

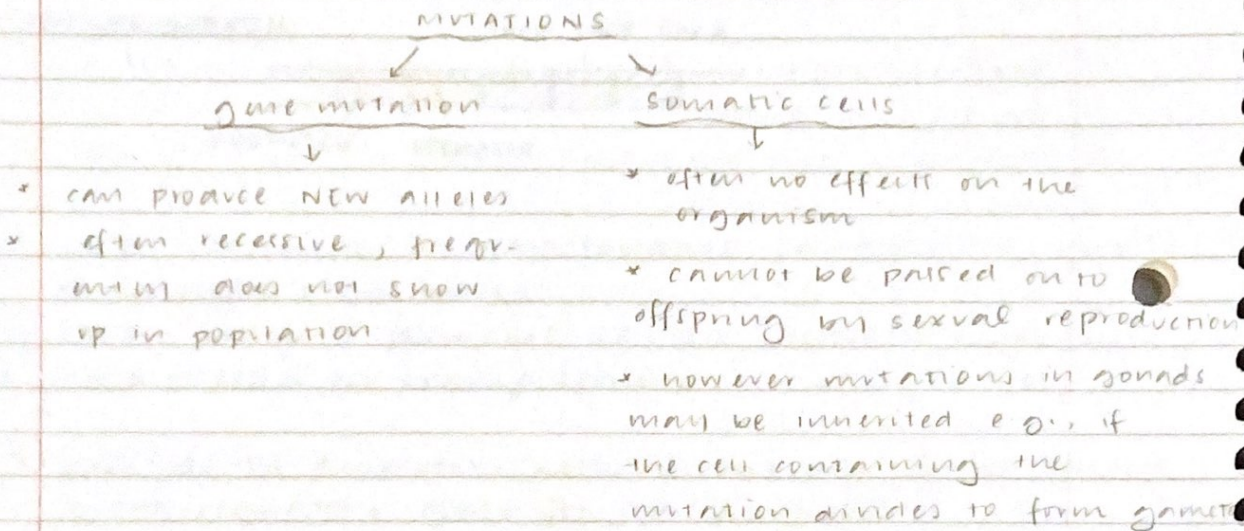
## 17 - Selection & Evolution

### 17.1 VARIATION

#### 1) CONTINUOUS & DISCONTINUOUS VARIATION

→ genetic variation among individuals in a population is caused by -

- |                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| ① independent assortment          | } Reshuffle existing alleles, produces phenotypic variation |
| ② crossing over                   |   |
| ③ random mating between organisms |   |
| ④ random fertilisation            |   |
| ⑤ mutation                        |   |



- genetic variation can be passed to offspring, giving differences in phenotype
- genetic variation provides the raw material on which natural selection can act
- variation in phenotype is also caused by the environment (but this is not passed to offspring)

→ DISCONTINUOUS VARIATION - qualitative differences

x no intermediates

x e.g. blood group, inheritance of haemophilia, sickle - genetic basis -

① different alleles at a single gene locus have large effects on the phenotype

② different genes have quite different effects on the phenotype

→ CONTINUOUS VARIATION - quantitative differences

x many intermediates

x e.g., height, weight

x genetic basis

① different alleles at a single locus have small effects on the phenotype

② different genes have the same / additive effect on the phenotype

③ POLYGENES - a large no. of genes may have a combined effect on a particular phenotype

↳ polygene:- a gene whose individual effect on a phenotype is too small to be observed, but which can act together with others to produce observable variation

→ FACTORS THAT TEND TO REDUCE PHENOTYPIC VARIATION

① dominance

② gene interaction

## b) ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ON PHENOTYPE

→ environmental effects may allow the full genetic potential height to be reached or stunted in some way

\* e.g., an individual w/ less food / nutritious food

e.g.) ANIMALS - hair colour of Himalayan rabbits, etc

→ development of dark extremities

→ caused by an allele that allows formation of dark pigments only at low temp.

e.g.) PLANTS - cob length of Black Mexican & Tom Thumb maize plants

→ difference in light intensity & nutrients will lead to different growth of plants with the genetic contribution

→ we t-test to compare variation of 2 different populations

## c) t-TEST TO COMPARE VARIATION

→ used to determine if there's a significant difference between the means of 2 groups

\* data collected should be continuous data

\* data is from a population that is normally distributed

### ① STATE THE NULL HYPOTHESIS

\* there is no significant difference between the 2 means we are comparing

### ② CALCULATE THE t-VALUE

$$t = \frac{|\bar{x}_A - \bar{x}_B|}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{s_A^2}{n_A} + \frac{s_B^2}{n_B}\right)}} \quad (\text{given})$$

sample size

③ calculate degree of freedom  
 $= (n_A + n_B) - 2$

④ find critical value @  $p = 0.05$  (95% confident value)

⑤ COMPARE CALCULATED  $t$  & CRITICAL  $t$  VALUE

→ if calculated  $t >$  critical  $t$ , then  $p$  is less than 0.05. Null hypothesis is rejected

→ if calculated  $t <$  critical  $t$ , Null hypothesis is accepted  
\* The difference between means is insignificant, small diff. in them is due to chance (e.g., sampling error) & can be neglected

d) IMPORTANCE OF GENETIC VARIATION IN SELECTION

\* genetic variation provides the raw material which natural selection can act

\* variation within a population means that some individuals have features that give them an advantage over other members of that population

H2 NATURAL & ARTIFICIAL SELECTION

a) WHY NATURAL SELECTION OCCURS

\* all organisms have the reproductive potential to increase their populations

\* however, over time their population oscillates about a mean level

① Natural selection occurs as populations have the capacity to produce many offsprings

② Offsprings compete for resources

③ individuals best adapted to survive breed & pass on their alleles

o Environmental factors

x BIOTIC - caused by other organisms

o - predation, food competition, infection by pathogens

x ABIOTIC - caused by non-living components of the environment

x Selection pressure - factors that contribute to selecting which variations will provide the individual with an increased chance of surviving over others

→ e.g. animals w/ coat colour matching environment survive & pass on alleles  
↳ selection pressures control the chances of alleles being passed onto the next generation

o natural selection - effects of selection pressures on the frequency of alleles in a population

↳ natural selection raises the frequency of alleles that are advantageous, & reduces the disadvantageous ones

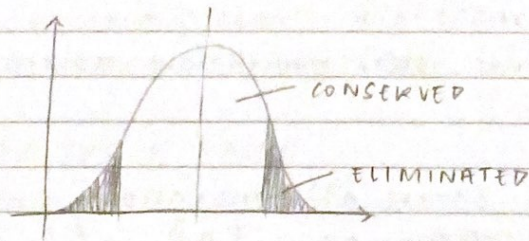
b) TYPES OF SELECTION

① Stabilising selection

x since avg is maintained as organisms are already well-adapted to their environment

x acts against extremes

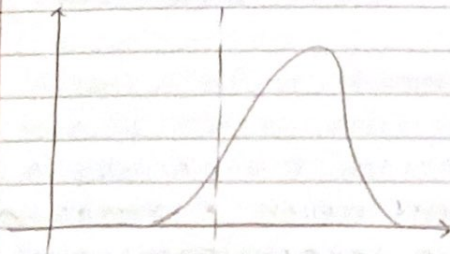
x favours the environment



x e.g., brain weight

## ② Directional selection

> the most common varieties of an organism are selected against → change in features of the population



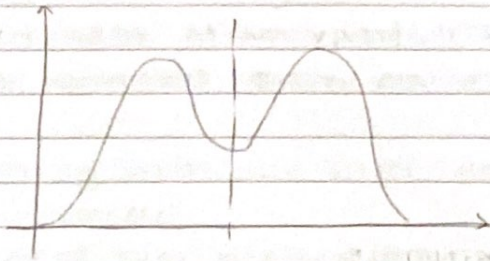
x favours variants of 1 extreme when new allele/env. factor appears

x e.g. peppered moths

## ③ Disruptive selection

> occurs when conditions favour both extremes of a population

x different phenotypes (polymorphism) is maintained in the population



x e.g. galapagos finches

! changes in environmental factors only affect the likelihood of an allele surviving in a population  
↳ then do not affect the likelihood of an allele arising by mutation

### c) FACTORS AFFECTING ALLELE FREQUENCY IN POP

#### ① genetic drift

- x change in allele frequency
- x occurs by chance, as only some of the organisms of each generation reproduce
- x most noticeable in small populations



#### ② the founder effect

- x e.g., of genetic drift that occurs when a small group of individuals breaks off from a larger population to establish a colony
- x alleles in the founding population may be present at different frequencies or missing altogether
- x evolution of this population may take a different direction from the larger, parent population

#### ③ natural selection

- x causes changes in allele frequencies with fitness-increasing alleles becoming more common in the population

### d) THE HARDY-WEINBERG PRINCIPLE

- x a formula used to calculate allele, genotype or phenotype frequencies in a population when a certain criteria are fulfilled -

① no mutation (no change to type of alleles in population)

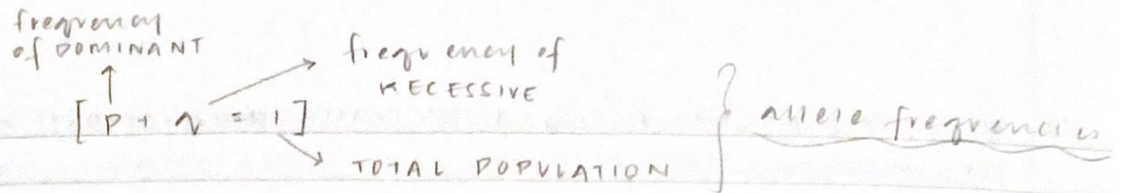
② no natural selection (environmental factors do not favour an allele over the other)

③ population is infinitely large (as it's not possible for allele frequencies to be maintained in a small population)

④ no non-random breeding (all members with different characteristics have equal chance to breed)

⑤ no significant selective pressure against one of the genotypes

⑥ no migration (no change in population size)



$[p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1]$  } genotype frequencies

- \* A calculation of the chance of a certain combination of genes occurring in a population
- \* A population's allele & genotype frequencies are constant, unless there is some sort of evolutionary force acting upon them.

e) IMPROVING MILK YIELD BY ARTIFICIAL SELECTION

> ARTIFICIAL SELECTION - humans purposefully applying selective pressures to populations

① selective breeding - individuals w/ desirable features are chosen to interbreed

② some of these desirable alleles are passed onto offspring

③ offspring with the most desirable features are chosen to interbreed

④ repeated over many generations

\* over generations, alleles deemed 'desirable' increase in frequency while the 'disadvantageous' ones may completely disappear

- DIARY CATTLE -

o desirable features - ① docility, ② fast growth rate, ③ high milk yields

- PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED W/ SELECTIVE BREEDING -

① animals are large

② takes a long time to reach maturity

③ gestation period long

④ no. of offspring produced is small



- o bulls cannot be assessed for milk production as it's a sex-linked trait
- o ∴ PROGENY TESTING IS USED
- > progeny testing - measure of the bull's value to a breeder, checking the performance of a bull's female offspring to see if it should be used in future crosses
- o background alleles have to also be considered by the breeder
- > BACKGROUND GENES - all the alleles of genes within each organism's genotype that adapt it to its particular environment

#### f) CROP IMPROVEMENT

- o introduction of disease resistant varieties of wheat & rice
- x to reduce loss of yield resulting from such infections
- o the incorporation of mutant alleles for gibberellin synthesis into dwarf varieties so increasing yield by having a greater proportion of energy put into grain
- x most dwarf varieties carry mutant alleles of 2 reduced height (RHT) genes
- x the genes code for DELLA proteins which reduce effect of gibberellin on growth
- x another mutant allele of a diff gene has its dwarfing effect as plant cells don't have receptors for gibberellins
- o inbreeding & hybridisation to produce vigorous, uniform varieties of maize
- x when maize plants are inbred, the plants in each generation become progressively smaller & weaker
- x THIS INBREEDING DEPRESSION OCCURS BECAUSE HOMOZYGOUS PLANTS ARE LESS VIGOROUS THAN HETEROZYGOUS PLANTS
- x challenge when growing maize: - heterozygosity & uniformity

## x SOLUTION - HYBRIDISATION

- ↳ using maize seeds that produce homozygous plants
- ↳ these homozygous varieties are crossed, producing  $F_1$  that all have the same genotype

## - IDEAL MAIZE CHARACTERISTICS -

- ① high yields
- ② resistance to more pests & diseases
- ③ good growth in nutrient-poor soils / short water supply

## 17.3 - EVOLUTION

### (A) GENERAL THEORY OF EVOLUTION

↳ organisms have changed over-time

- ① organisms produce more offspring than are needed to replace the parents
- ② natural populations tend to remain stable in size over long periods
- ③ there is competition for survival / struggle for existence
- ④ there is variation among the individuals of a given species
- ⑤ the best adapted variants will be selected for by natural conditions operating at the time / natural selection occurs / survival of the fittest

### b) MOLECULAR COMPARISONS BETWEEN SPECIES

- molecular evidence from comparisons of the amino acid sequences of proteins & nucleotide sequences of mitochondrial DNA can be used to reveal similarities between related species

### ① COMPARING AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF PROTEINS

- > when the amino acid sequence of a particular protein is compared in different species, the number of differences gives a measure of how closely related the species are

## ② COMPARING NUCLEOTIDE SEQUENCES OF MITOCHONDRIAL DNA

> differences in the nucleotide sequences of mtDNA can be used to study the origin & spread of our own species

→ HUMAN mtDNA -

① inherited through female line (why? they don't really know)

② a zygote contains mitochondria of ovum & not sperm

③ mtDNA is circular so can't undergo any form of crossing over → changes in nucleotide sequence can only occur by mutation

→ different human populations show differences in mitochondrial DNA sequences

→ these provide evidence for the origin of different populations

→ 'MOLECULAR CLOCK' HYPOTHESIS

> a technique that uses the mutation rate of biomolecules to deduce the time in prehistory when 2 or more life forms diverged

\* assumes a constant rate of mutation over time

\* the greater the number of differences in the sequence of nucleotides, the longer ago those individuals shared a common ancestor

\* 'clock' can be estimated from fossil evidence

## c) SPECIATION

> how new species can be produced

> SPECIES - a group of organisms with similar morphological, physiological, biochemical & behavioural features, which can interbreed to produce fertile offspring & are reproductively isolated from other species.

### ① ALLOPATRIC SPECIATION (geographical separation)

> speciation that occurs when 2 populations are separated from each other geographically

① population of species split & move to different areas

② each new population experiences different selective pressures causing morphological, physiological & behavioural features to change

③ when the different populations are re-introduced, they can no longer interbreed

### ② SYMPATRIC SPECIATION (ecological & behavioural separation)

→ usually occurs through POLYPOIDY

> POLYPOIDY ORGANISM - has more than 2 complete sets of chromosomes in its cell

→ this occurs e.g., when meiosis goes wrong.

> TETRAPLOID - when 2 diploid gametes fuse ( $2+2=4$ ) & zygote gets 4 complete sets of chromosomes

→ often sterile as it's difficult for 4 pairs of chromosomes to pair during meiosis I

→ however the tetraploid cell may grow & reproduce asexually

→ occurs often in plants but rarely in animals

> TRIPLOID - when a tetraploid's gametes (diploid) fuses with a normal, haploid gamete ( $2+1=3$ )

→ it may be able to grow normally but ALWAYS sterile as it can't form gametes (cannot share 3 sets of chromosomes equally between daughter cells)

## → KINDS OF POLYPLOIDIES

- ① AUTOPOLYPLOID - all sets of chromosomes from the same species
- ② ALLOPOLYPLOIDS - different sets of chromosomes from a different but related species
  - meiosis happens more easily in an allotetraploid than in an autotetraploid as the chromosomes are not quite identical
  - allotetraploid can be fertile & produce gametes

## d) PRE & POST-ZYGOTIC ISOLATING MECHANISMS

- > REPRODUCTIVE ISOLATION - the inability of 2 organisms of the same species to interbreed due to geographical separation or behavioural differences

reproductive isolation can take place -

### ① PRE-ZYGOTIC ISOLATION

- individuals not recognising one another as potential mates or not responding to mating behaviour
- animals being physically unable to mate
- incompatibility of pollen & stigma
- inability of male & female gametes to fuse

### ② POST-ZYGOTIC ISOLATION

- failure of cell division in zygote
- non-viable offspring
- viable, but sterile offspring

- > post-zygotic isolation is more wasteful of energy

e) EXTINCTION

① climate change

② competition (from better adapted species)

③ Habitat loss

④ killing by humans } human causes