

FIFTH EDITION

FREEMAN
QUILLIN
ALLISON

BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE



Brief Contents

1 Biology and the Tree of Life 1

UNIT 1 THE MOLECULAR ORIGIN AND EVOLUTION OF LIFE 18

- 2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life 18
- 3 Protein Structure and Function 41
- 4 Nucleic Acids and the RNA World 57
- 5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates 72
- 6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells 84

UNIT 2 CELL STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION 106

- 7 Inside the Cell 106
- 8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolic Pathways 136
- 9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation 154
- 10 Photosynthesis 176
- 11 Cell–Cell Interactions 200
- 12 The Cell Cycle 219

UNIT 3 GENE STRUCTURE AND EXPRESSION 237

- 13 Meiosis 237
- 14 Mendel and the Gene 256
- 15 DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair 284
- 16 How Genes Work 304
- 17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation 317
- 18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria 336
- 19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes 348
- 20 Analyzing and Engineering Genes 368
- 21 Genomics and Beyond 389

UNIT 4 DEVELOPMENTAL BIOLOGY 405

- 22 Principles of Development 405
- 23 An Introduction to Animal Development 419
- 24 An Introduction to Plant Development 432

UNIT 5 EVOLUTIONARY PROCESSES AND PATTERNS 444

- 25 Evolution by Natural Selection 444
- 26 Evolutionary Processes 465
- 27 Speciation 489
- 28 Phylogenies and the History of Life 505

UNIT 6 THE DIVERSIFICATION OF LIFE 528

- 29 Bacteria and Archaea 528
- 30 Protists 552
- 31 Green Algae and Land Plants 577
- 32 Fungi 612
- 33 An Introduction to Animals 636
- 34 Protostome Animals 657
- 35 Deuterostome Animals 681
- 36 Viruses 711

UNIT 7 HOW PLANTS WORK 731

- 37 Plant Form and Function 731
- 38 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants 754
- 39 Plant Nutrition 775
- 40 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses 793
- 41 Plant Reproduction 822

UNIT 8 HOW ANIMALS WORK 842

- 42 Animal Form and Function 842
- 43 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Animals 861
- 44 Animal Nutrition 882
- 45 Gas Exchange and Circulation 902
- 46 Animal Nervous Systems 928
- 47 Animal Sensory Systems 952
- 48 Animal Movement 972
- 49 Chemical Signals in Animals 991
- 50 Animal Reproduction 1013
- 51 The Immune System in Animals 1037

UNIT 9 ECOLOGY 1059

- 52 An Introduction to Ecology 1059
- 53 Behavioral Ecology 1082
- 54 Population Ecology 1101
- 55 Community Ecology 1123
- 56 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1148
- 57 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1172

A Note from the Authors

You are about to embark on an amazing journey of discovery. The study of life spans from the inner workings of cells to the complex interactions of entire ecosystems, through the information stored in DNA to the ways genetic information evolves over time. At the same time that our understanding of biology is growing in leaps and bounds, so too are great insights into how learners acquire new knowledge and skills. We are thrilled to join Scott Freeman on *Biological Science*, a book dedicated to active, research-based learning and to exploring the experimental evidence that informs what we know about biology. The next few pages highlight the features in this book and in MasteringBiology® that will help you succeed.



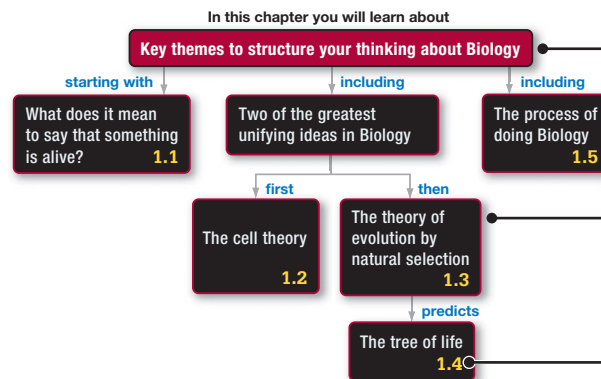
From left to right: Michael Black, Emily Taylor, Jon Monroe,
Lizabeth Allison, Greg Podgorski, Kim Quillin



To the Student: How to Use This Book

New chapter-opening Roadmaps visually group and organize information to help you anticipate key ideas as well as recognize meaningful relationships and connections between them.

1 Biology and the Tree of Life



Each Roadmap begins with a statement of why the chapter topic is important.

Key topics from each chapter are previewed, and related ideas are connected through blue linking words.

Chapter section numbers help you find key ideas easily in the chapter.

These Chinese Water Dragon hatchlings are exploring their new world and learning how to find food and stay alive. They represent one of the key characteristics of life introduced in this chapter: replication.



In essence, biological science is a search for ideas and observations that unify our understanding of the diversity of life, from bacteria living in rocks a mile underground to humans and majestic sequoia trees. This chapter is an introduction to this search.

The goals of this chapter are to introduce the nature of life and explore how biologists go about studying it. The chapter also introduces themes that will resonate throughout this book:

- Analyzing how organisms work at the molecular level.
- Understanding organisms in terms of their evolutionary history.
- Helping you learn to think like a biologist.

Let's begin with what may be the most fundamental question of all: What is life?

✓ When you see this checkmark, stop and test yourself. Answers are available in Appendix A.

BIG PICTURE

This chapter is part of the Big Picture. See how on pages 16–17.

Big Picture Concept Maps are referenced on the opening page of related chapters, pointing you to summary pages that help you synthesize challenging topics.

Big Picture Concept Maps

integrate visuals and words to help you synthesize information about challenging topics in biology that span multiple chapters and units.

The Big Picture

BIG PICTURE

Biologists study the characteristics of life. The cell theory, the theory of evolution by natural selection, and the tree of life are some of the great ideas in biology that came about by biologists asking questions that can be answered by observing or measuring things—that is, by collecting data.

Notice that the study of life is not a series of linear steps with a beginning and an end. Instead, the process of doing biology is dynamic and ongoing. The answer to one question may lay the foundation for twenty more questions. Working together, biologists from different disciplines integrate data across many levels, from atoms to the biosphere.

Note that the gray numbers in boxes tell you where to go for more information. Also, be sure to do the blue exercises in the Check Your Understanding box.

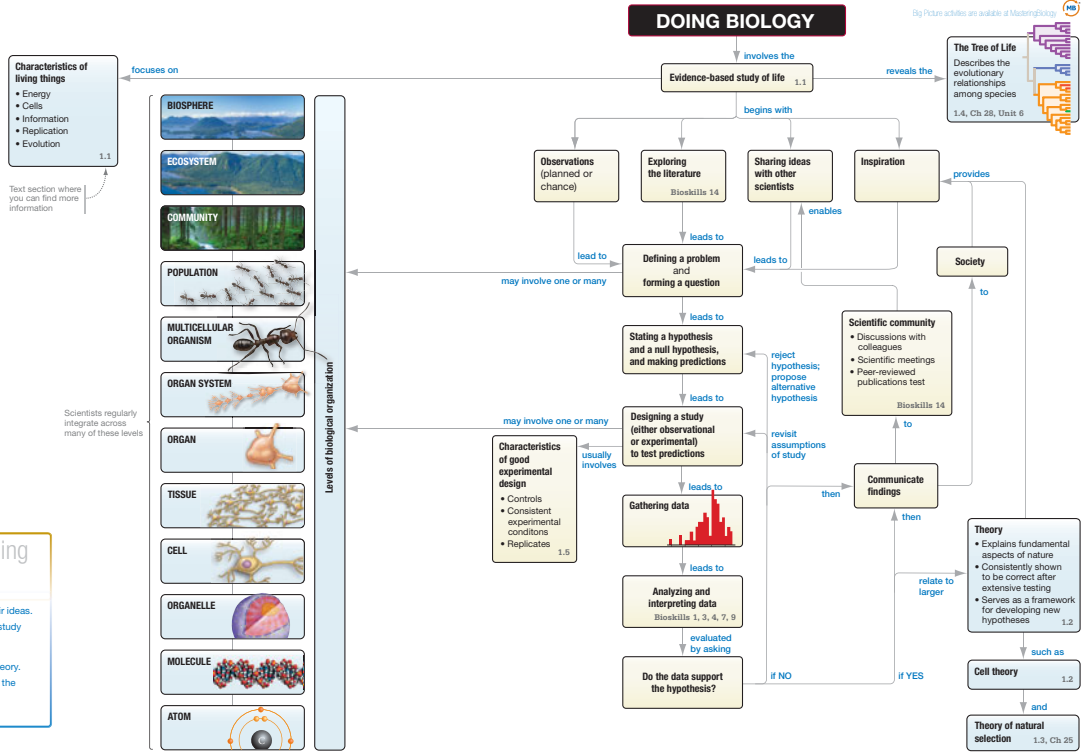
check your understanding

If you understand the big picture . . .

✓ You should be able to . . .

1. Describe how biologists go about testing their ideas.
2. Provide an example of how an experimental study could span more than one level of biological organization.
3. Compare and contrast a hypothesis with a theory.
4. Propose the next step to take if data support the hypothesis you are testing.

Answers are available in Appendix A.

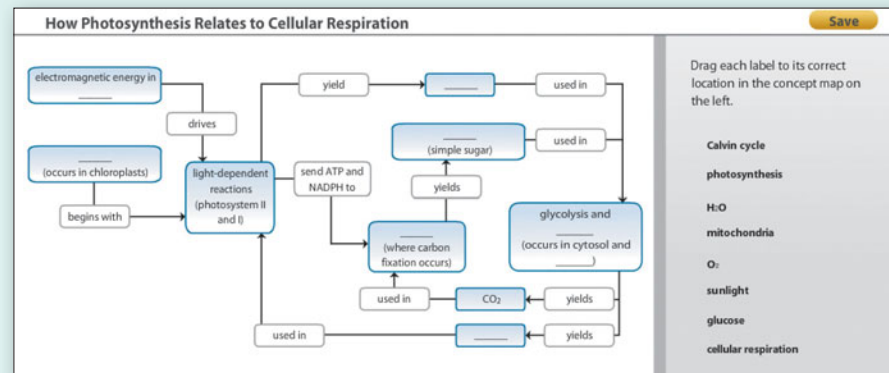


Three New Big Picture topics have been added to the Fifth Edition:

- **NEW!** Doing Biology
- **NEW!** The Chemistry of Life
- Energy for Life
- Genetic Information
- Evolution
- **NEW!** Plant and Animal Form and Function
- Ecology

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To reinforce the book's Big Picture Concept Maps, your professor may assign **Interactive Big Picture Concept Map** tutorials.

Practice for success on tests and exams

Intertwined color-coded “active learning threads” are embedded in the text. The gold thread helps you to identify important ideas, and the blue thread helps you to test your understanding.

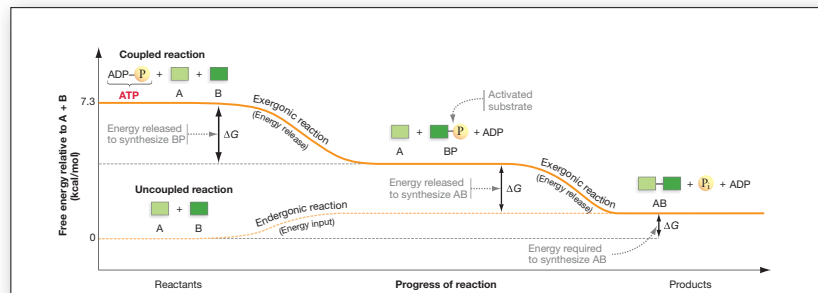


FIGURE 8.9 Exergonic Phosphorylation Reactions Are Coupled to Endergonic Reactions. In cells, many reactions only occur if one reactant is activated by phosphorylation. The phosphorylated reactant molecule has high enough free energy that the subsequent reaction is exergonic. In this graph, the free energy being tracked on the y-axis represents A, B, and the 7.3 kcal/mol that is released when ATP is hydrolyzed. For simplicity, the free energy in ADP and P_i is not shown. ΔG represents the change in free energy between the reactants and products for each indicated step.

EXERCISE Label the ΔG in the uncoupled reaction and the two steps of the coupled reaction to indicate if the change is representing a positive (> 0) or negative (< 0) value.

FIGURE 8.9 graphs how phosphorylation can couple exergonic and endergonic reactions. Note that the reaction between A and B to produce the product AB is endergonic—the ΔG is positive. But after the exergonic transfer of a phosphate group from ATP to B occurs, the free energy of the reactants A and BP is high enough to make the reaction that forms AB exergonic. When reactant molecules in an endergonic reaction are phosphorylated, the free energy released during phosphorylation is coupled to the endergonic reaction to make the combined overall reaction exergonic.

If you understand the principles of energetic coupling, you should be able to compare and contrast how energy is transferred via redox reactions and ATP hydrolysis.

It is hard to overstate the importance of energetic coupling. Without it, life is impossible. If the cells in your body could no longer drive endergonic reactions by coupling them to exergonic reactions, you would die within minutes.

Now the question is, What role do enzymes play in these reactions?

Embedded Blue Thread Questions and Exercises encourage you to stop and test your understanding of challenging topics.

Blue Thread Caption Questions and Exercises challenge you to critically examine information in figures and tables.

The Gold Thread helps you identify important concepts when reading and reviewing.

Check Your Understanding boxes ask you to work with the important concepts in the chapter.

check your understanding

C
Y
U

If you understand that . . .

- When redox reactions occur, electrons change position. Chemical energy is based on the positions of electrons in chemical bonds, so redox reactions usually involve a change in potential energy.
- ATP contains a cluster of three negatively charged phosphate groups.
- When ATP or phosphate groups from ATP bind to substrates, they gain a great deal of potential energy.

You should be able to . . .

- Explain why reduced molecules with many C–H bonds store more potential energy than oxidized molecules with many C–O bonds.
- Explain why ATP has such high potential energy.

Answers are available in Appendix A.

8.3 How Enzymes Work

Regardless of whether reactions in cells are spontaneous or not, none would occur at the speed required for life without the support of enzymes. How do they do it?

Recall that the initial hypothesis for how enzymes speed up reactions—the “lock-and-key” model—was first proposed in 1894 by Emil Fischer (introduced in Chapter 3). In this model, the substrates would fit into enzymes and react in a manner analogous to a key being inserted into a lock. In other words, enzymes are **catalysts**—they bring substrates together in a precise orientation that makes reactions more likely. Fischer’s model also explained why many enzymes are specific for a single reaction—specificity is a product of the geometry and chemical properties of the sites where substrates bind.

Enzymes Help Reactions Clear Two Hurdles

Recall that two hurdles must be cleared before reactions can take place: Reactants need to (1) collide in a precise orientation and

8.2 Nonspontaneous Reactions May Be Driven Using Chemical Energy

- Redox reactions transfer energy by coupling exergonic oxidation reactions to endergonic reduction reactions.
 - High-energy C–H bonds may be formed during the reduction step of a redox reaction when an H^+ is combined with a transferred electron.
 - The hydrolysis of ATP is an exergonic reaction and may be used to drive a variety of cellular processes.
 - When a phosphate group from ATP is added to a substrate that participates in an endergonic reaction, the potential energy of the substrate is raised enough to make the reaction exergonic and thus spontaneous.
- You should be able to explain what energetic coupling means, and why life would not exist without it.**

8.3 How Enzymes Work

- Enzymes are protein catalysts. They speed reaction rates but do not affect the change in free energy of the reaction.
- The structure of an enzyme has an active site that brings sub-

- Protein cleavage and phosphorylation are examples of how enzymes may be regulated by modifying their primary structure.
- You should be able to compare and contrast the effect of allosteric regulation versus phosphorylation on enzyme function.**

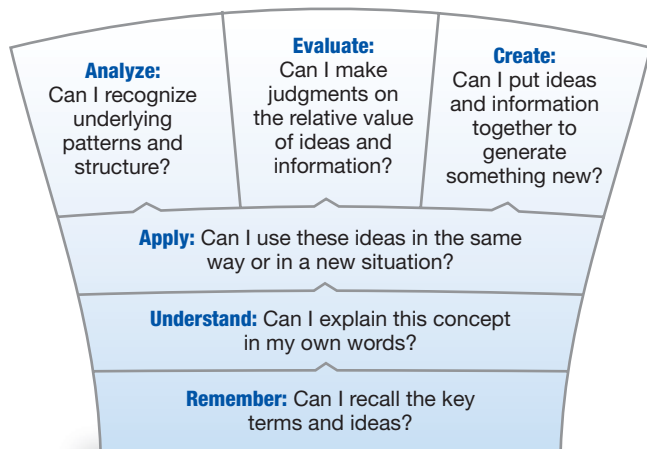
8.5 Enzymes Can Work Together in Metabolic Pathways

- In cells, enzymes often work together in metabolic pathways that sequentially modify a substrate to make a product.
 - A pathway may be regulated by controlling the activity of one enzyme, often the first in the series of reactions. Feedback inhibition results from the accumulation of a product that binds to an enzyme in the pathway and inactivates it.
 - Metabolic pathways were vital to the evolution of life, and new pathways continue to evolve in cells.
- You should be able to predict how the removal of the intermediate in a two-step metabolic pathway would affect the enzymatic rates of the first and last.**

End-of-Chapter Blue Thread Exercises, integrated in the chapter summary, help you review the major themes of the chapter and synthesize information.

Identify gaps in your understanding, then fill them

The Fifth Edition provides many opportunities for you to test yourself and offers **helpful learning strategies**.



▶ **Bloom's Taxonomy** describes six learning levels: Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyze, Evaluate, and Create. Questions in the book span all levels, including self-testing at the higher levels to help you develop higher-order thinking skills that will prepare you for exams.

Steps to Building Understanding

Each chapter ends with three groups of questions that build in difficulty:

✓ TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

Begin by testing your basic knowledge of new information.

✓ TEST YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Once you're confident with the basics, demonstrate your deeper understanding of the material.

✓ TEST YOUR PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS

Work towards mastery of the content by answering questions that challenge you at the highest level of competency.

BIO SKILL 16 Using Bloom's taxonomy

Most students have at one time or another wondered why a particular question on an exam seemed so hard, while others seemed easy. The explanation lies in the type of cognitive skills required to answer the question. Let's take a closer look.

▶ **NEW! BioSkill Covering Bloom's Taxonomy** helps you to recognize question types using the Bloom's cognitive hierarchy, and it provides specific strategies to help you study for questions at all six levels.

Answer Appendix Includes Bloom's Taxonomy Information

Answers to all questions in the text now include the Bloom's level being tested. You can simultaneously practice assessing your understanding of content and recognizing Bloom's levels. Combining this information with the guidance in the BioSkill on Bloom's Taxonomy will help you form a plan to improve your study skills.

✓ Test Your Problem-Solving Skills

13. **analyze** A scientific theory is not a guess—it is an idea whose validity can be tested with data. Both the cell theory and the theory of evolution have been validated by large bodies of observational and experimental data.

14. **apply** If all eukaryotes living today have a nucleus, then it is logical to conclude that the nucleus arose in a common ancestor of all eukaryotes, indicated by the arrow you should have added to the figure. See **FIGURE A1.2**. If it had arisen in a common ancestor of Bacteria or Archaea, then species in those groups would have had to lose the trait—an unlikely event.

15. **evaluate** The data set was so large and diverse that it was no longer reasonable to argue that noncellular life-forms would be discovered. 16. **apply** b

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NEW! End-of-chapter questions from the book are now available for your professor to assign as homework in MasteringBiology.

Practice scientific thinking and scientific skills

A unique emphasis on the **process of scientific discovery and experimental design** teaches you how to think like a scientist as you learn fundamental biology concepts.

RESEARCH

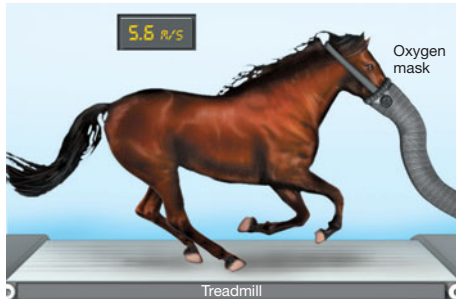
QUESTION: Do horses minimize the cost of locomotion?

HYPOTHESIS: Horses choose gaits that minimize energy use at different speeds.

NULL HYPOTHESIS: Horses do not choose gaits based on cost of locomotion.

EXPERIMENTAL SETUP:

1. Measure oxygen consumption of horses trained to walk, trot, and gallop at a range of speeds on a treadmill. Calculate energy used per distance travelled at different speeds.

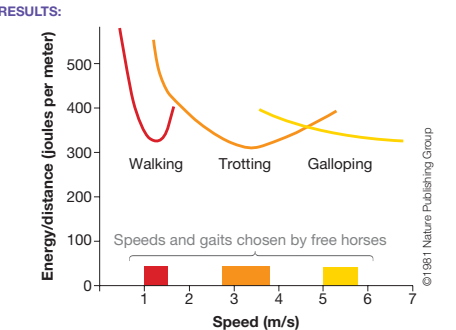


2. Videotape the same horses locomoting freely in the paddock, and measure the gaits and speeds they choose to use naturally.

PREDICTION: For each gait, there is a range of speeds where energy use is minimized. Horses will favor these gaits and speeds.

PREDICTION OF NULL HYPOTHESIS: There will be no correlation between chosen gaits and energy consumption.

RESULTS:



CONCLUSION: Horses choose gaits that minimize energy use at different speeds and avoid speeds with high energy consumption.

FIGURE 48.16 Horses Minimize the Cost of Locomotion by Choosing Appropriate Gaits.

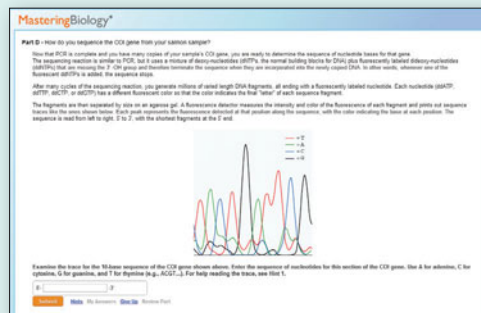
SOURCE: Hoyt, D. F., and C. R. Taylor. 1981. Gait and the energetics of locomotion in horses. *Nature* 292: 239–240.

▶ **QUANTITATIVE** Use the graph to estimate the relative energy expense of galloping rather than trotting at 3.5 meters/second (m/s).

▶ All of the **Research Boxes** cite the original research paper and include a question that asks you to analyze the design of the experiment or study.

▶ **Research Boxes** explain how research studies are designed and give you additional practice interpreting data. Each Research Box consistently models the scientific method, presenting the research question, hypotheses, experimental setup, predictions, results, and conclusion. 15 Research Boxes are new to the Fifth Edition.

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▶ **NEW! Solve It Tutorials** are available for homework assignments in MasteringBiology and give you an opportunity to work like a scientist through a simulated investigation that requires you to analyze and interpret data.

Experimental Inquiry Tutorials based on some of biology's most seminal experiments give you a chance to analyze data and the reasoning that led scientists from the data to their conclusions.

Experimental Inquiry tutorial topics include:

- What Can You Learn About the Process of Science from Investigating a Cricket's Chirp?
- Which Wavelengths of Light Drive Photosynthesis?
- What Is the Inheritance Pattern of Sex-Linked Traits?
- Does DNA Replication Follow the Conservative, Semiconservative, or Dispersive Model?
- How Do Calcium Ions Help to Prevent Polyspermy During Egg Fertilization?
- Did Natural Selection of Ground Finches Occur When the Environment Changed?
- What Effect Does Auxin Have on Coleoptile Growth?
- What Role Do Genes Play in Appetite Regulation?
- Can a Species' Niche Be Influenced by Interspecific Competition?
- What Factors Influence the Loss of Nutrients from a Forest Ecosystem?

Build important skills scientists use to perform, evaluate, and communicate scientific research.

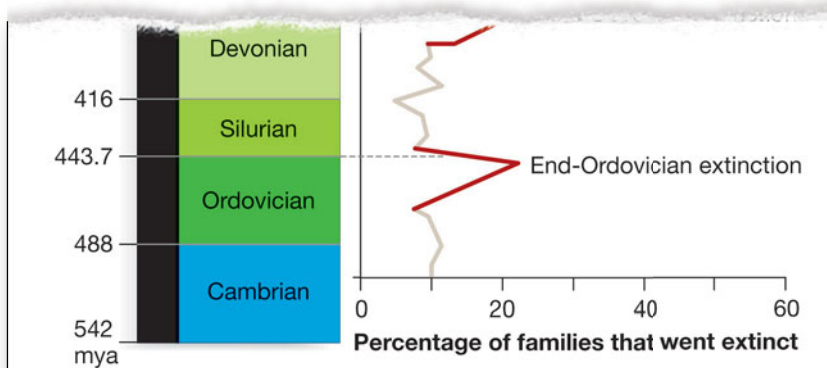


FIGURE 28.14 The Big Five Mass Extinction Events. This graph shows the percentage of lineages called families that went extinct over each interval in the fossil record since the Cambrian explosion. Over 50 percent of families and 90 percent of species went extinct during the end-Permian extinction.

DATA: Benton, M. J., 1995. *Science* 268: 52–58.

✓ **QUANTITATIVE** Which extinction event ended the era of the dinosaurs 65 million years ago? About what percentage of families went extinct?

NEW! Graphs and tables now include their data sources, emphasizing the research process that leads to our understanding of biological ideas.

NEW! Quantitative questions are identified throughout the text, helping you practice computational problem solving and data analysis.

Expanded BioSkills Appendix helps you build skills that will be important to your success in biology. At relevant points in the text, you'll find references to the BioSkills appendix that will help you learn and practice foundational skills.

BioSkills Topics include:

- The Metric System and Significant Figures
- Some Common Latin and Greek Roots Used in Biology
- Reading Graphs
- Using Statistical Tests and Interpreting Standard Error Bars
- Combining Probabilities

- Using Logarithms
- Reading a Phylogenetic Tree
- Reading Chemical Structures
- Separating and Visualizing Molecules
- Separating Cell Components by Centrifugation
- Biological Imaging: Microscopy and X-ray Crystallography

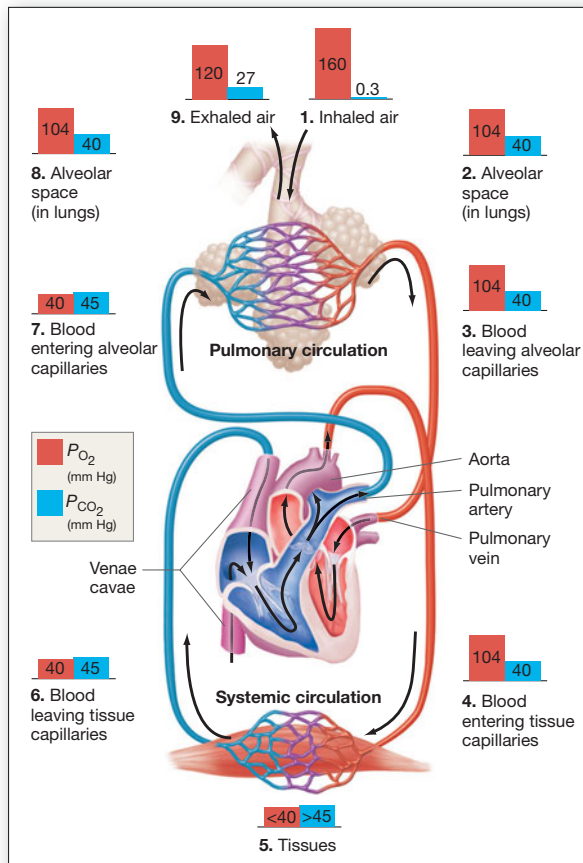
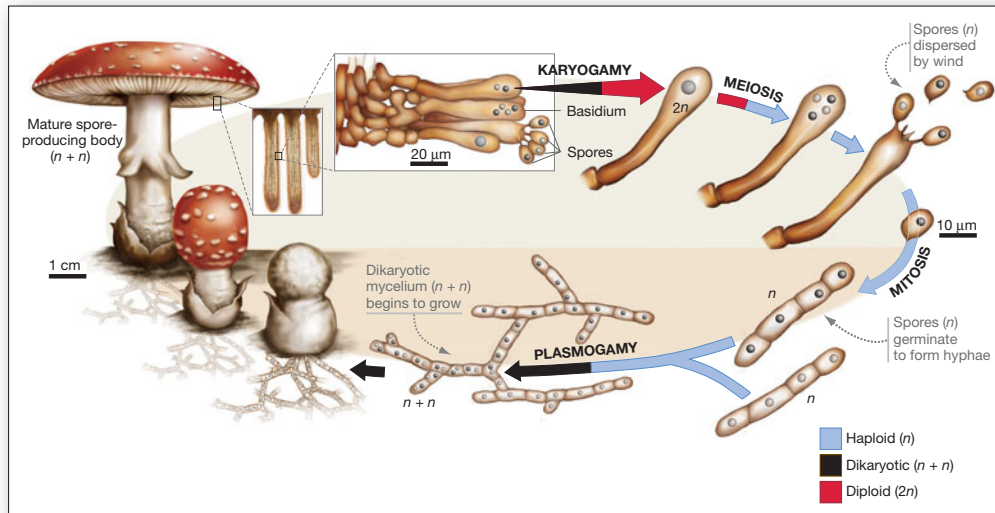
- Cell and Tissue Culture Methods
- Model Organisms
- **NEW!** Primary Literature and Peer Review
- Making Concept Maps
- **NEW!** Using Bloom's Taxonomy

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You can access self-paced **BioSkills** activities in the Study Area, and your instructor can assign additional activities in MasteringBiology.

Visualize biology processes and structures

A carefully crafted visual program helps you gain a better understanding of biology through accurate, appropriately detailed figures.



Informative figures help you think through complex biological processes in manageable steps.

SUMMARY TABLE 28.3 Branch Lengths in Phylogenetic Trees

Graphical Symbol	Meaning of Branch Lengths
	Branch lengths are <i>arbitrary</i> . Emphasis is on the branching <i>pattern</i> , which estimates evolutionary relationships among populations. This is the type of tree used in this book.
	Horizontal branch lengths show the extent of <i>genetic difference</i> among populations. A scale bar is included.
	Horizontal branch lengths show the extent of <i>evolutionary time</i> between nodes. A scale bar is included.

Visual Summary Tables pull together important information in a format that allows for easy comparison and review.

Instructor and Student Resources

For Instructors

Instructor Resource DVD-ROM

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Everything you need for lectures in one place, including video segments that demonstrate how to incorporate active-learning techniques into your own classroom. Enhanced menus make locating and assessing the digital resources for each chapter easy. The Instructor Resource CD/DVD-ROM includes PowerPoint® Lecture Outlines that integrate figures and animations for classroom presentations. All textbook figures, art, and photos are in JPEG format, and all PowerPoint slides and JPEGs have editable labels. Over 300 Instructor Animations accurately depict complex topics and dynamic processes described in the book.

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Available in the instructor resource area of MasteringBiology®

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All of the exam questions in the Test Bank have been peer reviewed and student tested, providing questions that set the standard for quality and accuracy. To improve the Test Bank, Metadata from MasteringBiology users has been incorporated directly into the software. Test questions that are ranked according to Bloom's taxonomy and improved TestGen® software makes assembling tests that much easier.

For Students

Study Guide

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The Study Guide presents a breakdown of key biological concepts, difficult topics, and quizzes to help students prepare for exams. Unique to this study guide are four introductory, stand-alone chapters that introduce students to foundational ideas and skills necessary for classroom success: Introduction to Experimentation and Research in the Biological Sciences, Presenting Biological Data, Understanding Patterns in Biology and Improving Study Techniques, and Reading and Writing to Understand Biology. "Looking Forward" and "Looking Back" sections help students make connections across the chapters instead of viewing them as discrete entities.

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MasteringBiology is an online homework, tutorial, and assessment system that delivers self-paced tutorials that provide individualized coaching, focus on your course objectives, and respond to each student's progress. The Mastering system helps instructors maximize class time with customizable, easy-to-assign, and automatically graded assessments that motivate students to learn outside of class and arrive prepared for lecture. MasteringBiology is also available with a complete Pearson eText edition of *Biological Science*.

Highlights of the Fifth Edition Item Library include:

- * **NEW! assignment options** include Solve It activities, end-of-chapter problems, and questions that accompany new BioSkills and new Big Picture Interactive Concept Maps.
- * **NEW! "best of" homework pre-built assignments** help professors assign popular, key content quickly, including a blend of tutorials, end-of-chapter problems, and test bank questions.

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BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

**After you explore this book . . .
you should be able to . . .**

- Pose an evolutionary hypothesis to explain why meter-long male water dragons are larger and have more colorful throats than the females.
- Propose how DNA sequences could be used to determine the relationships among populations of these lizards in China, India, and Southeast Asia.
- Design an experiment to study the relative importance of swimming, tree climbing, and running to the ability of these semi-aquatic lizards to find food and escape from predators.
- Create questions of your own and suggest methods for finding the answers!

**Chinese Water Dragon,
*Physignathus cocincinus***



BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

FIFTH EDITION

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Detailed Contents

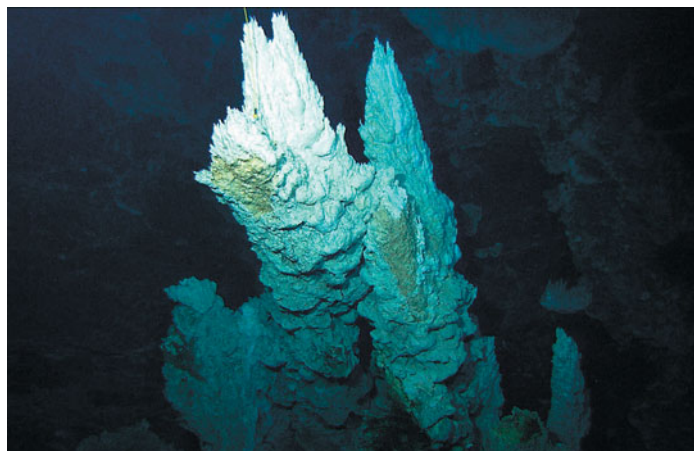
1 Biology and the Tree of Life 1

- 1.1 **What Does It Mean to Say That Something Is Alive?** 2
- 1.2 **The Cell Theory** 2
 - All Organisms Are Made of Cells 2
 - Where Do Cells Come From? 3
- 1.3 **The Theory of Evolution by Natural Selection** 5
 - What Is Evolution? 5
 - What Is Natural Selection? 5
- 1.4 **The Tree of Life** 6
 - Using Molecules to Understand the Tree of Life 6
 - How Should We Name Branches on the Tree of Life? 8
- 1.5 **Doing Biology** 9
 - The Nature of Science 9
 - Why Do Giraffes Have Long Necks? An Introduction to Hypothesis Testing 9
 - How Do Ants Navigate? An Introduction to Experimental Design 11
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 14
 - BIG PICTURE** DOING BIOLOGY 16

UNIT 1 THE MOLECULAR ORIGIN AND EVOLUTION OF LIFE 18

2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life 18

- 2.1 **Atoms, Ions, and Molecules: The Building Blocks of Chemical Evolution** 19
 - Basic Atomic Structure 19
 - How Does Covalent Bonding Hold Molecules Together? 21
 - Ionic Bonding, Ions, and the Electron-Sharing Continuum 22
 - Some Simple Molecules Formed from C, H, N, and O 23



The Geometry of Simple Molecules 23
Representing Molecules 24

- 2.2 **Properties of Water and the Early Oceans** 25
 - Why Is Water Such an Efficient Solvent? 25
 - What Properties Are Correlated with Water's Structure? 26
 - The Role of Water in Acid-Base Reactions 28
- 2.3 **Chemical Reactions, Energy, and Chemical Evolution** 30
 - How Do Chemical Reactions Happen? 30
 - What Is Energy? 31
 - What Makes a Chemical Reaction Spontaneous? 31
- 2.4 **Investigating Chemical Evolution: Approaches and Model Systems** 32
 - Early Origin-of-Life Experiments 33
 - Recent Origin-of-Life Experiments 34
- 2.5 **The Importance of Organic Molecules** 36
 - Linking Carbon Atoms Together 36
 - Functional Groups 37
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 38

3 Protein Structure and Function 41

- 3.1 **Amino Acids and Their Polymerization** 42
 - The Structure of Amino Acids 42
 - The Nature of Side Chains 42
 - How Do Amino Acids Link to Form Proteins? 44
- 3.2 **What Do Proteins Look Like?** 47
 - Primary Structure 48
 - Secondary Structure 48
 - Tertiary Structure 49
 - Quaternary Structure 50
- 3.3 **Folding and Function** 52
 - Normal Folding Is Crucial to Function 52
 - Protein Shape Is Flexible 53
- 3.4 **Proteins Are the Most Versatile Macromolecules in Cells** 54
 - Why Are Enzymes Good Catalysts? 54
 - Was the First Living Entity a Protein Catalyst? 55
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 55

4 Nucleic Acids and the RNA World 57

- 4.1 **What Is a Nucleic Acid?** 58
 - Could Chemical Evolution Result in the Production of Nucleotides? 59
 - How Do Nucleotides Polymerize to Form Nucleic Acids? 59
- 4.2 **DNA Structure and Function** 61
 - What Is the Nature of DNA's Secondary Structure? 61
 - DNA Functions as an Information-Containing Molecule 64

- Is DNA a Catalytic Molecule? 64
- 4.3 RNA Structure and Function 65**
Structurally, RNA Differs from DNA 65
RNA's Structure Makes It an Extraordinarily Versatile Molecule 66
RNA Is an Information-Containing Molecule 67
RNA Can Function as a Catalytic Molecule 67
- 4.4 In Search of the First Life-Form 68**
How Biologists Study the RNA World 68
The RNA World May Have Sparked the Evolution of Life 69
CHAPTER REVIEW 69

5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates 72

- 5.1 Sugars as Monomers 73**
What Distinguishes One Monosaccharide from Another? 73
Monosaccharides and Chemical Evolution 74
- 5.2 The Structure of Polysaccharides 75**
Starch: A Storage Polysaccharide in Plants 76
Glycogen: A Highly Branched Storage Polysaccharide in Animals 76
Cellulose: A Structural Polysaccharide in Plants 76
Chitin: A Structural Polysaccharide in Fungi and Animals 76
Peptidoglycan: A Structural Polysaccharide in Bacteria 76
Polysaccharides and Chemical Evolution 78
- 5.3 What Do Carbohydrates Do? 78**
Carbohydrates Can Provide Structural Support 78
The Role of Carbohydrates in Cell Identity 78
Carbohydrates and Energy Storage 80
CHAPTER REVIEW 81

6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells 84

- 6.1 Lipid Structure and Function 85**
Bond Saturation Is an Important Aspect of Hydrocarbon Structure 85
A Look at Three Types of Lipids Found in Cells 86
The Structures of Membrane Lipids 87
Were Lipids Present during Chemical Evolution? 88
- 6.2 Phospholipid Bilayers 88**
Artificial Membranes as an Experimental System 88
Selective Permeability of Lipid Bilayers 89
How Does Lipid Structure Affect Membrane Permeability? 90
How Does Temperature Affect the Fluidity and Permeability of Membranes? 90
- 6.3 How Molecules Move across Lipid Bilayers: Diffusion and Osmosis 91**
Diffusion 91
Osmosis 92
Membranes and Chemical Evolution 93
- 6.4 Membrane Proteins 94**
Development of the Fluid-Mosaic Model 94
Systems for Studying Membrane Proteins 96
Facilitated Diffusion via Channel Proteins 96
Facilitated Diffusion via Carrier Proteins 99
Pumps Perform Active Transport 99

UNIT 2 CELL STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION 106

7 Inside the Cell 106

- 7.1 Bacterial and Archaeal Cell Structures and Their Functions 107**
A Revolutionary New View 107
Prokaryotic Cell Structures: A Parts List 107
- 7.2 Eukaryotic Cell Structures and Their Functions 110**
The Benefits of Organelles 110
Eukaryotic Cell Structures: A Parts List 110
- 7.3 Putting the Parts into a Whole 118**
Structure and Function at the Whole-Cell Level 118
The Dynamic Cell 118
- 7.4 Cell Systems I: Nuclear Transport 119**
Structure and Function of the Nuclear Envelope 119
How Do Large Molecules Enter the Nucleus? 120
- 7.5 Cell Systems II: The Endomembrane System Manufactures, Ships, and Recycles Cargo 121**
Studying the Pathway through the Endomembrane System 121
Entering the Endomembrane System: The Signal Hypothesis 123
Moving from the ER to the Golgi 124
What Happens Inside the Golgi Apparatus? 124
How Do Proteins Reach Their Destinations? 125
Recycling Material in the Lysosome 126
- 7.6 Cell Systems III: The Dynamic Cytoskeleton 127**
Actin Filaments 127
Intermediate Filaments 129
Microtubules 129
Flagella and Cilia: Moving the Entire Cell 131
CHAPTER REVIEW 133

8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolic Pathways 136

- 8.1 What Happens to Energy in Chemical Reactions? 137**
Chemical Reactions Involve Energy Transformations 137
Temperature and Concentration Affect Reaction Rates 139
- 8.2 Nonspontaneous Reactions May Be Driven Using Chemical Energy 139**
Redox Reactions Transfer Energy via Electrons 141
ATP Transfers Energy via Phosphate Groups 143
- 8.3 How Enzymes Work 144**
Enzymes Help Reactions Clear Two Hurdles 144
What Limits the Rate of Catalysis? 147
Do Enzymes Work Alone? 147
- 8.4 What Factors Affect Enzyme Function? 148**
Enzymes Are Optimized for Particular Environments 148
Most Enzymes Are Regulated 149

8.5 Enzymes Can Work Together in Metabolic Pathways 150

Metabolic Pathways Are Regulated 150

Metabolic Pathways Evolve 150

CHAPTER REVIEW 152

9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation 154

9.1 An Overview of Cellular Respiration 155

What Happens When Glucose Is Oxidized? 155

Cellular Respiration Plays a Central Role in Metabolism 156

9.2 Glycolysis: Processing Glucose to Pyruvate 158

Glycolysis Is a Sequence of 10 Reactions 159

How Is Glycolysis Regulated? 159

9.3 Processing Pyruvate to Acetyl CoA 161

9.4 The Citric Acid Cycle:

Oxidizing Acetyl CoA to CO₂ 162

How Is the Citric Acid Cycle Regulated? 162

What Happens to the NADH and FADH₂? 164

9.5 Electron Transport and Chemiosmosis:

Building a Proton Gradient to Produce ATP 166

The Electron Transport Chain 166

The Discovery of ATP Synthase 168

The Chemiosmosis Hypothesis 169

Organisms Use a Diversity of Electron Acceptors 170

9.6 Fermentation 172

CHAPTER REVIEW 173

10 Photosynthesis 176

10.1 Photosynthesis Harnesses Sunlight to Make Carbohydrate 177

Photosynthesis: Two Linked Sets of Reactions 177

Photosynthesis Occurs in Chloroplasts 178

10.2 How Do Pigments Capture Light Energy? 179

Photosynthetic Pigments Absorb Light 179

When Light Is Absorbed, Electrons Enter an Excited State 182

10.3 The Discovery of Photosystems I and II 184

How Does Photosystem II Work? 184

How Does Photosystem I Work? 186

The Z Scheme: Photosystems II and I Work Together 187

10.4 How Is Carbon Dioxide Reduced to Produce Sugars? 190

The Calvin Cycle Fixes Carbon 190

The Discovery of Rubisco 192

Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Pass through Stomata 192

Mechanisms for Increasing CO₂ Concentration 193

How Is Photosynthesis Regulated? 195

What Happens to the Sugar That Is Produced by Photosynthesis? 195

CHAPTER REVIEW 196

BIG PICTURE ENERGY FOR LIFE 198

11 Cell–Cell Interactions 200

11.1 The Cell Surface 201

The Structure and Function of an Extracellular Layer 201

The Cell Wall in Plants 201

The Extracellular Matrix in Animals 202

11.2 How Do Adjacent Cells Connect and Communicate? 204

Cell–Cell Attachments in Multicellular Eukaryotes 204

Cells Communicate via Cell–Cell Gaps 207

11.3 How Do Distant Cells Communicate? 209

Cell–Cell Signaling in Multicellular Organisms 209

Signal Reception 210

Signal Processing 210

Signal Response 214

Signal Deactivation 214

Crosstalk: Synthesizing Input from Many Signals 215

11.4 Signaling between Unicellular Organisms 215

Responding to Sex Pheromones 215

Responding to Population Density 216

CHAPTER REVIEW 217

12 The Cell Cycle 219

12.1 How Do Cells Replicate? 220

What Is a Chromosome? 220

Cells Alternate between M Phase and Interphase 220

The Discovery of S Phase 220

The Discovery of the Gap Phases 221

The Cell Cycle 222

12.2 What Happens during M Phase? 223

Events in Mitosis 223

How Do Chromosomes Move during Anaphase? 226

Cytokinesis Results in Two Daughter Cells 227

12.3 Control of the Cell Cycle 229

The Discovery of Cell-Cycle Regulatory Molecules 229

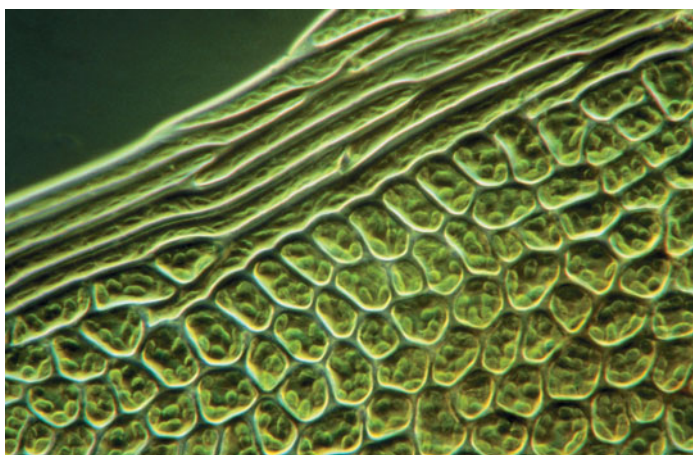
Cell-Cycle Checkpoints Can Arrest the Cell Cycle 231

12.4 Cancer: Out-of-Control Cell Division 232

Properties of Cancer Cells 233

Cancer Involves Loss of Cell-Cycle Control 233

CHAPTER REVIEW 235



13 Meiosis 237

- 13.1 How Does Meiosis Occur?** 238
 Chromosomes Come in Distinct Sizes and Shapes 238
 The Concept of Ploidy 238
 An Overview of Meiosis 239
 The Phases of Meiosis I 242
 The Phases of Meiosis II 244
 A Closer Look at Synapsis and Crossing Over 246
- 13.2 Meiosis Promotes Genetic Variation** 247
 Chromosomes and Heredity 247
 The Role of Independent Assortment 247
 The Role of Crossing Over 248
 How Does Fertilization Affect Genetic Variation? 248
- 13.3 What Happens When Things Go Wrong in Meiosis?** 249
 How Do Mistakes Occur? 249
 Why Do Mistakes Occur? 250
- 13.4 Why Does Meiosis Exist?** 251
 The Paradox of Sex 251
 The Purifying Selection Hypothesis 252
 The Changing-Environment Hypothesis 253
 CHAPTER REVIEW 253

14 Mendel and the Gene 256

- 14.1 Mendel's Experimental System** 257
 What Questions Was Mendel Trying to Answer? 257
 The Garden Pea Served as the First Model Organism in Genetics 257
- 14.2 Mendel's Experiments with a Single Trait** 259
 The Monohybrid Cross 259
 Particulate Inheritance 261
- 14.3 Mendel's Experiments with Two Traits** 263
 The Dihybrid Cross 263
 Using a Testcross to Confirm Predictions 265
- 14.4 The Chromosome Theory of Inheritance** 266
 Meiosis Explains Mendel's Principles 266
 Testing the Chromosome Theory 267



- 14.5 Extending Mendel's Rules** 269
 Linkage: What Happens When Genes Are Located on the Same Chromosome? 270
 How Many Alleles Can a Gene Have? 271
 Are Alleles Always Dominant or Recessive? 272
 Does Each Gene Affect Just One Trait? 272
 Is There More to Phenotype than Genotype? 273
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 14.1 Linkage 274
 Can Mendel's Principles Explain Traits That Don't Fall into Distinct Categories? 275
- 14.6 Applying Mendel's Rules to Human Inheritance** 277
 Identifying Human Alleles as Recessive or Dominant 277
 Identifying Human Traits as Autosomal or Sex-Linked 278
 CHAPTER REVIEW 279

15 DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair 284

- 15.1 What Are Genes Made Of?** 285
 The Hershey–Chase Experiment 285
 The Secondary Structure of DNA 286
- 15.2 Testing Early Hypotheses about DNA Synthesis** 287
 Three Alternative Hypotheses 287
 The Meselson–Stahl Experiment 289
- 15.3 A Model for DNA Synthesis** 289
 How Does Replication Get Started? 290
 How Is the Helix Opened and Stabilized? 290
 How Is the Leading Strand Synthesized? 291
 How Is the Lagging Strand Synthesized? 292
- 15.4 Replicating the Ends of Linear Chromosomes** 295
 The End Replication Problem 295
 Telomerase Solves the End Replication Problem 296
 Telomerase Regulation 297
- 15.5 Repairing Mistakes and DNA Damage** 297
 Correcting Mistakes in DNA Synthesis 298
 Repairing Damaged DNA 299
 Xeroderma Pigmentosum: A Case Study 299
 CHAPTER REVIEW 301

16 How Genes Work 304

- 16.1 What Do Genes Do?** 305
 The One-Gene, One-Enzyme Hypothesis 305
 An Experimental Test of the Hypothesis 305
- 16.2 The Central Dogma of Molecular Biology** 307
 The Genetic Code Hypothesis 307
 RNA as the Intermediary between Genes and Proteins 307
 Dissecting the Central Dogma 308
- 16.3 The Genetic Code** 310
 How Long Is a Word in the Genetic Code? 310
 How Did Researchers Crack the Code? 311
- 16.4 How Can Mutation Modify Genes and Chromosomes?** 313
 Point Mutation 313
 Chromosome Mutations 314
 CHAPTER REVIEW 315

17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation 317

- 17.1 **An Overview of Transcription** 318
 - Initiation: How Does Transcription Begin in Bacteria? 318
 - Elongation and Termination 320
 - Transcription in Eukaryotes 320
- 17.2 **RNA Processing in Eukaryotes** 321
 - The Startling Discovery of Split Eukaryotic Genes 321
 - RNA Splicing 322
 - Adding Caps and Tails to Transcripts 323
- 17.3 **An Introduction to Translation** 324
 - Ribosomes Are the Site of Protein Synthesis 324
 - Translation in Bacteria and Eukaryotes 324
 - How Does an mRNA Triplet Specify an Amino Acid? 325
- 17.4 **The Structure and Function of Transfer RNA** 326
 - What Do tRNAs Look Like? 327
 - How Are Amino Acids Attached to tRNAs? 327
 - How Many tRNAs Are There? 327
- 17.5 **The Structure and Function of Ribosomes** 328
 - Initiating Translation 329
 - Elongation: Extending the Polypeptide 330
 - Terminating Translation 331
 - Post-Translational Modifications 331
- CHAPTER REVIEW 333

18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria 336

- 18.1 **An Overview of Gene Regulation and Information Flow** 337
 - Mechanisms of Regulation 337
 - Metabolizing Lactose—A Model System 338
- 18.2 **Identifying Regulated Genes** 339
 - Replica Plating to Find Lactose Metabolism Mutants 339
 - Several Genes Are Involved in Lactose Metabolism 339
- 18.3 **Negative Control of Transcription** 341
 - The Operon Model 342
 - How Does Glucose Regulate the *lac* Operon? 343
 - Why Has the *lac* Operon Model Been So Important? 343
- 18.4 **Positive Control of Transcription** 344
- 18.5 **Global Gene Regulation** 344
- CHAPTER REVIEW 346

19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes 348

- 19.1 **Gene Regulation in Eukaryotes—An Overview** 349
- 19.2 **Chromatin Remodeling** 349
 - What Is Chromatin's Basic Structure? 350
 - Evidence that Chromatin Structure Is Altered in Active Genes 351
 - How Is Chromatin Altered? 351
 - Chromatin Modifications Can Be Inherited 352
- 19.3 **Initiating Transcription: Regulatory Sequences and Regulatory Proteins** 353

- Promoter-Proximal Elements Are Regulatory Sequences Near the Promoter 354
- Enhancers Are Regulatory Sequences Far from the Promoter 354
- The Role of Transcription Factors in Differential Gene Expression 354
- How Do Transcription Factors Recognize Specific DNA Sequences? 355
- A Model for Transcription Initiation 356
- 19.4 **Post-Transcriptional Control** 356
 - Alternative Splicing of mRNAs 357
 - mRNA Stability and RNA Interference 358
 - How Is Translation Controlled? 359
 - Post-Translational Control 360
- 19.5 **How Does Gene Expression Compare in Bacteria and Eukaryotes?** 360
- 19.6 **Linking Cancer with Defects in Gene Regulation** 361
 - The Genetic Basis of Uncontrolled Cell Growth 361
 - The *p53* Tumor Suppressor: A Case Study 361
- CHAPTER REVIEW 363

 GENETIC INFORMATION 366

20 Analyzing and Engineering Genes 368

- 20.1 **Case 1—The Effort to Cure Pituitary Dwarfism: Basic Recombinant DNA Technologies** 369
 - Why Did Early Efforts to Treat the Disease Fail? 369
 - Steps in Engineering a Safe Supply of Growth Hormone 370
 - Ethical Concerns over Recombinant Growth Hormone 374
- 20.2 **Case 2—Amplification of Fossil DNA: The Polymerase Chain Reaction** 374
 - Requirements of PCR 374
 - PCR in Action 376
- 20.3 **Case 3—Sanger's Breakthrough: Dideoxy DNA Sequencing** 376
 - The Logic of Dideoxy Sequencing 377
 - "Next Generation" Sequencing 378
- 20.4 **Case 4—The Huntington's Disease Story: Finding Genes by Mapping** 378
 - How Was the Huntington's Disease Gene Found? 378
 - What Are the Benefits of Finding a Disease Gene? 382
 - Ethical Concerns over Genetic Testing 382
- 20.5 **Case 5—Severe Immune Disorders: The Potential of Gene Therapy** 383
 - How Can Genes Be Introduced into Human Cells? 383
 - Using Gene Therapy to Treat X-Linked Immune Deficiency 383
 - Ethical Concerns over Gene Therapy 384
- 20.6 **Case 6—The Development of Golden Rice: Biotechnology in Agriculture** 385
 - Rice as a Target Crop 385
 - Synthesizing β -Carotene in Rice 385
 - The *Agrobacterium* Transformation System 385
 - Using the Ti Plasmid to Produce Golden Rice 386
- CHAPTER REVIEW 387

21 Genomics and Beyond 389

- 21.1 Whole-Genome Sequencing 390**
 - How Are Complete Genomes Sequenced? 390
 - Which Genomes Are Being Sequenced, and Why? 392
 - Which Sequences Are Genes? 392
- 21.2 Bacterial and Archaeal Genomes 393**
 - The Natural History of Prokaryotic Genomes 393
 - Lateral Gene Transfer in Bacteria and Archaea 394
 - Metagenomics 395
- 21.3 Eukaryotic Genomes 395**
 - Transposable Elements and Other Repeated Sequences 396
 - Gene Families 398
 - Insights from the Human Genome Project 399
- 21.4 Functional Genomics, Proteomics, and Systems Biology 400**
 - What Is Functional Genomics? 400
 - What Is Proteomics? 402
 - What Is Systems Biology? 402
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 403

UNIT 4 DEVELOPMENTAL BIOLOGY 405

22 Principles of Development 405

- 22.1 Shared Developmental Processes 406**
 - Cell Division 406
 - Cell–Cell Interactions 407
 - Cell Differentiation 407
 - Cell Movement and Cell Expansion 407
 - Cell Death 407
- 22.2 Genetic Equivalence and Differential Gene Expression in Development 408**
 - Evidence that Differentiated Plant Cells Are Genetically Equivalent 408
 - Evidence that Differentiated Animal Cells Are Genetically Equivalent 409
 - How Does Differential Gene Expression Occur? 409
- 22.3 Chemical Signals Trigger Differential Gene Expression 410**



- Morphogens Set Up the Major Body Axes 410
- Regulatory Genes Provide Increasingly Specific Positional Information 412
- Chemical Signals and Regulatory Genes Are Evolutionarily Conserved 414
- One Regulator Can Be Used Many Different Ways 415
- 22.4 Changes in Developmental Gene Expression Underlie Evolutionary Change 416**
- CHAPTER REVIEW 417

23 An Introduction to Animal Development 419

- 23.1 Fertilization 420**
 - How Do Gametes from the Same Species Recognize Each Other? 421
 - What Prevents More Than One Sperm from Entering the Egg? 421
- 23.2 Cleavage 423**
 - Partitioning Cytoplasmic Determinants 423
 - Cleavage in Mammals 423
- 23.3 Gastrulation 424**
 - Formation of Germ Layers 425
 - Creating Body Axes 425
- 23.4 Organogenesis 426**
 - Organizing Mesoderm into Somites 426
 - Differentiation of Muscle Cells 429
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 430

24 An Introduction to Plant Development 432

- 24.1 Embryogenesis 433**
 - What Happens during Plant Embryogenesis? 433
 - Which Genes and Proteins Set Up Body Axes? 435
- 24.2 Vegetative Development 436**
 - Meristems Provide Lifelong Growth and Development 436
 - Which Genes and Proteins Determine Leaf Shape? 436
 - Do Plant Cells Become Irreversibly Determined? 438
- 24.3 Reproductive Development 438**
 - The Floral Meristem and the Flower 438
 - The Genetic Control of Flower Structures 439
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 441

UNIT 5 EVOLUTIONARY PROCESSES AND PATTERNS 444

25 Evolution by Natural Selection 444

- 25.1 The Evolution of Evolutionary Thought 445**
 - Plato and Typological Thinking 445
 - Aristotle and the Great Chain of Being 445
 - Lamarck and the Idea of Evolution as Change through Time 445
 - Darwin and Wallace and Evolution by Natural Selection 446

- 25.2 The Pattern of Evolution: Have Species Changed, and Are They Related?** 446
 Evidence for Change through Time 446
 Evidence of Descent from a Common Ancestor 449
 Evolution's "Internal Consistency"—The Importance of Independent Data Sets 451
- 25.3 The Process of Evolution: How Does Natural Selection Work?** 453
 Darwin's Inspiration 453
 Darwin's Four Postulates 454
 The Biological Definitions of Fitness, Adaptation, and Selection 454
- 25.4 Evolution in Action: Recent Research on Natural Selection** 454
 Case Study 1: How Did *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Become Resistant to Antibiotics? 454
 Case Study 2: Why Are Beak Size, Beak Shape, and Body Size Changing in Galápagos Finches? 456
- 25.5 Common Misconceptions about Natural Selection and Adaptation** 459
 Selection Acts on Individuals, but Evolutionary Change Occurs in Populations 459
 Evolution Is Not Goal Directed 460
 Organisms Do Not Act for the Good of the Species 461
 There Are Constraints on Natural Selection 461
 CHAPTER REVIEW 462

26 Evolutionary Processes 465

- 26.1 Analyzing Change in Allele Frequencies: The Hardy–Weinberg Principle** 466
 The Gene Pool Concept 466
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 26.1 Deriving the Hardy–Weinberg Principle 467
 The Hardy–Weinberg Model Makes Important Assumptions 468
 How Does the Hardy–Weinberg Principle Serve as a Null Hypothesis? 468
- 26.2 Nonrandom Mating** 470
 How Does Inbreeding Affect Allele Frequencies and Genotype Frequencies? 470
 How Does Inbreeding Influence Evolution? 471
- 26.3 Natural Selection** 472
 How Does Selection Affect Genetic Variation? 472
 Sexual Selection 475
- 26.4 Genetic Drift** 478
 Simulation Studies of Genetic Drift 478
 Experimental Studies of Genetic Drift 479
 What Causes Genetic Drift in Natural Populations? 481
- 26.5 Gene Flow** 482
 Measuring Gene Flow between Populations 482
 Gene Flow Is Random with Respect to Fitness 483
- 26.6 Mutation** 483
 Mutation as an Evolutionary Process 484
 Experimental Studies of Mutation 484
 Studies of Mutation in Natural Populations 485
 Take-Home Messages 485
 CHAPTER REVIEW 486

27 Speciation 489

- 27.1 How Are Species Defined and Identified?** 490
 The Biological Species Concept 490
 The Morphospecies Concept 490
 The Phylogenetic Species Concept 491
 Species Definitions in Action: The Case of the Dusky Seaside Sparrow 492
- 27.2 Isolation and Divergence in Allopatry** 494
 Allopatric Speciation by Dispersal 494
 Allopatric Speciation by Vicariance 495
- 27.3 Isolation and Divergence in Sympatry** 495
 Sympatric Speciation by Disruptive Selection 496
 Sympatric Speciation by Polyploidization 497
- 27.4 What Happens When Isolated Populations Come into Contact?** 499
 Reinforcement 499
 Hybrid Zones 500
 New Species through Hybridization 501
 CHAPTER REVIEW 502

28 Phylogenies and the History of Life 505

- 28.1 Tools for Studying History: Phylogenetic Trees** 506
 How Do Biologists Estimate Phylogenies? 506
 How Can Biologists Distinguish Homology from Homoplasy? 508
 Whale Evolution: A Case Study 510
- 28.2 Tools for Studying History: The Fossil Record** 511
 How Do Fossils Form? 511
 Limitations of the Fossil Record 512
 Life's Time Line 513
- 28.3 Adaptive Radiation** 516
 Why Do Adaptive Radiations Occur? 516
 The Cambrian Explosion 518
- 28.4 Mass Extinction** 520
 How Do Mass Extinctions Differ from Background Extinctions? 520
 The End-Permian Extinction 521
 What Killed the Dinosaurs? 521
 The Sixth Mass Extinction? 523
 CHAPTER REVIEW 523
BIG PICTURE EVOLUTION 526

UNIT 6 THE DIVERSIFICATION OF LIFE 528

29 Bacteria and Archaea 528

- 29.1 Why Do Biologists Study Bacteria and Archaea?** 529
 Biological Impact 530
 Some Microbes Thrive in Extreme Environments 530
 Medical Importance 531
 Role in Bioremediation 533
- 29.2 How Do Biologists Study Bacteria and Archaea?** 533
 Using Enrichment Cultures 534

Using Metagenomics 534
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 535

29.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Bacteria and Archaea? 536

Morphological Diversity 536
Metabolic Diversity 538
Ecological Diversity and Global Impacts 541

29.4 Key Lineages of Bacteria and Archaea 544

Bacteria 544
Archaea 544

- Bacteria > Firmicutes 545
- Bacteria > Cyanobacteria 545
- Bacteria > Actinobacteria 546
- Bacteria > Spirochaetes (Spirochetes) 546
- Bacteria > Chlamydiae 547
- Bacteria > Proteobacteria 547
- Archaea > Thaumarchaeota 548
- Archaea > Crenarchaeota 548
- Archaea > Euryarchaeota 549

CHAPTER REVIEW 549

30 Protists 552

30.1 Why Do Biologists Study Protists? 554

Impacts on Human Health and Welfare 554
Ecological Importance of Protists 556

30.2 How Do Biologists Study Protists? 557

Microscopy: Studying Cell Structure 557
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 558
Discovering New Lineages via Direct Sequencing 558

30.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Protists? 559

What Morphological Innovations Evolved in Protists? 559
How Do Protists Obtain Food? 563
How Do Protists Move? 565
How Do Protists Reproduce? 566
Life Cycles—Haploid versus Diploid Dominated 566

30.4 Key Lineages of Protists 569

Amoebozoa 569
Excavata 569

Plantae 569
Rhizaria 569
Alveolata 570
Stramenopila (Heterokonta) 570

- Amoebozoa > Plasmodial Slime Molds 570
- Excavata > Parabasalids, Diplomonads, and Euglenids 571
- Plantae > Red Algae 572
- Rhizaria > Foraminiferans 572
- Alveolata > Ciliates, Dinoflagellates, and Apicomplexans 573
- Stramenopila > Water Molds, Diatoms, and Brown Algae 574

CHAPTER REVIEW 575

31 Green Algae and Land Plants 577

31.1 Why Do Biologists Study the Green Algae and Land Plants? 578

Plants Provide Ecosystem Services 578
Plants Provide Humans with Food, Fuel, Fiber, Building Materials, and Medicines 579

31.2 How Do Biologists Study Green Algae and Land Plants? 580

Analyzing Morphological Traits 580
Using the Fossil Record 581
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 582

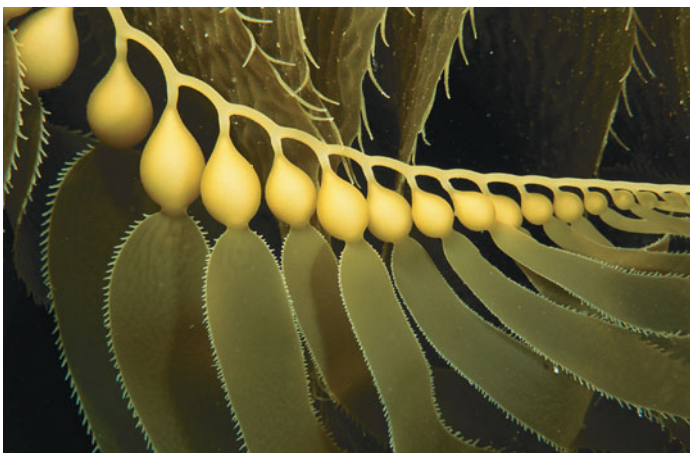
31.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Land Plants? 583

The Transition to Land, I: How Did Plants Adapt to Dry Conditions with Intense Sunlight? 584
Mapping Evolutionary Changes on the Phylogenetic Tree 586
The Transition to Land, II: How Do Plants Reproduce in Dry Conditions? 586
The Angiosperm Radiation 595

31.4 Key Lineages of Green Algae and Land Plants 597

Green Algae 597
Nonvascular Plants 598
Seedless Vascular Plants 598
Seed Plants 599

- Green Algae > **Ulvophyceae** (Ulvophytes) 599
- Green Algae > Coleochaetophyceae (Coleochaetes) 600
- Green Algae > Charophyceae (Stoneworts) 600
- Nonvascular Plants > Hepaticophyta (Liverworts) 601
- Nonvascular Plants > Bryophyta (Mosses) 601
- Nonvascular Plants > Anthoceroophyta (Hornworts) 602
- Seedless Vascular Plants > Lycopphyta (Lycophytes, or Club Mosses) 603
- Seedless Vascular Plants > Psilotophyta (Whisk Ferns) 603
- Seedless Vascular Plants > Pteridophyta (Ferns) 604
- Seedless Vascular Plants > Equisetophyta (or Sphenophyta) (Horsetails) 605
- Seed Plants > Gymnosperms > Ginkgophyta (Ginkgoes) 606
- Seed Plants > Gymnosperms > Cycadophyta (Cycads) 606
- Seed Plants > Gymnosperms > Cupressophyta (Redwoods, Junipers, Yews) 607
- Seed Plants > Gymnosperms > Pinophyta (Pines, Spruces, Firs) 607



- Seed Plants > Gymnosperms > Gnetophyta (Gnetophytes) 608
- Seed Plants > Anthophyta (Angiosperms) 608

CHAPTER REVIEW 609

32 Fungi 612

- 32.1 Why Do Biologists Study Fungi?** 613
 Fungi Have Important Economic and Ecological Impacts 613
 Fungi Provide Nutrients for Land Plants 614
 Fungi Accelerate the Carbon Cycle on Land 614
- 32.2 How Do Biologists Study Fungi?** 615
 Analyzing Morphological Traits 615
 Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 618
- 32.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Fungi?** 619
 Fungi Participate in Several Types of Symbioses 619
 What Adaptations Make Fungi Such Effective Decomposers? 623
 Variation in Reproduction 624
 Four Major Types of Life Cycles 625
- 32.4 Key Lineages of Fungi** 628
- Fungi > Microsporidia 628
 - Fungi > Chytrids 629
 - Fungi > Zygomycetes 629
 - Fungi > Glomeromycota 630
 - Fungi > Basidiomycota (Club Fungi) 630
 - Fungi > Ascomycota > Lichen-Formers 631
 - Fungi > Ascomycota > Non-Lichen-Formers 632

CHAPTER REVIEW 633

33 An Introduction to Animals 636

- 33.1 What Is an Animal?** 637
- 33.2 What Key Innovations Occurred during the Evolution of Animals?** 637
 Origin of Multicellularity 638
 Origin of Embryonic Tissue Layers 640
 Origin of Bilateral Symmetry, Cephalization, and the Nervous System 641
 Origin of the Coelom 643
 Origin of Protostomes and Deuterostomes 644
 Origin of Segmentation 645
- 33.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Animals?** 646
 Sensory Organs 646
 Feeding 646
 Movement 649
 Reproduction 650
 Life Cycles 651
- 33.4 Key Lineages of Animals: Non-Bilaterian Groups** 652
- Porifera (Sponges) 652
 - Ctenophora (Comb Jellies) 653
 - Cnidaria (Jellyfish, Corals, Anemones, Hydroids) 653

CHAPTER REVIEW 655

34 Protostome Animals 657

- 34.1 What Is a Protostome?** 658
 The Water-to-Land Transition 659
 Modular Body Plans 660
- 34.2 What Is a Lophotrochozoan?** 660
 Wormlike Lophotrochozoans 661
 What Is a Mollusk? 662
 Key Lineages: Lophotrochozoans 664
- Lophotrochozoans > Bryozoa (Bryozoans) 665
 - Lophotrochozoans > Rotifera (Rotifers) 665
 - Lophotrochozoans > Platyhelminthes (Flatworms) 666
 - Lophotrochozoans > Annelida (Segmented Worms) 667
 - Lophotrochozoans > Mollusca > Bivalvia (Clams, Mussels, Scallops, Oysters) 668
 - Lophotrochozoans > Mollusca > Gastropoda (Snails, Slugs, Nudibranchs) 668
 - Lophotrochozoans > Mollusca > Polyplacophora (Chitons) 669
 - Lophotrochozoans > Mollusca > Cephalopoda (Nautilus, Cuttlefish, Squid, Octopuses) 669
- 34.3 What Is an Ecdysozoan?** 670
 What Is an Arthropod? 670
 Arthropod Metamorphosis 672
 Key Lineages: Ecdysozoans 672
- Ecdysozoans > Nematoda (Roundworms) 674
 - Ecdysozoans > Arthropoda > Myriapoda (Millipedes, Centipedes) 675
 - Ecdysozoans > Arthropoda > Insecta (Insects) 675
 - Ecdysozoans > Arthropoda > Crustacea (Shrimp, Lobsters, Crabs, Barnacles, Isopods, Copepods) 677
 - Ecdysozoans > Arthropoda > Chelicerata (Sea Spiders, Horseshoe Crabs, Daddy Longlegs, Mites, Ticks, Scorpions, Spiders) 678

CHAPTER REVIEW 679

35 Deuterostome Animals 681

- 35.1 What Is an Echinoderm?** 682
 The Echinoderm Body Plan 682
 How Do Echinoderms Feed? 683
 Key Lineages: The Echinoderms 684
- Echinodermata > Asteroidea (Sea Stars) 685
 - Echinodermata > Echinoidea (Sea Urchins and Sand Dollars) 685
- 35.2 What Is a Chordate?** 686
 Three Chordate “Subphyla” 686
 Key Lineages: The Invertebrate Chordates 687
- Chordata > Cephalochordata (Lancelets) 687
 - Chordata > Urochordata (Tunicates) 688
- 35.3 What Is a Vertebrate?** 688
 An Overview of Vertebrate Evolution 689
 Key Innovations in Vertebrates 691
 Key Lineages: The Vertebrate Chordates 696
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Myxinoidea (Hagfish) and Petromyzontoidea (Lampreys) 697

- Chordata > Vertebrata > Chondrichthyes (Sharks, Rays, Skates) 698
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Actinopterygii (Ray-Finned Fishes) 698
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Actinistia (Coelacanth) and Dipnoi (Lungfish) 699
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Amphibia (Frogs and Toads, Salamanders, Caecilians) 700
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Mammalia > Monotremata (Platypuses, Echidnas) 700
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Mammalia > Marsupiala (Marsupials) 701
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Mammalia > Eutheria (Placental Mammals) 701
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Reptilia > Lepidosauria (Lizards, Snakes) 702
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Reptilia > Testudinia (Turtles) 702
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Reptilia > Crocodilia (Crocodiles, Alligators) 703
- Chordata > Vertebrata > Reptilia > Aves (Birds) 703

- 35.4 The Primates and Hominins** 704
 The Primates 704
 Fossil Humans 705
 The Out-of-Africa Hypothesis 707
 CHAPTER REVIEW 709

36 Viruses 711

- 36.1 Why Do Biologists Study Viruses?** 712
 Recent Viral Epidemics in Humans 712
 Current Viral Pandemics in Humans: AIDS 712
- 36.2 How Do Biologists Study Viruses?** 714
 Analyzing Morphological Traits 715
 Analyzing the Genetic Material 715
 Analyzing the Phases of Replicative Growth 716
 Analyzing How Viruses Coexist with Host Cells 721
- 36.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Viruses?** 722
 Where Did Viruses Come From? 723
 Emerging Viruses, Emerging Diseases 723
- 36.4 Key Lineages of Viruses** 725
- Double-Stranded DNA (dsDNA) Viruses 726
 - Double-Stranded RNA (dsRNA) Viruses 727
 - Positive-Sense Single-Stranded RNA ([+]ssRNA) Viruses 727
 - Negative-Sense Single-Stranded RNA ([-]ssRNA) Viruses 728
 - RNA Reverse-Transcribing Viruses (Retroviruses) 728
- CHAPTER REVIEW 729

UNIT 7 HOW PLANTS WORK 731

37 Plant Form and Function 731

- 37.1 Plant Form: Themes with Many Variations** 732
 The Importance of Surface Area/Volume Relationships 732
 The Root System 733

- The Shoot System 735
 The Leaf 737

- 37.2 Primary Growth Extends the Plant Body** 740
 How Do Apical Meristems Produce the Primary Plant Body? 740
 How Is the Primary Root System Organized? 741
 How Is the Primary Shoot System Organized? 742
- 37.3 Cells and Tissues of the Primary Plant Body** 742
 The Dermal Tissue System 743
 The Ground Tissue System 744
 The Vascular Tissue System 746
- 37.4 Secondary Growth Widens Shoots and Roots** 748
 What Is a Cambium? 748
 What Does Vascular Cambium Produce? 748
 What Does Cork Cambium Produce? 750
 The Structure of a Tree Trunk 751
 CHAPTER REVIEW 751

38 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants 754

- 38.1 Water Potential and Water Movement** 755
 What Is Water Potential? 755
 What Factors Affect Water Potential? 755
 Calculating Water Potential 756
 Water Potentials in Soils, Plants, and the Atmosphere 757
- 38.2 How Does Water Move from Roots to Shoots?** 759
 Movement of Water and Solutes into the Root 759
 Water Movement via Root Pressure 761
 Water Movement via Capillary Action 761
 The Cohesion-Tension Theory 762
- 38.3 Water Absorption and Water Loss** 765
 Limiting Water Loss 765
 Obtaining Carbon Dioxide under Water Stress 766
- 38.4 Translocation of Sugars** 766
 Tracing Connections between Sources and Sinks 766
 The Anatomy of Phloem 767
 The Pressure-Flow Hypothesis 768
 Phloem Loading 769
 Phloem Unloading 771
 CHAPTER REVIEW 772

39 Plant Nutrition 775

- 39.1 Nutritional Requirements of Plants** 776
 Which Nutrients Are Essential? 776
 What Happens When Key Nutrients Are in Short Supply? 777
- 39.2 Soil: A Dynamic Mixture of Living and Nonliving Components** 778
 The Importance of Soil Conservation 779
 What Factors Affect Nutrient Availability? 781
- 39.3 Nutrient Uptake** 782
 Mechanisms of Nutrient Uptake 783
 Mechanisms of Ion Exclusion 785
- 39.4 Nitrogen Fixation** 787
 The Role of Symbiotic Bacteria 787

How Do Nitrogen-Fixing Bacteria Infect Plant Roots? 788

39.5 Nutritional Adaptations of Plants 789

Epiphytic Plants 789

Parasitic Plants 789

Carnivorous Plants 789

CHAPTER REVIEW 791

40 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses 793

40.1 Information Processing in Plants 794

How Do Cells Receive and Transduce an External Signal? 794

How Are Cell-Cell Signals Transmitted? 795

How Do Cells Respond to Cell-Cell Signals? 795

40.2 Blue Light: The Phototropic Response 796

Phototropins as Blue-Light Receptors 796

Auxin as the Phototropic Hormone 797

40.3 Red and Far-Red Light: Germination, Stem Elongation, and Flowering 800

The Red/Far-Red “Switch” 800

Phytochromes as Red/Far-Red Receptors 801

How Were Phytochromes Isolated? 801

Signals That Promote Flowering 802

40.4 Gravity: The Gravitropic Response 803

The Statolith Hypothesis 804

Auxin as the Gravitropic Signal 804

40.5 How Do Plants Respond to Wind and Touch? 805

Changes in Growth Patterns 805

Movement Responses 806

40.6 Youth, Maturity, and Aging: The Growth Responses 806

Auxin and Apical Dominance 806

Cytokinins and Cell Division 807

Gibberellins and ABA: Growth and Dormancy 808

Brassinosteroids and Body Size 812

Ethylene and Senescence 812

An Overview of Plant Growth Regulators 813

40.7 Pathogens and Herbivores: The Defense Responses 815



How Do Plants Sense and Respond to Pathogens? 815

How Do Plants Sense and Respond to Herbivore Attack? 817

CHAPTER REVIEW 819

41 Plant Reproduction 822

41.1 An Introduction to Plant Reproduction 823

Sexual Reproduction 823

The Land Plant Life Cycle 823

Asexual Reproduction 825

41.2 Reproductive Structures 826

The General Structure of the Flower 826

How Are Female Gametophytes Produced? 827

How Are Male Gametophytes Produced? 828

41.3 Pollination and Fertilization 830

Pollination 830

Fertilization 832

41.4 The Seed 833

Embryogenesis 833

The Role of Drying in Seed Maturation 834

Fruit Development and Seed Dispersal 834

Seed Dormancy 836

Seed Germination 837

CHAPTER REVIEW 838

BIG PICTURE PLANT AND ANIMAL FORM AND FUNCTION 840

UNIT 8 HOW ANIMALS WORK 842

42 Animal Form and Function 842

42.1 Form, Function, and Adaptation 843

The Role of Fitness Trade-Offs 843

Adaptation and Acclimatization 845

42.2 Tissues, Organs, and Systems: How Does Structure Correlate with Function? 845

Structure-Function Relationships at the Molecular and Cellular Levels 846

Tissues Are Groups of Cells That Function as a Unit 846

Organs and Organ Systems 849

42.3 How Does Body Size Affect Animal Physiology? 850

Surface Area/Volume Relationships: Theory 850

Surface Area/Volume Relationships: Data 851

Adaptations That Increase Surface Area 852

42.4 Homeostasis 853

Homeostasis: General Principles 853

The Role of Regulation and Feedback 854

42.5 How Do Animals Regulate Body Temperature? 854

Mechanisms of Heat Exchange 855

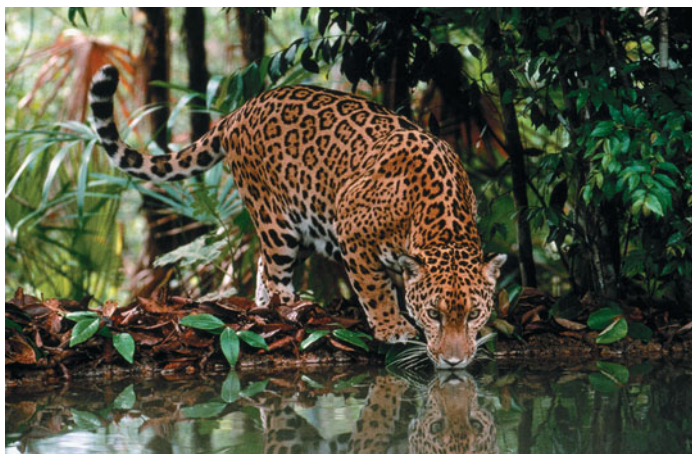
Variation in Thermoregulation 855

Endothermy and Ectothermy: A Closer Look 856

Temperature Homeostasis in Endotherms 856

Countercurrent Heat Exchangers 857

CHAPTER REVIEW 859



43 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Animals 861

- 43.1 Osmoregulation and Excretion 862**
 - What Is Osmotic Stress? 862
 - Osmotic Stress in Seawater, in Freshwater, and on Land 862
 - How Do Electrolytes and Water Move across Cell Membranes? 864
 - Types of Nitrogenous Wastes: Impact on Water Balance 865
- 43.2 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Marine Fishes 866**
 - Osmoconformation versus Osmoregulation in Marine Fishes 866
 - How Do Sharks Excrete Salt? 866
- 43.3 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Freshwater Fishes 868**
 - How Do Freshwater Fishes Osmoregulate? 868
- 43.4 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Terrestrial Insects 869**
 - How Do Insects Minimize Water Loss from the Body Surface? 869
- 43.5 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Terrestrial Vertebrates 871**
 - The Structure of the Mammalian Kidney 871
 - The Function of the Mammalian Kidney: An Overview 872
 - Filtration: The Renal Corpuscle 873
 - Reabsorption: The Proximal Tubule 873
 - Creating an Osmotic Gradient: The Loop of Henle 874
 - Regulating Water and Electrolyte Balance: The Distal Tubule and Collecting Duct 877
 - Urine Formation in Nonmammalian Vertebrates 878
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 879

44 Animal Nutrition 882

- 44.1 Nutritional Requirements 883**
- 44.2 Capturing Food: The Structure and Function of Mouthparts 884**
 - Mouthparts as Adaptations 884
 - A Case Study: The Cichlid Jaw 884

- 44.3 How Are Nutrients Digested and Absorbed? 886**
 - An Introduction to the Digestive Tract 886
 - An Overview of Digestive Processes 888
 - The Mouth and Esophagus 888
 - The Stomach 889
 - The Small Intestine 892
 - The Large Intestine 896
- 44.4 Nutritional Homeostasis—Glucose as a Case Study 897**
 - The Discovery of Insulin 897
 - Insulin's Role in Homeostasis 897
 - Diabetes Mellitus Has Two Forms 898
 - The Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Epidemic 898
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 899

45 Gas Exchange and Circulation 902

- 45.1 The Respiratory and Circulatory Systems 903**
- 45.2 Air and Water as Respiratory Media 903**
 - How Do Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Behave in Air? 903
 - How Do Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Behave in Water? 904
- 45.3 Organs of Gas Exchange 905**
 - Physical Parameters: The Law of Diffusion 905
 - How Do Gills Work? 906
 - How Do Insect Tracheae Work? 907
 - How Do Vertebrate Lungs Work? 909
 - Homeostatic Control of Ventilation 911
- 45.4 How Are Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Transported in Blood? 912**
 - Structure and Function of Hemoglobin 912
 - CO₂ Transport and the Buffering of Blood pH 915
- 45.5 Circulation 916**
 - What Is an Open Circulatory System? 916
 - What Is a Closed Circulatory System? 917
 - How Does the Heart Work? 919
 - Patterns in Blood Pressure and Blood Flow 923
 - CHAPTER REVIEW 925

46 Animal Nervous Systems 928

- 46.1 Principles of Electrical Signaling 929**
 - Types of Neurons in the Nervous System 929
 - The Anatomy of a Neuron 929
 - An Introduction to Membrane Potentials 930
 - How Is the Resting Potential Maintained? 931
 - QUANTITATIVE METHODS 46.1** Using the Nernst Equation to Calculate Equilibrium Potentials 932
 - Using Microelectrodes to Measure Membrane Potentials 932
 - What Is an Action Potential? 933
- 46.2 Dissecting the Action Potential 934**
 - Distinct Ion Currents Are Responsible for Depolarization and Repolarization 934
 - How Do Voltage-Gated Channels Work? 934
 - How Is the Action Potential Propagated? 936
- 46.3 The Synapse 938**
 - Synapse Structure and Neurotransmitter Release 939
 - What Do Neurotransmitters Do? 940
 - Postsynaptic Potentials 940

- 46.4 The Vertebrate Nervous System** 942
 What Does the Peripheral Nervous System Do? 942
 Functional Anatomy of the CNS 943
 How Does Memory Work? 946
 CHAPTER REVIEW 949

47 Animal Sensory Systems 952

- 47.1 How Do Sensory Organs Convey Information to the Brain?** 953
 Sensory Transduction 953
 Transmitting Information to the Brain 954
- 47.2 Mechanoreception: Sensing Pressure Changes** 954
 How Do Sensory Cells Respond to Sound Waves and Other Forms of Pressure? 954
 Hearing: The Mammalian Ear 955
 The Lateral Line System in Fishes and Amphibians 958
- 47.3 Photoreception: Sensing Light** 959
 The Insect Eye 960
 The Vertebrate Eye 960
- 47.4 Chemoreception: Sensing Chemicals** 964
 Taste: Detecting Molecules in the Mouth 964
 Olfaction: Detecting Molecules in the Air 965
- 47.5 Other Sensory Systems** 967
 Thermoreception: Sensing Temperature 967
 Electroreception: Sensing Electric Fields 967
 Magnetoreception: Sensing Magnetic Fields 968
 CHAPTER REVIEW 969

48 Animal Movement 972

- 48.1 How Do Muscles Contract?** 973
 Early Muscle Experiments 973
 The Sliding-Filament Model 973
 How Do Actin and Myosin Interact? 974
 How Do Neurons Initiate Contraction? 976
- 48.2 Muscle Tissues** 977
 Smooth Muscle 977
 Cardiac Muscle 978
 Skeletal Muscle 978
- 48.3 Skeletal Systems** 980
 Hydrostatic Skeletons 981
 Endoskeletons 981
 Exoskeletons 983
- 48.4 Locomotion** 983
 How Do Biologists Study Locomotion? 984
 Size Matters 986
 CHAPTER REVIEW 988

49 Chemical Signals in Animals 991

- 49.1 Cell-to-Cell Signaling: An Overview** 992
 Major Categories of Chemical Signals 992
 Hormone Signaling Pathways 993
 What Makes Up the Endocrine System? 995
 Chemical Characteristics of Hormones 995
 How Do Researchers Identify a Hormone? 996
 A Breakthrough in Measuring Hormone Levels 997

- 49.2 What Do Hormones Do?** 997
 How Do Hormones Direct Developmental Processes? 997
 How Do Hormones Coordinate Responses to Stressors? 1000
 How Are Hormones Involved in Homeostasis? 1001
- 49.3 How Is the Production of Hormones Regulated?** 1003
 The Hypothalamus and Pituitary Gland 1004
 Control of Epinephrine by Sympathetic Nerves 1006
- 49.4 How Do Hormones Act on Target Cells?** 1006
 Steroid Hormones Bind to Intracellular Receptors 1006
 Hormones That Bind to Cell-Surface Receptors 1008
 Why Do Different Target Cells Respond in Different Ways? 1010
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1010

50 Animal Reproduction 1013

- 50.1 Asexual and Sexual Reproduction** 1014
 How Does Asexual Reproduction Occur? 1014
 Switching Reproductive Modes: A Case History 1014
 Mechanisms of Sexual Reproduction: Gametogenesis 1016
- 50.2 Fertilization and Egg Development** 1018
 External Fertilization 1018
 Internal Fertilization 1019
 Unusual Mating Strategies 1020
 Why Do Some Females Lay Eggs While Others Give Birth? 1020
- 50.3 Reproductive Structures and Their Functions** 1021
 The Male Reproductive System 1021
 The Female Reproductive System 1023
- 50.4 The Role of Sex Hormones in Mammalian Reproduction** 1025
 Which Hormones Control Puberty? 1026
 Which Hormones Control the Menstrual Cycle in Mammals? 1027
- 50.5 Pregnancy and Birth in Mammals** 1030
 Gestation and Early Development in Marsupials 1031
 Major Events during Human Pregnancy 1031
 How Does the Mother Nourish the Fetus? 1032
 Birth 1034
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1035

51 The Immune System in Animals 1037

- 51.1 Innate Immunity** 1038
 Barriers to Entry 1038
 The Innate Immune Response 1039
- 51.2 Adaptive Immunity: Recognition** 1041
 An Introduction to Lymphocytes 1042
 Lymphocytes Recognize a Diverse Array of Antigens 1044
 How Does the Immune System Distinguish Self from Nonself? 1046
- 51.3 Adaptive Immunity: Activation** 1047
 The Clonal Selection Theory 1048
 T-Cell Activation 1048
 B-Cell Activation and Antibody Secretion 1050
- 51.4 Adaptive Immunity: Response and Memory** 1051
 How Are Extracellular Pathogens Eliminated? 1052

How Are Intracellular Pathogens Eliminated? 1052
Why Does the Immune System Reject Foreign Tissues
and Organs? 1053
Responding to Future Infections: Immunological
Memory 1053

**51.5 What Happens When the Immune System Doesn't
Work Correctly?** 1055
Allergies 1055
Autoimmune Diseases 1056
Immunodeficiency Diseases 1056
CHAPTER REVIEW 1057

UNIT 9 ECOLOGY 1059

52 An Introduction to Ecology 1059

52.1 Levels of Ecological Study 1060
Organismal Ecology 1060
Population Ecology 1061
Community Ecology 1061
Ecosystem Ecology 1061
Global Ecology 1061
Conservation Biology Applies All Levels of Ecological
Study 1061

**52.2 What Determines the Distribution and Abundance
of Organisms?** 1061
Abiotic Factors 1062
Biotic Factors 1062
History Matters: Past Abiotic and Biotic Factors Influence
Present Patterns 1062
Biotic and Abiotic Factors Interact 1063

52.3 Climate Patterns 1065
Why Are the Tropics Wet? 1065
Why Are the Tropics Warm and the Poles Cold? 1066
What Causes Seasonality in Weather? 1066
What Regional Effects Do Mountains and Oceans Have
on Climate? 1066

52.4 Types of Terrestrial Biomes 1068
Natural Biomes 1068

Anthropogenic Biomes 1069

- Terrestrial Biomes > Tropical Wet Forest 1070
- Terrestrial Biomes > Subtropical Deserts 1070
- Terrestrial Biomes > Temperate Grasslands 1071
- Terrestrial Biomes > Temperate Forests 1071
- Terrestrial Biomes > Boreal Forests 1072
- Terrestrial Biomes > Arctic Tundra 1072

How Will Global Climate Change Affect Terrestrial
Biomes? 1073

52.5 Types of Aquatic Biomes 1074
Salinity 1074
Water Depth 1074
Water Flow 1074
Nutrient Availability 1075
How Are Aquatic Biomes Affected by Humans? 1076

- Aquatic Biomes > Freshwater > Lakes and Ponds 1077
- Aquatic Biomes > Freshwater > Wetlands 1077
- Aquatic Biomes > Freshwater > Streams 1078
- Aquatic Biomes > Freshwater/Marine > Estuaries 1078
- Aquatic Biomes > Marine > Oceans 1079

CHAPTER REVIEW 1080

53 Behavioral Ecology 1082

53.1 An Introduction to Behavioral Ecology 1083
Proximate and Ultimate Causation 1083
Types of Behavior: An Overview 1084
Five Questions in Behavioral Ecology 1085

53.2 What Should I Eat? 1085
Proximate Causes: Foraging Alleles in *Drosophila
melanogaster* 1085
Ultimate Causes: Optimal Foraging 1085

53.3 Who Should I Mate With? 1087
Proximate Causes: How Is Sexual Activity Triggered in *Anolis
Lizards?* 1087
Ultimate Causes: Sexual Selection 1088

53.4 Where Should I Live? 1089
Proximate Causes: How Do Animals Navigate? 1089
Ultimate Causes: Why Do Animals Migrate? 1091

53.5 How Should I Communicate? 1091
Proximate Causes: How Do Honeybees Communicate? 1092
Ultimate Causes: Why Do Honeybees Communicate the Way
They Do? 1093
When Is Communication Honest or Deceitful? 1094

53.6 When Should I Cooperate? 1095
Kin Selection 1095

QUANTITATIVE METHODS 53.1 Calculating the Coefficient
of Relatedness 1096
Manipulation 1097
Reciprocal Altruism 1098
Cooperation and Mutualism 1098
CHAPTER REVIEW 1098

54 Population Ecology 1101

54.1 Distribution and Abundance 1102
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 54.1 Mark–Recapture Studies 1103

54.2 Demography 1103
Life Tables 1104



The Role of Life History 1105
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 54.2 Using Life Tables to Calculate
Population Growth Rates 1106

- 54.3 Population Growth** 1107
Quantifying the Growth Rate 1107
Exponential Growth 1107
Logistic Growth 1108
What Limits Growth Rates and Population Sizes? 1109
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 54.3 Developing and Applying Population
Growth Equations 1110
- 54.4 Population Dynamics** 1112
How Do Metapopulations Change through Time? 1112
Why Do Some Populations Cycle? 1113
- 54.5 Human Population Growth** 1115
Age Structure in Human Populations 1115
Analyzing Change in the Growth Rate of Human
Populations 1116
- 54.6 How Can Population Ecology Help Conserve
Biodiversity?** 1118
Using Life-Table Data 1118
Preserving Metapopulations 1119
CHAPTER REVIEW 1120

55 Community Ecology 1123

- 55.1 Species Interactions** 1124
Commensalism 1124
Competition 1125
Consumption 1128
Mutualism 1133
- 55.2 Community Structure** 1135
How Predictable Are Communities? 1135
How Do Keystone Species Structure Communities? 1137
- 55.3 Community Dynamics** 1138
Disturbance and Change in Ecological Communities 1138
Succession: The Development of Communities
after Disturbance 1139
- 55.4 Global Patterns in Species Richness** 1142
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 55.1 Measuring Species Diversity 1143
Predicting Species Richness: The Theory of Island
Biogeography 1143
Global Patterns in Species Richness 1144
CHAPTER REVIEW 1146

56 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1148

- 56.1 How Does Energy Flow through Ecosystems?** 1149
How Efficient Are Autotrophs at Capturing Solar
Energy? 1149
What Happens to the Biomass of Autotrophs? 1150
Energy Transfer between Trophic Levels 1151
Biomagnification 1152
Top-Down Control and Trophic Cascades 1153
Global Patterns in Productivity 1153
- 56.2 How Do Nutrients Cycle through Ecosystems?** 1156
Nutrient Cycling within Ecosystems 1156
Global Biogeochemical Cycles 1159

- 56.3 Global Climate Change** 1163
What Is the Cause of Global Climate Change? 1163
How Much Will the Climate Change? 1164
Consequences to Organisms 1166
Consequences to Ecosystems 1168
CHAPTER REVIEW 1169

57 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1172

- 57.1 What Is Biodiversity?** 1173
Biodiversity Can Be Measured and Analyzed at Several
Levels 1173
How Many Species Are Living Today? 1175
Where Is Biodiversity Highest? 1176
- 57.2 Threats to Biodiversity** 1178
Multiple Interacting Threats 1178
How Will These Threats Affect Future Extinction Rates? 1182
QUANTITATIVE METHODS 57.1 Species–Area Plots 1183
- 57.3 Why Is Biodiversity Important?** 1184
Biological Benefits of Biodiversity 1184
Ecosystem Services: Economic and Social Benefits of
Biodiversity and Ecosystems 1187
An Ethical Dimension? 1188
- 57.4 Preserving Biodiversity and Ecosystem Function** 1189
Addressing the Ultimate Causes of Loss 1189
Conservation of Genetic Diversity, Populations,
and Species 1189
Conservation of Ecosystem Function 1191
Take-Home Message 1193
CHAPTER REVIEW 1193
-  **ECOLOGY** 1196

APPENDIX A **Answers** A:1

APPENDIX B **BioSkills** B:1

- 1 The Metric System and Significant Figures B:1
- 2 Some Common Latin and Greek Roots Used in Biology B:3
- 3 Reading Graphs B:4
- 4 Using Statistical Tests and Interpreting Standard Error Bars B:6
- 5 Combining Probabilities B:8
- 6 Using Logarithms B:9
- 7 Reading a Phylogenetic Tree B:10
- 8 Reading Chemical Structures B:12
- 9 Separating and Visualizing Molecules B:13
- 10 Separating Cell Components by Centrifugation B:17
- 11 Biological Imaging: Microscopy and X-ray Crystallography B:18
- 12 Cell and Tissue Culture Methods B:21
- 13 Model Organisms B:23
- 14 Primary Literature and Peer Review B:26
- 15 Making Concept Maps B:28
- 16 Using Bloom's Taxonomy B:29

APPENDIX C **Periodic Table of Elements** C:1

Glossary G:1

Credits Cr:1

Index I:1

About the Authors

A Letter from Scott:

I started working on *Biological Science* in 1997 with a simple goal: To help change the way biology is taught. After just shy of 20,000 hours of work on four editions of this text, that goal still gets me out of bed in the morning. But instead of focusing my energies on textbook writing, I've decided to devote myself full-time to research on student learning and developing new courses for undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Washington.

So with this edition I am passing the torch—to an all-star cast of leading scientists and educators who have enthusiastically taught from, and contributed to, previous editions of *Biological Science*. Working with them, I have seen the new team bring their passion, talent, and creativity to the book, with expertise that spans the breadth of the life sciences. Just as important, they work beautifully together because they think alike. They are driven by a shared concern for student learning, a commitment to the craft of writing, and a background in evidence-based teaching.

These pages provide a brief introduction to Liz Allison, Michael Black, Greg Podgorski, Kim Quillin, Jon Monroe, and Emily Taylor. As a group, they've built on the book's existing strengths and infused this edition with fresh energy, perspective, and ideas. I'm full of admiration for what they have accomplished, and excited about the impact this edition will have on biology students from all over the world.—*Scott Freeman*



Scott Freeman received a Ph.D. in Zoology from the University of Washington and was subsequently awarded an Alfred P. Sloan Postdoctoral Fellowship in Molecular Evolution at Princeton University. He has done research in evolutionary biology on topics ranging from nest parasitism to the molecular systematics of the blackbird family and is coauthor, with Jon Herron,

of the standard-setting undergraduate text *Evolutionary Analysis*. Scott is the recipient of a Distinguished Teaching Award from the University of Washington and is currently a Senior Lecturer in the UW Department of Biology, where he teaches introductory biology for majors, a writing-intensive course for majors called The Tree of Life, and a graduate seminar in college science teaching. Scott's current research focuses on how active learning affects student learning and academic performance.



Lizbeth A. Allison is professor and chair of the Biology Department at the College of William & Mary. She received her Ph.D. in Zoology from the University of Washington, specializing in molecular and cellular biology. Before coming to William & Mary, she spent eight years as a faculty member at the University of Canterbury in New Zealand. Liz teaches introductory biology for majors and upper-division molecular biology courses. She has mentored graduate students and more than 80 undergraduate research students, many of them coauthoring papers with her on intracellular trafficking of the thyroid hormone receptor in normal and cancer cells. The recipient of numerous awards, including a State Council for Higher Education in Virginia (SCHEV) Outstanding Faculty Award in 2009, Liz received one of the three inaugural Arts & Sciences Faculty Awards for Teaching Excellence in 2011, and a Plumeri Award for Faculty Excellence in 2012. In addition to her work on this text, she is author of *Fundamental Molecular Biology*, now in its second edition.

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Michael Black received his Ph.D. in Microbiology & Immunology from Stanford University School of Medicine as a Howard Hughes Predoctoral Fellow. After graduation, he studied cell biology as a Burroughs Wellcome Postdoctoral Fellow at the MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology in Cambridge, England. His current research focuses on the use of molecules to identify and track

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Greg Podgorski received his Ph.D. in Molecular and Cellular Biology from Penn State University and has been a postdoctoral fellow at the Max Plank Institute for Biochemistry and Columbia University. His research interests are in biology education, developmental genetics, and computational biology. Greg's most recent work has been in mathematical modeling of how pat-

terns of different cell types emerge during development and how tumors recruit new blood vessels in cancer. Greg has been teaching at Utah State University for more than 20 years in courses that include introductory biology for majors and for nonmajors, genetics, cell biology, developmental biology, and microbiology, and he has offered courses in nonmajors biology in Beijing and Hong Kong. He's won teaching awards at Utah State University and has been recognized by the National Academies as a Teaching Fellow and a Teaching Mentor.

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Kim Quillin received her B.A. in Biology at Oberlin College *summa cum laude* and her Ph.D. in Integrative Biology from the University of California, Berkeley (as a National Science Foundation Graduate Fellow). Kim has worked in the trenches with Scott Freeman on every edition of *Biological Science*, starting with the ground-up development of the illustrations in

the first edition in 1999 and expanding her role in each edition, always with the focus of helping students to think like biologists. Kim currently teaches introductory biology at Salisbury University, a member of the University System of Maryland, where she is actively involved in the ongoing student-centered reform of the concepts-and-methods course for biology majors. Her current research focuses on the scholarship of teaching and learning with an emphasis on measuring science process skills and the advantages and pitfalls of active multimedia learning.

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Jon Monroe is professor of Biology at James Madison University in Harrisonburg, Virginia. Jon completed his undergraduate work in Botany at the University of Michigan and his graduate work in Plant Physiology at Cornell University. He began his current position after a postdoc in biochemistry at Michigan State University. He currently teaches Plant Biology, and Cell and

Molecular Biology. Jon's interest in plants is broad, ranging from systematics and taxonomy to physiology and biochemistry. His research, mostly with undergraduates, uses *Arabidopsis thaliana* to study the functions of a family of β -amylase genes in starch metabolism. Jon has been active in promoting undergraduate research through his work with the American Society of Plant Biologists (ASPB) and the Council on Undergraduate Research. He has received ASPB's Excellence in Teaching award and James Madison University Alumni Association's Distinguished Faculty Award.

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Emily Taylor earned a B.A. in English at the University of California, Berkeley followed by a Ph.D. in Biological Sciences from Arizona State University, where she conducted research in the field of environmental physiology as a National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellow. She is currently an associate professor of Biological Sciences at the California Polytechnic State

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Preface to Instructors

The first edition of *Biological Science* was visionary in its unique emphasis on the process of scientific discovery and experimental design—teaching how we know what we know. The goal was for students not only to learn the language of biology and understand fundamental concepts but also to begin to apply those concepts in new situations, analyze experimental design, synthesize results, and evaluate hypotheses and data—to learn how to think like biologists. Each edition since has proudly expanded on this vision. The Fifth Edition is no exception.

A team of six dedicated teacher-scholars has joined Scott to build on and refine the original vision, and by so doing, make the book an even better teaching and learning tool. The pace of biological discovery is rapid, and with each novel breakthrough it becomes even more challenging to decide what is essential to include in an introductory biology text. Pulling together an author team with firsthand expertise from molecules to ecosystems has ensured that the content of the Fifth Edition reflects cutting-edge biology that is pitched at the right level for introductory students and is as accurate and as exciting as ever for instructors and students alike.

New findings from education research continue to inform and inspire the team's thinking about *Biological Science*—we know more today than ever before about how students learn. These findings demand that we constantly look for new ways to increase student engagement in the learning process, and to help instructors align course activities and learning goals with testing strategies.

The New Coauthors

The new coauthor team brings a broad set of talents and interests to the project, motivated by a deep commitment to undergraduate teaching, whether at a small liberal arts college or a large university. Kim Quillin has been a partner in this textbook in every edition. For the Fifth Edition, she revised chapters across three units in addition to spearheading the continued effort to enhance the visual-teaching program. Michael Black, Greg Podgorski, Jon Monroe, and Emily Taylor, who served as unit advisors on the Fourth Edition, were already familiar with the book. And most of the authorial team have been avid users of previous editions for many years.

Core Values

Together, the coauthor team has worked to extend the vision and maintain the core values of *Biological Science*—to provide a book for instructors who embrace the challenge of boosting students to higher levels of learning, and to provide a book for

students that helps them each step of the way in learning to think like scientists. Dedicated instructors have high expectations of their students—the Fifth Edition provides scaffolding to help students learn at the level called for by the National Academy of Sciences, the Howard Hughes Medical Institute, the American Association of Medical Academies, and the National Science Foundation.

What's New in This Edition

The Fifth Edition contains many new or expanded features, all of them targeted at ways to help students learn to construct their own knowledge and think like biologists.

- **Road Maps** The new Road Maps at the beginning of each chapter pair with the Big Picture concept maps introduced in the Fourth Edition. Together they help students navigate chapter content and see the forest for the trees. Each Road Map starts with a purpose statement that tells students what they can expect to learn from each chapter. It then goes on to visually group and organize information to help students anticipate key ideas as well as recognize meaningful relationships and connections between the ideas.
- **The Big Picture** Introduced in the Fourth Edition, Big Picture concept maps integrate words and visuals to help students synthesize information about challenging topics that span multiple chapters and units. In response to requests from instructors and students, three new Big Pictures focused on additional tough topics have been added: Doing Biology, The Chemistry of Life, and Plant and Animal Form and Function. In addition, the Ecology Big Picture is completely revised to reflect changes to that unit.
- **New Chapters** Two new chapters are added to better serve instructors and students. Unit 2 now contains a new Chapter 8, Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolic Pathways. This chapter consolidates these critical topics in a place where students and instructors need it most—right before the chapters on cellular respiration and photosynthesis. In the Fourth Edition, animal movement was discussed in a chapter largely focused on animal sensory systems. In the Fifth Edition, this important topic is treated in depth in a new Chapter 48, Animal Movement, that explores how muscle and skeletal systems work together to produce locomotion.
- **New BioSkills** Instructors recognize that biology students need to develop foundational science skills in addition to content knowledge. While these skills are emphasized throughout the book, *Biological Science*, beginning with the Third

Edition, has provided a robust set of materials and activities to guide students who need extra help. To promote even fuller use of this resource, the BioSkills are now updated, expanded, and reorganized. New in this edition are a discussion of significant figures within the BioSkills on the Metric System, and two new BioSkills on Primary Literature and Peer Review and Using Bloom’s Taxonomy. BioSkills are located in Appendix B, and practice activities can be assigned online in MasteringBiology®.

- **Promotion of Quantitative Skills** Reports like *Biology 2010*, *Scientific Foundations for Future Physicians*, and *Vision and Change* all place a premium on quantitative skills. To infuse a quantitative component throughout the text, new and existing quantitative questions are flagged in each chapter to encourage students to work on developing their ability to read or create a graph, perform or interpret a calculation, or use other forms of quantitative reasoning.
- **Bloom’s Taxonomy** In the Fifth Edition, all questions in the text are assigned a Bloom’s Taxonomy level to help both students and instructors understand whether a question requires higher-order or lower-order cognitive skills. Questions span all six Bloom’s levels. (Bloom’s levels are identified in Appendix A: Answers.) The coauthors were trained by experts Mary Pat Wenderoth and Clarissa Dirks¹ to ensure we followed a process that would result in high inter-rater reliability—or agreement among raters—in assigning Bloom’s levels to questions. The new BioSkill, Using Bloom’s Taxonomy, explains the six Bloom’s levels to students and offers a practical guide to the kinds of study activities best suited for answering questions at each level.
- **Expanded Emphasis on “Doing Biology”** A constant hallmark of this text is its emphasis on experimental evidence—on teaching how we know what we know. To reflect the progress of science, in the Fifth Edition, the coauthor team replaced many experiments with fresh examples and added new Research Boxes. And as noted earlier, they added a new Big Picture on Doing Biology, focusing on the process of science and the organizational levels of biology. Data sources are now cited for all graphs and data tables to model the importance of citing data sources to students. Updated Research Box questions continue to encourage students to analyze some aspect of experimental design. Also new to this edition is a BioSkill on Primary Literature and Peer Review.
- **Art Program** The art program is further enhanced in this edition by the addition of more illustrated summary tables. These tables make subject areas more accessible to visual learners and reinforce key concepts of the chapter. Many of the life-cycle figures in Unit 6 are significantly overhauled.

Updated Blue Thread Scaffolding

In the Third and Fourth editions of *Biological Science*, a metacognitive tool was formulated as the now popular feature known as “Blue Thread”—sets of questions designed to help students identify what they do and don’t understand. The fundamental idea is that if students really understand a piece of information or a concept, they should be able to do something with it.

In the Fifth Edition, the Blue Thread is revised to reflect changes in chapter content, and to incorporate user feedback. Blue-Thread questions appear in the following locations:

- **In-text “You should be able to’s”** offer exercises on topics that professors and students have identified as the most difficult concepts in each chapter.
- **Caption questions and exercises** challenge students to examine the information in a figure or table critically—not just absorb it.
- **Check Your Understanding boxes** present two to three tasks that students should be able to complete in order to demonstrate a mastery of summarized key ideas.
- **Chapter summaries** include “You should be able to” problems or exercises related to each key concept.
- **End-of-chapter** questions are organized in three levels of increasing difficulty so students can build from lower to higher-order cognitive questions.

Integration of Media

The textbook continues to be supported by MasteringBiology®, the most powerful online homework, tutorial, and assessment system available. Tutorials follow the Socratic method, coaching students to the correct answer by offering feedback specific to a student’s misconceptions as well as providing hints students can access if they get stuck. Instructors can associate content with publisher-provided learning outcomes or create their own. Content highlights include the following:

- **NEW! Solve It Tutorials** These activities allow students to act like scientists in simulated investigations. Each tutorial presents an interesting, real-world question that students will answer by analyzing and interpreting data.
- **Experimental Inquiry Tutorials** The call to teach students about the process of science has never been louder. To support such teaching, there are 10 interactive tutorials on classic scientific experiments—ranging from Meselson–Stahl on DNA replication to the Grants’ work on Galápagos finches and Connell’s work on competition. Students who use these tutorials should be better prepared to think critically about experimental design and evaluate the wider implications of the data—preparing them to do the work of real scientists in the future.
- **BioFlix® Animations and Tutorials** BioFlix are movie-quality, 3-D animations that focus on the most difficult core topics and are accompanied by in-depth, online tutorials that

¹ Crowe, A., C. Dirks, and M. P. Wenderoth. 2008. Biology in Bloom: Implementing Bloom’s Taxonomy to enhance student learning in biology. *CBE—Life Sciences Education* 7: 368–381.

provide hints and feedback to guide student learning. Eighteen BioFlix animations and tutorials tackle topics such as meiosis, mitosis, DNA replication, photosynthesis, homeostasis, and the carbon cycle.

- **NEW! End-of-Chapter Questions** Multiple choice end-of-chapter questions are now available to assign in MasteringBiology.
- **Blue-Thread Questions** Over 500 questions based on the Blue-Thread Questions in the textbook are assignable in MasteringBiology.
- **Big Picture Tutorials** Interactive concept map activities based on the Big Picture figures in the textbook are assignable in MasteringBiology, including tutorials to support the three new Big Pictures: Doing Biology, The Chemistry of Life, and Plant and Animal Form and Function.
- **BioSkills Activities** Activities based on the BioSkills content in the textbook are assignable in MasteringBiology, including activities to support the new BioSkills on Primary Literature and Peer Review and Using Bloom's Taxonomy.

- **Reading Quiz Questions** Every chapter includes reading quiz questions you can assign to ensure students read the textbook and understand the basics. These quizzes are perfect as a pre-lecture assignment to get students into the content before class, allowing you to use class time more effectively.

Serving a Community of Teachers

All of us on the coauthor team are deeply committed to students and to supporting the efforts of dedicated teachers. Doing biology is what we love. At various points along our diverse paths, we have been inspired by our own teachers when we were students, and now are inspired by our colleagues as we strive to become even better teacher-scholars. In the tradition of all previous editions of *Biological Science*, we have tried to infuse this textbook with the spirit and practice of evidence-based teaching. We welcome your comments, suggestions, and questions.

Thank you for your work on behalf of your students.

Content Highlights of the Fifth Edition

As discussed in the preface, a major focus of this revision is to enhance the pedagogical utility of *Biological Science*. Another major goal is to ensure that the content reflects the current state of science and is accurate. The expanded author team has scrutinized every chapter to add new, relevant content, update descriptions when appropriate, and adjust the approach to certain topics to enhance student comprehension. In this section, some of the key content improvements to the textbook are highlighted.

Chapter 1 Biology and the Tree of Life A concept map summarizing the defining characteristics of life is added. The process of doing biology coverage is expanded to include discussion of both experimental and descriptive studies, and more rigorous definitions of the terms hypothesis and theory.

Chapter 2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life A stronger emphasis on chemical evolution is threaded throughout the chapter to bring chemistry to life for the student reader. Two prominent models for chemical evolution are introduced; the historic Miller prebiotic soup experiment was moved here. Advanced discussion of energy and chemical reactions was moved to a new chapter (see Chapter 8).

Chapter 3 Protein Structure and Function The chapter is reorganized to emphasize the link between structure and function, from amino acids to folded proteins. Updated content illustrates that protein shapes are flexible and dynamic, and may remain incompletely folded until the protein interacts with other molecules or ions. Details of how enzymes work were moved to Chapter 8.

Chapter 4 Nucleic Acids and the RNA World New experimental results concerning the synthesis of nucleotides and nucleic acids in a prebiotic environment are discussed. The section on the RNA world is expanded to include the artificial evolution of a novel ribozyme involved in nucleotide synthesis.

Chapter 5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates The molecular basis for resistance of structural polymers, such as cellulose, to degradation is clarified. A new research box illustrates the role of carbohydrates in cellular recognition and attachment using the egg and sperm of mice as a model system.

Chapter 6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells New content on lipid and membrane evolution and the proposed characteristics of the first protocell is introduced. The aquaporin and potassium channel figures are updated; how key amino acids serve as selectivity filters is now highlighted.

Chapter 7 Inside the Cell Several new electron micrographs were selected to more clearly illustrate cell component structure and function. A new figure is added to better depict the

pulse–chase assay used to identify the secretory pathway. Coverage of nuclear transport is expanded to differentiate between passive diffusion and active nuclear import. Updated content emphasizes the role of the cytoskeleton in localizing organelles, and how polarity of microtubules and microfilaments influences their growth rate.

Chapter 8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Pathways This new chapter pulls together concepts in energy, chemical reactions, and enzymes that previously were covered in three different chapters. Oxidation and reduction reactions are emphasized to prepare students for Chapters 9 and 10. The energetics behind ATP hydrolysis and its role in driving endergonic reactions is discussed, and figures are revised to better illustrate the process. Updated content on enzyme regulation and a new process figure show a model for how metabolic pathways may have evolved.

Chapter 9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation Two new summary tables for glycolysis and the citric acid cycle are added that provide the names of the enzymes and the reaction each catalyzes. New content is introduced to propose a connection between the universal nature of the proton motive force and the story of the chemical evolution of life.

Chapter 10 Photosynthesis More extensive comparison between the chemical reactions in mitochondria and chloroplasts is added. A new figure is introduced to illustrate noncyclic electron flow in the context of the thylakoid membrane. Greater emphasis is placed on the number of ATPs and NADPHs required for each cycle of carbon fixation and reduction.

Chapter 11 Cell–Cell Interactions Coverage of extracellular matrix structure and function is expanded, including its role in intercellular adhesions and cell signaling. The plant apoplast and symplast are now introduced as key terms in the text and illustrated in a new figure. New content and a new figure on unicellular models for intercellular communication via pheromone sensing (yeast) and quorum sensing (slime mold) are added.

Chapter 12 The Cell Cycle A new figure helps explain the pulse–chase assay for identifying phases of the cell cycle. Content is added to the text and to a figure that illustrates the similarities between chromosome segregation in eukaryotes and prokaryotes. A revised description of anaphase emphasizes how microtubule fraying at the kinetochore can drive chromosome movement. The explanation of how phosphorylation and dephosphorylation turns on MPF activity is updated to reflect current research.

Chapter 13 Meiosis To improve the flow of the chapter, the section on advantages of sexual reproduction was moved to before mistakes in meiosis. The discussion of the role and timing of

crossing over during meiosis I is updated. A new study that supports the hypothesis that sex evolved in response to the selective pressure of pathogens is introduced.

Chapter 14 Mendel and the Gene Material on gene linkage is revised to emphasize the importance of genetic mapping. A new matched set of figures on pedigree analysis brings together the various modes of transmission that were previously shown in four individual figures. A new summary table on characteristics of different patterns of inheritance is added.

Chapter 15 DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair A new research figure is added that focuses on the relationship between telomere length and senescence in cultured somatic cells.

Chapter 16 How Genes Work Coverage of the evolving concept of the gene and of different types of RNA is expanded. A figure showing the karyotype of a cancer cell is revised to improve clarity.

Chapter 17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation The sections on transcription in bacteria and eukaryotes are now separated, and content on charging tRNAs was moved to a new section. The discussion of translation is reorganized, first to emphasize the process in bacteria and then to highlight differences in eukaryotes.

Chapter 18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria Coverage of *lac* operon positive regulation is updated to reflect current research. A new section and new process figure on global gene regulation are added, using the *lexA* regulon as an example.

Chapter 19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes Extensive updates to the discussion of epigenetics include a new research box and a section on DNA methylation. Coverage of transcription initiation is updated to reflect current science. A new figure illustrates the role of p53 in the cell cycle in normal and cancerous cells.

Chapter 20 Analyzing and Engineering Genes The material on sequencing the Neanderthal genome is updated, including evidence of limited Neanderthal genetic material in some modern human populations. New information on current generation sequencing technologies and massive parallelism is added. Recent advances in gene therapy are highlighted.

Chapter 21 Genomics and Beyond Extensive updates throughout reflect recent advances in genomics. Changes include sequence database statistics, genomes that have been sequenced to study evolutionary relationships, and new figures illustrating gene count versus genome size in prokaryotes and eukaryotes and functional classes of human DNA sequences. A new section on systems biology is added. Also included are notes on the discovery of widespread transcription of eukaryotic genomes, deep sequencing, and the spectrum of mutations in human tumors.

Chapter 22 Principles of Development New information is added on dedifferentiation in induced pluripotent stem cells, maternal genes in *Drosophila* development, how morphogens work, and tool-kit genes. The order of topics in the discussion

of developmental principles is reorganized. The figure on *Hox* genes in *Drosophila* and the mouse is updated.

Chapter 23 An Introduction to Animal Development The chapter is streamlined by focusing on principles of animal development. The discussion of gametogenesis was moved to Chapter 50 (Animal Reproduction). The presentation of fertilization is simplified, and a new figure summarizing steps of fertilization is added. The figure on gastrulation is modified to better depict the arrangement of the germ layers and their movement.

Chapter 24 An Introduction to Plant Development The chapter is modified to impart an evolutionary perspective on the similarities and differences in plant and animal development. The chapter also was streamlined by removing material such as details of gametogenesis, which now appears in Chapter 41 (Plant Reproduction).

Chapter 25 Evolution by Natural Selection Several new key passages are included, among them the use of the Grand Canyon as a context for understanding relative dating of fossils, Darwin's artificial selection experiments with fancy pigeons, and Malthus's concept of struggle for existence. A new example of people living at high altitude in Tibet clarifies the difference between acclimatization and adaptation. An illustrated summary table of common misconceptions is added.

Chapter 26 Evolutionary Processes Discussion of sexual selection now falls within the section on natural selection, and the terms intersexual and intrasexual selection are added. Several new examples replace those in the Fourth Edition, including inbreeding depression in Florida panthers, gene flow in Oregon steelhead trout, and lateral gene transfer in aphids. An illustrated summary table is added on modes of selection.

Chapter 27 Speciation Several points are clarified, such as the gradient-like (rather than all-or-nothing) nature of reproductive isolation. The section on polyploidy is reorganized and the figures revised, including a side-by-side comparison of autopolyploidy and allopolyploidy.

Chapter 28 Phylogenies and the History of Life The phylogenetics section is reorganized and expanded to include three illustrated summary tables and updated life-history timelines. New content is added, including the concept of the Anthropocene, the calendar analogy to the history of the Earth, the Chengjiang fossils, and a Life-in-the-Cambrian illustration. Evidence for the impact hypothesis is combined into an illustrated summary table.

Chapter 29 Bacteria and Archaea The chapter is updated to include a description of metagenomic experiments with an emphasis on the role of gut bacteria in digestion. A newly recognized phylum of Archaea, the Thaumarchaeota, is included, and the table comparing key characteristics of the Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya is streamlined.

Chapter 30 Protists For simplicity, protist lineages are now referred to throughout the chapter by their more familiar common names. Also, some key lineage boxes were consolidated to

trim the number to one box per major lineage. Discussion of the origin of the nuclear envelope and mitochondria is expanded to reflect new thinking on the evolution of eukaryotic cells. Protist life cycle figures are significantly overhauled.

Chapter 31 Green Algae and Land Plants Coverage of the evolution of land plants is expanded to include the importance of UV light and UV-absorbing molecules on the colonization of land. The “Redwood group” is now referred to as the Cupressophyta. Updates emphasize the role(s) of each stage of a life cycle in dispersal and in increasing genetic variation and individual numbers. A new research box is added, showing the importance of flower color to pollinator preference. Plant life-cycle figures are significantly overhauled.

Chapter 32 Fungi Coenocytic fungal hyphae are illustrated with a new image showing GFP-labeled nuclei in *Neurospora crassa*. The chapter now points out the similarity between fungal and animal modes of nutrition, in terms of extracellular digestion and absorption of small molecules. The discussion of lignin degradation is updated, and new descriptions of mutualisms of fungi with animals are included. Fungal life cycle figures are significantly overhauled.

Chapter 33 An Introduction to Animals The chapter is extensively revised to streamline and modernize the presentation, including emphasis on genetic tool kits and symmetry in the phylogeny of animals. The “Themes of Diversification” section is reorganized around five illustrated summary tables. The discussion of life cycles is revised to be more general. Insect metamorphosis has moved to Chapter 34, and a sea urchin life cycle replaces *Obelia*.

Chapter 34 Protostome Animals Two themes are threaded throughout the chapter: the water-to-land transition and modular body plans. The section on lophotrochozoans emphasizes spiral cleavage, indirect versus direct development, hemocoels, and radulas. The section on ecdysozoans highlights segmentation and *Hox* genes, including discussion of the origin of the wing and metamorphosis. Key lineage boxes include new phylogenies for annelids, crustaceans, and chelicerates.

Chapter 35 Deuterostome Animals Updates to reflect current research include revised phylogenies, evolution of flight and feathers, *Australopithecus sediba*, human migration out of Africa, and genetic evidence for interbreeding of *Homo neanderthalensis* and *Homo sapiens*.

Chapter 36 Viruses New content focuses on how viruses contribute to evolution via lateral gene transfer and direct addition of genes to cellular genomes. Content is updated and expanded on viral structure and function, and on lytic and latent infections. Three new figures are added, including a comparison of replication of viruses and cells, how pandemic strains of influenza arise via reassortment, and the devastating impact of the 1918 influenza pandemic.

Chapter 37 Plant Form and Function The use of terminology is streamlined for consistency and clarity. For example,

“lateral meristem” is replaced with “vascular cambium” to avoid confusion with lateral buds, and the description of bark is clarified to avoid using the term phelloderm. Several complex figures were converted to illustrated summary tables.

Chapter 38 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants The chapter is revised to improve accuracy, and points out that water loss is also a means for transporting minerals from roots to shoots. Updated content clarifies the role of energy expenditure in moving water across roots, and the Casparian strip as a barrier to the back diffusion of ions and water out of the root. A new research figure shows the importance of the sucrose proton symporter in long-distance transport in *Arabidopsis*.

Chapter 39 Plant Nutrition In this chapter the coverage of mycorrhizae is modified to emphasize their overall role in nutrient acquisition. In the section on nitrogen fixation, a description of the worldwide practice of crop rotation involving legumes and grains is added.

Chapter 40 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses A new research box is added that reveals the essential role of PHOT1 phosphorylation in phototropism. A section on the effect of day length on flowering was moved here from Chapter 41 and is integrated with the discussion of phytochromes. New content on the role of plasmodesmata in plant action potentials is added. The section on how plants respond to pathogens is simplified and updated with an example of control of stomata during a bacterial infection.

Chapter 41 Plant Reproduction To provide a clearer example of a gametophyte-dominant life cycle, the liverwort life cycle has been replaced with a moss life cycle. The term “pollination syndrome” is clarified. Also, a research box on how capsaicin prevents seed predation and facilitates dispersal was reinstated from an earlier edition of *Biological Science*.

Chapter 42 Animal Form and Function The chapter includes a new experiment illustrating physiological trade-offs, along with improved examples of thermoregulatory strategies in animals. Several complex figures were converted to illustrated summary tables.

Chapter 43 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Animals The chapter is reorganized to better integrate the relationship between excretion and water and electrolyte balance. Osmoregulatory strategies are now organized according to the challenges presented by marine, freshwater, and terrestrial habitats. Coverage of osmoregulation in bony fishes versus cartilaginous fishes, mammalian kidney function, and how nonmammalian vertebrates concentrate their urine is expanded and clarified.

Chapter 44 Animal Nutrition This chapter contains new information on nutritional imbalances, including diabetes and obesity.

Chapter 45 Gas Exchange and Circulation Discussion of the insect tracheal system is expanded, including new content on how respiration restricts upper limits of body size of insects.

Details regarding the lymphatic system and heart anatomy in vertebrates are updated, and a new section on cardiovascular disease is added.

Chapter 46 Electrical Signals in Animals This chapter is greatly expanded to reflect recent research and growing interest in neuroscience. New information includes comparative anatomy of vertebrate brains, more case studies of brain injuries or dysfunctions that have led to major discoveries in neuroscience, and the concept of neuroplasticity—especially neurogenesis.

Chapter 47 Animal Sensory Systems Content from the Fourth Edition has been split into two chapters (47, Animal Sensory Systems; 48, Animal Movement). The chapter on sensory systems is now organized by type of sensory reception: mechanoreception (with new coverage on the lateral line system of fishes), photoreception, chemoreception (with new coverage of pheromones), and a new section introducing thermoreception, electroreception, and magnetoreception.

Chapter 48 Animal Movement This new chapter introduces the importance of movement in animals, building from small to large scale. The mechanism of muscle contraction (with revised figures) is covered, followed by discussions of types of muscle tissue (with new content on skeletal-muscle fiber types and parallel- versus pennate-muscle fiber orientation), and skeletal systems (hydrostatic skeletons, exoskeletons, endoskeletons). A completely new final section discusses how biologists study locomotion on land, in the air, and in the water.

Chapter 49 Chemical Signals in Animals Figures and content are updated for clarity. The chapter includes a new section on endocrine disruptors.

Chapter 50 Animal Reproduction New content includes details of sperm and egg structure and function, reproduction in the spotted hyena, and human contraceptive methods.

Chapter 51 The Immune System in Animals Coverage of the innate immune response is expanded to include more detail on Toll-like receptors and how they transmit signals. The section on adaptive immunity is reorganized to improve flow. Updated content on inappropriate immune responses (autoimmunity and allergies) and inadequate responses (immunodeficiency) is grouped together in one section. The hygiene hypothesis is introduced to explain the growing trend of inappropriate immune responses in populations that have reduced exposure to common pathogens and parasites.

Chapter 52 An Introduction to Ecology The first section on levels of ecological study is expanded to include global ecology. The rest of the chapter is reorganized, beginning with the factors that determine the distribution and abundance of organisms (including a new Argentine ant case study) and ending with biomes. The biome section is streamlined with a new emphasis on human impacts, including an introduction to anthropogenic biomes and the Anthropocene.

Chapter 53 Behavioral Ecology The introduction is revised to provide a clearer framework for types of behavior. Sections are now organized around proximate versus ultimate causation. These new examples replace those in the Fourth Edition: Argentine ant territorial behavior (replacing spiny lobsters), optimal foraging in gerbils (replacing white-fronted bee-eaters), sexual selection in *Anolis* lizards (replacing barn swallows), and map orientation in green sea turtles.

Chapter 54 Population Ecology A new introductory section focuses on the distribution of organisms in populations, including dispersion patterns and a consolidated discussion of measurement methods. The human population content is updated and separated into a new section. The quantitative methods boxes and life table are now more student friendly.

Chapter 55 Community Ecology Several changes to content are made, such as a clarification of competitive exclusion versus niche differentiation. New content includes a summary table on constitutive defenses, a discovery story on mimicry (including Bates and Müller), an introduction to food webs, and the process of soil formation in primary succession.

Chapter 56 Ecosystems The title and scope of the chapter are updated to include global ecology. Extensive revisions include many content updates and new figures on the relationship between GPP and NPP, the one-way flow of energy and cycling of nutrients, the food web, open versus closed aquifers, the High Plains Aquifer, the biomagnification of DDT, and the greenhouse effect. The climate change section is expanded and updated, including an illustrated summary table.

Chapter 57 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology Throughout the chapter, there is more emphasis on conserving ecosystem function. Many new examples are added, including Smits's restoration project in Borneo, the Census of Marine Life, the IUCN Red List, the Sinervo lizard extinction experiment, and Florida panther genetic restoration. New summary tables highlight ecosystem services and threats to biodiversity.

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The peer review system is the key to quality and clarity in science publishing. In addition to providing a filter, the investment that respected individuals make in vetting the material—catching errors or inconsistencies and making suggestions to improve the presentation—gives authors, editors, and readers confidence that the text meets rigorous professional standards.

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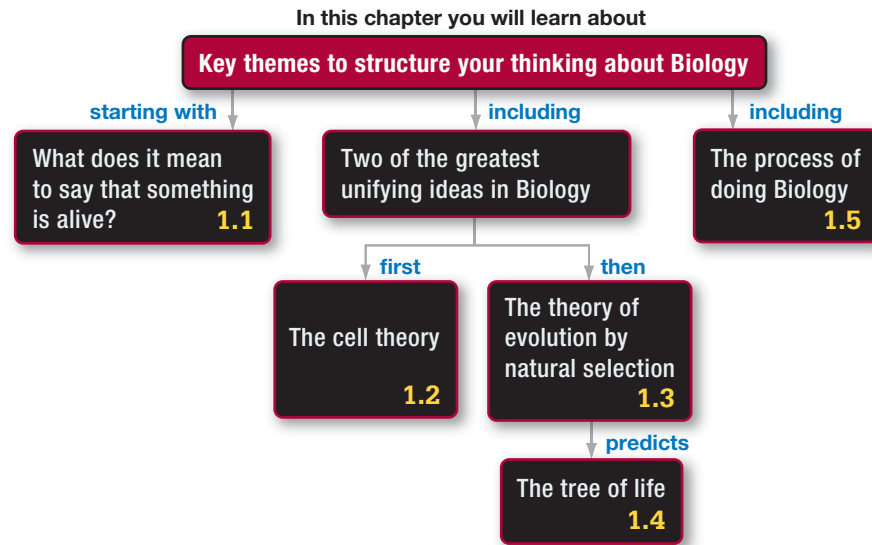
Pearson’s talented sales reps, who listen to professors, advise the editorial staff, and get the book in students’ hands, are supported by tireless Executive Marketing Manager Lauren Harp and Director of Marketing Christy Lesko. The marketing materials that support the outreach effort were produced by Lillian Carr and her colleagues in Pearson’s Marketing Communications group. David Theisen, national director for Key Markets, tirelessly visits countless professors each year, enthusiastically discussing their courses and providing us with meaningful editorial guidance.

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1 Biology and the Tree of Life



These Chinese water dragon hatchlings are exploring their new world and learning how to find food and stay alive. They represent one of the key characteristics of life introduced in this chapter—replication.



In essence, biological science is a search for ideas and observations that unify our understanding of the diversity of life, from bacteria living in rocks a mile underground to humans and majestic sequoia trees. This chapter is an introduction to this search.

The goals of this chapter are to introduce the nature of life and explore how biologists go about studying it. The chapter also introduces themes that will resonate throughout this book:

- Analyzing how organisms work at the molecular level.
- Understanding organisms in terms of their evolutionary history.
- Helping you learn to think like a biologist.

Let's begin with what may be the most fundamental question of all: What is life?

**BIG
PICTURE**

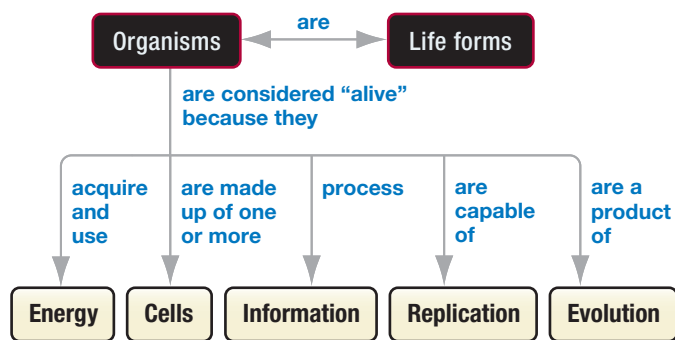
This chapter is part of the Big Picture. See how on pages 16–17.

✓ When you see this checkmark, stop and test yourself. Answers are available in Appendix A.

1.1 What Does It Mean to Say That Something Is Alive?

An **organism** is a life-form—a living entity made up of one or more cells. Although there is no simple definition of life that is endorsed by all biologists, most agree that organisms share a suite of five fundamental characteristics.

- **Energy** To stay alive and reproduce, organisms have to acquire and use energy. To give just two examples: plants absorb sunlight; animals ingest food.
- **Cells** Organisms are made up of membrane-bound units called cells. A cell's membrane regulates the passage of materials between exterior and interior spaces.
- **Information** Organisms process hereditary, or genetic, information encoded in units called genes. Organisms also respond to information from the environment and adjust to maintain stable internal conditions. Right now, cells throughout your body are using information to make the molecules that keep you alive; your eyes and brain are decoding information on this page that will help you learn some biology, and if your room is too hot you might be sweating to cool off.
- **Replication** One of the great biologists of the twentieth century, François Jacob, said that the “dream of a bacterium is to become two bacteria.” Almost everything an organism does contributes to one goal: replicating itself.
- **Evolution** Organisms are the product of evolution, and their populations continue to evolve.



You can think of this text as one long exploration of these five traits. Here's to life!

1.2 The Cell Theory

Two of the greatest unifying ideas in all of science laid the groundwork for modern biology: the cell theory and the theory of evolution by natural selection. Formally, scientists define a **theory** as an explanation for a very general class of phenomena or observations that are supported by a wide body of evidence. The cell theory and theory of evolution address fundamental questions: What are organisms made of? Where do they come from?

When these concepts emerged in the mid-1800s, they revolutionized the way biologists think about the world. They established

two of the five attributes of life: Organisms are cellular, and their populations change over time.

Neither insight came easily, however. The cell theory, for example, emerged after some 200 years of work. In 1665 the Englishman Robert Hooke devised a crude microscope to examine the structure of cork (a bark tissue) from an oak tree. The instrument magnified objects to just 30× (30 times) their normal size, but it allowed Hooke to see something extraordinary. In the cork he observed small, pore-like compartments that were invisible to the naked eye. Hooke coined the term “cells” for these structures because of their resemblance to the cells inhabited by monks in a monastery.

Soon after Hooke published his results, a Dutch scientist named Anton van Leeuwenhoek succeeded in developing much more powerful microscopes, some capable of magnifications up to 300×. With these instruments, van Leeuwenhoek inspected samples of pond water and made the first observations of a dazzling collection of single-celled organisms that he called “animalcules.” He also observed and described human blood cells and sperm cells, shown in **FIGURE 1.1**.

In the 1670s an Italian researcher who was studying the leaves and stems of plants with a microscope concluded that plant tissues were composed of many individual cells. By the early 1800s, enough data had accumulated for a German biologist to claim that *all* organisms consist of cells. Did this claim hold up?

All Organisms Are Made of Cells

Advances in microscopy have made it possible to examine the amazing diversity and complexity of cells at higher and higher magnifications. Biologists have developed microscopes that are tens of thousands of times more powerful than van Leeuwenhoek's and have described over a million new species. The basic conclusion made in the 1800s remains intact, however: All organisms are made of cells.

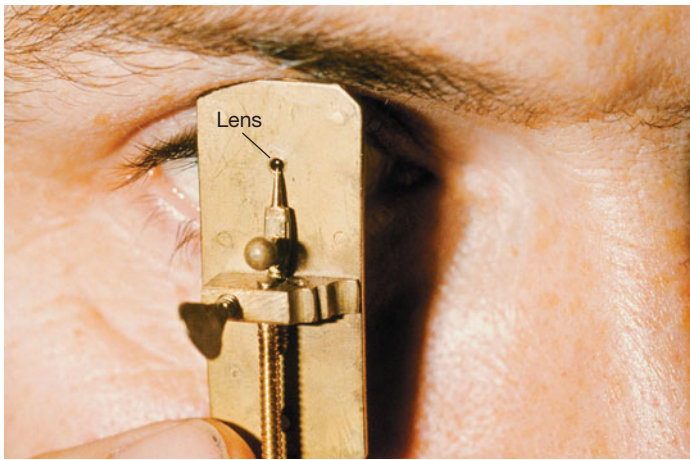
The smallest organisms known today are bacteria that are barely 200 nanometers wide, or 200 *billionths* of a meter. (See **BioSkills 1** in Appendix B to review the metric system and its prefixes.¹) It would take 5000 of these organisms lined up side by side to span a millimeter. This is the distance between the smallest hash marks on a metric ruler. In contrast, sequoia trees can be over 100 meters tall. This is the equivalent of a 20-story building. Bacteria and sequoias are composed of the same fundamental building block, however—the cell. Bacteria consist of a single cell; sequoias are made up of many cells.

Today a **cell** is defined as a highly organized compartment that is bounded by a thin, flexible structure called a plasma membrane and that contains concentrated chemicals in an aqueous (watery) solution. The chemical reactions that sustain life take place inside cells. Most cells are also capable of reproducing by dividing—in effect, by making a copy of themselves.

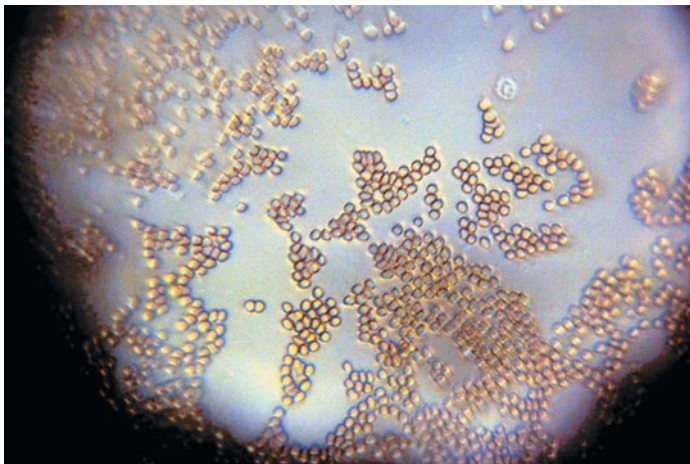
The realization that all organisms are made of cells was fundamentally important, but it formed only the first part of the cell

¹BioSkills are located in the second appendix at the back of the book. They focus on general skills that you'll use throughout this course. More than a few students have found them to be a life-saver. Please use them!

(a) van Leeuwenhoek built his own microscopes—which, while small, were powerful. They allowed him to see, for example . . .



(b) . . . human blood cells (this modern photo was shot through one of van Leeuwenhoek's original microscopes) . . .



(c) . . . and animal sperm (drawing by van Leeuwenhoek of canine sperm cells on left, human on right).

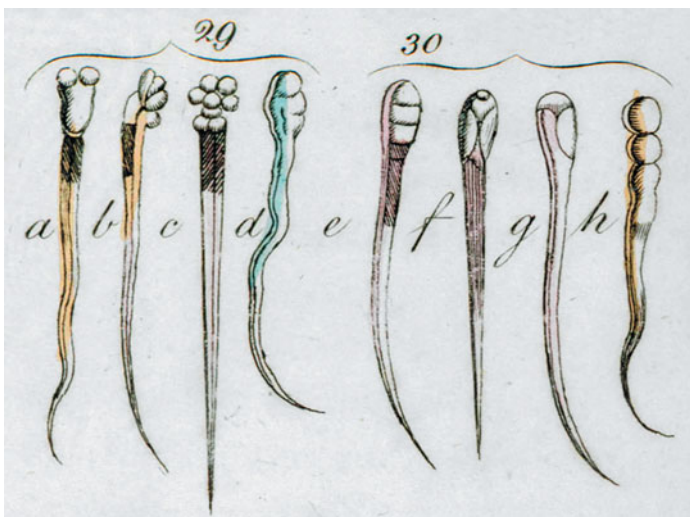


FIGURE 1.1 Van Leeuwenhoek's Microscope Made Cells Visible.

theory. In addition to understanding what organisms are made of, scientists wanted to understand how cells come to be.

Where Do Cells Come From?

Most scientific theories have two components: The first describes a pattern in the natural world; the second identifies a mechanism or process that is responsible for creating that pattern. Hooke and his fellow scientists articulated the pattern component of the cell theory. In 1858, a German scientist named Rudolph Virchow added the process component by stating that all cells arise from preexisting cells.

The complete **cell theory** can be stated as follows: All organisms are made of cells, and all cells come from preexisting cells.

Two Hypotheses The cell theory was a direct challenge to the prevailing explanation of where cells come from, called spontaneous generation. In the mid-1800s, most biologists believed that organisms could arise spontaneously under certain conditions. For example, the bacteria and fungi that spoil foods such as milk and wine were thought to appear in these nutrient-rich media of their own accord—springing to life from nonliving materials. In contrast, the cell theory maintained that cells do not spring to life spontaneously but are produced only when preexisting cells grow and divide. The all-cells-from-cells explanation was a **hypothesis**: a testable statement to explain a phenomenon or a set of observations.

Biologists usually use the word theory to refer to proposed explanations for broad patterns in nature and prefer hypothesis to refer to explanations for more tightly focused questions. A theory serves as a framework for the development of new hypotheses.

An Experiment to Settle the Question Soon after Virchow's all-cells-from-cells hypothesis appeared in print, a French scientist named Louis Pasteur set out to test its predictions experimentally. An experimental **prediction** describes a measurable or observable result that must be correct if a hypothesis is valid.

Pasteur wanted to determine whether microorganisms could arise spontaneously in a nutrient broth or whether they appear only when a broth is exposed to a source of preexisting cells. To address the question, he created two treatment groups: a broth that was not exposed to a source of preexisting cells and a broth that was.

The spontaneous generation hypothesis predicted that cells would appear in both treatment groups. The all-cells-from-cells hypothesis predicted that cells would appear only in the treatment exposed to a source of preexisting cells.

FIGURE 1.2 (on page 4) shows Pasteur's experimental setup. Note that the two treatments are identical in every respect but one. Both used glass flasks filled with the same amount of the same nutrient broth. Both were boiled for the same amount of time to kill any existing organisms such as bacteria or fungi. But because the flask pictured in Figure 1.2a had a straight neck, it was exposed to preexisting cells after sterilization by the heat treatment. These preexisting cells are the bacteria and fungi that cling to dust particles in the air. They could drop into the nutrient broth because the neck of the flask was straight.

In contrast, the flask drawn in Figure 1.2b had a long swan neck. Pasteur knew that water would condense in the crook of the swan neck after the boiling treatment and that this pool of water

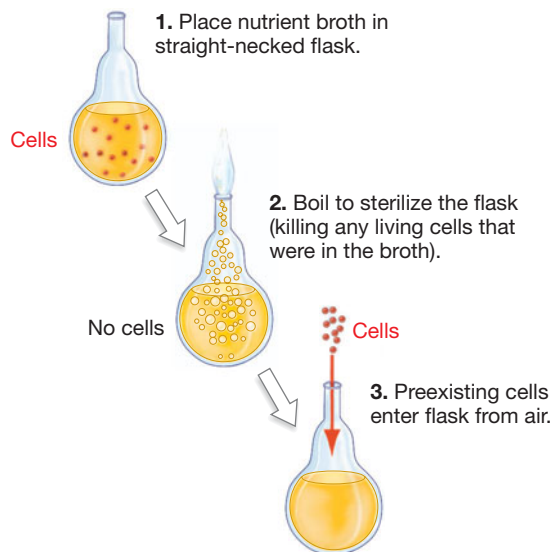
RESEARCH

QUESTION: Do cells arise spontaneously or from other cells?

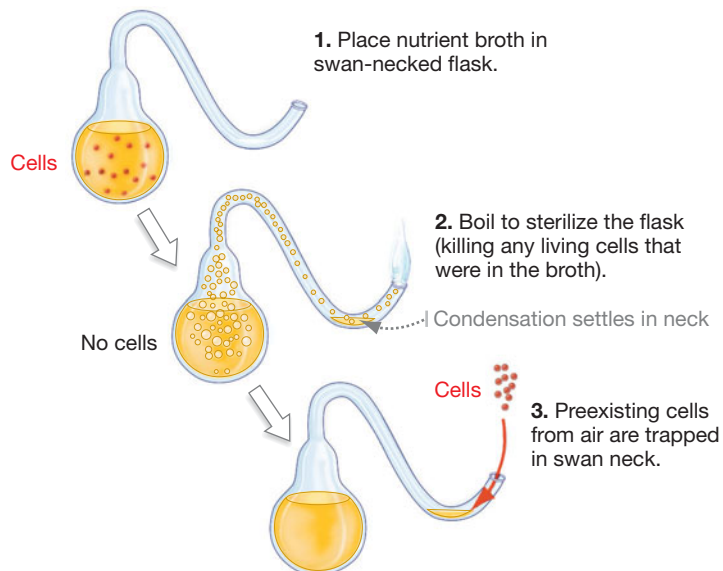
SPONTANEOUS GENERATION HYPOTHESIS: Cells arise spontaneously from nonliving materials.

ALL-CELLS-FROM-CELLS HYPOTHESIS: Cells are produced only when preexisting cells grow and divide.

(a) Pasteur experiment with straight-necked flask:



(b) Pasteur experiment with swan-necked flask:



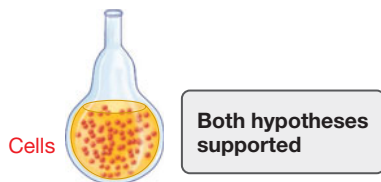
PREDICTION OF SPONTANEOUS GENERATION HYPOTHESIS:

Cells will appear in broth.

PREDICTION OF ALL-CELLS-FROM-CELLS HYPOTHESIS:

Cells will appear in broth.

RESULTS:

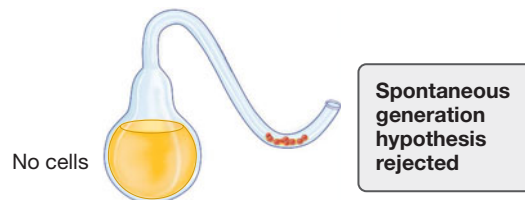


PREDICTION OF SPONTANEOUS GENERATION HYPOTHESIS:

Cells will appear in broth.

PREDICTION OF ALL-CELLS-FROM-CELLS HYPOTHESIS:

Cells will not appear in broth.



CONCLUSION: Cells arise from preexisting cells, not spontaneously from nonliving material.

FIGURE 1.2 The Spontaneous Generation and All-Cells-from-Cells Hypotheses Were Tested Experimentally.

✓ **QUESTION** What problem would arise in interpreting the results of this experiment if Pasteur had (1) put different types of broth in the two treatments, (2) heated them for different lengths of time, or (3) used a ceramic flask for one treatment and a glass flask for the other?

would trap any bacteria or fungi that entered on dust particles. Thus, the contents of the swan-necked flask were isolated from any source of preexisting cells even though still open to the air.

Pasteur's experimental setup was effective because there was only one difference between the two treatments and because that difference was the factor being tested—in this case, a broth's exposure to preexisting cells.

One Hypothesis Supported And Pasteur's results? As Figure 1.2 shows, the treatment exposed to preexisting cells quickly filled with bacteria and fungi. This observation was important because it showed that the heat sterilization step had not altered the nutrient broth's capacity to support growth.

The broth in the swan-necked flask remained sterile, however. Even when the flask was left standing for months, no organisms appeared in it. This result was inconsistent with the hypothesis of spontaneous generation.

Because Pasteur's data were so conclusive—meaning that there was no other reasonable explanation for them—the results persuaded most biologists that the all-cells-from-cells hypothesis was correct. However, you will see that biologists now have evidence that life did arise from nonlife early in Earth's history, through a process called chemical evolution (Chapters 2–6).

The success of the cell theory's process component had an important implication: If all cells come from preexisting cells, it follows that all individuals in an isolated population of single-celled

organisms are related by common ancestry. Similarly, in you and most other multicellular individuals, all the cells present are descended from preexisting cells, tracing back to a fertilized egg. A fertilized egg is a cell created by the fusion of sperm and egg—cells that formed in individuals of the previous generation. In this way, all the cells in a multicellular organism are connected by common ancestry.

The second great founding idea in biology is similar, in spirit, to the cell theory. It also happened to be published the same year as the all-cells-from-cells hypothesis. This was the realization, made independently by the English scientists Charles Darwin and Alfred Russel Wallace, that all species—all distinct, identifiable types of organisms—are connected by common ancestry.

1.3 The Theory of Evolution by Natural Selection

In 1858 short papers written separately by Darwin and Wallace were read to a small group of scientists attending a meeting of the Linnean Society of London. A year later, Darwin published a book that expanded on the idea summarized in those brief papers. The book was called *The Origin of Species*. The first edition sold out in a day.

What Is Evolution?

Like the cell theory, the theory of evolution by natural selection has a pattern and a process component. Darwin and Wallace's theory made two important claims concerning patterns that exist in the natural world.

1. Species are related by common ancestry. This contrasted with the prevailing view in science at the time, which was that species represent independent entities created separately by a divine being.
2. In contrast to the accepted view that species remain unchanged through time, Darwin and Wallace proposed that the characteristics of species can be modified from generation to generation. Darwin called this process descent with modification.

Evolution is a change in the characteristics of a population over time. It means that species are not independent and unchanging entities, but are related to one another and can change through time.

What Is Natural Selection?

This pattern component of the theory of evolution was actually not original to Darwin and Wallace. Several scientists had already come to the same conclusions about the relationships between species. The great insight by Darwin and Wallace was in proposing a process, called **natural selection**, that explains *how* evolution occurs.

Two Conditions of Natural Selection Natural selection occurs whenever two conditions are met.

1. Individuals within a population vary in characteristics that are **heritable**—meaning, traits that can be passed on to offspring.

A **population** is defined as a group of individuals of the same species living in the same area at the same time.

2. In a particular environment, certain versions of these heritable traits help individuals survive better or reproduce more than do other versions.

If certain heritable traits lead to increased success in producing offspring, then those traits become more common in the population over time. In this way, the population's characteristics change as a result of natural selection acting on individuals. This is a key insight: Natural selection acts on individuals, but evolutionary change occurs in populations.

Selection on Maize as an Example To clarify how selection works, consider an example of **artificial selection**—changes in populations that occur when *humans* select certain individuals to produce the most offspring. Beginning in 1896, researchers began a long-term selection experiment on maize (corn).

1. In the original population, the percentage of protein in maize kernels was variable among individuals. Kernel protein content is a heritable trait—parents tend to pass the trait on to their offspring.
2. Each year for many years, researchers chose individuals with the highest kernel protein content to be the parents of the next generation. In this environment, individuals with high kernel protein content produced more offspring than individuals with low kernel protein content.

FIGURE 1.3 shows the results. Note that this graph plots generation number on the *x*-axis, starting from the first generation (0 on the graph) and continuing for 100 generations. The average percentage of protein in a kernel among individuals in this population is plotted on the *y*-axis.

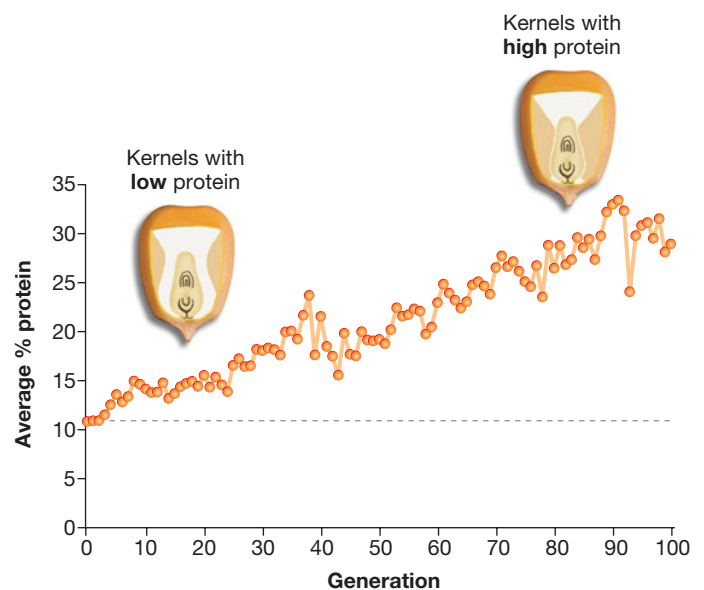


FIGURE 1.3 Response to Selection for High Kernel Protein Content in Maize.

DATA: Moose, S. P., J. W. Dudley, and T. R. Rocheford. 2004. *Trends in Plant Sciences* 9: 358–364; and the Illinois long-term selection experiment for oil and protein in corn (University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign).

To read this graph, put your finger on the x -axis at generation 0. Then read up the y -axis, and note that kernels averaged about 11 percent protein at the start of the experiment. Now read the graph to the right. Each dot is a data point, representing the average kernel protein concentration in a particular generation. (A generation in maize is one year.) The lines on this graph simply connect the dots, to make the pattern in the data easier to see. During a few years the average protein content goes down, because of poor growing conditions or chance changes in how the many genes responsible for this trait interact. However, at the end of the graph, after 100 generations of selection, average kernel protein content is about 29 percent. (For more help with reading graphs, see **BioSkills 3** in Appendix B.)

This sort of change in the characteristics of a population, over time, is evolution. Humans have been practicing artificial selection for thousands of years, and biologists have now documented evolution by *natural* selection—where humans don't do the selecting—occurring in thousands of different populations, including humans. Evolution occurs when heritable variation leads to differential success in reproduction.

✓ **QUANTITATIVE** If you understand the concepts of selection and evolution, you should be able to describe how protein content in maize kernels changed over time, using the same x -axis and y -axis as in Figure 1.3, when researchers selected individuals with the *lowest* kernel protein content to be the parents of the next generation. (This experiment was actually done, starting with the same population at the same time as selection for high protein content.)

Fitness and Adaptation Darwin also introduced some new terminology to identify what is happening during natural selection.

- In everyday English, fitness means health and well-being. But in biology, **fitness** means the ability of an individual to produce viable offspring. Individuals with high fitness produce many surviving offspring.
- In everyday English, adaptation means that an individual is adjusting and changing to function in new circumstances. But in biology, an **adaptation** is a trait that increases the fitness of an individual in a particular environment.

Once again, consider kernel protein content in maize: In the environment of the experiment graphed in Figure 1.3, individuals with high kernel protein content produced more offspring and had higher fitness than individuals with lower kernel protein content. In this population and this environment, high kernel protein content was an adaptation that allowed certain individuals to thrive.

Note that during this process, the amount of protein in the kernels of any individual maize plant did not change within its lifetime—the change occurred in the characteristics of the population over time.

Together, the cell theory and the theory of evolution provided the young science of biology with two central, unifying ideas:

1. The cell is the fundamental structural unit in all organisms.
2. All species are related by common ancestry and have changed over time in response to natural selection.

check your understanding



If you understand that . . .

- Natural selection occurs when heritable variation in certain traits leads to improved success in reproduction. Because individuals with these traits produce many offspring with the same traits, the traits increase in frequency and evolution occurs.
- Evolution is a change in the characteristics of a population over time.

✓ You should be able to . . .

Using the graph you just analyzed in Figure 1.3, describe the average kernel protein content over time in a maize population where *no* selection occurred.

Answers are available in Appendix A.

1.4 The Tree of Life

Section 1.3 focuses on how individual populations change through time in response to natural selection. But over the past several decades, biologists have also documented dozens of cases in which natural selection has caused populations of one species to diverge and form new species. This divergence process is called **speciation**.

Research on speciation has two important implications: All species come from preexisting species, and all species, past and present, trace their ancestry back to a single common ancestor.

The theory of evolution by natural selection predicts that biologists should be able to construct a **tree of life**—a family tree of organisms. If life on Earth arose just once, then such a diagram would describe the genealogical relationships between species with a single, ancestral species at its base.

Has this task been accomplished? If the tree of life exists, what does it look like?

Using Molecules to Understand the Tree of Life

One of the great breakthroughs in research on the tree of life occurred when American biologist Carl Woese (pronounced *woze*) and colleagues began analyzing the chemical components of organisms as a way to understand their evolutionary relationships. Their goal was to understand the **phylogeny** of all organisms—their actual genealogical relationships. Translated literally, phylogeny means “tribe-source.”

To understand which organisms are closely versus distantly related, Woese and co-workers needed to study a molecule that is found in all organisms. The molecule they selected is called small subunit ribosomal RNA (rRNA). It is an essential part of the machinery that all cells use to grow and reproduce.

Although rRNA is a large and complex molecule, its underlying structure is simple. The rRNA molecule is made up of sequences of four smaller chemical components called ribonucleotides. These ribonucleotides are symbolized by the letters A, U, C, and G. In rRNA, ribonucleotides are connected to one another linearly, like the boxcars of a freight train.

Analyzing rRNA Why might rRNA be useful for understanding the relationships between organisms? The answer is that the ribonucleotide sequence in rRNA is a trait that can change during the course of evolution. Although rRNA performs the same function in all organisms, the sequence of ribonucleotide building blocks in this molecule is not identical among species.

In land plants, for example, the molecule might start with the sequence A-U-A-U-C-G-A-G (FIGURE 1.4). In green algae, which are closely related to land plants, the same section of the molecule might contain A-U-A-U-G-G-A-G. But in brown algae, which are not closely related to green algae or to land plants, the same part of the molecule might consist of A-A-A-U-G-G-A-C.

The research that Woese and co-workers pursued was based on a simple premise: If the theory of evolution is correct, then rRNA sequences should be very similar in closely related organisms but less similar in organisms that are less closely related. Species that are part of the same evolutionary lineage, like the plants, should share certain changes in rRNA that no other species have.

To test this premise, the researchers determined the sequence of ribonucleotides in the rRNA of a wide array of species. Then they considered what the similarities and differences in the sequences implied about relationships between the species. The goal was to produce a diagram that described the phylogeny of the organisms in the study.

A diagram that depicts evolutionary history in this way is called a phylogenetic tree. Just as a family tree shows relationships between individuals, a phylogenetic tree shows relationships between species. On a phylogenetic tree, branches that share a recent common ancestor represent species that are closely related; branches that don't share recent common ancestors represent species that are more distantly related.

The Tree of Life Estimated from Genetic Data To construct a phylogenetic tree, researchers use a computer to find the arrangement of branches that is most consistent with the similarities and differences observed in the data.

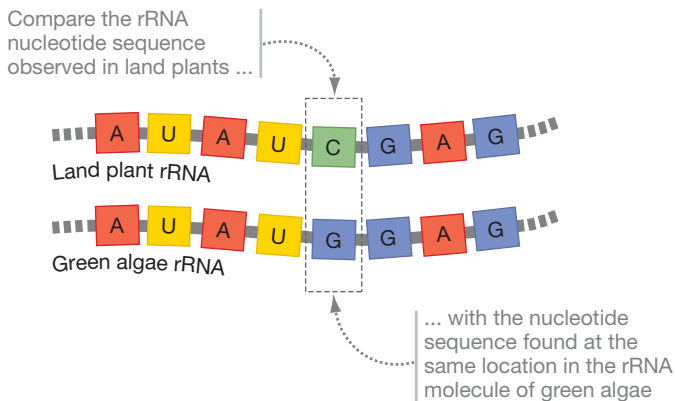


FIGURE 1.4 RNA Molecules Are Made Up of Smaller Molecules. A complete small subunit rRNA molecule contains about 2000 ribonucleotides; just 8 are shown in this comparison.

QUESTION Suppose that in the same section of rRNA, molds and other fungi have the sequence A-U-A-U-G-G-A-C. Are fungi more closely related to green algae or to land plants? Explain your logic.

Although the initial work was based only on the sequences of ribonucleotides observed in rRNA, biologists now use data sets that include sequences from a wide array of genetic material. FIGURE 1.5 shows a recent tree produced by comparing these sequences. Because this tree includes such a diverse array of

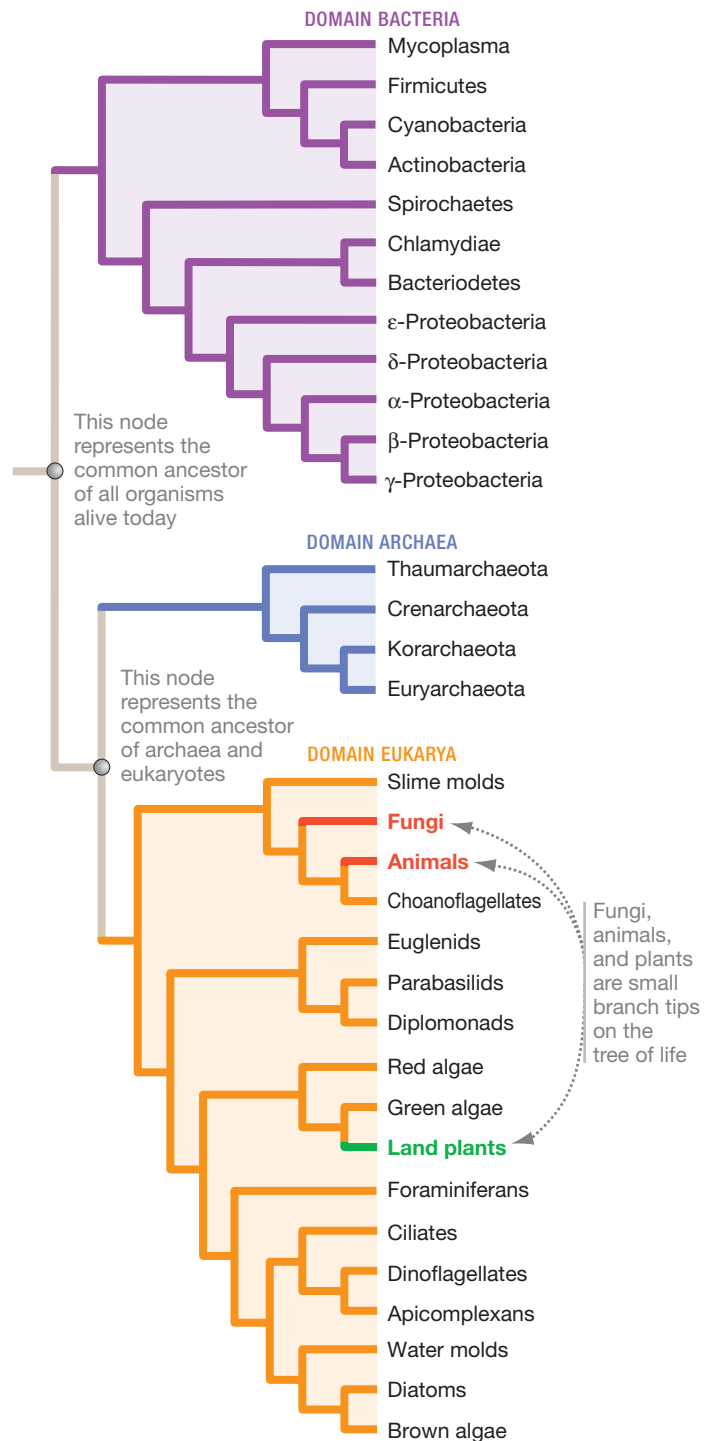


FIGURE 1.5 The Tree of Life. A phylogenetic tree estimated from a large amount of genetic sequence data. The three domains of life revealed by the analysis are labeled. Common names are given for lineages in the domains Bacteria and Eukarya. Phyla names are given for members of the domain Archaea, because most of these organisms have no common names.

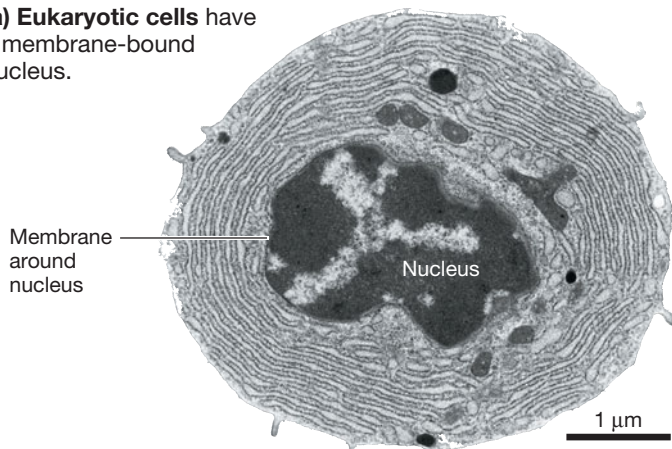
species, it is often called the universal tree, or the tree of life. (For help in learning how to read a phylogenetic tree, see **BioSkills 7** in Appendix B.) Notice that the tree's main node is the common ancestor of all living organisms. Researchers who study the origin of life propose that the tree's root extends even further back to the “last universal common ancestor” of cells, or **LUCA**.

The tree of life implied by rRNA and other genetic data established that there are three fundamental groups or lineages of organisms: (1) the Bacteria, (2) the Archaea, and (3) the Eukarya. In all **eukaryotes**, cells have a prominent component called the nucleus (**FIGURE 1.6a**). Translated literally, the word eukaryotes means “true kernel.” Because the vast majority of bacterial and archaeal cells lack a nucleus, they are referred to as **prokaryotes** (literally, “before kernel”; see **FIGURE 1.6b**). The vast majority of bacteria and archaea are unicellular (“one-celled”); many eukaryotes are multicellular (“many-celled”).

When results based on genetic data were first published, biologists were astonished. For example:

- Prior to Woese’s work and follow-up studies, biologists thought that the most fundamental division among organisms was between prokaryotes and eukaryotes. The Archaea were virtually unknown—much less recognized as a major and highly distinctive branch on the tree of life.
- Fungi were thought to be closely related to plants. Instead, they are actually much more closely related to animals.

(a) Eukaryotic cells have a membrane-bound nucleus.



(b) Prokaryotic cells do not have a membrane-bound nucleus.

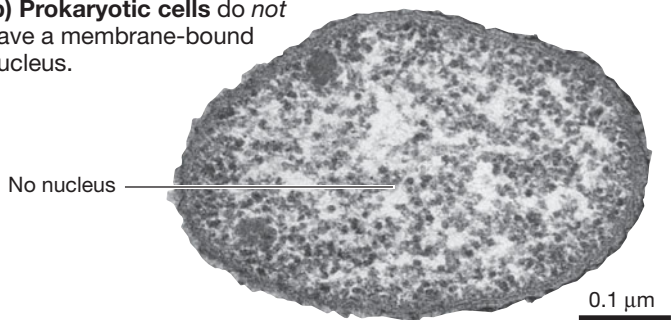


FIGURE 1.6 Eukaryotes and Prokaryotes.

✓ **QUANTITATIVE** How many times larger is the eukaryotic cell in this figure than the prokaryotic cell? (Hint: Study the scale bars.)

- Traditional approaches for classifying organisms—including the system of five kingdoms divided into various classes, orders, and families that you may have learned in high school—are inaccurate in many cases, because they do not reflect the actual evolutionary history of the organisms involved.

The Tree of Life Is a Work in Progress Just as researching your family tree can help you understand who you are and where you came from, so the tree of life helps biologists understand the relationships between organisms and the history of species. The discovery of the Archaea and the accurate placement of lineages such as the fungi qualify as exciting breakthroughs in our understanding of evolutionary history and life’s diversity.

Work on the tree of life continues at a furious pace, however, and the location of certain branches on the tree is hotly debated. As databases expand and as techniques for analyzing data improve, the shape of the tree of life presented in Figure 1.5 will undoubtedly change. Our understanding of the tree of life, like our understanding of every other topic in biological science, is dynamic.

How Should We Name Branches on the Tree of Life?

In science, the effort to name and classify organisms is called **taxonomy**. Any named group is called a **taxon** (plural: **taxa**). Currently, biologists are working to create a taxonomy, or naming system, that accurately reflects the phylogeny of organisms.

Based on the tree of life implied by genetic data, Woese proposed a new taxonomic category called the **domain**. The three domains of life are the Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya.

Biologists often use the term **phylum** (plural: **phyla**) to refer to major lineages within each domain. Although the designation is somewhat arbitrary, each phylum is considered a major branch on the tree of life. Within the lineage called animals, biologists currently name 30–35 phyla—each of which is distinguished by distinctive aspects of its body structure as well as by distinctive gene sequences. For example, the mollusks (clams, squid, octopuses) constitute a phylum, as do chordates (the vertebrates and their close relatives).

Because the tree of life is so new, though, naming systems are still being worked out. One thing that hasn’t changed for centuries, however, is the naming system for individual species.

Scientific (Latin) Names In 1735, a Swedish botanist named Carolus Linnaeus established a system for naming species that is still in use today. Linnaeus created a two-part name unique to each type of organism.

- **Genus** The first part indicates the organism’s **genus** (plural: **genera**). A genus is made up of a closely related group of species. For example, Linnaeus put humans in the genus *Homo*. Although humans are the only living species in this genus, at least six extinct organisms, all of which walked upright and made extensive use of tools, were later also assigned to *Homo*.
- **Species** The second term in the two-part name identifies the organism’s species. Linnaeus gave humans the species name *sapiens*.

An organism's genus and species designation is called its **scientific name** or Latin name. Scientific names are always italicized. Genus names are always capitalized, but species names are not—as in *Homo sapiens*.

Scientific names are based on Latin or Greek word roots or on words “Latinized” from other languages. Linnaeus gave a scientific name to every species then known, and also Latinized his own name—from Karl von Linné to Carolus Linnaeus.

Linnaeus maintained that different types of organisms should not be given the same genus and species names. Other species may be assigned to the genus *Homo*, and members of other genera may be named *sapiens*, but only humans are named *Homo sapiens*. Each scientific name is unique.

Scientific Names Are Often Descriptive Scientific names and terms are often based on Latin or Greek word roots that are descriptive. For example, *Homo sapiens* is derived from the Latin *homo* for “man” and *sapiens* for “wise” or “knowing.” The yeast that bakers use to produce bread and that brewers use to brew beer is called *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. The Greek root *saccharo* means “sugar,” and *myces* refers to a fungus. *Saccharomyces* is aptly named “sugar fungus” because yeast is a fungus and because the domesticated strains of yeast used in commercial baking and brewing are often fed sugar. The species name of this organism, *cerevisiae*, is Latin for “beer.” Loosely translated, then, the scientific name of brewer’s yeast means “sugar-fungus for beer.”

Scientific names and terms often seem daunting at first glance. So, most biologists find it extremely helpful to memorize some of the common Latin and Greek roots. To aid you in this process, new terms in this text are often accompanied by a translation of their Latin or Greek word roots in parentheses. (A glossary of common root words with translations and examples is also provided in **BioSkills 2** in Appendix B.)

check your understanding

C

If you understand that . . .

- A phylogenetic tree shows the evolutionary relationships between species.
- To infer where species belong on a phylogenetic tree, biologists examine genetic and other characteristics of the species involved. Closely related species should have similar characteristics, while less closely related species should be less similar.

Y

U

✓ You should be able to . . .

Examine the following rRNA ribonucleotide sequences and draw a phylogenetic tree showing the relationships between species A, B, and C that these data imply:

Species A: A A C T A G C G C G A T

Species B: A A C T A G C G C C A T

Species C: T T C T A G C G G T A T

Answers are available in Appendix A.

1.5 Doing Biology

This chapter has introduced some of the great ideas in biology. The development of the cell theory and the theory of evolution by natural selection provided cornerstones when the science was young; the tree of life is a relatively recent insight that has revolutionized our understanding of life’s diversity.

These theories are considered great because they explain fundamental aspects of nature, and because they have consistently been shown to be correct. They are considered correct because they have withstood extensive testing.

How do biologists go about testing their ideas? Before answering this question, let’s step back a bit and consider the types of questions that researchers can and cannot ask.

The Nature of Science

Biologists ask questions about organisms, just as physicists and chemists ask questions about the physical world or geologists ask questions about Earth’s history and the ongoing processes that shape landforms.

No matter what their field, all scientists ask questions that can be answered by observing or measuring things—by collecting data. Conversely, scientists cannot address questions that can’t be answered by observing or measuring things.

This distinction is important. It is at the root of continuing controversies about teaching evolution in publicly funded schools. In the United States and in Turkey, in particular, some Christian and Islamic leaders have been particularly successful in pushing their claim that evolution and religious faith are in conflict. Even though the theory of evolution is considered one of the most successful and best-substantiated ideas in the history of science, they object to teaching it.

The vast majority of biologists and many religious leaders reject this claim; they see no conflict between evolution and religious faith. Their view is that science and religion are compatible because they address different types of questions.

- Science is about formulating hypotheses and finding evidence that supports or conflicts with those hypotheses.
- Religious faith addresses questions that cannot be answered by data. The questions addressed by the world’s great religions focus on why we exist and how we should live.

Both types of questions are seen as legitimate and important.

So how do biologists go about answering questions? After formulating hypotheses, biologists perform experimental studies, or studies that yield descriptive data, such as observing a behavior, characterizing a structure within a cell by microscopy, or sequencing rRNA. Let’s consider two recent examples of this process.

Why Do Giraffes Have Long Necks? An Introduction to Hypothesis Testing

If you were asked why giraffes have long necks, you might say based on your observations that long necks enable giraffes to reach food that is unavailable to other mammals. This hypothesis