

Genetic, Plant breeding, evolution and biostatistics

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**Department of Botany
Government Arts College
Coimbatore - 18**

1822 - Brunn in Austria, now, **Brno**
(Czecholovakia)

Financial and Health Problem

Unable to continue studies

Joined St.Augustinian Monastery

1847 - Priest

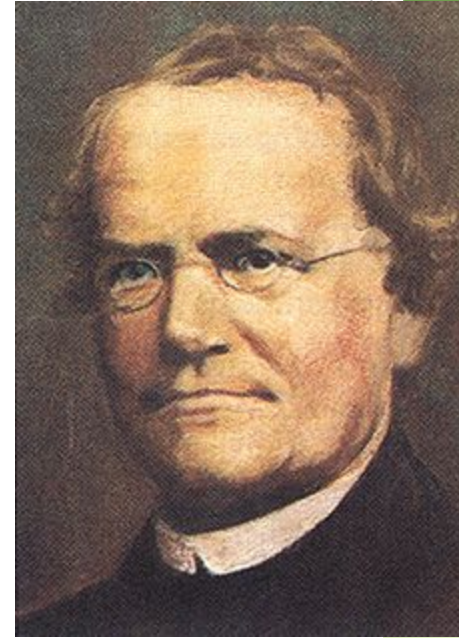
1851 - Higher studies at **Vienna**
University

1854- Science teacher



Gregor Johann Mendel

- Between 1856 and 1863, Mendel cultivated and tested some 28,000 pea plants
- He found that the plants' offspring retained traits of the parents



Gregor Johann Mendel

- Austrian monk
- Developed the **laws of inheritance**
- Presented his findings in the Natural History Society of Brunn - **1865**
- Paper entitled, **“Experiments in Plant Hybridization”** - **1866**
- German language.



- Mendel's work was not recognized until the turn of the 20th century
- 1900 - Carl Correns, Hugo deVries, and Erich von Tschermak rediscover and confirm



(a) Gregor Mendel



(b) Carl Correns



(c) Hugo de Vries

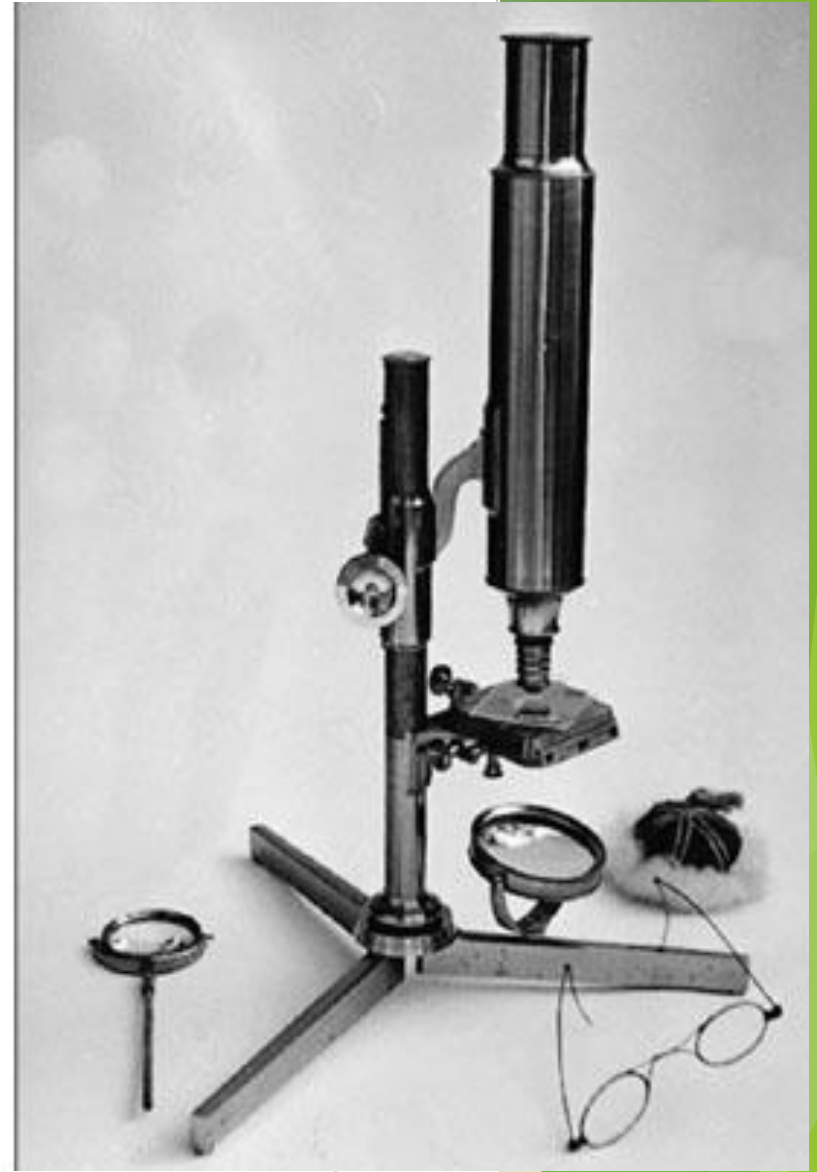


(d) Erich von Tschermak

- Called the “Father of Genetics”



Site of Gregor Mendel's experimental garden in the Czech Republic



Particulate Inheritance

- Mendel stated that physical traits are inherited as “particles”
- Mendel did not know that the “particles” were actually
Chromosomes & DNA



Genetic Terminology

- **Trait** - any characteristic that can be passed from parent to offspring
- **Heredity** - passing of traits from parent to offspring
- **Genetics** - study of heredity

Types of Genetic Crosses

- **Monohybrid cross** - cross involving a single trait
e.g. flower color
- **Dihybrid cross** - cross involving two traits
e.g. flower color & plant height

Designer “Genes”

- **Alleles** - two forms of a **gene** (dominant & recessive)
- **Dominant** - stronger of two genes expressed in the hybrid; represented by a **capital letter (R)**
- **Recessive** - gene that shows up less often in a cross; represented by a **lowercase letter (r)**

More Terminology

- **Genotype** - gene combination for a trait (e.g. RR, Rr, rr)
- **Phenotype** - the physical feature resulting from a genotype (e.g. red, white)



Genotypes

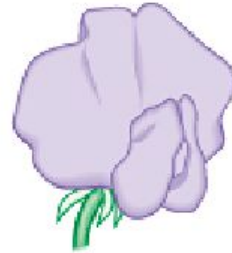
- **Homozygous** genotype - When the two alleles are same (dominant or 2 recessive genes) **e.g. TT or tt**; also called **pure**
- **Heterozygous** genotype - When the 2 alleles are different- one dominant & one recessive allele (**e.g. Tt**); also called **hybrid**

Genotype

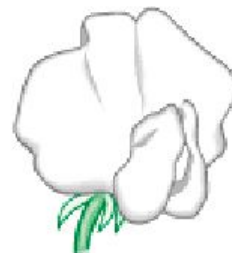
1 { PP
(homozygous)



2 { Pp
(heterozygous)
 Pp
(heterozygous)



1 { pp
(homozygous)



Ratio 1:2:1

Phenotype

Purple

Purple

Purple

3

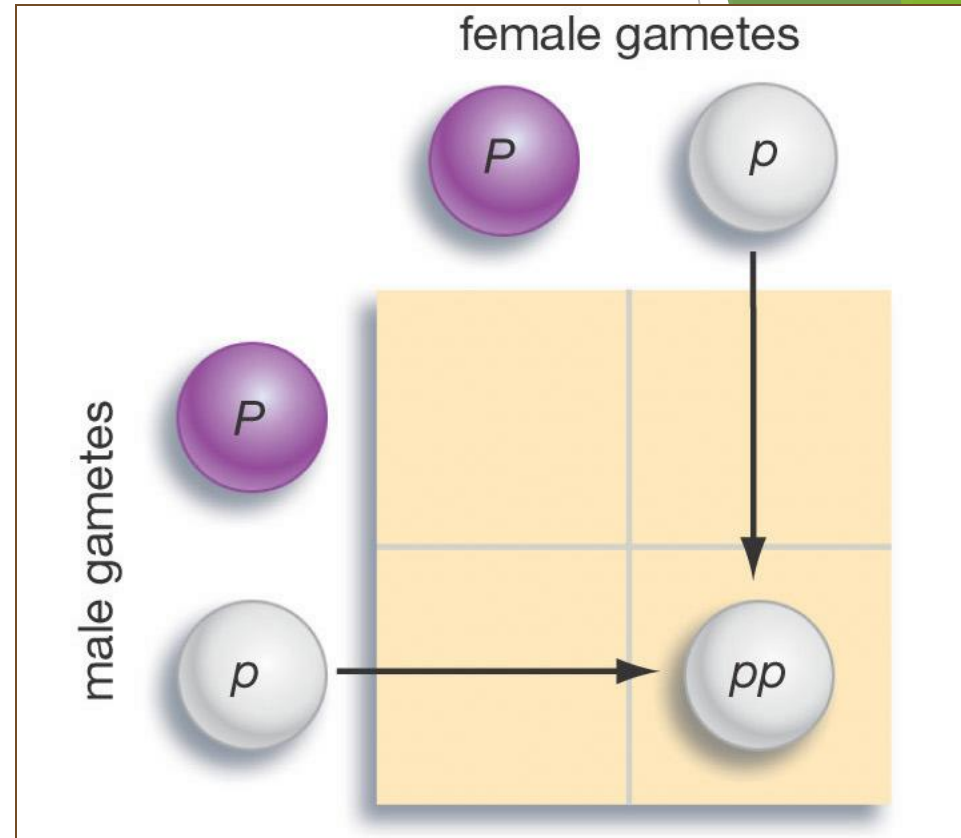
White

1

Ratio 3:1

Punnett Square

Used to help solve genetics problems



Mendel's Pea Plant Experiments



Why peas, *Pisum sativum*?

- ✓ Can be grown in a **small area**
- ✓ Produce **lots of offspring**
- ✓ Produce **pure** plants when allowed to **self-pollinate**
- ✓ **several generations**
- ✓ Can be **artificially cross-pollinated**
- ✓ **Bisexual.**
- ✓ **Many traits known.**
- ✓ **Above all, easy to grow**



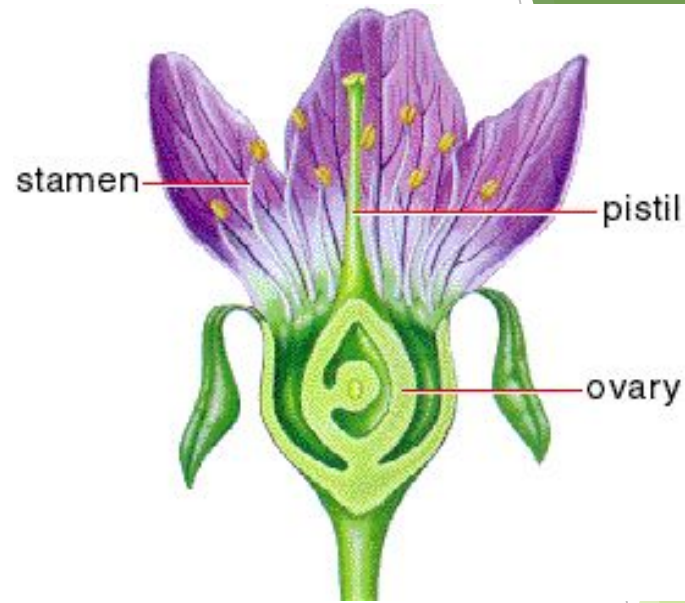
Reproduction in Flowering Plants

Pollen contains sperm

Produced by the stamen

Ovary contains eggs

Found inside the flower



Pollen carries sperm to the eggs for fertilization

Self-fertilization can occur in the same flower

Cross-fertilization can occur between flowers

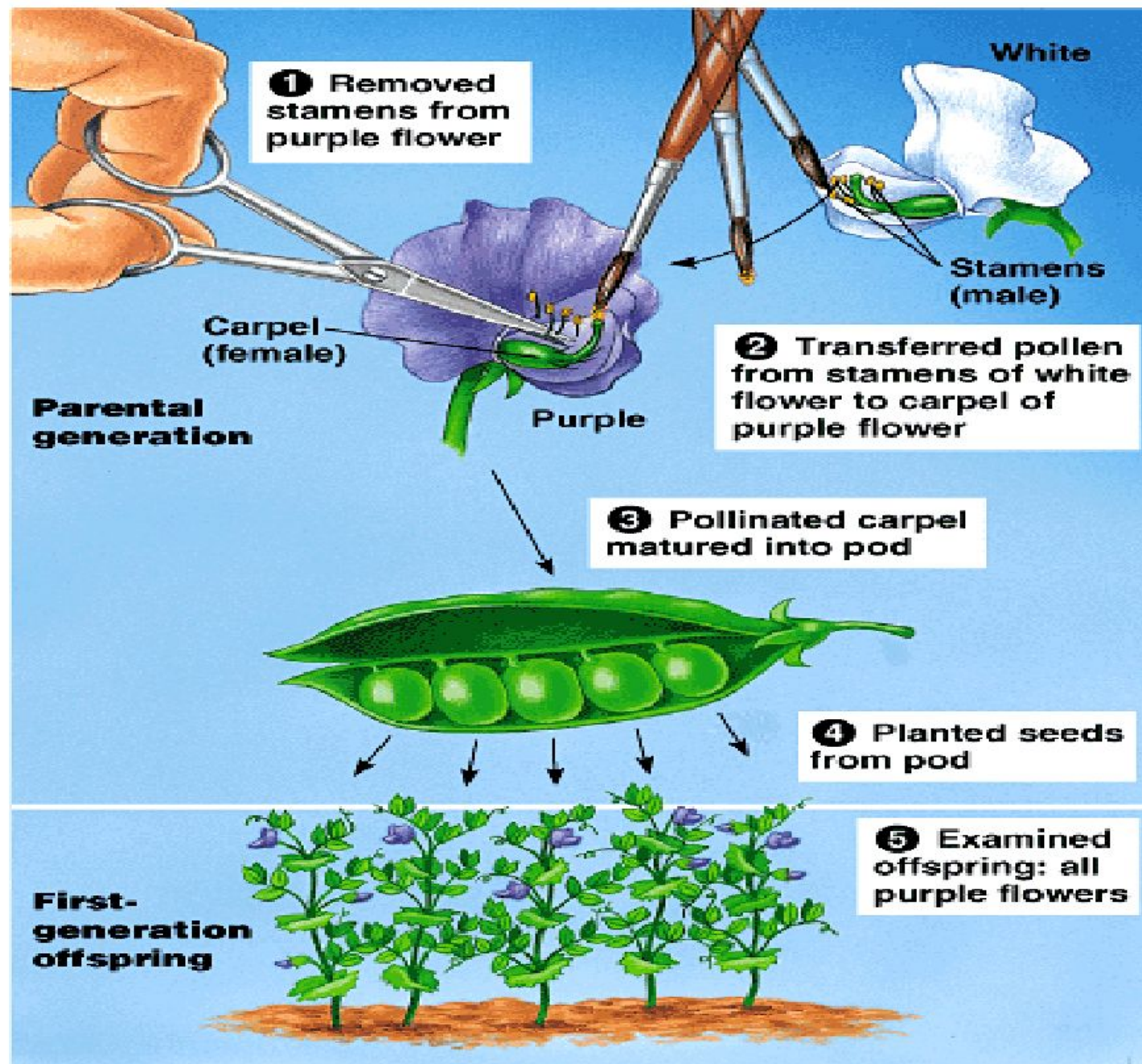
Mendel's Experimental Methods

Mendel **hand-pollinated** flowers using a **paintbrush**

He could **snip (cut) the stamens** to prevent self-pollination

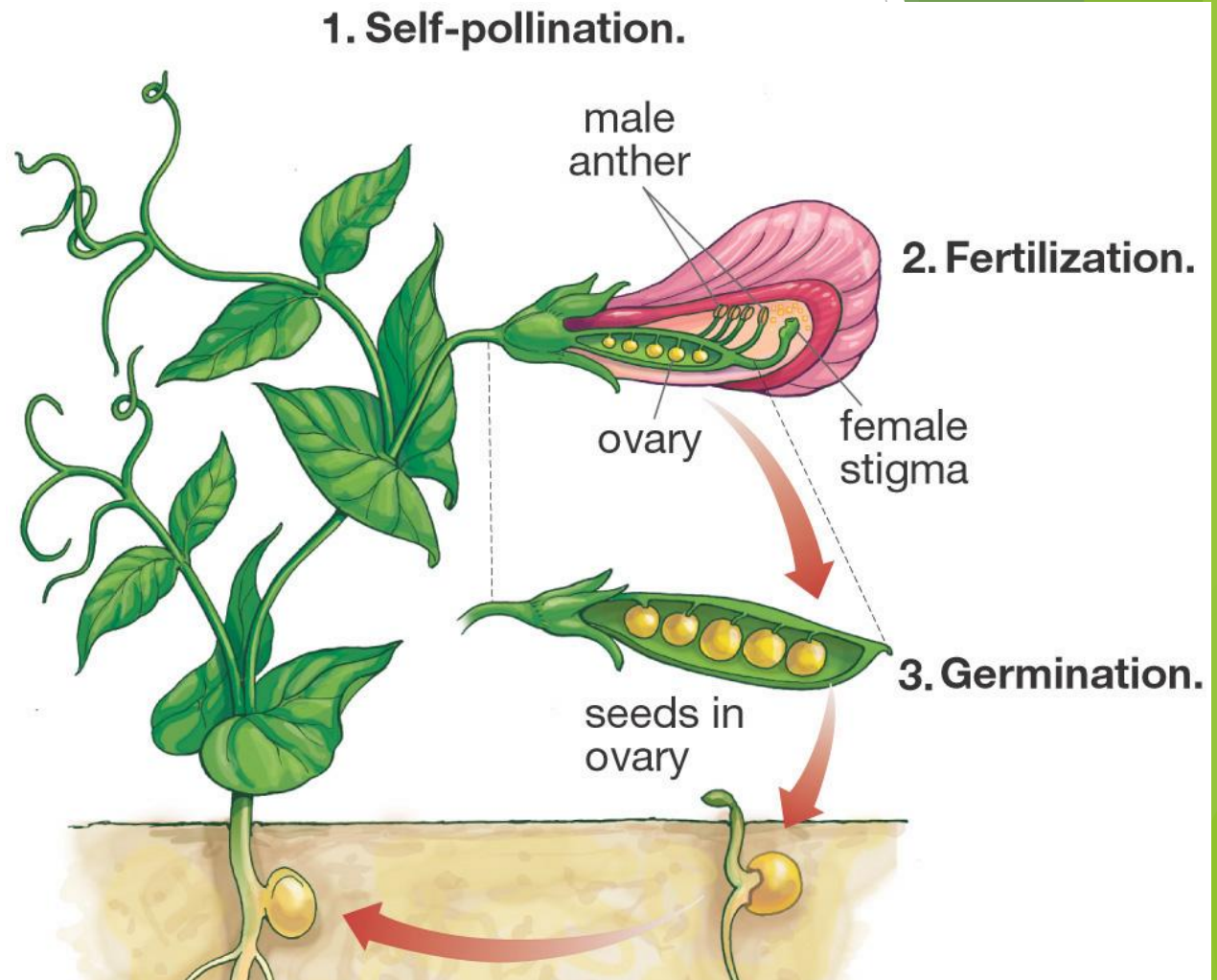
He traced traits through the **several generations**





How Mendel Began?

Mendel produced **pure** strains by allowing the plants to **self-pollinate** for several generations



Reasons for non recognition.

- 1. Work was not published properly*
- 2. Biologist did not accept*
- 3. ,factors.- discrete unit - now it called as genes*
- 4. Popularity of Darwin during that period*

Reasons for the Success

- 1. Flowers of pea plants are normally self fertilized*
- 2. Shows number of clear cut contrasting characters*
- 3. Hybrids - perfectly fertile*
- 4. Cross pollination - not difficult*
- 5. Artificial pollination - successful*
- 6. Seven pairs of characters located on seven separate homologous pairs of chromosomes*
- 7. Easy to cultivate*
- 8. Short growth period - short life cycle*
- 9. Studied only one character inheritance at a time - complex become easy*
- 10. Maintained statistical records - helps to derive numerical ratios of significance*

Eight Pea Plant Traits

Plant Height --- Tall (T) or Short (t)

Seed shape --- Round (R) or Wrinkled (r)

Seed Color ---- Yellow (Y) or Green (y)

Seed Coat Color ---Gray (G) or White (g)









Pod Shape --- Smooth (S) or wrinkled (s)

Pod Color --- Green (G) or Yellow (g)

Flower position---Axial (A) or Terminal (a)

Flower color --- Purple (P) or white (p)

Table 11.1 Pea-Plant Characters Studied by Mendel

Character studied	Dominant trait	Recessive trait
Seed shape	smooth 	wrinkled 
Seed color	yellow 	green 
Pod shape	inflated 	wrinkled 
Pod color	green 	yellow 

Flower color

purple



white



Flower position

on stem



at tip



Stem length

tall



dwarf



Monohybrid Cross



P₁ Monohybrid Cross

Trait: Plant Height

Alleles: T- Tall t - Dwarf

Cross: Tall Plants x Dwarf Plants

	TT	x	tt
		t	t
T	Tt		Tt
T	Tt		Tt

Genotype: Tt

Phenotype: Tall

Genotypic
Ratio: All alike

Phenotypic
Ratio: All alike

P_1 Monohybrid Cross Review

- Homozygous dominant x Homozygous recessive
- **Offspring** all **Heterozygous** (hybrids)
- Offspring called **F_1 generation**
- Genotypic & Phenotypic ratio is **ALL ALIKE**

F₁ Monohybrid Cross

Trait: Plant Height

Alleles: T - Tall t - Dwarf

F1 Self Crossed: Tall x Tall

Tt x Tt

	T	t
T	TT	Tt
t	Tt	tt

Genotype: TT, Tt, tt

Phenotype: Tall & Dwarf

G.Ratio: 1:2:1

P.Ratio: 3:1

F₁ Monohybrid Cross Review

- Heterozygous x heterozygous
- **Offspring:**
 - 25% Homozygous dominant TT
 - 50% Heterozygous Tt
 - 25% Homozygous Recessive tt
- Offspring called F₂ generation
- Genotypic ratio is 1:2:1
- Phenotypic Ratio is 3:1

What Do the Peas Look Like?

Some of these peas have a smooth texture, while others are wrinkled.



Back Cross and Test Cross

Cross of F1 hybrid with any one of its parent is called Back Cross

Two types

1. Dominant Back Cross ($TT \times Tt$)

2. Recessive Back Cross ($tt \times Tt$)

Recessive back cross is otherwise called as Test Cross - to test the heterozygosity of the F1 plants

Mendel's Laws

1. Law of Dominance
2. Law of Segregation
3. Law of Independent assortment

Law of Dominance

States that on crossing homozygous organisms for single pair of contrasting characters, **only one character make its appearance in F_1 generation** and is name as **Dominant character**.

Law of Segregation

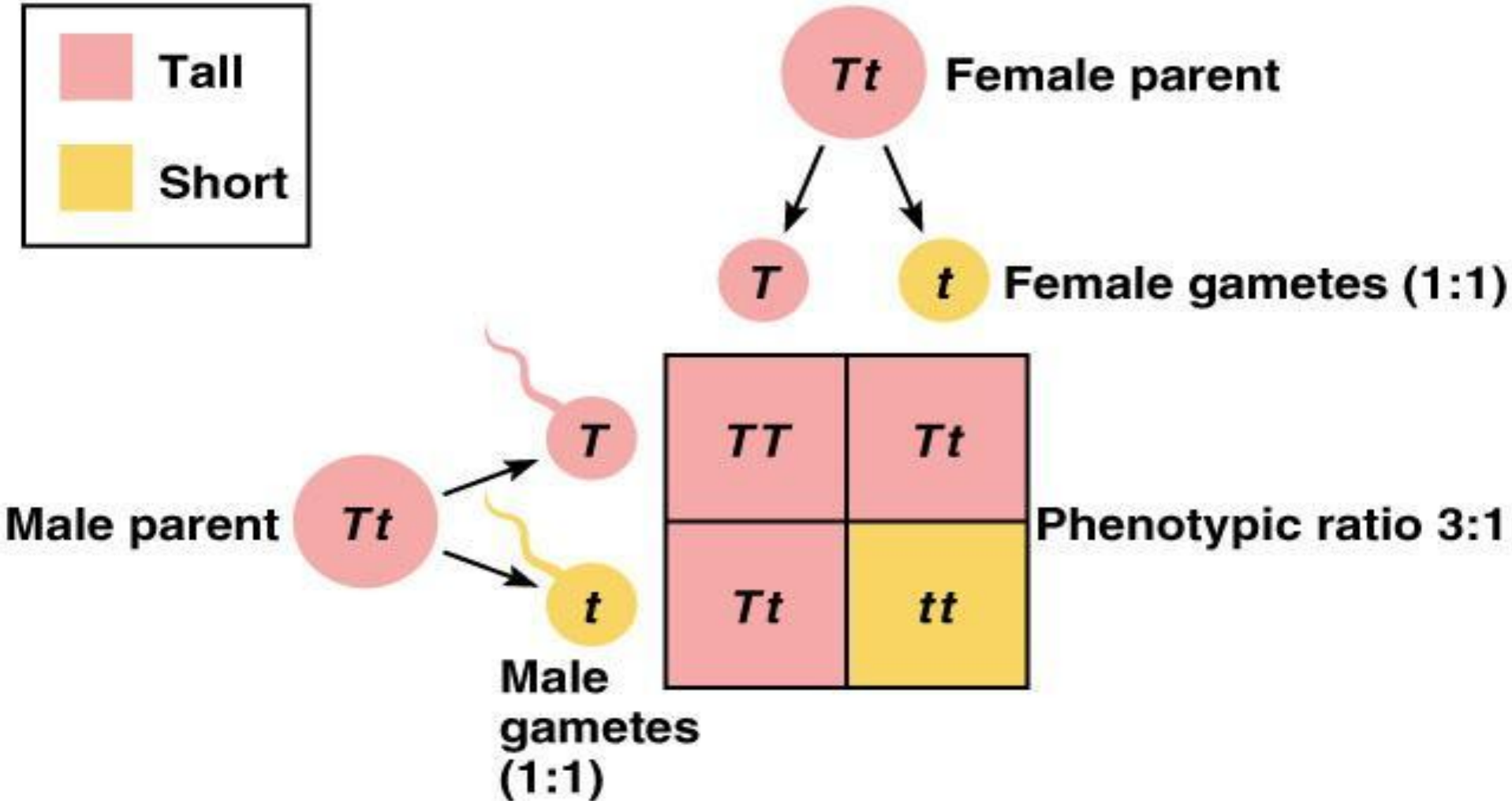
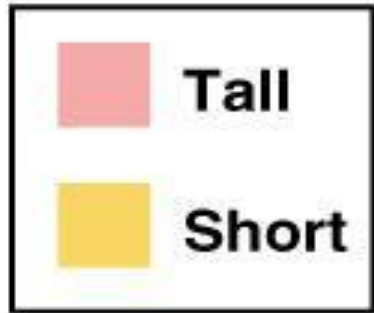
Two alleles of a gene remain separate and do not contaminate each other when they are inside the organism. During gamete formation, the paired genes separate and enter into different gametes.

During gamete formation the genes of a particular character separate and enter into different gametes.

During the **formation of gametes** (eggs or sperm), the **two alleles** responsible for a trait **separate** from each other.

Alleles for a trait are then **"recombined"** at fertilization, producing the genotype for the traits of the offspring.

Applying the Law of Segregation



Law of Independent Assortment

Based on Dihybrid Cross

The genes for each characters separate independently from those of other characters during gamete formation.

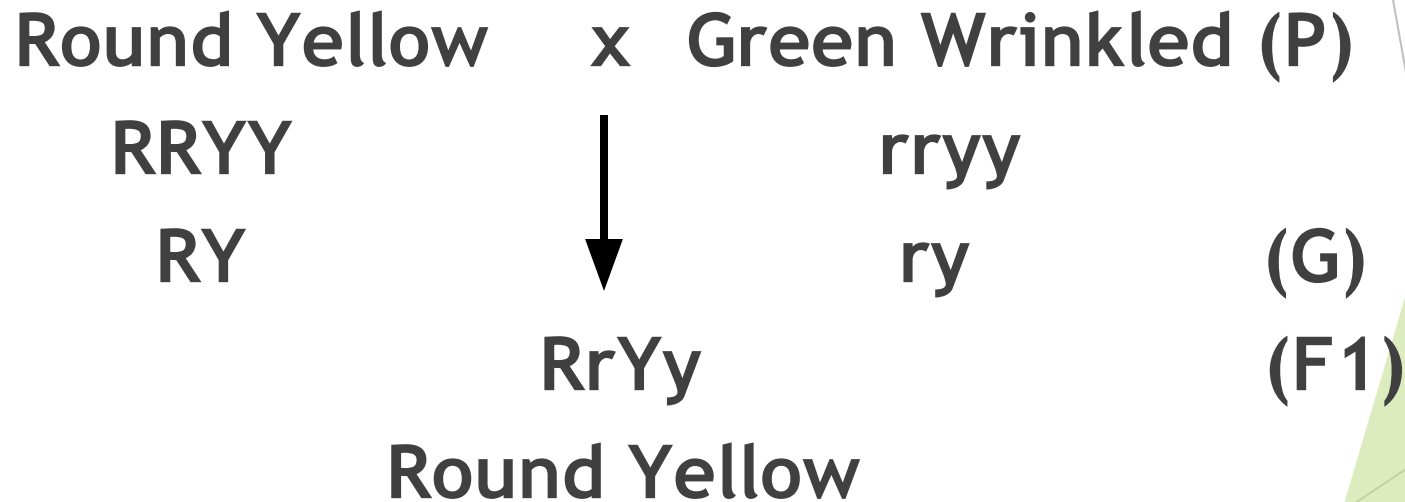
During gamete formation the genes for yellow colour assort out independently of the genes for round shape

Dihybrid Cross

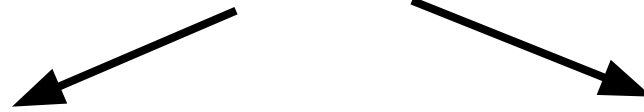
Traits: Seed shape & Seed color

Alleles: R-round
r-wrinkled

Y-yellow
y-green



$RrYy$ x $RrYy$ (Selfing)
Round Yellow x Round Yellow



RY Ry rY ry

RY Ry rY ry

All possible gamete combinations

Dihybrid Cross

	RY	Ry	rY	ry
RY				
Ry				
rY				
ry				

Dihybrid Cross

	R _Y	R _y	r _Y	r _y
R _Y	RRYY	RRYy	RrYY	RrYy
R _y	RRYy	RRyy	RrYy	Rryy
r _Y	RrYY	RrYy	rrYY	rrYy
r _y	RrYy	Rryy	rrYy	rryy

Round/Yellow: 9

















Round/green: 3

wrinkled/Yellow: 3

wrinkled/green: 1

9:3:3:1 phenotypic ratio

Dihybrid Cross

	R _Y	R _y	r _Y	r _y
R _Y	 RRYY	 RRYy	 RrYY	 RrYy
R _y	 RRYy	 RRyy	 RrYy	 Rryy
r _Y	 RrYY	 RrYy	 rrYY	 rrYy
r _y	 RrYy	 Rryy	 rrYy	 rryy

Round/Yellow: 9
Round/green: 3
wrinkled/Yellow: 3
wrinkled/green: 1

9:3:3:1

Question:

How many gametes will be produced for the following allele arrangements?

Remember: 2^n (n = # of heterozygotes)

1. RrYy
2. AaBbCCDd
3. MmNnOoPPQQRrssTtQq

Answer:

1. RrYy: $2^n = 2^2 = 4$ gametes

RY Ry rY ry

2. AaBbCCDd: $2^n = 2^3 = 8$ gametes

ABCD ABCd AbCD AbCd

aBCD aBCd abCD abCd

3. MmNnOoPPQQRrssTtQq: $2^n = 2^6 = 64$
gametes

Gene Interaction

(Non-Mendelian Inheritance)

The expression of a single character by the interaction of more than one pair of genes - Gene Interaction

Proposed by **Bateson & Punnet - factor hypothesis** - some characters are produced by the interaction of two or more pairs of factors (genes) called factor hypothesis.

Two types of gene interaction

1. **Allelic Gene Interaction**

interaction between the two alleles of a single locus

2. **Non-allelic Gene Interaction**

interaction between the genes located in different locus of the same chromosome or different chromosome

1. Allelic Interaction

- a) Complete Dominance (3:1)
- b) Incomplete Dominance (1:2:1)
- c) Co-Dominance (1:2:1)

2. Non-allelic Interaction

- a) Complementary Genes (9:7)
- b) Supplementary Genes (9:3:4)
- c) Duplicate Genes (15:1)
- d) Epistasis (12:3:1)
- e) Lethal Genes (2:1)

Incomplete Dominance and Codominance



Incomplete Dominance

F1 hybrids have an appearance somewhat **between** the **phenotypes** of the two parental varieties.

Carl Correns Crossed **4'0 Clock Plant (flower)**
red (RR) x white (rr)

RR = red flower

=

	R	R
r		
r		

in

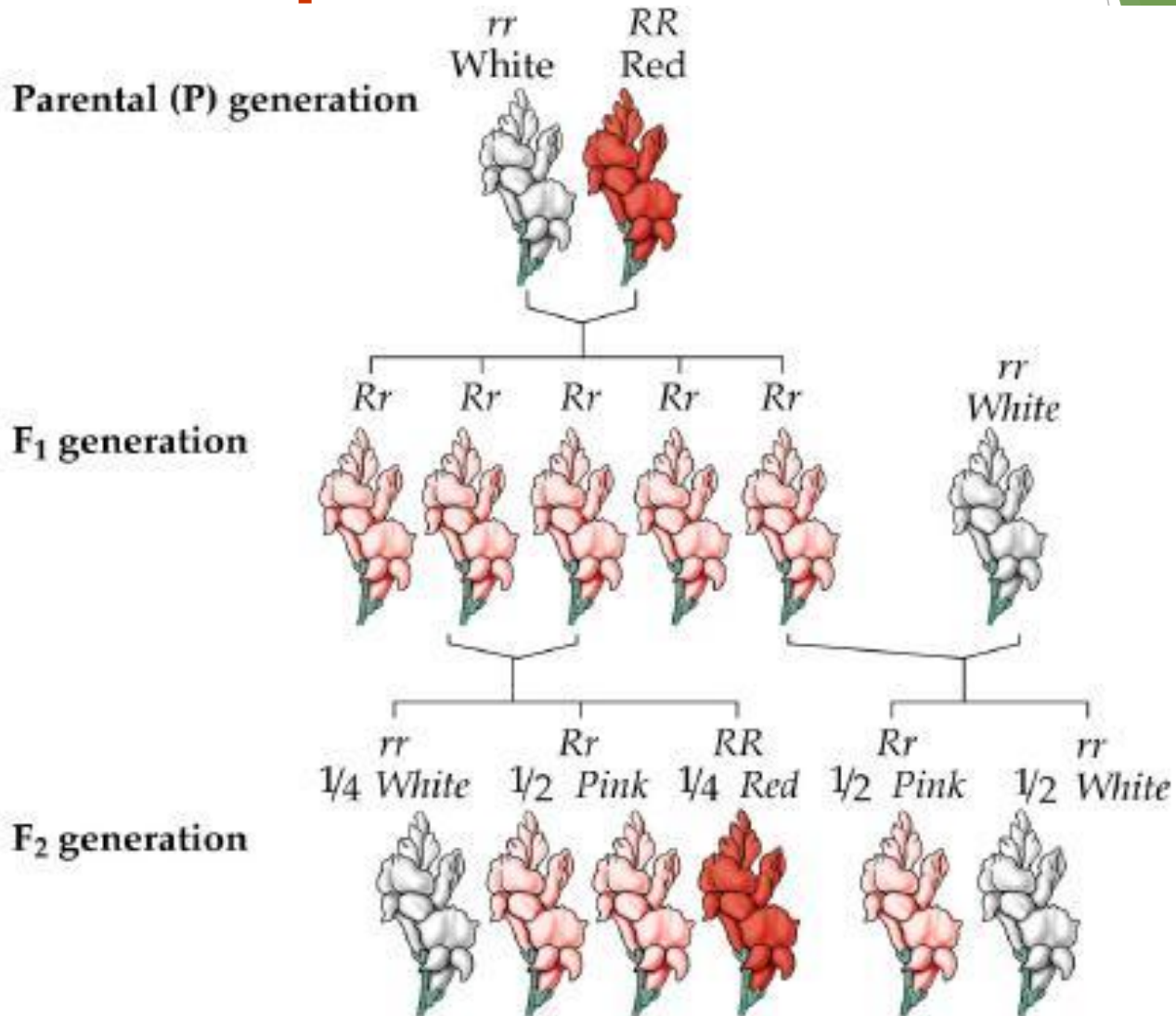
Incomplete Dominance

R	R
Rr	Rr
Rr	Rr

produces the
 F_1 generation

All Rr = pink
(heterozygous pink)

Incomplete Dominance



Another Example



Codominance

Both the alleles can be expressed

Eg. Red cows crossed with white will generate **Roan cows**.

Might seem to support blending theory.

But F_2 generation demonstrate Mendalian genetics (1:2:1)



Codominance

Two alleles are expressed in **heterozygous** individuals.

Example: blood type

1. type A = $I^A I^A$ or $I^A i$
2. type B = $I^B I^B$ or $I^B i$
3. type AB = $I^A I^B$
4. type O = ii

In humans, there are four blood types:
A, B, AB and O

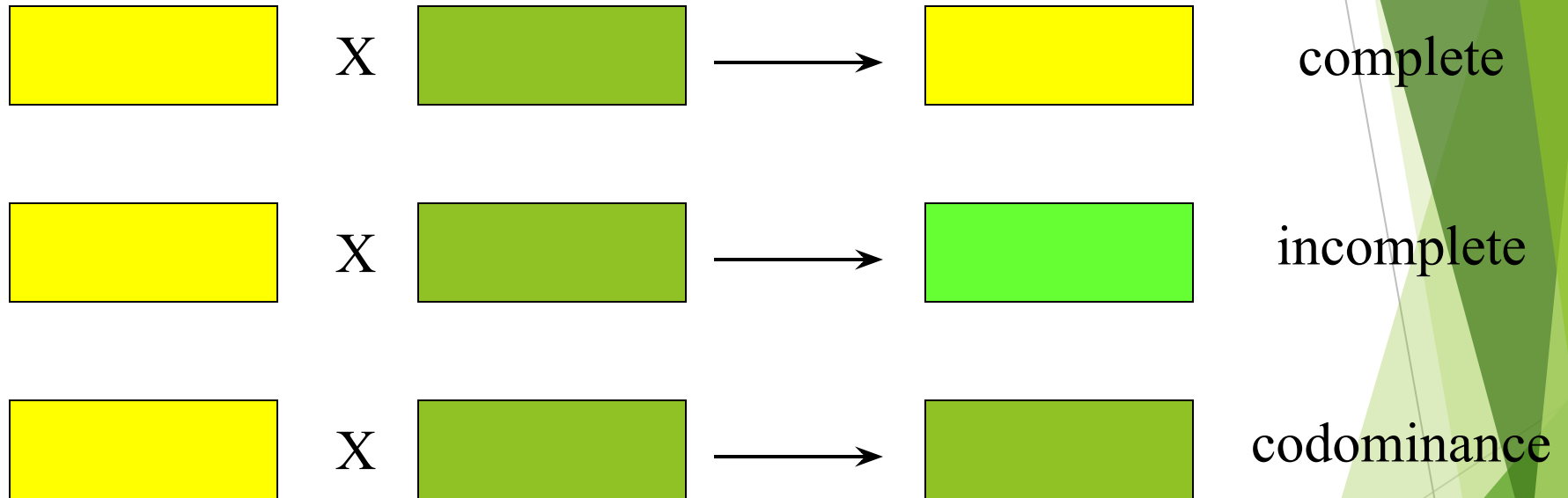
Blood type is controlled by three alleles:
A, B, O

O is recessive, two O alleles must be present for the person to have type O blood

A and B are Codominant. If a person receives an A allele and B allele, their blood type is AB type

Crosses involving blood type often use an / to denote the alleles

Summary of Dominance Relationships



Non - Allelic Gene Interaction

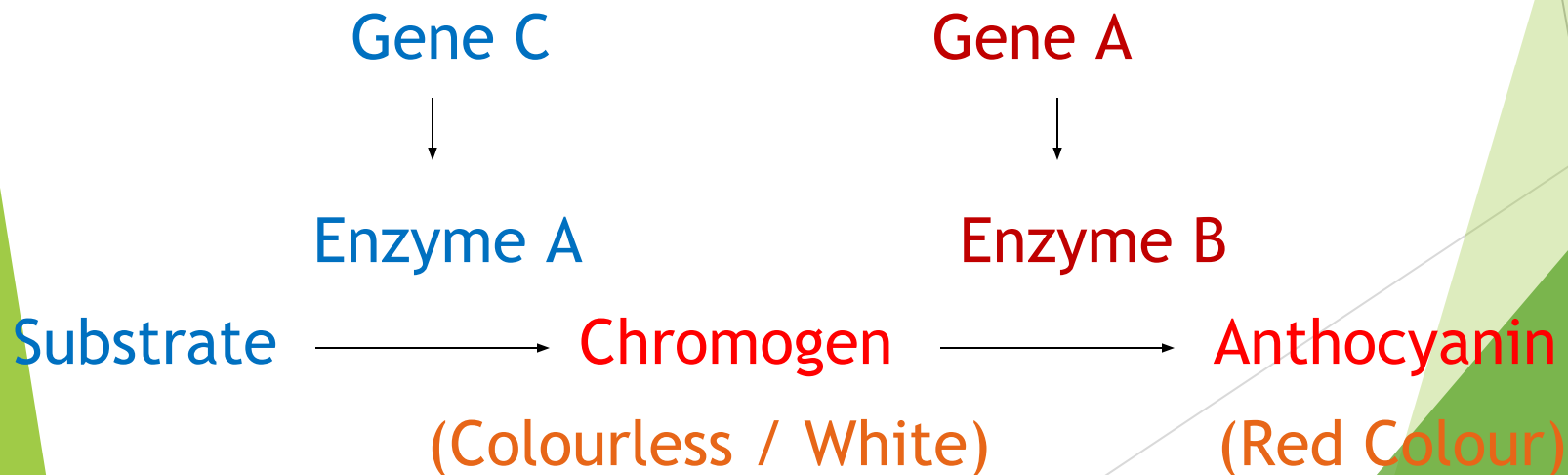
a). Complementary Genes

Two or more non-allelic dominant genes interact with one another to produce a character - but one gene alone cannot produce that character ie. in the absence of the other gene.

Example: Flower Colour in Sweet Pea (*Lathyrus odoratus*)

Studied by Bateson & Punnet

Two varieties of pea plants - red flower & White flower



The anthocyanin is produced from a colourless substance called chromogen. For the conversion of Chromogen into anthocyanin an enzyme (B) is necessary.

Similarly the chromogen has to be produced from a substrate by the action of an another enzyme (A).

Thus, for the production of red colour, the action of both the enzymes (A & B) is necessary.

If enzyme A is absent - no chromogen - no anthocyanin

If enzyme A is present but B is absent - Chromogen is formed but it will not be converted into anthocyanin due to absence of enzyme B.

A dominant gene C is responsible for the production of chromogen (enzyme A). If it is recessive (c) the chromogen cannot be produced (enzyme A not produced)

An another dominant gene A is responsible for the production enzyme B, which converts the chromogen into anthocyanin. If it is recessive (aa) the chromogen cannot be converted into anthocyanin (no enzyme B)

Parents:

CCaa

X

ccAA

(White)

(White)

Gametes:

Ca

cA

F₁

CcAa

(Red)

F1 plants are selfed

Red

X

Red

CcAa

CcAa

Gametes : CA; Ca; cA; ca

CA; Ca; cA; ca

CA

Ca

cA

ca

CA

CCAA
Red

CCAa
Red

CcAA
Red

CcAa
Red

Ca

CCAA
Red

CCaa

CcAa
Red

Ccaa

cA

CcAA
Red

CcAa
Red

ccAA

ccAa

ca

CcAa
Red

Ccaa

ccAa

ccaa

9  : 7 

b).Supplementary Genes

In this gene interaction, the dominant allele of one gene (B) produces a phenotypic effect. The dominant allele of the other gene (A) does not produce any phenotypic effect on its own;

But when it is present with the dominant allele of the first gene (B&A), it modifies the phenotypic effect produced by the first gene.

Example: Coat colour in Mice

Studied by : Castle

Three different varieties of Mice

1. **Agouti (Grey)** - dominant to both black & Albino
2. **Black** - dominant to albino but recessive to agouti
3. **Albino (White)** - recessive to both agouti & black

Dominant gene A & B → Agouti

Dominant gene B alone → Black

Dominant gene A alone → No effect (Albino)

Castle crossed a homozygous black mice (BBaa) with a homozygous albino (bbAA)

Phenotypic ratio: 9 : 3 : 4

Agouti : Black : Albino

Parents:

BBaa
(Black)

X

bbAA
(Albino)

Gametes:

Ba

bA

F₁

BbAa
(Agouti)

F1 are self crossed:

BbAa

X

BbAa

(Agouti)

(Agouti)

Gametes: BA; Ba; bA; ba

BA; Ba; bA; ba

	BA	Ba	bA	ba
BA	BBAA Agouti	BBAa Agouti	BbAA Agouti	BbAa Agouti
Ba	BBAa Agouti	Bbaa Black	BbAa Agouti	Bbaa Black
bA	BbAA Agouti	BbAa Agouti	bbAA Albino	BbAa Albino
ba	BbAa Agouti	Bbaa Black	bbAa Albino	bbaa Albino

- Modified ratio
- Still 1/16ths

9:Agouti (B&A)
3: Black (B alone)
4: Albino (A alone)

9  : 3  : 4 

c). Duplicate Genes

In this gene interaction, a single character is controlled by two or more (duplicate) pairs of non-allelic genes independently.

Example: Seed shape in Shepherd purse (common weed)

Studied by: George H. Shull (1914) - two types of seed case -
Triangular and Oval

Dominant gene T alone —————→ **Triangular**

Dominant gene D alone —————→ **Triangular**

Dominant gene T&D —————→ **Triangular**

Both are recessive td —————→ **Oval**

These two types of plants are crossed

Here, the presence of a single dominant allele of any of the two genes governing the trait produces the dominant phenotype (**triangular**).

The recessive genotype (**Oval**) is produced only when the genes are in the homozygous recessive state.

The genes that show duplicate interaction is called **Duplicate gene action**.

Parents :

Triangular
TTDD

x

Oval
ttdd

Gametes :



F₁ :

TtDd

F₁ plants are selfed

Triangular
TtDd

x

Triangular
TtDd

Gametes :



Gametes	TD	Td	tD	td
TD	TTDD Triangular	TTDd Triangular	TtDD Triangular	TtDd Triangular
Td	TTDd Triangular	TTdd Triangular	TtDd Triangular	Ttdd Triangular
tD	TtDD Triangular	TtDd Triangular	ttDD Triangular	ttDd Triangular
td	TtDd Triangular	Ttdd Triangular	ttDd Triangular	ttdd Oval

F₂ Generation:

Triangular

15:

Oval 1.

d). Epistasis

Mendel was lucky that in his studies each character was governed by a single gene

Typical Dihybrid ratio: 9:3:3:1

The phenomenon of two or more genes governing the development of single character is known as Gene interaction.

When one gene affects in anyway the expression of another gene, the phenomenon is called Epistasis.

The prevention of the expression of one gene by another non-allelic gene is called Epistasis.

Inhibiting gene - Epistatic gene

Inhibited gene - Hypostatic gene

Epistasis is of two types

1. Dominant Epistasis -
prevention of expression of a gene by a dominant non-allelic gene
2. Recessive Epistasis
prevention of expression of a gene by a recessive non-allelic gene

Dominant Epistasis

Example: Inheritance of Fruit colour in Cucurbita

Summer squash (*Cucurbita pepo*)

Yellow - Dominant gene Y

White - Dominant gene W

Green - Both recessive (wwyy)

The gene W is epistatic over Y - mask the expression of yellow colour.

When the white fruit (Wwyy) is crossed with yellow fruit variety (wwYY)

Parents :

White fruit x

Yellow fruit

WWyy

wwYY

Gametes:



WwYy
White fruit

F₁ :

Gametes:



Handwritten notes: 're' and 'mean' with arrows pointing to the gamete diagrams.

♀ \ ♂				
	WWYY White	WWYy White	WwYY White	WwYy White
	WWYy White	WWyy White	WwYy White	Wwyy White
	WwYY White	WwYy White	wwYY Yellow	wwYy Yellow
	WwYy White	Wwyy White	wwYy Yellow	wwyy Green

White 12 : Yellow 3: Green 1

Recessive Epistasis

prevention of expression of a gene by a recessive non-allelic gene

Example: Inheritance of Coat colour in Mice

Agouti (grey) - Interaction of two Dominant genes - M and A

Black - Dominant gene M

Albino - by the epistatic recessive gene mm

The recessive gene mm is epistatic over A - mask the expression of dominant gene A and gives Albino.

When a black mouse ($Mmaa$) is crossed with an albino mouse ($mmAA$).

Key points:

$M-A-$: Agouti

$M-aa$: Black

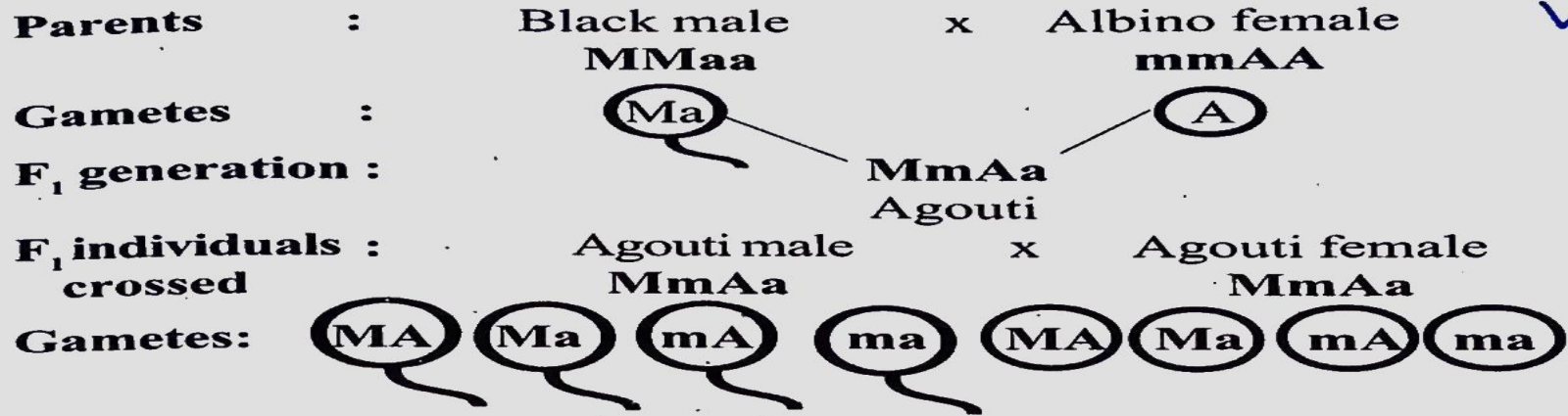
$mm--$: Albino

Recessive Epistasis

The prevention of the expression of a gene by a recessive non-allelic gene is called *recessive epistasis*. Eg. Coat colour in mice.

1. Inheritance of Coat Colour in Mice

Inheritance of *coat colour in mice* is an example of *recessive epistasis*.



Gametes	MA	Ma	mA	ma
MA	$MMAA$ Agouti	$MMAa$ Agouti	$MmAA$ Agouti	$MmAa$ Agouti
Ma	$MMAa$ Agouti	$MMaa$ Black	$MmAa$ Agouti	$Mmaa$ Black
mA	$MmAA$ Agouti	$MmAa$ Agouti	$mmAA$ Albino	$mmAa$ Albino
ma	$MmAa$ Agouti	$Mmaa$ Black	$mmAa$ Albino	$mmaa$ Albino

F_2 Generation : Agouti 9 : Black 3 : Albino 4.

Fig. 3.9: Inheritance of coat colour in mice.⁷⁶

LETHAL GENE

A **lethal gene** causes **death** of individual in the **appropriate genotype** before they reach adulthood.

Lethal are generally recessive, resulting in the death of the **recessive homozygote**.

- Some lethals are dominant.

In **1904** French geneticist **Lucien Cuenot**, discovered a recessive lethal affecting coat colour in mice.

LETHAL GENE

He observed that **yellow** colour is **dominant**;
But while crossing 2 yellow mice, he got
only **2:1** ratio.

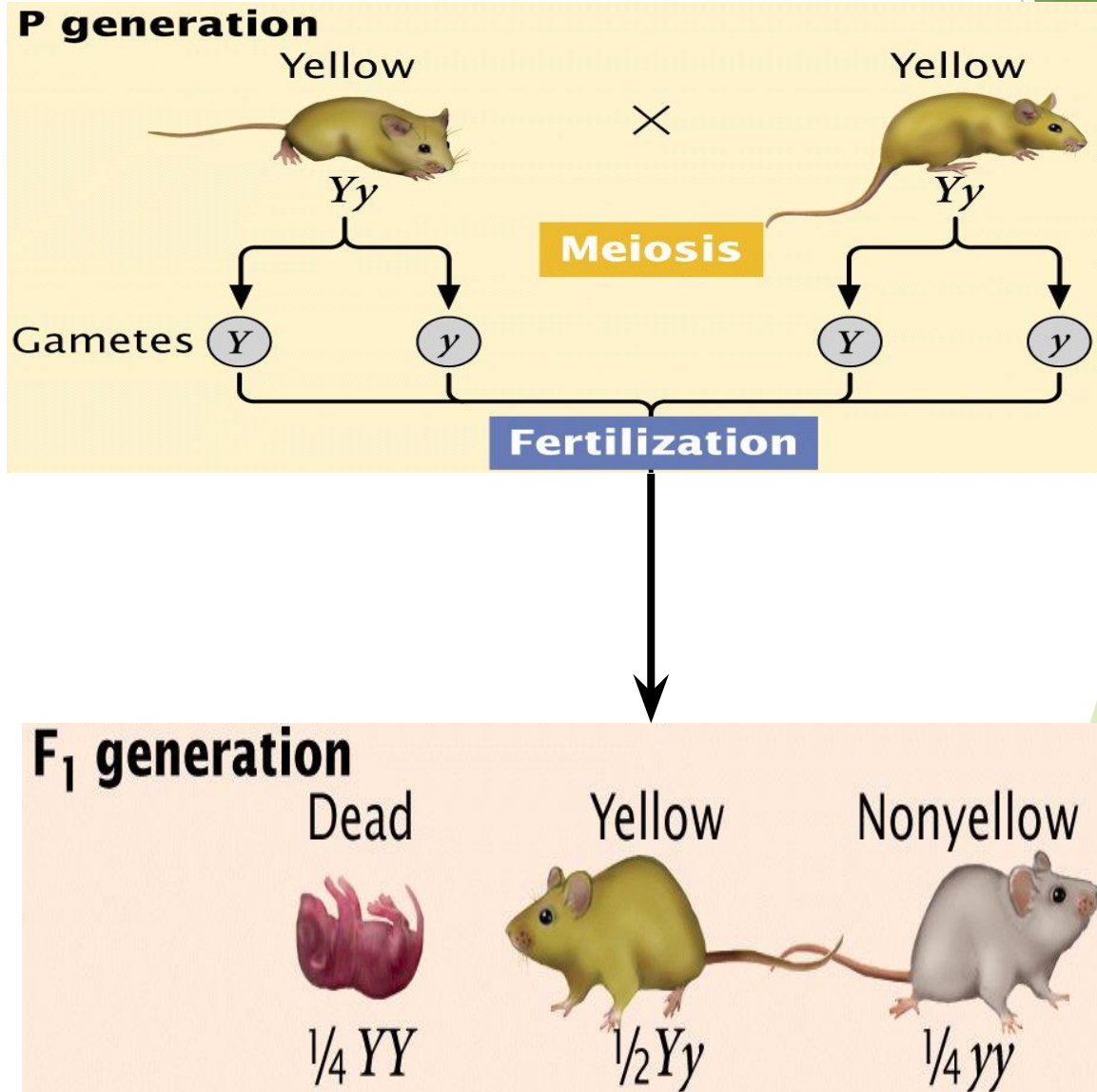
While he crossed yellow with recessive **wild**
type (grey) found that all are yellow.

Concluded all yellow mice were
heterozygotes.

LETHAL GENE

Later it was suggested that **homozygosity** for yellow is lethal, and that these individuals **died** in **utero**, a fact observed by **histological** studies.

Recessive Lethal Alleles



PLEIOTROPY

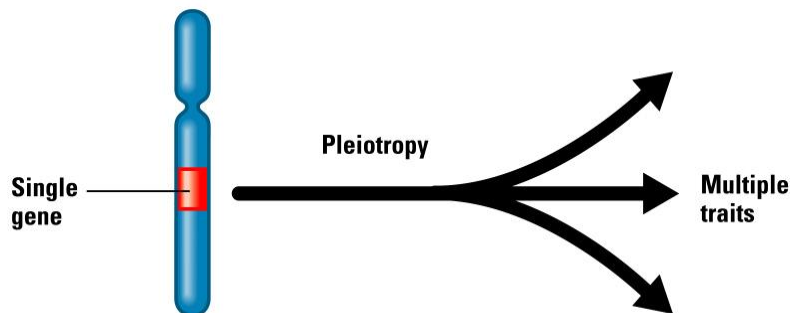
- Impact of a **single gene** on **more than one characteristic**
 - **Sickle-cell disease**
 - Most common inherited illness among **black people**
 - **RBCs** are **sickle-shaped**
- Can cause many problems



RBCs: Sickle-cell disease



Normal RBCs



Sickle Cell Anemia

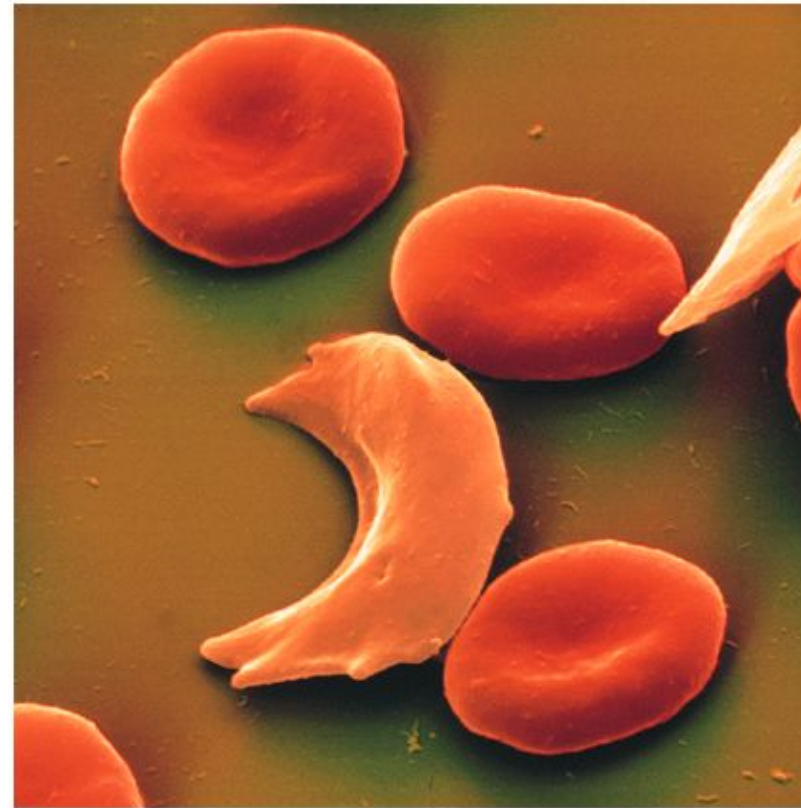
Under conditions of **low oxygen tension**, hemoglobin S will precipitate, causing cells to **sickle**

Mutations in same amino acid

Some individuals die in childhood;
Some individuals have mild symptoms

HbA: V - H - L - T - P - **G** - G

HbS: V - H - L - T - P - **V** - G



Individual homozygous
for sickle-cell allele



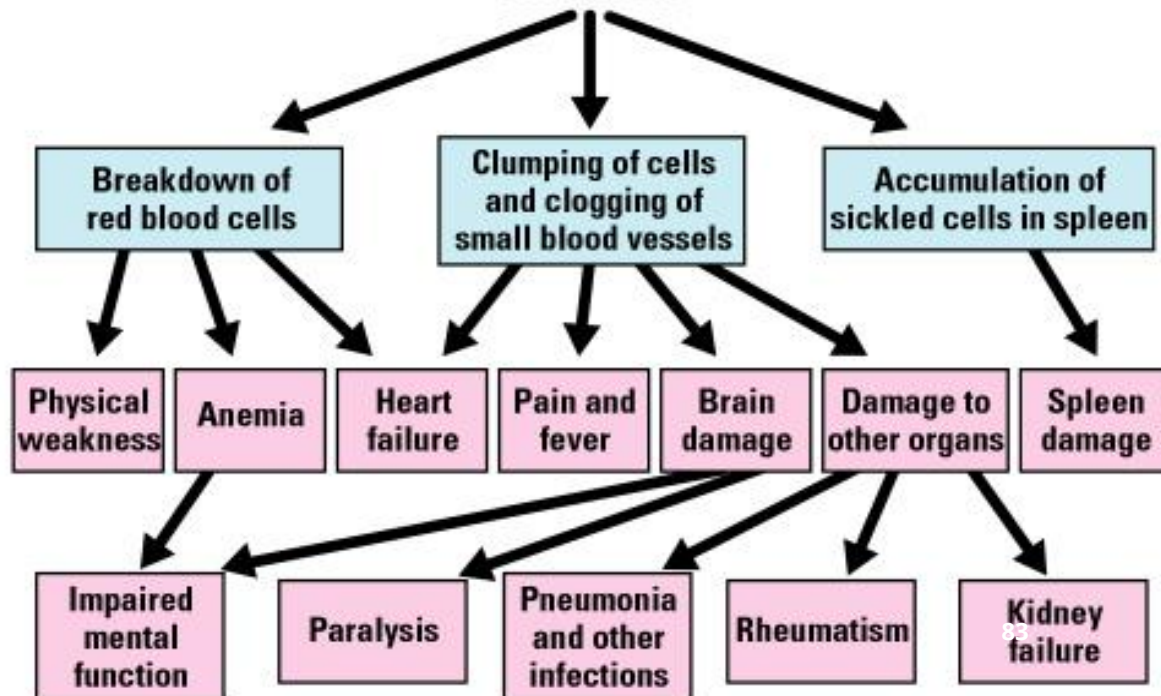
Sickle-cell (abnormal) hemoglobin



Abnormal hemoglobin crystallizes,
causing red blood cells to become sickle-shaped



Sickled cells



Genetic linkage

- Genetic linkage is the tendency of alleles that are located close together on a chromosome to be inherited together during meiosis.
- Genes whose loci are nearer to each other are less likely to be separated on to different chromatids during chromosomal crossover, and are therefore said to be genetically ***linked***.
- In other words, the nearer two genes are on a chromosome, the lower is the chance of a swap occurring between them, and the more likely they are to be inherited together.

The discovery of genetic linkage

- **William Bateson** and **Reginald Punnett** completed a study in **1905** that determined the movement of alleles found on the same chromosome.
- The study used sweet peas, particularly flower colour and pollen shape, they follow a pattern.

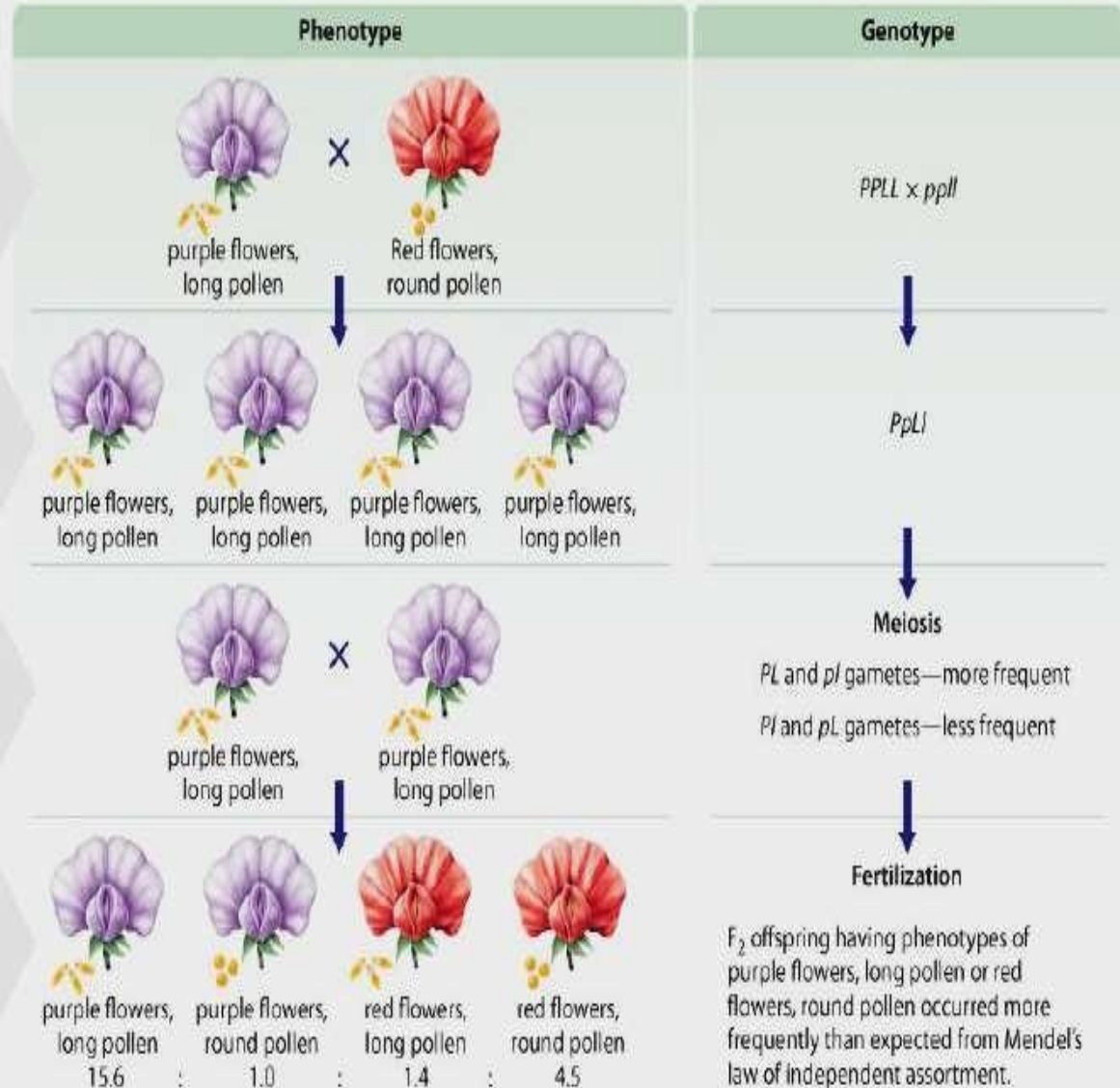
Reginald Punnett (left) joined William Bateson (right) in 1903



- For flower colour, purple is dominant over red, and for pollen shape long is dominant over round.
- A cross was performed using a true breeding purple/long and red/round.
- The **F1** generation was 100% purple/long.

- Crossing two individuals from the **F1** generation resulted in a **F2** generation with four different phenotypes. (*purple/long, purple/round, red/long and red/round*).
- The alleles that created these combinations did not follow the 9:3:3:1 pattern, but supported the idea that these alleles did not assort independently and therefore must be *linked*.

Cross a plant with purple flowers and long pollen to a plant with red flowers and round pollen.



Why Linkage

- Linkage refers to packaging genes onto chromosomes.
- Chromosomes (and therefore linkage) are for organizing genes for their safe coordinated transmission from cell to cell(parent to offspring).

Types of Linkage

Depending upon the presence or absence of new combinations or non-parental combinations, linkage can be of two types:

(i) Complete Linkage:

If two or more characters are inherited together and consistently appear in two or more generations in their original or parental combinations, it is called complete linkage. These genes do not produce non-parental combinations.

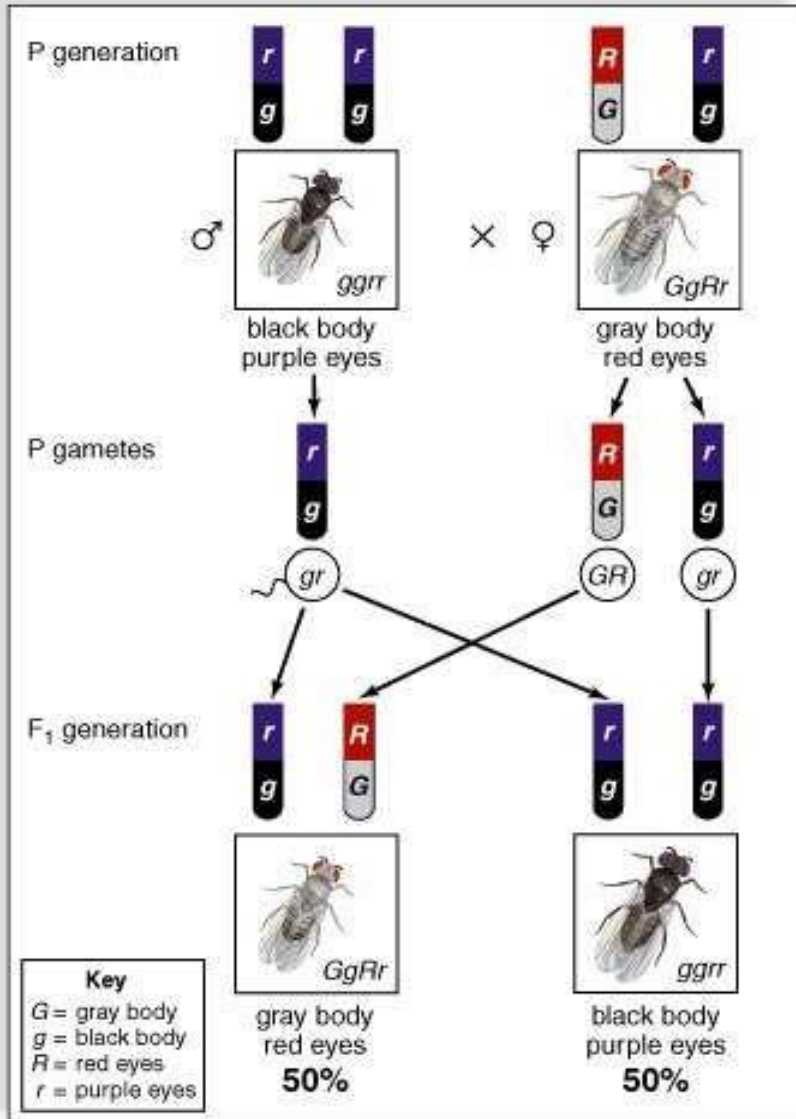
Genes showing complete linkage are closely located in the same chromosome.

(ii) Incomplete Linkage:

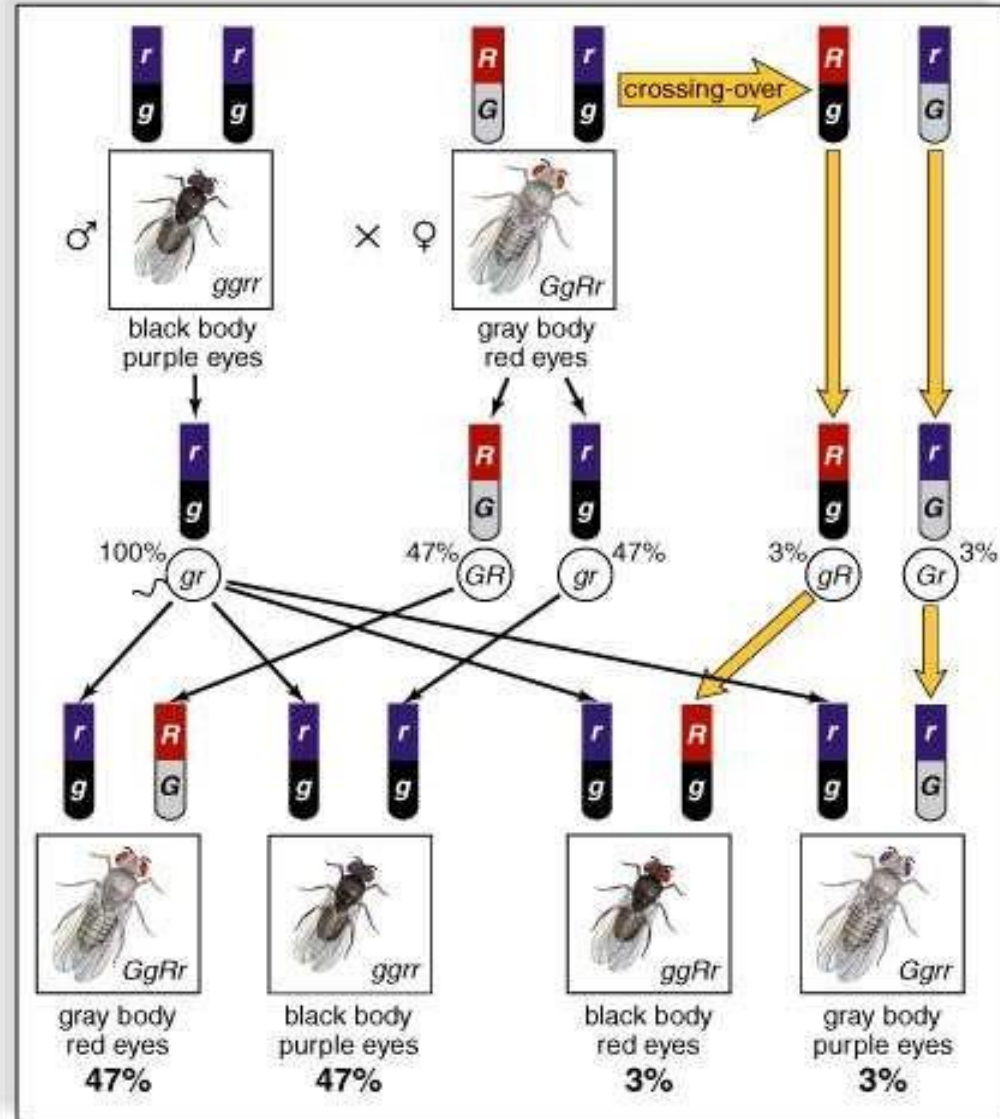
Incomplete linkage is exhibited by those genes which produce some percentage of non-parental combinations. Such genes are located distantly on the chromosome. It is due to accidental or occasional breakage of chromosomal segments during crossing over.

Complete vs. Incomplete

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a.



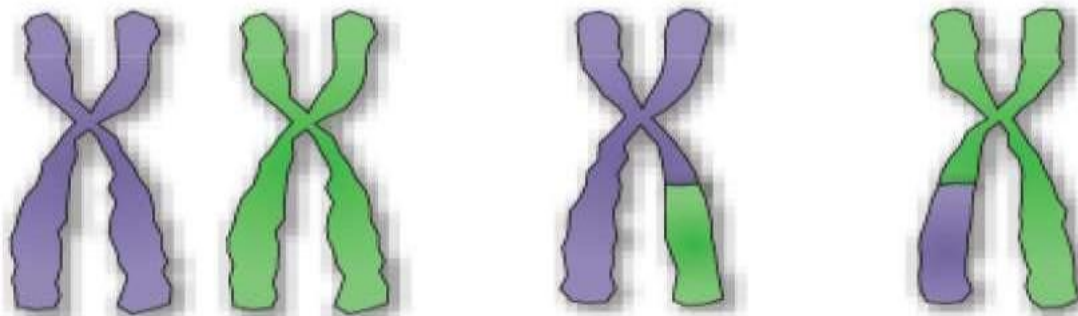
b.

Significance of Linkage

1. Linkage does not permit the breeders to bring the desirable characters in one variety. For this reason plant and animal breeders find it difficult to combine various characters.
2. Linkage reduces the chance of recombination of genes and thus helps to hold parental characteristics together. It thus helps organism to maintain its parental, racial and other characters.

- **Linked genes are not inherited together every time**

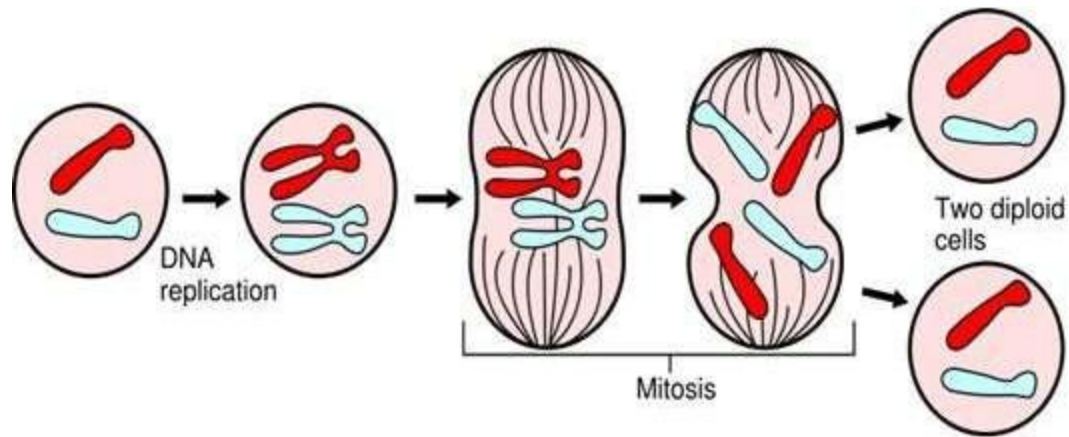
Chromosomes exchange homologous genes during meiosis.



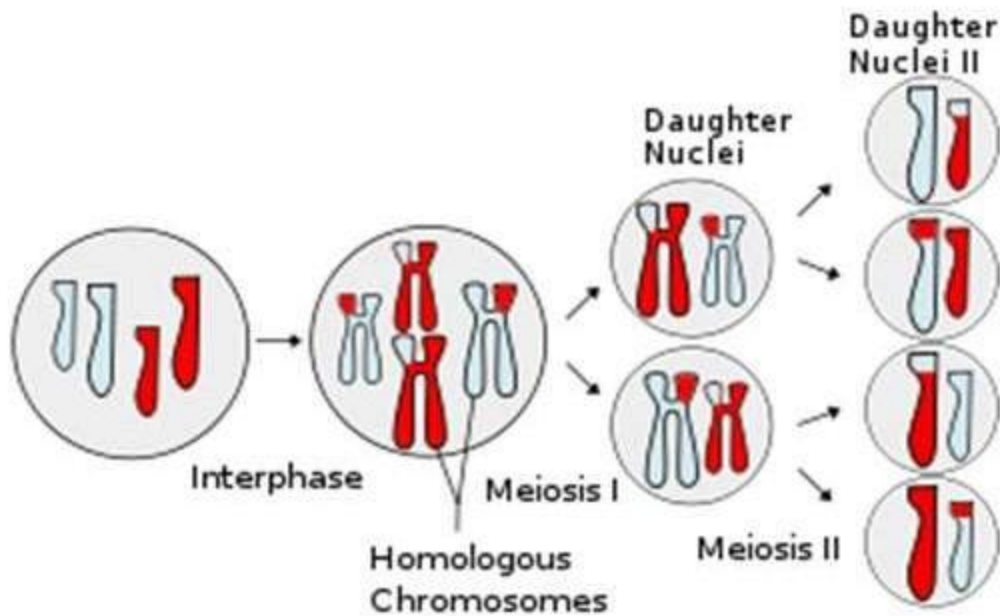
Punjab EDUSAT Society(PES)

Crossing Over and the Inheritance of Linked Genes

- Linked genes don't always stay linked.
- These linkage groups can be separated by crossing over during ***prophase I*** of meiosis.

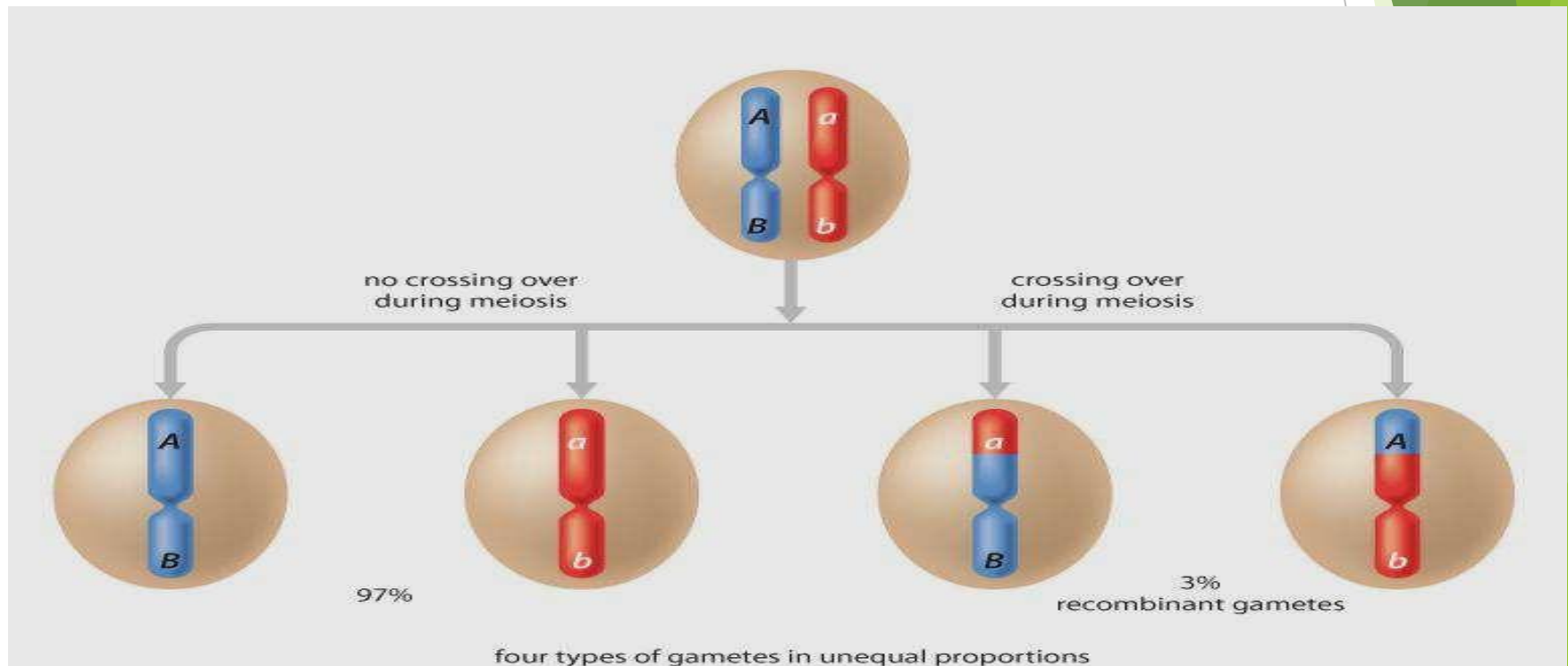


No crossing over
 – daughter cells
 are **identical** to
 parent cells



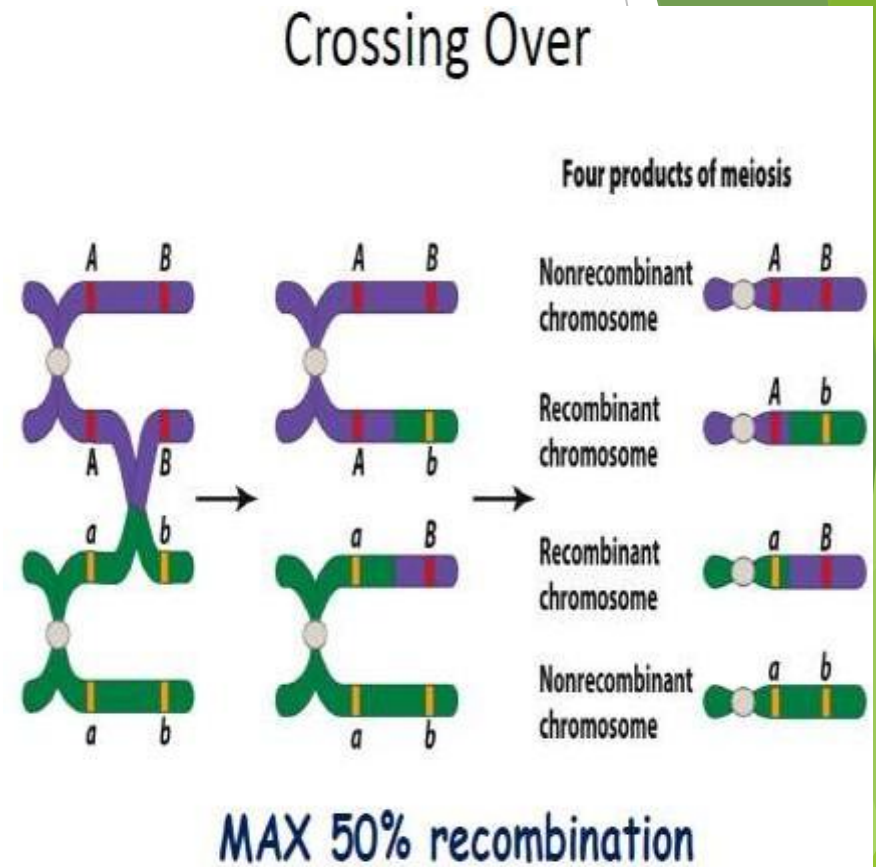
Crossing over
 occurs –causes
genetic variation
 (Daughter cells
 are NOT identical
 to parent cell)

- When crossing over occurs, the genes that were previously linked become unlinked, creating four different types of chromosomes (***gametes***).
- The proportions are not equal because crossing over does not occur in every cell during meiosis.



Crossing Over

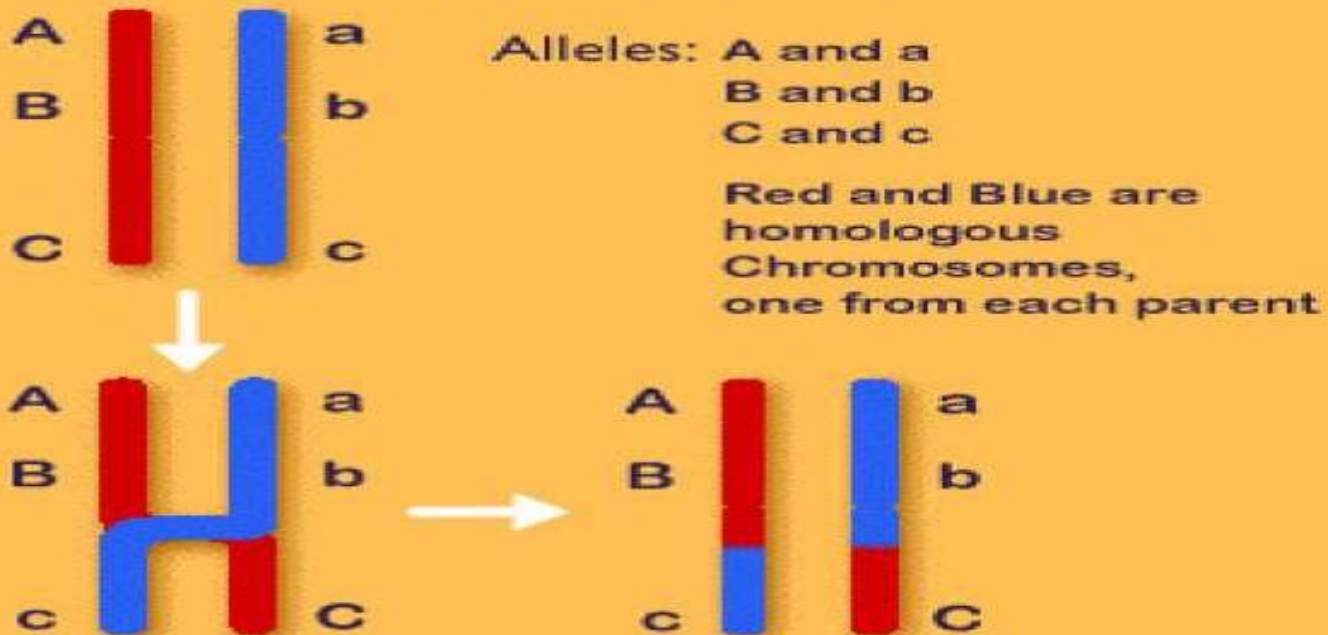
- A random exchange of DNA between two non-sister chromatids of homologous chromosomes.
- Results in recombination of genetic material



- Prevalence of recombination is dependent on the distance between linked genes

Crossing-Over

Recombination between Homologous Chromosomes



FACTORS AFFECTING CROSS OVER

1. Sex:

there is a tendency of reduction of crossing over in male mammals.

2. Mutation:

mutation reduces crossing over

3. Temperature:

high and low temperature variations increase the percentage of crossing over in certain parts of the chromosome.

4. X-ray Effect:

X-ray irradiations increase crossing over near centromere.

5. Age:

older age increases the rate of crossing over.

Significance of Crossing-over

1. Produces new combinations of traits.
2. Through crossing over segments of homologous chromosomes are interchanged and hence provide origin of new characters and genetic variations.
3. Crossing over plays a very important role in the field of breeding to improve the varieties of plants and animals.

Theories of Crossing Over

(i) Contact First Theory :

According to this theory the inner two chromatids of the homologous chromosomes undergoing crossing over, first touch each other and then cross over. At the point of contact breakage occurs. The broken segments again unite to form new combinations.

(ii) The Breakage-First Theory :

According to this theory the chromatids under-going crossing over, first of all break into two without any crossing over and after that the broken segments reunite to form the new combinations.

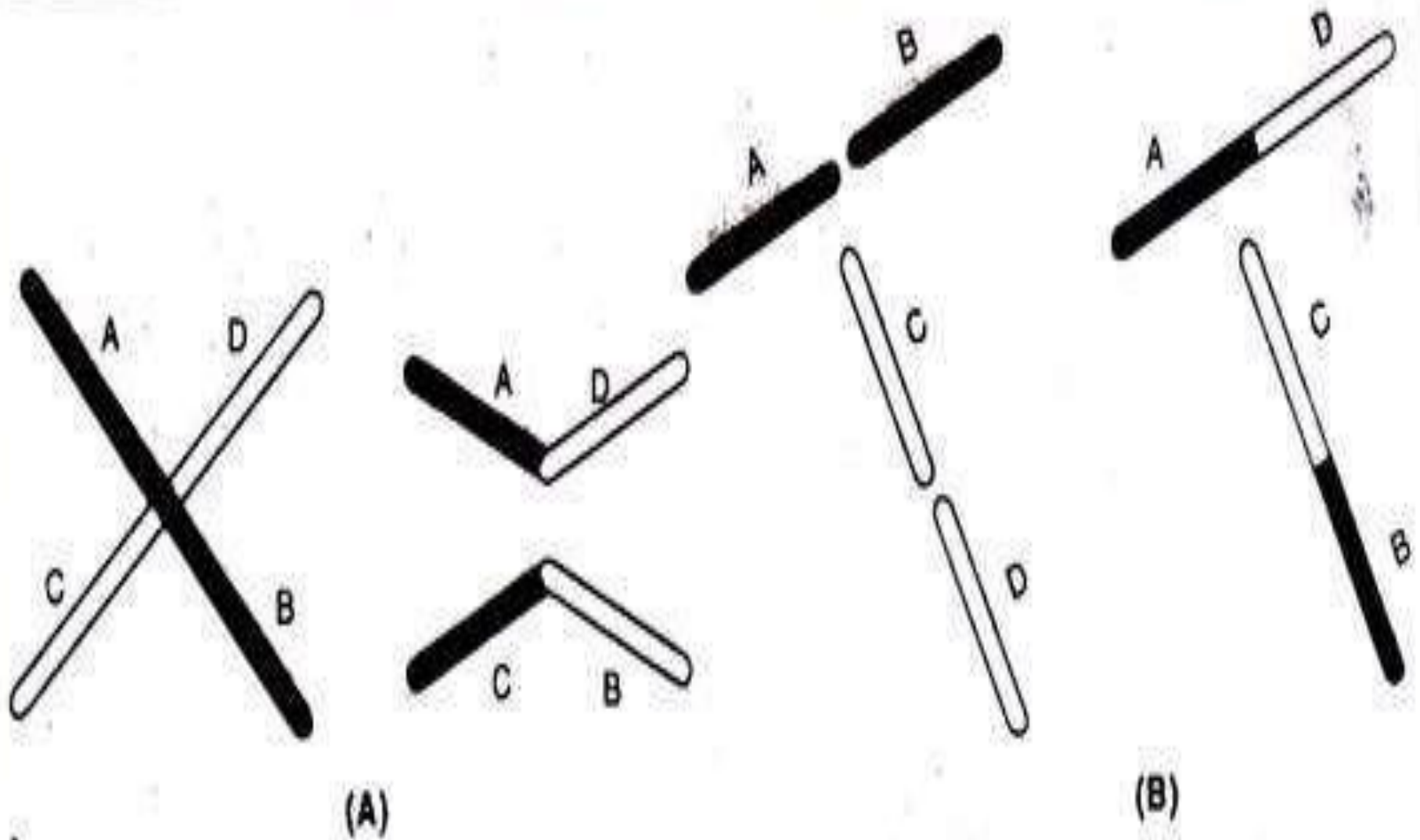


Fig. 5.11 Diagrams showing
 A : contact-first theory of crossing over. B : Breakage-first theory of crossing over.

Types of Crossing Over

(i) Single Crossing Over:

In this type of crossing over only one chiasma is formed (a **chiasma** is the point where two homologous non-sister chromatids exchange genetic material during chromosomal crossover in meiosis) all along the length of a chromosome pair. Gametes formed by this type of crossing over are called single cross over gametes .

Types of Crossing Over

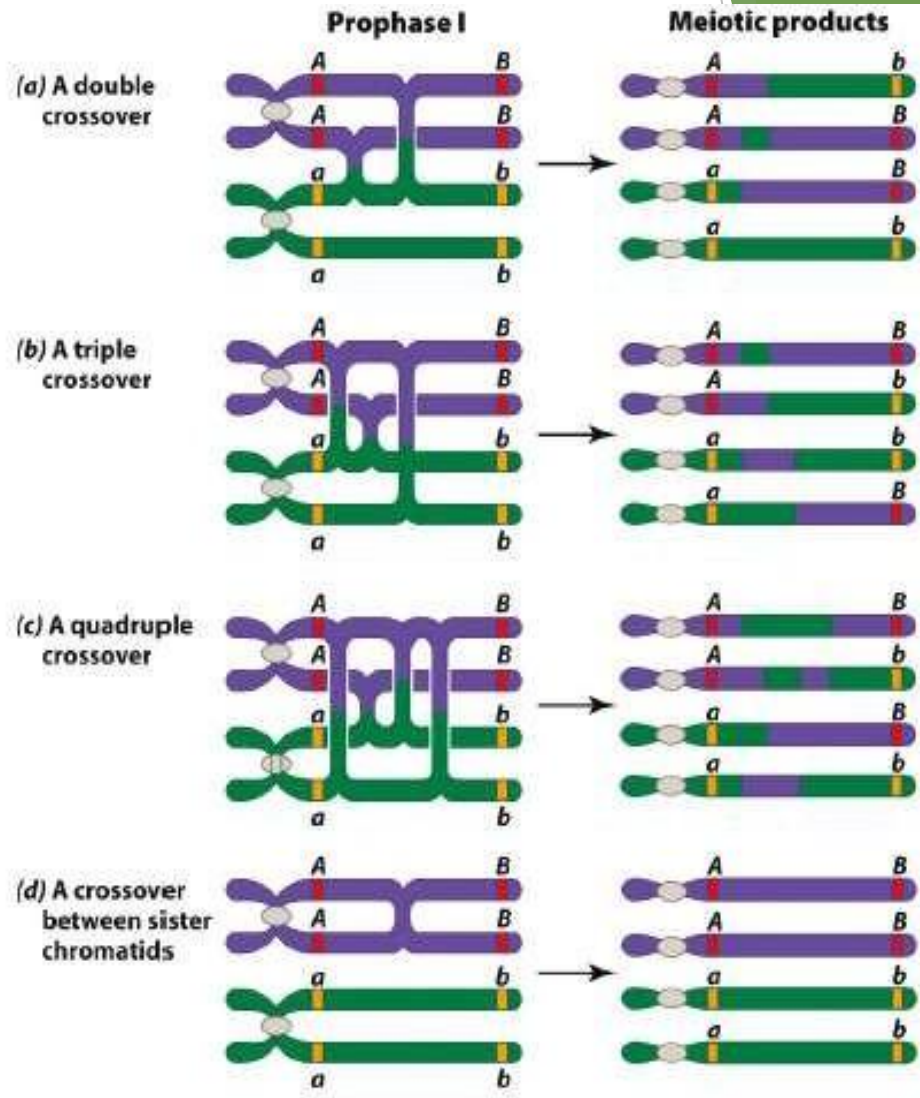
(ii) **Double Crossing Over:**

In this type two chiasmata are formed along the entire length of the chromosome leading to breakage and rejoin of chromatids at two points. The gametes produced are called double cross over gametes.

(iii) **Multiple Crossing Over:**

In this type more than two chiasmata are formed and thus crossing over occurs at more than two points on the same chromosome pair. It is a rare phenomenon.

Multiple Crossovers



A stylized blue chromosome with a red dot representing a gene. The chromosome is shown as a curved, glowing blue structure with a red dot in the center, set against a dark blue background.

Genetic map

Graphical representation of relative distances between linked genes of a chromosome is called genetic map, also known as gene map or chromosome map or cross over map.

Purpose and uses of Genetic mapping

- ✓ The purpose of genetic mapping is to determine the linear order and distance of separation among genes that are linked to each other along the same chromosome.
- ✓ The chromosome maps display the exact location, arrangement and combination of genes in a linkage group of chromosomes.
- ✓ They are useful in predicting results of dihybrid and trihybrid crosses.
- ✓ It allows geneticists to understand the overall complexity and genetic organization of a particular species.

Purpose and uses of Genetic

m a p p i n g

- ✓ The genetic map of a species portrays the underlying basis for the inherited traits that an organism displays.
- ✓ In some cases, the known locus of a gene within a genetic map can help molecular geneticists to clone that gene and thereby obtain greater information about its molecular features.
- ✓ In addition, genetic maps are useful from an evolutionary point of view. A comparison of the genetic maps for different species can improve our understanding of the evolutionary relationships among those species.


Purpose and uses of Genetic mapping

- ✓ Along with these scientific uses, genetic maps have many practical benefits. For example, many human genes that play a role in human disease have been genetically mapped. This information can be used to diagnose and perhaps someday treat inherited human diseases. It can also help genetic counselors predict the likelihood that a couple will produce children with certain inherited diseases.
- ✓ In addition, genetic maps are gaining increasing importance in agriculture.
- ✓ A genetic map can provide plant and animal breeders with helpful information for improving agriculturally important strains through selective breeding programs.

The background is a dark blue gradient with a curved, glowing blue line arching across the top. A bright red light source is visible in the upper left quadrant, casting a soft red glow. The text is centered and uses a mix of green and white colors.

Construction of a Linkage Map or Genetic Mapping

The method of construction maps of different chromosomes is called **genetic mapping**.




The genetic mapping includes following processes:

1. Determination of Linkage Groups (No. of Chromosomes)

Before starting the genetic mapping of chromosomes of a species,

- To know the exact number of chromosomes of that species.
- To determine the total number of genes of that species by undergoing hybridization experiments in between wild and mutant strains.



2. Determination of Map Distance

□ Map unit

Genetics use an arbitrary unit to measure the intergene distance on the chromosomes that is **map unit** which describe distances between linked genes.

A map unit is equal to 1 per cent of crossovers (recombinants); that is, it represents the linear distance along the chromosome for which a recombination frequency of 1 per cent is observed.

□ Morgan units

These distances can also be expressed in **morgan units**; one morgan unit represents 100 per cent crossing over. Thus 1 per cent crossing over can also be expressed as **1 centimorgan (1cM)**.



1. Two point test cross

The percentage of crossing over between two linked genes is calculated by test crosses in which a F1 dihybrid is crossed with a double recessive parent. Such crosses because involved crossing over at two points, so called two point test



2. Three point test cross (Trihybrid cross)

Double cross over usually don't occur between genes less than 5 centimorgans apart, so for genes further apart, the three point test crosses are used. A three point test cross or trihybrid test cross (involving three genes) gives us information regarding relative distances between these genes, and also shows us the linear order in which these genes should be present on chromosome. Such a three point test cross may be carried out if three points or gene loci on a chromosome pair can be identified by marker genes.