

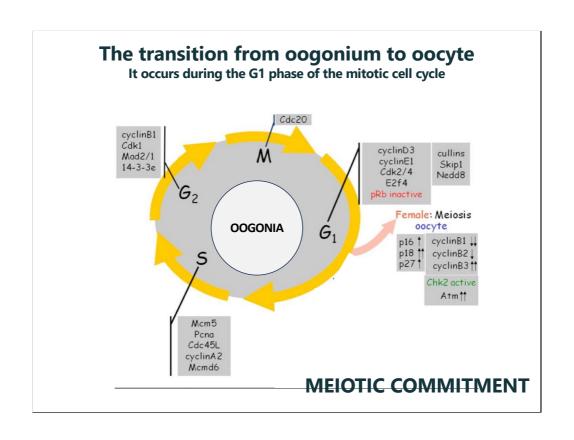
The major event signing the end of the foetal oogenesis is the meiotic commitment (THE ENTRY INTO MEIOSIS). To be more precise, the transition from a mitotic female germ cells (oogonia) into a meiotic ones (oocyte).

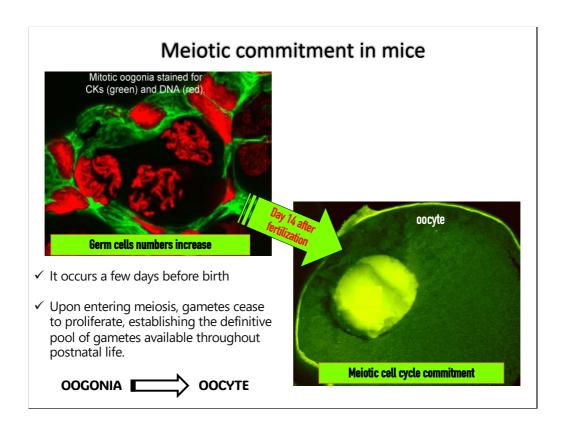
- 1. **PGCs** migrate towards the developing gonads.
- During their migration to the gonads, PGCs begin to proliferate through mitosis.
 Mitotis continues until the PGCs enter a differentiation phase, becoming oogonia

WHAT ABOUT THE FOLLOWING STEP?

We know that PGCs migrate towards the developing gonads. During theri migration to the gonads, PGCs begin to proliferate through mitosis. Mitotis continues until the cells enter a differentiation phase, becoming oogonia.

The transition from oogonia to oocyte occurs during the G1 phase of the cell cycle. In this phase, the cells prepare for DNA synthesis (S phase), but before entering this phase, they can be directed towards meiosis.

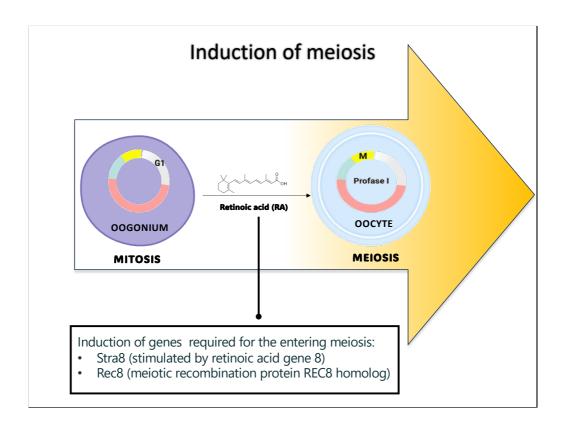




In mice, this meiotic commitment occurs a few days before birth, while in medium and large mammals, it takes place a few days later

Upon entering meiosis, gametes cease to proliferate, establishing the definitive pool of gametes available throughout postnatal life, as oocytes no longer undergo further proliferation.

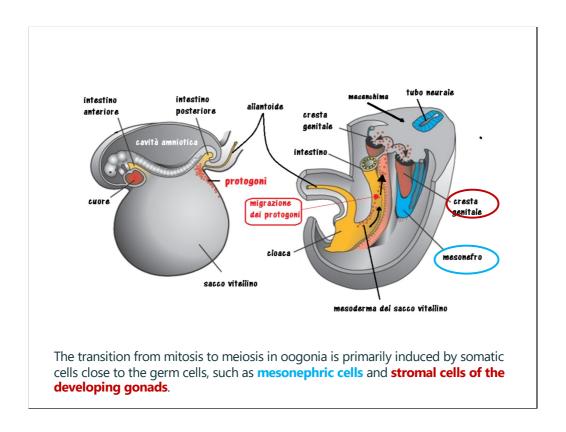
Going into more detail, in the mouse model, oogonia switch off the proliferative cell cycle approximately 14 days after fertilization. Subsequently, these gametes undergo specialization into meiotic cells, at which point they are referred to as oocytes.



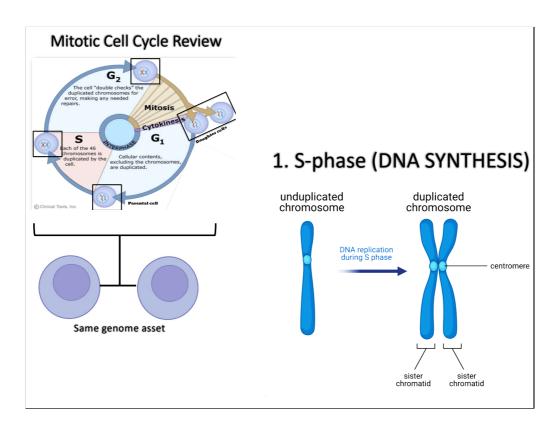
Induction of Meiosis: The induction of meiosis in oogonia is regulated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic molecular signals, including retinoic acid (RA), which plays a crucial role in inducing the expression of specific genes necessary for entering meiosis (Stra8 and Rec8). This signal can prompt oogonia, which are in the G1 phase, to bypass the typical progression of the mitotic cell cycle and initiate the meiotic process.

Arrest in Meiosis I:

Once **oogonia have to begin meiosis**, they exit to the G1 phase of the mitotic cycle, proceed through DNA replication (meiotic S phase) and enter the prophase I stage, where they undergo a prolonged period of arrest, known as diplotene.



The transition from mitosis to meiosis in oogonia is primarily induced by **somatic cells** adjacent to the germ cells, such as mesonephric cells and stromal cells of the developing gonads.

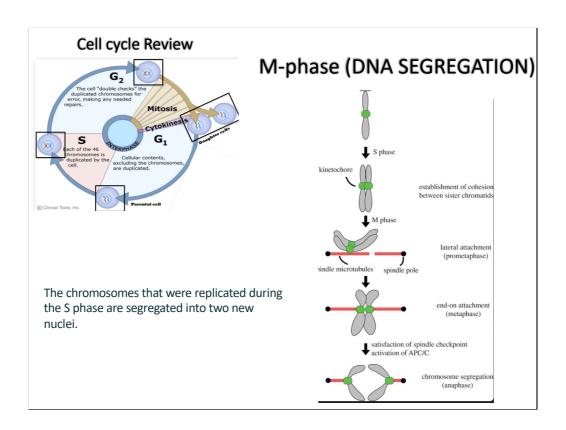


The mitotic cell cycle recognized 4 sequential phases aimed to obtain two cells with the same genome asset of the mother cell.

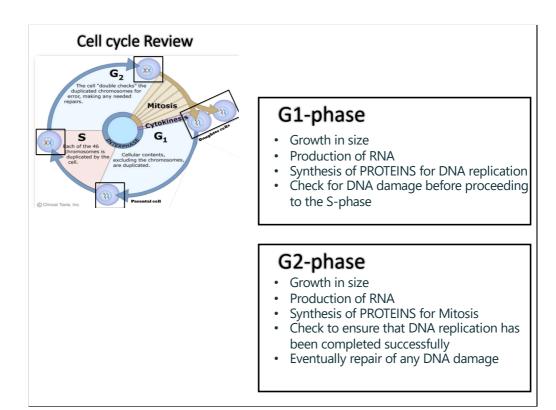
More in detail, the mitotic cell cycle recognizes two active phases:

S-phase for DNA replication (means SYNTHESIS)

Each chromosome is replicated <u>to produce</u> two identical copies, known as sister chromatids, which are held together at a region called the centromere.

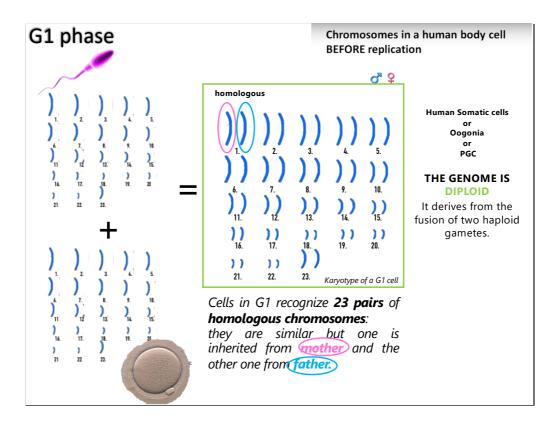


M-phase for DNA segregation, specifically sister chromatids segregation between the two daughter cells (means MITOSIS).



During G1, the cell grows in size, produces RNA, and synthesizes proteins necessary for DNA replication. The cell also performs its normal functions and checks for any DNA damage before proceeding to the S phase.

During G2, the cell continues to grow and produce proteins, particularly those required for mitosis and cell division. The cell also checks to ensure that DNA replication has been completed successfully and repairs any DNA damage.

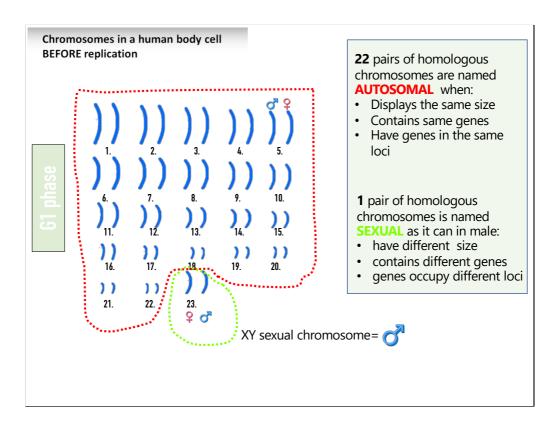


This is an example of a karyotype of a G1 human cells (somatic cells, oogonia or alternatively PGC).

The genome is diploid since it derives from the fusion of two haploid gametes (spermatozoon and oocyte).

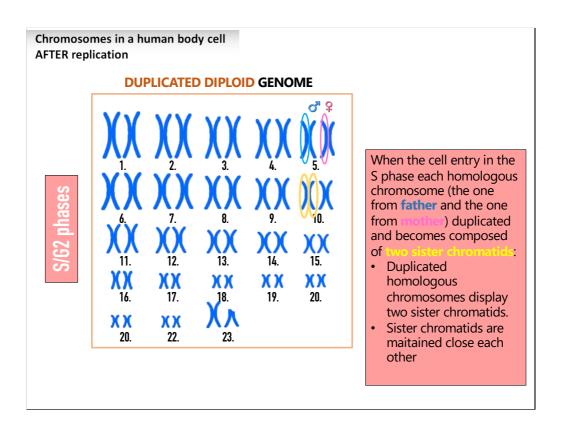
In human organism both the gametes transfer to the embryo genome 23 chromosomes.

As a result, cells at G1 recognize 23 **pairs** of homologous chromosomes defined homologous since each of them is inherited from one parent (mother and father).



22 pairs of homologous chromosomes are named autosomal chromosome since they are similar in size, gene content and gene loci localization.

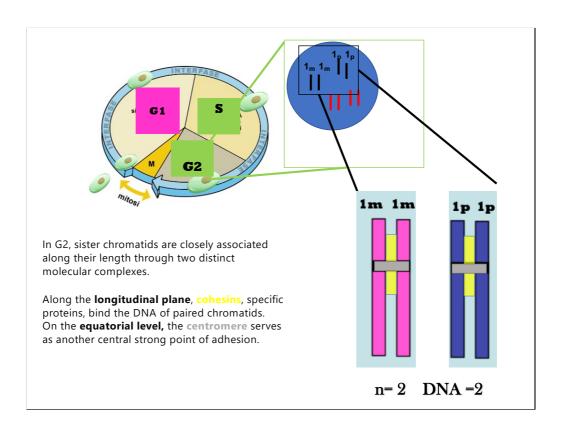
A pair of homologous chromosome is called sexual since they may be different in size, gene content and gene loci position in male organisms (XY).



When the cell entry in the S phase each homologous chromosome (the one from father and the one from mother) duplicated and becomes composed of two sister chromatids:

- Duplicated homologous chromosomes displaying two sister chromatids.
- Sister chromatids are maitained close each other

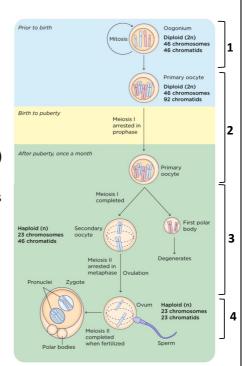
	G1 phase 23 chromosome pairs <mark>2n=46</mark>							karyotype G2 phase 23 chromosome pairs duplicated <mark>2n=46 (x2)</mark>						
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In G2, sister chromatids are closely associated along their length through two distinct molecular complexes. Along **the horizontal plane**, cohesins, specific proteins, bind the DNA of paired chromatids. On **the equatorial level**, the centromere serves as another central strong point of adhesion.

LET's adapt these concepts to the oogenesis

- 1 OOGONIA before entering meiosis I They are in G1 phase when they exit from the cell cycle thank to the RA. (DIPLOID)
- 2 Oogonia proceed through the S phase to duplicate their DNA, and then enter meiosis I, where they arrest in prophase I with doubled DNA content. PRIMARY OOCYTE (DIPLOID) Before LH surge
- **3** After the LH surge the primary oocyte completes meiosis I and divide to form 2 cells:
 - The secondary oocyte begins meiosis II but it blocks in metaphase II. (HAPLOID)
- 4 The secondary oocyte completes meioisis II only when fertilized. (HAPLOID)



1.

OOGONIA before entering meiosis I divide trough mitosis. It is in G1 phase of the mitotic cell cycle when it exit from the cell cycle thank to the RA (DIPLOID, 46 chromososmes; 46 chromatids).

2.

Oogonia proceed through the S phase to duplicate their DNA, and then enter meiosis I, where they arrest in prophase I with doubled DNA content. PRIMARY OOCYTE (DIPLOID, 46 chromosomes; 92 chromatids). *Before LH surge*.

2

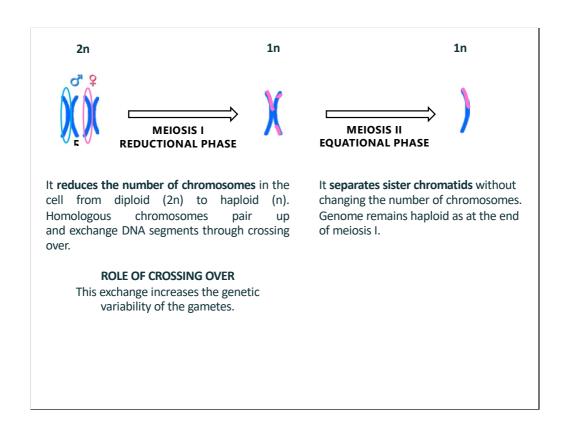
 $After the \ LH \ surge the \ primary \ oocyte \ completes \ meios is \ I \ and \ divide \ to \ form \ 2 \ cells: 1 \ SECONDARY \ OOCYTE \ and 1 \ POLAR \ BODY.$

The secondary oocyte begins meiosis II but is arrested in metaphase II. (HAPLOID, 23 chromosomes; 46 chromatids)

4

The secondary oocyte completes meioisis II only when fertilized. (HAPLOID; 23 chromosomes, 23 chromatids). It is called as ovum.

A sperm cell (with 23 single-chromatid chromosomes) fuses with an oocyte (also with 23 single-chromatid chromosomes) during fertilization, resulting in a diploid cell with 46 chromosomes,



Meiosis I: Reductional Phase

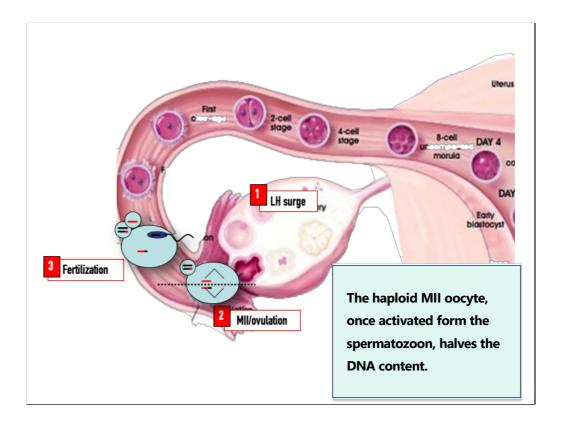
Meiosis I is defined as reductional because it reduces the number of chromosomes in the cell from diploid (2n) to haploid (n). During this phase, homologous chromosomes, each of which has already been replicated during the S phase of the previous cell cycle and therefore consists of two chromatids, pair up and exchange DNA segments through crossing over. This exchange increases the genetic variability of the gametes. The main stages of meiosis I include:

- •Prophase I, where the pairing of homologous chromosomes and crossing over occur.
- •Metaphase I, homologous chromosomes align along the metaphase plate.
- •Anaphase I, homologous chromosomes separate and migrate to opposite poles of the cell.
- •Telophase I, concludes with the formation of two daughter cells, each with a haploid chromosome set but with chromosomes still composed of two chromatids.

Meiosis II: Equational Phase

Meiosis II is defined as equational because the number of chromosomes in the daughter cells does not change; it remains haploid as at the end of meiosis I. This phase is very similar to mitosis, with the difference that it starts from a cell with a haploid chromosome set. The main stages of meiosis II include:

- •Prophase II, where the chromosomes, still composed of two chromatids, begin to condense again.
- •Metaphase II, chromosomes align at the center of the cell.
- •Anaphase II, sister chromatids separate and migrate to opposite poles.
- •Telophase II, concludes with the formation of four haploid daughter cells, each with single-chromatid chromosomes.



The haploid MII oocyte, once activated form the spermatozoon, halves the DNA content.



This process **ensures** that the union of two gametes (each with a haploid set) **restores a diploid chromosome set** (2n):

- keeping the number of chromosomes constant from one generation to the next
- contributing to genetic variability through crossing over and independent assortment of chromosomes.

Oocyte genetic variability

- crossing over (recombination)
 - · independent assortment

Crossing Over

Crossing over occurs during **prophase I of meiosis I**,

where homologous chromosomes exchange DNA segments.

This recombination of genetic material creates new combinations of alleles on a single chromosome, which contributes to genetic diversity in the resulting gametes



Genetic variability during the segregation of oocytes is increased primarily through two mechanisms during meiosis: independent assortment and crossing over (recombination)

Independent Assortment

During metaphase I of meiosis I, homologous chromosome pairs align randomly at the metaphase plate. This random orientation means that the daughter cells resulting from meiosis can have numerous combinations of maternal and paternal chromosomes.

For humans, with 23 pairs of chromosomes, this can lead to about 8 million different.

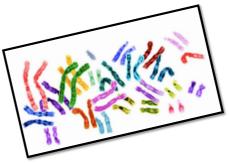
combinations due to independent assortment alone.

Crossing Over

Crossing over occurs during prophase I of meiosis I, where homologous chromosomes exchange DNA segments. This recombination of genetic material creates new combinations of alleles on a single chromosome, which contributes to genetic diversity in the resulting gametes.

The genome variability induced by the first meiotic division is:





Independent Assortment

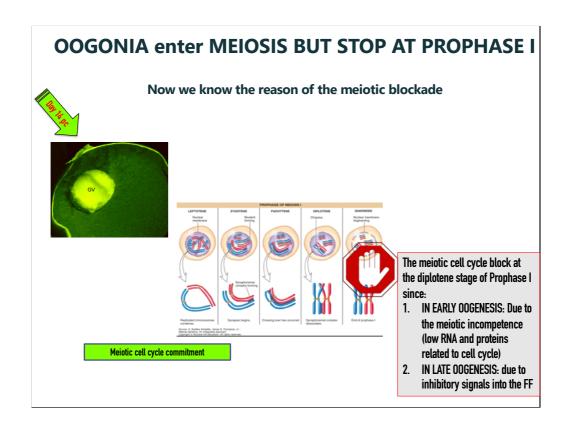
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Genome variability in species with different karyotype

Specie		N° of different MII gametes
Drosophila Melanogaster	n=4	24=16
Apes mellifera	n=16	216=65.536
Mus musculus	n=20	2 ²⁰ =1.048.576
Homo sapiens	n=23	2 ²³ =8.000.000

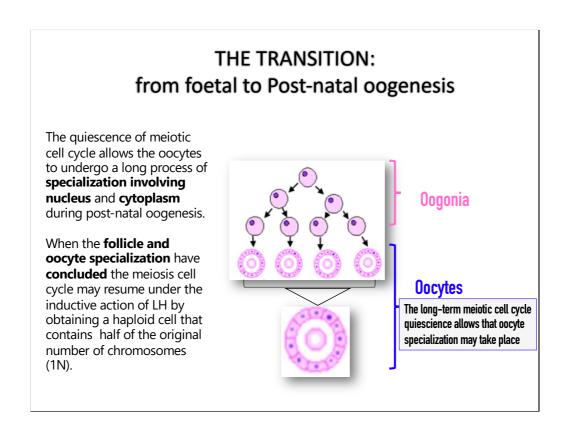
Here just some example of genome variability in species with different karyotype.



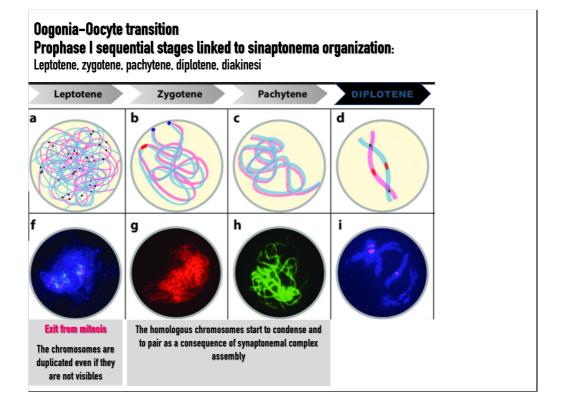
The oogonia undergo the transition into meiosis; however, once committed to the meiotic cell cycle, they do not complete it. The reason lies in the inadequate presence of cell cycle proteins in the early stages of oogenesis, a condition that persists until the oocyte attains its fully grown size, becoming meiotically competent.

In more detail, initially, oocytes can progress through the first four stages of PROPHASE I, only to halt at the diplotene stage. This meiotic stage persists for an extended period, primarily because the oocytes are initially incompetent. Furthermore, in fully grown oocytes, inhibitory molecules present in the follicular fluid (FF)contribute to this persistence.

Physiologically, the resumption of the meiotic cell cycle occurs exclusively in response to a stimulatory signal, represented by the LH surge.



The quiescence of meiotic cell cycle allows the oocytes to undergo a long process of specialization involving nucleus and cytoplasm during post-natal oogenesis. When the follicle and oocyte specialization have concluded the meiosis cell cycle may resume under the inductive action of LH by obtaining a haploid cell that contains half of the original number of chromosomes (1N).



The transition from oogonia to oocyte induces relevant transformation in gamete genome even if the female gamete undertakes only a small part of meiotic cell cycle.

The Prophase I is a long phase during which duplicated homologous chromosomes are assembled by a molecular complex called synaptonemal through sequential step-wise processes recognizing 4 phases: leptotene, zygotene, pachytene and diplotene.

These phases are classified on the basis of morphological changes involving the homologous chromosomes.

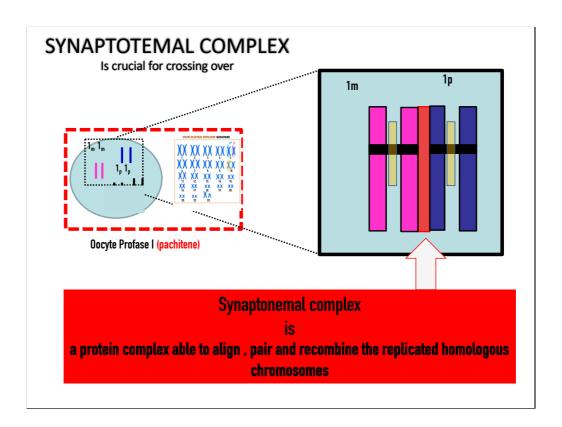
During the first phase, the leptotene, the duplicated chromosomes start to condense and become more visible as individual structures.

Immediately later, the cell entry into the zygotene phase, and the homologous chromosome start to become visible as parallel and elongated paired structures

In pachytene, the homologous chromosomes are strictly in contact each other for days and highly condensed .

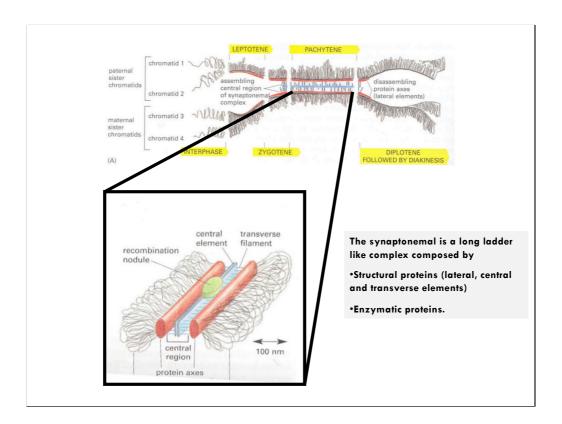
During the diplotene stage, the homologous chromosomes are less close each other even if they maintain point of contact.

Once the oocytes reach the diplotene stage, it arrests and the interphase nucleus remains in this quiescent status until the oocyte will become competent and it will be enclosed in a preovulatory follicle exposed to the LH surge.



The synaptonemal is a macromolecular complex with a long ladder-like structure aimed to pair homologous duplicated chromosomes during meiosis.

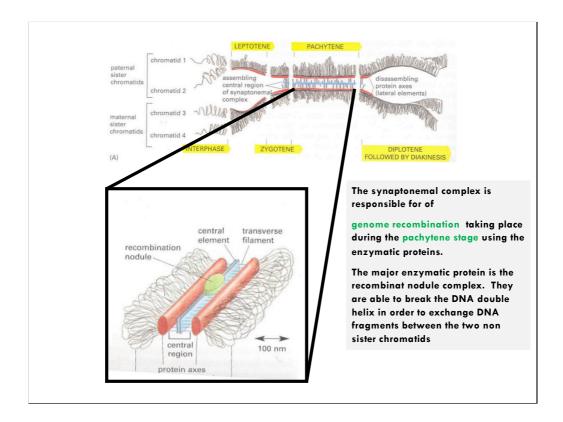
The synaptonemal is represented in this slides from this red box aligning between two duplicated homologous chromosomes.



In order to understand how synaptonemal work we have to remember that it is composed from different moleculer structure the lateral proteins structure of synaptonemal complex colored in red links sister chromatids of each chromosome during the leptotene by inducing a progressive condensantion of them

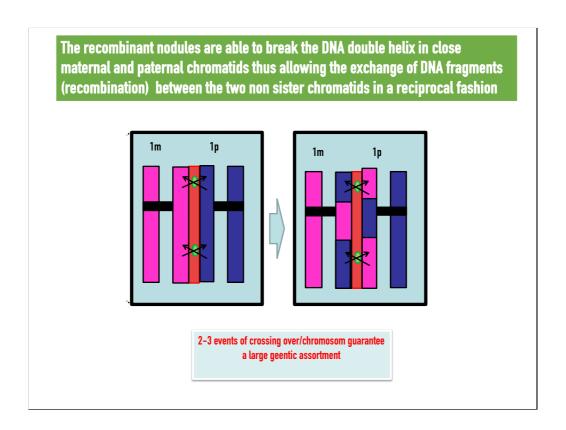
the transverse filaments assemble the synaptonemal as 3D ladder by linking the central element to lateral ones. The transverse elements are operative during the zygotene when replicated homologous chromosomes start to be aligned each others.

At the pachytene stage ethe synapotonemal complex is completely assembled thus exposing the replicated pairs of homologous chromosome to the enzymatic action of the recombinant nodules that are localized in the central area. So in conclusion the synaptomenal complex recognized structural components required to pair the homologous chromosome and the enzymatic component to remodel the DNA inducing an event of genome mutageneis at the end of fetal oogenesis.



The enzymatic proteins of synaptonemal are responsible for the crossing over, an event of **genome recombination**, **that takes place during the pachytene stage**.

There is strong indirect evidence that these genome mutagenesis occurring during meiosis are catalyzed by recombination nodules, very large enzymatic complexes that are sit at regular intervals on the synaptonemal complex. This enzyme complex is placed like basketballs on a ladder between the two homologous chromosomes.



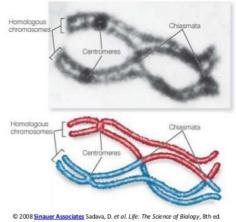
The recombinant nodules are able to break the DNA double helix acting on close maternal and paternal chromatids thus allowing DNA exchange between two non sister chromatids in a reciprocal fashion manner as illustrated in the slide. The chromosomal crossing is responsible for a large genetic assortment.

In order to understand the dimension of this phenomenon an average of 2 or 3 crossover events may randomly occur on each pair of human chromosomes.

Chiasmata: evidence of exchange between chromatids

This micrograph shows a pair of homologous chromosomes, each with two chromatids, during prophase I of meiosis in a salamander.

Two chiasmata are visible.



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The DNA consequence of crossing over events can be observed using TEM at the latest stage of prophase I (diplotene) when the chromosome in the bivalent form are highly condensed and paired even if the synaptonemal complex disassembles

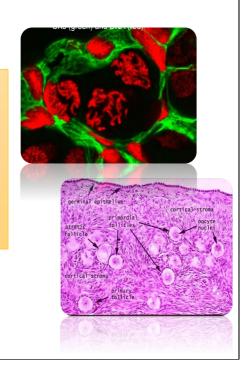
At this stage, the sister chromatids are tightly opposed along their entire length, and the two duplicated homologs (maternal and paternal) are seen to be physically connected from DNA bridges in specific points. This point, called chiasma corresponds to unsoved crossover event occurring between two close sister chromatids.

At this stage of meiosis, each pair of duplicated homologous is held together by at least one chiasma. Many bivalent structures contain more than one chiasma, indicating that multiple crossovers may occur in pachitene oocytes.

A comprehensive summary of all the content covered in this course.

Fetal oogenesis

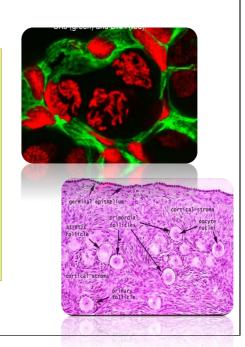
- The primordial gametes are differentiated early during embryo development (PGC).
- The somatic epigenetic asset is erased.
- The sex specific gamete lineage is defined (oogonia).
- The oogonia proliferate through mitosis by increasing the number of gametes.



Transition from fetal to post-natal oogenesis

The differentiation of the oocyte few days before or after birth leads to:

- 1. Stop cell proliferation,
- 2. Entry into meiosis cell cycle
- 3. Increase genome variability
- 4. Block of gamete cell cycle at the diplotene stage of prophase I.



Post-natal oogenesis begins

At birth the ovaries contain:

- a) a fixed number of oocytes
- b) with a highly variable genome.

The oocytes are differentiated gametes even if they:

- 1. display small dimension,
- 2. are meiotically incompetent
- 3. have a high transcription activity with a genome without any epigenetic markers.

