

S1. A codon for leucine is UUA. A mutation causing a single-base substitution in a gene can change this codon in the transcribed mRNA into GUA (valine), AUA (isoleucine), CUA (leucine), UGA (stop), UAA (stop), UCA (serine), UUG (leucine), UUC (phenylalanine), or UUU (phenylalanine). According to the neutral theory, which of these mutations would you expect to see within the genetic variation of a natural population? Explain.

**Answer:** The neutral theory proposes that neutral mutations will accumulate to the greatest extent in a population. Leucine is a nonpolar amino acid. For a UUA codon, single-base changes of CUA and UUG are silent, and so they would be the most likely to occur in a natural population. Likewise, conservative substitutions to other nonpolar amino acids such as isoleucine (AUA), valine (GUA), and phenylalanine (UUC and UUU) may not affect protein structure and function, and so they may also occur and not be eliminated rapidly by natural selection. The polar amino acid serine (UCA) is a nonconservative substitution; one would predict that it is more likely to disrupt protein function. Therefore, it may be less likely to be found. Finally, the stop codons, UGA and UAA, would be expected to diminish or eliminate protein function, particularly if they occur early in the coding sequence. These types of mutations are selected against and, therefore, are not usually found in natural populations.

S2. Explain why homologous genes have sequences that are similar but not identical.

**Answer:** Homologous genes are derived from the same ancestral gene. Therefore, as a starting point, they had identical sequences. Over time, however, each gene accumulates random mutations that the other homologous genes did not acquire. These random mutations change the gene from its original sequence. Therefore, much of the sequence between homologous genes remains identical, but some of the sequence will be altered due to the accumulation of independent random mutations.

S3. Explain why plants are more likely to evolve by sympatric speciation compared to animals.

**Answer:** The most common way for sympatric speciation to occur is by the formation of polyploids. For example, if one species is diploid ( $2n$ ), nondisjunction could produce an individual that is tetraploid ( $4n$ ). If the tetraploid individual were a plant, and if the plant were monoecious (i.e., produces both pollen and egg cells), the plant could multiply to produce many tetraploid offspring. These offspring would be reproductively isolated from the diploid plants that are found in the same geographic area. This isolation occurs because the offspring of a cross between a diploid and tetraploid plant would be infertile. For example, if the pollen from a diploid plant fertilized the egg from a tetraploid plant, this would produce triploid offspring. The triploid offspring might be viable, but it is very likely that triploids would be sterile because they would produce highly aneuploid gametes. The gametes would be aneuploid because there are an odd number of homologous chromosomes. In this case there would be three copies of each homologous chromosome, and these could not be equally distributed into gametes. Therefore, when a tetraploid is produced, it can immediately create its own unique species that is reproductively isolated from other species.

In contrast, polyploidy rarely occurs in animals. Perhaps the main reason is because animals usually cannot tolerate polyploidy. Tetraploid animals typically die during early stages of development. In addition, most species of animals have male and female sexes. To develop a tetraploid species from a diploid species, nondisjunction would have to produce both a male and female offspring that could reproduce with each other. The chance of producing one tetraploid offspring is relatively rare. The chances of producing two tetraploid offspring that happen to be male and female, and happen to mate with each other to produce many offspring, would be extremely rare.

S4. As described in figure 26.17, evolution is associated with changes in chromosome structure and number. As seen here, chromosome 2 in humans is divided into two distinct chromosomes in chimpanzees, gorillas, and orangutans. In addition, chromosome 3 in the orangutan has a large inversion that is not found in the other three primates. Discuss the potential role of these types of changes in the evolution of these primate species.

**Answer:** As discussed in chapter 8, changes in chromosome structure, such as inversions and balanced translocations, may not have any phenotypic effects. Likewise, the division of a single chromosome into two distinct chromosomes may not have any phenotypic effect as long as the total amount of genetic material remains the same. Overall, the types of changes in chromosome structure and number shown in figure 26.17 may not have caused any changes in the phenotypes of primates. However, the changes would be expected to promote reproductive isolation. For example, if a gorilla mated with an orangutan, the offspring would be an inversion heterozygote for chromosome 3. As shown in figure 8.12, an inversion heterozygote may produce chromosomes that have too much or too little genetic material. This is particularly likely if the inversion is fairly large (such as the one shown in figure 26.17). The inheritance of too much or too little genetic material is likely to be detrimental or even lethal. For this reason, the hybrid offspring of a gorilla and orangutan would probably not be fertile. (Note: In reality, there are several other reasons why interspecies matings between gorillas and orangutans do not produce viable offspring.)

Overall, the primary effect of changes in chromosome structure and number, like the ones shown in figure 26.17, is to promote reproductive isolation. Once two populations become reproductively isolated, they will accumulate different mutations, and over the course of many generations, this will lead to two different species that have distinct characteristics.

It should be noted that changes in chromosome number in plants are more likely to have effects that abruptly lead to the formation of new species. This idea is discussed in solved problem S3.