

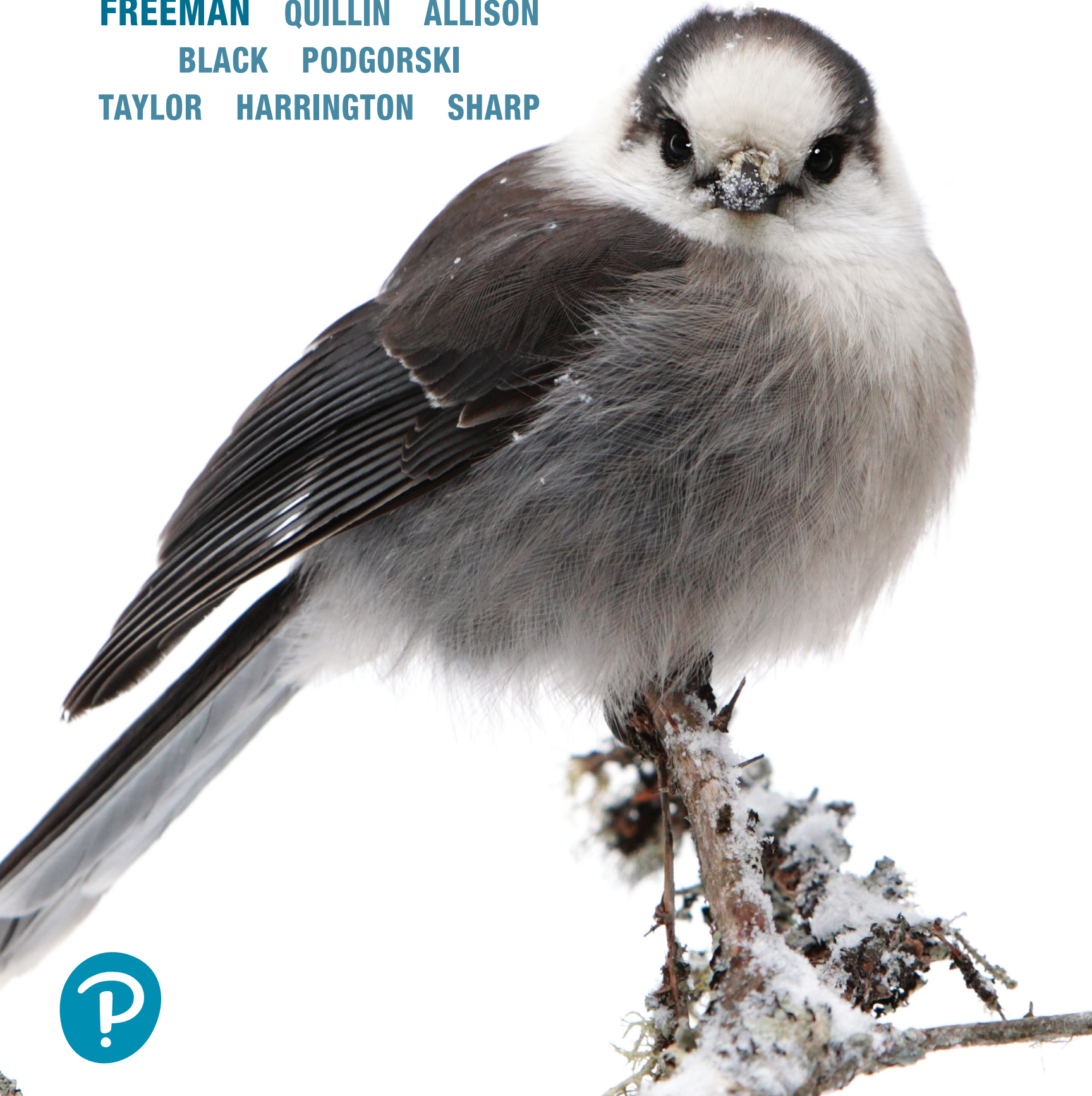
THIRD CANADIAN EDITION

BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

FREEMAN QUILLIN ALLISON

BLACK PODGORSKI

TAYLOR HARRINGTON SHARP



Brief Contents

1 Biology and the Tree of Life 1

UNIT 1 THE MOLECULAR ORIGIN AND EVOLUTION OF LIFE 50

- 2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life 50
- 3 Protein Structure and Function 73
- 4 Nucleic Acids and the RNA World 89
- 5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates 103
- 6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells 116

UNIT 2 CELL STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION 140

- 7 Inside the Cell 140
- 8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolism 170
- 9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation 189
- 10 Photosynthesis 212
- 11 Cell–Cell Interactions 236
- 12 The Cell Cycle 256

UNIT 3 GENE STRUCTURE AND EXPRESSION 276

- 13 Meiosis 276
- 14 Mendel and the Gene 297
- 15 How DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair 325
- 16 How Genes Work 344
- 17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation 358
- 18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria 377
- 19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes 390
- 20 The Molecular Revolution: Biotechnology and Beyond 410
- 21 Genes, Development, and Evolution 430

UNIT 4 EVOLUTIONARY PATTERNS AND PROCESSES 447

- 22 Evolution by Natural Selection 447
- 23 Evolutionary Processes 469
- 24 Speciation 496
- 25 Phylogenies and the History of Life 514

UNIT 5 THE DIVERSIFICATION OF LIFE 538

- 26 Bacteria and Archaea 538
- 27 Protists 561
- 28 Green Algae and Land Plants 584
- 29 Fungi 615
- 30 An Introduction to Animals 639
- 31 Protostome Animals 661
- 32 Deuterostome Animals 684
- 33 Viruses 713

UNIT 6 HOW PLANTS WORK 736

- 34 Plant Form and Function 736
- 35 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants 760
- 36 Plant Nutrition 782
- 37 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses 801
- 38 Plant Reproduction and Development 830

UNIT 7 HOW ANIMALS WORK 858

- 39 Animal Form and Function 858
- 40 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Animals 878
- 41 Animal Nutrition 898
- 42 Gas Exchange and Circulation 919
- 43 Animal Nervous Systems 945
- 44 Animal Sensory Systems 969
- 45 Animal Movement 991
- 46 Chemical Signals in Animals 1011
- 47 Animal Reproduction and Development 1032
- 48 The Immune System in Animals 1060

UNIT 8 ECOLOGY 1084

- 49 An Introduction to Ecology 1084
- 50 Behavioural Ecology 1109
- 51 Population Ecology 1130
- 52 Community Ecology 1154
- 53 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1180
- 54 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1206

Canadian Research and Canadian Issues

CANADIAN RESEARCH

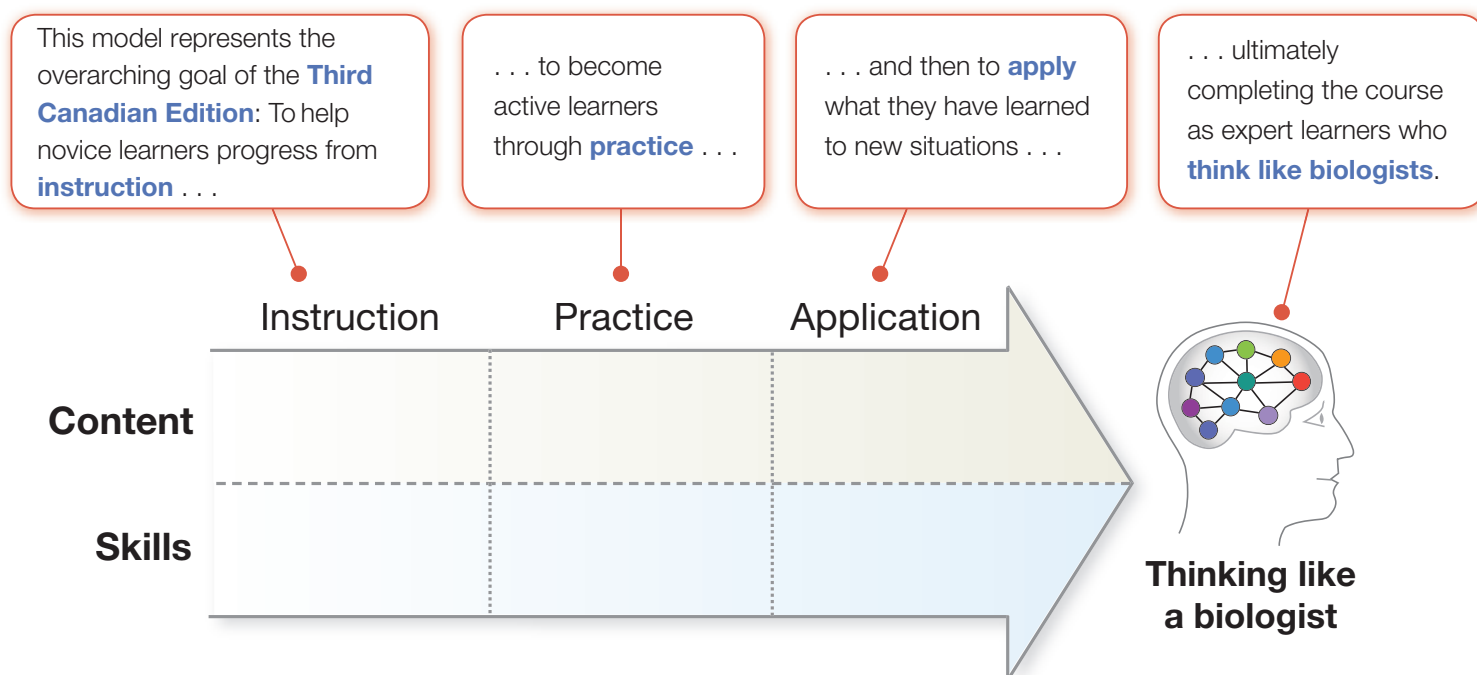
- 1.1 Artificial Selection on Bighorn Sheep in Alberta 10
- 2.1 Searching for Life in Extreme Environments 67
- 2.2 The Carbon-Rich Tagish Lake Meteorite 68
- 3.1 Designing New Proteins 79
- 4.1 Designing New Deoxyribozymes 100
- 5.1 Human Milk Carbohydrates 110
- 6.1 Artificial Cells and Liposomal Nanomedicines 124
- 6.2 Membrane Proteins 135
- 7.1 Bacteria Cells Have Their Own Cytoskeleton 143
- 7.2 Pathogenic Bacteria Alter the Cytoskeleton of Human Cells 166
- 8.1 Insulin Processing by Proprotein Convertases 184
- 9.1 The ATP Synthase and Proton Pump 205
- 10.1 Photosynthesis in Rice 230
- 11.1 Collagen Fingerprinting Identifies Canadian Camels 239
- 11.2 The Discovery of Insulin 249
- 12.1 Yoshio Masui and the Discovery of MPF 268
- 12.2 MPF Activates Condensins Directly 269
- 13.1 The Proteins Required for Prophase I of Meiosis 287
- 14.1 The Genetics of Dog Coat Colour 319
- 15.1 Telomerase and Cancer 339
- 15.2 Telomeres and Cancer 341
- 16.1 The Mutations Responsible for Himalayan Fur Colour in Mink and Mice 354
- 17.1 RNA Base Modifications 363
- 17.2 RNA Synthesis in Mitochondria 373
- 18.1 Gene Expression in a Pathogenic Bacteria 387
- 19.1 Epigenetic Regulation of Ant Size 395
- 19.2 Alternative Splicing of RNAs in Human Nerve Cells 401
- 20.1 Ancient DNA in Canada 415
- 21.1 The First Cloned *Drosophila* 435
- 21.2 Stem Cells and Stem Cell-Based Therapies 441
- 23.1 Evolution in Action: Kermode Bears and Newfoundland Moose 489
- 24.1 Dolph Schluter Studies New Species 508
- 25.1 The Burgess Shale: A Window into the Cambrian Explosion 528
- 26.1 Is There a Universal Tree of Life? 555
- 27.1 How Will Phytoplankton Respond to Elevated CO₂ Levels? 565
- 28.1 Flowering Plants and Their Pollinators 604
- 29.1 Photosynthetic Carbon Is Transferred from Stressed to Healthy Plants through Ectomycorrhizal Networks 627
- 31.1 Canada's Cambrian Mollusks 671
- 33.1 Viruses in the Oceans 714
- 34.1 Does Phenotypic Plasticity of Leaves Offer Protection against Herbivore Attack? 744
- 35.1 Ecological Pressures and the Evolution of Drought Adaptation in Plants 771
- 36.1 Do Belowground Interactions between Plants and Fungi Influence Aboveground Interactions between Plants and Pollinators? 791
- 37.1 Plant Signalling Networks Help Influence Proper Growth 809
- 38.1 Apoptosis during the Formation of Plant Leaves 849
- 39.1 Freeze-Tolerant Animals 874
- 40.1 The Bamfield Marine Sciences Centre and Research on Shark Osmoregulation 883
- 41.1 Treating Diabetes Mellitus 916
- 42.1 Peter Hochachka and Physiological Adaptation in Animals 933
- 43.1 David Suzuki and the Discovery of the Genes Encoding Neuron Proteins 958
- 44.1 Why Do Wind Farms Kill Bats? 975
- 45.1 Tyrannosaur Tails 1005
- 46.1 Cortisol Mediates Stress in Wildlife 1026
- 47.1 Apoptosis during the Morphogenesis of Chick Embryos 1049
- 48.1 Tak Wah Mak and the Discovery of the T-Cell Receptor 1068
- 48.2 Designing Universal Blood for Donations 1077
- 49.1 Salmon Migration in a Warming World 1086
- 49.2 The Future of Canada's Lakes and Wetlands 1105
- 50.1 Do Male Redback Spiders Benefit from Being Eaten by Their Mates? 1110
- 51.1 Tyrannosaur Life Tables 1136
- 52.1 Why Is Biodiversity Higher in the Tropics? 1176
- 53.1 Can Predators Increase Nutrient Cycling? 1189

CANADIAN ISSUES

- 3.1 Prion Diseases in Canada 85
- 5.1 Natural and Artificial Sweeteners 112
- 9.1 Making Biofuels with Fermentation and Anaerobic Respiration 208
- 20.1 iBOL: The International Barcode of Life Project 423
- 22.1 Evolution in Action: Do Hunting and Fishing Select for Undesirable Traits? 460
- 28.1 Canada's National Tree Seed Centre 599
- 30.1 The Canadian Healthy Oceans Network 640
- 32.1 Alberta during the Mesozoic Era 701
- 38.1 What Is the Effect of Agriculture on Wild Bee Abundance and Crop Pollination? 837
- 41.1 Vitamin D Deficiency in Canada 901
- 46.1 Estrogens in the Environment 1023
- 47.1 Canada's Assisted Human Reproduction Act 1057
- 50.1 The Whisky Jack: Canada's National Bird? 1118
- 53.1 Insect Outbreaks Result from and Contribute to Climate Change 1201
- 54.1 SARA—Canada's Species at Risk Act 1226

A Student-Centred Approach to the Study of Biology

Since its trailblazing First Edition, *Biological Science* has delivered numerous biology teaching innovations that emphasize higher-order thinking skills and conceptual understanding rather than an encyclopedic grasp of what is known about biology. With each edition, this approach has grown and improved to better help students make the shift from being novice learners to expert learners. Central to this shift is a student-centred approach that provides deep support for the learning of core content and the development of key skills that help students learn and practise biology.



On the pages that follow, we will show how the text and **Mastering Biology** resources work together to achieve this goal.

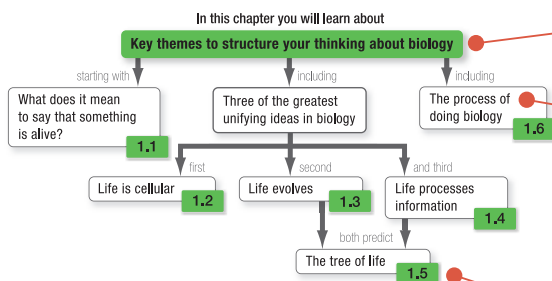
Develop a Conceptual Understanding of Biology

Unique Chapter-Opening Roadmaps set the table for learning by visually grouping and organizing information to help students anticipate key ideas as well as recognize meaningful relationships and connections that are explored in the chapter that follows.



1 Biology and the Tree of Life

This whisky jack looks like it is waiting for a kindly hiker to give it some food. It represents one of the key characteristics of life introduced in this chapter—energy.



In essence, biological science is the study of life. It searches for ideas and observations that unify our understanding of the diversity of life—from bacteria living in hot springs to humans and majestic sequoia trees.

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.

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 **linking words**.

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

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

Big Picture Concept Maps integrate visuals and words to help students synthesize information about challenging topics in biology that span multiple chapters and units.

Instruction Practice Application

Content

New Diversity Big Picture

Skills

THE BIG PICTURE

DIVERSITY OF LIFE

Viruses are enormously diverse and are important agents of organismal evolution, but are not themselves alive so are not included in the tree of life.

This Big Picture shows the three-domain hypothesis, dividing life into the domains Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya. Most organisms on Earth are single-celled prokaryotes in the domains Bacteria and Archaea.

Only some of the many lineages of living organisms are included in this tree (see Chapters 26–32 for more details). You can use this Big Picture to practice your tree-thinking skills (see BioSkills 11). Also, be sure to do the blue exercises in the Check Your Understanding box below.

The Big Picture of Evolution (pp. 536–537) explains how the tree of life took shape. New branches are added when natural selection, genetic drift, and mutation occur in populations that are isolated by low levels of gene flow. Branches are “pruned” from the tree when extinction occurs.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

If you understand the big picture ...

✓ You should be able to ...

1. Circle the branches in the trees where humans occur.
2. In the tree on the left, draw an arrow from cyanobacteria to the root of plants to show the endosymbiosis event marking the origin of chloroplasts. Then draw an arrow from the ε-proteobacteria to the root of Eukarya to show the origin of mitochondria.
3. Identify three examples of monophyletic groups in the trees and one example of a paraphyletic group.
4. Mark the origin of stringing cells in jellyfish (cnidarians).

Answers are available in Appendix A.

“You should be able to...” activities encourage students to analyze important patterns within each Big Picture concept map.

Big Picture topics include:

- **NEW!** Doing Biology, pp. 16–17
- **NEW!** Diversity of Life, pp. 734–735
- Macromolecules, pp. 138–139
- How Vascular Plants Work, pp. 856–857
- Energy for Life, pp. 234–235
- How Humans Work, pp. 1082–1083
- Genetic Information, pp. 408–409
- Ecology, pp. 1232–1233
- Evolution, pp. 536–537

Mastering Biology

Big Picture concept map tutorials are challenging, higher-level activities that require students to build their own concept map and to answer questions about the content. They are automatically graded to make it easy for professors to assign. New to the **Third Canadian Edition** are tutorials on diversity.

Concept Map

Getting Started

What are the four processes of evolution?

Describe the four evolutionary processes, including their effects on genetic variation and average fitness.

<http://www.ck12.com/a/concept-map/> | [View as Labeled](#) | [Switch to keyboard version](#)

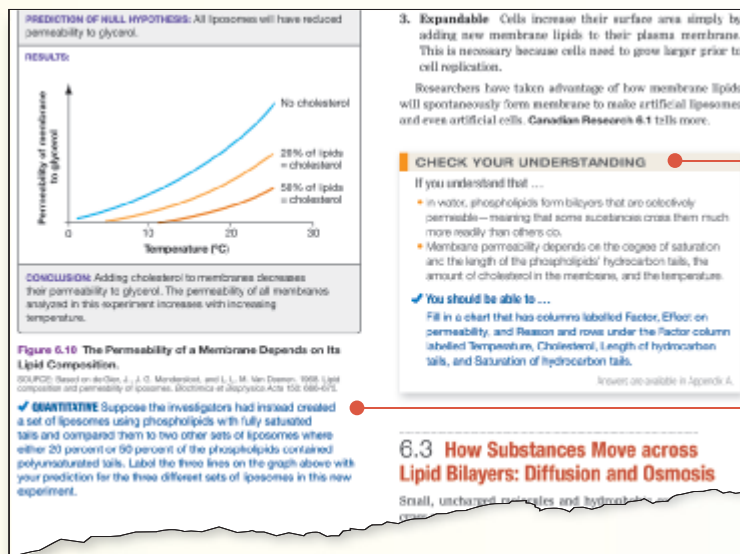
Processes

- is a heritable trait that increases
- is random with respect to fitness
- is the only process that produces adaptation

Undo Clear All Save Map Submit Map

Engage in Scientific Inquiry and Active Problem Solving

A wide variety of practice questions and exercises are designed to encourage readers to pause and test their understanding as they proceed through each chapter. All questions and exercises are highlighted in blue throughout the text.

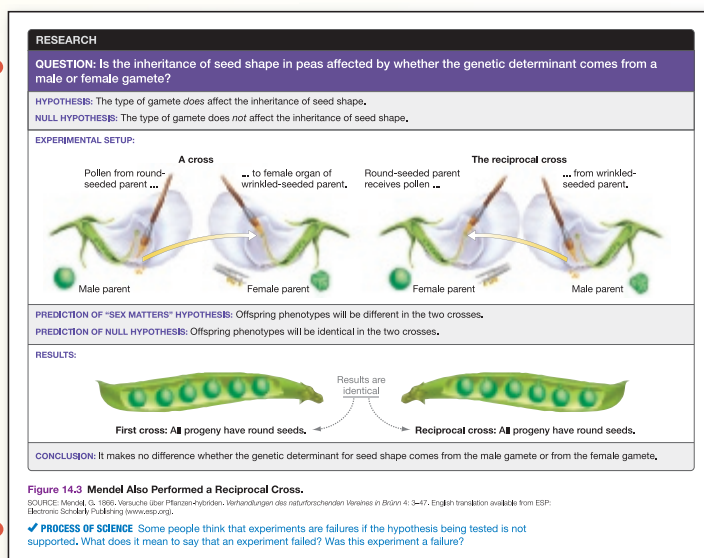


Check Your Understanding activities ask students to work with important concepts in the chapter.

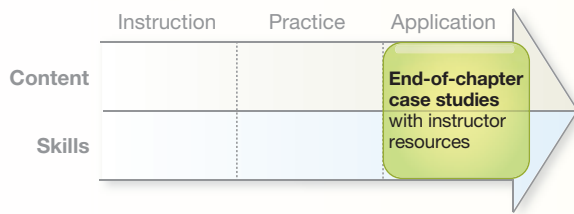
Figure and table caption questions and exercises ask students to critically examine information in figures and tables.

Research boxes teach students how we know what we know about biology by using current and classic research to model the observational and hypothesis-testing process of scientific discovery.

Each Research box concludes with a **question or exercise** that asks students to think critically about experimental design by predicting outcomes, analyzing the setup used to test a hypothesis, or interpreting data found in experimental results



Mastering Biology "Solve It" Tutorials engage learners in a multi-step investigation of a "mystery" or open question in which students must analyze real data.



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

NEW! “Put It All Together” case studies appear at the end of every chapter and provide a brief summary of contemporary biology research in action. Each case study connects what students learn in class with current, real-world biology research questions. At least one question requires students to **analyze real data** or apply **quantitative skills**.

Mastering Biology

NEW! Case study questions from the end of chapter are assignable in MasteringBiology.

NEW! Classroom activity questions about the case study are available for clickers to help instructors easily incorporate the case studies into their classroom teaching.

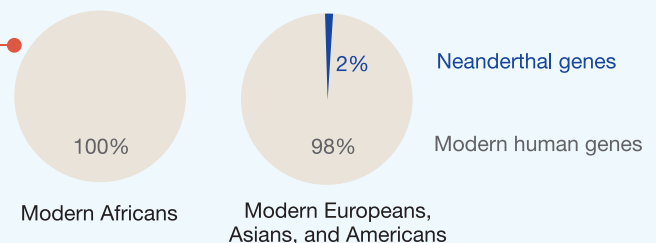
✓ PUT IT ALL TOGETHER: Case Study



Have human species hybridized in the past?

A revolution in the study of human evolution is under way due to the invention of techniques that enable DNA sequencing not only of modern humans but also of ancient humans (introduced in Chapter 20).

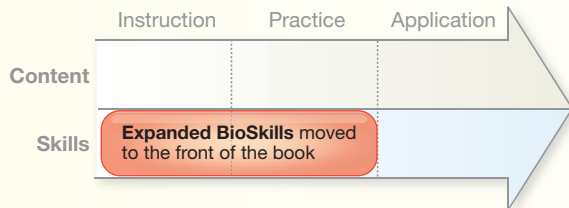
- Human populations today are *not* considered separate species under the biological species, morphospecies, ecological species, and phylogenetic species concepts. Explain what kind of evidence supports this statement.
- Before the application of DNA sequencing to fossils, which species concept was most useful for distinguishing human fossils? What is one disadvantage of this approach?
- Modern humans (*Homo sapiens*) and archaic humans called Neanderthals (*H. neanderthalensis*) shared a common ancestor in Africa but diverged in different geographic areas. When modern humans migrated out of Africa and dispersed around the world starting about 70 000 years ago, they overlapped with Neanderthals in Europe. This scenario is best described as:
 - species living in sympatry following allopatric speciation
 - species living in sympatry following sympatric speciation
 - species living in allopatry following allopatric speciation
 - species living in allopatry following sympatric speciation
- Swedish biologist Svante Pääbo and colleagues sequenced the Neanderthal genome from fossils and compared the sequences to modern humans. According to the data shown here, did the two species interbreed when their ranges overlapped? Explain.



Source: Prüfer, K., et al. 2014. *Nature* 505: 43–49.

- PROCESS OF SCIENCE** Is it legitimate to use the DNA of humans living today to determine if mating occurred among human species in the past? Explain.
- Neanderthals disappeared about 40 000 years ago when the modern human population increased. This is an example of what outcome(s) of secondary contact (see Table 24.3)? Predict one way this result might have come about.

Develop Skills for Success in Biology and Beyond...



NEW! Unique BioSkills reference section is now placed earlier in the text to draw attention to key skills students need to succeed in biology. Previously located in an appendix at the end of the text, this easy-to-find reference material now follows Chapter 1 to better support the development of skills throughout the course. Each BioSkill includes practice exercises.

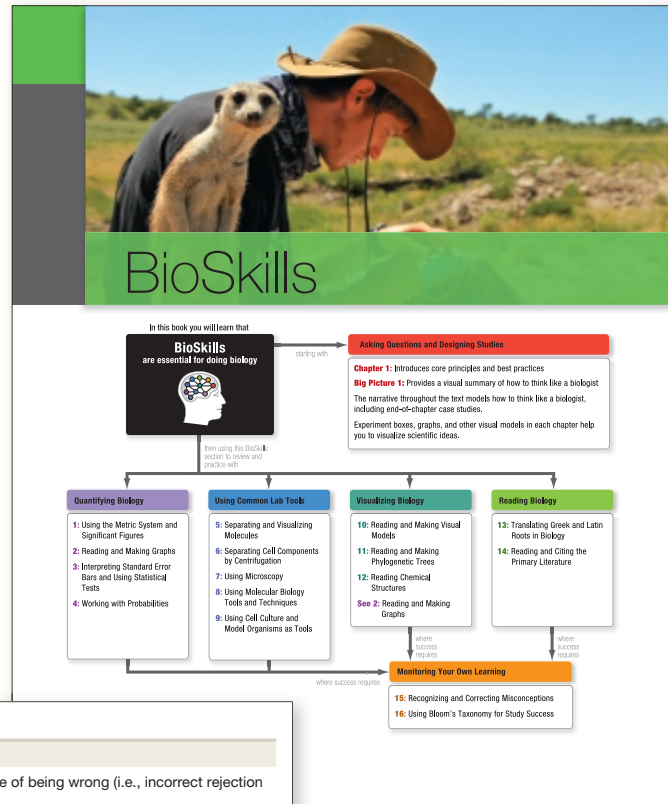


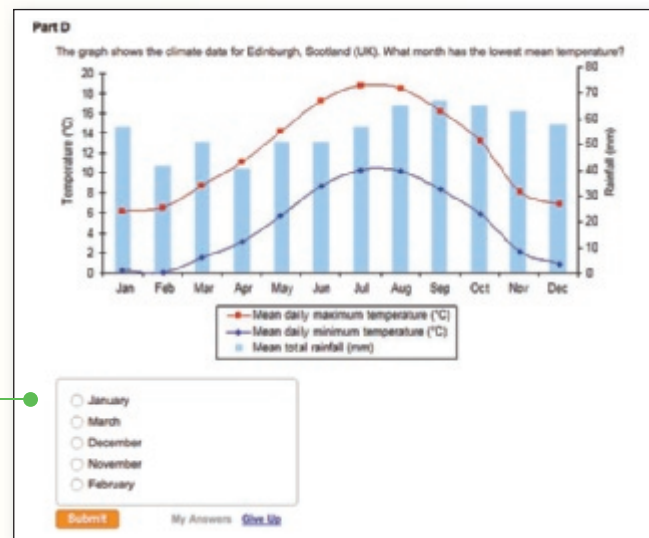
Table B3.1 Asterisk Rating System for P Values and Statistical Significance

P Value	Asterisk Rating	Statistical Significance Level	Meaning
$P > 0.05$	None	Not significant	Greater than a 1 in 20 chance of being wrong (i.e., incorrect rejection of the null hypothesis)
$P < 0.05$	*	Statistically significant	Less than a 1 in 20 chance of being wrong
$P < 0.01$	**	Statistically significant	Less than a 1 in 100 chance of being wrong
$P < 0.001$	***	Statistically significant	Less than a 1 in 1000 chance of being wrong

EXPANDED! BioSkill on Interpreting Standard Error Bars and Using Statistical Tests includes a new discussion of commonly used tests, such as chi-square, t-test, and analysis of variance (ANOVA). A new section discusses interpreting P values and statistical significance.

Mastering Biology

BioSkills review questions are available in the Study Area for self-paced learning and practice. Additional BioSkills questions in the item library are assignable for homework.



Content **Model-based reasoning content, videos, and aligned questions** added throughout book and in MasteringBiology

Skills

Concept Maps

Concept maps are devices for organizing and expressing what you know about a topic. They have been proven to be an effective studying and learning tool.

Concept maps have two main elements: **(1)** concepts that are identified by words or short phrases and placed in a box or circle (you can think of these as the “nouns”), and **(2)** labelled arrows that physically link two or more concepts and explain the relationship between them (you can think of these as the “verbs”). The concepts can be arranged in different patterns on the page depending on the content. Concept maps may be organized as a hierarchy starting with the big idea at the top and moving down to details, or they may be organized in a time sequence or cycle.

One example of a simple concept map is shown in **Figure B10.1**. Other types of concept maps that you will encounter in this

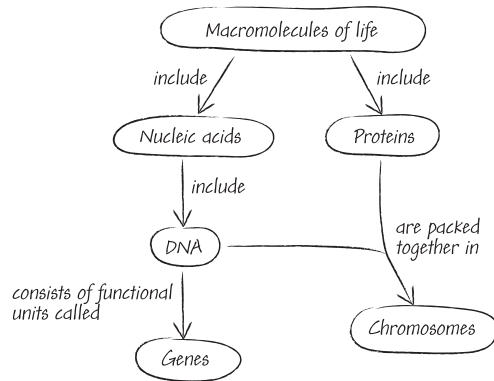
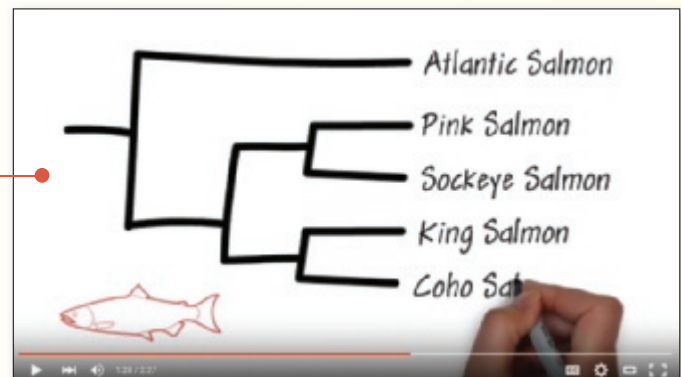


Figure B10.1 A Concept Map of the Relationships between Nucleic Acids and Proteins.

NEW! BioSkill 10: Reading and Making Visual Models is a guide for developing a deeper understanding of biology concepts by interpreting and creating visual models.

NEW! Interactive whiteboard videos about Making Models to reinforce learning and to demonstrate how to build visual models.



MasteringBiology.com Making Models: Tips on Drawing Phylogenetic Trees—Rotating Branches

Item Type: Tutorial | Difficulty: -- | Time: -- | Contact the Publisher

Manage this Item: Standard View

Making Models: Tips on Drawing Phylogenetic Trees—Rotating Branches

Watch this video and complete the “Your Turn” activity at the end. Then answer these questions.

MAKING MODELS

Part A

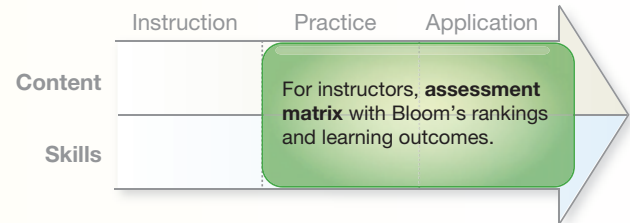
Which tree highlights the nodes that represent the most recent common ancestors in this reference tree?

Mastering Biology

NEW! Making Models activities are assignable for homework and include the whiteboard videos plus application questions that help in developing the skills of interpreting visual models.

For Instructors: Easily Align Assessment with Your Course Goals

Informed by current science education research and curriculum reform strategies, the Third Canadian Edition instructor resources provide a broad range of easy-to-use assessment options.



BLOOM'S TAXONOMY RANKING

"Blue Thread" questions, including some end-of-chapter problems, are ranked according to **Bloom's taxonomy** and are assignable in MasteringBiology.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

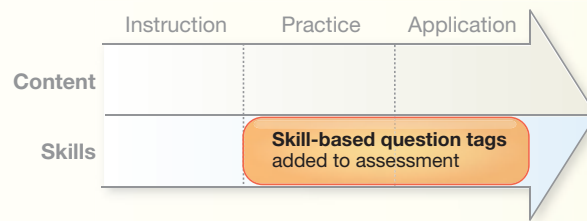
Each question is tagged to a publisher-provided **Learning Outcome**. Instructors may also track their own Learning Outcomes using MasteringBiology.

Mastering Biology

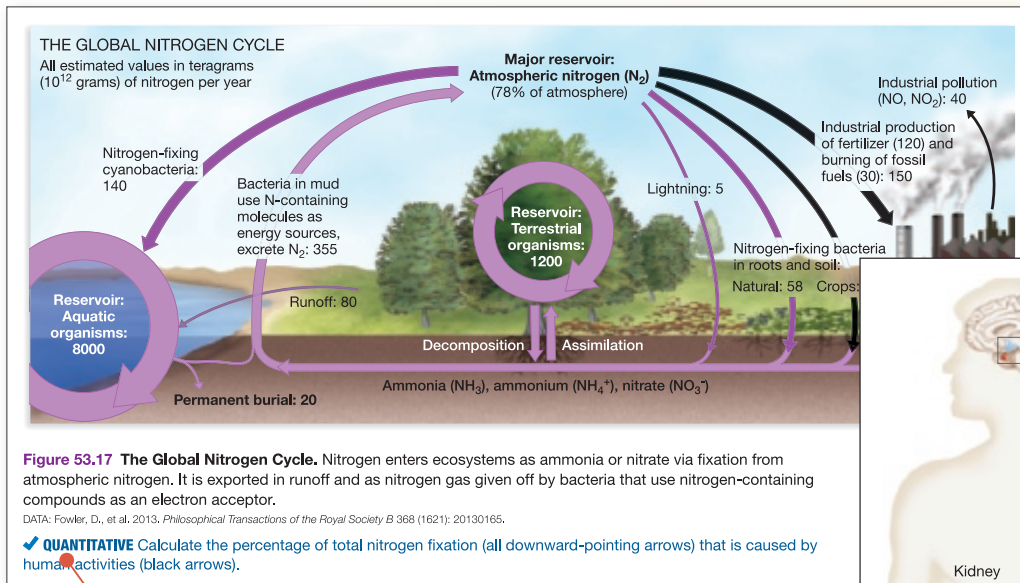
EXPANDED! Questions, activities, and tutorials are tagged by Bloom's ranking and Learning Outcome.

Source

Book/Source	Chapter	Display By	Learning Outcomes
Freeman, Biological Science, 6e	39 Plant Nutrition	Learning Outcomes	All

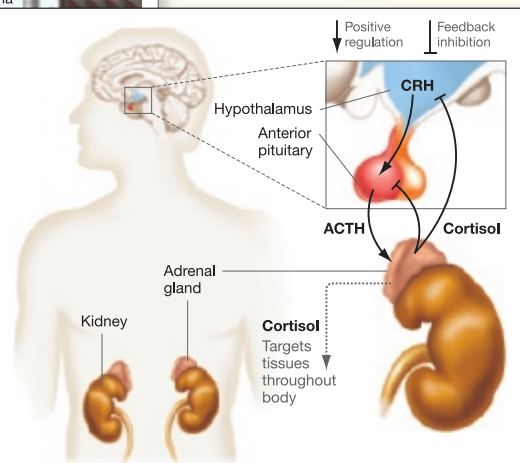


An extensive selection of mid- and high-level assessment questions are provided throughout each chapter to help students learn, practise, and prepare for tests.



✓ **QUANTITATIVE** Calculate the percentage of total nitrogen fixation (all downward-pointing arrows) that is caused by human activities (black arrows).

NEW! Question labels call attention to questions that require **quantitative skills**, an understanding of the **process of science**, connecting biology and **society**, making **models**, and more.



✓ **PROCESS OF SCIENCE** Use the figure to devise a test for adrenal failure in humans.

NEW! Caution questions address topics for which students often hold common misconceptions. Answers to Caution questions include information that addresses the misconception.

5. **CAUTION** According to data presented in this chapter, which one of the following statements is correct?
- When individuals change in response to challenges from the environment, their altered traits are passed on to offspring.
 - Species are created independently of each other and do not change over time.
 - Populations—not individuals—change when natural selection occurs.
 - The traits of populations become more perfect over time.

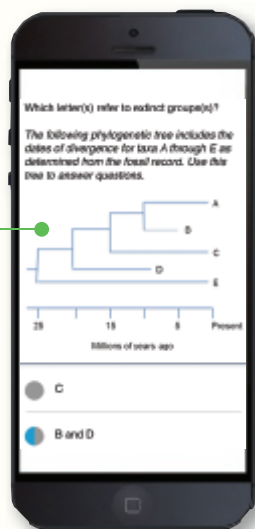
Succeed with Mastering Biology

Mastering Biology is a powerful online learning and assessment system proven to improve results by engaging students before, during, and after class with a deep library of helpful activities. Mastering brings learning full circle by continuously adapting to each student and making learning more personal than ever—before, during, and after class.

Before Class

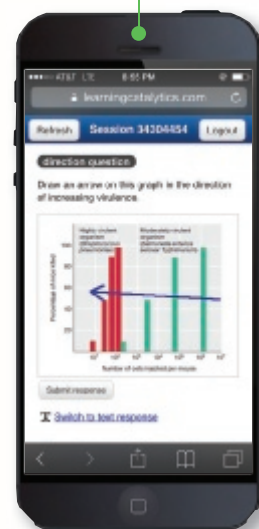
NEW! Dynamic Study Modules provide students with multiple sets of questions with extensive feedback so that they can test, learn, and retest until they achieve mastery of the textbook material.

NEW! More mobile-friendly pre-class reading quizzes help students pinpoint concepts that they understand and concepts with which they need more help. By identifying topics that are most difficult for them, students are better prepared to ask questions and more likely to listen actively.



During Class

NEW! Learning Catalytics™ allows students to use their smartphone, tablet, or laptop to respond individually or in groups to questions in class. Visit learningcatalytics.com to learn more.

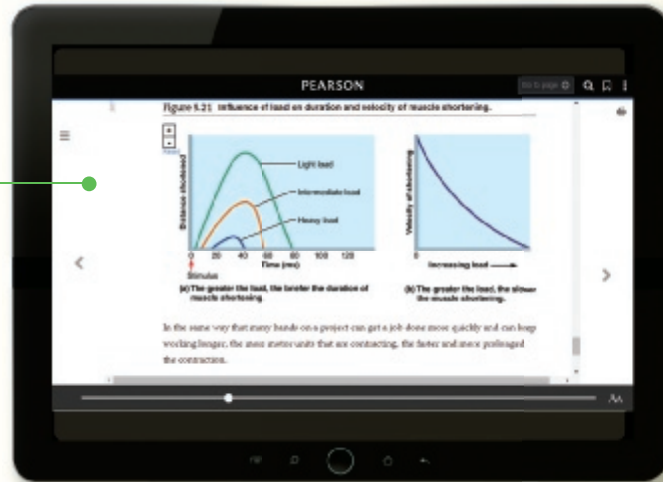


After Class

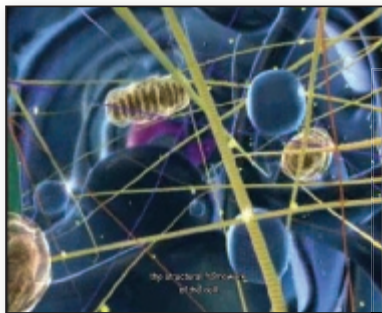
NEW! Optional Adaptive Follow-up Assignments are based on each student's performance on the original MasteringBiology assignment and provide additional questions and activities tailored to each student's needs.

Hundreds of self-paced tutorials and coaching activities provide students with individualized coaching with specific hints and feedback on the toughest topics in the course.

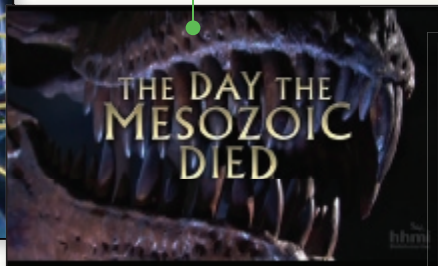
NEW! Pearson eText 2.0 Features include student and instructor note-taking, highlighting, bookmarking, search, and hotlinked glossary.



Mastering Biology offers a wide variety of tutorials that can be assigned as homework. Examples include:



BioFlix® Tutorials use 3-D, movie-quality animations and coaching exercises to help students master tough topics outside of class. Animations can also be shown in class.



NEW! HHMI Short Films, documentary-quality movies from the Howard Hughes Medical Institute, engage students in topics from the discovery of the double helix to evolution, with assignable questions.



NEW! Galapagos Evolution Videos, filmed by Peter and Rosemary Grant, bring to life the dynamic evolutionary processes that impact Darwin's finches on Daphne Major Island.

INSTRUCTOR AND STUDENT RESOURCES

For Instructors

Instructor's Guide (Download only)

Includes learning objectives, lecture outlines, vocabulary, active learning lecture activities, and clicker questions.

TestGen Test Bank (Download Only)

All of the exam questions in the Test Bank have been peer reviewed, providing questions that set the standard for quality and accuracy. Questions have been improved by evaluating user data from **Mastering Biology**. Test questions are ranked according to Bloom's taxonomy.

PowerPoint Presentations (Download Only)

A set of PowerPoint presentations offers lectures outlines for each chapter, augmented by key text illustrations and hyperlinks to animations.

For Students

Study Guide by Warren Burggren et. al.

© 2019 | 013451324X / 9780134513249

The Study Guide presents a breakdown of key biological concepts, difficult topics, and quizzes to help students prepare for exams.

Practicing Biology: A Student Workbook

© 2017 | 0134261941/9780134261942

This workbook provides a variety of hands-on activities such as mapping and modelling to suit different learning styles and help students discover which topics they need more help on. Students learn biology by doing biology!

NEW! Ready-to-Go Teaching Modules help instructors efficiently make use of the best teaching tools before, during, and after class.

Concept Biology, Eleventh Edition
Ready-to-Go Teaching Modules

Ready-to-Go Teaching Modules provide instructors with easy-to-use teaching tools for the toughest topics in General Biology.

Assign ready-made activities and assignments for before, during, and after class.

Incorporate active learning with class-tested resources from biology instructors.

Take full advantage of MasteringBiology and Learning Catalytics™, the powerful "bring your own device" student assessment system.

Oxidative Phosphorylation CONCEPT 6.4	The Light Reactions CONCEPT 6.2	Mitosis CONCEPT 6.3
Meiosis CONCEPT 6.5	Gene Expression: Mutations CONCEPT 17.4	Mechanisms of Evolution CONCEPT 21.1
Phylogenetic Trees CONCEPT 21.2	Transport in Plants CONCEPT 34.2	Resting and Action Potentials CONCEPT 48.3
Trophic Relationships CONCEPT 35.1		



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The whisky jack or grey jay is native to every Canadian province and territory, living year-round in boreal and alpine coniferous forests. A mated pair of these intelligent and curious corvids prepare for a northern winter by gluing perishable food items to tree branches with their sticky saliva. Whisky jacks nest in late winter, incubating eggs at temperatures as low as -20°C . Their thick, fluffy plumage keeps them warm. Feathers cover their legs and feet and even line their nostrils.

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“For Yusef, who finds the world a fascinating place, and in memory of Yasmin, who found comfort in nature.”

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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 Life Is Cellular 2

- All Organisms Are Made of Cells 2
- Where Do Cells Come From? 3
- Life Replicates through Cell Division 4

1.3 Life Evolves 4

- What Is Evolution? 4
- What Is Natural Selection? 4

1.4 Life Processes Information 5

- The Central Dogma 5
- Life Requires Energy 6

1.5 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

1.6 Doing Biology 9

- How Has Artificial Selection Affected Bighorn Sheep? An Introduction to Hypothesis Testing 9

CANADIAN RESEARCH 1.1 Artificial Selection on Bighorn Sheep in Alberta 10

How Do Ants Navigate? An Introduction to Experimental Design 10

CHAPTER REVIEW 13

BIG PICTURE Doing Biology 16

BioSkills 18

B.1 Using the Metric System and Significant Figures 19

Significant Figures 19

B.2 Reading and Making Graphs 20

- Getting Started 21
- Types of Graphs 22
- Getting Practice 23

B.3 Interpreting Standard Error Bars and Using Statistical Tests 23

- Standard Error Bars 23
- Using Statistical Tests 24
- Interpreting *P* Values and Statistical Significance 24

B.4 Working with Probabilities 25

- The Both-And Rule 25
- The Either-Or Rule 26

B.5 Separating and Visualizing Molecules 26

- Using Electrophoresis to Separate Molecules 26
- Using Thin Layer Chromatography to Separate Molecules 27
- Visualizing Molecules 27

B.6 Separating Cell Components by Centrifugation 29



B.7 Using Microscopy 30

- Light and Fluorescence Microscopy 30
- Electron Microscopy 30
- Studying Live Cells and Real-Time Processes 31
- Visualizing Cellular Structures in 3-D 32

B.8 Using Molecular Biology Tools and Techniques 32

- Making and Using DNA Libraries 33
- Amplifying DNA Using the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) 33
- Automated Sanger DNA Sequencing 35
- Next-Generation DNA Sequencing (NGS) 36

B.9 Using Cell Culture and Model Organisms as Tools 36

- Cell and Tissue Culture Methods 36
- Model Organisms 37

B.10 Reading and Making Visual Models 40

- Tips for Interpreting Models 40
- Tips for Making Your Own Models 40
- Concept Maps 41

B.11 Reading and Making Phylogenetic Trees 42

- Anatomy of a Phylogenetic Tree 42
- How to Read a Phylogenetic Tree 43
- How to Draw a Phylogenetic Tree 43

B.12 Reading Chemical Structures 43

B.13 Translating Greek and Latin Roots in Biology 45

B.14 Reading and Citing the Primary Literature 45

- What Is the Primary Literature? 45
- Getting Started 45
- Citing Sources 47
- Getting Practice 47

B.15 Recognizing and Correcting Misconceptions 47

B.16 Using Bloom's Taxonomy for Study Success 48

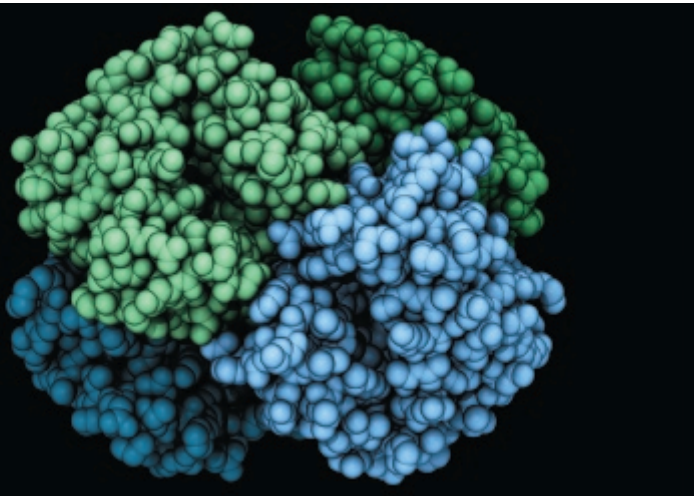
- Categories of Human Cognition 48
- Six Study Steps to Success 48

2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life 50

- 2.1 Atoms, Ions, and Molecules: The Building Blocks of Chemical Evolution** 51
 Basic Atomic Structure 51
 How Does Covalent Bonding Hold Molecules Together? 53
 Ionic Bonding, Ions, and the Electron-Sharing Continuum 54
 Some Simple Molecules Formed from C, H, N, and O 55
 The Geometry of Simple Molecules 55
 Representing Molecules 55
- 2.2 Properties of Water and the Early Oceans** 56
 Why Is Water Such an Efficient Solvent? 57
 What Properties Are Correlated with Water's Structure? 57
 The Role of Water in Acid–Base Chemical Reactions 59
- 2.3 Chemical Reactions, Energy, and Chemical Evolution** 61
 How Do Chemical Reactions Happen? 61
 What Is Energy? 62
 What Makes a Chemical Reaction Spontaneous? 62
- 2.4 Model Systems for Investigating Chemical Evolution** 64
 Early Origin-of-Life Experiments 64
 Recent Origin-of-Life Experiments 65
CANADIAN RESEARCH 2.1 Searching for Life in Extreme Environments 67
- 2.5 The Importance of Organic Molecules** 67
CANADIAN RESEARCH 2.2 The Carbon-Rich Tagish Lake Meteorite 68
 Linking Carbon Atoms Together 68
 Functional Groups 68
 CHAPTER REVIEW 70

3 Protein Structure and Function 73

- 3.1 Amino Acids and Their Polymerization** 74
 The Structure of Amino Acids 74



- The Nature of Side Chains 74
 How Do Amino Acids Link to Form Proteins? 76

- 3.2 What Do Proteins Look Like?** 78
 Primary Structure 78
CANADIAN RESEARCH 3.1 Designing New Proteins 79
 Secondary Structure 80
 Tertiary Structure 81
 Quaternary Structure 81
- 3.3 Folding and Function** 83
 Normal Folding Is Crucial to Function 83
 Protein Shape Is Flexible 83
CANADIAN ISSUES 3.1 Prion Diseases in Canada 85
- 3.4 Protein Functions Are as Diverse as Protein Structures** 85
 Why Are Enzymes Good Catalysts? 85
 Did Life Arise from a Self-Replicating Enzyme? 86
 CHAPTER REVIEW 86

4 Nucleic Acids and the RNA World 89

- 4.1 What Is a Nucleic Acid?** 90
 What Are Nucleotides? 90
 How Do Nucleotides Polymerize to Form Nucleic Acids? 91
- 4.2 DNA Structure and Function** 93
 What Is the Nature of DNA's Secondary Structure? 93
 The Tertiary Structure of DNA 95
 DNA Functions as an Information-Containing Molecule 95
 The DNA Double Helix Is a Stable Structure 96
- 4.3 RNA Structure and Function** 97
 Structurally, RNA Differs from DNA 97
 RNA Is an Information-Containing Molecule 98
 RNA Can Function as a Catalytic Molecule 98
- 4.4 In Search of the First Life-Form** 99
 How Biologists Study the RNA World 99
 The RNA World May Have Sparked the Evolution of Life 100
CANADIAN RESEARCH 4.1 Designing New Deoxyribozymes 100
 CHAPTER REVIEW 101

5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates 103

- 5.1 Sugars as Monomers** 104
 What Distinguishes One Monosaccharide from Another? 104
 Can Monosaccharides Form by Chemical Evolution? 105
- 5.2 The Structure of Disaccharides** 106
- 5.3 The Structure of Polysaccharides** 107
 Starch: A Storage Polysaccharide in Plants 107
 Glycogen: A Highly Branched Storage Polysaccharide in Animals 107
 Cellulose: A Structural Polysaccharide in Plants 107
 Chitin: A Structural Polysaccharide in Fungi and Animals 107
 Peptidoglycan: A Structural Polysaccharide in Bacteria 107
 Polysaccharides and Chemical Evolution 107

- 5.4 What Do Carbohydrates Do?** 109
 Carbohydrates Can Provide Structural Support 109
 The Role of Carbohydrates in Cell Identity 109
 Carbohydrates and Energy Storage 110
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 5.1** Human Milk Carbohydrates 110
- CANADIAN ISSUES 5.1** Natural and Artificial Sweeteners 112
- CHAPTER REVIEW 113

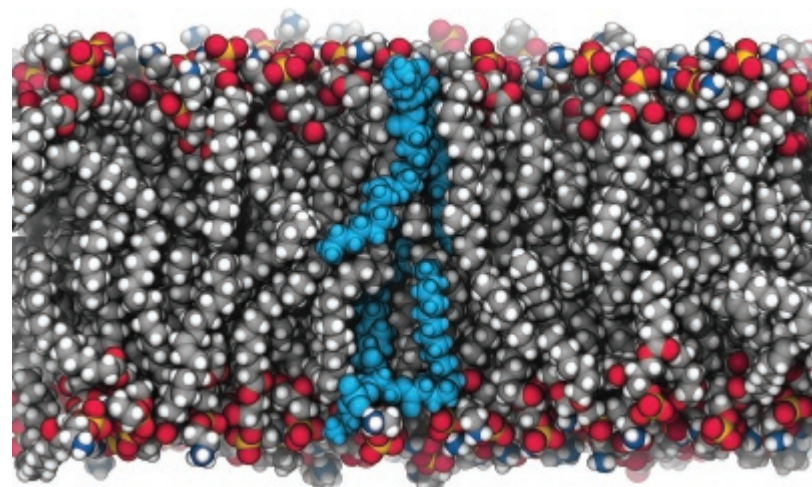
6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells 116

- 6.1 Lipid Structure and Function** 117
 Why Is Bond Structure Important? 117
 A Look at Three Types of Lipids Found in Cells 118
 How Membrane Lipids Interact with Water 119
 Were Lipids Present during Chemical Evolution? 120
- 6.2 Phospholipid Bilayers** 120
 Artificial Membranes as an Experimental System 120
 Selective Permeability of Lipid Bilayers 121
 How Does Lipid Structure Affect Membrane Permeability? 121
 How Does Temperature Affect the Fluidity and Permeability of Membranes? 122
- 6.3 How Substances Move across Lipid Bilayers: Diffusion and Osmosis** 123
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 6.1** Artificial Cells and Liposomal Nanomedicines 124
 Diffusion 125
 Osmosis 125
 Membranes and Chemical Evolution 126
- 6.4 Proteins Alter Membrane Structure and Function** 127
 Development of the Fluid-Mosaic Model 128
 Systems for Studying Membrane Proteins 129
 Channel Proteins Facilitate Diffusion 129
 Carrier Proteins Facilitate Diffusion 132
 Pumps and Coupled Transporters Perform Active Transport 133
 Plasma Membranes Define the Intracellular Environment 134
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 6.2** Membrane Proteins 135
- CHAPTER REVIEW 136
- BIG PICTURE** Macromolecules 138

UNIT 2 CELL STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION 140

7 Inside the Cell 140

- 7.1 Bacterial and Archaeal Cell Structures and Their Functions** 141
 A Revolutionary New View 141
 Prokaryotic Cell Structures: A Parts List 141
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 7.1** Bacteria Cells Have Their Own Cytoskeleton 143
- 7.2 Eukaryotic Cell Structures and Their Functions** 144
 The Benefits of Organelles 145
 Eukaryotic Cell Structures: A Parts List 145
- 7.3 Putting the Parts into a Whole** 152



- Structure and Function at the Whole-Cell Level 152
 The Dynamic Cell 153
- 7.4 Cell Systems I: Nuclear Transport** 154
 Structure and Function of the Nuclear Envelope 154
 How Do Molecules Enter the Nucleus? 154
- 7.5 Cell Systems II: The Endomembrane System Manufactures, Ships, and Recycles Cargo** 155
 Studying the Pathway through the Endomembrane System 156
 Entering the Endomembrane System: The Signal Hypothesis 157
 Moving from the ER to the Golgi Apparatus 158
 What Happens Inside the Golgi Apparatus? 159
 How Do Proteins Reach Their Destinations? 159
 Recycling Material in the Lysosome 159
- 7.6 Cell Systems III: The Dynamic Cytoskeleton** 161
 Actin Filaments 162
 Intermediate Filaments 163
 Microtubules 163
 Flagella and Cilia: Moving the Entire Cell 165
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 7.2** Pathogenic Bacteria Alter the Cytoskeleton of Human Cells 166
- CHAPTER REVIEW 167

8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolism 170

- 8.1 What Happens to Energy in Chemical Reactions?** 171
 Chemical Reactions Involve Energy Transformations 171
 Temperature and Concentration Affect Reaction Rates 172
- 8.2 Nonspontaneous Reactions May Be Driven Using Chemical Energy** 174
 Redox Reactions Transfer Energy via Electrons 174
 ATP Transfers Energy via Phosphate Groups 176
- 8.3 How Enzymes Work** 178
 Enzymes Help Reactions Clear Two Hurdles 178
 What Limits the Rate of Catalysis? 180
 Do Enzymes Work Alone? 181
- 8.4 What Factors Affect Enzyme Function?** 181
 Enzymes Are Optimized for Particular Environments 181
 Most Enzymes Are Regulated 182

CANADIAN RESEARCH 8.1 Insulin Processing by Proprotein Convertases 184

8.5 Enzymes Can Work Together in Metabolic Pathways 184

Metabolic Pathways Are Regulated 184

Metabolic Pathways Evolve 185

CHAPTER REVIEW 186

9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation 189

9.1 An Overview of Cellular Respiration 190

What Happens When Glucose Is Oxidized? 190

Cellular Respiration Plays a Central Role in Metabolism 191

9.2 Glycolysis: Oxidizing Glucose to Pyruvate 193

Glycolysis Is a Sequence of 10 Reactions 193

How Is Glycolysis Regulated? 193

9.3 Processing Pyruvate to Acetyl CoA 196

9.4 The Citric Acid Cycle: Oxidizing Acetyl CoA to CO₂ 197

What Happens to the NADH and FADH₂? 197

9.5 Electron Transport and Chemiosmosis: Building a Proton Gradient to Produce ATP 200

The Electron Transport Chain 200

The Discovery of ATP Synthase 201

The Chemiosmosis Hypothesis 203

Organisms Use a Diversity of Electron Acceptors 204

CANADIAN RESEARCH 9.1 The ATP Synthase and Proton Pump 205

9.6 Fermentation 206

Many Different Fermentation Pathways Exist 207

CANADIAN ISSUES 9.1 Making Biofuels with Fermentation and Anaerobic Respiration 208

Fermentation as an Alternative to Cellular Respiration 209

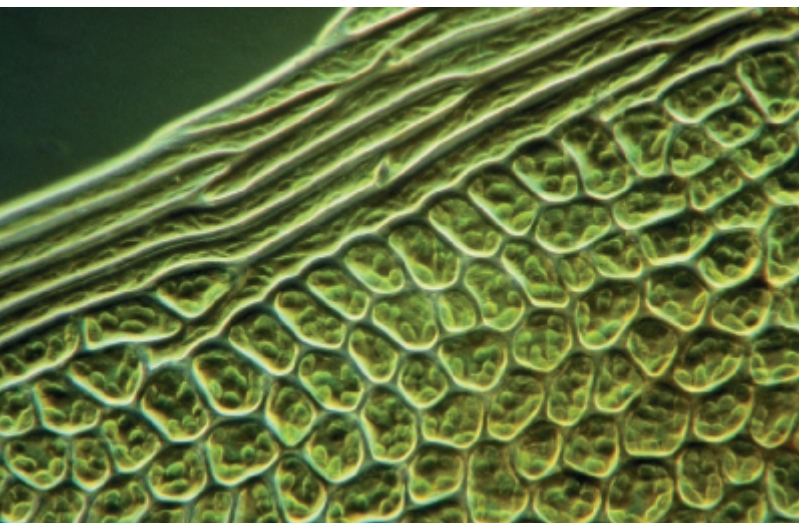
CHAPTER REVIEW 209

10 Photosynthesis 212

10.1 Photosynthesis Harnesses Sunlight to Make Carbohydrate 213

Photosynthesis: Two Linked Sets of Reactions 213

Photosynthesis Occurs in Chloroplasts 214



10.2 How Do Pigments Capture Light Energy? 215

Photosynthetic Pigments Absorb Light 215

When Light Is Absorbed, Electrons Enter an Excited State 218

10.3 The Discovery of Photosystems I and II 220

How Does Photosystem II Work? 220

How Does Photosystem I Work? 222

The Z Scheme: Photosystems II and I Work Together 223

10.4 How Is Carbon Dioxide Reduced to Produce Sugars? 225

The Calvin Cycle Fixes Carbon 225

The Discovery of Rubisco 227

How Is Photosynthesis Regulated? 228

Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Pass through Stomata 228

Mechanisms for Increasing CO₂ Concentration 229

CANADIAN RESEARCH 10.1 Photosynthesis in Rice 230

What Happens to the Sugar That Is Produced by Photosynthesis? 231

CHAPTER REVIEW 232

BIG PICTURE Energy for Life 234

11 Cell–Cell Interactions 236

11.1 The Cell Surface 237

The Structure and Function of an Extracellular Layer 237

The Extracellular Matrix in Animals 237

CANADIAN RESEARCH 11.1 Collagen Fingerprinting Identifies

Canadian Camels 239

The Cell Wall in Plants 239

11.2 How Do Adjacent Cells Connect and Communicate? 240

Cell–Cell Attachments in Multicellular Eukaryotes 241

Cells Communicate via Cell–Cell Gaps 244

11.3 How Do Distant Cells Communicate? 246

Cell–Cell Signalling in Multicellular Organisms 246

Signal Reception 246

Signal Processing 246

CANADIAN RESEARCH 11.2 The Discovery of Insulin 249

Signal Response 251

Signal Deactivation 252

11.4 Signalling between Unicellular Organisms 252

CHAPTER REVIEW 253

12 The Cell Cycle 256

12.1 How Do Cells Replicate? 257

What Is a Chromosome? 257

Cells Alternate between M Phase and Interphase 258

The Discovery of S Phase 258

The Discovery of the Gap Phases 258

The Cell Cycle 259

12.2 What Happens during M Phase? 260

Proteins Needed for Mitosis 260

Events in Mitosis 260

How Do Chromosomes Move during Anaphase? 262

Cytokinesis Results in Two Daughter Cells 265

Bacterial Cell Replication 266

- 12.3 Control of the Cell Cycle** 266
 The Discovery of Cell-Cycle Regulatory Molecules 267
CANADIAN RESEARCH 12.1 Yoshio Masui and the Discovery of MPF 268
CANADIAN RESEARCH 12.2 MPF Activates Condensins Directly 269
 Cell-Cycle Checkpoints Can Arrest the Cell Cycle 270
- 12.4 Cancer: Out-of-Control Cell Division** 271
 Properties of Cancer Cells 271
 Causes of Cancer 271
 CHAPTER REVIEW 274

**UNIT
3**

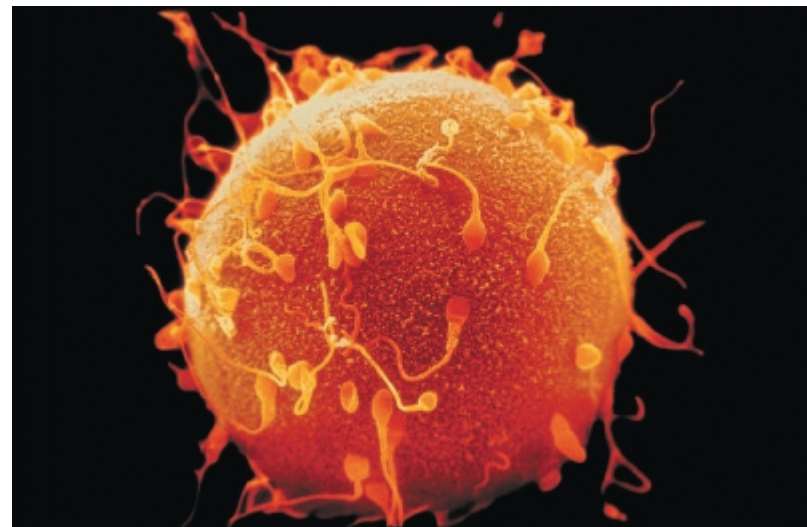
GENE STRUCTURE AND EXPRESSION 276

13 Meiosis 276

- 13.1 How Does Meiosis Occur?** 277
 Organisms Have Unique Chromosome Compositions 277
 The Concept of Ploidy 278
 An Overview of Meiosis 279
 The Phases of Meiosis I 282
 The Phases of Meiosis II 284
 A Closer Look at Synapsis and Crossing Over 284
 Mitosis versus Meiosis 285
CANADIAN RESEARCH 13.1 The Proteins Required for Prophase I of Meiosis 287
- 13.2 Meiosis Promotes Genetic Variation** 287
 Chromosomes and Heredity 288
 The Role of Independent Assortment 288
 The Role of Crossing Over 289
 How Does Fertilization Affect Genetic Variation? 289
- 13.3 What Happens When Things Go Wrong in Meiosis?** 290
 How Do Mistakes Occur? 290
 Why Do Mistakes Occur? 291
- 13.4 Why Does Meiosis Exist?** 292
 The Paradox of Sex 292
 The Purifying Selection Hypothesis 293
 The Changing-Environment Hypothesis 293
 CHAPTER REVIEW 294

14 Mendel and the Gene 297

- 14.1 Mendel's Experimental System** 298
 What Questions Was Mendel Trying to Answer? 298
 The Garden Pea Served as the First Model Organism in Genetics 298
- 14.2 Mendel's Experiments with a Single Trait** 300
 The Monohybrid Cross 300
 Particulate Inheritance 302
- 14.3 Mendel's Experiments with Two Traits** 304
 The Dihybrid Cross 304
 Using a Testcross to Confirm Predictions 306
- 14.4 The Chromosome Theory of Inheritance** 307
 Meiosis Explains Mendel's Principles 307
 Testing the Chromosome Theory 307
- 14.5 Extending Mendel's Rules** 310
 Linkage: What Happens When Genes Are Located on the Same Chromosome? 310



- Quantitative Methods 14.1** Linkage and Genetic Mapping 312
 How Many Alleles Can a Gene Have? 313
 Are Alleles Always Dominant or Recessive? 313
 Does Each Gene Affect Just One Trait? 314
 Are All Traits Determined by a Gene? 314
 Can Mendel's Principles Explain Traits That Don't Fall into Distinct Categories? 315

- 14.6 Applying Mendel's Rules to Human Inheritance** 317
 Identifying Alleles as Recessive or Dominant 317
 Identifying Traits as Autosomal or Sex-Linked 318
CANADIAN RESEARCH 14.1 The Genetics of Dog Coat Colour 319
 CHAPTER REVIEW 321

15 DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair 325

- 15.1 What Are Genes Made Of?** 326
 The Hershey–Chase Experiment 326
 The Secondary Structure of DNA 327
- 15.2 Testing Early Hypotheses about DNA Synthesis** 328
 Three Alternative Hypotheses 329
 The Meselson–Stahl Experiment 329
- 15.3 A Model for DNA Synthesis** 329
 Where Does Replication Start? 331
 How Is the Helix Opened and Stabilized? 331
 How Is the Leading Strand Synthesized? 332
 How Is the Lagging Strand Synthesized? 333
- 15.4 Replicating the Ends of Linear Chromosomes** 336
 The End Replication Problem 336
 Telomerase Solves the End Replication Problem 337
 Telomerase Regulation 337
CANADIAN RESEARCH 15.1 Telomerase and Cancer 339
- 15.5 Repairing Mistakes and DNA Damage** 339
 Correcting Mistakes in DNA Synthesis 339
 Repairing Damaged DNA 340
 DNA Repair and the Cell Cycle 341
CANADIAN RESEARCH 15.2 Telomeres and Cancer 341
 CHAPTER REVIEW 342

16 How Genes Work 344

- 16.1 What Do Genes Do?** 345
 - The One-Gene, One-Enzyme Hypothesis 345
 - An Experimental Test of the Hypothesis 345
 - 16.2 The Central Dogma of Molecular Biology** 347
 - RNA as the Intermediary between Genes and Proteins 347
 - Dissecting the Central Dogma 347
 - Linking the Central Dogma to Cellular Processes 348
 - 16.3 The Genetic Code** 349
 - How Long Is a “Word” in the Genetic Code? 349
 - How Did Researchers Crack the Code? 350
 - 16.4 What Are the Types and Consequences of Mutation?** 352
 - Point Mutations 352
 - Chromosome Mutations 354
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 16.1** The Mutations Responsible for Himalayan Fur Colour in Mink and Mice 354
- CHAPTER REVIEW 355

17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation 358

- 17.1 An Overview of Transcription** 359
 - Initiation: How Does Transcription Begin in Bacteria? 359
 - Elongation and Termination 361
 - Transcription in Eukaryotes 361
- 17.2 mRNA Processing in Eukaryotes** 363
 - The Startling Discovery of Split Eukaryotic Genes 363
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 17.1** RNA Base Modifications 363
 - RNA Splicing 364
 - Adding Caps and Tails to Transcripts 364
- 17.3 An Introduction to Translation** 365
 - Ribosomes Are the Site of Protein Synthesis 365
 - Translation in Bacteria and Eukaryotes 365
 - How Does an mRNA Codon Specify an Amino Acid? 366
- 17.4 The Structure and Function of Transfer RNA** 366
 - What Do tRNAs Look Like? 367

How Are Amino Acids Attached to tRNAs? 368
How Many tRNAs Are There? 369

- 17.5 The Structure of Ribosomes and Their Function in Translation** 369
 - Initiating Translation 370
 - Elongation: Extending the Polypeptide 371
 - Terminating Translation 371
 - Post-Translational Modifications 371
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 17.2** RNA Synthesis in Mitochondria 373
- CHAPTER REVIEW 374

18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria 377

- 18.1 An Overview of Gene Regulation and Information Flow** 378
 - Mechanisms of Regulation 378
 - Metabolizing Lactose—A Model System 379
 - 18.2 Identifying Regulated Genes** 380
 - 18.3 Negative Control of Transcription** 382
 - The Operon Model 382
 - How Does Glucose Regulate the *lac* Operon? 384
 - Why Has the *lac* Operon Model Been So Important? 384
 - 18.4 Positive Control of Transcription** 385
 - 18.5 Global Gene Regulation** 386
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 18.1** Gene Expression in a Pathogenic Bacteria 387
- CHAPTER REVIEW 387

19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes 390

- 19.1 Gene Regulation in Eukaryotes—An Overview** 391
- 19.2 Chromatin Remodelling** 391
 - What Is Chromatin’s Basic Structure? 392
 - Evidence that Chromatin Structure Is Altered in Active Genes 393
 - How Is Chromatin Altered? 393
 - Chromatin Modifications Can Be Inherited 394
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 19.1** Epigenetic Regulation of Ant Size 395
- 19.3 Initiating Transcription: Regulatory Sequences and Proteins** 396
 - Promoter-Proximal Elements Are Regulatory Sequences Near the Core Promoter 396
 - Enhancers Are Regulatory Sequences Far from the Core Promoter 396
 - The Role of Transcription Factors in Differential Gene Expression 397
 - How Do Transcription Factors Recognize Specific DNA Sequences? 397
 - A Model for Transcription Initiation 398
- 19.4 Post-Transcriptional Control** 400
 - Alternative Splicing of Primary RNAs 400
 - How Is Translation Controlled? 400
 - CANADIAN RESEARCH 19.2** Alternative Splicing of RNAs in Human Nerve Cells 401
 - Post-Translational Control 403



- 19.5 How Does Gene Expression Compare in Bacteria and Eukaryotes?** 403
- 19.6 Linking Cancer to Defects in Gene Regulation** 405
 The Genetic Basis of Uncontrolled Cell Growth 405
 The p53 Tumour Suppressor: A Case Study 405
 CHAPTER REVIEW 406

BIG PICTURE Genetic Information 408

20 The Molecular Revolution: Biotechnology and Beyond 410

- 20.1 Recombinant DNA Technology** 411
 Using Plasmids in Cloning 411
 Using Restriction Endonucleases and DNA Ligase to Cut and Paste DNA 411
 Transformation: Introducing Recombinant Plasmids into Bacterial Cells 413
 Using Reverse Transcriptase to Produce cDNAs 413
 Adding Genes to an Organism 413
 Removing Genes from an Organism 414
- 20.2 The Polymerase Chain Reaction** 414
 Requirements of PCR 414
 DNA Fingerprinting 415
CANADIAN RESEARCH 20.1 Ancient DNA in Canada 415
- 20.3 DNA Sequencing** 417
 Bioinformatics 418
 Which Genomes Are Being Sequenced, and Why? 418
- 20.4 Insights from Genome Analysis** 418
 The Natural History of Prokaryotic Genomes 419
 The Natural History of Eukaryotic Genomes 419
 Insights from the Human Genome Project 422
 Genomics after Genome Projects 422
CANADIAN ISSUES 20.1 iBOL: The International Barcode of Life Project 423
- 20.5 Finding and Engineering Genes** 424
 What Were Some of the First Human Genes Found? 424
 How Are Human Genes Found Today? 425
 What Are the Benefits of Finding a Disease Gene? 425
 Can Gene Therapy Provide a Cure? 426
- 20.6 Metagenomics, Functional Genomics, and Proteomics** 427
 What Is Metagenomics? 427
 What Is Functional Genomics? 427
 What Is Proteomics? 427
 CHAPTER REVIEW 428

21 Genes, Development, and Evolution 430

- 21.1 Shared Developmental Processes** 431
 Cell Division 431
 Cell–Cell Interactions 432
 Cell Differentiation 432
 Cell Movement and Changes in Shape 433
 Programmed Cell Death 433



- 21.2 Genetic Equivalence and Differential Gene Expression in Development** 433
 Evidence that Differentiated Plant Cells Are Genetically Equivalent 433
 Evidence that Differentiated Animal Cells Are Genetically Equivalent 434
 How Does Differential Gene Expression Occur? 435
CANADIAN RESEARCH 21.1 The First Cloned *Drosophila* 435
- 21.3 Regulatory Cascades Establish the Body Plan** 436
 Morphogens Set Up the Body Axes 436
 Regulatory Genes Provide Increasingly Specific Positional Information 438
 Regulatory Genes and Signalling Molecules Are Evolutionarily Conserved 439
CANADIAN RESEARCH 21.2 Stem Cells and Stem Cell–Based Therapies 441
- 21.4 Changes in Developmental Gene Expression Drive Evolutionary Change** 443
 CHAPTER REVIEW 445

UNIT 4 EVOLUTIONARY PATTERNS AND PROCESSES 447

22 Evolution by Natural Selection 447

- 22.1 The Evolution of Evolutionary Thought** 448
 Plato and Typological Thinking 448
 Aristotle and the Scale of Nature 448
 Lamarck and the Idea of Evolution as Change through Time 448
 Darwin and Wallace and Evolution by Natural Selection 448
- 22.2 The Pattern of Evolution: Have Species Changed, and Are They Related?** 449
 Evidence for Change through Time 449
 Evidence of Descent from a Common Ancestor 452
 Evolution’s “Internal Consistency”—The Importance of Independent Data Sets 455

- 22.3 The Process of Evolution: How Does Natural Selection Work?** 456
 Darwin's Inspiration 456
 Darwin's Four Postulates 457
 The Biological Definitions of *Fitness* and *Adaptation* 457
- 22.4 Evolution in Action: Recent Research on Natural Selection** 458
 Case Study 1: How Did *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Become Resistant to Antibiotics? 458
 Case Study 2: Why Do Beak Sizes and Shapes Vary in Galápagos Finches? 460
- CANADIAN ISSUES 22.1** Evolution in Action: Do Hunting and Fishing Select for Undesirable Traits? 460
- 22.5 Common Misconceptions about Natural Selection and Adaptation** 463
 Natural Selection Does Not Change Individuals 463
 Evolution Is Not Goal Directed 464
 Limitations of Natural Selection 465
 CHAPTER REVIEW 467

23 Evolutionary Processes 469

- 23.1 Analyzing Change in Allele Frequencies: The Hardy–Weinberg Principle** 470
 The Gene Pool Concept 470
 Deriving the Hardy–Weinberg Principle 470
 The Hardy–Weinberg Model Makes Important Assumptions 471
 How Does the Hardy–Weinberg Principle Serve as a Null Hypothesis? 472
- 23.2 Natural Selection** 474
 How Does Selection Affect Genetic Variation? 474
 Mode 1: Directional Selection 474
 Mode 2: Stabilizing Selection 475
 Mode 3: Disruptive Selection 476
 Mode 4: Balancing Selection 477
- 23.3 Genetic Drift** 477
 Simulation Studies of Genetic Drift 478
 Experimental Studies of Genetic Drift 479
 What Causes Genetic Drift in Natural Populations? 480

- 23.4 Gene Flow** 481
 Measuring Gene Flow between Populations 481
 Gene Flow Is Random with Respect to Fitness 482
- 23.5 Mutation** 483
 Mutation as an Evolutionary Mechanism 483
 Experimental Studies of Mutation 484
 Studies of Mutation in Natural Populations 485
- 23.6 Nonrandom Mating** 486
 Inbreeding 486
 Assortative Mating 488
 Sexual Selection 488
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 23.1** Evolution in Action: Kermode Bears and Newfoundland Moose 489
- CHAPTER REVIEW 493

24 Speciation 496

- 24.1 How Are Species Defined and Identified?** 497
 The Biological Species Concept 497
 The Morphospecies Concept 497
 The Ecological Species Concept 498
 The Phylogenetic Species Concept 498
 Species Definitions in Action: The Case of the Dusky Seaside Sparrow 500
- 24.2 Isolation and Divergence in Allopatry** 501
 Allopatric Speciation by Dispersal 502
 Allopatric Speciation by Vicariance 502
- 24.3 Isolation and Divergence in Sympatry** 503
 Sympatric Speciation by Disruptive Selection 503
 Sympatric Speciation by Polyploidization 505
- 24.4 What Happens When Isolated Populations Come into Contact?** 507
 Reinforcement 507
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 24.1** Dolph Schluter Studies New Species 508
 Hybrid Zones 509
 New Species through Hybridization 510
- CHAPTER REVIEW 512

25 Phylogenies and the History of Life 514

- 25.1 Tools for Studying History: Phylogenetic Trees** 515
 How Do Biologists Estimate Phylogenies? 516
 How Can Biologists Distinguish Homology from Homoplasy? 517
 Whale Evolution: A Case Study 518
- 25.2 Tools for Studying History: The Fossil Record** 520
 How Do Fossils Form? 521
 Limitations of the Fossil Record 522
 Life's Time Line 522
- 25.3 Adaptive Radiation** 525
 Why Do Adaptive Radiations Occur? 525
 The Cambrian Explosion 527
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 25.1** The Burgess Shale: A Window into the Cambrian Explosion 528
- 25.4 Mass Extinction** 530
 How Do Mass Extinctions Differ from Background Extinctions? 530



The End-Permian Extinction 531
The End-Cretaceous Extinction 531
The Sixth Mass Extinction? 533
CHAPTER REVIEW 533

BIG Evolution 536
PICTURE

UNIT
5 THE DIVERSIFICATION OF LIFE 538

26 Bacteria and Archaea 538

- 26.1 Why Do Biologists Study Bacteria and Archaea?** 539
Biological Impact 539
Some Prokaryotes Thrive in Extreme Environments 539
Medical Importance 540
Role in Bioremediation 542
- 26.2 How Do Biologists Study Bacteria and Archaea?** 543
Using Enrichment Cultures 543
Using Metagenomics 544
Investigating the Human Microbiome 544
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 545
- 26.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Bacteria and Archaea?** 546
Genetic Variation through Gene Transfer 546
Morphological Diversity 546
Metabolic Diversity 548
Ecological Diversity and Global Impacts 552
- 26.4 Key Lineages of Bacteria and Archaea** 554
CANADIAN RESEARCH 26.1 Is There a Universal Tree of Life? 555
Bacteria 556
Archaea 556
CHAPTER REVIEW 558

27 Protists 561

- 27.1 Why Do Biologists Study Protists?** 562
Impacts on Human Health and Welfare 562
Ecological Importance of Protists 564
CANADIAN RESEARCH 27.1 How Will Phytoplankton Respond to Elevated CO₂ Levels? 565
- 27.2 How Do Biologists Study Protists?** 567
Microscopy: Studying Cell Structure 567
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 568
Discovering New Lineages via Direct Sequencing 568
- 27.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Protists?** 569
What Morphological Innovations Evolved in Protists? 569
How Do Protists Obtain Food? 573
How Do Protists Move? 575
How Do Protists Reproduce? 576
Life Cycles—Haploid Dominated versus Diploid Dominated 576
- 27.4 Key Lineages of Protists** 579
Amoebozoa 579
Excavata 579
Plantae 579
Rhizaria 579
Alveolata 581
Stramenopila (Heterokonta) 581
CHAPTER REVIEW 581



28 Green Algae and Land Plants 584

- 28.1 Why Do Biologists Study Green Algae and Land Plants?** 585
Plants Provide Ecosystem Services 585
Plants Provide Humans with Food, Fuel, Fibre, Building Materials, and Medicines 586
- 28.2 How Do Biologists Study Green Algae and Land Plants?** 587
Analyzing Morphological Traits 587
Using the Fossil Record 588
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 590
- 28.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Land Plants?** 591
The Transition to Land, I: How Did Plants Adapt to Dry Conditions with Intense Sunlight? 591
Mapping Evolutionary Changes on the Phylogenetic Tree 593
The Transition to Land, II: How Do Plants Reproduce in Dry Conditions? 594
CANADIAN ISSUES 28.1 Canada's National Tree Seed Centre 599
The Angiosperm Radiation 602
CANADIAN RESEARCH 28.1 Flowering Plants and Their Pollinators 604
- 28.4 Key Lineages of Green Algae and Land Plants** 606
Green Algae 606
Nonvascular Plants 608
Seedless Vascular Plants 608
Seed Plants: Gymnosperms and Angiosperms 608
CHAPTER REVIEW 613
- ## 29 Fungi 615
- 29.1 Why Do Biologists Study Fungi?** 616
Fungi Have Important Economic and Ecological Impacts 616
Mycorrhizal Fungi Provide Nutrients for Land Plants 617
Saprophytic Fungi Accelerate the Carbon Cycle on Land 618
- 29.2 How Do Biologists Study Fungi?** 618
Analyzing Morphological Traits 619
Evaluating Molecular Phylogenies 622

- 29.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Fungi?** 623
Fungi Often Participate in Symbioses 623
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 29.1** Photosynthetic Carbon Is Transferred from Stressed to Healthy Plants through Ectomycorrhizal Networks 627
What Adaptations Make Fungi Such Effective Decomposers? 628
Variation in Reproduction 629
Four Major Types of Life Cycles 631
- 29.4 Key Lineages of Fungi** 634
Microsporidia 634
Chytrids 635
Zygomycetes 635
Glomeromycota 636
Basidiomycota 636
Ascomycota 636
CHAPTER REVIEW 636

30 An Introduction to Animals 639

- CANADIAN ISSUES 30.1** The Canadian Healthy Oceans Network 640
- 30.1 What Is an Animal?** 641
- 30.2 What Key Innovations Occurred during the Origin of Animal Phyla?** 642
Origin of Multicellularity 644
Origin of Embryonic Tissue Layers and Muscle 645
Origin of Bilateral Symmetry, Cephalization, and the Nervous System 646
Origin of the Coelom 649
Origin of Protostomes and Deuterostomes 649
Origin of Segmentation 650
- 30.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Animals within Phyla?** 650
Sensory Organs 651
Feeding 652
Movement 654
Reproduction 655
Life Cycles 656

- 30.4 Key Lineages of Animals: Non-Bilaterian Groups** 657
Porifera (Sponges) 657
Ctenophora (Comb Jellies) 658
Cnidaria (Jellyfish, Corals, Anemones, Hydroids) 658
CHAPTER REVIEW 659

31 Protostome Animals 661

- 31.1 What Is a Protostome?** 662
The Water-to-Land Transition 663
Modular Body Plans 664
- 31.2 What Is a Lophotrochozoan?** 664
What Is a Flatworm? 667
What Is a Segmented Worm? 668
What Is a Mollusk? 668
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 31.1** Canada's Cambrian Mollusks 671
- 31.3 What Is an Ecdysozoan?** 673
What Is a Nematode? 674
What Are Tardigrades and Velvet Worms? 674
What Is an Arthropod? 674
Arthropod Diversity 677
Arthropod Metamorphosis 681
CHAPTER REVIEW 682

32 Deuterostome Animals 684

- 32.1 What Is an Echinoderm?** 685
The Echinoderm Body Plan 685
Echinoderms Are Important Consumers 686
- 32.2 What Is a Chordate?** 688
The Cephalochordates 689
The Urochordates 689
The Vertebrates 690
- 32.3 What Is a Vertebrate?** 690
- 32.4 What Key Innovations Occurred during the Evolution of Vertebrates?** 691
Urochordates: Outgroup to Vertebrates 691
First Vertebrates: Origin of the Cranium and Vertebrae 693
Gnathostomes: Origin of the Vertebrate Jaw 693
Origin of the Bony Endoskeleton 696
Tetrapods: Origin of the Limb 696
Amniotes: Origin of the Amniotic Egg 697
Mammals: Origin of Lactation and Fur 698
Reptiles: Origin of Scales and Feathers Made of Keratin 700
- CANADIAN ISSUES 32.1** Alberta during the Mesozoic Era 701
Parental Care 704
Take-Home Messages 704
- 32.5 The Primates and Hominins** 705
The Primates 705
Fossil Humans 705
The Out-of-Africa Hypothesis 709
Have Humans Stopped Evolving? 710
CHAPTER REVIEW 711

33 Viruses 713

- CANADIAN RESEARCH 33.1** Viruses in the Oceans 714
- 33.1 Why Do Biologists Study Viruses?** 715
Viruses Shape the Evolution of Organisms 715



Viruses Cause Disease 715
Current Viral Pandemics in Humans: AIDS 716

- 33.2 How Do Biologists Study Viruses?** 717
Analyzing Morphological Traits 718
Analyzing the Genetic Material 719
Analyzing the Phases of Replicative Growth 719
Analyzing How Viruses Coexist with Host Cells 725
- 33.3 What Themes Occur in the Diversification of Viruses?** 726
Where Did Viruses Come From? 726
Emerging Viruses, Emerging Diseases 726
- 33.4 Key Lineages of Viruses** 728
CHAPTER REVIEW 732
- BIG PICTURE Diversity of Life** 734

UNIT
6

HOW PLANTS WORK 736

34 Plant Form and Function 736

- 34.1 Plant Form: Themes with Many Variations** 737
The Importance of Surface Area/Volume Relationships 738
The Root System 738
The Shoot System 740
The Leaf 742
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 34.1** Does Phenotypic Plasticity of Leaves Offer Protection against Herbivore Attack? 744
- 34.2 Plant Cells and Tissue Systems** 746
The Dermal Tissue System 746
The Ground Tissue System 748
The Vascular Tissue System 749
- 34.3 Primary Growth Extends the Plant Body** 751
How Do Apical Meristems Produce the Primary Plant Body? 751
How Is the Primary Root System Organized? 752
How Is the Primary Shoot System Organized? 754
- 34.4 Secondary Growth Widens Shoots and Roots** 754
What Is a Cambium? 755
How Does a Cambium Initiate Secondary Growth? 755
What Do Vascular Cambia Produce? 756
What Do Cork Cambia Produce? 756
The Structure of Tree Trunks 757
- CHAPTER REVIEW 758

35 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants 760

- 35.1 Water Potential and Water Movement** 761
What Is Water Potential? 761
What Factors Affect Water Potential? 761
Working with Water Potentials 762
Water Potentials in Soils, Plants, and the Atmosphere 763
- 35.2 How Does Water Move from Roots to Shoots?** 765
Movement of Water and Solutes into the Root 765
Water Movement via Root Pressure 766



Water Movement via Capillary Action 767
The Cohesion-Tension Theory 767

- 35.3 Plant Features That Reduce Water Loss** 770
Limiting Water Loss 770
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 35.1** Ecological Pressures and the Evolution of Drought Adaptation in Plants 771
Obtaining Carbon Dioxide under Water Stress 772
- 35.4 Translocation of Sugars** 773
Tracing Connections between Sources and Sinks 773
The Anatomy of Phloem 773
The Pressure-Flow Hypothesis 774
Phloem Loading 775
Phloem Unloading 777
- CHAPTER REVIEW 779

36 Plant Nutrition 782

- 36.1 Nutritional Requirements of Plants** 783
Which Nutrients Are Essential? 783
What Happens When Key Nutrients Are in Short Supply? 785
- 36.2 Soil: A Dynamic Mixture of Living and Nonliving Components** 786
The Importance of Soil Conservation 786
What Factors Affect Nutrient Availability? 788
- 36.3 Nutrient Uptake** 789
Mechanisms of Nutrient Uptake 789
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 36.1** Do Belowground Interactions between Plants and Fungi Influence Aboveground Interactions between Plants and Pollinators? 791
Mechanisms of Ion Exclusion 793
- 36.4 Nitrogen Fixation** 795
The Role of Symbiotic Bacteria 795
How Do Nitrogen-Fixing Bacteria Infect Plant Roots? 796
- 36.5 Nutritional Adaptations of Plants** 797
Parasitic Plants 797
Epiphytic Plants 797
Carnivorous Plants 798
- CHAPTER REVIEW 799

37 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses 801

- 37.1 Information Processing in Plants** 802
How Do Cells Receive and Process an External Signal? 802
How Do Cells Respond to Cell–Cell Signals? 802
- 37.2 Blue Light: The Phototropic Response** 804
Phototropins as Blue-Light Receptors 804
Auxin as the Phototropic Hormone 805
- 37.3 Red and Far-Red Light: Germination, Stem Elongation, and Flowering** 808
The Red/Far-Red “Switch” 808
Phytochrome Is a Red/Far-Red Receptor 808
CANADIAN RESEARCH 37.1 Plant Signalling Networks Help Influence Proper Growth 809
Signals That Promote Flowering 810
- 37.4 Gravity: The Gravitropic Response** 812
The Statolith Hypothesis 812
Auxin as the Gravitropic Signal 813
- 37.5 How Do Plants Respond to Wind and Touch?** 814
Changes in Growth Patterns 814
Movement Responses 814
- 37.6 Youth, Maturity, and Aging: The Growth Responses** 815
Auxin and Apical Dominance 815
Cytokinins and Cell Division 816
Gibberellins and ABA: Growth and Dormancy 816
Brassinosteroids and Body Size 819
Ethylene and Senescence 820
An Overview of Plant Growth Regulators 821
- 37.7 Pathogens and Herbivores: The Defence Responses** 823
How Do Plants Sense and Respond to Pathogens? 823
How Do Plants Sense and Respond to Herbivore Attack? 825
CHAPTER REVIEW 827

38 Plant Reproduction and Development 830

- 38.1 An Introduction to Plant Reproduction** 831
Asexual Reproduction 831
Sexual Reproduction and the Plant Life Cycle 832
- 38.2 Reproductive Structures** 833
The General Structure of the Flower 833
How Are Female Gametophytes Produced? 835
How Are Male Gametophytes Produced? 836
- 38.3 Pollination and Fertilization** 837
Pollination 837
CANADIAN ISSUES 38.1 What Is the Effect of Agriculture on Wild Bee Abundance and Crop Pollination? 837
Fertilization 840
- 38.4 Seeds and Fruits** 841
The Role of Drying in Seed Maturation 841
Fruit Development and Seed Dispersal 842
Seed Dormancy 843
Seed Germination 845
- 38.5 Embryogenesis and Vegetative Development** 846
Embryogenesis 846
Meristem Formation 847
Which Genes Determine Body Axes in the Plant Embryo? 848
Which Genes Determine Leaf Structure and Shape? 848
CANADIAN RESEARCH 38.1 Apoptosis during the Formation of Plant Leaves 849
- 38.6 Reproductive Development** 851
The Floral Meristem and the Flower 851
The Genetic Control of Flower Structures 851
CHAPTER REVIEW 853
BIG PICTURE How Vascular Plants Work 856

UNIT 7

HOW ANIMALS WORK 858

39 Animal Form and Function 858

- 39.1 Form, Function, and Adaptation** 859
The Role of Fitness Trade-Offs 859
Adaptation and Acclimatization 861
- 39.2 Tissues, Organs, and Systems: How Does Structure Correlate with Function?** 861
Structure–Function Relationships at the Molecular and Cellular Levels 862
Tissues Are Groups of Cells That Function as a Unit 862
Organs and Organ Systems 865
- 39.3 How Does Body Size Affect Animal Physiology?** 866
Surface Area/Volume Relationships: Theory 866
Surface Area/Volume Relationships: Data 867
Adaptations That Increase Surface Area 868
- 39.4 Homeostasis** 869
Homeostasis: General Principles 869
The Role of Regulation and Feedback 870
- 39.5 Thermoregulation: A Closer Look** 871
Mechanisms of Heat Exchange 871



Thermoregulatory Strategies 872
Comparing Endothermy and Ectothermy 872
Countercurrent Heat Exchangers 873
CANADIAN RESEARCH 39.1 Freeze-Tolerant Animals 874
CHAPTER REVIEW 875

40 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Animals 878

- 40.1 Osmoregulation and Excretion** 879
What Is Osmotic Stress? 879
Osmotic Stress in Seawater, in Freshwater, and on Land 879
How Do Electrolytes and Water Move across Cell Membranes? 881
Types of Nitrogenous Wastes: Impact on Water Balance 881
- 40.2 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Marine Fishes** 882
Osmoconformation versus Osmoregulation in Marine Fishes 882
How Do Sharks Excrete Salt? 882
CANADIAN RESEARCH 40.1 The Bamfield Marine Sciences Centre and Research on Shark Osmoregulation 883
- 40.3 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Freshwater Fishes** 884
How Do Freshwater Fishes Osmoregulate? 884
- 40.4 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Terrestrial Insects** 885
How Do Insects Minimize Water Loss from the Body Surface? 885
- 40.5 Water and Electrolyte Balance in Terrestrial Vertebrates** 887
The Structure of the Mammalian Kidney 887
The Function of the Mammalian Kidney: An Overview 888
Filtration: The Renal Corpuscle 889
Reabsorption: The Proximal Tubule 889
Creating an Osmotic Gradient: The Loop of Henle 890
Regulating Water and Electrolyte Balance: The Distal Tubule and Collecting Duct 893
Urine Formation in Nonmammalian Vertebrates 894
CHAPTER REVIEW 895

41 Animal Nutrition 898

- 41.1 Nutritional Requirements** 899
Defining Human Nutritional Requirements 899
Meeting Human Nutritional Requirements 899
CANADIAN ISSUES 41.1 Vitamin D Deficiency in Canada 901
- 41.2 Capturing Food: The Structure and Function of Mouthparts** 903
Mouthparts as Adaptations 903
A Case Study: The Cichlid Throat Jaw 903
Detecting the Nutritional Value of Food 904
- 41.3 How Are Nutrients Digested and Absorbed?** 905
An Introduction to the Digestive Tract 905
An Overview of Digestive Processes 905
The Mouth and Esophagus 906
The Stomach 908
The Small Intestine 910
The Large Intestine 913



- 41.4 Nutritional Homeostasis—Glucose as a Case Study** 914
The Discovery of Insulin 914
Insulin's Role in Homeostasis 914
Diabetes Mellitus Has Two Forms 915
CANADIAN RESEARCH 41.1 Treating Diabetes Mellitus 916
CHAPTER REVIEW 917

42 Gas Exchange and Circulation 919

- 42.1 The Respiratory and Circulatory Systems** 920
- 42.2 Air and Water as Respiratory Media** 920
How Do Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Behave in Air? 920
How Do Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Behave in Water? 921
- 42.3 Organs of Gas Exchange** 922
Physical Parameters: The Law of Diffusion 922
How Do Gills Work? 922
How Do Insect Tracheae Work? 924
How Do Vertebrate Lungs Work? 926
Homeostatic Control of Ventilation 927
- 42.4 How Are Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide Transported in Blood?** 929
Structure and Function of Hemoglobin 929
CO₂ Transport and the Buffering of Blood pH 932
CANADIAN RESEARCH 42.1 Peter Hochachka and Physiological Adaptation in Animals 933
- 42.5 Circulation** 934
What Is an Open Circulatory System? 935
What Is a Closed Circulatory System? 935
How Does the Heart Work? 937
Patterns in Blood Pressure and Blood Flow 941
CHAPTER REVIEW 943

43 Animal Nervous Systems 945

- 43.1 Principles of Electrical Signalling** 946
Types of Neurons 946
The Anatomy of a Neuron 947
An Introduction to Membrane Potentials 947
How Is the Resting Potential Maintained? 948

Using Electrodes to Measure Membrane Potentials 949
What Is an Action Potential? 949

- 43.2 Dissecting the Action Potential** 950
Distinct Ion Currents Are Responsible for Depolarization and Repolarization 950
How Do Voltage-Gated Channels Work? 950
How Is the Action Potential Propagated? 951

- 43.3 The Synapse** 954
Synapse Structure and Neurotransmitter Release 954
What Do Neurotransmitters Do? 955
Postsynaptic Potentials 956

CANADIAN RESEARCH 43.1 David Suzuki and the Discovery of the Genes Encoding Neuron Proteins 958

- 43.4 The Vertebrate Nervous System** 959
What Does the Peripheral Nervous System Do? 959
Functional Anatomy of the CNS 961
How Do Learning and Memory Work? 964

CHAPTER REVIEW 966

44 Animal Sensory Systems 969

- 44.1 How Do Sensory Organs Convey Information to the Brain?** 970
Sensory Transduction 970
Transmitting Information to the Brain 971

- 44.2 Mechanoreception: Sensing Pressure Changes** 971
How Do Sensory Cells Respond to Sound Waves and Other Forms of Pressure? 971
Hearing: The Mammalian Ear 972

CANADIAN RESEARCH 44.1 Why Do Wind Farms Kill Bats? 975
The Lateral Line System in Fishes and Amphibians 977

- 44.3 Photoreception: Sensing Light** 978
The Insect Eye 978
The Vertebrate Eye 978

- 44.4 Chemoreception: Sensing Chemicals** 983
Taste: Detecting Molecules in the Mouth 983
Olfaction: Detecting Molecules in the Air 984

- 44.5 Other Sensory Systems** 986
Thermoreception: Sensing Temperature 986
Electroreception: Sensing Electric Fields 987
Magnetoreception: Sensing Magnetic Fields 988

CHAPTER REVIEW 988



45 Animal Movement 991

- 45.1 How Do Muscles Contract?** 992
Early Muscle Experiments 992
The Sliding-Filament Model 992
How Do Actin and Myosin Interact? 993
How Do Neurons Initiate Contraction? 995

- 45.2 Muscle Tissues** 996
Smooth Muscle 996
Cardiac Muscle 997
Skeletal Muscle 997

- 45.3 Skeletal Systems** 999
Hydrostatic Skeletons 1000
Endoskeletons 1001
Exoskeletons 1002

- 45.4 Locomotion** 1003
How Do Biologists Study Locomotion? 1003

CANADIAN RESEARCH 45.1 Tyrannosaur Tails 1005
Size Matters 1006

CHAPTER REVIEW 1008

46 Chemical Signals in Animals 1011

- 46.1 Cell-to-Cell Signalling: An Overview** 1012
Major Categories of Chemical Signals 1012
Hormone Signalling Pathways 1013
What Makes Up the Endocrine System? 1014
How Do Researchers Identify a Hormone? 1015
A Breakthrough in Measuring Hormone Levels 1015

- 46.2 How Do Hormones Act on Target Cells?** 1016
Hormone Concentrations Are Low, but Their Effects Are Large 1016
Three Chemical Classes of Hormones 1016
Steroid Hormones Bind to Intracellular Receptors 1017
Polypeptide Hormones Bind to Receptors on the Plasma Membrane 1018
Why Do Different Target Cells Respond in Different Ways? 1020

- 46.3 What Do Hormones Do?** 1020
How Do Hormones Direct Developmental Processes? 1021
CANADIAN ISSUES 46.1 Estrogens in the Environment 1023
How Do Hormones Coordinate Responses to Stressors? 1024
How Are Hormones Involved in Homeostasis? 1026

CANADIAN RESEARCH 46.1 Cortisol Mediates Stress in Wildlife 1026

- 46.4 How Is the Production of Hormones Regulated?** 1027
The Hypothalamus and Pituitary Gland 1027
Control of Adrenaline by Sympathetic Nerves 1029
CHAPTER REVIEW 1030

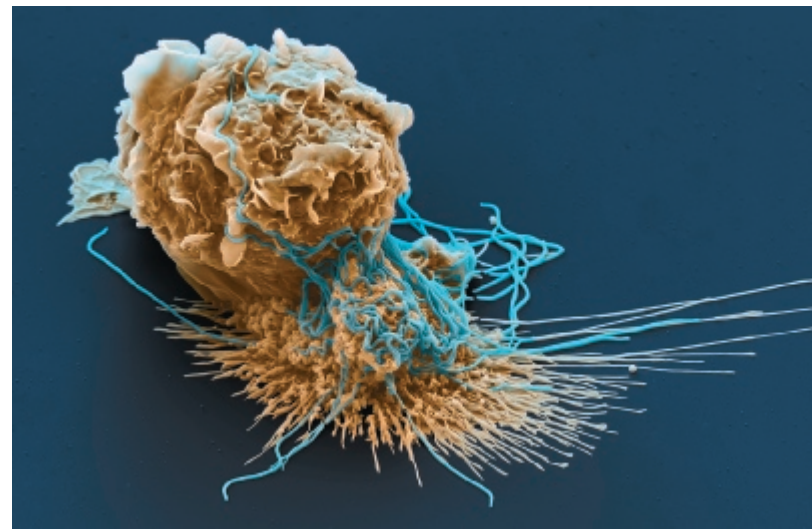
47 Animal Reproduction and Development 1032

- 47.1 Asexual and Sexual Reproduction** 1033
How Does Asexual Reproduction Occur? 1033
Switching Reproductive Modes: A Case History 1033
Mechanisms of Sexual Reproduction: Gametogenesis 1035

- 47.2 Reproductive Structures and Their Functions** 1037
 The Male Reproductive System 1037
 The Female Reproductive System 1038
- 47.3 Fertilization and Egg Development** 1040
 External Fertilization 1040
 Internal Fertilization 1040
 The Cell Biology of Fertilization 1042
 Why Do Some Females Lay Eggs While Others Give Birth? 1043
- 47.4 Embryonic Development** 1045
 Cleavage 1045
 Gastrulation 1046
 Organogenesis 1047
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 47.1** Apoptosis during the Morphogenesis of Chick Embryos 1049
- 47.5 The Role of Sex Hormones in Mammalian Reproduction** 1050
 Which Hormones Control Puberty? 1050
 Which Hormones Control the Menstrual Cycle in Humans? 1051
- 47.6 Pregnancy and Birth in Mammals** 1054
 Gestation and Development in Marsupials 1054
 Major Events during Human Pregnancy 1054
 How Does the Mother Nourish the Fetus? 1056
 Birth 1056
- CANADIAN ISSUES 47.1** Canada's Assisted Human Reproduction Act 1057
- CHAPTER REVIEW 1058

48 The Immune System in Animals 1060

- 48.1 Innate Immunity** 1061
 Barriers to Entry 1061
 The Innate Immune Response 1062
- 48.2 Adaptive Immunity: Recognition** 1064
 An Introduction to Lymphocytes 1065
 Lymphocytes Recognize a Diverse Array of Antigens 1066
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 48.1** Tak Wah Mak and the Discovery of the T-Cell Receptor 1068
 How Does the Immune System Distinguish Self from Nonself? 1070
- 48.3 Adaptive Immunity: Activation** 1070
 The Clonal Selection Theory 1070
 T-Cell Activation 1071
 B-Cell Activation and Antibody Secretion 1073
- 48.4 Adaptive Immunity: Response and Memory** 1074
 How Are Extracellular Pathogens Eliminated? 1074
 How Are Intracellular Pathogens Eliminated? 1075
 Why Does the Immune System Reject Foreign Tissues and Organs? 1076
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 48.2** Designing Universal Blood for Donations 1077
 Responding to Future Infections: Immunological Memory 1077
- 48.5 What Happens When the Immune System Doesn't Work Correctly?** 1079
 Allergies 1079



- Autoimmune Diseases 1079
 Immunodeficiency Diseases 1079
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1080
BIG PICTURE How Humans Work 1082

UNIT 8 ECOLOGY 1084

49 An Introduction to Ecology 1084

- 49.1 Levels of Ecological Study** 1085
 Organismal Ecology 1085
 Population Ecology 1086
 Community Ecology 1086
 Ecosystem Ecology 1086
 Global Ecology 1086
- CANADIAN RESEARCH 49.1** Salmon Migration in a Warming World 1086
 Conservation Biology Applies All Levels of Ecological Study 1088
- 49.2 What Determines the Distribution and Abundance of Organisms?** 1088
 Abiotic Factors 1088
 Biotic Factors 1088
 History Matters: Past Abiotic and Biotic Factors Influence Present Patterns 1089
 Biotic and Abiotic Factors Interact 1090
- 49.3 Climate Patterns** 1092
 Why Are the Tropics Warm and the Poles Cold? 1092
 Why Are the Tropics Wet? 1092
 What Causes Seasonality in Weather? 1092
 What Regional Effects Do Mountains and Oceans Have on Climate? 1094
- 49.4 Types of Terrestrial Biomes** 1095
 Natural Biomes 1095
 Anthropogenic Biomes 1097
 How Will Global Climate Change Affect Terrestrial Biomes? 1098

- 49.5 Types of Aquatic Biomes** 1099
 Salinity 1100
 Water Depth and Sunlight Availability 1100
 Water Flow 1101
 Nutrient Availability 1102
 How Are Aquatic Biomes Affected by Humans? 1103
CANADIAN RESEARCH 49.2 The Future of Canada's Lakes and Wetlands 1105
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1107

50 Behavioural Ecology 1109

- 50.1 An Introduction to Behavioural Ecology** 1110
 Proximate and Ultimate Causation 1110
CANADIAN RESEARCH 50.1 Do Male Redback Spiders Benefit from Being Eaten by Their Mates? 1110
 Types of Behaviour: An Overview 1112
- 50.2 Choosing What, How, and When to Eat** 1113
 Proximate Causes: Foraging Alleles in *Drosophila melanogaster* 1113
 Ultimate Causes: Optimal Foraging 1113
- 50.3 Choosing a Mate** 1115
 Proximate Causes: How Is Sexual Activity Triggered in *Anolis* Lizards? 1115
 Ultimate Causes: Sexual Selection 1116
- 50.4 Choosing a Place to Live** 1117
 Proximate Causes: How Do Animals Navigate? 1117
CANADIAN ISSUES 50.1 The Whisky Jack: Canada's National Bird? 1118
 Ultimate Causes: Why Do Animals Migrate? 1119
- 50.5 Communicating with Others** 1121
 Proximate Causes: How Do Honeybees Communicate? 1121
 Ultimate Causes: Why Do Honeybees Communicate the Way They Do? 1122
 When Is Communication Honest or Deceitful? 1122
- 50.6 Cooperating with Others** 1124
 Kin Selection 1124
Quantitative Methods 50.1 Calculating the Coefficient of Relatedness 1125

- Manipulation 1126
 Reciprocal Altruism 1126
 Cooperation and Mutualism 1127
 Individuals Do Not Act for the Good of the Species 1127
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1127

51 Population Ecology 1130

- 51.1 Distribution and Abundance** 1131
 Geographic Distribution 1131
 Sampling Methods 1132
Quantitative Methods 51.1 Mark-Recapture Studies 1132
- 51.2 Demography** 1133
 Life Tables 1133
Quantitative Methods 51.2 Using Life Tables to Calculate Population Growth Rates 1135
CANADIAN RESEARCH 51.1 Tyrannosaurus Life Tables 1136
 The Role of Life History 1137
- 51.3 Population Growth** 1138
 Exponential Growth 1138
 Logistic Growth 1139
Quantitative Methods 51.3 Using Growth Models to Predict Population Growth 1140
 What Factors Limit Population Size? 1141
- 51.4 Population Dynamics** 1143
 Why Do Some Populations Cycle? 1143
 How Do Metapopulations Change through Time? 1145
- 51.5 Human Population Growth** 1146
 Age Structure in Human Populations 1146
 Analyzing Change in the Growth Rate of Human Populations 1147
- 51.6 How Can Population Ecology Help Conserve Biodiversity?** 1149
 Using Life-Table Data 1149
 Preserving Metapopulations 1150
 CHAPTER REVIEW 1152

52 Community Ecology 1154

- 52.1 Species Interactions** 1155
 Commensalism 1155
 Competition 1156
 Consumption 1159
 Mutualism 1163
- 52.2 Community Structure** 1165
 Why Are Some Species More Important than Others in Structuring Communities? 1165
 How Predictable Are Communities? 1167
- 52.3 Community Dynamics** 1168
 Disturbance and Change in Ecological Communities 1168
 Succession: The Development of Communities after Disturbance 1169
- 52.4 Patterns in Species Richness** 1172
 Predicting Species Richness: The Theory of Island Biogeography 1173
Quantitative Methods 52.1 Measuring Species Diversity 1173
 Global Patterns in Species Richness 1174



CANADIAN RESEARCH 52.1 Why Is Biodiversity Higher in the Tropics? 1176

CHAPTER REVIEW 1177

53 Ecosystems and Global Ecology 1180

- 53.1 How Does Energy Flow through Ecosystems?** 1181
How Efficient Are Autotrophs at Capturing Solar Energy? 1181
What Happens to the Biomass of Autotrophs? 1182
Energy Transfer between Trophic Levels 1184
Global Patterns in Productivity 1186
- 53.2 How Do Nutrients Cycle through Ecosystems?** 1188
Nutrient Cycling within Ecosystems 1188

CANADIAN RESEARCH 53.1 Can Predators Increase Nutrient Cycling? 1189

Global Biogeochemical Cycles 1191

- 53.3 Global Climate Change** 1195
What Is the Cause of Global Climate Change? 1195
How Much Will the Climate Change? 1196
Biological Effects of Climate Change 1199

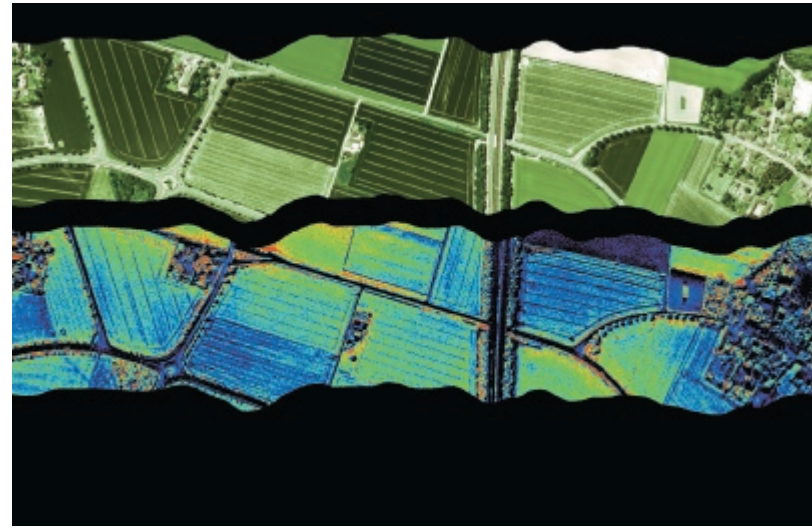
CANADIAN ISSUES 53.1 Insect Outbreaks Result from and Contribute to Climate Change 1201

Consequences to Net Primary Productivity 1202

CHAPTER REVIEW 1203

54 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology 1206

- 54.1 What Is Biodiversity?** 1207
Biodiversity Can Be Measured and Analyzed at Several Levels 1207
How Many Species Are Living Today? 1209
Where Is Biodiversity Highest? 1210
- 54.2 Threats to Biodiversity** 1212
Multiple Interacting Threats 1212
How Will These Threats Affect Future Extinction Rates? 1216
Quantitative Methods 54.1 Species–Area Plots 1217
- 54.3 Why Is Biodiversity Important?** 1219
Biological Benefits of Biodiversity 1219



Ecosystem Services: Economic and Social Benefits of Biodiversity and Ecosystems 1221

An Ethical Dimension 1222

54.4 Preserving Biodiversity and Ecosystem Function 1223

Addressing the Ultimate Causes of Loss 1223

Conservation Strategies to Preserve Genetic Diversity, Species, and Ecosystem Function 1224

CANADIAN ISSUES 54.1 SARA—Canada’s Species at Risk Act 1226

Take-Home Message 1229

CHAPTER REVIEW 1230

BIG PICTURE Ecology 1232

APPENDIX A Answers A:1

APPENDIX B Periodic Table of Elements B:1

Glossary G:1

Credits C: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.

I have passed 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*. The new team brings 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, Jeff Carmichael, Emily Taylor, Mike Harrington, and Joan Sharp. 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

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and fourth-year levels. His teaching goals are (1) to find ways to incorporate current scientific research into introductory courses, (2) to develop new ways to expand a course's boundaries with online material, and (3) to use clicker classroom response systems to teach content with questions.



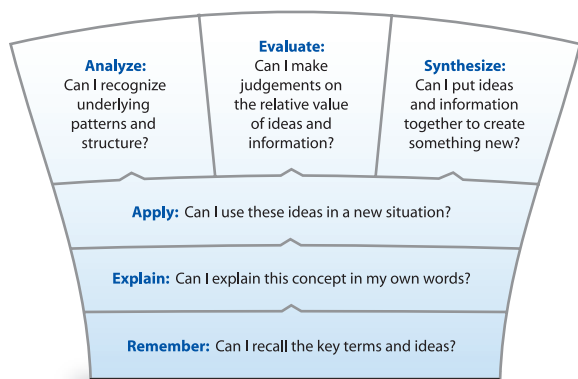
Joan Sharp received her B.A. and B.Sc. from McGill University and her M.Sc. from the University of British Columbia. She is a Teaching Professor at Simon Fraser University, where she teaches Biology of Everyday Life, Introduction to Biology, General Biology, and Vertebrate Biology. Her teaching and research interests include a number of areas: (1) Argumentation is a key component of critical thinking and

scientific reasoning. Effective argumentation requires the selection and evaluation of evidence in order to articulate and defend a carefully thought-out position. Development of this essential scientific skill may benefit from a supportive learning environment in which students are prompted with a controversial question and provided with explicit instruction on argumentation. (2) Case studies engage students with key concepts by using meaningful real-world scenarios. The use of clickers allows the implementation of case studies in large lecture courses, facilitating small group discussion and increasing student learning. (3) Prior or newly acquired misconceptions interfere with student success in building meaningful biological understanding. It is important to understand common misconceptions and to develop activities that allow students to address and correct their misconceptions. Concept inventories can be used to measure students' learning gains to assess the success of teaching strategies targeting student misconceptions. Students' written work can serve as a starting point to address areas of misunderstanding and to help students refine and express biological ideas.

Preface to Instructors

Biological Science emphasizes the process of scientific discovery and guides students to think like a biologist. Our students need to learn the language of biology and to construct their own understanding of fundamental biological concepts. They also need to actively apply these concepts to new situations; evaluate experimental design, hypotheses, and data; synthesize results; and make and interpret models.

We wrote this book for instructors who embrace this challenge—who want to help their students learn how to think like a biologist. The essence of higher education is to promote higher order thinking. Our job is to help students understand biological science at all six levels of Bloom's taxonomy of learning. For instructors, resources are provided to help align course activities and learning goals with their assessment strategies.



Bloom's Taxonomy

Core Values

For the Third Canadian Edition, the coauthor team strives to extend the vision and maintain the core values of *Biological Science*—to provide a book and online resources for instructors who embrace the challenge of boosting students to higher levels of learning and to provide a book that helps students each step of the way in learning to think like a scientist, regardless of their starting point in the process.

Dedicated instructors have high expectations of their students. The Third Canadian Edition provides tools to help students to learn at the level called for by the American Association for the Advancement of Science report, *Vision and Change in Undergraduate Biology Education*. This report and others place a premium on fundamental concepts and skills and emphasize the importance of connecting core ideas across all levels of biology.

What's New in this Edition

The Third Canadian Edition contains many new or expanded features, all of them designed to provide students with initial instruction in content and skills, followed by opportunities for

lots of practice in applying knowledge and skills to new contexts. The ultimate goal is for students to learn to construct their own knowledge and think like biologists.

- **Relocated and Expanded BioSkills Section** Instructors recognize that biology students need to develop foundational science skills in addition to content knowledge. Since the First Canadian Edition, *Biological Science* has provided a unique, robust set of materials and activities in an appendix to guide students who need extra help with the skills emphasized in the book. In the Third Canadian Edition, the BioSkills materials have been placed between Chapters 1 and 2 to emphasize their importance as a resource for success in doing biology, and to make it easier for students to access them throughout the course. The BioSkills are grouped within five broad categories depicted in a new opening road map: Quantifying Biology, Using Common Lab Tools, Visualizing Biology, Reading Biology, and Monitoring Your Own Learning. Five new BioSkills have been added: Using Molecular Biology Tools and Techniques, Reading and Making Visual Models, Reading and Citing the Literature, Recognizing and Correcting Misconceptions, and Using Bloom's Taxonomy for Study Success. Existing BioSkills have been updated to support new features in the Third Canadian Edition. For example, the explanation of statistical tests has been expanded, and *P* values are introduced to provide students with essential quantitative skills for interpreting data in the end-of-chapter case studies. BioSkills include practice questions, are cross-referenced throughout the text, and can be assigned online in MasteringBiology®.
- **Put It All Together Case Studies** The end-of-chapter question sets for every chapter now include a case study. Case studies briefly introduce contemporary biology research in action, followed by questions that ask students to apply the chapter's content and skills to the research topic. A constant hallmark of this text is its emphasis on experimental evidence—on teaching how we know what we know. The case studies expand this emphasis, requiring students to evaluate real data and to see how ongoing scientific research is related to core biological ideas.
- **Integrated Chapters** Three newly consolidated chapters reorganize and integrate information to better serve instructors and students. Chapter 20 (The Molecular Revolution: Biotechnology and Beyond) merges the most essential information on genome analysis that was previously discussed in separate chapters, while moving details of fundamental techniques to the BioSkills. Core material on the general principles of development, particularly those related to genetics and evolution, now forms the closing chapter of a streamlined unit on Gene Structure and Expression (Chapter 21). Content on plant and animal development has been moved from the former

developmental biology unit to the respective reproduction and development chapters of the How Plants Work (Chapter 38) and How Animals Work (Chapter 47) units.

- **Skill-Based Question Tags** *Biological Science* has long emphasized skill development, and reports like *Vision and Change* also encourage this focus for introductory majors. To help students and instructors identify opportunities to practise key skills, questions are tagged to indicate the following: Process of Science questions explore the application of the scientific process; Model questions ask students to interpret or construct visual models; Society questions explore the relationship between science and society; Quantitative questions help students perform quantitative analysis and mathematical reasoning; and Caution questions address topics for which students often hold common misconceptions. Answers to Caution questions include information that addresses the misconception.
- **Expanded Use of Summary Tables** The art program is further enhanced in this edition by additional illustrated summary tables that deliver content in a streamlined way and facilitate comparison and analysis by students. For example, the diversity boxes from the Second Canadian Edition's The Diversification of Life unit have been redesigned as photographic summary tables. These tables make subject areas more accessible to visual learners and reinforce a chapter's key concepts.

Hallmark Features of the Text

We are excited to introduce new features to the Third Canadian Edition. At the same time, we are committed to strengthening the hallmark features that make this book unique.

- **Road Maps** Each chapter now opens with a concept map that visually groups and organizes information to help students anticipate key ideas as well as recognize meaningful relationships and connections among ideas. While the Road Maps help students look forward as they engage with a chapter, Big Picture concept maps integrate words and visuals to help students synthesize information about challenging topics that span multiple chapters or units. Together, these two features help students navigate chapter content and see the forest for the trees.
- **Opportunities for Practice** “Blue Thread” questions, integrated throughout the text, are designed to help students identify what they do and do not understand. The idea is that if students really understand a piece of information or a concept, they should be able to do something with it. As in the Second Canadian 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.
 - **In-text “You Should Be Able To” questions** focus on topics and concepts that professors and students have identified as most key or difficult 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.
- **End-of-chapter questions** are organized in three levels of increasing difficulty so students can build from lower- to higher-order cognitive levels of assessment.
- **Focus on Real Data** Students now have expanded opportunities to develop skills at working with real data from the primary literature. Sources of the data presented in Research Boxes, graphs, and end-of-chapter Case Studies are cited to model good practice for students and to provide a resource for students and instructors who wish to evaluate the original data more deeply.

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 errors or misconceptions as well as supplying hints that 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:

- **Making Models Activities** Whiteboard videos—accessible online via the Study Area in MasteringBiology help students develop their visual modelling skills. The videos are also included in assignable activities that allow students to practise modelling and to apply their understanding to new situations.
- **Case Study Questions** Put It All Together Case Study questions are assignable in MasteringBiology. Additional clicker questions are also provided in instructor resources to facilitate classroom activities.
- **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 provide hints and feedback to guide student learning. BioFlix animations and tutorials tackle topics such as meiosis, mitosis, DNA replication, photosynthesis, homeostasis, and the carbon cycle.

- **HHMI Short Films Activities** Documentary-quality movies from HHMI are available in MasteringBiology with assignable questions to make sure students understand key ideas.
- **Galápagos Evolution Video Activities** These incredible videos, filmed on the Galápagos Islands by Peter and Rosemary Grant, bring to life the dynamic evolutionary processes that have an impact on Darwin's finches on Daphne Major Island. Six videos explore important concepts and data from the Grants' field research, and assignable activities keep students focused on the important take-away points.
- **End-of-Chapter Questions** A broad range of end-of-chapter questions are 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 Concept Map Tutorials** A new, more engaging concept mapping tool is the basis for highly interactive, challenging concept map activities based on the Big Picture figures in the textbook. Students build their own concept maps, which are auto-graded, and then answer questions to make sure they understand key ideas and make important connections.
- **BioSkills Activities** Activities based on the BioSkills content in the textbook are assignable in MasteringBiology, including activities to support the new BioSkills.
- **Reading Quiz Questions** Every chapter includes reading quiz questions that can be assigned 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 instructors to use class time more effectively.

Acknowledgments

Supplements Contributors

We are grateful for the hard work and creativity of the contributors who worked on an impressive array of print and online support materials.

PowerPoint—Sharon Gillies, *University of the Fraser Valley*

Testbank—Eugene Chu, *Capilano Univeristy*, Reehan Mirza, *Nipissing University*, Seth Bennett and Nicole Szulc, *Simon Fraser University*

Book Team

As coauthors on the Third Canadian edition of *Biological Science*, we would like to thank all the talented people who were involved in the production of our textbook. This very professional team was headed by Anne Williams, Vice President and Editorial Director. We are grateful for the guidance of Cathleen Sullivan, Executive Acquisitions Editor.

Developmental Editor Joanne Sutherland patiently and expertly provided guidance and encouragement throughout the process, while the final version of the text was effectively and efficiently managed by Project Manager Jessica Mifsud and Copyeditor Charlotte Morrison-Reed, directed by Lead Project Manager Avinash Chandra.

Pearson Canada's talented sales team, who listen to educators, advise the editorial staff, and get the book into students' hands, are supported by the boundless energy of Marketing Specialist Erica Willer and Senior Marketing Manager Kim Teska.

Serving a Community of Teachers

Biology instructors share a deep commitment to students and their learning. While we all have our own personal teaching styles, these styles are built as we test and refine ideas learned through discussing biology instruction with our colleagues and through interacting with—and listening to—our students.

Research on biology education is gathering momentum, bringing the same level of rigour to our classrooms that we bring to our lab benches and field sites. We bring the spirit and practice of evidence-based teaching into this textbook and we welcome your comments, suggestions, and questions.

Thank you for considering this text and for your work on behalf of your students. We have the best jobs in the world.

Content Highlights of the Third Canadian Edition

As discussed in the preface, a major focus of this revision is to introduce unique, innovative features designed to provide students with initial instruction in content and skills, as well as lots of practice in applying knowledge and skills to new contexts—with the ultimate goal of helping students learn to construct their own knowledge and think like biologists. As in each edition, to ensure that the content reflects the current state of science and is accurate, the 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. New content emphasizes overarching themes—including how advances in understanding gene expression and genome structure inform all of biology from development to evolution to physiology to ecology and the profound impact of global climate change on life on Earth. In this section, some of the key content improvements to the textbook are highlighted.

Chapter 1 Biology and the Tree of Life New section titles emphasize the theme of five characteristics of life, within a framework of three unifying theories: the cell theory, the theory of evolution, and new coverage of the chromosome theory of inheritance. A brief introduction to the central dogma of molecular biology is added to provide students with a framework for understanding the connections between genes and phenotype early on in the book.

Chapter 2 Water and Carbon: The Chemical Basis of Life A stronger emphasis on chemical evolution is treated 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). A new Canadian Research box describes searching for life 2.4 km beneath Timmins, Ontario.

Chapter 3 Protein Structure and Function The chapter is reorganized to discuss protein structure before protein function. This has allowed for a discussion on how proteins have the shapes necessary for their cellular roles. Details of how enzymes work were moved to Chapter 8. New Canadian content includes research on prion diseases in domestic cattle and wild deer at the University of Alberta and the design of light-responsive proteins at the University of Toronto.

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 art and text are updated to present the geometry of nitrogenous bases relative to the sugar–phosphate backbone in double-stranded DNA. There are new sections on how nucleotides are named and on the pathogenic coconut cadang-cadang viroid.

Chapter 5 An Introduction to Carbohydrates The impact of carbohydrate structure is emphasized by discussing the breakdown of maltose, lactose, and cellulose. The chapter is reorganized to better distinguish between disaccharides, oligosaccharides, and polysaccharides. The glycolipids and glycoproteins that serve as the ABO blood group antigens are introduced. Canadian Research 5.1 describes human milk carbohydrates and Canadian Issues 5.1 is updated to present the hypothesis that artificial sweeteners cause obesity by changing gut bacteria.

Chapter 6 Lipids, Membranes, and the First Cells Illustrations of fats and phospholipids are revised to emphasize similarity in structure. New content on lipid and membrane evolution and the proposed characteristics of the first protocell is introduced. There are new figures of aquaporin and the CFTR channel. New Canadian research includes the invention of artificial cells at McGill University and research done on membrane proteins at the Universities of Guelph and Manitoba, and Western University.

Chapter 7 Inside the Cell A new figure is added to better depict the pulse–chase assay used to identify the secretory pathway. Several topics have been revised including nuclear transport, the smooth endoplasmic reticulum, vesicle transport, endocytosis, and intermediate filaments. A list of student misconceptions about cells has been added as has research from Simon Fraser University and the University of British Columbia.

Chapter 8 Energy and Enzymes: An Introduction to Metabolism 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. Illustrations of chemical bonds are updated to more accurately represent the correlation between bond length and chemical energy. The role of energetic coupling in converting endergonic reactions into exergonic reactions is clarified. A new Canadian Research box describes protein processing using insulin as an example. Insulin and diabetes mellitus are also discussed in Canadian Research 11.2, 21.2, and 41.1.

Chapter 9 Cellular Respiration and Fermentation Two new summary tables for glycolysis and the citric acid cycle are added. Figures and text are updated to track the number of intermediates and products in each of the metabolic pathways. Coverage of the Cori cycle and anaerobic respiration have been added and expanded, respectively, to address student misconceptions on these processes. The Canadian research on ATP synthase has been updated.

Chapter 10 Photosynthesis Greater emphasis is placed on the events responsible for converting the kinetic energy in light to potential energy stored in chemical bonds. Content is revised to

address the misconceptions that the products of photosynthesis are used only to manufacture carbohydrates and that chloroplasts supply the ATP necessary for all other cellular functions. Figures and text are updated to more easily track the inputs and outputs in the photosynthetic reactions. Canadian Research 10.1 has been expanded to distinguish between carbon concentrating mechanisms and CO₂ trapping mechanisms.

Chapter 11 Cell–Cell Interactions Coverage of extracellular matrix structure and function is expanded, including its role in intercellular adhesion and cell signalling. New content has been added on intercellular communication by yeast cells to find mating partners. Canadian content now includes the role of insulin signalling in insects, the identification of Canadian camels on Ellesmere Island, and a case study based upon research done at Université de Montréal and McGill University.

Chapter 12 The Cell Cycle Figures are updated to clearly distinguish differences between replicated and unreplicated chromosomes. A new figure helps explain the pulse–chase assay for identifying phases of the cell cycle. The description of mitosis has been revised to focus on the proteins that are causing each event to occur and why these events are necessary for the cell. Canadian Research 12.2 describes how MPF brings about chromosome condensation.

Chapter 13 Meiosis To improve the flow of the chapter, the section on advantages of sexual reproduction was moved earlier. Increased attention is paid to topics students are known to struggle with, such as the distinctions between sister chromatids and homologous chromosomes, reproduction in animals and plants, and interchromosomal and intrachromosomal recombination. A new study that supports the changing-environment hypothesis of sexual reproduction is added. The chapter now introduces standard human karyotype nomenclature and uses it to expand on the mechanisms and consequences of chromosome nondisjunction in humans.

Chapter 14 Mendel and the Gene There is a sharper focus on challenging concepts, including the relationship between genotype and phenotype and the ability to consider phenotypes at levels that range from the molecular to the organismal. There are new examples to illustrate pleiotropy and multiple allelism. New figures and a summary table on pedigree analysis bring together this topic.

Chapter 15 DNA and the Gene: Synthesis and Repair Coverage is expanded on the Okazaki experiment and on the Nobel Prize–winning experiments of Greider and colleagues on telomeres and telomerase, so that students can more easily understand these investigations and their significance. New Canadian research has been added on the relationships between telomere length and cancer cells and on DNA repair and the cell cycle.

Chapter 16 How Genes Work Greater emphasis is placed on illustrating how the central dogma links genotype to phenotype. A stronger point is made that mutations can occur anywhere in the genome, not just in protein-coding sequences. The description of point mutations now distinguishes between base-pair substitutions and insertion-deletion mutations.

Chapter 17 Transcription, RNA Processing, and Translation For each part of the chapter, bacteria and eukaryotes

are now discussed separately. This has meant adding details on eukaryotic transcription termination, translation initiation, and translation termination. Three existing figures and one table are modified to improve clarity. Research at the University of Lethbridge illustrates how RNAs are modified.

Chapter 18 Control of Gene Expression in Bacteria Regulation of the *lac* operon has been updated and two new examples, the *ara* operon and the ToxR regulon have been added. Canadian Research 18.1 describes how gene expression changes in a pathogenic bacterium when it invades human cells.

Chapter 19 Control of Gene Expression in Eukaryotes Coverage of chromatin structure, histone modifications, microRNAs, and RNA longevity have been updated. New figures show how transcription factors read DNA sequences, how alternative splicing occurs, and the role of p53 in healthy cells. New Canadian Research boxes describe the roles of DNA methylation on carpenter ant size and of alternative splicing on an important human RNA.

Chapter 20 The Molecular Revolution: Biotechnology and Beyond Material previously spread across two chapters is merged to provide a more focused overview of major aims and techniques of genomics and related fields, including recent innovations such as CRISPR genome editing. Specific details of fundamental techniques are relocated to the BioSkills section for students and instructors who desire this level of coverage. New Canadian content includes the discovery of the *CFTR* gene at the University of Toronto as well as several current research projects.

Chapter 21 Genes, Development, and Evolution Essential concepts previously spread across several chapters are brought together in this chapter, and it now links the Gene Structure and Expression unit to the Evolutionary Patterns and Processes unit by using molecular and cellular aspects of developmental biology as a bridge. Canadian Research 21.2 now includes experimental stem cell–based therapies to treat spinal cord injuries and diabetes mellitus.

Chapter 22 Evolution by Natural Selection The historical introduction is simplified and illustrated in a new figure that compares different conceptual models of life's diversity. The homology section is updated to include developmental processes, and the three levels of homology are highlighted in a new summary table. More practice is provided in applying Darwin's postulates and reading phylogenetic trees. There is increased focus on overcoming common evolutionary misconceptions throughout the chapter. More plant examples are included. Focus on the ecological context of evolution is increased.

Chapter 23 Evolutionary Processes The introduction to the Hardy–Weinberg principle is simplified and updated with new examples. Increased attention is given to students' struggle to distinguish gene flow and genetic drift, and there are new follow-up questions. The summary table on evolutionary processes now includes icons to help students distinguish evolutionary processes, effect on genetic variation, and effect on fitness.

Chapter 24 Speciation New examples emphasize the origin of biodiversity, variation in rate of speciation, and biogeography, and illustrate the role of sexual selection and genetic mechanisms

in speciation. Icons are now included in three summary tables to help students visualize mechanisms of reproductive isolation, species concepts, and outcomes of secondary contact between populations.

Chapter 25 Phylogenies and the History of Life The terms “microevolution” and “macroevolution” are now defined in the introduction. The phylogenetics section is updated to include more diverse examples. There is increased emphasis on avoiding common misconceptions in interpreting and drawing trees. The fossil review is reorganized into a photographic summary table. Canadian Research 25.1 is updated with information about the recently discovered Marble Canyon fossil assemblage from Kootenay National Park, British Columbia. Dates in the history of lifetime line are updated. New evidence regarding causes of the end-Cretaceous extinction is introduced.

Chapter 26 Bacteria and Archaea New content is included on the role of endospores in the prokaryote life cycle, and recent studies on the human microbiome are highlighted. The section on themes in diversification is expanded to include mechanisms of gene transfer (e.g., transformation, transduction, and conjugation). Recent ideas that call into question the traditional three-domain tree of life hypothesis are presented.

Chapter 27 Protists Discussion of the role of endosymbiosis in the origin of mitochondria and chloroplasts is streamlined to focus on key concepts. The coverage of euglenids now includes a description of the flexible pellicle of this group, to underscore the point that most protist lineages are characterized by distinct microscopic features. Coverage of slime moulds is expanded to include more on the structure and movement of plasmodial slime moulds. Greater attention is paid to guiding students step-by-step through complex protist life cycles.

Chapter 28 Green Algae and Land Plants The updated discussion of the origin of plants now recognizes the conjugating algae (Zygnematophyceae) as one of the closest living relatives to land plants. Alternation of generations—the fundamental life cycle of all land plants—is now emphasized and presented with greater clarity.

Chapter 29 Fungi Content is updated to emphasize the important role of asexual spores (conidia) in the reproductive cycle of fungi. The unique relationship between a fungus and ants resulting in “zombie ants” is highlighted to illustrate the diversity of fungal lifestyles. Canadian Research 29.1 describes the work of University of British Columbia botanist Suzanne Simard and her colleagues on the interactions among ectomycorrhizal fungal networks and forest trees.

Chapter 30 An Introduction to Animals The chapter is updated to include insights gleaned from new genetic and developmental data, emphasizing that evolution is not a straightforward march from simple to complex. Canadian Issues 30.1 introduces CHONe, the Canadian Healthy Oceans Network, which worked with the First Census of Marine Life to establish a biodiversity database for Canada’s Pacific, Arctic, and Atlantic oceans and is now tasked with making recommendations for the establishment of Marine Protected Areas in Canadian waters.

Chapter 31 Protostome Animals The revised introduction is organized as a walk-through of a phylogeny to provide context from the previous chapter. Characteristics traditionally used to distinguish protostome development are deemphasized in light of recent research showing many exceptions. A new figure shows the phylogeny of arthropods, including insects within the Crustacea. Canadian Research 31.1 introduces exciting new fossil finds of Cambrian mollusks.

Chapter 32 Deuterostome Animals The echinoderm section has an increased emphasis on ecology and process of science, including Paine’s keystone predator study. The invertebrate chordate section is expanded to include ascidians, thalaceans, and larvaceans. The key innovations section is revised and streamlined as a walk-through of the chordate phylogeny. The section on early vertebrates introduces *Metaspriggina*, the best-preserved Cambrian fish. The human evolution section is updated, including reference to new hominin species and an image of a Neanderthal woman.

Chapter 33 Viruses Canadian Research 33.1 discusses University of British Columbia oceanographer Curtis Suttle’s work on the tremendous diversity, abundance, and importance of marine viruses. A new section on the role of viruses in shaping the evolution of organisms is introduced. A discussion of the SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV outbreaks is included to illustrate the international network of researchers that works to identify and control emerging viral infections. New content on how viruses impact society is included, along with new material covering recent discoveries on how the Ebola virus infects cells.

Chapter 34 Plant Form and Function The chapter is reorganized to discuss the structure and function of cells and tissues before placing them in the context of primary and secondary growth. Practice is provided on calculating and comparing the relationship between surface area and volume in different types of plant structures. Content on secondary growth is expanded to emphasize how trees make the transition from primary to secondary growth.

Chapter 35 Water and Sugar Transport in Plants The discussion of water potential and water movement is streamlined to bring key concepts into sharper focus. Recent work on the role of the *SWEET* genes in sugar transport is introduced.

Chapter 36 Plant Nutrition Discussion of parasitic plants is broadened and now includes dodder and ghost plants as examples.

Chapter 37 Plant Sensory Systems, Signals, and Responses The discussion of phototropins is streamlined to focus on key concepts. The role of phytochrome in circadian rhythms and etiolation is introduced. A summary table on key plant growth regulators is now illustrated with photographs to show the impact of hormones on plant growth and development.

Chapter 38 Plant Reproduction and Development The chapter is reorganized to merge essential information previously spread across several chapters and bring flowering plant reproduction and development together in a single, integrated story. Discussions of flower structure, pollination, fertilization, the formation of seeds and fruits, and embryogenesis are updated and

streamlined. Coverage of vegetative development emphasizes the roles of apical meristems and genes involved in embryogenesis and leaf formation.

Chapter 39 Animal Form and Function The discussion of mammalian thermoregulation is moved into the section on homeostasis. In the introduction to animal tissue types, more explicit structure–function examples are given for each tissue type. The section on regulatory homeostasis is updated, and the idea that regulation and conformation are two ends of a spectrum is introduced. The expressions “warm-blooded” and “cold-blooded” are addressed to explain why these terms are problematic to use in biology. The section on countercurrent multipliers is simplified. Canadian Research 39.1 on Carleton University’s Ken Storey’s work on freeze-tolerant animals has been updated.

Chapter 40 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 41 Animal Nutrition Information on diabetes mellitus has been updated and now includes discoveries and therapies from Mount Sinai Hospital. New research is presented on how fruit flies taste food and how bees choose pollen from the Universities of British Columbia and Ottawa, respectively.

Chapter 42 Gas Exchange and Circulation Oxygen–hemoglobin dissociation figures are redrawn more accurately, and new content helps students understand the meaning of a sigmoidal curve. The open circulatory system common to most invertebrates is illustrated with a new figure showing circulation in a spider.

Chapter 43 Animal Nervous Systems A new figure shows the relationships among sensory neurons, motor neurons, and interneurons. Review of material from earlier chapters on how ions are transported across membranes is streamlined. The discussion of the magnitude of action potentials and how action potentials propagate down an axon is clarified. Revisions emphasize that new action potentials are continuously generated along the entire length of an axon, addressing the misconception that a single action potential travels from one end to the other. Updated information is included on the hippocampus, the enteric nervous system, and the technique of optogenetics, a major breakthrough in neuroscience.

Chapter 44 Animal Sensory Systems The section on taste is updated to reflect new knowledge about the structure and function of gustation, and the likely existence of more than just five taste sensations. The role of mechanoreception in taste—by providing information about texture—is introduced. New content highlights one of the chapter’s key ideas: Animals do not rely on senses independently and instead integrate information from multiple sensory modalities.

Chapter 45 Animal Movement A new figure shows examples of hydrostatic skeletons, endoskeletons, and exoskeletons. A

brief section is added addressing the misconception that muscles grow by adding new cells during weight-lifting/training. In fact, the cells simply grow. A new section discusses the role of bone in calcium storage and the process of bone remodelling. Osteoblasts and osteoclasts are introduced, and osteoporosis is discussed briefly. Canadian Research 45.1 describes how University of Alberta’s Scott Persons and Philip Currie have reconstructed the tail muscles of *Tyrannosaurus rex*, providing a new interpretation of the movement of this iconic dinosaur.

Chapter 46 Chemical Signals in Animals Content is rearranged to flow more logically: first introducing cell signalling, next discussing how hormones stimulate cells, then giving examples of what hormones can do, and finally describing how hormones are regulated overall. Discussion of the discovery of hormones is updated for historical accuracy and includes a new research box on Berthold’s classic experiment on roosters, which shows that a chemical blood-borne messenger (later characterized as testosterone) can affect behaviour and anatomy. Control of blood-glucose levels by insulin and glucagon is now used to illustrate how hormones maintain homeostasis. Canadian Issues 46.1, which explores the consequences of releasing estrogens into the environment, has been updated. A new research box, Canadian Research 46.1, describes the role of cortisol in mediating stress in wildlife.

Chapter 47 Animal Reproduction and Development Material previously spread across several chapters is merged to bring reproduction and development together to tell a single, integrated story. Coverage of fertilization is now integrated with egg development; coverage of cleavage, gastrulation, and organogenesis is combined into a new, descriptive section on embryonic development. The chapter now focuses more on the physiology of reproduction in mammals, but retains a comparative approach by including examples ranging from insects to marsupials. Canadian Issues 47.1 is updated to include mitochondrial replacement therapy, also known as three-parent babies.

Chapter 48 The Immune System in Animals 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. The description on the ABO blood antigens is expanded and includes research at the University of British Columbia toward eliminating these antigens from donated blood cells.

Chapter 49 An Introduction to Ecology The introduction is revised to clarify the relationship between traditional ecology and the study of human impacts. The niche concept is introduced as a tool to relate organisms to environmental conditions. The theory of plate tectonics and a figure showing continental drift are added to the section on biogeography. The Coriolis effect, prevailing winds, ocean gyres, and El Niño are added to the climate section. Information from the Second Canadian Edition biome boxes is integrated into the text and included in new photographic summary tables on terrestrial and aquatic biomes. The temperate coniferous forest biome has been added, to include all of Canada’s major terrestrial biomes.

Chapter 50 Behavioural Ecology The introduction includes increased emphasis on fitness trade-offs and variation among organisms in a population (population thinking). Section case studies are updated, including a new opportunity for students to practise with optimal foraging in bees, a new data graphic on sexual selection in *Anolis* lizards, and a new photo of monkeys engaged in reciprocal grooming. Canadian Issues 50.1 introduces the whisky jack, which *Canadian Geographic* has proposed as Canada's national bird. A new section addresses the misconception that individuals act for the good of the species.

Chapter 51 Population Ecology The mark–recapture Quantitative Methods box is expanded. The figure and discussion of the life-history continuum are expanded. The exponential growth section is revised for a clearer walk-through of the equations and more direct assistance with common misconceptions. A new photographic summary table of density-dependent factors is added. Human population content is updated. Applications to conservation are expanded.

Chapter 52 Community Ecology More plant examples are included. The case studies on species interactions are updated and clarified. The community structure section now begins with

a discussion of how pairwise interactions combine to form webs of interactions, introducing the food web as an example. A discussion of bottom-up and top-down influences on community structure is now included.

Chapter 53 Ecosystems and Global Ecology Updates and clarifications are made throughout the chapter, particularly in the section on climate change, including updated data graphics. Nutrient cycle figures are modified to distinguish natural and human-caused processes. A section on phosphorus cycling is added. Canadian Issues 53.1 has been updated with new information about the threat that mountain pine beetles may pose to Canada's vast boreal forests. The concept of tipping points is added, and the interaction of multiple variables is emphasized.

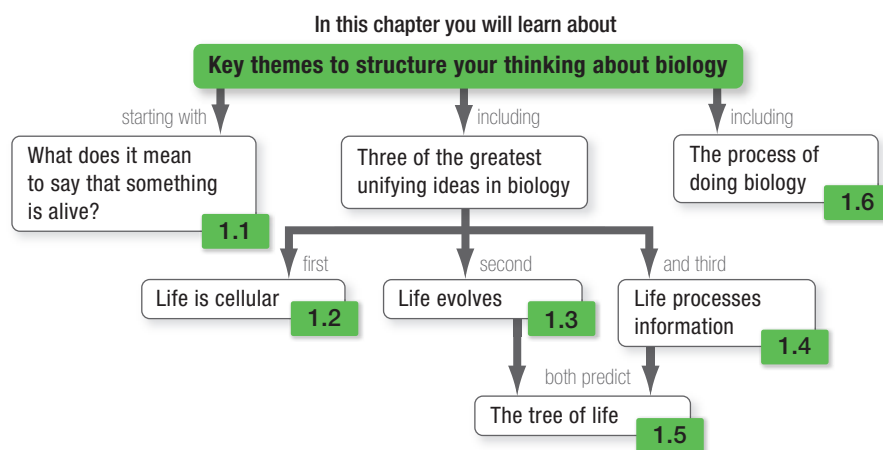
Chapter 54 Biodiversity and Conservation Biology Updates and clarifications are made throughout the chapter. A new figure contrasts resistance and resilience. A new data graphic emphasizes the resource intensity of beef. Overall, more emphasis is placed on the positive effects of conservation action, including a new full-page photographic summary table of conservation strategies. A number of Canadian examples of threats to biodiversity and conservation initiatives have been included.



Marina Vdovkina/123RF

1 Biology and the Tree of Life

This whisky jack looks like it is waiting for a kindly hiker to give it some food. It represents one of the key characteristics of life introduced in this chapter—energy.



In essence, biological science is the study of life. It searches for ideas and observations that unify our understanding of the diversity of life—from bacteria living in hot springs to humans and majestic sequoia trees.

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?



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

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. You can think of this text as one long exploration of these five traits.

- **Cells** Organisms are made up of membrane-bound units called **cells**. The membrane of a cell regulates the passage of materials between exterior and interior spaces.
- **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 products of evolution, and their populations continue to evolve today.
- **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.
- **Energy** To stay alive and reproduce, organisms have to acquire and use energy. To give just two examples: plants absorb sunlight; animals ingest food.

Three of the greatest unifying ideas in all of science, which depend on the five characteristics just listed, laid the groundwork for modern biology: the cell theory, the theory of evolution, and the chromosome theory of inheritance. Formally, scientists define a **theory** as an explanation for a very general class of phenomena or observations that is supported by a wide body of evidence. Note that this definition contrasts sharply with the everyday usage of the word “theory,” which often carries meanings such as “speculation” or “guess.”

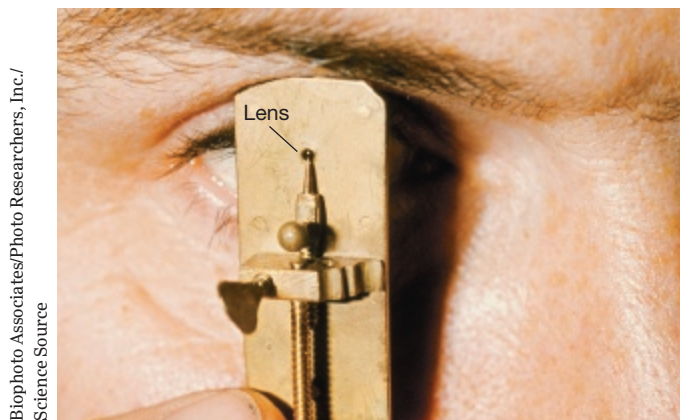
The cell theory, the theory of evolution, and the chromosome theory of inheritance address fundamental questions: What are organisms made of? Where do they come from? How is hereditary information transmitted from one generation to the next?

When these theories began to emerge in the mid-1800s, they revolutionized the way biologists think about the world. None of these insights came easily, however. The cell theory, for example, emerged after some 200 years of work. Let’s examine some of the pivotal discoveries made along the way.

1.2 Life Is Cellular

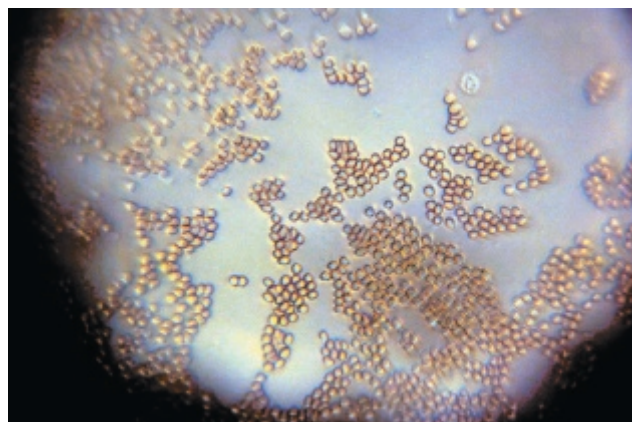
In 1665 the Englishman Robert Hooke devised a crude microscope to examine the structure of cork (a bark tissue) from an oak tree. The instrument magnified objects to just $30\times$ (30 times) their normal size, but it allowed Hooke to see something

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



Biophoto Associates/Photo Researchers, Inc./
Science Source

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



Brian J. Ford

Figure 1.1 Van Leeuwenhoek’s Microscope Made Cells Visible.

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 he thought they resembled the cells inhabited by monks in a monastery.

Soon after Hooke published his results, the Dutch scientist Anton van Leeuwenhoek developed much more powerful microscopes, some capable of magnifications up to $300\times$ (Figure 1.1). 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.”

In the 1670s an Italian researcher 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. Microscopes tens of thousands of times more powerful than Van Leeuwenhoek’s have revealed that cells are

highly organized compartments separated from their environment by a membrane barrier. With these instruments, biologists have examined many new species. The basic conclusion made in the 1800s remains intact: All organisms are made of cells.

The smallest organisms known today are bacteria that are barely 200 nanometres wide, or 200 *billionths* of a metre. (See **BioSkills 1** to review the metric system.¹) It would take 5000 of these organisms lined up side by side to span a millimetre. In contrast, sequoia trees can be over 100 metres tall, the equivalent of a 20-storey 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 trillions of cells.

The realization that all organisms are made of cells was fundamentally important, but it formed only the first part of the cell theory. In addition to understanding what organisms are made of, scientists wanted to understand how cells come to be.

Where Do Cells Come From?

In 1858, a German scientist named Rudolph Virchow proposed that all cells arise from cells already in existence. The complete **cell theory** builds on this concept: 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.

¹**BioSkills** are located after Chapter 1. They focus on general skills that you'll use throughout this course. More than a few students have found them to be a lifesaver. Please use them!

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 arise 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.

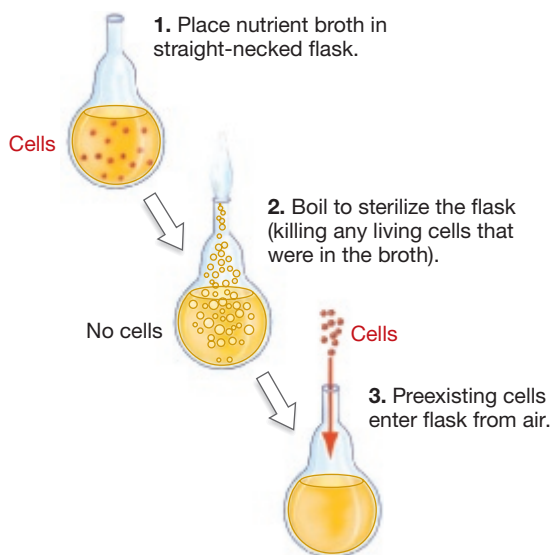
Biologists usually use the word “theory” to refer to proposed explanations for broad patterns in nature and prefer “hypothesis” to refer to explanations for more tightly focused questions. A theory serves as a framework for developing new hypotheses.

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 in an **experiment**. Experiments are a powerful scientific tool because they allow researchers to test the effect of a single, well-defined factor on a particular phenomenon. An experimental **prediction** describes a measurable or observable result that must be correct if a hypothesis is valid.

Pasteur wanted to determine whether organisms 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 treatments that were identical in every respect but one: the factor being tested—in this case, a broth's exposure to preexisting cells.

Both treatments used glass flasks filled with the same amount of the same nutrient broth (**Figure 1.2**). Both flasks were boiled for the same amount of time to kill any existing organisms. After sterilization by boiling, however, any bacteria and fungi that cling to dust particles in the air could drop into the broth in the flask shown in Figure 1.2a because the neck of this flask was straight.

(a) Pasteur experiment with straight-necked flask:



(b) Pasteur experiment with swan-necked flask:

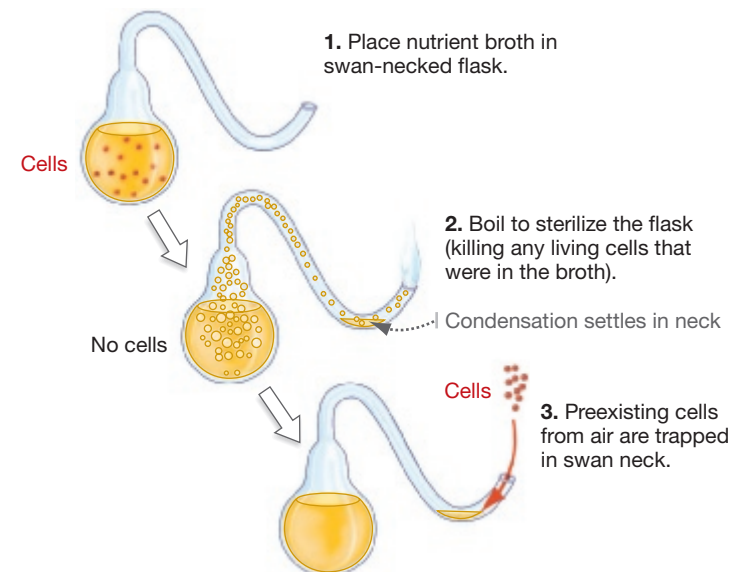


Figure 1.2 The Spontaneous Generation and All-Cells-from-Cells Hypotheses Were Tested Experimentally.

✓ **PROCESS OF SCIENCE** What problem would arise in interpreting these results if Pasteur had (1) put different types of broth in the two treatments, or (2) used a ceramic flask for one treatment and a glass flask for the other?

In contrast, in the flask with a long swan neck (Figure 1.2b), water would condense in the crook of the swan neck after boiling and this pool of water 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 they were still open to the air.

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.

And Pasteur's results? The broth in the straight-necked flask exposed to preexisting cells quickly filled with bacteria and fungi. This observation was important because it showed that the 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.

If all cells come from existing cells, where did the first cells come from? Biologists now have evidence that life arose from nonlife early in Earth's history, through a process called **chemical evolution**.

Life Replicates through Cell Division

For life on Earth to continue to exist, cells must replicate. Most cells are capable of reproducing by dividing—in effect, by making a copy of themselves. As predicted by the cell theory, all the cells present in your body and in most other multicellular individuals 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.

New cells arise when preexisting cells split. In multicellular organisms they become specialized for particular functions by intricate processes. In this way, all the cells in a multicellular organism are connected by a common lineage. Is the tremendous diversity among organisms also related to common ancestry?

The second great founding idea in biology, published the same year as the all-cells-from-cells hypothesis, provided an answer. This was the realization, made independently by the English scientists Charles Darwin and Alfred Russel Wallace, that all the diverse **species**—all distinct, identifiable types of organisms—are connected by common ancestry.

1.3 Life Evolves

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 *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. The first edition sold out in a day.



Figure 1.3 Sketch from Darwin's Notebook Dated 1837. Darwin wrote this in the notes that follow: "Thus genera would be formed. Bearing relation to ancient types with several extinct forms."

What Is Evolution?

Darwin and Wallace's theory made two important claims concerning patterns that exist in the natural world:

1. Species are related by common ancestry (Figure 1.3). This idea contrasted with the prevailing view in science at the time, which was that species represent independent entities created separately by a divine being.
2. The characteristics of species can be modified from generation to generation. Darwin called this process descent with modification. This claim argued against the popular view at the time that species do not change.

Evolution is a change in the characteristics of a population over time. A **population** is defined as a group of individuals of the same species living in the same area at the same time. To put it another way, species are related to one another and can change through time.

What Is Natural Selection?

Several other scientists had already come to the same conclusions as Darwin and Wallace 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.

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

Evolution occurs when heritable variation leads to differential success in reproduction. 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.

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

- In everyday English, “fitness” means “health and well-being.” But in biology, **fitness** means “an individual’s ability 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.

Darwin and Wallace’s ideas arose from their observations of nature. For example, in finches from the Galápagos Islands Darwin noted the remarkable variation in beak size and shape in species that otherwise appeared similar. He proposed that the birds on different islands in the chain were similar because they descended from a common ancestor, but the finch populations that colonized different islands had changed through time and formed new species with distinct beaks.

Long-term studies by biologists over the past several decades have documented dramatic changes in a population of finches on one of the Galápagos Islands (you will learn more about this study in Chapter 22). When small, soft seeds were abundant there due to increased rainfall, finches with small, pointed beaks produced more offspring and had higher fitness than individuals with large, deep beaks. In this population and with this food source, a small, pointed beak was an adaptation that allowed certain individuals to thrive, and the incidence of finches with such beaks increased in the population.

Note that during this process, the beak shape of any individual finch did not change within its lifetime—the change occurred in the characteristics of the population over time. Darwin’s finches continue to evolve today in response to changes in the environment.

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.

But what was the source of the heritable variation in traits? And how was information stored and transmitted from one generation to the next? The third unifying idea—the chromosome theory of inheritance—provided the foundation for biologists to answer these questions.

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 ...

Discuss the following statement: “Various species of Galápagos finches are adapted to their particular habitats.”

Answers are available in Appendix A.

1.4 Life Processes Information

After Walter Sutton and Theodor Boveri proposed the **chromosome theory of inheritance** in 1902, the pieces of the genetic puzzle began to fall into place. The key point? Inside cells, hereditary or genetic information is encoded in genes, the units located on chromosomes.

But it wasn’t until experiments were carried out in the 1950s that biologists figured out the molecular nature of the genetic material—a **chromosome** consists of a molecule of **deoxyribonucleic acid**, or **DNA**. To sum up, DNA is the heredity material. Genes consist of specific segments of DNA that code for products in the cell.

The Central Dogma

In what is considered one of the greatest scientific breakthroughs of biology, James Watson and Francis Crick proposed that DNA is a double-stranded helix (**Figure 1.4**). Crucial insights that led to this model came from structural analyses performed by Rosalind Franklin in Maurice Wilkins’ laboratory.

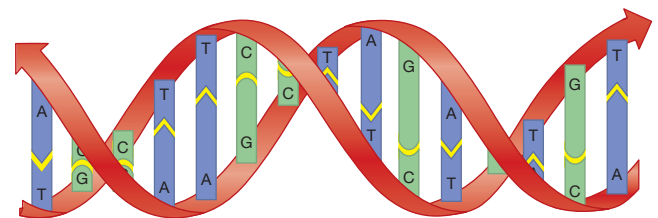


Figure 1.4 DNA Is a Double Helix.

Each strand of the **double helix** is made up of varying sequences of four different kinds of building blocks. In terms of structure, on each strand of the helix the building blocks of DNA are connected one to another linearly. In terms of function, they are like letters of the alphabet—the four different kinds of molecular building blocks are symbolized by the letters A, T, C, and G. A sequence of this letter code is like the sequence of letters in a word—it has meaning. In this way, DNA carries, or encodes, the information required for an organism’s growth and reproduction.

The two strands of the double helix are joined by connections between the building blocks that occur only between certain letters: A always pairs with T, and C always pairs with G (see Figure 1.4). This pairing is key: DNA can be copied, and the information encoded in the DNA is faithfully preserved. The pairs are arranged much like the rungs on a ladder, with the strands acting as the sides of the ladder.

How is this information transmitted? The **central dogma**—first articulated by Crick—describes the flow of information in cells. In this context, the term “dogma” means a framework for understanding. Put simply, DNA codes for RNA, which codes for proteins (Figure 1.5).

Molecular machinery in cells makes a copy of a particular gene’s information in the form of a closely related molecule called **ribonucleic acid**, or **RNA**. RNA molecules carry out a number of specialized functions in cells. For example, molecular machinery reads a messenger RNA molecule to determine

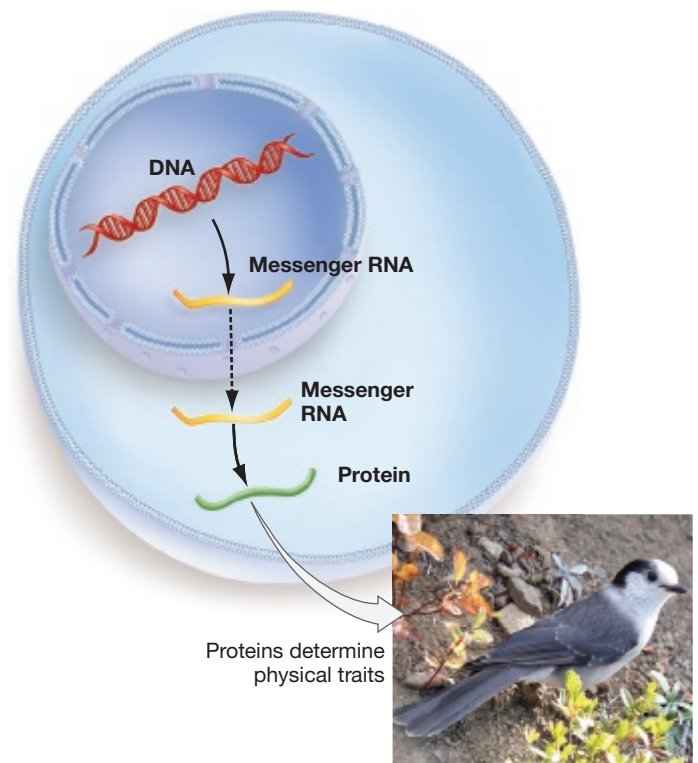


Figure 1.5 The Central Dogma Describes the Flow of Genetic Information. Genetic information flows from DNA to RNA to proteins. Differences in DNA sequences may lead to different physical traits.

what building blocks to use to make a **protein**. Proteins are crucial to most tasks required for a cell to exist, from forming structural components to promoting the chemical reactions that sustain life.

Understanding the structure of DNA provided insight into how genetic information is passed from cell to cell or from one organism to its offspring. Making a copy of DNA in a cell is a highly accurate process, but mistakes can occur. What happens when a mistake is made? Differences in DNA sequences may lead to differences in the sequence of building blocks of proteins.

The implications are profound: The outward appearance of an organism is a product of the proteins produced by its molecular machinery, so differences in DNA sequences might lead to a difference, for example, in finch beak size and shape, or in the length of a bighorn sheep’s horns. At the level of individuals, such changes might increase or decrease fitness. At the population level, changes in sequence lead to the heritable variations that underlie the diversity of life and make evolution possible.

Life Requires Energy

The chemical reactions that sustain the diversity of life take place inside cells. Transmitting genetic information, and the other work carried out by cells, requires energy. Organisms—whether single-celled or multicellular—are capable of living in a wide array of environments because they vary in cell structure and how they acquire and use energy.

Organisms have two fundamental nutritional needs—acquiring chemical energy in the form of a molecule called **ATP** (or **adenosine triphosphate**) and obtaining molecules that can be used as building blocks for the synthesis of DNA, RNA, proteins, the cell membrane, and other large, complex compounds required by the cell. How organisms do this—whether acquiring energy from the sun or through chemical compounds—is central to the tremendous diversification of life after it first arose on Earth.

1.5 The Tree of Life

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 among 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 molecular 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 found in all organisms. They selected a ribosomal RNA (rRNA). These are an essential part of ribosomes, which are cellular machinery that all cells use to grow and reproduce.

Although rRNA is a large and complex molecule, its underlying structure is simple. Much like DNA, an 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 boxcars of a freight train (Figure 1.6).

Analyzing Genetic Variation 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. 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 next step in analyzing genetic variation is to consider what the similarities and differences in the sequences imply about relationships among species. The goal is to produce a diagram that describes the phylogeny of the organisms being compared.

A diagram that depicts evolutionary history in this way is called a **phylogenetic tree**. (For help in learning how to read a phylogenetic tree, see **BioSkills 11**.) Just as a family tree shows relationships among individuals, a phylogenetic tree shows relationships among species. On a phylogenetic tree, branches that share a recent common ancestor—that is, an

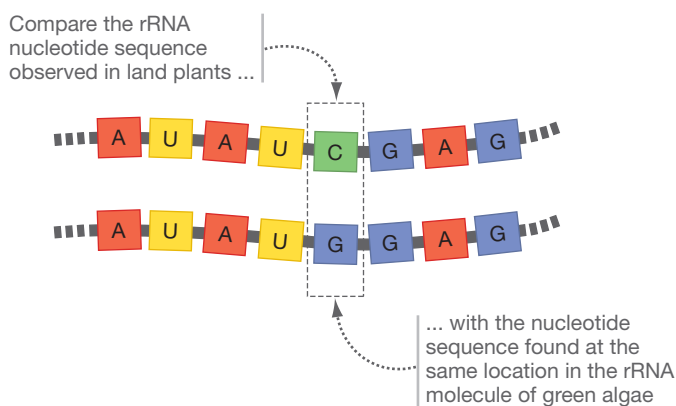


Figure 1.6 RNA Molecules Are Made Up of Smaller Molecules. The complete small subunit rRNA molecule contains about 2000 ribonucleotides; just 8 are shown in this comparison.

✓ **PROCESS OF SCIENCE** Suppose that in the same portion of rRNA, moulds and other fungi have the sequence A-U-A-U-G-G-A-C. According to these data, are fungi more closely related to green algae or to land plants? Explain your logic.

ancestral population—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, such as the one shown in Figure 1.7, researchers

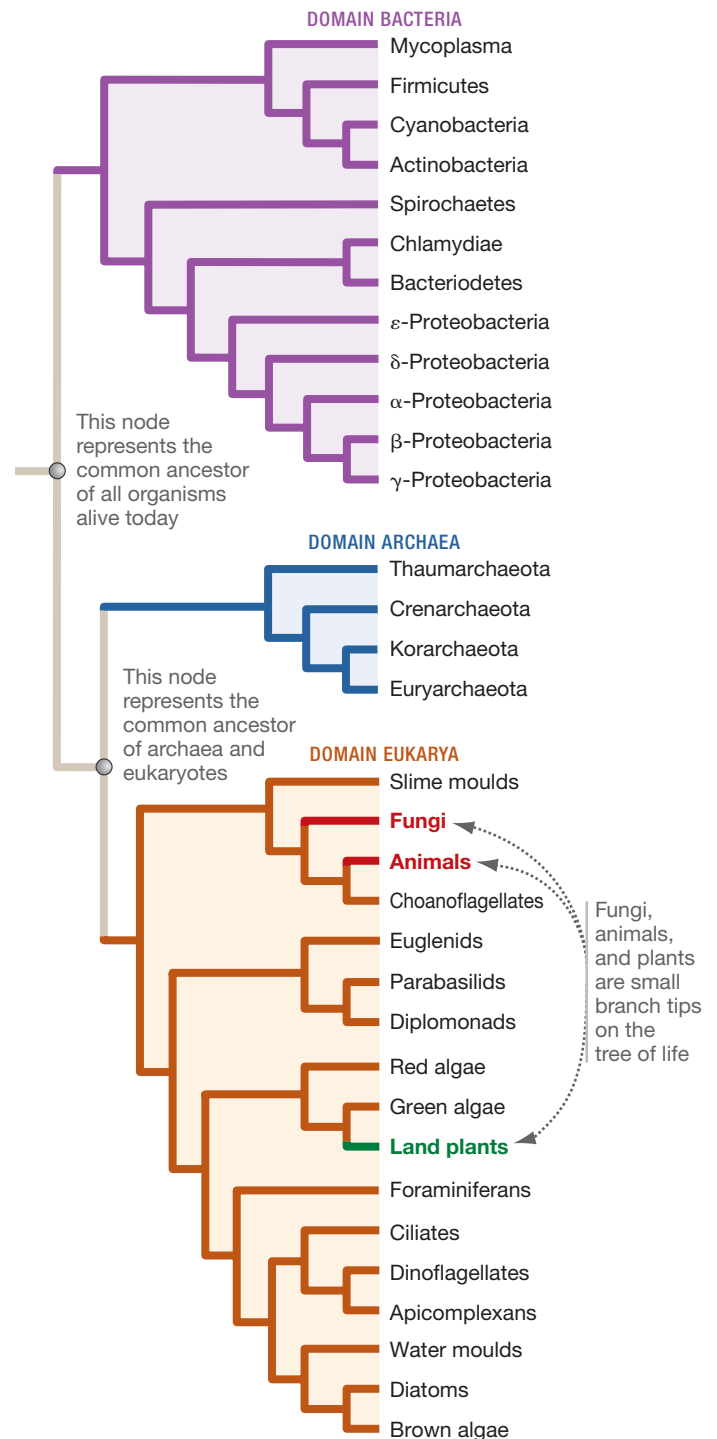


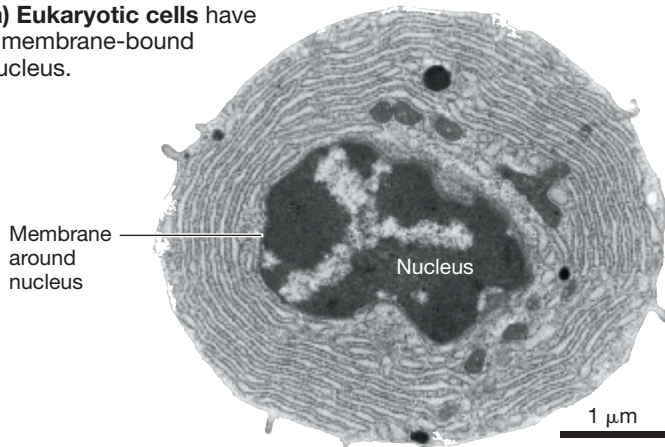
Figure 1.7 The Tree of Life Was Produced by Comparing Genetic Sequence Data. The three domains of life revealed by the analysis are labelled. Common names are given for lineages in the domains Bacteria and Eukarya. Phyla names are given for lineages in the domain Archaea, because most of them have no common names.

use sophisticated computer programs to find the arrangement of branches that is most consistent with the similarities and differences observed in the genetic data.

Because this tree includes such a diverse array of species, it is often called the universal tree, or the tree of life. Notice that the tree's main node is the common ancestor (ancestral population) 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**.

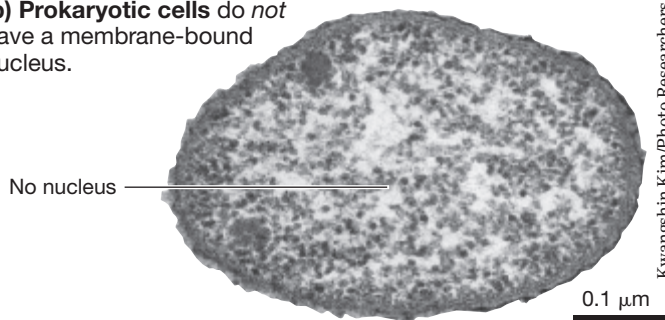
The tree of life implied by genetic sequence data established that there are three fundamental groups or lineages of organisms: **(1)** the Bacteria, **(2)** the Archaea, and **(3)** the Eukarya. In all **eukaryotes** (literally, “true kernel”), cells have a prominent component called the nucleus (**Figure 1.8a**). Because the vast majority of bacterial and archaeal cells lack a nucleus, they are referred to as **prokaryotes** (literally, “before-kernel”; see **Figure 1.8b**). The vast majority of bacteria and archaea are unicellular (“one-celled”); many eukaryotes are multicellular (“many-celled”).

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



Steve Gschmeissner/Photo Researchers, Inc./
Science Source

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



Kwangshin Kim/Photo Researchers, Inc./
Science Source

Figure 1.8 Eukaryotic and Prokaryotic Cells Differ in Structure. Dividing living organisms into two categories based on the presence or absence of a nucleus is convenient, but potentially misleading. In the next chapters, you will find that eukaryotic cells are very different from one another in their morphological appearance, while prokaryotic cells differ in their biochemical composition, particularly when comparing bacteria and archaea species.

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

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.
- 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 among species and evolutionary 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. W. Ford Doolittle's work on this topic is presented in Canadian Research 26.1. As databases expand and as techniques for analyzing data improve, the shape of the tree of life 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, Woese proposed a new taxonomic category called the **domain**. He designated Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya as the three domains of life.

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. For example, recent genetic data have fuelled an ongoing debate about whether there are only two domains of life: Bacteria as one domain, and the rest of life the other. 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 species, 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*. A species' name is always preceded by its genus.

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*.

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* (from the Latin for “man”), and members of other genera may be named *sapiens* (from the Latin for “wise” or “knowing”), 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, consider the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Saccharomyces* is aptly named—the domesticated strains of yeast used in commercial baking and brewing are often fed sugar (Greek root *saccharo*), and yeast is a fungus (Greek root *myces*). 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 13**.)

1.6 Doing Biology

This chapter has introduced some of the great ideas in biology. The development of the cell theory, the theory of evolution, and the chromosome theory of inheritance provided cornerstones when the science was young. The central dogma explained the flow of information from DNA to physical traits of an organism, and the more recent insights of the tree of life have revolutionized our understanding of life's diversity.

These three unifying ideas 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? Let's consider two issues currently being addressed by researchers.

How Has Artificial Selection Affected Bighorn Sheep? An Introduction to Hypothesis Testing

In Section 1.3 we discussed how a population can change in response to natural selection. Individuals with the traits best suited to an environment have the most offspring. But what if humans are involved? This leads to **artificial selection**—changes in populations that occur when humans select certain individuals to produce the most offspring.

A familiar example involves dogs. Dogs were originally wolves. Over thousands of years, these animals came to live more and more closely with humans. Most obviously there was artificial selection to decrease the trait of aggression. There was also selection to increase behaviours that would be beneficial to the community, for example a willingness to guard against predators or to herd livestock. This gradual domestication turned a dangerous animal into a useful companion.

European and American researchers discovered in 2016 that dogs had been domesticated from wolves twice. They estimated this happened about 15 000 years ago in Western Eurasia and about 12 500 years ago in Eastern Eurasia. The populations were initially separate but, within a few thousand years, dogs were so plentiful across Eurasia that the two populations met and mixed.

This sort of change in the characteristics of a population over time is evolution. Humans have been practising artificial selection for thousands of years to improve agriculturally important plants and animals. But sometimes our actions have consequences that are neither intentional nor desirable. **Canadian Research 1.1** describes a troubling example of artificial selection on a wild organism—bighorn sheep. Researchers

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

If you understand that ...

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

✓ You should be able to ...

Examine the following DNA sequences and determine which two species would be closest on a phylogenetic tree:

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.