

LECTURE PRESENTATIONS

For CAMPBELL BIOLOGY, NINTH EDITION

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Chapter 14

Mendel and the Gene Idea



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Overview: Drawing from the Deck of Genes

- What genetic principles account for the passing 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)
- This hypothesis can explain the reappearance of traits after several generations
- Mendel documented a particulate mechanism through his experiments with garden peas

Figure 14.1



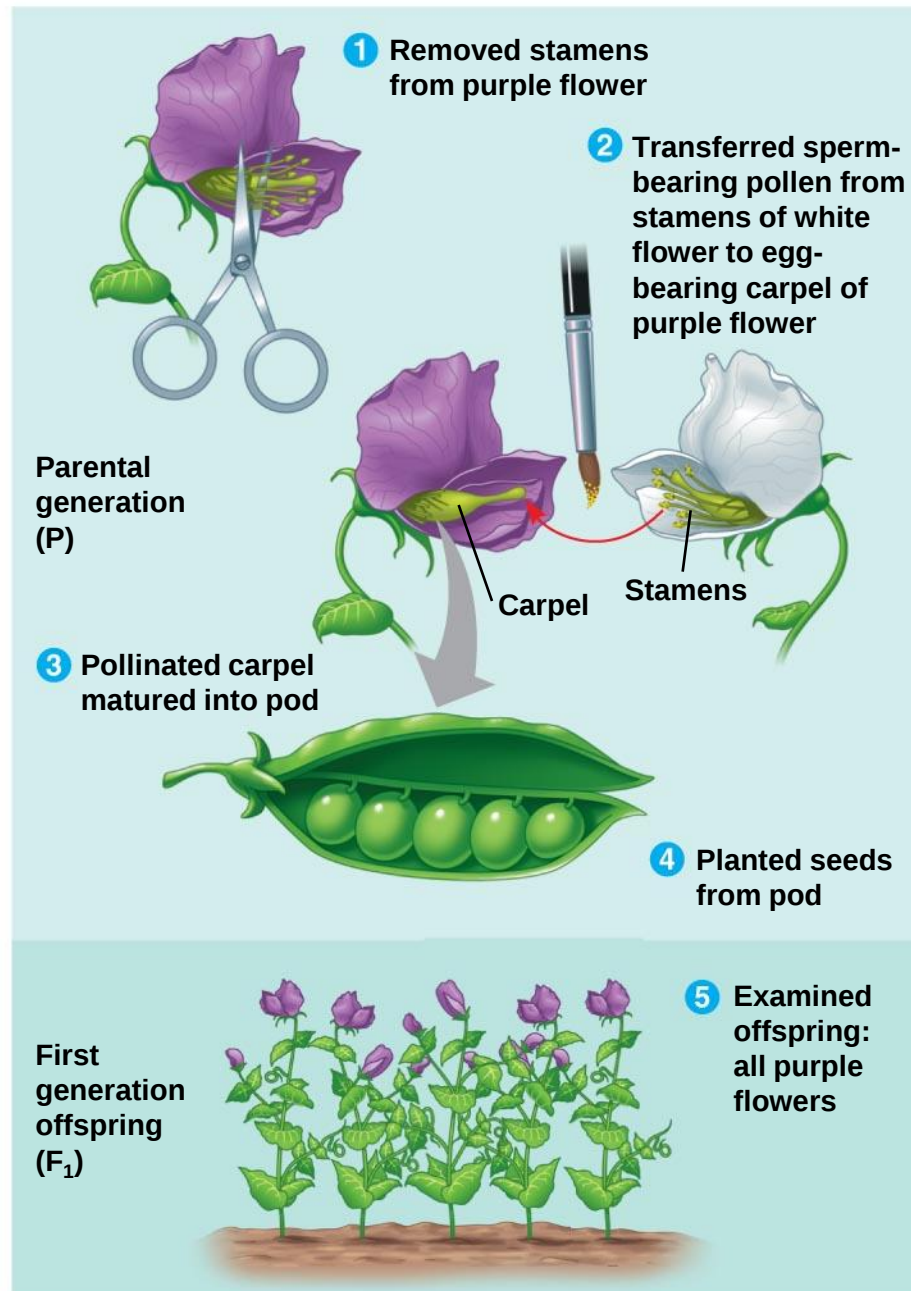
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Mendel used the scientific approach to identify two laws of inheritance

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

Mendel's Experimental, Quantitative Approach

- Advantages of pea plants for genetic study
 - There are many varieties with distinct heritable features, or **characters** (such as flower color); character variants (such as purple or white flowers) are called **traits**
 - Mating can be controlled
 - Each flower has sperm-producing organs (stamens) and egg-producing organ (carpel)
 - Cross-pollination (fertilization between different plants) involves dusting one plant with pollen from another



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

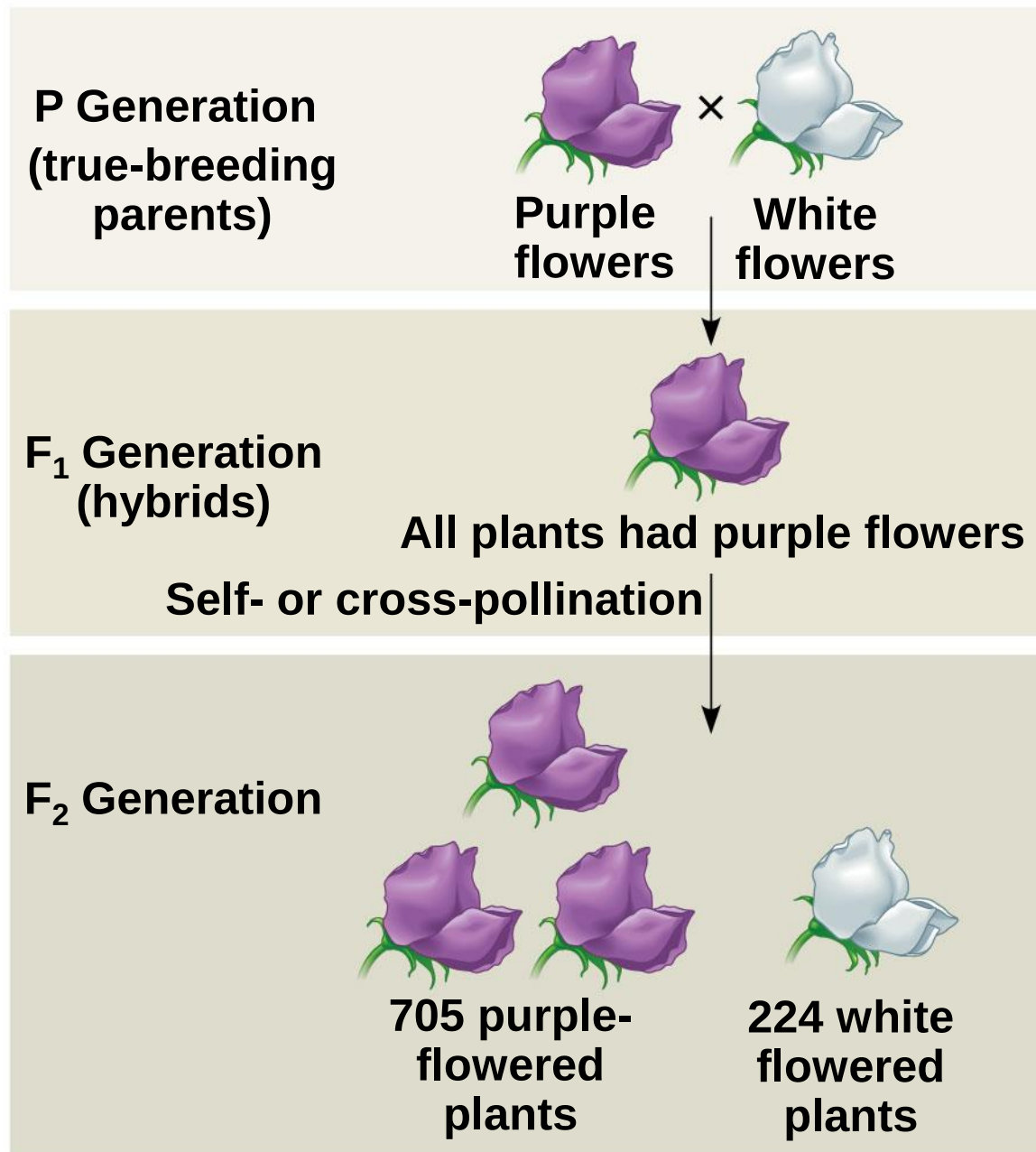
- In a typical experiment, Mendel mated two contrasting, true-breeding varieties, a process called **hybridization**
- The true-breeding parents are the **P generation**
- The hybrid offspring of the P generation are called the **F₁ generation**
- When F₁ individuals self-pollinate or cross-pollinate 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 F_1 hybrids were purple
- When Mendel crossed the F_1 hybrids, many of the F_2 plants had purple flowers, but some had white
- Mendel discovered a ratio of about three to one, purple to white flowers, in the F_2 generation

Figure 14.3-3

EXPERIMENT



- Mendel reasoned that only the purple flower factor was affecting flower color in the F_1 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 F_2 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 14.1

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

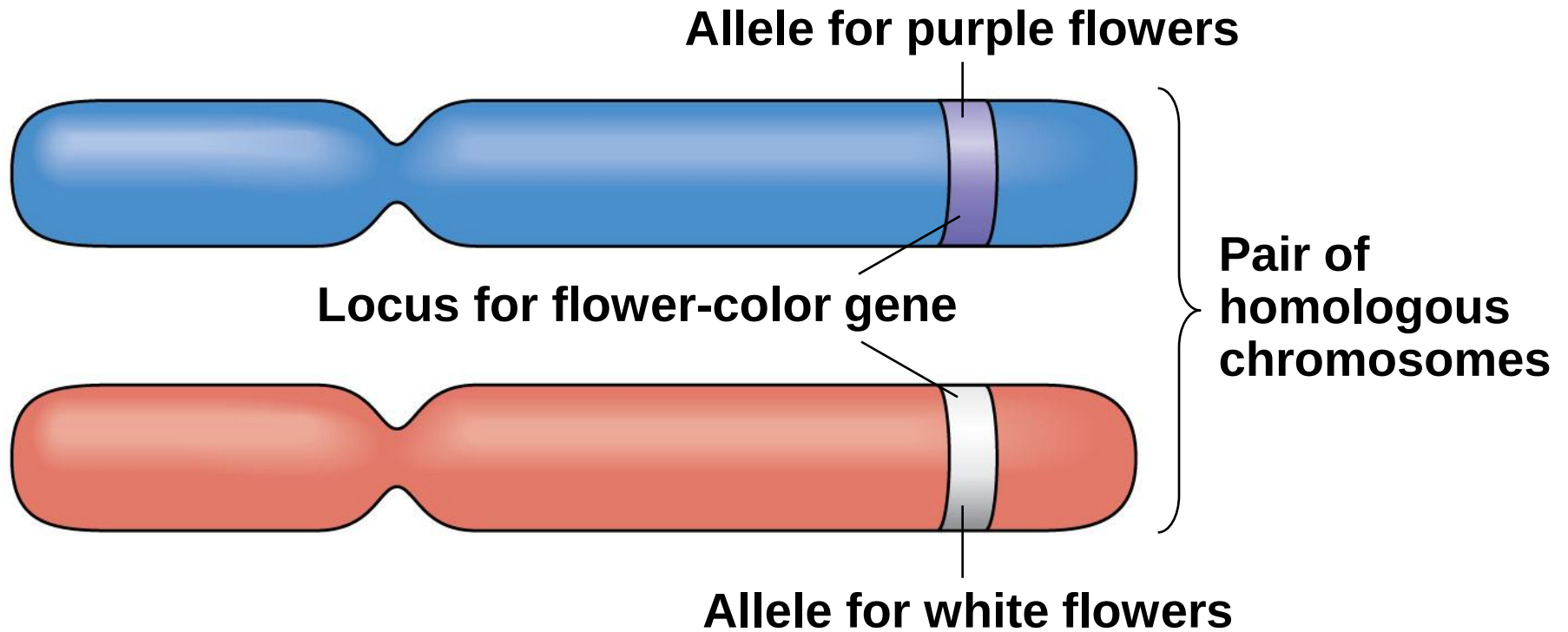
Character	Dominant Trait	×	Recessive Trait	F ₂ Generation Dominant: Recessive	Ratio
Flower color	Purple 	×	White 	705:224	3.15:1
Flower position	Axial 	×	Terminal 	651:207	3.14:1
Seed color	Yellow 	×	Green 	6,022:2,001	3.01:1
Seed shape	Round 	×	Wrinkled 	5,474:1,850	2.96:1
Pod shape	Inflated 	×	Constricted 	882:299	2.95:1
Pod color	Green 	×	Yellow 	428:152	2.82:1
Stem length	Tall 	×	Dwarf 	787:277	2.84:1

Mendel's Model

- Mendel developed a hypothesis to explain the 3:1 inheritance pattern he observed in F_2 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 now called **alleles**
- Each gene resides at a specific locus on a specific chromosome

Figure 14.4



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- Second: for each character, an organism inherits two alleles, one from each parent
- Mendel made this deduction without knowing about the role of chromosomes
- The two alleles at a particular locus may be identical, as in the true-breeding plants of Mendel's P generation
- Alternatively, 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 F_1 plants had purple flowers because the allele for that trait is dominant

- Fourth: (now known as 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

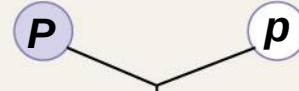
- Mendel's segregation model accounts for the 3:1 ratio he observed in the F_2 generation of his numerous crosses
- The possible combinations of sperm and egg can be shown using a **Punnett square**, a diagram for predicting the results of a genetic cross between individuals of known genetic makeup
- A capital letter represents a dominant allele, and a lowercase letter represents a recessive allele

Figure 14.5-3

P Generation

Appearance:
Genetic makeup:
Gametes:

Purple flowers PP White flowers pp

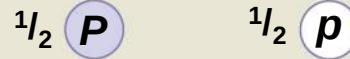


F₁ Generation

Appearance:
Genetic makeup:
Gametes:

Purple flowers

Pp



F₂ Generation

Eggs from
F₁ (Pp) plant

Sperm from F₁ (Pp) plant

	P	p
P	 PP	 Pp
p	 Pp	 pp

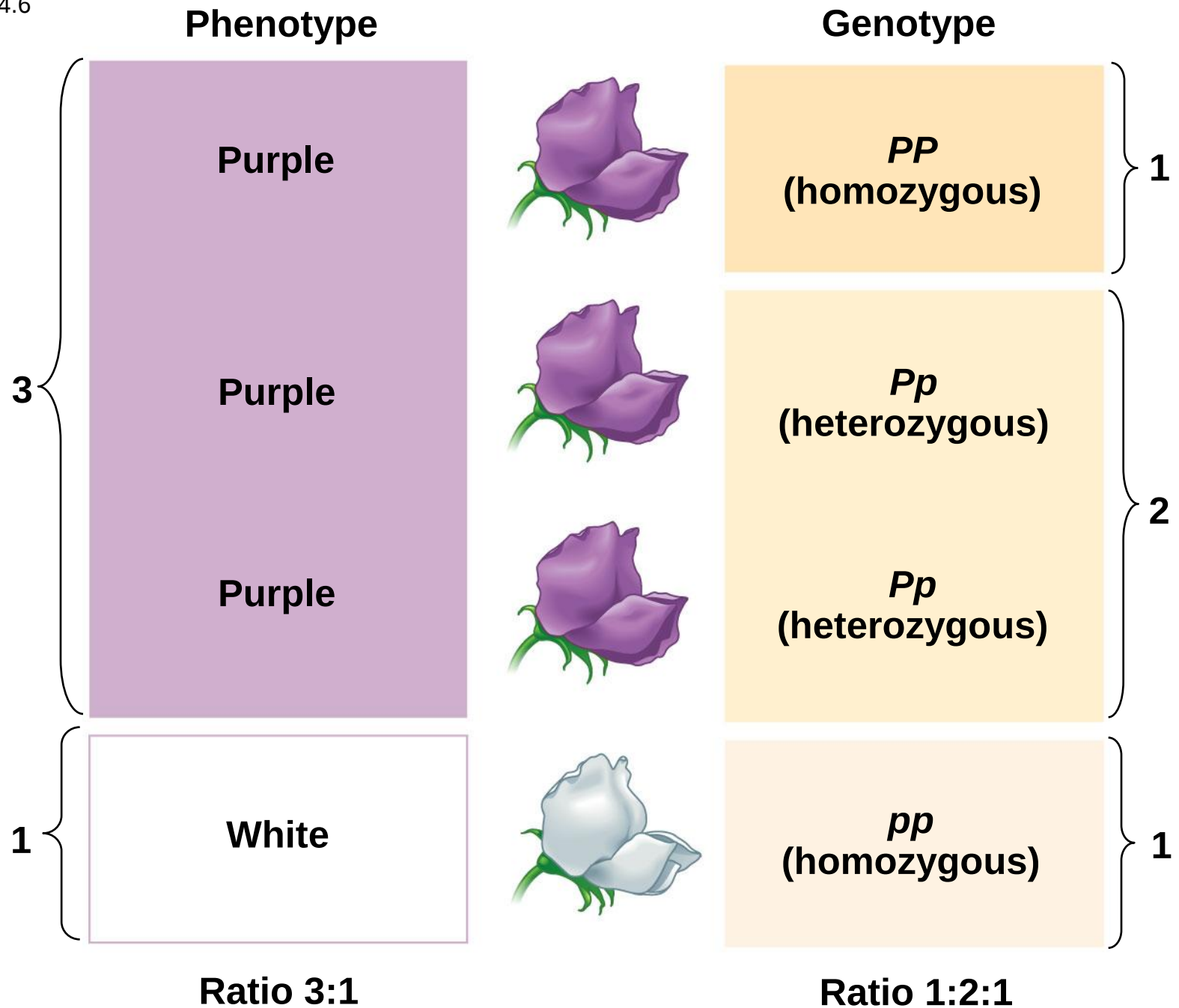
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Useful Genetic Vocabulary

- An organism with two identical alleles for a character is said to be **homozygous** for the gene controlling that character
- An organism that has two different alleles for a gene is said to be **heterozygous** for the gene controlling that character
- Unlike homozygotes, heterozygotes are not true-breeding

- Because of the different effects of dominant and recessive alleles, 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

Figure 14.6

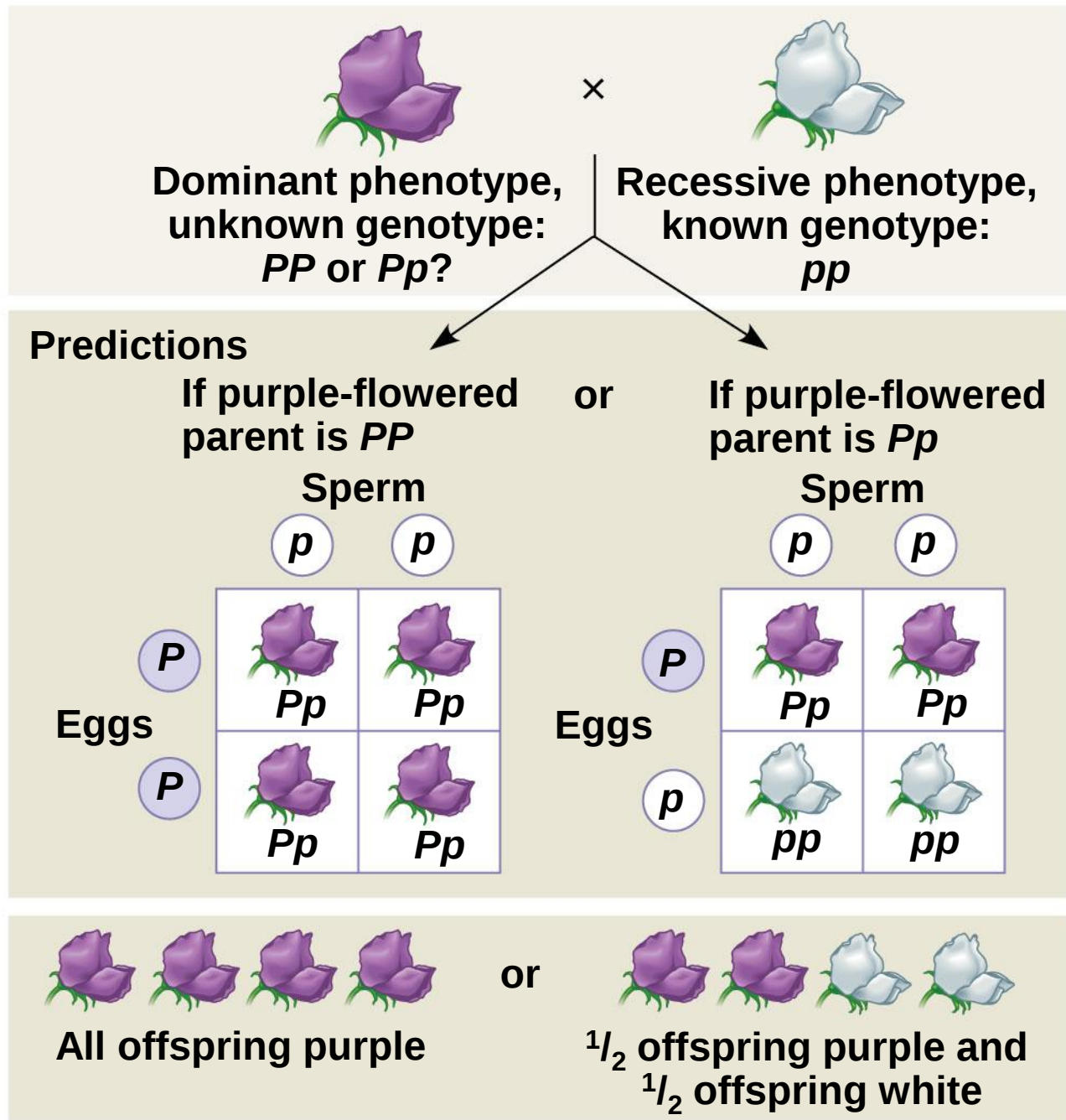


The Testcross

- How can we tell the genotype of an individual with the dominant phenotype?
- Such an individual could be either homozygous dominant or heterozygous
- The answer is to 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

Figure 14.7

TECHNIQUE

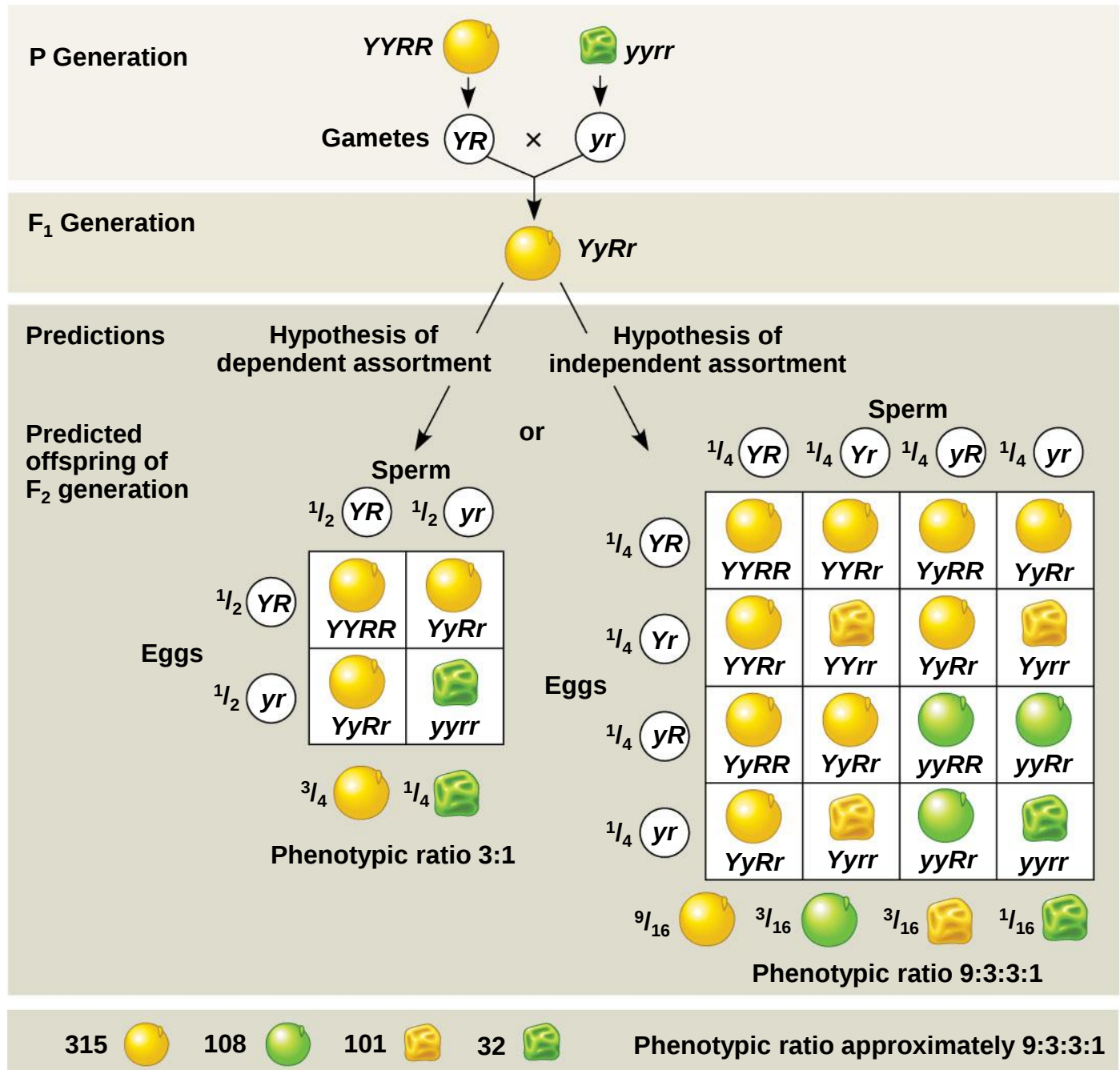


The Law of Independent Assortment

- Mendel derived the law of segregation by following a single character
- The F_1 offspring produced in this cross were **monohybrids**, individuals that are 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 F_1 generation, heterozygous for both characters
- A **dihybrid cross**, a cross between F_1 dihybrids, can determine whether two characters are transmitted to offspring as a package or independently

Figure 14.8

EXPERIMENT

- Using a dihybrid cross, Mendel developed the **law of independent assortment**
- The law of independent assortment states that each pair of alleles segregates independently of each other pair of alleles during gamete formation
- Strictly speaking, 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

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

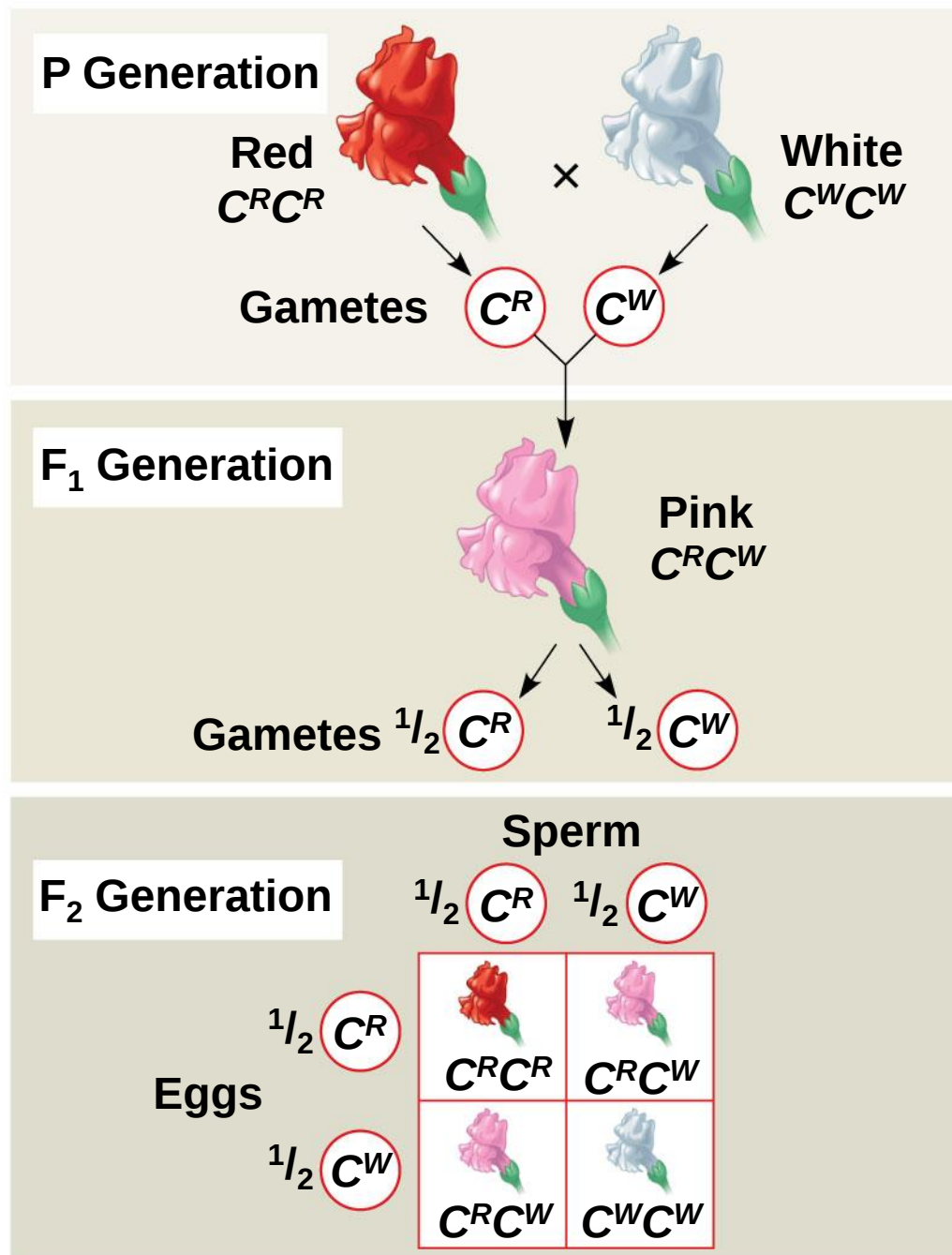
Extending Mendelian Genetics for a Single Gene

- 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 F_1 hybrids is somewhere between the phenotypes of the two parental varieties
- In **codominance**, two dominant alleles affect the phenotype in separate, distinguishable ways

Figure 14.10-3



The Relation Between Dominance and Phenotype

- A dominant allele does not subdue a recessive allele; alleles don't interact that way
- Alleles are simply variations in a gene's nucleotide sequence
- For any character, dominance/recessiveness relationships of alleles depend on the level at which we examine the phenotype

- **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

Multiple Alleles

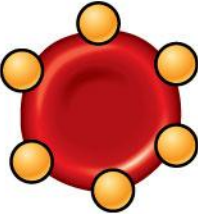
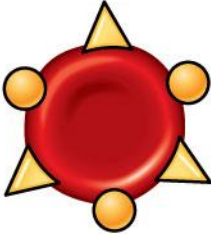
- Most genes exist in populations in more than two allelic forms
- For example, the four phenotypes of the ABO blood group in humans are determined by three alleles for the enzyme (I) that attaches A or B carbohydrates to red blood cells: I^A , I^B , and i .
- The enzyme encoded by the I^A allele adds 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

Figure 14.11

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

Allele	I^A	I^B	i
Carbohydrate	A 	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 appearance				
Phenotype (blood group)	A	B	AB	O