The genetics of tasting in mice VII. Glycine revisited, and the chromosomal location of Sac and Soa

I. E. LUSH*1, N. HORNIGOLD, P. KING AND J. P. STOYE2

Department of Genetics and Biometry, University College London, 4 Stephenson Way, London NW1 2HE

(Received 29 June 1994 and in revised form 20 March 1995)

Summary

Previous work which appeared to show that some strains of mice taste glycine solutions as bitter has been found to be in error. The bitterness came from copper glycinate which formed in the brass drinking spouts. Taste testing with copper glycinate shows that the genetical data identifying the gene *Glb* are still valid. The close linkage of *Glb* and *Rua* has been confirmed. Most strains of mice prefer glycine solution to water, presumably because the glycine tastes sweet. The degree of preference for glycine is correlated with the degree of preference for other sweet substances such as saccharin or acesulfame. The gene *dpa* appears not to be involved.

The sweetness tasting gene Sac has been mapped to chromosome 4 at 8.1 ± 3.4 cM distal to Nppa (formerly Pnd). The bitterness tasting gene Soa is very closely linked to Prp on chromosome 6 (no recombinants among 67 backcross progeny). It is suggested that the sweetness and bitterness tasting genes have descended from a common ancestral tasting gene which existed before the tetraploidization of the genome which took place in early vertebrate evolution.

1. Introduction

In a previous paper in this series (Lush & Holland, 1988) it was stated that some strains of mice taste glycine solutions as bitter. The apparatus which was used in these experiments delivered the solutions to the mice through drinking spouts which were made of brass. Although the external surface of each spout was chromium-plated the inner surface was not, and it was subsequently found that the glycine in the solution was able to react with the copper component of the brass, thus producing a solution of copper glycinate which is pale blue. As soon as this was noticed the brass spouts were replaced by glass spouts, with the result that the blue colour was no longer present. Also, after the change to glass spouts, none of the mouse strains tasted glycine as bitter. This seemed to show that the bitterness was due to copper glycinate and not to glycine.

Nevertheless, the published results which had been obtained using the brass spouts were remarkably consistent and were used to show the segregation of a gene, *Glb*, which determines the ability to taste the bitterness of the 'glycine' solution. If the mice were in fact tasting the bitterness of copper glycinate, as seems

* Corresponding author.

to be the case, the genetic data may still be valid even though they refer to copper glycinate and not to glycine. We have therefore prepared copper glycinate and used it to test the same strains of mice to see if the existence of the *Glb* gene can be confirmed. The results are presented in this paper.

Glycine tastes sweet to several strains of mice (Lush & Holland, 1988) but in previous experiments it was impossible to study the sweetness without the risk of interference from the bitterness which was unwittingly introduced as described above. We have now retested the same strains of mice with glycine and confirmed that there is indeed variation between strains in their ability to taste the sweetness of glycine. Probably more than one gene influences this variation.

The gene Sac has a major effect on the ability of a mouse to taste sweet substances (Lush, 1989). The strain distribution pattern (SDP) of Sac alleles among 21 BXD RI strains is very similar to the SDPs of two genes mapped near the telomeric end of chromosome 4. The SDPs of all three genes are shown in Table 1 where it can be seen that the SDP of Sac differs from those of the other loci by two RI strains in each case. This suggests that Sac lies between the other two genes (as shown in Table 1) although the order of D4Smh6b and Tel4q relative to the centromere is uncertain. We report here the result of a three-point

² National Institute for Medical Research, The Ridgeway, Mill Hill, London NW7 1AA

Table 1. A comparison of the D4Smh6b	, Sac and Tel4q <i>distribution</i>	patterns in the BXD RI strains
--------------------------------------	-------------------------------------	--------------------------------

Gene	BXD RI strains																				
	1	2	5	6	8	9	11	12	15	16	18	19	22	24	25	27	28	29	30	31	32
D4Smh6b‡	D	D	В	В	D	B X	В	D	В	D	D	n.t.	D	В	В	B X	D	В	D	В	D
Sac†	D	D	В	В	D	D	В	D	B X	D	D	В	D X	В	В	D	D	В	D	В	D
Tel4q*	D	D	В	В	D	D	В	D	D	D	n.t.	В	В	В	В	D	D	В	D	В	D

- * Data from Elliott & Yen (1991).
- † Data from Lush (1989) with the addition of BXD9.
- ‡ Data from Hearne et al. (1991).
- n.t. Not tested.

cross designed to confirm this chromosomal position of Sac.

The gene Soa determines the ability of a mouse to taste the bitterness of a number of acetylated sugars, of which sucrose octaacetate (SOA) is one. Soa also affects the ability to taste the bitterness of strychnine (Lush, 1982, 1991). Other bitterness-tasting genes i.e. Cyx, Qui, Rua and Glb form a cluster on chromosome 6. This cluster includes Prp which codes for a salivary proline-rich protein (Lush & Holland, 1988; Azen et al. 1989). Soa has recently been mapped to the same cluster of genes on the basis that no recombination has been found between Soa and Prp, or between Prp and Rua, in a number of RI and congenic strains (Capeless et al. 1990, 1992; Azen, 1991). In this paper we confirm the close linkage of Soa and Prp.

We believe that our results throw light on homologies between mouse chromosome 4 and 6.

2. Materials and Methods

The strains of mice are those which were used previously (Lush & Holland, 1988), and they are listed in Table 2. In addition, a strain containing the gene crooked tail, Cd, was used. Cd, is a dominant gene which produces a crooked tail, but has the disadvantage of incomplete penetrance in heterozygotes (Morgan, 1954). It is effectively lethal in homozygotes, so the Cd strain is maintained by breeding from heterozygotes. There is no evidence that Cd/+ mice are less viable, before or after birth, than are their normal littermates.

The taste testing procedure has been described in detail elsewhere (Lush, 1984). Very briefly, the mice could drink from two spouts. One of these supplied the tastant solution and the other supplied the control solution which was usually distilled water. The spouts and their contents were changed around in the course of the 4-day experiment in such a way as to compensate for any preference the mice might have for drinking from a particular spout or a particular spout position. Each day the tastant consumed by the mouse, or mice, in a cage was expressed as a percentage of the total

fluid which they drank that day, and the final result was the mean of the results over the 4 days.

Glycine, raffinose undecaacetate (RUA) and saccharin (sodium salt) came from Sigma and were of the highest purity available. Acesulfame was a gift from Hoechst U.K. Ltd. Glycine and saccharin were dissolved in distilled water. RUA was dissolved in a small quantity of ethanol before being diluted with distilled water (Lush, 1986). The control solution contained the same amount of ethanol.

Copper (II) glycinate, Cu(NH,CH,COO), was prepared as follows. One mole of NaOH pellets was added to an aqueous solution of CuCl₂. 2H₂O (0.5 mole). A voluminous blue precipitate formed and then rapidly darkened, converting to black CuO which was filtered off. The CuO precipitate was washed with distilled water and left to dry. The yield was almost quantitative. The CuO was suspended in distilled water and 1.0 mole of glycine was added with stirring. A thick precipitate of copper glycinate was thrown down. This was redissolved by the addition of distilled water to give a final concentration of 25 mm. This stock solution was stored at 4 °C. On storage, a slight precipitate may form but this redissolves if the solution is gently heated to 40-50 °C. The stock solution was diluted with distilled water to give the concentration required for the experiment. The copper salt of L-valine was made by the same method.

For DNA preparation, tissue samples were incubated at 55 °C overnight in 0.5 ml TNES containing proteinase K. 1 ml of TNES contains: $50 \mu l$, 1.0 M-Tris, pH 7.5; $200 \mu l$, 2.0 M-NaCl; $200 \mu l$, 0.5 M-EDTA; $50 \mu l$, 10% SDS; $500 \mu l$, H_2O). The NaCl concentration was adjusted to 1.5 M by adding an equal volume of 2.6 M-NaCl. The tubes were shaken vigorously for 1.5 s and centrifuged at $12000 \times g$ for 5 min. Supernatants were transferred to clean tubes and mixed with an equal volume of ethanol. DNA was spooled out and dissolved in Tris-EDTA buffer, pH 7.5.

The PCR primers have been described for *Lck* (Todd *et al.* 1991), *Nppa* (Wiseman *et al.* 1994), *D4Smh6b* (Hearne *et al.* 1991) and *Prp* (*D6Prp*) (Love *et al.* 1990). Radiolabelled products for *D4Smh6b* and

Tasting in mice 169

Table 2. Consumption of copper glycinate, copper valinate and glycine by mice from twenty-three strains. Each cage contained up to 4 mice

	Tastant									
	Coppe (1·0 m	er glycinate M)	Coppe (0·5 m	er valinate м)	Glycine (200 mм)					
Strain	Cages tested	Mean tastant consumed (%)	Cages tested	Mean tastant consumed (%)	Cages tested	Mean tastant consumed (%)				
TO	6	65	4	57	4	79				
129/Sv	6	60	8	45	6	55				
STŚ	4	32			4	88				
129/Rr	4	49			4	80				
C57BL/6By	4	39			4	81				
C57L	4	48			4	92				
C57BL/6Ty	4	33	4	20	4	93				
IS/Cam	4	35			4	81				
NMRI	4	39	4	42	4	66				
DBA/1	4	12			4	76				
Schneider	4	13	2	14	4	83				
CE	4	3			4	68				
A/J	4	4			4	76				
CBA	4	3			10	70				
AKR	4	9			4	77				
SEA	4	3			3	85				
SWR	4	4			4	81				
A2G	4	3			5	89				
ST/bJ	4	2			n.t.	n.t.				
C3H/He	4	2			4	85				
DBA/2Ty	4	14	2	12	4	85				
BALB/cBy	4	11	2	10	6	71				
BALB/cAm	•	6		•	8	40				

n.t. = Not tested.

D6Prp were resolved on acrylamide gels as described by Dietrich et al. (1992). Reaction products for Lck and Nppa were digested with Hae III and Pvu II respectively, and resolved on 2% agarose gels.

Correlations were calculated as the non-parametric Spearman rank correlation coefficient r_s (Siegel, 1956).

3. Results

(i) Copper glycinate and copper valinate

Twenty-three strains were tested with $1.0 \, \mathrm{mm}$ copper glycinate as tastant. The results are shown in Table 2. When these data were plotted against the previously-published results (from the same strains but using glycine with brass drinking-spouts) it was found that there is an excellent correlation ($r_s = 0.77$; P < 0.01) between the two sets of data (see Fig. 1). Nine strains were 'non-tasters' in both sets of data and the other 14 strains were 'tasters' in both sets of data. This is strong evidence that copper glycinate is the substance which is being tasted in both situations.

In the previous paper (Lush & Holland, 1988) a backcross was made to demonstrate segregation of the 'taster' and 'non-taster' alleles of the Glb gene; denoted by Glb^a and Glb^b respectively. This cross,

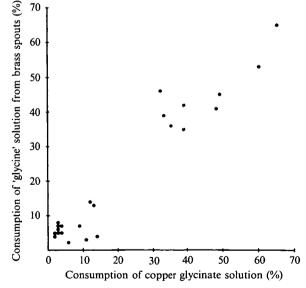


Fig. 1. Consumption of copper glycinate (1 mm) and 'glycine' (10 mm) by 23 strains of mice. The copper glycinate data are taken from Table 1. The 'glycine' data come from Lush & Holland (1988) when brass drinking-spouts were used.

which was $129/\text{Sv} \times \text{F}_1$ (BALB/cBy $\times 129/\text{Sv}$), was therefore repeated, and 34 progeny were tested with 1.0 mM copper glycinate. The progeny were also tested

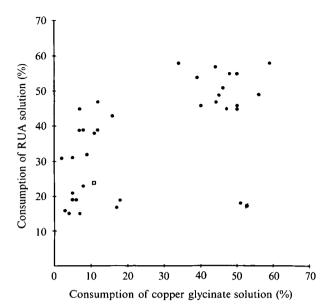


Fig. 2. Consumption of copper glycinate (1 mm) and RUA (0.4 mm) by the 34 progeny of the backcross $129/\text{Sv} \times F_1$ (BALB/cBy $\times 129/\text{Sv}$). \square , mean of three F_1 mice. \blacksquare , the 34 progeny. The mouse indicated by the arrow had a recombinant phenotype.

with raffinose undecaacetate (RUA) to check the linkage of Glb with Rua. This linkage was proposed on the basis of the very similar strain distribution patterns of Glb and Rua in the BXD RI strains (Lush & Holland, 1988). The results of the present cross are shown in Fig. 2. The F_1 mice were tasters of both copper glycinate and also RUA thus indicating dominance by the taster alleles of both genes. With respect to copper glycinate, the progeny of the backcross clearly separated in 19 tasters (mean = 8.0%) and 15 non-tasters (mean = 46.8%). This is not significantly different from the expected 1:1 ratio. The same classification was obtained when the same mice were tested with glycine using brass drinking-spouts (unpublished data).

With respect to RUA the segregation is not so clear. Evidence for the existence of the Rua gene was based on its segregation among RI strains. Overlapping between the phenotypes of homozygotes and heterozygotes made it impossible to confirm this by means of a conventional backcross (Lush, 1986). The same problem is evident in the RUA data shown in Fig. 2. If Glb and Rua are linked, and if the taster alleles of both genes showed complete dominance, then the non-recombinant progeny of this backcross would be either tasters of both tastants (like the F₁ parent) or non-tasters of both tastants. The recombinant progeny would be tasters of one tastant and non-tasters of the other. Clear evidence of linkage does occur among the copper glycinate non-tasters, where there are 14 nonrecombinant progeny and one (arrowed) recombinant. This recombinant mouse was tested three times with RUA and three times with copper glycinate and its phenotype is therefore reasonably certain. The data from these 15 backcross mice gives a genetic distance

between Glb and Rua of 6.7 ± 6.4 cM, which agrees with the estimate of 0.91 cM (95% confidence limits 0.02-6.05) based on the RI strain data (Lush & Holland, 1988). In view of this evidence of linkage, most of the 19 backcross progeny which are copper glycinate tasters are probably also genotypically RUA tasters (Rua^a/Rua^b) although the lack of complete dominance of the taster allele (Rua^a) means that it is impossible to identify any recombinant individuals among them. Nevertheless, the data as a whole do support the existence of tight linkage between Glb and Rua.

Seven strains were tested with $0.5 \, \text{mM}$ copper valinate to see if the taste depends on the nature of the amino acid. The data, given in Table 2, show that there is a good correlation ($r_s = 0.96$; P < 0.01) between the results with copper glycinate and those with copper valinate. This indicates that the presence of a short aliphatic side-chain does not affect the nature of the taste.

(ii) Glycine

After some initial experiments, a concentration of 200 mm was chosen to test all the strains with glycine. The results are shown in Table 2. Nearly all the strains prefer glycine to water, presumably because the glycine tastes sweet to them. There is some variation between strains in the degree of preference for glycine, in fact 129/Sv and BALB/cAm show no significant preference. In previous work with sweet substances (Lush, 1989) it was found that there is a very high correlation between strains in their degree of preference for four other sweet substances; sucrose, dulcin, acesulfame and saccharin. This was interpreted to mean that the strain variation affects a sweetness receptor which detects all four sweet substances. It was therefore of interest to see if the sweetness of glycine is genetically determined in the same way. When the glycine data in Table 1 are plotted against the results obtained with saccharin from the same strains (data from Lush, 1989) the results shown in Fig. 3 are obtained. There is a correlation ($r_s = 0.67$; P < 0.01) between the two sets of data, and this seems to indicate a common genetic causation. However, the correlation is not as high as those previously obtained when comparing the other sweet tastants (Lush, 1989).

To clarify this further, a cross was made between the two strains at the extremes of the glycine range, C57BL/6Ty (93%) and BALB/cAm (40%). Four F₁ mice had a mean result of 80% when tested with glycine, and they were therefore backcrossed to BALB/cAm. The backcross produced 32 progeny and these were tested with glycine and with accsulfame. The latter was chosen in preference to saccharin because it was previously found to be more effective than saccharin in demonstrating the segregation of the Sac gene (Lush, 1989). The data obtained with the

Tasting in mice 171

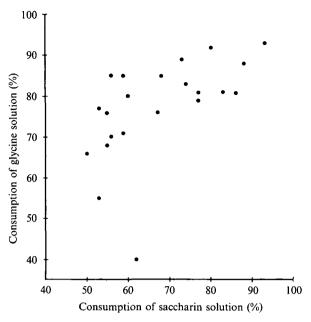


Fig. 3. Consumption of saccharin (1.6 mm) and glycine (200 mm) by 22 strains of mice. Data from Table 1.

32 backcross progeny are plotted in Fig. 4. Every mouse was tested twice with each tastant. With neither of the tastants is it possible to say that there is evidence of segregation of a single gene. But there is clearly a close correlation between the results with the two tastants ($r_s = 0.84$; P < 0.01) which supports the hypothesis that the gene or genes which determine the ability to taste accsulfame also have a major effect on the ability to taste glycine.

(iii) Linkage of Sac

Strain C57BL/6 mice are tasters when tested with the synthetic sweetener acesulfame. DBA/2 mice are nontasters. The tasting allele, Sac^b , is dominant. The backcross used by Lush (1989) to show segregation of Sac was $(C57BL/6 \times DBA/2) \times DBA/2$, and its reciprocal (female is written first). Tissues from 27 of the progeny of this original backcross had been stored at -70 °C and were available as sources of DNA. In order to increase the numbers for the linkage test, a further 35 progeny were produced from a cross $DBA/2 \times (C57BL/6 \times DBA/2)$. These were also classified as tasters or non-tasters with acesulfame. Of the total 62 progeny, 31 were tasters and 31 were nontasters. The marker genes on chromosome 4 which were also segregating in this cross were Lck (59 cM from the centromere); Nppa (76 cM from the centromere) and D4Smh6b (80 cM from centromere). The map positions are taken from Abbott et al. (1993).

Seven progeny were recombinants between Lck and Nppa. Five progeny were recombinants between Nppa and Sac. There were no double recombinants. The gene order and the genetic distances are therefore: $centromere ... Lck - 11.3 \pm 4.0 - Nppa - 8.1 \pm 3.4 -$

Sac Sac. Eighteen of the progeny came from F_1 mothers and 44 from F_1 fathers. The Nppa - Sac distance was 5.5 cM in the former and 9.1 cM in the latter. The difference is not significant. The five recombinants between Nppa and Sac were typed for D4Smh6b. Four of these animals had recombined between Nppa and D4Smh6b and one between D4Smh6b and Sac, thus confirming the gene order Nppa - D4Smh6b - Sac. We could not type Tel4q in our cross and it remains probable that Tel4q is distal to Sac, as shown in the map of Abbott et al. (1993).

(iv) Linkage of Soa

The two genes chosen to test for linkage with Soa were Cd and Prp. These two genes are located 56 cM and 58 cM from the centromere on chromosome 6, respectively (Lyon & Kirby, 1994). Schneider mice have the Soa^a allele which confers the ability to taste SOA and is dominant; A/J and the Cd strain have the non-taster allele.

A cross was made between a Schneider female and a Cd/+ male. Two F_1 females with crooked tails were then crossed with strain A/J males. All of their 67 progeny were tested for Soa and Prp and none showed recombination, so clearly these two genes are very closely linked. The classification of the progeny with respect to SOA tasting and tail phenotype is shown in Table 3. The ratio of 41 tasters to 26 non-tasters does not differ significantly from the expected 1:1 ratio ($\chi^2 = 3.36$, P > 0.05). The ratio of 54 normal tail to 13 crooked tail does differ significantly from 1:1 ($\chi^2 = 25.1$, P < 0.005) but this can be explained in terms of the incomplete penetrance of the Cd allele.

Bailey (1950) derived two formulae which are useful in this situation. Formula (i) below gives a maximum likelihood estimate of λ which is the proportion of Cd/+ mice which have normal tails, in other words the degree of non-penetrance of Cd. Using letters to represent the four classes of progeny as shown in Table 3, this formula is:

$$\lambda = \frac{(cd - ab)}{(a+c)(b+d)} \tag{i}$$

and the value of λ from our data is 51.4%. Formula (ii) gives a maximum likelihood estimate of the recombination fraction p

$$p = \frac{b(a+c)}{b(a+c) + a(b+d)}$$
 (ii)

and with our data P = 0.05, that is a genetic distance between Cd and Soa of 5.0 cM.

4. Discussion

The data from the strain survey (Fig. 1) and from the backcross (Fig. 2) show that the gene *Glb* determines the ability to taste the bitterness of copper glycinate. This probably extends to the copper salts of a number of other amino acids. It seems unnecessary to change

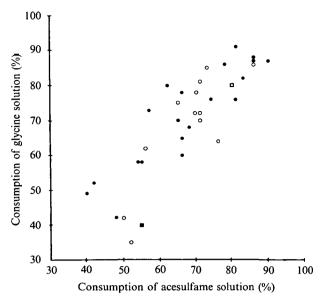


Fig. 4. Consumption of acesulfame (5 mm) and glycine (200 mm) by 32 progeny of the backcross BALB/cAm \times F₁ (C57BL/6Ty \times BALB/cAm). \square , mean of 4 F₁ mice. \blacksquare , BALB/cAm. The empty circles represent 12 non-albino progeny which were homozygous for the brown coat colour gene b.

the gene symbol *Glb*, which can now refer to *glycinate* bitterness rather than *glycine* bitterness. The close linkage of *Glb* and *Rua* has been confirmed.

In a previous paper (Lush, 1989) it was shown that most of the difference between C57BL/6 and DBA/2 in their ability to taste sweet substances can be attributed to one gene, Sac. It is not known whether Sac acts on the peripheral sweetness receptor or on some more central site within the brain, but for the sake of brevity we shall assume that it acts on the sweetness receptor. The progeny of the backcross shown in Fig. 4 do not fall into two groups, and so it seems that there must be more than one gene determining the difference between C57BL/6 and BALB/cAm. This need not alter the conclusion that there is only one sweetness receptor in the mouse; it simply means that the structure or function of the sweetness receptor can be affected by more than one gene. A candidate for this role is the gene dpa described by Ninomiya et al. (1991). This gene determines the response of mice to a 0-1 M solution of D-phenylalanine, which is moderately sweet to humans. C57BL/6 mice are tasters and C3H and BALB/c mice are non-tasters. The technique used to classify individual mice involved the intraperitoneal injection of a toxic chemical (LiCl) so as to set up a conditioned aversion to the taste of D-phenylalanine. Ninomiya et al. (1991) mapped dpa to chromosome 4 at about 14.4 cM proximal to b (brown coat colour). The gene dpa must be different from Sac because we have mapped the latter to the other end of chromosome 4, about 8.1 cM distal to Nppa. The b allele is present in the BALB/c strain and the backcross progeny shown in Fig. 4 were therefore segregating for b. Eleven of the progeny were albino, and 12 of the 21 pigmented mice were homozygous bb. If the gene dpa is involved in the variation seen on these progeny with respect to glycine and acesulfame one would expect the homozygous bb mice to be found mainly near the lower end of the distribution because of the close linkage between dpa and b. But in fact the bb mice were uniformly distributed, as can be seen in Fig. 4 where the bb mice are symbolized by open circles. This seems to indicate that there are two independently-acting sweetness genes; Sac which determines a receptor with wide specificity, and dpa which determines a D-phenylalanine receptor. Clearly more work is needed to sort out the relationship between Sac and dpa. Ninomiya et al. (1991) are confident that dpa is expressed peripherally at the level of the cell membrane or receptor. But the fact that their mice were not allowed to choose spontaneously but were experimentally conditioned to reject Dphenylalanine raises the possibility that the difference between their tasters and non-tasters is to some extent due to differences in response (pharmacological or neurological) to the toxic injection of lithium chloride rather than differences in perception of the taste of Dphenylalanine.

Prp and the four bitterness-tasting genes Cyx, Qui, Rua and Glb are known to be closely clustered because they have almost identical SDPs in the BXD and CXB RI strains. The linear order of the tasting genes is probably as given above, but the genetic distances between them are not accurately known (Lush & Holland, 1988). The estimate of 5 cM between Cd and Soa is consistent with Soa being very close to Prp.

No recombination between *Prp* and *Rua* has been detected in RI or congenic strains, and our present

Table 3. Phenotypic classification of 67 backcross progeny demonstrating linkage between Cd and Soa

	Parental		Recombinant			
Tasting phenotype: Tail phenotype: No. of progeny: Symbols used in formulae (i) and (ii):	Taster Normal 40 d	Non-taster Crooked 12 a	Non-taster Normal 14	Taster Crooked 1 b		

Tasting in mice 173

data show no recombination between *Prp* and *Soa*. Therefore, these three genes, *Soa*, *Rua* and *Prp* all map to the same position on chromosome 6 at about 58 cM from the centromere. In view of the fact that SOA and RUA (raffinose undecaacetate) are both acetylated sugars it has been suggested that *Soa* and *Rua* are not separate genes but are merely different alleles of the same gene (Harder *et al.* 1992).

It seems reasonable to suppose that the individual bitterness-tasting genes which make up the cluster on chromosome 6 have evolved from one original bitterness gene by a process of local duplication and differentiation. It is tempting to extend this idea and speculate that the original bitterness gene and the sweetness gene, Sac, also had a common origin. We do not have any sequence data for any of the tasting genes, or their products, so the evidence is at present circumstantial.

It has been argued by Ohno (1970) that the increase in genome size which accompanied the evolution of higher vertebrates from their fish-like ancestors was largely caused by polyploidy. An early tetraploidization event doubled the DNA in the genome, and this was followed by a slow mutational divergence of chromosomes which had originally been homologues. This process of divergence is referred to by Ohno (1970) as diploidization. At the start of the process each gene was present four times in the tetraploid genome, and this redundancy allowed one of each pair of loci either to take on a new function or to become non-functional ('silent') during diploidization. Within a species, two loci which have diverged in this way from a common ancestor are said to be paralogous.

These ideas have been persuasively applied by Lundin (1979, 1993; see Nadeau et al. 1992) who compared gene arrangements in different chromosomes in mouse and man and suggested several examples of paralogies within each species and homologies between the species. In the present case we propose that part of mouse chromosome 4 and part of chromosome 6 have a number of paralogous loci, including the tasting loci. This implies that these two chromosome segments have evolved from a common ancestor chromosome in the manner described above. The number of loci which can be adduced to support this hypothesis has been noted elsewhere (Lush, Hornigold & Stoye, 1993) and the argument will be presented in detail in a later paper.

This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust.

References

Abbott, C. M., Blank, R., Eppig, J. T., Fiedorek, F. T., Frankel, W., Friedman, J. M., Huppi, K. E., Jackson, I., Steel, K., Mock, B. A., Stoye, J. & Wiseman, R. (1993).
Mouse chromosome 4. *Mammalian Genome* 4, S58-S71.
Azen, E. A. (1991). Linkage studies of genes for salivary

proline-rich proteins and bitter taste in mouse and human. In *Chemical Senses Vol. 3 Genetics of Perception and Communication* (ed. C. J. Wysocki and M. R. Kare). New York: Marcel Dekker.

- Azen, E. A., Davisson, M. T., Cherry, M. & Taylor, B. A. (1989). *Prp* (proline-rich protein) genes linked to markers *Es-12* (esterase-12), *Ea-10* (erythrocyte alloantigen) and loci on distal mouse chromosome 6. *Genomics* 5, 415–422.
- Bailey, N. T. J. (1950). The influence of partial manifestation on the detection of linkage. *Heredity* 4, 327–336.
- Capeless, C. B., Whitney, G., Gannon, K. S., Harder, D. B., Azen, E. A., Beamer, W. G. & Taylor, B. A. (1990). The sucrose octaacetate taste gene (*Soa*) is on distal mouse chromosome 6 and is closely linked (or identical) to salivary proline-rich protein genes (*Prp*). *Chemical Senses* 15, 559 (abstract).
- Capeless, C. G., Whitney, G. & Azen, E. A. (1992). Chromosome mapping of *Soa*, a gene influencing gustatory sensitivity to sucrose octaacetate in mice. *Behaviour Genetics* 22, 655–663.
- Dietrich, W., Katz, H., Lincoln, S. E., Shin, H.-S., Friedman, J., Dracopoli, N. C. & Lander, E. S. (1992). A genetic map of the mouse suitable for typing intraspecific crosses. *Genetics* 131, 423–427.
- Harder, D. B., Capeless, C. G., Maggio, J. C., Boughter,
 J. D., Gannon, K. S., Whitney, G. & Azen, E. A. (1992).
 Intermediate sucrose octa-acetate sensitivity suggests a third allele at mouse bitter taste locus Soa and Soa-Rua identity. Chemical Senses 17, 391-401.
- Hearne, C. M., McAleer, M. A., Love, J. M., Aitmann, T. J., Cornall, R. J., Chosh, S., Knight, A. M., Prins, J-B. & Todd, J. A. (1991). Additional microsatellite markers for mouse genome mapping. *Mammalian Genome* 1, 273–282.
- Love, J. M., Knight, A. M., McAleer, M. A. & Todd, J. A. (1990). Towards construction of a high resolution map of the mouse genome using PCR-analyzed microsatellites. *Nucleic Acids Research* 18, 4123–4130.
- Lundin, L.-G. (1979). Evolutionary conservation of large chromosomal segments reflected in mammalian gene maps. *Clinical Genetics* **16**, 72–81.
- Lundin, L.-G. (1993). Evolution of the vertebrate genome as reflected in paralogous chromosomal regions in Man and the house mouse. *Genomics* **16**, 1–19.
- Lush, I. E. (1982). The genetics of tasting in mice II. Strychnine. *Chemical Senses* 7, 93–98.
- Lush, I. E. (1984). The genetics of tasting in mice III. Quinine. Genetical Research 44, 151-160.
- Lush, I. E. (1986). The genetics of tasting in mice IV. The acetates of raffinose, galactose and β -lactose. Genetical Research 47, 117-123.
- Lush, I. E. (1989). The genetics of tasting in mice VI. Saccharin, acesulfame, dulcin and sucrose. Genetical Research 53, 95-99.
- Lush, I. E. (1991). The genetics of bitterness, sweetness and saltiness in strains of mice. In *Chemical Senses Vol. 3*, *Genetics of Perception and Communication* (ed. C. J. Wysocki and M. R. Kare). New York: Marcel Dekker.
- Lush, I. E. & Holland, G. (1988). The genetics of tasting in mice V. Glycine and cycloheximide. Genetical Research 52, 207-212.
- Lush, I. E., Hornigold, N. & Stoye, J. P. (1993). Mouse tasting genes and some speculations about homologies. *Genetical Research* 61, 143.
- Lyon, M. F. & Kirby, M. C. (1993). Mouse chromosome atlas. *Mouse Genome* 91, 40-70.
- Morgan, W. C. (1954). A new crooked tail mutation involving distinctive pleiotropism. *Journal of Genetics* 5, 354–373.
- Nadeau, J. H., Davisson, M. T., Doolittle, D. P., Grant, P.,

Hillyard, A. L., Kosowsky, M. R. & Roderick, T. H. (1992). Comparative map for mice and humans. Mammalian Genome 3, 400-536.

Ninomiya, Y., Sako, N., Katsukawa, II. & Funakoshi, M. (1991). Taste receptor mechanisms influenced by a gene on chromosome 4 in mice. In Chemical Senses Vol. 3. Genetics of Perception and Communication (ed. C. J. Wysocki and M. R. Kare). New York: Marcel Dekker.

Ohno, S. (1970). Evolution by Gene Duplication. London: Allen and Unwin.

Siegel, S. (1956). Nonparametric statistics for the behavioural sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Todd, J. A., Aitman, T. J., Cornall, R. J., Ghosh, S., Hall, J. R. S., Hearne, C. M., Knight, A. M., Love, J. M., McAleer, M. A., Prins, J.-B., Rodrigues, N., Lathrop, M., Pressey, A., DeLarato, N. H., Peterson, L. B. & Wicker, L. S. (1991). Genetic analysis of autoimmune type 1 diabetes mellitus in mice. Nature 351, 542-547.

Wiseman, R. W., Cochran, C., Dietrich, W., Lander, E. & Soderkvist, P. (1994). Allelotyping of butadiene - induced lung and mammary adenocarcinomas of B6C3F1 mice: frequent losses of heterozygosity in regions homologous to human suppressor genes. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, U.S.A. 91, 3759-3763.