



The Science of Biology **TENTH EDITION**



DAVID M. HILLIS University of Texas

H. CRAIG HELLER **Stanford University**

MAY R. **BERENBAUM** University of Illinois



© Sinauer Associates, Inc. This material cannot be copied, reproduced, manufactured

Contents in Brief

PART ONE THE SCIENCE OF LIFE AND ITS CHEMICAL BASIS

- 1 Studying Life 1
- 2 Small Molecules and the Chemistry of Life 21
- 3 Proteins, Carbohydrates, and Lipids 39
- 4 Nucleic Acids and the Origin of Life 62

PART TWO 🗾 CELLS

- 5 Cells: The Working Units of Life 77
- 6 Cell Membranes 105
- 7 Cell Communication and Multicellularity 125

PART THREE CELLS AND ENERGY

- 8 Energy, Enzymes, and Metabolism 144
- 9 Pathways that Harvest Chemical Energy 165
- 10 Photosynthesis: Energy from Sunlight 185

PART FOUR SERVICE GENES AND HEREDITY

11 The Cell Cycle and Cell Division 205

- 12 Inheritance, Genes, and Chromosomes 232
- 13 DNA and Its Role in Heredity 259
- 14 From DNA to Protein: Gene Expression 281
- 15 Gene Mutation and Molecular Medicine 304
- 16 Regulation of Gene Expression 328

PART FIVE **GENOMES**

- **17** Genomes 352
- **18** Recombinant DNA and Biotechnology 373
- **19** Differential Gene Expression in Development 392
- 20 Genes, Development, and Evolution 412

PART SIX THE PATTERNS AND PROCESSES OF EVOLUTION

- 21 Mechanisms of Evolution 427
- 22 Reconstructing and Using Phylogenies 449
- 23 Speciation 467
- 24 Evolution of Genes and Genomes 485
- 25 The History of Life on Earth 505

PART SEVEN **THE EVOLUTION OF DIVERSITY**

- 26 Bacteria, Archaea, and Viruses 525
- 27 The Origin and Diversification of Eukaryotes 549
- 28 Plants without Seeds: From Water to Land 569

- **29** The Evolution of Seed Plants 588
- 30 The Evolution and Diversity of Fungi 608
- 31 Animal Origins and the Evolution of Body Plans 629
- 32 Protostome Animals 651
- 33 Deuterostome Animals 678

PART EIGHT FLOWERING PLANTS: FORM AND FUNCTION

- 34 The Plant Body 708
- 35 Transport in Plants 726
- 36 Plant Nutrition 740
- 37 Regulation of Plant Growth 756
- 38 Reproduction in Flowering Plants 778
- **39** Plant Responses to Environmental Challenges 797

PART NINE ANIMALS: FORM AND FUNCTION

- 40 Physiology, Homeostasis, and Temperature Regulation 815
- 41 Animal Hormones 834
- 42 Immunology: Animal Defense Systems 856
- 43 Animal Reproduction 880
- 44 Animal Development 902
- 45 Neurons, Glia, and Nervous Systems 924
- 46 Sensory Systems 946
- 47 The Mammalian Nervous System 967
- 48 Musculoskeletal Systems 986
- 49 Gas Exchange 1005
- 50 Circulatory Systems 1025
- 51 Nutrition, Digestion, and Absorption 1048
- 52 Salt and Water Balance and Nitrogen Excretion 1071
- 53 Animal Behavior 1093

PART TEN 📰 ECOLOGY

- 54 Ecology and the Distribution of Life 1121
- **55** Population Ecology 1149
- 56 Species Interactions and Coevolution 1169
- 57 Community Ecology 1188
- 58 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1207
- 59 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1228

Contents

PART ONE

The Science of Life and Its Chemical Basis

1 Studying Life 1

1.1 What Is Biology? 2

- Life arose from non-life via chemical evolution 3 Cellular structure evolved in the
- common ancestor of life 3
- Photosynthesis allows some organisms to capture energy from the sun 4
- Biological information is contained in a genetic language common to all organisms 5
- Populations of all living organisms evolve 6
- Biologists can trace the evolutionary tree of life 6
- Cellular specialization and differentiation underlie multicellular life 9
- Living organisms interact with one another 9
- Nutrients supply energy and are the basis of biosynthesis 10
- Living organisms must regulate their internal environment 10

1.2 How Do Biologists Investigate Life? 11

- Observing and quantifying are important skills 11
- Scientific methods combine observation, experimentation, and logic 11
- Good experiments have the potential to falsify hypotheses 12
- Statistical methods are essential scientific tools 13
- Discoveries in biology can be generalized 14 Not all forms of inquiry are scientific 14

1.3 Why Does Biology Matter? 15

Modern agriculture depends on biology 15



Biology is the basis of medical practice 15 Biology can inform public policy 16 Biology is crucial for understanding

ecosystems 17 Biology helps us understand and

appreciate biodiversity 17

2 Small Molecules and the Chemistry of Life 21

2.1 How Does Atomic Structure Explain the Properties of Matter? 22

- An element consists of only one kind of atom 22
- Each element has a unique number of protons 22
- The number of neutrons differs among isotopes 22
- The behavior of electrons determines chemical bonding and geometry 24

2.2 How Do Atoms Bond to Form Molecules? 26

- Covalent bonds consist of shared pairs of electrons 26
- lonic attractions form by electrical attraction 28
- Hydrogen bonds may form within or between molecules with polar covalent bonds 30

Hydrophobic interactions bring together nonpolar molecules 30 van der Waals forces involve contacts between atoms 30

2.3 How Do Atoms Change Partners in Chemical Reactions? 31

2.4 What Makes Water So Important for Life? 32

- Water has a unique structure and special properties 32
- The reactions of life take place in aqueous solutions 33
- Aqueous solutions may be acidic or basic 34

Proteins, Carbohydrates, and Lipids 39

3.1 What Kinds of Molecules Characterize Living Things? 40

- Functional groups give specific properties to biological molecules 40
- Isomers have different arrangements of the same atoms 41
- The structures of macromolecules reflect their functions 41

Most macromolecules are formed by condensation and broken down by hydrolysis 42

3.2 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Proteins? 42

Amino acids are the building blocks of proteins 43

Peptide linkages form the backbone of a protein 43

The primary structure of a protein is its amino acid sequence 45

The secondary structure of a protein requires hydrogen bonding 45

The tertiary structure of a protein is formed by bending and folding 46

The quaternary structure of a protein consists of subunits 48 Shape and surface chemistry

contribute to protein function 48

Environmental conditions affect protein structure 50

Protein shapes can change 50 Molecular chaperones help shape proteins 51

3.3 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Carbohydrates? 51

PART TWO Cells

5 Cells: The Working Units of Life 77

5.1 What Features Make Cells the Fundamental Units of Life? 78

Cell size is limited by the surface area-to-volume ratio 78

Microscopes reveal the features of cells 79

The plasma membrane forms the outer surface of every cell 79 Cells are classified as either prokaryotic or eukaryotic 81

5.2 What Features Characterize Prokaryotic Cells? 82

Prokaryotic cells share certain features 82

Specialized features are found in some prokaryotes 83

5.3 What Features Characterize Eukaryotic Cells? 84

Compartmentalization is the key to eukaryotic cell function 84

Monosaccharides are simple sugars 52

Glycosidic linkages bond monosaccharides 53

Polysaccharides store energy and provide structural materials 53

Chemically modified carbohydrates contain additional functional groups 55

3.4 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Lipids? 56

Fats and oils are triglycerides 56 Phospholipids form biological membranes 57

Some lipids have roles in energy conversion, regulation, and protection 57

4 Nucleic Acids and the Origin of Life 62

4.1 What Are the Chemical Structures and Functions of Nucleic Acids? 63

Nucleotides are the building blocks of nucleic acids 63

Base pairing occurs in both DNA and RNA 63

DNA carries information and is expressed through RNA 65

The DNA base sequence reveals evolutionary relationships 66 Nucleotides have other important roles 66

4.2 How and Where Did the Small Molecules of Life Originate? 67

Experiments disproved the spontaneous generation of life 67 Life began in water 68

Life may have come from outside Earth 69

Prebiotic synthesis experiments model early Earth 69

4.3 How Did the Large Molecules of Life Originate? 71

Chemical evolution may have led to polymerization 71 RNA may have been the first

biological catalyst 71

4.4 How Did the First Cells Originate? 71

Experiments explore the origin of cells 73 Some ancient cells left a fossil

imprint 74

Organelles can be studied by microscopy or isolated for chemical analysis 84

- Ribosomes are factories for protein synthesis 84
- The nucleus contains most of the generic information 85
- The endomembrane system is a group of interrelated organelles 88
- Some organelles transform energy 91
- There are several other membrane-enclosed organelles 93
- The cytoskeleton is important in cell structure and movement 94

Biologists can manipulate living systems to establish cause and effect 98

5.4 What Are the Roles of Extracellular Structures? 99

The plant cell wall is an extracellular structure 99

The extracellular matrix supports tissue functions in animals 100

5.5 How Did Eukaryotic Cells Originate? 101

Internal membranes and the nuclear envelope probably came from the plasma membrane 101

Some organelles arose by endosymbiosis 102





6.1 What Is the Structure of a Biological Membrane? 106

Lipids form the hydrophobic core of the membrane 106

Membrane proteins are asymmetrically distributed 107 Membranes are constantly changing 109

Plasma membrane carbohydrates are recognition sites 109

6.2 How Is the Plasma Membrane Involved in Cell Adhesion and Recognition? 110

Cell recognition and adhesion involve proteins and carbohydrates at the cell surface 111

Three types of cell junctions connect adjacent cells 111 Cell membranes adhere to the extracellular matrix 111

6.3 What Are the Passive Processes of Membrane Transport? 113

Diffusion is the process of random movement toward a state of equilibrium 113

Simple diffusion takes place through the phospholipid bilayer 114

Osmosis is the diffusion of water across membranes 114

Diffusion may be aided by channel proteins 115

Carrier proteins aid diffusion by binding substances 117

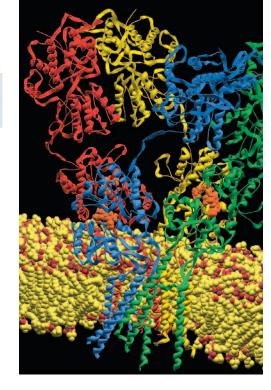
6.4 What are the Active Processes of Membrane Transport? 118

Active transport is directional 118

PART THREE Cells and Energy

8 Energy, Enzymes, and Metabolism 144

8.1 What Physical Principles Underlie Biological Energy Transformations? 145



Different energy sources distinguish different active transport systems 118

6.5 How Do Large Molecules Enter and Leave a Cell? 120

Macromolecules and particles enter the cell by endocytosis 120

Receptor-mediated endocytosis is highly specific 121

Exocytosis moves materials out of the cell 122

Cell Communication and Multicellularity 125

7.1 What Are Signals, and How Do Cells Respond to Them? 126

Cells receive signals from the physical environment and from other cells 126 A signal transduction pathway involves a signal, a receptor, and responses 126

7.2 How Do Signal Receptors Initiate a Cellular Response? 127

Receptors that recognize chemical signals have specific binding sites 127

Receptors can be classified by location and function 128 Intracellular receptors are located in the cytoplasm or the nucleus 130

7.3 How Is the Response to a Signal Transduced through the Cell? 131

A protein kinase cascade amplifies a response to ligand binding 131

Second messengers can amplify signals between receptors and target molecules 132

Signal transduction is highly regulated 136

7.4 How Do Cells Change in Response to Signals? 137

lon channels open in response to signals 137

Enzyme activities change in response to signals 138 Signals can initiate DNA transcription 139

7.5 How Do Cells in a Multicellular Organism Communicate Directly? 139

Animal cells communicate through gap junctions 139

Plant cells communicate through plasmodesmata 140

Modern organisms provide clues about the evolution of cell-cell interactions and multicellularity 140

There are two basic types of energy 145 There are two basic types of metabolism 145

The first law of thermodynamics: Energy is neither created nor destroyed 146

The second law of thermodynamics: Disorder tends to increase 146 Chemical reactions release or consume energy 147 Chemical equilibrium and free energy are related 148

8.2 What Is the Role of ATP in Biochemical Energetics? 149

ATP hydrolysis releases energy 149

ATP couples exergonic and endergonic reactions 150

8.3 What Are Enzymes? 151

To speed up a reaction, an energy barrier must be overcome 151 Enzymes bind specific reactants at their active sites 152

Enzymes lower the energy barrier but do not affect equilibrium 153

8.4 How Do Enzymes Work? 154

Enzymes can orient substrates 154

Enzymes can induce strain in the substrate 154

Enzymes can temporarily add chemical groups to substrates 154

Molecular structure determines enzyme function 155

Some enzymes require other molecules in order to function 155

The substrate concentration affects the reaction rate 156

8.5 How Are Enzyme Activities Regulated? 156

Enzymes can be regulated by inhibitors 157

Allosteric enzymes are controlled via changes in shape 159 Allosteric effects regulate many

metabolic pathways 160 Many enzymes are regulated

through reversible phosphorylation 161 Enzymes are affected by their

environment 161

Pathways That Harvest Chemical Energy 165

9.1 How Does Glucose Oxidation Release Chemical Energy? 166

Cells trap free energy while metabolizing glucose 166 Redox reactions transfer electrons and energy 167 The coenzyme NAD⁺ is a key electron carrier in redox

reactions 167

An overview: Harvesting energy from glucose 168

9.2 What Are the Aerobic Pathways of Glucose Catabolism? 169

In glycolysis, glucose is partially oxidized and some energy is released 169

Pyruvate oxidation links glycolysis and the citric acid cycle 170

The citric acid cycle completes the oxidation of glucose to CO_2 170

Pyruvate oxidation and the citric acid cycle are regulated by the concentrations of starting materials 171

9.3 How Does Oxidative Phosphorylation Form ATP? 171

The respiratory chain transfers electrons and protons, and releases energy 172

Proton diffusion is coupled to ATP synthesis 173

Some microorganisms use non-O₂ electron acceptors 176

9.4 How Is Energy Harvested from Glucose in the Absence of Oxygen? 177

Cellular respiration yields much more energy than fermentation 178

The yield of ATP is reduced by the impermeability of mitochondria to NADH 178

9.5 How Are Metabolic Pathways Interrelated and Regulated? 179

Catabolism and anabolism are linked 179

Catabolism and anabolism are integrated 180

Metabolic pathways are regulated systems 181

10 Photosynthesis: Energy from Sunlight 185

10.1 What Is Photosynthesis 186

Experiments with isotopes show that O₂ comes from H₂O in oxygenic photosynthesis 186 Photosynthesis involves two pathways 188

10.2 How Does Photosynthesis Convert Light Energy into Chemical Energy? 188

Light energy is absorbed by chlorophyll and other pigments 188

Light absorption results in photochemical change 190

Reduction leads to ATP and NADPH formation 191

Chemiosmosis is the source of the ATP produced in photophosphorylation 192

10.3 How Is Chemical Energy Used to Synthesize Carbohydrates? 193

Radioisotope labeling experiments revealed the steps of the Calvin cycle 193 The Calvin cycle is made up of

Light stimulates the Calvin cycle 196

10.4 How Have Plants Adapted Photosynthesis to Environmental Conditions? 197

Rubisco catalyzes the reaction of RuBP with O_2 or CO_2 197

C₃ plants undergo photorespiration but C₄ plants do not 198 CAM plants also use PEP

carboxylase 200

10.5 How Does Photosynthesis Interact with Other Pathways? 200



PART FOUR Genes and Heredity

11 The Cell Cycle and Cell Division 205

11.1 How Do Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells Divide? 206

Prokaryotes divide by binary fission 206

Eukaryotic cells divide by mitosis or meiosis followed by cytokinesis 207

11.2 How Is Eukaryotic Cell Division Controlled? 208

Specific internal signals trigger events in the cell cycle 208 Growth factors can stimulate cells to divide 211

11.3 What Happens during Mitosis? 211

Prior to mitosis, eukaryotic DNA is packed into very compact chromosomes 211

Overview: Mitosis segregates copies of genetic information 212

The centrosomes determine the plane of cell division 212

The spindle begins to form during prophase 213 Chromosome separation and

movement are highly organized 214

Cytokinesis is the division of the cytoplasm 216

11.4 What Role Does Cell Division Play in a Sexual Life Cycle? 217

Asexual reproduction by mitosis results in genetic constancy 217

Sexual reproduction by meiosis results in genetic diversity 218

11.5 What Happens during Meiosis? 219

Meiotic division reduces the chromosome number 219 Chromatid exchanges during

diversity 219

During meiosis homologous chromosomes separate by independent assortment 220

Meiotic errors lead to abnormal chromosome structures and numbers 222 The number, shapes, and sizes of the metaphase chromosomes constitute the karyotype 224 Polyploids have more than two

complete sets of chromosomes 224

- 11.6 In a Living Organism, How Do Cells Die? 225
- 11.7 How Does Unregulated Cell Division Lead to Cancer? 227
 - Cancer cells differ from normal cells 227

Cancer cells lose control over the cell cycle and apoptosis 228 Cancer treatments target the cell cycle 228

12 Inheritance, Genes, and Chromosomes 232

12.1 What Are the Mendelian Laws of Inheritance? 233

- Mendel used the scientific method to test his hypotheses 233
- Mendel's first experiments involved monohybrid crosses 234
- Mendel's first law states that the two copies of a gene segregate 236
- Mendel verified his hypotheses by performing test crosses 237
- Mendel's second law states that copies of different genes assort independently 237
- Probability can be used to predict inheritance 239
- Mendel's laws can be observed in human pedigrees 240

12.2 How Do Alleles Interact? 241

New alleles arise by

- mutation 241 Many genes have multiple alleles 242
- Dominance is not always complete 242
- In codominance, both alleles at a locus are expressed 243
- Some alleles have multiple phenotypic effects 243



12.3 How Do Genes Interact? 244

Hybrid vigor results from new gene combinations and interactions 244

The environment affects gene action 245

Most complex phenotypes are determined by multiple genes and the environment 246

12.4 What Is the Relationship between Genes and Chromosomes? 247

Genes on the same chromosome are linked 247

Genes can be exchanged between chromatids and mapped 247

Linkage is revealed by studies of the sex chromosomes 249

12.5 What Are the Effects of Genes Outside the Nucleus? 252

12.6 How Do Prokaryotes Transmit Genes? 253

Bacteria exchange genes by conjugation 253 Bacterial conjugation is controlled by plasmids 254



13.1 What Is the Evidence that the Gene Is DNA? 260

DNA from one type of bacterium genetically transforms another type 260

Viral infection experiments confirmed that DNA is the genetic material 261

Eukaryotic cells can also be genetically transformed by DNA 263

13.2 What Is the Structure of DNA? 264

Watson and Crick used modeling to deduce the structure of DNA 264

Four key features define DNA structure 265

The double-helical structure of DNA is essential to its function 266

13.3 How Is DNA Replicated? 267

Three modes of DNA replication appeared possible 267

An elegant experiment demonstrated that DNA replication is semiconservative 268

There are two steps in DNA replication 268

DNA polymerases add nucleotides to the growing chain 269

Many other proteins assist with DNA polymerization 272

The two DNA strands grow differently at the replication fork 272

Telomeres are not fully replicated and are prone to repair 275

13.4 How Are Errors in DNA Repaired? 276

13.5 How Does the Polymerase Chain Reaction Amplify DNA? 277

The polymerase chain reaction makes multiple copies of DNA sequences 277

From DNA to Protein: Gene Expression 281

14.1 What Is the Evidence that Genes Code for Proteins? 282

Observations in humans led to the proposal that genes determine enzymes 282 Experiments on bread mold established that genes determine enzymes 282 One gene determines one polypeptide 283

14.2 How Does Information Flow from Genes to Proteins? 284

Three types of RNA have roles in the information flow from DNA to protein 285

In some cases, RNA determines the sequence of DNA 285

14.3 How Is the Information Content in DNA Transcribed to Produce RNA? 286

RNA polymerases share common features 286

Transcription occurs in three steps 286

The information for protein synthesis lies in the genetic code 288

14.4 How Is Eukaryotic DNA Transcribed and the RNA Processed? 290

Many eukaryotic genes are interrupted by noncoding sequences 290

Eukaryotic gene transcripts are processed before translation 291

14.5 How Is RNA Translated into Proteins? 293

Transfer RNAs carry specific amino acids and bind to specific codons 293

Each tRNA is specifically attached to an amino acid 294

The ribosome is the workbench for translation 294 Translation takes place in three

steps 295

Polysome formation increases the rate of protein synthesis 297

14.6 What Happens to Polypeptides after Translation? 298

Signal sequences in proteins direct them to their cellular destinations 298

Many proteins are modified after translation 300

15 Gene Mutation and Molecular Medicine 304

15.1 What Are Mutations? 305

Mutations have different phenotypic effects 305 Point mutations are changes in single nucleotides 306

Chromosomal mutations are extensive changes in the genetic material 307

- Retroviruses and transposons can cause loss of function mutations or duplications 308
- Mutations can be spontaneous or induced 308
- Mutagens can be natural or artificial 310
- Some base pairs are more vulnerable than others to mutation 310
- Mutations have both benefits and costs 310

15.2 What Kinds of Mutations Lead to Genetic Diseases? 311

- Genetic mutations may make proteins dysfunctional 311 Disease-causing mutations may
- Disease-causing mutations may involve any number of base pairs 312
- Expanding triplet repeats demonstrate the fragility of some human genes 313 Cancer often involves somatic mutations 314



Most diseases are caused by multiple genes and environment 314

15.3 How Are Mutations Detected and Analyzed? 315

Restriction enzymes cleave DNA at specific sequences 315 Gel electrophoresis separates DNA fragments 316 DNA fingerprinting combines PCR with restriction analysis

and electrophoresis 317 Reverse genetics can be used to identify mutations that lead to disease 318

Genetic markers can be used to find disease-causing genes 318

The DNA barcode project aims to identify all organisms on Earth 319

15.4 How Is Genetic Screening Used to Detect Diseases? 320

Screening for disease phenotypes involves analysis of proteins and other chemicals 320

DNA testing is the most accurate way to detect abnormal genes 320

Allele-specific oligonucleotide hybridization can detect mutations 321

15.5 How Are Genetic Diseases Treated? 322

Genetic diseases can be treated by modifying the phenotype 322 Gene therapy offers the hope of specific treatments 323

16 Regulation of Gene Expression 328

16.1 How Is Gene Expression Regulated in Prokaryotes? 329

Regulating gene transcription conserves energy 329

- Operons are units of transcriptional regulation in prokaryotes 330
- Operator-repressor interactions control transcription in the *lac* and *trp* operons 330
- Protein synthesis can be controlled by increasing promoter efficiency 332

RNA polymerases can be directed to particular classes of promoters 332

16.2 How Is Eukaryotic Gene Transcription Regulated? 333

General transcription factors act at eukaryotic promoters 333

Specific proteins can recognize and bind to DNA sequences and regulate transcription 335

Specific protein–DNA interactions underlie binding 335

The expression of transcription factors underlies cell differentiation 336

The expression of sets of genes can be coordinately regulated by transcription factors 336

16.3 How Do Viruses Regulate Their Gene Expression? 339

Many bacteriophages undergo a lytic cycle 339

Some bacteriophages can undergo a lysogenic cycle 340

Eukaryotic viruses can have complex life cycles 341

HIV gene regulation occurs at the level of transcription elongation 341

16.4 How Do Epigenetic Changes Regulate Gene Expression? 343

DNA methylation occurs at promoters and silences transcription 343

Histone protein modifications affect transcription 344

Epigenetic changes can be induced by the environment 344

DNA methylation can result in genomic imprinting 344 Global chromosome changes involve DNA methylation 345

16.5 How Is Eukaryotic Gene Expression Regulated after Transcription? 346

Different mRNAs can be made from the same gene by alternative splicing 346

Small RNAs are important regulators of gene expression 347

Translation of mRNA can be regulated by proteins and riboswitches 348





17.1 How Are Genomes Sequenced? 353

New methods have been developed to rapidly sequence DNA 353

Genome sequences yield several kinds of information 355

17.2 What Have We Learned from Sequencing Prokaryotic Genomes? 356

Prokaryotic genomes are compact 356

The sequencing of prokaryotic and viral genomes has many potential benefits 357

Metagenomics allows us to describe new organisms and ecosystems 357

Some sequences of DNA can move about the genome 358



XXVIII Contents

Will defining the genes required for cellular life lead to artificial life? 359

17.3 What Have We Learned from Sequencing Eukaryotic Genomes? 361

Model organisms reveal many characteristics of eukaryotic genomes 361

Eukaryotes have gene families 363 Eukaryotic genomes contain

many repetitive sequences 364

17.4 What Are the Characteristics of the Human Genome? 366

The human genome sequence held some surprises 366

Comparative genomics reveals the evolution of the human genome 366

Human genomics has potential benefits in medicine 367

17.5 What Do the New Disciplines of Proteomics and Metabolomics Reveal? 369

The proteome is more complex than the genome 369 Metabolomics is the study of chemical phenotype 370

18 Recombinant DNA and Biotechnology 373

18.1 What Is Recombinant DNA? 374

18.2 How Are New Genes Inserted into Cells? 375

Genes can be inserted into prokaryotic or eukaryotic cells 376

A variety of methods are used to insert recombinant DNA into host cells 376

Reporter genes help select or identify host cells containing recombinant DNA 377

18.3 What Sources of DNA Are Used in Cloning? 379

Libraries provide collections of DNA fragments 379 cDNA is made from mRNA

transcripts 379 Synthetic DNA can be made by PCR or by organic chemistry 380

18.4 What Other Tools Are Used to Study DNA Function? 380

Genes can be expressed in different biological systems 380

DNA mutations can be created in the laboratory 381

Genes can be inactivated by homologous

recombination 381

Complementary RNA can prevent the expression of specific genes 382

DNA microarrays reveal RNA expression patterns 382

18.5 What Is Biotechnology? 383

Expression vectors can turn cells into protein factories 384

18.6 How Is Biotechnology Changing Medicine and Agriculture? 384

Medically useful proteins can be made using biotechnology 384

DNA manipulation is changing agriculture 386

There is public concern about biotechnology 388

19 Differential Gene Expression in Development 392

19.1 What Are the Processes of Development? 393

Development involves distinct but overlapping processes 393

Cell fates become progressively more restricted during development 394

19.2 How Is Cell Fate Determined? 395

Cytoplasmic segregation can determine polarity and cell fate 395

Inducers passing from one cell to another can determine cell fates 395

19.3 What Is the Role of Gene Expression in Development? 397

Cell fate determination involves signal transduction pathways that lead to differential gene expression 397 Differential gene transcription is a hallmark of cell differentiation 398

19.4 How Does Gene Expression Determine Pattern Formation? 399

Multiple proteins interact to determine developmental programmed cell death 399 Plants have organ identity

genes 400 Morphogon gradients provi

Morphogen gradients provide positional information 401

A cascade of transcription factors establishes body segmentation in the fruit fly 401

19.5 Is Cell Differentiation Reversible? 405

Plant cells can be totipotent 405 Nuclear transfer allows the cloning of animals 406 Multipotent stem cells differentiate in response to environmental signals 408 Pluripotent stem cells can be obtained in two ways 408

20 Genes, Development, and Evolution 412

20.1 How Can Small Genetic Changes Result in Large Changes in Phenotype? 413

Developmental genes in distantly related organisms are similar 413



2

20.2 How Can Mutations with Large Effects Change Only One Part of the Body? 415

Genetic switches govern how the genetic toolkit is used 415 Modularity allows for differences in the patterns of gene expression 416

20.3 How Can Developmental Changes Result in Differences among Species? 418

Differences in Hox gene expression patterns result in major differences in body plans 418

Mutations in developmental genes can produce major morphological changes 418

20.4 How Can the Environment Modulate Development? 420

Temperature can determine sex 420

- Dietary information can be a predictor of future conditions 421
- A variety of environmental signals influence development 421

20.5 How Do Developmental Genes Constrain Evolution? 423

Evolution usually proceeds by changing what's already there 423 Conserved developmental genes can lead to parallel evolution 423

PART SIX The Patterns and Processes of Evolution

21 Mechanisms of Evolution 427

21.1 What Is the Relationship between Fact and Theory in Evolution? 428

Darwin and Wallace introduced the idea of evolution by natural selection 428

Evolutionary theory has continued to develop over the past century 430

Genetic variation contributes to phenotypic variation 431

21.2 What Are the Mechanisms of Evolutionary Change? 432

Mutation generates genetic variation 432

Selection acting on genetic variation leads to new phenotypes 432

Gene flow may change allele frequencies 433

Genetic drift may cause large changes in small populations 434

Nonrandom mating can change genotype or allele frequencies 434

21.3 How Do Biologists Measure Evolutionary Change? 436

Evolutionary change can be measured by allele and genotype frequencies 436

Evolution will occur unless certain restrictive conditions exist 437 Deviations from Hardy– Weinberg equilibrium show that evolution is occurring 438 Natural selection acts directly on phenotypes 438 Natural selection can change or stabilize populations 439

- 21.4 How Is Genetic Variation Distributed and Maintained within Populations? 441
 - Neutral mutations accumulate in populations 441
 - Sexual recombination amplifies the number of possible genotypes 441
 - Frequency-dependent selection maintains genetic variation within populations 441

Heterozygote advantage maintains polymorphic loci 442

Genetic variation within species is maintained in geographically distinct populations 443

21.5 What Are the Constraints on Evolution? 444

Developmental processes constrain evolution 444

Trade-offs constrain evolution 445

Short-term and long-term evolutionary outcomes sometimes differ 446



22.1 What Is Phylogeny? 450

All of life is connected through evolutionary history 451 Comparisons among species require an evolutionary perspective 451

22.2 How Are Phylogenetic Trees Constructed? 452

Parsimony provides the simplest explanation for phylogenetic data 454

Phylogenies are reconstructed from many sources of data 454

Mathematical models expand the power of phylogenetic reconstruction 456

The accuracy of phylogenetic methods can be tested 457

22.3 How Do Biologists Use Phylogenetic Trees? 458

Phylogenetic trees can be used to reconstruct past events 458
Phylogenies allow us to compare and contrast living organisms 459
Phylogenies can reveal convergent evolution 459
Ancestral states can be reconstructed 460
Molecular clocks help date evolutionary events 461

22.4 How Does Phylogeny Relate to Classification? 462

Evolutionary history is the basis for modern biological classification 463

Several codes of biological nomenclature govern the use of scientific names 463



23.1 What Are Species? 468

We can recognize many species by their appearance 468 Reproductive isolation is key 468

The lineage approach takes a long-term view 469

The different species concepts are not mutually exclusive 469

23.2 What Is the Genetic Basis of Speciation? 470

Incompatibilities between genes can produce reproductive isolation 470

Reproductive isolation develops with increasing genetic divergence 470

23.3 What Barriers to Gene Flow Result in Speciation? 472

Physical barriers give rise to allopatric speciation 472 Sympatric speciation occurs without physical barriers 473

23.4 What Happens When Newly Formed Species Come into Contact? 475

Prezygotic isolating mechanisms prevent hybridization 476

Postzygotic isolating mechanisms result in selection against hybridization 478

Hybrid zones may form if reproductive isolation is incomplete 478

23.5 Why Do Rates of Speciation Vary? 480

Several ecological and behavioral factors influence speciation rates 480 Rapid speciation can lead to adaptive radiation 481

Evolution of Genes and Genomes 485

24.1 How Are Genomes Used to Study Evolution? 486

Evolution of genomes results in biological diversity 486

Genes and proteins are compared through sequence alignment 486

Models of sequence evolution are used to calculate evolutionary divergence 487

Experimental studies examine molecular evolution directly 489

24.2 What Do Genomes Reveal about Evolutionary Processes? 491

Much of evolution is neutral 492 Positive and purifying selection can be detected in the genome 492 Genome size also evolves 494

24.3 How Do Genomes Gain and Maintain Functions? 496

Lateral gene transfer can result in the gain of new functions 496

Most new functions arise following gene duplication 496

Some gene families evolve through concerted evolution 498

24.4 What Are Some Applications of Molecular Evolution? 499

Molecular sequence data are used to determine the evolutionary history of genes 499

Gene evolution is used to study protein function 500

In vitro evolution is used to produce new molecules 500 Molecular evolution is used to study and combat diseases 501



25.1 How Do Scientists Date Ancient Events? 506

Radioisotopes provide a way to date fossils and rocks 507 Radiometric dating methods have been expanded and refined 507 Scientists have used several methods to construct a geological time scale 508

25.2 How Have Earth's Continents and Climates Changed over Time? 508

The continents have not always been where they are today 509

Earth's climate has shifted between hot and cold conditions 510

Volcanoes have occasionally changed the history of life 510

Extraterrestrial events have triggered changes on Earth 511

Oxygen concentrations in Earth's atmosphere have changed over time 511

25.3 What Are the Major Events in Life's History? 514

Several processes contribute to the paucity of fossils 514 Precambrian life was small and aquatic 515

Life expanded rapidly during the Cambrian period 516

Many groups of organisms that arose during the Cambrian later diversified 516

Geographic differentiation increased during the Mesozoic era 521

Modern biotas evolved during the Cenozoic era 521

The tree of life is used to reconstruct evolutionary events 522

PART SEVEN The Evolution of Diversity

26 Bacteria, Archaea, and Viruses 525

26.1 Where Do Prokaryotes Fit into the Tree of Life? 526

The two prokaryotic domains differ in significant ways 526 The small size of prokaryotes has hindered our study of their evolutionary relationships 527 The nucleotide sequences of prokaryotes reveal their

evolutionary relationships 528 Lateral gene transfer can lead to discordant gene trees 529

The great majority of prokaryote species have never been studied 530

26.2 Why Are Prokaryotes So Diverse and Abundant? 530

The low-GC Gram-positives include some of the smallest cellular organisms 530

Some high-GC Gram-positives are valuable sources of antibiotics 532

Hyperthermophilic bacteria live at very high temperatures 532

Hadobacteria live in extreme environments 532

Cyanobacteria were the first photosynthesizers 532

Spirochetes move by means of axial filaments 533

Chlamydias are extremely small parasites 533

The proteobacteria are a large and diverse group 534

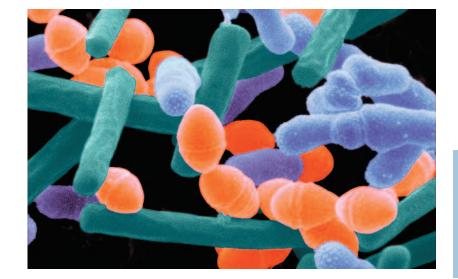
Gene sequencing enabled biologists to differentiate the domain Archaea 534

Most crenarchaeotes live in hot or acidic places 536

Euryarchaeotes are found in surprising places 536 Korarchaeotes and nanoarchaeotes are less well known 537

26.3 How Do Prokaryotes Affect Their Environments? 537

Prokaryotes have diverse metabolic pathways 537 Prokaryotes play important roles in element cycling 538 Many prokaryotes form complex communities 539



Prokaryotes live on and in other organisms 539

Microbiomes are critical to human health 539

A small minority of bacteria are pathogens 541

26.4 How Do Viruses Relate to Life's Diversity and Ecology? 543

Many RNA viruses probably represent escaped genomic components of cellular life 544

- Some DNA viruses may have evolved from reduced cellular organisms 544
- Vertebrate genomes contain endogenous retroviruses 545
- Viruses can be used to fight bacterial infections 545

Viruses are found throughout the biosphere 546

27 The Origin and Diversification of Eukaryotes 549

27.1 How Did the Eukaryotic Cell Arise? 550

The modern eukaryotic cell arose in several steps 550

Chloroplasts have been transferred among eukaryotes several times 551

27.2 What Features Account for Protist Diversity? 552

Alveolates have sacs under their plasma membranes 553 Stramenopiles typically have two flagella of unequal length 555 Rhizaria typically have long, thin pseudopods 557 Excavates began to diversify

about 1.5 billion years ago 558

Amoebozoans use lobe-shaped pseudopods for locomotion 559

27.3 What Is the Relationship between Sex and Reproduction in Protists? 562

Some protists reproduce without sex and have sex without reproduction 562

Some protist life cycles feature alternation of generations 562

27.4 How Do Protists Affect Their Environments? 563

Phytoplankton are primary producers 563

Some microbial eukaryotes are deadly 563

Some microbial eukaryotes are endosymbionts 564

We rely on the remains of ancient marine protists 565

28 Plants without Seeds: From Water to Land 569

28.1 How Did Photosynthesis Arise in Plants? 570

Several distinct clades of algae were among the first photosynthetic eukaryotes 571

- Two groups of green algae are the closest relatives of land plants 572
- There are ten major groups of land plants 573

28.2 When and How Did Plants Colonize Land? 574

- Adaptations to life on land distinguish land plants from green algae 574
- Life cycles of land plants feature alternation of generations 574
- Nonvascular land plants live where water is readily available 575
- The sporophytes of nonvascular land plants are dependent on the gametophytes 575
- Liverworts are the sister clade of the remaining land plants 577
- Water and sugar transport mechanisms emerged in the mosses 577
- Hornworts have distinctive chloroplasts and stalkless sporophytes 578

28.3 What Features Allowed Land Plants to Diversify in Form? 579

- Vascular tissues transport water and dissolved materials 579 Vascular plants allowed
- herbivores to colonize the land 580
- The closest relatives of vascular plants lacked roots 580
- The lycophytes are sister to the other vascular plants 581 Horsetails and ferns constitute a
- clade 581 The vascular plants branched
- out 582 Heterospory appeared among
- the vascular plants 584

29 The Evolution of Seed Plants 588

29.1 How Did Seed Plants Become Today's Dominant Vegetation? 589

- Features of the seed plant life cycle protect gametes and embryos 589
- The seed is a complex, wellprotected package 591



A change in stem anatomy enabled seed plants to grow to great heights 591

29.2 What Are the Major Groups of Gymnosperms? 592

There are four major groups of living gymnosperms 592 Conifers have cones and no swimming sperm 593

29.3 How Do Flowers and Fruits Increase the Reproductive Success of Angiosperms? 596

Angiosperms have many shared derived traits 596

The sexual structures of angiosperms are flowers 596

Flower structure has evolved over time 597

Angiosperms have coevolved with animals 598

The angiosperm life cycle produces diploid zygotes nourished by triploid endosperms 600

Fruits aid angiosperm seed dispersal 601

Recent analyses have revealed the phylogenetic relationships of angiosperms 601

29.4 How Do Plants Benefit Human Society? 604

Seed plants have been sources of medicine since ancient times 604 Seed plants are our primary food source 605

30 The Evolution and Diversity of Fungi 608

30.1 What Is a Fungus? 609

Unicellular yeasts absorb nutrients directly 609 Multicellular fungi use hyphae to absorb nutrients 609

Fungi are in intimate contact with their environment 610

30.2 How Do Fungi Interact with Other Organisms? 611

Saprobic fungi are critical to the planetary carbon cycle 611 Some fungi engage in parasitic or predatory interactions 611 Mutualistic fungi engage in relationships that benefit both partners 612

Endophytic fungi protect some plants from pathogens, herbivores, and stress 615

30.3 How Do Major Groups of Fungi Differ in Structure and Life History? 615

Fungi reproduce both sexually and asexually 616

Microsporidia are highly reduced, parasitic fungi 617

Most chytrids are aquatic 617

Some fungal life cycles feature separate fusion of cytoplasms and nuclei 619

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi form symbioses with plants 619

The dikaryotic condition is a synapomorphy of sac fungi and club fungi 620

The sexual reproductive structure of sac fungi is the ascus 620 The sexual reproductive structure of club fungi is the basidium 622

30.4 What Are Some Applications of Fungal Biology? 623

Fungi are important in producing food and drink 623
Fungi record and help remediate environmental pollution 624
Lichen diversity and abundance are indicators of air quality 624
Fungi are used as model organisms in laboratory studies 624
Reforestation may depend on mycorrhizal fungi 626

Fungi provide important weapons against diseases and pests 626

31 Animal Origins and the Evolution of Body Plans 629

31.1 What Characteristics Distinguish the Animals? 630

Animal monophyly is supported by gene sequences and morphology 630

A few basic developmental patterns differentiate major animal groups 633

31.2 What Are the Features of Animal Body Plans? 634

Most animals are symmetrical 634 The structure of the body cavity influences movement 635 Segmentation improves control of movement 636 Appendages have many uses 636

Nervous systems coordinate movement and allow sensory processing 637

31.3 How Do Animals Get Their Food? 637

Filter feeders capture small prey 637
Herbivores eat plants 637
Predators and omnivores capture and subdue prey 638
Parasites live in or on other organisms 638
Detritivores live on the remains of other organisms 639



31.4 How Do Life Cycles Differ among Animals? 639

Many animal life cycles feature specialized life stages 639

- Most animal life cycles have at least one dispersal stage 640
- Parasite life cycles facilitate dispersal and overcome host defenses 640
- Some animals form colonies of genetically identical, physiologically integrated individuals 640
- No life cycle can maximize all benefits 641

31.5 What Are the Major Groups of Animals? 643

Sponges are loosely organized animals 643

Ctenophores are radially symmetrical and diploblastic 644

Placozoans are abundant but rarely observed 645

Cnidarians are specialized predators 645

Some small groups of parasitic animals may be the closest relatives of bilaterians 648

2 Protostome Animals 651

32.1 What Is a Protostome? 652

> Cilia-bearing lophophores and trochophores evolved among the lophotrochozoans 652

Ecdysozoans must shed their cuticles 654

Arrow worms retain some ancestral developmental features 655

32.2 What Features Distinguish the Major Groups of Lophotrochozoans? 656

Most bryozoans and entoprocts live in colonies 656

- Flatworms, rotifers, and gastrotrichs are structurally diverse relatives 656
- Ribbon worms have a long, protrusible feeding organ 658
- Brachiopods and phoronids use lophophores to extract food from the water 658
- Annelids have segmented bodies 659
- Mollusks have undergone a dramatic evolutionary radiation 662

32.3 What Features Distinguish the Major Groups of Ecdysozoans? 665

Several marine ecdysozoan groups have relatively few species 665

Nematodes and their relatives are abundant and diverse 666

32.4 Why Are Arthropods So Diverse? 667

Arthropod relatives have fleshy, unjointed appendages 667 Jointed appendages appeared in the trilobites 668

Chelicerates have pointed, nonchewing mouthparts 668

Mandibles and antennae characterize the remaining arthropod groups 669

More than half of all described species are insects 671



33.1 What Is a Deuterostome? 679

Deuterostomes share early developmental patterns 679 There are three major deuterostome clades 679 Fossils shed light on deuterostome ancestors 679

33.2 What Features Distinguish the Echinoderms, Hemichordates, and Their Relatives? 680

Echinoderms have unique structural features 680 Hemichordates are wormlike marine deuterostomes 682

33.3 What New Features Evolved in the Chordates? 683

Adults of most lancelets and tunicates are sedentary 684

- A dorsal supporting structure replaces the notochord in vertebrates 684
- The phylogenetic relationships of jawless fishes are uncertain 685
- Jaws and teeth improved feeding efficiency 686
- Fins and swim bladders improved stability and control over locomotion 686
- **33.4** How Did Vertebrates Colonize the Land? 689

Jointed limbs enhanced support and locomotion on land 689 Amphibians usually require moist environments 690 Amniotes colonized dry environments 692 Reptiles adapted to life in many habitats 693 Crocodilians and birds share their ancestry with the dinosaurs 693 Feathers allowed birds to fly 695 Mammals radiated after the extinction of non-avian

dinosaurs 696

33.5 What Traits Characterize the Primates? 701

PART EIGHT Flowering Plants: Form and Function



The Plant Body 708

34.1 What Is the Basic Body Plan of Plants? 709

Most angiosperms are either monocots or eudicots 709 Plants develop differently than animals 710

Apical-basal polarity and radial symmetry are characteristics of the plant body 711

34.2 What Are the Major Tissues of Plants? 712

The plant body is constructed from three tissue systems 712 Cells of the xylem transport water and dissolved minerals 714 Cells of the phloem transport the products of photosynthesis 714

34.3 How Do Meristems Build a Continuously Growing Plant? 715

Plants increase in size through primary and secondary growth 715

A hierarchy of meristems generates the plant body 715

Indeterminate primary growth originates in apical meristems 715

The root apical meristem gives rise to the root cap and the root primary meristems 716

The products of the root's primary meristems become root tissues 716

The root system anchors the plant and takes up water and dissolved minerals 718

The products of the stem's primary meristems become stem tissues 719 The stem supports leaves and flowers 720

Leaves are determinate organs produced by shoot apical meristems 720

Many eudicot stems and roots undergo secondary growth 721

34.4 How Has Domestication Altered Plant Form? 723



35.1 How Do Plants Take Up Water and Solutes? 727

Water potential differences govern the direction of water movement 727

Water and ions move across the root cell plasma membrane 728

Water and ions pass to the xylem by way of the apoplast and symplast 729

35.2 How Are Water and Minerals Transported in the Xylem? 730

The transpiration– cohesion–tension mechanism accounts for xylem transport 731

35.3 How Do Stomata Control the Loss of Water and the Uptake of CO_2 ? 732

The guard cells control the size of the stomatal opening 733

© Sinauer Associates, Inc. This material cannot be copied, r or disseminated in any form without express written perm Two major lineages of primates split late in the Cretaceous 701 Bipedal locomotion evolved in human ancestors 702 Human brains became larger as jaws became smaller 704 Humans developed complex language and culture 705

Plants can control their total numbers of stomata 734

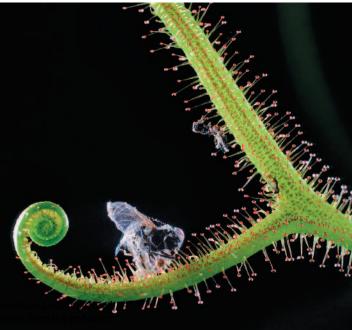
35.4 How Are Substances Translocated in the Phloem? 734

Sucrose and other solutes are carried in the phloem 734 The pressure flow model appears to account for translocation in the phloem 735

36 Plant Nutrition 740

36.1 What Nutrients Do Plants Require? 741

All plants require specific macronutrients and micronutrients 741 Deficiency symptoms reveal inadequate nutrition 742 Hydroponic experiments identified essential elements 742



36.2 How Do Plants Acquire Nutrients? 743

Plants rely on growth to find nutrients 743 Nutrient uptake and assimilation are regulated 744

36.3 How Does Soil Structure Affect Plants? 744

Soils are complex in structure 745 Soils form through the weathering of rock 745 Soils are the source of plant nutrition 746 Fertilizers can be used to add nutrients to soil 746

36.4 How Do Fungi and Bacteria Increase Nutrient Uptake by Plant Roots? 747

Plants send signals for colonization 747

Mycorrhizae expand the root system 748

Soil bacteria are essential in getting nitrogen from air to plant cells 749

Nitrogenase catalyzes nitrogen fixation 749

Biological nitrogen fixation does not always meet agricultural needs 750

Plants and bacteria participate in the global nitrogen cycle 750

36.5 How Do Carnivorous and Parasitic Plants Obtain a Balanced Diet? 751

Carnivorous plants supplement their mineral nutrition 751

Parasitic plants take advantage of other plants 752

The plant-parasite relationship is similar to plant-fungus and plant-bacteria associations 753

37 Regulation of Plant Growth 756

37.1 How Does Plant Development Proceed? 757

In early development, the seed germinates and forms a growing seedling 757

Several hormones and photoreceptors help regulate plant growth 758

Genetic screens have increased our understanding of plant signal transduction 759

37.2 What Do Gibberellins and Auxin Do? 760

Gibberellins have many effects on plant growth and development 760 Auxin plays a role in differential plant growth 762 Auxin affects plant growth in several ways 765

At the molecular level, auxin and gibberellins act similarly 767

37.3 What Are the Effects of Cytokinins, Ethylene, and Brassinosteroids? 768

Cytokinins are active from seed to senescence 768

Ethylene is a gaseous hormone that hastens leaf senescence and fruit ripening 769

Brassinosteroids are plant steroid hormones 771

37.4 How Do Photoreceptors Participate in Plant Growth Regulation? 771

Phototropins, cryptochromes, and zeaxanthin are blue-light receptors 771

Phytochromes mediate the effects of red and far-red light 772

Phytochrome stimulates gene transcription 773

Circadian rhythms are entrained by light reception 774

Reproduction in Flowering Plants 778

38.1 How Do Angiosperms Reproduce Sexually? 779

The flower is an angiosperm's structure for sexual reproduction 779

Flowering plants have microscopic

gametophytes 779 Pollination in the absence of water is an evolutionary adaptation 780

A pollen tube delivers sperm cells to the embryo sac 780



Many flowering plants control pollination or pollen tube growth to prevent inbreeding 782

Angiosperms perform double fertilization 783

Embryos develop within seeds contained in fruits 784 Seed development is under hormonal control 785

38.2 What Determines the Transition from the Vegetative to the Flowering State? 785

Shoot apical meristems can become inflorescence meristems 785

A cascade of gene expression leads to flowering 786

Photoperiodic cues can initiate flowering 787

Plants vary in their responses to photoperiodic cues 787

Night length is a key photoperiodic cue that determines flowering 788

The flowering stimulus originates in a leaf 788

Florigen is a small protein 790 Flowering can be induced by temperature or gibberellin 790

Some plants do not require an environmental cue to flower 792

38.3 How Do Angiosperms Reproduce Asexually? 792

Many forms of asexual reproduction exist 792 Vegetative reproduction has a disadvantage 793 Vegetative reproduction is

important in agriculture 793

39 Plant Responses to Environmental Challenges 797

39.1 How Do Plants Deal with Pathogens? 798

Physical barriers form constitutive defenses 798

- Plants can seal off infected parts to limit damage 798
- General and specific immunity both involve multiple responses 799
- Specific immunity involves genefor-gene resistance 800 Specific immunity usually leads to
- the hypersensitive response 800
- Systemic acquired resistance is a form of long-term immunity 801

PART NINE Animals: Form and Function

39.2 How Do Plants Deal with Herbivores? 801

Mechanical defenses against herbivores are widespread 801

- Plants produce constitutive chemical defenses against herbivores 802
- Some secondary metabolites play multiple roles 803
- Plants respond to herbivory with induced defenses 803
- Jasmonates trigger a range of responses to wounding and herbivory 805
- Why don't plants poison themselves? 805
- Plants don't always win the arms race 806

39.3 How Do Plants Deal with Environmental Stresses? 806

Some plants have special adaptations to live in very dry conditions 806 Some plants grow in saturated

soils 808 Plants can respond to drought

stress 809

Plants can cope with temperature extremes 810

39.4 How Do Plants Deal with Salt and Heavy Metals? 810

Most halophytes accumulate salt 811 Some plants can tolerate heavy metals 811

40 Physiology, Homeostasis, and Temperature Regulation 815

40.1 How Do Multicellular Animals Supply the Needs of Their Cells? 816

> An internal environment makes complex multicellular animals possible 816

Physiological systems are regulated to maintain homeostasis 816

40.2 What Are the Relationships between Cells, Tissues, and Organs? 817

Epithelial tissues are sheets of densely packed, tightly connected cells 817

Muscle tissues generate force and movement 818

Connective tissues include bone, blood, and fat 818 Neural tissues include neurons and glial cells 819 Organs consist of multiple

tissues 820

40.3 How Does Temperature Affect Living Systems? 820 Q₁₀ is a measure of temperature sensitivity 821
 Animals acclimatize to seasonal temperatures 821

40.4 How Do Animals Alter Their Heat Exchange with the Environment? 822

Endotherms produce substantial amounts of metabolic heat 822

Ectotherms and endotherms respond differently to changes in environmental temperature 822

Energy budgets reflect adaptations for regulating body temperature 823

Both ectotherms and endotherms control blood flow to the skin 824

Some fish conserve metabolic heat 825

Some ectotherms regulate metabolic heat production 825

40.5 How Do Endotherms Regulate Their Body Temperatures? 826

Basal metabolic rates correlate with body size 826



Endotherms respond to cold by producing heat and adapt to cold by reducing heat loss 827 Evaporation of water can

dissipate heat, but at a cost 829

The mammalian thermostat uses feedback information 829 Fever helps the body fight infections 830 Some animals conserve energy by

turning down the thermostat 830



41.1 What Are Hormones and How Do They Work? 835 Endocrine signaling can act locally or at a distance 835

Hormones can be divided into three chemical groups 836

Hormone action is mediated by receptors on or within their target cells 836

Hormone action depends on the nature of the target cell and its receptors 837

41.2 What Have Experiments Revealed about Hormones and Their Action? 838

The first hormone discovered was the gut hormone secretin 838

Early experiments on insects illuminated hormonal signaling systems 839

Three hormones regulate molting and maturation in arthropods 840

41.3 How Do the Nervous and Endocrine Systems Interact? 842

The pituitary is an interface between the nervous and endocrine systems 842

The anterior pituitary is controlled by hypothalamic neurohormones 844 Negative feedback loops regulate hormone secretion 844

41.4 What Are the Major Endocrine Glands and Hormones? 845

The thyroid gland secretes thyroxine 845 Three hormones regulate blood calcium concentrations 847 PTH lowers blood phosphate levels 848 Insulin and glucagon regulate blood glucose concentrations 848 The adrenal gland is two glands in one 849 Sex steroids are produced by the gonads 850 Melatonin is involved in biological rhythms and photoperiodicity 851 Many chemicals may act as hormones 851

41.5 How Do We Study Mechanisms of Hormone Action? 852

Hormones can be detected and measured with immunoassays 852

A hormone can act through many receptors 853

42 Immunology: Animal Defense Systems 856

42.1 What Are the Major Defense Systems of Animals? 857

Blood and lymph tissues play important roles in defense 857

White blood cells play many defensive roles 858 Immune system proteins bind

pathogens or signal other cells 858

42.2 What Are the Characteristics of the Innate Defenses? 859

Barriers and local agents defend the body against invaders 859

Cell signaling pathways stimulate the body's defenses 860

Specialized proteins and cells participate in innate immunity 860

Inflammation is a coordinated response to infection or injury 861

Inflammation can cause medical problems 862

42.3 How Does Adaptive Immunity Develop? 862

- Adaptive immunity has four key features 862
- Two types of adaptive immune responses interact: an overview 863
- Adaptive immunity develops as a result of clonal selection 865

Clonal deletion helps the immune system distinguish self from nonself 865

Immunological memory results in a secondary immune response 865

Vaccines are an application of immunological memory 866

42.4 What Is the Humoral Immune Response? 867

Some B cells develop into plasma cells 867

Different antibodies share a common structure 867

There are five classes of immunoglobulins 868

Immunoglobulin diversity results from DNA rearrangements and other mutations 868

The constant region is involved in immunoglobulin class switching 869 Monoclonal antibodies have many uses 871

42.5 What Is the Cellular Immune Response? 871

T cell receptors bind to antigens on cell surfaces 871

MHC proteins present antigen to T cells 872

T-helper cells and MHC II proteins contribute to the humoral immune response 872

Cytotoxic T cells and MHC I proteins contribute to the cellular immune response 874

Regulatory T cells suppress the humoral and cellular immune responses 874

MHC proteins are important in tissue transplants 874

42.6 What Happens When the Immune System Malfunctions? 875

Allergic reactions result from hypersensitivity 875

Autoimmune diseases are caused by reactions against self antigens 876

AIDS is an immune deficiency disorder 876



43.1 How Do Animals Reproduce without Sex? 881

Budding and regeneration produce new individuals by mitosis 881

Parthenogenesis is the development of unfertilized eggs 881

43.2 How Do Animals Reproduce Sexually? 882

Gametogenesis produces eggs and sperm 882

Fertilization is the union of sperm and egg 884

Getting eggs and sperm together 887

Some individuals can function as both male and female 887

The evolution of vertebrate reproductive systems parallels the move to land 888

Animals with internal fertilization are distinguished by where the embryo develops 889

XXXVIII Contents

43.3 How Do the Human Male and Female Reproductive Systems Work? 889

Male sex organs produce and deliver semen 889

Male sexual function is controlled by hormones 892

Female sex organs produce eggs, receive sperm, and nurture the embryo 892

The ovarian cycle produces a mature egg 893

The uterine cycle prepares an environment for a fertilized egg 893

Hormones control and coordinate the ovarian and uterine cycles 894

FSH receptors determine which follicle ovulates 895

In pregnancy, hormones from the extraembryonic membranes take over 896

Childbirth is triggered by hormonal and mechanical stimuli 896

43.4 How Can Fertility Be Controlled? 897

Humans use a variety of methods to control fertility 897

Reproductive technologies help solve problems of infertility 897



44.1 How Does Fertilization Activate

Development? 903

The sperm and the egg make different contributions to the zygote 903

Rearrangements of egg cytoplasm set the stage for determination 903



44.2 How Does Mitosis Divide Up the Early Embryo? 904

Cleavage repackages the cytoplasm 904

Early cell divisions in mammals are unique 905

Specific blastomeres generate specific tissues and organs 906

Germ cells are a unique lineage even in species with regulative development 908

44.3 How Does Gastrulation Generate Multiple Tissue Layers? 908

Invagination of the vegetal pole characterizes gastrulation in the sea urchin 908

Gastrulation in the frog begins at the gray crescent 909

The dorsal lip of the blastopore organizes embryo formation 910

Transcription factors and growth factors underlie the organizer's actions 911

The organizer changes its activity as it migrates from the dorsal lip 912

Reptilian and avian gastrulation is an adaptation to yolky eggs 913

The embryos of placental mammals lack yolk 914

44.4 How Do Organs and Organ Systems Develop? 915

The stage is set by the dorsal lip of the blastopore 915

Body segmentation develops during neurulation 916

Hox genes control development along the anterior–posterior axis 916

44.5 How Is the Growing Embryo Sustained? 918

Extraembryonic membranes form with contributions from all germ layers 918

Extraembryonic membranes in mammals form the placenta 919

44.6 What Are the Stages of Human Development? 919

Organ development begins in the first trimester 920

Organ systems grow and mature during the second and third trimesters 920

Developmental changes continue throughout life 920

45 Neurons, Glia, and Nervous Systems 924

45.1 What Cells Are Unique to the Nervous System? 925

The structure of neurons reflects their functions 925 Glia are the "silent partners" of neurons 926

45.2 How Do Neurons Generate and Transmit Electric Signals? 927

Simple electrical concepts underlie neural function 927 Membrane potentials can be measured with electrodes 928 Ion transporters and channels generate membrane potentials 928 Ion channels and their properties can now be studied directly 929

Gated ion channels alter membrane potential 930 Graded changes in membrane potential can integrate information 932

Sudden changes in Na⁺ and K⁺ channels generate action potentials 932

Action potentials are conducted along axons without loss of signal 934

Action potentials jump along myelinated axons 935

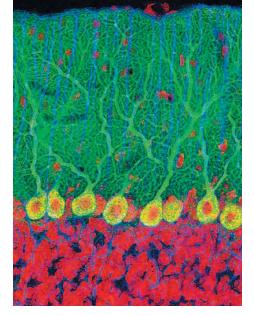
45.3 How Do Neurons Communicate with Other Cells? 936

The neuromuscular junction is a model chemical synapse 936 The arrival of an action potential causes the release of neurotransmitter 936 Synaptic functions involve many proteins 936 The postsynaptic membrane responds to neurotransmitter 936 Synapses can be excitatory or inhibitory 938

The postsynaptic cell sums excitatory and inhibitory input 938

Synapses can be fast or slow 938

Electrical synapses are fast but do not integrate information well 939



The action of a neurotransmitter depends on the receptor to which it binds 939

To turn off responses, synapses must be cleared of neurotransmitter 940

The diversity of receptors makes drug specificity possible 940

45.4 How Are Neurons and Glia Organized into Information-Processing Systems? 940

Nervous systems range in complexity 940

The knee-jerk reflex is controlled by a simple neural network 941

The vertebrate brain is the seat of behavioral complexity 943

46 Sensory Systems 946

46.1 How Do Sensory Receptor Cells Convert Stimuli into Action Potentials? 947

Sensory transduction involves changes in membrane potentials 947

Sensory receptor proteins act on ion channels 947

Sensation depends on which neurons receive action potentials from sensory cells 947

Many receptors adapt to repeated stimulation 948

46.2 How Do Sensory Systems Detect Chemical Stimuli? 949

Olfaction is the sense of smell 949

Some chemoreceptors detect pheromones 950

The vomeronasal organ contains chemoreceptors 950 Gustation is the sense of taste 951

46.3 How Do Sensory Systems Detect Mechanical Forces? 952

- Many different cells respond to touch and pressure 952
- Mechanoreceptors are also found in muscles, tendons, and ligaments 952
- Hair cells are mechanoreceptors of the auditory and vestibular systems 953
- Auditory systems use hair cells to sense sound waves 954
- Flexion of the basilar membrane is perceived as sound 955
- Various types of damage can result in hearing loss 956

The vestibular system uses hair cells to detect forces of gravity and momentum 956

46.4 How Do Sensory Systems Detect Light? 957

- Rhodopsin is a vertebrate visual pigment 957
- Invertebrates have a variety of visual systems 958
- Image-forming eyes evolved independently in vertebrates and cephalopods 958
- The vertebrate retina receives and processes visual information 959
- Rod and cone cells are the photoreceptors of the vertebrate retina 960
- Information flows through layers of neurons in the retina 962

The Mammalian Nervous System: Structure and Higher Functions 967

47.1 How Is the Mammalian Nervous System Organized? 968

Functional organization is based on flow and type of information 968

- The anatomical organization of the CNS emerges during development 968
- The spinal cord transmits and processes information 969
- The brainstem carries out many autonomic functions 969

- The core of the forebrain controls physiological drives, instincts, and emotions 970
- Regions of the telencephalon interact to control behavior and produce consciousness 970

The size of the human brain is off the curve 973

47.2 How Is Information Processed by Neural Networks? 973

Pathways of the autonomic nervous system control involuntary physiological functions 974

The visual system is an example of information integration by the cerebral cortex 975

Three-dimensional vision results from cortical cells receiving input from both eyes 977

47.3 Can Higher Functions Be Understood in Cellular Terms? 978

- Sleep and dreaming are reflected in electrical patterns in the cerebral cortex 978
- Language abilities are localized in the left cerebral hemisphere 980
- Some learning and memory can be localized to specific brain areas 981
- We still cannot answer the question "What is consciousness?" 982



48.1 How Do Muscles Contract? 987

- Sliding filaments cause skeletal muscle to contract 987
- Actin–myosin interactions cause filaments to slide 988
- Actin–myosin interactions are controlled by calcium ions 989

Cardiac muscle is similar to and different from skeletal muscle 991

Smooth muscle causes slow contractions of many internal organs 993

48.2 What Determines Skeletal Muscle Performance? 994



The strength of a muscle contraction depends on how many fibers are contracting and at what rate 994 Muscle fiber types determine endurance and strength 995 A muscle has an optimal length for generating maximum tension 996 Exercise increases muscle strength and endurance 996 Muscle ATP supply limits performance 997

Insect muscle has the greatest rate of cycling 997

48.3 How Do Skeletal Systems and Muscles Work Together? 999

A hydrostatic skeleton consists of fluid in a muscular cavity 999 Exoskeletons are rigid outer structures 999

Vertebrate endoskeletons consist of cartilage and bone 999 Bones develop from connective

tissues 1001

Bones that have a common joint can work as a lever 1001



49.1 What Physical Factors Govern Respiratory Gas Exchange? 1006

Diffusion of gases is driven by partial pressure differences 1006

Fick's law applies to all systems of gas exchange 1006

Air is a better respiratory medium than water 1007

High temperatures create respiratory problems for aquatic animals 1007 O₂ availability decreases with altitude 1007

CO₂ is lost by diffusion 1008

49.2 What Adaptations Maximize Respiratory Gas Exchange? 1008

Respiratory organs have large surface areas 1008

Ventilation and perfusion of gas exchange surfaces maximize partial pressure gradients 1009

Insects have airways throughout their bodies 1009

Fish gills use countercurrent flow to maximize gas exchange 1009

Birds use unidirectional ventilation to maximize gas

exchange 1010 Tidal ventilation produces dead

space that limits gas exchange efficiency 1012

49.3 How Do Human Lungs Work? 1013

Respiratory tract secretions aid ventilation 1013

Lungs are ventilated by pressure changes in the thoracic cavity 1015

49.4 How Does Blood Transport Respiratory Gases? 1016

Hemoglobin combines reversibly with O₂ 1016 Myoglobin holds an O₂

reserve 1017

Hemoglobin's affinity for O₂ is variable 1017

CO₂ is transported as bicarbonate ions in the blood 1018

49.5 How Is Breathing Regulated? 1019

Breathing is controlled in the brainstem 1019 Regulating breathing requires feedback 1020

50 Circulatory Systems 1025

50.1 Why Do Animals Need a Circulatory System? 1026

Some animals do not have a circulatory system 1026 Circulatory systems can be open or closed 1026 Open circulatory systems move extracellular fluid 1026 Closed circulatory systems circulate blood through a system of blood vessels 1026

50.2 How Have Vertebrate Circulatory Systems Evolved? 1027

Circulation in fish is a single circuit 1028

- Lungfish evolved a gas-breathing organ 1028
- Amphibians have partial separation of systemic and pulmonary circulation 1029
- Reptiles have exquisite control of pulmonary and systemic circulation 1029

Birds and mammals have fully separated pulmonary and systemic circuits 1030

50.3 How Does the Mammalian Heart Function? 1030

- Blood flows from right heart to lungs to left heart to body 1030
- The heartbeat originates in the cardiac muscle 1032
- A conduction system coordinates the contraction of heart muscle 1034
- Electrical properties of ventricular muscles sustain heart contraction 1034 The ECG records the electrical
- activity of the heart 1035

50.4 What Are the Properties of Blood and Blood Vessels? 1037

Red blood cells transport respiratory gases 1038 Platelets are essential for blood clotting 1039

Arteries withstand high pressure, arterioles control blood flow 1039

Materials are exchanged in capillary beds by filtration, osmosis, and diffusion 1039

Blood flows back to the heart through veins 1041

Lymphatic vessels return interstitial fluid to the blood 1042

Vascular disease is a killer 1042

50.5 How Is the Circulatory System Controlled and Regulated? 1043

Autoregulation matches local blood flow to local need 1044 Arterial pressure is regulated by hormonal and neural mechanisms 1044



51.1 What Do Animals Require from Food? 1049

Energy needs and expenditures can be measured 1049 Sources of energy can be stored in the body 1050 Food provides carbon skeletons for biosynthesis 1051 Animals need mineral elements

for a variety of functions 1052 Animals must obtain vitamins

from food 1053 Nutrient deficiencies result in diseases 1054

51.2 How Do Animals Ingest and Digest Food? 1054

The food of herbivores is often low in energy and hard to digest 1054 Carnivores must find, capture, and kill prey 1055

Vertebrate species have distinctive teeth 1055

Digestion usually begins in a body cavity 1056

Tubular guts have an opening at each end 1056

Digestive enzymes break down complex food molecules 1057

51.3 How Does the Vertebrate Gastrointestinal System Function? 1058

The vertebrate gut consists of concentric tissue layers 1058 Mechanical activity moves food through the gut and aids digestion 1059 Chemical digestion begins in the mouth and the stomach 1060 The stomach gradually releases its contents to the small intestine 1061 Most chemical digestion occurs in the small intestine 1061 Nutrients are absorbed in the small intestine 1063 Absorbed nutrients go to the liver 1063

Water and ions are absorbed in the large intestine 1063

Herbivores rely on microorganisms to digest cellulose 1063

51.4 How Is the Flow of Nutrients Controlled and Regulated? 1064

- Hormones control many digestive functions 1065
- The liver directs the traffic of the molecules that fuel metabolism 1065
- The brain plays a major role in regulating food intake 1067

Salt and Water Balance and Nitrogen Excretion 1071

52.1 How Do Excretory Systems Maintain Homeostasis? 1072

- Water enters or leaves cells by osmosis 1072
- Excretory systems control extracellular fluid osmolarity and composition 1072
- Aquatic invertebrates can conform to or regulate their osmotic and ionic environments 1072

Vertebrates are osmoregulators and ionic regulators 1073

52.2 How Do Animals Excrete Nitrogen? 1074

Animals excrete nitrogen in a number of forms 1074

Most species produce more than one nitrogenous waste 1074

52.3 How Do Invertebrate Excretory Systems Work? 1075

- The protonephridia of flatworms excrete water and conserve salts 1075
- The metanephridia of annelids process coelomic fluid 1075

Malpighian tubules of insects use active transport to excrete wastes 1076

52.4 How Do Vertebrates Maintain Salt and Water Balance? 1077

Marine fishes must conserve water 1077

- Terrestrial amphibians and reptiles must avoid desiccation 1077
- Mammals can produce highly concentrated urine 1078
- The nephron is the functional unit of the vertebrate kidney 1078
- Blood is filtered into Bowman's capsule 1078

The renal tubules convert glomerular filtrate to urine 1079

52.5 How Does the Mammalian Kidney Produce Concentrated Urine? 1079

- Kidneys produce urine and the bladder stores it 1080
- Nephrons have a regular arrangement in the kidney 1081
- Most of the glomerular filtrate is reabsorbed by the proximal convoluted tubule 1082
- The loop of Henle creates a concentration gradient in the renal medulla 1082
- Water permeability of kidney tubules depends on water channels 1084
- The distal convoluted tubule finetunes the composition of the urine 1084
- Urine is concentrated in the collecting duct 1084
- The kidneys help regulate acidbase balance 1084

Kidney failure is treated with dialysis 1085

52.6 How Are Kidney Functions Regulated? 1087

Glomerular filtration rate is regulated 1087



[©] Sinauer Associates, Inc. This material cannot be copied, reproduced, manufactured or disseminated in any form without express written permission from the publisher.

- Regulation of GFR uses feedback information from the distal tubule 1087
- Blood osmolarity and blood pressure are regulated by ADH 1088
- The heart produces a hormone that helps lower blood pressure 1090



53.1 What Are the Origins of Behavioral Biology? 1094

Conditioned reflexes are a simple behavioral mechanism 1094

Ethologists focused on the behavior of animals in their natural environment 1094 Ethologists probed the causes of

behavior 1095

53.2 How Do Genes Influence Behavior? 1096

Breeding experiments can produce behavioral phenotypes 1096

PART TEN Ecology



Ecology and the 54 Distribution of Life 1121

54.1 What Is Ecology? 1122

Ecology is not the same as environmentalism 1122 Ecologists study biotic and abiotic components of ecosystems 1122

54.2 Why Do Climates Vary Geographically? 1122

> Solar radiation varies over Earth's surface 1123

Solar energy input determines atmospheric circulation patterns 1124

Atmospheric circulation and Earth's rotation result in prevailing winds 1124 Prevailing winds drive ocean currents 1124

Organisms adapt to climatic challenges 1125

Knockout experiments can reveal the roles of specific genes 1096

Behaviors are controlled by gene cascades 1097

53.3 How Does Behavior Develop? 1098

Hormones can determine behavioral potential and timing 1098

Some behaviors can be acquired only at certain times 1099

Birdsong learning involves genetics, imprinting, and hormonal timing 1099

The timing and expression of birdsong are under hormonal control 1101

53.4 How Does Behavior Evolve? 1102

Animals are faced with many choices 1103 Behaviors have costs and benefits 1103 Territorial behavior carries significant costs 1103

Cost-benefit analysis can be applied to foraging behavior 1104

53.5 What Physiological **Mechanisms Underlie** Behavior? 1106

Biological rhythms coordinate behavior with environmental cycles 1106 Animals must find their way around their environment 1109 Animals use multiple modalities to communicate 1110

53.6 How Does Social Behavior Evolve? 1113

Mating systems maximize the fitness of both partners 1113 Fitness can include more than your own offspring 1114 Eusociality is the extreme result of kin selection 1115 Group living has benefits and costs 1116

Can the concepts of sociobiology be applied to humans? 1116



54.3 How Is Life Distributed in **Terrestrial Environments?** 1126

Tundra is found at high latitudes and high elevations 1128

Evergreen trees dominate boreal and temperate evergreen forests 1129

Temperate deciduous forests change with the seasons 1130 Temperate grasslands are widespread 1131 Hot deserts form around 30° latitude 1132 Cold deserts are high and dry 1133

Chaparral has hot, dry summers and wet, cool winters 1134 Thorn forests and tropical savannas have similar climates 1135 Tropical deciduous forests occur in hot lowlands 1136 Tropical rainforests are rich in species 1137

54.4 How Is Life Distributed in Aquatic Environments? 1139

The marine biome can be divided into several life zones 1139
Freshwater biomes may be rich in species 1140
Estuaries have characteristics of both freshwater and marine environments 1141

54.5 What Factors Determine the Boundaries of Biogeographic Regions? 1141

Geological history influences the distribution of organisms 1141 Two scientific advances changed

the field of biogeography 1142 Discontinuous distributions may result from vicariant or

dispersal events 1143 Humans exert a powerful influence on biogeographic patterns 1145



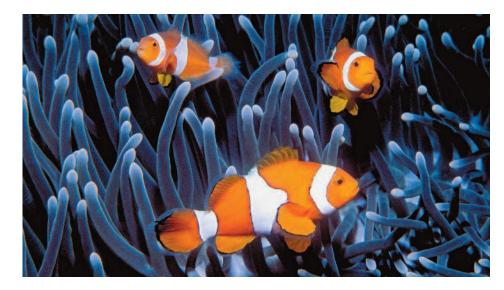
55.1 How Do Ecologists Measure Populations? 1150

Ecologists use a variety of approaches to count and track individuals 1150

- Ecologists can estimate population densities from samples 1151
- A population's age structure influences its capacity to grow 1151
- A population's dispersion pattern reflects how individuals are distributed in space 1152

55.2 How Do Ecologists Study Population Dynamics? 1153

Demographic events determine the size of a population 1153



Life tables track demographic events 1154 Survivorship curves reflect life history strategies 1155

55.3 How Do Environmental Conditions Affect Life Histories? 1156

Survivorship and fecundity determine a population's growth rate 1156

Life history traits vary with environmental conditions 1156

Life history traits are influenced by interspecific interactions 1157

55.4 What Factors Limit Population Densities? 1157

All populations have the potential for exponential growth 1157

- Logistic growth occurs as a population approaches its carrying capacity 1158
- Population growth can be limited by density-dependent or density-independent factors 1159
- Different population regulation factors lead to different life history strategies 1159
- Several ecological factors explain species' characteristic population densities 1159
- Some newly introduced species reach high population densities 1160
- Evolutionary history may explain species abundances 1160

55.5 How Does Habitat Variation Affect Population Dynamics? 1161

Many populations live in separated habitat patches 1161 Corridors may allow subpopulations to persist 1162

55.6 How Can We Use Ecological Principles to Manage Populations? 1163

Management plans must take life history strategies into account 1163

Management plans must be guided by the principles of population dynamics 1163 Human population growth has been exponential 1164

56 Species Interactions and Coevolution 1169

56.1 What Types of Interactions Do Ecologists Study? 1170

Interactions among species can be grouped into several categories 1170

Interaction types are not always clear-cut 1171

Some types of interactions result in coevolution 1171

56.2 How Do Antagonistic Interactions Evolve? 1172 Predator-prey interactions result in a range of adaptations 1172 Herbivory is a widespread interaction 1175 Parasite-host interactions may be pathogenic 1176

56.3 How Do Mutualistic Interactions Evolve? 1177

Some mutualistic partners exchange food for care or transport 1178

Some mutualistic partners exchange food or housing for defense 1178

Plants and pollinators exchange food for pollen transport 1180 Plants and frugivores exchange food for seed transport 1181

56.4 What Are the Outcomes of Competition? 1182

Competition is widespread because all species share resources 1182

Interference competition may restrict habitat use 1183

Exploitation competition may lead to coexistence 1183

Species may compete indirectly for a resource 1184 Competition may determine a

species' niche 1184

57 Community Ecology 1188

57.1 What Are Ecological Communities? 1189

Energy enters communities through primary producers 1189

Consumers use diverse sources of energy 1190

Fewer individuals and less biomass can be supported at higher trophic levels 1190 Productivity and species diversity are linked 1192

57.2 How Do Interactions among Species Influence Communities? 1193

Species interactions can cause trophic cascades 1193

Keystone species have disproportionate effects on their communities 1194



57.3 What Patterns of Species Diversity Have Ecologists Observed? 1195

Diversity comprises both the number and the relative abundance of species 1195

Ecologists have observed latitudinal gradients in diversity 1196

The theory of island biogeography suggests that immigration and extinction rates determine diversity on islands 1196

57.4 How Do Disturbances Affect Ecological Communities? 1199

Succession is the predictable pattern of change in a community after a disturbance 1199

Both facilitation and inhibition influence succession 1201

Cyclical succession requires adaptation to periodic disturbances 1201

Heterotrophic succession generates distinctive communities 1202

57.5 How Does Species Richness Influence Community Stability? 1202

Species richness is associated with productivity and stability 1202

Diversity, productivity, and stability differ between natural and managed communities 1202

58 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1207

58.1 How Does Energy Flow through the Global Ecosystem? 1208

Energy flows and chemicals cycle through ecosystems 1208 The geographic distribution of energy flow is uneven 1208 Human activities modify the flow of energy 1210

58.2 How Do Materials Move through the Global Ecosystem? 1210

Elements move between biotic and abiotic compartments of ecosystems 1211

The atmosphere contains large pools of the gases required by living organisms 1211

The terrestrial surface is influenced by slow geological processes 1213

Water transports elements among compartments 1213 Fire is a major mover of elements 1214

58.3 How Do Specific Nutrients Cycle through the Global Ecosystem? 1214

Water cycles rapidly through the ecosystem 1215 The carbon cycle has been altered by human activities 1216

The nitrogen cycle depends on both biotic and abiotic processes 1218

The burning of fossil fuels affects the sulfur cycle 1219

The global phosphorus cycle lacks a significant atmospheric component 1220

Other biogeochemical cycles are also important 1221 Biogeochemical cycles interact 1221

58.4 What Goods and Services Do Ecosystems Provide? 1223

58.5 How Can Ecosystems Be Sustainably Managed? 1224

59 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1228

59.1 What Is Conservation Biology? 1229

Conservation biology aims to protect and manage biodiversity 1229 Biodiversity has great value to human society 1230

59.2 How Do Conservation Biologists Predict Changes in Biodiversity? 1230

Our knowledge of biodiversity is incomplete 1230

We can predict the effects of human activities on biodiversity 1231

59.3 What Human Activities Threaten Species Persistence? 1232

Habitat losses endanger species 1233

- Overexploitation has driven many species to extinction 1234
- Invasive predators, competitors, and pathogens threaten many species 1235
- Rapid climate change can cause species extinctions 1236

59.4 What Strategies Are Used to Protect Biodiversity? 1237

- Protected areas preserve habitat and prevent overexploitation 1237
- Degraded ecosystems can be restored 1237
- Disturbance patterns sometimes need to be restored 1239 Ending trade is crucial to saving
- some species 1240 Species invasions must be
- controlled or prevented 1241 Biodiversity has economic
 - value 1241
- Changes in human-dominated landscapes can help protect biodiversity 1243
- Captive breeding programs can maintain a few species 1244
- Earth is not a ship, a spaceship, or an airplane 1244

APPENDIX A The Tree of Life 1248

APPENDIX B Statistics Primer 1255

APPENDIX C Some Measurements Used in Biology 1264

ANSWERS TO CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS A-1

GLOSSARY G-1

ILLUSTRATION CREDITS C-1

INDEX I-1