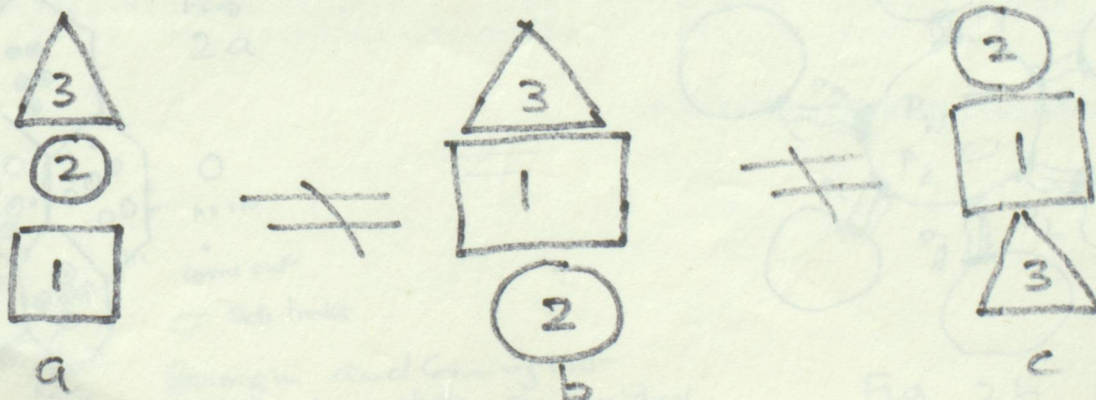
2 Morphogenetic approach: morphological and anatomical work being the basis as substrates in the organismal reaction system undergo changes specific enzymes invoked etc

3 The molecular biology approach: development referred to as evocation and action of genes on a specified genome programme coded in chromosomes (almost a preformation sort of view one must say)

Obviously this cannot be understood in terms of genome difference, since the chromosomal contents of the differentiated cells have been verified to be chemically equivalent. Also it has been possible to either accelerate or decelerate morphogenetic movements by appropriate inducer substances usually enzymes. The genome reminded Wardlaw one of the merits of democracy "Some genes are active all the time all the genes some time not all the genes all the time". A school of thought led by Crick, Rosen, and Waddington believes cell differentiation to be a macroprocess being guided by concentration gradients of presumptive morphogens. One has to assume then that it is chance that decides what role a particular cell plays in the organism. Again the experimental findings of Sperry and Weiss on chemospecificity of nerve cells would have to be seen as a quantitative rather than qualitative one; at least in the first order. Reliability of a system doubtless improves when based on qualitative rather than quantities. Assuming cells need to have distinct tags proteins because of their versatility stand out as likely candidates for such a unique specification. This is particularly pleasing in terms of economy of types and also since genes can directly code only for proteins.

This made Wasserman come up with the idea of differentiated cells synthesising "cell unique proteins" or rather because they synthesise cell unique proteins they are differentiated. However since there may be about 10¹² different cells in a full grown organism, this demanded 10¹² genes in the chromosomal DNA for synthesising these proteins. Obviously the genetic material in a single cell cannot hold such an amount of directly coded message. This led to information theorists to suggest that a cell can never contain all the information required to grow into a full organism. Wasserman tries to overcome this difficulty by working out a combinatorial procedure to arrive at approximately 5x10¹⁰ protein types using only a few number of genes - 188. To argue his case he has his innumerable hypotheses mechanisms and programmes, and more than that he refutes the fairly established basis of molecular biology the one cystron one polypeptide theory

FIG 1



AN OVERVIEW OF THE PRESENT FORMULATION:

Starting with the basic facts that differentiated cells are chemospecific and proteins can very well influence the synthesis and function of new or new combinations of proteins an attempt is made to look at the following;

- a. How does the zygote grow giving rise to an astronomical number of differentiated cells of a full grown organism?
- b. How does each cell recognise its position (address) in the organism? (Morphogenetic movement?)
- c. How does the zygote give rise to unfailingly organisms with a remarkable degree of similarity (in the same species)?

The following premises are made in an attempt to elucidate these;

1. Postulated existence of a handful of (say n ; n may be 5 or 6 or 10) "TECTORIAL PROTEINS"; surface proteins inter linking cells; - these are species specific. (It will be shown later that these need not necessarily interlink cells. Their existence on the surface is a must)

2. Every chromosome in the cell contains the blue prints of these, This again is modifiable, it is possible that these present in many if not all.

3. For simplicity one assumes each cell to have eight neighbours in a hexagonal close packing six around one above one below. This means each cell has at least eight regions in its outer membranes populated by these "TECTORIAL PROTEINS" which in turn are linked (Associated) to such "TECTORIAL PROTEINS" of the neighbouring cells.

4. The presence of these proteins on such regions, probably desmosomes may be surface antigens or even membrane proteins (these have to be common to all tissue and all organisms of a species); with their associated ions and conformational variabilities give rise to physical potential characteristic of this region This in turn invests the cell with a free energy of its own.

5. The "TECTORIAL PROTEINS" of one cell surface are linked to those of the neighbouring cell by local interactions viz ionic hydrophobic hydrogen bond formation etc. This is not a necessary premise but most probably is a stabilising influence on cell association.

6. Considering one such interface, assuming that there are m different tectorial proteins (these m may be a combinatorial subset of the say n species specific tectors); there are m^8 ways of linking these with those of the neighbouring cell. Since each cell can have eight neighbouring cells it can exist in m^8

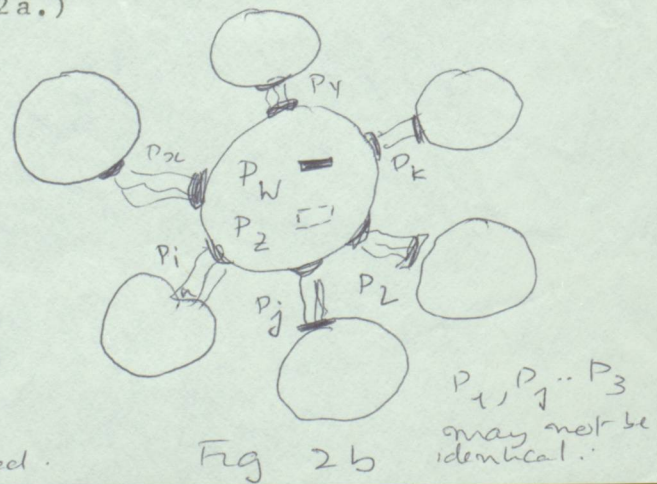
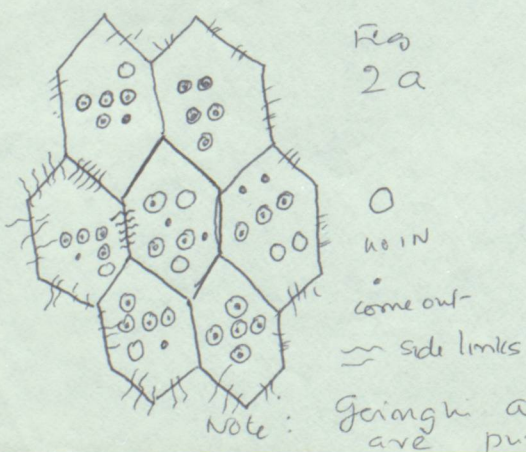
C different neighbourhood associations thro' these tectors;

this essentially endows each cell with a unique character. For instance considering the simplest case of $m=5$ we can have 5^8

$$C = \frac{5^8}{8} = \text{about } 3000,000,000,000 \text{ unique cell types.}$$

In essence, somatic cells need not synthesise cell unique proteins, or as suggested by Wasserman to be in the differentiated state but must possess the cell unique combination of tectors (this in turn will be shown to an accident of its history)

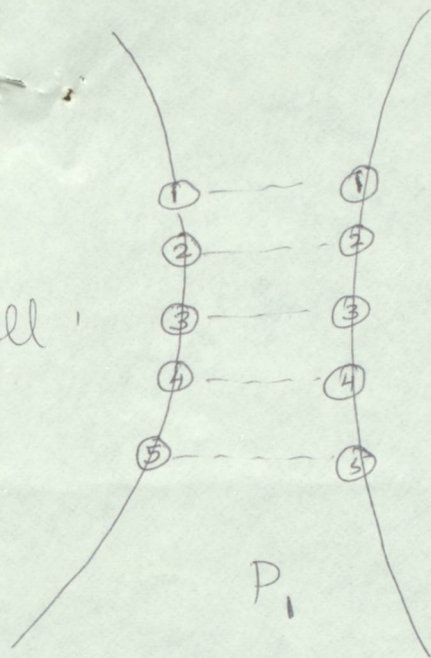
Fig 2 illustrates the principle; here it is assumed that $m=5$ and the linking of a particular order of these proteins of one cell surface with those of a neighbouring cell (in perhaps the same or different order) is called a permutation. Fig 3. (It is to be noted that the link is an abstraction, the very disposition and consequent differences in association is sufficient, note fig 2a.)



The link is

an abstraction
of closeness.

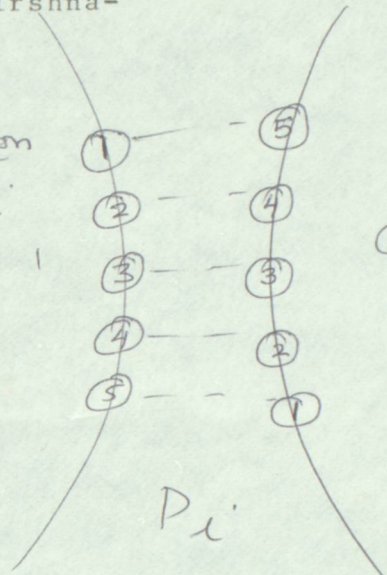
Cell 1



cell 2

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Cell 2

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Fig 3.

Hence at the completely differentiated stage, each clone in its combinatorial linking of these tectors with their neighbours as depicted in fig la & fig lb

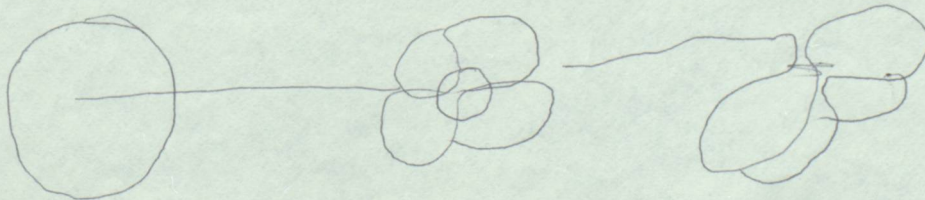
7. Now let us look at the process of growth from the zygote. When the zygote divides, even as the new cell membrane interface is synthesised, the tectorial proteins come into play. As the number of cells increase, the local potential changes caused by the different permutations of tectorial proteins reach a certain perturbing state where the cells are forced to move about (in search of new partners) to regions of local minimum free energy, there by ensuring a global minimum free energy of the entire system. This is morphogenetic movement. Thus moving about the tectorial proteins at the different sides are going to find themselves in a myriad of different environments for finite intervals of time and each of them undergoes different conformational changes and this could cause the cell to be endowed with a hierarchy of enzyme induction spatially and or temporally. This might ensure (by a cooperative effort on the part of chromosomes) what combinations of the species specific tectors should be synthesised in the future to decide the characteristics of this cell and its progeny.

Before proceeding further we have to answer the following;
1. Why do we require different combinations of the species specific tectorials to be synthesised by any cell?
2. What do we mean by cooperative effort on the part of chromosomes?
Both these are explained on the basis of simplistic arguments, the abstract hypothesis is not based on these assumptions or answers since the cell uniqueness is teleologically plausible even if the tectors are ordinary membrane molecules.0)

IN principle it is agreed that the differentiated cells are unique in their chemical specificity. In this view this uniqueness is achieved by the different combinatorial environments as depicted in fig]. The difference between somatic cells on the basis of chemical specificity can be one in kind or degree



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The somatic cells of the same kind may yet differ in gradation or degree of their chemical specificity. To cite an example the brain or the liver cells are of different kinds while the difference between the cells in the liver might be one of degree. The cells of the different kind are hypothesized to synthesise different combinations of the species specific tectorial proteins, while the cells of the same kind synthesise the same set of proteins yet may be different due to the permutations of the side links possible with the neighbours. We know that chromosomal aberrations could be tolerated by morphology to a certain extent.

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