Bicoid [1]

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The discovery of the first morphogen not only bolstered the study of embryonic pattern formation [8], but it also vindicated a concept more than one hundred years old. In 1901 Thomas Hunt Morgan [9] hypothesized that a sort of stuff acted at different concentration levels to organize regeneration in hydroids [10], planarians, and annelids. In 1952 Alan Turing defined Morgan's stuff as a morphogen. Turing's paper "The Chemical Basis of Morphogenesis [11]" defined a morphogen as a molecule in the embryo that diffuses between cells and, at certain concentrations variably controls embryonic development. Eighteen years later, in 1970, Francis Crick [12] authored "Diffusion in Embryogenesis," the first detailed model of how a chemical morphogen could establish a gradient over a small field of cells.

Despite the work of Crick and Turing, an actual morphogenic molecule had not been identified, hence the concept of morphogens [13] was entirely theoretical. However, in 1978 when Nüsslein-Volhard began collaborating with Eric Wieschaus [14] at the European Molecular Biology Laboratory [15] (EMBL) in Heidelberg, Germany, they sought to investigate pattern formation [8] in Drosophila [4] and to analyze genes [16] that were potential morphogens [13]. Pattern formation occurs when homogenous embryonic cells receive genetic instructions, and form distinctive physiological segments, establishing the body plan of the embryo. Nüsslein-Volhard and Wieschaus systematically examined mutant fly embryos to elucidate the genetic mechanisms at work during the formation of the body plan. At the EMBL the two performed a series of genetic screens [17] to detect mutations in Drosophila [4] embryos that affected segmentation [18], which is the formation of distinct body segments during embryogenesis [19]. On the basis of this work Nüsslein-Volhard and Wieschaus won the 1995 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine [20], which they shared with fellow Drosophila [4] geneticist Edward Lewis for his independent work in homeotic mutations.


Frohnhöfer also showed that the Drosophila [4] with mutated bicoid [6] genes [16], organisms that wouldn't normally develop heads or thoraxes, could be completely rescued by an injection of cytoplasm containing the bicoid [6] protein. The efficacy of these cytoplasmic rescue [24] experiments depended on where in the embryo the cytoplasm was injected. Bicoid protein injected into the anterior pole of embryos most effectively rescued a normal phenotype, with decreasing efficacy as the injections moved towards the posterior pole. This result indicated that the anterior pole of the embryo must be the source of bicoid [6] protein, and as the molecule diffuses across the embryo different concentrations of bicoid [6] controlled the development of head and thoracic regions. This evidence implied that bicoid [6] protein not only helped establish the A-P axis, but also that high concentrations of the bicoid [6] protein helped develop flies' head and thoracic segments.

To investigate these implications, Nüsslein-Volhard’s group showed that during the production of female gametes (oocytes), bicoid [6] messenger RNA (mRNA) localizes in the anterior pole, and extends posteriorly to twenty percent of the embryo's length. Nüsslein-Volhard, with the help of graduate student Wolfgang Driever [25], then used anti-bicoid [6] antibody staining to demonstrate that the bicoid [6] protein, for which the mRNA codes, forms a gradient just after a fly lays her egg [21]. The gradient is established in the anterior pole by the production of bicoid [6] protein from bicoid [6] mRNA, and extends greater than sixty percent of the embryo. As bicoid [6] protein moves away from the anterior pole, the concentration of bicoid [6] drops sharply. Furthermore, the gradient persists well after gastrulation [26] and translates directly into the pattern of the embryo along the A-P axis.

Despite the evidence that bicoid [6] was a morphogen based on the concentration gradient and the phenotypic abnormalities observed, Nüsslein-Volhard’s group did not know the molecular mechanism by which bicoid [6] controlled segmentation [18].
However, it was known that the coding region of the bicoid[6] gene contained a homeobox[27], a conserved 180 base pair sequence that is found in genes[16] that control pattern formation[8] in a wide range of organisms. Genes that contain the homeobox[27] sequence are called Hox genes[28], and control body plan development by regulating the transcription of downstream genes[16]. The presence of the homeobox[27] indicated that bicoid[6] influences the transcription of many genes[16], and that these genes[16] are able to interpret various concentrations of the morphogen. However, the molecular mechanisms by which bicoid[6] controlled these genes[16] was not understood.

Nüsslein-Volhard and Driever published their findings in two papers in 1988. The product of the bicoid[6] gene is widely accepted as the first discovered morphogen, and between 1988 and 2003 more than 700 papers were published on morphogens[13]. However, there remains some controversy around the subject. When Nüsslein-Volhard and Driever published their findings, they did not propose a model for how embryonic cells interpret the bicoid[6] gradient or how different concentrations produce different responses. Since then, scientists have proposed several models for how genes[16] interpret and respond to varying concentrations of bicoid[6], however no one model has accounted for all of the bicoid[6] gene’s developmental effects.

Sources


Associated Links

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Bicoid is the protein product of a maternal-effect gene unique to flies of the genus Drosophila. In 1988 Christiane Nüsslein-Volhard identified bicoid as the first known morphogen. A morphogen is a molecule that determines the fate and phenotype of a group of cells through a concentration gradient across that developing region. The bicoid gradient, which extends across the anterior-posterior axis of Drosophila embryos, organizes the head and thorax.

Subject
