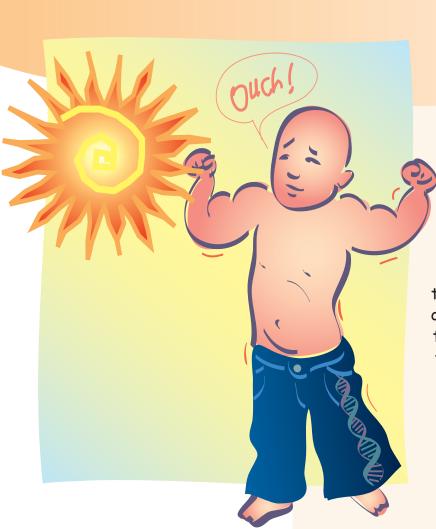


The National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences

Lots of things

in our homes and schools and workplaces — and in wild and natural places — can cause harm sometimes. Why "sometimes"? The harm may depend on who you are — as well as what you do, what you are exposed to, and when.



Big, muscular people look as if they can resist anything. But they can have allergies or asthma, or be injured by chemicals, too.

And the bigger they come, the more skin the sun can burn!

Most of us, for example, can get sunburned on a bright day. Your reaction will be greater if you are outside, without much on, for a long time. Your reaction will be less if you cover your exposed skin with lots of sun screen. How bad you burn can depend on your age and previous exposure. (Babies and toddlers need a lot more protection.) Finally, if one or both of your parents burn very easily, they may have passed that sensitivity to you in your genes.

Designer Genes - They're the Boss

Genes are the instructions — the marching orders — that direct our growth, what we look like and how we react to things in our world, or environment.

Each human — whether infant, child, teen or adult — has thousands of pairs of these orders, or genes. They tell our bodies' cells what to be and how to behave.

Do you remember transformer toys? You twisted them one way and they were space ships. You twisted them another way and they became robot warriors. Well, under the genes' orders, the cells become the ultimate in

transformer robots. The genes instruct our original dab of cells, as

they divide, to become different — muscle, bone, lung, or brain cells, or part of a toe. As a result of what the cells become and do, we grow. And we stand and run and catch footballs and dance — more or less with grace and skill.

We breathe. We think!

Our genes, or instructions, are coded on short segments of a long chemical chain called DNA. It is in the center of each cell of our bodies. Think of genes as information bits paired along two spiraling strands of this chemical — like snap-together beads in two

long, connected strings of DNA.

Every human has the same number and set of genes, so you might think we would all be exactly the same. But the genes themselves vary a lot or a little, just as people do — and as animals do. That's why we do. For example, everyone has a pair of genes for eye color but one variation instructs the eyes to be blue while other variations order green or brown.

The complete package of genes for an animal — what makes a dog a dog — is called its **genome**.

These packages or genomes are why people give birth to babies, dogs to puppies, and cats to kittens.

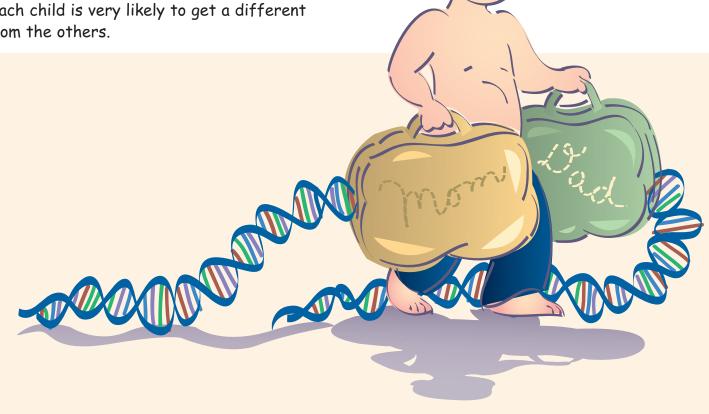
Many of the genes in other animals are similar to those in humans. After all, people and animals, like our dogs, all have to do certain things, like digesting food, so we need a similar gene for that. When we are loyal, frisky and brighteyed — and tip over garbage cans — maybe it's those shared genes?!

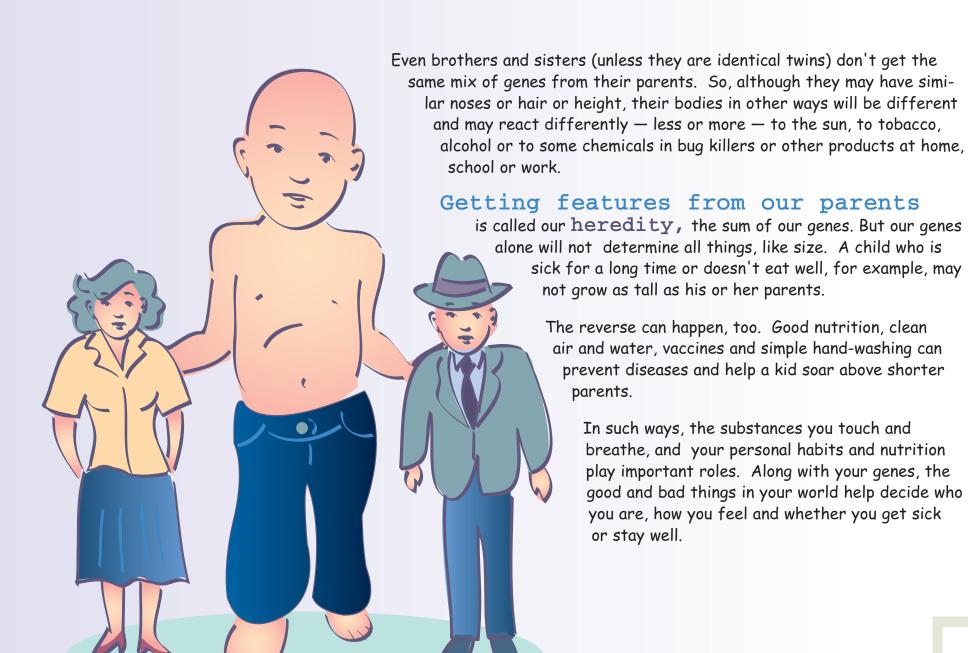
Where did you get your pairs of genes?

You got your genes when your dad's sperm pierced your mom's egg. One gene from each pair of your mother's genes was already waiting in the human egg. Your father's sperm added one gene from each of his pair of genes. Your father's and your mother's genes paired with each other inside that fertilized egg cell from which you then grew.

The original egg cell split and re-split, forming new cells for muscle, brain, skin, bone and all the rest of your body. These new cells came together (according to the genes' orders) and each new cell carried copies of the original cell's genes. The result: Two copies (a pair) of every gene are found in each of the 100 trillion or so cells of your body. (That's a lotza mozzarella!)

The mix of genes you each got from your parents directs your growth to adulthood and old age. When you have children, you, in turn, pass a copy of one or the other of each pair of your genes to each of your kids — but not always the same one of the pair. Your husband or wife will do the same. Each child is very likely to get a different mix and be different from the others.





The Gene's Code for Life

While the English language has 26 letters, each gene's orders, or instructions, are written in a chemical code of four. The code is made up of chemical bases called **adenine**, **thymine**, **guanine** and **cytosine**. We call these **A**, **T**, **G** and **C** — the gene code's four letters. Long lines, or sequences, of these chemicals permit each of the genes to have a different code that directs the making of a different protein. One gene = one code = one protein. The proteins carry out the gene's instructions.

Some Tyxpos Along the Way

Mistakes can occur as the code is copied and re-copied when the cells divide. A substance in our environment can sometimes make a mistake occur or prevent it from being corrected by the body's "spell check." Sometimes this doesn't matter much, but sometimes it matters a lot.

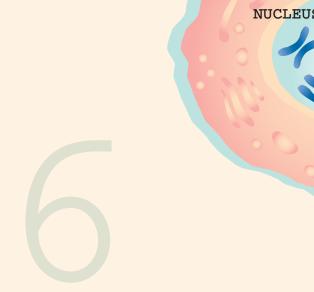
CHROMOSOMES

Proteins —
not just beans and a big, juicy
steak, but a key to all life.

There are thousands of proteins, each made up mostly of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen and nitrogen. Proteins are found in animal muscle (steak) and skin, bone and all the "stuff" of life, every cell of an animal or plant. They are also what make the body work: They are necessary for the chemical reactions that make muscles flex, brains think and stomachs produce digestive fluids.

house. (This house could be your body, your dog's body or your petunia plant.)
Picture the proteins as not only the nuts and bolts, plaster and concrete, wood beams and floors but the workers that create and assemble these things and set the furnace and lights and gas stove to working.

Think of genes as the orders or plans for a



CELL

One msimisplaced letter in the long-strung code of one gene can cause sickle cell anemia — a painful disorder in which the red blood cells have an odd shape like a sickle or crescent moon, instead of being round. The sickle shape makes it hard for the blood cells to get around in the blood vessels.

Another disease that is inherited in this direct way is cystic fibrosis. This is a disease in which mucus clogs the lungs.

Most diseases have a non-gene trigger.

Unlike cystic fibrosis and sickle cell anemia, most diseases and disorders are not caused just by "bad" genes but by bad genes along with one or more "bad" things from the world around us. One scientist makes it very simple: Heredity loads the gun and environment pulls the trigger!

Here's an example: When you were just born, you were tested for a genetic disease that is influenced by your environment — in this case, what you eat. That disease is PKU, in which protein is not eliminated but builds up.

If certain protein foods are eaten, the brain will not fully develop. (One artificial sweetener has a warning that it contains this protein and should not be used by people with PKU.)

DNA

deoxyribonucleic acid
(de-ox-e-RYE-bo-new-CLAY-ic
ASS-id)

How small are your genes? When you stuff yourself into a pair of tight jeans, think that all of your gene pairs are stuffed by the thousands into 23 pairs of long capsules called **chromosomes**— which are in every one of our cells. Even chromosomes are invisible to the naked eye.

When these paired chromosomes have been stained, however, they can be seen under a very good magnifying microscope.

Here's some trivia
that could win a prize
on a TV quiz:
"Chromo" is a Greek
word for "color" or
"stain," and
"some" (rhymes
with "home") is
Greek for
"body."



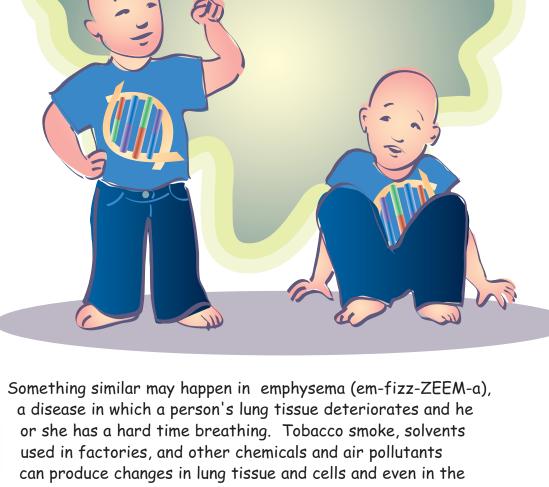
What gene variations make people respond differently?

Researchers are studying

how different people respond differently to harmful substances. They have found that common differences in genes can affect the human body's responses.

For example, some genes signal the making of proteins called enzymes, in the lungs. Ordinarily these enzymes, or active substances, destroy some of the cancer-causing substances in tobacco smoke. But researchers have found a gene variation that may reduce these enzymes and make people more susceptible to lung cancer.

> Finding a gene with a variation that can cause a disease can help in the design of drugs to counter it. Some scientists also look toward correcting some diseases by substituting a "good" gene before a baby is born.



molecules the cells are made of. Variations of a gene may mean more — or less — production of an enzyme that protects against these changes.

Learning more about these variations: At the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, researchers want to find out more about these variations in the genes that make us more, or less, sensitive to the substances around us. To do this, they have developed a project called the "Environmental Genome Project" with other parts of the National Institutes of Health.

The Environmental Genome Project meshes with the **Human** Genome Project, which mapped every one of the genes in humans — the whole instruction book for the "human being."

The newer, "Environmental Genome Project" looks at genes that have already been located. These particular genes have been shown to play a role in how we react to environmental substances. Scientists want to see how these genes differ in different people, what percentage of us have which variations and what these variations mean in terms of our reactions.

These are not genes that give clear orders for a disease, regardless of other factors. Instead, these genes determine our weakness or strength in the face of various metals, natural and human-made chemicals, radiation and such. They are called "susceptibility genes"

A few people may have a variation that makes them very resistant to a chemical.

A few may have a variation that gives them a high chance of being hurt by the same substance.

Most of us may be somewhere in between.



The scientists in this project hope to discover: Are the people with such-and-such a gene variation more likely to be harmed by a chemical? Are the people with a different variation less at risk? How many people have this variation? How many have another?

The Environmental Genome Project will help answer the "Why me?" question. A smoker told he has developed a fatal lung cancer asks this question because he knows of people who smoked as much and may have a hacking cough or breathlessness but do not have lung cancer.

Or perhaps you and your brother Joe work at a job around smoke or chemicals or smelly glues. Why might one of you be hurt and the other not?

To find out how many of us have gene variations that protect us or, in other cases, make us susceptible, scientists test blood samples from several hundred volunteers representing the American people as a whole. The blood is tested for variations in as many genes as the scientists are studying.

Tomorrow -

In the future, will doctors give you a list of foods, chemicals, metals or other substances to avoid, based on how you react to them? Someday, very probably!

Most likely, the information will help you avoid some natural hazards you're susceptible to, much as people who aren't strong swimmers try to stay out of deep water, or people with diabetes avoid sugar. And industry and unions along with state and federal regulators will have information to ensure that even those of us who react the most will be protected.

One way or another, we should gain a much better idea of which of us is at most risk — and what precautions need to be taken to best protect us.

This knowledge may help us prevent — or avoid — a lot of disease and disability, producing a better, safer future for us all.

The National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences has two big jobs:

- 1. Our scientists look for things in our world that may hurt our health. They discover what harm these substances can do and how we can get rid of these poisons or avoid them.
- 2. These scientists study how we react to these harmful things:
 Are we sensitive or resistant? Do you and I respond the same?
 Many of the differences between people are due to our genes.

Work involving genes is underway at many other institutes of the National Institutes of Health, particularly at the National Human Genome Research Institute (www.nhgri.nih.gov).

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