



#### Genetics & Inheritance – Genetic Basis for Variation II

#### 1. Introduction

Mendel's principles of inheritance only explain the most basic phenomena of inheritance. Other than Mendelian inheritance, you will also learn of non-Mendelian inheritance (e.g. autosomal linkage, epistasis), as well as how the environment plays a role in determining the phenotype of an organism. Statistical tests, such as the chi-squared test, which allow us to test the significance of differences between observed an expected results of genetic crosses will also be covered.

#### 2. Learning Outcomes

- x. use genetic diagrams to solve problems in dihybrid crosses, including those involving codominance, incomplete dominance, multiple alleles, sex linkage, autosomal linkage and epistasis
- y. use genetic diagrams to solve problems including test crosses
- z. explain the meaning of the terms linkage and crossing-over and explain the effect of linkage and crossing-over on the phenotypic ratios from dihybrid crosses
- aa. describe the interaction between loci (epistasis) and predict phenotypic ratios in problems involving epistasis (knowledge of the expected ratio for various types of epistasis is not required; focus of this section is on problem solving)
- cc. explain the difference between genetic variation that is continuous (many, additive genes control a characteristic) and genetic variation that is discontinuous (one or a few genes control a characteristic)
- dd. use the chi-squared test to test the significance of differences between observed and expected results.

#### 3. References

Campbell, N.A. and Reece, J.B. (2008). Biology, 9th edition. Pearson.



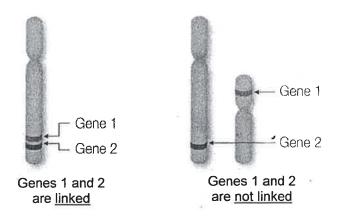
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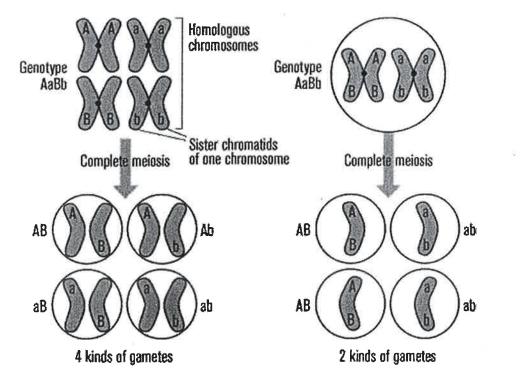
#### 4. Autosomal Linkage

Linked genes refer to genes located on the same chromosome / autosome.



As opposed to non-linked genes, linked genes are located close enough together on a chromosome that the alleles of the two genes <u>tend</u> to be inherited together.

Linked genes therefore **do not undergo independent assortment**. (Note: chromosomes still undergo independent assortment, but not the genes.)



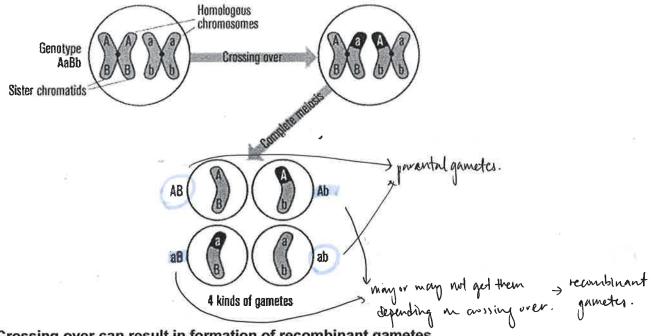
albles Aand B tend to be inherited tot alleles a & b tend to be inherited top.

Non-linked genes vs linked genes:
alleles of non-linked genes undergo independent assortment
whereas alleles of linked genes tend to be inherited together and do not
undergo independent assortment.

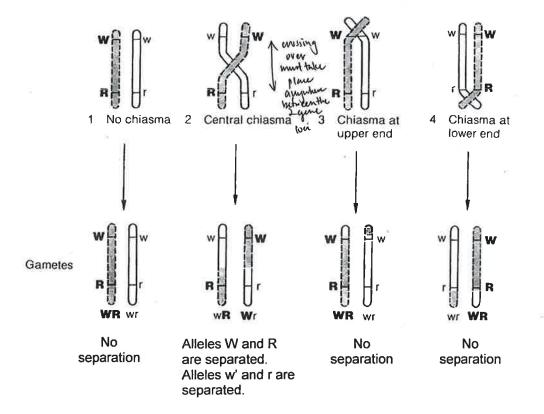


However, the two alleles from the two genes on the same chromosome are not always inherited together. This happens when **crossing over** has taken place and **recombinants** are formed

Notes to self



Crossing over can result in formation of recombinant gametes, i.e. gametes with recombinant genotype Ab and aB.



Effect of different chiasma positions
on the separation of the alleles of two linked genes:
chiasma has to form at the precise location to disrupt the linkage group.



The further the gene loci of the two genes on the same chromosome, the greater the likelihood of crossing over occurring. Thus, the chance of the alleles of the genes being inherited together is lowered, and chance of forming recombinant gametes is higher.

Conversely, if the **gene loci** of linked genes on the same chromosome are **close together**, the **chance of crossing over is lowered**. As a result, the **chance** that the alleles of the genes **will be inherited together** as one linkage group is **higher**, and **less chance of forming recombinant gametes**.

Note: if two gene loci are **completely linked** (i.e. **no crossing over** takes place between the two genes as they are very close to one another), **no recombinants** will result.

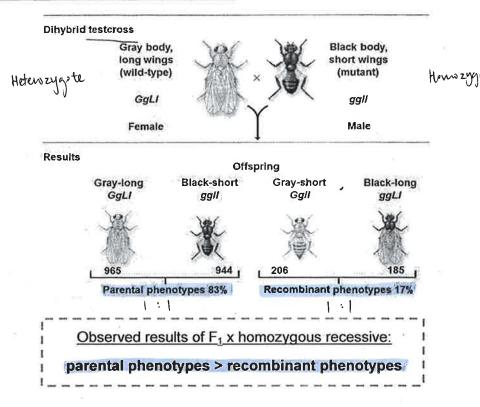
Scenario 1: Gene loci close	e together	Scenario 2: Gene loci far	apart
OM P Qm	Homologous chromosomes pair up at prophase I of meiosis.		Homologous chromosomes pair up at prophase I of meiosis.
*	②then cross over.	Z.	② then cross over.
QM QM qm qm	The alleles tend to stay together.	B L B L B L B L	New combinations of the alleles are created.

Diagram illustrates the frequency of crossing over & recombination as a result of distance between the two genes on the same chromosome.

#### Notes to self

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Phenotypes of the parental flies of F<sub>1</sub>, i.e. parental phenotypes (grey body and normal wings, black body and vestigial wings) are represented in higher numbers amongst offspring flies.

This is due to genes for body colour and wing size being located on the same chromosome; more precisely, alleles G and L are linked in female parental fly of  $F_1$  while alleles g and I are linked in male parental fly of  $F_1$ .

Note: The two parental phenotypes are approximately equal in numbers.

Recombinant phenotypes (grey body and vestigial wings, black body and normal wings) are represented in lower numbers amongst offspring flies.

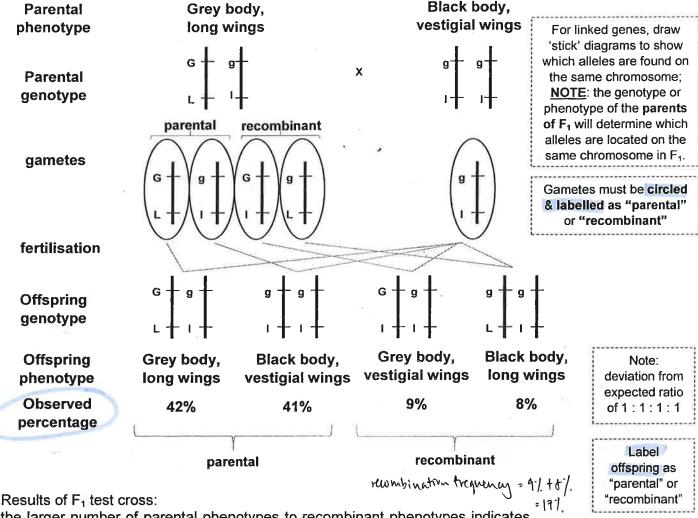
This is because recombinant gametes are formed as a result of crossing over. As such, the number of recombinants is dependent on the proximity of the linked genes. If two genes are close together on a chromosome, the chances of their alleles being separated by crossing over are smaller than if they were far apart. The further the distance between two linked genes, the greater the chance of crossing over, and thus higher the percentage of recombinant offspring.

Note: The **two recombinant phenotypes** are **approximately equal** in a numbers.

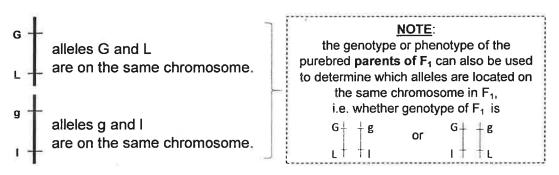
- When heterozygous individual undergoes a test cross:
  - expected offspring phenotypic ratio (i.e. no linkage) =
     1 grey body, long wings: 1 black body, vestigial wings: 1 grey body, vestigial wings: 1 black body, normal wings
  - deviation from this usual Mendelian offspring phenotypic ratio of 1:1:1:1 is indicative of autosomal linkage.



Genetic diagram to represent the above results of T.H. Morgan's experiment on *Drosophila*:



the larger number of parental phenotypes to recombinant phenotypes indicates that parental genes are linked. More precisely:



Total percentage of recombinant offspring = recombination frequency.

The distance between two genes can be represented in map unit or centimorgan (cM):

Recombination frequency of 1 % = 1 map unit or 1 cM

Therefore with a recombination frequency of 17%, distance between the genes for body colour and type of wings in *Drosophila* = 17 map unit or 17 cM



#### In summary, non-linked genes vs linked genes:

In F <sub>1</sub> individual:	If genes are on separate chromosomes (gene locus A/a and gene locus B/b are on different chromosomes)  A + a + B + b +	Linked genes  (i.e. gene locus A/a and gene locus B/b are on same chromosome):  crossing over occurs, recombinant gametes formed
Gametes of F <sub>1</sub> with genotype AaBb	AB Ab ab	parental recombinant
Testcross (F <sub>1</sub> x aabb): offspring genotypic ratio	1AaBb:1Aabb:1aaBb:1aabb	Atat at at at at Atat Btb bb bb Btb bb b
& offspring phenotypic ratio	1:1:1:1	usual genotypic ratio of 1:1:1:1  Both parental phenotypes are high in numbers (approximately 1:1), & both recombinant phenotypes are low in numbers (approximately 1:1),  deviates from usual phenotypic ratio of 1:1:1:1
(F <sub>1</sub> x F <sub>1</sub> ): F <sub>2</sub> genotypic ratio & F <sub>2</sub> phenotypic	9A_B_: 3A_bb: 3aaB_: 1aabb 9:3:3:1	deviates from 9:3:3:1  deviates from 9:3:3:1



5. Epistasis

One gene masks the experision of another gene.

Notes to self

Epistasis is a form of gene interaction in which:

- two or more genes determine a single phenotype
- gene products of different genes are involved in the same biochemical / metabolic pathway or same developmental pathway
- phenotypic expression of a gene at one locus masks the phenotypic expression of a gene at a second locus. The gene whose phenotype is expressed is said to be epistatic, while the gene whose phenotype is masked or suppressed is said to be hypostatic

(Note: Epistasis should not be confused with dominance, which is an interaction between alleles at the same gene locus.)

Epistatic alleles can be either dominant or recessive and each type gives a modified 9:3:3:1 dihybrid F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio

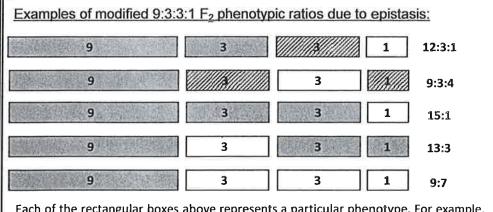
Recessive epistasis: > the one that mank is narrally uportrain

a recessive epistatic allele masks the phenotypic effects of alleles of the other gene when the recessive epistatic allele is present in the homozygous condition.

Dominant epistasis: Junuly involved inhibitor

a dominant epistatic allele masks the phenotypic effects of alleles of the other gene when it is present in the homozygous or heterozygous condition.

In epistasis, we will observe deviation from the expected F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio of 9:3:3:1 when two heterozygous individuals are crossed.



Each of the rectangular boxes above represents a particular phenotype. For example, in the epistatic ratio of 12:3:1, there are two grey boxes representing 9 units and 3 units respectively (together for a total of 12 units) for one particular phenotype, one striped box with 3 units for another phenotype and finally one white box with 1 unit for the third phenotype.

Recessive epistasis results in F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratios such as 9:7 and 9:3:4. Dominant epistasis results in F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratios such as 12:3:1, 15:1 and 13:3.

# Dihybrid ratios add up to 16. A ratio of 9:3:3 = 15, is less than 16 and will likely indicate lethal alleles rather than epistasis.



#### Example 1: Flower colour in sweet pea (9:7 F2 phenotypic ratio)

Notes to self

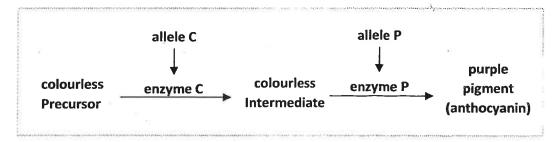
Bateson and Punnett crossed two different varieties of white-flowered plants. All the  $F_1$  plants had purple flowers. When plants from the  $F_1$  generation were allowed to self-fertilise, the  $F_2$  generation gave a phenotypic ratio of **9 purple** flower plant: **7 white flower plant**. Explain the observed results using a genetic diagram.

#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

F₂ phenotypic ratio is 9:7, deviates from 9:3:3:1 → EPISTASIS

#### Step 2: deduce the biochemical pathway

Epistasis often occurs when two (or more) different gene products (e.g. enzymes) are part of an enzymatic pathway. In this example a colourless precursor molecule must be acted on by two different enzymes to produce the purple pigment.



Allele C codes for a functional enzyme C, which converts the colourless precursor into a colourless intermediate. Recessive allele c' codes for a non-functional enzyme C.

Allele P codes for functional enzyme P, which converts the colourless intermediate into the purple pigment. Recessive allele p' codes for a defective enzyme P.

If an individual is homozygous for either recessive allele (i.e. c'c' or p'p') it will not make any functional enzyme C or enzyme P respectively. When either one of these functional enzymes is lacking, purple pigment cannot be made and the flower remains white.

Recall:  $F_2$  genotypic ratio is  $9 C_P_$ :  $3 C_p'p'$ :  $3 c'c'P_$ : 1 c'c'p'p'

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is 9 purple flower plant : 7 white flower plant

Note: F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with reference to the biochemical pathway.

This is an example of recessive epistasis.

Genotype c'c' is epistatic to gene locus P/p', and genotype p'p' is epistatic to gene locus C/c'.

-> 2 markings insolved



#### Step 3:

Notes to self

draw genetic diagram to explain how the <u>observed ratio</u> of 9 purple flower plant : 7 white flower plant is obtained

Parental phenotype

White

Χ

White

Parental genotype

CCp'p'

c'c'PP

Meiosis,

gametes

(Cp')

(c'P)

F<sub>1</sub> genotype

Cc'Pp'

F<sub>1</sub> phenotype

All purple

Self-cross of

F<sub>1</sub> generation

Cc'Pp'

X Cc'Pp'

Meiosis, gametes

CP Cp







Fertilisation

Gametes	СР	(Cp')	C'P	(c'p')
СР	ССРР	ССРр'	Cc'PP	Cc'Pp'
	purple flower plant	purple flower plant	purple flower plant	purple flower plant
(Cp')	CCPp'	CCp'p'	Cc'Pp'	Cc'p'p'
	purple flower plant	white flower plant	purple flower plant	white flower plant
(c'P)	Cc'PP	Cc'Pp'	c'c'PP	c'c'Pp'
	purple flower plant	purple flower plant	white flower plant	white flower plant
(c,b,	Cc'Pp'	Cc'p'p'	c'c'Pp'	c'c'p'p'
	purple flower plant	white flower plant	white flower plant	white flower plant

F<sub>2</sub> genotypic ratio

9 C\_P\_

3 C\_p'p'

3 c'c'P\_

1 c'c'p'p'

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio

9 purple

flower plant

7 white flower plant

:



#### Example 2a: Flower colour in blue-eyed Mary (9:3:4 F2 phenotypic ratio)

Notes to self

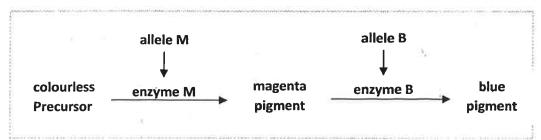
When  $F_1$  plants with blue flowers were allowed to self-fertilise, the  $F_2$  generation gave a phenotypic ratio of **9 blue flower plant**: **3 magenta flower plant**: **4 white flower plant**. Explain the observed results using a genetic diagram.

#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

 $F_2$  phenotypic ratio is 9:4:3, deviates from 9:3:3:1  $\rightarrow$  *EPISTASIS*.

#### Step 2: deduce the biochemical pathway

Epistasis often occurs when two (or more) different gene products (e.g. enzymes) are part of an enzymatic pathway. In this example a colourless precursor molecule is converted to magenta pigment, which in turn is converted to blue pigment.



Allele M codes for a functional enzyme M, which converts the colourless precursor into a magenta pigment. The recessive allele m' codes for a non-functional enzyme M.

Allele B codes for functional enzyme B, which converts the magenta pigment into the blue pigment. Recessive allele p' codes for a defective enzyme P.

If an individual is homozygous for recessive allele m' (i.e. m'm'), it will not make any functional enzyme M and flower remains white.

If an individual is homozygous for recessive allele b (i.e. **bb**) it will not make any functional enzyme B and flower is magenta in colour pr.

Recall: F<sub>2</sub> genotypic ratio = 9 B\_M\_ : 3 bbM\_ : 3 B\_m'm' : 1 bbm'm'

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio = 9 blue flower : 3 magenta flower : 4 white flower plant plant plant

Note: F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with **reference to the biochemical** pathway.

This is an example of **recessive epistasis**. Genotype m'm' is epistatic to gene locus B/b'.

#### Step 3:

draw genetic diagram to explain how the <u>observed ratio</u> of 9 blue flower plant : 3 magenta flower plant : 4 white flower plant is obtained





#### Example 2b:

#### Coat colour inheritance in Labrador retrievers (9:3:4 F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio)

Coat colour inheritance in Labrador retrievers is determined by two genes. Two alleles **B** and **b**, of a **pigment gene**, results in production of **black** and **brown pigment** respectively. Another gene locus C/c' determines if colour pigment is deposited; allele **C** allows **pigment deposition** in the coat, while with genotype **c'c'**, pigment will not be deposited even if pigment is synthesised and this results in the **gold**/yellow fur phenotype.

Pure bred black Labradors (**CCBB**) were mated with gold Labradors (**c'c'bb**). The offspring were all black. The black Labradors that are heterozygous for both genes (**Cc'Bb**) were mated. What will be the expected phenotype of the F<sub>2</sub> generation? Show your answer in a genetic diagram in the space below.

#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

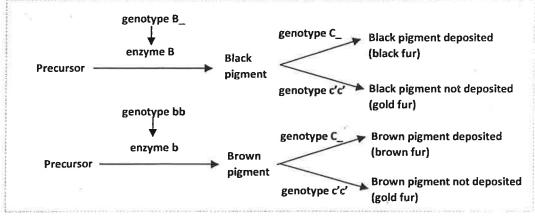
- 2 genes control one phenotype, coat colour
- Genotype c'c' masks the gene locus B/b

**EPISTASIS** 

Note: This case of epistasis is *not* caused by a block in a pathway leading to dark pigment. Gold/yellow dogs can make black or brown pigment, as can be seen in their nose and lips. However, without allele C, no black/brown pigment will be deposited in the hairs. In this case, the epistatic gene is "developmentally downstream"; the dominant allele C must be present before pigment can be deposited.

This is a case of **recessive epistasis**. Genotype **c'c'** is epistatic over the gene locus **B/b**.

Step 2: deduce the developmental pathway



Allele B codes for functional enzyme B which produces black pigment. Allele b codes for functional enzyme b which produces brown pigment. For another separate gene locus C/c, allele C allows colour deposition in the coat and genotype c'c' prevents deposition, resulting in the gold fur phenotype.

Recall: F<sub>2</sub> genotypic ratio = 9 B\_C\_ : 3 bbC\_ : 3 B\_c'c'm : 1 bbc'c'

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio = 9 black fur : 3 brown fur : 4 gold fur

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with reference to the developmental pathway.

#### Step 3:

draw genetic diagram to explain how the  $F_2$  phenotypic ratio of 9 black fur : 3 brown fur : 4 gold fur is obtained



#### Example 3: Kernel colour in wheat (15:1 F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio)

Notes to self

A pure line wheat plant with a coloured kernel (genotype = **AABB**) is crossed to plant with white kernels (genotype = aabb). All  $F_1$  offspring had coloured kernel. When the resulting  $F_1$  plants were selfed, the offspring gave a ratio of 15 coloured kernels: 1 white kernel. Explain the observed results using a genetic diagram.

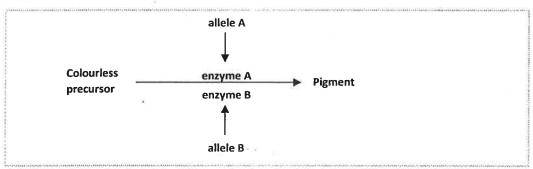
#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

- 2 genes control one phenotype, kernel colour
- F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is 15:1, deviates from 9:3:3:1.

**EPISTASIS** 

#### Step 2: deduce the biochemical pathway

For this biochemical pathway, a **functional enzyme A or B** can produce a coloured pigment product from a common colourless precursor. Therefore, only one dominant allele at either of the two gene loci is required to generate the pigment to give colour to the wheat kernel.



Recall: F<sub>2</sub> genotypic ratio = 9 A\_B\_ : 3 A\_bb : 3 aaB\_ : 1 aabb

 $F_2$  phenotypic ratio = 15 coloured kernel : 1 white kernel

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with reference to the biochemical pathway.

#### This is a case of **dominant epistasis**:

Genotype A\_ is epistatic over the gene locus B/b gene locus, and genotype B\_ is epistatic over the gene locus A/a.

#### Step 3:

draw genetic diagram to explain how the observed ratio of 15 coloured kernel: 1 white kernel is obtained

#### Example 4: Petal colour in Primula plant (13:3 F2 phenotypic ratio)

Notes to self

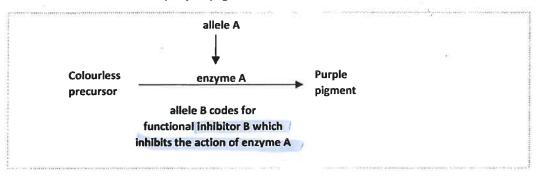
When *Primula* plants with white flowers were allowed to cross-fertilise, a phenotypic ratio of **13 white flower plant**: **3 purple flower plant** was obtained in the offspring generation. Explain the observed results using a genetic diagram.

#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is 15.7, deviates from 9:3:3:1  $\rightarrow$  EPISTASIS

#### Step 2: deduce the biochemical pathway

For this biochemical pathway, a **functional enzyme A** converts a colourless precursor to purple pigment while a **functional inhibitor B** will inhibit the action of enzyme A. Therefore in the presence of inhibitor B, the colourless precursor will not be converted to purple pigment and flower remains white.



Recall:  $F_2$  genotypic ratio =  $9 A_B_$  :  $3 aaB_$  :  $1 aabb_$  :  $3 A_bb$ 

 $F_2$  phenotypic ratio = 13 white flower plant : 3 purple flower plant

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with **reference to the biochemical pathway**.

This is a case of dominant epistasis.

Allele B is epistatic over the gene locus A/a gene locus.

#### Step 3:

draw genetic diagram to explain how the observed ratio of 13 white flower plant : 1 purple flower plant is obtained



#### Example 5: Fruit colour in squash (12:3:1 F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio)

In summer squash, fruit colour may be white, yellow or green. White fruits are produced in the presence of allele W At a second gene locus, allele G results in yellow fruits, while allele g results in green fruits. When two squash plants with white fruit were crossed, a phenotypic ratio of 12 white squash: 3 yellow squash: 1 white squash was obtained in the offspring generation. Draw a genetic diagram to observed results.

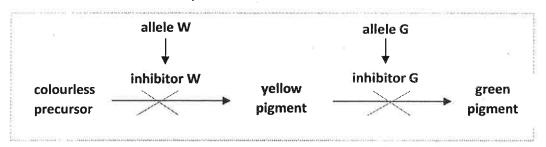
pathway will met

#### Step 1: deduce the type of genetic inheritance

2 genes control one phenotype, squash colour
 F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is 12:3:1, deviates from 9:3:3:1

#### Step 2: deduce the biochemical pathway

For this biochemical pathway, alleles W and G code for **functional inhibitors W** and **G** respectively. Inhibitor W inhibits the enzyme that converts the colourless precursor to yellow pigment. As such, in the presence of inhibitor W, squash remains white. Inhibitor G inhibits the enzyme that converts the yellow pigment to green pigment. In the presence of inhibitor G, the squash is yellow if functional inhibitor W is not present.



Recall:  $F_2$  genotypic ratio = 9 W\_G\_ : 3 W\_gg : 3 w'w'G\_ : 1 w'w'gg

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio = 12 white squash : 3 yellow squash : 1 green squash

F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic ratio is deduced with **reference to the biochemical pathway**.

This is a case of dominant epistasis.

Allele **W** is epistatic over the gene locus **G/g** gene locus.

#### Step 3:

draw genetic diagram to explain how the observed ratio of 12 white squash: 3 yellow squash: 1 green squash is obtained



#### 6. Chi-squared test

The chi-square test is used when a set of **observed results** or **observed ratio** needs to be **compared** to a set of **expected results** or a **known ratio**.

For instance, according to Mendel's laws, a 3: 1 offspring phenotypic ratio is expected (e.g. 3 purple flower plants : 1 white-flower plant) when two heterozygotes undergo a monohybrid cross. However, the actual observed numbers for the offspring of such a cross were 65 purple-flowered plants and 35 white-flowered plants. In such cases:

- What is the "goodness to fit" between the observed and expected results?
- Were the deviations (differences between observed and expected) the result of chance alone, or were they due to other factors?
- How much deviation can occur before we can conclude that something other than chance is at work, causing the observed to differ from the expected?

By carrying out the chi-square test we can make one of the following conclusions:

#### Either

■ the difference between the observed and expected results is not significant, and any difference is due to chance alone (i.e. H<sub>0</sub> is not rejected)

or

• the difference between the observed and expected results is pot significant, and any difference is due to other factors and not chance alone (i.e. H<sub>0</sub> is pot rejected)

Therefore as a student, you must know how to:

- carry out a chi-square test (which involves 5 steps), and
- determine whether to reject H<sub>0</sub> or not to reject H<sub>0</sub>.

(H<sub>0</sub> = difference between the observed and expected results is not significant, and any difference is due to chance alone)

You will be given a chi-square table and the following chi-square formula in the exams. You must know how to use the formula properly, i.e. carry out the correct mathematical operations denoted by the symbols in the formula. You will also need to know how to calculate the degree of freedom in order to use the chi-square table.

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

This is the chi-square formula which you need to use to calculate the chi-square value ( $\chi^2$ ).

 $\Sigma$  = summation, **O** = observed value, **E** = expected value

$$df = n - 1$$

You will also need to calculate the degrees of freedom (df),

where n = the number of phenotype classes.



#### STEPS in carrying out a chi-square test:

Notes to self

Step 1: Determine the expected offspring phenotypic ratio.

Step 2: Calculate the  $\chi^2$  value.

Step 3: Determine the degrees of freedom (df).

Step 4: Determine "p", using the df and  $\chi^2$  value and chi-square table.

Step 5: Reject or do not reject H<sub>0</sub> based on 5% significance level. Draw your conclusion.

#### Example:

A homozygous white flowered, long-stemmed tobacco plant, *Nicotiana affinis* was crossed with a homozygous pink flowered, short-stemmed plant. The  $F_1$  generation had white flowers and long stems. When the  $F_1$  generation was crossed with recessive tester stock, the following progeny were obtained:

51 white flowered, long-stemmed plants,

46 white flowered, short-stemmed plants,

49 pink flowered, long-stemmed plants,

44 pinked flowered, short-stemmed plants,

Do the results indicate that the inheritance of the genes for flower colour and stem length follow Mendel's laws? Explain, using  $\chi^2$ -test to support your answer.

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

 E	$\mathbf{D}$

Where
O = observed value;
E = expected value;
$\Sigma$ = sum of

#### Distribution of χ<sup>2</sup>

degrees of	probability, p				
freedom	0.10	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.001
1	2.71	3.84	5.41	6.64	10.83
2	4.61	5.99	7.82	9.21	13.82
3	6.25	7.82	9.84	11.35	16.27
4	7.78	9.49	11.67	13.28	18.47

#### Step 1: Determine the expected offspring phenotypic ratio

The expected offspring phenotype ratio is:

1 white flowered, long-stemmed plant: 1 white flowered, short-stemmed plant:

1 pink flowered, long-stemmed plant : 1 pink flowered, short-stemmed plant



#### Step 2: Calculate the $\chi^2$ value

Notes to self

Total number of offspring = 51 + 46 + 49 + 44 = 190

Expected frequency = 190÷ 4 = 47.5

(since we expect equal numbers of offspring for each class of phenotype)

offspring phenotype	Observed frequency (O)	Expected frequency (E)	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> / E
white flowered, long-stemmed plants	51	47.5	$(51-47.5)^2 \div 47.5 = 0.258$
white flowered, short- stemmed plants	46	47.5	$(46-47.5)^2 \div 47.5 = 0.0474$
pink flowered, long-stemmed plants	49	47.5	$(49-47.5)^2 \div 47.5$ $= 0.0474$
pinked flowered, short- stemmed plants	44	47.5	$(44-47.5)^2 \div 47.5$ $= 0.258$

$$\chi^2 = 0.61$$

#### Step 3: Determine the degrees of freedom (df)

$$df = n - 1 = 4 - 1 = 3$$

(where n = number of classes)

## Step 4: Determine "p", using the df and $\chi^2$ value to check against the chi-square table

With df = 3 and  $\chi^2$  value of 0.61, p > 0.1

### Step 5: Reject or do not reject H<sub>0</sub> based on 5% significance level. Draw your conclusion.

Since p > 0.05 at 5% significance level, do not reject Ho.

(The probability is very high that any difference is due to chance)

There is **no significant difference** between the observed and expected results. Any difference is due to **chance alone**.

(Note: Lack of evidence against a hypothesis is not evidence for the hypothesis being true. Therefore we cannot say that we accept  $H_0$ . We can only conclude that there is not have enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis – i.e. we do not reject  $H_0$ ).

On the contrary, if p < 0.05 at 5% significance level:

- H<sub>0</sub> is rejected. The difference between observed and expected results is significant and is due to other factors other than chance alone.
- Then the results indicate that the inheritance of the genes for flower colour and stem length do not follow Mendel's laws. Some other factor could have contributed to the difference between the observed and expected values.

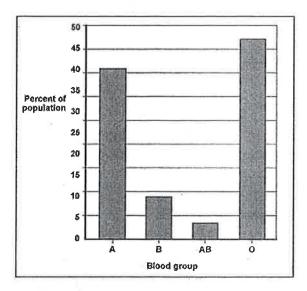


#### 7. Discontinuous Variation & Continuous Variation

#### a. Discontinuous Variation

Features:

- There are distinct and discrete phenotypes/
- Generally caused by different alleles of a single gene or a few genes.
- e.g. blood groups in the ABO system A, B, AB or O, green and yellow peas;
   wrinkled and smooth peas.



Discontinuous (discrete) variation showing the percentage of individuals in a population with four different (discrete) blood types.

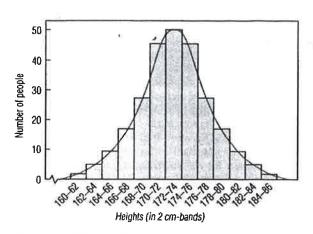


#### b. Continuous Variation

#### Features:

- Differences are slight and phenotypic differences vary along a continuum in gradations. No distinct groupings are formed.
  - There is a range of phenotypes for a characteristic e.g. human exhibit continuous variation in height, weight and skin colour.

# continuous variation variation in the height of adult male humans; the results cluster quite closely around one value, and show a normal distribution (in this type of distribution the mean, median and mode values coincide); for convenience in plotting, the heights are grouped into 13 arbitrary groups, each covering a height range of 2 cm



Example of continuous variation - height of adult human males.

- Continuous variation usually is the combined effect of many genes and therefore indicates polygenic inheritance. There is an additive effect of two or more (usually many) genes on a single phenotypic character.
- Polygenic inheritance will result in a bell-shape normal distribution curve (unbroken range of phenotypes), where intermediate phenotypes are more common than extreme phenotypes.
- Phenotypes are affected by environmental factors. For example, exposure to sun, also affects the skin-colour phenotype and make the graph smooth rather than a step-like histogram.



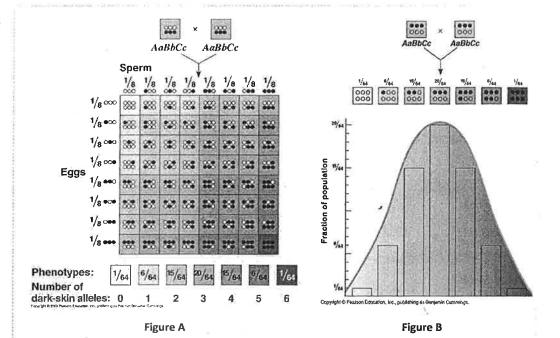


Figure A

A simplified model for the polygenic inheritance of skin colour.

According to this model three separately inherited genes affect the darkness of skin.

The heterozygous individuals (AaBbCc) represented by the two rectangles at the top of these figures carry three dark-skin alleles (black circles, which represent alleles A, B, or C) and three light-skin alleles (white circles which represent alleles a, b, or c).

A dark-skin allele for each gene (A, B, or C) contributes one "unit" of darkness to the phenotype. An individual AABBCC would be very dark, while an aabbcc individual would be very light. An AaBbCc person would have intermediate shade.

Because the alleles have a cumulative effect, the genotype AaBbCc and AABbcc would make the same genetic contribution (three units) to skin darkness.

The Punnett square shows all the possible genetic combinations in the gametes and the resulting offspring of a large number of hypothetical matings between these heterozygotes. The results are summarized by the phenotype ratios under the Punnett square.

#### Figure B

Represents a bar chart of the results, with skin colour (number of dark-skin alleles) along the x-axis and fraction of offspring along the y-axis.