The diversity of living things answer key

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People have long been curious to live things – how many different species there are, how they are, where they live, how they refer to each other, and how they behave. Scientists try to answer these questions and many others about organisms that inhabit the earth. In particular, they seek to develop concepts, principles and theories that allow people to better understand the living environment. The living organisms are made of the same components of all other matter, they involve the same type of energy transformations, and move using the same types of basic forces. Thus, all the physical principles discussed in Chapter 4, Physical adjustment, apply to life as well as stars, rain drops and televisions. But living organisms also have characteristics that can be better understood through the application of other principles. This chapter offers recommendations on basic knowledge about how living things work and how they interact with each other and their environment. The chapter focuses on six main subjects: the diversity of life, as reflected in the biological characteristics of the organisms of the earth; the transfer of hermetic characteristics from one generation to another; the structure and operation of the cells, the basic blocks of all organisms; the interdependence of all organisms and their environment; the flow of matter and energy through the cycles of great scale of life; and how biological evolution explains the likeness and diversity of life. DIVERSITY OF LIFE There are millions of different types of individual organisms that inhabit the earth at any time—some very similar to each other, some very different. Biologists classify organisms in a hierarchy of groups and subgroups based on similarities and differences in their structure and behavior. One of the most general distinctions between organisms is among plants, which obtain their energy directly from sunlight, and animals, which consume energy-rich foods initially synthesized by plants. But not all organisms are clearly one or the other. For example, there are mono-celled organisms without organized nuclei (battery) which are classified as a distinct group. Animals and plants have a wide variety of bodily planes, with different structures and general arrangements of internal parts to perform basic operations of making or finding food, energy and materials from it, syntheizing new materials and reproduce. When scientists classify organisms, they consider details of anatomy to be more relevant than behavior or general appearance. For example, due to such characteristics as the glands producing milk and the brain structure, whales and bats are classified as being more almost similar than whales and fish or bats and birds. To differentof affinity, dogs are classified with fish as having spine, with cows as having hair, and with cats as meat eaters. For organisms that sexually reproduce, a species includesorganisms able to mate with each other to produce a fertile progeny. However, the definition of species is not accurate; on the borders it can be difficult to decide the exact classification of a particular organism. In fact, classification systems are not part of nature. Rather, these are structures created by biologists to describe the great diversity of organisms, suggest relationships between living beings and frame research issues. The variety of life forms of the earth is evident not only from the study of anatomical and behavioral similarities and differences between organisms, but also from the study of similarities and differences between their molecules. The most complex molecules accumulated in living organisms are smaller molecule chains. The various types of small molecules are very similar in all life forms, but the specific sequences of components that make up the very complex molecules are characteristics of a given species. For example, DNA molecules are long chains connecting only four smaller molecules, whose precise sequence codifies genetic information. The closeness or distance of the relationship between organisms can be deducted from the extent that their DNA sequences are similar. The correlation of organisms deduced by similarity in their molecular structure corresponds very closely to the classification based on anatomical similarities. Conservation of species diversity is important for humans. We depend on two food webs to obtain the energy and materials necessary for life. It begins with microscopic ocean plants and marine algae and includes animals that feed on them and those that feed on them. The other begins with the terrestrial plants and includes the animals that feed on them, and so on. The complex interdependence between the species serves to stabilize these food networks. Small interruptions in a particular place tend to lead to changes that eventually restore the system. But large disturbances of living populations or their environments can cause irreversible changes in food networks. Maintaining diversity increases the likelihood of some varieties having characteristics to survive under changing conditions. Heredity A well-known observation is that descendants are very similar to their parents, but still show some variation: The descendants differ a bit from their parents and each other. Over many generations, these differences can accumulate, so organisms can be very different in appearance and behavior from their distant ancestors. For example, men have raised pets and plants to select desirable characteristics; the result is a modern variety of dogs, cats, cattle, poultry, fruit and cereals thatby their ancestors. Changes have also been observed in grains, for example, large enough to produce new species. In fact some branches of descendants of the same parent species are so different from others they can no longer race each other. Instructions for development have passed from parents to offspring in thousands of discrete genes, each of which is now known as a segment of a DNA molecule. The offspring of asexual organisms (clones) inherit all the genes of their parents. In the sexual reproduction of plants and animals, a cell specialized by a female fuse with a cell specialized by a male. Each of these sex cells contains an unpredictable half of the parents' genetic information. When a particular male cell merges with a particular female cell during fertilization, they form a cell with a complete set of paired genetic information, a combination of a semester from each parent. As the fertilized cell multiplies to form an embryo, and eventually a seed or mature individual, the combined sets are replicated in each new cell. The sorting and combination of genes in sexual reproduction results in a wide variety of gene combinations in the offspring of both parents. There are millions of different possible combinations of genes in the middle divided into each separate sex cell, and there are also millions of possible combinations of each of those particular female and male sex cells. However, new gene mixtures are not the only source of variation in the characteristics of organisms. Although genetic instructions can be passed on virtually unchanged for many thousands of generations, occasionally some of the information in a cell's DNA is altered. Deletions, insertions or substitutions of DNA segments may occur spontaneously through random errors in the copy, or may be induced by chemicals or radiation. If a mutated gene is in the sex cell of an organism, copies of it can be transmitted to the offspring, becoming part of all their cells and perhaps giving new or modified characteristics of the offspring. Some of these modified characteristics may prove to increase the ability of organisms to prospect and reproduce, some may reduce that ability, and some may not have any appreciable effect. Cells all self-replicating life forms are composed of cells – from bacteria to individual cells to elephants, with their trillions of cells. Although some giant cells, such as chicken eggs, can be seen with the naked eye, most cells are microscopic. It is at the cellular level that many of the basic functions of organisms are performed: protein synthesis, extraction of energy from nutrients, replication and so on. All living cells have similar types of complex molecules that are involved in these basic activities of life. These molecules interact in a soup, about 2/3 of water, surrounded by a membrane that controls what can enter and In more complex cells, some of the common types of molecules are organized into structures that perform the same basic functions more efficiently. In particular, a nucleus holds DNA and a protein skeleton helps to organise operations. In addition to the basic cellular functions common to all cells, most cells in the organisms perform some particular functions that others do not perform. For example, gland cells secrete hormones, muscle cells contract and nerve cells lead electrical signals. Cellular molecules consist of atoms of a small number of elements, mainly carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus and sulphur. Carbon atoms, thanks to their small size and four available binding electrons, can join other carbon atoms in chains and rings to form large and complex molecules. Most molecular interactions in cells occur in aqueous solution and require a fairly narrow range of temperature and acidity. At low temperatures reactions are too slow, while high temperatures or excess acidity can irreversibly damage the structure of protein molecules. Small changes in acidity can also alter molecules and how they interact. Both monocellular and multicellular organisms have molecules that help maintain the acidity of cells within the required range. The work of the cell is done by the many different types of molecules that assemble, mostly proteins. Protein molecules are long chains, usually bent, made from 20 different types of amino acid molecules. The function of each protein depends on its specific sequence of amino acids and the shape that the chain assumes as a consequence of the attraction between the parts of the chain. Some of the mounted molecules help replicate genetic information, repair cell structures, help other molecules enter or exit the cell and generally catalyze and regulate molecular interactions. In specialized cells, other protein molecules can transport oxygen, contraction effect, respond to external stimuli, or provide material for hair, nails and other body structures. In other cells, assembled molecules can be exported to serve as hormones, antibodies, or digestive enzymes. Genetic information codified in DNA molecules provides instructions for the assembly of protein molecules. This code is virtually the same for all life forms. Thus, for example, if a gene of a human cell is inserted into a bacteria, the chemical mechanism of the bacterium will follow the gene instructions and produce the same protein that would be produced in human cells. A single atom modification of the DNA molecule, which can be induced by chemicals or radiation, can then change the produced protein. Such a mutation of a DNA segment may not make much difference, it may fatally disrupt the functioning of the cell, or may significantly alter the good functioning of the cell (for example, it can favor uncontrolled replication, as in the case of cancer).The cells of an organism descend from the single fertilized egg cell and have the same information on the DNA. Since subsequent generations of cells are formed by division, small differences in their immediate environments do yes that they develop in a slightly different way, activating or inacting different parts of DNA information. Subsequent generations of cells differ differ further and finally mature into cells as different as gland, muscles and nerve cells. The complex interactions between the myriad types of molecules in the cell can give rise to distinct cycles of activity, such as growth and division. Control of cellular processes also comes from: Cellular behaviour can be influenced by molecules from other parts of the body or by other organisms (e.g. hormones and neurotransmitters) that attach to or pass through the cell membrane and affect the reaction rates between cell constituents. INTERDEPENDENCE OF LIFE Each species is connected, directly or indirectly, with a multitude of others in an ecosystem. Plants provide food, shelter and nesting sites for other organisms. For their part, many plants depend on animals for reproductive aid (pollinated bee flowers, for example) and for certain nutrients (such as minerals in animal waste products). All animals are part of food web sites that include plants and animals of other species (and sometimes the same species). The predator/prey ratio is common, with its offensive tools for predators – teeth, beaks, claws, poison, etc. – and its defensive tools for prey – camouflage to hide, escape velocity, shields or thorns to move away, irritating substances to repel. Some species become very dependent on others (for example, panda or koala can only eat certain species of trees). Some species have become so adapted to each other that they could not survive without each other (for example, wasps that nest only in figs and are the only insect that can pollinate them). There are also other relationships between the bodies. Parasites feed on their hosts, sometimes with negative consequences for the hosts. Scavengers and decomposers feed only on dead animals and plants. And some organisms have mutually beneficial relationships â for example, bees that sip nectar from flowers and by the way carry pollen from one flower to another, or bacteria that live in our intestines and accidentally synthesize certain vitamins and protect the intestinal lining from germs. But the interaction of living organisms does not occur on a passive environmental stage. Ecosystems are shaped by the non-living environment of land and water, solar radiation, precipitation, mineral concentrations, temperature and topography. The world contains a wide diversity of physical conditions, which creates a wide range of environments: fresh and oceanic water, forest, desert, grassland, tundra, mountain and many more. In all these environments, organisms utilize vital resources of the earth, each seeking its share in specific ways that are limited by other organisms. In every part of the habitable environment, different organisms compete for food, space, light, heat, water, air and shelter. Interactions linked to and the forms of life and the environment make up a total ecosystem; understanding of a part of it requires well knowledge of how this part interacts interactsThe others. The interdependence of organisms in an ecosystem often results in approximate stability over hundreds or thousands of years. As a proliferous species, it is kept under control by one or more environmental factors: exhaustion of food sites or nesting, increased loss to predators or invasion by parasites. If a natural disaster occurs like flooding or fire, the damaged ecosystem is likely to recover in a series of stages that eventually lead to a system similar to the original one. Like many complex systems, ecosystems tend to show cyclic fluctuations around an approximate balance state. In the long term, however, ecosystems inevitably change when climate change or when different species appear due to migration or evolution (or are deliberately or inadvertently introduced by humans). However complex the functioning of living organisms, they share with all other natural systems the same physical principles of preservation and transformation of matter and energy. On the long extensions of time, matter and energy are transformed between living things, and between them and the physical environment. In these large cycles, the total amount of matter and energy remains constant, although their shape and position undergo continuous change. Almost all life on earth is ultimately maintained by transformations of energy from the sun. Plants capture the energy of the sun and use it to synthesize complex and energy-rich molecules (mainly sugars) from carbon dioxide and water molecules. These synthesized molecules therefore serve, directly or indirectly, as a source of energy for plants themselves and ultimately for all animals and decomposition organisms (such as bacteria and fungi). This is the food web: organisms that consume plants derive energy and materials to break down plant molecules, used to synthesize their structures, and then they are themselves consumed by other organisms. At each stage on the food web, some energies are stored in new synthesis structures and some are dissipated in the environment as heat produced by chemical processes that release energy in cells. A similar energy cycle begins in the oceans with the capture of the energy of the sun with tiny organisms and plant. Each next step in a food store only captures a small fraction of the energy content of the organisms feeds. The elements that make up the molecules of the living are continually recycled. The head of these elements is carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulphur, phosphorus, calcium, sodium, potassium and iron. These and other elements, which mostly occur in energy-rich molecules, have passed along the food web and eventuallyRecycled by decomposers return to mineral nutrients usable from plants. Although there can often be excesses and local deficits, the situation on the whole Earth is that the organisms are dying and decayed about the same rate of what was the new life life That is, the total living biomass remains approximately constant, there is a cyclical flow of materials from old life to the new life, and there is an irreversible flow of energy from the sunlight captured to the heat dissipated. An important interruption in the usual energy flow seemingly occurred million years ago, when the growth of terrestrial plants and marine organisms has exceeded the capacity of the decomposers to recycle them. The layers of organic matter rich in energy have gradually transformed into coal and oil from the above earth pressure. The energy stored in their molecular structure can now release burning, and our modern civilization depends on immense amount of energy from these fossil fuels recovered from the earth. Burning fossil fuels, we are finally transferring most of the energy stored in the environment in the form of heat. We are also pouring into the atmosphere in a relatively short quantities of carbon dioxide that have been slowly removed in the age of millions of years. The quantity of life that every environment can argue is limited by its most elementary resources: the influx of energy, minerals and water. The sustainable productivity of an ecosystem requires sufficient energy for new products that are synthesized (such as trees and crops) and also to completely recycle the residues of old ones (dead leaves, human sewage, etc.). When human technology intrudes, the materials can accumulate in the form of non-recycled waste. When the influx of resources is insufficient, an acceleration of the leaching of the soil, desertification or the exhaustion of mineral reserves occurs. Evolution of life today's life forms of life seem to have evolved from common ancestors up to the simplest unicellular organisms almost four billion years ago. Modern evolution ideas provide a scientific explanation for three main series of observable facts on life on Earth: the enormous number of different life forms that we see on us, the systematic similarities in anatomy and molecular chemistry We see the interior of this diversity, and the sequence of changes in fossils found in subsequent rocky layers formed over a billion years. From the beginning of fossil findings, many new forms of life have appeared, and most of the old shapes have disappeared. The numerous traceable sequences of changing anatomical shapes, deduced by eras of rocky layers, convince scientists that the accumulation of differences from one generation to another has led to the birth of species so different as the bacteria of the elephants. The molecular evidence confirms the anatomical evidence of fossils and provides further details on the sequence in which the various lineage lines branch off the other. If the details of the history of life on earth are still being put together by combined geological, anatomical and molecular evidence, the main features of that history are generally agreed. In the beginning, simple molecules may have complex molecules that eventually form in cells capable of self-replication. life on earth has existed for three billion years. Before that, simple molecules may have formed complex organic molecules that eventually form in cells capable of self-replication. during the first two billion years of life, only microorganisms existed... some apparently quite similar to bacteria and algae that exist today. with the development of cells with nuclei about a billion years ago, there was a great increase in the rate of evolution of increasingly complex and multicellular organisms. the rate of evolution of the new species has been irregular since then, perhaps reflecting the variable rate of variation in the physical environment. a central concept of the theory of evolution is the natural selection, which arises from three consolidated observations: (1) there is some variation in the erectable characteristics within each species of organism, (2) some of these characteristics will give to benefit others to survive the maturity and reproduce, and (3) those individuals will probably have more offspring, than themselves will be more likely to propensity than others to survive and reproduce. the probable result is that on successive generations, the proportion of individuals who have inherited advantages-giving the characteristics will tend to increase. Selectable features may include details about biochemistry, such as the molecular structure of hormones or digestive enzymes and anatomical characteristics that are ultimately produced in the development of the organism, such as bone size or fur length. may also include subtler features determined by anatomy, such as acuity of vision or pumping of heart efficiency. with biochemical or anatomical means, selectable features can also affect behavior, such as weaving a certain form of the web, preferring certain characteristics in a companion, or being willing to take care of the offspring. new hereditable features can result from new combinations of parent genes or from mutations of them. except for dna mutation in the sexual cells of an organism, the characteristics resulting from occurrences during the life of the organism cannot be biologically transmitted to the next generation. Therefore, for example, changes in an individual caused by the ooo or disuse of a structure or function or for changes in its environment cannot be promulgated by natural selection. by its very nature, it is probable that natural selection leads to organisms with characteristics well adapted to survival in particular environments. And yet the possibility alone, especially in small populations, can lead to the spread of hereditary characteristics that do not have intrinsic survival orreproductive or disadvantage. Moreover, when an environment changes (in this sense, other organisms are also part of the environment), the advantage or disadvantage of the characteristics may change. So natural selection does not necessarily result to move in a predetermined direction. Evolution is based on what already exists, so the more variety there is, the more there can be. The continuous operation of natural selection on new traits and in changing environments, repeatedly for millions of years, has produced a succession of new and different species. Evolution is not a scale where the lower forms are all replaced by higher forms, with man finally emerging at the top as the most advanced species. Rather it is like a bush: many branches emerged a long time ago; some of these branches have become extinct; some have survived with seemingly little or no change in time; others have repeatedly branched out, giving rise to more complex organisms. The modern concept of evolution provides a unifying principle for understanding the history of life on earth, the relationships between all living things, and the dependence of life on the physical environment. Although it is still far from clear how evolution works in every detail, the concept is so well established that it provides a framework for organizing most biological knowledge into a coherent framework.

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