

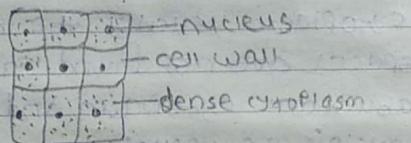
Plant anatomy

meristem: The meristem is defined as localised region which consist of the cell having the ability of division.

It is also defined as the group of young cells that have capacity of active cell division.

The cells are living and thin walled the cells have large nucleus and dense cytoplasm. usually the inter cellular spaces are not found. Each cell shows abundant cytoplasm and one or more nuclei. The vacuoles in cells are may be small or completely absent. The cell have the constant capacity of division. The cells are immature. The presence of meristems differentiates the plant from animal. The meristem usually occur at the apices of all main and lateral shoots and roots and thus they are quite large in number in a single plant. The secondary growth increase i.e. increase in thickness takes place by the vascular and cork cambia (i.e. lateral meristem). secondary meristems are generally lateral in position and give rise secondary tissues which increase

The vascular cambium in stems is partly a secondary meristem. The ^{fasci-}
cular cambium is primary in origin while the inter fascicular cambium develops from cells of ground tissue and is secondary in origin. In roots the entire cambium ring is secondary in origin.



meristematic cell or tissue

* classification of meristem on the basis of origin:- ① Primary meristems; the meristems which are present from embryonic stage and persist throughout the ^{life of} plant are known as primary meristems.

it forms primary or fundamental part of plant body it is present in the apex of stem and root and the primordia of leaves and similar organs. Primary meristems build the primary part of plant and consist the promeristem.

Primary meristems are always present in the earliest stage of plant.

② Secondary meristems; These meristems

ex of primary meristem-Fascicular cambium
APICAL Cambium

ex of secondary meristem- Cork cambium
INTER FASCICULAR cambium

appear later at a stage of development of an organ of a plant body. Secondary meristems always arise in permanent tissue and they are always forming the lateral ^{position} along the size of stem and root. Secondary meristems also called because they arise as new meristem in tissue which is not meristematic. Cork cambium is the typical example of secondary meristem as it is developed from permanent tissue or cells i.e. mature cells of epidermis, cortex or pericycle. Secondary meristem increase the girth of plant organ. The vascular cambium is partly a secondary meristem. In the fascicular region the cambium develops from the procambium and is primary in origin while the inter fascicular region develops from the cells of ground tissue and is secondary in origin. In roots the entire cambium ring is secondary in origin.

The secondary meristem ~~prod~~ is responsible for secondary growth i.e. secondary tissues.

* classification of meristem based on Position:- ① APICAL meristem of cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder

Apical meristem

PAGE NO: _____
DATE: _____

Intercalary meristem

Lateral meristem

L.S. of shoot apex showing meristem
of stem and roots. The stem of apical
meristem divide and rediveide con-
stantly & growth takes place. Generally
apical meristem consist of many cells
but in pteridophytes only one cell forms
the apical meristem. It consists of pro-
meristem and get differentiated into
Protoderm ground meristem and
procambium.

② Intercalary meristem: it is the part
of apical meristem which has been
separated from the apex due to
development of permanent tissues
along with the gradual elongation
of apical meristem. These meristems
present betn the region of permanent
tissues.

ex: at the base of leaves in the internodes
of equisetum, grasses etc

③ Lateral meristems: These meristems

are present at the growing points of stem
and roots. These meristems are imp-
tant for to increase the length

of stem and roots. The stem of apical
meristem divide and rediveide con-
stantly & growth takes place. Generally
apical meristem consist of many cells
but in pteridophytes only one cell forms
the apical meristem. It consists of pro-
meristem and get differentiated into
Protoderm ground meristem and
procambium.

are present along the site of stem and
root. The cells of this meristem divide
mainly only in the periclinal plane and
thus add girth of organ.
ex: vascular cambium and cork cambium.

The lateral meristem become active
only after the organ in which they are
formed has attained certain length.
Theories in relation to structural development
and differentiation of meristem:-

① Histogen theory: According to histogen theory

the primordial meristem
dermatogen i.e. primary meristem
periblem
pleome
was separated into
three distinct zones
called histogens.

L.S. of root apex demonstrated Histogen theory.

stem and root are composed of small
mass of cells which are all alike i.e. called
promeristem. The cells of promeristem get
differentiated into three regions i.e.
dermatogen, periblem and pleome. Each
zone consist of a group of initials called
histogen or a tissue builder.

* Dermatogen → It is single row of
cells which form the outer boundary of
vascular cylinder.

most layer of cell which later give rise to the epidermis of stem. In the root it is also single layered but it also develops a small cell tissue called calyptogem which also meristematic and gives rise to root cap.

* periblem:- it is present inner to the der-matogen and is the middle region of apical meristem. It is single layered at the apex but in central part it becomes multilayered. It develops in to cortex of stem. And also in the root.

* periblem:- it is the central meristematic region and is present inner to periblem. It consists of thin walled isodiametric cells. It develops and differentiates in to cen-tral stele. Which containing of primary vas-cular tissues and ground tissues i.e. peri-cyle, medullary rays and medulla.

② Tunica corpus theory :- Schmidt in 1924 pro-

-posed this theory for organisation of shoot apex. accor-ding to this theory L.S. of apical meristem shows tunica corpus theory. The shoot apex is divided into two region i.e. tunica and corpus. A central core is called corpus which

consist of large cells which devide irregu-larly to result in volume growth. There tunica cells are smaller and devide mainly anticlinally. The tunica may be one to many layered. The tunica cells undergoing surface growth. The corpus cells are large, irregular in shape and the whole mass grows in volume.

Each layer of tunica arises from a group of initials and corpus has one layer of such initials. In tunica the num-ber of cells of initials is equal to the number of cells of tunica i.e. each layer of tunica has its own layer of initials. The corpus arises from a single tier of initial which devide first periclinally and later which devides various planes resulting in formation of inner mass of cells.

* Permanent tissues → The tissues which have lost the capacity of division are called permanent tissues. The cells of these tissues may be living or dead and thin walled or thick walled. The thin walled tissues are generally living where as thick — walled tissues may be living or dead. The permanent tissues are of

PAGE NO. : /
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two types ① simple tissues ② complex tissues
or compound tissues.

① simple tissues :- simple tissue are made up of one type of cells and forming a uniform or homogeneous system of cells.

simple tissues has of three types.

① parenchyma:- It is type of simple tissue. it is composed of living cells which are variable in their morphology and physiology, but they are having thin walls and are concerned with vegetative activities of plant. The parenchyma is primitive tissue. The parenchyma consist of isodimetric, thin walled cells. The parenchyma cells are oval, rounded or polygonal in shape. The cells are living and contain sufficient amount of cytoplasm and with one or more nuclei.

parenchyma makes up large parts of various organs in many plant. pith (central part of stem), mesophyll of leaves, the pulp of fruit, endosperm of seed, cortex of stem and root and other organs of plant consist mainly parenchyma. The parenchyma also occur in xylem and phloem.

In the aquatic plants the parenchyma cells in the cortex show well developed air spaces i.e. intercellular.

(GT3)

and the tissue is called aerenchyma. Parenchyma present in succulent and xerophytic plants is more specialized and act as water storage tissue.

ex:- aloë, Agave.

when the Parenchyma cells are expose to light they develop chloroplast exposed in them and is called chlorenchyma.

Commonly Parenchyma cells have thin cell walls while storage Parenchyma develop thick walls.

In the endosperm of *Diospyros*, *Asparagus* the walls of such endosperm become thinner during germination.

Function of Parenchyma → The turgid Parenchyma help in giving rigidity to the Plant body. The Parenchyma also act as storage tissue to store food material in the form of starch grains, Proteins, fats and oils.

The Parenchyma also help in the partial conduction of water. The Parenchyma cells that contain chloroplast in them called Chlorenchyma which are responsible for photosynthesis in green plants.

In water plants the aerenchyma keep up the buoyancy of plants. At the air spaces facilitated exchange of gases.

cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder.

water storage tissue present in succulent and xerophytic plants store

water. The parenchyma cells also important for vegetative propagation taken place by cuttings i.e. buds and adventitious roots.

② Chlorenchyma → it is a type of simple tissue and consists of one type of cells. chlorenchyma is a typical supporting tissue of growing organ and of those mature herbaceous organs. it is first

supporting tissue in stems, leaves and chloral parts. it is main supporting tissue in many dicotyledon leaves and some green stems. it may occur in root cortex. it is not found in the leaves and stems of monocotyledons.

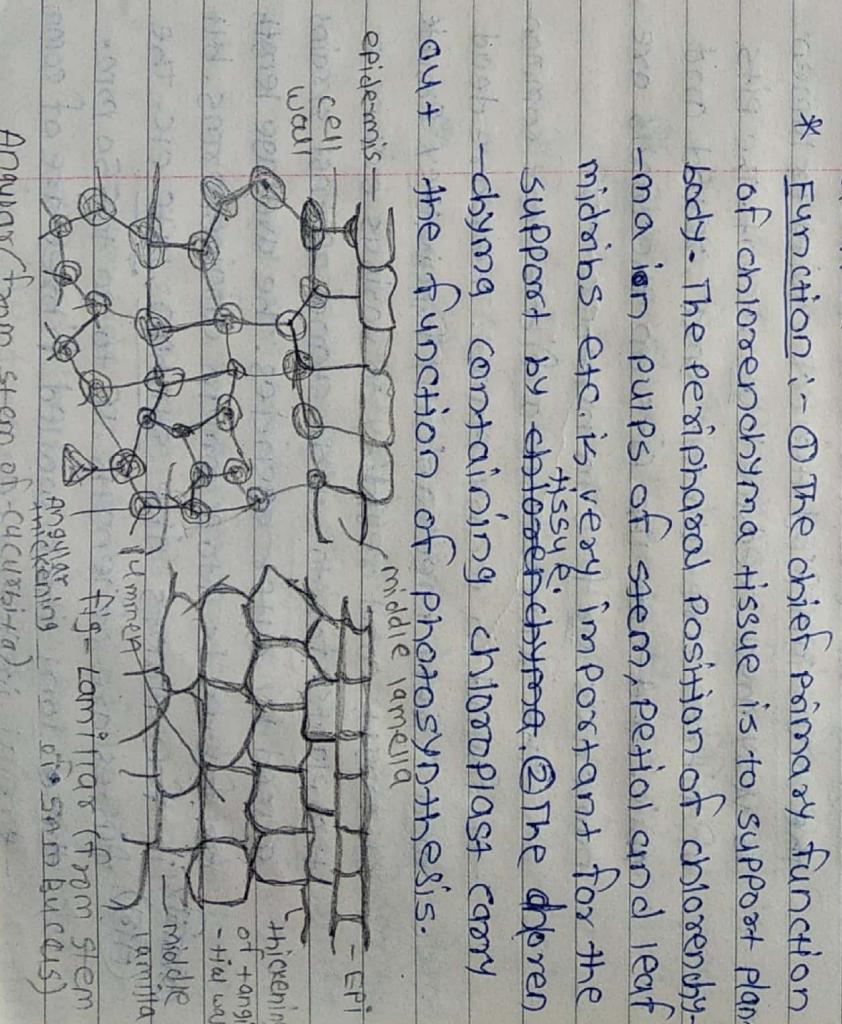
It occurs in peripheral regions of stems and leaves. it is commonly found just beneath the epidermis. In stem and petioles with ridges, chlorenchyma is developed in ridges. in leaves it is found on one or both sides of veins and along margin of leaf blade.

The chlorenchyma consist of elongated cells with unevenly thicker walls, reaching 4-5 layers, oblique tapering ends. The cell wall consist of cellulose and pectin. and also contain much water. In many plants chlorenchyma is a compact tissue lacking

intercellular spaces.

The mature chlorenchyma cells are living and contain Protoplast. Prochloroplast also occur chlorenchyma consisting of long narrow cells contains only a few small chloroplast.

* Function :- ① The chief primary function of chlorenchyma tissue is to support plant body. The peripheral position of chlorenchyma in pulps of stem, petiole and leaf midribs etc. is very important for the support by chlorenchyma. ② The chlorenchyma containing chloroplast carry the function of photosynthesis.



②

Sclerenchyma: - it is the type of simple tissue.

The sclerenchyma consist of thick walled cells and often lignified and the main function is to give mechanical support. Sclerenchyma cells do not possess living protoplast at maturity. The walls of the cells are uniform and strongly thickened. The sclerenchyma cells are grouped in to two fibres and sclereids.

①

Fibres: - The fibres are elongate scleren-

chyma cell and are with pointed ends. The wall lignified the cell cavity or lumen is very much reduced or absent. The pits of fibres are always small, round and oblique. and are the pits on the walls are numerous or few in number.

The sclerenchyma fibres are common-

-ly found in many plants. They are dead and purely mechanically function they provide strength and rigidity to various organs of the plants. for to which stand against strains caused by outer agencies. The average length of fibres is 1 to 3 mm in angiosperms but in few plants like sundan, jute etc. the (Bamboo) (Musa) fibres are of length up to 20 to 550 mm. These long thick walled fibres are of commercial importance.

PAGE NO. _____
DATE: _____

PAGE NO. _____
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The fibres are grouped in to two xylem fibres and extra xylem fibres.

The xylem fibres develop from mesophatic tissue and form part of xylem. On the other hand the extra xylem fibres are related to phloem. The fibres that form continuous cylinders in monocot stem and present in the ground tissue inner to epidermis are called cortical fibres.

The fibres also present in the peripheral region of vascular cylinder close to phloem are called pericyclic fibres.

The extra xylem fibres are also called

blast fibres. and are of different types.
② Phloem fibres: - These fibres originate in primary or secondary phloem.

③ Cortical fibres: - These fibres originate in cortex.

② Sclereids: - The sclereids are widely found in the plant body. They are not longer than the width. they occurs singly or in groups.

They are commonly found in cortex and pith of gymnosperms and dicotyledons.

The sclereids also occurs in the leaves.

Sclereids are found in fruit and seeds. The hardness and strength of seed coat is due to presence of abundant sclereids.

From fruit stalk of pear

Branched sclereids

MACROSCLEREIDS PAGE NO. _____
LS. OF PHASEOLOGY PAGE NO. _____

The secondary sclereids are typically highly fixed and vary in thickness. In sclereids the lumen is almost filled with massive wall deposits of secondary cell wall material along with pits.

The sclereids are of 4 types.

① broadly sclereids: These are commonly called stone cells. These are short and more or less isodimorphic. They are commonly present in cortex, phloem and pith of stem

and in the pulp of fruits.

② macro sclereids: They are rod like cells and forming parallel like layer of many seeds and fruits. They are found in xerophytic leaves and cortex of stem.

③ oste sclereids: They are bone shaped —

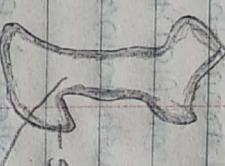
sclereids. i.e. the cells are enlarged at their ends. These sclereids are commonly found in hypodermal cells of many

they are also found in xerophytic leaves.

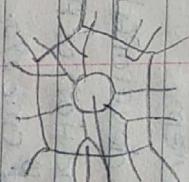
④ Astro sclereids: They are star shaped

sclereids. The sclereids are with lobes which project out. They are commonly found in the inter cellular spaces of the leaves and stems of hydrophytes.

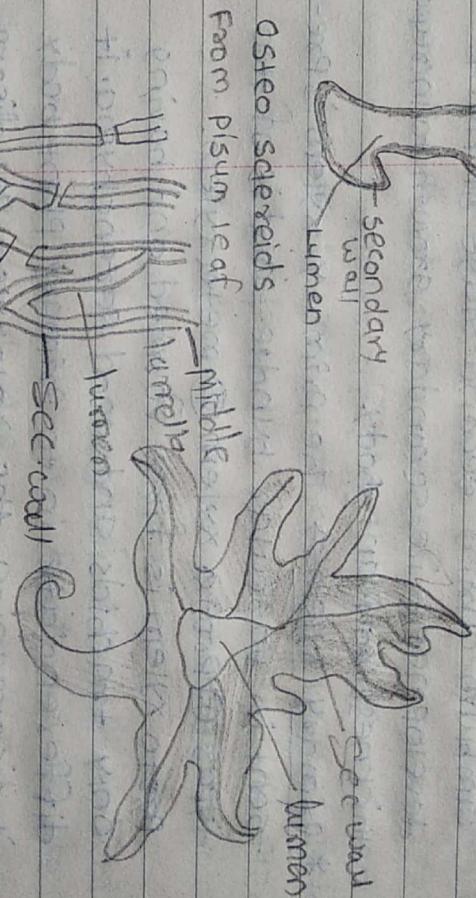
* compound tissue: - ① xylem ② phloem.
These tissue also called vascular or conductivity



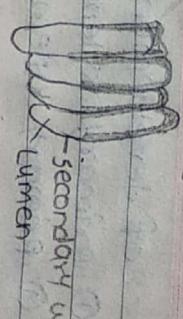
Astro sclereids
From Pyrus leaf



Osteo sclereids
From Trichodendron leaf



Macro sclereids
From Pisum leaf



secondary wall

From fruit stalk of pear
Branched sclereids
From Pisum leaf
Macro sclereids
From Trichodendron leaf
secondary wall
Lumen
simple pit
ramified pit

secondary wall
Lumen
simple pit
ramified pit

of development.

① Primary xylem ② Secondary xylem.

① Primary xylem is derived i.e. developed from procambium during the formation of primary plant body i.e. development of embryo.

② Secondary xylem:- it is formed from the cambium during second stage of plant development i.e. secondary growth to increase thickness of plant body.

* Primary xylem → The primary xylem is present in vascular bundle and is of two types ① Proto xylem ② metaxylem.

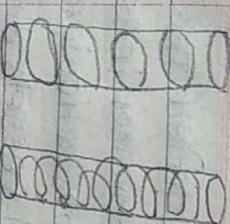
Proto xylem is first formed and having only tracheids and wood parenchyma, it

differentiate into primary plant body. It disorganise the protoxylem get organised during the secondary growth. The

meta xylem is formed later and have fibre, tracheids and wood parenchyma. It becomes non functional after the formation of secondary xylem and is not destroyed.

The protoxylem show annular thickening while the metaxylem element show scalariform, reticulated, pitted thickening.

* Elements of xylem:- ① xylem tracheids: xylem tracheid is an elongated cell with tapering ends. These are dead cells and lack protoplasm.



At maturity they look like an empty lumen. The walls are hard and usually lignified.

In T.S. the tracheid is seen

Annular spiral angular or rounded. The thickening may be annular, spiral, reticulate or scalariform form in primary xylem. The size and number of pits is variable in each tracheid. In angiosperms the tracheids are associated with vessels. but in pteridophytes and gymnosperms they form the main bulk of xylem.

The passage of water in tracheid from

cell to cell is also facilitated by the presence of pits.

* Function of tracheids:- the tracheid is

structurally adapted for the conduction and storage of water and minerals.

② thick and hard walls of tracheids play an important role in supporting of an organ.

* xylem vessels:- or tracheae- these are cylindrical tube like structures found mainly in the wood of angiosperms. They are formed by the absorptions of end walls from a

row of procambium cells placed end to end. The mature cells has no protoplasm

and the walls are lignified. The cell walls have various types of thickenings i.e. Annular, spiral, scalariform, reticulate and pitted. The tracheids and vessels differ from each other that the tracheid is an imperforate cell i.e. without ~~perforation~~, whereas vessel has perforation one or more at each end. These perforations may also found on the side walls. In vessel the water moves from cell to cell through perforations. The oblique perforated part of wall of vessel member is called the perforation plate. A plate may be simple i.e. with only one perforation or multiporose with more than one perforation. The multiporose plate may be scalariform i.e. perforations are scattered or reticulate i.e. if perforations are in the form of network.

(Development) Functions of vessel:- A vessel originates from a longitudinal series of meristematic cells. These cells may be procambial cell in the primary xylem or cambial derivatives in the secondary xylem. This process involves fusion of cell end to end, then gradual loss of end walls resulting in the formation of opening of cells in to one another

This freely opening looks like a long tube. * Functions of vessel → There are two main functions of vessel ① Water conduction ② To give mechanical support.

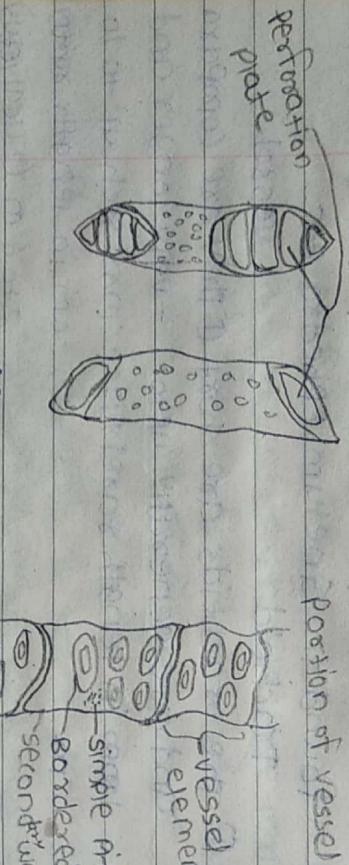
The vessels are absent in some members of families winteraceae, trochodaceae and tetracentraceae. Vessels are poorly developed in some aquatic and paracalytic plants. In many monocotyledons i.e. Dracaena, Yucca etc. vessels are absent. Vessels are found in some species of selaginella, in two species of Pteridium from pteridophytes, among gymnosperms they are found in Gnetum, Ephedra etc.

Tracheid

Vessel

- ① The tracheids are short ① They are comparable in length rarely 1/2 cm.
- ② They are longer and may reach up to 10 cm in length mostly 2 to 6 m. (Eucalyptus)

- ② It consists of single elongated cell or row of cells placed one above the other.
- ③ The end walls of cells are always tapering. intervening walls are absent.

- ④ The tracheids are not tubular.
 ⑤ The tracheids found one above the other are separated by cross walls which bear bordered pits.
- ⑥ Tracheids are not perforated.
- ⑦ Tracheids are present even in lower plants like gymnosperm, pteridophytes etc.
- ⑧ The vessels are well adapted for conduction of water.
- ⑨ Vessels are perforated by small or large pores.
- ⑩ Vessels are found in only angiosperm.
- ⑪ Various types of vessel elements
- ⑫ Position of vessel
- 
- ⑬ * wood fibres; xylem sclerenchyma; - xylem fibres constitute and integrate part of the xylem which consist of long, cylinders, pointed, dead sclerenchymatous cells. wood fibres are usually very long and narrow cells with tapering or some times branched ends. The length of fibres varied greatly.

The extra xylary fibres are comparatively larger than the xylary fibres.

on the basis of 'wall' and amount of pits there are two main types of xylary fibres.

① Liberiform fibres ② Fibre tracheids.

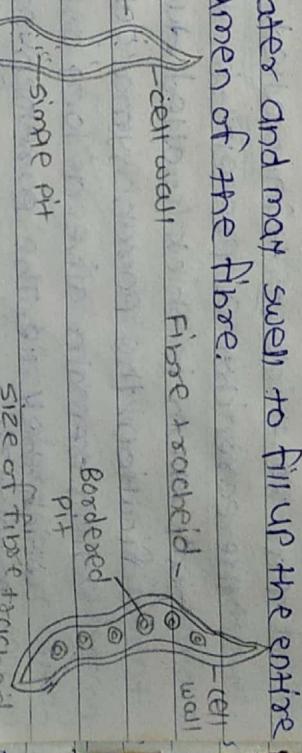
① Liberiform fibres; These fibres have extra thick walls and simple pits. These fibres are commonly found within woody plants mainly in family i.e. Leguminosae.

② Fibre tracheids; These are having walls of medium thickness i.e. not as thick as those of liberiform fibres. but thicker than those of tracheids.

In the secondary xylem of dicotyledon another type of fibre is present which is called as gelatinous or mucilaginous fibre.

beside the inner layer of secondary wall in these fibres contain a lot of cellulose and hemicellulose. This layer is poor in ligning. This layer absorb much water and may swell to fill up the entire lumen of the fibre.

xylem cell wall Fibre + xylem



outer, endodermis and vascular cylinder.

* ontogeny of fibres:- ontogenetically it is assumed that the fibres have developed from tracheids. Some evidences are in favour of this hypothesis are as follows.

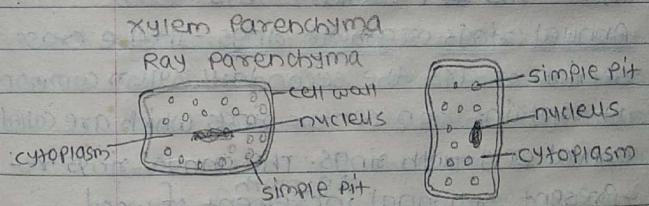
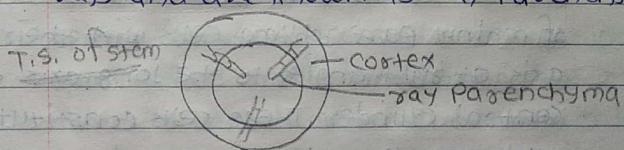
① The wall becomes thicker thus causing a corresponding decrease of lumen. The number of pit and size of pit chamber is reduced.

② The cell become shorter.

* Functions of xylem fibre:- ① In plant body xylem fibres give mechanical strength to specific parts. ② Commercially fibres are extracted and used in following
 ① Textile industry ② Cordage industry.
 ③ Brush fibres ④ Filling fibres.

* xylem parenchyma:- it is one of component of xylem. Parenchyma cells are frequently found in the xylem tissue of most of the plants and are called wood parenchyma. These cells are more or less elongated, placed end to end and may be thick or thin walled. Usually the parenchyma present in the secondary xylem is thick walled due to lignification. The parenchyma cells of the xylem remain alive as long as tissue in which they lie. The parenchyma cells are mingled with the other types of other tissue

i.e. tracheids, vessels and fibres etc.
 * Functions:- ① The conduction of water upward directly or indirectly with the help of tracheids and vessel ② The wood parenchyma also help in storage of food material like starch or fats etc. ③ Pannins, crystals and various other substances are also common in xylem parenchyma cells. ④ The wood parenchyma present in the radial-transverse series of the cells form the wood rays and are known as ray parenchyma.



* secondary xylem→ The lateral meristem, the cambium produces secondary xylem towards the center. Secondary xylem consist of various cell types i.e. tracheids, vessels, different types of fibres, Parenchyma cells. The secondary xylem or wood is a taxonomic criteria for the identification of the species. Cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder

* Basic structure of secondary xylem: The secondary xylem shows mainly two systems of elements.

- ① longitudinal or vertical system:
- ② Transverse or radial system.

The longitudinal system contains tracheids, vessels, fibres and longitudinal rows of parenchyma cells. All these cells have their long axis parallel with the long axis of the organ.

The transverse or radial system consists of mainly parenchyma cells with their long axis at right angles to the long axis of central cylinder. These cells constitute the xylem rays or medullary rays.

* Annual rings or growth rings: In the cross section of axis the secondary xylem commonly contains non centric rings which are called annual or growth rings. The annual rings represent seasonal increment of wood.

The width of ring is variable due to (change) fluctuation of the atmosphere. The wider rings represent that they have got favorable growth conditions, while the narrow ones represent that they have faced unfavorable conditions. The defoliation also causes the narrower growth rings.

The spring or summer season is thought to be more favorable because in this season the cambium is more active and forms greater number of vessels with wider cavities. In this season more leaves arise on the shoot thus more supply of food is wanted, while in winter lesser transport occurs due to comparatively lower number of leaves produced and decrease in metabolic activity.

The wood developed in summer or spring season is known as spring wood or early wood and formed in winter or autumn is called winter or autumn or late wood.

* sap wood and heart wood: The elements of secondary xylem are specialised in relation to their function. Cells when first mature are most active and then there is gradual slowing down of conduction. Until xylem contains living cells and is having function of conduction it is known as sap wood. When the activity ceases (reduces) it is called heart wood.

The sap wood is lightly coloured and having some living cells associated with vessel and fibres. It consists of recently formed xylem elements which help in conduction, cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder.

of water and nutrients and also store food.

The heart wood is the central region and is darker in colour and provides mechanical strength to plant body. Some chemical changes cause conversion of sap wood into heart wood. The increase in the age of plant results in the loss of water and more storage of food. The wood also filled with various organic compounds oils, gums, resins, tannins and aromatic compounds etc. The various changes are responsible for strengthening durability of wood and resistance against diseases than the sap wood. Thus heart wood is more economic than the sap wood. Heart wood is used for making articles of human use i.e. furniture and other wooden things. The sap wood is used for making pulp and packing material.

parenchyma

bark

(21.5.21)

sap
wood
heart
wood

- * Phloem:- The position of phloem; the phloem tissue occurs throughout the plant body together with the xylem. — The phloem in stem is usually external to the xylem but in some ferns and different species of dicote families i.e. Apocynaceae, cucurbitaceae etc. phloem is present on the inner side of xylem.
- * Types of phloem:- ① Types of phloem on the basis of position:-
- ① External phloem:- it is of the normal type and present outside the xylem.
 - ② Internal phloem or intervascular phloem:- it is present inner to the xylem and called as internal or intraxillary phloem.
 - ③ Inter xillary or included phloem:- the phloem which is present within the secondary xylem is called inter xillary or included phloem. It is found in the plants of families Amaranthaceae etc.
- ② Types of phloem on the basis of its origin and development → ① primary phloem:- The phloem which develops from procambium is called primary phloem. It does not have radial differentiation.
- It is of two types.
- Ⓐ proto phloem:- it develops from procambium during an early stage of ontogeny.

④ meta phloem:- it also develops from procambium but at a later stage of development.

② secondary phloem:- The phloem develops from vascular cambium after secondary growth is called secondary phloem. It shows the radial differentiation i.e. the rays, etc. components of phloem:- The phloem is a complex tissue and consists of a group of more than one type of cells performing same function. The different types of phloem are as following.

- ① sieve element
- ② sclerenchyma cells
- ③ parenchyma cells

① sieve element:- sieve elements are the most highly specialised cells in the phloem. They are thin walled living cells. The sieve elements of cells having sieve areas in their walls and there is absence of nuclei in mature Protoplast. Sieve elements are studies as following.

- ① the walls:- The walls are highly variable in thickness in the plant of different families.
- ② sieve areas:- The sieve areas appear as depressions in the wall in which group of pores are located. Sieve areas with the larger pores usually occur on the end walls fairly on the side walls. The

sieve areas are important for to collect protoplasts of adjoining cells.

③ connecting strands:- These are the structures resembling plasmodesmata but thicker than the plasmodesmata and pass through the pores to connect the protoplast of neighbouring sieve elements. The size of pores and thickness of strands are variable.

④ sieve plates:- A sieve plate is a region of pores betw the two sieve tubes. Sieve plates are of two types. ⑤ simple sieve plate:- It consist of only one region of pores.

⑥ compound sieve plate:- It consist of several pore regions separated by bars of wall thickenings.

Sieve plates are present on the end of walls of elements.

⑤ Callose:- Callose is a carbohydrate that sticks with the aniline and gives glucose upon hydrolysis. The enzymes present in the plasmodesmata are involved in the synthesis and breakdown of callose. It forms a sheath around the connecting strands. Callose is important in the activity of SIEVE TUBE MEMBERS.

⑥ Sieve cells and sieve tube members:- The sieve elements on the basis of distribution of sieve areas on the walls are classified into

in to sieve cells and sieve tube.

① sieve cells :- it is sieve element cell in which sieve areas are not highly specialised and are aggregated into sieve plates. Sieve cells are present only in the Gymnosperms and lower vascular plants.

② sieve tube members :- These are thin walled living cells. These contain highly differentiated sieve areas called sieve plates, which are usually present at the ends of the cells. The sieve tube members form vertical series of the interconnected through the sieve plates. The sieve ^{tube} plates are present only in Angiosperms.

* Function of sieve element :- ① conduction of food material in longitudinal direction is the main function of sieve element.

* Companion and albuminous cells :- sieve tube of angiosperm members are accompanied by highly specialised parenchyma cells called as companion cells. The companion cells usually can not be separated from sieve tube even by maturation. Companion cells have nucleus, richly granular cytoplasm and some vacuoles. They do not have starch and take more stain due to presence of slime bodies. Companion

cells differ from sieve cells and sieve tube members in the following aspects.

① Companion cells have nucleus throughout its life time and richly dense cytoplasm with some vacuoles. ② Companion cells having no sieve plates.

The companion cells and sieve tube both are related ontogenetically as they develop from the same meristematic cell i.e. the mother meristematic cell divides longitudinally, one of the daughter cell forms sieve tube members while the other becomes companion cell.

* Functions of companion cells :- ① conduction of the food material ② maintenance of a pressure gradient in the sieve tube.

* Albuminous cells :- In the Pteridophytes and gymnosperms companion cells are absent while albuminous cells are present. These are developed either from phloem parenchyma or from cells of phloem rays.

* Sclerenchyma cells & phloem fibres :- The phloem fibres or sclerenchyma cells are component of phloem i.e. they are present both in primary and secondary phloem. The fibres may be non-septate or septate, cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder.

and may be living or non living. The phloem fibres are rarely found or absent in phloem of living pteridophytes. They are also not found in some gymnosperms and angiosperms. The walls of may be lignified or non lignified because of strength of strands of phloem fibres. They have been used for a long time in the manufacture of cords, ropes, mats and cloth. The phloem fibres are known as bast fibres. The phloem fibres of *Hibiscus cannabinus* (or *Ramboadi*) etc. are long and with thick walls and are used commercially.

* Sclereids: - The sclereids are occasionally found in primary phloem. They may occur in combination with fibres or alone. These are found in the older parts of phloem and are formed due to sclerification of parenchyma cells. Sclereids differ from that of fibres only as these are shorter in size or length than the fibres.

* Function of sclerenchyma cells: - The phloem fibres, similar to xylem fibres give support to the plant body. Some times the sclerenchyma cells also function as storage tissue.

* Parenchyma cells: - The phloem paren-

also contains parenchyma cells that are concerned with many activities characteristic of living parenchyma cells i.e. storage of starch, fat and other organic substance. The parenchyma cells also store tannins and resins. The parenchyma cells of primary phloem are elongated like the sieve elements. There are two types of parenchyma present in secondary phloem i.e. horizontal and vertical. The parenchyma of vertical system is also known as phloem parenchyma or axial parenchyma cells. The horizontal parenchyma cells are called as ~~red~~ parenchyma cells. The walls of both types of parenchyma cells have numerous primary pit fields. The phloem parenchyma is not found in many most of monocots and sedoids.

* Function of phloem parenchyma cells: - Parenchyma cells mainly perform function of storage and translocation of food substances. Some parenchyma cells contain starch, tannins and crystals, which are helpful in the physiology of the plant.

proto phloem

① it is developed from procambium in the early stage of ontogeny.

② The sieve elements get stretched and become non functional.

In sec. phloem there are two systems.

① vertical sec. phloem system i.e. axial system.
 ② horizontal sec. phloem system i.e. radial system.

③ Sieve elements of angiosperms are usually narrow and inconstant wider cavities.

④ They may or may not have companion cells.

⑤ Companion cells are regularly present in the meta phloem of angiosperms.

however it has sieve cells, parenchyma and albinous cells.

* primary phloem - the primary phloem develops from procambium in the early stage of development. The primary phloem is again of two types i.e. proto phloem and meta phloem.

The proto phloem develops in the early stage of ontogeny while meta phloem develops at a later stage of ontogeny. Basically the proto and meta phloem have same structural elements and function but having some differences

from vascular cambium. is called secondary phloem. The secondary phloem tissue are formed outside the sec. phloem. sec. phloem is less in amount than sec. xylem. The arrangement of elements of sec. phloem is parallel to that of sec. xylem.

meta phloem

① it is developed from procambium but at a later stage of ontogeny.

② the sieve elements remain functional.

In sec. phloem there are two systems.

① vertical sec. phloem system i.e. axial system.
 ② horizontal sec. phloem system i.e. radial system.

* componants of vertical sec. phloem - componeant of sec. phloem are sieve element, phloem parenchyma and fibre. In Gymnosperms

* componant of horizontal sec. phloem - it consists of parenchyma of phloem rays. In many species of dicotyledon trees growth rings may also observe of the phloem which are formed due to differentiation in cells. Produced in beginning and at the end of season. The ray initial in the cambium produces cells both towards the xylem and phloem so that the xylem and phloem rays are continuous.

* Duration of activity of sec. phloem - In most of dicotyledon plants the function of phloem is due to mainly sec. phloem. i.e. produced in last season and works like primary phloem.

* secondary phloem - The phloem which develops

Phloem i.e. Conduction of food.

* Phloem cell types → In Heterophytes sieve cells and Phloem Parenchyma are present. In Gymnosperms sieve cells, Parenchyma, Phloem fibres and albuminous cells are present. In Angiosperms. sieve cells, sieve tubes, Parenchyma, Sclerenchyma, Sclereids and companion cells are present.

* Anatomy of monocotyledon root (maize root):

The distinct anatomical characters of monocot roots are as following.

- ① The xylem groups are numerous i.e. Polyarch - condition the number of xylem groups vary from 12 to 20.
- ② The pericycle gives rise to lateral roots.
- ③ The cambium is absent.
- ④ There is no secondary growth.
- ⑤ The pith is large and well developed.

* Anatomy of maize root or monocot root:

→ Anatomy of maize root consist of epidermis, cortex, endodermis, pericycle and vascular tissue and pith.

* Epidemis:- or epiblema:- it is outermost layer of root and is commonly known as epiblema

or shizodermis or piliferous layer. it is uniseriate and consist of compactly arranged huberous cells without intercellular spaces and stomata. The tubular unicellular root hairs

are present.

* Cortex:- it is present inner to the epidermis. The few layers of cortex just inner to epidermis forming the hypodermis. the cells of hypodermis are thick walled. it is a protective layer which protects internal tissues from injurious agencies.

The starch grains are abundantly present in cortical cells.

* Endodermis:- The innermost layer of cortex is called endodermis. it is composed of barrel-shaped compact cells without intercellular spaces. The endodermal cells possess caspian strips on their anticlinal walls. The caspian strips is the part of primary cell wall. the transverse wall. This the wall of endodermal cell become thicker and thick-walled passage cells are formed opposit the protoxylem poles. The passage cells are mean for diffusion and are called transfusion cells.

* Pericycle:- it is usually uniseriate and composed of thin walled parenchymatous cells. The pericycle gives rise to lateral roots.

* Vascular tissue:- The vascular tissue consist of alternate strands of xylem and phloem. The phloem occurs in the form of strands

next periphery of vascular cylinder beneath

the pericycle. The xylem forms discrete strands

alternating with phloem strands the cen-

-tre is occupying by large pith which is paren-

-chymatous. The vascular bundles are nume-

-rous and are called polyarch. The large meta-

xylem vessel are arranged in a circle around

the pith. The xylem is exarch i.e. protoxylem

is present towards periphery and meta-

xylem towards center. The vessels of proto-

xylem are narrow and walls have annu-

-lar and spiral — thickening where as the

meta xylem vessels are broad and have

reticulate and pitted thickenings.

The phloem strands consist of sieve —

tubes, companion cells and phloem parenchyma

The phloem strands is also exarch i.e. proto—

phloem is present towards the periphery

and meta phloem towards the center. The

parenchymatous or sclerenchymatous con-

-junctive tissue is found in bet' n and around

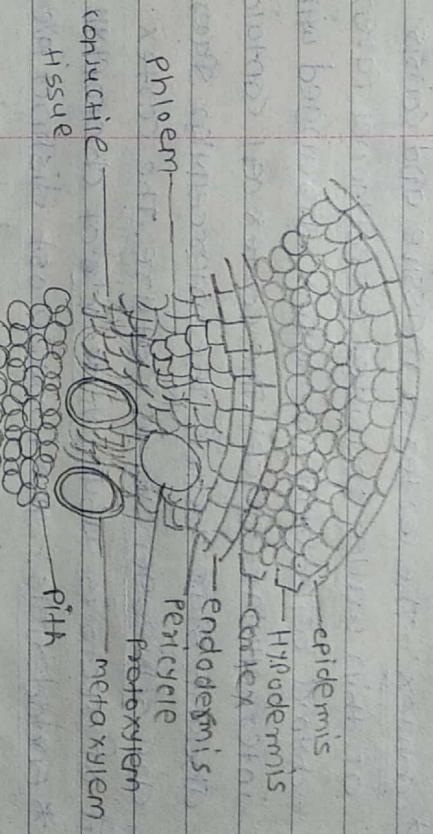
the xylem and phloem strands.

* pith: - The central part of stem is occupied

by well developed pith.



T.S. of maize root (diagrammatically).



* Anatomy of dicotyledonous root (sun flower)

→ The important anatomical characteristic of

dicotyledon roots are as following.

① xylem bundles vary from 2 to 6 in number

i.e. diarch, tetrapharch etc. The pericycle gives

rise to lateral roots. The cambium appears

as a secondary meristem. ② the pith is sc-

aly or all together absent.

The anatomy of dicot root shows epidermi-

, cortex, endodermis and vascular cylinder

-chment controls the movement of the materials in the root and their passage in to xylem cells. The thin walled passage cells also found in the endodermal layer which lie against the protoxylem poles. The passage cells either remain unmodified as long as the root lives or develop thick walls like the rest of endodermis.

* Pericycle :- it is present ^{next} inner to endodermis. It consist of thin walled parenchyma. It makes the outer boundary of the primary vascular cylinder of dicote root.

* The vascular system :- The radial type of vascular bundle present. The xylem and phloem tissues are present on different radii and are alternate in position. The ~~protoxylem~~ ^{primary} xylem is exarch i.e. the protoxylem is present towards the periphery of vascular cylinder and metaxylem is present towards center. The phloem is centrifugally differentiated i.e. protophloem - sector is present towards periphery and metaphloem towards center. The protophloem consist of annular and spiral vessels. Cohose or metaxylem consist of reticulate and pitted vessels.

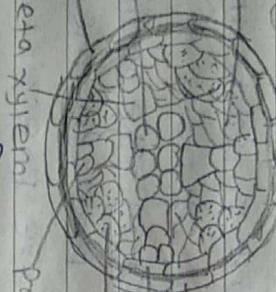
companion cell and phloem parenchyma

parenchymatous conjunctive tissue.

occurs in b/w xylem and phloem —

strands.

* pith:- it is also called medulla. it is —
scanty or all together absent.



conductive cell
pith — passage —
cell meta xylem protostylle

* Anatomy of stem dicotyledon (sun flower stem) → The young stem of sunflower shows following anatomical and internal structure it is almost circular in line it shows epidermis, hypodermis, cortex, Endodermis, Pericycle, vascular tissue and pith.

* Epicarp:- it is the outermost layer of stem it consists of compactly arranged cells. The outer walls are cutinized. multicellular epidermal hairs are often present. Stomata are present here and there.

* Cortex:- it is multilayered and present just next to epidermis. It is differentiated in to hypodermis, middle cortex and stele.

* Hypodermis:- it consists of 2 to 3 layers and present just below the epidermis. The cells are collenchymatous which are thickened at the corners. The cells are living and may contain chloroplasts. It helps in giving mechanical strength to young stem against bending forces.

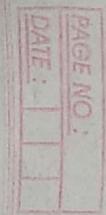
* Middle cortex:- it is also few layered and consist of parenchymatous cells with inter cellular spaces. It also contains chloroplast and oil ducts may be present.

* Endodermis:- it is single layered and differentiated from the inner most layer of cortex. The cells are barrel shaped and compactly arranged.

* Stele:- it is relatively larger than cortex it consists of pericycle, vascular bundles, pith and medullary rays.

* Pericycle:- it is present in the form of sclerenchymatous patches just above each vascular bundle as a cap also called hard blag.

vascular bundles are few in number and are arranged in the form of ring



T.S. of sunflower stem
epidermis

Each vascular bundle is conjoint, collateral and open type. It is wedge shaped. The phloem is made up of sieve tube cell, companion and phloem parenchyma.

* Cambium → it is present next to phloem and consist of small thin walled reacta and angular meristematic cell.

Xylem is present inner to cambium.

it is prototxylem towards pith which is with annular and spiral thickening, meta

xylem is with reticulate and pitted thic-

kening and present away from center.

The development of xylem is centrifugal.

or endarch. wood fibres are irregular, poly-

gonal, thick walled and lignified. xylem or

parenchyma consist of living, thin walled

parenchyma cells.

* Pith or medulla:- it is present in the center of stem and is parenchymatous. (Fig)

* Anatomy of monocotyledon stem:- (maize stem):- The monocot's stems are monoco-

-tyledonous stems are similar to dicotyledonous stems in having an epidermis, a cortex and stem

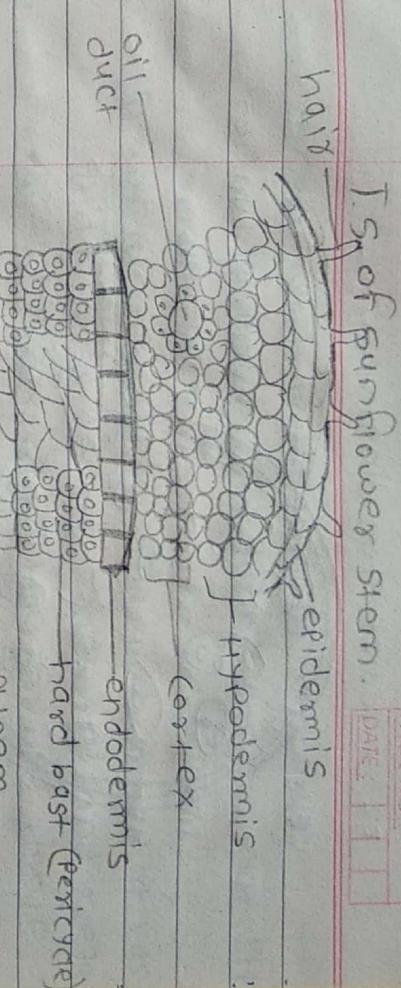
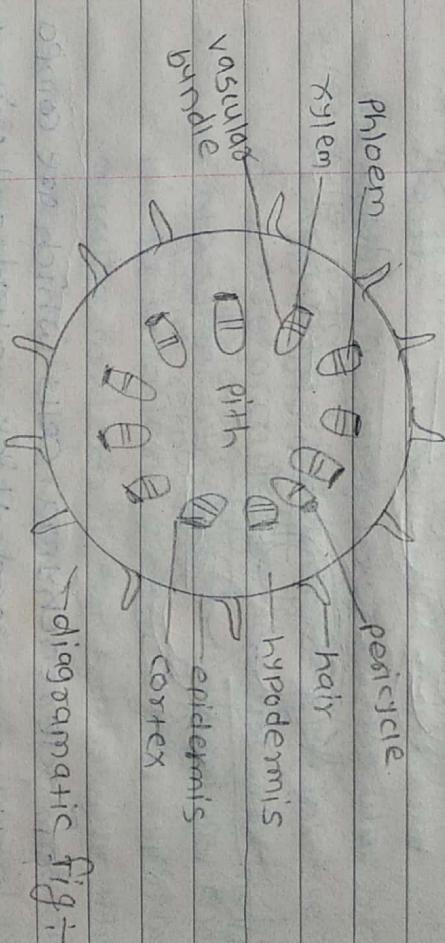
stem of maize is internally circular in outline and shows following internal

structures:- it is outermost layer of stem

① epidermis → it is outermost layer of stem

② hypodermis → it is present below the

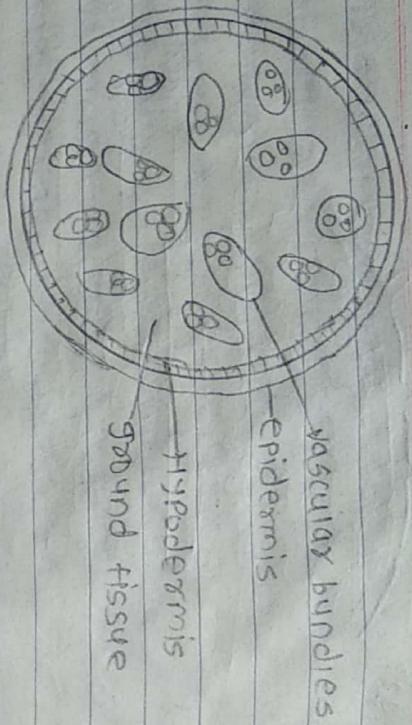
epidermis. it is 2 or 3 layered. it consist



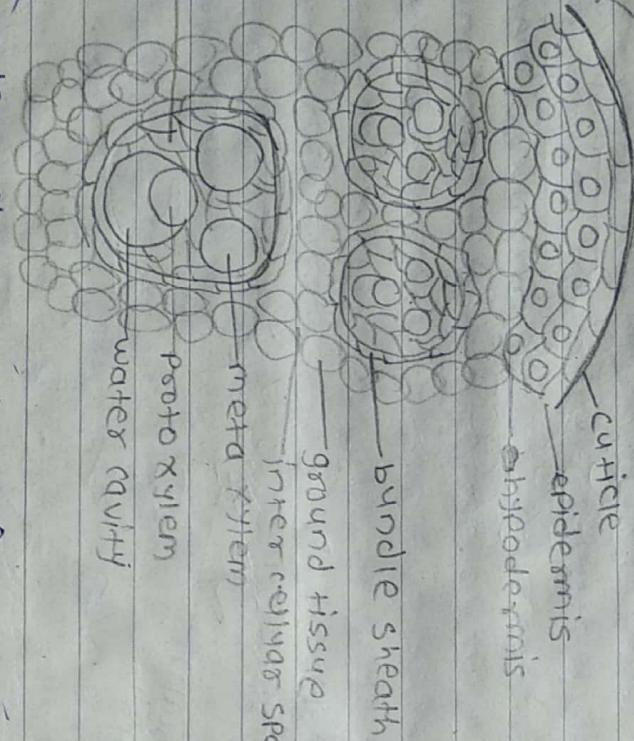
T.S. of maize stem diagrammatic

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T.S. of maize stem



-nged with intercellular spaces. Pericycle, endodermis etc. are not differentiated.

⑤ Vascular bundles: - A large number of vascular bundles are scattered and irregularly arranged in the ground tissue.

The vascular bundles are conjoint, collate -ral and closed type. The vascular bundles are smaller in size and more in number towards the periphery and lesser in number and bigger in size towards the center. Each vascular bundle is surrounded by a sclerenchymatous sheath called bundle sheath.

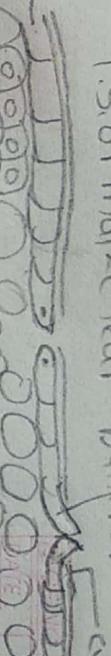
⑥ Xylem: - The xylem in each vascular bundle is arranged in the form of Y. The two arms of Y are occupied by two big vessels i.e. metaxylem with pitted thickenings and the tail by smaller vessels (protoxylem with annular and spiral thickenings) on the inner side of protoxylem a lysigenous water cavity is present. it is formed by the breaking of protoxylem vessels. On the outer side of protoxylem a few sclerenchyma cells are present.

⑦ Phloem: - it is present above xylem it consist of sieve tubes, and companion

of sclerenchyma cells which are compactly arranged thick walled and without stomata.

⑧ Ground tissue: - it is present inner to hypodermis and occupy the entire region of stem. it is consist of thin walled parenchymatous cells which are loosely arra-

upper
epidermis



T.S. of maize leaf part form cell

cells only. phloem Parenchyma is absent.

the Protophloem is usually crushed aga-

-in-sclerenchyma. meta phloem is present

-just below Proto Phloem and the arms

of xylem.

Thus most distinctive and characteristic feature of monocot stem following

1) Vascular bundles are many in number

2) stele is broken up into bundles.

3) vascular bundles are scattered in ground

tissue ④ endodermis is not found ⑤ root apex, pericycle, pith are not differen-

tiated because of presence of scattered

bundles ⑥ vascular bundles are collateral

and closed. ⑦ sec. growth of normal type

is absent. ⑧ each vascular bundle is sur-

rounded by sclerenchymatous bundle sheath

9) vascular bundles are commonly oval shaped

10) phloem consist of sieve tubes and companion

cells only ⑪ the phloem Parenchyma is absent

12) pith is absent. ⑬ hypodermis is usually

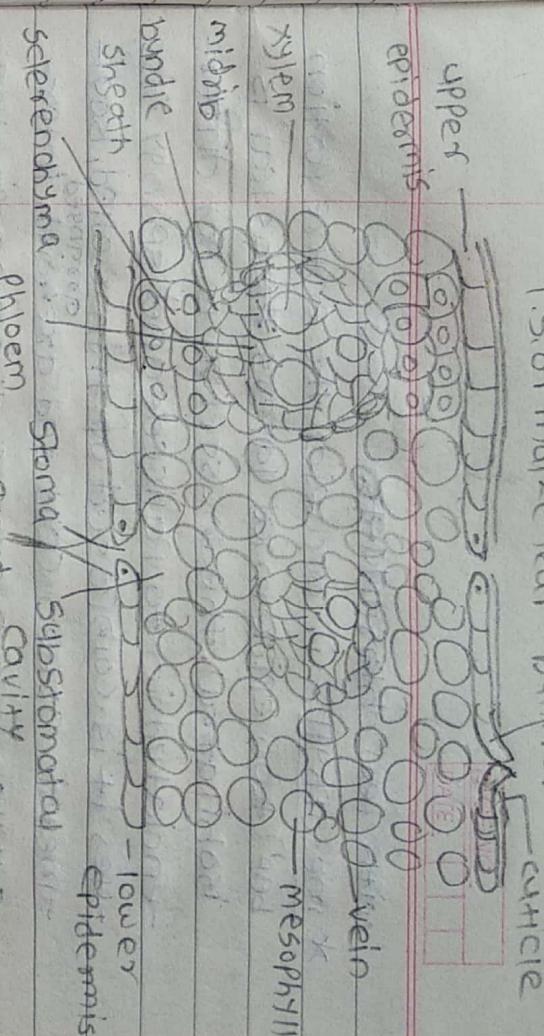
sclerenchymatous ⑭ usually epidermal

hairs are not present.

* Anatomy of monocot leaf; (maize leaf)

→ The internal structure of monocotyledon

ous leaves is more or less similar in both the upper and lower halves and so it is



with few chloroplasts.

* Mesophyll: - it occupies the entire portion between two epidermal layers. As leaf is bifacial, the mesophyll is not differ-

- enced in to palisade and spongy tissue - yes it is composed of thin walled, isodiametric green cells and are arranged with inter-

- cellular space among them. respiratory cavities are present just below stomata.

* Vascular bundles: - the vascular bundles are arranged in parallel manner and they may differ in size in some cases.

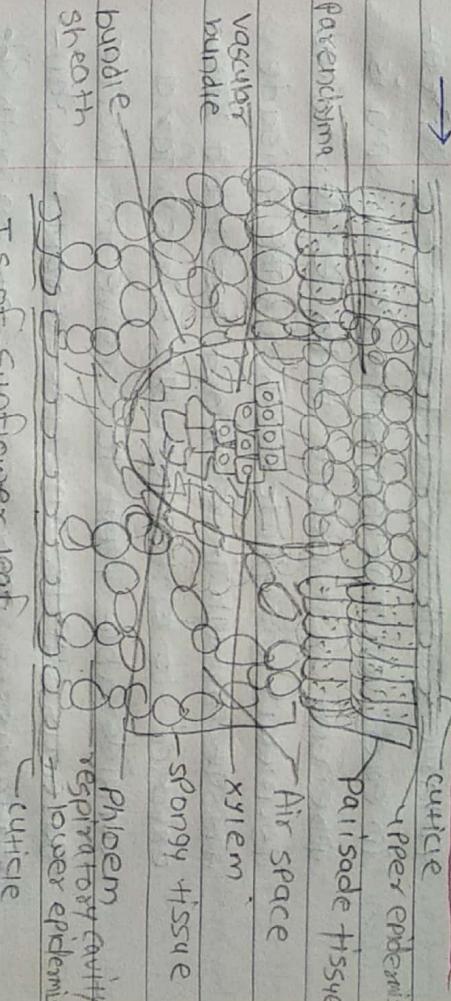
The vascular bundles are occur in the mesophyll tissue they have a common sheath and are enclosed by a bundle sheath.

The vascular bundles are collateral and closed type. They occur at regular interval towards upper side.

The xylem is found towards upper side and phloem towards lower side in bundle.

The cells of bundle sheath generally contain starch grain in them. Xylem consist of vessels and phloem consist of sieve tube and companion cells. And sclerenchyma cells occur in patches on both ends of large vascular bundles which give mechanical support to the leaf.

* Anatomy of dicotyledon leaf: (sunflower leaf)



* Anatomy of dorsiventral leaf:

It is also known as bifacial leaf. It is differentiated in-

-ternally into a dorsal region and a ventral region. Most of the dicotyledonous leaves are of this type. General outline of leaves shows prominent midrib in center with lamina on either side and differentiated into following regions.

① Upper epidermis:

It is single layered and consist of closely fitted cells with outer thick walls. The chloroplast and stomata are usually not present. It also bears many cellular hairs.

② Mesophyll:

It forms the main bulk of leaf and consist of two regions i.e. Palisade layer and spongy layer.

* Palisade tissue:

It is composed of one

or two layers of closely arranged columnar cells. A large number of chloroplast are present in each cell. The palisade parenchyma is present just below upper epidermis and is mean for photosynthesis. The palisade tissue though is compact itself but remain exposed to intercellular spaces for a considerable part to receive the proper gaseous supply. In some xerophytes palisade tissue may be present on both sides of leaf. ex:- *Eucalyptus*.

* spongy layer: Spongy layer is present just below palisade layer. It consists of loosely arranged parenchyma cells. It looks like a net. The intercellular spaces are prominent and thus the name spongy parenchyma given. These cells contain less chloroplast. This layer helps in the exchange of gases b/w the leaf and the atmosphere. Respiratory cavities are seen just below stomata.

③ vascular bundle: It is irregularly distributed in spongy tissue. The structure of vascular bundles of midrib and other veins is similar to each other. A large number of vascular strands form an interconnected system in the median plane

of blade. These vascular bundle in the leaves are called veins. A large number of these small veins arise from midrib and form a network.

Each vascular bundle is conjoint, collateral, closed. The xylem is present towards upper epidermis and phloem towards lower epidermis. Xylem consists of annular or spiral vessels, tracheids, wood fibres, phloem consists of sieve tubes, companion cells and phloem parenchyma. The entire vascular bundle is enclosed in paranchymatous bundle sheath which is made up of a layer of compactly arranged cells.

* midrib region → in midrib region generally in place of palisade tissue there is present some parenchyma tissue on the lower side and also upper side.

④ lower epidermis → It is similar to upper epidermis in size. It bears numerous stomata, each stoma is surrounded by two guard cells and is followed by substomatal cavity.

* Anamalous secondary growth in Dracaena stem: In monocots normally, the vascular bundles are closed. The cambium is absent. So the sec. growth is absent, but in some plants like

Dracaena, Yucca etc. the sec. growth takes place and is known as anomalous sec. growth. ^{abnormal}

The abnormal sec. growth may be an adaptation. *Dracaena* is a common garden plant and belongs to family *Liliaceae* the stem shows abnormal sec. growth. The pri. internal stru. of stem mainly resemble typical monocot stem of maize ^{collateral and closed type of} and it shows scattered, ^{vascular} bundles in the parenchymatous ground tissue. Endodermis and pericycle are absent.

sec. growth in stem takes place by the formation of cambium. one of the outer layer of ground tissue becomes meristematic and functions as cambium. such sec. growth which is not common in monocots is called anomalous secondary growth.

The activity or behavior of this cambium is also different. ^{activity of} cambium produces sec. is more on the inner side and very little on the outer side where it forms only parenchyma. on the inner side it forms xylem and parenchyma in alternate patches. The inner parenchymatous cells are called conjunctive tissue.

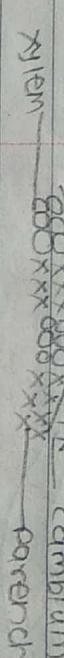
After a short while the activity of cambium on the inner side changes and above the xylem it starts forming phloem and then again xylem thus phloem becomes encircled by xylem. and

a ring of leptocentric or amphivasal type of vascular bundles are formed. These vascular bundle is are oval in shape around each vascular bundle a sclerenchymatous sheath is developed. The xylem formed earlier has bigger vessels.

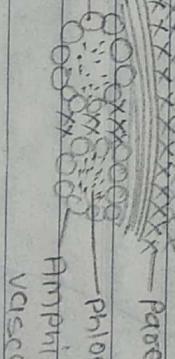
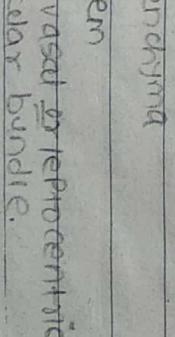
The cambium after some time changes its activity and forms xylem on inner side at those places where it was previously forming the parenchyma and parenchyma in place of xylem. similar to earlier

case again by change in activity it forms a ring of vascular bundles similarly the activity of cambium goes on changing regularly and more rings of vascular bundles are formed. The last one or two rings of vascular bundles are embedded in lignified conjunctive tissue. cork cambium is formed below hypodermis and forms cork on the outer side and secondary cortex on the inner side.

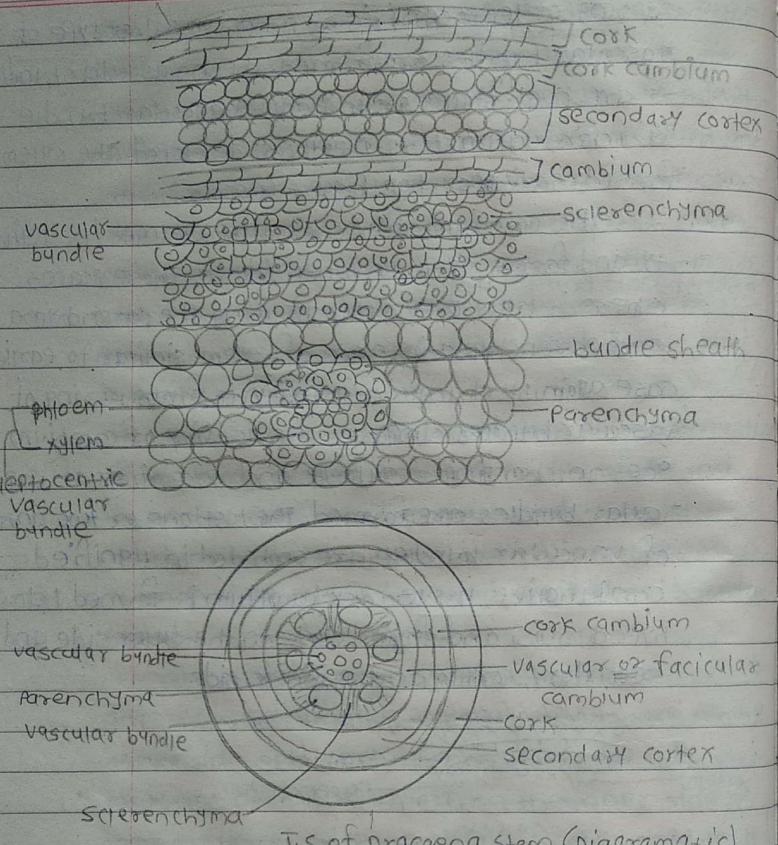
A case -  - Parenchyma

B case -  - Parenchyma

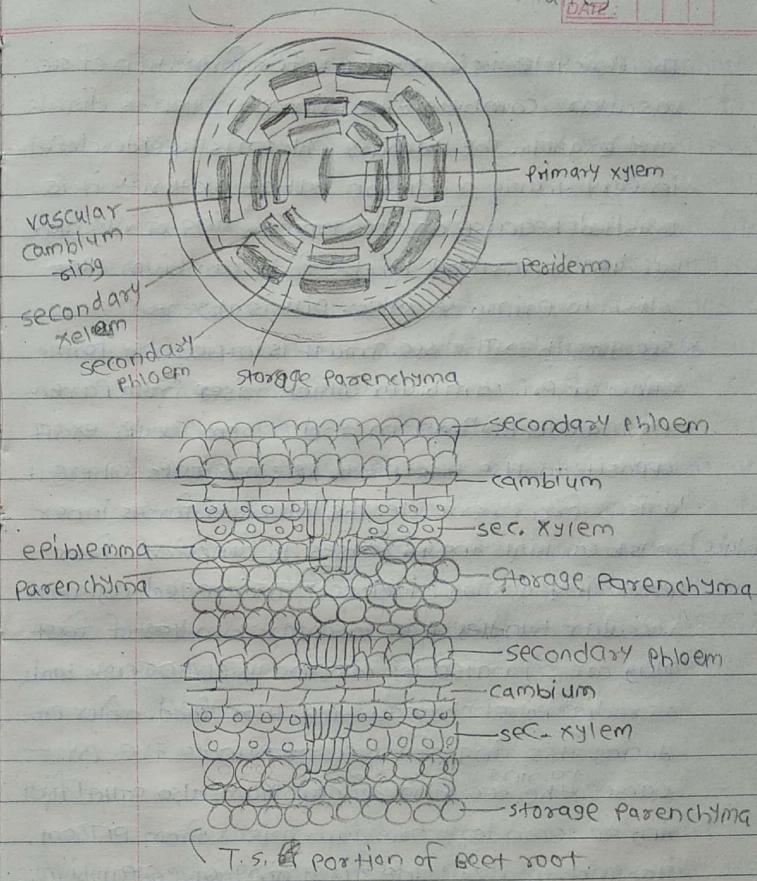
C case -  - Parenchyma

xylem  - Phloem  - Amphivasal or leptocentric vascular bundle.

T.S. of Dracaena stem after secondary growth



T.S. of Beet root (diagrammatic)



T.S. of Dracaena stem (diagrammatic)

* Anomalous secondary growth in Beet root :-

→ Epiblemma:- it is outermost layer of cortex.
 Cork:- it is well developed but in mature roots it is completely crushed because of sec. growth immediately below epiblemma periderm is present which is well developed in young conditions the endodermis is present but later on it is ruptured.

The pericycle is important for formation of sec. vascular cambium. The primary xylem is diarch and exarch. The primary phloem is well developed in very young condition but at maturity it is crushed because of sec. growth. A ring of vascular bundles is formed by the first cambium just close to primary xylem. Pith is absent.

* sec. growth → The sec. growth is initiated by formation of pri. cambium which arises from transition of pri. xylem groups where it arises from pericycle. The cambium forms inner (adax) most cambial ring it ceases to function after producing a ring of closely arranged collateral vascular bundles. The vascular bundles of first ring are separated by comparatively narrow bands of radial parenchyma which store food. After producing this ring of vascular bundle the pri. — ceases the sec. ring of cambium also called first ring of secondary cambium arises from phloem parenchyma outside first ring of pri. cambium.

The sec. cambium ring produces a second ring of secondary vascular bundles outside the first. The bundles are conjoint and collateral i.e. phloem and xylem are present in the same radius. The phloem is present towards the outer side. This cambium ring also causes the first

Cambium i.e.

a third ring of (second ring of sec. cambium) is formed outside second ring. It is derived from pericycle. It also forms a ring of sec. (collateral) vascular bundles. The cells of pericycle undergoes repeated divisions and form more pericyclic layers of parenchyma cells.

These cells also store food material. The rings of pericycle appear dark red and those of vascular

bundles are lighter in colour in transverse section thus root of Beta vulgaris increase in thickness by activity of concentric layers of cambium and by proliferation of pericycle. The Beet root is —

identified by presence of mainly cambial rings, proliferated pericycle and the storage parenchyma.

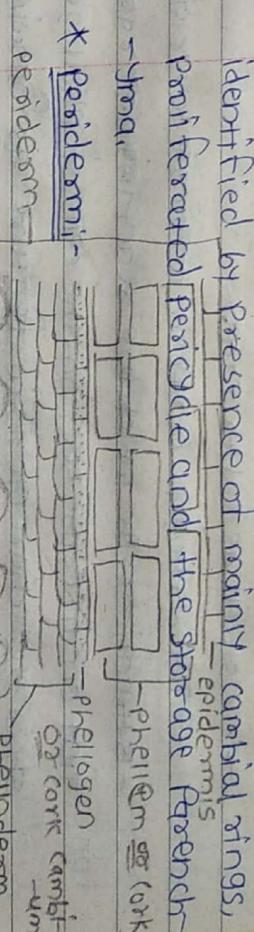


Fig — Periderm

The term periderm is applied to a protective secondary tissue that develops by the activity of sec.

secondary lateral meristem and replaces the epidermis.

Dicotyledon roots and stems it is easily formed in leaves or monocotyledons, it also develops as protective layer near injured parts and is called

wound periderm.

The term periderm is more distinct than bark.

* Structure of periderm:- The periderm is made up of three layers i.e. phellogen or cork cambium, the phellem or cork and phelloidem or the living parenchyma tissue.

① Phellogen:- It is a secondary lateral meristem which arises from permanent living cells of epidermis, hypodermis, cortex and phloem cells. Its activity adds to the diameter of stem because itself divide in to tangential plane cutting off cells towards its inner side as well as outer face.

The phellogen composed of single layer of mesophloic cells which are rectangular, radially flattened in cross section. The cells of phellogen show the characteristic features as following:

- 1) The cells are thin walled. ② They have vacuolate protoplast 3) The cell contains are granular.
 - 4) The cells may contain chloroplasts and tannins.
 - 5) The cells are usually compactly arranged except in the lenticels. 6) The cells are meristematic and divide actively in tangential plane.
- The phellogen originates at different depths outside the vascular cylinder.

Ex:- In medium the epidermal cells become meristematic and give rise to phellogen. In vascular the

phellogen arise from cortical cells.

Thus on the basis of origin and position the phellogen is of different types.

- 1) Epidermal phellogen - ex:- Pinus
- 2) Hypodermal or Subepidermal phellogen - Prunus
- 3) Cortical phellogen - ex:- Pinus
- 4) Phloic phellogen - ex:- Vitis
- 5) Pericyclic phellogen - ex:- Tunica

The phellogen form a complete layer of meristematic cells which encircle the axis or it may arise in patches. In ridged stems the phellogen below the ridges is slightly differ than that below the groove.

Phellogen arises from permanent cells by regaining the capacity of division and become meristematic. These cells undergo periclinal division cutting off outer and inner cells. If outer cells function as phellogen the inner cells become phellem layers. Further periclinal division give rise to more layers of cork cells towards the outer side. The inner cells function as cork cambium or phellem. In order to increase circumference the cells of phellogen divide anticlinally. The number of cork layers formed during one year varies betw 2 to 20.

② Phellem or cork layers:- The phellem or cork arise as a result of tangential or periclinal

division of phellogen cells. The cells cut off towards outer side, mature into cork cells or phellem.

These cells are compactly arranged have thin cellulose walls in begining but as they mature the cells become elongated radially and there is gradual loss of living material. The cell walls become thick by deposition of suberin. The cork cells may also contain resin or tannin materials of cells which also gives it thermal

The air present in cavity also gives it thermal insulating qualities which act as protective layer of plant and also useful commercial product. In some cork cells sclereids and crystals present.

③ Phellogen:—It consist of the layers of thin-walled cells. The cells are living and possess cellulose cell walls along with pits. The cells are arranged in definite radial rows. In some cases cells may contain chloroplast and starch.

* Lentoids:—It is defined as small portion of the periderm where the activity of phellogen is more than else—where and the cork cells produced by it are loosely arranged and possess numerous intercellular spaces.

The loose arrangement of cells in the lentoid makes them the chief aeration structure the lenticels are found in the periderm of both

stems and roots. They are also found on the fruits small dots on the surface of fruit in appearance lenticels usually occurs as raised for corks spots on the surface of main axis and its branches they are present in most of plant undergoing secondary growth.

The lenticels generally occurs beneath old stomata or group of stomata and they may be appear in structure. They also occur in position opposite to multicellular vascular

* Origin and structure of lenticels:

Initiation of lenticel below stoma is marked by division of some all below stoma in different planes to form a mass of rounded cells. These cells grow bigger in size. loose their constraints and become colourless. They form first layer of complementary cells. beneath these cells the phellogen or a cork cambium appear its cells devide tangentially and cut out of more complementary cells towards the outside. The phellogen is lenticel region is characterised by presence of intercellular spaces between its cells. and their is addition of complementary

cells towards outside. The epidermis separate the outside. These and expose underlying complementary cells. These cells are thin—

* Structure of anther:— The stamens are

microsporophylls

Pollen chamber

Anthers
lobe

Conn
filament

T.S. of anther

male organs of flower.
Each stamen consists of

three parts i.e. filament, anther and conne-
ctive. The filament is cylinder stalk of sta-

men and anther is expanded head borne by
filament at its filament.

Each anther consists of usually two lobes
connected together by a midrib known as the
connective. Each lobe of anther contains
two pollen sacs i.e. microsporangia. Thus the
there are 4 chambers in each anther. But in
many cases there are only two and some
times only one chamber is present. Within
each pollen sac contains ~~pass~~ of pollen
mother cells or microspore mother cells.

Each pollen mother cell after meiotic divi-
sion produce a group of 4 microspores
called pollen tetrad. Pollengrains are pro-
duced in large quantities in pollen sacs.

The wall of anther is two or three
layered. The outermost layer is called epider-
mis. The cells of epidermis are greatly stre-
ched and flattened. and thus the cells lose
contact with each other and at maturity

get ruptured. The layer next to epidermis is

called endothecium or fibrous layer. The
cells of endothecium are radially elongate
and bear fibrous bands. The fibrous

bands of thickening of the cells is mainly
responsible for dehiscence of matured
anther due to hydroscopic in nature. The

cells of endothecium are thin walled
along the line of dehiscence of each

anther lobe. The opening through which the

pollengrains are discharged from pollen
sac is called stomium. The inner most layer
of anther wall is called tapetum. Tapetum
is a single layered. The cells of tapetum

have dense cytoplasm and conspi-
cuous—nuclei. The tapetum layer is of

great physiological significance since food
material entering in to sporogenous tissue

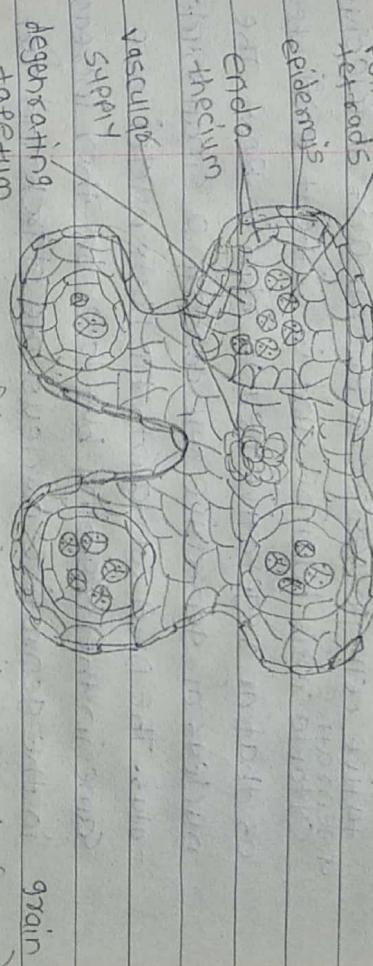
diffuses through this layer. usually tapetum

is single layered but in some cases it is
differs through this layer. usually tapetum
is single layered but in some cases it is
diffuses through this layer. This tapetum is nutritive —
layer for development of microspores.

* Sporogenous tissue:— The sporogenous tis-
sue are called microspore mother cell
or pollen mother cell. Initially microspore
mother cells remain closely packed but
later on they get loosely arranged —

The microspore mother cells after meiotic division produce 4 microspores or pollen grains. This phenomenon is called microsporogenesis. The diploid nucleus of each pollen mother cell divides twice to form

4 nuclei. The first division is reduction division i.e. meiosis first and second division is meiosis second. At the end of meiotic division these 4 nuclei which are formed possess half (n) of usual number of ($2n$) chromosomes.



laid down before 4 nuclei. Thus 4 nuclei are arranged in tetrahedral manner and 4 daughter cells are also formed from

a tetra-hedron tetrad.

Depending upon the manner of wall formation during cytokinesis pollen grains are developed by 2 types i.e. successive-type and simultaneous type. In successive type a cell wall is formed between two daughter nuclei immediately after meiosis I. The second meiotic division takes place forming two haploid nuclei and then again a wall is formed thus there is formation of a tetrad of cells. This step of development is found in monocot plant.

Simultaneous type; in this type is commonly found in dicot plants. In this type nucleus of microspore mother cell divides twice — forming 4 haploid nuclei in the common mass of cytoplasm of mother cell. The walls are

* Development of male gametophyte (microgametophyte):— The development of male gametophyte or microgametophyte in angiosperm is uniform. The microspore or pollen grain after germination develops into male gametophyte it consists of only two divisions. The first division results in formation of two cells i.e. a large vegetative cell and a small generative cell. The second division is present only in the generative cell.

The germination of microspore starts while it is still within microsporangium or pollen sac. The first division of microspore gives rise to the vegetative and generative cells. The first formed peripheral cell which is walled is the generative cell.

while the larger, necked, central cell is the vegetative or tube cell. The nuclei of generative and vegetative cells differ in size, structure and staining qualities. The nucleus of vegetative cell possesses a prominent nucleolus, of generative cell hyaline and is without RNA. whereas that of vegetative cell is rich in RNA. The nucleus of generative cell contains a small nucleus. The DNA contents of both nuclei are same in the beginning but later on they increase in the generative nucleus. The starch and fat are most conspicuous in the vegetative cell.

The generative cell loses contact with microspore wall and it becomes oval or spindle shaped. Thus microspore becomes two celled generally pollen grains are shade from pollen sac in two celled stage for germination. In some cases both 2 and 3 celled pollen grains have been reported in the same plant.

In most of angiosperms the pollen grains

shedding from anther take place at 2 celled stage or binucleated or two celled stage, one of these is the generative nucleus which later on divides and form two male nuclei.

* male cell or male nuclei:- The generative cells divides in the pollen grain and sperm cells are formed which are called male gamets.

* structure of ovule of megasporangium in angiosperm

The diagram illustrates the structure of an angiosperm megasporangium (ovule). It shows a longitudinal section through the ovule. At the top, the nucellus contains two polar nuclei. Below the nucellus is the egg apparatus, which includes the synergids and the egg. The nucellus is surrounded by the integuments. The integuments are labeled with "outer integument" and "inner integument". The entire structure is labeled "ovule".

The megasporangium of ovule in angiosperm show integument, nucellus, female gametophyte etc.

Stalk of the funicle which is variable in length. the ovule with funicle is called funiculate or stalked.

Ovule and without funicle is called sessile-ovule. The point of attachment of funicle with the body of ovule is called Hilum. The funicle give support to the body of ovule. It also supplied nutrition to body of ovule from placental tissue. The body of ovule is divided into two main parts such as integuments and nucellus. The body of ovule is covered by two layers called integuments and the ovule is said to be bitemgmic. The bitemgmic type of ovule is present in most of plants. The ovules with one integument are called unitegmic. Bitemgmic ovules occurs in plants of polyphetal and monocotyledonous plants while the unitegmic ovule are found in plants of sympetalae or gamopetalae in some members of olacaceae. The ovules lack an integument and are called atemic.

The integuments give protection to nucellus and embryo sac. The integuments after fertilization form seed coat. Nucellus is present inner side to the integuments, it consists of mass of diploid parenchymatous cells. Each ovule has only

one nucellus. The position of nucellus present towards the micropyle is called micropylar end and the portion present at basal end are called chalaza end. In nucellus towards the micropylar end, an embryosac or female gametophyte is called present— nucellus present in integument from its chalaza end. It also produces embryosac or female gametophytes. It acts as a nutritive tissue.

* Embryosac or Female gametophyte — It is

Present towards micropylar end. It is group of 3 cells. Middle cell is called egg or female gamet and two lateral cells are called synergids. All cells are haploid after fertilization egg is converted into diploid embryo which by mitosis produces an embryo of the seed. One of synergid helps to give entry of male gamets in to embryo sac.

* Secondary nucleus → It is present in center of embryo sac which is diploid after fertilization

— zation. Diploid secondary nucleus is converted in to a triploid primary endosperm — nucleus [3PEN] which produces endosperm. Antipodal cells are three haploid cells present towards the chalazal end of the embryosac. After fertilization

Antipodal cells get organised and serve as nutritive tissue. micropyle is generally formed by either both two integuments or only the inner integument in bitegmic ovules. The micropyle allows the pollen tube to enter the ovule during the process of fertilization.

* Development of female gametophyte in Angiosperms → During development of gametophyte the megasporangium enlarges considerably and undergoes three successive mitotic divisions resulting in the formation of generally 8 nucleated embryo sac. However there are many variations from typical manner of development of megasporangium and embryo sac has been observed — Maheshwari 1950 classified different types of development of embryo sac in Angiosperm based on the different features like (1) The number of megasporangium nuclei that take part in the formation of the embryo sac.

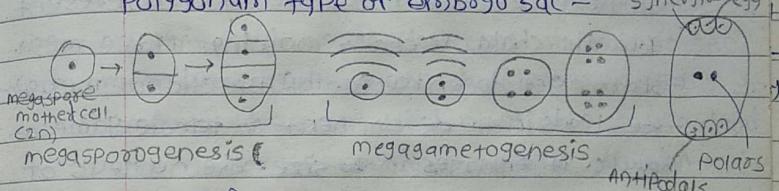
(2) Total number of division that occur during the formation of megasporangium and gametophyte

(3) Number and arrangement of nuclei and their chromosome number in mature embryo sac.

Based on number of megasporangium nuclei involved in development, female Gametophyte of Angiosperm may be classified into monosporic, bisporic and tetrasporic.

1) monosporic embryo sac → This type of embryo sacs are derived from only one megasporangium. All nuclei in the monosporic embryo sac are genetically identical because they are derived through mitosis of a single nucleus.

Polygonum type of embryo sac — synergids, egg, polar nuclei, antipodal cells.



This type of embryo sac is the most common type of development of embryo sac, it was first discovered by Stasburger 1879 in Polygonum divaricatum. In this type out of four megasporangium usually chalazal one functions and rest three megasporangium degenerate. Functional megasporangium enlarges and its nucleus undergoes three successive mitotic division and there is formation of 8 nucleated and 7 celled female gametophyte which consist of an egg apparatus, two polar nuclei and three antipodal cells.

The development of female gametophyte mainly consists of two phases i.e. megasporogenesis and megagametogenesis. Megasporogenesis is the phenomenon which consists of the meiotic or reductional division of diploid mother cell to form a group of

For haploid megasporangium the megasporangium are haploid megasporangium having number of chromosome.

Megagametogenesis consist of development of embryo sac or female gametophyte from a single functional megasporangium which is present towards chalazal end remaining three megasporangia get degenerated. The functional megasporangium leads in to development of female gametophyte. It enlarges in size. The nucleus of megasporangium devides and redvides for three times to form 8 nuclei. The 8 nuclei are arranged in to 3 celled egg apparatus, secondary nucleus and 3 antipodal out of 8 - nuclei four are migrated towards micropylar end and other four towards chalazal end. One nucleus from each pole is then migrated in the center of the gametophyte.

The upper three nuclei are organised to form an egg apparatus the middle cell of the apparatus is called as an egg or female gamete and two lateral cells are called synergids.

Two haploid nuclei present in center of female gametophyte are called polar which later on get fused to form diploid secondary nucleus the group of three haploid nuclei — present towards chalazal end are organised

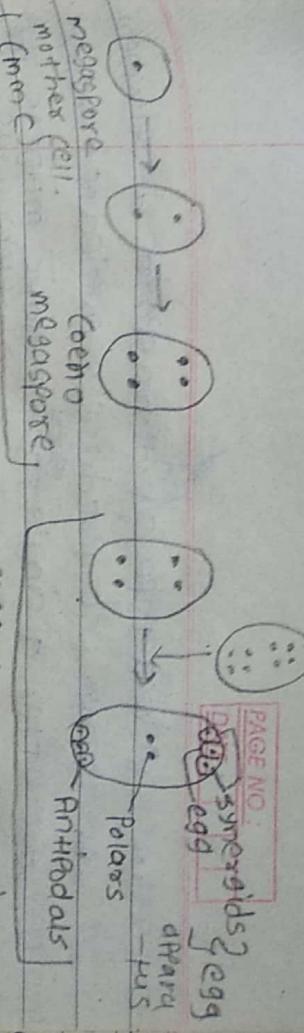
to form a group of 3 cells called antipodal.

In angiosperm development of female gametophyte completes within megasporangium type of development of female gametophyte is called endoscopic development.

— In this type of development of embryo sac megasporangium mother cell devides meiotically to produce two dyad cells. Only one of the dyad cell undergoes second meiotic division while the remaining one degenerates.

Allium type — This type of embryo sac was first described in Allium fistulosum by Dr. Bures in 1879. The development of embryo sac consists of two parts megasporogenesis and megagametogenesis. Megasporogenesis is the formation of haploid megasporangium after meiotic division of diploid megasporangium mother cell first meiotic division of megasporangium mother cell result in formation of dyad. Thus there is formation of only two cells of these two cells the chalazal one becomes megasporangium functional while the micropylar megasporangium gets degenerated.

2) Megagametogenesis — Development of gametophyte for formation of female gametes from functional megasporangium. The nucleus of functional megasporangium devides to form two, four and finally



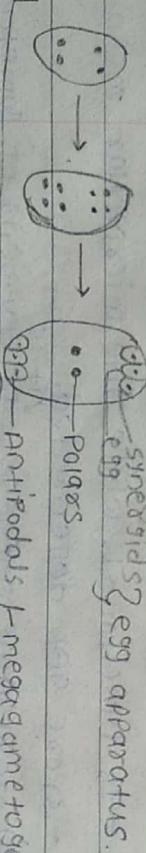
8 nucleated embryo sac. These 8 nuclei get organised in to an egg apparatus, two Polar nuclei and three antipodal cells. A group of four nuclei present towards each pole migrate to the center of embryo sac each pole. Present towards each pole, then one nucleus from each pole migrate to the center of embryo sac and are called Polar nuclei. Three nuclei present towards micropylar end get organised in to an egg apparatus. Egg apparatus consist of an egg cell in the middle position which act as female synergids and the two lateral cells are called chalazal end get organised in to three antipodal cells, which are nutritive in function and lastly get disorganized thus final organisation of bisporic embryo sac is similar to the monosporic polygonum type.

① megasporogenesis: ② megagametogenesis.

Megasporogenesis is the process in which haploid megasporangium after meiotic division produce four haploid megasporangia.

The megagametogenesis is the phenomenon in which there is development of female gametophyte ~~over~~ embryo sac from haploid megasporangium.

The tetrasporic development of female gametophyte consists of all the 4 haploid nuclei remain in a common cytoplasm which is called a megasporangium. A tetrasporic embryo sac is more heterogeneous i.e. it shows variation than a bisporic embryo sac because the four products of nuclei of meiosis are involved in the formation of embryo sac and these four nuclei are genetically different. The nuclear behavior in tetrasporic embryo sac is quite variable.



Bisporic Allium type of development of embryo sac in angiosperm

* Tetrasporic development of embryo sac (Adoxa type): -

Adoxa type of tetrasporic development
 of embryo sac produce 8 nucleated embryo sac after a single post meiotic mitosis. The organisation of Adoxa type of embryo sac is similar to polygonum type of embryo sac.

The embryo sac is 8 nucleated and

7 celled, one nucleus from each pole migrate to centre of embryo sac which are called Polars. The polar nuclei later on get fused and form a diploid secondary nucleus which acts as female gamete

and fuses with one of the male gamete to form triploid primary endosperm nucleus (3PEN) the process is called triple fusion. The three nuclei present towards micropyle end get organised into an egg apparatus which consist of central egg cell and two side cells called synergids.

The egg cell acts as female gamete which get fuse with male gamete the process is called syngamy which results in formation of diploid zygote. and later on in to the embryo. The two synergids are called supporting cells which later on get disorganized. Three cells present towards chalazal end are called antipodal cells which are nutritive in function

and lastly get disorganized. Thus the Adoxa type of tetrasporic embryo sac or female gametophyte consist of an egg apparatus, antipodal cells and the central diploid secondary cell so it is called 7 celled and 8 nucleated.

* Double fertilization and its significance

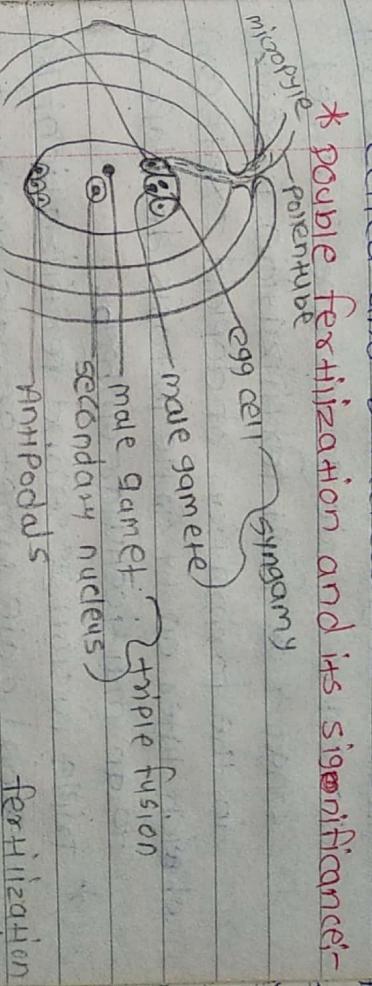


Fig. - Embryo sac enlarged showing double fertilization. Fertilization is the union of an egg and male synergid.

Fertilization is the union of an egg and male synergid.

* Double fertilization:- it is defined as the phenomenon which involve two fertilizations i.e. syngamy and triple fusion the pollen tube entering the ovule through micropyle and is called

the Paragamy. The pollen tube passes through the synergids and then enters in to embryo sac through one of the synergids. As a result the synergid as well as the tip of pollen tube get ruptured. The two haploid male gamets are released inside the embryo sac near the egg. The non motile male gamets or male nuclei

are brought up to female gamete with the help of pollen tube. And is called syngamy.

The two fertilizations which are involved in double fertilization are as follows:-

* Syngamy or First fertilization; out of two male gamets, one male gamet fuses with the egg or female gamet and is called syngamy or first fertilization. It results in the formation of diploid zygote ($2n$), which later on by simple mitosis develops in to an multicellular embryo.

* Triple fusion or second fertilization; The second male gamet or male nucleus fuses with the sec. diploid nucleus. The process is called triple fusion or second ferti.

Triple fusion results in the formation of

triploid primary endosperm nucleus (3PEN) which later on develops in to an endo-

-sperm. This double fertilization is present only in the angiospermic plants and it is characteristic of angiosperm. * Significance of double fertilization:-

① The process of double fertilization is present only in Angiosperms. ② In double fertilization both male gamets are utilised. ③ Syngamy or first fertilization results in the formation of diploid

zygote which later on forms embryo of seed. ④ Syngamy also restores the diploid condition of plant. ⑤ Triploid endosperm is formed as a result of triple fusion. In the seed, the endosperm supplies nutrition to the developing embryo. ⑥ In angiosperm triple fertilization (double ferti.) retains diploid number of chromosomes in the life cycle. Due to double fertilization angiospermic seeds are more viable so that percentage of germination is high. ⑦ Fertilization also brings about recombination of characters resulting in variation among the offsprings.

* Post fertilization changes in Angiosperms:-

The process of fertilization stimulates fertilized ovule as well as ovary. So, after fertilization many changes occur in ovule, ovary and in different parts of flower. All these changes are called post fertilization changes. These changes lead to the formation of seed from ovule and fruit from ovary. The fully developed embryo consists of radicle, plumule, one or two cotyledons. The embryo with two cotyledons is called dicotyledon embryo. The cotyledons of dicot

reserve food material, embryo with only one cotyledon is described as monocot embryo. The monocotyledon embryo is thin and is called scutellum. It does not store food material. In monocotyledon embryo radical is covered by coleorhiza and plumule is covered by coleophore.

The different post fertilization changes are as following.

- ① Formation of seed - The ovule is transformed into seed. The micropyle present in ovule remains as small opening of seed which is important for to imbibe out the plume and radicle during seed germination.
- ② After fertilization the integuments become dry and form seed coat. The outer integument get develop into testa and the inner integument is converted into tegman. The testa and tegman together is called seed coat.

③ Formation of fruit

- After fertilization the ovary is converted into fruit. The ovary becomes hard, rigid etc. as a result of fertilization. The wall of ovary changes in to wall of fruit known as pericarp. After fertilization the floral parts like sepals, petals, stamen, style, stigma etc. becomes

slowly dry and get ~~down~~ ^{down} - and lastly fall down.

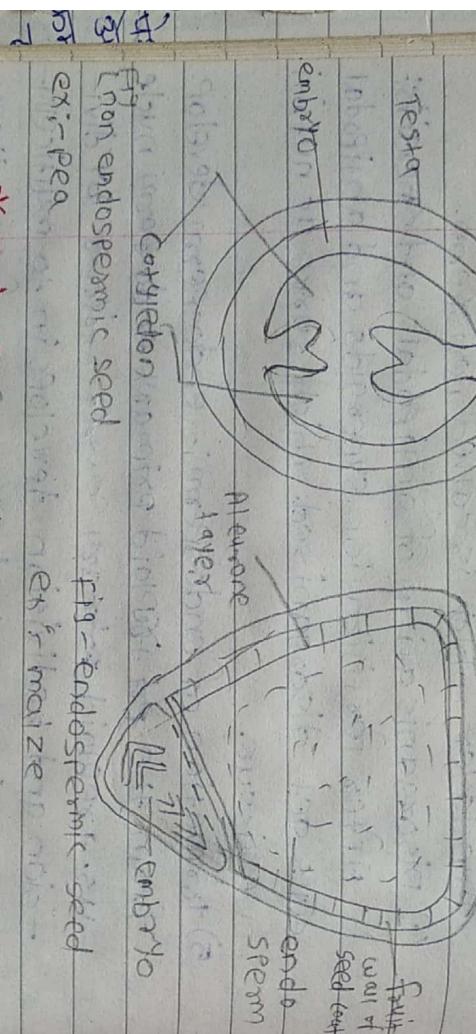
④ Disorganisation of nucellus: In most of the seed nucellus is completely absorbed by parthenocarpic endosperm nucleus to form endosperm. Hence, in mature seed nucellus is absent however in some seeds it remains in the form of thin layer which is called perisperm.

⑤ Disorganisation of synergids and antipodal cells: After fertilization synergids and antipodal cells get disorganised. which serve as nutritive tissue.

- ⑥ Formation of endosperm: Endosperm develops from the triploid primary endosperm nucleus. Triploid primary endosperm nucleus by division and redivision develops into multicellular endosperm. Endosperm grows faster than embryo, and it surround around the embryo. It is a nutritive tissue and provide food material to developing embryo.

- In some plants endosperm is completely utilised for development of embryo so there is absence of endosperm in mature seed. The seeds without endosperm is called non endospermic or exalbiminous seed. exalbiminous seeds are commonly present in dicotyledon plant like sunflower, Grown

In some plant endosperm is partially utilised for development of embryo. So the endosperm is present in the mature seed, even after development of embryo. Thus the seeds with endosperm are called endospermic or Alby. - Monocotyledon seeds: it is the common feature of monocotyledon plants. ex: Jowar, Bara, etc.



or

~~fig-endospermic seed~~

~~or~~ ex: Pea, ~~or~~ maize

* **Endosperm:** Endosperm is the most common nut-

ritive tissue for developing embryos in Angiosper-

ms. The endosperm is the product of fertilization and is usually triploid. After double fertilization the egg is called zygote and the fusion product of polaris and second male gamet is called tri-

partite endosperm nucleus (3PN). The seeds with

endosperm are called endospermous seeds.

are cereals, coconut etc. Endosperm form the edible part of cereals and coconut and

it is source of commercial castor oil in castor.

* Development of endosperm:

The primary endosperm nucleus is normally located directly below egg cell and undergoes division immediately after its formation. During triple fusion only the sperm nucleus fuses with polar nuclei while the male cytoplasm does not take part in this process. The membrane of primary endosperm nucleus is formed by both the secondary nucleus and male nucleus.

After fertilization several changes occur in the centrale cell which indicate the increased metabolic activity and organization of protein synthesis machinery for differentiation of primary endosperm cell. Depending upon its mode of development there are three types of development of endosperm.

① Nuclear type ② cellular type ③ Heteroblastic type.

① Nuclear type - About 161 families of angiosperm show nuclear type of development of endosperm. In this type of development of endosperm the division of primary endosperm nucleus (PEN) and a few subsequent nuclear divisions are not accom-

panied by wall formation. This results in a condition where central cell of embryo sac has formed a few to several thousand nuclei freely suspended in its sap. This condition of endosperm

may persist until it is consumed by the developing embryo or it may become cellular at a later stage.

During cellular development the wall formation is mostly centripetal i.e. from peripheral to towards center. The degree of cellularization varies mostly the endosperm becomes completely cellular but in phasidose cellularization occurs only around the embryo. In cotolalaria the wall formation is present towards upper region of embryo sac while chalazal region remains free nuclei and is often elongates and act like an haestorium.

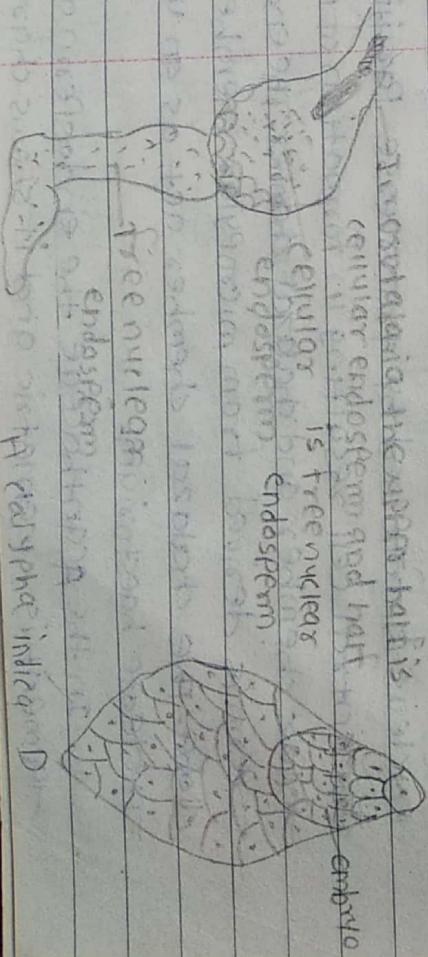
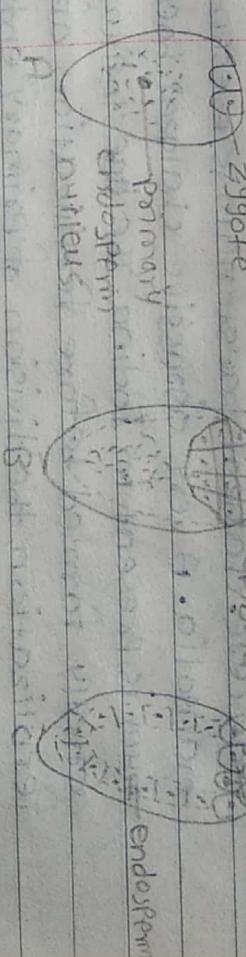
The endosperm haestorium have been reported in several plants of endosperm haestorium

cucurbitaceae, Fabaceae, The chalazal endosperm haestorium remains free nuclei throughout in Grevillea. The largest endosperm haestorium is reported in *Echinocystis lobata* of family Cucurbitaceae which measures up to 16 mm in length.

In lomatia besides the main chalazal haestorium numerous single celled finger shaped projections are present all over the endosperm which increase absorbing surface of endosperm. Both micropylar and chalazal endosperm haestoria have reported in *Scleria*

folliosa, a member of Cyperaceae.

Development of endosperm in coconut is very specific. The primary endosperm nucleus undergoes a number of free nuclear divisions. When fruit is about 50mm long the embryo sac get filled with a clear fluid in which float numerous nuclei of various sizes. At a later stage the secondary cells each inclosing a variable number of nuclei. Gradually these cells ~~are~~ ^{and} free nuclei start settling at periphery of cavity and layers of cellular endosperm are formed. In mature coconuts the liquid endosperm becomes milk and it does not contain free nuclei or cells.



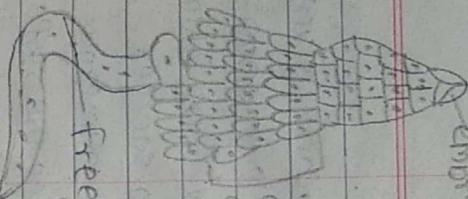


Fig- Free nuclear haestoria at the chalazal end of cellular endosperm

(cellular Exclusives endosperm):- The cellular endosperm is characterized by the absence of free nuclear stage. Haestorium nucleus and a few subsequent nuclear divisions are followed by wall formation.

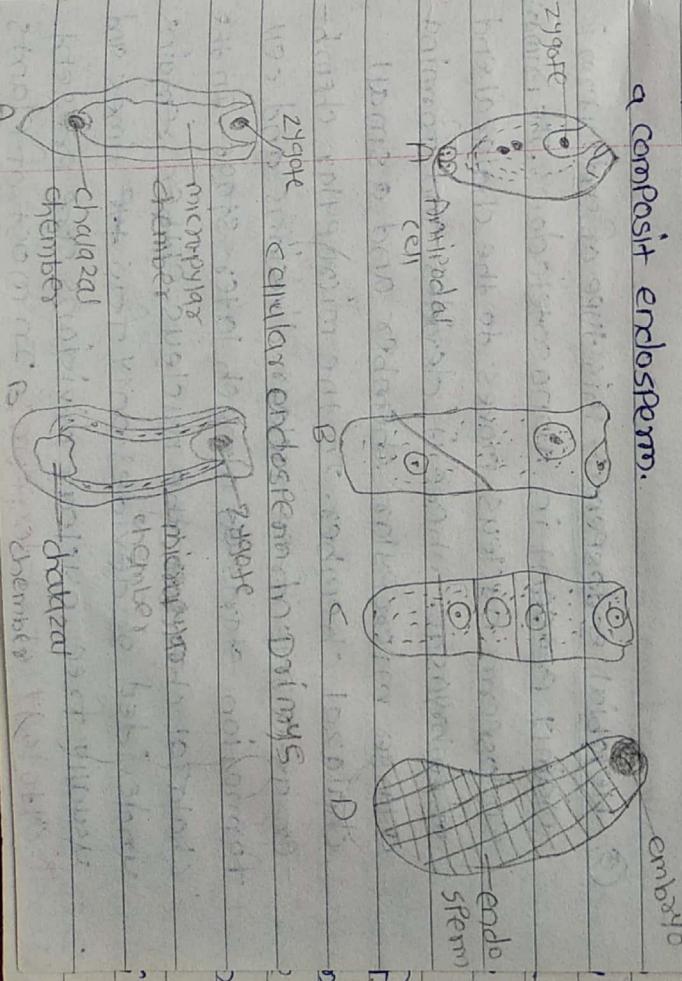
The occurrence of haestoria is a common feature of this type of endosperm. The haestoria may be micropylar or chalazal. Rega- ly both types of haestoria are present in the same plant. micropylar haestoria are present in Hydrocere. chalazal haestorium is present in mangolia. A very aggressive chalazal haesto- rium is present in Tidina. The haestorium is actually formed before fertilization after fertilization, the division of primary endosperm nucleus is followed by transverse partitioning of central cell resulting in formation of micro-polar chamber and chalazal chamber. The endo- sperm is derived from micropylar chamber alone. The chalazal chamber act as an uni- nucleate haestorium.

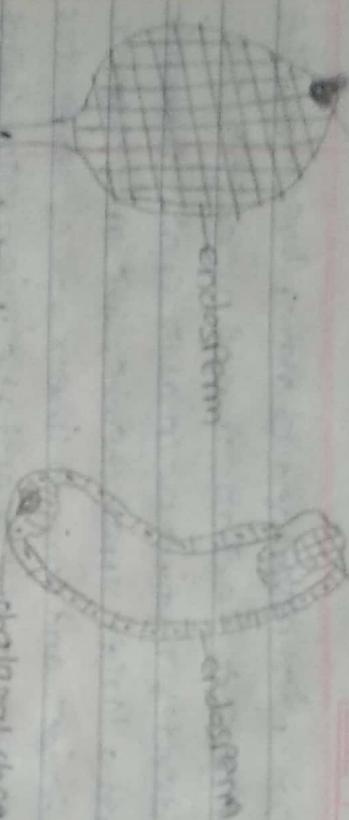
In the Acanthaceae the endosperm deve- lopment is acmetric and it shows chara-

Characteristic micropylar and chalazal haestoria.

PEN moves to the chalazal end of embryo sac and divides forming a smaller chalazal chamber and a larger upper chamber. The upper chamber of again divides and form a linear row of three cells. The chalazal chamber and the micropylar chamber develop into haestoria and central cell forms the endosperm proper. The development of endo- osperm in Loranthaceae is unique. There is no -

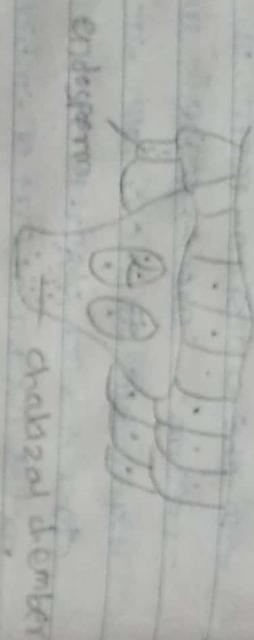
ovule, all the embryo sacs in an ovary lie close to each other. After fertilization, the PEN moves the basal part of embryo sac where it dev- ides. During their development, the endosperms of all the embryo sacs in an ovary fuse to form a composit endosperm.





chalazal
region

cellular endosperm
in magnolia



Chalazal endosperm development in

A. thaliana

The endosperm tissue is well known for a high

degree of ~~poly~~^{polyploid}ization of its cells during deve-

lopment. Erberich in 1965 studied endosperm cytology in many flowering plants. The ploidy of nucleus of endosperm haestomium in the *Artemisia sp.* is up to 384 in the highest ploidy has been reported in *Artemisia sp.* i.e. 24576 n.

The methods of polypliodization of endosperm are some of the methods of polypliodization of endosperm cells the occurrence of various mitotic irregularities such as chromosome bridges, latero-

-e chromosome, spontaneous breakage of chromosomes and fragmentation of nuclei is quite common in the endosperm tissue. size of nuclei and the number of nuclei.

③ Chalazal endosperm: This type of endosperm is mainly present in monocotyledons. The primary endosperm nucleus moves to the chalazal end of embryo sac where it divides and forming a large micropylar chamber and a small chalazal chamber. In the micropylar chamber as a rule free nuclear divisions and cell formation starts at a much later stage. In the chalazal chamber the nucleus either remains undivided or divides only few times and usually free nuclear divisions are present.

Cytology of endosperm: In most of plants

the endosperm is triploid ($3n$) because it is derived from fusion product of three haploid nuclei i.e. one from male gametophyte and two from the female gametophyte. The number of nuclei contributed by the male gametophyte in the formation of the endosperm is constant throughout the angiosperms, the number of nuclei contributed by female gametophyte varies with the type of embryo sac. e.g. In *senecio* it is just one and endosperm is diploid, whereas in *peperomia* it is eight and endosperm is triploid.

④ Apical endosperm: This type of endosperm is mainly present in *Asplenium*. The primary endosperm nucleus moves to the apical end of embryo sac where it divides and forming a large apical chamber and a small basal chamber. The endosperm tissue is well known for a high degree of ~~poly~~^{polyploid}ization of its cells during development. Erberich in 1965 studied endosperm cytology in many flowering plants. The ploidy of nucleus of endosperm haestomium in the *Artemisia sp.* is up to 384 in the highest ploidy has been reported in *Artemisia sp.* i.e. 24576 n.

The methods of polypliodization of endosperm cells the occurrence of various mitotic irregularities such as chromosome bridges, latero-

by a transverse wall so as to form octant of these the lower floor are main meant for gives rise to the stem tip and cotyledons and upper floor to the hypocotylleons all the egg cells devide periclinally. that out -er derivatives or cells which are newly formed develop into dermatogen, while inner ones undergo further division to give rise to periblom and peri plom initials.

or

mean while the upper cells of the four-celled embryo devide to form a row of 6 to 10 suspensor cells of which the uppermost cell becomes sole-silien and vesicular and act as haemastoma. the lowest cell functions as hypophysis. Although at first the cells are similar in shape to the other cells of suspensor. it soon become somewhat rounded at the lower end and devides transversely to form two daughter cells each of which undergo two divisions by walls. which are oriented at right angle to one another of the resulting egg cell. The lower part form initials of root cortex and upper part give rise to root cap and root epidermis at the same time further divisions

takes place in embryo proper especially at two points in lower tier. which meant to form the cotyledons. At this stage embryo appear more or less chordate in longitudinal section. the hypocotyle as well as cotyledons soon elongates in size. During further development the ovule become curve like a horse shoe and growing cotyledons also takes shape.

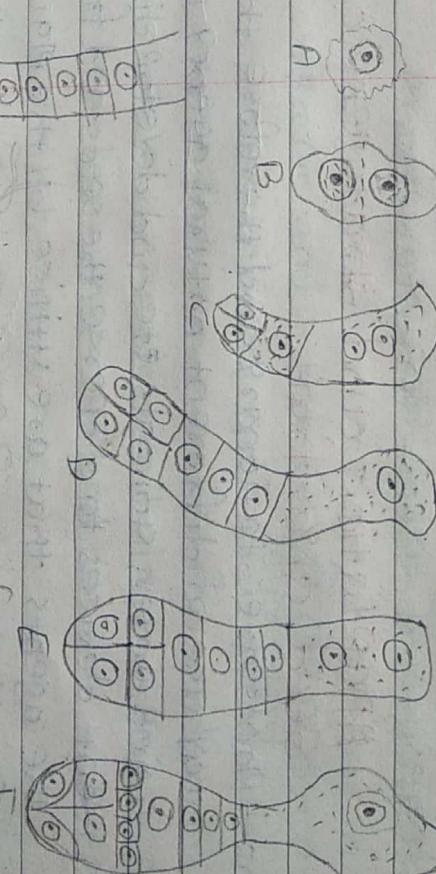


Fig - Development of embryo in cypella blassafastans

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