

## unit 18. basic principles of heredity

### ACTIVITY 18-1. MENDELIAN GENETICS

Many of the basic concepts of heredity were worked out in the mid-1800s by the Austrian monk Gregor Mendel (1822-1884). Mendel cultivated garden peas, which he used to study plant inheritance. From these experiments, Mendel concluded that each hereditary trait is controlled by two separate factors, one from each parent, and that these factors are passed on unchanged from generation to generation. Mendel knew nothing of chromosomes or genes. However, what he called "factors" are now known to be genes, which are found on the chromosomes.

Mendel was very careful in his studies to use plants that "bred true"—that is, plants that showed the same traits generation after generation. Also, he studied only seven different traits, and there were two contrasting forms for each trait.

#### LAW OF DOMINANCE

When Mendel crossed two true-breeding pea plants that showed one pair of contrasting traits, only one of these traits was evident in the resulting offspring. For example, if he crossed a tall plant and a short plant, all offspring were tall. The trait that was expressed was described as *dominant*, while the trait that did not show in the offspring was *recessive*. Of the pairs of contrasting traits that Mendel studied, he found that in each case one trait proved dominant. Tall stems were dominant, short stems recessive; round seeds were dominant, wrinkled seeds, recessive, etc. Mendel concluded that of every pair of contrasting traits, one is dominant and the other recessive.

The pure-breeding parent generation is called the P generation. The offspring of the crosses between members of the P generation are called the first filial, or  $F_1$ , generation. Crosses between members of the  $F_1$  generation produce the second filial, or  $F_2$ , generation, and so on. In Mendel's experiments members of the  $F_1$  generation were *hybrids*—they were the offspring of unlike parents.

#### Questions

- In Mendel's experiments, he crossed pea plants with green pods with plants with yellow pods. He found that all the offspring had green pods.
  - The plants used in the original cross are members of the \_\_\_\_\_ generation.
  - The offspring of the cross make up the \_\_\_\_\_ filial, or \_\_\_\_\_, generation.
  - The pod color that is dominant is \_\_\_\_\_, while the pod color that is recessive is \_\_\_\_\_.
- What is a hybrid?

## LAW OF SEGREGATION

In another experiment, Mendel allowed the hybrid members of the  $F_1$  generation to undergo self-fertilization. The offspring of this cross were the  $F_2$  generation. Of the  $F_2$  generation, three-fourths showed the dominant trait and one-fourth showed the recessive trait. This showed that although members of the  $F_1$  generation all showed the dominant trait, these plants also carried the recessive factor (gene), and that this factor was passed on to the  $F_2$  generation. These results led Mendel to the conclusion that each trait is controlled by a pair of factors, one from each parent. (The  $F_1$  hybrids obviously carried the dominant factor of one parent and the recessive factor of the other parent.) This is Mendel's law of segregation.

Since the gametes fuse in fertilization, each gamete must carry only one of the factors, and the zygote formed by the fusion of the two gametes then carries two, one from each parent. In the formation of gametes, the two factors must separate, or *segregate*. Each gamete receives one factor for each trait. The dominant trait is expressed whenever the dominant factor (gene) for that trait is present. For example, in the experiments on stem length, all members of the  $F_1$  hybrid generation were tall. Only an organism possessing two recessive factors for a given trait will show the recessive trait.

An individual with two dominant or two recessive genes is said to be *homozygous*, while the hybrid, with one dominant and one recessive gene, is *heterozygous*. The dominant trait is shown by two capital letters (TT for tallness, for example), and the recessive by two lower case letters (tt for shortness). The homozygous dominant is TT, the homozygous recessive is tt, and the hybrid is Tt.

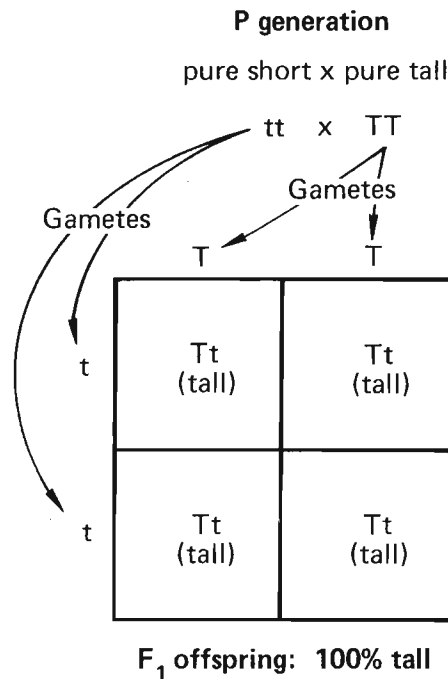
## Questions

1. What is Mendel's law of segregation?
2. In the pea plants studied by Mendel, how many factors controlled a given trait?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Use G for green pods (dominant) and g for yellow pods (recessive).
  - a. A pea plant that is homozygous dominant for green pods would be shown as  
\_\_\_\_\_.
  - b. A pea plant that is heterozygous for green pods would be shown as  
\_\_\_\_\_.
  - c. A pea plant that is homozygous recessive for yellow pods would be shown as  
\_\_\_\_\_.

## PUNNETT SQUARES

The Punnett square is a convenient method for visualizing genetic crosses. The boxes that make up the square show all possible zygotes resulting from a cross of gametes bearing a specific trait. The letters representing each possible type of sperm are placed along the top of the square, and those for each possible type of egg along the side. For example, in a pea plant that was heterozygous for stem length (Tt), half the gametes would receive the dominant factor for stem length (T) and half would receive the recessive (t). Thus, the plant would produce two types of gametes. A plant that was pure dominant (TT) or pure recessive (tt) would produce only one type of gamete—T or t respectively.

A cross between a homozygous tall plant (TT) and a homozygous short plant (tt) is shown below.



The F<sub>1</sub> generation is all heterozygous tall. The physical appearance of an individual is called the *phenotype*. Thus, the phenotype of all members of the F<sub>1</sub> generation is tall. The *genotype*, on the other hand, is the genetic makeup of the individual. In this case all members of the F<sub>1</sub> generation have a heterozygous, or hybrid, genotype. The genotypes of the P generation were homozygous dominant and homozygous recessive.

### Questions

1. The physical appearance of an individual is its \_\_\_\_\_, while the genetic makeup of an individual is its \_\_\_\_\_.

2. Use a Punnett square to show the offspring of a cross between two pea plants that are heterozygous for stem length ( $Tt \times Tt$ ). Give the phenotypes and genotypes of the offspring.


Phenotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

Genotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Use a Punnett square to show the offspring of a cross between a pea plant that is homozygous tall ( $TT$ ) and one that is heterozygous ( $Tt$ ). Give the phenotypes and genotypes of the offspring.


Phenotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

Genotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Use a Punnett square to show the offspring of a cross between a pea plant that is heterozygous tall and one that is homozygous recessive for stem length. Give the phenotypes and genotypes of the offspring.


Phenotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

Genotypes: \_\_\_\_\_

## LAW OF INDEPENDENT ASSORTMENT

Following his crosses of plants with one pair of contrasting traits, Mendel did crosses of plants that showed two pairs of contrasting traits. Such a cross might involve a plant with long stems and round seeds (both dominant) and one with short stems and wrinkled seeds (both recessive). The first plant could be represented as  $TTRR$ , the second as  $ttrr$ . Each plant would produce only one type of gamete—one would be  $TR$  and the other  $tr$ . All offspring of the cross would be hybrids with long stems and round seeds ( $TtRr$ ).

To find out whether there was any relationship between the two traits—for example, whether the dominant traits segregated together—Mendel allowed the hybrid plants to undergo self-fertilization. This is a *dihybrid*

## ACTIVITY 18-2. CHROMOSOMES AND GENES

Although Mendel worked out many of the basic facts of heredity, he did not know about chromosomes or genes. Mendel worked in the 1860s, but it was not until the early 1900s that biologists rediscovered his work and made the connection between chromosomes and the units of heredity hypothesized by Mendel.

### CHROMOSOME THEORY

In 1903, the American geneticist Walter Sutton presented his chromosome theory of heredity. He arrived at this theory after reviewing Mendel's work and drawing comparisons between Mendel's hypothetical units of heredity and the behavior of chromosomes during meiosis and fertilization. According to Sutton's theory, the units of heredity—the *genes*—are located on the chromosomes. In diploid cells, the chromosomes and genes are present in pairs. Pairs of similar chromosomes are called *homologous chromosomes*. Homologous chromosomes are made up of genes that influence the same traits and are located at identical positions on both chromosomes. Pairs of similar genes are called *alleles*.

During meiosis, chromosomes segregate, with one chromosome of each homologous pair passing to each gamete. Since pairs of alleles are located on pairs of homologous chromosomes, segregation of chromosomes results in the segregation of genes, with each daughter cell receiving one of each pair of alleles. The segregation of genes during meiosis and the recombination of genes during fertilization are causes of variation among offspring in sexual reproduction.

### Questions

1. The units of heredity, which are called \_\_\_\_\_, are located on the \_\_\_\_\_.
2. What happens to each set of alleles in the course of meiotic cell division?

### LINKAGE

According to Mendel's law of independent assortment, the hereditary factors are segregated independently of one another. However, in the course of experiments with both plants and fruit flies, investigators in the early 1900s found that certain traits appeared to be passed on together rather than independently. Further work showed that chromosomes are segregated independently, but that genes that are present on the same chromosome are generally passed on together. Such genes are said to show *linkage*.

### Questions

1. Under what circumstances are genes inherited together?

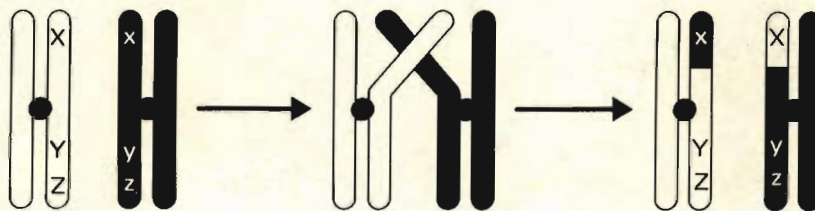
2. How does the concept of linkage modify Mendel's law of independent assortment?

## CROSSING OVER

During meiosis, homologous pairs of chromosomes undergo synapsis (form tetrads). Sometimes there is an exchange of segments between the chromatids of a tetrad. In such an exchange of parts some linked genes become separated. This exchange of parts between homologous chromosomes is called *crossing over*. The greater the distance between two genes on a chromosome, the more likely they are to be separated by crossing over.

## Questions

1. What is crossing over? At what stage in meiosis does it occur?
2. If two genes are at opposite ends of a chromatid, are their chances of being separated by crossing over greater or less than if they were close together?
3. Answer the following questions based on the diagrams below.



- a. What is the relationship between genes X and x?
- b. Which genes are exchanged by crossing over?
- c. What new linkage groups are formed by the crossing over?

## SEX CHROMOSOMES

### sex determination

Sex in humans and various other organisms (both plant and animal) is determined by a specific pair of chromosomes called the *sex chromosomes*. All chromosome pairs other than the sex chromosomes are called *autosomes*. In humans, the sex chromosomes are designated as X and Y. Females have two X chromosomes, while males have one X and one Y chromosome. In gamete formation, the eggs of the female always contain an X chromosome. However, two types of sperm are produced—one con-

taining an X chromosome and the other containing a Y chromosome. Thus, at fertilization, if the egg is fertilized by an X-containing sperm, the offspring will be female (XX). If the egg is fertilized by a Y-containing sperm, the offspring will be male (XY). In humans it is the sperm of the male that determines the sex of the offspring. In birds, on the other hand, it is the female who produces two types of gametes and thus determines sex.

## Questions

1. In humans, there are \_\_\_\_\_ pair(s) of autosomes and \_\_\_\_\_ pair(s) of sex chromosomes.
2. The sex chromosomes in the human female are represented by \_\_\_\_\_ and in the human male by \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Use the Punnett square below to show the segregation of human sex chromosomes in the formation of gametes. Fill in the square showing all possible crosses. Give the phenotype (sex) of the offspring.

Sex: _____	Sex: _____
Sex: _____	Sex: _____

4. A mating of a pair of fruit flies produces 300 offspring. Approximately how many males and how many females will there be in this group?

### sex-linked traits

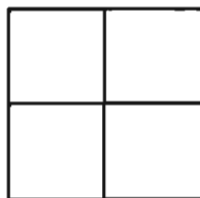
Traits determined by genes located on the X chromosome are said to be *sex-linked*. A number of undesirable sex-linked traits have been discovered in humans. One of the most common is color blindness. Hemophilia, a condition in which the blood does not clot properly, is another. These sex-linked traits are much more common in males than in females. This is because in humans and various other species the X chromosomes carry an assortment of genes, while the Y chromosomes have very few genes. Thus, when a gene is carried on the X chromosome of a male, there is no allele (corresponding gene) on the Y chromosome. Therefore, a gene on the X chromosome of the male will always be expressed, whether it is dominant or recessive. The genes for many of the undesirable sex-linked traits are recessive and relatively rare. When such a gene is present in a female, there is usually a dominant, normal allele on the other X chromosome that produces a normal phenotype. Although such females appear normal, they are *carriers* of the trait, which may be passed on to their offspring.

# Questions

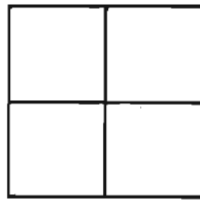
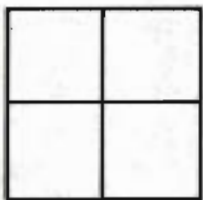
1. What is a sex-linked trait?
2. Two sex-linked traits in humans are \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
3. In the diagrams below X represents the normal gene and X<sup>-</sup> the defective gene. Label each diagram as male or female and as normal, afflicted (showing the trait of the defective gene), or carrier.



4. Using the Punnett square below, show the possible offspring produced by a normal father (XY) and a mother who is a carrier for color blindness (XX<sup>-</sup>).



- a. What percentage of their daughters will be color-blind? \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. What percentage of their daughters will be carriers of the gene for color blindness?  
\_\_\_\_\_
  - c. What percentage of their sons will be color-blind? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Using Punnett squares to work out your answers, describe the pattern of color blindness among the offspring of a color-blind mother and a normal father. Do the same for a color-blind mother and color-blind father.



6. Like color blindness in humans, white eyes in fruit flies is a sex-linked characteristic. Using a Punnett square, show the results of a cross between a white-eyed female (X<sup>-</sup>X<sup>-</sup>) and a red-eyed male (XY). In each square, label each of the offspring as red-eyed or white-eyed and, where appropriate, as a carrier.

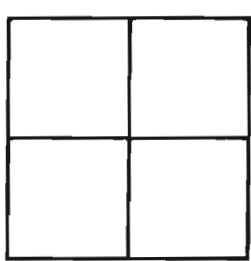


## MULTIPLE ALLELES

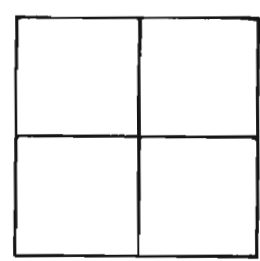
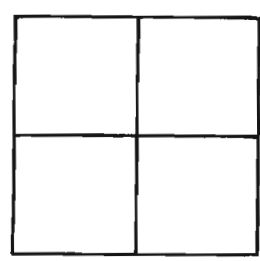
All traits discussed so far have been controlled by a single pair of alleles. However, there are some traits, such as blood type in humans, that involve more than two genes. Human blood type involves three genes—A, B, and O. Genes A and B are dominant, while O is recessive. The four human blood types are A, B, AB, and O. Genotypes of multiple alleles are shown using the capital letter I for dominant and lower case i for recessive. Thus, for example, type A blood is genotype I<sup>A</sup>.

### Questions

1. What are multiple alleles?
2. Two traits in humans that are determined by multiple alleles are \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
3. A man with type AB blood marries a woman with type O blood. Using the Punnett square below, show all possible genotypes of their offspring.



4. Could a mother with type B blood and a father with type O blood produce offspring with type AB blood? Use the Punnett squares below to check your answer.



## MUTATIONS

Mutations are stable changes in the hereditary material. *Somatic mutations* are genetic changes within the body cells. This type of mutation can be passed on only to other body cells by mitotic cell division. *Germinal mutations*, which are mutations in the sex, or *germ*, cells, can be passed on to succeeding generations.

Any trait can undergo a mutation at any time, but the rate of mutation is usually very low. Certain types of radiation and various chemicals are known to cause mutations. Mutations are generally recessive. Thus, they are usually masked by dominant genes unless they are sex-linked. Muta-

tions are generally disadvantageous. They tend to cause disruptions in the biochemical machinery of the cell.

*Chromosome mutations* involve permanent changes in chromosome structure. These changes usually occur during meiosis. In *crossing over* there is an exchange of chromosome segments between homologous chromosomes. *Inversions* involve the rotation of a piece of chromosome so that the order of genes in that segment is reversed. *Duplication* of chromosome segments occurs when a segment broken off one chromosome becomes attached to the homologous chromosome, resulting in a duplication of some genes. In *deletion*, a segment breaks off a chromosome, resulting in the loss of some genes. In *translocation*, a segment from one chromosome is transferred to a nonhomologous chromosome.

*Gene mutations*, which involve changes in DNA, are discussed in Unit 19.

## Questions

1. What is a mutation?
2. Changes in chromosomes of body cells are called \_\_\_\_\_ mutations.
3. Changes in the chromosomes of gametes are called \_\_\_\_\_ mutations.
4. Name four types of chromosome mutations.

### polyploidy

During the normal process of meiosis, the sets of doubled chromosomes separate, with one of each chromosome going to each daughter cell. Occasionally, the doubled chromosomes do not separate, resulting in a cell with more than the diploid number of chromosomes. The condition in which the cells of an organism have more than twice the haploid number of chromosomes is called *polyploidy*. Plants carrying the tetraploid ( $4n$ ) chromosome number are more vigorous and larger than the diploids. Many fruits sold commercially are polyploids. The chemicals colchicine and camphor are used to induce polyploidy in some plants. Polyploidy is rarely found in animals because the condition is usually lethal.

## Question

The condition in which the cells of an organism have more than twice the haploid number of chromosomes is called \_\_\_\_\_.

### nondisjunction

When a pair of homologous chromosomes does not separate during meiotic cell division, the abnormality is called *nondisjunction*. If nondisjunction occurs in only a single chromosome pair, the result is a gamete with one extra chromosome ( $n + 1$ ). If this gamete is involved in fertilization, the resulting zygote will have a chromosome number of  $(2n + 1)$ . In humans, nondisjunction of chromosome pair 21 results in *mongolism*, or *Down's syndrome*.

## Question

The failure of homologous chromosomes to separate during meiosis is called \_\_\_\_\_.