

Different characteristics will be **advantageous** on each side so the **allele frequency** will change in each population

- Frequency of the **advantageous** allele will **increase** on one side of the barrier

Mutations will take place **independently** in each population, changing the **allele frequencies** and **phenotype frequencies**. The **longer** the groups are isolated, the **more allele frequency change**, increasing the chance of speciation.

Eventually the different populations will have become **genetically distinct** and **won't** be able to **breed** or produce **fertile** offspring = **reproductively isolated**.

They are now a separate species.

HARDY-WEINBERG EQUATION

Evolution is a **change** in allele frequency. **New alleles** are usually generated by **mutations** in **genes**.

the H-W equation are used to estimate the **frequency** of particular **alleles**, **phenotypes** and **genotypes** in a population.

The frequency of **all possible alleles** is **1** so the **individual** alleles must **add up to 1**.

frequency of homozygous dominant individuals	+	frequency of heterozygous individuals	+	frequency of homozygous recessive individuals	=	1
p^2		$2pq$		q^2		

H-W predicts that allele frequencies **won't change** from one generation to the next but this is only true under **certain conditions**:

- **Large** population
- **No** immigration, emigration, mutations or natural selection
- **Random** mating

If **allele frequency does change** then all of these have happened.

When a gene has two alleles, you can **figure out** the frequency of one of the alleles of the gene if you **know the frequency of the other allele**, using this equation:

Where: **p** = the frequency of the **dominant** allele
q = the frequency of the **recessive** allele

The total frequency of all possible alleles for a characteristic in a certain population is 1.0. So the frequencies of the individual alleles (e.g. the dominant one and the recessive one) must add up to 1.0.

E.g. a species of plant has either **red** or **white** flowers. Allele **R** (red) is **dominant** and allele **r** (white) is **recessive**. If the frequency of **R** is **0.4**, then the frequency of **r** is: $1 - 0.4 = 0.6$.

Make sure you learn this equation — you might not get given it in the exams.

... and to Predict Genotype and Phenotype Frequency

You can **figure out** the frequency of one genotype if you **know the frequencies of the others**, using this equation:

$$p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1$$

Where: **p²** = the frequency of the **homozygous dominant** genotype
2pq = the frequency of the **heterozygous** genotype
q² = the frequency of the **homozygous recessive** genotype

The total frequency of all possible genotypes for one characteristic in a certain population is 1.0. So the frequencies of the individual genotypes must add up to 1.0.

E.g. if there are **two alleles** for **flower colour** (R and r), there are **three possible genotypes** — **RR**, **Rr** and **rr**. If the frequency of genotype **RR** (**p²**) is **0.34** and the frequency of genotype **Rr** (**2pq**) is **0.27**, the frequency of genotype **rr** (**q²**) must be: $1 - 0.34 - 0.27 = 0.39$.

Genotype frequencies can then be used to work out **phenotype frequencies** (the frequencies of observable traits).

E.g. the frequency of **red flowers** is equal to the genotype frequencies of **RR** and **Rr** added together ($0.34 + 0.27 = 0.61$) and the frequency of **white flowers** is equal to the genotype frequency of **rr** (**0.39**).

Processing new findings

- Findings are reported in a **scientific journal**, **conference papers** or the **internet**.
- Scientists can comment on **data**, **methods** and the **interpretations**
- **Peer review** detects **invalid claims** and **adds weight** to valid ones

Woese proposed a new category of organisms- **Archaea** which survive in **anaerobic environments**, e.g. *hot springs* or *salty lakes*. Many **ignored** this idea but more papers were published by other scientists and there were **conferences** held. Woese proposed the phylogenetic tree above based on **three domains** (Archaea, Bacteria and Eukaryota).

- Organisms in each of the **three domains** contain **RNA sequencing** that is **unique** to their domain.



Biodiversity within a species

Each individual has a **unique combination** of **alleles** = variety of genotypes = **genetic diversity** which allows the population to **adapt** to changing conditions and so should be **conserved**. If the **population declines** some alleles may be **lost** and the genetic diversity **decreases**.

Random mutations can create genetic variation by changing the **base sequence of DNA** in the cells of an organisms, creating **new alleles** which increases the **gene pool**. E.g:

- Single point mutation (alteration of **one base**) resulting in **sickle cell anaemia**
- **Deletion** of 3 **nucleotides** resulting in **cystic fibrosis**

Mutations can have **no effect** on phenotype, have **harmful effects** or have **benefits** e.g. mutations in **houseflies** making them **resistant** to **pesticide**.

Genetic diversity can be **visible** through **phenotypes** but can also be measured by **species richness** and **species evenness**.

Species evenness:

- Takes **no account** of **population size** of each species
- A community in which most species have **similar abundances** has **high evenness**

A very **common species** in a habitat is sometimes called the **dominant organism**. In **species-rich** ecosystems, such as **rainforests**, habitats will show **more even** species composition.

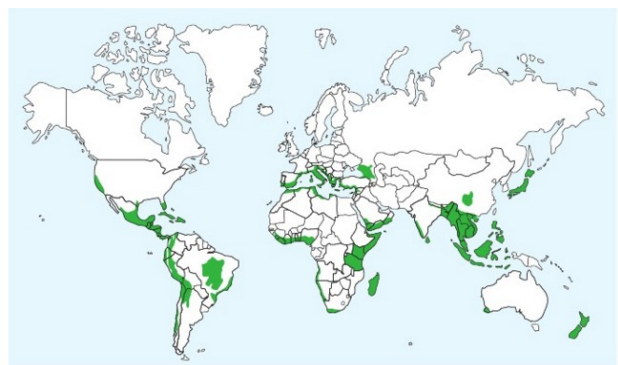
Biodiversity hotspot

Areas with **particularly high biodiversity**. The idea was adopted as a way of **focusing conservation effort** on the most critical places.

Measuring biodiversity

A **direct** method is **DNA sequencing** to determine the **bases** in a segment of DNA to determine **which alleles** are present.

DNA can be cut into **fragments** and then **separated** using **electrophoresis**. Different alleles can be identified because they produce fragments of **different lengths**.



- **Trial and error** method

Drug testing today

It can take **over 10 years** and cost over **1 billion dollars**.

1. Substances are **analysed** and the **active ingredients identified** and **copied** so it can be manufactured synthetically
2. **Slight variations** of the chemical **structure** are made in case they have a **better effect**(can be computer modelled)

Then...

Pre-clinical testing	- Tests on animals and isolated cell/tissue - Assess safety and effectiveness - Can take years - Authorised by independent scientists, doctors and members of the public to avoid any bias
Clinical trials Phase I	- Small group of healthy volunteers are given different doses - Tests confirm whether the compound is used by the body in the way predicted by laboratory tests - Tests for safety
Clinical trials Phase II	- 100-300 patients with the disease are treated to test effectiveness
Clinical trials Phase III	<u><i>Double-blind randomised controlled trial</i></u> - Large group (1000-2000) is divided into 2 groups - One group is given the compound, other group given the placebo or an existing standard treatment - Tests for side effects and effectiveness - Can be licensed and sold
After licensing	- Trials continue to collect data on the effectiveness/safety of a new drug after this one has been licensed.

SEEDS FOR SURVIVAL

Seeds are adapted to:

- **Protect** the **embryo**
- Aid **dispersal**
- Provide **nutrition** for the **new plant**

The **ovule** is fertilised by the **nucleus** from a **pollen grain** and develops into a seed. The **outer** layers of the seed become **lignified** to form the seed coat which protects the embryo. The surrounding **ovary** develops into the **fruit** which aids in **dispersal** of seeds.

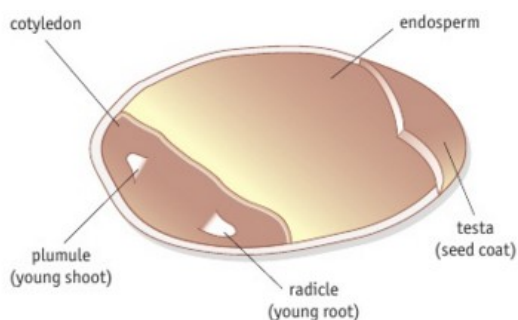


Figure 4.63 The internal structure of an endospermic seed.

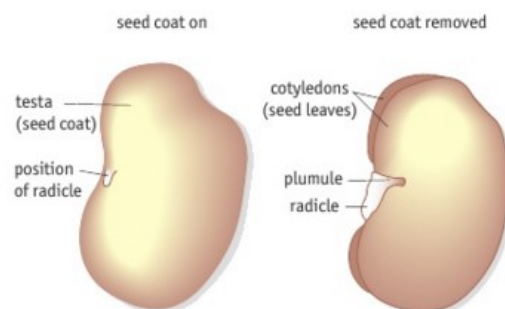


Figure 4.64 Opening up a broad bean reveals the cotyledons (seed leaves), plumule (young shoot) and radicle (young root) that make up the embryo.