

Phytoplankton can also be suspended in slow-moving water. Therefore, the water will not be as clear as it is near the source. The water is also warmer. Worms (phylum Annelida) and insects (phylum Arthropoda) can be found burrowing into the mud. The higher order predator vertebrates (phylum Chordata) include waterfowl, frogs, and fishes. These predators must find food in these slow moving, sometimes murky, waters and, unlike the trout in the waters at the source, these vertebrates may not be able to use vision as their primary sense to find food. Instead, they are more likely to use taste or chemical cues to find prey.

Wetlands

Wetlands are environments in which the soil is either permanently or periodically saturated with water. Wetlands are different from lakes because wetlands are shallow bodies of water whereas lakes vary in depth. **Emergent vegetation** consists of wetland plants that are rooted in the soil but have portions of leaves, stems, and flowers extending above the water's surface. There are several types of wetlands including marshes, swamps, bogs, mudflats, and salt marshes (Figure 44.25). The three shared characteristics among these types—what makes them wetlands—are their hydrology, hydrophytic vegetation, and hydric soils.



Figure 44.25 Located in southern Florida, Everglades National Park is vast array of wetland environments, including sawgrass marshes, cypress swamps, and estuarine mangrove forests. Here, a great egret walks among cypress trees. (credit: NPS)

Freshwater marshes and swamps are characterized by slow and steady water flow. Bogs, however, develop in depressions where water flow is low or nonexistent. Bogs usually occur in areas where there is a clay bottom with poor percolation of water. (Percolation is the movement of water through the pores in the soil or rocks.) The water found in a bog is stagnant and oxygen-depleted because the oxygen used during the decomposition of organic matter is not readily replaced. As the oxygen in the water is depleted, decomposition slows. This leads to a buildup of acids and a lower water pH. The lower pH creates challenges for plants because it limits the available nitrogen. As a result, some bog plants (such as sundews, pitcher plants, and Venus flytraps) capture insects in order to extract the nitrogen from their bodies. Bogs have low net primary productivity because the water found in bogs has low levels of nitrogen and oxygen.

44.5 Climate and the Effects of Global Climate Change

By the end of this section, you will be able to do the following:

- Define global climate change
- Summarize the effects of the Industrial Revolution on global atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration
- Describe three natural factors affecting long-term global climate
- List two or more greenhouse gases and describe their role in the greenhouse effect

All biomes are *universally affected* by global conditions, such as climate, that ultimately shape each biome's environment. Scientists who study climate have noted a series of marked changes that have gradually become increasingly evident during the last sixty years. **Global climate change** is the term used to describe altered global weather patterns, especially a worldwide increase in temperature and resulting changes in the climate, due largely to rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide.

Climate and Weather

A common misconception about global climate change is that a specific weather event occurring in a particular region (for example, a very cool week in June in central Indiana) provides evidence of global climate change. However, a cold week in June is a weather-related event and not a climate-related one. These misconceptions often arise because of confusion over the terms *climate* and *weather*.

Climate refers to the long-term, *predictable atmospheric conditions* of a specific area. The climate of a biome is characterized by having consistent seasonal temperature and rainfall ranges. Climate does not address the amount of rain that fell on one particular day in a biome or the colder-than-average temperatures that occurred on one day. In contrast, **weather** refers to the conditions of the atmosphere during a short period of time. Weather forecasts are usually made for 48-hour cycles. Long-range weather forecasts are available but can be unreliable.

To better understand the difference between climate and weather, imagine that you are planning an outdoor event in northern Wisconsin. You would be thinking about *climate* when you plan the event in the summer rather than the winter because you have long-term knowledge that any given Saturday in the months of May to August would be a better choice for an outdoor event in Wisconsin than any given Saturday in January. However, you cannot determine the specific day that the event should be held on because it is difficult to accurately predict the weather on a specific day. Climate can be considered “average” weather that takes place over many years.

Global Climate Change

Climate change can be understood by approaching three areas of study:

- evidence of current and past global climate change
- drivers of global climate change
- documented results of climate change

It is helpful to keep these three different aspects of climate change clearly separated when consuming media reports about global climate change. We should note that it is common for reports and discussions about global climate change to confuse the data showing that Earth's climate is changing with the factors that drive this climate change.

Evidence for Global Climate Change

Since scientists cannot go back in time to directly measure climatic variables, such as average temperature and precipitation, they must instead indirectly measure temperature. To do this, scientists rely on *historical evidence of Earth's past climate*.

Antarctic ice cores are a key example of such evidence for climate change. These ice cores are samples of *polar ice* obtained by means of drills that reach thousands of meters into ice sheets or high mountain glaciers. Viewing the ice cores is like traveling backwards through time; the deeper the sample, the earlier the time period. Trapped within the ice are air bubbles and other biological evidence that can reveal temperature and carbon dioxide data. Antarctic ice cores have been collected and analyzed to indirectly estimate the temperature of the Earth over the past 400,000 years ([Figure 44.26a](#)). The 0 °C on this graph refers to the long-term average. Temperatures that are greater than 0 °C exceed Earth's long-term average temperature. Conversely, temperatures that are less than 0 °C are less than Earth's average temperature. This figure shows that there have been periodic cycles of increasing and decreasing temperature.



Figure 44.26 Scientists drill for ice cores in polar regions. The ice contains air bubbles and biological substances that provide important information for researchers. (credit: a: Helle Astrid Kjær; b: National Ice Core Laboratory, USGS)

Before the late 1800s, the Earth has been as much as 9 °C cooler and about 3 °C warmer. Note that the graph in [Figure 44.27b](#) shows that the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide has also risen and fallen in periodic cycles. Also note the relationship between carbon dioxide concentration and temperature. [Figure 44.27b](#) shows that carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere have historically cycled between 180 and 300 parts per million (ppm) by volume.

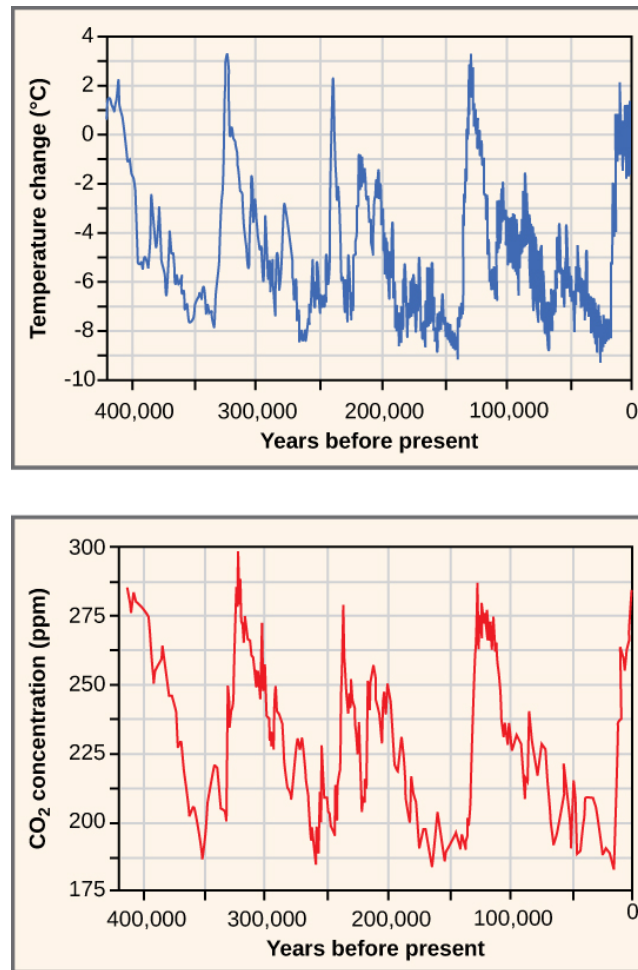


Figure 44.27 Ice at the Russian Vostok station in East Antarctica was laid down over the course of 420,000 years and reached a depth of over 3,000 m. By measuring the amount of CO₂ trapped in the ice, scientists have determined past atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. Temperatures relative to modern day were determined from the amount of *deuterium* (a nonradioactive isotope of hydrogen) present.

[Figure 44.27a](#) does not show the last 2,000 years with enough detail to compare the changes of Earth's temperature during the last 400,000 years with the temperature change that has occurred in the more recent past. Two significant temperature anomalies, or *irregularities*, have occurred in the last 2,000 years. These are the *Medieval Climate Anomaly* (or the Medieval Warm Period) and the *Little Ice Age*. A third temperature anomaly aligns with the *Industrial Era*. The Medieval Climate Anomaly occurred between 900 and 1300 AD. During this time period, many climate scientists think that slightly warmer weather conditions prevailed in many parts of the world; the higher-than-average temperature changes varied between 0.10 °C and 0.20 °C above the norm. Although 0.10 °C does not seem large enough to produce any noticeable change, it did free seas of ice. Because of this warming, the Vikings were able to colonize Greenland.

The **Little Ice Age** was a cold period that occurred between 1550 AD and 1850 AD. During this time, a slight cooling of a little less than 1 °C was observed in North America, Europe, and possibly other areas of the Earth. This 1 °C change in global temperature is a seemingly small deviation in temperature (as was observed during the Medieval Climate Anomaly); however, it also resulted in noticeable climatic changes. Historical accounts reveal a time of exceptionally harsh winters with much snow and frost.

The *Industrial Revolution*, which began around 1750, was characterized by changes in much of human society. Advances in agriculture increased the food supply, which improved the standard of living for people in Europe and the United States. New technologies were invented that provided jobs and cheaper goods. These new technologies were powered using fossil fuels, especially coal. The Industrial Revolution starting in the early nineteenth century ushered in the beginning of the Industrial Era. When a fossil fuel is burned, carbon dioxide is released. With the beginning of the Industrial Era, atmospheric carbon dioxide began to rise ([Figure 44.28](#)).

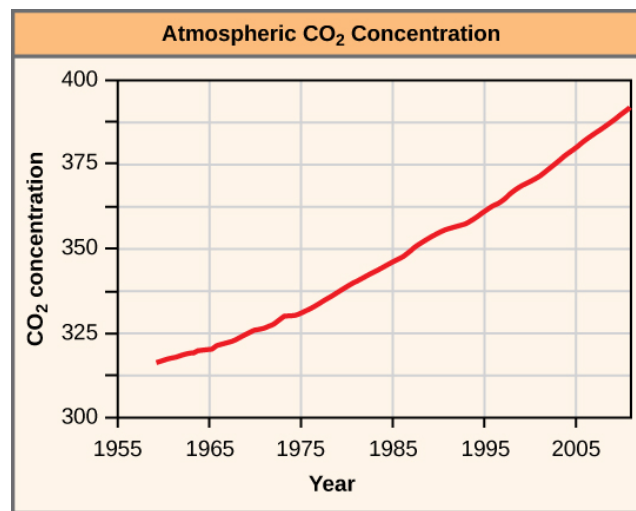


Figure 44.28 The atmospheric concentration of CO₂ has risen steadily since the beginning of industrialization.

Current and Past Drivers of Global Climate Change

Because it is not possible to go back in time to directly observe and measure climate, scientists must use *indirect evidence* to determine the *drivers*, or factors, that may be responsible for climate change. The indirect evidence includes data collected using ice cores, *boreholes* (a narrow shaft bored into the ground), tree rings, glacier lengths, pollen remains, and ocean sediments. The data shows a correlation between the timing of temperature changes and drivers of climate change. Before the Industrial Era (pre-1780), there were three drivers of climate change that were not related to human activity or atmospheric gases. The first of these is the *Milankovitch cycles*. The **Milankovitch cycles** describe the effects of slight changes in the Earth's orbit on Earth's climate. The length of the Milankovitch cycles ranges between 19,000 and 100,000 years. In other words, one could expect to see some predictable changes in the Earth's climate associated with changes in the Earth's orbit at a minimum of every 19,000 years.

The *variation in the sun's intensity* is the second natural factor responsible for climate change. **Solar intensity** is the amount of solar power or energy the sun emits in a given amount of time. There is a direct relationship between solar intensity and temperature. As solar intensity increases (or decreases), the Earth's temperature correspondingly increases (or decreases). Changes in solar intensity have been proposed as one of several possible explanations for the Little Ice Age.

Finally, *volcanic eruptions* are a third natural driver of climate change. Volcanic eruptions can last a few days, but the solids and gases released during an eruption can influence the climate over a period of a few years, causing short-term climate changes. The gases and solids released by volcanic eruptions can include carbon dioxide, water vapor, sulfur dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, hydrogen, and carbon monoxide. Generally, volcanic eruptions cool the climate. This occurred in 1783 when volcanos in Iceland erupted and caused the release of large volumes of sulfuric oxide. This led to **haze-effect cooling**, a global phenomenon that occurs when dust, ash, or other suspended particles block out sunlight and trigger lower global temperatures as a result; haze-effect cooling usually extends for one or more years before dissipating in intensity. In Europe and North America, haze-effect cooling produced some of the lowest average winter temperatures on record in 1783 and 1784.

Greenhouse gases are probably the most significant drivers of the climate. When heat energy from the sun strikes the Earth, gases known as **greenhouse gases** trap the heat in the atmosphere, in a similar manner as do the glass panes of a greenhouse keep heat from escaping. The greenhouse gases that affect Earth include carbon dioxide, methane, water vapor, nitrous oxide, and ozone. Approximately half of the radiation from the sun passes through these gases in the atmosphere and strikes the Earth. This radiation is converted into thermal (infrared) radiation on the Earth's surface, and then a portion of that energy is re-radiated back into the atmosphere. Greenhouse gases, however, reflect much of the thermal energy back to the Earth's surface. The more greenhouse gases there are in the atmosphere, the more thermal energy is reflected back to the Earth's surface, heating it up and the atmosphere immediately above it. Greenhouse gases absorb and emit radiation and are an important factor in the **greenhouse effect**: the warming of Earth due to carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

Direct evidence supports the relationship between atmospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide and temperature: as carbon dioxide rises, global temperature rises. Since 1950, the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide has increased from about 280 ppm to 382 ppm in 2006. In 2011, the atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration was 392 ppm. However, the planet would

not be inhabitable by current life forms if water vapor did not produce its drastic greenhouse warming effect.

Scientists look at patterns in data and try to explain differences or deviations from these patterns. The atmospheric carbon dioxide data reveal a historical pattern of carbon dioxide increasing and decreasing, cycling between a low of 180 ppm and a high of 300 ppm. Scientists have concluded that it took around 50,000 years for the atmospheric carbon dioxide level to increase from its low minimum concentration to its higher maximum concentration. However, beginning only a few centuries ago, atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations have increased beyond the historical maximum of 300 ppm. The current increases in atmospheric carbon dioxide have happened very quickly—in a matter of hundreds of years rather than thousands of years. What is the reason for this difference in the rate of change and the amount of increase in carbon dioxide? A key factor that must be recognized when comparing the historical data and the current data is the presence and industrial activities of modern human society; no other driver of climate change has yielded changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide levels *at this rate or to this magnitude*.

Human activity releases carbon dioxide and methane, two of the most important greenhouse gases, into the atmosphere in several ways. The primary mechanism that releases carbon dioxide is the burning of fossil fuels, such as gasoline, coal, and natural gas (Figure 44.29). Deforestation, cement manufacture, animal agriculture, the clearing of land, and the burning of forests are other human activities that release carbon dioxide. Methane (CH_4) is produced when bacteria break down organic matter under anaerobic conditions. Anaerobic conditions can happen when organic matter is trapped underwater (such as in rice paddies) or in the intestines of herbivores. Methane can also be released from natural gas fields and the decomposition of animal and plant material that occurs in landfills. Another source of methane is the melting of *clathrates*. **Clathrates** are frozen chunks of ice and methane found at the bottom of the ocean. When water warms, these chunks of ice melt and methane is released. As the ocean's water temperature increases, the rate at which clathrates melt is increasing, releasing even more methane. This leads to increased levels of methane in the atmosphere, which further accelerates the rate of global warming. This is an example of the positive feedback loop that is leading to the rapid rate of increase of global temperatures.



Figure 44.29 The burning of fossil fuels in industry and by vehicles releases carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. (credit: "Pöllö"/Wikimedia Commons)

Documented Results of Climate Change: Past and Present

Scientists have geological evidence of the consequences of long-ago climate change. Modern-day phenomena such as retreating glaciers and melting polar ice cause a continual rise in sea level. Meanwhile, changes in climate can negatively affect organisms.

Geological Climate Change

Global warming has been associated with at least one planet-wide extinction event during the geological past. The **Permian extinction** event occurred about 251 million years ago toward the end of the roughly 50-million-year-long geological time span

known as the Permian period. This geologic time period was one of the three warmest periods in Earth's geologic history. Scientists estimate that approximately 70 percent of the terrestrial plant and animal species and 84 percent of marine species became extinct, vanishing forever near the end of the Permian period.

Organisms that had adapted to wet and warm climatic conditions, such as annual rainfall of 300–400 cm (118–157 in) and 20 °C–30 °C (68 °F–86 °F) in the tropical wet forest, may not have been able to survive the Permian climate change.

LINK TO LEARNING

Watch this [NASA video \(http://openstax.org/l/climate_plants\)](http://openstax.org/l/climate_plants) to discover the mixed effects of global warming on plant growth. While scientists found that warmer temperatures in the 1980s and 1990s caused an increase in plant productivity, this advantage has since been counteracted by more frequent droughts.

Present Climate Change

A number of global events have occurred that may be attributed to climate change during our lifetimes. *Glacier National Park* in Montana is undergoing the retreat of many of its glaciers, a phenomenon known as glacier recession. In 1850, the area contained approximately 150 glaciers. By 2010, however, the park contained only about 24 glaciers greater than 25 acres in size. One of these glaciers is the *Grinnell Glacier* ([Figure 44.30](#)) at Mount Gould. Between 1966 and 2005, the size of Grinnell Glacier shrank by 40 percent. Similarly, the mass of the ice sheets in Greenland and the Antarctic is decreasing: Greenland lost 150–250 km³ of ice per year between 2002 and 2006. In addition, the size and thickness of the Arctic sea ice is decreasing.



Figure 44.30 The effect of global warming can be seen in the continuing retreat of Grinnell Glacier. The mean annual temperature in the park has increased 1.33 °C since 1900. The loss of a glacier results in the loss of summer meltwaters, sharply reducing seasonal water supplies and severely affecting local ecosystems. (credit: modification of work by USGS)

This loss of ice is leading to increases in the global sea level. On average, the sea is rising at a rate of 1.8 mm per year. However, between 1993 and 2010 the rate of sea level increase ranged between 2.9 and 3.4 mm per year. A variety of factors affect the volume of water in the ocean, especially the temperature of the water (the density of water is related to its temperature: water volume expands as it warms, thus raising sea levels), as well as the *amount of water* found in rivers, lakes, glaciers, polar ice caps, and sea ice. As glaciers and polar ice caps melt, there is a significant contribution of liquid water that was previously frozen.

In addition to some abiotic conditions changing in response to climate change, many organisms are also being affected by the changes in temperature. Temperature and precipitation play key roles in determining the *geographic distribution* and *phenology* of plants and animals. (**Phenology** is the study of the effects of climatic conditions on the timing of periodic life cycle events, such as flowering in plants or migration in birds.) Researchers have shown that 385 plant species in Great Britain are flowering 4.5 days sooner than was recorded earlier during the previous 40 years. In addition, insect-pollinated species were more likely to flower earlier than wind-pollinated species. The impact of changes in flowering date would be mitigated if the insect pollinators emerged earlier. This mismatched timing of plants and pollinators could result in injurious ecosystem effects because, for continued survival, insect-pollinated plants must flower when their pollinators are present.

KEY TERMS

abiotic nonliving components of the environment

above-ground biomass total mass of aboveground living plants per area

abyssal zone deepest part of the ocean at depths of 4000 m or greater

algal bloom rapid increase of algae in an aquatic system

aphotic zone part of the ocean where no light penetrates

benthic realm (also, benthic zone) part of the ocean that extends along the ocean bottom from the shoreline to the deepest parts of the ocean floor

biogeography study of the geographic distribution of living things and the abiotic factors that affect their distribution

biome ecological community of plants, animals, and other organisms that is adapted to a characteristic set of environmental conditions

biotic living components of the environment

canopy branches and foliage of trees that form a layer of overhead coverage in a forest

channel width of a river or stream from one bank to the other bank

clathrates frozen chunks of ice and methane found at the bottom of the ocean

climate long-term, predictable atmospheric conditions present in a specific area

conspecifics individuals that are members of the same species

coral reef ocean ridges formed by marine invertebrates living in warm, shallow waters within the photic zone

cryptofauna invertebrates found within the calcium carbonate substrate of coral reefs

ecology study of interaction between living things and their environment

ecosystem services human benefits and services provided by natural ecosystems

emergent vegetation wetland plants that are rooted in the soil but have portions of leaves, stems, and flowers extending above the water's surface

endemic species found only in a specific geographic area that is usually restricted in size

estuary biomes where a source of fresh water, such as a river, meets the ocean

fall and spring turnover seasonal process that recycles nutrients and oxygen from the bottom of a freshwater

ecosystem to the top

global climate change altered global weather patterns, including a worldwide increase in temperature, due largely to rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide

greenhouse effect warming of Earth due to carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere

greenhouse gases atmospheric gases such as carbon dioxide and methane that absorb and emit radiation, thus trapping heat in Earth's atmosphere

haze-effect cooling effect of the gases and solids from a volcanic eruption on global climate

heterospecifics individuals that are members of different species

intertidal zone part of the ocean that is closest to land; parts extend above the water at low tide

Milankovitch cycles cyclic changes in the Earth's orbit that may affect climate

neritic zone part of the ocean that extends from low tide to the edge of the continental shelf

net primary productivity measurement of the energy accumulation within an ecosystem, calculated as the total amount of carbon fixed per year minus the amount that is oxidized during cellular respiration

ocean upwelling rising of deep ocean waters that occurs when prevailing winds blow along surface waters near a coastline

oceanic zone part of the ocean that begins offshore where the water measures 200 m deep or deeper

pelagic realm (also, pelagic zone) open ocean waters that are not close to the bottom or near the shore

permafrost perennially frozen portion of the Arctic tundra soil

photic zone portion of the ocean that light can penetrate

planktivore animal species that eats plankton

predator organism that kills and consumes another organism

Sargassum type of free-floating marine seaweed

solar intensity amount of solar power energy the sun emits in a given amount of time

source water point of origin of a river or stream

thermocline layer of water with a temperature that is significantly different from that of the surrounding layers

weather conditions of the atmosphere during a short period of time

CHAPTER SUMMARY

44.1 The Scope of Ecology

Ecology is the study of the interactions of living things with their environment. Ecologists ask questions that comprise four levels of general biological organization—organismal, population, community, and ecosystem. At the organismal

level, ecologists study individual organisms and how they interact with their environments. At the population and community levels, ecologists explore, respectively, how a population of organisms changes over time and the ways in which that population interacts with other species in the

community. Ecologists studying an ecosystem examine the living species (the biotic components) of the ecosystem as well as the nonliving portions (the abiotic components), such as air, water, and soil, of the environment.

44.2 Biogeography

Biogeography is the study of the geographic distribution of living things as well as the abiotic factors that affect their distribution. Endemic species are species that are naturally found only in a specific geographic area. The distribution of living things is influenced by several environmental factors that are, in part, controlled by the latitude or elevation at which a species is found. Ocean upwellings, and spring and fall turnovers are important processes regulating the distribution of nutrients and other abiotic factors important in aquatic ecosystems. Energy sources, temperature, water, inorganic nutrients, and soil are factors limiting the distribution of living things in terrestrial systems. Net primary productivity is a measure of the amount of biomass produced by a biome.

44.3 Terrestrial Biomes

The Earth has terrestrial biomes and aquatic biomes. Aquatic biomes include both freshwater and marine environments. There are eight major terrestrial biomes: tropical wet forests, savannas, subtropical deserts, chaparral, temperate grasslands, temperate forests, boreal forests, and Arctic tundra. The same biome can occur in different geographic locations with similar climates. Temperature and precipitation, and variations in both, are key abiotic factors that shape the composition of animal and plant communities in terrestrial biomes. Some biomes, such as temperate grasslands and temperate forests, have distinct seasons, with cold weather and hot weather alternating throughout the year. In warm, moist biomes, such as the tropical wet forest, net primary productivity is high, as warm temperatures, abundant water, and a year-round growing season fuel plant growth and supply energy for high diversity throughout the food web. Other biomes, such as deserts and tundras, have low primary productivity due to extreme temperatures and a shortage of available water.

44.4 Aquatic Biomes

Aquatic ecosystems include both saltwater and freshwater biomes. The abiotic factors important for the structuring of

aquatic ecosystems can be different than those seen in terrestrial systems. Sunlight is a driving force behind the structure of forests and also is an important factor in bodies of water, especially those that are very deep, because of the role of photosynthesis in sustaining certain organisms.

Density and temperature shape the structure of aquatic systems. Oceans may be thought of as consisting of different zones based on water depth and distance from the shoreline and light penetrance. Different kinds of organisms are adapted to the conditions found in each zone. Coral reefs are unique marine ecosystems that are home to a wide variety of species. Estuaries are found where rivers meet the ocean; their shallow waters provide nourishment and shelter for young crustaceans, mollusks, fishes, and many other species. Freshwater biomes include lakes, ponds, rivers, streams, and wetlands. Bogs are an interesting type of wetland characterized by standing water, lower pH, and a lack of nitrogen.

44.5 Climate and the Effects of Global Climate Change

The Earth has gone through periodic cycles of increases and decreases in temperature. During the past 2,000 years, the Medieval Climate Anomaly was a warmer period, while the Little Ice Age was unusually cool. Both of these irregularities can be explained by natural causes of changes in climate, and, although the temperature changes were small, they had significant effects. Natural drivers of climate change include Milankovitch cycles, changes in solar activity, and volcanic eruptions. None of these factors, however, leads to rapid increases in global temperature or sustained increases in carbon dioxide.

The burning of fossil fuels is an important source of greenhouse gases, which play a major role in the greenhouse effect. Two hundred and fifty million years ago, global warming resulted in the Permian extinction: a large-scale extinction event that is documented in the fossil record. Currently, modern-day climate change is associated with the increased melting of glaciers and polar ice sheets, resulting in a gradual increase in sea level. Plants and animals can also be affected by global climate change when the timing of seasonal events, such as flowering or pollination, is affected by global warming.

VISUAL CONNECTION QUESTIONS

1. [Figure 44.10](#) How might turnover in tropical lakes differ from turnover in lakes that exist in temperate regions? Think of the variation, or lack of variation, in seasonal temperature change.

2. [Figure 44.12](#) Which of the following statements about biomes is false?
 - a. Chaparral is dominated by shrubs.
 - b. Savannas and temperate grasslands are dominated by grasses.
 - c. Boreal forests are dominated by deciduous trees.
 - d. Lichens are common in the arctic tundra.
3. [Figure 44.21](#) In which of the following regions would you expect to find photosynthetic organisms?
 - a. the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, the oceanic zone, and the benthic realm
 - b. the photic zone, the intertidal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
 - c. the photic zone, the abyssal zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone
 - d. the pelagic realm, the aphotic zone, the neritic zone, and the oceanic zone

REVIEW QUESTIONS

4. Which of the following is a biotic factor?
 - a. wind
 - b. disease-causing microbe
 - c. temperature
 - d. soil particle size
5. The study of nutrient cycling through the environment is an example of which of the following?
 - a. organismal ecology
 - b. population ecology
 - c. community ecology
 - d. ecosystem ecology
6. Understory plants in a temperate forest have adaptations to capture limited _____.
 - a. water
 - b. nutrients
 - c. heat
 - d. sunlight
7. An ecologist hiking up a mountain may notice different biomes along the way due to changes in all of the following except:
 - a. elevation
 - b. rainfall
 - c. latitude
 - d. temperature
8. Which of the following biomes is characterized by abundant water resources?
 - a. deserts
 - b. boreal forests
 - c. savannas
 - d. tropical wet forests
9. Which of the following biomes is characterized by short growing seasons?
 - a. deserts
 - b. tropical wet forests
 - c. Arctic tundras
 - d. savannas
10. Where would you expect to find the most photosynthesis in an ocean biome?
 - a. aphotic zone
 - b. abyssal zone
 - c. benthic realm
 - d. intertidal zone
11. A key feature of estuaries is:
 - a. low light conditions and high productivity
 - b. salt water and fresh water
 - c. frequent algal blooms
 - d. little or no vegetation
12. Which of the following is an example of a weather event?
 - a. The hurricane season lasts from June 1 through November 30.
 - b. The amount of atmospheric CO₂ has steadily increased during the last century.
 - c. A windstorm blew down trees in the Boundary Waters Canoe Area in Minnesota on July 4, 1999.
 - d. Deserts are generally dry ecosystems having very little rainfall.
13. Which of the following natural forces is responsible for the release of carbon dioxide and other atmospheric gases?
 - a. the Milankovitch cycles
 - b. volcanoes
 - c. solar intensity
 - d. burning of fossil fuels

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS

14. Ecologists often collaborate with other researchers interested in ecological questions. Describe the levels of ecology that would be easier for collaboration because of the similarities of questions asked. What levels of ecology might be more difficult for collaboration?
15. The population is an important unit in ecology as well as other biological sciences. How is a population defined, and what are the strengths and weaknesses of this definition? Are there some species that at certain times or places are not in populations?
16. Compare and contrast ocean upwelling and spring and fall turnovers.
17. Many endemic species are found in areas that are geographically isolated. Suggest a plausible scientific explanation for why this is so.
18. The extremely low precipitation of subtropical desert biomes might lead one to expect fire to be a major disturbance factor; however, fire is more common in the temperate grassland biome than in the subtropical desert biome. Why is this?
19. In what ways are the subtropical desert and the arctic tundra similar?
20. Scientists have discovered the bodies of humans and other living things buried in bogs for hundreds of years, but not yet decomposed. Suggest a possible biological explanation for why such bodies are so well-preserved.
21. Describe the conditions and challenges facing organisms living in the intertidal zone.
22. Compare and contrast how natural- and human-induced processes have influenced global climate change.
23. Predict possible consequences if carbon emissions from fossil fuels continue to rise.