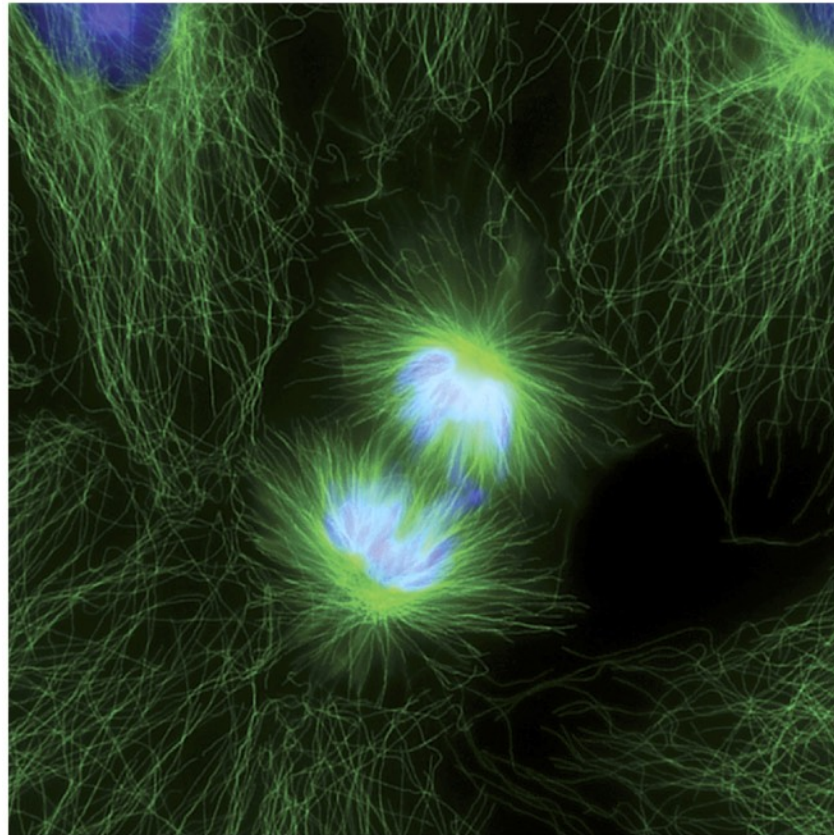


BIOL2107, Fall '23

Lecture 10



Dr. Torsten Wittmann/Science Source

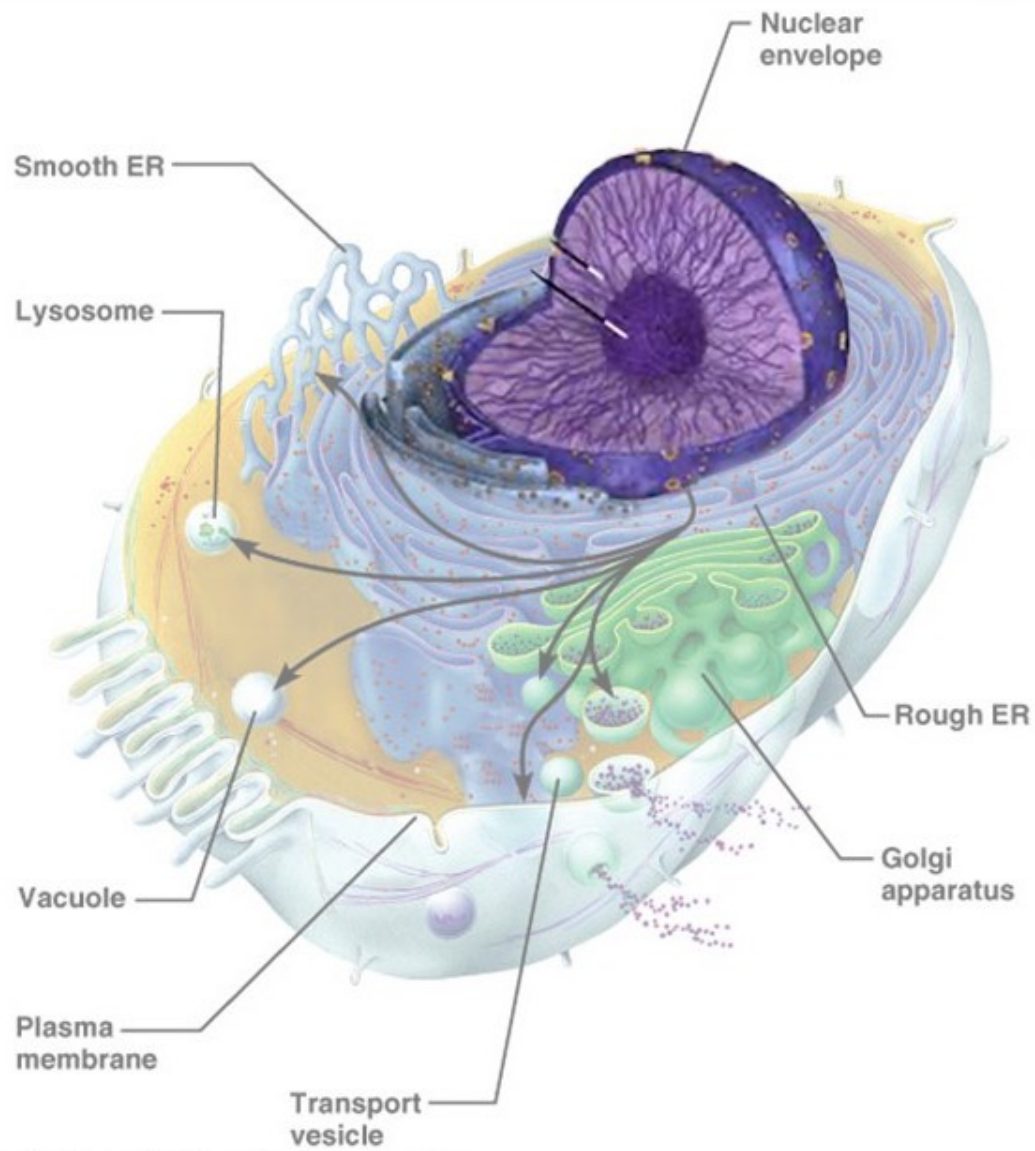
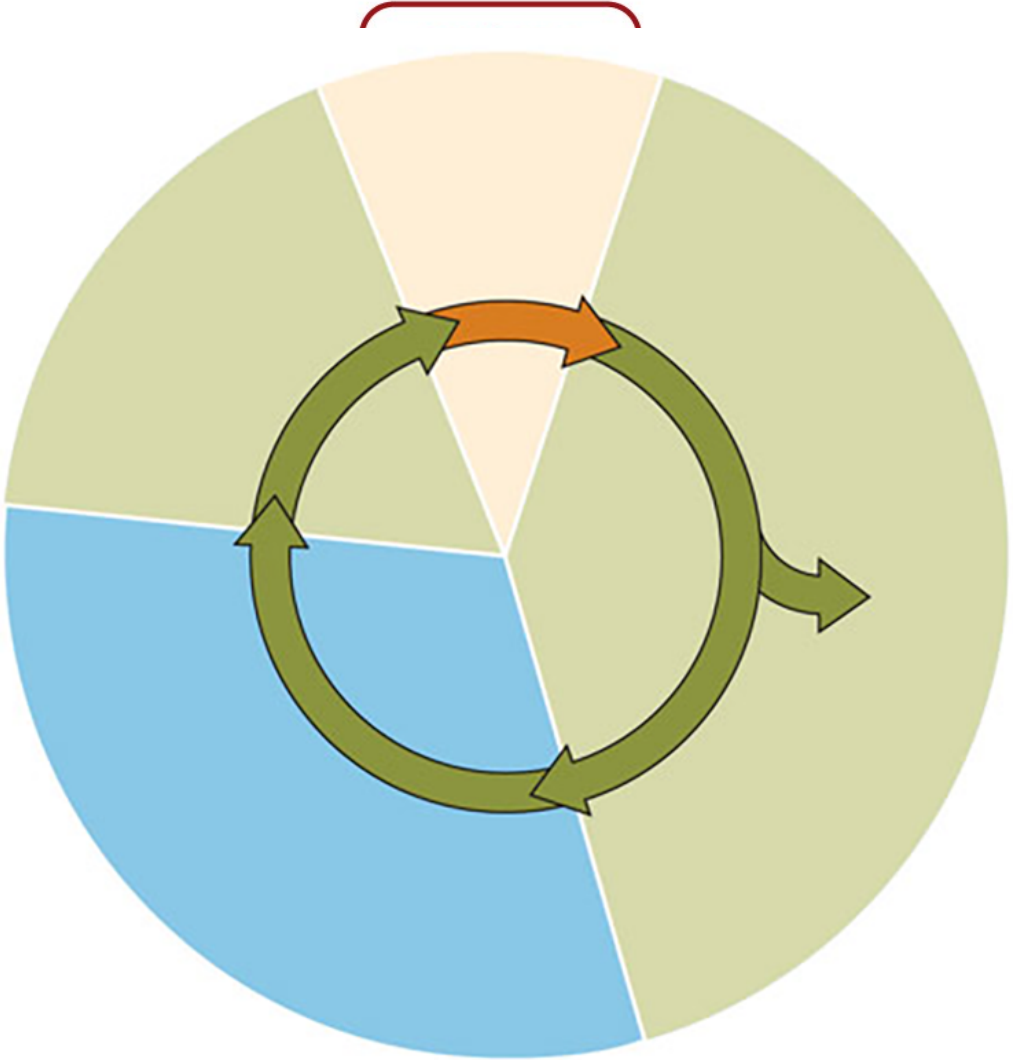
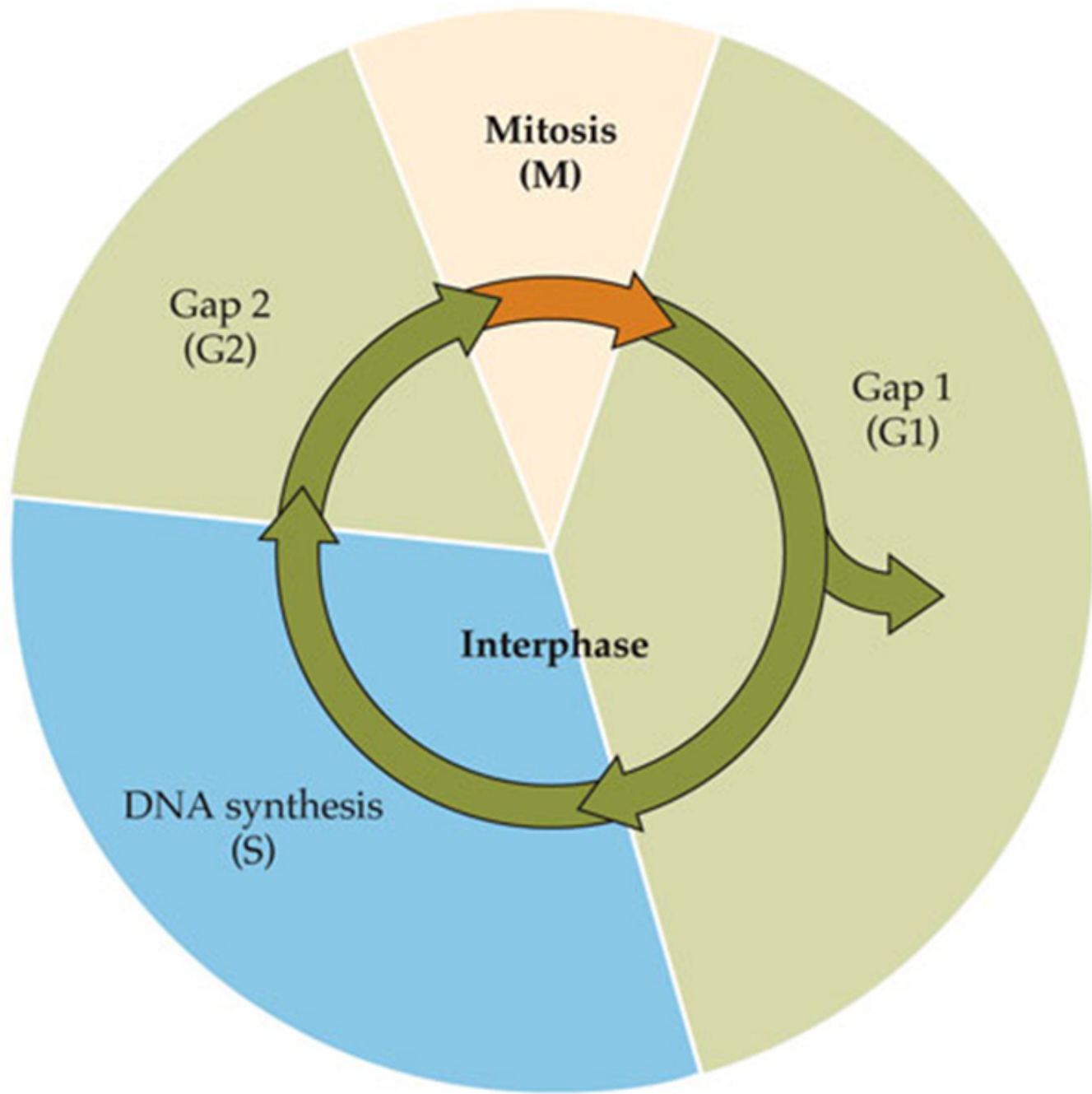
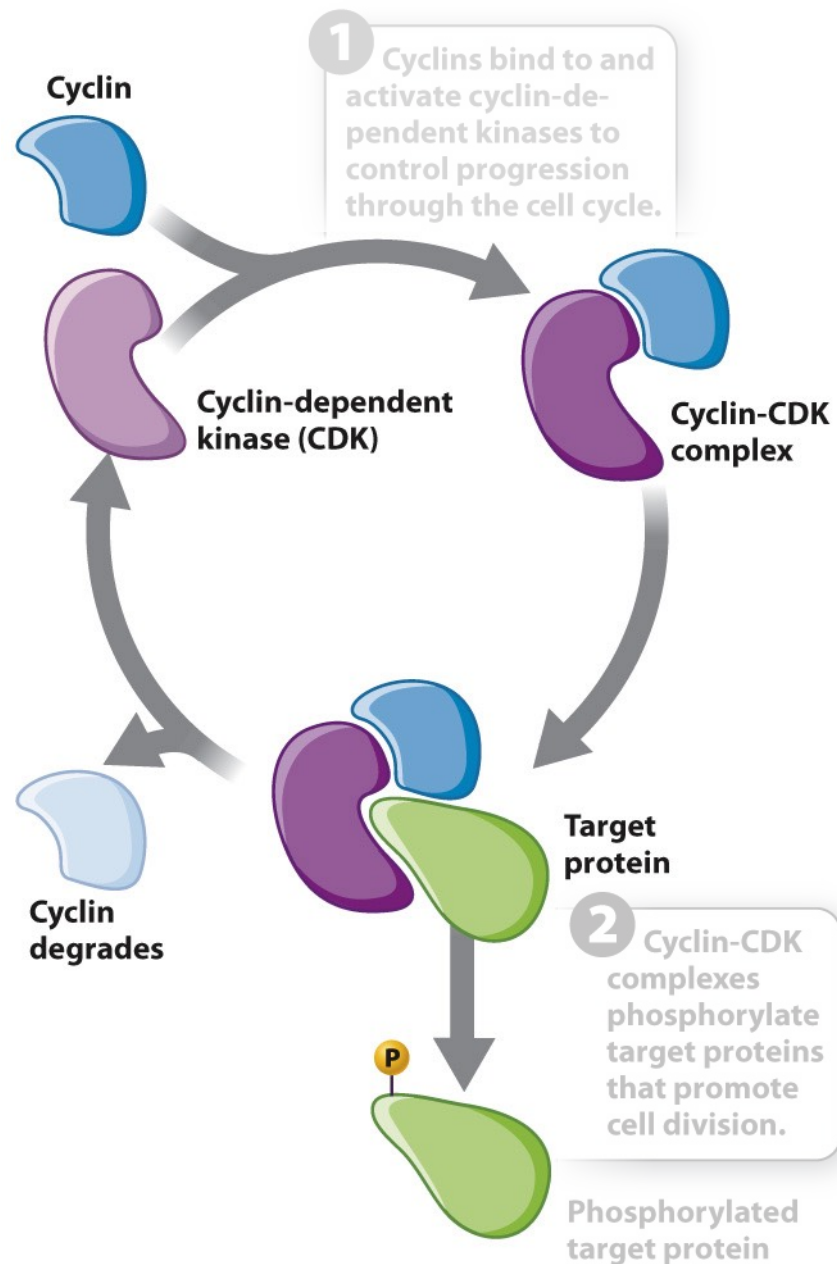
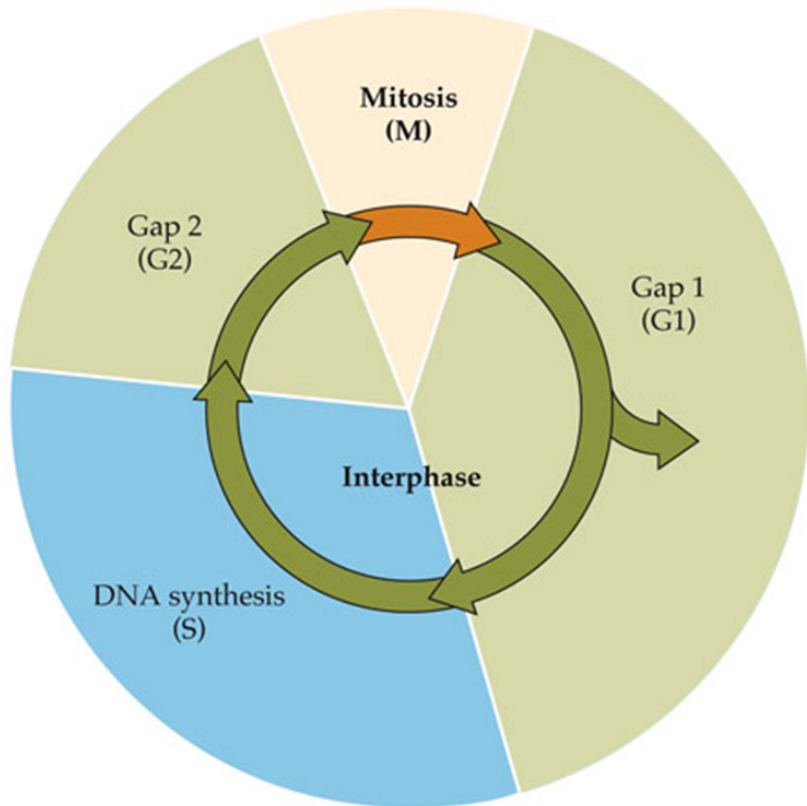
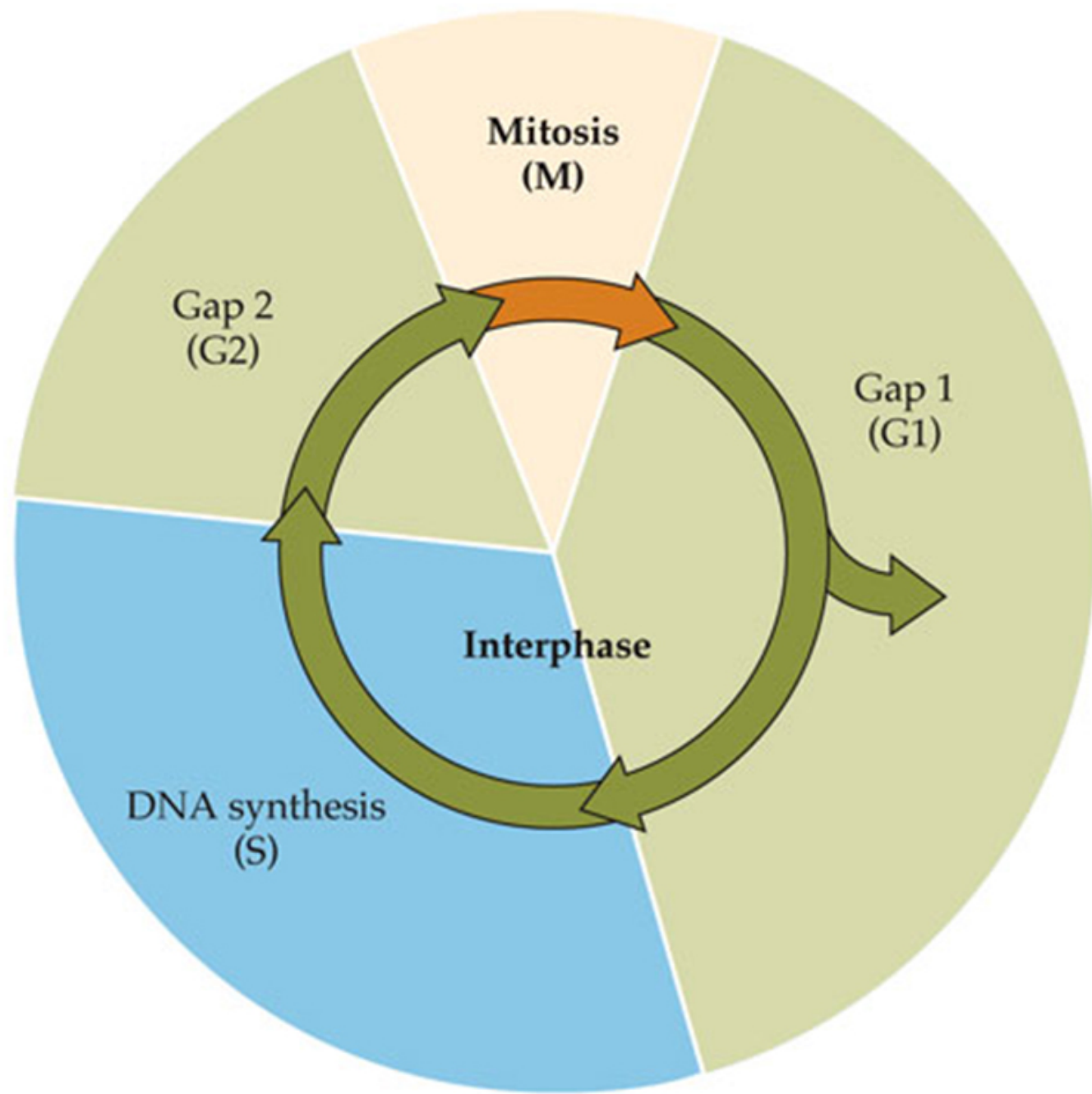


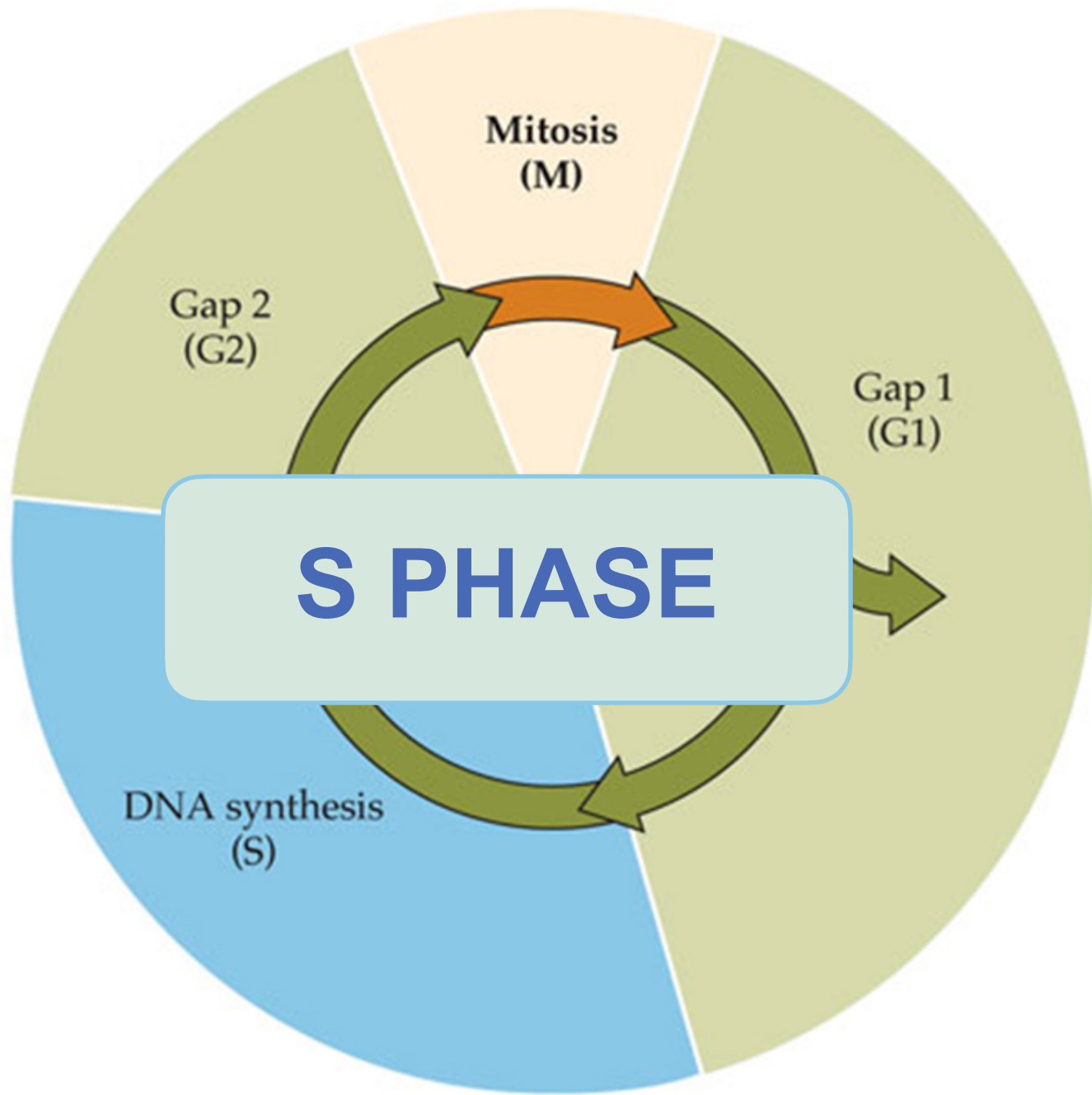
Figure 3.23



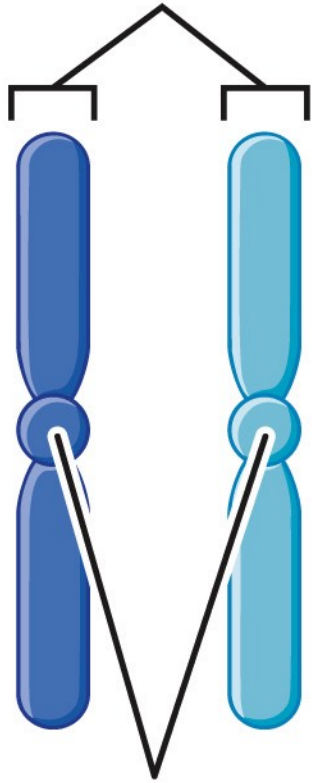








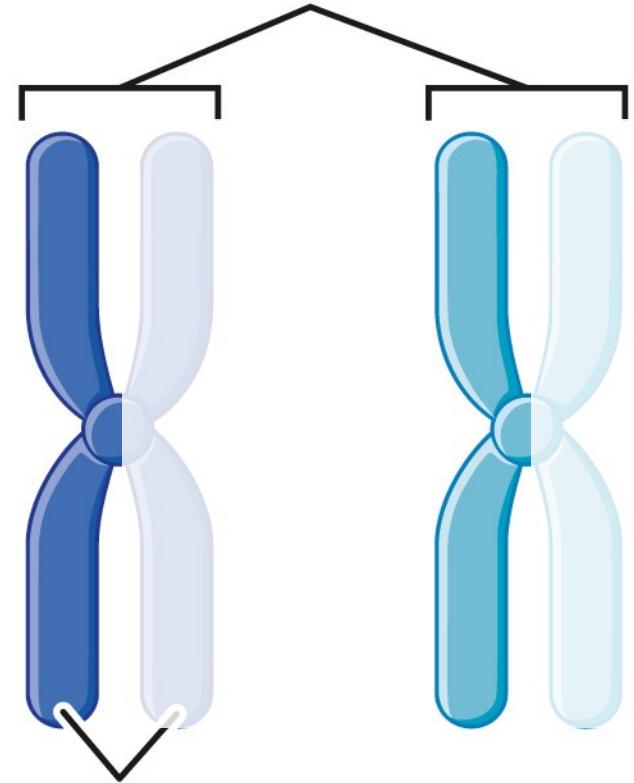
Homologous chromosomes



Centromeres

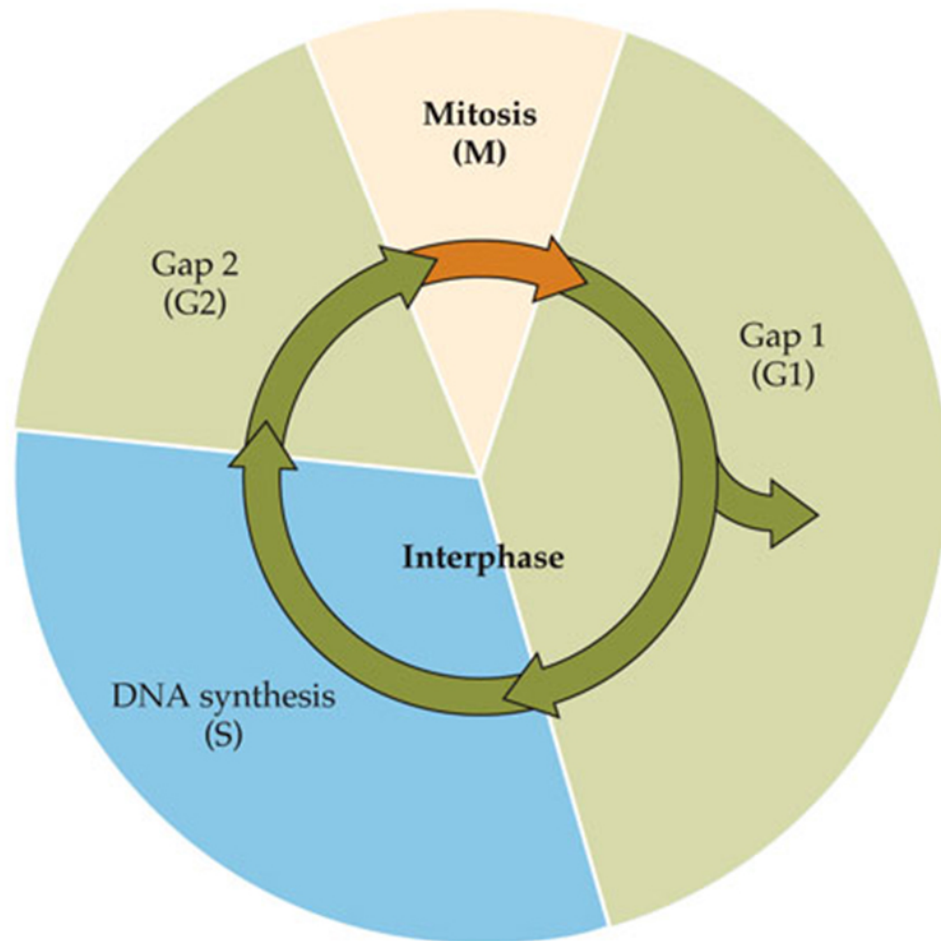


Homologous chromosomes

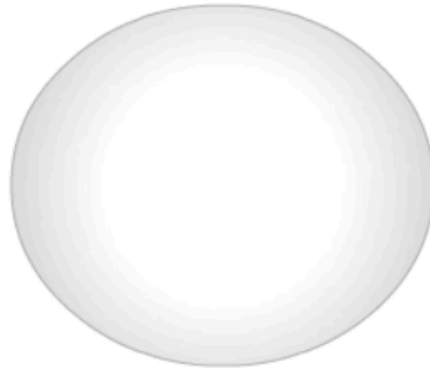


Sister chromatids

Figure 11.4
Biology: How Life Works, Second Edition
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Mitotic Cell Division



In mitotic cell division, a single parent cell divides into two daughter cells.



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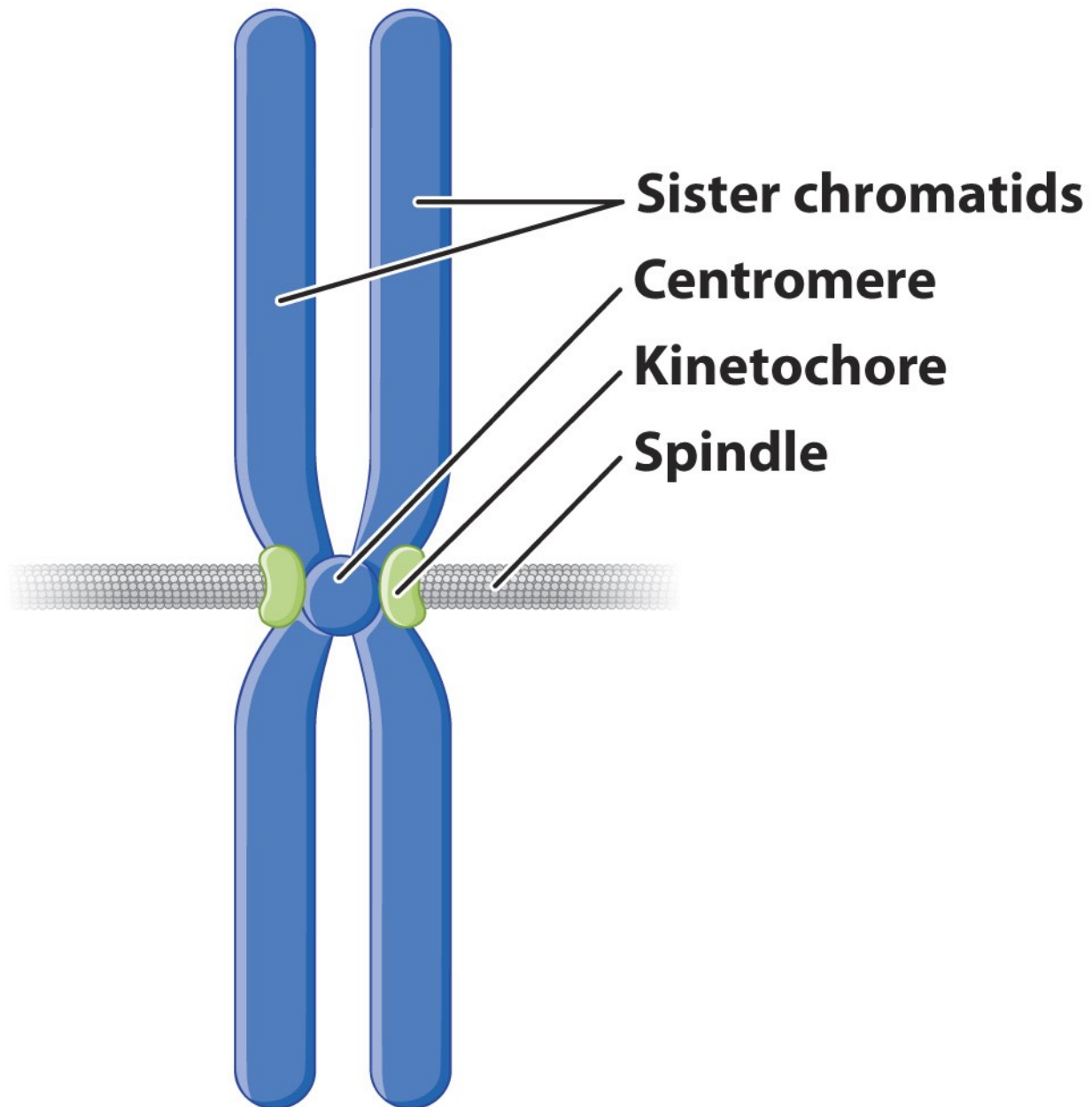
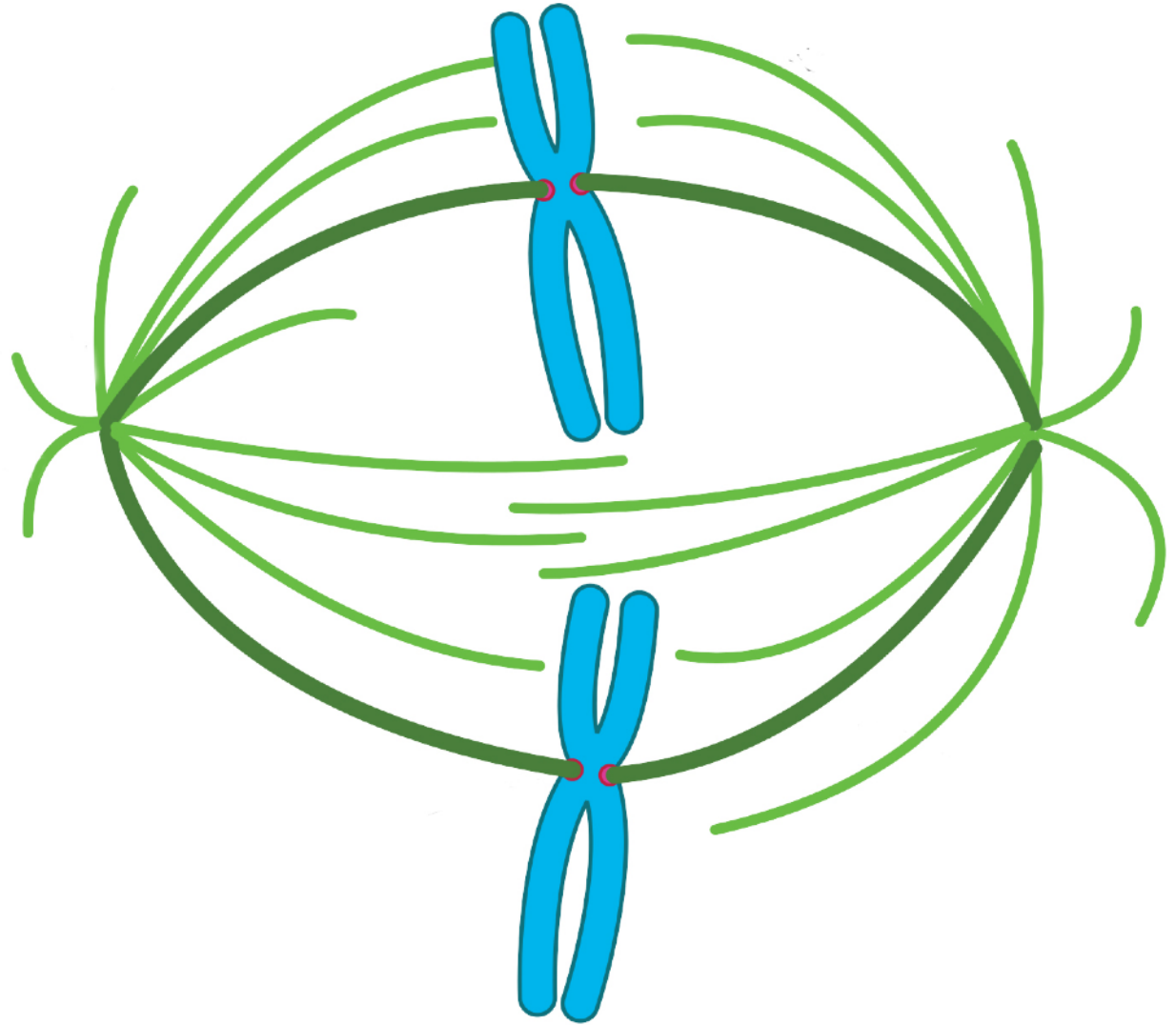
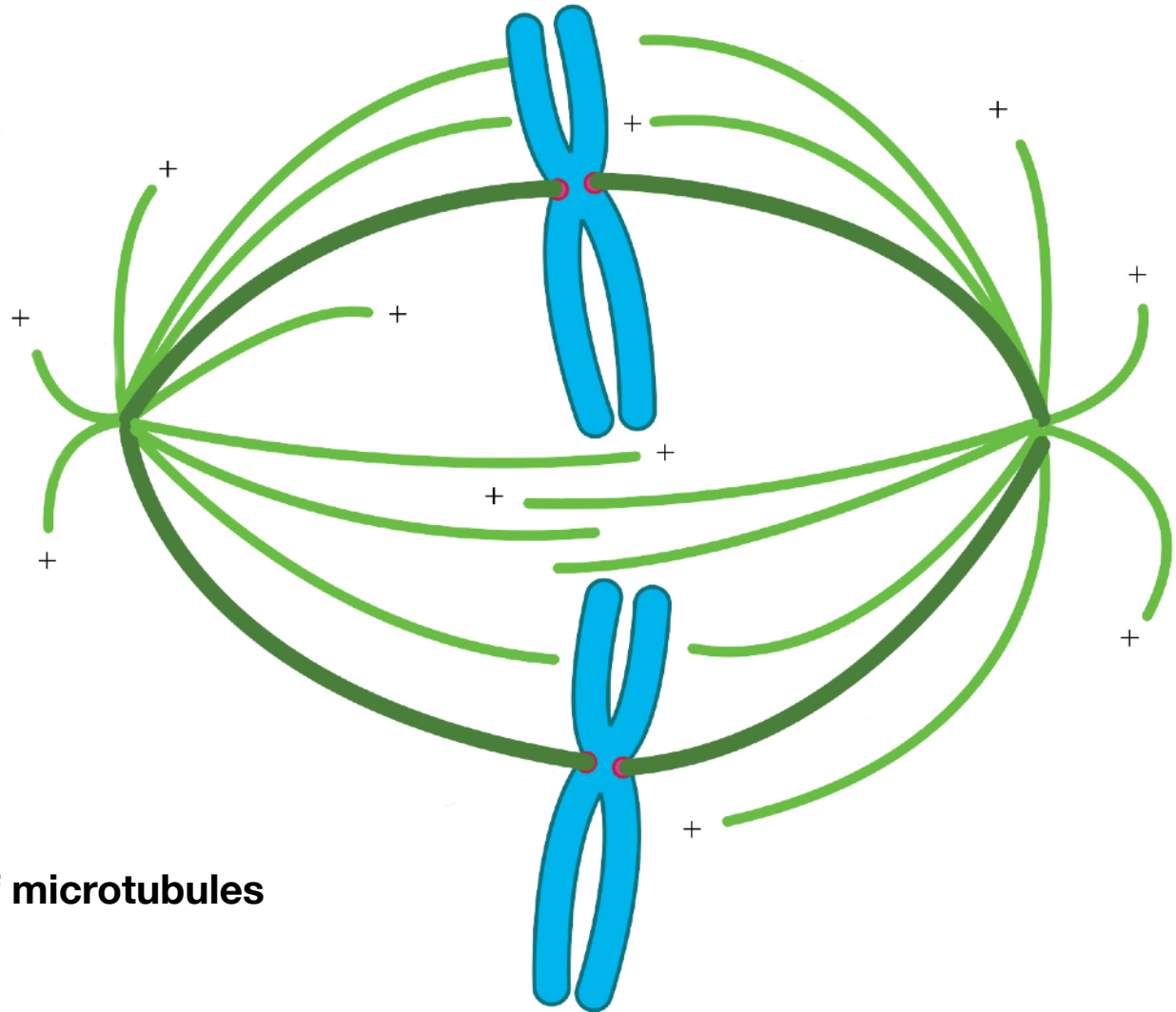


Figure 11.6

Biology: How Life Works, Second Edition

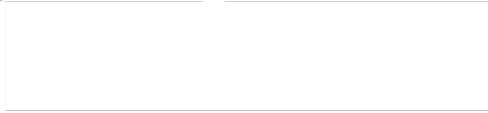
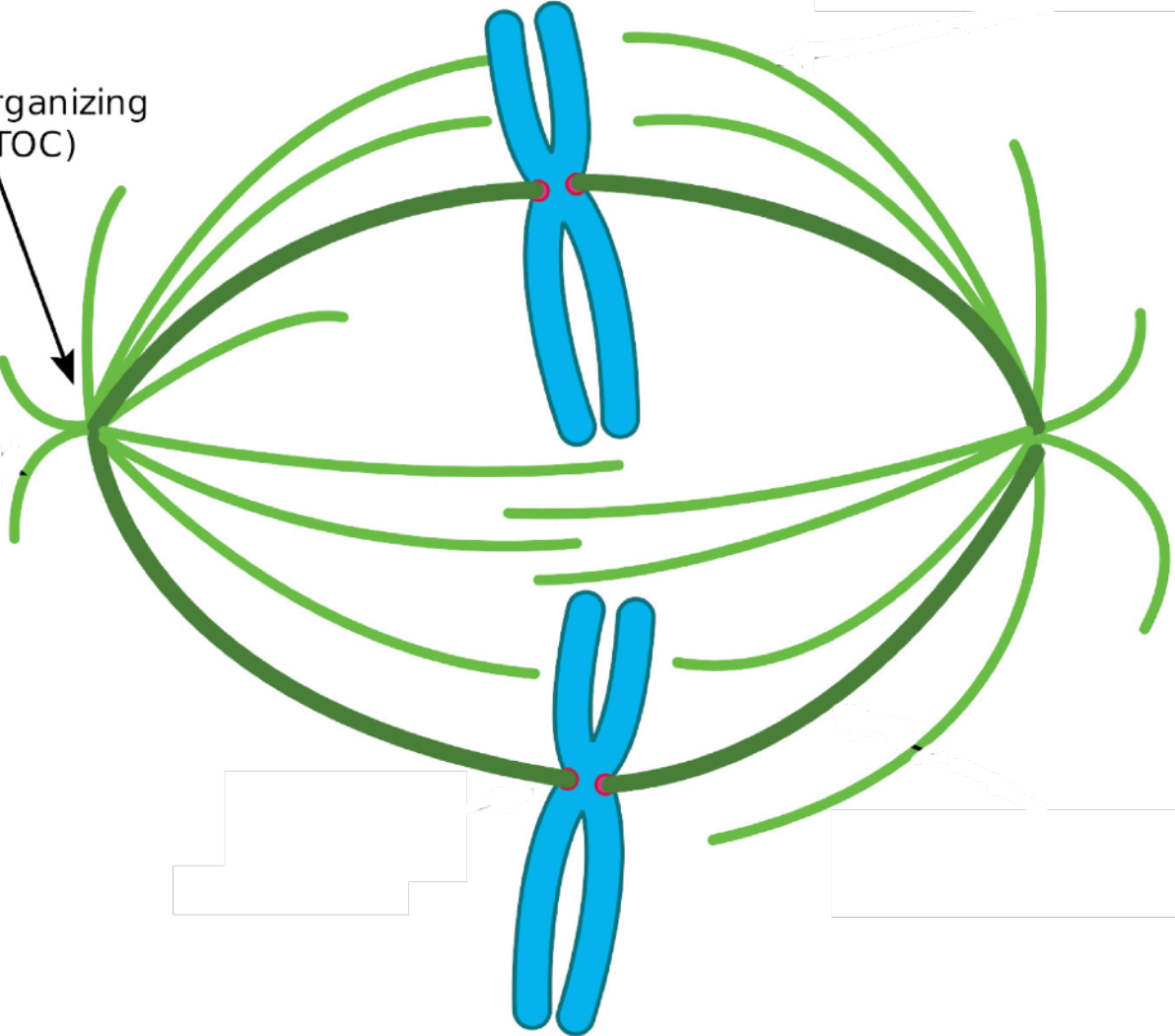
© 2016 Macmillan Education

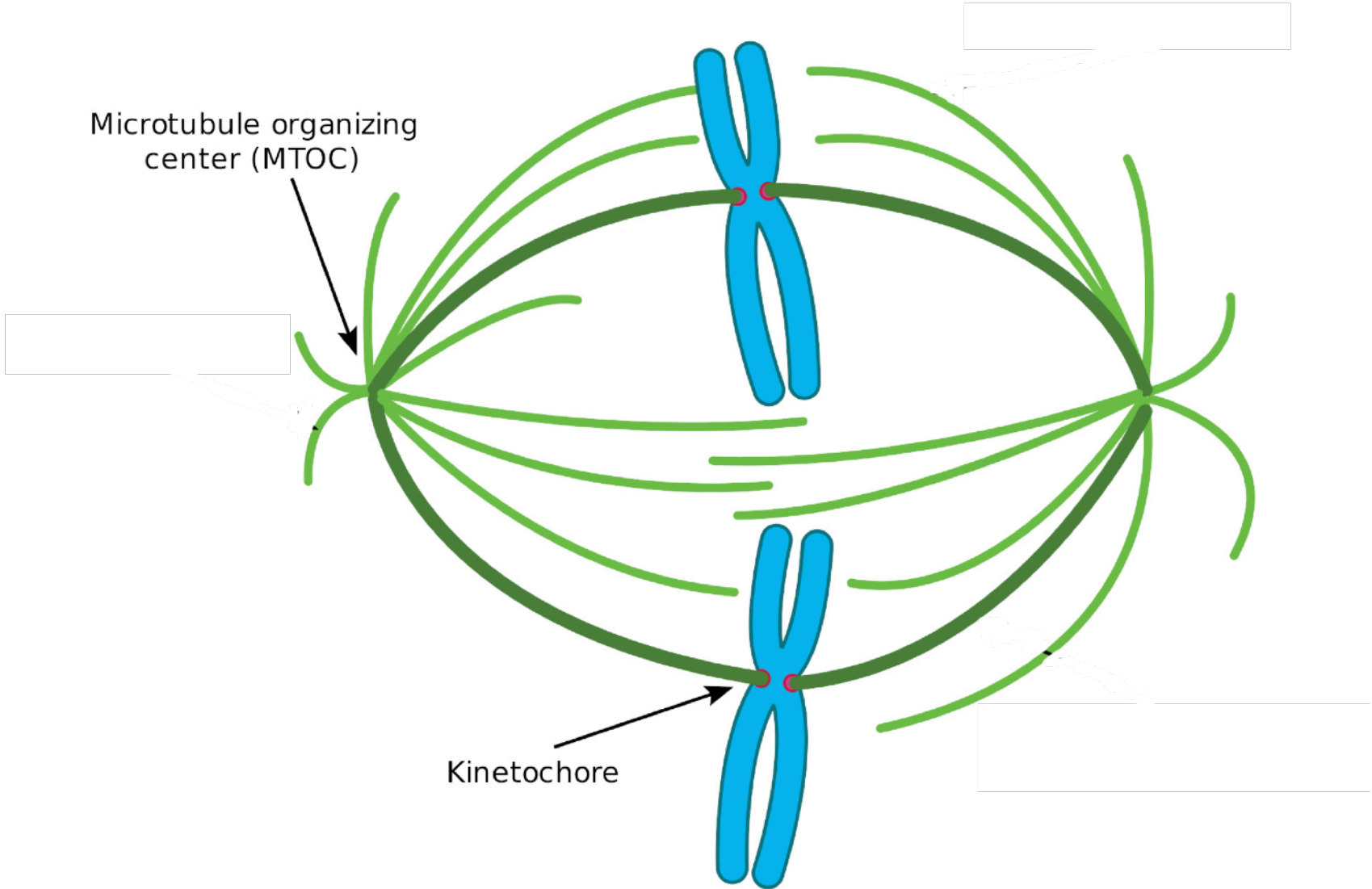


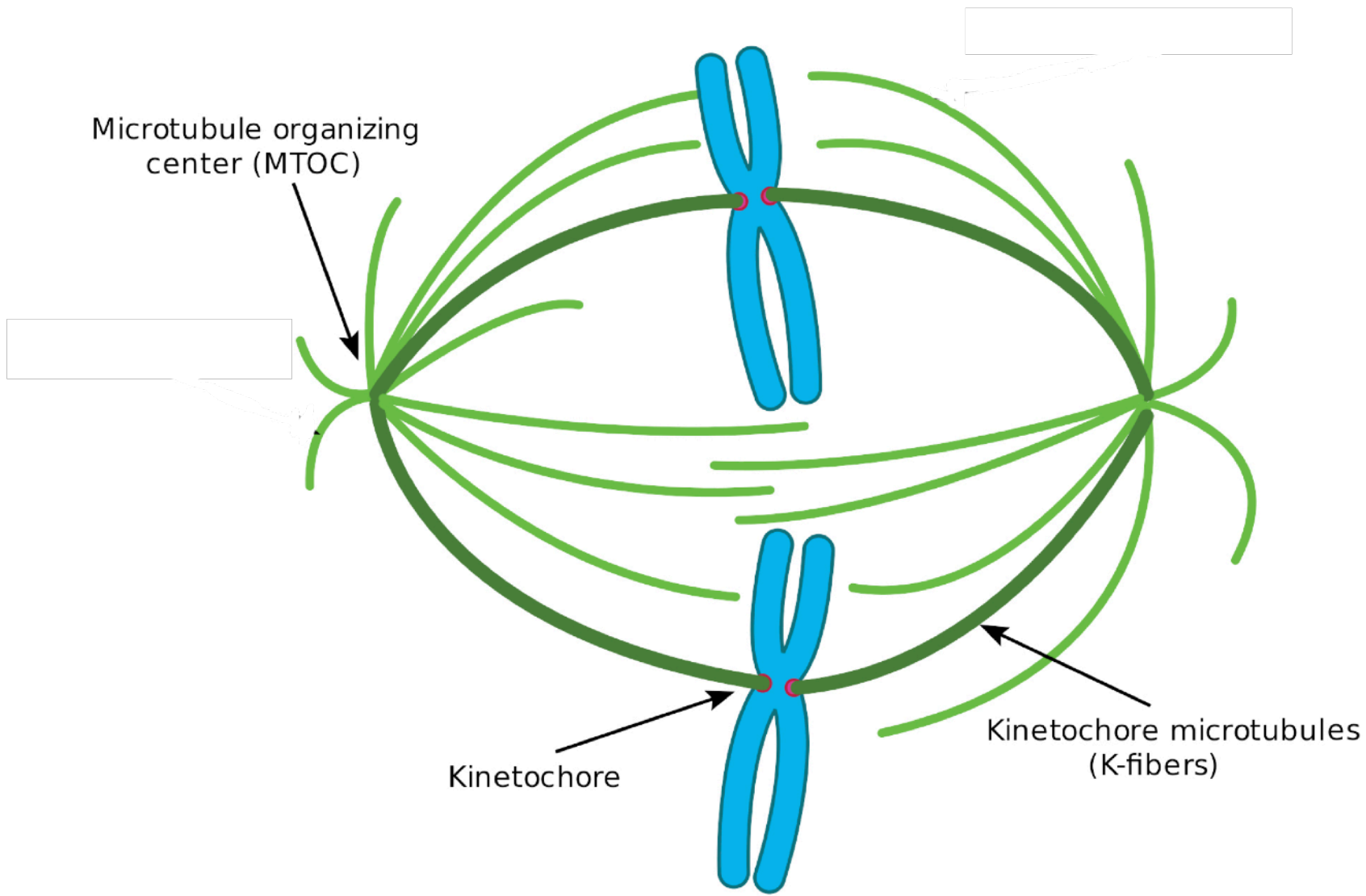


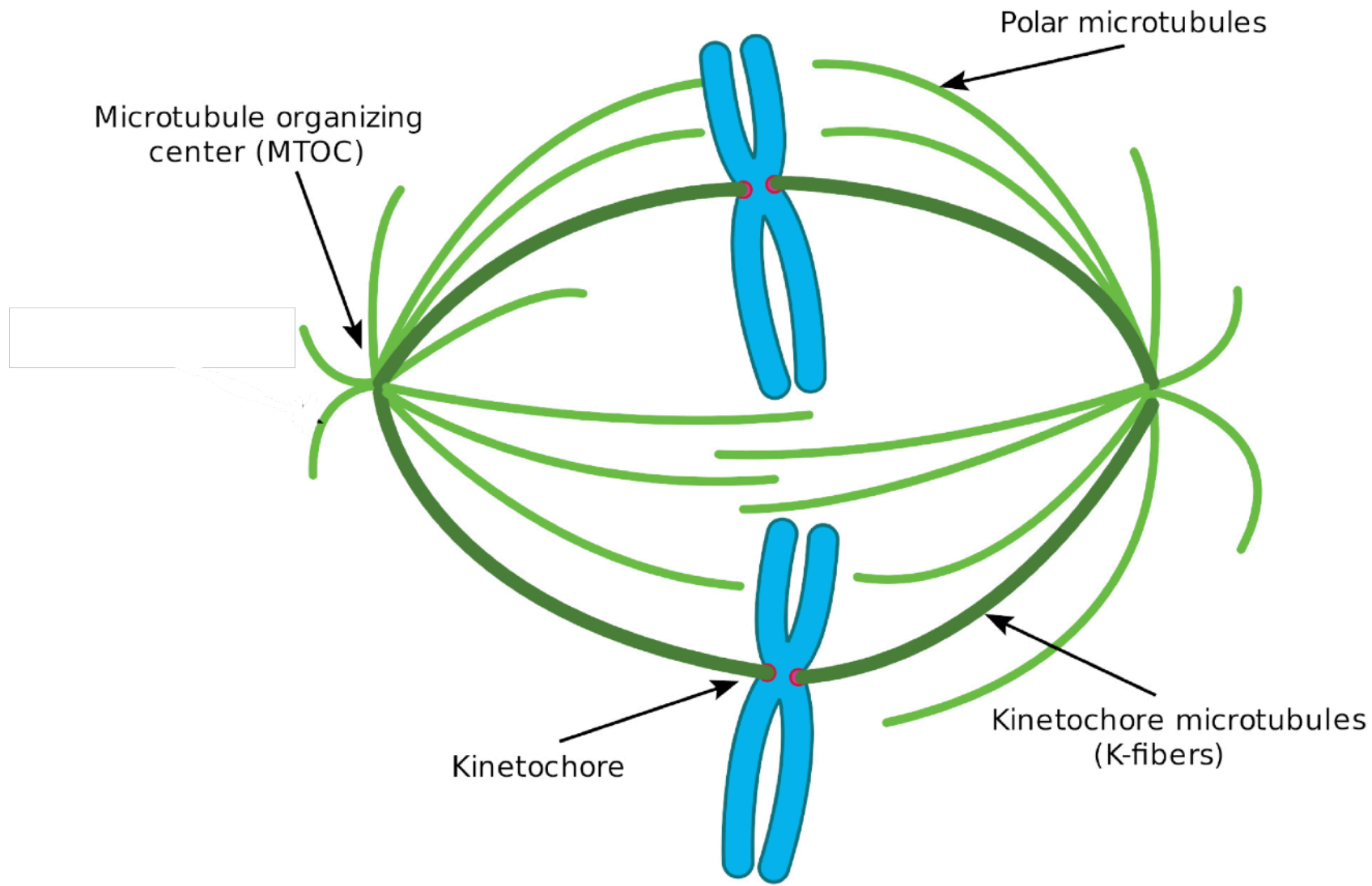
3 different kinds of microtubules

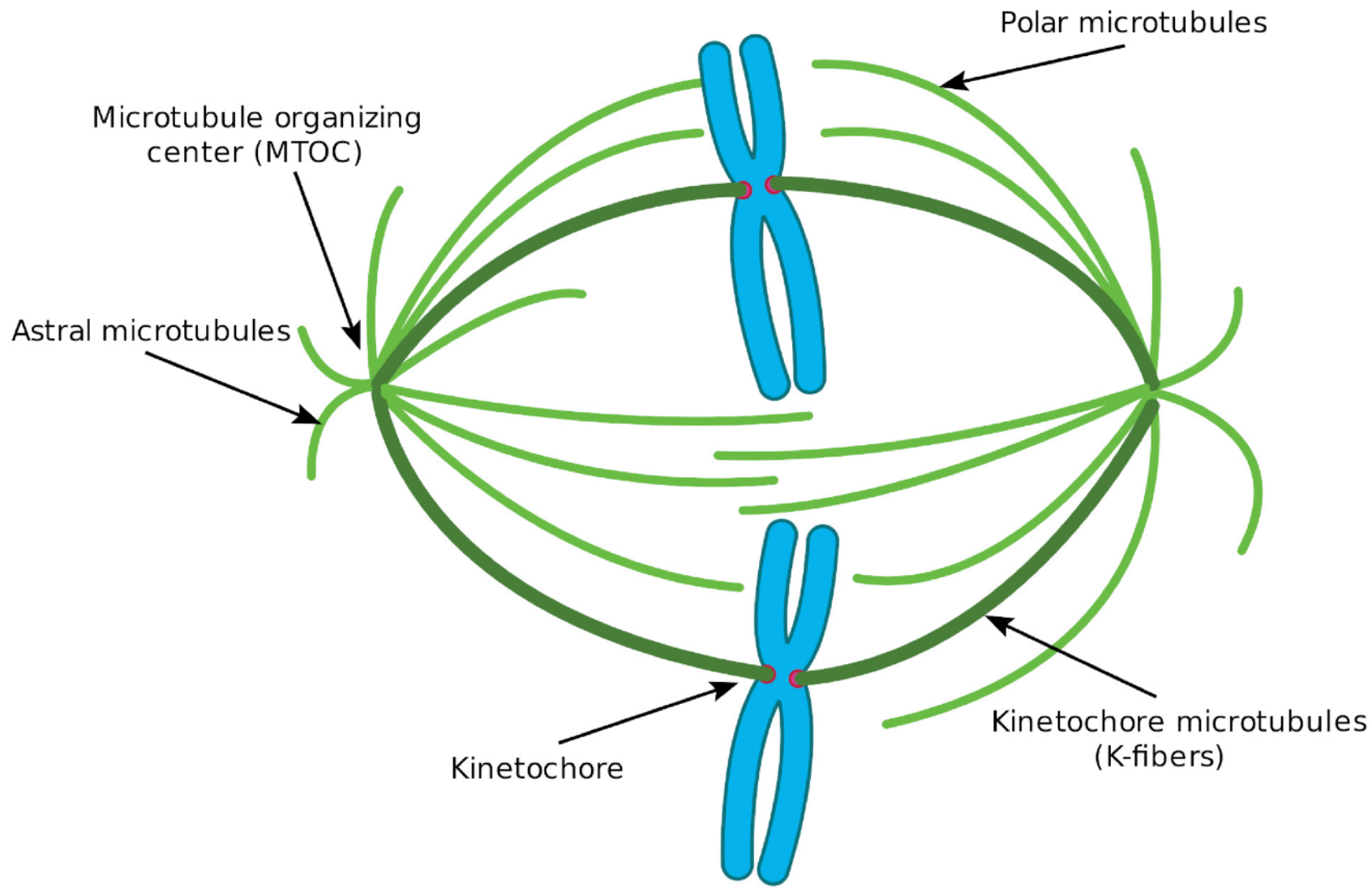
Microtubule organizing center (MTOC)



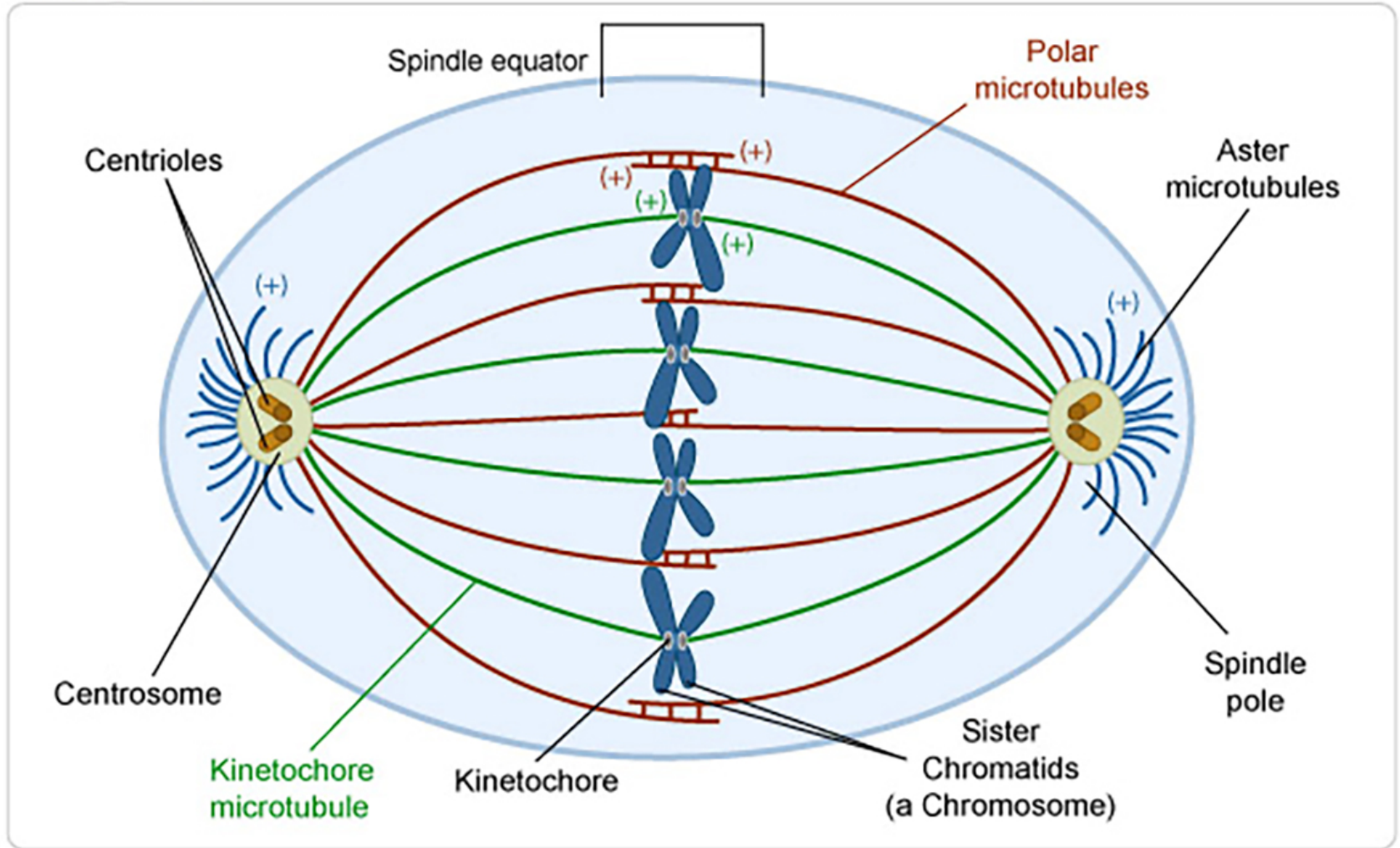








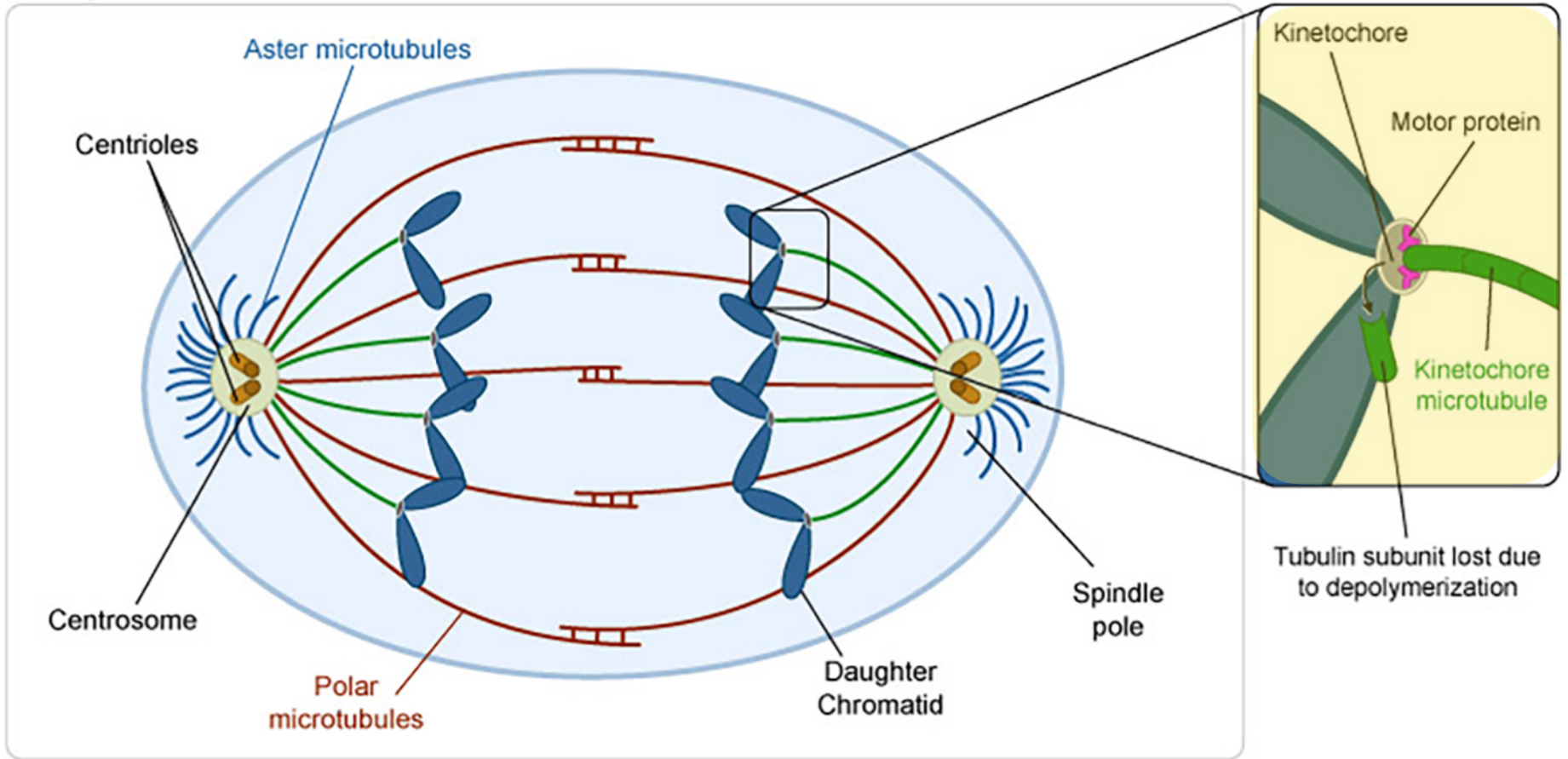
Metaphase



Dept. Biol. Penn State ©2004

Figure 2. The mitotic spindle at metaphase. At metaphase, the chromosomes align at the spindle equator. Each sister chromatid of the chromosome is attached to kinetochore microtubules (shown in green). These microtubules emanate from the centrosomes at spindle poles and attach to the chromosomes at the kinetochores (one for each sister chromatid). In addition to the kinetochore microtubules, there are two other distinct types of microtubules in the spindle: the polar microtubules (shown in red), which grow out from the centrosomes and have opposing microtubules overlapping at the spindle equator; and the aster microtubules (shown in blue), which grow out from the centrosomes toward the cortex of the cell. For all three types of microtubules, the minus ends are at the centrosomes and the plus ends (indicated as +) grow away from the centrosomes.

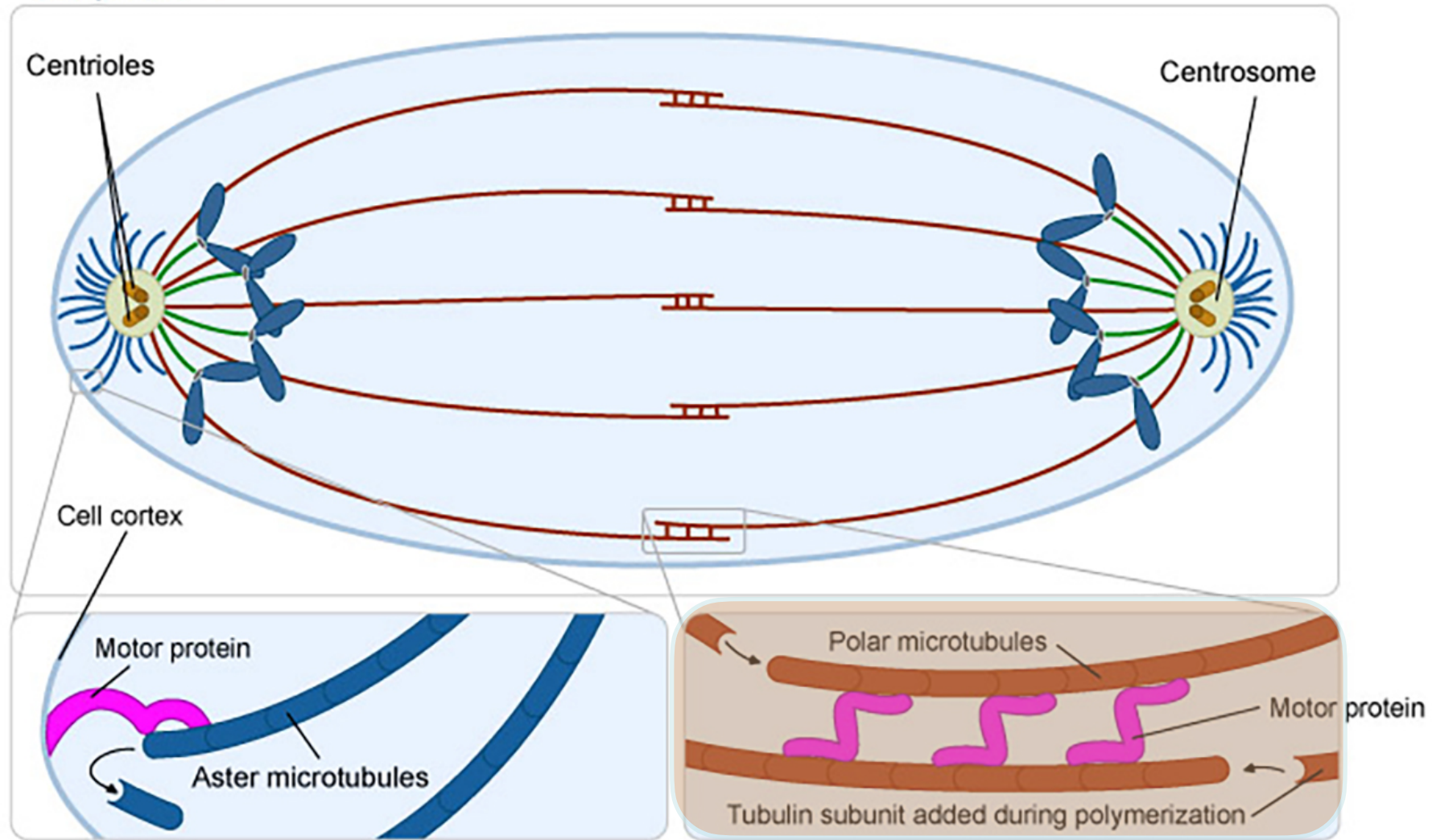
Anaphase A



Dept. Biol. Penn State ©2004

Figure 3. The mitotic spindle at anaphase A. During anaphase A, the pairs of sister chromatids are separated and move toward the spindle poles. This occurs through the action of the kinetochore microtubules (illustrated in the inset). These microtubules shorten at their plus ends, while the motor proteins attached to the kinetochores of the chromatids travel toward the minus ends; thereby, the sister chromatids remain attached to the shortening microtubules.

Anaphase B

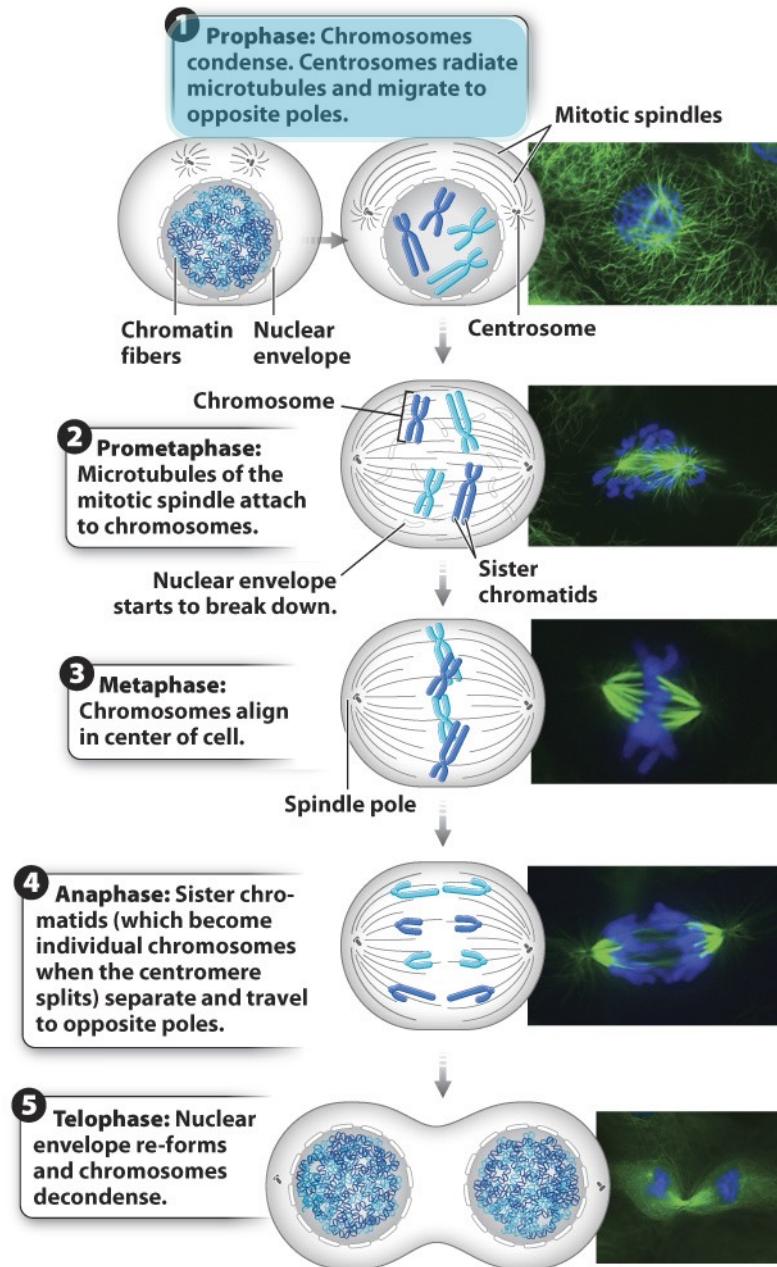


Dept. Biol. Penn State ©2004

Figure 4. The mitotic spindle at anaphase B. During anaphase B, the spindle poles move further apart. This occurs through the combined action of the polar microtubules and the aster microtubules.

The action of the polar microtubules is shown in the inset on the right. Overlapping polar microtubules grow by polymerization at their plus ends, while the cross-linked motor proteins travel toward the plus ends, thereby pushing the overlapping polar microtubules past each other and the spindle poles further apart. The action of the aster microtubules is shown in the inset to the left. The aster microtubules depolymerize at their plus ends, while the motor proteins linked to the cell's cortex travel toward the minus ends, thereby pulling the attached spindle poles closer to the cortex and further apart from each other.

MITOSIS

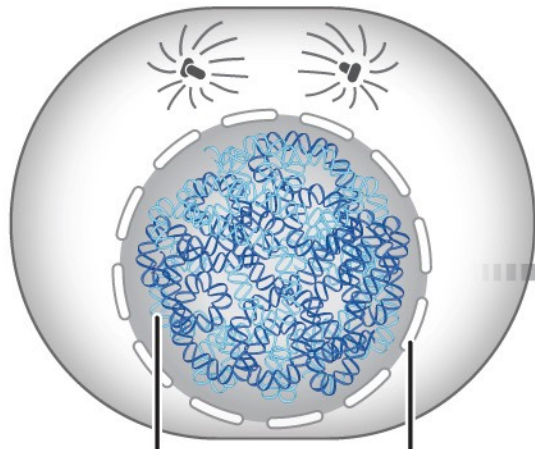


Photos: Jennifer Waters/Science Source

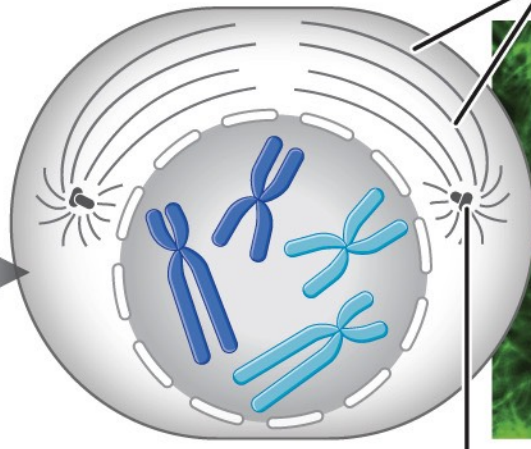
Figure 11.5
Biology: How Life Works, Second Edition
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1

Prophase: Chromosomes condense. Centrosomes radiate microtubules and migrate to opposite poles.

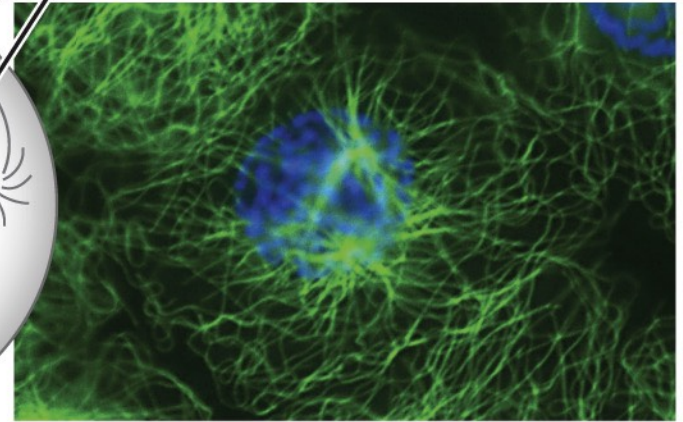


Chromatin fibers
Nuclear envelope



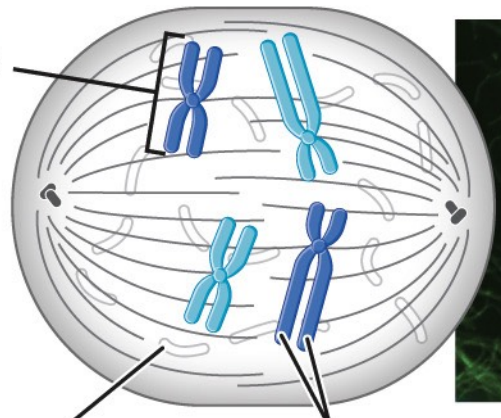
Centrosome

Mitotic spindles



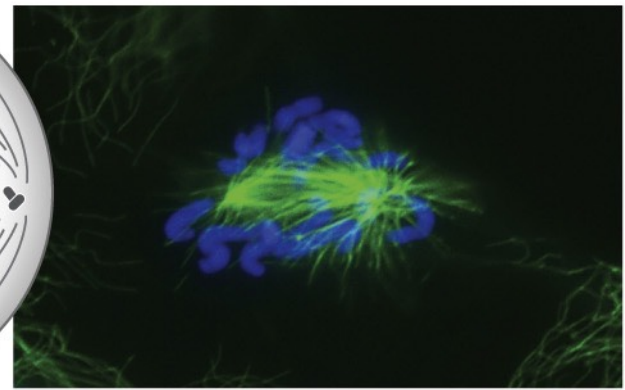
2 Prometaphase:
Microtubules of the mitotic spindle attach to chromosomes.

Nuclear envelope starts to break down.

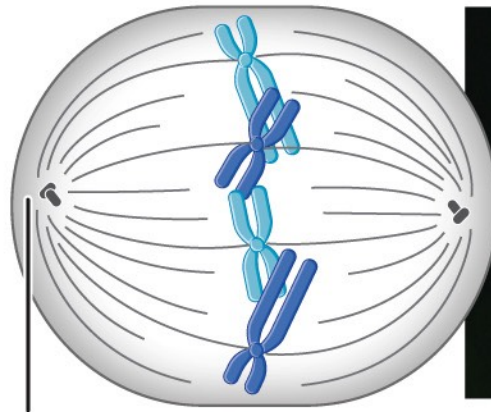


Chromosome

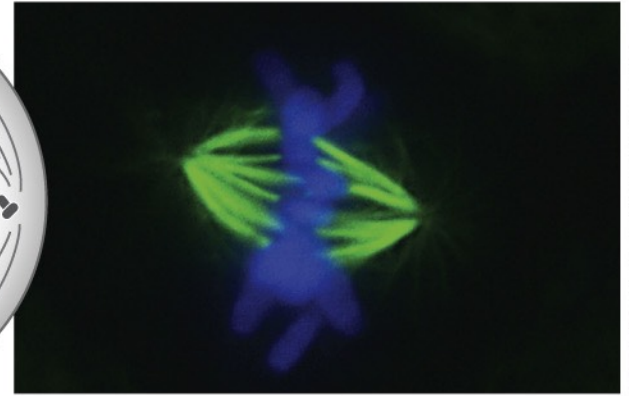
Sister chromatids



3 Metaphase:
Chromosomes align
in center of cell.



Spindle pole

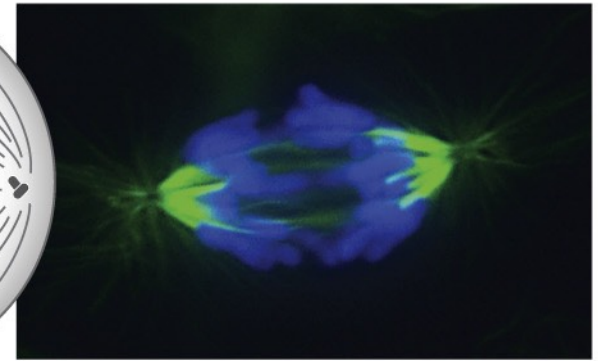
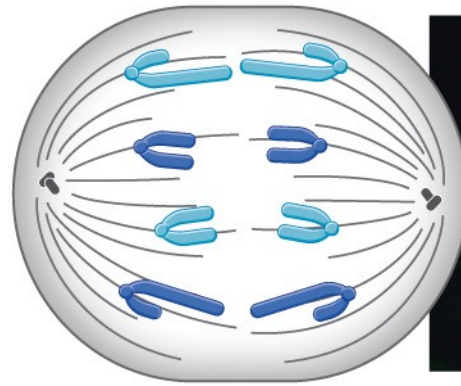


Jennifer Waters/Science Source

“single file”

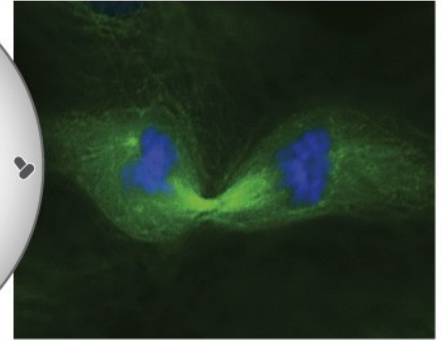
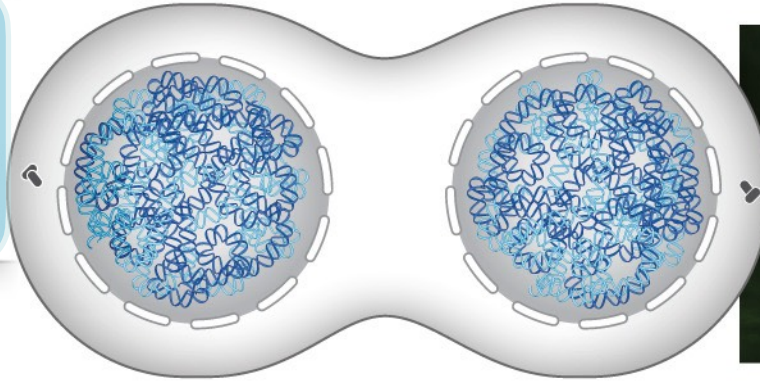
4

Anaphase: Sister chromatids (which become individual chromosomes when the centromere splits) separate and travel to opposite poles.



5

Telophase: Nuclear envelope re-forms and chromosomes decondense.



Jennifer Waters/Science Source

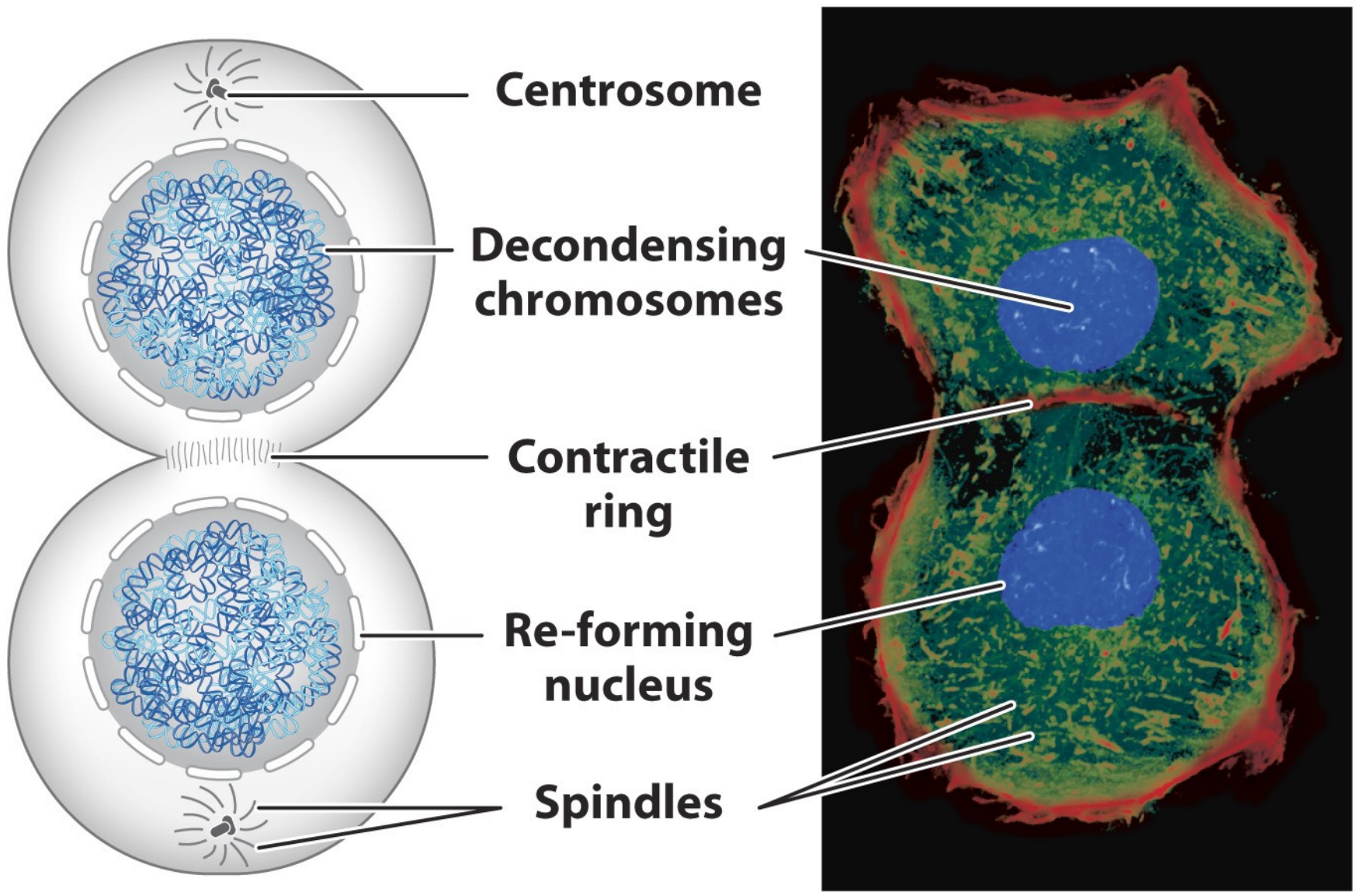


Figure 11.7a
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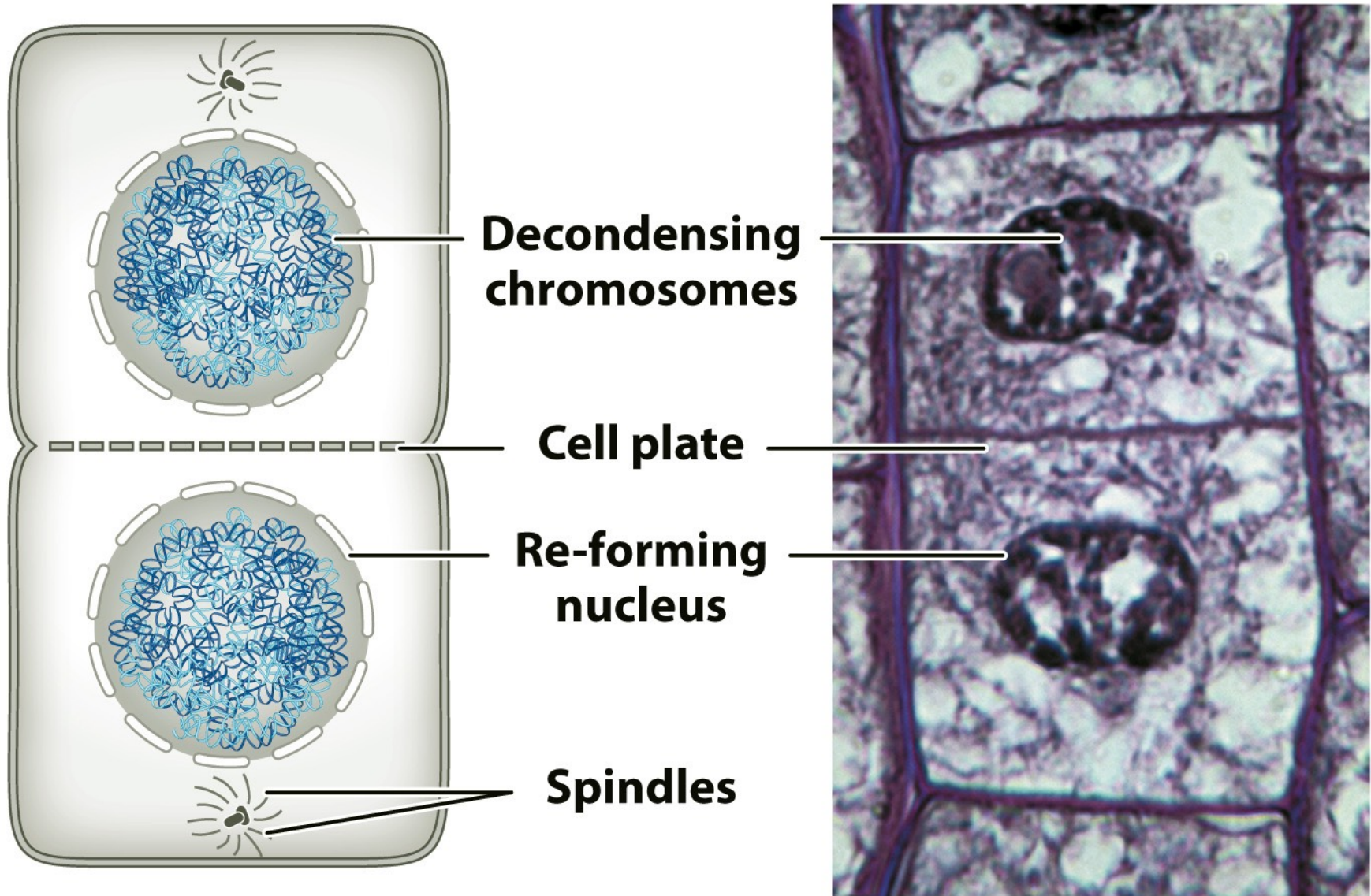
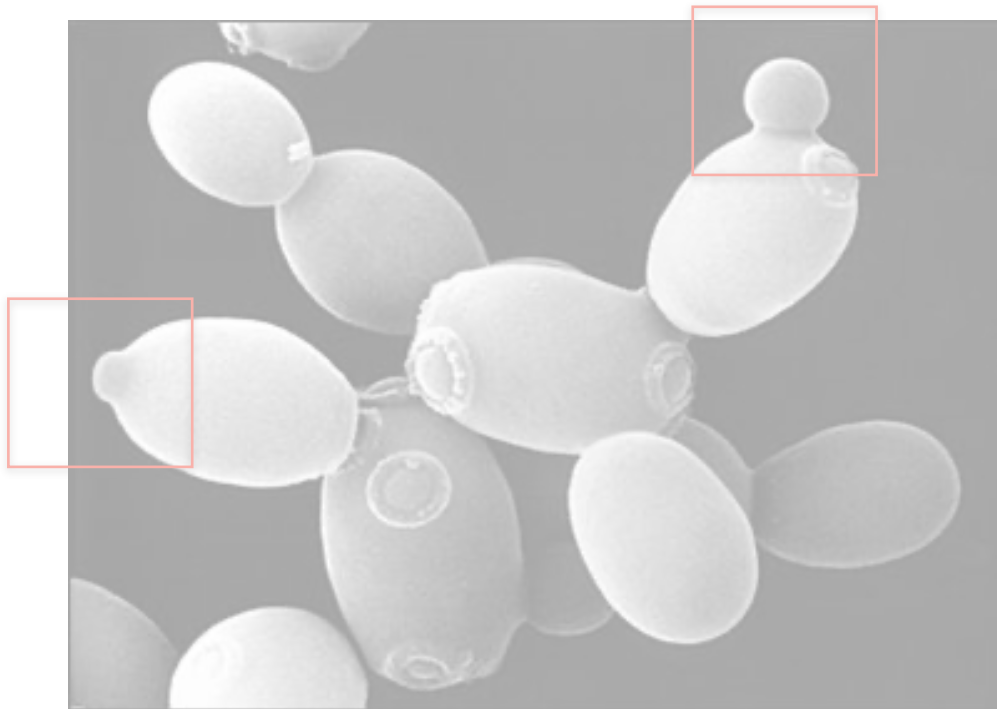


Figure 11.7b
Biology: How Life Works, Second Edition
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Mitosis: The Distribution of EXACT COPIES of Genetic Information, whereby a single cell, gives rise to two genetically “identical” cells: but more specifically, a single nucleus gives rise to two genetically “identical” nuclei, one for each of the two new daughter cells.

Asexual reproduction involves the generation of a new individuals that are effectively genetically “identical” to the parent. It involves a cell or cells that were generated by **mitosis**.



LIFE: THE SCIENCE OF BIOLOGY, Seventh Edition, Figure 9.11 Asexual Reproduction
© 2004 Sinauer Associates, Inc. and W. H. Freeman & Co.

- Variation of cells is principally due, therefore to the "forces of evolution" that we have discussed previously...
- **NS, GD, GF** and **Muts**, -as well as other potential **environmental effects**.

Eukaryotic Life Cycles (1/2)

Unicellular eukaryote with prominent haploid phase

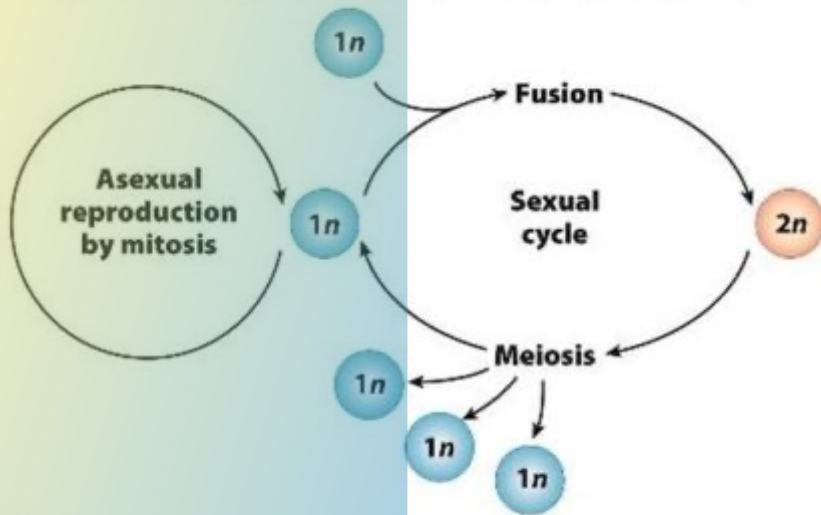


Figure 21.3a
Biological Sciences, 7th Edition
© 2004 Sinauer Associates, Inc.

Unicellular eukaryote with prominent diploid phase

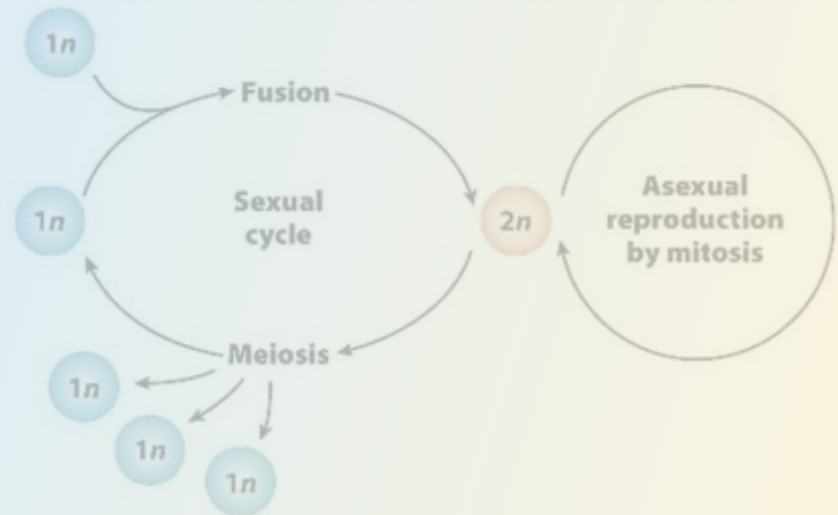


Figure 21.3b
Biological Sciences, 7th Edition
© 2004 Sinauer Associates, Inc.

Eukaryotic Life Cycles (1/2)

Unicellular eukaryote with prominent haploid phase

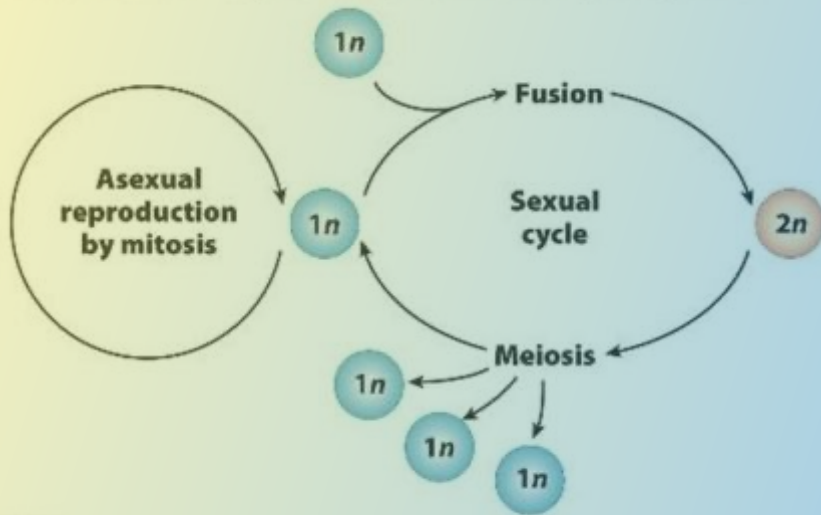


Figure 21.3a
Biological Sciences, 7th Edition
© 2004 Sinauer Associates, Inc.

Unicellular eukaryote with prominent diploid phase

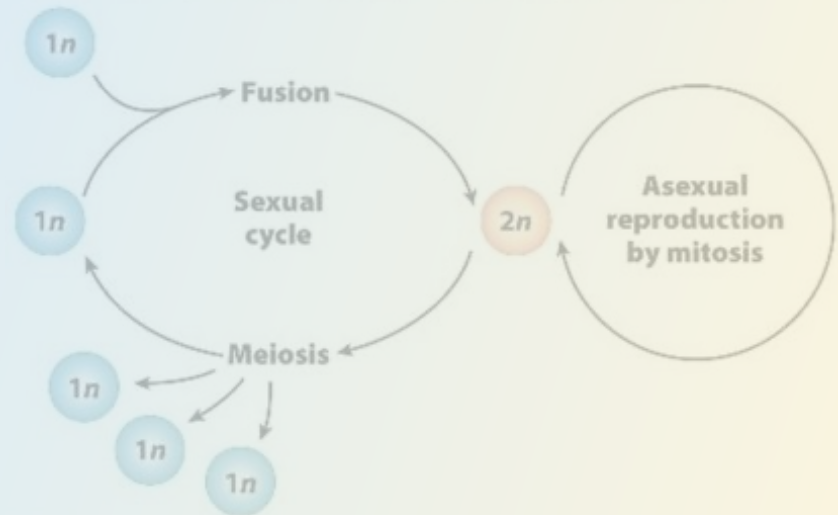
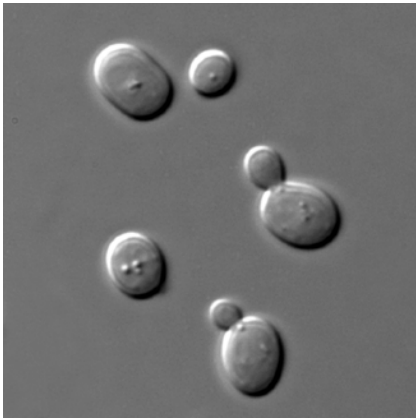
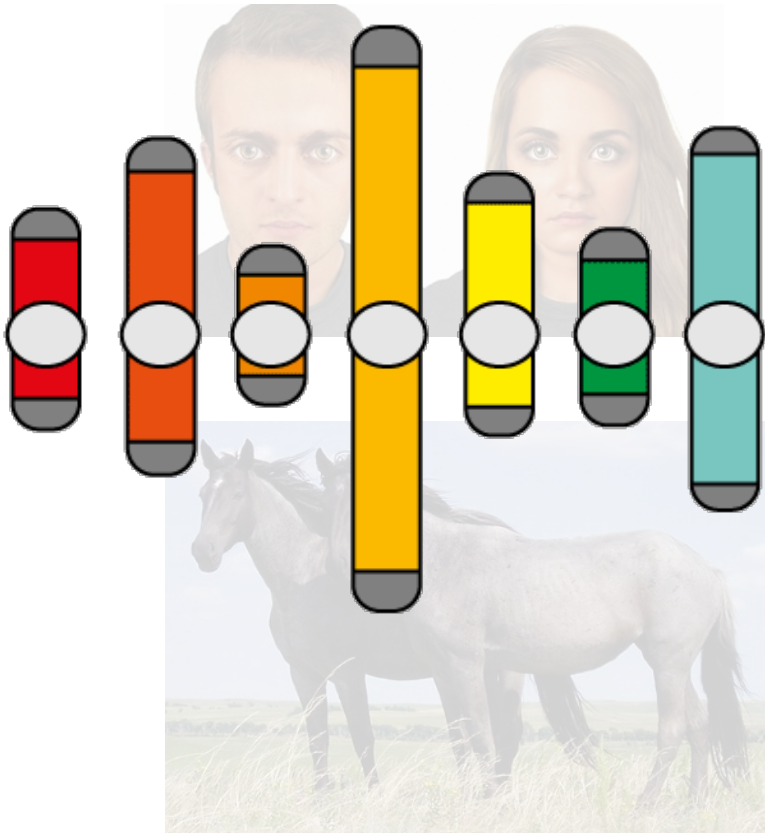


Figure 21.3b
Biological Sciences, 7th Edition
© 2004 Sinauer Associates, Inc.

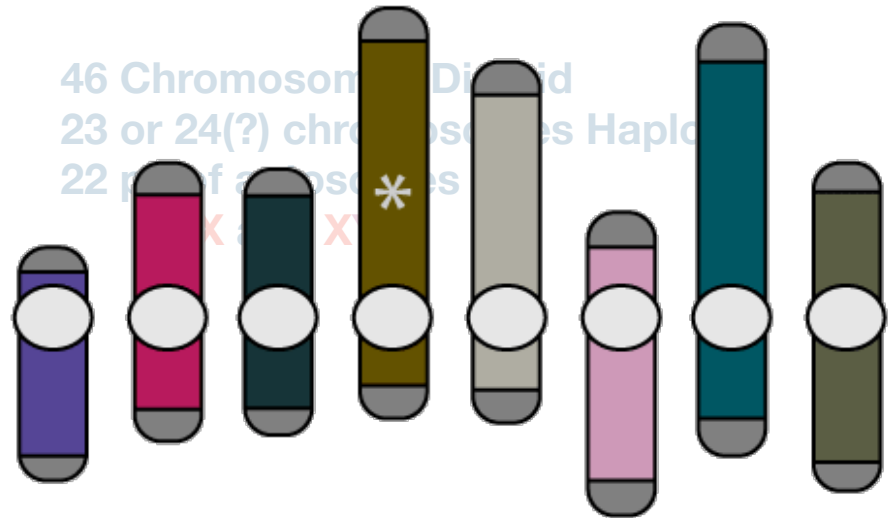


16 chromosomes Haploid
32 chromosomes Diploid

16 pr of chromosomes (D)



46 Chromosomes Diploid
 23 or 24(?) chromosomes Haploid
 22 pr of autosomes
 X and Y



64 Chromosomes Diploid
 32 or 33 chromosomes
 31 pr of autosomes
 XX and XY

Eukaryotic Life Cycle in Animals

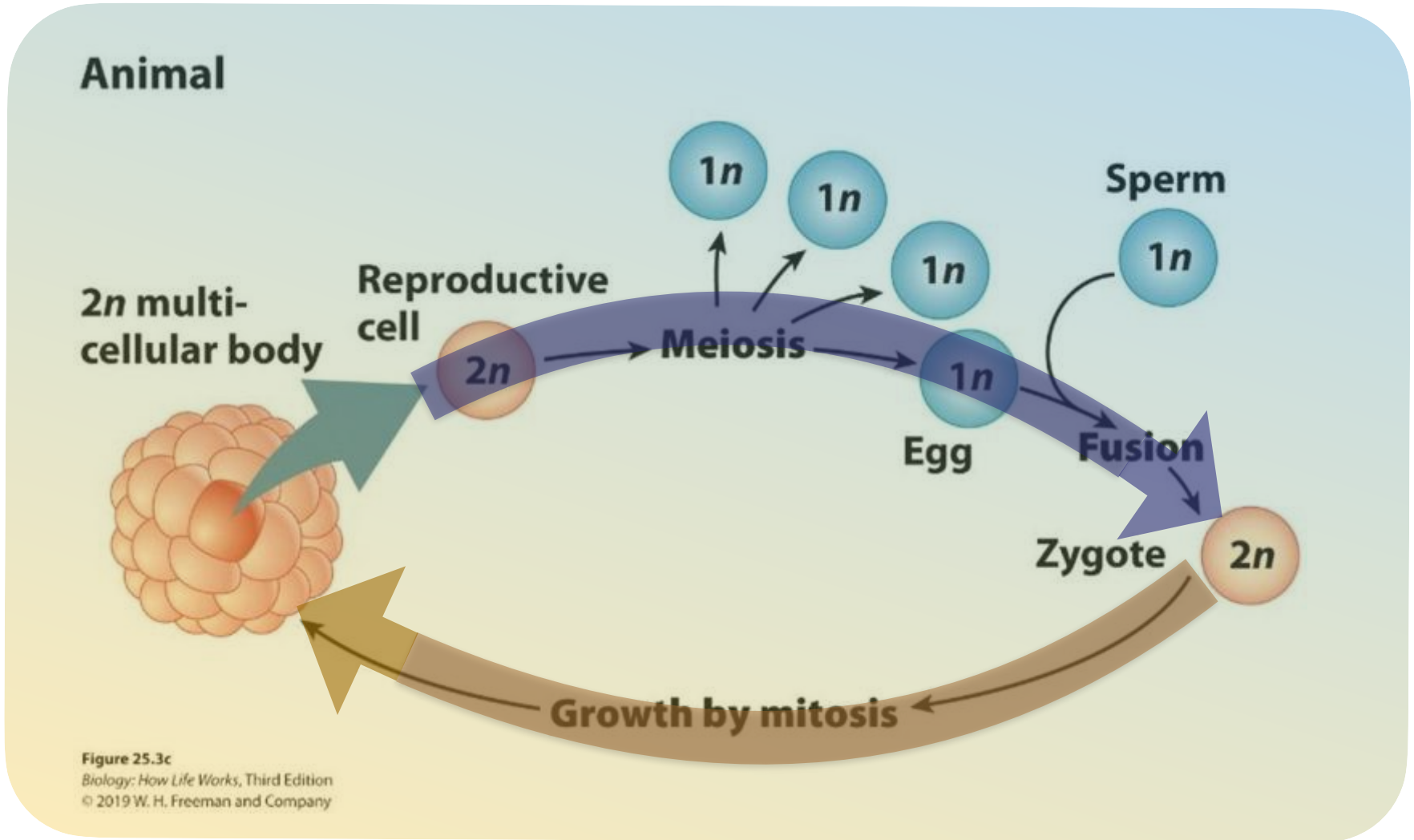
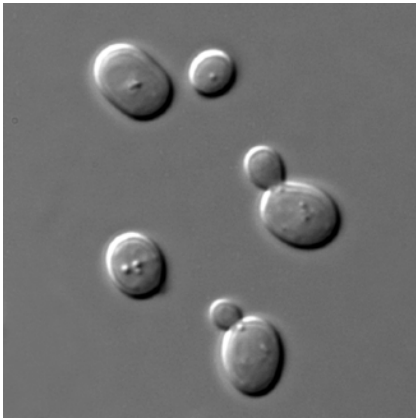


Figure 25.3c
Biology: How Life Works, Third Edition
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16 chromosomes Haploid
32 chromosomes Diploid

16 pr of chromosomes (D)



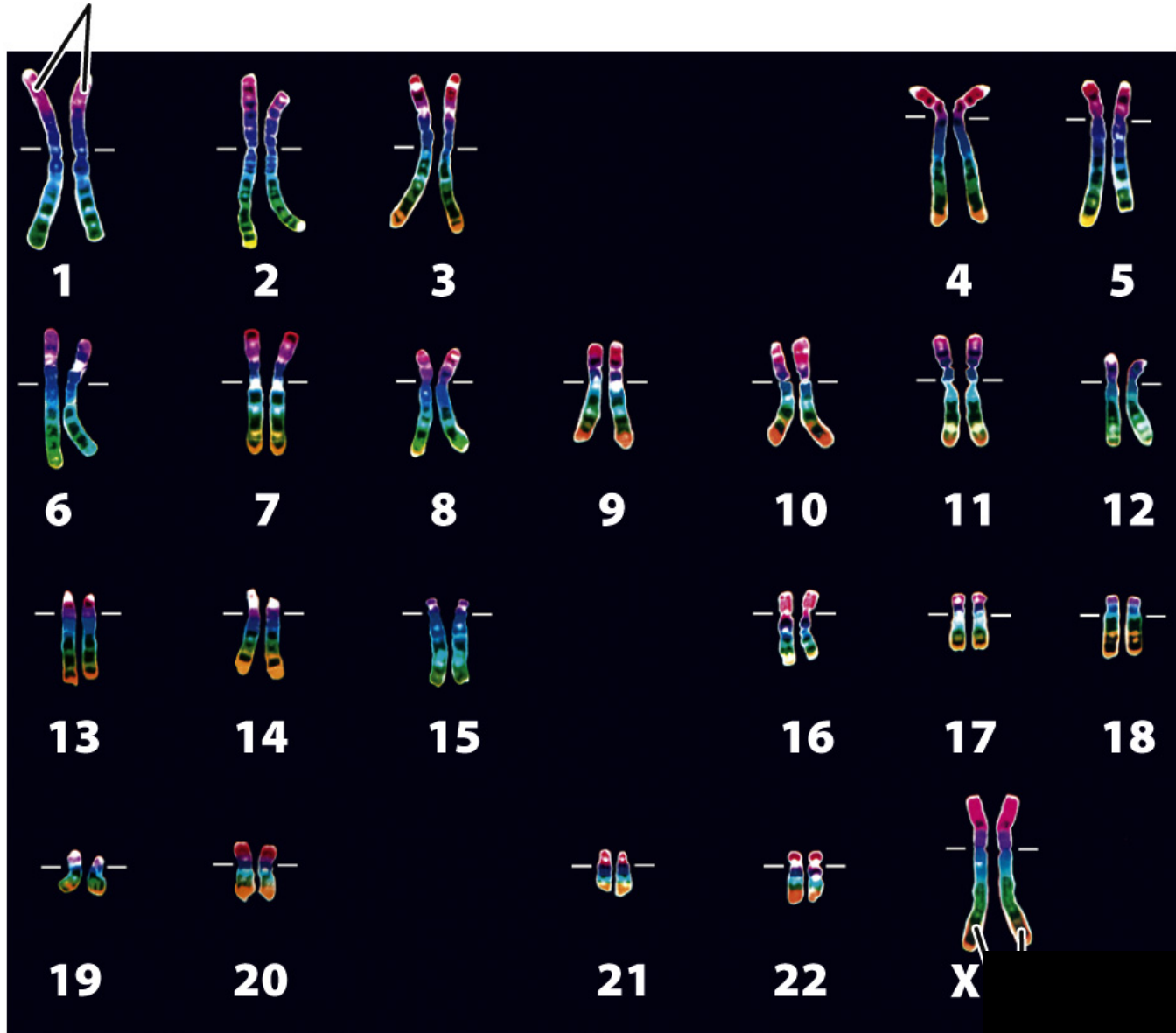
46 Chromosomes Diploid
23 or 24(?) chromosomes Haploid
22 pr. of autosomes
XX and XY



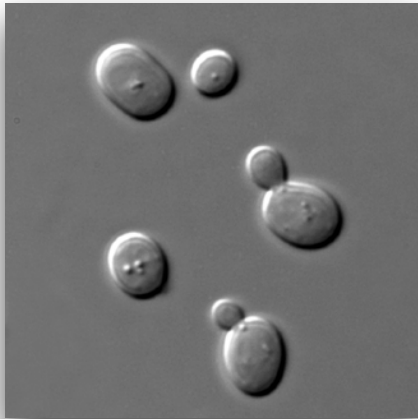
64 Chromosomes Diploid
32 or 33 chromosomes
31 pr of autosomes
XX and XY

Homologous chromosomes

Karyotyping

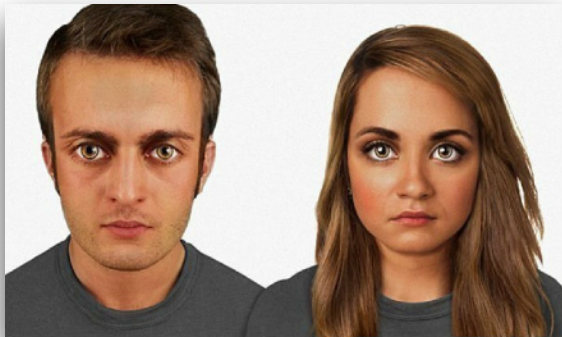


ISM/Phototake



16 chromosomes Haploid
32 chromosomes Diploid

16 pr of chromosomes (D)



46 Chromosomes Diploid
23 chromosomes Haploid
22 pr. of autosomes

XX and XY

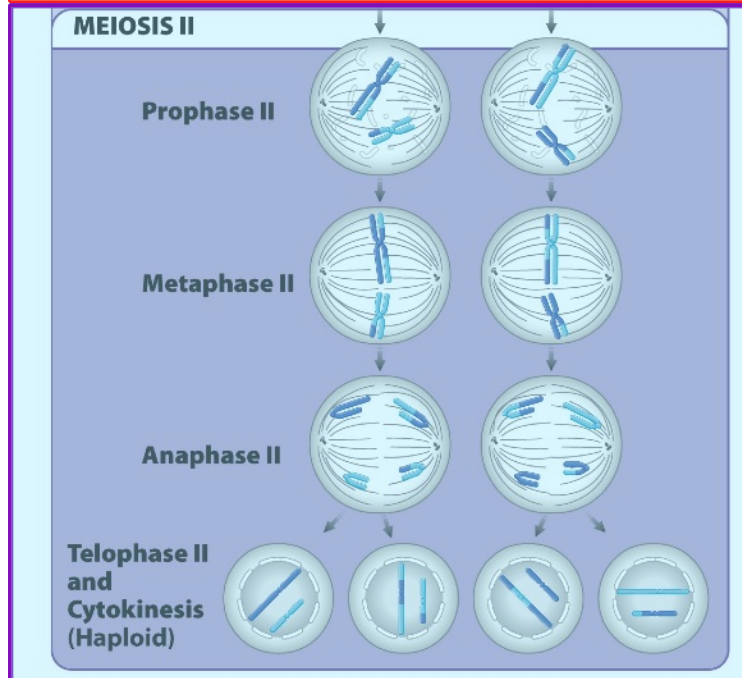
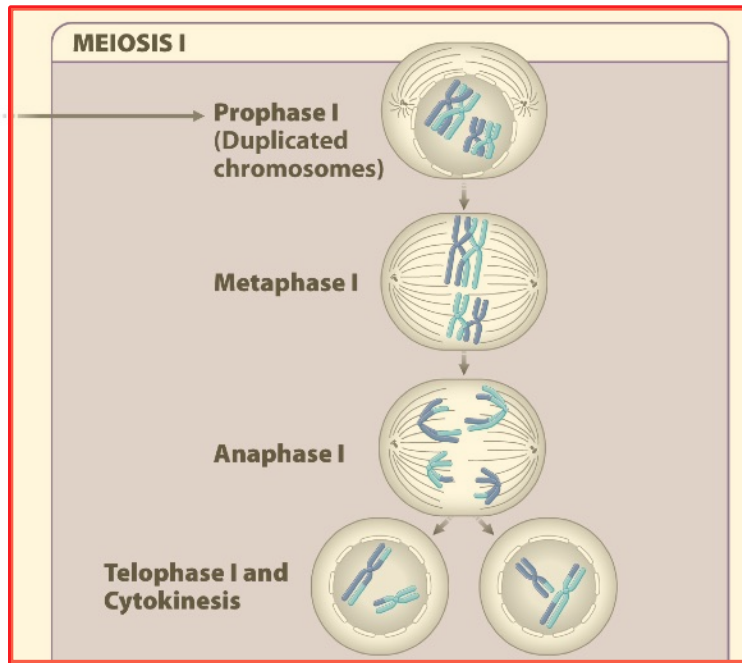


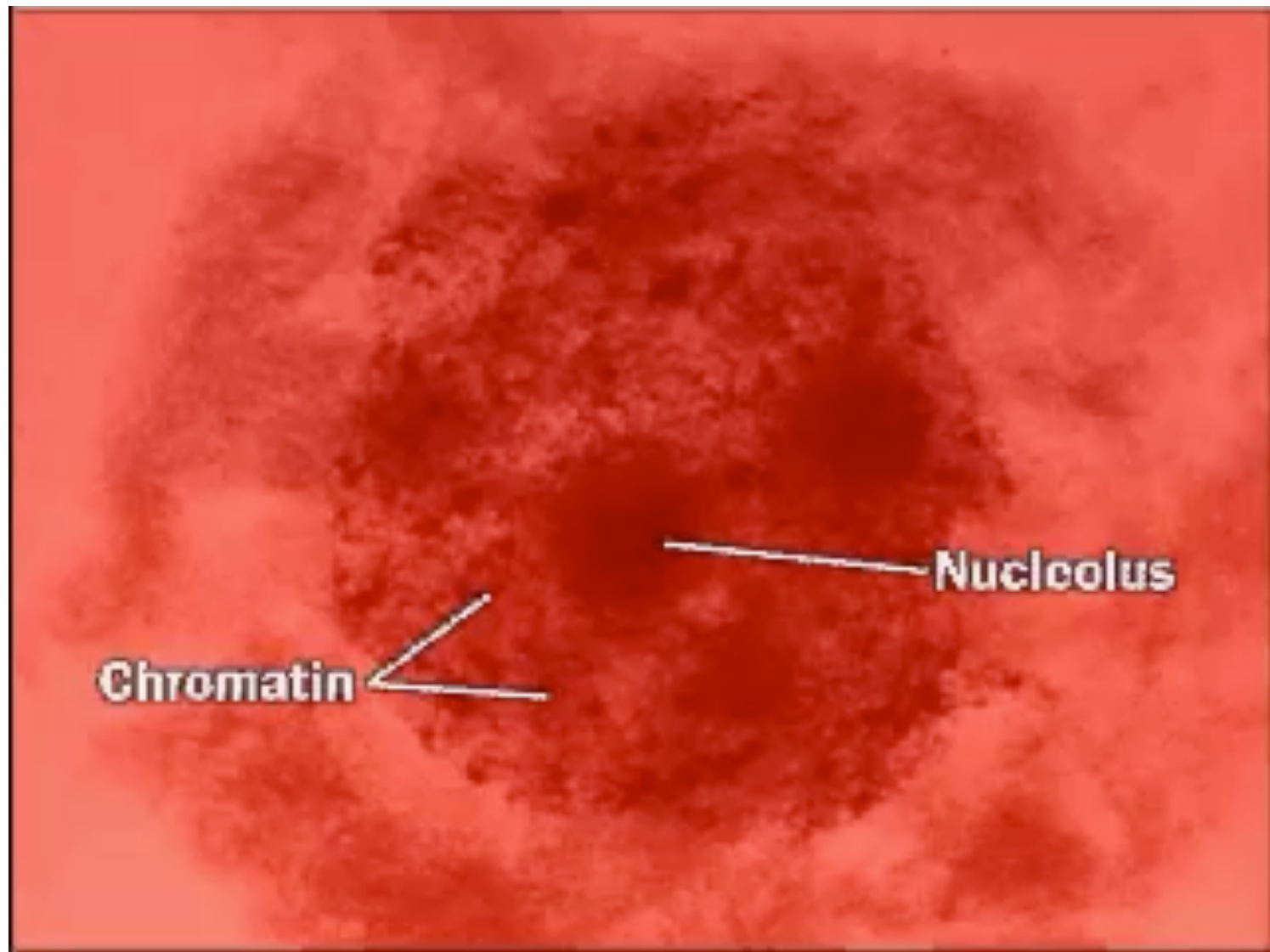
64 Chromosomes Diploid
32 chromosomes
31 pr of autosomes

XX and XY

MEIOSIS

Parent cell
(Diploid)





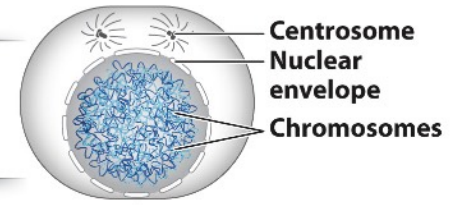
Chromatin

Nucleolus

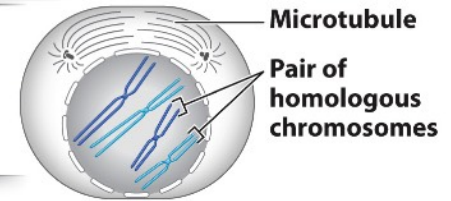
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Prophase I

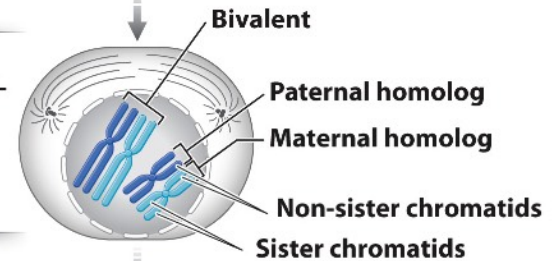
1 Chromosomes first become visible as thin threads. DNA replication is already complete.



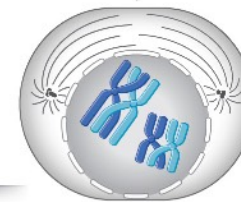
2 Homologous chromosomes continue to condense and undergo synapsis (gene-for-gene pairing).



3 When synapsis is complete, each pair of homologous chromosomes forms a bivalent. Each chromosome consists of two sister chromatids.



4 The chromosomes continue to shorten and thicken and the chiasmata between non-sister chromatids become apparent.



5 The nuclear envelope begins to break down.

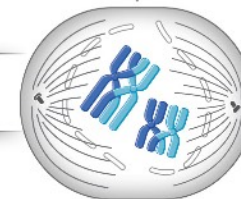


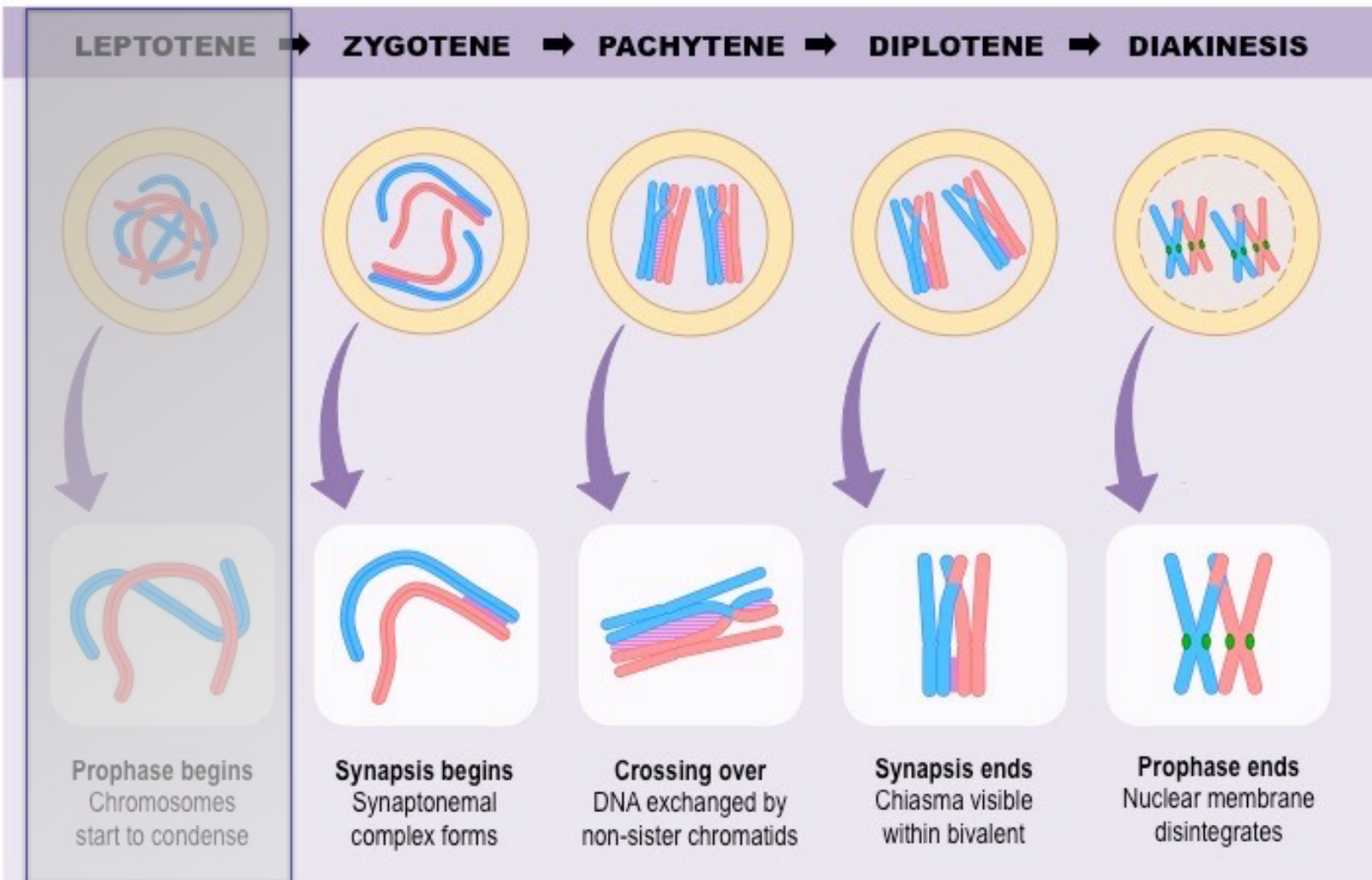
Figure 11.8

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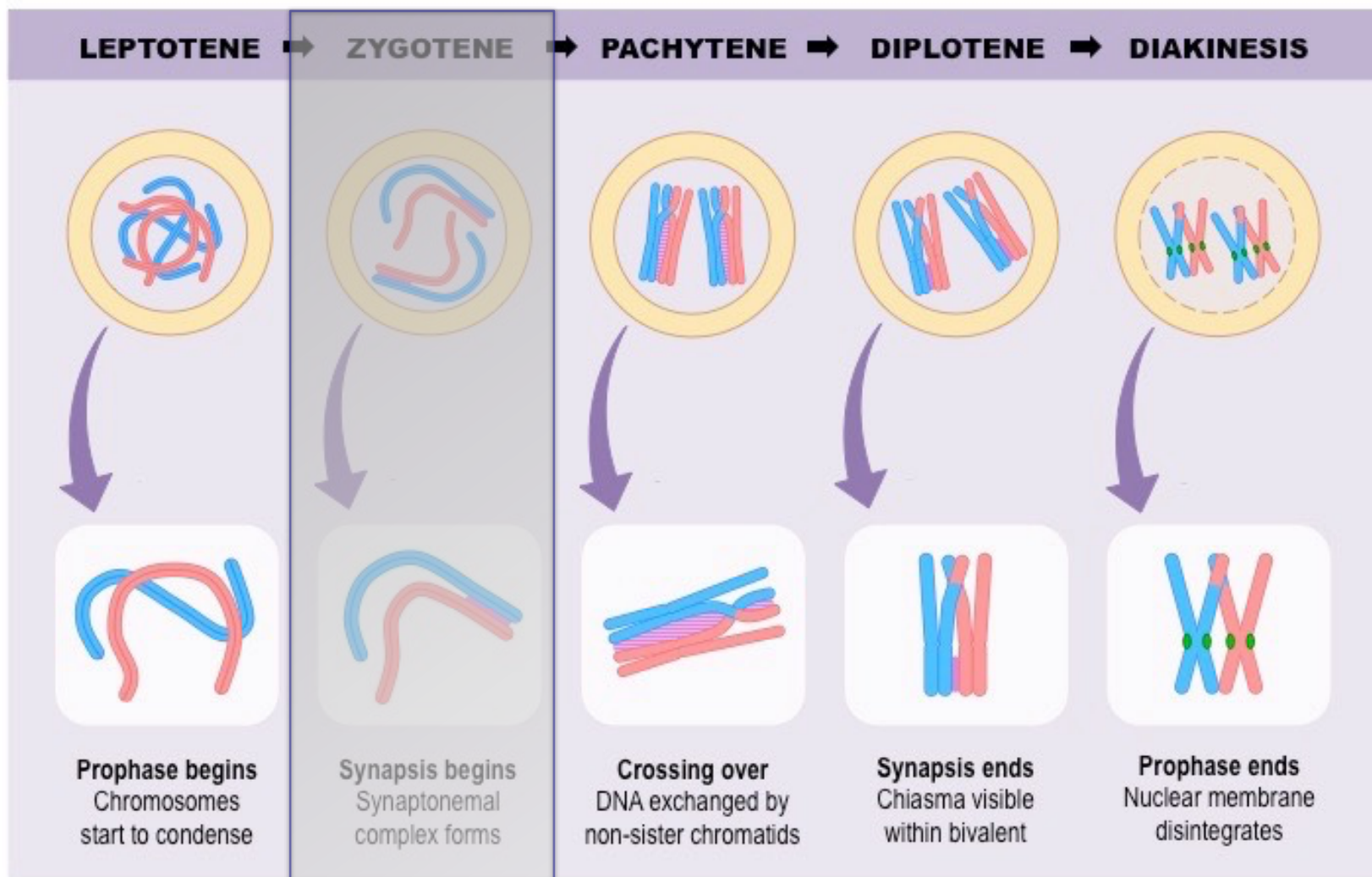
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Prophase I



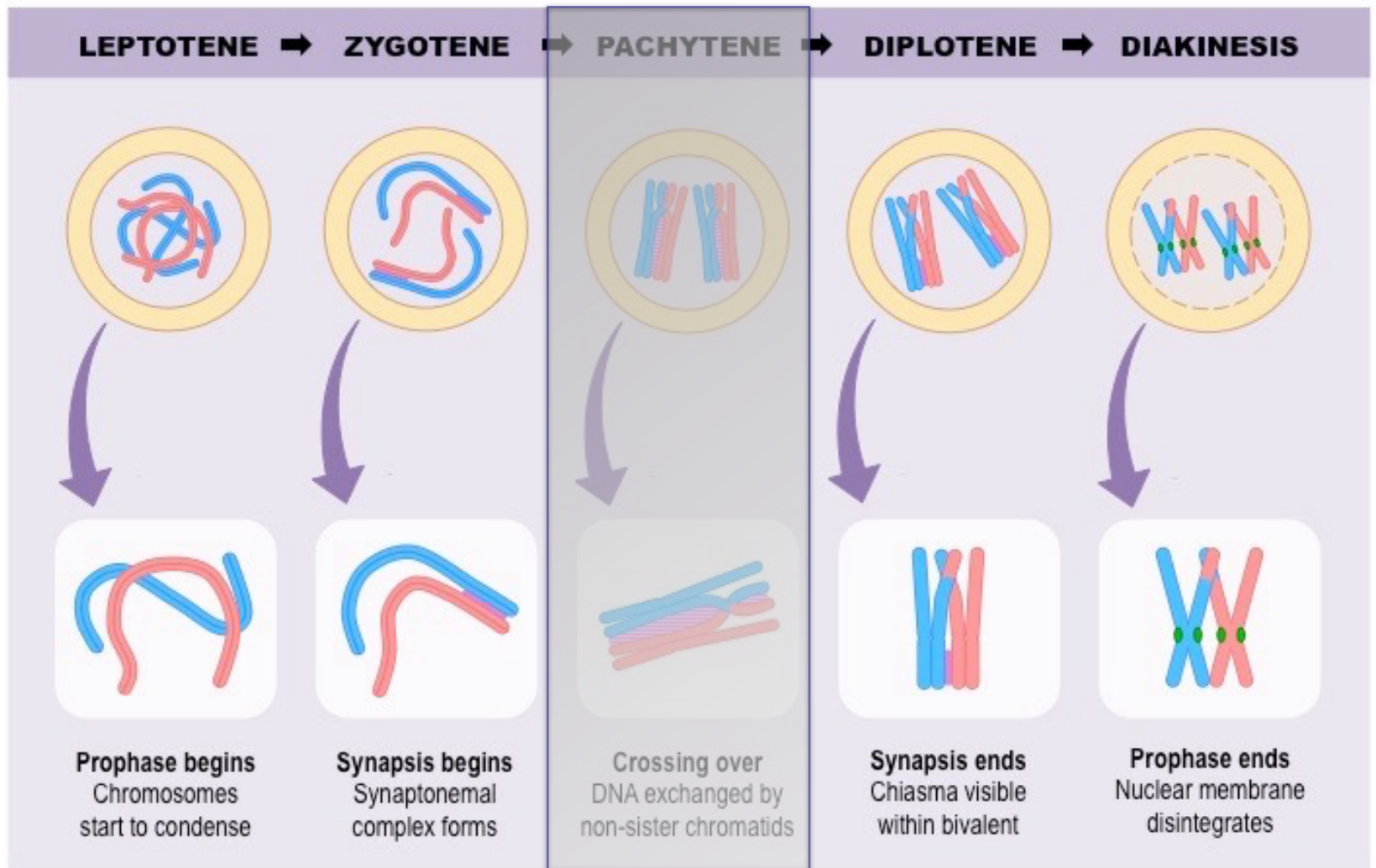
1

Prophase I



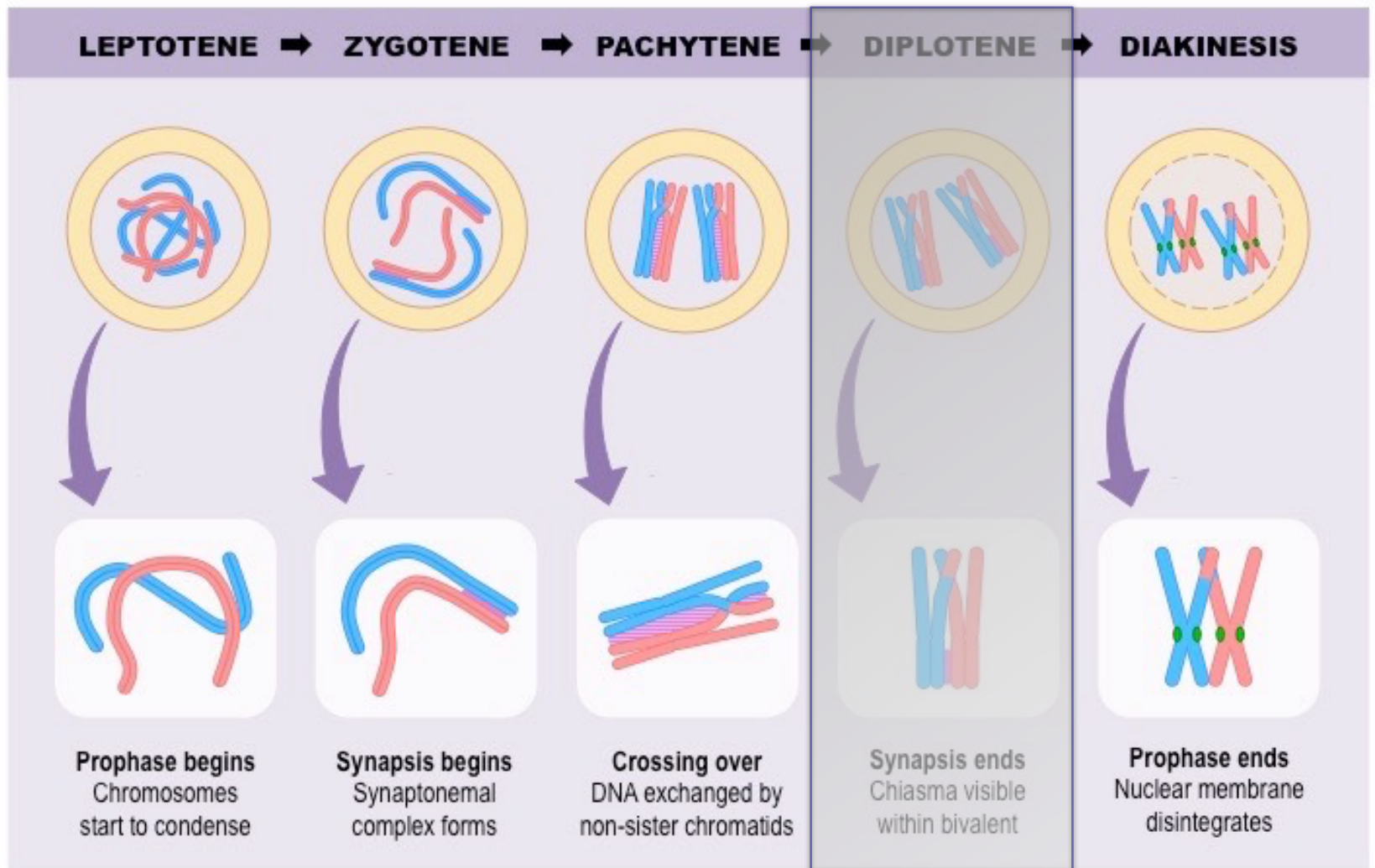
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Prophase I



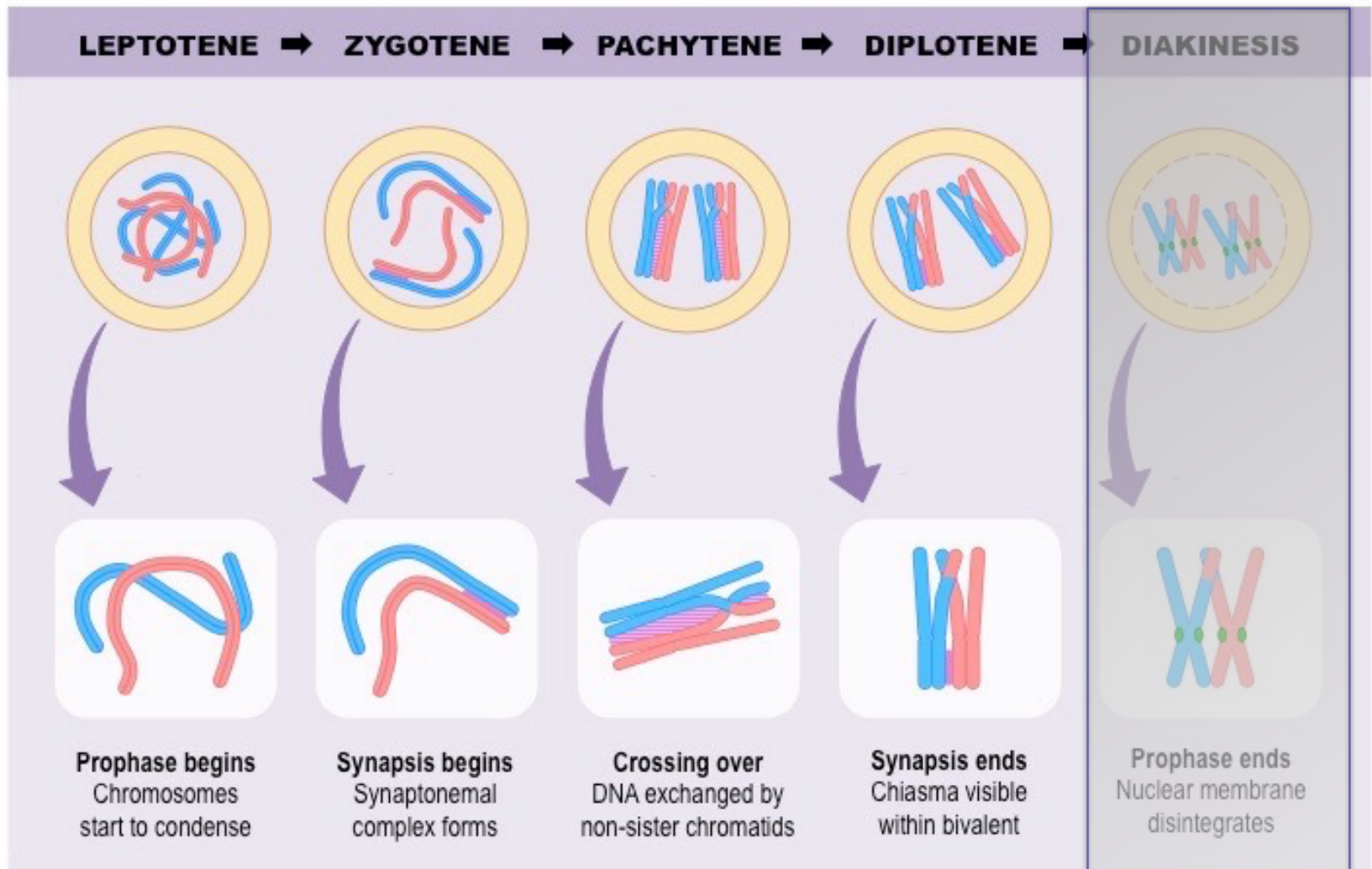
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Prophase I



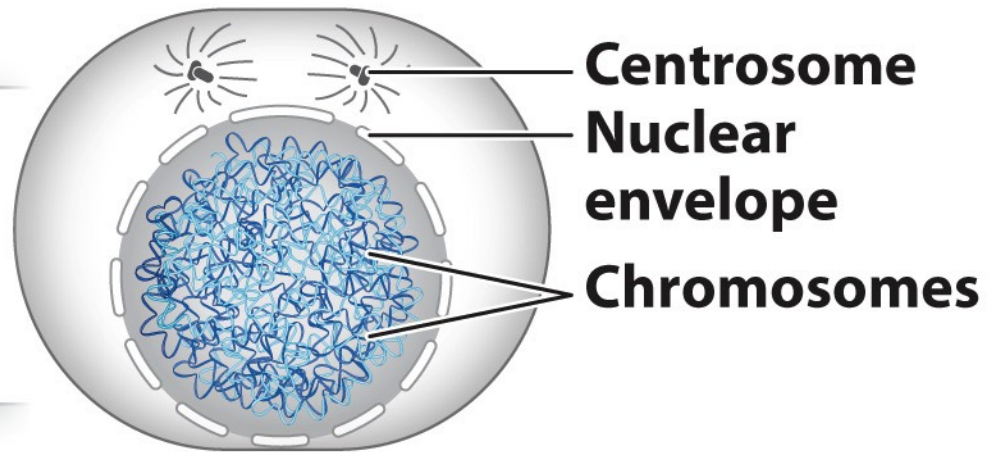
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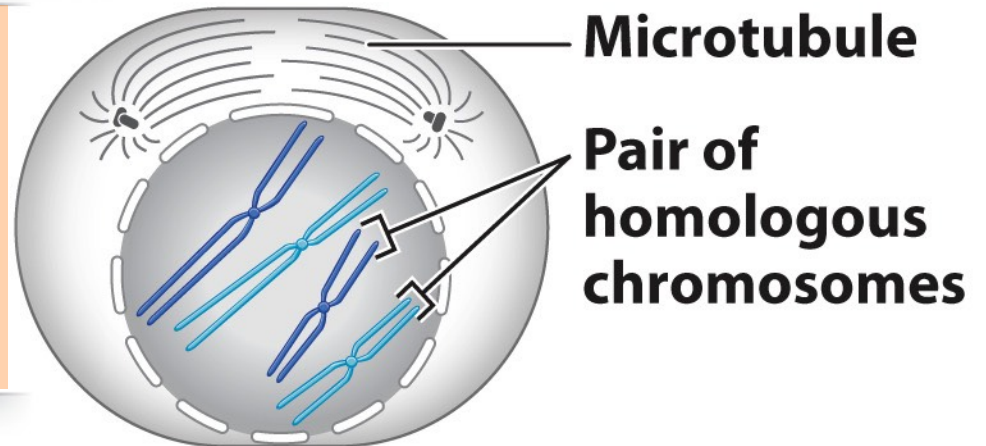
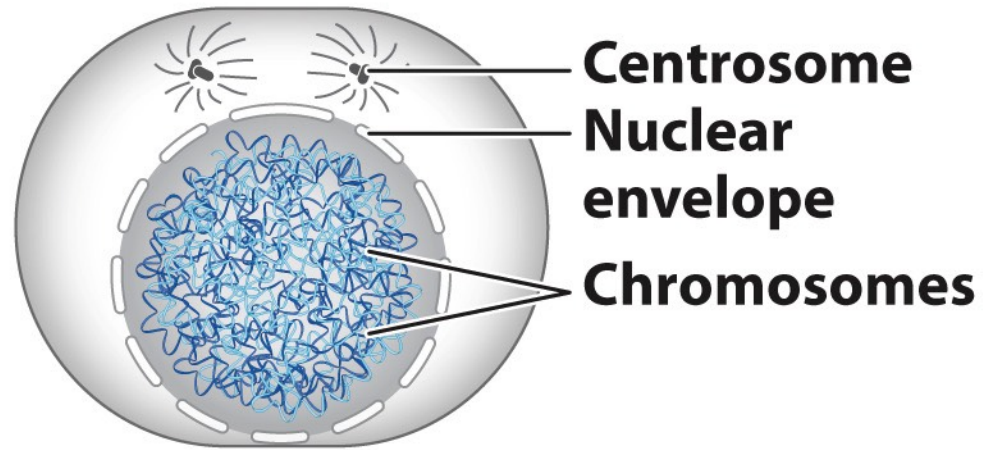
Prophase I



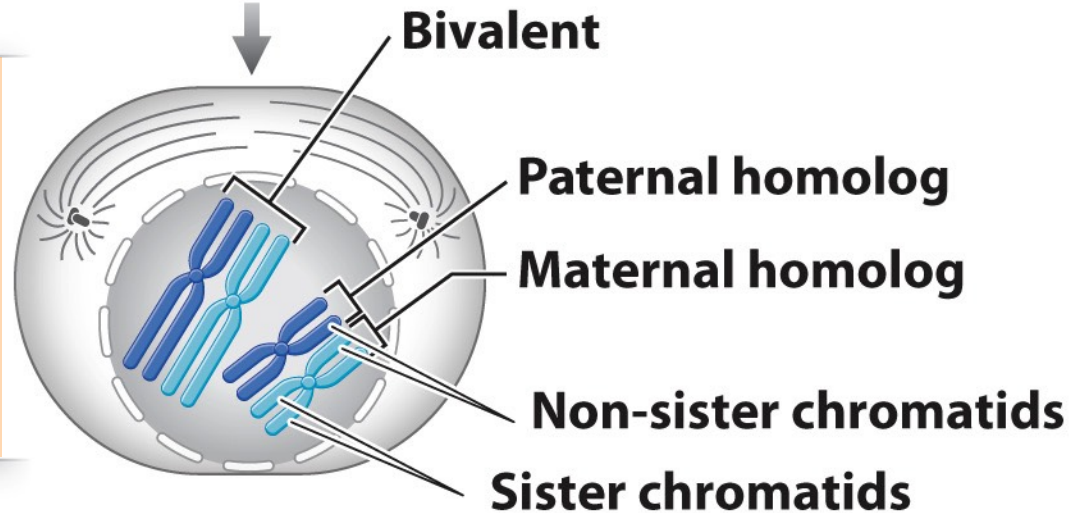
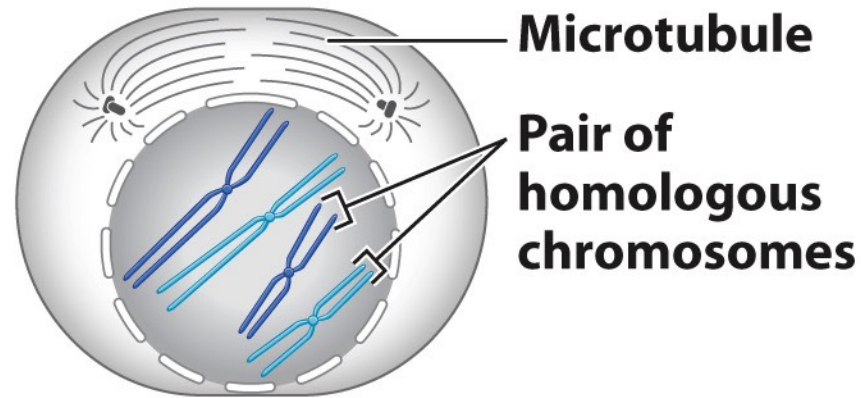
1

Chromosomes first become visible as thin threads. DNA replication is already complete.



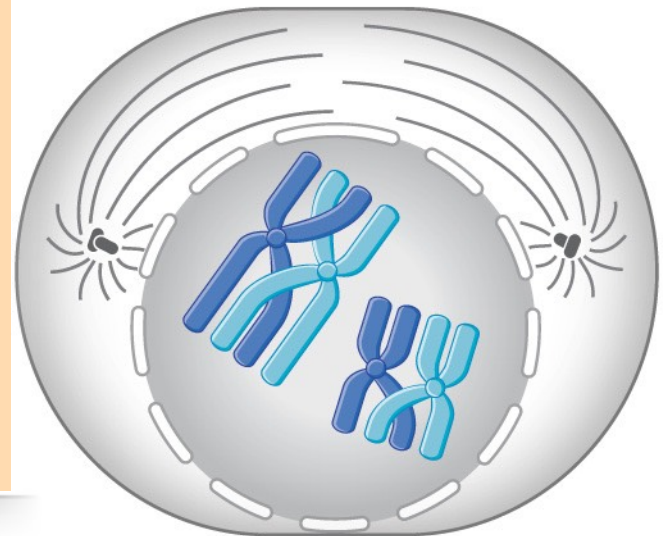
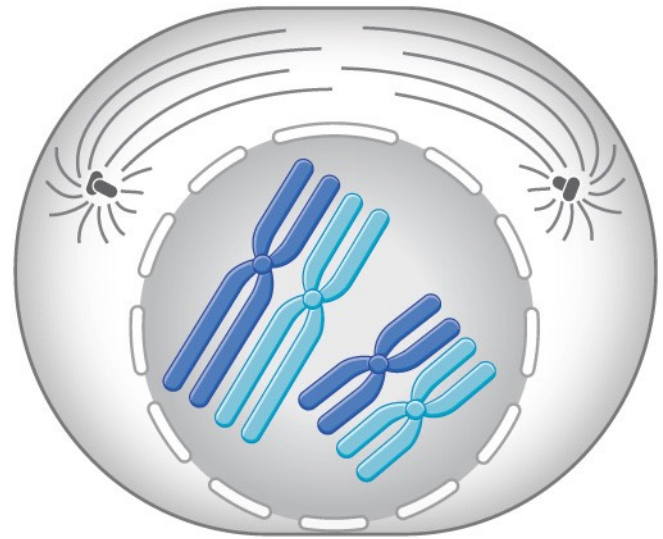


2 Homologous chromosomes continue to condense and undergo synapsis (gene-for-gene pairing).



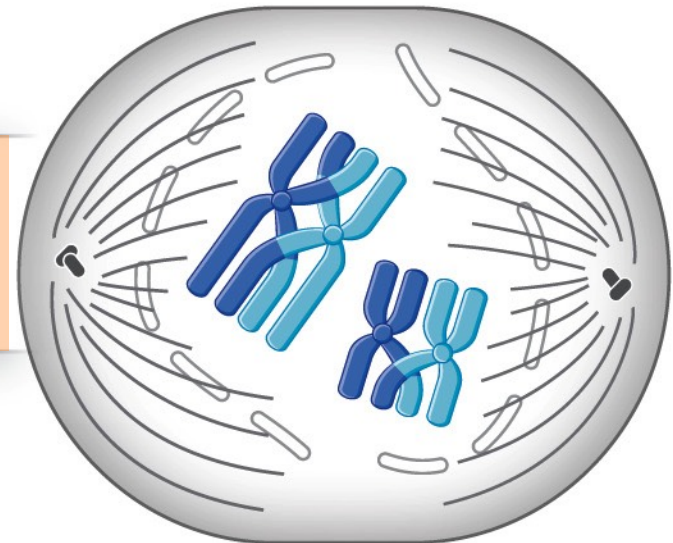
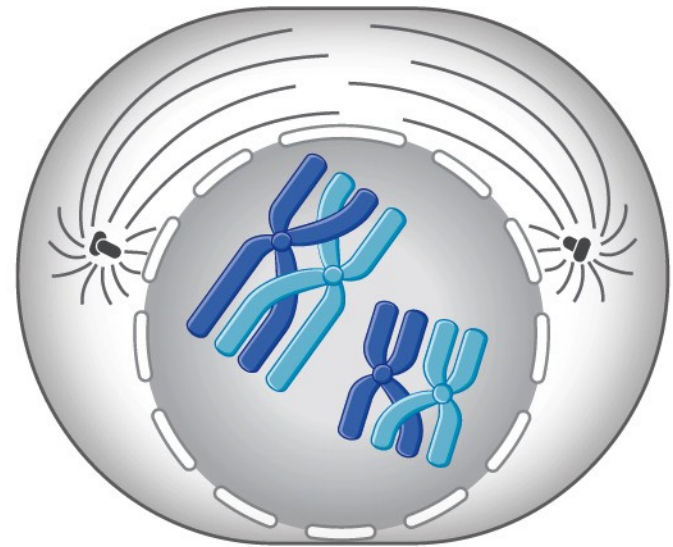
3

When synapsis is complete, each pair of homologous chromosomes forms a bivalent. Each chromosome consists of two sister chromatids.



4

The chromosomes continue to shorten and thicken and the chiasmata between non-sister chromatids become apparent.



5

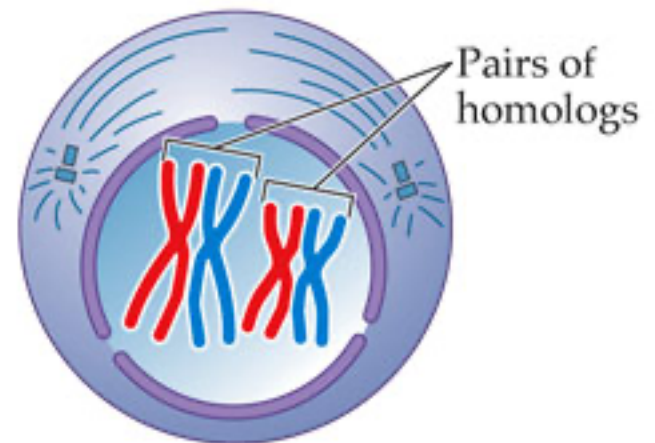
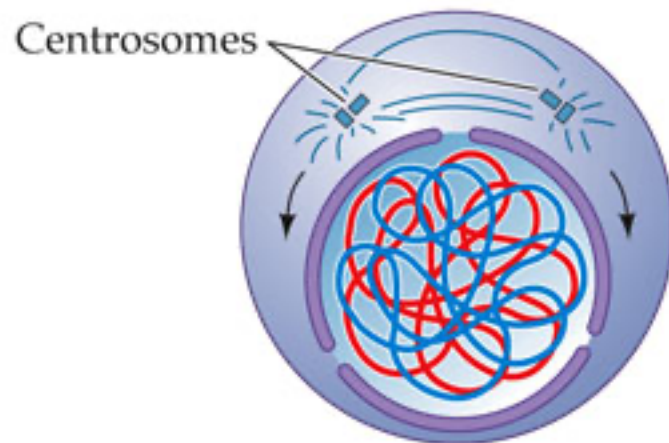
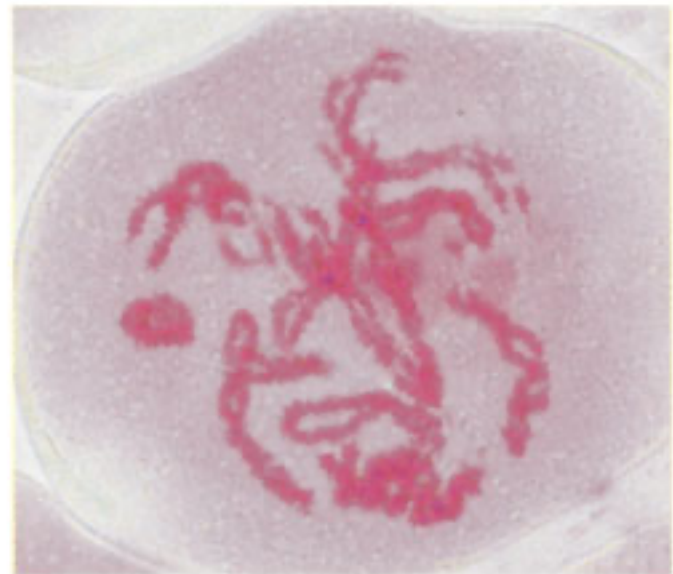
The nuclear envelope begins to break down.

MEIOSIS I

Early Prophase I



Mid-Prophase I



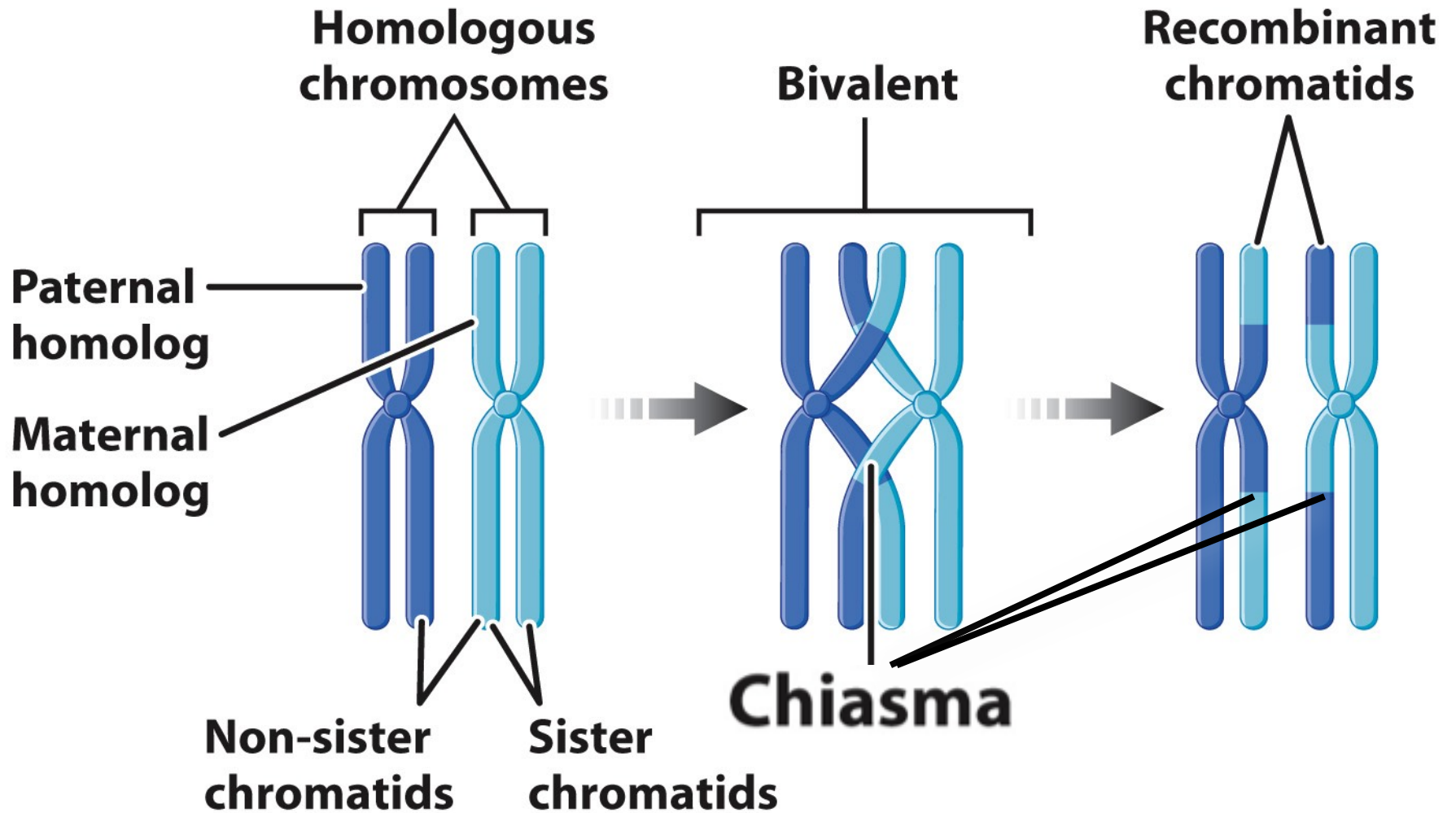
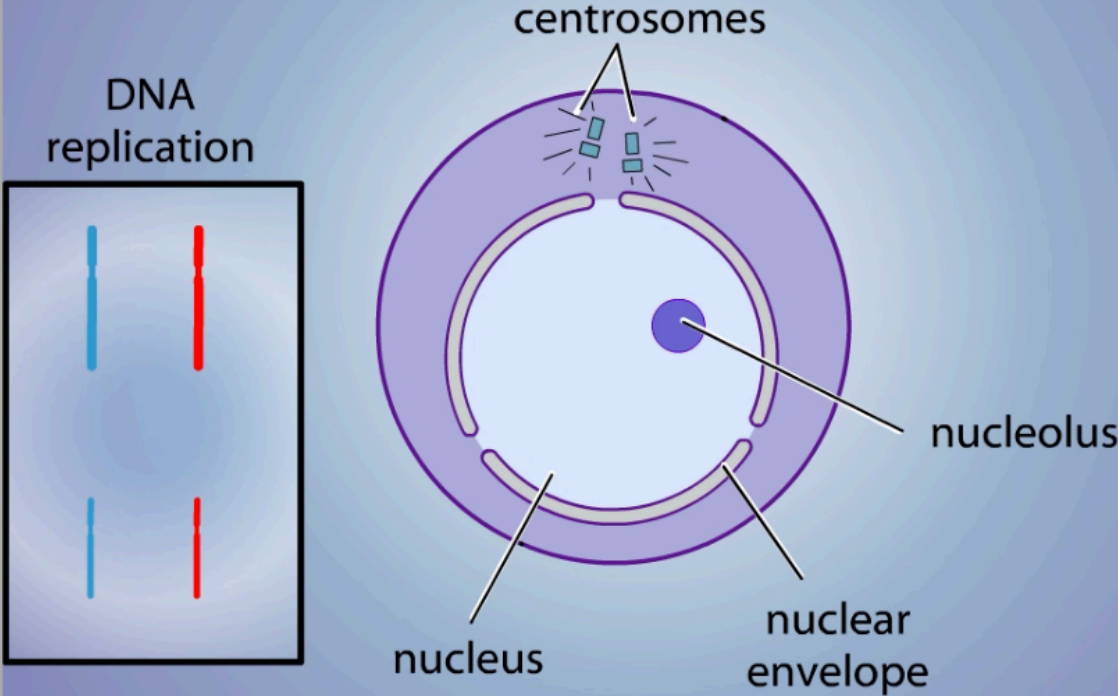


Figure 11.9
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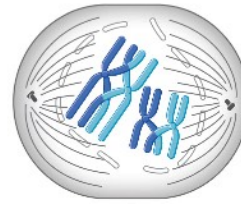
Interphase



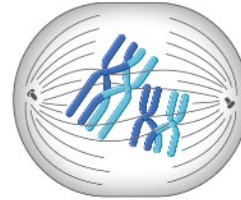
INTRO | REWIND | STOP | PLAY



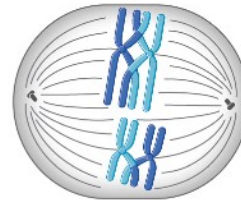
1 Prophase I (later stage): Chiasmata present.



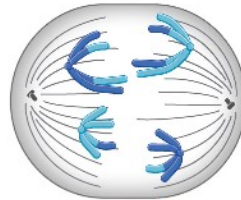
2 Prometaphase I: Spindles attach to kinetochores on chromosomes.



3 Metaphase I: Homologous pairs line up in center of cell, with bivalents oriented randomly with respect to each other.



4 Anaphase I: Homologous chromosomes separate, but sister chromatids do not separate.



5 Telophase I and cytokinesis: Daughter cells are ready to move into prophase II.

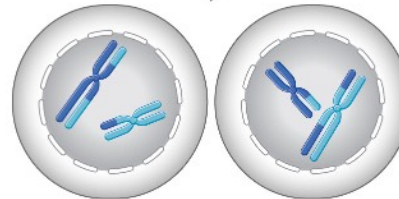


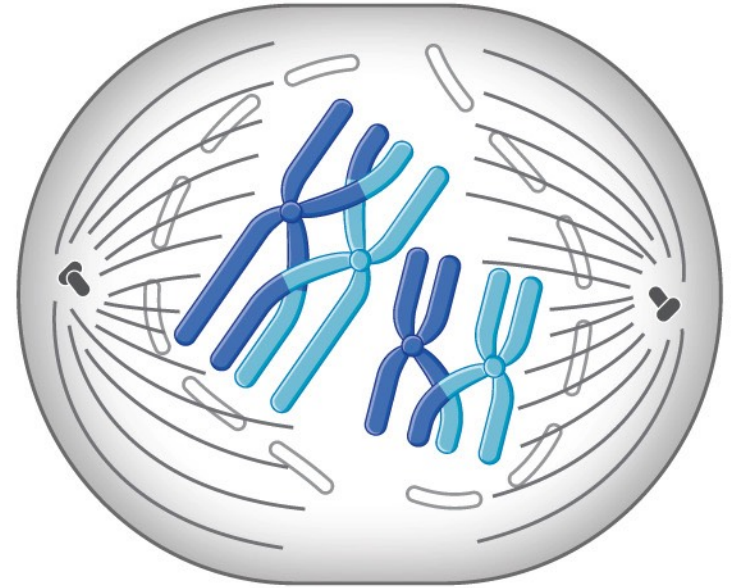
Figure 11.10

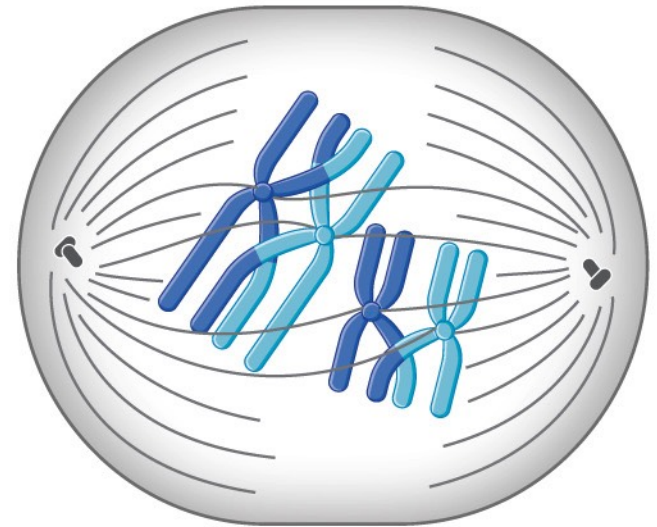
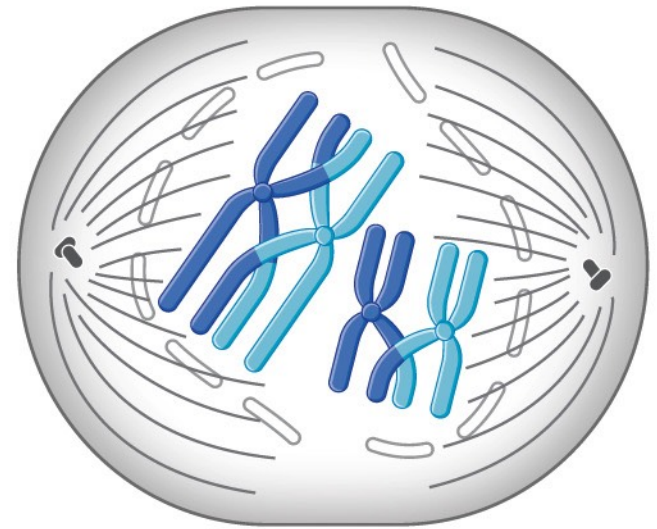
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1

Prophase I (later stage): Chiasmata present.





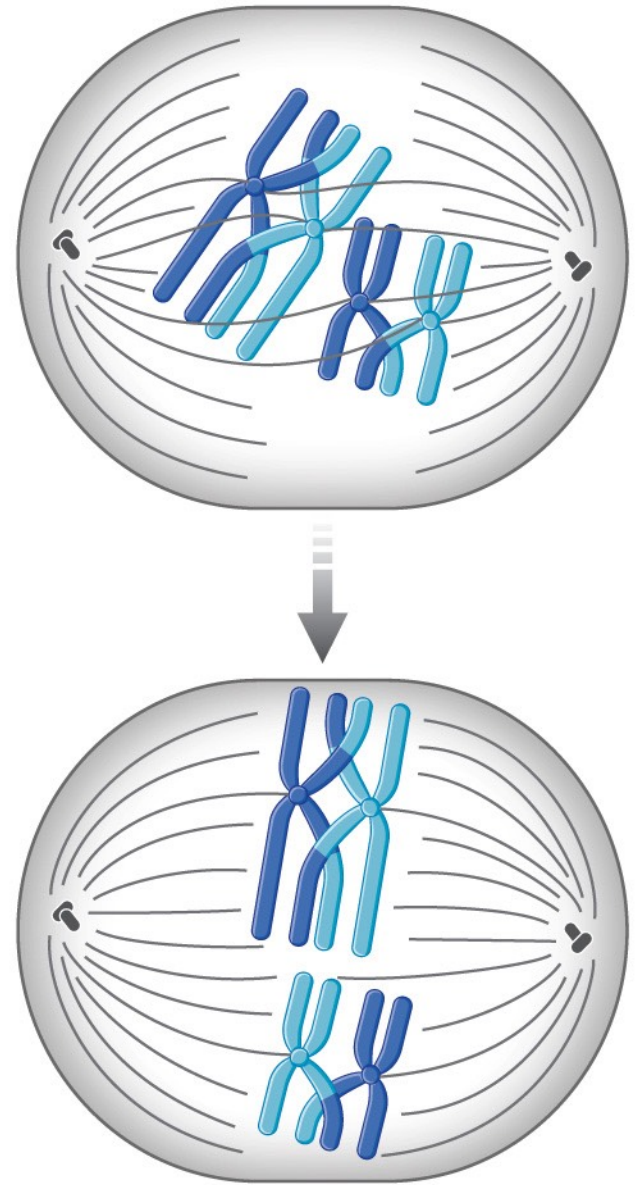
2

Prometaphase I: Spindles attach to kinetochores on chromosomes.

“two by two”

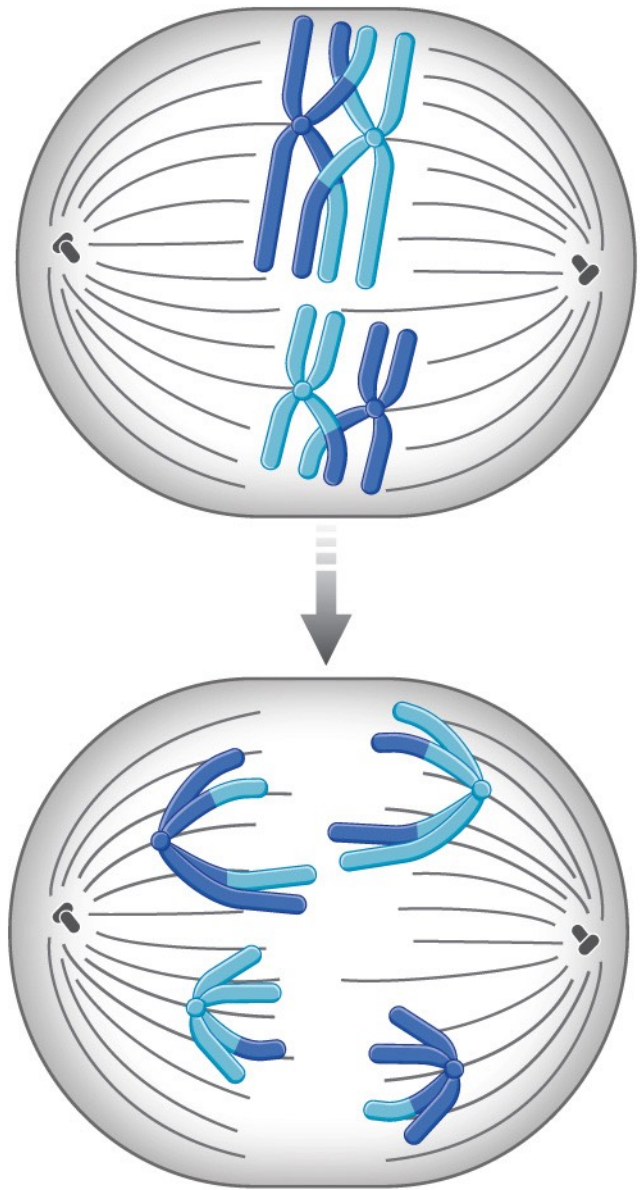
3

Metaphase I: Homologous pairs line up in center of cell, with bivalents oriented randomly with respect to each other.

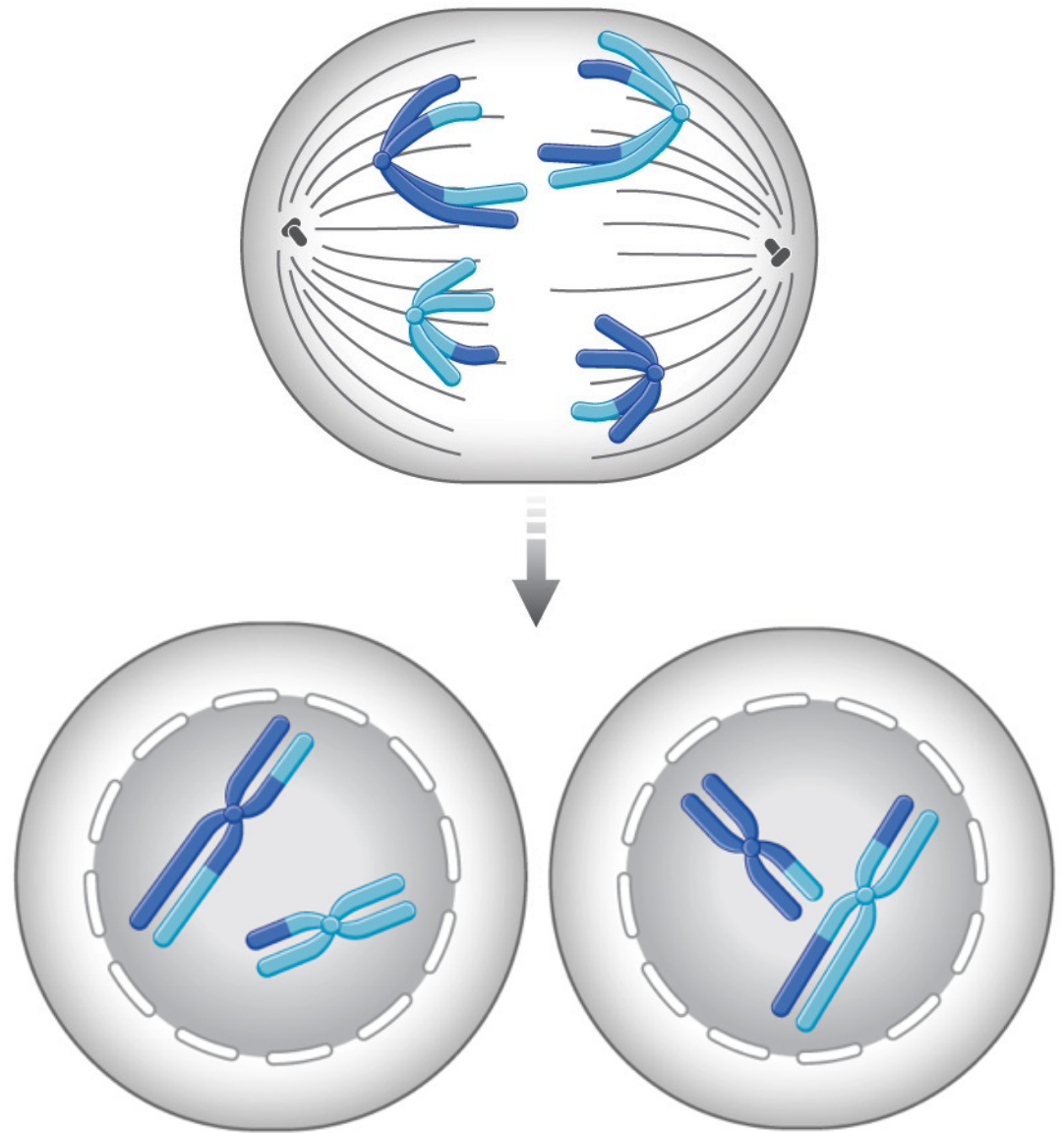


4

Anaphase I:
Homologous chromosomes separate, but sister chromatids do not separate.



5 **Telophase I and cytokinesis:**
Daughter cells are ready to move into prophase II.



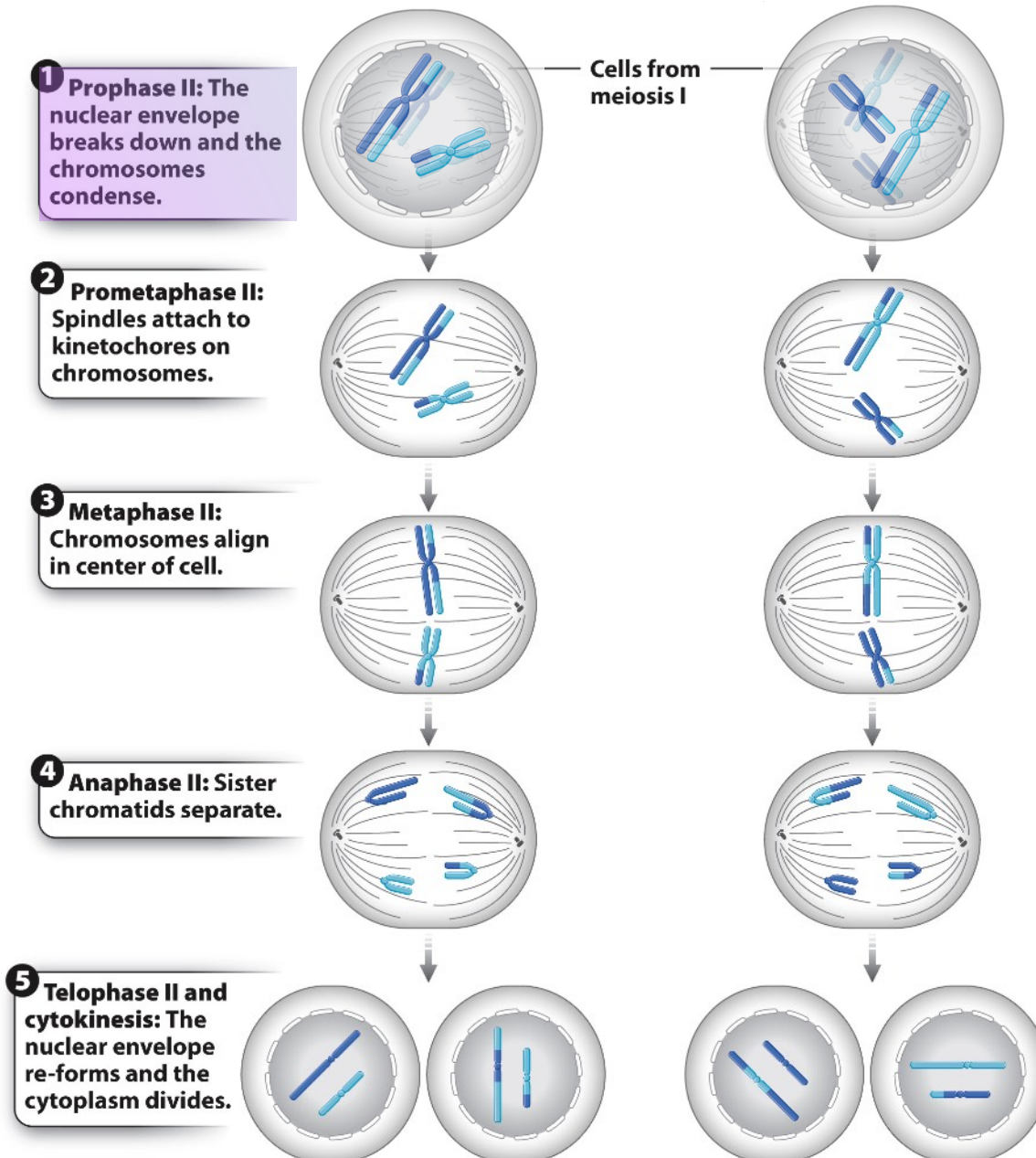
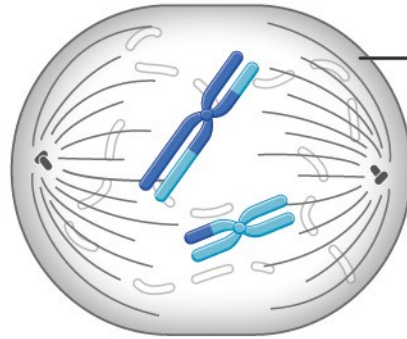
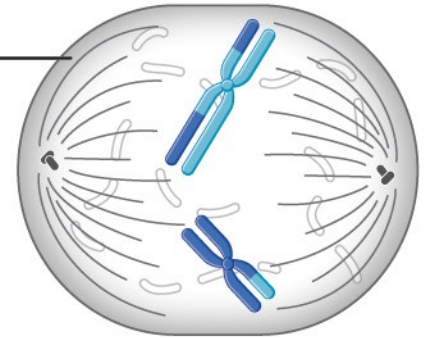


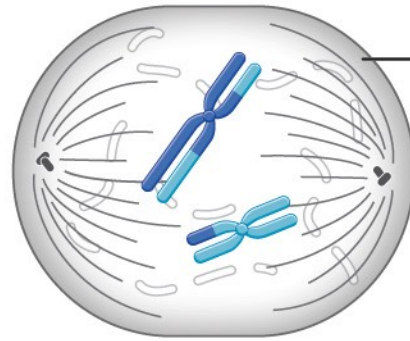
Figure 11.11
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1 Prophase II: The nuclear envelope breaks down and the chromosomes condense.

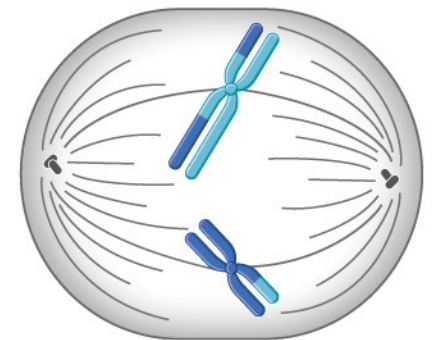
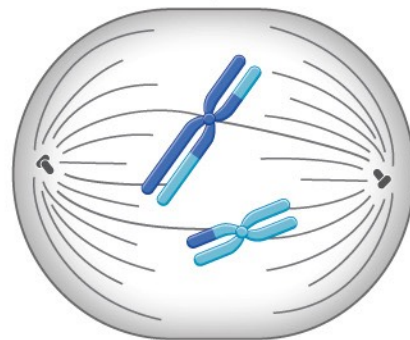
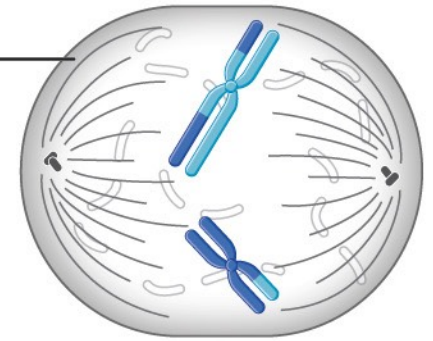


**Cells from
meiosis I**



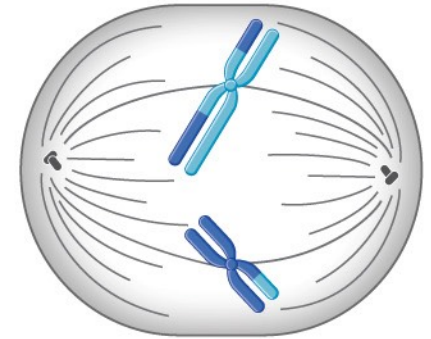
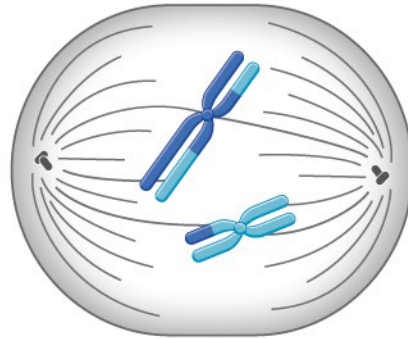


Cells from
meiosis I

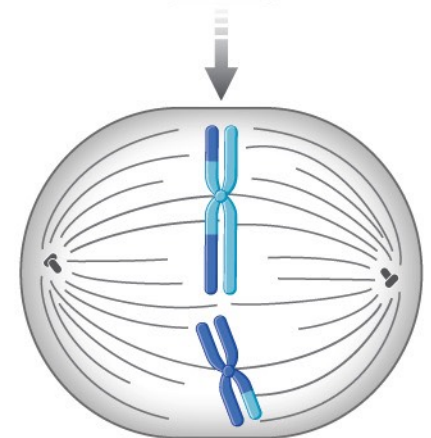
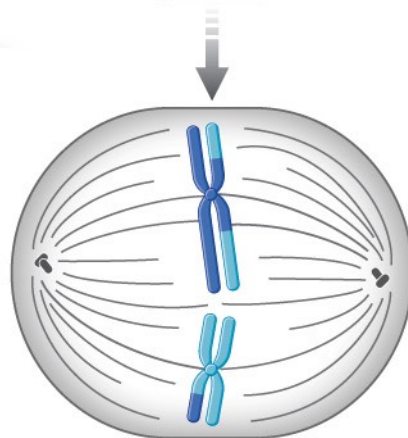


2

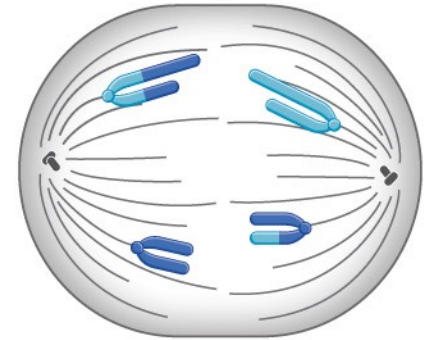
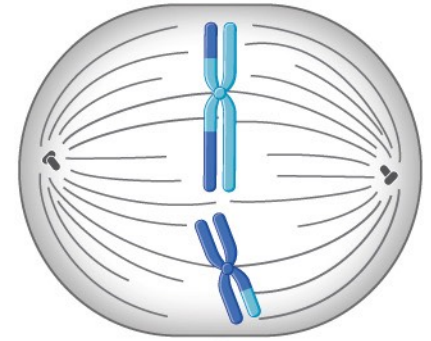
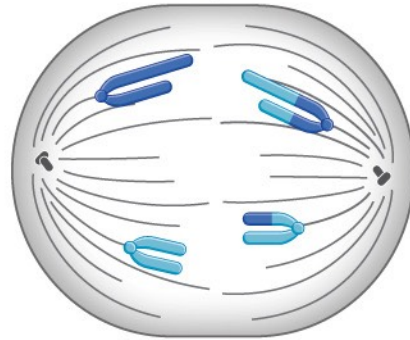
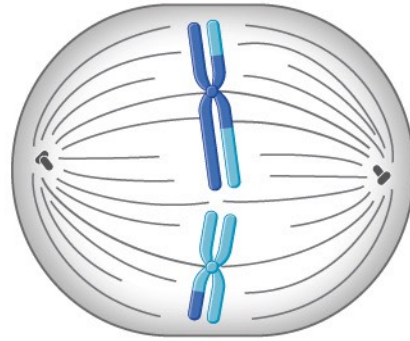
Prometaphase II:
Spindles attach to
kinetochores on
chromosomes.



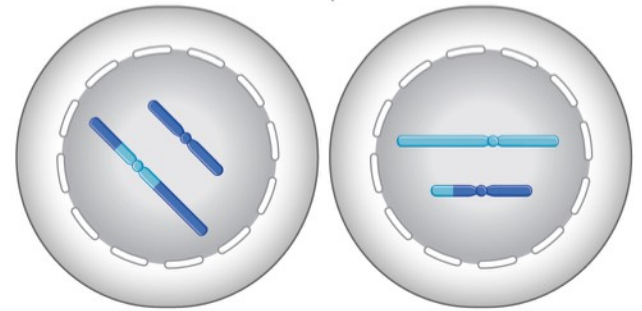
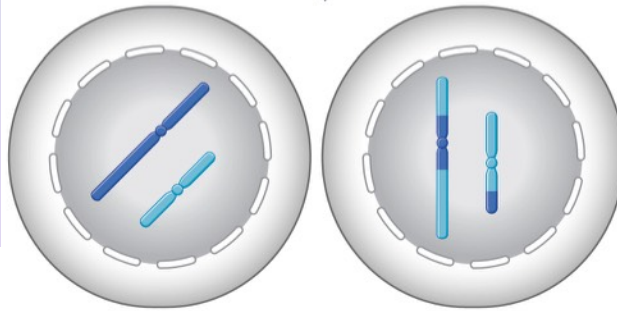
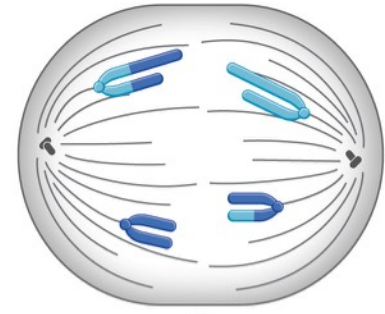
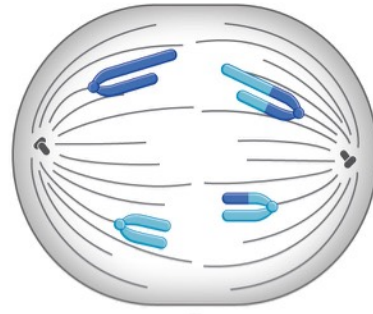
3 Metaphase II:
Chromosomes align
in center of cell.



“single file”

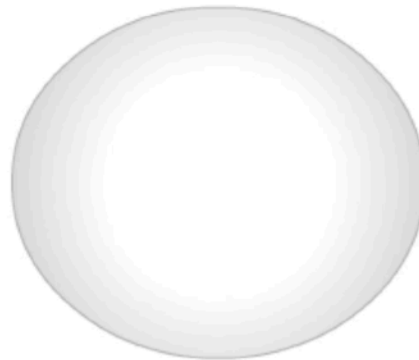


4 Anaphase II: Sister chromatids separate.



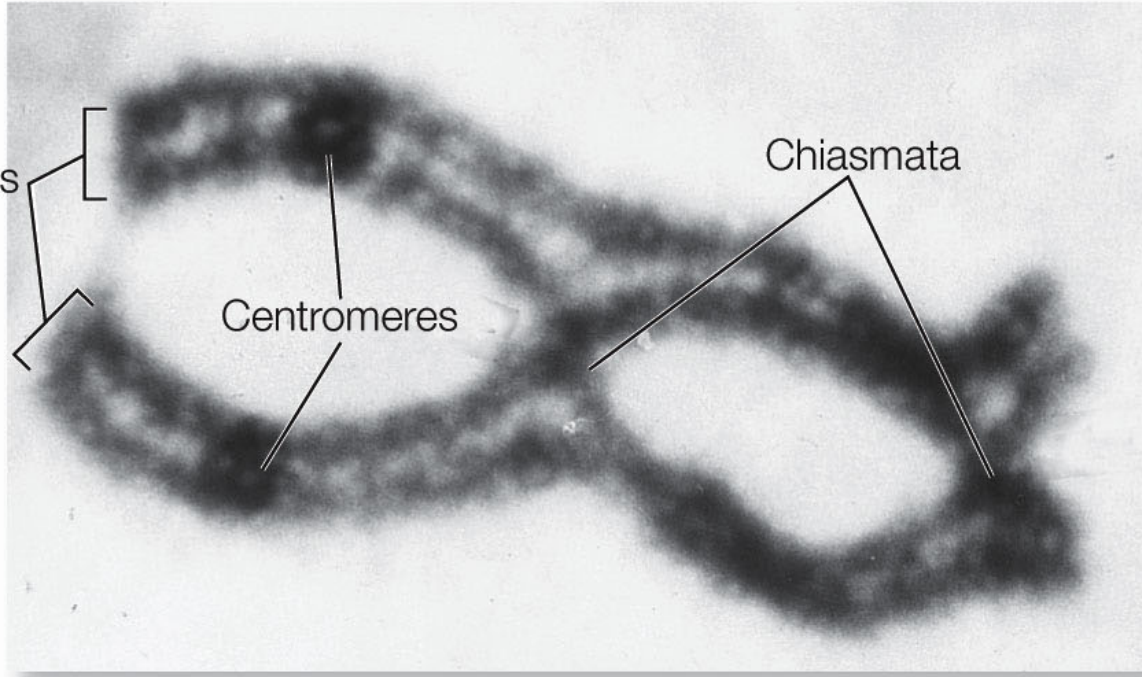
5 **Telophase II and cytokinesis:** The nuclear envelope re-forms and the cytoplasm divides.

Meiotic Cell Division



In meiotic cell division, a diploid cell divides into four haploid cells, each of which is genetically unique. It consists of two rounds of cell division, called meiosis I and meiosis II.

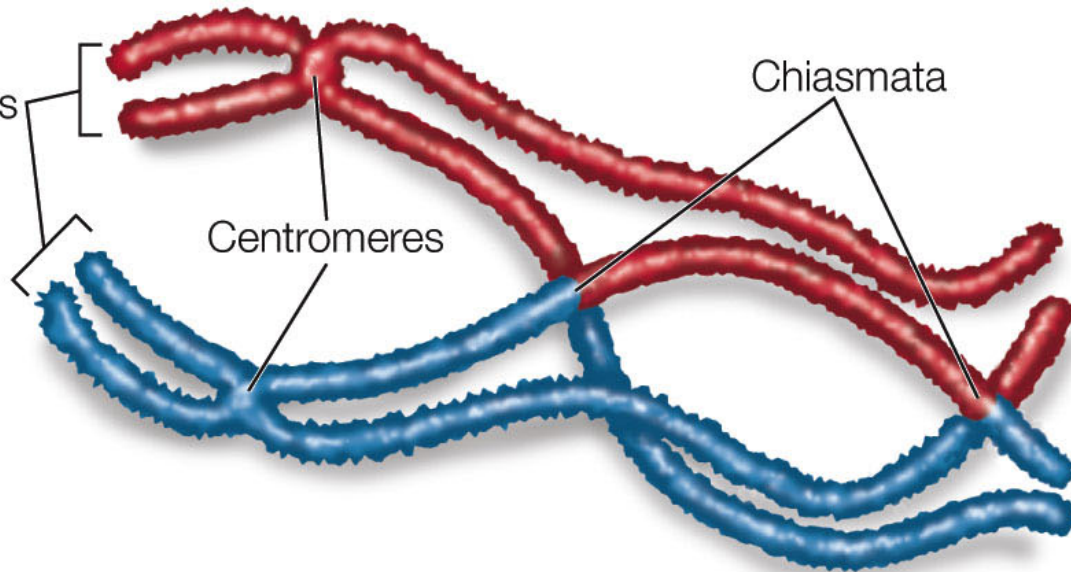
Homologous chromosomes



Chiasmata

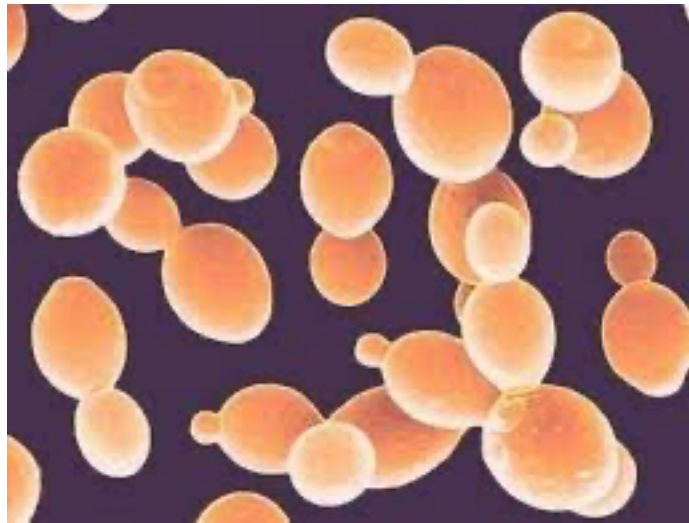
Centromeres

Homologous chromosomes

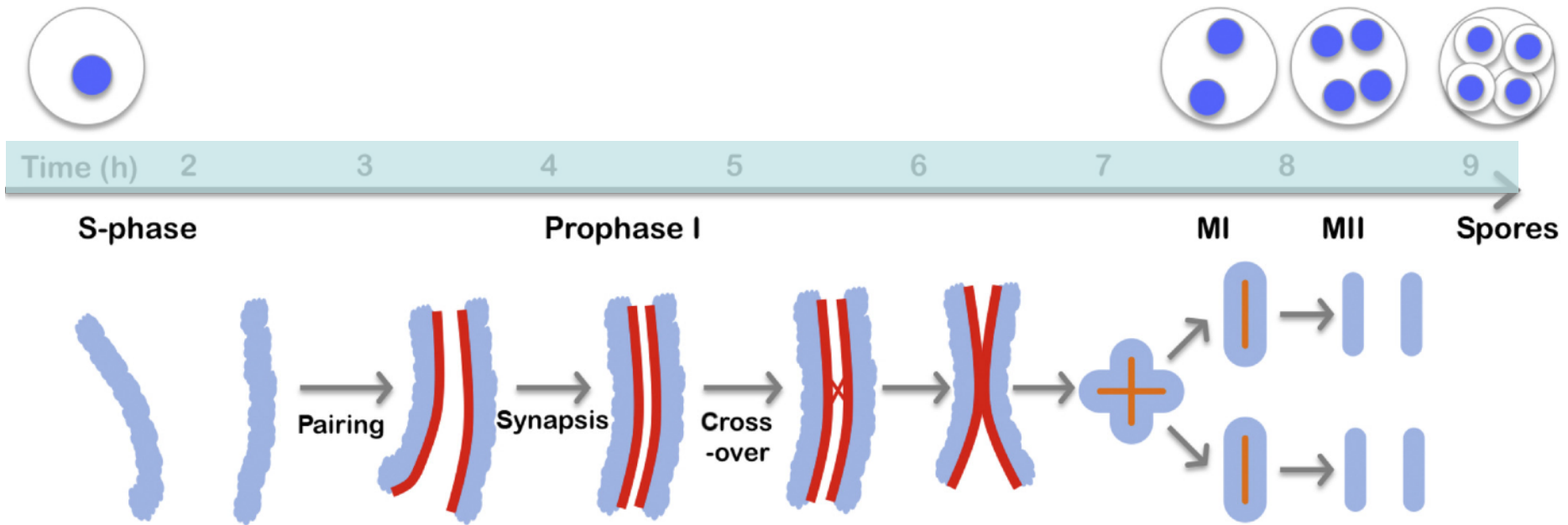


Chiasmata

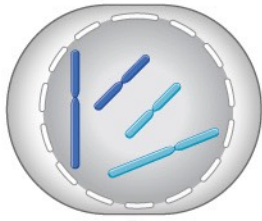
Centromeres



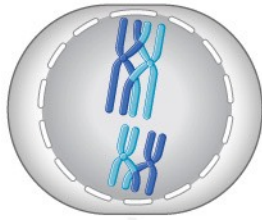
Budding Yeast
S. cerevisiae
~90 min doubling time (haploid)
Mitosis



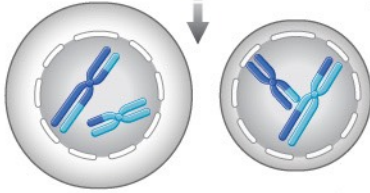
Female



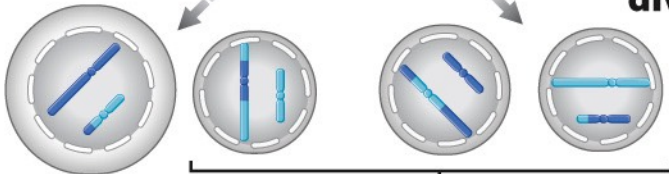
DNA replication



First meiotic division

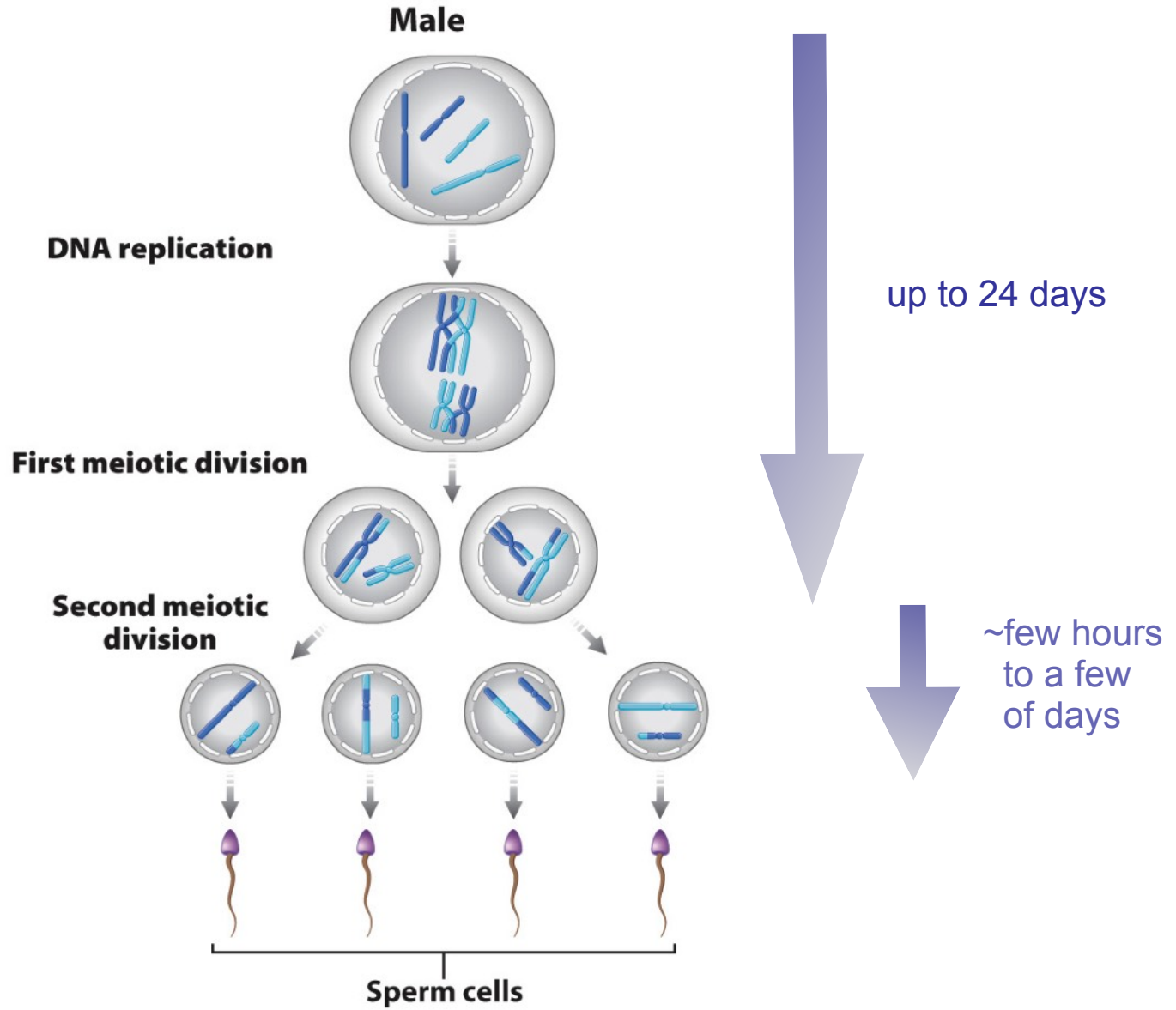


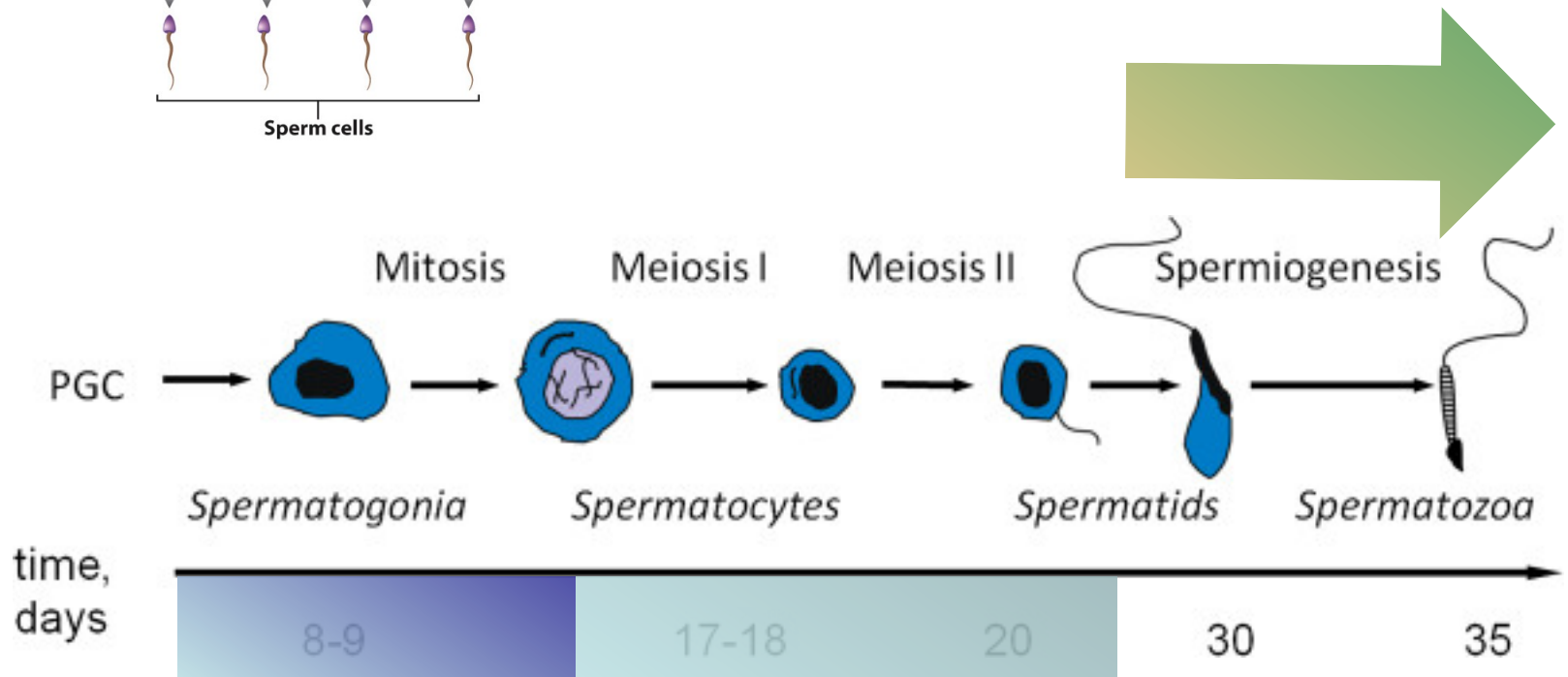
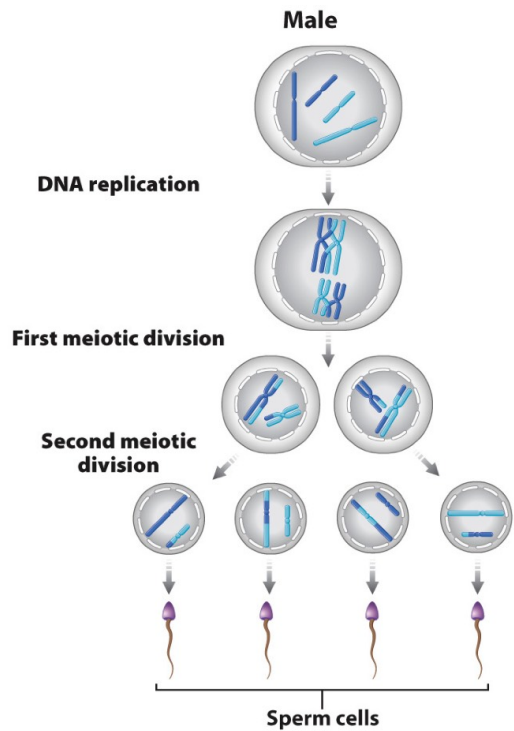
Second meiotic division



Polar bodies



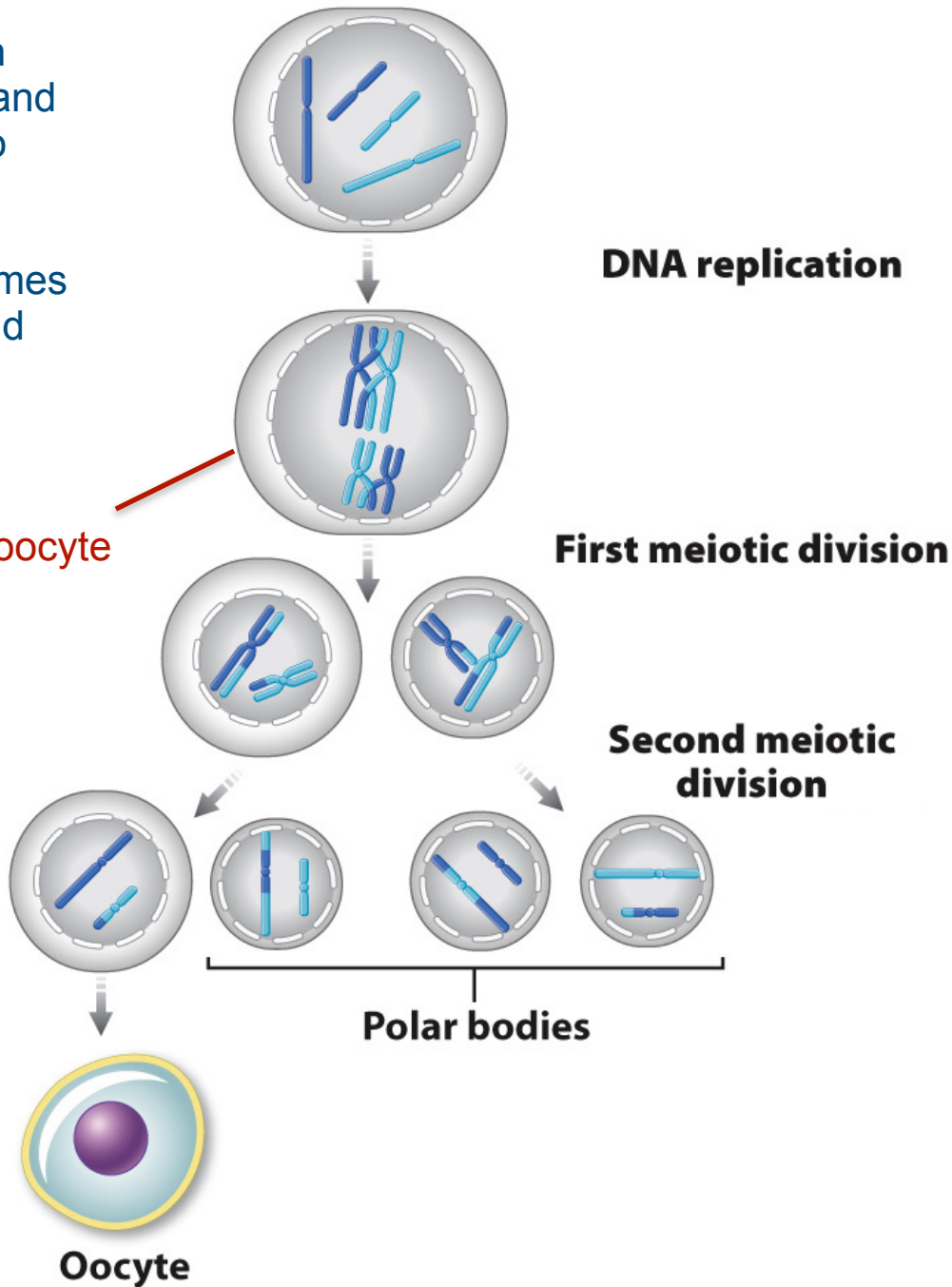




Female

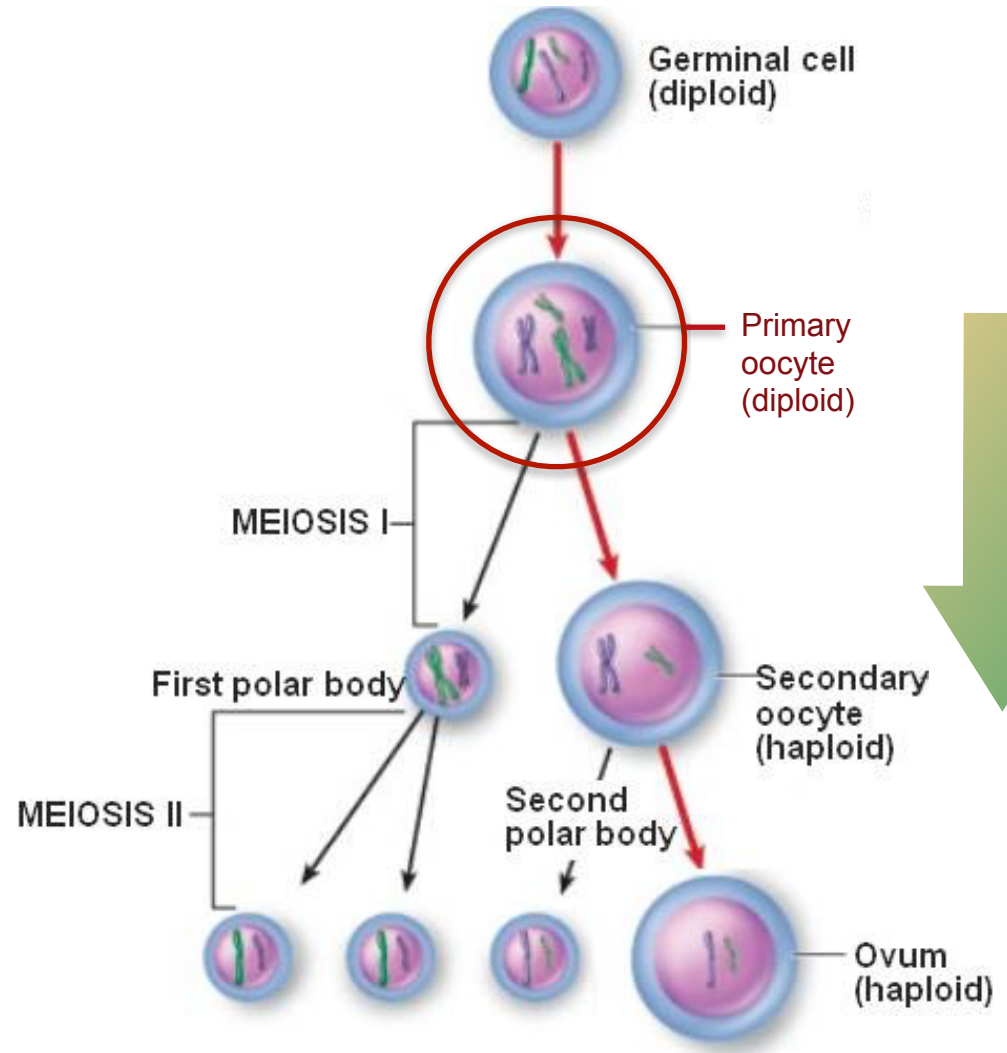
Beginning in puberty, each month one of the follicles and its **primary oocyte** start to mature...

The **primary oocyte** resumes metaphase I of meiosis and divides to form the **secondary oocyte**.



Beginning in puberty, each month one of the follicles and its **primary oocyte** start to mature.

The **primary oocyte** resumes meiosis and divides to form the **secondary oocyte**.

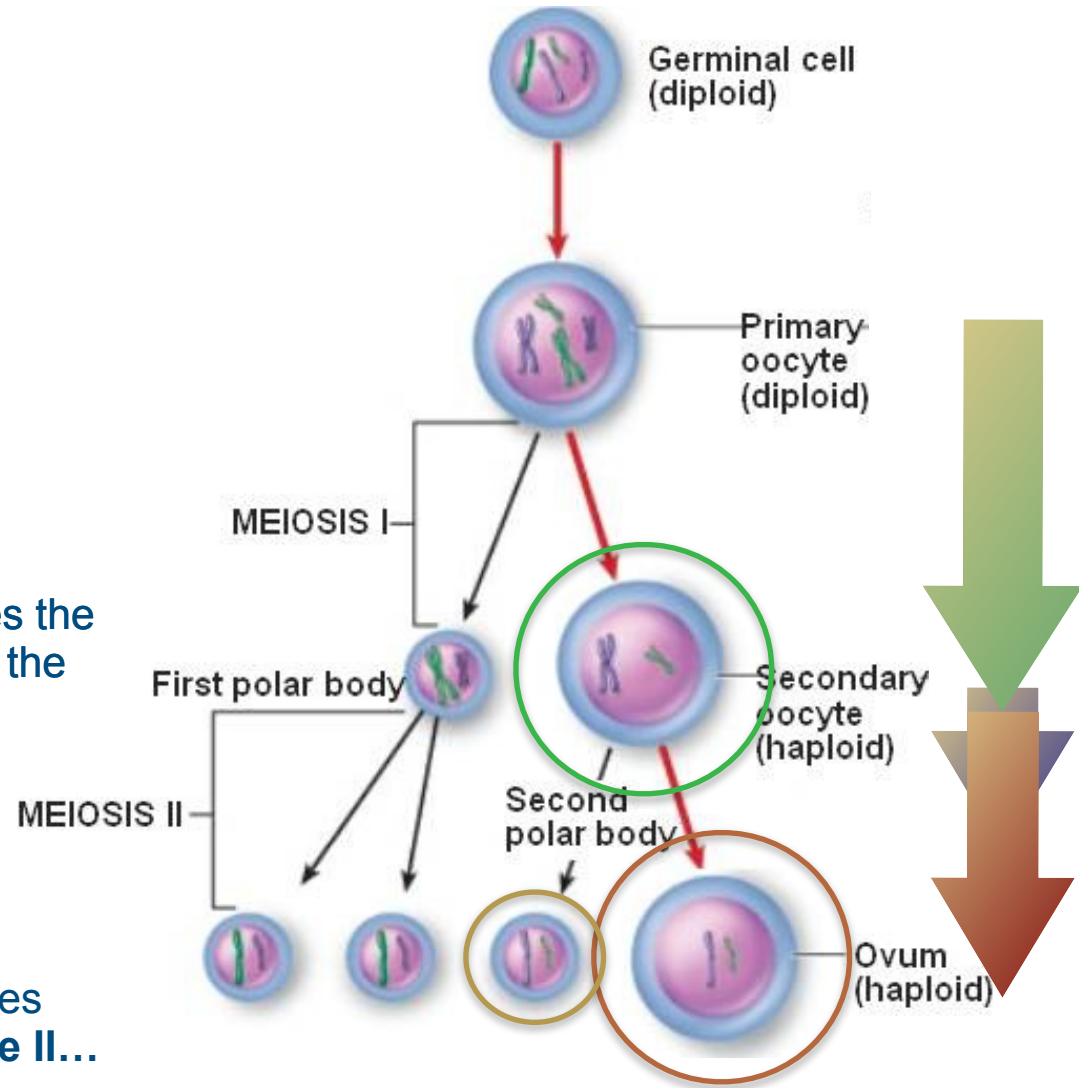


Beginning in puberty, each month one of the follicles and its **primary oocyte** start to mature.

The **primary oocyte** resumes meiosis and divides to form the **secondary oocyte**.

Once one of the daughter cells becomes the **secondary oocyte** the other cell forms the **first polar body**.

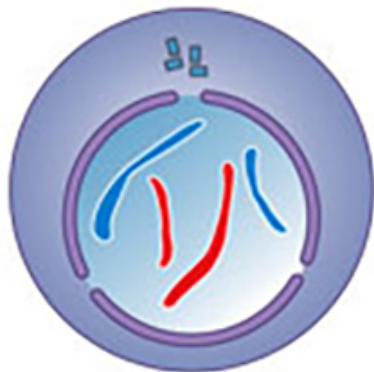
The **secondary oocyte** then commences **meiosis II**, which arrests at **metaphase II**...



At fertilization **Meiosis II** completes - forming the **Ovum** and **second polar body**

MITOSIS

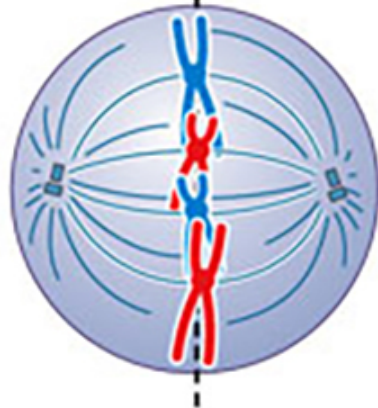
Parent cell ($2n$)



Prophase



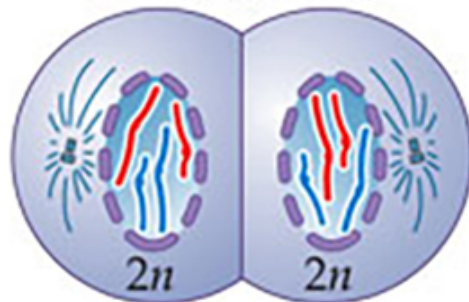
Metaphase



Anaphase



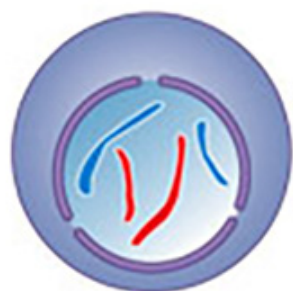
Two daughter cells (each $2n$)



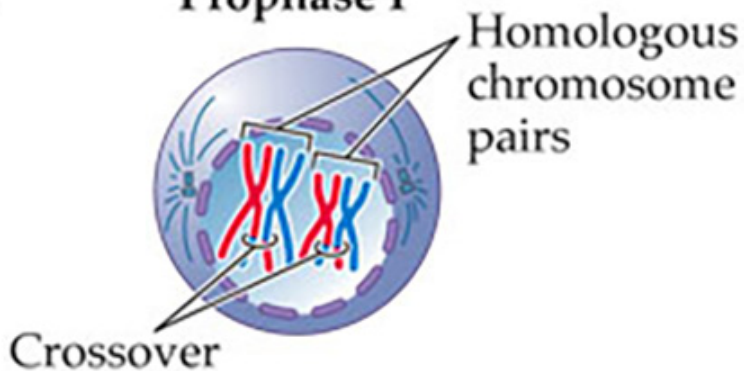
Mitosis is a mechanism for constancy: The parent nucleus produces two identical daughter nuclei.

MEIOSIS

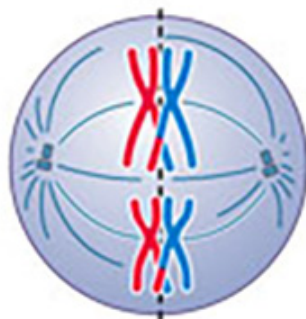
Parent cell ($2n$)



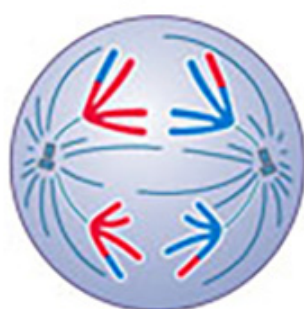
Prophase I



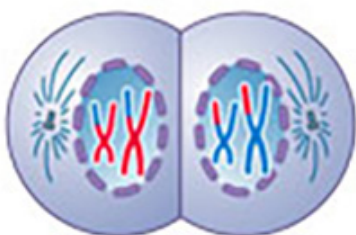
Metaphase I



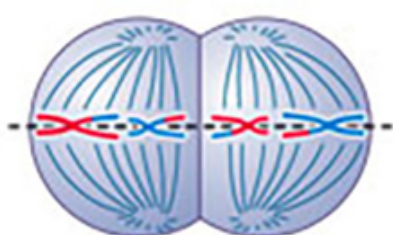
Anaphase I



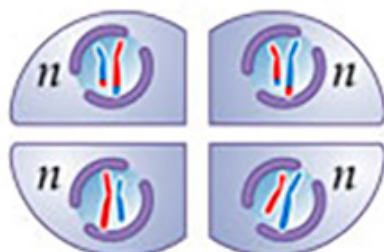
Telophase I



Metaphase II



Four daughter cells (each n)



Meiosis is a mechanism for diversity: The parent nucleus produces four different haploid daughter nuclei.

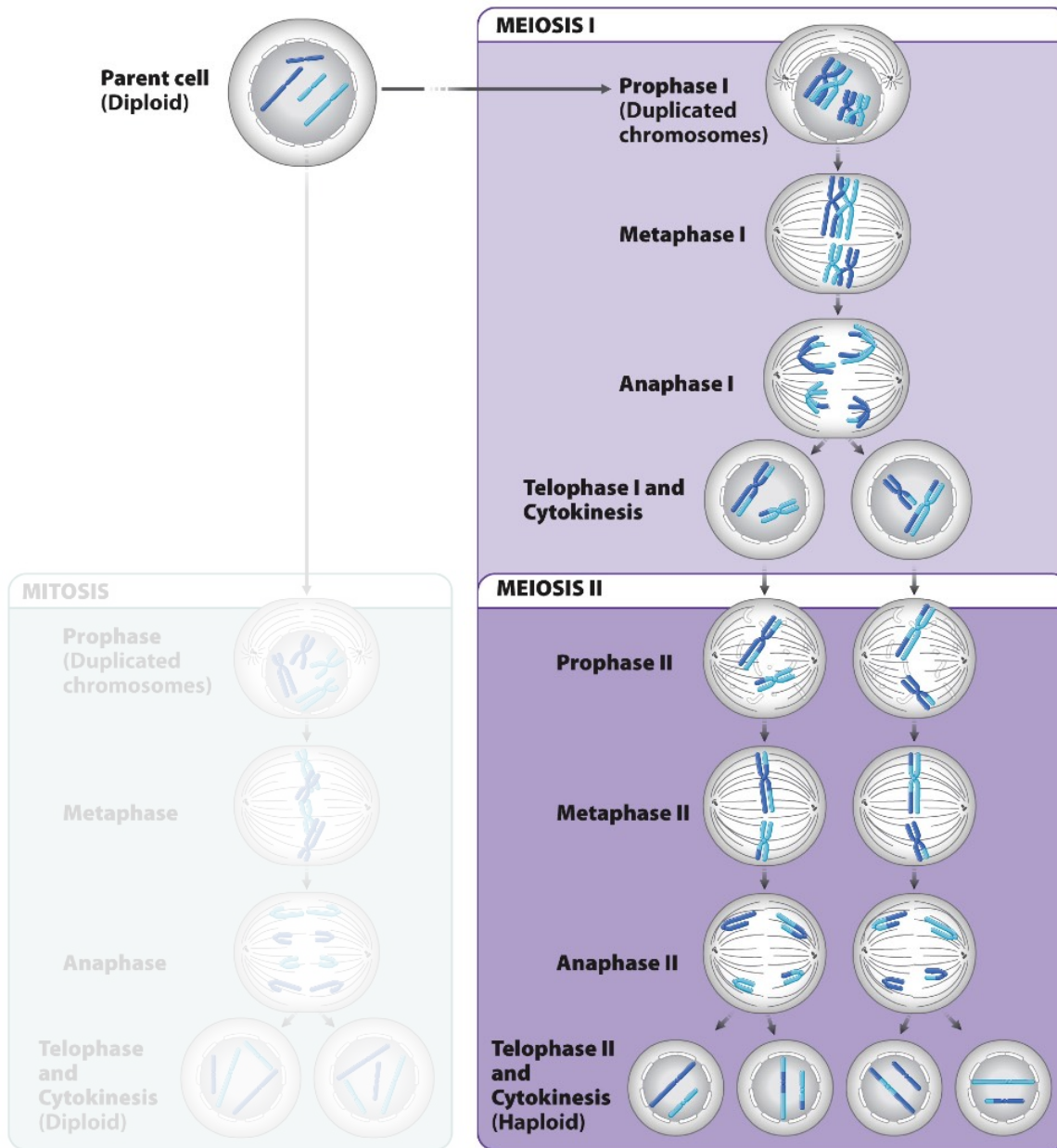


Figure 11.12
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TABLE 11.1 Comparison of Mitosis and Meiosis.

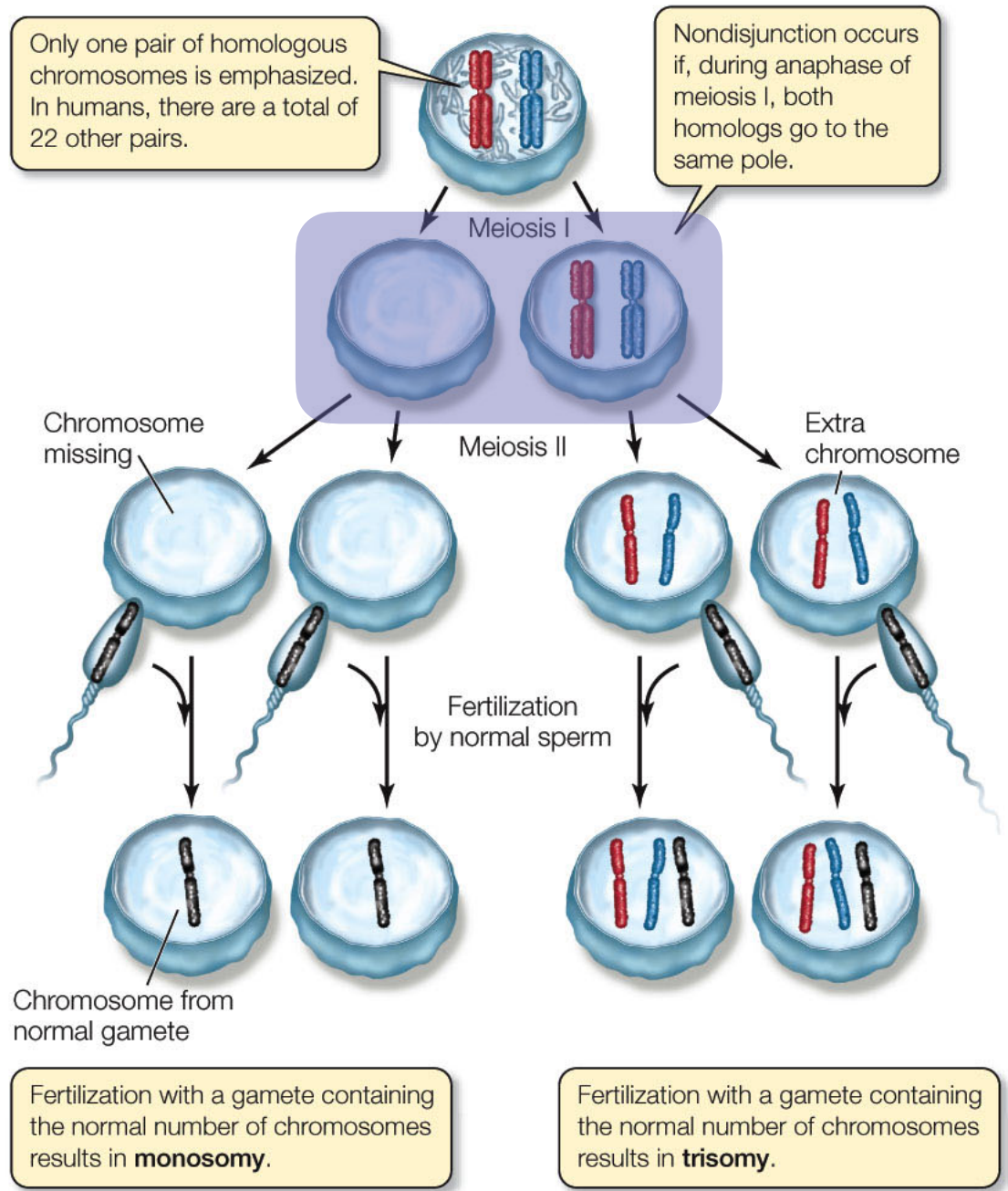
	MITOSIS	MEIOSIS
Function	Asexual reproduction in unicellular eukaryotes Development in multicellular eukaryotes Tissue regeneration and repair in multicellular eukaryotes	Sexual reproduction Production of gametes and spores
Organisms	All eukaryotes	Most eukaryotes
Number of rounds of DNA synthesis	1	1
Number of cell divisions	1	2
Number of daughter cells	2	4
Chromosome complement of daughter cell compared with parent cell	Same	Half
Pairing of homologous chromosomes	No	Meiosis I—Yes Meiosis II—No
Crossing over	No	Meiosis I—Yes Meiosis II—No
Separation of homologous chromosomes	No	Meiosis I—Yes Meiosis II—No
Centromere splitting	Yes	Meiosis I—No Meiosis II—Yes
Separation of sister chromatids	Yes	Meiosis I—No Meiosis II—Yes

Table 11.1*Biology: How Life Works, Second Edition*

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Only one pair of homologous chromosomes is emphasized. In humans, there are a total of 22 other pairs.

Nondisjunction occurs if, during anaphase of meiosis I, both homologs go to the same pole.

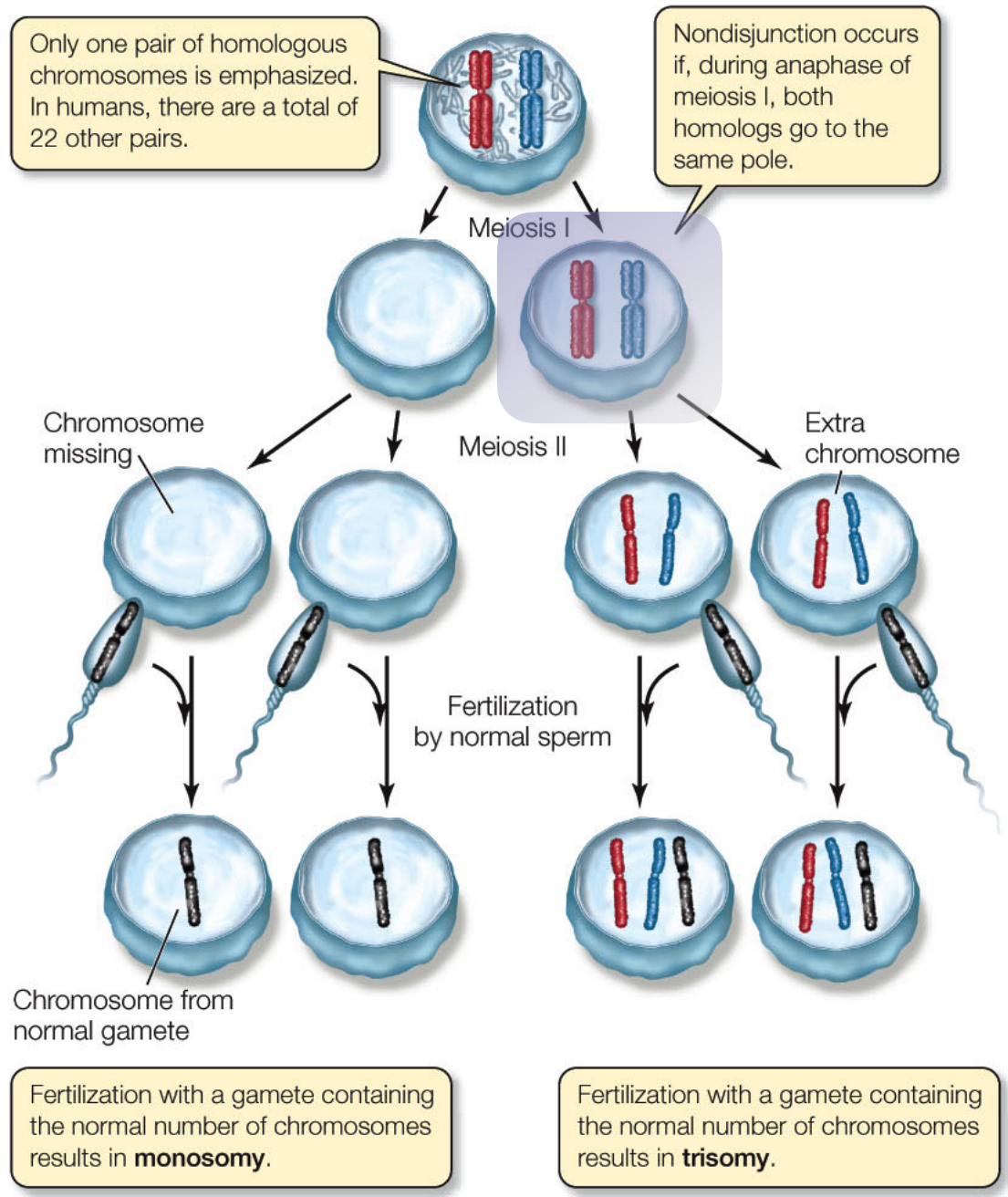


Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **monosomy**.

Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **trisomy**.

Only one pair of homologous chromosomes is emphasized. In humans, there are a total of 22 other pairs.

Nondisjunction occurs if, during anaphase of meiosis I, both homologs go to the same pole.

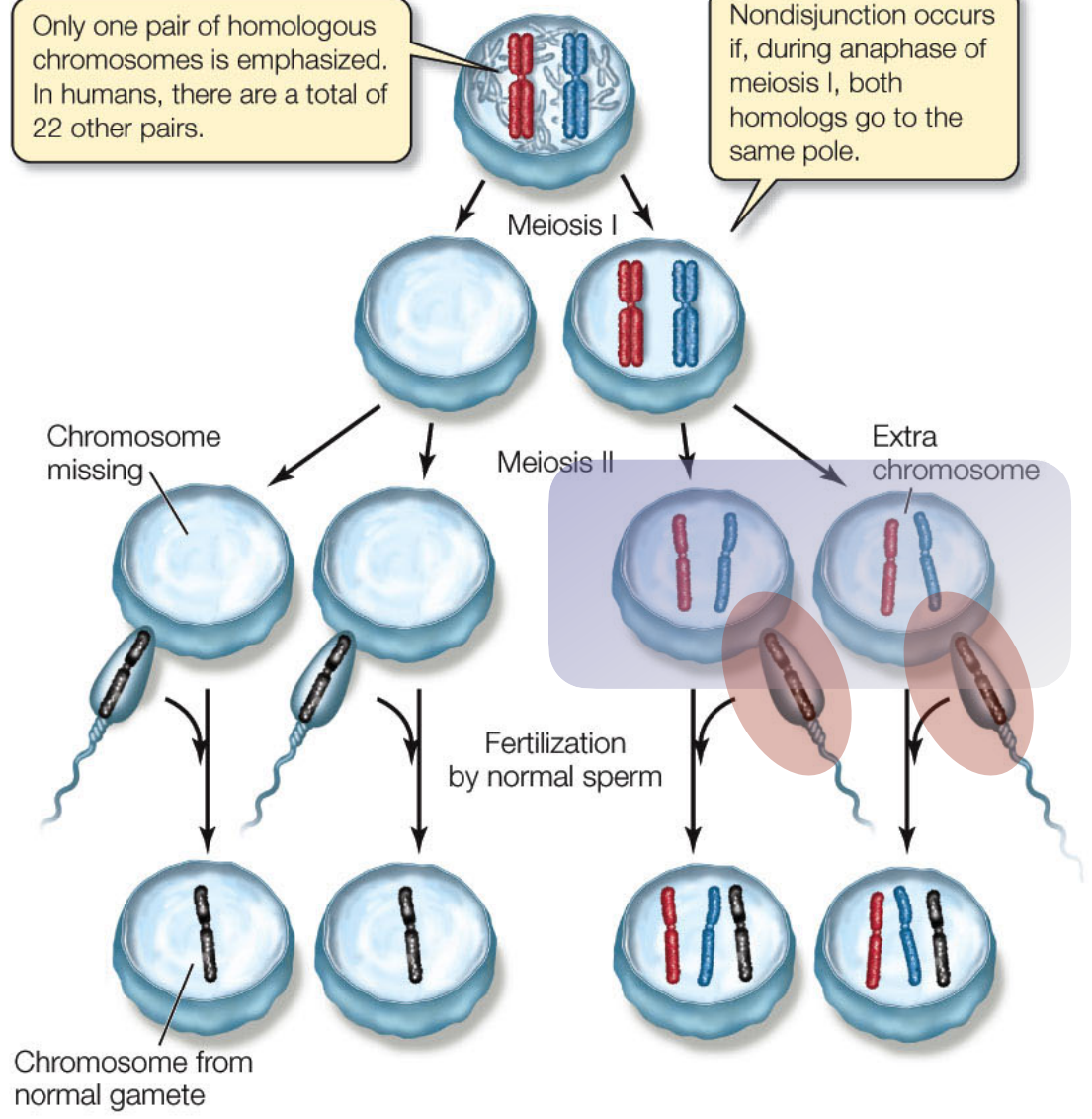


Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **monosomy**.

Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **trisomy**.

Only one pair of homologous chromosomes is emphasized. In humans, there are a total of 22 other pairs.

Nondisjunction occurs if, during anaphase of meiosis I, both homologs go to the same pole.

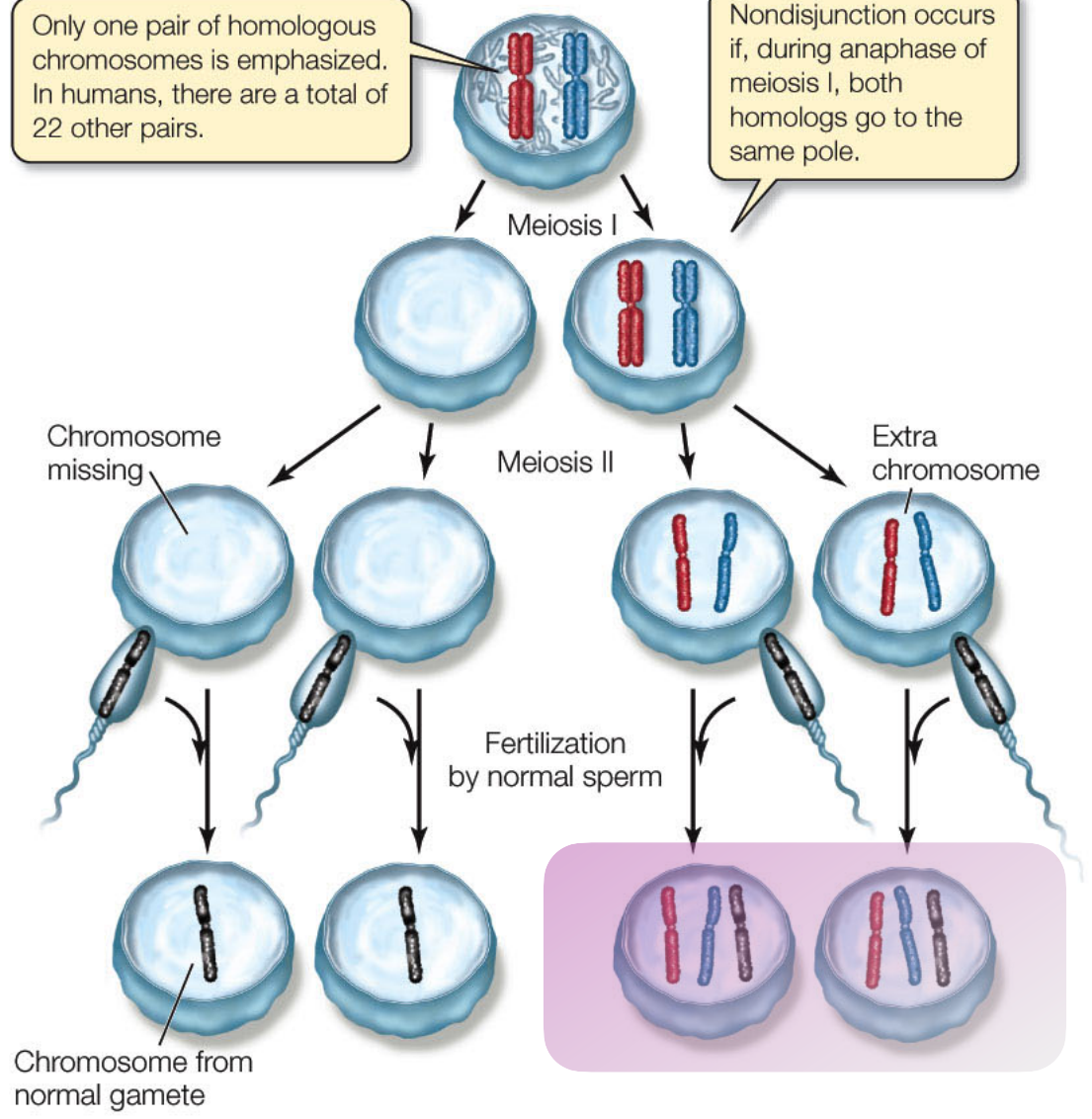


Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **monosomy**.

Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **trisomy**.

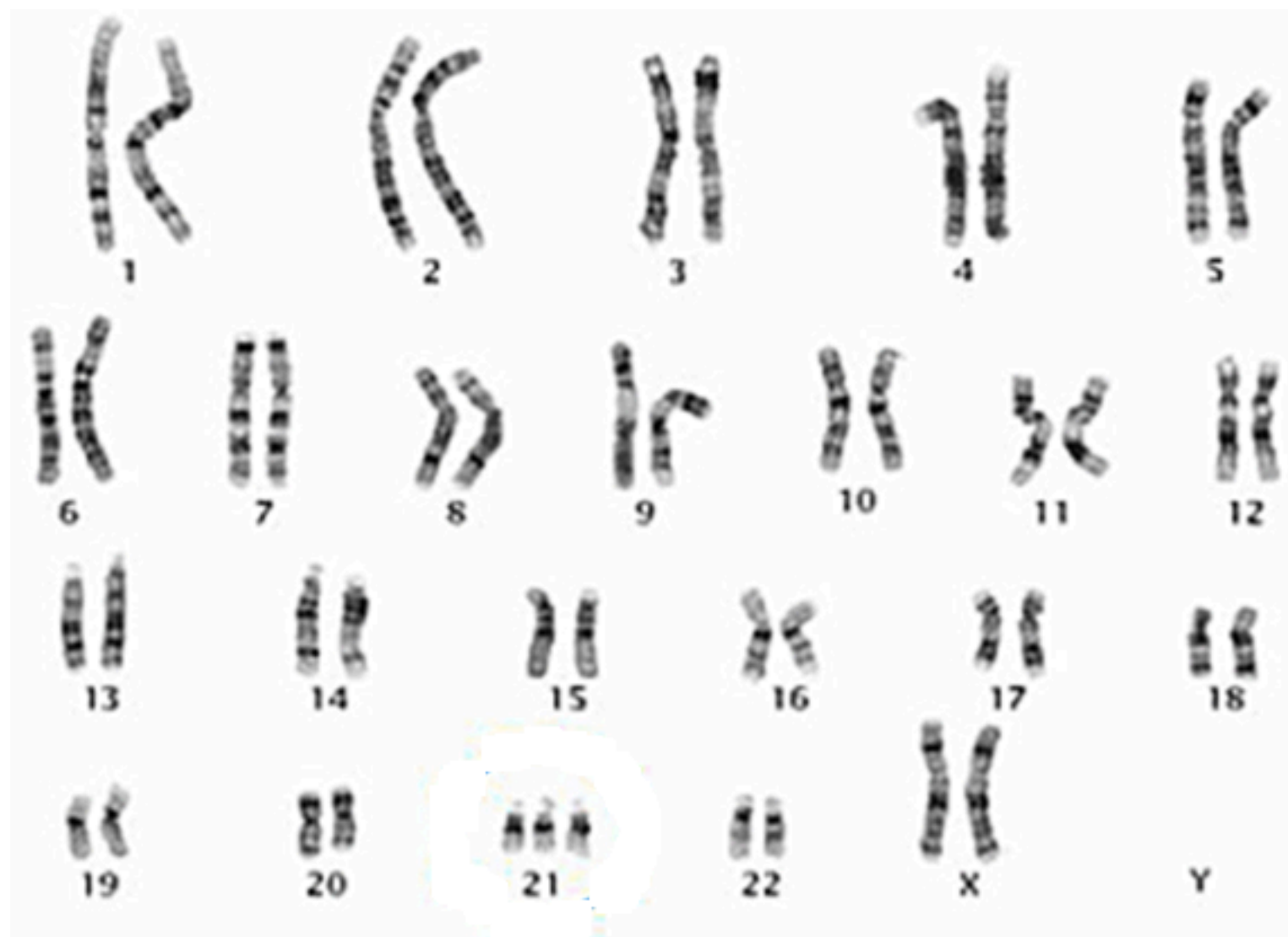
Only one pair of homologous chromosomes is emphasized. In humans, there are a total of 22 other pairs.

Nondisjunction occurs if, during anaphase of meiosis I, both homologs go to the same pole.



Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **monosomy**.

Fertilization with a gamete containing the normal number of chromosomes results in **trisomy**.



Gregor Mendel



From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Gregor Johann Mendel (Czech: *Řehoř Jan Mendel*^[1] 20 July 1822^[2] – 6 January 1884) (English: /ˈmendəl/) was a scientist, [Augustinian friar](#) and abbot of [St. Thomas' Abbey](#) in [Brno](#), [Margraviate of Moravia](#). Mendel was born in a German-speaking family^[3] in the [Silesian](#) part of the [Austrian Empire](#) (today's [Czech Republic](#)) and gained posthumous recognition as the founder of the modern [science of genetics](#). Though farmers had known for millennia that crossbreeding of animals and plants could favor certain desirable [traits](#), Mendel's [pea](#) plant experiments conducted between 1856 and 1863 established many of the rules of [heredity](#), now referred to as the laws of [Mendelian inheritance](#).^[4]

Mendel worked with seven characteristics of pea plants: plant height, pod shape and color, seed shape and color, and flower position and color. Taking seed color as an example, Mendel showed that when a true-breeding yellow pea and a true-breeding green pea were cross-bred their offspring always produced yellow seeds. However, in the next generation, the green peas reappeared at a ratio of 1 green to 3 yellow. To explain this phenomenon, Mendel coined the terms "[recessive](#)" and "[dominant](#)" in reference to certain traits. (In the preceding example, the green trait, which seems to have vanished in the first filial generation, is recessive and the yellow is dominant.) He published his work in 1866, demonstrating the actions of invisible "factors"—now called [genes](#)—in predictably determining the traits of an organism.

The profound significance of Mendel's work was not recognized until the turn of the 20th century (more than three decades later) with the rediscovery of his laws.^[5] [Erich von Tschermak](#), [Hugo de Vries](#), [Carl Correns](#) and [William Jasper Spillman](#) independently verified several of Mendel's experimental findings, ushering in the modern age of genetics.^[4]

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 - 2.1.1 [Initial reception of Mendel's work](#)
 - 2.2 [Other experiments](#)
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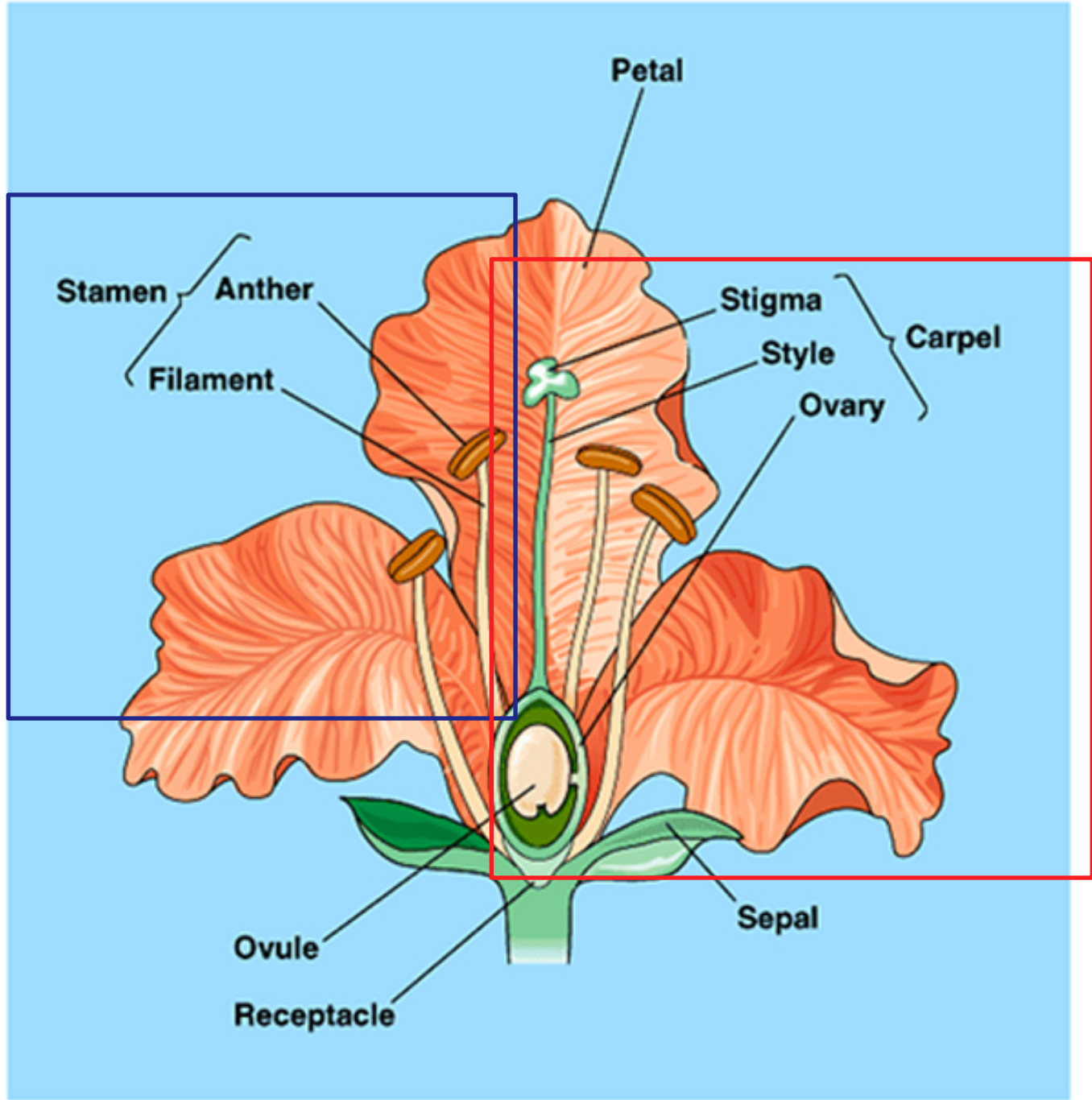


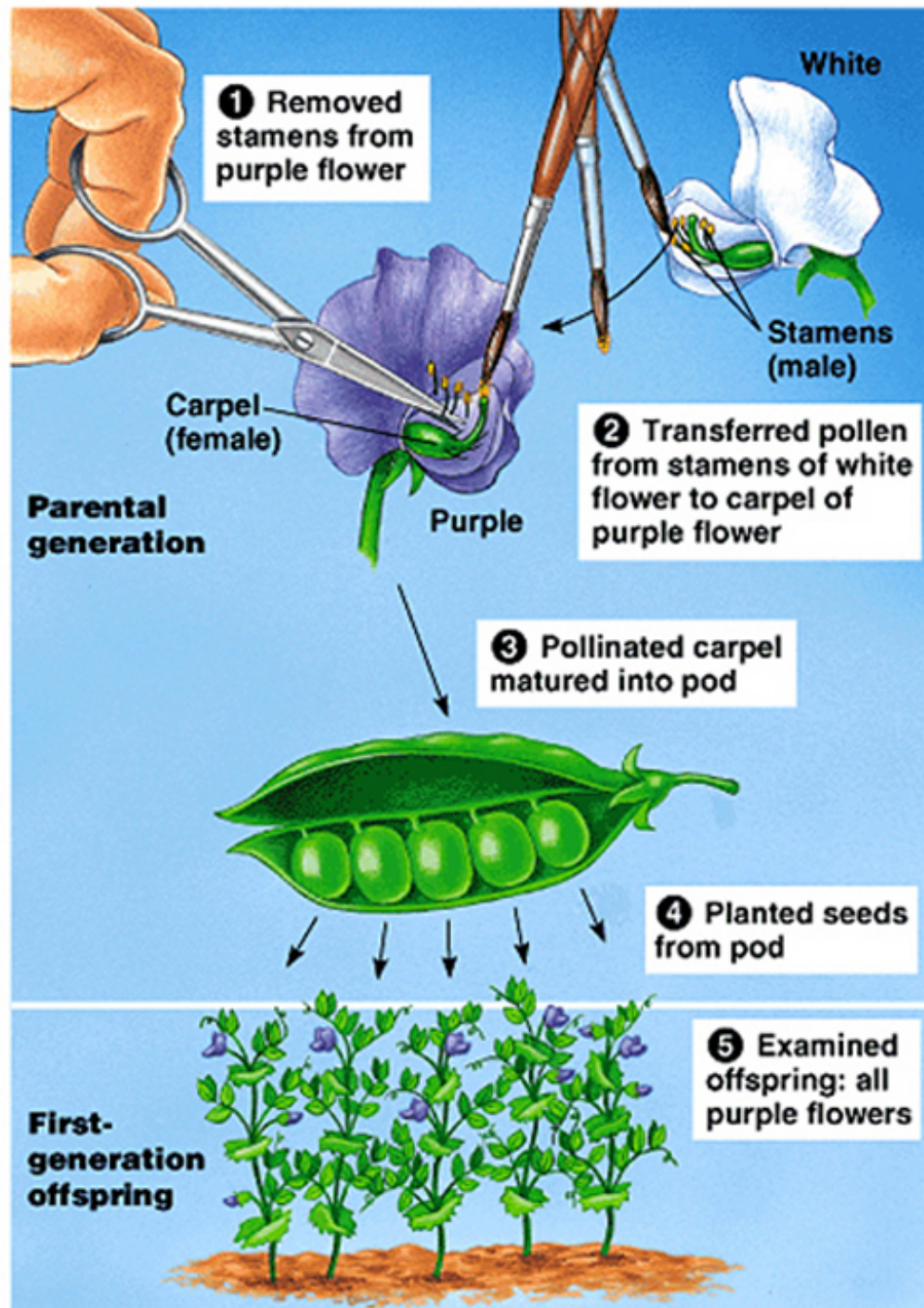
Gregor Mendel

Born	Johann Mendel 20 July 1822 Heinzendorf bei Odrau , Silesia , Austrian Empire (now Hynčice , Czech Republic)
Died	6 January 1884 (aged 61) Brünn , Moravia , Austria-Hungary (now Brno , Czech Republic)
Nationality	Austrian
Alma mater	University of Olomouc University of Vienna
Known for	Creating the science of genetics
	Scientific career
Fields	Genetics
Institutions	St Thomas's Abbey

Life and career

Mendel was born into a [German-speaking](#) family in [Hynčice](#) (*Heinzendorf bei Odrau* in German), at the [Moravian-Silesian](#) border, [Austrian Empire](#) (now a part of the [Czech Republic](#)).^[3] He was the son of Anton and Rosine (Schwirtlich) Mendel and had one older sister, Veronika,





Dominant

Recessive

a. Color of seeds
(yellow or green)



b. Shape of seeds
(round or wrinkled)



c. Color of pod
(green or yellow)



d. Shape of pod
(smooth or indented)



e. Color of flower
(purple or white)



f. Position of flowers
(along stem or at tip)



g. Plant height
(tall or dwarfed)



Dominant

Recessive

a. Color of seeds
(yellow or green)



b. Shape of seeds
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(tall or dwarfed)



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Recessive

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d. Shape of pod
(smooth or indented)



e. Color of flower
(purple or white)



f. Position of flowers
(along stem or at tip)



g. Plant height
(tall or dwarfed)





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EXPERIMENT

Question: When two strains with contrasting traits breed, are their characteristics irreversibly blended in succeeding generations?

METHOD

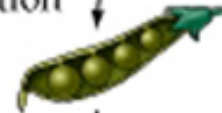
P seeds



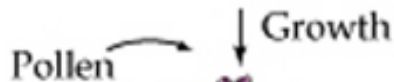
P plants



Maturation



F₁ seeds from
P plant

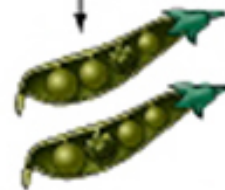


F₁ plant



RESULTS

F₂ seeds from
F₁ plant



Conclusion: There is no irreversible blending of characteristics. A trait can reappear in succeeding generations.

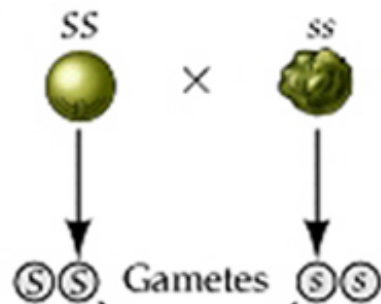
Gregor Mendel's hypotheses:

1. Hereditary determinants are of a particulate nature. Each genetic trait is governed by **unit factors** , which "hang around" in pairs (or **gene pairs**) within individual organisms.
2. When two different unit factors governing the same phenotypical trait occur in the same organism, one of the factors is **dominant** over the other one, which is called the **recessive** trait.
3. During the formation of gametes the "paired" unit factors separate or **segregate randomly** so that each gamete receives either **one or the other** of the two traits, but **only one**.
4. The union of one gamete from each parent to form a resultant zygote **is random** with respect to that particular characteristic.
5. During production of gametes, only one of the "pair members" for a given character passes to the gamete.
6. When fertilization occurs, the zygote gets **one from each parent**, thus restoring the pair.

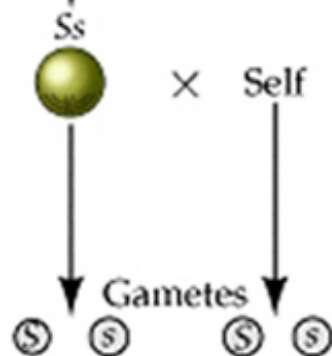


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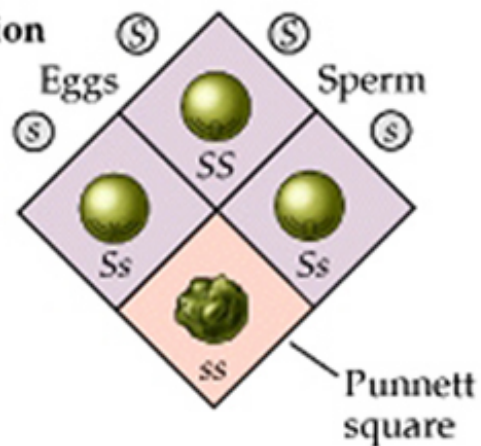
Parental (P)
generation



F₁ generation



F₂ generation



10.1 Mendel's Results from Monohybrid Crosses

DOMINANT × RECESSIVE	DOMINANT	RECESSIVE	TOTAL	RATIO
Spherical seeds × Wrinkled seeds	5,474	1,850	7,324	2.96:1
Yellow seeds × Green seeds	6,022	2,001	8,023	3.01:1
Purple flowers × White flowers	705	224	929	3.15:1
Inflated pods × Constricted pods	882	299	1,181	2.95:1
Green pods × Yellow pods	428	152	580	2.82:1
Axial flowers × Terminal flowers	651	207	858	3.14:1
Tall stems × Dwarf stems	787	277	1,064	2.84:1

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Mendel's 1st law- the law of segregation

Mendel's First Law: Two members of a gene pair segregate from each other into the gametes, whereby one half of the gametes carries one of the traits, the other half carries the other.

Mendel's 2nd law- the law of random assortment

Mendel's Second Law: During gamete formation the segregation of one gene pair is independent of all other gene pairs