2020 HEREDITY (B)  
TRAINING HANDOUT

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*Life Science National Rules Committee Chairman*

**DISCLAIMER** - *This presentation was prepared using draft rules. There may be some changes in the final copy of the rules. The rules which will be in your Coaches Manual and Student Manuals will be the official rules.*

- **BE SURE TO CHECK THE 2020 EVENT RULES** for EVENT PARAMETERS and TOPICS FOR EACH COMPETITION LEVEL

**TRAINING MATERIALS:**

- **Training Power Point** presents an overview of material in the training handout
- **Training Handout** presents introductory topic content information for the event
- **Sample Tournament** has sample problems with key
- **Event Supervisor Guide** has event preparation tips, setup needs and scoring tips
- **Internet Resource & Training Materials** are available on the Science Olympiad website at [www.soinc.org](http://www.soinc.org) under Event Information.

- **A Biology-Earth Science CD, a Genetics CD for Heredity and Designer Genes** as well as the **Division B and Division C Test Packets** are available from SO store at [www.soinc.org](http://www.soinc.org)

**Content**

*Basic principles of genetics*

*Common genetic disorders will apply at all levels*

**Process Skills** – data analysis, predictions, calculations, inferences, observations

**Areas at the various levels to be tested will include:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regional and State Tournament Topics</th>
<th>National Tournament Topics (all Regional &amp; State topics + the following)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monohybrid cross</td>
<td>Dihybrid cross</td>
</tr>
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<td>Dominant and recessive alleles</td>
<td>Sex-linked traits</td>
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<td>Genotype vs. phenotype</td>
<td>Pedigree analysis</td>
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<td>Human sex determination</td>
<td>Multiple alleles</td>
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<td>Mitosis, Meiosis and gamete formation</td>
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<td>Human karyotypes analysis for nondisjunction disorders</td>
<td>Co-dominance &amp; incomplete dominance</td>
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</table>

**Note:** This event may be run as stations but it need not be. The best competition is as stations using process skills and problem solving.
POSSIBLE PROBLEM TYPES

Use the Practice Activities and Sample Tournament for Heredity to practice for competitions.

- Monohybrid crosses with dominant/recessive,
- Incomplete dominance
- Test crosses
- Codominance as blood types
- Multiple alleles
- Dihybrid Crosses (with two traits) illustrating homozygous/heterozygous dominant/recessive, incomplete dominance, epistasis, sex linkage, and lethal gene
- Interpretation of Trihybrid Crosses
- Genotype and phenotype ratios or probabilities based upon stated crosses
- Common genetic disorders and the types of genes that cause them
- Karyotype analysis
- Pedigree analysis
- Mitosis and/or meiosis stages to identify, analyze and compare
- Data on time or number of individuals in each phase of mitosis for data analysis
- DNA structure and replication
- Gene Expression (Transcription of RNA from DNA and Translation - Protein Synthesis)
- Problems involving Multifactorial Inheritance
PRINCIPLES OF GENETICS

Basic Principles

gene - a unit of inheritance that usually is directly responsible for one trait or character. Each individual has two genes for each trait, one comes from dad and the other from mom.

allele - alternate forms of a gene. Usually there are two alleles for every gene, sometimes there are more than two alleles present in population – termed multiple alleles

homozygous - when the two alleles are the same
heterozygous - when the two alleles are different

dominant - a trait (allele) that is expressed irregardless of the second allele
recessive - a trait that is only expressed when the second allele is the same (e.g. short plants are homozygous for the recessive allele)

- Dominant – always expressed
  o Capital letters – N
  o Homozygous - NN
  o Heterozygous - Nn
- Recessive – prevented by dominant
  o Lower case letters – n
  o Homozygous - nn

punnett square - probability diagram illustrating the possible offspring of a mating male genes on top of columns and female traits on side of rows

Dominant and Recessive

Autosomal Dominant - dominant gene on an autosome
Autosomal Recessive - recessive gene on an autosome
Sex-linked Dominant - dominant gene on a sex chromosome
Sex-linked Recessive – recessive gene on a sex chromosome

Genotype and Phenotype

phenotype - the physical expression of the genes for the trait by an individual
genotype - the gene makeup of an organism. Phenotype is the trait of an individual expresses while genotype is the two genes that cause that trait
**Monohybrid Cross** – a cross involving only one trait. (phenotype ratio – 3:1 and genotype ratio 1:2:1)

- **hybrid** – an individual who has one dominant and one recessive gene for a trait

- Hybrid – Ss X Ss
- One Trait – Smooth vs wrinkled
- Two gametes per parent
- S and s
- Punnett Square with 4 boxes – 4 offspring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>Phenotype</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS or Ss</td>
<td>Round</td>
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<tr>
<td>ss</td>
<td>Wrinkled</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Genotype frequency
1:2:1

Phenotype frequency
3:1

**Dihybrid Cross** – a cross involving two traits. (phenotype ratio-9:3:3:1 and genotype ratio- 1:2:1:2:4:2:1:2:1)

- **Dihybrid** – 2 traits
- Gametes per parent = 4
- Punnett Square – 16 boxes
- Genotype ratio
  1:2:1:2:4:2:1:2:1
- Phenotype ratio
  9:3:3:1

**Trihybrid Cross**

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**Phenotypes:**
- normal
- albinos
- anerythric
- striped
- snow
- striped-albino
- striped-anery
- striped-snow
Incomplete Dominance

Incomplete dominance – one allele (gene) is not completely dominant over another resulting in a blending of traits and where the phenotype of a hybrid displays a blending of the two alleles

Incomplete dominance –

- **Hybrid** is a blend of two traits
- **Genotype frequency**
  
  1:2:1
- **Phenotype frequency**
  
  1:2:1
- **Examples:** Flowers, Animal fur

Co-dominance

codominance – both dominant alleles (genes) in an individual are expressed as in blood types

Blood types – A,B,O alleles

A and B genes are co-dominant and both dominant over the O gene which is recessive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phenotypes</th>
<th>Genotype</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>I^AIA^A or I^Aa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>I^BIB^B or I^Bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>I^AI^B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The ABO Blood System**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Blood Type (genotype)</th>
<th>Type A (AA, AO)</th>
<th>Type B (BB, BO)</th>
<th>Type AB (AB)</th>
<th>Type O (OO)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Red Blood Cell Surface Proteins (phenotype)</td>
<td>A antiglobulins only</td>
<td>B antiglobulins only</td>
<td>A and B antiglobulins</td>
<td>No antiglobulins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma Antibodies (phenotype)</td>
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<td>a and b agglutinin</td>
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</table>
Independent Assortment vs. Linkage

- **Independent Assortment** – genes on different chromosomes separate independently during meiosis
- **Linkage** – genes on the same chromosome are inherited as a group
  - **Autosomal linkage** – on autosomes
  - **Sex-linked** – on sex chromosomes

**Linkage – Sex Linkage**

- **Linkage** – genes on the same chromosome inherited as a group
- **Sex-linkage** – genes on sex chromosomes (esp. X)
- **Y-chromosome shorter** – some genes from X missing
- **X-linked traits more common in men**
- **Men get X-chromosome from mom**
- **Red-green colorblindness, hemophilia**

**sex-linkage** – allele (gene) is located on a sex chromosome and it will be more common in one sex.
- It is usually on the x-chromosome and more common in males than in females.
- Barr bodies – tightly coiled X chromosome in females – inactive X chromosome.
- Calico cats – usually on females. yellow and black alleles on X chromosome - female has 2 X’s

**Genetic Variations**

- **Probability** – ratios or percents
- **Multiple Alleles** – three or more alleles for a gene as blood type as skin color
- **Multifactorial Traits** – more than 1 pair of genes plus environment
- **Pleiotrophy** – the action of an allele (gene) affects many parts of the body as sickle cell anemia
- **Variable expressivity** – an allele (gene) can be expressed differently in different people

**Environmental influence on genes expression**

- Gene function is influenced by environment as with identical twins
- Genes have blueprint for proteins or parts of proteins
- Proteins can be structural proteins (parts of body) or functional proteins (hormones/enzymes)

**Epistasis and Multifactorial Inheritance**

- **Epistasis** - the interaction between two or more genes to control a single phenotype so one pair of genes alters the expression of another pair of genes as albino
- **Multifactorial inheritance** - many factors (multifactorial) both genetic and environmental are involved in producing the trait or condition. Examples: height, weight, cleft palate, spina bifida
Pedigree Analysis

Pedigree is a family tree.

Squares are males and circles are females

Generations = I – Original Parents
II- F1 (children)
III – F2 (grandchildren)

Symbols Used in Pedigree Analysis

- □ Male
- ○ Female
- ± Mating between individuals
- ± Mating between close relatives
- □ or ● Affected individual
- Ⅰ Parents (top row) and their offspring (bottom row) listed in birth order. Roman numerals indicate generations; arabic numbers indicate birth order within a generation
- □ or ● Propositus (male) or proposita (female). First case in family that was identified.
- □ or ○ Heterozygotes
- ○ Identical (monozygotic) twins
- ● X-linked carrier
- □ or □ Nonidentical (fraternal) twins
d. 1968 d. 1982
- □ ? Questionable whether individual had trait
Karyotype Analysis - karyotype is print of human chromosomes

- **nondisjunction** – chromosomes do not separate during meiosis.
- Results in monosomy and trisomy

**Karyotype Characteristics:**

- The numbered chromosome pairs termed autosomes are arranged longest to shortest
- Chromosomes come in pairs
- The sex (X & Y) chromosomes are placed last with normal females having XX and normal males having XY
- If only X chromosomes are present, it will be female
- If X and Y chromosomes are present, it will be male
- Bent chromosomes are not abnormal. It is just the way they were photographed
- If an individual has an extra chromosome, it is termed **trisomy** and if a chromosome is missing, it is termed **monosomy**

![Karyotype 1](image1)

**Karyotype 1**

Male with Monosomy 7

![Karyotype 2](image2)

**Karyotype 2**

Female with Trisomy 21
Regions of Chromosome for Replication

Heterochromatin vs Euchromatin

Heterochromatin DNA is generally not very active
In interphase this type of chromatin are compact
Heterochromatin also has long stretches of repeat sequences called
satellite DNA
Euchromatin is generally more active
In interphase they are generally not condensed

![Image of Chromosome](image)

Difference between heterochromatin and euchromatin

- **Heterochromatin** is a part of chromosome, a tightly packed form of DNA whereas **euchromatin** is an uncoiled form of chromatin.
- Heterochromatin has tighter DNA packing than euchromatin.
- Heterochromatin stains dark in interphase whereas euchromatin stains lightly with basic dyes but stains dark during mitosis, when it is in condensed state during each repetition of the cell cycle.
- Heterochromatin contains more number of DNA compare to euchromatin.
- Heterochromatin found in eukaryotes whereas euchromatin found in both eukaryotes and prokaryotes.
- Heterochromatin is genetically inactive and euchromatin is genetically active.
- Heterochromatin is late replicative whereas euchromatin is early replicative.
MITOSIS, MEIOSIS, ASEXUAL VS. SEXUAL REPRODUCTION

Cell Cycle – the life cycle of a cell

**G₀ Phase** – Cells that go into this phase when not actively reproducing as muscle or nerve cells

**G₁ Phase** – high rate of biosynthesis and growth

**S Phase** – DNA content doubles and chromosomes replicate

**G₂ Phase** - final preparations for Mitosis

**M Phase** – Mitosis and Cytokinesis

A. **Prophase** – chromatid pairs coil up, spindle forms, nuclear membrane dissolves, chromatid pairs attach to spindle fibers (microtubules),

B. **Metaphase** – chromatid pairs move to the equator, chromatid pairs align at the equator,

C. **Anaphase** – chromatids separate into individual chromosomes, chromosomes are pulled apart toward the equator by the spindle fibers (microtubules)

D. **Telophase** - chromosomes uncoil, spindle dissolves, nuclear membrane reforms

E. **Cytokinesis** – division of the cytoplasm to make two new cells
Mitosis vs Meiosis

Mitosis type of cell reproduction which produces two daughter cells that are genetically identical to the parent cell.

- **Growth and Asexual Reproduction**
- **One division – 2 diploid cells**
- **Genetically same as original**

Meiosis type of cell reproduction which produces 4 cells which half the number of chromosomes as the original parent cell

- **Gametes for Sexual Reproduction**
- **2 divisions – 4 haploid cells**

**Sexual Reproduction** – reproduction involving two parents – male and female.

**Asexual Reproduction** – reproduction involving only one parent. Offspring genetically the same as the parent.

**Cloning** – asexual reproduction.

Stages of Meiosis I

- The first meiotic phase is **prophase 1**.
- As in mitosis, the nuclear membrane dissolves, chromosomes develop from the chromatins, and the centrosomes push apart, creating the spindle apparatus.
- The tight pairing of the homologous chromosomes is called **synapsis**
- These paired up chromosomes—two from each parent—are called **tetrads**.
- The point the points of contact, the physical link, between two (non-sister) chromatids belonging to homologous chromosomes is the **chiasmata**
- Homologous (similar) chromosomes from both parents pair up and **may** exchange DNA in a process known as **crossing over**. This results in genetic diversity.
- In **metaphase 1**, some of the spindle fibers attach to the chromosomes' centromeres.
- The fibers pull the tetrads into a vertical line along the center of the cell.
- **Anaphase 1** is when the tetrads are pulled apart from each other, with half the pairs going to one side of the cell and the other half going to the opposite side.
- It is important to understand that whole chromosomes are moving in this process, not chromatids, as is the case in mitosis.
- At some point between the end of anaphase 1 and the developments of **telophase 1**, cytokinesis begins splitting the cell into two daughter cells.
- In telophase 1, the spindle apparatus dissolves, and nuclear membranes develop around the chromosomes that are now found at opposite sides of the parent cell / new cells.
Stages of Meiosis II

- In **prophase 2**, centrosomes form and push apart in the two new cells.
- A spindle apparatus develops, and the cells' nuclear membranes dissolve.
- Spindle fibers connect to chromosome centromeres in **metaphase 2** and line the chromosomes up along the cell equator.
- During **anaphase 2**, the chromosomes' centromeres break, and the spindle fibers pull the chromatids apart.
- The two split portions of the cells are officially known as "sister chromosomes" at this point. As in telophase 1, **telophase 2** is aided by cytokinesis, which splits both cells yet resulting in four haploid cells called gametes. Nuclear membranes develop in these cells, which again enter their own interphases.

Gamete Formation

- Spermogenesis – 4 mature sperm cells from meiosis.
- Oogenesis – 1 egg and 3 polar bodies
### Comparison of Mitosis and Meiosis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interphase</th>
<th>Prophase</th>
<th>Metaphase</th>
<th>Anaphase</th>
<th>Telophase</th>
<th>Resulting Cells</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mitosis</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Diploid</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chromatin Material</td>
<td>Centriole</td>
<td>Asters</td>
<td>Chromatids line up by 2’s</td>
<td>Independent Chromosomes</td>
<td>Cytokinesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nucleolus DNA Replicates</td>
<td>Chromatoids</td>
<td>Spindle Fiber</td>
<td>Centromere</td>
<td>Separate &amp; Move To Poles</td>
<td>Genetically Identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meiosis I</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Diploid</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sperm Reproduction DNA Replicate</td>
<td>Tetrad</td>
<td>Synapsis Occurs To Form A Tetrad</td>
<td>Chromatids line up by 4’s</td>
<td>Chromatid Pairs</td>
<td>Separate &amp; Move To Poles</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Meiosis II</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Haploid</td>
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<tr>
<td>DNA does “not” Replicates</td>
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<td>Independent Chromosomes</td>
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<td>Sperm Cells</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** no crossing over is shown in meiosis
CENTRAL DOGMA OF MOLECULAR GENETICS

- Central dogma of molecular genetics is DNA → RNA → Protein.
- Exceptions among viruses – RNA to DNA (retroviruses) - Exception is in retroviruses where genetic storage vehicle is RNA. It then makes a DNA which replicates to form double stranded DNA and continues through dogma.

DNA Structure

DNA structure – double helix with sugar (deoxyribose), phosphate and nitrogen bases (Adenine, thymine, guanine, and cytosine) Pairing – AT and GC
Nucleotide - basic unit of sugar, phosphate and nitrogen base
  - Double helix
  - Antiparallel – 3’ to 5’
  - Nucleotide consists of a sugar (Deoxyribose), a phosphate and a nitrogen base
  - There are 4 different nitrogen bases: Adenine, Thymine, Guanine, and Cytosine
  - When nucleotides pair – adenine always pairs with thymine and guanine always pairs with cytosine
DNA Replication

- DNA uncoils and splits
- Template strand is read 3’ to 5’
- New complementary strand must add new nucleotides to the 3’ end –
- New nucleotides added 5’ to 3’
- Leading strand (continuous)
- Lagging strand adds fragments (Okazaki fragments)
- Fragments attached with the enzyme ligase
DNA Repair - Genes encode proteins that correct mistakes in DNA caused by incorrect copying during replication and environmental factors such as by-products of metabolism, exposure to ultraviolet light or mutagens. The DNA repair process must operate constantly to correct any damage to the DNA as soon as it occurs.

**Gene** – section of DNA with carries the blueprint for making a protein or part of a protein

**Mutations** - changes in genetic code of genes or chromosomes and causes

**Causes of mutations** – chemicals, radiation, temperature

**Exons** – genes (5%) and **Introns** – between genes (95%)

**Differences between DNA and RNA**

- Differences between RNA & DNA
  - RNA is single strand - DNA is double strand
  - RNA has Ribose – DNA has Deoxyribose
  - RNA has Uracil – DNA has Thymine

**GENE EXPRESSION**

**Transcription and Translation** utilize the DNA template code to ultimately produce proteins:

- **Transcription** – DNA is template for making RNA (in nucleus)
  - There are 3 types of RNA.

- **Translation (protein synthesis)** - in cytoplasm at the ribosome. M-RNA has blueprint, T-RNA transfers amino acids, and Ribosome (R-RNA) allows T-RNA to attach to M-RNA at appropriate site.

- Many factors control gene expression including:
  - factors affecting DNA structure,
  - gene expression,
  - factors affecting assembly of proteins after translation,
  - hormones,
  - environmental factors as viruses.
Transcription

**Transcription**: Synthesis of RNA from a DNA Template.
- Requires DNA-dependent RNA polymerase plus the four nucleotides (ATP, GTP, CTP and UTP).
- Synthesis begins at the initiation site on DNA
- The template strand is read 3' to 5' and the mRNA is synthesized 5' to 3'

**Types of RNA** – three kinds of RNA
- **Messenger RNA** – carries genetic code from DNA into cytoplasm
- **Transfer RNA** – transfers amino acids for building of protein
- **Ribosomal RNA** – reads the code of M-RNA and allow T-RNA to attach

**Post-transcription Modifications**
RNA’s are modified in eukaryotes before leaving the nucleus.
- PreM-RNA has **exons** (coding segments) and **introns** (noncoding segments between exons)
- **introns** (the noncoding segments) are removed
- a cap is added to the 5’ end
- a poly A tail is added to the 3’ end before it leaves the nucleus
Universal Code (Codon = Amino Acid)

Interpreting the Code:

This chart gives the three base codon for the RNA and its Amino Acid

- Each three base codon on the messenger RNA (m-RNA) is a code for an amino acid
- There are 64 possible three base codons – 61 are codes for one of the 20 amino acids
- The three remaining codons are termed **stop codons** because the signal the end of a peptide segment
- Notice that many of the amino acids have more than one codon
- A three base **code** on the DNA produces the **mRNA codon**
- **Stop codons** –of UAA, UAG, UGA are formed by the DNA coding strand at ATT, ATC, ACT
- The three base code on the **t RNA** is termed an **anticodon** because it will bond to a m-RNA codon during translation or protein synthesis
Translation

**Translation** – genetic code used to form amino acid sequence using M-RNA, T-RNA, and R-RNA – it occurs in the cytoplasm at the ribosome.
Mutations
- Mutation – any change in the DNA
- Gene mutation
- Chromosomal mutation
- Agents causing mutations – radiation, chemicals, excess heat

Genetic Disorders
- Causes of mutations – chemicals, radiation, temperature, viruses
- Nondisjunction – chromatids do not separate properly during meiosis. Individual formed from such gametes have extra or missing chromosomes, as Down’s Syndrome
- Trinucleotide repeats – sequences of 3 nucleotides is repeated, often several times in a gene when too many repeats are formed – cause genetic disorders triplet nucleotides -repeated too often as Huntington’s
- Defective genes – does not produce correct protein as sickle cell anemia (A & T traded places)
- Genetic disorders and their causes as nondisjunction (Down’s syndrome), trinucleotide repeats (fragile X and Huntington’s), defective genes (sickle cell anemia, hemophilia)
- Human genetic disorders – can be dominant, recessive, sex-linked, epistatic, variable expressed
- Crossover frequency – during meiosis, pieces trade places – determining frequency

Examples of Human Genetic Disorders

Autosomal Dominant
- Huntington Disease - degenerative brain disorder which results in loss of both mental and physical abilities-- adult onset generally
- Marfan Syndrome - disorder of connective tissue affecting the heart, blood vessels, lungs, eyes, bones, and ligaments
- syndactyly – webbing between toes and fingers
- Polycystic Kidney Disease - a disease which causes cysts to grow on a person's kidneys (and liver); the third leading cause of kidney failure in the United States
- Brachdactyly – short fingers
- Myotonic Dystrophy – a disorder that causes muscle weakness and the inability of muscles to relax after use.
- porphyria - a group of disorders caused by a deficiency of an enzyme in the pathway for making heme (a component of hemoglobin)-- this causes a variety of symptoms: sensitivity to light, mental changes which border on insanity, itchy and blistering skin, dark colored urine, abdominal pain and cramping, and hairiness
- achondroplasia – growth defect causing abnormal body proportions, the arms and legs are very short while the torso is normal in size.
- chronic simple glaucoma – increased pressure inside the eyeball
- hypercholesterolemia -excessive levels of cholesterol in the blood stream
- polydactyly – extra toes and fingers
- Ehlers-Danlos Syndrome - connective tissue disorders characterized by articular hypermobility (the ability to flex joints beyond the "normal" range), skin hyperelasticity (the ability to stretch the skin away from the body), and fragile skin and tissues (easy bruising and easily ruptured skin and blood vessels).
- Neurofibromatosis - trait characterized by cafe-au-lait ("coffee and milk" pigmented skin) spots and small tumor-like growths on or under the skin-- deformation of bones and curvature of the spine can also be symptoms
• **nonsyndromic deafness** – hearing loss due to a defective gene. Most defects affect the structure of the inner ear

• **Congenital cataracts** – clouding of the lens in the eye

• **Familial high cholesterol** – high cholesterol levels

**Autosomal Recessive**

• **Tay-Sachs Disease** - a degenerative disorder causing death usually by age 5 – Jewish heritage

• **sickle cell anemia** - disease causing the red blood cells in the body to have a sickle shape (not a round shape). These sickle shapes can block veins, arteries, and capillaries and cause blood flow to an area to be stopped for a while. This can have serious side effects such as tissue death and stroke.

• **Beta thalassemia (Cooley's Anemia)** - a defect in the beta chain of hemoglobin resulting in severe anemia

• **galactosemia** – individuals lack the enzyme that helps the body break down galactose.

• **albinism (Oculocutaneous)** - disorder characterized by absence of pigment in hair, skin, and eyes

• **agammaglobulinemia** – defect that causes the absence of the white blood cells (B cells) causing recurrent bacterial infections

• **phenylketonuria** - individuals with PKU cannot digest the amino acid phenylalanine (part of many proteins)-- levels of phenylalanine rise in the bloodstream and cause brain damage

• **cystic fibrosis** - A disease caused by defective chloride transport that leads to high levels of mucus in the lungs and pancreas, high sweat chloride levels, and other digestive and respiratory problems.

**Sex-linked**

**X- dominant**

• **ichthyosis simplex** (d) Ichthyosis is a form of severe dry skin that causes affected areas to look like fish scales

• **Hypertrichosis** - generalized hairiness covering the whole body

**X- linked recessive**

• **hemophilia** (r) - There is a defect in blood coagulation factor VIII which prevents blood clotting. This causes hemorrhage, easy bruising, and prolonged bleeding from wounds.

• **red-green colorblindness** (r) – unable to distinguish between red and green

• **Duchenne's muscular dystrophy** (r) - a disease that begins to affect individuals between the ages 2 and 6. It causes muscle wasting and weakness. This can eventually affect all muscles of the body. Generally by age 10-12 affected individuals become confined to a wheelchair.

• **Anhidrotic Ectodermal Dysplasia** - a group of disorders characterized by the absence of sweat glands, abnormal teeth, and hypotrichosis (less hair than normal)

• **Fragile X Syndrome** - A disorder that causes various levels of mental impairment-- from learning disabilities to severe retardation, both combined with delayed speech and language development. caused by more than 200 repeats of the trinucleotide CGG. Karyotypes of individuals with Fragile X Syndrome appear to be missing a small piece of the X chromosome near the end.

• **Lesch-Nyhan Disease** - the absence of an enzyme HPRT (hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase) causes an accumulation of uric acid in the urine and self-mutilative behavior
**Y-linked**

- **Hairy ears** - hair grows on the pinnae of the ears-- in some cases it is quite thick; in others it is only one or two long hairs

**Nondisjunction**

**Autosomes:**

- **Down's syndrome (trisomy 21)** - an extra copy of the 21st chromosome-- generally through non-disjunction but occasionally the extra copy of critical chromosome material can be as a result of translocation causing a combination of birth defects including some mental retardation and characteristic facial features
- **monosomy 21** – a chromosome missing in pair 21.

**Sex Chromosomes:**

- monosomy X (Turner's syndrome)
- trisomy X
- XXY (Klinefelter's syndrome)
- XYY
- XXXX or XXXY

**Multifactorial Inheritance** (many genes + environment)

- cleft palate and/or lip
- club foot
- congenital dislocation of the hip
- spina bifida (open spine)
- hydrocephalus (with spina bifida)
- pyloric stenosis
- diabetes mellitus – Type I diabetes - Individuals do not produce insulin and must take shots of insulin to control their blood glucose levels
- **Breast Cancer** - multi-factorial- two genes have recently been identified inherited in an autosomal dominant fashion that increase susceptibility to breast cancer. These genes are known as BRCA1 and BRCA2. They are responsible for a very small proportion of all cases, particularly those which affect women at a younger age.
Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

- Technique for quickly making an unlimited number of copies of any piece of DNA
- Sometimes called "molecular photocopying"