

Variations in Chromosome Structure & Function

Ch. 8

INTRODUCTION

- **Genetic variation** refers to differences between members of the same species or those of different species
 - **Allelic variations** are due to mutations in particular genes
 - **Chromosomal aberrations** are substantial changes in chromosome structure
 - These typically affect more than one gene
 - They are also called **chromosomal mutations**

Alterations in Chromosome Structure

- There are two primary ways in which the structure of chromosomes can be altered
 - 1. The total amount of genetic information in the chromosome can change
 - Decrease: Deficiencies/Deletions
 - Increase: Duplications & Insertions
 - 2. The genetic material may remain the same, but is rearranged
 - Inversions
 - Translocations

Alterations in Chromosome Structure

■ Deletion

- loss of a chromosomal segment

■ Duplication

- repetition of a chromosomal segment

– Inversion

- A change in the direction of genetic material along a single chromosome

■ Translocation

- A segment of one chromosome becomes attached to a nonhomologous chromosome

- Simple translocations

- One way transfer

- Reciprocal translocations

- Two way transfer

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Deletions

- part of a chromosome is missing
- Deletions start with chromosome breaks induced by:
 - Heat or radiation (especially ionizing).
 - Viruses.
 - Chemicals.
 - Transposable elements.
 - Errors in recombination.
- Deletions do not revert, because the DNA is gone (degraded)

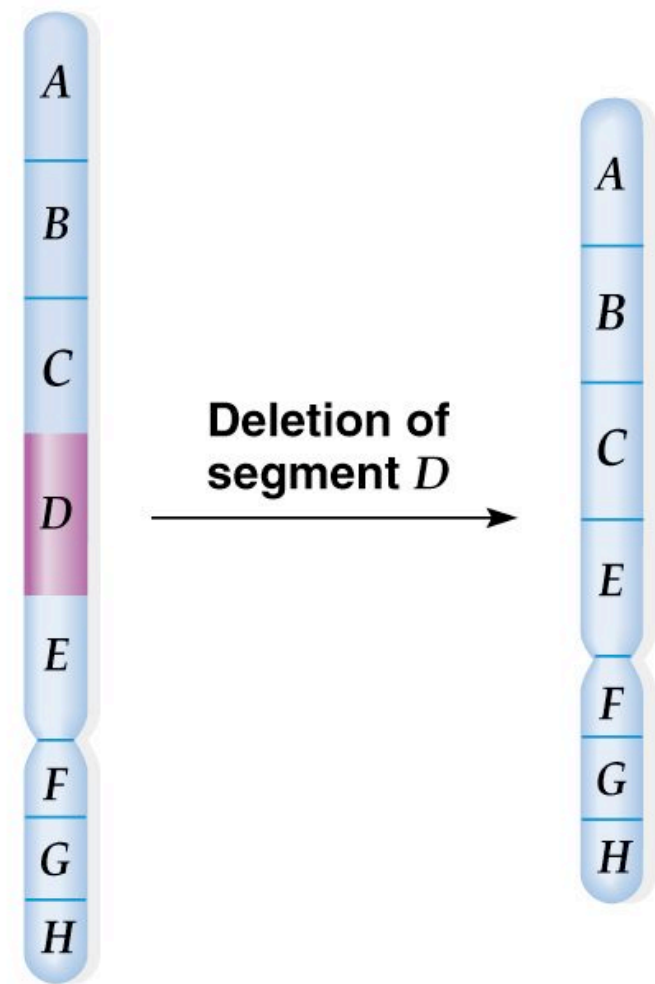


Fig. 8.2 A deletion of a chromosome segment

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Deletions

- The effect of a deletion depends on what was deleted.
 - A deletion in one allele of a homozygous wild-type organism may give a normal phenotype
 - while the same deletion in the wild-type allele of a heterozygote would produce a mutant phenotype.
 - Deletion of the centromere results in an acentric chromosome that is lost, usually with serious or lethal consequences.
 - No known living human has an entire autosome deleted from the genome.

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Deletions

- Human disorders caused by large chromosomal deletions are generally seen in heterozygotes, since homozygotes usually die.
 - The number of gene copies is important.
 - Syndromes result from the loss of several to many genes.
- Examples of human disorders caused by large chromosomal deletions:
 - Cri-du-chat (“cry of the cat”) syndrome (OMIM 123450), resulting from deletion of part of the short arm of chromosome 5 (Figure 8.4).
 - The deletion results in severe mental retardation and physical abnormalities.

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Duplications

- Duplications result from doubling of chromosomal segments, and occur in a range of sizes and locations (Figure 8.5).

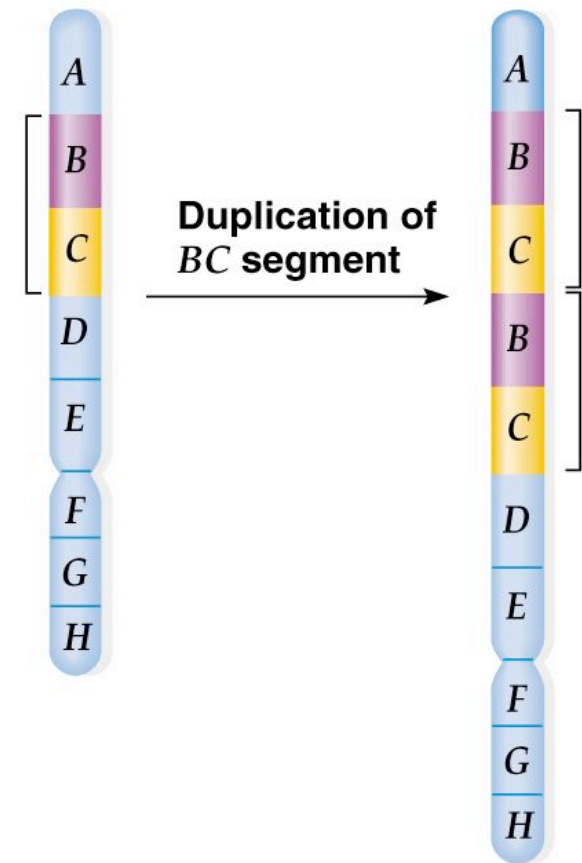
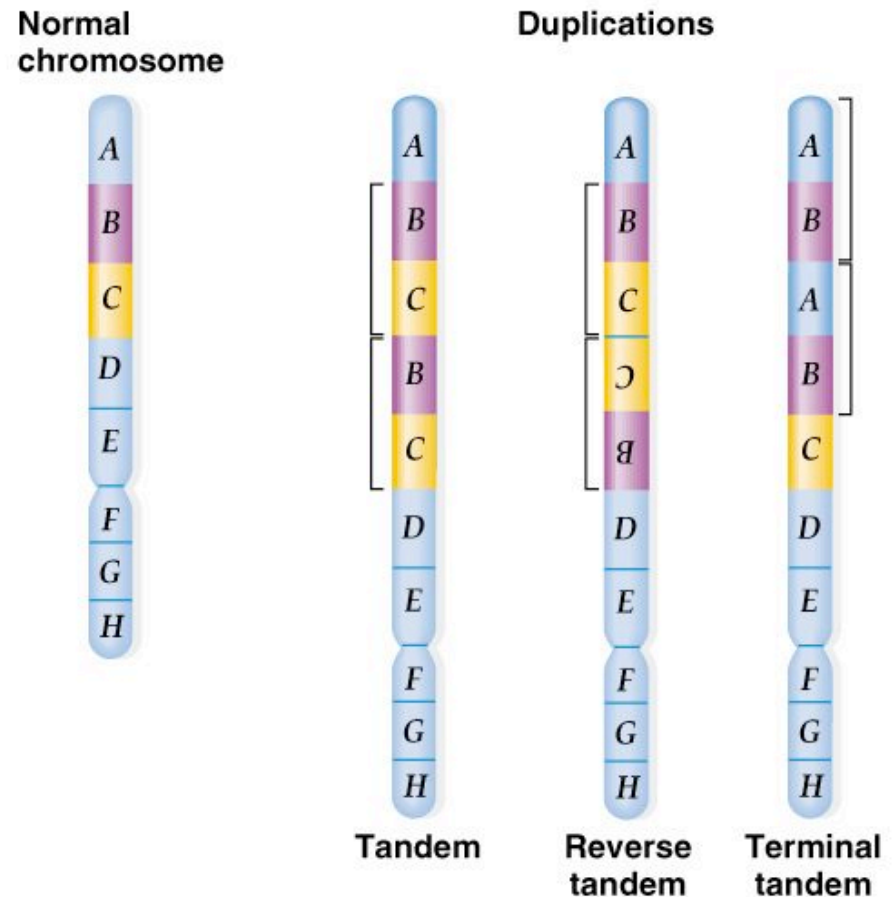


Fig. 8.5 Duplication, with a chromosome segment repeated

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Duplications

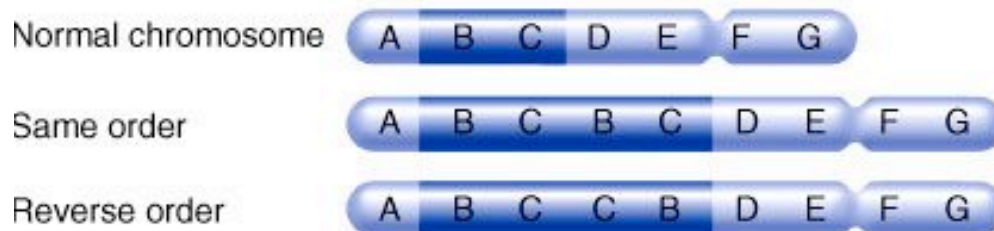
- Tandem duplications are adjacent to each other.
 - Reverse tandem duplications result in genes arranged in the opposite order of the original.
 - Tandem duplication at the end of a chromosome is a terminal tandem duplication
- (Figure 8.6).



Duplications add material to the genome

(a) Types of duplications

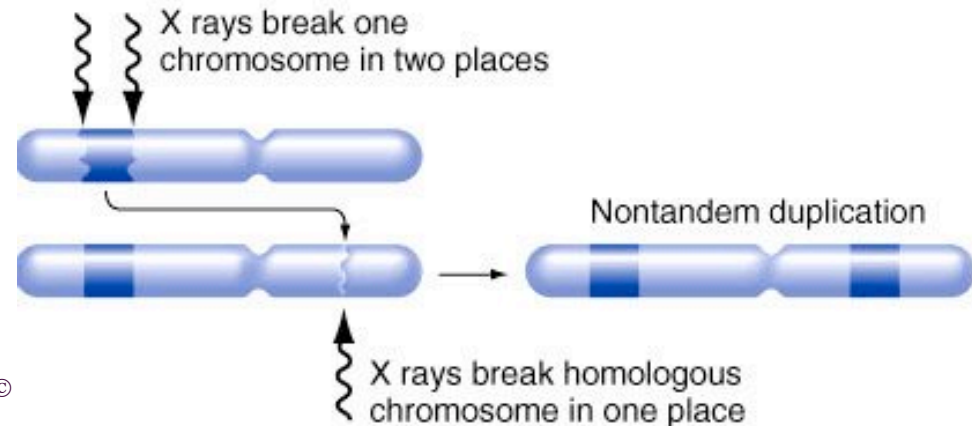
Tandem duplications



Nontandem (dispersed) duplications



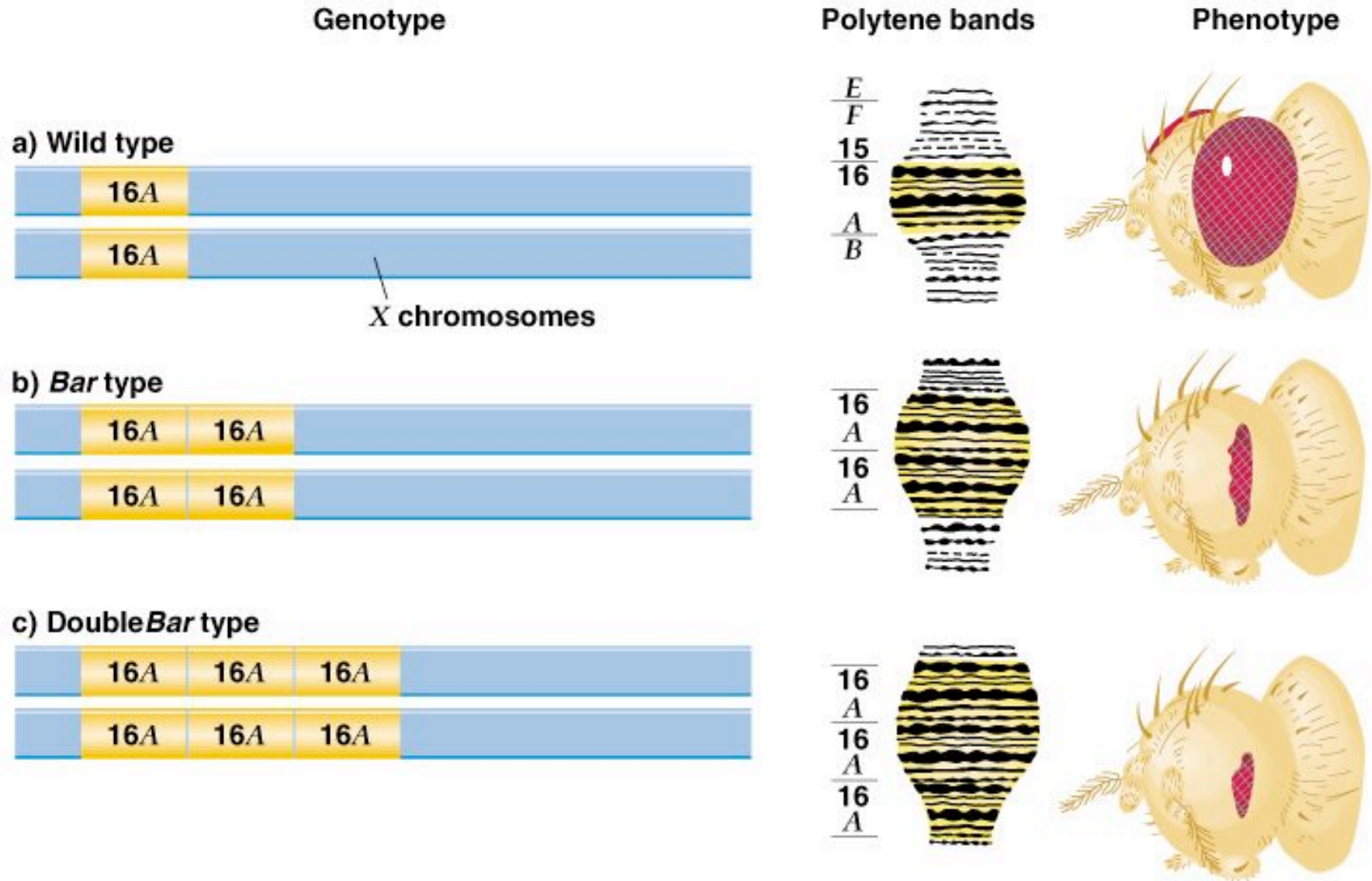
(b) Chromosome breakage can produce duplications



Variations in Chromosome Structure: Duplications

- An example is the *Drosophila* eye shape allele, *Bar*, that reduces the number of eye facets, giving the eye a slit-like rather than oval appearance
- (Figure 8.7).
 - The *Bar* allele resembles an incompletely dominant mutation:
 - Females heterozygous for *Bar* have a kidney-shaped eye that is larger and more faceted than that in a female homozygous for *Bar*.
 - Males hemizygous for *Bar* have slit-like eyes like those of a *Bar/Bar* female.
 - Cytological examination of chromosomes showed that the *Bar* allele results from duplication of a small segment (16A) of the X chromosome.

Fig. 8.7 Chromosome of *Drosophila* strains



Duplication loops form when chromosomes pair in duplication heterozygotes

(c) Different kinds of duplication loops

Duplicated chromosome

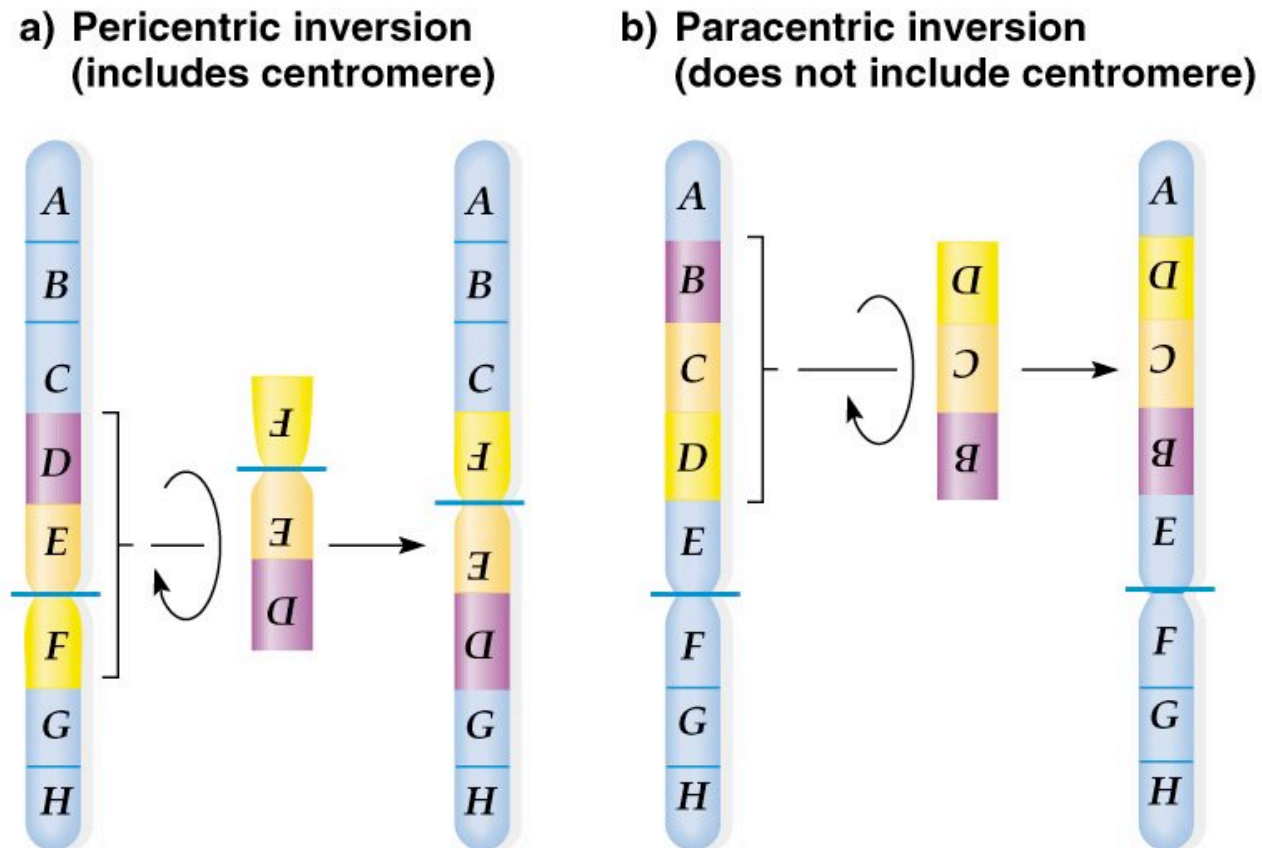


Normal chromosome

- In prophase I, the duplication loop can assume different configurations that maximize the pairing of related regions

Variations in Chromosome Structure: Inversions

- Inversion results when a chromosome segment excises and reintegrates oriented 180° from the original orientation.
 - There are two types (Figure 8.8):

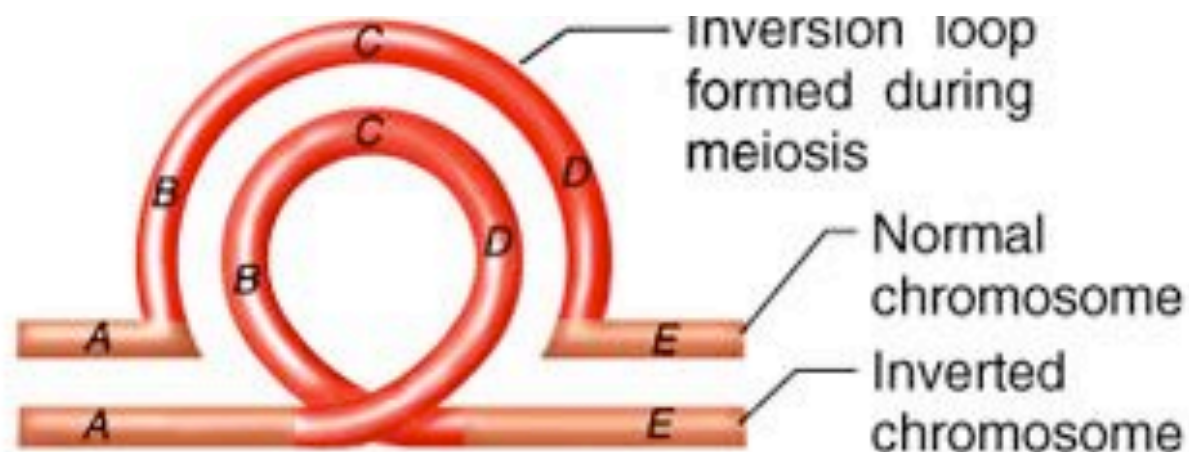


Variations in Chromosome Structure: Inversions

- Linked genes are often inverted together.
 - The meiotic consequence depends on whether the inversion occurs in a homozygote or a heterozygote.
- A homozygote will have normal meiosis.
- The effect in a heterozygote depends on whether crossing-over occurs.
 - If there is no crossing-over, no meiotic problems occur.
 - If crossing-over occurs in the inversion, unequal crossover may produce serious genetic consequences.

Inversion heterozygotes reduce the number of recombinant progeny

- Inversion loop in heterozygote forms tightest possible alignment of homologous regions



Recombination involving inversions

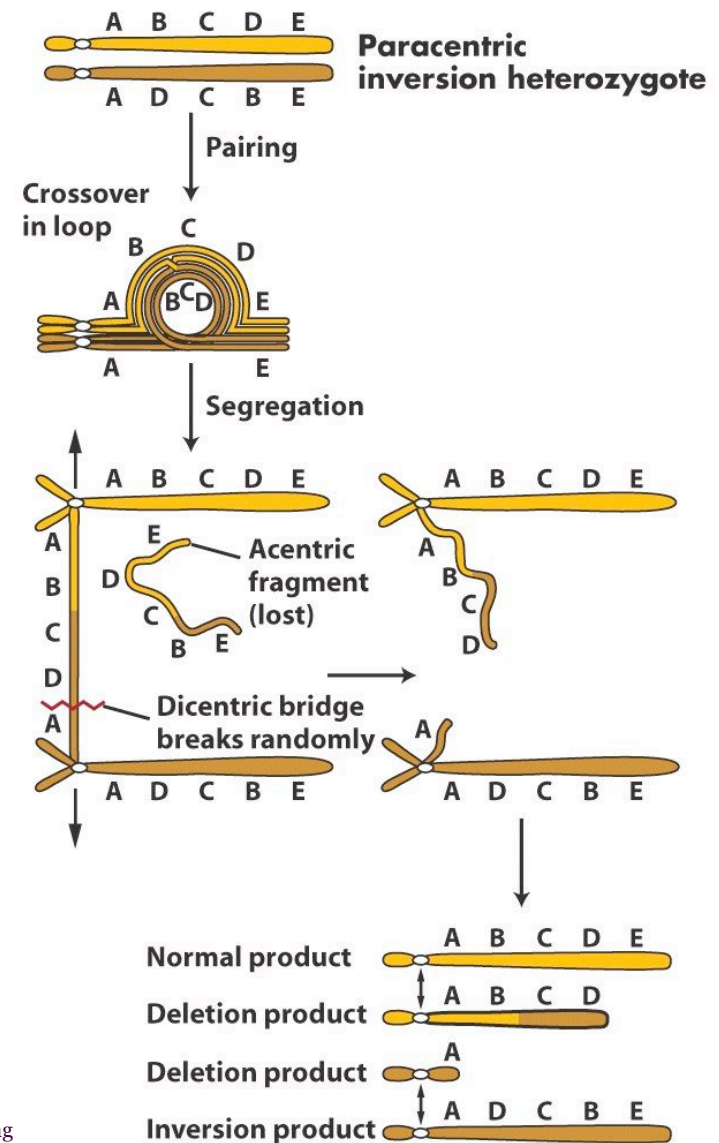
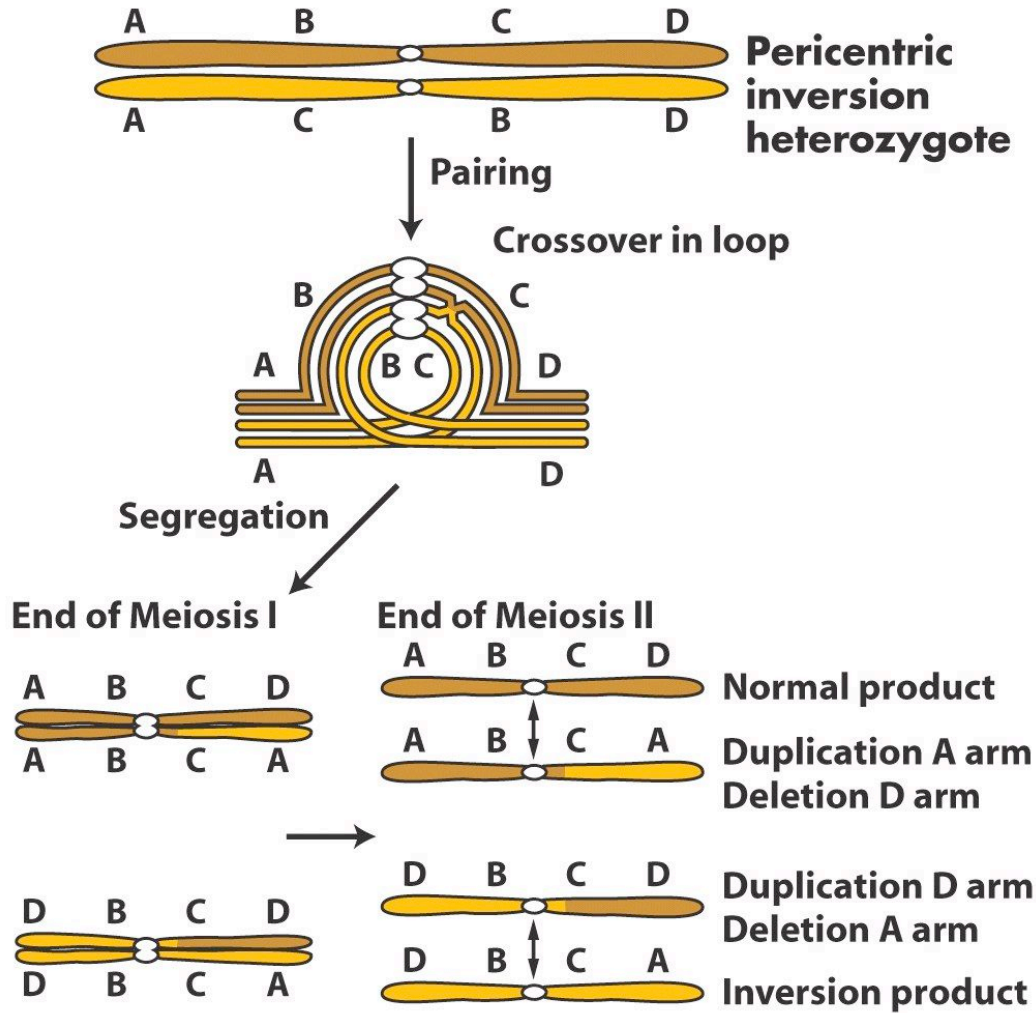
■ Heterozygous Pericentric Inversion:

- One normal gamete
- One gamete with inversion
- One gamete with a duplication and deletion.
- One gamete with reciprocal duplication and deletion.

■ Heterozygous Paracentric Inversion:

- One normal gamete
- One gamete with inversion
- Two deletion products
- Some material lost.

Gametes produced from pericentric and paracentric inversions are imbalanced



Variations in Chromosome Structure: Inversions

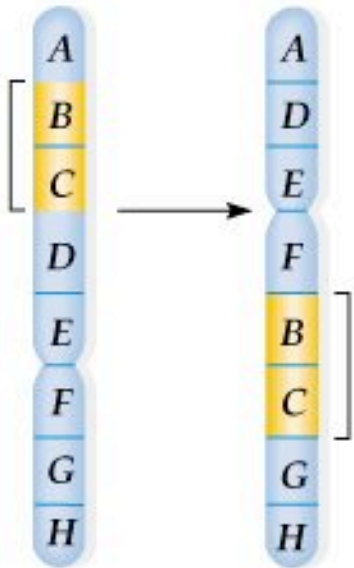
- In an inversion, the total amount of genetic information stays the same
 - Therefore, the great majority of inversions have no phenotypic consequences
- In rare cases, inversions can alter the phenotype of an individual
 - Break point effect
 - The breaks leading to the inversion occur in a vital gene
 - Position effect
 - A gene is repositioned in a way that alters its gene expression
- About 2% of the human population carries inversions that are detectable with a light microscope
 - Most of these individuals are phenotypically normal
 - However, a few can produce offspring with genetic abnormalities

Translocations

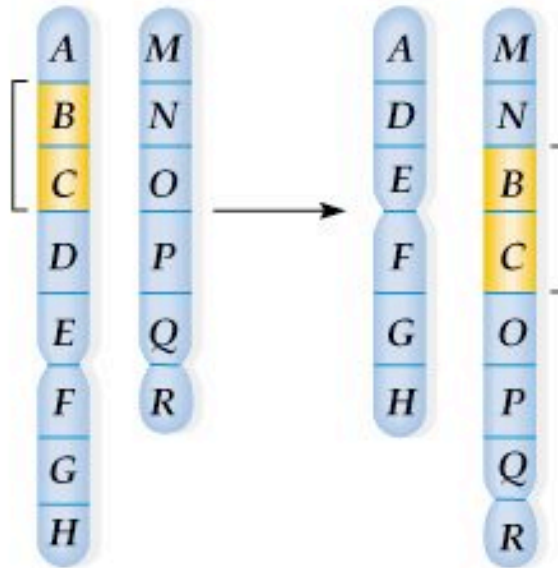
- A chromosomal translocation occurs when a segment of one chromosome becomes attached to another.
- There are two main types of medically important translocations:
 1. [Reciprocal \(balanced\) Translocations](#)
 2. [Robertsonian \(unbalanced\) Translocations](#)
- Both types of translocations are capable of causing disease in humans.

Fig. 8.11 Translocations

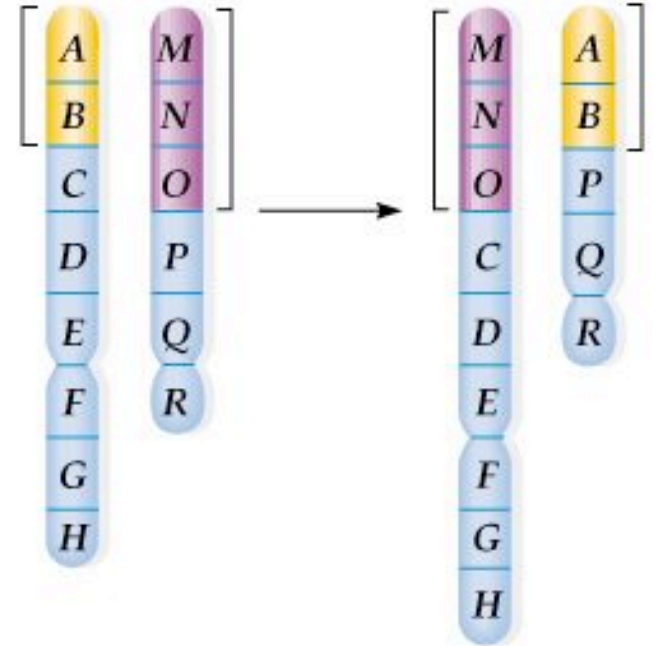
a) Nonreciprocal intrachromosomal translocation



b) Nonreciprocal interchromosomal translocation



c) Reciprocal interchromosomal translocation



Reciprocal Translocations

- In **reciprocal translocations** two non-homologous chromosomes exchange genetic material
 - Reciprocal translocations arise from two different mechanisms
 - 1. Chromosomal breakage and DNA repair
 - 2. Abnormal crossovers
- Reciprocal translocations lead to a rearrangement of the genetic material
 - not a change in the total amount
 - Thus, they are also called **balanced translocations**.

Robertsonian Translocations

- In **Robertsonian Translocations** the transfer of genetic material occurs in only one direction
- Robertsonian translocations are associated with phenotypic abnormalities or even lethality.
- **Example: Familial Down Syndrome**
 - In this condition, the majority of chromosome 21 is attached to chromosome 14.
 - The individual would have three copies of genes found on a large segment of chromosome 21
 - Therefore, they exhibit the characteristics of Down syndrome

Robertsonian Translocation

- This translocation occurs as follows:
 - Breaks occur at the extreme ends of the short arms of two non-homologous acrocentric chromosomes
 - The larger fragments fuse at their centromeric regions to form a single chromosome
 - The small acrocentric fragments are subsequently lost.
 - This type of translocation is the most common type of chromosomal rearrangement in humans.
- Robertsonian translocations are confined to chromosomes 13, 14, 15, 21
 - The acrocentric chromosomes

Meiosis in Robertsonian Translocation

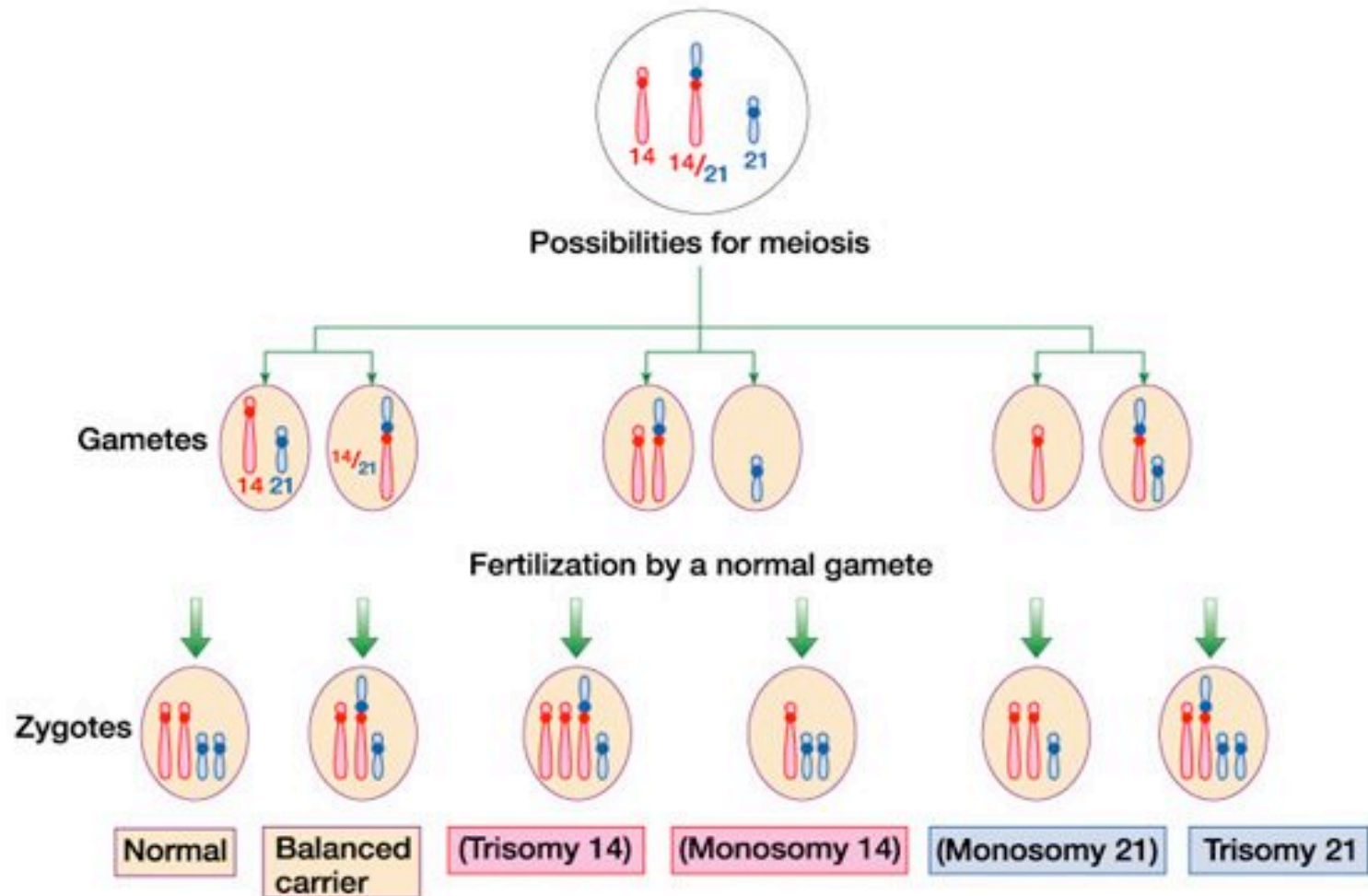


Figure 2-23 Human Molecular Genetics, 3/e. (© Garland Science 2004)

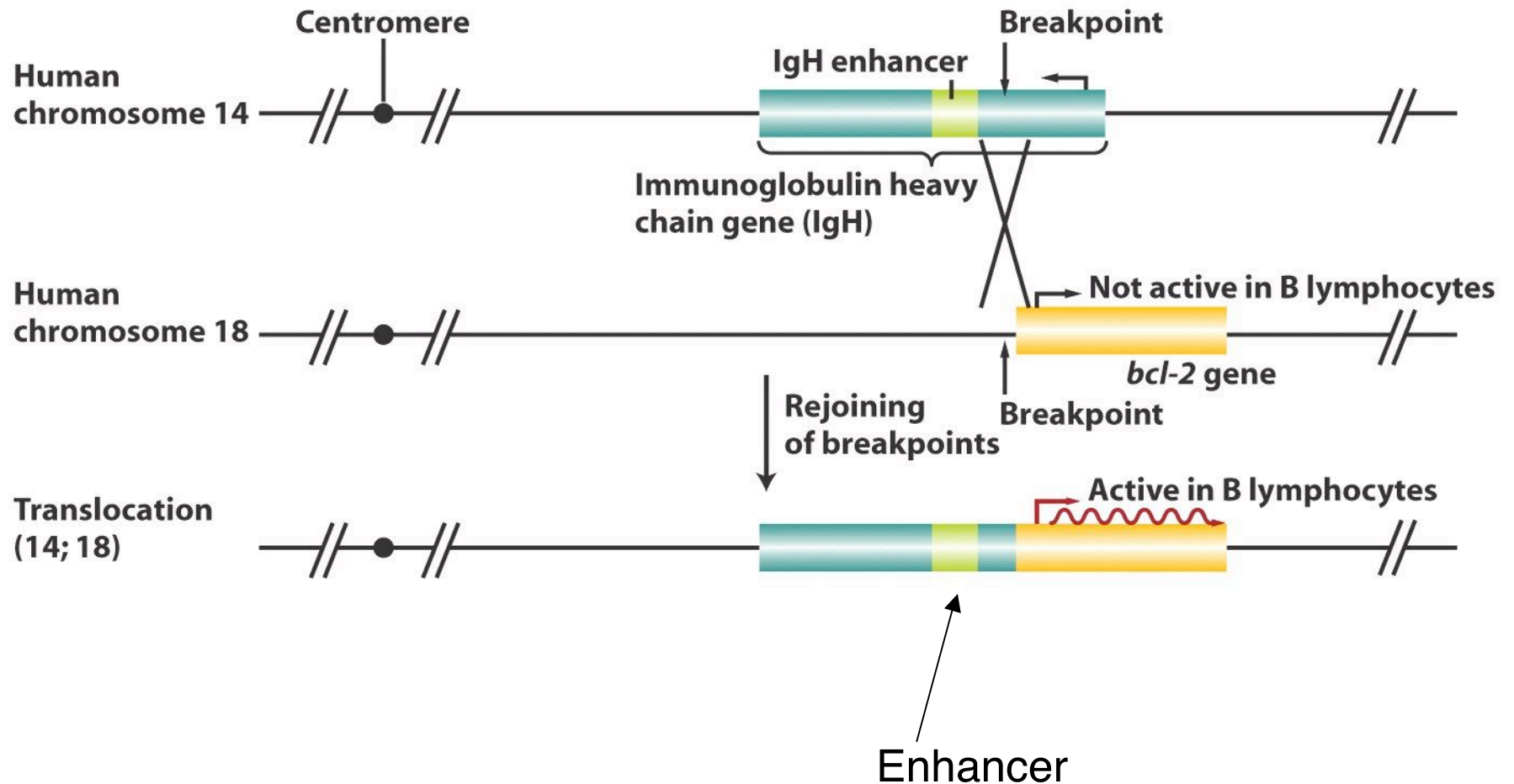
Chromosomal Mutations and Human Tumors

- Most human malignant tumors have chromosomal mutations.
 - The most common are translocations
 - There is much variation in chromosome abnormalities, however, and they include simple rearrangements to complex changes in chromosome structure and number.
 - Many tumor types show a variety of mutations.
 - Some, however, are associated with specific chromosomal abnormalities.

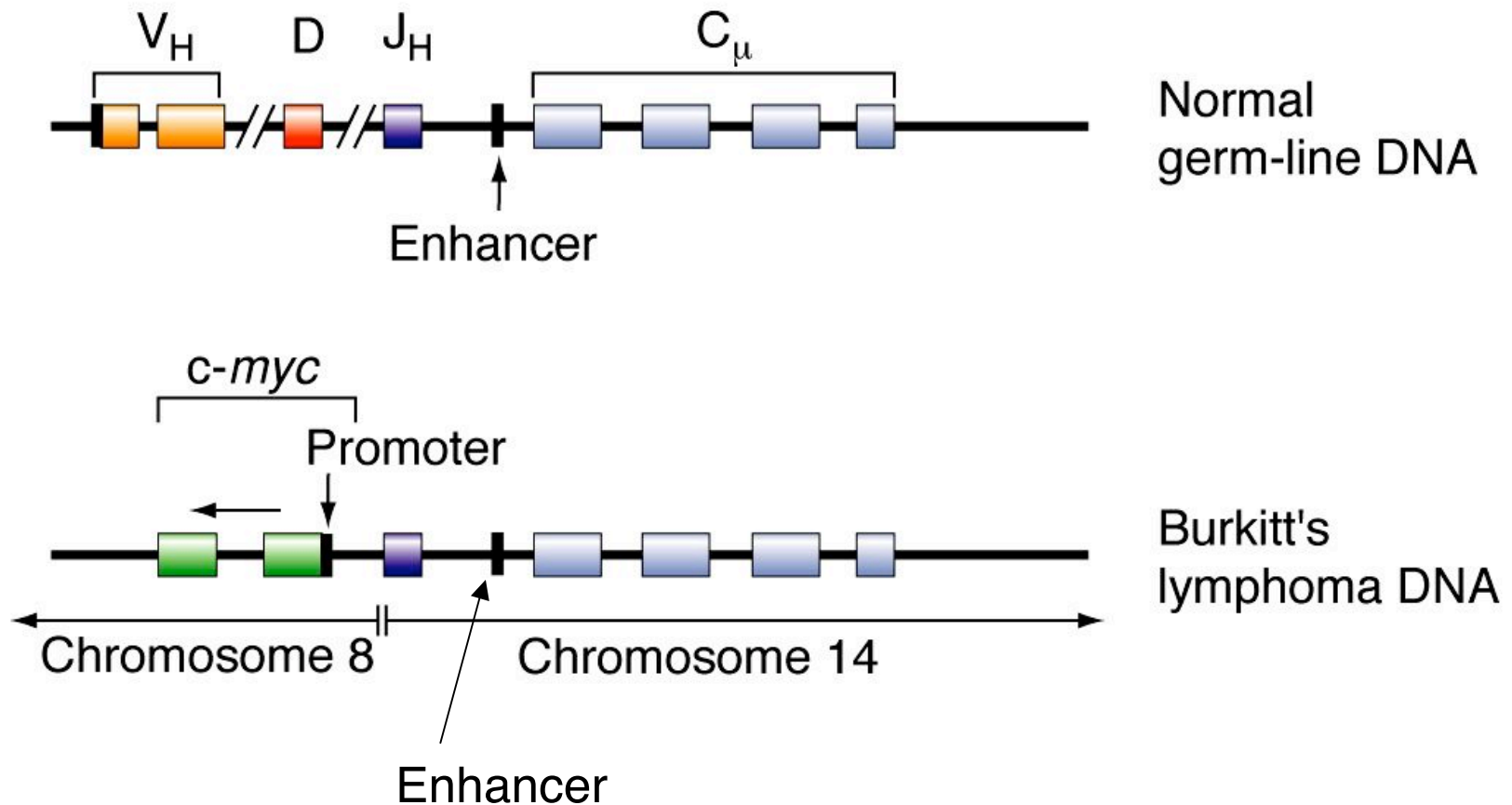
Translocations

- Usually phenotypically normal; no net loss or gain of material in most cases.
- If breakpoint alters promoter context, gene regulation may be altered
 - e.g.: Burkitt Lymphoma: t(8;14):
- puts the protooncogene *c-myc* next to the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus,
 - resulting in overexpression of *c-myc*
- If breakpoint occurs within a gene, the gene function may be altered
 - e.g.: CML : t(9;22): *Bcr-Abl* fusion product.

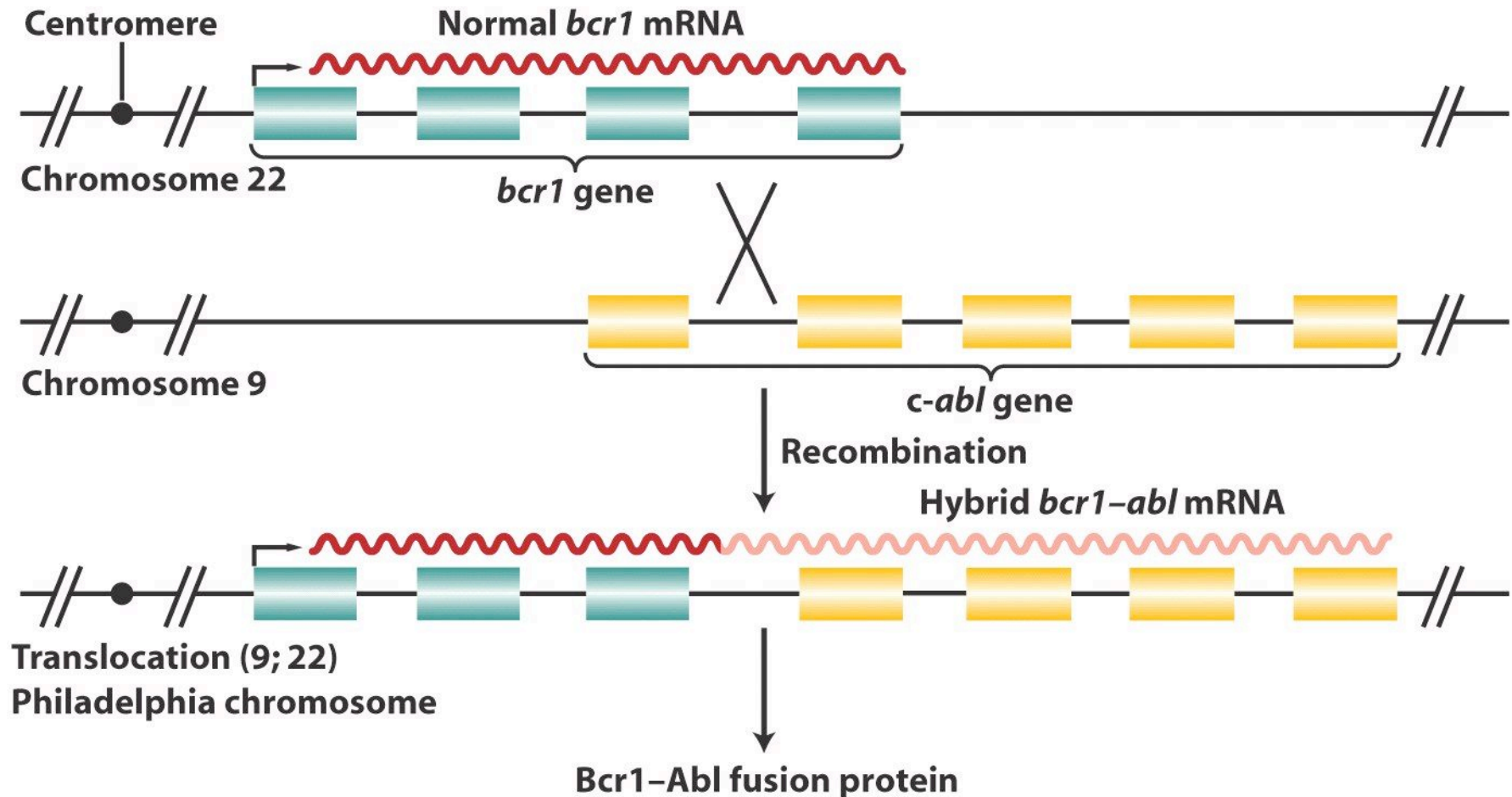
t(14;18): Follicular Lymphoma



t(8;14): Burkitt Lymphoma



t(9;22): Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia



Homework Problems

- Chapter 8
- # 1, 14a, 17a