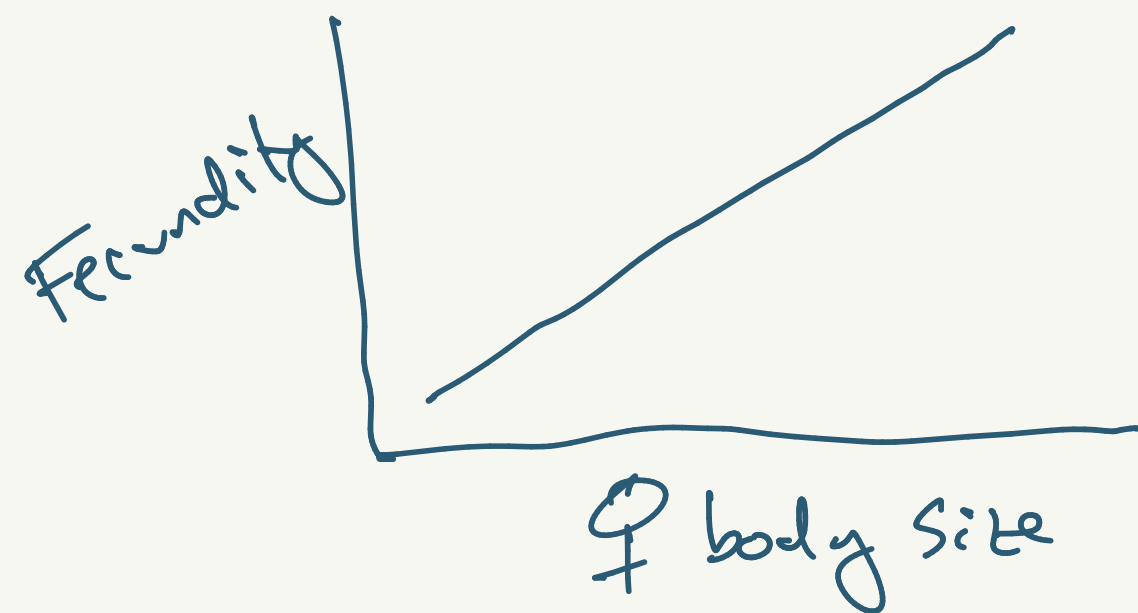


Physical combat drives size dimorphism, rather than female selection

Why would ♀ be larger in some systems?



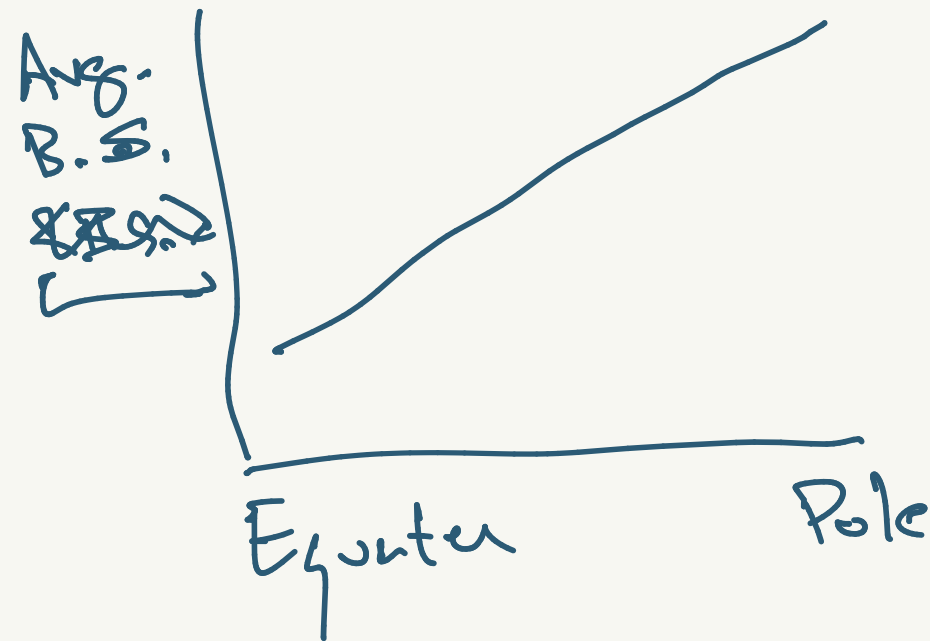
- Birds: egg size constrained
- ♀ w/ larger body size can produce more eggs

Why have small males

- when you have species with small population size, it's often better to be small
- Many smaller sons vs. few larger sons
 ↳ increased likelihood of passing down genetic material

Geographic patterns

A.) Bergman's Rule



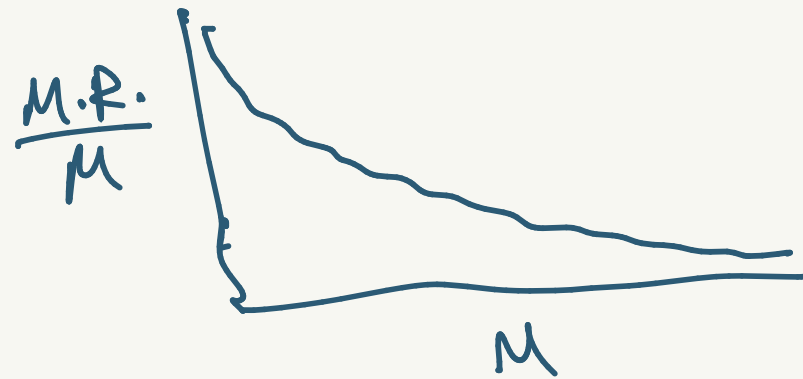
- 72% of bird spp.
- 65% of mammals

- Classic Argument: \downarrow SA : Vol. ratio \sim \downarrow Heat dissipation

- Seasonal Argument: As you \uparrow variability, larger body sizes have an advantage

- Larger B.S. can last longer on stored resources

- Cheaper per unit mass ($3/4$ scaling)



- Body fat scaling is superlinear (exponent 1.19)

Island Size "Rule"

Big things become smaller

Wrangel Island Pygmy
Artiodactyles / Mammoths
Carnivores

Bali Tiger

Channel Island

Fox

Smaller things get big

Komodo

Dragon

St. Kilda Field Mouse

- Food abundance (Big \rightarrow small)

- Predation



Black-capped chickadees have short, thin bills suitable for capturing small insects.



Pileated woodpeckers have pointed stout bills for hitting and probing in wood.



American avocet bills are long and thin for probing mud and sand for small subsurface animals.



Bald eagle bills are hooked for tearing the flesh of their prey.



Malachite kingfishers have long, sturdy bills suitable for plucking small fish from the water.

- Change in frequency of genotype/phenotype over time (generations)
- Descent with modification
- Both smaller fluctuations (genotype/phenotype freq.) as well as longer-term differentiation from more ancient ancestors (micro-evolution // macro-evolution)

Genes } encode proteins

Multiple alleles } different versions of gene/protein

- Change in the proportion of alleles in a population over time

Sexually-reproducing population

- Each individual has 2 copies of each gene \leftarrow Dad
Mother

A = Dominant (expressed in phenotype)

a = Recessive (not expressed)

	A	a
A	AA	Aa
a	Aa	aa

(AA, aa) = homozygous
(Aa) = heterozygous

360 AA
480 Aa
160 aa

Evolution

A = 60% a = 40% \longrightarrow a = 71%

Evolution

by

Natural Selection

- 1) Variation
- 2) heritability
- 3) Selective Differences

↳ Differences in FITNESS

{ SURVIVAL
REPRODUCTION

Selection act on individuals

Evolution acts on populations

(Relative to current conditions...
NOT ABSOLUTE)

Four key processes that influence evolution

1) Mutation ~ introduces variation

2) Natural Selection ~ blind sorting over time

3) Genetic ~~Drift~~ Drift ~ effects of random fluctuations

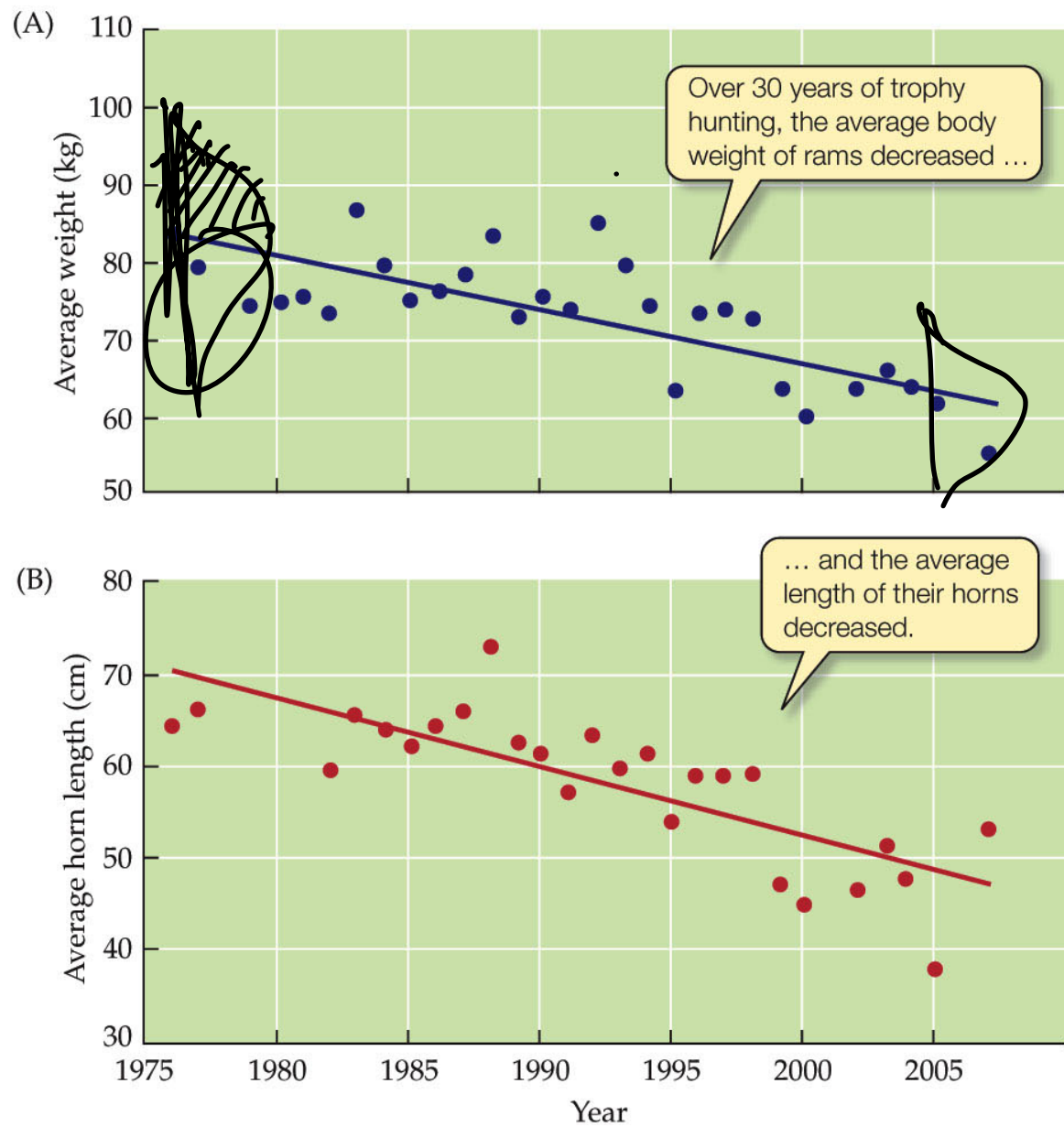
4) Gene flow ~ effect of movement on evolution

Mutation : New alleles

Changes in DNA/encoded protein via copying errors

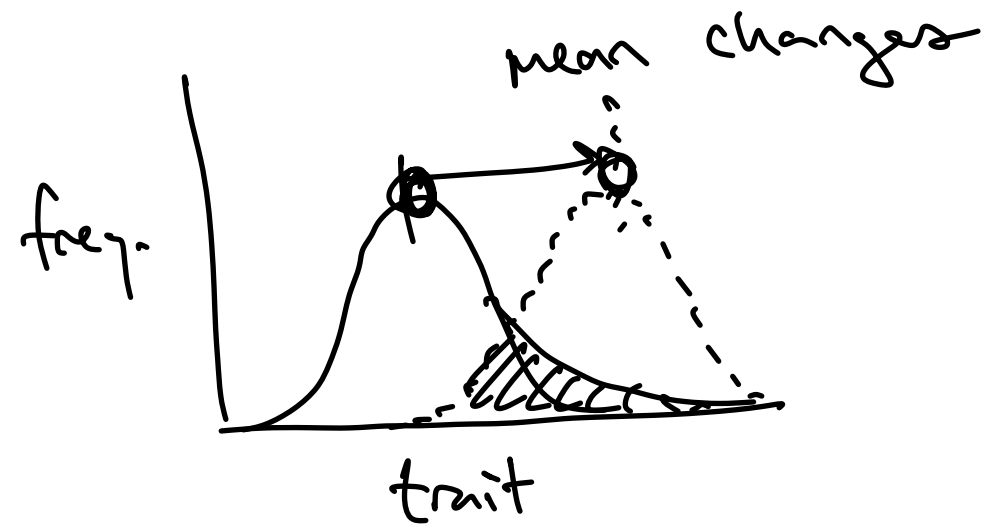
+ Recombination

- production of offspring w/ different combinations of alleles via the shuffling of genes during meiosis

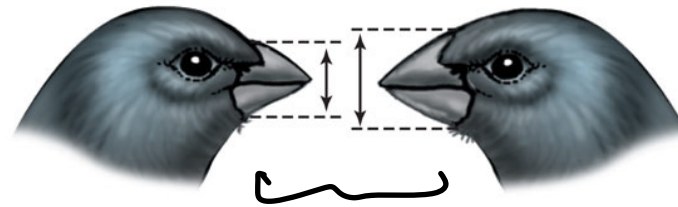
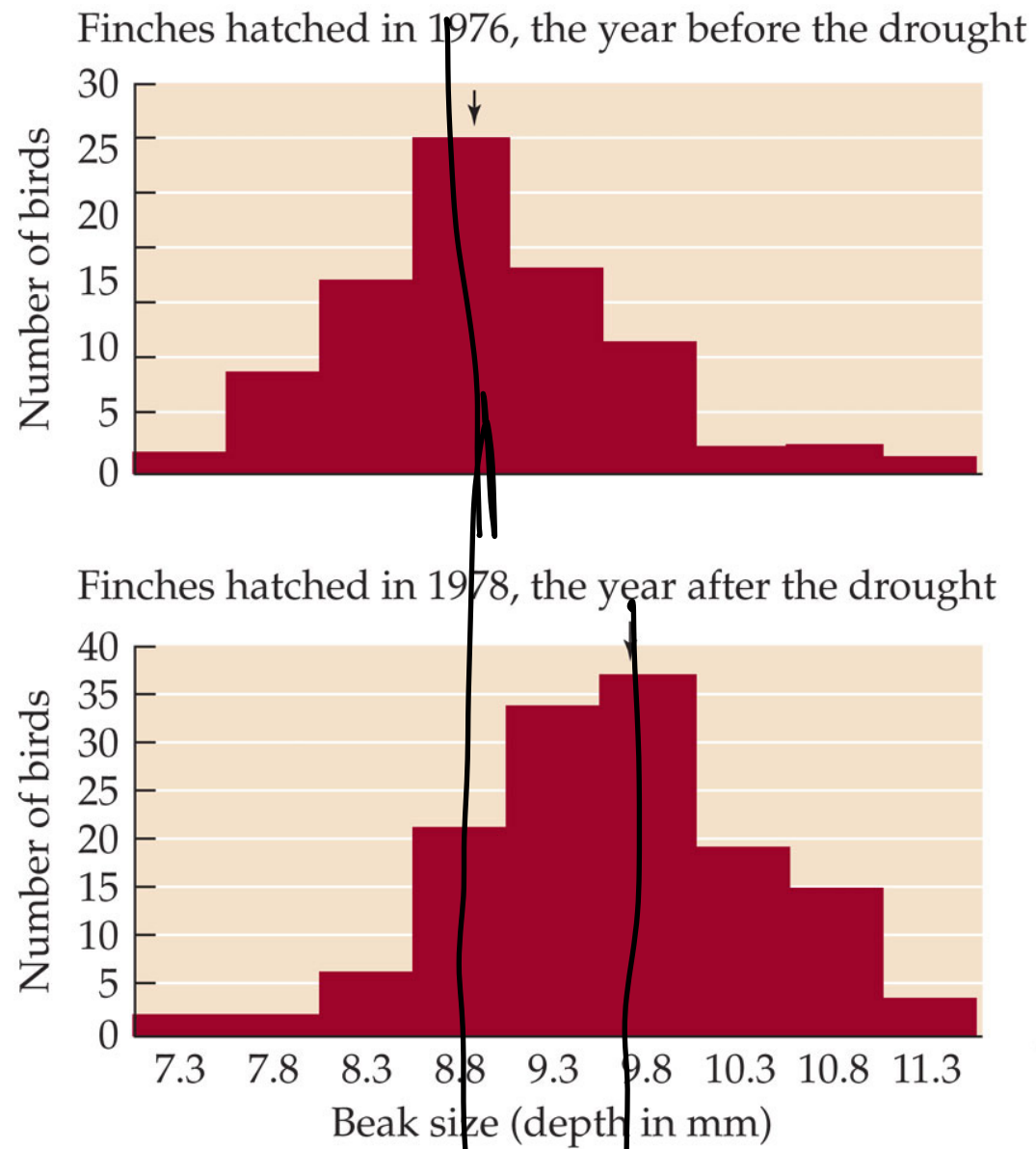


- human hunters
- actively selecting out larger

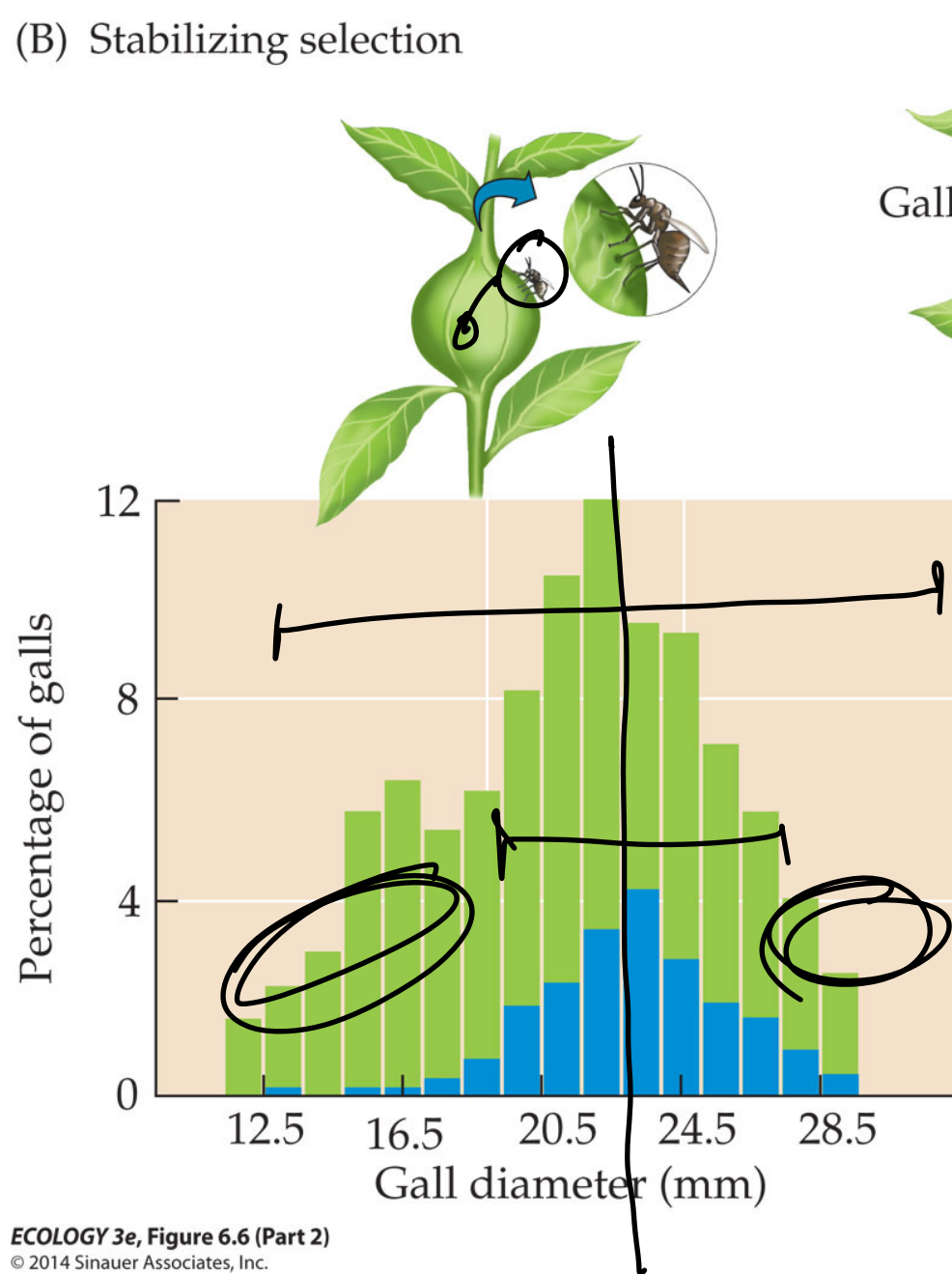
Directional Selection



(A) Directional selection



(B) Stabilizing selection



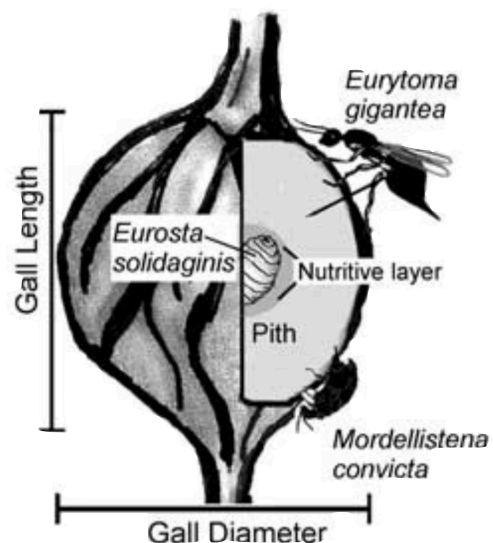
ECOLOGY 3e, Figure 6.6 (Part 2)
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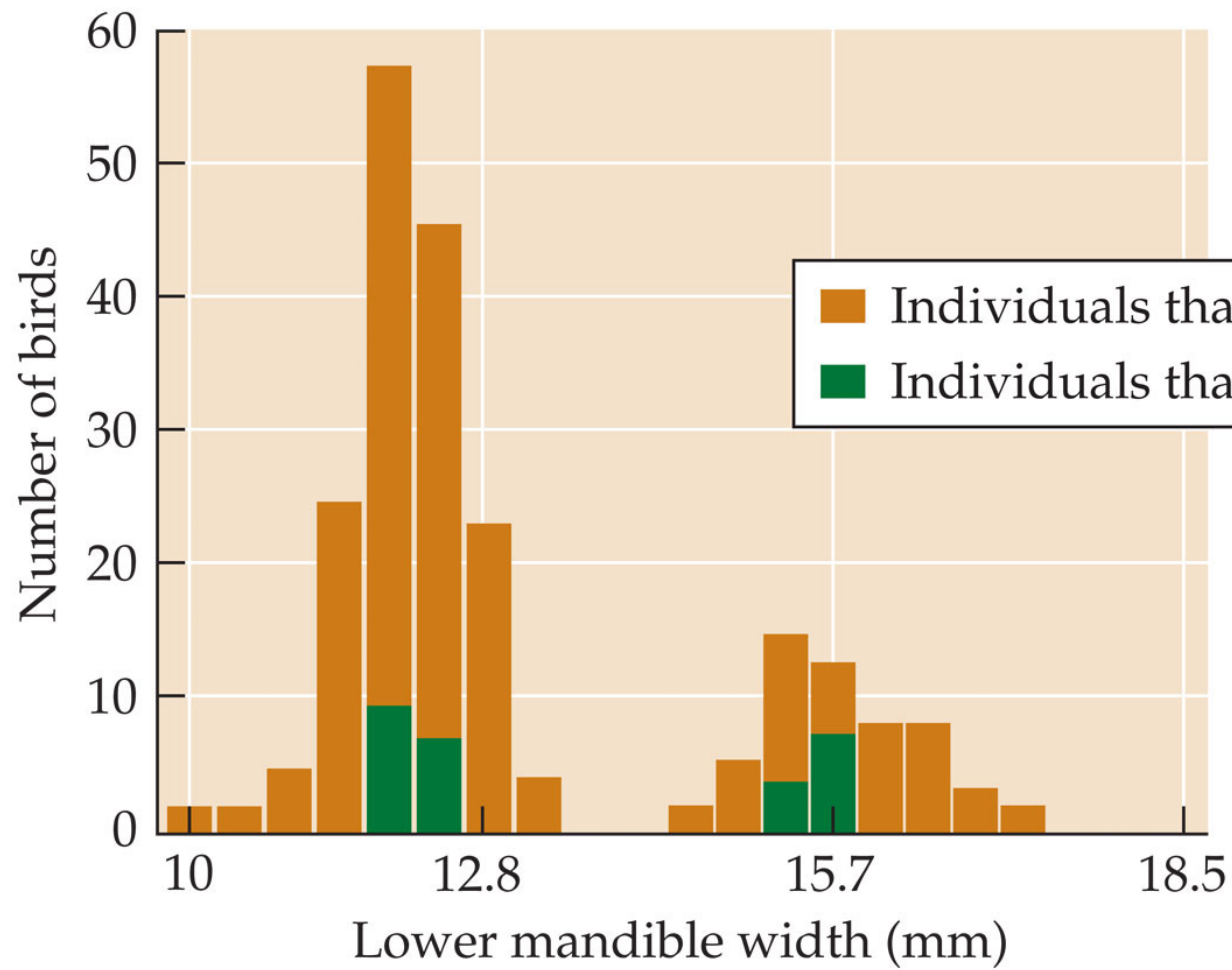
Stabilizing ~~Section~~ Selection

Eurosta flies

- If the gall is small then wasps attack gall and consume fly larvae
- If the gall is large then birds will target the gall



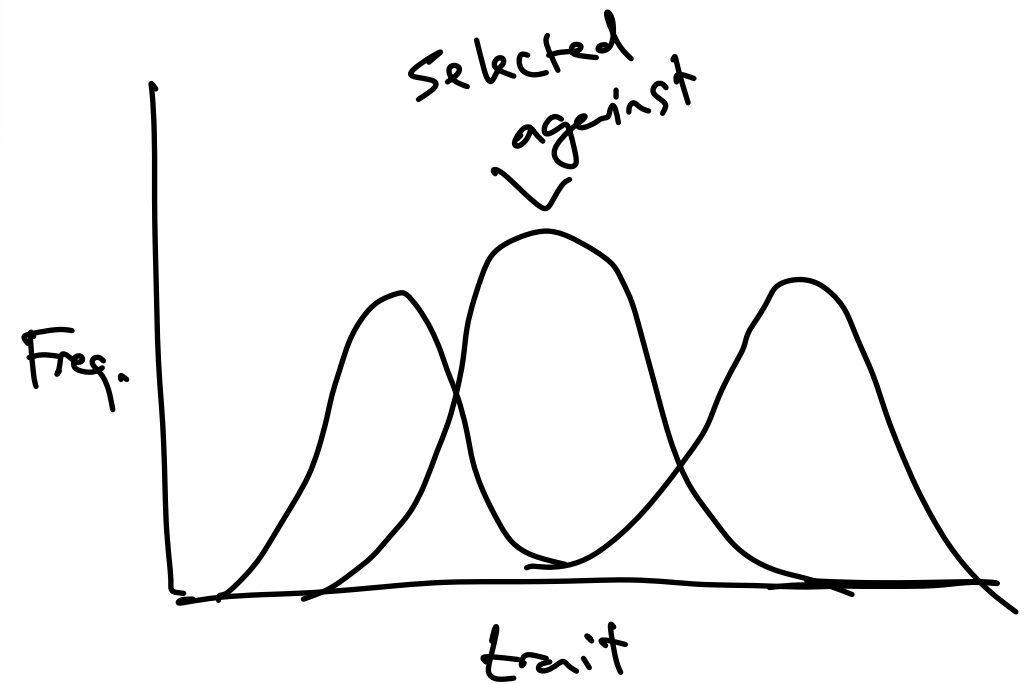
(C) Disruptive selection



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Disruptive Selection



disruptive

- Can result in speciation if there is formation of a reproductive barrier

African seedcrackers