



Collegedunia NCERT Formula Sheet

Class 12 / 12th Biology — Chapter 4 (NCERT 2026-27 / Latest Edition)

Chapter 4: Principles of Inheritance and Variation

Mendel's Ratios | Punnett & Test Cross | ABO Genetics | Linkage & Recombination | Sex Determination | Pedigree & Disorders

Also see for this chapter: [NCERT Solutions](#) | [Revision Notes](#) | [Exemplar Solutions](#)

Quantity / Ratio	Value	Where it appears
Monohybrid F ₂ phenotypic ratio	3 : 1	One-gene cross, complete dominance
Monohybrid F ₂ genotypic ratio	1 : 2 : 1	$TT : Tt : tt$
Incomplete dominance F ₂ ratio	1 : 2 : 1 (pheno = geno)	Snapdragon flower colour
Test cross ratio (heterozygote)	1 : 1	$Tt \times tt$
Dihybrid F ₂ phenotypic ratio	9 : 3 : 3 : 1	Two-gene cross, independent assortment
Dihybrid F ₂ genotypic classes	9 genotypes	From 16 Punnett squares
Number of gamete types	2^n (n = heterozygous loci)	Independent assortment
1 map unit (centimorgan)	1% recombination	Genetic map distance
Colour blindness frequency	≈ 8% males, 0.4% females	X-linked recessive
Human chromosome number	46 (23 pairs)	22 autosome pairs + 1 sex pair
Down's syndrome karyotype	47 (trisomy of 21)	Aneuploidy
Klinefelter's / Turner's	47, XXY / 45, X0	Sex-chromosome aneuploidy

1 1. Mendel's Monohybrid Ratios (NCERT 4.1–4.2)

The inheritance of a single gene. These expressions give the predicted offspring ratios when one true-breeding parent is crossed with another and the F_1 is selfed — the quantitative backbone of Mendel's Law of Dominance and Law of Segregation.

Key terms (the vocabulary every formula uses)

Gene: unit of inheritance carrying information for a trait. **Allele:** one of the alternative forms of a gene (e.g. T vs t). **Genotype:** the allelic make-up (TT , Tt , tt). **Phenotype:** the observable trait (tall / dwarf). **Homozygous:** identical alleles (TT or tt). **Heterozygous:** dissimilar alleles (Tt). **Dominant** allele expresses in the heterozygote; **recessive** stays masked.

Monohybrid F_2 phenotypic ratio

$$\text{Dominant} : \text{Recessive} = 3 : 1$$

where the cross is $TT \times tt \rightarrow F_1$ all Tt (dominant); $F_1 \times F_1$ selfing $\rightarrow F_2$.

Out of every 4 F_2 plants, on average 3 show the dominant trait and 1 shows the recessive trait. This is the single most tested ratio in the chapter (Fig. 4.3, 4.4).

Monohybrid F_2 genotypic ratio

$$TT : Tt : tt = 1 : 2 : 1$$

where TT = homozygous dominant; Tt = heterozygous; tt = homozygous recessive.

The 3 : 1 phenotype hides a 1 : 2 : 1 genotype — the 3 dominant plants are actually 1 TT + 2 Tt . Tall TT and tall Tt look identical, so genotype cannot be read off the phenotype directly.

Binomial form of the F_2 genotypes

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}T + \frac{1}{2}t\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4}TT + \frac{1}{2}Tt + \frac{1}{4}tt$$

where each gamete carries T or t with equal frequency $\frac{1}{2}$ (Law of Segregation).

The 1 : 2 : 1 ratio is the **binomial expansion** of $(p + q)^2$ with $p = q = \frac{1}{2}$. NCERT writes this exact expression on p. 58 — expect a "derive the ratio" board question.

Mendel's first two laws stated

Law of Dominance: characters are controlled by discrete factors occurring in pairs; in a dissimilar pair one factor dominates the other. Explains the F_1 uniformity and the 3 : 1 F_2 ratio.

Law of Segregation: the two alleles of a pair separate during gamete formation so that each gamete gets only one allele; alleles do not blend and are recovered unchanged in F_2 . This law is **universal** (no known exception).

2 2. Test Cross & Punnett Square (NCERT 4.2)

Tools to determine an unknown genotype and to enumerate cross outcomes. The test cross resolves whether a dominant-looking individual is homozygous or heterozygous; the Punnett square is the bookkeeping grid for all gamete combinations.

Test cross ratio

$$\text{Unknown dominant} \times tt \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{all dominant} & \Rightarrow \text{unknown is } TT \\ \text{1 dom : 1 rec} & \Rightarrow \text{unknown is } Tt \end{cases}$$

where the tester is always the **homozygous recessive** (tt).

A test cross crosses the dominant-phenotype individual with the recessive parent. A **1 : 1 ratio in the progeny** proves the parent was heterozygous; uniform dominant progeny proves it was homozygous (Fig. 4.5).

Punnett square gamete count

$$\text{Cells in square} = (\text{gamete types of } P_1) \times (\text{gamete types of } P_2)$$

e.g. monohybrid $Tt \times Tt$: $2 \times 2 = 4$ cells; dihybrid $RrYy \times RrYy$: $4 \times 4 = 16$ cells.

The Punnett square is a graphical grid (Reginald Punnett) that lists every possible **fusion of gametes**. Each interior cell is one equally likely zygote — count cells to read off ratios.

Number of distinct gametes from a genotype

A genotype heterozygous at n independent loci produces 2^n types of gametes. $Tt \Rightarrow 2^1 = 2$; $RrYy \Rightarrow 2^2 = 4$; heterozygous for 4 loci $\Rightarrow 2^4 = 16$ gamete types. Directly answers NCERT Exercise Q3.

3 3. Exceptions to Dominance (NCERT 4.2.2)

Cases where the simple 3 : 1 phenotype does not appear because the heterozygote is not identical to a homozygous parent. The genotype ratio stays 1 : 2 : 1 in every case — only the mapping to phenotype changes.

Incomplete dominance F_2 ratio

$$\text{Phenotypic ratio} = \text{Genotypic ratio} = 1 : 2 : 1$$

e.g. snapdragon: Red (RR) : Pink (Rr) : White (rr) = 1 : 2 : 1.

The heterozygote shows an **intermediate phenotype** (pink) because R is not completely dominant over r . The 3 : 1 phenotype collapses onto the 1 : 2 : 1 genotype, so each genotype is now visibly distinct.

Co-dominance — ABO blood groups

$$I^A = I^B > i \quad (I^A, I^B \text{ co-dominant; both dominant over } i)$$

where gene I has three alleles I^A, I^B, i ; each diploid carries any **two**.

In co-dominance **both alleles express fully** in the heterozygote — $I^A I^B$ produces **both** A and B sugars, giving blood group AB. Allele i produces no sugar, so it is recessive to both.

ABO genotype → phenotype map

Genotype	Blood group
$I^A I^A$ or $I^A i$	A
$I^B I^B$ or $I^B i$	B
$I^A I^B$	AB
ii	O

Six genotypes collapse into **four** phenotypes (A, B, AB, O). This is also the standard NCERT example of **multiple alleles** — three alleles for one gene at the population level.

Pleiotropy and multiple alleles

Multiple alleles: a single gene with more than two allelic forms in the population (e.g. I^A, I^B, i); an individual still carries only two. **Pleiotropy:** one gene controlling **multiple phenotypic traits** through one metabolic pathway — NCERT example *phenylketonuria* (one mutated phenylalanine hydroxylase gene → mental retardation *and* reduced pigmentation). Starch synthesis in pea ($BB > Bb > bb$ grain size) shows dominance is phenotype-dependent, not an absolute property of an allele.

4 4. Dihybrid Cross & Independent Assortment (NCERT 4.3)

The inheritance of two genes together. These ratios follow from Mendel's Law of Independent Assortment: the segregation of one gene pair is independent of another, so the dihybrid ratio factorises into the product of two monohybrid ratios.

Dihybrid F_2 phenotypic ratio

$$9 : 3 : 3 : 1$$

for the cross $RRYY \times rryy \rightarrow F_1 RrYy \rightarrow F_2$ (round yellow : round green : wrinkled yellow : wrinkled green).

9 show **both dominant** traits, **3+3** show **one dominant + one recessive**, **1** shows **both recessive**. The classic NCERT seed-shape \times seed-colour cross (Fig. 4.7).

9:3:3:1 as a product of monohybrid ratios

$$(3 \text{ Round} : 1 \text{ Wrinkled}) \times (3 \text{ Yellow} : 1 \text{ Green}) = 9 : 3 : 3 : 1$$

because each gene pair independently gives a **3 : 1** ratio.

Law of Independent Assortment: each pair segregates independently, so combined ratios **multiply**. This product rule lets you predict any specific phenotype fraction without drawing the full **16**-cell square.

Gamete types in a dihybrid

$$RrYy \rightarrow RY, Ry, rY, ry \quad (\text{each } \frac{1}{4} = 25\%)$$

giving $4 \times 4 = 16$ Punnett cells, **9** genotypes and **4** phenotypes in F_2 .

Four equally frequent gamete classes arise because R/r assort **independently** of Y/y . The

F₂ genotypic ratio is **1:2:2:4:1:2:1:2:1** across **9** classes.

Probability shortcut for a specific phenotype

Use the product rule: P(round *and* green) = $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{16}$; P(wrinkled *and* green) = $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16}$. Far faster than the full square for NCERT Exercise Q7-type problems.

Chromosomal Theory of Inheritance (NCERT 4.3.2)

Sutton & Boveri (1902–03): genes (Mendel's "factors") sit on chromosomes; the **pairing and separation of homologous chromosomes during meiosis** exactly parallels the segregation and independent assortment of alleles. This united Mendelian genetics with cell biology. Verified experimentally by **T. H. Morgan** using *Drosophila melanogaster*.

5 5. Linkage & Recombination (NCERT 4.3.3)

What happens when two genes lie on the *same* chromosome — they no longer assort independently. Recombination frequency quantifies how often they are separated and is the basis of genetic mapping.

Recombination frequency

$$\text{RF} = \frac{\text{number of recombinant offspring}}{\text{total offspring}} \times 100\%$$

where recombinants carry **non-parental** allele combinations.

RF measures how often linked genes are separated by crossing over. **Tightly linked** genes \Rightarrow low RF (e.g. Morgan's *y* & *w*: **1.3%**); **loosely linked** \Rightarrow high RF (e.g. *w* & *m*: **37.2%**). Max RF = **50%** (= independent assortment).

Genetic map distance

$$1 \text{ map unit (centimorgan, cM)} = 1\% \text{ recombination}$$

where map distance \propto recombination frequency between two loci.

Alfred **Sturtevant** used RF as a measure of the **physical distance** between genes to build the first linkage map. Greater RF \Rightarrow genes farther apart on the chromosome.

Linkage vs. recombination in one line

Linkage: physical association of genes on the same chromosome — parental gamete types dominate, F₂ deviates strongly from 9:3:3:1. **Recombination**: generation of non-parental combinations by crossing over during meiosis I. The two are inversely related: **strong linkage** \Rightarrow **low recombination**.

6 6. Sex Determination (NCERT 4.4)

The chromosomal basis of sex. NCERT covers four systems — XO, XY, ZW and the haplodiploid honey-bee mechanism — each with a fixed ratio or chromosome rule worth memorising for NEET.

Human / Drosophila XY system

Female = XX Male = XY (male heterogamety)

sperm: 50% carry X , 50% carry Y ; all ova carry X .

The **sperm decides the sex** of the child. X -sperm \rightarrow female (XX); Y -sperm \rightarrow male (XY). Probability of a male or female child is exactly **50% each pregnancy**, independent of the mother.

XO, ZW and honey-bee systems

XO (grasshopper) Female XX , Male XO male heterogamety; no Y

ZW (birds) Female ZW , Male ZZ female heterogamety

Haplodiploid (honey bee) Female $2n=32$, Male $n=16$ female from fertilised egg; male (drone) from unfertilised egg

Male honey bees (drones) are **haploid**, develop by **parthenogenesis**, produce sperm by **mitosis**, have **no father** but a grandfather.

Male vs. female heterogamety

Male heterogamety = the male makes two kinds of gametes (humans XY , grasshopper XO).

Female heterogamety = the female makes two kinds (birds ZW). NEET frequently swaps "ZW = male is different" — in ZW it is the **female** (ZW) that is heterogametic.

7 7. Mutation (NCERT 4.5)

Heritable change in DNA that creates new variation. NCERT distinguishes point mutations from large chromosomal and ploidy changes; the sickle-cell substitution is the model example.

Point mutation — sickle-cell anaemia

$GAG \rightarrow GUG$ (single base substitution)

$Glu \rightarrow Val$ at codon 6

on the β -globin chain of haemoglobin ($Hb^A \rightarrow Hb^S$).

A **single base-pair change** (point mutation) swaps one amino acid and converts normal Hb to sickle Hb. Under low O_2 , Hb^S polymerises and the RBC bends into a **sickle shape**. Autosomal recessive.

Types of genetic change (NCERT 4.5)

Point mutation: change in a single base pair (e.g. sickle-cell). **Frame-shift mutation:** insertion or deletion of base pairs shifting the reading frame. **Aneuploidy:** gain/loss of a single chromosome (failure of chromatid segregation) — e.g. Down's, Turner's. **Polyploidy:** gain of a whole chromosome set (failure of cytokinesis), common in plants. **Mutagens:** agents that induce mutation, e.g. UV radiation, chemicals.

8 8. Genetic Disorders (NCERT 4.6)

Mendelian (single-gene) disorders and chromosomal disorders, plus pedigree analysis — the tool used to trace inheritance in humans where controlled crosses are impossible.

X-linked recessive — colour blindness

Affected: $\approx 8\%$ males, $\approx 0.4\%$ females

gene on the X chromosome; males (**XY**) need only **one** defective allele, females (**XX**) need **two**.

Far commoner in males because they are **hemizygous** for X. A carrier mother (**X^cX**) gives each son a **50%** chance of being colour blind. Haemophilia follows the same X-linked recessive pattern (Queen Victoria pedigree).

Chromosomal disorders — karyotypes

Down's syndrome	47, trisomy of 21	extra chr. 21; described by Langdon Down
Klinefelter's syndrome	47, XXY	masculine + gynecomastia; sterile
Turner's syndrome	45, X0	female, rudimentary ovaries; sterile

Normal human cell = **46** chromosomes. **Trisomy** = one extra ($2n + 1$); **monosomy** = one missing ($2n - 1$). All three arise from **non-disjunction** during gamete formation.

Mendelian disorders & pedigree analysis

Mendelian disorders (single-gene): haemophilia, cystic fibrosis, sickle-cell anaemia, colour blindness, phenylketonuria, thalassaemia. They may be **autosomal** or **sex-linked, dominant** or **recessive**. **Pedigree analysis** represents a trait's inheritance across family generations using standard symbols (Fig. 4.13) — it reveals whether a trait is dominant/recessive and autosomal/sex-linked. **Thalassaemia** (autosomal recessive) is *quantitative* (too few globin chains) whereas sickle-cell is *qualitative* (wrong globin).

Read the Full Revision Notes \square

9 9. Worked Number Patterns (NEET Quick-Recall)

The handful of ratio computations that recur in NEET MCQs and CBSE board numericals, condensed so they can be reproduced without re-deriving.

Carrier & cross probabilities

$$Aa \times Aa \Rightarrow \frac{1}{4} AA : \frac{1}{2} Aa : \frac{1}{4} aa$$

$$P(\text{carrier among dominant offspring}) = \frac{2}{3}$$

where the affected **aa** class is excluded when only dominant-phenotype offspring are considered.

Among the **phenotypically dominant** F_2 (3 out of 4), the ratio $AA : Aa$ is 1 : 2, so $\frac{2}{3}$ are **heterozygous carriers**. A staple of genetic-counselling MCQs.

Blood-group cross example



ratio 1 : 1 : 1 : 1 — all four blood groups possible from heterozygous A \times heterozygous B parents.

Directly answers NCERT Exercise Q12 (child is O from father A, mother B): parents must be $I^A i$ and $I^B i$; the ii child has group O. Shows co-dominance *and* multiple alleles in one cross.

10. Quick Reference — Formula & Ratio Index

Quantity	Value / Formula	When to use
Monohybrid F_2 phenotype	3 : 1	One gene, complete dominance
Monohybrid F_2 genotype	1 : 2 : 1	$TT : Tt : tt$
Binomial form	$(\frac{1}{2}T + \frac{1}{2}t)^2$	Deriving 1:2:1
Incomplete dominance	1 : 2 : 1 (pheno)	Snapdragon, intermediate F_1
Test cross	1 : 1 \Rightarrow heterozygote	Find unknown genotype
Punnett cells	$g_1 \times g_2$	Count zygote classes
Gamete types	2^n	n heterozygous loci
Dihybrid F_2 phenotype	9 : 3 : 3 : 1	Two genes, independent
Dihybrid as product	$(3:1) \times (3:1)$	Probability shortcut
Specific phenotype prob.	multiply fractions	e.g. $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{16}$
Recombination frequency	recomb./total $\times 100\%$	Linked genes
Map distance	1 cM = 1% RF	Gene mapping
ABO dominance	$I^A = I^B > i$	Blood-group genetics
Human chromosomes	46 (23 pairs)	Karyotype baseline
Down's / Klinefelter / Turner	47 / 47, XXY / 45, X0	Chromosomal disorders
Colour blindness	8% M, 0.4% F	X-linked recessive
Carrier fraction (dominant)	$\frac{2}{3}$	Counselling problems

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*End of Formula Sheet — Class 12 Biology Chapter 4 Principles of Inheritance and Variation.
Continue with Chapter 5 (Molecular Basis of Inheritance) for the DNA basis of these genes, or revisit Chapter 6
(Evolution) for the population-genetics extension of p and q .*