BIO-373 Genetics & Genomics

Mendelian genetics

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1. Mendel's experimental approach and monohybrid cross

Mendel's experimental approach

Mendel's model organism: peas

- easy to grow
- Relatively fast growth
- controlled mating: self-fertilization or cross-fertilization
- 7 observable characteristics with two distinct forms (binary variation)



Monohybrid cross

- Involve a single pair of contrasting traits
- P₁ generation: parents ("true breeding")
- F_1 generation: offspring $(P_1 \times P_1 = F_1)$
- F_2 generation: offspring of F_1 ($F_1 \times F_1 = F_2$)

Character	Contrasting traits		F ₁ results	F ₂ results	F ₂ ratio	
Seed shape	round/wrinkled	•	()	all round	5474 round 1850 wrinkled	2.96:1
Seed color	yellow/green	()	•	all yellow	6022 yellow 2001 green	3.01:1
Pod shape	full/constricted		4	all full	882 full 299 constricted	2.95:1
Pod color	green/yellow			all green	428 green 152 yellow	2.82:1
Flower color	violet/white			all violet	705 violet 224 white	3.15:1
Flower position	axial/terminal		3	all axial	651 axial 207 terminal	3.14:1
Stem height	tall/dwarf			all tall	787 tall 277 dwarf	2.84:1

Constraining traits

- F₁ generation monohybrid cross
 - All plants have the same phenotype (one of the two possible traits)
- F₂ generation
 - 3/4 of plants exhibit the same trait as the F₁ generation
 - 1/4 exhibit the contrasting trait that disappeared in the F₁ generation
 - 3:1 ratio

Reciprocal cross

- Not sex dependent
- F₁ and F₂ patterns of inheritance similar regardless of P₁ source
 - Dwarf plant pollinates tall plant
 - Tall plant pollinates dwarf plant
 - Results for F₁ and F₂ are the same

Particulate unit factors

- Mendel called the basic units of heredity, which determine the traits expressed by an organism, "particulate unit factors"
 - They are passed unchanged from generation to generation
 - They exist in pairs: a variable trait is controlled by a pair of "unit factors", which we now call alleles

Genetic terminology

Gene

Unit of inheritance

Allele

Alternative form of a single gene

Genotype

- Genetic makeup of individual
- Alleles written in pairs (DD, Dd, or dd)

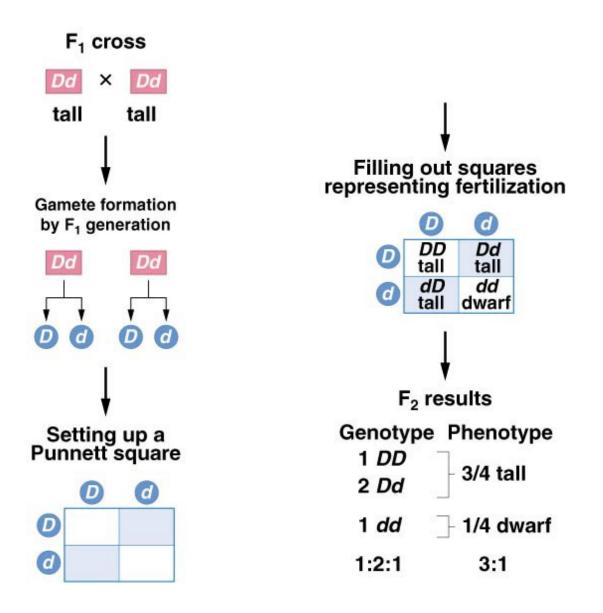
Phenotype

Physical expression of a trait

Punnett square

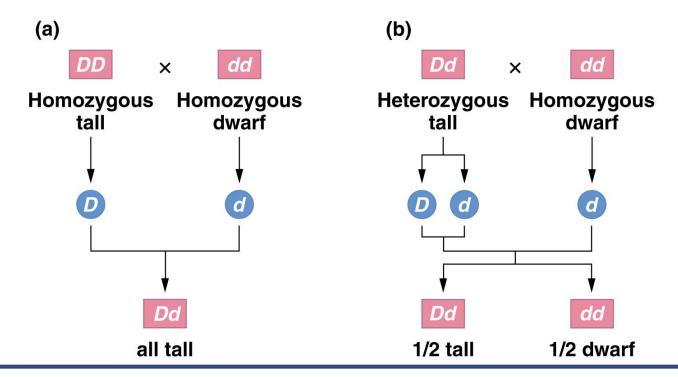
- Devised by R. C. Punnett, founder of the *Journal* of *Genetics* in 1910
- Genotypes and phenotypes resulting from combining gametes can be visualized
- Displays all possible random fertilization events

F₂ generation



Testcross

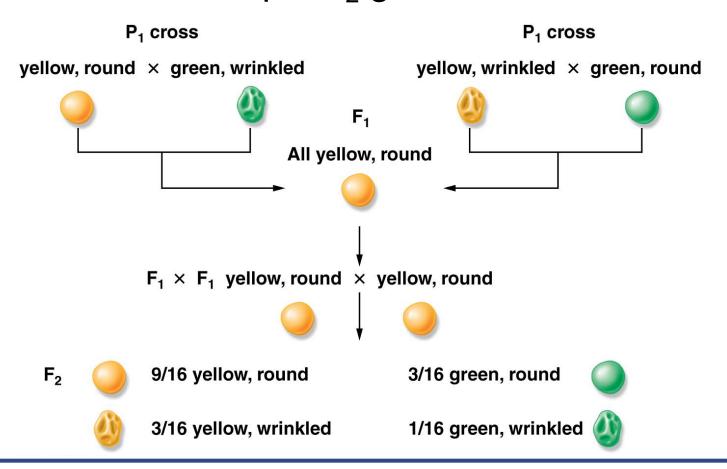
- Determines if individual with dominant phenotype is homozygous or heterozygous for that trait
- Cross between dominant phenotype and homozygous recessive



2. Dihybrid cross

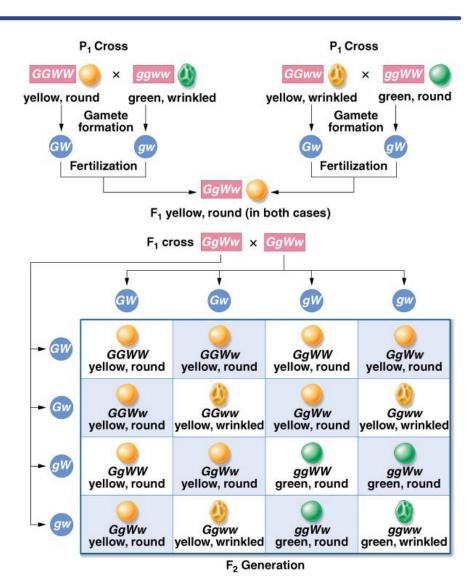
Dihybrid Cross

- Two pairs of contrasting traits
- Generates a unique F₂ generation



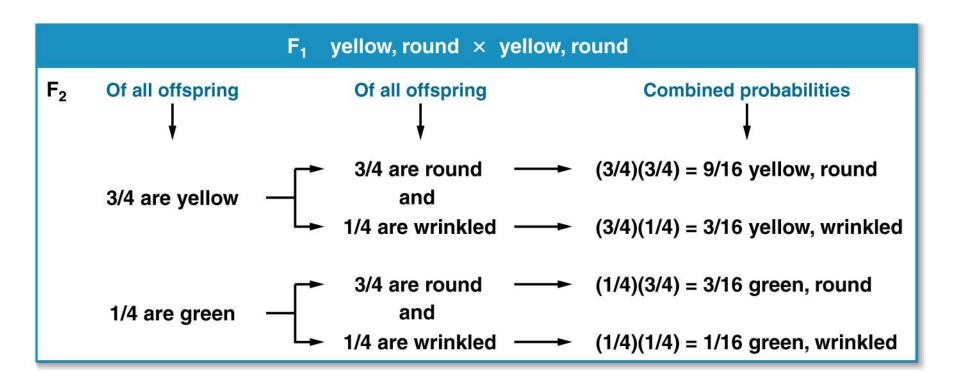
Mendel's 9:3:3:1 dihybrid ratio

- F₁ × F₁ fertilization event
- Each zygote can receive one of four combinations
- Results in a 9:3:3:1
 dihybrid ratio in F₂
 - 9/16 yellow, round seeds
 - 3/16 yellow, wrinkled seeds
 - 3/16 green, round seeds
 - 1/16 green, wrinkled seeds



Combination of probabilities

 Used to predict frequency of two independent events occurring simultaneously



Mendel's laws

1. Dominance

 In a pair of unit factors, one unit (allele) is dominant, the other recessive

2. Segregation

Alleles of a gene segregate randomly during gamete formation

3. Independent assortment

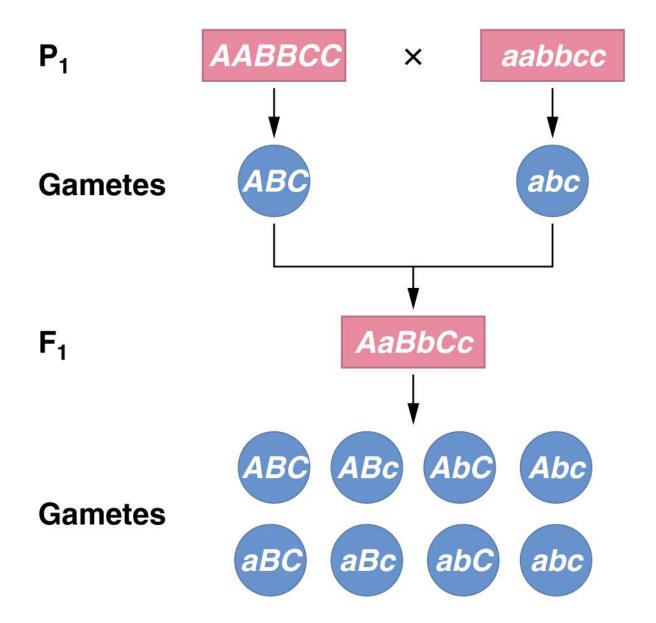
 Separate genes assort independently during gamete formation (i.e. genes do not influence each other with regard to the sorting of alleles into gametes)

3. Trihybrid Cross

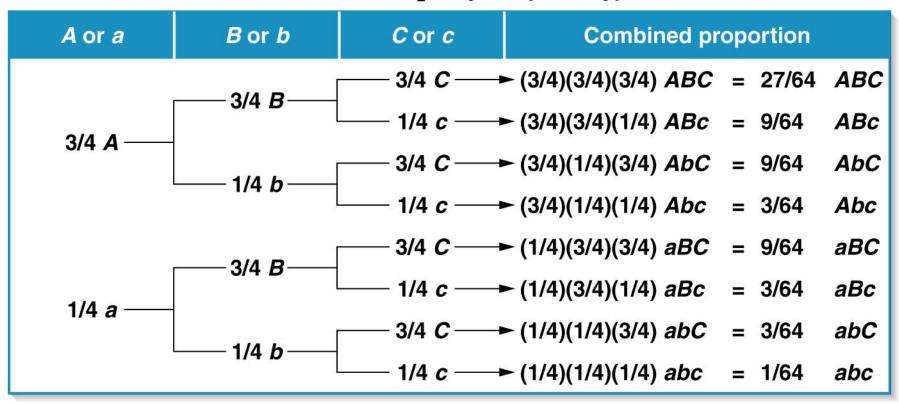
Trihybrid Cross

- Segregation and independent assortment applied to three pairs of constraining traits
- Punnett square with 64 boxes
- Easier to use the forked-line method (branch diagram)

Trihybrid gamete formation



Generation of F₂ trihybrid phenotypes



Etc...

Crosses between Organisms Heterozygous for Genes Exhibiting Independent Assortment			
Number of Heterozygous Gene Pairs	Number of Different Types of Gametes Formed	Number of Different Genotypes Produced	Number of Different Phenotypes Produced*
n	2 ⁿ	3 ⁿ	2 ⁿ
1	2	3	2
2	4	9	4
3	8	27	8
4	16	81	16

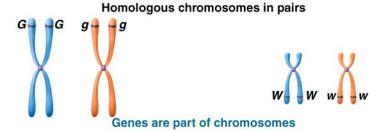
^{*}The fourth column assumes a simple dominant-recessive relationship in each gene pair.

4. Chromosomes as substrates of segregation and independent assortment

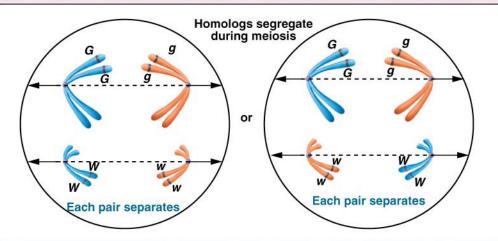
Chromosomal theory of inheritance

- Genetic material in living organisms contained in chromosomes
- Separation of chromosomes during meiosis served as basis for Mendel's principles of segregation and independent assortment

(a) Unit factors in pairs (first meiotic prophase)

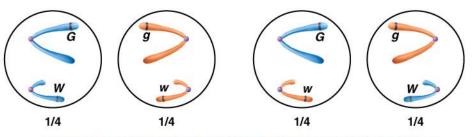


(b) Segregation of unit factors during gamete formation (first meiotic anaphase)



(c) Independent assortment of segregating unit factors (following many meiotic events)

Nonhomologous chromosomes assort independently



All possible gametic combinations are formed with equal probability

Homologous chromosomes

- Criteria for classifying two chromosomes as homologous pairs
 - Both are same size and exhibit identical centromere locations
 - Excludes X and Y chromosomes in mammals
 - Form pairs or synapse during stages of meiosis
 - Contain identical linear order of gene loci

5. Probabilities and χ^2 analysis

Genetic ratios as probabilities

- Laws of probability help to explain genetic events
 - Product law: the probability of two or more events occurring simultaneously is equal to the product of their individual probabilities
 - → we used it before in the branch diagram to calculate the phenotype distribution in F_2 , e.g. $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{9}{64}$
 - Sum law: the probability of obtaining any single outcome, where that outcome can be achieved by two or more events, is equal to the sum of the individual probabilities of all such events
 - → binomial theorem, which has various applications in genetics, including analysis of polygenic traits and of population equilibrium

Genetic ratios as probabilities

- Mendel's 3:1 monohybrid and 9:3:3:1 dihybrid ratios are predictions based on the following assumptions:
 - (1) Each allele is dominant or recessive
 - (2) Segregation
 - (3) Independent assortment
 - (4) Random fertilization

 (3) and (4) are influenced by chance events and therefore are subject to random fluctuation

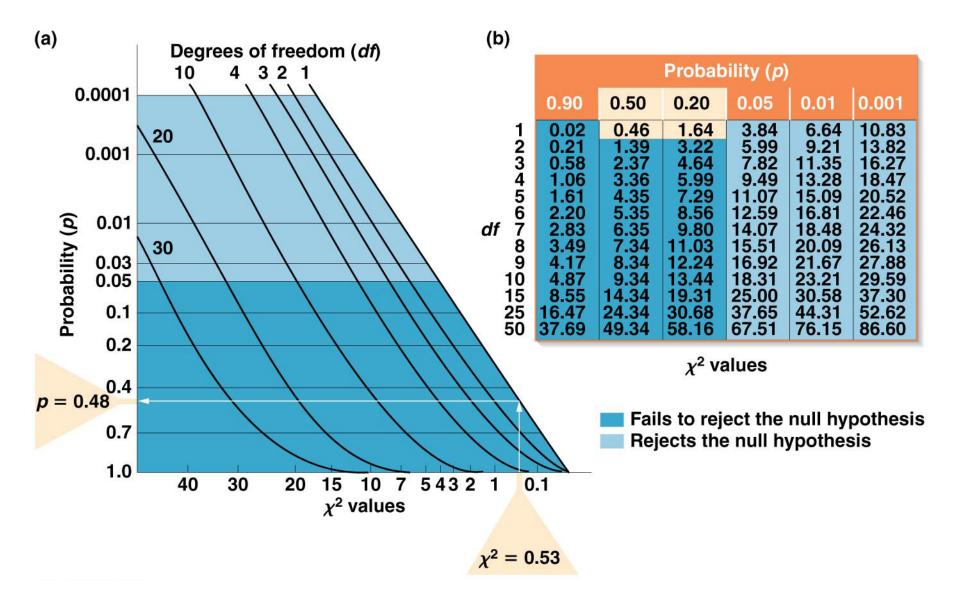
Chi-square analysis

- A χ^2 analysis evaluates the influence of chance on the distribution of genetic data
 - Analysis of observed vs. expected deviations
 - Goodness of fit of null hypothesis (i.e. how well the data fit the null hypothesis)
- Null hypothesis:
 - Assumes data will fit given ratio
 - Assumes there is no real difference between measured values and predicted values

Degrees of freedom (df) and p-value

- Equal to *n* 1
- n = number of different categories into which data points may fall (different outcomes)
- 3:1 ratio: n = 2 df = 1
- 9:3:3:1 ratio: n = 4 df = 3

 When number of degrees of freedom is determined, the χ² value can be interpreted in terms of a corresponding probability value (pvalue)



Steps in χ^2 calculations for the F_2 generation of a monohybrid and a dihybrid crosses

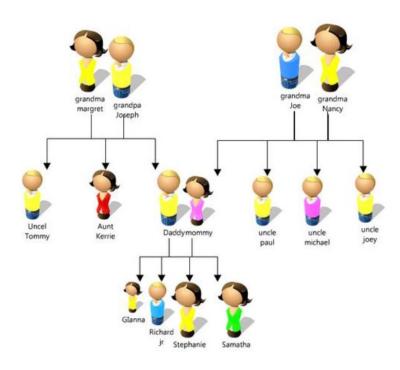
(a) Monohybrid					
Cross Expected Ratio	Observed (o)	Expected (e)	Deviation (o - e)	Deviation (d^2)	d^2/e
3/4 1/4	740 $\underline{260}$ $Total = 1000$	3/4(1000) = 750 1/4(1000) = 250	740-750 = -10 $260-250 = +10$	$(-10)^2 = 100$ $(+10)^2 = 100$	$100/750 = 0.13$ $100/250 = 0.40$ $\chi^{2} = 0.53$ $p = 0.48$
(b) Dihybrid					
Cross Expected Ratio	Observed (o)	Expected (e)	Deviation (o - e)	Deviation (d^2)	d^2/e
9/16	587	567	+20	400	0.71
3/16	197	189	+8	64	0.34
3/16	168	189	-21	441	2.33
1/16	_56	63	-7	49	0.78
	Total = 1008				$\chi^2 = 4.16$ $p = 0.26$

6. Pedigrees reveal patterns of inheritance of human traits

Pedigrees (genealogical trees)

Pedigrees are very useful to understand the transmission mode of genetic diseases

To build them, precise conventions must be followed

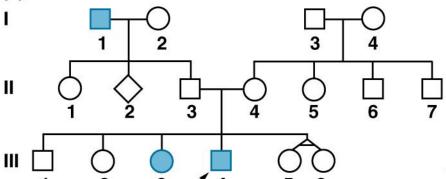


Pedigree

- Family tree with respect to given trait
- Pedigree conventions
 - Circle = female / Square = male
 - Diamond = unknown sex
 - Parents connected by single horizontal line
 - Offspring stem off vertical line from parent
 - Double line = related parents, such as two cousins ("consanguineous")
 - Twins = diagonal lines stemming from vertical line connected to the sibship line

○ Female	☐ Male		
Affected individuals			
Consanguineous parents (related)			
	Offspring (in birth order)		
♂ □	Fraternal (dizygotic) twins (sex may be the same or different)		
0	Identical (monozygotic) twins (sex must be the same)		
44	Multiple individuals (unaffected)		
P	Proband (in this case, a male)		
Ø	Deceased individual (in this case, a female)		
\odot $lacktriangle$	Heterozygous carriers		
I, II, III, etc.	Successive generations		

(a) Autosomal Recessive Trait

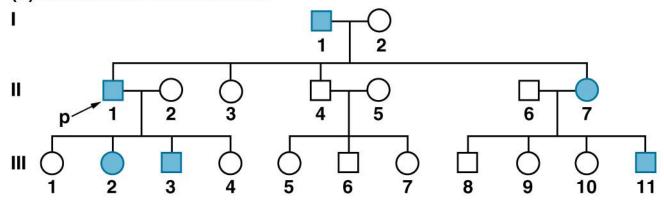


Either I-3 or I-4 must be heterozygous

Recessive traits typically skip generations

Recessive autosomal traits appear equally in both sexes

(b) Autosomal Dominant Trait



I-1 is heterozygous for a dominant allele

Dominant traits almost always appear in each generation

Affected individuals all have an affected parent.
Dominant autosomal traits appear equally in both sexes

Dominant transmission

- Affected individuals in several generations
- Male/female ratio = 1
- Every affected individual has one affected parent, except in case of de novo mutation
- Risk for each child of an affected parent : 50%
- Unaffected individual doesn't tranmit
- Inbreeding doesn't increase risk

Recessive transmission

- Not visible in all generations
- Male/female ratio = 1
- Inbreeding increases risk
- Parents of an affected kid are heterozygous
- Recurence risk if one kid is affected: 25%

Recessive Traits	Dominant Traits
Albinism	Achondroplasia
Alkaptonuria	Brachydactyly
Ataxia telangiectasia	Congenital stationary night blindness
Color blindness	Ehler-Danlos syndrome
Cystic fibrosis	Hypotrichosis
Duchenne muscular dystrophy	Huntington disease
Galactosemia	Hypercholesterolemia
Hemophilia	Marfan syndrome
Lesch-Nyhan syndrome	Myotonic dystrophy
Phenylketonuria	Neurofibromatosis
Sickle-cell anemia	Phenylthiocarbamide tasting
Tay-Sachs disease	Porphyria (some forms)

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