Lecture 1

The Basics of Heredity

History of genetics



History of genetics "pre-mendelian era"

- The effects of heredity are observed by human kinds form its down
 - Children resembles of their parents
 - Domestication of animals and plants, selective breeding for better traits
 - People of Mesopotamia used hybrids of domesticated and wild donkeys to pull their war chariots about 4,500 years ago (Y-chromosomal and mitochondrial DNA)
 - Sumerians horse breeding records

SCIENCE ADVANCES | RESEARCH ARTICLE

GENETICS

The genetic identity of the earliest human-made hybrid animals, the kungas of Syro-Mesopotamia

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History of genetics: early Greek philosophers









- Vapour theory (Pythagoras)
 - man body embryo uterus of female)
- Fluid theory (Empedocles)
 - fluid from all parts of each parent create embryo

- Spontaneous generation (Aristotle)
 - Origin of live from decaying matter
 - Reproductive Blood Theory- embryo is produced due to the mixing of reproductive blood of the two parents
- Pangenesis (Hypocrates)
 - invisible "seeds," from organs of parents are like miniaturized building components and are transmitted during sexual intercourse, reassembling themselves in the mother's womb to form a baby

History of genetics: Middle age theories

- **1) Preformation theory** (*Malphigi, Swammerdan, Bonnet*)
- miniature individual of extremely small size is present in sperm or egg, grows into a new individual after it receives nourishment in the womb of a female
- Spermists vs ovists which cells bear key components for gender development?
 - Da Vinci proposed equal contribution of parent's traits to of spring
 - Van Leeuwenhoek animacules (aka sperms of mammals nad frog) are associated with eggs
 - Malphigi, Swammerdan, Bonnet miniature individual of extremely small size is present in sperm or egg (hommunculus)



History of genetics: Middle age theories

2) Particluate theories – 18 - 19th century

- Theory of Acquired Characters (Lamarck)
 - Inew character once acquired by an individual shall pass on to its progeny (neck of giraffes x Wiesmann progeny of mices with cut tails had long tails...)
- Theory of Pangenesis (Darwin)
 - gemmules or pangene partilces (of given, oragn, tissue etc) are carried by the blood to the reproductive organ and are deposited in the sex cells, which again carry them to the next generation.
- Theory of Germplasm (Wiesmann)
 - Organisms with sexual reproduction carry two types of cells
 - somatic cells make up body (somatoplasm)
 - reproductive cells make up sperms and ovas (germplasm)

Gregor Johann Mendel (1822-1884)



- * 20th July 1822 Hynčice, North Moravia,
- 1840 1843 Philosophy at Olomouc University
- 1843 join the Augustinian Abbey in Brno
- 1849 1851 teacher at high school in Znojmo (Greek, Latin and German language, mathematics)
- 1851 1853 University of Vienna (math, Doppler, deep understanding of statistics, Dawrin's work (but Darwin did not known Mendel cause wrote in German language)
- 1854 1868 teacher at Realschule at Brno (physics, biology)
- 1854 1863 first experiments with pea in abbey garden
- 1865 series of lessons about his experiments in conference of biologists in brno (2nd and 3th of March)
- 1866 publication "Versuche über pflanzen-hybriden" (Experiments on Plant Hybridization)
- 1868 abbot of St. Thomas' Abbey in Brünn
- 1881 director of Moravian bank in Brno
- 6.1. 1884 Mendel died from chronic nephritis, buried at Central Cemetery of Brno, Leoš Janáček played the organ at his funeral

Mendel's education – Natural science at university of Vienna (1851-1853)





Experimental physics

(prof. Doppler)

Combinatorics, probability theories, mathematical description of results...

Plant physiology (prof. F. Unger)

"continuity of cells and cell lineage is necessary for birth to other organisms"

- Knowledge of basic principles of plant physiology, hybridization and plant selection combined with methodology of "hard data" collection bring Mendel to idea of existence of discreet particles, which are located inside cells and responsible for expression of different traits
- During his studies, he developed a theoretical model of transfer of the traits from one generation to another with the use of those particles
- He returned to Brno with this "project"

Prof. Franz Unger: Botanische Briefe (1852)



grössten Einfachheit der Elemente die schönste Harmonie in der Anordnung, wodurch die Architektonik derselben zu einer wahrhaft musterhaften wird, und wie die Geschichte der Baukunst lehrt, von jeher massgebend auf alle menschliehen Werke Einfluss genommen hat (³⁸ und ³⁷).

Von dieser durchgreifenden Regelmässigkeit in der Anordnung der Blätter,

Nicht immer tritt diese Einfachheit gleich massgebend hervor. In einigen Fällen sind selbst in der Binthe komplicirtere Stellungsverhält vorhanden, namentlich bei solchen, die aus einer grossen Anzahl on Blattelementen zusammengesetzt sind. Ein Beispiel geben die Cacdie Seerosen, die karolinische Kelchblume (Calgeonthus floridas Indees sind diese letzteren ganz vorzüglich geeignet. hnen die Einheit des Baues der Bluthe und des Stammes au Fig. 26 stellt einen Blüthenast von Calycanthus floridus dar. wehte Durchschnitt, Fig. 27 a, mit Beifügung des Grund setat uns in die Lage, Einsicht in den etwas komp en nehmen, f bedeutet den Ursprung der abgeschn --- p die gefärhten Blätter der Blöthenhülle - stab die fehlse ing abertiva). Ueberdies bedeniet m noch den Markke and a die auf seiner oberen Aush - Zur genaueren Einsicht in beifolgende Diagramm Fig. 27 b . gegenüber atchenden Blättern (f. f 1/2 Div.), von 1 bis 28 die kleineren, dann grösser werdenden Blatter der Blüthenhülle (p), darauf von 29 bis \$1 die Stat und endlich von 42 bis 55 die fehlschlagenden Stauborgan seichneten Ordnung auf einander folgen. -- Während in den ersten 6 Blät tern noch ein Schwanken nach niederen Biattordnungen bemerklich is stehen alle übrigen an ihren bestimmten Platzen. Fast in jeder Bluti aden diese Schwankungen in anderer Weise statt

die man mit gutem Fug als Blattordnung (Phyllotazis) bezeichnete, finden sich indess mancherlei Abweichungen, die jedoch keineswegs das gefundene Gesetz aufheben, sondern es vielmehr nur in seiner eisernen Strenge mildern, wodurch die Pflanze eben im Ausdrucke der Freiheit so unendlich gewinnt. Dahin gehört z. B. die einseitige Verschiebung der Blatter bei ungleicher Verdickung der Stengelseiten, das ungleiche Anwachsen des Blattgrundes und eine Drehung der Achse selbst, Umstände, die von ungleicher Ernährung, ungleichen Einflüssen äusserer Agentien u. s. w. abhängen



Wild pea (Pisum sativum) - model object of Mendel's experiments

- •True breeding, self pollinating plant with big blooms
- large number of varieties
- easy to grow, regular and steady yield
- possible control of plant fertilization
- 7 pairs of chromosomes (2n = 14)





White



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Mendels' s experiments - character of trai

7 traits – stand alone, binar ("yes or no")

• 34 varieties – 2 years of observing - 22 varieties with steady difference of traits

Parental varieties = homozygotes (AA, aa) - differences:

<u>Seed shape:</u>	round / wrinkled (chromosome 7)
<u>Seed color:</u>	white / bright yellow or green (chromosome 1)
Bloom color:	white / purple (chromosome 1)
<u>Pod shape</u> :	inflated / constricted (chromosome 4)
Pod color:	green / yellow (chromosome 5)
Flower position:	axial / terminal (chromosome 4)
<u>Stem length</u> :	1,9 – 2,2 m / 0,24 – 0,46m (chromosome 4)
	Seed shape: Seed color: Bloom color: Pod shape: Pod color: Flower position: Stem length:

Example of monohybrid crossing: height of the pea plants (tall / dwarf)

1 pair of trait observed in parental (P) generation offspring - 1st (F_1) and second (F_2) generation

DOMINANT trait overcome in F₁

RECESIVE trait,

which shows itself in generation F₂

▶ Tab. 3.1		
Výsledky Mendelových monohy	ybridních křížení	\frown
rodičovské variety	potomstvo F ₂	poměr
vysoké rostliny $ imes$ nízké rostliny	787 vysoké, 277 nízké	2,84:1
kulatá semena × hranatá semena	5474 kulatá, 1850 hranatá	2,96:1
žlutá semena × zelená semena	6022 žlutá, 2001 zelená	3,01:1
fialové květy × bílé květy	705 fialové, 224 bílé	3,15:1
klenuté lusky × zaškrcované lusky	882 klenuté, 299 zaškrcované	2,95:1
zelené lusky × žluté lusky	428 zelené, 152 žluté	2,82:1
úžlabní květy × vrcholové květy	651 úžlabní, 207 vrcholové	3,14:1





2 identical copies of gene (alleles) segregate into gametes

 F_1 monohybrid (heterozygote) carry 2 different unique alleles in given proportion 50% (0,5)

gametes are joining randomly YY (0,25), Yy (0,25)*2, yy (0,25)

Identity of reciprocal crossing

There is no difference if trait comes from mother or father!

A cross, with the phenotype of each sex reversed as compared with the original cross, to test the role of parental sex on inheritance pattern

→ identical results in F₁



74. Výsledek reciprokého křížení v generaci F_1 u hrachu setého (*Pisum sativum*) při úplné dominanci. dominant homozygote x recessive homozygote **P: AA x aa**



heterozygote x heterozygote P: Aa x Aa



recessive homozygote x heterozygote P: aa x Aa

dominant homozygote x heterozygotee **P: AA x Aa**





Gametes of a monohybrid - Aa

50 % A, 50 % a

Mendel identified that heterozygote parents create gametes with one of their two allele with same exact probability ... but how can prove this?

Α

Backcrossing - what kind of gametes and in what ratio are present in hybrids?

 B₁ z – backcrossing of F₁ hybrid with parent with recessive alleles for given trait (Aa x aa)



B_1 Aa x aa

Gametes of hybrid will join with gametes of a parent carrying recessive alleles = highlighting the combination of alleles in gametes of the offspring!



Mendel's conclusions from the monohybrid crossing

- Each trait (f.e. shape of the seed –round/wrinkled) is controlled by a some form of **inheritance factor or determiner** (now known as genes)
- Every parent has a **pair of genes** in for every trait in all cells of the organism
- Genes are transferred to the next generation by sex cells
- F1 generation from two true-breeded varieties has one allele **dominant** over another, which is **recessive**. Those tow together create **allelic pair**
- F1 offsprings show only one parental trait **dominant**
- The results of reciprocal crossing were all the same no matter whether which parent transferred dominant or recessive allele

Mendel's conclusions from the monohybrid crossing

 only one of the two gene copies present in an organism is distributed to each gamete (egg or sperm cell) that it makes, and the allocation of the gene copies is random.

LAW of SEGREGATION

- Gametes fuse randomly and without regard to other associated gene pairs
- Trait not shown in F₁ generation reappeared in F₂ generation in 25 % offsprigns and the most importantly
- Traits had qualities same in offsprings, did not blended and behaved as distinct units!

Dihybrid Cross – 2 traits, are they inherited independently?

- Connection of two dominant and two recessive traits
- Each parent is homozygous for 2 genes = 2 allelic pairs
- Gametes one allele from each pair
- Alleles of both pairs segregates INDEPEDENTLY =
- Dihybrid RrYy creates 4 types of gametes







Generalization for n-hybridism

Nr. of gametes of hybrid
Nr. of different zygotes
Nr. of different homozygotes *
Nr. of raising novelties
Genotype ratio of F2 generation
Phenotype ratio of F2 generation**

n=1	n=2	General	
$2 = 2^{1}$	$4 = 2^{2}$	2 ⁿ	Νι
$3 = 3^1$	$9 = 3^2$	$3^n \longrightarrow$	di
$2 = 2^{1}$	$4 = 2^2$	2 ⁿ	ge
0=2 ¹ -2	2=2 ² -2	2 ⁿ -2	
$(1:2:1)^1$	$(1:2:1)^2$	(1:2:1) ⁿ	
$(3:1)^1$	$(3:1)^2$	(3:1) ⁿ	

Number of different genotypes

* In all given allelic pairs

** In case of complete dominance in all allelic pairs

n- level of hybridism Aa – n=1 AaBb – n=2 AaBbCc – n=3

Mendel's conclusions from dihybrid crossing

- F₁ hybrids express only one variant from both parental traits always dominant.
- F₂ generation present novel variants completely different from parents (in our example yellow-wrinkled and round-green seeds). The exist because of new combinations of parental genetic material = recombinants

Recombination of hereditary factors (genes) is made according to laws of probability. Alleles of given genes are in each generation chosen randomly (alleles of different genes are combined independently)

LAW OF INDEPENDENT ASSORTMENT

 Hybrid F₂ generation showed all combinations of parental traits in specific ratio 9:3:3:1 (full dominance)



Mendel's discoveries: overview



- Traits are inherited as discreet pieces (elements)
- Units of heredity (genes)
 - 1) are material in nature
 - 2) come **in pair** (inherited from mother and father)
 - 3) they are twofold: dominant or recessive (hidden)
 - 4) they are transmitted to the next generation via sex cells
 - 5) they are inherited **separately -** they are not **blended in nature**
- F₁ offsprings show only one parental trait (dominant one)
- Heterozygous alleles **segregate** into gametes in **random fashion**
- Alleles of different genes segregate (combine itself) independently of each other

Mendel's sweet pea traits... nowadays



Mutation in pea genes create new allele!



Seed shape – round x wrinkled

RR x rr

Cause of creation of *r* allele (wrinkled):

Mutation (transposone insertion) in gene which encode enzyme participating on creation of starch in seeds (SBEI) – development of inactive version of the enzyme

Result:

Accumulation of sacharose in seeds – change of osmotic pressure – wrinkled shape of the seeds after drying



Bhattacharyya et al. (1993)

Mendel's principles and chromosomes

a) The reason for segregation and combination of alleles is the behavior of chromosomes during meiosis I (spacing of chromosomes during anaphase I of first meiotic division)

b) The principle of combination apply for genes located on different chromosomes



Description of genes and alleles on metaphase chromosomes

Gene A

Genotype AA





Genotype Aa?

Metaphase chromosome = 2 identical chromatids!



Exceptions from Mendel s ratios

- Incomplete dominance
- Codominance
- Multiple allelism
- Lethal alleles

Effect of alelles of one gene

- Penetrance
- Expressivity
- Pleiothropy
- Phenocopy



Gene interactions



Phenotype effects of dominance exceptions



Incomplete dominance – Antirrhinum majus

Explanation

Color of bloom depends on amount of product

Allele R¹ - color production

Heterozygote R^1R^2 – approx.. half amount of color production compared to R^1R^1

 R^2R^2 - no color



Incomplete dominance – human familial hypercholesterolemia

xanthomas



Brain and heart attacks risk at age 20 years

- Hereditary disease, incidence 1/250 in CR, cca 500 mutations described
- Caused by high levels of LDL (low density lipoprotein) cholesterol
- FH gene heterozygotes have approx.. only half amount of LDL receptors responsible for cholesterol
- Homozygotes in *FH gene* have no receptors - very rare

Codominance – human blood groups



Type A

Гуре А

AB

AB AB

AB

Туре

Type A

Type A

AB B

в

- Total of **6** genotypes
- Heterozygotes AB express both antigens (both alleles active)
- Codominant alleles **A** and **B**, both recessive to *i*
- Importance blood transfuses, paternity testing, ...

Recessive lethal allele in humans – Tay Sachs disease

- Mutation genu *HEXA* (enzyme hexozaminidase A absent)
- Abnormal accumulation of lipid complex G_{M2} ganglioside on the surface of neurons (function: protection of cells) due to absence of degradation process of G_{M2}
- Newborns are normal
- After 6 moths of age neurological degradation, mental retardation, deafness, blindness, at 2 years unable to move, death usually 3-4 years
- Ashkenazi Jews heterozygotes Aa 1:30 (incidence 1:3600)



Penetrance and expresivity

• Incomplete penetrance –

individuals do not show given trait, even though they have given genotype

- Variable expressivity the of expression of gene differs in individuals carrying same trait (different phenotype
- Reason effect of environment, genetic background...1

Diseased - Complete Penetrance







Variable Penetrance and Expressivity



Normal



Penetrance vs Expressivity

More Information Online

Penetrance

Expressivity

WWW.DIFFERENCEBETWEEN.COM

Percentage of individuals with a given genotype who exhibit the associated phenotype with that genotype.

A population

The intensity of the phenotype in an individual.

A single individual

Individual variability.

DEFINITION

MEASUREMENTS TAKEN IN

VARIABILITY

Statistical variability among a population of genotypes.

Incomplete penetrance: polydactyly



- The trait is conditioned by a dominant mutant allele P
- Its expression is showed in just a few individuals expresses
- Influenced by genetic background





Mutation effect not expressed – healthy individuals

Pleiotropy

- Most genes are <u>pleiotropic</u>
 - one gene affects more than one phenotypic character
 - 1 gene affects more than 1 trait
 - dwarfism (achondroplasia)
- gigantism (acromegaly)





Phenocopy

traits induced by environmental effects are identical to phenotypes caused by genotypes



Phocomelia – inherited malformations of human arms and legs



Teratogenic **effec**t of **thalidomide** taken during early pregnancy

Gene interactions

- Traits are based on cooperation of more genes (pathways)
- Gene interactions quantitative traits arise from cooperation of two and more allelic pairs from different genes
- If two genes interact with each others, same rules as in dihybridism applies (same for n – hybridism)
- Differences are detectable in phenotypes in cases gene interactions there is lower number of phenotype classes

Gene interactions

• Epistasis dominant / recessive

- in dominant epistasis, the dominant allele of one gene masks the expression of all alleles of another gene, while in recessive epistasis (*Dahlia variablis* bloom colors)
- the recessive alleles of one gene mask the expression of all alleles of another gene.
- Typical example color of dogs coat
- Complementarity -
 - both dominant alleles are necessary for creation a product (*L. odoratus*)
- Inhibition
 - inhibitive allele has not another effect on phenotype than ability to suppress an effect of dominant allele (Feathers color of domestic fow)

• Multiplicity

- bilateral relation of alleles of interactive genes, but in comparison with complementarity, each single dominant allele of any of these genes, even in itself, is sufficient for expression of a corresponding trait.
 - a) non-cumulative (Siliqua shape of shepherd's purse) phenotype is determined any dominant allele
 - b) cumulative: (number Caryopsis color of wheat) expression of phenotype is based on number of dominant / active alleles

Interaction of two genes changes in F2 ratios

Dihybrid crossing	9:3:3:1
Inhibition	13:3
Complementarity	9:7
Recessive epistasis	9:3:4
Dominant epistasis	12:3:1
Duplicity non-cumulative	15:1
Duplicity cumulative (dominant)	9:6:1

Heredity of sexuality and sex-linked traits

- Evolution asexual to sexual and haploid to diploid organisms
- Reason = to **maximize** to genotype **variability**
- Sexual organisms change of haploid / diploid stage, reduction of diploid number of chromosomes (meiosis)
- Some organisms can reproduce asexually or can change periods of sexual /asexual reproduction
- The most of the eukaryotic organisms use sexual reproduction

Heredity of sexuality and sex-linked traits

- Basic features of sexuality are the same in all eukaryotes – there are two types of sex (sexual organs with production of male or female gametes) and new generation arise from connection of both gametes
- Anisogamy difference in size of male / female gametes
- Evolution of separate sex leads to creation of haploid gametes - meiosis



Man 10¹² sperms per life Woman 2,5 millions of oocytes only 400 will mature

Heredity of sexuality and sex-linked traits

Sexual differentiation

• Primary differentiation

Include creation of reproduction organs (gonads)

Secondary differentiation

- Include differentiation of other organs (mammary glands, genitalia, etc.)

• Organisms can carry

A) just one type of gonads (male / female) dioecious (plants) , gonochorism (animals, higher mammals)

- The sex in gonochorism is determined by genetic traits (GSD) or by environmental factors (ESD)
- B) both male and female gonads at same time monoecious, hermaphrodites

Discovery of sex chromosomes

- **1891**: H. Henking "additional" chromosome in *Pyrrhocoris* males
- **1902**: McClung two types of sperm in several kinds of insect
- 1905: N. Stevens discovery of sex chromosomes in *Tenebrio* small one (Y) is responsible for male sex determination
- 1906: E.B. Wilson XY designation of sex chromosomes
 Protenor AAXX females, AAXY males
- 1913: Seiler: butterflies AAXY females, AAXX males





Chromosomal determination of sex

- Autosomes (somatic) x gonosomes (sex chromosomes)
- Humans 22 pairs of autosomes + 1 pair of gonosomes
- Designation of sex chromosomes: X and Y (or Z and W)
- XX: homogametic sex (one type of gametes)
- XY: heterogametic sex (two types of gametes)
- AA: two batches of autosomes
- There are 3 basic systems of chromosomal determination of sex
- mammal type (Drosophila)
- bird type (*Abraxas*)
- type Protenor



Chromosomal determination of sex: Mammal type

- Female sex: **AA XX** homogametic
- Male sex: **AA XY** heterogametic
- Each pair produce 50% of sons and 50% of daughters = sex ratio 1:1
- Carriers of the sex traits are males
- **Two types** of sperms are produced with **same** probability
- Eggs are always of same genotype (X)
- Mammals, insect, reptiles, several plants





Mammal type of sex determination in plants – dioecious type of plants



XX female and XY male plants

Chromosomal determination of sex – bird type

- Designation of genotypes **ZW females, ZZ males**
- Carriers of sex traits females (2 types of eggs Z,W
- Males produce only one type of sperm (Z)
- Chromosome Z locus of *DMRT1 gene* development of male gonads require 2 copies
- If one copy is disabled females



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Chromosomal determination of sex – type Protenor

- Protenor (Lygaeus kalmii)
- Female sex: AA XX homogametic; Male sex: AA X heterogametic
- Mostly insect species



Protenor (*Lygaeus kalmii*)



Chromosomal determination of sex: haplo - diplpoidy

- Females: AA diploid
- Males: A haploid
- Order Hymenoptera (bees, ants, wasps)

• <u>Bees</u>

- no sex chromosomes
- sex is determined by total number of chromosomes
- Fertilized eggs (2n) produce females
- Un-fertilized eggs (1n) parthenogenesis = males
- Females have on average 75 % of common genes higher genetic affinity high level of social cooperation





n=16, 2n=32

Environmental sex determination (ESD)

• Sex is determined by external factors f. e.

a) Temperature (reptiles) - genetics (XX/XY or ZZ/ZW)+TSD (temperature dependent sex determination)







M. Crighton - Jurassic park (Spielberg movie 1993)

b) Social factors - Bonellia viridis

- If egg develops in isolation = females
- If egg migrates into the tract of female = males
- Males 1000x smaller than females





Genetic determination in humans

 Presence of different sex chromosomes and product of one specific gene SRY (sex-related region Y) determine the phenotype (sex) of the individual

 Expression of SRY activate the cascade of events leading to development of female or male gonads (master-switch sex determining gene)

Determination of sex in humans – significance of chromosome Y





Genes located on chromosome Y

- Sex differentiation, sperm production
- 10-15% sequences comes from chromosome X
- Cca 60 millions of base pairs
- Spermatogenesis genes encode 9 protein families in 2-35x copies





PAR1

Short arm

Euchromatin

Centromere

2.6Mb

PLCXD1, GTPBP6, PPP2R3B, SHOX, CRLF2, CSF2RA, IL3RA

ASMTL, P2RY8, AKAP17A, ASMT, DHRSX, ZBED1, CD99, XG

SRY, RPS4Y1, ZFY, TGIF2LY, PCDH11Y, TSPY2, AME

TSPY4, TSPY8, TSPY3, TSPY1, TSPY10

AZFa USP9Y, DDX3Y, UTY, TB4Y

Development of sex in humans

- long-term process start at 1st trimester
- activation of 37 proteins + sex hormones
- Ended after individual sexual maturation



Fig. 1. Sex determination and gonadal differentiation require many proteins and endocrine stimulants to engender a fetus.¹ MacLaughlin DT, Donahoe PK. Sex determination and differentiation. N Engl J Med. 2004;350 [4]:367–378.





Differences in development of gametes in humans Women – 24 cell divisions

Men – 25 years sperms – 265 divisions

Men - 50 years sperms - 840 divisions !!! Spermatogenesis - 64 days

DNA replication – *errors in the process - mutations in older men*

TABLE 8.1 Different classifications of biological sexual characteristics		
	Conventionally male	Conventionally female
GENETIC		
Karyotypic	XY	XX
Genotypic	SRY positive	SRY negative
GONADAL		
Gonadal	Testes	Ovaries
SOMATIC		
Primary somatic	Penis, scrotum	Vagina, cervix, uterus, fallopian tubes, clítoris
Secondary somatic	Face and body hair Narrower hip structure Greater upper body strength Ability to rapidly gain muscle mass	Breasts Little face and body hair Broader hip structure Less upper body strength Less ability to add muscle mass Increased body fat Menstrual cyclé

Heredity of sex-linked genes

Gonosomes (X,Y) are consisted of two regions carrying genes – **heterologous and homologous**

- Non-homologous regions determine genes with full sex-linked inheritance
- Homologous regions determine genes with incomplete sex-linked inheritance (= Mendel s laws)
 - Genes with loci of Y non-homologous regions determine holandric traits (father to son – Ylinked inheritance)
 - Genes with loci in non-homologous regions of X chromosome X-linked inheritance





XY

XY

Morgan's discovery of non-Mendelian ratios in *Drosophila*

- Mendel was the pea guy
- Developed a theory to explain all his results → law of independent assortment
- New results from 20th century <u>didn't</u> <u>fit his model</u>
- Thomas Hunt Morgan developed the idea of *linked genes* to explain the anomalies investigating *Drosophila* flies
- Male and female flies showed different inheritance patterns → sex linkage







T.H. Morgan 1910

"Certain factors follow the distribution of the X chromosome and are therefore supposed to be **contained in them**."

Genes lie on chromosomes !!!

SEX LIMITED INHERITANCE

IN DROSOPHILA

T. H. Morgan

Woods Hole, Massachusetts

Sex-linkage heredity



Fig. 10.—White-eyed female by red-eyed male (D. ampelophila). The factors for these characters are carried by the X chromosomes, the factor for red by the black X, and the factor for the white by the plain X. The history of the chromosomes is shown in the middle of the diagram.

Sex-linked heredity D. melanogaster



Genes located on non-homologous region of chromosome Y



Mendel s law of uniformity of F1 hybrids and identity of reciprocal cross does not apply here !!!

Rules of sex-linked inheritance (Morgan 1910)

- If an individual carry dominant sex-linked trait (gene), whole F1 population will show same trait as dominant parent regardless of sex.
 In F2 there will <u>be ratio 3:1</u> in this trait and individuals carrying recessive variant (allele) will <u>be same sex as recessive</u>
- 2. If individuals with **homogametic sex** carry **recessive sex-linked trait** (gene), there will be shown both dominant and recessive variants but in **opposite sex** than in parents. In F2 regeneration the both variants will manifest with **same frequency** in whole population and in population of given sex

X-linked recessive inheritance

- Recessive allele in males hemizygous (only one member of chromosome pair)
- Produce affected males in most times
- 1) X^AX^A x X^aY (women healthy)
 - Healthy sons; daughters = carriers of the disease
- X^AX^a x X^AY (women carrier, man healthy)
 - ½ sons affected, ½ carriers
 - Rare cases in women: daughters of affected man + woman carrier; women with 45,X karyotype
- Examples: DMD, Hunter disease



Haemophilia: 1/10000 in men; 1/100 000 in women žen – pedigree of europeanm ruling houses







Porucha koagulace – deficit srážlivého faktoru v krvi !