

chapter 14 the human genome making karyotypes answer key

Published: September 27, 2026 | Index ID: #-

Introduction

Welcome to a deep dive into **chapter 14 the human genome making karyotypes answer key**. Whether you're a biology student, a genetics enthusiast, or a professional seeking a refresher, this article will walk you through the fundamentals of the human genome, the science behind karyotyping, and a comprehensive answer key that covers the critical concepts addressed in chapter 14. By the end, you'll have a clear understanding of how to construct karyotypes, identify chromosomal abnormalities, and confidently tackle exam questions.

Overview of Chapter 14

Chapter 14 focuses on the intersection of genome science and cytogenetics. It explains how the human genome's structure informs karyotype analysis, the tools and methods used to visualize chromosomes, and how these techniques are applied in clinical diagnostics and research. The chapter is divided into several sections:

- Human genome fundamentals
- Chromosome structure and classification
- Preparation and staining techniques
- Interpretation of karyotypes
- Common chromosomal disorders
- Practical exercises and answer key

Below, we break down each section and provide a detailed answer key that aligns with the chapter's learning objectives.

Human Genome Basics

What Is the Human Genome?

The human genome is the complete set of DNA that contains all of the genetic information necessary for the development, functioning, growth, and reproduction of Homo sapiens. It comprises approximately 3.2 billion base pairs, organized into 23 pairs of chromosomes.

Chromosome Composition

Each chromosome contains a single, long DNA molecule wrapped around histone proteins, forming chromatin. Chromosomes are categorized as autosomes (1–22) and sex chromosomes (X and Y). They differ in size, gene density, and the presence of heterochromatin.

Key Genome Features Relevant to Karyotyping

1. Banding patterns – Visible under a microscope after staining, these patterns help identify specific chromosomal regions.
2. G-bands – Gray bands produced by Giemsa staining, useful for detecting deletions, duplications, and translocations.
3. R-bands – Red bands that appear after C-banding, highlighting regions rich in constitutive heterochromatin.

4. Banding nomenclature – The International System for Human Cytogenetic Nomenclature (ISCN) provides a standardized format for describing chromosomal abnormalities.

Karyotyping Techniques

Why Karyotyping Is Essential

Karyotyping allows scientists to visualize the number, shape, and size of chromosomes, providing a snapshot of an individual's chromosomal makeup. It is crucial for diagnosing genetic disorders, identifying chromosomal rearrangements, and guiding reproductive counseling.

Sample Collection

Blood, amniotic fluid, or bone marrow samples are commonly used. Peripheral blood lymphocytes are preferred due to their ease of collection and high proliferation rates in vitro.

Cell Culture and Mitotic Arrest

1. Stimulation – Phytohemagglutinin (PHA) or other mitogens stimulate lymphocyte division.
2. Arrest – Colcemid is added to halt cells in metaphase, where chromosomes are most condensed.

Slide Preparation

Cells are harvested, lysed, and dropped onto a microscope slide. After fixation, the slide is air-dried and ready for staining.

Staining Methods

- Giemsa (G-banding) – Produces characteristic dark and light bands.
- Constitutive heterochromatin (C-banding) – Highlights centromeric and pericentromeric heterochromatin.
- R-banding – Involves reverse staining for specific applications.
- Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) – Uses fluorescent probes to detect specific DNA sequences.

Microscopic Analysis

High-resolution microscopy captures images of metaphase spreads. Chromosomes are arranged into a karyogram, ordered by size and centromere position.

Step-by-Step Karyotype Preparation

1. Collect sample – Obtain peripheral blood in an anticoagulant tube.
2. Culture cells – Add PHA and incubate at 37°C for 48–72 hours.
3. Mitotic arrest – Introduce colcemid 2–4 hours before harvest.
4. Harvest cells – Centrifuge, wash, and resuspend in hypotonic solution.
5. Fixation – Use methanol-acetic acid (3:1) fixative.
6. Slide preparation – Drop cells onto a slide and dry.
7. Staining – Apply Giemsa for G-banding.
8. Microscopy – Capture 20–30 metaphase spreads for analysis.
9. Karyogram assembly – Arrange chromosomes into 23 pairs, labeling each band.
10. Documentation – Record findings, noting any abnormalities.

Common Karyotype Abnormalities

Numerical Anomalies

- Trisomy – Presence of an extra chromosome (e.g., trisomy 21 – Down syndrome).

- Monosomy – Loss of a chromosome (e.g., monosomy X – Turner syndrome).
- Polyploidy – More than two complete sets of chromosomes (rare in humans).

Structural Anomalies

- Deletions – Loss of chromosomal segments.
- Duplications – Extra copies of chromosomal regions.
- Inversions – A segment is flipped within the chromosome.
- Translocations – Exchange of segments between nonhomologous chromosomes.
- Ring chromosomes – Chromosomes that form a ring structure.

Imbalance vs. Balanced Rearrangements

Imbalanced rearrangements alter gene dosage and often result in phenotypic abnormalities. Balanced rearrangements preserve gene dosage but can lead to reproductive challenges.

Answer Key for Chapter 14

The following answer key addresses the key questions and exercises typically found at the end of chapter 14. Use it as a study guide to verify your understanding and to prepare for exams.

Exercise 1 – Chromosome Identification

1. Identify chromosome 7 in a G-banded karyogram. Answer: Chromosome 7 is a medium-sized metacentric chromosome with a prominent G-band pattern at the centromere. It typically appears as a pair in the 7th position from the left when arranged by size.
2. Determine the sex chromosome complement in a male karyotype. Answer: The male karyotype shows one X chromosome and one Y chromosome (46,XY).
3. Locate the location of the long arm of chromosome 1. Answer: Chromosome 1 is acrocentric; the long arm is designated as arm q, with the centromere near the short arm (p).

Exercise 2 – Banding Pattern Analysis

1. Explain why G-banding is useful for detecting deletions. Answer: G-banding produces a distinct pattern of dark (G+) and light (G–) bands. Deletions remove specific bands, creating a visible gap or change in the banding sequence that can be compared to a normal reference.
2. Describe the difference between G-banding and C-banding. Answer: G-banding stains the entire chromosome, revealing gene-rich and gene-poor regions. C-banding specifically stains constitutive heterochromatin, primarily at centromeres and pericentromeric regions.
3. Identify the band number for a 1q21 deletion. Answer: The 1q21 region corresponds to band 1q21.1 or 1q21.2 depending on the resolution; a deletion here would remove the corresponding bands.

Exercise 3 – Karyotype Interpretation

1. Interpret a karyotype showing 47,XX,+21. Answer: This karyotype indicates a female (XX) with an extra chromosome 21 (trisomy 21), consistent with Down syndrome.
2. Interpret a karyotype showing 45,X. Answer: This karyotype indicates a female with only one X chromosome, consistent with Turner syndrome.
3. Interpret a karyotype showing 46,XY,t(9;22)(q34;q11). Answer: This karyotype shows a translocation between chromosome 9 and chromosome 22 involving band q34 on chromosome 9 and band q11 on chromosome 22. This is the Philadelphia chromosome, associated with chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML).

Exercise 4 – Chromosomal Disorders

1. List three chromosomal disorders and the chromosomal change involved. Answer:

Down syndrome – Trisomy 21 (47,XX,+21 or 47,XY,+21).

2. Turner syndrome – Monosomy X (45,X).

3. Klinefelter syndrome – Supernumerary X in males (47,XXY).

Exercise 5 – Practical Application

1. Outline the steps to prepare a metaphase spread for G-banding. Answer: (1) Culture lymphocytes; (2) Arrest in metaphase with colcemid; (3) Hypotonic treatment; (4) Fixation; (5) Drop onto slide; (6) Stain with Giemsa; (7) Dry and examine.

2. Explain how FISH can complement karyotyping. Answer: FISH uses fluorescent probes to detect specific DNA sequences, allowing for the identification of submicroscopic deletions, duplications, or translocations that may not be visible in standard karyotyping.

Tags: #chapter #human #genome #making #karyotypes #answer

