communication was not easy (as it is now) in those days and his work could not be widely publicised. Secondly, his concept of **genes** (or **factors**, in Mendel's words) as stable and discrete units that controlled the expression of traits and, of the pair of alleles which did not 'blend' with each other, was not accepted by his contemporaries as an explanation for the apparently continuous variation seen in nature. Thirdly, Mendel's approach of using mathematics to explain biological phenomena was totally new and unacceptable to many of the biologists of his time. Finally, though Mendel's work suggested that factors (genes) were discrete units, he could not provide any physical proof for the existence of factors or say what they were made of.

In 1900, three Scientists (de Vries, Correns and von Tschermak) independently rediscovered Mendel's results on the inheritance of characters. Also, by this time due to advancements in microscopy that were taking place, scientists were able to carefully observe cell division. This led to the discovery of structures in the nucleus that appeared to double and divide just before each cell division. These were called **chromosomes** (*colored bodies*, as they were visualised by staining). By 1902, the chromosome movement during meiosis had been worked out. Walter Sutton and Theodore Boveri noted that the behaviour of chromosomes was parallel to the behaviour of genes and used chromosome movement (Figure 5.8) to explain Mendel's laws (Table 5.3). Recall that you have studied the behaviour of chromosomes during mitosis (equational division) and during meiosis (reduction division). The important things to remember are that chromosomes as well as genes occur in pairs. The two alleles of a gene pair are located on homologous sites on homologous chromosomes.



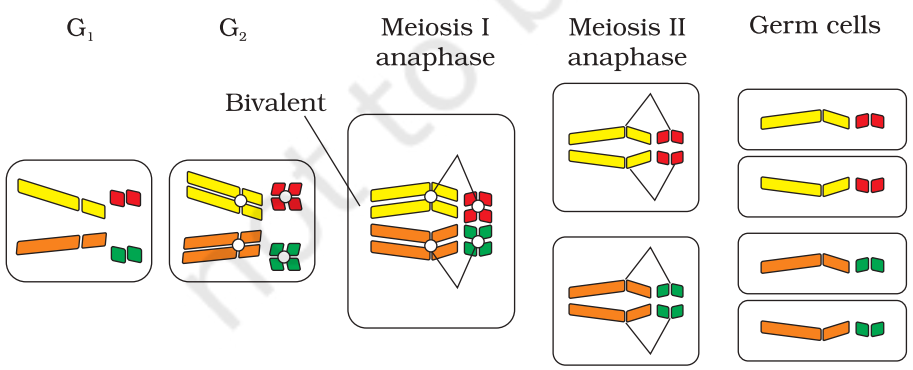


**Figure 5.8** Meiosis and germ cell formation in a cell with four chromosomes. Can you see how chromosomes segregate when germ cells are formed?

**Table 5.3: A Comparison between the Behaviour of Chromosomes and Genes**

| A | B |
|---|---|
| *Occur in pairs* | *Occur in pairs* |
| *Segregate at the time of gamete formation such that only one of each pair is transmitted to a gamete* | *Segregate at gamete formation and only one of each pair is transmitted to a gamete* |
| *Independent pairs segregate independently of each other* | *One pair segregates independently of another pair* |
| *Can you tell which of these columns A or B represent the chromosome and which represents the gene? How did you decide?* | |

During Anaphase of meiosis I, the two chromosome pairs can align at the metaphase plate independently of each other (Figure 5.9). To understand this, compare the chromosomes of four different colour in the left and right columns. In the left column (Possibility I) orange and green is segregating together. But in the right hand column (Possibility II) the orange chromosome is segregating with the red chromosomes.

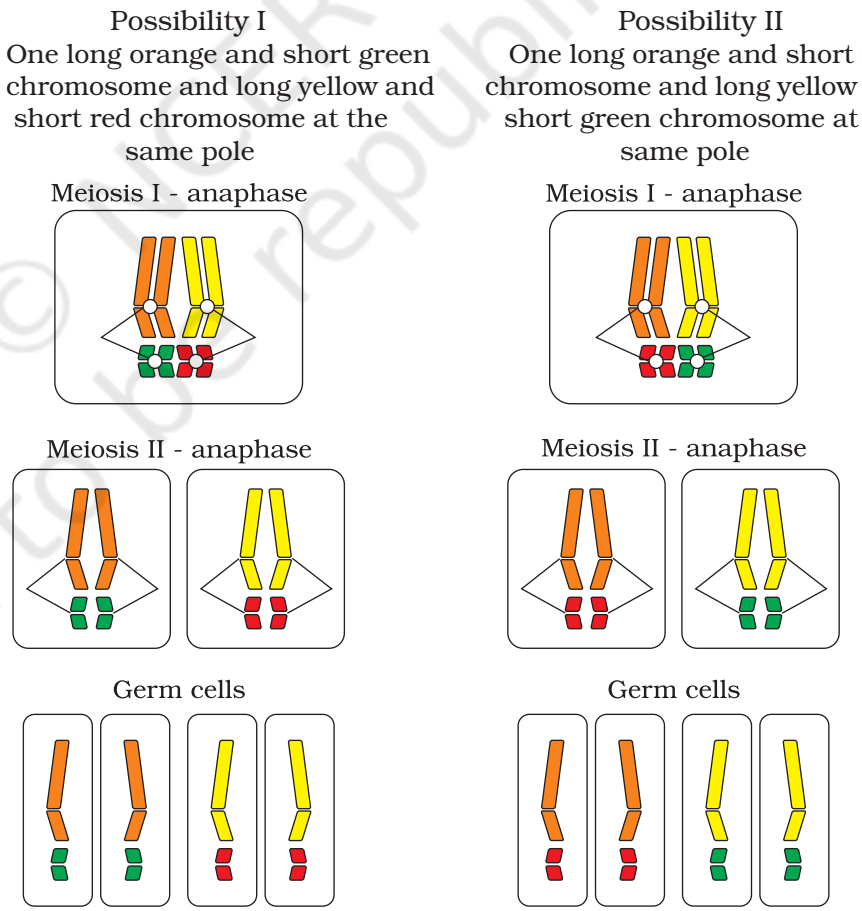


**Figure 5.9** Independent assortment of chromosomes

Sutton and Boveri argued that the pairing and separation of a pair of chromosomes would lead to the segregation of a pair of factors they carried. Sutton united the knowledge of chromosomal segregation with Mendelian principles and called it the **chromosomal theory of inheritance**.

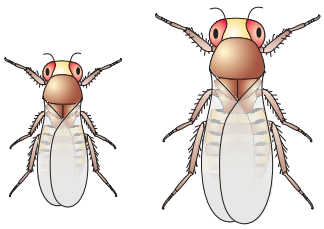


**Figure 5.10** *Drosophila melanogaster* (a) Male (b) Female

Following this synthesis of ideas, experimental verification of the chromosomal theory of inheritance by Thomas Hunt Morgan and his colleagues, led to discovering the basis for the variation that sexual reproduction produced. Morgan worked with the tiny fruit flies, ***Drosophila melanogaster*** (Figure 5.10), which were found very suitable for such studies. They could be grown on simple synthetic medium in the laboratory. They complete their life cycle in about two weeks, and a single mating could produce a large number of progeny flies. Also, there was a clear differentiation of the sexes – the male and female flies are easily distinguishable. Also, it has many types of hereditary variations that can be seen with low power microscopes.

### 5.3.3 Linkage and Recombination

Morgan carried out several dihybrid crosses in *Drosophila* to study genes that were sex-linked. The crosses were similar to the dihybrid crosses carried out by Mendel in peas. For example Morgan hybridised yellow-bodied, white-eyed females to brown-bodied, red-eyed males and intercrossed their $F_1$ progeny. He observed that the two genes did not segregate independently of each other and the $F_2$ ratio deviated very significantly from the 9:3:3:1 ratio (expected when the two genes are independent).

Morgan and his group knew that the genes were located on the X chromosome (Section 5.4) and saw quickly that when the two genes in a dihybrid cross were situated on the same chromosome, the proportion of parental gene combinations were much higher than the non-parental type. Morgan attributed this due to the physical association or linkage of the two genes and coined the term **linkage** to describe this physical association of genes on a chromosome and the term **recombination** to describe the generation of non-parental gene combinations (Figure 5.11). Morgan and his group also found that even when genes were grouped on the same chromosome, some genes were very tightly linked (showed very low recombination) (Figure 5.11, Cross A) while others were loosely linked (showed higher recombination) (Figure 5.11, Cross B). For example he found that the genes white and yellow were very tightly linked and showed only 1.3 per cent recombination while white and miniature wing showed 37.2 per cent recombination. His student Alfred Sturtevant used the frequency of recombination between gene pairs on the same chromosome as a measure of the distance between genes and 'mapped' their position on the chromosome. Today genetic maps

are extensively used as a starting point in the sequencing of whole genomes as was done in the case of the Human Genome Sequencing Project, described later.

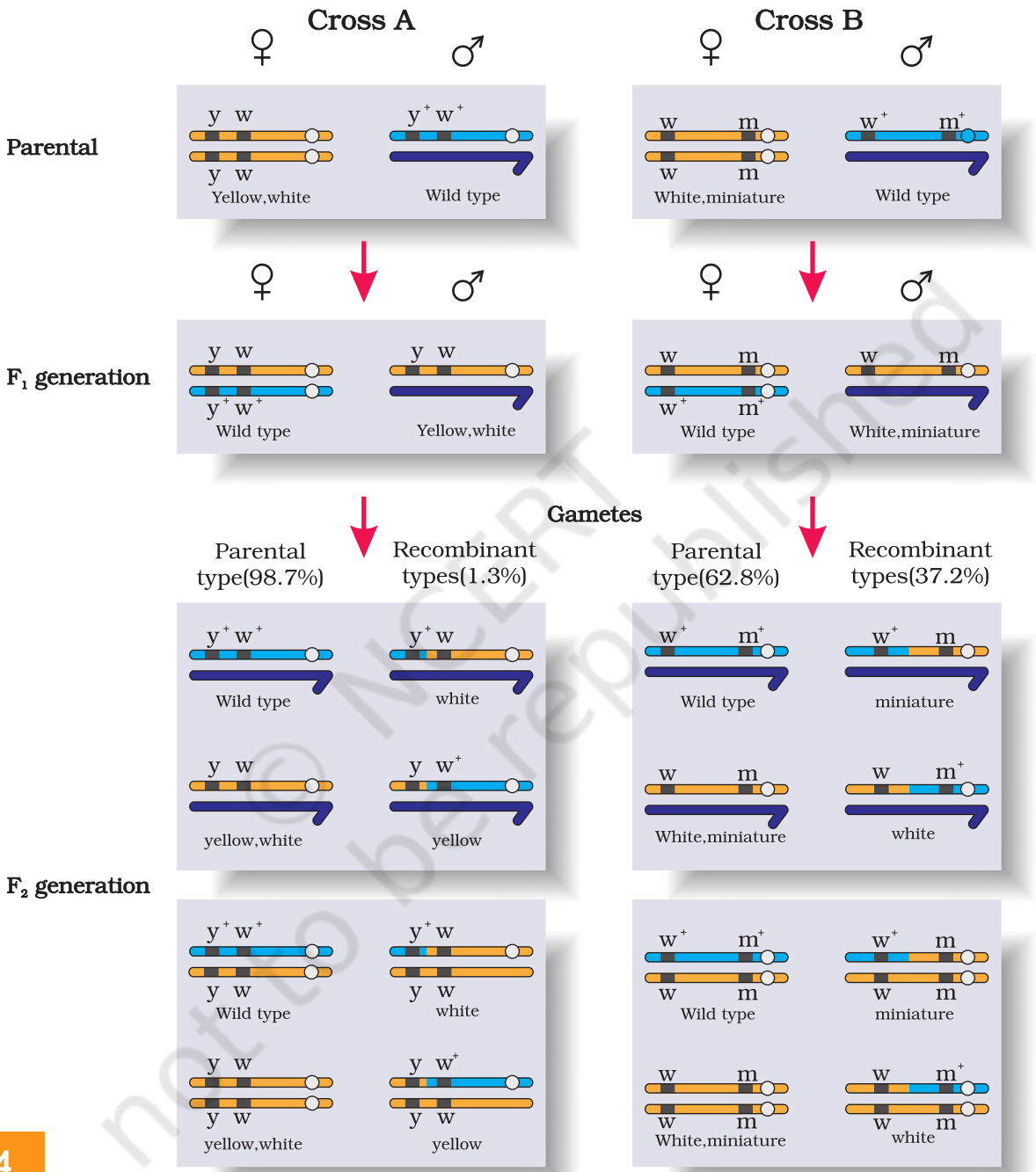


**Figure 5.11** Linkage: Results of two dihybrid crosses conducted by Morgan. Cross A shows crossing between gene y and w; Cross B shows crossing between genes w and m. Here dominant wild type alleles are represented with (+) sign in superscript
Note: The strength of linkage between y and w is higher than w and m.

## 5.4 Polygenic Inheritance

Mendel's studies mainly described those traits that have distinct alternate forms such as flower colour which are either purple or white. But if you look around you will find that there are many traits which are not so distinct in their occurrence and are spread across a gradient. For example, in humans we don't just have tall or short people as two distinct alternatives but a whole range of possible heights. Such traits are generally controlled by three or more genes and are thus called as polygenic traits. Besides the involvement of multiple genes polygenic inheritance also takes into account the influence of environment. Human skin colour is another classic example for this. In a polygenic trait the phenotype reflects the contribution of each allele, i.e., the effect of each allele is additive. To understand this better let us assume that three genes A, B, C control skin colour in human with the dominant forms A, B and C responsible for dark skin colour and the recessive forms a, b and c for light skin colour. The genotype with all the dominant alleles (AABBCC) will have the darkest skin colour and that with all the recessive alleles (aabbcc) will have the lightest skin colour. As expected the genotype with three dominant alleles and three recessive alleles will have an intermediate skin colour. In this manner the number of each type of alleles in the genotype would determine the darkness or lightness of the skin in an individual.

## 5.5 Pleiotropy

We have so far seen the effect of a gene on a single phenotype or trait. There are however instances where a single gene can exhibit multiple phenotypic expression. Such a gene is called a pleiotropic gene. The underlying mechanism of pleiotropy in most cases is the effect of a gene on metabolic pathways which contribute towards different phenotypes. An example of this is the disease phenylketonuria, which occurs in humans. The disease is caused by mutation in the gene that codes for the enzyme phenyl alanine hydroxylase (single gene mutation). This manifests itself through phenotypic expression characterised by mental retardation and a reduction in hair and skin pigmentation.

## 5.6 Sex Determination

The mechanism of sex determination has always been a puzzle before the geneticists. The initial clue about the genetic/chromosomal mechanism of sex determination can be traced back to some of the experiments carried out in insects. In fact, the cytological observations made in a number of insects led to the development of the concept of genetic/chromosomal basis of sex-determination. Henking (1891) could trace a specific nuclear structure all through spermatogenesis in a few insects, and it was also observed by him that 50 per cent of the sperm received this structure after spermatogenesis, whereas the other 50 per cent sperm did not receive it. Henking gave a name to this structure as the **X body** but he could not explain its significance. Further investigations by other scientists led to the conclusion that the 'X body' of Henking was in fact a chromosome

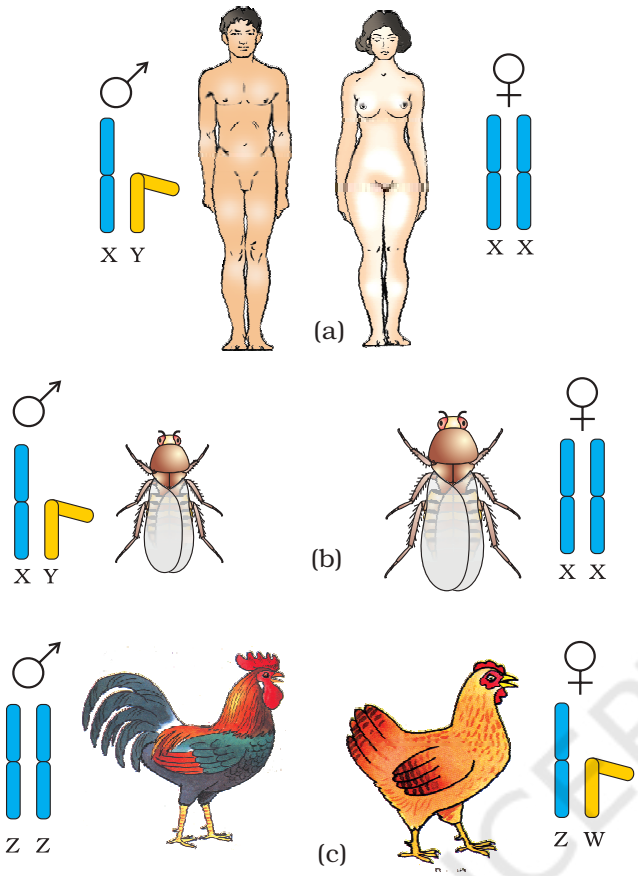


**Figure 5.12** Determination of sex by chromosomal differences: (a,b) Both in humans and in *Drosophila*, the female has a pair of XX chromosomes (homogametic) and the male XY (heterogametic) composition; (c) In many birds, female has a pair of dissimilar chromosomes ZW and male two similar ZZ chromosomes

and that is why it was given the name X-chromosome. It was also observed that in a large number of insects the mechanism of sex determination is of the XO type, i.e., all eggs bear an additional X-chromosome besides the other chromosomes (autosomes). On the other hand, some of the sperms bear the X-chromosome whereas some do not. Eggs fertilised by sperm having an X-chromosome become females and, those fertilised by sperms that do not have an X-chromosome become males. *Do you think the number of chromosomes in the male and female are equal?* Due to the involvement of the X-chromosome in the determination of sex, it was designated to be the **sex chromosome**, and the rest of the chromosomes were named as **autosomes**.Grasshopper is an example of XO type of sex determination in which the males have only one X-chromosome besides the autosomes, whereas females have a pair of X-chromosomes.

These observations led to the investigation of a number of species to understand the mechanism of sex determination. In a number of other insects and mammals including man, XY type of sex determination is seen where both male and female have same number of chromosomes. Among the males an X-chromosome is present but its counter part is distinctly smaller and called the Y-chromosome. Females, however, have a pair of X-chromosomes. Both males and females bear same number of autosomes. Hence, the males have autosomes plus XY, while female have autosomes plus XX. In human beings and in *Drosophila* the males have one X and one Y chromosome, whereas females have a pair of X-chromosomes besides autosomes (Figure 5.12 a, b).

In the above description you have studied about two types of sex determining mechanisms, i.e., XO type and XY type. But in both cases males produce two different types of gametes, (a) either with or without X-chromosome or (b) some gametes with X-chromosome and some with Y-chromosome. Such types of sex determination mechanism is designated to be the example of **male heterogamety**. In some other organisms, e.g., birds, a different mechanism of sex determination is observed (Figure 5.12 c). In this case the total number of chromosome is same in both males and females. But two different types of gametes in terms of the sex

chromosomes, are produced by females, i.e., **female heterogamety**. In order to have a distinction with the mechanism of sex determination described earlier, the two different sex chromosomes of a female bird has been designated to be the Z and W chromosomes. In these organisms the females have one Z and one W chromosome, whereas males have a pair of Z-chromosomes besides the autosomes.

### 5.6.1 Sex Determination in Humans

It has already been mentioned that the sex determining mechanism in case of humans is XY type. Out of 23 pairs of chromosomes present, 22 pairs are exactly same in both males and females; these are the autosomes. A pair of X-chromosomes are present in the female, whereas the presence of an X and Y chromosome are determinant of the male characteristic. During spermatogenesis among males, two types of gametes are produced. 50 per cent of the total sperm produced carry the X-chromosome and the rest 50 per cent has Y-chromosome besides the autosomes. Females, however, produce only one type of ovum with an X-chromosome. There is an equal probability of fertilisation of the ovum with the sperm carrying either X or Y chromosome. In case the ovum fertilises with a sperm carrying X-chromosome the zygote develops into a female (XX) and the fertilisation of ovum with Y-chromosome carrying sperm results into a male offspring. Thus, it is evident that it is the genetic makeup of the sperm that determines the sex of the child. It is also evident that in each pregnancy there is always 50 per cent probability of either a male or a female child. It is unfortunate that in our society women are blamed for giving birth to female children and have been ostracised and ill-treated because of this false notion.

### 5.6.2 Sex Determination in Honey Bee

The sex determination in honey bee is based on the number of sets of chromosomes an individual receives. An offspring formed from the union of a sperm and an egg develops as a female (queen or worker), and an unfertilised egg develops as a male (drone) by means of parthenogenesis. This means that the males have half the number of chromosomes than that of a female. The females are diploid having 32 chromosomes and males are haploid, i.e., having 16 chromosomes. This is called as haplodiploid sex-determination system and has special characteristic features such as the males produce sperms by mitosis (Figure 5.13), they do not have father and thus cannot have sons, but have a grandfather and can have grandsons.

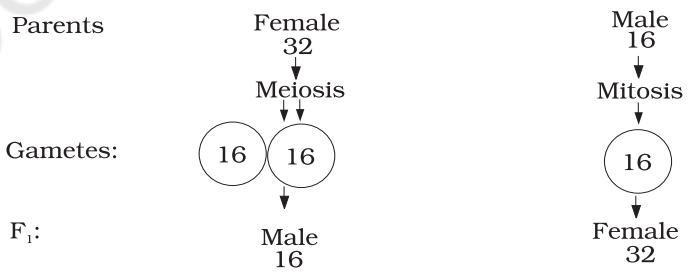


**Figure 5.13** Sex determination in honey bee

How is the sex-determination mechanism different in the birds? *Is the sperm or the egg responsible for the sex of the chicks?*