**Organic Molecules: Vocabulary**

Subunits:

1. Made up of Amino Acids Proteins
2. Made up of Nucleotides Nucleic Acids
3. Made up of 1 Glycerol and 3 Fatty Acids Lipid
4. Made up of Simple Sugars Carbohydrate

Functions:

1. Used to transport materials through cell membranes, transport oxygen in blood,
speed up chemical reactions, regulate cell metabolism, etc. Proteins
2. Used to encode genetic (hereditary) information. Nucleic Acids
3. Used as a short-term energy source. Carbohydrates
4. Used as a long-term energy source, waterproofing. Lipids

Examples:

1. Carbohydrate Examples
	1. Monomer Example (Monosaccharides): Glucose
	2. Polymer Examples (Polysaccharides): Carbohydrate
		1. Starch : energy storage for plants
		2. Celllose: found in cell walls of plants & used for structural support
		3. Glycogen : energy storage for animals
2. Protein Examples
	1. Hemoglobin : used to transport oxygen through the blood
	2. Insulin : used to regulate amount of glucose in blood
	3. Enzyme: used as a catalyst to speed up chemical reactions; can be denatured (preventing it from working) if there are changes in pH or temperature.
	- Examples are lactase which breaks down lactose and
	pepsin which is found in the stomach & works best at pH = 2.
3. Nucleic Acid Examples
	1. DNA: Found in the nucleus; contains instructions for organism; replicates when cells divide; passed on from one generation to the next.
	2. \_\_RNA\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_: Makes copies of parts of DNA; travels out of nucleus and to ribosomes where proteins are made (mRNA); carries amino acids to ribosomes.(tRNA)
4. Lipid Examples: \_\_\_\_\_waxes\_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_\_\_fats, oils\_\_\_

**Organic Molecules: Diagrams**

Remember, enzymes are reusable and specific to their substrate!

1. Identify the following in the diagram (can be used more than once): enzyme, substrate, product
2. Substrate



1. Enzyme
2. Enzyme-Substrate Complex
3. Enzyme
4. Product

Enzyme-Substrate Complex

1. Interpret the Graphs:
	1. At what pH range will enzyme activity be optimal? 7.0-9.0
	2. At what temperature will the speed of the reaction be greatest? 40 C
	3. At a temperature of 30oC, will the reaction rate be faster or slower than the rate at 20oC? \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_





1. Label the pH Scale with: neutral, strong acid, strong base, weak acid, weak base

Neutral - Water

Strong Acid

Weak Base

Strong Base

Weak Acid



* 1. High pH (big number) means that it is a strong {acid or base?}.
	2. Low pH (small number) means that it is a strong {acid or base?}.
	3. A buffering agent is used to maintain a constant pH in the internal environment of a cell so that enzymes in the cell will function well and chemical reactions will take place at normal rates. This is an example of the need for maintaining homeostasis.

**Living Cells: Vocabulary**

1. Prokaryotic cells do NOT contain any *membrane-bound organelles*. These very simple cells typically contain only 4 parts (Remember NONE of these are membrane-bound organelles!): (1) DNA,
(2) Cytoplasm, (3) Ribosomes, (4) Cell Membrane
2. Bacteria are the only organisms that ~~have~~ are prokaryotic cells.
3. Eukaryotic cells contain membrane-bound organelles. Both Plant and Animal have these types of cells.
4. The Endosymbiotic theory explains how eukaryotic cells arose. (Eukaryotic originated from prokaryotic cells)
This theory explains the origin of these 2 organelles: mitochondria and plasmid.
We think that these 2 organelles were once separate prokaryotes because they contain their own DNA.
5. All cells within an organism contain same DNA, yet some cells have specialized functions. Cells gain their specialization when genes are turned on or off during growth/development(gene regulation).

**Organelle Functions:**

1. Regulates what enters and leaves cell Cell membrane/plasma membrane
2. Provides structural support in plant cells cell wall
3. Store water; are especially large in plants vacule/central vacuole
4. Where photosynthesis takes place chloroplast/chlorophyll
5. Contains chlorophyll (responsible for trapping light energy; green in color) chloroplast
6. Where sugar is made from light energy, carbon dioxide, and water chloroplast - photosynthesis
7. Where aerobic respiration takes place mitochondria
8. Where sugar is broken down and energy is stored as ATP mitochondria
9. Contains the instructions for the cell’s functioning (contains DNA) nucleus
10. Where DNA replication takes place nucleus (Interphase – Synthesis phases)
11. Where DNA is transcribed into mRNA nucleus
12. Where proteins are made (protein synthesis) ribosome
13. Hold organelles; where anaerobic respiration begins cytoplasm
14. Hairlike structures used for movement; found along respiratory system and in some protists cilia
15. Whiplike structure used for movement; found on sperm and some protists flagella

**Living Cells: Diagrams**

Word Bank for all 3 diagrams: cell wall, chloroplast, cytoplasm, mitochondria, nucleus, plasma membrane, ribosome, vacuole, DNA

**DIAGRAM #1**

1. mitochondria
2. ribosome (rough ER)
3. cell membrane
4. nucleus
5. vacuole
6. cytoplasm

5

6

7

8

1

2

3

4

5

6



1. Cell wall
2. Central Vacuole
3. Cell membrane
4. Ribosome/lysosome
5. Cytoplasm
6. Chloroplast
7. ribosome
8. Nucleus

**DIAGRAM #2**

 1

 2

 3

 4

5

Cilia

 

1. Cell wall
2. Cell membrane
3. Circular DNA (ring-shaped plasmid)
4. cytoplasm
5. Ribosome
6. Prokaryotic cells are smaller
than eukaryotic cells.

**DIAGRAM #3**

Identify the type of cell in the 3 diagrams above:

1. Which diagram is a prokaryotic cell? 3
2. Which diagram is a plant cell? 2
3. Which diagram is an animal cell? 1

What does a plant cell have that an animal cell does NOT?:

(1) Cell Wall

(2) Chloroplast

(3) Central Vacuole

What does an animal cell have that a plant cell does NOT?: cilia, flagellum

**Living Cells: Skills**

1. What would the magnification of a cell be if the microscope’s eyepiece lens was 10x and the objective lens was 30x? 300
2. Muscle cells require a lot of energy, therefore they must have many of which organelle? mitochondria
3. Palisade mesophyll cells in leaves are responsible for photosynthesis. They have a lot of which organelle? chloroplast
4. Nerve/neurons transmit signals throughout the body and have a long, slender shape.

**Semi-Permeable Plasma Membrane: Vocabulary**

Transport Across the Plasma Membrane:

1. In passive transport, energy IS NOT required. In this type of transport, materials can only move WITH the concentration gradient – from high concentration to low concentration.
	1. Types:
		1. diffusion: when materials move from high to low concentration through the membrane.
		2. Facilitated diffusion: when materials move from high to low concentration through the membrane, but require a channel protein to help them move through.
		3. osmosis: when water moves from high to low concentration through the membrane.
2. In active transport, energy IS required. In this type of transport, materials can be moved AGAINST the concentration gradient – from low concentration to high concentration. Channel proteins are used to force materials to move from low concentration to high concentration. Energy in the form of ATP is needed.

Osmosis Examples:

1. Does water move out or move in?
	1. When you soak in a bathtub, water moves out your fingers making them look shriveled.
	2. If your finger is swollen and you put it into salt water, water moves out your finger.
	3. When you put wilted parsley in water, water moves into the parsley.
2. Does the cell shrink or expand?
	1. When a red blood cell is placed in distilled water: expand
	2. When a red blood cell is placed in salt water: shrink

**Semi-Permeable Plasma Membrane: Diagrams**

Write the appropriate letter
(letters can be used more than once):

**G**



**inside cell**

**outside cell**

 **A**

**C**

**D**

 **B**

**E**

**F**

1. Hydrophilic (water-loving) head: C
2. Hydrophobic (water-fearing) tail: D
3. Phospholipid: E
4. Phospholipid Bilayer: F
5. Transport Proteins: A
6. ~~Receptor Protein: B~~
7. Used for Facilitated Diffusion: A
8. ~~Used for Active Transport: B/G~~
9. ~~Requires Energy: B/G~~
10. Water can go through this by osmosis: F
11. Materials can go through this by simple diffusion: F

**Cell Energy Reactions: Vocabulary**

1. The process of breaking down sugar in the presence of oxygen for energy. Aerobic Respiration
2. The process of breaking down sugar for energy without oxygen. Anaerobic Respiration
3. This type of anaerobic respiration that yeast and some bacteria use. Glucose is broken down without oxygen; carbon dioxide and ethanol are produced. Fermentation
4. This type of anaerobic respiration that occurs when your muscles run out of oxygen and results in an aching sensation. Lactic Acid Fermentation
5. This type of anaerobic respiration that is used to make bread. Fermentation (yeast)
6. Which type of respiration produces the most ATP (energy)? **\*Remember, energy is released when ATP is broken down into ADP + P. This energy is used to power other chemical reactions in cells. Aerobic (32-36ATP) vs Anaerobic 2 ATP**
7. The process by which plants and some protists use sunlight, carbon dioxide, and water to make sugar. Photosynthesis

 **Cell Energy Reactions: Compare and Contrast**

Complete the table and the questions that follow.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Reactant #1** | **Reactant #2** | **Reactant #3** | **🡪** | **Product #1** | **Product #2** | **Product #3** |
| Photosynthesis | CO2 | H2O | Sunlight | O2 | Glucose |  |
| Aerobic Respiration | Glucose | O2 |  | 36 ATP | H2O  | CO2 |
| Anaerobic Respiration:Lactic Acid Fermentation | Glucose |  |  | 2 ATP | H2O |  |
| Anaerobic Respiration:Alcoholic Fermentation | Glucose |  |  | ATP | CO2 | Ethanol |

1. The goal of photosynthesis is to produce: Food.
2. The goal of respiration is break down glucose to obtain energy in the form of ATP.
3. What gas is produced by photosynthesis that is needed for aerobic respiration? oxygen
4. What gas is taken out of the atmosphere by photosynthesis but is released into the atmosphere by aerobic respiration?: carbon dioxide
5. What gas is thought to cause the greenhouse effect (and global warming)?carbon dioxide
6. Do all organisms use photosynthesis? No
7. Do all organisms use respiration? Yes
8. If an organism does not use photosynthesis to make sugar, how does it get the sugar it needs for respiration? eat

**DNA Replication and Protein Synthesis: Vocabulary**

1. The process of copying DNA to create 2 identical daughter DNA molecules is called replication.
	1. Helicase unravels the DNA and unzips the hydrogen bonds that connect the nitrogenous bases together.
	2. When DNA polymerase makes a mistake while copying DNA, this is called a mutation.
	3. Mistakes in DNA can cause a cell to divide rapidly without a limit which can result in cancer.
	4. Copying DNA occurs during which phase of cell division: Interphase - synthesis
2. The process of making proteins is called protein synthesis There are two steps in this process:
	1. In the first step, a segment of DNA is unraveled and mRNA makes a copy of a DNA segment. This is called transcription
	2. In the second step, the mRNA travels out of the nucleus to a ribosome where tRNA brings amino acids and connects them with peptide bonds to form a protein. This process is called translation.
		1. An mRNA sequence of 3 bases is called a: codon
		2. A tRNA sequence of 3 bases is called a: anticodon

**DNA Replication and Protein Synthesis: Skills**

1. A segment of DNA has the following bases: TAC GCA.
What is the complementary strand of DNA (the other side of the double helix)? ATG CGT
2. A segment of DNA has the following bases: TAC GCA.
What is the complementary strand of mRNA? AUG CGU
3. When the mRNA strand from #2 goes to the ribosome for translation, what is the amino acid sequence? Met Arg
4. What is the amino acid sequence from this DNA strand
TAC CGT TCA: AUG GCA AGU – Met Ala Ser
5. If the DNA strand is TAC CAA CCA,
What are the complementary mRNA codons? AUG GUU GGU
What are the tRNA anticodons? UAC CAA CCA
What is the amino acid sequence? Met Val Gly

**Cell Division – Mitosis and Meiosis: Vocabulary**

1. The division of the cell which produces two identical daughter cells with the same number of chromosomes as the original cell. Mitosis
2. Starts with a diploid cell and ends with 2 diploid cells. Mitosis
3. Starts with a diploid cell and ends with 4 haploid cells. Meiosis
4. Cells with a set of chromosomes from each parent. Zygote (fertilized egg)
5. Cells with half the normal number of chromosomes Gamete (sperm/egg)
6. The division of a cell that produces four gametes – each with its own random assortment of alleles. meiosis

**Cell Division – Mitosis and Meiosis: Diagrams**

**Mitosis: Number the pictures so they are in order.**



1

5

2

3

6

4

1. How many cell divisions in mitosis? 1
2. Is mitosis a part of Asexual or Sexual Reproduction? asexual
3. What type of cells are produced in mitosis (haploid or diploid)? diploid

**Meiosis: Use the pictures to remind you of the process. Answer the questions that follow.**



1. How many cell divisions in meiosis? 2
2. Is meiosis a part of Asexual or Sexual Reproduction? sexual
3. What types of cells are produced in meiosis (haploid or diploid)? haploid
4. In both Mitosis and Meiosis, DNA must first undergo replication

**Sources of Genetic Variation during Mitosis & Meiosis: Vocabulary**

**Genetic variation is important because the more variation there is within a species, the more likely the species will be able to survive environmental changes (evolve and adapt)!**



1. When homologous chromosomes pair up during Metaphase 1, the position of the maternal (mom) and paternal (dad) chromosomes are random. Random assortment
2. When homologous chromosomes (one from mom, one from dad) pair up during Metaphase 1, segments of homologous chromosomes can break off and switch places. [See picture to the right.] Crossing over
3. During DNA Replication (in interphase) mistakes can be made that change the sequence of amino acids in proteins (which can result in new adaptations!). mutation
4. When homologous chromosomes do not separate during Anaphase 1. nondisjunction
5. When a random sperm meets a random egg (recombination of alleles). fertilization

**Genetics: Vocabulary**

1. Recessive trait is completely hidden when a dominant allele is present (ex. Tt 🡪 tall plant) complete dominance
2. Results in the blending of traits (ex. pink flowers, medium height). Incomplete dominance
3. Results in the expression of both traits Ex. sickle cell anemia (AS 🡪 half are normal and half are sickled);
Ex. AB blood type (blood cells have both A and B antigens); Ex. roan cattle (brown and white) codominance
4. Gene has multiple (more than 2) alleles for a trait. Ex. Blood type – IA, IB, i multiple alleles
5. Traits that are controlled by more than one gene, resulting in lots of variation. Ex. Human skin & hair color polygenic
6. Traits that are found on the X chromosome, which results in a high % of males expressing the trait. X-linked
7. Used to determine the genotype of an individual expressing a dominant trait (Is it AA or Aa?) punnett square
8. Disease that is sex-linked; individuals’ blood cannot clot hemophilia
9. Disease that is dominant; brain degeneration occurs Huntington’s disease
10. Disease that is recessive; individuals cannot process phenylalanine and brain damage can occur PKU

**Genetics: Diagrams**

1. Look at the diagram of the diploid cell with 2 pairs of homologous chromosomes to the right. What are the 4 possible gametes that can be created from this diploid cell (because of independent assortment)?



**A**

**a**

**B**

**b**

Draw the Four Possible Gametes:

1. Sex Chromosomes:Normal Males have XY Normal Females have XX 

Use the **karyotype** to the right to answer the questions:

1. Is this person male
2. This person suffers from Down Syndrome, a nondisjunction disease.
What is the mistake in the number of chromosomes? Trisomy 21 – 3 21st chromosomes instead of two

Use the **pedigrees** below to answer the questions:



1. Males are represented with squares
2. Females are represented with circles
3. The pedigree to the right is for the sex-linked recessive trait colorblindness (XC).
What are the genotypes for the individuals below?
	1. I1: XY
	2. I2:XcXc
	3. II1: XcY
	4. II2: XX
	5. III2: XcXc

**Genetics: Skills**

tt

t

T

T

t

Tt

TT

Tt

1. Two heterozygous tall plants are crossed.
	1. Punnett Square:
	2. What is the genotypic ratio? 1 TT: 2 Tt: 1 tt
	3. What is the phenotypic ratio? 3 tall: 1 short
	4. If T was incompletely dominant over t, what would the phenotype ratio be? 1 tall: 2 medium: 1 short
2. Huntington’s disease (H) is a dominant autosomal (not sex-linked) disease. A heterozygous man with Huntington’s disease marries a homozygous normal woman. Draw a Punnett Square to show their possible offspring.

hh

h

H

h

h

hh

Hh

Hh

* 1. Punnett Square:
	2. What percentage of their offspring are likely to have Huntington’s Disease? 50%
1. Normal wings (N) is dominant to vestigial wings (n). A male fruit fly with normal wings mates with a female that has vestigial wings. What are the genotypes of the parents if the offspring ALL have normal wings?

Nn

N

N

n

n

Nn

Nn

Nn

* 1. Punnett Square (you may need to try more than one):
	Genotypes of Parents: Female: nn, Male: Nn
1. Colorblindness is a sex-linked recessive trait (XC). A normal male marries a female who is a carrier for colorblindness.

XcY

Y

X

X

Xc

XY

XX

XcX

* 1. Punnett Square:
	2. What percentage of all of their children are expected to be colorblind? 25%
		1. What percentage of the males will be colorblind? 50%
		2. What percentage of the females will be colorblind? 0%
1. What are the possible blood types of the children of a mother with AB blood type and a father with heterozygous B blood type? (Hint: Use IA, IB, i)

IBi

IB

IA

IB

i

IBIB

IA IB

IAi

* 1. Punnett Square:
	2. Phenotypic Ratio for the children: 1 Type A: 1 Type B: 1Type AB: 0 Type O

**DNA Technology: Vocabulary**

1. Separates DNA fragments by moving them through a gel with electricity. Gel electrophoresis
2. Used to cut DNA into small fragments. Restriction enzyme
3. An organism that contains DNA from a different organism – ex. a bacteria can be made to produce human insulin when a human gene is inserted in its plasmid DNA. Transgenic organism
4. An organism whose genes have been changed so it is now resistant to insects, cold, mosaic viruses, rotting, etc. – ex. Flavr Savr tomatoes Genetically modified organism
5. Was developed to determine which genes are found on which chromosomes in humans. Human genome project
6. Used to determine paternity and solve crimes. DNA Fingerprinting
7. Cells that have the potential to become any type of cell stem cell
8. An identical organism is created from the DNA of a parent organism. clone

**DNA Technology: Skills**

DNA fingerprinting uses gel electrophoresis (separation of DNA fragments by moving them through a gel with electricity) to identify criminals.

Who did the crime: suspect 2

Which suspect has the shortest fragments of DNA? Suspect 1 (travels the furthest from the starting point/wells)

**Evolution & Classification: Vocabulary**

**Word bank: sexual, reproductive, single celled, mutations, survival of the fittest, geographic, reproduce, prokaryotes, reproduce**

Theory of Evolution, Natural Selection, and the Formation of New Species: The first living organisms were singled celled bacteria because the early atmosphere did not have oxygen. These bacteria were very simple prokaryotes - i.e. they did not contain a nucleus or any other membrane-bound organelles. They reproduced asexual, which means that reproduction occurred when one bacteria divided into two identical daughter bacteria. There were not male and female bacteria. Therefore, the only variation between individual bacteria was due to mistakes during DNA replication. These mistakes are called mutations. Variation is very important in evolution because natural selection acts on the variation between individuals. The evolution of sexual reproduction resulted in more variation among individuals – due to crossing-over, random assortment of chromosomes, the meeting of a random sperm and egg during fertilization, etc. Natural selection selects for organisms that have the most adaptive traits and therefore can survive and produce more offspring to populate the next generation. This is why natural selection is also called survival of the fittest. New species arise when populations get separated from each other by geographic isolation (ex. a mountain range, a river, an island). In different environments (ex. east of the river vs. west of the river), different traits will be selected for and organisms with these adaptive traits will become more common in the population. Eventually, the two populations will be so different that individuals from each population will no longer be able to mate together and produce viable offspring (or reproduce). At this point, the two populations have achieved reproductive isolation and they are considered two separate species.

Organize these from largest taxon (most inclusive) to smallest (most specific) taxon:
 Taxon Bank: Class, Domain, Family, Genus, Kingdom, Order, Phylum, Species

**LARGEST *Did King Phillp Came Over From Germany Sunday?* SMALLEST**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Domain | Kingdom | Phylum | Class | Order | Family | Genus | Species |

Classification: Linnaeus originally categorized all living things into 2 taxa: Plants and Animals\_\_\_\_\_

Today, there are 3 domains (Archae, Bacteria, Eukarya) and 6 Kingdoms (see table below).

Fill in the Table:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Archaebacteria (extreme environments) | Eubacteria(common) | Protists | Fungi | Plants | Animals |
| Prokaryotic or Eukaryotic? | Prokaryotic | Prokaryotic | Eukaryotic | Eukaryotic | Eukaryotic | Eukaryotic |
| Unicellular or Multicellular? | Unicellular | Unicellular | Unicellular | Multi | Multi | Multi |
| Autotroph or Heterotroph? |  |  |  | Hetero | Auto | Hetero |
| Mainly Sexual or Asexual Reproduction? | Asexual | Asexual | Asexual/Sexual | Sexual | Sexual | Sexual |

1. Amphibians
2. Bacteria
3. Fungi
4. Mammals
5. Plants
6. Protists
7. Viruses

Organism Matching:

1. F Unicellular photosynthetic eukaryotic organisms
2. E Multicellular photosynthetic organisms whose cells have cell walls made of cellulose.
3. C Multicellular heterotrophs (cannot make their own food) whose cells have cell walls made of chitin.
4. A Multicellular heterotrophs that use external fertilization (ex. female frogs laying eggs and male frogs release their sperm over the eggs).
5. D Multicellular heterotrophs that can regulate their body temperature (endothermic), ~~give birth to live offspring~~, produce milk with mammary glands, and have internal fertilization.
6. B Prokaryotic unicellular organisms that sometimes cause diseases; Examples are streptococcus & staphylococcus.
7. G Nonliving; Examples are HIV, influenza, smallpox

Random Reminders:

* Early mammal development: zygote 🡪 embryo 🡪 fetus
* Folds in the stomach lining and small intestine & villi (finger-like projections) in the small intestine increase the surface area to allow greater absorption of nutrients. Animals that breathe or absorb nutrients through their skin tend to have folds in skin to allow for greater surface area and greater absorption.

Genetics & Environment:

1. Sickle cell allele provides humans resistance to malaria which is caused by the protist parasite, *Plasmodium*.
2. Tobacco use can cause cancer.
3. UV Rays can cause skin cancer, but also causes your body to make much-needed vitamin D.
4. Smoking while pregnant can cause problems in the development of the fetus.
5. Diabetes is caused when the body cannot regulate the amount of glucose in the blood.
	1. Glucose enters the blood stream when food is broken down in the digestive system.
	2. Insulin is needed to remove glucose from the blood and transfer it to other body cells that use glucose for energy. The amount of insulin is determined by the endocrine system, the body system that regulates hormones.
6. People with PKU (phenylketonuria) cannot break down the amino acid phenalanine . If this amino acid builds up in the body, it can cause brain damage.
7. Two environmental toxins that affect humans are mercury (found in fish like tuna) and VOCs (found in paint).

Immune System Matching:

1. Active Immunity
2. Antibodies
3. Antigen
4. B-cells
5. Passive Immunity
6. T-cells
7. Vaccines
8. F Destroy infected cells (soldiers)
9. D Produce antibodies and “remember” specific antigens so they can respond more quickly when infected by the same bacteria next time.
10. B Produced by B-cells to prevent bacteria from being able to invade body cells.
11. C A part of an infecting bacterium that is recognized by B-cells as foreign.
12. A When antibodies are produced by the person that has been infected by bacteria
13. E When antibodies are given to a person from a different source (ex. to a fetus from the mother).
14. G Attenuated (heat-killed) bacteria/viruses given to a person to train their immune system

**Evolution & Classification: Diagrams**

Phylogenetic trees / Cladograms:

1. Which 2 species are most closely related? turtle and leopard
2. Which organism was the first to evolve? lancelet
3. Which evolved first in evolutionary history: jaws or hair? jaws
4. Tuna and leopards have what characteristic in common? Vertebral column and jaws



Dichotomous Keys:

1. What is the genus of Bird W? Certhidea
2. What is the genus of Bird X? Camarthynchus
3. What is the genus of Bird Y? Geospiza
4. What is the genus of Bird Z? Platyspiza
5. What two genuses probably have the closest evolutionary relationship?: X and Z



**Behavior & Ecology: Vocabulary**

Classify as “Innate”, “Learned”, or “Social” Behavior:

1. Suckling innate
2. Habituation – Ex. Tapping on a table will initially cause a snail to pull back into its shell. Eventually, if nothing bad happens, the snail will habituate to the tapping and will stay out of its shell. learned
3. Positive phototactic response – Ex. Moths moving towards light innate
4. Bees doing a waggle dance when they find food; Ants leaving trails of pheromones social
5. Territorial behavior – Ex. Male dogs urinating social
6. Male birds dancing to attract females (courtship) social
7. Migration to warmer climates for feeding and reproduction during the winter. innate
8. Estivation – slowing of body processes in hot, dry climates. innate
9. Imprinting – Ex. baby geese attaching to their mother during a critical period. innate
10. Classical Conditioning – Ex. Pavlov’s dogs associating a bell with the arrival of food. learned
11. Hibernation – slowing of body processes in cold climates. innate
12. Fight-or-Flight response innate
13. Mice finding food in a maze learned

**Ecology Vocabulary**

Identify the Type of Symbiotic Relationship: “Commensalism”, “Mutualism”, or “Parasitism”?

B) parasitism

C) commensalism

D) mutualism

Word Bank: abiotic, biotic, carnivores, consumers, decomposers, herbivores, producers

1. Nonliving factors that affect an organism – ex. weather, temperature, rain, soil composition abiotic
2. Living factors that affect an organism – ex. other animals, plants, bacteria biotic
3. Organisms that can make their own food producer
4. Organisms that cannot make their own food consumer
5. Organisms that break down dead organisms and return nutrients to the soil for plants to use. decomposer
6. Animals that eat plants. herbivores
7. Animals that eat other animals. carnivores
8. Put in order from smallest to largest: Community, Ecosystem, Organism, Population: organism – population-community-ecosystem
	1. Which of these includes both biotic and abiotic factors? ecosystem



1. Which would have the greatest impact on this ecosystem: insects
2. List the five producers in the food web:

Blossoms, nuts, bark, oak, leaves

1. The bear is a tertiary consumer.
2. Which population in the food web would have the least amount of available energy? bears
3. Which populations in the food web would have the greatest amount of available energy? plants
4. There are usually no more than a few trophic levels in an ecosystem because energy transfer efficiency is only 10 %.
5. A population will reach carrying capacity when it is limited by food, disease, and predation.
6. Carbon dioxide is a gas emitted when burning fossil fuels.
7. One result of rising CO2 levels is an increase in average temp of Earth
8. Rising temperatures lead to global warming
9. glucose
10. covalent
11. CHON
12. ATP
13. monomer
14. cellular respiration
15. phospholipid
16. organic
17. water
18. atom
19. Hydrogen
20. disaccharide
21. enzyme
22. ADP
23. lipid
24. peptide
25. catalyst
26. pH
27. chromosomes
28. organ
29. vacuole
30. nucleus
31. tissue
32. aerobic
33. mitochondria
34. plasma membrane
35. cell
36. cytoplasm
37. chloroplast
38. meiosis
39. ribosomes
40. homeostasis
41. anaerobic
42. specialization
43. stem cell
44. selectively permeable
45. G1 and G2 phases
46. Endosymbiotic theory
47. codon
48. transcription
49. stop codon
50. translation
51. RNA bases
52. nucleic acid
53. ribose
54. protein
55. DNA
56. double helix
57. gel electrophoresis
58. chromatin
59. fluid mosaic
60. osmosis
61. passive transport
62. diffusion
63. active transport
64. karyotype
65. gamete
66. zygote
67. phenotype
68. sexual
69. interphase
70. pedigree
71. alleles
72. crossing over
73. fertilization
74. homologous
75. punnett squares
76. incomplete
77. nondisjunction
78. IA IA , IA i
79. cytokinesis
80. pea plants
81. Down syndrome
82. Huntingtons
83. sex-linked
84. cystic fibrosis
85. PKU
86. sickle cell anemia
87. Polygenic
88. cladogram
89. fossils
90. natural selection
91. biochemical evidence
92. evolution
93. speciation
94. divergent
95. vestigial
96. embryology
97. bacteria
98. hormones
99. dichotomous
100. taxa
101. genus
102. species
103. Archaebacteria
104. Animalia
105. transport
106. excretion
107. Nutrition
108. virus
109. malaria (plasmodium)
110. pistil
111. monocot
112. seed
113. gymnosperm
114. xylem
115. phloem
116. fruit
117. cuticle
118. dicot
119. stamen
120. roots
121. photosynthesis
122. nonvascular plants
123. guard cells
124. germ layers
125. coelomate
126. vertebrate
127. mammal
128. Porifera
129. arthropods
130. Chordata
131. cnidaria
132. Annelida
133. Amphibia
134. Hermaphrodite
135. respiratory
136. cardiovascular
137. digestive
138. integumentary
139. skeletal
140. diaphragm
141. kidney
142. macrophage
143. T cells
144. B cells
145. Vaccine
146. Active immunity
147. Passive immunity
148. diurnal
149. phototaxis
150. reflex
151. estivation
152. innate
153. hibernation
154. migration
155. imprinting
156. nocturnal
157. conditioning
158. habituation
159. camouflage
160. population
161. predation
162. producer
163. carrying capacity
164. primary consumer
165. parasitism
166. endangered
167. food web
168. DDT
169. decomposers
170. symbiosis
171. 10%
172. exponential
173. nitrogen
174. eutrophication
175. mimicry
176. Invasive species
177. cell-> tissue-> organs-> organ system-> organism
178. Domain-> Kingdom->Phylum-> Class-> Order-> Family-> Genus-> Species
179. O
180. T
181. R
182. B
183. U
184. Q
185. DD
186. N
187. M
188. K
189. A
190. C
191. E
192. H
193. D
194. Y
195. W
196. V
197. Z
198. X
199. I
200. CC
201. S
202. BB
203. AA
204. J
205. L
206. P
207. G
208. F