NCERT Books

UNIT VIII
BIOLOGY IN HUMAN WELFARE

Chapter 8
Human Health and Disease

Chapter 9
Strategies for Enhancement in Food Production

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Microbes in Human Welfare

Biology is the youngest of the formalised disciplines of natural science. Progress in physics and chemistry proceeded much faster than in Biology. Applications of physics and chemistry in our daily life also have a higher visibility than those of biology. However, twentieth century and certainly twenty-first century has demonstrated the utility of biological knowledge in furthering human welfare, be it in health sector or agriculture. The discovery of antibiotics, and synthetic plant-derived drugs, anaesthetics have changed medical practice on one hand and human health on the other hand. Life expectancy of human beings have dramatically changed over the years. Agricultural practices, food processing and diagnostics have brought socio-cultural changes in human communities. These are briefly described in the following three chapters of this unit.

M.S. SWAMINATHAN
(1925)

Born in August 1925 in Kumbakonam in Tamil Nadu, Monkambu Sambasivan Swaminathan did his graduation and post-graduation in Botany from Madras University. He worked in different capacities in large number of institutions in India and abroad and developed his expertise in genetics and plant breeding.

The School of Cytogenetics and Radiation Research established at the Indian Agricultural Research Institute (IARI) enabled Swaminathan and his team to develop short-duration high-yielding varieties of rice including scented Basmati. He is also known for the development of the concept of crop cafeteria, crop scheduling and genetically improving the yield and quality.

Swaminathan initiated collaboration with Norman Borlaug, which culminated in the 'Green Revolution' through introduction of Mexican varieties of wheat in India. This was highly recognised and appreciated. He is also the initiator of 'Lab-to-Land', food security and several other environmental programmes. He has been honoured with Padma Bhushan and several other prestigious awards, medals and fellowships by institutions of excellence.

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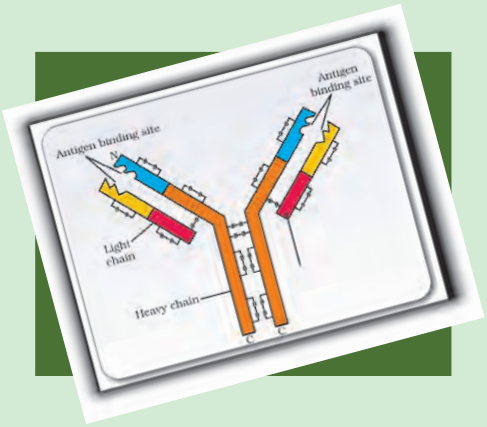

CHAPTER 8

HUMAN HEALTH AND DISEASE

Health, for a long time, was considered as a state of body and mind where there was a balance of certain 'humors'. This is what early Greeks like Hippocrates as well as Indian Ayurveda system of medicine asserted. It was thought that persons with 'blackbile' belonged to hot personality and would have fevers. This idea was arrived at by pure reflective thought. The discovery of blood circulation by William Harvey using experimental method and the demonstration of normal body temperature in persons with blackbile using thermometer disproved the 'good humor' hypothesis of health. In later years, biology stated that mind influences, through neural system and endocrine system, our immune system and that our immune system maintains our health. Hence, mind and mental state can affect our health. Of course, health is affected by –

(i) genetic disorders – deficiencies with which a child is born and deficiencies/defects which the child inherits from parents from birth;

(ii) infections and

(iii) life style including food and water we take, rest and exercise we give to our bodies, habits that we have or lack etc.

The term **health** is very frequently used by everybody. *How do we define it*? Health does not simply mean 'absence of disease' or 'physical fitness'. It could be defined as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. When people are healthy, they are more efficient at work. This increases productivity and brings economic prosperity. Health also increases longevity of people and reduces infant and maternal mortality.

Balanced diet, personal hygiene and regular exercise are very important to maintain good health. Yoga has been practised since time immemorial to achieve physical and mental health. Awareness about diseases and their effect on different bodily functions, vaccination (immunisation) against infectious diseases, proper disposal of wastes, control of vectors and maintenance of hygiene in food and water resources are necessary for achieving good health.

When the functioning of one or more organs or systems of the body is adversely affected, characterised by appearance of various signs and symptoms, we say that we are not healthy, i.e., we have a **disease**. Diseases can be broadly grouped into **infectious** and **non-infectious**. Diseases which are easily transmitted from one person to another, are called **infectious diseases**. Infectious diseases are very common and every one of us suffers from these at sometime or other. Some of the infectious diseases like AIDS are fatal. Among non-infectious diseases, cancer is the major cause of death. Drug and alcohol abuse also affect our health adversely.

8.1 Common Diseases in Humans

A wide range of organisms belonging to bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoans, helminths, etc., could cause diseases in man. Such disease-causing organisms are called **pathogens**. Most parasites are therefore pathogens as they cause harm to the host by living in (or on) them. The pathogens can enter our body by various means, multiply and interfere with normal vital activities, resulting in morphological and functional damage. Pathogens have to adapt to life within the environment of the host. For example, the pathogens that enter the gut must know a way of surviving in the stomach at low pH and resisting the various digestive enzymes. A few representative members from different groups of pathogenic organisms are discussed here alongwith the diseases caused by them. Preventive and control measures against these diseases in general, are also briefly described.

Salmonella typhi is a pathogenic bacterium which causes **typhoid** fever in human beings. These pathogens generally enter the small intestine through food and water contaminated with them and migrate to other organs through blood. Sustained high fever (39° to 40°C), weakness, stomach pain, constipation, headache and loss of appetite are some of the common symptoms of this disease. Intestinal perforation and death may occur in severe cases. Typhoid fever could be confirmed by

Widal test : A classic case in medicine, that of Mary Mallon nicknamed *Typhoid Mary*, is worth mentioning here. She was a cook by profession and was a typhoid carrier who continued to spread typhoid for several years through the food she prepared.

Bacteria like *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae* are responsible for the disease **pneumonia** in humans which infects the alveoli (air filled sacs) of the lungs. As a result of the infection, the alveoli get filled with fluid leading to severe problems in respiration. The symptoms of pneumonia include fever, chills, cough and headache. In severe cases, the lips and finger nails may turn gray to bluish in colour. A healthy person acquires the infection by inhaling the droplets/aerosols released by an infected person or even by sharing glasses and utensils with an infected person. Dysentery, plague, diphtheria, etc., are some of the other bacterial diseases in man.

Many viruses also cause diseases in human beings. Rhino viruses represent one such group of viruses which cause one of the most infectious human ailments – the **common cold**. They infect the nose and respiratory passage but not the lungs. The common cold is characterised by nasal congestion and discharge, sore throat, hoarseness, cough, headache, tiredness, etc., which usually last for 3-7 days. Droplets resulting from cough or sneezes of an infected person are either inhaled directly or transmitted through contaminated objects such as pens, books, cups, doorknobs, computer keyboard or mouse, etc., and cause infection in a healthy person.

Some of the human diseases are caused by protozoans too. You might have heard about ***malaria***, a disease man has been fighting since many years. *Plasmodium*, a tiny protozoan is responsible for this disease. Different species of *Plasmodium* (*P. vivax*, *P. malaria* and *P. falciparum*) are responsible for different types of malaria. Of these, malignant malaria caused by *Plasmodium falciparum* is the most serious one and can even be fatal.

Let us take a glance at the life cycle of *Plasmodium* (Figure 8.1). *Plasmodium* enters the human body as sporozoites (infectious form) through the bite of infected female *Anopheles* mosquito. The parasites initially multiply within the liver cells and then attack the red blood cells (RBCs) resulting in their rupture. The rupture of RBCs is associated with release of a toxic substance, haemozoin, which is responsible for the chill and high fever recurring every three to four days. When a female *Anopheles* mosquito bites an infected person, these parasites enter the mosquito's body and undergo further development. The parasites multiply within them to form sporozoites that are stored in their salivary glands. When these mosquitoes bite a human, the sporozoites are introduced into his/her body, thereby initiating the events mentioned above. It is interesting to note that the malarial parasite requires two hosts – human and mosquitoes – to complete its life cycle (Figure 8.1); the female *Anopheles* mosquito is the vector (transmitting agent) too.

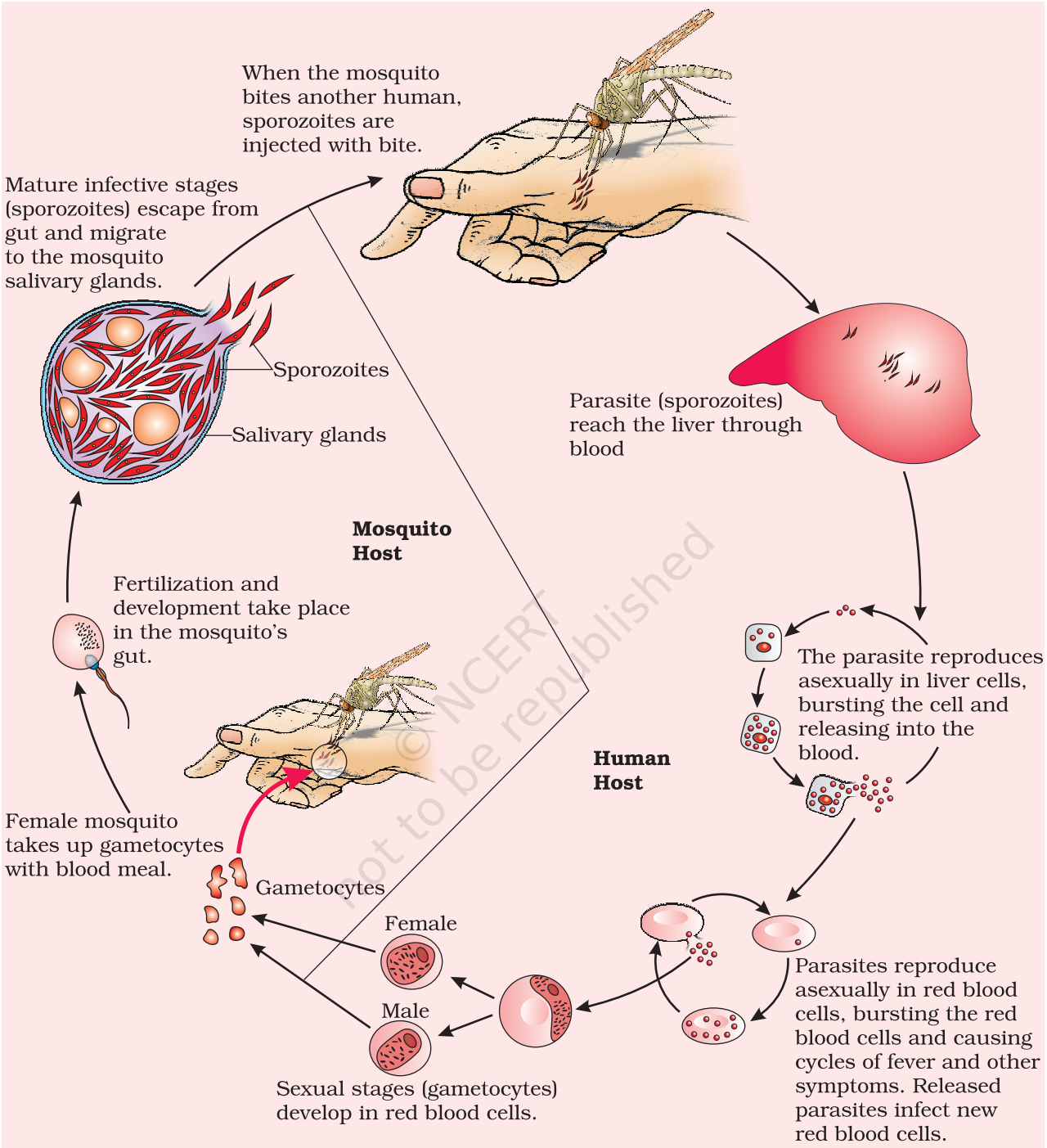

Figure 8.1 Stages in the life cycle of *Plasmodium*

Entamoeba histolytica is a protozoan parasite in the large intestine of human which causes **amoebiasis (amoebic dysentery)**. Symptoms of this disease include constipation, abdominal pain and cramps, stools with excess mucous and blood clots. Houseflies act as mechanical carriers and serve to transmit the parasite from faeces of infected person to food

and food products, thereby contaminating them. Drinking water and food contaminated by the faecal matter are the main source of infection.

Ascaris, the common round worm and *Wuchereria*, the filarial worm, are some of the helminths which are known to be pathogenic to man. *Ascaris*, an intestinal parasite causes **ascariasis**. Symptoms of these disease include internal bleeding, muscular pain, fever, anemia and blockage of the intestinal passage. The eggs of the parasite are excreted along with the faeces of infected persons which contaminate soil, water, plants, etc. A healthy person acquires this infection through contaminated water, vegetables, fruits, etc.

Wuchereria (W. bancrofti and *W. malayi),* the filarial worms cause a slowly developing chronic inflammation of the organs in which they live for many years, usually the lymphatic vessels of the lower limbs and the disease is called **elephantiasis** or **filariasis** (Figure 8.2). The genital organs are also often affected, resulting in gross deformities. The pathogens are transmitted to a healthy person through the bite by the female mosquito vectors.

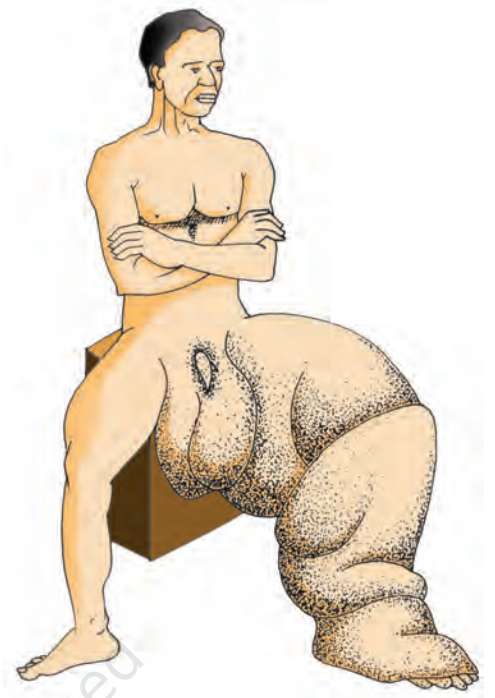

Figure 8.2 Diagram showing inflammation in one of the lower limbs due to elephantiasis

Many fungi belonging to the genera *Microsporum*, *Trichophyton* and *Epidermophyton* are responsible for **ringworms** which is one of the most common infectious diseases in man. Appearance of dry, scaly lesions on various parts of the body such as skin, nails and scalp (Figure 8.3) are the main symptoms of the disease. These lesions are accompanied by intense itching. Heat and moisture help these fungi to grow, which makes them thrive in skin folds such as those in the groin or between the toes. Ringworms are generally acquired from soil or by using towels, clothes or even the comb of infected individuals.

Figure 8.3 Diagram showing ringworm affected area of the skin

Maintenance of personal and public hygiene is very important for prevention and control of many infectious diseases. Measures for personal hygiene include keeping the body clean; consumption of clean drinking water, food, vegetables, fruits, etc. Public hygiene includes proper disposal of waste and excreta; periodic cleaning and disinfection of water reservoirs, pools, cesspools and tanks and observing standard practices of hygiene in public catering. These measures are particularly essential where the infectious agents are transmitted through food and water such as typhoid, amoebiasis and ascariasis. In cases of air-borne diseases such as pneumonia and common cold, in addition to the above measures, close

contact with the infected persons or their belongings should be avoided. For diseases such as malaria and filariasis that are transmitted through insect vectors, the most important measure is to control or eliminate the vectors and their breeding places. This can be achieved by avoiding stagnation of water in and around residential areas, regular cleaning of household coolers, use of mosquito nets, introducing fishes like *Gambusia* in ponds that feed on mosquito larvae, spraying of insecticides in ditches, drainage areas and swamps, etc. In addition, doors and windows should be provided with wire mesh to prevent the entry of mosquitoes. Such precautions have become more important especially in the light of recent widespread incidences of the vector-borne (*Aedes* mosquitoes) diseases like dengue and chikungunya in many parts of India.

The advancements made in biological science have armed us to effectively deal with many infectious diseases. The use of vaccines and immunisation programmes have enabled us to completely eradicate a deadly disease like smallpox. A large number of other infectious diseases like polio, diphtheria, pneumonia and tetanus have been controlled to a large extent by the use of vaccines. Biotechnology (about which you will read more in Chapter 12) is at the verge of making available newer and safer vaccines. Discovery of antibiotics and various other drugs has also enabled us to effectively treat infectious diseases.

8.2 Immunity

Everyday we are exposed to large number of infectious agents. However, only a few of these exposures result in disease. Why? This is due to the fact that the body is able to defend itself from most of these foreign agents. This overall ability of the host to fight the disease-causing organisms, conferred by the immune system is called **immunity**.

Immunity is of two types: (i) Innate immunity and (ii) Acquired immunity.

8.2.1 Innate Immunity

Innate immunity is non-specific type of defence, that is present at the time of birth. This is accomplished by providing different types of barriers to the entry of the foreign agents into our body. Innate immunity consist of four types of barriers. These are —

(i) ***Physical barriers*** **:** Skin on our body is the main barrier which prevents entry of the micro-organisms. Mucus coating of the epithelium lining the respiratory, gastrointestinal and urogenital tracts also help in trapping microbes entering our body.

(ii) ***Physiological barriers*** **:** Acid in the stomach, saliva in the mouth, tears from eyes–all prevent microbial growth.

(iii) ***Cellular barriers*** **:** Certain types of leukocytes (WBC) of our body like polymorpho-nuclear leukocytes (PMNL-neutrophils) and

monocytes and natural killer (type of lymphocytes) in the blood as well as macrophages in tissues can phagocytose and destroy microbes.

(iv) ***Cytokine barriers*** **:** Virus-infected cells secrete proteins called **interferons** which protect non-infected cells from further viral infection.

8.2.2 Acquired Immunity

Acquired immunity, on the other hand is pathogen specific. It is characterised by memory. This means when our body encounters a pathogen for the first time it produces a response called **primary response** which is of low intensity. Subsequent encounter with the same pathogen elicits a highly intensified secondary or anamnestic response. This is ascribed to the fact that our body appears to have memory of the first encounter.

The primary and secondary immune responses are carried out with the help of two special types of lymphocytes present in our blood, i.e., **B**-lymphocytes and **T**-lymphocytes.

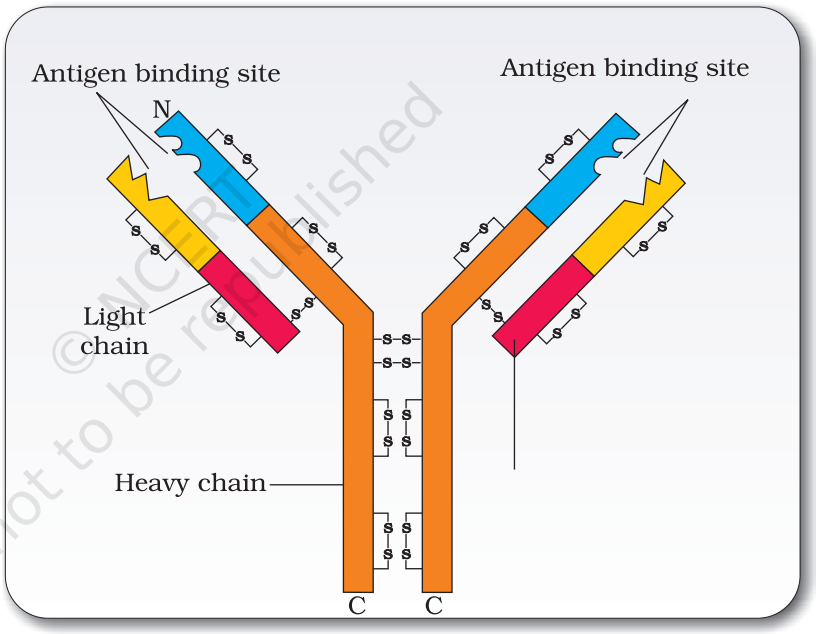

Figure 8.4 Structure of an antibody molecule

The B-lymphocytes produce an army of proteins in response to pathogens into our blood to fight with them. These proteins are called antibodies. The T-cells themselves do not secrete antibodies but help B cells to produce them. Each antibody molecule has four peptide chains, two small called **light chains** and two longer called **heavy chains**. Hence, an antibody is represented as H_2L_2. Different types of antibodies are produced in our body. IgA, IgM, IgE, IgG are some of them. A cartoon of an antibody is given in Figure 8.4. Because these antibodies are found in the blood, the response is also called as **humoral immune response**. This is one of the two types of our acquired immune response – antibody mediated. The second type is called cell-mediated immune response or **cell-mediated immunity** (CMI). The T-lymphocytes mediate CMI. Very often, when some human organs like heart, eye, liver, kidney fail to function satisfactorily, transplantation is the only remedy to enable the patient to live a normal life. Then a search begins – to find a suitable donor. *Why is it that the organs cannot be taken from just anybody? What is it that the doctors*

check? Grafts from just any source – an animal, another primate, or any human beings cannot be made since the grafts would be rejected sooner or later. Tissue matching, blood group matching are essential before undertaking any graft/transplant and even after this the patient has to take immuno–suppresants all his/her life. The body is able to differentiate 'self' and 'nonself' and the cell-mediated immune response is responsible for the graft rejection.

8.2.3 Active and Passive Immunity

When a host is exposed to antigens, which may be in the form of living or dead microbes or other proteins, antibodies are produced in the host body. This type of immunity is called **active immunity.** Active immunity is slow and takes time to give its full effective response. Injecting the microbes deliberately during immunisation or infectious organisms gaining access into body during natural infection induce active immunity. When ready-made antibodies are directly given to protect the body against foreign agents, it is called **passive immunity**. *Do you know why mother's milk is considered very essential for the new-born infant*? The yellowish fluid **colostrum** secreted by mother during the initial days of lactation has abundant antibodies (IgA) to protect the infant. The foetus also receives some antibodies from their mother, through the placenta during pregnancy. These are some examples of passive immunity.

8.2.4 Vaccination and Immunisation

The principle of immunisation or vaccination is based on the property of 'memory' of the immune system. In vaccination, a preparation of antigenic proteins of pathogen or inactivated/weakened pathogen (vaccine) are introduced into the body. The antibodies produced in the body against these antigens would neutralise the pathogenic agents during actual infection. The vaccines also generate memory – B and T-cells that recognise the pathogen quickly on subsequent exposure and overwhelm the invaders with a massive production of antibodies. If a person is infected with some deadly microbes to which quick immune response is required as in tetanus, we need to directly inject the preformed antibodies, or antitoxin (a preparation containing antibodies to the toxin). Even in cases of snakebites, the injection which is given to the patients, contain preformed antibodies against the snake venom. This type of immunisation is called **passive immunisation**.

Recombinant DNA technology has allowed the production of antigenic polypeptides of pathogen in bacteria or yeast. Vaccines produced using this approach allow large scale production and hence greater availability for immunisation, e.g., hepatitis B vaccine produced from yeast.

8.2.5 Allergies

When you have gone to a new place and suddenly you started sneezing, wheezing for no explained reason, and when you went away, your symptoms dissappeared. Did this happen to you? Some of us are sensitive to some particles in the environment. The above-mentioned reaction could be because of allergy to pollen, mites, etc., which are different in different places.

The exaggerated response of the immune system to certain antigens present in the environment is called **allergy**. The substances to which such an immune response is produced are called allergens. The antibodies produced to these are of IgE type. Common examples of allergens are mites in dust, pollens, animal dander, etc. Symptoms of allergic reactions include sneezing, watery eyes, running nose and difficulty in breathing. Allergy is due to the release of chemicals like histamine and serotonin from the mast cells. For determining the cause of allergy, the patient is exposed to or injected with very small doses of possible allergens, and the reactions studied. The use of drugs like anti-histamine, adrenalin and steroids quickly reduce the symptoms of allergy. Somehow, modern-day life style has resulted in lowering of immunity and more sensitivity to allergens – more and more children in metro cities of India suffer from allergies and asthma due to sensitivity to the environment. This could be because of the protected environment provided early in life.

8.2.6 Auto Immunity

Memory-based acquired immunity evolved in higher vertebrates based on the ability to differentiate foreign organisms (e.g., pathogens) from self-cells. While we still do not understand the basis of this, two corollaries of this ability have to be understood. One, higher vertebrates can distinguish foreign molecules as well as foreign organisms. Most of the experimental immunology deals with this aspect. Two, sometimes, due to genetic and other unknown reasons, the body attacks self-cells. This results in damage to the body and is called **auto-immune** disease. Rheumatoid arthritis which affects many people in our society is an auto-immune disease.

8.2.7 Immune System in the Body

The human immune system consists of lymphoid organs, tissues, cells and soluble molecules like antibodies. As you have read, immune system is unique in the sense that it recognises foreign antigens, responds to these and remembers them. The immune system also plays an important role in allergic reactions, auto-immune diseases and organ transplantation.

Lymphoid organs: These are the organs where origin and/or maturation and proliferation of lymphocytes occur. The primary lymphoid organs are **bone marrow** and **thymus** where immature lymphocytes differentiate

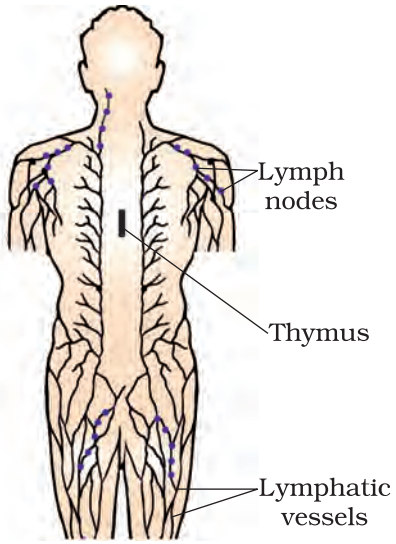

Figure 8.5 Diagrammatic representation of Lymph nodes

into antigen-sensitive lymphocytes. After maturation the lymphocytes migrate to secondary lymphoid organs like spleen, lymph nodes, tonsils, Peyer's patches of small intestine and appendix. The secondary lymphoid organs provide the sites for interaction of lymphocytes with the antigen, which then proliferate to become effector cells. The location of various lymphoid organs in the human body is shown in Figure 8.5.

The bone marrow is the main lymphoid organ where all blood cells including lymphocytes are produced. The thymus is a lobed organ located near the heart and beneath the breastbone. The thymus is quite large at the time of birth but keeps reducing in size with age and by the time puberty is attained it reduces to a very small size. Both bone-marrow and thymus provide micro-environments for the development and maturation of T-lymphocytes. The spleen is a large bean-shaped organ. It mainly contains lymphocytes and phagocytes. It acts as a filter of the blood by trapping blood-borne micro-organisms. Spleen also has a large reservoir of erythrocytes. The lymph nodes are small solid structures located at different points along the lymphatic system. Lymph nodes serve to trap the micro-organisms or other antigens, which happen to get into the lymph and tissue fluid. Antigens trapped in the lymph nodes are responsible for the activation of lymphocytes present there and cause the immune response.

There is lymphoid tissue also located within the lining of the major tracts (respiratory, digestive and urogenital tracts) called **mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue** (MALT). It constitutes about 50 per cent of the lymphoid tissue in human body.

8.3 AIDS

The word AIDS stands for **Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome**. This means deficiency of immune system, acquired during the lifetime of an individual indicating that it is not a congenital disease. 'Syndrome' means a group of symptoms. AIDS was first reported in 1981 and in the last twenty-five years or so, it has spread all over the world killing more than 25 million persons.

AIDS is caused by the Human Immuno deficiency Virus (HIV), a member of a group of viruses called **retrovirus**, which have an envelope enclosing the RNA genome (Figure 8.6). Transmission of HIV-infection generally occurs by (a) sexual contact with infected person, (b) by transfusion of contaminated blood and blood products, (c) by sharing infected needles as in the case of intravenous drug abusers and (d) from infected mother to her child through placenta. So, people who are at high risk of getting this infection includes - individuals who have multiple

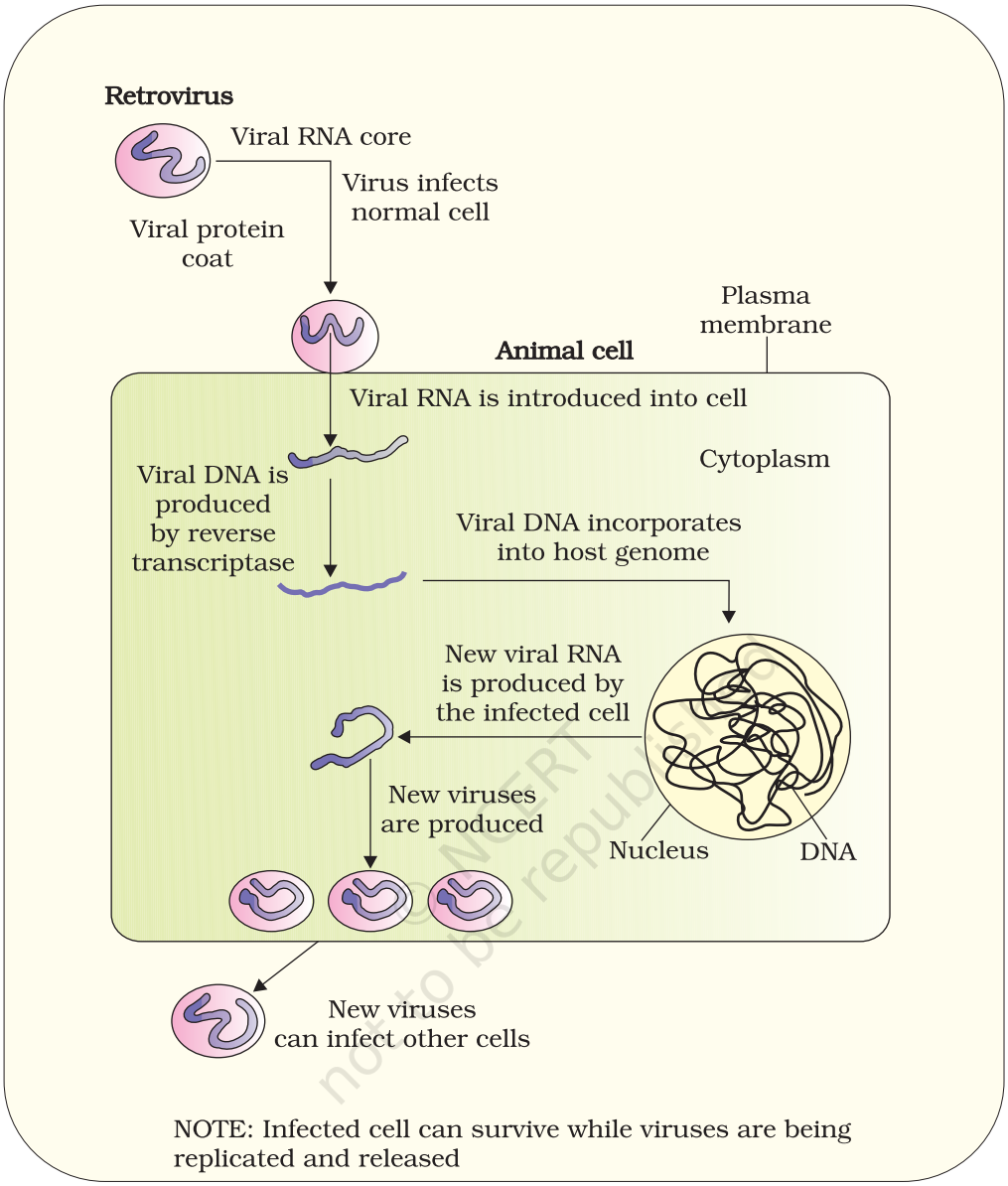

Figure 8.6 Replication of retrovirus

sexual partners, drug addicts who take drugs intravenously, individuals who require repeated blood transfusions and children born to an HIV infected mother. *Do you know–when do people need repeated blood transfusion? Find out and make a list of such conditions.* It is important to note that HIV/AIDS is not spread by mere touch or physical contact; it spreads only through body fluids. It is, hence, imperative, for the physical and psychological well-being, that the HIV/AIDS infected persons are not isolated from family and society. There is always a time-lag between the infection and appearance of AIDS symptoms. This period may vary from a few months to many years (usually 5-10 years).

After getting into the body of the person, the virus enters into macrophages where RNA genome of the virus replicates to form viral DNA with the help of the enzyme reverse transcriptase. This viral DNA gets incorporated into host cell's DNA and directs the infected cells to produce virus particles (Figure 8.6). The macrophages continue to produce virus and in this way acts like a HIV factory. Simultaneously, HIV enters into helper T-lymphocytes (T_H), replicates and produce progeny viruses. The progeny viruses released in the blood attack other helper T-lymphocytes. This is repeated leading to a progressive decrease in the number of helper T-lymphocytes in the body of the infected person. During this period, the person suffers from bouts of fever, diarrhoea and weight loss. Due to decrease in the number of helper T lymphocytes, the person starts suffering from infections that could have been otherwise overcome such as those due to bacteria especially *Mycobacterium*, viruses, fungi and even parasites like *Toxoplasma*. The patient becomes so immuno-deficient that he/she is unable to protect himself/herself against these infections. A widely used diagnostic test for AIDS is **enzyme linked immuno-sorbent assay** (ELISA). Treatment of AIDS with anti-retroviral drugs is only partially effective. They can only prolong the life of the patient but cannot prevent death, which is inevitable.

Prevention of AIDS : As AIDS has no cure, prevention is the best option. Moreover, HIV infection, more often, spreads due to conscious behaviour patterns and is not something that happens inadvertently, like pneumonia or typhoid. Of course, infection in blood transfusion patients, new-borns (from mother) etc., may take place due to poor monitoring. The only excuse may be ignorance and it has been rightly said – "don't die of ignorance". In our country the National AIDS Control Organisation (NACO) and other non-governmental organisation (NGOs) are doing a lot to educate people about AIDS. WHO has started a number of programmes to prevent the spreading of HIV infection. Making blood (from blood banks) safe from HIV, ensuring the use of only disposable needles and syringes in public and private hospitals and clinics, free distribution of condoms, controlling drug abuse, advocating safe sex and promoting regular check-ups for HIV in susceptible populations, are some such steps taken up.

Infection with HIV or having AIDS is something that should not be hidden – since then, the infection may spread to many more people. HIV/AIDS-infected people need help and sympathy instead of being shunned by society. Unless society recognises it as a problem to be dealt with in a collective manner – the chances of wider spread of the disease increase manifold. It is a malady that can only be tackled, by the society and medical fraternity acting together, to prevent the spread of the disease.

8.4 Cancer

Cancer is one of the most dreaded diseases of human beings and is a major cause of death all over the globe. More than a million Indians suffer from

cancer and a large number of them die from it annually. The mechanisms that underlie development of cancer or oncogenic transformation of cells, its treatment and control have been some of the most intense areas of research in biology and medicine.

In our body, cell growth and differentiation is highly controlled and regulated. In cancer cells, there is breakdown of these regulatory mechanisms. Normal cells show a property called **contact inhibition** by virtue of which contact with other cells inhibits their uncontrolled growth. Cancer cells appears to have lost this property. As a result of this, cancerous cells just continue to divide giving rise to masses of cells called **tumors**. Tumors are of two types: benign and malignant. **Benign tumors** normally remain confined to their original location and do not spread to other parts of the body and cause little damage. The **malignant tumors**, on the other hand are a mass of proliferating cells called neoplastic or tumor cells. These cells grow very rapidly, invading and damaging the surrounding normal tissues. As these cells actively divide and grow they also starve the normal cells by competing for vital nutrients. Cells sloughed from such tumors reach distant sites through blood, and wherever they get lodged in the body, they start a new tumor there. This property called **metastasis** is the most feared property of malignant tumors.

Causes of cancer : Transformation of normal cells into cancerous neoplastic cells may be induced by physical, chemical or biological agents. These agents are called **carcinogens**. Ionising radiations like X-rays and gamma rays and non-ionizing radiations like UV cause DNA damage leading to neoplastic transformation. The chemical carcinogens present in tobacco smoke have been identified as a major cause of lung cancer. Cancer causing viruses called **oncogenic viruses** have genes called **viral oncogenes**. Furthermore, several genes called **cellular oncogenes** (*c-onc*) or **proto oncogenes** have been identified in normal cells which, when activated under certain conditions, could lead to oncogenic transformation of the cells.

Cancer detection and diagnosis : Early detection of cancers is essential as it allows the disease to be treated successfully in many cases. Cancer detection is based on biopsy and histopathological studies of the tissue and blood and bone marrow tests for increased cell counts in the case of leukemias. In biopsy, a piece of the suspected tissue cut into thin sections is stained and examined under microscope (histopathological studies) by a pathologist. Techniques like radiography (use of X-rays), CT (computed tomography) and MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) are very useful to detect cancers of the internal organs. Computed tomography uses X-rays to generate a three-dimensional image of the internals of an object. MRI uses strong magnetic fields and non-ionising radiations to accurately detect pathological and physiological changes in the living tissue.

Antibodies against cancer-specific antigens are also used for detection of certain cancers. Techniques of molecular biology can be

applied to detect genes in individuals with inherited susceptibility to certain cancers. Identification of such genes, which predispose an individual to certain cancers, may be very helpful in prevention of cancers. Such individuals may be advised to avoid exposure to particular carcinogens to which they are susceptible (e.g., tobacco smoke in case of lung cancer).

Treatment of cancer : The common approaches for treatment of cancer are surgery, radiation therapy and immunotherapy. In radiotherapy, tumor cells are irradiated lethally, taking proper care of the normal tissues surrounding the tumor mass. Several chemotherapeutic drugs are used to kill cancerous cells. Some of these are specific for particular tumors. Majority of drugs have side effects like hair loss, anemia, etc. Most cancers are treated by combination of surgery, radiotherapy and chemotherapy. Tumor cells have been shown to avoid detection and destruction by immune system. Therefore, the patients are given substances called biological response modifiers such as **α-interferon** which activates their immune system and helps in destroying the tumor.

8.5 Drugs and Alcohol Abuse

Surveys and statistics show that use of drugs and alcohol has been on the rise especially among the youth. This is really a cause of concern as it could result in many harmful effects. Proper education and guidance would enable youth to safeguard themselves against these dangerous behaviour patterns and follow healthy lifestyles.

The drugs, which are commonly abused are opioids, cannabinoids and coca alkaloids. Majority of these are obtained from flowering plants. Some are obtained from fungi.

Opioids are the drugs, which bind to specific opioid receptors present in our central nervous system and gastrointestinal tract. Heroin (Figure 8.7), commonly called *smack* is chemically diacetylmorphine which is a white, odourless, bitter crystalline compound. This is obtained by acetylation of morphine (Figure 8.7), which is extracted from the latex of

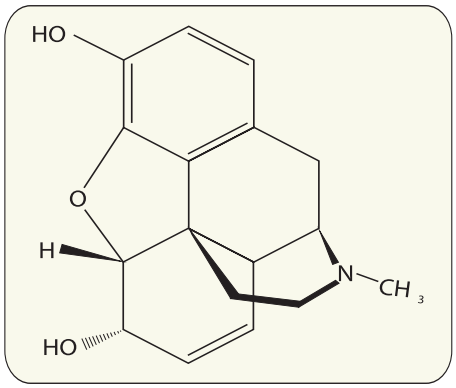

Figure 8.7 Chemical structure of Morphine

Figure 8.8 Opium poppy

poppy plant *Papaver somniferum* (Figure 8.8). Generally taken by snorting and injection, heroin is a depressant and slows down body functions.

Cannabinoids are a group of chemicals (Figure 8.9), which interact with cannabinoid receptors present principally in the brain. Natural cannabinoids are obtained from the inflorescences of the plant *Cannabis sativa* (Figure 8.10). The flower tops, leaves and the resin of cannabis plant are used in various combinations to produce marijuana, hashish, charas and ganja. Generally taken by inhalation and oral ingestion, these are known for their effects on cardiovascular system of the body.

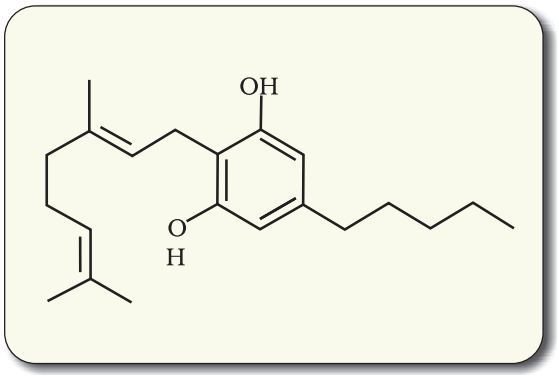

Figure 8.9 Skeletal structure of cannabinoid molecule

Figure 8.10 Leaves of *Cannabis sativa*

Coca alkaloid or **cocaine** is obtained from coca plant *Erythroxylum coca*, native to South America. It interferes with the transport of the neuro-transmitter dopamine. Cocaine, commonly called **coke** or **crack** is usually snorted. It has a potent stimulating action on central nervous system, producing a sense of euphoria and increased energy. Excessive dosage of cocaine causes hallucinations. Other well-known plants with hallucinogenic properties are *Atropa belladona* and *Datura* (Figure 8.11). These days cannabinoids are also being abused by some sportspersons.

Figure 8.11 Flowering branch of *Datura*

Drugs like barbiturates, amphetamines, benzodiazepines, and other similar drugs, that are normally used as medicines to help patients cope with mental illnesses like depression and insomnia, are often abused. Morphine is a very effective sedative and painkiller, and is very useful in patients who have undergone surgery. Several plants, fruits and seeds having hallucinogenic properties have been used for hundreds of years in folk-medicine, religious ceremonies and rituals all over the globe. When these are taken for a purpose other than medicinal use or in amounts/frequency that impairs one's physical, physiological or psychological functions, it constitutes drug abuse.

Smoking also paves the way to hard drugs. Tobacco has been used by human beings for more than 400 years. It is smoked, chewed or used as a snuff. Tobacco contains a large number of chemical substances including nicotine, an alkaloid. Nicotine stimulates adrenal gland to release adrenaline and nor-adrenaline into blood circulation, both of which raise blood pressure and increase heart rate. Smoking is associated with increased incidence of cancers of lung, urinary bladder and throat, bronchitis, emphysema, coronary heart disease, gastric ulcer, etc. Tobacco chewing is associated with increased risk of cancer of the oral cavity. Smoking increases carbon monoxide (CO) content in blood and reduces the concentration of haembound oxygen. This causes oxygen deficiency in the body.

When one buys packets of cigarettes one cannot miss the statutory warning that is present on the packing which warns against smoking and says how it is injurious to health. Yet, smoking is very prevalent in society, both among young and old. Knowing the dangers of smoking and chewing tobacco, and its addictive nature, the youth and old need to avoid these habits. Any addict requires counselling and medical help to get rid of the habit.

8.5.1 Adolescence and Drug/Alcohol Abuse

Adolescence means both 'a period' and 'a process' during which a child becomes mature in terms of his/her attitudes and beliefs for effective participation in society. The period between 12-18 years of age may be thought of as adolescence period. In other words, adolescence is a bridge linking childhood and adulthood. Adolescence is accompanied by several biological and behavioural changes. Adolescence, thus is a very vulnerable phase of mental and psychological development of an individual.

Curiosity, need for adventure and excitement, and experimentation, constitute common causes, which motivate youngsters towards drug and alcohol use. A child's natural curiosity motivates him/her to experiment. This is complicated further by effects that might be perceived as benefits, of alcohol or drug use. Thus, the first use of drugs or alcohol may be out of curiosity or experimentation, but later the child starts using these to escape facing problems. Of late, stress, from pressures to excel in academics or examinations, has played a significant role in persuading the youngsters to try alcohol and drugs. The perception among youth that it is 'cool' or progressive to smoke, use drugs or alcohol, is also in a way a major cause for youth to start these habits. Television, movies, newspapers, internet also help to promote this perception. Other factors that have been seen to be associated with drug and alcohol abuse among adolescents are unstable or unsupportive family structures and peer pressure.

8.5.2 Addiction and Dependence

Because of the perceived benefits, drugs are frequently used repeatedly. The most important thing, which one fails to realise, is the inherent addictive nature of alcohol and drugs. Addiction is a psychological attachment to certain effects – such as euphoria and a temporary feeling of well-being – associated with drugs and alcohol. These drive people to take them even when these are not needed, or even when their use becomes self-destructive. With repeated use of drugs, the tolerance level of the receptors present in our body increases. Consequently the receptors respond only to higher doses of drugs or alcohol leading to greater intake and addiction. However, it should be clearly borne in mind that use of these drugs even once, can be a fore-runner to addiction. Thus, the addictive potential of drugs and alcohol, pull the user into a vicious circle leading to their regular use (abuse) from which he/she may not be able to get out. In the absence of any guidance or counselling, the person gets addicted and becomes dependent on their use.

Dependence is the tendency of the body to manifest a characteristic and unpleasant **withdrawal syndrome** if regular dose of drugs/alcohol is abruptly discontinued. This is characterised by anxiety, shakiness, nausea and sweating, which may be relieved when use is resumed again. In some cases, withdrawal symptoms can be severe and even life threatening and the person may need medical supervision.

Dependence leads the patient to ignore all social norms in order to get sufficient funds to satiate his/her needs. These result in many social adjustment problems.

8.5.3 Effects of Drug/Alcohol Abuse

The immediate adverse effects of drugs and alcohol abuse are manifested in the form of reckless behaviour, vandalism and violence. Excessive doses of drugs may lead to coma and death due to respiratory failure, heart failure or cerebral hemorrhage. A combination of drugs or their intake along with alcohol generally results in overdosing and even deaths. The most common warning signs of drug and alcohol abuse among youth include drop in academic performance, unexplained absence from school/college, lack of interest in personal hygiene, withdrawal, isolation, depression, fatigue, aggressive and rebellious behaviour, deteriorating relationships with family and friends, loss of interest in hobbies, change in sleeping and eating habits, fluctuations in weight, appetite, etc.

There may even be some far-reaching implications of drug/alcohol abuse. If an abuser is unable to get money to buy drugs/alcohol he/she may turn to stealing. The adverse effects are just not restricted to the person who is using drugs or alcohol. At times, a drug/alcohol addict becomes the cause of mental and financial distress to his/her entire family and friends.

Those who take drugs intravenously (direct injection into the vein using a needle and syringe), are much more likely to acquire serious infections like AIDS and Hepatitis B. The viruses, which are responsible for these diseases, are transferred from one person to another by sharing of infected needles and syringes. Both AIDS and Hepatitis B infections are chronic infections and ultimately fatal. Both can be transmitted through sexual contact or infected blood.

The use of alcohol during adolescence may also have long-term effects. It could lead to heavy drinking in adulthood. The chronic use of drugs and alcohol damages nervous system and liver **(cirrhosis)**. The use of drugs and alcohol during pregnancy is also known to adversely affect the foetus.

Another misuse of drugs is what certain sportspersons do to enhance their performance. They (mis)use narcotic analgesics, anabolic steroids, diuretics and certain hormones in sports to increase muscle strength and bulk and to promote aggressiveness and as a result increase athletic performance. The side-effects of the use of anabolic steroids in females include masculinisation (features like males), increased aggressiveness, mood swings, depression, abnormal menstrual cycles, excessive hair growth on the face and body, enlargement of clitoris, deepening of voice. In males it includes acne, increased aggressiveness, mood swings, depression, reduction of size of the testicles, decreased sperm production, potential for kidney and liver dysfunction, breast enlargement, premature baldness, enlargement of the prostate gland. These effects may be permanent with prolonged use. In the adolescent male or female, severe facial and body acne, and premature closure of the growth centres of the long bones may result in stunted growth.

8.5.4 Prevention and Control

The age-old adage of 'prevention is better than cure' holds true here also. It is also true that habits such as smoking, taking drug or alcohol are more likely to be taken up at a young age, more during adolescence. Hence, it is best to identify the situations that may push an adolescent towards use of drugs or alcohol, and to take remedial measures well in time. In this regard, the parents and the teachers have a special responsibility. Parenting that combines with high levels of nurturance and consistent discipline, has been associated with lowered risk of substance (alcohol/drugs/tobacco) abuse. Some of the measures mentioned here would be particularly useful for prevention and control of alcohol and drugs abuse among adolescents

(i) ***Avoid undue peer pressure*** - Every child has his/her own choice and personality, which should be respected and nurtured. A child should not be pushed unduly to perform beyond his/her threshold limits; be it studies, sports or other activities.

(ii) ***Education and counselling*** - Educating and counselling him/her to face problems and stresses, and to accept disappointments and failures as a part of life. It would also be worthwhile to channelise the child's energy into healthy pursuits like sports, reading, music, yoga and other extracurricular activities.

(iii) ***Seeking help from parents and peers*** - Help from parents and peers should be sought immediately so that they can guide appropriately. Help may even be sought from close and trusted friends. Besides getting proper advise to sort out their problems, this would help young to vent their feelings of anxiety and guilt.

(iv) ***Looking for danger signs*** - Alert parents and teachers need to look for and identify the danger signs discussed above. Even friends, if they find someone using drugs or alcohol, should not hesitate to bring this to the notice of parents or teacher in the best interests of the person concerned. Appropriate measures would then be required to diagnose the malady and the underlying causes. This would help in initiating proper remedial steps or treatment.

(v) ***Seeking professional and medical help*** - A lot of help is available in the form of highly qualified psychologists, psychiatrists, and de-addiction and rehabilitation programmes to help individuals who have unfortunately got in the quagmire of drug/alcohol abuse. With such help, the affected individual with sufficient efforts and will power, can get rid of the problem completely and lead a perfectly normal and healthy life.

SUMMARY

Health is not just the absence of disease. It is a state of complete physical, mental, social and psychological well-being. Diseases like typhoid, cholera, pneumonia, fungal infections of skin, malaria and many others are a major cause of distress to human beings. Vector-borne diseases like malaria especially one caused by *Plasmodium falciparum*, if not treated, may prove fatal. Besides personal cleanliness and hygiene, public health measures like proper disposal of waste, decontamination of drinking water, control of vectors like mosquitoes and immunisation are very helpful in preventing these diseases. Our immune system plays the major role in preventing these diseases when we are exposed to disease-causing agents. The innate defences of our body like skin, mucous membranes, antimicrobial substances present in our tears, saliva and the phagocytic cells help to block the entry of pathogens into our body. If the pathogens succeed in gaining entry to our body, specific antibodies (humoral immune response) and cells (cell mediated immune response) serve to kill these pathogens. Immune system has memory. On subsequent exposure to same pathogen, the immune response is rapid and more intense. This forms the basis of protection

afforded by vaccination and immunisation. Among other diseases, AIDS and cancer kill a large number of individuals worldwide. AIDS caused by the human immuno-deficiency virus (HIV) is fatal but can be prevented if certain precautions are taken. Many cancers are curable if detected early and appropriate therapeutic measures are taken. Of late, drug and alcohol abuse among youth and adolescents is becoming another cause of concern. Because of the addictive nature of alcohol and drugs, and their perceived benefits like relief from stress, a person may try taking these in the face of peer pressure, examinations-related and competition-related stresses. In doing so, he/she may get addicted to them. Education about their harmful effects, counselling and seeking immediate professional and medical help would totally relieve the individual from these evils.

EXERCISES

1. What are the various public health measures, which you would suggest as safeguard against infectious diseases?
2. In which way has the study of biology helped us to control infectious diseases?
3. How does the transmission of each of the following diseases take place?
   (a) Amoebiasis (b) Malaria (c) Ascariasis (d) Pneumonia
4. What measure would you take to prevent water-borne diseases?
5. Discuss with your teacher what does 'a suitable gene' means, in the context of DNA vaccines.
6. Name the primary and secondary lymphoid organs.
7. The following are some well-known abbreviations, which have been used in this chapter. Expand each one to its full form:
   (a) MALT (b) CMI (c) AIDS (d) NACO
   (e) HIV
8. Differentiate the following and give examples of each:
   (a) Innate and acquired immunity (b) Active and passive immunity
9. Draw a well-labelled diagram of an antibody molecule.
10. What are the various routes by which transmission of human immuno-deficiency virus takes place?
11. What is the mechanism by which the AIDS virus causes deficiency of immune system of the infected person?
12. How is a cancerous cell different from a normal cell?
13. Explain what is meant by metastasis.
14. List the harmful effects caused by alcohol/drug abuse.
15. Do you think that friends can influence one to take alcohol/drugs? If yes, how may one protect himself/herself from such an influence?
16. Why is that once a person starts taking alcohol or drugs, it is difficult to get rid of this habit? Discuss it with your teacher.
17. In your view what motivates youngsters to take to alcohol or drugs and how can this be avoided?

CHAPTER 9

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STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCEMENT IN FOOD PRODUCTION

With ever-increasing population of the world, enhancement of food production is a major necessity. Biological principles as applied to animal husbandry and plant breeding have a major role in our efforts to increase food production. Several new techniques like embryo transfer technology and tissue culture techniques are going to play a pivotal role in further enhancing food production.

9.1 Animal Husbandry

Animal husbandry is the agricultural practice of breeding and raising livestock. As such it is a vital skill for farmers and is as much science as it is art. Animal husbandry deals with the care and breeding of livestock like buffaloes, cows, pigs, horses, cattle, sheep, camels, goats, etc., that are useful to humans. Extended, it includes poultry farming and fisheries. Fisheries include rearing, catching, selling, etc., of fish, molluscs (shell-fish) and crustaceans (prawns, crabs, etc.). Since time immemorial, animals like bees, silk-worm, prawns, crabs, fishes, birds, pigs, cattle, sheep and camels have been used by humans for products like milk, eggs, meat, wool, silk, honey, etc.

It is estimated that more then 70 per cent of the world livestock population is in India and China. However, it is

surprising to note that the contribution to the world farm produce is only 25 per cent, i.e., the productivity per unit is very low. Hence, in addition to conventional practices of animal breeding and care, newer technologies also have to be applied to achieve improvement in quality and productivity.

9.1.1 Management of Farms and Farm Animals

A professional approach to what have been traditional practices of farm management gives the much needed boost to our food production. Let us discuss some of the management procedures, employed in various animal farm systems.

9.1.1.1 Dairy Farm Management

Dairying is the management of animals for milk and its products for human consumption. *Can you list the animals that you would expect to find in a dairy? What are different kinds of products that can be made with milk from a dairy farm?* In dairy farm management, we deal with processes and systems that increase yield and improve quality of milk. Milk yield is primarily dependent on the quality of breeds in the farm. Selection of good breeds having high yielding potential (under the climatic conditions of the area), combined with resistance to diseases is very important. For the yield potential to be realised the cattle have to be well looked after – they have to be housed well, should have adequate water and be maintained disease free. The feeding of cattle should be carried out in a scientific manner – with special emphasis on the quality and quantity of fodder. Besides, stringent cleanliness and hygiene (both of the cattle and the handlers) are of paramount importance while milking, storage and transport of the milk and its products. Nowadays, of course, much of these processes have become mechanised, which reduces chance of direct contact of the produce with the handler. Ensuring these stringent measures would of course, require regular inspections, with proper record keeping. It would also help to identify and rectify the problems as early as possible. Regular visits by a veterinary doctor would be mandatory.

You would probably find it interesting if you were to prepare a questionnaire on diverse aspects of dairy keeping and then follow it up with a visit to a dairy farm in your locality and seek answers to the questions.

9.1.1.2 Poultry Farm Management

Poultry is the class of domesticated fowl (birds) used for food or for their eggs. They typically include chicken and ducks, and sometimes turkey and geese. The word poultry is often used to refer to the meat of only these birds, but in a more general sense it may refer to the meat of other birds too.

As in dairy farming, selection of disease free and suitable breeds, proper and safe farm conditions, proper feed and water, and hygiene and health care are important components of poultry farm management.

You may have seen TV news or read newspaper–reports about the 'bird flu virus' which created a scare in the country and drastically affected egg and chicken consumption. Find out more about it and discuss whether the panic reaction was justified. How can we prevent the spread of the flu in case some chicken are infected?

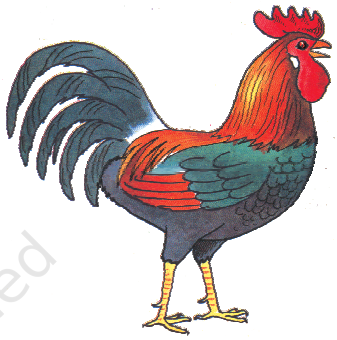
9.1.2 Animal Breeding

Breeding of animals is an important aspect of animal husbandry. Animal breeding aims at increasing the yield of animals and improving the desirable qualities of the produce. *For what kind of characters would we breed animals? Would the selection of characters differ with the choice of animals?*

What do we understand by the term 'breed'? A group of animals related by descent and similar in most characters like general appearance, features, size, configuration, etc., are said to belong to a breed. *Find out the names of some common breeds of cattle and poultry in the farms of your area.*

When breeding is between animals of the same breed it is called **inbreeding**, while crosses between different breeds are called **outbreeding**.

(a)



(b)

Figure 9.1 Improved breed of cattle and chickens (a) Jersey (b) Leghorn

Inbreeding : Inbreeding refers to the mating of more closely related individuals within the same breed for 4-6 generations. The breeding strategy is as follows – superior males and superior females of the same breed are identified and mated in pairs. The progeny obtained from such matings are evaluated and superior males and females among them are identified for further mating. A superior female, in the case of cattle, is the cow or buffalo that produces more milk per lactation. On the other hand, a superior male is the bull, which gives rise to superior progeny as compared to those of other males.

Try to recollect the homozygous purelines developed by Mendel as discussed in Chapter 5. A similar strategy is used for developing purelines in cattle as was used in case of peas. Inbreeding increases **homozygosity**. Thus inbreeding is necessary if we want to evolve a pureline in any animal. Inbreeding exposes harmful recessive genes that are eliminated by selection. It also helps in accumulation of superior genes and elimination of less desirable genes. Therefore, this approach, where there is selection at each step, increases the productivity of inbred population. However, continued inbreeding, especially close inbreeding, usually reduces fertility and even productivity. This is called **inbreeding depression**. Whenever this becomes a problem, selected animals of the breeding population should be mated

with unrelated superior animals of the same breed. This usually helps restore fertility and yield.

Out-breeding : Out-breeding is the breeding of the unrelated animals, which may be between individuals of the same breed but having no common ancestors for 4-6 generations (out-crossing) or between different breeds (cross-breeding) or different species (inter-specific hybridisation).

Out-crossing: This is the practice of mating of animals within the same breed, but having no common ancestors on either side of their pedigree up to 4-6 generations. The offspring of such a mating is known as an out-cross. It is the best breeding method for animals that are below average in productivity in milk production, growth rate in beef cattle, etc. A single outcross often helps to overcome inbreeding depression.

Cross-breeding: In this method, superior males of one breed are mated with superior females of another breed. Cross-breeding allows the desirable qualities of two different breeds to be combined. The progeny hybrid animals may themselves be used for commercial production. Alternatively, they may be subjected to some form of inbreeding and selection to develop new stable breeds that may be superior to the existing breeds. Many new animal breeds have been developed by this approach. *Hisardale* is a new breed of sheep developed in Punjab by crossing Bikaneri ewes and Marino rams.

Interspecific hybridisation: In this method, male and female animals of two different related species are mated. In some cases, the progeny may combine desirable features of both the parents, and may be of considerable economic value, e.g., the mule (Figure 9.2). *Do you know what cross leads to the production of the mule?*

Figure 9.2 Mule

Controlled breeding experiments are carried out using **artificial insemination**. The semen is collected from the male that is chosen as a parent and injected into the reproductive tract of the selected female by the breeder. The semen may be used immediately or can be frozen and used at a later date. It can also be transported in a frozen form to where the female is housed. In this way desirable matings are carried. Artificial insemination helps us overcome several problems of normal matings. *Can you discuss and list some of them?*

Often, the success rate of crossing mature male and female animals is fairly low even though artificial insemination is carried out. To improve chances of successful production of hybrids, other means are also used. **Multiple Ovulation Embryo Transfer Technology** (MOET) is one such programme for herd improvement. In this method, a cow is administered hormones, with FSH-like activity, to induce follicular maturation and super ovulation – instead of one egg, which they normally yield per cycle, they

produce 6-8 eggs. The animal is either mated with an elite bull or artificially inseminated. The fertilised eggs at 8–32 cells stages, are recovered non-surgically and transferred to surrogate mothers. The genetic mother is available for another round of super ovulation. This technology has been demonstrated for cattle, sheep, rabbits, buffaloes, mares, etc. High milk-yielding breeds of females and high quality (lean meat with less lipid) meat-yielding bulls have been bred successfully to increase herd size in a short time.

9.1.3 Bee-keeping

Bee-keeping or **apiculture** is the maintenance of hives of honeybees for the production of honey. It has been an age-old cottage industry. Honey is a food of high nutritive value and also finds use in the indigenous systems of medicine. Honeybee also produces beeswax, which finds many uses in industry, such as in the preparation of cosmetics and polishes of various kinds. The increased demand of honey has led to large-scale bee-keeping practices; it has become an established income generating industry, whether practiced on a small or on a large scale.

Bee-keeping can be practiced in any area where there are sufficient bee pastures of some wild shrubs, fruit orchards and cultivated crops. There are several species of honeybees which can be reared. Of these, the most common species is *Apis indica*. Beehives can be kept in one's courtyard, on the verandah of the house or even on the roof. Bee-keeping is not labour-intensive.

Bee-keeping though relatively easy does require some specialised knowledge and there are several organisations that teach bee-keeping. The following points are important for successful bee-keeping:

(i) Knowledge of the nature and habits of bees,
(ii) Selection of suitable location for keeping the beehives,
(iii) Catching and hiving of swarms (group of bees),
(iv) Management of beehives during different seasons, and
(v) Handling and collection of honey and of beeswax. Bees are the pollinators of many of our crop species (see chapter 2) such as sunflower, *Brassica*, apple and pear. Keeping beehives in crop fields during flowering period increases pollination efficiency and improves the yield–beneficial both from the point of view of crop yield and honey yield.

9.1.4 Fisheries

Fishery is an industry devoted to the catching, processing or selling of fish, shellfish or other aquatic animals. A large number of our population is dependent on fish, fish products and other aquatic animals such as prawn, crab, lobster, edible oyster, etc., for food. Some of the freshwater fishes which are very common include *Catla*, *Rohu* and common carp. Some of the marine fishes that are eaten include – *Hilsa*, Sardines, Mackerel and Pomfrets. *Find out what fishes are commonly eaten in your area.*

Fisheries has an important place in Indian economy. It provides income and employment to millions of fishermen and farmers, particularly in the coastal states. For many, it is the only source of their livelihood. In order to meet the increasing demands on fisheries, different techniques have been employed to increase production. For example, through aquaculture and pisciculture we have been able to increase the production of aquatic plants and animals, both fresh-water and marine. *Find out the difference between pisciculture and aquaculture.* This has led to the development and flourishing of the fishery industry, and it has brought a lot of income to the farmers in particular and the country in general. We now talk about 'Blue Revolution' as being implemented along the same lines as 'Green Revolution'.

9.2 Plant Breeding

Traditional farming can only yield a limited biomass, as food for humans and animals. Better management practices and increase in acreage can increase yield, but only to a limited extent. Plant breeding as a technology has helped increase yields to a very large extent. Who in India has not heard of **Green Revolution** which was responsible for our country to not merely meet the national requirements in food production but also helped us even to export it? Green revolution was dependent to a large extent on plant breeding techniques for development of high-yielding and disease resistant varieties in wheat, rice, maize, etc.

9.2.1 What is Plant Breeding?

Plant breeding is the purposeful manipulation of plant species in order to create desired plant types that are better suited for cultivation, give better yields and are disease resistant. Conventional plant breeding has been practiced for thousands of years, since the beginning of human civilisation; recorded evidence of plant breeding dates back to 9,000-11,000 years ago. Many present-day crops are the result of domestication in ancient times. Today, all our major food crops are derived from domesticated varieties. Classical plant breeding involves crossing or hybridisation of pure lines, followed by artificial selection to produce plants with desirable traits of higher yield, nutrition and resistance to diseases. With advancements in genetics, molecular biology and tissue culture, plant breeding is now increasingly being carried out by using molecular genetic tools.

If we were to list the traits or characters that the breeders have tried to incorporate into crop plants, the first we would list would be increased crop yield and improved quality. Increased tolerance to environmental stresses (salinity, extreme temperatures, drought), resistance to pathogens (viruses, fungi and bacteria) and increased tolerance to insect pests would be on our list too.

Plant breeding programmes are carried out in a systematic way worldwide–in government institutions and commercial companies. The main steps in breeding a new genetic variety of a crop are –

(i) ***Collection of variability:*** Genetic variability is the root of any breeding programme. In many crops pre-existing genetic variability is available from wild relatives of the crop. Collection and preservation of all the different wild varieties, species and relatives of the cultivated species (followed by their evaluation for their characteristics) is a pre-requisite for effective exploitation of natural genes available in the populations. The entire collection (of plants/seeds) having all the diverse alleles for all genes in a given crop is called **germplasm collection.**

(ii) ***Evaluation and selection of parents:*** The germplasm is evaluated so as to identify plants with desirable combination of characters. The selected plants are multiplied and used in the process of hybridisation. Purelines are created wherever desirable and possible.

(iii) ***Cross hybridisation among the selected parents:*** The desired characters have very often to be combined from two different plants (parents), for example high protein quality of one parent may need to be combined with disease resistance from another parent. This is possible by cross hybridising the two parents to produce hybrids that genetically combine the desired characters in one plant. This is a very time-consuming and tedious process since the pollen grains from the desirable plant chosen as male parent have to be collected and placed on the stigma of the flowers selected as female parent (In chapter 2 details on how to make crosses have been described). Also, it is not necessary that the hybrids do combine the desirable characters; usually only one in few hundred to a thousand crosses shows the desirable combination.

(iv) ***Selection and testing of superior recombinants:*** This step consists of selecting, among the progeny of the hybrids, those plants that have the desired character combination. The selection process is crucial to the success of the breeding objective and requires careful scientific evaluation of the progeny. This step yields plants that are superior to both of the parents (very often more than one superior progeny plant may become available). These are self-pollinated for several generations till they reach a state of uniformity (homozygosity), so that the characters will not segregate in the progeny.

(v) ***Testing, release and commercialisation of new cultivars:*** The newly selected lines are evaluated for their yield and other agronomic traits of quality, disease resistance, etc. This evaluation is done by growing these in the research fields and recording their performance under ideal fertiliser application, irrigation, and other crop management practices. The evaluation in research fields is followed

by testing the materials in farmers' fields, for at least three growing seasons at several locations in the country, representing all the agroclimatic zones where the crop is usually grown. The material is evaluated in comparison to the best available local crop cultivar – a check or reference cultivar.

India is mainly an agricultural country. Agriculture accounts for approximately 33 per cent of India's GDP and employs nearly 62 per cent of the population. After India's independence, one of the main challenges facing the country was that of producing enough food for the increasing population. As only limited land is fit for cultivation, India has to strive to increase yields per unit area from existing farm land. The development of several high yielding varieties of wheat and rice in the mid-1960s, as a result of various plant breeding techniques led to dramatic increase in food production in our country. This phase is often referred to as the **Green Revolution**. Figure 9.3 represents some Indian hybrid crops of high yeilding varieties.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 9.3 Some Indian hybrid crops: (a) Maize; (b) Wheat; (c) Garden peas

Wheat and Rice: During the period 1960 to 2000, wheat production increased from 11 million tonnes to 75 million tonnes while rice production went up from 35 million tonnes to 89.5 million tonnes. This was due to the development of semi-dwarf varieties of wheat and rice. Nobel laureate Norman E. Borlaug, at International Centre for Wheat and Maize Improvement in Mexico, developed semi-dwarf wheat. In 1963, several varieties such as *Sonalika* and *Kalyan Sona*, which were high yielding and disease resistant, were introduced all over the wheat-growing belt of India. Semi-dwarf rice varieties were derived from IR-8, (developed at International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), Philippines) and Taichung Native-1 (from Taiwan). The derivatives were introduced in 1966. Later better-yielding semi-dwarf varieties *Jaya* and *Ratna* were developed in India.

Sugar cane: *Saccharum barberi* was originally grown in north India, but had poor sugar content and yield. Tropical canes grown in south India *Saccharum officinarum* had thicker stems and higher sugar content but did not grow well in north India. These two species were successfully crossed to get sugar cane varieties combining the desirable qualities of high yield, thick stems, high sugar and ability to grow in the sugar cane areas of north India.

Millets: Hybrid maize, jowar and bajra have been successfully developed in India. Hybrid breeding have led to the development of several high yielding varieties resistant to water stress.

9.2.2 Plant Breeding for Disease Resistance

A wide range of fungal, bacterial and viral pathogens, affect the yield of cultivated crop species, especially in tropical climates. Crop losses can often be significant, up to 20-30 per cent, or sometimes even total. In this situation, breeding and development of cultivars resistant to disease enhances food production. This also helps reduce the dependence on use of fungicides and bacteriocides. Resistance of the host plant is the ability to prevent the pathogen from causing disease and is determined by the genetic constitution of the host plant. Before breeding is undertaken, it is important to know about the causative organism and the mode of transmission. Some of the diseases caused by fungi are rusts, e.g., brown rust of wheat, red rot of sugarcane and late blight of potato; by bacteria – black rot of crucifers; and by viruses – tobacco mosaic, turnip mosaic, etc.

Methods of breeding for disease resistance: Breeding is carried out by the conventional breeding techniques (described earlier) or by mutation breeding. The conventional method of breeding for disease resistance is that of hybridisation and selection. It's steps are essentially identical to those for breeding for any other agronomic characters such as high yield. The various sequential steps are : screening germplasm

for resistance sources, hybridisation of selected parents, selection and evaluation of the hybrids and testing and release of new varieties.

Some crop varieties bred by hybridisation and selection, for disease resistance to fungi, bacteria and viral diseases are released (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1

Crop	Variety	Resistance to diseases
Wheat	*Himgiri*	*Leaf and stripe rust, hill bunt*
Brassica	*Pusa swarnim (Karan rai)*	*White rust*
Cauliflower	*Pusa Shubhra, Pusa Snowball K-1*	*Black rot and Curl blight black rot*
Cowpea	*Pusa Komal*	*Bacterial blight*
Chilli	*Pusa Sadabahar*	*Chilly mosaic virus, Tobacco mosaic virus and Leaf curl*

Conventional breeding is often constrained by the availability of limited number of disease resistance genes that are present and identified in various crop varieties or wild relatives. Inducing mutations in plants through diverse means and then screening the plant materials for resistance sometimes leads to desirable genes being identified. Plants having these desirable characters can then be either multiplied directly or can be used in breeding. Other breeding methods that are used are selection amongst somaclonal variants and genetic engineering.

Mutation is the process by which genetic variations are created through changes in the base sequence within genes (see Chapter 5) resulting in the creation of a new character or trait not found in the parental type. It is possible to induce mutations artificially through use of chemicals or radiations (like gamma radiations), and selecting and using the plants that have the desirable character as a source in breeding – this process is called **mutation breeding**. In mung bean, resistance to yellow mosaic virus and powdery mildew were induced by mutations.

Several wild relatives of different cultivated species of plants have been shown to have certain resistant characters but have very low yield. Hence, there is a need to introduce the resistant genes into the high-yielding cultivated varieties. Resistance to yellow mosaic virus in *bhindi* (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) was transferred from a wild species and resulted in a new variety of *A. esculentus* called *Parbhani kranti*.

All the above examples involve sources of resistance genes that are in the same crop species, which has to be bred for disease resistance, or in a related wild species. Transfer of resistance genes is achieved by sexual hybridisation between the target and the source plant followed by selection.

9.2.3 Plant Breeding for Developing Resistance to Insect Pests

Another major cause for large scale destruction of crop plant and crop produce is insect and pest infestation. Insect resistance in host crop plants may be due to morphological, biochemical or physiological characteristics. Hairy leaves in several plants are associated with resistance to insect pests, e.g, resistance to jassids in cotton and cereal leaf beetle in wheat. In wheat, solid stems lead to non-preference by the stem sawfly and smooth leaved and nectar-less cotton varieties do not attract bollworms. High aspartic acid, low nitrogen and sugar content in maize leads to resistance to maize stem borers.

Breeding methods for insect pest resistance involve the same steps as those for any other agronomic trait such as yield or quality and are as discussed earlier. Sources of resistance genes may be cultivated varieties, germplasm collections of the crop or wild relatives.

Some released crop varieties bred by hybridisation and selection, for insect pest resistance are given in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2

Crop	Variety	Insect Pests
Brassica (rapeseed mustard)	*Pusa Gaurav*	*Aphids*
Flat bean	*Pusa Sem 2, Pusa Sem 3*	*Jassids, aphids and fruit borer*
Okra (Bhindi)	*Pusa Sawani Pusa A-4*	*Shoot and Fruit borer*

9.2.4 Plant Breeding for Improved Food Quality

More than 840 million people in the world do not have adequate food to meet their daily food and nutritional requirements. A far greater number– three billion people – suffer from micronutrient, protein and vitamin deficiencies or 'hidden hunger' because they cannot afford to buy enough fruits, vegetables, legumes, fish and meat. Diets lacking essential micronutrients – particularly iron, vitamin A, iodine and zinc – increase the risk for disease, reduce lifespan and reduce mental abilities.

Biofortification – breeding crops with higher levels of vitamins and minerals, or higher protein and healthier fats – is the most practical means to improve public health.

Breeding for improved nutritional quality is undertaken with the objectives of improving –

(i) Protein content and quality;
(ii) Oil content and quality;
(iii) Vitamin content; and
(iv) Micronutrient and mineral content.

In 2000, maize hybrids that had twice the amount of the amino acids, lysine and tryptophan, compared to existing maize hybrids were developed. Wheat variety, Atlas 66, having a high protein content, has been used as a donor for improving cultivated wheat. It has been possible to develop an iron-fortified rice variety containing over five times as much iron as in commonly consumed varieties.

The Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi has also released several vegetable crops that are rich in vitamins and minerals, e.g., vitamin A enriched carrots, spinach, pumpkin; vitamin C enriched bitter gourd, *bathua*, mustard, tomato; iron and calcium enriched spinach and *bathua*; and protein enriched beans – broad, lablab, French and garden peas.

9.3 Single Cell Protein (SCP)

Conventional agricultural production of cereals, pulses, vegetables, fruits, etc., may not be able to meet the demand of food at the rate at which human and animal population is increasing. The shift from grain to meat diets also creates more demand for cereals as it takes 3-10 Kg of grain to produce 1 Kg of meat by animal farming. *Can you explain this statement in the light of your knowledge of food chains?* More than 25 per cent of human population is suffering from hunger and malnutrition. One of the alternate sources of proteins for animal and human nutrition is **Single Cell Protein (SCP).**

Microbes are being grown on an industrial scale as source of good protein. Blue-green algae like *Spirulina* can be grown easily on materials like waste water from potato processing plants (containing starch), straw, molasses, animal manure and even sewage, to produce large quantities and can serve as food rich in protein, minerals, fats, carbohydrate and vitamins. Incidentally such utilisation also reduces environmental pollution.

Certain bacterial species like *Methylophilus methylotrophus*, because of its high rate of biomass production and growth, can be expected to produce 25 tonnes of protein. The fact that edible mushrooms are eaten by many people and large scale mushroom culture is a growing industry

makes it believable that microscopic fungi too would become acceptable as food.

9.4 Tissue Culture

As traditional breeding techniques failed to keep pace with demand and to provide sufficiently fast and efficient systems for crop improvement, another technology called **tissue culture** got developed. What does tissue culture mean? It was learnt by scientists, during 1950s, that whole plants could be regenerated from **explants,** i.e., any part of a plant taken out and grown in a test tube, under sterile conditions in special nutrient media. This capacity to generate a whole plant from any cell/explant is called **totipotency**. You will learn how to accomplish this in higher classes. It is important to stress here that the nutrient medium must provide a carbon source such as sucrose and also inorganic salts, vitamins, amino acids and growth regulators like auxins, cytokinins etc. By application of these methods it is possible to achieve propagation of a large number of plants in very short durations. This method of producing thousands of plants through tissue culture is called **micro-propagation**. Each of these plants will be genetically identical to the original plant from which they were grown, i.e., they are **somaclones**. Many important food plants like tomato, banana, apple, etc., have been produced on commercial scale using this method. Try to visit a tissue culture laboratory with your teacher to better understand and appreciate the process.

Another important application of the method is the recovery of healthy plants from diseased plants. Even if the plant is infected with a virus, the **meristem** (apical and axillary) is free of virus. Hence, one can remove the meristem and grow it *in vitro* to obtain virus-free plants. Scientists have succeeded in culturing meristems of banana, sugarcane, potato, etc.

Scientists have even isolated single cells from plants and after digesting their cell walls have been able to isolate naked protoplasts (surrounded by plasma membranes). Isolated protoplasts from two different varieties of plants – each having a desirable character – can be fused to get hybrid protoplasts, which can be further grown to form a new plant. These hybrids are called **somatic hybrids** while the process is called **somatic hybridisation**. Imagine a situation when a protoplast of tomato is fused with that of potato, and then they are grown – to form new hybrid plants combining tomato and potato characteristics. Well, this has been achieved – resulting in formation of pomato; unfortunately this plant did not have all the desired combination of characteristics for its commercial utilisation.

SUMMARY

Animal husbandry is the practice of taking care and breeding domestic animals by applying scientific principles. The ever-increasing demand of food from animals and animal products both in terms of quality and quantity has been met by good animal husbandry practices. These practices include (i) management of farm and farm animals, and (ii) animal breeding. In view of the high nutritive value of honey and its medicinal importance, there has been a remarkable growth in the practice of bee-keeping or apiculture. Fishery is another flourishing industry meeting the ever-increasing demand for fish, fish products and other aquatic foods.

Plant breeding may be used to create varieties, which are resistant to pathogens and to insect pests. This increases the yield of the food. This method has also been used to increase the protein content of the plant foods and thereby enhance the quality of food. In India, several varieties of different crop plants have been produced. All these measures enhance the production of food. Techniques of tissue culture and somatic hybridisation offer vast potential for manipulation of plants *in vitro* to produce new varieties.

EXERCISES

1. Explain in brief the role of animal husbandry in human welfare.
2. If your family owned a dairy farm, what measures would you undertake to improve the quality and quantity of milk production?
3. What is meant by the term 'breed'? What are the objectives of animal breeding?
4. Name the methods employed in animal breeding. According to you which of the methods is best? Why?
5. What is apiculture? How is it important in our lives?
6. Discuss the role of fishery in enhancement of food production.
7. Briefly describe various steps involved in plant breeding.
8. Explain what is meant by biofortification.
9. Which part of the plant is best suited for making virus-free plants and why?
10. What is the major advantage of producing plants by micropropagation?
11. Find out what the various components of the medium used for propagation of an explant *in vitro* are?
12. Name any five hybrid varieties of crop plants which have been developed in India.

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CHAPTER 10

MICROBES IN HUMAN WELFARE

Besides macroscopic plants and animals, microbes are the major components of biological systems on this earth. You have studied about the diversity of living organisms in Class XI. *Do you remember which Kingdoms among the living organisms contain micro-organisms? Which are the ones that are only microscopic?* Microbes are present everywhere – in soil, water, air, inside our bodies and that of other animals and plants. They are present even at sites where no other life-form could possibly exist–sites such as deep inside the geysers (thermal vents) where the temperature may be as high as 100°C, deep in the soil, under the layers of snow several metres thick, and in highly acidic environments. Microbes are diverse–protozoa, bacteria, fungi and microscopic animal and plant viruses, viroids and also prions that are proteinacious infectious agents. Some of the microbes are shown in Figures 10.1 and 10.2.

Microbes like bacteria and many fungi can be grown on nutritive media to form colonies (Figure 10.3), that can be seen with the naked eyes. Such cultures are useful in studies on micro-organisms.

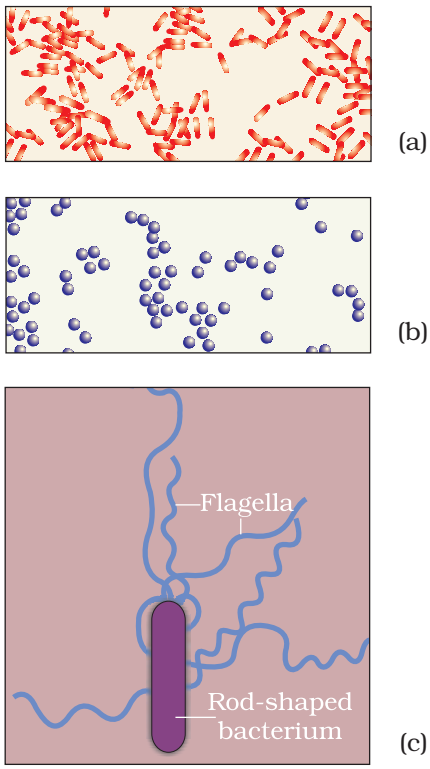

Figure 10.1 Bacteria: (a) Rod-shaped, magnified 1500X; (b) Spherical shaped, magnified1500X; (c) A rod-shaped bacterium showing flagella, magnified 50,000X

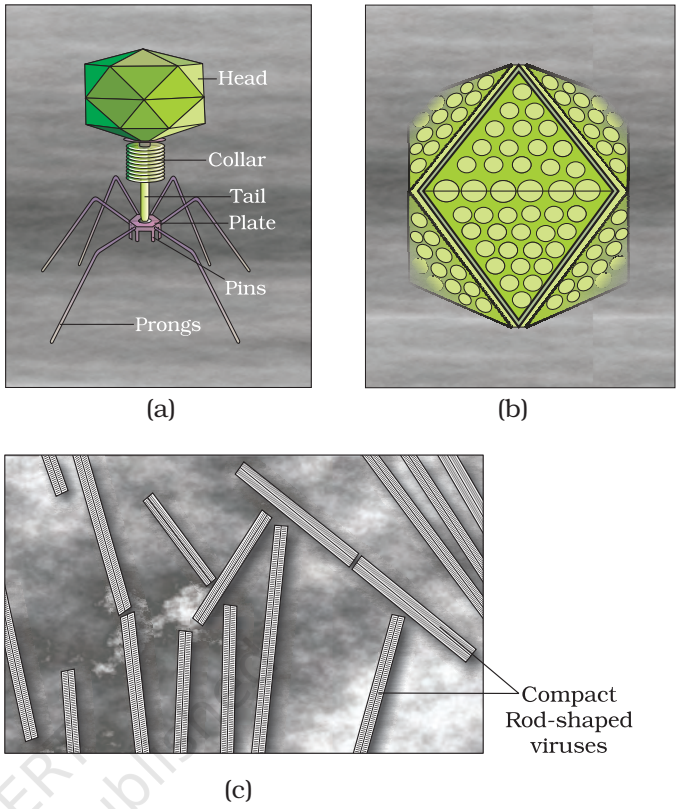

Figure 10.2 Viruses: (a) A bacteriophage; (b) Adenovirus which causes respiratory infections; (c) Rod-shaped Tobacco Mosaic Virus (TMV). Magnified about 1,00,000–1,50,000X

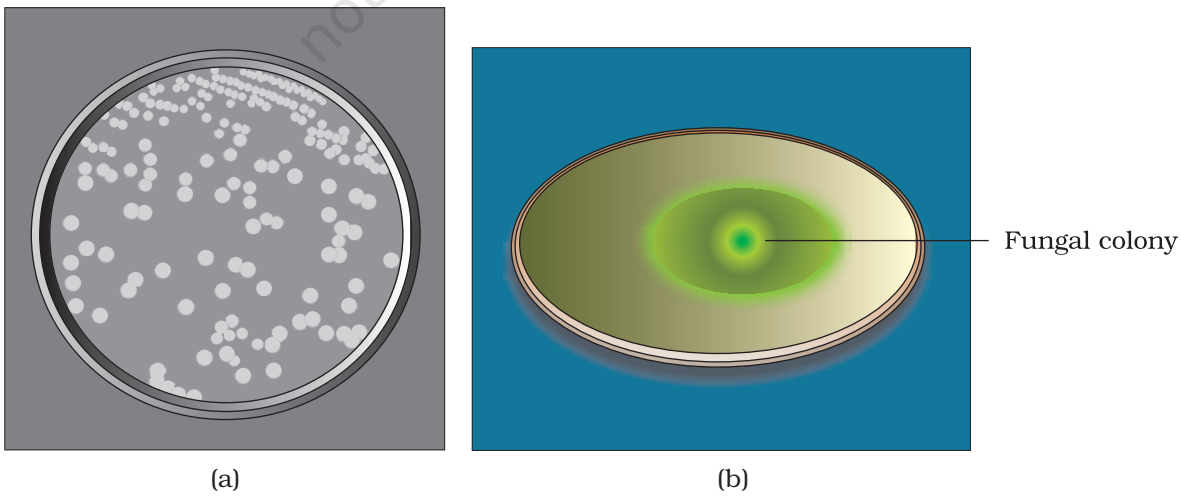

Figure 10.3 (a) Colonies of bacteria growing in a petri dish; (b) Fungal colony growing in a petri dish

In chapter 8, you have read that microbes cause a large number of diseases in human beings. They also cause diseases in animals and plants. But this should not make you think that all microbes are harmful; several microbes are useful to man in diverse ways. Some of the most important contributions of microbes to human welfare are discussed in this chapter.

10.1 Microbes in Household Products

You would be surprised to know that we use microbes or products derived from them everyday. A common example is the production of curd from milk. Micro-organisms such as *Lactobacillus* and others commonly called **lactic acid bacteria (LAB)** grow in milk and convert it to curd. During growth, the LAB produce acids that coagulate and partially digest the milk proteins. A small amount of curd added to the fresh milk as inoculum or starter contain millions of LAB, which at suitable temperatures multiply, thus converting milk to curd, which also improves its nutritional quality by increasing vitamin B_{12}. In our stomach too, the LAB play very beneficial role in checking disease-causing microbes.

The dough, which is used for making foods such as *dosa* and *idli* is also fermented by bacteria. The puffed-up appearance of dough is due to the production of CO_2 gas. *Can you tell which metabolic pathway is taking place resulting in the formation of CO_2? Where do you think the bacteria for these fermentations come from?* Similarly the dough, which is used for making bread, is fermented using baker's yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*). A number of traditional drinks and foods are also made by fermentation by the microbes. 'Toddy', a traditional drink of some parts of southern India is made by fermenting sap from palms. Microbes are also used to ferment fish, soyabean and bamboo-shoots to make foods. Cheese, is one of the oldest food items in which microbes were used. Different varieties of cheese are known by their characteristic texture, flavour and taste, the specificity coming from the microbes used. For example, the large holes in 'Swiss cheese' are due to production of a large amount of CO_2 by a bacterium named *Propionibacterium sharmanii*. The 'Roquefort cheese' are ripened by growing a specific fungi on them, which gives them a particular flavour.

10.2 Microbes in Industrial Products

Even in industry, microbes are used to synthesise a number of products valuable to human beings. Beverages and antibiotics are some examples. Production on an industrial scale, requires growing microbes in very large vessels called **fermentors** (Figure 10.4).

Figure 10.4 Fermentors

Figure 10.5 Fermentation Plant

10.2.1 Fermented Beverages

Microbes especially yeasts have been used from time immemorial for the production of beverages like wine, beer, whisky, brandy or rum. For this purpose the same yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* used for bread-making and commonly called brewer's yeast, is used for fermenting malted cereals and fruit juices, to produce ethanol. *Do you recollect the metabolic reactions, which result in the production of ethanol by yeast?* Depending on the type of the raw material used for fermentation and the type of processing (with or without distillation) different types of alcoholic drinks are obtained. Wine and beer are produced without distillation whereas whisky, brandy and rum are produced by distillation of the fermented broth. The photograph of a fermentation plant is shown in Figure 10.5.

10.2.2 Antibiotics

Antibiotics produced by microbes are regarded as one of the most significant discoveries of the twentieth century and have greatly contributed towards the welfare of the human society. *Anti* is a Greek word that means 'against', and *bio* means 'life', together they mean 'against life' (in the context of disease causing organisms); whereas with reference to human beings, they are 'pro life' and not against. Antibiotics are chemical substances, which are produced by some microbes and can kill or retard the growth of other (disease-causing) microbes.

You are familiar with the commonly used antibiotic Penicillin. Do you know that Penicillin was the first antibiotic to be discovered, and it was a chance discovery? Alexander Fleming while working on *Staphylococci* bacteria, once observed a mould growing in one of his unwashed culture plates around which *Staphylococci* could not grow. He found out that it was due to a chemical produced by the mould and he named it Penicillin after the mould *Penicillium notatum.* However, its full potential as an effective antibiotic was established much later by Ernest Chain and Howard Florey. This antibiotic was extensively used to treat American soldiers wounded in World War II. Fleming, Chain and Florey were awarded the Nobel Prize in 1945, for this discovery.

After Penicillin, other antibiotics were also purified from other microbes. *Can you name some other antibiotics and find out their sources?* Antibiotics have greatly improved our capacity to treat deadly diseases such as plague, whooping cough (*kali khansi*), diphtheria (*gal ghotu*) and leprosy (*kusht rog*), which used to kill millions all over the globe. Today, we cannot imagine a world without antibiotics.

10.2.3 Chemicals, Enzymes and other Bioactive Molecules

Microbes are also used for commercial and industrial production of certain chemicals like organic acids, alcohols and enzymes. Examples of acid producers are *Aspergillus niger* (a fungus) of citric acid, *Acetobacter aceti* (a bacterium) of acetic acid; *Clostridium butylicum* (a bacterium) of butyric acid and *Lactobacillus* (a bacterium) of lactic acid.

Yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae)* is used for commercial production of ethanol. Microbes are also used for production of enzymes. Lipases are used in detergent formulations and are helpful in removing oily stains from the laundry. You must have noticed that bottled fruit juices bought from the market are clearer as compared to those made at home. This is because the bottled juices are clarified by the use of pectinases and proteases. Streptokinase produced by the bacterium *Streptococcus* and modified by genetic engineering is used as a 'clot buster' for removing clots from the blood vessels of patients who have undergone myocardial infarction leading to heart attack.

Another bioactive molecule, cyclosporin A, that is used as an immunosuppressive agent in organ-transplant patients, is produced by the fungus *Trichoderma polysporum*. Statins produced by the yeast *Monascus purpureus* have been commercialised as blood-cholesterol lowering agents. It acts by competitively inhibiting the enzyme responsible for synthesis of cholesterol.

10.3 Microbes in Sewage Treatment

We know that large quantities of waste water are generated everyday in cities and towns. A major component of this waste water is human excreta. This municipal waste-water is also called sewage. It contains large amounts of organic matter and microbes. Many of which are pathogenic. Have you ever wondered where this huge quantity of sewage or urban waste water is disposed off daily? This cannot be discharged into natural water bodies like rivers and streams directly – you can understand why. Before disposal, hence, sewage is treated in sewage treatment plants (STPs) to make it less polluting. Treatment of waste water is done by the

Figure 10.6 Secondary treatment

heterotrophic microbes naturally present in the sewage. This treatment is carried out in two stages:

Primary treatment : These treatment steps basically involve physical removal of particles – large and small – from the sewage through filtration and sedimentation. These are removed in stages; initially, floating debris is removed by sequential filtration. Then the grit (soil and small pebbles) are removed by sedimentation. All solids that settle form the **primary sludge**, and the supernatant forms the effluent. The effluent from the primary settling tank is taken for secondary treatment.

Secondary treatment or Biological treatment : The primary effluent is passed into large aeration tanks (Figure 10.6) where it is constantly agitated mechanically and air is pumped into it. This allows vigorous growth of useful aerobic microbes into **flocs** (masses of bacteria associated with fungal filaments to form mesh like structures). While growing, these microbes consume the major part of the organic matter in the effluent. This significantly reduces the **BOD (biochemical oxygen demand)** of the effluent. BOD refers to the amount of the oxygen that would be consumed if all the organic matter in one liter of water were oxidised by bacteria. The sewage water is treated till the BOD is reduced. The BOD test measures the rate of uptake of oxygen by micro-organisms in a sample of water and thus, indirectly, BOD is a measure of the organic matter present in the water. The greater the BOD of waste water, more is its polluting potential.

Once the BOD of sewage or waste water is reduced significantly, the effluent is then passed into a settling tank where the bacterial 'flocs' are allowed to sediment. This sediment is called **activated sludge**. A small part of the activated sludge is pumped back into the aeration tank to serve as the inoculum. The remaining major part of the sludge is pumped into large tanks called **anaerobic sludge digesters**. Here, other kinds of bacteria, which grow anaerobically, digest the bacteria and the fungi in the sludge. During this digestion, bacteria produce a mixture of gases such as methane, hydrogen sulphide and carbon dioxide. These gases form **biogas** and can be used as source of energy as it is inflammable.

The effluent from the secondary treatment plant is generally released into natural water bodies like rivers and streams. An aerial view of such a plant is shown in Figure 10.7.

You can appreciate how microbes play a major role in treating millions of gallons of waste water everyday across the globe. This methodology has been practiced for more than a century now, in almost all parts of the world. Till date, no man-made technology has been able to rival the microbial treatment of sewage.

Figure 10.7 An aerial view of a sewage plant

You are aware that due to increasing urbanisation, sewage is being produced in much larger quantities than ever before. However the number of sewage treatment plants has not increased enough to treat such large quantities. So the untreated sewage is often discharged directly into rivers leading to their pollution and increase in water-borne diseases.

The Ministry of Environment and Forests has initiated **Ganga Action Plan** and **Yamuna Action Plan** to save these major rivers of our country from pollution. Under these plans, it is proposed to build a large number of sewage treatment plants so that only treated sewage may be discharged in the rivers. A visit to a sewage treatment plant situated in any place near you would be a very interesting and educating experience.

10.4 Microbes in Production of Biogas

Biogas is a mixture of gases (containing predominantly methane) produced by the microbial activity and which may be used as fuel. You have learnt that microbes produce different types of gaseous end-products during growth and metabolism. The type of the gas produced depends upon the microbes and the organic substrates they utilise. In the examples cited in relation to fermentation of dough, cheese making and production of beverages, the main gas produced was CO_2. However, certain bacteria, which grow anaerobically on cellulosic material, produce large amount of methane along with CO_2 and H_2. These bacteria are collectively called **methanogens**, and one such common bacterium is *Methanobacterium*. These bacteria are commonly found in the anaerobic sludge during sewage treatment. These bacteria are also present in the rumen (a part of stomach) of cattle. A lot of cellulosic material present in the food of cattle is also present in the rumen. In rumen, these bacteria help in the breakdown of cellulose and play an important role in the nutrition of cattle. *Do you think we, human beings, are able to digest the celluose present in our foods?* Thus, the excreta (dung) of cattle, commonly called *gobar*, is rich in these bacteria. Dung can be used for generation of biogas, commonly called *gobar gas*.

The biogas plant consists of a concrete tank (10-15 feet deep) in which bio-wastes are collected and a slurry of dung is fed. A floating cover is

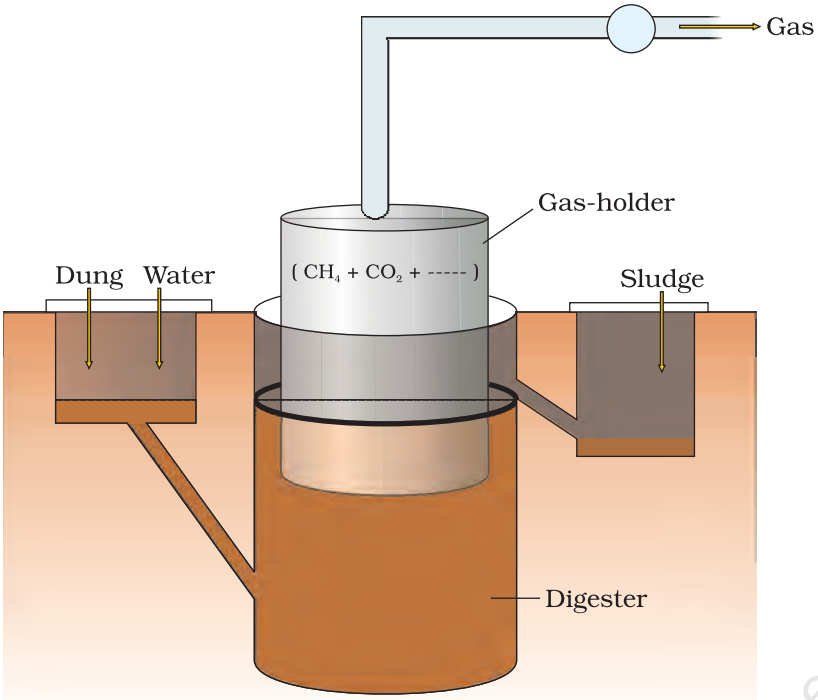

Figure 10.8 A typical biogas plant

placed over the slurry, which keeps on rising as the gas is produced in the tank due to the microbial activity. The biogas plant has an outlet, which is connected to a pipe to supply biogas to nearby houses. The spent slurry is removed through another outlet and may be used as fertiliser. Cattle dung is available in large quantities in rural areas where cattle are used for a variety of purposes. So biogas plants are more often built in rural areas. The biogas thus produced is used for cooking and lighting. The picture of a biogas plant is shown in Figure 10.8. The technology of biogas production was developed in India mainly due to the efforts of Indian Agricultural Research Institute (IARI) and Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC). If your school is situated in a village or near a village, it would be very interesting to enquire if there are any biogas plants nearby. Visit the biogas plant and learn more about it from the people who are actually managing it.

10.5 Microbes as Biocontrol Agents

Biocontrol refers to the use of biological methods for controlling plant diseases and pests. In modern society, these problems have been tackled increasingly by the use of chemicals – by use of insecticides and pesticides. These chemicals are toxic and extremely harmful, to human beings and animals alike, and have been polluting our environment (soil, ground water), fruits, vegetables and crop plants. Our soil is also polluted through our use of weedicides to remove weeds.

Biological control of pests and diseases: In agriculture, there is a method of controlling pests that relies on natural predation rather than introduced chemicals. A key belief of the organic farmer is that biodiversity furthers health. The more variety a landscape has, the more sustainable it is. The organic farmer, therefore, works to create a system where the insects that are sometimes called pests are not eradicated, but instead are kept at manageable levels by a complex system of checks and balances within a living and vibrant ecosystem. Contrary to the 'conventional' farming practices which often use chemical methods to kill both useful

and harmful life forms indiscriminately, this is a holistic approach that seeks to develop an understanding of the webs of interaction between the myriad of organisms that constitute the field fauna and flora. The organic farmer holds the view that the eradication of the creatures that are often described as pests is not only possible, but also undesirable, for without them the beneficial predatory and parasitic insects which depend upon them as food or hosts would not be able to survive. Thus, the use of biocontrol measures will greatly reduce our dependence on toxic chemicals and pesticides. An important part of the biological farming approach is to become familiar with the various life forms that inhabit the field, predators as well as pests, and also their life cycles, patterns of feeding and the habitats that they prefer. This will help develop appropriate means of biocontrol.

The very familiar beetle with red and black markings – the Ladybird, and Dragonflies are useful to get rid of aphids and mosquitoes, respectively. An example of microbial biocontrol agents that can be introduced in order to control butterfly caterpillars is the bacteria *Bacillus thuringiensis* (often written as *Bt*). These are available in sachets as dried spores which are mixed with water and sprayed onto vulnerable plants such as brassicas and fruit trees, where these are eaten by the insect larvae. In the gut of the larvae, the toxin is released and the larvae get killed. The bacterial disease will kill the caterpillars, but leave other insects unharmed. Because of the development of methods of genetic engineering in the last decade or so, the scientists have introduced *B. thuringiensis* toxin genes into plants. Such plants are resistant to attack by insect pests. **Bt-cotton** is one such example, which is being cultivated in some states of our country. You will learn more about this in chapter 12.

A biological control being developed for use in the treatment of plant disease is the fungus *Trichoderma*. *Trichoderma* species are free-living fungi that are very common in the root ecosystems. They are effective biocontrol agents of several plant pathogens.

Baculoviruses are pathogens that attack insects and other arthropods. The majority of baculoviruses used as biological control agents are in the genus *Nucleopolyhedrovirus*. These viruses are excellent candidates for species-specific, narrow spectrum insecticidal applications. They have been shown to have no negative impacts on plants, mammals, birds, fish or even on non-target insects. This is especially desirable when beneficial insects are being conserved to aid in an overall integrated pest management (IPM) programme, or when an ecologically sensitive area is being treated.

10.6 Microbes as Biofertilisers

With our present day life styles environmental pollution is a major cause of concern. The use of the chemical fertilisers to meet the ever-increasing

demand of agricultural produce has contributed significantly to this pollution. Of course, we have now realised that there are problems associated with the overuse of chemical fertilisers and there is a large pressure to switch to **organic farming** – the use of **biofertilisers**. Biofertilisers are organisms that enrich the nutrient quality of the soil. The main sources of biofertilisers are bacteria, fungi and cyanobacteria. You have studied about the nodules on the roots of leguminous plants formed by the symbiotic association of *Rhizobium*. These bacteria fix atmospheric nitrogen into organic forms, which is used by the plant as nutrient. Other bacteria can fix atmospheric nitrogen while free-living in the soil (examples *Azospirillum* and *Azotobacter*), thus enriching the nitrogen content of the soil.

Fungi are also known to form symbiotic associations with plants (**mycorrhiza**). Many members of the genus *Glomus* form mycorrhiza. The fungal symbiont in these associations absorbs phosphorus from soil and passes it to the plant. Plants having such associations show other benefits also, such as resistance to root-borne pathogens, tolerance to salinity and drought, and an overall increase in plant growth and development. *Can you tell what advantage the fungus derives from this association?*

Cyanobacteria are autotrophic microbes widely distributed in aquatic and terrestrial environments many of which can fix atmospheric nitrogen, e.g. *Anabaena*, *Nostoc*, *Oscillatoria,* etc. In paddy fields, cyanobacteria serve as an important biofertiliser. Blue green algae also add organic matter to the soil and increase its fertility. Currently, in our country, a number of biofertilisers are available commercially in the market and farmers use these regularly in their fields to replenish soil nutrients and to reduce dependence on chemical fertilisers.

SUMMARY

Microbes are a very important component of life on earth. Not all microbes are pathogenic. Many microbes are very useful to human beings. We use microbes and microbially derived products almost every day. Bacteria called lactic acid bacteria (LAB) grow in milk to convert it into curd. The dough, which is used to make bread, is fermented by yeast called *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Certain dishes such as *idli* and *dosa*, are made from dough fermented by microbes. Bacteria and fungi are used to impart particular texture, taste and flavor to cheese. Microbes are used to produce industrial products like lactic acid, acetic acid and alcohol, which are used in a variety of processes in the industry. Antibiotics like penicillins produced by useful microbes are used to kill disease-causing harmful microbes. Antibiotics have played a major role in controlling infectious diseases like diphtheria, whooping cough and

pneumonia. For more than a hundred years, microbes are being used to treat sewage (waste water) by the process of activated sludge formation and this helps in recycling of water in nature. Methanogens produce methane (biogas) while degrading plant waste. Biogas produced by microbes is used as a source of energy in rural areas. Microbes can also be used to kill harmful pests, a process called as biocontrol. The biocontrol measures help us to avoid heavy use of toxic pesticides for controlling pests. There is a need these days to push for use of biofertilisers in place of chemical fertilisers. It is clear from the diverse uses human beings have put microbes to that they play an important role in the welfare of human society.

EXERCISES

1. Bacteria cannot be seen with the naked eyes, but these can be seen with the help of a microscope. If you have to carry a sample from your home to your biology laboratory to demonstrate the presence of microbes with the help of a microscope, which sample would you carry and why?
2. Give examples to prove that microbes release gases during metabolism.
3. In which food would you find lactic acid bacteria? Mention some of their useful applications.
4. Name some traditional Indian foods made of wheat, rice and Bengal gram (or their products) which involve use of microbes.
5. In which way have microbes played a major role in controlling diseases caused by harmful bacteria?
6. Name any two species of fungus, which are used in the production of the antibiotics.
7. What is sewage? In which way can sewage be harmful to us?
8. What is the key difference between primary and secondary sewage treatment?
9. Do you think microbes can also be used as source of energy? If yes, how?
10. Microbes can be used to decrease the use of chemical fertilisers and pesticides. Explain how this can be accomplished.
11. Three water samples namely river water, untreated sewage water and secondary effluent discharged from a sewage treatment plant were subjected to BOD test. The samples were labelled A, B and C; but the laboratory attendant did not note which was which. The BOD values of the three samples A, B and C were recorded as 20mg/L, 8mg/L and 400mg/L, respectively. Which sample of the water is most polluted? Can you assign the correct label to each assuming the river water is relatively clean?

12. Find out the name of the microbes from which Cyclosporin A (an immunosuppressive drug) and Statins (blood cholesterol lowering agents) are obtained.
13. Find out the role of microbes in the following and discuss it with your teacher.
    (a) Single cell protein (SCP)
    (b) Soil
14. Arrange the following in the decreasing order (most important first) of their importance, for the welfare of human society. Give reasons for your answer.
    Biogas, Citric acid, Penicillin and Curd
15. How do biofertilisers enrich the fertility of the soil?