

Józef Kędziora, Roman Łukaszewicz

DEPENDENCE OF IONIZING RADIATION
AND OTHERS ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IN DOWN'S SYNDROME

Since the very beginning of the existence of human species its representatives have been trying to make their life easier. These attempts have induced, among others, struggle against harassing diseases, owing to the development of medicine and technology and the civilization progress in general. Nowadays decimating human populations belong to the past and some microorganisms that depopulated whole continents, practically do not leave microbiological laboratories. More and more efficacious and strong medicines have prolonged the human life-span. However, all these civilization achievements do not lack some deleterious side-effects. Changes in the economic, social etc. systems due to these very achievements have born new problems.

Disappearance of some diseases has been accompanied by outbursts of new ones, among them those with respect to which the possibilities of science are still limited, i.e. genetically conditioned disorders.

The frequency of these diseases increases which is not independent of the civilizational progress and its implications. One of such diseases belonging to most important from a social point of view, due to its abundance and meagre possibilities of treatment is Down's syndrome.

Since in 1866 Dr Langdon Down, medical superintendent of the Earlswood Hospital described a phenotype typical for the mental deficiency associated with "mongoloid" features [38] etiology of this disease, erroneously acknowledged by the Author to be the consequence of tuberculosis, was to remain unknown for almost 100 years. Only as late as in 1959, when Lejeune et al. linked the clinical picture to trisomy 21 [103] and seen a decreased excretion of indolic, indoloacetic and xanthurenic acids in urine of patients with Down's syndrome was revealed [76]

both before and after tryptophan loading, the conclusion of a genetically conditioned metabolic defect as a cause of this disease has prompted to intensive comparative biochemical studies of normal individuals and patients with Down's syndrome.

Clinical picture

The clinical picture of Down's syndrome includes little size, askew eyelids and a characteristic pattern of the epicanthal fold [139]. Head is small, of shortened anteroposterior diameter. The patients have broad palms and fingers and characteristic dermatoglyphe irregularities [6, 31, 36, 91, 134]. A permanent feature of Down's syndrome is mental deficiency, developing since first years of life [11]

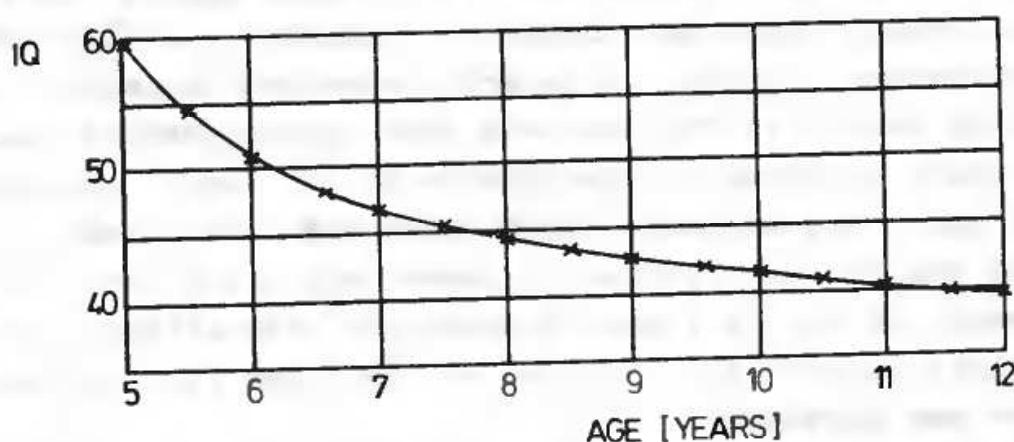


Fig. 1. Dependence between IQ and age in D.S.

Frequent are cardiopathies, persistent arteriel duct, narrowed pulmonary ertery, persistent interauricular orifice and intraventricular septum losses. Thyroid and superrenal glands are decreased in size and weight. The patients show increased susceptibility to infections and lymphatic leukemia. Elder patients [over 34] suffer practically in 100% to Alzheimer's disease, believed to be conditioned metebolically [61, 125] Increased frequency of visual and auditive effects [7, 51] and lowered blood pressure [136] have been found; EEG shows pathological features in Down's syndrome.

Causes of Down's syndrome

Down's syndrome is conditioned genetically, and epparently most pertinent to its etiology is the occurence of a pathogenic segment in chromosomes of group G. The discovery of additional ecrocentric chromosome 21 in the patients have given basis to ascribe Down's syndrome to trisomy 21. However the occurrence of similar disturbances in individuals displaying cytogenetic anomalies of other types,

the existence of trisomy *G* without any phenotype changes and in some cases the presence of Down's syndrome symptoms in the absence of any perceivable chromosomal alterations [55, 77, 127] require still care in explanation of etiopathogenesis of this disease. At the moment it is assumed generally that Down's syndrome occurs in cases of trisomy *G*, unbalanced translocations *D/G* or *G/G* and XXXY or XYY polyploidies [15, 48, 130, 156]. Trisomy *G* is believed to be due to non-disjunction or duplication of genetic material. It seems that though the link of the occurrence of DS to the chromosomes of group *G* is obvious, a detailed explanation of the nature of genetic disturbance is still to be elucidated unequivocally. One cannot exclude a possibility of several different causes resulting in clinically similar cases of DS. A more precise description of etiology of this disease can be expected from localization of gene loci of chromosome 21 responsible for individual effects and metabolic disturbances. Up to now, the following gene loci have been located in chromosome 21:

- AVG (antiviral gene), responsible for the selectivity of interferon actions
- genes responsible for:
 - (i) indophenoloxidase - (IPO),
 - (ii) copper-zinc superoxide dismutase - (SOD-1) and
 - (iii) glycine ribonucleotide synthetase (GARS).

However, a general opinion is that IPO-A and SOD-1 are synthesized at the same gene locus (21 q 22.1) and represent one enzyme [147]. Determination of positions of the gene loci was accomplished using the cell-hybrid technique [169, 170]. Gene dosage effect has not been studied for GARS but for SOD-1 a 50% surplus in activity was found in trisomic cells (fibroblasts in vitro), according to expectations. In the case of AVG the increment was higher than expected but the test applied did not measure the amount of the protein - only effect of its action, eventually dependent on the interferon sensitivity in vitro [75, 76].

Yet in 1980, 2 decades after Lejeune, Turpin and Gautier demonstrated chromosomal basis of mongolism, some of the same previously postulated etiological agents are still suspect. Recognition of the cytogenetic basis of DS had indicated the time of action of whatever the causative factors might be but

did not identify them. While the chromosomal basis is more or less known in this disease, the causation for the "chromosomal error" is not. Concerning epidemiological aspect of DS we must not neglect some social changes having unfortunately a definite enhancing effect on the frequency of DS. An increased risk of so defective progeny was found in elderly females [64-67] and males [67-69, 160-162].

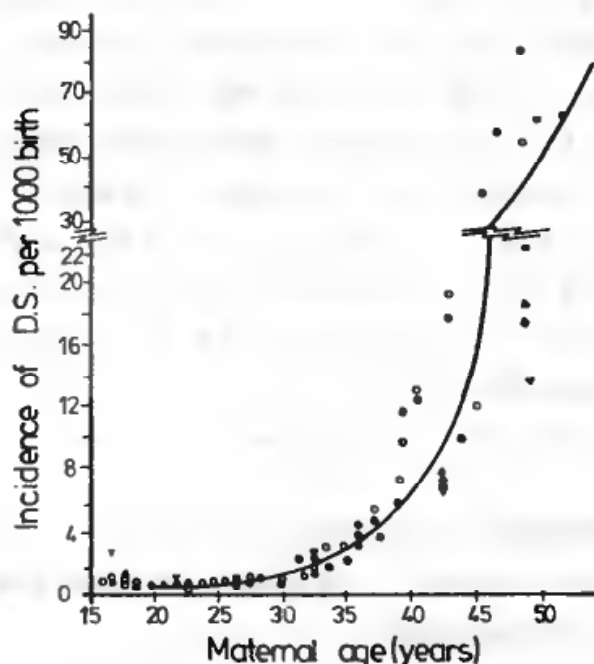


Fig. 2. Maternal age and risk of D.S. conception

It is noteworthy that the effect of parental age is seen even in second generation [131]. Sociological trends favouring late pregnancy (second marriages, professional career preceding conception) may lead towards the increase in the aberration frequency in future. In 1961 [145] the world frequency of DS among live births was 0.34%. Lately the incidence of newborns with this disease decreased slightly but when introducing a correction for the interruptions and removal of foetuses with this anomaly (still more frequent due to develop-

ment of prenatal diagnostics) a constant increase in the frequency of DS must be concluded. Moreover, the figures represent only one third of all 21 trisomics conceived; it has been estimated that two third are spontaneously aborted [142]. The actual frequency of 21 trisomy is, therefore, closer to one in 200-250. What is the cause of the high rate of abnormal chromosome segregation during gametogenesis. The unknown element is the particular factor (or factors) unique to aging that cause difficulties in older parents. The review of various factors correlating with DS frequency, as mitotic and hormonal drug use, ionizing radiation etc. indicates that occurrence of mutagenic factors, apparently responsible for the increase in the percent abundance of Q/Q translocations in developed countries [65] is not indifferent to the epidemiology of DS. It was first demonstrated in *Drosophila melanoga-*

ster [129] that aged females exposed to radiation show an increase in nondisjunctional progeny whereas aging alone does not. The relevance of these findings to the human situations confirmed expectations [172]. The same increase in exceptional offspring of irradiated females was found and there was no detectable effect of maternal age in the absence of radiation.

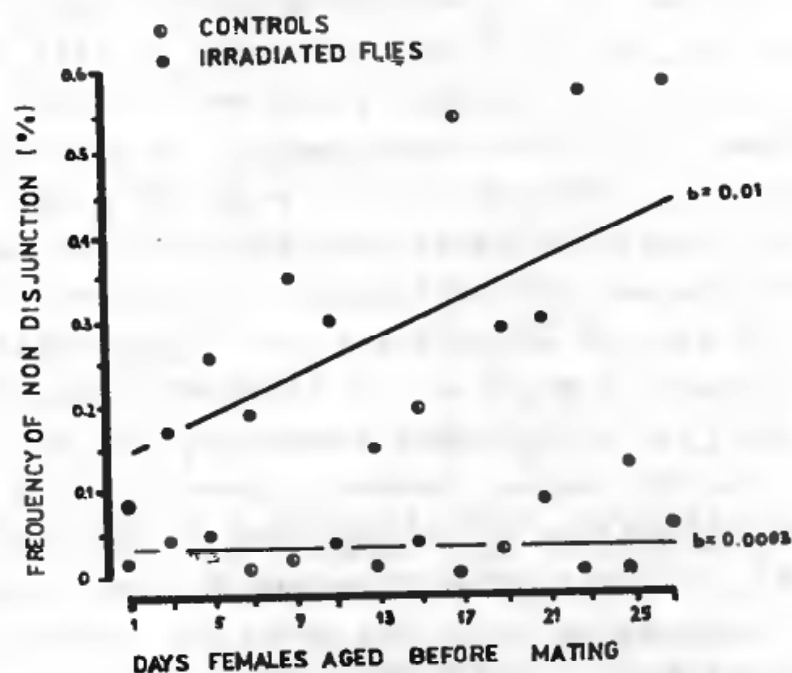


Fig. 3. Increase with age of aneuploid progeny of irradiated female *Drosophila* (cited after I.A. Uchida)

However the suggestion of an association between maternal radiation and trisomy was met with scepticism. A prospective analysis by Schull and Neel [153] of the effects of atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki produced negative result. On the other hand no data concerning spontaneous abortions among conceptions under those conditions were obtainable. Because of the conflicting data and the errors inherent in a retrospective study Uchida et al undertook in 1969 a prospective investigation. A significantly higher number of autosomal aneuploids were born after the mothers were irradiated: a frequency of 10 : 1 [171]. Also retrospective studies by Sigler et al in the USA and Alberman et al. in England confirmed the findings of previous study [3, 155]. The human epidemiological studies thus agree with the experimental evidence found in *Drosophila*. Of course a justifiable criticism is that human can hardly be compared with *Drosophila* be-

cause of not identical mechanism of meiosis. In order to receive results of a more comparable nature, a mammal is more appropriate.

H e n d e r s o n et al. suggested that an increased frequency of univalents associated with a reduced frequency of chiasmata in first meiotic metaphase of the oocytes of aged mice may be a reflection of an increased frequency of non-diploid embryos. An abnormal number of chromosomes should be seen in next metaphase after non-disjunction [108]. In order to test this hypothesis U c h i d a et al. irradiated young and old mice to whole body. 21 chromosomes (i.e. hypermodal counts) were found only in irradiated mice [173]. Comparing two irradiated groups the increased frequency of hyperploid cells was significantly higher in the older animals. However the difference in frequency between young and aged mice was not significant in non-irradiated group. Similar results found Y a m a m o t o et al. [189] and R e i c h e r t et al. [135]. Analogous investigations are impossible in humans for obvious reason. Recently however the effect of radiation on the segregation of chromosomes in somatic cells was observed [174]. Trisomic cells occurred 4 times as frequently in irradiated lymphocytes as in the controls, moreover significantly higher frequencies of cells with an extra X or No. 21 were found. These results may be relevant to the frequent occurrence of these chromosomes in euploidy.

Epidemiological studies investigating the possible role of radiation exposure in the mothers of DS offspring have been conducted recently in various countries.

It is noteworthy that although obtained data were in 2 cases negative, all significant results were positive. Unfortunately the data from the various studies cannot be pooled since the methodology is not uniform. However, taking into account known observations - it seems highly logical to avoid unnecessary exposure to radiation that might be partly responsible for the genetic burden of humans. It is very probably, that more frequent (or epidemic) viral hepatitis [176] has pointed to alterations in the immune system. Though more detailed studies did not confirm the relation between increased susceptibility to some diseases and Down's syndrome, it was proven that the immune system of trisomics shows considerable differences with respect to that of normal subjects. The question of appropriate selection of control groups for hos-

pitalized persons arouse many controversies in view of the effect of prolonged hospitalization per se on the patients immune system.

Table 1

Data concerning maternal radiation and Down's syndrome reported from several countries since 1959

Authors	Country	Year	Results
Lunn [109]	Scotland	1959	+ NS
Uchida and Curtis [172]	Canada	1961	+ S
Carter et al. [22]	England	1961	- NS
Stevenson et al. [163]	Iceland	1961	+ NS
Schull and Neel [153]	Japan	1962	- NS
Sigler et al. [155]	USA	1965	+ S
Uchida et al. [171]	Canada	1968	+ S
Marmol et al. [111]	USA	1969	+ NS
Stevenson et al. [164]	England	1970	+ NS
Villumsen [178]	Denmark	1970	+ NS
Alberman et al. [3]	England	1972	+ S

+ - Down's syndrome more frequent after irradiation.

- - Down's syndrome less frequent than in control.

S - Significant, NS - Not significant.

E.g. a decreased activity of anti-HAV antibodies was reported for Down's syndrome but the difference with respect to other patients of institutions for mentally deficient persons (estimated by the SPRIA) Solid Phase Radio Immuno Assay (method) was only 12% while equalling to 87% in comparison to healthy persons [100]. The prolonged institutionalization was apparently an important factor itself. Preliminary hypotheses on leukemia etiology in mongolism were not confirmed. The "Philadelphia" group G chromosome described by Nowell et al. [121] and believed to be a factor predisposing for leukemia in Down's syndrome was then evidenced to belong to the earlier replicating pair G22. This chromosome was demonstrated to occur in other diseases of the erythropoietic system, too [133].

According to the free-radical theory of cancerogenesis by Oberley et al. [122] it seems that the 30% decrease in the level of Mn-superoxide dismutase (SOD-2) in Down's syndrome can be responsible for the increased frequency of lymphatic leukemia in mongolism. The confirmation by Schlesinger et al. in 1973 of the diminution of lymphocyte count in Down's syndrome [148] together with the previous reports of Bendy and Strass-

man on thymic alteration [10] and enlargement of Hassal's corpuscles evidence a possibility of destabilization of the thymus-controlled system. Recent studies by Burgio, Ugazio, Levine and others authors [18, 19, 105, 106, 175-177] confirmed malfunction of the thymic system [1, 35, 56, 73, 89, 93, 94, 120, 147, 181, 187] dramatically reinforced with increasing age in trisomics.

The decrease in lymphocyte T count was found to be linked to the presence of HLA-B8 alleles in the patients [49]. The percent of monocytes and EAC (erythrocyte-antibody-complement complex) rosette-forming cells was increased. The effect of such T-cells mitogens as concanavalin A or PHA was weakened. Results of observations and conclusions in this field are presented in Table 2 where, unfortunately scarcity of place precludes a detailed description of experimental methods used. It is noteworthy that studies on the immunoglobulin level demonstrating a statistically significant increase in IgA, IgG, IgE, IgD [117] while decrease in IgM [94] observed in cases using healthy children as a control group often do not remain statistically significant in comparison with institutionalized mentally retarded patients without Down's syndrome. This result indicates, that some of the abnormalities found in immunoglobulins in Down's syndrome may be caused by indirect factors due to different conditions of life, usually occurring in trisomics. Because only several reports are in this field identical, while others do not demonstrate full agreement we decided to present them in Table 2, taking into account different findings.

Table 2

Some aspects of the immune system in patients with Down's syndrome

Clinical findings:

- Increased incidence of infections, particularly respiratory [126]
- Increased incidence of lymphatic leukemia [115]
- High incidence of Australian antigenemia [167, 176]
- High incidence of thyroid autoantibodies [176]

Immunologic findings:

- Diminished number of blood lymphocytes [105]
- Diminished phagocyte activity [143]
- B cells
 - Normal number [49, 105, 144]
 - Immunoglobulin production [116, 165, 168]

cd. tabeli 2

IgM level, normal or decreased IgG level, normal or increased IgA level, normal or increased IgD level, increased Defective antibody response to bacteriophage ϕ X174 [108] T cells Diminished number [105] Diminished blast transformation with PHA [49, 146] Diminished delayed skin hypersensitivity to PHA [186] Deficient interferon production Respond to thymic humoral factors [56] Diminished LIF with PHA

Pathology

Spleen: T-zone lymphocytes depleted
 Thymus:
 Small with severe lymphocyte depletion
 Giant and cystic Hassall's corpuscles
 Increased cellularity around some HC
 Contracted, depleted cortex

Most of investigations of the immune system in DS has been based in observations of whole organism. Only recently started studies basing on cultured DS fibroblasts [22]. Up to now previous reports do not allow to draw more precisely conclusions. It is noteworthy that our own investigations carried out using the technique of crossed immunoelectrophoresis indicate a statistically significant decrease of prealbumins and increase of the level of α_2 -macroglobulin and immunoglobulin A [89] Fig. 4, 5.

Biochemical anomalies in Down's syndrome

Perceptible changes in the pattern of peptide maps of cultured fibroblasts do not permit an unequivocal interpretation of underlying changes in view of the complicated repression-induction mechanisms and possible effects of regulatory proteins on structural proteins [182]. In this situation a detailed examination and consideration of changes occurring in simple model systems (red blood cells, blood platelets, body fluids) seems to be of great value. Additional advantages of such studies are in possibilities of their application in simple diagnostic tests and in eventual tests of efficiency of substitutive treatments. Discovery of factors in maternal body fluids which could correlate with the risk of embryo's abnormality would create a possibility of a preliminary narrowing of recommendations for amniocentesis and, therefore, result in a higher availability of this test in practice. The currently accepted recommendations as, e.g., mother age above 35 [188] lead to

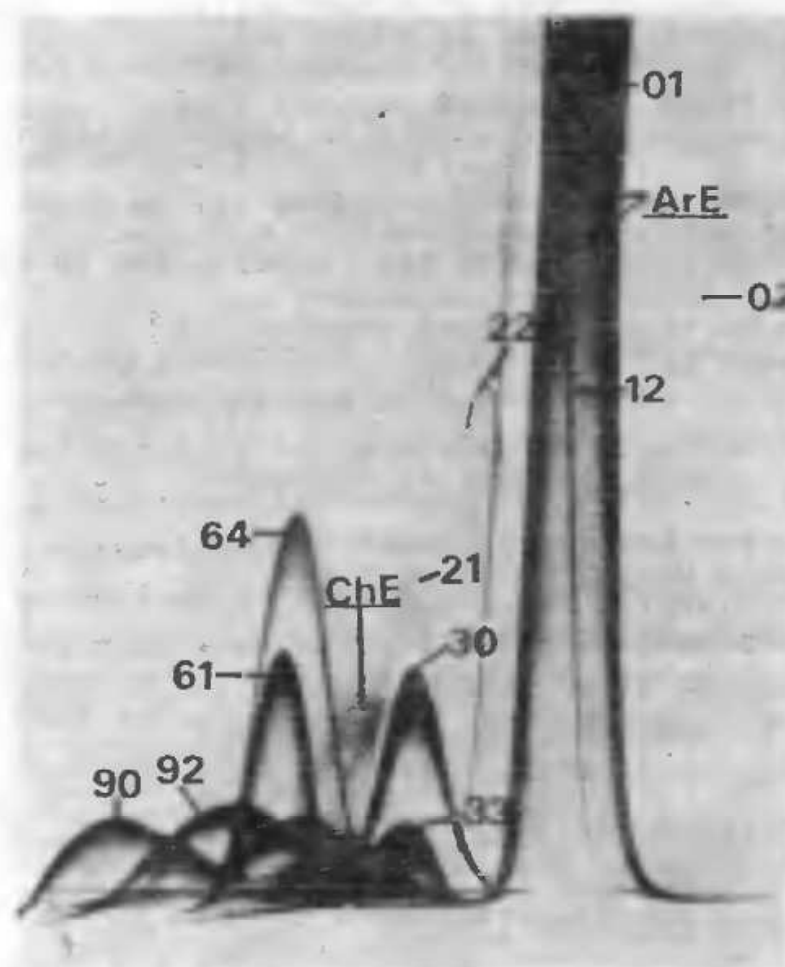


Fig. 4. Crossed immunoelectrophoresis of human blood plasma
 01 - albumin, 02 - prealbumin, 12 - α -1-antitrypsin, 21 - Gc - globulin, 22 - α -1-antichymotrypsin, 30 - haptoglobulin, 33 - α -2-macroglobulin, 61 - transferrin, 64 - hemopexin, 90 - IgG, 92 - IgA, ChE - cholinesterase, ArE - arylesterase

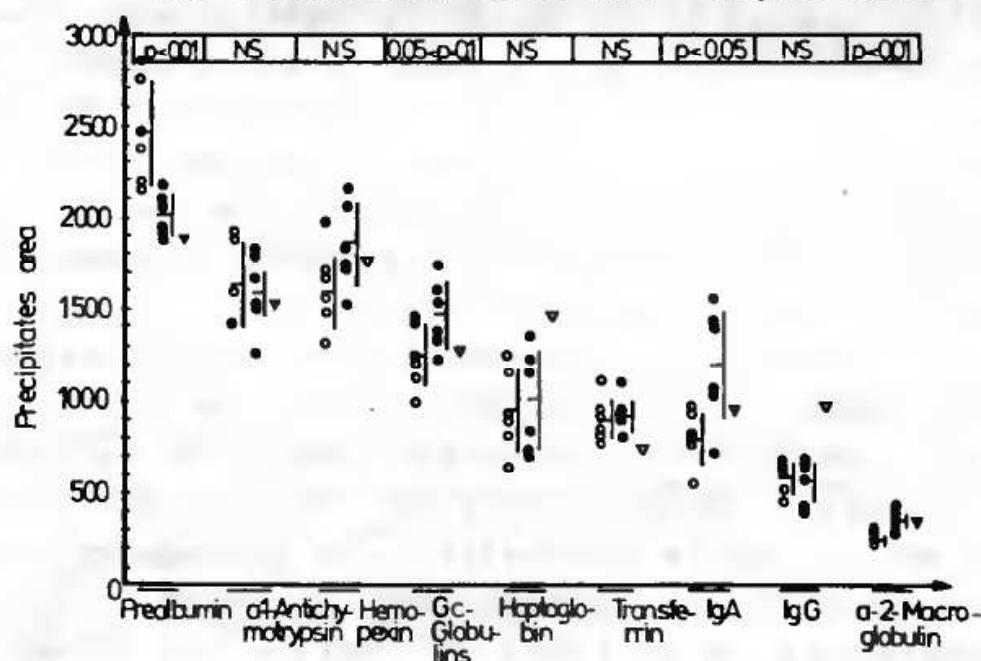


Fig. 5. Surface area below immunoprecipitates of plasma protein fractions for control group, trisomy G-21 and translocations G 21/22

over 90% of erroneously positive results (see Fig. 2). A need for elaboration of a preliminary screening test under conditions of demand for 18000 amniocenteses in Poland yearly [32] is obvious. Success of another test of this type (AFP level in mother serum) for diagnosis of CNS deficiencies [184] allows for some dose of optimism based on this confirmation of the effect of embryonic disturbances on the biochemistry of the mother.

Studies on the content of energy-rich compounds in morphotic elements of the blood demonstrated a decrease in the level of ATP in blood platelets and red blood cells down to 50% of the value typical for healthy persons [83]. In the red blood cells the ADP level was decreased, too, while concentration AMP increased two-fold [82]. Despite the lack of consensus concerning the decrease in 2,3-DPG [95] our results confirm data on a 50% fall in the concentration of this compound in erythrocytes [82, 83]. On the other hand, the levels of HDP, NAD, NADP and inorganic phosphates are increased [82]. The decrease in ATP and 2,3-DPG may involve inhibition of glycolysis and stimulation of the pentose shunt. A threefold increase in the activity of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase was reported [140].

Looking for causes of the observed changes in metabolite concentrations one should consider the process of ATP generation in the red blood cell. The only significant process yielding ATP in this cell is glycolysis where ATP synthesis is coupled to conversion of 1,3-diphosphoglycerate into 3-phosphoglycerate (catalyzed by glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) and to formation of pyruvate from phosphoenolpyruvate (catalyzed by pyruvate kinase). The established anomalies may involve inhibition of any of these reactions. The decrease in 2,3-DPG level, increase in hexose diphosphate concentrations [80], accumulation of inorganic phosphate as well as enhancements of activities of hexokinase and phosphofructokinase [28, 99, 120] would indicate localization of the primary defect at the level of inhibition of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase. The observed increase in ATPase activity [185] may also contribute to the ATP depletion but quantitative data demonstrate that the increased activity of ATPase cannot be responsible for a drop in ATP concentration as high as 50%.

It is noteworthy that ATP depletion due to pyruvate kinase deficiency (as in non-spherocytic hemolytic anemia) [53, 132] invol-

ves an increase, not decrease in the level of 2,3 DPG [137]. This relation is in agreement with the hypothesis discussed above.

In the case considered, the observed increase in glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase activity [140, 142] may be due to induction of a compensative mechanism that in the presence of excess of hexosephosphate esters links the glycolytic pathway and the pentose shunt at the stage of conversion of glucose-6-phosphate into 6-phosphogluconate with NADP as hydrogen acceptor.

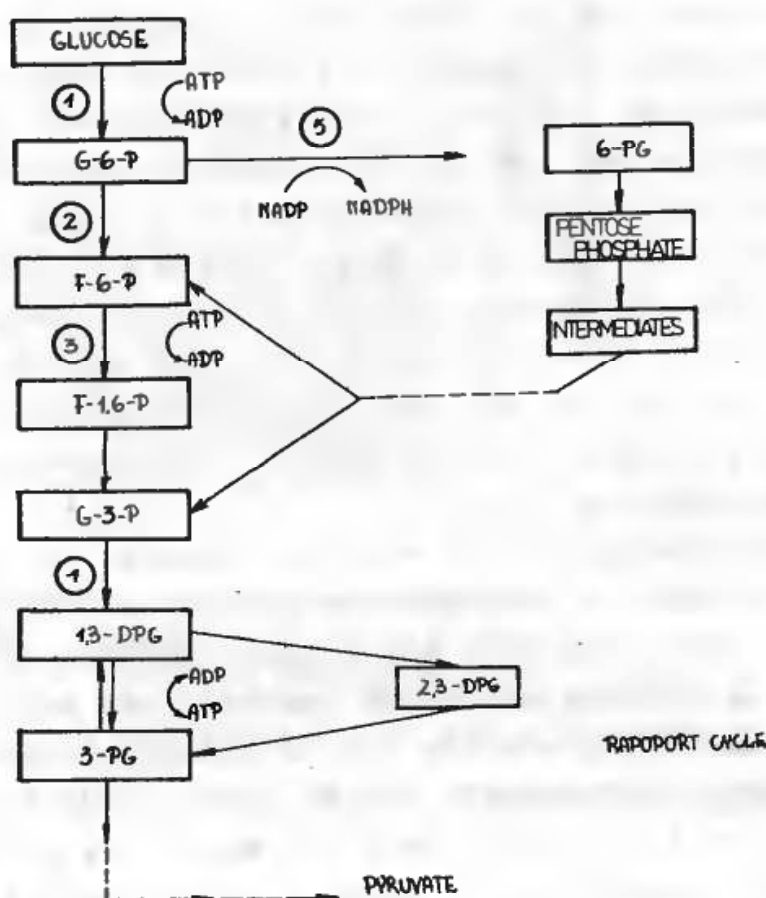


Fig. 6. Possible reactions between glycolytic pathways and pentose shunt in D.S.

In spite of suggestions that decreased ATP level is accompanied by increased susceptibility of erythrocytes to hemolytic agents [74] no enhancement of hemolysis was revealed in individuals with trisomy G. According to Beutler [13, 14] the extent of hemolysis depends on the level of glutathione. A decrease in reduced glutathione leads to accumulation of H_2O_2 which initiates hemolysis.

However, the level of glutathione peroxidase, a H_2O_2 -utilizing enzyme is increased by 50% in erythrocytes of patients with Down's

syndrome [86] which should prevent accumulation of H_2O_2 and subsequent hemolysis.

Studies of hemolytic resistance of the red cell membrane in trisomics 21 demonstrated a shift of the maximal resistance towards lower NaCl concentrations, with minimal resistance showing no deviations from values typical for controls. This results in a broader amplitude of osmotic resistance and in an altered pattern of the "osmotic fragility-resistance" curves.

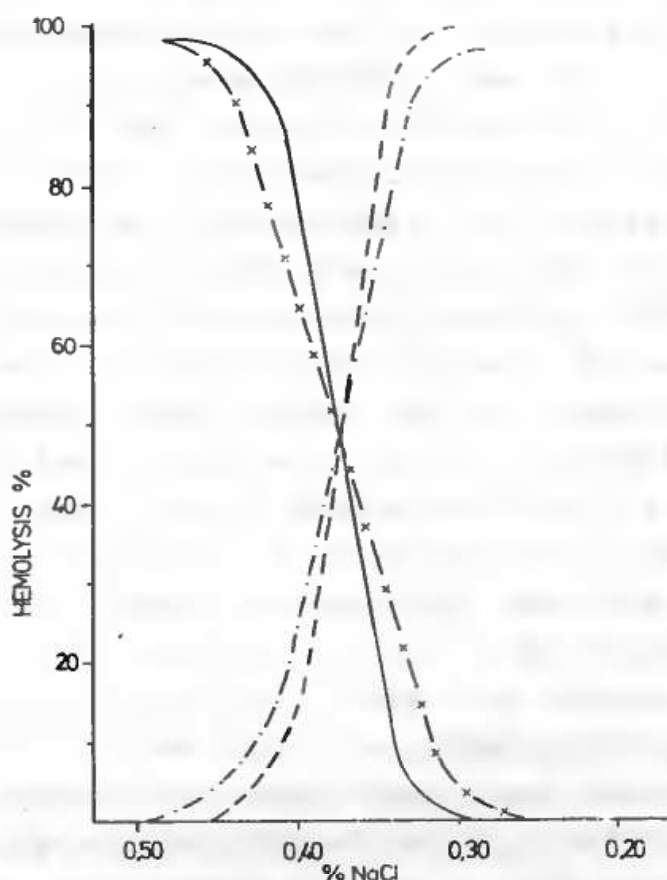


Fig. 7. "Osmotic fragility-resistance" curves in trisomics and healthy control

An increased sodium content and a decreased potassium content of erythrocytes of patients with Down's syndrome is noteworthy. Kinetic analysis of permeation of these ions across the membrane leads to a conclusion that K^+ ions activate the sodium pump and that this permeation corresponds to an enzymatic reaction of $Na^+-K^+-ATPase$ [104]. The enzyme has two active centers, one for sodium and the other for potassium. This mechanism could explain the observed differences in ion concentrations.

In erythrocytes of patients with trisomy G the glycolytic rate is controlled mainly by regulation of such allosteric enzymes as

hexokinase, phosphofructokinase, pyruvate kinase and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase. Parker and Hoffman (cited after) linked ion transport through membranes to activities of some glycolytic enzymes: phosphoglycerate kinase and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase. This would be in agreement with the inactivation of the latter enzyme hypothesized previously. The magnitude of the alterations in ion concentrations (decrease in K^+ and increase in Na^+ , both by about 5 mEq per 1 intracellular fluid) suggests a simple disturbance of the exchange in the ratio 1 : 1.

Determination of the level of ATP in blood platelets of individuals with Down's syndrome showed alterations similar to those found in erythrocytes. In spite of the lack of nucleus, blood platelets have active metabolism connected with the function performed by these cells in hemostasis [180]. The observed decrease in the levels of ATP and ADP may be due either to a depressed ability to accumulate these compounds in the metabolically inert and participating only in the clotting process "storage pool" or to decreased synthesis of energy-rich compounds, e.g. by inhibition of glycolysis. A decrease in NAD (by about 51% with respect to the control) would favor the latter possibility. No changes were found in the phosphohexokinase activity [37] but, on the other hand, activity of this enzyme is the lowest from among all glycolytic enzymes [58]. The Krebs cycle can be neglected in these considerations due to its 10-fold lower efficiency as compared with glycolysis in the blood platelets [34].

From among other results, an almost 4-fold increase in AMP content should be mentioned. The ATP/ADP ratio equalled 1.32 for patients with trisomy 21 while 1.62 for healthy persons and individuals with translocation G/G [82].

The level of serotonin, accumulated in blood platelets from plasma by means of active transport is lowered in Down's syndrome by about 40% [16, 112]. The hampered accumulation of 5-hydroxytryptamine by platelets of trisomics G [8, 75] was ascribed to decreased incorporation of this compound into the "storage pool" due to the decreased ATP content [17]. Another hypothesis postulated a main role of the increased Na^+ content in blood platelets of patients with Down's syndrome [113]. This hypothesis is in agreement with reports on the inhibition of serotonin uptake by mammalian blood platelets due to increased Na^+ content [159]. However, studies by McCoy [114] of serotonin uptake by platelets of healthy persons and of

patients with trisomy, previously depleted of sodium, demonstrated that though the uptake by platelets from trisomics increased with decreasing Na^+ content, this increase was not sufficient to secure proper uptake rate at a sodium level typical for platelets of healthy persons.

Down's syndrome is associated with hereditary disturbances in protein and amino acid metabolism. They include among others decreased urinary excretion of xanthurenic and indoloacetic acids, mentioned previously, and decrease in serum tryptophan and serotonin [79, 123]. An interesting result from among our own studies [81] is the presence of beta-aminoisobutyric acid (BAI-BA), a thymine catabolite, in blood serum of trisomics G; this compound occurs only in trace amounts, if any, in serum of healthy persons. In spite of a considerable concentration in serum, BAIBA was absent from erythrocytes. It indicates membrane impermeability for this compound, probably due to its configuration [24, 63].

Coming back to the established tryptophan deficiency in Down's syndrome, one should remind that it is an exogenous amino acid, so its deficiency can be due not only to an accelerated catabolism but also to a hampered uptake. Metabolism of tryptophane leads to nicotinic acid, a constituent of NAD (which is decreased in erythrocytes of trisomics) and, on the other hand, to 5-hydroxytryptamine; a low level of the latter in blood platelets and serum of patients with Down's syndrome was stated by many Authors [9, 123, 124]. Serotonin deficiency results in decreased muscular tonus, including blood vessels, and has a depressive effect on the CNS [2, 9, 79]. Administration of both L-tryptophane and serotonin [2, 9] during the first months of life brought about a disappearance of these effects in the patients. According to Fernstrom, the level of serotonin is affected by a lot of hormones which act, among others, by de-repression of genome and induction of mRNA synthesis [123] which could evidence a close interplay between the genome and the metabolites. Analysis of amino acid levels in erythrocytes of patients with Down's syndrome [82] showed increases in those of valine, leucine and isoleucine, and decreases in those of methionine, aspartic acid, glutamic acid, glutamine and glycine [81]. Augmented concentrations of amino acids with branched chains are in agreement with the high level of BAIBA in the serum of trisomics as beta-aminoisobutyric acid is formed as a catabolite of

these amino acids [138]. The decreased levels of other amino acids in erythrocytes of children with Down's syndrome are in line with our previous reports on the decreased contents of purine and pyrimidine nucleotides. The amino acids in question participate in the synthesis of the purine ring. Glutamate deficiency may lead to decreased concentrations of vitamin B₆. As vitamin B₆ is a coenzyme of kynureninase, enzyme catalyzing the final step of the tryptophan-kynurenine-hydroxykynurenine-3-hydroxyanthranilate pathway, vitamin B₆ deficiency disturbs kynurenine metabolism. This leads to formation of xanthurenic acid, present in patients with trisomy G [123]. Pyridoxal phosphate (vitamin B₆) takes part in amino acid transport into cells [25] which may explain further abnormalities in the distribution of these compounds with respect to the control [87]. The observed decrease in the content of methionine, a methyl donor, may implicate a deficient methylation in Down's syndrome, described by Cariddu et al. [20].

Studies of amino acid transport across the erythrocyte membranes [82] demonstrated a lower permeation rate for glutamic acid (by 42%), glycine (by 28%) and alanine (by 20%). The permeation rate of leucine did not differ with respect to the control. Choline transport [183] did not differ in a statistically significant manner, too, in spite of the postulated [101] disturbances in choline metabolism in Down's syndrome due to the common susceptibility to Alzheimer disease in this syndrome [12, 41]. Alzheimer disease is believed to be conditioned by a cholinergic mechanism since a decreased activity of acetylcholinesterase, an enzyme involved in choline permeation into neurons [60], was found in this illness [34]. In these studies, transport was monitored using substrates labeled with radioactive carbon.

A set of anomalies was described concerning hemoglobin in Down's syndrome. Structural studies revealed increased HbA₂ and slight decreases in HbA₁, and HbA₃ that may be conditioned by disturbed balance between synthesis of beta and delta chains. Functional studies demonstrated increased oxygen affinity of hemoglobin from triomics resulting in a leftward shift of oxygen dissociation curves [82].

The shape of oxygen dissociation curves is sigmoidal but the Hill coefficient describing the heme-heme interaction is decreased down to 2.73 which is in agreement with the low levels of 2,3-DPG

and ATP in red blood cells of individuals with trisomy 21 [190] and to a general enhanced oxygen affinity.

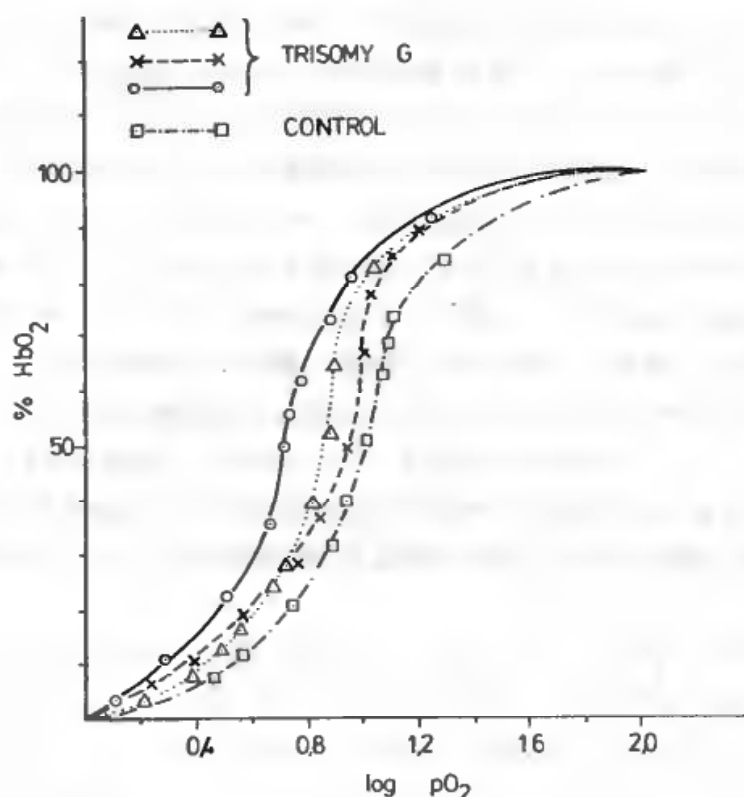


Fig. 8. Oxygen dissociation curves in D.S.

It is noteworthy that in spite of different etiopathogenesis, many common features, are observed in Down's syndrome and in Duarte type hemoglobinopathy ($\alpha_2\beta_2$ 62/E6 Ala-Pro).

Observations on the models of red blood cell and blood platelet suggest that the scope of biochemical anomalies in Down's syndrome is very broad and that they affect other tissues, too. This is reflected by changes in the protein pattern of blood serum [81, 96].

The decrease in albumin and α_1 - as well as α_2 -globulin (by 18 and 24%, respectively) with concomitant increase in beta (by 17%) and gamma-globulins (by 52%), decreases in activities of some enzymes (like acetylcholinesterase and pseudocholinesterase), and simultaneous increases in activities of other enzymes (like glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase [140] or phosphofructokinase [43] evidence simultaneously proceeding processes of induction and repression in the field of protein metabolism.

In the organism, at least two chief levels of functional control can be distinguished: cellular control and whole-body control.

The complex mechanism of metabolic regulation is coupled to the periodic activation of gene function which conditions initiation of protein biosynthesis [45, 57, 58] or (due to genetic suppression) inhibition of protein production [154]. This can be exemplified by the occurrence of genetic differences in production of serum cholinesterase [26, 47, 52, 62, 149, 150]. Family studies employing dibucaine inhibition tests point to the existence of three cholinesterase phenotypes controlled by two allelic genes [5, 54, 107]. The decrease in cholinesterase activity parallel to albumin changes in blood observed in Down's syndrome indicates the hepatic origin of the enzyme and a similar control mechanism.

The β_1 -globulin fraction contains, among others, transferrin [70, 152], a protein responsible for iron transport. In Down's syndrome the transferrin level was found to be significantly decreased, both in trisomy and in G/G or D/G translocations [82, 90].

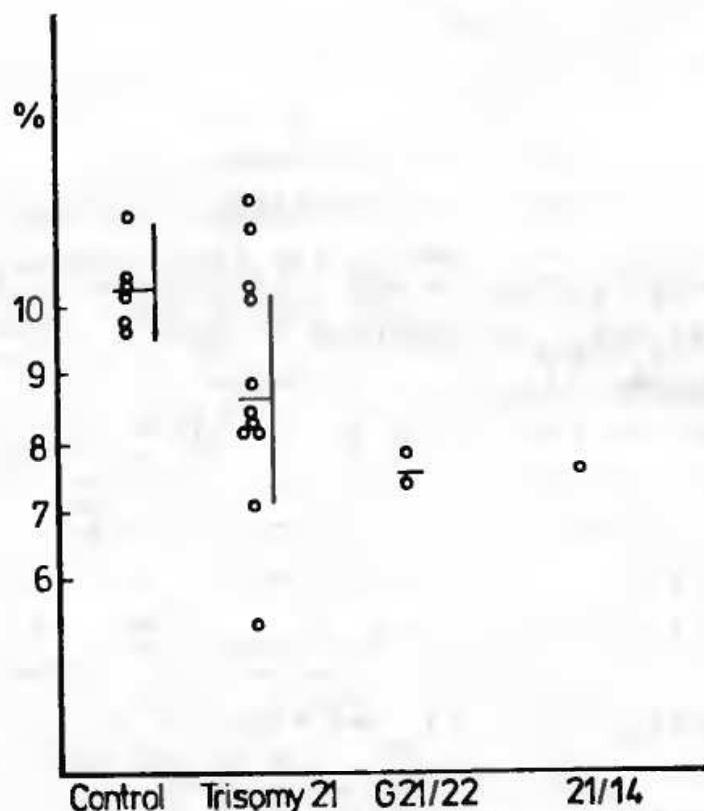


Fig. 9. Transferrin level in trisomy G , translocations G/G and D/G and healthy control

In all these cases a decreased iron level was found both in serum and in whole blood [179].

Iron metabolism is connected with copper, bound in serum mainly in ceruloplasmin [166, 192]. Both the iron level and the Fa/Cu ra-

tio in serum of patients with Down's syndrome are much lower than the respective control values. The increased (by 50%) level of Cu, Zn-SOD in erythrocytes of these patients demonstrates the lack of relationship between the erythrocyte SOD and the copper level in the serum [3, 85]. While the increase in Cu, Zn-SOD (identified with IPO-A although some of our studies on patients with translocation [85, 88] do not confirm this identity) can be explained by the gene dosage effect, the 3-fold increase in the activity of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase or glutathione peroxidase (coded by chromosomes other than 21) is more difficult to understand. Undoubtedly the main role can be ascribed to some external factors participating in the control of genome activity, according to the pattern:

stimulus - hormone - adenylyl cyclase - cAMP - specific protein kinase - protein (contractile, transporting or regulatory protein).

As it was mentioned previously, the same gene locus was found for Cu, Zn-SOD (SOD-1) and IPO-A thus identifying both these enzymes, estimated hitherto by different methods, as superoxide: superoxide oxidoreductase (EC 1.15.1.1). The activity of this enzyme should be higher in cells of individuals with Down's syndrome, both in simple trisomy and in translocations yielding analogous clinical effects, due to the presence of an additional locus. Our measurements of IPO-A and SOD-1 in cases of translocations 21/22 and 21/14 do not fully confirm this assumption. When studying IPO level in erythrocytes [88] we found in trisomy 21 values higher (by about 50%) than in translocations. Comparison of SOD-1 and IPO-A activities in erythrocytes of patients with classic phenotype of Down's syndrome and karyotype indicating trisomy 21 or translocation 14/21 or 21/22 we did not reveal the expected increase in activity in cases of translocation [84]. However, a small size of the groups studied and reports being in disagreement with our findings [102] preclude drawing more definite conclusions from these data at present.

The broad range of alterations found in Down's syndrome seems to indicate an effect of information coded in the additional chromosome on transcription and translation processes. The hypothesis of genetic induction of m-RNA being the matrix for translation would explain the dysproteinemia observed in Down's syndrome, and could elucidate the report of Ingenito [71] who revealed an additional protein fraction in serum of the patients.

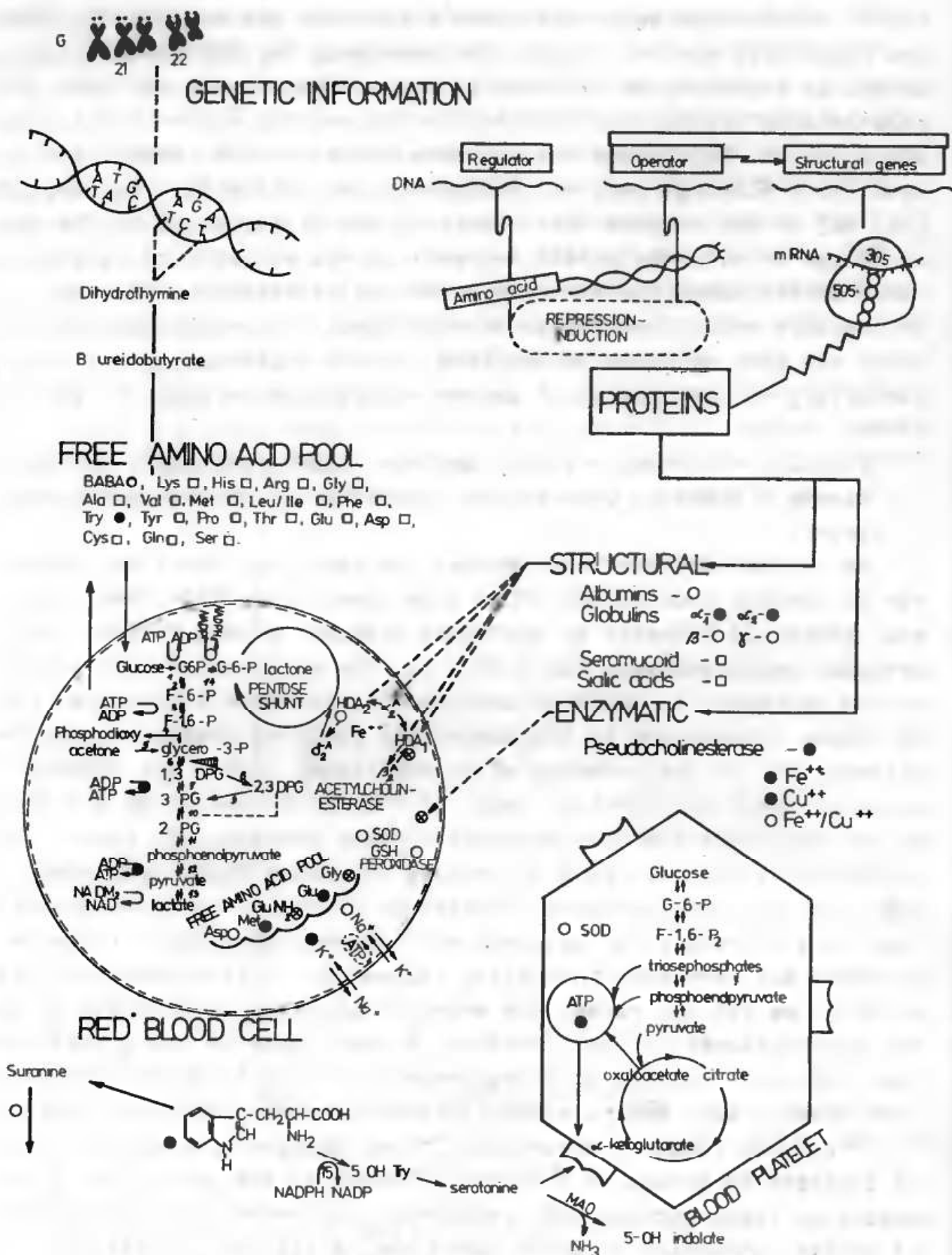


Fig. 10. Changes in biochemical reactions in D.S. in the light of induction-repression mechanism

Considering all the parameters analysed in trisomy 21 one could propose a simplified scheme of biochemical disturbances typical for this disease as due to interaction of several gene loci leading, via different levels of metabolic regulation, to a deficiency of energy-rich compounds and changes in the induction and/or repression of protein biosynthesis.

Some of the existing alterations may be secondary effects of other disturbances.

It seems that a further, more precise localization of gene loci responsible for individual biochemical processes, confronted with a more complete list of disturbances typical for Down's syndrome should permit elaboration of more detailed mechanisms of metabolic alterations occurring in this disease.

Moreover, preliminary informations on biochemical differences between different forms of Down's syndrome, caused by trisomy, unbalanced translocations [81, 83, 140, 141] or persistent mosaicism [12, 158] which do not show distinct phenotype distinctions, point to the importance of comparative studies on different karyological types of the disease. Our knowledge of mechanisms of metabolic changes responsible for the development of mongolism could also profit significantly from analysis of other diseases, either those accompanying frequently Down's syndrome (e.g. Alzheimer disease) or those explained by causes operating in this syndrome, including metabolic disturbances (e.g. hypothyroidism, iminopeptiduria, Lesch-Nyhan syndrome).

Maszynopis wpłynął do Redakcji 23 III 1981

REFERENCES

- [1] Ablin R. I., *Europ. J. Pediatrics.*, **127**, 149 (1978).
- [2] Airaksinen E. M., *Ann. Clin. Res.*, **5**, 1 (1973).
- [3] Alberman E., Polani P. E., Roberts J. A., Spicer C. C., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, **36**, 185 (1972).
- [4] Alexander N. M., Benson G. D., *Life Sci.*, **16**, 1025 (1975).
- [5] Atland K., Goedde H. W., *Biochem. Genet.*, **4**, 321 (1970).
- [6] Ayme S., Haffei H. G., Haffei I. F., Aurran Y., *Clin. Genet.*, **15**, (1), 78 (1979).
- [7] Balkeny T. I., Downs H. P., Iafek B. W., *Clin. Pediatr.*, **18**, (2), 116 (1979).
- [8] Bayer S. M., McCoy E. F., *Biochem. Med.*, **9**, 225 (1974).
- [9] Bazelon H., Paine R. S., Cowie V. A., Hunt P., Houck I. D., Mahanand D., *Lancet*, **1**, 1130 (1967).

- [10] Bende C. E., Strassman G. S., J. Ment. Defic. Res., 9, 109 (1965).
- [11] Bennett F. C., Clifford I. S., Am. J. Dis. Child., 133, 700 (1979).
- [12] Benson P. F., Lincare B., Taylor A. I., Nature, 220, 1235 (1968).
- [13] Beutler E., Hathai C. K., Smith I. E., Blood, 31, 131 (1968).
- [14] Beutler E., Rosen R., Pediatrics, 45, 230 (1970).
- [15] Boczkowski K., Cytodiagnostyka kliniczna, PZWL, Warszawa 1970.
- [16] Boullin D. J., Agents Actions, 5, 194 (1975).
- [17] Boullin D. J., O'Brien R. A., J. Physiol. 212, 287 (1971).
- [18] Burgio G. R., Lanzavecchia A., Meccario R., Vitello A., Plebania A., Ugazio A. G., Clin. Exp. Immunol., 33, (2), 298 (1978).
- [19] Burgio G. R., Ugazio A. G., Europ. J. Pediatr., 127, (4), 293 (1978).
- [20] Careddo P., Tenconi L. T., Saechetti I., Lancet, 1, 828 (1963).
- [21] Carter C. O., Evans K. A., Lancet, 2, 785 (1961).
- [22] Carter C. O., Evans K. A., Stewart A. M., Lancet, 2, 1042 (1961).
- [23] Carter D. M., Jegasotmy B. V., Arch. Dermatol., 112, (10), 1397 (1976).
- [24] Christensen H. N., Riggs T. R., Ray N. E., J. Biol. Chem., 194, 41 (1952).
- [25] Christensen H. N., N.Y. Acad. Press., 1, 105 (1964).
- [26] Clark S. W., Gleubiger G. A., Ledu B. N., Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci., 151, 710 (1968).
- [27] Connolly I. A., Am. J. Ment. Defic., 83, (2), 193 (1978).
- [28] Conway H. M., Layzer R. B., Hum. Genet., 9, 185 (1970).
- [29] Costello C., Webber A., Clin. Genet., 9, (6), 603 (1976).
- [30] Crosti N., Serre A., Rigo A., Viglino P., Hum. Genet., 31, 197 (1976).
- [31] Cummins H., Talley C., Platov R. V., Pediatrics, 5, 241 (1950).
- [32] Czerski P., Mazurczak T., II Konf. Nauk. „Diagnostyka prenatalna”, 6 XII 79, s. 16.
- [33] Davidenkova E. F., Shvarts E. I., Grinberg K. N., Bull. Exp. Biol. Med., 87, 41 (1979).
- [34] Davies P., Maloney A. J. F., Lancet, 2, 1403 (1970).
- [35] De Clercq E., Virology, 86, 276 (1978).
- [36] Dicker L., Am. J. Ment. Defic., 77, 143 (1972).
- [37] Doery I. C. G., Hirsch I., Garson O. M., de Grouchy G. C., Lancet, 2, 895 (1968).
- [38] Down L. H., London Hospital Clin. Lect. And Reports, 3, 259 (1966).
- [39] Duncan S. L. B., J. Biosoc. Sci., 10 (2), 141 (1978).
- [40] Dutrilav B., Fosse A. M., Ann. Genet., 19, (2), 95 (1976).
- [41] Ellis W. G., McCulloch I. R., Corley C. L., Neurology, 24, 101 (1974).
- [42] Epstein L. B., Epstein C. J., J. Inf. Dis., 133 Suppl., A 56 (1976).

- [43] Erickson J. D., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, 41 (3), 289 (1978).
- [44] Feaster W. W., Kwok L. W., Epstein C. J., *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, 29, 563 (1977).
- [45] Fritz P. I., White P. L., *Nature New Biol.*, 230, 119 (1971).
- [46] Frotta Pessoa, *Rev. Bras. Pesqui Med. Biol.*, 11, (1), 77 (1978).
- [47] Gaffney P. I., Lehman M., *Hum. Heredit.*, 19, 234 (1969).
- [48] Gardner L. I., *Am. J. Dis. Child.*, 133, 253 (1979).
- [49] Gershwin M. E., Crinella F. M., Castles J. J., Trent J. K. T., *J. Ment. Defic. Res.*, 21, (4), 237 (1977).
- [50] Giuffre L., Pennino A., Meli F., Moceri G., Cammarata M., *Acta Med. Auxol. (Milan)*, 9 (2), 115 (1977).
- [51] Gnad H. D., Rett A., *Wien Klin. Wochenschrift*, 91 (21), 735 (1979).
- [52] Goedde H. W., Gehring D., *BBA*, 391 (1965).
- [53] Grimes A. J., Heisler A., Dacjé I. V., *Br. J. Hemat.*, 10, 403 (1964).
- [54] Gutsche B. B., Scott E. M., *Nature*, 215, 323 (1967).
- [55] Hall B., *Lancet*, 2, 1026 (1962).
- [56] Handzel Z. T., Dolfin Z., Levin S., Altman Y., Hahn T., *Pediatrics Res.*, 13, (7), 252 (1979).
- [57] Harris H., *Triangle*, 10, 41 (1971).
- [58] Harris H., *The Principles of Human Biochemical Genetics*, North-Holland Publ. Co., Amsterdam-London 1971.
- [59] Hartman P. E., Roth J. R., *Adven. Genet.*, 17, 1 (1973).
- [60] Havbrich D. R., Chippendale T. I., *Life Sci.*, 20, 1465 (1977).
- [61] Heston L. L., Mاستri A. R., *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry*, 34, 976 (1977).
- [62] Heyworth E., *Lancet*, 2, 1422 (1967).
- [63] Hoare D. G., *J. Physiol.*, 221, 311 (1972).
- [64] Hook E. B., *Lancet*, 2, (7975), 33 (1976).
- [65] Hook E. B., *Mutation Res.*, 52, 427 (1978).
- [66] Hook E. B., Lamson S. H., *Am. J. Epidem.*, 111 (1), 75 (1980).
- [67] Hook E. B., Fabia J. J., *Teratology*, 17 (3), 221 (1978).
- [68] Hook E. B., *Genetics*, 83, 33 (1976).
- [69] Hook E. B., Lindisio A., *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, 30 (1), 19 (1978).
- [70] Huff R. L., Hennessey T. G., Austin R. E., Gaggia I. F., Roberts E. M., Lawrence J. H., *J. Clin. Invest.*, 29, 1041 (1950).
- [71] Ingenito E. F., *Lancet*, 1, 979 (1968).
- [72] Jacob H. S., Jandl I. H., *J. Biol. Chem.*, 241, 4243 (1966).
- [73] Jacobs P. F., Burdash N. H., Mamos J. P., *Ann. Clin. Lab. Sci.*, 8, (1), 17 (1978); *Biol. Abstr.*, 65, (12), 70960.
- [74] Jaffe E. R., Lowy B. A., van der Hoff G. A., Eisen P., London I. H., *J. Clin. Invest.*, 36, 1498 (1957).

- [75] Jerome H., Kehovn P., Bull. Soc. Chim. Biol., 50, 907 (1968).
- [76] Jerome H., Lejeune I., Turpin R., Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci., 251, 474 (1960).
- [77] Jónczyk K., Dziuba P., Dziekanowskie D., Blusiewicz-Ciemieniowski, Ped. Pol., 45, 1373 (1970).
- [78] Juliano R. L., BBA, 300, 341 (1973).
- [79] Jun-Bi-Tu, Lancet, 2, 715 (1965).
- [80] Kędziora J., Acta Univ. Lodz., 11 (11), 189 (1977).
- [81] Kędziora J., Endokr. Pol., 24, 149 (1973).
- [82] Kędziore J., Korelacja między zaburzeniami a anomaliami chromosomalnymi w zespole Downa. Prace habil., WAM, Łódź 1974.
- [83] Kędziore J., Hubner H., Kański M., Jeske J., Leyko W., Pediat. Res., 6, 10 (1972).
- [84] Kędziora J., Bartosz G., Leyko W., Rożynkova D., Lancet, 1 105 (1979).
- [85] Kędziora J., Jeske J., Witas H., Bartosz G., Leyko W., Acta Biol. Med. Germ., 36, 779 (1977).
- [86] Kędziora J., Hłyńczak A. J., Jeske J., Kański M., Pol. Endokr., 23, 63 (1972).
- [87] Kędziora J., Kędziore H., Jeske J., Endokr. Pol., 24, 219 (1979).
- [88] Kędziora J., Rożynkova D., Kopff M., Jeske J., Hum. Genet., 34, 9 (1976).
- [89] Kędziora J., Soszyński M., Leyko W., Bartosz G., Witas H., Experientia, 36, 926 (1980).
- [90] Kędziora J., Witas H., Bartosz G., Leyko W., Jeske J., Rożynkova D., Experientia, 34, 712 (1978).
- [91] Kimura Shunsuke, Hum. Genet., 23 (1), 39 (1978).
- [92] Kiossoglou K. A., Rosenbaum E. M., Mitus W. I., Blood, 24, 134 (1964).
- [93] Kishi Kumikezu, Ipn. J. Hum. Genet., 22 (1), 17 (1977).
- [94] Kiteni Nobuyuki, Wataru Abo, Jikeikai Med. J., 24, (2), 91 (1977).
- [95] Knoll H. R., Bronstein W. W., Porter P. J., Experientia, 34, 1133 (1978).
- [96] Kolar O., Lancet, 2, 403 (1968).
- [97] Kostrowski I., Przegl. Lek., 14, 54 (1958).
- [98] Kuroki Y., Yamamoto Y., Matevi I., Kurita T., Clin. Genet., 12 (1), 43 (1977).
- [99] Layzer R. B., Epstein C. I., Am. J. Hum. Genet., 24, 533 (1972).
- [100] Lehmann N. I., Sharma D. L. B., J. Med. Virol., 2 (4), 335 (1978).
- [101] Lejeune I., Clin. Genet., 22 (2), 67 (1979).
- [102] Lejeune I., Lancet, 1, 914 (1979).
- [103] Lejeune I., Gautier M., Turpin R., Compl. Acad. d. Sc., 248, 1721 (1959).
- [104] Lev V. L., Glynn I. M., Ellory I. C., Nature, 225, 865 (1970).
- [105] Levin S., Nir E., Hogliner B. M., Pediatrics, 56 (1), 123 (1975).
- [106] Levin S., Schlesinger M., Handzel Z., Hahn T., Altman Y., Czarnobilsky B., Boss I., Pediatrics, 63(1), 80 (1979).

- [107] L i d d e l J., L e h m a n n H., *Nature*, 193, 561 (1962).
- [108] L o p e z V., O c h s H. D., T h u l i n e H. C., *J. Pediatr.*, 86, 207, (1975).
- [109] L u n n J. E., *Scott. Med. J.*, 4, 368 (1959).
- [110] M a r c i n i a k E., G r e e n w o o d M. F., *Blood*, 53 (1), 81 (1979).
- [111] M a r m o l J. G., S c r i g g i n s A. L., V o l l m a n R. F., *Amer. J. Obst. Gynec.*, 104, 533 (1969).
- [112] M c C o y E. E., R o s t a f i n s k i I. I., *J. Ment. Defic. Res.*, 12, 18 (1968).
- [113] M c C o y E. E., S e g a l D. J., *N. Engl. J. Ment.*, 291, 950 (1974).
- [114] M c C o y E. E., L e n s E., *Biochem. Med.*, 20, 385 (1978).
- [115] M i l l e r R. W., *Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci.*, 171, 637 (1970).
- [116] M i l l e r R. W., M e l l a n n W. J., C o h e n M. M., *J. Pediatr.*, 75, 996 (1969).
- [117] M o d r z e Ń s k a K., *Soc. Biol.*, 23 (1), 86 (1976).
- [118] M o o r e E. E., J o n e s C., *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, 29, 389 (1977).
- [119] N a i m e n I. L., O s k i F. A., H e l l m e n W. I., *Lancet*, 1, 821 (1965).
- [120] N i s h i d a Yutardo, Y e s u g u k i S e n o, J e o A k a o k a, *Am. J. Ment. Defic.*, 83 (1), 16 (1978).
- [121] N o w e l l P. C., H u n g e r f o r d D. A., *Science*, 132, 1947 (1960).
- [122] O b e r l e y L. W., B u e t t n e r G. R., *Cancer Res.*, 39, 1141 (1979).
- [123] O ' B r i e n D., G r o s h e k A., *Arch. Dis. Childh.*, 37, 17 (1962).
- [124] O ' B r i e n D., *Blood*, 24, 309 (1964).
- [125] O l s o n H. I., S h a w C. M., *Brain*, 2, 147 (1969).
- [126] O s t e r I., M i k k e l s e n M., N i e l s e n A., *Intl. Copenhagen Cong. Sci. Study Ment. Retard* 1, 231 (1964) Cited Atter 130.
- [127] P a r l o i r C., *Hum. Genet.*, 51 (2), 227 (1979).
- [128] P a s s e m o r e R., R o b s o n J. S., *Blackwell Sci. Publ. Oxford and Edinburgh*, 2 (1970).
- [129] P a t t e r s o n J. T., B r e w s t e r W., *J. Hered.*, 23, 325 (1932).
- [130] P a w l i k o w s k i T., *Zespół Downa*, „Endokrynologia kliniczna”, 2, 1279 (1972).
- [131] P h i l i p p e P., *Cma*, 121, 279 (1979).
- [132] P i c k a r d M. A., P a t e r s o n A. R. P., *Canad. J. Biochem.*, 50, 839 (1972).
- [133] P r o p p S., L i z z i F. A., *Blood*, 36, 353 (1970).
- [134] Q u a z i Q. H., M a p a C. H., G a u n B., W o o d s J., *Am. J. Ment. Defic.*, 82 (3), 229 (1977).
- [135] R e i c h e r t W., H a u s m a n n J., *Humangenetik*, 28, 25 (1975).
- [136] R i c h a r d s B. W., E n w e r F., *J. Ment. Def. Res.*, 23 (2), 123 (1979).
- [137] R o b i n s o n H. A., L o d e r P. B., d e G r u c h y G. C., *Brit. Hemat.*, 7, 327 (1961).
- [138] R o b i n s o n W. G., N a g l e r R., B a e c h w a t B. K., K u p i e c k i F. P., C o o n H. I., *J. Biol. Chem.*, 224, 1 (1957).
- [139] R o c h e A. F., *J. Ment. Defic. Res.*, 9, 131 (1965).
- [140] R o s n e r F., O n g B. H., P a i n e R. S., M a h a n a n t D., *New Engl. J. Med* 273, 1356 (1965).

- [141] Rosner F., *Lancet*, 1, 1191 (1965).
- [142] Rosner F., *J. Am. Med. Ass.*, 198, 328 (1966).
- [143] Rosner F., Kozinn P. J., *N.Y. State J. Med.*, 73, 672 (1973).
- [144] Rundle A. T., Clothier B., *Clin. Chem. Acta*, 35, 389 (1971).
- [145] Salomance-Gomez F., *Acte Geneticae Medicae et Gemellologiae*, 24, 245 (1975).
- [146] Saski M., *Nature*, 222, 596 (1969).
- [147] Schlechter B., Handzel Z. T., Altman Y., Nir E., Levin S., *Clin. Exp. Immunol.*, 27 (3), 478 (1978).
- [148] Schlesinger M., "A Study of Tissue Lymphocyte Depletion" Thesis, Membreu Univ., (1973).
- [149] Scott E. M., *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 38, 902 (1970).
- [150] Scott E. M., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, 37, 139 (1973).
- [151] Seger R., Buchinger G., Ströder J., *Europ. J. Pediatr.*, 124 (2), 77 (1977).
- [152] Sen A. K., Post R. L., *J. Biol. Chem.*, 239, 345 (1964).
- [153] Shull W. I., Neel J. V., *Lancet*, 1, 537 (1962).
- [154] Sichitiu S., Sinet P. M., Lejeune J., *Human Genetik*, 23, 65 (1974).
- [155] Sigler A. T., Lillienfeld A. M., Cohen B. H., *Johns Hopkins Hosp. Bull.*, 117, 374 (1965).
- [156] Singer H., *Human Genetik*, 19, 261 (1973).
- [157] Singt P. M., Couturier I., Dutrillaux B., Poissonnier M., Raoult O., Rethore H. O., Auard D., Lejeune J., Jerome H., *Exp. Cell. Res.*, 97, 47 (1976).
- [158] Smith D. W., Therman E. M., Patu K. A., Ingorn S. L., *Am. J. Dis. Child.*, 104, 534 (1962).
- [159] Sneddon I. M., *Brit. J. Pharmacol.*, 37, 680 (1969).
- [160] Stene I., Stene E., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, 40 (3), 343 (1977).
- [161] Stene I., Stene E., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, 41 (4), 465 (1978).
- [162] Stene I., Fischer G., Stene E., Mikkelsen H., Petersen E., *Ann. Hum. Genet.*, 40 (3), 299 (1977).
- [163] Stevenson A. C., Matousek V., *United Nations Document A/AC, 82 (G) L. 700*, (1961).
- [164] Stevenson A. C., Mason R., Edwards K. D., *Lancet*, 2, 1335, (1970).
- [165] Stiehm E. R., Funderberg H. H., *Pediatrics*, 37, 715 (1966).
- [166] Surgeon B., Braubaker C., *J. Dis. Child.*, 92, 254 (1956).
- [167] Sutnick A. I., London W. T., Blumberg B. S., *Am. J. Clin. Pathol.*, 57, (2) (1972).
- [168] Sutnick A. I., London W. T., Blumberg B. S., *Arch. Int. Med.*, 124, 722 (1969).
- [169] Tan Y. H., Schneider E. L., Tischfield J., Epstein C. I., Ruddle F. H., *Science*, 186, 61 (1974).
- [170] Tan Y. H., Tischfield J., Ruddle F. H., *J. Exp. Med.*, 137, 317 (1973).

- [171] Uchida I. A., Holunga R., Lawler C., *Lancet*, 2, 1045 (1968).
- [172] Uchida I. A., Curtis E. I., *Lancet*, 2, 848 (1961).
- [173] Uchida I. A., Lee C. P. V., *Nature*, 250, 601 (1974)
- [174] Uchida I. A., Lee C. P. V., *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, 27, 419 (1975).
- [175] Ugezio A. G., *Acta Med. Auxol.*, 9 (2), 131 (1977).
- [176] Ugazio A. G., Jayekar S. D., Marcioni A. F., Duse H., Monafio V., Pasquali F., Burgio G. R., *Europ. J. Pediatrics*, 126 (3), 139 (1977).
- [177] Ugazio A. G., Lanzauechia A., Jayekar S. D., Plebani A., Duse H., Burgio G. R., *Acta Paediatrica Scandinavica*, 67 (6), 705 (1978).
- [178] Villumsen A. L., In *Environmental Factors in Congenital Malformations*, F.A.D.L.s Forlag, Kobenhavn, p. 130 (1970).
- [179] Wachowicz B., Kędziora J., *Endokryn. Pol.*, 25, 9 (1974).
- [180] Waller H. D., Löhr G. W., Grignani F., Gross R., *Trohbos. Diathes. Haemorrh. (Stuttg)* 3, 520 (1959).
- [181] Watts R. W. E., Perera Y. S., Allsop J., *Newton. Clin. Exp. Immunol.*, 36 (3), 355 (1979).
- [182] Weil I., Epstein C. I., *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, 31, 478 (1979).
- [183] Whalley L. I., Simpson I., *Biol. Psych.*, 14 (6), 979 (1979).
- [184] Whitchose W., *Gin. Pol.*, 49, 761 (1978).
- [185] Whittam R., Ager O. E., *Biochem. J.*, 93, 337 (1964).
- [186] Whittingham S., Pitt D. B., *Lancet*, 1, 163 (1977).
- [187] Wiśniewski K., Cobill J. M., Wilcox C. B., Gaspary E. A., Wiśniewski H. M., *Biol. Psychiatry*, 14 (3), 72 (1979).
- [188] Wiśniewski L., Jęzuita J., Rudzko J., Sośnierz-Chmieleńska E., Goryluk-Kozakiewicz B., Kewińska-Rudzko H., *II Konf. Nauk. „Diagnostyka Prenatalna”*, 6 XII 79, s. 94.
- [189] Yamamoto M., Shimada T., Endo A., *Nature New Biol.*, 244, 206 (1973).
- [190] Zacher B., Kopff M., Kędziora J., *Post. Hig. Med. Dośw.*, 28, 803 (1974).
- [191] Zarfas D. E., Wolf L. C., *Am. J. Defic.*, 83 (4), 353 (1979).
- [192] Zgierski A., Łoza E., *Zesz. Nauk. Uł.*, 37, 15 (1970).

Józef Kędziora, Roman Łukaszewicz

ZALEŻNOŚĆ PROMIENIOWANIA JONIZUJĄCEGO I INNYCH CZYNNIKÓW ŚRODOWISKOWYCH W SYNDROMIE DOWNA

Streszczenie

W pracy przedstawiono wyniki badań własnych i piśmiennictwa światowego nt. zespołu Downa, przyczyn jego powstawania i związku aberracji chromosomalnych z czynnikami środowiskowymi.

Omówiono wpływ efektów cywilizacji na częstotliwość powstawania tej skomplikowanej anomalii ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem ewentualnej roli promieniowania jonizującego.

doc. dr hab. JÓZEF KĘDZIORA
mgr ROMAN ŁUKASZEWICZ
Instytut Nauk Podstawowych WAM
Zakład Fizjologii
pl. 9 Maja 1
90-647 Łódź