

APPLICATION OF VETERINARY CYTOGENETICS IN DOMESTIC ANIMALS; A REVIEW

ABSTRACT

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Cytogenetics is the study of chromosomes; their structure and properties, chromosome behavior during cell division, their influence on traits and factors which cause changes in chromosomes. Veterinary cytogenetics is the application of cytogenetics to clinical problems that occur in animal production. It has been applied to understand problems such as infertility and its types, embryonic and fetal death, abnormality in sexual and somatic development and hybrid sterility and also prenatal sex determination and other forms of chromosomal abnormalities. These are achieved through conventional and banded karyotyping techniques and molecular cytogenetic techniques. Although conventional techniques are still useful and very widely applied, the nature of cytogenetics has gradually changed as a result of advances achieved in the molecular cytogenetic techniques for example fluorescent in situ hybridization and array-based techniques. These changes are evident in both molecular diagnostics and basic research. The combination of conventional and molecular cytogenetics has given rise to high resolution techniques which have enabled the study of fundamental questions regarding biological processes. It enables the study of inherited syndromes, the mechanisms of tumorigenesis at molecular level, genome organization and the determination of chromosome homologies between species. It allows the ease with which animal are selected in breeding programs and other important aspects of animal production. In this paper we discussed a number of techniques employed in cytogenetics and their methodologies, and recommend where future focus should be for the benefits of animal production.

Keywords: Key words: Cytogenetics, Karyotyping, Chromosomal aberrations, in situ hybridization.

11 1. INTRODUCTION (ARIAL, BOLD, 11 FONT, LEFT ALIGNED, CAPS)

12 INTRODUCTION

13 The term cytogenetics has traditionally referred to studies of cellular aspects of heredity,
14 particularly those that bordered on the description of chromosome structures and
15 identification of chromosome aberrations that cause disease (1). For various applications,
16 from clinical diagnostics to basic genomic research, cytogenetics has been used in this sense.
17 The term has however been expanding rapidly within the last few decades and currently
18 includes a host of related cytological techniques. Two events that occurred in the mid
19 nineteen sixties, which revolutionized the field of cytogenetics were the report of (2) about
20 the discovery of the Robertsonian translocation in the karyotype of cattle and second was the
21 ability of scientists to describe the effects of such anomaly on the fertility of animal carriers
22 by (3).

23 The field of cytogenetic is broadly classified into 1) Conventional cytogenetics and 2)
24 Molecular cytogenetics. The conventional techniques comprise the normal chromosome
25 staining and the banding techniques, some of which are G, Q, R, C and T-banding and NOR
26 staining. These have since been integrated into animal breeding programs to investigate
27 chromosome abnormalities thereby reducing the incidents of reproductive losses in livestock
28 production (4). This is achieved by subjecting bulls for reproduction to undergo rigorous
29 cytogenetic testing, i.e conventional and banded karyotyping to detect chromosomal
30 anomalies. (5). Various researchers have applied the banding techniques to bring to light the
31 nature of chromosomes and possible homology between different species. (6) described G
32 and R karyotypes of cattle at about 500 band level using a number of standards, ie Reading
33 Conference standard. They have been able to elucidate the nature of the small acrocentric
34 chromosomes and other disputed chromosomes using some bovid markers. In another leap
35 (7) have, through the molecular techniques, demonstrated homologies between cattle and goat
36 chromosomes 11, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 and 26, and variations in the remaining
37 autosomes and recommend further investigation of some of elongated chromosomes. The
38 banding techniques, which were developed in the 1970, which have improved the resolution
39 at which chromosomes are compared between species and even between and within breeds to
40 study homologies, have evolved over time and are still widely used (1,8,9). They have been
41 used in various aspect of domestic animals' improvement, from disease diagnoses to breeding
42 evaluations. Chromosome anomalies are however sometimes too complex for banding
43 techniques to be employed to diagnose them fully. This necessitates the need for more
44 sensitive and more refined techniques. This sensitivity and refinement was achieved through
45 the development of molecular cytogenetics (10).

46 Molecular cytogenetic techniques on the other hand, provide more opportunities for genome
47 study as they provide higher resolution than the conventional techniques. The techniques
48 started through the development of *in situ* hybridization (ISH). Over the past three decades
49 the field of molecular cytogenetics has witnessed the birth of techniques with increasingly
50 higher resolutions (1)). The earlier molecular cytogenetic techniques were based on *in situ*
51 hybridization, where radioactively labelled probes were used as the reporter molecules (11).
52 These were based on the work of (12) who used DNA-RNA hybridization to localize some
53 genes. Since then simpler and more efficient probe detection methods have been developed.
54 These include direct and indirect fluorochrome labelling, biotin labelling through Degenerate
55 Oligonucleotide Primed PCR (DOP-PCR) (1)), which itself is still being improved (13).
56 Today a variety of molecular cytogenetic techniques, including those initially designed for
57 humans, are applied to domestic animals for various purposes (14). These methods include
58 but are not limited to Comet assay, localization of telomeric sequences and telomere length
59 analysis and are fast becoming part of regular cytogenetic investigative techniques in

60 veterinary research and clinical practice (14–16). Here we review some of the important
61 techniques currently applied to the study of domestic animals.

62 Cytogenetics and domestic animal studies

63 Conventional cytogenetic techniques have always been a part of veterinary cytogenetics, both
64 in clinical and research works (17,18), molecular cytogenetics is relatively a recent
65 introduction.

66 Although the application of molecular cytogenetics is more intense in humans, the number of
67 studies and the complexity of the techniques carried out in the domestic animals recently has
68 shown the viability and the promise of the techniques in addressing a lot of biological
69 questions in domestic species (19,20) Various aspects of FISH techniques have been applied
70 to veterinary cytogenetics. For instance aneuploidy in porcine embryos was investigated
71 using three-color fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) method using chromosome-
72 specific DNA probes; it enabled the establishment of baseline frequencies of aneuploidy in
73 embryos, spermatozoa and oocytes (21,22). Another molecular cytogenetic technique,
74 primed in situ DNA synthesis (PRINS), has been applied to pig's genome to visualize the
75 interstitial telomeric signal in the genome. It is an attractive complement to FISH for
76 detection of DNA repetitive sequences and unlike conventional FISH, it displays lower level
77 of non-specific hybridization (14,20,23,24). In the field of in vitro embryo production,
78 reproductive biotechnologies, cytogenetics, molecular biology are expected to play vital role
79 in understanding the mechanisms underlying chromosome instability in embryos and the
80 impact of the in vitro environment on embryos chromosome (25,26) Researchers are also
81 working to optimize the hybridization of molecular probes specific to the X chromosomes in
82 mare. Although the success is slow in this regard, the future promise is enormous (27).
83 Bovine species, which are often considered model animal species have been studied through
84 various aspects of molecular cytogenetic techniques such as SKY/MFISH, linkage studies,
85 FISH-mapping and other relevant bioinformatics (28–30) Phylogenetic studies have shown
86 great usefulness in agriculture and evolutionary biology as it enables researchers to
87 understand the origin of domestic species (29). It also provides understanding of the
88 domestication on animal behavior (31).

89 (31) have used the combination of conventional cytogenetics techniques; silver nitrate
90 staining and molecular cytogenetic techniques; FISH and PRINS to study chromosomal
91 polymorphism in a population of wild and domestic foxes.

92 Comparative molecular cytogenetics in avian species to improve reproductive capabilities is
93 an emerging area in animal reproduction. (32). As would be expected different techniques are
94 used to study different aspects of cytogenetics (Table 1)

UNDER PEER REVIEW

96 **Table 1. Cytogenetics techniques and the chromosome anomaly they identify.**

97

	Polyploidy	Aneuploidy	Reciprocal translocation	Unbalanced translocation	Amplification (DM or HSR)	Amplification (distributed insertions)	Cell to cell to cell variability
Detection							
Technique							
Banding	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
FISH/SKY	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
CGH	-	+	-	+	+	+	+

98 DM= double minute, HSR= homogeneously stained regions, FISH= fluorescent in situ hybridization, SKY= spectral karyotyping

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102 **THE TECHNIQUES**

103 Some of the various techniques employed in conventional and molecular cytogenetics are
104 discussed briefly in the coming sections below.

105 The conventional techniques

106 PBMC cell culture and metaphase preparation

107 5 mLs of whole blood is obtained by means of heparinized vacutainer. PBMC are obtained either
108 directly from the buffy coat after centrifuging whole blood at 1900 rpm for 8 minutes, or by
109 gradient isolation using Ficoll. They are grown in culture medium: RPMI 1640 medium,
110 supplement: bovine fetal serum, L-glutamine, antibiotics, in the presence of a mitogen. They are
111 generally incubated for 72 hours, one hour before harvest, colcemid is added to stop cell division
112 and arrest the cells at metaphase. The arrested cells are treated with hypotonic solution, KCl,
113 (0.075M) for 15-20 mins and the cell are fixed with galacial acetit acid: methanol (Carnoy's
114 fixative). After cell culture, chromosome slides are prepared for downstream studies
115 (8,33–35).

116 **CHROMOSOME BANDING TECHNIQUES**

117 **G banding**

118 G banding is a euchromatic banding technique that's essential in individual chromosomes
119 identification. It is used to identify chromosome abnormalities and rearrangements in cancers and
120 genetic diseases (36,37).

121 For G banding, slides are aged at room temperature for three or more days. They are thereafter
122 rinsed in distilled water, incubated in 0.025% freshly prepared trypsin for 35-40 seconds. They are
123 then rinsed in three washed of PBS⁻, which blocks the action of trypsin, Or 10% Giemsa is used to
124 stain the slides. They are air dried and viewed under microscope. (Figure 1)

125 **R-banding**

126 R-band is approximately opposite of G or Q bands produced by various means and has the
127 theoretical advantage of staining the gene-rich chromatin, thereby enhancing the ability to
128 visualize small structural rearrangements in the parts of the genome that are most likely to result in
129 phenotypic abnormalities (37).

130 Slides are prepared and aged for three days, they are then incubated in a buffer solution twice,
131 usually Earle's bicarbonate free solution, first at 87°C pH 5.3 for 30 minutes, then at 87°C, pH 6.5
132 for another 30 minutes after which they are rinsed in running water. The slides are then stained
133 with Giemsa and viewed under microscope with orange filter.

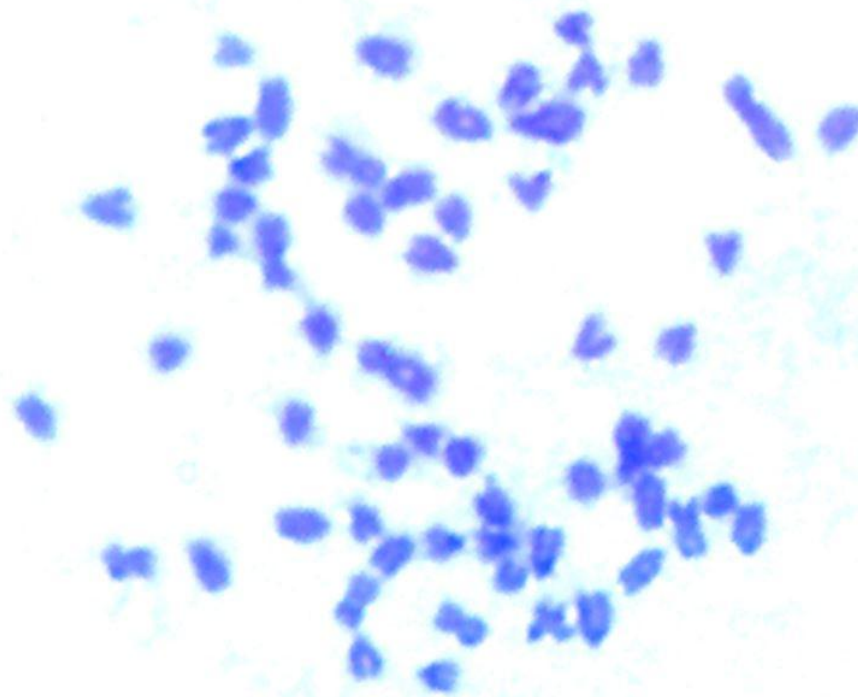
134 **NOR staining**

135 Ag-NOR staining is employed to identify the nucleolar organizers and their activities on
136 chromosomes.

137 The slides will be incubated in borate buffer pH 9.2 at room temperature for 30 minutes. They are
138 rinsed in distilled water and theb air dried. They are mounted in a 50% silver nitrate solution with
139 a coverslip. They put in a humid chamber and incubated in a water bath at 65°C for 1 hour. After
140 the incubation, they will be rinsed with distilled water and then stained for 1minute with 1%
141 Giemsa and observed under microscope. A lot of variant methods can be used for this
142 technique(38–40).

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146 **Figure 1: A metaphase chromosomes spread of the deer (*Cervus timorensis*) produced for**
147 **conventional cytogenetics karyotyping.**



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150 THE MOLECULAR CYTOGENETIC TECHNIQUES

151 Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization (FISH)

152 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) is a technique that allows the localization of genes and
153 other specific DNA sequences on target cells and chromosomes. FISH is widely applied in
154 cytological studies and has gone beyond gene mapping or the study of genetic rearrangements in
155 disease. It is used increasingly used to study genome organization in various organisms including
156 livestock and plant (41–43)

157 The discovery that labelled ribosomal RNA hybridises to acrocentric chromosomes was the
158 foundation of the FISH technique (i.e. chromosomes in which the centromere is not located at the
159 center)(44) . In the beginning, radioisotopes were used as reporters for the FISH technique.
160 However, the arrival fluorochromes, which are safer alternatives, both in their time requirement
161 and their ability to give rise to different colours, has provided a suitable replacement. This
162 technique involves the use of DNA or RNA probes, which are labelled with fluorescent molecules
163 and hybridised to genomic DNA sequences, to enable the study of specific sites on chromosomes.
164 It can be used in physical chromosome mapping, chromosomes rearrangement analysis,
165 comparative gene mapping, studies of chromosome structure and evolution and a host of other
166 interesting areas(30,45–47)The in-situ methods involve the use of DNA or RNA probes, which are
167 labelled with fluorescent molecules and hybridised to genomic DNA sequences, to enable the
168 study of specific sites on chromosomes. The advancement in the available technology
169 continuously provides scientists with more robust variants of the technique with more resolution.
170 Below we discuss some of the most applied variants currently.

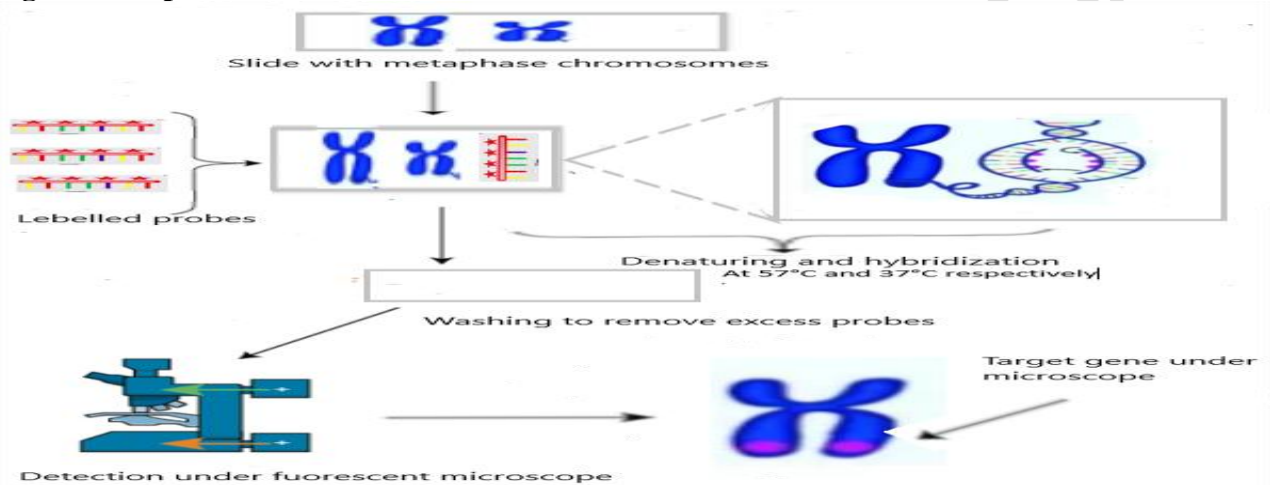
171 The production of probe, which is achieved through DNA extraction and labelling is the first step
172 in FISH. The labelling could be done by either PCR, random priming or enzymatically through
173 nick translation.

174 Nick translation is a process by which DNA polymerase causes nicks in single DNA strands
175 through its exonuclease activity. Thereafter, nucleotide, which are labelled with fluorescent dye
176 are incorporated in to the broken single strands, the nicks, by DNA polymerases. The polymerase
177 uses the healthy strand, which is non-nicked as a template.

178 The first step in FISH is production of a DNA probe. This is achieved by incorporating a
179 fluorochrome into a template the DNA in a reaction known as labelling. The probes can be

180 labelled by a number of different reactions, these could be achieved through both enzymatic and
 181 chemical procedures. as nick translation, random priming or the polymerase chain reaction (PCR).
 182 After a probe is produced from genomic DNA, Cot-1 DNA, which suppress the hybridisation of
 183 repetitive sequences, is added to the mixture, to prevent non-specific hybridisation, which can in
 184 difficulty to distinguish between 'signal' and 'background noise' (48).
 185 Slides of metaphase chromosome spreads are prepared as described above (49). The slide is heated
 186 through appropriately to denature the target DNA. The probe, which is mixed with the and Cot-1
 187 DNA is also denatured by heating and thereafter applied to the slide for hybridisation. The slide is
 188 incubation for an average of period of 24 hours at 37°C for hybridisation between the probe and
 189 target DNA (48). The length of hybridization sequences determines the incubation time, generally
 190 shorter probes, like repetitive DNA probes or chromosome-painting probes, require shorter
 191 incubation time, whereas longer probes, used in incubation times are needed to hybridise of
 192 complementary DNA (cDNA) sequences or complete genomes, require longer incubation time
 193 (48). The target is detected under fluorescent microscope (1) (Figure 2).

194 **Figure 2: steps involved in FISH**



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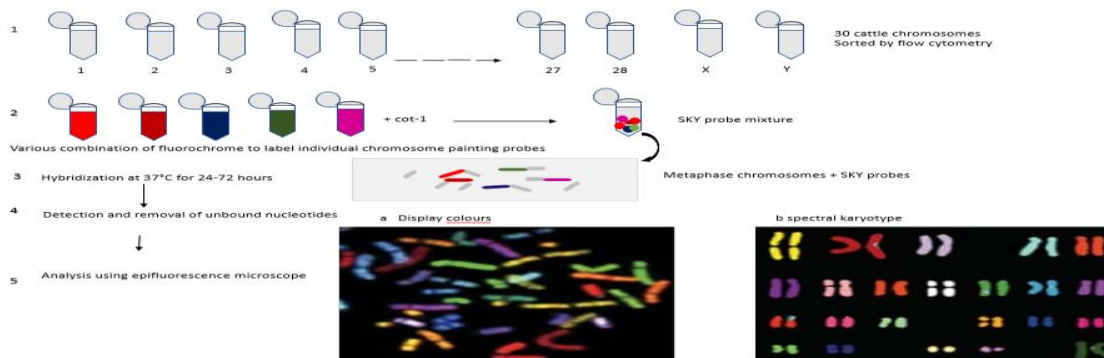
198 **Spectral Karyotyping And Multicolor Fish (M-Fish)**

199 The advent of FISH saw the birth of a technique which allows the fluorescence of a single copy
 200 gene. This was a very big improvement at the time, but researchers soon began longing for even
 201 more potent techniques that could paint multiple chromosomes and genes at the same time (30).
 202 To achieve this, a technique called M-FISH was developed in humans. M-FISH enabled the
 203 painting and viewing of all the human chromosome in different colours. In this technique every
 204 chromosome can have a different color through the combination of fluorescent dyes at in different
 205 concentrations. This technique can be useful, especially in the case of complex aberrations
 206 associated with solid tumors of different types (5). These techniques can be made to automatically
 207 stratify different chromosomal segments by differential coloration. The presence of this and its
 208 enhancements signal a new dawn in the hope for automated karyotype analysis system in the near
 209 future(44,50). M-FISH techniques have proven a lot of usefulness in detecting chromosomal
 210 translocations and other intricate chromosomal aberrations (1). To avoid fertilization failure due to
 211 chromosomal abnormality after IVF, MFISH is employed to screen the oocytes, in humans, to
 212 ensure that oocytes with no chromosomal abnormality are used in the procedure. This is called
 213 Preimplantation genetic diagnosis (PGD) screening. The procedure is should be useful in
 214 Veterinary cytogenetics, especially with regards to endangered species (51).

215 The simultaneous hybridization of chromosome-specific composite probes is the basis on which
 216 SKY was build. For humans and mouse probes are generated after sorting the chromosomes
 217 through flow cytometry (52). Each chromosome library is generated by is labelling them with
 218 single or a combination of multiple fluorochromes, which produces specific spectra for the
 219 chromosomes. To increase resolution and discernibility of the procedure, different combinations
 220 of fluorochrome is preferred. For painting human chromosomes, five different fluorochromes are

221 incorporated into the DNA through a combinative labelling program using degenerate
 222 oligonucleotide primer–polymerase chain reaction (DOP–PCR), it allows the identification of 31
 223 different targets (48). Repetitive sequences are a primary problem of this technique, therefore
 224 excess of Cot-1 DNA is used with the probes to suppress the unwanted sequences, during
 225 hybridization onto metaphase chromosome preparations. The hybridization mixture is incubated at
 226 37°C for an average of 48 hours. Post hybridization washes are used to remove residual probes
 227 before detection steps are to visualize the specimens (48). The detection is achieved by Image
 228 acquisition and processing using a complex microscope system and a CCD camera with
 229 interferometer and a computer (14). The spectral signatures are measured at all image points, all
 230 pixels with identical spectra are assigned unique colors and this measurement is used for
 231 chromosome classification (27,53). With this technique specific colour are assigned to each
 232 chromosome is the image is acquired with a single filter set (52) (Figure 3).

233 **Figure 3: Spectral karyotyping**



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236 **Comparative Genomic Hybridization (Cgh)**

237 CGH, and its later variants, which are more robust than FISH, have been employed to address its
 238 complexities and automation challenges (54). Because of its ability to detect various types of
 239 genetic imbalances in a single experiment, CGH has become a very useful and widely employed
 240 tool in cytological techniques in recent times. (48).

241 One of the most important advantages of CGH is that it does not require slides of metaphase
 242 chromosomes, it is used to survey DNA copy number variation, with vary high resolution across
 243 the genome (55–57). In CGH well characterized probes are printed on slides and DNA samples;
 244 unknown and control, which are differentially labelled are hybridized to the slide. The ratio of the
 245 unknown DNA to that of the control are analysed and measured (58).

246 CGH is applied to the whole genome; the entire genomic DNA of the test and reference are
 247 obtained by standard DNA extraction protocols. The two DNAs are labelled with different
 248 labelling agents (for example biotin for the test genome and digoxigenin reference genome). The
 249 two DNAs are combined and added to an unlabeled cot-1 DNA, to rid both genomes of unwanted
 250 repetitive sequences (30,59). The mixture is mapped to a reference metaphase slide, which carries
 251 a normal DNA, through hybridization. The two DNAs are detected using Avidin coupled with
 252 FITC and antidigoxin coupled to rhodamine for biotin and digoxigenin-labelled DNA
 253 respectively. The DNA copy-number alterations in the test genome is detected by the different
 254 colour intensities of the two fluorochromes allows the copy number alteration in the test DNA to
 255 be detected (48).

256 **TELOMERE LENGTH ANALYSIS**

257 Another technique which is important in animal production is telomere analysis. The structures are
 258 located at chromosomes terminals and in conjunction with some proteins (TRF1, TRF2, POT1,
 259 TIN2, TPP1 and Rap1) protect the chromosomes from deterioration at the extremities and fusion
 260 with neighboring chromosomes (60). Because telomeres undergo shortening during replication in
 261 livestock and humans (61), analysis of its length has the potential to be used as a marker for
 262 diagnosis, especially for stress (15,62–64). Shortening of telomere is also associated with
 263 oxidative stress, resulting from inflammation or exposure to xenobiotics or irradiation (65).

264 Current techniques employed to study telomere length include quantitative fluorescence in situ
265 hybridization (Q-FISH), PCR of single telomere lengths (STELA), qPCR, interphase nuclei and
266 flow-FISH and terminal restriction fragment (TRF) length analysis by Southern blot (66,67).

267 **IMMUNOLocalIZATION OF DNA REPAIR PROTEINS**

268 This is another technique applied to animal production, it has been used to study chromosome
269 pairing chromosome translocation and recombination during meiosis (68). It has also been applied
270 for the study double strand DNA breaks via histones and binding proteins (69). This analysis can
271 be achieved without necessarily making slide that will require protein fixation (70,71)

272 **COMET ASSAY**

273 Through this test researchers can study single cells to evaluate DNA strand breaks therein, it is
274 also known as single cell gel electrophoresis. Cell are lysed in neutral or alkaline condition and
275 then they are embedded in a low melting agarose gel. The suspended cells are electrophoresed and
276 stained with fluorescent DNA dye and imaged. Undamaged cells are highly organized and show
277 slow migration across the gel, while damaged ones don't appear organized and migrate faster
278 along the gel. Double-strand breaks are identified in neutral conditions, while alkaline conditions
279 allow double-strand breaks detection (72,73). The technique has been used to study various
280 toxicological effects in humans and livestock (74–77) in cattle; (78) in sheep and (79) in horses.

281 **CONCLUSION**

282 Cytogenetics has been of great importance in veterinary reproduction over the past few decades
283 since its introduction and the application has greatly increased our understanding of animal
284 infertility and its types, embryonic and fetal death, abnormality in sexual and somatic
285 development and hybrid sterility and also prenatal sex determination and chromosomal
286 abnormality. The Molecular techniques have greatly enhanced the field of cytogenetic research.
287 The development of FISH techniques has, particularly widened the paradigm for research in this
288 area considerably. The existence of enormous resolution gap between traditional cytogenetic
289 techniques and molecular biology techniques has now been extensively reduced by molecular
290 cytogenetics. Scientists have successfully arrested the problem of sensitivity by developing new
291 methods which have the ability to detect fluorescently labeled probes not more than 200 base pairs
292 length. Another feat is the development of MFISH, which enables colour karyotyping, and
293 therefore, the simultaneous visualization of a complete set of chromosomes. This has greatly
294 reduced the issue of multiplicity in these techniques. Characterization of imbalances in
295 chromosomes is today conveniently, thanks to the introduction of CGH, which has become an
296 invaluable tool in this regard. The Comet assay, Immunolocalization of DNA repair proteins and
297 Telomere length analysis have all played various roles in shaping our understanding of
298 cytogenetics today. These advances have together contributed in improving and refining the field
299 of cytogenetics and have increased the ease and versatility of research using cytogenetic tools. The
300 applications of these techniques have now transcended the boundaries of low-resolution
301 diagnostics of chromosomal aberrations and is now well established in functional and comparative
302 basic research.

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305 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

306

307 There are no competing interests regarding the preparation and submission of this manuscript.

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309 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

310

311 All authors have been part of the manuscript preparation and have read and approved the final manuscript."

312

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