

Introduction to Biological Anthropology: Notes 5
What are species and how do they arise?

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- Two ways to look at evolution
 - We can look at it up close
 - as we did with the minor variations in the beaks of finches over just a few generations
 - or even the gradual evolution of the human eye
 - What we see in the close-up, short-term, detailed view is called **microevolution**
 - **Microevolution** = evolution within a species (changes in a population that do not result in a new species)
 - Microevolution usually refers to changes that are often small and not very important in themselves
 - like the beaks of the finches on Daphne Major.
 - microevolutionary changes are often fairly easy to understand in terms of Darwin's theory the process of natural selection
 - or we can step back and look at long-term changes in populations that are visible in the fossil record
 - that is, the kind of evolution that explains why there are many different, distinct kinds of plants and animals
 - What we see in the long-term view is the appearance of new species
 - **Macroevolution** = evolution that creates new species, and groupings of related species (genera, families, etc.)
 - Darwin suggested that the accumulation of a lot of small microevolutionary changes ought to add up to bigger, more obvious differences
 - Eventually, to entirely new species
 - given enough time, the accumulation of microevolutionary changes in many different populations ought to create countless different species with all sorts of different features
 - which is precisely what Darwin originally set out to explain: the profusion of different species of plants and animals, each adapted to its environment
 - So let's now consider macroevolution:
 - that is, the “Origin of Species” that Darwin wrote about
 - So, what are “species”?
 - Preliminary definition: **Species** are (usually) easily distinguishable types of organisms (I'll define this better later)
 - The notion of species has two key parts
 - individuals of the same species are *similar to each other*
 - individuals of one species are *different from* individuals of other species
 - there are (usually) no intermediate types
 - no gradation from one species to the other, but rather a gap
 - no intermediate forms that are hard to classify as one or the other species
 - there are gorillas and there are chimps, but no “gimps” or “chorillas”

- this is curious
 - why are there distinct *kinds* of organisms (species), rather than a smooth gradation of characteristics like we see among individuals within a single species?
 - why are there no chorillas?
- by and large, species are real categories that exist in nature
 - unlike many categories used by scientists, species aren't just invented for the sake of convenience
 - living things really fall into distinct, well-defined categories
- There are a number of different definitions of species.
 - amazingly enough, there is actually still a lot of debate about what these distinct kinds of organisms really are
 - and although they seem easy to observe, in some cases there is still room for disagreement
 - for a summary of some of this debate, see:
 - <http://www.talkorigins.org/faqs/speciation.html>
 - we will consider just the two most interesting of the leading concepts of species:
 - the **biological species concept**
 - the **ecological species concept**
- But first, we need to understand two useful ideas
 - **reproductive isolation**: members of one population do not interbreed successfully with members of another population
 - **gene flow**: the movement of genes among individuals and groups
 - from parents to offspring, that is, the mixing of genes through mating
 - or from one population to another, by individuals leaving one group and joining another, or by mating between members different groups
- The **biological species concept**
 - “A species is a group of organisms which interbreed in nature and are reproductively isolated from other groups”
 - this is by far the most widely accepted species concept, but not the only one
 - according to this view, members of a given species are *similar to each other* because they interbreed
 - the traits of all members of the species are continually getting mixed together, so the population remains a single, fairly uniform group
 - according to this view, species are *different from other species* because there is no interbreeding between different species
 - there is no exchange of genes between one species and another, so traits don't get mixed between them
 - there are no “chorillas” because gorillas and chimps never mate
 - so there is no way for a gorilla to have offspring with characteristics unique to chimps
 - each reproductively isolated population is free to evolve in its own direction, leading to big differences between species
- The biological species concept emphasizes patterns of **gene flow** as the main thing that defines and maintains distinct species

- according to the biological species concept, there is gene flow *within* species, but *not between* species
- the gene flow keeps all organisms in one species similar; all reflect more or less the same gene pool
- while the lack of gene flow between different species means that they remain different, without mixing together
- a note about reproductive isolation
 - populations may be reproductively isolated in many different, often subtle ways
 - in the most obvious case, they may be so different physically that they simply cannot mate, or that even if they do, the offspring do not survive or are not fertile
 - but isolation is just as complete if they simply do not mate for some other reason
 - for example, if one population is active in the day, and the other at night
 - or if two populations of birds develop preferences for different colors of feathers, and the birds only choose mates of their own type
 - even though they could be made to successfully mate in a lab or on a farm, if they do not actually mate in nature, they are effectively isolated
- **The ecological species concept**
 - “A species is a group of organisms that is genetically distinct from other species because any hybrids between species are much less successful”
 - This is a much less common, somewhat radical view
 - but it is worth looking at
 - according to this view, members of a given species are *similar to each other* due to stabilizing selection
 - stabilizing selection favors the typical type
 - while weeding out any variants
 - according to this view, species are *different from other species* because
 - any hybrids with other species are less successful
 - and are weeded out by natural selection
 - the net result is similar to the biological species concept, but it emphasizes stabilizing selection, rather than gene flow
 - stabilizing selection keeps members of the species similar
 - and weeds out any hybrids, maintaining the difference from other species
 - this explains how even if a species is divided into physically isolated populations and there is no gene flow between them, the two populations often still remain the same
 - because they are experiencing the same stabilizing selection pressures
 - the idea here is that most species are at or near an adaptive “optimum”
 - any change would reduce their fitness, so stabilizing selection keeps the characteristics of each species where they are, and keeps the various species different
 - support for this still somewhat radical viewpoint:
 - 1. Many related species are known to actually hybridize in the wild, yet they don’t blend together into one intermediate species
 - because selection weeds out the hybrids?
 - 2. Separate populations of the same species that are isolated from each other by geography often do not diverge

- something keeps them the same in spite of a total absence of gene flow
- for example, rainbow trout in different rivers cannot interbreed because they never encounter each other, yet they all remain rainbow trout
- the populations in the different rivers don't all evolve off in different directions, even though they theoretically could
- because stabilizing selection keeps them at their adaptive optimum?
- 3. Asexually reproducing organisms are divided into species just like sexually reproducing ones
 - in asexually reproducing organisms, offspring bud or split off a single parent
 - the offspring is a clone of the parent, genetically identical to it except for occasional copying errors
 - examples of asexually reproducing organisms: bacteria, fungi, flatworms, many plants under certain circumstances, etc.
 - So there is no mixing up of genes throughout a population, as there is with sexually reproducing organisms
 - why don't the descendants of each asexual parent each evolve off in their own direction?
 - why do all the members of the species remain similar to each other?
 - since there is no mating, there is no gene flow to keep them similar...
 - yet (asexual) shiitake mushrooms remain shiitake mushrooms wherever they are, generation after generation
 - the likely answer: because stabilizing selection weeds out any variants that arise through errors in reproduction
 - if this were *not* true, then
 - each lineage of asexual organisms should evolve off in a different direction
 - this would create a continuous range of variation among asexual lineages
 - rather than what we actually observe:
 - many separate lineages of the same kind (species), and no lineages with forms intermediate between species
- Which species concept is correct?
 - undoubtedly both
 - the question is only which processes are more important in a given case
 - in many cases, reproductive isolation (the biological species concept) must play a role
 - since many species ARE totally reproductively isolated
 - but stabilizing selection must play a role in many cases, too (the ecological species concept)
 - because gene flow among all members of the species is often minimal or impossible, yet they remain the same species
 - and many species remain different from each other, even though they do hybridize
- Why do these species concepts matter?
 - Your choice of which process you think is most important in separating and maintaining species in nature affects on how you explain the origin of new species
- Why do species exist at all?

- **speciation**: the development of a new species
- speciation is hard to study
 - it is too *slow* and/or too rare to observe easily in nature
 - most cases of speciation being observed in nature have only “observed” in the sense that new species were seen where they had not existed before; no one happened to be collecting data precisely when it happened
 - and too *fast* and/or too rare to observe in the fossil record
 - usually, fossils of a new species just appear; we generally don’t find a nice sequence of fossils leading from one species to the next
 - although there are some known examples of gradual speciation in the fossil record (among marine shellfish, ancestral horses, pigs, and others)
 - this is what we would expect species normally did not change much, and speciation only happened occasionally
 - because the number of individuals involved in the transition would be very few, compared to those involved in the long period of stability
 - so the chance of finding fossils of those few transitional individuals would be low
- Two senses of the concept of speciation: **anagenesis** and **cladogenesis**
- **anagenesis**: the evolutionary change of a population over time
 - example: say we have a long time to watch a population of rodents
 - they start off the size of mice
 - natural selection favors larger ones for some reason
 - after 5000 generations, they have evolved to the size of house cats
 - we may want to call these a different species
 - if we decide to consider the cat-sized rodents a new species, it would be a **chronospecies** (also called **paleospecies**)
 - **chronospecies**: arbitrary divisions of a lineage of a single population into two or more “species”, in order to reflect gradual changes over time
 - because after enough change has accumulated, we don’t want to call the later form by the same name as the earlier one, because it is clearly different
 - but chronospecies do not fit the biological species concept
 - we assume that they would not be able to mate with their mouse-sized ancestors, but there is no way to check
 - since the two types never lived at the same time
 - in fact, it is meaningless to discuss reproductive isolation in this case
 - since the first and last generations could not mate with each other regardless of whether they had changed or not; they did not live at the same time
 - also, every generation could presumably mate with the ones just before and just after
 - there is no sharp dividing line between chronospecies
 - but there *are* sharp divisions of reproductive isolation between living species
 - chronospecies do not fit the ecological species concept, either
 - again, the different chronospecies did not live at the same time
 - so there were no hybrids that could have been less successful, and no selection acting on hybrids
 - Chronospecies are just arbitrary categories imposed by scientists

- while species that live at the same time,
- defined by the biological or ecological species concepts,
- are real, distinct categories “out there” in nature
- finally, anagenesis only describes how a population changes over time; it does not explain the increase the number of different populations (species) over time
 - if this were the only process, and life originated on earth just once, there would only ever be one species at a time
- we need to explain how new species are added
 - how species split into multiple descendant species
- **cladogenesis**: the splitting of one species into two (or more) species
 - this is what we usually mean by “speciation”
 - two populations of a species diverge enough that they no longer successfully mate
 - one or both have changed
 - where there was a single species before, now there are two (or more)
 - both populations exist at the same time, but they do not interbreed
 - a **clade** is a descent group of species
 - all the species that descended from a specified ancestral species
 - like a branch of a family tree
 - we’ll get back to clades later in the course
- there are three spatial situations in which speciation (cladogenesis) might occur
 - **allopatric** speciation: “in different territories”
 - **parapatric** speciation: “in adjacent territories”
 - **sympatric** speciation: “in the same territory”
 - these differ mainly in the amount of physical separation they require between the diverging populations
- **allopatric speciation**: speciation that occurs when two populations that are geographically isolated from each other diverge far enough to form distinct species
 - “allopatric”: “in different territories”
 - the two populations are separated by a physical barrier or great distance, like lizards on two different islands, or fish in two different lakes
 - causing them to be reproductively isolated from each other
 - if the selection pressures on the two isolated populations are different, the two populations are free to evolve in different directions
 - if they diverge far enough, they have become separate species
 - this process is especially likely to happen in small, splinter populations
 - because small populations can evolve more rapidly than large ones
 - in large populations, new variants tend to get diluted away by gene flow with the many other individuals
 - while a new variant in a very small population can more rapidly become the common type
- a hypothetical bird example
 - finches from a wet island get blown to a dry island.

- selection on the dry island favors deeper beaks, and the bird population evolves deeper beaks
- eventually they are so different from the parent population that, even if they somehow get back together on a single island,
 - they are reproductively isolated for physiological or behavioral reasons (biological species concept)
 - or the hybrids between the two are not very successful, so the two species don't blend back together (ecological species concept)
- speciation does not *necessarily* happen when two populations are isolated; it depends on enough evolution occurring in one or both of the populations.
 - if conditions are similar for both populations, the same kind of stabilizing selection acting on both populations may keep them the same
 - then they just remain two populations of the same species
- pretty much everyone agrees that allopatric speciation actually occurs in nature
 - this is the simplest, least controversial speciation process
- The other two spatial patterns of speciation may or may not actually occur
 - they are debated, both theoretically and with field data
 - There is some evidence that parapatric speciation may occur
 - but it is probably rare
 - It is not certain that sympatric speciation can occur at all
 - if it does, it is probably rare
- **parapatric speciation** (“in neighboring territories”): speciation that occurs when two populations that live in adjacent, bordering territories with no barrier between them diverge far enough to become distinct species
 - for example, a population lives both in a forest and in the grasslands next to the forest
 - there is no barrier between them
 - gene flow occurs between the areas, because all are free to mate with each other
 - this should keep their traits all mixed together
 - so how could they diverge into different species?
 - individuals far from the border are more likely to mate with each other than with individuals from the other environment
 - so the two areas are partially isolated
 - the two parts of the population experience selection that favors different characteristics suited to each environment
 - and the limited gene flow between them is not enough to prevent the two parts of the population from diverging somewhat
 - near the boundaries, in the **hybrid zone**, some hybrids will be born
 - if these intermediate types are less successful than the more specialized offspring of parents that are both from the same environment...
 - then natural selection will tend to weed them out
 - leading to two new, different species: speciation
 - in fact, this relatively lower fitness in individuals from hybrid zones is actually observed in many natural cases, so parapatric speciation probably actually occurs

- **sympatric speciation** (“in the same territory”): speciation that occurs when members of a single population occupy different ecological niches in a single area
 - (**niche**: the combination of food, habitat, behaviors, etc. exploited by an organism)
 - such as some living up in the trees, others living on the forest floor
 - the same processes as in parapatric speciation could occur
 - but many biologists doubt that a population could develop two types without some isolation to start with
 - it is not certain that sympatric speciation actually occurs in nature
- An additional useful concept
- **adaptive radiation**: the rapid divergence of populations of a single species into numerous new species, to take advantage of many newly available ecological options (niches)
 - typically would happen when an organism is first introduced to a new environment, or the environment changes drastically
 - in this new environment, there may be many different adaptations that could work well
 - partially isolated populations of the new organism happen to diverge in many of these different directions
 - leading to numerous new species that are all descended from the original one
 - once most of the available options are taken by new, specialized species, the process of creating new species slows or stops
 - an example that apparently happened on the Hawaiian Islands
 - a small population of one type of finch got to Hawaii, maybe blown in a storm
 - there were no other birds there
 - there were many possible ways for birds to make a living
 - specializing in small, soft seeds; or large, hard seeds, or soft fruits; or hard fruits; or flowers; or insects...
 - and all were available without much competition
 - some or all of the processes of speciation took place (allopatric, parapatric, and/or sympatric)
 - the bird population quickly diverged into many different species, each well adapted to exploit one ecological option (niche)
 - once most or all of the niches are filled, speciation slowed down or stopped
 - we will see that adaptive radiations were important in the evolution of humans