

39 | THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM



Figure 39.1 Lungs, which appear as nearly transparent tissue surrounding the heart in this X-ray of a dog (left), are the central organs of the respiratory system. The left lung is smaller than the right lung to accommodate space for the heart. A dog's nose (right) has a slit on the side of each nostril. When tracking a scent, the slits open, blocking the front of the nostrils. This allows the dog to exhale through the now-open area on the side of the nostrils without losing the scent that is being followed. (credit a: modification of work by Geoff Stearns; credit b: modification of work by Cory Zanker)

Chapter Outline

- 39.1: Systems of Gas Exchange**
- 39.2: Gas Exchange across Respiratory Surfaces**
- 39.3: Breathing**
- 39.4: Transport of Gases in Human Bodily Fluids**

Introduction

Breathing is an involuntary event. How often a breath is taken and how much air is inhaled or exhaled are tightly regulated by the respiratory center in the brain. Humans, when they aren't exerting themselves, breathe approximately 15 times per minute on average. Canines, like the dog in **Figure 39.1**, have a respiratory rate of about 15–30 breaths per minute. With every inhalation, air fills the lungs, and with every exhalation, air rushes back out. That air is doing more than just inflating and deflating the lungs in the chest cavity. The air contains oxygen that crosses the lung tissue, enters the bloodstream, and travels to organs and tissues. Oxygen (O_2) enters the cells where it is used for metabolic reactions that produce ATP, a high-energy compound. At the same time, these reactions release carbon dioxide (CO_2) as a by-product. CO_2 is toxic and must be eliminated. Carbon dioxide exits the cells, enters the bloodstream, travels back to the lungs, and is expired out of the body during exhalation.

39.1 | Systems of Gas Exchange

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the passage of air from the outside environment to the lungs
- Explain how the lungs are protected from particulate matter

The primary function of the respiratory system is to deliver oxygen to the cells of the body's tissues and remove carbon dioxide, a cell waste product. The main structures of the human respiratory system are the nasal cavity, the trachea, and lungs.

All aerobic organisms require oxygen to carry out their metabolic functions. Along the evolutionary tree, different organisms have devised different means of obtaining oxygen from the surrounding atmosphere. The environment in which the animal lives greatly determines how an animal respire. The complexity of the respiratory system is correlated with the size of the organism. As animal size increases, diffusion distances increase and the ratio of surface area to volume drops. In unicellular organisms, diffusion across the cell membrane is sufficient for supplying oxygen to the cell (**Figure 39.2**). Diffusion is a slow, passive transport process. In order for diffusion to be a feasible means of providing oxygen to the cell, the rate of oxygen uptake must match the rate of diffusion across the membrane. In other words, if the cell were very large or thick, diffusion would not be able to provide oxygen quickly enough to the inside of the cell. Therefore, dependence on diffusion as a means of obtaining oxygen and removing carbon dioxide remains feasible only for small organisms or those with highly-flattened bodies, such as many flatworms (Platyhelminthes). Larger organisms had to evolve specialized respiratory tissues, such as gills, lungs, and respiratory passages accompanied by complex circulatory systems, to transport oxygen throughout their entire body.



Figure 39.2 The cell of the unicellular algae *Ventricaria ventricosa* is one of the largest known, reaching one to five centimeters in diameter. Like all single-celled organisms, *V. ventricosa* exchanges gases across the cell membrane.

Direct Diffusion

For small multicellular organisms, diffusion across the outer membrane is sufficient to meet their oxygen needs. Gas exchange by direct diffusion across surface membranes is efficient for organisms less than 1 mm in diameter. In simple organisms, such as cnidarians and flatworms, every cell in the body is close to the external environment. Their cells are kept moist and gases diffuse quickly via direct diffusion. Flatworms are small, literally flat worms, which ‘breathe’ through diffusion across the outer membrane (**Figure 39.3**). The flat shape of these organisms increases the surface area for diffusion, ensuring that each cell within the body is close to the outer membrane surface and has access to oxygen. If the flatworm had a cylindrical body, then the cells in the center would not be able to get oxygen.



Figure 39.3 This flatworm's process of respiration works by diffusion across the outer membrane. (credit: Stephen Childs)

Skin and Gills

Earthworms and amphibians use their skin (integument) as a respiratory organ. A dense network of capillaries lies just below the skin and facilitates gas exchange between the external environment and the circulatory system. The respiratory surface must be kept moist in order for the gases to dissolve and diffuse across cell membranes.

Organisms that live in water need to obtain oxygen from the water. Oxygen dissolves in water but at a lower concentration than in the atmosphere. The atmosphere has roughly 21 percent oxygen. In water, the oxygen concentration is much smaller than that. Fish and many other aquatic organisms have evolved gills to take up the dissolved oxygen from water (**Figure 39.4**). Gills are thin tissue filaments that are highly branched and folded. When water passes over the gills, the dissolved oxygen in water rapidly diffuses across the gills into the bloodstream. The circulatory system can then carry the oxygenated blood to the other parts of the body. In animals that contain coelomic fluid instead of blood, oxygen diffuses across the gill surfaces into the coelomic fluid. Gills are found in mollusks, annelids, and crustaceans.



Figure 39.4 This common carp, like many other aquatic organisms, has gills that allow it to obtain oxygen from water. (credit: "Guitardude012"/Wikimedia Commons)

The folded surfaces of the gills provide a large surface area to ensure that the fish gets sufficient oxygen. Diffusion is a process in which material travels from regions of high concentration to low concentration until equilibrium is reached. In this case, blood with a low concentration of oxygen molecules circulates through the gills. The concentration of oxygen molecules in water is higher than the concentration of oxygen molecules in gills. As a result, oxygen molecules diffuse from water (high concentration) to blood (low concentration), as shown in **Figure 39.5**. Similarly, carbon dioxide molecules in the blood diffuse from the blood (high concentration) to water (low concentration).

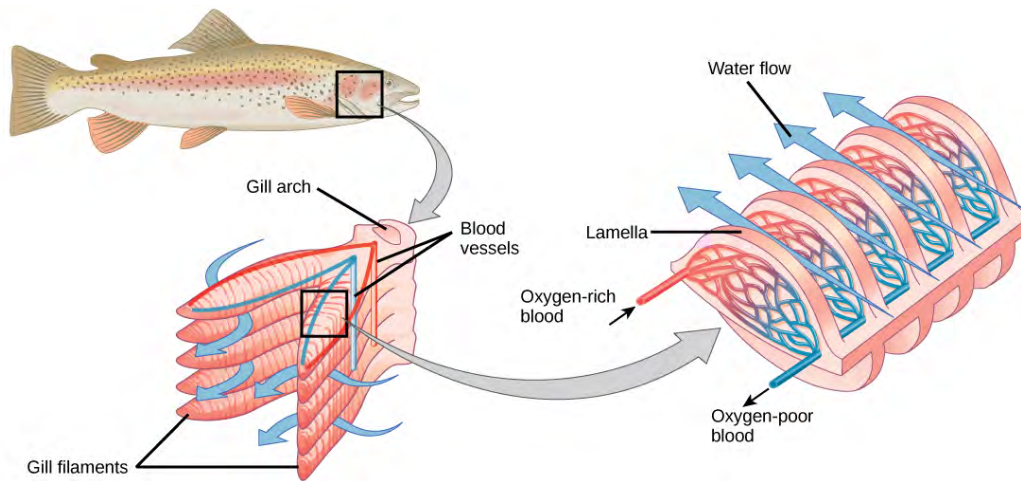


Figure 39.5 As water flows over the gills, oxygen is transferred to blood via the veins. (credit "fish": modification of work by Duane Raver, NOAA)

Tracheal Systems

Insect respiration is independent of its circulatory system; therefore, the blood does not play a direct role in oxygen transport. Insects have a highly specialized type of respiratory system called the tracheal system, which consists of a network of small tubes that carries oxygen to the entire body. The tracheal system is the most direct and efficient respiratory system in active animals. The tubes in the tracheal system are made of a polymeric material called chitin.

Insect bodies have openings, called spiracles, along the thorax and abdomen. These openings connect to the tubular network, allowing oxygen to pass into the body (**Figure 39.6**) and regulating the diffusion of CO₂ and water vapor. Air enters and leaves the tracheal system through the spiracles. Some insects can ventilate the tracheal system with body movements.

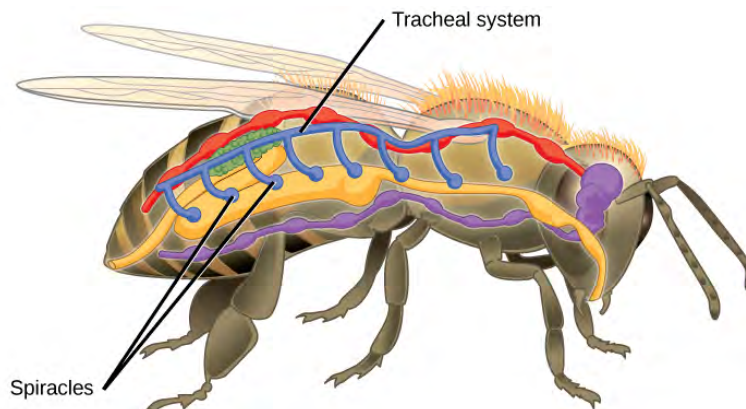


Figure 39.6 Insects perform respiration via a tracheal system.

Mammalian Systems

In mammals, pulmonary ventilation occurs via inhalation (breathing). During inhalation, air enters the body through the **nasal cavity** located just inside the nose (**Figure 39.7**). As air passes through the nasal cavity, the air is warmed to body temperature and humidified. The respiratory tract is coated with mucus to seal the tissues from direct contact with air. Mucus is high in water. As air crosses these surfaces of the mucous membranes, it picks up water. These processes help equilibrate the air to the body conditions, reducing any damage that cold, dry air can cause. Particulate matter that is floating in the air is removed in the nasal passages via mucus and cilia. The processes of warming, humidifying, and removing particles are important protective mechanisms that prevent damage to the trachea and lungs. Thus, inhalation serves several purposes in addition to bringing oxygen into the respiratory system.

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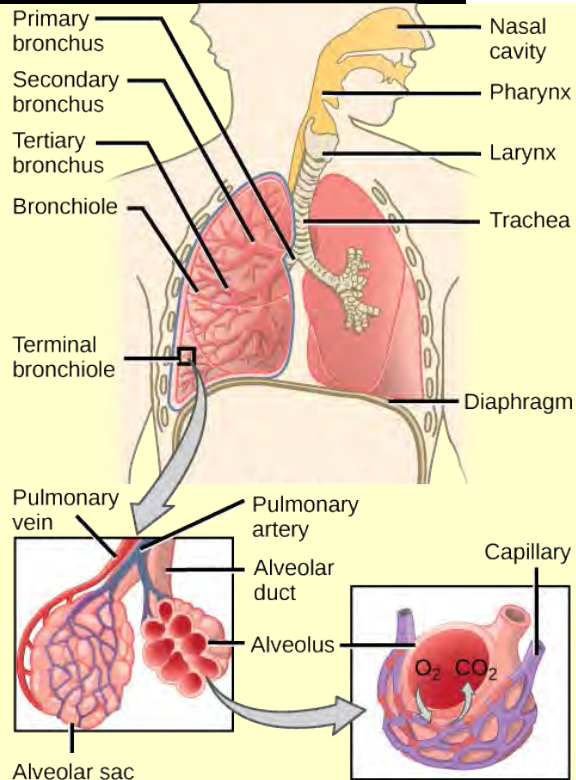


Figure 39.7 Air enters the respiratory system through the nasal cavity and pharynx, and then passes through the trachea and into the bronchi, which bring air into the lungs. (credit: modification of work by NCI)

Which of the following statements about the mammalian respiratory system is false?

- When we breathe in, air travels from the pharynx to the trachea.
- The bronchioles branch into bronchi.
- Alveolar ducts connect to alveolar sacs.
- Gas exchange between the lung and blood takes place in the alveolus.

From the nasal cavity, air passes through the **pharynx** (throat) and the **larynx** (voice box), as it makes its way to the **trachea** (**Figure 39.7**). The main function of the trachea is to funnel the inhaled air to the lungs and the exhaled air back out of the body. The human trachea is a cylinder about 10 to 12 cm long and 2 cm in diameter that sits in front of the esophagus and extends from the larynx into the chest cavity where it divides into the two primary bronchi at the midthorax. It is made of incomplete rings of hyaline cartilage and smooth muscle (**Figure 39.8**). The trachea is lined with mucus-producing goblet cells and ciliated epithelia. The cilia propel foreign particles trapped in the mucus toward the pharynx. The cartilage provides strength and support to the trachea to keep the passage open. The smooth muscle can contract, decreasing the trachea's diameter, which causes expired air to rush upwards from the lungs at a great force. The forced exhalation helps expel mucus when we cough. Smooth muscle can contract or relax, depending on stimuli from the external environment or the body's nervous system.

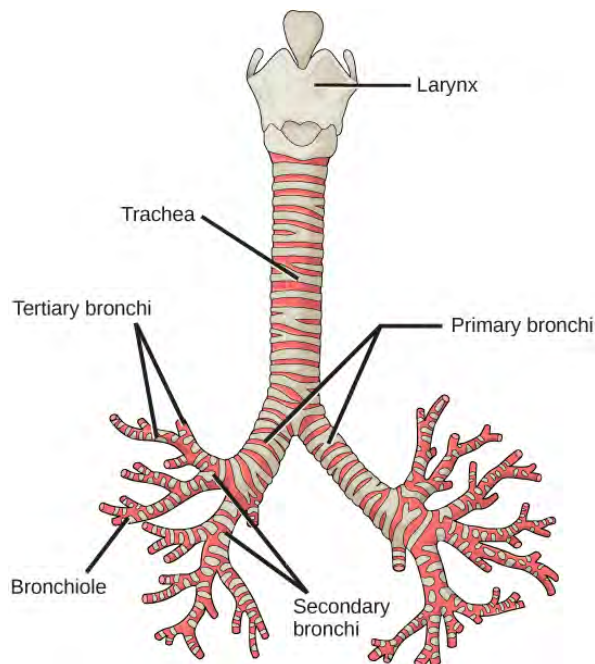


Figure 39.8 The trachea and bronchi are made of incomplete rings of cartilage. (credit: modification of work by Gray's Anatomy)

Lungs: Bronchi and Alveoli

The end of the trachea bifurcates (divides) to the right and left lungs. The lungs are not identical. The right lung is larger and contains three lobes, whereas the smaller left lung contains two lobes (**Figure 39.9**). The muscular **diaphragm**, which facilitates breathing, is inferior to (below) the lungs and marks the end of the thoracic cavity.

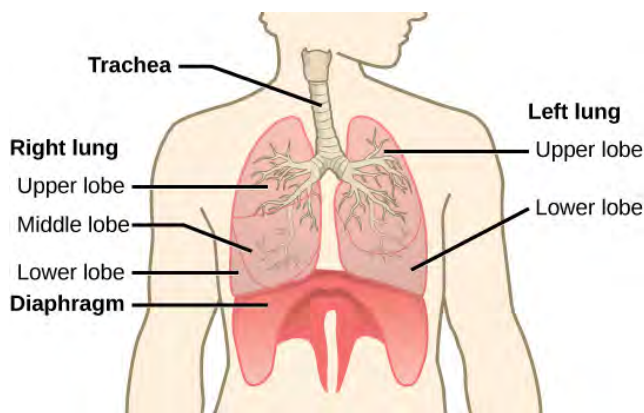


Figure 39.9 The trachea bifurcates into the right and left bronchi in the lungs. The right lung is made of three lobes and is larger. To accommodate the heart, the left lung is smaller and has only two lobes.

In the lungs, air is diverted into smaller and smaller passages, or **bronchi**. Air enters the lungs through the two **primary (main) bronchi** (singular: bronchus). Each bronchus divides into secondary bronchi, then into tertiary bronchi, which in turn divide, creating smaller and smaller diameter **bronchioles** as they split and spread through the lung. Like the trachea, the bronchi are made of cartilage and smooth muscle. At the bronchioles, the cartilage is replaced with elastic fibers. Bronchi are innervated by nerves of both the parasympathetic and sympathetic nervous systems that control muscle contraction (parasympathetic) or relaxation (sympathetic) in the bronchi and bronchioles, depending on the nervous system's cues. In humans, bronchioles with a diameter smaller than 0.5 mm are the **respiratory bronchioles**. They lack cartilage and therefore rely on inhaled air to support their shape. As the passageways decrease in diameter, the relative amount of smooth muscle increases.

The **terminal bronchioles** subdivide into microscopic branches called respiratory bronchioles. The respiratory bronchioles subdivide into several alveolar ducts. Numerous alveoli and alveolar sacs surround the alveolar ducts. The alveolar sacs resemble bunches of grapes tethered to the end of the bronchioles (**Figure 39.10**). In the acinar region, the **alveolar ducts** are attached to the end of each

bronchiole. At the end of each duct are approximately 100 **alveolar sacs**, each containing 20 to 30 **alveoli** that are 200 to 300 microns in diameter. Gas exchange occurs only in alveoli. Alveoli are made of thin-walled parenchymal cells, typically one-cell thick, that look like tiny bubbles within the sacs. Alveoli are in direct contact with capillaries (one-cell thick) of the circulatory system. Such intimate contact ensures that oxygen will diffuse from alveoli into the blood and be distributed to the cells of the body. In addition, the carbon dioxide that was produced by cells as a waste product will diffuse from the blood into alveoli to be exhaled. The anatomical arrangement of capillaries and alveoli emphasizes the structural and functional relationship of the respiratory and circulatory systems. Because there are so many alveoli (~300 million per lung) within each alveolar sac and so many sacs at the end of each alveolar duct, the lungs have a sponge-like consistency. This organization produces a very large surface area that is available for gas exchange. The surface area of alveoli in the lungs is approximately 75 m^2 . This large surface area, combined with the thin-walled nature of the alveolar parenchymal cells, allows gases to easily diffuse across the cells.

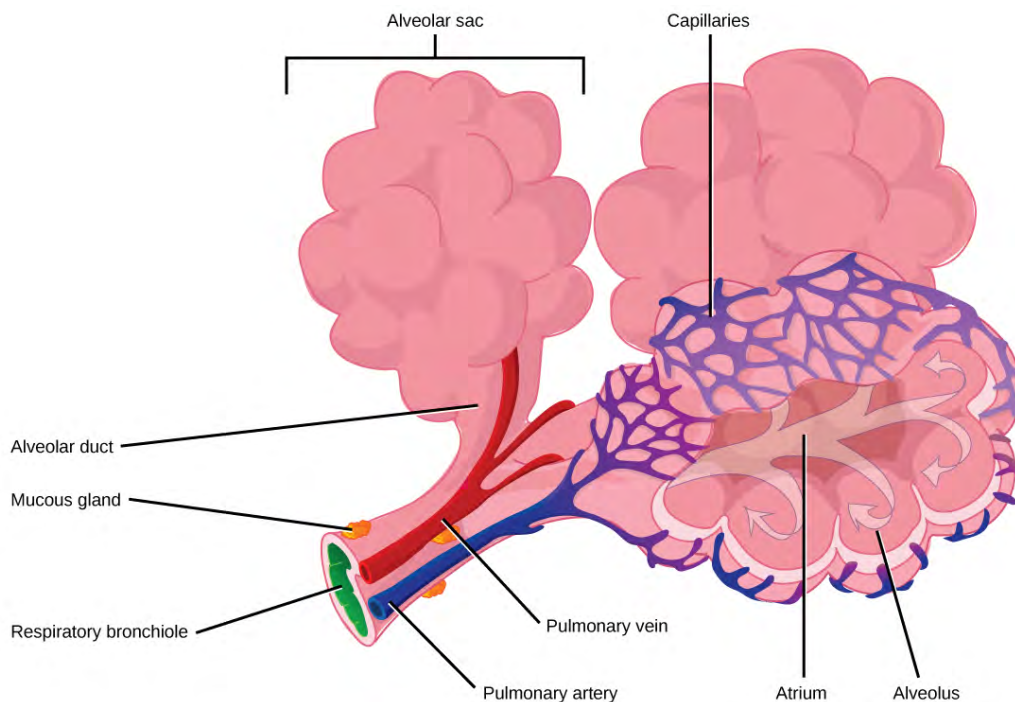


Figure 39.10 Terminal bronchioles are connected by respiratory bronchioles to alveolar ducts and alveolar sacs. Each alveolar sac contains 20 to 30 spherical alveoli and has the appearance of a bunch of grapes. Air flows into the atrium of the alveolar sac, then circulates into alveoli where gas exchange occurs with the capillaries. Mucous glands secrete mucous into the airways, keeping them moist and flexible. (credit: modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal)

LINK TO LEARNING



Watch the following **video** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/lungs_pulmonary) to review the respiratory system.

Protective Mechanisms

The air that organisms breathe contains **particulate matter** such as dust, dirt, viral particles, and bacteria that can damage the lungs or trigger allergic immune responses. The respiratory system contains several protective mechanisms to avoid problems or tissue damage. In the nasal cavity, hairs and mucus trap small particles, viruses, bacteria, dust, and dirt to prevent their entry.

If particulates do make it beyond the nose, or enter through the mouth, the bronchi and bronchioles of the lungs also contain several protective devices. The lungs produce **mucus**—a sticky substance made of **mu**cin, a complex glycoprotein, as well as salts and water—that traps particulates. The bronchi and bronchioles contain cilia, small hair-like projections that line the walls of the bronchi and bronchioles (**Figure 39.11**). These cilia beat in unison and move mucus and particles out of the bronchi and bronchioles back up to the throat where it is swallowed and eliminated via the esophagus.

In humans, for example, tar and other substances in cigarette smoke destroy or paralyze the cilia, making the removal of particles more difficult. In addition, smoking causes the lungs to produce more mucus, which the damaged cilia are not able to move. This causes a persistent cough, as the lungs try to rid themselves of particulate matter, and makes smokers more susceptible to respiratory ailments.

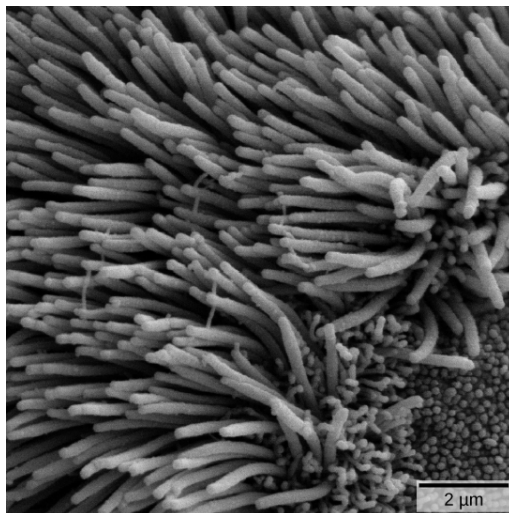


Figure 39.11 The bronchi and bronchioles contain cilia that help move mucus and other particles out of the lungs. (credit: Louisa Howard, modification of work by Dartmouth Electron Microscope Facility)

39.2 | Gas Exchange across Respiratory Surfaces

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Name and describe lung volumes and capacities
- Understand how gas pressure influences how gases move into and out of the body

The structure of the lung maximizes its surface area to increase gas diffusion. Because of the enormous number of alveoli (approximately 300 million in each human lung), the surface area of the lung is very large (75 m^2). Having such a large surface area increases the amount of gas that can diffuse into and out of the lungs.

Basic Principles of Gas Exchange

Gas exchange during respiration occurs primarily through diffusion. Diffusion is a process in which transport is driven by a concentration gradient. Gas molecules move from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration. Blood that is low in oxygen concentration and high in carbon dioxide concentration undergoes gas exchange with air in the lungs. The air in the lungs has a higher concentration of oxygen than that of oxygen-depleted blood and a lower concentration of carbon dioxide. This concentration gradient allows for gas exchange during respiration.

Partial pressure is a measure of the concentration of the individual components in a mixture of gases. The total pressure exerted by the mixture is the sum of the partial pressures of the components in the mixture. The rate of diffusion of a gas is proportional to its partial pressure within the total gas mixture. This concept is discussed further in detail below.

Lung Volumes and Capacities

Different animals have different lung capacities based on their activities. Cheetahs have evolved a much higher lung capacity than humans; it helps provide oxygen to all the muscles in the body and allows them to run very fast. Elephants also have a high lung capacity. In this case, it is not because they run fast but because they have a large body and must be able to take up oxygen in accordance with their body size.

Human lung size is determined by genetics, gender, and height. At maximal capacity, an average lung can hold almost six liters of air, but lungs do not usually operate at maximal capacity. Air in the lungs is measured in terms of **lung volumes** and **lung capacities** (Figure 39.12 and Table 39.1). Volume measures the amount of air for one function (such as inhalation or exhalation). Capacity is any two or more volumes (for example, how much can be inhaled from the end of a maximal exhalation).

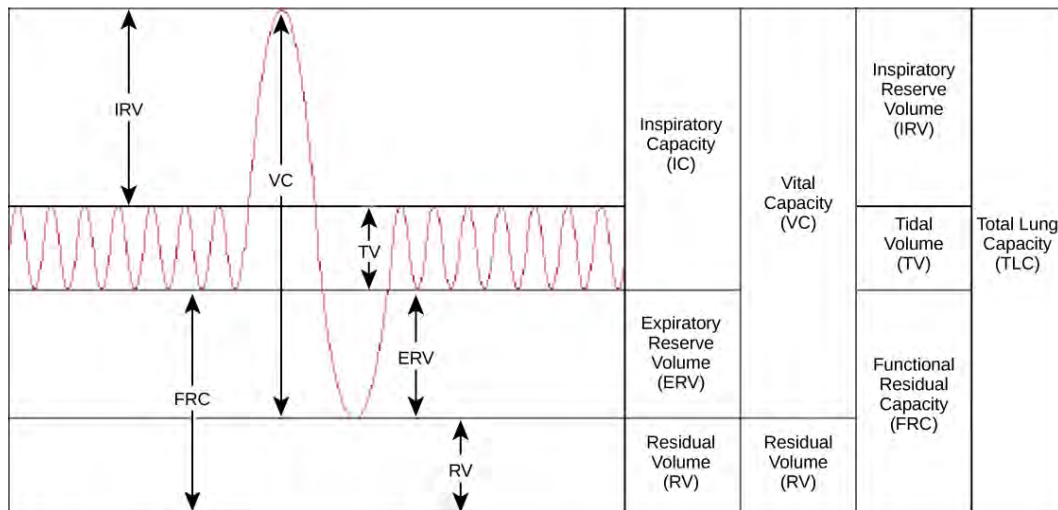


Figure 39.12 Human lung volumes and capacities are shown. The total lung capacity of the adult male is six liters. Tidal volume is the volume of air inhaled in a single, normal breath. Inspiratory capacity is the amount of air taken in during a deep breath, and residual volume is the amount of air left in the lungs after forceful respiration.

Lung Volumes and Capacities (Avg Adult Male)

Volume/ Capacity	Definition	Volume (liters)	Equations
Tidal volume (TV)	Amount of air inhaled during a normal breath	0.5	-
Expiratory reserve volume (ERV)	Amount of air that can be exhaled after a normal exhalation	1.2	-
Inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)	Amount of air that can be further inhaled after a normal inhalation	3.1	-
Residual volume (RV)	Air left in the lungs after a forced exhalation	1.2	-
Vital capacity (VC)	Maximum amount of air that can be moved in or out of the lungs in a single respiratory cycle	4.8	$ERV + TV + IRV$
Inspiratory capacity (IC)	Volume of air that can be inhaled in addition to a normal exhalation	3.6	$TV + IRV$
Functional residual capacity (FRC)	Volume of air remaining after a normal exhalation	2.4	$ERV + RV$

Table 39.1

Lung Volumes and Capacities (Avg Adult Male)

Volume/ Capacity	Definition	Volume (liters)	Equations
Total lung capacity (TLC)	Total volume of air in the lungs after a maximal inspiration	6.0	$RV+ERV+TV+IRV$
Forced expiratory volume (FEV1)	How much air can be forced out of the lungs over a specific time period, usually one second	~4.1 to 5.5	-

Table 39.1

The volume in the lung can be divided into four units: tidal volume, expiratory reserve volume, inspiratory reserve volume, and residual volume. **Tidal volume (TV)** measures the amount of air that is inspired and expired during a normal breath. On average, this volume is around one-half liter, which is a little less than the capacity of a 20-ounce drink bottle. The **expiratory reserve volume (ERV)** is the additional amount of air that can be exhaled after a normal exhalation. It is the reserve amount that can be exhaled beyond what is normal. Conversely, the **inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)** is the additional amount of air that can be inhaled after a normal inhalation. The **residual volume (RV)** is the amount of air that is left after expiratory reserve volume is exhaled. The lungs are never completely empty: There is always some air left in the lungs after a maximal exhalation. If this residual volume did not exist and the lungs emptied completely, the lung tissues would stick together and the energy necessary to re-inflate the lung could be too great to overcome. Therefore, there is always some air remaining in the lungs. Residual volume is also important for preventing large fluctuations in respiratory gases (O_2 and CO_2). The residual volume is the only lung volume that cannot be measured directly because it is impossible to completely empty the lung of air. This volume can only be calculated rather than measured.

Capacities are measurements of two or more volumes. The **vital capacity (VC)** measures the maximum amount of air that can be inhaled or exhaled during a respiratory cycle. It is the sum of the expiratory reserve volume, tidal volume, and inspiratory reserve volume. The **inspiratory capacity (IC)** is the amount of air that can be inhaled after the end of a normal expiration. It is, therefore, the sum of the tidal volume and inspiratory reserve volume. The **functional residual capacity (FRC)** includes the expiratory reserve volume and the residual volume. The FRC measures the amount of additional air that can be exhaled after a normal exhalation. Lastly, the **total lung capacity (TLC)** is a measurement of the total amount of air that the lung can hold. It is the sum of the residual volume, expiratory reserve volume, tidal volume, and inspiratory reserve volume.

Lung volumes are measured by a technique called **spirometry**. An important measurement taken during spirometry is the **forced expiratory volume (FEV)**, which measures how much air can be forced out of the lung over a specific period, usually one second (FEV1). In addition, the forced vital capacity (FVC), which is the total amount of air that can be forcibly exhaled, is measured. The ratio of these values (**FEV1/FVC ratio**) is used to diagnose lung diseases including asthma, emphysema, and fibrosis. If the FEV1/FVC ratio is high, the lungs are not compliant (meaning they are stiff and unable to bend properly), and the patient most likely has lung fibrosis. Patients exhale most of the lung volume very quickly. Conversely, when the FEV1/FVC ratio is low, there is resistance in the lung that is characteristic of asthma. In this instance, it is hard for the patient to get the air out of his or her lungs, and it takes a long time to reach the maximal exhalation volume. In either case, breathing is difficult and complications arise.



Respiratory Therapist

Respiratory therapists or respiratory practitioners evaluate and treat patients with lung and cardiovascular diseases. They work as part of a medical team to develop treatment plans for patients. Respiratory therapists may treat premature babies with underdeveloped lungs, patients with chronic conditions such as asthma, or older patients suffering from lung disease such as emphysema and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). They may operate advanced equipment such as compressed gas delivery systems, ventilators, blood gas analyzers, and resuscitators. Specialized programs to become a respiratory therapist generally lead to a bachelor's degree with a respiratory therapist specialty. Because of a growing aging population, career opportunities as a respiratory therapist are expected to remain strong.

Gas Pressure and Respiration

The respiratory process can be better understood by examining the properties of gases. Gases move freely, but gas particles are constantly hitting the walls of their vessel, thereby producing gas pressure.

Air is a mixture of gases, primarily nitrogen (N_2 ; 78.6 percent), oxygen (O_2 ; 20.9 percent), water vapor (H_2O ; 0.5 percent), and carbon dioxide (CO_2 ; 0.04 percent). Each gas component of that mixture exerts a pressure. The pressure for an individual gas in the mixture is the partial pressure of that gas. Approximately 21 percent of atmospheric gas is oxygen. Carbon dioxide, however, is found in relatively small amounts, 0.04 percent. The partial pressure for oxygen is much greater than that of carbon dioxide. The partial pressure of any gas can be calculated by:

$$P = (P_{\text{atm}}) \times (\text{percent content in mixture}).$$

P_{atm} , the atmospheric pressure, is the sum of all of the partial pressures of the atmospheric gases added together,

$$P_{\text{atm}} = P_{N_2} + P_{O_2} + P_{H_2O} + P_{CO_2} = 760 \text{ mm Hg}$$

× (percent content in mixture).

The pressure of the atmosphere at sea level is 760 mm Hg. Therefore, the partial pressure of oxygen is:

$$P_{O_2} = (760 \text{ mm Hg}) (0.21) = 160 \text{ mm Hg}$$

and for carbon dioxide:

$$P_{CO_2} = (760 \text{ mm Hg}) (0.0004) = 0.3 \text{ mm Hg}.$$

At high altitudes, P_{atm} decreases but concentration does not change; the partial pressure decrease is due to the reduction in P_{atm} .

When the air mixture reaches the lung, it has been humidified. The pressure of the water vapor in the lung does not change the pressure of the air, but it must be included in the partial pressure equation. For this calculation, the water pressure (47 mm Hg) is subtracted from the atmospheric pressure:

$$760 \text{ mm Hg} - 47 \text{ mm Hg} = 713 \text{ mm Hg}$$

and the partial pressure of oxygen is:

$$(760 \text{ mm Hg} - 47 \text{ mm Hg}) \times 0.21 = 150 \text{ mm Hg}.$$

These pressures determine the gas exchange, or the flow of gas, in the system. Oxygen and carbon dioxide will flow according to their pressure gradient from high to low. Therefore, understanding the partial pressure of each gas will aid in understanding how gases move in the respiratory system.

Gas Exchange across the Alveoli

In the body, oxygen is used by cells of the body's tissues and carbon dioxide is produced as a waste product. The ratio of carbon dioxide production to oxygen consumption is the **respiratory quotient**

(RQ). RQ varies between 0.7 and 1.0. If just glucose were used to fuel the body, the RQ would equal one. One mole of carbon dioxide would be produced for every mole of oxygen consumed. Glucose, however, is not the only fuel for the body. Protein and fat are also used as fuels for the body. Because of this, less carbon dioxide is produced than oxygen is consumed and the RQ is, on average, about 0.7 for fat and about 0.8 for protein.

The RQ is used to calculate the partial pressure of oxygen in the alveolar spaces within the lung, the **alveolar P_{O_2}** . Above, the partial pressure of oxygen in the lungs was calculated to be 150 mm

Hg. However, lungs never fully deflate with an exhalation; therefore, the inspired air mixes with this residual air and lowers the partial pressure of oxygen within the alveoli. This means that there is a lower concentration of oxygen in the lungs than is found in the air outside the body. Knowing the RQ, the partial pressure of oxygen in the alveoli can be calculated:

$$\text{alveolar } P_{O_2} = \text{inspired } P_{O_2} - \left(\frac{\text{alveolar } P_{CO_2}}{RQ} \right)$$

With an RQ of 0.8 and a P_{CO_2} in the alveoli of 40 mm Hg, the alveolar P_{O_2} is equal to:

$$\text{alveolar } P_{O_2} = 150 \text{ mm Hg} - \left(\frac{40 \text{ mm Hg}}{0.8} \right) = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$$

Notice that this pressure is less than the external air. Therefore, the oxygen will flow from the inspired air in the lung ($P_{O_2} = 150 \text{ mm Hg}$) into the bloodstream ($P_{O_2} = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$) (**Figure 39.13**).

In the lungs, oxygen diffuses out of the alveoli and into the capillaries surrounding the alveoli. Oxygen (about 98 percent) binds reversibly to the respiratory pigment hemoglobin found in red blood cells (RBCs). RBCs carry oxygen to the tissues where oxygen dissociates from the hemoglobin and diffuses into the cells of the tissues. More specifically, alveolar P_{O_2} is higher in the alveoli ($P_{ALVO_2} = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$) than blood P_{O_2} (40 mm Hg) in the capillaries. Because this pressure gradient exists, oxygen diffuses down its pressure gradient, moving out of the alveoli and entering the blood of the capillaries where O_2 binds to hemoglobin. At the same time, alveolar P_{CO_2} is lower $P_{ALVO_2} = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$ than blood $P_{CO_2} = (45 \text{ mm Hg})$. CO_2 diffuses down its pressure gradient, moving out of the capillaries and entering the alveoli.

Oxygen and carbon dioxide move independently of each other; they diffuse down their own pressure gradients. As blood leaves the lungs through the pulmonary veins, the **venous P_{O_2}** = 100 mm Hg, whereas the **venous P_{CO_2}** = 40 mm Hg. As blood enters the systemic capillaries, the blood will lose oxygen and gain carbon dioxide because of the pressure difference of the tissues and blood. In systemic capillaries, $P_{O_2} = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$, but in the tissue cells, $P_{O_2} = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$. This pressure gradient drives the diffusion of oxygen out of the capillaries and into the tissue cells. At the same time, blood $P_{CO_2} = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$ and systemic tissue $P_{CO_2} = 45 \text{ mm Hg}$. The pressure gradient drives CO_2 out of tissue cells and into the capillaries. The blood returning to the lungs through the pulmonary arteries has a venous $P_{O_2} = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$ and a $P_{CO_2} = 45 \text{ mm Hg}$. The blood enters the lung capillaries where the process of exchanging gases between the capillaries and alveoli begins again (**Figure 39.13**).

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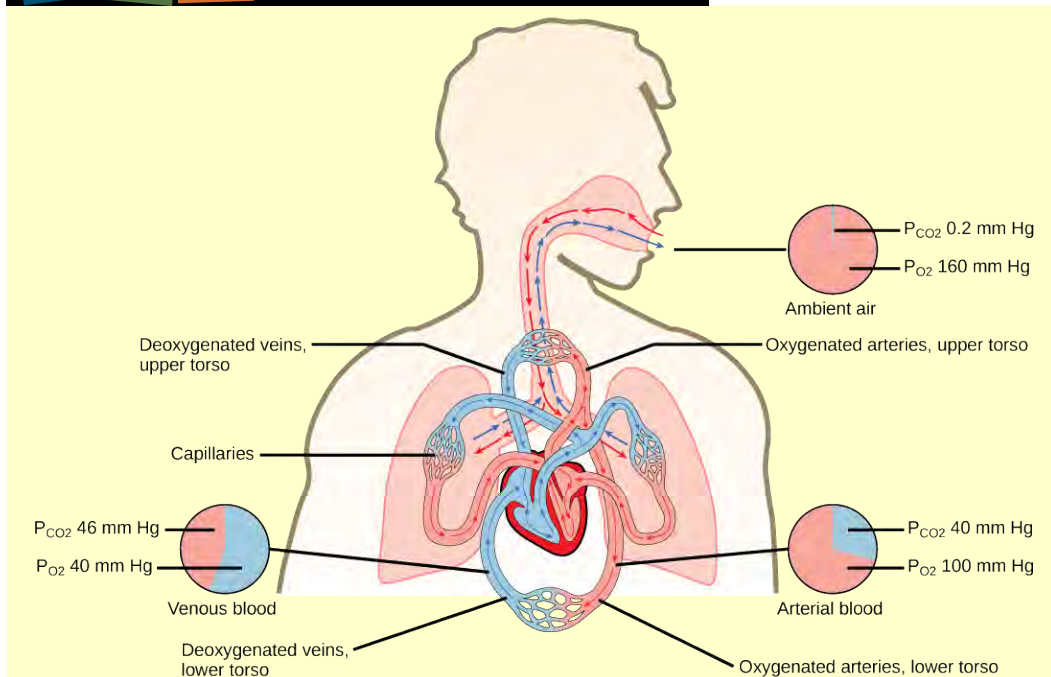


Figure 39.13 The partial pressures of oxygen and carbon dioxide change as blood moves through the body.

Which of the following statements is false?

- In the tissues, P_{O_2} drops as blood passes from the arteries to the veins, while P_{CO_2} increases.
- Blood travels from the lungs to the heart to body tissues, then back to the heart, then the lungs.
- Blood travels from the lungs to the heart to body tissues, then back to the lungs, then the heart.
- P_{O_2} is higher in air than in the lungs.

In short, the change in partial pressure from the alveoli to the capillaries drives the oxygen into the tissues and the carbon dioxide into the blood from the tissues. The blood is then transported to the lungs where differences in pressure in the alveoli result in the movement of carbon dioxide out of the blood into the lungs, and oxygen into the blood.

LINK TO LEARNING



Watch this [video \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/spirometry\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/spirometry) to learn how to carry out spirometry.

39.3 | Breathing

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how the structures of the lungs and thoracic cavity control the mechanics of breathing
- Explain the importance of compliance and resistance in the lungs
- Discuss problems that may arise due to a V/Q mismatch

Mammalian lungs are located in the thoracic cavity where they are surrounded and protected by the rib cage, intercostal muscles, and bound by the chest wall. The bottom of the lungs is contained by the diaphragm, a skeletal muscle that facilitates breathing. Breathing requires the coordination of the lungs, the chest wall, and most importantly, the diaphragm.

Types of Breathing

Amphibians have evolved multiple ways of breathing. Young amphibians, like tadpoles, use gills to breathe, and they don't leave the water. Some amphibians retain gills for life. As the tadpole grows, the gills disappear and lungs grow. These lungs are primitive and not as evolved as mammalian lungs. Adult amphibians are lacking or have a reduced diaphragm, so breathing via lungs is forced. The other means of breathing for amphibians is diffusion across the skin. To aid this diffusion, amphibian skin must remain moist.

Birds face a unique challenge with respect to breathing: They fly. Flying consumes a great amount of energy; therefore, birds require a lot of oxygen to aid their metabolic processes. Birds have evolved a respiratory system that supplies them with the oxygen needed to enable flying. Similar to mammals, birds have lungs, which are organs specialized for gas exchange. Oxygenated air, taken in during inhalation, diffuses across the surface of the lungs into the bloodstream, and carbon dioxide diffuses from the blood into the lungs and expelled during exhalation. The details of breathing between birds and mammals differ substantially.

In addition to lungs, birds have air sacs inside their body. Air flows in one direction from the posterior air sacs to the lungs and out of the anterior air sacs. The flow of air is in the opposite direction from blood flow, and gas exchange takes place much more efficiently. This type of breathing enables birds to obtain the requisite oxygen, even at higher altitudes where the oxygen concentration is low. This directionality of airflow requires two cycles of air intake and exhalation to completely get the air out of the lungs.

evolution CONNECTION

Avian Respiration

Birds have evolved a respiratory system that enables them to fly. Flying is a high-energy process and requires a lot of oxygen. Furthermore, many birds fly in high altitudes where the concentration of oxygen is low. How did birds evolve a respiratory system that is so unique?

Decades of research by paleontologists have shown that birds evolved from theropods, meat-eating dinosaurs (Figure 39.14). In fact, fossil evidence shows that meat-eating dinosaurs that lived more than 100 million years ago had a similar flow-through respiratory system with lungs and air sacs. *Archaeopteryx* and *Xiaotingia*, for example, were flying dinosaurs and are believed to be early precursors of birds.

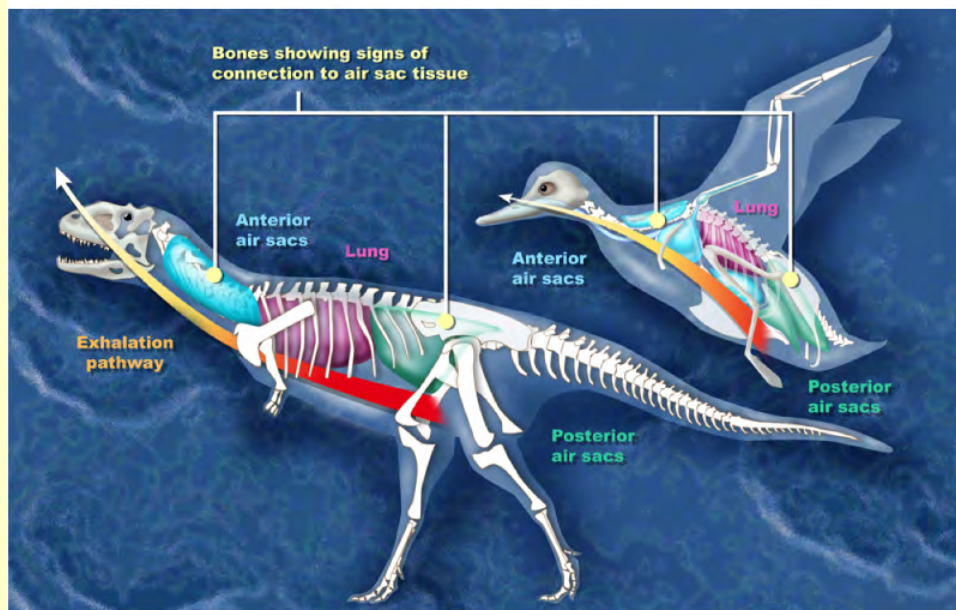
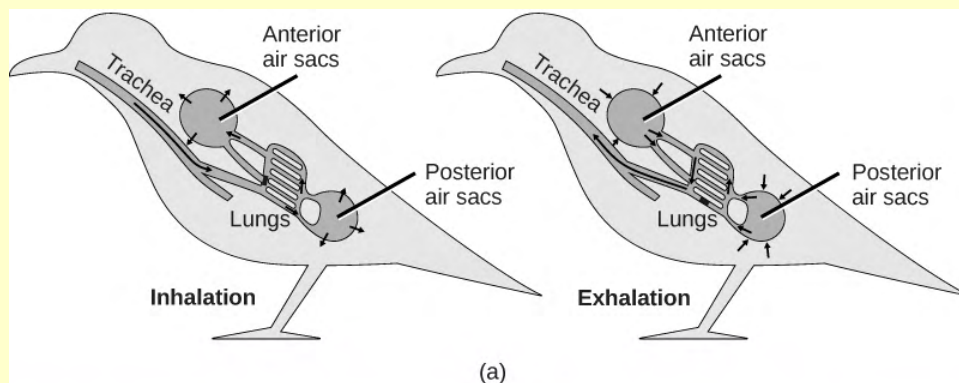


Figure 39.14 (a) Birds have a flow-through respiratory system in which air flows unidirectionally from the posterior sacs into the lungs, then into the anterior air sacs. The air sacs connect to openings in hollow bones. (b) Dinosaurs, from which birds descended, have similar hollow bones and are believed to have had a similar respiratory system. (credit b: modification of work by Zina Deretsky, National Science Foundation)

Most of us consider that dinosaurs are extinct. However, modern birds are descendants of avian dinosaurs. The respiratory system of modern birds has been evolving for hundreds of millions of years.

All mammals have lungs that are the main organs for breathing. Lung capacity has evolved to support the animal's activities. During inhalation, the lungs expand with air, and oxygen diffuses across the lung's surface and enters the bloodstream. During exhalation, the lungs expel air and lung volume decreases. In the next few sections, the process of human breathing will be explained.

The Mechanics of Human Breathing

Boyle's Law is the gas law that states that in a closed space, pressure and volume are inversely related. As volume decreases, pressure increases and vice versa (**Figure 39.15**). The relationship between gas pressure and volume helps to explain the mechanics of breathing.

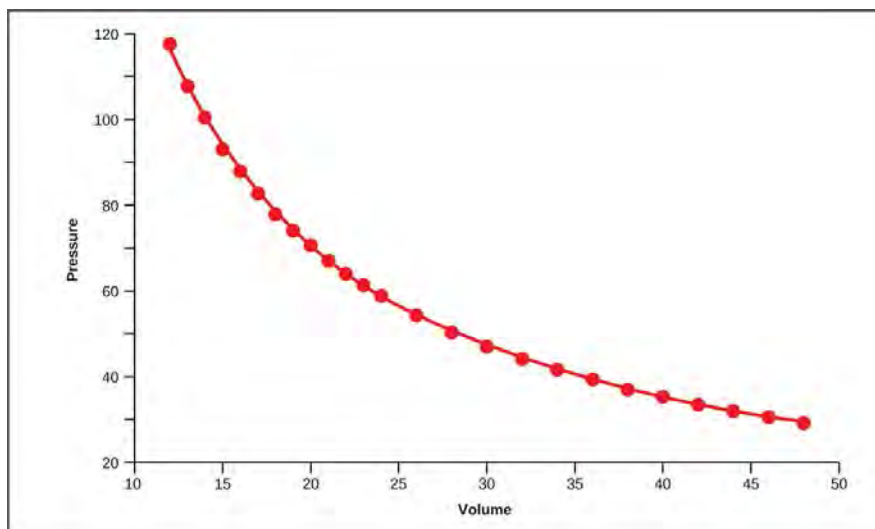


Figure 39.15 This graph shows data from Boyle's original 1662 experiment, which shows that pressure and volume are inversely related. No units are given as Boyle used arbitrary units in his experiments.

There is always a slightly negative pressure within the thoracic cavity, which aids in keeping the airways of the lungs open. During inhalation, volume increases as a result of contraction of the diaphragm, and pressure decreases (according to Boyle's Law). This decrease of pressure in the thoracic cavity relative to the environment makes the cavity less than the atmosphere (**Figure 39.16a**). Because of this drop in pressure, air rushes into the respiratory passages. To increase the volume of the lungs, the chest wall expands. This results from the contraction of the **intercostal muscles**, the muscles that are connected to the rib cage. Lung volume expands because the diaphragm contracts and the intercostals muscles contract, thus expanding the thoracic cavity. This increase in the volume of the thoracic cavity lowers pressure compared to the atmosphere, so air rushes into the lungs, thus increasing its volume. The resulting increase in volume is largely attributed to an increase in alveolar space, because the bronchioles and bronchi are stiff structures that do not change in size.

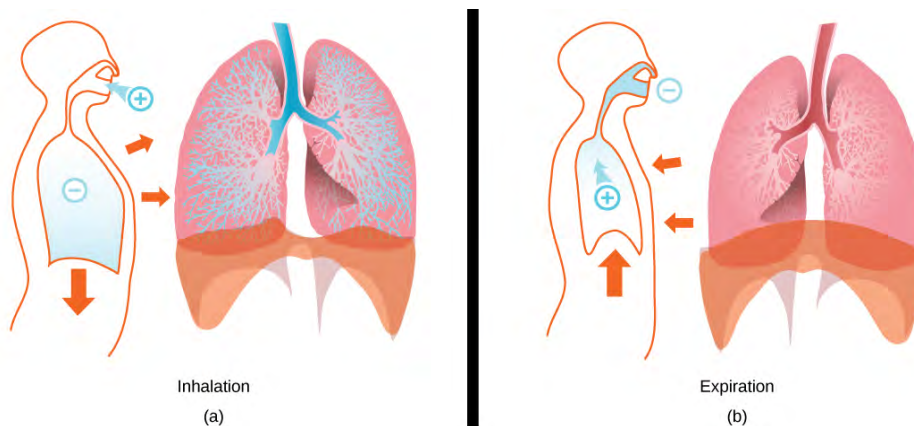


Figure 39.16 The lungs, chest wall, and diaphragm are all involved in respiration, both (a) inhalation and (b) expiration. (credit: modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal)

The chest wall expands out and away from the lungs. The lungs are elastic; therefore, when air fills the lungs, the **elastic recoil** within the tissues of the lung exerts pressure back toward the interior of

the lungs. These outward and inward forces compete to inflate and deflate the lung with every breath. Upon exhalation, the lungs recoil to force the air out of the lungs, and the intercostal muscles relax, returning the chest wall back to its original position (**Figure 39.16b**). The diaphragm also relaxes and moves higher into the thoracic cavity. This increases the pressure within the thoracic cavity relative to the environment, and air rushes out of the lungs. The movement of air out of the lungs is a passive event. No muscles are contracting to expel the air.

Each lung is surrounded by an invaginated sac. The layer of tissue that covers the lung and dips into spaces is called the visceral **pleura**. A second layer of parietal pleura lines the interior of the thorax (**Figure 39.17**). The space between these layers, the **intrapleural space**, contains a small amount of fluid that protects the tissue and reduces the friction generated from rubbing the tissue layers together as the lungs contract and relax. **Pleurisy** results when these layers of tissue become inflamed; it is painful because the inflammation increases the pressure within the thoracic cavity and reduces the volume of the lung.

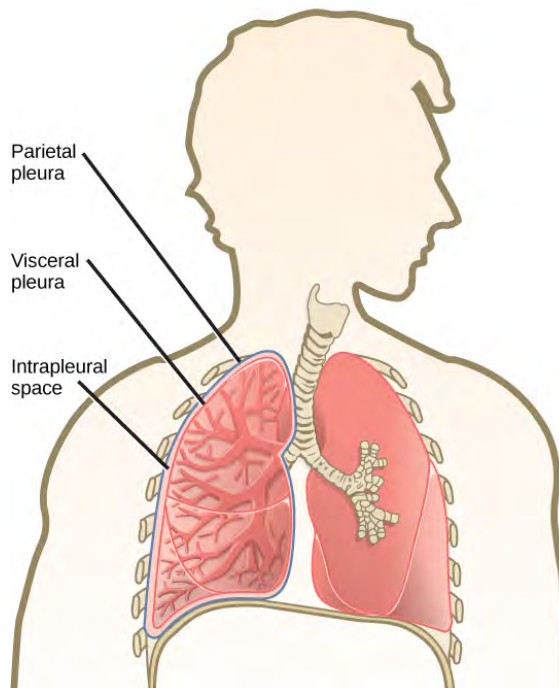


Figure 39.17 A tissue layer called pleura surrounds the lung and interior of the thoracic cavity. (credit: modification of work by NCI)



View (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/boyle_breathing) how Boyle's Law is related to breathing and watch **this video** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/boyles_law) on Boyle's Law.

The Work of Breathing

The number of breaths per minute is the **respiratory rate**. On average, under non-exertion conditions, the human respiratory rate is 12–15 breaths/minute. The respiratory rate contributes to the **alveolar ventilation**, or how much air moves into and out of the alveoli. Alveolar ventilation prevents carbon dioxide buildup in the alveoli. There are two ways to keep the alveolar ventilation constant: increase the respiratory rate while decreasing the tidal volume of air per breath (shallow breathing), or decrease the respiratory rate while increasing the tidal volume per breath. In either case, the ventilation remains the

same, but the work done and type of work needed are quite different. Both tidal volume and respiratory rate are closely regulated when oxygen demand increases.

There are two types of work conducted during respiration, flow-resistive and elastic work. **Flow-resistive** refers to the work of the alveoli and tissues in the lung, whereas **elastic work** refers to the work of the intercostal muscles, chest wall, and diaphragm. Increasing the respiration rate increases the flow-resistive work of the airways and decreases the elastic work of the muscles. Decreasing the respiratory rate reverses the type of work required.

Surfactant

The air-tissue/water interface of the alveoli has a high surface tension. This surface tension is similar to the surface tension of water at the liquid-air interface of a water droplet that results in the bonding of the water molecules together. **Surfactant** is a complex mixture of phospholipids and lipoproteins that works to reduce the surface tension that exists between the alveoli tissue and the air found within the alveoli. By lowering the surface tension of the alveolar fluid, it reduces the tendency of alveoli to collapse.

Surfactant works like a detergent to reduce the surface tension and allows for easier inflation of the airways. When a balloon is first inflated, it takes a large amount of effort to stretch the plastic and start to inflate the balloon. If a little bit of detergent was applied to the interior of the balloon, then the amount of effort or work needed to begin to inflate the balloon would decrease, and it would become much easier to start blowing up the balloon. This same principle applies to the airways. A small amount of surfactant to the airway tissues reduces the effort or work needed to inflate those airways. Babies born prematurely sometimes do not produce enough surfactant. As a result, they suffer from **respiratory distress syndrome**, because it requires more effort to inflate their lungs. Surfactant is also important for preventing collapse of small alveoli relative to large alveoli.

Lung Resistance and Compliance

Pulmonary diseases reduce the rate of gas exchange into and out of the lungs. Two main causes of decreased gas exchange are **compliance** (how elastic the lung is) and **resistance** (how much obstruction exists in the airways). A change in either can dramatically alter breathing and the ability to take in oxygen and release carbon dioxide.

Examples of **restrictive diseases** are respiratory distress syndrome and pulmonary fibrosis. In both diseases, the airways are less compliant and they are stiff or fibrotic. There is a decrease in compliance because the lung tissue cannot bend and move. In these types of restrictive diseases, the intrapleural pressure is more positive and the airways collapse upon exhalation, which traps air in the lungs. Forced or **functional vital capacity (FVC)**, which is the amount of air that can be forcibly exhaled after taking the deepest breath possible, is much lower than in normal patients, and the time it takes to exhale most of the air is greatly prolonged (**Figure 39.18**). A patient suffering from these diseases cannot exhale the normal amount of air.

Obstructive diseases and conditions include emphysema, asthma, and pulmonary edema. In emphysema, which mostly arises from smoking tobacco, the walls of the alveoli are destroyed, decreasing the surface area for gas exchange. The overall compliance of the lungs is increased, because as the alveolar walls are damaged, lung elastic recoil decreases due to a loss of elastic fibers, and more air is trapped in the lungs at the end of exhalation. Asthma is a disease in which inflammation is triggered by environmental factors. Inflammation obstructs the airways. The obstruction may be due to edema (fluid accumulation), smooth muscle spasms in the walls of the bronchioles, increased mucus secretion, damage to the epithelia of the airways, or a combination of these events. Those with asthma or edema experience increased occlusion from increased inflammation of the airways. This tends to block the airways, preventing the proper movement of gases (**Figure 39.18**). Those with obstructive diseases have large volumes of air trapped after exhalation and breathe at a very high lung volume to compensate for the lack of airway recruitment.

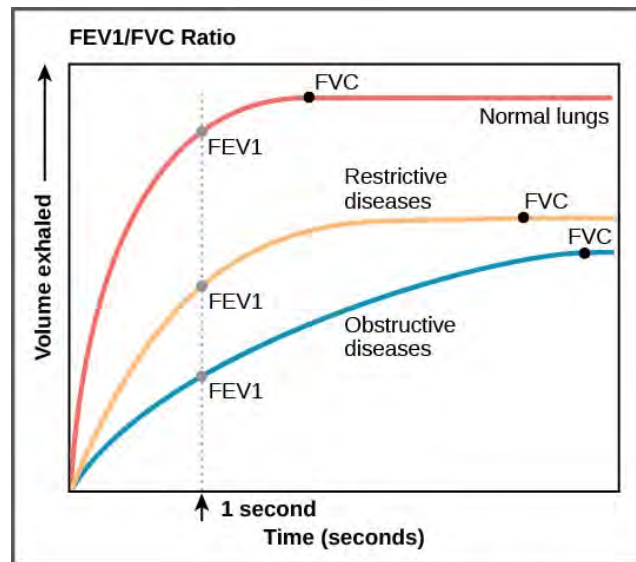


Figure 39.18 The ratio of FEV1 (the amount of air that can be forcibly exhaled in one second after taking a deep breath) to FVC (the total amount of air that can be forcibly exhaled) can be used to diagnose whether a person has restrictive or obstructive lung disease. In restrictive lung disease, FVC is reduced but airways are not obstructed, so the person is able to expel air reasonably fast. In obstructive lung disease, airway obstruction results in slow exhalation as well as reduced FVC. Thus, the FEV1/FVC ratio is lower in persons with obstructive lung disease (less than 69 percent) than in persons with restrictive disease (88 to 90 percent).

Dead Space: V/Q Mismatch

Pulmonary circulation pressure is very low compared to that of the systemic circulation. It is also independent of cardiac output. This is because of a phenomenon called **recruitment**, which is the process of opening airways that normally remain closed when cardiac output increases. As cardiac output increases, the number of capillaries and arteries that are perfused (filled with blood) increases. These capillaries and arteries are not always in use but are ready if needed. At times, however, there is a mismatch between the amount of air (ventilation, V) and the amount of blood (perfusion, Q) in the lungs. This is referred to as **ventilation/perfusion (V/Q) mismatch**.

There are two types of V/Q mismatch. Both produce **dead space**, regions of broken down or blocked lung tissue. Dead spaces can severely impact breathing, because they reduce the surface area available for gas diffusion. As a result, the amount of oxygen in the blood decreases, whereas the carbon dioxide level increases. Dead space is created when no ventilation and/or perfusion takes place. **Anatomical dead space** or anatomical shunt, arises from an anatomical failure, while **physiological dead space** or physiological shunt, arises from a functional impairment of the lung or arteries.

An example of an anatomical shunt is the effect of gravity on the lungs. The lung is particularly susceptible to changes in the magnitude and direction of gravitational forces. When someone is standing or sitting upright, the pleural pressure gradient leads to increased ventilation further down in the lung. As a result, the intrapleural pressure is more negative at the base of the lung than at the top, and more air fills the bottom of the lung than the top. Likewise, it takes less energy to pump blood to the bottom of the lung than to the top when in a prone position. Perfusion of the lung is not uniform while standing or sitting. This is a result of hydrostatic forces combined with the effect of airway pressure. An anatomical shunt develops because the ventilation of the airways does not match the perfusion of the arteries surrounding those airways. As a result, the rate of gas exchange is reduced. Note that this does not occur when lying down, because in this position, gravity does not preferentially pull the bottom of the lung down.

A physiological shunt can develop if there is infection or edema in the lung that obstructs an area. This will decrease ventilation but not affect perfusion; therefore, the V/Q ratio changes and gas exchange is affected.

The lung can compensate for these mismatches in ventilation and perfusion. If ventilation is greater than perfusion, the arterioles dilate and the bronchioles constrict. This increases perfusion and reduces ventilation. Likewise, if ventilation is less than perfusion, the arterioles constrict and the bronchioles dilate to correct the imbalance.



Visit this [site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/breathing\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/breathing) to view the mechanics of breathing.

39.4 | Transport of Gases in Human Bodily Fluids

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how oxygen is bound to hemoglobin and transported to body tissues
- Explain how carbon dioxide is transported from body tissues to the lungs

Once the oxygen diffuses across the alveoli, it enters the bloodstream and is transported to the tissues where it is unloaded, and carbon dioxide diffuses out of the blood and into the alveoli to be expelled from the body. Although gas exchange is a continuous process, the oxygen and carbon dioxide are transported by different mechanisms.

Transport of Oxygen in the Blood

Although oxygen dissolves in blood, only a small amount of oxygen is transported this way. Only 1.5 percent of oxygen in the blood is dissolved directly into the blood itself. Most oxygen—98.5 percent—is bound to a protein called hemoglobin and carried to the tissues.

Hemoglobin

Hemoglobin, or Hb, is a protein molecule found in red blood cells (erythrocytes) made of four subunits: two alpha subunits and two beta subunits (**Figure 39.19**). Each subunit surrounds a central **heme group** that contains iron and binds one oxygen molecule, allowing each hemoglobin molecule to bind four oxygen molecules. Molecules with more oxygen bound to the heme groups are brighter red. As a result, oxygenated arterial blood where the Hb is carrying four oxygen molecules is bright red, while venous blood that is deoxygenated is darker red.

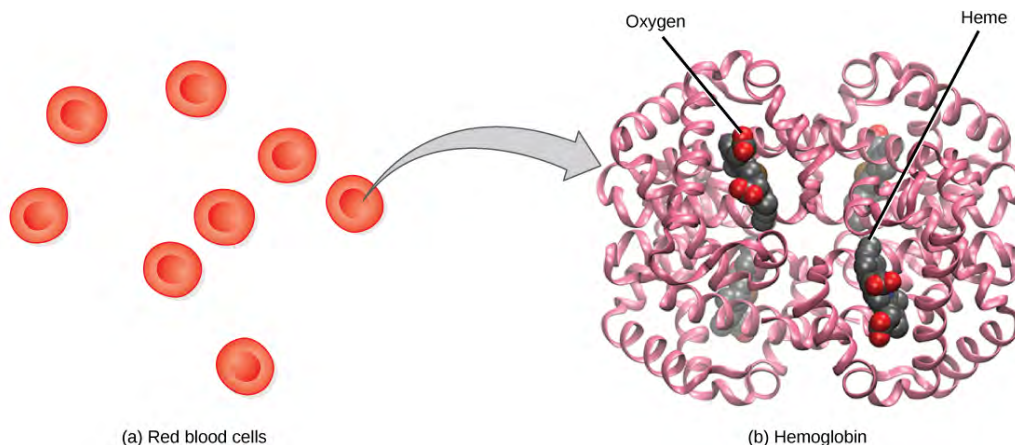


Figure 39.19 The protein inside (a) red blood cells that carries oxygen to cells and carbon dioxide to the lungs is (b) hemoglobin. Hemoglobin is made up of four symmetrical subunits and four heme groups. Iron associated with the heme binds oxygen. It is the iron in hemoglobin that gives blood its red color.

It is easier to bind a second and third oxygen molecule to Hb than the first molecule. This is because the hemoglobin molecule changes its shape, or conformation, as oxygen binds. The fourth oxygen is then

more difficult to bind. The binding of oxygen to hemoglobin can be plotted as a function of the partial pressure of oxygen in the blood (x-axis) versus the relative Hb-oxygen saturation (y-axis). The resulting graph—an **oxygen dissociation curve**—is sigmoidal, or S-shaped (**Figure 39.20**). As the partial pressure of oxygen increases, the hemoglobin becomes increasingly saturated with oxygen.

art CONNECTION

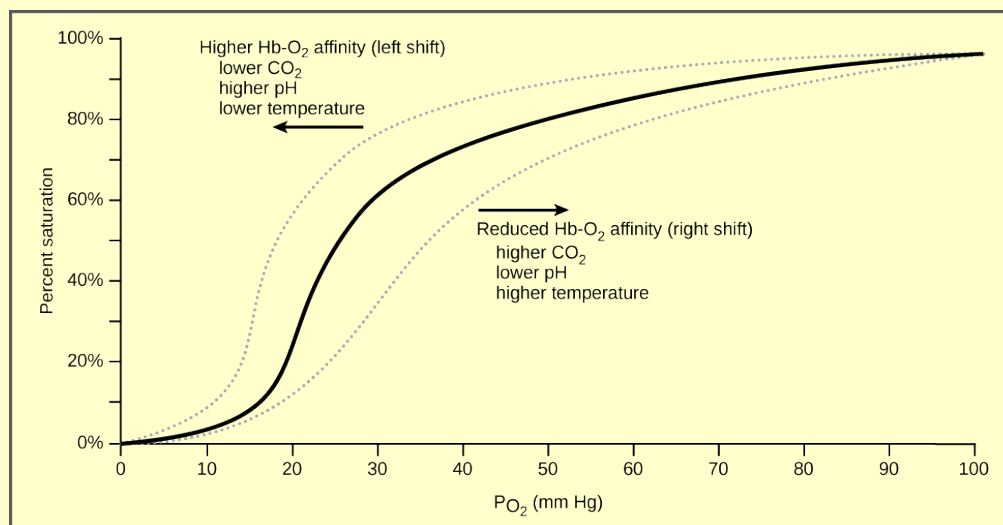


Figure 39.20 The oxygen dissociation curve demonstrates that, as the partial pressure of oxygen increases, more oxygen binds hemoglobin. However, the affinity of hemoglobin for oxygen may shift to the left or the right depending on environmental conditions.

The kidneys are responsible for removing excess H⁺ ions from the blood. If the kidneys fail, what would happen to blood pH and to hemoglobin affinity for oxygen?

Factors That Affect Oxygen Binding

The **oxygen-carrying capacity** of hemoglobin determines how much oxygen is carried in the blood. In addition to P_{O₂}, other environmental factors and diseases can affect oxygen carrying capacity and delivery.

Carbon dioxide levels, blood pH, and body temperature affect oxygen-carrying capacity (**Figure 39.20**). When carbon dioxide is in the blood, it reacts with water to form bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) and hydrogen ions (H⁺). As the level of carbon dioxide in the blood increases, more H⁺ is produced and the pH decreases. This increase in carbon dioxide and subsequent decrease in pH reduce the affinity of hemoglobin for oxygen. The oxygen dissociates from the Hb molecule, shifting the oxygen dissociation curve to the right. Therefore, more oxygen is needed to reach the same hemoglobin saturation level as when the pH was higher. A similar shift in the curve also results from an increase in body temperature. Increased temperature, such as from increased activity of skeletal muscle, causes the affinity of hemoglobin for oxygen to be reduced.

Diseases like sickle cell anemia and thalassemia decrease the blood's ability to deliver oxygen to tissues and its oxygen-carrying capacity. In **sickle cell anemia**, the shape of the red blood cell is crescent-shaped, elongated, and stiffened, reducing its ability to deliver oxygen (**Figure 39.21**). In this form, red blood cells cannot pass through the capillaries. This is painful when it occurs. **Thalassemia** is a rare genetic disease caused by a defect in either the alpha or the beta subunit of Hb. Patients with thalassemia produce a high number of red blood cells, but these cells have lower-than-normal levels of hemoglobin. Therefore, the oxygen-carrying capacity is diminished.

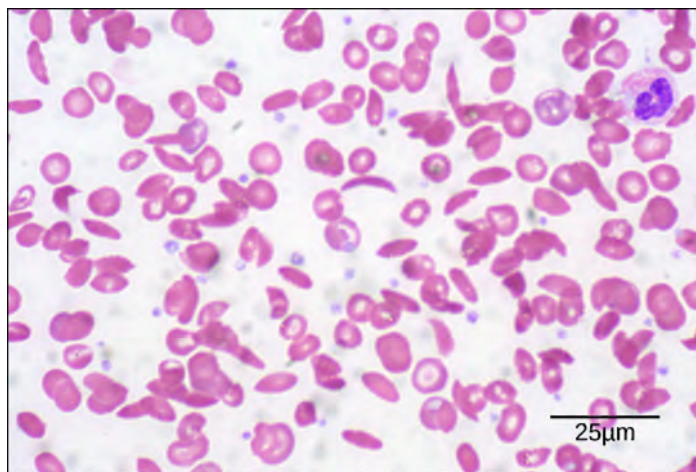
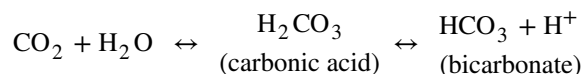


Figure 39.21 Individuals with sickle cell anemia have crescent-shaped red blood cells. (credit: modification of work by Ed Uthman; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

Transport of Carbon Dioxide in the Blood

Carbon dioxide molecules are transported in the blood from body tissues to the lungs by one of three methods: dissolution directly into the blood, binding to hemoglobin, or carried as a bicarbonate ion. Several properties of carbon dioxide in the blood affect its transport. First, carbon dioxide is more soluble in blood than oxygen. About 5 to 7 percent of all carbon dioxide is dissolved in the plasma. Second, carbon dioxide can bind to plasma proteins or can enter red blood cells and bind to hemoglobin. This form transports about 10 percent of the carbon dioxide. When carbon dioxide binds to hemoglobin, a molecule called **carbaminohemoglobin** is formed. Binding of carbon dioxide to hemoglobin is reversible. Therefore, when it reaches the lungs, the carbon dioxide can freely dissociate from the hemoglobin and be expelled from the body.

Third, the majority of carbon dioxide molecules (85 percent) are carried as part of the **bicarbonate buffer system**. In this system, carbon dioxide diffuses into the red blood cells. **Carbonic anhydrase (CA)** within the red blood cells quickly converts the carbon dioxide into carbonic acid (H_2CO_3). Carbonic acid is an unstable intermediate molecule that immediately dissociates into **bicarbonate ions** (HCO_3^-) and hydrogen (H^+) ions. Since carbon dioxide is quickly converted into bicarbonate ions, this reaction allows for the continued uptake of carbon dioxide into the blood down its concentration gradient. It also results in the production of H^+ ions. If too much H^+ is produced, it can alter blood pH. However, hemoglobin binds to the free H^+ ions and thus limits shifts in pH. The newly synthesized bicarbonate ion is transported out of the red blood cell into the liquid component of the blood in exchange for a chloride ion (Cl^-); this is called the **chloride shift**. When the blood reaches the lungs, the bicarbonate ion is transported back into the red blood cell in exchange for the chloride ion. The H^+ ion dissociates from the hemoglobin and binds to the bicarbonate ion. This produces the carbonic acid intermediate, which is converted back into carbon dioxide through the enzymatic action of CA. The carbon dioxide produced is expelled through the lungs during exhalation.



The benefit of the bicarbonate buffer system is that carbon dioxide is “soaked up” into the blood with little change to the pH of the system. This is important because it takes only a small change in the overall pH of the body for severe injury or death to result. The presence of this bicarbonate buffer system also allows for people to travel and live at high altitudes: When the partial pressure of oxygen and carbon dioxide change at high altitudes, the bicarbonate buffer system adjusts to regulate carbon dioxide while maintaining the correct pH in the body.

Carbon Monoxide Poisoning

While carbon dioxide can readily associate and dissociate from hemoglobin, other molecules such as carbon monoxide (CO) cannot. Carbon monoxide has a greater affinity for hemoglobin than oxygen. Therefore, when carbon monoxide is present, it binds to hemoglobin preferentially over oxygen. As a result, oxygen cannot bind to hemoglobin, so very little oxygen is transported through the body (**Figure 39.22**). Carbon monoxide is a colorless, odorless gas and is therefore difficult to detect. It is produced

by gas-powered vehicles and tools. Carbon monoxide can cause headaches, confusion, and nausea; long-term exposure can cause brain damage or death. Administering 100 percent (pure) oxygen is the usual treatment for carbon monoxide poisoning. Administration of pure oxygen speeds up the separation of carbon monoxide from hemoglobin.

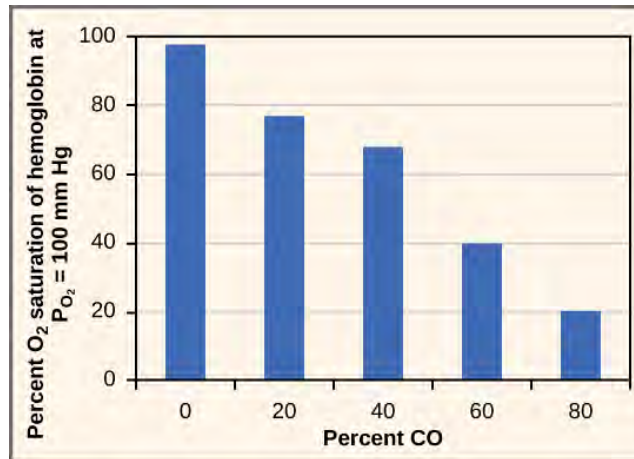


Figure 39.22 As percent CO increases, the oxygen saturation of hemoglobin decreases.

KEY TERMS

- alveolar P_{O_2}** partial pressure of oxygen in the alveoli (usually around 100 mmHg)
- alveolar duct** duct that extends from the terminal bronchiole to the alveolar sac
- alveolar sac** structure consisting of two or more alveoli that share a common opening
- alveolar ventilation** how much air is in the alveoli
- alveolus** (plural: alveoli) (also, air sac) terminal region of the lung where gas exchange occurs
- anatomical dead space** (also, anatomical shunt) region of the lung that lacks proper ventilation/perfusion due to an anatomical block
- bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ion** ion created when carbonic acid dissociates into H^+ and (HCO_3^-)
- bicarbonate buffer system** system in the blood that absorbs carbon dioxide and regulates pH levels
- bronchiole** airway that extends from the main tertiary bronchi to the alveolar sac
- bronchus** (plural: bronchi) smaller branch of cartilaginous tissue that stems off of the trachea; air is funneled through the bronchi to the region where gas exchange occurs in alveoli
- carbaminohemoglobin** molecule that forms when carbon dioxide binds to hemoglobin
- carbonic anhydrase (CA)** enzyme that catalyzes carbon dioxide and water into carbonic acid
- chloride shift** chloride shift exchange of chloride for bicarbonate into or out of the red blood cell
- compliance** measurement of the elasticity of the lung
- dead space** area in the lung that lacks proper ventilation or perfusion
- diaphragm** domed-shaped skeletal muscle located under lungs that separates the thoracic cavity from the abdominal cavity
- elastic recoil** property of the lung that drives the lung tissue inward
- elastic work** work conducted by the intercostal muscles, chest wall, and diaphragm
- expiratory reserve volume (ERV)** amount of additional air that can be exhaled after a normal exhalation
- FEV1/FVC ratio** ratio of how much air can be forced out of the lung in one second to the total amount that is forced out of the lung; a measurement of lung function that can be used to detect disease states
- flow-resistive** work of breathing performed by the alveoli and tissues in the lung
- forced expiratory volume (FEV)** (also, forced vital capacity) measure of how much air can be forced out of the lung from maximal inspiration over a specific amount of time
- functional residual capacity (FRC)** expiratory reserve volume plus residual volume
- functional vital capacity (FVC)** amount of air that can be forcibly exhaled after taking the deepest breath possible
- heme group** centralized iron-containing group that is surrounded by the alpha and beta subunits of hemoglobin
- hemoglobin** molecule in red blood cells that can bind oxygen, carbon dioxide, and carbon monoxide

- inspiratory capacity (IC)** tidal volume plus inspiratory reserve volume
- inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)** amount of additional air that can be inspired after a normal inhalation
- intercostal muscle** muscle connected to the rib cage that contracts upon inspiration
- intrapleural space** space between the layers of pleura
- larynx** voice box, a short passageway connecting the pharynx and the trachea
- lung capacity** measurement of two or more lung volumes (how much air can be inhaled from the end of an expiration to maximal capacity)
- lung volume** measurement of air for one lung function (normal inhalation or exhalation)
- mucin** complex glycoprotein found in mucus
- mucus** sticky protein-containing fluid secretion in the lung that traps particulate matter to be expelled from the body
- nasal cavity** opening of the respiratory system to the outside environment
- obstructive disease** disease (such as emphysema and asthma) that arises from obstruction of the airways; compliance increases in these diseases
- oxygen dissociation curve** curve depicting the affinity of oxygen for hemoglobin
- oxygen-carrying capacity** amount of oxygen that can be transported in the blood
- partial pressure** amount of pressure exerted by one gas within a mixture of gases
- particulate matter** small particle such as dust, dirt, viral particles, and bacteria that are in the air
- pharynx** throat; a tube that starts in the internal nares and runs partway down the neck, where it opens into the esophagus and the larynx
- physiological dead space** (also, physiological shunt) region of the lung that lacks proper ventilation/perfusion due to a physiological change in the lung (like inflammation or edema)
- pleura** tissue layer that surrounds the lungs and lines the interior of the thoracic cavity
- pleurisy** painful inflammation of the pleural tissue layers
- primary bronchus** (also, main bronchus) region of the airway within the lung that attaches to the trachea and bifurcates to each lung where it branches into secondary bronchi
- recruitment** process of opening airways that normally remain closed when the cardiac output increases
- residual volume (RV)** amount of air remaining in the lung after a maximal expiration
- resistance** measurement of lung obstruction
- respiratory bronchiole** terminal portion of the bronchiole tree that is attached to the terminal bronchioles and alveoli ducts, alveolar sacs, and alveoli
- respiratory distress syndrome** disease that arises from a deficient amount of surfactant
- respiratory quotient (RQ)** ratio of carbon dioxide production to each oxygen molecule consumed
- respiratory rate** number of breaths per minute
- restrictive disease** disease that results from a restriction and decreased compliance of the alveoli; respiratory distress syndrome and pulmonary fibrosis are examples

sickle cell anemia genetic disorder that affects the shape of red blood cells, and their ability to transport oxygen and move through capillaries

spirometry method to measure lung volumes and to diagnose lung diseases

surfactant detergent-like liquid in the airways that lowers the surface tension of the alveoli to allow for expansion

terminal bronchiole region of bronchiole that attaches to the respiratory bronchioles

thalassemia rare genetic disorder that results in mutation of the alpha or beta subunits of hemoglobin, creating smaller red blood cells with less hemoglobin

tidal volume (TV) amount of air that is inspired and expired during normal breathing

total lung capacity (TLC) sum of the residual volume, expiratory reserve volume, tidal volume, and inspiratory reserve volume

trachea cartilaginous tube that transports air from the larynx to the primary bronchi

venous P_{CO_2} partial pressure of carbon dioxide in the veins (40 mm Hg in the pulmonary veins)

venous P_{O_2} partial pressure of oxygen in the veins (100 mm Hg in the pulmonary veins)

ventilation/perfusion (V/Q) mismatch region of the lung that lacks proper alveolar ventilation (V) and/or arterial perfusion (Q)

vital capacity (VC) sum of the expiratory reserve volume, tidal volume, and inspiratory reserve volume

CHAPTER SUMMARY

39.1 Systems of Gas Exchange

Animal respiratory systems are designed to facilitate gas exchange. In mammals, air is warmed and humidified in the nasal cavity. Air then travels down the pharynx, through the trachea, and into the lungs. In the lungs, air passes through the branching bronchi, reaching the respiratory bronchioles, which house the first site of gas exchange. The respiratory bronchioles open into the alveolar ducts, alveolar sacs, and alveoli. Because there are so many alveoli and alveolar sacs in the lung, the surface area for gas exchange is very large. Several protective mechanisms are in place to prevent damage or infection. These include the hair and mucus in the nasal cavity that trap dust, dirt, and other particulate matter before they can enter the system. In the lungs, particles are trapped in a mucus layer and transported via cilia up to the esophageal opening at the top of the trachea to be swallowed.

39.2 Gas Exchange across Respiratory Surfaces

The lungs can hold a large volume of air, but they are not usually filled to maximal capacity. Lung volume measurements include tidal volume, expiratory reserve volume, inspiratory reserve volume, and residual volume. The sum of these equals the total lung capacity. Gas movement into or out of the lungs is dependent on the pressure of the gas. Air is a mixture of gases; therefore, the partial pressure of each gas can be calculated to determine how the gas will flow in the lung. The difference between the partial pressure of the gas in the air drives oxygen into the tissues and carbon dioxide out of the body.

39.3 Breathing

The structure of the lungs and thoracic cavity control the mechanics of breathing. Upon inspiration, the diaphragm contracts and lowers. The intercostal muscles contract and expand the chest wall outward. The intrapleural pressure drops, the lungs expand, and air is drawn into the airways. When exhaling, the intercostal muscles and diaphragm relax, returning the intrapleural pressure back to the resting state. The lungs recoil and airways close. The air passively exits the lung. There is high surface tension at the air-airway interface in the lung. Surfactant, a mixture of phospholipids and lipoproteins, acts like a detergent in the airways to reduce surface tension and allow for opening of the alveoli.

Breathing and gas exchange are both altered by changes in the compliance and resistance of the lung. If the compliance of the lung decreases, as occurs in restrictive diseases like fibrosis, the airways stiffen and collapse upon exhalation. Air becomes trapped in the lungs, making breathing more difficult. If resistance increases, as happens with asthma or emphysema, the airways become obstructed, trapping air in the lungs and causing breathing to become difficult. Alterations in the ventilation of the airways or perfusion of the arteries can affect gas exchange. These changes in ventilation and perfusion, called V/Q mismatch, can arise from anatomical or physiological changes.

39.4 Transport of Gases in Human Bodily Fluids

Hemoglobin is a protein found in red blood cells that is comprised of two alpha and two beta subunits that surround an iron-containing heme group. Oxygen readily binds this heme group. The ability of oxygen to bind increases as more oxygen molecules are bound to heme. Disease states and altered conditions in the body can affect the binding ability of oxygen, and increase or decrease its ability to dissociate from hemoglobin.

Carbon dioxide can be transported through the blood via three methods. It is dissolved directly in the blood, bound to plasma proteins or hemoglobin, or converted into bicarbonate. The majority of carbon dioxide is transported as part of the bicarbonate system. Carbon dioxide diffuses into red blood cells. Inside, carbonic anhydrase converts carbon dioxide into carbonic acid (H_2CO_3), which is subsequently hydrolyzed into bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) and H^+ . The H^+ ion binds to hemoglobin in red blood cells, and bicarbonate is transported out of the red blood cells in exchange for a chloride ion. This is called the chloride shift. Bicarbonate leaves the red blood cells and enters the blood plasma. In the lungs, bicarbonate is transported back into the red blood cells in exchange for chloride. The H^+ dissociates from hemoglobin and combines with bicarbonate to form carbonic acid with the help of carbonic anhydrase, which further catalyzes the reaction to convert carbonic acid back into carbon dioxide and water. The carbon dioxide is then expelled from the lungs.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 39.7** Which of the following statements about the mammalian respiratory system is false?
 - When we breathe in, air travels from the pharynx to the trachea.
 - The bronchioles branch into bronchi.
 - Alveolar ducts connect to alveolar sacs.
 - Gas exchange between the lung and blood takes place in the alveolus.
 - Blood travels from the lungs to the heart to body tissues, then back to the heart, then the lungs.
 - Blood travels from the lungs to the heart to body tissues, then back to the lungs, then the heart.
 - P_{O_2} is higher in air than in the lungs.
- Figure 39.13** Which of the following statements is false?
 - In the tissues, P_{O_2} drops as blood passes from the arteries to the veins, while P_{CO_2} increases.
 - The kidneys are responsible for removing excess H^+ ions from the blood. If the kidneys fail, what would happen to blood pH and to hemoglobin affinity for oxygen?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- The respiratory system _____.
 - provides body tissues with oxygen
 - provides body tissues with oxygen and carbon dioxide
 - establishes how many breaths are taken per minute
 - provides the body with carbon dioxide
 - all of the above
- Which is the order of airflow during inhalation?
 - nasal cavity, trachea, larynx, bronchi, bronchioles, alveoli
 - nasal cavity, larynx, trachea, bronchi, bronchioles, alveoli
 - nasal cavity, larynx, trachea, bronchioles, bronchi, alveoli
 - nasal cavity, trachea, larynx, bronchi, bronchioles, alveoli
- Air is warmed and humidified in the nasal passages. This helps to _____.
 - ward off infection
 - decrease sensitivity during breathing
 - prevent damage to the lungs

7. The inspiratory reserve volume measures the _____.
- amount of air remaining in the lung after a maximal exhalation
 - amount of air that the lung holds
 - amount of air that can be further exhaled after a normal breath
 - amount of air that can be further inhaled after a normal breath
8. Of the following, which does not explain why the partial pressure of oxygen is lower in the lung than in the external air?
- Air in the lung is humidified; therefore, water vapor pressure alters the pressure.
 - Carbon dioxide mixes with oxygen.
 - Oxygen is moved into the blood and is headed to the tissues.
 - Lungs exert a pressure on the air to reduce the oxygen pressure.
9. The total lung capacity is calculated using which of the following formulas?
- residual volume + tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume
 - residual volume + expiratory reserve volume + inspiratory reserve volume
 - expiratory reserve volume + tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume
 - residual volume + expiratory reserve volume + tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume
10. How would paralysis of the diaphragm alter inspiration?
- It would prevent contraction of the intercostal muscles.
 - It would prevent inhalation because the intrapleural pressure would not change.
 - It would decrease the intrapleural pressure and allow more air to enter the lungs.
 - It would slow expiration because the lung would not relax.
11. Restrictive airway diseases _____.
- increase the compliance of the lung
 - decrease the compliance of the lung
 - increase the lung volume
 - decrease the work of breathing
12. Alveolar ventilation remains constant when _____.
- the respiratory rate is increased while the volume of air per breath is decreased
 - the respiratory rate and the volume of air per breath are increased
 - the respiratory rate is decreased while increasing the volume per breath
 - both a and c
13. Which of the following will NOT facilitate the transfer of oxygen to tissues?
- decreased body temperature
 - decreased pH of the blood
 - increased carbon dioxide
 - increased exercise
14. The majority of carbon dioxide in the blood is transported by _____.
- binding to hemoglobin
 - dissolution in the blood
 - conversion to bicarbonate
 - binding to plasma proteins
15. The majority of oxygen in the blood is transported by _____.
- dissolution in the blood
 - being carried as bicarbonate ions
 - binding to blood plasma
 - binding to hemoglobin

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

16. Describe the function of these terms and describe where they are located: main bronchus, trachea, alveoli, and acinus.
17. How does the structure of alveoli maximize gas exchange?
18. What does FEV1/FVC measure? What factors may affect FEV1/FVC?
19. What is the reason for having residual volume in the lung?
20. How can a decrease in the percent of oxygen in the air affect the movement of oxygen in the body?
21. If a patient has increased resistance in his or her lungs, how can this be detected by a doctor? What does this mean?
22. How would increased airway resistance affect intrapleural pressure during inhalation?
23. Explain how a puncture to the thoracic cavity (from a knife wound, for instance) could alter the ability to inhale.
24. When someone is standing, gravity stretches the bottom of the lung down toward the floor to a greater extent than the top of the lung. What implication could this have on the flow of air in the lungs? Where does gas exchange occur in the lungs?
25. What would happen if no carbonic anhydrase were present in red blood cells?
26. How does the administration of 100 percent oxygen save a patient from carbon monoxide?

poisoning? Why wouldn't giving carbon dioxide work?

40 | THE CIRCULATORY SYSTEM



Figure 40.1 Just as highway systems transport people and goods through a complex network, the circulatory system transports nutrients, gases, and wastes throughout the animal body. (credit: modification of work by Andrey Belenko)

Chapter Outline

- 40.1: Overview of the Circulatory System**
- 40.2: Components of the Blood**
- 40.3: Mammalian Heart and Blood Vessels**
- 40.4: Blood Flow and Blood Pressure Regulation**

Introduction

Most animals are complex multicellular organisms that require a mechanism for transporting nutrients throughout their bodies and removing waste products. The circulatory system has evolved over time from simple diffusion through cells in the early evolution of animals to a complex network of blood vessels that reach all parts of the human body. This extensive network supplies the cells, tissues, and organs with oxygen and nutrients, and removes carbon dioxide and waste, which are byproducts of respiration.

At the core of the human circulatory system is the heart. The size of a clenched fist, the human heart is protected beneath the rib cage. Made of specialized and unique cardiac muscle, it pumps blood throughout the body and to the heart itself. Heart contractions are driven by intrinsic electrical impulses that the brain and endocrine hormones help to regulate. Understanding the heart's basic anatomy and function is important to understanding the body's circulatory and respiratory systems.

Gas exchange is one essential function of the circulatory system. A circulatory system is not needed in organisms with no specialized respiratory organs because oxygen and carbon dioxide diffuse directly between their body tissues and the external environment. However, in organisms that possess lungs and gills, oxygen must be transported from these specialized respiratory organs to the body tissues via a

circulatory system. Therefore, circulatory systems have had to evolve to accommodate the great diversity of body sizes and body types present among animals.

40.1 | Overview of the Circulatory System

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe an open and closed circulatory system
- Describe interstitial fluid and hemolymph
- Compare and contrast the organization and evolution of the vertebrate circulatory system.

In all animals, except a few simple types, the circulatory system is used to transport nutrients and gases through the body. Simple diffusion allows some water, nutrient, waste, and gas exchange into primitive animals that are only a few cell layers thick; however, bulk flow is the only method by which the entire body of larger more complex organisms is accessed.

Circulatory System Architecture

The circulatory system is effectively a network of cylindrical vessels: the arteries, veins, and capillaries that emanate from a pump, the heart. In all vertebrate organisms, as well as some invertebrates, this is a closed-loop system, in which the blood is not free in a cavity. In a **closed circulatory system**, blood is contained inside blood vessels and circulates **unidirectionally** from the heart around the systemic circulatory route, then returns to the heart again, as illustrated in **Figure 40.2a**. As opposed to a closed system, arthropods—including insects, crustaceans, and most mollusks—have an open circulatory system, as illustrated in **Figure 40.2b**. In an **open circulatory system**, the blood is not enclosed in the blood vessels but is pumped into a cavity called a **hemocoel** and is called **hemolymph** because the blood mixes with the **interstitial fluid**. As the heart beats and the animal moves, the hemolymph circulates around the organs within the body cavity and then reenters the hearts through openings called **ostia**. This movement allows for gas and nutrient exchange. An open circulatory system does not use as much energy as a closed system to operate or to maintain; however, there is a trade-off with the amount of blood that can be moved to metabolically active organs and tissues that require high levels of oxygen. In fact, one reason that insects with wing spans of up to two feet wide (70 cm) are not around today is probably because they were outcompeted by the arrival of birds 150 million years ago. Birds, having a closed circulatory system, are thought to have moved more agilely, allowing them to get food faster and possibly to prey on the insects.

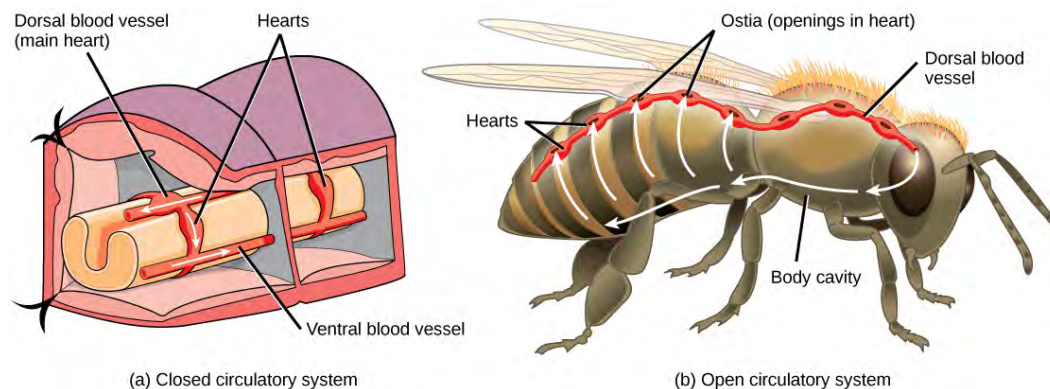


Figure 40.2 In (a) closed circulatory systems, the heart pumps blood through vessels that are separate from the interstitial fluid of the body. Most vertebrates and some invertebrates, like this annelid earthworm, have a closed circulatory system. In (b) open circulatory systems, a fluid called hemolymph is pumped through a blood vessel that empties into the body cavity. Hemolymph returns to the blood vessel through openings called ostia. Arthropods like this bee and most mollusks have open circulatory systems.

Circulatory System Variation in Animals

The circulatory system varies from simple systems in invertebrates to more complex systems in vertebrates. The simplest animals, such as the sponges (Porifera) and rotifers (Rotifera), do not need a

circulatory system because diffusion allows adequate exchange of water, nutrients, and waste, as well as dissolved gases, as shown in **Figure 40.3a**. Organisms that are more complex but still only have two layers of cells in their body plan, such as jellies (Cnidaria) and comb jellies (Ctenophora) also use diffusion through their epidermis and internally through the gastrovascular compartment. Both their internal and external tissues are bathed in an aqueous environment and exchange fluids by diffusion on both sides, as illustrated in **Figure 40.3b**. Exchange of fluids is assisted by the pulsing of the jellyfish body.

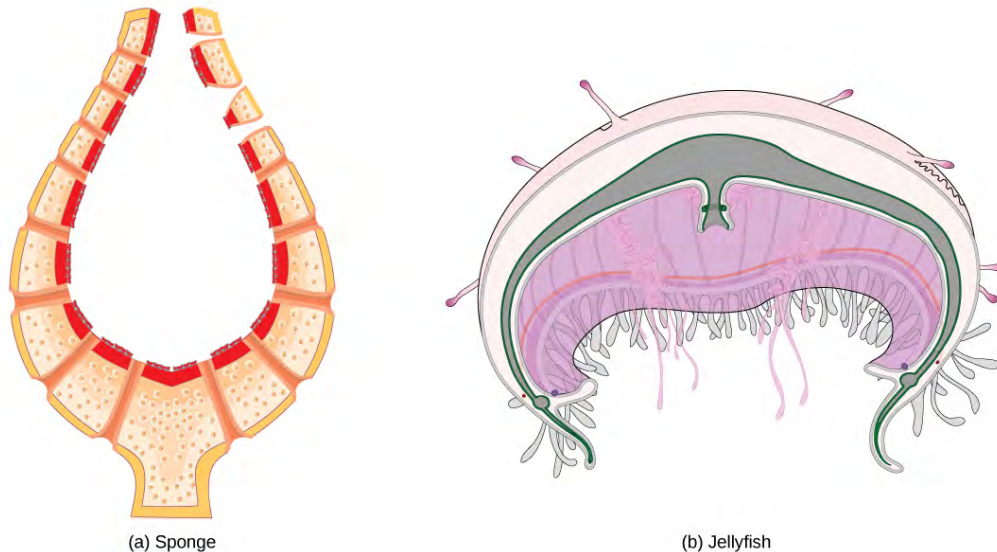


Figure 40.3 Simple animals consisting of a single cell layer such as the (a) sponge or only a few cell layers such as the (b) jellyfish do not have a circulatory system. Instead, gases, nutrients, and wastes are exchanged by diffusion.

For more complex organisms, diffusion is not efficient for cycling gases, nutrients, and waste effectively through the body; therefore, more complex circulatory systems evolved. Most arthropods and many mollusks have open circulatory systems. In an open system, an elongated beating heart pushes the hemolymph through the body and muscle contractions help to move fluids. The larger more complex crustaceans, including lobsters, have developed arterial-like vessels to push blood through their bodies, and the most active mollusks, such as squids, have evolved a closed circulatory system and are able to move rapidly to catch prey. Closed circulatory systems are a characteristic of vertebrates; however, there are significant differences in the structure of the heart and the circulation of blood between the different vertebrate groups due to adaptation during evolution and associated differences in anatomy. **Figure 40.4** illustrates the basic circulatory systems of some vertebrates: fish, amphibians, reptiles, and mammals.

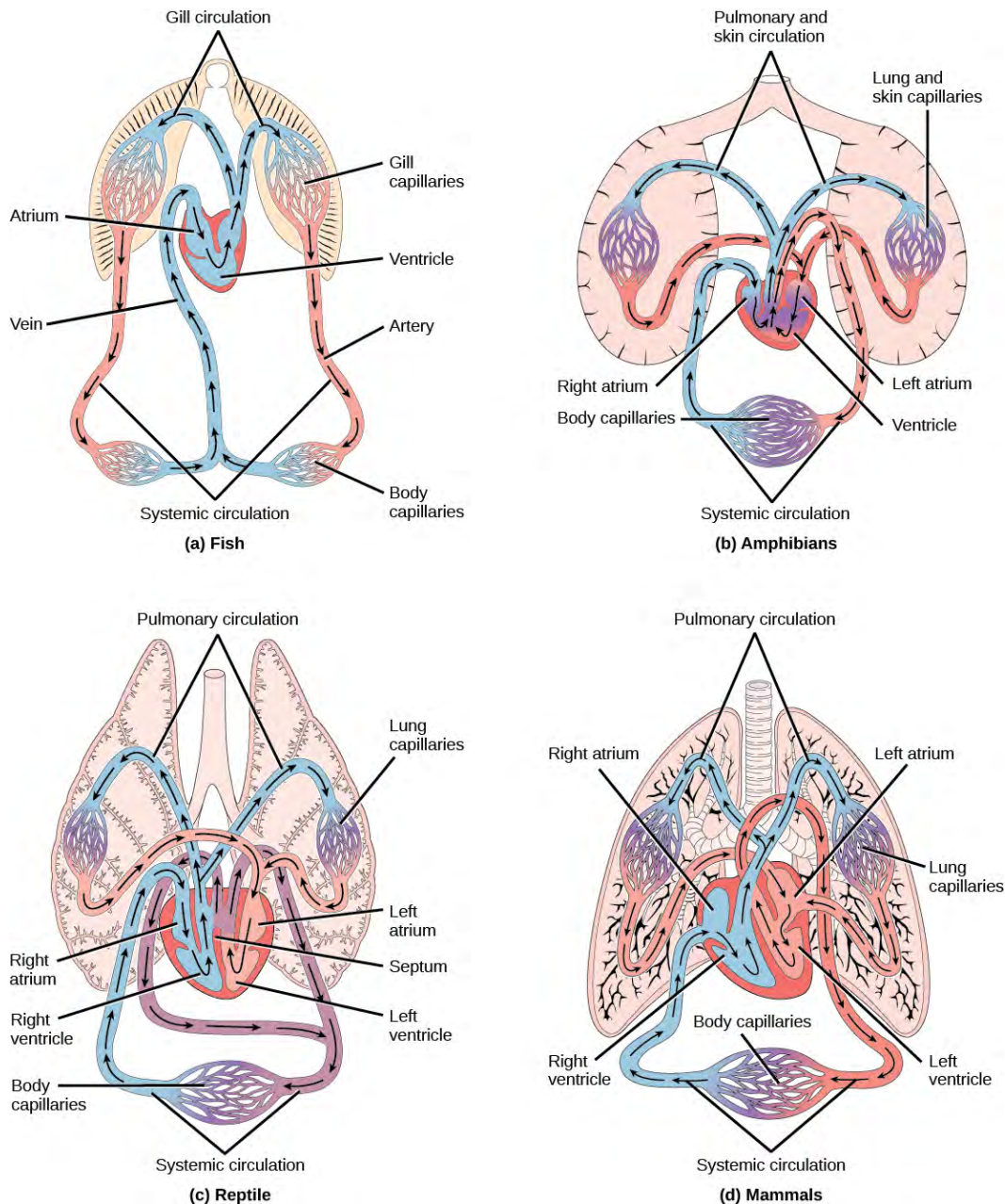


Figure 40.4 (a) Fish have the simplest circulatory systems of the vertebrates: blood flows unidirectionally from the two-chambered heart through the gills and then the rest of the body. (b) Amphibians have two circulatory routes: one for oxygenation of the blood through the lungs and skin, and the other to take oxygen to the rest of the body. The blood is pumped from a three-chambered heart with two atria and a single ventricle. (c) Reptiles also have two circulatory routes; however, blood is only oxygenated through the lungs. The heart is three chambered, but the ventricles are partially separated so some mixing of oxygenated and deoxygenated blood occurs except in crocodilians and birds. (d) Mammals and birds have the most efficient heart with four chambers that completely separate the oxygenated and deoxygenated blood; it pumps only oxygenated blood through the body and deoxygenated blood to the lungs.

As illustrated in **Figure 40.4a** Fish have a single circuit for blood flow and a two-chambered heart that has only a single atrium and a single ventricle. The atrium collects blood that has returned from the body and the ventricle pumps the blood to the gills where gas exchange occurs and the blood is re-oxygenated; this is called **gill circulation**. The blood then continues through the rest of the body before arriving back at the atrium; this is called **systemic circulation**. This unidirectional flow of blood produces a gradient of oxygenated to deoxygenated blood around the fish's systemic circuit. The result is a limit in the amount of oxygen that can reach some of the organs and tissues of the body, reducing the overall metabolic capacity of fish.

In amphibians, reptiles, birds, and mammals, blood flow is directed in two circuits: one through the lungs and back to the heart, which is called **pulmonary circulation**, and the other throughout the rest of the

body and its organs including the brain (systemic circulation). In amphibians, gas exchange also occurs through the skin during pulmonary circulation and is referred to as **pulmocutaneous circulation**.

As shown in **Figure 40.4b**, amphibians have a three-chambered heart that has two atria and one ventricle rather than the two-chambered heart of fish. The two **atria** (superior heart chambers) receive blood from the two different circuits (the lungs and the systems), and then there is some mixing of the blood in the heart's **ventricle** (inferior heart chamber), which reduces the efficiency of oxygenation. The advantage to this arrangement is that high pressure in the vessels pushes blood to the lungs and body. The mixing is mitigated by a ridge within the ventricle that diverts oxygen-rich blood through the systemic circulatory system and deoxygenated blood to the pulmocutaneous circuit. For this reason, amphibians are often described as having **double circulation**.

Most reptiles also have a three-chambered heart similar to the amphibian heart that directs blood to the pulmonary and systemic circuits, as shown in **Figure 40.4c**. The ventricle is divided more effectively by a partial septum, which results in less mixing of oxygenated and deoxygenated blood. Some reptiles (alligators and crocodiles) are the most primitive animals to exhibit a four-chambered heart. Crocodilians have a unique circulatory mechanism where the heart shunts blood from the lungs toward the stomach and other organs during long periods of submergence, for instance, while the animal waits for prey or stays underwater waiting for prey to rot. One adaptation includes two main arteries that leave the same part of the heart: one takes blood to the lungs and the other provides an alternate route to the stomach and other parts of the body. Two other adaptations include a hole in the heart between the two ventricles, called the foramen of Panizza, which allows blood to move from one side of the heart to the other, and specialized connective tissue that slows the blood flow to the lungs. Together these adaptations have made crocodiles and alligators one of the most evolutionarily successful animal groups on earth.

In mammals and birds, the heart is also divided into four chambers: two atria and two ventricles, as illustrated in **Figure 40.4d**. The oxygenated blood is separated from the deoxygenated blood, which improves the efficiency of double circulation and is probably required for the warm-blooded lifestyle of mammals and birds. The four-chambered heart of birds and mammals evolved independently from a three-chambered heart. The independent evolution of the same or a similar biological trait is referred to as convergent evolution.

40.2 | Components of the Blood

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- List the basic components of the blood
- Compare red and white blood cells
- Describe blood plasma and serum

Hemoglobin is responsible for distributing oxygen, and to a lesser extent, carbon dioxide, throughout the circulatory systems of humans, vertebrates, and many invertebrates. The blood is more than the proteins, though. Blood is actually a term used to describe the liquid that moves through the vessels and includes **plasma** (the liquid portion, which contains water, proteins, salts, lipids, and glucose) and the cells (red and white cells) and cell fragments called **platelets**. Blood plasma is actually the dominant component of blood and contains the water, proteins, electrolytes, lipids, and glucose. The cells are responsible for carrying the gases (red cells) and immune the response (white). The platelets are responsible for blood clotting. Interstitial fluid that surrounds cells is separate from the blood, but in hemolymph, they are combined. In humans, cellular components make up approximately 45 percent of the blood and the liquid plasma 55 percent. Blood is 20 percent of a person's extracellular fluid and eight percent of weight.

The Role of Blood in the Body

Blood, like the human blood illustrated in **Figure 40.5** is important for regulation of the body's systems and homeostasis. Blood helps maintain homeostasis by stabilizing pH, temperature, osmotic pressure, and by eliminating excess heat. Blood supports growth by distributing nutrients and hormones, and by removing waste. Blood plays a protective role by transporting clotting factors and platelets to prevent blood loss and transporting the disease-fighting agents or **white blood cells** to sites of infection.

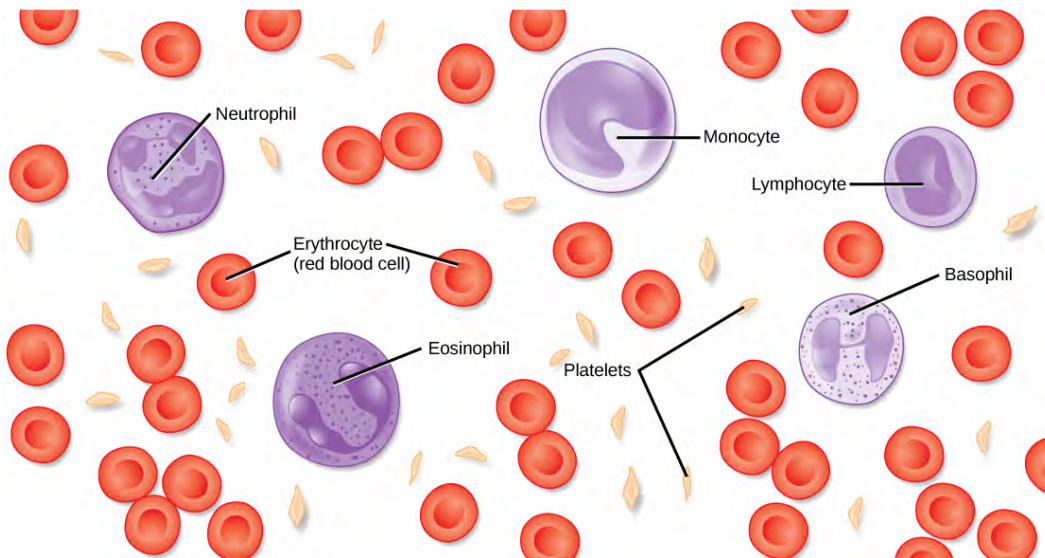


Figure 40.5 The cells and cellular components of human blood are shown. Red blood cells deliver oxygen to the cells and remove carbon dioxide. White blood cells—including neutrophils, monocytes, lymphocytes, eosinophils, and basophils—are involved in the immune response. Platelets form clots that prevent blood loss after injury.

Red Blood Cells

Red blood cells, or erythrocytes (erythro- = “red”; -cyte = “cell”), are specialized cells that circulate through the body delivering oxygen to cells; they are formed from stem cells in the bone marrow. In mammals, red blood cells are small biconcave cells that at maturity do not contain a nucleus or mitochondria and are only 7–8 μm in size. In birds and non-avian reptiles, a nucleus is still maintained in red blood cells.

The red coloring of blood comes from the iron-containing protein hemoglobin, illustrated in **Figure 40.6a**. The principal job of this protein is to carry oxygen, but it also transports carbon dioxide as well. Hemoglobin is packed into red blood cells at a rate of about 250 million molecules of hemoglobin per cell. Each hemoglobin molecule binds four oxygen molecules so that each red blood cell carries one billion molecules of oxygen. There are approximately 25 trillion red blood cells in the five liters of blood in the human body, which could carry up to 25 sextillion (25×10^{21}) molecules of oxygen in the body at any time. In mammals, the lack of organelles in erythrocytes leaves more room for the hemoglobin molecules, and the lack of mitochondria also prevents use of the oxygen for metabolic respiration. Only mammals have anucleated red blood cells, and some mammals (camels, for instance) even have nucleated red blood cells. The advantage of nucleated red blood cells is that these cells can undergo mitosis. Anucleated red blood cells metabolize anaerobically (without oxygen), making use of a primitive metabolic pathway to produce ATP and increase the efficiency of oxygen transport.

Not all organisms use hemoglobin as the method of oxygen transport. Invertebrates that utilize hemolymph rather than blood use different pigments to bind to the oxygen. These pigments use copper or iron to the oxygen. Invertebrates have a variety of other respiratory pigments. Hemocyanin, a blue-green, copper-containing protein, illustrated in **Figure 40.6b** is found in mollusks, crustaceans, and some of the arthropods. Chlorocruorin, a green-colored, iron-containing pigment is found in four families of polychaete tubeworms. Hemerythrin, a red, iron-containing protein is found in some polychaete worms and annelids and is illustrated in **Figure 40.6c**. Despite the name, hemerythrin does not contain a heme group and its oxygen-carrying capacity is poor compared to hemoglobin.

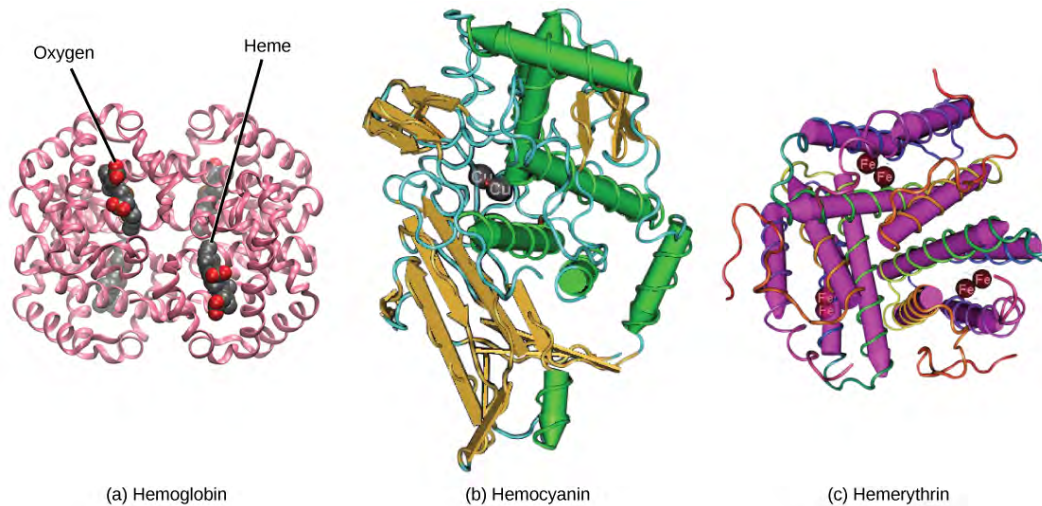


Figure 40.6 In most vertebrates, (a) hemoglobin delivers oxygen to the body and removes some carbon dioxide. Hemoglobin is composed of four protein subunits, two alpha chains and two beta chains, and a heme group that has iron associated with it. The iron reversibly associates with oxygen, and in so doing is oxidized from Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} . In most mollusks and some arthropods, (b) hemocyanin delivers oxygen. Unlike hemoglobin, hemolymph is not carried in blood cells, but floats free in the hemolymph. Copper instead of iron binds the oxygen, giving the hemolymph a blue-green color. In annelids, such as the earthworm, and some other invertebrates, (c) hemerythrin carries oxygen. Like hemoglobin, hemerythrin is carried in blood cells and has iron associated with it, but despite its name, hemerythrin does not contain heme.

The small size and large surface area of red blood cells allows for rapid diffusion of oxygen and carbon dioxide across the plasma membrane. In the lungs, carbon dioxide is released and oxygen is taken in by the blood. In the tissues, oxygen is released from the blood and carbon dioxide is bound for transport back to the lungs. Studies have found that hemoglobin also binds nitrous oxide (NO). NO is a vasodilator that relaxes the blood vessels and capillaries and may help with gas exchange and the passage of red blood cells through narrow vessels. Nitroglycerin, a heart medication for angina and heart attacks, is converted to NO to help relax the blood vessels and increase oxygen flow through the body.

A characteristic of red blood cells is their glycolipid and glycoprotein coating; these are lipids and proteins that have carbohydrate molecules attached. In humans, the surface glycoproteins and glycolipids on red blood cells vary between individuals, producing the different blood types, such as A, B, and O. Red blood cells have an average life span of 120 days, at which time they are broken down and recycled in the liver and spleen by phagocytic macrophages, a type of white blood cell.

White Blood Cells

White blood cells, also called leukocytes (leuko = white), make up approximately one percent by volume of the cells in blood. The role of white blood cells is very different than that of red blood cells: they are primarily involved in the immune response to identify and target pathogens, such as invading bacteria, viruses, and other foreign organisms. White blood cells are formed continually; some only live for hours or days, but some live for years.

The morphology of white blood cells differs significantly from red blood cells. They have nuclei and do not contain hemoglobin. The different types of white blood cells are identified by their microscopic appearance after histologic staining, and each has a different specialized function. The two main groups, both illustrated in **Figure 40.7** are the granulocytes, which include the neutrophils, eosinophils, and basophils, and the agranulocytes, which include the monocytes and lymphocytes.



Figure 40.7 (a) Granulocytes—including neutrophils, eosinophils and basophils—are characterized by a lobed nucleus and granular inclusions in the cytoplasm. Granulocytes are typically first-responders during injury or infection. (b) Agranulocytes include lymphocytes and monocytes. Lymphocytes, including B and T cells, are responsible for adaptive immune response. Monocytes differentiate into macrophages and dendritic cells, which in turn respond to infection or injury.

Granulocytes contain granules in their cytoplasm; the agranulocytes are so named because of the lack of granules in their cytoplasm. Some leukocytes become macrophages that either stay at the same site or move through the blood stream and gather at sites of infection or inflammation where they are attracted by chemical signals from foreign particles and damaged cells. Lymphocytes are the primary cells of the immune system and include B cells, T cells, and natural killer cells. B cells destroy bacteria and inactivate their toxins. They also produce antibodies. T cells attack viruses, fungi, some bacteria, transplanted cells, and cancer cells. T cells attack viruses by releasing toxins that kill the viruses. Natural killer cells attack a variety of infectious microbes and certain tumor cells.

One reason that HIV poses significant management challenges is because the virus directly targets T cells by gaining entry through a receptor. Once inside the cell, HIV then multiplies using the T cell's own genetic machinery. After the HIV virus replicates, it is transmitted directly from the infected T cell to macrophages. The presence of HIV can remain unrecognized for an extensive period of time before full disease symptoms develop.

Platelets and Coagulation Factors

Blood must clot to heal wounds and prevent excess blood loss. Small cell fragments called platelets (thrombocytes) are attracted to the wound site where they adhere by extending many projections and releasing their contents. These contents activate other platelets and also interact with other coagulation factors, which convert fibrinogen, a water-soluble protein present in blood serum into fibrin (a non-water soluble protein), causing the blood to clot. Many of the clotting factors require vitamin K to work, and vitamin K deficiency can lead to problems with blood clotting. Many platelets converge and stick together at the wound site forming a platelet plug (also called a fibrin clot), as illustrated in **Figure 40.8b**. The plug or clot lasts for a number of days and stops the loss of blood. Platelets are formed from the disintegration of larger cells called megakaryocytes, like that shown in **Figure 40.8a**. For each megakaryocyte, 2000–3000 platelets are formed with 150,000 to 400,000 platelets present in each cubic millimeter of blood. Each platelet is disc shaped and 2–4 μm in diameter. They contain many small vesicles but do not contain a nucleus.

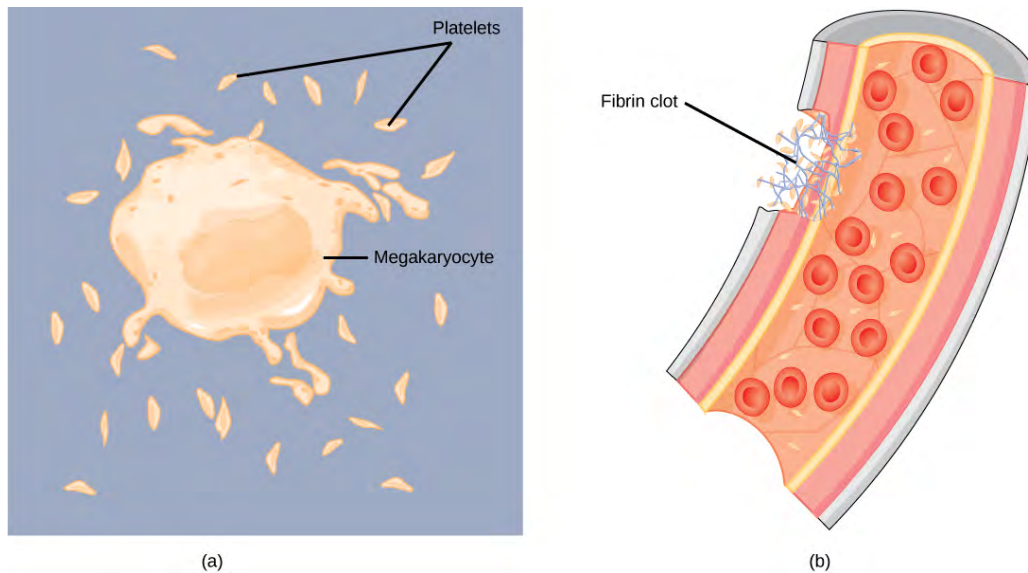


Figure 40.8 (a) Platelets are formed from large cells called megakaryocytes. The megakaryocyte breaks up into thousands of fragments that become platelets. (b) Platelets are required for clotting of the blood. The platelets collect at a wound site in conjunction with other clotting factors, such as fibrinogen, to form a fibrin clot that prevents blood loss and allows the wound to heal.

Plasma and Serum

The liquid component of blood is called plasma, and it is separated by spinning or centrifuging the blood at high rotations (3000 rpm or higher). The blood cells and platelets are separated by centrifugal forces to the bottom of a specimen tube. The upper liquid layer, the plasma, consists of 90 percent water along with various substances required for maintaining the body's pH, osmotic load, and for protecting the body. The plasma also contains the coagulation factors and antibodies.

The plasma component of blood without the coagulation factors is called the **serum**. Serum is similar to interstitial fluid in which the correct composition of key ions acting as electrolytes is essential for normal functioning of muscles and nerves. Other components in the serum include proteins that assist with maintaining pH and osmotic balance while giving viscosity to the blood. The serum also contains antibodies, specialized proteins that are important for defense against viruses and bacteria. Lipids, including cholesterol, are also transported in the serum, along with various other substances including nutrients, hormones, metabolic waste, plus external substances, such as, drugs, viruses, and bacteria.

Human serum albumin is the most abundant protein in human blood plasma and is synthesized in the liver. Albumin, which constitutes about half of the blood serum protein, transports hormones and fatty acids, buffers pH, and maintains osmotic pressures. Immunoglobulin is a protein antibody produced in the mucosal lining and plays an important role in antibody mediated immunity.

evolution CONNECTION

Blood Types Related to Proteins on the Surface of the Red Blood Cells

Red blood cells are coated in antigens made of glycolipids and glycoproteins. The composition of these molecules is determined by genetics, which have evolved over time. In humans, the different surface antigens are grouped into 24 different blood groups with more than 100 different antigens on each red blood cell. The two most well known blood groups are the ABO, shown in **Figure 40.9**, and Rh systems. The surface antigens in the ABO blood group are glycolipids, called antigen A and antigen B. People with blood type A have antigen A, those with blood type B have antigen B, those with blood type AB have both antigens, and people with blood type O have neither antigen. Antibodies called agglutinogens are found in the blood plasma and react with the A or B antigens, if the two are mixed. When type A and type B blood are combined, agglutination (clumping) of the blood occurs because of antibodies in the plasma that bind with the opposing antigen; this causes clots that coagulate in the kidney causing kidney failure. Type O blood has neither A or B antigens, and therefore, type O blood can be given to all blood types. Type O negative blood is the universal donor. Type AB positive blood is the universal acceptor because it has both A and B antigen. The ABO blood groups were discovered in 1900 and 1901 by Karl Landsteiner at the University of Vienna.

The Rh blood group was first discovered in Rhesus monkeys. Most people have the Rh antigen (Rh+) and do not have anti-Rh antibodies in their blood. The few people who do not have the Rh antigen and are Rh– can develop anti-Rh antibodies if exposed to Rh+ blood. This can happen after a blood transfusion or after an Rh– woman has an Rh+ baby. The first exposure does not usually cause a reaction; however, at the second exposure, enough antibodies have built up in the blood to produce a reaction that causes agglutination and breakdown of red blood cells. An injection can prevent this reaction.

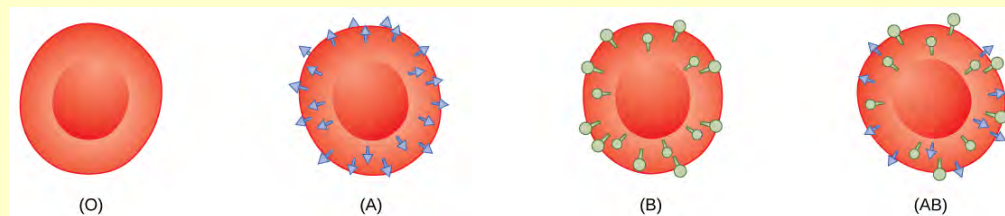


Figure 40.9 Human red blood cells may have either type A or B glycoproteins on their surface, both glycoproteins combined (AB), or neither (O). The glycoproteins serve as antigens and can elicit an immune response in a person who receives a transfusion containing unfamiliar antigens. Type O blood, which has no A or B antigens, does not elicit an immune response when injected into a person of any blood type. Thus, O is considered the universal donor. Persons with type AB blood can accept blood from any blood type, and type AB is considered the universal acceptor.

LINK TO LEARNING



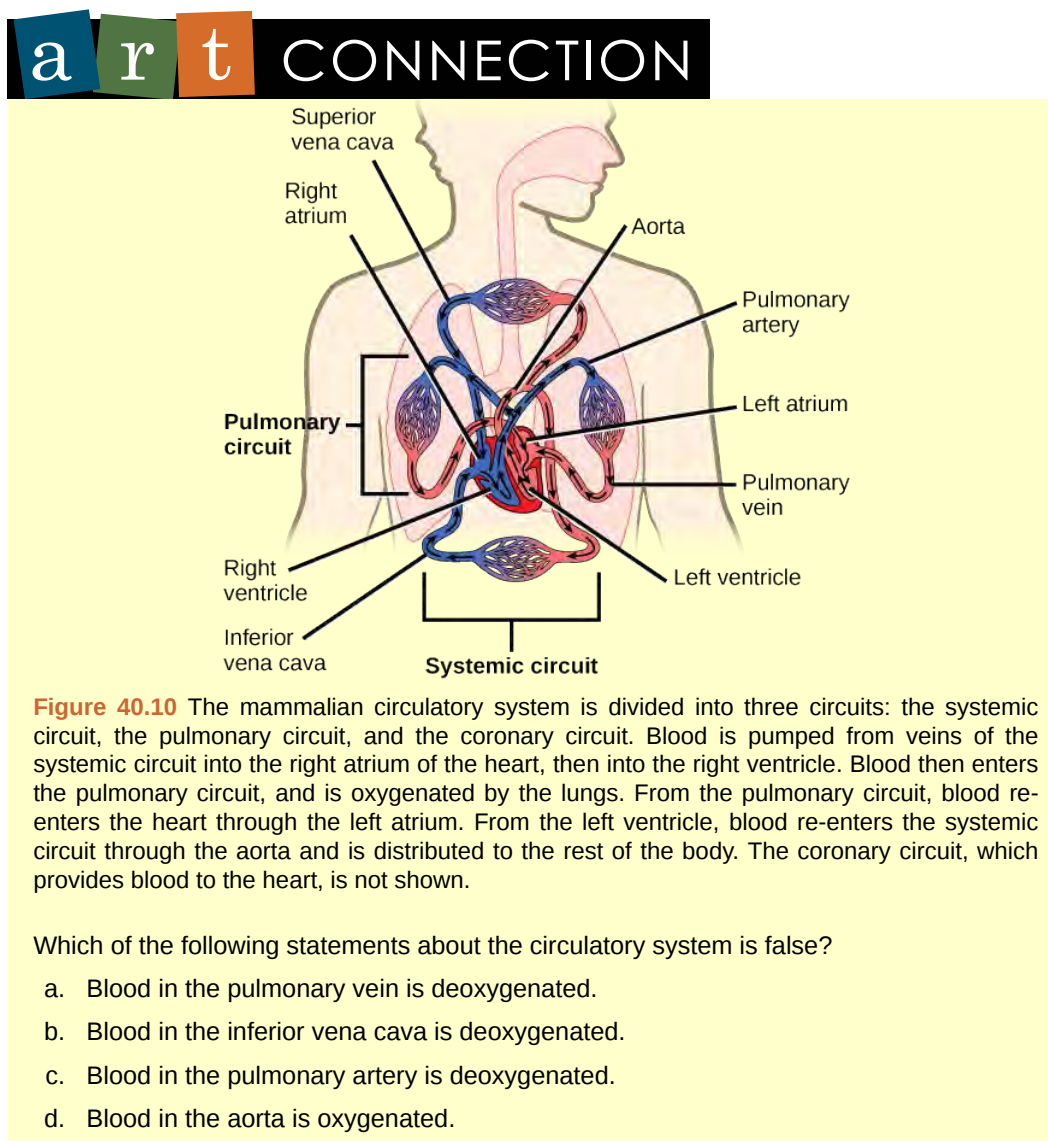
Play a blood typing game on the **Nobel Prize website** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/blood_typing) to solidify your understanding of blood types.

40.3 | Mammalian Heart and Blood Vessels

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the structure of the heart and explain how cardiac muscle is different from other muscles
- Describe the cardiac cycle
- Explain the structure of arteries, veins, and capillaries, and how blood flows through the body

The heart is a complex muscle that pumps blood through the three divisions of the circulatory system: the coronary (vessels that serve the heart), pulmonary (heart and lungs), and systemic (systems of the body), as shown in **Figure 40.10**. Coronary circulation intrinsic to the heart takes blood directly from the main artery (aorta) coming from the heart. For pulmonary and systemic circulation, the heart has to pump blood to the lungs or the rest of the body, respectively. In vertebrates, the lungs are relatively close to the heart in the thoracic cavity. The shorter distance to pump means that the muscle wall on the right side of the heart is not as thick as the left side which must have enough pressure to pump blood all the way to your big toe.



Structure of the Heart

The heart muscle is asymmetrical as a result of the distance blood must travel in the pulmonary and systemic circuits. Since the right side of the heart sends blood to the pulmonary circuit it is smaller than the left side which must send blood out to the whole body in the systemic circuit, as shown in **Figure 40.11**. In humans, the heart is about the size of a clenched fist; it is divided into four chambers: two atria and two ventricles. There is one atrium and one ventricle on the right side and one atrium and one ventricle on the left side. The atria are the chambers that receive blood, and the ventricles are the chambers that pump blood. The right atrium receives deoxygenated blood from the **superior vena cava**, which drains blood from the jugular vein that comes from the brain and from the veins that come from the arms, as well as from the **inferior vena cava** which drains blood from the veins that come from the lower organs and the legs. In addition, the right atrium receives blood from the coronary sinus which drains deoxygenated blood from the heart itself. This deoxygenated blood then passes to the right ventricle through the **atrioventricular valve** or the **tricuspid valve**, a flap of connective tissue that opens in only one direction to prevent the backflow of blood. The valve separating the chambers on the left side of the heart valve is called the bicuspid or mitral valve. After it is filled, the right ventricle pumps the blood through the pulmonary arteries, by-passing the **semilunar valve** (or pulmonic valve) to the lungs for re-oxygenation. After blood passes through the pulmonary arteries, the right semilunar valves close preventing the blood from flowing backwards into the right ventricle. The left atrium then receives the oxygen-rich blood from the lungs via the pulmonary veins. This blood passes through the **bicuspid valve** or mitral valve (the atrioventricular valve on the left side of the heart) to the left ventricle where the blood is pumped out through **aorta**, the major artery of the body, taking oxygenated blood to the organs and muscles of the body. Once blood is pumped out of the left ventricle and into the aorta, the aortic semilunar valve (or aortic valve) closes preventing blood from flowing backward into the left ventricle. This pattern of pumping is referred to as double circulation and is found in all mammals.

art CONNECTION

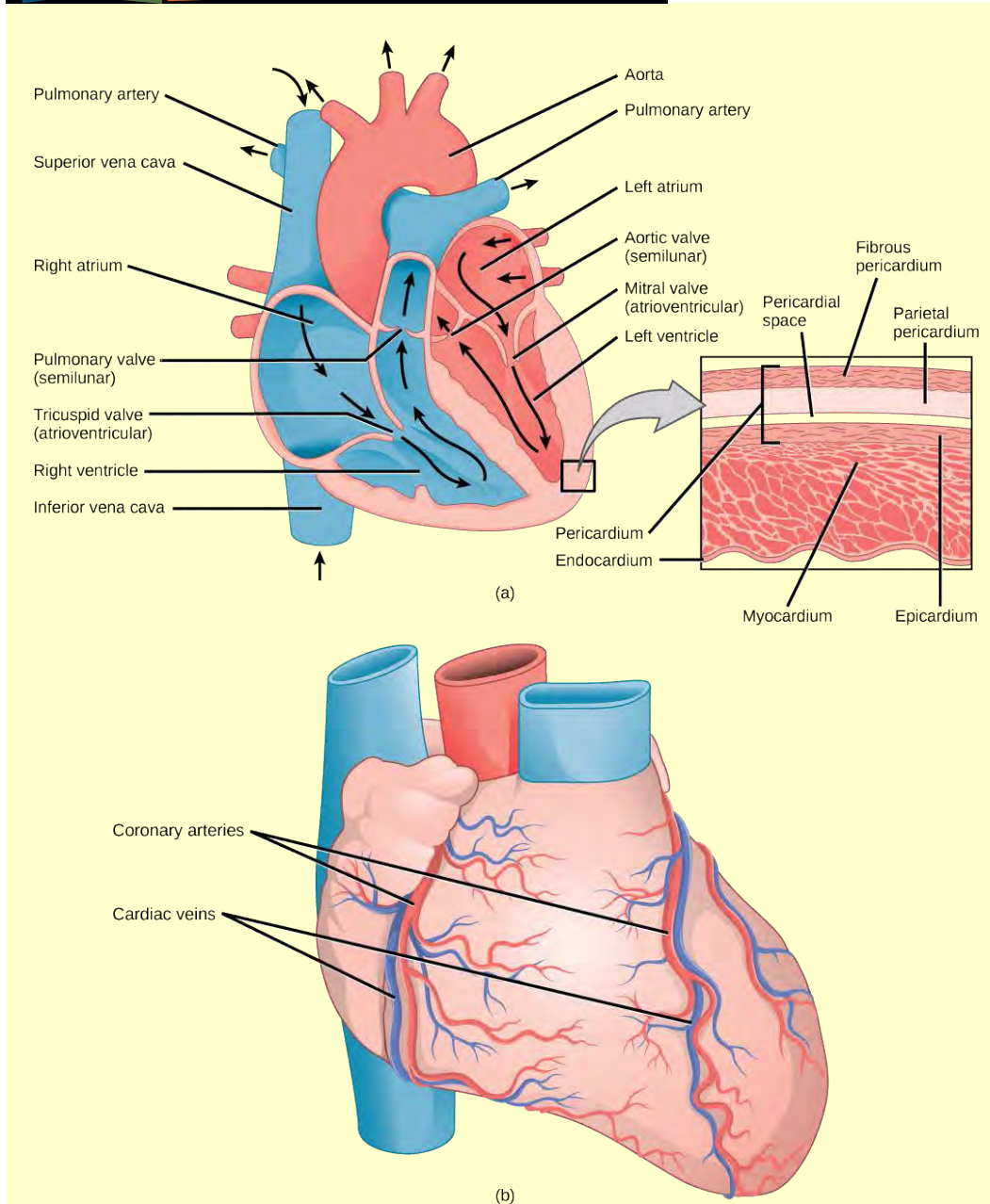


Figure 40.11 (a) The heart is primarily made of a thick muscle layer, called the myocardium, surrounded by membranes. One-way valves separate the four chambers. (b) Blood vessels of the coronary system, including the coronary arteries and veins, keep the heart musculature oxygenated.

Which of the following statements about the heart is false?

- The mitral valve separates the left ventricle from the left atrium.
- Blood travels through the bicuspid valve to the left atrium.
- Both the aortic and the pulmonary valves are semilunar valves.
- The mitral valve is an atrioventricular valve.

The heart is composed of three layers; the epicardium, the myocardium, and the endocardium, illustrated in **Figure 40.11**. The inner wall of the heart has a lining called the **endocardium**. The **myocardium** consists of the heart muscle cells that make up the middle layer and the bulk of the heart wall. The outer

layer of cells is called the **epicardium**, of which the second layer is a membranous layered structure called the **pericardium** that surrounds and protects the heart; it allows enough room for vigorous pumping but also keeps the heart in place to reduce friction between the heart and other structures.

The heart has its own blood vessels that supply the heart muscle with blood. The **coronary arteries** branch from the aorta and surround the outer surface of the heart like a crown. They diverge into capillaries where the heart muscle is supplied with oxygen before converging again into the **coronary veins** to take the deoxygenated blood back to the right atrium where the blood will be re-oxygenated through the pulmonary circuit. The heart muscle will die without a steady supply of blood. **Atherosclerosis** is the blockage of an artery by the buildup of fatty plaques. Because of the size (narrow) of the coronary arteries and their function in serving the heart itself, atherosclerosis can be deadly in these arteries. The slowdown of blood flow and subsequent oxygen deprivation that results from atherosclerosis causes severe pain, known as **angina**, and complete blockage of the arteries will cause **myocardial infarction**: the death of cardiac muscle tissue, commonly known as a heart attack.

The Cardiac Cycle

The main purpose of the heart is to pump blood through the body; it does so in a repeating sequence called the cardiac cycle. The **cardiac cycle** is the coordination of the filling and emptying of the heart of blood by electrical signals that cause the heart muscles to contract and relax. The human heart beats over 100,000 times per day. In each cardiac cycle, the heart contracts (**systole**), pushing out the blood and pumping it through the body; this is followed by a relaxation phase (**diastole**), where the heart fills with blood, as illustrated in **Figure 40.12**. The atria contract at the same time, forcing blood through the atrioventricular valves into the ventricles. Closing of the atrioventricular valves produces a monosyllabic “lup” sound. Following a brief delay, the ventricles contract at the same time forcing blood through the semilunar valves into the aorta and the artery transporting blood to the lungs (via the pulmonary artery). Closing of the semilunar valves produces a monosyllabic “dup” sound.

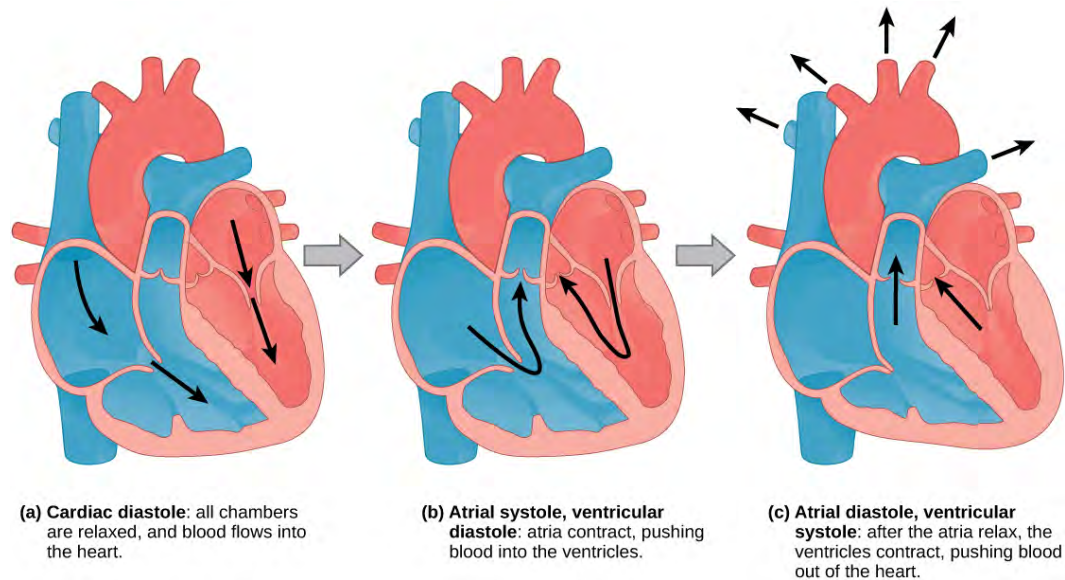


Figure 40.12 During (a) cardiac diastole, the heart muscle is relaxed and blood flows into the heart. During (b) atrial systole, the atria contract, pushing blood into the ventricles. During (c) atrial diastole, the ventricles contract, forcing blood out of the heart.

The pumping of the heart is a function of the cardiac muscle cells, or cardiomyocytes, that make up the heart muscle. **Cardiomyocytes**, shown in **Figure 40.13**, are distinctive muscle cells that are striated like skeletal muscle but pump rhythmically and involuntarily like smooth muscle; they are connected by intercalated disks exclusive to cardiac muscle. They are self-stimulated for a period of time and isolated cardiomyocytes will beat if given the correct balance of nutrients and electrolytes.

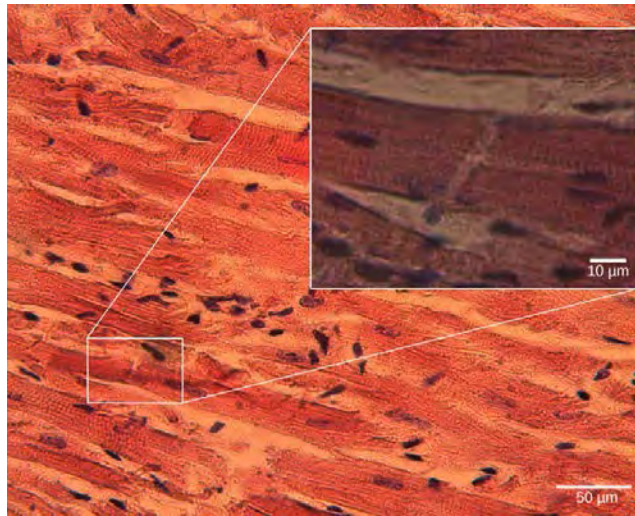


Figure 40.13 Cardiomyocytes are striated muscle cells found in cardiac tissue. (credit: modification of work by Dr. S. Girod, Anton Becker; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

The autonomous beating of cardiac muscle cells is regulated by the heart's internal pacemaker that uses electrical signals to time the beating of the heart. The electrical signals and mechanical actions, illustrated in **Figure 40.14**, are intimately intertwined. The internal pacemaker starts at the **sinoatrial (SA) node**, which is located near the wall of the right atrium. Electrical charges spontaneously pulse from the SA node causing the two atria to contract in unison. The pulse reaches a second node, called the atrioventricular (AV) node, between the right atrium and right ventricle where it pauses for approximately 0.1 second before spreading to the walls of the ventricles. From the AV node, the electrical impulse enters the bundle of His, then to the left and right bundle branches extending through the interventricular septum. Finally, the Purkinje fibers conduct the impulse from the apex of the heart up the ventricular myocardium, and then the ventricles contract. This pause allows the atria to empty completely into the ventricles before the ventricles pump out the blood. The electrical impulses in the heart produce electrical currents that flow through the body and can be measured on the skin using electrodes. This information can be observed as an **electrocardiogram (ECG)**—a recording of the electrical impulses of the cardiac muscle.

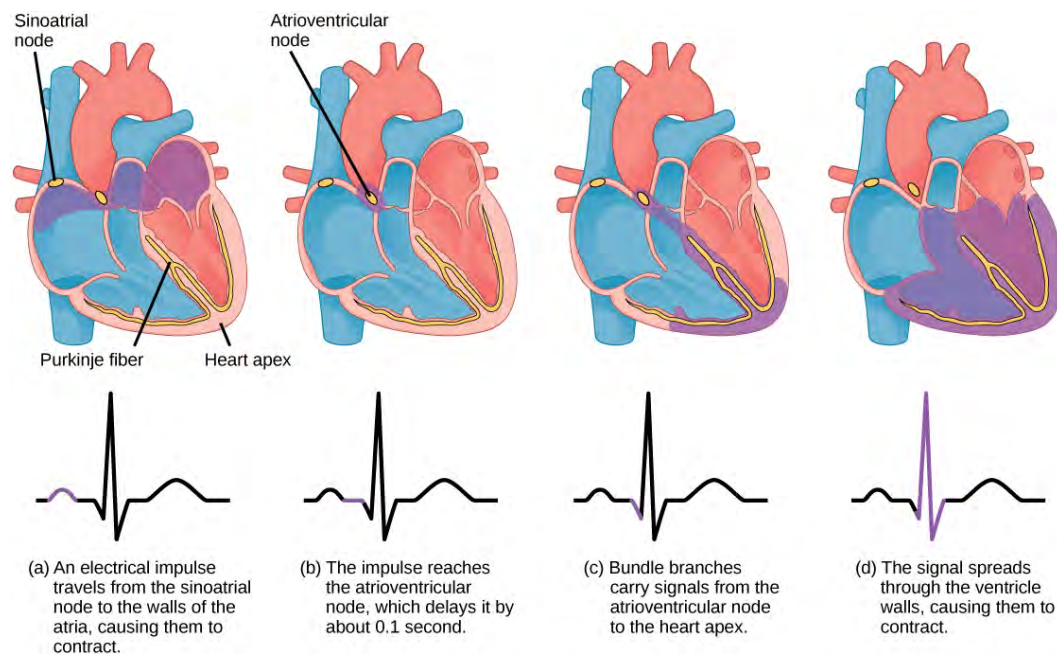


Figure 40.14 The beating of the heart is regulated by an electrical impulse that causes the characteristic reading of an ECG. The signal is initiated at the sinoatrial valve. The signal then (a) spreads to the atria, causing them to contract. The signal is (b) delayed at the atrioventricular node before it is passed on to the (c) heart apex. The delay allows the atria to relax before the (d) ventricles contract. The final part of the ECG cycle prepares the heart for the next beat.



Visit [this site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/electric_heart\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/electric_heart) to see the heart's “pacemaker” in action.

Arteries, Veins, and Capillaries

The blood from the heart is carried through the body by a complex network of blood vessels (**Figure 40.15**). **Arteries** take blood away from the heart. The main artery is the aorta that branches into major arteries that take blood to different limbs and organs. These major arteries include the carotid artery that takes blood to the brain, the brachial arteries that take blood to the arms, and the thoracic artery that takes blood to the thorax and then into the hepatic, renal, and gastric arteries for the liver, kidney, and stomach, respectively. The iliac artery takes blood to the lower limbs. The major arteries diverge into minor arteries, and then smaller vessels called **arterioles**, to reach more deeply into the muscles and organs of the body.

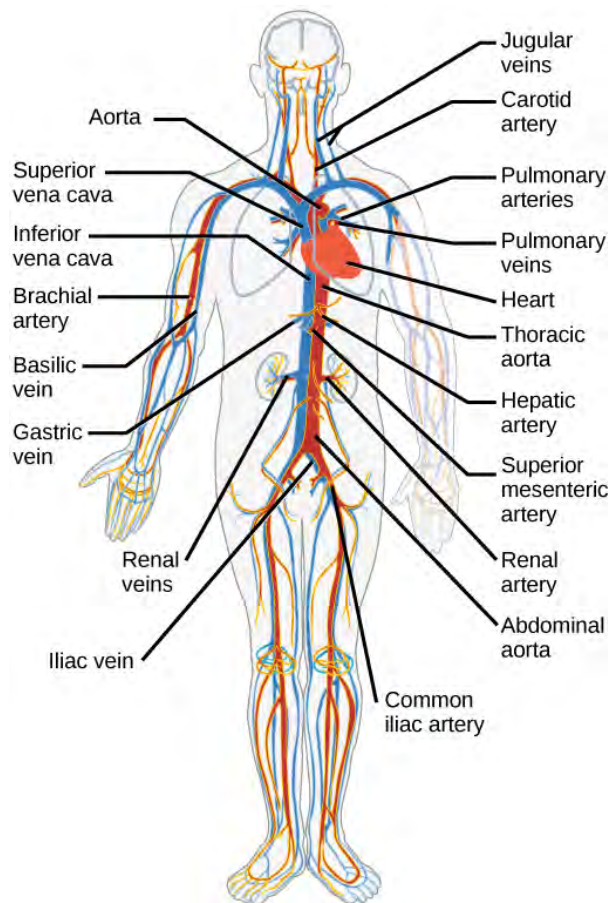


Figure 40.15 The major human arteries and veins are shown. (credit: modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal)

Arterioles diverge into capillary beds. **Capillary beds** contain a large number (10 to 100) of **capillaries** that branch among the cells and tissues of the body. Capillaries are narrow-diameter tubes that can fit red blood cells through in single file and are the sites for the exchange of nutrients, waste, and oxygen with tissues at the cellular level. Fluid also crosses into the interstitial space from the capillaries. The capillaries converge again into **venules** that connect to minor veins that finally connect to major veins that take blood high in carbon dioxide back to the heart. **Veins** are blood vessels that bring blood back

to the heart. The major veins drain blood from the same organs and limbs that the major arteries supply. Fluid is also brought back to the heart via the lymphatic system.

The structure of the different types of blood vessels reflects their function or layers. There are three distinct layers, or tunics, that form the walls of blood vessels (**Figure 40.16**). The first tunic is a smooth, inner lining of endothelial cells that are in contact with the red blood cells. The endothelial tunic is continuous with the endocardium of the heart. In capillaries, this single layer of cells is the location of diffusion of oxygen and carbon dioxide between the endothelial cells and red blood cells, as well as the exchange site via endocytosis and exocytosis. The movement of materials at the site of capillaries is regulated by **vasoconstriction**, narrowing of the blood vessels, and **vasodilation**, widening of the blood vessels; this is important in the overall regulation of blood pressure.

Veins and arteries both have two further tunics that surround the endothelium: the middle tunic is composed of smooth muscle and the outermost layer is connective tissue (collagen and elastic fibers). The elastic connective tissue stretches and supports the blood vessels, and the smooth muscle layer helps regulate blood flow by altering vascular resistance through vasoconstriction and vasodilation. The arteries have thicker smooth muscle and connective tissue than the veins to accommodate the higher pressure and speed of freshly pumped blood. The veins are thinner walled as the pressure and rate of flow are much lower. In addition, veins are structurally different than arteries in that veins have valves to prevent the backflow of blood. Because veins have to work against gravity to get blood back to the heart, contraction of skeletal muscle assists with the flow of blood back to the heart.

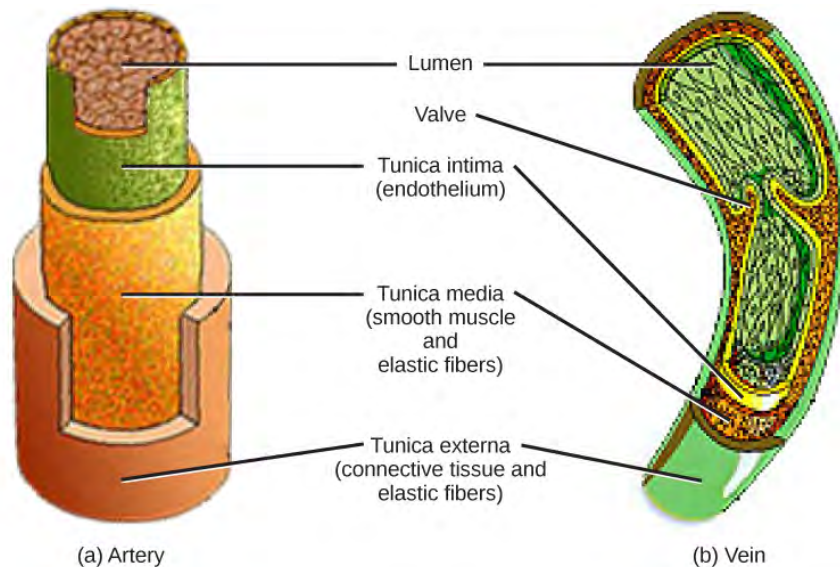


Figure 40.16 Arteries and veins consist of three layers: an outer tunica externa, a middle tunica media, and an inner tunica intima. Capillaries consist of a single layer of epithelial cells, the tunica intima. (credit: modification of work by NCI, NIH)

40.4 | Blood Flow and Blood Pressure Regulation

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the system of blood flow through the body
- Describe how blood pressure is regulated

Blood pressure (BP) is the pressure exerted by blood on the walls of a blood vessel that helps to push blood through the body. Systolic blood pressure measures the amount of pressure that blood exerts on vessels while the heart is beating. The optimal systolic blood pressure is 120 mmHg. Diastolic blood pressure measures the pressure in the vessels between heartbeats. The optimal diastolic blood pressure is 80 mmHg. Many factors can affect blood pressure, such as hormones, stress, exercise, eating, sitting, and standing. Blood flow through the body is regulated by the size of blood vessels, by the action of smooth muscle, by one-way valves, and by the fluid pressure of the blood itself.

How Blood Flows Through the Body

Blood is pushed through the body by the action of the pumping heart. With each rhythmic pump, blood is pushed under high pressure and velocity away from the heart, initially along the main artery, the aorta. In the aorta, the blood travels at 30 cm/sec. As blood moves into the arteries, arterioles, and ultimately to the capillary beds, the rate of movement slows dramatically to about 0.026 cm/sec, one-thousand times slower than the rate of movement in the aorta. While the diameter of each individual arteriole and capillary is far narrower than the diameter of the aorta, and according to the law of continuity, fluid should travel faster through a narrower diameter tube, the rate is actually slower due to the overall diameter of all the combined capillaries being far greater than the diameter of the individual aorta.

The slow rate of travel through the capillary beds, which reach almost every cell in the body, assists with gas and nutrient exchange and also promotes the diffusion of fluid into the interstitial space. After the blood has passed through the capillary beds to the venules, veins, and finally to the main venae cavae, the rate of flow increases again but is still much slower than the initial rate in the aorta. Blood primarily moves in the veins by the rhythmic movement of smooth muscle in the vessel wall and by the action of the skeletal muscle as the body moves. Because most veins must move blood against the pull of gravity, blood is prevented from flowing backward in the veins by one-way valves. Because skeletal muscle contraction aids in venous blood flow, it is important to get up and move frequently after long periods of sitting so that blood will not pool in the extremities.

Blood flow through the capillary beds is regulated depending on the body's needs and is directed by nerve and hormone signals. For example, after a large meal, most of the blood is diverted to the stomach by vasodilation of vessels of the digestive system and vasoconstriction of other vessels. During exercise, blood is diverted to the skeletal muscles through vasodilation while blood to the digestive system would be lessened through vasoconstriction. The blood entering some capillary beds is controlled by small muscles, called precapillary sphincters, illustrated in [Figure 40.17](#). If the sphincters are open, the blood will flow into the associated branches of the capillary blood. If all of the sphincters are closed, then the blood will flow directly from the arteriole to the venule through the thoroughfare channel (see [Figure 40.17](#)). These muscles allow the body to precisely control when capillary beds receive blood flow. At any given moment only about 5-10% of our capillary beds actually have blood flowing through them.

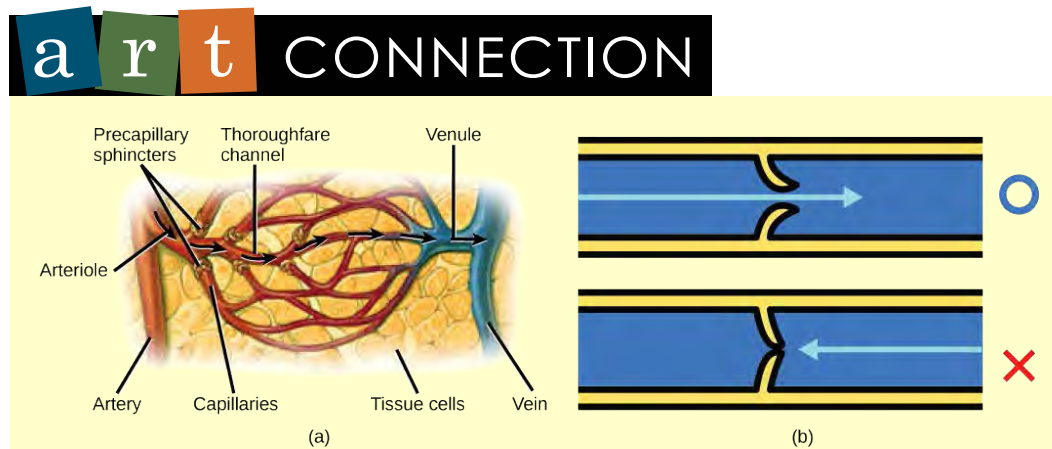


Figure 40.17 (a) Precapillary sphincters are rings of smooth muscle that regulate the flow of blood through capillaries; they help control the location of blood flow to where it is needed. (b) Valves in the veins prevent blood from moving backward. (credit a: modification of work by NCI)

Varicose veins are veins that become enlarged because the valves no longer close properly, allowing blood to flow backward. Varicose veins are often most prominent on the legs. Why do you think this is the case?



Visit [this site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/circulation\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/circulation) to see the circulatory system's blood flow.

Proteins and other large solutes cannot leave the capillaries. The loss of the watery plasma creates a hyperosmotic solution within the capillaries, especially near the venules. This causes about 85% of the plasma that leaves the capillaries to eventually diffuse back into the capillaries near the venules. The remaining 15% of blood plasma drains out from the interstitial fluid into nearby lymphatic vessels (**Figure 40.18**). The fluid in the lymph is similar in composition to the interstitial fluid. The lymph fluid passes through lymph nodes before it returns to the heart via the vena cava. **Lymph nodes** are specialized organs that filter the lymph by percolation through a maze of connective tissue filled with white blood cells. The white blood cells remove infectious agents, such as bacteria and viruses, to clean the lymph before it returns to the bloodstream. After it is cleaned, the lymph returns to the heart by the action of smooth muscle pumping, skeletal muscle action, and one-way valves joining the returning blood near the junction of the venae cavae entering the right atrium of the heart.

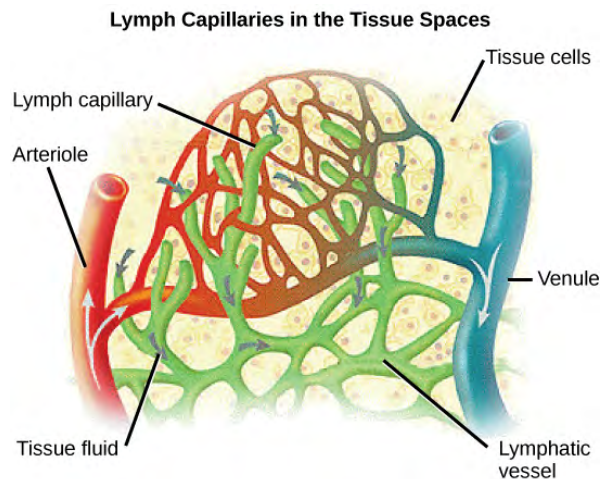


Figure 40.18 Fluid from the capillaries moves into the interstitial space and lymph capillaries by diffusion down a pressure gradient and also by osmosis. Out of 7,200 liters of fluid pumped by the average heart in a day, over 1,500 liters is filtered. (credit: modification of work by NCI, NIH)

evolution CONNECTION

Vertebrate Diversity in Blood Circulation

Blood circulation has evolved differently in vertebrates and may show variation in different animals for the required amount of pressure, organ and vessel location, and organ size. Animals with long necks and those that live in cold environments have distinct blood pressure adaptations.

Long-necked animals, such as giraffes, need to pump blood upward from the heart against gravity. The blood pressure required from the pumping of the left ventricle would be equivalent to 250 mm Hg (mm Hg = millimeters of mercury, a unit of pressure) to reach the height of a giraffe's head, which is 2.5 meters higher than the heart. However, if checks and balances were not in place, this blood pressure would damage the giraffe's brain, particularly if it was bending down to drink. These checks and balances include valves and feedback mechanisms that reduce the rate of cardiac output. Long-necked dinosaurs such as the sauropods had to pump blood even higher, up to ten meters above the heart. This would have required a blood pressure of more than 600 mm Hg, which could only have been achieved by an enormous heart. Evidence for such an enormous heart does not exist and mechanisms to reduce the blood pressure required include the slowing of metabolism as these animals grew larger. It is likely that they did not routinely feed on tree tops but grazed on the ground.

Living in cold water, whales need to maintain the temperature in their blood. This is achieved by the veins and arteries being close together so that heat exchange can occur. This mechanism is called a countercurrent heat exchanger. The blood vessels and the whole body are also protected by thick layers of blubber to prevent heat loss. In land animals that live in cold environments, thick fur and hibernation are used to retain heat and slow metabolism.

Blood Pressure

The pressure of the blood flow in the body is produced by the hydrostatic pressure of the fluid (blood) against the walls of the blood vessels. Fluid will move from areas of high to low hydrostatic pressures. In the arteries, the hydrostatic pressure near the heart is very high and blood flows to the arterioles where the rate of flow is slowed by the narrow openings of the arterioles. During systole, when new blood is entering the arteries, the artery walls stretch to accommodate the increase of pressure of the extra blood; during diastole, the walls return to normal because of their elastic properties. The blood pressure of the systole phase and the diastole phase, graphed in **Figure 40.19**, gives the two pressure readings for blood pressure. For example, 120/80 indicates a reading of 120 mm Hg during the systole and 80 mm Hg during diastole. Throughout the cardiac cycle, the blood continues to empty into the arterioles at a relatively even rate. This resistance to blood flow is called **peripheral resistance**.

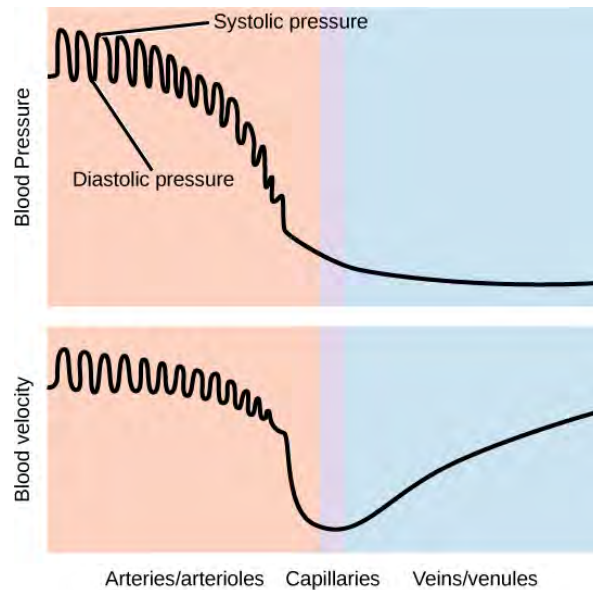


Figure 40.19 Blood pressure is related to the blood velocity in the arteries and arterioles. In the capillaries and veins, the blood pressure continues to decrease but velocity increases.

Blood Pressure Regulation

Cardiac output is the volume of blood pumped by the heart in one minute. It is calculated by multiplying the number of heart contractions that occur per minute (heart rate) times the **stroke volume** (the volume of blood pumped into the aorta per contraction of the left ventricle). Therefore, cardiac output can be increased by increasing heart rate, as when exercising. However, cardiac output can also be increased by increasing stroke volume, such as if the heart contracts with greater strength. Stroke volume can also be increased by speeding blood circulation through the body so that more blood enters the heart between contractions. During heavy exertion, the blood vessels relax and increase in diameter, offsetting the increased heart rate and ensuring adequate oxygenated blood gets to the muscles. Stress triggers a decrease in the diameter of the blood vessels, consequently increasing blood pressure. These changes can also be caused by nerve signals or hormones, and even standing up or lying down can have a great effect on blood pressure.

KEY TERMS

angina pain caused by partial blockage of the coronary arteries by the buildup of plaque and lack of oxygen to the heart muscle

aorta major artery of the body that takes blood away from the heart

arteriole small vessel that connects an artery to a capillary bed

artery blood vessel that takes blood away from the heart

atherosclerosis buildup of fatty plaques in the coronary arteries in the heart

atrioventricular valve one-way membranous flap of connective tissue between the atrium and the ventricle in the right side of the heart; also known as tricuspid valve

atrium (plural: atria) chamber of the heart that receives blood from the veins and sends blood to the ventricles

bicuspid valve (also, mitral valve; left atrioventricular valve) one-way membranous flap between the atrium and the ventricle in the left side of the heart

blood pressure (BP) pressure of blood in the arteries that helps to push blood through the body

capillary smallest blood vessel that allows the passage of individual blood cells and the site of diffusion of oxygen and nutrient exchange

capillary bed large number of capillaries that converge to take blood to a particular organ or tissue

cardiac cycle filling and emptying the heart of blood by electrical signals that cause the heart muscles to contract and relax

cardiac output the volume of blood pumped by the heart in one minute as a product of heart rate multiplied by stroke volume

cardiomyocyte specialized heart muscle cell that is striated but contracts involuntarily like smooth muscle

closed circulatory system system in which the blood is separated from the bodily interstitial fluid and contained in blood vessels

coronary artery vessel that supplies the heart tissue with blood

coronary vein vessel that takes blood away from the heart tissue back to the chambers in the heart

diastole relaxation phase of the cardiac cycle when the heart is relaxed and the ventricles are filling with blood

double circulation flow of blood in two circuits: the pulmonary circuit through the lungs and the systemic circuit through the organs and body

electrocardiogram (ECG) recording of the electrical impulses of the cardiac muscle

endocardium innermost layer of tissue in the heart

epicardium outermost tissue layer of the heart

gill circulation circulatory system that is specific to animals with gills for gas exchange; the blood flows through the gills for oxygenation

hemocoel cavity into which blood is pumped in an open circulatory system

hemolymph mixture of blood and interstitial fluid that is found in insects and other arthropods as well as most mollusks

inferior vena cava drains blood from the veins that come from the lower organs and the legs

interstitial fluid fluid between cells

lymph node specialized organ that contains a large number of macrophages that clean the lymph before the fluid is returned to the heart

myocardial infarction (also, heart attack) complete blockage of the coronary arteries and death of the cardiac muscle tissue

myocardium heart muscle cells that make up the middle layer and the bulk of the heart wall

open circulatory system system in which the blood is mixed with interstitial fluid and directly covers the organs

ostium (plural: ostia) holes between blood vessels that allow the movement of hemolymph through the body of insects, arthropods, and mollusks with open circulatory systems

pericardium membrane layer protecting the heart; also part of the epicardium

peripheral resistance resistance of the artery and blood vessel walls to the pressure placed on them by the force of the heart pumping

plasma liquid component of blood that is left after the cells are removed

platelet (also, thrombocyte) small cellular fragment that collects at wounds, cross-reacts with clotting factors, and forms a plug to prevent blood loss

precapillary sphincter small muscle that controls blood circulation in the capillary beds

pulmocutaneous circulation circulatory system in amphibians; the flow of blood to the lungs and the moist skin for gas exchange

pulmonary circulation flow of blood away from the heart through the lungs where oxygenation occurs and then returns to the heart again

red blood cell small (7–8 μm) biconcave cell without mitochondria (and in mammals without nuclei) that is packed with hemoglobin, giving the cell its red color; transports oxygen through the body

semilunar valve membranous flap of connective tissue between the aorta and a ventricle of the heart (the aortic or pulmonary semilunar valves)

serum plasma without the coagulation factors

sinoatrial (SA) node the heart's internal pacemaker; located near the wall of the right atrium

stroke volume - the volume of blood pumped into the aorta per contraction of the left ventricle

superior vena cava drains blood from the jugular vein that comes from the brain and from the veins that come from the arms

systemic circulation flow of blood away from the heart to the brain, liver, kidneys, stomach, and other organs, the limbs, and the muscles of the body, and then the return of this blood to the heart

systole contraction phase of cardiac cycle when the ventricles are pumping blood into the arteries

tricuspid valve one-way membranous flap of connective tissue between the atrium and the ventricle in the right side of the heart; also known as atrioventricular valve

unidirectional circulation flow of blood in a single circuit; occurs in fish where the blood flows through the gills, then past the organs and the rest of the body, before returning to the heart

vasoconstriction narrowing of a blood vessel

vasodilation widening of a blood vessel

vein blood vessel that brings blood back to the heart

vena cava major vein of the body returning blood from the upper and lower parts of the body; see the superior vena cava and inferior vena cava

ventricle (heart) large inferior chamber of the heart that pumps blood into arteries

venule blood vessel that connects a capillary bed to a vein

white blood cell large (30 μm) cell with nuclei of which there are many types with different roles including the protection of the body from viruses and bacteria, and cleaning up dead cells and other waste

CHAPTER SUMMARY

40.1 Overview of the Circulatory System

In most animals, the circulatory system is used to transport blood through the body. Some primitive animals use diffusion for the exchange of water, nutrients, and gases. However, complex organisms use the circulatory system to carry gases, nutrients, and waste through the body. Circulatory systems may be open (mixed with the interstitial fluid) or closed (separated from the interstitial fluid). Closed circulatory systems are a characteristic of vertebrates; however, there are significant differences in the structure of the heart and the circulation of blood between the different vertebrate groups due to adaptations during evolution and associated differences in anatomy. Fish have a two-chambered heart with unidirectional circulation. Amphibians have a three-chambered heart, which has some mixing of the blood, and they have double circulation. Most non-avian reptiles have a three-chambered heart, but have little mixing of the blood; they have double circulation. Mammals and birds have a four-chambered heart with no mixing of the blood and double circulation.

40.2 Components of the Blood

Specific components of the blood include red blood cells, white blood cells, platelets, and the plasma, which contains coagulation factors and serum. Blood is important for regulation of the body's pH, temperature, osmotic pressure, the circulation of nutrients and removal of waste, the distribution of hormones from endocrine glands, and the elimination of excess heat; it also contains components for blood clotting. Red blood cells are specialized cells that contain hemoglobin and circulate through the body delivering oxygen to cells. White blood cells are involved in the immune response to identify and target invading bacteria, viruses, and other foreign organisms; they also recycle waste components, such as old red blood cells. Platelets and blood clotting factors cause the change of the soluble protein fibrinogen to the insoluble protein fibrin at a wound site forming a plug. Plasma consists of 90 percent water along with various substances, such as coagulation factors and antibodies. The serum is the plasma component of the blood without the coagulation factors.

40.3 Mammalian Heart and Blood Vessels

The heart muscle pumps blood through three divisions of the circulatory system: coronary, pulmonary, and systemic. There is one atrium and one ventricle on the right side and one atrium and one ventricle on the left side. The pumping of the heart is a function of cardiomyocytes, distinctive muscle cells that are striated like skeletal muscle but pump rhythmically and involuntarily like smooth muscle. The internal pacemaker starts at the sinoatrial node, which is located near the wall of the right atrium. Electrical charges pulse from the SA node causing the two atria to contract in unison; then the pulse reaches the atrioventricular node between the right atrium and right ventricle. A pause in the electric signal allows the atria to empty completely into the ventricles before the ventricles pump out the blood. The blood from the heart is carried through the body by a complex network of blood vessels; arteries take blood away from the heart, and veins bring blood back to the heart.

40.4 Blood Flow and Blood Pressure Regulation

Blood primarily moves through the body by the rhythmic movement of smooth muscle in the vessel wall and by the action of the skeletal muscle as the body moves. Blood is prevented from flowing backward in the veins by one-way valves. Blood flow through the capillary beds is controlled by precapillary sphincters to increase and decrease flow depending on the body's needs and is directed by nerve and hormone signals. Lymph vessels take fluid that has leaked out of the blood to the lymph nodes where it is cleaned before returning to the heart. During systole, blood enters the arteries, and the

artery walls stretch to accommodate the extra blood. During diastole, the artery walls return to normal. The blood pressure of the systole phase and the diastole phase gives the two pressure readings for blood pressure.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

1. Figure 40.10 Which of the following statements about the circulatory system is false?

- a. Blood in the pulmonary vein is deoxygenated.
- b. Blood in the inferior vena cava is deoxygenated.
- c. Blood in the pulmonary artery is deoxygenated.
- d. Blood in the aorta is oxygenated.

2. Figure 40.11 Which of the following statements about the heart is false?

- a. The mitral valve separates the left ventricle from the left atrium.
- b. Blood travels through the bicuspid valve to the left atrium.
- c. Both the aortic and the pulmonary valves are semilunar valves.
- d. The mitral valve is an atrioventricular valve.

3. Figure 40.17 Varicose veins are veins that become enlarged because the valves no longer close properly, allowing blood to flow backward. Varicose veins are often most prominent on the legs. Why do you think this is the case?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

4. Why are open circulatory systems advantageous to some animals?

- a. They use less metabolic energy.
- b. They help the animal move faster.
- c. They do not need a heart.
- d. They help large insects develop.

5. Some animals use diffusion instead of a circulatory system. Examples include:

- a. birds and jellyfish
- b. flatworms and arthropods
- c. mollusks and jellyfish
- d. None of the above

6. Blood flow that is directed through the lungs and back to the heart is called _____.

- a. unidirectional circulation
- b. gill circulation
- c. pulmonary circulation
- d. pulmocutaneous circulation

7. White blood cells:

- a. can be classified as granulocytes or agranulocytes
- b. defend the body against bacteria and viruses
- c. are also called leucocytes
- d. All of the above

8. Platelet plug formation occurs at which point?

- a. when large megakaryocytes break up into thousands of smaller fragments
- b. when platelets are dispersed through the blood stream
- c. when platelets are attracted to a site of blood vessel damage
- d. none of the above

9. In humans, the plasma comprises what percentage of the blood?

- a. 45 percent
- b. 55 percent
- c. 25 percent
- d. 90 percent

10. The red blood cells of birds differ from mammalian red blood cells because:

- a. they are white and have nuclei
- b. they do not have nuclei
- c. they have nuclei
- d. they fight disease

11. The heart's internal pacemaker beats by:

- a. an internal implant that sends an electrical impulse through the heart
- b. the excitation of cardiac muscle cells at the sinoatrial node followed by the atrioventricular node
- c. the excitation of cardiac muscle cells at the atrioventricular node followed by the sinoatrial node
- d. the action of the sinus

12. During the systolic phase of the cardiac cycle, the heart is _____.

- a. contracting
- b. relaxing
- c. contracting and relaxing
- d. filling with blood

13. Cardiomyocytes are similar to skeletal muscle because:

- a. they beat involuntarily
- b. they are used for weight lifting
- c. they pulse rhythmically
- d. they are striated

14. How do arteries differ from veins?

- a. Arteries have thicker smooth muscle layers to accommodate the changes in pressure from the heart.

- b. Arteries carry blood.
 - c. Arteries have thinner smooth muscle layers and valves and move blood by the action of skeletal muscle.
 - d. Arteries are thin walled and are used for gas exchange.
- 15.** High blood pressure would be a result of _____.

- a. a high cardiac output and high peripheral resistance
- b. a high cardiac output and low peripheral resistance
- c. a low cardiac output and high peripheral resistance
- d. a low cardiac output and low peripheral resistance

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 16.** Describe a closed circulatory system.
- 17.** Describe systemic circulation.
- 18.** Describe the cause of different blood type groups.
- 19.** List some of the functions of blood in the body.
- 20.** How does the lymphatic system work with blood flow?
- 21.** Describe the cardiac cycle.
- 22.** What happens in capillaries?
- 23.** How does blood pressure change during heavy exercise?

41 | OSMOTIC REGULATION AND EXCRETION



Figure 41.1 Just as humans recycle what we can and dump the remains into landfills, our bodies use and recycle what they can and excrete the remaining waste products. Our bodies' complex systems have developed ways to treat waste and maintain a balanced internal environment. (credit: modification of work by Redwin Law)

Chapter Outline

41.1: Osmoregulation and Osmotic Balance

41.2: The Kidneys and Osmoregulatory Organs

41.3: Excretion Systems

41.4: Nitrogenous Wastes

41.5: Hormonal Control of Osmoregulatory Functions

Introduction

The daily intake recommendation for human water consumption is eight to ten glasses of water. In order to achieve a healthy balance, the human body should excrete the eight to ten glasses of water every day. This occurs via the processes of urination, defecation, sweating and, to a small extent, respiration. The organs and tissues of the human body are soaked in fluids that are maintained at constant temperature, pH, and solute concentration, all crucial elements of homeostasis. The solutes in body fluids are mainly mineral salts and sugars, and osmotic regulation is the process by which the mineral salts and water are kept in balance. Osmotic homeostasis is maintained despite the influence of external factors like temperature, diet, and weather conditions.

41.1 | Osmoregulation and Osmotic Balance

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define osmosis and explain its role within molecules
- Explain why osmoregulation and osmotic balance are important body functions
- Describe active transport mechanisms
- Explain osmolarity and the way in which it is measured
- Describe osmoregulators or osmoconformers and how these tools allow animals to adapt to different environments

Osmosis is the diffusion of water across a membrane in response to **osmotic pressure** caused by an imbalance of molecules on either side of the membrane. **Osmoregulation** is the process of maintenance of salt and water balance (**osmotic balance**) across membranes within the body's fluids, which are composed of water, plus electrolytes and non-electrolytes. An **electrolyte** is a solute that dissociates into ions when dissolved in water. A **non-electrolyte**, in contrast, doesn't dissociate into ions during water dissolution. Both electrolytes and non-electrolytes contribute to the osmotic balance. The body's fluids include blood plasma, the cytosol within cells, and interstitial fluid, the fluid that exists in the spaces between cells and tissues of the body. The membranes of the body (such as the pleural, serous, and cell membranes) are **semi-permeable membranes**. Semi-permeable membranes are permeable (or permissive) to certain types of solutes and water. Solutions on two sides of a semi-permeable membrane tend to equalize in solute concentration by movement of solutes and/or water across the membrane. As seen in **Figure 41.2**, a cell placed in water tends to swell due to gain of water from the hypotonic or "low salt" environment. A cell placed in a solution with higher salt concentration, on the other hand, tends to make the membrane shrivel up due to loss of water into the hypertonic or "high salt" environment. Isotonic cells have an equal concentration of solutes inside and outside the cell; this equalizes the osmotic pressure on either side of the cell membrane which is a semi-permeable membrane.

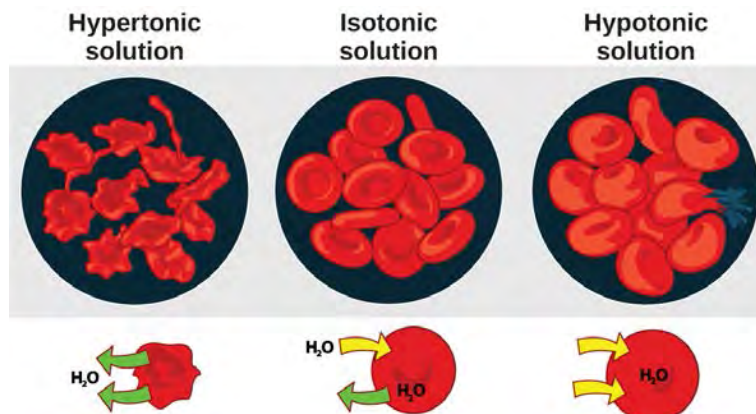


Figure 41.2 Cells placed in a hypertonic environment tend to shrink due to loss of water. In a hypotonic environment, cells tend to swell due to intake of water. The blood maintains an isotonic environment so that cells neither shrink nor swell. (credit: Mariana Ruiz Villareal)

The body does not exist in isolation. There is a constant input of water and electrolytes into the system. While osmoregulation is achieved across membranes within the body, excess electrolytes and wastes are transported to the kidneys and excreted, helping to maintain osmotic balance.

Need for Osmoregulation

Biological systems constantly interact and exchange water and nutrients with the environment by way of consumption of food and water and through excretion in the form of sweat, urine, and feces. Without a mechanism to regulate osmotic pressure, or when a disease damages this mechanism, there is a tendency to accumulate toxic waste and water, which can have dire consequences.

Mammalian systems have evolved to regulate not only the overall osmotic pressure across membranes, but also specific concentrations of important electrolytes in the three major fluid compartments: blood plasma, extracellular fluid, and intracellular fluid. Since osmotic pressure is regulated by the movement

of water across membranes, the volume of the fluid compartments can also change temporarily. Because blood plasma is one of the fluid components, osmotic pressures have a direct bearing on blood pressure.

Transport of Electrolytes across Cell Membranes

Electrolytes, such as sodium chloride, ionize in water, meaning that they dissociate into their component ions. In water, sodium chloride (NaCl), dissociates into the sodium ion (Na^+) and the chloride ion (Cl^-). The most important ions, whose concentrations are very closely regulated in body fluids, are the cations sodium (Na^+), potassium (K^+), calcium (Ca^{+2}), magnesium (Mg^{+2}), and the anions chloride (Cl^-), carbonate (CO_3^{-2}), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-), and phosphate (PO_3^-). Electrolytes are lost from the body during urination and perspiration. For this reason, athletes are encouraged to replace electrolytes and fluids during periods of increased activity and perspiration.

Osmotic pressure is influenced by the concentration of solutes in a solution. It is directly proportional to the number of solute atoms or molecules and not dependent on the size of the solute molecules. Because electrolytes dissociate into their component ions, they, in essence, add more solute particles into the solution and have a greater effect on osmotic pressure, per mass than compounds that do not dissociate in water, such as glucose.

Water can pass through membranes by passive diffusion. If electrolyte ions could passively diffuse across membranes, it would be impossible to maintain specific concentrations of ions in each fluid compartment therefore they require special mechanisms to cross the semi-permeable membranes in the body. This movement can be accomplished by facilitated diffusion and active transport. Facilitated diffusion requires protein-based channels for moving the solute. Active transport requires energy in the form of ATP conversion, carrier proteins, or pumps in order to move ions against the concentration gradient.

Concept of Osmolality and Milliequivalent

In order to calculate osmotic pressure, it is necessary to understand how solute concentrations are measured. The unit for measuring solutes is the **mole**. One mole is defined as the gram molecular weight of the solute. For example, the molecular weight of sodium chloride is 58.44. Thus, one mole of sodium chloride weighs 58.44 grams. The **molarity** of a solution is the number of moles of solute per liter of solution. The **molality** of a solution is the number of moles of solute per kilogram of solvent. If the solvent is water, one kilogram of water is equal to one liter of water. While molarity and molality are used to express the concentration of solutions, electrolyte concentrations are usually expressed in terms of milliequivalents per liter (mEq/L): the mEq/L is equal to the ion concentration (in millimoles) multiplied by the number of electrical charges on the ion. The unit of milliequivalent takes into consideration the ions present in the solution (since electrolytes form ions in aqueous solutions) and the charge on the ions.

Thus, for ions that have a charge of one, one milliequivalent is equal to one millimole. For ions that have a charge of two (like calcium), one milliequivalent is equal to 0.5 millimoles. Another unit for the expression of electrolyte concentration is the milliosmole (mOsm), which is the number of milliequivalents of solute per kilogram of solvent. Body fluids are usually maintained within the range of 280 to 300 mOsm.

Osmoregulators and Osmoconformers

Persons lost at sea without any fresh water to drink are at risk of severe dehydration because the human body cannot adapt to drinking seawater, which is hypertonic in comparison to body fluids. Organisms such as goldfish that can tolerate only a relatively narrow range of salinity are referred to as stenohaline. About 90 percent of all bony fish are restricted to either freshwater or seawater. They are incapable of osmotic regulation in the opposite environment. It is possible, however, for a few fishes like salmon to spend part of their life in fresh water and part in sea water. Organisms like the salmon and molly that can tolerate a relatively wide range of salinity are referred to as euryhaline organisms. This is possible because some fish have evolved **osmoregulatory** mechanisms to survive in all kinds of aquatic environments. When they live in fresh water, their bodies tend to take up water because the environment is relatively hypotonic, as illustrated in **Figure 41.3a**. In such hypotonic environments, these fish do not drink much water. Instead, they pass a lot of very dilute urine, and they achieve electrolyte balance by active transport of salts through the gills. When they move to a hypertonic marine environment, these fish start drinking sea water; they excrete the excess salts through their gills and their urine, as illustrated in **Figure 41.3b**. Most marine invertebrates, on the other hand, may be isotonic with sea water (**osmoconformers**). Their body fluid concentrations conform to changes in seawater concentration. Cartilaginous fishes' salt composition of the blood is similar to bony fishes; however, the blood of

sharks contains the organic compounds urea and trimethylamine oxide (TMAO). This does not mean that their electrolyte composition is similar to that of sea water. They achieve isotonicity with the sea by storing large concentrations of urea. These animals that secrete urea are called ureotelic animals. TMAO stabilizes proteins in the presence of high urea levels, preventing the disruption of peptide bonds that would occur in other animals exposed to similar levels of urea. Sharks are cartilaginous fish with a rectal gland to secrete salt and assist in osmoregulation.

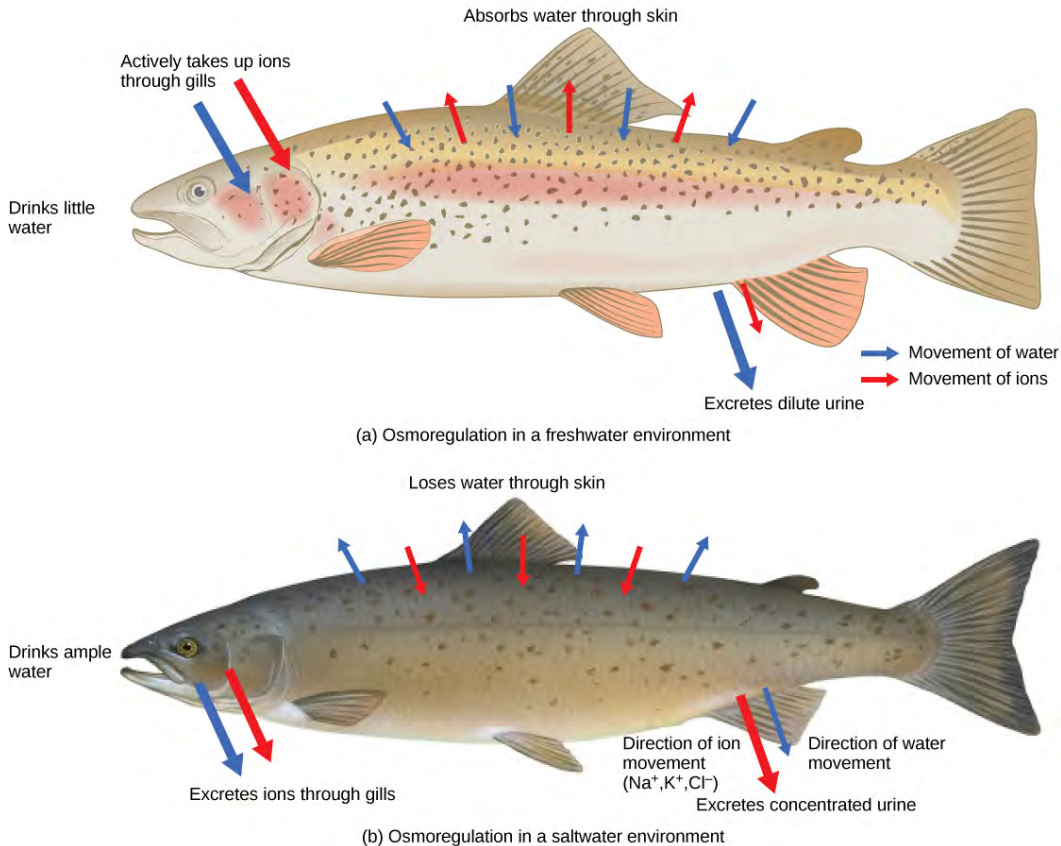


Figure 41.3 Fish are osmoregulators, but must use different mechanisms to survive in (a) freshwater or (b) saltwater environments. (credit: modification of work by Duane Raver, NOAA)

career CONNECTION

Dialysis Technician

Dialysis is a medical process of removing wastes and excess water from the blood by diffusion and ultrafiltration. When kidney function fails, dialysis must be done to artificially rid the body of wastes. This is a vital process to keep patients alive. In some cases, the patients undergo artificial dialysis until they are eligible for a kidney transplant. In others who are not candidates for kidney transplants, dialysis is a life-long necessity.

Dialysis technicians typically work in hospitals and clinics. While some roles in this field include equipment development and maintenance, most dialysis technicians work in direct patient care. Their on-the-job duties, which typically occur under the direct supervision of a registered nurse, focus on providing dialysis treatments. This can include reviewing patient history and current condition, assessing and responding to patient needs before and during treatment, and monitoring the dialysis process. Treatment may include taking and reporting a patient's vital signs and preparing solutions and equipment to ensure accurate and sterile procedures.

41.2 | The Kidneys and Osmoregulatory Organs

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain how the kidneys serve as the main osmoregulatory organs in mammalian systems
- Describe the structure of the kidneys and the functions of the parts of the kidney
- Describe how the nephron is the functional unit of the kidney and explain how it actively filters blood and generates urine
- Detail the three steps in the formation of urine: glomerular filtration, tubular reabsorption, and tubular secretion

Although the kidneys are the major osmoregulatory organ, the skin and lungs also play a role in the process. Water and electrolytes are lost through sweat glands in the skin, which helps moisturize and cool the skin surface, while the lungs expel a small amount of water in the form of mucous secretions and via evaporation of water vapor.

Kidneys: The Main Osmoregulatory Organ

The **kidneys**, illustrated in **Figure 41.4**, are a pair of bean-shaped structures that are located just below and posterior to the liver in the peritoneal cavity. The adrenal glands sit on top of each kidney and are also called the suprarenal glands. Kidneys filter blood and purify it. All the blood in the human body is filtered many times a day by the kidneys; these organs use up almost 25 percent of the oxygen absorbed through the lungs to perform this function. Oxygen allows the kidney cells to efficiently manufacture chemical energy in the form of ATP through aerobic respiration. The filtrate coming out of the kidneys is called **urine**.

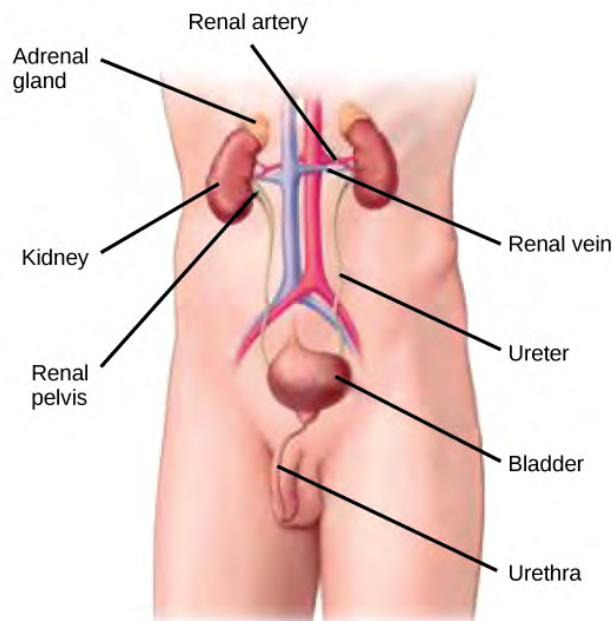
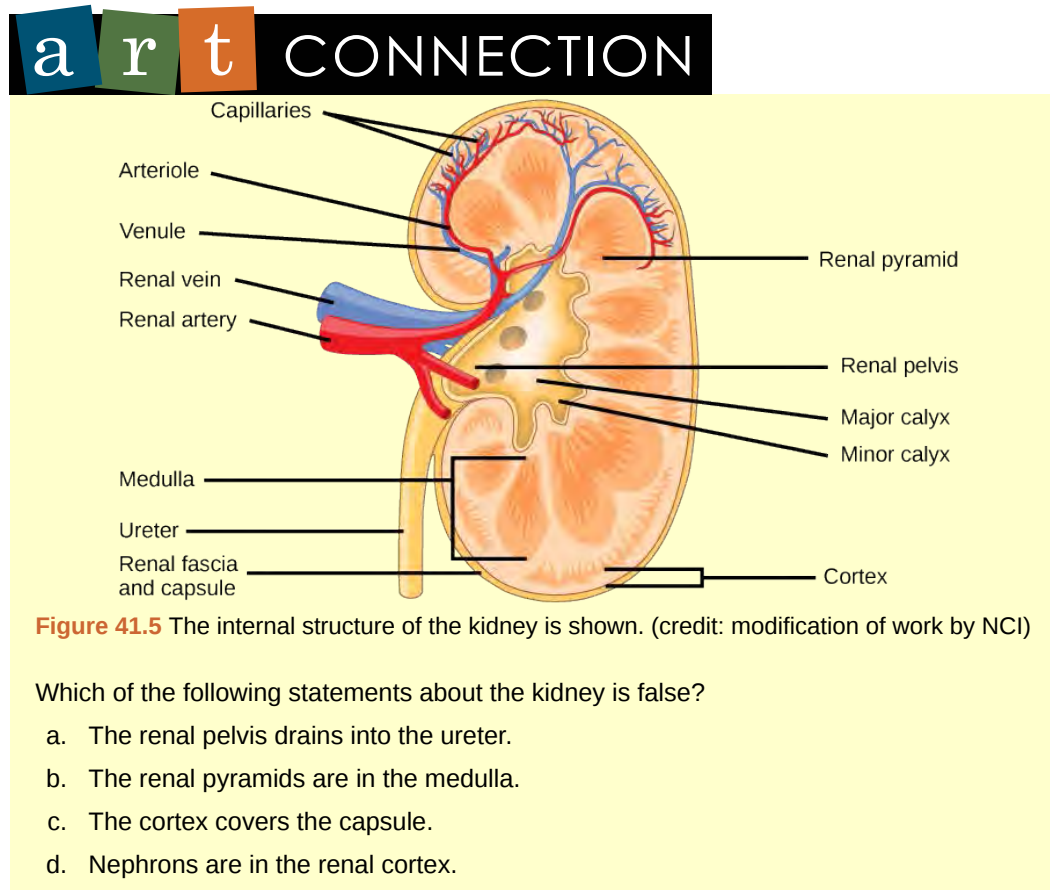


Figure 41.4 Kidneys filter the blood, producing urine that is stored in the bladder prior to elimination through the urethra. (credit: modification of work by NCI)

Kidney Structure

Externally, the kidneys are surrounded by three layers, illustrated in **Figure 41.5**. The outermost layer is a tough connective tissue layer called the **renal fascia**. The second layer is called the **perirenal fat capsule**, which helps anchor the kidneys in place. The third and innermost layer is the **renal capsule**. Internally, the kidney has three regions—an outer **cortex**, a **medulla** in the middle, and the **renal pelvis** in the region called the **hilum** of the kidney. The hilum is the concave part of the bean-shape where blood vessels and nerves enter and exit the kidney; it is also the point of exit for the ureters. The renal cortex

is granular due to the presence of **nephrons**—the functional unit of the kidney. The medulla consists of multiple pyramidal tissue masses, called the **renal pyramids**. In between the pyramids are spaces called **renal columns** through which the blood vessels pass. The tips of the pyramids, called renal papillae, point toward the renal pelvis. There are, on average, eight renal pyramids in each kidney. The renal pyramids along with the adjoining cortical region are called the **lobes of the kidney**. The renal pelvis leads to the **ureter** on the outside of the kidney. On the inside of the kidney, the renal pelvis branches out into two or three extensions called the major **calyces**, which further branch into the minor calyces. The ureters are urine-bearing tubes that exit the kidney and empty into the **urinary bladder**.



Because the kidney filters blood, its network of blood vessels is an important component of its structure and function. The arteries, veins, and nerves that supply the kidney enter and exit at the renal hilum. Renal blood supply starts with the branching of the aorta into the **renal arteries** (which are each named based on the region of the kidney they pass through) and ends with the exiting of the **renal veins** to join the **inferior vena cava**. The renal arteries split into several **segmental arteries** upon entering the kidneys. Each segmental artery splits further into several **interlobar arteries** and enters the renal columns, which supply the renal lobes. The interlobar arteries split at the junction of the renal cortex and medulla to form the **arcuate arteries**. The arcuate “bow shaped” arteries form arcs along the base of the medullary pyramids. **Cortical radiate arteries**, as the name suggests, radiate out from the arcuate arteries. The cortical radiate arteries branch into numerous afferent arterioles, and then enter the capillaries supplying the nephrons. Veins trace the path of the arteries and have similar names, except there are no segmental veins.

As mentioned previously, the functional unit of the kidney is the nephron, illustrated in **Figure 41.6**. Each kidney is made up of over one million nephrons that dot the renal cortex, giving it a granular appearance when sectioned sagittally. There are two types of nephrons— **cortical nephrons** (85 percent), which are deep in the renal cortex, and **juxtamedullary nephrons** (15 percent), which lie in the renal cortex close to the renal medulla. A nephron consists of three parts—a **renal corpuscle**, a **renal tubule**, and the associated capillary network, which originates from the cortical radiate arteries.

art CONNECTION

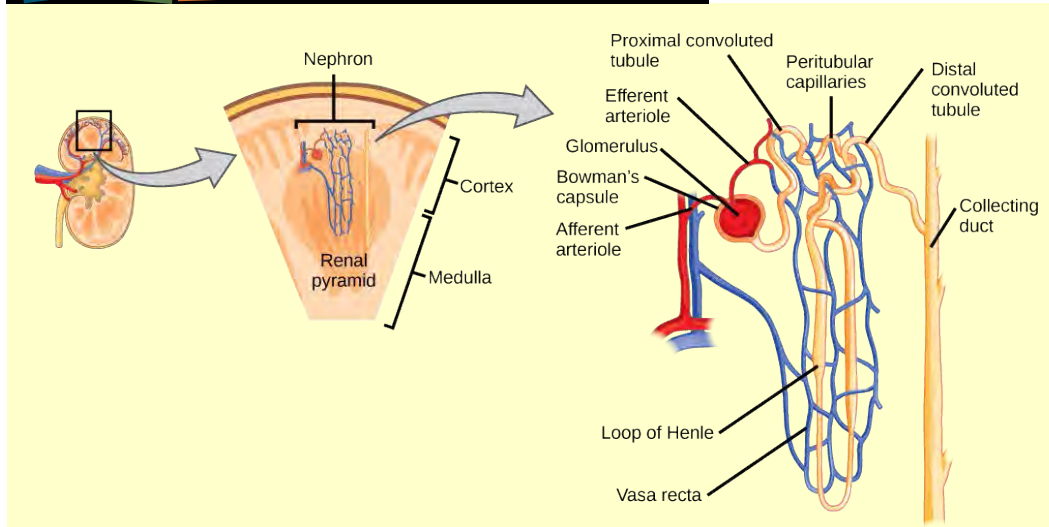


Figure 41.6 The nephron is the functional unit of the kidney. The glomerulus and convoluted tubules are located in the kidney cortex, while collecting ducts are located in the pyramids of the medulla. (credit: modification of work by NIDDK)

Which of the following statements about the nephron is false?

- The collecting duct empties into the distal convoluted tubule.
- The Bowman's capsule surrounds the glomerulus.
- The loop of Henle is between the proximal and distal convoluted tubules.
- The loop of Henle empties into the distal convoluted tubule.

Renal Corpuscle

The renal corpuscle, located in the renal cortex, is made up of a network of capillaries known as the **glomerulus** and the capsule, a cup-shaped chamber that surrounds it, called the glomerular or **Bowman's capsule**.

Renal Tubule

The renal tubule is a long and convoluted structure that emerges from the glomerulus and can be divided into three parts based on function. The first part is called the **proximal convoluted tubule (PCT)** due to its proximity to the glomerulus; it stays in the renal cortex. The second part is called the **loop of Henle**, or nephritic loop, because it forms a loop (with **descending** and **ascending limbs**) that goes through the renal medulla. The third part of the renal tubule is called the **distal convoluted tubule (DCT)** and this part is also restricted to the renal cortex. The DCT, which is the last part of the nephron, connects and empties its contents into collecting ducts that line the medullary pyramids. The collecting ducts amass contents from multiple nephrons and fuse together as they enter the papillae of the renal medulla.

Capillary Network within the Nephron

The capillary network that originates from the renal arteries supplies the nephron with blood that needs to be filtered. The branch that enters the glomerulus is called the **afferent arteriole**. The branch that exits the glomerulus is called the **efferent arteriole**. Within the glomerulus, the network of capillaries is called the glomerular capillary bed. Once the efferent arteriole exits the glomerulus, it forms the **peritubular capillary network**, which surrounds and interacts with parts of the renal tubule. In cortical nephrons, the peritubular capillary network surrounds the PCT and DCT. In juxtamedullary nephrons, the peritubular capillary network forms a network around the loop of Henle and is called the **vasa recta**.



Go to **this website** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/kidney_section) to see another coronal section of the kidney and to explore an animation of the workings of nephrons.

Kidney Function and Physiology

Kidneys filter blood in a three-step process. First, the nephrons filter blood that runs through the capillary network in the glomerulus. Almost all solutes, except for proteins, are filtered out into the glomerulus by a process called **glomerular filtration**. Second, the filtrate is collected in the renal tubules. Most of the solutes get reabsorbed in the PCT by a process called **tubular reabsorption**. In the loop of Henle, the filtrate continues to exchange solutes and water with the renal medulla and the peritubular capillary network. Water is also reabsorbed during this step. Then, additional solutes and wastes are secreted into the kidney tubules during **tubular secretion**, which is, in essence, the opposite process to tubular reabsorption. The collecting ducts collect filtrate coming from the nephrons and fuse in the medullary papillae. From here, the papillae deliver the filtrate, now called urine, into the minor calyces that eventually connect to the ureters through the renal pelvis. This entire process is illustrated in **Figure 41.7**.

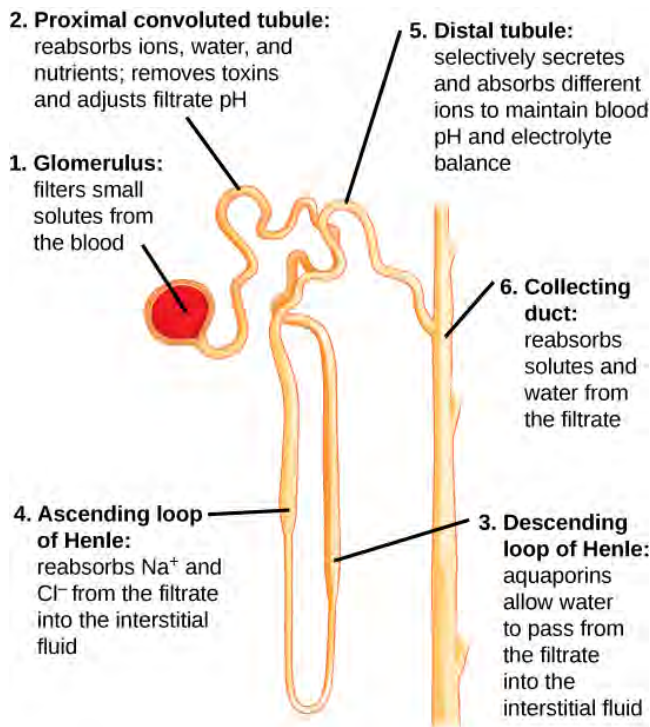


Figure 41.7 Each part of the nephron performs a different function in filtering waste and maintaining homeostatic balance. (1) The glomerulus forces small solutes out of the blood by pressure. (2) The proximal convoluted tubule reabsorbs ions, water, and nutrients from the filtrate into the interstitial fluid, and actively transports toxins and drugs from the interstitial fluid into the filtrate. The proximal convoluted tubule also adjusts blood pH by selectively secreting ammonia (NH_3) into the filtrate, where it reacts with H^+ to form NH_4^+ . The more acidic the filtrate, the more ammonia is secreted. (3) The descending loop of Henle is lined with cells containing aquaporins that allow water to pass from the filtrate into the interstitial fluid. (4) In the thin part of the ascending loop of Henle, Na^+ and Cl^- ions diffuse into the interstitial fluid. In the thick part, these same ions are actively transported into the interstitial fluid. Because salt but not water is lost, the filtrate becomes more dilute as it travels up the limb. (5) In the distal convoluted tubule, K^+ and H^+ ions are selectively secreted into the filtrate, while Na^+ , Cl^- , and HCO_3^- ions are reabsorbed to maintain pH and electrolyte balance in the blood. (6) The collecting duct reabsorbs solutes and water from the filtrate, forming dilute urine. (credit: modification of work by NIDDK)

Glomerular Filtration

Glomerular filtration filters out most of the solutes due to high blood pressure and specialized membranes in the afferent arteriole. The blood pressure in the glomerulus is maintained independent of factors that affect systemic blood pressure. The “leaky” connections between the endothelial cells of the glomerular capillary network allow solutes to pass through easily. All solutes in the glomerular capillaries, except for macromolecules like proteins, pass through by passive diffusion. There is no energy requirement at this stage of the filtration process. **Glomerular filtration rate (GFR)** is the volume of glomerular filtrate formed per minute by the kidneys. GFR is regulated by multiple mechanisms and is an important indicator of kidney function.

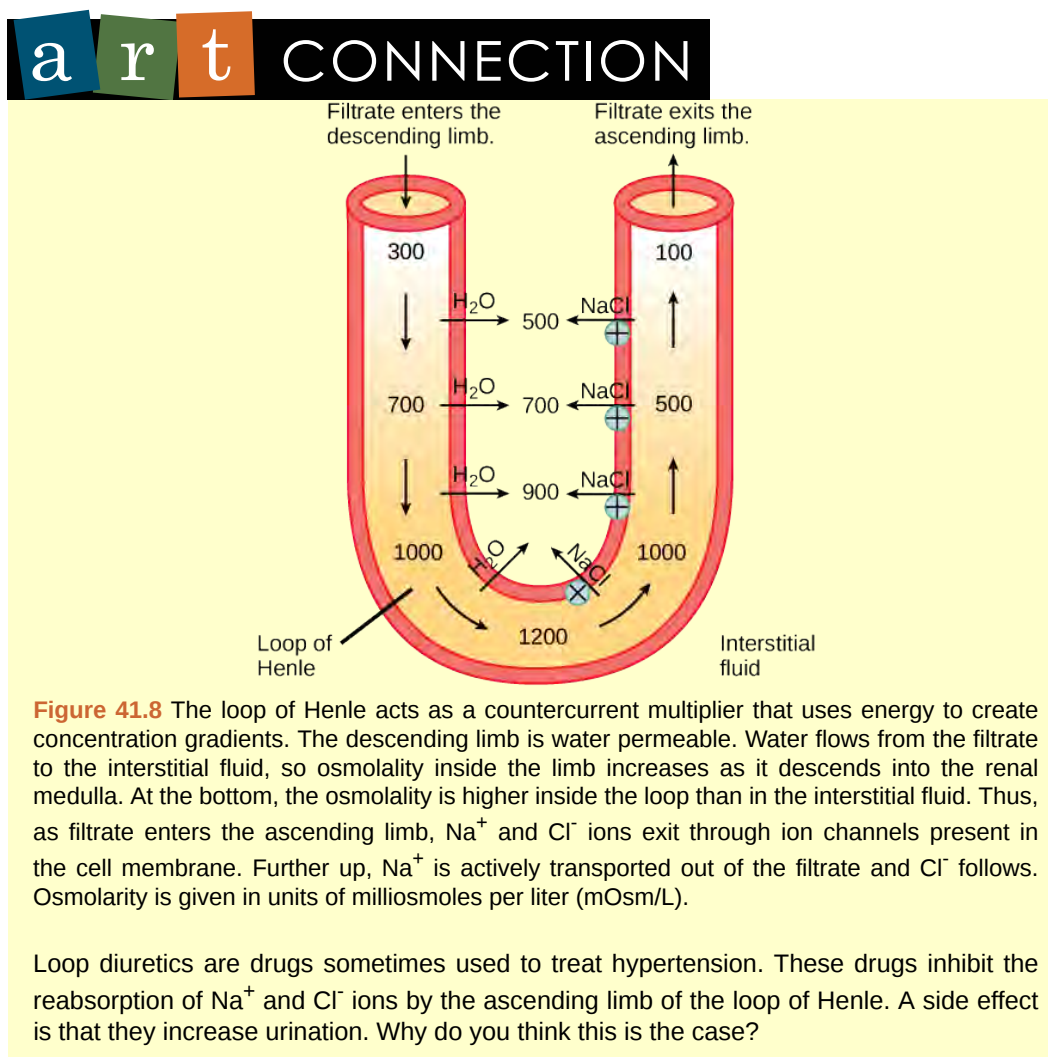


To learn more about the vascular system of kidneys, click through [this review \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/kidneys\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/kidneys) and the steps of blood flow.

Tubular Reabsorption and Secretion

Tubular reabsorption occurs in the PCT part of the renal tubule. Almost all nutrients are reabsorbed, and this occurs either by passive or active transport. Reabsorption of water and some key electrolytes are regulated and can be influenced by hormones. Sodium (Na^+) is the most abundant ion and most of it is reabsorbed by active transport and then transported to the peritubular capillaries. Because Na^+ is actively transported out of the tubule, water follows it to even out the osmotic pressure. Water is also independently reabsorbed into the peritubular capillaries due to the presence of aquaporins, or water channels, in the PCT. This occurs due to the low blood pressure and high osmotic pressure in the peritubular capillaries. However, every solute has a **transport maximum** and the excess is not reabsorbed.

In the loop of Henle, the permeability of the membrane changes. The descending limb is permeable to water, not solutes; the opposite is true for the ascending limb. Additionally, the loop of Henle invades the renal medulla, which is naturally high in salt concentration and tends to absorb water from the renal tubule and concentrate the filtrate. The osmotic gradient increases as it moves deeper into the medulla. Because two sides of the loop of Henle perform opposing functions, as illustrated in **Figure 41.8**, it acts as a **countercurrent multiplier**. The vasa recta around it acts as the **countercurrent exchanger**.



By the time the filtrate reaches the DCT, most of the urine and solutes have been reabsorbed. If the body requires additional water, all of it can be reabsorbed at this point. Further reabsorption is controlled by hormones, which will be discussed in a later section. Excretion of wastes occurs due to lack of reabsorption combined with tubular secretion. Undesirable products like metabolic wastes, urea, uric acid, and certain drugs, are excreted by tubular secretion. Most of the tubular secretion happens in the DCT, but some occurs in the early part of the collecting duct. Kidneys also maintain an acid-base balance by secreting excess H^+ ions.

Although parts of the renal tubules are named proximal and distal, in a cross-section of the kidney, the tubules are placed close together and in contact with each other and the glomerulus. This allows for exchange of chemical messengers between the different cell types. For example, the DCT ascending limb of the loop of Henle has masses of cells called **macula densa**, which are in contact with cells of the afferent arterioles called **juxtaglomerular cells**. Together, the macula densa and juxtaglomerular cells form the juxtaglomerular complex (JGC). The JGC is an endocrine structure that secretes the enzyme renin and the hormone erythropoietin. When hormones trigger the macula densa cells in the DCT due to variations in blood volume, blood pressure, or electrolyte balance, these cells can immediately communicate the problem to the capillaries in the afferent and efferent arterioles, which can constrict or relax to change the glomerular filtration rate of the kidneys.

career CONNECTION

Nephrologist

A nephrologist studies and deals with diseases of the kidneys—both those that cause kidney failure (such as diabetes) and the conditions that are produced by kidney disease (such as hypertension). Blood pressure, blood volume, and changes in electrolyte balance come under the purview of a nephrologist.

Nephrologists usually work with other physicians who refer patients to them or consult with them about specific diagnoses and treatment plans. Patients are usually referred to a nephrologist for symptoms such as blood or protein in the urine, very high blood pressure, kidney stones, or renal failure.

Nephrology is a subspecialty of internal medicine. To become a nephrologist, medical school is followed by additional training to become certified in internal medicine. An additional two or more years is spent specifically studying kidney disorders and their accompanying effects on the body.

41.3 | Excretion Systems

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain how vacuoles, present in microorganisms, work to excrete waste
- Describe the way in which flame cells and nephridia in worms perform excretory functions and maintain osmotic balance
- Explain how insects use Malpighian tubules to excrete wastes and maintain osmotic balance

Microorganisms and invertebrate animals use more primitive and simple mechanisms to get rid of their metabolic wastes than the mammalian system of kidney and urinary function. Three excretory systems evolved in organisms before complex kidneys: vacuoles, flame cells, and Malpighian tubules.

Contractile Vacuoles in Microorganisms

The most fundamental feature of life is the presence of a cell. In other words, a cell is the simplest functional unit of a life. Bacteria are unicellular, prokaryotic organisms that have some of the least complex life processes in place; however, prokaryotes such as bacteria do not contain membrane-bound vacuoles. The cells of microorganisms like bacteria, protozoa, and fungi are bound by cell membranes and use them to interact with the environment. Some cells, including some leucocytes in humans, are able to engulf food by endocytosis—the formation of vesicles by involution of the cell membrane within the cells. The same vesicles are able to interact and exchange metabolites with the intracellular environment. In some unicellular eukaryotic organisms such as the amoeba, shown in **Figure 41.9**, cellular wastes and excess water are excreted by exocytosis, when the contractile vacuoles merge with the cell membrane and expel wastes into the environment. Contractile vacuoles (CV) should not be confused with vacuoles, which store food or water.

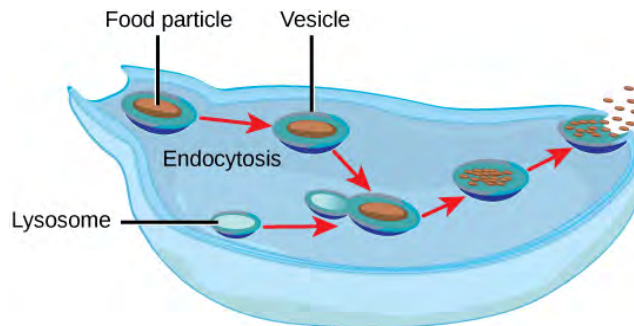


Figure 41.9 Some unicellular organisms, such as the amoeba, ingest food by endocytosis. The food vesicle fuses with a lysosome, which digests the food. Waste is excreted by exocytosis.

Flame Cells of Planaria and Nephridia of Worms

As multi-cellular systems evolved to have organ systems that divided the metabolic needs of the body, individual organs evolved to perform the excretory function. Planaria are flatworms that live in fresh water. Their excretory system consists of two tubules connected to a highly branched duct system. The cells in the tubules are called **flame cells** (or **protonephridia**) because they have a cluster of cilia that looks like a flickering flame when viewed under the microscope, as illustrated in **Figure 41.10a**. The cilia propel waste matter down the tubules and out of the body through excretory pores that open on the body surface; cilia also draw water from the interstitial fluid, allowing for filtration. Any valuable metabolites are recovered by reabsorption. Flame cells are found in flatworms, including parasitic tapeworms and free-living planaria. They also maintain the organism's osmotic balance.

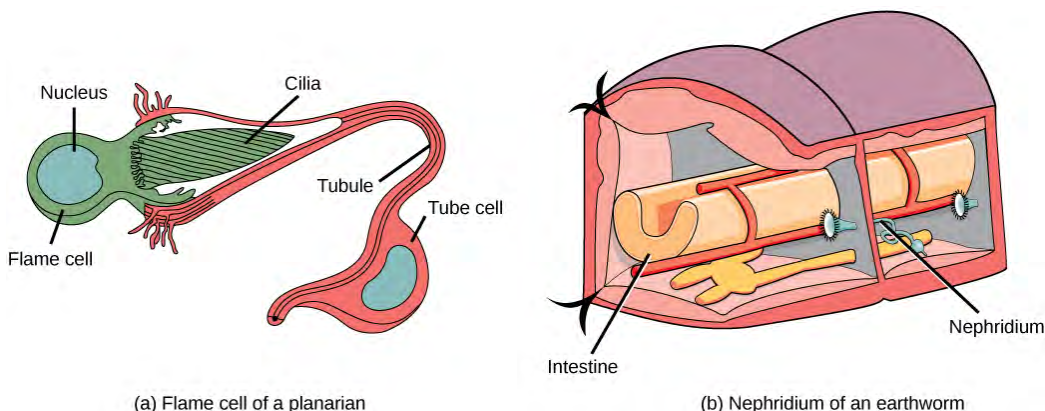


Figure 41.10 In the excretory system of the (a) planaria, cilia of flame cells propel waste through a tubule formed by a tube cell. Tubules are connected into branched structures that lead to pores located all along the sides of the body. The filtrate is secreted through these pores. In (b) annelids such as earthworms, nephridia filter fluid from the coelom, or body cavity. Beating cilia at the opening of the nephridium draw water from the coelom into a tubule. As the filtrate passes down the tubules, nutrients and other solutes are reabsorbed by capillaries. Filtered fluid containing nitrogenous and other wastes is stored in a bladder and then secreted through a pore in the side of the body.

Earthworms (annelids) have slightly more evolved excretory structures called **nephridia**, illustrated in **Figure 41.10b**. A pair of nephridia is present on each segment of the earthworm. They are similar to flame cells in that they have a tubule with cilia. Excretion occurs through a pore called the **nephridiopore**. They are more evolved than the flame cells in that they have a system for tubular reabsorption by a capillary network before excretion.

Malpighian Tubules of Insects

Malpighian tubules are found lining the gut of some species of arthropods, such as the bee illustrated in **Figure 41.11**. They are usually found in pairs and the number of tubules varies with the species of insect. Malpighian tubules are convoluted, which increases their surface area, and they are lined with **microvilli** for reabsorption and maintenance of osmotic balance. Malpighian tubules work cooperatively with specialized glands in the wall of the rectum. Body fluids are not filtered as in the case of nephridia; urine is produced by tubular secretion mechanisms by the cells lining the Malpighian tubules that are bathed in hemolymph (a mixture of blood and interstitial fluid that is found in insects and other arthropods as well as most mollusks). Metabolic wastes like uric acid freely diffuse into the tubules. There are exchange

pumps lining the tubules, which actively transport H^+ ions into the cell and K^+ or Na^+ ions out; water passively follows to form urine. The secretion of ions alters the osmotic pressure which draws water, electrolytes, and nitrogenous waste (uric acid) into the tubules. Water and electrolytes are reabsorbed when these organisms are faced with low-water environments, and uric acid is excreted as a thick paste or powder. Not dissolving wastes in water helps these organisms to conserve water; this is especially important for life in dry environments.

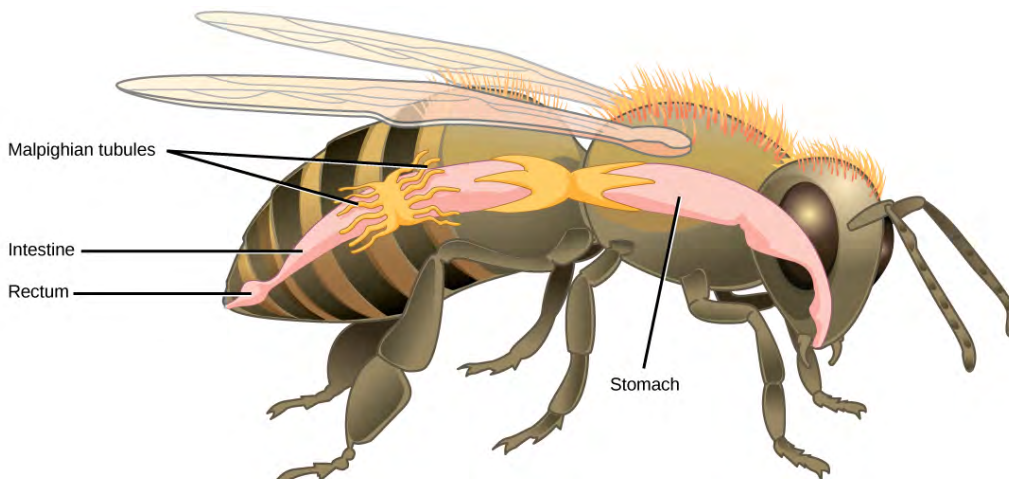


Figure 41.11 Malpighian tubules of insects and other terrestrial arthropods remove nitrogenous wastes and other solutes from the hemolymph. Na^+ and/or K^+ ions are actively transported into the lumen of the tubules. Water then enters the tubules via osmosis, forming urine. The urine passes through the intestine, and into the rectum. There, nutrients diffuse back into the hemolymph. Na^+ and/or K^+ ions are pumped into the hemolymph, and water follows. The concentrated waste is then excreted.

LINK TO LEARNING



Visit [this site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/malpighian\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/malpighian) to see a dissected cockroach, including a close-up look at its Malpighian tubules.

41.4 | Nitrogenous Wastes

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Compare and contrast the way in which aquatic animals and terrestrial animals can eliminate toxic ammonia from their systems
- Compare the major byproduct of ammonia metabolism in vertebrate animals to that of birds, insects, and reptiles

Of the four major macromolecules in biological systems, both proteins and nucleic acids contain nitrogen. During the catabolism, or breakdown, of nitrogen-containing macromolecules, carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen are extracted and stored in the form of carbohydrates and fats. Excess nitrogen is excreted from the body. Nitrogenous wastes tend to form toxic **ammonia**, which raises the pH of body fluids. The formation of ammonia itself requires energy in the form of ATP and large quantities of water to dilute it out of a biological system. Animals that live in aquatic environments tend to release ammonia into the water. Animals that excrete ammonia are said to be **ammonotelic**. Terrestrial

organisms have evolved other mechanisms to excrete nitrogenous wastes. The animals must detoxify ammonia by converting it into a relatively nontoxic form such as urea or uric acid. Mammals, including humans, produce urea, whereas reptiles and many terrestrial invertebrates produce uric acid. Animals that secrete urea as the primary nitrogenous waste material are called **ureotelic** animals.

Nitrogenous Waste in Terrestrial Animals: The Urea Cycle

The **urea cycle** is the primary mechanism by which mammals convert ammonia to urea. Urea is made in the liver and excreted in urine. The overall chemical reaction by which ammonia is converted to urea is 2NH_3 (ammonia) + CO_2 + 3 ATP + H_2O → $\text{H}_2\text{N-CO-NH}_2$ (urea) + 2 ADP + 4 P_i + AMP.

The urea cycle utilizes five intermediate steps, catalyzed by five different enzymes, to convert ammonia to urea, as shown in **Figure 41.12**. The amino acid L-ornithine gets converted into different intermediates before being regenerated at the end of the urea cycle. Hence, the urea cycle is also referred to as the ornithine cycle. The enzyme ornithine transcarbamylase catalyzes a key step in the urea cycle and its deficiency can lead to accumulation of toxic levels of ammonia in the body. The first two reactions occur in the mitochondria and the last three reactions occur in the cytosol. Urea concentration in the blood, called **blood urea nitrogen** or BUN, is used as an indicator of kidney function.

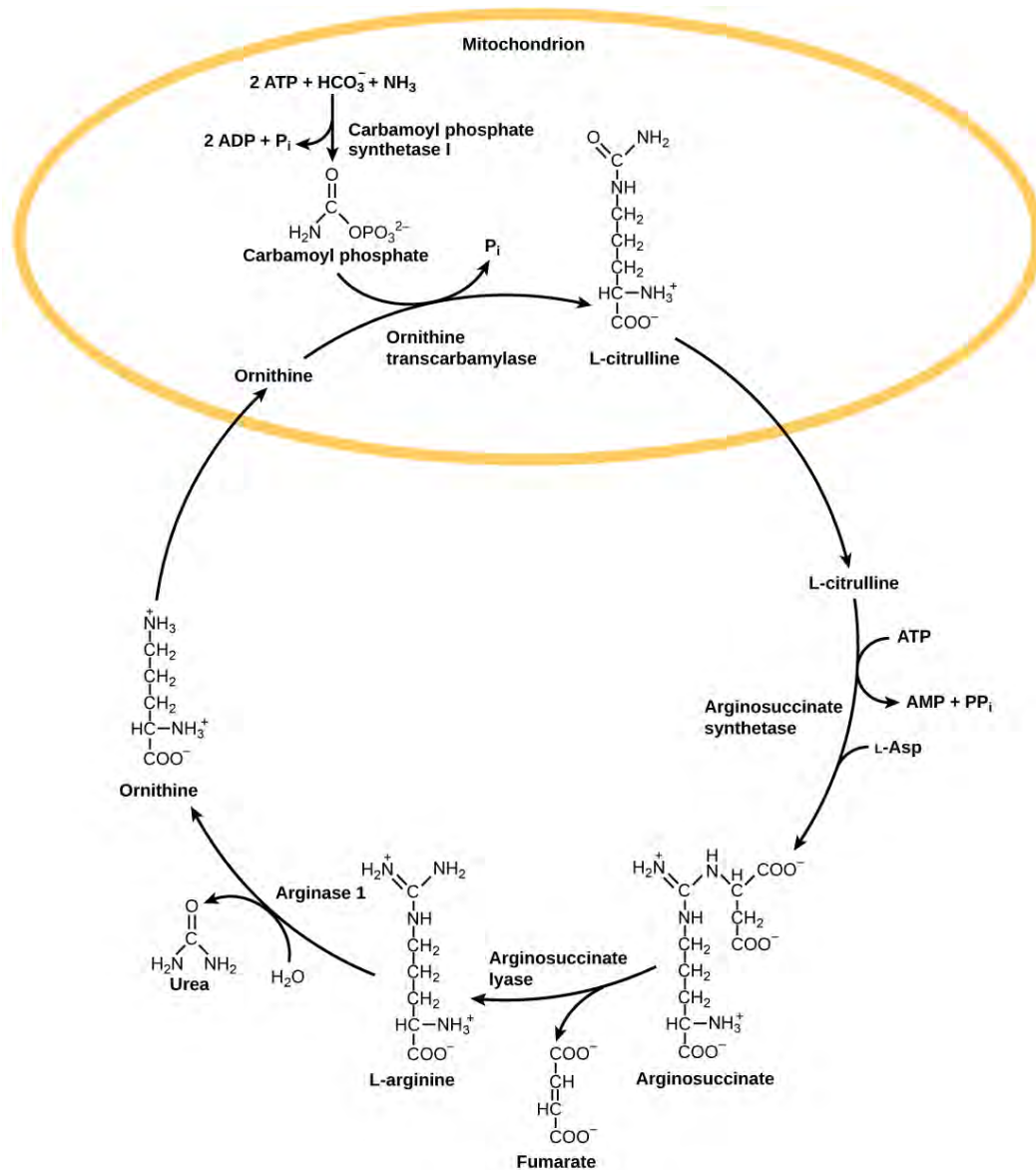


Figure 41.12 The urea cycle converts ammonia to urea.

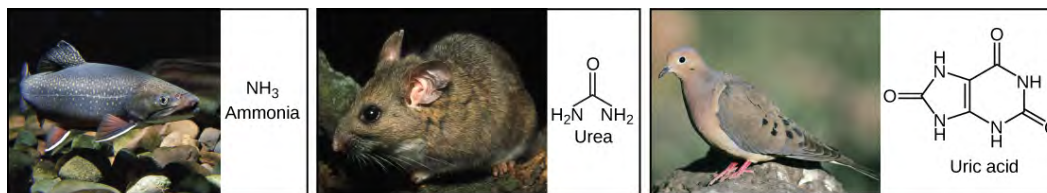
evolution CONNECTION

Excretion of Nitrogenous Waste

The theory of evolution proposes that life started in an aquatic environment. It is not surprising to see that biochemical pathways like the urea cycle evolved to adapt to a changing environment when terrestrial life forms evolved. Arid conditions probably led to the evolution of the uric acid pathway as a means of conserving water.

Nitrogenous Waste in Birds and Reptiles: Uric Acid

Birds, reptiles, and most terrestrial arthropods convert toxic ammonia to **uric acid** or the closely related compound guanine (guano) instead of urea. Mammals also form some uric acid during breakdown of nucleic acids. Uric acid is a compound similar to purines found in nucleic acids. It is water insoluble and tends to form a white paste or powder; it is excreted by birds, insects, and reptiles. Conversion of ammonia to uric acid requires more energy and is much more complex than conversion of ammonia to urea **Figure 41.13**.



(a) Many invertebrates and aquatic species excrete ammonia.

(b) Mammals, many adult amphibians, and some marine species excrete urea.

(c) Insects, land snails, birds, and many reptiles excrete uric acid.

Figure 41.13 Nitrogenous waste is excreted in different forms by different species. These include (a) ammonia, (b) urea, and (c) uric acid. (credit a: modification of work by Eric Engbretson, USFWS; credit b: modification of work by B. "Moose" Peterson, USFWS; credit c: modification of work by Dave Menke, USFWS)

everyday CONNECTION

Gout

Mammals use uric acid crystals as an **antioxidant** in their cells. However, too much uric acid tends to form kidney stones and may also cause a painful condition called gout, where uric acid crystals accumulate in the joints, as illustrated in **Figure 41.14**. Food choices that reduce the amount of nitrogenous bases in the diet help reduce the risk of gout. For example, tea, coffee, and chocolate have purine-like compounds, called xanthines, and should be avoided by people with gout and kidney stones.



Figure 41.14 Gout causes the inflammation visible in this person's left big toe joint. (credit: "Gonzosft"/Wikimedia Commons)

41.5 | Hormonal Control of Osmoregulatory Functions

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain how hormonal cues help the kidneys synchronize the osmotic needs of the body
- Describe how hormones like epinephrine, norepinephrine, renin-angiotensin, aldosterone, anti-diuretic hormone, and atrial natriuretic peptide help regulate waste elimination, maintain correct osmolarity, and perform other osmoregulatory functions

While the kidneys operate to maintain osmotic balance and blood pressure in the body, they also act in concert with hormones. Hormones are small molecules that act as messengers within the body. Hormones are typically secreted from one cell and travel in the bloodstream to affect a target cell in another portion of the body. Different regions of the nephron bear specialized cells that have receptors to respond to chemical messengers and hormones. **Table 41.1** summarizes the hormones that control the osmoregulatory functions.

Hormones That Affect Osmoregulation

Hormone	Where produced	Function
Epinephrine and Norepinephrine	Adrenal medulla	Can decrease kidney function temporarily by vasoconstriction

Table 41.1

Hormones That Affect Osmoregulation

Hormone	Where produced	Function
Renin	Kidney nephrons	Increases blood pressure by acting on angiotensinogen
Angiotensin	Liver	Angiotensin II affects multiple processes and increases blood pressure
Aldosterone	Adrenal cortex	Prevents loss of sodium and water
Anti-diuretic hormone (vasopressin)	Hypothalamus (stored in the posterior pituitary)	Prevents water loss
Atrial natriuretic peptide	Heart atrium	Decreases blood pressure by acting as a vasodilator and increasing glomerular filtration rate; decreases sodium reabsorption in kidneys

Table 41.1

Epinephrine and Norepinephrine

Epinephrine and norepinephrine are released by the adrenal medulla and nervous system respectively. They are the flight/fight hormones that are released when the body is under extreme stress. During stress, much of the body's energy is used to combat imminent danger. Kidney function is halted temporarily by epinephrine and norepinephrine. These hormones function by acting directly on the smooth muscles of blood vessels to constrict them. Once the afferent arterioles are constricted, blood flow into the nephrons stops. These hormones go one step further and trigger the **renin-angiotensin-aldosterone** system.

Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone

The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, illustrated in **Figure 41.15** proceeds through several steps to produce **angiotensin II**, which acts to stabilize blood pressure and volume. Renin (secreted by a part of the juxtaglomerular complex) is produced by the granular cells of the afferent and efferent arterioles. Thus, the kidneys control blood pressure and volume directly. Renin acts on angiotensinogen, which is made in the liver and converts it to **angiotensin I**. **Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE)** converts angiotensin I to angiotensin II. Angiotensin II raises blood pressure by constricting blood vessels. It also triggers the release of the mineralocorticoid aldosterone from the adrenal cortex, which in turn stimulates the renal tubules to reabsorb more sodium. Angiotensin II also triggers the release of **anti-diuretic hormone (ADH)** from the hypothalamus, leading to water retention in the kidneys. It acts directly on the nephrons and decreases glomerular filtration rate. Medically, blood pressure can be controlled by drugs that inhibit ACE (called ACE inhibitors).

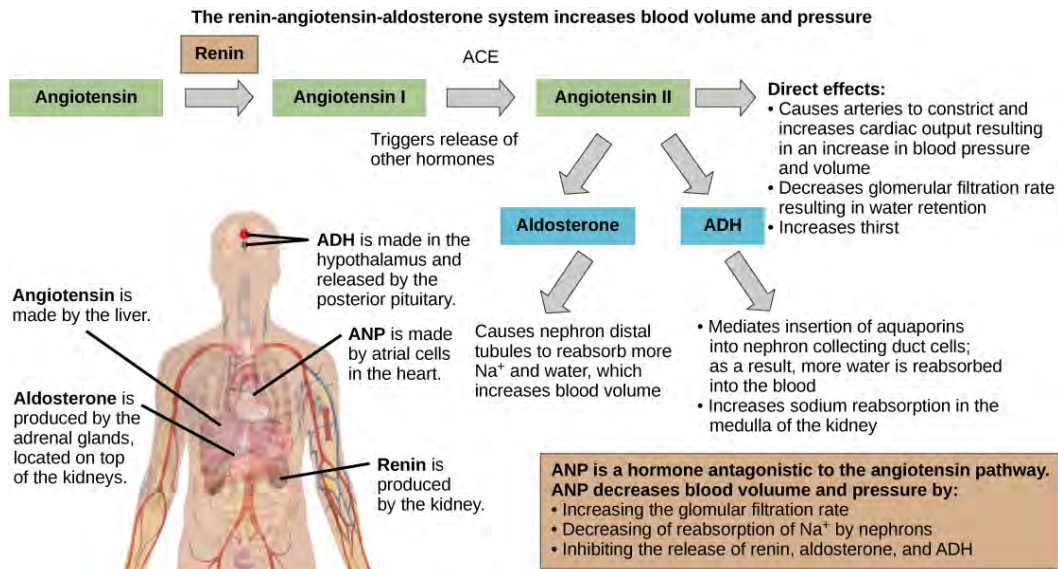


Figure 41.15 The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system increases blood pressure and volume. The hormone ANP has antagonistic effects. (credit: modification of work by Mikael Häggström)

Mineralocorticoids

Mineralocorticoids are hormones synthesized by the adrenal cortex that affect osmotic balance. Aldosterone is a mineralocorticoid that regulates sodium levels in the blood. Almost all of the sodium in the blood is reclaimed by the renal tubules under the influence of aldosterone. Because sodium is always reabsorbed by active transport and water follows sodium to maintain osmotic balance, aldosterone manages not only sodium levels but also the water levels in body fluids. In contrast, the aldosterone also stimulates potassium secretion concurrently with sodium reabsorption. In contrast, absence of aldosterone means that no sodium gets reabsorbed in the renal tubules and all of it gets excreted in the urine. In addition, the daily dietary potassium load is not secreted and the retention of K^+ can cause a dangerous increase in plasma K^+ concentration. Patients who have Addison's disease have a failing adrenal cortex and cannot produce aldosterone. They lose sodium in their urine constantly, and if the supply is not replenished, the consequences can be fatal.

Antidiuretic Hormone

As previously discussed, antidiuretic hormone or ADH (also called **vasopressin**), as the name suggests, helps the body conserve water when body fluid volume, especially that of blood, is low. It is formed by the hypothalamus and is stored and released from the posterior pituitary. It acts by inserting aquaporins in the collecting ducts and promotes reabsorption of water. ADH also acts as a vasoconstrictor and increases blood pressure during hemorrhaging.

Atrial Natriuretic Peptide Hormone

The atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP) lowers blood pressure by acting as a **vasodilator**. It is released by cells in the atrium of the heart in response to high blood pressure and in patients with sleep apnea. ANP affects salt release, and because water passively follows salt to maintain osmotic balance, it also has a diuretic effect. ANP also prevents sodium reabsorption by the renal tubules, decreasing water reabsorption (thus acting as a diuretic) and lowering blood pressure. Its actions suppress the actions of aldosterone, ADH, and renin.

KEY TERMS

afferent arteriole arteriole that branches from the cortical radiate artery and enters the glomerulus

ammonia compound made of one nitrogen atom and three hydrogen atoms

ammonotelic describes an animal that excretes ammonia as the primary waste material

angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) enzyme that converts angiotensin I to angiotensin II

angiotensin I product in the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone pathway

angiotensin II molecule that affects different organs to increase blood pressure

anti-diuretic hormone (ADH) hormone that prevents the loss of water

antioxidant agent that prevents cell destruction by reactive oxygen species

arcuate artery artery that branches from the interlobar artery and arches over the base of the renal pyramids

ascending limb part of the loop of Henle that ascends from the renal medulla to the renal cortex

blood urea nitrogen (BUN) estimate of urea in the blood and an indicator of kidney function

Bowman's capsule structure that encloses the glomerulus

calyx structure that connects the renal pelvis to the renal medulla

cortex (animal) outer layer of an organ like the kidney or adrenal gland

cortical nephron nephron that lies in the renal cortex

cortical radiate artery artery that radiates from the arcuate arteries into the renal cortex

countercurrent exchanger peritubular capillary network that allows exchange of solutes and water from the renal tubules

countercurrent multiplier osmotic gradient in the renal medulla that is responsible for concentration of urine

descending limb part of the loop of Henle that descends from the renal cortex into the renal medulla

distal convoluted tubule (DCT) part of the renal tubule that is the most distant from the glomerulus

efferent arteriole arteriole that exits from the glomerulus

electrolyte solute that breaks down into ions when dissolved in water

flame cell (also, protonephridia) excretory cell found in flatworms

glomerular filtration filtration of blood in the glomerular capillary network into the glomerulus

glomerular filtration rate (GFR) amount of filtrate formed by the glomerulus per minute

glomerulus (renal) part of the renal corpuscle that contains the capillary network

hilum region in the renal pelvis where blood vessels, nerves, and ureters bunch before entering or exiting the kidney

inferior vena cava one of the main veins in the human body

interlobar artery artery that branches from the segmental artery and travels in between the renal lobes

juxtaglomerular cell cell in the afferent and efferent arterioles that responds to stimuli from the macula densa

juxtamedullary nephron nephron that lies in the cortex but close to the renal medulla

kidney organ that performs excretory and osmoregulatory functions

lobes of the kidney renal pyramid along with the adjoining cortical region

loop of Henle part of the renal tubule that loops into the renal medulla

macula densa group of cells that senses changes in sodium ion concentration; present in parts of the renal tubule and collecting ducts

Malpighian tubule excretory tubules found in arthropods

medulla middle layer of an organ like the kidney or adrenal gland

microvilli cellular processes that increase the surface area of cells

molality number of moles of solute per kilogram of solvent

molarity number of moles of solute per liter of solution

mole gram equivalent of the molecular weight of a substance

nephridia excretory structures found in annelids

nephridiopore pore found at the end of nephridia

nephron functional unit of the kidney

non-electrolyte solute that does not break down into ions when dissolved in water

osmoconformer organism that changes its tonicity based on its environment

osmoregulation mechanism by which water and solute concentrations are maintained at desired levels

osmoregulator organism that maintains its tonicity irrespective of its environment

osmotic balance balance of the amount of water and salt input and output to and from a biological system without disturbing the desired osmotic pressure and solute concentration in every compartment

osmotic pressure pressure exerted on a membrane to equalize solute concentration on either side

perirenal fat capsule fat layer that suspends the kidneys

peritubular capillary network capillary network that surrounds the renal tubule after the efferent artery exits the glomerulus

proximal convoluted tubule (PCT) part of the renal tubule that lies close to the glomerulus

renal artery branch of the artery that enters the kidney

renal capsule layer that encapsulates the kidneys

renal column area of the kidney through which the interlobar arteries travel in the process of supplying blood to the renal lobes

renal corpuscle glomerulus and the Bowman's capsule together

renal fascia connective tissue that supports the kidneys

renal pelvis region in the kidney where the calyces join the ureters

renal pyramid conical structure in the renal medulla

- renal tubule** tubule of the nephron that arises from the glomerulus
- renal vein** branch of a vein that exits the kidney and joins the inferior vena cava
- renin-angiotensin-aldosterone** biochemical pathway that activates angiotensin II, which increases blood pressure
- segmental artery** artery that branches from the renal artery
- semi-permeable membrane** membrane that allows only certain solutes to pass through
- transport maximum** maximum amount of solute that can be transported out of the renal tubules during reabsorption
- tubular reabsorption** reclamation of water and solutes that got filtered out in the glomerulus
- tubular secretion** process of secretion of wastes that do not get reabsorbed
- urea cycle** pathway by which ammonia is converted to urea
- ureotelic** describes animals that secrete urea as the primary nitrogenous waste material
- ureter** urine-bearing tube coming out of the kidney; carries urine to the bladder
- uric acid** byproduct of ammonia metabolism in birds, insects, and reptiles
- urinary bladder** structure that the ureters empty the urine into; stores urine
- urine** filtrate produced by kidneys that gets excreted out of the body
- vasa recta** peritubular network that surrounds the loop of Henle of the juxtamedullary nephrons
- vasodilator** compound that increases the diameter of blood vessels
- vasopressin** another name for anti-diuretic hormone

CHAPTER SUMMARY

41.1 Osmoregulation and Osmotic Balance

Solute concentrations across a semi-permeable membranes influence the movement of water and solutes across the membrane. It is the number of solute molecules and not the molecular size that is important in osmosis. Osmoregulation and osmotic balance are important bodily functions, resulting in water and salt balance. Not all solutes can pass through a semi-permeable membrane. Osmosis is the movement of water across the membrane. Osmosis occurs to equalize the number of solute molecules across a semi-permeable membrane by the movement of water to the side of higher solute concentration. Facilitated diffusion utilizes protein channels to move solute molecules from areas of higher to lower concentration while active transport mechanisms are required to move solutes against concentration gradients. Osmolarity is measured in units of milliequivalents or milliosmoles, both of which take into consideration the number of solute particles and the charge on them. Fish that live in fresh water or saltwater adapt by being osmoregulators or osmoconformers.

41.2 The Kidneys and Osmoregulatory Organs

The kidneys are the main osmoregulatory organs in mammalian systems; they function to filter blood and maintain the osmolarity of body fluids at 300 mOsm. They are surrounded by three layers and are made up internally of three distinct regions—the cortex, medulla, and pelvis.

The blood vessels that transport blood into and out of the kidneys arise from and merge with the aorta and inferior vena cava, respectively. The renal arteries branch out from the aorta and enter the kidney where they further divide into segmental, interlobar, arcuate, and cortical radiate arteries.

The nephron is the functional unit of the kidney, which actively filters blood and generates urine. The nephron is made up of the renal corpuscle and renal tubule. Cortical nephrons are found in the renal cortex, while juxtamedullary nephrons are found in the renal cortex close to the renal medulla. The

nephron filters and exchanges water and solutes with two sets of blood vessels and the tissue fluid in the kidneys.

There are three steps in the formation of urine: glomerular filtration, which occurs in the glomerulus; tubular reabsorption, which occurs in the renal tubules; and tubular secretion, which also occurs in the renal tubules.

41.3 Excretion Systems

Many systems have evolved for excreting wastes that are simpler than the kidney and urinary systems of vertebrate animals. The simplest system is that of contractile vacuoles present in microorganisms. Flame cells and nephridia in worms perform excretory functions and maintain osmotic balance. Some insects have evolved Malpighian tubules to excrete wastes and maintain osmotic balance.

41.4 Nitrogenous Wastes

Ammonia is the waste produced by metabolism of nitrogen-containing compounds like proteins and nucleic acids. While aquatic animals can easily excrete ammonia into their watery surroundings, terrestrial animals have evolved special mechanisms to eliminate the toxic ammonia from their systems. Urea is the major byproduct of ammonia metabolism in vertebrate animals. Uric acid is the major byproduct of ammonia metabolism in birds, terrestrial arthropods, and reptiles.

41.5 Hormonal Control of Osmoregulatory Functions

Hormonal cues help the kidneys synchronize the osmotic needs of the body. Hormones like epinephrine, norepinephrine, renin-angiotensin, aldosterone, anti-diuretic hormone, and atrial natriuretic peptide help regulate the needs of the body as well as the communication between the different organ systems.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 41.5** Which of the following statements about the kidney is false?
 - The renal pelvis drains into the ureter.
 - The renal pyramids are in the medulla.
 - The cortex covers the capsule.
 - Nephrons are in the renal cortex.
- Figure 41.6** Which of the following statements about the nephron is false?
 - The collecting duct empties into the distal convoluted tubule.
 - The Bowman's capsule surrounds the glomerulus.
 - The loop of Henle is between the proximal and distal convoluted tubules.
 - The loop of Henle empties into the distal convoluted tubule.
- Figure 41.8** Loop diuretics are drugs sometimes used to treat hypertension. These drugs inhibit the reabsorption of Na^+ and Cl^- ions by the ascending limb of the loop of Henle. A side effect is that they increase urination. Why do you think this is the case?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- When a dehydrated human patient needs to be given fluids intravenously, he or she is given:
 - water, which is hypotonic with respect to body fluids
 - saline at a concentration that is isotonic with respect to body fluids
 - glucose because it is a non-electrolyte
 - blood
- Cells in a hypertonic solution tend to:
 - shrink due to water loss
 - swell due to water gain
 - stay the same size due to water moving into and out of the cell at the same rate
 - none of the above
- The macula densa is/are:
 - present in the renal medulla.
 - dense tissue present in the outer layer of the kidney.
 - cells present in the DCT and collecting tubules.
 - present in blood capillaries.

- 8.** The osmolarity of body fluids is maintained at _____.
- 100 mOsm
 - 300 mOsm
 - 1000 mOsm
 - it is not constantly maintained
- 9.** The gland located at the top of the kidney is the _____ gland.
- adrenal
 - pituitary
 - thyroid
 - thymus
- 10.** Active transport of K^+ in Malpighian tubules ensures that:
- water follows K^+ to make urine
 - osmotic balance is maintained between waste matter and bodily fluids
 - both a and b
 - neither a nor b
- 11.** Contractile vacuoles in microorganisms:
- exclusively perform an excretory function
 - can perform many functions, one of which is excretion of metabolic wastes
 - originate from the cell membrane
 - both b and c
- 12.** Flame cells are primitive excretory organs found in _____.
- arthropods
 - annelids
 - mammals
 - flatworms
- 13.** BUN is _____.
- blood urea nitrogen
 - blood uric acid nitrogen
 - an indicator of blood volume
 - an indicator of blood pressure
- 14.** Human beings accumulate _____ before excreting nitrogenous waste.
- nitrogen
 - ammonia
 - urea
 - uric acid
- 15.** Renin is made by _____.
- granular cells of the juxtaglomerular apparatus
 - the kidneys
 - the nephrons
 - All of the above.
- 16.** Patients with Addison's disease _____.
- retain water
 - retain salts
 - lose salts and water
 - have too much aldosterone
- 17.** Which hormone elicits the “fight or flight” response?
- epinephrine
 - mineralcorticoids
 - anti-diuretic hormone
 - thyroxine

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 18.** Why is excretion important in order to achieve osmotic balance?
- 19.** Why do electrolyte ions move across membranes by active transport?
- 20.** Why are the loop of Henle and vasa recta important for the formation of concentrated urine?
- 21.** Describe the structure of the kidney.
- 22.** Why might specialized organs have evolved for excretion of wastes?
- 23.** Explain two different excretory systems other than the kidneys.
- 24.** In terms of evolution, why might the urea cycle have evolved in organisms?
- 25.** Compare and contrast the formation of urea and uric acid.
- 26.** Describe how hormones regulate blood pressure, blood volume, and kidney function.
- 27.** How does the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone mechanism function? Why is it controlled by the kidneys?

42 | THE IMMUNE SYSTEM

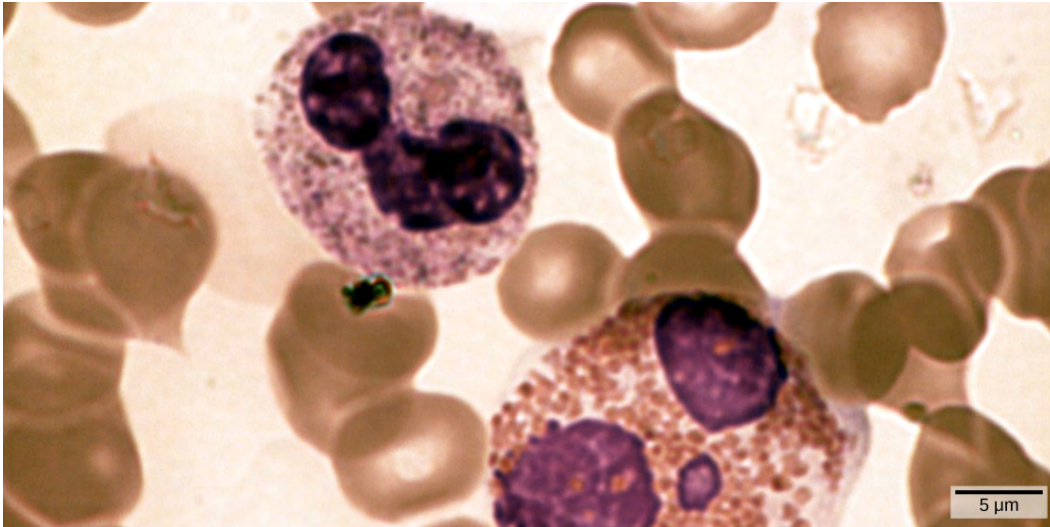


Figure 42.1 In this compound light micrograph purple-stained neutrophil (upper left) and eosinophil (lower right) are white blood cells that float among red blood cells in this blood smear. Neutrophils provide an early, rapid, and nonspecific defense against invading pathogens. Eosinophils play a variety of roles in the immune response. Red blood cells are about 7–8 μm in diameter, and a neutrophil is about 10–12 μm . (credit: modification of work by Dr. David Csaba)

Chapter Outline

42.1: Innate Immune Response

42.2: Adaptive Immune Response

42.3: Antibodies

42.4: Disruptions in the Immune System

Introduction

The environment consists of numerous **pathogens**, which are agents, usually microorganisms, that cause diseases in their hosts. A **host** is the organism that is invaded and often harmed by a pathogen. Pathogens include bacteria, protists, fungi and other infectious organisms. We are constantly exposed to pathogens in food and water, on surfaces, and in the air. Mammalian immune systems evolved for protection from such pathogens; they are composed of an extremely diverse array of specialized cells and soluble molecules that coordinate a rapid and flexible defense system capable of providing protection from a majority of these disease agents.

Components of the immune system constantly search the body for signs of pathogens. When pathogens are found, immune factors are mobilized to the site of an infection. The immune factors identify the nature of the pathogen, strengthen the corresponding cells and molecules to combat it efficiently, and then halt the immune response after the infection is cleared to avoid unnecessary host cell damage. The immune system can remember pathogens to which it has been exposed to create a more efficient response upon re-exposure. This memory can last several decades. Features of the immune system, such as pathogen identification, specific response, amplification, retreat, and remembrance are essential for survival against pathogens. The immune response can be classified as either innate or active. The innate immune response is always present and attempts to defend against all pathogens rather than focusing on

specific ones. Conversely, the adaptive immune response stores information about past infections and mounts pathogen-specific defenses.

42.1 | Innate Immune Response

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe physical and chemical immune barriers
- Explain immediate and induced innate immune responses
- Discuss natural killer cells
- Describe major histocompatibility class I molecules
- Summarize how the proteins in a complement system function to destroy extracellular pathogens

The immune system comprises both innate and adaptive immune responses. **Innate immunity** occurs naturally because of genetic factors or physiology; it is not induced by infection or vaccination but works to reduce the workload for the adaptive immune response. Both the innate and adaptive levels of the immune response involve secreted proteins, receptor-mediated signaling, and intricate cell-to-cell communication. The innate immune system developed early in animal evolution, roughly a billion years ago, as an essential response to infection. Innate immunity has a limited number of specific targets: any pathogenic threat triggers a consistent sequence of events that can identify the type of pathogen and either clear the infection independently or mobilize a highly specialized adaptive immune response. For example, tears and mucus secretions contain microbicidal factors.

Physical and Chemical Barriers

Before any immune factors are triggered, the skin functions as a continuous, impassable barrier to potentially infectious pathogens. Pathogens are killed or inactivated on the skin by desiccation (drying out) and by the skin's acidity. In addition, beneficial microorganisms that coexist on the skin compete with invading pathogens, preventing infection. Regions of the body that are not protected by skin (such as the eyes and mucus membranes) have alternative methods of defense, such as tears and mucus secretions that trap and rinse away pathogens, and cilia in the nasal passages and respiratory tract that push the mucus with the pathogens out of the body. Throughout the body are other defenses, such as the low pH of the stomach (which inhibits the growth of pathogens), blood proteins that bind and disrupt bacterial cell membranes, and the process of urination (which flushes pathogens from the urinary tract).

Despite these barriers, pathogens may enter the body through skin abrasions or punctures, or by collecting on mucosal surfaces in large numbers that overcome the mucus or cilia. Some pathogens have evolved specific mechanisms that allow them to overcome physical and chemical barriers. When pathogens do enter the body, the innate immune system responds with inflammation, pathogen engulfment, and secretion of immune factors and proteins.

Pathogen Recognition

An infection may be intracellular or extracellular, depending on the pathogen. All viruses infect cells and replicate within those cells (intracellularly), whereas bacteria and other parasites may replicate intracellularly or extracellularly, depending on the species. The innate immune system must respond accordingly: by identifying the extracellular pathogen and/or by identifying host cells that have already been infected. When a pathogen enters the body, cells in the blood and lymph detect the specific **pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs)** on the pathogen's surface. PAMPs are carbohydrate, polypeptide, and nucleic acid "signatures" that are expressed by viruses, bacteria, and parasites but which differ from molecules on host cells. The immune system has specific cells, described in **Figure 42.2** and shown in **Figure 42.3**, with receptors that recognize these PAMPs. A **macrophage** is a large phagocytic cell that engulfs foreign particles and pathogens. Macrophages recognize PAMPs via complementary **pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)**. PRRs are molecules on macrophages and dendritic cells which are in contact with the external environment. A **monocyte** is a type of white blood cell that circulates in the blood and lymph and differentiates into macrophages after it moves into infected tissue. Dendritic cells bind molecular signatures of pathogens and promote pathogen engulfment and destruction. Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are a type of PRR that recognizes molecules that are shared by pathogens but distinguishable from host molecules). TLRs are present in invertebrates as well as

vertebrates, and appear to be one of the most ancient components of the immune system. TLRs have also been identified in the mammalian nervous system.



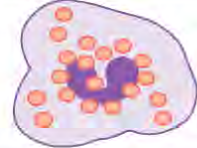



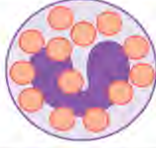

Cell type	Characteristics	Location	Image
Mast cell	Dilates blood vessels and induces inflammation through release of histamines and heparin. Recruits macrophages and neutrophils. Involved in wound healing and defense against pathogens but can also be responsible for allergic reactions.	Connective tissues, mucous membranes	
Macrophage	Phagocytic cell that consumes foreign pathogens and cancer cells. Stimulates response of other immune cells.	Migrates from blood vessels into tissues.	
Natural killer cell	Kills tumor cells and virus-infected cells.	Circulates in blood and migrates into tissues.	
Dendritic cell	Presents antigens on its surface, thereby triggering adaptive immunity.	Present in epithelial tissue, including skin, lung and tissues of the digestive tract. Migrates to lymph nodes upon activation.	
Monocyte	Differentiates into macrophages and dendritic cells in response to inflammation.	Stored in spleen, moves through blood vessels to infected tissues.	
Neutrophil	First responders at the site of infection or trauma, this abundant phagocytic cell represents 50-60 percent of all leukocytes. Releases toxins that kill or inhibit bacteria and fungi and recruits other immune cells to the site of infection.	Migrates from blood vessels into tissues.	
Basophil	Responsible for defense against parasites. Releases histamines that cause inflammation and may be responsible for allergic reactions.	Circulates in blood and migrates to tissues.	
Eosinophil	Releases toxins that kill bacteria and parasites but also causes tissue damage.	Circulates in blood and migrates to tissues.	

Figure 42.2 The characteristics and location of cells involved in the innate immune system are described. (credit: modification of work by NIH)

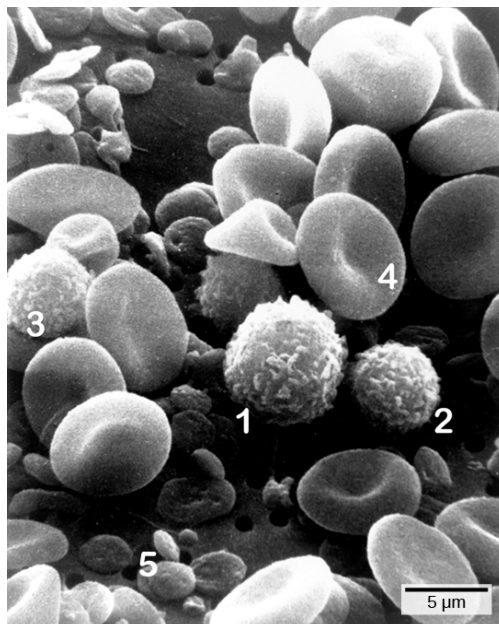


Figure 42.3 Cells of the blood include (1) monocytes, (2) lymphocytes, (3) neutrophils, (4) red blood cells, and (5) platelets. Note the very similar morphologies of the leukocytes (1, 2, 3). (credit: modification of work by Bruce Wetzel, Harry Schaefer, NCI; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

Cytokine Release Affect

The binding of PRRs with PAMPs triggers the release of cytokines, which signal that a pathogen is present and needs to be destroyed along with any infected cells. A **cytokine** is a chemical messenger that regulates cell differentiation (form and function), proliferation (production), and gene expression to affect immune responses. At least 40 types of cytokines exist in humans that differ in terms of the cell type that produces them, the cell type that responds to them, and the changes they produce. One type cytokine, interferon, is illustrated in **Figure 42.4**.

One subclass of cytokines is the interleukin (IL), so named because they mediate interactions between leukocytes (white blood cells). Interleukins are involved in bridging the innate and adaptive immune responses. In addition to being released from cells after PAMP recognition, cytokines are released by the infected cells which bind to nearby uninfected cells and induce those cells to release cytokines, which results in a cytokine burst.

A second class of early-acting cytokines is interferons, which are released by infected cells as a warning to nearby uninfected cells. One of the functions of an **interferon** is to inhibit viral replication. They also have other important functions, such as tumor surveillance. Interferons work by signaling neighboring uninfected cells to destroy RNA and reduce protein synthesis, signaling neighboring infected cells to undergo apoptosis (programmed cell death), and activating immune cells.

In response to interferons, uninfected cells alter their gene expression, which increases the cells' resistance to infection. One effect of interferon-induced gene expression is a sharply reduced cellular protein synthesis. Virally infected cells produce more viruses by synthesizing large quantities of viral proteins. Thus, by reducing protein synthesis, a cell becomes resistant to viral infection.

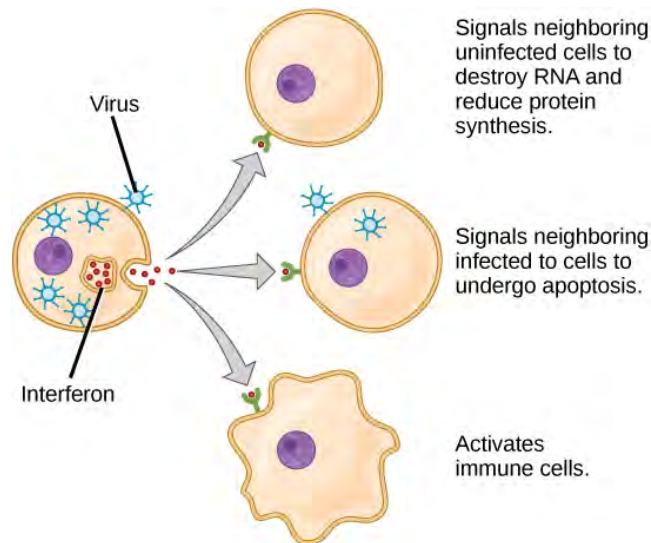


Figure 42.4 Interferons are cytokines that are released by a cell infected with a virus. Response of neighboring cells to interferon helps stem the infection.

Phagocytosis and Inflammation

The first cytokines to be produced are pro-inflammatory; that is, they encourage **inflammation**, the localized redness, swelling, heat, and pain that result from the movement of leukocytes and fluid through increasingly permeable capillaries to a site of infection. The population of leukocytes that arrives at an infection site depends on the nature of the infecting pathogen. Both macrophages and dendritic cells engulf pathogens and cellular debris through phagocytosis. A **neutrophil** is also a phagocytic leukocyte that engulfs and digests pathogens. Neutrophils, shown in **Figure 42.3**, are the most abundant leukocytes of the immune system. Neutrophils have a nucleus with two to five lobes, and they contain organelles, called lysosomes, that digest engulfed pathogens. An **eosinophil** is a leukocyte that works with other eosinophils to surround a parasite; it is involved in the allergic response and in protection against helminthes (parasitic worms).

Neutrophils and eosinophils are particularly important leukocytes that engulf large pathogens, such as bacteria and fungi. A **mast cell** is a leukocyte that produces inflammatory molecules, such as histamine, in response to large pathogens. A **basophil** is a leukocyte that, like a neutrophil, releases chemicals to stimulate the inflammatory response as illustrated in **Figure 42.5**. Basophils are also involved in allergy and hypersensitivity responses and induce specific types of inflammatory responses. Eosinophils and basophils produce additional inflammatory mediators to recruit more leukocytes. A hypersensitive immune response to harmless antigens, such as in pollen, often involves the release of histamine by basophils and mast cells.

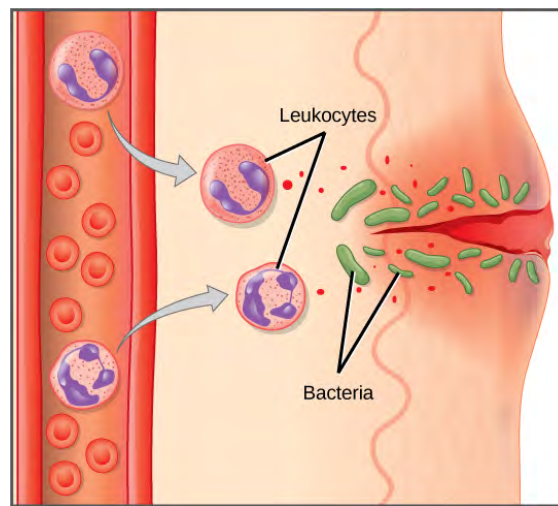


Figure 42.5 In response to a cut, mast cells secrete histamines that cause nearby capillaries to dilate. Neutrophils and monocytes leave the capillaries. Monocytes mature into macrophages. Neutrophils, dendritic cells and macrophages release chemicals to stimulate the inflammatory response. Neutrophils and macrophages also consume invading bacteria by phagocytosis.

Cytokines also send feedback to cells of the nervous system to bring about the overall symptoms of feeling sick, which include lethargy, muscle pain, and nausea. These effects may have evolved because the symptoms encourage the individual to rest and prevent them from spreading the infection to others. Cytokines also increase the core body temperature, causing a fever, which causes the liver to withhold iron from the blood. Without iron, certain pathogens, such as some bacteria, are unable to replicate; this is called nutritional immunity.



Watch this 23-second stop-motion **video** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/conidia>) showing a neutrophil that searches for and engulfs fungus spores during an elapsed time of about 79 minutes.

Natural Killer Cells

Lymphocytes are leukocytes that are histologically identifiable by their large, darkly staining nuclei; they are small cells with very little cytoplasm, as shown in **Figure 42.6**. Infected cells are identified and destroyed by **natural killer (NK) cells**, lymphocytes that can kill cells infected with viruses or tumor cells (abnormal cells that uncontrollably divide and invade other tissue). T cells and B cells of the adaptive immune system also are classified as lymphocytes. **T cells** are lymphocytes that mature in the thymus gland, and **B cells** are lymphocytes that mature in the bone marrow. NK cells identify intracellular infections, especially from viruses, by the altered expression of **major histocompatibility class (MHC) I molecules** on the surface of infected cells. MHC I molecules are proteins on the surfaces of all nucleated cells, thus they are scarce on red blood cells and platelets which are non-nucleated. The function of MHC I molecules is to display fragments of proteins from the infectious agents within the cell to T-cells; healthy cells will be ignored, while “non-self” or foreign proteins will be attacked by the immune system. MHC II molecules are found mainly on cells containing antigens (“non-self proteins”) and on lymphocytes. **MHC II molecules** interact with helper T-cells to trigger the appropriate immune response, which may include the inflammatory response.

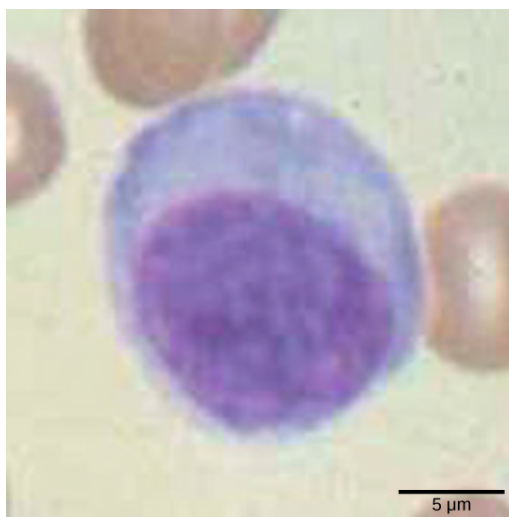


Figure 42.6 Lymphocytes, such as NK cells, are characterized by their large nuclei that actively absorb Wright stain and therefore appear dark colored under a microscope.

An infected cell (or a tumor cell) is usually incapable of synthesizing and displaying MHC I molecules appropriately. The metabolic resources of cells infected by some viruses produce proteins that interfere with MHC I processing and/or trafficking to the cell surface. The reduced MHC I on host cells varies from virus to virus and results from active inhibitors being produced by the viruses. This process can deplete host MHC I molecules on the cell surface, which NK cells detect as “unhealthy” or “abnormal” while searching for cellular MHC I molecules. Similarly, the dramatically altered gene expression of

tumor cells leads to expression of extremely deformed or absent MHC I molecules that also signal “unhealthy” or “abnormal.”

NK cells are always active; an interaction with normal, intact MHC I molecules on a healthy cell disables the killing sequence, and the NK cell moves on. After the NK cell detects an infected or tumor cell, its cytoplasm secretes granules comprised of **perforin**, a destructive protein that creates a pore in the target cell. Granzymes are released along with the perforin in the immunological synapse. A **granzyme** is a protease that digests cellular proteins and induces the target cell to undergo programmed cell death, or apoptosis. Phagocytic cells then digest the cell debris left behind. NK cells are constantly patrolling the body and are an effective mechanism for controlling potential infections and preventing cancer progression.

Complement

An array of approximately 20 types of soluble proteins, called a **complement system**, functions to destroy extracellular pathogens. Cells of the liver and macrophages synthesize complement proteins continuously; these proteins are abundant in the blood serum and are capable of responding immediately to infecting microorganisms. The complement system is so named because it is complementary to the antibody response of the adaptive immune system. Complement proteins bind to the surfaces of microorganisms and are particularly attracted to pathogens that are already bound by antibodies. Binding of complement proteins occurs in a specific and highly regulated sequence, with each successive protein being activated by cleavage and/or structural changes induced upon binding of the preceding protein(s). After the first few complement proteins bind, a cascade of sequential binding events follows in which the pathogen rapidly becomes coated in complement proteins.

Complement proteins perform several functions. The proteins serve as a marker to indicate the presence of a pathogen to phagocytic cells, such as macrophages and B cells, and enhance engulfment; this process is called **opsonization**. Certain complement proteins can combine to form attack complexes that open pores in microbial cell membranes. These structures destroy pathogens by causing their contents to leak, as illustrated in **Figure 42.7**.

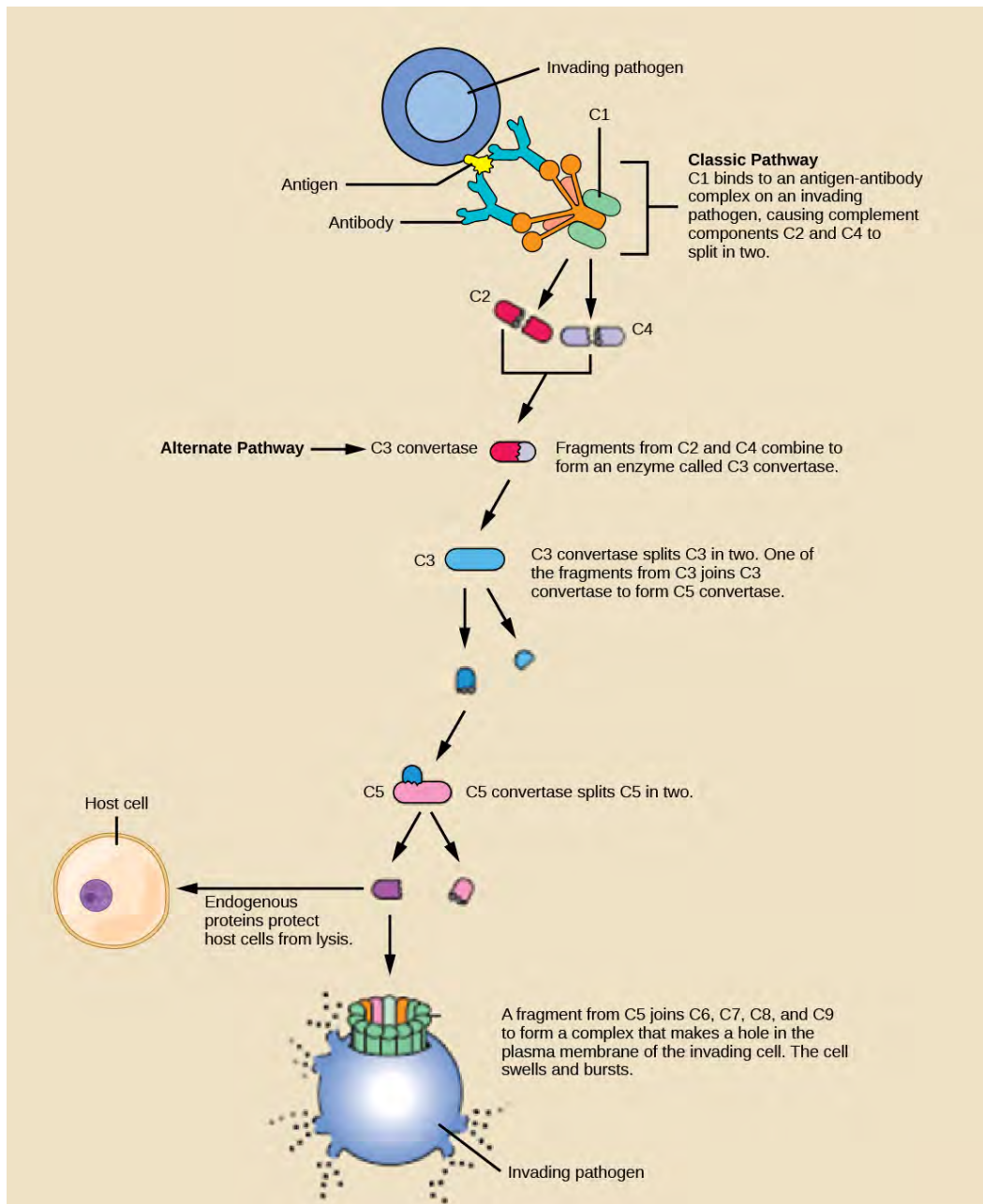


Figure 42.7 The classic pathway for the complement cascade involves the attachment of several initial complement proteins to an antibody-bound pathogen followed by rapid activation and binding of many more complement proteins and the creation of destructive pores in the microbial cell envelope and cell wall. The alternate pathway does not involve antibody activation. Rather, C3 convertase spontaneously breaks down C3. Endogenous regulatory proteins prevent the complement complex from binding to host cells. Pathogens lacking these regulatory proteins are lysed. (credit: modification of work by NIH)

42.2 | Adaptive Immune Response

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain adaptive immunity
- Compare and contrast adaptive and innate immunity
- Describe cell-mediated immune response and humoral immune response
- Describe immune tolerance

The adaptive, or acquired, immune response takes days or even weeks to become established—much longer than the innate response; however, adaptive immunity is more specific to pathogens and has memory. **Adaptive immunity** is an immunity that occurs after exposure to an antigen either from a pathogen or a vaccination. This part of the immune system is activated when the innate immune response is insufficient to control an infection. In fact, without information from the innate immune system, the adaptive response could not be mobilized. There are two types of adaptive responses: the **cell-mediated immune response**, which is carried out by T cells, and the **humoral immune response**, which is controlled by activated B cells and antibodies. Activated T cells and B cells that are specific to molecular structures on the pathogen proliferate and attack the invading pathogen. Their attack can kill pathogens directly or secrete antibodies that enhance the phagocytosis of pathogens and disrupt the infection. Adaptive immunity also involves a memory to provide the host with long-term protection from reinfection with the same type of pathogen; on re-exposure, this memory will facilitate an efficient and quick response.

Antigen-presenting Cells

Unlike NK cells of the innate immune system, B cells (B lymphocytes) are a type of white blood cell that gives rise to antibodies, whereas T cells (T lymphocytes) are a type of white blood cell that plays an important role in the immune response. T cells are a key component in the cell-mediated response—the specific immune response that utilizes T cells to neutralize cells that have been infected with viruses and certain bacteria. There are three types of T cells: cytotoxic, helper, and suppressor T cells. Cytotoxic T cells destroy virus-infected cells in the cell-mediated immune response, and helper T cells play a part in activating both the antibody and the cell-mediated immune responses. Suppressor T cells deactivate T cells and B cells when needed, and thus prevent the immune response from becoming too intense.

An **antigen** is a foreign or “non-self” macromolecule that reacts with cells of the immune system. Not all antigens will provoke a response. For instance, individuals produce innumerable “self” antigens and are constantly exposed to harmless foreign antigens, such as food proteins, pollen, or dust components. The suppression of immune responses to harmless macromolecules is highly regulated and typically prevents processes that could be damaging to the host, known as tolerance.

The innate immune system contains cells that detect potentially harmful antigens, and then inform the adaptive immune response about the presence of these antigens. An **antigen-presenting cell (APC)** is an immune cell that detects, engulfs, and informs the adaptive immune response about an infection. When a pathogen is detected, these APCs will phagocytose the pathogen and digest it to form many different fragments of the antigen. Antigen fragments will then be transported to the surface of the APC, where they will serve as an indicator to other immune cells. **Dendritic cells** are immune cells that process antigen material; they are present in the skin (Langerhans cells) and the lining of the nose, lungs, stomach, and intestines. Sometimes a dendritic cell presents on the surface of other cells to induce an immune response, thus functioning as an antigen-presenting cell. Macrophages also function as APCs. Before activation and differentiation, B cells can also function as APCs.

After phagocytosis by APCs, the phagocytic vesicle fuses with an intracellular lysosome forming phagolysosome. Within the phagolysosome, the components are broken down into fragments; the fragments are then loaded onto MHC class I or MHC class II molecules and are transported to the cell surface for antigen presentation, as illustrated in **Figure 42.8**. Note that T lymphocytes cannot properly respond to the antigen unless it is processed and embedded in an MHC II molecule. APCs express MHC on their surfaces, and when combined with a foreign antigen, these complexes signal a “non-self” invader. Once the fragment of antigen is embedded in the MHC II molecule, the immune cell can respond. Helper T- cells are one of the main lymphocytes that respond to antigen-presenting cells. Recall that all other nucleated cells of the body expressed MHC I molecules, which signal “healthy” or “normal.”

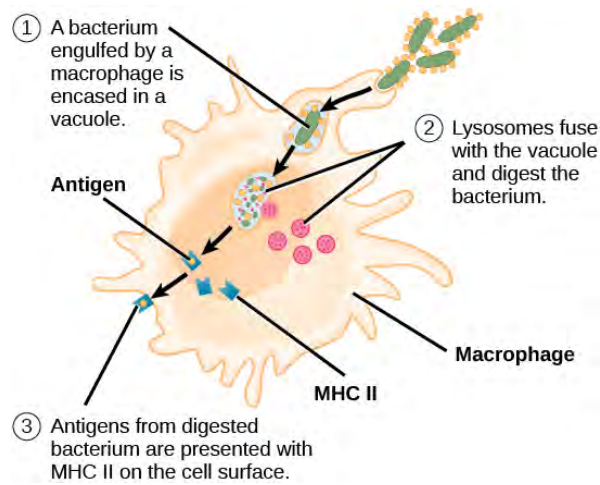


Figure 42.8 An APC, such as a macrophage, engulfs and digests a foreign bacterium. An antigen from the bacterium is presented on the cell surface in conjunction with an MHC II molecule. Lymphocytes of the adaptive immune response interact with antigen-embedded MHC II molecules to mature into functional immune cells.

LINK TO LEARNING



This [animation \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/immune_system\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/immune_system) from Rockefeller University shows how dendritic cells act as sentinels in the body's immune system.

T and B Lymphocytes

Lymphocytes in human circulating blood are approximately 80 to 90 percent T cells, shown in [Figure 42.9](#), and 10 to 20 percent B cells. Recall that the T cells are involved in the cell-mediated immune response, whereas B cells are part of the humoral immune response.

T cells encompass a heterogeneous population of cells with extremely diverse functions. Some T cells respond to APCs of the innate immune system, and indirectly induce immune responses by releasing cytokines. Other T cells stimulate B cells to prepare their own response. Another population of T cells detects APC signals and directly kills the infected cells. Other T cells are involved in suppressing inappropriate immune reactions to harmless or “self” antigens.

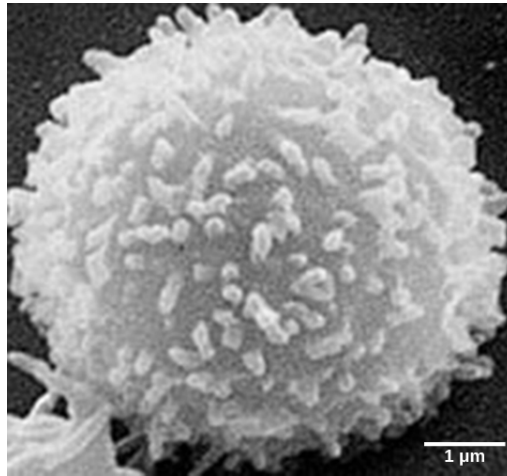


Figure 42.9 This scanning electron micrograph shows a T lymphocyte, which is responsible for the cell-mediated immune response. T cells are able to recognize antigens. (credit: modification of work by NCI; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

T and B cells exhibit a common theme of recognition/binding of specific antigens via a complementary receptor, followed by activation and self-amplification/maturation to specifically bind to the particular antigen of the infecting pathogen. T and B lymphocytes are also similar in that each cell only expresses one type of antigen receptor. Any individual may possess a population of T and B cells that together express a near limitless variety of antigen receptors that are capable of recognizing virtually any infecting pathogen. T and B cells are activated when they recognize small components of antigens, called **epitopes**, presented by APCs, illustrated in **Figure 42.10**. Note that recognition occurs at a specific epitope rather than on the entire antigen; for this reason, epitopes are known as “antigenic determinants.” In the absence of information from APCs, T and B cells remain inactive, or naïve, and are unable to prepare an immune response. The requirement for information from the APCs of innate immunity to trigger B cell or T cell activation illustrates the essential nature of the innate immune response to the functioning of the entire immune system.

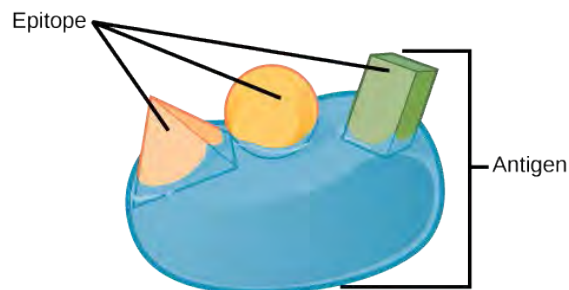


Figure 42.10 An antigen is a macromolecule that reacts with components of the immune system. A given antigen may contain several motifs that are recognized by immune cells. Each motif is an epitope. In this figure, the entire structure is an antigen, and the orange, salmon and green components projecting from it represent potential epitopes.

Naïve T cells can express one of two different molecules, CD4 or CD8, on their surface, as shown in **Figure 42.11**, and are accordingly classified as CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ cells. These molecules are important because they regulate how a T cell will interact with and respond to an APC. Naïve CD4⁺ cells bind APCs via their antigen-embedded MHC II molecules and are stimulated to become **helper T (T_H) lymphocytes**, cells that go on to stimulate B cells (or cytotoxic T cells) directly or secrete cytokines to inform more and various target cells about the pathogenic threat. In contrast, CD8⁺ cells engage antigen-embedded MHC I molecules on APCs and are stimulated to become **cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs)**, which directly kill infected cells by apoptosis and emit cytokines to amplify the immune response. The two populations of T cells have different mechanisms of immune protection, but both bind MHC molecules via their antigen receptors called T cell receptors (TCRs). The CD4 or CD8 surface molecules differentiate whether the TCR will engage an MHC II or an MHC I molecule. Because they assist in binding specificity, the CD4 and CD8 molecules are described as coreceptors.

art CONNECTION

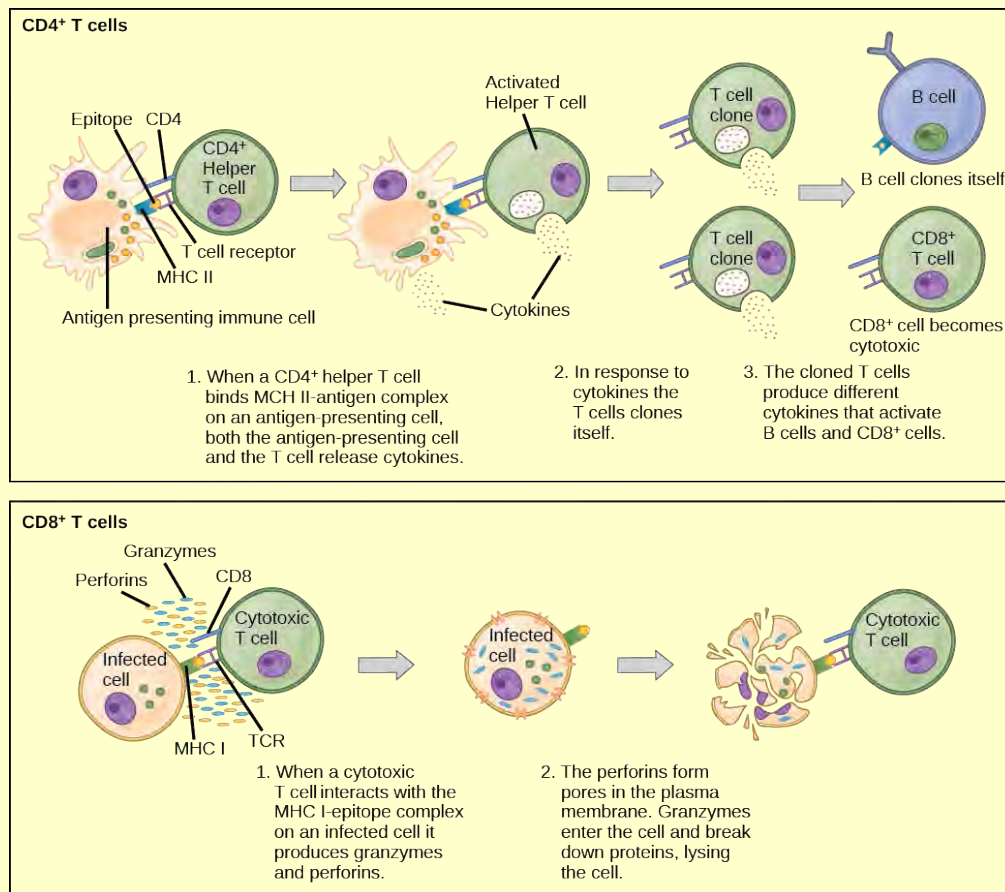


Figure 42.11 Naïve CD4⁺ T cells engage MHC II molecules on antigen-presenting cells (APCs) and become activated. Clones of the activated helper T cell, in turn, activate B cells and CD8⁺ T cells, which become cytotoxic T cells. Cytotoxic T cells kill infected cells.

Which of the following statements about T cells is false?

- Helper T cells release cytokines while cytotoxic T cells kill the infected cell.
- Helper T cells are CD4⁺, while cytotoxic T cells are CD8⁺.
- MHC II is a receptor found on most body cells, while MHC I is a receptor found on immune cells only.
- The T cell receptor is found on both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells.

Consider the innumerable possible antigens that an individual will be exposed to during a lifetime. The mammalian adaptive immune system is adept in responding appropriately to each antigen. Mammals have an enormous diversity of T cell populations, resulting from the diversity of TCRs. Each TCR consists of two polypeptide chains that span the T cell membrane, as illustrated in **Figure 42.12**; the chains are linked by a disulfide bridge. Each polypeptide chain is comprised of a constant domain and a variable domain: a domain, in this sense, is a specific region of a protein that may be regulatory or structural. The intracellular domain is involved in intracellular signaling. A single T cell will express thousands of identical copies of one specific TCR variant on its cell surface. The specificity of the adaptive immune system occurs because it synthesizes millions of different T cell populations, each expressing a TCR that differs in its variable domain. This TCR diversity is achieved by the mutation and recombination of genes that encode these receptors in stem cell precursors of T cells. The binding between an antigen-displaying MHC molecule and a complementary TCR “match” indicates that the adaptive immune system needs to activate and produce that specific T cell because its structure is appropriate to recognize and destroy the invading pathogen.

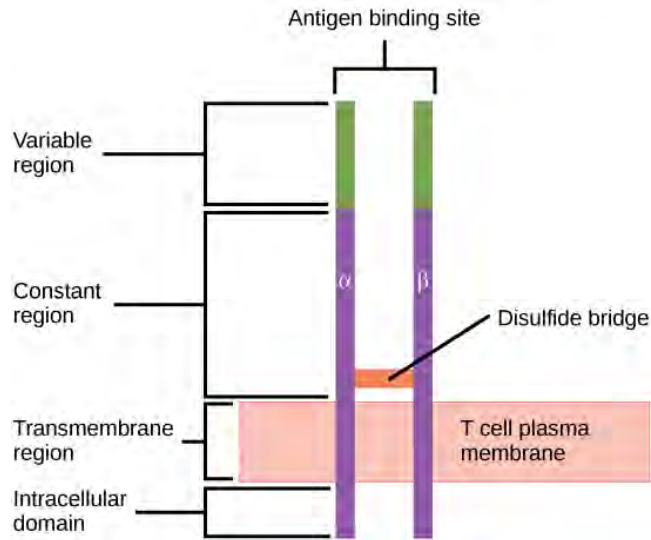


Figure 42.12 A T cell receptor spans the membrane and projects variable binding regions into the extracellular space to bind processed antigens via MHC molecules on APCs.

Helper T Lymphocytes

The T_H lymphocytes function indirectly to identify potential pathogens for other cells of the immune system. These cells are important for extracellular infections, such as those caused by certain bacteria, helminths, and protozoa. T_H lymphocytes recognize specific antigens displayed in the MHC II complexes of APCs. There are two major populations of T_H cells: T_H1 and T_H2 . T_H1 cells secrete cytokines to enhance the activities of macrophages and other T cells. T_H1 cells activate the action of cytotoxic T cells, as well as macrophages. T_H2 cells stimulate naïve B cells to destroy foreign invaders via antibody secretion. Whether a T_H1 or a T_H2 immune response develops depends on the specific types of cytokines secreted by cells of the innate immune system, which in turn depends on the nature of the invading pathogen.

The T_H1 -mediated response involves macrophages and is associated with inflammation. Recall the frontline defenses of macrophages involved in the innate immune response. Some intracellular bacteria, such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, have evolved to multiply in macrophages after they have been engulfed. These pathogens evade attempts by macrophages to destroy and digest the pathogen. When *M. tuberculosis* infection occurs, macrophages can stimulate naïve T cells to become T_H1 cells. These stimulated T cells secrete specific cytokines that send feedback to the macrophage to stimulate its digestive capabilities and allow it to destroy the colonizing *M. tuberculosis*. In the same manner, T_H1 -activated macrophages also become better suited to ingest and kill tumor cells. In summary; T_H1 responses are directed toward intracellular invaders while T_H2 responses are aimed at those that are extracellular.

B Lymphocytes

When stimulated by the T_H2 pathway, naïve B cells differentiate into antibody-secreting plasma cells. A **plasma cell** is an immune cell that secretes antibodies; these cells arise from B cells that were stimulated by antigens. Similar to T cells, naïve B cells initially are coated in thousands of B cell receptors (BCRs), which are membrane-bound forms of Ig (immunoglobulin, or an antibody). The B cell receptor has two heavy chains and two light chains connected by disulfide linkages. Each chain has a constant and a variable region; the latter is involved in antigen binding. Two other membrane proteins, Ig alpha and Ig beta, are involved in signaling. The receptors of any particular B cell, as shown in **Figure 42.13** are all the same, but the hundreds of millions of different B cells in an individual have distinct recognition domains that contribute to extensive diversity in the types of molecular structures to which they can bind. In this state, B cells function as APCs. They bind and engulf foreign antigens via their BCRs and then display processed antigens in the context of MHC II molecules to T_H2 cells. When a T_H2 cell detects that a B cell is bound to a relevant antigen, it secretes specific cytokines that induce the B cell to proliferate rapidly, which makes thousands of identical (clonal) copies of it, and then it synthesizes and secretes antibodies with the same antigen recognition pattern as the BCRs. The activation of B cells corresponding to one specific BCR variant and the dramatic proliferation of that variant is known as **clonal selection**. This phenomenon drastically, but briefly, changes the proportions of BCR variants expressed by the immune system, and shifts the balance toward BCRs specific to the infecting pathogen.

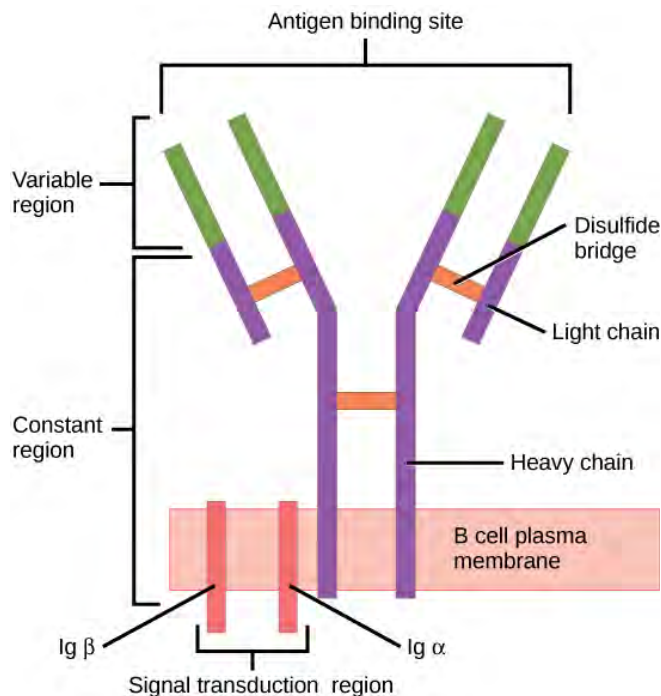


Figure 42.13 B cell receptors are embedded in the membranes of B cells and bind a variety of antigens through their variable regions. The signal transduction region transfers the signal into the cell.

T and B cells differ in one fundamental way: whereas T cells bind antigens that have been digested and embedded in MHC molecules by APCs, B cells function as APCs that bind intact antigens that have not been processed. Although T and B cells both react with molecules that are termed “antigens,” these lymphocytes actually respond to very different types of molecules. B cells must be able to bind intact antigens because they secrete antibodies that must recognize the pathogen directly, rather than digested remnants of the pathogen. Bacterial carbohydrate and lipid molecules can activate B cells independently from the T cells.

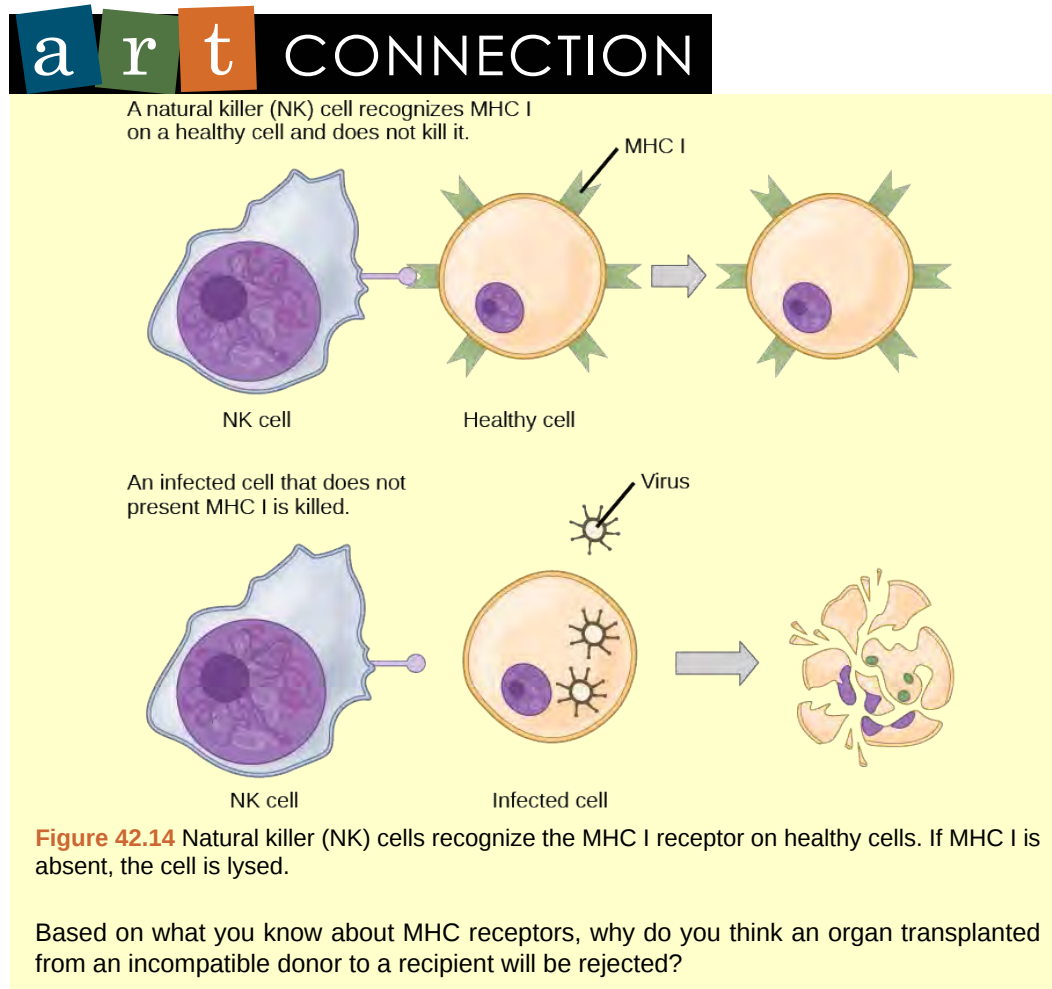
Cytotoxic T Lymphocytes

CTLs, a subclass of T cells, function to clear infections directly. The cell-mediated part of the adaptive immune system consists of CTLs that attack and destroy infected cells. CTLs are particularly important in protecting against viral infections; this is because viruses replicate within cells where they are shielded from extracellular contact with circulating antibodies. When APCs phagocytize pathogens and present MHC I-embedded antigens to naïve $CD8^+$ T cells that express complementary TCRs, the $CD8^+$ T cells become activated to proliferate according to clonal selection. These resulting CTLs then identify non-APCs displaying the same MHC I-embedded antigens (for example, viral proteins)—for example, the CTLs identify infected host cells.

Intracellularly, infected cells typically die after the infecting pathogen replicates to a sufficient concentration and lyses the cell, as many viruses do. CTLs attempt to identify and destroy infected cells before the pathogen can replicate and escape, thereby halting the progression of intracellular infections. CTLs also support NK lymphocytes to destroy early cancers. Cytokines secreted by the T_H1 response that stimulates macrophages also stimulate CTLs and enhance their ability to identify and destroy infected cells and tumors.

CTLs sense MHC I-embedded antigens by directly interacting with infected cells via their TCRs. Binding of TCRs with antigens activates CTLs to release perforin and granzyme, degradative enzymes that will induce apoptosis of the infected cell. Recall that this is a similar destruction mechanism to that used by NK cells. In this process, the CTL does not become infected and is not harmed by the secretion of perforin and granzymes. In fact, the functions of NK cells and CTLs are complementary and maximize the removal of infected cells, as illustrated in **Figure 42.14**. If the NK cell cannot identify the “missing self” pattern of down-regulated MHC I molecules, then the CTL can identify it by the complex of MHC I with foreign antigens, which signals “altered self.” Similarly, if the CTL cannot detect antigen-embedded MHC I because the receptors are depleted from the cell surface, NK cells will destroy the cell instead. CTLs also emit cytokines, such as interferons, that alter surface protein expression in other infected cells,

such that the infected cells can be easily identified and destroyed. Moreover, these interferons can also prevent virally infected cells from releasing virus particles.



Plasma cells and CTLs are collectively called **effector cells**: they represent differentiated versions of their naïve counterparts, and they are involved in bringing about the immune defense of killing pathogens and infected host cells.

Mucosal Surfaces and Immune Tolerance

The innate and adaptive immune responses discussed thus far comprise the systemic immune system (affecting the whole body), which is distinct from the mucosal immune system. Mucosal immunity is formed by mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue, which functions independently of the systemic immune system, and which has its own innate and adaptive components. **Mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT)**, illustrated in **Figure 42.15**, is a collection of lymphatic tissue that combines with epithelial tissue lining the mucosa throughout the body. This tissue functions as the immune barrier and response in areas of the body with direct contact to the external environment. The systemic and mucosal immune systems use many of the same cell types. Foreign particles that make their way to MALT are taken up by absorptive epithelial cells called M cells and delivered to APCs located directly below the mucosal tissue. M cells function in the transport described, and are located in the Peyer's patch, a lymphoid nodule. APCs of the mucosal immune system are primarily dendritic cells, with B cells and macrophages having minor roles. Processed antigens displayed on APCs are detected by T cells in the MALT and at various mucosal induction sites, such as the tonsils, adenoids, appendix, or the mesenteric lymph nodes of the intestine. Activated T cells then migrate through the lymphatic system and into the circulatory system to mucosal sites of infection.

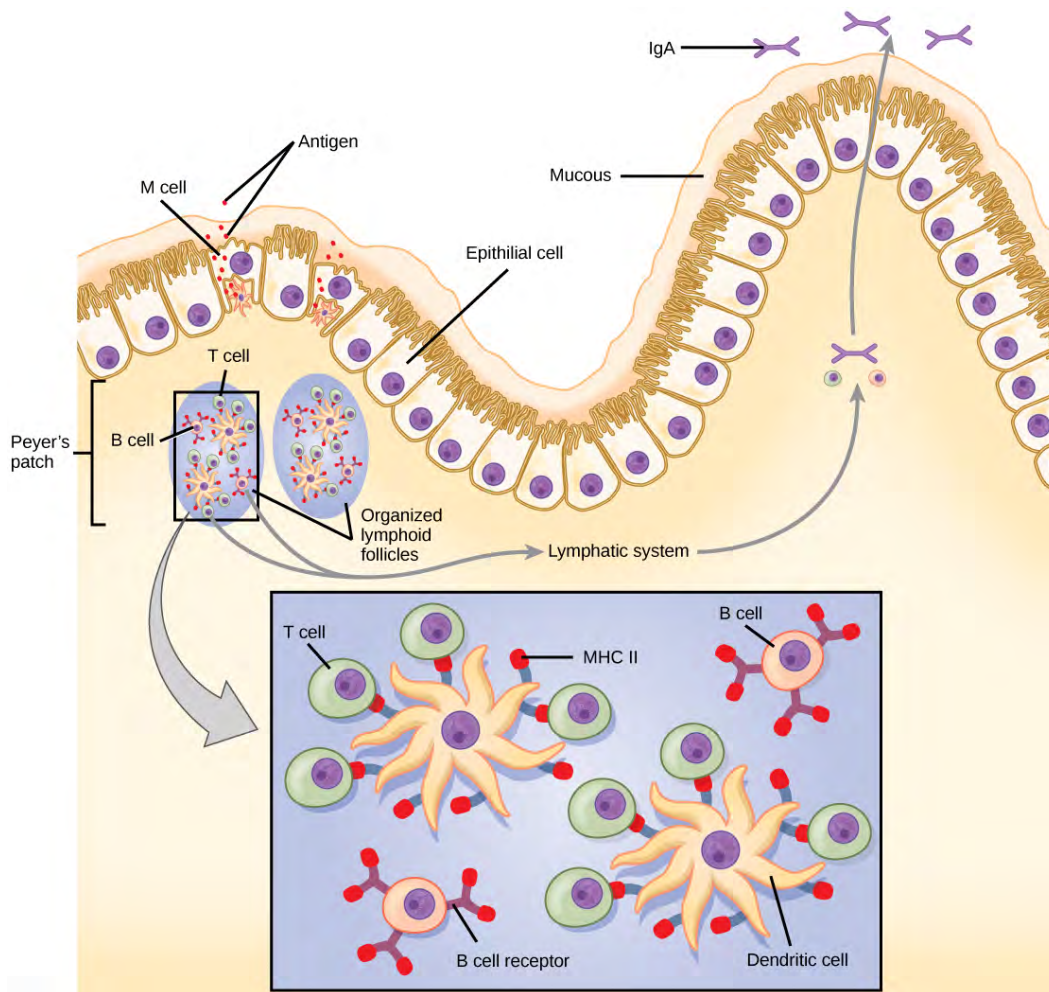


Figure 42.15 The topology and function of intestinal MALT is shown. Pathogens are taken up by M cells in the intestinal epithelium and excreted into a pocket formed by the inner surface of the cell. The pocket contains antigen-presenting cells such as dendritic cells, which engulf the antigens, then present them with MHC II molecules on the cell surface. The dendritic cells migrate to an underlying tissue called a Peyer's patch. Antigen-presenting cells, T cells, and B cells aggregate within the Peyer's patch, forming organized lymphoid follicles. There, some T cells and B cells are activated. Other antigen-loaded dendritic cells migrate through the lymphatic system where they activate B cells, T cells, and plasma cells in the lymph nodes. The activated cells then return to MALT tissue effector sites. IgA and other antibodies are secreted into the intestinal lumen.

MALT is a crucial component of a functional immune system because mucosal surfaces, such as the nasal passages, are the first tissues onto which inhaled or ingested pathogens are deposited. The mucosal tissue includes the mouth, pharynx, and esophagus, and the gastrointestinal, respiratory, and urogenital tracts.

The immune system has to be regulated to prevent wasteful, unnecessary responses to harmless substances, and more importantly so that it does not attack "self." The acquired ability to prevent an unnecessary or harmful immune response to a detected foreign substance known not to cause disease is described as **immune tolerance**. Immune tolerance is crucial for maintaining mucosal homeostasis given the tremendous number of foreign substances (such as food proteins) that APCs of the oral cavity, pharynx, and gastrointestinal mucosa encounter. Immune tolerance is brought about by specialized APCs in the liver, lymph nodes, small intestine, and lung that present harmless antigens to an exceptionally diverse population of **regulatory T (T_{reg}) cells**, specialized lymphocytes that suppress local inflammation and inhibit the secretion of stimulatory immune factors. The combined result of T_{reg} cells is to prevent immunologic activation and inflammation in undesired tissue compartments and to allow the immune system to focus on pathogens instead. In addition to promoting immune tolerance of harmless antigens, other subsets of T_{reg} cells are involved in the prevention of the **autoimmune response**, which is an inappropriate immune response to host cells or self-antigens. Another T_{reg} class suppresses immune responses to harmful pathogens after the infection has cleared to minimize host cell damage induced by inflammation and cell lysis.

Immunological Memory

The adaptive immune system possesses a memory component that allows for an efficient and dramatic response upon reinvasion of the same pathogen. Memory is handled by the adaptive immune system with little reliance on cues from the innate response. During the adaptive immune response to a pathogen that has not been encountered before, called a primary response, plasma cells secreting antibodies and differentiated T cells increase, then plateau over time. As B and T cells mature into effector cells, a subset of the naïve populations differentiates into B and T memory cells with the same antigen specificities, as illustrated in **Figure 42.16**.

A **memory cell** is an antigen-specific B or T lymphocyte that does not differentiate into effector cells during the primary immune response, but that can immediately become effector cells upon re-exposure to the same pathogen. During the primary immune response, memory cells do not respond to antigens and do not contribute to host defenses. As the infection is cleared and pathogenic stimuli subside, the effectors are no longer needed, and they undergo apoptosis. In contrast, the memory cells persist in the circulation.

art CONNECTION

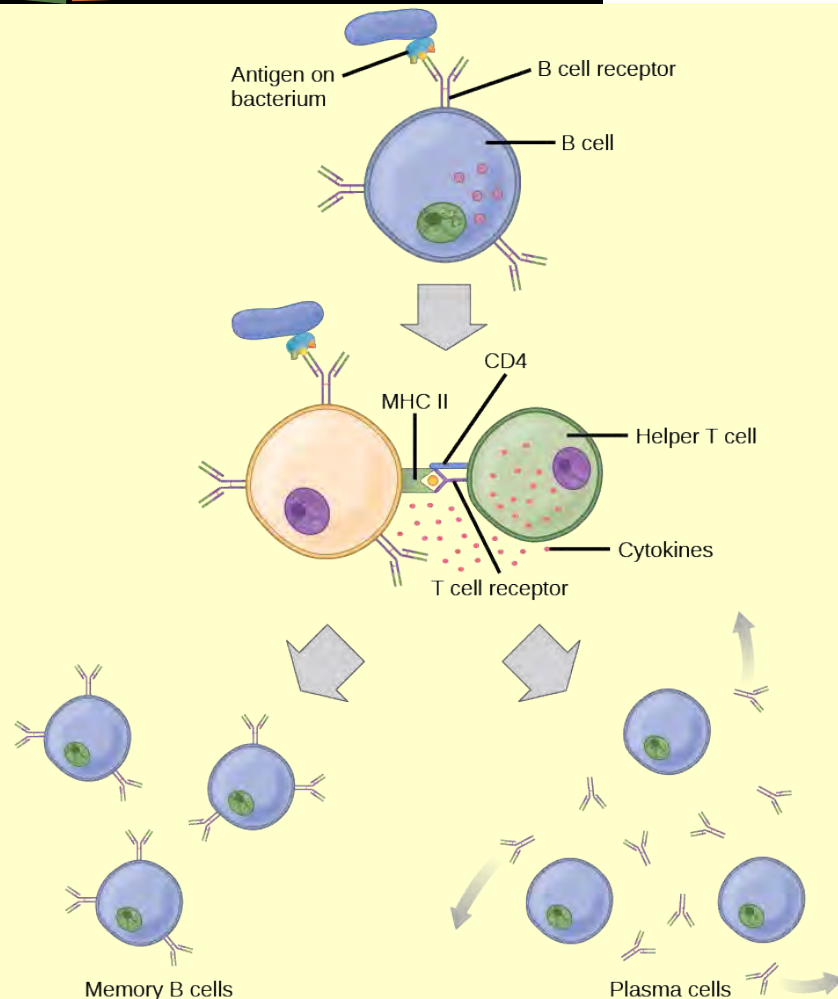


Figure 42.16 After initially binding an antigen to the B cell receptor (BCR), a B cell internalizes the antigen and presents it on MHC II. A helper T cell recognizes the MHC II–antigen complex and activates the B cell. As a result, memory B cells and plasma cells are made.

The Rh antigen is found on Rh-positive red blood cells. An Rh-negative female can usually carry an Rh-positive fetus to term without difficulty. However, if she has a second Rh-positive fetus, her body may launch an immune attack that causes hemolytic disease of the newborn. Why do you think hemolytic disease is only a problem during the second or subsequent pregnancies?

If the pathogen is never encountered again during the individual's lifetime, B and T memory cells will circulate for a few years or even several decades and will gradually die off, having never functioned as effector cells. However, if the host is re-exposed to the same pathogen type, circulating memory cells will immediately differentiate into plasma cells and CTLs without input from APCs or T_H cells. One reason the adaptive immune response is delayed is because it takes time for naïve B and T cells with the appropriate antigen specificities to be identified and activated. Upon reinfection, this step is skipped, and the result is a more rapid production of immune defenses. Memory B cells that differentiate into plasma cells output tens to hundreds-fold greater antibody amounts than were secreted during the primary response, as the graph in **Figure 42.17** illustrates. This rapid and dramatic antibody response may stop the infection before it can even become established, and the individual may not realize they had been exposed.

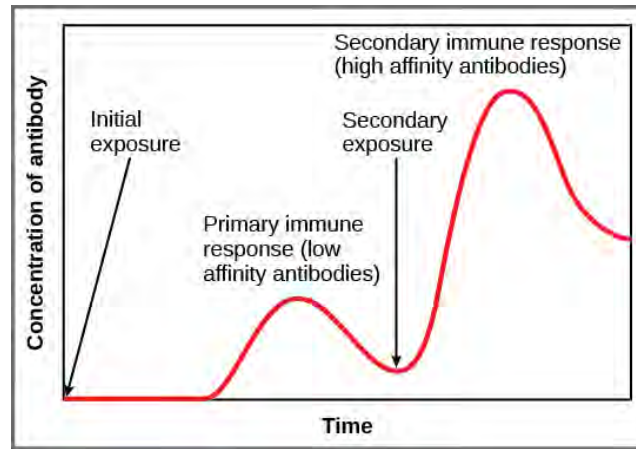


Figure 42.17 In the primary response to infection, antibodies are secreted first from plasma cells. Upon re-exposure to the same pathogen, memory cells differentiate into antibody-secreting plasma cells that output a greater amount of antibody for a longer period of time.

Vaccination is based on the knowledge that exposure to noninfectious antigens, derived from known pathogens, generates a mild primary immune response. The immune response to vaccination may not be perceived by the host as illness but still confers immune memory. When exposed to the corresponding pathogen to which an individual was vaccinated, the reaction is similar to a secondary exposure. Because each reinfection generates more memory cells and increased resistance to the pathogen, and because some memory cells die, certain vaccine courses involve one or more booster vaccinations to mimic repeat exposures: for instance, tetanus boosters are necessary every ten years because the memory cells only live that long.

Mucosal Immune Memory

A subset of T and B cells of the mucosal immune system differentiates into memory cells just as in the systemic immune system. Upon reinvasion of the same pathogen type, a pronounced immune response occurs at the mucosal site where the original pathogen deposited, but a collective defense is also organized within interconnected or adjacent mucosal tissue. For instance, the immune memory of an infection in the oral cavity would also elicit a response in the pharynx if the oral cavity was exposed to the same pathogen.

career CONNECTION

Vaccinologist

Vaccination (or immunization) involves the delivery, usually by injection as shown in **Figure 42.18**, of noninfectious antigen(s) derived from known pathogens. Other components, called adjuvants, are delivered in parallel to help stimulate the immune response. Immunological memory is the reason vaccines work. Ideally, the effect of vaccination is to elicit immunological memory, and thus resistance to specific pathogens without the individual having to experience an infection.



Figure 42.18 Vaccines are often delivered by injection into the arm. (credit: U.S. Navy Photographer's Mate Airman Apprentice Christopher D. Blachly)

Vaccinologists are involved in the process of vaccine development from the initial idea to the availability of the completed vaccine. This process can take decades, can cost millions of dollars, and can involve many obstacles along the way. For instance, injected vaccines stimulate the systemic immune system, eliciting humoral and cell-mediated immunity, but have little effect on the mucosal response, which presents a challenge because many pathogens are deposited and replicate in mucosal compartments, and the injection does not provide the most efficient immune memory for these disease agents. For this reason, vaccinologists are actively involved in developing new vaccines that are applied via intranasal, aerosol, oral, or transcutaneous (absorbed through the skin) delivery methods. Importantly, mucosal-administered vaccines elicit both mucosal and systemic immunity and produce the same level of disease resistance as injected vaccines.



Figure 42.19 The polio vaccine can be administered orally. (credit: modification of work by UNICEF Sverige)

Currently, a version of intranasal influenza vaccine is available, and the polio and typhoid vaccines can be administered orally, as shown in **Figure 42.19**. Similarly, the measles and rubella vaccines are being adapted to aerosol delivery using inhalation devices. Eventually, transgenic plants may be engineered to produce vaccine antigens that can be eaten to confer disease resistance. Other vaccines may be adapted to rectal or vaginal application to elicit immune responses in rectal, genitourinary, or reproductive mucosa. Finally, vaccine antigens may be adapted to transdermal application in which the skin is lightly scraped and microneedles are used to pierce the outermost layer. In addition to mobilizing the mucosal immune response, this new generation of vaccines may end the anxiety associated with injections and, in turn, improve patient participation.

Primary Centers of the Immune System

Although the immune system is characterized by circulating cells throughout the body, the regulation, maturation, and intercommunication of immune factors occur at specific sites. The blood circulates immune cells, proteins, and other factors through the body. Approximately 0.1 percent of all cells in the blood are leukocytes, which encompass monocytes (the precursor of macrophages) and lymphocytes. The majority of cells in the blood are erythrocytes (red blood cells). **Lymph** is a watery fluid that bathes tissues and organs with protective white blood cells and does not contain erythrocytes. Cells of the immune system can travel between the distinct lymphatic and blood circulatory systems, which are separated by interstitial space, by a process called extravasation (passing through to surrounding tissue).

The cells of the immune system originate from hematopoietic stem cells in the bone marrow. Cytokines stimulate these stem cells to differentiate into immune cells. B cell maturation occurs in the bone marrow, whereas naïve T cells transit from the bone marrow to the thymus for maturation. In the thymus, immature T cells that express TCRs complementary to self-antigens are destroyed. This process helps prevent autoimmune responses.

On maturation, T and B lymphocytes circulate to various destinations. Lymph nodes scattered throughout the body, as illustrated in **Figure 42.20**, house large populations of T and B cells, dendritic cells, and macrophages. Lymph gathers antigens as it drains from tissues. These antigens then are filtered through lymph nodes before the lymph is returned to circulation. APCs in the lymph nodes capture and process antigens and inform nearby lymphocytes about potential pathogens.

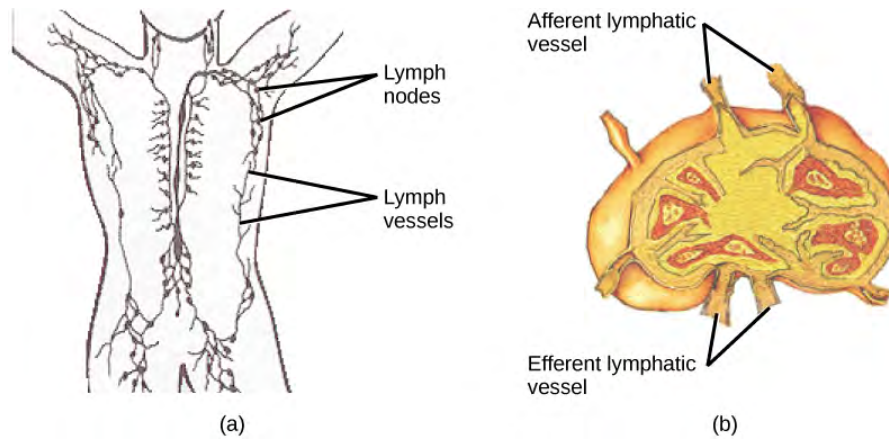


Figure 42.20 (a) Lymphatic vessels carry a clear fluid called lymph throughout the body. The liquid enters (b) lymph nodes through afferent vessels. Lymph nodes are filled with lymphocytes that purge infecting cells. The lymph then exits through efferent vessels. (credit: modification of work by NIH, NCI)

The spleen houses B and T cells, macrophages, dendritic cells, and NK cells. The spleen, shown in **Figure 42.21**, is the site where APCs that have trapped foreign particles in the blood can communicate with lymphocytes. Antibodies are synthesized and secreted by activated plasma cells in the spleen, and the spleen filters foreign substances and antibody-complexed pathogens from the blood. Functionally, the spleen is to the blood as lymph nodes are to the lymph.

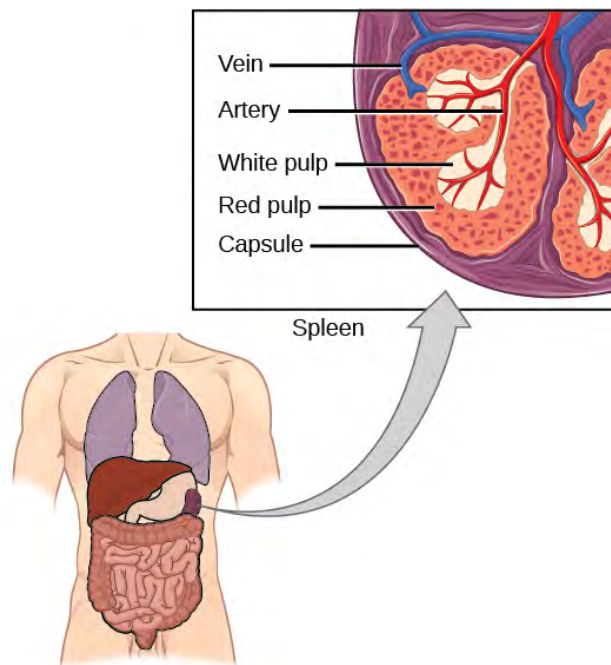


Figure 42.21 The spleen is similar to a lymph node but is much larger and filters blood instead of lymph. Blood enters the spleen through arteries and exits through veins. The spleen contains two types of tissue: red pulp and white pulp. Red pulp consists of cavities that store blood. Within the red pulp, damaged red blood cells are removed and replaced by new ones. White pulp is rich in lymphocytes that remove antigen-coated bacteria from the blood. (credit: modification of work by NCI)

42.3 | Antibodies

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain cross-reactivity
- Describe the structure and function of antibodies
- Discuss antibody production

An **antibody**, also known as an immunoglobulin (Ig), is a protein that is produced by plasma cells after stimulation by an antigen. Antibodies are the functional basis of humoral immunity. Antibodies occur in the blood, in gastric and mucus secretions, and in breast milk. Antibodies in these bodily fluids can bind pathogens and mark them for destruction by phagocytes before they can infect cells.

Antibody Structure

An antibody molecule is comprised of four polypeptides: two identical heavy chains (large peptide units) that are partially bound to each other in a “Y” formation, which are flanked by two identical light chains (small peptide units), as illustrated in **Figure 42.22**. Bonds between the cysteine amino acids in the antibody molecule attach the polypeptides to each other. The areas where the antigen is recognized on the antibody are variable domains and the antibody base is composed of constant domains.

In germ-line B cells, the variable region of the light chain gene has 40 variable (V) and five joining (J) segments. An enzyme called DNA recombinase randomly excises most of these segments out of the gene, and splices one V segment to one J segment. During RNA processing, all but one V and J segment are spliced out. Recombination and splicing may result in over 10^6 possible VJ combinations. As a result, each differentiated B cell in the human body typically has a unique variable chain. The constant domain, which does not bind antibody, is the same for all antibodies.

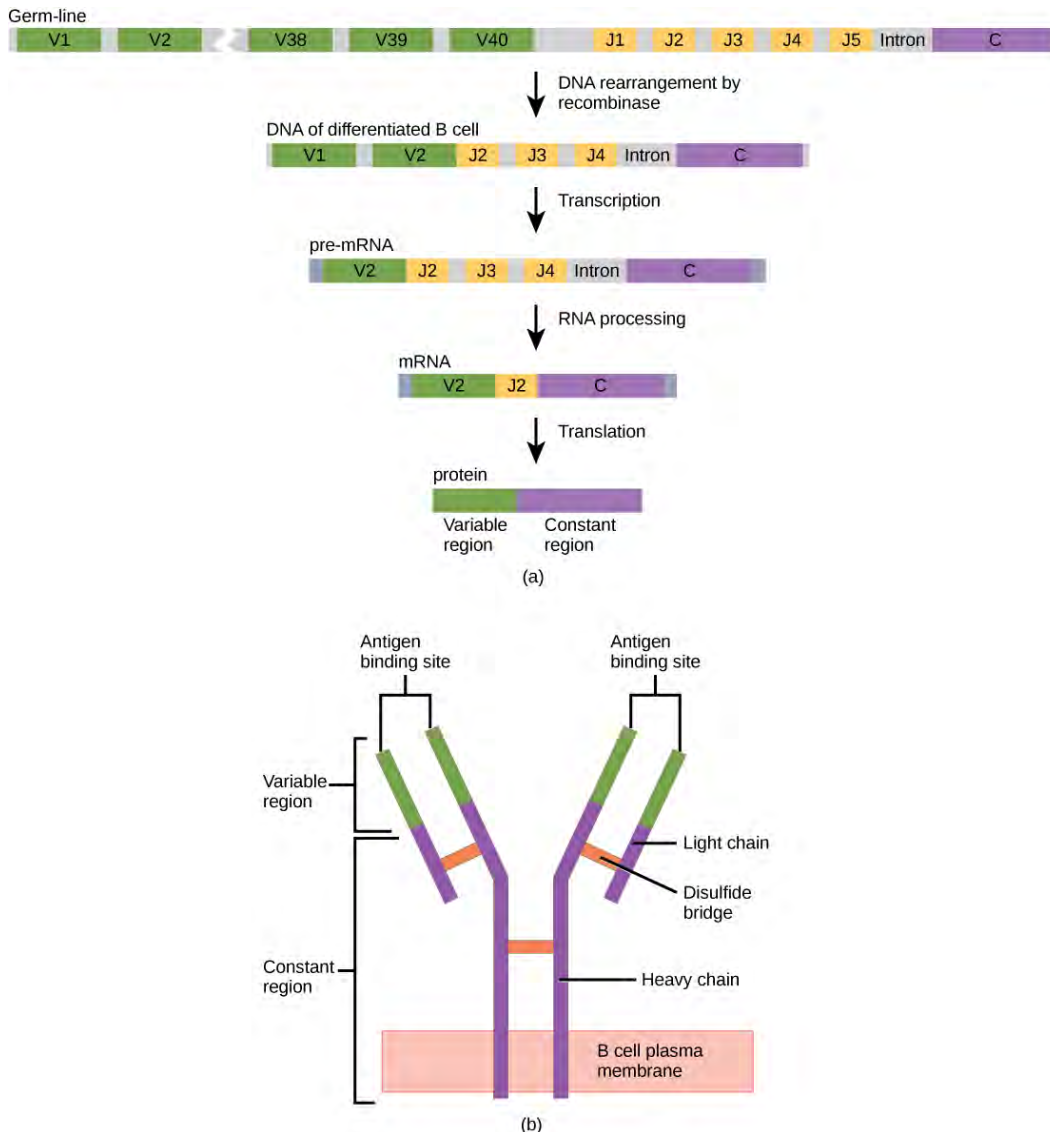


Figure 42.22 (a) As a germ-line B cell matures, an enzyme called DNA recombinase randomly excises V and J segments from the light chain gene. Splicing at the mRNA level results in further gene rearrangement. As a result, (b) each antibody has a unique variable region capable of binding a different antigen.

Similar to TCRs and BCRs, antibody diversity is produced by the mutation and recombination of approximately 300 different gene segments encoding the light and heavy chain variable domains in precursor cells that are destined to become B cells. The variable domains from the heavy and light chains interact to form the binding site through which an antibody can bind a specific epitope on an antigen. The numbers of repeated constant domains in Ig classes are the same for all antibodies corresponding to a specific class. Antibodies are structurally similar to the extracellular component of the BCRs, and B cell maturation to plasma cells can be visualized in simple terms as the cell acquires the ability to secrete the extracellular portion of its BCR in large quantities.

Antibody Classes

Antibodies can be divided into five classes—IgM, IgG, IgA, IgD, IgE—based on their physiochemical, structural, and immunological properties. IgGs, which make up about 80 percent of all antibodies, have heavy chains that consist of one variable domain and three identical constant domains. IgA and IgD also have three constant domains per heavy chain, whereas IgM and IgE each have four constant domains per heavy chain. The variable domain determines binding specificity and the constant domain of the heavy chain determines the immunological mechanism of action of the corresponding antibody class. It is possible for two antibodies to have the same binding specificities but be in different classes and, therefore, to be involved in different functions.

After an adaptive defense is produced against a pathogen, typically plasma cells first secrete IgM into the blood. BCRs on naïve B cells are of the IgM class and occasionally IgD class. IgM molecules make

up approximately ten percent of all antibodies. Prior to antibody secretion, plasma cells assemble IgM molecules into pentamers (five individual antibodies) linked by a joining (J) chain, as shown in **Figure 42.23**. The pentamer arrangement means that these macromolecules can bind ten identical antigens. However, IgM molecules released early in the adaptive immune response do not bind to antigens as stably as IgGs, which are one of the possible types of antibodies secreted in large quantities upon re-exposure to the same pathogen. **Figure 42.23** summarizes the properties of immunoglobulins and illustrates their basic structures.






Name	Properties	Structure
IgA	Found in mucous, saliva, tears, and breast milk. Protects against pathogens.	
IgD	Part of the B cell receptor. Activates basophils and mast cells.	
IgE	Protects against parasitic worms. Responsible for allergic reactions.	
IgG	Secreted by plasma cells in the blood. Able to cross the placenta into the fetus.	
IgM	May be attached to the surface of a B cell or secreted into the blood. Responsible for early stages of immunity.	

Figure 42.23 Immunoglobulins have different functions, but all are composed of light and heavy chains that form a Y-shaped structure.

IgAs populate the saliva, tears, breast milk, and mucus secretions of the gastrointestinal, respiratory, and genitourinary tracts. Collectively, these bodily fluids coat and protect the extensive mucosa (4000 square feet in humans). The total number of IgA molecules in these bodily secretions is greater than the number of IgG molecules in the blood serum. A small amount of IgA is also secreted into the serum in monomeric form. Conversely, some IgM is secreted into bodily fluids of the mucosa. Similar to IgM, IgA molecules are secreted as polymeric structures linked with a J chain. However, IgAs are secreted mostly as dimeric molecules, not pentamers.

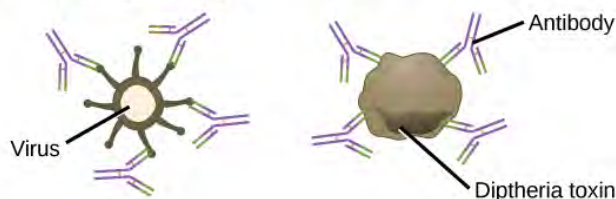
IgE is present in the serum in small quantities and is best characterized in its role as an allergy mediator. IgD is also present in small quantities. Similar to IgM, BCRs of the IgD class are found on the surface of naïve B cells. This class supports antigen recognition and maturation of B cells to plasma cells.

Antibody Functions

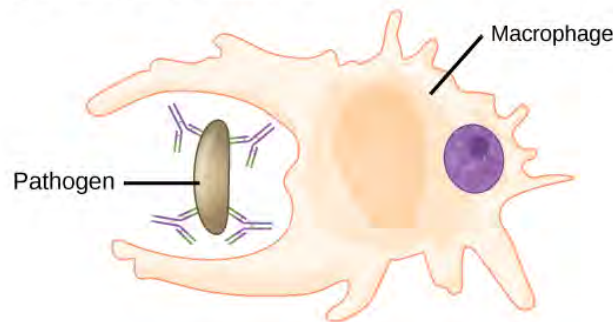
Differentiated plasma cells are crucial players in the humoral response, and the antibodies they secrete are particularly significant against extracellular pathogens and toxins. Antibodies circulate freely and act independently of plasma cells. Antibodies can be transferred from one individual to another to temporarily protect against infectious disease. For instance, a person who has recently produced a successful immune response against a particular disease agent can donate blood to a nonimmune recipient and confer temporary immunity through antibodies in the donor's blood serum. This phenomenon is called **passive immunity**; it also occurs naturally during breastfeeding, which makes breastfed infants highly resistant to infections during the first few months of life.

Antibodies coat extracellular pathogens and neutralize them, as illustrated in **Figure 42.24**, by blocking key sites on the pathogen that enhance their infectivity (such as receptors that “dock” pathogens on host cells). Antibody neutralization can prevent pathogens from entering and infecting host cells, as opposed to the CTL-mediated approach of killing cells that are already infected to prevent progression of an established infection. The neutralized antibody-coated pathogens can then be filtered by the spleen and eliminated in urine or feces.

(a) Neutralization Antibodies prevent a virus or toxic protein from binding their target.



(b) Opsonization A pathogen tagged by antibodies is consumed by a macrophage or neutrophil.



(c) Complement activation Antibodies attached to the surface of a pathogen cell activate the complement system.

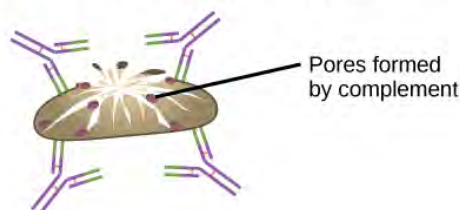


Figure 42.24 Antibodies may inhibit infection by (a) preventing the antigen from binding its target, (b) tagging a pathogen for destruction by macrophages or neutrophils, or (c) activating the complement cascade.

Antibodies also mark pathogens for destruction by phagocytic cells, such as macrophages or neutrophils, because phagocytic cells are highly attracted to macromolecules complexed with antibodies. Phagocytic enhancement by antibodies is called opsonization. In a process called complement fixation, IgM and IgG in serum bind to antigens and provide docking sites onto which sequential complement proteins can bind. The combination of antibodies and complement enhances opsonization even further and promotes rapid clearing of pathogens.

Affinity, Avidity, and Cross Reactivity

Not all antibodies bind with the same strength, specificity, and stability. In fact, antibodies exhibit different **affinities** (attraction) depending on the molecular complementarity between antigen and antibody molecules, as illustrated in **Figure 42.25**. An antibody with a higher affinity for a particular antigen would bind more strongly and stably, and thus would be expected to present a more challenging defense against the pathogen corresponding to the specific antigen.

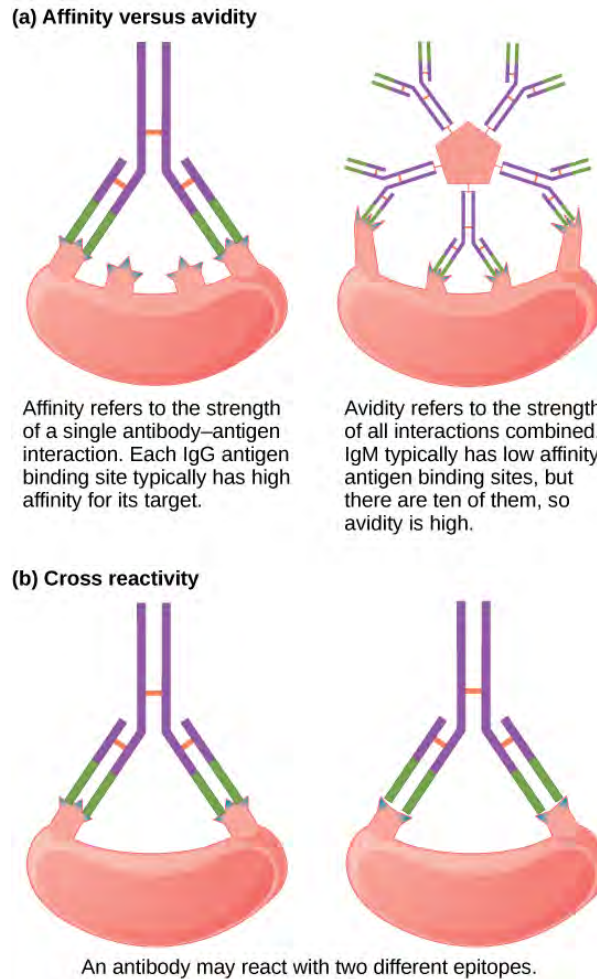


Figure 42.25 (a) Affinity refers to the strength of single interaction between antigen and antibody, while avidity refers to the strength of all interactions combined. (b) An antibody may cross react with different epitopes.

The term **avidity** describes binding by antibody classes that are secreted as joined, multivalent structures (such as IgM and IgA). Although avidity measures the strength of binding, just as affinity does, the avidity is not simply the sum of the affinities of the antibodies in a multimeric structure. The avidity depends on the number of identical binding sites on the antigen being detected, as well as other physical and chemical factors. Typically, multimeric antibodies, such as pentameric IgM, are classified as having lower affinity than monomeric antibodies, but high avidity. Essentially, the fact that multimeric antibodies can bind many antigens simultaneously balances their slightly lower binding strength for each antibody/antigen interaction.

Antibodies secreted after binding to one epitope on an antigen may exhibit cross reactivity for the same or similar epitopes on different antigens. Because an epitope corresponds to such a small region (the surface area of about four to six amino acids), it is possible for different macromolecules to exhibit the same molecular identities and orientations over short regions. **Cross reactivity** describes when an antibody binds not to the antigen that elicited its synthesis and secretion, but to a different antigen.

Cross reactivity can be beneficial if an individual develops immunity to several related pathogens despite having only been exposed to or vaccinated against one of them. For instance, antibody cross reactivity may occur against the similar surface structures of various Gram-negative bacteria. Conversely, antibodies raised against pathogenic molecular components that resemble self molecules may incorrectly mark host cells for destruction and cause autoimmune damage. Patients who develop systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) commonly exhibit antibodies that react with their own DNA. These antibodies may have been initially raised against the nucleic acid of microorganisms but later cross-reacted with self-antigens. This phenomenon is also called molecular mimicry.

Antibodies of the Mucosal Immune System

Antibodies synthesized by the mucosal immune system include IgA and IgM. Activated B cells differentiate into mucosal plasma cells that synthesize and secrete dimeric IgA, and to a lesser extent,

pentameric IgM. Secreted IgA is abundant in tears, saliva, breast milk, and in secretions of the gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts. Antibody secretion results in a local humoral response at epithelial surfaces and prevents infection of the mucosa by binding and neutralizing pathogens.

42.4 | Disruptions in the Immune System

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe hypersensitivity
- Define autoimmunity

A functioning immune system is essential for survival, but even the sophisticated cellular and molecular defenses of the mammalian immune response can be defeated by pathogens at virtually every step. In the competition between immune protection and pathogen evasion, pathogens have the advantage of more rapid evolution because of their shorter generation time and other characteristics. For instance, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (bacterium that cause pneumonia and meningitis) surrounds itself with a capsule that inhibits phagocytes from engulfing it and displaying antigens to the adaptive immune system. *Staphylococcus aureus* (bacterium that can cause skin infections, abscesses, and meningitis) synthesizes a toxin called leukocidin that kills phagocytes after they engulf the bacterium. Other pathogens can also hinder the adaptive immune system. HIV infects T_H cells via their CD4 surface molecules, gradually depleting the number of T_H cells in the body; this inhibits the adaptive immune system's capacity to generate sufficient responses to infection or tumors. As a result, HIV-infected individuals often suffer from infections that would not cause illness in people with healthy immune systems but which can cause devastating illness to immune-compromised individuals. Maladaptive responses of immune cells and molecules themselves can also disrupt the proper functioning of the entire system, leading to host cell damage that could become fatal.

Immunodeficiency

Failures, insufficiencies, or delays at any level of the immune response can allow pathogens or tumor cells to gain a foothold and replicate or proliferate to high enough levels that the immune system becomes overwhelmed. **Immunodeficiency** is the failure, insufficiency, or delay in the response of the immune system, which may be acquired or inherited. Immunodeficiency can be acquired as a result of infection with certain pathogens (such as HIV), chemical exposure (including certain medical treatments), malnutrition, or possibly by extreme stress. For instance, radiation exposure can destroy populations of lymphocytes and elevate an individual's susceptibility to infections and cancer. Dozens of genetic disorders result in immunodeficiencies, including Severe Combined Immunodeficiency (SCID), Bare lymphocyte syndrome, and MHC II deficiencies. Rarely, primary immunodeficiencies that are present from birth may occur. Neutropenia is one form in which the immune system produces a below-average number of neutrophils, the body's most abundant phagocytes. As a result, bacterial infections may go unrestricted in the blood, causing serious complications.

Hypersensitivities

Maladaptive immune responses toward harmless foreign substances or self antigens that occur after tissue sensitization are termed **hypersensitivities**. The types of hypersensitivities include immediate, delayed, and autoimmunity. A large proportion of the population is affected by one or more types of hypersensitivity.

Allergies

The immune reaction that results from immediate hypersensitivities in which an antibody-mediated immune response occurs within minutes of exposure to a harmless antigen is called an **allergy**. In the United States, 20 percent of the population exhibits symptoms of allergy or asthma, whereas 55 percent test positive against one or more allergens. Upon initial exposure to a potential allergen, an allergic individual synthesizes antibodies of the IgE class via the typical process of APCs presenting processed antigen to T_H cells that stimulate B cells to produce IgE. This class of antibodies also mediates the immune response to parasitic worms. The constant domain of the IgE molecules interact with mast cells embedded in connective tissues. This process primes, or sensitizes, the tissue. Upon subsequent exposure to the same allergen, IgE molecules on mast cells bind the antigen via their variable domains and stimulate the mast cell to release the modified amino acids histamine and serotonin; these chemical mediators then recruit eosinophils which mediate allergic responses. **Figure 42.26** shows an example of

an allergic response to ragweed pollen. The effects of an allergic reaction range from mild symptoms like sneezing and itchy, watery eyes to more severe or even life-threatening reactions involving intensely itchy welts or hives, airway contraction with severe respiratory distress, and plummeting blood pressure. This extreme reaction is known as anaphylactic shock. If not treated with epinephrine to counter the blood pressure and breathing effects, this condition can be fatal.

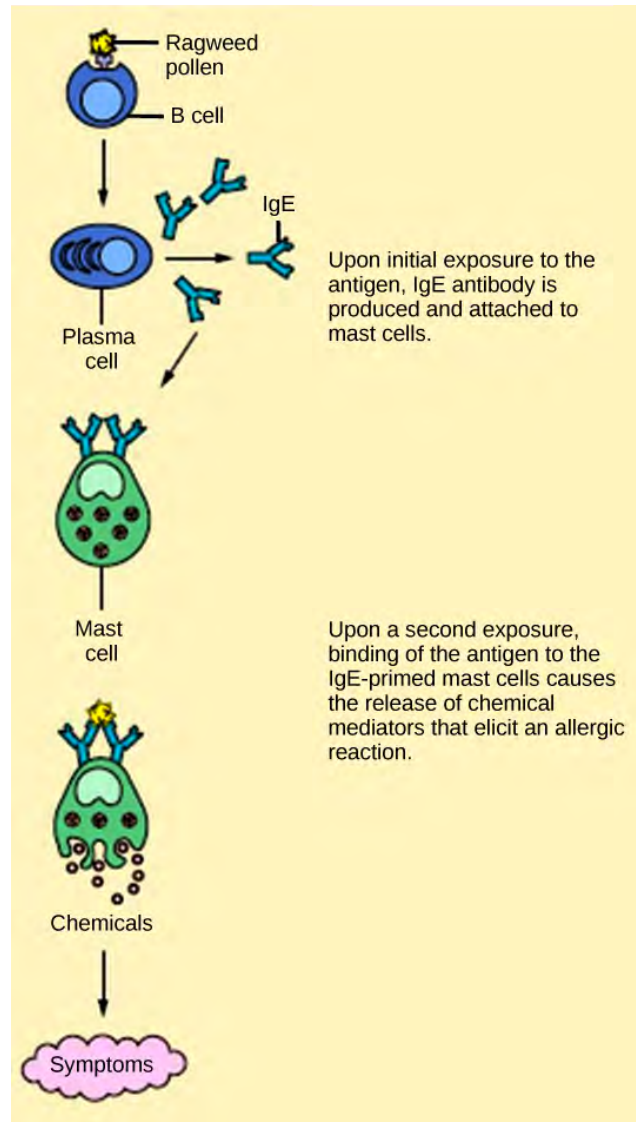


Figure 42.26 On first exposure to an allergen, an IgE antibody is synthesized by plasma cells in response to a harmless antigen. The IgE molecules bind to mast cells, and on secondary exposure, the mast cells release histamines and other modulators that affect the symptoms of allergy. (credit: modification of work by NIH)

Delayed hypersensitivity is a cell-mediated immune response that takes approximately one to two days after secondary exposure for a maximal reaction to be observed. This type of hypersensitivity involves the T_H1 cytokine-mediated inflammatory response and may manifest as local tissue lesions or contact dermatitis (rash or skin irritation). Delayed hypersensitivity occurs in some individuals in response to contact with certain types of jewelry or cosmetics. Delayed hypersensitivity facilitates the immune response to poison ivy and is also the reason why the skin test for tuberculosis results in a small region of inflammation on individuals who were previously exposed to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. That is also why cortisone is used to treat such responses: it will inhibit cytokine production.

Autoimmunity

Autoimmunity is a type of hypersensitivity to self antigens that affects approximately five percent of the population. Most types of autoimmunity involve the humoral immune response. Antibodies that inappropriately mark self components as foreign are termed **autoantibodies**. In patients with the autoimmune disease myasthenia gravis, muscle cell receptors that induce contraction in response to acetylcholine are targeted by antibodies. The result is muscle weakness that may include marked

difficultly with fine and/or gross motor functions. In systemic lupus erythematosus, a diffuse autoantibody response to the individual's own DNA and proteins results in various systemic diseases. As illustrated in **Figure 42.27**, systemic lupus erythematosus may affect the heart, joints, lungs, skin, kidneys, central nervous system, or other tissues, causing tissue damage via antibody binding, complement recruitment, lysis, and inflammation.

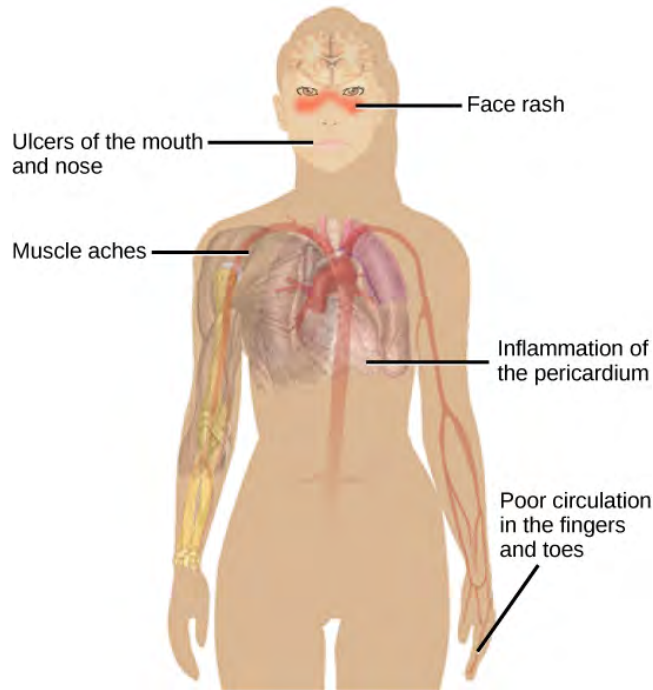


Figure 42.27 Systemic lupus erythematosus is characterized by autoimmunity to the individual's own DNA and/or proteins, which leads to varied dysfunction of the organs. (credit: modification of work by Mikael Häggström)

Autoimmunity can develop with time, and its causes may be rooted in molecular mimicry. Antibodies and TCRs may bind self antigens that are structurally similar to pathogen antigens, which the immune receptors first raised. As an example, infection with *Streptococcus pyogenes* (bacterium that causes strep throat) may generate antibodies or T cells that react with heart muscle, which has a similar structure to the surface of *S. pyogenes*. These antibodies can damage heart muscle with autoimmune attacks, leading to rheumatic fever. Insulin-dependent (Type 1) diabetes mellitus arises from a destructive inflammatory T_H1 response against insulin-producing cells of the pancreas. Patients with this autoimmunity must be injected with insulin that originates from other sources.

KEY TERMS

adaptive immunity immunity that has memory and occurs after exposure to an antigen either from a pathogen or a vaccination

affinity attraction of molecular complementarity between antigen and antibody molecules

allergy immune reaction that results from immediate hypersensitivities in which an antibody-mediated immune response occurs within minutes of exposure to a harmless antigen

antibody protein that is produced by plasma cells after stimulation by an antigen; also known as an immunoglobulin

antigen foreign or “non-self” protein that triggers the immune response

antigen-presenting cell (APC) immune cell that detects, engulfs, and informs the adaptive immune response about an infection by presenting the processed antigen on the cell surface

autoantibody antibody that incorrectly marks “self” components as foreign and stimulates the immune response

autoimmune response inappropriate immune response to host cells or self-antigens

autoimmunity type of hypersensitivity to self antigens

avidity total binding strength of a multivalent antibody with antigen

B cell lymphocyte that matures in the bone marrow and differentiates into antibody-secreting plasma cells

basophil leukocyte that releases chemicals usually involved in the inflammatory response

cell-mediated immune response adaptive immune response that is carried out by T cells

clonal selection activation of B cells corresponding to one specific BCR variant and the dramatic proliferation of that variant

complement system array of approximately 20 soluble proteins of the innate immune system that enhance phagocytosis, bore holes in pathogens, and recruit lymphocytes; enhances the adaptive response when antibodies are produced

cross reactivity binding of an antibody to an epitope corresponding to an antigen that is different from the one the antibody was raised against

cytokine chemical messenger that regulates cell differentiation, proliferation, gene expression, and cell trafficking to effect immune responses

cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) adaptive immune cell that directly kills infected cells via perforin and granzymes, and releases cytokines to enhance the immune response

dendritic cell immune cell that processes antigen material and presents it on the surface of other cells to induce an immune response

effector cell lymphocyte that has differentiated, such as a B cell, plasma cell, or cytotoxic T lymphocyte

eosinophil leukocyte that responds to parasites and is involved in the allergic response

epitope small component of an antigen that is specifically recognized by antibodies, B cells, and T cells; the antigenic determinant

granzyme protease that enters target cells through perforin and induces apoptosis in the target cells; used by NK cells and killer T cells

- helper T lymphocyte (T_H)** cell of the adaptive immune system that binds APCs via MHC II molecules and stimulates B cells or secretes cytokines to initiate the immune response
- host** an organism that is invaded by a pathogen or parasite
- humoral immune response** adaptive immune response that is controlled by activated B cells and antibodies
- hypersensitivities** spectrum of maladaptive immune responses toward harmless foreign particles or self antigens; occurs after tissue sensitization and includes immediate-type (allergy), delayed-type, and autoimmunity
- immune tolerance** acquired ability to prevent an unnecessary or harmful immune response to a detected foreign body known not to cause disease or to self-antigens
- immunodeficiency** failure, insufficiency, or delay at any level of the immune system, which may be acquired or inherited
- inflammation** localized redness, swelling, heat, and pain that results from the movement of leukocytes and fluid through opened capillaries to a site of infection
- innate immunity** immunity that occurs naturally because of genetic factors or physiology, and is not induced by infection or vaccination
- interferon** cytokine that inhibits viral replication and modulates the immune response
- lymph** watery fluid that bathes tissues and organs with protective white blood cells and does not contain erythrocytes
- lymphocyte** leukocyte that is histologically identifiable by its large nuclei; it is a small cell with very little cytoplasm
- macrophage** large phagocytic cell that engulfs foreign particles and pathogens
- major histocompatibility class (MHC) I/II molecule** protein found on the surface of all nucleated cells (I) or specifically on antigen-presenting cells (II) that signals to immune cells whether the cell is healthy/normal or is infected/cancerous; it provides the appropriate template into which antigens can be loaded for recognition by lymphocytes
- mast cell** leukocyte that produces inflammatory molecules, such as histamine, in response to large pathogens and allergens
- memory cell** antigen-specific B or T lymphocyte that does not differentiate into effector cells during the primary immune response but that can immediately become an effector cell upon re-exposure to the same pathogen
- monocyte** type of white blood cell that circulates in the blood and lymph and differentiates into macrophages after it moves into infected tissue
- mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT)** collection of lymphatic tissue that combines with epithelial tissue lining the mucosa throughout the body
- natural killer (NK) cell** lymphocyte that can kill cells infected with viruses or tumor cells
- neutrophil** phagocytic leukocyte that engulfs and digests pathogens
- opsonization** process that enhances phagocytosis using proteins to indicate the presence of a pathogen to phagocytic cells
- passive immunity** transfer of antibodies from one individual to another to provide temporary protection against pathogens
- pathogen** an agent, usually a microorganism, that causes disease in the organisms that they invade

pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) carbohydrate, polypeptide, and nucleic acid “signature” that is expressed by viruses, bacteria, and parasites but differs from molecules on host cells

pattern recognition receptor (PRR) molecule on macrophages and dendritic cells that binds molecular signatures of pathogens and promotes pathogen engulfment and destruction

perforin destructive protein that creates a pore in the target cell; used by NK cells and killer T cells

plasma cell immune cell that secretes antibodies; these cells arise from B cells that were stimulated by antigens

regulatory T (T_{reg}) cell specialized lymphocyte that suppresses local inflammation and inhibits the secretion of cytokines, antibodies, and other stimulatory immune factors; involved in immune tolerance

T cell lymphocyte that matures in the thymus gland; one of the main cells involved in the adaptive immune system

CHAPTER SUMMARY

42.1 Innate Immune Response

The innate immune system serves as a first responder to pathogenic threats that bypass natural physical and chemical barriers of the body. Using a combination of cellular and molecular attacks, the innate immune system identifies the nature of a pathogen and responds with inflammation, phagocytosis, cytokine release, destruction by NK cells, and/or a complement system. When innate mechanisms are insufficient to clear an infection, the adaptive immune response is informed and mobilized.

42.2 Adaptive Immune Response

The adaptive immune response is a slower-acting, longer-lasting, and more specific response than the innate response. However, the adaptive response requires information from the innate immune system to function. APCs display antigens via MHC molecules to complementary naïve T cells. In response, the T cells differentiate and proliferate, becoming T_H cells or CTLs. T_H cells stimulate B cells that have engulfed and presented pathogen-derived antigens. B cells differentiate into plasma cells that secrete antibodies, whereas CTLs induce apoptosis in intracellularly infected or cancerous cells. Memory cells persist after a primary exposure to a pathogen. If re-exposure occurs, memory cells differentiate into effector cells without input from the innate immune system. The mucosal immune system is largely independent from the systemic immune system but functions in a parallel fashion to protect the extensive mucosal surfaces of the body.

42.3 Antibodies

Antibodies (immunoglobulins) are the molecules secreted from plasma cells that mediate the humoral immune response. There are five antibody classes; an antibody's class determines its mechanism of action and production site but does not control its binding specificity. Antibodies bind antigens via variable domains and can either neutralize pathogens or mark them for phagocytosis or activate the complement cascade.

42.4 Disruptions in the Immune System

Immune disruptions may involve insufficient immune responses or inappropriate immune targets. Immunodeficiency increases an individual's susceptibility to infections and cancers. Hypersensitivities are misdirected responses either to harmless foreign particles, as in the case of allergies, or to host factors, as in the case of autoimmunity. Reactions to self components may be the result of molecular mimicry.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 42.11** Which of the following statements about T cells is false?
 - Helper T cells release cytokines while cytotoxic T cells kill the infected cell.

- b. Helper T cells are CD4⁺, while cytotoxic T cells are CD8⁺.
- c. MHC II is a receptor found on most body cells, while MHC I is a receptor found on immune cells only.
- d. The T cell receptor is found on both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells.

2. Figure 42.14 Based on what you know about MHC receptors, why do you think an organ transplanted from an incompatible donor to a recipient will be rejected?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

4. Which of the following is a barrier against pathogens provided by the skin?

- a. high pH
- b. mucus
- c. tears
- d. desiccation

5. Although interferons have several effects, they are particularly useful against infections with which type of pathogen?

- a. bacteria
- b. viruses
- c. fungi
- d. helminths

6. Which organelle do phagocytes use to digest engulfed particles?

- a. lysosome
- b. nucleus
- c. endoplasmic reticulum
- d. mitochondria

7. Which innate immune system component uses MHC I molecules directly in its defense strategy?

- a. macrophages
- b. neutrophils
- c. NK cells
- d. interferon

8. Which of the following is both a phagocyte and an antigen-presenting cell?

- a. NK cell
- b. eosinophil
- c. neutrophil
- d. macrophage

9. Which immune cells bind MHC molecules on APCs via CD8 coreceptors on their cell surfaces?

- a. T_H cells
- b. CTLs
- c. mast cells
- d. basophils

10. What “self” pattern is identified by NK cells?

- a. altered self
- b. missing self
- c. normal self

3. Figure 42.16 The Rh antigen is found on Rh-positive red blood cells. An Rh-negative female can usually carry an Rh-positive fetus to term without difficulty. However, if she has a second Rh-positive fetus, her body may launch an immune attack that causes hemolytic disease of the newborn. Why do you think hemolytic disease is only a problem during the second or subsequent pregnancies?

- d. non-self

11. The acquired ability to prevent an unnecessary or destructive immune reaction to a harmless foreign particle, such as a food protein, is called _____.

- a. the T_H2 response
- b. allergy
- c. immune tolerance
- d. autoimmunity

12. A memory B cell can differentiate upon re-exposure to a pathogen of which cell type?

- a. CTL
- b. naïve B cell
- c. memory T cell
- d. plasma cell

13. Foreign particles circulating in the blood are filtered by the _____.

- a. spleen
- b. lymph nodes
- c. MALT
- d. lymph

14. The structure of an antibody is similar to the extracellular component of which receptor?

- a. MHC I
- b. MHC II
- c. BCR
- d. none of the above

15. The first antibody class to appear in the serum in response to a newly encountered pathogen is _____.

- a. IgM
- b. IgA
- c. IgG
- d. IgE

16. What is the most abundant antibody class detected in the serum upon reexposure to a pathogen or in reaction to a vaccine?

- a. IgM
- b. IgA
- c. IgG
- d. IgE

- 17.** Breastfed infants typically are resistant to disease because of _____.
- active immunity
 - passive immunity
 - immune tolerance
 - immune memory
- 18.** Allergy to pollen is classified as:
- an autoimmune reaction
 - immunodeficiency
 - delayed hypersensitivity
 - immediate hypersensitivity
- 19.** A potential cause of acquired autoimmunity is _____.
- tissue hypersensitivity
 - molecular mimicry
 - histamine release
 - radiation exposure
- 20.** Autoantibodies are probably involved in:
- reactions to poison ivy
 - pollen allergies
 - systemic lupus erythematosus
 - HIV/AIDS
- 21.** Which of the following diseases is not due to autoimmunity?
- rheumatic fever
 - systemic lupus erythematosus
 - diabetes mellitus
 - HIV/AIDS

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 22.** Different MHC I molecules between donor and recipient cells can lead to rejection of a transplanted organ or tissue. Suggest a reason for this.
- 23.** If a series of genetic mutations prevented some, but not all, of the complement proteins from binding antibodies or pathogens, would the entire complement system be compromised?
- 24.** Explain the difference between an epitope and an antigen.
- 25.** What is a naïve B or T cell?
- 26.** How does the T_H1 response differ from the T_H2 response?
- 27.** In mammalian adaptive immune systems, T cell receptors are extraordinarily diverse. What function of the immune system results from this diversity, and how is this diversity achieved?
- 28.** How do B and T cells differ with respect to antigens that they bind?
- 29.** Why is the immune response after reinfection much faster than the adaptive immune response after the initial infection?
- 30.** What are the benefits and costs of antibody cross reactivity?

43 | ANIMAL REPRODUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT



Figure 43.1 Female seahorses produce eggs for reproduction that are then fertilized by the male. Unlike almost all other animals, the male seahorse then gestates the young until birth. (credit: modification of work by "cliff1066"/Flickr)

Chapter Outline

- 43.1: Reproduction Methods**
- 43.2: Fertilization**
- 43.3: Human Reproductive Anatomy and Gametogenesis**
- 43.4: Hormonal Control of Human Reproduction**
- 43.5: Human Pregnancy and Birth**
- 43.6: Fertilization and Early Embryonic Development**
- 43.7: Organogenesis and Vertebrate Formation**

Introduction

Animal reproduction is necessary for the survival of a species. In the animal kingdom, there are innumerable ways that species reproduce. Asexual reproduction produces genetically identical organisms (clones), whereas in sexual reproduction, the genetic material of two individuals combines to produce offspring that are genetically different from their parents. During sexual reproduction the male gamete (sperm) may be placed inside the female's body for internal fertilization, or the sperm and eggs may be released into the environment for external fertilization. Seahorses, like the one shown in

Figure 43.1, provide an example of the latter. Following a mating dance, the female lays eggs in the male seahorse's abdominal brood pouch where they are fertilized. The eggs hatch and the offspring develop in the pouch for several weeks.

43.1 | Reproduction Methods

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe advantages and disadvantages of asexual and sexual reproduction
- Discuss asexual reproduction methods
- Discuss sexual reproduction methods

Animals produce offspring through asexual and/or sexual reproduction. Both methods have advantages and disadvantages. **Asexual reproduction** produces offspring that are genetically identical to the parent because the offspring are all clones of the original parent. A single individual can produce offspring asexually and large numbers of offspring can be produced quickly. In a stable or predictable environment, asexual reproduction is an effective means of reproduction because all the offspring will be adapted to that environment. In an unstable or unpredictable environment asexually-reproducing species may be at a disadvantage because all the offspring are genetically identical and may not have the genetic variation to survive in new or different conditions. On the other hand, the rapid rates of asexual reproduction may allow for a speedy response to environmental changes if individuals have mutations. An additional advantage of asexual reproduction is that colonization of new habitats may be easier when an individual does not need to find a mate to reproduce.

During **sexual reproduction** the genetic material of two individuals is combined to produce genetically diverse offspring that differ from their parents. The genetic diversity of sexually produced offspring is thought to give species a better chance of surviving in an unpredictable or changing environment. Species that reproduce sexually must maintain two different types of individuals, males and females, which can limit the ability to colonize new habitats as both sexes must be present.

Asexual Reproduction

Asexual reproduction occurs in prokaryotic microorganisms (bacteria) and in some eukaryotic single-celled and multi-celled organisms. There are a number of ways that animals reproduce asexually.

Fission

Fission, also called binary fission, occurs in prokaryotic microorganisms and in some invertebrate, multi-celled organisms. After a period of growth, an organism splits into two separate organisms. Some unicellular eukaryotic organisms undergo binary fission by mitosis. In other organisms, part of the individual separates and forms a second individual. This process occurs, for example, in many asteroid echinoderms through splitting of the central disk. Some sea anemones and some coral polyps (**Figure 43.2**) also reproduce through fission.



Figure 43.2 Coral polyps reproduce asexually by fission. (credit: G. P. Schmahl, NOAA FGBNMS Manager)

Budding

Budding is a form of asexual reproduction that results from the outgrowth of a part of a cell or body region leading to a separation from the original organism into two individuals. Budding occurs commonly in some invertebrate animals such as corals and hydras. In hydras, a bud forms that develops into an adult and breaks away from the main body, as illustrated in **Figure 43.3**, whereas in coral budding, the bud does not detach and multiplies as part of a new colony.

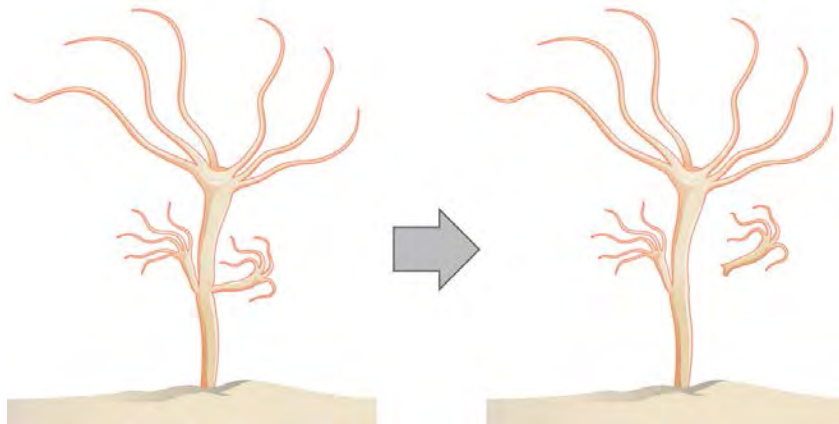


Figure 43.3 Hydra reproduce asexually through budding.

LINK TO LEARNING



Watch a **video** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/budding_hydra) of a hydra budding.

Fragmentation

Fragmentation is the breaking of the body into two parts with subsequent regeneration. If the animal is capable of fragmentation, and the part is big enough, a separate individual will regrow.

For example, in many sea stars, asexual reproduction is accomplished by fragmentation. **Figure 43.4** illustrates a sea star for which an arm of the individual is broken off and regenerates a new sea star. Fisheries workers have been known to try to kill the sea stars eating their clam or oyster beds by cutting them in half and throwing them back into the ocean. Unfortunately for the workers, the two parts can each regenerate a new half, resulting in twice as many sea stars to prey upon the oysters and clams. Fragmentation also occurs in annelid worms, turbellarians, and poriferans.



Figure 43.4 Sea stars can reproduce through fragmentation. The large arm, a fragment from another sea star, is developing into a new individual.

Note that in fragmentation, there is generally a noticeable difference in the size of the individuals, whereas in fission, two individuals of approximate size are formed.

Parthenogenesis

Parthenogenesis is a form of asexual reproduction where an egg develops into a complete individual without being fertilized. The resulting offspring can be either haploid or diploid, depending on the process and the species. Parthenogenesis occurs in invertebrates such as water fleas, rotifers, aphids, stick insects, some ants, wasps, and bees. Bees use parthenogenesis to produce haploid males (drones) and diploid females (workers). If an egg is fertilized, a queen is produced. The queen bee controls the reproduction of the hive bees to regulate the type of bee produced.

Some vertebrate animals—such as certain reptiles, amphibians, and fish—also reproduce through parthenogenesis. Although more common in plants, parthenogenesis has been observed in animal species that were segregated by sex in terrestrial or marine zoos. Two female Komodo dragons, a hammerhead shark, and a blacktip shark have produced parthenogenic young when the females have been isolated from males.

Sexual Reproduction

Sexual reproduction is the combination of (usually haploid) reproductive cells from two individuals to form a third (usually diploid) unique offspring. Sexual reproduction produces offspring with novel combinations of genes. This can be an adaptive advantage in unstable or unpredictable environments. As humans, we are used to thinking of animals as having two separate sexes—male and female—determined at conception. However, in the animal kingdom, there are many variations on this theme.

Hermaphroditism

Hermaphroditism occurs in animals where one individual has both male and female reproductive parts. Invertebrates such as earthworms, slugs, tapeworms and snails, shown in **Figure 43.5**, are often hermaphroditic. Hermaphrodites may self-fertilize or may mate with another of their species, fertilizing each other and both producing offspring. Self fertilization is common in animals that have limited mobility or are not motile, such as barnacles and clams.



Figure 43.5 Many snails are hermaphrodites. When two individuals mate, they can produce up to one hundred eggs each. (credit: Assaf Shtilman)

Sex Determination

Mammalian sex determination is determined genetically by the presence of X and Y chromosomes. Individuals homozygous for X (XX) are female and heterozygous individuals (XY) are male. The presence of a Y chromosome causes the development of male characteristics and its absence results in female characteristics. The XY system is also found in some insects and plants.

Avian sex determination is dependent on the presence of Z and W chromosomes. Homozygous for Z (ZZ) results in a male and heterozygous (ZW) results in a female. The W appears to be essential in determining the sex of the individual, similar to the Y chromosome in mammals. Some fish, crustaceans, insects (such as butterflies and moths), and reptiles use this system.

The sex of some species is not determined by genetics but by some aspect of the environment. Sex determination in some crocodiles and turtles, for example, is often dependent on the temperature during critical periods of egg development. This is referred to as environmental sex determination, or more specifically as temperature-dependent sex determination. In many turtles, cooler temperatures during egg incubation produce males and warm temperatures produce females. In some crocodiles, moderate temperatures produce males and both warm and cool temperatures produce females. In some species, sex is both genetic- and temperature-dependent.

Individuals of some species change their sex during their lives, alternating between male and female. If the individual is female first, it is termed protogyny or “first female,” if it is male first, its termed protandry or “first male.” Oysters, for example, are born male, grow, and become female and lay eggs; some oyster species change sex multiple times.

43.2 | Fertilization

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss internal and external methods of fertilization
- Describe the methods used by animals for development of offspring during gestation
- Describe the anatomical adaptations that occurred in animals to facilitate reproduction

Sexual reproduction starts with the combination of a sperm and an egg in a process called fertilization. This can occur either inside (**internal fertilization**) or outside (**external fertilization**) the body of the female. Humans provide an example of the former whereas seahorse reproduction is an example of the latter.

External Fertilization

External fertilization usually occurs in aquatic environments where both eggs and sperm are released into the water. After the sperm reaches the egg, fertilization takes place. Most external fertilization happens

during the process of spawning where one or several females release their eggs and the male(s) release sperm in the same area, at the same time. The release of the reproductive material may be triggered by water temperature or the length of daylight. Nearly all fish spawn, as do crustaceans (such as crabs and shrimp), mollusks (such as oysters), squid, and echinoderms (such as sea urchins and sea cucumbers). **Figure 43.6** shows salmon spawning in a shallow stream. Frogs, like those shown in **Figure 43.7**, corals, molluscs, and sea cucumbers also spawn.



Figure 43.6 Salmon reproduce through spawning. (credit: Dan Bennett)



Figure 43.7 During sexual reproduction in toads, the male grasps the female from behind and externally fertilizes the eggs as they are deposited. (credit: "OakleyOriginals"/Flickr)

Pairs of fish that are not broadcast spawners may exhibit courtship behavior. This allows the female to select a particular male. The trigger for egg and sperm release (spawning) causes the egg and sperm to be placed in a small area, enhancing the possibility of fertilization.

External fertilization in an aquatic environment protects the eggs from drying out. Broadcast spawning can result in a greater mixture of the genes within a group, leading to higher genetic diversity and a greater chance of species survival in a hostile environment. For sessile aquatic organisms like sponges, broadcast spawning is the only mechanism for fertilization and colonization of new environments. The presence of the fertilized eggs and developing young in the water provides opportunities for predation resulting in a loss of offspring. Therefore, millions of eggs must be produced by individuals, and the offspring produced through this method must mature rapidly. The survival rate of eggs produced through broadcast spawning is low.

Internal Fertilization

Internal fertilization occurs most often in land-based animals, although some aquatic animals also use this method. There are three ways that offspring are produced following internal fertilization. In **oviparity**, fertilized eggs are laid outside the female's body and develop there, receiving nourishment

from the yolk that is a part of the egg. This occurs in most bony fish, many reptiles, some cartilaginous fish, most amphibians, two mammals, and all birds. Reptiles and insects produce leathery eggs, while birds and turtles produce eggs with high concentrations of calcium carbonate in the shell, making them hard. Chicken eggs are an example of this second type.

In **ovoviviparity**, fertilized eggs are retained in the female, but the embryo obtains its nourishment from the egg's yolk and the young are fully developed when they are hatched. This occurs in some bony fish (like the guppy *Lebistes reticulatus*), some sharks, some lizards, some snakes (such as the garter snake *Thamnophis sirtalis*), some vipers, and some invertebrate animals (like the Madagascar hissing cockroach *Gromphadorhina portentosa*).

In **viviparity** the young develop within the female, receiving nourishment from the mother's blood through a placenta. The offspring develops in the female and is born alive. This occurs in most mammals, some cartilaginous fish, and a few reptiles.

Internal fertilization has the advantage of protecting the fertilized egg from dehydration on land. The embryo is isolated within the female, which limits predation on the young. Internal fertilization enhances the fertilization of eggs by a specific male. Fewer offspring are produced through this method, but their survival rate is higher than that for external fertilization.

The Evolution of Reproduction

Once multicellular organisms evolved and developed specialized cells, some also developed tissues and organs with specialized functions. An early development in reproduction occurred in the Annelids. These organisms produce sperm and eggs from undifferentiated cells in their coelom and store them in that cavity. When the coelom becomes filled, the cells are released through an excretory opening or by the body splitting open. Reproductive organs evolved with the development of gonads that produce sperm and eggs. These cells went through meiosis, an adaptation of mitosis, which reduced the number of chromosomes in each reproductive cell by half, while increasing the number of cells through cell division.

Complete reproductive systems were developed in insects, with separate sexes. Sperm are made in testes and then travel through coiled tubes to the epididymis for storage. Eggs mature in the ovary. When they are released from the ovary, they travel to the uterine tubes for fertilization. Some insects have a specialized sac, called a **spermatheca**, which stores sperm for later use, sometimes up to a year. Fertilization can be timed with environmental or food conditions that are optimal for offspring survival.

Vertebrates have similar structures, with a few differences. Non-mammals, such as birds and reptiles, have a common body opening, called a **cloaca**, for the digestive, excretory and reproductive systems. Coupling between birds usually involves positioning the cloaca openings opposite each other for transfer of sperm. Mammals have separate openings for the systems in the female and a uterus for support of developing offspring. The uterus has two chambers in species that produce large numbers of offspring at a time, while species that produce one offspring, such as primates, have a single uterus.

Sperm transfer from the male to the female during reproduction ranges from releasing the sperm into the watery environment for external fertilization, to the joining of cloaca in birds, to the development of a penis for direct delivery into the female's vagina in mammals.

43.3 | Human Reproductive Anatomy and Gametogenesis

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe human male and female reproductive anatomies
- Discuss the human sexual response
- Describe spermatogenesis and oogenesis and discuss their differences and similarities

As animals became more complex, specific organs and organ systems developed to support specific functions for the organism. The reproductive structures that evolved in land animals allow males and females to mate, fertilize internally, and support the growth and development of offspring.

Human Reproductive Anatomy

The reproductive tissues of male and female humans develop similarly *in utero* until a low level of the hormone testosterone is released from male gonads. Testosterone causes the undeveloped tissues to differentiate into male sexual organs. When testosterone is absent, the tissues develop into female sexual tissues. Primitive gonads become testes or ovaries. Tissues that produce a penis in males produce a clitoris in females. The tissue that will become the scrotum in a male becomes the labia in a female; that is, they are homologous structures.

Male Reproductive Anatomy

In the male reproductive system, the **scrotum** houses the testicles or testes (singular: testis), including providing passage for blood vessels, nerves, and muscles related to testicular function. The **testes** are a pair of male reproductive organs that produce sperm and some reproductive hormones. Each testis is approximately 2.5 by 3.8 cm (1.5 by 1 in) in size and divided into wedge-shaped lobules by connective tissue called septa. Coiled in each wedge are seminiferous tubules that produce sperm.

Sperm are immobile at body temperature; therefore, the scrotum and penis are external to the body, as illustrated in **Figure 43.8** so that a proper temperature is maintained for motility. In land mammals, the pair of testes must be suspended outside the body at about 2° C lower than body temperature to produce viable sperm. Infertility can occur in land mammals when the testes do not descend through the abdominal cavity during fetal development.

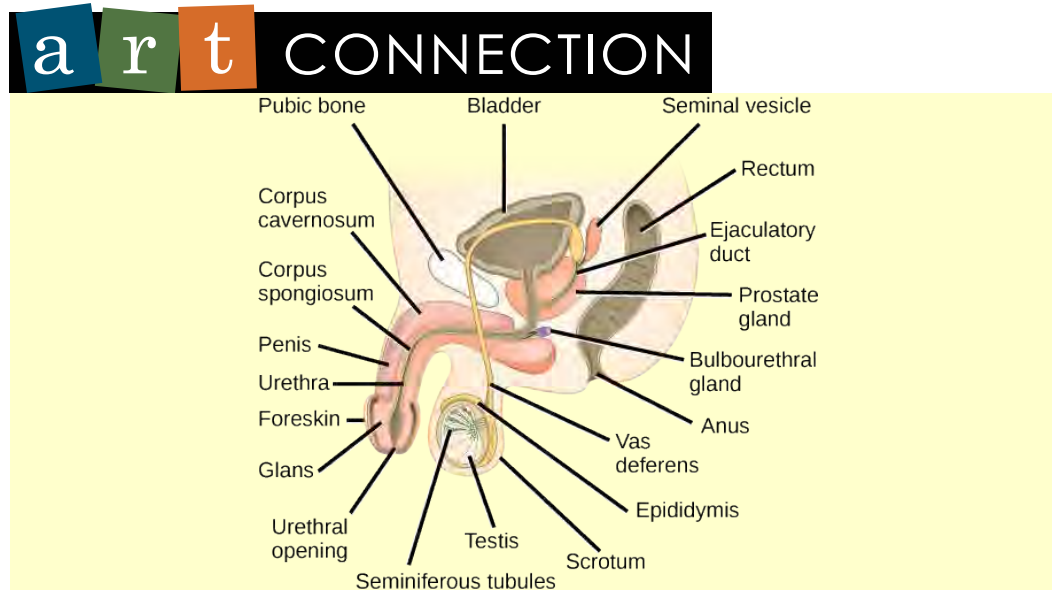


Figure 43.8 The reproductive structures of the human male are shown.

Which of the following statements about the male reproductive system is false?

- The vas deferens carries sperm from the testes to the penis.
- Sperm mature in seminiferous tubules in the testes.
- Both the prostate and the bulbourethral glands produce components of the semen.
- The prostate gland is located in the testes.

Sperm mature in **seminiferous tubules** that are coiled inside the testes, as illustrated in **Figure 43.8**. The walls of the seminiferous tubules are made up of the developing sperm cells, with the least developed sperm at the periphery of the tubule and the fully developed sperm in the lumen. The sperm cells are mixed with “nursemaid” cells called Sertoli cells which protect the germ cells and promote their development. Other cells mixed in the wall of the tubules are the interstitial cells of Leydig. These cells produce high levels of testosterone once the male reaches adolescence.

When the sperm have developed flagella and are nearly mature, they leave the testicles and enter the epididymis, shown in **Figure 43.8**. This structure resembles a comma and lies along the top and posterior portion of the testes; it is the site of sperm maturation. The sperm leave the epididymis and enter the vas

deferens (or ductus deferens), which carries the sperm, behind the bladder, and forms the ejaculatory duct with the duct from the seminal vesicles. During a vasectomy, a section of the vas deferens is removed, preventing sperm from being passed out of the body during ejaculation and preventing fertilization.

Semen is a mixture of sperm and spermatic duct secretions (about 10 percent of the total) and fluids from accessory glands that contribute most of the semen's volume. Sperm are haploid cells, consisting of a flagellum as a tail, a neck that contains the cell's energy-producing mitochondria, and a head that contains the genetic material. **Figure 43.9** shows a micrograph of human sperm as well as a diagram of the parts of the sperm. An acrosome is found at the top of the head of the sperm. This structure contains lysosomal enzymes that can digest the protective coverings that surround the egg to help the sperm penetrate and fertilize the egg. An ejaculate will contain from two to five milliliters of fluid with from 50–120 million sperm per milliliter.

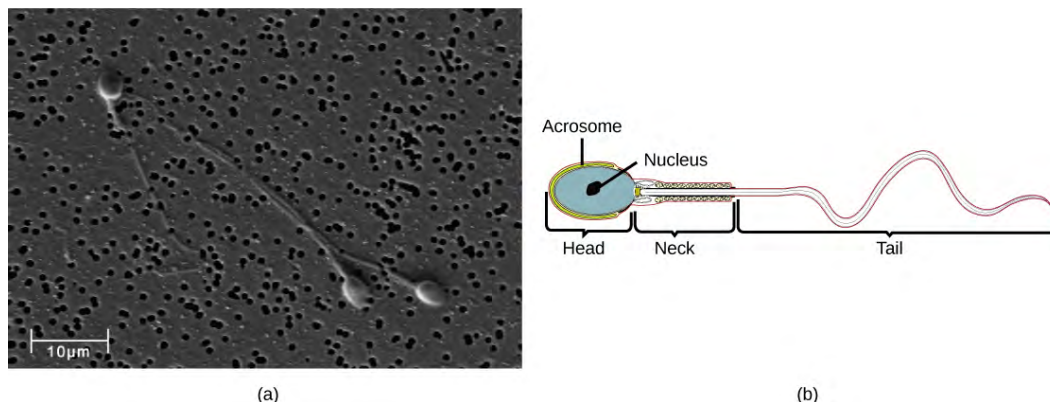


Figure 43.9 Human sperm, visualized using scanning electron microscopy, have a flagellum, neck, and head. (credit b: modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

The bulk of the semen comes from the accessory glands associated with the male reproductive system. These are the seminal vesicles, the prostate gland, and the bulbourethral gland, all of which are illustrated in **Figure 43.8**. The **seminal vesicles** are a pair of glands that lie along the posterior border of the urinary bladder. The glands make a solution that is thick, yellowish, and alkaline. As sperm are only motile in an alkaline environment, a basic pH is important to reverse the acidity of the vaginal environment. The solution also contains mucus, fructose (a sperm mitochondrial nutrient), a coagulating enzyme, ascorbic acid, and local-acting hormones called prostaglandins. The seminal vesicle glands account for 60 percent of the bulk of semen.

The **penis**, illustrated in **Figure 43.8**, is an organ that drains urine from the renal bladder and functions as a copulatory organ during intercourse. The penis contains three tubes of erectile tissue running through the length of the organ. These consist of a pair of tubes on the dorsal side, called the corpus cavernosum, and a single tube of tissue on the ventral side, called the corpus spongiosum. This tissue will become engorged with blood, becoming erect and hard, in preparation for intercourse. The organ is inserted into the vagina culminating with an ejaculation. During intercourse, the smooth muscle sphincters at the opening to the renal bladder close and prevent urine from entering the penis. An orgasm is a two-stage process: first, glands and accessory organs connected to the testes contract, then semen (containing sperm) is expelled through the urethra during ejaculation. After intercourse, the blood drains from the erectile tissue and the penis becomes flaccid.

The walnut-shaped **prostate gland** surrounds the urethra, the connection to the urinary bladder. It has a series of short ducts that directly connect to the urethra. The gland is a mixture of smooth muscle and glandular tissue. The muscle provides much of the force needed for ejaculation to occur. The glandular tissue makes a thin, milky fluid that contains citrate (a nutrient), enzymes, and prostate specific antigen (PSA). PSA is a proteolytic enzyme that helps to liquefy the ejaculate several minutes after release from the male. Prostate gland secretions account for about 30 percent of the bulk of semen.

The **bulbourethral gland**, or Cowper's gland, releases its secretion prior to the release of the bulk of the semen. It neutralizes any acid residue in the urethra left over from urine. This usually accounts for a couple of drops of fluid in the total ejaculate and may contain a few sperm. Withdrawal of the penis from the vagina before ejaculation to prevent pregnancy may not work if sperm are present in the bulbourethral gland secretions. The location and functions of the male reproductive organs are summarized in **Table 43.1**.

Male Reproductive Anatomy

Organ	Location	Function
Scrotum	External	Carry and support testes
Penis	External	Deliver urine, copulating organ
Testes	Internal	Produce sperm and male hormones
Seminal Vesicles	Internal	Contribute to semen production
Prostate Gland	Internal	Contribute to semen production
Bulbourethral Glands	Internal	Clean urethra at ejaculation

Table 43.1

Female Reproductive Anatomy

A number of reproductive structures are exterior to the female's body. These include the breasts and the vulva, which consists of the mons pubis, clitoris, labia majora, labia minora, and the vestibular glands, all illustrated in **Figure 43.10**. The location and functions of the female reproductive organs are summarized in **Table 43.2**. The vulva is an area associated with the vestibule which includes the structures found in the inguinal (groin) area of women. The mons pubis is a round, fatty area that overlies the pubic symphysis. The **clitoris** is a structure with erectile tissue that contains a large number of sensory nerves and serves as a source of stimulation during intercourse. The **labia majora** are a pair of elongated folds of tissue that run posterior from the mons pubis and enclose the other components of the vulva. The labia majora derive from the same tissue that produces the scrotum in a male. The **labia minora** are thin folds of tissue centrally located within the labia majora. These labia protect the openings to the vagina and urethra. The mons pubis and the anterior portion of the labia majora become covered with hair during adolescence; the labia minora is hairless. The greater vestibular glands are found at the sides of the vaginal opening and provide lubrication during intercourse.

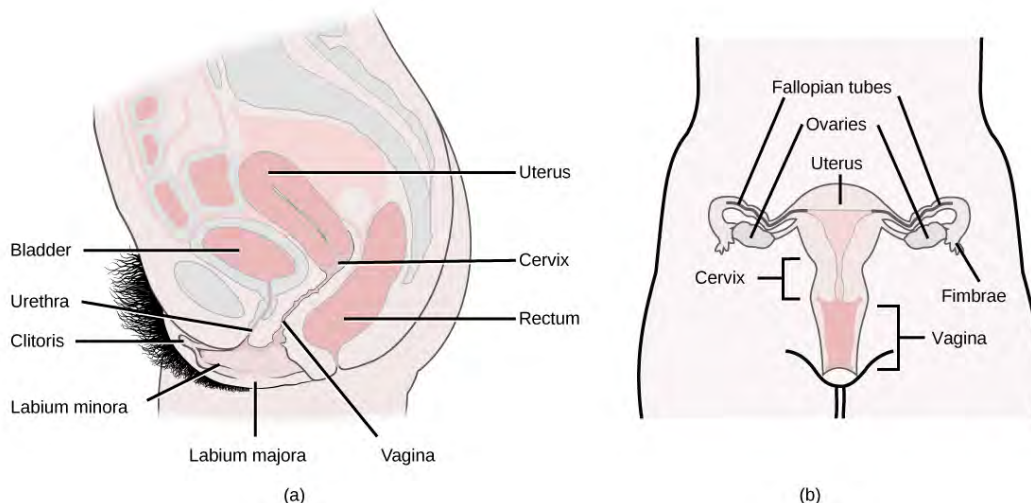


Figure 43.10 The reproductive structures of the human female are shown. (credit a: modification of work by Gray's Anatomy; credit b: modification of work by CDC)

Female Reproductive Anatomy

Organ	Location	Function
Clitoris	External	Sensory organ
Mons pubis	External	Fatty area overlying pubic bone
Labia majora	External	Covers labia minora

Table 43.2

Female Reproductive Anatomy

Organ	Location	Function
Labia minora	External	Covers vestibule
Greater vestibular glands	External	Secrete mucus; lubricate vagina
Breast	External	Produce and deliver milk
Ovaries	Internal	Carry and develop eggs
Oviducts (Fallopian tubes)	Internal	Transport egg to uterus
Uterus	Internal	Support developing embryo
Vagina	Internal	Common tube for intercourse, birth canal, passing menstrual flow

Table 43.2

The breasts consist of mammary glands and fat. The size of the breast is determined by the amount of fat deposited behind the gland. Each gland consists of 15 to 25 lobes that have ducts that empty at the nipple and that supply the nursing child with nutrient- and antibody-rich milk to aid development and protect the child.

Internal female reproductive structures include ovaries, oviducts, the **uterus**, and the vagina, shown in **Figure 43.10**. The pair of ovaries is held in place in the abdominal cavity by a system of ligaments. Ovaries consist of a medulla and cortex: the medulla contains nerves and blood vessels to supply the cortex with nutrients and remove waste. The outer layers of cells of the cortex are the functional parts of the ovaries. The cortex is made up of follicular cells that surround eggs that develop during fetal development *in utero*. During the menstrual period, a batch of follicular cells develops and prepares the eggs for release. At ovulation, one follicle ruptures and one egg is released, as illustrated in **Figure 43.11a**.

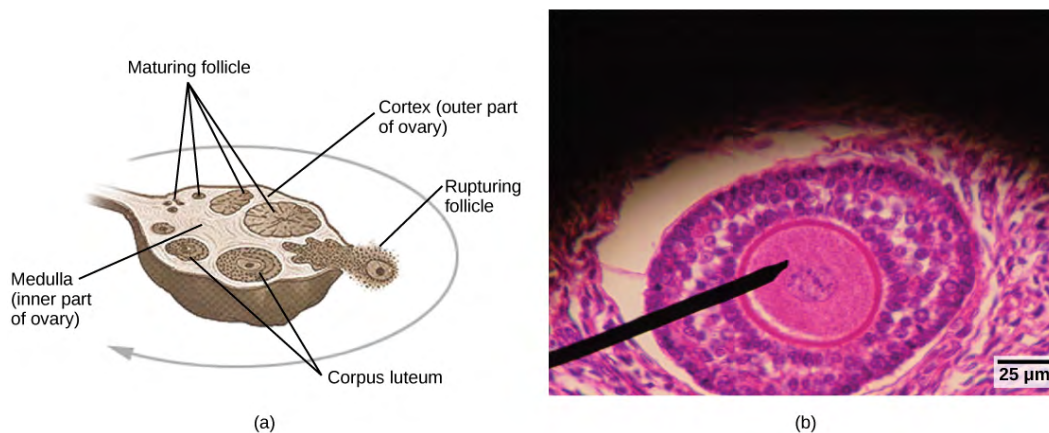


Figure 43.11 Oocytes develop in (a) follicles, located in the ovary. At the beginning of the menstrual cycle, the follicle matures. At ovulation, the follicle ruptures, releasing the egg. The follicle becomes a corpus luteum, which eventually degenerates. The (b) follicle in this light micrograph has an oocyte at its center. (credit a: modification of work by NIH; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

The **oviducts**, or fallopian tubes, extend from the uterus in the lower abdominal cavity to the ovaries, but they are not in contact with the ovaries. The lateral ends of the oviducts flare out into a trumpet-like structure and have a fringe of finger-like projections called fimbriae, illustrated in **Figure 43.10b**. When an egg is released at ovulation, the fimbriae help the non-motile egg enter into the tube and passage to the uterus. The walls of the oviducts are ciliated and are made up mostly of smooth muscle. The cilia beat toward the middle, and the smooth muscle contracts in the same direction, moving the egg toward the uterus. Fertilization usually takes place within the oviducts and the developing embryo is moved toward the uterus for development. It usually takes the egg or embryo a week to travel through the oviduct. Sterilization in women is called a tubal ligation; it is analogous to a vasectomy in males in that the oviducts are severed and sealed.

The uterus is a structure about the size of a woman's fist. This is lined with an endometrium rich in blood vessels and mucus glands. The uterus supports the developing embryo and fetus during gestation. The thickest portion of the wall of the uterus is made of smooth muscle. Contractions of the smooth muscle in the uterus aid in passing the baby through the vagina during labor. A portion of the lining of the uterus sloughs off during each menstrual period, and then builds up again in preparation for an implantation. Part of the uterus, called the cervix, protrudes into the top of the vagina. The cervix functions as the birth canal.

The **vagina** is a muscular tube that serves several purposes. It allows menstrual flow to leave the body. It is the receptacle for the penis during intercourse and the vessel for the delivery of offspring. It is lined by stratified squamous epithelial cells to protect the underlying tissue.

Sexual Response during Intercourse

The sexual response in humans is both psychological and physiological. Both sexes experience sexual arousal through psychological and physical stimulation. There are four phases of the sexual response. During phase one, called excitement, vasodilation leads to vasocongestion in erectile tissues in both men and women. The nipples, clitoris, labia, and penis engorge with blood and become enlarged. Vaginal secretions are released to lubricate the vagina to facilitate intercourse. During the second phase, called the plateau, stimulation continues, the outer third of the vaginal wall enlarges with blood, and breathing and heart rate increase.

During phase three, or orgasm, rhythmic, involuntary contractions of muscles occur in both sexes. In the male, the reproductive accessory glands and tubules constrict placing semen in the urethra, then the urethra contracts expelling the semen through the penis. In women, the uterus and vaginal muscles contract in waves that may last slightly less than a second each. During phase four, or resolution, the processes described in the first three phases reverse themselves and return to their normal state. Men experience a refractory period in which they cannot maintain an erection or ejaculate for a period of time ranging from minutes to hours.

Gametogenesis (Spermatogenesis and Oogenesis)

Gametogenesis, the production of sperm and eggs, takes place through the process of meiosis. During meiosis, two cell divisions separate the paired chromosomes in the nucleus and then separate the chromatids that were made during an earlier stage of the cell's life cycle. Meiosis produces haploid cells with half of each pair of chromosomes normally found in diploid cells. The production of sperm is called **spermatogenesis** and the production of eggs is called **oogenesis**.

Spermatogenesis

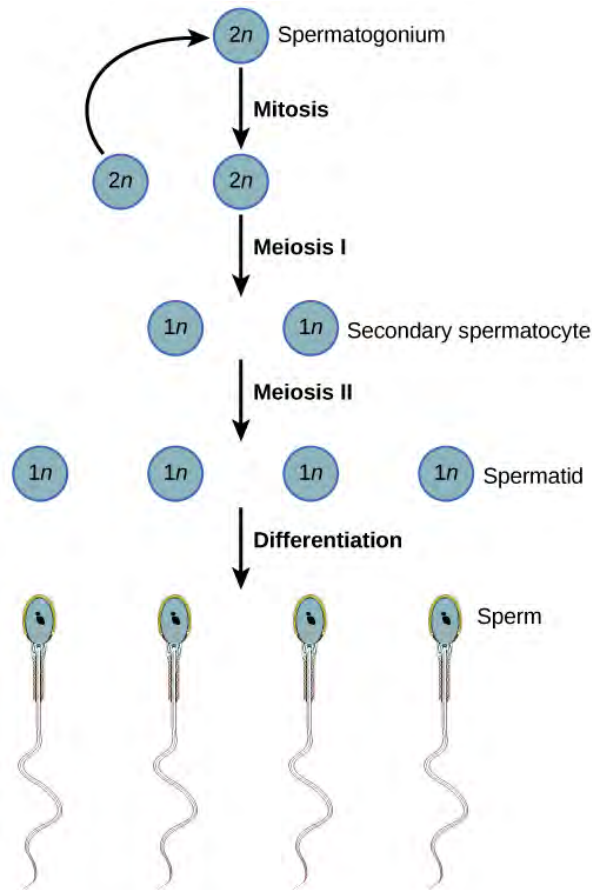


Figure 43.12 During spermatogenesis, four sperm result from each primary spermatocyte.

Spermatogenesis, illustrated in **Figure 43.12**, occurs in the wall of the seminiferous tubules (**Figure 43.8**), with stem cells at the periphery of the tube and the spermatozoa at the lumen of the tube. Immediately under the capsule of the tubule are diploid, undifferentiated cells. These stem cells, called spermatogonia (singular: spermatogonium), go through mitosis with one offspring going on to differentiate into a sperm cell and the other giving rise to the next generation of sperm.

Meiosis starts with a cell called a primary spermatocyte. At the end of the first meiotic division, a haploid cell is produced called a secondary spermatocyte. This cell is haploid and must go through another meiotic cell division. The cell produced at the end of meiosis is called a spermatid and when it reaches the lumen of the tubule and grows a flagellum, it is called a sperm cell. Four sperm result from each primary spermatocyte that goes through meiosis.

Stem cells are deposited during gestation and are present at birth through the beginning of adolescence, but in an inactive state. During adolescence, gonadotropic hormones from the anterior pituitary cause the activation of these cells and the production of viable sperm. This continues into old age.

LINK TO LEARNING



Visit [this site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/spermatogenesis\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/spermatogenesis) to see the process of spermatogenesis.

Oogenesis

Oogenesis, illustrated in **Figure 43.13**, occurs in the outermost layers of the ovaries. As with sperm production, oogenesis starts with a germ cell, called an oogonium (plural: oogonia), but this cell undergoes mitosis to increase in number, eventually resulting in up to about one to two million cells in the embryo.

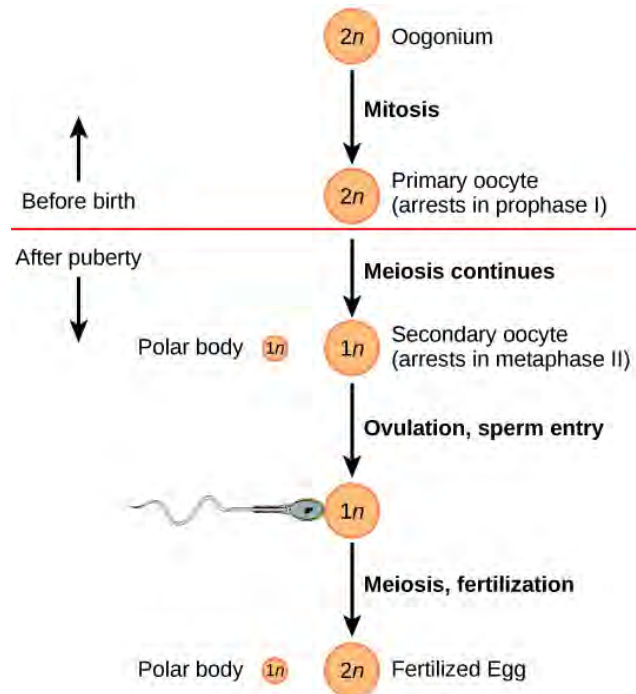


Figure 43.13 The process of oogenesis occurs in the ovary's outermost layer.

The cell starting meiosis is called a primary oocyte, as shown in **Figure 43.13**. This cell will start the first meiotic division and be arrested in its progress in the first prophase stage. At the time of birth, all future eggs are in the prophase stage. At adolescence, anterior pituitary hormones cause the development of a number of follicles in an ovary. This results in the primary oocyte finishing the first meiotic division. The cell divides unequally, with most of the cellular material and organelles going to one cell, called a secondary oocyte, and only one set of chromosomes and a small amount of cytoplasm going to the other cell. This second cell is called a polar body and usually dies. A secondary meiotic arrest occurs, this time at the metaphase II stage. At ovulation, this secondary oocyte will be released and travel toward the uterus through the oviduct. If the secondary oocyte is fertilized, the cell continues through the meiosis II, producing a second polar body and a fertilized egg containing all 46 chromosomes of a human being, half of them coming from the sperm.

Egg production begins before birth, is arrested during meiosis until puberty, and then individual cells continue through at each menstrual cycle. One egg is produced from each meiotic process, with the extra chromosomes and chromatids going into polar bodies that degenerate and are reabsorbed by the body.

43.4 | Hormonal Control of Human Reproduction

By the end of this chapter, you will be able to:

- Describe the roles of male and female reproductive hormones
- Discuss the interplay of the ovarian and menstrual cycles
- Describe the process of menopause

The human male and female reproductive cycles are controlled by the interaction of hormones from the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary with hormones from reproductive tissues and organs. In both sexes, the hypothalamus monitors and causes the release of hormones from the pituitary gland. When the

reproductive hormone is required, the hypothalamus sends a **gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)** to the anterior pituitary. This causes the release of **follicle stimulating hormone (FSH)** and **luteinizing hormone (LH)** from the anterior pituitary into the blood. Note that the body must reach puberty in order for the adrenals to release the hormones that must be present for GnRH to be produced. Although FSH and LH are named after their functions in female reproduction, they are produced in both sexes and play important roles in controlling reproduction. Other hormones have specific functions in the male and female reproductive systems.

Male Hormones

At the onset of puberty, the hypothalamus causes the release of FSH and LH into the male system for the first time. FSH enters the testes and stimulates the **Sertoli cells** to begin facilitating spermatogenesis using negative feedback, as illustrated in **Figure 43.14**. LH also enters the testes and stimulates the **interstitial cells of Leydig** to make and release testosterone into the testes and the blood.

Testosterone, the hormone responsible for the secondary sexual characteristics that develop in the male during adolescence, stimulates spermatogenesis. These secondary sex characteristics include a deepening of the voice, the growth of facial, axillary, and pubic hair, and the beginnings of the sex drive.

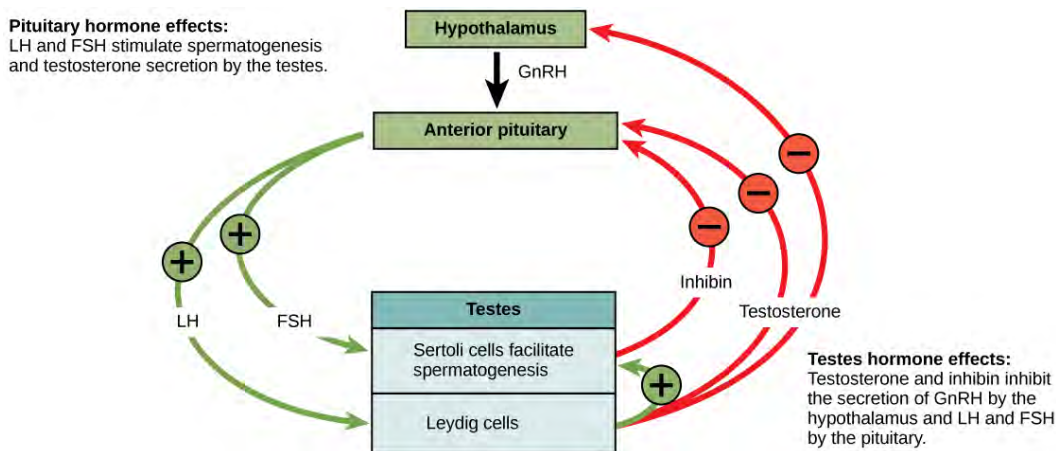


Figure 43.14 Hormones control sperm production in a negative feedback system.

A negative feedback system occurs in the male with rising levels of testosterone acting on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary to inhibit the release of GnRH, FSH, and LH. The Sertoli cells produce the hormone **inhibin**, which is released into the blood when the sperm count is too high. This inhibits the release of GnRH and FSH, which will cause spermatogenesis to slow down. If the sperm count reaches 20 million/ml, the Sertoli cells cease the release of inhibin, and the sperm count increases.

Female Hormones

The control of reproduction in females is more complex. As with the male, the anterior pituitary hormones cause the release of the hormones FSH and LH. In addition, estrogens and progesterone are released from the developing follicles. **Estrogen** is the reproductive hormone in females that assists in endometrial regrowth, ovulation, and calcium absorption; it is also responsible for the secondary sexual characteristics of females. These include breast development, flaring of the hips, and a shorter period necessary for bone maturation. **Progesterone** assists in endometrial re-growth and inhibition of FSH and LH release.

In females, FSH stimulates development of egg cells, called ova, which develop in structures called follicles. Follicle cells produce the hormone inhibin, which inhibits FSH production. LH also plays a role in the development of ova, induction of ovulation, and stimulation of estradiol and progesterone production by the ovaries. Estradiol and progesterone are steroid hormones that prepare the body for pregnancy. Estradiol produces secondary sex characteristics in females, while both estradiol and progesterone regulate the menstrual cycle.

The Ovarian Cycle and the Menstrual Cycle

The **ovarian cycle** governs the preparation of endocrine tissues and release of eggs, while the **menstrual cycle** governs the preparation and maintenance of the uterine lining. These cycles occur concurrently and are coordinated over a 22–32 day cycle, with an average length of 28 days.

The first half of the ovarian cycle is the follicular phase shown in **Figure 43.15**. Slowly rising levels of FSH and LH cause the growth of follicles on the surface of the ovary. This process prepares the

egg for ovulation. As the follicles grow, they begin releasing estrogens and a low level of progesterone. Progesterone maintains the endometrium to help ensure pregnancy. The trip through the fallopian tube takes about seven days. At this stage of development, called the morula, there are 30-60 cells. If pregnancy implantation does not occur, the lining is sloughed off. After about five days, estrogen levels rise and the menstrual cycle enters the proliferative phase. The endometrium begins to regrow, replacing the blood vessels and glands that deteriorated during the end of the last cycle.

art CONNECTION

Hormone levels during the follicular phase, ovulation, and the luteal phase are compared. During the follicular phase, LH and FSH secreted from the pituitary stimulate several follicles to grow. The follicles produce low levels of estradiol that inhibit GnRH secretion by the hypothalamus, keeping LH and FSH levels low. Low levels of estradiol also cause the endometrial arteries to constrict, resulting in menstruation. During the time leading up to ovulation, LH and FSH stimulate maturation of one of the follicles. The growing follicle begins to produce high levels of estradiol, which stimulates GnRH secretion by the hypothalamus. As a result, LH and FSH levels rise, resulting in ovulation about a day later. Estradiol also causes the endometrium to thicken. After ovulation, the ovarian cycle enters the luteal phase. LH from the pituitary stimulates growth of the corpus luteum from the ruptured follicle. The corpus luteum secretes estradiol and progesterone that block GnRH production by the hypothalamus and LH and FSH production by the pituitary. Estradiol and progesterone also cause the endometrium to further develop.

Figure 43.15 The ovarian and menstrual cycles of female reproduction are regulated by hormones produced by the hypothalamus, pituitary, and ovaries.

Which of the following statements about hormone regulation of the female reproductive cycle is false?

- LH and FSH are produced in the pituitary, and estradiol and progesterone are produced in the ovaries.
- Estradiol and progesterone secreted from the corpus luteum cause the endometrium to thicken.
- Both progesterone and estradiol are produced by the follicles.
- Secretion of GnRH by the hypothalamus is inhibited by low levels of estradiol but stimulated by high levels of estradiol.

Just prior to the middle of the cycle (approximately day 14), the high level of estrogen causes FSH and especially LH to rise rapidly, then fall. The spike in LH causes **ovulation**: the most mature follicle, like that shown in **Figure 43.16**, ruptures and releases its egg. The follicles that did not rupture degenerate and their eggs are lost. The level of estrogen decreases when the extra follicles degenerate.



Figure 43.16 This mature egg follicle may rupture and release an egg. (credit: scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

Following ovulation, the ovarian cycle enters its luteal phase, illustrated in **Figure 43.15** and the menstrual cycle enters its secretory phase, both of which run from about day 15 to 28. The luteal and secretory phases refer to changes in the ruptured follicle. The cells in the follicle undergo physical changes and produce a structure called a corpus luteum. The corpus luteum produces estrogen and progesterone. The progesterone facilitates the regrowth of the uterine lining and inhibits the release of further FSH and LH. The uterus is being prepared to accept a fertilized egg, should it occur during this cycle. The inhibition of FSH and LH prevents any further eggs and follicles from developing, while the progesterone is elevated. The level of estrogen produced by the corpus luteum increases to a steady level for the next few days.

If no fertilized egg is implanted into the uterus, the corpus luteum degenerates and the levels of estrogen and progesterone decrease. The endometrium begins to degenerate as the progesterone levels drop, initiating the next menstrual cycle. The decrease in progesterone also allows the hypothalamus to send GnRH to the anterior pituitary, releasing FSH and LH and starting the cycles again. **Figure 43.17** visually compares the ovarian and uterine cycles as well as the commensurate hormone levels.

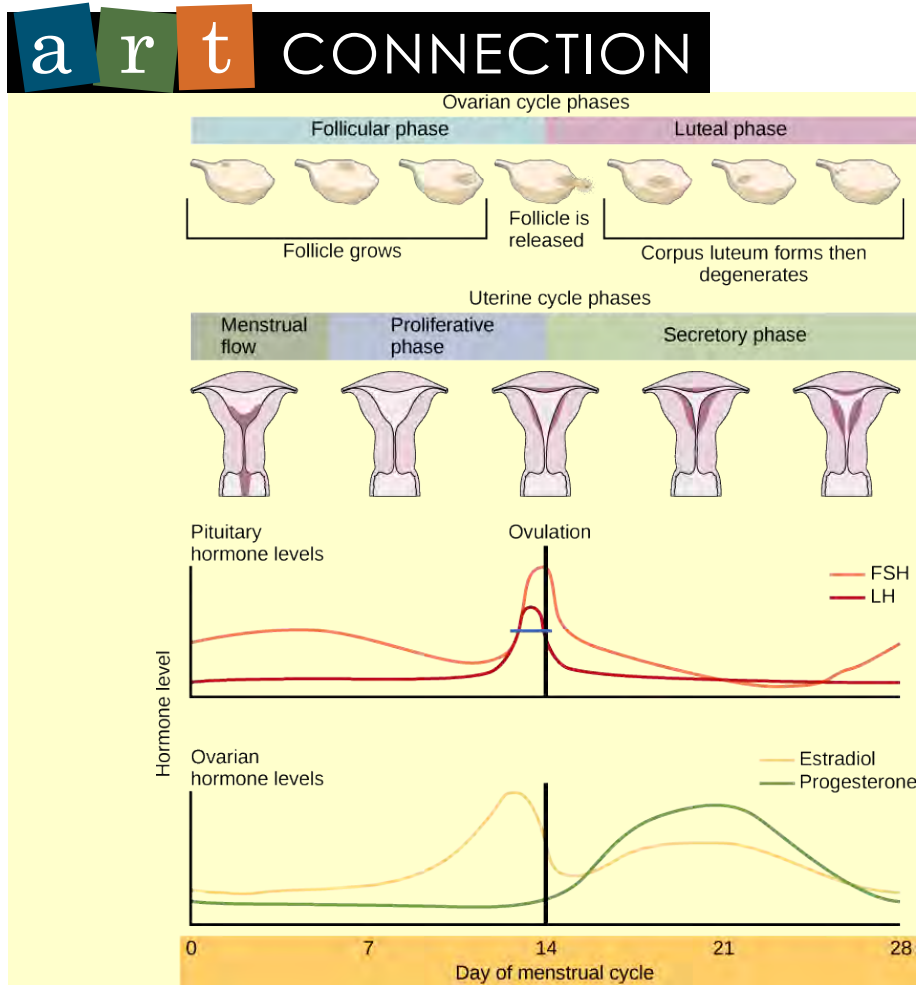


Figure 43.17 Rising and falling hormone levels result in progression of the ovarian and menstrual cycles. (credit: modification of work by Mikael Häggström)

Which of the following statements about the menstrual cycle is false?

- Progesterone levels rise during the luteal phase of the ovarian cycle and the secretory phase of the uterine cycle.
- Menstruation occurs just after LH and FSH levels peak.
- Menstruation occurs after progesterone levels drop.
- Estrogen levels rise before ovulation, while progesterone levels rise after.

Menopause

As women approach their mid-40s to mid-50s, their ovaries begin to lose their sensitivity to FSH and LH. Menstrual periods become less frequent and finally cease; this is **menopause**. There are still eggs and potential follicles on the ovaries, but without the stimulation of FSH and LH, they will not produce a viable egg to be released. The outcome of this is the inability to have children.

The side effects of menopause include hot flashes, heavy sweating (especially at night), headaches, some hair loss, muscle pain, vaginal dryness, insomnia, depression, weight gain, and mood swings. Estrogen is involved in calcium metabolism and, without it, blood levels of calcium decrease. To replenish the blood, calcium is lost from bone which may decrease the bone density and lead to osteoporosis. Supplementation of estrogen in the form of hormone replacement therapy (HRT) can prevent bone loss, but the therapy can have negative side effects. While HRT is thought to give some protection from colon cancer, osteoporosis, heart disease, macular degeneration, and possibly depression, its negative side effects include increased risk of: stroke or heart attack, blood clots, breast cancer, ovarian cancer, endometrial cancer, gall bladder disease, and possibly dementia.



Reproductive Endocrinologist

A reproductive endocrinologist is a physician who treats a variety of hormonal disorders related to reproduction and infertility in both men and women. The disorders include menstrual problems, infertility, pregnancy loss, sexual dysfunction, and menopause. Doctors may use fertility drugs, surgery, or assisted reproductive techniques (ART) in their therapy. ART involves the use of procedures to manipulate the egg or sperm to facilitate reproduction, such as *in vitro* fertilization.

Reproductive endocrinologists undergo extensive medical training, first in a four-year residency in obstetrics and gynecology, then in a three-year fellowship in reproductive endocrinology. To be board certified in this area, the physician must pass written and oral exams in both areas.

43.5 | Human Pregnancy and Birth

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain fetal development during the three trimesters of gestation
- Describe labor and delivery
- Compare the efficacy and duration of various types of contraception
- Discuss causes of infertility and the therapeutic options available

Pregnancy begins with the fertilization of an egg and continues through to the birth of the individual. The length of time of **gestation** varies among animals, but is very similar among the great apes: human gestation is 266 days, while chimpanzee gestation is 237 days, a gorilla's is 257 days, and orangutan gestation is 260 days long. The fox has a 57-day gestation. Dogs and cats have similar gestations averaging 60 days. The longest gestation for a land mammal is an African elephant at 640 days. The longest gestations among marine mammals are the beluga and sperm whales at 460 days.

Human Gestation

Twenty-four hours before fertilization, the egg has finished meiosis and becomes a mature oocyte. When fertilized (at conception) the egg becomes known as a zygote. The zygote travels through the oviduct to the uterus (**Figure 43.18**). The developing embryo must implant into the wall of the uterus within seven days, or it will deteriorate and die. The outer layers of the zygote (blastocyst) grow into the endometrium by digesting the endometrial cells, and wound healing of the endometrium closes up the blastocyst into the tissue. Another layer of the blastocyst, the chorion, begins releasing a hormone called **human beta chorionic gonadotropin (β -HCG)** which makes its way to the corpus luteum and keeps that structure active. This ensures adequate levels of progesterone that will maintain the endometrium of the uterus for the support of the developing embryo. Pregnancy tests determine the level of β -HCG in urine or serum. If the hormone is present, the test is positive.

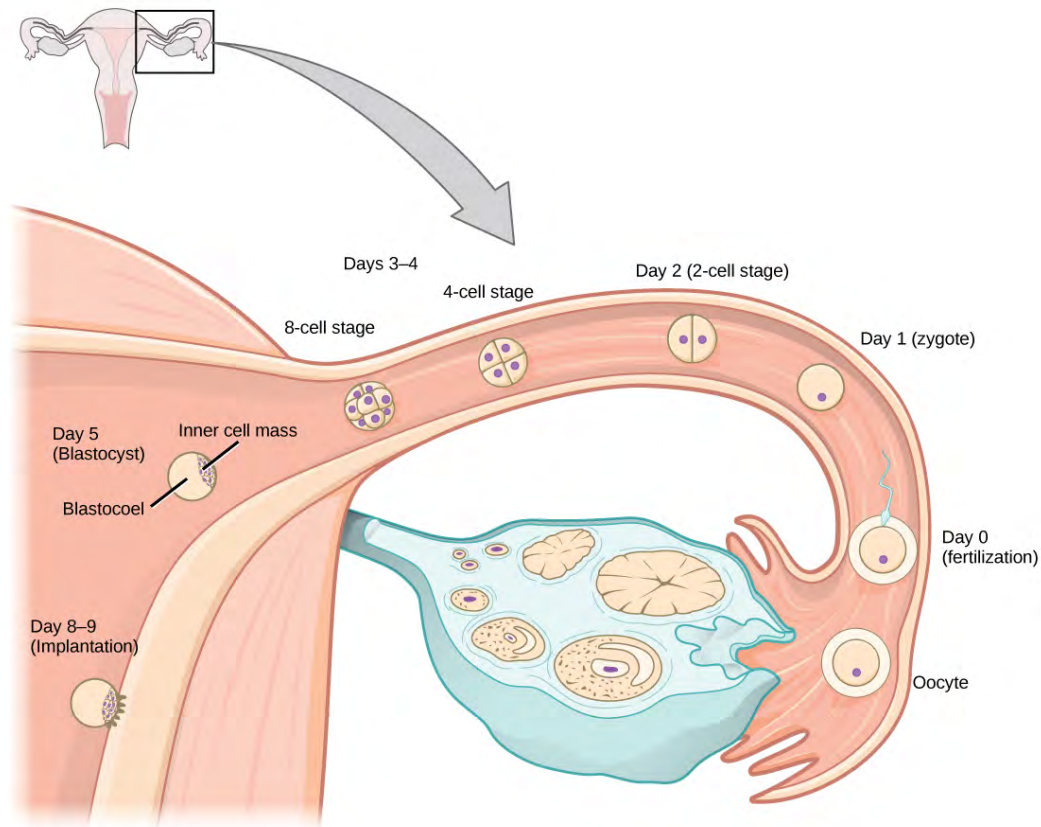


Figure 43.18 In humans, fertilization occurs soon after the oocyte leaves the ovary. Implantation occurs eight or nine days later. (credit: Ed Uthman)

The gestation period is divided into three equal periods or trimesters. During the first two to four weeks of the first trimester, nutrition and waste are handled by the endometrial lining through diffusion. As the trimester progresses, the outer layer of the embryo begins to merge with the endometrium, and the **placenta** forms. This organ takes over the nutrient and waste requirements of the embryo and fetus, with the mother's blood passing nutrients to the placenta and removing waste from it. Chemicals from the fetus, such as bilirubin, are processed by the mother's liver for elimination. Some of the mother's immunoglobulins will pass through the placenta, providing passive immunity against some potential infections.

Internal organs and body structures begin to develop during the first trimester. By five weeks, limb buds, eyes, the heart, and liver have been basically formed. By eight weeks, the term fetus applies, and the body is essentially formed, as shown in **Figure 43.19**. The individual is about five centimeters (two inches) in length and many of the organs, such as the lungs and liver, are not yet functioning. Exposure to any toxins is especially dangerous during the first trimester, as all of the body's organs and structures are going through initial development. Anything that affects that development can have a severe effect on the fetus' survival.



Figure 43.19 Fetal development is shown at nine weeks gestation. (credit: Ed Uthman)

During the second trimester, the fetus grows to about 30 cm (12 inches), as shown in **Figure 43.20**. It becomes active and the mother usually feels the first movements. All organs and structures continue to develop. The placenta has taken over the functions of nutrition and waste and the production of estrogen and progesterone from the corpus luteum, which has degenerated. The placenta will continue functioning up through the delivery of the baby.



Figure 43.20 This fetus is just entering the second trimester, when the placenta takes over more of the functions performed as the baby develops. (credit: National Museum of Health and Medicine)

During the third trimester, the fetus grows to 3 to 4 kg (6 ½ -8 ½ lbs.) and about 50 cm (19-20 inches) long, as illustrated in **Figure 43.21**. This is the period of the most rapid growth during the pregnancy. Organ development continues to birth (and some systems, such as the nervous system and liver, continue to develop after birth). The mother will be at her most uncomfortable during this trimester. She may urinate frequently due to pressure on the bladder from the fetus. There may also be intestinal blockage

and circulatory problems, especially in her legs. Clots may form in her legs due to pressure from the fetus on returning veins as they enter the abdominal cavity.

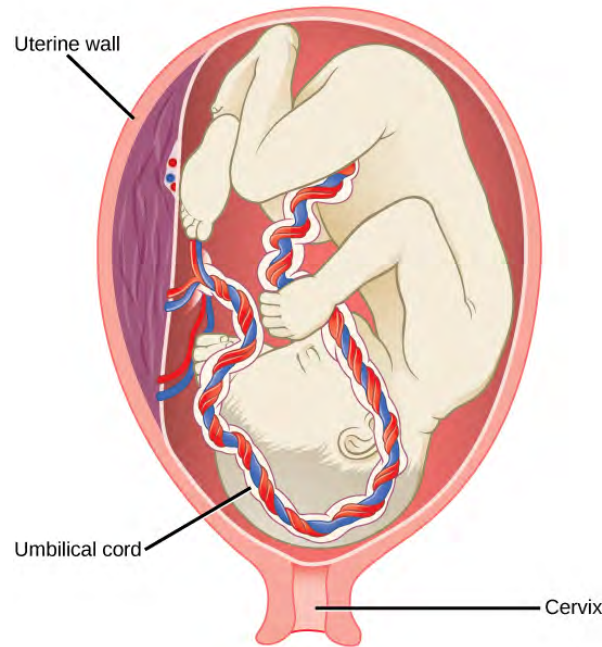


Figure 43.21 There is rapid fetal growth during the third trimester. (credit: modification of work by Gray's Anatomy)

LINK TO LEARNING



Visit [this site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/embryo_fetus\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/embryo_fetus) to see the stages of human fetal development.

Labor and Birth

Labor is the physical efforts of expulsion of the fetus and the placenta from the uterus during birth (parturition). Toward the end of the third trimester, estrogen causes receptors on the uterine wall to develop and bind the hormone oxytocin. At this time, the baby reorients, facing forward and down with the back or crown of the head engaging the cervix (uterine opening). This causes the cervix to stretch and nerve impulses are sent to the hypothalamus, which signals for the release of oxytocin from the posterior pituitary. The oxytocin causes the smooth muscle in the uterine wall to contract. At the same time, the placenta releases prostaglandins into the uterus, increasing the contractions. A positive feedback relay occurs between the uterus, hypothalamus, and the posterior pituitary to assure an adequate supply of oxytocin. As more smooth muscle cells are recruited, the contractions increase in intensity and force.

There are three stages to labor. During stage one, the cervix thins and dilates. This is necessary for the baby and placenta to be expelled during birth. The cervix will eventually dilate to about 10 cm. During stage two, the baby is expelled from the uterus. The uterus contracts and the mother pushes as she compresses her abdominal muscles to aid the delivery. The last stage is the passage of the placenta after the baby has been born and the organ has completely disengaged from the uterine wall. If labor should stop before stage two is reached, synthetic oxytocin, known as Pitocin, can be administered to restart and maintain labor.

An alternative to labor and delivery is the surgical delivery of the baby through a procedure called a Caesarian section. This is major abdominal surgery and can lead to post-surgical complications for the mother, but in some cases it may be the only way to safely deliver the baby.

The mother's mammary glands go through changes during the third trimester to prepare for lactation and breastfeeding. When the baby begins suckling at the breast, signals are sent to the hypothalamus causing the release of prolactin from the anterior pituitary. Prolactin causes the mammary glands to produce milk. Oxytocin is also released, promoting the release of the milk. The milk contains nutrients for the baby's development and growth as well as immunoglobulins to protect the child from bacterial and viral infections.

Contraception and Birth Control

The prevention of a pregnancy comes under the terms contraception or birth control. Strictly speaking, **contraception** refers to preventing the sperm and egg from joining. Both terms are, however, frequently used interchangeably.

Contraceptive Methods

Method	Examples	Failure Rate in Typical Use Over 12 Months
Barrier	male condom, female condom, sponge, cervical cap, diaphragm, spermicides	15 to 24%
Hormonal	oral, patch, vaginal ring	8%
	injection	3%
	implant	less than 1%
Other	natural family planning	12 to 25%
	withdrawal	27%
	sterilization	less than 1%

Table 43.3

Table 43.3 lists common methods of contraception. The failure rates listed are not the ideal rates that could be realized, but the typical rates that occur. A failure rate is the number of pregnancies resulting from the method's use over a twelve-month period. Barrier methods, such as condoms, cervical caps, and diaphragms, block sperm from entering the uterus, preventing fertilization. Spermicides are chemicals that are placed in the vagina that kill sperm. Sponges, which are saturated with spermicides, are placed in the vagina at the cervical opening. Combinations of spermicidal chemicals and barrier methods achieve lower failure rates than do the methods when used separately.

Nearly a quarter of the couples using barrier methods, natural family planning, or withdrawal can expect a failure of the method. Natural family planning is based on the monitoring of the menstrual cycle and having intercourse only during times when the egg is not available. A woman's body temperature may rise a degree Celsius at ovulation and the cervical mucus may increase in volume and become more pliable. These changes give a general indication of when intercourse is more or less likely to result in fertilization. Withdrawal involves the removal of the penis from the vagina during intercourse, before ejaculation occurs. This is a risky method with a high failure rate due to the possible presence of sperm in the bulbourethral gland's secretion, which may enter the vagina prior to removing the penis.

Hormonal methods use synthetic progesterone (sometimes in combination with estrogen), to inhibit the hypothalamus from releasing FSH or LH, and thus prevent an egg from being available for fertilization. The method of administering the hormone affects failure rate. The most reliable method, with a failure rate of less than 1 percent, is the implantation of the hormone under the skin. The same rate can be achieved through the sterilization procedures of vasectomy in the man or of tubal ligation in the woman, or by using an intrauterine device (IUD). IUDs are inserted into the uterus and establish an inflammatory condition that prevents fertilized eggs from implanting into the uterine wall.

Compliance with the contraceptive method is a strong contributor to the success or failure rate of any particular method. The only method that is completely effective at preventing conception is abstinence. The choice of contraceptive method depends on the goals of the woman or couple. Tubal ligation and

vasectomy are considered permanent prevention, while other methods are reversible and provide short-term contraception.

Termination of an existing pregnancy can be spontaneous or voluntary. Spontaneous termination is a miscarriage and usually occurs very early in the pregnancy, usually within the first few weeks. This occurs when the fetus cannot develop properly and the gestation is naturally terminated. Voluntary termination of a pregnancy is an abortion. Laws regulating abortion vary between states and tend to view fetal viability as the criteria for allowing or preventing the procedure.

Infertility

Infertility is the inability to conceive a child or carry a child to birth. About 75 percent of causes of infertility can be identified; these include diseases, such as sexually transmitted diseases that can cause scarring of the reproductive tubes in either men or women, or developmental problems frequently related to abnormal hormone levels in one of the individuals. Inadequate nutrition, especially starvation, can delay menstruation. Stress can also lead to infertility. Short-term stress can affect hormone levels, while long-term stress can delay puberty and cause less frequent menstrual cycles. Other factors that affect fertility include toxins (such as cadmium), tobacco smoking, marijuana use, gonadal injuries, and aging.

If infertility is identified, several assisted reproductive technologies (ART) are available to aid conception. A common type of ART is *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) where an egg and sperm are combined outside the body and then placed in the uterus. Eggs are obtained from the woman after extensive hormonal treatments that prepare mature eggs for fertilization and prepare the uterus for implantation of the fertilized egg. Sperm are obtained from the man and they are combined with the eggs and supported through several cell divisions to ensure viability of the zygotes. When the embryos have reached the eight-cell stage, one or more is implanted into the woman's uterus. If fertilization is not accomplished by simple IVF, a procedure that injects the sperm into an egg can be used. This is called intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) and is shown in **Figure 43.22**. IVF procedures produce a surplus of fertilized eggs and embryos that can be frozen and stored for future use. The procedures can also result in multiple births.

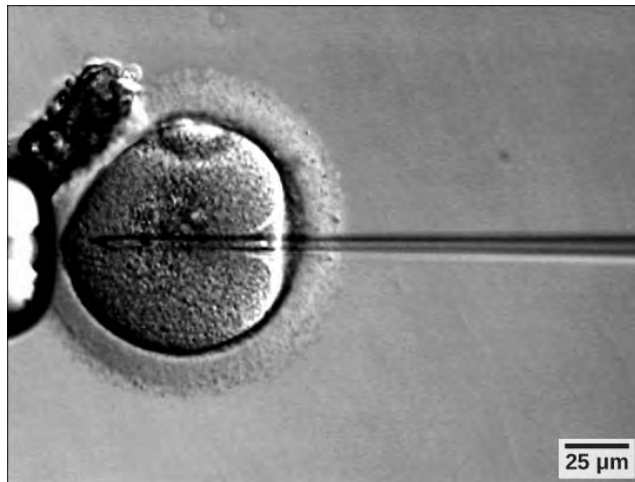


Figure 43.22 A sperm is inserted into an egg for fertilization during intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI). (credit: scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

43.6 | Fertilization and Early Embryonic Development

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss how fertilization occurs
- Explain how the embryo forms from the zygote
- Discuss the role of cleavage and gastrulation in animal development

The process in which an organism develops from a single-celled zygote to a multi-cellular organism is complex and well-regulated. The early stages of embryonic development are also crucial for ensuring the fitness of the organism.

Fertilization

Fertilization, pictured in **Figure 43.23a** is the process in which gametes (an egg and sperm) fuse to form a zygote. The egg and sperm each contain one set of chromosomes. To ensure that the offspring has only one complete diploid set of chromosomes, only one sperm must fuse with one egg. In mammals, the egg is protected by a layer of extracellular matrix consisting mainly of glycoproteins called the **zona pellucida**. When a sperm binds to the zona pellucida, a series of biochemical events, called the **acrosomal reactions**, take place. In placental mammals, the acrosome contains digestive enzymes that initiate the degradation of the glycoprotein matrix protecting the egg and allowing the sperm plasma membrane to fuse with the egg plasma membrane, as illustrated in **Figure 43.23b**. The fusion of these two membranes creates an opening through which the sperm nucleus is transferred into the ovum. The nuclear membranes of the egg and sperm break down and the two haploid genomes condense to form a diploid genome.

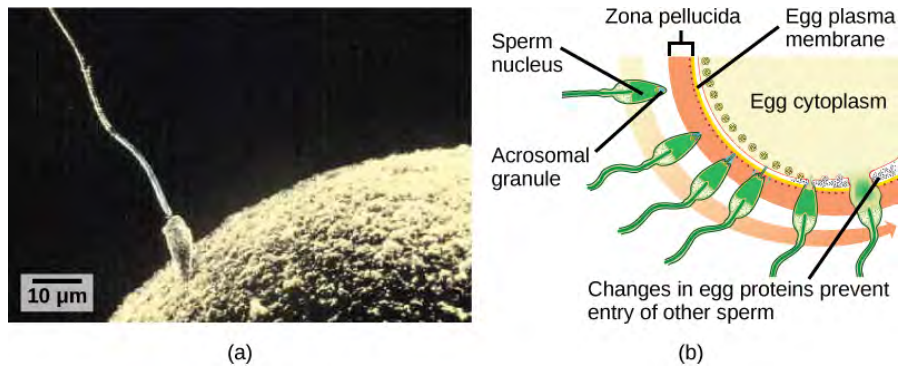


Figure 43.23 (a) Fertilization is the process in which sperm and egg fuse to form a zygote. (b) Acrosomal reactions help the sperm degrade the glycoprotein matrix protecting the egg and allow the sperm to transfer its nucleus. (credit: (b) modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

To ensure that no more than one sperm fertilizes the egg, once the acrosomal reactions take place at one location of the egg membrane, the egg releases proteins in other locations to prevent other sperm from fusing with the egg. If this mechanism fails, multiple sperm can fuse with the egg, resulting in **polyspermy**. The resulting embryo is not genetically viable and dies within a few days.

Cleavage and Blastula Stage

The development of multi-cellular organisms begins from a single-celled zygote, which undergoes rapid cell division to form the blastula. The rapid, multiple rounds of cell division are termed cleavage. Cleavage is illustrated in **Figure 43.24a**. After the cleavage has produced over 100 cells, the embryo is called a blastula. The blastula is usually a spherical layer of cells (the blastoderm) surrounding a fluid-filled or yolk-filled cavity (the blastocoel). Mammals at this stage form a structure called the blastocyst, characterized by an inner cell mass that is distinct from the surrounding blastula, shown in **Figure 43.24b**. During cleavage, the cells divide without an increase in mass; that is, one large single-celled zygote divides into multiple smaller cells. Each cell within the blastula is called a blastomere.

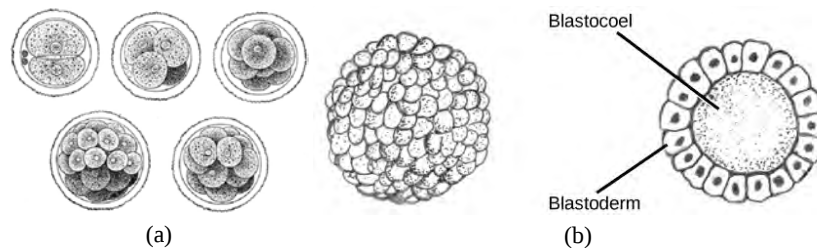


Figure 43.24 (a) During cleavage, the zygote rapidly divides into multiple cells without increasing in size. (b) The cells rearrange themselves to form a hollow ball with a fluid-filled or yolk-filled cavity called the blastula. (credit a: modification of work by Gray's Anatomy; credit b: modification of work by Pearson Scott Foresman, donated to the Wikimedia Foundation)

Cleavage can take place in two ways: **holoblastic** (total) cleavage or **meroblastic** (partial) cleavage. The type of cleavage depends on the amount of yolk in the eggs. In placental mammals (including humans) where nourishment is provided by the mother's body, the eggs have a very small amount of yolk and undergo holoblastic cleavage. Other species, such as birds, with a lot of yolk in the egg to nourish the embryo during development, undergo meroblastic cleavage.

In mammals, the blastula forms the **blastocyst** in the next stage of development. Here the cells in the blastula arrange themselves in two layers: the **inner cell mass**, and an outer layer called the **trophoblast**. The inner cell mass is also known as the embryoblast and this mass of cells will go on to form the embryo. At this stage of development, illustrated in **Figure 43.25** the inner cell mass consists of embryonic stem cells that will differentiate into the different cell types needed by the organism. The trophoblast will contribute to the placenta and nourish the embryo.

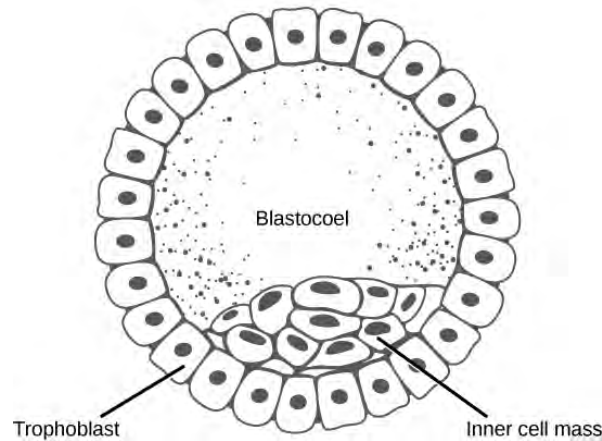


Figure 43.25 The rearrangement of the cells in the mammalian blastula to two layers—the inner cell mass and the trophoblast—results in the formation of the blastocyst.



Visit the **Virtual Human Embryo project** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/human_embryo) at the Endowment for Human Development site to step through an interactive that shows the stages of embryo development, including micrographs and rotating 3-D images.

Gastrulation

The typical blastula is a ball of cells. The next stage in embryonic development is the formation of the body plan. The cells in the blastula rearrange themselves spatially to form three layers of cells. This process is called **gastrulation**. During gastrulation, the blastula folds upon itself to form the three layers of cells. Each of these layers is called a germ layer and each germ layer differentiates into different organ systems.

The three germ layers, shown in **Figure 43.26**, are the endoderm, the ectoderm, and the mesoderm. The ectoderm gives rise to the nervous system and the epidermis. The mesoderm gives rise to the muscle cells and connective tissue in the body. The endoderm gives rise to columnar cells found in the digestive system and many internal organs.

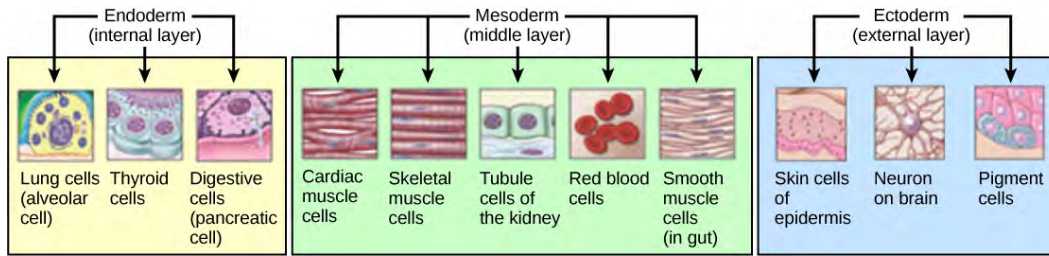


Figure 43.26 The three germ layers give rise to different cell types in the animal body. (credit: modification of work by NIH, NCBI)

everyday CONNECTION

Are Designer Babies in Our Future?

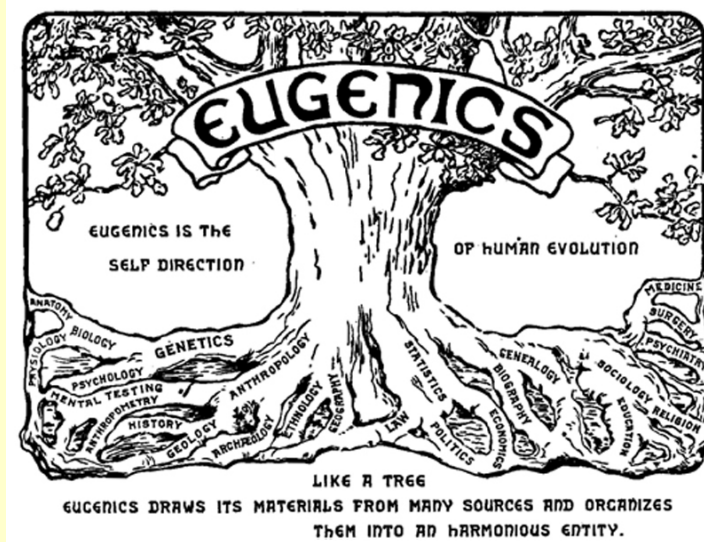


Figure 43.27 This logo from the Second International Eugenics Conference in New York City in September of 1921 shows how eugenics attempted to merge several fields of study with the goal of producing a genetically superior human race.

If you could prevent your child from getting a devastating genetic disease, would you do it? Would you select the sex of your child or select for their attractiveness, strength, or intelligence? How far would you go to maximize the possibility of resistance to disease? The genetic engineering of a human child, the production of "designer babies" with desirable phenotypic characteristics, was once a topic restricted to science fiction. This is the case no longer: science fiction is now overlapping into science fact. Many phenotypic choices for offspring are already available, with many more likely to be possible in the not too distant future. Which traits should be selected and how they should be selected are topics of much debate within the worldwide medical community. The ethical and moral line is not always clear or agreed upon, and some fear that modern reproductive technologies could lead to a new form of eugenics.

Eugenics is the use of information and technology from a variety of sources to improve the genetic makeup of the human race. The goal of creating genetically superior humans was quite prevalent (although controversial) in several countries during the early 20th century, but fell into disrepute when Nazi Germany developed an extensive eugenics program in the 1930's and 40's. As part of their program, the Nazis forcibly sterilized hundreds of thousands of the so-called "unfit" and killed tens of thousands of institutionally disabled people as part of a systematic program to develop a genetically superior race of Germans known as Aryans. Ever since, eugenic ideas have not been as publicly expressed, but there are still those who promote them.

Efforts have been made in the past to control traits in human children using donated sperm from men with desired traits. In fact, eugenicist Robert Klark Graham established a sperm bank in 1980 that included samples exclusively from donors with high IQs. The "genius" sperm bank failed to capture the public's imagination and the operation closed in 1999.

In more recent times, the procedure known as prenatal genetic diagnosis (PGD) has been developed. PGD involves the screening of human embryos as part of the process of *in vitro* fertilization, during which embryos are conceived and grown outside the mother's body for some period of time before they are implanted. The term PGD usually refers to both the diagnosis, selection, and the implantation of the selected embryos.

In the least controversial use of PGD, embryos are tested for the presence of alleles which cause genetic diseases such as sickle cell disease, muscular dystrophy, and hemophilia, in which a single disease-causing allele or pair of alleles has been identified. By excluding

embryos containing these alleles from implantation into the mother, the disease is prevented, and the unused embryos are either donated to science or discarded. There are relatively few in the worldwide medical community that question the ethics of this type of procedure, which allows individuals scared to have children because of the alleles they carry to do so successfully. The major limitation to this procedure is its expense. Not usually covered by medical insurance and thus out of reach financially for most couples, only a very small percentage of all live births use such complicated methodologies. Yet, even in cases like these where the ethical issues may seem to be clear-cut, not everyone agrees with the morality of these types of procedures. For example, to those who take the position that human life begins at conception, the discarding of unused embryos, a necessary result of PGD, is unacceptable under any circumstances.

A murkier ethical situation is found in the selection of a child's sex, which is easily performed by PGD. Currently, countries such as Great Britain have banned the selection of a child's sex for reasons other than preventing sex-linked diseases. Other countries allow the procedure for "family balancing", based on the desire of some parents to have at least one child of each sex. Still others, including the United States, have taken a scattershot approach to regulating these practices, essentially leaving it to the individual practicing physician to decide which practices are acceptable and which are not.

Even murkier are rare instances of disabled parents, such as those with deafness or dwarfism, who select embryos via PGD to ensure that they share their disability. These parents usually cite many positive aspects of their disabilities and associated culture as reasons for their choice, which they see as their moral right. To others, to purposely cause a disability in a child violates the basic medical principle of *Primum non nocere*, "first, do no harm." This procedure, although not illegal in most countries, demonstrates the complexity of ethical issues associated with choosing genetic traits in offspring.

Where could this process lead? Will this technology become more affordable and how should it be used? With the ability of technology to progress rapidly and unpredictably, a lack of definitive guidelines for the use of reproductive technologies before they arise might make it difficult for legislators to keep pace once they are in fact realized, assuming the process needs any government regulation at all. Other bioethicists argue that we should only deal with technologies that exist now, and not in some uncertain future. They argue that these types of procedures will always be expensive and rare, so the fears of eugenics and "master" races are unfounded and overstated. The debate continues.

43.7 | Organogenesis and Vertebrate Formation

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the process of organogenesis
- Identify the anatomical axes formed in vertebrates

Gastrulation leads to the formation of the three germ layers that give rise, during further development, to the different organs in the animal body. This process is called **organogenesis**. Organogenesis is characterized by rapid and precise movements of the cells within the embryo.

Organogenesis

Organs form from the germ layers through the process of differentiation. During differentiation, the embryonic stem cells express specific sets of genes which will determine their ultimate cell type. For example, some cells in the ectoderm will express the genes specific to skin cells. As a result, these cells will differentiate into epidermal cells. The process of differentiation is regulated by cellular signaling cascades.

Scientists study organogenesis extensively in the lab in fruit flies (*Drosophila*) and the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Drosophila* have segments along their bodies, and the patterning associated with the segment formation has allowed scientists to study which genes play important roles in organogenesis

along the length of the embryo at different time points. The nematode *C.elegans* has roughly 1000 somatic cells and scientists have studied the fate of each of these cells during their development in the nematode life cycle. There is little variation in patterns of cell lineage between individuals, unlike in mammals where cell development from the embryo is dependent on cellular cues.

In vertebrates, one of the primary steps during organogenesis is the formation of the neural system. The ectoderm forms epithelial cells and tissues, and neuronal tissues. During the formation of the neural system, special signaling molecules called growth factors signal some cells at the edge of the ectoderm to become epidermis cells. The remaining cells in the center form the neural plate. If the signaling by growth factors were disrupted, then the entire ectoderm would differentiate into neural tissue.

The neural plate undergoes a series of cell movements where it rolls up and forms a tube called the **neural tube**, as illustrated in **Figure 43.28**. In further development, the neural tube will give rise to the brain and the spinal cord.

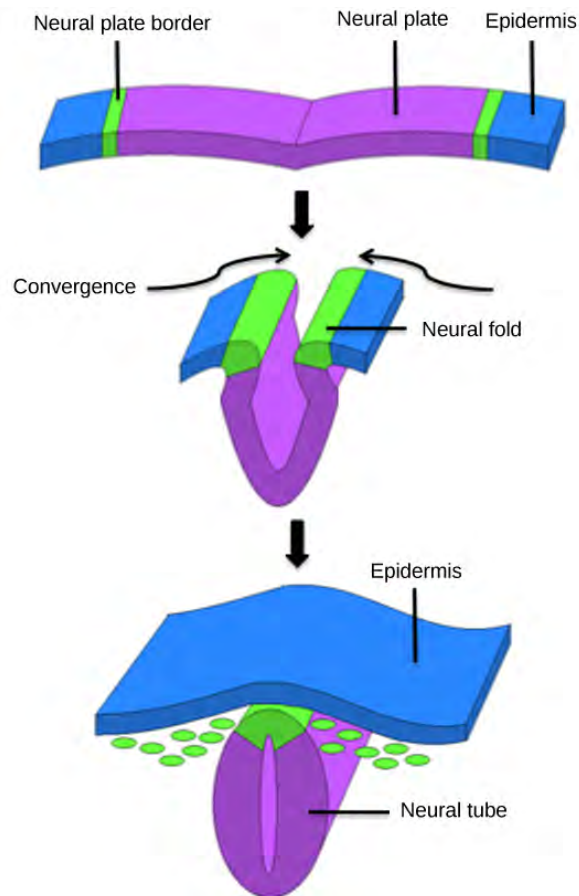


Figure 43.28 The central region of the ectoderm forms the neural tube, which gives rise to the brain and the spinal cord.

The mesoderm that lies on either side of the vertebrate neural tube will develop into the various connective tissues of the animal body. A spatial pattern of gene expression reorganizes the mesoderm into groups of cells called **somites** with spaces between them. The somites, illustrated in **Figure 43.29** will further develop into the ribs, lungs, and segmental (spine) muscle. The mesoderm also forms a structure called the notochord, which is rod-shaped and forms the central axis of the animal body.



Figure 43.29 In this five-week old human embryo, somites are segments along the length of the body. (credit: modification of work by Ed Uthman)

Vertebrate Axis Formation

Even as the germ layers form, the ball of cells still retains its spherical shape. However, animal bodies have lateral-medial (left-right), dorsal-ventral (back-belly), and anterior-posterior (head-feet) axes, illustrated in **Figure 43.30**.

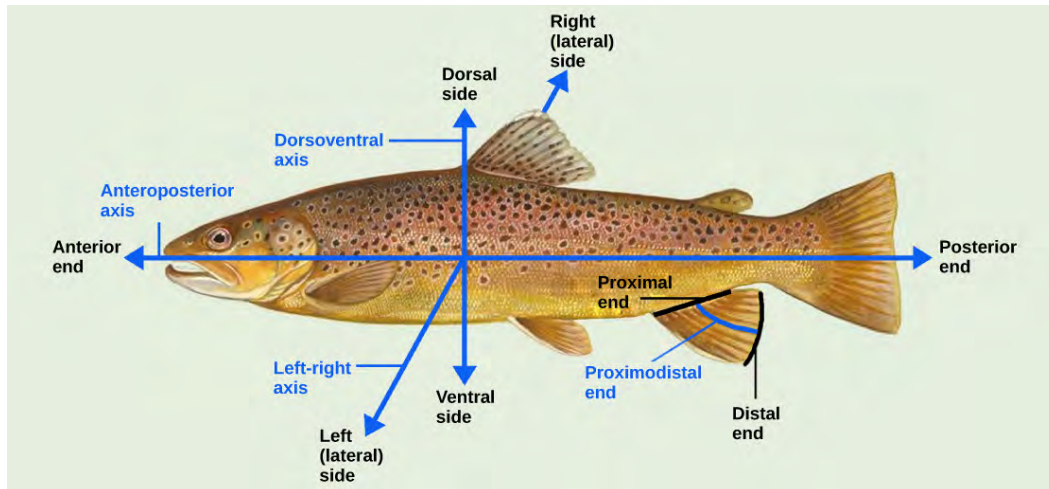


Figure 43.30 Animal bodies have three axes for symmetry. (credit: modification of work by NOAA)

How are these established? In one of the most seminal experiments ever to be carried out in developmental biology, Spemann and Mangold took dorsal cells from one embryo and transplanted them into the belly region of another embryo. They found that the transplanted embryo now had two notochords: one at the dorsal site from the original cells and another at the transplanted site. This suggested that the dorsal cells were genetically programmed to form the notochord and define the axis. Since then, researchers have identified many genes that are responsible for axis formation. Mutations in these genes leads to the loss of symmetry required for organism development.

Animal bodies have externally visible symmetry. However, the internal organs are not symmetric. For example, the heart is on the left side and the liver on the right. The formation of the central left-right axis is an important process during development. This internal asymmetry is established very early during development and involves many genes. Research is still ongoing to fully understand the developmental implications of these genes.

KEY TERMS

acrosomal reaction series of biochemical reactions that the sperm uses to break through the zona pellucida

asexual reproduction form of reproduction that produces offspring that are genetically identical to the parent

blastocyst structure formed when cells in the mammalian blastula separate into an inner and outer layer

budding form of asexual reproduction that results from the outgrowth of a part of a cell leading to a separation from the original animal into two individuals

bulbourethral gland secretion that cleanses the urethra prior to ejaculation

clitoris sensory structure in females; stimulated during sexual arousal

cloaca common body opening for the digestive, excretory, and reproductive systems found in non-mammals, such as birds

contraception (also, birth control) various means used to prevent pregnancy

estrogen reproductive hormone in females that assists in endometrial regrowth, ovulation, and calcium absorption

external fertilization fertilization of egg by sperm outside animal body, often during spawning

fission (also, binary fission) method by which multicellular organisms increase in size or asexual reproduction in which a unicellular organism splits into two separate organisms by mitosis

follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) reproductive hormone that causes sperm production in men and follicle development in women

fragmentation cutting or fragmenting of the original animal into parts and the growth of a separate animal from each part

gastrulation process in which the blastula folds over itself to form the three germ layers

gestation length of time for fetal development to birth

gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) hormone from the hypothalamus that causes the release of FSH and LH from the anterior pituitary

hermaphroditism state of having both male and female reproductive parts within the same individual

holoblastic complete cleavage; takes place in cells with a small amount of yolk

human beta chorionic gonadotropin (β -HCG) hormone produced by the chorion of the zygote that helps to maintain the corpus luteum and elevated levels of progesterone

infertility inability to conceive, carry, and deliver children

inhibin hormone made by Sertoli cells; provides negative feedback to hypothalamus in control of FSH and GnRH release

inner cell mass inner layer of cells in the blastocyst

internal fertilization fertilization of egg by sperm inside the body of the female

interstitial cell of Leydig cell in seminiferous tubules that makes testosterone

labia majora large folds of tissue covering the inguinal area

labia minora smaller folds of tissue within the labia majora

luteinizing hormone (LH) reproductive hormone in both men and women, causes testosterone production in men and ovulation and lactation in women

menopause loss of reproductive capacity in women due to decreased sensitivity of the ovaries to FSH and LH

menstrual cycle cycle of the degradation and re-growth of the endometrium

meroblastic partial cleavage; takes place in cells with a large amount of yolk

morning sickness condition in the mother during the first trimester; includes feelings of nausea

neural tube tube-like structure that forms from the ectoderm and gives rise to the brain and spinal cord

oogenesis process of producing haploid eggs

organogenesis process of organ formation

ovarian cycle cycle of preparation of egg for ovulation and the conversion of the follicle to the corpus luteum

oviduct (also, fallopian tube) muscular tube connecting the uterus with the ovary area

oviparity process by which fertilized eggs are laid outside the female's body and develop there, receiving nourishment from the yolk that is a part of the egg

ovoviparity process by which fertilized eggs are retained within the female; the embryo obtains its nourishment from the egg's yolk and the young are fully developed when they are hatched

ovulation release of the egg by the most mature follicle

parthenogenesis form of asexual reproduction where an egg develops into a complete individual without being fertilized

penis male reproductive structure for urine elimination and copulation

placenta organ that supports the diffusion of nutrients and waste between the mother's and fetus' blood

polyspermy condition in which one egg is fertilized by multiple sperm

progesterone reproductive hormone in women; assists in endometrial re-growth and inhibition of FSH and LH release

prostate gland structure that is a mixture of smooth muscle and glandular material and that contributes to semen

scrotum sac containing testes; exterior to the body

semen fluid mixture of sperm and supporting materials

seminal vesicle secretory accessory gland in males; contributes to semen

seminiferous tubule site of sperm production in testes

Sertoli cell cell in seminiferous tubules that assists developing sperm and makes inhibin

sexual reproduction mixing of genetic material from two individuals to produce genetically unique offspring

somite group of cells separated by small spaces that form from the mesoderm and give rise to connective tissue

spermatheca specialized sac that stores sperm for later use

spermatogenesis process of producing haploid sperm

testes pair of reproductive organs in males

testosterone reproductive hormone in men that assists in sperm production and promoting secondary sexual characteristics

trophoblast outer layer of cells in the blastocyst

uterus environment for developing embryo and fetus

vagina muscular tube for the passage of menstrual flow, copulation, and birth of offspring

viviparity process in which the young develop within the female, receiving nourishment from the mother's blood through a placenta

zona pellucida protective layer of glycoproteins on the mammalian egg

CHAPTER SUMMARY

43.1 Reproduction Methods

Reproduction may be asexual when one individual produces genetically identical offspring, or sexual when the genetic material from two individuals is combined to produce genetically diverse offspring. Asexual reproduction occurs through fission, budding, and fragmentation. Sexual reproduction may mean the joining of sperm and eggs within animals' bodies or it may mean the release of sperm and eggs into the environment. An individual may be one sex, or both; it may start out as one sex and switch during its life, or it may stay male or female.

43.2 Fertilization

Sexual reproduction starts with the combination of a sperm and an egg in a process called fertilization. This can occur either outside the bodies or inside the female. Both methods have advantages and disadvantages. Once fertilized, the eggs can develop inside the female or outside. If the egg develops outside the body, it usually has a protective covering over it. Animal anatomy evolved various ways to fertilize, hold, or expel the egg. The method of fertilization varies among animals. Some species release the egg and sperm into the environment, some species retain the egg and receive the sperm into the female body and then expel the developing embryo covered with shell, while still other species retain the developing offspring through the gestation period.

43.3 Human Reproductive Anatomy and Gametogenesis

As animals became more complex, specific organs and organ systems developed to support specific functions for the organism. The reproductive structures that evolved in land animals allow males and females to mate, fertilize internally, and support the growth and development of offspring. Processes developed to produce reproductive cells that had exactly half the number of chromosomes of each parent so that new combinations would have the appropriate amount of genetic material. Gametogenesis, the production of sperm (spermatogenesis) and eggs (oogenesis), takes place through the process of meiosis.

43.4 Hormonal Control of Human Reproduction

The male and female reproductive cycles are controlled by hormones released from the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary as well as hormones from reproductive tissues and organs. The hypothalamus monitors the need for the FSH and LH hormones made and released from the anterior pituitary. FSH and LH affect reproductive structures to cause the formation of sperm and the preparation of eggs for release and possible fertilization. In the male, FSH and LH stimulate Sertoli cells and interstitial cells of Leydig in the testes to facilitate sperm production. The Leydig cells produce testosterone, which also is responsible for the secondary sexual characteristics of males. In females, FSH and LH cause estrogen and progesterone to be produced. They regulate the female reproductive system which is divided into the ovarian cycle and the menstrual cycle. Menopause occurs when the ovaries lose their sensitivity to FSH and LH and the female reproductive cycles slow to a stop.

43.5 Human Pregnancy and Birth

Human pregnancy begins with fertilization of an egg and proceeds through the three trimesters of gestation. The labor process has three stages (contractions, delivery of the fetus, expulsion of the placenta), each propelled by hormones. The first trimester lays down the basic structures of the body, including the limb buds, heart, eyes, and the liver. The second trimester continues the development of all of the organs and systems. The third trimester exhibits the greatest growth of the fetus and culminates in labor and delivery. Prevention of a pregnancy can be accomplished through a variety of methods including barriers, hormones, or other means. Assisted reproductive technologies may help individuals who have infertility problems.

43.6 Fertilization and Early Embryonic Development

The early stages of embryonic development begin with fertilization. The process of fertilization is tightly controlled to ensure that only one sperm fuses with one egg. After fertilization, the zygote undergoes cleavage to form the blastula. The blastula, which in some species is a hollow ball of cells, undergoes a process called gastrulation, in which the three germ layers form. The ectoderm gives rise to the nervous system and the epidermal skin cells, the mesoderm gives rise to the muscle cells and connective tissue in the body, and the endoderm gives rise to columnar cells and internal organs.

43.7 Organogenesis and Vertebrate Formation

Organogenesis is the formation of organs from the germ layers. Each germ layer gives rise to specific tissue types. The first stage is the formation of the neural system in the ectoderm. The mesoderm gives rise to somites and the notochord. Formation of vertebrate axis is another important developmental stage.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

1. Figure 43.8 Which of the following statements about the male reproductive system is false?

- The vas deferens carries sperm from the testes to the penis.
- Sperm mature in seminiferous tubules in the testes.
- Both the prostate and the bulbourethral glands produce components of the semen.
- The prostate gland is located in the testes.

2. Figure 43.15 Which of the following statements about hormone regulation of the female reproductive cycle is false?

- LH and FSH are produced in the pituitary, and estradiol and progesterone are produced in the ovaries.

- Estradiol and progesterone secreted from the corpus luteum cause the endometrium to thicken.
- Both progesterone and estradiol are produced by the follicles.
- Secretion of GnRH by the hypothalamus is inhibited by low levels of estradiol but stimulated by high levels of estradiol.

3. Figure 43.17 Which of the following statements about the menstrual cycle is false?

- Progesterone levels rise during the luteal phase of the ovarian cycle and the secretory phase of the uterine cycle.
- Menstruation occurs just after LH and FSH levels peak.
- Menstruation occurs after progesterone levels drop.
- Estrogen levels rise before ovulation, while progesterone levels rise after.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

4. Which form of reproduction is thought to be best in a stable environment?

- asexual
- sexual
- budding
- parthenogenesis

5. Which form of reproduction can result from damage to the original animal?

- asexual
- fragmentation
- budding
- parthenogenesis

- 6.** Which form of reproduction is useful to an animal with little mobility that reproduces sexually?
- fission
 - budding
 - parthenogenesis
 - hermaphroditism
- 7.** Genetically unique individuals are produced through _____.
- sexual reproduction
 - parthenogenesis
 - budding
 - fragmentation
- 8.** External fertilization occurs in which type of environment?
- aquatic
 - forested
 - savanna
 - steppe
- 9.** Which term applies to egg development within the female with nourishment derived from a yolk?
- oviparity
 - viviparity
 - ovoviparity
 - ovovoparity
- 10.** Which term applies to egg development outside the female with nourishment derived from a yolk?
- oviparity
 - viviparity
 - ovoviparity
 - ovovoparity
- 11.** Sperm are produced in the _____.
- scrotum
 - seminal vesicles
 - seminiferous tubules
 - prostate gland
- 12.** Most of the bulk of semen is made by the _____.
- scrotum
 - seminal vesicles
 - seminiferous tubules
 - prostate gland
- 13.** Which of the following cells in spermatogenesis is diploid?
- primary spermatocyte
 - secondary spermatocyte
 - spermatid
 - sperm
- 14.** Which female organ has the same embryonic origin as the penis?
- clitoris
 - labia majora
 - greater vestibular glands
 - vagina
- 15.** Which female organ has an endometrial lining that will support a developing baby?
- labia minora
 - breast
 - ovaries
 - uterus
- 16.** How many eggs are produced as a result of one meiotic series of cell divisions?
- one
 - two
 - three
 - four
- 17.** Which hormone causes Leydig cells to make testosterone?
- FSH
 - LH
 - inhibin
 - estrogen
- 18.** Which hormone causes FSH and LH to be released?
- testosterone
 - estrogen
 - GnRH
 - progesterone
- 19.** Which hormone signals ovulation?
- FSH
 - LH
 - inhibin
 - estrogen
- 20.** Which hormone causes the re-growth of the endometrial lining of the uterus?
- testosterone
 - estrogen
 - GnRH
 - progesterone
- 21.** Nutrient and waste requirements for the developing fetus are handled during the first few weeks by:
- the placenta
 - diffusion through the endometrium
 - the chorion
 - the blastocyst
- 22.** Progesterone is made during the third trimester by the:
- placenta
 - endometrial lining
 - chorion
 - corpus luteum
- 23.** Which contraceptive method is 100 percent effective at preventing pregnancy?
- condom
 - oral hormonal methods
 - sterilization
 - abstinence

- 24.** Which type of short term contraceptive method is generally more effective than others?
- barrier
 - hormonal
 - natural family planning
 - withdrawal
- 25.** Which hormone is primarily responsible for the contractions during labor?
- oxytocin
 - estrogen
 - β -HCG
 - progesterone
- 26.** Major organs begin to develop during which part of human gestation?
- fertilization
 - first trimester
 - second trimester
 - third trimester
- 27.** Which of the following is false?
- The endoderm, mesoderm, ectoderm are germ layers.
 - The trophoblast is a germ layer.
 - The inner cell mass is a source of embryonic stem cells.
 - The blastula is often a hollow ball of cells.
- 28.** During cleavage, the mass of cells:
- increases
 - decreases
 - doubles with every cell division
 - does not change significantly
- 29.** Which of the following gives rise to the skin cells?
- ectoderm
 - endoderm
 - mesoderm
 - none of the above
- 30.** The ribs form from the _____.
- notochord
 - neural plate
 - neural tube
 - somites

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 31.** Why is sexual reproduction useful if only half the animals can produce offspring and two separate cells must be combined to form a third?
- 32.** What determines which sex will result in offspring of birds and mammals?
- 33.** What are the advantages and disadvantages of external and internal forms of fertilization?
- 34.** Why would paired external fertilization be preferable to group spawning?
- 35.** Describe the phases of the human sexual response.
- 36.** Compare spermatogenesis and oogenesis as to timing of the processes and the number and type of cells finally produced.
- 37.** If male reproductive pathways are not cyclical, how are they controlled?
- 38.** Describe the events in the ovarian cycle leading up to ovulation.
- 39.** Describe the major developments during each trimester of human gestation.
- 40.** Describe the stages of labor.
- 41.** What do you think would happen if multiple sperm fused with one egg?
- 42.** Why do mammalian eggs have a small concentration of yolk, while bird and reptile eggs have a large concentration of yolk?
- 43.** Explain how the different germ layers give rise to different tissue types.
- 44.** Explain the role of axis formation in development.

44 | ECOLOGY AND THE BIOSPHERE

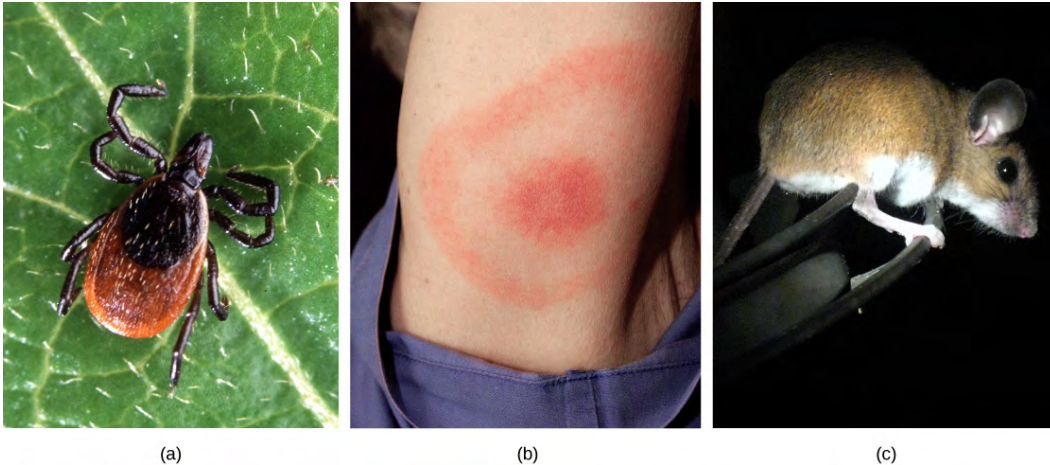


Figure 44.1 The (a) deer tick carries the bacterium that produces Lyme disease in humans, often evident in (b) a symptomatic bull's eye rash. The (c) white-footed mouse is one well-known host to deer ticks carrying the Lyme disease bacterium. (credit a: modification of work by Scott Bauer, USDA ARS; credit b: modification of work by James Gathany, CDC; credit c: modification of work by Rob Iretton)

Chapter Outline

- 44.1: The Scope of Ecology**
- 44.2: Biogeography**
- 44.3: Terrestrial Biomes**
- 44.4: Aquatic Biomes**
- 44.5: Climate and the Effects of Global Climate Change**

Introduction

Why study ecology? Perhaps you are interested in learning about the natural world and how living things have adapted to the physical conditions of their environment. Or, perhaps you're a future physician seeking to understand the connection between human health and ecology.

Humans are a part of the ecological landscape, and human health is one important part of human interaction with our physical and living environment. Lyme disease, for instance, serves as one modern-day example of the connection between our health and the natural world (**Figure 44.1**). More formally known as Lyme borreliosis, Lyme disease is a bacterial infection that can be transmitted to humans when they are bitten by the deer tick (*Ixodes scapularis*), which is the primary vector for this disease. However, not all deer ticks carry the bacteria that will cause Lyme disease in humans, and *I. scapularis* can have other hosts besides deer. In fact, it turns out that the probability of infection depends on the type of host upon which the tick develops: a higher proportion of ticks that live on white-footed mice carry the bacterium than do ticks that live on deer. Knowledge about the environments and population densities in which the host species is abundant would help a physician or an epidemiologist better understand how Lyme disease is transmitted and how its incidence could be reduced.

44.1 | The Scope of Ecology

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define ecology and the four levels of ecological research
- Describe examples of the ways in which ecology requires the integration of different scientific disciplines
- Distinguish between abiotic and biotic components of the environment
- Recognize the relationship between abiotic and biotic components of the environment

Ecology is the study of the interactions of living organisms with their environment. One core goal of ecology is to understand the distribution and abundance of living things in the physical environment. Attainment of this goal requires the integration of scientific disciplines inside and outside of biology, such as biochemistry, physiology, evolution, biodiversity, molecular biology, geology, and climatology. Some ecological research also applies aspects of chemistry and physics, and it frequently uses mathematical models.



Climate change can alter where organisms live, which can sometimes directly affect human health. Watch the PBS video “**Feeling the Effects of Climate Change**” (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/climate_health) in which researchers discover a pathogenic organism living far outside of its normal range.

Levels of Ecological Study

When a discipline such as biology is studied, it is often helpful to subdivide it into smaller, related areas. For instance, cell biologists interested in cell signaling need to understand the chemistry of the signal molecules (which are usually proteins) as well as the result of cell signaling. Ecologists interested in the factors that influence the survival of an endangered species might use mathematical models to predict how current conservation efforts affect endangered organisms. To produce a sound set of management options, a conservation biologist needs to collect accurate data, including current population size, factors affecting reproduction (like physiology and behavior), habitat requirements (such as plants and soils), and potential human influences on the endangered population and its habitat (which might be derived through studies in sociology and urban ecology). Within the discipline of ecology, researchers work at four specific levels, sometimes discretely and sometimes with overlap: organism, population, community, and ecosystem (**Figure 44.2**).



Figure 44.2 Ecologists study within several biological levels of organization. (credit “organisms”: modification of work by “Crystl”/Flickr; credit “ecosystems”: modification of work by Tom Carlisle, US Fish and Wildlife Service Headquarters; credit “biosphere”: NASA)

Organismal Ecology

Researchers studying ecology at the organismal level are interested in the adaptations that enable individuals to live in specific habitats. These adaptations can be morphological, physiological, and behavioral. For instance, the Karner blue butterfly (*Lycaeides melissa samuelis*) (**Figure 44.3**) is considered a specialist because the females preferentially oviposit (that is, lay eggs) on wild lupine. This preferential adaptation means that the Karner blue butterfly is highly dependent on the presence of wild lupine plants for its continued survival.



Figure 44.3 The Karner blue butterfly (*Lycaeides melissa samuelis*) is a rare butterfly that lives only in open areas with few trees or shrubs, such as pine barrens and oak savannas. It can only lay its eggs on lupine plants. (credit: modification of work by J & K Hollingsworth, USFWS)

After hatching, the larval caterpillars emerge and spend four to six weeks feeding solely on wild lupine (**Figure 44.4**). The caterpillars pupate (undergo metamorphosis) and emerge as butterflies after about four weeks. The adult butterflies feed on the nectar of flowers of wild lupine and other plant species. A researcher interested in studying Karner blue butterflies at the organismal level might, in addition to asking questions about egg laying, ask questions about the butterflies’ preferred temperature (a physiological question) or the behavior of the caterpillars when they are at different larval stages (a behavioral question).



Figure 44.4 The wild lupine (*Lupinus perennis*) is the host plant for the Karner blue butterfly.

Population Ecology

A population is a group of interbreeding organisms that are members of the same species living in the same area at the same time. (Organisms that are all members of the same species are called **conspecifics**.) A population is identified, in part, by where it lives, and its area of population may have natural or artificial boundaries: natural boundaries might be rivers, mountains, or deserts, while examples of artificial boundaries include mowed grass, manmade structures, or roads. The study of population ecology focuses on the number of individuals in an area and how and why population size changes over time. Population ecologists are particularly interested in counting the Karner blue butterfly, for example, because it is classified as federally endangered. However, the distribution and density of this species is highly influenced by the distribution and abundance of wild lupine. Researchers might ask questions about the factors leading to the decline of wild lupine and how these affect Karner blue butterflies. For example, ecologists know that wild lupine thrives in open areas where trees and shrubs are largely absent. In natural settings, intermittent wildfires regularly remove trees and shrubs, helping to maintain the open areas that wild lupine requires. Mathematical models can be used to understand how wildfire suppression by humans has led to the decline of this important plant for the Karner blue butterfly.

Community Ecology

A biological community consists of the different species within an area, typically a three-dimensional space, and the interactions within and among these species. Community ecologists are interested in the processes driving these interactions and their consequences. Questions about conspecific interactions often focus on competition among members of the same species for a limited resource. Ecologists also study interactions among various species; members of different species are called **heterospecifics**. Examples of heterospecific interactions include predation, parasitism, herbivory, competition, and pollination. These interactions can have regulating effects on population sizes and can impact ecological and evolutionary processes affecting diversity.

For example, Karner blue butterfly larvae form mutualistic relationships with ants. Mutualism is a form of a long-term relationship that has coevolved between two species and from which each species benefits. For mutualism to exist between individual organisms, each species must receive some benefit from the other as a consequence of the relationship. Researchers have shown that there is an increase in the probability of survival when Karner blue butterfly larvae (caterpillars) are tended by ants. This might be because the larvae spend less time in each life stage when tended by ants, which provides an advantage for the larvae. Meanwhile, the Karner blue butterfly larvae secrete a carbohydrate-rich substance that is an important energy source for the ants. Both the Karner blue larvae and the ants benefit from their interaction.

Ecosystem Ecology

Ecosystem ecology is an extension of organismal, population, and community ecology. The ecosystem is composed of all the **biotic** components (living things) in an area along with the **abiotic** components (non-living things) of that area. Some of the abiotic components include air, water, and soil. Ecosystem biologists ask questions about how nutrients and energy are stored and how they move among organisms and the surrounding atmosphere, soil, and water.

The Karner blue butterflies and the wild lupine live in an oak-pine barren habitat. This habitat is characterized by natural disturbance and nutrient-poor soils that are low in nitrogen. The availability of nutrients is an important factor in the distribution of the plants that live in this habitat. Researchers interested in ecosystem ecology could ask questions about the importance of limited resources and the movement of resources, such as nutrients, through the biotic and abiotic portions of the ecosystem.

career CONNECTION

Ecologist

A career in ecology contributes to many facets of human society. Understanding ecological issues can help society meet the basic human needs of food, shelter, and health care. Ecologists can conduct their research in the laboratory and outside in natural environments (**Figure 44.5**). These natural environments can be as close to home as the stream running through your campus or as far away as the hydrothermal vents at the bottom of the Pacific Ocean. Ecologists manage natural resources such as white-tailed deer populations (*Odocoileus virginianus*) for hunting or aspen (*Populus* spp.) timber stands for paper production. Ecologists also work as educators who teach children and adults at various institutions including universities, high schools, museums, and nature centers. Ecologists may also work in advisory positions assisting local, state, and federal policymakers to develop laws that are ecologically sound, or they may develop those policies and legislation themselves. To become an ecologist requires an undergraduate degree, usually in a natural science. The undergraduate degree is often followed by specialized training or an advanced degree, depending on the area of ecology selected. Ecologists should also have a broad background in the physical sciences, as well as a sound foundation in mathematics and statistics.



Figure 44.5 This landscape ecologist is releasing a black-footed ferret into its native habitat as part of a study. (credit: USFWS Mountain Prairie Region, NPS)



Visit this [site \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/ecologist_role\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/ecologist_role) to see Stephen Wing, a marine ecologist from the University of Otago, discuss the role of an ecologist and the types of issues ecologists explore.

44.2 | Biogeography

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define biogeography
- List and describe abiotic factors that affect the global distribution of plant and animal species
- Compare the impact of abiotic forces on aquatic and terrestrial environments
- Summarize the affect of abiotic factors on net primary productivity

Many forces influence the communities of living organisms present in different parts of the biosphere (all of the parts of Earth inhabited by life). The biosphere extends into the atmosphere (several kilometers above Earth) and into the depths of the oceans. Despite its apparent vastness to an individual human, the biosphere occupies only a minute space when compared to the known universe. Many abiotic forces influence where life can exist and the types of organisms found in different parts of the biosphere. The abiotic factors influence the distribution of **biomes**: large areas of land with similar climate, flora, and fauna.

Biogeography

Biogeography is the study of the geographic distribution of living things and the abiotic factors that affect their distribution. Abiotic factors such as temperature and rainfall vary based mainly on latitude and elevation. As these abiotic factors change, the composition of plant and animal communities also changes. For example, if you were to begin a journey at the equator and walk north, you would notice gradual changes in plant communities. At the beginning of your journey, you would see tropical wet forests with broad-leaved evergreen trees, which are characteristic of plant communities found near the equator. As you continued to travel north, you would see these broad-leaved evergreen plants eventually give rise to seasonally dry forests with scattered trees. You would also begin to notice changes in temperature and moisture. At about 30 degrees north, these forests would give way to deserts, which are characterized by low precipitation.

Moving farther north, you would see that deserts are replaced by grasslands or prairies. Eventually, grasslands are replaced by deciduous temperate forests. These deciduous forests give way to the boreal forests found in the subarctic, the area south of the Arctic Circle. Finally, you would reach the Arctic tundra, which is found at the most northern latitudes. This trek north reveals gradual changes in both climate and the types of organisms that have adapted to environmental factors associated with ecosystems found at different latitudes. However, different ecosystems exist at the same latitude due in part to abiotic factors such as jet streams, the Gulf Stream, and ocean currents. If you were to hike up a mountain, the changes you would see in the vegetation would parallel those as you move to higher latitudes.

Ecologists who study biogeography examine patterns of species distribution. No species exists everywhere; for example, the Venus flytrap is endemic to a small area in North and South Carolina. An **endemic** species is one which is naturally found only in a specific geographic area that is usually restricted in size. Other species are generalists: species which live in a wide variety of geographic areas; the raccoon, for example, is native to most of North and Central America.

Species distribution patterns are based on biotic and abiotic factors and their influences during the very long periods of time required for species evolution; therefore, early studies of biogeography were closely

linked to the emergence of evolutionary thinking in the eighteenth century. Some of the most distinctive assemblages of plants and animals occur in regions that have been physically separated for millions of years by geographic barriers. Biologists estimate that Australia, for example, has between 600,000 and 700,000 species of plants and animals. Approximately 3/4 of living plant and mammal species are endemic species found solely in Australia (**Figure 44.6ab**).

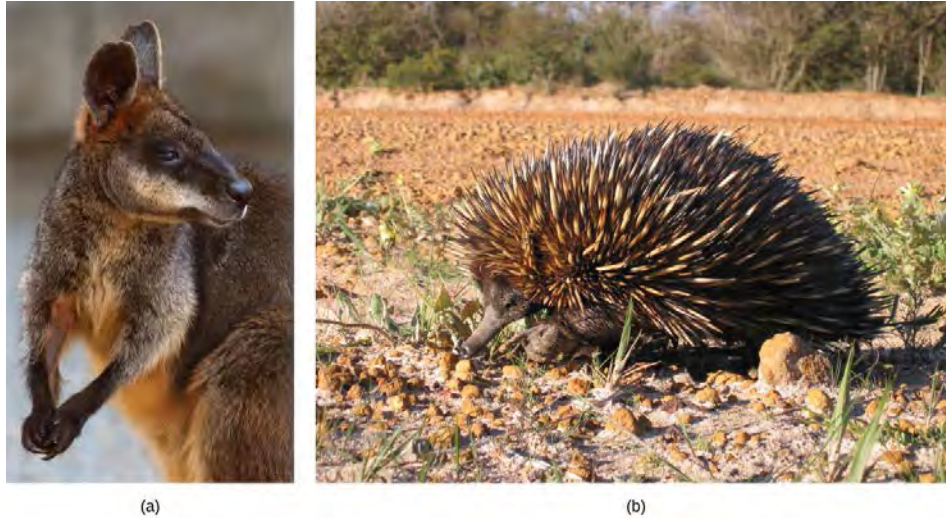


Figure 44.6 Australia is home to many endemic species. The (a) wallaby (*Wallabia bicolor*), a medium-sized member of the kangaroo family, is a pouched mammal, or marsupial. The (b) echidna (*Tachyglossus aculeatus*) is an egg-laying mammal. (credit a: modification of work by Derrick Coetzee; credit b: modification of work by Allan Whittome)

Sometimes ecologists discover unique patterns of species distribution by determining where species are *not* found. Hawaii, for example, has no native land species of reptiles or amphibians, and has only one native terrestrial mammal, the hoary bat. Most of New Guinea, as another example, lacks placental mammals.



Check out this **video** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/platypus>) to observe a platypus swimming in its natural habitat in New South Wales, Australia.

Plants can be endemic or generalists: endemic plants are found only on specific regions of the Earth, while generalists are found on many regions. Isolated land masses—such as Australia, Hawaii, and Madagascar—often have large numbers of endemic plant species. Some of these plants are endangered due to human activity. The forest gardenia (*Gardenia brighamii*), for instance, is endemic to Hawaii; only an estimated 15–20 trees are thought to exist (**Figure 44.7**).



Figure 44.7 Listed as federally endangered, the forest gardenia is a small tree with distinctive flowers. It is found only in five of the Hawaiian Islands in small populations consisting of a few individual specimens. (credit: Forest & Kim Starr)

Energy Sources

Energy from the sun is captured by green plants, algae, cyanobacteria, and photosynthetic protists. These organisms convert solar energy into the chemical energy needed by all living things. Light availability can be an important force directly affecting the evolution of adaptations in photosynthesizers. For instance, plants in the understory of a temperate forest are shaded when the trees above them in the canopy completely leaf out in the late spring. Not surprisingly, understory plants have adaptations to successfully capture available light. One such adaptation is the rapid growth of spring ephemeral plants such as the spring beauty (**Figure 44.8**). These spring flowers achieve much of their growth and finish their life cycle (reproduce) early in the season before the trees in the canopy develop leaves.



Figure 44.8 The spring beauty is an ephemeral spring plant that flowers early in the spring to avoid competing with larger forest trees for sunlight. (credit: John Beetham)

In aquatic ecosystems, the availability of light may be limited because sunlight is absorbed by water, plants, suspended particles, and resident microorganisms. Toward the bottom of a lake, pond, or ocean, there is a zone that light cannot reach. Photosynthesis cannot take place there and, as a result, a number of adaptations have evolved that enable living things to survive without light. For instance, aquatic plants have photosynthetic tissue near the surface of the water; for example, think of the broad, floating leaves of a water lily—water lilies cannot survive without light. In environments such as hydrothermal vents, some bacteria extract energy from inorganic chemicals because there is no light for photosynthesis.

The availability of nutrients in aquatic systems is also an important aspect of energy or photosynthesis. Many organisms sink to the bottom of the ocean when they die in the open water; when this occurs, the energy found in that living organism is sequestered for some time unless ocean upwelling occurs. **Ocean upwelling** is the rising of deep ocean waters that occurs when prevailing winds blow along surface waters near a coastline (**Figure 44.9**). As the wind pushes ocean waters offshore, water from the bottom

of the ocean moves up to replace this water. As a result, the nutrients once contained in dead organisms become available for reuse by other living organisms.

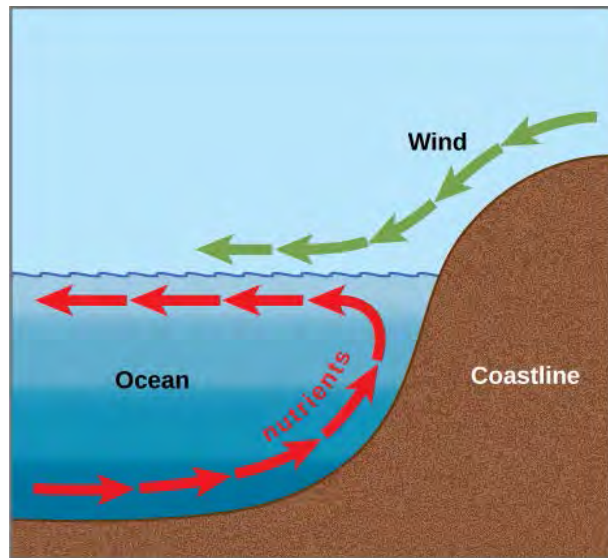


Figure 44.9 Ocean upwelling is an important process that recycles nutrients and energy in the ocean. As wind (green arrows) pushes offshore, it causes water from the ocean bottom (red arrows) to move to the surface, bringing up nutrients from the ocean depths.

In freshwater systems, the recycling of nutrients occurs in response to air temperature changes. The nutrients at the bottom of lakes are recycled twice each year: in the spring and fall turnover. The **spring and fall turnover** is a seasonal process that recycles nutrients and oxygen from the bottom of a freshwater ecosystem to the top of a body of water (**Figure 44.10**). These turnovers are caused by the formation of a **thermocline**: a layer of water with a temperature that is significantly different from that of the surrounding layers. In wintertime, the surface of lakes found in many northern regions is frozen. However, the water under the ice is slightly warmer, and the water at the bottom of the lake is warmer yet at 4 °C to 5 °C (39.2 °F to 41 °F). Water is densest at 4 °C; therefore, the deepest water is also the densest. The deepest water is oxygen poor because the decomposition of organic material at the bottom of the lake uses up available oxygen that cannot be replaced by means of oxygen diffusion into the water due to the surface ice layer.

art CONNECTION

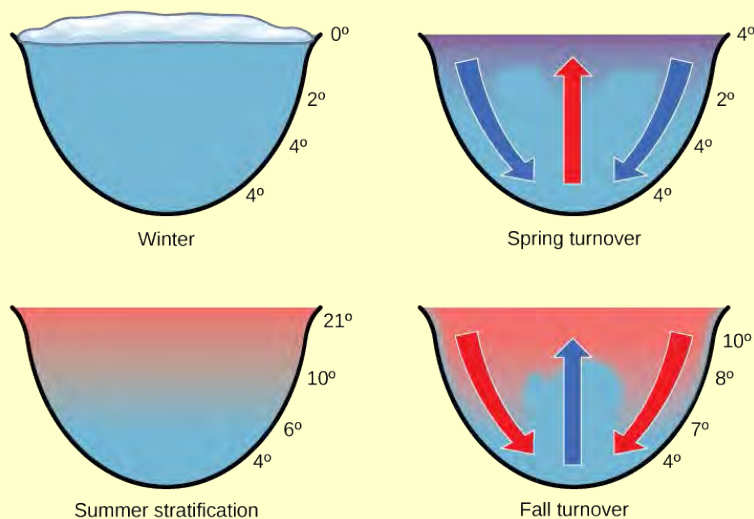


Figure 44.10 The spring and fall turnovers are important processes in freshwater lakes that act to move the nutrients and oxygen at the bottom of deep lakes to the top. Turnover occurs because water has a maximum density at 4 °C. Surface water temperature changes as the seasons progress, and denser water sinks.

How might turnover in tropical lakes differ from turnover in lakes that exist in temperate regions?

In springtime, air temperatures increase and surface ice melts. When the temperature of the surface water begins to reach 4 °C, the water becomes heavier and sinks to the bottom. The water at the bottom of the lake is then displaced by the heavier surface water and, thus, rises to the top. As that water rises to the top, the sediments and nutrients from the lake bottom are brought along with it. During the summer months, the lake water stratifies, or forms layers, with the warmest water at the lake surface.

As air temperatures drop in the fall, the temperature of the lake water cools to 4 °C; therefore, this causes fall turnover as the heavy cold water sinks and displaces the water at the bottom. The oxygen-rich water at the surface of the lake then moves to the bottom of the lake, while the nutrients at the bottom of the lake rise to the surface (**Figure 44.10**). During the winter, the oxygen at the bottom of the lake is used by decomposers and other organisms requiring oxygen, such as fish.

Temperature

Temperature affects the physiology of living things as well as the density and state of water. Temperature exerts an important influence on living things because few living things can survive at temperatures below 0 °C (32 °F) due to metabolic constraints. It is also rare for living things to survive at temperatures exceeding 45 °C (113 °F); this is a reflection of evolutionary response to typical temperatures. Enzymes are most efficient within a narrow and specific range of temperatures; enzyme degradation can occur at higher temperatures. Therefore, organisms either must maintain an internal temperature or they must inhabit an environment that will keep the body within a temperature range that supports metabolism. Some animals have adapted to enable their bodies to survive significant temperature fluctuations, such as seen in hibernation or reptilian torpor. Similarly, some bacteria are adapted to surviving in extremely hot temperatures such as geysers. Such bacteria are examples of extremophiles: organisms that thrive in extreme environments.

Temperature can limit the distribution of living things. Animals faced with temperature fluctuations may respond with adaptations, such as migration, in order to survive. Migration, the movement from one place to another, is an adaptation found in many animals, including many that inhabit seasonally cold climates. Migration solves problems related to temperature, locating food, and finding a mate. In migration, for instance, the Arctic Tern (*Sterna paradisaea*) makes a 40,000 km (24,000 mi) round trip flight each year between its feeding grounds in the southern hemisphere and its breeding grounds in the Arctic Ocean. Monarch butterflies (*Danaus plexippus*) live in the eastern United States in the warmer months and migrate to Mexico and the southern United States in the wintertime. Some species of mammals also make migratory forays. Reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus*) travel about 5,000 km (3,100

mi) each year to find food. Amphibians and reptiles are more limited in their distribution because they lack migratory ability. Not all animals that can migrate do so: migration carries risk and comes at a high energy cost.

Some animals hibernate or estivate to survive hostile temperatures. Hibernation enables animals to survive cold conditions, and estivation allows animals to survive the hostile conditions of a hot, dry climate. Animals that hibernate or estivate enter a state known as torpor: a condition in which their metabolic rate is significantly lowered. This enables the animal to wait until its environment better supports its survival. Some amphibians, such as the wood frog (*Rana sylvatica*), have an antifreeze-like chemical in their cells, which retains the cells' integrity and prevents them from bursting.

Water

Water is required by all living things because it is critical for cellular processes. Since terrestrial organisms lose water to the environment by simple diffusion, they have evolved many adaptations to retain water.

- Plants have a number of interesting features on their leaves, such as leaf hairs and a waxy cuticle, that serve to decrease the rate of water loss via transpiration.
- Freshwater organisms are surrounded by water and are constantly in danger of having water rush into their cells because of osmosis. Many adaptations of organisms living in freshwater environments have evolved to ensure that solute concentrations in their bodies remain within appropriate levels. One such adaptation is the excretion of dilute urine.
- Marine organisms are surrounded by water with a higher solute concentration than the organism and, thus, are in danger of losing water to the environment because of osmosis. These organisms have morphological and physiological adaptations to retain water and release solutes into the environment. For example, Marine iguanas (*Amblyrhynchus cristatus*), sneeze out water vapor that is high in salt in order to maintain solute concentrations within an acceptable range while swimming in the ocean and eating marine plants.

Inorganic Nutrients and Soil

Inorganic nutrients, such as nitrogen and phosphorus, are important in the distribution and the abundance of living things. Plants obtain these inorganic nutrients from the soil when water moves into the plant through the roots. Therefore, soil structure (particle size of soil components), soil pH, and soil nutrient content play an important role in the distribution of plants. Animals obtain inorganic nutrients from the food they consume. Therefore, animal distributions are related to the distribution of what they eat. In some cases, animals will follow their food resource as it moves through the environment.

Other Aquatic Factors

Some abiotic factors, such as oxygen, are important in aquatic ecosystems as well as terrestrial environments. Terrestrial animals obtain oxygen from the air they breathe. Oxygen availability can be an issue for organisms living at very high elevations, however, where there are fewer molecules of oxygen in the air. In aquatic systems, the concentration of dissolved oxygen is related to water temperature and the speed at which the water moves. Cold water has more dissolved oxygen than warmer water. In addition, salinity, current, and tide can be important abiotic factors in aquatic ecosystems.

Other Terrestrial Factors

Wind can be an important abiotic factor because it influences the rate of evaporation and transpiration. The physical force of wind is also important because it can move soil, water, or other abiotic factors, as well as an ecosystem's organisms.

Fire is another terrestrial factor that can be an important agent of disturbance in terrestrial ecosystems. Some organisms are adapted to fire and, thus, require the high heat associated with fire to complete a part of their life cycle. For example, the jack pine—a coniferous tree—requires heat from fire for its seed cones to open (**Figure 44.11**). Through the burning of pine needles, fire adds nitrogen to the soil and limits competition by destroying undergrowth.



Figure 44.11 The mature cones of the jack pine (*Pinus banksiana*) open only when exposed to high temperatures, such as during a forest fire. A fire is likely to kill most vegetation, so a seedling that germinates after a fire is more likely to receive ample sunlight than one that germinates under normal conditions. (credit: USDA)

Abiotic Factors Influencing Plant Growth

Temperature and moisture are important influences on plant production (primary productivity) and the amount of organic matter available as food (net primary productivity). **Net primary productivity** is an estimation of all of the organic matter available as food; it is calculated as the total amount of carbon fixed per year minus the amount that is oxidized during cellular respiration. In terrestrial environments, net primary productivity is estimated by measuring the **aboveground biomass** per unit area, which is the total mass of living plants, excluding roots. This means that a large percentage of plant biomass which exists underground is not included in this measurement. Net primary productivity is an important variable when considering differences in biomes. Very productive biomes have a high level of aboveground biomass.

Annual biomass production is directly related to the abiotic components of the environment. Environments with the greatest amount of biomass have conditions in which photosynthesis, plant growth, and the resulting net primary productivity are optimized. The climate of these areas is warm and wet. Photosynthesis can proceed at a high rate, enzymes can work most efficiently, and stomata can remain open without the risk of excessive transpiration; together, these factors lead to the maximal amount of carbon dioxide (CO₂) moving into the plant, resulting in high biomass production. The aboveground biomass produces several important resources for other living things, including habitat and food. Conversely, dry and cold environments have lower photosynthetic rates and therefore less biomass. The animal communities living there will also be affected by the decrease in available food.

44.3 | Terrestrial Biomes

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify the two major abiotic factors that determine terrestrial biomes
- Recognize distinguishing characteristics of each of the eight major terrestrial biomes

The Earth's biomes are categorized into two major groups: terrestrial and aquatic. Terrestrial biomes are based on land, while aquatic biomes include both ocean and freshwater biomes. The eight major terrestrial biomes on Earth are each distinguished by characteristic temperatures and amount of precipitation. Comparing the annual totals of precipitation and fluctuations in precipitation from one biome to another provides clues as to the importance of abiotic factors in the distribution of biomes. Temperature variation on a daily and seasonal basis is also important for predicting the geographic distribution of the biome and the vegetation type in the biome. The distribution of these biomes shows that the same biome can occur in geographically distinct areas with similar climates (**Figure 44.12**).

art CONNECTION

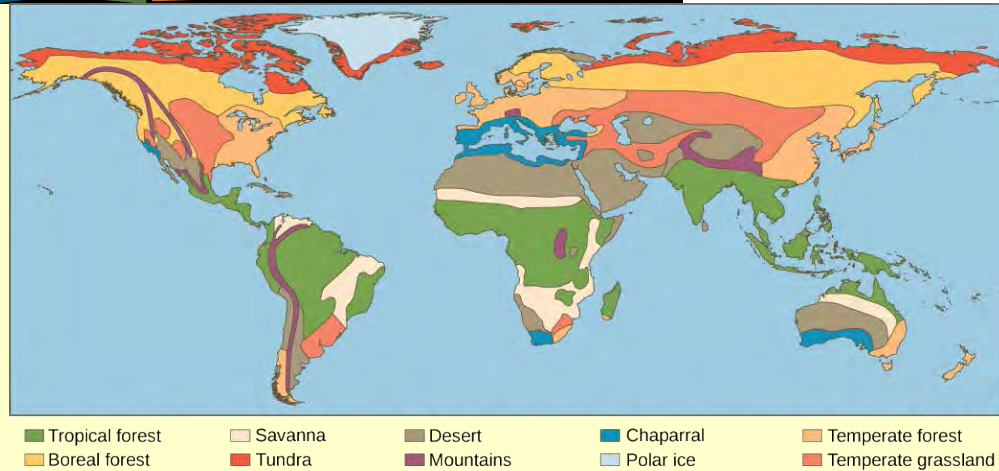


Figure 44.12 Each of the world's major biomes is distinguished by characteristic temperatures and amounts of precipitation. Polar ice and mountains are also shown.

Which of the following statements about biomes is false?

- Chaparral is dominated by shrubs.
- Savannas and temperate grasslands are dominated by grasses.
- Boreal forests are dominated by deciduous trees.
- Lichens are common in the arctic tundra.

Tropical Wet Forest

Tropical wet forests are also referred to as tropical rainforests. This biome is found in equatorial regions (**Figure 44.12**). The vegetation is characterized by plants with broad leaves that fall off throughout the year. Unlike the trees of deciduous forests, the trees in this biome do not have a seasonal loss of leaves associated with variations in temperature and sunlight; these forests are “evergreen” year-round.

The temperature and sunlight profiles of tropical wet forests are very stable in comparison to that of other terrestrial biomes, with the temperatures ranging from 20 °C to 34 °C (68 °F to 93 °F). When one compares the annual temperature variation of tropical wet forests with that of other forest biomes, the lack of seasonal temperature variation in the tropical wet forest becomes apparent. This lack of seasonality leads to year-round plant growth, rather than the seasonal (spring, summer, and fall) growth seen in other biomes. In contrast to other ecosystems, tropical ecosystems do not have long days and short days during the yearly cycle. Instead, a constant daily amount of sunlight (11–12 hrs per day) provides more solar radiation, thereby, a longer period of time for plant growth.

The annual rainfall in tropical wet forests ranges from 125 to 660 cm (50–200 in) with some monthly variation. While sunlight and temperature remain fairly consistent, annual rainfall is highly variable. Tropical wet forests have wet months in which there can be more than 30 cm (11–12 in) of precipitation, as well as dry months in which there are fewer than 10 cm (3.5 in) of rainfall. However, the driest month of a tropical wet forest still exceeds the *annual* rainfall of some other biomes, such as deserts.

Tropical wet forests have high net primary productivity because the annual temperatures and precipitation values in these areas are ideal for plant growth. Therefore, the extensive biomass present in the tropical wet forest leads to plant communities with very high species diversities (**Figure 44.13**). Tropical wet forests have more species of trees than any other biome; on average between 100 and 300 species of trees are present in a single hectare (2.5 acres) of South America. One way to visualize this is to compare the distinctive horizontal layers within the tropical wet forest biome. On the forest floor is a sparse layer of plants and decaying plant matter. Above that is an understory of short shrubby foliage. A layer of trees rises above this understory and is topped by a closed upper **canopy**—the uppermost overhead layer of branches and leaves. Some additional trees emerge through this closed upper canopy. These layers provide diverse and complex habitats for the variety of plants, fungi, animals, and other organisms within the tropical wet forests. For instance, epiphytes are plants that grow on other plants,

which typically are not harmed. Epiphytes are found throughout tropical wet forest biomes. Many species of animals use the variety of plants and the complex structure of the tropical wet forests for food and shelter. Some organisms live several meters above ground and have adapted to this arboreal lifestyle.



Figure 44.13 Tropical wet forests, such as these forests of Madre de Dios, Peru, near the Amazon River, have high species diversity. (credit: Roosevelt Garcia)

Savannas

Savannas are grasslands with scattered trees, and they are located in Africa, South America, and northern Australia (**Figure 44.12**). Savannas are hot, tropical areas with temperatures averaging from 24 °C to 29 °C (75 °F to 84 °F) and an annual rainfall of 10–40 cm (3.9–15.7 in). Savannas have an extensive dry season; for this reason, forest trees do not grow as well as they do in the tropical wet forest (or other forest biomes). As a result, within the grasses and forbs (herbaceous flowering plants) that dominate the savanna, there are relatively few trees (**Figure 44.14**). Since fire is an important source of disturbance in this biome, plants have evolved well-developed root systems that allow them to quickly re-sprout after a fire.



Figure 44.14 Savannas, like this one in Taita Hills Wildlife Sanctuary in Kenya, are dominated by grasses. (credit: Christopher T. Cooper)

Subtropical Deserts

Subtropical deserts exist between 15 ° and 30 ° north and south latitude and are centered on the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn (**Figure 44.12**). This biome is very dry; in some years, evaporation exceeds precipitation. Subtropical hot deserts can have daytime soil surface temperatures above 60 °C (140 °F) and nighttime temperatures approaching 0 °C (32 °F). In cold deserts, temperatures can be as high as 25 °C and can drop below -30 °C (-22 °F). Subtropical deserts are characterized by low annual precipitation of fewer than 30 cm (12 in) with little monthly variation and lack of predictability in rainfall. In some cases, the annual rainfall can be as low as 2 cm (0.8 in) in subtropical deserts located in central Australia (“the Outback”) and northern Africa.

The vegetation and low animal diversity of this biome is closely related to this low and unpredictable precipitation. Very dry deserts lack perennial vegetation that lives from one year to the next; instead, many plants are annuals that grow quickly and reproduce when rainfall does occur, then they die. Many other plants in these areas are characterized by having a number of adaptations that conserve water, such as deep roots, reduced foliage, and water-storing stems (**Figure 44.15**). Seed plants in the desert produce seeds that can be in dormancy for extended periods between rains. Adaptations in desert animals include nocturnal behavior and burrowing.



Figure 44.15 To reduce water loss, many desert plants have tiny leaves or no leaves at all. The leaves of ocotillo (*Fouquieria splendens*), shown here in the Sonora Desert near Gila Bend, Arizona, appear only after rainfall, and then are shed.

Chaparral

The chaparral is also called the scrub forest and is found in California, along the Mediterranean Sea, and along the southern coast of Australia (**Figure 44.12**). The annual rainfall in this biome ranges from 65 cm to 75 cm (25.6–29.5 in), and the majority of the rain falls in the winter. Summers are very dry and many chaparral plants are dormant during the summertime. The chaparral vegetation, shown in **Figure 44.16**, is dominated by shrubs and is adapted to periodic fires, with some plants producing seeds that only germinate after a hot fire. The ashes left behind after a fire are rich in nutrients like nitrogen that fertilize the soil and promote plant regrowth.



Figure 44.16 The chaparral is dominated by shrubs. (credit: Miguel Vieira)

Temperate Grasslands

Temperate grasslands are found throughout central North America, where they are also known as prairies; they are also in Eurasia, where they are known as steppes (**Figure 44.12**). Temperate grasslands have pronounced annual fluctuations in temperature with hot summers and cold winters. The annual temperature variation produces specific growing seasons for plants. Plant growth is possible when temperatures are warm enough to sustain plant growth and when ample water is available, which occurs in the spring, summer, and fall. During much of the winter, temperatures are low, and water, which is stored in the form of ice, is not available for plant growth.

Annual precipitation ranges from 25 cm to 75 cm (9.8–29.5 in). Because of relatively lower annual precipitation in temperate grasslands, there are few trees except for those found growing along rivers or streams. The dominant vegetation tends to consist of grasses and some prairies sustain populations of grazing animals **Figure 44.17**. The vegetation is very dense and the soils are fertile because the subsurface of the soil is packed with the roots and rhizomes (underground stems) of these grasses. The roots and rhizomes act to anchor plants into the ground and replenish the organic material (humus) in the soil when they die and decay.



Figure 44.17 The American bison (*Bison bison*), more commonly called the buffalo, is a grazing mammal that once populated American prairies in huge numbers. (credit: Jack Dykinga, USDA Agricultural Research Service)

Fires, mainly caused by lightning, are a natural disturbance in temperate grasslands. When fire is suppressed in temperate grasslands, the vegetation eventually converts to scrub and dense forests. Often, the restoration or management of temperate grasslands requires the use of controlled burns to suppress the growth of trees and maintain the grasses.

Temperate Forests

Temperate forests are the most common biome in eastern North America, Western Europe, Eastern Asia, Chile, and New Zealand (**Figure 44.12**). This biome is found throughout mid-latitude regions. Temperatures range between $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-22\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$ to $86\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) and drop to below freezing on an annual

basis. These temperatures mean that temperate forests have defined growing seasons during the spring, summer, and early fall. Precipitation is relatively constant throughout the year and ranges between 75 cm and 150 cm (29.5–59 in).

Because of the moderate annual rainfall and temperatures, deciduous trees are the dominant plant in this biome (**Figure 44.18**). Deciduous trees lose their leaves each fall and remain leafless in the winter. Thus, no photosynthesis occurs in the deciduous trees during the dormant winter period. Each spring, new leaves appear as the temperature increases. Because of the dormant period, the net primary productivity of temperate forests is less than that of tropical wet forests. In addition, temperate forests show less diversity of tree species than tropical wet forest biomes.



Figure 44.18 Deciduous trees are the dominant plant in the temperate forest. (credit: Oliver Herold)

The trees of the temperate forests leaf out and shade much of the ground; however, this biome is more open than tropical wet forests because trees in the temperate forests do not grow as tall as the trees in tropical wet forests. The soils of the temperate forests are rich in inorganic and organic nutrients. This is due to the thick layer of leaf litter on forest floors. As this leaf litter decays, nutrients are returned to the soil. The leaf litter also protects soil from erosion, insulates the ground, and provides habitats for invertebrates (such as the pill bug or roly-poly, *Armadillidium vulgare*) and their predators, such as the red-backed salamander (*Plethodon cinereus*).

Boreal Forests

The boreal forest, also known as taiga or coniferous forest, is found south of the Arctic Circle and across most of Canada, Alaska, Russia, and northern Europe (**Figure 44.12**). This biome has cold, dry winters and short, cool, wet summers. The annual precipitation is from 40 cm to 100 cm (15.7–39 in) and usually takes the form of snow. Little evaporation occurs because of the cold temperatures.

The long and cold winters in the boreal forest have led to the predominance of cold-tolerant cone-bearing plants. These are evergreen coniferous trees like pines, spruce, and fir, which retain their needle-shaped leaves year-round. Evergreen trees can photosynthesize earlier in the spring than deciduous trees because less energy from the sun is required to warm a needle-like leaf than a broad leaf. This benefits evergreen trees, which grow faster than deciduous trees in the boreal forest. In addition, soils in boreal forest regions tend to be acidic with little available nitrogen. Leaves are a nitrogen-rich structure and deciduous trees must produce a new set of these nitrogen-rich structures each year. Therefore, coniferous trees that retain nitrogen-rich needles may have a competitive advantage over the broad-leafed deciduous trees.

The net primary productivity of boreal forests is lower than that of temperate forests and tropical wet forests. The aboveground biomass of boreal forests is high because these slow-growing tree species are long lived and accumulate standing biomass over time. Plant species diversity is less than that seen in temperate forests and tropical wet forests. Boreal forests lack the pronounced elements of the layered forest structure seen in tropical wet forests. The structure of a boreal forest is often only a tree layer and a ground layer (**Figure 44.19**). When conifer needles are dropped, they decompose more slowly than broad leaves; therefore, fewer nutrients are returned to the soil to fuel plant growth.



Figure 44.19 The boreal forest (taiga) has low lying plants and conifer trees. (credit: L.B. Brubaker)

Arctic Tundra

The Arctic tundra lies north of the subarctic boreal forest and is located throughout the Arctic regions of the northern hemisphere (**Figure 44.12**). The average winter temperature is -34°C (-34°F) and the average summer temperature is from 3°C to 12°C (37°F – 52°F). Plants in the arctic tundra have a very short growing season of approximately 10–12 weeks. However, during this time, there are almost 24 hours of daylight and plant growth is rapid. The annual precipitation of the Arctic tundra is very low with little annual variation in precipitation. And, as in the boreal forests, there is little evaporation due to the cold temperatures.

Plants in the Arctic tundra are generally low to the ground (**Figure 44.20**). There is little species diversity, low net primary productivity, and low aboveground biomass. The soils of the Arctic tundra may remain in a perennially frozen state referred to as **permafrost**. The permafrost makes it impossible for roots to penetrate deep into the soil and slows the decay of organic matter, which inhibits the release of nutrients from organic matter. During the growing season, the ground of the Arctic tundra can be completely covered with plants or lichens.



Figure 44.20 Low-growing plants such as shrub willow dominate the tundra landscape, shown here in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge. (credit: USFWS Arctic National Wildlife Refuge)

LINK TO LEARNING



Watch this **Assignment Discovery: Biomes video** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/biomes>) for an overview of biomes. To explore further, select one of the biomes on the extended playlist: desert, savanna, temperate forest, temperate grassland, tropic, tundra.

44.4 | Aquatic Biomes

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the effects of abiotic factors on the composition of plant and animal communities in aquatic biomes
- Compare and contrast the characteristics of the ocean zones
- Summarize the characteristics of standing water and flowing water freshwater biomes

Abiotic Factors Influencing Aquatic Biomes

Like terrestrial biomes, aquatic biomes are influenced by a series of abiotic factors. The aquatic medium—water—has different physical and chemical properties than air, however. Even if the water in a pond or other body of water is perfectly clear (there are no suspended particles), water, on its own, absorbs light. As one descends into a deep body of water, there will eventually be a depth which the sunlight cannot reach. While there are some abiotic and biotic factors in a terrestrial ecosystem that might obscure light (like fog, dust, or insect swarms), usually these are not permanent features of the environment. The importance of light in aquatic biomes is central to the communities of organisms found in both freshwater and marine ecosystems. In freshwater systems, stratification due to differences in density is perhaps the most critical abiotic factor and is related to the energy aspects of light. The thermal properties of water (rates of heating and cooling) are significant to the function of marine systems and have major impacts on global climate and weather patterns. Marine systems are also influenced by large-scale physical water movements, such as currents; these are less important in most freshwater lakes.

The ocean is categorized by several areas or zones (**Figure 44.21**). All of the ocean's open water is referred to as the **pelagic realm** (or zone). The **benthic realm** (or zone) extends along the ocean bottom from the shoreline to the deepest parts of the ocean floor. Within the pelagic realm is the **photic zone**, which is the portion of the ocean that light can penetrate (approximately 200 m or 650 ft). At depths greater than 200 m, light cannot penetrate; thus, this is referred to as the **aphotic zone**. The majority of the ocean is aphotic and lacks sufficient light for photosynthesis. The deepest part of the ocean, the Challenger Deep (in the Mariana Trench, located in the western Pacific Ocean), is about 11,000 m (about 6.8 mi) deep. To give some perspective on the depth of this trench, the ocean is, on average, 4267 m or 14,000 ft deep. These realms and zones are relevant to freshwater lakes as well.

art CONNECTION

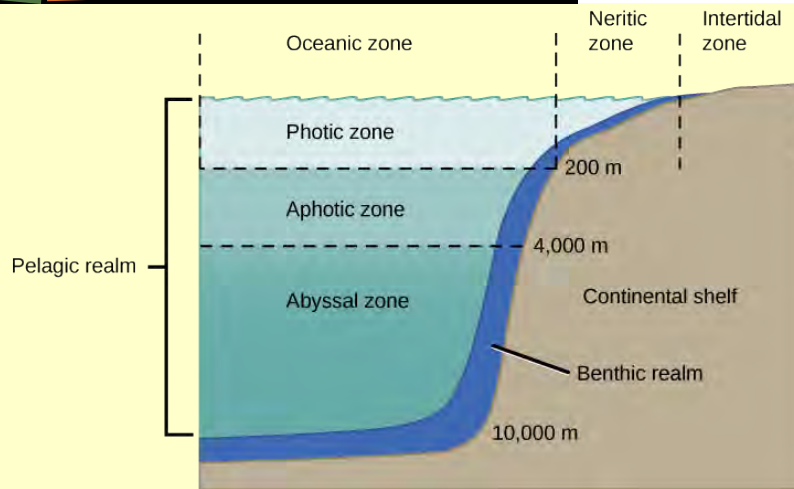


Figure 44.21 The ocean is divided into different zones based on water depth and distance from the shoreline.

In which of the following regions would you expect to find photosynthetic organisms?

- the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, the oceanic zone, and the benthic realm
- the photic zone, the intertidal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
- the photic zone, the abyssal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
- the pelagic realm, the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone

Marine Biomes

The ocean is the largest marine biome. It is a continuous body of salt water that is relatively uniform in chemical composition; it is a weak solution of mineral salts and decayed biological matter. Within the ocean, coral reefs are a second kind of marine biome. Estuaries, coastal areas where salt water and fresh water mix, form a third unique marine biome.

Ocean

The physical diversity of the ocean is a significant influence on plants, animals, and other organisms. The ocean is categorized into different zones based on how far light reaches into the water. Each zone has a distinct group of species adapted to the biotic and abiotic conditions particular to that zone.

The **intertidal zone**, which is the zone between high and low tide, is the oceanic region that is closest to land (**Figure 44.21**). Generally, most people think of this portion of the ocean as a sandy beach. In some cases, the intertidal zone is indeed a sandy beach, but it can also be rocky or muddy. The intertidal zone is an extremely variable environment because of tides. Organisms are exposed to air and sunlight at low tide and are underwater most of the time, especially during high tide. Therefore, living things that thrive in the intertidal zone are adapted to being dry for long periods of time. The shore of the intertidal zone is also repeatedly struck by waves, and the organisms found there are adapted to withstand damage from the pounding action of the waves (**Figure 44.22**). The exoskeletons of shoreline crustaceans (such as the shore crab, *Carcinus maenas*) are tough and protect them from desiccation (drying out) and wave damage. Another consequence of the pounding waves is that few algae and plants establish themselves in the constantly moving rocks, sand, or mud.



Figure 44.22 Sea urchins, mussel shells, and starfish are often found in the intertidal zone, shown here in Kachemak Bay, Alaska. (credit: NOAA)

The **neritic zone** (Figure 44.21) extends from the intertidal zone to depths of about 200 m (or 650 ft) at the edge of the continental shelf. Since light can penetrate this depth, photosynthesis can occur in the neritic zone. The water here contains silt and is well-oxygenated, low in pressure, and stable in temperature. Phytoplankton and floating *Sargassum* (a type of free-floating marine seaweed) provide a habitat for some sea life found in the neritic zone. Zooplankton, protists, small fishes, and shrimp are found in the neritic zone and are the base of the food chain for most of the world's fisheries.

Beyond the neritic zone is the open ocean area known as the **oceanic zone** (Figure 44.21). Within the oceanic zone there is thermal stratification where warm and cold waters mix because of ocean currents. Abundant plankton serve as the base of the food chain for larger animals such as whales and dolphins. Nutrients are scarce and this is a relatively less productive part of the marine biome. When photosynthetic organisms and the protists and animals that feed on them die, their bodies fall to the bottom of the ocean where they remain; unlike freshwater lakes, the open ocean lacks a process for bringing the organic nutrients back up to the surface. The majority of organisms in the aphotic zone include sea cucumbers (phylum Echinodermata) and other organisms that survive on the nutrients contained in the dead bodies of organisms in the photic zone.

Beneath the pelagic zone is the benthic realm, the deepwater region beyond the continental shelf (Figure 44.21). The bottom of the benthic realm is comprised of sand, silt, and dead organisms. Temperature decreases, remaining above freezing, as water depth increases. This is a nutrient-rich portion of the ocean because of the dead organisms that fall from the upper layers of the ocean. Because of this high level of nutrients, a diversity of fungi, sponges, sea anemones, marine worms, sea stars, fishes, and bacteria exist.

The deepest part of the ocean is the **abyssal zone**, which is at depths of 4000 m or greater. The abyssal zone (Figure 44.21) is very cold and has very high pressure, high oxygen content, and low nutrient content. There are a variety of invertebrates and fishes found in this zone, but the abyssal zone does not have plants because of the lack of light. Hydrothermal vents are found primarily in the abyssal zone; chemosynthetic bacteria utilize the hydrogen sulfide and other minerals emitted from the vents. These chemosynthetic bacteria use the hydrogen sulfide as an energy source and serve as the base of the food chain found in the abyssal zone.

Coral Reefs

Coral reefs are ocean ridges formed by marine invertebrates living in warm shallow waters within the photic zone of the ocean. They are found within 30° north and south of the equator. The Great Barrier Reef is a well-known reef system located several miles off the northeastern coast of Australia. Other coral reef systems are fringing islands, which are directly adjacent to land, or atolls, which are circular reef systems surrounding a former landmass that is now underwater. The coral organisms (members of phylum Cnidaria) are colonies of saltwater polyps that secrete a calcium carbonate skeleton. These calcium-rich skeletons slowly accumulate, forming the underwater reef (Figure 44.23). Corals found in shallower waters (at a depth of approximately 60 m or about 200 ft) have a mutualistic relationship with photosynthetic unicellular algae. The relationship provides corals with the majority of the nutrition and the energy they require. The waters in which these corals live are nutritionally poor and, without this mutualism, it would not be possible for large corals to grow. Some corals living in deeper and colder water do not have a mutualistic relationship with algae; these corals attain energy and nutrients using stinging cells on their tentacles to capture prey.



Watch this **National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) video** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/marine_biology) to see marine ecologist Dr. Peter Etnoyer discusses his research on coral organisms.

It is estimated that more than 4,000 fish species inhabit coral reefs. These fishes can feed on coral, the **cryptofauna** (invertebrates found within the calcium carbonate substrate of the coral reefs), or the seaweed and algae that are associated with the coral. In addition, some fish species inhabit the boundaries of a coral reef; these species include **predators**, herbivores, or **planktivores**. Predators are animal species that hunt and are carnivores or “flesh eaters.” Herbivores eat plant material, and planktivores eat plankton.



Figure 44.23 Coral reefs are formed by the calcium carbonate skeletons of coral organisms, which are marine invertebrates in the phylum Cnidaria. (credit: Terry Hughes)

evolution CONNECTION

Global Decline of Coral Reefs

It takes a long time to build a coral reef. The animals that create coral reefs have evolved over millions of years, continuing to slowly deposit the calcium carbonate that forms their characteristic ocean homes. Bathed in warm tropical waters, the coral animals and their symbiotic algal partners evolved to survive at the upper limit of ocean water temperature.

Together, climate change and human activity pose dual threats to the long-term survival of the world's coral reefs. As global warming due to fossil fuel emissions raises ocean temperatures, coral reefs are suffering. The excessive warmth causes the reefs to expel their symbiotic, food-producing algae, resulting in a phenomenon known as bleaching. When bleaching occurs, the reefs lose much of their characteristic color as the algae and the coral animals die if loss of the symbiotic zooxanthellae is prolonged.

Rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide further threaten the corals in other ways; as CO₂ dissolves in ocean waters, it lowers the pH and increases ocean acidity. As acidity increases, it interferes with the calcification that normally occurs as coral animals build their calcium carbonate homes.

When a coral reef begins to die, species diversity plummets as animals lose food and shelter. Coral reefs are also economically important tourist destinations, so the decline of coral reefs poses a serious threat to coastal economies.

Human population growth has damaged corals in other ways, too. As human coastal populations increase, the runoff of sediment and agricultural chemicals has increased, too, causing some of the once-clear tropical waters to become cloudy. At the same time, overfishing of popular fish species has allowed the predator species that eat corals to go unchecked.

Although a rise in global temperatures of 1–2°C (a conservative scientific projection) in the coming decades may not seem large, it is very significant to this biome. When change occurs rapidly, species can become extinct before evolution leads to new adaptations. Many scientists believe that global warming, with its rapid (in terms of evolutionary time) and inexorable increases in temperature, is tipping the balance beyond the point at which many of the world's coral reefs can recover.

Estuaries: Where the Ocean Meets Fresh Water

Estuaries are biomes that occur where a source of fresh water, such as a river, meets the ocean. Therefore, both fresh water and salt water are found in the same vicinity; mixing results in a diluted (brackish) saltwater. Estuaries form protected areas where many of the young offspring of crustaceans, mollusks, and fish begin their lives. Salinity is a very important factor that influences the organisms and the adaptations of the organisms found in estuaries. The salinity of estuaries varies and is based on the rate of flow of its freshwater sources. Once or twice a day, high tides bring salt water into the estuary. Low tides occurring at the same frequency reverse the current of salt water.

The short-term and rapid variation in salinity due to the mixing of fresh water and salt water is a difficult physiological challenge for the plants and animals that inhabit estuaries. Many estuarine plant species are halophytes: plants that can tolerate salty conditions. Halophytic plants are adapted to deal with the salinity resulting from saltwater on their roots or from sea spray. In some halophytes, filters in the roots remove the salt from the water that the plant absorbs. Other plants are able to pump oxygen into their roots. Animals, such as mussels and clams (phylum Mollusca), have developed behavioral adaptations that expend a lot of energy to function in this rapidly changing environment. When these animals are exposed to low salinity, they stop feeding, close their shells, and switch from aerobic respiration (in which they use gills) to anaerobic respiration (a process that does not require oxygen). When high tide returns to the estuary, the salinity and oxygen content of the water increases, and these animals open their shells, begin feeding, and return to aerobic respiration.

Freshwater Biomes

Freshwater biomes include lakes and ponds (standing water) as well as rivers and streams (flowing water). They also include wetlands, which will be discussed later. Humans rely on freshwater biomes to provide aquatic resources for drinking water, crop irrigation, sanitation, and industry. These various roles and human benefits are referred to as **ecosystem services**. Lakes and ponds are found in terrestrial landscapes and are, therefore, connected with abiotic and biotic factors influencing these terrestrial biomes.

Lakes and Ponds

Lakes and ponds can range in area from a few square meters to thousands of square kilometers. Temperature is an important abiotic factor affecting living things found in lakes and ponds. In the summer, thermal stratification of lakes and ponds occurs when the upper layer of water is warmed by the sun and does not mix with deeper, cooler water. Light can penetrate within the photic zone of the lake or pond. Phytoplankton (algae and cyanobacteria) are found here and carry out photosynthesis, providing the base of the food web of lakes and ponds. Zooplankton, such as rotifers and small crustaceans, consume these phytoplankton. At the bottom of lakes and ponds, bacteria in the aphotic zone break down dead organisms that sink to the bottom.

Nitrogen and phosphorus are important limiting nutrients in lakes and ponds. Because of this, they are determining factors in the amount of phytoplankton growth in lakes and ponds. When there is a large input of nitrogen and phosphorus (from sewage and runoff from fertilized lawns and farms, for example), the growth of algae skyrockets, resulting in a large accumulation of algae called an **algal bloom**. Algal blooms (Figure 44.24) can become so extensive that they reduce light penetration in water. As a result, the lake or pond becomes aphotic and photosynthetic plants cannot survive. When the algae die and decompose, severe oxygen depletion of the water occurs. Fishes and other organisms that require oxygen are then more likely to die, and resulting dead zones are found across the globe. Lake Erie and the Gulf of Mexico represent freshwater and marine habitats where phosphorus control and storm water runoff pose significant environmental challenges.



Figure 44.24 The uncontrolled growth of algae in this lake has resulted in an algal bloom. (credit: Jeremy Nettleton)

Rivers and Streams

Rivers and streams are continuously moving bodies of water that carry large amounts of water from the source, or headwater, to a lake or ocean. The largest rivers include the Nile River in Africa, the Amazon River in South America, and the Mississippi River in North America.

Abiotic features of rivers and streams vary along the length of the river or stream. Streams begin at a point of origin referred to as **source water**. The source water is usually cold, low in nutrients, and clear. The **channel** (the width of the river or stream) is narrower than at any other place along the length of the river or stream. Because of this, the current is often faster here than at any other point of the river or stream.

The fast-moving water results in minimal silt accumulation at the bottom of the river or stream; therefore, the water is clear. Photosynthesis here is mostly attributed to algae that are growing on rocks; the swift current inhibits the growth of phytoplankton. An additional input of energy can come from leaves or other organic material that falls into the river or stream from trees and other plants that border the water. When the leaves decompose, the organic material and nutrients in the leaves are returned to the water. Plants and animals have adapted to this fast-moving water. For instance, leeches (phylum Annelida)

have elongated bodies and suckers on both ends. These suckers attach to the substrate, keeping the leech anchored in place. Freshwater trout species (phylum Chordata) are an important predator in these fast-moving rivers and streams.

As the river or stream flows away from the source, the width of the channel gradually widens and the current slows. This slow-moving water, caused by the gradient decrease and the volume increase as tributaries unite, has more sedimentation. Phytoplankton can also be suspended in slow-moving water. Therefore, the water will not be as clear as it is near the source. The water is also warmer. Worms (phylum Annelida) and insects (phylum Arthropoda) can be found burrowing into the mud. The higher order predator vertebrates (phylum Chordata) include waterfowl, frogs, and fishes. These predators must find food in these slow moving, sometimes murky, waters and, unlike the trout in the waters at the source, these vertebrates may not be able to use vision as their primary sense to find food. Instead, they are more likely to use taste or chemical cues to find prey.

Wetlands

Wetlands are environments in which the soil is either permanently or periodically saturated with water. Wetlands are different from lakes because wetlands are shallow bodies of water whereas lakes vary in depth. **Emergent vegetation** consists of wetland plants that are rooted in the soil but have portions of leaves, stems, and flowers extending above the water's surface. There are several types of wetlands including marshes, swamps, bogs, mudflats, and salt marshes (Figure 44.25). The three shared characteristics among these types—what makes them wetlands—are their hydrology, hydrophytic vegetation, and hydric soils.



Figure 44.25 Located in southern Florida, Everglades National Park is vast array of wetland environments, including sawgrass marshes, cypress swamps, and estuarine mangrove forests. Here, a great egret walks among cypress trees. (credit: NPS)

Freshwater marshes and swamps are characterized by slow and steady water flow. Bogs develop in depressions where water flow is low or nonexistent. Bogs usually occur in areas where there is a clay bottom with poor percolation. Percolation is the movement of water through the pores in the soil or rocks. The water found in a bog is stagnant and oxygen depleted because the oxygen that is used during the decomposition of organic matter is not replaced. As the oxygen in the water is depleted, decomposition slows. This leads to organic acids and other acids building up and lowering the pH of the water. At a lower pH, nitrogen becomes unavailable to plants. This creates a challenge for plants because nitrogen is an important limiting resource. Some types of bog plants (such as sundews, pitcher plants, and Venus flytraps) capture insects and extract the nitrogen from their bodies. Bogs have low net primary productivity because the water found in bogs has low levels of nitrogen and oxygen.

44.5 | Climate and the Effects of Global Climate Change

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define global climate change
- Summarize the effects of the Industrial Revolution on global atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration
- Describe three natural factors affecting long-term global climate
- List two or more greenhouse gases and describe their role in the greenhouse effect

All biomes are universally affected by global conditions, such as climate, that ultimately shape each biome's environment. Scientists who study climate have noted a series of marked changes that have gradually become increasingly evident during the last sixty years. **Global climate change** is the term used to describe altered global weather patterns, including a worldwide increase in temperature, due largely to rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide.

Climate and Weather

A common misconception about global climate change is that a specific weather event occurring in a particular region (for example, a very cool week in June in central Indiana) is evidence of global climate change. However, a cold week in June is a weather-related event and not a climate-related one. These misconceptions often arise because of confusion over the terms climate and weather.

Climate refers to the long-term, predictable atmospheric conditions of a specific area. The climate of a biome is characterized by having consistent temperature and annual rainfall ranges. Climate does not address the amount of rain that fell on one particular day in a biome or the colder-than-average temperatures that occurred on one day. In contrast, **weather** refers to the conditions of the atmosphere during a short period of time. Weather forecasts are usually made for 48-hour cycles. Long-range weather forecasts are available but can be unreliable.

To better understand the difference between climate and weather, imagine that you are planning an outdoor event in northern Wisconsin. You would be thinking about *climate* when you plan the event in the summer rather than the winter because you have long-term knowledge that any given Saturday in the months of May to August would be a better choice for an outdoor event in Wisconsin than any given Saturday in January. However, you cannot determine the specific day that the event should be held on because it is difficult to accurately predict the weather on a specific day. Climate can be considered “average” weather.

Global Climate Change

Climate change can be understood by approaching three areas of study:

- current and past global climate change
- causes of past and present-day global climate change
- ancient and current results of climate change

It is helpful to keep these three different aspects of climate change clearly separated when consuming media reports about global climate change. It is common for reports and discussions about global climate change to confuse the data showing that Earth's climate is changing with the factors that drive this climate change.

Evidence for Global Climate Change

Since scientists cannot go back in time to directly measure climatic variables, such as average temperature and precipitation, they must instead indirectly measure temperature. To do this, scientists rely on historical evidence of Earth's past climate.

Antarctic ice cores are a key example of such evidence. These ice cores are samples of polar ice obtained by means of drills that reach thousands of meters into ice sheets or high mountain glaciers. Viewing the ice cores is like traveling backwards through time; the deeper the sample, the earlier the time period. Trapped within the ice are bubbles of air and other biological evidence that can reveal temperature and

carbon dioxide data. Antarctic ice cores have been collected and analyzed to indirectly estimate the temperature of the Earth over the past 400,000 years (**Figure 44.26a**). The 0 °C on this graph refers to the long-term average. Temperatures that are greater than 0 °C exceed Earth's long-term average temperature. Conversely, temperatures that are less than 0 °C are less than Earth's average temperature. This figure shows that there have been periodic cycles of increasing and decreasing temperature.

Before the late 1800s, the Earth has been as much as 9 °C cooler and about 3 °C warmer. Note that the graph in **Figure 44.26b** shows that the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide has also risen and fallen in periodic cycles; note the relationship between carbon dioxide concentration and temperature. **Figure 44.26b** shows that carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere have historically cycled between 180 and 300 parts per million (ppm) by volume.

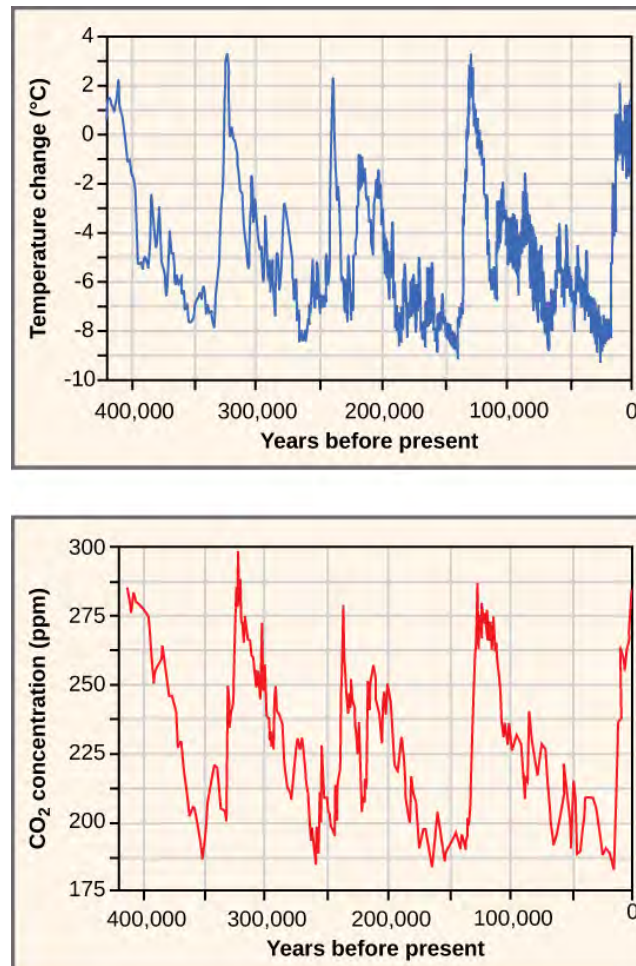


Figure 44.26 Ice at the Russian Vostok station in East Antarctica was laid down over the course 420,000 years and reached a depth of over 3,000 m. By measuring the amount of CO₂ trapped in the ice, scientists have determined past atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. Temperatures relative to modern day were determined from the amount of deuterium (an isotope of hydrogen) present.

Figure 44.26a does not show the last 2,000 years with enough detail to compare the changes of Earth's temperature during the last 400,000 years with the temperature change that has occurred in the more recent past. Two significant temperature anomalies, or irregularities, have occurred in the last 2,000 years. These are the Medieval Climate Anomaly (or the Medieval Warm Period) and the Little Ice Age. A third temperature anomaly aligns with the Industrial Era. The Medieval Climate Anomaly occurred between 900 and 1300 AD. During this time period, many climate scientists think that slightly warmer weather conditions prevailed in many parts of the world; the higher-than-average temperature changes varied between 0.10 °C and 0.20 °C above the norm. Although 0.10 °C does not seem large enough to produce any noticeable change, it did free seas of ice. Because of this warming, the Vikings were able to colonize Greenland.

The Little Ice Age was a cold period that occurred between 1550 AD and 1850 AD. During this time, a slight cooling of a little less than 1 °C was observed in North America, Europe, and possibly other areas of the Earth. This 1 °C change in global temperature is a seemingly small deviation in temperature (as

was observed during the Medieval Climate Anomaly); however, it also resulted in noticeable changes. Historical accounts reveal a time of exceptionally harsh winters with much snow and frost.

The Industrial Revolution, which began around 1750, was characterized by changes in much of human society. Advances in agriculture increased the food supply, which improved the standard of living for people in Europe and the United States. New technologies were invented and provided jobs and cheaper goods. These new technologies were powered using fossil fuels, especially coal. The Industrial Revolution starting in the early nineteenth century ushered in the beginning of the Industrial Era. When a fossil fuel is burned, carbon dioxide is released. With the beginning of the Industrial Era, atmospheric carbon dioxide began to rise (Figure 44.27).

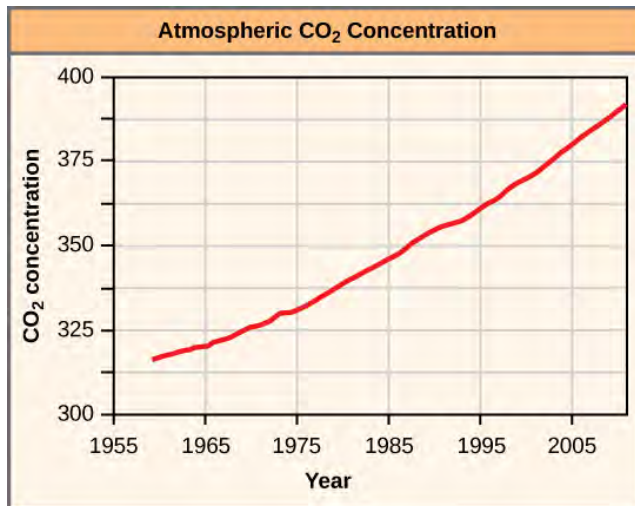


Figure 44.27 The atmospheric concentration of CO₂ has risen steadily since the beginning of industrialization.

Current and Past Drivers of Global Climate Change

Since it is not possible to go back in time to directly observe and measure climate, scientists use indirect evidence to determine the drivers, or factors, that may be responsible for climate change. The indirect evidence includes data collected using ice cores, boreholes (a narrow shaft bored into the ground), tree rings, glacier lengths, pollen remains, and ocean sediments. The data shows a correlation between the timing of temperature changes and drivers of climate change: before the Industrial Era (pre-1780), there were three drivers of climate change that were not related to human activity or atmospheric gases. The first of these is the Milankovitch cycles. The **Milankovitch cycles** describe the effects of slight changes in the Earth's orbit on Earth's climate. The length of the Milankovitch cycles ranges between 19,000 and 100,000 years. In other words, one could expect to see some predictable changes in the Earth's climate associated with changes in the Earth's orbit at a minimum of every 19,000 years.

The variation in the sun's intensity is the second natural factor responsible for climate change. **Solar intensity** is the amount of solar power or energy the sun emits in a given amount of time. There is a direct relationship between solar intensity and temperature. As solar intensity increases (or decreases), the Earth's temperature correspondingly increases (or decreases). Changes in solar intensity have been proposed as one of several possible explanations for the Little Ice Age.

Finally, volcanic eruptions are a third natural driver of climate change. Volcanic eruptions can last a few days, but the solids and gases released during an eruption can influence the climate over a period of a few years, causing short-term climate changes. The gases and solids released by volcanic eruptions can include carbon dioxide, water vapor, sulfur dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, hydrogen, and carbon monoxide. Generally, volcanic eruptions cool the climate. This occurred in 1783 when volcanos in Iceland erupted and caused the release of large volumes of sulfuric oxide. This led to **haze-effect cooling**, a global phenomenon that occurs when dust, ash, or other suspended particles block out sunlight and trigger lower global temperatures as a result; haze-effect cooling usually extends for one or more years. In Europe and North America, haze-effect cooling produced some of the lowest average winter temperatures on record in 1783 and 1784.

Greenhouse gases are probably the most significant drivers of the climate. When heat energy from the sun strikes the Earth, gases known as **greenhouse gases** trap the heat in the atmosphere, as do the glass panes of a greenhouse keep heat from escaping. The greenhouse gases that affect Earth include carbon dioxide, methane, water vapor, nitrous oxide, and ozone. Approximately half of the radiation from the sun passes through these gases in the atmosphere and strikes the Earth. This radiation is converted

into thermal radiation on the Earth's surface, and then a portion of that energy is re-radiated back into the atmosphere. Greenhouse gases, however, reflect much of the thermal energy back to the Earth's surface. The more greenhouse gases there are in the atmosphere, the more thermal energy is reflected back to the Earth's surface. Greenhouse gases absorb and emit radiation and are an important factor in the **greenhouse effect**: the warming of Earth due to carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

Evidence supports the relationship between atmospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide and temperature: as carbon dioxide rises, global temperature rises. Since 1950, the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide has increased from about 280 ppm to 382 ppm in 2006. In 2011, the atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration was 392 ppm. However, the planet would not be inhabitable by current life forms if water vapor did not produce its drastic greenhouse warming effect.

Scientists look at patterns in data and try to explain differences or deviations from these patterns. The atmospheric carbon dioxide data reveal a historical pattern of carbon dioxide increasing and decreasing, cycling between a low of 180 ppm and a high of 300 ppm. Scientists have concluded that it took around 50,000 years for the atmospheric carbon dioxide level to increase from its low minimum concentration to its higher maximum concentration. However, starting recently, atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations have increased beyond the historical maximum of 300 ppm. The current increases in atmospheric carbon dioxide have happened very quickly—in a matter of hundreds of years rather than thousands of years. What is the reason for this difference in the rate of change and the amount of increase in carbon dioxide? A key factor that must be recognized when comparing the historical data and the current data is the presence of modern human society; no other driver of climate change has yielded changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide levels at this rate or to this magnitude.

Human activity releases carbon dioxide and methane, two of the most important greenhouse gases, into the atmosphere in several ways. The primary mechanism that releases carbon dioxide is the burning of fossil fuels, such as gasoline, coal, and natural gas (**Figure 44.28**). Deforestation, cement manufacture, animal agriculture, the clearing of land, and the burning of forests are other human activities that release carbon dioxide. Methane (CH_4) is produced when bacteria break down organic matter under anaerobic conditions. Anaerobic conditions can happen when organic matter is trapped underwater (such as in rice paddies) or in the intestines of herbivores. Methane can also be released from natural gas fields and the decomposition that occurs in landfills. Another source of methane is the melting of clathrates. **Clathrates** are frozen chunks of ice and methane found at the bottom of the ocean. When water warms, these chunks of ice melt and methane is released. As the ocean's water temperature increases, the rate at which clathrates melt is increasing, releasing even more methane. This leads to increased levels of methane in the atmosphere, which further accelerates the rate of global warming. This is an example of the positive feedback loop that is leading to the rapid rate of increase of global temperatures.



Figure 44.28 The burning of fossil fuels in industry and by vehicles releases carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. (credit: "Pölló"/Wikimedia Commons)

Documented Results of Climate Change: Past and Present

Scientists have geological evidence of the consequences of long-ago climate change. Modern-day phenomena such as retreating glaciers and melting polar ice cause a continual rise in sea level. Meanwhile, changes in climate can negatively affect organisms.

Geological Climate Change

Global warming has been associated with at least one planet-wide extinction event during the geological past. The Permian extinction event occurred about 251 million years ago toward the end of the roughly 50-million-year-long geological time span known as the Permian period. This geologic time period was one of the three warmest periods in Earth's geologic history. Scientists estimate that approximately 70 percent of the terrestrial plant and animal species and 84 percent of marine species became extinct, vanishing forever near the end of the Permian period. Organisms that had adapted to wet and warm climatic conditions, such as annual rainfall of 300–400 cm (118–157 in) and 20 °C–30 °C (68 °F–86 °F) in the tropical wet forest, may not have been able to survive the Permian climate change.



Watch this [NASA video \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/climate_plants\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/climate_plants) to discover the mixed effects of global warming on plant growth. While scientists found that warmer temperatures in the 1980s and 1990s caused an increase in plant productivity, this advantage has since been counteracted by more frequent droughts.

Present Climate Change

A number of global events have occurred that may be attributed to climate change during our lifetimes. Glacier National Park in Montana is undergoing the retreat of many of its glaciers, a phenomenon known as glacier recession. In 1850, the area contained approximately 150 glaciers. By 2010, however, the park contained only about 24 glaciers greater than 25 acres in size. One of these glaciers is the Grinnell Glacier ([Figure 44.29](#)) at Mount Gould. Between 1966 and 2005, the size of Grinnell Glacier shrank by 40 percent. Similarly, the mass of the ice sheets in Greenland and the Antarctic is decreasing: Greenland lost 150–250 km³ of ice per year between 2002 and 2006. In addition, the size and thickness of the Arctic sea ice is decreasing.



Figure 44.29 The effect of global warming can be seen in the continuing retreat of Grinnell Glacier. The mean annual temperature in the park has increased 1.33 °C since 1900. The loss of a glacier results in the loss of summer meltwaters, sharply reducing seasonal water supplies and severely affecting local ecosystems. (credit: modification of work by USGS)

This loss of ice is leading to increases in the global sea level. On average, the sea is rising at a rate of 1.8 mm per year. However, between 1993 and 2010 the rate of sea level increase ranged between 2.9 and 3.4 mm per year. A variety of factors affect the volume of water in the ocean, including the temperature

of the water (the density of water is related to its temperature) and the amount of water found in rivers, lakes, glaciers, polar ice caps, and sea ice. As glaciers and polar ice caps melt, there is a significant contribution of liquid water that was previously frozen.

In addition to some abiotic conditions changing in response to climate change, many organisms are also being affected by the changes in temperature. Temperature and precipitation play key roles in determining the geographic distribution and phenology of plants and animals. (Phenology is the study of the effects of climatic conditions on the timing of periodic lifecycle events, such as flowering in plants or migration in birds.) Researchers have shown that 385 plant species in Great Britain are flowering 4.5 days sooner than was recorded earlier during the previous 40 years. In addition, insect-pollinated species were more likely to flower earlier than wind-pollinated species. The impact of changes in flowering date would be mitigated if the insect pollinators emerged earlier. This mismatched timing of plants and pollinators could result in injurious ecosystem effects because, for continued survival, insect-pollinated plants must flower when their pollinators are present.

KEY TERMS

- abiotic** nonliving components of the environment
- aboveground biomass** total mass of aboveground living plants per area
- abyssal zone** deepest part of the ocean at depths of 4000 m or greater
- algal bloom** rapid increase of algae in an aquatic system
- aphotic zone** part of the ocean where no light penetrates
- benthic realm** (also, benthic zone) part of the ocean that extends along the ocean bottom from the shoreline to the deepest parts of the ocean floor
- biogeography** study of the geographic distribution of living things and the abiotic factors that affect their distribution
- biome** ecological community of plants, animals, and other organisms that is adapted to a characteristic set of environmental conditions
- biotic** living components of the environment
- canopy** branches and foliage of trees that form a layer of overhead coverage in a forest
- channel** width of a river or stream from one bank to the other bank
- clathrates** frozen chunks of ice and methane found at the bottom of the ocean
- climate** long-term, predictable atmospheric conditions present in a specific area
- conspecifics** individuals that are members of the same species
- coral reef** ocean ridges formed by marine invertebrates living in warm, shallow waters within the photic zone
- cryptofauna** invertebrates found within the calcium carbonate substrate of coral reefs
- ecology** study of interaction between living things and their environment
- ecosystem services** human benefits and services provided by natural ecosystems
- emergent vegetation** wetland plants that are rooted in the soil but have portions of leaves, stems, and flowers extending above the water's surface
- endemic** species found only in a specific geographic area that is usually restricted in size
- estuary** biomes where a source of fresh water, such as a river, meets the ocean
- fall and spring turnover** seasonal process that recycles nutrients and oxygen from the bottom of a freshwater ecosystem to the top
- global climate change** altered global weather patterns, including a worldwide increase in temperature, due largely to rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide
- greenhouse effect** warming of Earth due to carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere
- greenhouse gases** atmospheric gases such as carbon dioxide and methane that absorb and emit radiation, thus trapping heat in Earth's atmosphere
- haze-effect cooling** effect of the gases and solids from a volcanic eruption on global climate
- heterospecifics** individuals that are members of different species
- intertidal zone** part of the ocean that is closest to land; parts extend above the water at low tide

- Milankovitch cycles** cyclic changes in the Earth's orbit that may affect climate
- neritic zone** part of the ocean that extends from low tide to the edge of the continental shelf
- net primary productivity** measurement of the energy accumulation within an ecosystem, calculated as the total amount of carbon fixed per year minus the amount that is oxidized during cellular respiration
- ocean upwelling** rising of deep ocean waters that occurs when prevailing winds blow along surface waters near a coastline
- oceanic zone** part of the ocean that begins offshore where the water measures 200 m deep or deeper
- pelagic realm** (also, pelagic zone) open ocean waters that are not close to the bottom or near the shore
- permafrost** perennially frozen portion of the Arctic tundra soil
- photic zone** portion of the ocean that light can penetrate
- planktivore** animal species that eats plankton
- predator** animal species that hunt and are carnivores or “flesh eaters”
- Sargassum** type of free-floating marine seaweed
- solar intensity** amount of solar power energy the sun emits in a given amount of time
- source water** point of origin of a river or stream
- thermocline** layer of water with a temperature that is significantly different from that of the surrounding layers
- weather** conditions of the atmosphere during a short period of time

CHAPTER SUMMARY

44.1 The Scope of Ecology

Ecology is the study of the interactions of living things with their environment. Ecologists ask questions across four levels of biological organization—organismal, population, community, and ecosystem. At the organismal level, ecologists study individual organisms and how they interact with their environments. At the population and community levels, ecologists explore, respectively, how a population of organisms changes over time and the ways in which that population interacts with other species in the community. Ecologists studying an ecosystem examine the living species (the biotic components) of the ecosystem as well as the nonliving portions (the abiotic components), such as air, water, and soil, of the environment.

44.2 Biogeography

Biogeography is the study of the geographic distribution of living things and the abiotic factors that affect their distribution. Endemic species are species that are naturally found only in a specific geographic area. The distribution of living things is influenced by several environmental factors that are, in part, controlled by the latitude or elevation at which an organism is found. Ocean upwelling and spring and fall turnovers are important processes regulating the distribution of nutrients and other abiotic factors important in aquatic ecosystems. Energy sources, temperature, water, inorganic nutrients, and soil are factors limiting the distribution of living things in terrestrial systems. Net primary productivity is a measure of the amount of biomass produced by a biome.

44.3 Terrestrial Biomes

The Earth has terrestrial biomes and aquatic biomes. Aquatic biomes include both freshwater and marine environments. There are eight major terrestrial biomes: tropical wet forests, savannas, subtropical deserts, chaparral, temperate grasslands, temperate forests, boreal forests, and Arctic tundra.

The same biome can occur in different geographic locations with similar climates. Temperature and precipitation, and variations in both, are key abiotic factors that shape the composition of animal and plant communities in terrestrial biomes. Some biomes, such as temperate grasslands and temperate forests, have distinct seasons, with cold weather and hot weather alternating throughout the year. In warm, moist biomes, such as the tropical wet forest, net primary productivity is high, as warm temperatures, abundant water, and a year-round growing season fuel plant growth. Other biomes, such as deserts and tundra, have low primary productivity due to extreme temperatures and a shortage of available water.

44.4 Aquatic Biomes

Aquatic ecosystems include both saltwater and freshwater biomes. The abiotic factors important for the structuring of aquatic ecosystems can be different than those seen in terrestrial systems. Sunlight is a driving force behind the structure of forests and also is an important factor in bodies of water, especially those that are very deep, because of the role of photosynthesis in sustaining certain organisms. Density and temperature shape the structure of aquatic systems. Oceans may be thought of as consisting of different zones based on water depth and distance from the shoreline and light penetration. Different kinds of organisms are adapted to the conditions found in each zone. Coral reefs are unique marine ecosystems that are home to a wide variety of species. Estuaries are found where rivers meet the ocean; their shallow waters provide nourishment and shelter for young crustaceans, mollusks, fishes, and many other species. Freshwater biomes include lakes, ponds, rivers, streams, and wetlands. Bogs are an interesting type of wetland characterized by standing water, lower pH, and a lack of nitrogen.

44.5 Climate and the Effects of Global Climate Change

The Earth has gone through periodic cycles of increases and decreases in temperature. During the past 2000 years, the Medieval Climate Anomaly was a warmer period, while the Little Ice Age was unusually cool. Both of these irregularities can be explained by natural causes of changes in climate, and, although the temperature changes were small, they had significant effects. Natural drivers of climate change include Milankovitch cycles, changes in solar activity, and volcanic eruptions. None of these factors, however, leads to rapid increases in global temperature or sustained increases in carbon dioxide. The burning of fossil fuels is an important source of greenhouse gases, which plays a major role in the greenhouse effect. Long ago, global warming resulted in the Permian extinction: a large-scale extinction event that is documented in the fossil record. Currently, modern-day climate change is associated with the increased melting of glaciers and polar ice sheets, resulting in a gradual increase in sea level. Plants and animals can also be affected by global climate change when the timing of seasonal events, such as flowering or pollination, is affected by global warming.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 44.10** How might turnover in tropical lakes differ from turnover in lakes that exist in temperate regions?
- Figure 44.12** Which of the following statements about biomes is false?
 - Chaparral is dominated by shrubs.
 - Savannas and temperate grasslands are dominated by grasses.
 - Boreal forests are dominated by deciduous trees.
 - Lichens are common in the arctic tundra.
- Figure 44.21** In which of the following regions would you expect to find photosynthetic organisms?
 - the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, the oceanic zone, and the benthic realm
 - the photic zone, the intertidal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
 - the photic zone, the abyssal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
 - the pelagic realm, the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Which of the following is a biotic factor?
 - wind
 - disease-causing microbe
 - temperature
 - soil particle size
- The study of nutrient cycling through the environment is an example of which of the following?
 - organismal ecology
 - population ecology
 - community ecology

- d. ecosystem ecology
- 6.** Understory plants in a temperate forest have adaptations to capture limited _____.
- water
 - nutrients
 - heat
 - sunlight
- 7.** An ecologist hiking up a mountain may notice different biomes along the way due to changes in all of the following except:
- elevation
 - rainfall
 - latitude
 - temperature
- 8.** Which of the following biomes is characterized by abundant water resources?
- deserts
 - boreal forests
 - savannas
 - tropical wet forests
- 9.** Which of the following biomes is characterized by short growing seasons?
- deserts
 - tropical wet forests
 - Arctic tundras
 - savannas
- 10.** Where would you expect to find the most photosynthesis in an ocean biome?
- aphotic zone
 - abyssal zone
 - benthic realm
 - intertidal zone
- 11.** A key feature of estuaries is:
- low light conditions and high productivity
 - salt water and fresh water
 - frequent algal blooms
 - little or no vegetation
- 12.** Which of the following is an example of a weather event?
- The hurricane season lasts from June 1 through November 30.
 - The amount of atmospheric CO₂ has steadily increased during the last century.
 - A windstorm blew down trees in the Boundary Waters Canoe Area in Minnesota on July 4, 1999.
 - Deserts are generally dry ecosystems having very little rainfall.
- 13.** Which of the following natural forces is responsible for the release of carbon dioxide and other atmospheric gases?
- the Milankovitch cycles
 - volcanoes
 - solar intensity
 - burning of fossil fuels

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 14.** Ecologists often collaborate with other researchers interested in ecological questions. Describe the levels of ecology that would be easier for collaboration because of the similarities of questions asked. What levels of ecology might be more difficult for collaboration?
- 15.** The population is an important unit in ecology as well as other biological sciences. How is a population defined, and what are the strengths and weaknesses of this definition? Are there some species that at certain times or places are not in populations?
- 16.** Compare and contrast ocean upwelling and spring and fall turnovers.
- 17.** Many endemic species are found in areas that are geographically isolated. Suggest a plausible scientific explanation for why this is so.
- 18.** The extremely low precipitation of subtropical desert biomes might lead one to expect fire to be a major disturbance factor; however, fire is more common in the temperate grassland biome than in the subtropical desert biome. Why is this?
- 19.** In what ways are the subtropical desert and the arctic tundra similar?
- 20.** Scientists have discovered the bodies of humans and other living things buried in bogs for hundreds of years, but not yet decomposed. Suggest a possible biological explanation for why such bodies are so well-preserved.
- 21.** Describe the conditions and challenges facing organisms living in the intertidal zone.
- 22.** Compare and contrast how natural- and human-induced processes have influenced global climate change.
- 23.** Predict possible consequences if carbon emissions from fossil fuels continue to rise.

45 | POPULATION AND COMMUNITY ECOLOGY



Figure 45.1 Asian carp jump out of the water in response to electrofishing. The Asian carp in the inset photograph were harvested from the Little Calumet River in Illinois in May, 2010, using rotenone, a toxin often used as an insecticide, in an effort to learn more about the population of the species. (credit main image: modification of work by USGS; credit inset: modification of work by Lt. David French, USCG)

Chapter Outline

- 45.1: Population Demography**
- 45.2: Life Histories and Natural Selection**
- 45.3: Environmental Limits to Population Growth**
- 45.4: Population Dynamics and Regulation**
- 45.5: Human Population Growth**
- 45.6: Community Ecology**
- 45.7: Behavioral Biology: Proximate and Ultimate Causes of Behavior**

Introduction

Imagine sailing down a river in a small motorboat on a weekend afternoon; the water is smooth and you are enjoying the warm sunshine and cool breeze when suddenly you are hit in the head by a 20-pound silver carp. This is a risk now on many rivers and canal systems in Illinois and Missouri because of the presence of Asian carp.

This fish—actually a group of species including the silver, black, grass, and big head carp—has been farmed and eaten in China for over 1000 years. It is one of the most important aquaculture food resources worldwide. In the United States, however, Asian carp is considered a dangerous invasive species that disrupts community structure and composition to the point of threatening native species.

45.1 | Population Demography

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how ecologists measure population size and density
- Describe three different patterns of population distribution
- Use life tables to calculate mortality rates
- Describe the three types of survivorship curves and relate them to specific populations

Populations are dynamic entities. Populations consist all of the species living within a specific area, and populations fluctuate based on a number of factors: seasonal and yearly changes in the environment, natural disasters such as forest fires and volcanic eruptions, and competition for resources between and within species. The statistical study of population dynamics, **demography**, uses a series of mathematical tools to investigate how populations respond to changes in their biotic and abiotic environments. Many of these tools were originally designed to study human populations. For example, **life tables**, which detail the life expectancy of individuals within a population, were initially developed by life insurance companies to set insurance rates. In fact, while the term “demographics” is commonly used when discussing humans, all living populations can be studied using this approach.

Population Size and Density

The study of any population usually begins by determining how many individuals of a particular species exist, and how closely associated they are with each other. Within a particular habitat, a population can be characterized by its **population size (N)**, the total number of individuals, and its **population density**, the number of individuals within a specific area or volume. Population size and density are the two main characteristics used to describe and understand populations. For example, populations with more individuals may be more stable than smaller populations based on their genetic variability, and thus their potential to adapt to the environment. Alternatively, a member of a population with low population density (more spread out in the habitat), might have more difficulty finding a mate to reproduce compared to a population of higher density. As is shown in **Figure 45.2**, smaller organisms tend to be more densely distributed than larger organisms.

art CONNECTION

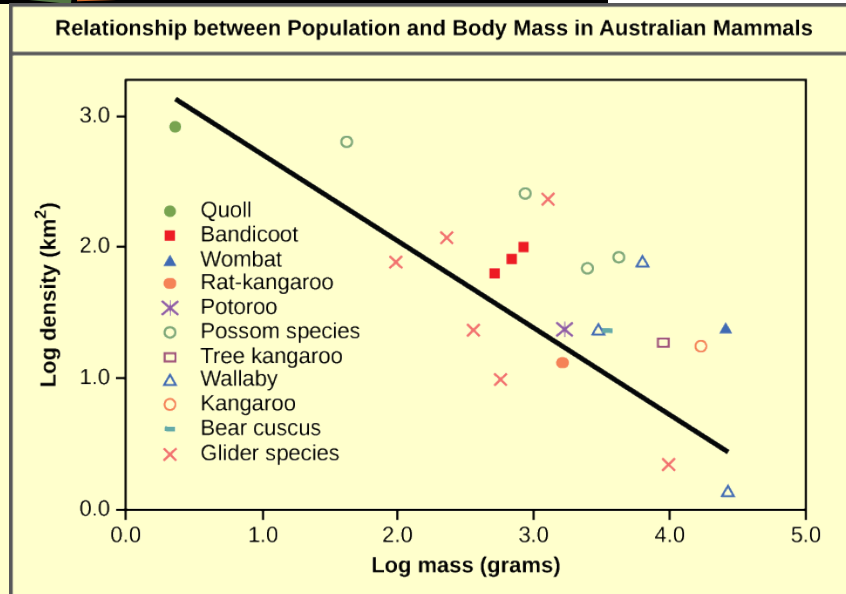


Figure 45.2 Australian mammals show a typical inverse relationship between population density and body size.

As this graph shows, population density typically decreases with increasing body size. Why do you think this is the case?

Population Research Methods

The most accurate way to determine population size is to simply count all of the individuals within the habitat. However, this method is often not logistically or economically feasible, especially when studying large habitats. Thus, scientists usually study populations by sampling a representative portion of each habitat and using this data to make inferences about the habitat as a whole. A variety of methods can be used to sample populations to determine their size and density. For immobile organisms such as plants, or for very small and slow-moving organisms, a **quadrat** may be used (Figure 45.3). A quadrat is a way of marking off square areas within a habitat, either by staking out an area with sticks and string, or by the use of a wood, plastic, or metal square placed on the ground. After setting the quadrats, researchers then count the number of individuals that lie within their boundaries. Multiple quadrat samples are performed throughout the habitat at several random locations. All of this data can then be used to estimate the population size and population density within the entire habitat. The number and size of quadrat samples depends on the type of organisms under study and other factors, including the density of the organism. For example, if sampling daffodils, a 1 m² quadrat might be used whereas with giant redwoods, which are larger and live much further apart from each other, a larger quadrat of 100 m² might be employed. This ensures that enough individuals of the species are counted to get an accurate sample that correlates with the habitat, including areas not sampled.

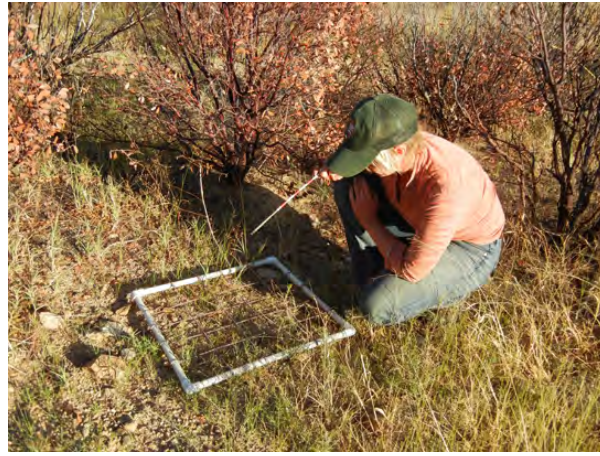


Figure 45.3 A scientist uses a quadrat to measure population size and density. (credit: NPS Sonoran Desert Network)

For mobile organisms, such as mammals, birds, or fish, a technique called **mark and recapture** is often used. This method involves marking a sample of captured animals in some way (such as tags, bands, paint, or other body markings), and then releasing them back into the environment to allow them to mix with the rest of the population; later, a new sample is collected, including some individuals that are marked (recaptures) and some individuals that are unmarked (**Figure 45.4**).

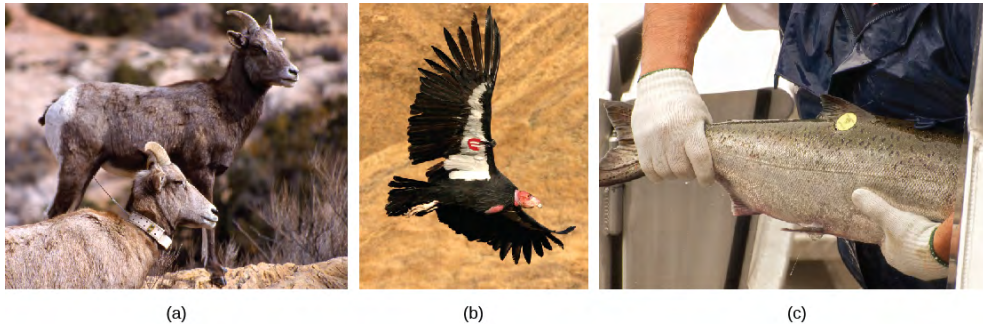


Figure 45.4 Mark and recapture is used to measure the population size of mobile animals such as (a) bighorn sheep, (b) the California condor, and (c) salmon. (credit a: modification of work by Neal Herbert, NPS; credit b: modification of work by Pacific Southwest Region USFWS; credit c: modification of work by Ingrid Taylor)

Using the ratio of marked and unmarked individuals, scientists determine how many individuals are in the sample. From this, calculations are used to estimate the total population size. This method assumes that the larger the population, the lower the percentage of tagged organisms that will be recaptured since they will have mixed with more untagged individuals. For example, if 80 deer are captured, tagged, and released into the forest, and later 100 deer are captured and 20 of them are already marked, we can determine the population size (N) using the following equation:

$$\frac{(\text{number marked first catch} \times \text{total number of second catch})}{\text{number marked second catch}} = N$$

Using our example, the population size would be estimated at 400.

$$\frac{(80 \times 100)}{20} = 400$$

Therefore, there are an estimated 400 total individuals in the original population.

There are some limitations to the mark and recapture method. Some animals from the first catch may learn to avoid capture in the second round, thus inflating population estimates. Alternatively, animals may preferentially be retrapped (especially if a food reward is offered), resulting in an underestimate of population size. Also, some species may be harmed by the marking technique, reducing their survival. A variety of other techniques have been developed, including the electronic tracking of animals tagged with radio transmitters and the use of data from commercial fishing and trapping operations to estimate the size and health of populations and communities.

Species Distribution

In addition to measuring simple density, further information about a population can be obtained by looking at the distribution of the individuals. **Species dispersion patterns** (or distribution patterns) show the spatial relationship between members of a population within a habitat at a particular point in time. In other words, they show whether members of the species live close together or far apart, and what patterns are evident when they are spaced apart.

Individuals in a population can be more or less equally spaced apart, dispersed randomly with no predictable pattern, or clustered in groups. These are known as uniform, random, and clumped dispersion patterns, respectively (Figure 45.5). Uniform dispersion is observed in plants that secrete substances inhibiting the growth of nearby individuals (such as the release of toxic chemicals by the sage plant *Salvia leucophylla*, a phenomenon called allelopathy) and in animals like the penguin that maintain a defined territory. An example of random dispersion occurs with dandelion and other plants that have wind-dispersed seeds that germinate wherever they happen to fall in a favorable environment. A clumped dispersion may be seen in plants that drop their seeds straight to the ground, such as oak trees, or animals that live in groups (schools of fish or herds of elephants). Clumped dispersions may also be a function of habitat heterogeneity. Thus, the dispersion of the individuals within a population provides more information about how they interact with each other than does a simple density measurement. Just as lower density species might have more difficulty finding a mate, solitary species with a random distribution might have a similar difficulty when compared to social species clumped together in groups.

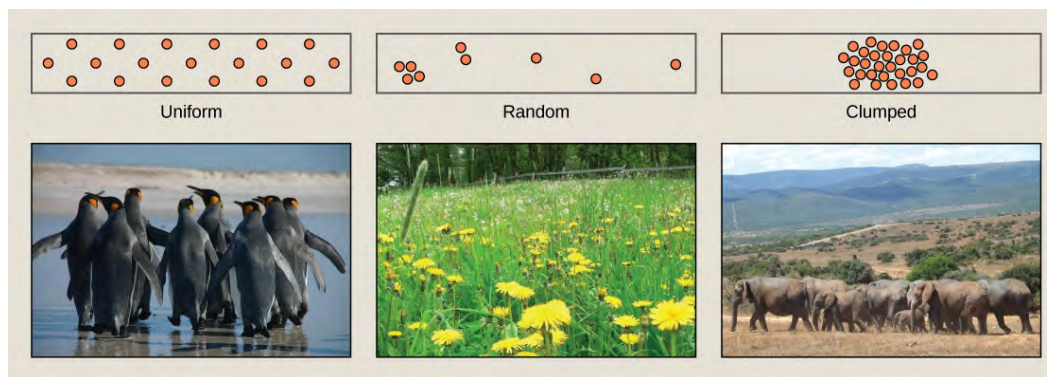


Figure 45.5 Species may have uniform, random, or clumped distribution. Territorial birds such as penguins tend to have uniform distribution. Plants such as dandelions with wind-dispersed seeds tend to be randomly distributed. Animals such as elephants that travel in groups exhibit clumped distribution. (credit a: modification of work by Ben Tubby; credit b: modification of work by Rosendahl; credit c: modification of work by Rebecca Wood)

Demography

While population size and density describe a population at one particular point in time, scientists must use demography to study the dynamics of a population. Demography is the statistical study of population changes over time: birth rates, death rates, and life expectancies. Each of these measures, especially birth rates, may be affected by the population characteristics described above. For example, a large population size results in a higher birth rate because more potentially reproductive individuals are present. In contrast, a large population size can also result in a higher death rate because of competition, disease, and the accumulation of waste. Similarly, a higher population density or a clumped dispersion pattern results in more potential reproductive encounters between individuals, which can increase birth rate. Lastly, a female-biased sex ratio (the ratio of males to females) or age structure (the proportion of population members at specific age ranges) composed of many individuals of reproductive age can increase birth rates.

In addition, the demographic characteristics of a population can influence how the population grows or declines over time. If birth and death rates are equal, the population remains stable. However, the population size will increase if birth rates exceed death rates; the population will decrease if birth rates are less than death rates. Life expectancy is another important factor; the length of time individuals remain in the population impacts local resources, reproduction, and the overall health of the population. These demographic characteristics are often displayed in the form of a life table.

Life Tables

Life tables provide important information about the life history of an organism. Life tables divide the population into age groups and often sexes, and show how long a member of that group is likely to

live. They are modeled after actuarial tables used by the insurance industry for estimating human life expectancy. Life tables may include the probability of individuals dying before their next birthday (i.e., their **mortality rate**), the percentage of surviving individuals dying at a particular age interval, and their life expectancy at each interval. An example of a life table is shown in **Table 45.1** from a study of Dall mountain sheep, a species native to northwestern North America. Notice that the population is divided into age intervals (column A). The mortality rate (per 1000), shown in column D, is based on the number of individuals dying during the age interval (column B) divided by the number of individuals surviving at the beginning of the interval (Column C), multiplied by 1000.

$$\text{mortality rate} = \frac{\text{number of individuals dying}}{\text{number of individuals surviving}} \times 1000$$

For example, between ages three and four, 12 individuals die out of the 776 that were remaining from the original 1000 sheep. This number is then multiplied by 1000 to get the mortality rate per thousand.

$$\text{mortality rate} = \frac{12}{776} \times 1000 \approx 15.5$$

As can be seen from the mortality rate data (column D), a high death rate occurred when the sheep were between 6 and 12 months old, and then increased even more from 8 to 12 years old, after which there were few survivors. The data indicate that if a sheep in this population were to survive to age one, it could be expected to live another 7.7 years on average, as shown by the life expectancy numbers in column E.

Life Table of Dall Mountain Sheep^[1]

Age interval (years)	Number dying in age interval out of 1000 born	Number surviving at beginning of age interval out of 1000 born	Mortality rate per 1000 alive at beginning of age interval	Life expectancy or mean lifetime remaining to those attaining age interval
0-0.5	54	1000	54.0	7.06
0.5-1	145	946	153.3	--
1-2	12	801	15.0	7.7
2-3	13	789	16.5	6.8
3-4	12	776	15.5	5.9
4-5	30	764	39.3	5.0
5-6	46	734	62.7	4.2
6-7	48	688	69.8	3.4
7-8	69	640	107.8	2.6
8-9	132	571	231.2	1.9
9-10	187	439	426.0	1.3
10-11	156	252	619.0	0.9
11-12	90	96	937.5	0.6
12-13	3	6	500.0	1.2
13-14	3	3	1000	0.7

Table 45.1 This life table of *Ovis dalli* shows the number of deaths, number of survivors, mortality rate, and life expectancy at each age interval for the Dall mountain sheep.

1. Data Adapted from Edward S. Deevey, Jr., "Life Tables for Natural Populations of Animals," *The Quarterly Review of Biology* 22, no. 4 (December 1947): 283-314.

Survivorship Curves

Another tool used by population ecologists is a **survivorship curve**, which is a graph of the number of individuals surviving at each age interval plotted versus time (usually with data compiled from a life table). These curves allow us to compare the life histories of different populations (**Figure 45.6**). Humans and most primates exhibit a Type I survivorship curve because a high percentage of offspring survive their early and middle years—death occurs predominantly in older individuals. These types of species usually have small numbers of offspring at one time, and they give a high amount of parental care to them to ensure their survival. Birds are an example of an intermediate or Type II survivorship curve because birds die more or less equally at each age interval. These organisms also may have relatively few offspring and provide significant parental care. Trees, marine invertebrates, and most fishes exhibit a Type III survivorship curve because very few of these organisms survive their younger years; however, those that make it to an old age are more likely to survive for a relatively long period of time. Organisms in this category usually have a very large number of offspring, but once they are born, little parental care is provided. Thus these offspring are “on their own” and vulnerable to predation, but their sheer numbers assure the survival of enough individuals to perpetuate the species.

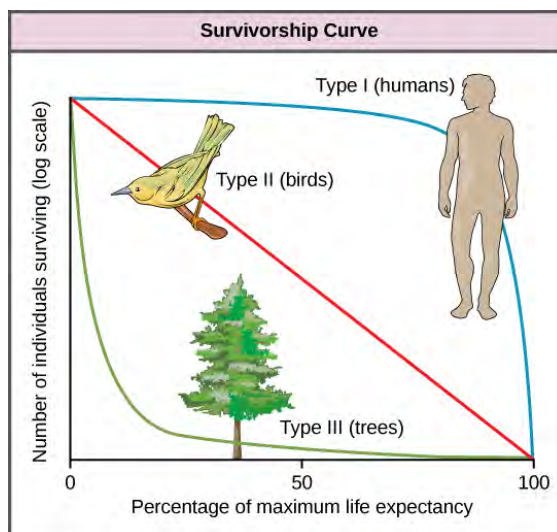


Figure 45.6 Survivorship curves show the distribution of individuals in a population according to age. Humans and most mammals have a Type I survivorship curve because death primarily occurs in the older years. Birds have a Type II survivorship curve, as death at any age is equally probable. Trees have a Type III survivorship curve because very few survive the younger years, but after a certain age, individuals are much more likely to survive.

45.2 | Life Histories and Natural Selection

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how life history patterns are influenced by natural selection
- Explain different life history patterns and how different reproductive strategies affect species' survival

A species' **life history** describes the series of events over its lifetime, such as how resources are allocated for growth, maintenance, and reproduction. Life history traits affect the life table of an organism. A species' life history is genetically determined and shaped by the environment and natural selection.

Life History Patterns and Energy Budgets

Energy is required by all living organisms for their growth, maintenance, and reproduction; at the same time, energy is often a major limiting factor in determining an organism's survival. Plants, for example, acquire energy from the sun via photosynthesis, but must expend this energy to grow, maintain health, and produce energy-rich seeds to produce the next generation. Animals have the additional burden of using some of their energy reserves to acquire food. Furthermore, some animals must expend energy caring for their offspring. Thus, all species have an **energy budget**: they must balance energy intake

with their use of energy for metabolism, reproduction, parental care, and energy storage (such as bears building up body fat for winter hibernation).

Parental Care and Fecundity

Fecundity is the potential reproductive capacity of an individual within a population. In other words, fecundity describes how many offspring could ideally be produced if an individual has as many offspring as possible, repeating the reproductive cycle as soon as possible after the birth of the offspring. In animals, fecundity is inversely related to the amount of parental care given to an individual offspring. Species, such as many marine invertebrates, that produce many offspring usually provide little if any care for the offspring (they would not have the energy or the ability to do so anyway). Most of their energy budget is used to produce many tiny offspring. Animals with this strategy are often self-sufficient at a very early age. This is because of the energy tradeoff these organisms have made to maximize their evolutionary fitness. Because their energy is used for producing offspring instead of parental care, it makes sense that these offspring have some ability to be able to move within their environment and find food and perhaps shelter. Even with these abilities, their small size makes them extremely vulnerable to predation, so the production of many offspring allows enough of them to survive to maintain the species.

Animal species that have few offspring during a reproductive event usually give extensive parental care, devoting much of their energy budget to these activities, sometimes at the expense of their own health. This is the case with many mammals, such as humans, kangaroos, and pandas. The offspring of these species are relatively helpless at birth and need to develop before they achieve self-sufficiency.

Plants with low fecundity produce few energy-rich seeds (such as coconuts and chestnuts) with each having a good chance to germinate into a new organism; plants with high fecundity usually have many small, energy-poor seeds (like orchids) that have a relatively poor chance of surviving. Although it may seem that coconuts and chestnuts have a better chance of surviving, the energy tradeoff of the orchid is also very effective. It is a matter of where the energy is used, for large numbers of seeds or for fewer seeds with more energy.

Early versus Late Reproduction

The timing of reproduction in a life history also affects species survival. Organisms that reproduce at an early age have a greater chance of producing offspring, but this is usually at the expense of their growth and the maintenance of their health. Conversely, organisms that start reproducing later in life often have greater fecundity or are better able to provide parental care, but they risk that they will not survive to reproductive age. Examples of this can be seen in fishes. Small fish like guppies use their energy to reproduce rapidly, but never attain the size that would give them defense against some predators. Larger fish, like the bluegill or shark, use their energy to attain a large size, but do so with the risk that they will die before they can reproduce or at least reproduce to their maximum. These different energy strategies and tradeoffs are key to understanding the evolution of each species as it maximizes its fitness and fills its niche. In terms of energy budgeting, some species “blow it all” and use up most of their energy reserves to reproduce early before they die. Other species delay having reproduction to become stronger, more experienced individuals and to make sure that they are strong enough to provide parental care if necessary.

Single versus Multiple Reproductive Events

Some life history traits, such as fecundity, timing of reproduction, and parental care, can be grouped together into general strategies that are used by multiple species. **Semelparity** occurs when a species reproduces only once during its lifetime and then dies. Such species use most of their resource budget during a single reproductive event, sacrificing their health to the point that they do not survive. Examples of semelparity are bamboo, which flowers once and then dies, and the Chinook salmon (**Figure 45.7a**), which uses most of its energy reserves to migrate from the ocean to its freshwater nesting area, where it reproduces and then dies. Scientists have posited alternate explanations for the evolutionary advantage of the Chinook’s post-reproduction death: a programmed suicide caused by a massive release of corticosteroid hormones, presumably so the parents can become food for the offspring, or simple exhaustion caused by the energy demands of reproduction; these are still being debated.

Iteroparity describes species that reproduce repeatedly during their lives. Some animals are able to mate only once per year, but survive multiple mating seasons. The pronghorn antelope is an example of an animal that goes into a seasonal estrus cycle (“heat”): a hormonally induced physiological condition preparing the body for successful mating (**Figure 45.7b**). Females of these species mate only during the estrus phase of the cycle. A different pattern is observed in primates, including humans and chimpanzees, which may attempt reproduction at any time during their reproductive years, even though their menstrual cycles make pregnancy likely only a few days per month during ovulation (**Figure 45.7c**).



Figure 45.7 The (a) Chinook salmon mates once and dies. The (b) pronghorn antelope mates during specific times of the year during its reproductive life. Primates, such as humans and (c) chimpanzees, may mate on any day, independent of ovulation. (credit a: modification of work by Roger Tabor, USFWS; credit b: modification of work by Mark Gocke, USDA; credit c: modification of work by “Shiny Things”/Flickr)

LINK TO LEARNING



Play this **interactive PBS evolution-based mating game** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/mating_game) to learn more about reproductive strategies.

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Energy Budgets, Reproductive Costs, and Sexual Selection in *Drosophila*

Research into how animals allocate their energy resources for growth, maintenance, and reproduction has used a variety of experimental animal models. Some of this work has been done using the common fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*. Studies have shown that not only does reproduction have a cost as far as how long male fruit flies live, but also fruit flies that have already mated several times have limited sperm remaining for reproduction. Fruit flies maximize their last chances at reproduction by selecting optimal mates.

In a 1981 study, male fruit flies were placed in enclosures with either virgin or inseminated females. The males that mated with virgin females had shorter life spans than those in contact with the same number of inseminated females with which they were unable to mate. This effect occurred regardless of how large (indicative of their age) the males were. Thus, males that did not mate lived longer, allowing them more opportunities to find mates in the future.

More recent studies, performed in 2006, show how males select the female with which they will mate and how this is affected by previous matings (Figure 45.8).^[2] Males were allowed to select between smaller and larger females. Findings showed that larger females had greater fecundity, producing twice as many offspring per mating as the smaller females did. Males that had previously mated, and thus had lower supplies of sperm, were termed “resource-depleted,” while males that had not mated were termed “non-resource-depleted.” The study showed that although non-resource-depleted males preferentially mated with larger females, this selection of partners was more pronounced in the resource-depleted males. Thus, males with depleted sperm supplies, which were limited in the number of times that they could mate before they replenished their sperm supply, selected larger, more fecund females, thus maximizing their chances for offspring. This study was one of the first to show that the physiological state of the male affected its mating behavior in a way that clearly maximizes its use of limited reproductive resources.

	Ratio large/small females mated
Non sperm-depleted	8 ± 5
Sperm-depleted	15 ± 5

Figure 45.8 Male fruit flies that had previously mated (sperm-depleted) picked larger, more fecund females more often than those that had not mated (non-sperm-depleted). This change in behavior causes an increase in the efficiency of a limited reproductive resource: sperm.

These studies demonstrate two ways in which the energy budget is a factor in reproduction. First, energy expended on mating may reduce an animal's lifespan, but by this time they have already reproduced, so in the context of natural selection this early death is not of much evolutionary importance. Second, when resources such as sperm (and the energy needed to replenish it) are low, an organism's behavior can change to give them the best chance of passing their genes on to the next generation. These changes in behavior, so important to evolution, are studied in a discipline known as behavioral biology, or ethology, at the interface between population biology and psychology.

2. Adapted from Phillip G. Byrne and William R. Rice, “Evidence for adaptive male mate choice in the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*,” *Proc Biol Sci.* 273, no. 1589 (2006): 917-922, doi: 10.1098/rspb.2005.3372.

45.3 | Environmental Limits to Population Growth

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the characteristics of and differences between exponential and logistic growth patterns
- Give examples of exponential and logistic growth in natural populations
- Describe how natural selection and environmental adaptation led to the evolution of particular life history patterns

Although life histories describe the way many characteristics of a population (such as their age structure) change over time in a general way, population ecologists make use of a variety of methods to model population dynamics mathematically. These more precise models can then be used to accurately describe changes occurring in a population and better predict future changes. Certain models that have been accepted for decades are now being modified or even abandoned due to their lack of predictive ability, and scholars strive to create effective new models.

Exponential Growth

Charles Darwin, in his theory of natural selection, was greatly influenced by the English clergyman Thomas Malthus. Malthus published a book in 1798 stating that populations with unlimited natural resources grow very rapidly, and then population growth decreases as resources become depleted. This accelerating pattern of increasing population size is called **exponential growth**.

The best example of exponential growth is seen in bacteria. Bacteria are prokaryotes that reproduce by prokaryotic fission. This division takes about an hour for many bacterial species. If 1000 bacteria are placed in a large flask with an unlimited supply of nutrients (so the nutrients will not become depleted), after an hour, there is one round of division and each organism divides, resulting in 2000 organisms—an increase of 1000. In another hour, each of the 2000 organisms will double, producing 4000, an increase of 2000 organisms. After the third hour, there should be 8000 bacteria in the flask, an increase of 4000 organisms. The important concept of exponential growth is that the **population growth rate**—the number of organisms added in each reproductive generation—is accelerating; that is, it is increasing at a greater and greater rate. After 1 day and 24 of these cycles, the population would have increased from 1000 to more than 16 billion. When the population size, N , is plotted over time, a **J-shaped growth curve** is produced (**Figure 45.9**).

The bacteria example is not representative of the real world where resources are limited. Furthermore, some bacteria will die during the experiment and thus not reproduce, lowering the growth rate. Therefore, when calculating the growth rate of a population, the **death rate (D)** (number organisms that die during a particular time interval) is subtracted from the **birth rate (B)** (number organisms that are born during that interval). This is shown in the following formula:

$$\frac{\Delta N \text{ (change in number)}}{\Delta T \text{ (change in time)}} = B \text{ (birth rate)} - D \text{ (death rate)}$$

The birth rate is usually expressed on a per capita (for each individual) basis. Thus, B (birth rate) = bN (the per capita birth rate “ b ” multiplied by the number of individuals “ N ”) and D (death rate) = dN (the per capita death rate “ d ” multiplied by the number of individuals “ N ”). Additionally, ecologists are interested in the population at a particular point in time, an infinitely small time interval. For this reason, the terminology of differential calculus is used to obtain the “instantaneous” growth rate, replacing the *change in number and time* with an instant-specific measurement of number and time.

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = bN - dN = (b - d)N$$

Notice that the “ d ” associated with the first term refers to the derivative (as the term is used in calculus) and is different from the death rate, also called “ d .” The difference between birth and death rates is further simplified by substituting the term “ r ” (intrinsic rate of increase) for the relationship between birth and death rates:

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = rN$$

The value “ r ” can be positive, meaning the population is increasing in size; or negative, meaning the population is decreasing in size; or zero, where the population’s size is unchanging, a condition known as **zero population growth**. A further refinement of the formula recognizes that different species have inherent differences in their intrinsic rate of increase (often thought of as the potential for reproduction), even under ideal conditions. Obviously, a bacterium can reproduce more rapidly and have a higher intrinsic rate of growth than a human. The maximal growth rate for a species is its **biotic potential**, or r_{max} , thus changing the equation to:

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = r_{max} N$$

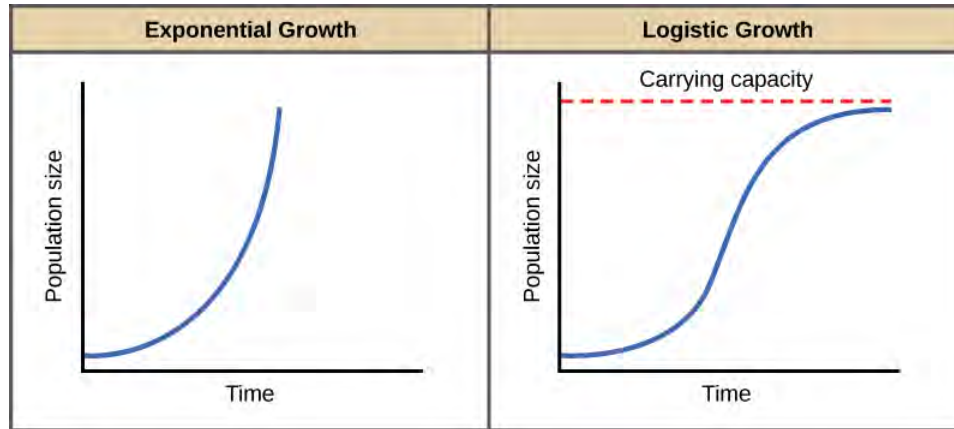


Figure 45.9 When resources are unlimited, populations exhibit exponential growth, resulting in a J-shaped curve. When resources are limited, populations exhibit logistic growth. In logistic growth, population expansion decreases as resources become scarce, and it levels off when the carrying capacity of the environment is reached, resulting in an S-shaped curve.

Logistic Growth

Exponential growth is possible only when infinite natural resources are available; this is not the case in the real world. Charles Darwin recognized this fact in his description of the “struggle for existence,” which states that individuals will compete (with members of their own or other species) for limited resources. The successful ones will survive to pass on their own characteristics and traits (which we know now are transferred by genes) to the next generation at a greater rate (natural selection). To model the reality of limited resources, population ecologists developed the **logistic growth** model.

Carrying Capacity and the Logistic Model

In the real world, with its limited resources, exponential growth cannot continue indefinitely. Exponential growth may occur in environments where there are few individuals and plentiful resources, but when the number of individuals gets large enough, resources will be depleted, slowing the growth rate. Eventually, the growth rate will plateau or level off (**Figure 45.9**). This population size, which represents the maximum population size that a particular environment can support, is called the **carrying capacity**, or **K**.

The formula we use to calculate logistic growth adds the carrying capacity as a moderating force in the growth rate. The expression “ $K - N$ ” is indicative of how many individuals may be added to a population at a given stage, and “ $K - N$ ” divided by “ K ” is the fraction of the carrying capacity available for further growth. Thus, the exponential growth model is restricted by this factor to generate the logistic growth equation:

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = r_{max} \frac{dN}{dT} = r_{max} N \frac{(K - N)}{K}$$

Notice that when N is very small, $(K - N)/K$ becomes close to K/K or 1, and the right side of the equation reduces to $r_{max}N$, which means the population is growing exponentially and is not influenced by carrying capacity. On the other hand, when N is large, $(K - N)/K$ come close to zero, which means that population growth will be slowed greatly or even stopped. Thus, population growth is greatly slowed in large populations by the carrying capacity K . This model also allows for the population of a negative population growth, or a population decline. This occurs when the number of individuals in the population exceeds the carrying capacity (because the value of $(K - N)/K$ is negative).

A graph of this equation yields an **S-shaped curve** (**Figure 45.9**), and it is a more realistic model of population growth than exponential growth. There are three different sections to an S-shaped curve.

Initially, growth is exponential because there are few individuals and ample resources available. Then, as resources begin to become limited, the growth rate decreases. Finally, growth levels off at the carrying capacity of the environment, with little change in population size over time.

Role of Intraspecific Competition

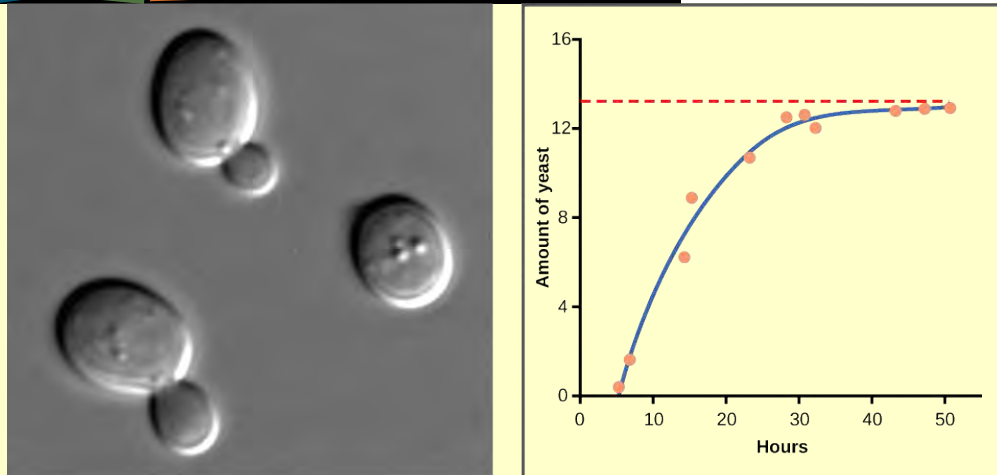
The logistic model assumes that every individual within a population will have equal access to resources and, thus, an equal chance for survival. For plants, the amount of water, sunlight, nutrients, and the space to grow are the important resources, whereas in animals, important resources include food, water, shelter, nesting space, and mates.

In the real world, phenotypic variation among individuals within a population means that some individuals will be better adapted to their environment than others. The resulting competition between population members of the same species for resources is termed **intraspecific competition** (intra- = “within”; -specific = “species”). Intraspecific competition for resources may not affect populations that are well below their carrying capacity—resources are plentiful and all individuals can obtain what they need. However, as population size increases, this competition intensifies. In addition, the accumulation of waste products can reduce an environment’s carrying capacity.

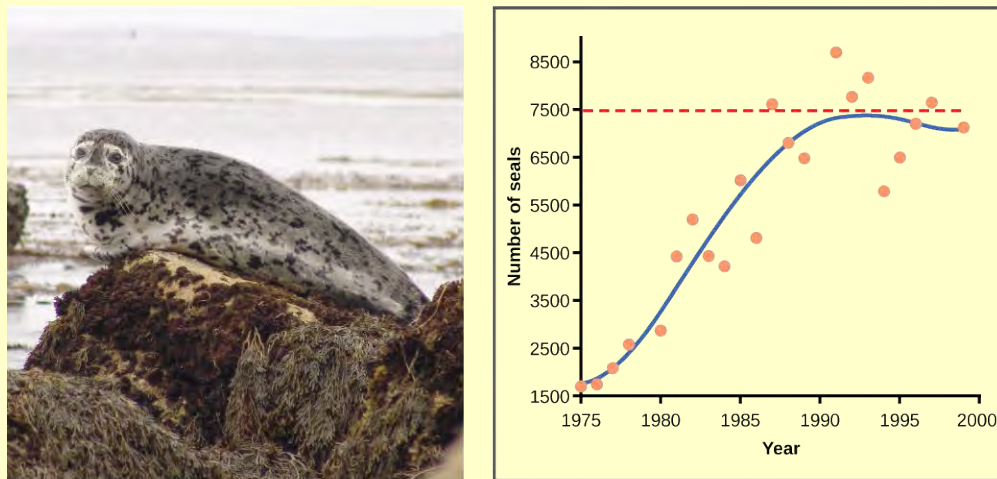
Examples of Logistic Growth

Yeast, a microscopic fungus used to make bread and alcoholic beverages, exhibits the classical S-shaped curve when grown in a test tube (**Figure 45.10a**). Its growth levels off as the population depletes the nutrients that are necessary for its growth. In the real world, however, there are variations to this idealized curve. Examples in wild populations include sheep and harbor seals (**Figure 45.10b**). In both examples, the population size exceeds the carrying capacity for short periods of time and then falls below the carrying capacity afterwards. This fluctuation in population size continues to occur as the population oscillates around its carrying capacity. Still, even with this oscillation, the logistic model is confirmed.

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(a)



(b)

Figure 45.10 (a) Yeast grown in ideal conditions in a test tube show a classical S-shaped logistic growth curve, whereas (b) a natural population of seals shows real-world fluctuation.

If the major food source of the seals declines due to pollution or overfishing, which of the following would likely occur?

- The carrying capacity of seals would decrease, as would the seal population.
- The carrying capacity of seals would decrease, but the seal population would remain the same.
- The number of seal deaths would increase but the number of births would also increase, so the population size would remain the same.
- The carrying capacity of seals would remain the same, but the population of seals would decrease.

45.4 | Population Dynamics and Regulation

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Give examples of how the carrying capacity of a habitat may change
- Compare and contrast density-dependent growth regulation and density-independent growth regulation, giving examples
- Give examples of exponential and logistic growth in wild animal populations
- Describe how natural selection and environmental adaptation leads to the evolution of particular life-history patterns

The logistic model of population growth, while valid in many natural populations and a useful model, is a simplification of real-world population dynamics. Implicit in the model is that the carrying capacity of the environment does not change, which is not the case. The carrying capacity varies annually: for example, some summers are hot and dry whereas others are cold and wet. In many areas, the carrying capacity during the winter is much lower than it is during the summer. Also, natural events such as earthquakes, volcanoes, and fires can alter an environment and hence its carrying capacity. Additionally, populations do not usually exist in isolation. They engage in **interspecific competition**: that is, they share the environment with other species, competing with them for the same resources. These factors are also important to understanding how a specific population will grow.

Nature regulates population growth in a variety of ways. These are grouped into **density-dependent** factors, in which the density of the population at a given time affects growth rate and mortality, and **density-independent** factors, which influence mortality in a population regardless of population density. Note that in the former, the effect of the factor on the population depends on the density of the population at onset. Conservation biologists want to understand both types because this helps them manage populations and prevent extinction or overpopulation.

Density-dependent Regulation

Most density-dependent factors are biological in nature (biotic), and include predation, inter- and intraspecific competition, accumulation of waste, and diseases such as those caused by parasites. Usually, the denser a population is, the greater its mortality rate. For example, during intra- and interspecific competition, the reproductive rates of the individuals will usually be lower, reducing their population's rate of growth. In addition, low prey density increases the mortality of its predator because it has more difficulty locating its food source.

An example of density-dependent regulation is shown in **Figure 45.11** with results from a study focusing on the giant intestinal roundworm (*Ascaris lumbricoides*), a parasite of humans and other mammals.^[3] Denser populations of the parasite exhibited lower fecundity: they contained fewer eggs. One possible explanation for this is that females would be smaller in more dense populations (due to limited resources) and that smaller females would have fewer eggs. This hypothesis was tested and disproved in a 2009 study which showed that female weight had no influence.^[4] The actual cause of the density-dependence of fecundity in this organism is still unclear and awaiting further investigation.

3. N.A. Croll et al., "The Population Biology and Control of *Ascaris lumbricoides* in a Rural Community in Iran." *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 76, no. 2 (1982): 187-197, doi:10.1016/0035-9203(82)90272-3.

4. Martin Walker et al., "Density-Dependent Effects on the Weight of Female *Ascaris lumbricoides* Infections of Humans and its Impact on Patterns of Egg Production." *Parasites & Vectors* 2, no. 11 (February 2009), doi:10.1186/1756-3305-2-11.

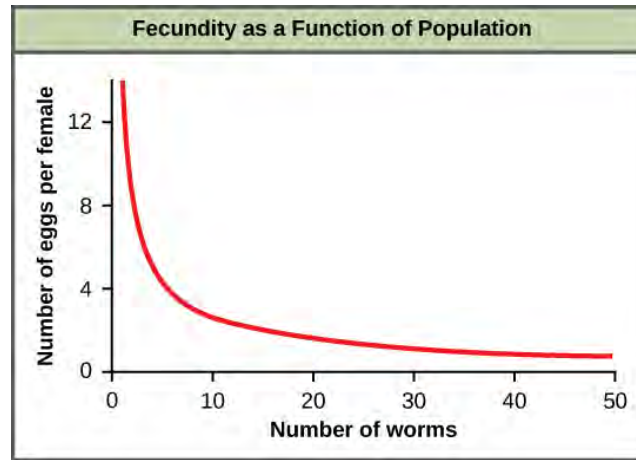


Figure 45.11 In this population of roundworms, fecundity (number of eggs) decreases with population density.^[5]

Density-independent Regulation and Interaction with Density-dependent Factors

Many factors, typically physical or chemical in nature (abiotic), influence the mortality of a population regardless of its density, including weather, natural disasters, and pollution. An individual deer may be killed in a forest fire regardless of how many deer happen to be in that area. Its chances of survival are the same whether the population density is high or low. The same holds true for cold winter weather.

In real-life situations, population regulation is very complicated and density-dependent and independent factors can interact. A dense population that is reduced in a density-independent manner by some environmental factor(s) will be able to recover differently than a sparse population. For example, a population of deer affected by a harsh winter will recover faster if there are more deer remaining to reproduce.

5. N.A. Croll et al., "The Population Biology and Control of *Ascaris lumbricoides* in a Rural Community in Iran." *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 76, no. 2 (1982): 187-197, doi:10.1016/0035-9203(82)90272-3.

evolution CONNECTION

Why Did the Woolly Mammoth Go Extinct?

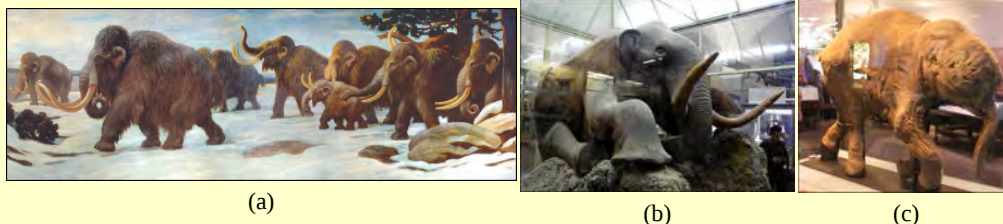


Figure 45.12 The three photos include: (a) 1916 mural of a mammoth herd from the American Museum of Natural History, (b) the only stuffed mammoth in the world, from the Museum of Zoology located in St. Petersburg, Russia, and (c) a one-month-old baby mammoth, named Lyuba, discovered in Siberia in 2007. (credit a: modification of work by Charles R. Knight; credit b: modification of work by “Tanapon”/Flickr; credit c: modification of work by Matt Howry)

It's easy to get lost in the discussion of dinosaurs and theories about why they went extinct 65 million years ago. Was it due to a meteor slamming into Earth near the coast of modern-day Mexico, or was it from some long-term weather cycle that is not yet understood? One hypothesis that will never be proposed is that humans had something to do with it. Mammals were small, insignificant creatures of the forest 65 million years ago, and no humans existed.

Woolly mammoths, however, began to go extinct about 10,000 years ago, when they shared the Earth with humans who were no different anatomically than humans today (**Figure 45.12**). Mammoths survived in isolated island populations as recently as 1700 BC. We know a lot about these animals from carcasses found frozen in the ice of Siberia and other regions of the north. Scientists have sequenced at least 50 percent of its genome and believe mammoths are between 98 and 99 percent identical to modern elephants.

It is commonly thought that climate change and human hunting led to their extinction. A 2008 study estimated that climate change reduced the mammoth's range from 3,000,000 square miles 42,000 years ago to 310,000 square miles 6,000 years ago.^[6] It is also well documented that humans hunted these animals. A 2012 study showed that no single factor was exclusively responsible for the extinction of these magnificent creatures.^[7] In addition to human hunting, climate change, and reduction of habitat, these scientists demonstrated another important factor in the mammoth's extinction was the migration of humans across the Bering Strait to North America during the last ice age 20,000 years ago.

The maintenance of stable populations was and is very complex, with many interacting factors determining the outcome. It is important to remember that humans are also part of nature. Once we contributed to a species' decline using primitive hunting technology only.

Life Histories of *K*-selected and *r*-selected Species

While reproductive strategies play a key role in life histories, they do not account for important factors like limited resources and competition. The regulation of population growth by these factors can be used to introduce a classical concept in population biology, that of *K*-selected versus *r*-selected species.

Early Theories about Life History: *K*-selected and *r*-selected Species

By the second half of the twentieth century, the concept of *K*- and *r*-selected species was used extensively and successfully to study populations. The concept relates not only reproductive strategies, but also to a species' habitat and behavior, especially in the way that they obtain resources and care for their young. It includes length of life and survivorship factors as well. For this analysis, population biologists have

6. David Nogués-Bravo et al., “Climate Change, Humans, and the Extinction of the Woolly Mammoth.” *PLoS Biol* 6 (April 2008): e79, doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0060079.

7. G.M. MacDonald et al., “Pattern of Extinction of the Woolly Mammoth in Beringia.” *Nature Communications* 3, no. 893 (June 2012), doi:10.1038/ncomms1881.

grouped species into the two large categories—*K*-selected and *r*-selected—although they are really two ends of a continuum.

***K*-selected species** are species selected by stable, predictable environments. Populations of *K*-selected species tend to exist close to their carrying capacity (hence the term *K*-selected) where intraspecific competition is high. These species have few, large offspring, a long gestation period, and often give long-term care to their offspring (Table B45_04_01). While larger in size when born, the offspring are relatively helpless and immature at birth. By the time they reach adulthood, they must develop skills to compete for natural resources. In plants, scientists think of parental care more broadly: how long fruit takes to develop or how long it remains on the plant are determining factors in the time to the next reproductive event. Examples of *K*-selected species are primates (including humans), elephants, and plants such as oak trees (Figure 45.13a).

Oak trees grow very slowly and take, on average, 20 years to produce their first seeds, known as acorns. As many as 50,000 acorns can be produced by an individual tree, but the germination rate is low as many of these rot or are eaten by animals such as squirrels. In some years, oaks may produce an exceptionally large number of acorns, and these years may be on a two- or three-year cycle depending on the species of oak (*r*-selection).

As oak trees grow to a large size and for many years before they begin to produce acorns, they devote a large percentage of their energy budget to growth and maintenance. The tree's height and size allow it to dominate other plants in the competition for sunlight, the oak's primary energy resource. Furthermore, when it does reproduce, the oak produces large, energy-rich seeds that use their energy reserve to become quickly established (*K*-selection).

In contrast, ***r*-selected species** have a large number of small offspring (hence their *r* designation (Table 45.2). This strategy is often employed in unpredictable or changing environments. Animals that are *r*-selected do not give long-term parental care and the offspring are relatively mature and self-sufficient at birth. Examples of *r*-selected species are marine invertebrates, such as jellyfish, and plants, such as the dandelion (Figure 45.13b). Dandelions have small seeds that are wind dispersed long distances. Many seeds are produced simultaneously to ensure that at least some of them reach a hospitable environment. Seeds that land in inhospitable environments have little chance for survival since their seeds are low in energy content. Note that survival is not necessarily a function of energy stored in the seed itself.

Characteristics of *K*-selected and *r*-selected species

Characteristics of <i>K</i> -selected species	Characteristics of <i>r</i> -selected species
Mature late	Mature early
Greater longevity	Lower longevity
Increased parental care	Decreased parental care
Increased competition	Decreased competition
Fewer offspring	More offspring
Larger offspring	Smaller offspring

Table 45.2



(a) K-selected species



(b) r-selected species

Figure 45.13 (a) Elephants are considered K-selected species as they live long, mature late, and provide long-term parental care to few offspring. Oak trees produce many offspring that do not receive parental care, but are considered K-selected species based on longevity and late maturation. (b) Dandelions and jellyfish are both considered r-selected species as they mature early, have short lifespans, and produce many offspring that receive no parental care.

Modern Theories of Life History

The *r*- and *K*-selection theory, although accepted for decades and used for much groundbreaking research, has now been reconsidered, and many population biologists have abandoned or modified it. Over the years, several studies attempted to confirm the theory, but these attempts have largely failed. Many species were identified that did not follow the theory's predictions. Furthermore, the theory ignored the age-specific mortality of the populations which scientists now know is very important. New **demographic-based models** of life history evolution have been developed which incorporate many ecological concepts included in *r*- and *K*-selection theory as well as population age structure and mortality factors.

45.5 | Human Population Growth

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss how human population growth can be exponential
- Explain how humans have expanded the carrying capacity of their habitat
- Relate population growth and age structure to the level of economic development in different countries
- Discuss the long-term implications of unchecked human population growth

Concepts of animal population dynamics can be applied to human population growth. Humans are not unique in their ability to alter their environment. For example, beaver dams alter the stream environment where they are built. Humans, however, have the ability to alter their environment to increase its carrying capacity sometimes to the detriment of other species (e.g., via artificial selection for crops that have a higher yield). Earth's human population is growing rapidly, to the extent that some worry about the

ability of the earth's environment to sustain this population, as long-term exponential growth carries the potential risks of famine, disease, and large-scale death.

Although humans have increased the carrying capacity of their environment, the technologies used to achieve this transformation have caused unprecedented changes to Earth's environment, altering ecosystems to the point where some may be in danger of collapse. The depletion of the ozone layer, erosion due to acid rain, and damage from global climate change are caused by human activities. The ultimate effect of these changes on our carrying capacity is unknown. As some point out, it is likely that the negative effects of increasing carrying capacity will outweigh the positive ones—the carrying capacity of the world for human beings might actually decrease.

The world's human population is currently experiencing exponential growth even though human reproduction is far below its biotic potential (Figure 45.14). To reach its biotic potential, all females would have to become pregnant every nine months or so during their reproductive years. Also, resources would have to be such that the environment would support such growth. Neither of these two conditions exists. In spite of this fact, human population is still growing exponentially.

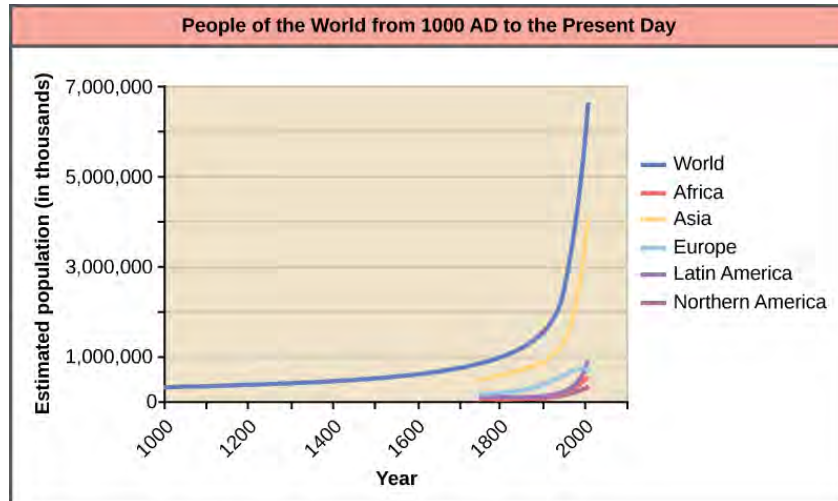


Figure 45.14 Human population growth since 1000 AD is exponential (dark blue line). Notice that while the population in Asia (yellow line), which has many economically underdeveloped countries, is increasing exponentially, the population in Europe (light blue line), where most of the countries are economically developed, is growing much more slowly.

A consequence of exponential human population growth is the time that it takes to add a particular number of humans to the Earth is becoming shorter. Figure 45.15 shows that 123 years were necessary to add 1 billion humans in 1930, but it only took 24 years to add two billion people between 1975 and 1999. As already discussed, at some point it would appear that our ability to increase our carrying capacity indefinitely on a finite world is uncertain. Without new technological advances, the human growth rate has been predicted to slow in the coming decades. However, the population will still be increasing and the threat of overpopulation remains.

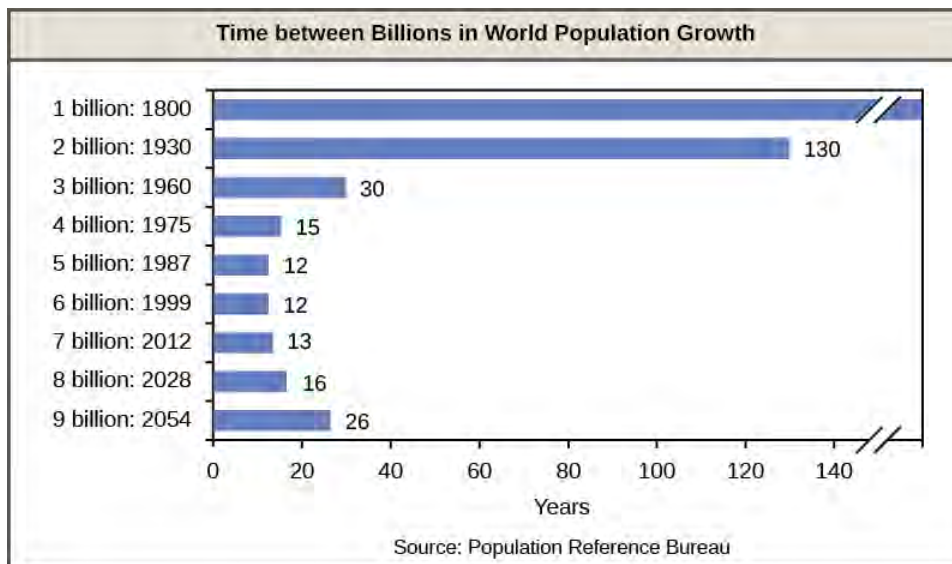


Figure 45.15 The time between the addition of each billion human beings to Earth decreases over time. (credit: modification of work by Ryan T. Cragun)



Click through this [interactive view \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/human_growth\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/human_growth) of how human populations have changed over time.

Overcoming Density-Dependent Regulation

Humans are unique in their ability to alter their environment with the conscious purpose of increasing its carrying capacity. This ability is a major factor responsible for human population growth and a way of overcoming density-dependent growth regulation. Much of this ability is related to human intelligence, society, and communication. Humans can construct shelter to protect them from the elements and have developed agriculture and domesticated animals to increase their food supplies. In addition, humans use language to communicate this technology to new generations, allowing them to improve upon previous accomplishments.

Other factors in human population growth are migration and public health. Humans originated in Africa, but have since migrated to nearly all inhabitable land on the Earth. Public health, sanitation, and the use of antibiotics and vaccines have decreased the ability of infectious disease to limit human population growth. In the past, diseases such as the bubonic plague of the fourteenth century killed between 30 and 60 percent of Europe's population and reduced the overall world population by as many as 100 million people. Today, the threat of infectious disease, while not gone, is certainly less severe. According to the World Health Organization, global death from infectious disease declined from 16.4 million in 1993 to 14.7 million in 1992. To compare to some of the epidemics of the past, the percentage of the world's population killed between 1993 and 2002 decreased from 0.30 percent of the world's population to 0.24 percent. Thus, it appears that the influence of infectious disease on human population growth is becoming less significant.

Age Structure, Population Growth, and Economic Development

The age structure of a population is an important factor in population dynamics. **Age structure** is the proportion of a population at different age ranges. Age structure allows better prediction of population growth, plus the ability to associate this growth with the level of economic development in the region.

Countries with rapid growth have a pyramidal shape in their age structure diagrams, showing a preponderance of younger individuals, many of whom are of reproductive age or will be soon (**Figure 45.16**). This pattern is most often observed in underdeveloped countries where individuals do not live to old age because of less-than-optimal living conditions. Age structures of areas with slow growth, including developed countries such as the United States, still have a pyramidal structure, but with many fewer young and reproductive-aged individuals and a greater proportion of older individuals. Other developed countries, such as Italy, have zero population growth. The age structure of these populations is more conical, with an even greater percentage of middle-aged and older individuals. The actual growth rates in different countries are shown in **Figure 45.17**, with the highest rates tending to be in the less economically developed countries of Africa and Asia.

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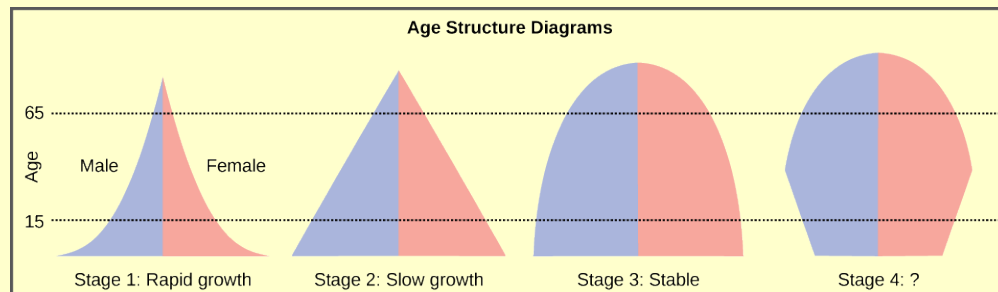


Figure 45.16 Typical age structure diagrams are shown. The rapid growth diagram narrows to a point, indicating that the number of individuals decreases rapidly with age. In the slow growth model, the number of individuals decreases steadily with age. Stable population diagrams are rounded on the top, showing that the number of individuals per age group decreases gradually, and then increases for the older part of the population.

Age structure diagrams for rapidly growing, slow growing and stable populations are shown in stages 1 through 3. What type of population change do you think stage 4 represents?

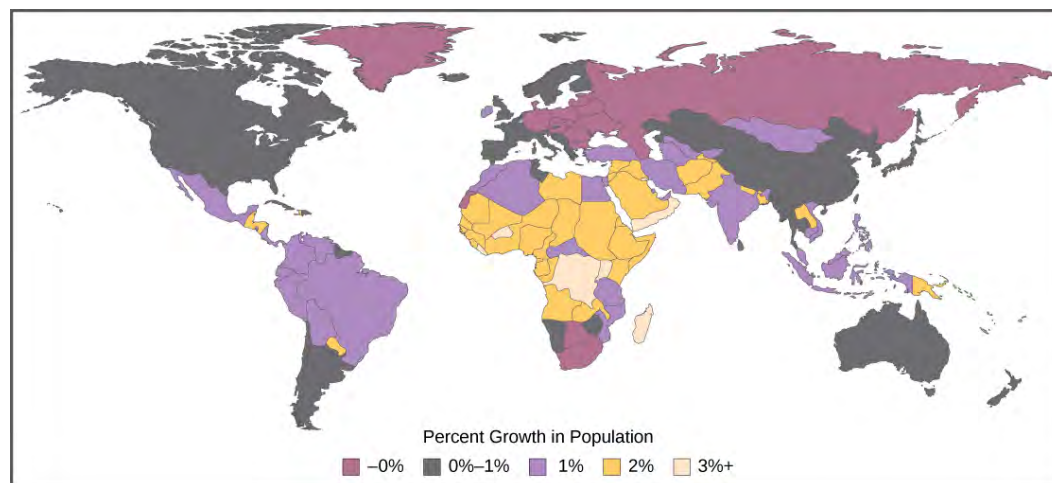


Figure 45.17 The percent growth rate of population in different countries is shown. Notice that the highest growth is occurring in less economically developed countries in Africa and Asia.

Long-Term Consequences of Exponential Human Population Growth

Many dire predictions have been made about the world's population leading to a major crisis called the "population explosion." In the 1968 book *The Population Bomb*, biologist Dr. Paul R. Ehrlich wrote, "The battle to feed all of humanity is over. In the 1970s hundreds of millions of people will starve to death in spite of any crash programs embarked upon now. At this late date nothing can prevent a

substantial increase in the world death rate.”^[8] While many critics view this statement as an exaggeration, the laws of exponential population growth are still in effect, and unchecked human population growth cannot continue indefinitely.

Efforts to control population growth led to the **one-child policy** in China, which used to include more severe consequences, but now imposes fines on urban couples who have more than one child. Due to the fact that some couples wish to have a male heir, many Chinese couples continue to have more than one child. The policy itself, its social impacts, and the effectiveness of limiting overall population growth are controversial. In spite of population control policies, the human population continues to grow. At some point the food supply may run out because of the subsequent need to produce more and more food to feed our population. The United Nations estimates that future world population growth may vary from 6 billion (a decrease) to 16 billion people by the year 2100. There is no way to know whether human population growth will moderate to the point where the crisis described by Dr. Ehrlich will be averted.

Another result of population growth is the endangerment of the natural environment. Many countries have attempted to reduce the human impact on climate change by reducing their emission of the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide. However, these treaties have not been ratified by every country, and many underdeveloped countries trying to improve their economic condition may be less likely to agree with such provisions if it means slower economic development. Furthermore, the role of human activity in causing climate change has become a hotly debated socio-political issue in some developed countries, including the United States. Thus, we enter the future with considerable uncertainty about our ability to curb human population growth and protect our environment.



Visit this [website \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/populations\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/populations) and select “Launch movie” for an animation discussing the global impacts of human population growth.

45.6 | Community Ecology

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the predator-prey cycle
- Give examples of defenses against predation and herbivory
- Describe the competitive exclusion principle
- Give examples of symbiotic relationships between species
- Describe community structure and succession

Populations rarely, if ever, live in isolation from populations of other species. In most cases, numerous species share a habitat. The interactions between these populations play a major role in regulating population growth and abundance. All populations occupying the same habitat form a community: populations inhabiting a specific area at the same time. The number of species occupying the same habitat and their relative abundance is known as species diversity. Areas with low diversity, such as the glaciers of Antarctica, still contain a wide variety of living things, whereas the diversity of tropical rainforests is so great that it cannot be counted. Ecology is studied at the community level to understand how species interact with each other and compete for the same resources.

8. Paul R. Erlich, prologue to *The Population Bomb*, (1968; repr., New York: Ballantine, 1970).

Predation and Herbivory

Perhaps the classical example of species interaction is predation: the hunting of prey by its predator. Nature shows on television highlight the drama of one living organism killing another. Populations of predators and prey in a community are not constant over time: in most cases, they vary in cycles that appear to be related. The most often cited example of predator-prey dynamics is seen in the cycling of the lynx (predator) and the snowshoe hare (prey), using nearly 200 year-old trapping data from North American forests (**Figure 45.18**). This cycle of predator and prey lasts approximately 10 years, with the predator population lagging 1–2 years behind that of the prey population. As the hare numbers increase, there is more food available for the lynx, allowing the lynx population to increase as well. When the lynx population grows to a threshold level, however, they kill so many hares that hare population begins to decline, followed by a decline in the lynx population because of scarcity of food. When the lynx population is low, the hare population size begins to increase due, at least in part, to low predation pressure, starting the cycle anew.

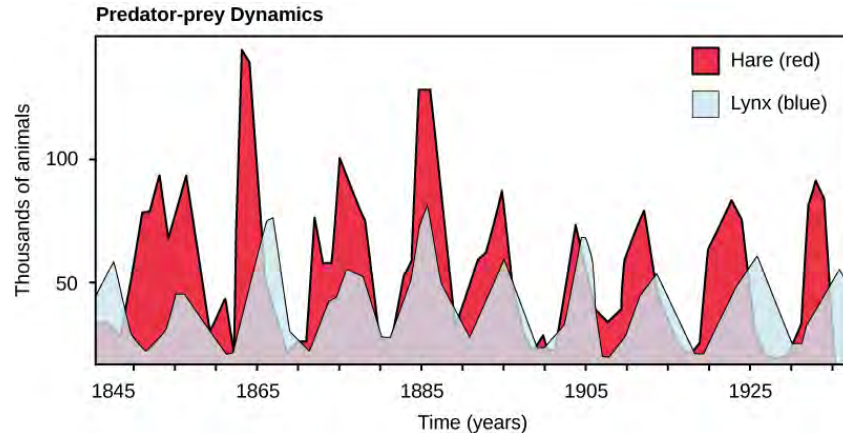


Figure 45.18 The cycling of lynx and snowshoe hare populations in Northern Ontario is an example of predator-prey dynamics.

The idea that the population cycling of the two species is entirely controlled by predation models has come under question. More recent studies have pointed to undefined density-dependent factors as being important in the cycling, in addition to predation. One possibility is that the cycling is inherent in the hare population due to density-dependent effects such as lower fecundity (maternal stress) caused by crowding when the hare population gets too dense. The hare cycling would then induce the cycling of the lynx because it is the lynxes' major food source. The more we study communities, the more complexities we find, allowing ecologists to derive more accurate and sophisticated models of population dynamics.

Herbivory describes the consumption of plants by insects and other animals, and it is another interspecific relationship that affects populations. Unlike animals, most plants cannot outrun predators or use mimicry to hide from hungry animals. Some plants have developed mechanisms to defend against herbivory. Other species have developed mutualistic relationships; for example, herbivory provides a mechanism of seed distribution that aids in plant reproduction.

Defense Mechanisms against Predation and Herbivory

The study of communities must consider evolutionary forces that act on the members of the various populations contained within it. Species are not static, but slowly changing and adapting to their environment by natural selection and other evolutionary forces. Species have evolved numerous mechanisms to escape predation and herbivory. These defenses may be mechanical, chemical, physical, or behavioral.

Mechanical defenses, such as the presence of thorns on plants or the hard shell on turtles, discourage animal predation and herbivory by causing physical pain to the predator or by physically preventing the predator from being able to eat the prey. Chemical defenses are produced by many animals as well as plants, such as the foxglove which is extremely toxic when eaten. **Figure 45.19** shows some organisms' defenses against predation and herbivory.

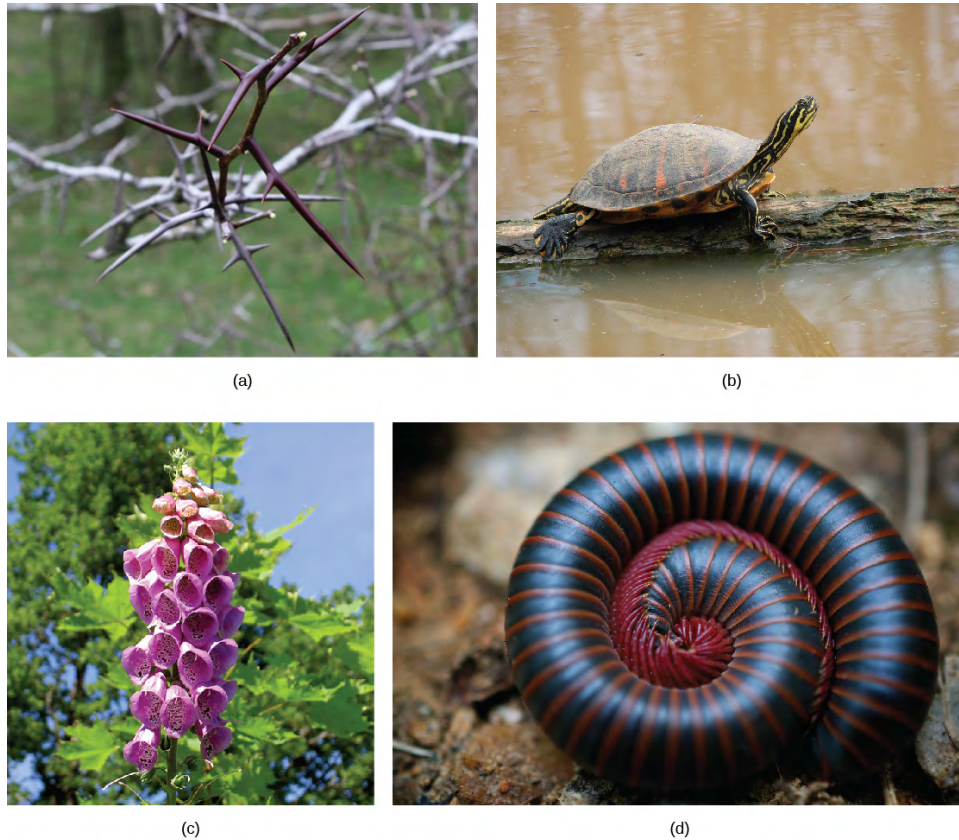


Figure 45.19 The (a) honey locust tree (*Gleditsia triacanthos*) uses thorns, a mechanical defense, against herbivores, while the (b) Florida red-bellied turtle (*Pseudemys nelsoni*) uses its shell as a mechanical defense against predators. (c) Foxglove (*Digitalis* sp.) uses a chemical defense: toxins produced by the plant can cause nausea, vomiting, hallucinations, convulsions, or death when consumed. (d) The North American millipede (*Narceus americanus*) uses both mechanical and chemical defenses: when threatened, the millipede curls into a defensive ball and produces a noxious substance that irritates eyes and skin. (credit a: modification of work by Huw Williams; credit b: modification of work by “JamieS93”/Flickr; credit c: modification of work by Philip Jägenstedt; credit d: modification of work by Cory Zanker)

Many species use their body shape and coloration to avoid being detected by predators. The tropical walking stick is an insect with the coloration and body shape of a twig which makes it very hard to see when stationary against a background of real twigs (**Figure 45.20a**). In another example, the chameleon can change its color to match its surroundings (**Figure 45.20b**). Both of these are examples of **camouflage**, or avoiding detection by blending in with the background.

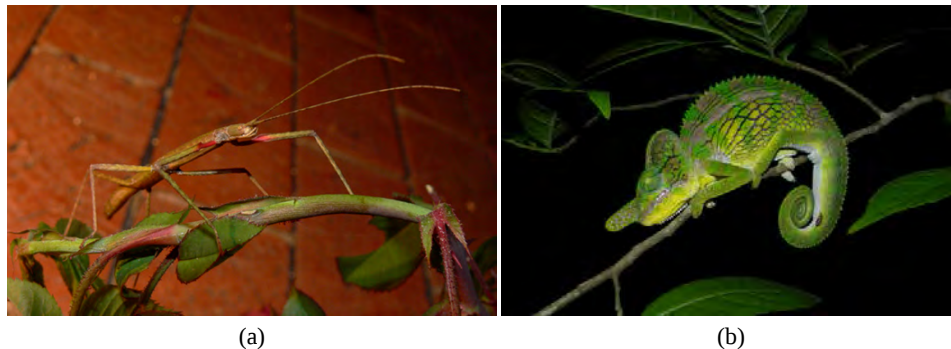


Figure 45.20 (a) The tropical walking stick and (b) the chameleon use body shape and/or coloration to prevent detection by predators. (credit a: modification of work by Linda Tanner; credit b: modification of work by Frank Vassen)

Some species use coloration as a way of warning predators that they are not good to eat. For example, the cinnabar moth caterpillar, the fire-bellied toad, and many species of beetle have bright colors that warn of a foul taste, the presence of toxic chemical, and/or the ability to sting or bite, respectively. Predators that ignore this coloration and eat the organisms will experience their unpleasant taste or presence of toxic

chemicals and learn not to eat them in the future. This type of defensive mechanism is called **aposematic coloration**, or warning coloration (**Figure 45.21**).

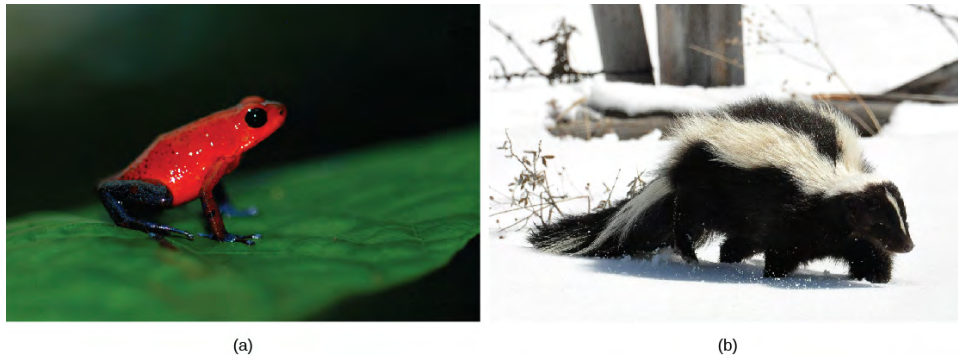


Figure 45.21 (a) The strawberry poison dart frog (*Oophaga pumilio*) uses aposematic coloration to warn predators that it is toxic, while the (b) striped skunk (*Mephitis mephitis*) uses aposematic coloration to warn predators of the unpleasant odor it produces. (credit a: modification of work by Jay Iwasaki; credit b: modification of work by Dan Dzurisin)

While some predators learn to avoid eating certain potential prey because of their coloration, other species have evolved mechanisms to mimic this coloration to avoid being eaten, even though they themselves may not be unpleasant to eat or contain toxic chemicals. In **Batesian mimicry**, a harmless species imitates the warning coloration of a harmful one. Assuming they share the same predators, this coloration then protects the harmless ones, even though they do not have the same level of physical or chemical defenses against predation as the organism they mimic. Many insect species mimic the coloration of wasps or bees, which are stinging, venomous insects, thereby discouraging predation (**Figure 45.22**).

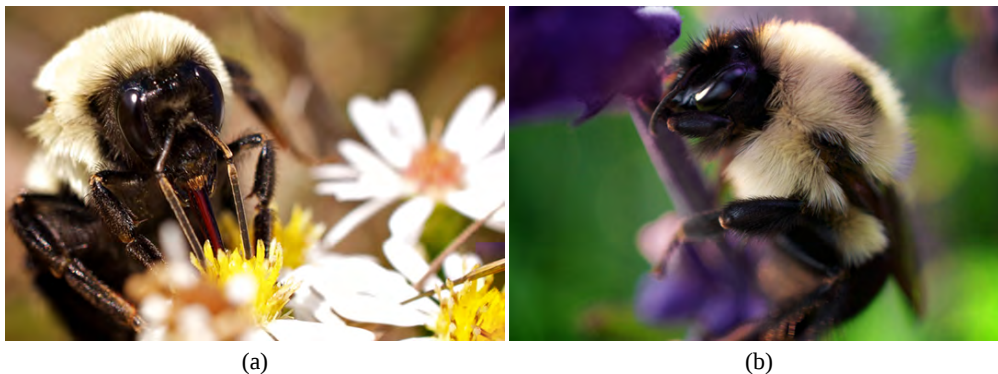


Figure 45.22 Batesian mimicry occurs when a harmless species mimics the coloration of a harmful species, as is seen with the (a) bumblebee and (b) bee-like robber fly. (credit a, b: modification of work by Cory Zanker)

In **Müllerian mimicry**, multiple species share the same warning coloration, but all of them actually have defenses. **Figure 45.23** shows a variety of foul-tasting butterflies with similar coloration. In **Emsleyan/Mertensian mimicry**, a deadly prey mimics a less dangerous one, such as the venomous coral snake mimicking the non-venomous milk snake. This type of mimicry is extremely rare and more difficult to understand than the previous two types. For this type of mimicry to work, it is essential that eating the milk snake has unpleasant but not fatal consequences. Then, these predators learn not to eat snakes with this coloration, protecting the coral snake as well. If the snake were fatal to the predator, there would be no opportunity for the predator to learn not to eat it, and the benefit for the less toxic species would disappear.



Figure 45.23 Several unpleasant-tasting *Heliconius* butterfly species share a similar color pattern with better-tasting varieties, an example of Müllerian mimicry. (credit: Joron M, Papa R, Beltrán M, Chamberlain N, Mavárez J, et al.)

LINK TO LEARNING



Go to this [website \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/find_the_mimic\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/find_the_mimic) to view stunning examples of mimicry.

Competitive Exclusion Principle

Resources are often limited within a habitat and multiple species may compete to obtain them. All species have an ecological niche in the ecosystem, which describes how they acquire the resources they need and how they interact with other species in the community. The **competitive exclusion principle** states that two species cannot occupy the same niche in a habitat. In other words, different species cannot coexist in a community if they are competing for all the same resources. An example of this principle is shown in **Figure 45.24**, with two protozoan species, *Paramecium aurelia* and *Paramecium caudatum*. When grown individually in the laboratory, they both thrive. But when they are placed together in the same test tube (habitat), *P. aurelia* outcompetes *P. caudatum* for food, leading to the latter's eventual extinction.

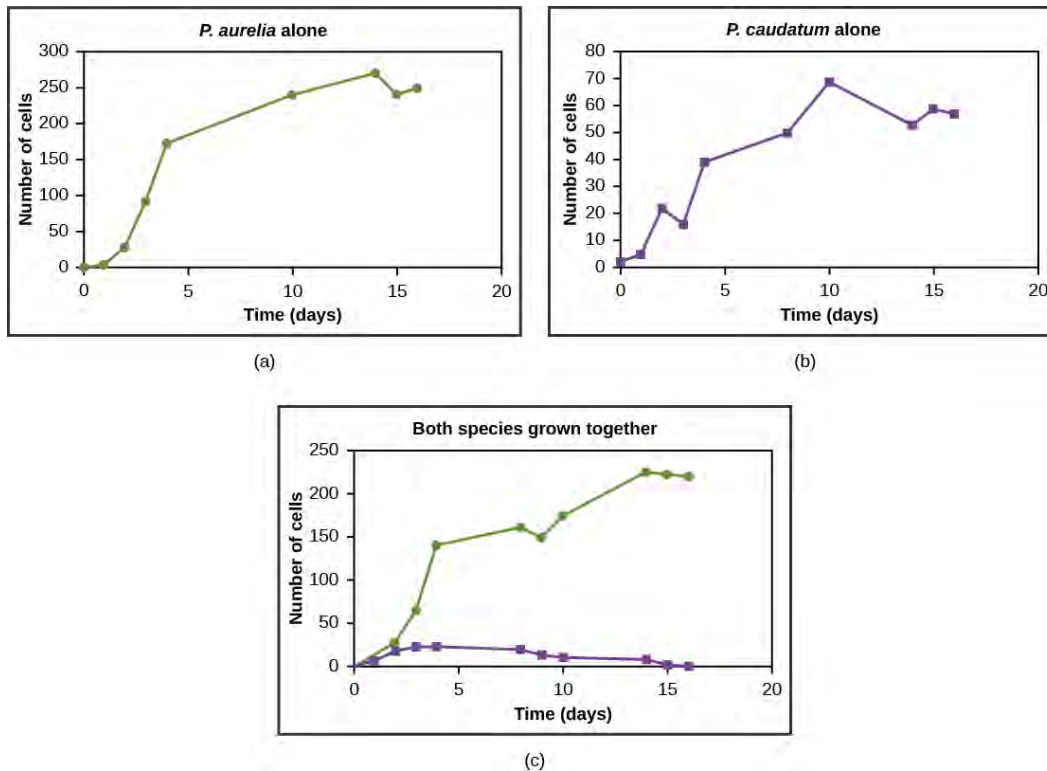


Figure 45.24 *Paramecium aurelia* and *Paramecium caudatum* grow well individually, but when they compete for the same resources, the *P. aurelia* outcompetes the *P. caudatum*.

This exclusion may be avoided if a population evolves to make use of a different resource, a different area of the habitat, or feeds during a different time of day, called resource partitioning. The two organisms are then said to occupy different microniches. These organisms coexist by minimizing direct competition.

Symbiosis

Symbiotic relationships, or **symbioses** (plural), are close interactions between individuals of different species over an extended period of time which impact the abundance and distribution of the associating populations. Most scientists accept this definition, but some restrict the term to only those species that are mutualistic, where both individuals benefit from the interaction. In this discussion, the broader definition will be used.

Commensalism

A **commensal** relationship occurs when one species benefits from the close, prolonged interaction, while the other neither benefits nor is harmed. Birds nesting in trees provide an example of a commensal relationship (Figure 45.25). The tree is not harmed by the presence of the nest among its branches. The nests are light and produce little strain on the structural integrity of the branch, and most of the leaves, which the tree uses to get energy by photosynthesis, are above the nest so they are unaffected. The bird, on the other hand, benefits greatly. If the bird had to nest in the open, its eggs and young would be vulnerable to predators. Another example of a commensal relationship is the clown fish and the sea anemone. The sea anemone is not harmed by the fish, and the fish benefits with protection from predators who would be stung upon nearing the sea anemone.



Figure 45.25 The southern masked-weaver bird is starting to make a nest in a tree in Zambezi Valley, Zambia. This is an example of a commensal relationship, in which one species (the bird) benefits, while the other (the tree) neither benefits nor is harmed. (credit: “Hanay”/Wikimedia Commons)

Mutualism

A second type of symbiotic relationship is called **mutualism**, where two species benefit from their interaction. Some scientists believe that these are the only true examples of symbiosis. For example, termites have a mutualistic relationship with protozoa that live in the insect’s gut (**Figure 45.26a**). The termite benefits from the ability of bacterial symbionts within the protozoa to digest cellulose. The termite itself cannot do this, and without the protozoa, it would not be able to obtain energy from its food (cellulose from the wood it chews and eats). The protozoa and the bacterial symbionts benefit by having a protective environment and a constant supply of food from the wood chewing actions of the termite. Lichens have a mutualistic relationship between fungus and photosynthetic algae or bacteria (**Figure 45.26b**). As these symbionts grow together, the glucose produced by the algae provides nourishment for both organisms, whereas the physical structure of the lichen protects the algae from the elements and makes certain nutrients in the atmosphere more available to the algae.



Figure 45.26 (a) Termites form a mutualistic relationship with symbiotic protozoa in their guts, which allow both organisms to obtain energy from the cellulose the termite consumes. (b) Lichen is a fungus that has symbiotic photosynthetic algae living inside its cells. (credit a: modification of work by Scott Bauer, USDA; credit b: modification of work by Cory Zanker)

Parasitism

A **parasite** is an organism that lives in or on another living organism and derives nutrients from it. In this relationship, the parasite benefits, but the organism being fed upon, the **host** is harmed. The host is usually weakened by the parasite as it siphons resources the host would normally use to maintain itself. The parasite, however, is unlikely to kill the host, especially not quickly, because this would allow no time for the organism to complete its reproductive cycle by spreading to another host.

The reproductive cycles of parasites are often very complex, sometimes requiring more than one host species. A tapeworm is a parasite that causes disease in humans when contaminated, undercooked meat such as pork, fish, or beef is consumed (**Figure 45.27**). The tapeworm can live inside the intestine of the

host for several years, benefiting from the food the host is bringing into its gut by eating, and may grow to be over 50 ft long by adding segments. The parasite moves from species to species in a cycle, making two hosts necessary to complete its life cycle. Another common parasite is *Plasmodium falciparum*, the protozoan cause of malaria, a significant disease in many parts of the world. Living in human liver and red blood cells, the organism reproduces asexually in the gut of blood-feeding mosquitoes to complete its life cycle. Thus malaria is spread from human to human by mosquitoes, one of many arthropod-borne infectious diseases.

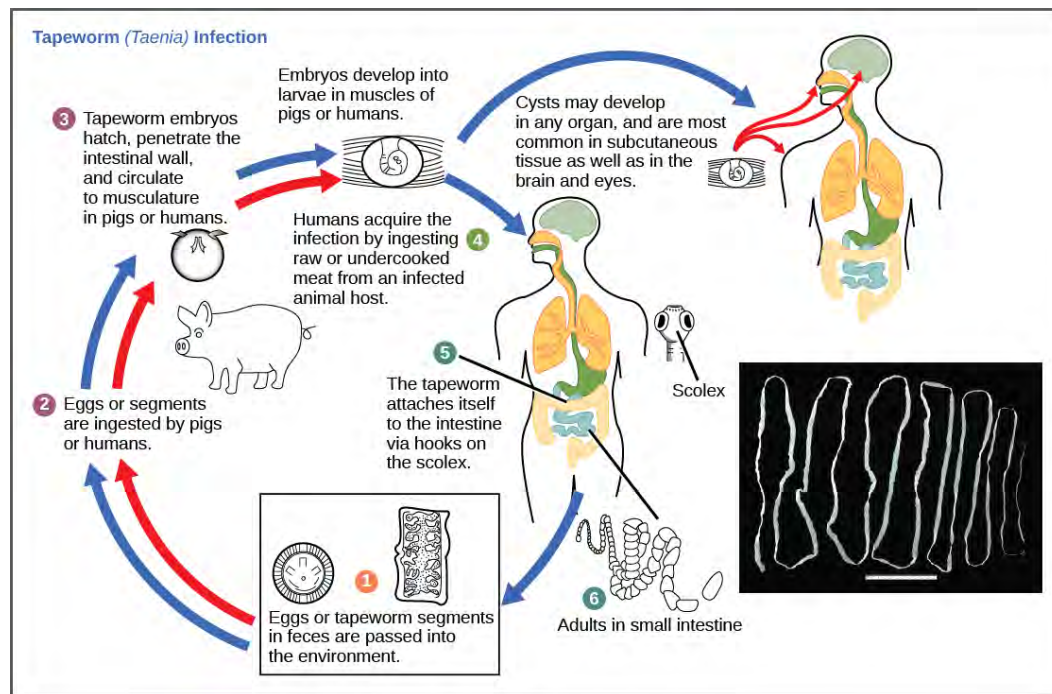


Figure 45.27 This diagram shows the life cycle of a pork tapeworm (*Taenia solium*), a human worm parasite. (credit: modification of work by CDC)

Characteristics of Communities

Communities are complex entities that can be characterized by their structure (the types and numbers of species present) and dynamics (how communities change over time). Understanding community structure and dynamics enables community ecologists to manage ecosystems more effectively.

Foundation Species

Foundation species are considered the “base” or “bedrock” of a community, having the greatest influence on its overall structure. They are usually the primary producers: organisms that bring most of the energy into the community. Kelp, brown algae, is a foundation species, forming the basis of the kelp forests off the coast of California.

Foundation species may physically modify the environment to produce and maintain habitats that benefit the other organisms that use them. An example is the photosynthetic corals of the coral reef (**Figure 45.28**). Corals themselves are not photosynthetic, but harbor symbionts within their body tissues (dinoflagellates called zooxanthellae) that perform photosynthesis; this is another example of a mutualism. The exoskeletons of living and dead coral make up most of the reef structure, which protects many other species from waves and ocean currents.



Figure 45.28 Coral is the foundation species of coral reef ecosystems. (credit: Jim E. Maragos, USFWS)

Biodiversity, Species Richness, and Relative Species Abundance

Biodiversity describes a community's biological complexity: it is measured by the number of different species (species richness) in a particular area and their relative abundance (species evenness). The area in question could be a habitat, a biome, or the entire biosphere. **Species richness** is the term that is used to describe the number of species living in a habitat or biome. Species richness varies across the globe (**Figure 45.29**). One factor in determining species richness is latitude, with the greatest species richness occurring in ecosystems near the equator, which often have warmer temperatures, large amounts of rainfall, and low seasonality. The lowest species richness occurs near the poles, which are much colder, drier, and thus less conducive to life in Geologic time (time since glaciations). The predictability of climate or productivity is also an important factor. Other factors influence species richness as well. For example, the study of **island biogeography** attempts to explain the relatively high species richness found in certain isolated island chains, including the Galápagos Islands that inspired the young Darwin. **Relative species abundance** is the number of individuals in a species relative to the total number of individuals in all species within a habitat, ecosystem, or biome. Foundation species often have the highest relative abundance of species.

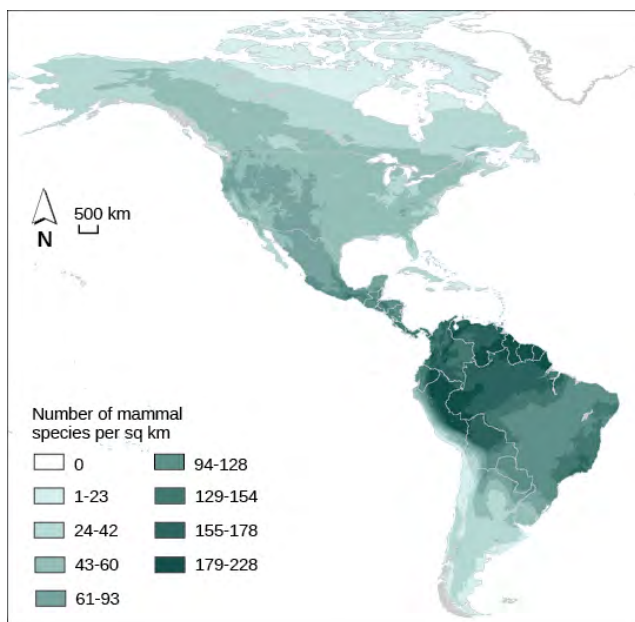


Figure 45.29 The greatest species richness for mammals in North and South America is associated with the equatorial latitudes. (credit: modification of work by NASA, CIESIN, Columbia University)

Keystone Species

A **keystone species** is one whose presence is key to maintaining biodiversity within an ecosystem and to upholding an ecological community's structure. The intertidal sea star, *Pisaster ochraceus*, of the northwestern United States is a keystone species (**Figure 45.30**). Studies have shown that when this organism is removed from communities, populations of their natural prey (mussels) increase, completely altering the species composition and reducing biodiversity. Another keystone species is the banded tetra,

a fish in tropical streams, which supplies nearly all of the phosphorus, a necessary inorganic nutrient, to the rest of the community. If these fish were to become extinct, the community would be greatly affected.



Figure 45.30 The *Pisaster ochraceus* sea star is a keystone species. (credit: Jerry Kirkhart)

everyday CONNECTION

Invasive Species

Invasive species are non-native organisms that, when introduced to an area out of their native range, threaten the ecosystem balance of that habitat. Many such species exist in the United States, as shown in **Figure 45.31**. Whether enjoying a forest hike, taking a summer boat trip, or simply walking down an urban street, you have likely encountered an invasive species.

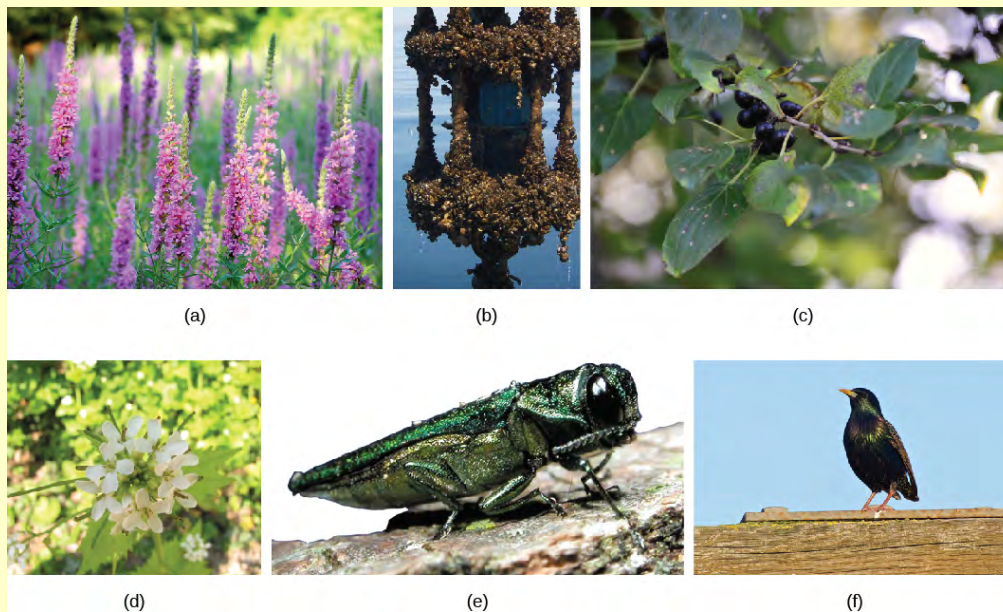


Figure 45.31 In the United States, invasive species like (a) purple loosestrife (*Lythrum salicaria*) and the (b) zebra mussel (*Dreissena polymorpha*) threaten certain aquatic ecosystems. Some forests are threatened by the spread of (c) common buckthorn (*Rhamnus cathartica*), (d) garlic mustard (*Alliaria petiolata*), and (e) the emerald ash borer (*Agilus planipennis*). The (f) European starling (*Sturnus vulgaris*) may compete with native bird species for nest holes. (credit a: modification of work by Liz West; credit b: modification of work by M. McCormick, NOAA; credit c: modification of work by E. Dronkert; credit d: modification of work by Dan Davison; credit e: modification of work by USDA; credit f: modification of work by Don DeBold)

One of the many recent proliferations of an invasive species concerns the growth of Asian carp populations. Asian carp were introduced to the United States in the 1970s by fisheries and sewage treatment facilities that used the fish's excellent filter feeding capabilities to clean their ponds of excess plankton. Some of the fish escaped, however, and by the 1980s they had colonized many waterways of the Mississippi River basin, including the Illinois and Missouri Rivers.

Voracious eaters and rapid reproducers, Asian carp may outcompete native species for food, potentially leading to their extinction. For example, black carp are voracious eaters of native mussels and snails, limiting this food source for native fish species. Silver carp eat plankton that native mussels and snails feed on, reducing this food source by a different alteration of the food web. In some areas of the Mississippi River, Asian carp species have become the most predominant, effectively outcompeting native fishes for habitat. In some parts of the Illinois River, Asian carp constitute 95 percent of the community's biomass. Although edible, the fish is bony and not a desired food in the United States. Moreover, their presence threatens the native fish and fisheries of the Great Lakes, which are important to local economies and recreational anglers. Asian carp have even injured humans. The fish, frightened by the sound of approaching motorboats, thrust themselves into the air, often landing in the boat or directly hitting the boaters.

The Great Lakes and their prized salmon and lake trout fisheries are also being threatened by these invasive fish. Asian carp have already colonized rivers and canals that lead into

Lake Michigan. One infested waterway of particular importance is the Chicago Sanitary and Ship Channel, the major supply waterway linking the Great Lakes to the Mississippi River. To prevent the Asian carp from leaving the canal, a series of electric barriers have been successfully used to discourage their migration; however, the threat is significant enough that several states and Canada have sued to have the Chicago channel permanently cut off from Lake Michigan. Local and national politicians have weighed in on how to solve the problem, but no one knows whether the Asian carp will ultimately be considered a nuisance, like other invasive species such as the water hyacinth and zebra mussel, or whether it will be the destroyer of the largest freshwater fishery of the world.

The issues associated with Asian carp show how population and community ecology, fisheries management, and politics intersect on issues of vital importance to the human food supply and economy. Socio-political issues like this make extensive use of the sciences of population ecology (the study of members of a particular species occupying a particular area known as a habitat) and community ecology (the study of the interaction of all species within a habitat).

Community Dynamics

Community dynamics are the changes in community structure and composition over time. Sometimes these changes are induced by **environmental disturbances** such as volcanoes, earthquakes, storms, fires, and climate change. Communities with a stable structure are said to be at equilibrium. Following a disturbance, the community may or may not return to the equilibrium state.

Succession describes the sequential appearance and disappearance of species in a community over time. In **primary succession**, newly exposed or newly formed land is colonized by living things; in **secondary succession**, part of an ecosystem is disturbed and remnants of the previous community remain.

Primary Succession and Pioneer Species

Primary succession occurs when new land is formed or rock is exposed: for example, following the eruption of volcanoes, such as those on the Big Island of Hawaii. As lava flows into the ocean, new land is continually being formed. On the Big Island, approximately 32 acres of land is added each year. First, weathering and other natural forces break down the substrate enough for the establishment of certain hearty plants and lichens with few soil requirements, known as **pioneer species** (Figure 45.32). These species help to further break down the mineral rich lava into soil where other, less hardy species will grow and eventually replace the pioneer species. In addition, as these early species grow and die, they add to an ever-growing layer of decomposing organic material and contribute to soil formation. Over time the area will reach an equilibrium state, with a set of organisms quite different from the pioneer species.



Figure 45.32 During primary succession in lava on Maui, Hawaii, succulent plants are the pioneer species. (credit: Forest and Kim Starr)

Secondary succession

A classic example of secondary succession occurs in oak and hickory forests cleared by wildfire (Figure 45.33). Wildfires will burn most vegetation and kill those animals unable to flee the area. Their nutrients, however, are returned to the ground in the form of ash. Thus, even when areas are devoid of life due to severe fires, the area will soon be ready for new life to take hold.

Before the fire, the vegetation was dominated by tall trees with access to the major plant energy resource: sunlight. Their height gave them access to sunlight while also shading the ground and other low-lying species. After the fire, though, these trees are no longer dominant. Thus, the first plants to grow back are usually annual plants followed within a few years by quickly growing and spreading grasses and other pioneer species. Due to, at least in part, changes in the environment brought on by the growth of the grasses and other species, over many years, shrubs will emerge along with small pine, oak, and hickory trees. These organisms are called intermediate species. Eventually, over 150 years, the forest will reach its equilibrium point where species composition is no longer changing and resembles the community before the fire. This equilibrium state is referred to as the **climax community**, which will remain stable until the next disturbance.

Secondary Succession of an Oak and Hickory Forest

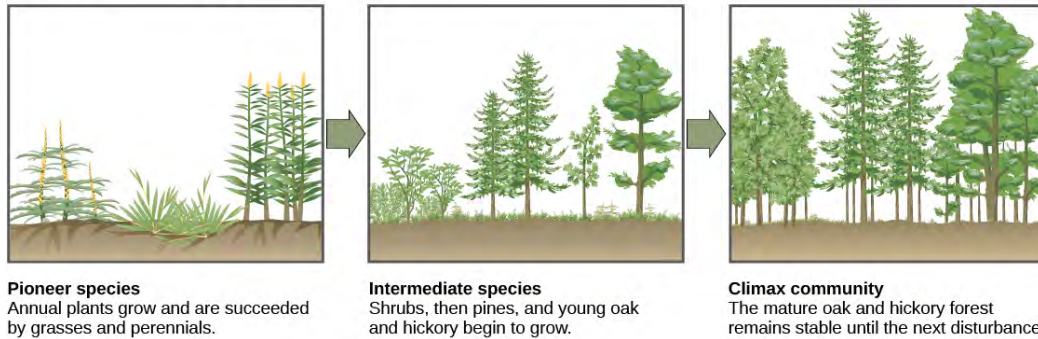


Figure 45.33 Secondary succession is shown in an oak and hickory forest after a forest fire.

45.7 | Behavioral Biology: Proximate and Ultimate Causes of Behavior

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Compare innate and learned behavior
- Discuss how movement and migration behaviors are a result of natural selection
- Discuss the different ways members of a population communicate with each other
- Give examples of how species use energy for mating displays and other courtship behaviors
- Differentiate between various mating systems
- Describe different ways that species learn

Behavior is the change in activity of an organism in response to a stimulus. **Behavioral biology** is the study of the biological and evolutionary bases for such changes. The idea that behaviors evolved as a result of the pressures of natural selection is not new. Animal behavior has been studied for decades, by biologists in the science of **ethology**, by psychologists in the science of comparative psychology, and by scientists of many disciplines in the study of neurobiology. Although there is overlap between these disciplines, scientists in these behavioral fields take different approaches. Comparative psychology is an extension of work done in human and behavioral psychology. Ethology is an extension of genetics, evolution, anatomy, physiology, and other biological disciplines. Still, one cannot study behavioral biology without touching on both comparative psychology and ethology.

One goal of behavioral biology is to dissect out the **innate behaviors**, which have a strong genetic component and are largely independent of environmental influences, from the **learned behaviors**, which result from environmental conditioning. Innate behavior, or instinct, is important because there is no risk of an incorrect behavior being learned. They are “hard wired” into the system. On the other hand, learned behaviors, although riskier, are flexible, dynamic, and can be altered according to changes in the environment.

Innate Behaviors: Movement and Migration

Innate or instinctual behaviors rely on response to stimuli. The simplest example of this is a **reflex action**, an involuntary and rapid response to stimulus. To test the “knee-jerk” reflex, a doctor taps the

patellar tendon below the kneecap with a rubber hammer. The stimulation of the nerves there leads to the reflex of extending the leg at the knee. This is similar to the reaction of someone who touches a hot stove and instinctually pulls his or her hand away. Even humans, with our great capacity to learn, still exhibit a variety of innate behaviors.

Kinesis and Taxis

Another activity or movement of innate behavior is **kinesis**, or the undirected movement in response to a stimulus. Orthokinesis is the increased or decreased speed of movement of an organism in response to a stimulus. Woodlice, for example, increase their speed of movement when exposed to high or low temperatures. This movement, although random, increases the probability that the insect spends less time in the unfavorable environment. Another example is klinokinesis, an increase in turning behaviors. It is exhibited by bacteria such as *E. coli* which, in association with orthokinesis, helps the organisms randomly find a more hospitable environment.

A similar, but more directed version of kinesis is **taxis**: the directed movement towards or away from a stimulus. This movement can be in response to light (phototaxis), chemical signals (chemotaxis), or gravity (geotaxis) and can be directed toward (positive) or away (negative) from the source of the stimulus. An example of a positive chemotaxis is exhibited by the unicellular protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila*. This organism swims using its cilia, at times moving in a straight line, and at other times making turns. The attracting chemotactic agent alters the frequency of turning as the organism moves directly toward the source, following the increasing concentration gradient.

Fixed Action Patterns

A **fixed action pattern** is a series of movements elicited by a stimulus such that even when the stimulus is removed, the pattern goes on to completion. An example of such a behavior occurs in the three-spined stickleback, a small freshwater fish (Figure 45.34). Males of this species develop a red belly during breeding season and show instinctual aggressiveness to other males during this time. In laboratory experiments, researchers exposed such fish to objects that in no way resemble a fish in their shape, but which were painted red on their lower halves. The male sticklebacks responded aggressively to the objects just as if they were real male sticklebacks.

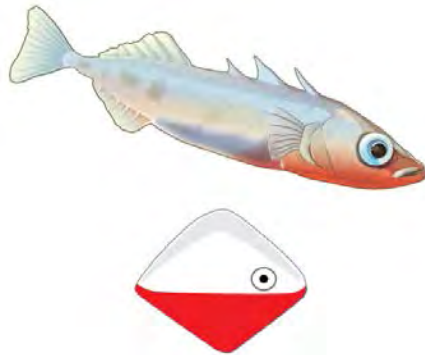


Figure 45.34 Male three-spined stickleback fish exhibit a fixed action pattern. During mating season, the males, which develop a bright red belly, react strongly to red-bottomed objects that in no way resemble fish.

Migration

Migration is the long-range seasonal movement of animals. It is an evolved, adapted response to variation in resource availability, and it is a common phenomenon found in all major groups of animals. Birds fly south for the winter to get to warmer climates with sufficient food, and salmon migrate to their spawning grounds. The popular 2005 documentary *March of the Penguins* followed the 62-mile migration of emperor penguins through Antarctica to bring food back to their breeding site and to their young. Wildebeests (Figure 45.35) migrate over 1800 miles each year in search of new grasslands.



Figure 45.35 Wildebeests migrate in a clockwise fashion over 1800 miles each year in search of rain-ripened grass. (credit: Eric Inafuku)

Although migration is thought of as innate behavior, only some migrating species always migrate (obligate migration). Animals that exhibit facultative migration can choose to migrate or not. Additionally, in some animals, only a portion of the population migrates, whereas the rest does not migrate (incomplete migration). For example, owls that live in the tundra may migrate in years when their food source, small rodents, is relatively scarce, but not migrate during the years when rodents are plentiful.

Foraging

Foraging is the act of searching for and exploiting food resources. Feeding behaviors that maximize energy gain and minimize energy expenditure are called optimal foraging behaviors, and these are favored by natural selection. The painted stork, for example, uses its long beak to search the bottom of a freshwater marshland for crabs and other food (**Figure 45.36**).



Figure 45.36 The painted stork uses its long beak to forage. (credit: J.M. Garg)

Innate Behaviors: Living in Groups

Not all animals live in groups, but even those that live relatively solitary lives, with the exception of those that can reproduce asexually, must mate. Mating usually involves one animal signaling another so as to communicate the desire to mate. There are several types of energy-intensive behaviors or displays associated with mating, called mating rituals. Other behaviors found in populations that live in groups are described in terms of which animal benefits from the behavior. In selfish behavior, only the animal in question benefits; in altruistic behavior, one animal's actions benefit another animal; cooperative behavior describes when both animals benefit. All of these behaviors involve some sort of communication between population members.

Communication within a Species

Animals communicate with each other using stimuli known as **signals**. An example of this is seen in the three-spined stickleback, where the visual signal of a red region in the lower half of a fish signals males to become aggressive and signals females to mate. Other signals are chemical (pheromones), aural (sound), visual (courtship and aggressive displays), or tactile (touch). These types of communication may be instinctual or learned or a combination of both. These are not the same as the communication we associate with language, which has been observed only in humans and perhaps in some species of primates and cetaceans.

A pheromone is a secreted chemical signal used to obtain a response from another individual of the same species. The purpose of pheromones is to elicit a specific behavior from the receiving individual. Pheromones are especially common among social insects, but they are used by many species to attract the opposite sex, to sound alarms, to mark food trails, and to elicit other, more complex behaviors. Even humans are thought to respond to certain pheromones called axillary steroids. These chemicals influence human perception of other people, and in one study were responsible for a group of women synchronizing their menstrual cycles. The role of pheromones in human-to-human communication is still somewhat controversial and continues to be researched.

Songs are an example of an aural signal, one that needs to be heard by the recipient. Perhaps the best known of these are songs of birds, which identify the species and are used to attract mates. Other well-known songs are those of whales, which are of such low frequency that they can travel long distances underwater. Dolphins communicate with each other using a wide variety of vocalizations. Male crickets make chirping sounds using a specialized organ to attract a mate, repel other males, and to announce a successful mating.

Courtship displays are a series of ritualized visual behaviors (signals) designed to attract and convince a member of the opposite sex to mate. These displays are ubiquitous in the animal kingdom. Often these displays involve a series of steps, including an initial display by one member followed by a response from the other. If at any point, the display is performed incorrectly or a proper response is not given, the mating ritual is abandoned and the mating attempt will be unsuccessful. The mating display of the common stork is shown in **Figure 45.37**.

Aggressive displays are also common in the animal kingdom. An example is when a dog bares its teeth when it wants another dog to back down. Presumably, these displays communicate not only the willingness of the animal to fight, but also its fighting ability. Although these displays do signal aggression on the part of the sender, it is thought that these displays are actually a mechanism to reduce the amount of actual fighting that occurs between members of the same species: they allow individuals to assess the fighting ability of their opponent and thus decide whether it is “worth the fight.” The testing of certain hypotheses using game theory has led to the conclusion that some of these displays may overstate an animal’s actual fighting ability and are used to “bluff” the opponent. This type of interaction, even if “dishonest,” would be favored by natural selection if it is successful more times than not.



Figure 45.37 This stork’s courtship display is designed to attract potential mates. (credit: Linda “jinterwas”/Flickr)

Distraction displays are seen in birds and some fish. They are designed to attract a predator away from the nest that contains their young. This is an example of an altruistic behavior: it benefits the young more than the individual performing the display, which is putting itself at risk by doing so.

Many animals, especially primates, communicate with other members in the group through touch. Activities such as grooming, touching the shoulder or root of the tail, embracing, lip contact, and greeting ceremonies have all been observed in the Indian langur, an Old World monkey. Similar behaviors are found in other primates, especially in the great apes.



The killdeer bird distracts predators from its eggs by faking a broken wing display in this [video](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/killdeer_bird) (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/killdeer_bird) taken in Boise, Idaho.

Altruistic Behaviors

Behaviors that lower the fitness of the individual but increase the fitness of another individual are termed altruistic. Examples of such behaviors are seen widely across the animal kingdom. Social insects such as worker bees have no ability to reproduce, yet they maintain the queen so she can populate the hive with her offspring. Meerkats keep a sentry standing guard to warn the rest of the colony about intruders, even though the sentry is putting itself at risk. Wolves and wild dogs bring meat to pack members not present during a hunt. Lemurs take care of infants unrelated to them. Although on the surface, these behaviors appear to be altruistic, it may not be so simple.

There has been much discussion over why altruistic behaviors exist. Do these behaviors lead to overall evolutionary advantages for their species? Do they help the altruistic individual pass on its own genes? And what about such activities between unrelated individuals? One explanation for altruistic-type behaviors is found in the genetics of natural selection. In the 1976 book, *The Selfish Gene*, scientist Richard Dawkins attempted to explain many seemingly altruistic behaviors from the viewpoint of the gene itself. Although a gene obviously cannot be selfish in the human sense, it may appear that way if the sacrifice of an individual benefits related individuals that share genes that are identical by descent (present in relatives because of common lineage). Mammal parents make this sacrifice to take care of their offspring. Emperor penguins migrate miles in harsh conditions to bring food back for their young. Selfish gene theory has been controversial over the years and is still discussed among scientists in related fields.

Even less-related individuals, those with less genetic identity than that shared by parent and offspring, benefit from seemingly altruistic behavior. The activities of social insects such as bees, wasps, ants, and termites are good examples. Sterile workers in these societies take care of the queen because they are closely related to it, and as the queen has offspring, she is passing on genes from the workers indirectly. Thus, it is of fitness benefit for the worker to maintain the queen without having any direct chance of passing on its genes due to its sterility. The lowering of individual fitness to enhance the reproductive fitness of a relative and thus one's inclusive fitness evolves through **kin selection**. This phenomenon can explain many superficially altruistic behaviors seen in animals. However, these behaviors may not be truly defined as altruism in these cases because the actor is actually increasing its own fitness either directly (through its own offspring) or indirectly (through the inclusive fitness it gains through relatives that share genes with it).

Unrelated individuals may also act altruistically to each other, and this seems to defy the “selfish gene” explanation. An example of this observed in many monkey species where a monkey will present its back to an unrelated monkey to have that individual pick the parasites from its fur. After a certain amount of time, the roles are reversed and the first monkey now grooms the second monkey. Thus, there is reciprocity in the behavior. Both benefit from the interaction and their fitness is raised more than if neither cooperated nor if one cooperated and the other did not cooperate. This behavior is still not necessarily altruism, as the “giving” behavior of the actor is based on the expectation that it will be the “receiver” of the behavior in the future, termed reciprocal altruism. Reciprocal altruism requires that individuals repeatedly encounter each other, often the result of living in the same social group, and that cheaters (those that never “give back”) are punished.

Evolutionary game theory, a modification of classical game theory in mathematics, has shown that many of these so-called “altruistic behaviors” are not altruistic at all. The definition of “pure” altruism, based on human behavior, is an action that benefits another without any direct benefit to oneself. Most of the behaviors previously described do not seem to satisfy this definition, and game theorists are good at finding “selfish” components in them. Others have argued that the terms “selfish” and “altruistic” should be dropped completely when discussing animal behavior, as they describe human behavior and may not be directly applicable to instinctual animal activity. What is clear, though, is that heritable behaviors that improve the chances of passing on one's genes or a portion of one's genes are favored by natural selection

and will be retained in future generations as long as those behaviors convey a fitness advantage. These instinctual behaviors may then be applied, in special circumstances, to other species, as long as it doesn't lower the animal's fitness.

Finding Sex Partners

Not all animals reproduce sexually, but many that do have the same challenge: they need to find a suitable mate and often have to compete with other individuals to obtain one. Significant energy is spent in the process of locating, attracting, and mating with the sex partner. Two types of selection occur during this process and can lead to traits that are important to reproduction called secondary sexual characteristics: **intersexual selection**, the choosing of a mate where individuals of one sex choose mates of the other sex, and **intrasexual selection**, the competition for mates between species members of the same sex. Intrasexual selection is often complex because choosing a mate may be based on a variety of visual, aural, tactile, and chemical cues. An example of intersexual selection is when female peacocks choose to mate with the male with the brightest plumage. This type of selection often leads to traits in the chosen sex that do not enhance survival, but are those traits most attractive to the opposite sex (often at the expense of survival). Intrasexual selection involves mating displays and aggressive mating rituals such as rams butting heads—the winner of these battles is the one that is able to mate. Many of these rituals use up considerable energy but result in the selection of the healthiest, strongest, and/or most dominant individuals for mating. Three general mating systems, all involving innate as opposed to learned behaviors, are seen in animal populations: monogamous, polygynous, and polyandrous.



Visit this **website** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/sex_selection) for informative videos on sexual selection.

In **monogamous** systems, one male and one female are paired for at least one breeding season. In some animals, such as the gray wolf, these associations can last much longer, even a lifetime. Several explanations have been proposed for this type of mating system. The “mate-guarding hypothesis” states that males stay with the female to prevent other males from mating with her. This behavior is advantageous in such situations where mates are scarce and difficult to find. Another explanation is the “male-assistance hypothesis,” where males that remain with a female to help guard and rear their young will have more and healthier offspring. Monogamy is observed in many bird populations where, in addition to the parental care from the female, the male is also a major provider of parental care for the chicks. A third explanation for the evolutionary advantages of monogamy is the “female-enforcement hypothesis.” In this scenario, the female ensures that the male does not have other offspring that might compete with her own, so she actively interferes with the male's signaling to attract other mates.

Polygynous mating refers to one male mating with multiple females. In these situations, the female must be responsible for most of the parental care as the single male is not capable of providing care to that many offspring. In resource-based polygyny, males compete for territories with the best resources, and then mate with females that enter the territory, drawn to its resource richness. The female benefits by mating with a dominant, genetically fit male; however, it is at the cost of having no male help in caring for the offspring. An example is seen in the yellow-rumped honeyguide, a bird whose males defend beehives because the females feed on their wax. As the females approach, the male defending the nest will mate with them. Harem mating structures are a type of polygynous system where certain males dominate mating while controlling a territory with resources. Elephant seals, where the alpha male dominates the mating within the group are an example. A third type of polygyny is a lek system. Here there is a communal courting area where several males perform elaborate displays for females, and the females choose their mate from this group. This behavior is observed in several bird species including the sage grouse and the prairie chicken.

In **polyandrous** mating systems, one female mates with many males. These types of systems are much rarer than monogamous and polygynous mating systems. In pipefishes and seahorses, males receive the eggs from the female, fertilize them, protect them within a pouch, and give birth to the offspring (**Figure**

45.38). Therefore, the female is able to provide eggs to several males without the burden of carrying the fertilized eggs.



Figure 45.38 Polyandrous mating, in which one female mates with many males, occurs in the (a) seahorse and the (b) pipefish. (credit a: modification of work by Brian Gratwicke; credit b: modification of work by Stephen Childs)

Simple Learned Behaviors

The majority of the behaviors previously discussed were innate or at least have an innate component (variations on the innate behaviors may be learned). They are inherited and the behaviors do not change in response to signals from the environment. Conversely, learned behaviors, even though they may have instinctive components, allow an organism to adapt to changes in the environment and are modified by previous experiences. Simple learned behaviors include habituation and imprinting—both are important to the maturation process of young animals.

Habituation

Habituation is a simple form of learning in which an animal stops responding to a stimulus after a period of repeated exposure. This is a form of non-associative learning, as the stimulus is not associated with any punishment or reward. Prairie dogs typically sound an alarm call when threatened by a predator, but they become habituated to the sound of human footsteps when no harm is associated with this sound, therefore, they no longer respond to them with an alarm call. In this example, habituation is specific to the sound of human footsteps, as the animals still respond to the sounds of potential predators.

Imprinting

Imprinting is a type of learning that occurs at a particular age or a life stage that is rapid and independent of the species involved. Hatchling ducks recognize the first adult they see, their mother, and make a bond with her. A familiar sight is ducklings walking or swimming after their mothers (**Figure 45.39**). This is another type of non-associative learning, but is very important in the maturation process of these animals as it encourages them to stay near their mother so they will be protected, greatly increasing their chances of survival. However, if newborn ducks see a human before they see their mother, they will imprint on the human and follow it in just the same manner as they would follow their real mother.



Figure 45.39 The attachment of ducklings to their mother is an example of imprinting. (credit: modification of work by Mark Harkin)



The International Crane Foundation has helped raise the world's population of whooping cranes from 21 individuals to about 600. Imprinting hatchlings has been a key to success: biologists wear full crane costumes so the birds never “see” humans. Watch this [video \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/whooping_crane\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/whooping_crane) to learn more.

Conditioned Behavior

Conditioned behaviors are types of associative learning, where a stimulus becomes associated with a consequence. During operant conditioning, the behavioral response is modified by its consequences, with regards to its form, strength, or frequency.

Classical Conditioning

In **classical conditioning**, a response called the conditioned response is associated with a stimulus that it had previously not been associated with, the conditioned stimulus. The response to the original, unconditioned stimulus is called the unconditioned response. The most cited example of classical conditioning is Ivan Pavlov's experiments with dogs (**Figure 45.40**). In Pavlov's experiments, the unconditioned response was the salivation of dogs in response to the unconditioned stimulus of seeing or smelling their food. The conditioning stimulus that researchers associated with the unconditioned response was the ringing of a bell. During conditioning, every time the animal was given food, the bell was rung. This was repeated during several trials. After some time, the dog learned to associate the ringing of the bell with food and to respond by salivating. After the conditioning period was finished, the dog would respond by salivating when the bell was rung, even when the unconditioned stimulus, the food, was absent. Thus, the ringing of the bell became the conditioned stimulus and the salivation became the conditioned response. Although it is thought by some scientists that the unconditioned and conditioned responses are identical, even Pavlov discovered that the saliva in the conditioned dogs had characteristic differences when compared to the unconditioned dog.

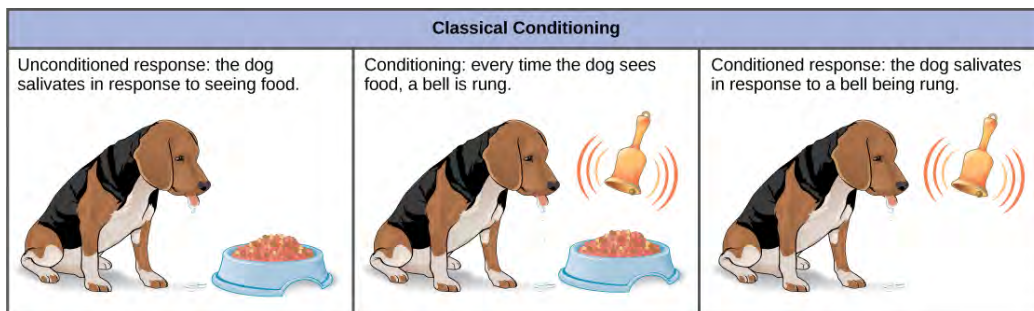


Figure 45.40 In the classic Pavlovian response, the dog becomes conditioned to associate the ringing of the bell with food.

It had been thought by some scientists that this type of conditioning required multiple exposures to the paired stimulus and response, but it is now known that this is not necessary in all cases, and that some conditioning can be learned in a single pairing experiment. Classical conditioning is a major tenet of behaviorism, a branch of psychological philosophy that proposes that all actions, thoughts, and emotions of living things are behaviors that can be treated by behavior modification and changes in the environment.

Operant Conditioning

In **operant conditioning**, the conditioned behavior is gradually modified by its consequences as the animal responds to the stimulus. A major proponent of such conditioning was psychologist B.F. Skinner, the inventor of the Skinner box. Skinner put rats in his boxes that contained a lever that would dispense food to the rat when depressed. While initially the rat would push the lever a few times by accident, it eventually associated pushing the lever with getting the food. This type of learning is an example of

operant conditioning. Operant learning is the basis of most animal training. The conditioned behavior is continually modified by positive or negative reinforcement, often a reward such as food or some type of punishment, respectively. In this way, the animal is conditioned to associate a type of behavior with the punishment or reward, and, over time, can be induced to perform behaviors that they would not have done in the wild, such as the “tricks” dolphins perform at marine amusement park shows (**Figure 45.41**).



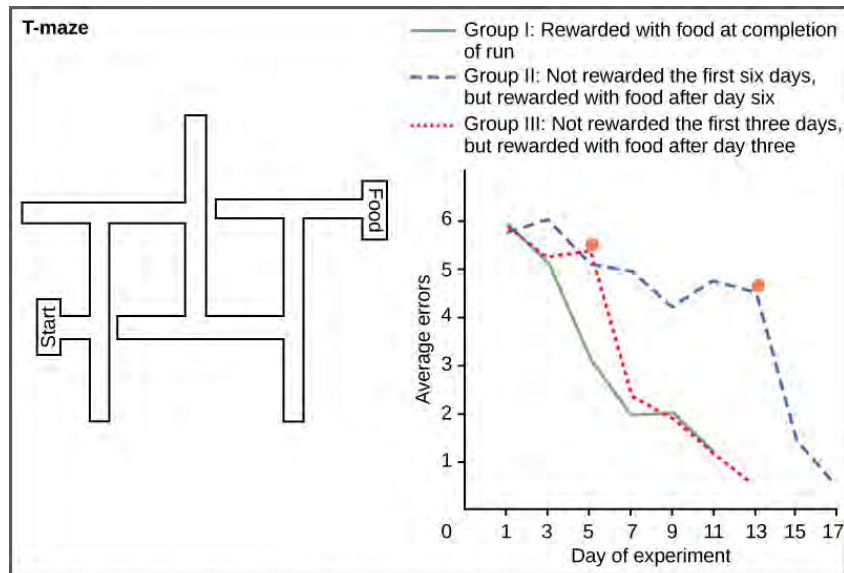
Figure 45.41 The training of dolphins by rewarding them with food is an example of positive reinforcement operant conditioning. (credit: Roland Tanglao)

Cognitive Learning

Classical and operant conditioning are inefficient ways for humans and other intelligent animals to learn. Some primates, including humans, are able to learn by imitating the behavior of others and by taking instructions. The development of complex language by humans has made **cognitive learning**, the manipulation of information using the mind, the most prominent method of human learning. In fact, that is how students are learning right now by reading this book. As students read, they can make mental images of objects or organisms and imagine changes to them, or behaviors by them, and anticipate the consequences. In addition to visual processing, cognitive learning is also enhanced by remembering past experiences, touching physical objects, hearing sounds, tasting food, and a variety of other sensory-based inputs. Cognitive learning is so powerful that it can be used to understand conditioning in detail. In the reverse scenario, conditioning cannot help someone learn about cognition.

Classic work on cognitive learning was done by Wolfgang Köhler with chimpanzees. He demonstrated that these animals were capable of abstract thought by showing that they could learn how to solve a puzzle. When a banana was hung in their cage too high for them to reach, and several boxes were placed randomly on the floor, some of the chimps were able to stack the boxes one on top of the other, climb on top of them, and get the banana. This implies that they could visualize the result of stacking the boxes even before they had performed the action. This type of learning is much more powerful and versatile than conditioning.

Cognitive learning is not limited to primates, although they are the most efficient in using it. Maze running experiments done with rats by H.C. Blodgett in the 1920s were the first to show cognitive skills in a simple mammal. The motivation for the animals to work their way through the maze was a piece of food at its end. In these studies, the animals in Group I were run in one trial per day and had food available to them each day on completion of the run (**Figure 45.42**). Group II rats were not fed in the maze for the first six days and then subsequent runs were done with food for several days after. Group III rats had food available on the third day and every day thereafter. The results were that the control rats, Group I, learned quickly, and figured out how to run the maze in seven days. Group III did not learn much during the three days without food, but rapidly caught up to the control group when given the food reward. Group II learned very slowly for the six days with no reward to motivate them, and they did not begin to catch up to the control group until the day food was given, and then it took two days longer to learn the maze.



Redrawn after H. C. Blodgett, The effect of the introduction of reward upon the maze performance of rats. Univ. Calif. Publ. Psychol., 1929, 4, No. 8, pages 117 and 120.

Figure 45.42 Group I (the green solid line) found food at the end of each trial, group II (the blue dashed line) did not find food for the first 6 days, and group III (the red dotted line) did not find food during runs on the first three days. Notice that rats given food earlier learned faster and eventually caught up to the control group. The orange dots on the group II and III lines show the days when food rewards were added to the mazes.

It may not be immediately obvious that this type of learning is different than conditioning. Although one might be tempted to believe that the rats simply learned how to find their way through a conditioned series of right and left turns, E.C. Tolman proved a decade later that the rats were making a representation of the maze in their minds, which he called a “cognitive map.” This was an early demonstration of the power of cognitive learning and how these abilities were not just limited to humans.

Sociobiology

Sociobiology is an interdisciplinary science originally popularized by social insect researcher E.O. Wilson in the 1970s. Wilson defined the science as “the extension of population biology and evolutionary theory to social organization.”^[9] The main thrust of sociobiology is that animal and human behavior, including aggressiveness and other social interactions, can be explained almost solely in terms of genetics and natural selection. This science is controversial; noted scientist such as the late Stephen Jay Gould criticized the approach for ignoring the environmental effects on behavior. This is another example of the “nature versus nurture” debate of the role of genetics versus the role of environment in determining an organism’s characteristics.

Sociobiology also links genes with behaviors and has been associated with “biological determinism,” the belief that all behaviors are hardwired into our genes. No one disputes that certain behaviors can be inherited and that natural selection plays a role retaining them. It is the application of such principles to human behavior that sparks this controversy, which remains active today.

9. Edward O. Wilson. *On Human Nature* (1978; repr., Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2004), xx.

KEY TERMS

- age structure** proportion of population members at specific age ranges
- aggressive display** visual display by a species member to discourage other members of the same species or different species
- aposematic coloration** warning coloration used as a defensive mechanism against predation
- Batesian mimicry** type of mimicry where a non-harmful species takes on the warning colorations of a harmful one
- behavior** change in an organism's activities in response to a stimulus
- behavioral biology** study of the biology and evolution of behavior
- biotic potential (r_{\max})** maximal potential growth rate of a species
- birth rate (B)** number of births within a population at a specific point in time
- camouflage** avoid detection by blending in with the background.
- carrying capacity (K)** number of individuals of a species that can be supported by the limited resources of a habitat
- classical conditioning** association of a specific stimulus and response through conditioning
- climax community** final stage of succession, where a stable community is formed by a characteristic assortment of plant and animal species
- cognitive learning** knowledge and skills acquired by the manipulation of information in the mind
- commensalism** relationship between species wherein one species benefits from the close, prolonged interaction, while the other species neither benefits nor is harmed
- competitive exclusion principle** no two species within a habitat can coexist when they compete for the same resources at the same place and time
- conditioned behavior** behavior that becomes associated with a specific stimulus through conditioning
- courtship display** visual display used to attract a mate
- death rate (D)** number of deaths within a population at a specific point in time
- demographic-based population model** modern model of population dynamics incorporating many features of the r - and K -selection theory
- demography** statistical study of changes in populations over time
- density-dependent regulation** regulation of population that is influenced by population density, such as crowding effects; usually involves biotic factors
- density-independent regulation** regulation of populations by factors that operate independent of population density, such as forest fires and volcanic eruptions; usually involves abiotic factors
- distraction display** visual display used to distract predators away from a nesting site
- Emsleyan/Mertensian mimicry** type of mimicry where a harmful species resembles a less harmful one
- energy budget** allocation of energy resources for body maintenance, reproduction, and parental care
- environmental disturbance** change in the environment caused by natural disasters or human activities

- ethology** biological study of animal behavior
- exponential growth** accelerating growth pattern seen in species under conditions where resources are not limiting
- fecundity** potential reproductive capacity of an individual
- fixed action pattern** series of instinctual behaviors that, once initiated, always goes to completion regardless of changes in the environment
- foraging** behaviors species use to find food
- foundation species** species which often forms the major structural portion of the habitat
- habituation** ability of a species to ignore repeated stimuli that have no consequence
- host** organism a parasite lives on
- imprinting** identification of parents by newborns as the first organism they see after birth
- innate behavior** instinctual behavior that is not altered by changes in the environment
- intersexual selection** selection of a desirable mate of the opposite sex
- interspecific competition** competition between species for resources in a shared habitat or environment
- intrasexual selection** competition between members of the same sex for a mate
- intraspecific competition** competition between members of the same species
- island biogeography** study of life on island chains and how their geography interacts with the diversity of species found there
- iteroparity** life history strategy characterized by multiple reproductive events during the lifetime of a species
- J-shaped growth curve** shape of an exponential growth curve
- K-selected species** species suited to stable environments that produce a few, relatively large offspring and provide parental care
- keystone species** species whose presence is key to maintaining biodiversity in an ecosystem and to upholding an ecological community's structure
- kin selection** sacrificing one's own life so that one's genes will be passed on to future generations by relatives
- kinesis** undirected movement of an organism in response to a stimulus
- learned behavior** behavior that responds to changes in the environment
- life history** inherited pattern of resource allocation under the influence of natural selection and other evolutionary forces
- life table** table showing the life expectancy of a population member based on its age
- logistic growth** leveling off of exponential growth due to limiting resources
- mark and recapture** technique used to determine population size in mobile organisms
- migration** long-range seasonal movement of animal species
- monogamy** mating system whereby one male and one female remain coupled for at least one mating season

- mortality rate** proportion of population surviving to the beginning of an age interval that die during the age interval
- mutualism** symbiotic relationship between two species where both species benefit
- Müllerian mimicry** type of mimicry where species share warning coloration and all are harmful to predators
- one-child policy** China's policy to limit population growth by limiting urban couples to have only one child or face the penalty of a fine
- operant conditioning** learned behaviors in response to positive and/or negative reinforcement
- parasite** organism that uses resources from another species, the host
- pioneer species** first species to appear in primary and secondary succession
- polyandry** mating system where one female mates with many males
- polygyny** mating system where one male mates with many females
- population density** number of population members divided by the area or volume being measured
- population growth rate** number of organisms added in each reproductive generation
- population size (N)** number of population members in a habitat at the same time
- primary succession** succession on land that previously has had no life
- quadrat** square made of various materials used to determine population size and density in slow moving or stationary organisms
- r -selected species** species suited to changing environments that produce many offspring and provide little or no parental care
- reflex action** action in response to direct physical stimulation of a nerve
- relative species abundance** absolute population size of a particular species relative to the population sizes of other species within the community
- S-shaped growth curve** shape of a logistic growth curve
- secondary succession** succession in response to environmental disturbances that move a community away from its equilibrium
- semelparity** life history strategy characterized by a single reproductive event followed by death
- signal** method of communication between animals including those obtained by the senses of smell, hearing, sight, or touch
- species dispersion pattern** (also, species distribution pattern) spatial location of individuals of a given species within a habitat at a particular point in time
- species richness** number of different species in a community
- survivorship curve** graph of the number of surviving population members versus the relative age of the member
- symbiosis** close interaction between individuals of different species over an extended period of time that impacts the abundance and distribution of the associating populations
- taxis** directed movement in response to a stimulus
- zero population growth** steady population size where birth rates and death rates are equal

CHAPTER SUMMARY

45.1 Population Demography

Populations are individuals of a species that live in a particular habitat. Ecologists measure characteristics of populations: size, density, dispersion pattern, age structure, and sex ratio. Life tables are useful to calculate life expectancies of individual population members. Survivorship curves show the number of individuals surviving at each age interval plotted versus time.

45.2 Life Histories and Natural Selection

All species have evolved a pattern of living, called a life history strategy, in which they partition energy for growth, maintenance, and reproduction. These patterns evolve through natural selection; they allow species to adapt to their environment to obtain the resources they need to successfully reproduce. There is an inverse relationship between fecundity and parental care. A species may reproduce early in life to ensure surviving to a reproductive age or reproduce later in life to become larger and healthier and better able to give parental care. A species may reproduce once (semelparity) or many times (iteroparity) in its life.

45.3 Environmental Limits to Population Growth

Populations with unlimited resources grow exponentially, with an accelerating growth rate. When resources become limiting, populations follow a logistic growth curve. The population of a species will level off at the carrying capacity of its environment.

45.4 Population Dynamics and Regulation

Populations are regulated by a variety of density-dependent and density-independent factors. Species are divided into two categories based on a variety of features of their life history patterns: *r*-selected species, which have large numbers of offspring, and *K*-selected species, which have few offspring. The *r*- and *K*-selection theory has fallen out of use; however, many of its key features are still used in newer, demographically-based models of population dynamics.

45.5 Human Population Growth

The world's human population is growing at an exponential rate. Humans have increased the world's carrying capacity through migration, agriculture, medical advances, and communication. The age structure of a population allows us to predict population growth. Unchecked human population growth could have dire long-term effects on our environment.

45.6 Community Ecology

Communities include all the different species living in a given area. The variety of these species is called species richness. Many organisms have developed defenses against predation and herbivory, including mechanical defenses, warning coloration, and mimicry, as a result of evolution and the interaction with other members of the community. Two species cannot exist in the same habitat competing directly for the same resources. Species may form symbiotic relationships such as commensalism or mutualism. Community structure is described by its foundation and keystone species. Communities respond to environmental disturbances by succession (the predictable appearance of different types of plant species) until a stable community structure is established.

45.7 Behavioral Biology: Proximate and Ultimate Causes of Behavior

Behaviors are responses to stimuli. They can either be instinctual/innate behaviors, which are not influenced by the environment, or learned behaviors, which are influenced by environmental changes. Instinctual behaviors include mating systems and methods of communication. Learned behaviors include imprinting and habituation, conditioning, and, most powerfully, cognitive learning. Although the connection between behavior, genetics, and evolution is well established, the explanation of human behavior as entirely genetic is controversial.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 45.2** As this graph shows, population density typically decreases with increasing body size. Why do you think this is the case?
- Figure 45.10b** If the major food source of the seals declines due to pollution or overfishing, which of the following would likely occur?
 - The carrying capacity of seals would decrease, as would the seal population.
 - The carrying capacity of seals would decrease, but the seal population would remain the same.
 - The number of seal deaths would increase but the number of births would also increase, so the population size would remain the same.
 - The carrying capacity of seals would remain the same, but the population of seals would decrease.
- Figure 45.16** Age structure diagrams for rapidly growing, slow growing and stable populations are shown in stages 1 through 3. What type of population change do you think stage 4 represents?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Which of the following methods will tell an ecologist about both the size and density of a population?
 - mark and recapture
 - mark and release
 - quadrat
 - life table
- Which of the following is best at showing the life expectancy of an individual within a population?
 - quadrat
 - mark and recapture
 - survivorship curve
 - life table
- Humans have which type of survivorship curve?
 - Type I
 - Type II
 - Type III
 - Type IV
- Which of the following is associated with long-term parental care?
 - few offspring
 - many offspring
 - semelparity
 - fecundity
- Which of the following is associated with multiple reproductive episodes during a species' lifetime?
 - semiparity
 - iteroparity
 - semelparity
 - fecundity
- Which of the following is associated with the reproductive potential of a species?
 - few offspring
 - many offspring
 - semelparity
 - fecundity
- Species with limited resources usually exhibit a(n) _____ growth curve.
 - logistic
 - logical
 - experimental
 - exponential
- The maximum rate of increased characteristic of a species is called its _____.
 - limit
 - carrying capacity
 - biotic potential
 - exponential growth pattern
- The population size of a species capable of being supported by the environment is called its _____.
 - limit
 - carrying capacity
 - biotic potential
 - logistic growth pattern
- Species that have many offspring at one time are usually:
 - r*-selected
 - K*-selected
 - both *r*- and *K*-selected
 - not selected
- A forest fire is an example of _____ regulation.
 - density-dependent
 - density-independent
 - r*-selected
 - K*-selected
- Primates are examples of:
 - density-dependent species
 - density-independent species
 - r*-selected species
 - K*-selected species
- A country with zero population growth is likely to be _____.
 - in Africa
 - in Asia
 - economically developed
 - economically underdeveloped
- Which type of country has the greatest proportion of young individuals?

- a. economically developed
 - b. economically underdeveloped
 - c. countries with zero population growth
 - d. countries in Europe
- 18.** Which of the following is not a way that humans have increased the carrying capacity of the environment?
- a. agriculture
 - b. using large amounts of natural resources
 - c. domestication of animals
 - d. use of language
- 19.** The first species to live on new land, such as that formed from volcanic lava, are called _____.
- a. climax community
 - b. keystone species
 - c. foundation species
 - d. pioneer species
- 20.** Which type of mimicry involves multiple species with similar warning coloration that are all toxic to predators?
- a. Batesian mimicry
 - b. Müllerian mimicry
 - c. Emsleyan/Mertensian mimicry
 - d. Mertensian mimicry
- 21.** A symbiotic relationship where both of the coexisting species benefit from the interaction is called _____.
- a. commensalism
 - b. parasitism
 - c. mutualism
 - d. communism
- 22.** The ability of rats to learn how to run a maze is an example of _____.
- a. imprinting
 - b. classical conditioning
 - c. operant conditioning
 - d. cognitive learning
- 23.** The training of animals usually involves _____.
- a. imprinting
 - b. classical conditioning
 - c. operant conditioning
 - d. cognitive learning
- 24.** The sacrifice of the life of an individual so that the genes of relatives may be passed on is called _____.
- a. operant learning
 - b. kin selection
 - c. kinesis
 - d. imprinting

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 25.** Describe how a researcher would determine the size of a penguin population in Antarctica using the mark and release method.
- 26.** Why is long-term parental care not associated with having many offspring during a reproductive episode?
- 27.** Describe the rate of population growth that would be expected at various parts of the S-shaped curve of logistic growth.
- 28.** Give an example of how density-dependent and density-independent factors might interact.
- 29.** Describe the age structures in rapidly growing countries, slowly growing countries, and countries with zero population growth.
- 30.** Describe the competitive exclusion principle and its effects on competing species.
- 31.** Describe Pavlov's dog experiments as an example of classical conditioning.

46 | ECOSYSTEMS



Figure 46.1 In the southwestern United States, rainy weather causes an increase in production of pinyon nuts, causing the deer mouse population to explode. Deer mice may carry a virus called *Sin Nombre* (a hantavirus) that causes respiratory disease in humans and has a high fatality rate. In 1992–1993, wet *El Niño* weather caused a *Sin Nombre* epidemic. Navajo healers, who were aware of the link between this disease and weather, predicted the outbreak. (credit "highway": modification of work by Phillip Capper; credit "mouse": modification of work by USFWS)

Chapter Outline

46.1: Ecology of Ecosystems

46.2: Energy Flow through Ecosystems

46.3: Biogeochemical Cycles

Introduction

In 1993, an interesting example of ecosystem dynamics occurred when a rare lung disease struck inhabitants of the southwestern United States. This disease had an alarming rate of fatalities, killing more than half of early patients, many of whom were Native Americans. These formerly healthy young adults died from complete respiratory failure. The disease was unknown, and the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), the United States government agency responsible for managing potential epidemics, was brought in to investigate. The scientists could have learned about the disease had they known to talk with the Navajo healers who lived in the area and who had observed the connection between rainfall and mice populations, thereby predicting the 1993 outbreak.

The cause of the disease, determined within a few weeks by the CDC investigators, was the hantavirus known as *Sin Nombre*, the virus with “no name.” With insights from traditional Navajo medicine, scientists were able to characterize the disease rapidly and institute effective health measures to prevent its spread. This example illustrates the importance of understanding the complexities of ecosystems and how they respond to changes in the environment.

46.1 | Ecology of Ecosystems

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the basic types of ecosystems on Earth
- Explain the methods that ecologists use to study ecosystem structure and dynamics
- Identify the different methods of ecosystem modeling
- Differentiate between food chains and food webs and recognize the importance of each

Life in an ecosystem is often about competition for limited resources, a characteristic of the theory of natural selection. Competition in communities (all living things within specific habitats) is observed both within species and among different species. The resources for which organisms compete include organic material from living or previously living organisms, sunlight, and mineral nutrients, which provide the energy for living processes and the matter to make up organisms' physical structures. Other critical factors influencing community dynamics are the components of its physical and geographic environment: a habitat's latitude, amount of rainfall, topography (elevation), and available species. These are all important environmental variables that determine which organisms can exist within a particular area.

An **ecosystem** is a community of living organisms and their interactions with their abiotic (non-living) environment. Ecosystems can be small, such as the tide pools found near the rocky shores of many oceans, or large, such as the Amazon Rainforest in Brazil (**Figure 46.2**).

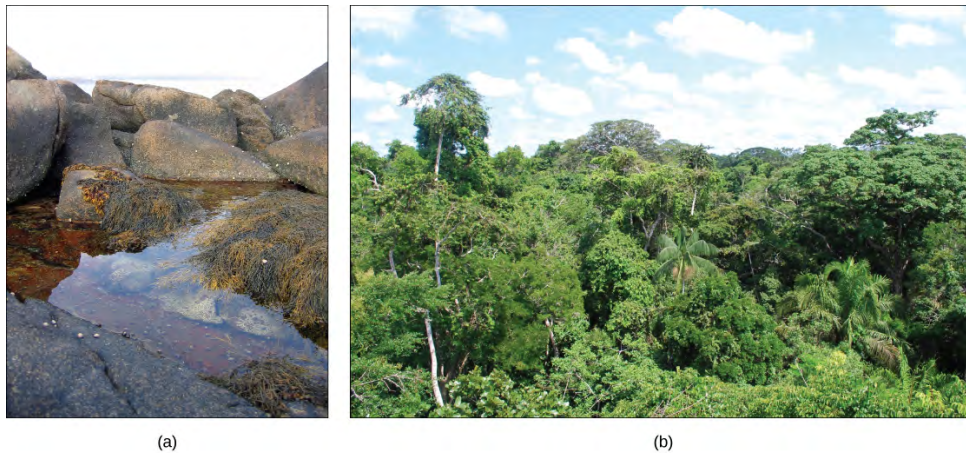


Figure 46.2 A (a) tidal pool ecosystem in Matinicus Island in Maine is a small ecosystem, while the (b) Amazon Rainforest in Brazil is a large ecosystem. (credit a: modification of work by “takomabelot”/Flickr; credit b: modification of work by Ivan Mlinaric)

There are three broad categories of ecosystems based on their general environment: freshwater, ocean water, and terrestrial. Within these broad categories are individual ecosystem types based on the organisms present and the type of environmental habitat.

Ocean ecosystems are the most common, comprising 75 percent of the Earth's surface and consisting of three basic types: shallow ocean, deep ocean water, and deep ocean surfaces (the low depth areas of the deep oceans). The shallow ocean ecosystems include extremely biodiverse coral reef ecosystems, and the deep ocean surface is known for its large numbers of plankton and krill (small crustaceans) that support it. These two environments are especially important to aerobic respirators worldwide as the phytoplankton perform 40 percent of all photosynthesis on Earth. Although not as diverse as the other two, deep ocean ecosystems contain a wide variety of marine organisms. Such ecosystems exist even at the bottom of the ocean where light is unable to penetrate through the water.

Freshwater ecosystems are the rarest, occurring on only 1.8 percent of the Earth's surface. Lakes, rivers, streams, and springs comprise these systems; they are quite diverse, and they support a variety of fish, amphibians, reptiles, insects, phytoplankton, fungi, and bacteria.

Terrestrial ecosystems, also known for their diversity, are grouped into large categories called biomes, such as tropical rain forests, savannas, deserts, coniferous forests, deciduous forests, and tundra. Grouping these ecosystems into just a few biome categories obscures the great diversity of the individual

ecosystems within them. For example, there is great variation in desert vegetation: the saguaro cacti and other plant life in the Sonoran Desert, in the United States, are relatively abundant compared to the desolate rocky desert of Boa Vista, an island off the coast of Western Africa ([Figure 46.3](#)).



Figure 46.3 Desert ecosystems, like all ecosystems, can vary greatly. The desert in (a) Saguaro National Park, Arizona, has abundant plant life, while the rocky desert of (b) Boa Vista island, Cape Verde, Africa, is devoid of plant life. (credit a: modification of work by Jay Galvin; credit b: modification of work by Ingo Wölbern)

Ecosystems are complex with many interacting parts. They are routinely exposed to various disturbances, or changes in the environment that effect their compositions: yearly variations in rainfall and temperature and the slower processes of plant growth, which may take several years. Many of these disturbances are a result of natural processes. For example, when lightning causes a forest fire and destroys part of a forest ecosystem, the ground is eventually populated by grasses, then by bushes and shrubs, and later by mature trees, restoring the forest to its former state. The impact of environmental disturbances caused by human activities is as important as the changes wrought by natural processes. Human agricultural practices, air pollution, acid rain, global deforestation, overfishing, eutrophication, oil spills, and illegal dumping on land and into the ocean are all issues of concern to conservationists.

Equilibrium is the steady state of an ecosystem where all organisms are in balance with their environment and with each other. In ecology, two parameters are used to measure changes in ecosystems: resistance and resilience. The ability of an ecosystem to remain at equilibrium in spite of disturbances is called **resistance**. The speed at which an ecosystem recovers equilibrium after being disturbed, called its **resilience**. Ecosystem resistance and resilience are especially important when considering human impact. The nature of an ecosystem may change to such a degree that it can lose its resilience entirely. This process can lead to the complete destruction or irreversible altering of the ecosystem.

Food Chains and Food Webs

The term “food chain” is sometimes used metaphorically to describe human social situations. In this sense, food chains are thought of as a competition for survival, such as “who eats whom?” Someone eats and someone is eaten. Therefore, it is not surprising that in our competitive “dog-eat-dog” society, individuals who are considered successful are seen as being at the top of the food chain, consuming all others for their benefit, whereas the less successful are seen as being at the bottom.

The scientific understanding of a food chain is more precise than in its everyday usage. In ecology, a **food chain** is a linear sequence of organisms through which nutrients and energy pass: primary producers, primary consumers, and higher-level consumers are used to describe ecosystem structure and dynamics. There is a single path through the chain. Each organism in a food chain occupies what is called a **trophic level**. Depending on their role as producers or consumers, species or groups of species can be assigned to various trophic levels.

In many ecosystems, the bottom of the food chain consists of photosynthetic organisms (plants and/or phytoplankton), which are called **primary producers**. The organisms that consume the primary producers are herbivores: the **primary consumers**. **Secondary consumers** are usually carnivores that eat the primary consumers. **Tertiary consumers** are carnivores that eat other carnivores. Higher-level consumers feed on the next lower trophic levels, and so on, up to the organisms at the top of the food chain: the **apex consumers**. In the Lake Ontario food chain shown in [Figure 46.4](#), the Chinook salmon is the apex consumer at the top of this food chain.

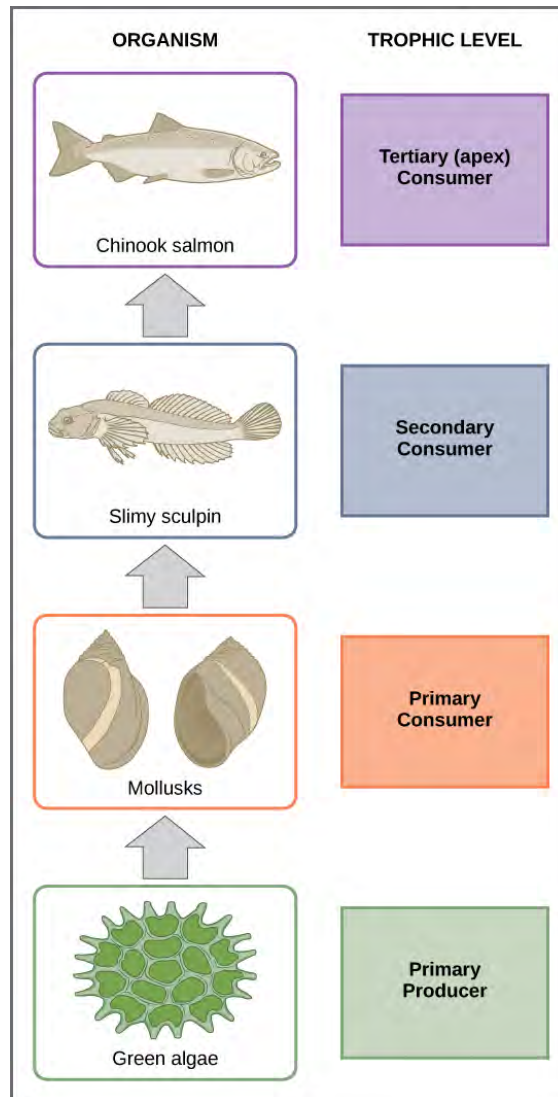


Figure 46.4 These are the trophic levels of a food chain in Lake Ontario at the United States-Canada border. Energy and nutrients flow from photosynthetic green algae at the bottom to the top of the food chain: the Chinook salmon.

One major factor that limits the length of food chains is energy. Energy is lost as heat between each trophic level due to the second law of thermodynamics. Thus, after a limited number of trophic energy transfers, the amount of energy remaining in the food chain may not be great enough to support viable populations at yet a higher trophic level.

The loss of energy between trophic levels is illustrated by the pioneering studies of Howard T. Odum in the Silver Springs, Florida, ecosystem in the 1940s (**Figure 46.5**). The primary producers generated 20,819 kcal/m²/yr (kilocalories per square meter per year), the primary consumers generated 3368 kcal/m²/yr, the secondary consumers generated 383 kcal/m²/yr, and the tertiary consumers only generated 21 kcal/m²/yr. Thus, there is little energy remaining for another level of consumers in this ecosystem.

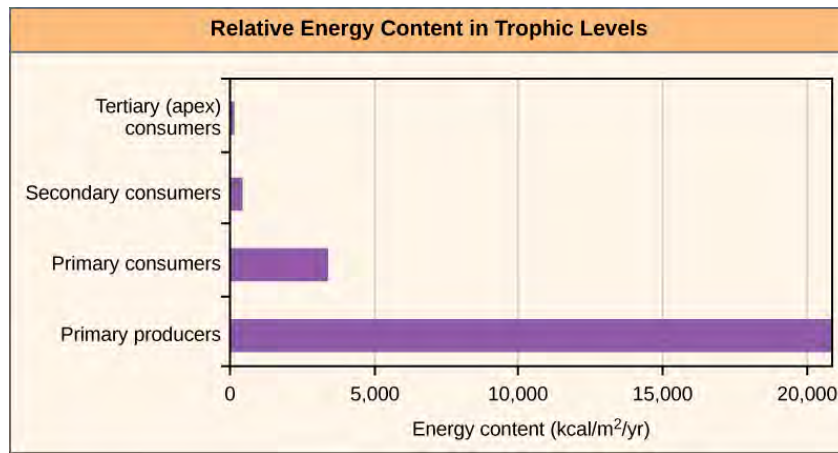


Figure 46.5 The relative energy in trophic levels in a Silver Springs, Florida, ecosystem is shown. Each trophic level has less energy available and supports fewer organisms at the next level.

There is a one problem when using food chains to accurately describe most ecosystems. Even when all organisms are grouped into appropriate trophic levels, some of these organisms can feed on species from more than one trophic level; likewise, some of these organisms can be eaten by species from multiple trophic levels. In other words, the linear model of ecosystems, the food chain, is not completely descriptive of ecosystem structure. A holistic model—which accounts for all the interactions between different species and their complex interconnected relationships with each other and with the environment—is a more accurate and descriptive model for ecosystems. A **food web** is a graphic representation of a holistic, non-linear web of primary producers, primary consumers, and higher-level consumers used to describe ecosystem structure and dynamics (**Figure 46.6**).

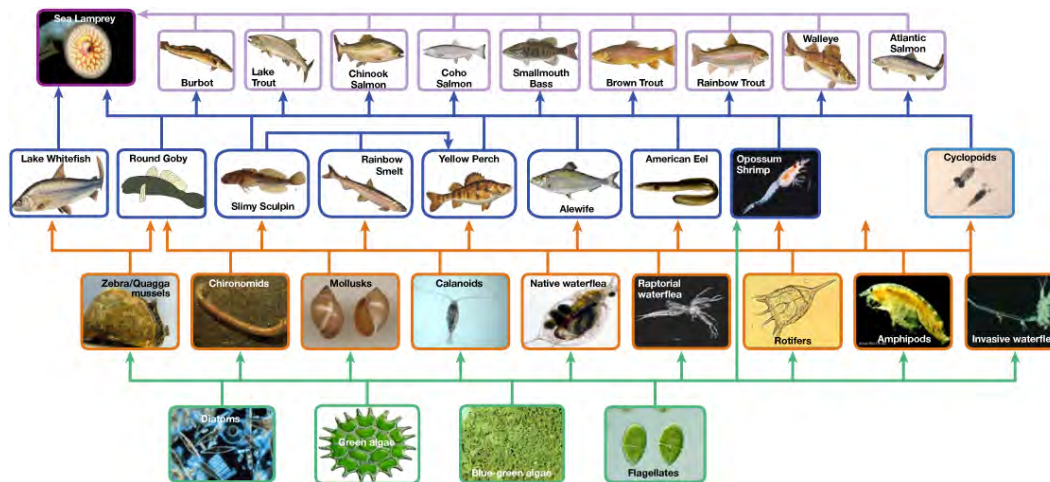


Figure 46.6 This food web shows the interactions between organisms across trophic levels in the Lake Ontario ecosystem. Primary producers are outlined in green, primary consumers in orange, secondary consumers in blue, and tertiary (apex) consumers in purple. Arrows point from an organism that is consumed to the organism that consumes it. Notice how some lines point to more than one trophic level. For example, the opossum shrimp eats both primary producers and primary consumers. (credit: NOAA, GLERL)

A comparison of the two types of structural ecosystem models shows strength in both. Food chains are more flexible for analytical modeling, are easier to follow, and are easier to experiment with, whereas food web models more accurately represent ecosystem structure and dynamics, and data can be directly used as input for simulation modeling.



Head to this **online interactive simulator** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/food_web) to investigate food web function. In the *Interactive Labs* box, under **Food Web**, click **Step 1**. Read the instructions first, and then click **Step 2** for additional instructions. When you are ready to create a simulation, in the upper-right corner of the *Interactive Labs* box, click **OPEN SIMULATOR**.

Two general types of food webs are often shown interacting within a single ecosystem. A **grazing food web** (such as the Lake Ontario food web in **Figure 46.6**) has plants or other photosynthetic organisms at its base, followed by herbivores and various carnivores. A **detrital food web** consists of a base of organisms that feed on decaying organic matter (dead organisms), called decomposers or detritivores. These organisms are usually bacteria or fungi that recycle organic material back into the biotic part of the ecosystem as they themselves are consumed by other organisms. As all ecosystems require a method to recycle material from dead organisms, most grazing food webs have an associated detrital food web. For example, in a meadow ecosystem, plants may support a grazing food web of different organisms, primary and other levels of consumers, while at the same time supporting a detrital food web of bacteria, fungi, and detritivorous invertebrates feeding off dead plants and animals.

evolution CONNECTION

Three-spined Stickleback

It is well established by the theory of natural selection that changes in the environment play a major role in the evolution of species within an ecosystem. However, little is known about how the evolution of species within an ecosystem can alter the ecosystem environment. In 2009, Dr. Luke Harmon, from the University of Idaho in Moscow, published a paper that for the first time showed that the evolution of organisms into subspecies can have direct effects on their ecosystem environment.^[1]

The three-spines stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) is a freshwater fish that evolved from a saltwater fish to live in freshwater lakes about 10,000 years ago, which is considered a recent development in evolutionary time (**Figure 46.7**). Over the last 10,000 years, these freshwater fish then became isolated from each other in different lakes. Depending on which lake population was studied, findings showed that these sticklebacks then either remained as one species or evolved into two species. The divergence of species was made possible by their use of different areas of the pond for feeding called micro niches.

Dr. Harmon and his team created artificial pond microcosms in 250-gallon tanks and added muck from freshwater ponds as a source of zooplankton and other invertebrates to sustain the fish. In different experimental tanks they introduced one species of stickleback from either a single-species or double-species lake.

Over time, the team observed that some of the tanks bloomed with algae while others did not. This puzzled the scientists, and they decided to measure the water's dissolved organic carbon (DOC), which consists of mostly large molecules of decaying organic matter that give pond-water its slightly brownish color. It turned out that the water from the tanks with two-species fish contained larger particles of DOC (and hence darker water) than water with single-species fish. This increase in DOC blocked the sunlight and prevented algal blooming. Conversely, the water from the single-species tank contained smaller DOC particles, allowing more sunlight penetration to fuel the algal blooms.

This change in the environment, which is due to the different feeding habits of the stickleback species in each lake type, probably has a great impact on the survival of other species in these ecosystems, especially other photosynthetic organisms. Thus, the study shows that, at least in these ecosystems, the environment and the evolution of populations have reciprocal effects that may now be factored into simulation models.



Figure 46.7 The three-spined stickleback evolved from a saltwater fish to freshwater fish. (credit: Barrett Paul, USFWS)

1. *Nature* (Vol. 458, April 1, 2009)

Research into Ecosystem Dynamics: Ecosystem Experimentation and Modeling

The study of the changes in ecosystem structure caused by changes in the environment (disturbances) or by internal forces is called **ecosystem dynamics**. Ecosystems are characterized using a variety of research methodologies. Some ecologists study ecosystems using controlled experimental systems, while some study entire ecosystems in their natural state, and others use both approaches.

A **holistic ecosystem model** attempts to quantify the composition, interaction, and dynamics of entire ecosystems; it is the most representative of the ecosystem in its natural state. A food web is an example of a holistic ecosystem model. However, this type of study is limited by time and expense, as well as the fact that it is neither feasible nor ethical to do experiments on large natural ecosystems. To quantify all different species in an ecosystem and the dynamics in their habitat is difficult, especially when studying large habitats such as the Amazon Rainforest, which covers 1.4 billion acres (5.5 million km²) of the Earth's surface.

For these reasons, scientists study ecosystems under more controlled conditions. Experimental systems usually involve either partitioning a part of a natural ecosystem that can be used for experiments, termed a **mesocosm**, or by re-creating an ecosystem entirely in an indoor or outdoor laboratory environment, which is referred to as a **microcosm**. A major limitation to these approaches is that removing individual organisms from their natural ecosystem or altering a natural ecosystem through partitioning may change the dynamics of the ecosystem. These changes are often due to differences in species numbers and diversity and also to environment alterations caused by partitioning (mesocosm) or re-creating (microcosm) the natural habitat. Thus, these types of experiments are not totally predictive of changes that would occur in the ecosystem from which they were gathered.

As both of these approaches have their limitations, some ecologists suggest that results from these experimental systems should be used only in conjunction with holistic ecosystem studies to obtain the most representative data about ecosystem structure, function, and dynamics.

Scientists use the data generated by these experimental studies to develop ecosystem models that demonstrate the structure and dynamics of ecosystems. Three basic types of ecosystem modeling are routinely used in research and ecosystem management: a conceptual model, an analytical model, and a simulation model. A **conceptual model** is an ecosystem model that consists of flow charts to show interactions of different compartments of the living and nonliving components of the ecosystem. A conceptual model describes ecosystem structure and dynamics and shows how environmental disturbances affect the ecosystem; however, its ability to predict the effects of these disturbances is limited. Analytical and simulation models, in contrast, are mathematical methods of describing ecosystems that are indeed capable of predicting the effects of potential environmental changes without direct experimentation, although with some limitations as to accuracy. An **analytical model** is an ecosystem model that is created using simple mathematical formulas to predict the effects of environmental disturbances on ecosystem structure and dynamics. A **simulation model** is an ecosystem model that is created using complex computer algorithms to holistically model ecosystems and to predict the effects of environmental disturbances on ecosystem structure and dynamics. Ideally, these models are accurate enough to determine which components of the ecosystem are particularly sensitive to disturbances, and they can serve as a guide to ecosystem managers (such as conservation ecologists or fisheries biologists) in the practical maintenance of ecosystem health.

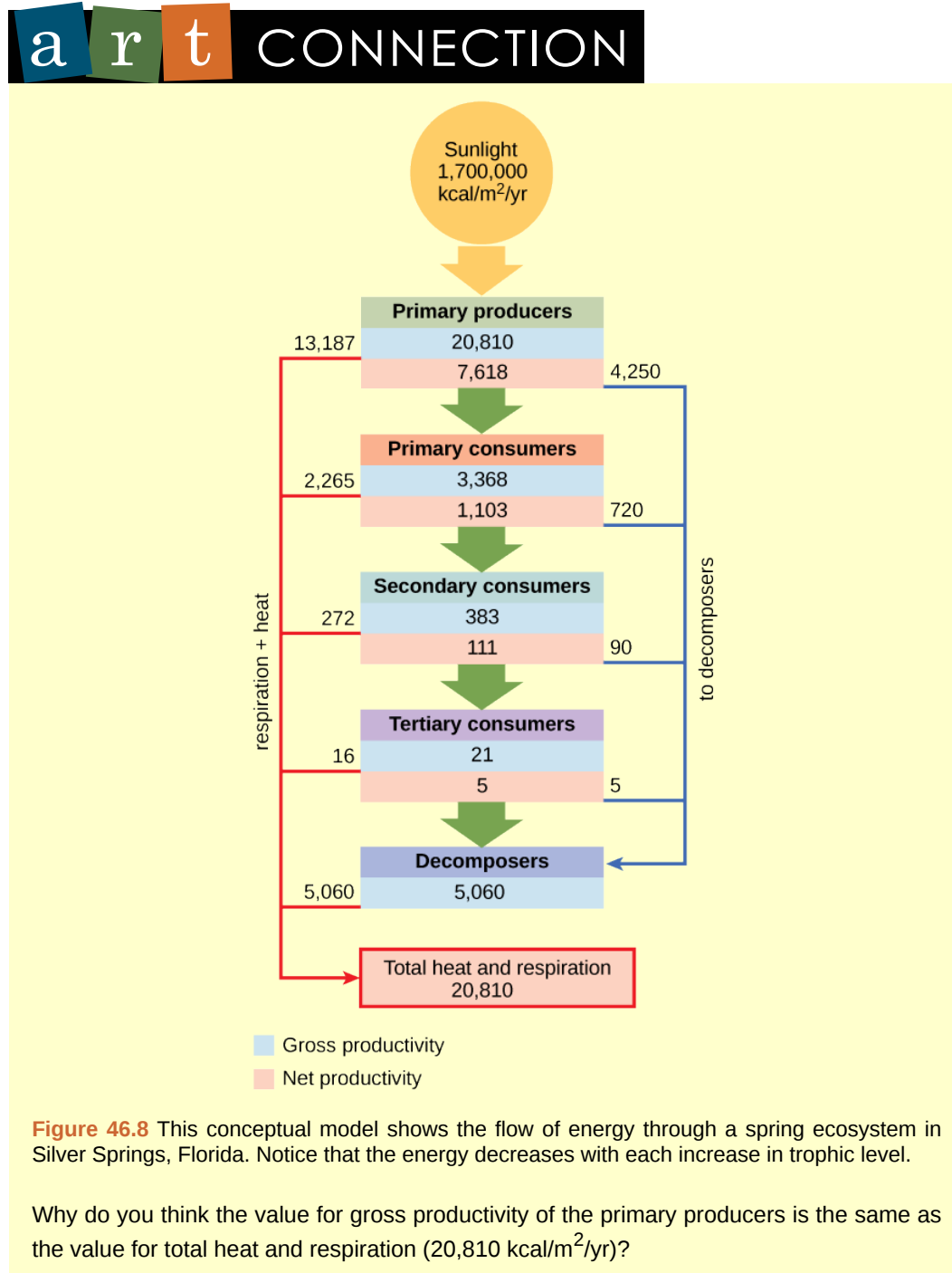
Conceptual Models

Conceptual models are useful for describing ecosystem structure and dynamics and for demonstrating the relationships between different organisms in a community and their environment. Conceptual models are usually depicted graphically as flow charts. The organisms and their resources are grouped into specific compartments with arrows showing the relationship and transfer of energy or nutrients between them. Thus, these diagrams are sometimes called compartment models.

To model the cycling of mineral nutrients, organic and inorganic nutrients are subdivided into those that are bioavailable (ready to be incorporated into biological macromolecules) and those that are not. For example, in a terrestrial ecosystem near a deposit of coal, carbon will be available to the plants of this ecosystem as carbon dioxide gas in a short-term period, not from the carbon-rich coal itself. However, over a longer period, microorganisms capable of digesting coal will incorporate its carbon or release it as natural gas (methane, CH₄), changing this unavailable organic source into an available one. This conversion is greatly accelerated by the combustion of fossil fuels by humans, which releases large amounts of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. This is thought to be a major factor in the rise of the atmospheric carbon dioxide levels in the industrial age. The carbon dioxide released from burning fossil fuels is produced faster than photosynthetic organisms can use it. This process is intensified by

the reduction of photosynthetic trees because of worldwide deforestation. Most scientists agree that high atmospheric carbon dioxide is a major cause of global climate change.

Conceptual models are also used to show the flow of energy through particular ecosystems. **Figure 46.8** is based on Howard T. Odum's classical study of the Silver Springs, Florida, holistic ecosystem in the mid-twentieth century.^[2] This study shows the energy content and transfer between various ecosystem compartments.



Analytical and Simulation Models

The major limitation of conceptual models is their inability to predict the consequences of changes in ecosystem species and/or environment. Ecosystems are dynamic entities and subject to a variety

2. Howard T. Odum, "Trophic Structure and Productivity of Silver Springs, Florida," *Ecological Monographs* 27, no. 1 (1957): 47–112.

of abiotic and biotic disturbances caused by natural forces and/or human activity. Ecosystems altered from their initial equilibrium state can often recover from such disturbances and return to a state of equilibrium. As most ecosystems are subject to periodic disturbances and are often in a state of change, they are usually either moving toward or away from their equilibrium state. There are many of these equilibrium states among the various components of an ecosystem, which affects the ecosystem overall. Furthermore, as humans have the ability to greatly and rapidly alter the species content and habitat of an ecosystem, the need for predictive models that enable understanding of how ecosystems respond to these changes becomes more crucial.

Analytical models often use simple, linear components of ecosystems, such as food chains, and are known to be complex mathematically; therefore, they require a significant amount of mathematical knowledge and expertise. Although analytical models have great potential, their simplification of complex ecosystems is thought to limit their accuracy. Simulation models that use computer programs are better able to deal with the complexities of ecosystem structure.

A recent development in simulation modeling uses supercomputers to create and run individual-based simulations, which accounts for the behavior of individual organisms and their effects on the ecosystem as a whole. These simulations are considered to be the most accurate and predictive of the complex responses of ecosystems to disturbances.



Visit **The Darwin Project** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/Darwin_project) to view a variety of ecosystem models.

46.2 | Energy Flow through Ecosystems

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how organisms acquire energy in a food web and in associated food chains
- Explain how the efficiency of energy transfers between trophic levels affects ecosystem structure and dynamics
- Discuss trophic levels and how ecological pyramids are used to model them

All living things require energy in one form or another. Energy is required by most complex metabolic pathways (often in the form of adenosine triphosphate, ATP), especially those responsible for building large molecules from smaller compounds, and life itself is an energy-driven process. Living organisms would not be able to assemble macromolecules (proteins, lipids, nucleic acids, and complex carbohydrates) from their monomeric subunits without a constant energy input.

It is important to understand how organisms acquire energy and how that energy is passed from one organism to another through food webs and their constituent food chains. Food webs illustrate how energy flows directionally through ecosystems, including how efficiently organisms acquire it, use it, and how much remains for use by other organisms of the food web.

How Organisms Acquire Energy in a Food Web

Energy is acquired by living things in three ways: photosynthesis, chemosynthesis, and the consumption and digestion of other living or previously living organisms by heterotrophs.

Photosynthetic and chemosynthetic organisms are both grouped into a category known as autotrophs: organisms capable of synthesizing their own food (more specifically, capable of using inorganic carbon as a carbon source). Photosynthetic autotrophs (photoautotrophs) use sunlight as an energy source, whereas chemosynthetic autotrophs (chemoautotrophs) use inorganic molecules as an energy source.

Autotrophs are critical for all ecosystems. Without these organisms, energy would not be available to other living organisms and life itself would not be possible.

Photoautotrophs, such as plants, algae, and photosynthetic bacteria, serve as the energy source for a majority of the world's ecosystems. These ecosystems are often described by grazing food webs. Photoautotrophs harness the solar energy of the sun by converting it to chemical energy in the form of ATP (and NADP). The energy stored in ATP is used to synthesize complex organic molecules, such as glucose.

Chemoautotrophs are primarily bacteria that are found in rare ecosystems where sunlight is not available, such as in those associated with dark caves or hydrothermal vents at the bottom of the ocean (**Figure 46.9**). Many chemoautotrophs in hydrothermal vents use hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), which is released from the vents as a source of chemical energy. This allows chemoautotrophs to synthesize complex organic molecules, such as glucose, for their own energy and in turn supplies energy to the rest of the ecosystem.



Figure 46.9 Swimming shrimp, a few squat lobsters, and hundreds of vent mussels are seen at a hydrothermal vent at the bottom of the ocean. As no sunlight penetrates to this depth, the ecosystem is supported by chemoautotrophic bacteria and organic material that sinks from the ocean's surface. This picture was taken in 2006 at the submerged NW Eifuku volcano off the coast of Japan by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). The summit of this highly active volcano lies 1535 m below the surface.

Productivity within Trophic Levels

Productivity within an ecosystem can be defined as the percentage of energy entering the ecosystem incorporated into biomass in a particular trophic level. **Biomass** is the total mass, in a unit area at the time of measurement, of living or previously living organisms within a trophic level. Ecosystems have characteristic amounts of biomass at each trophic level. For example, in the English Channel ecosystem the primary producers account for a biomass of 4 g/m^2 (grams per meter squared), while the primary consumers exhibit a biomass of 21 g/m^2 .

The productivity of the primary producers is especially important in any ecosystem because these organisms bring energy to other living organisms by photoautotrophy or chemoautotrophy. The rate at which photosynthetic primary producers incorporate energy from the sun is called **gross primary productivity**. An example of gross primary productivity is shown in the compartment diagram of energy flow within the Silver Springs aquatic ecosystem as shown (**Figure 46.8**). In this ecosystem, the total energy accumulated by the primary producers (gross primary productivity) was shown to be $20,810 \text{ kcal/m}^2/\text{yr}$.

Because all organisms need to use some of this energy for their own functions (like respiration and resulting metabolic heat loss) scientists often refer to the net primary productivity of an ecosystem. **Net primary productivity** is the energy that remains in the primary producers after accounting for the organisms' respiration and heat loss. The net productivity is then available to the primary consumers

at the next trophic level. In our Silver Spring example, 13,187 of the 20,810 kcal/m²/yr were used for respiration or were lost as heat, leaving 7,632 kcal/m²/yr of energy for use by the primary consumers.

Ecological Efficiency: The Transfer of Energy between Trophic Levels

As illustrated in **Figure 46.8**, large amounts of energy are lost from the ecosystem from one trophic level to the next level as energy flows from the primary producers through the various trophic levels of consumers and decomposers. The main reason for this loss is the second law of thermodynamics, which states that whenever energy is converted from one form to another, there is a tendency toward disorder (entropy) in the system. In biologic systems, this means a great deal of energy is lost as metabolic heat when the organisms from one trophic level consume the next level. In the Silver Springs ecosystem example (**Figure 46.8**), we see that the primary consumers produced 1103 kcal/m²/yr from the 7618 kcal/m²/yr of energy available to them from the primary producers. The measurement of energy transfer efficiency between two successive trophic levels is termed the **trophic level transfer efficiency (TLTE)** and is defined by the formula:

$$\text{TLTE} = \frac{\text{production at present trophic level}}{\text{production at previous trophic level}} \times 100$$

In Silver Springs, the TLTE between the first two trophic levels was approximately 14.8 percent. The low efficiency of energy transfer between trophic levels is usually the major factor that limits the length of food chains observed in a food web. The fact is, after four to six energy transfers, there is not enough energy left to support another trophic level. In the Lake Ontario example shown in **Figure 46.6**, only three energy transfers occurred between the primary producer, (green algae), and the apex consumer (Chinook salmon).

Ecologists have many different methods of measuring energy transfers within ecosystems. Some transfers are easier or more difficult to measure depending on the complexity of the ecosystem and how much access scientists have to observe the ecosystem. In other words, some ecosystems are more difficult to study than others, and sometimes the quantification of energy transfers has to be estimated.

Another main parameter that is important in characterizing energy flow within an ecosystem is the net production efficiency. **Net production efficiency (NPE)** allows ecologists to quantify how efficiently organisms of a particular trophic level incorporate the energy they receive into biomass; it is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{NPE} = \frac{\text{net consumer productivity}}{\text{assimilation}} \times 100$$

Net consumer productivity is the energy content available to the organisms of the next trophic level. **Assimilation** is the biomass (energy content generated per unit area) of the present trophic level after accounting for the energy lost due to incomplete ingestion of food, energy used for respiration, and energy lost as waste. Incomplete ingestion refers to the fact that some consumers eat only a part of their food. For example, when a lion kills an antelope, it will eat everything except the hide and bones. The lion is missing the energy-rich bone marrow inside the bone, so the lion does not make use of all the calories its prey could provide.

Thus, NPE measures how efficiently each trophic level uses and incorporates the energy from its food into biomass to fuel the next trophic level. In general, cold-blooded animals (ectotherms), such as invertebrates, fish, amphibians, and reptiles, use less of the energy they obtain for respiration and heat than warm-blooded animals (endotherms), such as birds and mammals. The extra heat generated in endotherms, although an advantage in terms of the activity of these organisms in colder environments, is a major disadvantage in terms of NPE. Therefore, many endotherms have to eat more often than ectotherms to get the energy they need for survival. In general, NPE for ectotherms is an order of magnitude (10x) higher than for endotherms. For example, the NPE for a caterpillar eating leaves has been measured at 18 percent, whereas the NPE for a squirrel eating acorns may be as low as 1.6 percent.

The inefficiency of energy use by warm-blooded animals has broad implications for the world's food supply. It is widely accepted that the meat industry uses large amounts of crops to feed livestock, and because the NPE is low, much of the energy from animal feed is lost. For example, it costs about 1¢ to produce 1000 dietary calories (kcal) of corn or soybeans, but approximately \$0.19 to produce a similar number of calories growing cattle for beef consumption. The same energy content of milk from cattle is also costly, at approximately \$0.16 per 1000 kcal. Much of this difference is due to the low NPE of cattle. Thus, there has been a growing movement worldwide to promote the consumption of non-meat and non-dairy foods so that less energy is wasted feeding animals for the meat industry.

Modeling Ecosystems Energy Flow: Ecological Pyramids

The structure of ecosystems can be visualized with ecological pyramids, which were first described by the pioneering studies of Charles Elton in the 1920s. **Ecological pyramids** show the relative amounts of various parameters (such as number of organisms, energy, and biomass) across trophic levels.

Pyramids of numbers can be either upright or inverted, depending on the ecosystem. As shown in **Figure 46.10**, typical grassland during the summer has a base of many plants and the numbers of organisms decrease at each trophic level. However, during the summer in a temperate forest, the base of the pyramid consists of few trees compared with the number of primary consumers, mostly insects. Because trees are large, they have great photosynthetic capability, and dominate other plants in this ecosystem to obtain sunlight. Even in smaller numbers, primary producers in forests are still capable of supporting other trophic levels.

Another way to visualize ecosystem structure is with pyramids of biomass. This pyramid measures the amount of energy converted into living tissue at the different trophic levels. Using the Silver Springs ecosystem example, this data exhibits an upright biomass pyramid (**Figure 46.10**), whereas the pyramid from the English Channel example is inverted. The plants (primary producers) of the Silver Springs ecosystem make up a large percentage of the biomass found there. However, the phytoplankton in the English Channel example make up less biomass than the primary consumers, the zooplankton. As with inverted pyramids of numbers, this inverted pyramid is not due to a lack of productivity from the primary producers, but results from the high turnover rate of the phytoplankton. The phytoplankton are consumed rapidly by the primary consumers, thus, minimizing their biomass at any particular point in time. However, phytoplankton reproduce quickly, thus they are able to support the rest of the ecosystem.

Pyramid ecosystem modeling can also be used to show energy flow through the trophic levels. Notice that these numbers are the same as those used in the energy flow compartment diagram in **Figure 46.8**. Pyramids of energy are always upright, and an ecosystem without sufficient primary productivity cannot be supported. All types of ecological pyramids are useful for characterizing ecosystem structure. However, in the study of energy flow through the ecosystem, pyramids of energy are the most consistent and representative models of ecosystem structure (**Figure 46.10**).

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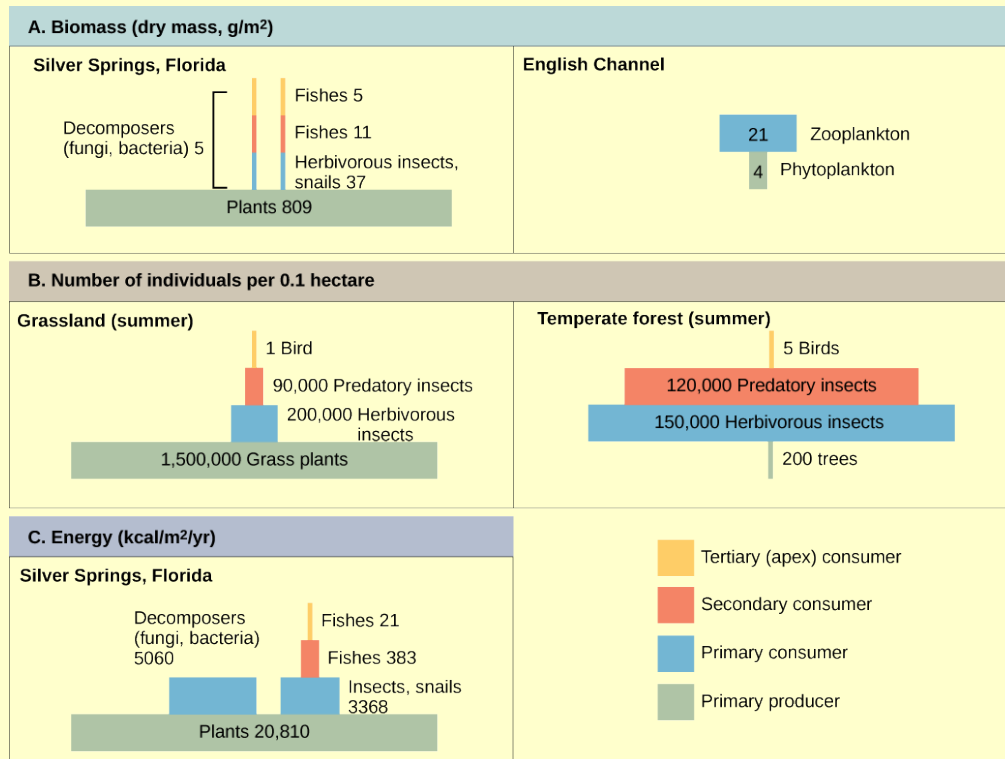


Figure 46.10 Ecological pyramids depict the (a) biomass, (b) number of organisms, and (c) energy in each trophic level.

Pyramids depicting the number of organisms or biomass may be inverted, upright, or even diamond-shaped. Energy pyramids, however, are always upright. Why?

Consequences of Food Webs: Biological Magnification

One of the most important environmental consequences of ecosystem dynamics is biomagnification. **Biomagnification** is the increasing concentration of persistent, toxic substances in organisms at each trophic level, from the primary producers to the apex consumers. Many substances have been shown to bioaccumulate, including classical studies with the pesticide **dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT)**, which was published in the 1960s bestseller, *Silent Spring*, by Rachel Carson. DDT was a commonly used pesticide before its dangers became known. In some aquatic ecosystems, organisms from each trophic level consumed many organisms of the lower level, which caused DDT to increase in birds (apex consumers) that ate fish. Thus, the birds accumulated sufficient amounts of DDT to cause fragility in their eggshells. This effect increased egg breakage during nesting and was shown to have adverse effects on these bird populations. The use of DDT was banned in the United States in the 1970s.

Other substances that biomagnify are polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), which were used in coolant liquids in the United States until their use was banned in 1979, and heavy metals, such as mercury, lead, and cadmium. These substances were best studied in aquatic ecosystems, where fish species at different trophic levels accumulate toxic substances brought through the ecosystem by the primary producers. As illustrated in a study performed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) in the Saginaw Bay of Lake Huron (**Figure 46.11**), PCB concentrations increased from the ecosystem's primary producers (phytoplankton) through the different trophic levels of fish species. The apex consumer (walleye) has more than four times the amount of PCBs compared to phytoplankton. Also, based on results from other studies, birds that eat these fish may have PCB levels at least one order of magnitude higher than those found in the lake fish.

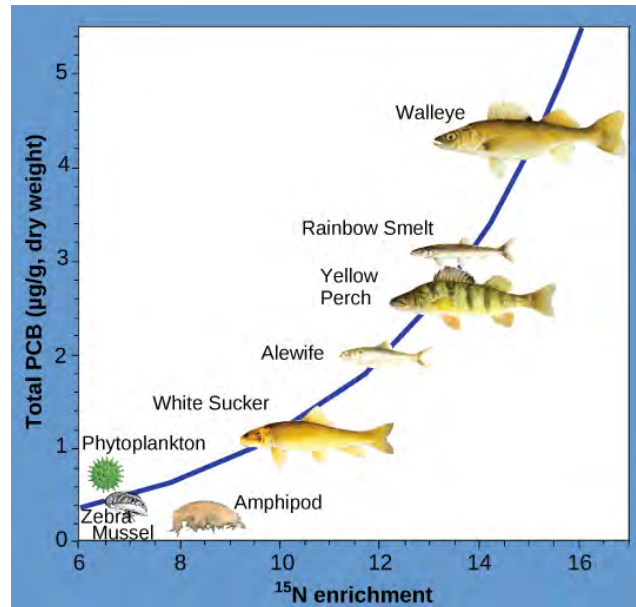


Figure 46.11 This chart shows the PCB concentrations found at the various trophic levels in the Saginaw Bay ecosystem of Lake Huron. Numbers on the x-axis reflect enrichment with heavy isotopes of nitrogen (^{15}N), which is a marker for increasing trophic level. Notice that the fish in the higher trophic levels accumulate more PCBs than those in lower trophic levels. (credit: Patricia Van Hoof, NOAA, GLERL)

Other concerns have been raised by the accumulation of heavy metals, such as mercury and cadmium, in certain types of seafood. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) recommends that pregnant women and young children should not consume any swordfish, shark, king mackerel, or tilefish because of their high mercury content. These individuals are advised to eat fish low in mercury: salmon, tilapia, shrimp, pollock, and catfish. Biomagnification is a good example of how ecosystem dynamics can affect our everyday lives, even influencing the food we eat.

46.3 | Biogeochemical Cycles

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the biogeochemical cycles of water, carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur
- Explain how human activities have impacted these cycles and the potential consequences for Earth

Energy flows directionally through ecosystems, entering as sunlight (or inorganic molecules for chemoautotrophs) and leaving as heat during the many transfers between trophic levels. However, the matter that makes up living organisms is conserved and recycled. The six most common elements associated with organic molecules—carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, and sulfur—take a variety of chemical forms and may exist for long periods in the atmosphere, on land, in water, or beneath the Earth's surface. Geologic processes, such as weathering, erosion, water drainage, and the subduction of the continental plates, all play a role in this recycling of materials. Because geology and chemistry have major roles in the study of this process, the recycling of inorganic matter between living organisms and their environment is called a **biogeochemical cycle**.

Water contains hydrogen and oxygen, which is essential to all living processes. The **hydrosphere** is the area of the Earth where water movement and storage occurs: as liquid water on the surface and beneath the surface or frozen (rivers, lakes, oceans, groundwater, polar ice caps, and glaciers), and as water vapor in the atmosphere. Carbon is found in all organic macromolecules and is an important constituent of fossil fuels. Nitrogen is a major component of our nucleic acids and proteins and is critical to human agriculture. Phosphorus, a major component of nucleic acid (along with nitrogen), is one of the main ingredients in artificial fertilizers used in agriculture and their associated environmental impacts on our surface water. Sulfur, critical to the 3-D folding of proteins (as in disulfide binding), is released into the atmosphere by the burning of fossil fuels, such as coal.

The cycling of these elements is interconnected. For example, the movement of water is critical for the leaching of nitrogen and phosphate into rivers, lakes, and oceans. Furthermore, the ocean itself is a major reservoir for carbon. Thus, mineral nutrients are cycled, either rapidly or slowly, through the entire biosphere, from one living organism to another, and between the biotic and abiotic world.



Head to this **website** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/biogeochemical>) to learn more about biogeochemical cycles.

The Water (Hydrologic) Cycle

Water is the basis of all living processes. The human body is more than 1/2 water and human cells are more than 70 percent water. Thus, most land animals need a supply of fresh water to survive. However, when examining the stores of water on Earth, 97.5 percent of it is non-potable salt water (**Figure 46.12**). Of the remaining water, 99 percent is locked underground as water or as ice. Thus, less than 1 percent of fresh water is easily accessible from lakes and rivers. Many living things, such as plants, animals, and fungi, are dependent on the small amount of fresh surface water supply, a lack of which can have massive effects on ecosystem dynamics. Humans, of course, have developed technologies to increase water availability, such as digging wells to harvest groundwater, storing rainwater, and using desalination to obtain drinkable water from the ocean. Although this pursuit of drinkable water has been ongoing throughout human history, the supply of fresh water is still a major issue in modern times.

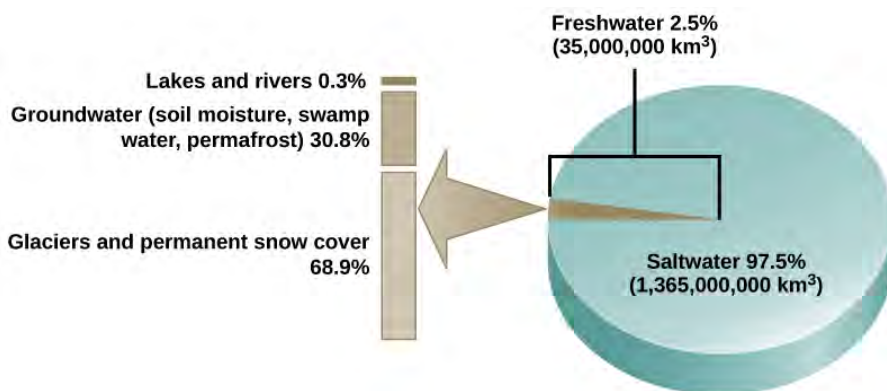


Figure 46.12 Only 2.5 percent of water on Earth is fresh water, and less than 1 percent of fresh water is easily accessible to living things.

Water cycling is extremely important to ecosystem dynamics. Water has a major influence on climate and, thus, on the environments of ecosystems, some located on distant parts of the Earth. Most of the water on Earth is stored for long periods in the oceans, underground, and as ice. **Figure 46.13** illustrates the average time that an individual water molecule may spend in the Earth's major water reservoirs. **Residence time** is a measure of the average time an individual water molecule stays in a particular reservoir. A large amount of the Earth's water is locked in place in these reservoirs as ice, beneath the ground, and in the ocean, and, thus, is unavailable for short-term cycling (only surface water can evaporate).

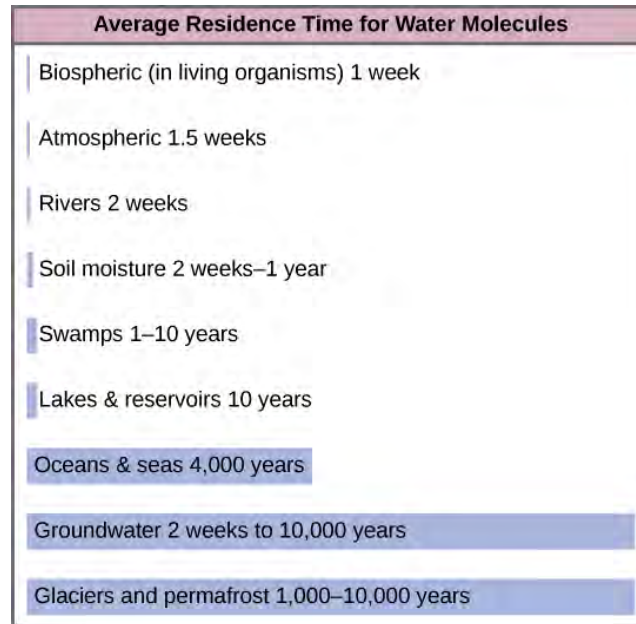


Figure 46.13 This graph shows the average residence time for water molecules in the Earth's water reservoirs.

There are various processes that occur during the cycling of water, shown in **Figure 46.14**. These processes include the following:

- evaporation/sublimation
- condensation/precipitation
- subsurface water flow
- surface runoff/snowmelt
- streamflow

The water cycle is driven by the sun's energy as it warms the oceans and other surface waters. This leads to the evaporation (water to water vapor) of liquid surface water and the sublimation (ice to water vapor) of frozen water, which deposits large amounts of water vapor into the atmosphere. Over time, this water vapor condenses into clouds as liquid or frozen droplets and is eventually followed by precipitation (rain or snow), which returns water to the Earth's surface. Rain eventually permeates into the ground, where it may evaporate again if it is near the surface, flow beneath the surface, or be stored for long periods. More easily observed is surface runoff: the flow of fresh water either from rain or melting ice. Runoff can then make its way through streams and lakes to the oceans or flow directly to the oceans themselves.



Head to this **website** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/freshwater>) to learn more about the world's fresh water supply.

Rain and surface runoff are major ways in which minerals, including carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur, are cycled from land to water. The environmental effects of runoff will be discussed later as these cycles are described.

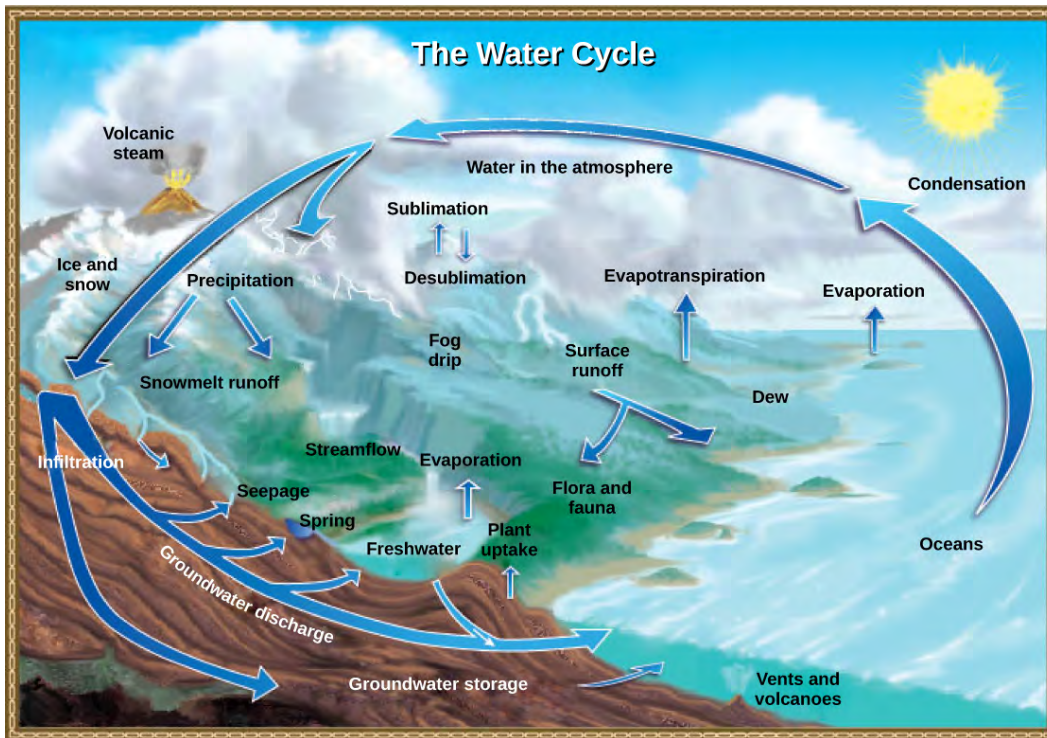


Figure 46.14 Water from the land and oceans enters the atmosphere by evaporation or sublimation, where it condenses into clouds and falls as rain or snow. Precipitated water may enter freshwater bodies or infiltrate the soil. The cycle is complete when surface or groundwater reenters the ocean. (credit: modification of work by John M. Evans and Howard Perlman, USGS)

The Carbon Cycle

Carbon is the second most abundant element in living organisms. Carbon is present in all organic molecules, and its role in the structure of macromolecules is of primary importance to living organisms. Carbon compounds contain especially high energy, particularly those derived from fossilized organisms, mainly plants, which humans use as fuel. Since the 1800s, the number of countries using massive amounts of fossil fuels has increased. Since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, global demand for the Earth's limited fossil fuel supplies has risen; therefore, the amount of carbon dioxide in our atmosphere has increased. This increase in carbon dioxide has been associated with climate change and other disturbances of the Earth's ecosystems and is a major environmental concern worldwide. Thus, the "carbon footprint" is based on how much carbon dioxide is produced and how much fossil fuel countries consume.

The carbon cycle is most easily studied as two interconnected sub-cycles: one dealing with rapid carbon exchange among living organisms and the other dealing with the long-term cycling of carbon through geologic processes. The entire carbon cycle is shown in **Figure 46.15**.

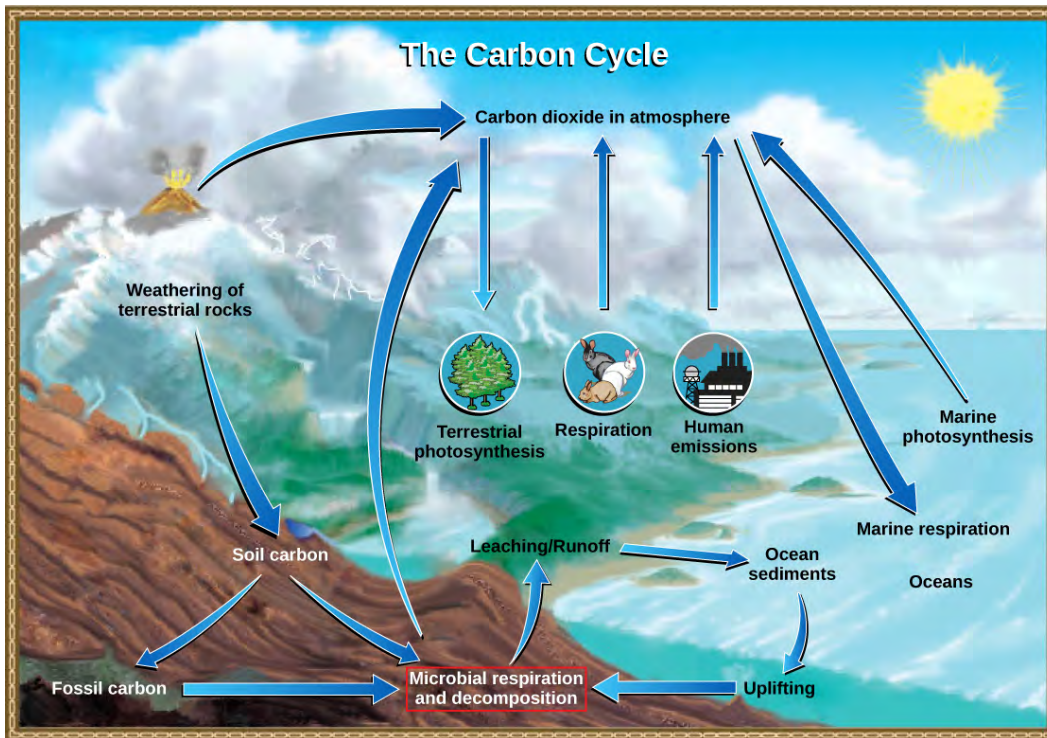


Figure 46.15 Carbon dioxide gas exists in the atmosphere and is dissolved in water. Photosynthesis converts carbon dioxide gas to organic carbon, and respiration cycles the organic carbon back into carbon dioxide gas. Long-term storage of organic carbon occurs when matter from living organisms is buried deep underground and becomes fossilized. Volcanic activity and, more recently, human emissions, bring this stored carbon back into the carbon cycle. (credit: modification of work by John M. Evans and Howard Perlman, USGS)

LINK TO LEARNING



Click this [link \(http://openstaxcollege.org/l/carbon_cycle\)](http://openstaxcollege.org/l/carbon_cycle) to read information about the United States Carbon Cycle Science Program.

The Biological Carbon Cycle

Living organisms are connected in many ways, even between ecosystems. A good example of this connection is the exchange of carbon between autotrophs and heterotrophs within and between ecosystems by way of atmospheric carbon dioxide. Carbon dioxide is the basic building block that most autotrophs use to build multi-carbon, high energy compounds, such as glucose. The energy harnessed from the sun is used by these organisms to form the covalent bonds that link carbon atoms together. These chemical bonds thereby store this energy for later use in the process of respiration. Most terrestrial autotrophs obtain their carbon dioxide directly from the atmosphere, while marine autotrophs acquire it in the dissolved form (carbonic acid, H_2CO_3^-). However carbon dioxide is acquired, a by-product of the process is oxygen. The photosynthetic organisms are responsible for depositing approximately 21 percent oxygen content of the atmosphere that we observe today.

Heterotrophs and autotrophs are partners in biological carbon exchange (especially the primary consumers, largely herbivores). Heterotrophs acquire the high-energy carbon compounds from the autotrophs by consuming them, and breaking them down by respiration to obtain cellular energy, such as ATP. The most efficient type of respiration, aerobic respiration, requires oxygen obtained from the atmosphere or dissolved in water. Thus, there is a constant exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide between the autotrophs (which need the carbon) and the heterotrophs (which need the oxygen). Gas

exchange through the atmosphere and water is one way that the carbon cycle connects all living organisms on Earth.

The Biogeochemical Carbon Cycle

The movement of carbon through the land, water, and air is complex, and in many cases, it occurs much more slowly geologically than as seen between living organisms. Carbon is stored for long periods in what are known as carbon reservoirs, which include the atmosphere, bodies of liquid water (mostly oceans), ocean sediment, soil, land sediments (including fossil fuels), and the Earth's interior.

As stated, the atmosphere is a major reservoir of carbon in the form of carbon dioxide and is essential to the process of photosynthesis. The level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is greatly influenced by the reservoir of carbon in the oceans. The exchange of carbon between the atmosphere and water reservoirs influences how much carbon is found in each location, and each one affects the other reciprocally. Carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere dissolves in water and combines with water molecules to form carbonic acid, and then it ionizes to carbonate and bicarbonate ions (Figure 46.16)

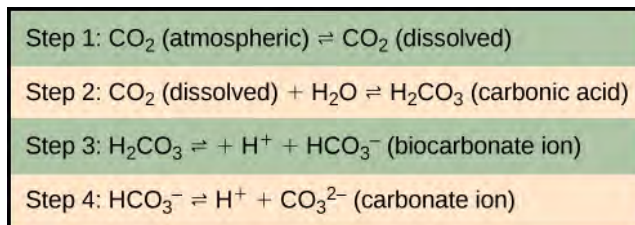


Figure 46.16 Carbon dioxide reacts with water to form bicarbonate and carbonate ions.

The equilibrium coefficients are such that more than 90 percent of the carbon in the ocean is found as bicarbonate ions. Some of these ions combine with seawater calcium to form calcium carbonate (CaCO_3), a major component of marine organism shells. These organisms eventually form sediments on the ocean floor. Over geologic time, the calcium carbonate forms limestone, which comprises the largest carbon reservoir on Earth.

On land, carbon is stored in soil as a result of the decomposition of living organisms (by decomposers) or from weathering of terrestrial rock and minerals. This carbon can be leached into the water reservoirs by surface runoff. Deeper underground, on land and at sea, are fossil fuels: the anaerobically decomposed remains of plants that take millions of years to form. Fossil fuels are considered a non-renewable resource because their use far exceeds their rate of formation. A **non-renewable resource**, such as fossil fuel, is either regenerated very slowly or not at all. Another way for carbon to enter the atmosphere is from land (including land beneath the surface of the ocean) by the eruption of volcanoes and other geothermal systems. Carbon sediments from the ocean floor are taken deep within the Earth by the process of **subduction**: the movement of one tectonic plate beneath another. Carbon is released as carbon dioxide when a volcano erupts or from volcanic hydrothermal vents.

Carbon dioxide is also added to the atmosphere by the animal husbandry practices of humans. The large numbers of land animals raised to feed the Earth's growing population results in increased carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere due to farming practices and the respiration and methane production. This is another example of how human activity indirectly affects biogeochemical cycles in a significant way. Although much of the debate about the future effects of increasing atmospheric carbon on climate change focuses on fossil fuels, scientists take natural processes, such as volcanoes and respiration, into account as they model and predict the future impact of this increase.

The Nitrogen Cycle

Getting nitrogen into the living world is difficult. Plants and phytoplankton are not equipped to incorporate nitrogen from the atmosphere (which exists as tightly bonded, triple covalent N_2) even though this molecule comprises approximately 78 percent of the atmosphere. Nitrogen enters the living world via free-living and symbiotic bacteria, which incorporate nitrogen into their macromolecules through nitrogen fixation (conversion of N_2). Cyanobacteria live in most aquatic ecosystems where sunlight is present; they play a key role in nitrogen fixation. Cyanobacteria are able to use inorganic sources of nitrogen to "fix" nitrogen. *Rhizobium* bacteria live symbiotically in the root nodules of legumes (such as peas, beans, and peanuts) and provide them with the organic nitrogen they need. Free-living bacteria, such as *Azotobacter*, are also important nitrogen fixers.

Organic nitrogen is especially important to the study of ecosystem dynamics since many ecosystem processes, such as primary production and decomposition, are limited by the available supply of nitrogen. As shown in Figure 46.17, the nitrogen that enters living systems by nitrogen fixation is

successively converted from organic nitrogen back into nitrogen gas by bacteria. This process occurs in three steps in terrestrial systems: ammonification, nitrification, and denitrification. First, the ammonification process converts nitrogenous waste from living animals or from the remains of dead animals into ammonium (NH_4^+) by certain bacteria and fungi. Second, the ammonium is converted to nitrites (NO_2^-) by nitrifying bacteria, such as *Nitrosomonas*, through nitrification. Subsequently, nitrites are converted to nitrates (NO_3^-) by similar organisms. Third, the process of denitrification occurs, whereby bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas* and *Clostridium*, convert the nitrates into nitrogen gas, allowing it to re-enter the atmosphere.

art CONNECTION

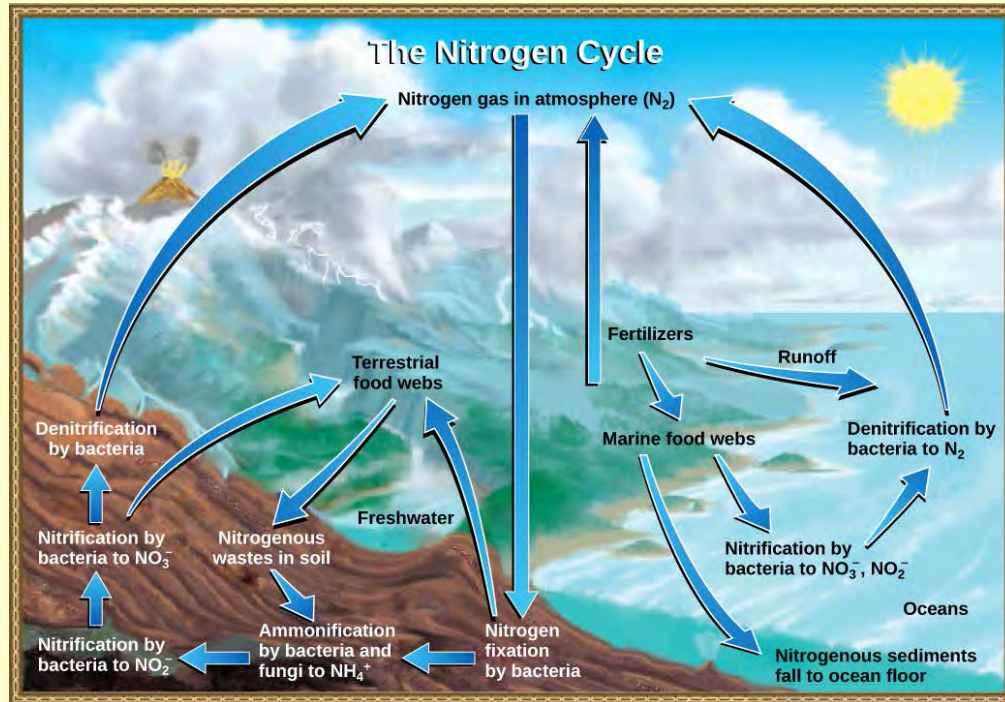


Figure 46.17 Nitrogen enters the living world from the atmosphere via nitrogen-fixing bacteria. This nitrogen and nitrogenous waste from animals is then processed back into gaseous nitrogen by soil bacteria, which also supply terrestrial food webs with the organic nitrogen they need. (credit: modification of work by John M. Evans and Howard Perlman, USGS)

Which of the following statements about the nitrogen cycle is false?

- Ammonification converts organic nitrogenous matter from living organisms into ammonium (NH_4^+).
- Denitrification by bacteria converts nitrates (NO_3^-) to nitrogen gas (N_2).
- Nitrification by bacteria converts nitrates (NO_3^-) to nitrites (NO_2^-).
- Nitrogen fixing bacteria convert nitrogen gas (N_2) into organic compounds.

Human activity can release nitrogen into the environment by two primary means: the combustion of fossil fuels, which releases different nitrogen oxides, and by the use of artificial fertilizers in agriculture, which are then washed into lakes, streams, and rivers by surface runoff. Atmospheric nitrogen is associated with several effects on Earth's ecosystems including the production of acid rain (as nitric acid, HNO_3) and greenhouse gas (as nitrous oxide, N_2O) potentially causing climate change. A major effect from fertilizer runoff is saltwater and freshwater **eutrophication**, a process whereby nutrient runoff causes the excess growth of microorganisms, depleting dissolved oxygen levels and killing ecosystem fauna.

A similar process occurs in the marine nitrogen cycle, where the ammonification, nitrification, and denitrification processes are performed by marine bacteria. Some of this nitrogen falls to the ocean floor as sediment, which can then be moved to land in geologic time by uplift of the Earth's surface and thereby incorporated into terrestrial rock. Although the movement of nitrogen from rock directly into living systems has been traditionally seen as insignificant compared with nitrogen fixed from the atmosphere, a recent study showed that this process may indeed be significant and should be included in any study of the global nitrogen cycle.^[3]

The Phosphorus Cycle

Phosphorus is an essential nutrient for living processes; it is a major component of nucleic acid and phospholipids, and, as calcium phosphate, makes up the supportive components of our bones. Phosphorus is often the limiting nutrient (necessary for growth) in aquatic ecosystems (Figure 46.18).

Phosphorus occurs in nature as the phosphate ion (PO_4^{3-}). In addition to phosphate runoff as a result of human activity, natural surface runoff occurs when it is leached from phosphate-containing rock by weathering, thus sending phosphates into rivers, lakes, and the ocean. This rock has its origins in the ocean. Phosphate-containing ocean sediments form primarily from the bodies of ocean organisms and from their excretions. However, in remote regions, volcanic ash, aerosols, and mineral dust may also be significant phosphate sources. This sediment then is moved to land over geologic time by the uplifting of areas of the Earth's surface.

Phosphorus is also reciprocally exchanged between phosphate dissolved in the ocean and marine ecosystems. The movement of phosphate from the ocean to the land and through the soil is extremely slow, with the average phosphate ion having an oceanic residence time between 20,000 and 100,000 years.

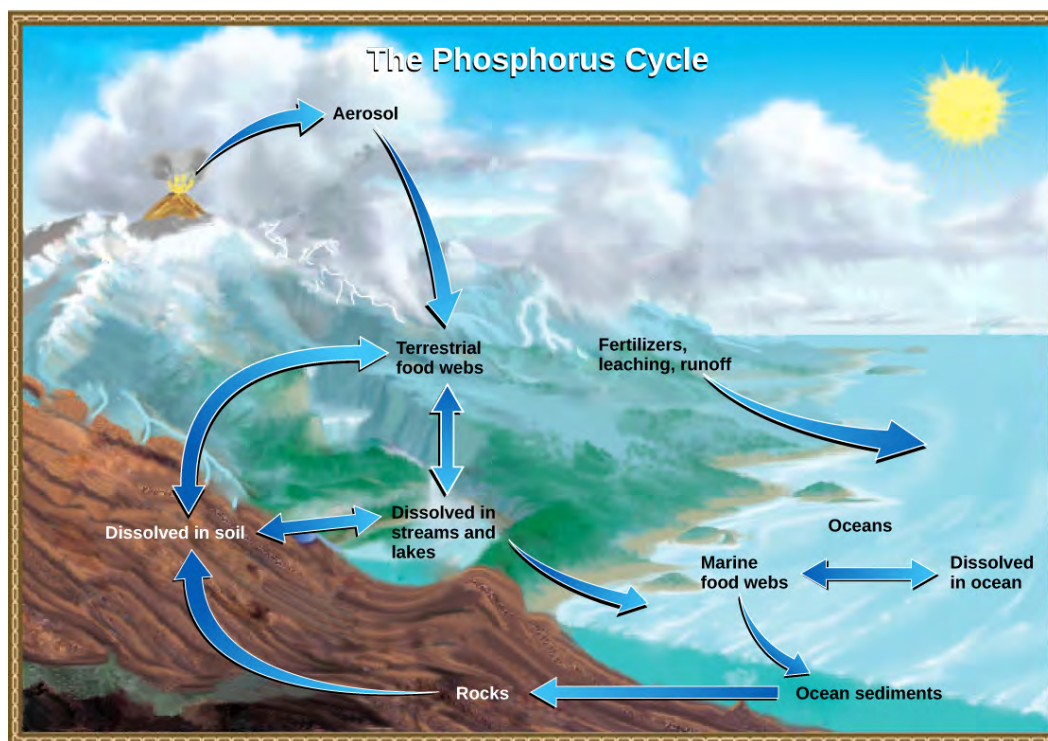


Figure 46.18 In nature, phosphorus exists as the phosphate ion (PO_4^{3-}). Weathering of rocks and volcanic activity releases phosphate into the soil, water, and air, where it becomes available to terrestrial food webs. Phosphate enters the oceans via surface runoff, groundwater flow, and river flow. Phosphate dissolved in ocean water cycles into marine food webs. Some phosphate from the marine food webs falls to the ocean floor, where it forms sediment. (credit: modification of work by John M. Evans and Howard Perlman, USGS)

Excess phosphorus and nitrogen that enters these ecosystems from fertilizer runoff and from sewage causes excessive growth of microorganisms and depletes the dissolved oxygen, which leads to the death

3. Scott L. Morford, Benjamin Z. Houlton, and Randy A. Dahlgren, "Increased Forest Ecosystem Carbon and Nitrogen Storage from Nitrogen Rich Bedrock," *Nature* 477, no. 7362 (2011): 78–81.

of many ecosystem fauna, such as shellfish and finfish. This process is responsible for dead zones in lakes and at the mouths of many major rivers (**Figure 46.18**).

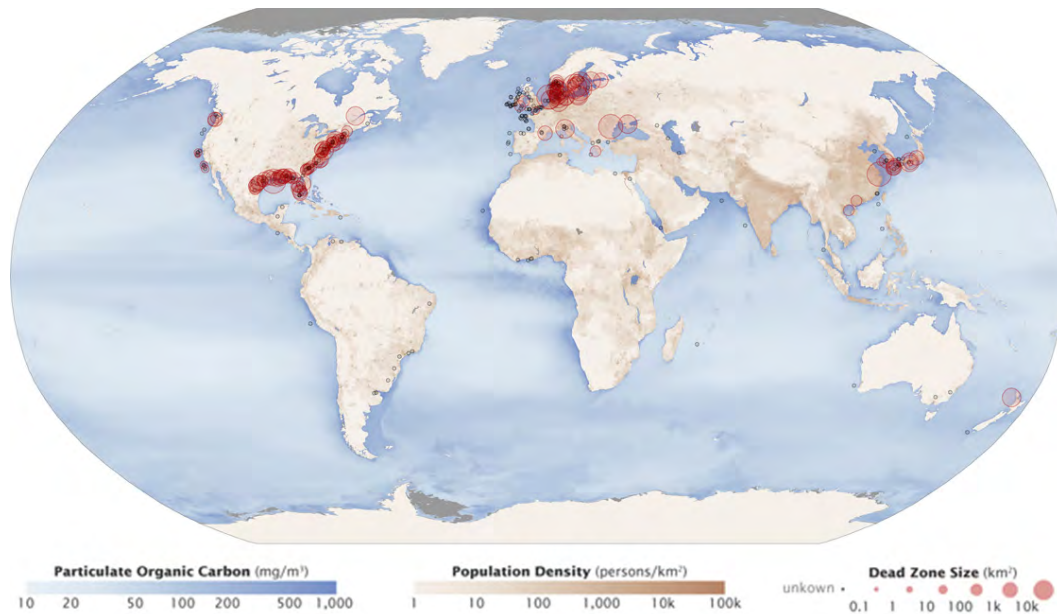


Figure 46.19 Dead zones occur when phosphorus and nitrogen from fertilizers cause excessive growth of microorganisms, which depletes oxygen and kills fauna. Worldwide, large dead zones are found in coastal areas of high population density. (credit: NASA Earth Observatory)

A **dead zone** is an area within a freshwater or marine ecosystem where large areas are depleted of their normal flora and fauna; these zones can be caused by eutrophication, oil spills, dumping of toxic chemicals, and other human activities. The number of dead zones has been increasing for several years, and more than 400 of these zones were present as of 2008. One of the worst dead zones is off the coast of the United States in the Gulf of Mexico, where fertilizer runoff from the Mississippi River basin has created a dead zone of over 8463 square miles. Phosphate and nitrate runoff from fertilizers also negatively affect several lake and bay ecosystems including the Chesapeake Bay in the eastern United States.

everyday CONNECTION

Chesapeake Bay

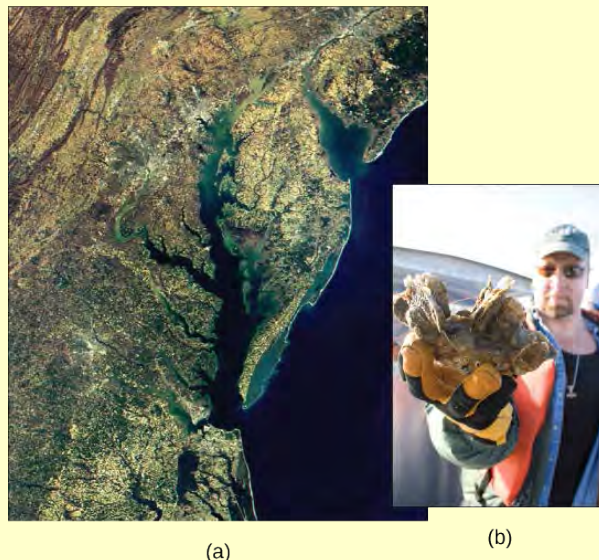


Figure 46.20 This (a) satellite image shows the Chesapeake Bay, an ecosystem affected by phosphate and nitrate runoff. A (b) member of the Army Corps of Engineers holds a clump of oysters being used as a part of the oyster restoration effort in the bay. (credit a: modification of work by NASA/MODIS; credit b: modification of work by U.S. Army)

The Chesapeake Bay has long been valued as one of the most scenic areas on Earth; it is now in distress and is recognized as a declining ecosystem. In the 1970s, the Chesapeake Bay was one of the first ecosystems to have identified dead zones, which continue to kill many fish and bottom-dwelling species, such as clams, oysters, and worms. Several species have declined in the Chesapeake Bay due to surface water runoff containing excess nutrients from artificial fertilizer used on land. The source of the fertilizers (with high nitrogen and phosphate content) is not limited to agricultural practices. There are many nearby urban areas and more than 150 rivers and streams empty into the bay that are carrying fertilizer runoff from lawns and gardens. Thus, the decline of the Chesapeake Bay is a complex issue and requires the cooperation of industry, agriculture, and everyday homeowners.

Of particular interest to conservationists is the oyster population; it is estimated that more than 200,000 acres of oyster reefs existed in the bay in the 1700s, but that number has now declined to only 36,000 acres. Oyster harvesting was once a major industry for Chesapeake Bay, but it declined 88 percent between 1982 and 2007. This decline was due not only to fertilizer runoff and dead zones but also to overharvesting. Oysters require a certain minimum population density because they must be in close proximity to reproduce. Human activity has altered the oyster population and locations, greatly disrupting the ecosystem.

The restoration of the oyster population in the Chesapeake Bay has been ongoing for several years with mixed success. Not only do many people find oysters good to eat, but they also clean up the bay. Oysters are filter feeders, and as they eat, they clean the water around them. In the 1700s, it was estimated that it took only a few days for the oyster population to filter the entire volume of the bay. Today, with changed water conditions, it is estimated that the present population would take nearly a year to do the same job.

Restoration efforts have been ongoing for several years by non-profit organizations, such as the Chesapeake Bay Foundation. The restoration goal is to find a way to increase population density so the oysters can reproduce more efficiently. Many disease-resistant varieties (developed at the Virginia Institute of Marine Science for the College of William and Mary) are now available and have been used in the construction of experimental oyster reefs. Efforts to clean and restore the bay by Virginia and Delaware have been

hampered because much of the pollution entering the bay comes from other states, which stresses the need for inter-state cooperation to gain successful restoration.

The new, hearty oyster strains have also spawned a new and economically viable industry—oyster aquaculture—which not only supplies oysters for food and profit, but also has the added benefit of cleaning the bay.

The Sulfur Cycle

Sulfur is an essential element for the macromolecules of living things. As a part of the amino acid cysteine, it is involved in the formation of disulfide bonds within proteins, which help to determine their 3-D folding patterns, and hence their functions. As shown in **Figure 46.20**, sulfur cycles between the oceans, land, and atmosphere. Atmospheric sulfur is found in the form of sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and enters the atmosphere in three ways: from the decomposition of organic molecules, from volcanic activity and geothermal vents, and from the burning of fossil fuels by humans.

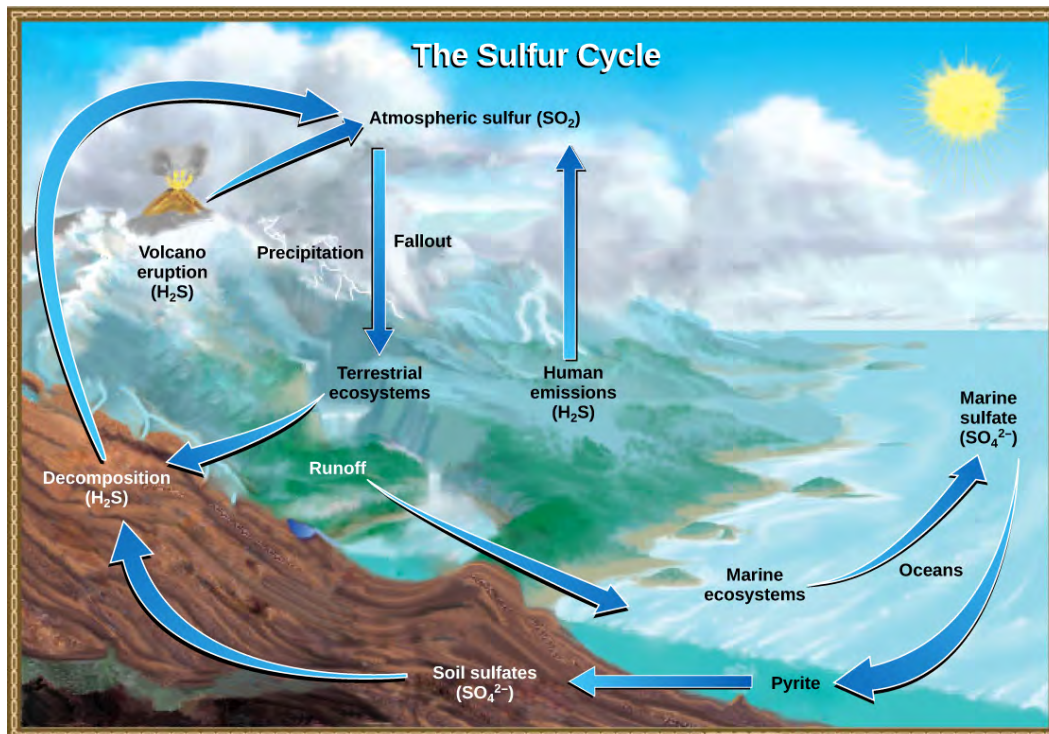


Figure 46.21 Sulfur dioxide from the atmosphere becomes available to terrestrial and marine ecosystems when it is dissolved in precipitation as weak sulfuric acid or when it falls directly to the Earth as fallout. Weathering of rocks also makes sulfates available to terrestrial ecosystems. Decomposition of living organisms returns sulfates to the ocean, soil and atmosphere. (credit: modification of work by John M. Evans and Howard Perlman, USGS)

On land, sulfur is deposited in four major ways: precipitation, direct fallout from the atmosphere, rock weathering, and geothermal vents (**Figure 46.21**). Atmospheric sulfur is found in the form of sulfur dioxide (SO_2), and as rain falls through the atmosphere, sulfur is dissolved in the form of weak sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4). Sulfur can also fall directly from the atmosphere in a process called **fallout**. Also, the weathering of sulfur-containing rocks releases sulfur into the soil. These rocks originate from ocean sediments that are moved to land by the geologic uplifting of ocean sediments. Terrestrial ecosystems can then make use of these soil sulfates (SO_4^-), and upon the death and decomposition of these organisms, release the sulfur back into the atmosphere as hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) gas.



Figure 46.22 At this sulfur vent in Lassen Volcanic National Park in northeastern California, the yellowish sulfur deposits are visible near the mouth of the vent.

Sulfur enters the ocean via runoff from land, from atmospheric fallout, and from underwater geothermal vents. Some ecosystems (**Figure 46.9**) rely on chemoautotrophs using sulfur as a biological energy source. This sulfur then supports marine ecosystems in the form of sulfates.

Human activities have played a major role in altering the balance of the global sulfur cycle. The burning of large quantities of fossil fuels, especially from coal, releases larger amounts of hydrogen sulfide gas into the atmosphere. As rain falls through this gas, it creates the phenomenon known as acid rain. **Acid rain** is corrosive rain caused by rainwater falling to the ground through sulfur dioxide gas, turning it into weak sulfuric acid, which causes damage to aquatic ecosystems. Acid rain damages the natural environment by lowering the pH of lakes, which kills many of the resident fauna; it also affects the man-made environment through the chemical degradation of buildings. For example, many marble monuments, such as the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, DC, have suffered significant damage from acid rain over the years. These examples show the wide-ranging effects of human activities on our environment and the challenges that remain for our future.

LINK TO LEARNING



Click this **link** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/climate_change) to learn more about global climate change.

KEY TERMS

acid rain corrosive rain caused by rainwater falling to the ground through sulfur dioxide gas, turning it into weak sulfuric acid; can damage structures and ecosystems

analytical model ecosystem model that is created with mathematical formulas to predict the effects of environmental disturbances on ecosystem structure and dynamics

apex consumer organism at the top of the food chain

assimilation biomass consumed and assimilated from the previous trophic level after accounting for the energy lost due to incomplete ingestion of food, energy used for respiration, and energy lost as waste

biogeochemical cycle cycling of mineral nutrients through ecosystems and through the non-living world

biomagnification increasing concentrations of persistent, toxic substances in organisms at each trophic level, from the primary producers to the apex consumers

biomass total weight, at the time of measurement, of living or previously living organisms in a unit area within a trophic level

chemoautotroph organism capable of synthesizing its own food using energy from inorganic molecules

conceptual model (also, compartment models) ecosystem model that consists of flow charts that show the interactions of different compartments of the living and non-living components of the ecosystem

dead zone area within an ecosystem in lakes and near the mouths of rivers where large areas of ecosystems are depleted of their normal flora and fauna; these zones can be caused by eutrophication, oil spills, dumping of toxic chemicals, and other human activities

detrital food web type of food web in which the primary consumers consist of decomposers; these are often associated with grazing food webs within the same ecosystem

ecological pyramid (also, Eltonian pyramid) graphical representation of different trophic levels in an ecosystem based of organism numbers, biomass, or energy content

ecosystem community of living organisms and their interactions with their abiotic environment

ecosystem dynamics study of the changes in ecosystem structure caused by changes in the environment or internal forces

equilibrium steady state of an ecosystem where all organisms are in balance with their environment and each other

eutrophication process whereby nutrient runoff causes the excess growth of microorganisms, depleting dissolved oxygen levels and killing ecosystem fauna

fallout direct deposit of solid minerals on land or in the ocean from the atmosphere

food chain linear representation of a chain of primary producers, primary consumers, and higher-level consumers used to describe ecosystem structure and dynamics

food web graphic representation of a holistic, non-linear web of primary producers, primary consumers, and higher-level consumers used to describe ecosystem structure and dynamics

grazing food web type of food web in which the primary producers are either plants on land or phytoplankton in the water; often associated with a detrital food web within the same ecosystem

gross primary productivity rate at which photosynthetic primary producers incorporate energy from the sun

- holistic ecosystem model** study that attempts to quantify the composition, interactions, and dynamics of entire ecosystems; often limited by economic and logistical difficulties, depending on the ecosystem
- hydrosphere** area of the Earth where water movement and storage occurs
- mesocosm** portion of a natural ecosystem to be used for experiments
- microcosm** re-creation of natural ecosystems entirely in a laboratory environment to be used for experiments
- net consumer productivity** energy content available to the organisms of the next trophic level
- net primary productivity** energy that remains in the primary producers after accounting for the organisms' respiration and heat loss
- net production efficiency (NPE)** measure of the ability of a trophic level to convert the energy it receives from the previous trophic level into biomass
- non-renewable resource** resource, such as fossil fuel, that is either regenerated very slowly or not at all
- primary consumer** trophic level that obtains its energy from the primary producers of an ecosystem
- primary producer** trophic level that obtains its energy from sunlight, inorganic chemicals, or dead and/or decaying organic material
- residence time** measure of the average time an individual water molecule stays in a particular reservoir
- resilience (ecological)** speed at which an ecosystem recovers equilibrium after being disturbed
- resistance (ecological)** ability of an ecosystem to remain at equilibrium in spite of disturbances
- secondary consumer** usually a carnivore that eat primary consumers
- simulation model** ecosystem model that is created with computer programs to holistically model ecosystems and to predict the effects of environmental disturbances on ecosystem structure and dynamics
- subduction** movement of one tectonic plate beneath another
- tertiary consumer** carnivore that eat other carnivores
- trophic level** position of a species or group of species in a food chain or a food web
- trophic level transfer efficiency (TLTE)** energy transfer efficiency between two successive trophic levels

CHAPTER SUMMARY

46.1 Ecology of Ecosystems

Ecosystems exist on land, at sea, in the air, and underground. Different ways of modeling ecosystems are necessary to understand how environmental disturbances will affect ecosystem structure and dynamics. Conceptual models are useful to show the general relationships between organisms and the flow of materials or energy between them. Analytical models are used to describe linear food chains, and simulation models work best with holistic food webs.

46.2 Energy Flow through Ecosystems

Organisms in an ecosystem acquire energy in a variety of ways, which is transferred between trophic levels as the energy flows from the bottom to the top of the food web, with energy being lost at each

transfer. The efficiency of these transfers is important for understanding the different behaviors and eating habits of warm-blooded versus cold-blooded animals. Modeling of ecosystem energy is best done with ecological pyramids of energy, although other ecological pyramids provide other vital information about ecosystem structure.

46.3 Biogeochemical Cycles

Mineral nutrients are cycled through ecosystems and their environment. Of particular importance are water, carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur. All of these cycles have major impacts on ecosystem structure and function. As human activities have caused major disturbances to these cycles, their study and modeling is especially important. A variety of human activities, such as pollution, oil spills, and events) have damaged ecosystems, potentially causing global climate change. The health of Earth depends on understanding these cycles and how to protect the environment from irreversible damage.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

- Figure 46.8** Why do you think the value for gross productivity of the primary producers is the same as the value for total heat and respiration ($20,810 \text{ kcal/m}^2/\text{yr}$)?
- Figure 46.10** Pyramids depicting the number of organisms or biomass may be inverted, upright, or even diamond-shaped. Energy pyramids, however, are always upright. Why?
- Figure 46.17** Which of the following statements about the nitrogen cycle is false?
 - Ammonification converts organic nitrogenous matter from living organisms into ammonium (NH_4^+).
 - Denitrification by bacteria converts nitrates (NO_3^-) to nitrogen gas (N_2).
 - Nitrification by bacteria converts nitrates (NO_3^-) to nitrites (NO_2^-).
 - Nitrogen fixing bacteria convert nitrogen gas (N_2) into organic compounds.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- The ability of an ecosystem to return to its equilibrium state after an environmental disturbance is called _____.
 - resistance
 - restoration
 - reformation
 - resilience
- A re-created ecosystem in a laboratory environment is known as a _____.
 - mesocosm
 - simulation
 - microcosm
 - reproduction
- Decomposers are associated with which class of food web?
 - grazing
 - detrital
 - inverted
 - aquatic
- The primary producers in an ocean grazing food web are usually _____.
 - plants
 - animals
 - fungi
 - phytoplankton
- What term describes the use of mathematical equations in the modeling of linear aspects of ecosystems?
 - analytical modeling
 - simulation modeling
 - conceptual modeling
 - individual-based modeling
- The position of an organism along a food chain is known as its _____.
 - locus
 - location
 - trophic level
 - microcosm
- The weight of living organisms in an ecosystem at a particular point in time is called:
 - energy
 - production
 - entropy
 - biomass
- Which term describes the process whereby toxic substances increase along trophic levels of an ecosystem?
 - biomassification
 - biomagnification
 - bioentropy
 - heterotrophy
- Organisms that can make their own food using inorganic molecules are called:
 - autotrophs
 - heterotrophs
 - photoautotrophs
 - chemoautotrophs

- 13.** In the English Channel ecosystem, the number of primary producers is smaller than the number of primary consumers because _____.
- the apex consumers have a low turnover rate
 - the primary producers have a low turnover rate
 - the primary producers have a high turnover rate
 - the primary consumers have a high turnover rate
- 14.** What law of chemistry determines how much energy can be transferred when it is converted from one form to another?
- the first law of thermodynamics
 - the second law of thermodynamics
 - the conservation of matter
 - the conservation of energy
- 15.** The movement of mineral nutrients through organisms and their environment is called a _____ cycle.
- biological
 - bioaccumulation
 - biogeochemical
 - biochemical
- 16.** Carbon is present in the atmosphere as _____.
- carbon dioxide
 - carbonate ion
 - carbon dust
 - carbon monoxide
- 17.** The majority of water found on Earth is:
- ice
 - water vapor
 - fresh water
 - salt water
- 18.** The average time a molecule spends in its reservoir is known as _____.
- residence time
 - restriction time
 - resilience time
 - storage time
- 19.** The process whereby oxygen is depleted by the growth of microorganisms due to excess nutrients in aquatic systems is called _____.
- dead zoning
 - eutrophication
 - retrofitation
 - depletion
- 20.** The process whereby nitrogen is brought into organic molecules is called _____.
- nitrification
 - denitrification
 - nitrogen fixation
 - nitrogen cycling

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 21.** Compare and contrast food chains and food webs. What are the strengths of each concept in describing ecosystems?
- 22.** Describe freshwater, ocean, and terrestrial ecosystems.
- 23.** Compare grazing and detrital food webs. Why would they both be present in the same ecosystem?
- 24.** Compare the three types of ecological pyramids and how well they describe ecosystem structure. Identify which ones can be inverted and give an example of an inverted pyramid for each.
- 25.** How does the amount of food a warm blooded-animal (endotherm) eats relate to its net production efficiency (NPE)?
- 26.** Describe nitrogen fixation and why it is important to agriculture.
- 27.** What are the factors that cause dead zones? Describe eutrophication, in particular, as a cause.
- 28.** Why are drinking water supplies still a major concern for many countries?

47 | CONSERVATION BIOLOGY AND BIODIVERSITY

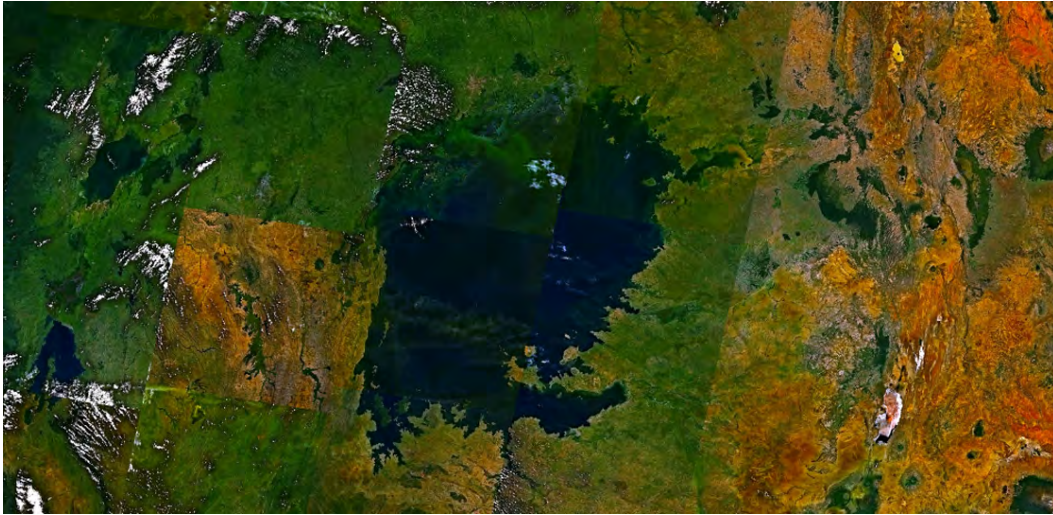


Figure 47.1 Lake Victoria in Africa, shown in this satellite image, was the site of one of the most extraordinary evolutionary findings on the planet, as well as a casualty of devastating biodiversity loss. (credit: modification of work by Rishabh Tatiraju, using NASA World Wind software)

Chapter Outline

47.1: The Biodiversity Crisis

47.2: The Importance of Biodiversity to Human Life

47.3: Threats to Biodiversity

47.4: Preserving Biodiversity

Introduction

In the 1980s, biologists working in Lake Victoria in Africa discovered one of the most extraordinary products of evolution on the planet. Located in the Great Rift Valley, Lake Victoria is a large lake about 68,900 km² in area (larger than Lake Huron, the second largest of North America's Great Lakes). Biologists were studying species of a family of fish called cichlids. They found that as they sampled for fish in different locations of the lake, they never stopped finding new species, and they identified nearly 500 evolved types of cichlids. But while studying these variations, they quickly discovered that the invasive Nile Perch was destroying the lake's cichlid population, bringing hundreds of cichlid species to extinction with devastating rapidity.

47.1 | The Biodiversity Crisis

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define biodiversity
- Describe biodiversity as the equilibrium of naturally fluctuating rates of extinction and speciation
- Identify historical causes of high extinction rates in Earth's history

Traditionally, ecologists have measured **biodiversity**, a general term for the variety present in the biosphere, by taking into account both the number of species and their commonness. Biodiversity can be estimated at a number of levels of organization of living things. These estimation indexes, which came from information theory, are most useful as a first step in quantifying biodiversity between and within ecosystems; they are less useful when the main concern among conservation biologists is simply the loss of biodiversity. However, biologists recognize that measures of biodiversity, in terms of species diversity, may help focus efforts to preserve the biologically or technologically important elements of biodiversity.

The Lake Victoria cichlids provide an example through which we can begin to understand biodiversity. The biologists studying cichlids in the 1980s discovered hundreds of cichlid species representing a variety of specializations to particular habitat types and specific feeding strategies: eating plankton floating in the water, scraping and then eating algae from rocks, eating insect larvae from the bottom, and eating the eggs of other species of cichlid. The cichlids of Lake Victoria are the product of an **adaptive radiation**. An adaptive radiation is a rapid (less than three million years in the case of the Lake Victoria cichlids) branching through speciation of a phylogenetic tree into many closely related species; typically, the species “radiate” into different habitats and niches. The Galápagos finches are an example of a modest adaptive radiation with 15 species. The cichlids of Lake Victoria are an example of a spectacular adaptive radiation that includes about 500 species.

At the time biologists were making this discovery, some species began to quickly disappear. A culprit in these declines was a species of large fish that was introduced to Lake Victoria by fisheries to feed the people living around the lake. The Nile perch was introduced in 1963, but lay low until the 1980s when its populations began to surge. The Nile perch population grew by consuming cichlids, driving species after species to the point of **extinction** (the disappearance of a species). In fact, there were several factors that played a role in the extinction of perhaps 200 cichlid species in Lake Victoria: the Nile perch, declining lake water quality due to agriculture and land clearing on the shores of Lake Victoria, and increased fishing pressure. Scientists had not even catalogued all of the species present—so many were lost that were never named. The diversity is now a shadow of what it once was.

The cichlids of Lake Victoria are a thumbnail sketch of contemporary rapid species loss that occurs all over Earth and is caused by human activity. Extinction is a natural process of macroevolution that occurs at the rate of about one out of 1 million species becoming extinct per year. The fossil record reveals that there have been five periods of mass extinction in history with much higher rates of species loss, and the rate of species loss today is comparable to those periods of mass extinction. However, there is a major difference between the previous mass extinctions and the current extinction we are experiencing: human activity. Specifically, three human activities have a major impact: destruction of habitat, introduction of exotic species, and over-harvesting. Predictions of species loss within the next century, a tiny amount of time on geological timescales, range from 10 percent to 50 percent. Extinctions on this scale have only happened five other times in the history of the planet, and they have been caused by cataclysmic events that changed the course of the history of life in each instance. Earth is now in one of those times.

Types of Biodiversity

Scientists generally accept that the term biodiversity describes the number and kinds of species in a location or on the planet. Species can be difficult to define, but most biologists still feel comfortable with the concept and are able to identify and count eukaryotic species in most contexts. Biologists have also identified alternate measures of biodiversity, some of which are important for planning how to preserve biodiversity.

Genetic diversity is one of those alternate concepts. Genetic diversity or variation is the raw material for adaptation in a species. A species' future potential for adaptation depends on the genetic diversity held in the genomes of the individuals in populations that make up the species. The same is true for higher taxonomic categories. A genus with very different types of species will have more genetic diversity than

a genus with species that look alike and have similar ecologies. If there were a choice between one of these genera of species being preserved, the one with the greatest potential for subsequent evolution is the most genetically diverse one. It would be ideal not to have to make such choices, but increasingly this may be the norm.

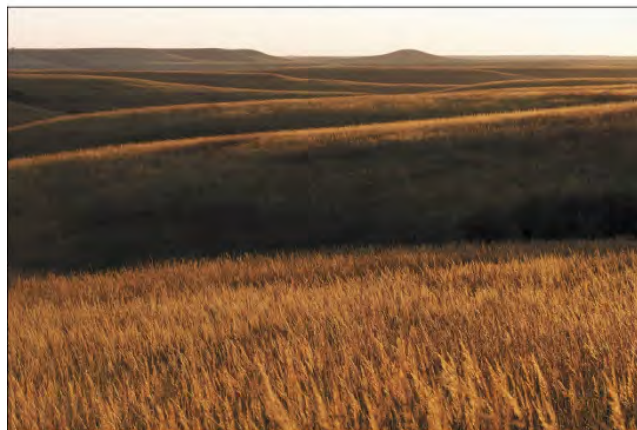
Many genes code for proteins, which in turn carry out the metabolic processes that keep organisms alive and reproducing. Genetic diversity can be measured as **chemical diversity** in that different species produce a variety of chemicals in their cells, both the proteins as well as the products and byproducts of metabolism. This chemical diversity has potential benefit for humans as a source of pharmaceuticals, so it provides one way to measure diversity that is important to human health and welfare.

Humans have generated diversity in domestic animals, plants, and fungi. This diversity is also suffering losses because of migration, market forces, and increasing globalism in agriculture, especially in heavily populated regions such as China, India, and Japan. The human population directly depends on this diversity as a stable food source, and its decline is troubling biologists and agricultural scientists.

It is also useful to define **ecosystem diversity**, meaning the number of different ecosystems on the planet or in a given geographic area (**Figure 47.2**). Whole ecosystems can disappear even if some of the species might survive by adapting to other ecosystems. The loss of an ecosystem means the loss of interactions between species, the loss of unique features of coadaptation, and the loss of biological productivity that an ecosystem is able to create. An example of a largely extinct ecosystem in North America is the prairie ecosystem. Prairies once spanned central North America from the boreal forest in northern Canada down into Mexico. They are now all but gone, replaced by crop fields, pasture lands, and suburban sprawl. Many of the species survive, but the hugely productive ecosystem that was responsible for creating the most productive agricultural soils is now gone. As a consequence, soils are disappearing or must be maintained at greater expense.



(a)



(b)

Figure 47.2 The variety of ecosystems on Earth—from (a) coral reef to (b) prairie—enables a great diversity of species to exist. (credit a: modification of work by Jim Maragos, USFWS; credit b: modification of work by Jim Minnerath, USFWS)

Current Species Diversity

Despite considerable effort, knowledge of the species that inhabit the planet is limited. A recent estimate suggests that the eukaryote species for which science has names, about 1.5 million species, account for less than 20 percent of the total number of eukaryote species present on the planet (8.7 million species, by one estimate). Estimates of numbers of prokaryotic species are largely guesses, but biologists agree that science has only begun to catalog their diversity. Even with what is known, there is no central repository of names or samples of the described species; therefore, there is no way to be sure that the 1.5 million descriptions is an accurate number. It is a best guess based on the opinions of experts in different taxonomic groups. Given that Earth is losing species at an accelerating pace, science is very much in the place it was with the Lake Victoria cichlids: knowing little about what is being lost. **Table 47.1** presents recent estimates of biodiversity in different groups.

Estimates of the Numbers of Described and Predicted Species by Taxonomic Group

	Mora et al. 2011 ^[1]		Chapman 2009 ^[2]		Groombridge & Jenkins 2002 ^[3]	
	Described	Predicted	Described	Predicted	Described	Predicted
Animalia	1,124,516	9,920,000	1,424,153	6,836,330	1,225,500	10,820,000
Chromista	17,892	34,900	25,044	200,500	—	—
Fungi	44,368	616,320	98,998	1,500,000	72,000	1,500,000
Plantae	224,244	314,600	310,129	390,800	270,000	320,000
Protozoa	16,236	72,800	28,871	1,000,000	80,000	600,000
Prokaryotes	—	—	10,307	1,000,000	10,175	—
Total	1,438,769	10,960,000	1,897,502	10,897,630	1,657,675	13,240,000

Table 47.1

There are various initiatives to catalog described species in accessible ways, and the internet is facilitating that effort. Nevertheless, it has been pointed out that at the current rate of species description, which according to the State of Observed Species Report is 17,000 to 20,000 new species per year, it will take close to 500 years to finish describing life on this planet.^[4] Over time, the task becomes both increasingly impossible and increasingly easier as extinction removes species from the planet.

Naming and counting species may seem an unimportant pursuit given the other needs of humanity, but it is not simply an accounting. Describing species is a complex process by which biologists determine an organism's unique characteristics and whether or not that organism belongs to any other described species. It allows biologists to find and recognize the species after the initial discovery, and allows them to follow up on questions about its biology. In addition, the unique characteristics of each species make it potentially valuable to humans or other species on which humans depend. Understanding these characteristics is the value of finding and naming species.

Patterns of Biodiversity

Biodiversity is not evenly distributed on Earth. Lake Victoria contained almost 500 species of cichlids alone, ignoring the other fish families present in the lake. All of these species were found only in Lake Victoria; therefore, the 500 species of cichlids were endemic. **Endemic species** are found in only one location. Endemics with highly restricted distributions are particularly vulnerable to extinction. Higher taxonomic levels, such as genera and families, can also be endemic. Lake Huron contains about 79 species of fish, all of which are found in many other lakes in North America. What accounts for the

1. Mora Camilo et al., "How Many Species Are There on Earth and in the Ocean?" *PLoS Biology* (2011), doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1001127.

2. Arthur D. Chapman, *Numbers of Living Species in Australia and the World*, 2nd ed. (Canberra, AU: Australian Biological Resources Study, 2009). <http://www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/abrs/publications/other/species-numbers/2009/pubs/nlsaw-2nd-complete.pdf>.

3. Brian Groombridge and Martin D. Jenkins. *World Atlas of Biodiversity: Earth's Living Resources in the 21st Century*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002.

4. International Institute for Species Exploration (IISE), *2011 State of Observed Species (SOS)*. Tempe, AZ: IISE, 2011. Accessed May, 20, 2012. <http://species.asu.edu/SOS>.

difference in fish diversity in these two lakes? Lake Victoria is a tropical lake, while Lake Huron is a temperate lake. Lake Huron in its present form is only about 7,000 years old, while Lake Victoria in its present form is about 15,000 years old. Biogeographers have suggested these two factors, latitude and age, are two of several hypotheses to explain biodiversity patterns on the planet.

career CONNECTION

Biogeographer

Biogeography is the study of the distribution of the world's species—both in the past and in the present. The work of biogeographers is critical to understanding our physical environment, how the environment affects species, and how environmental changes impact the distribution of a species; it has also been critical to developing evolutionary theory. Biogeographers need to understand both biology and ecology. They also need to be well-versed in evolutionary studies, soil science, and climatology.

There are three main fields of study under the heading of biogeography: ecological biogeography, historical biogeography (called paleobiogeography), and conservation biogeography. Ecological biogeography studies the current factors affecting the distribution of plants and animals. Historical biogeography, as the name implies, studies the past distribution of species. Conservation biogeography, on the other hand, is focused on the protection and restoration of species based upon known historical and current ecological information. Each of these fields considers both zoogeography and phytozoogeography—the past and present distribution of animals and plants.

One of the oldest observed patterns in ecology is that species biodiversity in almost every taxonomic group increases as latitude declines. In other words, biodiversity increases closer to the equator (**Figure 47.3**).

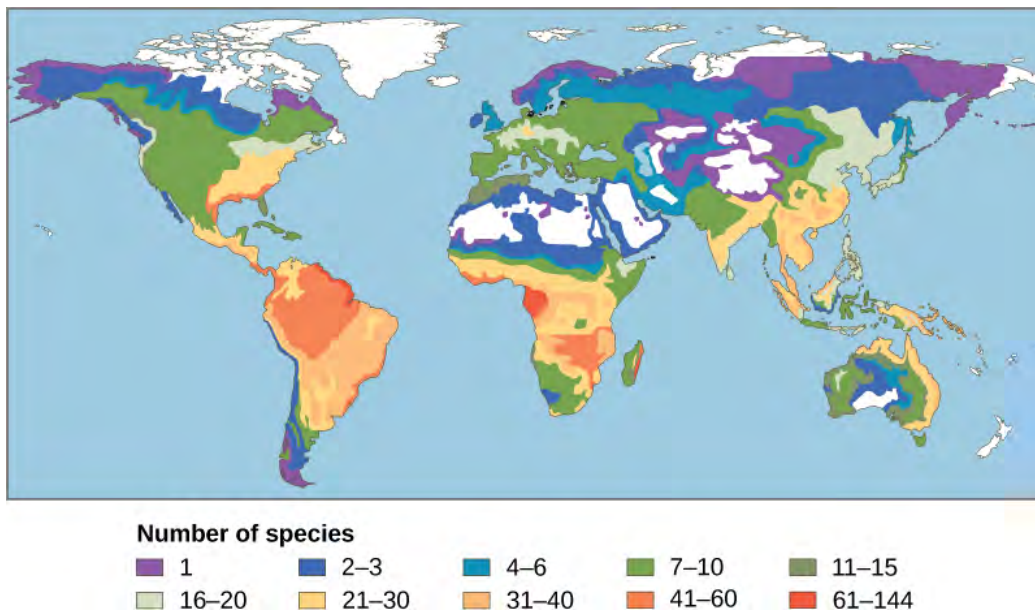


Figure 47.3 This map illustrates the number of amphibian species across the globe and shows the trend toward higher biodiversity at lower latitudes. A similar pattern is observed for most taxonomic groups.

It is not yet clear why biodiversity increases closer to the equator, but hypotheses include the greater age of the ecosystems in the tropics versus temperate regions that were largely devoid of life or drastically impoverished during the last glaciation. The idea is that greater age provides more time for speciation. Another possible explanation is the increased energy the tropics receive from the sun versus the decreased energy that temperate and polar regions receive. It is not entirely clear how greater energy input could translate into more species. The complexity of tropical ecosystems may promote speciation by increasing the **heterogeneity**, or number of ecological niches, in the tropics relative to

higher latitudes. The greater heterogeneity provides more opportunities for coevolution, specialization, and perhaps greater selection pressures leading to population differentiation. However, this hypothesis suffers from some circularity—ecosystems with more species encourage speciation, but how did they get more species to begin with? The tropics have been perceived as being more stable than temperate regions, which have a pronounced climate and day-length seasonality. The tropics have their own forms of seasonality, such as rainfall, but they are generally assumed to be more stable environments and this stability might promote speciation.

Regardless of the mechanisms, it is certainly true that all levels of biodiversity are greatest in the tropics. Additionally, the rate of endemism is highest, and there are more biodiversity hotspots. However, this richness of diversity also means that knowledge of species is lowest, and there is a high potential for biodiversity loss.

Conservation of Biodiversity

In 1988, British environmentalist Norman Myers developed a conservation concept to identify areas rich in species and at significant risk for species loss: biodiversity hotspots. **Biodiversity hotspots** are geographical areas that contain high numbers of endemic species. The purpose of the concept was to identify important locations on the planet for conservation efforts, a kind of conservation triage. By protecting hotspots, governments are able to protect a larger number of species. The original criteria for a hotspot included the presence of 1500 or more endemic plant species and 70 percent of the area disturbed by human activity. There are now 34 biodiversity hotspots (**Figure 47.4**) containing large numbers of endemic species, which include half of Earth's endemic plants.

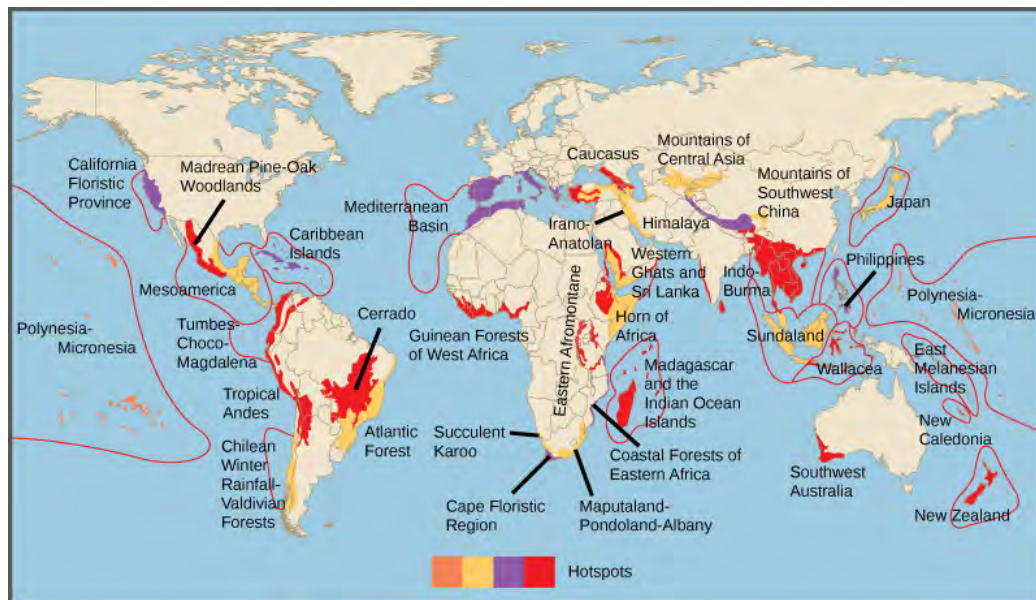


Figure 47.4 Conservation International has identified 34 biodiversity hotspots, which cover only 2.3 percent of the Earth's surface but have endemic to them 42 percent of the terrestrial vertebrate species and 50 percent of the world's plants.

Biodiversity Change through Geological Time

The number of species on the planet, or in any geographical area, is the result of an equilibrium of two evolutionary processes that are ongoing: speciation and extinction. Both are natural “birth” and “death” processes of macroevolution. When speciation rates begin to outstrip extinction rates, the number of species will increase; likewise, the number of species will decrease when extinction rates begin to overtake speciation rates. Throughout Earth's history, these two processes have fluctuated—sometimes leading to dramatic changes in the number of species on Earth as reflected in the fossil record (**Figure 47.5**).

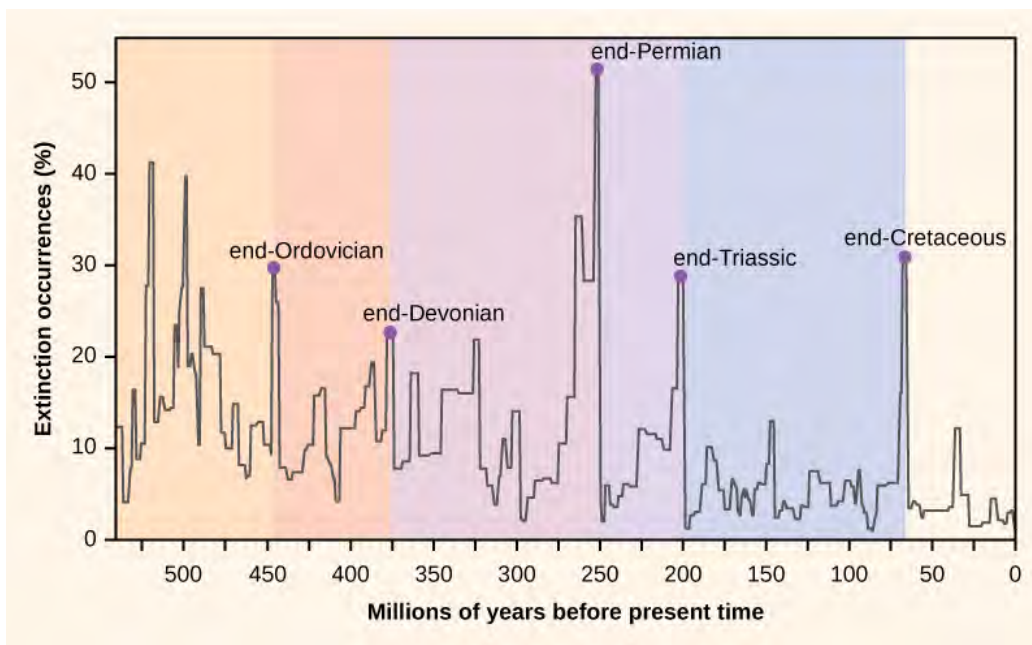


Figure 47.5 Percent extinction occurrences as reflected in the fossil record have fluctuated throughout Earth's history. Sudden and dramatic losses of biodiversity, called mass extinctions, have occurred five times.

Paleontologists have identified five strata in the fossil record that appear to show sudden and dramatic (greater than half of all extant species disappearing from the fossil record) losses in biodiversity. These are called mass extinctions. There are many lesser, yet still dramatic, extinction events, but the five mass extinctions have attracted the most research. An argument can be made that the five mass extinctions are only the five most extreme events in a continuous series of large extinction events throughout the Phanerozoic (since 542 million years ago). In most cases, the hypothesized causes are still controversial; however, the most recent event seems clear.

The Five Mass Extinctions

The fossil record of the mass extinctions was the basis for defining periods of geological history, so they typically occur at the transition point between geological periods. The transition in fossils from one period to another reflects the dramatic loss of species and the gradual origin of new species. These transitions can be seen in the rock strata. **Table 47.2** provides data on the five mass extinctions.

Mass Extinctions

Geological Period	Mass Extinction Name	Time (millions of years ago)
Ordovician–Silurian	end-Ordovician O–S	450–440
Late Devonian	end-Devonian	375–360
Permian–Triassic	end-Permian	251
Triassic–Jurassic	end-Triassic	205
Cretaceous–Paleogene	end-Cretaceous K–Pg (K–T)	65.5

Table 47.2 This table shows the names and dates for the five mass extinctions in Earth's history.

The Ordovician-Silurian extinction event is the first recorded mass extinction and the second largest. During this period, about 85 percent of marine species (few species lived outside the oceans) became extinct. The main hypothesis for its cause is a period of glaciation and then warming. The extinction event actually consists of two extinction events separated by about 1 million years. The first event was caused by cooling, and the second event was due to the subsequent warming. The climate changes affected temperatures and sea levels. Some researchers have suggested that a gamma-ray burst, caused by a nearby supernova, is a possible cause of the Ordovician-Silurian extinction. The gamma-ray burst would have stripped away the Earth's ozone layer causing intense ultraviolet radiation from the sun and

may account for climate changes observed at the time. The hypothesis is speculative, but extraterrestrial influences on Earth's history are an active line of research. Recovery of biodiversity after the mass extinction took from 5 to 20 million years, depending on the location.

The late Devonian extinction may have occurred over a relatively long period of time. It appears to have affected marine species and not the plants or animals inhabiting terrestrial habitats. The causes of this extinction are poorly understood.

The end-Permian extinction was the largest in the history of life. Indeed, an argument could be made that Earth nearly became devoid of life during this extinction event. The planet looked very different before and after this event. Estimates are that 96 percent of all marine species and 70 percent of all terrestrial species were lost. It was at this time, for example, that the trilobites, a group that survived the Ordovician–Silurian extinction, became extinct. The causes for this mass extinction are not clear, but the leading suspect is extended and widespread volcanic activity that led to a runaway global-warming event. The oceans became largely anoxic, suffocating marine life. Terrestrial tetrapod diversity took 30 million years to recover after the end-Permian extinction. The Permian extinction dramatically altered Earth's biodiversity makeup and the course of evolution.

The causes of the Triassic–Jurassic extinction event are not clear and hypotheses of climate change, asteroid impact, and volcanic eruptions have been argued. The extinction event occurred just before the breakup of the supercontinent Pangaea, although recent scholarship suggests that the extinctions may have occurred more gradually throughout the Triassic.

The causes of the end-Cretaceous extinction event are the ones that are best understood. It was during this extinction event about 65 million years ago that the dinosaurs, the dominant vertebrate group for millions of years, disappeared from the planet (with the exception of a theropod clade that gave rise to birds). Indeed, every land animal that weighed more than 25 kg became extinct. The cause of this extinction is now understood to be the result of a cataclysmic impact of a large meteorite, or asteroid, off the coast of what is now the Yucatán Peninsula. This hypothesis, proposed first in 1980, was a radical explanation based on a sharp spike in the levels of iridium (which rains down from space in meteors at a fairly constant rate but is otherwise absent on Earth's surface) at the rock stratum that marks the boundary between the Cretaceous and Paleogene periods (**Figure 47.6**). This boundary marked the disappearance of the dinosaurs in fossils as well as many other taxa. The researchers who discovered the iridium spike interpreted it as a rapid influx of iridium from space to the atmosphere (in the form of a large asteroid) rather than a slowing in the deposition of sediments during that period. It was a radical explanation, but the report of an appropriately aged and sized impact crater in 1991 made the hypothesis more believable. Now an abundance of geological evidence supports the theory. Recovery times for biodiversity after the end-Cretaceous extinction are shorter, in geological time, than for the end-Permian extinction, on the order of 10 million years.

art CONNECTION



Figure 47.6 In 1980, Luis and Walter Alvarez, Frank Asaro, and Helen Michels discovered, across the world, a spike in the concentration of iridium within the sedimentary layer at the K–Pg boundary. These researchers hypothesized that this iridium spike was caused by an asteroid impact that resulted in the K–Pg mass extinction. In the photo, the iridium layer is the light band. (credit: USGS)

Scientists measured the relative abundance of fern spores above and below the K–Pg boundary in this rock sample. Which of the following statements most likely represents their findings?

- An abundance of fern spores from several species was found below the K–Pg boundary, but none was found above.
- An abundance of fern spores from several species was found above the K–Pg boundary, but none was found below.
- An abundance of fern spores was found both above and below the K–Pg boundary, but only one species was found below the boundary, and many species were found above the boundary.
- Many species of fern spores were found both above and below the boundary, but the total number of spores was greater below the boundary.

LINK TO LEARNING



Explore this **interactive website** (<http://openstaxcollege.org/l/extinctions>) about mass extinctions.

The Pleistocene Extinction

The Pleistocene Extinction is one of the lesser extinctions, and a recent one. It is well known that the North American, and to some degree Eurasian, **megafauna**, or large animals, disappeared toward the end of the last glaciation period. The extinction appears to have happened in a relatively restricted time period of 10,000–12,000 years ago. In North America, the losses were quite dramatic and included the woolly mammoths (last dated about 4,000 years ago in an isolated population), mastodon, giant beavers, giant ground sloths, saber-toothed cats, and the North American camel, just to name a few. The possibility that the rapid extinction of these large animals was caused by over-hunting was first suggested in the 1900s. Research into this hypothesis continues today. It seems likely that over-hunting caused many pre-written history extinctions in many regions of the world.

In general, the timing of the Pleistocene extinctions correlated with the arrival of humans and not with climate-change events, which is the main competing hypothesis for these extinctions. The extinctions began in Australia about 40,000 to 50,000 years ago, just after the arrival of humans in the area: a marsupial lion, a giant one-ton wombat, and several giant kangaroo species disappeared. In North America, the extinctions of almost all of the large mammals occurred 10,000–12,000 years ago. All that are left are the smaller mammals such as bears, elk, moose, and cougars. Finally, on many remote oceanic islands, the extinctions of many species occurred coincident with human arrivals. Not all of the islands had large animals, but when there were large animals, they were lost. Madagascar was colonized about 2,000 years ago and the large mammals that lived there became extinct. Eurasia and Africa do not show this pattern, but they also did not experience a recent arrival of humans. Humans arrived in Eurasia hundreds of thousands of years ago after the origin of the species in Africa. This topic remains an area of active research and hypothesizing. It seems clear that even if climate played a role, in most cases human hunting precipitated the extinctions.

Present-Time Extinctions

The sixth, or Holocene, mass extinction appears to have begun earlier than previously believed and has mostly to do with the activities of *Homo sapiens*. Since the beginning of the Holocene period, there are numerous recent extinctions of individual species that are recorded in human writings. Most of these are coincident with the expansion of the European colonies since the 1500s.

One of the earlier and popularly known examples is the dodo bird. The dodo bird lived in the forests of Mauritius, an island in the Indian Ocean. The dodo bird became extinct around 1662. It was hunted for its meat by sailors and was easy prey because the dodo, which did not evolve with humans, would approach people without fear. Introduced pigs, rats, and dogs brought to the island by European ships also killed dodo young and eggs.

Steller's sea cow became extinct in 1768; it was related to the manatee and probably once lived along the northwest coast of North America. Steller's sea cow was first discovered by Europeans in 1741 and was hunted for meat and oil. The last sea cow was killed in 1768. That amounts to 27 years between the sea cow's first contact with Europeans and extinction of the species.

In 1914, the last living passenger pigeon died in a zoo in Cincinnati, Ohio. This species had once darkened the skies of North America during its migrations, but it was hunted and suffered from habitat loss through the clearing of forests for farmland. In 1918, the last living Carolina parakeet died in captivity. This species was once common in the eastern United States, but it suffered from habitat loss. The species was also hunted because it ate orchard fruit when its native foods were destroyed to make way for farmland. The Japanese sea lion, which inhabited a broad area around Japan and the coast of Korea, became extinct in the 1950s due to fishermen. The Caribbean monk seal was distributed throughout the Caribbean Sea but was driven to extinction via hunting by 1952.

These are only a few of the recorded extinctions in the past 500 years. The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) keeps a list of extinct and endangered species called the Red List. The list is not complete, but it describes 380 extinct species of vertebrates after 1500 AD, 86 of which were driven extinct by overhunting or overfishing.

Estimates of Present-Time Extinction Rates

Estimates of **extinction rates** are hampered by the fact that most extinctions are probably happening without observation. The extinction of a bird or mammal is likely to be noticed by humans, especially if it has been hunted or used in some other way. But there are many organisms that are of less interest to humans (not necessarily of less value) and many that are undescribed.

The background extinction rate is estimated to be about one per million species per year (E/MSY). For example, assuming there are about ten million species in existence, the expectation is that ten species would become extinct each year (each year represents ten million species per year).

One contemporary extinction rate estimate uses the extinctions in the written record since the year 1500. For birds alone this method yields an estimate of 26 E/MSY. However, this value may be underestimated for three reasons. First, many species would not have been described until much later in the time period, so their loss would have gone unnoticed. Second, the number of recently extinct species is increasing because extinct species now are being described from skeletal remains. And third, some species are probably already extinct even though conservationists are reluctant to name them as such. Taking these factors into account raises the estimated extinction rate closer to 100 E/MSY. The predicted rate by the end of the century is 1500 E/MSY.

A second approach to estimating present-time extinction rates is to correlate species loss with habitat loss by measuring forest-area loss and understanding species-area relationships. The **species-area relationship** is the rate at which new species are seen when the area surveyed is increased. Studies have

shown that the number of species present increases as the size of the island increases. This phenomenon has also been shown to hold true in other habitats as well. Turning this relationship around, if the habitat area is reduced, the number of species living there will also decline. Estimates of extinction rates based on habitat loss and species-area relationships have suggested that with about 90 percent habitat loss an expected 50 percent of species would become extinct. Species-area estimates have led to species extinction rate calculations of about 1000 E/MSY and higher. In general, actual observations do not show this amount of loss and suggestions have been made that there is a delay in extinction. Recent work has also called into question the applicability of the species-area relationship when estimating the loss of species. This work argues that the species-area relationship leads to an overestimate of extinction rates. A better relationship to use may be the endemics-area relationship. Using this method would bring estimates down to around 500 E/MSY in the coming century. Note that this value is still 500 times the background rate.

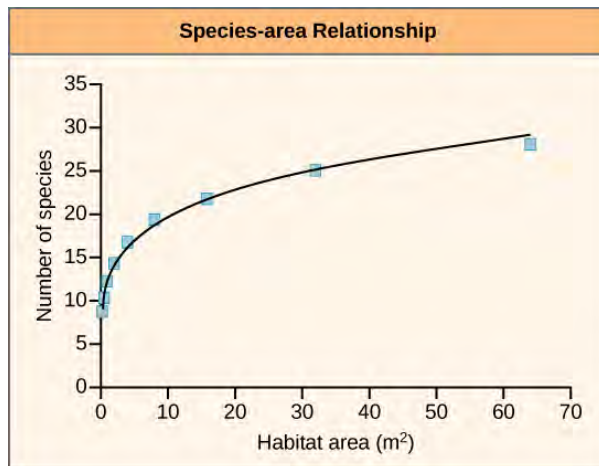


Figure 47.7 Studies have shown that the number of species present increases with the size of the habitat. (credit: modification of work by Adam B. Smith)



Check out this **interactive exploration** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/what_is_missing) of endangered and extinct species, their ecosystems, and the causes of the endangerment or extinction.

47.2 | The Importance of Biodiversity to Human Life

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify chemical diversity benefits to humans
- Identify biodiversity components that support human agriculture
- Describe ecosystem services

It may not be clear why biologists are concerned about biodiversity loss. When biodiversity loss is thought of as the extinction of the passenger pigeon, the dodo bird, and even the woolly mammoth, the loss may appear to be an emotional one. But is the loss practically important for the welfare of the human species? From the perspective of evolution and ecology, the loss of a particular individual species is unimportant (however, the loss of a keystone species can lead to ecological disaster). Extinction is a

normal part of macroevolution. But the accelerated extinction rate means the loss of tens of thousands of species within our lifetimes, and it is likely to have dramatic effects on human welfare through the collapse of ecosystems and in added costs to maintain food production, clean air and water, and human health.

Agriculture began after early hunter-gatherer societies first settled in one place and heavily modified their immediate environment. This cultural transition has made it difficult for humans to recognize their dependence on undomesticated living things on the planet. Biologists recognize the human species is embedded in ecosystems and is dependent on them, just as every other species on the planet is dependent. Technology smooths out the extremes of existence, but ultimately the human species cannot exist without its ecosystem.

Human Health

Contemporary societies that live close to the land often have a broad knowledge of the medicinal uses of plants growing in their area. Most plants produce **secondary plant compounds**, which are toxins used to protect the plant from insects and other animals that eat them, but some of which also work as medication. For centuries in Europe, older knowledge about the medical uses of plants was compiled in herbals—books that identified plants and their uses. Humans are not the only species to use plants for medicinal reasons: the great apes, orangutans, chimpanzees, bonobos, and gorillas have all been observed self-medicating with plants.

Modern pharmaceutical science also recognizes the importance of these plant compounds. Examples of significant medicines derived from plant compounds include aspirin, codeine, digoxin, atropine, and vincristine (**Figure 47.8**). Many medicines were once derived from plant extracts but are now synthesized. It is estimated that, at one time, 25 percent of modern drugs contained at least one plant extract. That number has probably decreased to about 10 percent as natural plant ingredients are replaced by synthetic versions. Antibiotics, which are responsible for extraordinary improvements in health and lifespans in developed countries, are compounds largely derived from fungi and bacteria.

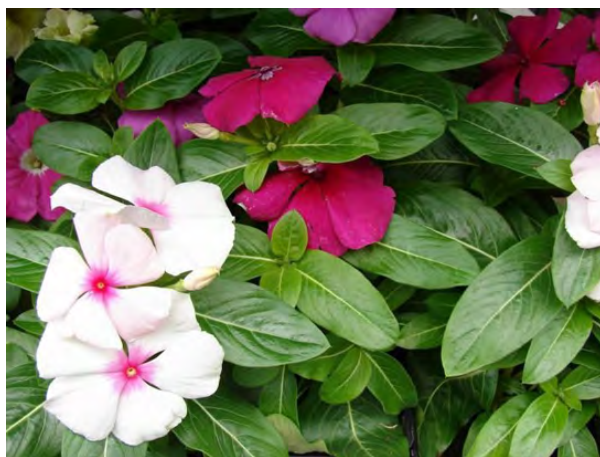


Figure 47.8 *Catharanthus roseus*, the Madagascar periwinkle, has various medicinal properties. Among other uses, it is a source of vincristine, a drug used in the treatment of lymphomas. (credit: Forest and Kim Starr)

In recent years, animal venoms and poisons have excited intense research for their medicinal potential. By 2007, the FDA had approved five drugs based on animal toxins to treat diseases such as hypertension, chronic pain, and diabetes. Another five drugs are undergoing clinical trials, and at least six drugs are being used in other countries. Other toxins under investigation come from mammals, snakes, lizards, various amphibians, fish, snails, octopuses, and scorpions.

Aside from representing billions of dollars in profits, these medicines improve people's lives. Pharmaceutical companies are actively looking for new compounds synthesized by living organisms that can function as medicine. It is estimated that 1/3 of pharmaceutical research and development is spent on natural compounds and that about 35 percent of new drugs brought to market between 1981 and 2002 were from natural compounds. The opportunities for new medications will be reduced in direct proportion to the disappearance of species.

Agricultural Diversity

Since the beginning of human agriculture more than 10,000 years ago, human groups have been breeding and selecting crop varieties. This crop diversity matched the cultural diversity of highly subdivided

populations of humans. For example, potatoes were domesticated beginning around 7,000 years ago in the central Andes of Peru and Bolivia. The potatoes grown in that region belong to seven species and the number of varieties likely is in the thousands. Each variety has been bred to thrive at particular elevations and soil and climate conditions. The diversity is driven by the diverse demands of the topography, the limited movement of people, and the demands created by crop rotation for different varieties that will do well in different fields.

Potatoes are only one example of human-generated diversity. Every plant, animal, and fungus that has been cultivated by humans has been bred from original wild ancestor species into diverse varieties arising from the demands for food value, adaptation to growing conditions, and resistance to pests. The potato demonstrates a well-known example of the risks of low crop diversity: the tragic Irish potato famine when the single variety grown in Ireland became susceptible to a potato blight, wiping out the crop. The loss of the crop led to famine, death, and mass emigration. Resistance to disease is a chief benefit to maintaining crop biodiversity, and lack of diversity in contemporary crop species carries similar risks. Seed companies, which are the source of most crop varieties in developed countries, must continually breed new varieties to keep up with evolving pest organisms. These same seed companies, however, have participated in the decline of the number of varieties available as they focus on selling fewer varieties in more areas of the world.

The ability to create new crop varieties relies on the diversity of varieties available and the accessibility of wild forms related to the crop plant. These wild forms are often the source of new gene variants that can be bred with existing varieties to create varieties with new attributes. Loss of wild species related to a crop will mean the loss of potential in crop improvement. Maintaining the genetic diversity of wild species related to domesticated species ensures our continued food supply.

Since the 1920s, government agriculture departments have maintained seed banks of crop varieties as a way to maintain crop diversity. This system has flaws because, over time, seed banks are lost through accidents, and there is no way to replace them. In 2008, the Svalbard Global Seed Vault (**Figure 47.9**) began storing seeds from around the world as a backup system to the regional seed banks. If a regional seed bank stores varieties in Svalbard, losses can be replaced from Svalbard. The seed vault is located deep into the rock of an arctic island. Conditions within the vault are maintained at ideal temperature and humidity for seed survival, but the deep underground location of the vault in the arctic means that failure of the vault's systems will not compromise the climatic conditions inside the vault.

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Figure 47.9 The Svalbard Global Seed Vault is a storage facility for seeds of Earth's diverse crops. (credit: Mari Tefre, Svalbard Global Seed Vault)

The Svalbard Global Seed Vault is located on Spitsbergen island in Norway, which has an arctic climate. Why might an arctic climate be good for seed storage?

Crop success is largely dependent on the quality of the soil. Although some agricultural soils are rendered sterile using controversial cultivation and chemical treatments, most contain a huge diversity of organisms that maintain nutrient cycles—breaking down organic matter into nutrient compounds

that crops need for growth. These organisms also maintain soil texture that affects water and oxygen dynamics in the soil that are necessary for plant growth. If farmers had to maintain arable soil using alternate means, the cost of food would be much higher than it is now. These kinds of processes are called ecosystem services. They occur within ecosystems, such as soil ecosystems, as a result of the diverse metabolic activities of the organisms living there, but they provide benefits to human food production, drinking water availability, and breathable air.

Other key ecosystem services related to food production are plant pollination and crop pest control. Over 150 crops in the United States require pollination to produce. One estimate of the benefit of honeybee pollination within the United States is \$1.6 billion per year; other pollinators contribute up to \$6.7 billion more.

Many honeybee populations are managed by apiarists who rent out their hives' services to farmers. Honeybee populations in North America have been suffering large losses caused by a syndrome known as colony collapse disorder, whose cause is unclear. Other pollinators include a diverse array of other bee species and various insects and birds. Loss of these species would make growing crops requiring pollination impossible, increasing dependence on other crops.

Finally, humans compete for their food with crop pests, most of which are insects. Pesticides control these competitors; however, pesticides are costly and lose their effectiveness over time as pest populations adapt. They also lead to collateral damage by killing non-pest species and risking the health of consumers and agricultural workers. Ecologists believe that the bulk of the work in removing pests is actually done by predators and parasites of those pests, but the impact has not been well studied. A review found that in 74 percent of studies that looked for an effect of landscape complexity on natural enemies of pests, the greater the complexity, the greater the effect of pest-suppressing organisms. An experimental study found that introducing multiple enemies of pea aphids (an important alfalfa pest) increased the yield of alfalfa significantly. This study shows the importance of landscape diversity via the question of whether a diversity of pests is more effective at control than one single pest; the results showed this to be the case. Loss of diversity in pest enemies will inevitably make it more difficult and costly to grow food.

Wild Food Sources

In addition to growing crops and raising animals for food, humans obtain food resources from wild populations, primarily fish populations. For approximately 1 billion people, aquatic resources provide the main source of animal protein. But since 1990, global fish production has declined. Despite considerable effort, few fisheries on the planet are managed for sustainability.

Fishery extinctions rarely lead to complete extinction of the harvested species, but rather to a radical restructuring of the marine ecosystem in which a dominant species is so over-harvested that it becomes a minor player, ecologically. In addition to humans losing the food source, these alterations affect many other species in ways that are difficult or impossible to predict. The collapse of fisheries has dramatic and long-lasting effects on local populations that work in the fishery. In addition, the loss of an inexpensive protein source to populations that cannot afford to replace it will increase the cost of living and limit societies in other ways. In general, the fish taken from fisheries have shifted to smaller species as larger species are fished to extinction. The ultimate outcome could clearly be the loss of aquatic systems as food sources.



View a **brief video** (http://openstaxcollege.org//declining_fish) discussing declining fish stocks.

Psychological and Moral Value

Finally, it has been argued that humans benefit psychologically from living in a biodiverse world. A chief proponent of this idea is entomologist E. O. Wilson. He argues that human evolutionary history has adapted us to live in a natural environment and that built environments generate stressors that affect

human health and well-being. There is considerable research into the psychological regenerative benefits of natural landscapes that suggests the hypothesis may hold some truth. In addition, there is a moral argument that humans have a responsibility to inflict as little harm as possible on other species.

47.3 | Threats to Biodiversity

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify significant threats to biodiversity
- Explain the effects of habitat loss, exotic species, and hunting on biodiversity
- Identify the early and predicted effects of climate change on biodiversity

The core threat to biodiversity on the planet, and therefore a threat to human welfare, is the combination of human population growth and resource exploitation. The human population requires resources to survive and grow, and those resources are being removed unsustainably from the environment. The three greatest proximate threats to biodiversity are habitat loss, overharvesting, and introduction of exotic species. The first two of these are a direct result of human population growth and resource use. The third results from increased mobility and trade. A fourth major cause of extinction, anthropogenic climate change, has not yet had a large impact, but it is predicted to become significant during this century. Global climate change is also a consequence of human population needs for energy and the use of fossil fuels to meet those needs (**Figure 47.10**). Environmental issues, such as toxic pollution, have specific targeted effects on species, but they are not generally seen as threats at the magnitude of the others.

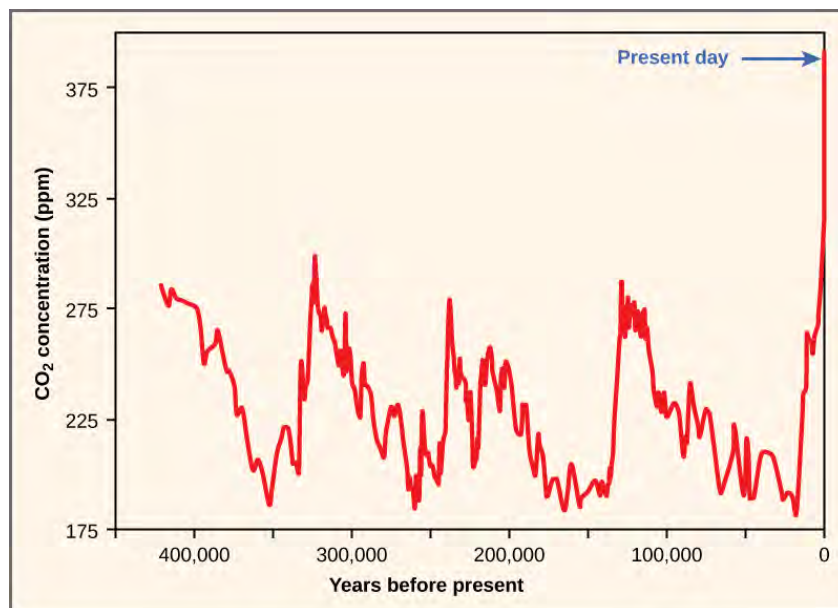


Figure 47.10 Atmospheric carbon dioxide levels fluctuate in a cyclical manner. However, the burning of fossil fuels in recent history has caused a dramatic increase in the levels of carbon dioxide in the Earth's atmosphere, which have now reached levels never before seen in human history. Scientists predict that the addition of this “greenhouse gas” to the atmosphere is resulting in climate change that will significantly impact biodiversity in the coming century.

Habitat Loss

Humans rely on technology to modify their environment and replace certain functions that were once performed by the natural ecosystem. Other species cannot do this. Elimination of their ecosystem—whether it is a forest, a desert, a grassland, a freshwater estuarine, or a marine environment—will kill the individuals in the species. Remove the entire habitat within the range of a species and, unless they are one of the few species that do well in human-built environments, the species will become extinct. Human destruction of habitats accelerated in the latter half of the twentieth century. Consider the exceptional biodiversity of Sumatra: it is home to one species of orangutan, a species of critically endangered elephant, and the Sumatran tiger, but half of Sumatra's forest is now gone. The neighboring island of Borneo, home to the other species of orangutan, has lost a similar area of forest.

Forest loss continues in protected areas of Borneo. The orangutan in Borneo is listed as endangered by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), but it is simply the most visible of thousands of species that will not survive the disappearance of the forests of Borneo. The forests are removed for timber and to plant palm oil plantations (Figure 47.11). Palm oil is used in many products including food products, cosmetics, and biodiesel in Europe. A five-year estimate of global forest cover loss for the years 2000–2005 was 3.1 percent. In the humid tropics where forest loss is primarily from timber extraction, 272,000 km² was lost out of a global total of 11,564,000 km² (or 2.4 percent). In the tropics, these losses certainly also represent the extinction of species because of high levels of endemism.

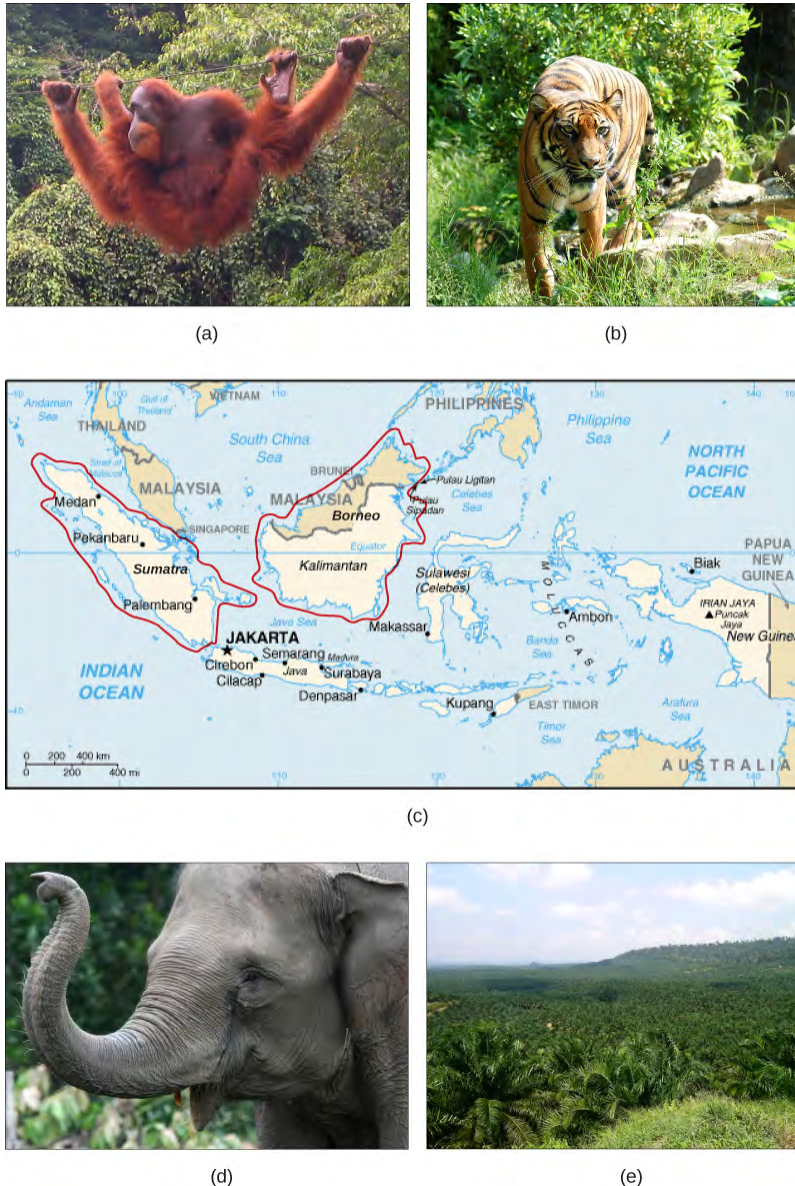


Figure 47.11 (a) One species of orangutan, *Pongo pygmaeus*, is found only in the rainforests of Borneo, and the other species of orangutan (*Pongo abelii*) is found only in the rainforests of Sumatra. These animals are examples of the exceptional biodiversity of (c) the islands of Sumatra and Borneo. Other species include the (b) Sumatran tiger (*Panthera tigris sumatrae*) and the (d) Sumatran elephant (*Elephas maximus sumatranus*), both critically endangered species. Rainforest habitat is being removed to make way for (e) oil palm plantations such as this one in Borneo's Sabah Province. (credit a: modification of work by Thorsten Bachner; credit b: modification of work by Dick Mudde; credit c: modification of work by U.S. CIA World Factbook; credit d: modification of work by "Nonprofit Organizations"/Flickr; credit e: modification of work by Dr. Lian Pin Koh)

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Preventing Habitat Destruction with Wise Wood Choices

Most consumers do not imagine that the home improvement products they buy might be contributing to habitat loss and species extinctions. Yet the market for illegally harvested tropical timber is huge, and the wood products often find themselves in building supply stores in the United States. One estimate is that 10 percent of the imported timber stream in the United States, which is the world's largest consumer of wood products, is potentially illegally logged. In 2006, this amounted to \$3.6 billion in wood products. Most of the illegal products are imported from countries that act as intermediaries and are not the originators of the wood.

How is it possible to determine if a wood product, such as flooring, was harvested sustainably or even legally? The Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) certifies sustainably harvested forest products, therefore, looking for their certification on flooring and other hardwood products is one way to ensure that the wood has not been taken illegally from a tropical forest. Certification applies to specific products, not to a producer; some producers' products may not have certification while other products are certified. While there are other industry-backed certifications other than the FSC, these are unreliable due to lack of independence from the industry. Another approach is to buy domestic wood species. While it would be great if there was a list of legal versus illegal wood products, it is not that simple. Logging and forest management laws vary from country to country; what is illegal in one country may be legal in another. Where and how a product is harvested and whether the forest from which it comes is being maintained sustainably all factor into whether a wood product will be certified by the FSC. It is always a good idea to ask questions about where a wood product came from and how the supplier knows that it was harvested legally.

Habitat destruction can affect ecosystems other than forests. Rivers and streams are important ecosystems and are frequently modified through land development and from damming or water removal. Damming of rivers affects the water flow and access to all parts of a river. Differing flow regimes can reduce or eliminate populations that are adapted to these changes in flow patterns. For example, an estimated 91 percent of river lengths in the United States have been developed: they have modifications like dams, to create energy or store water; levees, to prevent flooding; or dredging or rerouting, to create land that is more suitable for human development. Many fish species in the United States, especially rare species or species with restricted distributions, have seen declines caused by river damming and habitat loss. Research has confirmed that species of amphibians that must carry out parts of their life cycles in both aquatic and terrestrial habitats have a greater chance of suffering population declines and extinction because of the increased likelihood that one of their habitats or access between them will be lost.

Overharvesting

Overharvesting is a serious threat to many species, but particularly to aquatic species. There are many examples of regulated commercial fisheries monitored by fisheries scientists that have nevertheless collapsed. The western Atlantic cod fishery is the most spectacular recent collapse. While it was a hugely productive fishery for 400 years, the introduction of modern factory trawlers in the 1980s and the pressure on the fishery led to it becoming unsustainable. The causes of fishery collapse are both economic and political in nature. Most fisheries are managed as a common (shared) resource even when the fishing territory lies within a country's territorial waters. Common resources are subject to an economic pressure known as the **tragedy of the commons** in which essentially no fisher has a motivation to exercise restraint in harvesting a fishery when it is not owned by that fisher. The natural outcome of harvests of resources held in common is their overexploitation. While large fisheries are regulated to attempt to avoid this pressure, it still exists in the background. This overexploitation is exacerbated when access to the fishery is open and unregulated and when technology gives fishers the ability to overfish. In a few fisheries, the biological growth of the resource is less than the potential growth of the profits made from fishing if that time and money were invested elsewhere. In these cases—whales are an example—economic forces will always drive toward fishing the population to extinction.



Explore a U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service **interactive map** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/habitat_map) of critical habitat for endangered and threatened species in the United States. To begin, select “Visit the online mapper.”

For the most part, fishery extinction is not equivalent to biological extinction—the last fish of a species is rarely fished out of the ocean. At the same time, fishery extinction is still harmful to fish species and their ecosystems. There are some instances in which true extinction is a possibility. Whales have slow-growing populations and are at risk of complete extinction through hunting. There are some species of sharks with restricted distributions that are at risk of extinction. The groupers are another population of generally slow-growing fishes that, in the Caribbean, includes a number of species that are at risk of extinction from overfishing.

Coral reefs are extremely diverse marine ecosystems that face peril from several processes. Reefs are home to 1/3 of the world’s marine fish species—about 4,000 species—despite making up only 1 percent of marine habitat. Most home marine aquaria are stocked with wild-caught organisms, not cultured organisms. Although no species is known to have been driven extinct by the pet trade in marine species, there are studies showing that populations of some species have declined in response to harvesting, indicating that the harvest is not sustainable at those levels. There are concerns about the effect of the pet trade on some terrestrial species such as turtles, amphibians, birds, plants, and even the orangutan.



View a **brief video** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/ocean_matters) discussing the role of marine ecosystems in supporting human welfare and the decline of ocean ecosystems.

Bush meat is the generic term used for wild animals killed for food. Hunting is practiced throughout the world, but hunting practices, particularly in equatorial Africa and parts of Asia, are believed to threaten several species with extinction. Traditionally, bush meat in Africa was hunted to feed families directly; however, recent commercialization of the practice now has bush meat available in grocery stores, which has increased harvest rates to the level of unsustainability. Additionally, human population growth has increased the need for protein foods that are not being met from agriculture. Species threatened by the bush meat trade are mostly mammals including many primates living in the Congo basin.

Exotic Species

Exotic species are species that have been intentionally or unintentionally introduced by humans into an ecosystem in which they did not evolve. Such introductions likely occur frequently as natural phenomena. For example, Kudzu (*Pueraria lobata*), which is native to Japan, was introduced in the United States in 1876. It was later planted for soil conservation. Problematically, it grows too well in the southeastern United States—up to a foot a day. It is now a pest species and covers over 7 million acres in the southeastern United States. If an introduced species is able to survive in its new habitat, that introduction is now reflected in the observed range of the species. Human transportation of people and goods, including the intentional transport of organisms for trade, has dramatically increased the introduction of species into new ecosystems, sometimes at distances that are well beyond the capacity of the species to ever travel itself and outside the range of the species’ natural predators.

Most exotic species introductions probably fail because of the low number of individuals introduced or poor adaptation to the ecosystem they enter. Some species, however, possess preadaptations that can make them especially successful in a new ecosystem. These exotic species often undergo dramatic population increases in their new habitat and reset the ecological conditions in the new environment, threatening the species that exist there. For this reason, exotic species are also called invasive species. Exotic species can threaten other species through competition for resources, predation, or disease.



Explore an **interactive global database** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/exotic_invasive) of exotic or invasive species.

Lakes and islands are particularly vulnerable to extinction threats from introduced species. In Lake Victoria, as mentioned earlier, the intentional introduction of the Nile perch was largely responsible for the extinction of about 200 species of cichlids. The accidental introduction of the brown tree snake via aircraft (**Figure 47.12**) from the Solomon Islands to Guam in 1950 has led to the extinction of three species of birds and three to five species of reptiles endemic to the island. Several other species are still threatened. The brown tree snake is adept at exploiting human transportation as a means to migrate; one was even found on an aircraft arriving in Corpus Christi, Texas. Constant vigilance on the part of airport, military, and commercial aircraft personnel is required to prevent the snake from moving from Guam to other islands in the Pacific, especially Hawaii. Islands do not make up a large area of land on the globe, but they do contain a disproportionate number of endemic species because of their isolation from mainland ancestors.



Figure 47.12 The brown tree snake, *Boiga irregularis*, is an exotic species that has caused numerous extinctions on the island of Guam since its accidental introduction in 1950. (credit: NPS)

It now appears that the global decline in amphibian species recognized in the 1990s is, in some part, caused by the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, which causes the disease **chytridiomycosis** (**Figure 47.13**). There is evidence that the fungus is native to Africa and may have been spread throughout the world by transport of a commonly used laboratory and pet species: the African clawed toad (*Xenopus laevis*). It may well be that biologists themselves are responsible for spreading this disease worldwide. The North American bullfrog, *Rana catesbeiana*, which has also been widely introduced as a food animal but which easily escapes captivity, survives most infections of *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* and can act as a reservoir for the disease.



Figure 47.13 This Limosa Harlequin Frog (*Atelopus limosus*), an endangered species from Panama, died from a fungal disease called chytridiomycosis. The red lesions are symptomatic of the disease. (credit: Brian Gratwicke)

Early evidence suggests that another fungal pathogen, *Geomyces destructans*, introduced from Europe is responsible for **white-nose syndrome**, which infects cave-hibernating bats in eastern North America and has spread from a point of origin in western New York State (**Figure 47.14**). The disease has decimated bat populations and threatens extinction of species already listed as endangered: the Indiana bat, *Myotis sodalis*, and potentially the Virginia big-eared bat, *Corynorhinus townsendii virginianus*. How the fungus was introduced is unclear, but one logical presumption would be that recreational cavers unintentionally brought the fungus on clothes or equipment from Europe.



Figure 47.14 This little brown bat in Greeley Mine, Vermont, March 26, 2009, was found to have white-nose syndrome. (credit: Marvin Moriarty, USFWS)

Climate Change

Climate change, and specifically the anthropogenic (meaning, caused by humans) warming trend presently underway, is recognized as a major extinction threat, particularly when combined with other threats such as habitat loss. Scientists disagree about the likely magnitude of the effects, with extinction rate estimates ranging from 15 percent to 40 percent of species committed to extinction by 2050.

Scientists do agree, however, that climate change will alter regional climates, including rainfall and snowfall patterns, making habitats less hospitable to the species living in them. The warming trend will shift colder climates toward the north and south poles, forcing species to move with their adapted climate norms while facing habitat gaps along the way. The shifting ranges will impose new competitive regimes on species as they find themselves in contact with other species not present in their historic range. One such unexpected species contact is between polar bears and grizzly bears. Previously, these two species had separate ranges. Now, their ranges are overlapping and there are documented cases of these two species mating and producing viable offspring. Changing climates also throw off species' delicate timing adaptations to seasonal food resources and breeding times. Many contemporary mismatches to shifts in resource availability and timing have already been documented.



Figure 47.15 Since 2008, grizzly bears (*Ursus arctos horribilis*) have been spotted farther north than their historic range, a possible consequence of climate change. As a result, grizzly bear habitat now overlaps polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*) habitat. The two kinds of bears, which are capable of mating and producing viable offspring, are considered separate species as historically they lived in different habitats and never met. However, in 2006 a hunter shot a wild grizzly-polar bear hybrid known as a grolar bear, the first wild hybrid ever found.

Range shifts are already being observed: for example, some European bird species ranges have moved 91 km northward. The same study suggested that the optimal shift based on warming trends was double that distance, suggesting that the populations are not moving quickly enough. Range shifts have also been observed in plants, butterflies, other insects, freshwater fishes, reptiles, and mammals.

Climate gradients will also move up mountains, eventually crowding species higher in altitude and eliminating the habitat for those species adapted to the highest elevations. Some climates will completely disappear. The rate of warming appears to be accelerated in the arctic, which is recognized as a serious threat to polar bear populations that require sea ice to hunt seals during the winter months: seals are the only source of protein available to polar bears. A trend to decreasing sea ice coverage has occurred since observations began in the mid-twentieth century. The rate of decline observed in recent years is far greater than previously predicted by climate models.

Finally, global warming will raise ocean levels due to melt water from glaciers and the greater volume of warmer water. Shorelines will be inundated, reducing island size, which will have an effect on some species, and a number of islands will disappear entirely. Additionally, the gradual melting and subsequent refreezing of the poles, glaciers, and higher elevation mountains—a cycle that has provided freshwater

to environments for centuries—will also be jeopardized. This could result in an overabundance of salt water and a shortage of fresh water.

47.4 | Preserving Biodiversity

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify new technologies for describing biodiversity
- Explain the legislative framework for conservation
- Describe principles and challenges of conservation preserve design
- Identify examples of the effects of habitat restoration
- Discuss the role of zoos in biodiversity conservation

Preserving biodiversity is an extraordinary challenge that must be met by greater understanding of biodiversity itself, changes in human behavior and beliefs, and various preservation strategies.

Measuring Biodiversity

The technology of molecular genetics and data processing and storage are maturing to the point where cataloguing the planet's species in an accessible way is close to feasible. **DNA barcoding** is one molecular genetic method, which takes advantage of rapid evolution in a mitochondrial gene present in eukaryotes, excepting the plants, to identify species using the sequence of portions of the gene. Plants may be barcoded using a combination of chloroplast genes. Rapid mass sequencing machines make the molecular genetics portion of the work relatively inexpensive and quick. Computer resources store and make available the large volumes of data. Projects are currently underway to use DNA barcoding to catalog museum specimens, which have already been named and studied, as well as testing the method on less studied groups. As of mid 2012, close to 150,000 named species had been barcoded. Early studies suggest there are significant numbers of undescribed species that looked too much like sibling species to previously be recognized as different. These now can be identified with DNA barcoding.

Numerous computer databases now provide information about named species and a framework for adding new species. However, as already noted, at the present rate of description of new species, it will take close to 500 years before the complete catalog of life is known. Many, perhaps most, species on the planet do not have that much time.

There is also the problem of understanding which species known to science are threatened and to what degree they are threatened. This task is carried out by the non-profit IUCN which, as previously mentioned, maintains the Red List—an online listing of endangered species categorized by taxonomy, type of threat, and other criteria (**Figure 47.16**). The Red List is supported by scientific research. In 2011, the list contained 61,000 species, all with supporting documentation.

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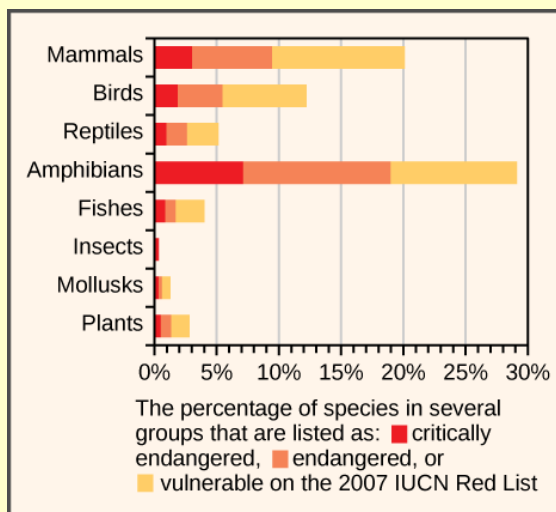


Figure 47.16 This chart shows the percentage of various animal species, by group, on the IUCN Red List as of 2007.

Which of the following statements is not supported by this graph?

- There are more vulnerable fishes than critically endangered and endangered fishes combined.
- There are more critically endangered amphibians than vulnerable, endangered and critically endangered reptiles combined.
- Within each group, there are more critically endangered species than vulnerable species.
- A greater percentage of bird species are critically endangered than mollusk species.

Changing Human Behavior

Legislation throughout the world has been enacted to protect species. The legislation includes international treaties as well as national and state laws. The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) treaty came into force in 1975. The treaty, and the national legislation that supports it, provides a legal framework for preventing approximately 33,000 listed species from being transported across nations' borders, thus protecting them from being caught or killed when international trade is involved. The treaty is limited in its reach because it only deals with international movement of organisms or their parts. It is also limited by various countries' ability or willingness to enforce the treaty and supporting legislation. The illegal trade in organisms and their parts is probably a market in the hundreds of millions of dollars. Illegal wildlife trade is monitored by another non-profit: Trade Records Analysis of Flora and Fauna in Commerce (TRAFFIC).

Within many countries there are laws that protect endangered species and regulate hunting and fishing. In the United States, the Endangered Species Act (ESA) was enacted in 1973. Species at risk are listed by the Act; the U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service is required by law to develop management plans that protect the listed species and bring them back to sustainable numbers. The Act, and others like it in other countries, is a useful tool, but it suffers because it is often difficult to get a species listed, or to get an effective management plan in place once it is listed. Additionally, species may be controversially taken off the list without necessarily having had a change in their situation. More fundamentally, the approach to protecting individual species rather than entire ecosystems is both inefficient and focuses efforts on a few highly visible and often charismatic species, perhaps at the expense of other species that go unprotected. At the same time, the Act has a critical habitat provision outlined in the recovery mechanism that may benefit species other than the one targeted for management.

The Migratory Bird Treaty Act (MBTA) is an agreement between the United States and Canada that was signed into law in 1918 in response to declines in North American bird species caused by hunting. The

Act now lists over 800 protected species. It makes it illegal to disturb or kill the protected species or distribute their parts (much of the hunting of birds in the past was for their feathers).

The international response to global warming has been mixed. The Kyoto Protocol, an international agreement that came out of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change that committed countries to reducing greenhouse gas emissions by 2012, was ratified by some countries, but spurned by others. Two important countries in terms of their potential impact that did not ratify the Kyoto Protocol were the United States and China. The United States rejected it as a result of a powerful fossil fuel industry and China because of a concern it would stifle the nation's growth. Some goals for reduction in greenhouse gasses were met and exceeded by individual countries, but worldwide, the effort to limit greenhouse gas production is not succeeding. The intended replacement for the Kyoto Protocol has not materialized because governments cannot agree on timelines and benchmarks. Meanwhile, climate scientists predict the resulting costs to human societies and biodiversity will be high.

As already mentioned, the private non-profit sector plays a large role in the conservation effort both in North America and around the world. The approaches range from species-specific organizations to the broadly focused IUCN and TRAFFIC. The Nature Conservancy takes a novel approach. It purchases land and protects it in an attempt to set up preserves for ecosystems. Ultimately, human behavior will change when human values change. At present, the growing urbanization of the human population is a force that poses challenges to the valuing of biodiversity.

Conservation in Preserves

Establishment of wildlife and ecosystem preserves is one of the key tools in conservation efforts. A preserve is an area of land set aside with varying degrees of protection for the organisms that exist within the boundaries of the preserve. Preserves can be effective in the short term for protecting both species and ecosystems, but they face challenges that scientists are still exploring to strengthen their viability as long-term solutions.

How Much Area to Preserve?

Due to the way protected lands are allocated (they tend to contain less economically valuable resources rather than being set aside specifically for the species or ecosystems at risk) and the way biodiversity is distributed, determining a target percentage of land or marine habitat that should be protected to maintain biodiversity levels is challenging. The IUCN World Parks Congress estimated that 11.5 percent of Earth's land surface was covered by preserves of various kinds in 2003. This area is greater than previous goals; however, it only represents 9 out of 14 recognized major biomes. Research has shown that 12 percent of all species live only outside preserves; these percentages are much higher when only threatened species and high quality preserves are considered. For example, high quality preserves include only about 50 percent of threatened amphibian species. The conclusion must be that either the percentage of area protected must increase, or the percentage of high quality preserves must increase, or preserves must be targeted with greater attention to biodiversity protection. Researchers argue that more attention to the latter solution is required.

Preserve Design

There has been extensive research into optimal preserve designs for maintaining biodiversity. The fundamental principle behind much of the research has been the seminal theoretical work of Robert H. MacArthur and Edward O. Wilson published in 1967 on island biogeography.^[5] This work sought to understand the factors affecting biodiversity on islands. The fundamental conclusion was that biodiversity on an island was a function of the origin of species through migration, speciation, and extinction on that island. Islands farther from a mainland are harder to get to, so migration is lower and the equilibrium number of species is lower. Within island populations, evidence suggests that the number of species gradually increases to a level similar to the numbers on the mainland from which the species is suspected to have migrated. In addition, smaller islands are harder to find, so their immigration rates for new species are lower. Smaller islands are also less geographically diverse so there are fewer niches to promote speciation. And finally, smaller islands support smaller populations, so the probability of extinction is higher.

As islands get larger, the number of species accelerates, although the effect of island area on species numbers is not a direct correlation. Conservation preserves can be seen as "islands" of habitat within "an ocean" of non-habitat. For a species to persist in a preserve, the preserve must be large enough. The critical size depends, in part, on the home range that is characteristic of the species. A preserve for wolves, which range hundreds of kilometers, must be much larger than a preserve for butterflies, which might range within ten kilometers during its lifetime. But larger preserves have more core area of

5. Robert H. MacArthur and Edward O. Wilson, E. O., *The Theory of Island Biogeography* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1967).

optimal habitat for individual species, they have more niches to support more species, and they attract more species because they can be found and reached more easily.

Preserves perform better when there are buffer zones around them of suboptimal habitat. The buffer allows organisms to exit the boundaries of the preserve without immediate negative consequences from predation or lack of resources. One large preserve is better than the same area of several smaller preserves because there is more core habitat unaffected by edges. For this same reason, preserves in the shape of a square or circle will be better than a preserve with many thin “arms.” If preserves must be smaller, then providing wildlife corridors between them so that individuals and their genes can move between the preserves, for example along rivers and streams, will make the smaller preserves behave more like a large one. All of these factors are taken into consideration when planning the nature of a preserve before the land is set aside.

In addition to the physical, biological, and ecological specifications of a preserve, there are a variety of policy, legislative, and enforcement specifications related to uses of the preserve for functions other than protection of species. These can include anything from timber extraction, mineral extraction, regulated hunting, human habitation, and nondestructive human recreation. Many of these policy decisions are made based on political pressures rather than conservation considerations. In some cases, wildlife protection policies have been so strict that subsistence-living indigenous populations have been forced from ancestral lands that fell within a preserve. In other cases, even if a preserve is designed to protect wildlife, if the protections are not or cannot be enforced, the preserve status will have little meaning in the face of illegal poaching and timber extraction. This is a widespread problem with preserves in areas of the tropics.

Limitations on Preserves

Some of the limitations on preserves as conservation tools are evident from the discussion of preserve design. Political and economic pressures typically make preserves smaller, never larger, so setting aside areas that are large enough is difficult. If the area set aside is sufficiently large, there may not be sufficient area to create a buffer around the preserve. In this case, an area on the outer edges of the preserve inevitably becomes a riskier suboptimal habitat for the species in the preserve. Enforcement of protections is also a significant issue in countries without the resources or political will to prevent poaching and illegal resource extraction.

Climate change will create inevitable problems with the location of preserves. The species within them will migrate to higher latitudes as the habitat of the preserve becomes less favorable. Scientists are planning for the effects of global warming on future preserves and striving to predict the need for new preserves to accommodate anticipated changes to habitats; however, the end effectiveness is tenuous since these efforts are prediction based.

Finally, an argument can be made that conservation preserves reinforce the cultural perception that humans are separate from nature, can exist outside of it, and can only operate in ways that do damage to biodiversity. Creating preserves reduces the pressure on human activities outside the preserves to be sustainable and non-damaging to biodiversity. Ultimately, the political, economic, and human demographic pressures will degrade and reduce the size of conservation preserves if the activities outside them are not altered to be less damaging to biodiversity.



An **interactive global data system** (http://openstaxcollege.org/l/protected_areas) of protected areas can be found at website. Review data about individual protected areas by location or study statistics on protected areas by country or region.

Habitat Restoration

Habitat restoration holds considerable promise as a mechanism for restoring and maintaining biodiversity. Of course once a species has become extinct, its restoration is impossible. However, restoration can improve the biodiversity of degraded ecosystems. Reintroducing wolves, a top predator, to Yellowstone National Park in 1995 led to dramatic changes in the ecosystem that increased

biodiversity. The wolves (**Figure 47.17**) function to suppress elk and coyote populations and provide more abundant resources to the guild of carrion eaters. Reducing elk populations has allowed revegetation of riparian areas, which has increased the diversity of species in that habitat. Decreasing the coyote population has increased the populations of species that were previously suppressed by this predator. The number of species of carrion eaters has increased because of the predatory activities of the wolves. In this habitat, the wolf is a keystone species, meaning a species that is instrumental in maintaining diversity in an ecosystem. Removing a keystone species from an ecological community may cause a collapse in diversity. The results from the Yellowstone experiment suggest that restoring a keystone species can have the effect of restoring biodiversity in the community. Ecologists have argued for the identification of keystone species where possible and for focusing protection efforts on those species; likewise, it also makes sense to attempt to return them to their ecosystem if they have been removed.

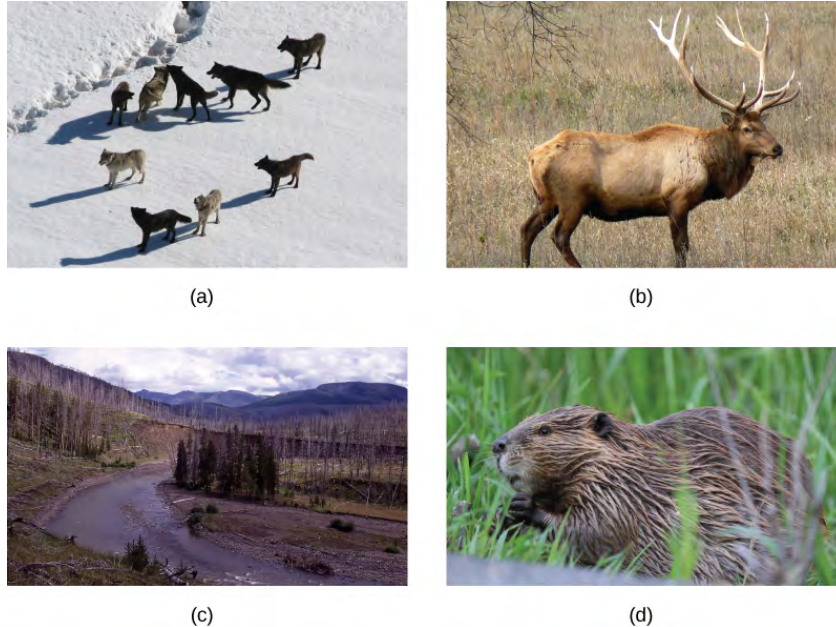


Figure 47.17 (a) The Gibbon wolf pack in Yellowstone National Park, March 1, 2007, represents a keystone species. The reintroduction of wolves into Yellowstone National Park in 1995 led to a change in the grazing behavior of (b) elk. To avoid predation, the elk no longer grazed exposed stream and riverbeds, such as (c) the Lamar Riverbed in Yellowstone. This allowed willow and cottonwood seedlings to grow. The seedlings decreased erosion and provided shading to the creek, which improved fish habitat. A new colony of (d) beaver may also have benefited from the habitat change. (credit a: modification of work by Doug Smith, NPS; credit c: modification of work by Jim Peaco, NPS; credit d: modification of work by “Shiny Things”/Flickr)

Other large-scale restoration experiments underway involve dam removal. In the United States, since the mid-1980s, many aging dams are being considered for removal rather than replacement because of shifting beliefs about the ecological value of free-flowing rivers and because many dams no longer provide the benefit and functions that they did when they were first built. The measured benefits of dam removal include restoration of naturally fluctuating water levels (the purpose of dams is frequently to reduce variation in river flows), which leads to increased fish diversity and improved water quality. In the Pacific Northwest, dam removal projects are expected to increase populations of salmon, which is considered a keystone species because it transports key nutrients to inland ecosystems during its annual spawning migrations. In other regions such as the Atlantic coast, dam removal has allowed the return of spawning anadromous fish species (species that are born in fresh water, live most of their lives in salt water, and return to fresh water to spawn). Some of the largest dam removal projects have yet to occur or have happened too recently for the consequences to be measured. The large-scale ecological experiments that these removal projects constitute will provide valuable data for other dam projects slated either for removal or construction.

The Role of Captive Breeding

Zoos have sought to play a role in conservation efforts both through captive breeding programs and education. The transformation of the missions of zoos from collection and exhibition facilities to organizations that are dedicated to conservation is ongoing. In general, it has been recognized that, except in some specific targeted cases, captive breeding programs for endangered species are inefficient and often prone to failure when the species are reintroduced to the wild. Zoo facilities are far too limited

to contemplate captive breeding programs for the numbers of species that are now at risk. Education is another potential positive impact of zoos on conservation efforts, particularly given the global trend to urbanization and the consequent reduction in contacts between people and wildlife. A number of studies have been performed to look at the effectiveness of zoos on people's attitudes and actions regarding conservation; at present, the results tend to be mixed.

KEY TERMS

adaptive radiation rapid branching through speciation of a phylogenetic tree into many closely related species

biodiversity variety of a biological system, typically conceived as the number of species, but also applying to genes, biochemistry, and ecosystems

biodiversity hotspot concept originated by Norman Myers to describe a geographical region with a large number of endemic species and a large percentage of degraded habitat

bush meat wild-caught animal used as food (typically mammals, birds, and reptiles); usually referring to hunting in the tropics of sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and the Americas

chemical diversity variety of metabolic compounds in an ecosystem

chytridiomycosis disease of amphibians caused by the fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*; thought to be a major cause of the global amphibian decline

DNA barcoding molecular genetic method for identifying a unique genetic sequence to associate with a species

ecosystem diversity variety of ecosystems

endemic species species native to one place

exotic species (also, invasive species) species that has been introduced to an ecosystem in which it did not evolve

extinction disappearance of a species from Earth; local extinction is the disappearance of a species from a region

extinction rate number of species becoming extinct over time, sometimes defined as extinctions per million species–years to make numbers manageable (E/MSY)

genetic diversity variety of genes in a species or other taxonomic group or ecosystem, the term can refer to allelic diversity or genome-wide diversity

heterogeneity number of ecological niches

megafauna large animals

secondary plant compound compound produced as byproducts of plant metabolic processes that is usually toxic, but is sequestered by the plant to defend against herbivores

species-area relationship relationship between area surveyed and number of species encountered; typically measured by incrementally increasing the area of a survey and determining the cumulative numbers of species

tragedy of the commons economic principle that resources held in common will inevitably be overexploited

white-nose syndrome disease of cave-hibernating bats in the eastern United States and Canada associated with the fungus *Geomyces destructans*

CHAPTER SUMMARY

47.1 The Biodiversity Crisis

Biodiversity exists at multiple levels of organization and is measured in different ways depending on the goals of those taking the measurements. These measurements include numbers of species, genetic diversity, chemical diversity, and ecosystem diversity. The number of described species is estimated to be 1.5 million with about 17,000 new species being described each year. Estimates for the total number

of species on Earth vary but are on the order of 10 million. Biodiversity is negatively correlated with latitude for most taxa, meaning that biodiversity is higher in the tropics. The mechanism for this pattern is not known with certainty, but several plausible hypotheses have been advanced.

Five mass extinctions with losses of more than 50 percent of extant species are observable in the fossil record. Biodiversity recovery times after mass extinctions vary, but have been up to 30 million years. Recent extinctions are recorded in written history and are the basis for one method of estimating contemporary extinction rates. The other method uses measures of habitat loss and species-area relationships. Estimates of contemporary extinction rates vary, but some rates are as high as 500 times the background rate, as determined from the fossil record, and are predicted to rise.

47.2 The Importance of Biodiversity to Human Life

Humans use many compounds that were first discovered or derived from living organisms as medicines: secondary plant compounds, animal toxins, and antibiotics produced by bacteria and fungi. More medicines are expected to be discovered in nature. Loss of biodiversity will impact the number of pharmaceuticals available to humans.

Crop diversity is a requirement for food security, and it is being lost. The loss of wild relatives to crops also threatens breeders' abilities to create new varieties. Ecosystems provide ecosystem services that support human agriculture: pollination, nutrient cycling, pest control, and soil development and maintenance. Loss of biodiversity threatens these ecosystem services and risks making food production more expensive or impossible. Wild food sources are mainly aquatic, but few are being managed for sustainability. Fisheries' ability to provide protein to human populations is threatened when extinction occurs.

Biodiversity may provide important psychological benefits to humans. Additionally, there are moral arguments for the maintenance of biodiversity.

47.3 Threats to Biodiversity

The core threats to biodiversity are human population growth and unsustainable resource use. To date, the most significant causes of extinctions are habitat loss, introduction of exotic species, and overharvesting. Climate change is predicted to be a significant cause of extinctions in the coming century. Habitat loss occurs through deforestation, damming of rivers, and other activities.

Overharvesting is a threat particularly to aquatic species, while the taking of bush meat in the humid tropics threatens many species in Asia, Africa, and the Americas. Exotic species have been the cause of a number of extinctions and are especially damaging to islands and lakes. Exotic species' introductions are increasing because of the increased mobility of human populations and growing global trade and transportation. Climate change is forcing range changes that may lead to extinction. It is also affecting adaptations to the timing of resource availability that negatively affects species in seasonal environments. The impacts of climate change are greatest in the arctic. Global warming will also raise sea levels, eliminating some islands and reducing the area of all others.

47.4 Preserving Biodiversity

New technological methods such as DNA barcoding and information processing and accessibility are facilitating the cataloging of the planet's biodiversity. There is also a legislative framework for biodiversity protection. International treaties such as CITES regulate the transportation of endangered species across international borders. Legislation within individual countries protecting species and agreements on global warming have had limited success; there is at present no international agreement on targets for greenhouse gas emissions. In the United States, the Endangered Species Act protects listed species but is hampered by procedural difficulties and a focus on individual species. The Migratory Bird Act is an agreement between Canada and the United States to protect migratory birds. The non-profit sector is also very active in conservation efforts in a variety of ways.

Conservation preserves are a major tool in biodiversity protection. Presently, 11 percent of Earth's land surface is protected in some way. The science of island biogeography has informed the optimal design of preserves; however, preserves have limitations imposed by political and economic forces. In addition, climate change will limit the effectiveness of preserves in the future. A downside of preserves is that they may lessen the pressure on human societies to function more sustainably outside the preserves.

Habitat restoration has the potential to restore ecosystems to previous biodiversity levels before species become extinct. Examples of restoration include reintroduction of keystone species and removal of

dams on rivers. Zoos have attempted to take a more active role in conservation and can have a limited role in captive breeding programs. Zoos also may have a useful role in education.

ART CONNECTION QUESTIONS

1. Figure 47.6 Scientists measured the relative abundance of fern spores above and below the K-Pg boundary in this rock sample. Which of the following statements most likely represents their findings?

- An abundance of fern spores from several species was found below the K-Pg boundary, but none was found above.
- An abundance of fern spores from several species was found above the K-Pg boundary, but none was found below.
- An abundance of fern spores was found both above and below the K-Pg boundary, but only one species was found below the boundary, and many species were found above the boundary.
- Many species of fern spores were found both above and below the boundary, but the total number of spores was greater below the boundary.

2. Figure 47.9 The Svalbard Global Seed Vault is located on Spitsbergen island in Norway,

which has an arctic climate. Why might an arctic climate be good for seed storage?

3. Converting a prairie to a farm field is an example of _____.

- overharvesting
- habitat loss
- exotic species
- climate change

4. Figure 47.16 Which of the following statements is not supported by this graph?

- There are more vulnerable fishes than critically endangered and endangered fishes combined.
- There are more critically endangered amphibians than vulnerable, endangered and critically endangered reptiles combined.
- Within each group, there are more critically endangered species than vulnerable species.
- A greater percentage of bird species are critically endangered than mollusk species.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

5. With an extinction rate of 100 E/MSY and an estimated 10 million species, how many extinctions are expected to occur in a century?

- 100
- 10,000
- 100,000
- 1,000,000

6. An adaptive radiation is _____.

- a burst of speciation
- a healthy level of UV radiation
- a hypothesized cause of a mass extinction
- evidence of an asteroid impact

7. The number of currently described species on the planet is about _____.

- 17,000
- 150,000
- 1.5 million
- 10 million

8. A mass extinction is defined as _____.

- a loss of 95 percent of species
- an asteroid impact
- a boundary between geological periods
- a loss of 50 percent of species

9. A secondary plant compound might be used for which of the following?

- a new crop variety
- a new drug
- a soil nutrient
- a pest of a crop pest

10. Pollination is an example of _____.

- a possible source of new drugs
- chemical diversity
- an ecosystem service
- crop pest control

11. What is an ecosystem service that performs the same function as a pesticide?

- pollination
- secondary plant compounds
- crop diversity
- predators of pests

12. Which two extinction risks may be a direct result of the pet trade?

- climate change and exotic species introduction
- habitat loss and overharvesting
- overharvesting and exotic species introduction
- habitat loss and climate change

- 13.** Exotic species are especially threatening to what kind of ecosystem?
- deserts
 - marine ecosystems
 - islands
 - tropical forests
- 14.** Certain parrot species cannot be brought to the United States to be sold as pets. What is the name of the legislation that makes this illegal?
- Red List
 - Migratory Bird Act
 - CITES
 - Endangered Species Act (ESA)
- 15.** What was the name of the first international agreement on climate change?
- Red List
 - Montreal Protocol
 - International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN)
 - Kyoto Protocol
- 16.** About what percentage of land on the planet is set aside as a preserve of some type?
- 1 percent
 - 6 percent
 - 11 percent
 - 15 percent

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

- 17.** Describe the evidence for the cause of the Cretaceous–Paleogene (K–Pg) mass extinction.
- 18.** Describe the two methods used to calculate contemporary extinction rates.
- 19.** Explain how biodiversity loss can impact crop diversity.
- 20.** Describe two types of compounds from living things that are used as medications.
- 21.** Describe the mechanisms by which human population growth and resource use causes increased extinction rates.
- 22.** Explain what extinction threats a frog living on a mountainside in Costa Rica might face.
- 23.** Describe two considerations in conservation preserve design.
- 24.** Describe what happens to an ecosystem when a keystone species is removed.

A

A1 | Periodic Table of the Elements

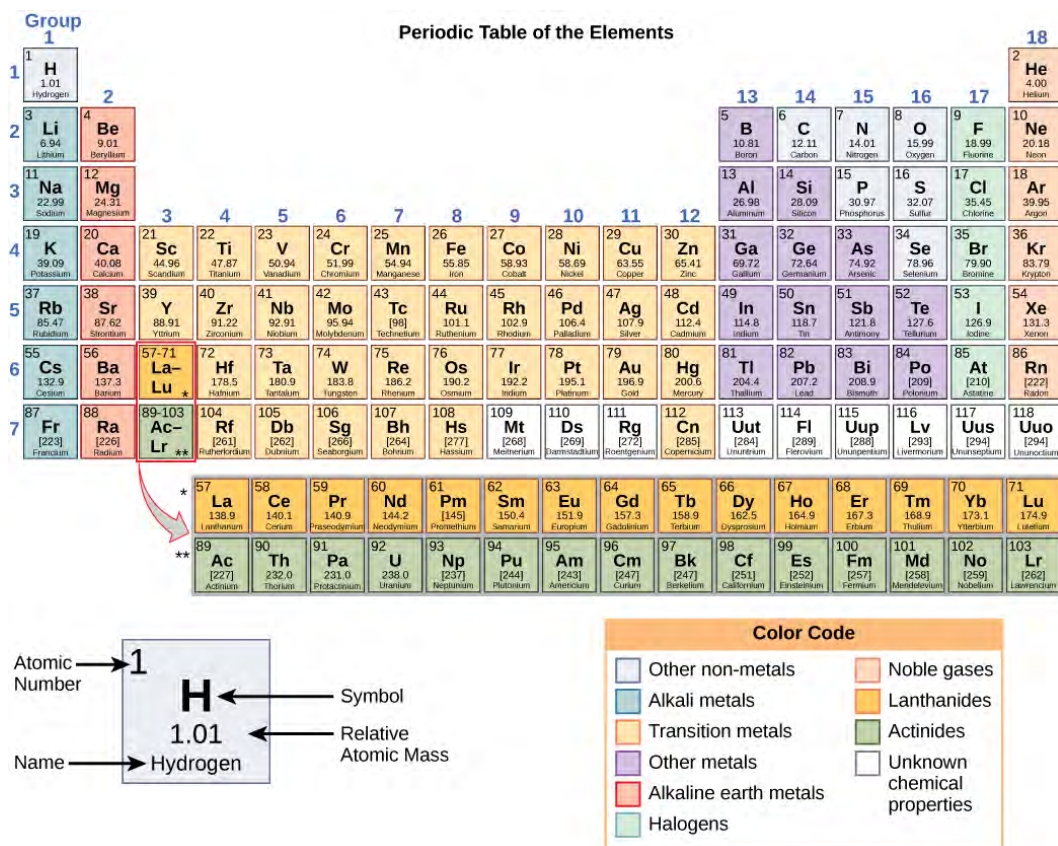


Figure A1

A4 | Measurements and the Metric System

Measurements and the Metric System

Measurement	Unit	Abbreviation	Metric Equivalent	Approximate Standard Equivalent
Length	nanometer	nm	$1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$	1 mm = 0.039 inch 1 cm = 0.394 inch 1 m = 39.37 inches 1 m = 3.28 feet 1 m = 1.093 yards 1 km = 0.621 miles
	micrometer	μm	$1 \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$	
	millimeter	mm	$1 \text{ mm} = 0.001 \text{ m}$	
	centimeter	cm	$1 \text{ cm} = 0.01 \text{ m}$	
	meter	m	$1 \text{ m} = 100 \text{ cm}$ $1 \text{ m} = 1000 \text{ mm}$	
	kilometer	km	$1 \text{ km} = 1000 \text{ m}$	
Mass	microgram	μg	$1 \mu\text{g} = 10^{-6} \text{ g}$	1 g = 0.035 ounce 1 kg = 2.205 pounds
	milligram	mg	$1 \text{ mg} = 10^{-3} \text{ g}$	
	gram	g	$1 \text{ g} = 1000 \text{ mg}$	
	kilogram	kg	$1 \text{ kg} = 1000 \text{ g}$	
Volume	microliter	μl	$1 \mu\text{l} = 10^{-6} \text{ l}$	1 ml = 0.034 fluid ounce 1 l = 1.057 quarts 1 kl = 264.172 gallons
	milliliter	ml	$1 \text{ ml} = 10^{-3} \text{ l}$	
	liter	l	$1 \text{ l} = 1000 \text{ ml}$	
	kiloliter	kl	$1 \text{ kl} = 1000 \text{ l}$	
Area	square centimeter	cm^2	$1 \text{ cm}^2 = 100 \text{ mm}^2$	$1 \text{ cm}^2 = 0.155 \text{ square inch}$
	square meter	m^2	$1 \text{ m}^2 = 10,000 \text{ cm}^2$	$1 \text{ m}^2 = 10.764 \text{ square feet}$ $1 \text{ m}^2 = 1.196 \text{ square yards}$
	hectare	ha	$1 \text{ ha} = 10,000 \text{ m}^2$	$1 \text{ ha} = 2.471 \text{ acres}$
Temperature	Celsius	$^{\circ}\text{C}$	—	$1^{\circ}\text{C} = 5/9 \times (^{\circ}\text{F} - 32)$

Table A1

ANSWER KEY

Chapter 1

1 Figure 1.6 1: C; 2: F; 3: A; 4: B; 5: D; 6: E. The original hypothesis is incorrect, as the coffeemaker works when plugged into the outlet. Alternative hypotheses include that the toaster might be broken or that the toaster wasn't turned on. **2 Figure 1.7** 1: inductive; 2: deductive; 3: deductive; 4: inductive. **3 Figure 1.16** Communities exist within populations which exist within ecosystems. **4 B 5 A 6 D 7 D 8 C 9 A 10 C 11 A 12 B 13 C 14 D 15 D 16** Answers will vary, but should apply the steps of the scientific method. One possibility could be a car which doesn't start. The hypothesis could be that the car doesn't start because the battery is dead. The experiment would be to change the battery or to charge the battery and then check whether the car starts or not. If it starts, the problem was due to the battery, and the hypothesis is accepted. **17** Answers will vary. One example of how applied science has had a direct effect on daily life is the presence of vaccines. Vaccines to prevent diseases such as polio, measles, tetanus, and even influenza affect daily life by contributing to individual and societal health. **18** Answers will vary. Topics that fall inside the area of biological study include how diseases affect human bodies, how pollution impacts a species' habitat, and how plants respond to their environments. Topics that fall outside of biology (the "study of life") include how metamorphic rock is formed and how planetary orbits function. **19** Answers will vary. Basic science: What evolutionary purpose might cancer serve? Applied science: What strategies might be found to prevent cancer from reproducing at the cellular level? **20** Answers will vary. Layers of sedimentary rock have order but are not alive. Technology is capable of regulation but is not, of itself, alive. **21** Smallest level of organization to largest: hydrogen atom, water molecule, skin cell, liver, elephant, wolf pack, tropical rainforest, planet Earth **22** During your walk, you may begin to perspire, which cools your body and helps your body to maintain a constant internal temperature. You might also become thirsty and pause long enough for a cool drink, which will help to restore the water lost during perspiration. **23** Researchers can approach biology from the smallest to the largest, and everything in between. For instance, an ecologist may study a population of individuals, the population's community, the community's ecosystem, and the ecosystem's part in the biosphere. When studying an individual organism, a biologist could examine the cell and its organelles, the tissues that the cells make up, the organs and their respective organ systems, and the sum total—the organism itself.

Chapter 2

1 Figure 2.3 Carbon-12 has six neutrons. Carbon-13 has seven neutrons. **2 Figure 2.7** Elements in group 1 need to lose one electron to achieve a stable electron configuration. Elements in groups 14 and 17 need to gain four and one electrons, respectively, to achieve a stable configuration. **3 Figure 2.24** C **4 A 5 D 6 C 7 A 8 D 9 A 10 C 11 B 12 D 13 A 14** Ionic bonds are created between ions. The electrons are not shared between the atoms, but rather are associated more with one ion than the other. Ionic bonds are strong bonds, but are weaker than covalent bonds, meaning it takes less energy to break an ionic bond compared with a covalent one. **15** Hydrogen bonds and van der Waals interactions form weak associations between different molecules or within different regions of the same molecule. They provide the structure and shape necessary for proteins and DNA within cells so that they function properly. **16** Buffers absorb the free hydrogen ions and hydroxide ions that result from chemical reactions. Because they can bond these ions, they prevent increases or decreases in pH. An example of a buffer system is the bicarbonate system in the human body. This system is able to absorb hydrogen and hydroxide ions to prevent changes in pH and keep cells functioning properly. **17** Some insects can walk on water, although they are heavier (denser) than water, because of the surface tension of water. Surface tension results from cohesion, or the attraction between water molecules at the surface of the body of water (the liquid-air/gas interface). **18** Carbon is unique and found in all living things because it can form up to four covalent bonds between atoms or molecules. These can be nonpolar or polar covalent bonds, and they allow for the formation of long chains of carbon molecules that combine to form proteins and DNA. **19** Saturated triglycerides contain no double bonds between carbon atoms; they are usually solid at room temperature. Unsaturated triglycerides contain at least one double bond between carbon atoms and are usually liquid at room temperature.

Chapter 3

1 Figure 3.5 Glucose and galactose are aldoses. Fructose is a ketose. **2 Figure 3.23** Polar and charged amino acid residues (the remainder after peptide bond formation) are more likely to be found on the surface of soluble proteins where they can interact with water, and nonpolar (e.g., amino acid side chains) are more likely to be found in the interior where they are sequestered from water. In membrane proteins, nonpolar and hydrophobic amino acid side chains associate with the hydrophobic tails of phospholipids, while polar and charged amino acid side chains interact with the polar head groups or with the aqueous solution. However,

there are exceptions. Sometimes, positively and negatively charged amino acid side chains interact with one another in the interior of a protein, and polar or charged amino acid side chains that interact with a ligand can be found in the ligand binding pocket. **3 Figure 3.33** Adenine is larger than cytosine and will not be able to base pair properly with the guanine on the opposing strand. This will cause the DNA to bulge. DNA repair enzymes may recognize the bulge and replace the incorrect nucleotide. **4 C 5 A 6 D 7 D 8 B 9 B 10 D 11 A 12 C 13 B 14 C 15 D 16** Biological macromolecules are organic because they contain carbon. **17** In a dehydration synthesis reaction, the hydrogen of one monomer combines with the hydroxyl group of another monomer, releasing a molecule of water. This creates an opening in the outer shells of atoms in the monomers, which can share electrons and form covalent bonds. **18** Glycogen and starch are polysaccharides. They are the storage form of glucose. Glycogen is stored in animals in the liver and in muscle cells, whereas starch is stored in the roots, seeds, and leaves of plants. Starch has two different forms, one unbranched (amylose) and one branched (amylopectin), whereas glycogen is a single type of a highly branched molecule. **19** The β 1-4 glycosidic linkage in cellulose cannot be broken down by human digestive enzymes. Herbivores such as cows, buffalos, and horses are able to digest grass that is rich in cellulose and use it as a food source because bacteria and protists in their digestive systems, especially in the rumen, secrete the enzyme cellulase. Cellulases can break down cellulose into glucose monomers that can be used as an energy source by the animal. **20** Fat serves as a valuable way for animals to store energy. It can also provide insulation. Waxes can protect plant leaves and mammalian fur from getting wet. Phospholipids and steroids are important components of animal cell membranes, as well as plant, fungal, and bacterial membranes. **21** Trans fats are created artificially when hydrogen gas is bubbled through oils to solidify them. The double bonds of the *cis* conformation in the hydrocarbon chain may be converted to double bonds in the *trans* configuration. Some restaurants are banning trans fats because they cause higher levels of LDL, or “bad” cholesterol. **22** A change in gene sequence can lead to a different amino acid being added to a polypeptide chain instead of the normal one. This causes a change in protein structure and function. For example, in sickle cell anemia, the hemoglobin β chain has a single amino acid substitution—the amino acid glutamic acid in position six is substituted by valine. Because of this change, hemoglobin molecules form aggregates, and the disc-shaped red blood cells assume a crescent shape, which results in serious health problems. **23** The sequence and number of amino acids in a polypeptide chain is its primary structure. The local folding of the polypeptide in some regions is the secondary structure of the protein. The three-dimensional structure of a polypeptide is known as its tertiary structure, created in part by chemical interactions such as hydrogen bonds between polar side chains, van der Waals interactions, disulfide linkages, and hydrophobic interactions. Some proteins are formed from multiple polypeptides, also known as subunits, and the interaction of these subunits forms the quaternary structure. **24** DNA has a double-helix structure. The sugar and the phosphate are on the outside of the helix and the nitrogenous bases are in the interior. The monomers of DNA are nucleotides containing deoxyribose, one of the four nitrogenous bases (A, T, G and C), and a phosphate group. RNA is usually single-stranded and is made of ribonucleotides that are linked by phosphodiester linkages. A ribonucleotide contains ribose (the pentose sugar), one of the four nitrogenous bases (A,U, G, and C), and the phosphate group. **25** The four types of RNA are messenger RNA, ribosomal RNA, transfer RNA, and microRNA. Messenger RNA carries the information from the DNA that controls all cellular activities. The mRNA binds to the ribosomes that are constructed of proteins and rRNA, and tRNA transfers the correct amino acid to the site of protein synthesis. microRNA regulates the availability of mRNA for translation.

Chapter 4

1 Figure 4.7 Substances can diffuse more quickly through small cells. Small cells have no need for organelles and therefore do not need to expend energy getting substances across organelle membranes. Large cells have organelles that can separate cellular processes, enabling them to build molecules that are more complex. **2 Figure 4.8** Free ribosomes and rough endoplasmic reticulum (which contains ribosomes) would not be able to form. **3 Figure 4.18** It would end up on the outside. After the vesicle passes through the Golgi apparatus and fuses with the plasma membrane, it turns inside out. **4 C 5 B 6 D 7 A 8 D 9 B 10 A 11 D 12 A 13 B 14 C 15 C 16 B 17 D 18 C 19 C 20** A light microscope would be ideal when viewing a small living organism, especially when the cell has been stained to reveal details. **21** A scanning electron microscope would be ideal when you want to view the minute details of a cell’s surface, because its beam of electrons moves back and forth over the surface to convey the image. **22** A transmission electron microscope would be ideal for viewing the cell’s internal structures, because many of the internal structures have membranes that are not visible by the light microscope. **23** The advantages of light microscopes are that they are easily obtained, and the light beam does not kill the cells. However, typical light microscopes are somewhat limited in the amount of detail they can reveal. Electron microscopes are ideal because you can view intricate details, but they are bulky and costly, and preparation for the microscopic examination kills the specimen. **24** The cell wall would be targeted by antibiotics as well as the bacteria’s ability to replicate. This would inhibit the bacteria’s ability to reproduce, and it would compromise its defense mechanisms. **25** Some microbes are beneficial. For instance, *E. coli* bacteria populate the human gut and help break down fiber in the diet. Some foods such as yogurt are formed by bacteria. **26** Ribosomes are abundant in muscle cells as well because muscle cells are constructed of the proteins made by the ribosomes. **27** Both are similar in that they are enveloped in a double membrane, both have an intermembrane space, and both make ATP. Both mitochondria and chloroplasts have DNA, and mitochondria have inner folds called cristae and a matrix,

while chloroplasts have chlorophyll and accessory pigments in the thylakoids that form stacks (grana) and a stroma. **28** “Form follows function” refers to the idea that the function of a body part dictates the form of that body part. As an example, compare your arm to a bat’s wing. While the bones of the two correspond, the parts serve different functions in each organism and their forms have adapted to follow that function. **29** Since the external surface of the nuclear membrane is continuous with the rough endoplasmic reticulum, which is part of the endomembrane system, then it is correct to say that it is part of the system. **30** Centrioles and flagella are alike in that they are made up of microtubules. In centrioles, two rings of nine microtubule “triplets” are arranged at right angles to one another. This arrangement does not occur in flagella. **31** Cilia and flagella are alike in that they are made up of microtubules. Cilia are short, hair-like structures that exist in large numbers and usually cover the entire surface of the plasma membrane. Flagella, in contrast, are long, hair-like structures; when flagella are present, a cell has just one or two. **32** They differ because plant cell walls are rigid. Plasmodesmata, which a plant cell needs for transportation and communication, are able to allow movement of really large molecules. Gap junctions are necessary in animal cells for transportation and communication. **33** The extracellular matrix functions in support and attachment for animal tissues. It also functions in the healing and growth of the tissue.

Chapter 5

1 Figure 5.12 No, it must have been hypotonic as a hypotonic solution would cause water to enter the cells, thereby making them burst. **2 Figure 5.16** Cells typically have a high concentration of potassium in the cytoplasm and are bathed in a high concentration of sodium. Injection of potassium dissipates this electrochemical gradient. In heart muscle, the sodium/potassium potential is responsible for transmitting the signal that causes the muscle to contract. When this potential is dissipated, the signal can’t be transmitted, and the heart stops beating. Potassium injections are also used to stop the heart from beating during surgery. **3 Figure 5.19** A decrease in pH means an increase in positively charged H^+ ions, and an increase in the electrical gradient across the membrane. The transport of amino acids into the cell will increase. **4 A 5 D 6 A 7 C 8 C 9 A 10 D 11 C 12 D 13 C 14 B 15 C 16** The fluid characteristic of the cell membrane allows greater flexibility to the cell than it would if the membrane were rigid. It also allows the motion of membrane components, required for some types of membrane transport. **17** The hydrophobic, nonpolar regions must align with each other in order for the structure to have minimal potential energy and, consequently, higher stability. The fatty acid tails of the phospholipids cannot mix with water, but the phosphate “head” of the molecule can. Thus, the head orients to water, and the tail to other lipids. **18** Heavy molecules move more slowly than lighter ones. It takes more energy in the medium to move them along. Increasing or decreasing temperature increases or decreases the energy in the medium, affecting molecular movement. The denser a solution is, the harder it is for molecules to move through it, causing diffusion to slow down due to friction. Living cells require a steady supply of nutrients and a steady rate of waste removal. If the distance these substances need to travel is too great, diffusion cannot move nutrients and waste materials efficiently to sustain life. **19** Water moves through a membrane in osmosis because there is a concentration gradient across the membrane of solute and solvent. The solute cannot effectively move to balance the concentration on both sides of the membrane, so water moves to achieve this balance. **20** Injection of isotonic solutions ensures that there will be no perturbation of the osmotic balance, and no water taken from tissues or added to them from the blood. **21** The cell harvests energy from ATP produced by its own metabolism to power active transport processes, such as the activity of pumps. **22** The sodium-potassium pump forces out three (positive) Na^+ ions for every two (positive) K^+ ions it pumps in, thus the cell loses a positive charge at every cycle of the pump. **23** The proteins allow a cell to select what compound will be transported, meeting the needs of the cell and not bringing in anything else. **24** Ions are charged, and consequently, they are hydrophilic and cannot associate with the lipid portion of the membrane. Ions must be transported by carrier proteins or ion channels.

Chapter 6

1 Figure 6.8 A compost pile decomposing is an exergonic process; enthalpy increases (energy is released) and entropy increases (large molecules are broken down into smaller ones). A baby developing from a fertilized egg is an endergonic process; enthalpy decreases (energy is absorbed) and entropy decreases. Sand art being destroyed is an exergonic process; there is no change in enthalpy, but entropy increases. A ball rolling downhill is an exergonic process; enthalpy decreases (energy is released), but there is no change in enthalpy. **2 Figure 6.10** No. We can store chemical energy because of the need to overcome the barrier to its breakdown. **3 Figure 6.14** Three sodium ions could be moved by the hydrolysis of one ATP molecule. The ΔG of the coupled reaction must be negative. Movement of three sodium ions across the membrane will take 6.3 kcal of energy ($2.1 \text{ kcal} \times 3 \text{ Na}^+ \text{ ions} = 6.3 \text{ kcal}$). Hydrolysis of ATP provides 7.3 kcal of energy, more than enough to power this reaction. Movement of four sodium ions across the membrane, however, would require 8.4 kcal of energy, more than one ATP molecule can provide. **4 C 5 A 6 C 7 D 8 B 9 A 10 A 11 D 12 A 13 A 14 C 15 A 16** Physical exercise involves both anabolic and catabolic processes. Body cells break down sugars to provide ATP to do the work necessary for exercise, such as muscle contractions. This is catabolism. Muscle cells also must repair muscle tissue damaged by exercise by building new muscle.

This is anabolism. **17** Energy is required for cellular motion, through beating of cilia or flagella, as well as human motion, produced by muscle contraction. Cells also need energy to perform digestion, as humans require energy to digest food. **18** A spontaneous reaction is one that has a negative ΔG and thus releases energy. However, a spontaneous reaction need not occur quickly or suddenly like an instantaneous reaction. It may occur over long periods due to a large energy of activation, which prevents the reaction from occurring quickly. **19** The transition state is always higher in energy than the reactants and the products of a reaction (therefore, above), regardless of whether the reaction is endergonic or exergonic. **20** The ant farm had lower entropy before the earthquake because it was a highly ordered system. After the earthquake, the system became much more disordered and had higher entropy. **21** While cooking, food is heating up on the stove, but not all of the heat goes to cooking the food, some of it is lost as heat energy to the surrounding air, increasing entropy. While driving, cars burn gasoline to run the engine and move the car. This reaction is not completely efficient, as some energy during this process is lost as heat energy, which is why the hood and the components underneath it heat up while the engine is turned on. The tires also heat up because of friction with the pavement, which is additional energy loss. This energy transfer, like all others, also increases entropy. **22** The activation energy for hydrolysis is very low. Not only is ATP hydrolysis an exergonic process with a large $-\Delta G$, but ATP is also a very unstable molecule that rapidly breaks down into $ADP + P_i$ if not utilized quickly. This suggests a very low E_A since it hydrolyzes so quickly. **23** Most vitamins and minerals act as coenzymes and cofactors for enzyme action. Many enzymes require the binding of certain cofactors or coenzymes to be able to catalyze their reactions. Since enzymes catalyze many important reactions, it is critical to obtain sufficient vitamins and minerals from the diet and from supplements. Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) is a coenzyme necessary for the action of enzymes that build collagen, an important protein component of connective tissue throughout the body. Magnesium ion (Mg^{++}) is an important cofactor that is necessary for the enzyme pyruvate dehydrogenase to catalyze part of the pathway that breaks down sugar to produce energy. Vitamins cannot be produced in the human body and therefore must be obtained in the diet. **24** Feedback inhibition allows cells to control the amounts of metabolic products produced. If there is too much of a particular product relative to what the cell's needs, feedback inhibition effectively causes the cell to decrease production of that particular product. In general, this reduces the production of superfluous products and conserves energy, maximizing energy efficiency.

Chapter 7

1 **Figure 7.11** After DNP poisoning, the electron transport chain can no longer form a proton gradient, and ATP synthase can no longer make ATP. DNP is an effective diet drug because it uncouples ATP synthesis; in other words, after taking it, a person obtains less energy out of the food he or she eats. Interestingly, one of the worst side effects of this drug is hyperthermia, or overheating of the body. Since ATP cannot be formed, the energy from electron transport is lost as heat. **2** **Figure 7.12** After cyanide poisoning, the electron transport chain can no longer pump electrons into the intermembrane space. The pH of the intermembrane space would increase, the pH gradient would decrease, and ATP synthesis would stop. **3** **Figure 7.14** The illness is caused by lactate accumulation. Lactate levels rise after exercise, making the symptoms worse. Milk sickness is rare today, but was common in the Midwestern United States in the early 1800s. **4** A **5** B **6** C **7** D **8** B **9** B **10** C **11** A **12** C **13** A **14** A **15** C **16** A **17** B **18** ATP provides the cell with a way to handle energy in an efficient manner. The molecule can be charged, stored, and used as needed. Moreover, the energy from hydrolyzing ATP is delivered as a consistent amount. Harvesting energy from the bonds of several different compounds would result in energy deliveries of different quantities. **19** If glycolysis evolved relatively late, it likely would not be as universal in organisms as it is. It probably evolved in very primitive organisms and persisted, with the addition of other pathways of carbohydrate metabolism that evolved later. **20** All cells must consume energy to carry out basic functions, such as pumping ions across membranes. A red blood cell would lose its membrane potential if glycolysis were blocked, and it would eventually die. **21** In a circular pathway, the final product of the reaction is also the initial reactant. The pathway is self-perpetuating, as long as any of the intermediates of the pathway are supplied. Circular pathways are able to accommodate multiple entry and exit points, thus being particularly well suited for amphibolic pathways. In a linear pathway, one trip through the pathway completes the pathway, and a second trip would be an independent event. **22** Q and cytochrome c are transport molecules. Their function does not result directly in ATP synthesis in that they are not pumps. Moreover, Q is the only component of the electron transport chain that is not a protein. Ubiquinone and cytochrome c are small, mobile, electron carriers, whereas the other components of the electron transport chain are large complexes anchored in the inner mitochondrial membrane. **23** Few tissues except muscle produce the maximum possible amount of ATP from nutrients. The intermediates are used to produce needed amino acids, fatty acids, cholesterol, and sugars for nucleic acids. When NADH is transported from the cytoplasm to the mitochondria, an active transport mechanism is used, which decreases the amount of ATP that can be made. The electron transport chain differs in composition between species, so different organisms will make different amounts of ATP using their electron transport chains. **24** Fermentation uses glycolysis only. Anaerobic respiration uses all three parts of cellular respiration, including the parts in the mitochondria like the citric acid cycle and electron transport; it also uses a different final electron acceptor instead of oxygen gas. **25** They are very economical. The substrates, intermediates, and products move between pathways and do so in response to finely tuned feedback inhibition loops that keep metabolism balanced overall. Intermediates in

one pathway may occur in another, and they can move from one pathway to another fluidly in response to the needs of the cell. **26** Citrate can inhibit phosphofructokinase by feedback regulation. **27** Negative feedback mechanisms actually control a process; it can turn it off, whereas positive feedback accelerates the process, allowing the cell no control over it. Negative feedback naturally maintains homeostasis, whereas positive feedback drives the system away from equilibrium.

Chapter 8

1 Figure 8.6 Levels of carbon dioxide (a necessary photosynthetic substrate) will immediately fall. As a result, the rate of photosynthesis will be inhibited. **2 Figure 8.15 A.** **3 Figure 8.18 D** **4 A** **5 C** **6 B** **7 B** **8 A** **9 B** **10 C** **11 B** **12 D** **13 C** **14 C** **15 A** **16** The outcome of light reactions in photosynthesis is the conversion of solar energy into chemical energy that the chloroplasts can use to do work (mostly anabolic production of carbohydrates from carbon dioxide). **17** Because lions eat animals that eat plants. **18** The energy carriers that move from the light-dependent reaction to the light-independent one are “full” because they bring energy. After the energy is released, the “empty” energy carriers return to the light-dependent reaction to obtain more energy. There is not much actual movement involved. Both ATP and NADPH are produced in the stroma where they are also used and reconverted into ADP, Pi, and NADP⁺. **19** A photon of light hits an antenna molecule in photosystem II, and the energy released by it travels through other antenna molecules to the reaction center. The energy causes an electron to leave a molecule of chlorophyll *a* to a primary electron acceptor protein. The electron travels through the electron transport chain and is accepted by a pigment molecule in photosystem I. **20** Both of these molecules carry energy; in the case of NADPH, it has reducing power that is used to fuel the process of making carbohydrate molecules in light-independent reactions. **21** Because RuBP, the molecule needed at the start of the cycle, is regenerated from G3P. **22** None of the cycle could take place, because RuBisCO is essential in fixing carbon dioxide. Specifically, RuBisCO catalyzes the reaction between carbon dioxide and RuBP at the start of the cycle. **23** Because G3P has three carbon atoms, and each turn of the cycle takes in one carbon atom in the form of carbon dioxide.

Chapter 9

1 Figure 9.8 C. The downstream cellular response would be inhibited. **2 Figure 9.10** ERK would become permanently activated, resulting in cell proliferation, migration, adhesion, and the growth of new blood vessels. Apoptosis would be inhibited. **3 Figure 9.17 C.** **4 Figure 9.18** *S. aureus* produces a biofilm because the higher cell density in the biofilm permits the formation of a dense surface that helps protect the bacteria from antibiotics. **5 B** **6 C** **7 B** **8 A** **9 D** **10 C** **11 B** **12 B** **13 D** **14 C** **15 C** **16 D** **17** Intracellular signaling occurs within a cell, and intercellular signaling occurs between cells. **18** The secreted ligands are quickly removed by degradation or reabsorption into the cell so that they cannot travel far. **19** Internal receptors are located inside the cell, and their ligands enter the cell to bind the receptor. The complex formed by the internal receptor and the ligand then enters the nucleus and directly affects protein production by binding to the chromosomal DNA and initiating the making of mRNA that codes for proteins. Cell-surface receptors, however, are embedded in the plasma membrane, and their ligands do not enter the cell. Binding of the ligand to the cell-surface receptor initiates a cell signaling cascade and does not directly influence the making of proteins; however, it may involve the activation of intracellular proteins. **20** An ion channel receptor opened up a pore in the membrane, which allowed the ionic dye to move into the cell. **21** Different cells produce different proteins, including cell-surface receptors and signaling pathway components. Therefore, they respond to different ligands, and the second messengers activate different pathways. Signal integration can also change the end result of signaling. **22** The binding of the ligand to the extracellular domain would activate the pathway normally activated by the receptor donating the intracellular domain. **23** If a kinase is mutated so that it is always activated, it will continuously signal through the pathway and lead to uncontrolled growth and possibly cancer. If a kinase is mutated so that it cannot function, the cell will not respond to ligand binding. **24** Receptors on the cell surface must be in contact with the extracellular matrix in order to receive positive signals that allow the cell to live. If the receptors are not activated by binding, the cell will undergo apoptosis. This ensures that cells are in the correct place in the body and helps to prevent invasive cell growth as occurs in metastasis in cancer. **25** Yeasts are eukaryotes and have many of the same systems that humans do; however, they are single-celled, so they are easy to grow, grow rapidly, have a short generation time, and are much simpler than humans. **26** Multicellular organisms must coordinate many different events in different cell types that may be very distant from each other. Single-celled organisms are only concerned with their immediate environment and the presence of other cells in the area.

Chapter 10

1 Figure 10.6 D. The kinetochore becomes attached to the mitotic spindle. Sister chromatids line up at the metaphase plate. Cohesin proteins break down and the sister chromatids separate. The nucleus reforms and the cell divides. **2 Figure 10.13** Rb and other negative regulatory proteins control cell division and therefore prevent the formation of tumors. Mutations that prevent these proteins from carrying out their function can

result in cancer. **3** **Figure 10.14 D**. E6 binding marks p53 for degradation. **4 C 5 B 6 D 7 D 8 B 9 D 10 B 11 B 12 D 13 C 14 A 15 A 16 A 17 C 18 D 19 D 20 C 21 A 22 C 23 C 24 D 25 D 26 C 27 B 28** Human somatic cells have 46 chromosomes: 22 pairs and 2 sex chromosomes that may or may not form a pair. This is the $2n$ or diploid condition. Human gametes have 23 chromosomes, one each of 23 unique chromosomes, one of which is a sex chromosome. This is the n or haploid condition. **29** The genome consists of the sum total of an organism's chromosomes. Each chromosome contains hundreds and sometimes thousands of genes, segments of DNA that code for a polypeptide or RNA, and a large amount of DNA with no known function. **30** The DNA double helix is wrapped around histone proteins to form structures called nucleosomes. Nucleosomes and the linker DNA in between them are coiled into a 30-nm fiber. During cell division, chromatin is further condensed by packing proteins. **31** During G_1 , the cell increases in size, the genomic DNA is assessed for damage, and the cell stockpiles energy reserves and the components to synthesize DNA. During the S phase, the chromosomes, the centrosomes, and the centrioles (animal cells) duplicate. During the G_2 phase, the cell recovers from the S phase, continues to grow, duplicates some organelles, and dismantles other organelles. **32** The mitotic spindle is formed of microtubules. Microtubules are polymers of the protein tubulin; therefore, it is the mitotic spindle that is disrupted by these drugs. Without a functional mitotic spindle, the chromosomes will not be sorted or separated during mitosis. The cell will arrest in mitosis and die. **33** There are very few similarities between animal cell and plant cell cytokinesis. In animal cells, a ring of actin fibers is formed around the periphery of the cell at the former metaphase plate (cleavage furrow). The actin ring contracts inward, pulling the plasma membrane toward the center of the cell until the cell is pinched in two. In plant cells, a new cell wall must be formed between the daughter cells. Due to the rigid cell walls of the parent cell, contraction of the middle of the cell is not possible. Instead, a phragmoplast first forms. Subsequently, a cell plate is formed in the center of the cell at the former metaphase plate. The cell plate is formed from Golgi vesicles that contain enzymes, proteins, and glucose. The vesicles fuse and the enzymes build a new cell wall from the proteins and glucose. The cell plate grows toward and eventually fuses with the cell wall of the parent cell. **34** Many cells temporarily enter G_0 until they reach maturity. Some cells are only triggered to enter G_1 when the organism needs to increase that particular cell type. Some cells only reproduce following an injury to the tissue. Some cells never divide once they reach maturity. **35** If cohesin is not functional, chromosomes are not packaged after DNA replication in the S phase of interphase. It is likely that the proteins of the centromeric region, such as the kinetochore, would not form. Even if the mitotic spindle fibers could attach to the chromatids without packing, the chromosomes would not be sorted or separated during mitosis. **36** The G_1 checkpoint monitors adequate cell growth, the state of the genomic DNA, adequate stores of energy, and materials for S phase. At the G_2 checkpoint, DNA is checked to ensure that all chromosomes were duplicated and that there are no mistakes in newly synthesized DNA. Additionally, cell size and energy reserves are evaluated. The M checkpoint confirms the correct attachment of the mitotic spindle fibers to the kinetochores. **37** Positive cell regulators such as cyclin and Cdk perform tasks that advance the cell cycle to the next stage. Negative regulators such as Rb, p53, and p21 block the progression of the cell cycle until certain events have occurred. **38** Cdk must bind to a cyclin, and it must be phosphorylated in the correct position to become fully active. **39** Rb is active when it is dephosphorylated. In this state, Rb binds to E2F, which is a transcription factor required for the transcription and eventual translation of molecules required for the G_1/S transition. E2F cannot transcribe certain genes when it is bound to Rb. As the cell increases in size, Rb becomes phosphorylated, inactivated, and releases E2F. E2F can then promote the transcription of the genes it controls, and the transition proteins will be produced. **40** If one of the genes that produces regulator proteins becomes mutated, it produces a malformed, possibly non-functional, cell cycle regulator, increasing the chance that more mutations will be left unrepaired in the cell. Each subsequent generation of cells sustains more damage. The cell cycle can speed up as a result of the loss of functional checkpoint proteins. The cells can lose the ability to self-destruct and eventually become "immortalized." **41** A proto-oncogene is a segment of DNA that codes for one of the positive cell cycle regulators. If that gene becomes mutated so that it produces a hyperactivated protein product, it is considered an oncogene. A tumor suppressor gene is a segment of DNA that codes for one of the negative cell cycle regulators. If that gene becomes mutated so that the protein product becomes less active, the cell cycle will run unchecked. A single oncogene can initiate abnormal cell divisions; however, tumor suppressors lose their effectiveness only when both copies of the gene are damaged. **42** Regulatory mechanisms that might be lost include monitoring of the quality of the genomic DNA, recruiting of repair enzymes, and the triggering of apoptosis. **43** If a cell has damaged DNA, the likelihood of producing faulty proteins is higher. The daughter cells of such a damaged parent cell would also produce faulty proteins that might eventually become cancerous. If p53 recognizes this damage and triggers the cell to self-destruct, the damaged DNA is degraded and recycled. No further harm comes to the organism. Another healthy cell is triggered to divide instead. **44** The common components of eukaryotic cell division and binary fission are DNA duplication, segregation of duplicated chromosomes, and division of the cytoplasmic contents. **45** As the chromosome is being duplicated, each origin moves away from the starting point of replication. The chromosomes are attached to the cell membrane via proteins; the growth of the membrane as the cell elongates aids in their movement.

Chapter 11

1 Figure 11.9 Yes, it will be able to reproduce asexually. **2 C 3 B 4 D 5 A 6 C 7 C 8 C 9 B 10 C 11 D 12 B 13 A 14** During the meiotic interphase, each chromosome is duplicated. The sister chromatids that are formed during synthesis are held together at the centromere region by cohesin proteins. All chromosomes are attached to the nuclear envelope by their tips. As the cell enters prophase I, the nuclear envelope begins to fragment, and the proteins holding homologous chromosomes locate each other. The four sister chromatids align lengthwise, and a protein lattice called the synaptonemal complex is formed between them to bind them together. The synaptonemal complex facilitates crossover between non-sister chromatids, which is observed as chiasmata along the length of the chromosome. As prophase I progresses, the synaptonemal complex breaks down and the sister chromatids become free, except where they are attached by chiasmata. At this stage, the four chromatids are visible in each homologous pairing and are called a tetrad. **15** Random alignment leads to new combinations of traits. The chromosomes that were originally inherited by the gamete-producing individual came equally from the egg and the sperm. In metaphase I, the duplicated copies of these maternal and paternal homologous chromosomes line up across the center of the cell. The orientation of each tetrad is random. There is an equal chance that the maternally derived chromosomes will be facing either pole. The same is true of the paternally derived chromosomes. The alignment should occur differently in almost every meiosis. As the homologous chromosomes are pulled apart in anaphase I, any combination of maternal and paternal chromosomes will move toward each pole. The gametes formed from these two groups of chromosomes will have a mixture of traits from the individual's parents. Each gamete is unique. **16** In metaphase I, the homologous chromosomes line up at the metaphase plate. In anaphase I, the homologous chromosomes are pulled apart and move to opposite poles. Sister chromatids are not separated until meiosis II. The fused kinetochore formed during meiosis I ensures that each spindle microtubule that binds to the tetrad will attach to both sister chromatids. **17** All of the stages of meiosis I, except possibly telophase I, are unique because homologous chromosomes are separated, not sister chromatids. In some species, the chromosomes do not decondense and the nuclear envelopes do not form in telophase I. All of the stages of meiosis II have the same events as the stages of mitosis, with the possible exception of prophase II. In some species, the chromosomes are still condensed and there is no nuclear envelope. Other than this, all processes are the same. **18 a.** Crossover occurs in prophase I between non-sister homologous chromosomes. Segments of DNA are exchanged between maternally derived and paternally derived chromosomes, and new gene combinations are formed. **b.** Random alignment during metaphase I leads to gametes that have a mixture of maternal and paternal chromosomes. **c.** Fertilization is random, in that any two gametes can fuse. **19 a.** In the haploid-dominant life cycle, the multicellular stage is haploid. The diploid stage is a spore that undergoes meiosis to produce cells that will divide mitotically to produce new multicellular organisms. Fungi have a haploid-dominant life cycle. **b.** In the diploid-dominant life cycle, the most visible or largest multicellular stage is diploid. The haploid stage is usually reduced to a single cell type, such as a gamete or spore. Animals, such as humans, have a diploid-dominant life cycle. **c.** In the alternation of generations life cycle, there are both haploid and diploid multicellular stages, although the haploid stage may be completely retained by the diploid stage. Plants have a life cycle with alternation of generations.

Chapter 12

1 Figure 12.5 You cannot be sure if the plant is homozygous or heterozygous as the data set is too small: by random chance, all three plants might have acquired only the dominant gene even if the recessive one is present. If the round pea parent is heterozygous, there is a one-eighth probability that a random sample of three progeny peas will all be round. **2 Figure 12.6** Individual 1 has the genotype aa . Individual 2 has the genotype Aa . Individual 3 has the genotype Aa . **3 Figure 12.12** Half of the female offspring would be heterozygous ($X^W X^w$) with red eyes, and half would be homozygous recessive ($X^w X^w$) with white eyes. Half of the male offspring would be hemizygous dominant ($X^W Y$) with red eyes, and half would be hemizygous recessive ($X^w Y$) with white eyes. **4 Figure 12.16** The possible genotypes are $PpYY$, $PpYy$, $ppYY$, and $ppYy$. The former two genotypes would result in plants with purple flowers and yellow peas, while the latter two genotypes would result in plants with white flowers with yellow peas, for a 1:1 ratio of each phenotype. You only need a 2×2 Punnett square (four squares total) to do this analysis because two of the alleles are homozygous. **5 A 6 B 7 B 8 C 9 A 10 C 11 D 12 D 13 C 14 A 15 B 16 D 17** The garden pea is sessile and has flowers that close tightly during self-pollination. These features help to prevent accidental or unintentional fertilizations that could have diminished the accuracy of Mendel's data. **18** Two sets of P_0 parents would be used. In the first cross, pollen would be transferred from a true-breeding tall plant to the stigma of a true-breeding dwarf plant. In the second cross, pollen would be transferred from a true-breeding dwarf plant to the stigma of a true-breeding tall plant. For each cross, F_1 and F_2 offspring would be analyzed to determine if offspring traits were affected according to which parent donated each trait. **19** Because axial is dominant, the gene would be designated as A . F_1 would be all heterozygous Aa with axial phenotype. F_2 would have possible genotypes of AA , Aa , and aa ; these would correspond to axial, axial, and terminal phenotypes, respectively. **20** The Punnett square would be 2×2 and will have T and T along the top, and T and t along the left side. Clockwise from the top left, the genotypes listed within the boxes will be Tt , Tt ,

tt, and *tt*. The phenotypic ratio will be 1 tall:1 dwarf. **21** No, males can only express color blindness. They cannot carry it because an individual needs two X chromosomes to be a carrier. **22** Considering each gene separately, the cross at *A* will produce offspring of which half are *AA* and half are *Aa*; *B* will produce all *Bb*; *C* will produce half *Cc* and half *cc*. Proportions then are $(1/2) \times (1) \times (1/2)$, or $1/4 AABbCc$; continuing for the other possibilities yields $1/4 AABbcc$, $1/4 AaBbCc$, and $1/4 AaBbcc$. The proportions therefore are 1:1:1:1. **23** Epistasis describes an antagonistic interaction between genes wherein one gene masks or interferes with the expression of another. The gene that is interfering is referred to as epistatic, as if it is “standing upon” the other (hypostatic) gene to block its expression. **24** The cross can be represented as a 4×4 Punnett square, with the following gametes for each parent: *WY*, *Wy*, *wY*, and *wy*. For all 12 of the offspring that express a dominant *W* gene, the offspring will be white. The three offspring that are homozygous recessive for *w* but express a dominant *Y* gene will be yellow. The remaining *wwy* offspring will be green.

Chapter 13

1 Figure 13.3 No. The predicted frequency of recombinant offspring ranges from 0% (for linked traits) to 50% (for unlinked traits). **2 Figure 13.4 D** **3 Figure 13.6 B.** **4 A** **5 C** **6 C** **7 A** **8 B** **9 C** **10 C** **11 A** **12 D** **13 A** **14** The Chromosomal Theory of Inheritance proposed that genes reside on chromosomes. The understanding that chromosomes are linear arrays of genes explained linkage, and crossing over explained recombination. **15** Exact diagram style will vary; diagram should look like **Figure 13.6**.

Chapter 14

1 Figure 14.10 Compartmentalization enables a eukaryotic cell to divide processes into discrete steps so it can build more complex protein and RNA products. But there is an advantage to having a single compartment as well: RNA and protein synthesis occurs much more quickly in a prokaryotic cell. **2 Figure 14.14** DNA ligase, as this enzyme joins together Okazaki fragments. **3 Figure 14.21** If three nucleotides are added, one additional amino acid will be incorporated into the protein chain, but the reading frame won't shift. **4 C** **5 D** **6 D** **7 D** **8 B** **9 C** **10 D** **11 B** **12 A** **13 D** **14 C** **15 B** **16** Live *R* cells acquired genetic information from the heat-killed *S* cells that “transformed” the *R* cells into *S* cells. **17** Sulfur is an element found in proteins and phosphorus is a component of nucleic acids. **18** The template DNA strand is mixed with a DNA polymerase, a primer, the 4 deoxynucleotides, and a limiting concentration of 4 dideoxynucleotides. DNA polymerase synthesizes a strand complementary to the template. Incorporation of ddNTPs at different locations results in DNA fragments that have terminated at every possible base in the template. These fragments are separated by gel electrophoresis and visualized by a laser detector to determine the sequence of bases. **19** DNA has two strands in anti-parallel orientation. The sugar-phosphate linkages form a backbone on the outside, and the bases are paired on the inside: A with T, and G with C, like rungs on a spiral ladder. **20** Meselson's experiments with *E. coli* grown in ^{15}N deduced this finding. **21** At an origin of replication, two replication forks are formed that are extended in two directions. On the lagging strand, Okazaki fragments are formed in a discontinuous manner. **22** Short DNA fragments are formed on the lagging strand synthesized in a direction away from the replication fork. These are synthesized by DNA pol. **23** 1333 seconds or 22.2 minutes. **24** At the replication fork, the events taking place are helicase action, binding of single-strand binding proteins, primer synthesis, and synthesis of new strands. If there is a mutated helicase gene, the replication fork will not be extended. **25** Primer provides a 3'-OH group for DNA pol to start adding nucleotides. There would be no reaction in the tube without a primer, and no bands would be visible on the electrophoresis. **26** Telomerase has an inbuilt RNA template that extends the 3' end, so primer is synthesized and extended. Thus, the ends are protected. **27** Mutations are not repaired, as in the case of xeroderma pigmentosa. Gene function may be affected or it may not be expressed.

Chapter 15

1 Figure 15.11 No. Prokaryotes use different promoters than eukaryotes. **2 Figure 15.13** Mutations in the spliceosome recognition sequence at each end of the intron, or in the proteins and RNAs that make up the spliceosome, may impair splicing. Mutations may also add new spliceosome recognition sites. Splicing errors could lead to introns being retained in spliced RNA, exons being excised, or changes in the location of the splice site. **3 Figure 15.16** Tetracycline: a; Chloramphenicol: c. **4 D** **5 C** **6 D** **7 B** **8 B** **9 B** **10 D** **11 A** **12 C** **13 A** **14** For 200 commonly occurring amino acids, codons consisting of four types of nucleotides would have to be at least four nucleotides long, because $4^4 = 256$. There would be much less degeneracy in this case. **15** Codons that specify the same amino acid typically only differ by one nucleotide. In addition, amino acids with chemically similar side chains are encoded by similar codons. This nuance of the genetic code ensures that a single-nucleotide substitution mutation might either specify the same amino acid and have no effect, or may specify a similar amino acid, preventing the protein from being rendered completely nonfunctional. **16** DNA is different from RNA in that T nucleotides in DNA are replaced with U nucleotides in RNA. Therefore, they could never be identical in base sequence. **17** Rho-dependent termination is controlled by the rho protein, which tracks along behind the polymerase on the growing mRNA chain. Near

the end of the gene, the polymerase stalls at a run of G nucleotides on the DNA template. The rho protein collides with the polymerase and releases mRNA from the transcription bubble. Rho-independent termination is controlled by specific sequences in the DNA template strand. As the polymerase nears the end of the gene being transcribed, it encounters a region rich in C–G nucleotides. This creates an mRNA hairpin that causes the polymerase to stall right as it begins to transcribe a region rich in A–T nucleotides. Because A–U bonds are less thermostable, the core enzyme falls away. **18** The mRNA would be: 5'-AUGGCCGGUUAUAAGCA-3'. The protein would be: MAGY. Even though there are six codons, the fifth codon corresponds to a stop, so the sixth codon would not be translated. **19** Nucleotide changes in the third position of codons may not change the amino acid and would have no effect on the protein. Other nucleotide changes that change important amino acids or create or delete start or stop codons would have severe effects on the amino acid sequence of the protein.

Chapter 16

1 Figure 16.5 Tryptophan is an amino acid essential for making proteins, so the cell always needs to have some on hand. However, if plenty of tryptophan is present, it is wasteful to make more, and the expression of the *trp* receptor is repressed. Lactose, a sugar found in milk, is not always available. It makes no sense to make the enzymes necessary to digest an energy source that is not available, so the *lac* operon is only turned on when lactose is present. **2 Figure 16.7** The nucleosomes would pack more tightly together. **3 Figure 16.13** Protein synthesis would be inhibited. **4 D 5 B 6 B 7 D 8 A 9 D 10 C 11 B 12 D 13 D 14 A 15 C 16 C 17** Eukaryotic cells have a nucleus, whereas prokaryotic cells do not. In eukaryotic cells, DNA is confined within the nuclear region. Because of this, transcription and translation are physically separated. This creates a more complex mechanism for the control of gene expression that benefits multicellular organisms because it compartmentalizes gene regulation. Gene expression occurs at many stages in eukaryotic cells, whereas in prokaryotic cells, control of gene expression only occurs at the transcriptional level. This allows for greater control of gene expression in eukaryotes and more complex systems to be developed. Because of this, different cell types can arise in an individual organism. **18** The cell controls which proteins are expressed and to what level each protein is expressed in the cell. Prokaryotic cells alter the transcription rate to turn genes on or off. This method will increase or decrease protein levels in response to what is needed by the cell. Eukaryotic cells change the accessibility (epigenetic), transcription, or translation of a gene. This will alter the amount of RNA and the lifespan of the RNA to alter the amount of protein that exists. Eukaryotic cells also control protein translation to increase or decrease the overall levels. Eukaryotic organisms are much more complex and can manipulate protein levels by changing many stages in the process. **19** Environmental stimuli can increase or induce transcription in prokaryotic cells. In this example, lactose in the environment will induce the transcription of the *lac* operon, but only if glucose is not available in the environment. **20** A repressible operon uses a protein bound to the promoter region of a gene to keep the gene repressed or silent. This repressor must be actively removed in order to transcribe the gene. An inducible operon is either activated or repressed depending on the needs of the cell and what is available in the local environment. **21** You can create medications that reverse the epigenetic processes (to add histone acetylation marks or to remove DNA methylation) and create an open chromosomal configuration. **22** A mutation in the promoter region can change the binding site for a transcription factor that normally binds to increase transcription. The mutation could either decrease the ability of the transcription factor to bind, thereby decreasing transcription, or it can increase the ability of the transcription factor to bind, thus increasing transcription. **23** If too much of an activating transcription factor were present, then transcription would be increased in the cell. This could lead to dramatic alterations in cell function. **24** RNA binding proteins (RBP) bind to the RNA and can either increase or decrease the stability of the RNA. If they increase the stability of the RNA molecule, the RNA will remain intact in the cell for a longer period of time than normal. Since both RBPs and miRNAs bind to the RNA molecule, RBP can potentially bind first to the RNA and prevent the binding of the miRNA that will degrade it. **25** External stimuli can modify RNA-binding proteins (i.e., through phosphorylation of proteins) to alter their activity. **26** Because proteins are involved in every stage of gene regulation, phosphorylation of a protein (depending on the protein that is modified) can alter accessibility to the chromosome, can alter translation (by altering the transcription factor binding or function), can change nuclear shuttling (by influencing modifications to the nuclear pore complex), can alter RNA stability (by binding or not binding to the RNA to regulate its stability), can modify translation (increase or decrease), or can change post-translational modifications (add or remove phosphates or other chemical modifications). **27** If the RNA degraded, then less of the protein that the RNA encodes would be translated. This could have dramatic implications for the cell. **28** Environmental stimuli, like ultraviolet light exposure, can alter the modifications to the histone proteins or DNA. Such stimuli may change an actively transcribed gene into a silenced gene by removing acetyl groups from histone proteins or by adding methyl groups to DNA. **29** These drugs will keep the histone proteins and the DNA methylation patterns in the open chromosomal configuration so that transcription is feasible. If a gene is silenced, these drugs could reverse the epigenetic configuration to re-express the gene. **30** Understanding which genes are expressed in a cancer cell can help diagnose the specific form of cancer. It can also help identify treatment options for that patient. For example, if a breast cancer tumor expresses the EGFR in high numbers, it might respond to specific anti-EGFR therapy. If that receptor is not expressed, it would not respond to that therapy.

Chapter 17

1 Figure 17.6 B. The experiment would result in blue colonies only. **2 Figure 17.8** Dolly was a Finn-Dorset sheep because even though the original cell came from a Scottish blackface sheep and the surrogate mother was a Scottish blackface, the DNA came from a Finn-Dorset. **3 Figure 17.15** There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. While it is true that prostate cancer treatment itself can be harmful, many men would rather be aware that they have cancer so they can monitor the disease and begin treatment if it progresses. And while genetic screening may be useful, it is expensive and may cause needless worry. People with certain risk factors may never develop the disease, and preventative treatments may do more harm than good. **4 B 5 C 6 B 7 B 8 D 9 D 10 B 11 B 12 A 13 D 14 A 15 D 16 D 17 B 18 D 19 A 20 B 21 D 22** Southern blotting is the transfer of DNA that has been enzymatically cut into fragments and run on an agarose gel onto a nylon membrane. The DNA fragments that are on the nylon membrane can be denatured to make them single-stranded, and then probed with small DNA fragments that are radioactively or fluorescently labeled, to detect the presence of specific sequences. An example of the use of Southern blotting would be in analyzing the presence, absence, or variation of a disease gene in genomic DNA from a group of patients. **23** Cellular cloning of the breast cancer cells will establish a cell line, which can be used for further analysis. **24** By identifying an herbicide resistance gene and cloning it into a plant expression vector system, like the Ti plasmid system from *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. The scientist would then introduce it into the plant cells by transformation, and select cells that have taken up and integrated the herbicide-resistance gene into the genome. **25** What diseases am I prone to and what precautions should I take? Am I a carrier for any disease-causing genes that may be passed on to children? **26** Genome mapping has many different applications and provides comprehensive information that can be used for predictive purposes. **27** A human genetic map can help identify genetic markers and sequences associated with high cancer risk, which can help to screen and provide early detection of different types of cancer. **28** Metagenomics is revolutionary because it replaced the practice of using pure cultures. Pure cultures were used to study individual species in the laboratory, but did not accurately represent what happens in the environment. Metagenomics studies the genomes of bacterial populations in their environmental niche. **29** Genomics can provide the unique DNA sequence of an individual, which can be used for personalized medicine and treatment options. **30** Proteomics has provided a way to detect biomarkers and protein signatures, which have been used to screen for the early detection of cancer. **31** Personalized medicine is the use of an individual's genomic sequence to predict the risk for specific diseases. When a disease does occur, it can be used to develop a personalized treatment plan.

Chapter 18

1 Figure 18.14 Loss of genetic material is almost always lethal, so offspring with $2n+1$ chromosomes are more likely to survive. **2 Figure 18.22** Fusion is most likely to occur because the two species will interact more and similar traits in food acquisition will be selected. **3 Figure 18.23** Answer B **4 B 5 D 6 D 7 D 8 A 9 B 10 B 11 C 12 C 13 C 14 D 15 A 16 C 17** The plants that can best use the resources of the area, including competing with other individuals for those resources will produce more seeds themselves and those traits that allowed them to better use the resources will increase in the population of the next generation. **18** Vestigial structures are considered evidence for evolution because most structures do not exist in an organism without serving some function either presently or in the past. A vestigial structure indicates a past form or function that has since changed, but the structure remains present because it had a function in the ancestor. **19** In science, a theory is a thoroughly tested and verified set of explanations for a body of observations of nature. It is the strongest form of knowledge in science. In contrast, a theory in common vernacular can mean a guess or speculation about something, meaning that the knowledge implied by the theory is very weak. **20** The statement implies that there is a goal to evolution and that the monkey represents greater progress to that goal than the mouse. Both species are likely to be well adapted to their particular environments, which is the outcome of natural selection. **21** Organisms of one species can arrive to an island together and then disperse throughout the chain, each settling into different niches and exploiting different food resources to reduce competition. **22** It is likely the two species would start to reproduce with each other. Depending on the viability of their offspring, they may fuse back into one species. **23** The formation of gametes with new n numbers can occur in one generation. After a couple of generations, enough of these new hybrids can form to reproduce together as a new species. **24** Both models continue to conform to the rules of natural selection, and the influences of gene flow, genetic drift, and mutation. **25** If the hybrid offspring are as fit or more fit than the parents, reproduction would likely continue between both species and the hybrids, eventually bringing all organisms under the umbrella of one species.

Chapter 19

1 Figure 19.2 The expected distribution is 320 VV, 160Vv, and 20 vv plants. Plants with VV or Vv genotypes would have violet flowers, and plants with the vv genotype would have white flowers, so a total of 480 plants would be expected to have violet flowers, and 20 plants would have white flowers. **2 Figure 19.4** Genetic drift is likely to occur more rapidly on an island where smaller populations are expected to occur. **3**

Figure 19.8 Moths have shifted to a lighter color. **4 C 5 A 6 D 7 D 8 C 9 B 10 A 11 C 12 D 13 C 14 A 15 D 16** $p = (8 \cdot 2 + 4)/48 = .42$; $q = (12 \cdot 2 + 4)/48 = .58$; $p^2 = .17$; $2pq = .48$; $q^2 = .34$ **17** The Hardy-Weinberg principle of equilibrium is used to describe the genetic makeup of a population. The theory states that a population's allele and genotype frequencies are inherently stable: unless some kind of evolutionary force is acting upon the population, generation after generation of the population would carry the same genes, and individuals would, as a whole, look essentially the same. **18** Red is recessive so $q^2 = 200/800 = 0.25$; $q = 0.5$; $p = 1 - q = 0.5$; $p^2 = 0.25$; $2pq = 0.5$. You would expect 200 homozygous blue flowers, 400 heterozygous blue flowers, and 200 red flowers. **19** A hurricane kills a large percentage of a population of sand-dwelling crustaceans—only a few individuals survive. The alleles carried by those surviving individuals would represent the entire population's gene pool. If those surviving individuals are not representative of the original population, the post-hurricane gene pool will differ from the original gene pool. **20** The theory of natural selection stems from the observation that some individuals in a population survive longer and have more offspring than others: thus, more of their genes are passed to the next generation. For example, a big, powerful male gorilla is much more likely than a smaller, weaker one to become the population's silverback: the pack's leader who mates far more than the other males of the group. Therefore, the pack leader will father more offspring who share half of his genes and are likely to grow bigger and stronger like their father. Over time, the genes for bigger size will increase in frequency in the population, and the average body size, as a result, grow larger on average. **21** A cline is a type of geographic variation that is seen in populations of a given species that vary gradually across an ecological gradient. For example, warm-blooded animals tend to have larger bodies in the cooler climates closer to the earth's poles, allowing them to better conserve heat. This is considered a latitudinal cline. Flowering plants tend to bloom at different times depending on where they are along the slope of a mountain. This is known as an altitudinal cline. **22** The peacock's tail is a good example of the handicap principle. The tail, which makes the males more visible to predators and less able to escape, is clearly a disadvantage to the bird's survival. But because it is a disadvantage, only the most fit males should be able to survive with it. Thus, the tail serves as an honest signal of quality to the females of the population; therefore, the male will earn more matings and greater reproductive success. **23** There are several ways evolution can affect population variation: stabilizing selection, directional selection, diversifying selection, frequency-dependent selection, and sexual selection. As these influence the allele frequencies in a population, individuals can either become more or less related, and the phenotypes displayed can become more similar or more disparate.

Chapter 20

1 Figure 20.6 Cats and dogs are part of the same group at five levels: both are in the domain Eukarya, the kingdom Animalia, the phylum Chordata, the class Mammalia, and the order Carnivora. **2 Figure 20.10** Rabbits and humans belong in the clade that includes animals with hair. The amniotic egg evolved before hair because the Amniota clade is larger than the clade that encompasses animals with hair. **3 Figure 20.11** The largest clade encompasses the entire tree. **4 C 5 B 6 D 7 A 8 C 9 A 10 B 11 A 12 C 13 D 14 A 15 C 16** The phylogenetic tree shows the order in which evolutionary events took place and in what order certain characteristics and organisms evolved in relation to others. It does not relate to time. **17** In most cases, organisms that appear closely related actually are; however, there are cases where organisms evolved through convergence and appear closely related but are not. **18** domain, kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus, species **19** Dolphins are mammals and fish are not, which means that their evolutionary paths (phylogenies) are quite separate. Dolphins probably adapted to have a similar body plan after returning to an aquatic lifestyle, and, therefore, this trait is probably analogous. **20** Phylogenetic trees are based on evolutionary connections. If an analogous similarity were used on a tree, this would be erroneous and, furthermore, would cause the subsequent branches to be inaccurate. **21** Maximum parsimony hypothesizes that events occurred in the simplest, most obvious way, and the pathway of evolution probably includes the fewest major events that coincide with the evidence at hand. **22** Some hypotheses propose that mitochondria were acquired first, followed by the development of the nucleus. Others propose that the nucleus evolved first and that this new eukaryotic cell later acquired the mitochondria. Still others hypothesize that prokaryotes descended from eukaryotes by the loss of genes and complexity. **23** Aphids have acquired the ability to make the carotenoids on their own. DNA analysis has demonstrated that this ability is due to the transfer of fungal genes into the insect by HGT, presumably as the insect consumed fungi for food.

Chapter 21

1 Figure 21.4 D 2 Figure 21.8 The host cell can continue to make new virus particles. **3 Figure 21.10 C 4 B 5 D 6 D 7 D 8 B 9 C 10 D 11 A 12 D 13 C 14 D 15 C 16 A 17** Viruses pass through filters that eliminated all bacteria that were visible in the light microscopes at the time. As the bacteria-free filtrate could still cause infections when given to a healthy organism, this observation demonstrated the existence of very small infectious agents. These agents were later shown to be unrelated to bacteria and were classified as viruses. **18** The virus can't attach to dog cells, because dog cells do not express the receptors for the virus and/or there is no cell within the dog that is permissive for viral replication. **19** Reverse transcriptase is needed to make more HIV-1 viruses, so targeting the reverse transcriptase enzyme may be a way to inhibit the replication

of the virus. Importantly, by targeting reverse transcriptase, we do little harm to the host cell, since host cells do not make reverse transcriptase. Thus, we can specifically attack the virus and not the host cell when we use reverse transcriptase inhibitors. **20** Answer is open and will vary. **21** Plant viruses infect crops, causing crop damage and failure, and considerable economic losses. **22** Rabies vaccine works after a bite because it takes week for the virus to travel from the site of the bite to the central nervous system, where the most severe symptoms of the disease occur. Adults are not routinely vaccinated for rabies for two reasons: first, because the routine vaccination of domestic animals makes it unlikely that humans will contract rabies from an animal bite; second, if one is bitten by a wild animal or a domestic animal that one cannot confirm has been immunized, there is still time to give the vaccine and avoid the often fatal consequences of the disease. **23** This prion-based disease is transmitted through human consumption of infected meat. **24** They both replicate in a cell, and they both contain nucleic acid.

Chapter 22

1 Figure 22.8 The extracellular matrix and outer layer of cells protects the inner bacteria. The close proximity of cells also facilitates lateral gene transfer, a process by which genes such as antibiotic resistance genes are transferred from one bacterium to another. And even if lateral gene transfer does not occur, one bacterium that produces an exo-enzyme that destroys antibiotic may save neighboring bacteria. **2 Figure 22.15 A 3 Figure 22.19 D 4 A 5 D 6 A 7 A 8 B 9 D 10 B 11 B 12 A 13 C 14 B 15 B 16 C 17 A 18 B 19 C 20 D 21 A 22 D 23 D 24 B 25** As the organisms are non-culturable, the presence could be detected through molecular techniques, such as PCR. **26** Because the environmental conditions on Earth were extreme: high temperatures, lack of oxygen, high radiation, and the like. **27** Responses will vary. A possible answer is: Bacteria contain peptidoglycan in the cell wall; archaea do not. The cell membrane in bacteria is a lipid bilayer; in archaea, it can be a lipid bilayer or a monolayer. Bacteria contain fatty acids on the cell membrane, whereas archaea contain phytanyl. **28** Both bacteria and archaea have cell membranes and they both contain a hydrophobic portion. In the case of bacteria, it is a fatty acid; in the case of archaea, it is a hydrocarbon (phytanyl). Both bacteria and archaea have a cell wall that protects them. In the case of bacteria, it is composed of peptidoglycan, whereas in the case of archaea, it is pseudopeptidoglycan, polysaccharides, glycoproteins, or pure protein. Bacterial and archaeal flagella also differ in their chemical structure. **29** Responses will vary. In a deep-sea hydrothermal vent, there is no light, so prokaryotes would be chemotrophs instead of phototrophs. The source of carbon would be carbon dioxide dissolved in the ocean, so they would be autotrophs. There is not a lot of organic material in the ocean, so prokaryotes would probably use inorganic sources, thus they would be chemolithotrophs. The temperatures are very high in the hydrothermal vent, so the prokaryotes would be thermophilic. **30** Antibiotics kill bacteria that are sensitive to them; thus, only the resistant ones will survive. These resistant bacteria will reproduce, and therefore, after a while, there will be only resistant bacteria. **31** *E. coli* colonizes the surface of the leaf, forming a biofilm that is more difficult to remove than free (planktonic) cells. Additionally, bacteria can be taken up in the water that plants are grown in, thereby entering the plant tissues rather than simply residing on the leaf surface. **32** Remind them of the important roles prokaryotes play in decomposition and freeing up nutrients in biogeochemical cycles; remind them of the many prokaryotes that are not human pathogens and that fill very specialized niches. Furthermore, our normal bacterial symbionts are crucial for our digestion and in protecting us from pathogens.

Chapter 23

1 Figure 23.5 All eukaryotic cells have mitochondria, but not all eukaryotic cells have chloroplasts. **2 Figure 23.15 C 3 Figure 23.18 C 4 D 5 C 6 C 7 D 8 D 9 B 10 B 11 C 12 C 13 C 14 A 15 D 16 A 17 B 18** Eukaryotic cells arose through endosymbiotic events that gave rise to the energy-producing organelles within the eukaryotic cells such as mitochondria and chloroplasts. The nuclear genome of eukaryotes is related most closely to the Archaea, so it may have been an early archaean that engulfed a bacterial cell that evolved into a mitochondrion. Mitochondria appear to have originated from an alpha-proteobacterium, whereas chloroplasts originated as a cyanobacterium. There is also evidence of secondary endosymbiotic events. Other cell components may also have resulted from endosymbiotic events. **19** The ability to perform sexual reproduction allows protists to recombine their genes and produce new variations of progeny that may be better suited to the new environment. In contrast, asexual reproduction generates progeny that are clones of the parent. **20** As an intestinal parasite, *Giardia* cysts would be exposed to low pH in the stomach acids of its host. To survive this environment and reach the intestine, the cysts would have to be resistant to acidic conditions. **21** Unlike *Ulva*, protists in the genus *Caulerpa* actually are large, multinucleate, single cells. Because these organisms undergo mitosis without cytokinesis and lack cytoplasmic divisions, they cannot be considered truly multicellular. **22** By definition, an obligate saprobe lacks the ability to perform photosynthesis, so it cannot directly obtain nutrition by searching for light. Instead, a chemotactic mechanism that senses the odors released during decay might be a more effective sensing organ for a saprobe. **23** *Plasmodium* parasites infect humans and cause malaria. However, they must complete part of their life cycle within *Anopheles* mosquitoes, and they can only infect humans via the bite wound of a mosquito. If the mosquito population is decreased, then fewer *Plasmodium* would be able to develop and infect humans, thereby reducing the incidence of human infections with this parasite. **24** The trypanosomes

that cause this disease are capable of expressing a glycoprotein coat with a different molecular structure with each generation. Because the immune system must respond to specific antigens to raise a meaningful defense, the changing nature of trypanosome antigens prevents the immune system from ever clearing this infection. Massive trypanosome infection eventually leads to host organ failure and death.

Chapter 24

1 Figure 24.13 A **2** Figure 24.16 D **3** Figure 24.20 Without mycorrhiza, plants cannot absorb adequate nutrients, which stunts their growth. Addition of fungal spores to sterile soil can alleviate this problem. **4** C **5** A **6** D **7** C **8** A **9** B **10** D **11** B **12** C **13** D **14** A **15** C **16** B **17** C **18** Asexual reproduction is fast and best under favorable conditions. Sexual reproduction allows the recombination of genetic traits and increases the odds of developing new adaptations better suited to a changed environment. **19** Animals have no cell walls; fungi have cell walls containing chitin; plants have cell walls containing cellulose. Chloroplasts are absent in both animals and fungi but are present in plants. Animal plasma membranes are stabilized with cholesterol, while fungi plasma membranes are stabilized with ergosterol, and plant plasma membranes are stabilized with phytosterols. Animals obtain N and C from food sources via internal digestion. Fungi obtain N and C from food sources via external digestion. Plants obtain organic N from the environment or through symbiotic N-fixing bacteria; they obtain C from photosynthesis. Animals and fungi store polysaccharides as glycogen, while plants store them as starch. **20** By ingesting spores and disseminating them in the environment as waste, animals act as agents of dispersal. The benefit to the fungus outweighs the cost of producing fleshy fruiting bodies. **21** Chytridiomycota (Chytrids) may have a unicellular or multicellular body structure; some are aquatic with motile spores with flagella; an example is the *Allomyces*. Zygomycota (conjugated fungi) have a multicellular body structure; features include zygospores and presence in soil; examples are bread and fruit molds. Ascomycota (sac fungi) may have unicellular or multicellular body structure; a feature is sexual spores in sacs (asci); examples include the yeasts used in bread, wine, and beer production. Basidiomycota (club fungi) have multicellular bodies; features includes sexual spores in the basidiocarp (mushroom) and that they are mostly decomposers; mushroom-producing fungi are an example. **22** Protection from excess light that may bleach photosynthetic pigments allows the photosynthetic partner to survive in environments unfavorable to plants. **23** Dermatophytes that colonize skin break down the keratinized layer of dead cells that protects tissues from bacterial invasion. Once the integrity of the skin is breached, bacteria can enter the deeper layers of tissues and cause infections. **24** The dough is often contaminated by toxic spores that float in the air. It was one of Louis Pasteur's achievements to purify reliable strains of baker's yeast to produce bread consistently.

Chapter 25

1 Figure 25.5 B. **2** Figure 25.14 C. **3** Figure 25.21 D. **4** A **5** D **6** C **7** C **8** A **9** D **10** C **11** A **12** C **13** C **14** D **15** A **16** D **17** C **18** D **19** Sunlight is not filtered by water or other algae on land; therefore, there is no need to collect light at additional wavelengths made available by other pigment coloration. **20** Paleobotanists distinguish between extinct species, which no longer live, and extant species, which are still living. **21** It allows for survival through periodic droughts and colonization of environments where the supply of water fluctuates. **22** Mosses absorb water and nutrients carried by the rain and do not need soil because they do not derive much nutrition from the soil. **23** The bryophytes are divided into three phyla: the liverworts or Hepaticophyta, the hornworts or Anthocerotophyta, and the mosses or true Bryophyta. **24** Plants became able to transport water and nutrients and not be limited by rates of diffusion. Vascularization allowed the development of leaves, which increased efficiency of photosynthesis and provided more energy for plant growth. **25** Ferns are considered the most advanced seedless vascular plants, because they display characteristics commonly observed in seed plants—they form large leaves and branching roots.

Chapter 26

1 Figure 26.8 B. The diploid zygote forms after the pollen tube has finished forming, so that the male generative nuclei can fuse with the female gametophyte. **2** Figure 26.15 Without a megasporangium, an egg would not form; without a microsporangium, pollen would not form. **3** D **4** A **5** C **6** A **7** A **8** D **9** B **10** A **11** C **12** A **13** B **14** B **15** C **16** A **17** D **18** D **19** Both pollination and herbivory contributed to diversity, with plants needing to attract some insects and repel others. **20** Seeds and pollen allowed plants to reproduce in absence of water. This allowed them to expand their range onto dry land and to survive drought conditions. **21** The trees are adapted to arid weather, and do not lose as much water due to transpiration as non-conifers. **22** The four modern-day phyla of gymnosperms are Coniferophyta, Cycadophyta, Ginkgophyta, and Gnetophyta. **23** The resemblance between cycads and palm trees is only superficial. Cycads are gymnosperms and do not bear flowers or fruit. Cycads produce cones: large, female cones that produce naked seeds, and smaller male cones on separate plants. Palms do not. **24** Angiosperms are successful because of flowers and fruit. These structures protect reproduction from variability in the environment. **25** Using animal pollinators promotes cross-pollination and increases genetic diversity. The

odds that the pollen will reach another flower are greatly increased compared with the randomness of wind pollination. **26** Biodiversity is the variation in all forms of life. It can refer to variation within a species, within an ecosystem, or on an entire planet. It is important because it ensures a resource for new food crops and medicines. Plant life balances the ecosystems, protects watersheds, mitigates erosion, moderates climate, and provides shelter for many animal species.

Chapter 27

1 **Figure 27.5** The animal might develop two heads and no tail. **2** **Figure 27.6** C **3** **Figure 27.9** D **4** B **5** C **6** D **7** C **8** B **9** A **10** C **11** B **12** D **13** D **14** B **15** A **16** C **17** B **18** D **19** The development of specialized tissues affords more complex animal anatomy and physiology because differentiated tissue types can perform unique functions and work together in tandem to allow the animal to perform more functions. For example, specialized muscle tissue allows directed and efficient movement, and specialized nervous tissue allows for multiple sensory modalities as well as the ability to respond to various sensory information; these functions are not necessarily available to other non-animal organisms. **20** Humans are multicellular organisms. They also contain differentiated tissues, such as epithelial, muscle, and nervous tissue, as well as specialized organs and organ systems. As heterotrophs, humans cannot produce their own nutrients and must obtain them by ingesting other organisms, such as plants, fungi, and animals. Humans undergo sexual reproduction, as well as the same embryonic developmental stages as other animals, which eventually lead to a fixed and motile body plan controlled in large part by *Hox* genes. **21** Altered expression of homeotic genes can lead to major changes in the morphology of the individual. *Hox* genes can affect the spatial arrangements of organs and body parts. If a *Hox* gene was mutated or duplicated, it could affect where a leg might be on a fruit fly or how far apart a person's fingers are. **22** Humans have body plans that are bilaterally symmetrical and are characterized by the development of three germ layers, making them triploblasts. Humans have true coeloms and are thus eucoelomates. As deuterostomes, humans are characterized by radial and indeterminate cleavage. **23** The evolution of bilateral symmetry led to designated head and tail body regions, and promoted more efficient mobility for animals. This improved mobility allowed for more skillful seeking of resources and prey escaping from predators. The appearance of the coelom in coelomates provides many internal organs with shock absorption, making them less prone to physical damage from bodily assault. A coelom also gives the body greater flexibility, which promotes more efficient movement. The relatively loose placement of organs within the coelom allows them to develop and grow with some spatial freedom, which promoted the evolution of optimal organ arrangement. The coelom also provides space for a circulatory system, which is an advantageous way to distribute body fluids and gases. **24** Two new clades that comprise the two major groups of protostomes are called the lophotrochozoans and the ecdysozoans. The formation of these two clades came about through molecular research from DNA and protein data. Also, the novel phylum of worm called Acoelomorpha was determined due to molecular data that distinguished them from other flatworms. **25** In many cases, morphological similarities between animals may be only superficial similarities and may not indicate a true evolutionary relationship. One of the reasons for this is that certain morphological traits can evolve along very different evolutionary branches of animals for similar ecological reasons. **26** One theory states that environmental factors led to the Cambrian explosion. For example, the rise in atmospheric oxygen and oceanic calcium levels helped to provide the right environmental conditions to allow such a rapid evolution of new animal phyla. Another theory states that ecological factors such as competitive pressures and predator-prey relationships reached a threshold that supported the rapid animal evolution that took place during the Cambrian period. **27** It is true that multiple mass extinction events have taken place since the Cambrian period, when most currently existing animal phyla appeared, and the majority of animal species were commonly wiped out during these events. However, a small number of animal species representing each phylum were usually able to survive each extinction event, allowing the phylum to continue to evolve rather than become altogether extinct.

Chapter 28

1 **Figure 28.3** B **2** **Figure 28.20** D **3** **Figure 28.36** C **4** B **5** D **6** D **7** C **8** B **9** A **10** C **11** B **12** D **13** C **14** A **15** B **16** D **17** C **18** Pinacocytes are epithelial-like cells, form the outermost layer of sponges, and enclose a jelly-like substance called mesohyl. In some sponges, porocytes form ostia, single tube-shaped cells that act as valves to regulate the flow of water into the spongocoel. Choanocytes ("collar cells") are present at various locations, depending on the type of sponge, but they always line some space through which water flows and are used in feeding. **19** The sponges draw water carrying food particles into the spongocoel using the beating of flagella on the choanocytes. The food particles are caught by the collar of the choanocyte and are brought into the cell by phagocytosis. Digestion of the food particle takes place inside the cell. The difference between this and the mechanisms of other animals is that digestion takes place within cells rather than outside of cells. It means that the organism can feed only on particles smaller than the cells themselves. **20** Nematocysts are "stinging cells" designed to paralyze prey. The nematocysts contain a neurotoxin that renders prey immobile. **21** Poriferans do not possess true tissues, while cnidarians do have tissues. Because of this difference, poriferans do not have a nervous system or muscles for locomotion, which cnidarians have. **22** Mollusks have a large muscular foot that may be modified in various ways, such

as into tentacles, but it functions in locomotion. They have a mantle, a structure of tissue that covers and encloses the dorsal portion of the animal, and secretes the shell when it is present. The mantle encloses the mantle cavity, which houses the gills (when present), excretory pores, anus, and gonadopores. The coelom of mollusks is restricted to the region around the systemic heart. The main body cavity is a hemocoel. Many mollusks have a radula near the mouth that is used for scraping food. **23** Mollusks have a shell, even if it is a reduced shell. Nemertines do not have a shell. Nemertines have a proboscis; mollusks do not. Nemertines have a closed circulatory system, whereas Mollusks have an open circulatory system. **24** It is a true animal with at least rudiments of the physiological systems—feeding, nervous, muscle, and reproductive—found in “higher animals” like mice and humans. It is so small that large numbers can be raised in Petri dishes. It reproduces rapidly. It is transparent so that every cell in the living animal can be seen under the microscope. Before it dies (after 2–3 weeks), it shows signs of aging and thus may provide general clues as to the aging process. **25** There are nematodes with separate sexes and hermaphrodites in addition to species that reproduce parthenogenetically. The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has a self-fertilizing hermaphrodite sex and a pure male sex. **26** The Arthropoda include the Hexapoda, which are mandibulates with six legs, the Myriapoda, which are mandibulates with many legs and include the centipedes and millipedes, the Crustacea, which are mostly marine mandibulates, and the Chelicerata, which include the spiders and scorpions and their kin. **27** Arthropods have an exoskeleton, which is missing in annelids. Arthropod segmentation is more specialized with major organs concentrated in body tagma. Annelid segmentation is usually more uniform with the intestine extending through most segments. **28** The Asterozoa are the sea stars, the Echinozoa are the sea urchins and sand dollars, the Ophiurozoa are the brittle stars, the Crinozoa are the sea lilies and feather stars, the Holothurozoa are the sea cucumbers.

Chapter 29

1 Figure 29.3 A 2 Figure 29.20 D 3 Figure 29.22 The ancestor of modern Testudines may at one time have had a second opening in the skull, but over time this might have been lost. **4 B 5 A 6 C 7 B 8 D 9 A 10 C 11 D 12 B 13 D 14 A 15 D 16 A 17 A 18** The characteristic features of the phylum Chordata are a notochord, a dorsal hollow nerve cord, pharyngeal slits, and a post-anal tail. **19** Comparison of hagfishes with lampreys shows that the cranium evolved first in early vertebrates, as it is seen in hagfishes, which evolved earlier than lampreys. This was followed by evolution of the vertebral column, a primitive form of which is seen in lampreys and not in hagfishes. **20** Evolution of the jaw and paired fins permitted gnathostomes to diversify from the sedentary suspension feeding of agnathans to a mobile predatory lifestyle. The ability of gnathostomes to utilize new nutrient sources may be one reason why the gnathostomes replaced most agnathans. **21** A moist environment is required, as frog eggs lack a shell and dehydrate quickly in dry environments. **22** The larval stage of frogs is the tadpole, which is usually a filter-feeding herbivore. Tadpoles usually have gills, a lateral line system, long-finned tails, and lack limbs. In the adult form, the gills and lateral line system disappear, and four limbs develop. The jaws grow larger, suitable for carnivorous feeding, and the digestive system transforms into the typical short gut of a predator. An eardrum and air-breathing lungs also develop. **23** The chorion facilitates the exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide gases between the embryo and the surrounding air. The amnion protects the embryo from mechanical shock and prevents dehydration. The allantois stores nitrogenous wastes produced by the embryo and facilitates respiration. **24** Lizards differ from snakes by having eyelids, external ears, and less kinematic skulls. **25** This is suggested by similarities observed between theropod fossils and birds, specifically in the design of the hip and wrist bones, as well as the presence of a furcula, or wishbone, formed by the fusing of the clavicles. **26** The sternum of birds is larger than that of other vertebrates, which accommodates the force required for flapping. Another skeletal modification is the fusion of the clavicles, forming the furcula or wishbone. The furcula is flexible enough to bend during flapping and provides support to the shoulder girdle during flapping. Birds also have pneumatic bones that are hollow rather than filled with tissue. **27** The lower jaw of mammals consists of only one bone, the dentary. The dentary bone joins the skull at the squamosal bone. Mammals have three bones of the middle ear. The adductor muscle that closes the jaw is composed of two muscles in mammals. Most mammals have heterodont teeth. **28** In some mammals, the cerebral cortex is highly folded, allowing for greater surface area than a smooth cortex. The optic lobes are divided into two parts in mammals. Eutherian mammals also possess a specialized structure that links the two cerebral hemispheres, called the corpus callosum. **29** Archaic *Homo sapiens* differed from modern humans by having a thick skull and a prominent brow ridge, and lacking a prominent chin. **30** The immediate ancestors of humans were *Australopithecus*. All people past and present, along with the australopithecines, are hominins. We share the adaptation of being habitually bipedal. The earliest australopithecines very likely did not evolve until 5 million years ago. The primate fossil record for this crucial transitional period leading to australopithecines is still sketchy and somewhat confusing. By about 2.5 million years ago, there were at least two evolutionary lines of hominins descended from early australopithecines.

Chapter 30

1 Figure 30.7 A and B. The cortex, pith, and epidermis are made of parenchyma cells. **2 Figure 30.32** Yes, you can equalize the water level by adding the solute to the left side of the tube such that water moves

toward the left until the water levels are equal. **3** **Figure 30.34** B. **4** C **5** B **6** C **7** D **8** A **9** C **10** B **11** B **12** A **13** C **14** B **15** A **16** C **17** D **18** B **19** A **20** D **21** C **22** C **23** B **24** C **25** A **26** C **27** Lawn grasses and other monocots have an intercalary meristem, which is a region of meristematic tissue at the base of the leaf blade. This is beneficial to the plant because it can continue to grow even when the tip of the plant is removed by grazing or mowing. **28** Vascular tissue transports water, minerals, and sugars throughout the plant. Vascular tissue is made up of xylem tissue and phloem tissue. Xylem tissue transports water and nutrients from the roots upward. Phloem tissue carries sugars from the sites of photosynthesis to the rest of the plant. **29** Stomata allow gases to enter and exit the plant. Guard cells regulate the opening and closing of stomata. If these cells did not function correctly, a plant could not get the carbon dioxide needed for photosynthesis, nor could it release the oxygen produced by photosynthesis. **30** Xylem is made up of tracheids and vessel elements, which are cells that transport water and dissolved minerals and that are dead at maturity. Phloem is made up of sieve-tube cells and companion cells, which transport carbohydrates and are alive at maturity. **31** In woody plants, the cork cambium is the outermost lateral meristem; it produces new cells towards the interior, which enables the plant to increase in girth. The cork cambium also produces cork cells towards the exterior, which protect the plant from physical damage while reducing water loss. **32** In woody stems, lenticels allow internal cells to exchange gases with the outside atmosphere. **33** Annual rings can also indicate the climate conditions that prevailed during each growing season. **34** Answers will vary. Rhizomes, stolons, and runners can give rise to new plants. Corms, tubers, and bulbs can also produce new plants and can store food. Tendrils help a plant to climb, while thorns discourage herbivores. **35** A tap root system has a single main root that grows down. A fibrous root system forms a dense network of roots that is closer to the soil surface. An example of a tap root system is a carrot. Grasses such as wheat, rice, and corn are examples of fibrous root systems. Fibrous root systems are found in monocots; tap root systems are found in dicots. **36** The root would not be able to produce lateral roots. **37** Monocots have leaves with parallel venation, and dicots have leaves with reticulate, net-like venation. **38** Conifers such as spruce, fir, and pine have needle-shaped leaves with sunken stomata, helping to reduce water loss. **39** The process of bulk flow moves water up the xylem and moves photosynthates (solute) up and down the phloem. **40** A long-day plant needs a higher proportion of the Pfr form to Pr form of phytochrome. The plant requires long periods of illumination with light enriched in the red range of the spectrum. **41** Gravitropism will allow roots to dig deep into the soil to find water and minerals, whereas the seedling will grow towards light to enable photosynthesis. **42** Refrigeration slows chemical reactions, including fruit maturation. Ventilation removes the ethylene gas that speeds up fruit ripening. **43** To prevent further entry of pathogens, stomata close, even if they restrict entry of CO₂. Some pathogens secrete virulence factors that inhibit the closing of stomata. Abscisic acid is the stress hormone responsible for inducing closing of stomata.

Chapter 31

1 **Figure 31.5** The air content of the soil decreases. **2** **Figure 31.6** The A horizon is the topsoil, and the B horizon is subsoil. **3** **Figure 31.9** Soybeans are able to fix nitrogen in their roots, which are not harvested at the end of the growing season. The belowground nitrogen can be used in the next season by the corn. **4** C **5** B **6** A **7** B **8** D **9** A **10** B **11** B **12** B **13** A **14** A **15** A **16** Deficiencies in these nutrients could result in stunted growth, slow growth, and chlorosis. **17** van Helmont showed that plants do not consume soil, which is correct. He also thought that plant growth and increased weight resulted from the intake of water, a conclusion that has since been disproven. **18** Answers may vary. Essential macronutrients include carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, magnesium, and sulfur. Essential micronutrients include iron, manganese, boron, molybdenum, copper, zinc, chlorine, nickel, cobalt, sodium, and silicon. **19** A mineral soil forms from the weathering of rocks; it is inorganic material. An organic soil is formed from sedimentation; it mostly consists of humus. **20** Parent material, climate, topography, biological factors, and time affect soil formation. Parent material is the material in which soils form. Climate describes how temperature, moisture, and wind cause different patterns of weathering, influencing the characteristics of the soil. Topography affects the characteristics and fertility of a soil. Biological factors include the presence of living organisms that greatly affect soil formation. Processes such as freezing and thawing may produce cracks in rocks; plant roots can penetrate these crevices and produce more fragmentation. Time affects soil because soil develops over long periods. **21** Topography affects water runoff, which strips away parent material and affects plant growth. Steep soils are more prone to erosion and may be thinner than soils that are on level surfaces. **22** Because it is natural and does not require use of a nonrenewable resource, such as natural gas. **23** Photosynthesis harvests and stores energy, whereas biological nitrogen fixation requires energy. **24** A nodule results from the symbiosis between a plant and bacterium. Within nodules, the process of nitrogen fixation allows the plant to obtain nitrogen from the air.

Chapter 32

1 **Figure 32.3** Pollen (or sperm); carpellate; staminate. **2** **Figure 32.8** B: The pollen tube will form but will not be guided toward the egg. **3** **Figure 32.20** B **4** B **5** D **6** A **7** A **8** B **9** B **10** D **11** C **12** A **13** C **14** D **15** C **16** Inside the flower are the reproductive organs of the plant. The stamen is the male reproductive organ. Pollen is produced in the stamen. The carpel is the female reproductive organ. The ovary is the swollen

base of the carpel where ovules are found. Not all flowers have every one of the four parts. **17** Plants have two distinct phases in their lifecycle: the gametophyte stage and the sporophyte stage. In the gametophyte stage, when reproductive cells undergo meiosis and produce haploid cells called spores, the gametophyte stage begins. Spores divide by cell division to form plant structures of an entirely new plant. The cells in these structures or plants are haploid. Some of these cells undergo cell division and form sex cells. Fertilization, the joining of haploid sex cells, begins the sporophyte stage. Cells formed in this stage have the diploid number of chromosomes. Meiosis in some of these cells forms spores, and the cycle begins again: a process known as alternation of generations. **18** A typical flower has four main parts, or whorls: the calyx, corolla, androecium, and gynoecium. The outermost whorl of the flower has green, leafy structures known as sepals, which are collectively called the calyx. It helps to protect the unopened bud. The second whorl is made up of brightly colored petals that are known collectively as the corolla. The third whorl is the male reproductive structure known as the androecium. The androecium has stamens, which have anthers on a stalk or filament. Pollen grains are borne on the anthers. The gynoecium is the female reproductive structure. The carpel is the individual structure of the gynoecium and has a stigma, the stalk or style, and the ovary. **19** If all four whorls of a flower are present, it is a complete flower. If any of the four parts is missing, it is known as incomplete. Flowers that contain both an androecium and gynoecium are called androgynous or hermaphrodites. Those that contain only an androecium are known as staminate flowers, and those that have only carpels are known as carpellate. If both male and female flowers are borne on the same plant, it is called monoecious, while plants with male and female flowers on separate plants are termed dioecious. **20** Many seeds enter a period of inactivity or extremely low metabolic activity, a process known as dormancy. Dormancy allows seeds to tide over unfavorable conditions and germinate on return to favorable conditions. Favorable conditions could be as diverse as moisture, light, cold, fire, or chemical treatments. After heavy rains, many new seedlings emerge. Forest fires also lead to the emergence of new seedlings. **21** Some fruits have built-in mechanisms that allow them to disperse seeds by themselves, but others require the assistance of agents like wind, water, and animals. Fruit that are dispersed by the wind are light in weight and often have wing-like appendages that allow them to be carried by the wind; other have structures resembling a parachute that keep them afloat in the wind. Some fruits, such as those of dandelions, have hairy, weightless structures that allow them to float in the wind. Fruits dispersed by water are light and buoyant, giving them the ability to float; coconuts are one example. Animals and birds eat fruits and disperse their seeds by leaving droppings at distant locations. Other animals bury fruit that may later germinate. Some fruits stick to animals' bodies and are carried to new locations. People also contribute to seed dispersal when they carry fruits to new places. **22** Asexual reproduction does not require the expenditure of the plant's resources and energy that would be involved in producing a flower, attracting pollinators, or dispersing seeds. Asexual reproduction results in plants that are genetically identical to the parent plant, since there is no mixing of male and female gametes, resulting in better survival. The cuttings or buds taken from an adult plant produce progeny that mature faster and are sturdier than a seedling grown from a seed. **23** Asexual reproduction in plants can take place by natural methods or artificial methods. Natural methods include strategies used by the plant to propagate itself. Artificial methods include grafting, cutting, layering, and micropropagation. **24** Plant species that complete their life cycle in one season are known as annuals. Biennials complete their life cycle in two seasons. In the first season, the plant has a vegetative phase, whereas in the next season, it completes its reproductive phase. Perennials, such as the magnolia, complete their life cycle in two years or more. **25** Monocarpic plants flower only once during their lifetime. During the vegetative period of their lifecycle, these plants accumulate a great deal of food material that will be required during their once-in-a-lifetime flowering and setting of seed after fertilization. Soon after flowering, these plants die. Polycarpic plants flower several times during their life span; therefore, not all nutrients are channelled towards flowering.

Chapter 33

1 **Figure 33.11 A** **2** **Figure 33.21** Both processes are the result of negative feedback loops. Negative feedback loops, which tend to keep a system at equilibrium, are more common than positive feedback loops. **3** **Figure 33.22** Pyrogens increase body temperature by causing the blood vessels to constrict, inducing shivering, and stopping sweat glands from secreting fluid. **4** A **5** B **6** C **7** B **8** D **9** B **10** C **11** B **12** D **13** B **14** D **15** C **16** A **17** B **18** B **19** B **20** C **21** A **22** D **23** B **24** Diffusion is effective over a very short distance. If a cell exceeds this distance in its size, the center of the cell cannot get adequate nutrients nor can it expel enough waste to survive. To compensate for this, cells can loosely adhere to each other in a liquid medium, or develop into multi-celled organisms that use circulatory and respiratory systems to deliver nutrients and remove wastes. **25** Basal Metabolic Rate is an expression of the metabolic processes that occur to maintain an individual's functioning and body temperature. Smaller bodied animals have a relatively large surface area compared to a much larger animal. The large animal's large surface area leads to increased heat loss that the animal must compensate for, resulting in a higher BMR. A small animal, having less relative surface area, does not lose as much heat and has a correspondingly lower BMR. **26** Squamous epithelia can be either simple or stratified. As a single layer of cells, it presents a very thin epithelia that minimally inhibits diffusion. As a stratified epithelia, the surface cells can be sloughed off and the cells in deeper layers protect the underlying tissues from damage. **27** Both contain cells other than the traditional fibroblast. Both have cells that lodge in spaces within the tissue called lacunae. Both collagen and elastic fibers are found in bone and cartilage. Both tissues participate in vertebrate skeletal development and formation. **28** An adjustment

to a change in the internal or external environment requires a change in the direction of the stimulus. A negative feedback loop accomplishes this, while a positive feedback loop would continue the stimulus and result in harm to the animal. **29** Mammalian enzymes increase activity to the point of denaturation, increasing the chemical activity of the cells involved. Bacterial enzymes have a specific temperature for their most efficient activity and are inhibited at either higher or lower temperatures. Fever results in an increase in the destruction of the invading bacteria by increasing the effectiveness of body defenses and an inhibiting bacterial metabolism. **30** Diabetes is often associated with a lack in production of insulin. Without insulin, blood glucose levels go up after a meal, but never go back down to normal levels.

Chapter 34

1 Figure 34.11 B 2 Figure 34.12 C 3 Figure 34.19 C 4 D 5 B 6 C 7 C 8 A 9 D 10 A 11 C 12 A 13 B 14 C 15 B 16 Animals with a polygastric digestive system have a multi-chambered stomach. The four compartments of the stomach are called the rumen, reticulum, omasum, and abomasum. These chambers contain many microbes that break down the cellulose and ferment the ingested food. The abomasum is the “true” stomach and is the equivalent of a monogastric stomach chamber where gastric juices are secreted. The four-compartment gastric chamber provides larger space and the microbial support necessary for ruminants to digest plant material. **17** Birds have a stomach chamber called a gizzard. Here, the food is stored, soaked, and ground into finer particles, often using pebbles. Once this process is complete, the digestive juices take over in the proventriculus and continue the digestive process. **18** Accessory organs play an important role in producing and delivering digestive juices to the intestine during digestion and absorption. Specifically, the salivary glands, liver, pancreas, and gallbladder play important roles. Malfunction of any of these organs can lead to disease states. **19** The villi and microvilli are folds on the surface of the small intestine. These folds increase the surface area of the intestine and provide more area for the absorption of nutrients. **20** Essential nutrients are those nutrients that must be obtained from the diet because they cannot be produced by the body. Vitamins and minerals are examples of essential nutrients. **21** Minerals—such as potassium, sodium, and calcium—are required for the functioning of many cellular processes, including muscle contraction and nerve conduction. While minerals are required in trace amounts, not having minerals in the diet can be potentially harmful. **22** In the United States, obesity, particularly childhood obesity, is a growing concern. Some of the contributors to this situation include sedentary lifestyles and consuming more processed foods and less fruits and vegetables. As a result, even young children who are obese can face health concerns. **23** Malnutrition, often in the form of not getting enough calories or not enough of the essential nutrients, can have severe consequences. Many malnourished children have vision and dental problems, and over the years may develop many serious health problems. **24** Lipids add flavor to food and promote a sense of satiety or fullness. Fatty foods are sources of high energy; one gram of lipid contains nine calories. Lipids are also required in the diet to aid the absorption of lipid-soluble vitamins and for the production of lipid-soluble hormones. **25** Hormones control the different digestive enzymes that are secreted in the stomach and the intestine during the process of digestion and absorption. For example, the hormone gastrin stimulates stomach acid secretion in response to food intake. The hormone somatostatin stops the release of stomach acid. **26** There are many cases where loss of hormonal regulation can lead to illnesses. For example, the bilirubin produced by the breakdown of red blood cells is converted to bile by the liver. When there is malfunction of this process, there is excess bilirubin in the blood and bile levels are low. As a result, the body struggles with dealing with fatty food. This is why a patient suffering from jaundice is asked to eat a diet with almost zero fat.

Chapter 35

1 Figure 35.3 B 2 Figure 35.11 Potassium channel blockers slow the repolarization phase, but have no effect on depolarization. **3 Figure 35.26 D 4 C 5 B 6 B 7 B 8 B 9 C 10 D 11 B 12 B 13 C 14 B 15 A 16 B 17 C 18 B 19** Neurons contain organelles common to all cells, such as a nucleus and mitochondria. They are unique because they contain dendrites, which can receive signals from other neurons, and axons that can send these signals to other cells. **20** Myelin provides insulation for signals traveling along axons. Without myelin, signal transmission can slow down and degrade over time. This would slow down neuronal communication across the nervous system and affect all downstream functions. **21** Myelin prevents the leak of current from the axon. Nodes of Ranvier allow the action potential to be regenerated at specific points along the axon. They also save energy for the cell since voltage-gated ion channels and sodium-potassium transporters are not needed along myelinated portions of the axon. **22** An action potential travels along an axon until it depolarizes the membrane at an axon terminal. Depolarization of the membrane causes voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels to open and Ca^{2+} to enter the cell. The intracellular calcium influx causes synaptic vesicles containing neurotransmitter to fuse with the presynaptic membrane. The neurotransmitter diffuses across the synaptic cleft and binds to receptors on the postsynaptic membrane. Depending on the specific neurotransmitter and postsynaptic receptor, this action can cause positive (excitatory postsynaptic potential) or negative (inhibitory postsynaptic potential) ions to enter the cell. **23** To determine the function of a specific brain area, scientists can look at patients who have damage in that brain area and see what symptoms they exhibit. Researchers can disable the brain structure temporarily using transcranial magnetic stimulation. They can disable or remove the area in an animal model. fMRI can be used to correlate specific functions with

increased blood flow to brain regions. **24** The spinal cord transmits sensory information from the body to the brain and motor commands from the brain to the body through its connections with peripheral nerves. It also controls motor reflexes. **25** The sympathetic nervous system prepares the body for “fight or flight,” whereas the parasympathetic nervous system allows the body to “rest and digest.” Sympathetic neurons release norepinephrine onto target organs; parasympathetic neurons release acetylcholine. Sympathetic neuron cell bodies are located in sympathetic ganglia. Parasympathetic neuron cell bodies are located in the brainstem and sacral spinal cord. Activation of the sympathetic nervous system increases heart rate and blood pressure and decreases digestion and blood flow to the skin. Activation of the parasympathetic nervous system decreases heart rate and blood pressure and increases digestion and blood flow to the skin. **26** The sensory-somatic nervous system transmits sensory information from the skin, muscles, and sensory organs to the CNS. It also sends motor commands from the CNS to the muscles, causing them to contract. **27** Symptoms of Alzheimer’s disease include disruptive memory loss, confusion about time or place, difficulties planning or executing tasks, poor judgment, and personality changes. **28** Possible treatments for patients with major depression include psychotherapy and prescription medications. MAO inhibitor drugs inhibit the breakdown of certain neurotransmitters (including dopamine, serotonin, norepinephrine) in the synaptic cleft. SSRI medications inhibit the reuptake of serotonin into the presynaptic neuron.

Chapter 36

1 Figure 36.5 D **2** Figure 36.14 B **3** Figure 36.17 A **4** B **5** D **6** A **7** B **8** A **9** D **10** A **11** A **12** B **13** D **14** A **15** B **16** B **17** C **18** D **19** Transmission of sensory information from the receptor to the central nervous system will be impaired, and thus, perception of stimuli, which occurs in the brain, will be halted. **20** The just-noticeable difference is a fraction of the overall magnitude of the stimulus and seems to be a relatively fixed proportion (such as 10 percent) whether the stimulus is large (such as a very heavy object) or small (such as a very light object). **21** The cortical areas serving skin that is densely innervated likely are larger than those serving skin that is less densely innervated. **22** Pheromones may not be consciously perceived, and pheromones can have direct physiological and behavioral effects on their recipients. **23** The animal might not be able to recognize the differences in food sources and thus might not be able to discriminate between spoiled food and safe food or between foods that contain necessary nutrients, such as proteins, and foods that do not. **24** The sound would slow down, because it is transmitted through the particles (gas) and there are fewer particles (lower density) at higher altitudes. **25** Because vestibular sensation relies on gravity’s effects on tiny crystals in the inner ear, a situation of reduced gravity would likely impair vestibular sensation. **26** The pineal gland could use length-of-day information to determine the time of year, for example. Day length is shorter in the winter than it is in the summer. For many animals and plants, photoperiod cues them to reproduce at a certain time of year. **27** The photoreceptors tonically inhibit the bipolar cells, and stimulation of the receptors turns this inhibition off, activating the bipolar cells.

Chapter 37

1 Figure 37.5 Proteins unfold, or denature, at higher temperatures. **2** Figure 37.11 B **3** Figure 37.14 Patient A has symptoms associated with decreased metabolism, and may be suffering from hypothyroidism. Patient B has symptoms associated with increased metabolism, and may be suffering from hyperthyroidism. **4** C **5** A **6** D **7** D **8** A **9** B **10** C **11** D **12** A **13** B **14** C **15** A **16** Although there are many different hormones in the human body, they can be divided into three classes based on their chemical structure: lipid-derived, amino acid-derived, and peptide hormones. One of the key distinguishing features of the lipid-derived hormones is that they can diffuse across plasma membranes whereas the amino acid-derived and peptide hormones cannot. **17** Secreted peptides such as insulin are stored within vesicles in the cells that synthesize them. They are then released in response to stimuli such as high blood glucose levels in the case of insulin. **18** The number of receptors that respond to a hormone can change, resulting in increased or decreased cell sensitivity. The number of receptors can increase in response to rising hormone levels, called up-regulation, making the cell more sensitive to the hormone and allowing for more cellular activity. The number of receptors can also decrease in response to rising hormone levels, called down-regulation, leading to reduced cellular activity. **19** Depending on the location of the protein receptor on the target cell and the chemical structure of the hormone, hormones can mediate changes directly by binding to intracellular receptors and modulating gene transcription, or indirectly by binding to cell surface receptors and stimulating signaling pathways. **20** In addition to producing FSH and LH, the anterior pituitary also produces the hormone prolactin (PRL) in females. Prolactin stimulates the production of milk by the mammary glands following childbirth. Prolactin levels are regulated by the hypothalamic hormones prolactin-releasing hormone (PRH) and prolactin-inhibiting hormone (PIH) which is now known to be dopamine. PRH stimulates the release of prolactin and PIH inhibits it. The posterior pituitary releases the hormone oxytocin, which stimulates contractions during childbirth. The uterine smooth muscles are not very sensitive to oxytocin until late in pregnancy when the number of oxytocin receptors in the uterus peaks. Stretching of tissues in the uterus and vagina stimulates oxytocin release in childbirth. Contractions increase in intensity as blood levels of oxytocin rise until the birth is complete. **21** Hormonal regulation is required for the growth and replication of most cells in the body. Growth hormone (GH), produced by the anterior pituitary, accelerates the rate of protein synthesis, particularly

in skeletal muscles and bones. Growth hormone has direct and indirect mechanisms of action. The direct actions of GH include: 1) stimulation of fat breakdown (lipolysis) and release into the blood by adipocytes. This results in a switch by most tissues from utilizing glucose as an energy source to utilizing fatty acids. This process is called a glucose-sparing effect. 2) In the liver, GH stimulates glycogen breakdown, which is then released into the blood as glucose. Blood glucose levels increase as most tissues are utilizing fatty acids instead of glucose for their energy needs. The GH mediated increase in blood glucose levels is called a diabetogenic effect because it is similar to the high blood glucose levels seen in diabetes mellitus. **22** Hormone production and release are primarily controlled by negative feedback. In negative feedback systems, a stimulus causes the release of a substance whose effects then inhibit further release. In this way, the concentration of hormones in blood is maintained within a narrow range. For example, the anterior pituitary signals the thyroid to release thyroid hormones. Increasing levels of these hormones in the blood then feed back to the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary to inhibit further signaling to the thyroid gland. **23** The term humoral is derived from the term humor, which refers to bodily fluids such as blood. Humoral stimuli refer to the control of hormone release in response to changes in extracellular fluids such as blood or the ion concentration in the blood. For example, a rise in blood glucose levels triggers the pancreatic release of insulin. Insulin causes blood glucose levels to drop, which signals the pancreas to stop producing insulin in a negative feedback loop. Hormonal stimuli refer to the release of a hormone in response to another hormone. A number of endocrine glands release hormones when stimulated by hormones released by other endocrine organs. For example, the hypothalamus produces hormones that stimulate the anterior pituitary. The anterior pituitary in turn releases hormones that regulate hormone production by other endocrine glands. For example, the anterior pituitary releases thyroid-stimulating hormone, which stimulates the thyroid gland to produce the hormones T₃ and T₄. As blood concentrations of T₃ and T₄ rise they inhibit both the pituitary and the hypothalamus in a negative feedback loop. **24** The main mineralocorticoid is aldosterone, which regulates the concentration of ions in urine, sweat, and saliva. Aldosterone release from the adrenal cortex is stimulated by a decrease in blood concentrations of sodium ions, blood volume, or blood pressure, or an increase in blood potassium levels. **25** The adrenal medulla contains two types of secretory cells, one that produces epinephrine (adrenaline) and another that produces norepinephrine (noradrenaline). Epinephrine is the primary adrenal medulla hormone accounting for 75–80 percent of its secretions. Epinephrine and norepinephrine increase heart rate, breathing rate, cardiac muscle contractions, and blood glucose levels. They also accelerate the breakdown of glucose in skeletal muscles and stored fats in adipose tissue. The release of epinephrine and norepinephrine is stimulated by neural impulses from the sympathetic nervous system. These neural impulses originate from the hypothalamus in response to stress to prepare the body for the fight-or-flight response.

Chapter 38

1 Figure 38.19B 2 Figure 38.37 B 3 Figure 38.38 In the presence of Sarin, acetylcholine is not removed from the synapse, resulting in continuous stimulation of the muscle plasma membrane. At first, muscle activity is intense and uncontrolled, but the ion gradients dissipate, so electrical signals in the T-tubules are no longer possible. The result is paralysis, leading to death by asphyxiation. **4 A 5 C 6 D 7 C 8 B 9 C 10 A 11 C 12 B 13 D 14 C 15 A 16 D 17 B 18 D 19 D 20** The female pelvis is tilted forward and is wider, lighter, and shallower than the male pelvis. It is also has a pubic angle that is broader than the male pelvis. **21** The pelvic girdle is securely attached to the body by strong ligaments, unlike the pectoral girdle, which is sparingly attached to the ribcage. The sockets of the pelvic girdle are deep, allowing the femur to be more stable than the pectoral girdle, which has shallow sockets for the scapula. Most tetrapods have 75 percent of their weight on the front legs because the head and neck are so heavy; the advantage of the shoulder joint is more degrees of freedom in movement. **22** Compact bone tissue forms the hard external layer of all bones and consists of osteons. Compact bone tissue is prominent in areas of bone at which stresses are applied in only a few directions. Spongy bone tissue forms the inner layer of all bones and consists of trabeculae. Spongy bone is prominent in areas of bones that are not heavily stressed or at which stresses arrive from many directions. **23** Osteocytes function in the exchange of nutrients and wastes with the blood. They also maintain normal bone structure by recycling the mineral salts in the bony matrix. Osteoclasts remove bone tissue by releasing lysosomal enzymes and acids that dissolve the bony matrix. Osteoblasts are bone cells that are responsible for bone formation. **24** The hip joint is flexed and the knees are extended. **25** Elevation is the movement of a bone upward, such as when the shoulders are shrugged, lifting the scapulae. Depression is the downward movement of a bone, such as after the shoulders are shrugged and the scapulae return to their normal position from an elevated position. **26** Because ATP is required for myosin to release from actin, muscles would remain rigidly contracted until more ATP was available for the myosin cross-bridge release. This is why dead vertebrates undergo rigor mortis. **27** The cross-sectional area, the length of the muscle fiber at rest, and the frequency of neural stimulation. **28** Neurons will not be able to release neurotransmitter without calcium. Skeletal muscles have calcium stored and don't need any from the outside.

Chapter 39

1 Figure 39.7 B 2 Figure 39.13 C 3 Figure 39.20 The blood pH will drop and hemoglobin affinity for oxygen will decrease. **4 A 5 C 6 B 7 D 8 D 9 D 10 B 11 B 12 D 13 A 14 C 15 D 16** The main

bronchus is the conduit in the lung that funnels air to the airways where gas exchange occurs. The main bronchus attaches the lungs to the very end of the trachea where it bifurcates. The trachea is the cartilaginous structure that extends from the pharynx to the primary bronchi. It serves to funnel air to the lungs. The alveoli are the sites of gas exchange; they are located at the terminal regions of the lung and are attached to the respiratory bronchioles. The acinus is the structure in the lung where gas exchange occurs. **17** The sac-like structure of the alveoli increases their surface area. In addition, the alveoli are made of thin-walled parenchymal cells. These features allow gases to easily diffuse across the cells. **18** FEV₁/FVC measures the forced expiratory volume in one second in relation to the total forced vital capacity (the total amount of air that is exhaled from the lung from a maximal inhalation). This ratio changes with alterations in lung function that arise from diseases such as fibrosis, asthma, and COPD. **19** If all the air in the lung were exhaled, then opening the alveoli for the next inspiration would be very difficult. This is because the tissues would stick together. **20** Oxygen moves from the lung to the bloodstream to the tissues according to the pressure gradient. This is measured as the partial pressure of oxygen. If the amount of oxygen drops in the inspired air, there would be reduced partial pressure. This would decrease the driving force that moves the oxygen into the blood and into the tissues. P_{O₂} is also reduced at high elevations: P_{O₂} at high elevations is lower than at sea

level because the total atmospheric pressure is less than atmospheric pressure at sea level. **21** A doctor can detect a restrictive disease using spirometry. By detecting the rate at which air can be expelled from the lung, a diagnosis of fibrosis or another restrictive disease can be made. **22** Increased airway resistance increases the volume and pressure in the lung; therefore, the intrapleural pressure would be less negative and breathing would be more difficult. **23** A puncture to the thoracic cavity would equalize the pressure inside the thoracic cavity to the outside environment. For the lung to function properly, the intrapleural pressure must be negative. This is caused by the contraction of the diaphragm pulling the lungs down and drawing air into the lungs. **24** The lung is particularly susceptible to changes in the magnitude and direction of gravitational forces. When someone is standing or sitting upright, the pleural pressure gradient leads to increased ventilation further down in the lung. **25** Without carbonic anhydrase, carbon dioxide would not be hydrolyzed into carbonic acid or bicarbonate. Therefore, very little carbon dioxide (only 15 percent) would be transported in the blood away from the tissues. **26** Carbon monoxide has a higher affinity for hemoglobin than oxygen. This means that carbon monoxide will preferentially bind to hemoglobin over oxygen. Administration of 100 percent oxygen is an effective therapy because at that concentration, oxygen will displace the carbon monoxide from the hemoglobin.

Chapter 40

1 Figure 40.10 C 2 Figure 40.11 B 3 Figure 40.17 Blood in the legs is farthest away from the heart and has to flow up to reach it. **4 A 5 D 6 C 7 D 8 C 9 B 10 C 11 B 12 A 13 D 14 A 15 A 16 A** A closed circulatory system is a closed-loop system, in which blood is not free in a cavity. Blood is separate from the bodily interstitial fluid and contained within blood vessels. In this type of system, blood circulates unidirectionally from the heart around the systemic circulatory route, and then returns to the heart. **17** Systemic circulation flows through the systems of the body. The blood flows away from the heart to the brain, liver, kidneys, stomach, and other organs, the limbs, and the muscles of the body; it then returns to the heart. **18** Red blood cells are coated with proteins called antigens made of glycolipids and glycoproteins. When type A and type B blood are mixed, the blood agglutinates because of antibodies in the plasma that bind with the opposing antigen. Type O blood has no antigens. The Rh blood group has either the Rh antigen (Rh+) or no Rh antigen (Rh-). **19** Blood is important for regulation of the body's pH, temperature, and osmotic pressure, the circulation of nutrients and removal of wastes, the distribution of hormones from endocrine glands, the elimination of excess heat; it also contains components for the clotting of blood to prevent blood loss. Blood also transports clotting factors and disease-fighting agents. **20** Lymph capillaries take fluid from the blood to the lymph nodes. The lymph nodes filter the lymph by percolation through connective tissue filled with white blood cells. The white blood cells remove infectious agents, such as bacteria and viruses, to clean the lymph before it returns to the bloodstream. **21** The heart receives an electrical signal from the sinoatrial node triggering the cardiac muscle cells in the atria to contract. The signal pauses at the atrioventricular node before spreading to the walls of the ventricles so the blood is pumped through the body. This is the systolic phase. The heart then relaxes in the diastole and fills again with blood. **22** The capillaries basically exchange materials with their surroundings. Their walls are very thin and are made of one or two layers of cells, where gases, nutrients, and waste are diffused. They are distributed as beds, complex networks that link arteries as well as veins. **23** The heart rate increases, which increases the hydrostatic pressure against the artery walls. At the same time, the arterioles dilate in response to the increased exercise, which reduces peripheral resistance.

Chapter 41

1 Figure 41.5 C 2 Figure 41.6 A 3 Figure 41.8 Loop diuretics decrease the excretion of salt into the renal medulla, thereby reducing its osmolality. As a result, less water is excreted into the medulla by the descending limb, and more water is excreted as urine. **4 B 5 B 6 A 7 C 8 B 9 A 10 C 11 D 12 D 13 A 14 C 15 A 16 C 17 A 18** Excretion allows an organism to rid itself of waste molecules that could be toxic

if allowed to accumulate. It also allows the organism to keep the amount of water and dissolved solutes in balance. **19** Electrolyte ions often require special mechanisms to cross the semi-permeable membranes in the body. Active transport is the movement against a concentration gradient. **20** The loop of Henle is part of the renal tubule that loops into the renal medulla. In the loop of Henle, the filtrate exchanges solutes and water with the renal medulla and the vasa recta (the peritubular capillary network). The vasa recta acts as the countercurrent exchanger. The kidneys maintain the osmolality of the rest of the body at a constant 300 mOsm by concentrating the filtrate as it passes through the loop of Henle. **21** Externally, the kidneys are surrounded by three layers. The outermost layer is a tough connective tissue layer called the renal fascia. The second layer is called the perirenal fat capsule, which helps anchor the kidneys in place. The third and innermost layer is the renal capsule. Internally, the kidney has three regions—an outer cortex, a medulla in the middle, and the renal pelvis in the region called the hilum of the kidney, which is the concave part of the “bean” shape. **22** The removal of wastes, which could otherwise be toxic to an organism, is extremely important for survival. Having organs that specialize in this process and that operate separately from other organs provides a measure of safety for the organism. **23** (1) Microorganisms engulf food by endocytosis—the formation of vacuoles by involution of the cell membrane within the cells. The same vacuoles interact and exchange metabolites with the intracellular environment. Cellular wastes are excreted by exocytosis when the vacuoles merge with the cell membrane and excrete wastes into the environment. (2) Flatworms have an excretory system that consists of two tubules. The cells in the tubules are called flame cells; they have a cluster of cilia that propel waste matter down the tubules and out of the body. (3) Annelids have nephridia which have a tubule with cilia. Excretion occurs through a pore called the nephridiopore. Annelids have a system for tubular reabsorption by a capillary network before excretion. (4) Malpighian tubules are found in some species of arthropods. They are usually found in pairs, and the number of tubules varies with the species of insect. Malpighian tubules are convoluted, which increases their surface area, and they are lined with microvilli for reabsorption and maintenance of osmotic balance. Metabolic wastes like uric acid freely diffuse into the tubules. Potassium ion pumps line the tubules, which actively transport out K^+ ions, and water follows to form urine. Water and electrolytes are reabsorbed when these organisms are faced with low-water environments, and uric acid is excreted as a thick paste or powder. By not dissolving wastes in water, these organisms conserve water. **24** It is believed that the urea cycle evolved to adapt to a changing environment when terrestrial life forms evolved. Arid conditions probably led to the evolution of the uric acid pathway as a means of conserving water. **25** The urea cycle is the primary mechanism by which mammals convert ammonia to urea. Urea is made in the liver and excreted in urine. The urea cycle utilizes five intermediate steps, catalyzed by five different enzymes, to convert ammonia to urea. Birds, reptiles, and insects, on the other hand, convert toxic ammonia to uric acid instead of urea. Conversion of ammonia to uric acid requires more energy and is much more complex than conversion of ammonia to urea. **26** Hormones are small molecules that act as messengers within the body. Different regions of the nephron bear specialized cells, which have receptors to respond to chemical messengers and hormones. The hormones carry messages to the kidney. These hormonal cues help the kidneys synchronize the osmotic needs of the body. Hormones like epinephrine, norepinephrine, renin-angiotensin, aldosterone, anti-diuretic hormone, and atrial natriuretic peptide help regulate the needs of the body as well as the communication between the different organ systems. **27** The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system acts through several steps to produce angiotensin II, which acts to stabilize blood pressure and volume. Thus, the kidneys control blood pressure and volume directly. Renin acts on angiotensinogen, which is made in the liver and converts it to angiotensin I. ACE (angiotensin converting enzyme) converts angiotensin I to angiotensin II. Angiotensin II raises blood pressure by constricting blood vessels. It triggers the release of aldosterone from the adrenal cortex, which in turn stimulates the renal tubules to reabsorb more sodium. Angiotensin II also triggers the release of anti-diuretic hormone from the hypothalamus, which leads to water retention. It acts directly on the nephrons and decreases GFR.

Chapter 42

1 **Figure 42.11** C **2** **Figure 42.14** MHC receptors differ from person to person. Thus, MHC receptors on an incompatible donor are considered “non-self” and are rejected by the immune system. **3** **Figure 42.16** If the blood of the mother and fetus mixes, memory cells that recognize the Rh antigen can form late in the first pregnancy. During subsequent pregnancies, these memory cells launch an immune attack on the fetal blood cells. Injection of anti-Rh antibody during the first pregnancy prevents the immune response from occurring. **4** D **5** B **6** A **7** C **8** D **9** B **10** B **11** C **12** D **13** A **14** C **15** A **16** C **17** B **18** D **19** B **20** C **21** D **22** If the MHC I molecules expressed on donor cells differ from the MHC I molecules expressed on recipient cells, NK cells may identify the donor cells as “non-self” and produce perforin and granzymes to induce the donor cells to undergo apoptosis, which would destroy the transplanted organ. **23** The entire complement system would probably be affected even when only a few members were mutated such that they could no longer bind. Because the complement involves the binding of activated proteins in a specific sequence, when one or more proteins in the sequence are absent, the subsequent proteins would be incapable of binding to elicit the complement’s pathogen-destructive effects. **24** An antigen is a molecule that reacts with some component of the immune response (antibody, B cell receptor, T cell receptor). An epitope is the region on the antigen through which binding with the immune component actually occurs. **25** A naïve T or B cell is one that has not been activated by binding to the appropriate epitope. Naïve T and B cells cannot produce

responses. **26** The T_H1 response involves the secretion of cytokines to stimulate macrophages and CTLs and improve their destruction of intracellular pathogens and tumor cells. It is associated with inflammation. The T_H2 response is involved in the stimulation of B cells into plasma cells that synthesize and secrete antibodies. **27** The diversity of TCRs allows the immune system to have millions of different T cells, and thereby to be specific in distinguishing antigens. This diversity arises from mutation and recombination in the genes that encode the variable regions of TCRs. **28** T cells bind antigens that have been digested and embedded in MHC molecules by APCs. In contrast, B cells function themselves as APCs to bind intact, unprocessed antigens. **29** Upon reinfection, the memory cells will immediately differentiate into plasma cells and CTLs without input from APCs or T_H cells. In contrast, the adaptive immune response to the initial infection requires time for naïve B and T cells with the appropriate antigen specificities to be identified and activated. **30** Cross reactivity of antibodies can be beneficial when it allows an individual's immune system to respond to an array of similar pathogens after being exposed to just one of them. A potential cost of cross reactivity is an antibody response to parts of the body (self) in addition to the appropriate antigen.

Chapter 43

1 Figure 43.8 D 2 Figure 43.15 C 3 Figure 43.17 B 4 A 5 B 6 D 7 A 8 A 9 C 10 A 11 C 12 C 13 A 14 A 15 D 16 A 17 A 18 C 19 B 20 D 21 B 22 A 23 D 24 B 25 A 26 B 27 B 28 D 29 A 30 D 31 Sexual reproduction produces a new combination of genes in the offspring that may better enable them to survive changes in the environment and assist in the survival of the species. **32** The presence of the W chromosome in birds determines femaleness and the presence of the Y chromosome in mammals determines maleness. The absence of those chromosomes and the homogeneity of the offspring (ZZ or XX) leads to the development of the other sex. **33** External fertilization can create large numbers of offspring without requiring specialized delivery or reproductive support organs. Offspring develop and mature quickly compared to internally fertilizing species. A disadvantage is that the offspring are out in the environment and predation can account for large loss of offspring. The embryos are susceptible to changes in the environment, which further depletes their numbers. Internally fertilizing species control their environment and protect their offspring from predators but must have specialized organs to complete these tasks and usually produce fewer embryos. **34** Paired external fertilization allows the female to select the male for mating. It also has a greater chance of fertilization taking place, whereas spawning just puts a large number of sperm and eggs together and random interactions result in the fertilization. **35** In phase one (excitement), vasodilation leads to vasocongestion and enlargement of erectile tissues. Vaginal secretions are released to lubricate the vagina during intercourse. In phase two (plateau), stimulation continues, the outer third of the vaginal wall enlarges with blood, and breathing and heart rate increase. In phase three (orgasm), rhythmic, involuntary contractions of muscles occur. In the male, reproductive accessory glands and tubules constrict, depositing semen in the urethra; then, the urethra contracts, expelling the semen through the penis. In women, the uterus and vaginal muscles contract in waves that may last slightly less than a second each. In phase four (resolution), the processes listed in the first three phases reverse themselves and return to their normal state. Men experience a refractory period in which they cannot maintain an erection or ejaculate for a period of time ranging from minutes to hours. Women do not experience a refractory period. **36** Stem cells are laid down in the male during gestation and lie dormant until adolescence. Stem cells in the female increase to one to two million and enter the first meiotic division and are arrested in prophase. At adolescence, spermatogenesis begins and continues until death, producing the maximum number of sperm with each meiotic division. Oogenesis continues again at adolescence in batches of oogonia with each menstrual cycle. These oogonia finish the first meiotic division, producing a primary oocyte with most of the cytoplasm and its contents, and a second cell called a polar body containing 23 chromosomes. The second meiotic division results in a secondary oocyte and a second oocyte. At ovulation, a mature haploid egg is released. If this egg is fertilized, it finishes the second meiotic division, including the chromosomes donated by the sperm in the finished cell. This is a diploid, fertilized egg. **37** Negative feedback in the male system is supplied through two hormones: inhibin and testosterone. Inhibin is produced by Sertoli cells when the sperm count exceeds set limits. The hormone inhibits GnRH and FSH, decreasing the activity of the Sertoli cells. Increased levels of testosterone affect the release of both GnRH and LH, decreasing the activity of the Leydig cells, resulting in decreased testosterone and sperm production. **38** Low levels of progesterone allow the hypothalamus to send GnRH to the anterior pituitary and cause the release of FSH and LH. FSH stimulates follicles on the ovary to grow and prepare the eggs for ovulation. As the follicles increase in size, they begin to release estrogen and a low level of progesterone into the blood. The level of estrogen rises to a peak, causing a spike in the concentration of LH. This causes the most mature follicle to rupture and ovulation occurs. **39** The first trimester lays down the basic structures of the body, including the limb buds, heart, eyes, and the liver. The second trimester continues the development of all of the organs and systems established during the first trimester. The placenta takes over the production of estrogen and high levels of progesterone and handles the nutrient and waste requirements of the fetus. The third trimester exhibits the greatest growth of the fetus, culminating in labor and delivery. **40** Stage one of labor results in the thinning of the cervix and the dilation of the cervical opening. Stage two delivers the baby, and stage three delivers the placenta. **41** Multiple sperm can fuse with the egg, resulting in polyspermy. The resulting embryo is not genetically viable and dies within a few days. **42** Mammalian eggs do not need a lot of yolk because the developing fetus obtains nutrients from the mother. Other species, in which the fetus

develops outside of the mother's body, such as occurs with birds, require a lot of yolk in the egg to nourish the embryo during development. **43** Organs form from the germ layers through the process of differentiation. During differentiation, the embryonic stem cells express a specific set of genes that will determine their ultimate fate as a cell type. For example, some cells in the ectoderm will express the genes specific to skin cells. As a result, these cells will differentiate into epidermal cells. The process of differentiation is regulated by cellular signaling cascades. **44** Animal bodies have lateral-medial (left-right), dorsal-ventral (back-belly), and anterior-posterior (head-feet) axes. The dorsal cells are genetically programmed to form the notochord and define the axis. There are many genes responsible for axis formation. Mutations in these genes lead to the loss of symmetry required for organism development.

Chapter 44

1 Figure 44.10 Tropical lakes don't freeze, so they don't undergo spring turnover in the same way temperate lakes do. However, stratification does occur, as well as seasonal turnover. **2 Figure 44.12 C.** Boreal forests are not dominated by deciduous trees. **3 Figure 44.21 C.** Photosynthetic organisms would be found in the photic, abyssal, neritic, and oceanic zones. **4 B 5 D 6 D 7 C 8 D 9 C 10 D 11 B 12 C 13 B 14** Ecologists working in organismal or population ecology might ask similar questions about how the biotic and abiotic conditions affect particular organisms and, thus, might find collaboration to be mutually beneficial. Levels of ecology such as community ecology or ecosystem ecology might pose greater challenges for collaboration because these areas are very broad and may include many different environmental components. **15** It is beneficial to consider a population to be all of the individuals living in the same area at the same time because it allows the ecologist to identify and study all of the abiotic and biotic factors that may affect the members of the population. However, this definition of a population could be considered a drawback if it prohibits the ecologist from studying a population's individuals that may be transitory, but still influential. Some species with members that have a wide geographic range might not be considered to be a population, but could still have many of the qualities of a population. **16** Ocean upwelling is a continual process that occurs year-round. Spring and fall turnover in freshwater lakes and ponds, however, is a seasonal process that occurs due to temperature changes in the water that take place during springtime warming and autumn cooling. Both ocean upwelling and spring and fall turnover enable nutrients in the organic materials at the bottom of the body of water to be recycled and reused by living things. **17** Areas that have been geographically isolated for very long periods of time allow unique species to evolve; these species are distinctly different from those of surrounding areas and remain so, since geographic isolation keeps them separated from other species. **18** Fire is less common in desert biomes than in temperate grasslands because deserts have low net primary productivity and, thus, very little plant biomass to fuel a fire. **19** Both the subtropical desert and the arctic tundra have a low supply of water. In the desert, this is due to extremely low precipitation, and in the arctic tundra, much of the water is unavailable to plants because it is frozen. Both the subtropical desert and the arctic tundra have low net primary productivity. **20** Bogs are low in oxygen and high in organic acids. The low oxygen content and the low pH both slow the rate of decomposition. **21** Organisms living in the intertidal zone must tolerate periodic exposure to air and sunlight and must be able to be periodically dry. They also must be able to endure the pounding waves; for this reason, some shoreline organisms have hard exoskeletons that provide protection while also reducing the likelihood of drying out. **22** Natural processes such as the Milankovitch cycles, variation in solar intensity, and volcanic eruptions can cause periodic, intermittent changes in global climate. Human activity, in the form of emissions from the burning of fossil fuels, has caused a progressive rise in the levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide. **23** If carbon emissions continue to rise, the global temperature will continue to rise; thus, ocean waters will cause the rising of sea levels at the coastlines. Continued melting of glaciers and reduced spring and summer meltwaters may cause summertime water shortages. Changes in seasonal temperatures may alter lifecycles and interrupt breeding patterns in many species of plants and animals.

Chapter 45

1 Figure 45.2 Smaller animals require less food and other resources, so the environment can support more of them. **2 Figure 45.10b A 3 Figure 45.16** Stage 4 represents a population that is decreasing. **4 C 5 D 6 A 7 A 8 B 9 D 10 A 11 C 12 B 13 A 14 B 15 D 16 D 17 B 18 B 19 D 20 B 21 C 22 D 23 C 24 B 25** The researcher would mark a certain number of penguins with a tag, release them back into the population, and, at a later time, recapture penguins to see what percentage of the recaptured penguins was tagged. This percentage would allow an estimation of the size of the penguin population. **26** Parental care is not feasible for organisms having many offspring because they do not have the energy available to take care of offspring. Most of their energy budget is used in the formation of seeds or offspring, so there is little left for parental care. Also, the sheer number of offspring would make individual parental care impossible. **27** In the first part of the curve, when few individuals of the species are present and resources are plentiful, growth is exponential, similar to a J-shaped curve. Later, growth slows due to the species using up resources. Finally, the population levels off at the carrying capacity of the environment, and it is relatively stable over time. **28** If a natural disaster such as a fire happened in the winter, when populations are low, it would have a greater effect on the overall population and its recovery than if the same disaster occurred during the summer,

when population levels are high. **29** Rapidly growing countries have a large segment of the population at a reproductive age or younger. Slower growing populations have a lower percentage of these individuals, and countries with zero population growth have an even lower percentage. On the other hand, a high proportion of older individuals is seen mostly in countries with zero growth, and a low proportion is most common in rapidly growing countries. **30** The competitive exclusion principle states that no two species competing for the same resources at the same time and place can coexist over time. Thus, one of the competing species will eventually dominate. On the other hand, if the species evolve such that they use resources from different parts of the habitat or at different times of day, the two species can exist together indefinitely. **31** Dogs salivated in response to food. This was the unconditioned stimulus and response. Dogs exposed to food had a bell rung repeatedly at the same time, eventually learning to associate the bell with food. Over time, the dogs would salivate when the bell was rung, even in the absence of food. Thus, the bell became the conditioned stimulus, and the salivation in response to the bell became the conditioned response.

Chapter 46

1 Figure 46.8 According to the first law of thermodynamics, energy can neither be created nor destroyed. Eventually, all energy consumed by living systems is lost as heat or used for respiration, and the total energy output of the system must equal the energy that went into it. **2 Figure 46.10** Pyramids of organisms may be inverted or diamond-shaped because a large organism, such as a tree, can sustain many smaller organisms. Likewise, a low biomass of organisms can sustain a larger biomass at the next trophic level because the organisms reproduce rapidly and thus supply continuous nourishment. Energy pyramids, however, must always be upright because of the laws of thermodynamics. The first law of thermodynamics states that energy can neither be created nor destroyed; thus, each trophic level must acquire energy from the trophic level below. The second law of thermodynamics states that, during the transfer of energy, some energy is always lost as heat; thus, less energy is available at each higher trophic level. **3 Figure 46.17 C:** Nitrification by bacteria converts nitrates (NO_3^-) to nitrites (NO_2^-). **4 D 5 C 6 B 7 D 8 A 9 C 10 D 11 B 12 D 13 C 14 B 15 C 16 A 17 D 18 A 19 B 20 C 21** Food webs show interacting groups of different species and their many interconnections with each other and the environment. Food chains are linear aspects of food webs that describe the succession of organisms consuming one another at defined trophic levels. Food webs are a more accurate representation of the structure and dynamics of an ecosystem. Food chains are easier to model and use for experimental studies. **22** Freshwater ecosystems are the rarest, but have great diversity of freshwater fish and other aquatic life. Ocean ecosystems are the most common and are responsible for much of the photosynthesis that occurs on Earth. Terrestrial ecosystems are very diverse; they are grouped based on their species and environment (biome), which includes forests, deserts, and tundras. **23** Grazing food webs have a primary producer at their base, which is either a plant for terrestrial ecosystems or a phytoplankton for aquatic ecosystems. The producers pass their energy to the various trophic levels of consumers. At the base of detrital food webs are the decomposers, which pass this energy to a variety of other consumers. Detrital food webs are important for the health of many grazing food webs because they eliminate dead and decaying organic material, thus, clearing space for new organisms and removing potential causes of disease. By breaking down dead organic matter, decomposers also make mineral nutrients available to primary producers; this process is a vital link in nutrient cycling. **24** Pyramids of numbers display the number of individual organisms on each trophic level. These pyramids can be either upright or inverted, depending on the number of the organisms. Pyramids of biomass display the weight of organisms at each level. Inverted pyramids of biomass can occur when the primary producer has a high turnover rate. Pyramids of energy are usually upright and are the best representation of energy flow and ecosystem structure. **25** NPE measures the rate at which one trophic level can use and make biomass from what it attained in the previous level, taking into account respiration, defecation, and heat loss. Endotherms have high metabolism and generate a lot of body heat. Although this gives them advantages in their activity level in colder temperatures, these organisms are 10 times less efficient at harnessing the energy from the food they eat compared with cold-blooded animals, and thus have to eat more and more often. **26** Nitrogen fixation is the process of bringing nitrogen gas from the atmosphere and incorporating it into organic molecules. Most plants do not have this capability and must rely on free-living or symbiotic bacteria to do this. As nitrogen is often the limiting nutrient in the growth of crops, farmers make use of artificial fertilizers to provide a nitrogen source to the plants as they grow. **27** Many factors can kill life in a lake or ocean, such as eutrophication by nutrient-rich surface runoff, oil spills, toxic waste spills, changes in climate, and the dumping of garbage into the ocean. Eutrophication is a result of nutrient-rich runoff from land using artificial fertilizers high in nitrogen and phosphorus. These nutrients cause the rapid and excessive growth of microorganisms, which deplete local dissolved oxygen and kill many fish and other aquatic organisms. **28** Most of the water on Earth is salt water, which humans cannot drink unless the salt is removed. Some fresh water is locked in glaciers and polar ice caps, or is present in the atmosphere. The Earth's water supplies are threatened by pollution and exhaustion. The effort to supply fresh drinking water to the planet's ever-expanding human population is seen as a major challenge in this century.

Chapter 47

1 Figure 47.6 A. An abundance of fern spores from several species was found below the K-Pg boundary, but none was found above. **2 Figure 47.9** The ground is permanently frozen so the seeds will keep even if the electricity fails. **3 B 4 Figure 47.16** C **5 C 6 A 7 C 8 D 9 B 10 C 11 D 12 C 13 C 14 C 15 D 16 C 17** The hypothesized cause of the K-Pg extinction event is an asteroid impact. The first piece of evidence of the impact is a spike in iridium (an element that is rare on Earth, but common in meteors) in the geological layers that mark the K-Pg transition. The second piece of evidence is an impact crater off the Yucatán Peninsula that is the right size and age to have caused the extinction event. **18** Extinction rates are calculated based on the recorded extinction of species in the past 500 years. Adjustments are made for unobserved extinctions and undiscovered species. The second method is a calculation based on the amount of habitat destruction and species-area curves. **19** Crop plants are derived from wild plants, and genes from wild relatives are frequently brought into crop varieties by plant breeders to add valued characteristics to the crops. If the wild species are lost, then this genetic variation would no longer be available. **20** Secondary plant compounds are toxins produced by plants to kill predators trying to eat them; some of these compounds can be used as drugs. Animal toxins such as snake venom can also be used as drugs. (Alternate answer: antibiotics are compounds produced by bacteria and fungi which can be used to kill bacteria.) **21** Human population growth leads to unsustainable resource use, which causes habitat destruction to build new human settlements, create agricultural fields, and so on. Larger human populations have also led to unsustainable fishing and hunting of wild animal populations. Excessive use of fossil fuels also leads to global warming. **22** The frog is at risk from global warming shifting its preferred habitat up the mountain. In addition, it will be at risk from exotic species, either as a new predator or through the impact of transmitted diseases such as chytridiomycosis. It is also possible that habitat destruction will threaten the species. **23** Larger preserves will contain more species. Preserves should have a buffer around them to protect species from edge effects. Preserves that are round or square are better than preserves with many thin arms. **24** When a keystone species is removed many species will disappear from the ecosystem.

INDEX

Symbols

3' UTR, **439, 445**
 40S ribosomal subunit, **440**
 5' cap, **439, 445**
 5' UTR, **439, 445**
 60S ribosomal subunit, **440**
 7-methylguanosine cap, **412, 421**
 α -helix, **90**
 β -pleated sheet, **90**

A

A horizon, **907, 916**
 Abduction, **1139**
 abduction, **1154**
 abiotic, **1319, 1346**
 aboveground biomass, **1326, 1346**
 abscisic acid, **890**
 abscisic acid (ABA), **893**
 abscission, **889, 893**
 absorption spectrum, **233, 243**
 abstract, **16, 28**
 abyssal zone, **1335, 1346**
Acanthostega, **821, 847**
 accessory fruit, **946**
 Accessory fruits, **939**
 acclimatization, **970, 973**
 acellular, **553, 575**
 acetyl CoA, **204, 221**
 acetylcholine, **1037, 1046**
 acetylcholinesterase, **1152, 1154**
 acid, **52, 61**
 Acid rain, **1426**
 acid rain, **1427**
 acidophile, **609**
 acoelomate, **758**
 acoelomates, **746**
 acromegaly, **1101, 1112**
 acrosomal reaction, **1308**
 acrosomal reactions, **1301**
 Actin, **1146**
 actin, **1154**
 Actinopterygii, **820, 847**
 action potential, **1020, 1046**
 activation energy, **177, 191**
 activator, **445**
 activators, **428**
 active site, **184, 191**

Active transport, **155**
 active transport, **164**
 acute disease, **564, 575**
 adaptation, **485, 502**
 adaptive evolution, **517, 523**
 Adaptive immunity, **1249**
 adaptive immunity, **1271**
 adaptive radiation, **493, 502, 1432, 1458**
 Addison's disease, **1102, 1112**
 Adduction, **1139**
 adduction, **1154**
 adenosine triphosphate, **181**
 adenylate cyclase, **1112**
 adenylyl cyclase, **1092**
 adhesion, **51, 61**
 adrenal cortex, **1107, 1112**
 adrenal gland, **1112**
 adrenal glands, **1107**
 adrenal medulla, **1108, 1112**
 adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), **1102, 1112**
 Adventitious, **699**
 adventitious, **705**
 adventitious root, **893**
 adventitious roots, **865**
 aerobic respiration, **204, 221**
 afferent arteriole, **1223, 1235**
 affinities, **1266**
 affinity, **1271**
 Age structure, **1371**
 age structure, **1395**
 aggregate fruit, **939, 946**
 aggressive display, **1395**
 Aggressive displays, **1388**
 aldosterone, **1093, 1112**
 aleurone, **937, 946**
 algal bloom, **1338, 1346**
 alimentary canal, **979, 1003**
 aliphatic hydrocarbon, **61**
 aliphatic hydrocarbons, **55**
 alkaliphile, **609**
 allantoin, **826, 847**
 allele, **349**
 allele frequency, **509, 523**
 alleles, **328**
 allergy, **1268, 1271**
 Allopatric speciation, **492**
 allopatric speciation, **502**
 allopolyploid, **495, 502**
 allosteric inhibition, **187, 191**
 alpha cell, **1112**
 alpha cells, **1108**
 alpha-helix structure (α -helix), **99**
 alteration, **970, 973**
 alternation of generations, **314, 317**
 alveolar duct, **1184**
 alveolar ducts, **1166**
 alveolar P_{O_2} , **1184**
 alveolar P_{O_2} , **1172**
 alveolar sac, **1184**
 alveolar sacs, **1167**
 alveolar ventilation, **1177, 1184**
 alveoli, **1167**
 alveolus, **1184**
 Alzheimer's disease, **1040, 1046**
 amino acid, **99**
 amino acid-derived hormone, **1112**
 amino acid-derived hormones, **1088**
 Amino acids, **86**
 aminoacyl tRNA synthetase, **421**
 aminoacyl tRNA synthetases, **417**
 aminopeptidase, **997, 1003**
 ammonia, **1229, 1235**
 ammonification, **597, 609**
 ammonotelic, **1229, 1235**
 amnion, **826, 847**
 amniote, **847**
 amoebocyte, **806**
 amoebocytes, **765**
 Amphiarthroses, **1139**
 amphiarthrosis, **1154**
 Amphibia, **821, 847**
 amphiphilic, **141, 164**
 ampulla of Lorenzini, **847**
 ampullae of Lorenzini, **819**
 amygdala, **1034, 1046**
 Amyloplasts, **888**
 Anabolic, **172**
 anabolic, **191**
 anaerobic, **202, 221, 581, 609**
 anaerobic cellular respiration, **212, 221**
 analogy, **534, 547**
 analytical model, **1408, 1427**
 anaphase, **282, 296**
 anapsid, **847**
 Anapsids, **827**

- Anatomical dead space, **1179**
 anatomical dead space, **1184**
 androecium, **920, 946**
 androgen, **1112**
 androgens, **1094**
 aneuploid, **363, 370**
 aneuploidy, **502**
 angina, **1204, 1212**
 Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE), **1233**
 angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE), **1235**
 angiotensin I, **1233, 1235**
 angiotensin II, **1233, 1235**
 angular movement, **1154**
 Angular movements, **1139**
 anion, **61**
 Anions, **43**
 Annelida, **789, 806**
 anoxic, **581, 609**
 antenna protein, **243**
 antenna proteins, **235**
 anterior pituitary, **1105, 1112**
 anther, **721, 733**
 antheridium, **684, 705**
 Anthophyta, **723, 733**
 anthropoid, **847**
 Anthropoids, **840**
 anti-diuretic hormone (ADH), **1233, 1235**
 antibiotic, **601, 609**
 antibiotic resistance, **456, 474**
 antibody, **1263, 1271**
 anticodon, **415, 421**
 antidiuretic hormone (ADH), **1093, 1112**
 antigen, **1249, 1271**
 antigen-presenting cell (APC), **1249, 1271**
 antioxidant, **1232, 1235**
 antipodal, **925**
 antipodals, **946**
 antiporter, **156, 164**
 Anura, **822, 847**
 anus, **988, 1003**
 aorta, **1202, 1212**
 apex consumer, **1427**
 apex consumers, **1403**
 aphotic zone, **1333, 1346**
 apical bud, **856, 893**
 apical meristem, **893**
 Apical meristems, **855**
 apocrine gland, **847**
 Apocrine glands, **837**
 Apoda, **822, 847**
 apodeme, **973**
 apodemes, **953**
 apomixis, **941, 946**
 apoptosis, **263, 269**
 aposematic coloration, **1376, 1395**
 appendicular skeleton, **1125, 1154**
 applied science, **15, 28**
 Appositional growth, **1135**
 appositional growth, **1154**
 aquaporin, **164**
 Aquaporins, **150**
 arachnoid mater, **1029, 1046**
 arbuscular mycorrhiza, **666, 676**
 arbuscular mycorrhizae, **664**
 Arbuscular mycorrhizae, **676**
Archaeopteryx, **835, 847**
 archegonia, **684**
 archegonium, **705**
 archenteron, **802, 806**
 archosaur, **847**
 archosaurs, **827**
 arcuate arteries, **1222**
 arcuate artery, **1235**
 aromatic hydrocarbon, **61**
 aromatic hydrocarbons, **55**
 Arteries, **1206**
 arteriole, **1212**
 arterioles, **1206**
 artery, **1212**
 Arthropoda, **796, 806**
 articulation, **1127, 1137, 1154**
 ascending limb, **1235**
 ascending limbs, **1223**
 ascocarp, **659, 676**
 Ascomycota, **658, 676**
 ascus, **658**
 Asexual reproduction, **1278**
 asexual reproduction, **1308**
 Assimilation, **1412**
 assimilation, **1427**
 assortative mating, **516, 523**
 astrocyte, **1046**
 Astrocytes, **1016**
 Asymmetrical, **952**
 asymmetrical, **973**
 asymptomatic disease, **575**
 asymptomatic infection, **564**
 Atherosclerosis, **1204**
 atherosclerosis, **1212**
 atom, **20, 28, 34, 61**
 atomic mass, **35, 61**
 atomic number, **35, 61**
 ATP, **181, 191**
 ATP synthase, **221**
 atria, **1195**
 atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), **1110, 1112**
 atrioventricular valve, **1202, 1212**
 atrium, **1212**
 attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), **1046**
 attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), **1043**
 attenuating, **567**
 attenuation, **575**
 Audition, **1067**
 audition, **1080**
 auditory ossicle, **1154**
 auditory ossicles, **1123**
Australopithecus, **842, 847**
 Autism spectrum disorder (ASD), **1042**
 autism spectrum disorder (ASD), **1046**
 autoantibodies, **1269**
 autoantibody, **1271**
 autocrine signal, **269**
 Autocrine signals, **250**
 autoimmune response, **1256, 1271**
 Autoimmunity, **1269**
 autoimmunity, **1271**
 autoinducer, **269**
 Autoinducers, **265**
 autonomic nervous system, **1035, 1046**
 autopolyploid, **502**
 autopolyploidy, **495**
 autosome, **370**
 autosomes, **335, 349, 361**
 auxin, **893**
 Auxins, **889**
 avidity, **1267, 1271**
 axial skeleton, **1122, 1154**
 axillary bud, **856, 893**
 axon, **1012, 1046**
 axon hillock, **1012, 1046**
 axon terminal, **1046**
 axon terminals, **1012**
 AZT, **561, 575**
- ## B
- B cell, **1271**
 B cells, **1246**

- B horizon, **916**
 back mutation, **575**
 back mutations, **567**
 bacteriophage, **575**
 Bacteriophages, **562**
 balanced chemical equation, **42, 61**
 ball-and-socket joint, **1154**
 Ball-and-socket joints, **1144**
 Barcoding, **732**
 barcoding, **733**
 bark, **859, 893**
 Basal angiosperms, **723**
 basal angiosperms, **733**
 basal ganglia, **1033, 1046**
 basal metabolic rate (BMR), **954, 973**
 basal nuclei, **1033, 1046**
 basal taxon, **528, 547**
 base, **52, 61**
 Basic science, **15**
 basic science, **28**
 basidia, **661**
 basidiocarp, **662, 676**
 Basidiomycota, **661, 676**
 basidium, **661, 676**
 basilar membrane, **1069, 1080**
 basophil, **1245, 1271**
 Batesian mimicry, **1376, 1395**
 bedrock, **907, 916**
 Behavior, **1385**
 behavior, **1395**
 Behavioral biology, **1385**
 behavioral biology, **1395**
 Behavioral isolation, **497**
 behavioral isolation, **502**
 benthic realm, **1333, 1346**
 beta cell, **1112**
 beta cells, **1108**
 beta-pleated sheet (β -pleated), **99**
 bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ion, **1184**
 bicarbonate buffer system, **1182, 1184**
 bicarbonate ions (HCO_3^-), **1182**
 bicuspid valve, **1202, 1212**
 Bilateral symmetry, **744**
 bilateral symmetry, **758**
 Bile, **987**
 bile, **1003**
 binary (prokaryotic) fission, **293**
 binary fission, **296**
 binomial nomenclature, **531, 547**
 biochemistry, **26, 28**
 biodiversity, **1432, 1458**
 biodiversity hotspot, **1458**
 Biodiversity hotspots, **1436**
 bioenergetics, **170, 191**
 biofilm, **584, 609**
 biogeochemical cycle, **1415, 1427**
 Biogeography, **1320**
 biogeography, **1346**
 biological carbon pump, **632, 645**
 biological macromolecule, **99**
 biological macromolecules, **68**
 Biological nitrogen fixation, **604**
 biological nitrogen fixation, **609**
 biology, **8, 28**
 bioluminescence, **628, 645**
 Biomagnification, **1414**
 biomagnification, **1427**
 biomarker, **473, 474**
 Biomass, **1411**
 biomass, **1427**
 biome, **1346**
 biomes, **1320**
 bioremediation, **606, 609**
 biosphere, **22, 28**
 Biotechnology, **452**
 biotechnology, **474, 605, 609**
 biotic, **1319, 1346**
 biotic potential (r_{max}), **1395**
 biotic potential, or r_{max} , **1362**
 bipolar neuron, **1080**
 bipolar neurons, **1063**
 biramous, **799, 806**
 birth rate (B), **1361, 1395**
 Black Death, **598, 609**
 blastocyst, **1302, 1308**
 blastopore, **747, 758**
 blastula, **740, 758**
 blending theory of inheritance, **322, 349**
 Blood pressure (BP), **1207**
 blood pressure (BP), **1212**
 blood urea nitrogen, **1230**
 blood urea nitrogen (BUN), **1235**
 blotting, **456**
 body plan, **738, 758**
 bolus, **984, 1003**
 Bone, **1130**
 bone, **1154**
 Bone remodeling, **1136**
 bone remodeling, **1154**
 botany, **27, 28**
 bottleneck effect, **514, 523**
 botulism, **602, 609**
 Bowman's capsule, **1223, 1235**
 brachiation, **840, 847**
 brainstem, **1034, 1046**
 branch point, **528, 547**
 bronchi, **1166**
 bronchiole, **1184**
 bronchioles, **1166**
 bronchus, **1184**
 Brumation, **828**
 brumation, **847**
 budding, **560, 575, 1308**
 Budding, **1279**
 buffer, **61**
 Buffers, **53**
 bulb, **863, 893**
 bulbourethral gland, **1285, 1308**
 Bush meat, **1448**
 bush meat, **1458**
 B horizon, **907**

C
 C horizon, **907, 916**
 CA-MRSA, **601, 609**
 CAAT box, **409, 421**
 caecilian, **847**
 caecilians, **824**
 Calcification, **1130**
 calcification, **1154**
 calcitonin, **1100, 1112**
 calorie, **49, 61**
 Calvin cycle, **238, 243**
 calyces, **1222**
 calyx, **720, 733, 1235**
 Cambrian explosion, **753, 758**
 camouflage, **1375, 1395**
 cAMP-dependent kinase (A-kinase), **260**
 canaliculi, **963**
 canaliculus, **973**
 candela, **1073, 1080**
 canopy, **1327, 1346**
 capillaries, **1206**
 capillary, **1212**
 capillary action, **51, 61**
 capillary bed, **1212**
 Capillary beds, **1206**
 capsid, **553, 575**
 capsomere, **575**

- capsomeres, **553**
 capsule, **587, 609, 694, 705**
 captacula, **806**
 captaculae, **788**
 carbaminohemoglobin, **1182, 1184**
 carbohydrate, **99**
 Carbohydrates, **69**
 carbon, **239**
 carbon fixation, **243**
 Carbonic anhydrase (CA), **1182**
 carbonic anhydrase (CA), **1184**
 carboxypeptidase, **997, 1003**
 cardiac cycle, **1204, 1212**
 cardiac muscle, **1154**
 Cardiac muscle tissue, **1146**
 cardiac output, **1212**
 cardiomyocyte, **1212**
 Cardiomyocytes, **1204**
 carnivore, **1003**
 Carnivores, **978**
 carotenoid, **243**
 carotenoids, **233**
 carpel, **721, 733**
 carpus, **1127, 1154**
 carrier protein, **151, 164**
 carrying capacity (K), **1395**
 carrying capacity, or K , **1362**
 Cartilage, **962**
 cartilage, **973**
 cartilaginous joint, **1154**
 Cartilaginous joints, **1138**
 Casineria, **829, 847**
 Casparian strip, **867, 893**
 catabolic, **172, 191**
 catabolite activator protein (CAP), **430, 445**
 Catarrhini, **840, 847**
 cation, **61**
 Cations, **43**
 caveolin, **161, 164**
 cDNA library, **474**
 cell, **21, 28**
 cell cycle, **275, 279, 296**
 cell cycle checkpoint, **296**
 cell cycle checkpoints, **286**
 cell necrosis, **565, 575**
 cell plate, **283, 296**
 cell theory, **134**
 cell wall, **118, 134**
 cell-mediated immune response, **1249, 1271**
 cell-surface receptor, **269**

 Cell-surface receptors, **251**
 cellular cloning, **458, 474**
 Cellulose, **75**
 cellulose, **99**
 centimorgan (cM), **370**
 centimorgans (cM), **359**
 Central Dogma, **400, 421**
 central vacuole, **120, 134**
 centriole, **296**
 centrioles, **280**
 centromere, **278, 296**
 centrosome, **118, 134**
 cephalic phase, **1001, 1003**
 Cephalochordata, **814, 847**
 cephalothorax, **800, 806**
 cerebellum, **1034, 1046**
 cerebral cortex, **1030, 1046**
 cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), **1029, 1046**
 chain termination method, **474**
 channel, **1338, 1346**
 channel protein, **164**
 Channel proteins, **150**
 chaperone, **99**
 chaperones, **93**
 charophyte, **705**
 Charophytes, **682**
 chelicera, **806**
 chelicerae, **801**
 chemical bond, **61**
 chemical bonds, **42**
 chemical diversity, **1433, 1458**
 chemical energy, **174, 191**
 chemical reaction, **61**
 Chemical reactions, **42**
 chemical reactivity, **38, 61**
 chemical synapse, **269**
 chemical synapses, **249**
 Chemiosmosis, **201**
 chemiosmosis, **221**
 chemoautotroph, **243, 1427**
 chemoautotrophs, **226**
 Chemoautotrophs, **1411**
 chemotroph, **609**
 Chemotrophs, **595**
 chiasmata, **305, 317**
 chitin, **76, 99**
 chloride shift, **1182, 1184**
 chlorophyll, **119, 134**
 Chlorophyll *a*, **233**
 chlorophyll *a*, **243**
 chlorophyll *b*, **233, 243**
 chloroplast, **134, 228, 243**

 Chloroplasts, **119**
 choanocyte, **806**
 Choanocytes, **764**
 cholecystokinin, **1002, 1003**
 Chondrichthyes, **818, 847**
 chondrocyte, **973**
 chondrocytes, **962**
 Chordata, **805, 806, 812, 847**
 chorion, **826, 847**
 choroid plexus, **1029, 1046**
 chromatid, **296**
 chromatids, **278**
 chromatin, **115, 134**
 chromophore, **885, 893**
 Chromosomal Theory of Inheritance, **356, 370**
 chromosome, **134**
 chromosome inversion, **367, 370**
 Chromosomes, **115**
 chromosomes, **277**
 chronic infection, **575**
 chronic infections, **564**
 chylomicron, **1003**
 chylomicrons, **998**
 chyme, **986, 1003**
 chymotrypsin, **996, 1003**
 Chytridiomycetes, **656**
 chytridiomycosis, **1449, 1458**
 Chytridiomycota, **676**
 cilia, **128**
 cilium, **134**
 cingulate gyrus, **1034, 1046**
 circadian, **1079, 1080**
 Circumduction, **1139**
 circumduction, **1154**
cis-acting element, **436, 445**
 citric acid cycle, **205, 221**
 cladistics, **536, 547**
 class, **530, 547**
 classical conditioning, **1392, 1395**
 Clathrates, **1343**
 clathrates, **1346**
 clathrin, **160, 164**
 clavicle, **1154**
 clavicles, **1126**
 clay, **906, 916**
 cleavage, **740, 747, 758**
 cleavage furrow, **282, 296**
 Climate, **1340**
 climate, **1346**
 climax community, **1385, 1395**

- cline, **517, 523**
 clitellum, **789, 806**
 clitoris, **1286, 1308**
 cloaca, **1283, 1308**
 clonal selection, **1253, 1271**
 clone, **474**
 closed circulatory system, **1192, 1212**
 club mosses, **696, 705**
 Cnidaria, **768, 806**
 cnidocyte, **806**
 cnidocytes, **768**
 cochlea, **1069, 1080**
 codominance, **333, 349**
 codon, **421**
 codons, **401**
 coelom, **746, 758**
 coenocytic hypha, **676**
 coenocytic hyphae, **653**
 coenzyme, **191**
 coenzymes, **188**
 cofactor, **191**
 cofactors, **188**
 cognitive learning, **1393, 1395**
 cohesin, **304, 317**
 cohesion, **50, 61**
 coleoptile, **938, 946**
 coleorrhiza, **938, 946**
 colinear, **400, 421**
 collenchyma cell, **893**
 Collenchyma cells, **857**
 colloid, **1106, 1112**
 columnar epithelia, **973**
 Columnar epithelial, **959**
 commensal, **1378**
 Commensalism, **670**
 commensalism, **676, 1395**
 community, **22, 28**
 Compact bone, **1132**
 compact bone, **1154**
 companion cell, **893**
 Companion cells, **861**
 competitive exclusion principle, **1377, 1395**
 competitive inhibition, **186, 191**
 complement system, **1247, 1271**
 complementary DNA (cDNA) libraries, **464**
 compliance, **1178, 1184**
 compound, **61**
 compound leaf, **870, 893**
 compounds, **43**
 concentration gradient, **147, 164**
 conceptual model, **1408, 1427**
 conclusion, **17, 28**
 condensin, **282, 296**
 conditioned behavior, **1395**
 Conditioned behaviors, **1392**
 condyloid joint, **1154**
 Condyloid joints, **1143**
 cone, **1080**
 cones, **1074**
 conifer, **733**
 Conifers, **717**
 conispiral, **785, 806**
 conjugation, **593, 609**
 connective tissue, **973**
 Connective tissues, **961**
 consensus, **405, 421**
 conspecifics, **1318, 1346**
 contig, **467, 474**
 Continuous variation, **322**
 continuous variation, **349**
 contour feather, **847**
 Contour feathers, **833**
 contraception, **1299, 1308**
 contractile vacuole, **645**
 contractile vacuoles, **629**
 control, **28**
 control group, **11**
 convergent evolution, **486, 502**
 coral reef, **1346**
 Coral reefs, **1335**
 core enzyme, **404, 421**
 corm, **893**
 Corms, **863**
 cornea, **1074, 1080**
 corolla, **721, 733**
 corona, **779, 806**
 coronary arteries, **1204**
 coronary artery, **1212**
 coronary vein, **1212**
 coronary veins, **1204**
 corpus callosum, **1030, 1046**
 cortex, **861, 893, 1221**
 cortex (animal), **1235**
 Cortical, **1222**
 cortical nephron, **1235**
 cortical nephrons, **1222**
 cortical radiate artery, **1235**
 corticosteroid, **1112**
 corticosteroids, **1102**
 cortisol, **1102, 1112**
 cotyledon, **733, 946**
 cotyledons, **723, 935**
 countercurrent exchanger, **1226, 1235**
 countercurrent multiplier, **1226, 1235**
 courtship display, **1395**
 Courtship displays, **1388**
 covalent bond, **61**
 covalent bonds, **44**
 coxal bone, **1154**
 coxal bones, **1127**
 cranial bone, **1154**
 cranial bones, **1122**
 cranial nerve, **1046**
 cranial nerves, **1038**
 Craniata, **815, 847**
 cranium, **815, 847**
 Crocodilia, **830, 847**
 crop, **733**
 crops, **729**
 Cross reactivity, **1267**
 cross reactivity, **1271**
 Cross-pollination, **929**
 cross-pollination, **946**
 crossover, **305, 317**
 Cryogenian period, **753, 758**
 cryptochrome, **893**
 Cryptochromes, **888**
 cryptofauna, **1336, 1346**
 ctenidia, **784**
 ctenidium, **806**
 cuboidal epithelia, **973**
 Cuboidal epithelial, **958**
 Cushing's disease, **1102, 1112**
 cutaneous respiration, **821, 848**
 cuticle, **871, 882, 893**
 cuticle (animal), **806**
 cutting, **946**
 cuttings, **943**
 cyanobacteria, **581, 609**
 cycad, **733**
 Cycads, **718**
 cyclic AMP (cAMP), **260, 269**
 cyclic AMP-dependent kinase, **269**
 cyclin, **296**
 cyclin-dependent kinase, **296**
 cyclin-dependent kinases, **287**
 cyclins, **287**
 cypris, **800, 806**
 cytochrome complex, **236, 243**
 Cytogenetic mapping, **464**
 cytogenetic mapping, **474**
 cytokine, **1244, 1271**
 Cytokinesis, **282**
 cytokinesis, **296**
 cytokinin, **889, 893**
 cytopathic, **560, 575**
 cytoplasm, **114, 134**

cytoplasmic streaming, **634, 645**
 cytoskeleton, **125, 134**
 cytosol, **114, 134**
 cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL), **1271**
 cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), **1251**

D

dead space, **1179, 1184**
 dead zone, **1423, 1427**
 death rate (*D*), **1361, 1395**
 decomposer, **609**
 decomposers, **596**
 Deductive reasoning, **10**
 deductive reasoning, **28**
 degeneracy, **421**
 degenerate, **401**
 dehydration synthesis, **68, 99**
 demographic-based models, **1369**
 demographic-based population model, **1395**
 demography, **1352, 1395**
 denaturation, **85, 99**
 denature, **185, 191**
 dendrite, **1046**
 Dendrites, **1012**
 dendritic cell, **1271**
 Dendritic cells, **1249**
 denitrification, **597, 609**
 density-dependent, **1365**
 density-dependent regulation, **1395**
 density-independent, **1365**
 density-independent regulation, **1395**
 dentary, **837, 848**
 deoxynucleotide, **466, 474**
 deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), **94, 99**
 dephosphorylation, **200, 221**
 depolarization, **1020, 1046**
 Depression, **1140**
 depression, **1154**
 Dermal tissue, **855**
 dermal tissue, **893**
 descending, **1223**
 descending limb, **1235**
 Descriptive (or discovery) science, **10**
 descriptive science, **28**
 desmosome, **134**
 desmosomes, **132**

determinate cleavage, **748, 758**
 detrital food web, **1406, 1427**
 Deuteromycota, **663, 676**
 deuterostome, **758**
 Deuterostomes, **747**
 diabetes insipidus, **1093, 1112**
 diabetes mellitus, **1097, 1112**
 diabetogenic effect, **1100, 1112**
 diacylglycerol (DAG), **260, 269**
 diaphragm, **1166, 1184**
 diaphysis, **1130, 1154**
 diapsid, **848**
 diapsids, **827**
 Diarthroses, **1139**
 diarthrosis, **1154**
 diastole, **1204, 1212**
 dicer, **439, 445**
 dicot, **733**
 dicots, **723**
 dideoxynucleotide, **474**
 dideoxynucleotides, **466**
 Diffusion, **148**
 diffusion, **164**
 Digestion, **995**
 digestion, **1003**
 dihybrid, **341, 349**
 dimer, **257, 269**
 dimerization, **257, 269**
 dioecious, **715, 733**
 dipeptidase, **997, 1003**
 diphyodont, **848**
 diphyodonts, **837**
 diploblast, **758**
 diploblasts, **745**
 diploid, **276, 296**
 diploid-dominant, **314, 317**
 diplontic, **705**
 directional selection, **518, 523**
 disaccharide, **99**
 Disaccharides, **72**
 discontinuous variation, **322, 349**
 discussion, **17, 28**
 Dispersal, **493**
 dispersal, **502**
 dissociation, **50, 61**
 distal convoluted tubule (DCT), **1223, 1235**
 distraction display, **1395**
 Distraction displays, **1388**
 divergent evolution, **486, 502**

diversifying selection, **518, 523**
 DNA barcoding, **1452, 1458**
 DNA methylation, **445**
 DNA microarray, **474**
 DNA microarrays, **468**
 dominant, **349**
 dominant lethal, **339, 349**
 Dominant traits, **325**
 dormancy, **938, 946**
 dorsal cavity, **956, 973**
 dorsal hollow nerve cord, **813, 848**
 Dorsiflexion, **1140**
 dorsiflexion, **1155**
 double circulation, **1195, 1212**
 double fertilization, **934, 946**
 down feather, **848**
 down feathers, **833**
 down-regulation, **1090, 1112**
 downstream, **404, 421**
 duodenum, **987, 1003**
 dura mater, **1029, 1046**

E

eccrine gland, **848**
 Eccrine glands, **837**
 Ecdysozoa, **750, 758**
 Echinodermata, **803, 806**
 ecological pyramid, **1427**
 Ecological pyramids, **1413**
 Ecology, **1316**
 ecology, **1346**
 ecosystem, **22, 28, 1402, 1427**
 ecosystem diversity, **1433, 1458**
 ecosystem dynamics, **1408, 1427**
 ecosystem services, **1338, 1346**
 ectomycorrhiza, **676**
 Ectomycorrhizae, **666, 676**
 ectotherm, **973**
 ectothermic, **954**
 Ediacaran period, **752, 758**
 effector cell, **1271**
 effector cells, **1255**
 efferent arteriole, **1223, 1235**
 elastase, **996, 1003**
 elastic recoil, **1176, 1184**
 elastic work, **1178, 1184**

- electrocardiogram (ECG), **1205, 1212**
 electrochemical gradient, **155, 164**
 electrogenic pump, **158, 164**
 electrolyte, **61, 1218, 1235**
 electrolytes, **44**
 electromagnetic spectrum, **231, 243**
 electron, **61**
 electron configuration, **41, 61**
 electron microscope, **134**
 electron microscopes, **107**
 electron orbital, **61**
 electron orbitals, **40**
 electron transfer, **43, 62**
 electron transport chain, **236, 243**
 electronegativity, **45, 62**
 Electrons, **35**
 electrophoresis, **380, 395**
 element, **62**
 Elements, **34**
 Elevation, **1140**
 elevation, **1155**
 embryophyte, **705**
 embryophytes, **684**
 Emergent vegetation, **1339**
 emergent vegetation, **1346**
 emerging disease, **599, 609**
 Emsleyan/Mertensian mimicry, **1376, 1395**
 Enantiomers, **58**
 enantiomers, **62**
 Enantiornithes, **835, 848**
 endemic, **1320, 1346**
 endemic disease, **598, 609**
 Endemic species, **1434**
 endemic species, **1458**
 endergonic, **191**
 endergonic reactions, **175**
 endocardium, **1203, 1212**
 endocarp, **939, 946**
 Endochondral ossification, **1135**
 endochondral ossification, **1155**
 endocrine, **1002**
 endocrine cell, **269**
 endocrine cells, **250**
 endocrine gland, **1112**
 endocrine glands, **1111**
 endocrine signal, **269**
 endocrine signals, **250**
 endocrine system, **1003**
 Endocytosis, **159**
 endocytosis, **164**
 endodermis, **867, 893**
 endomembrane system, **134**
 endoplasmic reticulum (ER), **121, 134**
 endoskeleton, **1121, 1155**
 endosperm, **934, 946**
 endospermic dicot, **946**
 endospermic dicots, **937**
 endosymbiosis, **617, 645**
 endosymbiotic theory, **617, 645**
 endotherm, **954, 973**
 energy budget, **1357, 1395**
 enhancer, **445**
 enhancers, **436**
 enterocoelom, **802, 806**
 enterocoely, **747, 758**
 enthalpy, **175, 191**
 entropy, **180**
 entropy (S), **191**
 envelope, **553, 575**
 environmental disturbance, **1395**
 environmental disturbances, **1384**
 enzyme, **99**
 enzyme-linked receptor, **269**
 Enzyme-linked receptors, **254**
 Enzymes, **85**
 eosinophil, **1245, 1271**
 Ependymal, **1016**
 ependymal, **1047**
 epicardium, **1204, 1212**
 epicotyl, **937, 946**
 epidemic, **598, 609**
 epidermis, **770, 806, 859, 893**
 epigenetic, **426, 445**
 epilepsy, **1045, 1047**
 epinephrine, **1102, 1112**
 epiphyseal plate, **1135, 1155**
 epiphyses, **1130**
 epiphysis, **1155**
 epiphyte, **914, 916**
 epistasis, **346, 349**
 epithelial tissue, **973**
 Epithelial tissues, **957**
 epitope, **1271**
 epitopes, **1251**
 equilibrium, **43, 62, 1427**
 Equilibrium, **1403**
 Erythropoietin (EPO), **1111**
 erythropoietin (EPO), **1112**
 esophagus, **984, 1003**
 essential, **902**
 essential nutrient, **1003**
 essential nutrients, **990**
 estivation, **955, 973**
 estrogen, **1088, 1308**
 Estrogen, **1291**
 Estrogens, **1115**
 estrogens, **1113**
 Estuaries, **1337**
 estuary, **1346**
 ethology, **1385, 1396**
 Ethylene, **890**
 ethylene, **893**
 eucoelomate, **758**
 eucoelomates, **746**
 eukaryote, **28**
 eukaryote-first, **543**
 eukaryote-first hypothesis, **547**
 eukaryotes, **21**
 eukaryotic cell, **134**
 eukaryotic cells, **112**
 eukaryotic initiation factor-2 (eIF-2), **440, 445**
 Eumetazoa, **749, 758**
 euploid, **363, 370**
 eutherian mammal, **848**
 Eutherian mammals, **839**
 eutrophication, **1421, 1427**
 evaporation, **49, 62**
 Eversion, **1140**
 eversion, **1155**
 evolution, **24, 28**
 evolutionary (Darwinian) fitness, **517**
 evolutionary fitness, **523**
 excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP), **1024, 1047**
 exergonic, **191**
 exergonic reactions, **175**
 exine, **925, 946**
 exocarp, **939, 946**
 Exocytosis, **162**
 exocytosis, **164**
 exon, **421**
 exons, **413**
 exoskeleton, **1120, 1155**
 Exotic species, **1448**
 exotic species, **1458**
 expiratory reserve volume (ERV), **1170, 1184**
 exponential growth, **1361, 1396**
 expressed sequence tag (EST), **464, 474**
 extant, **686, 705**
 Extension, **1139**
 extension, **1155**
 external fertilization, **1281, 1308**

extinct, **686, 705**
 extinction, **1432, 1458**
 extinction rate, **1458**
 extinction rates, **1440**
 extracellular digestion, **770, 806**
 extracellular domain, **251, 269**
 extracellular matrix, **130, 134**
 extremophile, **609**
 extremophiles, **582**

F

F₁, **323, 349**
 F₂, **323, 349**
 facial bone, **1155**
 facial bones, **1123**
 facilitated transport, **150, 164**
 FACT, **411, 421**
 facultative anaerobes, **653, 676**
 fall and spring turnover, **1346**
 fallout, **1425, 1427**
 false negative, **473, 474**
 falsifiable, **11, 28**
 family, **530, 547**
 Fecundity, **1358**
 fecundity, **1396**
 Feedback inhibition, **189**
 feedback inhibition, **191**
 femur, **1128, 1155**
 fermentation, **212, 221**
 fern, **705**
 ferns, **698**
 fertilization, **304, 317**
 FEV₁/FVC ratio, **1170, 1184**
 fibrous connective tissue, **973**
 Fibrous connective tissues, **962**
 fibrous joint, **1155**
 fibrous joints, **1137**
 fibrous root system, **865, 893**
 fibula, **1128, 1155**
 field, **1054**
 filament, **721, 733**
 first messenger, **1092, 1113**
 Fission, **1278**
 fission, **1308**
 fixation, **239**
 fixed action pattern, **1386, 1396**

flagella, **128**
 flagellum, **134**
 flame cell, **1235**
 flame cells, **1228**
 flat bone, **1155**
 Flat bones, **1131**
 Flexion, **1139**
 flexion, **1155**
 flight feather, **848**
 Flight feathers, **833**
 Flow-resistive, **1178**
 flow-resistive, **1184**
 flower, **713, 733**
 fluid mosaic model, **140, 164**
 follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), **1291, 1308**
 follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), **1094, 1113**
 food chain, **1403, 1427**
 food web, **1405, 1427**
 foodborne disease, **602, 609**
 Foraging, **1387**
 foraging, **1396**
 forced expiratory volume (FEV), **1170, 1184**
 forearm, **1127, 1155**
 foreign DNA, **456, 474**
 Foundation species, **1380**
 foundation species, **1396**
 founder effect, **509, 523**
 fovea, **1075, 1080**
 Fragmentation, **1279**
 fragmentation, **1308**
 free energy, **175, 191**
 free nerve ending, **1059, 1080**
 frequency-dependent selection, **519, 523**
 frog, **848**
 Frogs, **823**
 frontal (coronal) plane, **973**
 frontal lobe, **1031, 1047**
 frontal plane, **955**
 fruit, **713, 733**
 FtsZ, **293, 296**
 functional group, **62**
 Functional groups, **58**
 functional residual capacity (FRC), **1170, 1184**
 functional vital capacity (FVC), **1178, 1184**
 furcula, **834, 848**
 fusiform, **952, 973**
 fusion, **563, 575**

G

G-protein, **1092, 1113**
 G-protein-linked receptor, **269**
 G-protein-linked receptors, **252**
 G₀ phase, **283, 296**
 G₁ phase, **279, 296**
 G₂ phase, **280, 296**
 gall, **575**
 gallbladder, **988, 1003**
 galls, **565**
 Gametangia, **684**
 gametangium, **705**
 gamete, **296**
 gametes, **276**
 gametic barrier, **497, 502**
 gametophyte, **317, 919, 946**
 gametophytes, **315**
 gap junction, **134**
 Gap junctions, **133**
 gastric inhibitory peptide, **1002, 1003**
 gastric phase, **1002, 1003**
 gastrin, **1002, 1003**
 gastrodermis, **770, 806**
 gastrovascular cavity, **770, 806, 979, 1003**
 gastrula, **740, 758**
 gastrulation, **1302, 1308**
 GC-rich box, **421**
 GC-rich boxes, **409**
 Gel electrophoresis, **453**
 gel electrophoresis, **474**
 gemma, **705**
 gemmae, **692**
 gemmule, **806**
 Gemmules, **767**
 gene, **296**
 gene expression, **426, 445**
 gene flow, **515, 523**
 gene pool, **509, 523**
 Gene targeting, **459**
 gene targeting, **474**
 Gene therapy, **460**
 gene therapy, **474, 571, 575**
 gene transfer agent (GTA), **547**
 gene transfer agents (GTAs), **541**
 genes, **277**
 genetic diagnosis, **460, 474**
 Genetic diversity, **1432**
 genetic diversity, **1458**
 genetic drift, **512, 523**

- Genetic engineering, **459**
 genetic engineering, **474**
 genetic map, **462, 474**
 genetic marker, **462, 474**
 genetic recombination, **463, 474**
 genetic structure, **509, 523**
 genetic testing, **460, 474**
 genetic variance, **512, 523**
 genetically modified organism, **459**
 genetically modified organism (GMO), **474**
 genome, **276, 296**
 genome annotation, **468, 474**
 genome fusion, **542, 547**
 Genome mapping, **462**
 genome mapping, **474**
 genomic libraries, **464**
 genomic library, **474**
 Genomics, **462**
 genomics, **475**
 genotype, **328, 349**
 genus, **530, 547**
 geographical variation, **517, 523**
 geometric isomer, **62**
 Geometric isomers, **56**
 germ cells, **314, 317**
 germ layer, **758**
 germ layers, **740**
 gestation, **1295, 1308**
 gibberellin (GA), **893**
 Gibberellins, **889**
 gigantism, **1101, 1113**
 gill circulation, **1194, 1212**
 ginkgophyte, **733**
 ginkgophytes, **719**
 gizzard, **981, 1003**
 glabrous, **1059, 1080**
 glia, **1012, 1047**
 gliding movement, **1155**
 Gliding movements, **1139**
 Global climate change, **1340**
 global climate change, **1346**
 Glomeromycota, **664, 676**
 glomerular filtration, **1224, 1235**
 Glomerular filtration rate (GFR), **1225**
 glomerular filtration rate (GFR), **1235**
 glomeruli, **1067**
 glomerulus, **1080, 1223**
 glomerulus (renal), **1235**
 glucagon, **1098, 1113**
 glucocorticoid, **1113**
 glucocorticoids, **1102**
 gluconeogenesis, **1098, 1113**
 glucose-sparing effect, **1100, 1113**
 GLUT protein, **221**
 GLUT proteins, **217**
 Glycogen, **75**
 glycogen, **99**
 glycogenolysis, **1098, 1113**
 glycolipid, **164**
 glycolipids, **141**
 Glycolysis, **202**
 glycolysis, **221**
 glycoprotein, **164**
 glycoproteins, **141**
 glycosidic bond, **72, 99**
 gnathostome, **848**
 Gnathostomes, **818**
 gnetophyte, **733**
 Gnetophytes, **719**
 goiter, **1099, 1113**
 Golgi apparatus, **123, 134**
 Golgi tendon organ, **1080**
 Golgi tendon organs, **1061**
 Gomphoses, **1138**
 gomphosis, **1155**
 gonadotropin, **1113**
 gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH), **1291, 1308**
 gonadotropins, **1094**
 good genes hypothesis, **521, 523**
Gorilla, **841, 848**
 gradual speciation model, **500, 502**
 grafting, **942, 946**
 Gram negative, **591, 609**
 Gram positive, **591, 609**
 granum, **228, 243**
 granzyme, **1247, 1271**
 gravitropism, **946**
 grazing food web, **1406, 1427**
 greenhouse effect, **1343, 1346**
 greenhouse gases, **1342, 1346**
 gross primary productivity, **1411, 1427**
 Ground tissue, **855**
 ground tissue, **893**
 Group I, **558**
 group I virus, **575**
 Group II, **558**
 group II virus, **575**
 Group III, **558**
 group III virus, **575**
 Group IV, **558**
 group IV virus, **575**
 Group V, **559**
 group V virus, **575**
 Group VI, **559**
 group VI virus, **575**
 Group VII, **559**
 group VII virus, **575**
 growth factor, **269**
 growth factors, **262**
 Growth hormone (GH), **1100**
 growth hormone (GH), **1113**
 growth hormone-inhibiting hormone (GHIH), **1100, 1113**
 growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH), **1100, 1113**
 guanine diphosphate (GDP), **445**
 guanine triphosphate (GTP), **445**
 guanosine diphosphate (GDP), **440**
 guanosine triphosphate (GTP), **440**
 guard cells, **859, 894**
 gustation, **1063, 1080**
 gymnosperm, **733**
 Gymnosperms, **715**
 gynoecium, **721, 733, 920, 946**
 gyri, **1030**
 gyrus, **1047**
- ## H
- habitat isolation, **497, 502**
 Habituation, **1391**
 habituation, **1396**
 hagfish, **848**
 Hagfishes, **817**
 hairpin, **406, 421**
 halophile, **609**
 handicap principle, **521, 523**
 haplodiplodontic, **705**
 haploid, **276, 296**
 haploid-dominant, **314, 317**
 haplontic, **705**
 haustoria, **654, 676**
 Haversian canal, **1132, 1155**
 haze-effect cooling, **1342, 1346**
 heat, **191**
 Heat energy, **177**

- heat energy, **179, 191**
 heat of vaporization, **49**
 heat of vaporization of water, **62**
 heirloom seed, **733**
 Heirloom seeds, **732**
 helicase, **386, 395**
 helper T (T_H) lymphocytes, **1251**
 helper T lymphocyte (T_H), **1272**
 heme group, **1180, 1184**
 hemizygous, **336, 349**
 hemocoel, **797, 806, 1192, 1212**
 Hemoglobin, **1180**
 hemoglobin, **1184**
 hemolymph, **1192, 1212**
 herbaceous, **725, 733**
 herbivore, **1003**
 Herbivores, **978**
 herbivory, **726, 733**
 Heritability, **512**
 heritability, **523**
 hermaphrodite, **806**
 hermaphrodites, **800**
 Hermaphroditism, **1280**
 hermaphroditism, **1308**
 heterodont teeth, **837**
 heterodont tooth, **848**
 heterogeneity, **1435, 1458**
 heterospecifics, **1318, 1346**
 heterosporous, **684, 705**
 Heterothallic, **655**
 heterothallic, **676**
 heterotroph, **243**
 heterotrophs, **226**
 heterozygous, **328, 349**
 hibernation, **955, 973**
 hilum, **1221, 1235**
 hinge joint, **1155**
 hinge joints, **1142**
 hippocampus, **1032, 1047**
 histone, **296**
 histone acetylation, **442, 445**
 histone proteins, **277**
 holistic ecosystem model, **1408, 1428**
 holoblastic, **1302, 1308**
 holoenzyme, **404, 421**
 homeostasis, **19, 28, 973**
 Homeostasis, **968**
 hominin, **841, 848**
 hominoid, **848**
 hominoids, **841**
Homo, **841, 848**
Homo sapiens sapiens, **846, 848**
 homologous, **277**
 homologous chromosomes, **297**
 homologous recombination, **357, 370**
 homologous structures, **487, 502**
 homosporous, **684, 705**
 homothallic, **655, 676**
 homozygous, **328, 349**
 honest signal, **521, 523**
 horizon, **906, 916**
 Horizontal gene transfer (HGT), **540**
 horizontal gene transfer (HGT), **547**
 horizontal transmission, **565, 575**
 Hormonal stimuli, **1104**
 hormonal stimuli, **1113**
 hormone, **99, 1090**
 hormone receptor, **1113**
 Hormones, **85**
 hornworts, **692, 705**
 horsetail, **705**
 horsetails, **697**
 host, **1241, 1272, 1379, 1396**
 host DNA, **456, 475**
 Hox gene, **758**
 Hox genes, **741**
 human beta chorionic gonadotropin (β -HCG), **1295, 1308**
 humerus, **1127, 1155**
 humoral immune response, **1249, 1272**
 humoral stimuli, **1113**
 humoral stimulus, **1103**
 humus, **906, 916**
 hybrid, **491, 502**
 hybrid inviability, **498**
 hybrid zone, **499, 502**
 hybridization, **349**
 hybridizations, **323**
 hydrocarbon, **62**
 Hydrocarbons, **54**
 hydrogen bond, **46, 62**
 hydrogenosome, **645**
 hydrogenosomes, **626**
 hydrolysis, **99**
 hydrolysis reactions, **68**
 hydrophilic, **47, 62, 141, 164**
 hydrophobic, **47, 62, 164**
 Hydrophobic, **141**
 hydrosphere, **1415, 1428**
 hydrostatic skeleton, **1120, 1155**
 hydrothermal vent, **580, 610**
 Hylobatidae, **841, 848**
 Hylonomus, **829, 848**
 hyoid bone, **1124, 1155**
 hyperextension, **1139, 1155**
 hyperglycemia, **1097, 1113**
 hyperopia, **1074, 1080**
 hyperplasia, **565, 575**
 hyperpolarization, **1047**
 hyperpolarizes, **1021**
 hypersensitivities, **1268, 1272**
 hyperthermophile, **610**
 Hyperthyroidism, **1099**
 hyperthyroidism, **1113**
 hypertonic, **153, 164**
 hypha, **652, 676**
 hyphae, **652**
 hypocotyl, **937, 946**
 hypoglycemia, **1097, 1113**
 hypophyseal portal system, **1105, 1113**
 hypoplasia, **565, 575**
 hypothalamus, **1034, 1047, 1104**
 hypothesis, **8, 28**
 hypothesis-based science, **10, 28**
 Hypothyroidism, **1099**
 hypothyroidism, **1113**
 hypotonic, **152, 164**
- I**
- ileum, **987, 1003**
 immune tolerance, **1256, 1272**
 Immunodeficiency, **1268**
 immunodeficiency, **1272**
 Imprinting, **1391**
 imprinting, **1396**
 inbreeding, **512, 523**
 inbreeding depression, **512, 523**
 incomplete dominance, **332, 349**
 incus, **1068, 1080**
 indeterminate cleavage, **748, 758**
 induced fit, **185, 191**
 induced mutation, **395**
 Induced mutations, **393**
 inducible operon, **445**
 inducible operons, **430**
 Inductive reasoning, **10**

- inductive reasoning, **28**
 inert gas, **62**
 inert gases, **40**
 inferior vena cava, **1202, 1212, 1222, 1235**
 Infertility, **1300**
 infertility, **1308**
 inflammation, **1245, 1272**
 ingestion, **995, 1004**
 inhibin, **1291, 1308**
 inhibitor, **262, 269**
 inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP), **1047**
 inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (IPSPs), **1024**
 initiation complex, **440, 445**
 initiation site, **404, 421**
 initiator tRNA, **417, 421**
 innate behavior, **1396**
 innate behaviors, **1385**
 Innate immunity, **1242**
 innate immunity, **1272**
 inner cell mass, **1302, 1308**
 inner ear, **1069, 1080**
 inorganic compound, **902, 916**
 inositol phospholipid, **269**
 inositol phospholipids, **260**
 inositol triphosphate (IP₃), **260, 269**
 insectivorous, **914**
 insectivorous plant, **916**
 inspiratory capacity (IC), **1170, 1185**
 inspiratory reserve volume (IRV), **1170, 1185**
 Insulin, **1097**
 insulin, **1113**
 insulin-like growth factor (IGF), **1113**
 insulin-like growth factors (IGFs), **1100**
 integral protein, **164**
 Integral proteins, **143**
 integument, **715, 733**
 intercalary meristem, **894**
 Intercalary meristems, **855**
 intercellular signaling, **248, 269**
 intercostal muscle, **1185**
 intercostal muscles, **1176**
 interferon, **1244, 1272**
 interkinesis, **308, 317**
 interlobar arteries, **1222**
 interlobar artery, **1235**
 intermediate filament, **134**
 Intermediate filaments, **127**
 intermittent, **564**
 intermittent symptom, **575**
 internal fertilization, **1281, 1308**
 internal receptor, **269**
 Internal receptors, **251**
 internode, **856, 894**
 interphase, **279, 297**
 intersexual selection, **1390, 1396**
 interspecific competition, **1365, 1396**
 interstitial cell of Leydig, **1308**
 interstitial cells of Leydig, **1291**
 interstitial fluid, **1192, 1213**
 intertidal zone, **1334, 1346**
 intervertebral disc, **1155**
 Intervertebral discs, **1124**
 intestinal phase, **1002, 1004**
 intine, **925, 946**
 intracellular hormone receptor, **1113**
 intracellular hormone receptors, **1090**
 intracellular mediator, **269**
 intracellular mediators, **250**
 intracellular signaling, **248, 269**
 Intramembranous ossification, **1134**
 intramembranous ossification, **1155**
 intrapleural space, **1177, 1185**
 intrasexual selection, **1390, 1396**
 intraspecific competition, **1363, 1396**
 introduction, **16, 28**
 intron, **421**
 introns, **413**
 Inversion, **1140**
 inversion, **1155**
 invertebrata, **764, 807**
 ion, **62**
 ion channel-linked receptor, **269**
 Ion channel-linked receptors, **252**
 ionic bond, **62**
 Ionic bonds, **44**
 ions, **40**
 iris, **1074, 1080**
 irregular bone, **1155**
 Irregular bones, **1131**
 irreversible, **43**
 irreversible chemical reaction, **62**
 island biogeography, **1381, 1396**
 islets of Langerhans, **1108**
 islets of Langerhans (pancreatic islets), **1113**
 isomerase, **202, 221**
 isomers, **56, 62**
 isotonic, **153, 164**
 isotope, **62**
 Isotopes, **36**
 isthmus, **1105, 1114**
 Iteroparity, **1358**
 iteroparity, **1396**
- ## J
- J-shaped growth curve, **1361, 1396**
 Jasmonates, **891**
 jasmonates, **894**
 jejunum, **987, 1004**
 joint, **1137, 1155**
 juxtglomerular cell, **1236**
 juxtglomerular cells, **1227**
 juxtamedullary nephron, **1236**
 juxtamedullary nephrons, **1222**
- ## K
- K-selected species, **1368, 1396**
 karyogamy, **656, 676**
 karyogram, **361, 370**
 karyokinesis, **280, 297**
 karyotype, **361, 370**
 keystone species, **1381, 1396**
 kidney, **1236**
 kidneys, **1221**
 kin selection, **1389, 1396**
 kinase, **259, 269**
 kinesis, **1386, 1396**
 kinesthesia, **1054, 1080**
 kinetic energy, **173, 191**
 kinetochore, **282, 297**
 kinetoplast, **626, 645**
 kingdom, **530, 547**
 Kozak's rules, **417, 421**
 Krebs cycle, **205, 221**
- ## L
- labia majora, **1286, 1308**

- labia minora, **1286, 1308**
 labyrinth, **1069, 1080**
lac operon, **430, 445**
 lactase, **1004**
 lactases, **996**
 lacuna, **973**
 lacunae, **962**
 lagging strand, **387, 395**
 lamella, **1156**
 lamellae, **1132**
 lamina, **869, 894**
 lamprey, **848**
 Lampreys, **817**
 lancelet, **848**
 lancelets, **814**
 large 60S ribosomal subunit, **445**
 large intestine, **988, 1004**
 larynx, **1165, 1185**
 latency, **562, 575**
 lateral line, **819, 848**
 lateral meristem, **894**
 Lateral meristems, **855**
 lateral rotation, **1140, 1156**
 law of dominance, **340, 349**
 law of independent assortment, **340, 349**
 law of mass action, **43, 62**
 law of segregation, **340, 349**
 Layering, **943**
 layering, **946**
 leading strand, **387, 395**
 learned behavior, **1396**
 learned behaviors, **1385**
 lens, **1074, 1080**
 lenticel, **894**
 lenticels, **862**
 lepidosaur, **848**
 lepidosaurs, **827**
 leptin, **1111, 1114**
 lichen, **676**
 Lichens, **667**
 life cycle, **317**
 life cycles, **314**
 life history, **1357, 1396**
 life science, **28**
 life sciences, **9**
 life table, **1396**
 life tables, **1352**
 ligand, **248, 270**
 ligase, **388, 395**
 light harvesting complex, **243**
 light microscope, **135**
 light microscopes, **106**
 light-dependent reaction, **243**
 light-dependent reactions, **228**
 light-harvesting complex, **235**
 light-independent reaction, **243**
 light-independent reactions, **228**
 lignin, **695, 705**
 limbic system, **1034, 1047**
 linkage, **343, 349**
 linkage analysis, **462, 475**
 lipase, **984, 1004**
 lipid, **99**
 lipid hormones, **1088**
 lipid-derived hormone, **1114**
 Lipids, **78**
 litmus, **52**
 litmus paper, **62**
 liver, **988, 1004**
 Liverworts, **691**
 liverworts, **705**
 loam, **916**
 loams, **906**
 lobe, **1032**
 lobes of the kidney, **1222, 1236**
 locus, **277, 297**
 logistic growth, **1362, 1396**
 long bone, **1156**
 Long bones, **1130**
 Long-term depression (LTD), **1028**
 long-term depression (LTD), **1047**
 Long-term potentiation (LTP), **1028**
 long-term potentiation (LTP), **1047**
 loop of Henle, **1223, 1236**
 loose (areolar) connective tissue, **973**
 Loose connective tissue, **961**
 Lophotrochozoa, **750, 758**
 lower limb, **1128, 1156**
 lung capacities, **1169**
 lung capacity, **1185**
 lung volume, **1185**
 lung volumes, **1169**
 luteinizing hormone (LH), **1291, 1309**
 lycophyte, **705**
 Lycopodiophyta, **696**
 Lymph, **1261**
 lymph, **1272**
 lymph node, **1213**
 Lymph nodes, **1209**
 lymphocyte, **1272**
 Lymphocytes, **1246**
 lysis, **560, 575**
 lysis buffer, **452, 475**
 lysogenic cycle, **562, 576**
 lysosome, **135**
 lysosomes, **118**
 lytic cycle, **562, 576**
- ## M
- macroevolution, **508, 523**
 macromolecule, **28**
 macromolecules, **20**
 macronutrient, **916**
 macronutrients, **903**
 macrophage, **1242, 1272**
 macula densa, **1227, 1236**
 madreporite, **803, 807**
 Major depression, **1045**
 major depression, **1047**
 major histocompatibility class (MHC) I molecules, **1246**
 major histocompatibility class (MHC) I/II molecule, **1272**
 malleus, **1068, 1080**
 Malpighian tubule, **1236**
 Malpighian tubules, **1228**
 maltase, **1004**
 maltases, **996**
 mammal, **848**
 Mammals, **837**
 mammary gland, **848**
 Mammary glands, **837**
 mantle, **784, 807**
 mark and recapture, **1354, 1396**
 marsupial, **848**
 Marsupials, **839**
 mass extinction, **755, 758**
 mass number, **35, 62**
 mast cell, **1245, 1272**
 mastax, **780, 807**
 materials and methods, **17, 28**
 mating factor, **264, 270**
 matrix, **961, 973**
 matrix protein, **576**
 matrix proteins, **554**
 Matter, **34**
 matter, **62**
 maximum parsimony, **539, 547**
 mechanoreceptor, **1054, 1080**
 medial rotation, **1140, 1156**
 medulla, **1221, 1236**

- medusa, **768, 807**
 megafauna, **1439, 1458**
 megagametogenesis, **925, 946**
 megapascal (MPa), **894**
 megapascals, **877**
 megaphyll, **705**
 megaphylls, **696**
 megasporangium, **925, 946**
 megaspore, **705**
 megaspores, **684**
 megasporocyte, **715, 733**
 megasporogenesis, **925, 947**
 megasporophyll, **947**
 megasporophylls, **927**
 meiosis, **304, 317**
 meiosis I, **304, 317**
 Meiosis II, **304**
 meiosis II, **317**
 Meissner's corpuscle, **1080**
 Meissner's corpuscles, **1060**
 membrane potential, **1017, 1047**
 memory cell, **1257, 1272**
 meninge, **1047**
 meninges, **1029**
 menopause, **1294, 1309**
 menstrual cycle, **1291, 1309**
 meristem, **894**
 Meristematic tissue, **855**
 meristematic tissue, **894**
 meristems, **855**
 Merkel's disc, **1080**
 Merkel's disks, **1059**
 meroblastic, **1302, 1309**
 mesocarp, **939, 947**
 mesocosm, **1408, 1428**
 mesoglea, **770, 807**
 Mesohyl, **764**
 mesohyl, **807**
 mesophyll, **228, 243**
 messenger RNA (mRNA), **94, 99**
 metabolism, **170, 191**
 metabolome, **472, 475**
 Metabolomics, **472**
 metabolomics, **475**
 metacarpus, **1127, 1156**
 Metagenomics, **470**
 metagenomics, **475**
 metamerism, **789, 807**
 metaphase, **282, 297**
 metaphase plate, **282, 297**
 metatarsal, **1156**
 metatarsals, **1128**
 Metazoa, **749, 758**
 methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), **601**
 MHC II molecules, **1246**
 microbial mat, **580, 610**
 Microbiology, **26**
 microbiology, **29**
 microcosm, **1408, 1428**
 microevolution, **508, 523**
 microfilament, **135**
 microfilaments, **126**
 Microglia, **1016**
 microglia, **1047**
 micronutrient, **916**
 micronutrients, **904**
 microphyll, **696, 705**
 Micropropagation, **944**
 micropropagation, **947**
 micropyle, **926, 947**
 microRNA (miRNA), **445**
 microRNAs, **439**
 microsatellite polymorphism, **475**
 microsatellite polymorphisms, **463**
 microscope, **106, 135**
 microsporangium, **923, 947**
 microspore, **705**
 microspores, **684**
 microsporocyte, **733**
 microsporocytes, **715**
 microsporophyll, **947**
 microsporophylls, **927**
 microtubule, **135**
 microtubules, **127**
 microvilli, **1228, 1236**
 middle ear, **1068, 1080**
 midsagittal plane, **955, 973**
 Migration, **1386**
 migration, **1396**
 Milankovitch cycles, **1342, 1347**
 mineral, **1004**
 mineral soil, **916**
 mineral soils, **905**
 mineralocorticoid, **1093, 1114**
 Minerals, **990**
 mismatch repair, **391, 395**
 Mitochondria, **117**
 mitochondria, **135**
 mitochondria-first, **543**
 mitochondria-first hypothesis, **547**
 mitosis, **280, 297**
 mitosome, **645**
 mitosomes, **626**
 mitotic phase, **279, 297**
 mitotic spindle, **280, 297**
 mixotroph, **645**
 mixotrophs, **623**
 model organism, **468, 475**
 model system, **322, 350**
 modern synthesis, **508, 523**
 molality, **1219, 1236**
 molarity, **1219, 1236**
 mold, **663, 676**
 mole, **1219, 1236**
 molecular biology, **26, 29**
 molecular cloning, **475**
 molecular systematics, **535, 547**
 molecule, **20, 29, 62**
 Molecules, **38**
 Mollusca, **783, 807**
 monocarpic, **945, 947**
 monocot, **733**
 Monocots, **723**
 monocyte, **1242, 1272**
 monoecious, **715, 734**
 monogamous, **1390**
 monogamy, **1396**
 monogastric, **980, 1004**
 monohybrid, **329, 350**
 monomer, **99**
 monomers, **68**
 monophyletic group, **537, 547**
 monosaccharide, **99**
 Monosaccharides, **69**
 monosomy, **363, 370**
 monotreme, **848**
 monotremes, **839**
 morning sickness, **1309**
 mortality rate, **1356, 1397**
 mosses, **693, 705**
 motor end plate, **1151, 1156**
 MRSA, **610**
 mucin, **1168, 1185**
 Mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT), **1255**
 mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT), **1272**
 mucus, **1168, 1185**
 Müllerian mimicry, **1376, 1397**
 multiple cloning site (MCS), **456, 475**
 Multiple fruit, **939**
 multiple fruit, **947**
 muscle spindle, **1081**
 Muscle spindles, **1061**
 mutation, **395**
 Mutations, **393**

mutualism, **1379, 1397**
 Myc, **442**
 myc, **445**
 mycelium, **652, 676**
 Mycetismus, **671**
 mycetismus, **676**
 mycology, **650, 676**
 Mycorrhiza, **666**
 mycorrhiza, **676**
 mycorrhizae, **649, 677**
 mycosis, **671, 677**
 Mycotoxicosis, **671**
 mycotoxicosis, **677**
 myelin, **1012, 1047**
 myocardial infarction, **1204, 1213**
 myocardium, **1203, 1213**
 myofibril, **1156**
 myofibrils, **1146**
 myofilament, **1156**
 myofilaments, **1147**
 Myopia, **1074**
 myopia, **1081**
 myosin, **1146, 1156**
 Myxini, **817, 848**

N

nacre, **785, 807**
 nasal cavity, **1164, 1185**
 natural killer (NK) cell, **1272**
 natural killer (NK) cells, **1246**
 natural science, **29**
 natural sciences, **9**
 Natural selection, **483**
 natural selection, **502**
 nauplius, **800, 807**
 nectar, **727, 734**
 nectar guide, **931, 947**
 negative feedback loop, **968, 973**
 negative gravitropism, **888, 894**
 negative polarity, **559, 576**
 negative regulator, **445**
 negative regulators, **429**
 nematocyst, **807**
 nematocysts, **768**
 Nematoda, **791, 807**
 Nemertea, **781, 807**
 Neognathae, **835, 848**
 Neornithes, **835, 848**
 nephridia, **1228, 1236**
 nephridiopore, **1228, 1236**
 nephron, **1236**
 nephrons, **1222**
 neritic zone, **1335, 1347**

Net consumer productivity, **1412**
 net consumer productivity, **1428**
 Net primary productivity, **1326, 1411**
 net primary productivity, **1347, 1428**
 Net production efficiency (NPE), **1412**
 net production efficiency (NPE), **1428**
 neural stimuli, **1104, 1114**
 neural tube, **1306, 1309**
 neurobiology, **26, 29**
 neurodegenerative disorder, **1047**
 Neurodegenerative disorders, **1040**
 neuron, **1047**
 neurons, **1012**
 neurotransmitter, **270**
 neurotransmitters, **249**
 neutron, **35, 62**
 neutrophil, **1245, 1272**
 next-generation sequencing, **467, 475**
 Nitrification, **597**
 nitrification, **610**
 nitrogen fixation, **597, 610**
 nitrogenase, **911, 916**
 noble gas, **62**
 noble gases, **40**
 nociception, **1062, 1081**
 node, **894**
 Nodes, **856**
 nodes of Ranvier, **1012, 1047**
 nodule, **610**
 nodules, **604, 911, 916**
 non-electrolyte, **1218, 1236**
 non-endospermic dicot, **947**
 non-endospermic dicots, **937**
 non-renewable resource, **1420, 1428**
 non-vascular plant, **705**
 non-vascular plants, **687**
 nondisjunction, **362, 370**
 nonparental (recombinant) type, **370**
 nonparental types, **357**
 nonpolar covalent bond, **63**
 Nonpolar covalent bonds, **45**
 nonrandom mating, **516, 523**

nonsense codon, **421**
 nonsense codons, **402**
 nontemplate strand, **404, 421**
 norepinephrine, **1037, 1047, 1102, 1114**
 northern blotting, **456, 475**
 notochord, **812, 849**
 nuclear envelope, **115, 135**
 nucleic acid, **99**
 Nucleic acids, **94**
 nucleoid, **110, 135**
 nucleolus, **116, 135**
 nucleoplasm, **115, 135**
 nucleosome, **277, 297**
 nucleotide, **99**
 nucleotide excision repair, **392, 395**
 nucleotides, **94**
 nucleus, **34, 63, 115, 135**
 nucleus-first, **543**
 nucleus-first hypothesis, **547**
 nutrient, **610**
 nutrients, **580, 594**

O

O horizon, **907, 916**
 obligate aerobes, **653, 677**
 obligate anaerobes, **653, 677**
 obstructive disease, **1185**
 Obstructive diseases, **1178**
 occipital, **1032**
 occipital lobe, **1047**
 Ocean upwelling, **1322**
 ocean upwelling, **1347**
 oceanic zone, **1335, 1347**
 Octamer box, **422**
 octamer boxes, **409**
 octet rule, **39, 63**
 odorant, **1081**
 Odorants, **1063**
 Okazaki fragment, **395**
 Okazaki fragments, **387**
 olfaction, **1063, 1081**
 olfactory bulb, **1067, 1081**
 olfactory epithelium, **1063, 1081**
 olfactory receptor, **1063, 1081**
 oligodendrocyte, **1047**
 Oligodendrocytes, **1016**
 oligosaccharin, **894**
 Oligosaccharins, **891**
 Omega, **81**

- omega fat, **100**
 omnivore, **1004**
 Omnivores, **979**
 oncogene, **297**
 oncogenes, **291**
 oncogenic virus, **576**
 oncogenic viruses, **564**
 oncolytic virus, **576**
 Oncolytic viruses, **571**
 one-child policy, **1373**,
1397
 oogenesis, **1288**, **1309**
 open circulatory system,
1192, **1213**
 operant conditioning,
1392, **1397**
 operator, **429**, **445**
 operon, **445**
 operons, **428**
 Opposition, **1140**
 opposition, **1156**
 opsonization, **1247**, **1272**
 orbital, **63**
 orbitals, **39**
 order, **530**, **547**
 organ, **29**
 organ of Corti, **1070**, **1081**
 organ system, **21**, **29**
 organelle, **29**, **135**
 organelles, **21**, **112**
 organic compound, **902**,
916
 organic molecule, **63**
 organic molecules, **54**
 organic soil, **916**
 organic soils, **905**
 organism, **29**
 Organisms, **22**
 organogenesis, **740**, **758**,
1305, **1309**
 Organs, **21**
 origin, **293**, **297**
 Ornithorhynchidae, **839**,
849
 osculum, **764**, **807**
 osmoconformer, **1236**
 osmoconformers, **1219**
 Osmolarity, **152**
 osmolarity, **165**
 osmophile, **610**
 osmoreceptor, **1114**
 osmoreceptors, **1093**
 Osmoregulation, **1218**
 osmoregulation, **1236**
 osmoregulator, **1236**
 osmoregulatory, **1219**
 Osmosis, **151**
 osmosis, **165**
 osmotic balance, **1218**,
1236
 osmotic pressure, **1218**,
1236
 osseous tissue, **1130**,
1156
 ossicle, **1081**
 ossicles, **1068**
 Ossification, **1134**
 ossification, **1156**
 Osteichthyes, **820**, **849**
 osteoblast, **1156**
 Osteoblasts, **1134**
 osteoclast, **1156**
 Osteoclasts, **1134**
 osteocyte, **1156**
 Osteocytes, **1134**
 osteon, **973**, **1156**
 osteons, **963**
 Osteons, **1132**
 Osteoprogenitor cells,
1134
 ostia, **764**, **1192**
 ostium, **807**, **1213**
 ostracoderm, **849**
 ostracoderms, **817**
 outer ear, **1068**, **1081**
 oval window, **1069**, **1081**
 ovarian cycle, **1291**, **1309**
 ovary, **721**, **734**
 oviduct, **1309**
 oviducts, **1287**
 oviger, **807**
 ovigers, **801**
 oviparity, **1282**, **1309**
 ovoviparity, **1283**, **1309**
 ovulate cone, **734**
 ovulate cones, **715**
 ovulation, **1292**, **1309**
 ovule, **711**, **734**
 oxidative phosphorylation,
201, **221**
 oxygen dissociation curve,
1181, **1185**
 oxygen-carrying capacity,
1181, **1185**
 oxytocin, **1096**, **1114**
- ## P
- P₀, **323**, **350**
 p21, **290**, **297**
 p53, **290**, **297**
 P680, **236**, **243**
 P700, **237**, **243**
 Pacinian corpuscle, **1081**
 Pacinian corpuscles, **1061**
 pairwise-end sequencing,
467
 Paleognathae, **835**, **849**
 Paleontology, **27**
 paleontology, **29**
 palmately compound leaf,
870, **894**
Pan, **841**, **849**
 pancreas, **988**, **1004**,
1108, **1114**
 pandemic, **598**, **610**
 papilla, **1081**
 papillae, **1065**
 paracentric, **367**, **370**
 paracrine signal, **270**
 paracrine signals, **249**
 parafollicular cell, **1114**
 parafollicular cells, **1106**
 parapodia, **790**
 parapodium, **807**
 parasite, **1379**, **1397**
 parasitic plant, **912**, **916**
 Parasitism, **670**
 parasitism, **677**
 parasympathetic nervous
 system, **1038**, **1047**
 parathyroid gland, **1114**
 parathyroid glands, **1106**
 parathyroid hormone
 (PTH), **1099**, **1114**
 Parazoa, **750**, **758**
 parenchyma cell, **894**
 Parenchyma cells, **857**
 parent material, **907**, **916**
 Parental types, **357**
 parental types, **370**
 parietal, **1032**
 parietal lobe, **1047**
 Parkinson's disease, **1041**,
1047
 Parthenogenesis, **1280**
 parthenogenesis, **1309**
 Partial pressure, **1168**
 partial pressure, **1185**
 particulate matter, **1167**,
1185
 passive immunity, **1265**,
1272
 Passive transport, **147**
 passive transport, **165**
 patella, **1128**, **1156**
 pathogen, **576**, **1272**
 pathogen-associated
 molecular pattern (PAMP),
1273
 pathogen-associated
 molecular patterns
 (PAMPs), **1242**
 pathogens, **571**, **1241**
 pattern recognition
 receptor (PRR), **1273**
 pattern recognition
 receptors (PRRs), **1242**
 peat moss, **703**, **705**

- pectoral girdle, **1126, 1156**
 pedigree analysis, **331**
 pedipalp, **807**
 pedipalps, **801**
 peer-reviewed manuscript, **29**
 Peer-reviewed manuscripts, **16**
 pelagic realm, **1333, 1347**
 pellicle, **645**
 pellicles, **622**
 pelvic girdle, **1127, 1156**
 penis, **1285, 1309**
 Pepsin, **986**
 pepsin, **1004**
 pepsinogen, **986, 1004**
 peptide bond, **87, 100**
 peptide hormone, **1114**
 peptide hormones, **1089**
 peptidoglycan, **591, 610**
 peptidyl transferase, **418, 422**
 Perception, **1055**
 perception, **1081**
 perforin, **1247, 1273**
 perianth, **721, 734, 920, 947**
 pericardium, **1204, 1213**
 pericarp, **939, 947**
 pericentric, **367, 370**
 pericycle, **867, 894**
 periderm, **862, 894**
 periodic table, **38, 63**
 peripheral protein, **165**
 Peripheral proteins, **144**
 peripheral resistance, **1210, 1213**
 perirenal fat capsule, **1221, 1236**
 peristalsis, **984, 1004**
 peristome, **695, 705**
 peritubular capillary network, **1223, 1236**
 permafrost, **1332, 1347**
 permanent tissue, **855, 894**
 permissive, **560, 576**
 peroxisome, **135**
 Peroxisomes, **117**
 petal, **734**
 Petals, **721**
 petiole, **869, 894**
 Petromyzontidae, **817, 849**
 pH paper, **63**
 pH scale, **52, 63**
 phage therapy, **571, 576**
 phagolysosome, **622, 645**
 phalange, **1156**
 phalanges, **1127**
 Pharmacogenomics, **470**
 pharmacogenomics, **475**
 pharyngeal slit, **849**
 Pharyngeal slits, **813**
 pharynx, **1165, 1185**
 phenotype, **328, 350**
 pheromone, **1065, 1081**
 Phloem, **696**
 phloem, **705**
 phosphatase, **270**
 phosphatases, **264**
 phosphoanhydride bond, **191**
 phosphoanhydride bonds, **181**
 phosphodiester, **95, 100**
 phosphodiesterase, **264, 270, 1092**
 phosphodiesterase (PDE), **1114**
 phospholipid, **100**
 Phospholipids, **82**
 Phosphorylation, **200**
 phosphorylation, **221**
 photic zone, **1333, 1347**
 photoact, **236, 243**
 photoautotroph, **243**
 photoautotrophs, **226**
 Photomorphogenesis, **884**
 photomorphogenesis, **894**
 photon, **235, 243**
 Photoperiodism, **884**
 photoperiodism, **894**
 photosystem, **235, 243**
 photosystem I, **235, 244**
 photosystem II, **235, 244**
 phototroph, **610**
 phototrophs, **581**
 Phototrophs, **595**
 phototropin, **894**
 phototropins, **887**
 Phototropism, **884**
 phototropism, **894**
 phyllotaxy, **870, 894**
 phylogenetic tree, **24, 29, 528, 547**
 Phylogeny, **528**
 phylogeny, **547**
 phylum, **530, 547**
 physical map, **462, 475**
 physical science, **29**
 physical sciences, **9**
 physiological dead space, **1179, 1185**
 phytochrome, **894**
 phytochromes, **885**
 pia mater, **1029, 1047**
 pigment, **228, 244**
 pili, **587**
 pilidium, **783, 807**
 pilus, **610**
 pinacocyte, **807**
 Pinacocytes, **764**
 pinna, **1068, 1081**
 pinnately compound leaf, **894**
 Pinnately compound leaves, **870**
 pinocytosis, **160, 165**
 pioneer species, **1384, 1397**
 pistil, **721, 734**
 pith, **861, 894**
 pituitary dwarfism, **1101, 1114**
 pituitary gland, **1104, 1114**
 pituitary stalk, **1104, 1114**
 pivot joint, **1156**
 Pivot joints, **1142**
 placenta, **1296, 1309**
 plagiarism, **17, 29**
 planar joint, **1156**
 Planar joints, **1141**
 planktivore, **1347**
 planktivores, **1336**
 plankton, **627, 645**
 planospiral, **785, 807**
 Plantar flexion, **1140**
 plantar flexion, **1156**
 planuliform, **783, 807**
 plasma, **1195, 1213**
 plasma cell, **1253, 1273**
 plasma membrane, **113, 135**
 plasma membrane hormone receptor, **1114**
 plasma membrane hormone receptors, **1092**
 plasmid, **422**
 plasmids, **404**
 plasmodesma, **135**
 plasmodesmata, **131**
 plasmogamy, **656, 677**
 plasmolysis, **154, 165**
 plastid, **619, 645**
 platelet, **1213**
 platelets, **1195**
 Platyrrhini, **840, 849**
Plesiadapis, **840, 849**
 pleura, **1177, 1185**
 Pleurisy, **1177**
 pleurisy, **1185**
 plumule, **937, 947**
 pneumatic bone, **849**
 Pneumatic bones, **834**
 point mutation, **395**
 Point mutations, **393**
 polar covalent bond, **44, 63**
 polar nuclei, **925, 947**
 pollen grain, **734**

- pollen grains, **710**
 pollen tube, **712, 734**
 pollination, **727, 734, 929, 947**
 poly-A tail, **413, 422, 439, 446**
 polyandrous, **1390**
 polyandry, **1397**
 Polycarpic, **945**
 polycarpic, **947**
 polygenic, **469, 475**
 Polygynous, **1390**
 polygyny, **1397**
 polymer, **100**
 polymerase chain reaction (PCR), **475**
 polymers, **68**
 polymorphic, **772, 807**
 polynucleotide, **94, 100**
 polyp, **768, 807**
 polypeptide, **100**
 polyploid, **364, 370**
 polysaccharide, **74, 100**
 polysome, **416, 422**
 polyspermy, **1301, 1309**
 polytomy, **528, 547**
Pongo, **841, 849**
 population, **22, 29**
 population density, **1352, 1397**
 population genetics, **509, 523**
 population growth rate, **1361, 1397**
 population size (*N*), **1352, 1397**
 population variation, **511, 524**
 Porifera, **764, 807**
 positive feedback loop, **969, 973**
 positive gravitropism, **888, 894**
 Positive polarity, **558**
 positive polarity, **576**
 positive regulator, **429, 446**
 post-anal tail, **813, 849**
 post-transcriptional, **426, 446**
 post-translational, **426, 446**
 posterior pituitary, **1105, 1114**
 postzygotic barrier, **496, 502**
 potential energy, **173, 191**
 potocytosis, **161, 165**
 precapillary sphincter, **1213**
 predator, **1347**
 predators, **1336**
 preinitiation complex, **410, 422**
 presbyopia, **1074, 1081**
 prezygotic barrier, **496, 502**
 primary (main) bronchi, **1166**
 Primary active transport, **156**
 primary active transport, **165**
 primary bronchus, **1185**
 primary consumer, **1428**
 primary consumers, **1403**
 primary electron acceptor, **236, 244**
 primary feather, **849**
 Primary feathers, **833**
 primary growth, **861, 894**
 primary producer, **1428**
 primary producers, **1403**
 primary structure, **89, 100**
 primary succession, **1384, 1397**
 primase, **387, 395**
 Primates, **840, 849**
 primer, **387, 395**
 prion, **576**
 Prions, **572**
 probe, **475**
 probes, **455**
 product, **63**
 product rule, **326, 350**
 productive, **562, 576**
 products, **42**
 Progesterone, **1291**
 progesterone, **1309**
 prognathic jaw, **849**
 prognathic jaws, **843**
 progymnosperm, **734**
 progymnosperms, **710**
 prokaryote, **29, 110, 135**
 Prokaryotes, **21**
 prolactin (PRL), **1096, 1114**
 prolactin-inhibiting hormone, **1114**
 prolactin-inhibiting hormone (PIH), **1096**
 prolactin-releasing hormone, **1114**
 prolactin-releasing hormone (PRH), **1096**
 prometaphase, **282, 297**
 promoter, **405, 422**
 Pronation, **1140**
 pronation, **1156**
 proofreading, **391, 395**
 prophage, **562, 576**
 prophase, **281, 297**
 proprioception, **1032, 1048, 1054, 1081**
 prosimian, **849**
 Prosimians, **840**
 prostate gland, **1285, 1309**
 prosthetic group, **208, 221**
 protease, **475**
 proteases, **452**
 proteasome, **441, 446**
 protein, **100**
 protein signature, **473, 475**
 Proteins, **85**
 proteome, **472, 475**
 proteomics, **472, 475**
 proto-oncogene, **297**
 proto-oncogenes, **291**
 proton, **35, 63**
 protonema, **693, 706**
 protonephridia, **1228**
 protostome, **759**
 Protostomes, **747**
 Protraction, **1140**
 protraction, **1156**
 proventriculus, **981, 1004**
 proximal convoluted tubule (PCT), **1223, 1236**
 PrP^C, **572, 576**
 PrP^{Sc}, **572, 576**
 pseudocoelomate, **759**
 pseudocoelomates, **746**
 pseudopeptidoglycan, **592, 610**
 pseudostratified, **959, 973**
 psychrophile, **610**
 pulmocutaneous circulation, **1195, 1213**
 pulmonary circulation, **1194, 1213**
 pump, **165**
 pumps, **156**
 punctuated equilibrium, **500, 502**
 Punnett square, **329, 350**
 pupil, **1081**
 pure culture, **470, 475**
 purine, **100**
 purines, **95**
 pyrimidine, **100**
 pyrimidines, **95**
 pyruvate, **202, 221**
- ## Q
- quadrat, **1353, 1397**
 quaternary structure, **92, 100**
 quiescent, **283, 297**

quorum sensing, **265, 270**

R

r-selected species, **1368, 1397**

radial, **747**

radial cleavage, **759**

Radial glia, **1016**

radial glia, **1048**

Radial symmetry, **743**

radial symmetry, **759**

radiate arteries, **1222**

Radiation hybrid mapping, **464**

radiation hybrid mapping, **475**

radicle, **937, 947**

radioisotope, **63**

radioisotopes, **36**

radioresistant, **582, 610**

radius, **1127, 1156**

radula, **784, 807**

raphe, **632, 645**

reactant, **63**

reactants, **42**

reaction center, **235, 244**

reading frame, **401, 422**

reception, **1054, 1081**

receptive, **1054**

receptive field, **1081**

receptor, **270**

receptor potential, **1054, 1081**

receptor-mediated endocytosis, **162, 165**

receptors, **248, 1090**

recessive, **350**

recessive lethal, **338, 350**

Recessive traits, **325**

reciprocal cross, **325, 350**

recombinant DNA, **457, 475**

recombinant protein, **475**

recombinant proteins, **457**

recombination frequency, **359, 370**

recombination nodules, **305, 317**

recruitment, **1179, 1185**

rectum, **988, 1004**

red blood cell, **1213**

Red blood cells, **1196**

redox reaction, **221**

redox reactions, **198**

reduction, **239, 244**

reduction division, **311, 317**

reflex action, **1385, 1397**

refractory period, **1021, 1048**

regulatory T (T_{reg}) cell, **1273**

regulatory T (T_{reg}) cells, **1256**

reinforcement, **499, 502**

relative fitness, **517, 524**

Relative species

abundance, **1381**

relative species

abundance, **1397**

renal arteries, **1222**

renal artery, **1236**

renal capsule, **1221, 1236**

renal column, **1236**

renal columns, **1222**

renal corpuscle, **1222, 1236**

renal fascia, **1221, 1236**

renal pelvis, **1221, 1236**

renal pyramid, **1236**

renal pyramids, **1222**

renal tubule, **1222, 1237**

renal vein, **1237**

renal veins, **1222**

renin, **1094, 1114**

renin-angiotensin-aldosterone, **1233, 1237**

replication fork, **395**

replication forks, **387**

replicative intermediate, **576**

replicative intermediates, **559**

repressor, **446**

Repressors, **428**

Reproductive cloning, **458**

reproductive cloning, **475**

reproductive isolation, **496, 502**

Residence time, **1416**

residence time, **1428**

residual volume (RV), **1170, 1185**

resilience, **1403**

resilience (ecological), **1428**

resistance, **1178, 1185, 1403**

resistance (ecological), **1428**

resorption, **1156**

respiratory bronchiole, **1185**

respiratory bronchioles, **1166**

respiratory distress syndrome, **1178, 1185**

respiratory quotient (RQ), **1171, 1185**

respiratory rate, **1177, 1185**

restriction endonuclease, **475**

Restriction

endonucleases, **456**

restriction fragment length

polymorphism (RFLP), **475**

restriction fragment length

polymorphisms, **463**

restrictive disease, **1185**

restrictive diseases, **1178**

results, **17, 29**

resuscitation, **584, 610**

retina, **1074, 1081**

retinoblastoma protein (Rb), **290, 297**

Retraction, **1140**

retraction, **1156**

reverse genetics, **476**

reverse transcriptase, **559, 576**

reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR), **455, 476**

reversible chemical

reaction, **63**

Reversible reactions, **43**

review article, **29**

Review articles, **17**

rhizobia, **911, 916**

rhizoids, **693, 706**

rhizome, **863, 895**

rhizosphere, **907, 916**

Rho-dependent

termination, **406, 422**

Rho-independent, **422**

Rho-independent

termination, **406**

rhodopsin, **1075, 1081**

rhynchocoel, **782, 807**

rib, **1156**

ribonuclease, **476**

ribonucleases, **452**

ribonucleic acid (RNA), **94, 100**

Ribosomal RNA (rRNA), **97**

ribosomal RNA (rRNA), **100**

ribosome, **135**

Ribosomes, **116**

ribs, **1125**

ring of life, **545, 547**

RISC, **446**

RNA editing, **412, 422**

RNA stability, **446**

RNA-binding protein (RBP), **446**

- RNA-binding proteins, **439**
 RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), **439**
 RNAs, **408**
 rod, **1081**
 rods, **1074**
 root cap, **866, 895**
 root hair, **895**
 Root hairs, **866**
 root system, **854, 895**
 rooted, **528, 547**
 Rotational movement, **1140**
 rotational movement, **1156**
 rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER), **122, 135**
 roughage, **982, 1004**
 Ruffini ending, **1081**
 Ruffini endings, **1060**
 ruminant, **1004**
 Ruminants, **982**
 runner, **895**
 Runners, **863**
- S**
- S phase, **280, 297**
 S-layer, **591, 610**
 S-shaped curve, **1362**
 S-shaped growth curve, **1397**
 saddle joint, **1157**
 Saddle joints, **1143**
 sagittal plane, **955, 974**
 salamander, **849**
 Salamanders, **822**
 salivary amylase, **984, 1004**
 saltatory conduction, **1022, 1048**
 sand, **906, 916**
 saprobe, **677**
 saprobes, **653**
 saprophyte, **913, 916**
 sarcolemma, **1146, 1157**
 sarcomere, **1157**
 sarcomeres, **1147**
 Sarcopterygii, **820, 849**
Sargassum, **1335, 1347**
 Satellite glia, **1016**
 satellite glia, **1048**
 saturated fatty acid, **79, 100**
 sauropsid, **849**
 Sauropsids, **827**
 scapula, **1157**
 scapulae, **1127**
 Scarification, **938**
 scarification, **947**
 schizocoelom, **775, 807**
 schizocoely, **747, 759**
 Schizophrenia, **1044**
 schizophrenia, **1048**
 Schwann cell, **1016, 1048**
 Science, **8**
 science, **29**
 scientific method, **8, 29**
 scion, **942, 947**
 sclerenchyma cell, **895**
 Sclerenchyma cells, **858**
 sclerocyte, **807**
 sclerocytes, **765**
 scrotum, **1284, 1309**
 scutellum, **937, 947**
 sebaceous gland, **849**
 Sebaceous glands, **837**
 second messenger, **270**
 Second messengers, **259**
 Secondary active transport, **156**
 secondary active transport, **165**
 secondary consumer, **1428**
 Secondary consumers, **1403**
 secondary feather, **849**
 Secondary feathers, **833**
 Secondary growth, **861**
 secondary growth, **895**
 secondary plant compound, **1458**
 secondary plant compounds, **1442**
 secondary structure, **90, 100**
 secondary succession, **1384, 1397**
 secretin, **1002, 1004**
 seed, **711, 734**
 seedless, **684**
 Seedless non-vascular plants, **684**
 seedless vascular plant, **706**
 segmental arteries, **1222**
 segmental artery, **1237**
 selection pressure, **512**
 selective pressure, **524**
 selectively permeable, **147, 165**
 Self-pollination, **929**
 self-pollination, **947**
 Semelparity, **1358**
 semelparity, **1397**
 Semen, **1285**
 semen, **1309**
 semi-permeable membrane, **1237**
 semi-permeable membranes, **1218**
 semicircular canal, **1081**
 semicircular canals, **1072**
 semilunar valve, **1202, 1213**
 seminal vesicle, **1309**
 seminal vesicles, **1285**
 seminiferous tubule, **1309**
 seminiferous tubules, **1284**
 senescence, **945, 947**
 sensory receptor, **1054, 1082**
 sensory transduction, **1054, 1082**
 sensory-somatic nervous system, **1035, 1048**
 sepal, **734**
 sepals, **720**
 septa, **652, 677**
 septum, **293, 297, 652**
 Sequence mapping, **464**
 sequence mapping, **476**
 serendipity, **16, 29**
 serotype, **602, 610**
 Sertoli cell, **1309**
 Sertoli cells, **1291**
 serum, **1199, 1213**
 sesamoid bone, **1157**
 Sesamoid bones, **1131**
 sessile, **869, 895**
 set point, **968, 974**
 seta, **694, 706**
 seta/chaeta, **808**
 setae/chaetae, **789**
 sex-linked, **350**
 sexual dimorphism, **524**
 sexual dimorphisms, **520**
 sexual reproduction, **1278, 1309**
 shared ancestral character, **538, 547**
 shared derived character, **538, 548**
 Shine-Dalgarno sequence, **417, 422**
 shoot system, **854, 895**
 short bone, **1157**
 Short bones, **1131**
 shotgun sequencing, **467, 476**
 sickle cell anemia, **1181, 1186**
 sieve-tube cell, **895**
 sieve-tube cells, **861**
 signal, **1397**
 signal integration, **258, 270**
 signal sequence, **420, 422**

- signal transduction, **257, 270**
 signaling cell, **270**
 signaling cells, **248**
 signaling pathway, **257, 270**
 signals, **1387**
 silent mutation, **395**
 silent mutations, **393**
 silt, **906, 916**
 simple epithelia, **957, 974**
 simple fruit, **939, 947**
 simple leaf, **870, 895**
 simulation model, **1408, 1428**
 single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), **476**
 single nucleotide polymorphisms, **463**
 single-strand binding protein, **395**
 Single-strand binding proteins, **387**
 sink, **895**
 sinks, **883**
 sinoatrial (SA) node, **1205, 1213**
 siphonophore, **771, 808**
 sister taxa, **528, 548**
 Skeletal muscle tissue, **1146**
 skeletal muscle tissue, **1157**
 skull, **1122, 1157**
 sliding clamp, **387, 395**
 small 40S ribosomal subunit, **446**
 small intestine, **986, 1004**
 small nuclear , **408**
 small nuclear RNA, **422**
 smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER), **122, 135**
 smooth muscle, **1157**
 Smooth muscle tissue, **1146**
 Soil, **905**
 soil, **916**
 soil profile, **906, 916**
 Solar intensity, **1342**
 solar intensity, **1347**
 solute, **152, 165**
 solutes, **150**
 solvent, **50, 63**
 somatic cell, **304, 317**
 somatosensation, **1032, 1048**
 somatostatin, **1002, 1004**
 somite, **1309**
 somites, **1306**
 soredia, **669, 677**
 source, **895**
 source water, **1338, 1347**
 sources, **883**
 Southern blotting, **456, 476**
 speciation, **492, 502**
 species, **491, 502, 530**
 species dispersion pattern, **1397**
 Species dispersion patterns, **1355**
 Species richness, **1381**
 species richness, **1397**
 species-area relationship, **1440, 1458**
 specific heat capacity, **49, 63**
 spectrophotometer, **234, 244**
 spermatheca, **1283, 1309**
 spermatogenesis, **1288, 1309**
 spermatophyte, **734**
 spermatophytes, **710**
 Sphenodontia, **830, 849**
 sphere of hydration, **50, 63**
 sphincter, **985, 1004**
 spicule, **808**
 spicules, **765**
 spinal cord, **1034, 1048**
 spinal nerve, **1048**
 Spinal nerves, **1039**
 spiral cleavage, **747, 759**
 spirometry, **1170, 1186**
 splicing, **413, 422**
 spongocoel, **764, 808**
 spongy bone, **1133**
 spongy bone tissue, **1157**
 spontaneous mutation, **395**
 Spontaneous mutations, **393**
 sporangium, **655, 677**
 spore, **317, 677**
 Spores, **304**
 spores, **649**
 sporocyte, **706**
 sporocytes, **684**
 sporophyll, **706**
 sporophylls, **696**
 sporophyte, **315, 317, 919, 947**
 sporopollenin, **684, 706**
 spring and fall turnover, **1323**
 Squamata, **831, 849**
 squamous epithelia, **974**
 Squamous epithelial, **958**
 stabilizing selection, **518, 524**
 stamen, **734**
 stamens, **721**
 standard metabolic rate (SMR), **954, 974**
 stapes, **1068, 1082**
 starch, **69, 100**
 start codon, **417, 422**
 statolith, **895**
 statoliths, **888**
 stele, **867, 895**
 stereocilia, **1070, 1082**
 stereoscopic vision, **840, 849**
 sternum, **1125, 1157**
 steroid, **100**
 steroids, **84**
 stigma, **721, 734**
 stipule, **895**
 stipules, **869**
 stolon, **895**
 Stolons, **863**
 stoma, **244**
 stomach, **985, 1004**
 stomata, **228**
 stratified epithelia, **957, 974**
 Streptophyta, **688**
 streptophytes, **706**
 strigolactone, **895**
 Strigolactones, **891**
 Strobili, **696**
 strobili, **706**
 strobilus, **715, 734**
 stroke volume, **1211**
 stroke volume>, **1213**
 stroma, **228, 244**
 stromatolite, **581, 610**
 Structural isomers, **56**
 structural isomers, **63**
 style, **721, 734**
 subduction, **1420, 1428**
 substituted hydrocarbon, **63**
 substituted hydrocarbons, **58**
 substrate, **191**
 substrate-level phosphorylation, **200, 221**
 substrates, **184**
 sucrose, **1004**
 sucrases, **996**
 sulci, **1030**
 sulcus, **1048**
 sum rule, **327, 350**
 summation, **1025, 1048**
 superior colliculus, **1079, 1082**
 superior vena cava, **1202, 1213**
 Supination, **1140**

supination, **1157**
 suprachiasmatic nucleus, **1079, 1082**
 surface tension, **50, 63**
 Surfactant, **1178**
 surfactant, **1186**
 survivorship curve, **1357, 1397**
 suspensor, **935, 947**
 Sutural bones, **1132**
 suture, **1157**
 suture bone, **1157**
 Sutures, **1137**
 swim bladder, **820, 849**
 symbiont, **913, 916**
 symbioses, **1378**
 symbiosis, **1397**
 sympathetic nervous system, **1037, 1048**
 Sympatric speciation, **492**
 sympatric speciation, **503**
 symphyses, **1138**
 symphysis, **1157**
 symporter, **156, 165**
 synapse, **1048**
 synapses, **1012**
 synapsid, **849**
 Synapsids, **827**
 synapsis, **305, 317**
 synaptic cleft, **1023, 1048**
 synaptic signal, **249, 270**
 synaptic vesicle, **1048**
 synaptic vesicles, **1023**
 synaptonemal complex, **305, 317**
 synarthrosis, **1139, 1157**
 synchondrosis, **1138, 1157**
 Syndesmoses, **1138**
 syndesmosis, **1157**
 synergid, **925, 947**
 synovial joint, **1157**
 Synovial joints, **1138**
 system, **1002**
 systematics, **529, 548**
 systemic circulation, **1194, 1213**
 Systems biology, **472**
 systems biology, **476**
 systole, **1204, 1213**

T

T cell, **1273**
 T cells, **1246**
 Tachyglossidae, **839, 849**
 tadpole, **823, 849**
 tap root system, **865, 895**
 target cell, **270**
 target cells, **248**
 tarsal, **1157**
 tarsals, **1128**
 tastant, **1082**
 tastants, **1066**
 taste bud, **1065, 1082**
 TATA box, **422**
 taxis, **1386, 1397**
 taxon, **531, 548**
 Taxonomy, **530**
 taxonomy, **548**
 TCA cycle, **205, 221**
 tectorial membrane, **1069, 1082**
 tegmen, **937, 947**
 teichoic acid, **610**
 teichoic acids, **591**
 telomerase, **389, 395**
 telomere, **395**
 telomeres, **389**
 telophase, **282, 297**
 template strand, **404, 422**
 temporal, **1032**
 temporal fenestra, **849**
 Temporal fenestrae, **827**
 temporal isolation, **496, 503**
 temporal lobe, **1048**
 tendril, **895**
 Tendrils, **864**
 terminal bronchiole, **1186**
 terminal bronchioles, **1166**
 tertiary consumer, **1428**
 Tertiary consumers, **1403**
 tertiary structure, **91, 100**
 test, **645**
 test cross, **331, 350**
 testa, **937, 947**
 testes, **1284, 1310**
 Testosterone, **1291**
 testosterone, **1310**
 tests, **635**
 Testudines, **832, 849**
 tetrad, **317**
 tetrads, **305**
 Tetrapod, **813**
 tetrapod, **849**
 thalamus, **1033, 1048**
 Thalassemia, **1181**
 thalassemia, **1186**
 thallus, **652, 677**
 theory, **9, 29**
 thermocline, **1323, 1347**
 Thermodynamics, **178**
 thermodynamics, **191**
 thermophile, **610**
 thermoregulation, **972, 974**
 theropod, **849**
 theropods, **835**
 thick filament, **1157**
 Thick filaments, **1147**
 Thigmomorphogenesis, **891**
 thigmomorphogenesis, **895**
 thigmonastic, **891, 895**
 thigmotropism, **891, 895**
 thin filament, **1157**
 Thin filaments, **1147**
 thoracic cage, **1125, 1157**
 thorn, **895**
 Thorns, **864**
 threshold of excitation, **1048**
 thylakoid, **244**
 thylakoid lumen, **228, 244**
 thylakoids, **228**
 thymus, **1111, 1114**
 thyroglobulin, **1099, 1114**
 thyroid gland, **1105, 1114**
 thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), **1098, 1114**
 thyroxine, **1098**
 thyroxine (tetraiodothyronine, T₄), **1115**
 Ti plasmid, **476**
 Ti plasmids, **462**
 tibia, **1128, 1157**
 Tidal volume (TV), **1170**
 tidal volume (TV), **1186**
 tight junction, **132, 135**
 tissue, **29**
 tissues, **21**
 tonic activity, **1078, 1082**
 Tonicity, **152**
 tonicity, **165**
 Topoisomerase, **387**
 topoisomerase, **395**
 Torpor, **955**
 torpor, **974**
 total lung capacity (TLC), **1170, 1186**
 trabecula, **974**
 trabeculae, **963, 1133, 1157**
 trachea, **1165, 1186**
 tracheid, **895**
 Tracheids, **860**
 tracheophyte, **706**
 tracheophytes, **695**
 tragedy of the commons, **1447, 1458**
 trait, **324, 350**
 trans, **121**
 trans fat, **80, 100**
trans-acting element, **446**
 transcription, **98, 100**
 transcription bubble, **422**

transcription bubble., **404**
transcription factor, **446**
transcription factor binding site, **436, 446**
transcription factors, **434**
transcriptional start site, **429, 446**
transduction, **593, 610**
Transfer RNA (tRNA), **98**
transfer RNA (tRNA), **100**
transformation, **374, 395, 593, 610**
transgenic, **459, 476**
transition state, **177, 192**
Transition substitution, **393**
transition substitution, **395**
Transitional, **960**
transitional epithelia, **974**
translation, **98, 100**
translocation, **368, 370, 883, 895**
translocations, **362**
transpiration, **859, 895**
Transpiration, **880**
transport maximum, **1226, 1237**
transport protein, **165**
transport proteins, **150**
transporter, **165**
transporters, **156**
transverse (horizontal) plane, **974**
transverse plane, **955**
Transversion substitution, **393**
transversion substitution, **396**
triacylglycerol (also, triglyceride), **100**
triacylglycerols, **79**
trichome, **895**
Trichomes, **859**
tricuspid valve, **1202, 1213**
triglycerides, **79**
triiodothyronine, **1098**
triiodothyronine (T₃), **1115**
triploblast, **759**
triploblasts, **745**
trisomy, **363, 370**
trochophore, **784, 808**
trophic level, **1403, 1428**
trophic level transfer efficiency (TLTE), **1412, 1428**
trophoblast, **1302, 1310**
Tropomyosin, **1151**
tropomyosin, **1157**
Troponin, **1151**
troponin, **1157**

trp operon, **446**
trypsin, **996, 1004**
Tryptophan, **428**
tryptophan, **446**
tryptophan (*trp*) operon, **428**
tuber, **895**
Tubers, **863**
tubular reabsorption, **1224, 1237**
tubular secretion, **1224, 1237**
tumor suppressor gene, **297**
Tumor suppressor genes, **291**
tunicate, **850**
tunicates, **814**
tympa-num, **1068, 1082**

U

ubiquinone, **208, 221**
ulna, **1127, 1157**
ultrasound, **1068, 1082**
umami, **1063, 1082**
unidirectional circulation, **1213**
unidirectionally, **1192**
unified cell theory, **108, 135**
uniporter, **156, 165**
uniramous, **799, 808**
unsaturated, **79**
unsaturated fatty acid, **100**
untranslated region, **446**
untranslated regions, **439**
up-regulation, **1090, 1115**
upstream, **404, 422**
urea cycle, **1230, 1237**
ureotelic, **1230, 1237**
ureter, **1222, 1237**
uric acid, **1231, 1237**
urinary bladder, **1222, 1237**
urine, **1221, 1237**
Urochordata, **814, 850**
Urodela, **822, 850**
uterus, **1287, 1310**

V

vaccine, **576**
Vaccines, **567**
vacuole, **135**
vacuoles, **117**
vagina, **1288, 1310**
valence shell, **39, 63**

van der Waals interaction, **63**
van der Waals interactions, **46**
variable, **11, 29**
variable number of tandem repeats (VNTRs), **476**
variants, **333**
variation, **485, 503**
vasa recta, **1223, 1237**
vascular bundle, **855, 896**
vascular cylinder, **855**
vascular plant, **706**
vascular plants, **684**
vascular stele, **855, 896**
vascular tissue, **855, 896**
vasoconstriction, **1207, 1213**
vasodilation, **1207, 1213**
vasodilator, **1234, 1237**
vasopressin, **1234, 1237**
vein, **696, 706, 1213**
Veins, **1206**
veliger, **784, 808**
vena cava, **1214**
venation, **869, 896**
venous P_{CO₂}, **1172, 1186**
venous P_{O₂}, **1186**
venous P_{O₂}, **1172**
ventilation/perfusion (V/Q) mismatch, **1179, 1186**
ventral cavity, **956, 974**
ventricle, **1048, 1195, 1214**
ventricles, **1029**
venule, **1214**
venules, **1206**
vernalization, **938, 947**
vertebral column, **815, 850, 1124, 1158**
Vertebrata, **815, 850**
vertical transmission, **565, 576**
vesicle, **135**
Vesicles, **117**
vessel element, **896**
Vessel elements, **860**
Vestibular sensation, **1054**
vestibular sense, **1082**
vestigial structure, **503**
vestigial structures, **487**
viable-but-non-culturable, **584**
viable-but-non-culturable (VBNC) state, **610**
vicariance, **493, 503**
villi, **986, 1004**
viral receptor, **576**

viral receptors, **553**
 virion, **576**
 Virions, **552**
 viroid, **576**
 Viroids, **572**
 virus core, **555, 576**
 Vision, **1073**
 vision, **1082**
 vital capacity (VC), **1170, 1186**
 vitamin, **1004**
 Vitamins, **990**
 viviparity, **1283, 1310**

zoonosis, **610**
 Zygomycota, **657, 677**
 zygospore, **677**
 zygosporoes, **657**

W

Water potential, **877**
 water potential (Ψ_w), **896**
 water vascular system, **803, 808**
 wavelength, **231, 244**
 Wax, **82**
 wax, **101**
 weather, **1340, 1347**
 web of life, **544, 548**
 whisk fern, **706**
 whisk ferns, **698**
 white blood cell, **1214**
 white blood cells, **1195**
 white-nose syndrome, **1450, 1458**
 Whole-genome sequencing, **465**
 whole-genome sequencing, **476**
 whorled, **870, 896**
 wild type, **333**

X

X inactivation, **365, 370**
 X-linked, **336, 350**
 Xylem, **695**
 xylem, **706**

Y

yeast, **677**
 yeasts, **652**

Z

zero population growth, **1362, 1397**
 zoea, **800, 808**
 zona pellucida, **1301, 1310**
 Zoology, **27**
 zoology, **29**
 zoonoses, **599**