

History of genetics

- The first theories of heredity Aristoteles, Hypokrates, Epikuros
- 1859 Charles Darwin "On the Origins of Species"
- 1866 Johann Gregor Mendel scientist, Augustinian friar and abbot of St. Thomas' Abbey in Brno "father of genetics" Mendelian laws of inheritance
- 1944 Oswald Awery isolated DNA as the material of which genes and chromosomes are made. [
- 1953 James Watson and Francis Crick structural model of DNA in 1962 Nobel price.
- Francis Crick "Central dogma"
 DNA → RNA → protein
- From 1990 Human Genome Project
- 2003 the first official information about complete mapping of human genome, but still "filling of gaps"
- 2022 the complete sequence of a human Y chromosome



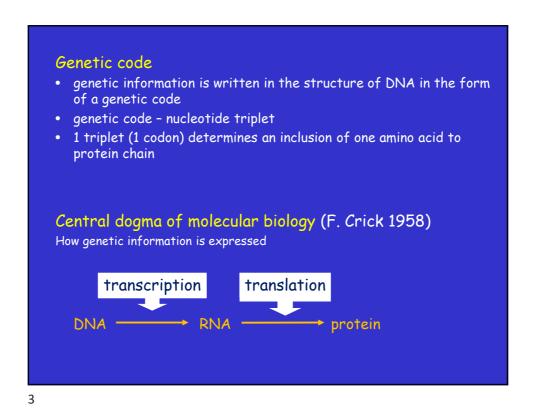
Charles Darwin



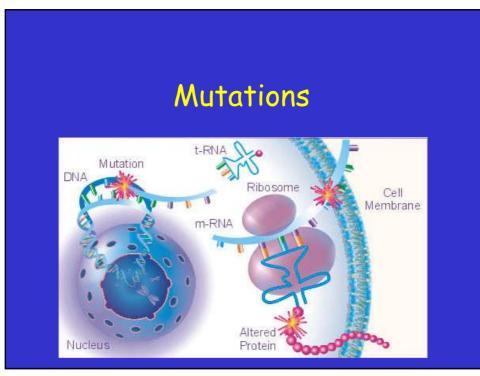
Johann Gregor Mendel



James Watson and Francis Crick



Genetic information 4 ACA6 CGA ACC Redundancy (degeneration) of genetic code Thr ACG CGC cgg Arg ACT 3 CGTATA CCA AGA ATC Ile CCC AGG Pro CCG CCT CTATAA2 CTCAAA Lyz TAG Stop GCA CTG Leu TGA GCC CTTAla GCG TTAAAC ASN GAC ASP GCT TTG TCA GGA CAA GIN GGC Gly TCCTCG Ser GGT TCT Met TGC Cys AGC CAT HIS ATG Start GTA AGT GTC Val GAA Glu TTC Phe TGG Trp GTG GTT



Mutations - definition

• Changes in DNA structure, changes in nucleotide sequence

Mutations - classification

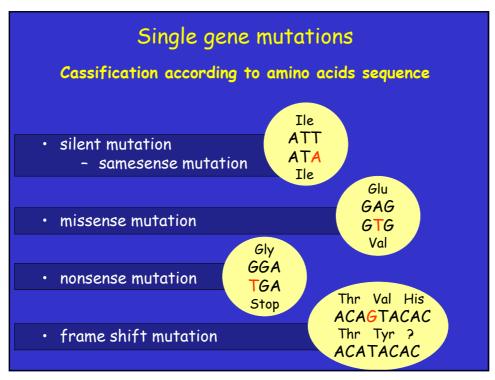
- Etiology
 - spontaneous mistakes in replication, DNA repare mechanisms
 - induced mutagens (physical, chemical, biological)
- Localisation
 - gametic
 - somatic
- Extenth
 - single gene mutations (point mutations)
 - structural chromosomal aberrations
 - numeric chromosomal aberrations

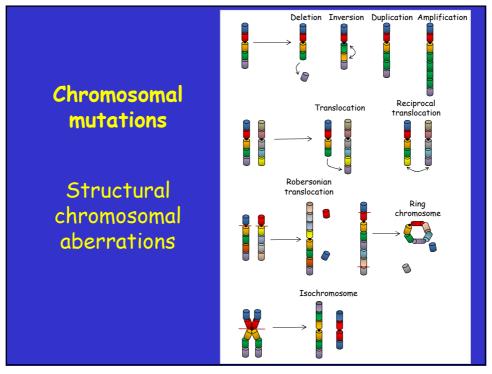
- Effect on gene function
 - Loss-of-function inactivation reduction or loss of function
 - Gain-of-function activation increase in activity or loss of regulation
- Impact on health
 - Mutations with a neutral effect on the state of health neither negative nor positive effect on the state of health and the function of the organism
 - silent mutations not visible in the phenotype
 - genetic polymorphism changes in the structure of DNA that lead to an increase in the variability of the phenotypic expression of a given trait in the population
 - Mutations with a negative effect on health cause disease or death of the organism
 - Mutations with a positive effect on the state of health they favor their carriers from a certain point of view
 - carriers of the sickle cell mutation (heterozygotes) are resistant to malaria
 - a specific mutation in the CCR5 gene (C-C chemokine receptor type 5) leads to resistance to HIV infection
 - persistence of lactase activity

Single gene mutations

Cassification according to changes in nucletide sequence

Tamada Del	
Transition Transversion	etion Inzertion
GCA GCA ATA TGA ACAC Ala Ala Ile Stop Thr	Val His Ile Gly GTACAC ATTGGA Tyr ? Ile Arg ? TACAC ATTCGGA



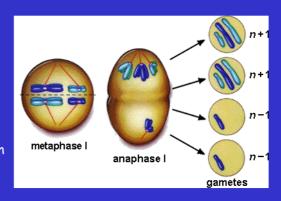


Abnormalities in number of chromosomes

- polyploidy more then diploid number of chromosomes
 (diplod number 46, 69 triploidy, 92 tetraploidy)
- aneuploidy abnormal number of chromosomes (normal 46, aneuploidy - 47 or 45 - trisomy, monosomy)

Nondisjunction

The failure of homologous chromosomes or sister chromatids to separate properly during cell division



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- Genetic disorder a disorder caused by mutatin
- Hereditary disease a disorder inherited from one or both parents
- Congenital disease a condition present at birth regardless of its cause
- Familial disease a disease with an increased incidence in the family

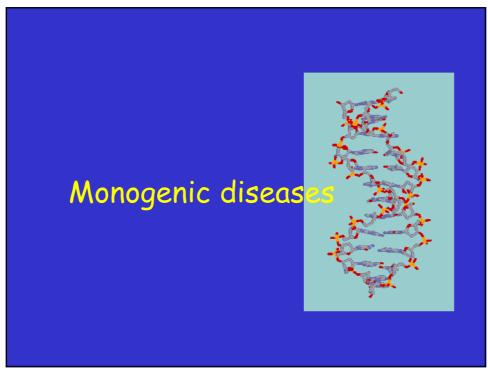
Genetic disorders

- Monogenic (single genes) diseases
- Chromosomal diseases
- Polygenic (multifactorial) diseases



- Genetic alterations of somatic cells (neoplasms)
- Mitochondrial disorders
- Dynamic mutations (trinucleotide repeat disorders)

• Disorders of gene expression (epigenetic diseases)



Monogenic diseases

characterisation

- 0,6 0,8 % of population
- cause inherited single gene mutation

clasifications

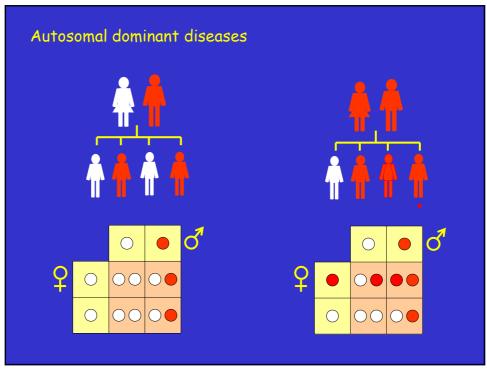
- autosomal
- sex-linked

- dominant
- · recessive



Affected proteins				
Function	Example of disease (protein)	Inheritance		
Enzyme	Phenylketonuria (phenylalanine hydroxylase) Galactosemia (galactose-1-tranpherase) Acute Intermittent Porphyria (porphobilinogen deaminase)	AR AR AD		
Transporter	Cystic fibrosis (Cl ⁻ channel) Talasemia (hemoglobin) Sickle cell anemia (Hb)	AR AR AR		
Structure	Osteogenesis imperfecta (collagen I) Duchenne dystrophy (dystrophin)	AR, AD XR		
Plasma proteins	Immunodeficiency (complement) Hemophilia A (coagulation factor VIII)	AR, AD XR		
Cell signalization	Cancers (transcription factors, signal molecules, signal receptors)	AD		
Growth and differentiation	Retinoblastoma (Rb-gene product) Breast cancer (BRCA-gene product)	AR AR		
Other		••••		

localisation of pathological gene	autosome
clinical manifestation	clinical signs expressed in heterozygotes and also in homozygotes in some AD diseases homozygote may have more serious symptoms
product of gene	mainly proteins with morphological and structural function, transporters, receptors
diseases	Familial hypercholesterolemia Familial combined hyperlipidaemia Marfan syndrome Achondroplasia Acute intermitent porfyria



Dominance complete, incomplete, codominance

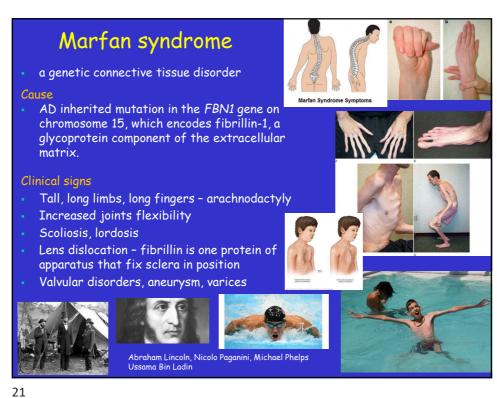
- Dominance relationship between two alleles of one gene
 - Complete dominance dominant allele completely masks effect of recessive allele in phenotype, homozygote and heterozygote have the same phenotype
 - Incomplete dominance Homozygote and heterozygote have differences in phenotype clinical signs of homozygote are much intensive than in heterozygote (familial hypercholesterolemia)
 - Codominance can be seen effects of both alleles in phenotype (ABO blood groups)

Expressivity, penetrance

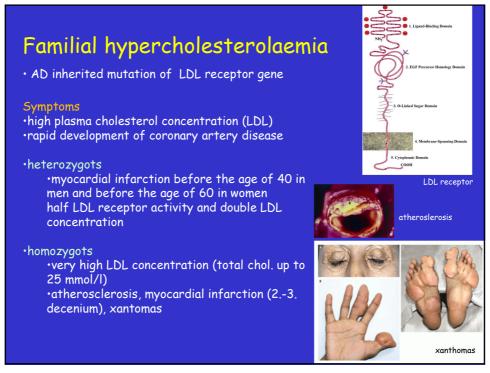
- Expressivity qualitative variations of phenotype between people with the same genotype (porphyria)
 - Variable expressivity different intensity of phenotype in people with the same genotype - from 10 people with the same mutation all 10 have clinical signs but intensity is different
- Penetrance quantitative variations of phenotype between people with the same genotype (porphyria)
 - Complete penetrance 100 % all people with mutation have clinical signs
 - Incomplete penetrance e.g. 60 % from 10 people with the same mutation only 6 have clinical signs, 4 are without clinical signs

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Achondroplasia

 Bone growth disorder manifested by disproportionate short stature with short limbs. The most frequent cause of dwarfism.

Couse

- AD inherited mutation in fibroblast growth factor receptor 3 (FGFR3) gene
- More than 80% neomutation

Clinical signs

- Disproportionate dwarfism, short limbs, normal trunk, big head
- Deformations bowleg, knee
- Kyphosis, lordosis disorders of ventilation
- Short fingers and toes with trident hands
- Large head with prominent forehead frontal bossing, small midface with a flattened nasal bridge
- Normal inteligence

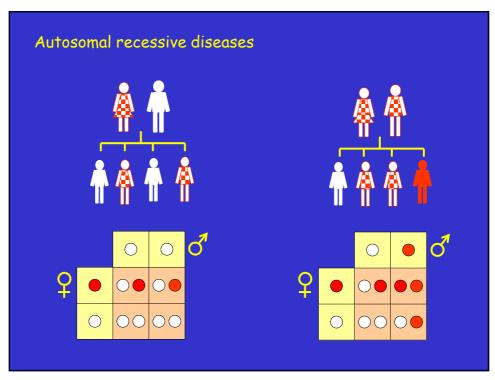




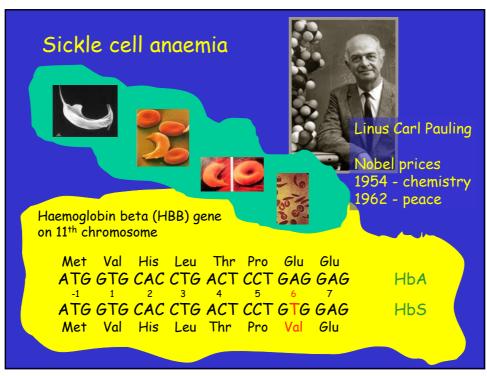
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Autosomal recessive diseases

localisation of pathological gene	autosome
clinical manifestation	clinical signs expressed only in homozygotes, heterozygots are obviously clinical healthy carriers
product of gene	primarily enzymes (enzymopathies)
diseases	majority of enzymopathies Sickle cells anaemia Cystic fibrosis Xeroderma pigmentosum







Sickle cell anaemia

Signs and symptoms

- · Deformation of red blood cells, loss of elasticity
- · Occlusion of vessels
- Hemolysis
- Pain
- Anemia
- Stroke

Heterozygotes

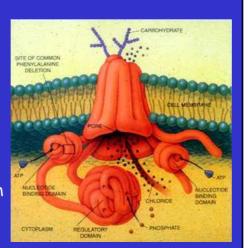
- · Carriers, resistant to malaria
- Clinically AR without clinical signs
- Hematology codominant in blood can be found HbA and HbS

Cystic fibrosis

Cause

Deletion of F508 gene for CFTR (cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator) - chloride channel

Deletion of 3 nucleotides - phenylalanine is missing from the protein molecule



Ion transport disorder \rightarrow water transport disorder \rightarrow thick secretions

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Signs and symptoms

Lungs

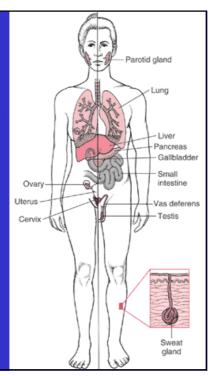
- persistent cough, frequent inflammations
- · wheezing, shallow breathing
- frequent lung and respiratory infections
- asthma and sinus infections progressing to lung damage

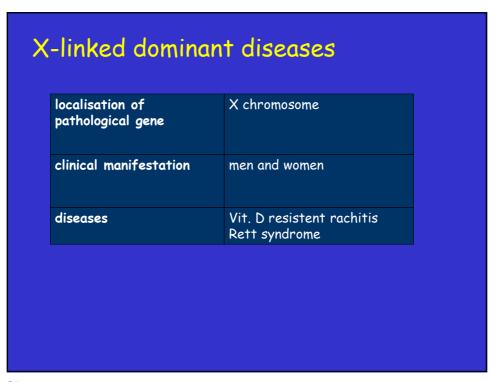
GIT

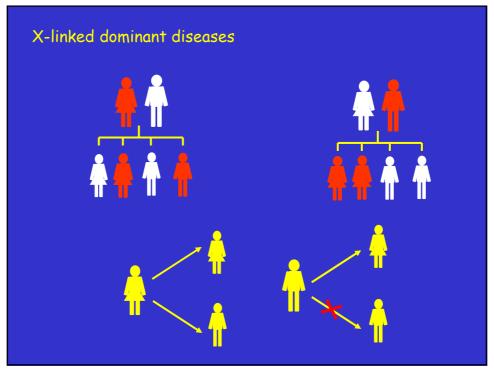
- · low absorption of nutrients from the diet
- great appetite with minimal weight gain
- · slow growth
- · greasy, thick stools
- · chronic inflammation of the pancreas
- intestinal obstruction in newborns

Other

- significantly salty sweat often the first sign in young children
- · infertility mainly men

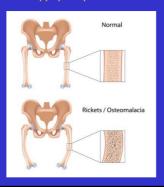


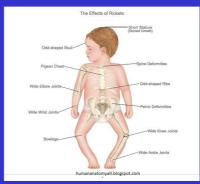




X-linked vitamin D-resistant rickets

- XD mutation in the PHEX gene on X chromosome The PHEX protein regulates fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF-23) that inhibits the kidneys' ability to reabsorb phosphate into the bloodstream.
- · Overactivity of FGF-23 reduces vitamin D 1a-hydroxylation and phosphate reabsorption by the kidneys, leading to hypophosphatemia and hypophosphatemic rickets.

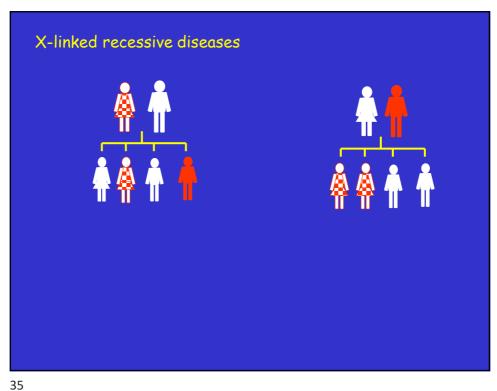




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X-linked recessive diseases

localisation of pathological gene	X chromosome
clinical manifestation	men
diseases	Hemophilia A, hemophilia B Duchenne muscular dystrophia Becker muscular dystrophia Lesh-Nyhan syndrome Ocular albinism (type I and II) Color blindness



Hemophilia A

· XR inherited mutation of clotting factor VIII

Signs and symptoms

- Severe, intensive, prolonged bleeding often without injury
 - Superficial skin, tooth extraction...
 - Joints, muscles, brain, inner organs... pain, inflammation, degneration...



Queen Victoria - the best known carrer of hemophilia, her daughters passed mutation to Germany, Spain and Russia royal families



The best known patient with hemophilia A – russian tsarevich Alexei

Duchenne muscular dystrophy

Causes:

 XR mutation of DMD gene (Xp21) that codes the protein dystrophin - structural component of muscles - no protein production

Signs and symptoms

- progressive muscle weakness pelvis, calves, arms, neck (age 5-6 years)
- awkward manner of walking, running (on forefoot)
- · frequent falls
- · fatigue
- · lumbar lordosis, scoliosis
- muscle contractures
- pseudohypertrophy of tongue and calf muscles
- higher risk of learning dificulties (because of muscular fatigue)





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Genetics in dentistry Monogenic diseases

Marfan's syndrome

(AD genetic connective tissue disorder)

- · high-arched soft palate
- · crowding of the teeth

Ehlers-Danlos syndrome

(AD genetic connective tissue disorder)

- severe periodontal disease
- · extreme laxity of joints and skin
- easy bruisability





Genetics in dentistry Monogenic diseases

Achondroplasia

(AD skeletal dysplasia, dwarfism)

 characteristic craniofacial features, relative macrocephaly, depressed nasal bridge, maxillary hypoplasia, macroglossia, gingivitis...



Lesch-Nyhan syndrome

(AR purine metabolism disorder

 self-induced mutilation of the teeth, tongue, and lips



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Genetics in dentistry Monogenic diseases

Gaucher's syndrome

(AR, sphingolipid metabolism disorder)

- · radioluscent lesons in the jaw
- · loosing of teeth

Osler-Weber-Rendu sy.

(AD, blood vessel disorder)

 teleangiectasia of the tongue, oral cavity and nasal mucosa

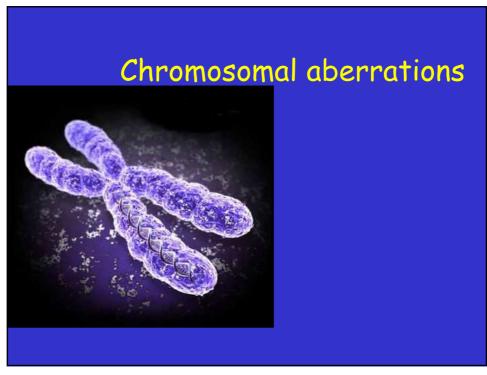


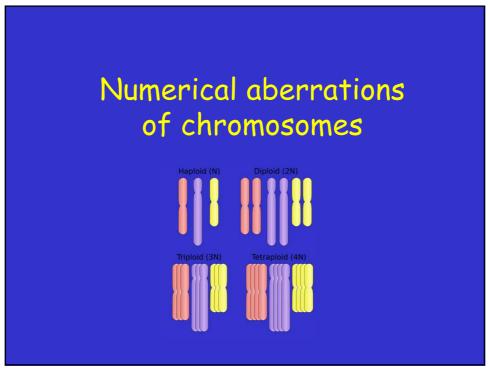
Osteogenesis imperfecta

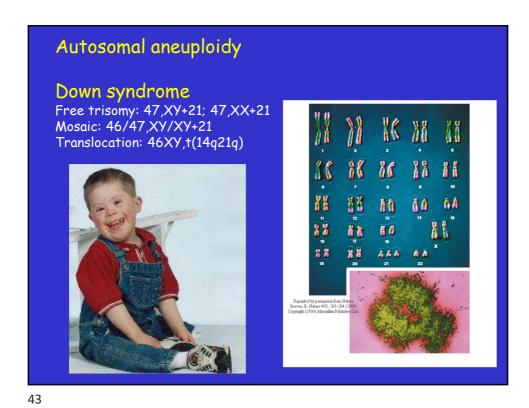
(britle bone disease, AD collagen metabolism disorder)

· opalescent freely movable teeth









Symptoms

·Mental reatrdation - IQ 50

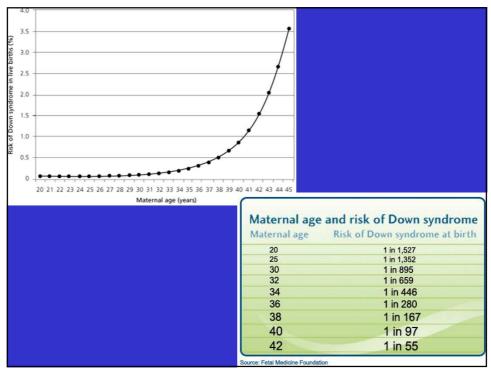
- Motor impairmentHypotoniaLeukemia

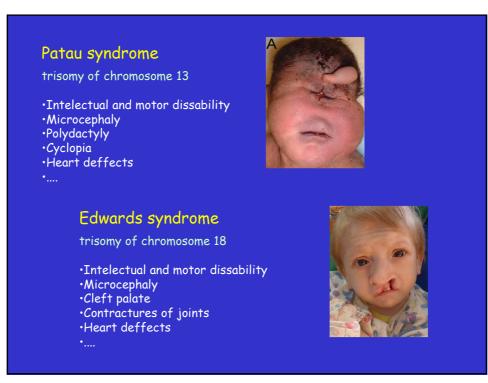
- ·Congenital heart diseases
- ·Hypothyroidism
- ·Flat face
- •Epicantus
- ·Hand deformation short fingers, abnormal lines on hand
- ·Deformities of toes

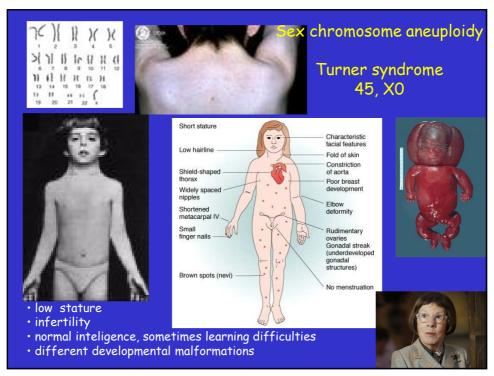
- HeperglossiaFlattened nose
- ·Small ears

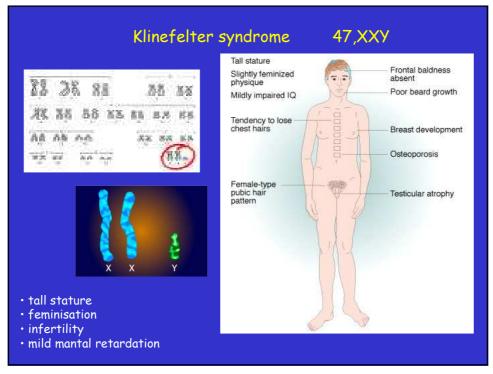


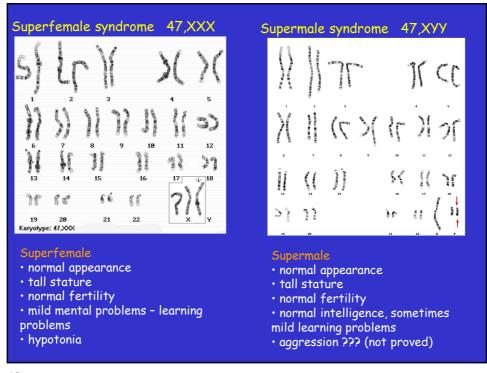


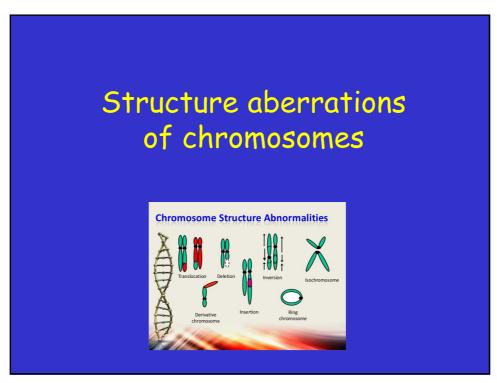


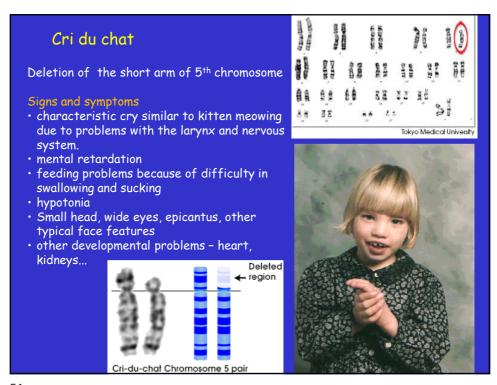


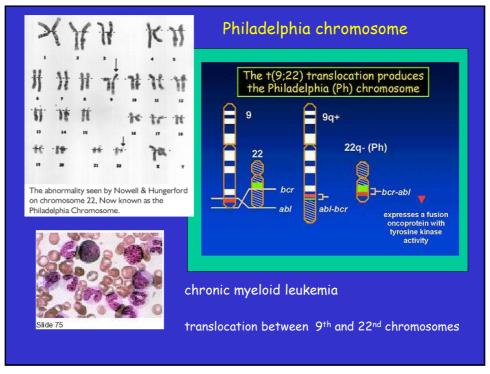


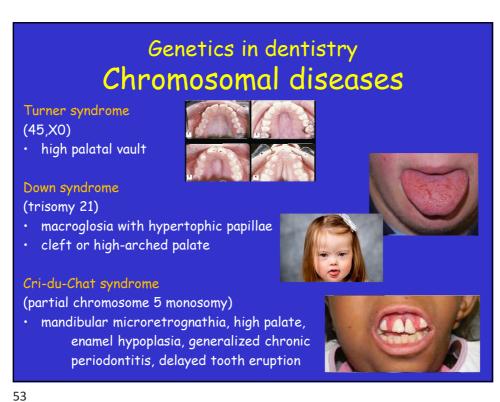












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Dynamic mutations Trinucleotide repeat disorders

· genes with physiological repetitive triplet sequences of various Tenghts

Cause

- · abnormal trinucleotide repeat expansions more triplet repetitions increased severity of disease
- · anticipation increased number of repetitions from generation to generation

Diseases

- Fragile X chromosomeHuntington chorea
- Friedreich ataxia
- · Myotonic dystrophy

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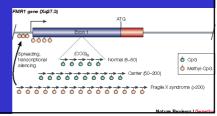
Fragile X chromosome (Martin-Bell syndrome)

- Mental retardation(IQ 60 20)
- Face signs prolonged face, protruding
- Autism, stereotyic movement, speech
- Makroorchidism
- Prolapse of mitral valve
- Fragile area on long arm of X chromosome
- CGG repetitions in fragile X mental retardation 1 (FMR1) gene
- 6 53 (the most frequently 29)
 - norm
- 54 200
 - "premutation"
- 200 4000
 - full mutation







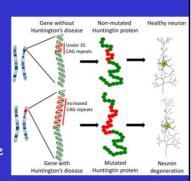


Huntington's disease (Huntington's chorea)

Inherited neurodegenerative disease

Cause

- AD inherited mutation of gene HTT, that codes protein huntingtin function?
- The HTT gene (on chromosome 4) contains a sequence of CAG (repeated multiple times) of variable length (healthy people < 27, affected people > 35)
- CAG codes amino acid glutamine → proteine contains polyglutamine tract (polyQ)



Clinical signs

- Initially slight changes in personality and motor skills (restlessness, incomplete movement ...)

- Later typical chorea uncontrolled movements
 Loss of cognitive abilities thinking, memory
 Mental changes depression, anxiety
 Personality changes gambling, alcoholism, hypersexuality
 Other changes glucose intolerance, heart failure, muscle atrophy...

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Imprinting

- Classical Mendelian inheritance: expression of both alleles of one gene (one inherited from mother and one from father) is simultaneous
 - both alleles are expressed
 - majority of human genes
- Genomic imprinting different expression of alleles from father and from mother
 - parent-of-origin-specific expression
 - gene expression occurs from only one allele (only from father or only from mother)
 - 1% (3% ?????) of human genes

Imprinting

- · Prader-Willi and Angelman synfromes
- Two different diseases caused by the same deletion - deletion of 15th chromosome
- · PWS deletion of CH15 inherited from father
- · AS deletion of CH15 inherited from mother
- PWS: Hypotonia, mental retardation (milder), hyperphagia, weight gain, hypogonadism
- AS: Happy pupett sy., mental and motor retardation, seizures, spasms, insomnia, epilepsy



Prader-Willi syndrome



Angelman syndrome

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Different expression of alleles from father and from mother



form father from mother

X

er from mother

B

B

B

B

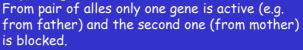
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Majority of genes
Both sets of genes (from father and from

mother) can be expressed.

We have 2 active sets of genes - 2xABCDE

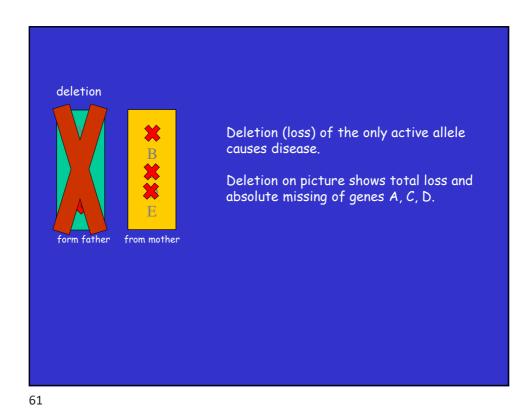
Impritning



Genes are blocked by hypermethylation.

This situation is normal for small group of genes - physiological reduction of genetic information.

Active is only one set of genes - 1xABCDE

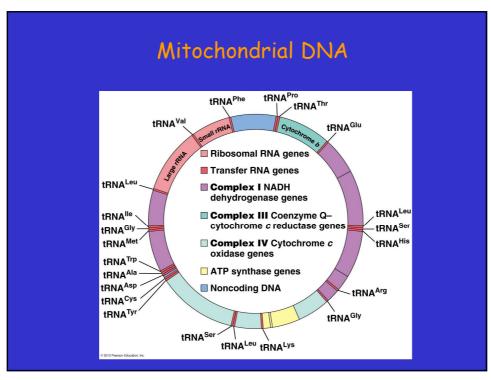


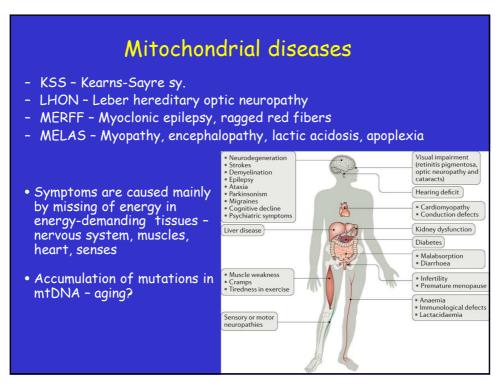
Mitochondrial inheritance

- mtDNA evolutionary different from nuclear DNA bacteria
- Maternal inheritance degradation of sperm mtDNA in the male genital tract or in the fertilized egg.

Structure

- · circular, covalently closed, double-stranded DNA
- 100 10 000 copies of mtDNA in somatic cell cca 200 000 in human egg, cca 5 in sperm
- 37 genes: 13 for proteins (for terminal oxidation pathway), 22 for transfer RNA, 2 for ribosomal RNA





Genetics in dentistry Non Mendelian diseases

Fragile X syndrome

- · Large and ling face
- Prominent forehead and jaw
- · High-arched palate
- Macroglossia, microdontia, supernumerary teeth, and abnormal occlusion (eg, open or cross-bite)





Angelman syndrome

- Smooth philtrum, thin upper lip, prominent lower lip
- · Wide mouth
- Small and widely spaced teeth
- · Small chin



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Epigenetic mechanisms

How it is possible that...



- ... identical (monozygotic) twins (with the <u>same DNA information</u>) can have <u>differences in fenotype</u> (one is a bit taller, one has a bit darker hair, a bit different colour of eyes, different intelligence...)?
- ... women with two big X chomosomes (cca 155 Mbp + 155 Mbp) and men with one X and one small Y chromosome (cca 155 Mbp + 57 Mbp) have in fact the same amount of genetic information?
- ... though we have the same genes in all our cells, our cells are different (different shape, size, function, metabolism...)?
- ... in two patients with two different diseases with different clinical signs (e.g. Angelman vs. Prader-Willi diseases) genetic examination can prove the same mutation?
- Epigenetics is the study of heritable changes in gene function without any change in the nucleotide sequence.
- Changes in chromatin structure and DNA accessibility, leading to switching 'on' or 'off' genes.

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Mechanisms

- DNA methylation methyl group is added at the 5-carbon of the cytosine to form 5-methylcytosine. DNA methylation generally results in gene silencing or reduced gene expression
- Histone modification enzyme catalyzed reactions such as lysine acetylation, lysine/arginine methylation, serine/threonine phosphorylation, and lysine ubiquitination alter their functions resulting in promotion or repression of gene transcription.
- Non-coding RNA-mediated pathways microRNAs (miRNA) are a class
 of non-coding single stranded RNAs of 19-25 nucleotides in length,
 which are reported to have a key role in the regulation of gene
 expression binds to mRNA and stop translation.

