

Chapter 14

Mendelian Genetics

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Drawing from the Deck of Genes

- What principles account for the transmission of traits from parents to offspring?
- The "blending" hypothesis is the idea that genetic material from the two parents blends together (like blue and yellow paint blend to make green)

- The "particulate" hypothesis is the idea that parents pass on discrete heritable units (genes)
- Mendel documented a particulate mechanism through his experiments with garden peas





Mendel (third from right, holding a sprig of fuchsia) with his fellow monks

Concept 14.1: Mendel used the scientific approach to identify two laws of inheritance

 Mendel discovered the basic principles of heredity by breeding garden peas in carefully planned experiments

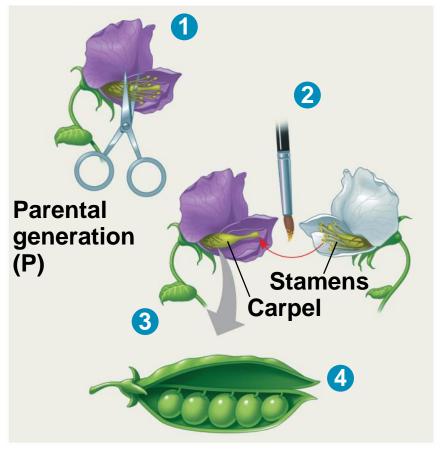
Mendel's Experimental, Quantitative Approach

- Mendel's approach allowed him to deduce principles that had remained elusive to others
- A heritable feature that varies among individuals (such as flower color) is called a character
- Each variant for a character, such as purple or white color for flowers, is called a trait
- Peas were available to Mendel in many different varieties

- Other advantages of using peas
 - Short generation time
 - Large numbers of offspring
 - Mating could be controlled; plants could be allowed to self-pollinate or could be cross-pollinated

Figure 14.2

Technique



Results



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- Mendel chose to track only those characters that occurred in two distinct alternative forms
- He also started with varieties that were truebreeding (plants that produce offspring of the same variety when they self-pollinate)

- In a typical experiment, Mendel mated two contrasting, true-breeding varieties, a process called hybridization
- The true-breeding parents are the P generation
- The hybrid offspring of the P generation are called the F₁ generation
- When F₁ individuals self-pollinate or cross-pollinate with other F₁ hybrids, the F₂ generation is produced

The Law of Segregation

- When Mendel crossed contrasting, true-breeding white- and purple-flowered pea plants, all of the F₁ hybrids were purple
- When Mendel crossed the F₁ hybrids, many of the F₂ plants had purple flowers, but some had white
- Mendel discovered a ratio of about three purple flowers to one white flower in the F₂ generation

Figure 14.3_1

Experiment

P Generation (true-breeding parents)

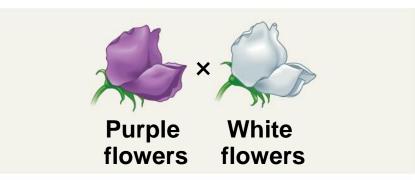
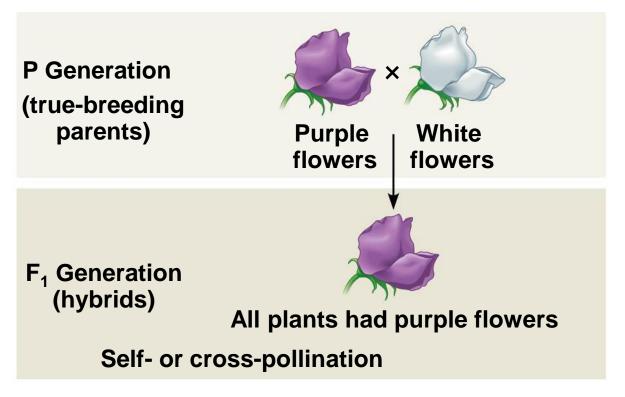
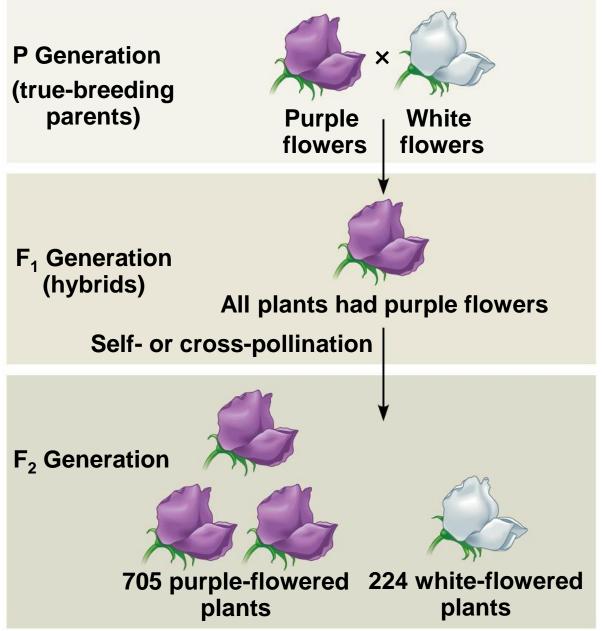


Figure 14.3_2

Experiment



Experiment



- Mendel reasoned that only the purple flower factor was affecting flower color in the F₁ hybrids
- Mendel called the purple flower color a dominant trait and the white flower color a recessive trait
- The factor for white flowers was not diluted or destroyed because it reappeared in the F₂ generation

- Mendel observed the same pattern of inheritance in six other pea plant characters, each represented by two traits
- What Mendel called a "heritable factor" is what we now call a gene

Table 14.1a

Table 14.1The Results of Mendel's F1 Crosses for SevenCharacters in Pea Plants

Character	Dominant Trait	×	Recessive Trait	F₂ Generation Dominant: Recessive	Ratio
Flower color	Purple	×	White	705:224	3.15:1
Seed color	Yellow	×	Green	6,022:2,001	3.01:1
Seed shape	Round	×	Wrinkled	5,474:1,850	2.96:1

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Table 14.1b

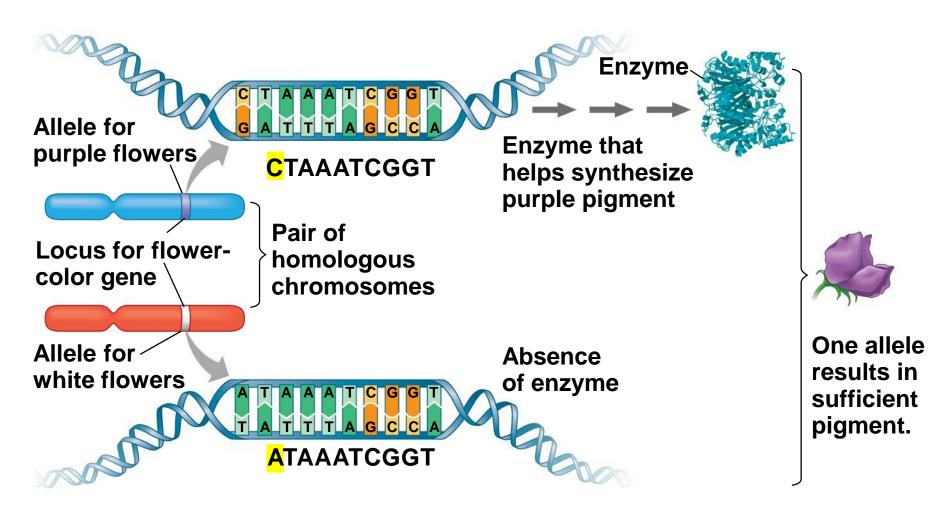
F₂ Generation **Dominant:** Dominant Recessive Character Trait Trait Recessive X Ratio Pod color Yellow 428:152 2.82:1 Green × Pod shape Inflated Constricted 2.95:1 X 882:299 Flower position Axial X Terminal 651:207 3.14:1 Stem length Dwarf Tall X 787:277 2.84:1

Table 14.1 The Results of Mendel's F₁ Crosses for Seven Characters in Pea Plants

Mendel's Model

- Mendel developed a hypothesis to explain the 3:1 inheritance pattern he observed in F₂ offspring
- Four related concepts make up this model
- These concepts can be related to what we now know about genes and chromosomes

- First: alternative versions of genes account for variations in inherited characters
- For example, the gene for flower color in pea plants exists in two versions, one for purple flowers and the other for white flowers
- These alternative versions of a gene are called alleles
- Each gene resides at a specific locus on a specific chromosome

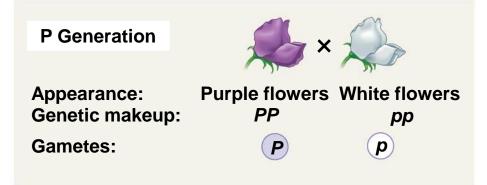


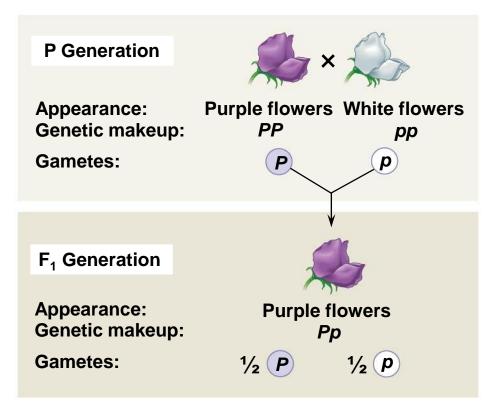
- Second: for each character, an organism inherits two alleles, one from each parent
- Mendel made this deduction without knowing about chromosomes
- The two alleles at a particular locus may be identical, as in the true-breeding plants of Mendel's P generation
- Or the two alleles at a locus may differ, as in the F₁ hybrids

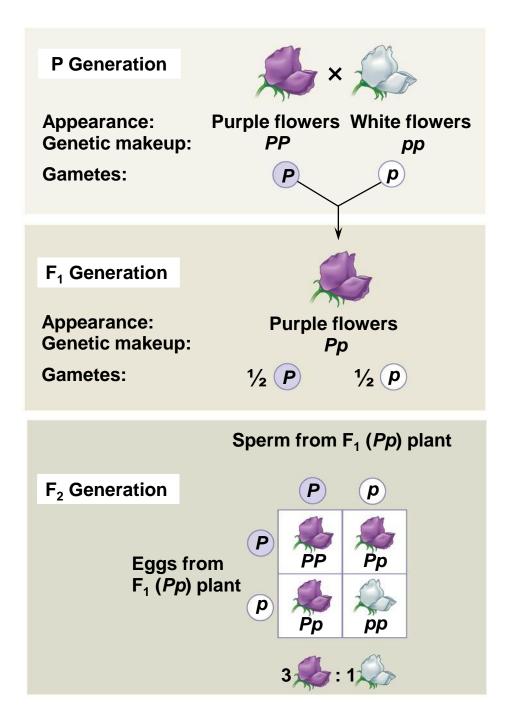
- Third: if the two alleles at a locus differ, then one (the dominant allele) determines the organism's appearance, and the other (the recessive allele) has no noticeable effect on appearance
- In the flower-color example, the F₁ plants had purple flowers because the allele for that trait is dominant

- Fourth (the law of segregation): the two alleles for a heritable character separate (segregate) during gamete formation and end up in different gametes
- Thus, an egg or a sperm gets only one of the two alleles that are present in the organism
- This segregation of alleles corresponds to the distribution of homologous chromosomes to different gametes in meiosis

- The model accounts for the 3:1 ratio observed in the F₂ generation of Mendel's crosses
- Possible combinations of sperm and egg can be shown using a **Punnett square**
- A capital letter represents a dominant allele, and a lowercase letter represents a recessive allele







Useful Genetic Vocabulary

- An organism with two identical alleles for a character is called a homozygote
- It is said to be homozygous for the gene controlling that character
- An organism with two different alleles for a gene is a heterozygote and is said to be heterozygous for the gene controlling that character
- Unlike homozygotes, heterozygotes are not truebreeding

- An organism's traits do not always reveal its genetic composition
- Therefore, we distinguish between an organism's phenotype, or physical appearance, and its genotype, or genetic makeup
- In the example of flower color in pea plants, PP and Pp plants have the same phenotype (purple) but different genotypes

Phenotype

Genotype

PP **Purple** (homozygous) Pp **Purple** (heterozygous) 2 Pp **Purple** (heterozygous) pp White (homozygous)

Ratio 1:2:1

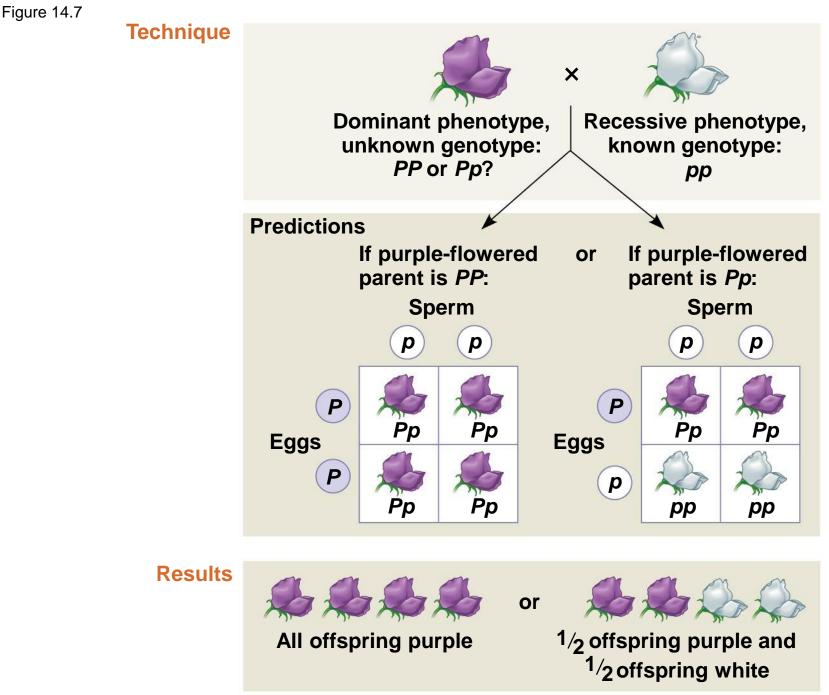
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The Testcross

- An individual with the dominant phenotype could be either homozygous dominant or heterozygous
- To determine the genotype we can carry out a testcross: breeding the mystery individual with a homozygous recessive individual
- If any offspring display the recessive phenotype, the mystery parent must be heterozygous



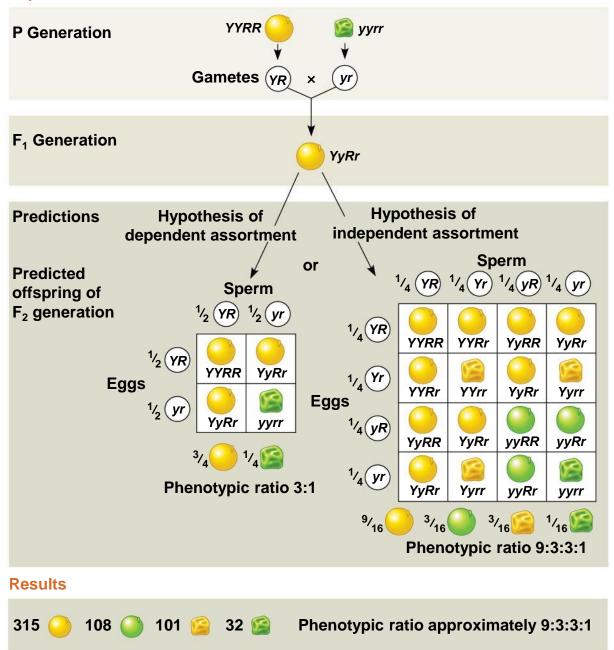
The Law of Independent Assortment

- Mendel derived the law of segregation by following a single character
- The F₁ offspring produced in this cross were monohybrids, heterozygous for one character
- A cross between such heterozygotes is called a monohybrid cross

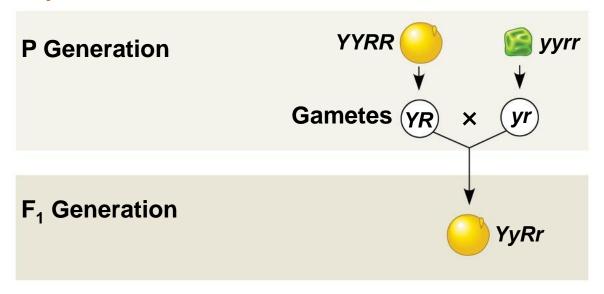
- Mendel identified his second law of inheritance by following two characters at the same time
- Crossing two true-breeding parents differing in two characters produces dihybrids in the F₁ generation, heterozygous for both characters
- A dihybrid cross, a cross between F₁ dihybrids, can determine whether two characters are transmitted to offspring as a package or independently

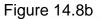
Figure 14.8

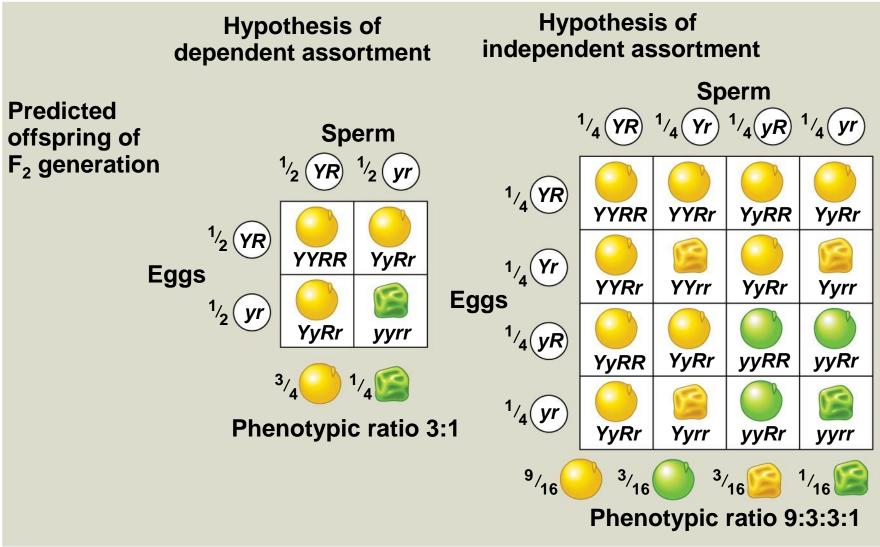
Experiment



Experiment







Results



Phenotypic ratio approximately 9:3:3:1

Figure 14.8c



Figure 14.8d



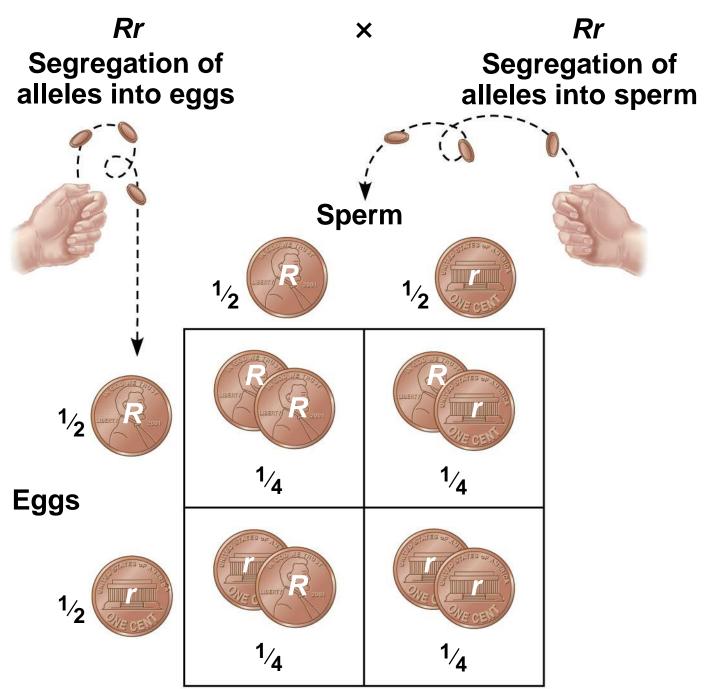
- Using a dihybrid cross, Mendel developed the law of independent assortment
- It states that each pair of alleles segregates independently of any other pair of alleles during gamete formation
- This law applies only to genes on different, nonhomologous chromosomes or those far apart on the same chromosome
- Genes located near each other on the same chromosome tend to be inherited together

Concept 14.2: Probability laws govern Mendelian inheritance

- Mendel's laws of segregation and independent assortment reflect the rules of probability
- When tossing a coin, the outcome of one toss has no impact on the outcome of the next toss
- In the same way, the alleles of one gene segregate into gametes independently of another gene's alleles

The Multiplication and Addition Rules Applied to Monohybrid Crosses

- The multiplication rule states that the probability that two or more independent events will occur together is the product of their individual probabilities
- Probability in an F₁ monohybrid cross can be determined using the multiplication rule
- Segregation in a heterozygous plant is like flipping a coin: Each gamete has a ½ chance of carrying the dominant allele and a ½ chance of carrying the recessive allele



- The addition rule states that the probability that any one of two or more mutually exclusive events will occur is calculated by adding together their individual probabilities
- The rule of addition can be used to figure out the probability that an F₂ plant from a monohybrid cross will be heterozygous rather than homozygous

Solving Complex Genetics Problems with the Rules of Probability

- We can apply the rules of probability to predict the outcome of crosses involving multiple characters
- A multicharacter cross is equivalent to two or more independent monohybrid crosses occurring simultaneously
- In calculating the chances for various genotypes, each character is considered separately, and then the individual probabilities are multiplied

Probability of $YYRR = \frac{1}{4}$ (probability of YY) × $\frac{1}{4}$ (RR) = $\frac{1}{6}$ Probability of $YYRR = \frac{1}{2}(Yy)$ × $\frac{1}{4}(RR) = \frac{1}{8}$

PpYyRr X Ppyyrr

Chance of at least two recessive traits	= ⁶ / ₁₆ or ³ / ₈
ppyyrr $1/4 \times 1/2 \times 1/2$	$= 1/_{16}$
PPyyrr $1/4 \times 1/2 \times 1/2$	= ¹ / ₁₆
Ppyyrr $1/2 \times 1/2 \times 1/2$	= 2/16
$ppYyrr \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$	= ¹ / ₁₆
<i>ppyyRr</i> $\frac{1}{4}$ (probability of <i>pp</i>) × $\frac{1}{2}$ (<i>yy</i>) × $\frac{1}{2}$ ((<i>Rr</i>) = ¹ / ₁₆

Concept 14.3: Inheritance patterns are often more complex than predicted by simple Mendelian genetics

- The relationship between genotype and phenotype is rarely as simple as in the pea plant characters Mendel studied
- Many heritable characters are not determined by only one gene with two alleles
- However, the basic principles of segregation and independent assortment apply even to more complex patterns of inheritance

Extending Mendelian Genetics for a Single Gene

- Inheritance of characters by a single gene may deviate from simple Mendelian patterns in the following situations:
 - When alleles are not completely dominant or recessive
 - When a gene has more than two alleles
 - When a gene produces multiple phenotypes

Degrees of Dominance

- Complete dominance occurs when phenotypes of the heterozygote and dominant homozygote are identical
- In incomplete dominance, the phenotype of F₁ hybrids is somewhere between the phenotypes of the two parental varieties
- In codominance, two dominant alleles affect the phenotype in separate, distinguishable ways

Figure 14.10_1

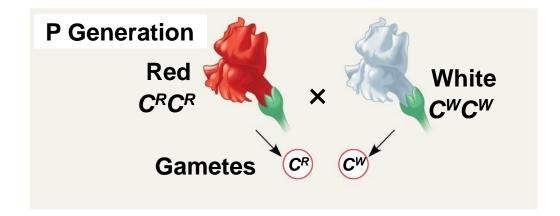


Figure 14.10_2

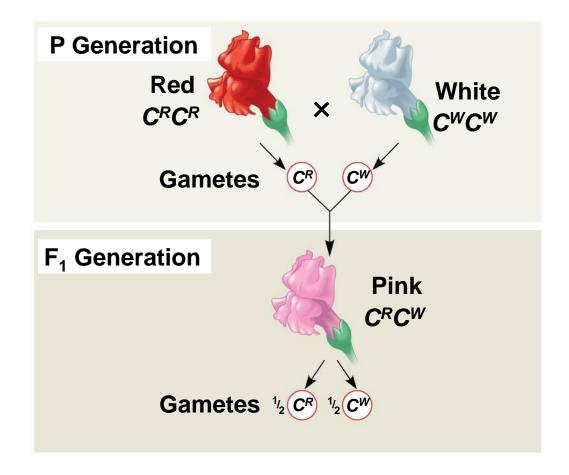
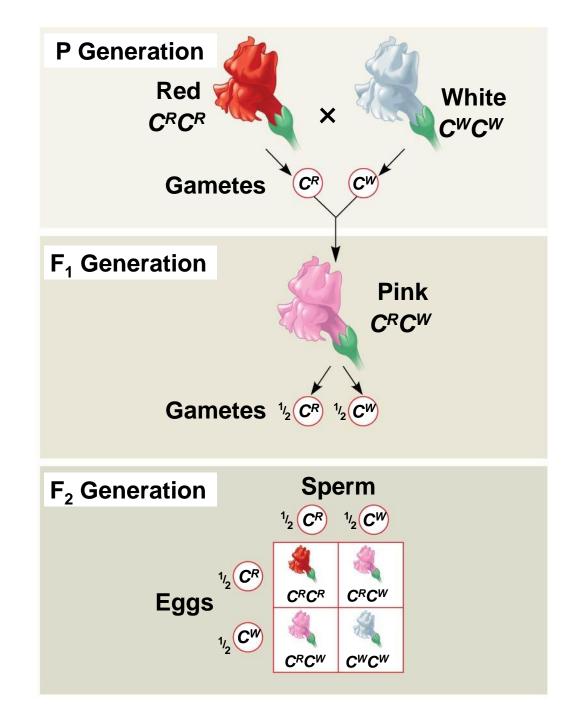


Figure 14.10_3



The Relationship Between Dominance and Phenotype

- In the case of pea shape, the dominant allele codes for an enzyme that converts an unbranched form of starch in the seed to a branched form
- The recessive allele codes for a defective form of the enzyme, which leads to an accumulation of unbranched starch
- This causes water to enter the seed, which then wrinkles as it dries

- Tay-Sachs disease is fatal; a dysfunctional enzyme causes an accumulation of lipids in the brain
 - At the organismal level, the allele is recessive
 - At the biochemical level, the phenotype (i.e., the enzyme activity level) is incompletely dominant
 - At the molecular level, the alleles are codominant

Frequency of Dominant Alleles

- Dominant alleles are not necessarily more common in populations than recessive alleles
- One baby out of 400 in the United States is born with extra fingers or toes
- This condition, polydactyly, is caused by a dominant allele, found much less frequently in the population than the recessive allele

Multiple Alleles

- Most genes exist in populations in more than two allelic forms
- For example, the four phenotypes of the ABO blood group in humans are determined by three alleles for the enzyme that attaches A or B carbohydrates to red blood cells: I^A, I^B, and i
- The enzyme encoded by the I^A allele adds the A carbohydrate, whereas the enzyme encoded by the I^B allele adds the B carbohydrate; the enzyme encoded by the *i* allele adds neither

(a) The three alleles for the ABO blood groups and their carbohydrates

Allele	ΙΑ	I ^B	i
Carbohydrate	Α 🛆	B 🔾	none

(b) Blood group genotypes and phenotypes						
Genotype	I ^A I ^A or I ^A i	I ^B I ^B or I ^B i	I ^A I ^B	ii		
Red blood cell with surface carbohydrates						
Phenotype (blood group)	Α	В	AB	Ο		

Pleiotropy

- Most genes have multiple phenotypic effects, a property called **pleiotropy**
- For example, pleiotropic alleles are responsible for the multiple symptoms of certain hereditary diseases, such as cystic fibrosis (higher than normal level of salt in their sweat, A persistent cough that produces thick mucus (sputum), Wheezing, Breathlessness, Exercise intolerance, Repeated lung infections)
 - and sickle-cell disease (Anemia, Episodes of pain, Painful swelling of hands and feet, Frequent infectionsm, Delayed growth, Vision problems)

Extending Mendelian Genetics for Two or More Genes

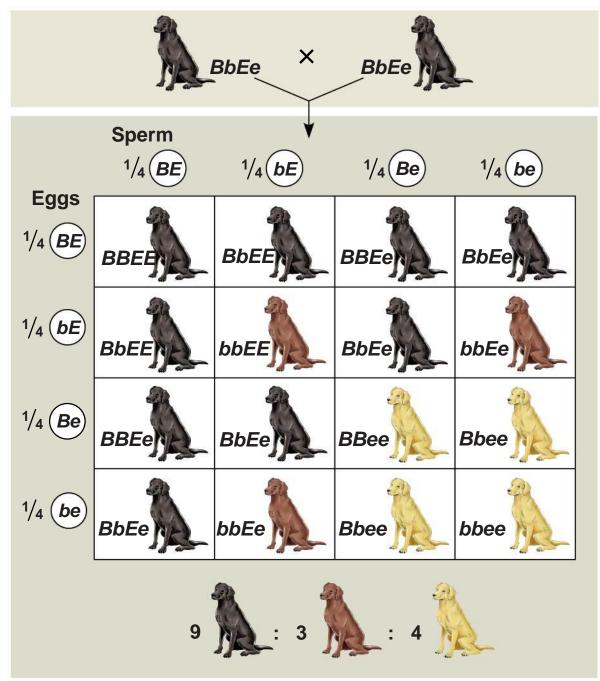
- Some traits may be determined by two or more genes
- In epistasis, one gene affects the phenotype of another due to interaction of their gene products
- In <u>polygenic</u> inheritance, multiple genes independently affect a single trait

Epistasis

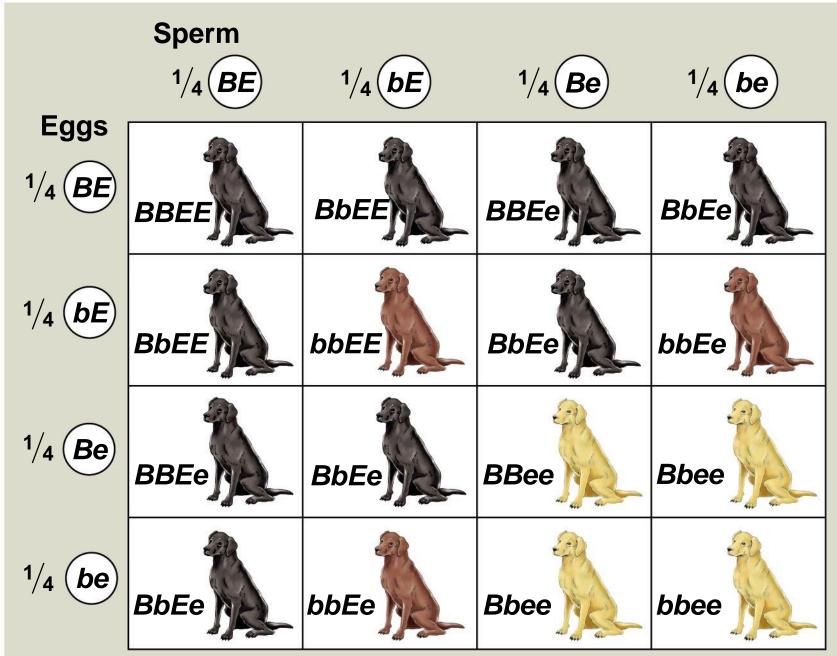
- In epistasis, expression of a gene at one locus alters the phenotypic expression of a gene at a second locus
- For example, in Labrador retrievers and many other mammals, coat color depends on two genes
- One gene determines the pigment color (with alleles B for black and b for brown)
- The other gene (with alleles E for color and e for no color) determines whether the pigment will be deposited in the hair

- If heterozygous black labs (genotype *BbEe*) are mated, we might expect the dihybrid F₂ ratio of 9:3:3:1
- However, a Punnett square shows that the phenotypic ratio will be 9 black to 3 chocolate to 4 yellow labs
- Epistatic interactions produce a variety of ratios, all of which are modified versions of 9:3:3:1

Figure 14.12

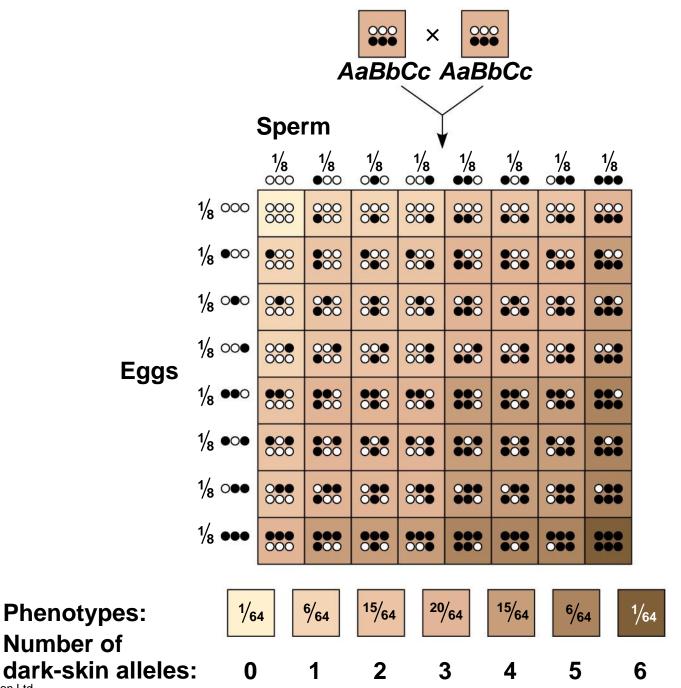


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Polygenic Inheritance

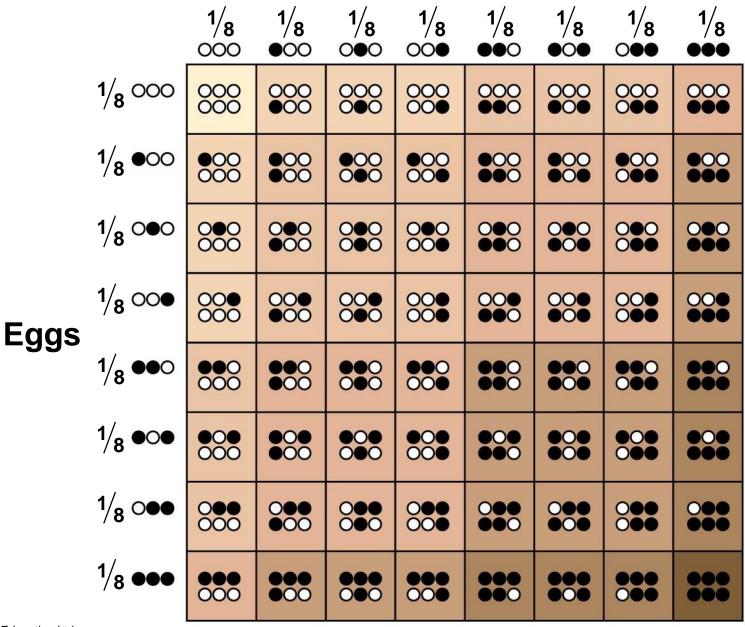
- Quantitative characters are those that vary in the population along a continuum
- Quantitative variation usually indicates polygenic inheritance, an additive effect of two or more genes on a single phenotype
- Height is a good example of polygenic inheritance: Over 180 genes affect height
- Skin color in humans is also controlled by many separately inherited genes



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Figure 14.13a

Sperm



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Nature and Nurture: The Environmental Impact on Phenotype

- Another departure from Mendelian genetics arises when the phenotype for a character depends on environment as well as genotype
- The phenotypic range is broadest for polygenic characters
- Traits that depend on multiple genes combined with environmental influences are called multifactorial



(a) Hydrangeas grown in basic soil



(b) Hydrangeas of the same genetic variety grown in acidic soil with free aluminum

A Mendelian View of Heredity and Variation

- An organism's phenotype includes its physical appearance, internal anatomy, physiology, and behavior
- An organism's phenotype reflects its overall genotype and unique environmental history