

# Genes: The Heredity Code



## Glossary

TERM	DEFINITION
DNA	
enzyme	<i>a substance that acts as a catalyst for chemical reactions in living things</i>
gene	
allele	<i>an alternate form of a specific gene</i>
homozygous	
heterozygous	
dominant gene	
recessive gene	
genotype	
phenotype	
meiosis	<i>a type of cell division that yields four haploid daughter cells</i>

## Objective

In this lesson, you will \_\_\_\_\_.

## DNA Replication

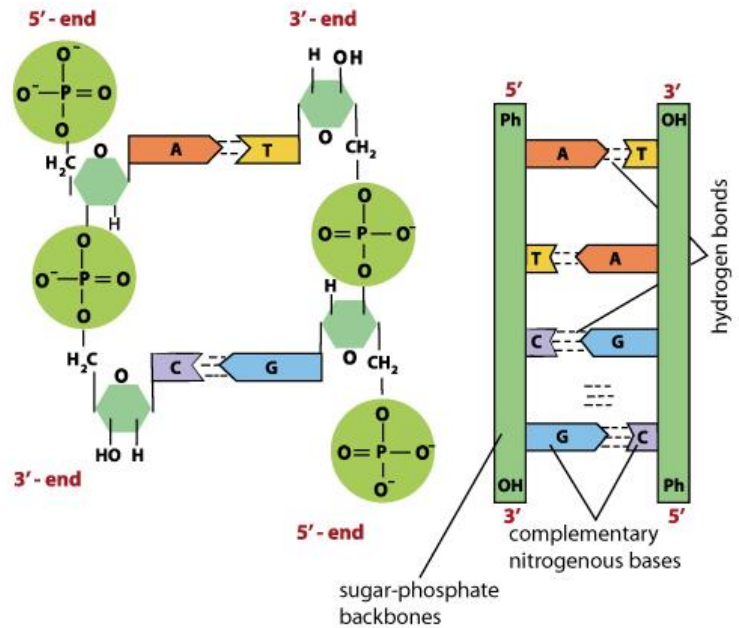
To pass on genetic information from parent to offspring or to grow new cells, a cell has to replicate its \_\_\_\_\_. DNA replication occurs near the end of \_\_\_\_\_, before cell division begins.

# DNA Structure



A DNA molecule consists of \_\_\_\_\_ polynucleotide strands that are wound around each other to form a double \_\_\_\_\_.

- Each nucleotide is made of a five-carbon sugar (\_\_\_\_\_), a phosphate group, and a \_\_\_\_\_. The base can be a purine (\_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_) or a pyrimidine (\_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_).
- The \_\_\_\_\_ group and the sugar form the backbone; the bases form the \_\_\_\_\_.
- The two strands are connected by \_\_\_\_\_ bonds between the bases. A purine always pairs with a \_\_\_\_\_.



Adenine pairs with \_\_\_\_\_, and guanine pairs with \_\_\_\_\_. This pairing is called \_\_\_\_\_ base pairing. The sequence of one strand determines the sequence of the \_\_\_\_\_.

- The two strands are antiparallel, which means they run in \_\_\_\_\_.
- The five carbons in deoxyribose are numbered such that the 3' (read as 3 \_\_\_\_\_) carbon has an OH group (called a hydroxyl) and the 5' (read as \_\_\_\_\_) carbon is attached to the \_\_\_\_\_ group. Adjacent nucleotides in a strand are held together by a bond between these groups.

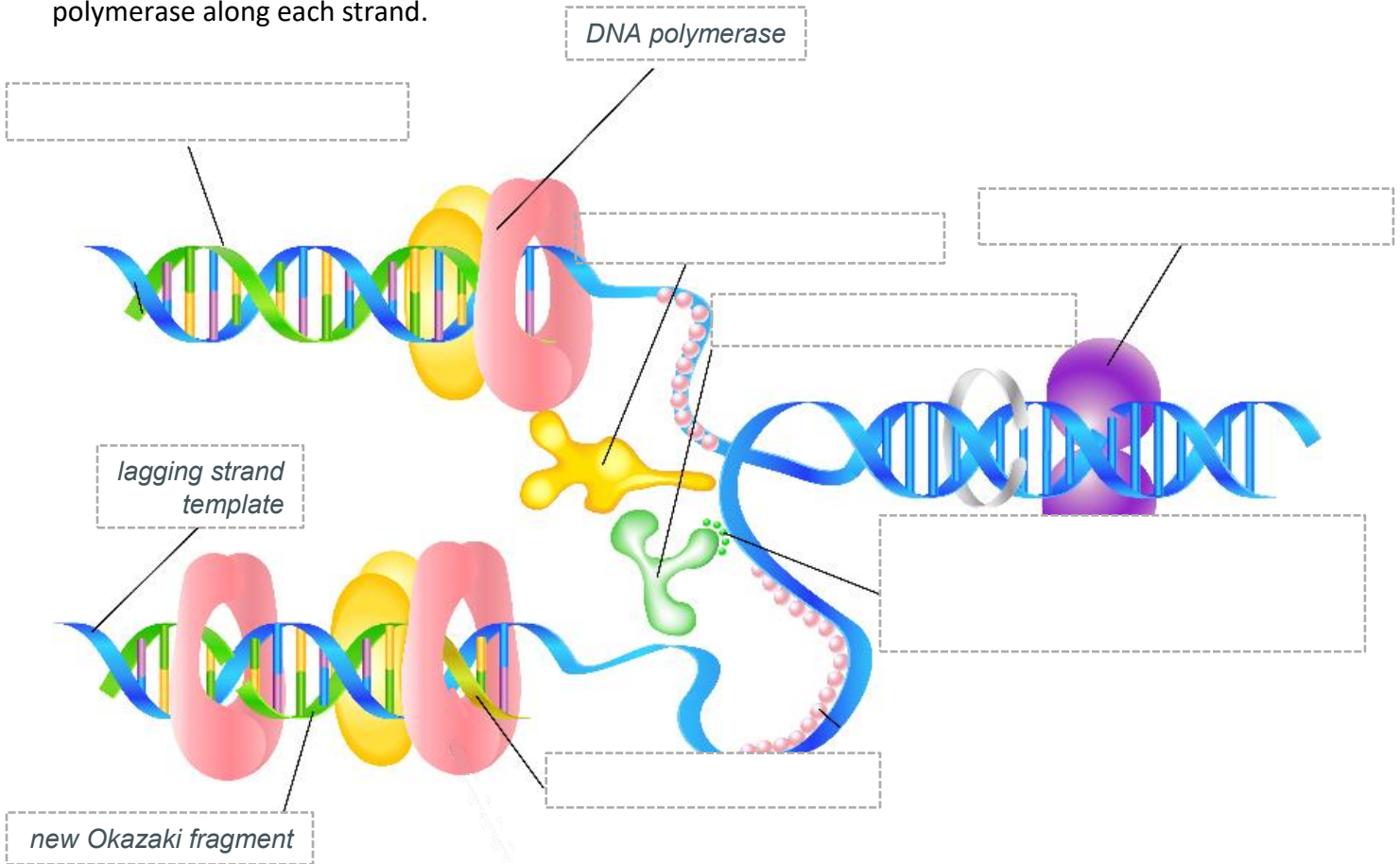
## Semiconservative Replication

When DNA is replicated, the two strands separate. Both strands then serve as a \_\_\_\_\_ for the construction of two new \_\_\_\_\_ strands. Because each of the two new molecules maintains, or conserves, one "old" strand of DNA, this process is called \_\_\_\_\_ replication. Replication has three main steps:

- Unwinding:** An enzyme called \_\_\_\_\_ unwinds the DNA for replication. As the DNA unwinds, a Y-shaped structure called the \_\_\_\_\_ is formed. Unwinding can

create tension in the DNA. The enzyme \_\_\_\_\_ relieves this tension by creating small nicks in the DNA strands, which allow the strands to rotate freely. These nicks are sealed later.

- **Base Pairing:** The replication enzyme, \_\_\_\_\_, can add new nucleotides only to the 3' end of a DNA strand. The enzyme RNA primase makes short segments (about 5 to 10 nucleotides long) called \_\_\_\_\_, which attach to the initiation points. These primers act as starting points for DNA polymerase along each strand.



On the strand that opens in the 5' to 3' direction, only one primer is needed. DNA polymerase can add nucleotides continuously along this strand, called the \_\_\_\_\_ strand.


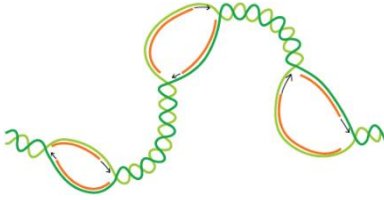
On the strand that opens in the 3' to 5' direction, however, multiple primers are needed. DNA polymerase works out from these primers in segments called \_\_\_\_\_. This strand is made one fragment at a time, so it takes longer to replicate. It is called the \_\_\_\_\_ strand.

- **Joining:** Once both the leading strand and the lagging strand have been replicated, there is some cleanup work to do. DNA polymerase removes the \_\_\_\_\_ and replaces them with \_\_\_\_\_. An enzyme called \_\_\_\_\_ seals the nicks between the new DNA and the \_\_\_\_\_.

Now there are two copies of the DNA. Before cell division can take place, the cell must make sure the new strands don't contain any errors. This way, each daughter cell receives the \_\_\_\_\_ of the DNA, with all the \_\_\_\_\_ it needs to make all its proteins.

## Prokaryote and Eukaryote DNA Replication

The cellular structures of prokaryotes and eukaryotes differ, so there are also differences between the processes they use for DNA replication.

Prokaryotes	Eukaryotes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>circular DNA</i></li> <li></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li></li> <li><i>several origins of replication on each chromosome</i></li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>no nucleus, so replication takes place in the cytoplasm</i></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li></li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>simultaneous replication at several locations along the chromosome</i></li> </ul>
	

## Mendel and Gene Expression

To understand why we inherit the traits we do, we need to go back to the 1800s and look at the work of Gregor Mendel.

### Mendelian Genetics

Gregor Mendel, an Austrian monk, was one of the first scientists to systematically study patterns of inheritance. He studied the appearance and distribution of several traits in pea plants, including seed \_\_\_\_\_, seed \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_ color. Mendel studied plants that self-pollinate, meaning the \_\_\_\_\_ from the anther of a flower is transferred to the stigma of the \_\_\_\_\_ flower or another flower of the \_\_\_\_\_. He also cross-pollinated the plants, transferring the pollen of one flower to a flower from a different plant.

#### F1 and F2 Generations

In one experiment, Mendel allowed yellow-seeded plants and green-seeded plants to \_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_. He observed that yellow-seeded plants only produced offspring with \_\_\_\_\_, and green-

seeded plants only produced offspring with \_\_\_\_\_. Mendel then cross-pollinated the plants. The offspring of this cross, called the F1 or \_\_\_\_\_ generation, had all \_\_\_\_\_ seeds. However, when he allowed these plants to self-pollinate, their offspring (the \_\_\_\_\_ generation) had both \_\_\_\_\_ seeds and \_\_\_\_\_ seeds! About three times as many plants had yellow seeds as had green seeds; that is, yellow seeds and green seeds were present in a \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ ratio.



Mendel repeated this experiment, looking at other traits of the pea plant, including flower \_\_\_\_\_, pod \_\_\_\_\_, and seed \_\_\_\_\_. Only \_\_\_\_\_ trait appeared in the F1 generation, and the traits appeared in a \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ ratio in the F2 generation.

Mendel described his results in terms of dominant and recessive traits. Today, we know that \_\_\_\_\_ are responsible for traits in offspring. The two forms of each gene are called \_\_\_\_\_. If an organism has identical alleles for a gene, it is called \_\_\_\_\_ for that gene. If it has different alleles, it is called \_\_\_\_\_, or hybrid. Often, if a gene has two alleles, one allele can suppress the expression of the other allele. The \_\_\_\_\_ gene has the ability to mask the effect of the \_\_\_\_\_ gene.



In Mendel's pea plants, the \_\_\_\_\_ green \_\_\_\_\_ yellow seed color is \_\_\_\_\_ dominant \_\_\_\_\_ recessive and the \_\_\_\_\_ green \_\_\_\_\_ yellow seed color is \_\_\_\_\_ dominant \_\_\_\_\_ recessive.

A dominant allele is represented by a \_\_\_\_\_ letter, and a recessive allele is represented by a \_\_\_\_\_ letter. For seed color, \_\_\_\_\_ could represent yellow and \_\_\_\_\_ could represent green.

The \_\_\_\_\_ of an organism is its genetic makeup, the set of alleles it has inherited. This determines its \_\_\_\_\_, its observable characteristics. If an organism's genotype includes at least one dominant allele, then it will have the dominant phenotype:

- Seeds with genotype YY (\_\_\_\_\_ dominant) will have a \_\_\_\_\_ yellow \_\_\_\_\_ green phenotype.
- Seeds with genotype Yy (\_\_\_\_\_ ) will have a \_\_\_\_\_ yellow \_\_\_\_\_ green phenotype.
- Seeds with genotype yy (homozygous \_\_\_\_\_ ) will have a \_\_\_\_\_ yellow \_\_\_\_\_ green phenotype.





## Law of Segregation

To explain the phenotypic ratio he observed in the F2 generation, Mendel proposed the \_\_\_\_\_ of \_\_\_\_\_. The alleles for a trait separate during meiosis, so each gamete receives only \_\_\_\_\_ allele. Then, during fertilization, the alleles unite to form the \_\_\_\_\_ of the organism.

## Monohybrid Crosses

Recall that another name for a heterozygote is a hybrid. A monohybrid cross involves mating organisms that have \_\_\_\_\_ for a particular trait (in other words, they are heterozygous for that trait). According to the law of segregation, when a heterozygous cell of genotype  $Yy$  undergoes meiosis, one gamete will receive the \_\_\_\_\_ allele ( $Y$ ), and one will receive the \_\_\_\_\_ allele ( $y$ ).

Because fertilization is a \_\_\_\_\_ event, the alleles can recombine in any of three possible ways: the offspring can be homozygous dominant, heterozygous, or homozygous recessive. This is easiest to see in a Punnett square, a diagram that scientists use to model the outcome of a cross. The genotypes of the P generation are placed on the outsides of the grid; the inner squares show the genotypes of the offspring.

	Y	y
Y		
y		

The Punnett square shows both the genotypic and the phenotypic ratios for the offspring. For this cross, the three \_\_\_\_\_ ( $YY$ ,  $Yy$ , and  $yy$ ) are present in a \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ ratio. The two \_\_\_\_\_ (yellow and green) are present in a \_\_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_\_ ratio.

Keep in mind that a Punnett square illustrates only the \_\_\_\_\_ of each offspring inheriting a particular trait. In this case, there is a \_\_\_\_\_ chance that an offspring of this cross will have green seeds.



## Dihybrid Crosses

Once Mendel felt he understood the inheritance patterns of a single trait, he wanted to determine the patterns when two or more traits are involved. He wanted to know whether offspring inherit these traits independently of each other or as a single factor.

















## Law of Independent Assortment

The results of his two-trait experiment led Mendel to propose the law of independent assortment. As expected, when he crossed homozygous plants with round, yellow seeds with homozygous plants with

wrinkled, green seeds, all of the offspring (F1 generation) had \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ seeds. These plants were \_\_\_\_\_ for both traits, or dihybrid.

When these plants self-pollinated, he observed all four of the possible phenotypes (round and yellow, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, and wrinkled and green) in a \_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_ : \_\_\_\_ ratio.

The Punnett square for this cross shows that this ratio would be possible only if the alleles separate \_\_\_\_\_ during gamete formation. This is the law of independent assortment: \_\_\_\_\_ for \_\_\_\_\_ genes separate \_\_\_\_\_ during gamete formation.

gametes from heterozygous parent					
gametes from heterozygous parent		YR	yR	Yr	yr
	YR	 YYRR	 YyRR	 YYRr	 YyRr
	yR	 YyRR	 yyRR	 YyRr	 yyRr
	Yr	 YYRr	 YyRr	 YYrr	 Yyrr
	yr	 YyRr	 yyRr	 Yyrr	 yyrr

## Careers in Science: Epigeneticist

Epigenetics is the study of \_\_\_\_\_. It helps determine which genes are \_\_\_\_\_ and which genes are \_\_\_\_\_. Genes may be “on” or “off” because of modifications that alter the gene without changing the DNA sequence.

## Summary

How do the process of DNA replication and the laws of inheritance help cells and individuals pass on their traits?