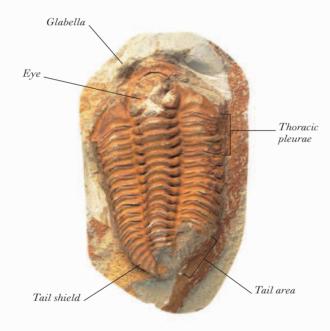
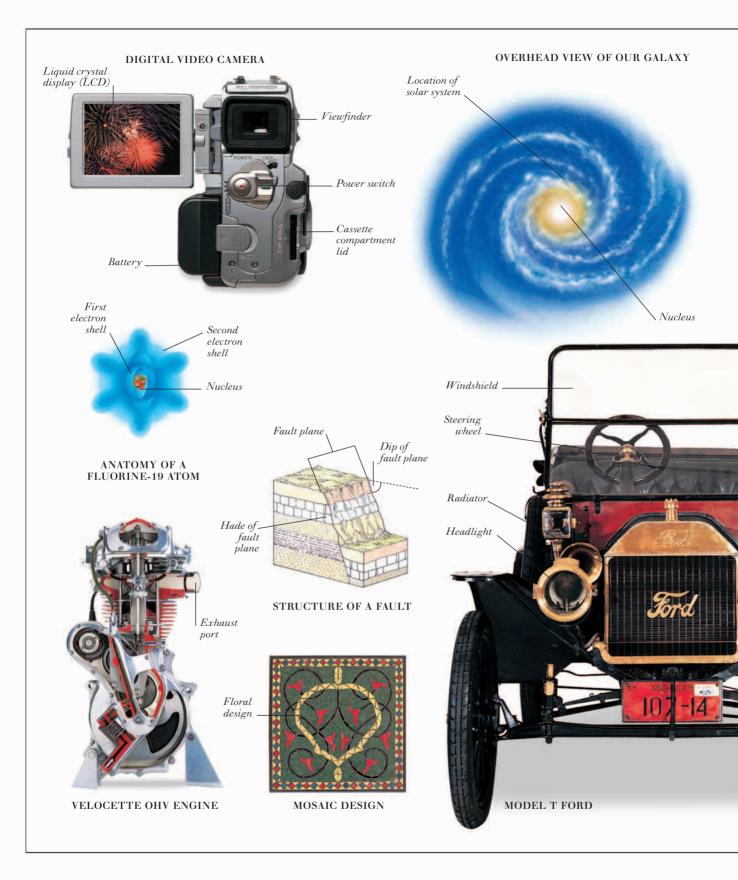




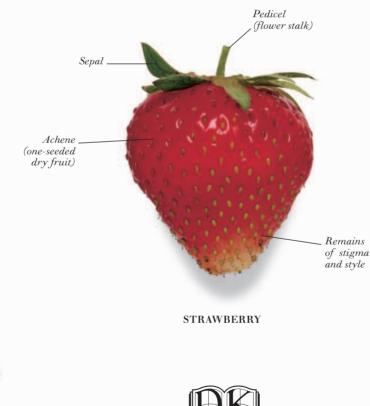
VISUAL dictionary



PREHISTORIC TRILOBITE



VISUAL dictionary







LONDON, NEW YORK, MUNICH, MELBOURNE, AND DELHI

THIS EDITION

DK LONDON | DK DELHI

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EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A SPIDER



FOUNTAIN PEN AND INK



Parallel bands

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SIDE VIEW OF ARV SUPER 2 AIRPLANE

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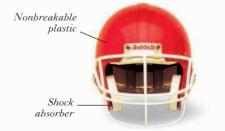
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Heat shield Main landing Third stage motor Delta II launch vehicle second stage MARS PATHFINDER Low pressure gases Central

electrode

BALL CONTAINING HIGH **TEMPERATURE GAS (PLASMA)**



FOOTBALL HELMET

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Introduction

THE VISUAL DICTIONARY is a completely new kind of reference book. It provides a link between pictures and words in a way that no ordinary dictionary ever has. Most dictionaries simply tell you what a word means, but the VISUAL DICTIONARY shows you—through a combination of detailed annotations. explicit photographs, and illustrations. In the VISUAL DICTIONARY, pictures define the annotations around them. You do not read definitions of the annotated words. you see them. The highly accessible format of the VISUAL DICTIONARY, the thoroughness of its annotations, and the range of its subject matter make it a unique and helpful reference tool.

How to use the VISUAL DICTIONARY

You will find the *VISUAL DICTIONARY* simple to use. Instead of being organized alphabetically, it is divided by subject into 14 sections—The UNIVERSE, PREHISTORIC EARTH, PLANTS, ANIMALS, THE HUMAN BODY, etc. Each section begins with a table of contents listing the major entries within that section. For example, The Visual Arts section has entries on *Drawing, Tempera, Fresco, Oils, Watercolor, Pastels, Acrylics, Calligraphy, Printmaking, Mosaic*, and *Sculpture*. Every entry has a short introduction explaining the purpose of the photographs and illustrations, and the significance of the annotations.

If you know what something looks like, but don't know its name, find the term you need by turning to the annotations surrounding the pictures; if you know a word, but don't know what it refers to, use the comprehensive index to direct you to the appropriate page.

Suppose that you want to know what the bone at the end of your little finger is called. With a standard dictionary, you wouldn't know where to begin. But with the *VISUAL DICTIONARY* you simply turn to the entry called *Hands*—within THE HUMAN BODY section—where you will find four fully annotated, color photographs showing the skin, muscles, and bones of the human hand. In this entry you will quickly find that the bone you are searching for is called the distal phalanx, and for good measure you will discover that it is attached to the middle phalanx by the distal interphalangeal joint.

Perhaps you want to know what a catalytic converter looks like. If you look up "catalytic converter" in an ordinary dictionary, you will be told what it is and possibly what it does—but you will not be able to tell what shape it is or what it is made of. However, if you look up "catalytic converter" in the index of the *VISUAL DICTIONARY*, you will be directed to the *Modern engines* entry on page 344—where the introduction gives you basic information about what a catalytic converter is—and to page 350—where there is a spectacular exploded-view photograph of the mechanics of a Renault Clio. From these pages you will find out not only what a catalytic converter looks like, but also that it is attached at one end to an exhaust pipe and at the other to a muffler.

Whatever it is that you want to find a name for, or whatever name you want to find a picture for, you will find it quickly and easily in the *VISUAL DICTIONARY*. Perhaps you need to know where the vamp on a shoe is; or how to tell obovate and lanceolate leaves apart; or what a spiral galaxy looks like; or whether birds have nostrils. With the *VISUAL DICTIONARY* at hand, the answers to each of these questions, and thousands more, are readily available.

The *VISUAL DICTIONARY* does not just tell you what the names of the different parts of an object are. The photographs, illustrations, and annotations are all specially arranged to help you understand which parts relate to one another and how objects function.

With the *VISUAL DICTIONARY* you can find in seconds the words or pictures that you are looking for; or you can simply browse through the pages of the book for your own pleasure. The *VISUAL DICTIONARY* is not intended to replace a standard dictionary or conventional encyclopedia, but is instead a stimulating and valuable companion to ordinary reference volumes. Giving you instant access to the language that is used by astronomers and architects, musicians and mechanics, scientists and sportspeople, it is the ideal reference book for specialists and generalists of all ages.

Sections of the VISUAL DICTIONARY

The 14 sections of the *VISUAL DICTIONARY* contain a total of more than 30,000 terms, encompassing a wide range of topics:

• In the first section, THE UNIVERSE, spectacular photographs and illustrations are used to show the names of the stars and planets and to explain the structure of solar systems, galaxies, nebulae, comets, and black holes.

• PREHISTORIC EARTH tells the story in annotations of how our own planet has evolved since its formation. It includes examples of prehistoric flora and fauna, and fascinating dinosaur models—some with parts of the body stripped away to show anatomical sections.

•PLANTS covers a huge range of species from the familiar to the exotic. In addition to the color photographs of plants included in this section, there is a series of micrographic photographs illustrating plant details—such as pollen grains, spores, and cross-sections of stems and roots—in close-up.

•In the ANIMALS section, skeletons, anatomical diagrams, and different parts of animals' bodies have been meticulously annotated. This section provides a comprehensive guide to the vocabulary of zoological classification and animal physiology.

• The structure of the human body, its parts, and its systems are presented in THE HUMAN BODY. The section includes lifelike, three-dimensional models and the latest false-color images. Clear and authoritative annotations indicate the correct anatomical terms.

•GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY, AND METEOROLOGY describes the structure of the Earth—from the inner core to the exosphere—and the physical phenomena—such as volcanoes, rivers, glaciers, and climate—that shape its surface. • PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY is a visual journey through the fundamental principles underlying the physical universe, and provides the essential vocabulary of these sciences.

•In RAIL AND ROAD, a wide range of trains, trams and buses, cars, bicycles, and motorcycles are described. Exploded-view photographs show mechanical details with striking clarity.

•SEA AND AIR gives the names for hundreds of parts of ships and airplanes. The section includes civil and fighting craft, both historical and modern.

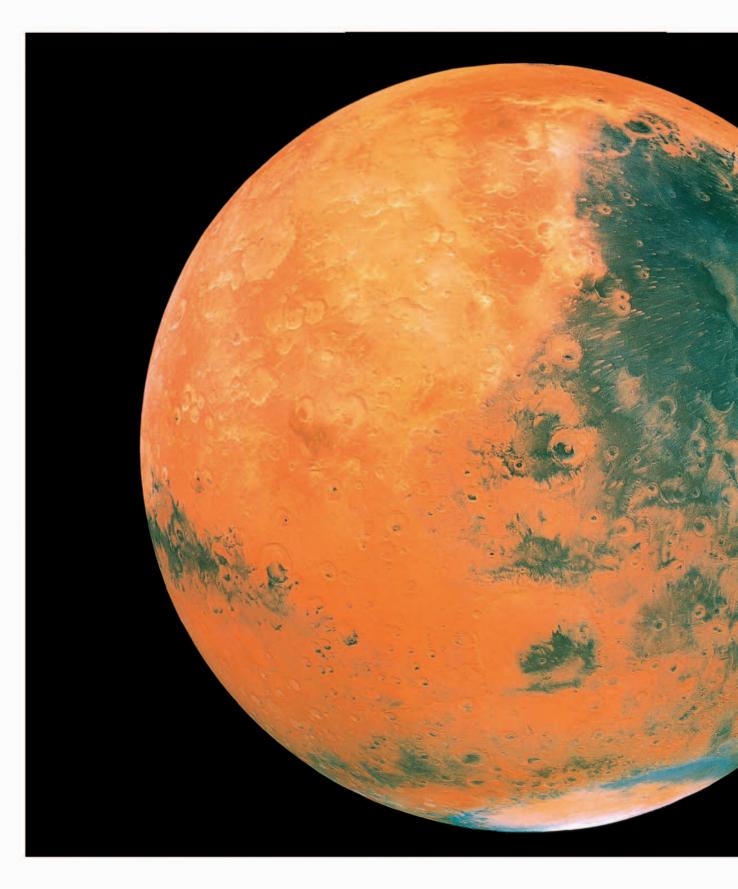
• THE VISUAL ARTS shows the equipment and materials used by painters, sculptors, printers, and other artists. Well-known compositions have been chosen to illustrate specific artistic techniques and effects.

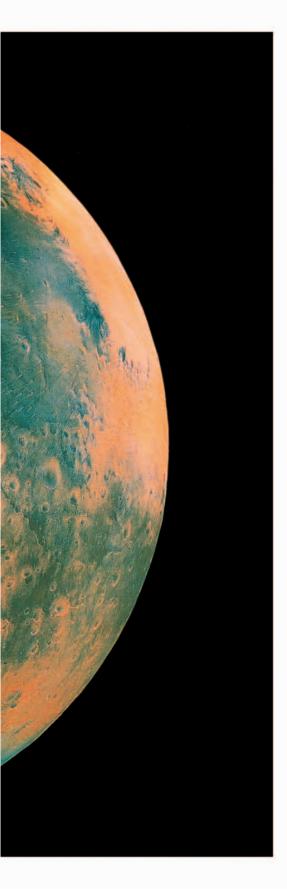
•ARCHITECTURE includes photographs of exemplary architectural models and illustrates dozens of additional features such as columns, domes, and arches.

• MUSIC provides a visual introduction to the special language of music and musical instruments. It includes clearly annotated photographs of each of the major groups of traditional instruments—brass, woodwind, strings, and percussion—together with modern electronic instruments.

• The SPORTS section is a guide to the playing areas, formations, equipment, and techniques needed for many of today's most popular sports.

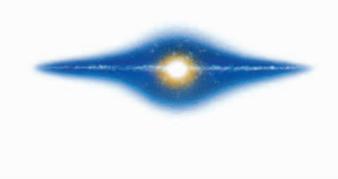
• In THE MODERN WORLD, items that are a familiar part of our daily lives are taken apart to reveal their inner workings and give access to the language used by their manufacturers. It also includes systems and concepts, such as the internet, that increasingly influence our 21st century world.





$T_{HE} \ U_{NIVERSE}$

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Asteroids, Comets, and Meteoroids



Anatomy of the universe

THE UNIVERSE CONTAINS EVERYTHING that exists, from the tiniest subatomic particles to galactic superclusters (the largest structures known). No one knows how big the universe is, but astronomers estimate that it contains at least 125 billion galaxies, each comprising an average of 100 billion stars. The most widely accepted theory about the origin of the universe is the Big Bang theory, which states that the universe came into being in a huge explosion—the Big Bang—that took place between 10 and 20 billion years ago. The universe initially consisted of a very hot, dense fireball of expanding, cooling gas. After about one million years, the gas began to condense into localized clumps called protogalaxies. During the next five billion years, the protogalaxies continued condensing, forming galaxies in which stars were being born. Today, billions of years later, the universe as a whole is still expanding, although there are localized areas in which objects are held together by gravity; for example, many galaxies are found in clusters. The Big Bang theory is supported by the discovery of faint, cool background radiation coming evenly from all directions. This radiation is believed to be the remnant of the radiation produced by the Big Bang. Small "ripples" in the temperature of the cosmic background radiation are thought to be evidence of slight fluctuations in the density of the early universe, which resulted in the formation of galaxies. Astronomers do not yet know if the universe is "closed," which means it will eventually stop expanding and begin to contract, or if it is "open," which means it will continue expanding forever.

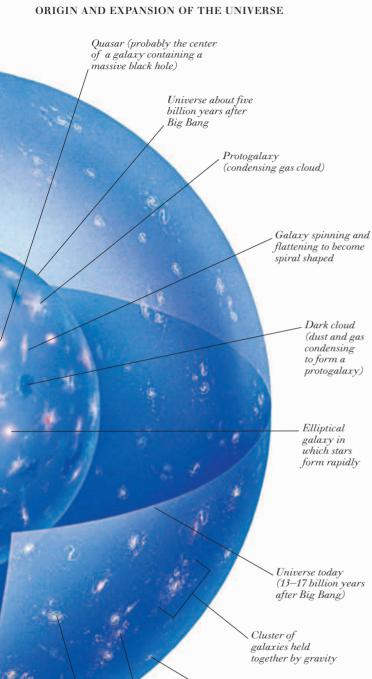
FALSE-COLOR MICROWAVE MAP OF COSMIC BACKGROUND RADIATION

Pink indicates "warm ripples" in background radiation Pale blue indicates "cool ripples" in background radiation

Deep blue indicates background radiation corresponding to -454°F (-270°C); (remnant of the Big Bang) Fireball of rapidly expanding, extremely hot gas lasting about one million years

Low-energy microwave radiation corresponding to -454°F (-270°C)

Red and pink band indicates radiation from our galaxy High-energy gamma radiation corresponding to 5,400°F (3,000°C)



Elliptical galaxy containing old stars and little gas and dust

Irregular galaxy

Spiral galaxy containing gas, dust, and young stars

OBJECTS IN THE UNIVERSE



CLUSTER OF GALAXIES IN VIRGO



NGC 4406 (ELLIPTICAL GALAXY)



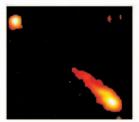
NGC 6822 (IRREGULAR GALAXY)



THE JEWEL BOX (STAR CLUSTER)



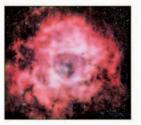
EARTH



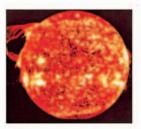
FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF 3C273 (QUASAR)



NGC 5236 (BARRED SPIRAL GALAXY)



THE ROSETTE NEBULA (EMISSION NEBULA)



THE SUN (MAIN SEQUENCE STAR)



THE MOON

Galaxies



SOMBRERO, A SPIRAL GALAXY

which have arms spiraling outward from a central bulge (those whose arms spiral from a bar-shaped bulge are called spirals); and irregular, which have no obvious shape. Sometimes, the shape of a galaxy is distorted by a collision with another galaxy. Quasars (quasistellar objects) are thought to be galactic nuclei but are so far away that their exact nature is still uncertain. They are compact, highly luminous objects in the outer reaches of the known universe: while the farthest known "ordinary" galaxies are about 12 billion light-years away, the farthest known quasar is about 13 billion lightyears away. Active galaxies, such as Seyfert galaxies and radio galaxies, emit intense radiation. In a Seyfert galaxy, this radiation comes from the galactic nucleus; in a radio galaxy, it also comes from huge lobes on either side of the galaxy. The radiation from active galaxies and guasars is thought to be caused by material falling into central black holes (see pp. 28-29).

A GALAXY IS A HUGE MASS OF STARS, nebulae,

galaxies contain about 100,000 stars, while

classified according to their shape: elliptical,

and interstellar material. The smallest

the largest contain up to 3 trillion stars.

There are three main types of galaxy,

which are oval shaped; spiral,

OPTICAL IMAGE OF NGC 4486 (ELLIPTICAL GALAXY)



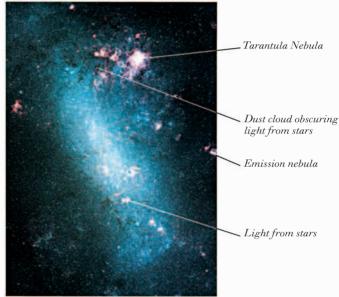
Globular cluster containing very old red giants

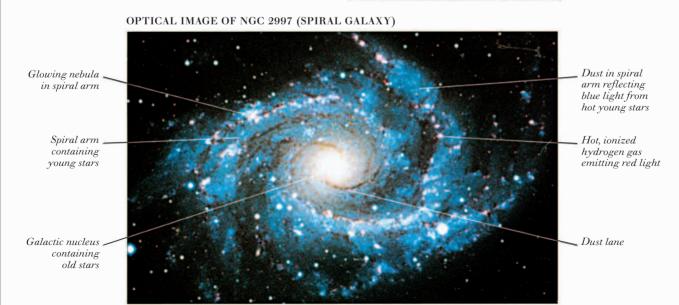
Central region containing old red giants

Less densely populated region

Neighbouring galaxy







12

OPTICAL IMAGE OF CENTAURUS A (RADIO GALAXY)

Dust lane crossing elliptical galaxy

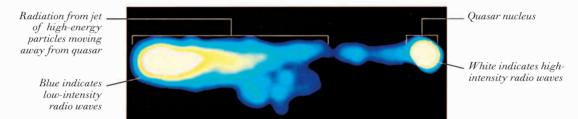
Galactic nucleus containing powerful source of radiation

> Light from_ old stars

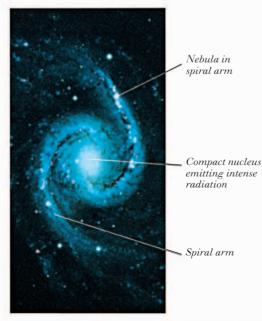


FALSE-COLOR RADIO IMAGE OF CENTAURUS A Red indicates high-intensity radio waves Radio Blue indicates lobe low-intensity radio waves Radiation from galactic nucleus Outline of optical image of Centaurus A Radio lobe Yellow indicates medium-intensity radio waves

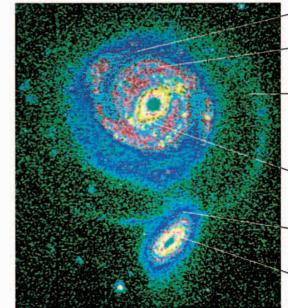
FALSE-COLOR RADIO IMAGE OF 3C 273 (QUASAR)



OPTICAL IMAGE OF NGC 1566 (SEYFERT GALAXY)



FALSE-COLOR OPTICAL IMAGE OF NGC 5754 (TWO COLLIDING GALAXIES)



Blue indicates lowintensity radiation

Red indicates medium-intensity radiation

Spiral arm distorted by gravitational influence of smaller galaxy

Large spiral galaxy

Smaller galaxy colliding with large galaxy

Yellow indicates high-intensity radiation

The Milky Way

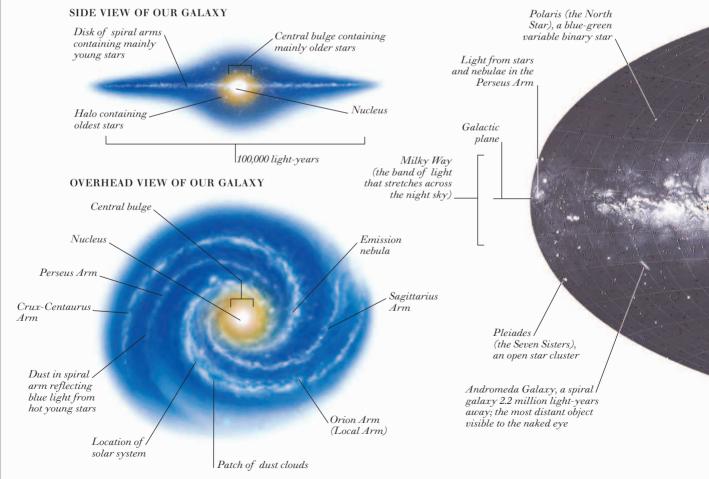


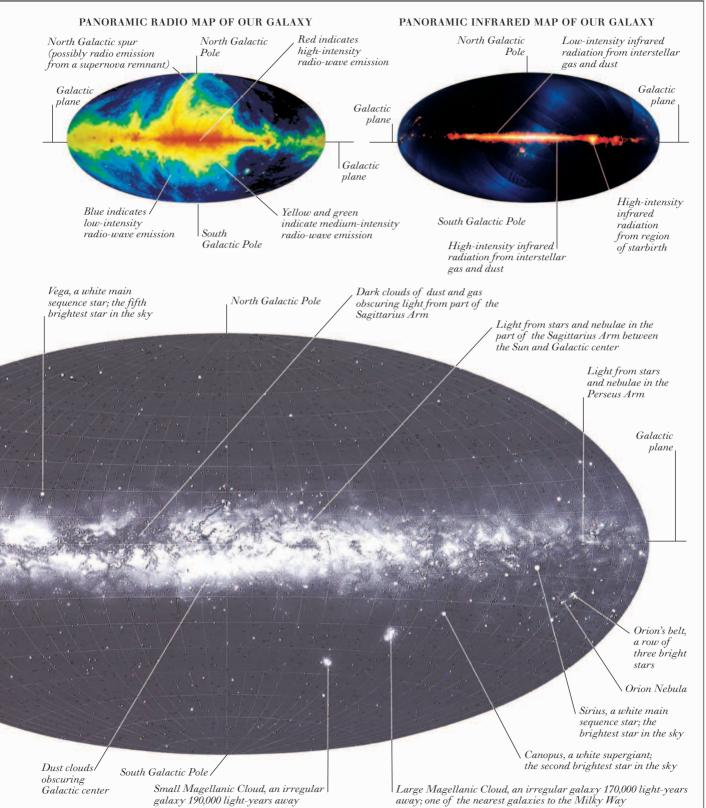
VIEW TOWARD GALACTIC CENTER THE MILKY WAY IS THE NAME GIVEN TO THE FAINT BAND OF LIGHT that stretches across the night sky. This light comes from stars and nebulae in our galaxy, known as the Milky Way Galaxy or simply as "the Galaxy." The Galaxy is believed to be a barred spiral, with a dense central bar of stars encircled by four arms spiraling outward and surrounded by a less dense halo. We cannot see the spiral shape because the solar system is in one of the spiral arms, the Orion Arm (also called the Local Arm). From our position, the center of the Galaxy is completely obscured by dust clouds; as a result, optical maps give only a limited view of the Galaxy. However, a more complete picture can be

obtained by studying radio, infrared, and other radiation. The central part of the Galaxy is relatively small and dense and contains mainly older red and yellow stars. The halo is a less dense region in which the oldest stars are situated; some of these stars are as old as the Galaxy itself (possibly 13 billion years). The spiral arms contain main sequence stars and hot, young, blue stars, as well as nebulae (clouds of dust and gas inside which stars are born). The Galaxy is vast, about 100,000 light-years across (a light-year is about 5,870 billion miles/9,460 billion km); in comparison, the solar system seems small, at about 12 light-hours across (about 8 billion miles/13 billion km). The entire Galaxy is rotating in space, although the inner stars travel faster than those farther out. The Sun, which is

about two-thirds out from the center, completes one lap of the Galaxy about every 220 million years.







Nebulae and star clusters



HODGE 11, A GLOBULAR CLUSTER A NEBULA IS A CLOUD OF DUST AND GAS inside a galaxy. Nebulae become visible if the gas glows, or if the cloud reflects starlight or obscures light from more distant objects. Emission nebulae shine because their gas emits light when it is stimulated by radiation from hot young stars. Reflection nebulae shine because their dust reflects light from stars in or around the nebula. Dark nebulae appear as silhouettes because they block out light from shining nebulae or stars behind them. Two types of nebula are associated with dying stars: planetary nebulae and supernova remnants. Both consist of expanding shells of gas that were once the outer layers of a star. A planetary nebula is a gas shell drifting away

from a dying stellar core. A supernova

remnant is a gas shell moving away from a stellar core at great speed following a violent explosion called a supernova (see pp. 26-27). Stars are often found in groups known as clusters. Open clusters are loose groups of a few thousand young stars that were born from the same cloud and are drifting apart. Globular clusters are densely packed, roughly spherical groups of hundreds of thousands of older stars.

PLEIADES (OPEN STAR CLUSTER) WITH A REFLECTION NEBULA

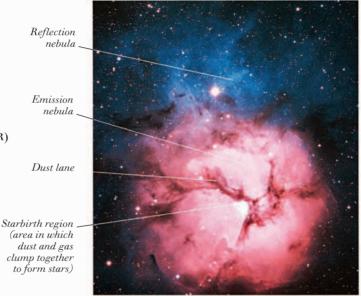
Wisps of dust and hydrogen gas. The cluster is passing through a region of interstellar material

Young star in an open cluster of more than 1,000 stars

Reflection nebula

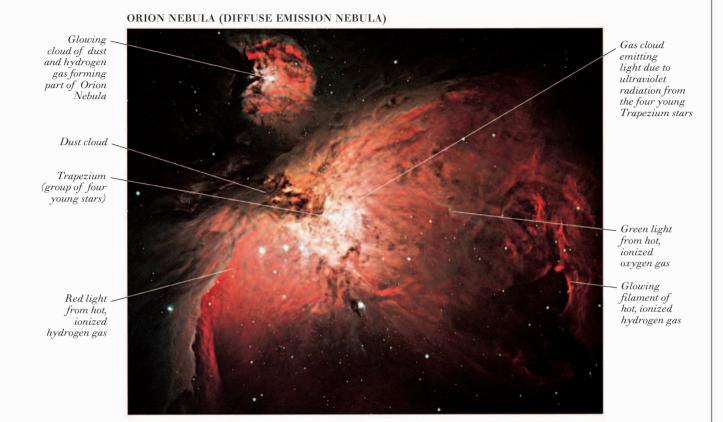


TRIFID NEBULA (EMISSION NEBULA)



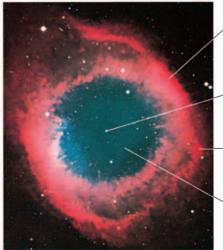


HORSEHEAD NEBULA (DARK NEBULA)



VELA SUPERNOVA REMNANT

HELIX NEBULA (PLANETARY NEBULA)



, Planetary nebula (gas shell expanding outward from dying stellar core)

. Core remnant with surface temperature of about 180,000°F (100,000°C)

Red light from hot, ionized hydrogen gas

 Blue-green light from hot, ionized oxygen and nitrogen gases



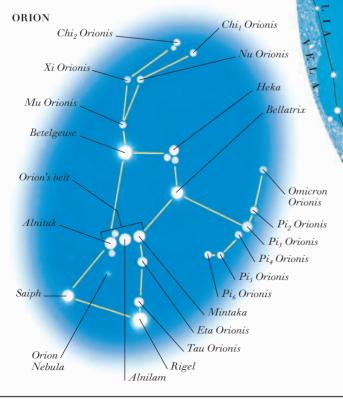
Supernova remnant (gas shell consisting of outer layers of star thrown off in supernova explosion)

Hydrogen gas emitting red light due to being heated by supernova explosion

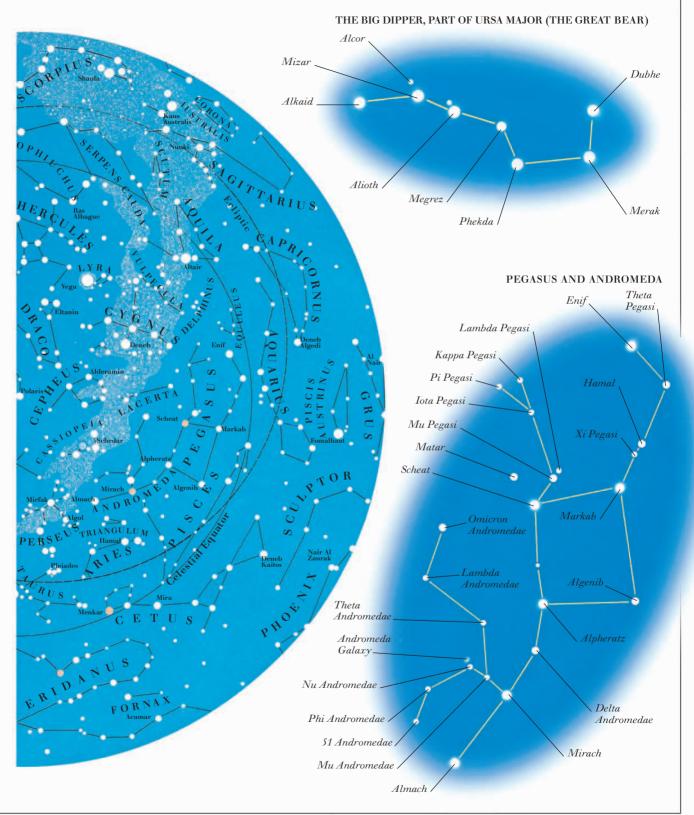
Glowing filament of hot, ionized hydrogen gas

Stars of northern skies

WHEN YOU LOOK AT THE NORTHERN SKY, you look away from the densely populated Galactic center, so the northern sky generally appears less bright than the southern sky (see pp. 20-21). Among the best-known sights in the northern sky are the constellations Ursa Major (the Great Bear) and Orion. Some ancient civilizations believed that the stars were fixed to a celestial sphere surrounding the Earth, and modern maps of the sky are based on a similar idea. The North and South Poles of this imaginary celestial sphere are directly above the North and South Poles of the Earth, at the points where the Earth's axis of rotation intersects the sphere. The celestial North Pole is at the center of the map shown here, and Polaris (the North Star) lies very close to it. The celestial equator marks a projection of the Earth's equator on the sphere. The ecliptic marks the path of the Sun across the sky as the Earth orbits the Sun. The Moon and planets move against the background of the stars because the stars are much more distant: the nearest star outside the solar system (Proxima Centauri) is more than 50,000 times farther away than the planet Jupiter.



VISIBLE STARS IN THE NORTHERN SKY

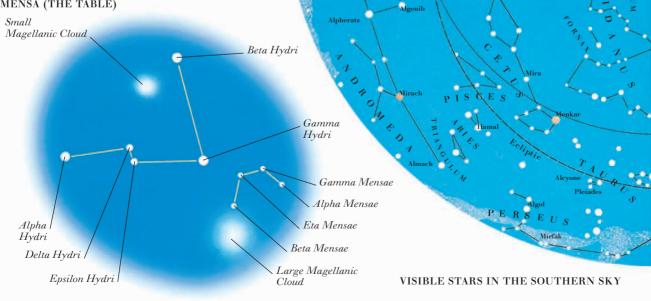


Stars of southern skies

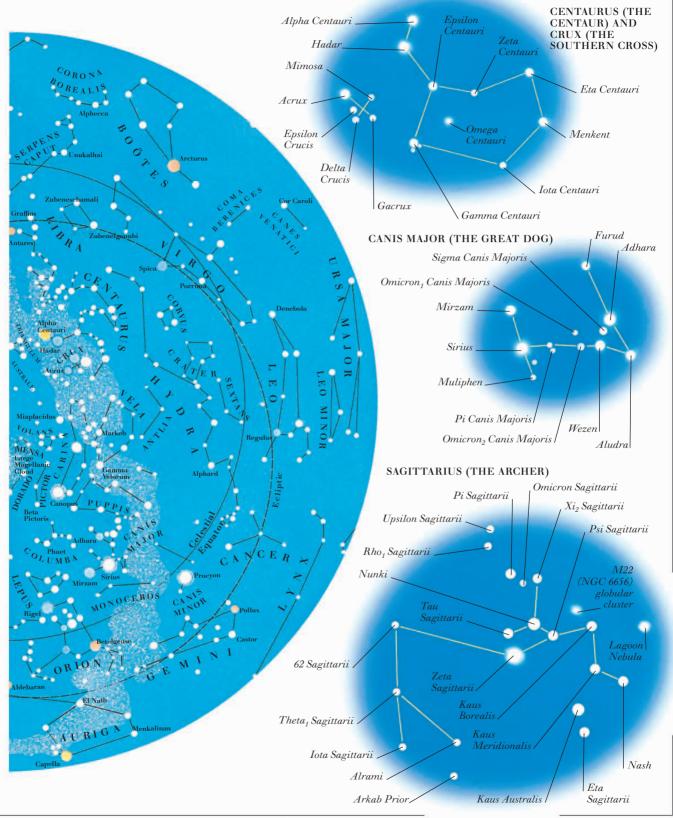
HERCU

WHEN YOU LOOK AT THE SOUTHERN SKY, you look toward the Galactic center, which has a huge population of stars. As a result, the Milky Way appears brighter in the southern sky than in the northern sky (see pp. 18-19). The southern sky is rich in nebulae and star clusters. It contains the Large and Small Magellanic Clouds, which are two of the nearest galaxies to our own. Stars make fixed patterns in the sky called constellations. However, the constellations are only apparent groupings of stars, since the distances to the stars in a constellation may vary enormously. The shapes of constellations may change over many thousands of years due to the relative motions of stars. The movement of the constellations across the sky is due to the Earth's motion in space. The daily rotation of the Earth causes the constellations to move across the sky from east to west, and the orbit of the Earth around the Sun causes different areas of sky to be visible in different seasons. The visibility of areas of sky also depends on the location of the observer. For instance, stars near the celestial equator may be seen from either hemisphere at some time during the year, whereas stars close to the celestial poles (the celestial South Pole is at the center of the map shown here) can never be seen from the opposite hemisphere.

HYDRUS (THE WATER SNAKE) AND MENSA (THE TABLE)



STARS OF SOUTHERN SKIES



THE UNIVERSE

Stars



OPEN STAR CLUSTER AND DUST CLOUD

STARS ARE BODIES of hot, glowing gas that are born in nebulae (see pp. 24-27). They vary enormously in size, mass, and temperature: diameters range from about 450 times smaller to over 1,000 times bigger than that of the Sun; masses range from about a twentieth to over 50 solar masses;

and surface temperatures range from about 5,500°F (3,000°C) to over 90,000°F (50,000°C). The color of a star is determined by its temperature: the hottest stars are blue and the coolest are red.

The Sun, with a surface temperature of 10,000°F (5,500°C), is

between these extremes and appears yellow. The energy emitted by a shining star is usually produced by nuclear fusion in the star's core. The brightness of a star is measured in magnitudes—the brighter the star, the lower its magnitude. There are two types of magnitude: apparent magnitude, which is the brightness seen from Earth, and absolute magnitude, which is the brightness that would be seen from a standard distance of 10 parsecs (32.6 light-years). The light emitted by a star may be split to form a spectrum containing a series of dark lines (absorption lines). The patterns of lines indicate the presence of particular chemical elements, enabling astronomers to deduce the composition of the star's atmosphere. The magnitude and spectral type (color) of stars may be plotted on a graph called a Hertzsprung-Russell diagram, which shows that stars tend to fall into several well-defined groups. The principal groups are main sequence stars (those which are fusing hydrogen to form helium), giants, supergiants, and white dwarfs.

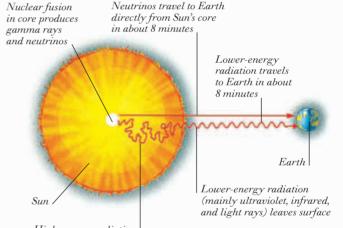
STAR SIZES

Red giant from 10 to 100 million miles (15 to 150 million km) wide

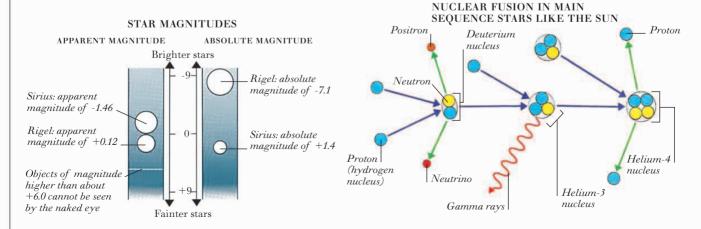
> The Sun (main sequence star; diameter 870,000 miles/1.4 million km)

> > White dwarf (diameter of 2,000 to 30,000 miles/3,000 to 50,000 km)

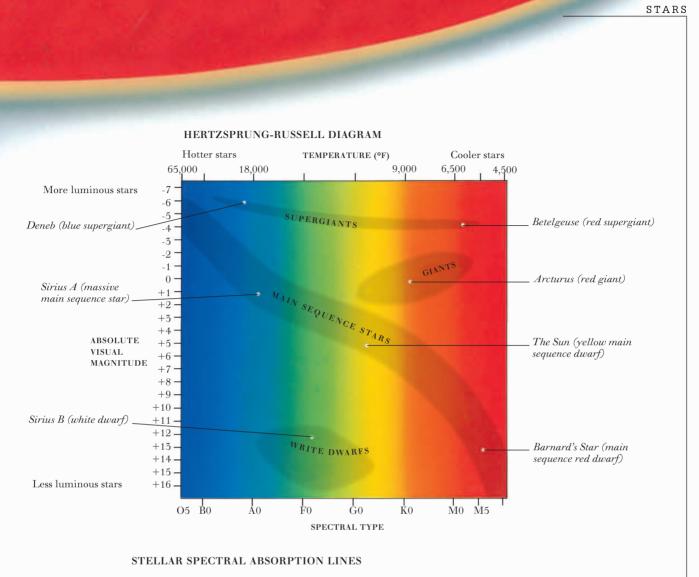
ENERGY EMISSION FROM THE SUN

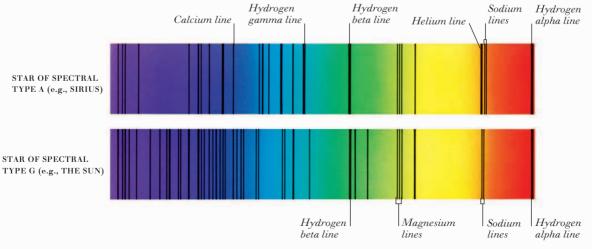


High-energy radiation (gamma rays) loses energy while traveling to surface over 2 million years



22





Small stars



BEGION OF STAR FORMATION IN OBION

SMALL STARS HAVE A MASS of up to about one and a half times that of the Sun. They begin to form when a region of higher density in a nebula condenses into a huge globule of gas and dust that contracts under its own gravity. Within a globule, regions of condensing matter heat up and begin to glow, forming protostars. If a protostar contains enough matter, the central temperature reaches about 27 million °F (8 million °C). At this temperature, nuclear reactions in which hydrogen fuses to form helium can start. This process releases energy, which prevents the star from contracting more and also causes it to shine; it is now a main sequence star. A star of about one solar mass remains

on the main sequence for about 10 billion years, until much of the hydrogen in the star's core has been converted into helium. The helium core then contracts. and nuclear reactions continue in a shell around the core. The core becomes hot enough for helium to fuse to form carbon, while the outer layers of the star expand and cool. The expanding star is known as a red giant. When the helium in the core runs out, the outer layers of the star may be blown away as an expanding gas shell called a planetary nebula. The remaining core (about 80 percent of the original star) is now in its final stages. It becomes a white dwarf star that gradually cools and dims. When it finally stops shining altogether, the dead star will become a black dwarf.

STRUCTURE OF A MAIN SEQUENCE STAR

Core containing hydrogen fusing to form helium Radiative 7000 Convective 70*ne*

Surface temperature $10,000^{\circ}F(5,500^{\circ}C)$

Core: 27 million °F $(15 million \circ C)$

STRUCTURE OF A NEBULA

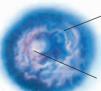
Young main sequence star

Dense region of dust and gas (mainly hydrogen) condensing under gravity to form globules

Hot, ionized hydrogen gas emitting red light due to being stimulated by radiation from hot young stars

Dark globule of dust and gas (mainly hydrogen) contracting to form protostars

LIFE OF A SMALL STAR OF ABOUT ONE SOLAR MASS



NEBULA

Cool cloud of gas (mainly hydrogen) and dust

Dense globule condensing to form protostars

Glowing ball of gas hydrogen)

(mainly

PROTOSTAR Duration: 50 million years About 1.4 million km

Natal cocoon

(shell of dust

blown away by

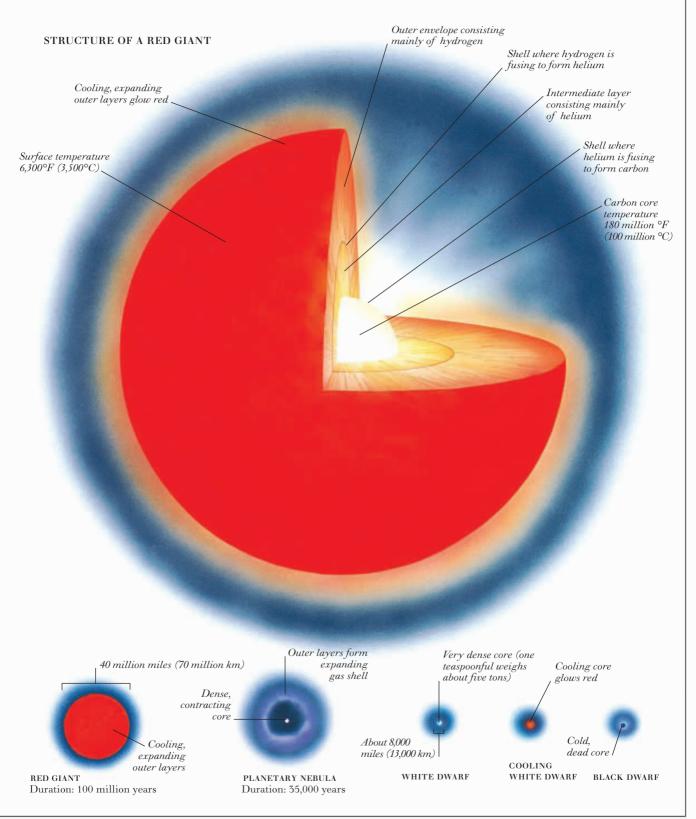
radiation from

protostar)



Star producing energy by nuclear fusion in core

MAIN SEQUENCE STAR Duration: 10 billion years



Massive stars

MASSIVE STARS HAVE A MASS AT LEAST THREE TIMES that of the Sun, and some stars are as massive as about 50 Suns. A massive star evolves in a similar way to a small star until it reaches the main sequence stage (see pp. 24-25). During its life as a main sequence star, it shines steadily until the hydrogen in its core has fused to form helium. This process takes billions of years in a small star, but only millions of years in a massive star. A massive star then becomes a red supergiant, which initially consists of a helium core surrounded by outer layers of cooling, expanding gas. Over the next few million years, a series of nuclear reactions form different elements in shells around an iron core. The core eventually collapses in less than a second, causing a massive explosion called a supernova, in which a shock wave blows

away the outer layers of the star. Supernovae shine brighter than an entire galaxy for a short time. Sometimes, the core survives the supernova explosion. If the surviving core is between about one and a half and three solar masses, it contracts to become a tiny, dense neutron star. If the core is greater than three solar masses. it contracts to become a black hole

> Surface temperature 5,500°F (3,000°C)

(see pp. 28-29).

Cooling, expanding outer layers glow red .

Core of mainly iron at 5.4-9, billion °F (3-5 billion °C)

LIFE OF A MASSIVE STAR OF **ABOUT 10 SOLAR MASSES**



NEBULA

Dense globule condensing to form protostars

Cool cloud of gas (mainly hydrogen) and dust

SUPERNOVA



TABANTULA NEBULA BEFORE SUPERNOVA

STRUCTURE OF A RED SUPERGIANT

Outer envelope consisting mainly of hydrogen

> Layer consisting mainly of helium

> > Layer consisting mainly of carbon

> > > Layer consisting mainly of oxygen

Layer consisting mainly of silicon

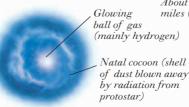
> Shell of hydrogen fusing to form helium

Shell of helium fusing to form carbon

Shell of carbon fusing to form oxygen

Shell of oxygen fusing to form silicon

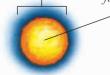
Shell of silicon fusing to form iron core



PROTOSTAR Duration: a few hundred thousand years

About 2 million miles (3 million km) Glowing ball of gas (mainly hydrogen)

Star producing energy by nuclear fusion in , core



MAIN SEQUENCE STAR Duration: 10 million years

26

MASSIVE STARS



TARANTULA NEBULA SHOWING SUPERNOVA IN 1987

Chemical elements heavier than iron are produced in the explosion and scattered into space -

FEATURES OF A SUPERNOVA

Ejecta (outer layers of star thrown off during explosion) travels at 6,000 miles/sec (10,000 km/sec)

Shock wave travels outward from core at 20,000 miles/sec (30,000 km/sec)

> Reverse shock wave moves inward and heats ejecta, causing it to shine

Contracting core consisting mainly of neutrons remains after explosion.

Light energy

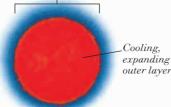
Central temperature: 18 billion °F (10 billion $^{\circ}C$)

of a billion Suns emitted during explosion .

6 miles (4 km) Core mass of less than three solar masses

Extremely dense core (one teaspoonful weighs about a *billion tons*)

60 million miles (100 million km)



RED SUPERGIANT Duration: 4 million years

Outer layers of star blown off in explosion



SUPERNOVA Duration of visibility: 1-2 years

Contracting stellar core may remain after supernova

Core of mass greater than three solar masses continues contracting to become black hole

Accretion disk

BLACK HOLE

NEUTRON STAR

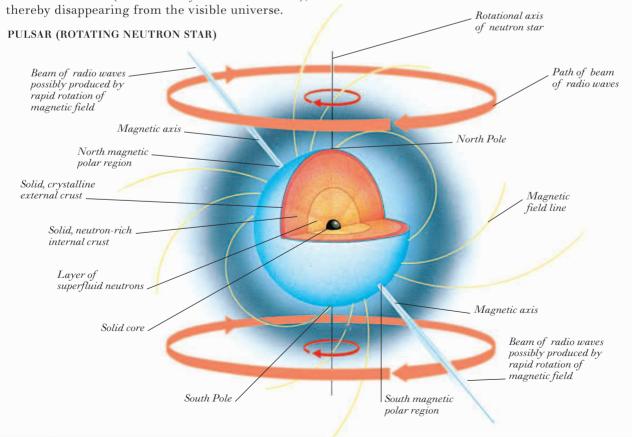
Neutron stars and black holes

NEUTRON STARS AND BLACK HOLES form from the stellar cores that remain after stars have exploded as supernovae (see pp. 26-27). If the remaining core is between about one and a half and three solar masses, it contracts to form a neutron star. If the remaining core is greater than about three solar masses, it contracts to form a black hole. Neutron stars are typically only about 6 miles (10 km) in diameter and consist almost entirely of subatomic particles called neutrons. Such stars are so dense that a teaspoonful would weigh about a billion tons. Neutron stars are observed as and dust pulsars, so-called because they rotate rapidly and emit two beams of radio waves, which sweep across the sky and are detected as short pulses. Black holes are characterized by their extremely Rapidly strong gravity, which is so powerful that not even light can escape; as a result, black holes are invisible. However, they can be Beam of_ detected if they have a close companion star. The gravity of the radiation black hole pulls gas from the other star, forming an accretion from pulsar disk that spirals around the black hole at high speed, heating up and emitting radiation. Eventually, the matter spirals in to cross the event horizon (the boundary of the black hole), thereby disappearing from the visible universe.

Nebula of gas surrounds pulsar

rotating pulsar

X-RAY IMAGE OF PULSAR AND CENTRAL REGION OF CRAB NEBULA (SUPERNOVA REMNANT)



NEUTRON STARS AND BLACK HOLES

STELLAR BLACK HOLE Blue supergiant star

Gas current (outer layers of nearby blue supergiant pulled toward black hole by gravity)

Singularity (theoretical region in which the physics of the material is unknown)

Hot spot (region of intense friction / where gas current joins accretion disk)

Gas in outer part of accretion disk emitting low-energy radiation

Hot gas in inner part of accretion disk emitting

high-energy X-rays

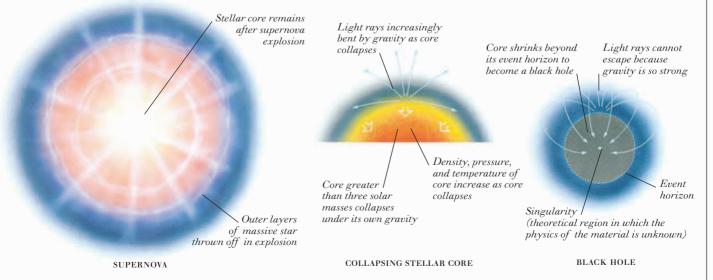
Gas at temperatures of millions $^{\circ}F$ spiraling at close to the speed of light

Event horizon (boundary of black hole)

Accretion disk (matter spiraling around black hole)

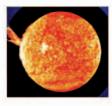
FORMATION OF A BLACK HOLE

 $Black\ hole$



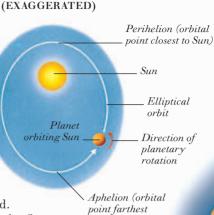
THE UNIVERSE

The solar system



THE SOLAR SYSTEM consists of a central star (the Sun) and the bodies that orbit it. These bodies include eight planets and their more than 160 known moons; dwarf planets; Kuiper Belt objects; asteroids; comets; and meteoroids. The solar system also contains interplanetary gas and dust. The planets fall into two groups: four small rocky planets near the Sun (Mercury, Venus, Earth, and

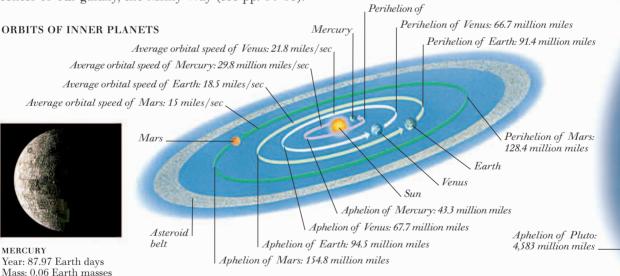
Mars); and four planets farther out, the giants (Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune). Between the rocky planets and giants is the asteroid belt, which contains thousands of chunks of rock orbiting the Sun. Beyond Neptune is the Kuiper Belt and, more distant, the Oort Cloud. Most of the bodies in the planetary part of the solar system move around the Sun in elliptical orbits located in a thin disk around the Sun's equator. All the planets orbit the Sun in the same direction (counterclockwise when viewed from above) and all but Venus and Uranus also spin about their axes in this direction. Moons also spin as they, in turn, orbit their planets. The entire solar system orbits the center of our galaxy, the Milky Way (see pp. 14-15).

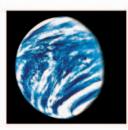


from Sun)

PLANETARY ORBIT

Aphelion of Neptune: 2.8 billion miles





Diameter: 3.051 miles

VENUS Year: 224.7 Earth days Mass: 0.81 Earth masses Diameter: 7,521 miles



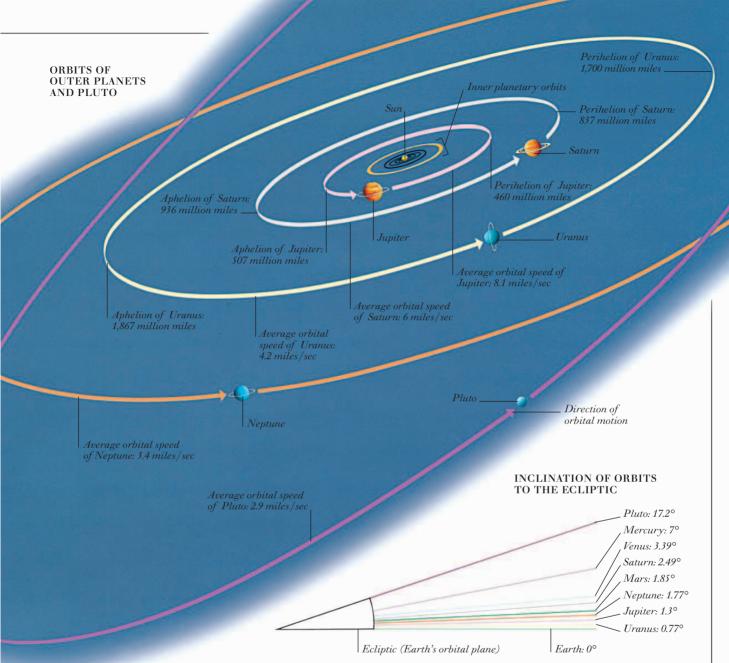
EARTH Year: 365.26 days Mass: 1 Earth mass Diameter: 7,926 miles



MARS Year: 1.88 Earth years Mass: 0.11 Earth masses Diameter: 4,217 miles

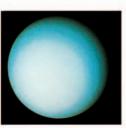


JUPITER Year: 11.87 Earth years Mass: 317.83 Earth masses Diameter: 88,850 miles

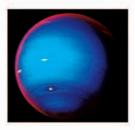




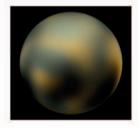
SATURN Year: 29.66 Earth years Mass: 95.16 Earth masses Diameter: 74,901 miles



URANUS Year: 84.13 Earth years Mass: 14.54 Earth masses Diameter: 31,765 miles



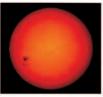
NEPTUNE Year: 164.70 Earth years Mass: 17.14 Earth masses Diameter: 30,777 miles



PLUTO Year: 248.09 Earth years Mass: 0.0022 Earth masses Diameter: 1,429 miles

HOW A SOLAR ECLIPSE OCCURS

The Sun



SOLAR PHOTOSPHERE THE SUN IS THE STAR AT THE CENTER of the solar system. It is about five billion years old and will continue to shine as it does now for about another five billion years. The Sun is a yellow main sequence star (see pp. 22-23) about 870,000 miles (1.4 million km) in diameter. It consists almost entirely of hydrogen and helium. In the Sun's core, hydrogen is converted to helium by nuclear fusion, releasing energy in the process. The energy

travels from the core, through the radiative and convective zones, to the photosphere (visible surface), where it leaves the Sun in the form of heat and light. On the photosphere there are often dark, relatively cool areas called sunspots, which usually appear in pairs or groups and are caused by the cooling effect of the magnetic field. Other types of solar activity are flares, which are usually associated with sunspots, and prominences. Flares are sudden discharges of high-energy radiation and atomic particles. Prominences are huge loops or filaments of gas extending into the solar atmosphere; some last for hours, others for months. Beyond the photosphere is the chromosphere (inner atmosphere) and the extremely rarified corona (outer atmosphere), which extends millions of miles into space. Tiny particles that escape from the corona give rise to the solar wind, which streams through space at hundreds of miles per second. The chromosphere and corona can be seen from Earth when the Sun is totally eclipsed by the Moon.

SURFACE FEATURES

Gas loop (looped prominence)

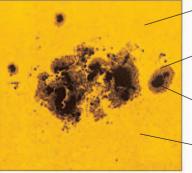
Prominence (jet of gas at edge of Sun's disk up to hundreds of thousands of miles high)

> Spicule (vertical jet of gas)

, Photosphere (visible surface)

Chromosphere (in<mark>n</mark>er atmosphere)

SUNSPOTS



Corona (outer

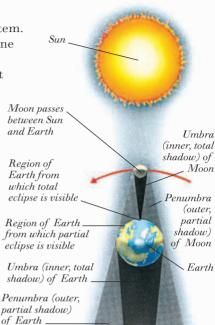
atmosphere

of extremely

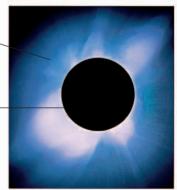
Moon covers

Sun's disk

hot, diffuse gas)



TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE



. Granulated surface of Sun

- , Penumbra (lighter, outer region) containing radial fibrils
- Umbra (darker, inner region) temperature about 7,200°F (2,700°C)
- Photosphere temperature 9,900°F (5,500°C)

EXTERNAL FEATURES AND INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE SUN

Convective zone 90.000 miles (140,000 km) thick

Chromosphere (inner atmosphere) up to 6,000 miles (2,000 km) thick

Corona (outer atmosphere)

Photosphere (visible surface) Radiative zone 230,000 miles (380,000 km) thick

Chromosphere

temperature

Photosphere 18,000°F (10,000°C) temperature 9,900°F (5,500°C)

> Corona temperature 3.6 million $^{\circ}F'(2 million ^{\circ}C)$

Core temperature 27 million ${}^{\circ}\!\!F$ (15 million ${}^{\circ}\!\!C$)

Filament , (prominence visible against photosphere)

Prominence (jet of gas at edge of Sun's disk up to hundreds of thousands of miles high)

> Spicule: vertical jet of gas 6,000 miles (10,000 km) high

> > Sunspot (cool region)

Solar flare (sudden release of energy associated with sunspots)

Gas loop

(looped prominence)

Supergranule (convection cell)

Granulated surface

Macrospicule: vertical jet of gas 25,000 miles (40,000 km) high

THE UNIVERSE

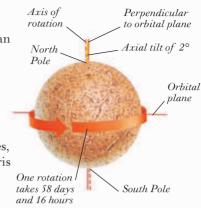
TILT AND ROTATION OF MERCURY

Mercury Mercury average dis Because M faster tham of nearly 3 orbit in ins

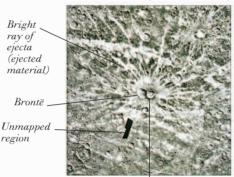
MERCURY

MERCURY IS THE NEAREST PLANET to the Sun, orbiting at an average distance of about 36 million miles (58 million km). Because Mercury is the closest planet to the Sun, it moves faster than any other planet, travelling at an average speed of nearly 30 miles (48 km) per second and completing an orbit in just under 88 days. Mercury is very small (only 40 percent bigger than the Moon) and rocky. Most of the surface has been heavily cratered by the impact of meteorites,

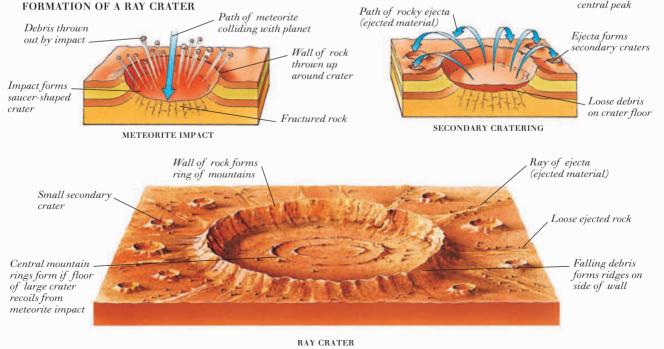
although there are also smooth, sparsely cratered lava-covered plains. The Caloris Basin is the largest crater, measuring about 800 miles (1,300 km) across. It is thought to have been formed when a 38-mile- (60-km-) diameter asteroid hit the planet, and is surrounded by concentric rings of mountains thrown up by the impact. The surface also has many clifflike ridges (called rupes) that are thought to have been formed when the hot core of the young planet cooled and shrank about four billion years Bright ago, buckling the planet's surface in the process. The planet rotates about its axis very slowly, taking nearly 59 Earth days to complete one rotation. As a result, a solar day (sunrise to sunrise) on Mercury is about 176 Earth days-twice as long as the 88-day Mercurian year. Mercury has extreme surface temperatures, ranging from a maximum of 800°F (430°C) on the sunlit side to -270°F (-170°C) on the dark side. At nightfall, the temperature drops very quickly region because the planet's atmosphere is almost nonexistent. It consists only of minute amounts of helium and hydrogen captured from the solar wind, plus traces of other gases.

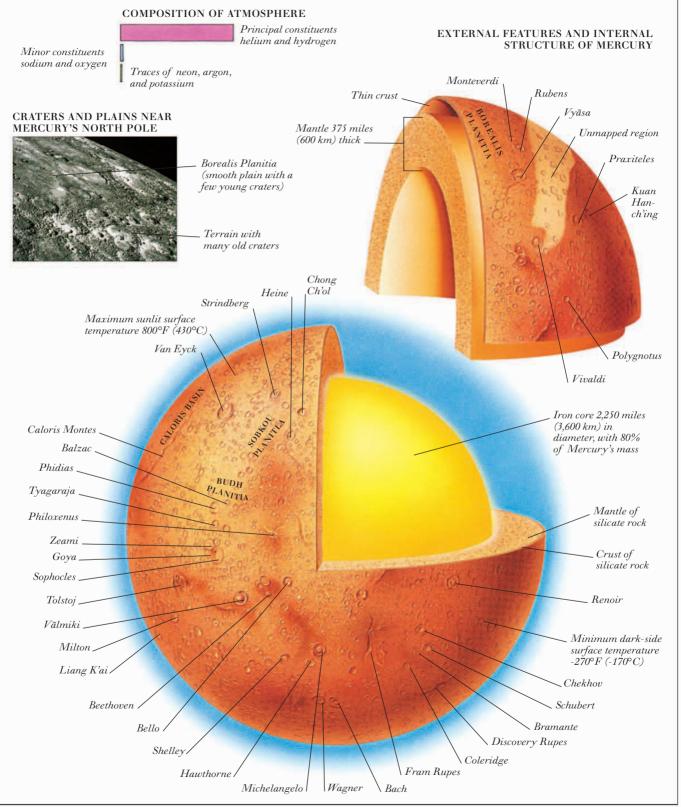


DEGAS AND BRONTË (RAY CRATERS)



Degas with central peak





Venus



RADAR IMAGE OF VENUS VENUS IS A ROCKY PLANET and the second planet from the Sun. Venus spins slowly backwards as it orbits the Sun, causing its rotational period to be the longest in the solar system, at about 243 Earth days. It is slightly smaller than Earth and probably has a similar internal structure, consisting of a semisolid metal core, surrounded by a rocky mantle and crust. Venus is the brightest object in the sky after the Sun and Moon because its clouds reflect

sunlight strongly. The main component of the atmosphere is carbon dioxide, which traps heat in a greenhouse effect far stronger than that on Earth. As a result, Venus is the hottest planet, with a maximum surface temperature of about 900°F (480°C). The thick cloud layers contain droplets of sulfuric acid and are driven around the planet by winds at speeds of up to 220 miles (360 km) per hour. Although the planet takes 243 Earth days to rotate once, the high-speed winds cause the clouds to circle the planet in only four Earth days. The high temperature, acidic clouds, and enormous atmospheric pressure (about 90 times greater at the surface than that on Earth) make the environment extremely hostile. However, space probes have managed to land on Venus and photograph its dry, dusty surface. The Venusian surface has also been mapped by probes with radar equipment that can "see" through the cloud layers. Such radar maps reveal a terrain with craters, mountains, volcanoes, and areas where craters have been covered by plains of solidified volcanic lava. There are two large highland regions called Aphrodite Terra and Ishtar Terra.

VENUSIAN CRATERS

Ejecta (ejected material)

Danilova

Central peak

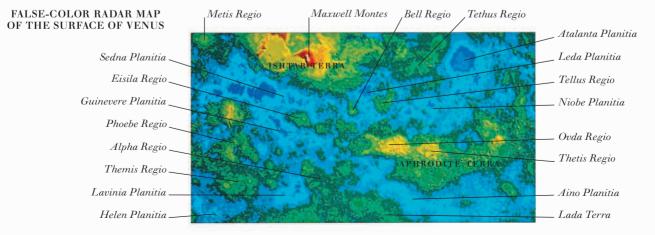
Howe

Cl ar m

Cloud features swept _ around planet by winds of up to 220 miles (360 km/h)

> Dirty yellow hue / due to sulfuric acid in atmosphere

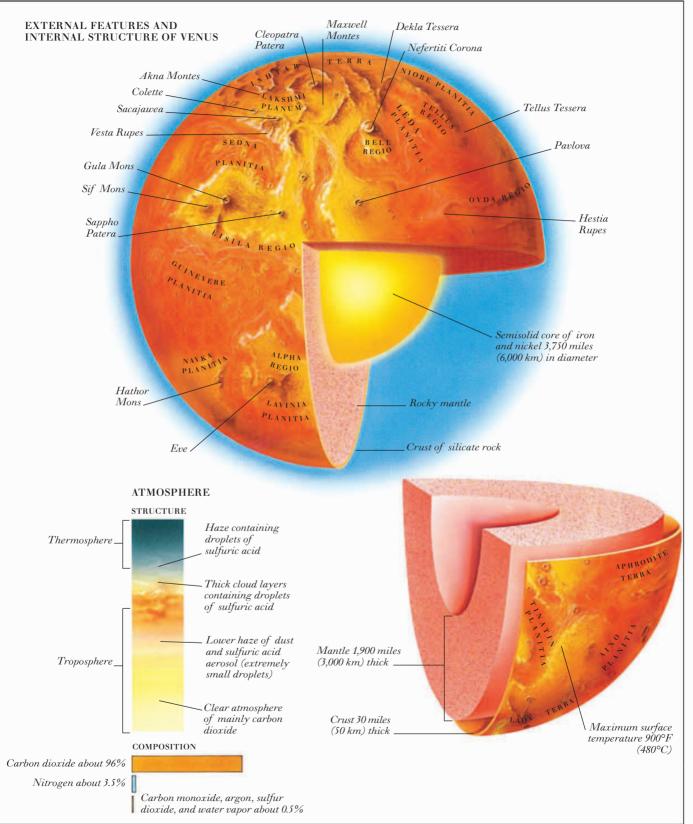
Bright



TILT AND ROTATION OF VENUS



VENUS



The Earth



THE EARTH

THE EARTH IS THE THIRD of the eight planets that orbit the Sun. It is the largest and densest rocky planet, and the North only one known to support life. About 70 percent of the Earth's surface is covered by water, which is not found in liquid form on the surface of any other planet. There are four main layers: the inner core, the outer core, the mantle, and the crust. At the heart of the planet the solid inner core has a temperature of about 11,900°F (6,600°C). The heat

from this inner core causes material in the molten outer core and mantle to circulate in convection currents. It is thought that these convection currents generate the Earth's magnetic field, which extends into space as the One rotation takes magnetosphere. The Earth's atmosphere helps screen out some of the 23 hours and harmful radiation from the Sun, stops most meteoroids from reaching the planet's 56 minutes surface, and traps enough heat to prevent extremes of cold. The Earth has one natural satellite, the Moon, which is thought to have formed when a huge asteroid impacted Earth in the distant past.

Microorganisms began to photosynthesize, creating a build up of oxygen

TILT AND BOTATION OF THE EABTH Axial tilt

of 23.4°

Orbital

plane

South Pole

Perpendicular to

orbital plane

Axis of

rotation

Pole

The heat of the collisions caused the planet to glow red _

The cloud formed a disk of material around the young Sun's equator. The disk material stuck together to form planets

4.6 BILLION YEARS AGO. THE SOLAR SYSTEM FORMED FROM A CLOUD OF ROCK, ICE, AND GAS

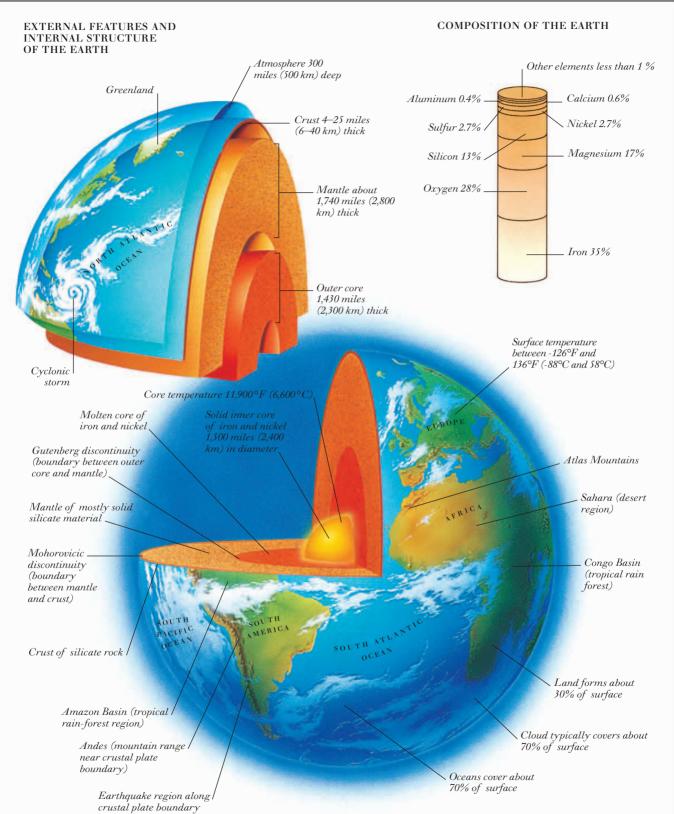
FORMED FROM COLLIDING BOCKS

THE EARTH WAS 4.5 BILLION YEARS AGO THE SURFACE COOLED TO FORM THE CRUST

THE FORMATION OF THE EARTH

THE CONTINENTS BROKE UP AND REFORMED. GRADUALLY MOVING TO THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Solar wind enters atmosphere and produces aurora Magnetosphere (region affected by magnetic field) Solar wind (stream of electrically charged particles) THE EARTH'S MAGNETOSPHERE Axis of geographic poles Van Allen radiation belt Earth Axis of magnetic poles



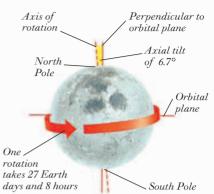
The Moon



THE MOON FROM EARTH THE MOON IS THE EARTH'S only natural satellite. It is relatively large for a moon, with a diameter of about 2,155 miles (3,470 km)—just over a quarter that of the Earth. The Moon takes the same time to rotate on its axis as it takes to orbit the Earth (27.3 days), and so the same side (the near side) always faces us. However, the amount of the surface we can see—the phase of the Moon—

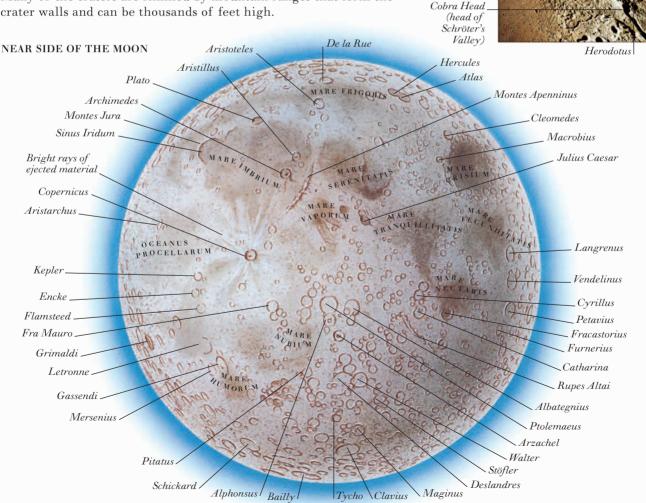
depends on how much of the near side is in sunlight. The Moon is dry and barren, with negligible atmosphere and water. It consists mainly of solid rock, although its core may contain molten rock or iron. The surface is dusty, with highlands covered in craters caused by meteorite impacts, and lowlands in which large craters have been filled by solidified lava to form dark areas called maria or "seas." Maria occur mainly on the near side, which has a thinner crust than the far side. Many of the craters are rimmed by mountain ranges that form the crater walls and can be thousands of feet high.

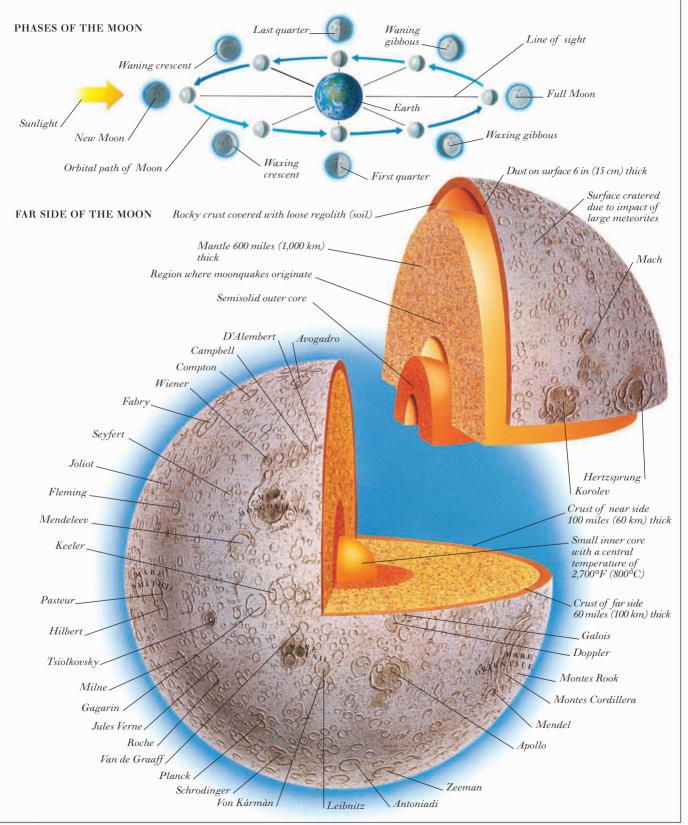
TILT AND ROTATION OF THE MOON



CRATERS ON OCEANUS PROCELLARUM

Aristarchus





THE UNIVERSE

Mars



MARS

MARS, KNOWN AS THE RED PLANET, is the fourth planet from the Sun and the outermost rocky planet. In the 19th century, astronomers first observed what were thought to be signs of life on Mars. These signs included apparent canal-like lines on the surface, and dark patches that were thought to be vegetation. It is now known that the "canals" are an optical illusion, and the dark patches are areas where the red dust that

covers most of the planet has been blown away. The fine dust particles are often whipped up by winds into dust storms that occasionally obscure almost all the surface. Residual fine dust in the atmosphere gives the

Martian sky a pinkish hue. The northern hemisphere of Mars has many large plains formed of solidified volcanic lava, whereas the southern hemisphere has many craters and large impact basins. There are also several huge, extinct volcanoes, including Olympus Mons, which, at 370 miles (600 km) across and 15 miles (25 km) high, is the largest known volcano in the solar system. The surface also has many canyons and branching channels. The canyons were formed by movements of the surface crust, but the channels are thought to have been formed by flowing water that has now dried up. The Martian atmosphere is much thinner than Earth's, with only a few clouds and morning mists. Mars has two tiny, irregularly shaped moons called Phobos and Deimos. Their small size indicates that they may be asteroids that have been captured by the gravity of Mars.

THE SURFACE OF MARS Dark area where dust has been blown away by South

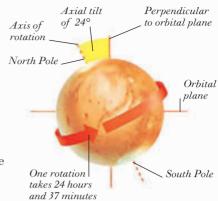
polar ice

cap

wind

Surface covered with red-colored iron oxide dust

TILT AND BOTATION OF MARS



Bright

water-ice fog

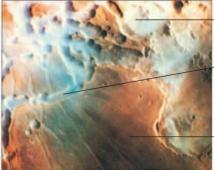
Fog in canyon 12 miles

(20 km) wide at end of

Valles Marineris

Syria Planum

SURFACE FEATURES OF MARS



NOCTIS LABYRINTHUS (CANYON SYSTEM)

Summit caldera consisting of overlapping collapsed volcanic craters

> Gentle slope produced by lava flow



OLYMPUS MONS (EXTINCT SHIELD VOLCANO)

Cloud formation

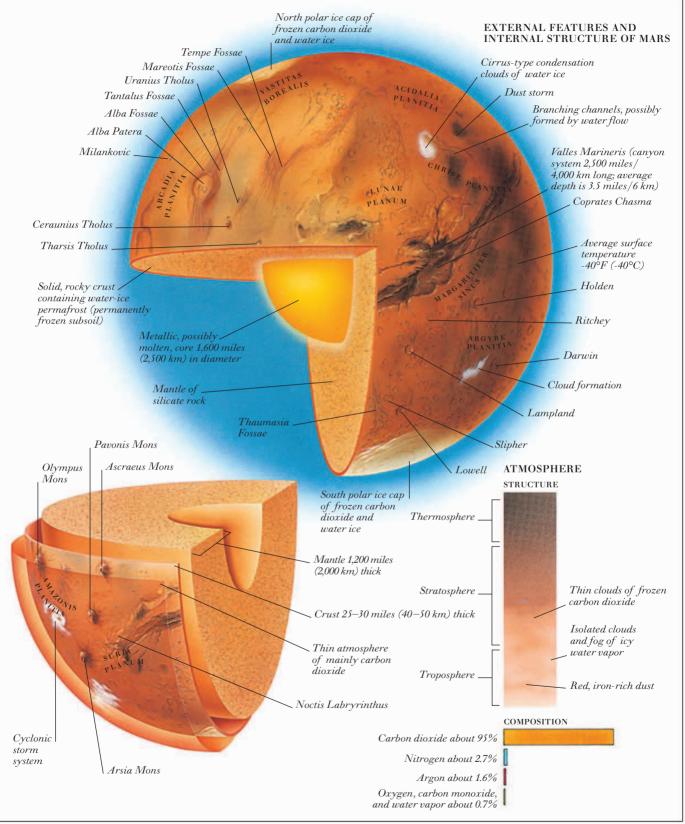
MOONS OF MARS



PHOBOS Average diameter: 14 miles Average distance from planet: 5,800 miles



DEIMOS Average diameter: 8 miles Average distance from planet: 14,600 miles



Jupiter

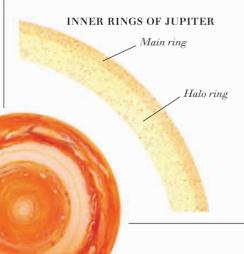


JUPITER

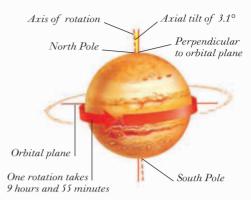
JUPITER IS THE FIFTH PLANET from the Sun and the innermost of the four giant planets. It is the largest and the most massive planet, with a diameter about 11 times that of the Earth and a mass about 2.5 times the combined mass of the seven other planets. Jupiter is thought to have a small rocky core surrounded by an inner mantle of metallic hydrogen (liquid hydrogen that acts

like a metal). Outside the inner mantle is an outer mantle of liquid hydrogen and helium that merges into the gaseous atmosphere. Jupiter's rapid rate of rotation causes the clouds in its atmosphere to form belts and zones that encircle the planet parallel to the equator. Belts are dark, low-lying, relatively warm cloud layers,

and zones are bright, high-altitude, cooler cloud layers. Within the belts and zones, turbulence causes the formation of cloud features such as white ovals and red spots, both of which are huge storm systems. The most prominent cloud feature is a storm called the Great Red Spot, which consists of a spiraling column of clouds three times wider than the Earth that rises about five miles (8 km) above the upper cloud layer. Jupiter has a thin, faint, main ring, inside which is a tenuous halo ring of tiny particles. Beyond the main ring's outer edge is a broad and faint two-part gossamer ring. There are 63 known Jovian moons. The four largest moons (called the Galileans) are Ganymede, Callisto, Io, and Europa. Ganymede and Callisto are cratered and icy. Europa is smooth and icy and is thought to have a subsurface water ocean. Io is covered in bright red, orange, and yellow splotches. This coloring is caused by sulfurous material from active volcanoes that shoot plumes of lava hundreds of miles above the surface.



TILT AND ROTATION OF JUPITER



GREAT RED SPOT AND WHITE OVAL

Great Red Spot (anticyclonic storm system) ___

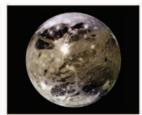
Red color probably due to phosphorus _

White oval (temporary anticyclonic storm system)

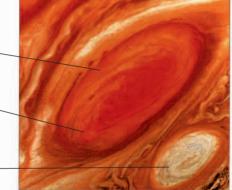
GALILEAN MOONS OF JUPITER



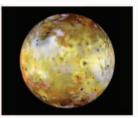
EUROPA Diameter: 1,950 miles Average distance from planet: 416,900 miles



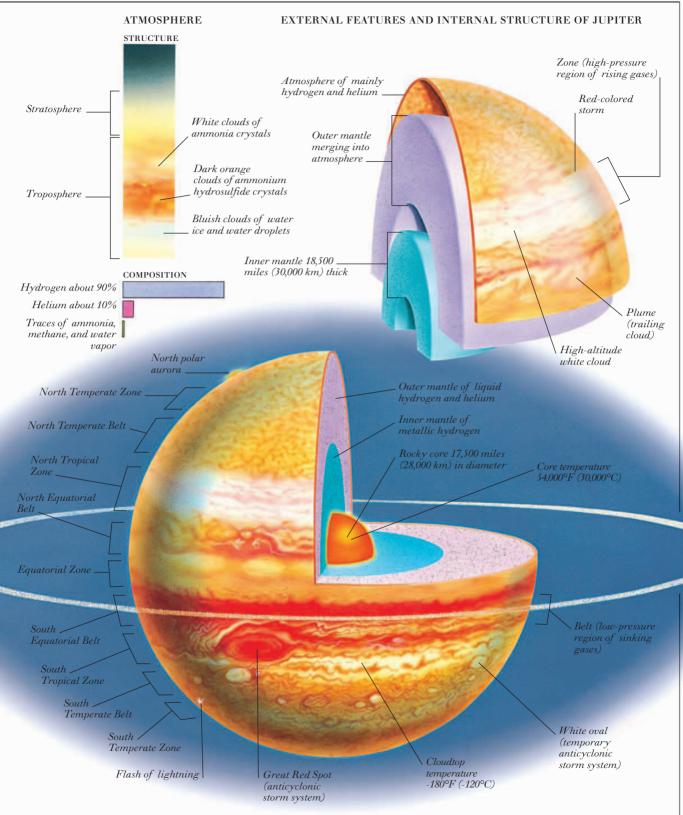
GANYMEDE Diameter: 3,270 miles Average distance from planet: 664,900 miles



CALLISTO Diameter: 2,983 miles Average distance from planet: 1,168,200 miles

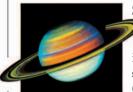


Diameter: 2,263 miles Average distance from planet: 262,100 miles



THE UNIVERSE

Saturn

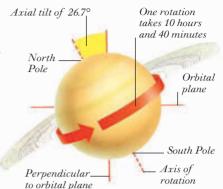


FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF SATURN

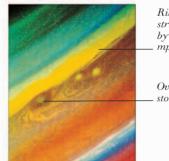
SATURN IS THE SIXTH PLANET from the Sun. It is a gas giant almost as big as Jupiter, with an equatorial diameter of about 75,000 miles (120,500 km). Saturn is thought to consist of a small core of rock and ice surrounded by an inner mantle of metallic hydrogen (liquid hydrogen that acts like a metal). Outside the inner mantle is an outer mantle of liquid hydrogen that merges into a gaseous atmosphere. Saturn's clouds form belts and zones similar to those on

Jupiter, but obscured by overlying haze. Storms and eddies, seen as red or white ovals, occur in the clouds. Saturn has an extremely thin but wide system of rings that is about half a mile (1 km) thick but extends outward to about 260,000 miles (420,000 km) from the planet's surface. The main rings comprise thousands of narrow ringlets, each made of icy rock lumps that range in size from tiny particles to chunks several yards across. The D, E, and G rings are very faint, the F ring is brighter, and the A, B, and C rings are bright enough to be seen from Earth with binoculars. In 2009, a huge dust ring was discovered 4 million miles (6 million km) beyond the main system. Saturn has more than 60 known moons, some of which orbit inside the rings and are thought to exert a gravitational influence on the shapes of the rings. Unusually, seven of the moons are co-orbital-they share an orbit with another moon. Astronomers believe that such co-orbital moons may have originated from a single satellite that broke up.

TILT AND ROTATION OF SATURN



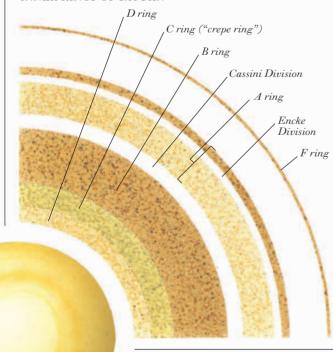
FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF SATURN'S CLOUD FEATURES



Ribbon-shaped striation caused by winds of 335 mph (540 km/h)

Oval (rotating storm system)

INNER RINGS OF SATURN



MOONS OF SATURN



ENCELADUS Diameter: 509 miles Average distance from planet: 148,000 miles



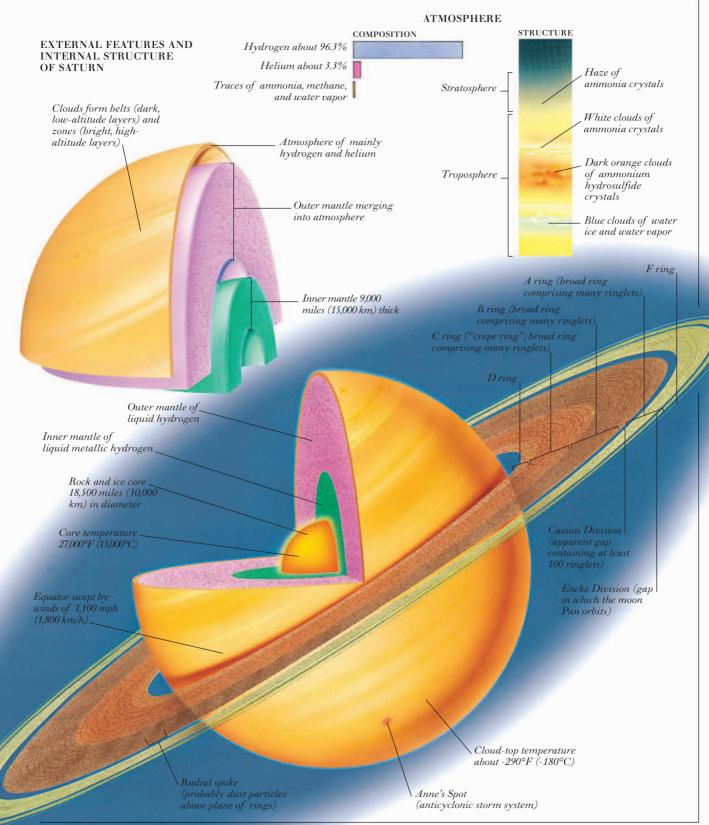
DIONE Diameter: 695 miles Average distance from planet: 254,000 miles



TETHYS Diameter: 652 miles Average distance from planet: 183,000 miles



MIMAS Diameter: 247 miles Average distance from planet: 115,600 miles



Uranus



FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF URANUS URANUS IS THE SEVENTH PLANET from the Sun and the third largest, with a diameter of about 32,000 miles (51,000 km). It is thought to consist of a dense mixture of different types of ice and gas around a solid core. Its atmosphere contains traces of methane, giving the planet a blue-green hue, and the temperature at the cloud tops is about -350°F (-210°C). Uranus is the most featureless planet to have been closely observed:

only a few icy clouds of methane have been seen so far. Uranus is unique among the planets in that its axis of rotation lies close to its orbital plane. As a result of its strongly tilted rotational axis, Uranus rolls on its side along its orbital path around the Sun, whereas other planets spin more or less upright. Uranus is encircled by main rings that consist of rocks interspersed with dust lanes and two distant outer rings made of dust. The rings contain some of the darkest matter in the solar system and are extremely narrow, making them difficult to detect: most of them are less than 6 miles (10 km) wide, whereas most of Saturn's rings are thousands of miles in width. There are 27 known Uranian moons, all of which are icy and most of which are farther out than the rings. The 13 inner moons are small and dark, with diameters of less than 100 miles (160 km), and the five major moons are between about 290 and 1,000 miles (470 and 1,600 km) in diameter. The major moons have a wide variety of surface features. Miranda has the most varied surface, with cratered areas broken up by huge ridges and cliffs 12 miles (20 km) high. Beyond these are nine much more distant moons with diameters less than 90 miles (150 km).

RINGS OF URANUS

Lambda ring

Epsilon ring

, Delta ring

Gamma ring

Eta ring

Beta ring

Alpha ring

Rings 4 and 5

Ring 6

_ Zeta ring



RINGS AND DUST LANES

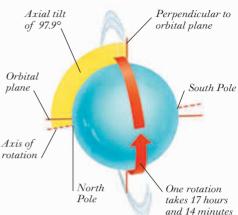


ARIEL Diameter: 720 miles Average distance from planet: 118,800 miles



UMBRIEL Diameter: 726 miles Average distance from planet: 165,500 miles

TILT AND ROTATION OF URANUS







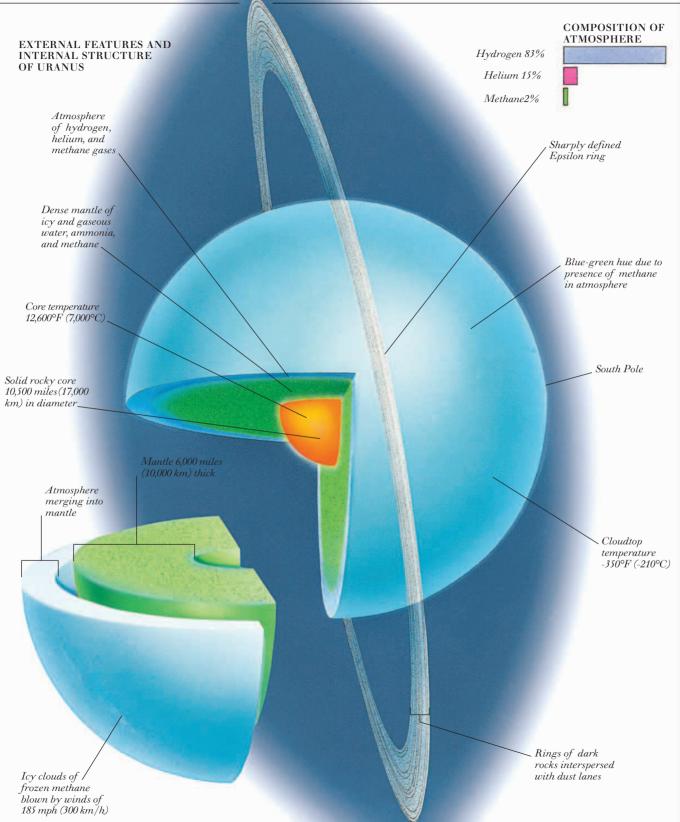
MIRANDA Diameter: 295 miles Average distance from planet: 80,700 miles



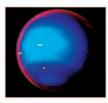
TITANIA Diameter: 981 miles Average distance from planet: 270,900 miles



OBERON Diameter: 946 miles Average distance from planet: 362,000 miles



Neptune and Pluto



FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF NEPTUNE

NEPTUNE IS the farthest planet from the Sun, at an average distance of about 2.8 billion miles (4.5 billion km). Neptune is the smallest of the giant planets and is thought to consist of a small rocky core surrounded by a mixture of liquids and gases. Several transient cloud features have been observed in its atmosphere. The largest of these were the Great Dark Spot, which was as wide as the Earth, the Small Dark Spot, and the Scooter.

The Great and Small Dark Spots were huge storms that were swept around the planet by winds of about 1,200 miles (2,000 km) per hour. The Scooter was a large area of cirrus cloud. Neptune has six tenuous rings and 13 known moons. Triton is the largest Neptunian moon and

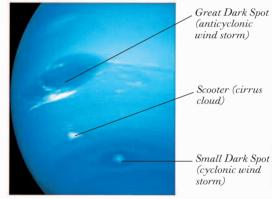
the coldest object in the solar system, with a temperature of -390°F (-240°C). Unlike most moons in the solar system, Triton orbits its mother planet in the opposite direction of the planet's rotation. The region extending out from Neptune's orbit is populated by Kuiper Belt objects and dwarf planets. They make a doughnut-shaped belt called the Kuiper Belt. The Kuiper Belt objects are a mix of rock and ice, irregular in shape, and less than 600 miles (1,000 km) across. The larger dwarf planets, which include Pluto, are almost round bodies. Pluto was the first object discovered beyond Neptune and was considered a planet until the dwarf planet category was introduced in 2006. It is made of rock and ice and is 1,365 miles (2,274 km) across. It has three known moons. The largest, Charon, is about half Pluto's size and the two probably had a common origin.

Adams ring and unnamed

Axial tilt of 28.8° Perpendicular to orbital plane Orbital plane One rotation takes 16 hours and 7 minutes

TILT AND ROTATION OF NEPTUNE

CLOUD FEATURES OF NEPTUNE



HIGH-ALTITUDE CLOUDS



Cloud shadow ______ Main cloud deck ______

blown by winds at speeds of about 12,000 miles (2,000 km/h)

Methane cirrus clouds

25 miles (40 km) above

main cloud deck .

MOONS OF NEPTUNE

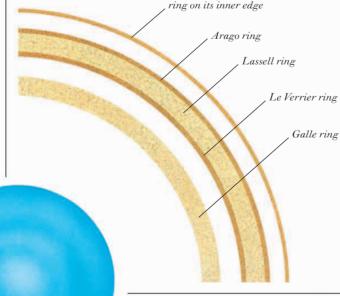


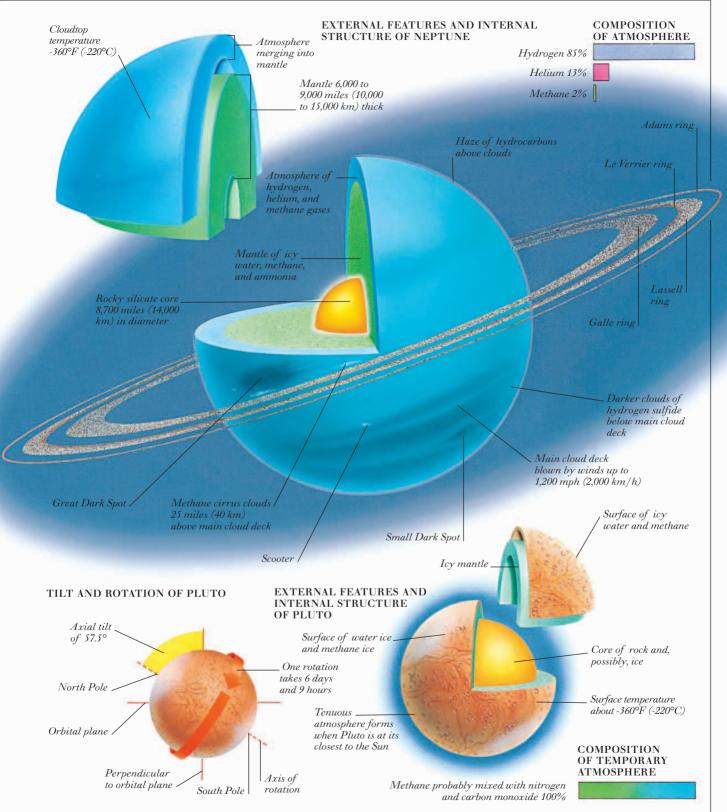
TRITON Diameter: 1,681 miles Average distance from planet: 220,500 miles



PROTEUS Diameter: 259 miles Average distance from planet: 73,100 miles







Asteroids, comets, and meteoroids



ASTEROID 951 GASPRA

ASTEROIDS, COMETS, AND METEOROIDS are all debris remaining from the nebula from which the solar system formed 4.6 billion years ago. Asteroids are rocky bodies up to about 600 miles (1,000 km) in diameter, although most are much smaller. Most of them orbit the Sun in the asteroid belt, which lies between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter. Cometary nuclei exist in a huge cloud (called the Oort Cloud) that surrounds the planetary part of the solar system. They are made of frozen water and dust and are a few miles in

diameter. Occasionally, a comet is deflected from the Oort Cloud on to a long, elliptical path that brings it much closer to the Sun. As the comet approaches the Sun, the cometary nucleus starts to vaporize in the heat, producing both a brightly shining coma (a huge sphere of gas and dust around the nucleus), and a gas tail, and a dust tail. Meteoroids are small chunks of stone or stone and iron, which are fragments of asteroids or comets. Meteoroids range in size from tiny dust particles to objects tens of meters across. If a meteoroid enters the Earth's atmosphere, it is heated by friction and appears as a glowing streak of light called a meteor (also known as a shooting star). Meteor showers occur when the Earth passes through the trail of dust particles left by a comet. Most meteoroids burn up in the atmosphere. The remnants of the few that are large enough to reach the Earth's surface are termed meteorites.

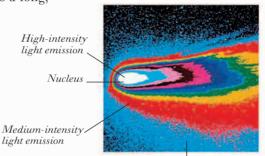
FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF A LEONID METEOR SHOWER

DEVELOPMENT OF COMET TAILS **METEORITES** Dust tail deflected by Gas tail pushed away STONY METEORITE photons in sunlight from Sun by charged and curved due to particles in solar wind comet's motion Fusion crust formed when passing through Tails lengthen atmosphere as comet nears Sun Olivine . and pyroxene mineral interior Direction of comet's orbital motion Coma surrounding nucleus STONY-IRON Tails behind METEORITE Tails in front of nucleus nucleus Iron Nucleus vaporized Coma and tails by Sun's heat, Dust Gasl Stone (olivine) tail fade as comet moves forming a coma tail away from Sun with two tails 52

OPTICAL IMAGE OF HALLEY'S COMET



FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF HALLEY'S COMET



Low-intensity light emission

FEATURES OF A COMET

Comet tails up to 60 million miles (100 million km) long

Head (coma and nucleus)

> Coma surrounding nucleus

Nucleus a few miles across 、

Broad, curved dust tail

STRUCTURE OF A COMET

Glowing coma 600,000 miles (1 million km) across around nucleus ____

Dust layer _____ with active areas emitting jets of gas and dust

Jet of gas and dust produced by vaporization on sunlit side of nucleus

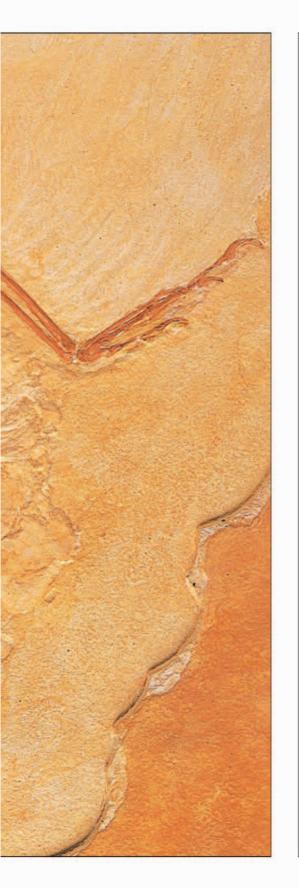
Ices, mainly water ice, but / also frozen carbon dioxide, methane, and ammonia Gas molecules excited by Sun and emitting light

_ Thin, straight gas tail

Thin, straight gas tail blown by solar wind

Broad curved dust tail Dust particles reflecting sunlight

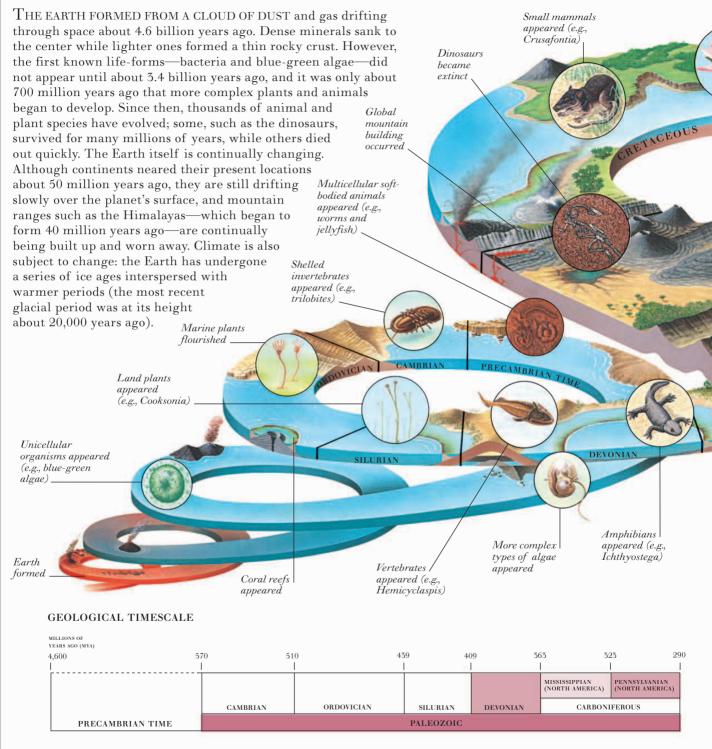




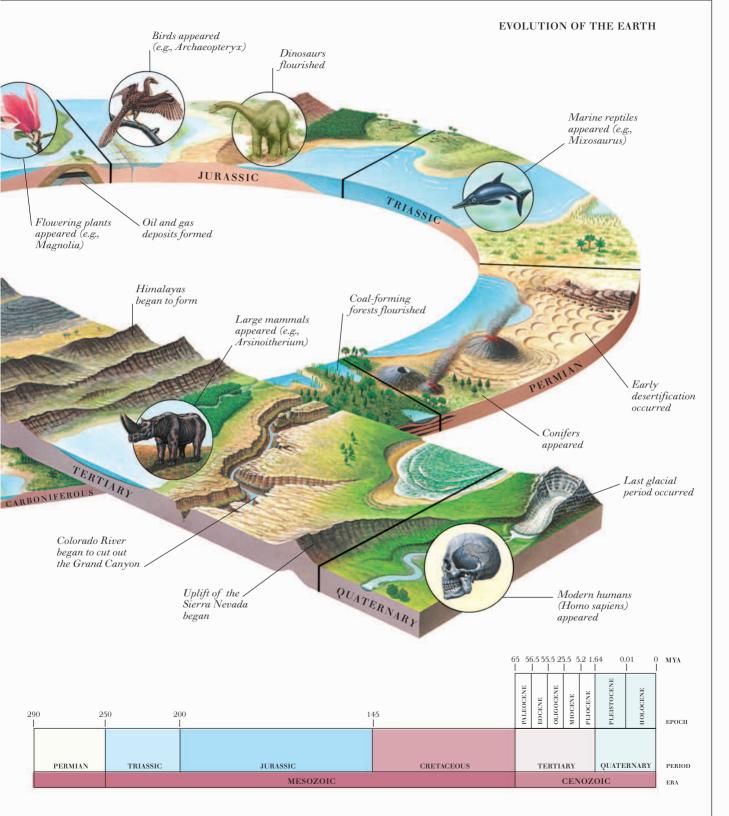
Prehistoric Earth

THE CHANGING EARTH
The Earth's Crust
FAULTS AND FOLDS
Mountain Building 62
PRECAMBRIAN TO DEVONIAN PERIOD
CARBONIFEROUS TO PERMIAN PERIOD
TRIASSIC PERIOD
JURASSIC PERIOD
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THEROPODS 1 84
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THYREOPHORANS 1
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Ornithopods 1 96
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Marginocephalians 1 ······ 100
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$THEFIRSTHUMANS\cdots 108$

The changing Earth



THE CHANGING EARTH



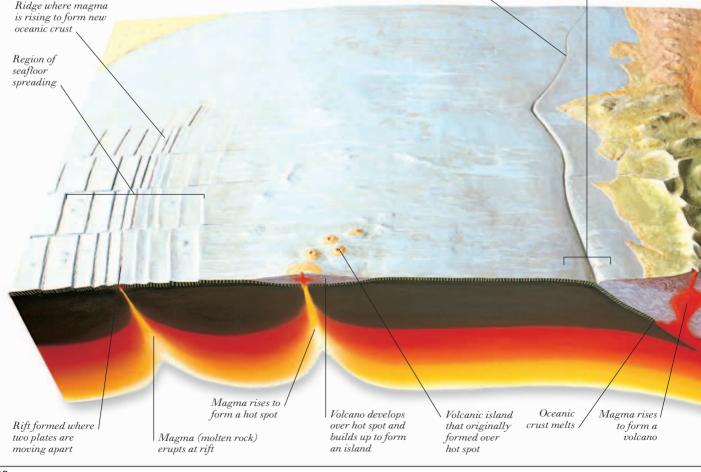
The Earth's crust

THE EARTH'S CRUST IS THE SOLID outer shell of the Earth. It includes continental crust (about 25 miles/40 km thick) and oceanic crust (about four miles/6 km thick). The crust and the topmost layer of the mantle form the lithosphere. The lithosphere consists of semirigid plates that move relative to each other on the underlying asthenosphere (a partly molten layer of the mantle). This process is known as plate tectonics and helps explain continental drift. Where two plates move apart, there are rifts in the crust. In mid-ocean, this movement results in seafloor spreading and the formation of ocean ridges; on continents, crustal spreading can form rift valleys. When plates move toward each other, one may be subducted beneath (forced under) the other. In mid-ocean, this causes ocean trenches, seismic activity, and arcs of volcanic islands. Where oceanic crust is subducted beneath continental crust or where continents collide, land may be uplifted and mountains formed (see pp. 62–65). Plates may also slide past each other-along the San Andreas fault, for example. Crustal movement on continents may result in earthquakes, while movement under the seabed can lead to tidal waves.

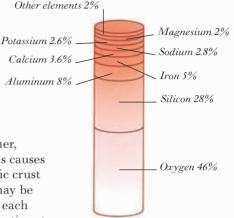
FEATURES OF PLATE MOVEMENTS

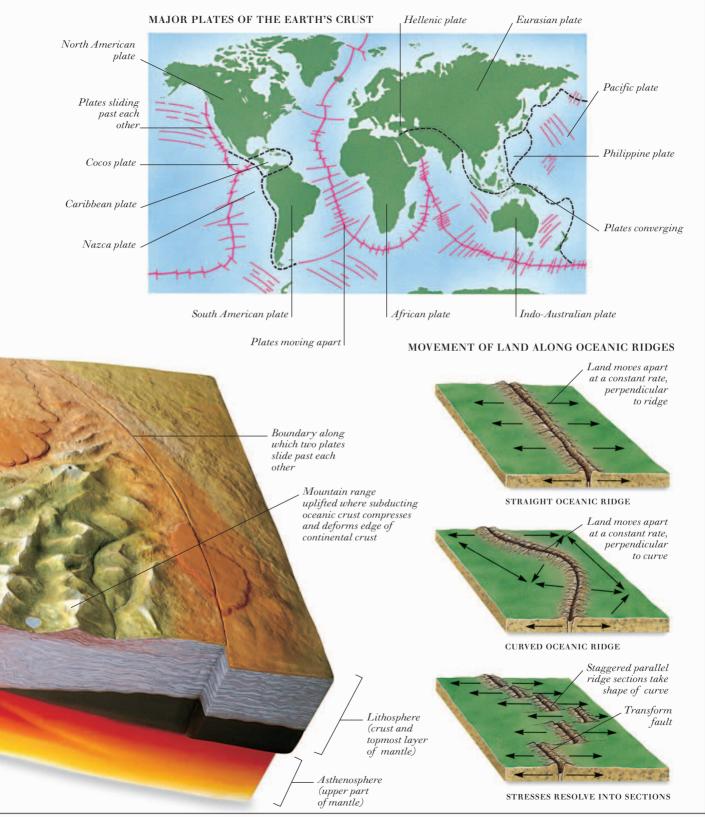
Ocean trench formed where oceanic structure oceanic structure stru

Subduction zone



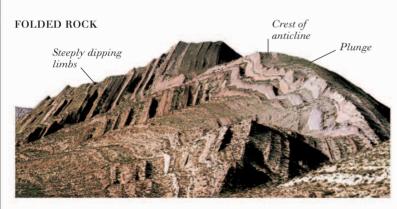
ELEMENTS IN THE EARTH'S CRUST





Faults and folds

THE CONTINUOUS MOVEMENT of the Earth's crustal plates (see pp. 58–59) can squeeze, stretch, or break rock strata, deforming them and producing faults and folds. A fault is a fracture in a rock along which there is movement of one side relative to the other. The movement can be vertical, horizontal, or oblique (vertical and horizontal). Faults develop when rocks are subjected to compression or tension. They tend to occur in hard, rigid rocks, which are more likely to break than bend. The smallest faults occur in single mineral crystals and are microscopically small, whereas the largest-the Great Rift Valley in Africa, which formed between 5 million and 100,000 years ago—is more than 6,000 miles (9,000 km) long. A fold is a bend in a rock layer caused by compression. Folds occur in elastic rocks, which tend to bend rather than break. The two main types of fold are anticlines (upfolds) and synclines (downfolds). Folds vary in size from a few millimeters long to folded mountain ranges hundreds of miles long, such as the Himalayas (see pp. 62-63) and the Alps, which are repeatedly folding. In addition to faults and folds, other features associated with rock deformations include boudins, mullions, and en échelon fractures.

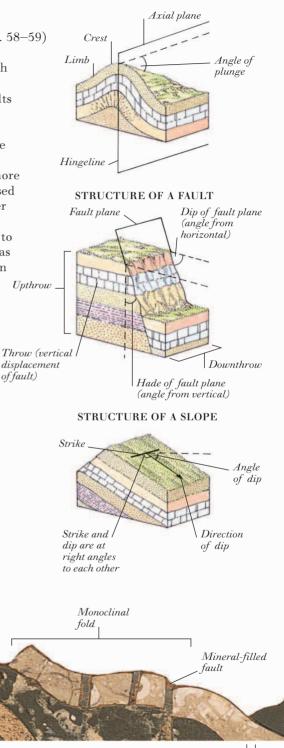


SECTION THROUGH FOLDED ROCK STRATA THAT HAVE BEEN ERODED

Anticlinal

fold

STRUCTURE OF A FOLD

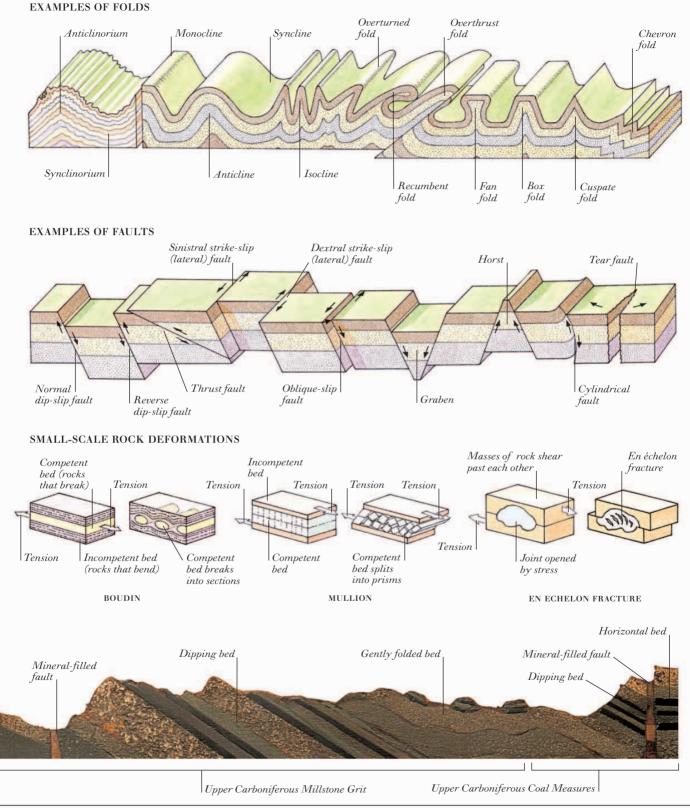


Upper Carboniferous Millstone Grit

Dipping bed

Lower Carboniferous Limestone

FAULTS AND FOLDS



Mountain building

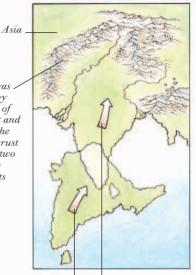
THE PROCESSES INVOLVED in mountain building—termed orogenesis—occur as a result of the movement of the Earth's crustal plates (see pp. 58–59). Asia There are three main types of mountains: volcanic mountains, fold mountains, and block mountains. Most volcanic mountains have been formed along plate boundaries where plates have come together or moved apart and lava and other debris have been ejected onto the Earth's surface. The lava and debris may have built up to form a dome around the vent of a volcano. Fold mountains are formed



BHAGIRATHI PARBAT, HIMALAYAS

part of the where plates push together and oceanic crust cause the rock to buckle upward. between two Where oceanic crust meets less dense colliding continents continental crust, the oceanic crust is forced under the continental crust. The continental crust is buckled by the impact. This is how folded mountain ranges, such as the Appalachian Mountains in North America, were formed. Fold mountains are also formed where two areas of continental crust meet. The Himalayas, for example, began to form when India collided with Asia, buckling the sediments

FORMATION OF THE HIMALAYAS



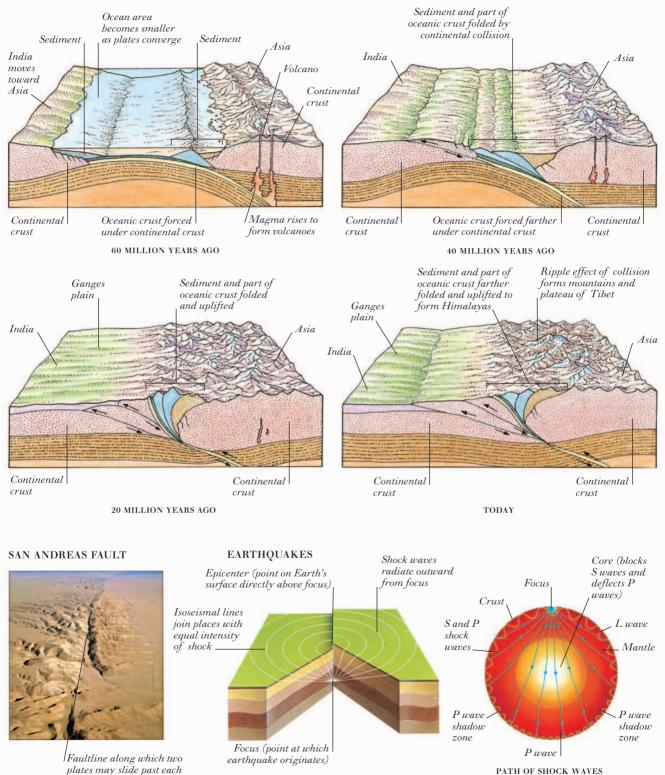
India moves north

India collides with Asia about 40 million years ago

and parts of the oceanic crust between them. Block mountains are formed when a block of land is uplifted between two faults as a result of compression or tension in the Earth's crust (see pp. 60-61). Often, the movement along faults has taken place gradually over millions of years. However, two plates may cause an earthquake by suddenly sliding past each other along a faultline.

EXAMPLES OF MOUNTAINS Layers of rock buckled Layers of rock buckled Extinct by compression to by compression to volcano form anticline form syncline Active volcano Layers of lava and ash build up Vent to form volcanic Compression mountain Compression VOLCANIC MOUNTAIN FOLD MOUNTAIN Block uplifted to form Block uplifted to form mountain range mountain range Fault Fault Fault Tension Block forced down Tension Block forced Block forced down down BLOCK-FAULT MOUNTAIN UPLIFTED BLOCK-FAULT MOUNTAIN

STAGES IN THE FORMATION OF THE HIMALAYAS



plates may slide past each other, causing an earthquake

ANATOMY OF AN EARTHQUAKE

THROUGH THE EARTH

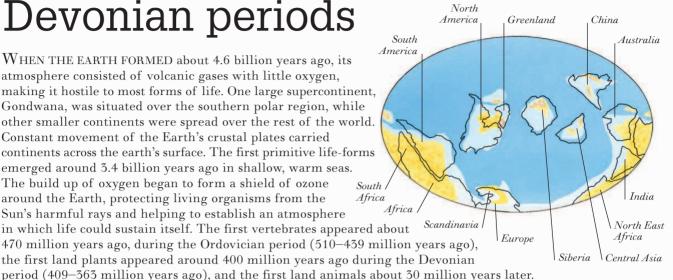
Precambrian to **Devonian** periods

Constant movement of the Earth's crustal plates carried

The build up of oxygen began to form a shield of ozone

around the Earth, protecting living organisms from the

MIDDLE ORDOVICIAN POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



EXAMPLES OF PRECAMBRIAN TO DEVONIAN PLANT GROUPS



(Lycopodium sp.)

A PRESENT-DAY CLUBMOSS A PRESENT-DAY

LAND PLANT (Asparagus setaceous)







FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT SWAMP PLANT (Zosterophyllum llanoveranum)

EXAMPLES OF PRECAMBRIAN TO DEVONIAN TRILOBITES



ACADAGNOSTUS Group: Agnostidae Length: ¹/₃ in (8 mm)



PHACOPS Group: Phacopidae Length: 1³/₄ in (4.5 cm)



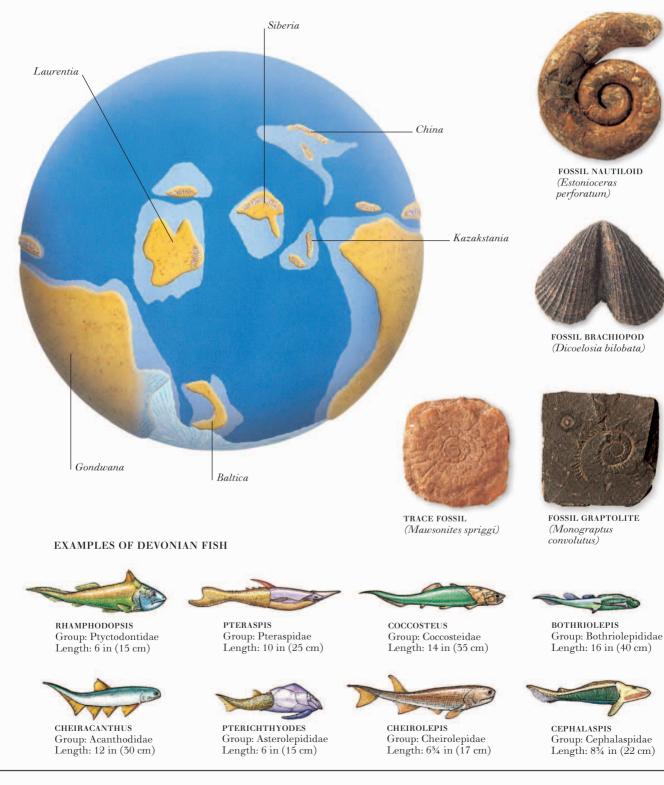
OLENELLUS Group: Olenellidae Length: $2\frac{1}{2}$ in (6 cm)



ELRATHIA Group: Ptychopariidae Length: $\frac{3}{4}$ in (2 cm)

THE EARTH DURING THE MIDDLE ORDOVICIAN PERIOD

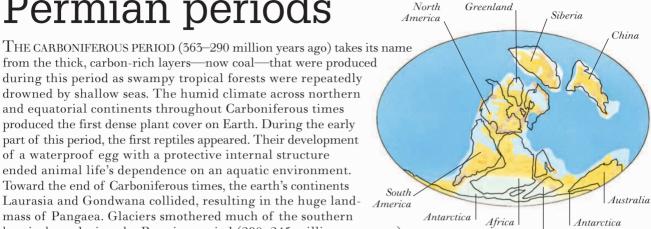
EXAMPLES OF EARLY MARINE INVERTEBRATES



65

Carboniferous to Permian periods

LATE CARBONIFEROUS POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



hemisphere during the Permian period (290–245 million years ago), covering Antarctica, parts of Australia, and much of South America, Africa, and India. Ice locked up much of the world's water and large areas of the northern hemisphere experienced a drop in sea level. Away from the poles, deserts and a hot dry climate predominated. As a result of these conditions, the Permian period ended with the greatest mass extinction of life on Earth ever.

EXAMPLES OF CARBONIFEROUS AND PERMIAN PLANT GROUPS



A PRESENT-DAY FIR (Abies concolor)



FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT FERN (Zeilleria frenzlii)



FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT HORSETAIL (Equisetites sp.)



FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT CLUBMOSS (Lepidodendron sp.)



MEDULLOSA Group: Medullosaceae Height: 16 ft 6 in (5 m)

EXAMPLES OF CARBONIFEROUS AND PERMIAN TREES



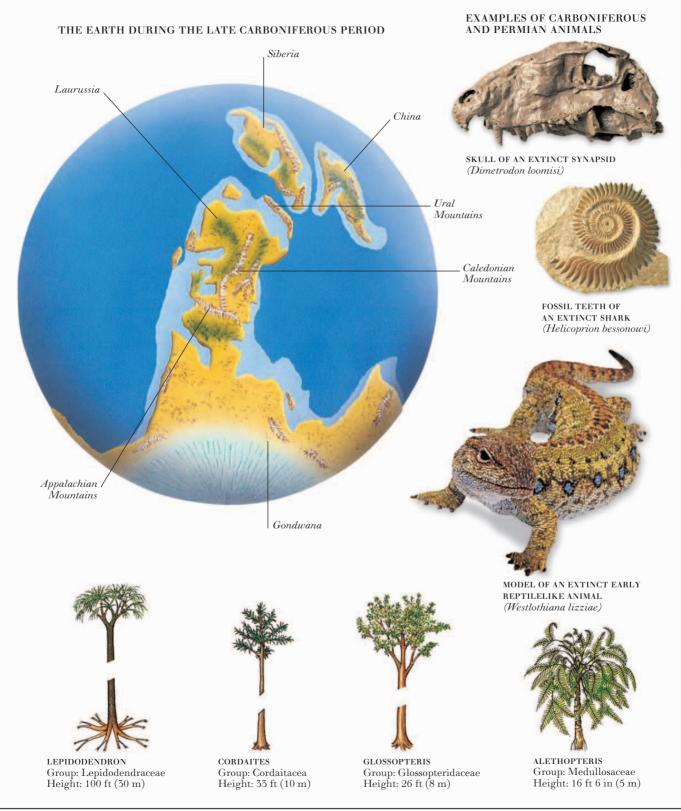
PECOPTERIS Group: Marattiaceae Height: 13 ft (4 m)



PARIPTERIS Group: Medullosaceae Height: 16 ft 6 in (5 m)

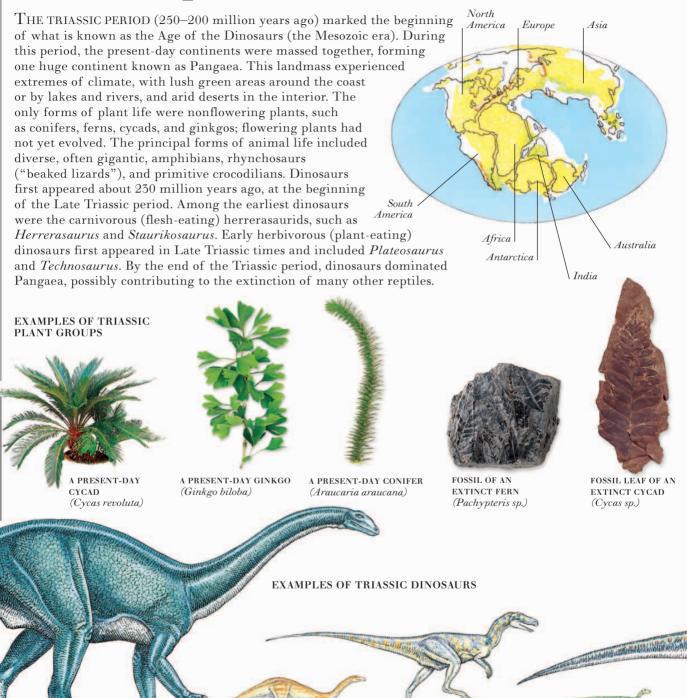


MARIOPTERIS Group: Lyginopteridales Height: 16 ft 6 in (5 m)

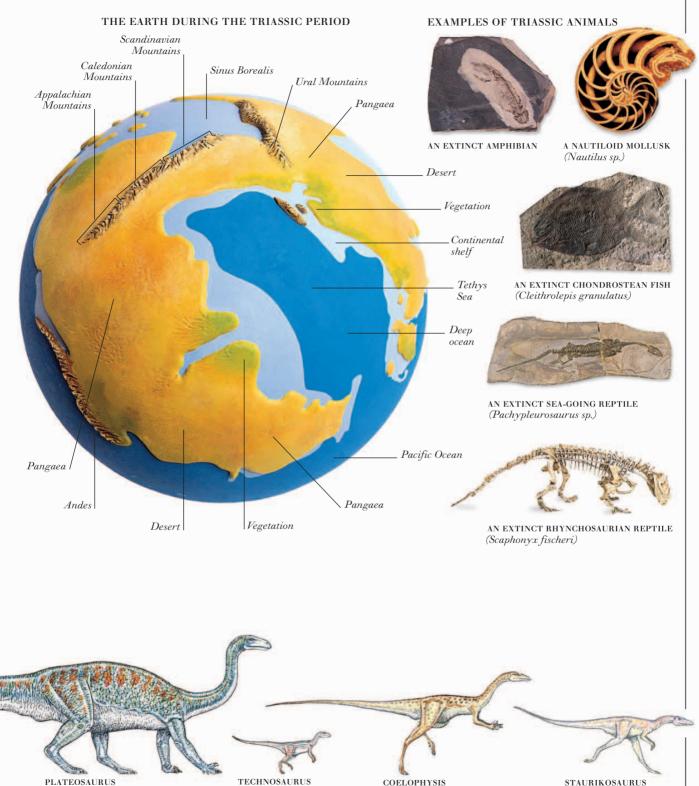


Triassic period

TRIASSIC POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



MELANOROSAURUS Group: Melanorosauridae Length: 40 ft (12.2 m) MUSSAURUS Group: Sauropodomorpha Length: 6 ft 6 in–10 ft (2–3 m) HERRERASAURUS Group: Herrerasauridae Length: 10 ft (3 m) PISANOSAURUS Group: Ornithischia Length: 3 ft (90 cm)



PLATEOSAURUS Group: Plateosauridae Length: 26 ft (7.9 m) TECHNOSAURUS Group: Ornithischia Length: 3 ft 3 in (1 m) COELOPHYSIS Group: Coelophysidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)

STAURIKOSAURUS Group: Herrerasauridae Length: 6 ft 6 in (2 m)

Jurassic period

THE JURASSIC PERIOD, the middle part of the Mesozoic era, lasted from 199 to 145 million years ago. During Jurassic times, the landmass of Pangaea broke up into the continents of Gondwana and Laurasia, and sea levels rose, flooding areas of lower land. The Jurassic climate was warm and moist. Plants such as ginkgos, horsetails, and conifers thrived, and giant redwood trees appeared, as did the first flowering plants. The abundance of plant food coincided with the proliferation of herbivorous (plant-eating) dinosaurs, such as the large sauropods (e.g., *Diplodocus*) and stegosaurs (e.g., Stegosaurus). Carnivorous (flesheating) dinosaurs, such as Compsognathus and Allosaurus, also flourished by hunting the many animals that existed—among them other dinosaurs. Further Jurassic animals included shrewlike mammals, and pterosaurs (flying reptiles), as well as plesiosaurs and ichthyosaurs (both marine reptiles).

JURASSIC POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



EXAMPLES OF JURASSIC PLANT GROUPS



A PRESENT-DAY FERN (Dicksonia antarctica)

A PRESENT-DAY HORSETAIL (Equisetum arvense)



A PRESENT-DAY CONIFER (Taxus baccata)

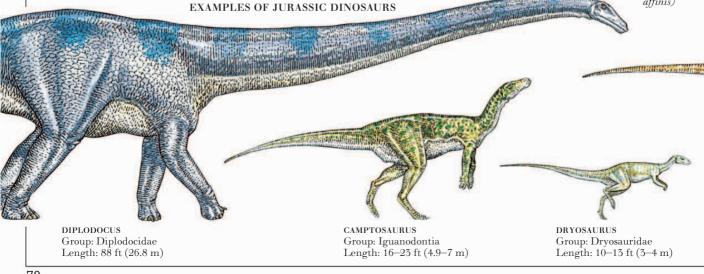


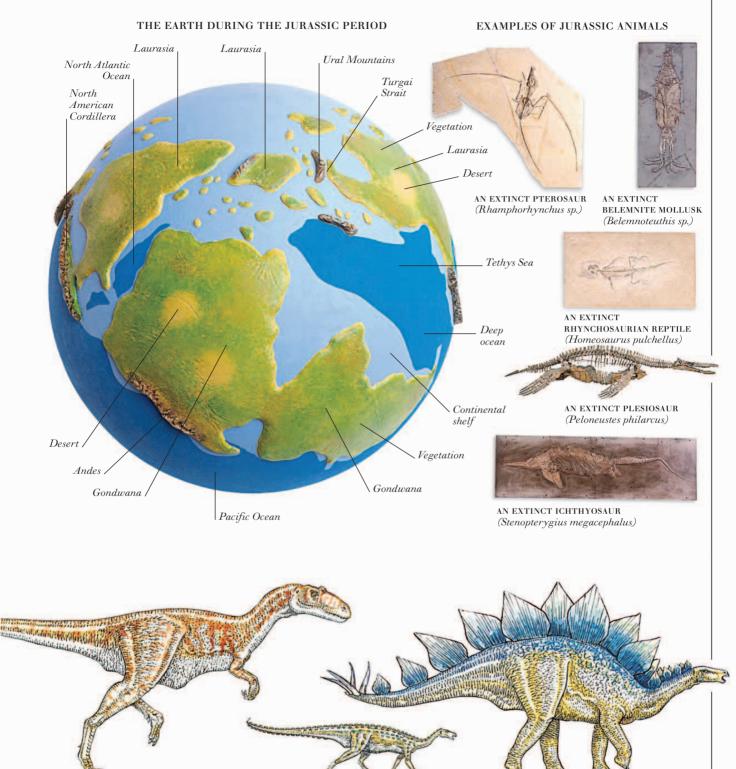
(Taxus sp.

FOSSIL LEAF OF AN EXTINCT CONIFER



FOSSIL LEAF OF AN EXTINCT REDWOOD (Sequoiadendron affinis)





ALLOSAURUS Group: Allosauroidea Length: 36 ft (11 m)

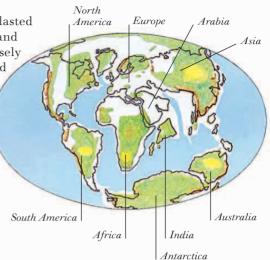
SCELIDOSAURUS Group: Thyreophora Length: 13 ft (4m)

STEGOSAURUS Group: Stegosauridae Length: 30 ft (9.1 m)

Cretaceous period

THE MESOZOIC ERA ENDED WITH the Cretaceous period, which lasted from 146 to 65 million years ago. During this period, Gondwana and Laurasia were breaking up into smaller landmasses that more closely resembled the modern continents. The climate remained mild and moist but the seasons became more marked. Flowering plants, including deciduous trees, replaced many cycads, seed ferns, and conifers. Animal species became more varied, with the evolution of new mammals, insects, fish, crustaceans, and turtles. Dinosaurs evolved into a wide variety of species during Cretaceous times; more than half of all known dinosaurs-including Iguanodon, Deinonychus, Tyrannosaurus, and Hypsilophodon—lived during this period. At the end of the Cretaceous period, however, most dinosaurs became extinct. The reason for this mass extinction is unknown but it is thought to have been caused by climatic changes due to either a catastrophic meteor impact with the Earth or extensive volcanic eruptions.

CRETACEOUS POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



EXAMPLES OF CRETACEOUS PLANT GROUPS





(Magnolia sp.)

A PRESENT-DAY CONIFER (Pinus muricata)

A PRESENT-DAY DECIDUOUS TREE

FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT FERN (Sphenopteris latiloba)



FOSSIL OF AN EXTINCT GINKGO (Ginkgo pluripartita)



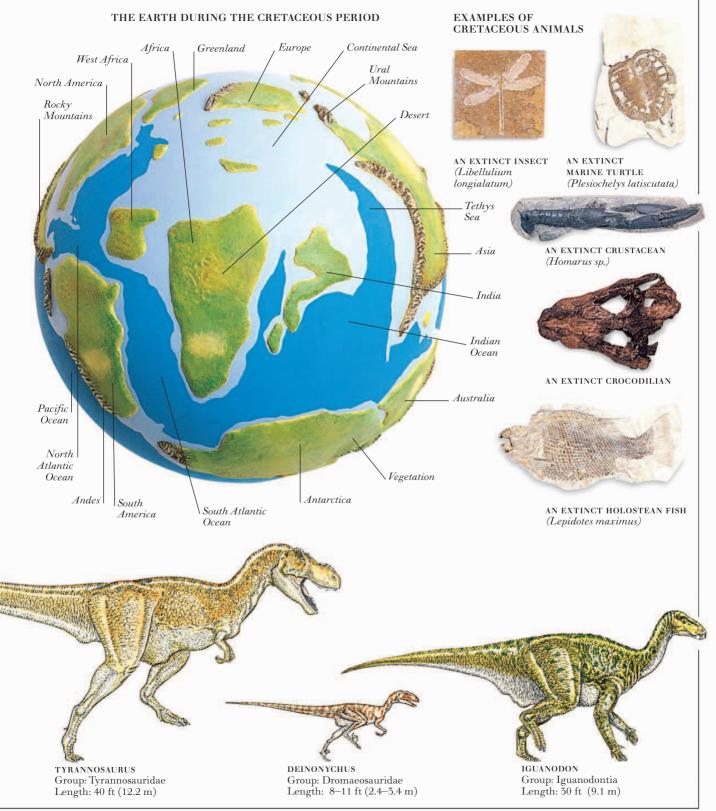
FOSSIL LEAVES OF AN EXTINCT DECIDUOUS TREE (Cercidyphyllum sp.)

an and the second states in the states of the

EXAMPLES OF CRETACEOUS DINOSAURS

> SALTASAURUS Group: Saltasauridae Length: 40 ft (12.2 m)

TOROSAURUS Group: Ceratopsidae Length: 25 ft (7.6 m) HYPSILOPHODON Group: Ornithopoda Length: 4 ft 6 in–7 ft 6 in (1.4–2.3 m)



73

Tertiary period

FOLLOWING THE DEMISE OF THE DINOSAURS at the end of the Cretaceous period, the Tertiary period (65–1.6 million years ago), which formed the first part of the Cenozoic era (65 million years ago-present), was characterized by a huge expansion of mammal life. Placental mammals nourish and maintain the young in the mother's uterus; only a few groups of placental mammals existed during Cretaceous times, compared with a few dozen during the Tertiary period. One of these included the first hominid (see pp.108–109). Ardipithecus, which appeared in Africa. By the beginning of the Tertiary period, the continents had almost reached their present position. The Tethys Sea, which had separated the northern continents from Africa and India, began to close up, forming the Mediterranean Sea and allowing the migration of terrestrial animals between Africa and western Europe. India's South America collision with Asia led to the formation of the Himalayas. During the middle part of the Tertiary period, the forest-dwelling and browsing mammals were replaced by mammals such as the horses, better suited to grazing the open savannahs that began to dominate. Repeated cool periods throughout the Tertiary period established the Antarctic as an icy island continent.

TERTIARY POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES

e Cretaceous rmed the first aracterized sh and f South America South Africa Morth Europe Asia Asia Antarctica

EXAMPLES OF TERTIARY PLANT GROUPS



A PRESENT-DAY OAK (Quercus palustris)



A PRESENT-DAY BIRCH (Betula grossa)



FOSSIL LEAF OF AN EXTINCT BIRCH (Betulites sp.)



FOSSILIZED STEM OF AN EXTINCT PALM (Palmoxylon sp.)

EXAMPLES OF TERTIARY ANIMAL GROUPS



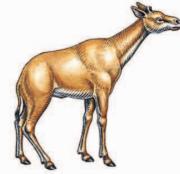
HYAENODON Group: Hyaenodontidae Length: 6 ft 6 in (2 m)



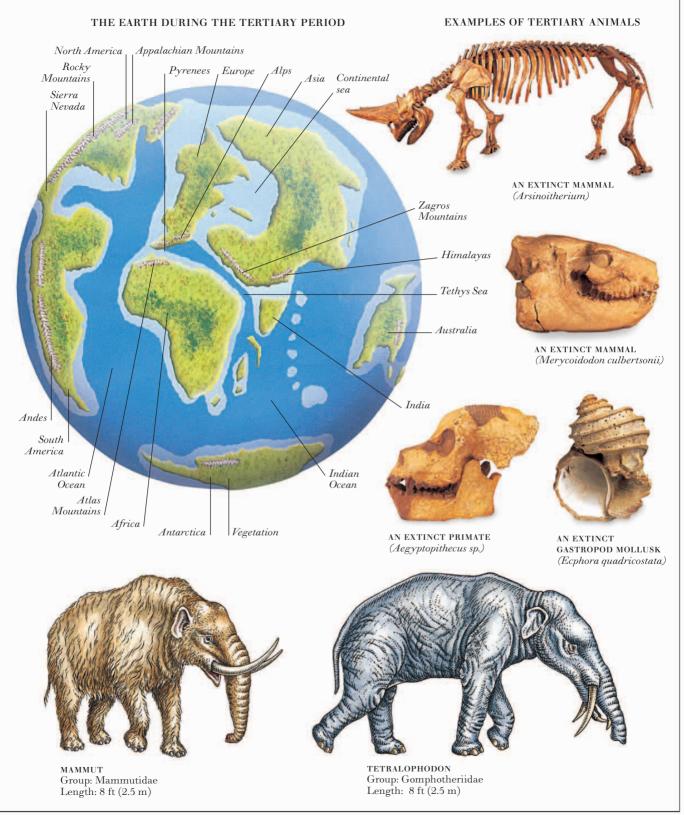
TITANOHYRAX Group: Pliohyracidae Length: 6 ft 6 in (2 m)



PHORUSRHACOS Group: Phorusrhacidae Length: 5 ft (1.5 m)



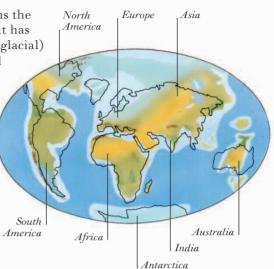
SAMOTHERIUM Group: Giraffidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)



Quaternary period

THE OUATERNARY PERIOD (1.6 million years ago-present) forms the second part of the Cenozoic era (65 million years ago-present): it has been characterized by alternating cold (glacial) and warm (interglacial) periods. During cold periods, ice sheets and glaciers have formed repeatedly on northern and southern continents. The cold environments in North America and Eurasia, and to a lesser extent in southern South America and parts of Australia, have caused the migration of many life-forms toward the Equator. Only the specialized ice age mammals such as Mammuthus and Coelodonta, with their thick wool and fat insulation, were suited to life in very cold climates. Humans developed throughout the Pleistocene period (1.6 million-10,000 years ago) in Africa and migrated northward into Europe and Asia. Modern humans, Homo sapiens, lived on the cold European continent 30,000 years ago and hunted other mammals. The end of the last ice age and the climatic changes that occurred about 10,000 years ago brought extinction to many Pleistocene mammals, but enabled humans to flourish.

QUATERNARY POSITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY LANDMASSES



EXAMPLES OF QUATERNARY PLANT GROUPS



A PRESENT-DAY BIRCH (Betula lenta)



A PRESENT-DAY SWEEETGUM (Liquidambar styraciflua)



FOSSIL LEAF OF A SWEETGUM (Liquidambar europeanum)



FOSSIL LEAF OF A BIRCH (Betula sp.)

EXAMPLES OF QUATERNARY ANIMAL GROUPS



PROCOPTODON Group: Macropodidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)



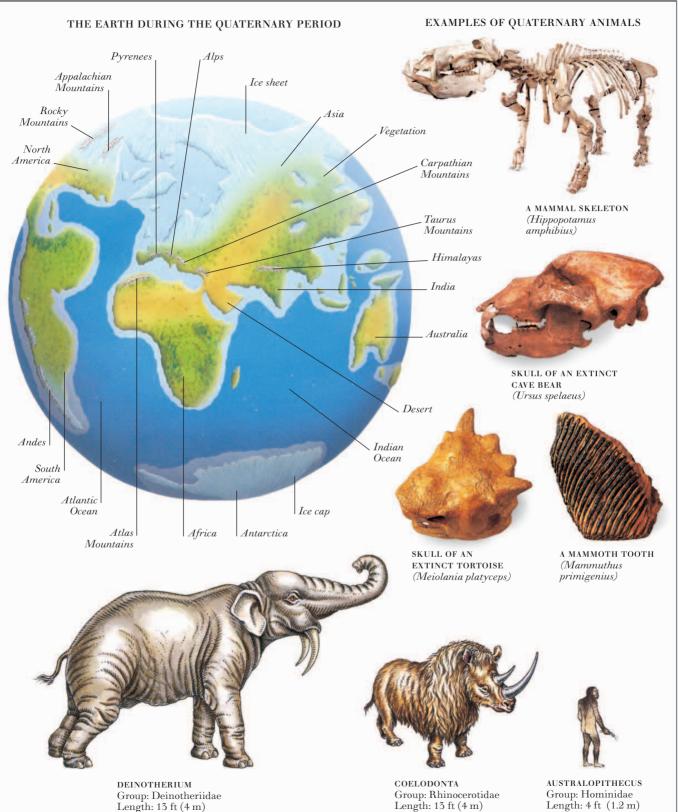
DIPROTODON Group: Diprotodontidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)



TOXODON Group: Toxodontidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)



MAMMUTHUS Group: Elephantidae Length: 10 ft (3 m)



77

Early signs of life

FOR ALMOST A THOUSAND MILLION YEARS after its formation, there was no known life on Earth. The first simple, sea-dwelling organic structures appeared about 3.5 billion years ago; they may have formed when certain chemical molecules joined together. Prokaryotes, single-celled microorganisms such as blue-green algae, were able to photosynthesize (see pp. 138-139), and thus produce oxygen. A thousand million years later, sufficient oxygen had built up in the Earth's atmosphere to allow multicellular organisms to proliferate in the Precambrian seas (before 570 million years ago). Soft-bodied jellyfish, corals, and seaworms flourished about 700 million years ago. Trilobites, the first animals with hard body frames, developed during the Cambrian period (570-510 million years ago). However, it was not until the beginning of the Devonian period (409–363 million years ago) that early land plants, such as Asteroxylon, formed a waterretaining cuticle, which ended their dependence on an aquatic environment. About 360 million years ago, the first amphibians (see pp. 80-81) crawled onto the land, although they probably still returned to the water to lay their soft eggs. By the time the first reptiles and synapsids appeared late in the Carboniferous, animals with backbones had become fully independent of water.

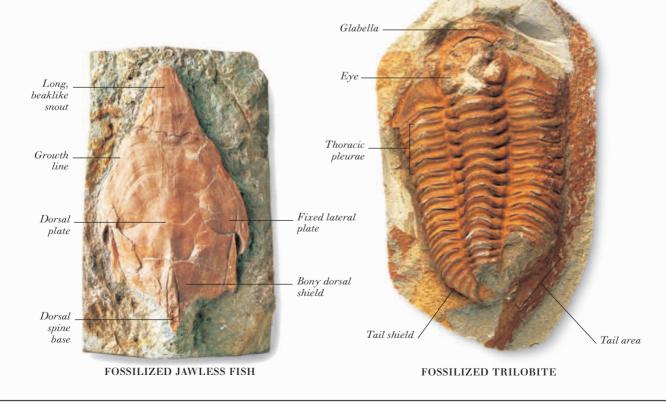
STROMATOLITIC LIMESTONE

Layered structure

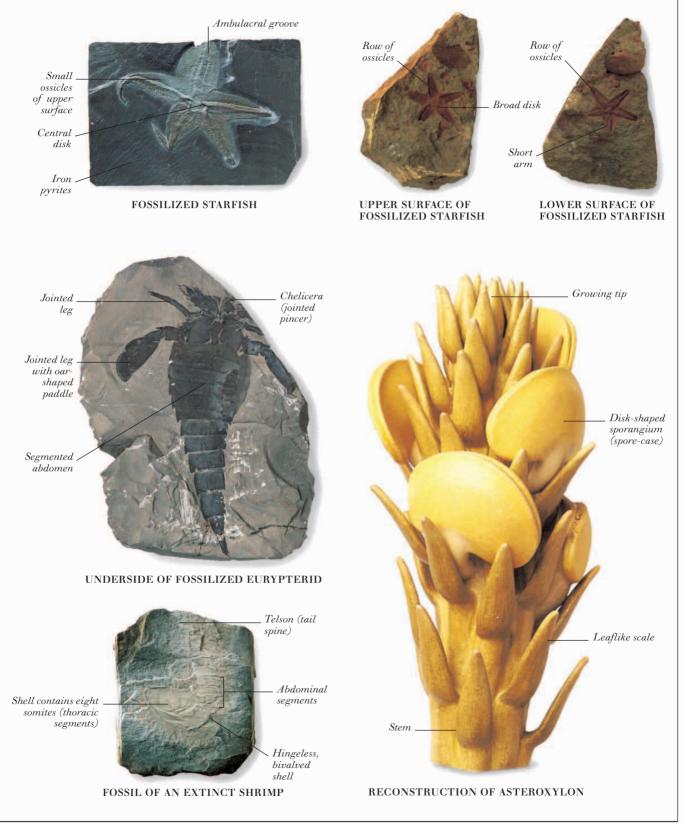
1lternate layers of mud and sand Lavers bound

by algae

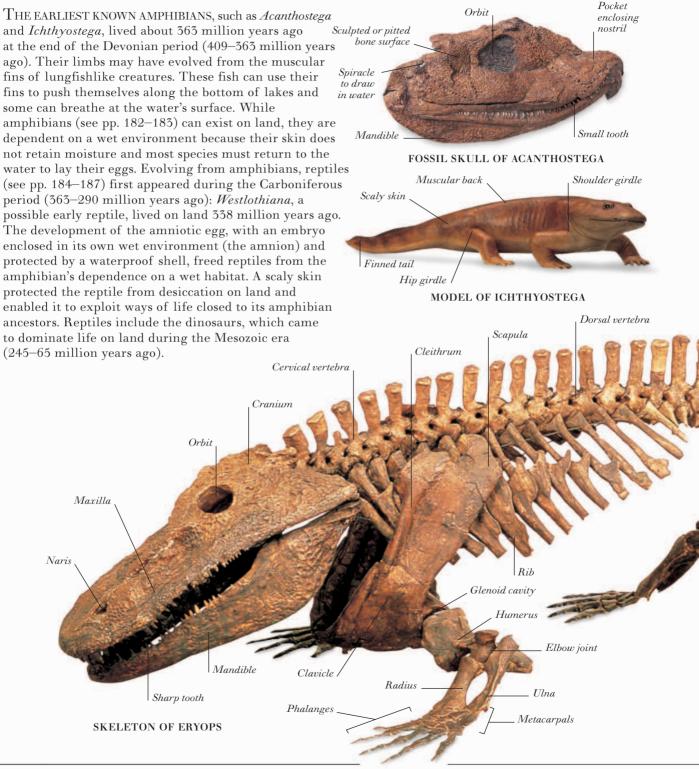


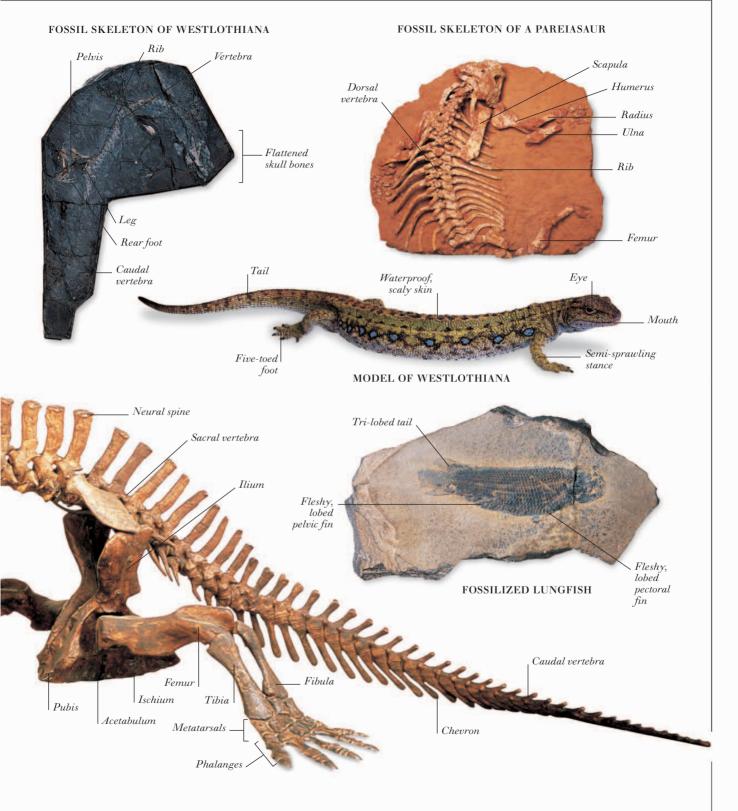


EARLY SIGNS OF LIFE



Amphibians and reptiles





The dinosaurs

THE DINOSAURS WERE A LARGE GROUP of reptiles that were the dominant land vertebrates (animals with Postacetabular backbones) for most of the Mesozoic era (245-65 million years ago). They appeared some 230 million years ago and were distinguished from other scaly, Ilio-ischial joint egg-laving reptiles by an important feature: dinosaurs had an erect limb stance. This enabled them to keep their bodies well above the ground, unlike the sprawling and semisprawling stance of other reptiles. The head of the dinosaur's femur (thighbone) fit into a socket in its GALLIMIMUS pelvis (hip-bone), producing efficient and mobile A saurischian dinosaur locomotion. Dinosaurs are categorized into two groups according to the structure of their pelvis: saurischian (lizard-hipped) and ornithischian (bird-hipped) dinosaurs. In the case of most saurischians, the pubis (part of the pelvis) jutted forward, while in ornithischians it slanted back, parallel to the ischium (another part of STRUCTURE OF

OBNTHISCHIAN PELVIS the pelvis). Dinosaurs ranged in size from smaller than a domestic cat Postacetabular to the biggest land animals ever known. The Dinosauria were the most successful land vertebrates ever, and survived for 165 million years, until most became extinct 65 million years ago.

BAROSAURUS A saurischian dinosaur



ERECT STANCE The thighs and upper arms project straight down from the body so that the knees and elbows are straight.

COMPARISON OF ANIMAL STANCES



SPRAWLING STANCE The thighs and upper arms project straight out from the body so that the knees and elbows are bent at right angles.



The thighs and upper arms project downwards and outwards so that the knees and elbows are slightly bent. COMMON IGUANA

(Iguana iguana) A present-day reptile

> DWARF CROCODILE (Osteolaemus tetraspis) A present-day reptile

POSITION OF PELVIS IN A SAURISCHIAN DINOSAUR Ilium Preacetabular process Ilio-pubic joint

Hook of preacetabular

Pubic foot

process

Ilio-pubic joint

_ Pubis

Acetabulum

Prepubis

Acetabulum

Pubis schium

STRUCTURE OF SAURISCHIAN PELVIS

Ilium

process

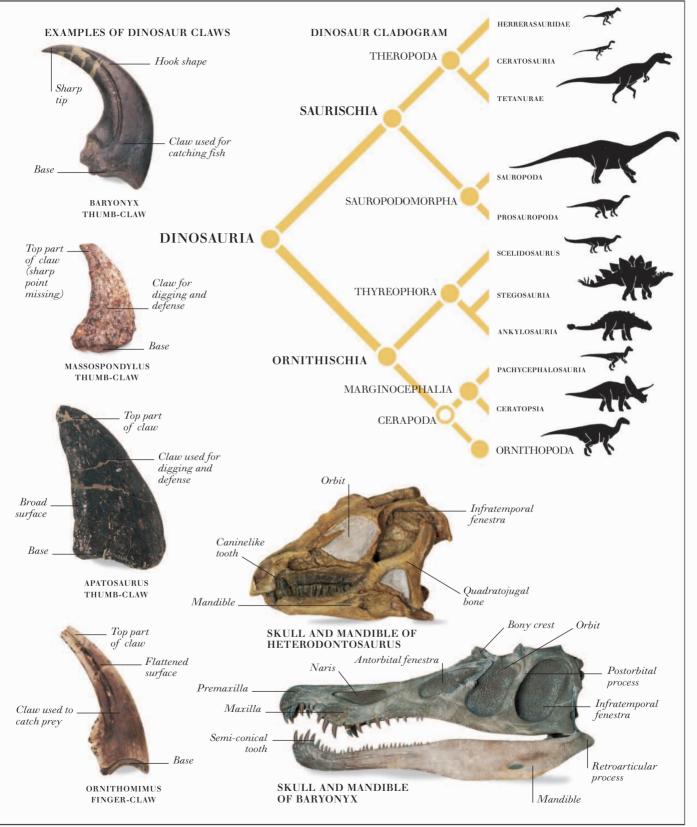
Ischium

HYPSILOPHODON An ornithischian dinosaur

process

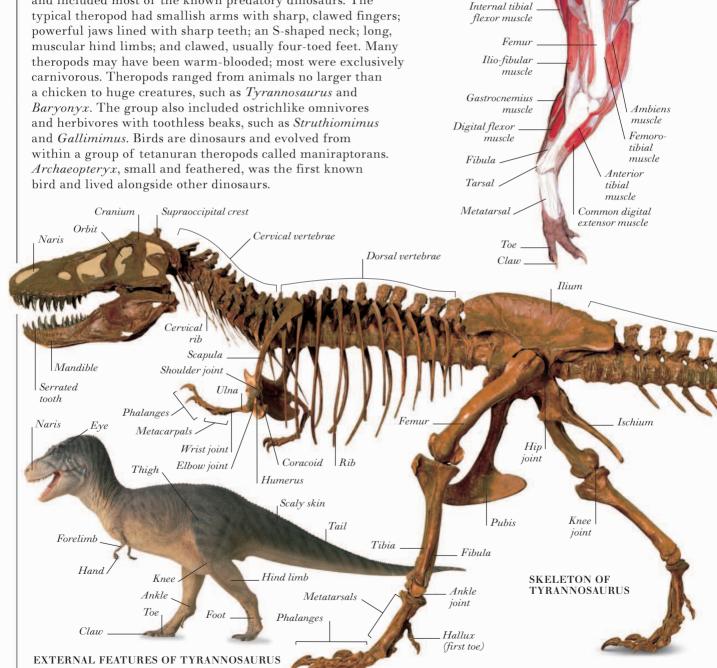
Ilio-ischial joint

POSITION OF PELVIS IN AN ORNITHISCHIAN DINOSAUR



Theropods 1

AN ENORMOUSLY SUCCESSFUL SUBGROUP of the Saurischia. the bipedal (two-footed) theropods ("beast feet") emerged 230 million years ago in Late Triassic times; the oldest known example comes from South America. Theropods spanned the age of most dinosaurs (230-65 million years ago) and beyond, and included most of the known predatory dinosaurs. The typical theropod had smallish arms with sharp, clawed fingers; powerful jaws lined with sharp teeth; an S-shaped neck; long, muscular hind limbs; and clawed, usually four-toed feet. Many theropods may have been warm-blooded; most were exclusively carnivorous. Theropods ranged from animals no larger than a chicken to huge creatures, such as Tyrannosaurus and Baryonyx. The group also included ostrichlike omnivores and herbivores with toothless beaks, such as Struthiomimus and Gallimimus. Birds are dinosaurs and evolved from within a group of tetanuran theropods called maniraptorans. Archaeopteryx, small and feathered, was the first known bird and lived alongside other dinosaurs.



Ilio-tibial muscle

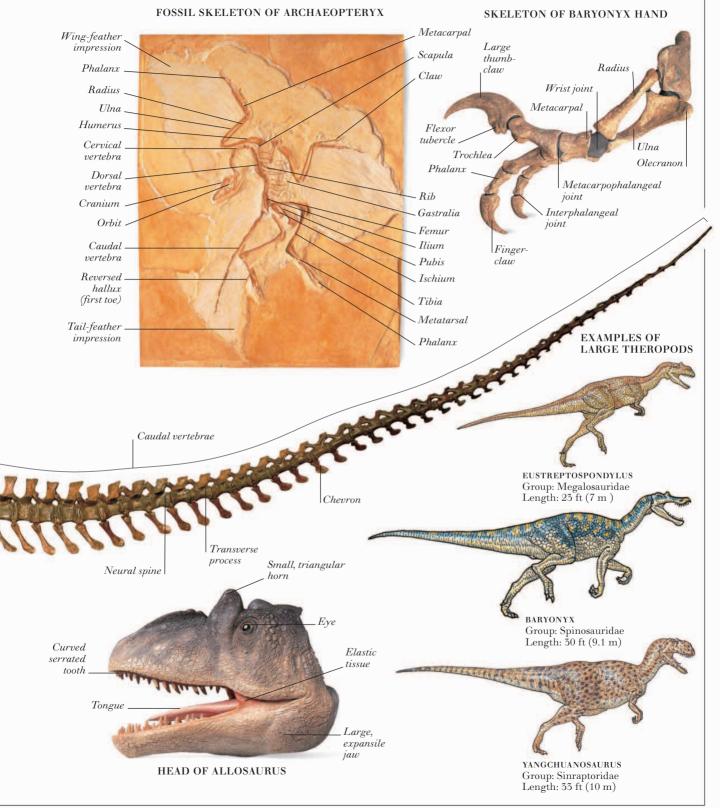
Ilio-femoral muscle

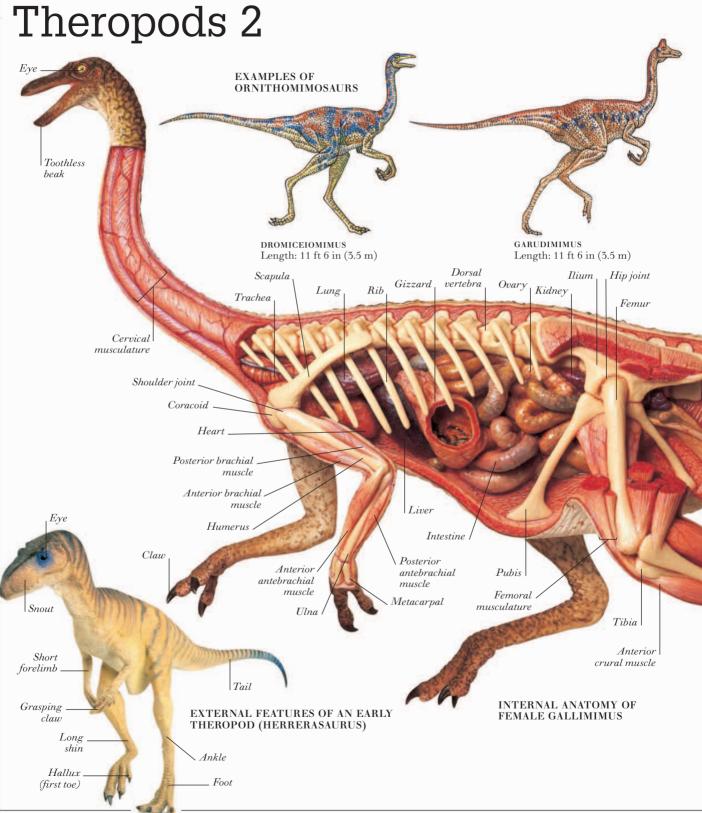
INTERNAL ANATOMY OF

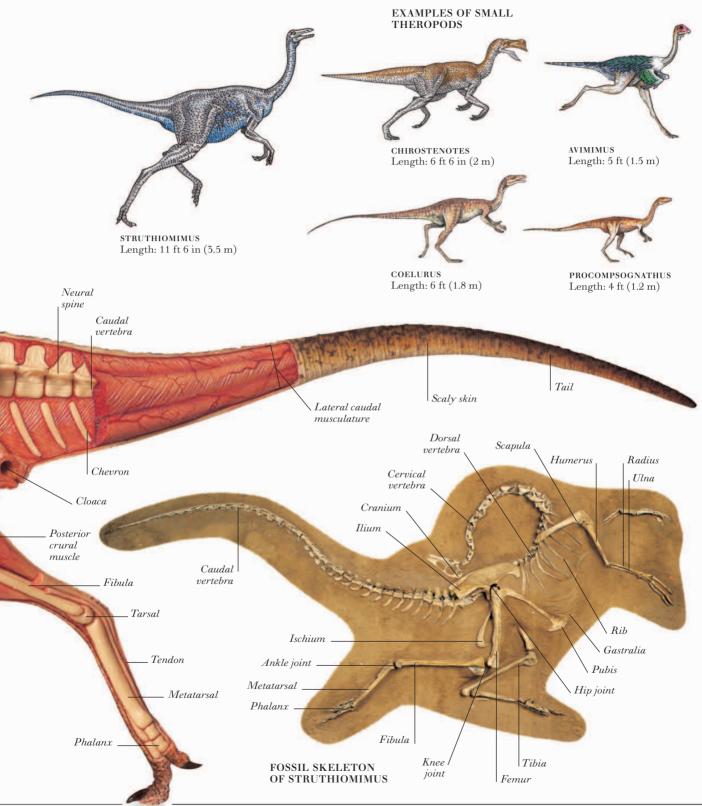
Femoro-tibial

muscle

ALBERTOSAURUS LEG







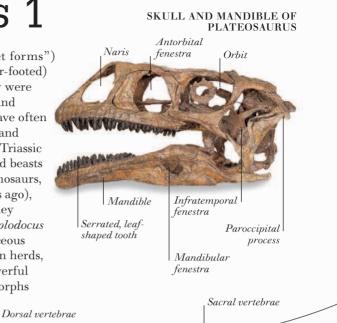
PREHISTORIC EARTH

Sauropodomorphs 1

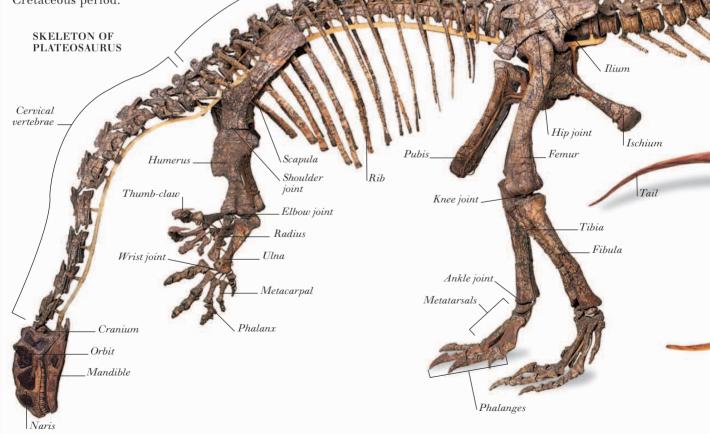
THE SAUROPODOMORPHA ("lizard-feet forms") were herbivorous, usually quadrupedal (four-footed) dinosaurs. A suborder of the Saurischia, they were characterized by small heads, bulky bodies, and long necks and tails. Sauropodomorphs have often been split into two groups: prosauropods and sauropods. Prosauropods lived from Late Triassic

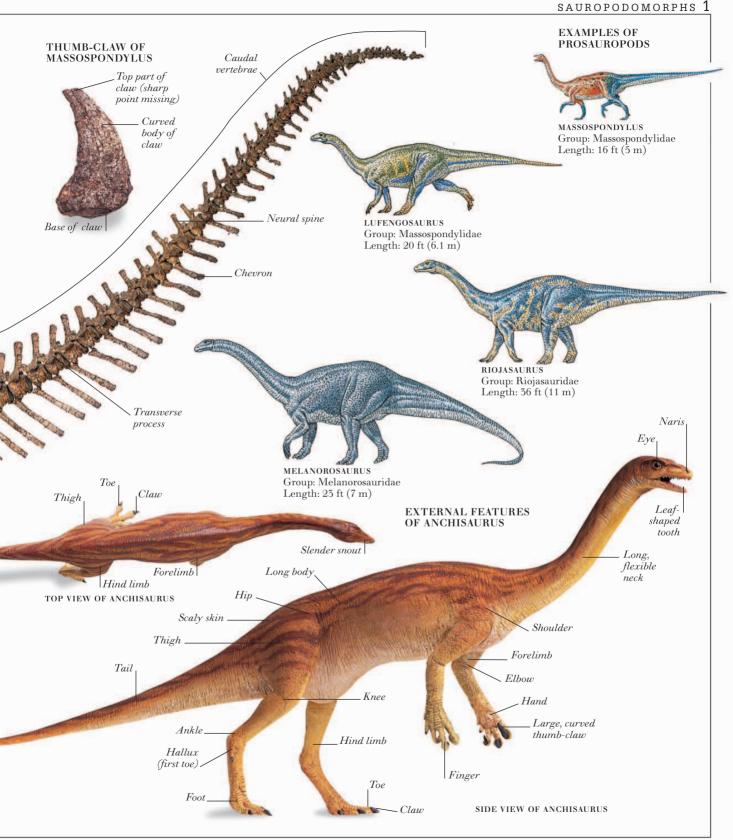
THECODONTOSAURUS

to Early Jurassic times (225–180 million years ago) and included beasts such as the small *Anchisaurus* and one of the first very large dinosaurs, *Plateosaurus*. By Middle Jurassic times (about 165 million years ago), sauropods had replaced prosauropods and spread worldwide. They included the heaviest and longest land animals ever, such as *Diplodocus* and *Brachiosaurus*. Sauropods persisted to the end of the Cretaceous period (65 million years ago). Many of these dinosaurs moved in herds, protected from predatory theropods by their huge bulk and powerful tails, which they could use to lash out at attackers. Sauropodomorphs were the most common large herbivores until Late Jurassic times (about 145 million years ago), and appear to have survived in both southern and northern continents until the end of the



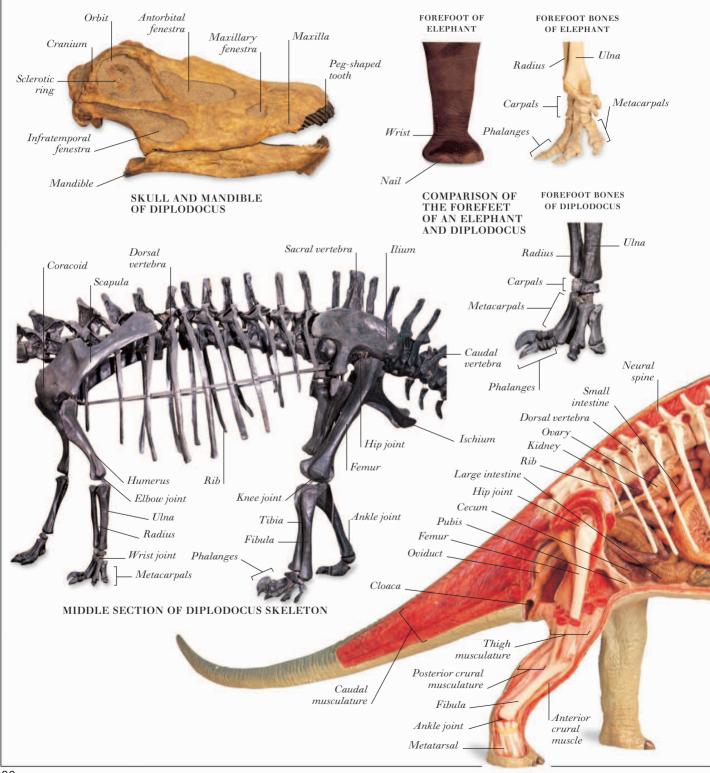
Cretaceous period.



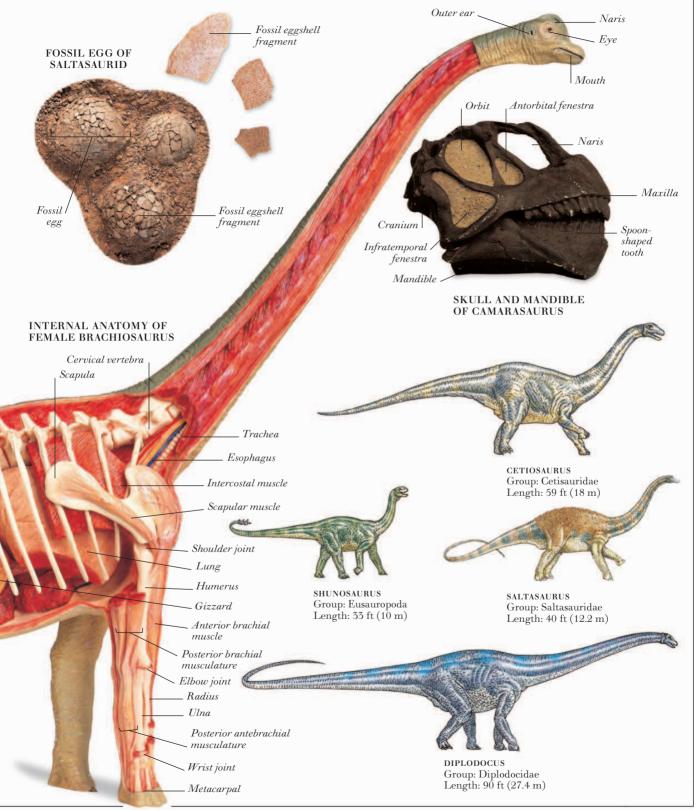


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PREHISTORIC EARTH
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Sauropodomorphs 2



sauropodomorphs 2



Thyreophorans 1

THYREOPHORANS ("SHIELD BEARERS") were a group of quadrupedal armored dinosaurs. They were one clade among several within the Ornithischia (bird-hipped dinosaurs), they were characterized by rows of bony studs, plates, or spikes along the back, which protected some from predators and may have helped others regulate body temperature. Up to 30 ft (9 m) long, with a small head and small cheek teeth, thyreophorans had shorter forelimbs than hind limbs and probably browsed on low-level vegetation. The earliest thyreophorans were small and lived in Early Jurassic times (about 200 million years ago) in Europe, North America, and China. Stegosaurs, such as Stegosaurus and Kentrosaurus, replaced these older forms. The earliest stegosaur remains come mainly from China. Several genera of stegosaurs survived into the Early Cretaceous period (145–100 million years ago). Ankylosaurs, with a combination of beak and teeth in close proximity, and cheek teeth adapted for cropping vegetation, appeared at the same time as stegosaurs. They originated in the Late Jurassic period (155 million years ago) and in North America survived until 65 million years ago. Cervical plate Eye

TUOJIANGOSAURUS Group: Stegosauridae Length: 23 ft (7 m)

Dorsal plate

Hip

Thigh

Hind foot

Knee

Elbow

Wrist

Forefoot

Long

hind limb

Ankle

Shoulder

Naris

Beak

Outer ear

Cheek

EXTERNAL FEATURES OF

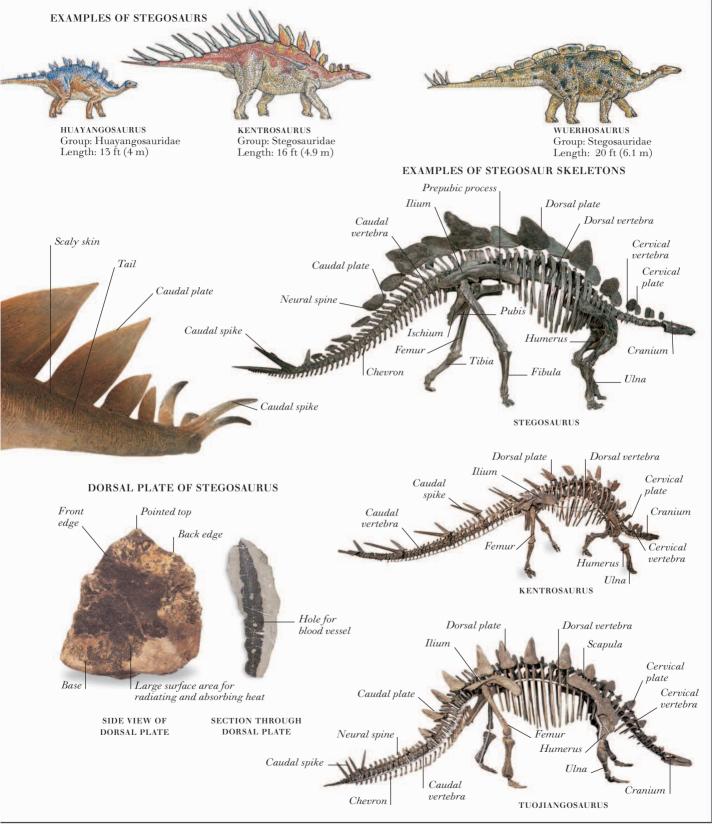
STEGOSAURUS

Neck

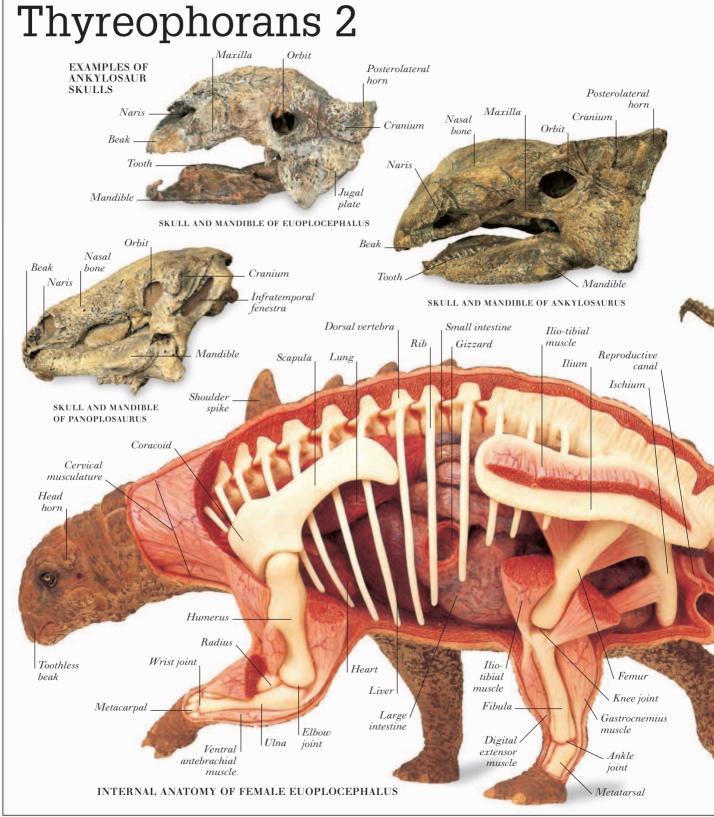
Short forelimb

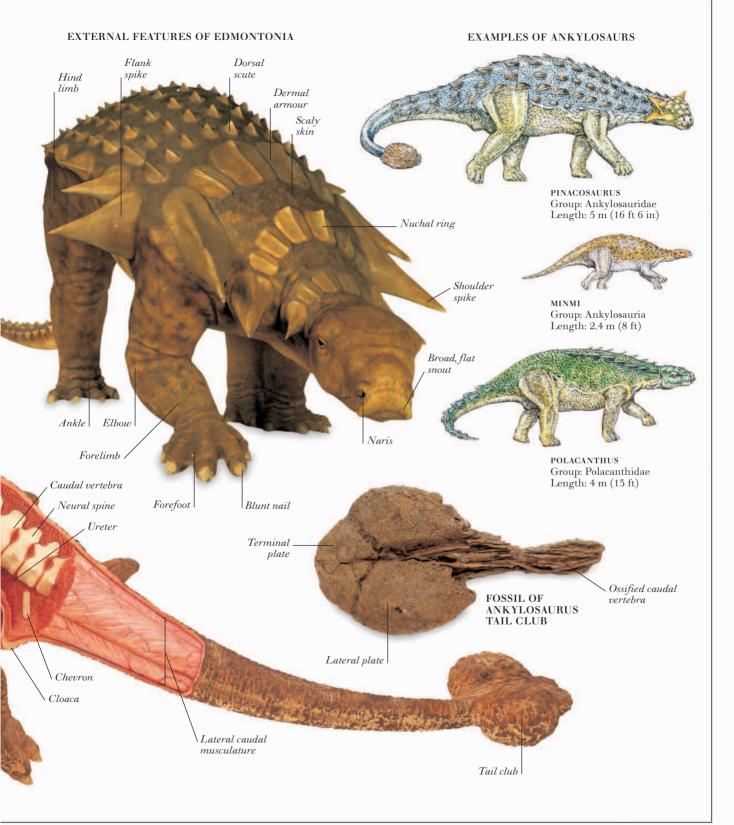
Nail

Nai



PREHISTORIC EARTH





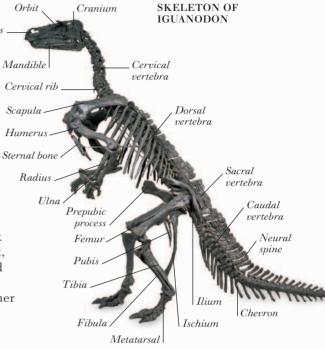
Ornithopods 1



ORNITHOPODS ("BIRD FEET") were a group of ornithischian ("bird-hipped") dinosaurs. These bipedal and quadrupedal herbivores had a horny beak, plant-cutting or grinding cheek teeth, and a pelvic and tail region stiffened by bony tendons. They evolved teeth and jaws adapted to pulping vegetation and flourished from the Middle Jurassic to the Late

IGUANODON TOOTH

Cretaceous period (165–65 million years ago) in North America, Europe, Africa, China, Australia, and Antarctica. Some ornithopods were no larger than a dog, while others were immense creatures up to 49 ft (15 m) long. Iguanodonts, an ornithopod group, had a broad, toothless beak at the end of a long snout, large jaws with long rows of ridged, closely packed teeth for grinding vegetation, a bulky body, and a heavy tail. *Iguanodon* and some other iguanodonts had large thumb-spikes that were strong enough to stab attackers. Another group, the hadrosaurs, such as *Gryposaurus* and *Hadrosaurus*, lived in Late Cretaceous times (97–65 million years ago) and with their broad beaks are sometimes known as "duckbills." They were characterized by their deep skulls and closely packed rows of teeth, while some, such as *Corythosaurus* and *Lambeosaurus*, had tall, hollow, bony head crests.



Thigh

EXTERNAL FEATURES OF MANTELLISAURUS



Naris -

SKULL AND MANDIBLE OF YOUNG MANTELLISAURUS Maxilla Premaxilla Premaxilla

Dentary

hone

Predentary

hone

Paroccipital process Jugal bone - Coronoid process

Mandible

Knee -

Hind limb .

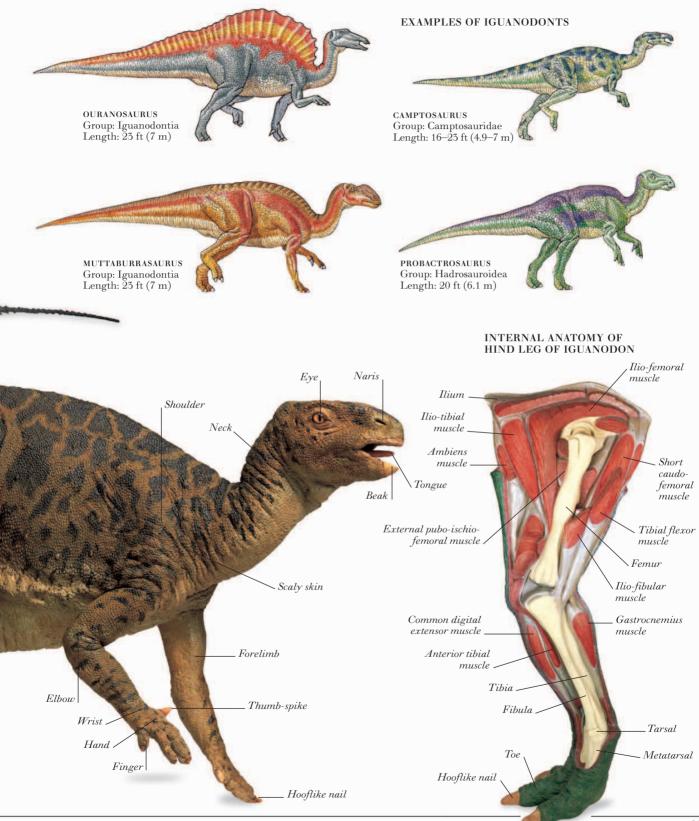
Ankle_

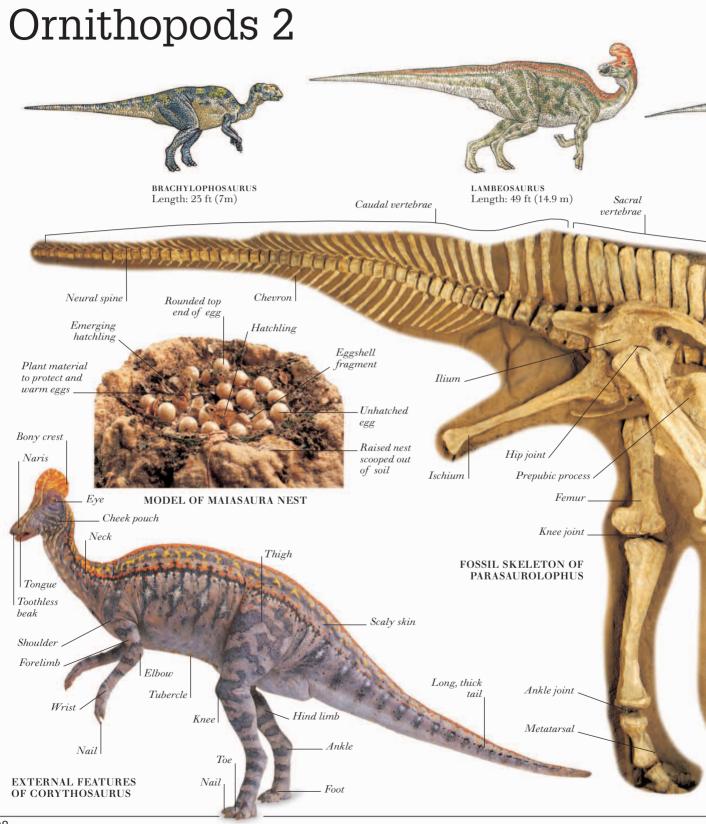
Foot _____

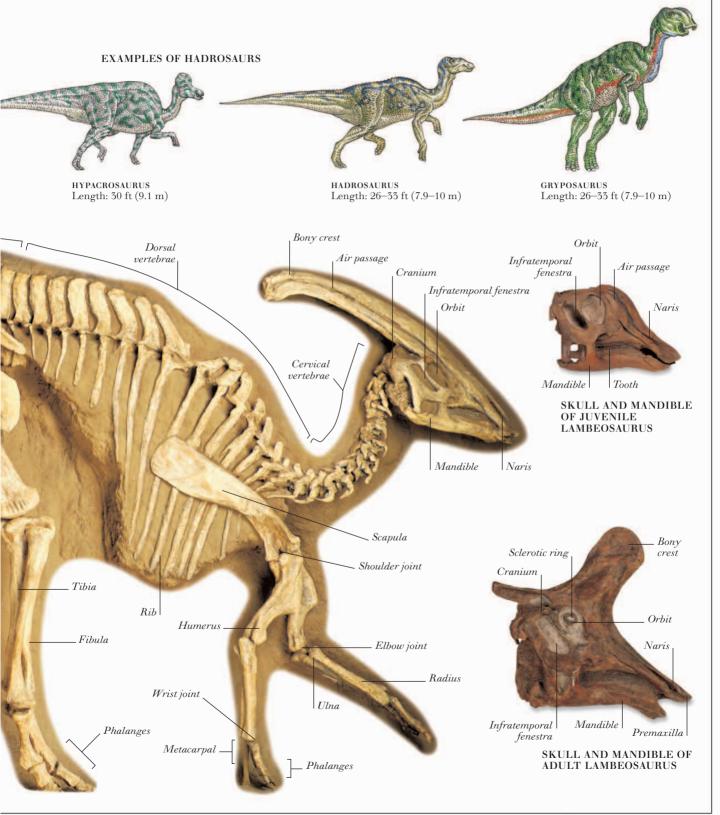
Hooflike nail

Toe

96





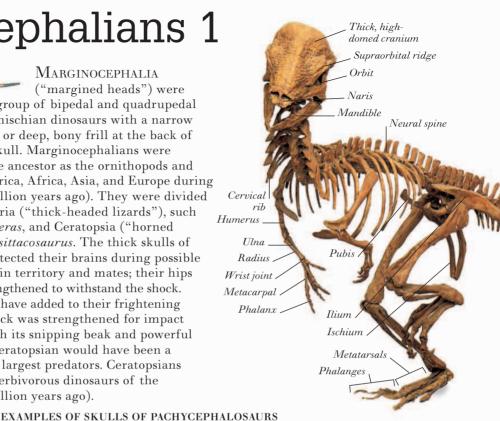


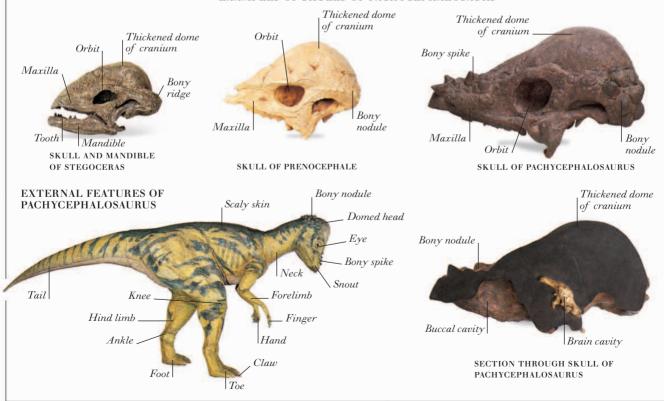
Marginocephalians 1

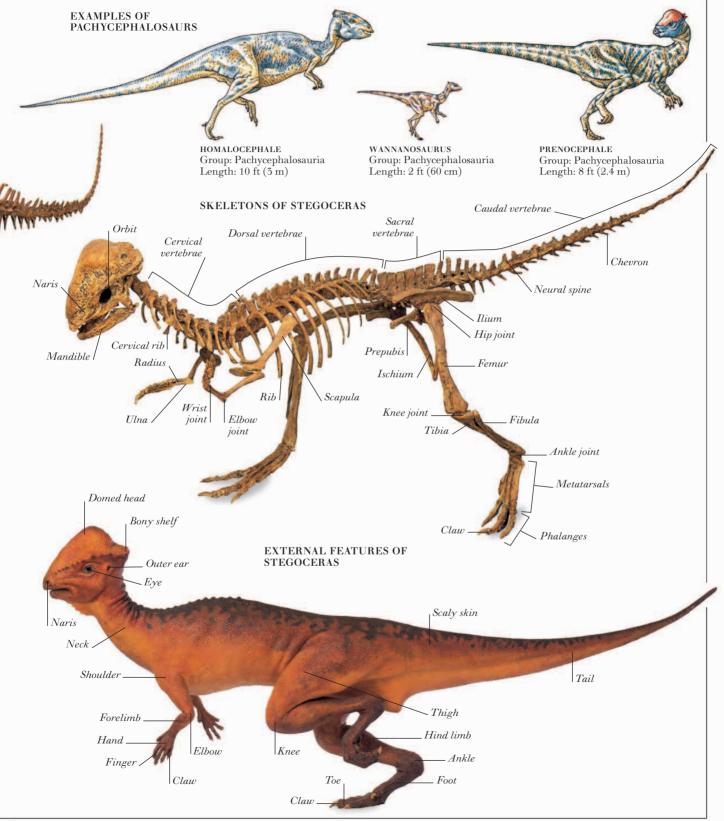
Marginocephalia ("margined heads") were a group of bipedal and quadrupedal ornithischian dinosaurs with a narrow shelf or deep, bony frill at the back of the skull. Marginocephalians were

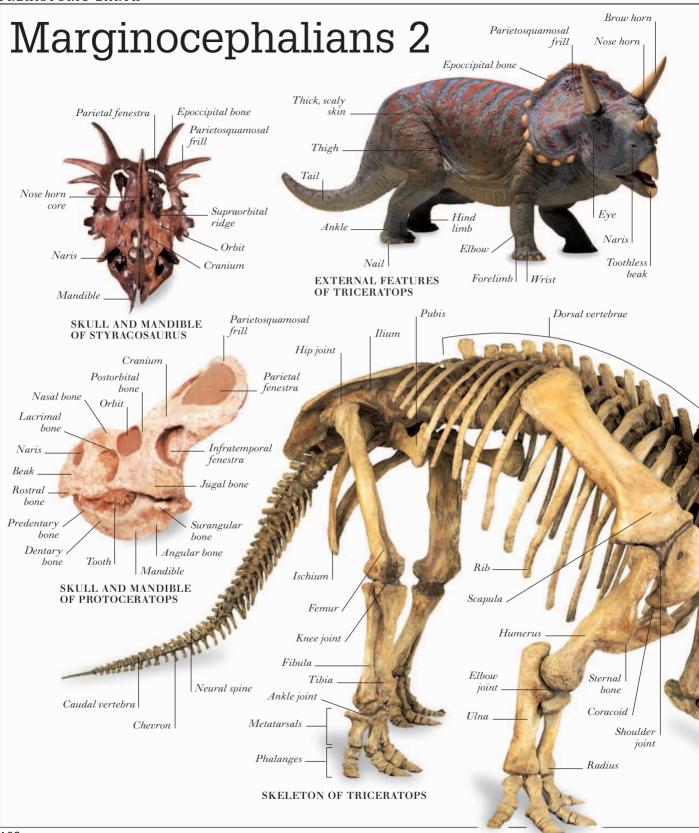
HEAD-BUTTING PRENOCEPHALES

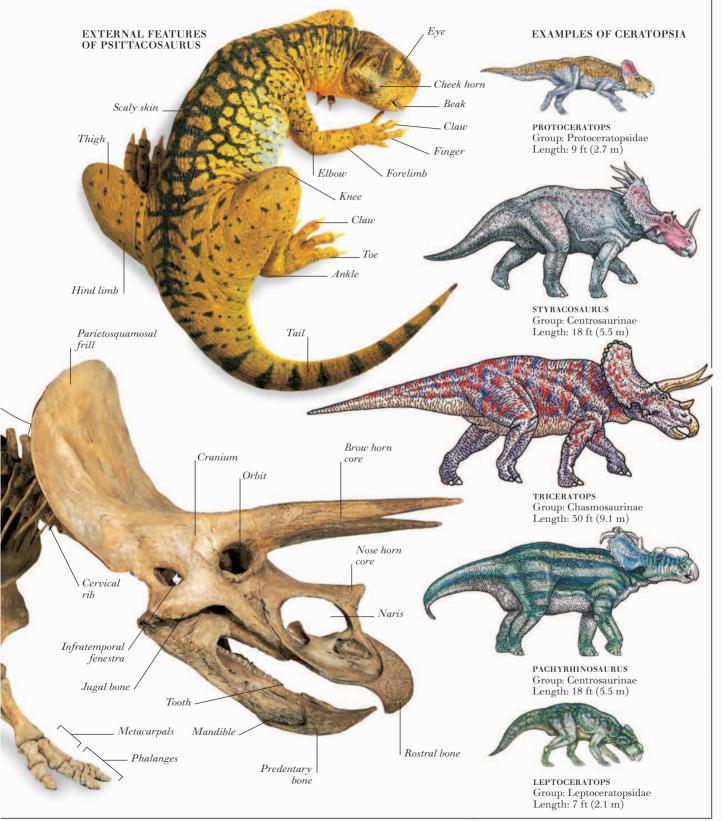
probably descended from the same ancestor as the ornithopods and lived in what are now North America, Africa, Asia, and Europe during the Cretaceous period (145-65 million years ago). They were divided into two groups: Pachycephalosauria ("thick-headed lizards"), such as Pachycephalosaurus and Stegoceras, and Ceratopsia ("horned faces"), such as Triceratops and Psittacosaurus. The thick skulls of Pachycephalosauria may have protected their brains during possible head-butting contests fought to win territory and mates; their hips and spines may also have been strengthened to withstand the shock. The bony frill of Ceratopsia would have added to their frightening appearance when charging; the neck was strengthened for impact and to support the huge head, with its snipping beak and powerful slicing toothed jaws. A charging ceratopsian would have been a formidable opponent for even the largest predators. Ceratopsians were among the most abundant herbivorous dinosaurs of the Late Cretaceous period (97-65 million years ago).











Mammals 1



TETRALOPHODON CHEEK TEETH

SINCE THE EXTINCTION of most of the dinosaurs 65 million years ago, mammals (along with birds) have been the dominant vertebrates on land. This class includes terrestrial, aerial, and aquatic forms. Having developed from the therapsids, the first true mammalssmall, nocturnal, shrewlike creatures, such as Megazostrodonappeared over 200 million years ago during the Triassic period (250-200 million years ago). Mammals had several

features that differed from those of their ancestors: an efficient Long tail aids four-chambered heart allowed these warm-blooded animals balance to sustain high levels of activity; a covering of hair helped them maintain a constant body temperature; an improved limb structure gave them more efficient locomotion; and the birth of live young and the immediate supply of food from the mother's milk aided their rapid growth. Since the end of the Mesozoic era (65 million years ago), the number of major mammal groups and the abundance of species in each have varied dramatically. For example, the Perissodactyla (the group Scapula that includes *Coelodonta* and modern horses) was a common group during the Early Tertiary period (about 54 million years ago). Cervical vertebra Today, the mammalian groups with the most species include the Rodentia (rats and mice), the Chiroptera (bats), the Primates (monkeys and apes), the Carnivora (bears, cats, and dogs), and the Artiodactyla (cattle, deer, and pigs), while the Proboscidea group, which formerly included many genera, such as Phiomia, Moeritherium, Tetralophodon, and Mammuthus, now has only three species of elephant. In Australia and South America, millions of years of continental isolation led to increased diversity of the marsupials, a group of mammals

distinct from the placentals (see p. 74) that existed elsewhere.

MODEL OF A MEGAZOSTRODON

> Insulating hair

Neural spine

Humerus

Radius

Ulna

Nasal horn

Premaxilla bone

Naris

Mandible

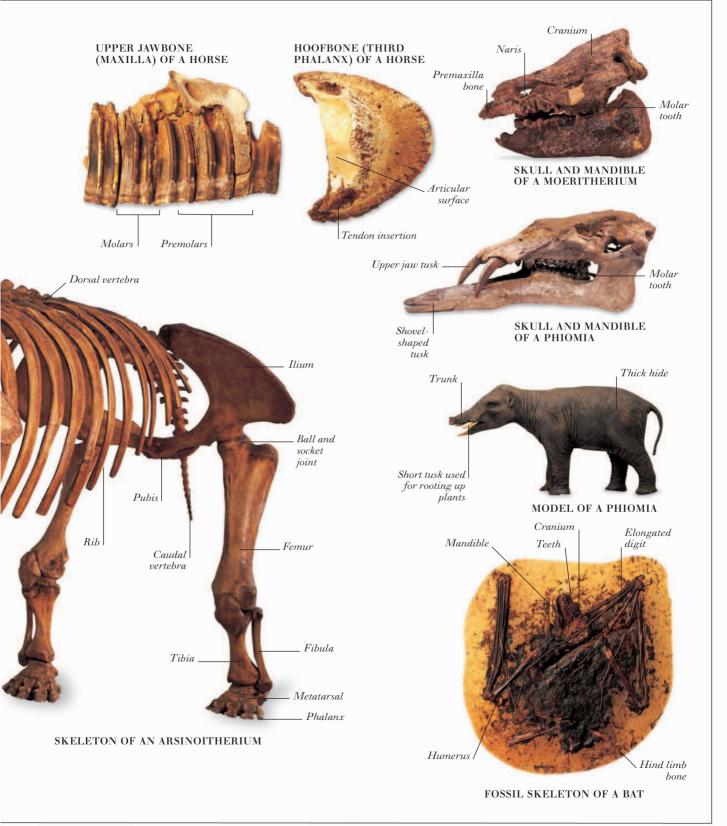
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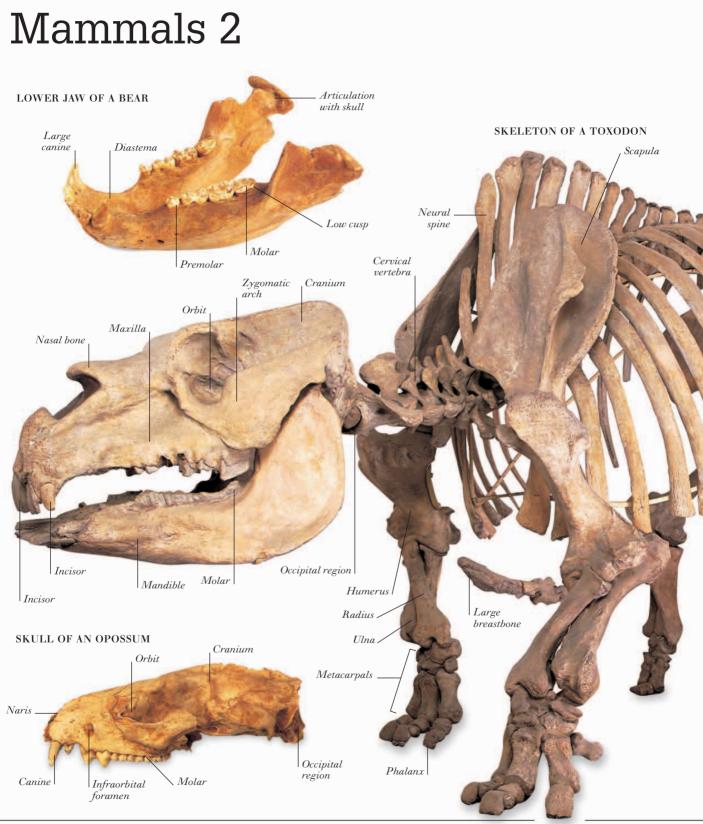
Chisel-edged molar

Metacarpal

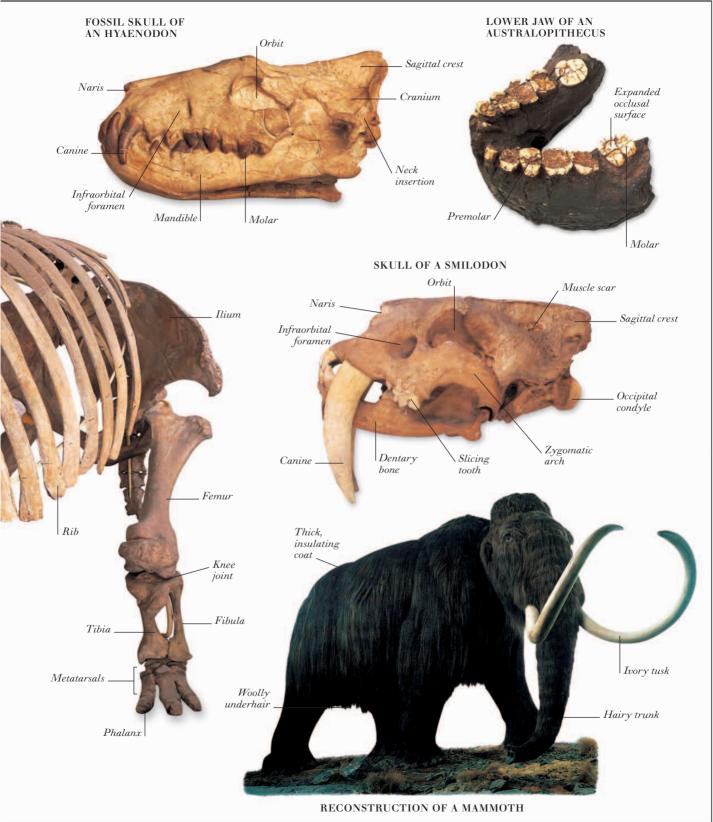
Phalanx _

MAMMALS 1





mammals 2



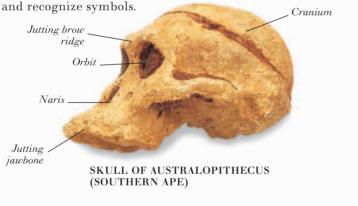
The first humans

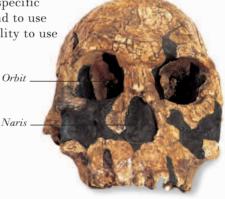
MODERN HUMANS BELONG TO THE MAMMALIAN order of primates (see pp. 202–203), which originated about 55 million years ago; primates included the only extant hominid species. The earliest hominid was Ardipithecus ("ground ape") and Australopithecus ("southern ape"), both small-brained intermediates between apes and humans that were capable of standing and walking upright. Homo habilis, the earliest member of the genus Homo, appeared at least 2 million years ago. This larger-brained "handy man" began making tools for hunting. Homo ergaster first appeared in Africa about 1.8 million years ago and spread into Asia about 800,000 years later. Smaller-toothed than Homo habilis, H. ergaster—followed by Homo erectus—developed fire as a tool, which enabled it to cook food. Neanderthals, a near relative of modern humans, originated about 200.000 years ago, and Homo sapiens (modern humans) appeared in Africa about 100,000 years later. The two coexisted for thousands of years, but by 30,000 years ago, Homo sapiens had become dominant and the Neanderthals had died out. Classification of Homo sapiens in relation to its ancestors is enormously problematic: modern humans must be classified not only by bone structure, but also by specific behavior—the ability to plan future action; to follow traditions; and to use symbolic communication, including complex language and the ability to use

JAWBONE OF AUSTRALOPITHECUS (SOUTHERN APE)

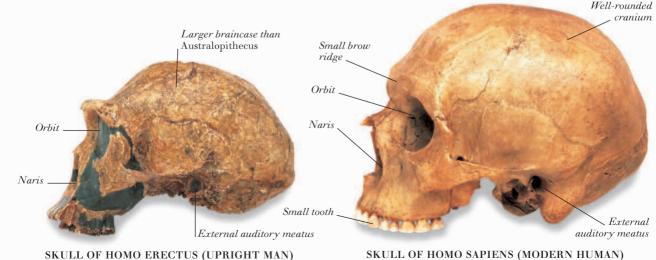
Larger jawbone than modern human

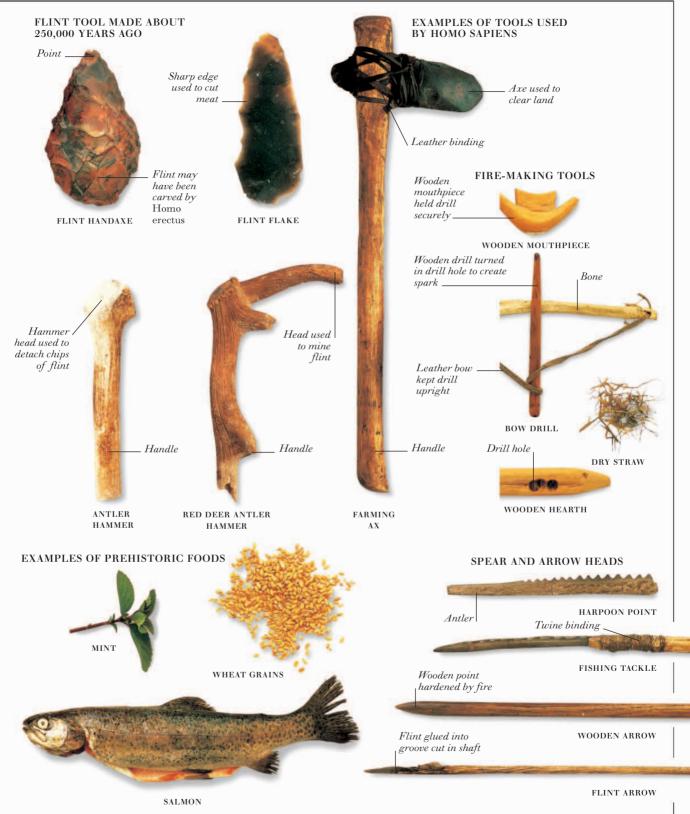
Large back tooth





SKULL OF HOMO HABILIS (FIRST MEMBER OF HOMO GENUS)









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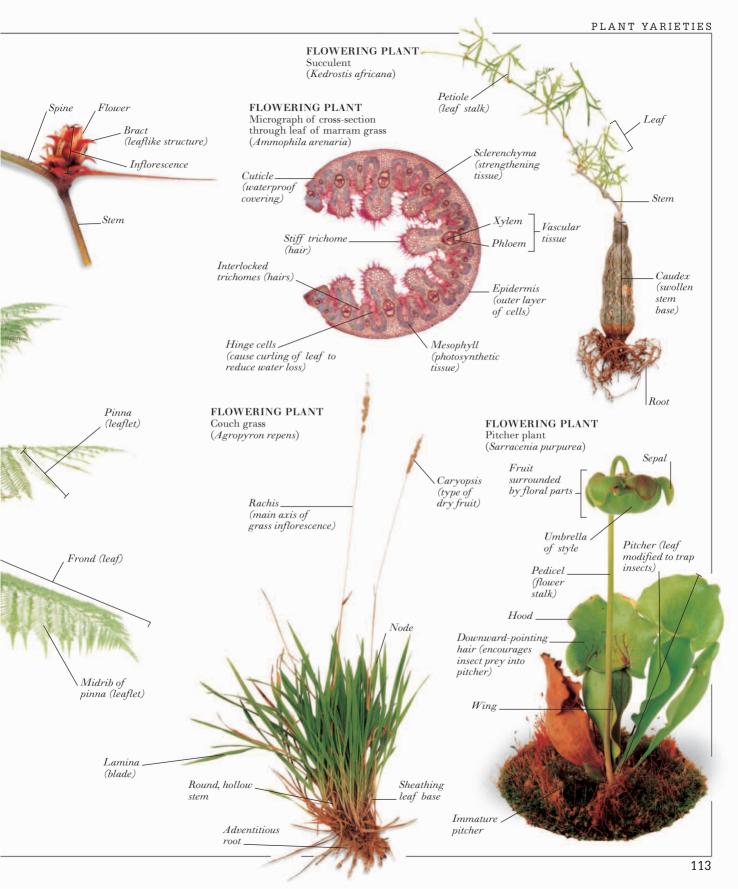
Plant varieties

THERE ARE MORE THAN 300,000 SPECIES of plant.

FLOWERING PLANT Bromeliad (Acanthostachys strobilacea)

Leaf

They show a wide diversity of forms and life-styles, ranging, for example, from delicate liverworts, adapted for life in a damp habitat, to cacti, capable of surviving in the desert, and from herbaceous plants, such as corn, which completes its life-cycle in one year, to the giant redwood tree, which can live for thousands of years. This diversity reflects the adaptations of plants to survive in a wide range of habitats. This is seen most clearly in the flowering plants (phylum Angiospermophyta), which are the most numerous, with over 250,000 species, and the most widespread, being found from the tropics to the poles. Despite their diversity, plants share certain characteristics: typically, plants are green, and make their food by photosynthesis; and most plants live in or on a substrate, such as soil, and do not actively move. Algae (kingdom Protista) and fungi (kingdom Fungi) have some plantlike characteristics and are often studied alongside plants, although they GREEN ALGA are not true plants. Micrograph of desmid (Micrasterias sp.) FERN Tree fern (Dicksonia antarctica) Pyrenoid (small protein bodyChloroplast Sinus Cell wall Rachis (division between (main axis two halves of cell) of pinnate leaf) BRYOPHYTE Petiole. Moss Seta (Bryum sp.) (leaf stalk) (stalk) Immature capsule Ramentum (brown scale) Sporophyte (spore-Base of dead Trunk producing Capsule frond (leaf) plant) (site of spore production) Adventitious root . Gametophyte "Leaf (gamete-producing plant) Epiphytic fern growing at base.



Fungi and lichens

FUNGI WERE ONCE THOUGHT OF AS PLANTS but are now classified as a separate kingdom. This kingdom includes not only the familiar mushrooms, puffballs, stinkhorns, and molds, but also yeasts, smuts, rusts, and lichens. Most fungi are multicellular, consisting of a mass of threadlike hyphae that together form a mycelium. However, the simpler fungi (e.g., yeasts) are microscopic, single-celled organisms. Typically, fungi reproduce by means of spores. Most fungi feed on dead or decaying matter, or on living organisms. A few fungi obtain their food from plants or algae, with which they have a symbiotic (mutually advantageous) relationship. Lichens are a symbiotic partnership between algae and fungi. Of the six types of lichens, the three most common are crustose (flat and crusty), foliose (leafy), and fruticose (shrublike). Some lichens (e.g., *Cladonia floerkeana*)

EXAMPLES OF LICHENS

are a combination of types. Lichens reproduce by means of spores or soredia (powdery vegetative fragments).

> Secondary fruticose thallus

Branched, hollow stem Apothecium (spore-producing body)

FRUTICOSE (spo Cladonia portentosa

> Soredia (powdery vegetative fragments) produced at end of lobe

> > Tree bark Foliose thallus

Sporophore _____ (spore-bearing structure) margin of pileus (cap) Gill (site of spore production)

Inrolled

STINKHORN

structure) OYSTER FUNGUS (Pleurotus pulmonarius)

Sporophore .

(spore-bearing

EXAMPLES OF FUNGI

Emerging

sporophore

(spore-bearing structure)

Pileus (cap)

stipe (stalk)

continuous with

\Hyphae (fungal filaments)

Stipe

(stalk)

Bark

of dead

Ďeech tree

Toothed branchlet

Branch

Sporophore (spore-bearing structure) _____

L

Stipe (stalk).

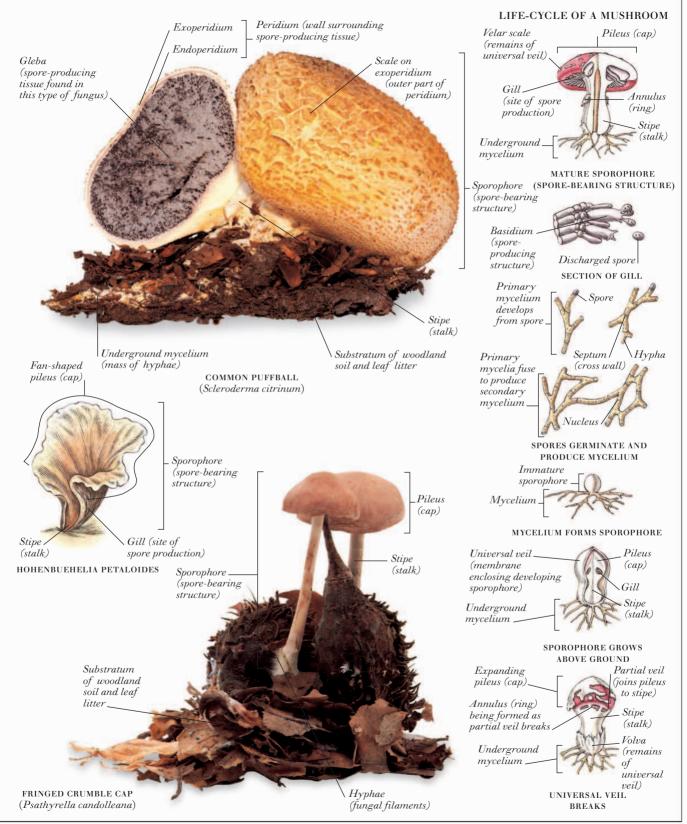
RAMARIA FORMOSA

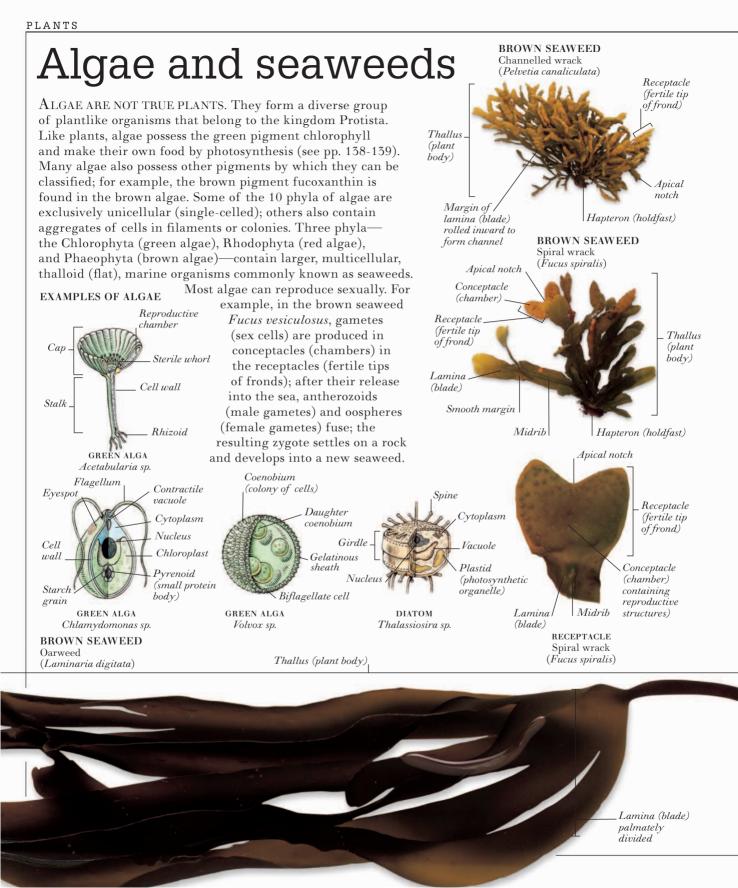
FOLIOSE (Phallus impudicus) Soredium (powdery vegetative Hypogymnia physodes SECTION THROUGH FOLIOSE LICHEN fragment involved in propagation) SHOWING REPRODUCTION Algal cell released from lichen Soredia (powdery vegetative BY SOREDIA fragments) released onto Fungal hypha surface of squamulose Apothecium thallus Upper ispore-producing cortex bodγ) Basal scale Algal of primary layer squamulose thallus Medulla of fungal hyphae (mycelium) Moss Podetium (granular stalk) Soralium Lower SQUAMULOSE (SCALY) of secondary cortex Rhizine . (pore in AND FRUTICOSE THALLUS fruticose thallus (bundle of upper surface Upper surface Cladonia floerkeana absorptive hyphae) of thallus) of thallus

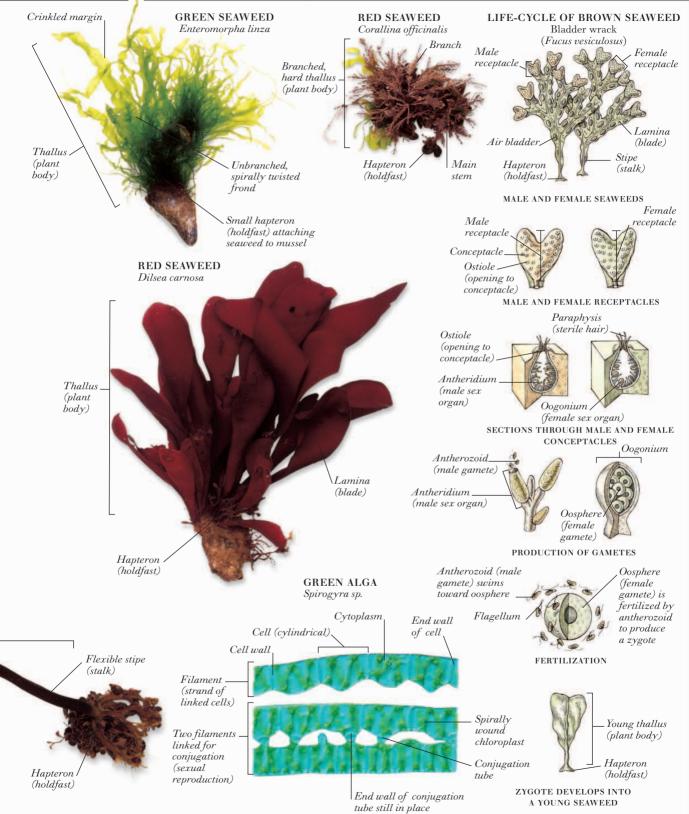
Volva _____ (remains of

veil)

universal





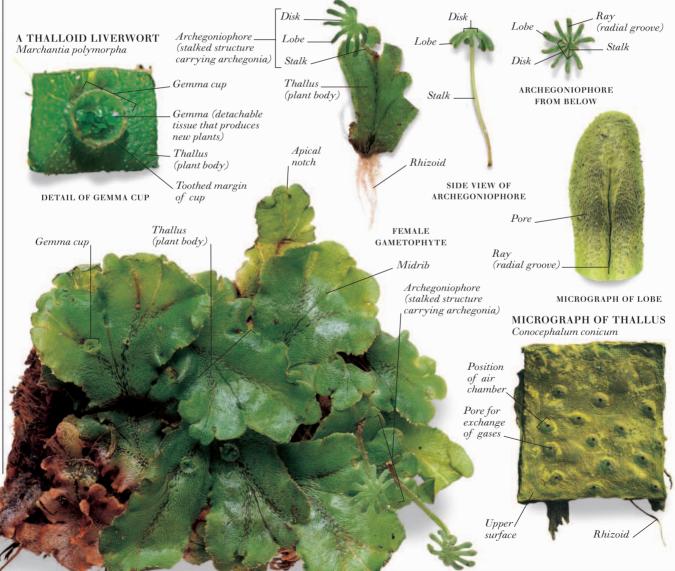


PLANTS

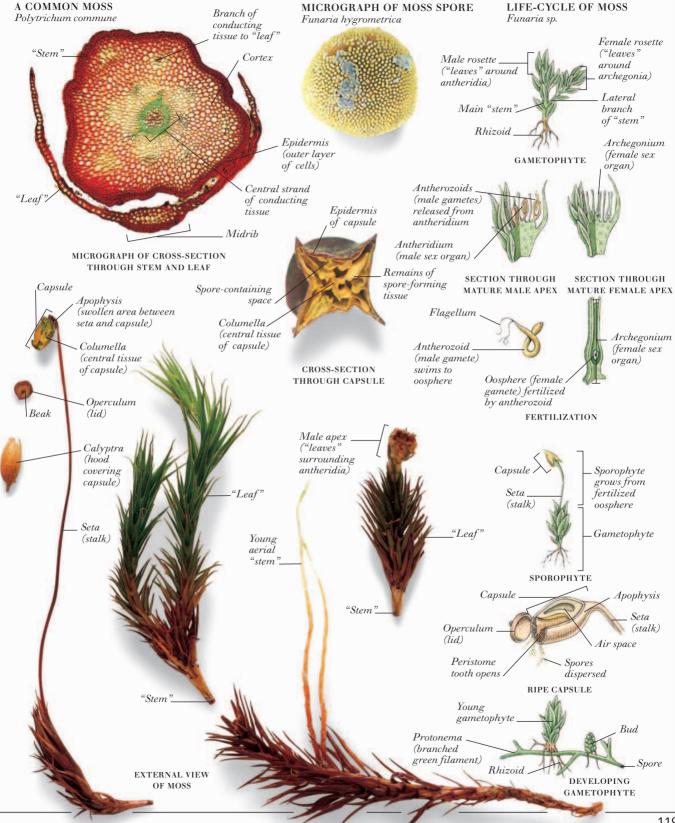
Liverworts and mosses

LIVERWORTS AND MOSSES ARE SMALL, LOW-GROWING PLANTS that belong to the phylum Bryophyta. Bryophytes do not have true stems, leaves, or roots (they are anchored to the ground by rhizoids), nor do they have the vascular tissues (xylem and phloem) that transport water and nutrients in higher plants. With no outer, waterproof cuticle, bryophytes are susceptible to drying out, and most grow in moist habitats. The bryophyte life-cycle has two stages. In stage one, the green plant (gametophyte) produces male and female gametes (sex cells), which fuse to form a zygote. In stage two, the zygote develops into a sporophyte that remains attached to the gametophyte. The sporophyte produces spores, which are released and germinate into new green plants. Liverworts (class Hepaticae) grow horizontally and may be thalloid (flat and ribbonlike) or "leafy." Mosses (class Musci) typically have an upright "stem" with spirally arranged "leaves."





LIVERWORTS AND MOSSES



Horsetails, clubmosses, and ferns

CLUBMOSS Lycopodium sp.

Branch

Stem with spirally

arranged

Strobilus

THROUGH HORSETAIL STEM

leaves.

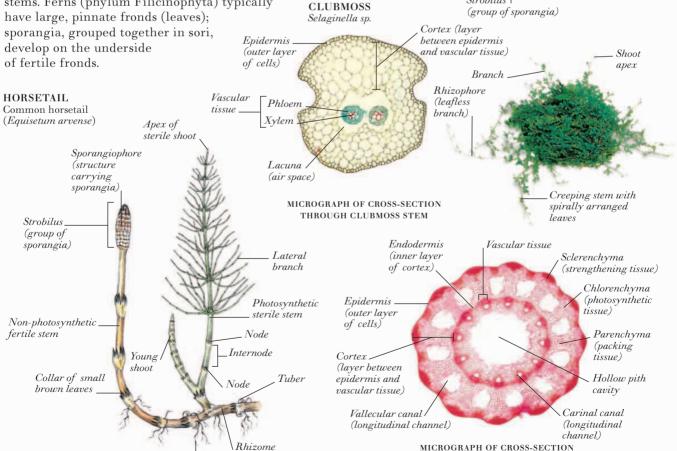
HORSETAILS, CLUBMOSSES, AND FERNS are primitive land plants, which, like higher plants, have stems, roots, and leaves, and vascular systems that transport water, minerals, and food. However, unlike higher plants, they do not produce seeds when reproducing. Their life-cycles involve two stages. In stage one, the sporophyte (green plant) produces spores in sporangia. In stage two, the spores germinate, developing into small, short-lived gametophyte plants that produce male and female gametes (sex cells); the gametes fuse to form a zygote from which a new sporophyte plant develops. Horsetails (phylum Sphenophyta) have erect, green stems with branches arranged in whorls; some stems are fertile and have a single

FROND Male fern (Dryopteris filix-mas)

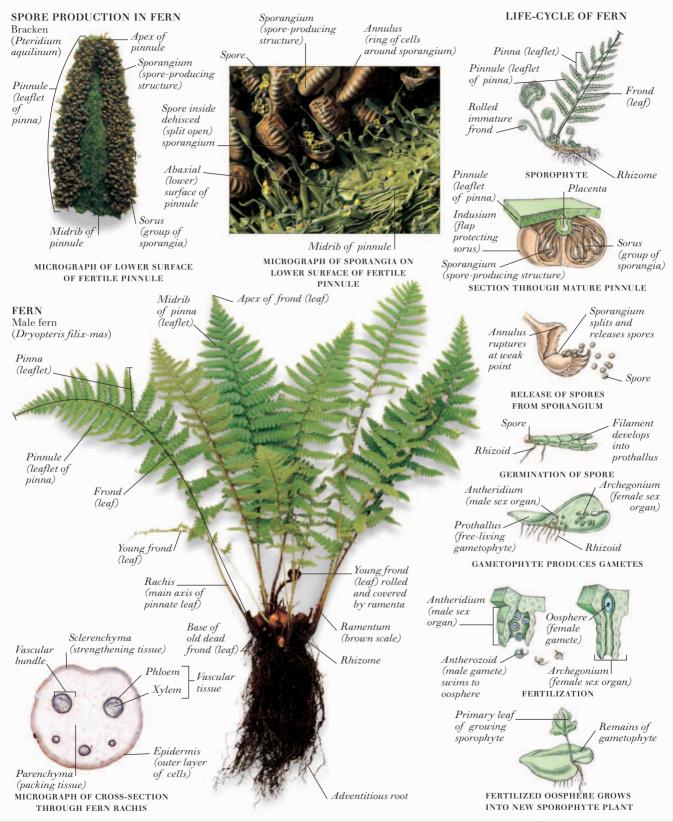
spore-producing strobilus (group of sporangia) at the tip. Clubmosses (phylum Lycopodophyta) typically have small leaves arranged spirally around the stem, with spore-producing strobili at the tip of some stems. Ferns (phylum Filicinophyta) typically

have large, pinnate fronds (leaves); sporangia, grouped together in sori, develop on the underside of fertile fronds.

Adventitious root

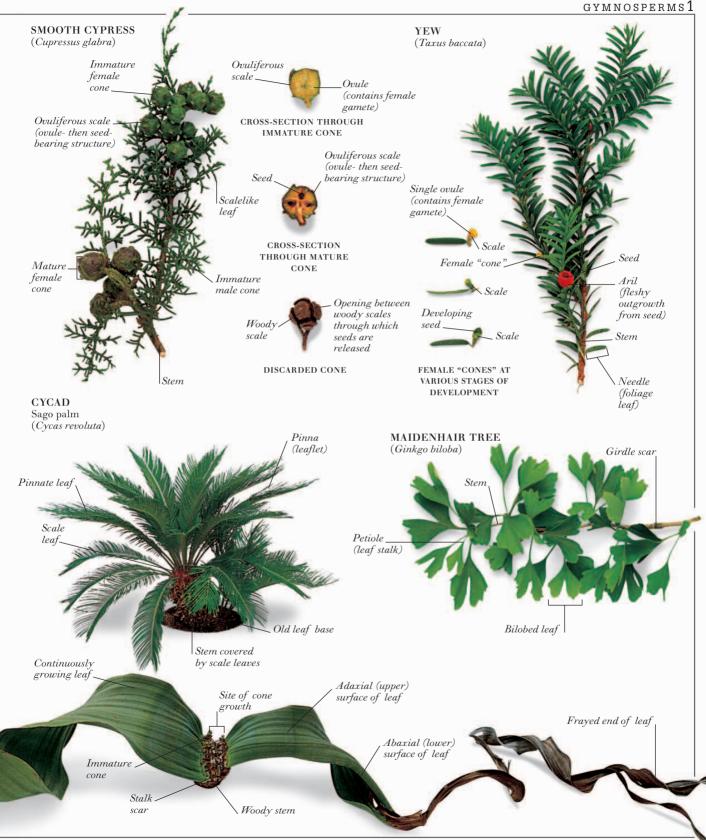


HORSETAILS, CLUBMOSSES, AND FERNS

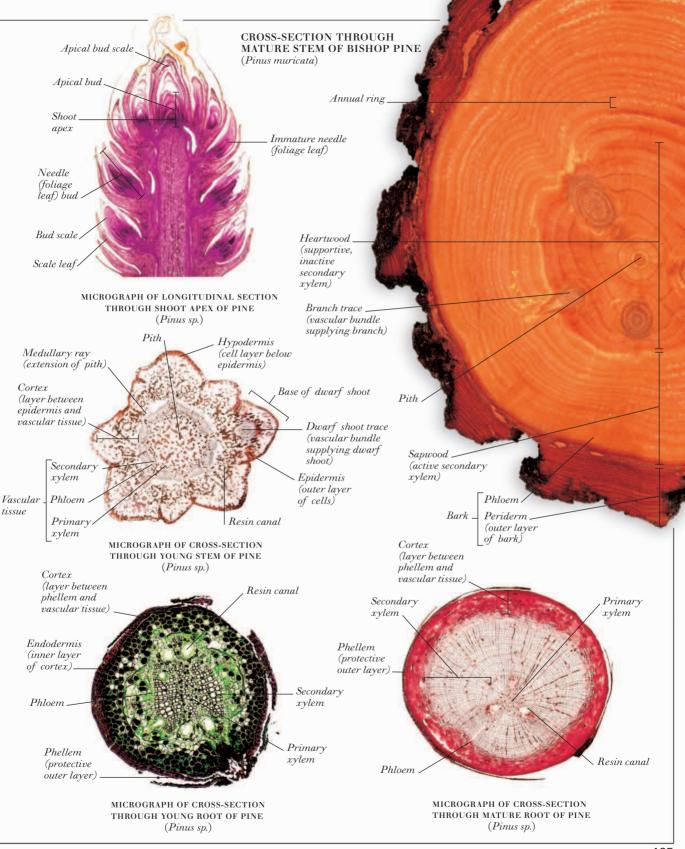


LIFE-CYCLE OF SCOTS PINE Gymnosperms 1 (Pinus sylvestris) Needle THE GYMNOSPERMS ARE FOUR RELATED PHYLA of seed-producing (foliage ľeaf) plants; their seeds, however, lack the protective, outer covering that surrounds the seeds of flowering plants. Typically, Cone **Ovuliferous** scale gymnosperms are woody, perennial shrubs or trees, with stems, (ovule- then seedbearing structure) leaves, and roots, and a well-developed vascular (transportat) system. MALE CONES YOUNG FEMALE CONE The reproductive structures in most gymnosperms are cones: male cones produce microspores in which male gametes (sex cells) develop; Pollen grain in micropyle **Ovuliferous** (entrance to ovule) scale female cones produce megaspores in which female gametes develop. Microspores are blown by the wind to female cones, male and female Pollen grain gametes fuse during fertilization, and a seed develops. The four Ovule (contains gymnosperm phyla are the conifers (phylum Coniferophyta), mostly Nucleus female tall trees; cycads (phylum Cycadophyta), small palmlike Air sac gamete) trees; the ginkgo or maidenhair tree POLLINATION SCALE AND SEEDS (phylum Ginkgophyta), a tall tree with Pine Integument bilobed leaves; and gnetophytes (Pinus sp.) (outer part Archegonium **Ovuliferous** scale of ovule) (phylum Gnetophyta), a diverse (containing (ovule- then seedgroup of plants, mainly shrubs, female *bearing structure*) Pollen tube Wing gamete) but also including the (carries male scar gamete from FERTILIZATION horizontally growing Wing of seed. pollen grain welwitschia. derived from to ovum) ovuliferous scale Seed Seed Microsporangium Seed (structure in which Seed Ovuliferous pollen grains are Wing Seed scar formed) Point of attachment . scale to axis of cone (ovule- then OVULIFEROUS SCALE FROM seed-bearing MATURE FEMALE CONE AND THIRD-YEAR FEMALE CONE structure) WINGED SEED Microsporophyll (modified leaf Ovule carrying microsporangia) (contains Cotyledon Plumule (seed leaf) female (embryonic gametes) shoot) Root Bract scale GERMINATION OF Scale leaf PINE SEEDLING Aris of cone **Ovuliferous** scale (ovule- then seedris bearing structure) of cone WELWITSCHIA MICROGRAPH OF LONGITUDINAL MICROGRAPH OF LONGITUDINAL (Welwitschia mirabilis) SECTION THROUGH YOUNG SECTION THROUGH SECOND-YEAR MALE CONE FEMALE CONE Frayed end of leaf

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CROSS-SECTION

Water-absorbing

parenchyma

Sunken

stoma

(pore)

Cuticle.

covering)

(waterproof

(packing

tissue)

THROUGH

LEAF BASES

Monocotyledons and dicotyledons

(photosynthetic

Vein

MICROGRAPH OF CROSS-SECTION THROUGH

A MONOCOTYLEDONOUS LEAF

tissue)

DICOTYLEDONS

COMPARISONS BETWEEN

MONOCOTYLEDONS AND

Vein. (parallel

venation)

eaflet

Emerging

Adventitious

root

leaf

FLOWERING PLANTS (PHYLUM ANGIOSPERMOPHYTA) are divided into two classes: monocotyledons (class Monocotyledoneae) and dicotyledons (class Dicotyledoneae). Typically, monocotyledons have seeds with one cotyledon (seed leaf): their foliage leaves are narrow with Petiole. (leaf stalk) parallel veins; the flower components occur in multiples of three; sepals and petals are indistinguishable and are known as tepals; vascular (transport) tissues are scattered in random bundles throughout the stem; and, since they lack stem cambium (actively dividing cells that produce wood), MONOCOTYLEDONOUS most monocotyledons are herbaceous (see pp. 128-129). Dicotyledons have seeds with two cotyledons; leaves are broad with a central midrib and branched veins; flower parts occur in multiples of four or five; Leaf base sepals are generally small and green; petals are large and colorful; vascular bundles are arranged in a ring around the edge of the stem; and, because many dicotyledons possess wood-producing stem cambium, there are woody forms (see pp. 130-131) as well as herbaceous ones. Xvlem Vascular tissue Mesophyll Palisade mesophyll Phloem_

(tightly packed

Spongy

tissue)

(outer layer of cells)

Enidermis

Sclerenchyma

(strengthening tissue)

mesophyll

(loosely packed

photosynthetic

photosynthetic tissue)

Vascular

tissue

Xylen

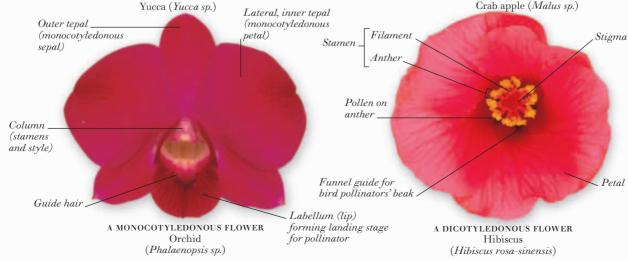
Phloen

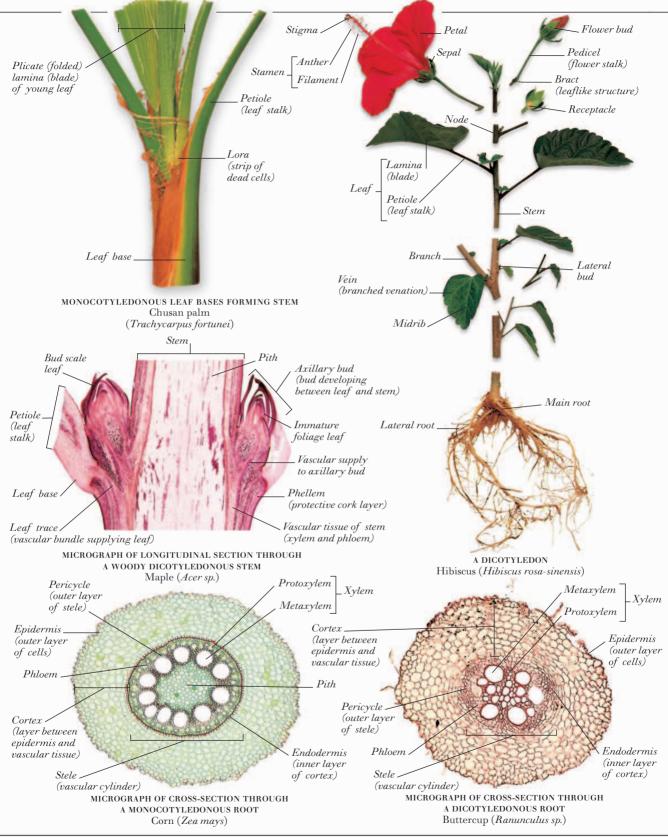
A MONOCOTYLEDON Paradise palm (Howea forsteriana)

Collenchyma (supporting tissue

Epidermis (outer laver of cells) Parenchyma

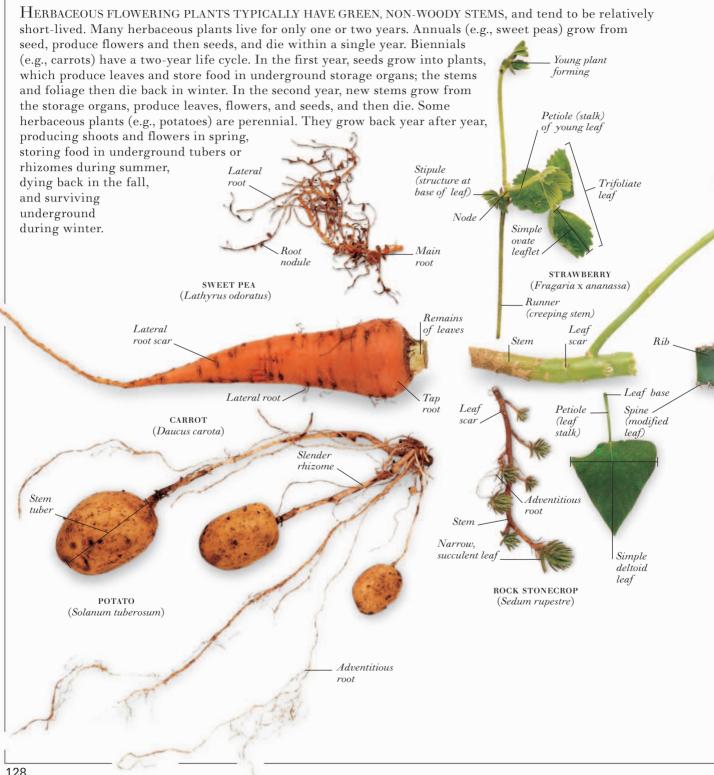
(packing tissue) Midrib MICROGRAPH OF CROSS-SECTION THROUGH A DICOTYLEDONOUS LEAF Crab apple (Malus sp.)



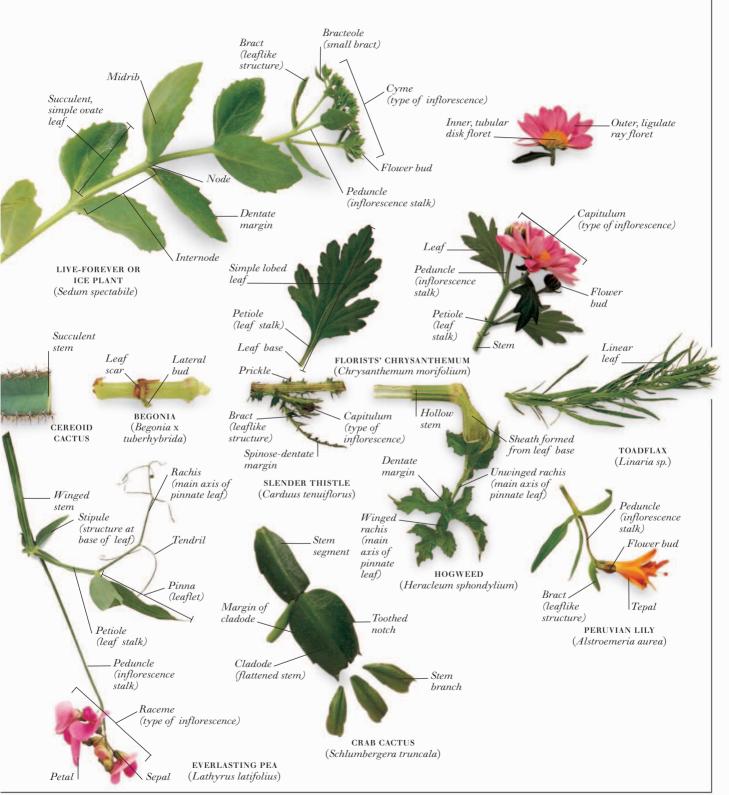


PLANTS

Herbaceous flowering plants



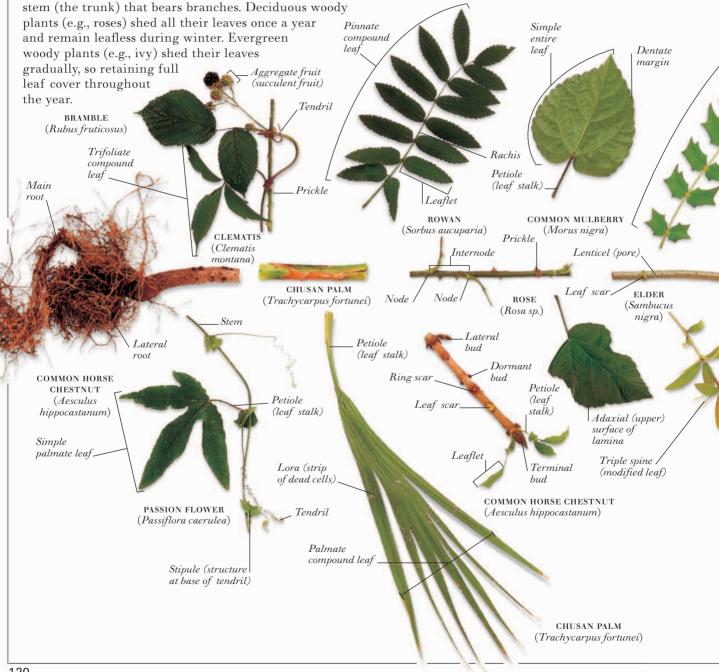
PARTS OF HERBACEOUS FLOWERING PLANTS



PLANTS

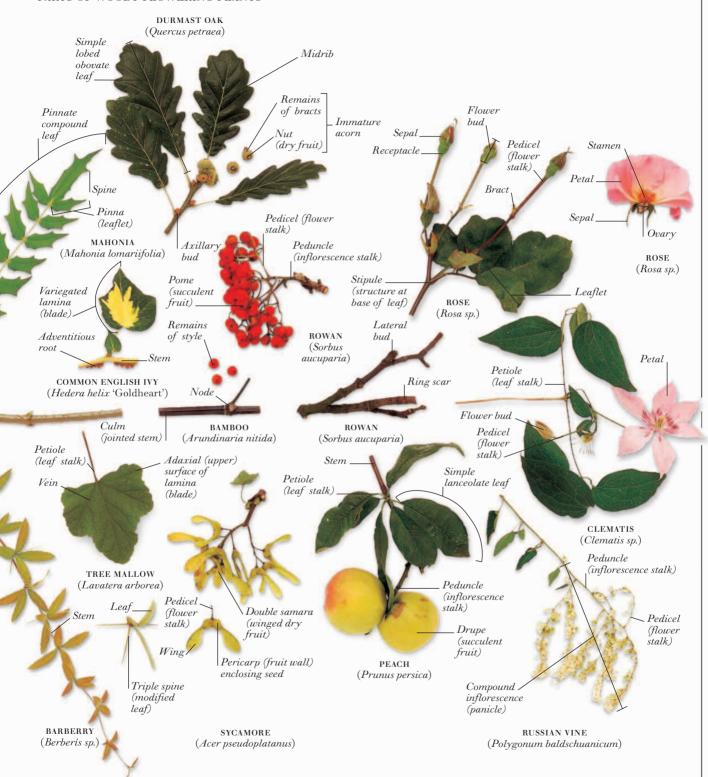
Woody flowering plants

WOODY FLOWERING PLANTS ARE PERENNIAL, that is, they continue to grow and reproduce for many years. They have one or more permanent stems above ground, and numerous smaller branches. The stems and branches have a strong woody core that supports the plant and contains vascular tissue for transporting water and nutrients. Outside the woody core is a layer of tough, protective bark, which has lenticels (tiny pores) in it to enable gases to pass through. Woody flowering plants may be shrubs, which have several stems arising from the soil; bushes, which are shrubs with dense branching and foliage; or trees, which typically have a single upright stem (the trumb) that have branches.



WOODY FLOWERING PLANTS

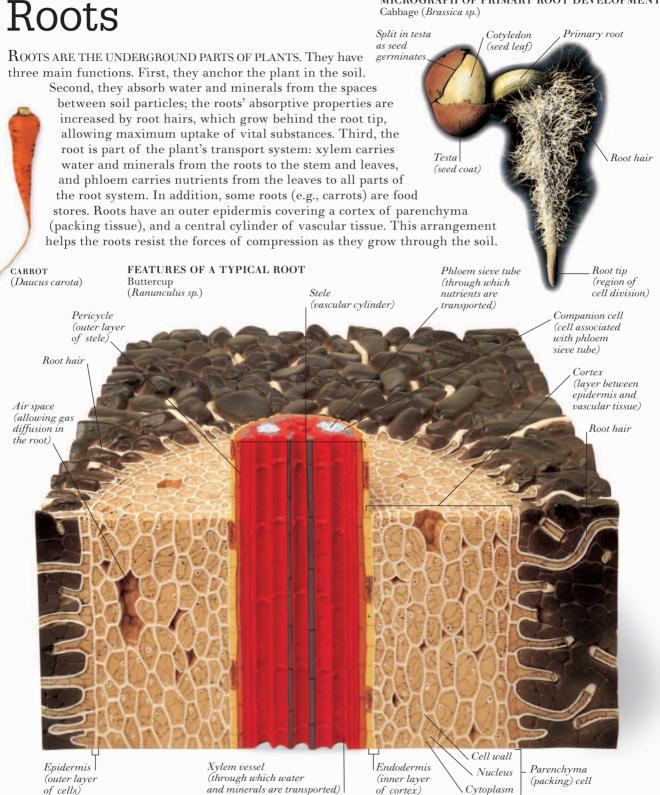
PARTS OF WOODY FLOWERING PLANTS



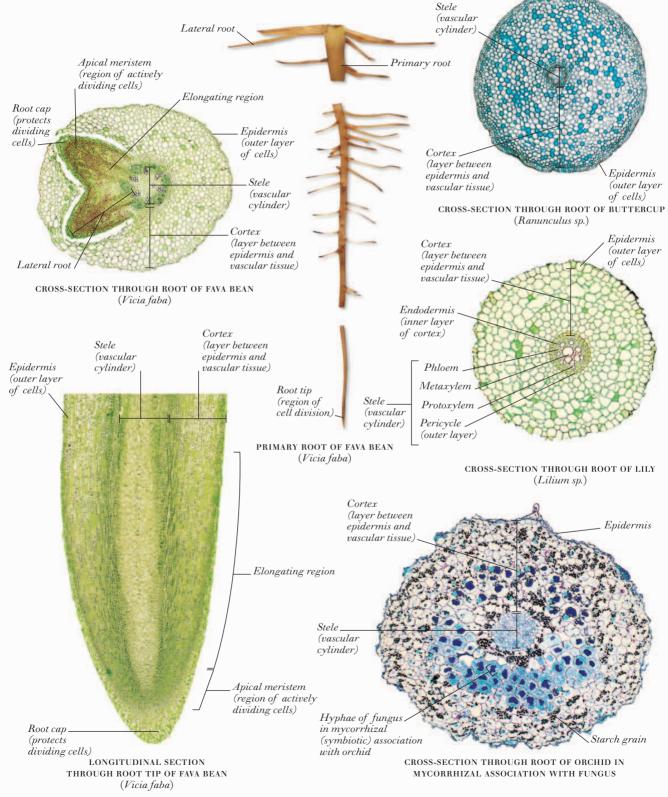
PLANTS

MICROGRAPH OF PRIMARY ROOT DEVELOPMENT

Cabbage (Brassica sp.)



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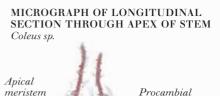


PRIMARY ROOT AND MICROGRAPHS OF SECTIONS THROUGH ROOTS

ROOTS

Stems

The stem is the main supportive part of a plant that grows above ground. Stems bear leaves (organs of photosynthesis), which grow at nodes; buds (shoots covered by protective scales), which grow at the stem tip (apical or terminal buds) and in the angle between a leaf and the stem (axillary or lateral buds); and flowers (reproductive structures). The stem forms part of the plant's transport system: xylem tissue in the stem transports water and minerals from the roots to the aerial parts of the plant, and phloem tissue transports nutrients Developing manufactured in the leaves to other parts of the plant. Stem tissues bud are also used for storing water and food. Herbaceous (non-woody) stems have an outer protective epidermis covering a cortex that consists mainly of parenchyma (packing tissue) but also has some collenchyma (supporting tissue). The vascular tissue of such stems is arranged in bundles, each of which consists of xylem, phloem, and sclerenchyma (strengthening tissue). Woody stems have an outer protective layer of tough bark, which is perforated with lenticels (pores) to allow gas exchange. Inside the bark is a ring of secondary phloem, which surrounds an inner core of secondary xylem.



(region of actively dividing cells) boping Pith

strand (cells that produce , vascular tissue)

> Leaf primordium (developing leaf)

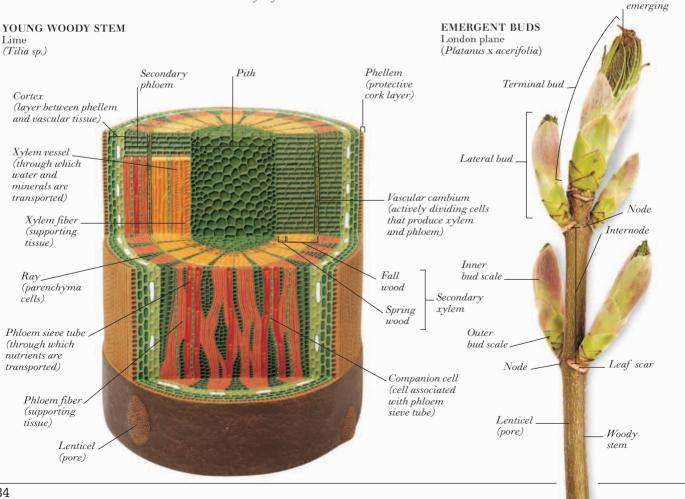
Cortex (layer between epidermis and vascular tissue)

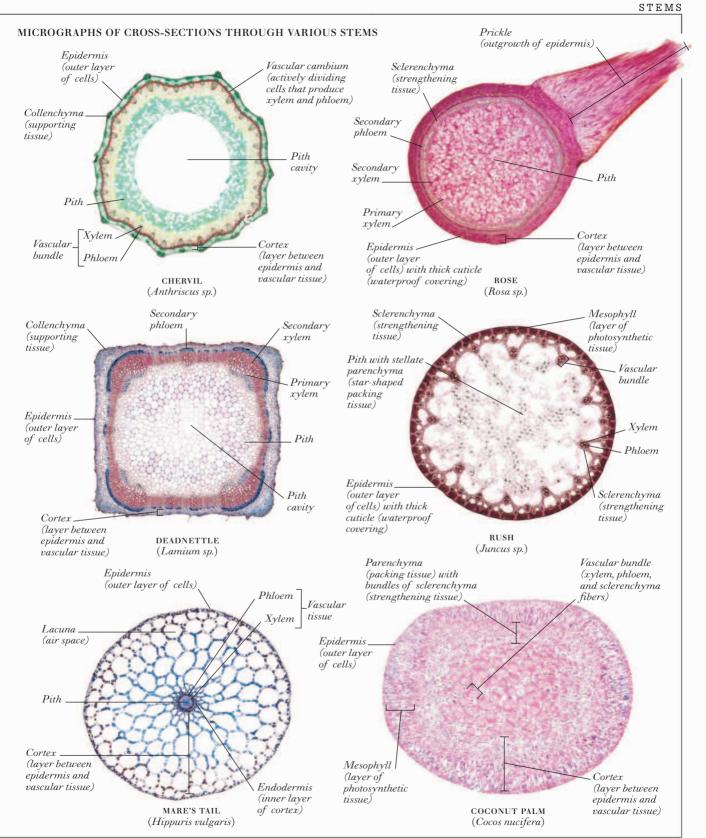
Vascular tissue

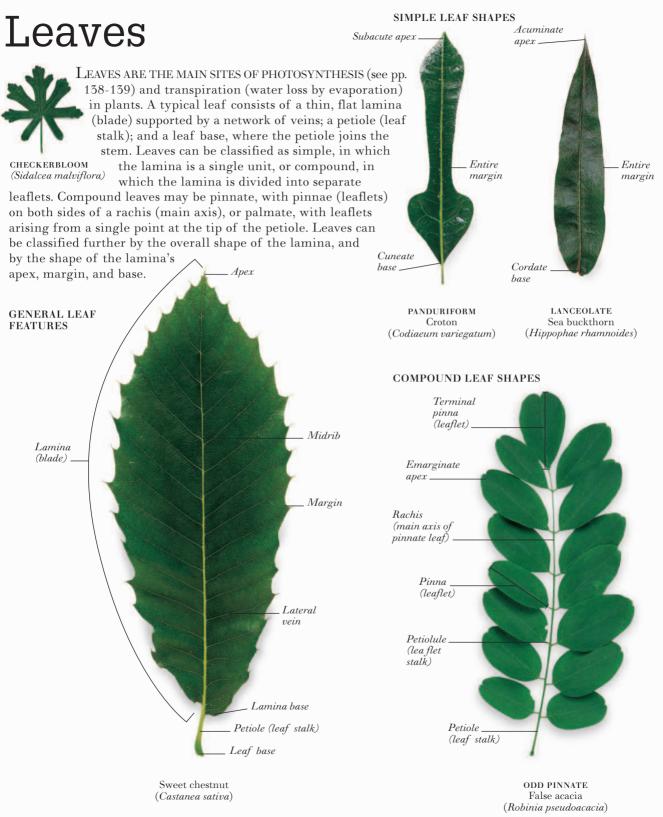
Epidermis (outer layer of cells)

Young

leaves







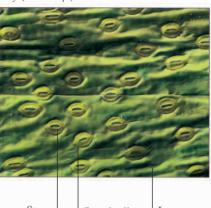


Photosynthesis

PHOTOSYNTHESIS IS THE PROCESS by which plants make their food using sunlight, water, and carbon dioxide. It takes place inside special structures in leaf cells called chloroplasts. The chloroplasts contain chlorophyll, a green pigment that absorbs energy from sunlight. During photosynthesis, the absorbed energy is used to join together carbon dioxide and water to form the sugar glucose, which is the energy source for the whole plant; oxygen, a waste product, is released into the air. Leaves are the main sites of photosynthesis, and have various adaptations for that purpose: flat laminae (blades) provide a large surface for absorbing sunlight; stomata (pores) in the lower surface of the laminae allow gases (carbon dioxide and oxygen) to pass into and out of the leaves; and an extensive network of veins brings water into the leaves and transports the glucose produced by photosynthesis to the rest of the plant.

THE PROCESS OF PHOTOSYNTHESIS

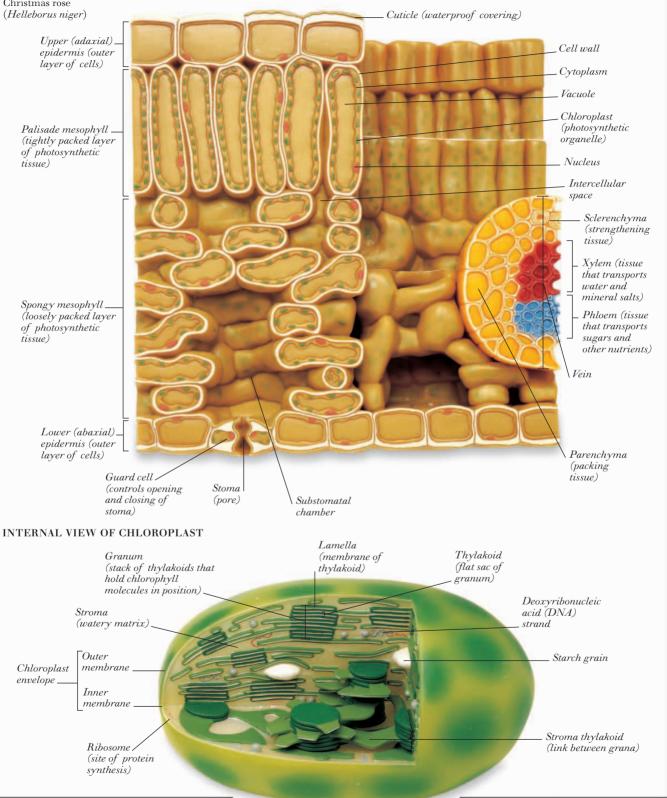
Glucose molecule Sunlight, which is absorbed Oxygen Hydrogen Glucose is a high-energy by chloroplasts in the leaf. Carbon product of photosynthesis. provides the energy for atom atom atom It travels to all parts of the photosynthesis plant through the phloem The leaf is the main site of photosynthesis. Its broad, thin lamina (blade) is an adaptation for this process Hydrogen atom Water Dxygen atom molecule Hydrogen atom Oxygen atom Oxygen Carbon atom Carbon dioxide. atom molecule Oxygen Oxygen atom molecule Oxygen Water, a raw material atom in the soil, travels to the Carbon dioxide, a raw. Oxygen, a waste product leaf from the roots via material in the air, enters of photosynthesis, leaves the xylem the leaf through stomata the leaf through stomata on the lower surface of the on the lower surface of lamina (blade) the lamina (blade)

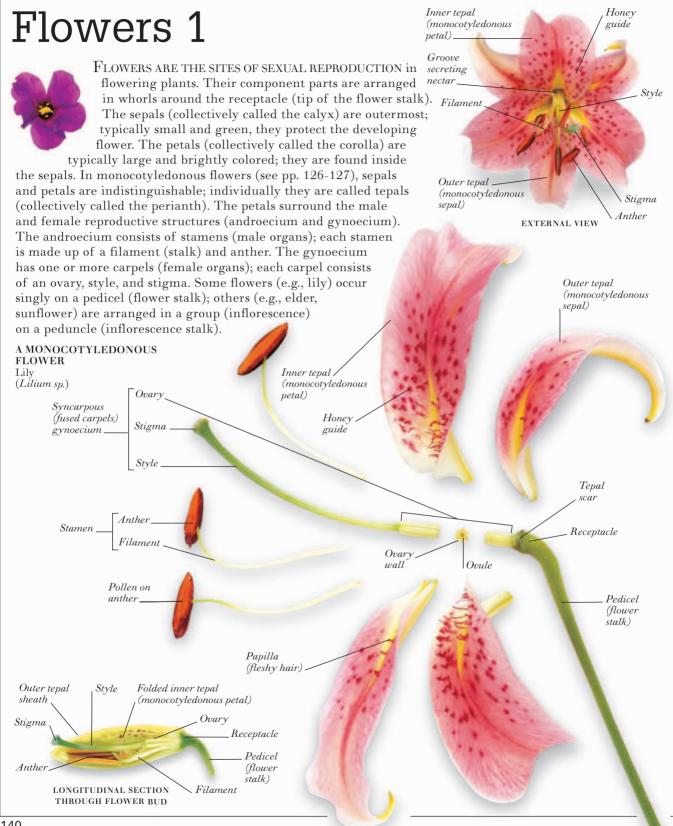


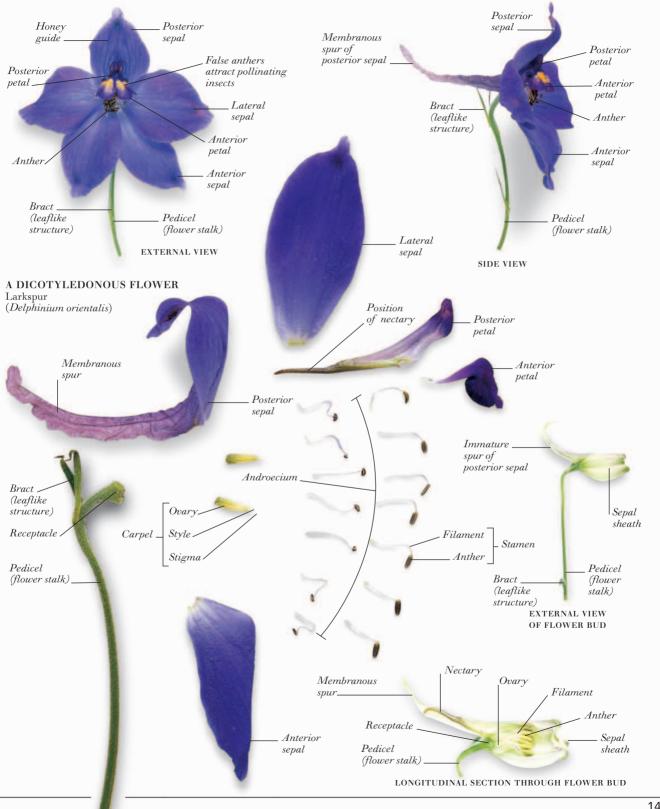
Stoma Guard cell (pore) (controls opening and closing of stoma)

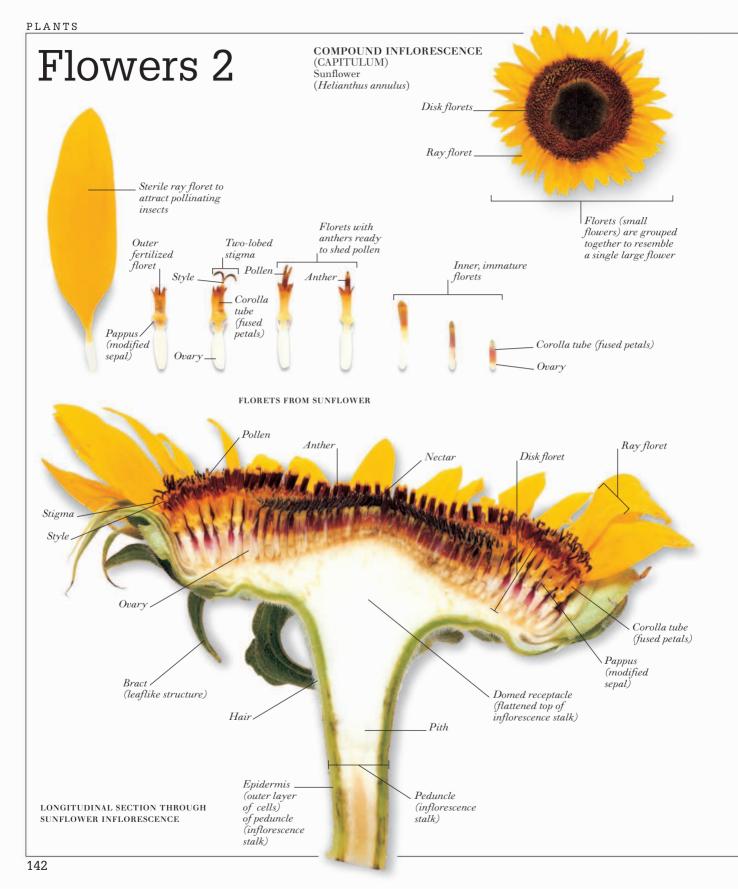
Lower surface of lamina (blade)

CROSS-SECTION THROUGH LEAF Christmas rose



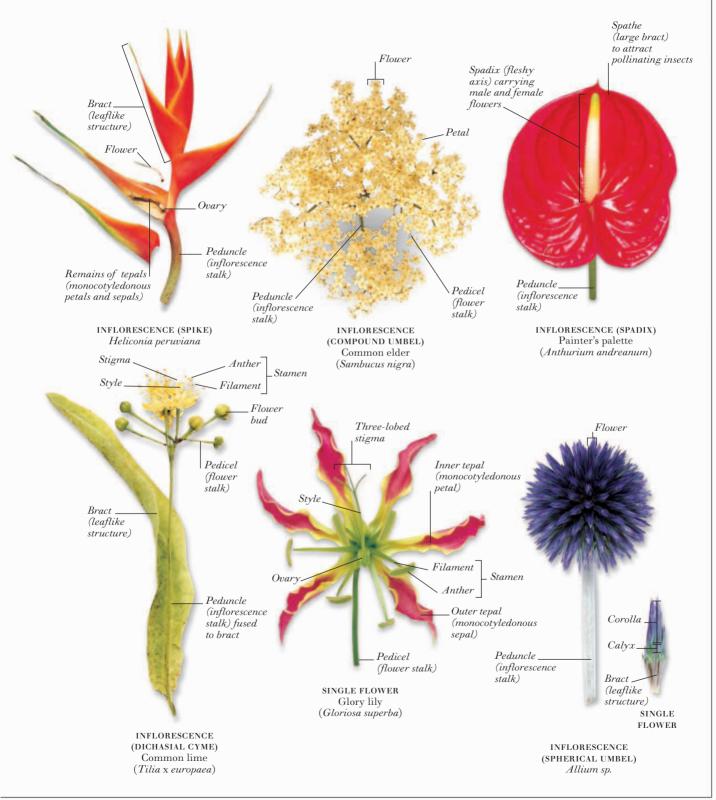






FLOWERS 2

ARRANGEMENT OF FLOWERS ON STEM



Pollination

POLLINATION IS THE TRANSFER OF POLLEN (which contains the male sex cells) from an anther (part of the male reproductive organ) to a stigma (part of the female reproductive organ). This process precedes fertilization (see pp. 146-147). Pollination may occur within the same flower (self-pollination), or between flowers on separate plants of the same species (cross-pollination). In most plants, pollination is carried out either by insects (entomophilous pollination) or by the wind (anemophilous pollination). Less commonly, birds, bats, or water are the agents of pollination. Insect-pollinated flowers are typically brightly

colored, scented, and produce nectar, on which insects feed. Such flowers also tend to have patterns that are visible only in ultraviolet light, which many insects can see but which humans cannot. These features attract insects. which become covered with the sticky or hooked pollen grains when they visit one flower, and then transfer the pollen to the next flower they visit. Wind-pollinated flowers are generally small, relatively inconspicuous, and unscented. They produce large quantities of light pollen grains that are easily blown by the wind to other flowers.

MICROGRAPHS OF

Exine (outer coat of pollen

EUROPEAN FIELD ELM

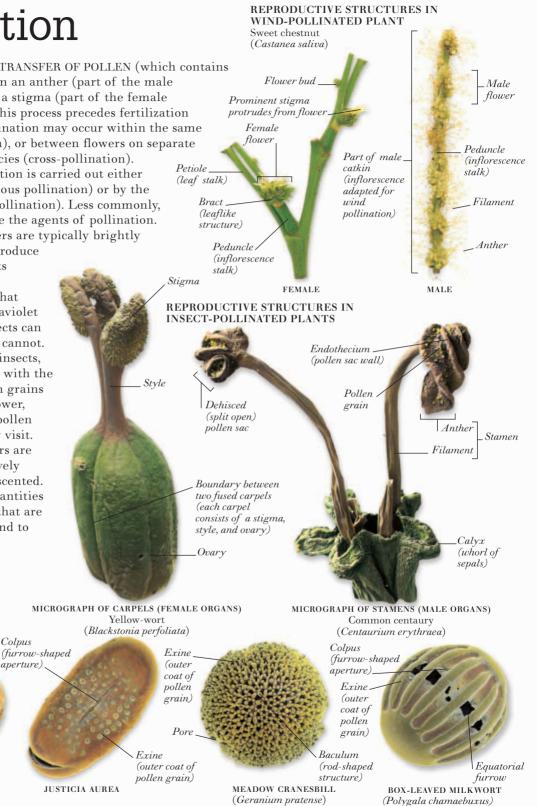
(Ulmus minor)

Colpus

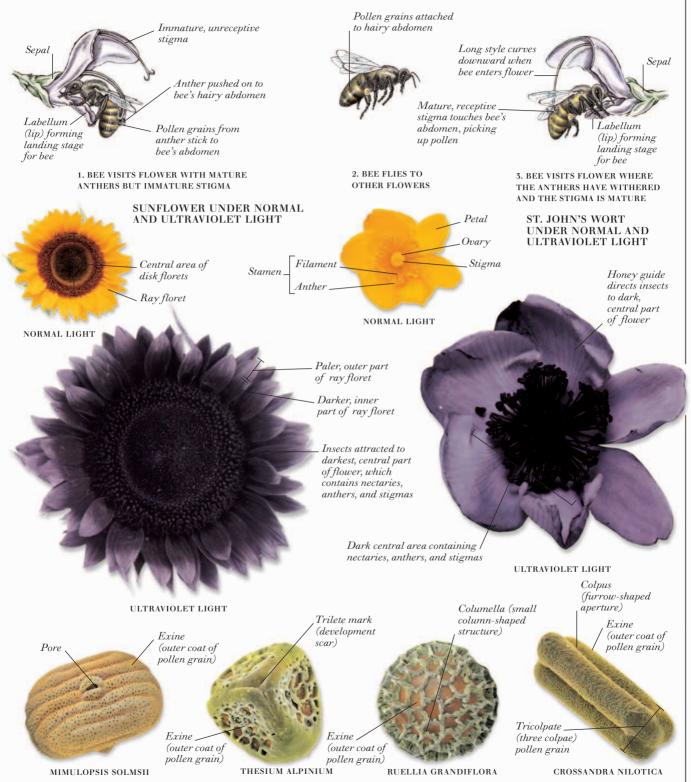
Pore

POLLEN GRAINS

grain)



INSECT POLLINATION OF MEADOW SAGE

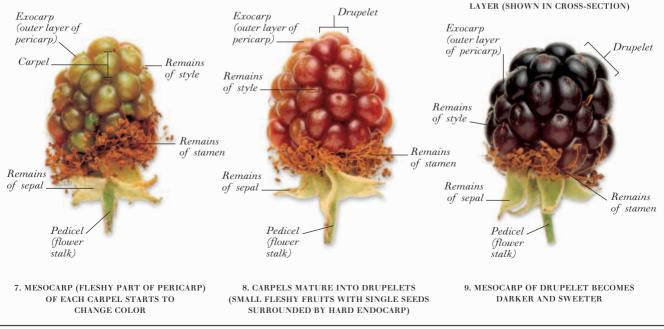


Fertilization

FERTILIZATION IS THE FUSION of male and female gametes (sex cells) to produce a zygote (embryo). Following pollination (see pp. 144-145), the pollen grains that contain the male gametes are on Stamen the stigma, some distance from the female gamete (ovum) inside the ovule. To enable the gametes to meet, the pollen grain germinates and produces a pollen tube, which grows down and enters the embryo sac (the inner Carpel. part of the ovule that contains the ovum). Two male gametes, traveling at the tip of the pollen tube, enter the embryo sac. One gamete fuses with the ovum to produce a zygote that will develop into an embryo plant. The other male gamete fuses with two polar nuclei to produce the endosperm, which acts as a food supply for the developing embryo. Fertilization also initiates other changes: the integument (outer part of ovule) forms a testa (seed coat) around the embryo and endosperm; the petals fall off; the stigma and style wither; and the ovary wall forms a layer (called the pericarp) around the seed. Together, the pericarp and seed form the fruit, which may be succulent (see pp. 148-149) or dry (see pp. 150-151). In some species (e.g., blackberry), apomixis can

BANANA

occur: the seed develops without fertilization of (Musa 'lacatan') the ovum by a male gamete but endosperm formation and fruit development take place as in other species.



DEVELOPMENT OF A SUCCULENT FRUIT Blackberry (Rubus fruticosus)

1. FLOWER IN FULL BLOOM

ATTRACTS POLLINATORS

Remains of

style

Carpel

Receptacle

Remains

of stamen

Pedicel

(flower

stalk)

Abortive

4. PERICARP FORMS

FLESH, SKIN, AND A HARD INNER

seed

Petal

Filament

Anther

Ovary

Stigma

Style

Endocarp

Mesocarp

(middle

laver of

pericarp)

Exocarp

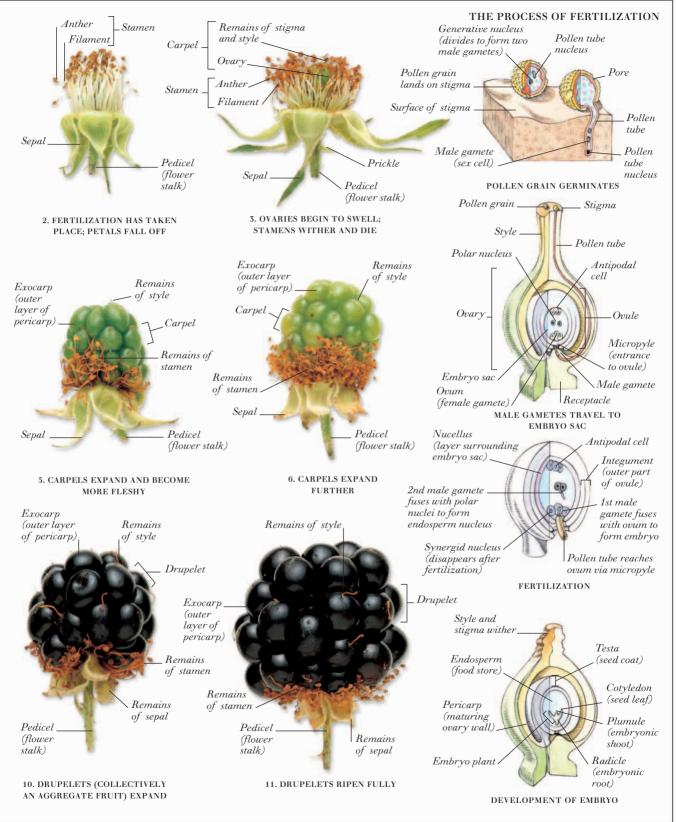
(outer

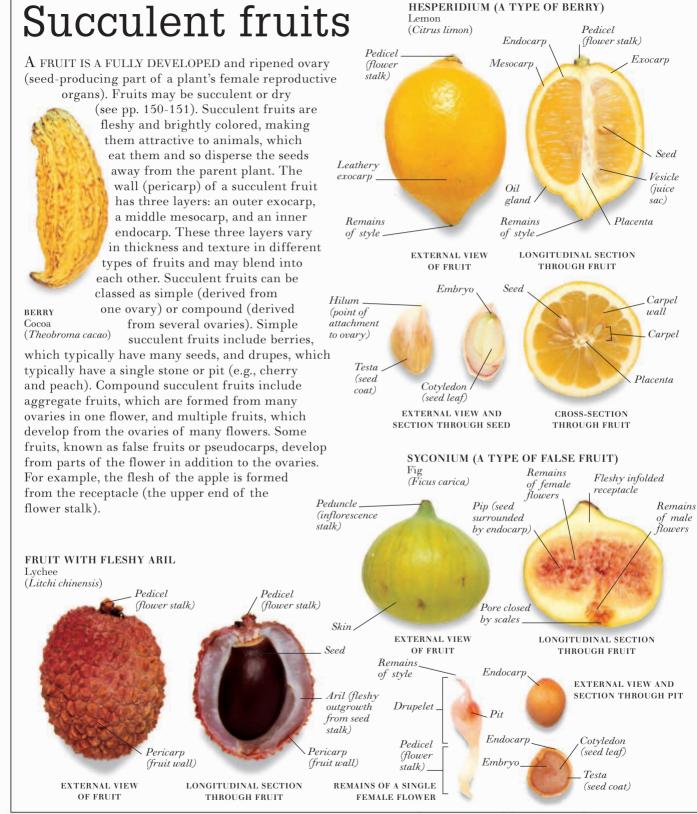
layer of

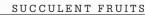
pericarp)

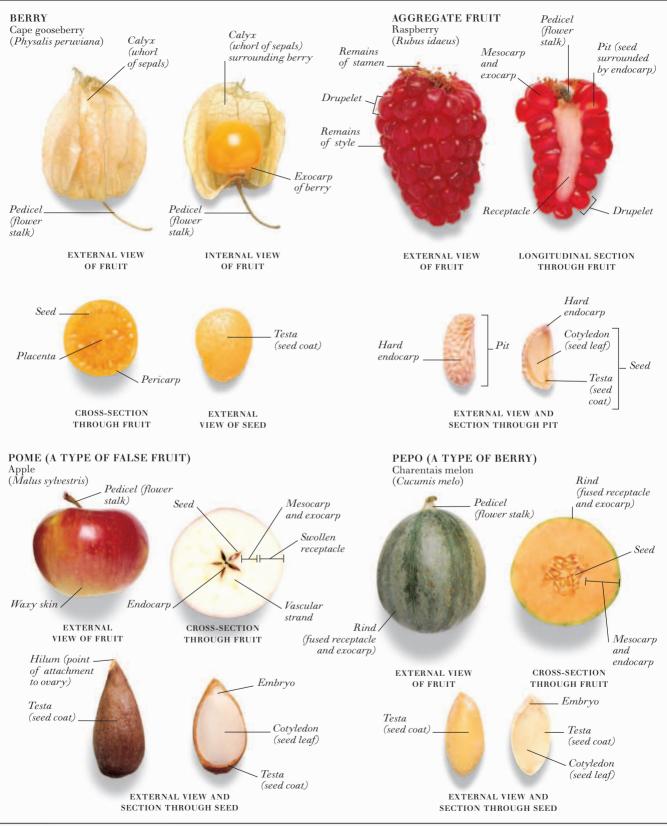
Sepal

(inner layer of pericarp)









PLANTS

NUTLET

NUT

Sweet chestnut

(Castanea sativa)

stalk)

Nut

fruit)

(indehiscent

Spiked cupule husk around

Remains

of male inflorescence

Peduncle

(inflorescence

Goosegrass (Galium aparine)

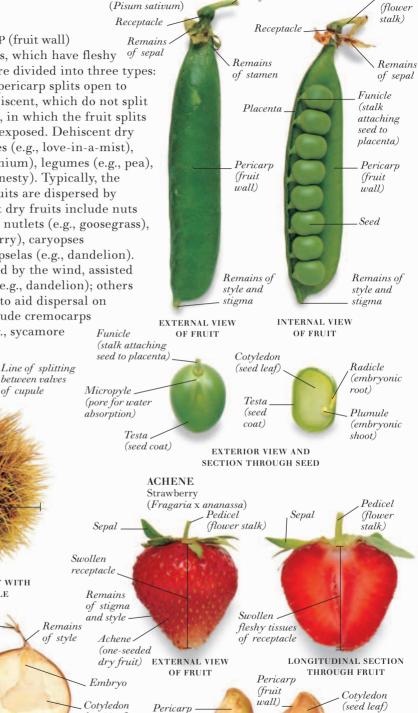
Dry fruits

LEGUME Pea

DRY FRUITS HAVE A HARD, DRY PERICARP (fruit wall) around their seeds unlike succulent fruits, which have fleshy of sepal pericarps (see pp. 148-149). Dry fruits are divided into three types:

dehiscent, in which the pericarp splits open to release the seeds; indehiscent, which do not split open; and schizocarpic, in which the fruit splits but the seeds are not exposed. Dehiscent dry fruits include capsules (e.g., love-in-a-mist), follicles (e.g., delphinium), legumes (e.g., pea), and siliquas (e.g., honesty). Typically, the seeds of dehiscent fruits are dispersed by the wind. Indehiscent dry fruits include nuts (e.g., sweet chestnut), nutlets (e.g., goosegrass), achenes (e.g., strawberry), caryopses

(e.g., wheat), samaras (e.g., elm), and cypselas (e.g., dandelion). Some indehiscent dry fruits are dispersed by the wind, assisted by "wings" (e.g., elm) or "parachutes" (e.g., dandelion); others (e.g., goosegrass) have hooked pericarps to aid dispersal on animals' fur. Schizocarpic dry fruits include cremocarps (e.g., hogweed), and double samaras (e.g., sycamore maple); these are dispersed by the wind.



Pedicel

(flower stalk)

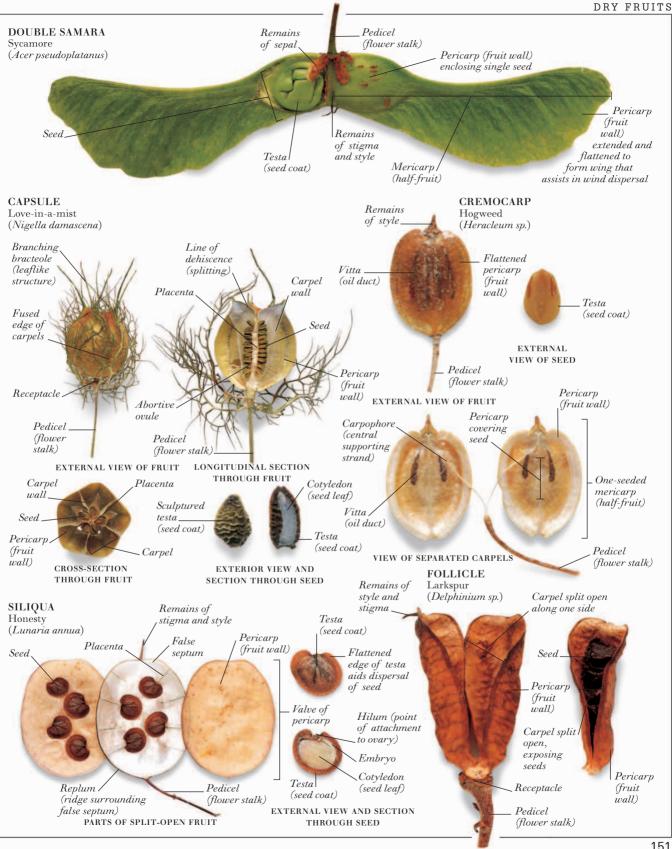
Pedicel

Testa

EXTERNAL VIEW AND

(seed coat)

fruit formed from bracts) EXTERNAL VIEW OF FRUIT WITH SURROUNDING CUPULE Remains Remains of stigma. of stigma Remains of style Nut (indehiscent fruit) (seed leaf) (fruit wall) Testa (seed coat) Woody pericarp Woody pericarp (fruit wall) EXTERNAL VIEW AND (fruit wall) SECTION THROUGH FRUIT SECTION THROUGH SEED



PLANTS

Germination

embryo starts to use its food supply; and the

radicle swells, breaks through the testa,

and grows downward. Germination

then proceeds in one of two ways, depending on the type of seed.

In epigeal germination, the

cotyledons out of the soil.

In hypogeal germination, the cotyledons remain below

ground and the epicotyl

lengthens, pushing

the plumule upward.

hypocotyl lengthens, pulling the plumule and its protective

GERMINATION IS THE GROWTH OF SEEDS INTO SEEDLINGS. It starts when

seeds become active below ground, and ends when the first foliage

made up of one or two cotyledons (seed leaves) attached to a central

axis. The upper part of the axis consists of an epicotyl, which has a

parent plant, the seeds dehydrate and enter a period of dormancy.

plumule (embryonic shoot) at its tip. The lower part of the axis consists

of a hypocotyl and a radicle (embryonic root). After dispersal from the

Following this dormant period, germination begins, provided that the

seeds have enough water, oxygen, warmth, and, in some cases, light. In the first stages of germination, the seed takes in water; the

leaves appear above ground. A seed consists of an embryo and

its food supply, surrounded by a testa (seed coat). The embryo is

HYPOGEAL GERMINATION Fava bean (Vicia faba)

> Cotyledon (seed leaf)

Testa

(seed

coat)

Cotyledon (seed leaf)

> Cotyledon (seed leaf)

> > , Plumule (embryonic shoot)

Epicotyl (upper part of axis)

Hypocotyl (region between epicotyl and radicle)

Radicle (embryonic root)

Foliage leaf.

SEED AT START OF

GERMINATION

Cotyledon (seed leaf)

> Stipule _____ (structure at base of leaf)

Epicotyl increases in length and turns green ____

Cataphyll _____ (scale leaf of plumule)

Epicotyl (upper part of axis)

. Hypocotyl (region between epicotyl and radicle)

> FOLIAGE LEAVES APPEAR

Cotyledons (seed _ leaves) remain food source for the seedling

Primary , root

Radicle (embryonic root)

Lateral root system _

Young shoot Cataphyll (scale leaf of plumule)

Split in testa

to expanding

cotyledons

(seed coat) due

Cotyledons _____ (seed leaves) remain within testa (seed coat) below soil's surface

SHOOT APPEARS

ABOVE SOIL

Testa (seed coat) Epicotyl (upper part Plumule of axis) (embryonic lengthens shoot) Hilum (point of Primary root

Lateral root

Epidermis ____

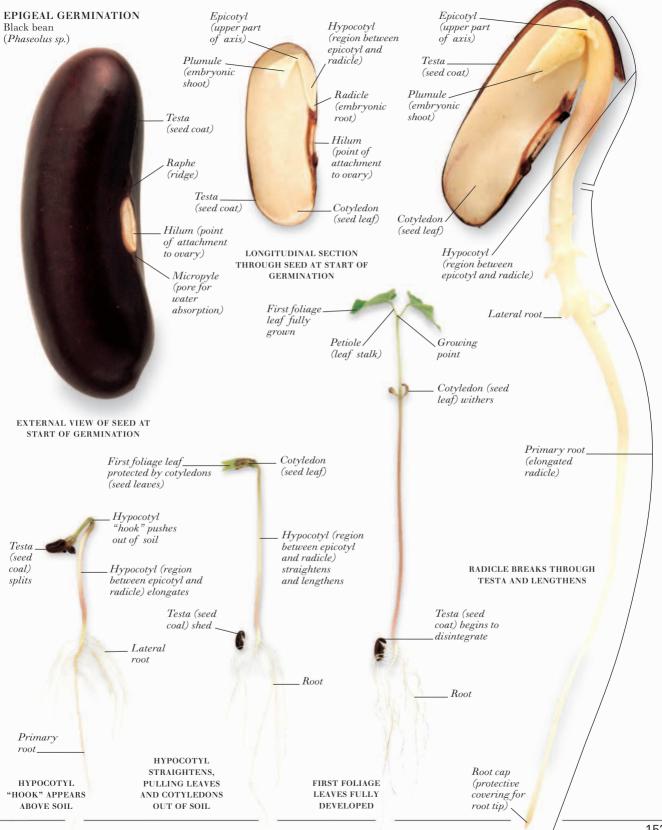
Vascular tissue

(xylem and

phloem)

Cortex.

RADICLE BREAKS (region of THROUGH TESTA cell division)



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Vegetative reproduction

ADVENTITIOUS BUD Mexican hat plant

(Kalanchoe

Leaf

Adventitious bud

margin

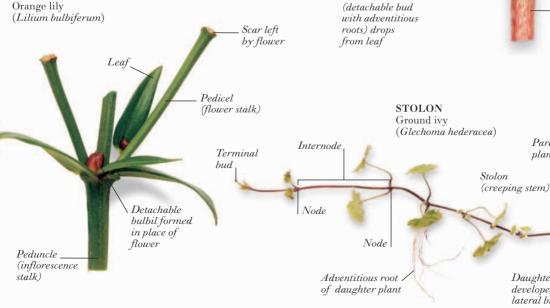
daigremontiana)



COBM Gladiolus MANY PLANTS CAN PROPAGATE THEMSELVES by vegetative reproduction. In this process, part of a plant separates off, takes root, and grows into a new plant. Vegetative reproduction is a type of asexual reproduction; that is, it involves only one parent, and there is no fusion of gametes (sex cells). Plants use various structures to reproduce vegetatively. Some plants use underground storage organs. Such organs include rhizomes (horizontal, underground stems), the

(Gladiolus sp.) branches of which produce new plants; bulbs (swollen leaf bases) and corms (swollen stems), which produce daughter bulbs or corms that separate off from the parent; and stem tubers (thickened Notch in leaf underground stems) and root tubers (swollen margin containing meristematic adventitious roots), which also separate off from (actively dividing) the parent. Other propagative structures include cells runners and stolons, creeping horizontal stems that take root and produce new plants; bulbils, small bulbs that develop on the stem or in the place of flowers, and then drop off and grow into new plants; and adventitious buds, miniature plants that form on leaf margins before dropping to the ground and growing into mature plants.

BULBIL IN PLACE OF FLOWER



Petiole (leaf stalk)

Apex of

Lamina

(blade)

of leaf

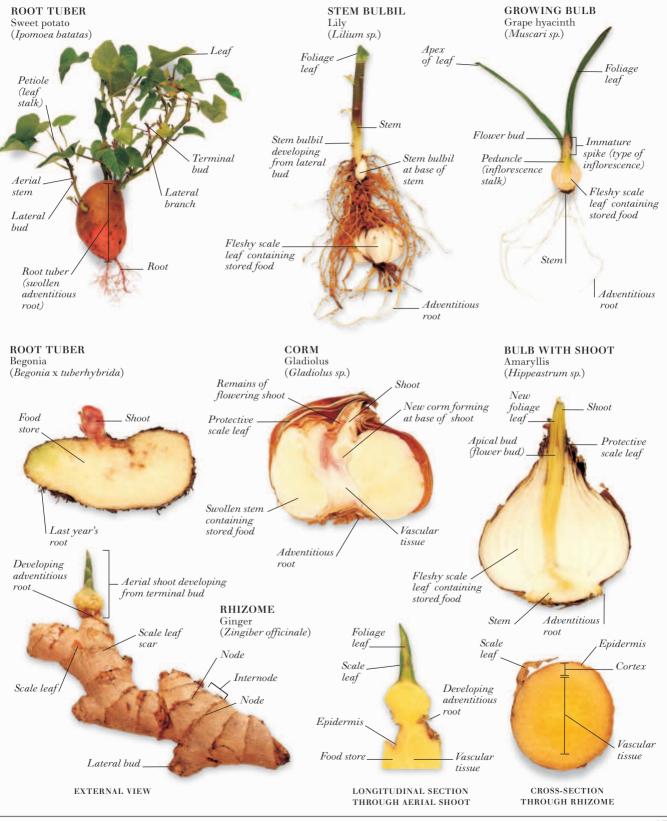
leaf

Daughter plant developed from lateral bud

Parent

plant

VEGETATIVE REPRODUCTION



Dryland plants



DRYLAND PLANTS (XEROPHYTES) are able to survive in unfavorable habitats. All are found in places where little water is available; some live in high temperatures that cause excessive loss of water from the leaves. Xerophytes show a number of adaptations to dry conditions; these include reduced leaf area,

LEAF SUCCULENT Lithops sp.

spines, and thick cuticles. One group, succulent plants, stores water in specially enlarged spongy tissues found in leaves, roots, or stems. Leaf succulents have enlarged, fleshy, water-storing leaves. Root succulents have a large, underground water-storage organ with short-lived stems and leaves above ground. Stem succulents are represented by the cacti (family Cactaceae). Cacti stems are fleshy, green, and photosynthetic; they are typically ribbed or covered by tubercles in rows, with leaves being reduced to spines or entirely absent.

rolled leaves, sunken stomata, hairs,

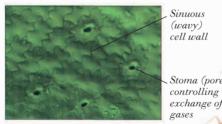
Svine , modified leaf) Tubercle projection from stem surface) Root

EXTERNAL VIEW

Waxy cuticle (waterproof covering) Water-storing parenchyma (packing tissue)

(wavy)

Stoma (pore)



MICROGRAPH OF STEM SURFACE

Tubercle

(projection from stem surface)

Spine (modified leaf)

Areole (modified lateral shoot)

Waxy cuticle (waterproof covering)

DETAIL OF STEM SURFACE

STEM SUCCILENT Golden barrel cactus (Echinocactus grusonii)

Areole (modified lateral shoot)

Spine , modified leaf)

Trichome

(hair)

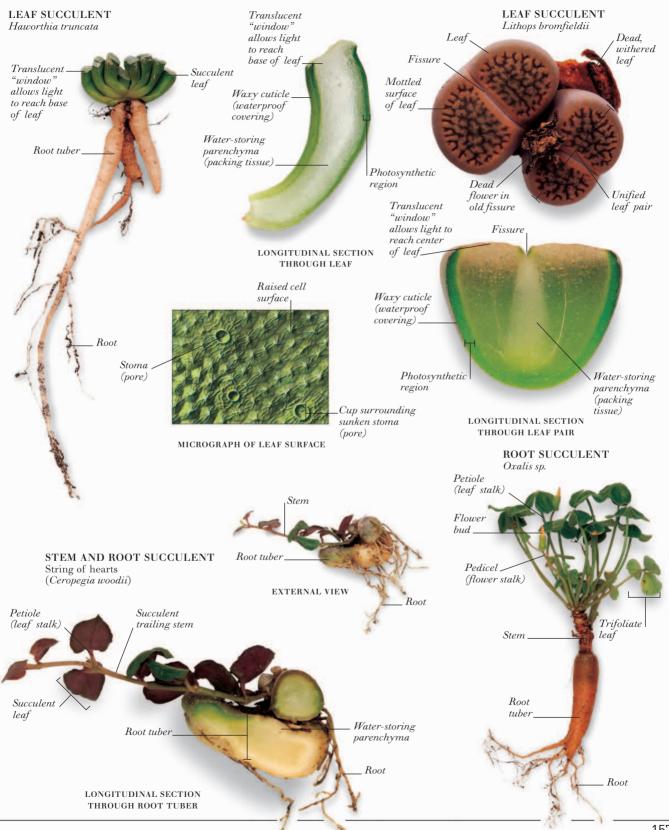
Tubercle (projection from stem surface)

Vascular cvlinder (transport tissue)

Root

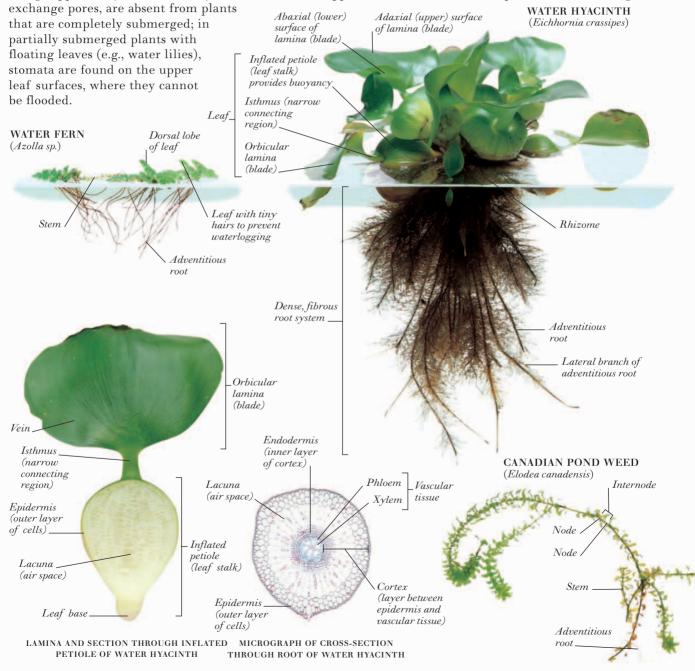
LONGITUDINAL SECTION

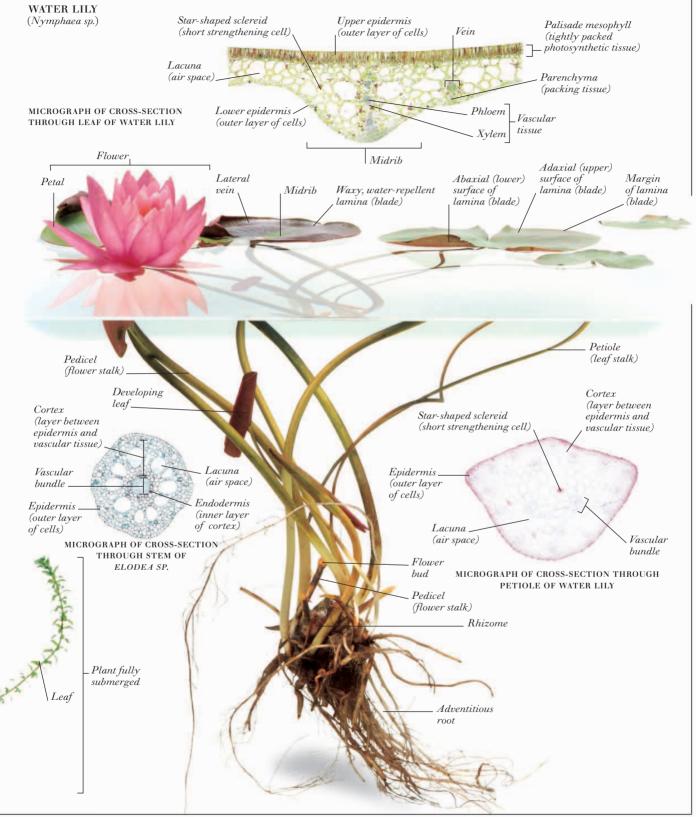
THROUGH STEM



Wetland plants

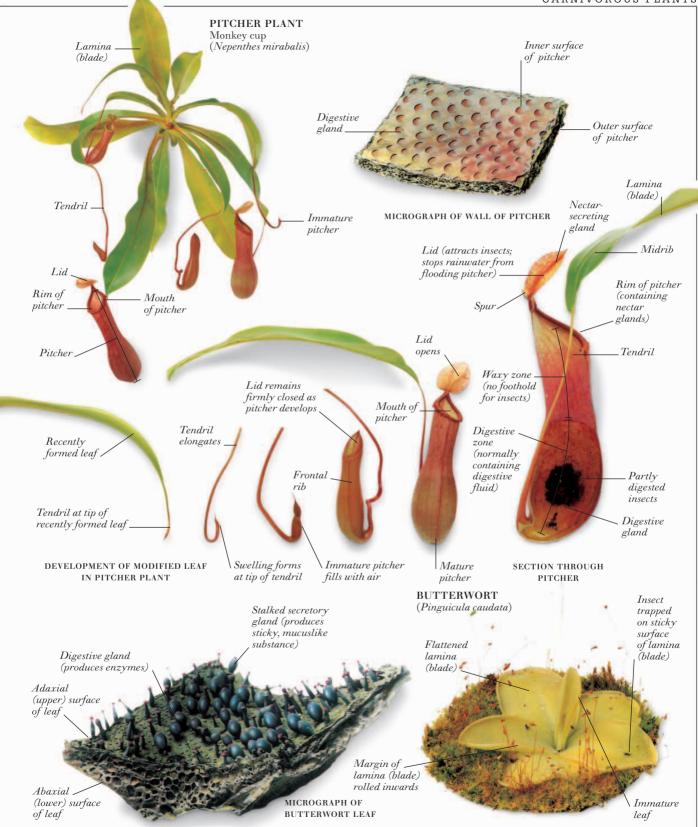
WETLAND PLANTS GROW SUBMERGED IN WATER, either partially (e.g., water hyacinth) or completely (e.g., pond weeds), and show various adaptations to this habitat. Typically, there are numerous air spaces inside the stems, leaves, and roots; these aid gas exchange and buoyancy. Submerged parts generally have no cuticle (waterproof covering), enabling the plants to absorb minerals and gases directly from the water; in addition, being supported by the water, they need little of the supportive tissue found in land plants. Stomata, the gas





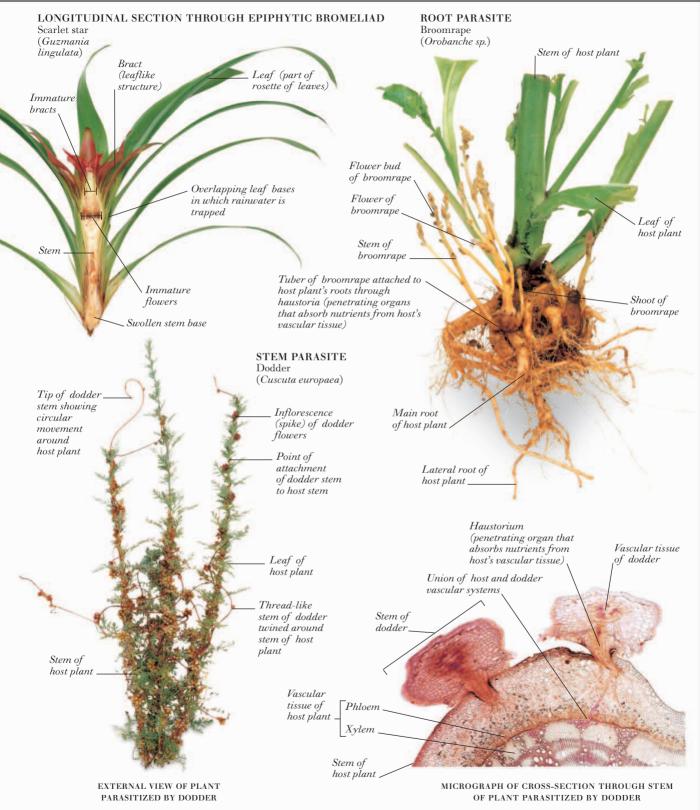
PITCHER PLANT Areola Carnivorous ("window" of Cobra lily (Darlingtonia californica) transparent tissue) Hood Fishtail nectary plants Pitcher Wing Tubular petiole '(leaf stalk) CARNIVOROUS (INSECTIVOROUS) PLANTS FEED ON INSECTS and other small Areola animals, in addition to producing food in their leaves by photosynthesis. ("window" of The nutrients absorbed from trapped insects enable carnivorous plants to transparent thrive in acid, boggy soils that lack essential minerals, especially nitrates, tissue) where most other plants could not survive. Smooth surface All carnivorous plants have some leaves Dome-shaped Nectar roll modified as traps; many use bright colors hood develops and scented nectar to attract prey; and Fishtail most use enzymes to digest the prey. There nectary Mouth | are three types of traps. Pitcher plants, such appears as the monkey cup and cobra lily, have leaves Immature modified as pitcher-shaped pitfall traps, pitcher. half-filled with water; once lured inside the Downward mouth of the trap, insects lose their footing on pointing hair the slipperv surface, fall into the liquid, and DEVELOPMENT OF MODIFIED either decompose or are digested. Venus fly LEAF IN COBRA LILY traps use a spring-trap mechanism; when an Immature insect touches trigger hairs on the inner trap surfaces of the leaves, the two lobes of the trap Closed snap shut. Butterworts and sundews entangle Interlocked tran teeth prey by sticky droplets on the leaf surface, while the edges of the leaves slowly curl over to envelop and digest the prey. VENUS FLY TRAP (Dionaea muscipula) Red color of trap attracts insects Phyllode (flattened petiole) Trigger Sensory hair Summer petiole hinge (leaf stalk) Nectary zone Inner (glands secrete surface nectar) of trap Digestive zone Trap (glands Lobe (twin-lobed secrete of trap leaf blade) digestive enzymes) Midrib Spring petiole (leaf stalk) (hinge of Digestive trap) gland MICROGRAPH OF LOBE OF Tooth Trigger hair VENUS FLY TRAP

CARNIVOROUS PLANTS

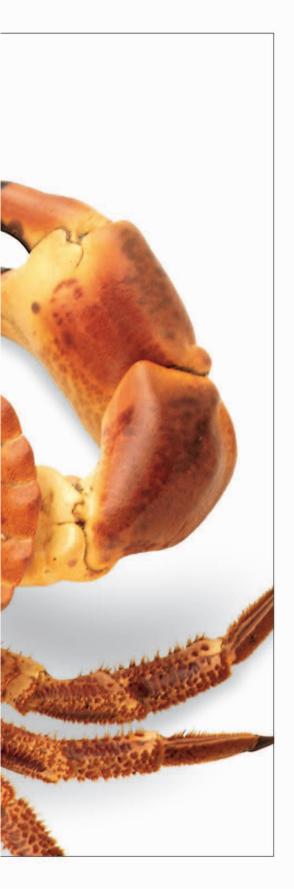


Epiphytic and parasitic plants

EPIPHYTIC AND PARASITIC PLANTS GROW ON OTHER LIVING PLANTS. Typically, epiphytic plants are not rooted in the soil; instead, they live above ground level on the stems and branches of other plants. Epiphytes obtain water from trapped rainwater and from moisture in the air, and minerals from organic matter that has accumulated on the surface of the plant on which they are growing. Like other green plants, epiphytes produce their food by photosynthesis. Epiphytes include tropical orchids and bromeliads (air plants), and some mosses that live in temperate regions. Parasitic plants obtain all their nutrient requirements from the host plants on which they grow. The parasites produce haustoria, rootlike organs that penetrate the stem or roots of the host and grow inward to merge with the host's vascular tissue, from which the parasite extracts water, minerals, and manufactured nutrients. As they have no need to produce their own food, parasitic plants lack chlorophyll, the green photosynthetic pigment, and they have no foliage leaves. Partial parasitic plants (e.g., mistletoe) Inflorescence obtain water and minerals from the host plant but have (spike) Peduncle green leaves and stems and are therefore able to (inflorescence Flower stalk) produce their own food by photosynthesis. bud EPIPHYTIC ORCHID Strap-shaped Brassavola nodosa arching leaf (part of rosette Peduncle of leaves) (inflorescence Leaf margin with spines stalk) Flower Pedicel Overlapping leaf (flower bases in which Mass of stalk) rainwater is trapped adventitious roots EPIPHYTIC BROMELIAD Stem Aechmea miniata Bark of tree to Scale which epiphyte is attached leaf Leaf Velamen Exodermis (multi-layered epidermis (outer layer capable of absorbing of cortex) water from rain or condensation) Cortex (layer between epidermis and vascular tissue) Aeria root Cortex cell containing Node chloroplasts Pith Stem Vascular Xylem / Endodermis tissue (inner layer Phloem of cortex) Bark of tree to which epiphyte MICROGRAPH OF CROSS-SECTION THROUGH is attached AERIAL ROOT OF EPIPHYTIC ORCHID







ANIMALS

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Sponges, jellyfish, and sea anemones

SPONGES ARE MAINLY MARINE animals that make up the phylum Porifera. They are among the simplest of all animals, having no tissues or organs. Their bodies consist of two layers of cells separated by a jellylike layer (mesohyal) that is strengthened by mineral spicules or protein fibers. The body is perforated by a system of pores and water channels called the aquiferous system. Special cells (choanocytes) with whiplike structures (flagella) draw water through the aquiferous system, thereby bringing tiny food particles to the sponge's cells. Jellyfish (class Scyphozoa), sea anemones (class Anthozoa), and corals (also class Anthozoa) belong to the SKELETON OF A SPONGE phylum Cnidaria, also known as Coelenterata. More complex than sponges, coelenterates have simple tissues, such as nervous tissue; a radially symmetrical body: and a mouth surrounded by

EXAMPLES OF SEA ANEMONES

tentacles with unique stinging

cells (cnidocytes).

JEWEL ANEMONE (Corynactis viridis) PARASITIC ANEMONE (Calliactis parasitica)

> PLUMOSE ANEMONE (*Metridium senile*)

Pore

MEDITERRANEAN SEA ANEMONE (Condylactis sp.)

Tentacle

Protein matrix

GREEN SNAKELOCK ANEMONE (Anemonia viridis)

> BEADLET ANEMONE (Actinia equina)

INTERNAL ANATOMY OF A SPONGE

Osculum (excurrent pore) Choanocyte (collar cell)

Ostium

Mesohyal

Spongocoel

Ostium (incurrent pore)

Spicule

Pinacocyte (epidermal cell)

EXTERNAL FEATURES

OF A SEA ANEMONE

(incurrent pore)

(atrium; paragaster)

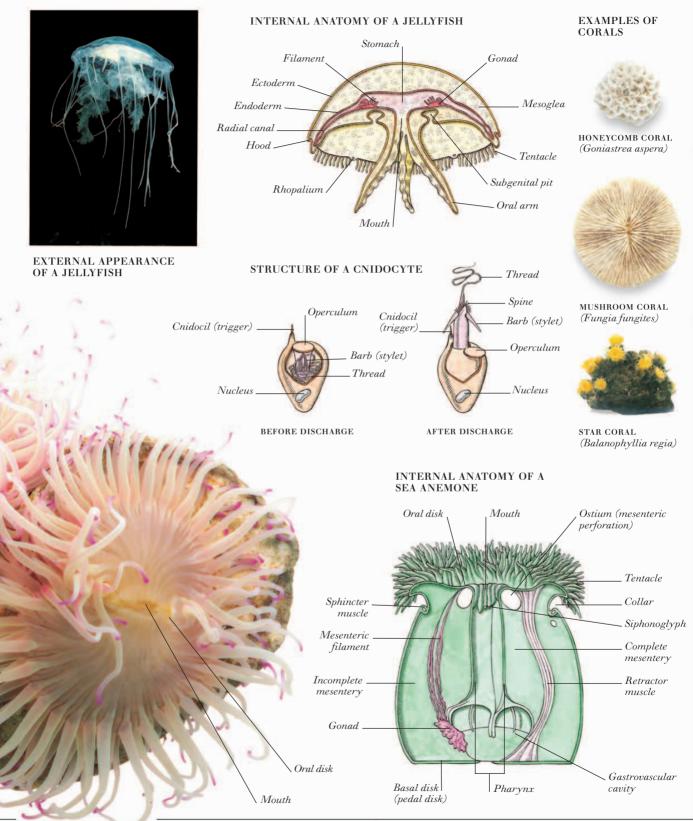
Porocyte (pore cell)

Amoebocyte

GHOST ANEMONE (Actinothoe sphyrodeta)

Sagartia elegans





EXAMPLES OF INSECTS

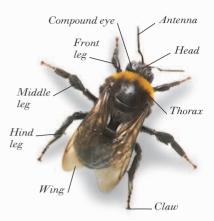
Insects



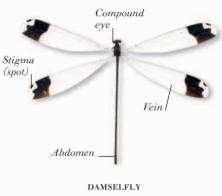
THE WORD INSECT REFERS to small invertebrate creatures, especially those with bodies divided into sections. Insects, including beetles, ants, bees, butterflies, and moths, belong to various orders in the class Insecta, which is a division of the phylum Arthropoda. Features common to all insects are an exoskeleton (external skeleton); three pairs of jointed legs; three body sections (head, thorax, and abdomen); and one pair of sensory antennae. Beetles (order Coleoptera) are the

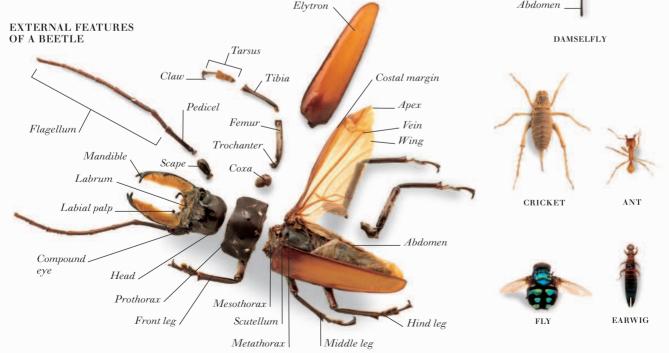
PUPA (CHRYSALIS)

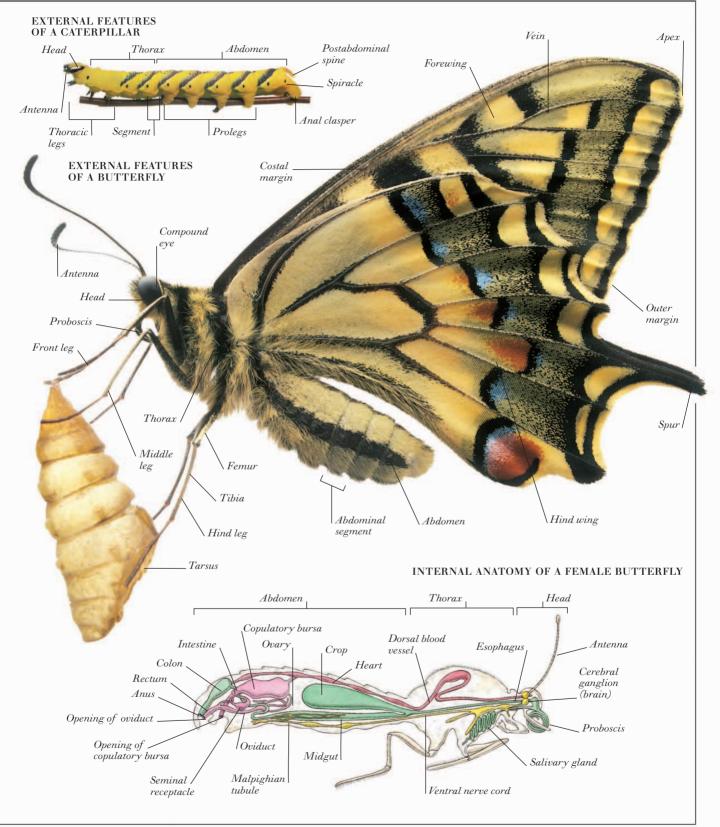
biggest group of insect, with about 300,000 species (about 30 percent of all known insects). They have a pair of hard elytra (wing cases), which are modified front wings. The principal function of the elytra is to protect the hind wings, which are used for flying. Ants, together with bees and wasps, form the order Hymenoptera, which contains about 200,000 species. This group is characterized by a marked narrowing between the thorax and abdomen. Butterflies and moths form the order Lepidoptera, which has about 150,000 species. They have wings covered with tiny scales, hence the name of their order (Lepidoptera means "scale wings"). The separation of lepidopterans into butterflies and moths is largely artificial, since there are no features that categorically distinguish one group from the other. In general, however, most butterflies fly by day, whereas most moths are night-flyers. Some insects, including butterflies and moths, undergo complete metamorphosis (transformation) during their life-cycle. A butterfly metamorphoses from an egg to a larva (caterpillar), then to a pupa (chrysalis), and finally to an imago (adult).



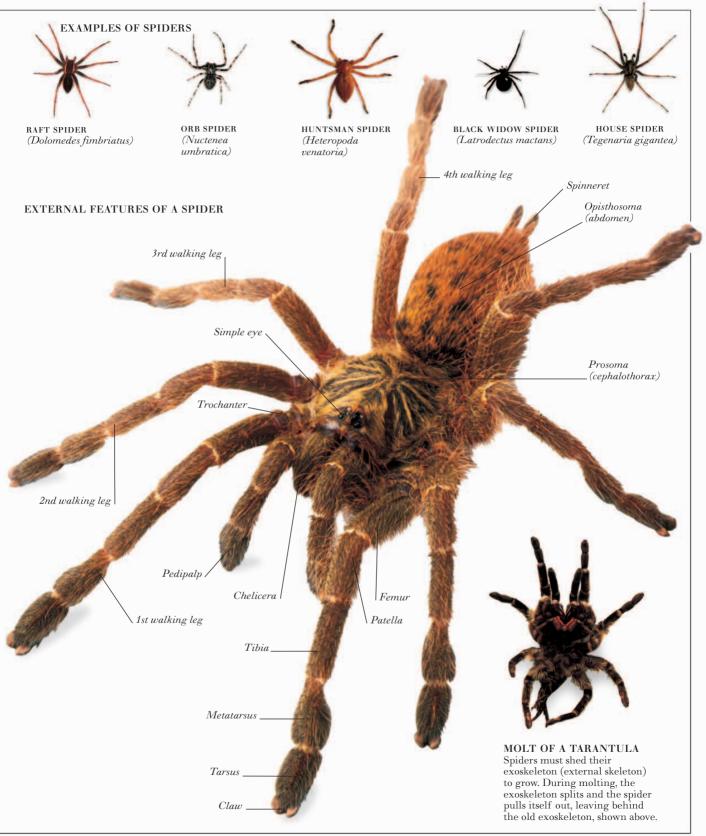
BUMBLEBEE







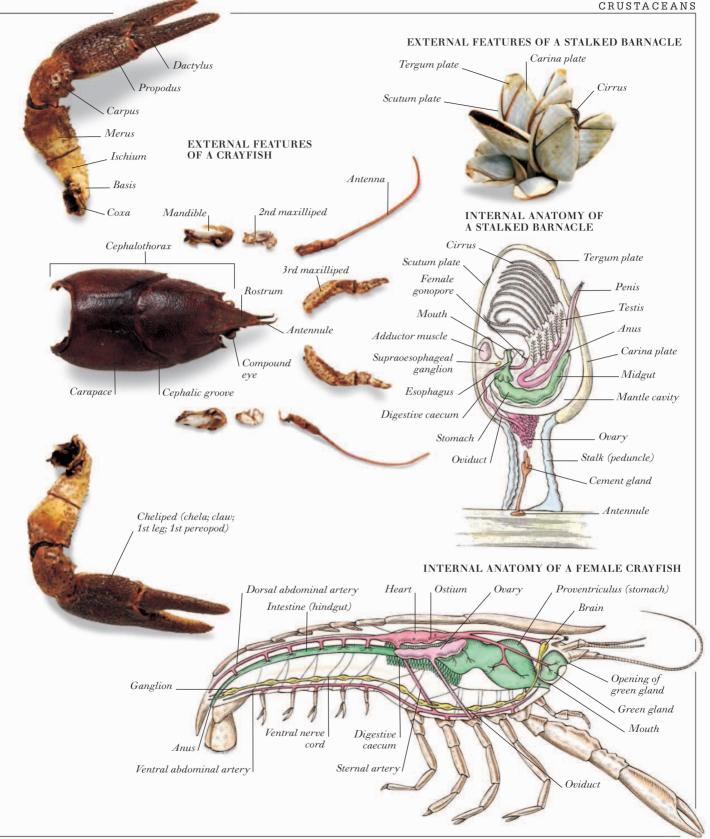
Arachnids THE CLASS ARACHNIDA INCLUDES SPIDERS (order Araneae) and scorpions (order Scorpiones). The class is part of the phylum Arthropoda, which also includes insects and crustaceans. Spiders and scorpions are characterized by having four pairs of walking legs; a pair of pincerlike mouthparts called chelicerae; another pair of frontal appendages called pedipalps, which are sensory in spiders but used for grasping in scorpions; and a body divided into two MEXICAN TRUE REDsections (a combined head and thorax called a cephalothorax LEGGED TARANTULA or prosoma, and an abdomen or opisthosoma). (Euathlus emilia) Unlike other arthropods, spiders and scorpions lack antennae. Spiders INTERNAL ANATOMY OF A FEMALE SPIDER and scorpions are carnivorous. Spiders poison prey by biting Anterior Ostium aorta Heart with the fanged chelicerae, Sucking stomach Digestive gland scorpions by stinging Posterior aorta with the end of the metasoma (tail). Brain Malpighian tubule Intestine Simple eye . Cloaca Ovary Poison gland Anus Poison duct Spinneret Oviduct Silk gland Chelicera Trachea Vagina Fang Book lung Spermatheca (seminal receptacle) Gut caecum Mouth Esophagus Spiracle EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A SCORPION Metasoma (tail) Stine Chela (claw of pedipalp) Pedipalp Prosoma (cephalothorax) Opisthosoma (abdomen) Chelicera Patella Median eve Tibia Tarsus Femur Coxa 3rd walking leg 4th walking leg Claw 1st walking leg Metatarsus Trochanter 2nd walking leg



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Crustaceans

1st swimmeret THE SUBPHYLUM CRUSTACEA is one of the largest groups (1st pleopod) in the phylum Arthropoda. The subphylum is divided into several classes, the most important of which are Malacostraca and Cirripedia. The class Malacostraca includes cravfish, crabs, lobsters, and shrimps. Typical features of malacostracans include a body divided nd swimmeret into two sections (a combined head (2nd pleopod) and thorax called a cephalothorax, 3rd swimmeret (3rd pleopod) 4th swimmeret (4th pleopod) and an abdomen); an exoskeleton (external skeleton) with a large 5th swimmeret (5th pleopod) plate (carapace) covering the Telson Abdomen cephalothorax; stalked, compound eyes; and two pairs of antennae. The class Cirripedia includes barnacles, which, unlike other crustaceans, spend their adult lives attached to a Endopod Uropod surface, such as a rock. Other Exopod Abdominal characteristics of cirripedes segment include an exoskeleton of 3rd leg overlapping calcareous plates; (3rd pereopod) a body consisting almost entirely of thorax (the abdomen and head are minute); and six pairs of thoracic appendages (cirri) used for filter feeding. 2nd leg (2nd 5th leg (5th EXTERNAL FEATURES pereopod) pereopod) Propodus OF A CRAB 4th leg (4th Dactylus Carpus pereopod) Compound eye Antenna EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A SHRIMP Cheliped (chela; claw; 1st leg; Cephalothorax Compound eye 1st pereopod) Abdomen Carapace (shell) Merus Antenna Leg Swimmeret (pereopod) (pleopod) Abdomen 2nd leg (2nd pereopod) Exopod Uropod Endopod 5th leg (5th pereopod) 3rd leg (3rd pereopod) Telson 4th leg (4th pereopod)



Starfish and sea urchins

STARFISH, SEA URCHINS, AND THEIR relatives (including feather stars, brittle stars, basket stars, sea daisies, sea lilies, and sea cucumbers) make up the phylum Echinodermata. A unique feature of echinoderms is the water vascular system, which consists of a series of water-filled canals from which protrude thousands of tiny tube feet. The tube feet may be used for movement, feeding, or respiration. Other features include pentaradiate symmetry (that is, the body can be divided into five parts radiating from the center); no head; a diffuse, decentralized nervous system that lacks a brain; and no excretory organs. Typically, echinoderms also have an endoskeleton (internal skeleton) consisting of hard calcite ossicles embedded in the body wall and often bearing protruding spines or tubercles. The ossicles may fit together to form a test (as in sea urchins) or remain separate (as in sea cucumbers).

Rectum

Mouth Esophagus

Pyloric stomach

Madreporite

Gonad | Conopore

Stone canal

Ring canal

Lateral canal

Radial canal Ampulla ____ EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A STARFISH (UPPER, OR ABORAL, SURFACE)

Disk

Madreporite /

Tube foot

INTERNAL ANATOMY OF A STARFISH

Anus

Rectal caecum

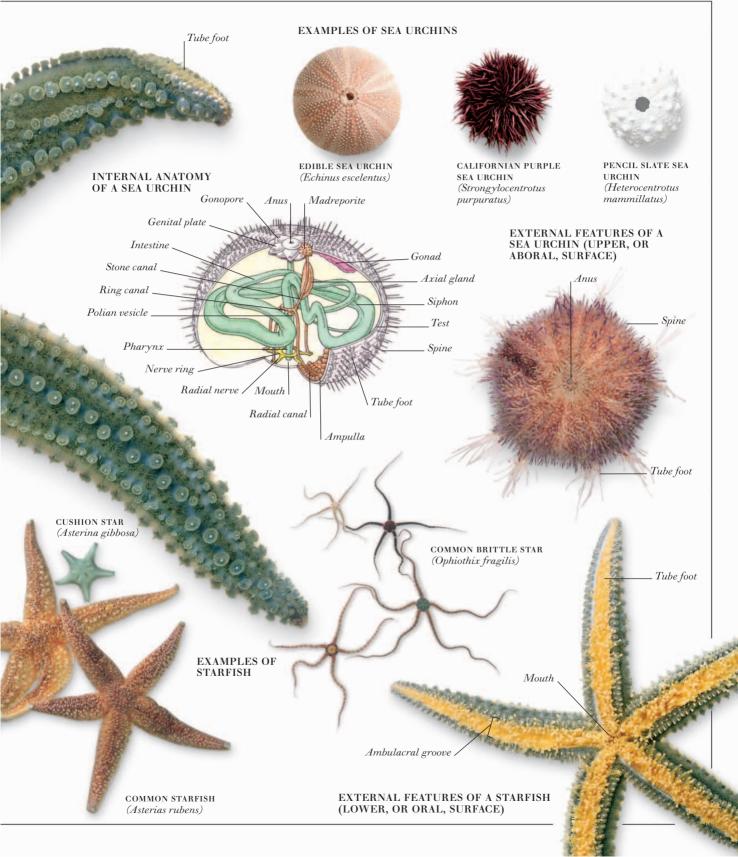
Cardiac stomach

Pyloric duct

Pyloric caecum

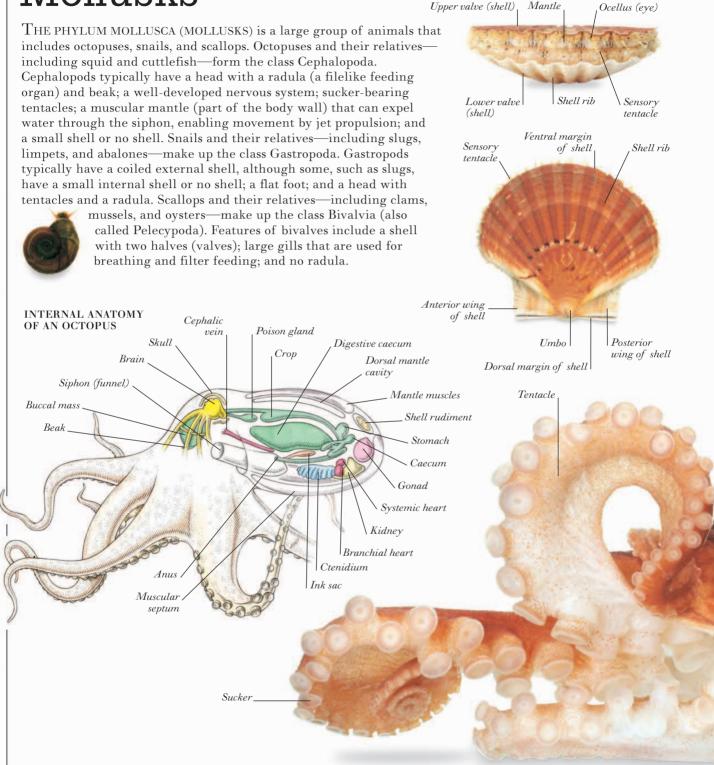
Spine

___ Arm

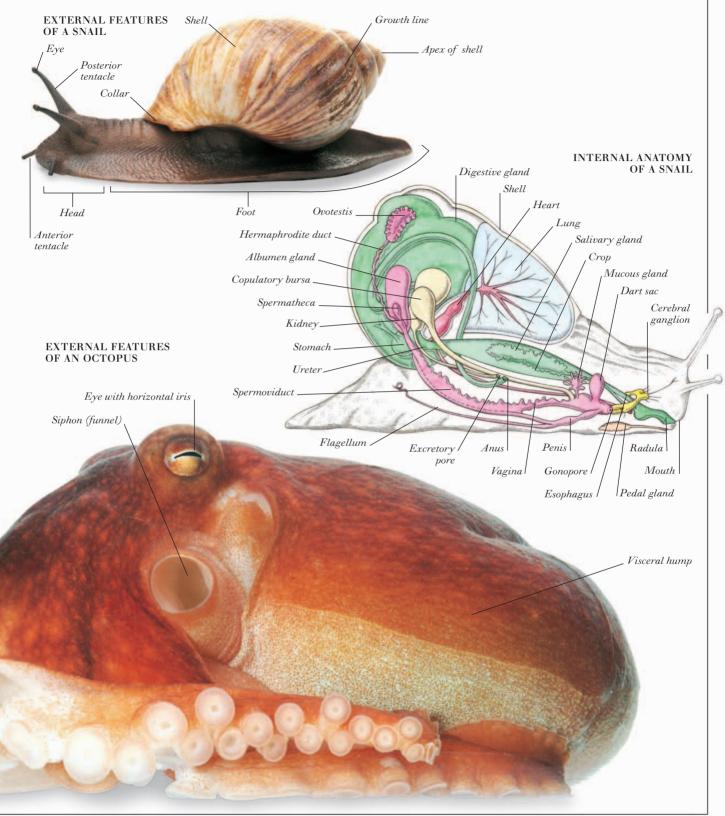


Mollusks





MOLLUSKS



Sharks and jawless fish

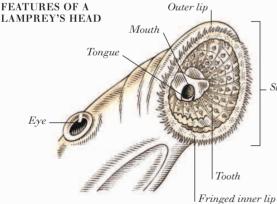
SHARKS, DOGFISH (WHICH ARE actually small sharks), skates, and rays belong to a class of fishes called Chondrichthyes, which is a division of the superclass Gnathostomata (meaning "jawed mouths"). Also sometimes known as elasmobranchs, sharks and their relatives have a skeleton made of cartilage (hence their common name, cartilaginous fish), a characteristic that distinguishes them from bony fish (see pp. 180-181). Other important features of cartilaginous fish are extremely tough, toothlike scales, and lack of a swim bladder. Jawless fishlampreys and hagfish—are primitive, eellike fish that make up the order Cyclostomata (meaning "round mouths"), a division of the superclass Agnatha (meaning "without jaws"). In addition to their characteristic round. suckerlike mouths and lack of jaws, cyclostomes also have smooth, slimy skin without scales, and unpaired fins. Snout

SHARKS' JAWS

Jaws of an adult tiger shark

Jaws of a young tiger shark

EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A DOGFISH



Sucker

Eve

Gill slit

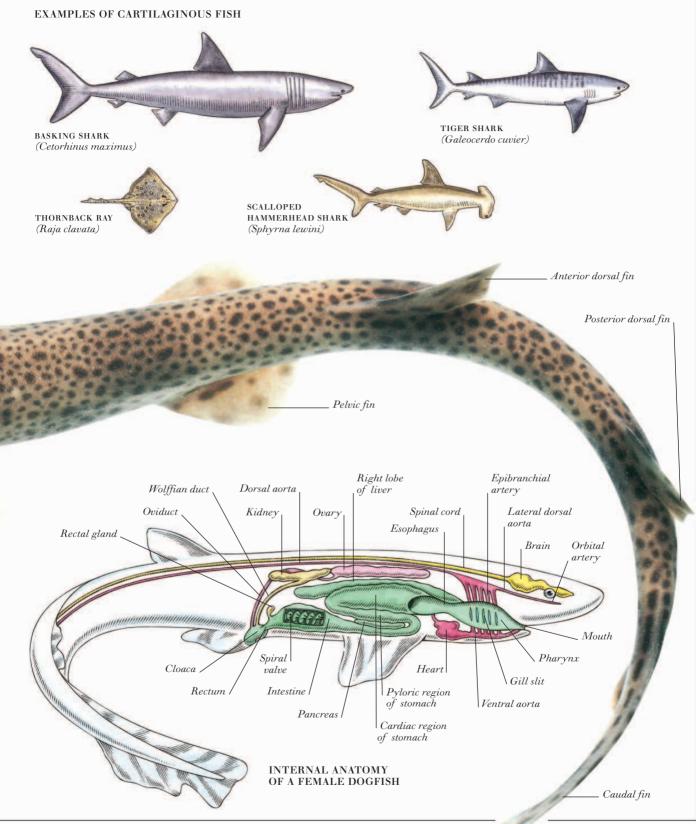
Pectoral fin

Posterior dorsal fin

Anterior dorsal fin

EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A LAMPREY



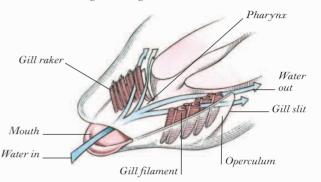


Bony fish

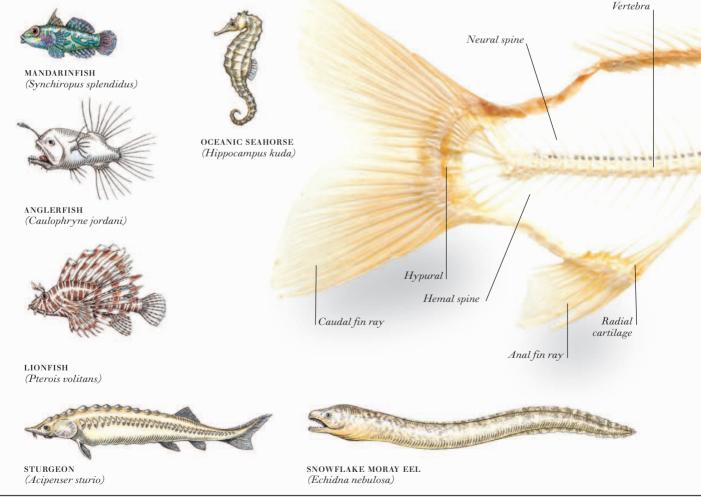
BONY FISH, SUCH AS CARP, TROUT, SALMON, perch, and cod, are by far the best known and largest group of fish, with more than 20,000 species (over 95 percent of all known fish). As their name suggests, bony fish have skeletons made of bone, in contrast to the cartilaginous skeletons of sharks, jawless fish, and their relatives (see pp. 178-179). Other typical features of bony fish include a swim bladder, which functions as a variable-buoyancy organ, enabling a fish to remain effortlessly at whatever depth it is swimming; relatively thin, bonelike scales; a flap (called an operculum) covering the gills; and paired pelvic and pectoral fins. Scientifically, bony fish belong to the class Osteichthyes, which is a division of the superclass Gnathostomata (meaning "jawed mouths").

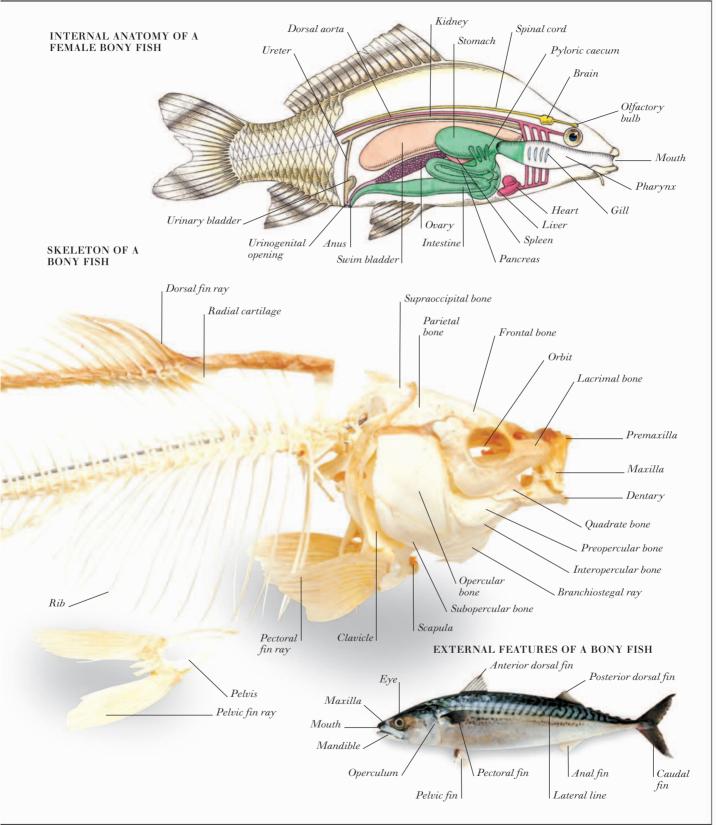
HOW FISH BREATHE

Fish "breathe" by extracting oxygen from water through their gills. Water is sucked in through the mouth; simultaneously, the opercula close to prevent the water from escaping. The mouth is then closed, and muscles in the walls of the mouth, pharynx, and opercular cavity contract to pump the water inside over the gills and out through the opercula. Some fish rely on swimming with their mouths open to keep water flowing over the gills.

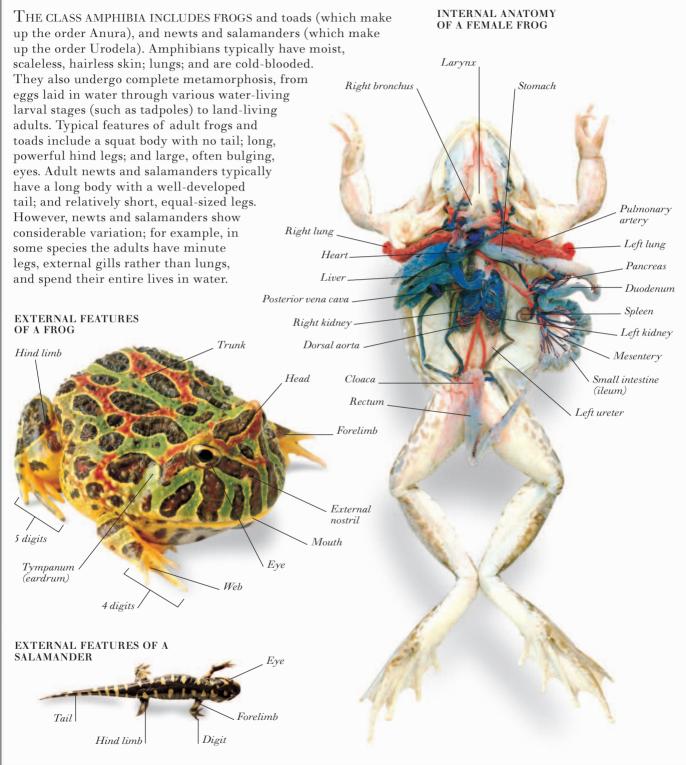


EXAMPLES OF BONY FISH

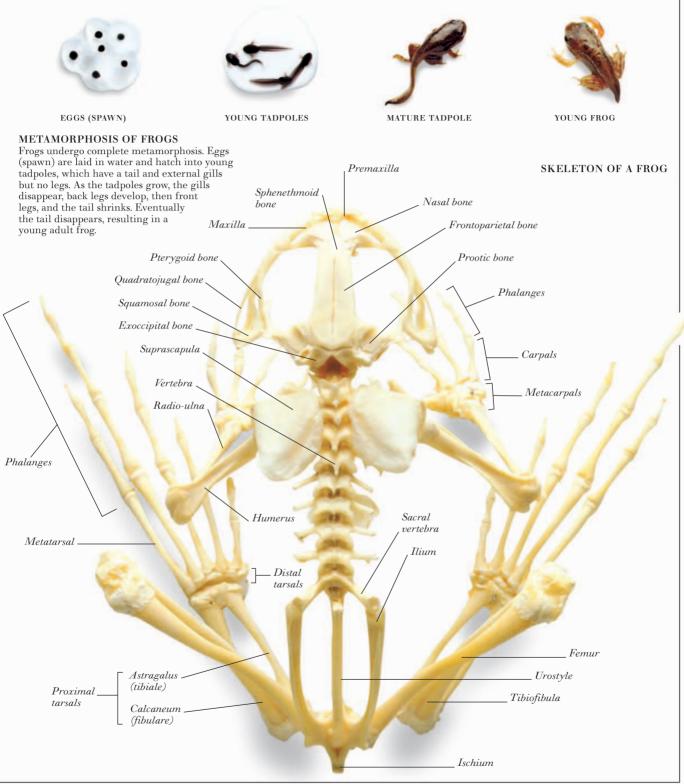




Amphibians



182

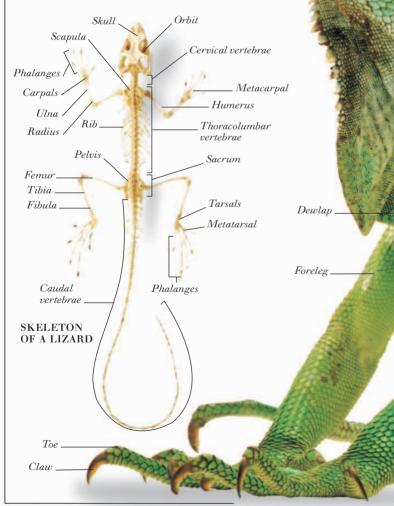


Lizards and snakes

LIZARDS AND SNAKES BELONG to the order Squamata, a division of the class Reptilia. Characteristic reptilian features include scaly skin, lungs, and cold-bloodedness. Most reptiles lay leathery-shelled eggs, although some hatch the eggs inside their bodies and give birth to live young. Lizards belong to the suborder Lacertilia. Typically, they have long tails, and shed their skin in several pieces. Many lizards can regenerate a tail

if it is lost; some can change color; and some are limbless. Snakes make up the suborder Ophidia (also called Serpentes). All snakes have long, limbless bodies; can dislocate their lower jaw to swallow large prey; and have eyelids that are joined together to form a single transparent covering over the front of the eye. Most snakes shed their skin in a single piece. Constrictor snakes kill their prey by squeezing; External venomous snakes poison their prey.

nostril



BANDED MILK SNAKE (Lampropeltis

ruthveni)

Crest Eardrum

EXAMPLES OF SNAKES

MEXICAN

annulata)

EXTERNAL FEATURES

OF A LIZARD

MOUNTAIN

KING SNAKE

(Lampropeltis triangulum

Eve

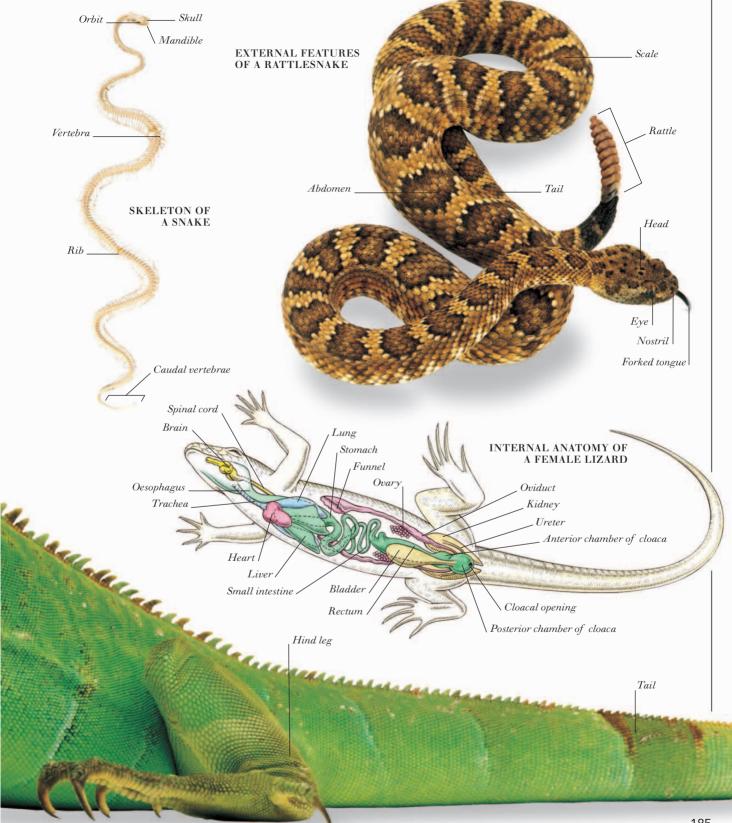
Belly Ventral scale

Mouth

Masseteric scale

Dorsal scale

Canadadada



Crocodilians and turtles

CROCODILIANS AND TURTLES BELONG to different orders in the class Reptilia. The order Crocodilia includes crocodiles, alligators, caimans, and gharials. Typically, crocodilians are carnivores (flesh-eaters), and have a long snout, sharp teeth for gripping prey, and hard, square scales. All crocodilians are adapted to living on land and in water: they have four strong legs for moving on land; a powerful tail for swimming; and their eyes and nostrils are high on the head so that they stay above water while the rest of the body is submerged. The order Chelonia includes marine turtles, terrapins (freshwater turtles), and tortoises (land turtles). Characteristically, chelonians have a short, broad body encased in a bony shell with an outer horny covering, into which the head and limbs can be withdrawn; and a horny beak instead of teeth.

SKULLS OF CROCODILIANS



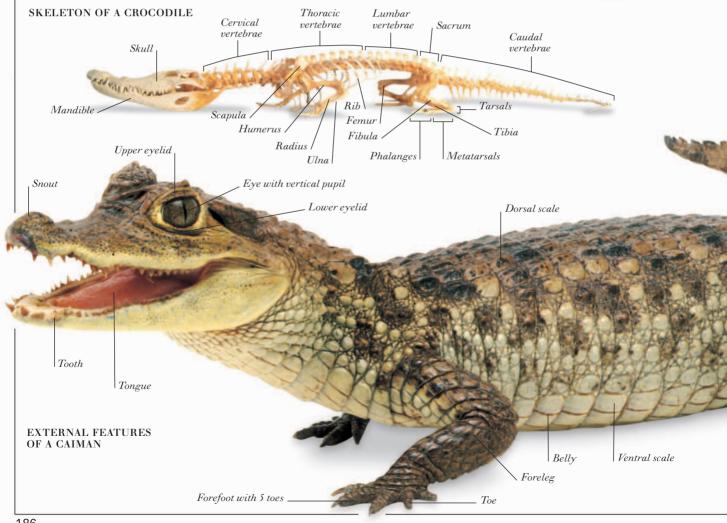
GHARIAL (Gavialis gangeticus)

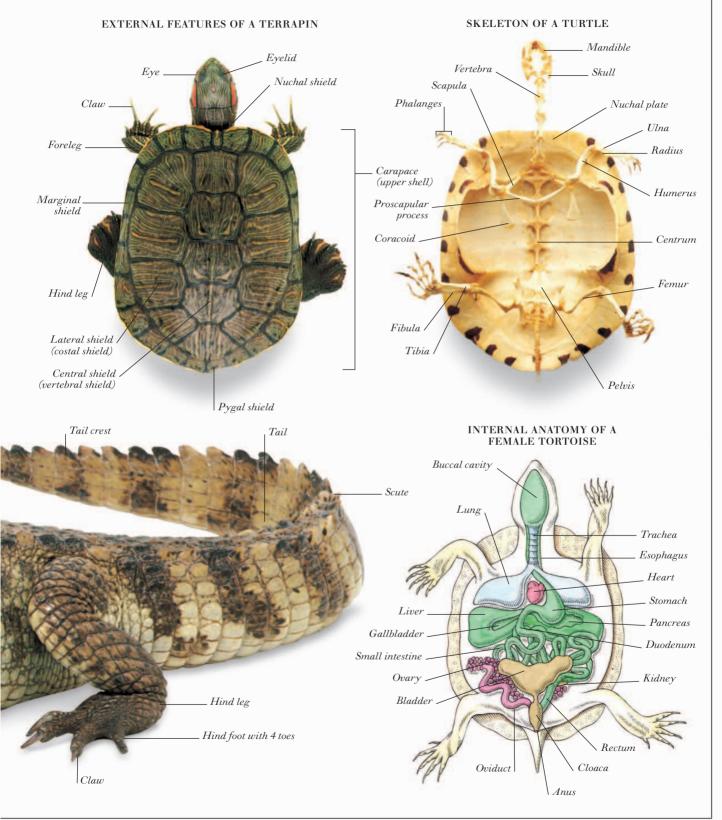


NILE CROCODILE (Crocodylus niloticus)



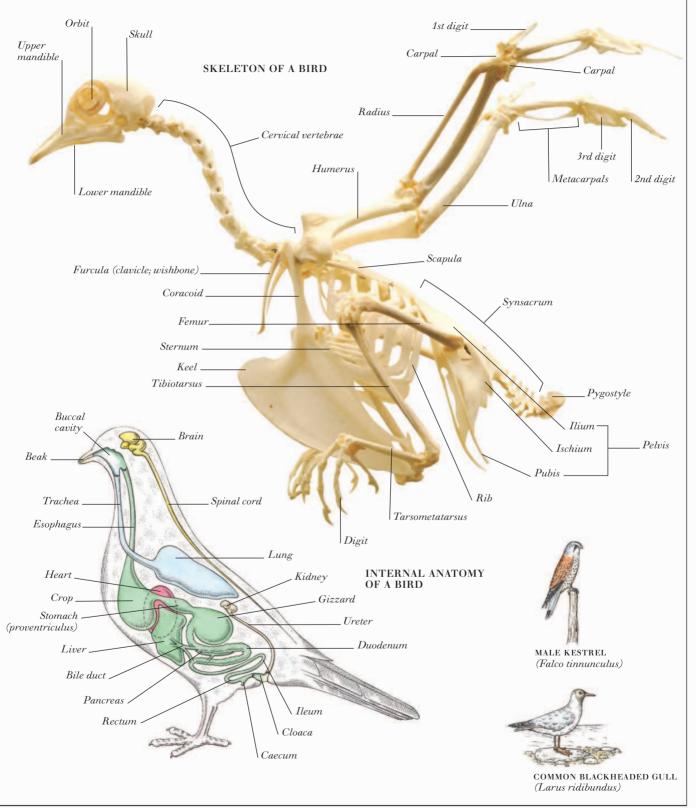
AMERICAN ALLIGATOR (Alligator mississippiensis)





Birds 1

BIRDS MAKE UP THE CLASS AVES. There are more than 9,000 species, almost all of which can fly (the only flightless birds are penguins, ostriches, rheas, cassowaries, and kiwis). The ability to fly is reflected in the typical bird features: forelimbs modified as wings; a streamlined body; and hollow bones to reduce weight. All birds lay hard-shelled eggs, which the parents incubate. Birds' beaks and feet vary according to diet and way of life. Beaks range from general-purpose types suitable for a EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A BIRD mixed diet (those of thrushes, for example), to types Forehead Eve specialized for particular foods (such as the large, Crown curved, sieving beaks of flamingos). Feet range Nostril from the webbed "paddles" of ducks, to the Upper talons of birds of prey. Plumage also varies mandible widely, and in many species the male is NapeBeak brightly colored for courtship display whereas the female is drab. Lower mandible Chin EXAMPLES OF BIRDS Throat Minor Lesser wing coverts coverts. Median wing coverts MALE TUFTED DUCK (Aythya fuligula) Greater wing coverts (major coverts) Secondary flight feathers (secondary remiges) Breast Primary flight feathers (primaryremiges) Belly Flank WHITE STORK (Ciconia ciconia) Thigh Under tail Claw coverts Tarsus Toe Tail feathers (retrices) MALE OSTRICH (Struthio camelus)



ANIMALS

Birds 2

EXAMPLES OF BIRDS' FEET

KITTIWAKE (*Rissa tridactyla*) The webbed feet are adapted for paddling through water.

> TAWNY OWL (Strix aluco) The clawed feet are adapted for gripping prey.

EXAMPLES OF BIRDS' BEAKS

Contraction of the second seco

KING VULTURE (Sarcorhamphus papa) The hooked beak is adapted for pulling apart flesh.

LITTLE GREBE (Tachybaptus ruficollis) The lobed, flattened feet are adapted for swimming

underwater.

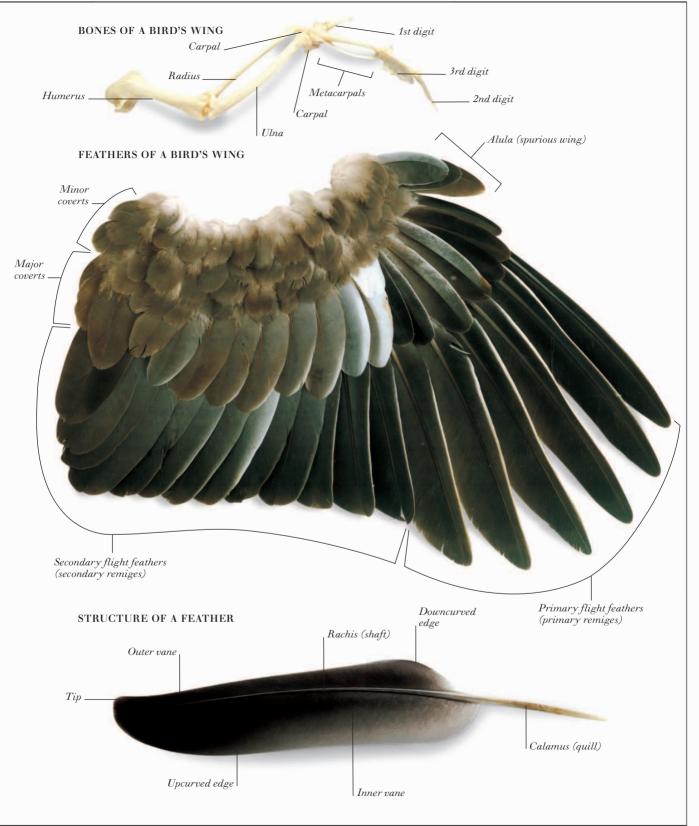


BLUE-AND-YELLOW MACAW (Ara ararauna) The broad, powerful, hooked beak is adapted for crushing seeds and eating fruit.

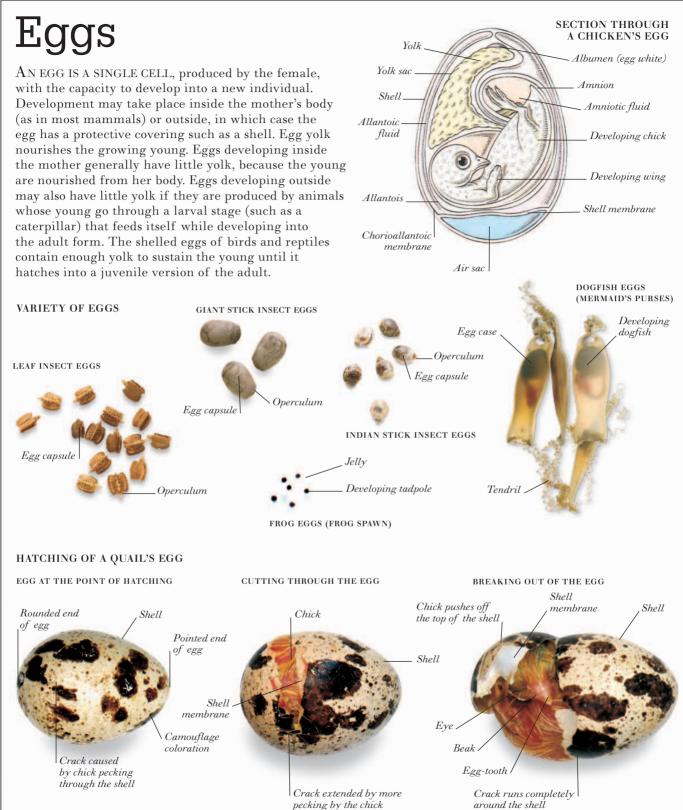
GREATER FLAMINGO (*Phoenicopterus ruber*) In the living bird, the large, curved beak contains a cartilaginous "strainer" for filtering food particles from water.

> MISTLE THRUSH (*Turdus viscivorus*) The general-purpose beak is suitable for a wide range of animal and plant foods.

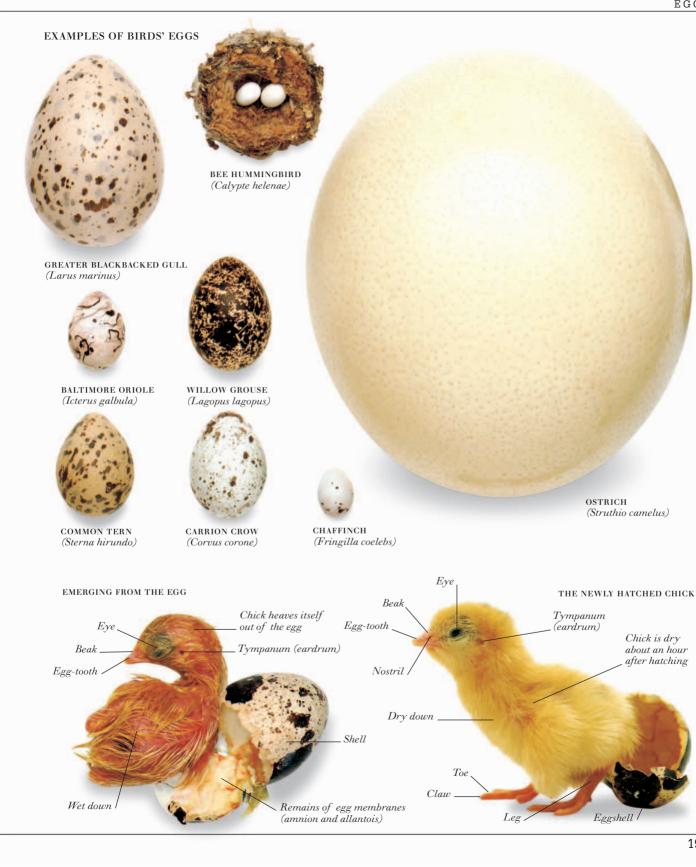
BIRDS 2



ANIMALS



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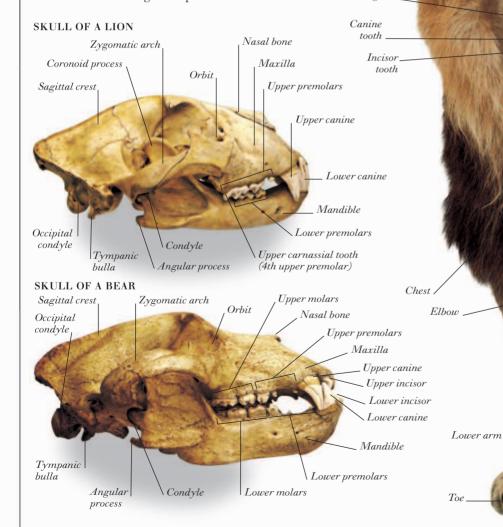
Carnivores

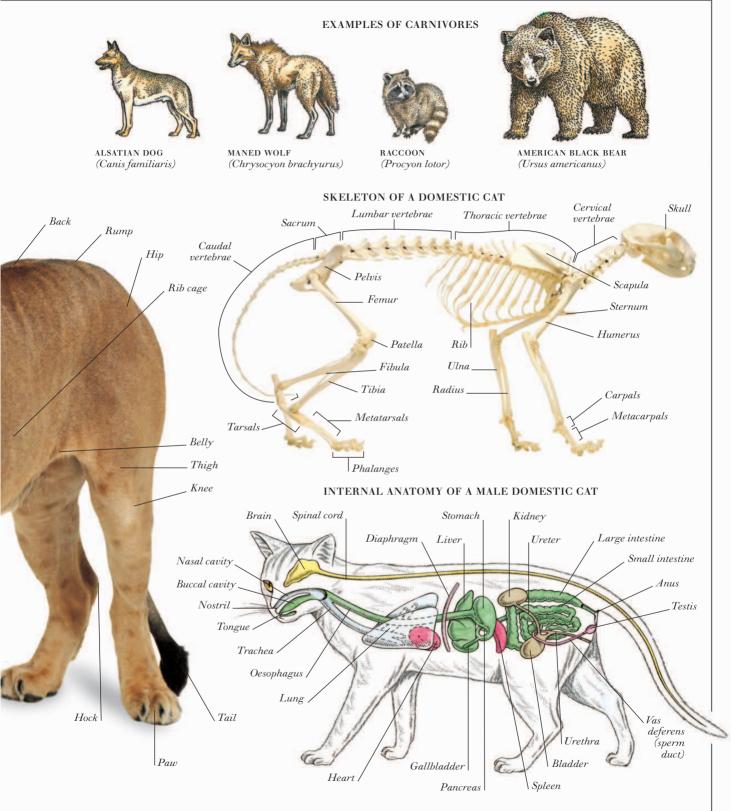
THE MAMMALIAN ORDER CARNIVORA includes cats, dogs, bears, raccoons, pandas, weasels, badgers, skunks, otters, civets, mongooses, and hyenas. The order's name is derived from the fact that most of its members are carnivores (flesh-eaters). Typical carnivore features therefore reflect a hunting life-style: speed and agility; sharp claws and well-developed canine teeth for holding and killing prey; carnassial teeth (cheek teeth) for cutting flesh; and forward-facing eyes for good distance judgment. However, some members of the Nostril order-bears, badgers, and foxes, for examplehave a more mixed diet, and a few are entirely Vibrissa (whisker) herbivorous (plant-eating), notably pandas. Such animals have no carnassial teeth and tend to be slower moving than pure flesh-eaters. Tongue EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A MALE LION

Mane

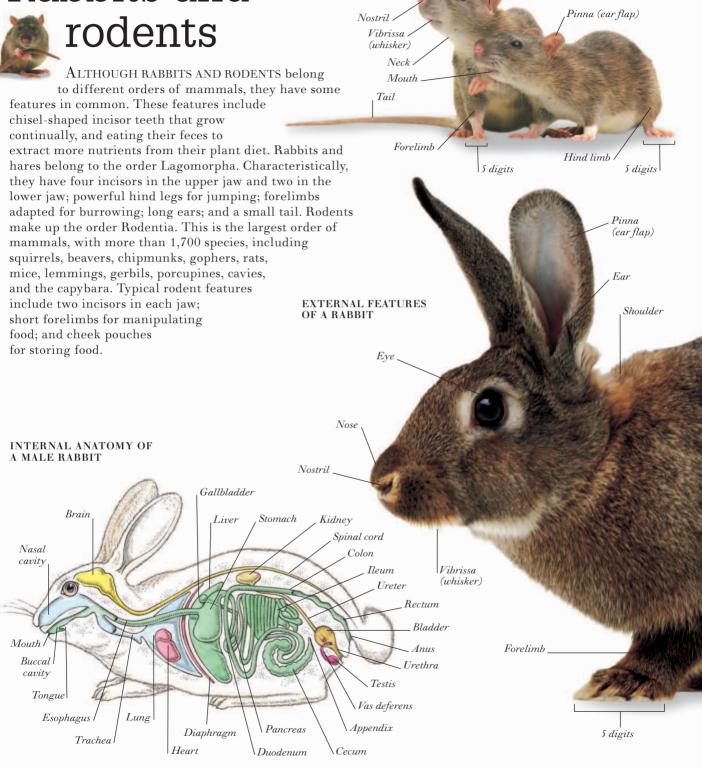
Nose

Eye





Rabbits and rodents



Snout

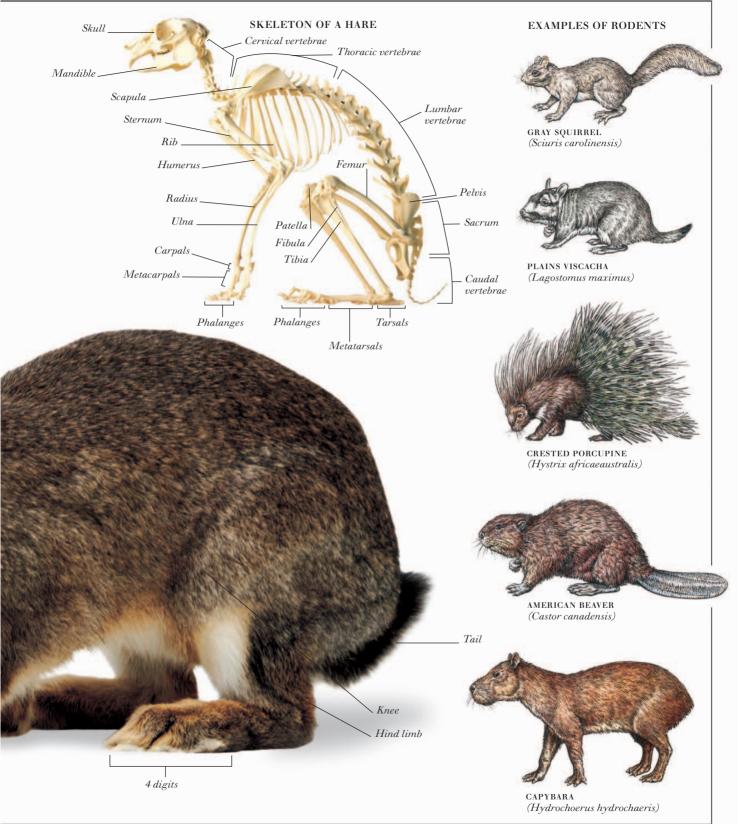
Nose

Ear

EXTERNAL FEATURES

OF A RAT

Eve



Ungulates

COMPARISON OF THE FRONT FEET

Fused 3rd and

Sesamoid

bone

4th metacarpals

Sesamoid

hone

Phalanges of 3rd digit

Hoof bone of

4th digit

OF A HORSE AND A COW

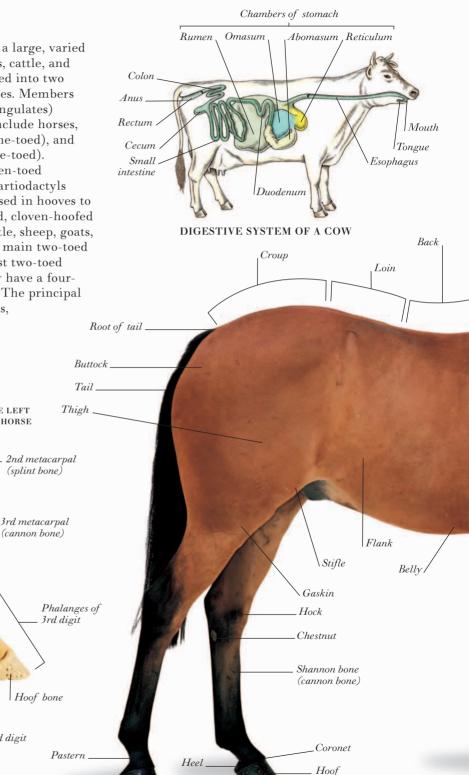
SKELETON OF THE RIGHT FRONT FOOT OF A COW

UNGULATES IS A GENERAL TERM FOR a large, varied group of mammals that includes horses, cattle, and their relatives. The ungulates are divided into two orders on the basis of the number of toes. Members of the order Perissodactyla (odd-toed ungulates) have one or three toes. Perissodactyls include horses, onagers, and zebras (all of which are one-toed), and rhinoceroses and tapirs (which are three-toed). Members of the order Artiodactyla (even-toed ungulates) have two or four toes. Most artiodactyls have two toes, which are typically encased in hooves to give the so-called cloven hoof. Two-toed, cloven-hoofed artiodactyls include cows and other cattle, sheep, goats, antelopes, deer, and giraffes. The other main two-toed artiodactyls are camels and llamas. Most two-toed artiodactyls are ruminants; that is, they have a fourchambered stomach and chew the cud. The principal four-toed artiodactyls are pigs, peccaries, and hippopotamuses.

SKELETON OF THE LEFT

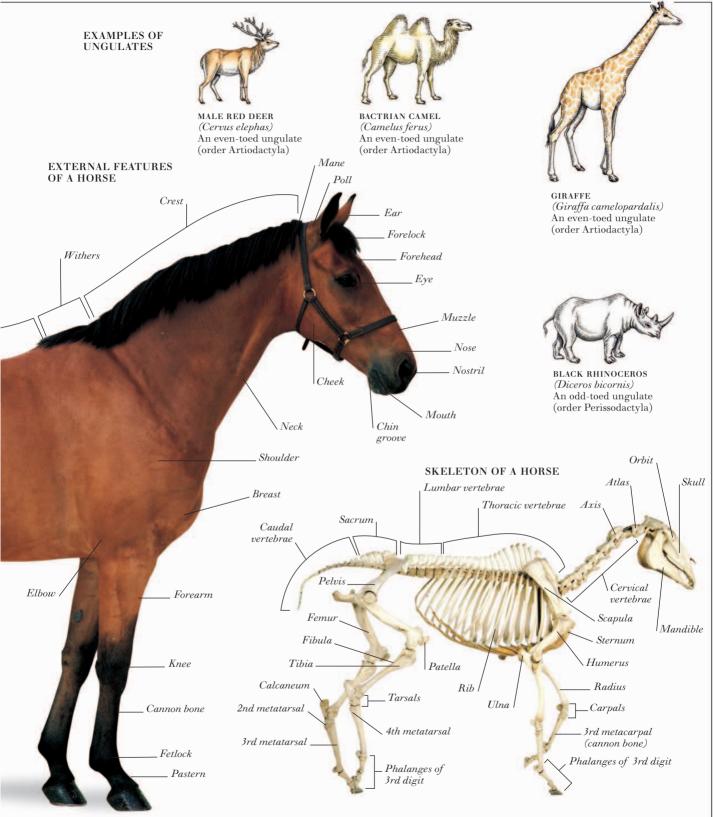
FRONT FOOT OF A HORSE

Hoof bone of 3rd digit



Phalanges / of 4th digit

UNGULATES



Elephants

THE TWO SPECIES OF elephant—African and Asian—are the only members of the mammalian order Proboscidea. The bigger African elephant is the largest land animal: a fully grown male may be up to 13 ft (4 m) tall and weigh nearly 8 tons (7 metric tons). A fully grown male Asian elephant may be 11 ft (3.3 m) tall and weigh 6 tons (5.4 metric tons). The trunk-an extension of the nose and upper lip—is the elephant's other most obvious feature. It is used for manipulating and lifting, feeding, drinking and spraying water, smelling, touching, and producing trumpeting sounds. Other characteristic features include a pair of tusks, used for defense and for crushing vegetation; thick, pillarlike legs and broad feet to support the massive body; and large ear flaps that act as radiators to keep the elephant cool.

INTERNAL ANATOMY OF

Brain

A FEMALE ELEPHANT

Nasal cavity

Buccal cavity

Mouth

Tongue

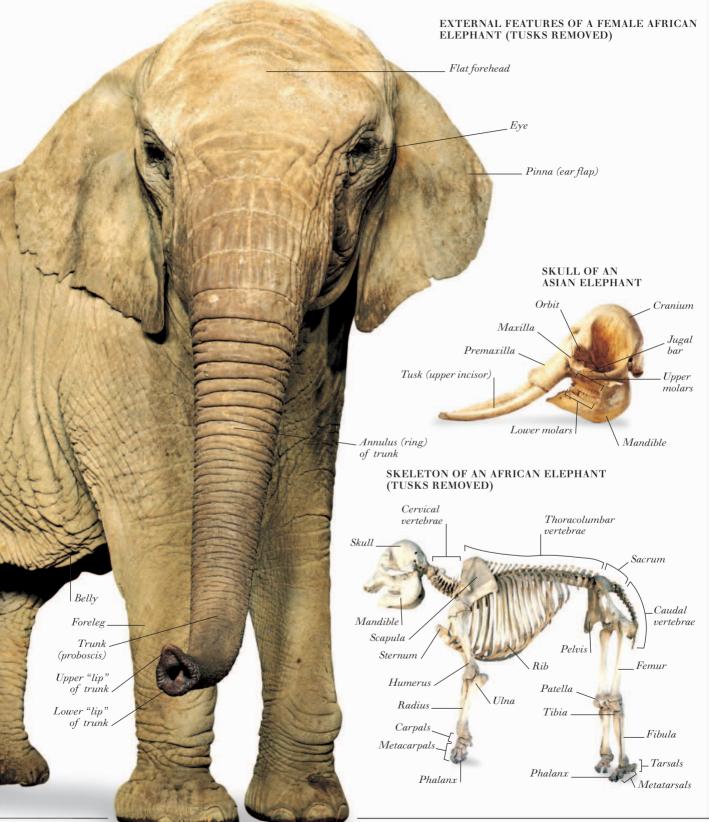
Nasal

passage.

Nostril

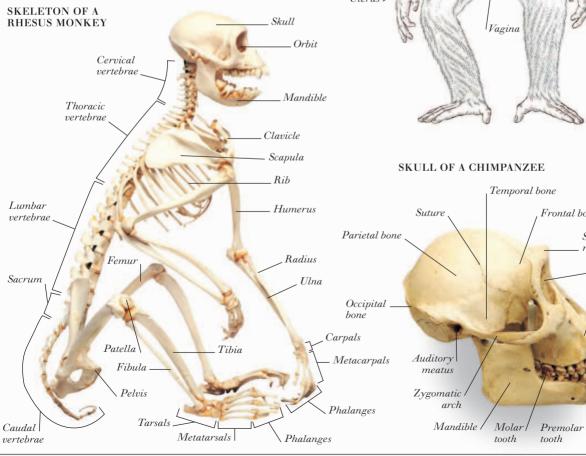
Tusk

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AFRICAN AND ASIAN ELEPHANTS Flat Concave forehead back Very large ears 2 "lips" at the end of the trunk 4 toenails AFRICAN ELEPHANT 3 toenails (Loxodonta africana) Arched Twin-domed back forehead Smaller ears 1 "lip" at the end of the trunk 5 toenails toenails ASIAN ELEPHANT (Elephas maximus) Rump Duodenum Spinal cord Heart Stomach Kidney Ureter Uterus Rectum Bladder Anal flap Anus Vagina Epiglottis Hind leg Esophagus Small Trachea intestine Spleen Lung Vulva Diaphragm Toenail

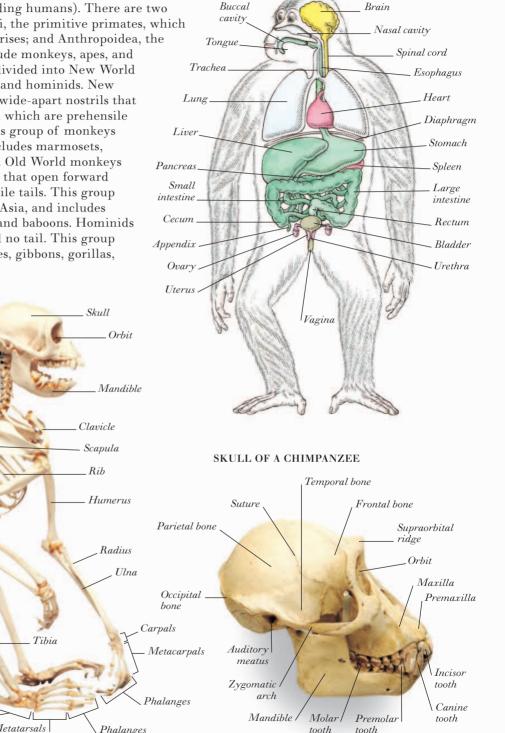


Primates

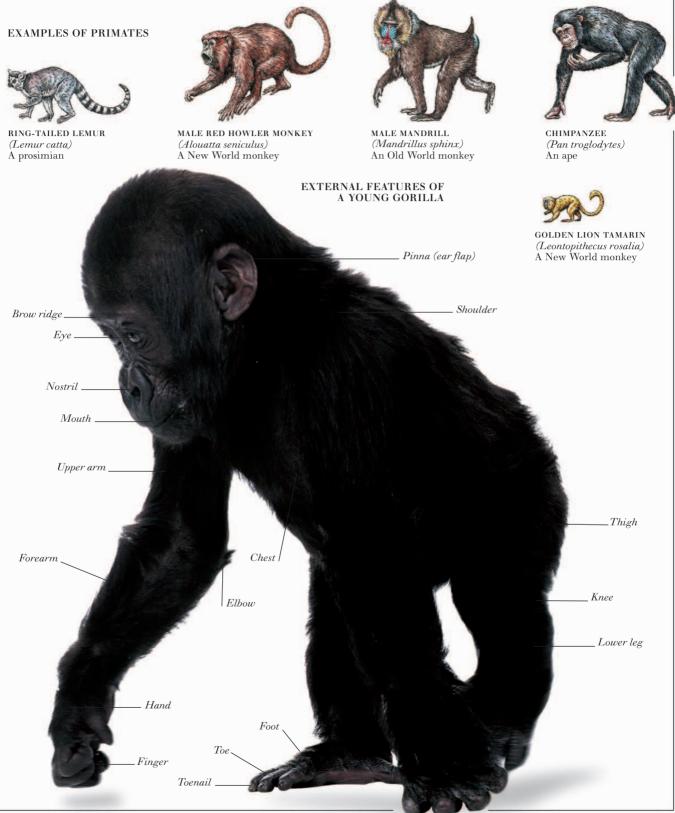
THE MAMMALIAN ORDER PRIMATES consists of monkeys, apes, and their relatives (including humans). There are two suborders of primates: Prosimii, the primitive primates, which include lemurs, tarsiers, and lorises; and Anthropoidea, the advanced primates, which include monkeys, apes, and humans. The anthropoids are divided into New World monkeys, Old World monkeys, and hominids. New World monkeys typically have wide-apart nostrils that open to the side; and long tails, which are prehensile (grasping) in some species. This group of monkeys lives in South America, and includes marmosets, tamarins, and howler monkeys. Old World monkeys typically have close-set nostrils that open forward or downward; and non-prehensile tails. This group of monkeys lives in Africa and Asia, and includes langurs, mandrills, macaques, and baboons. Hominids typically have large brains, and no tail. This group includes the apes-chimpanzees, gibbons, gorillas, and orangutans-and humans.



INTERNAL ANATOMY OF A FEMALE CHIMPANZEE



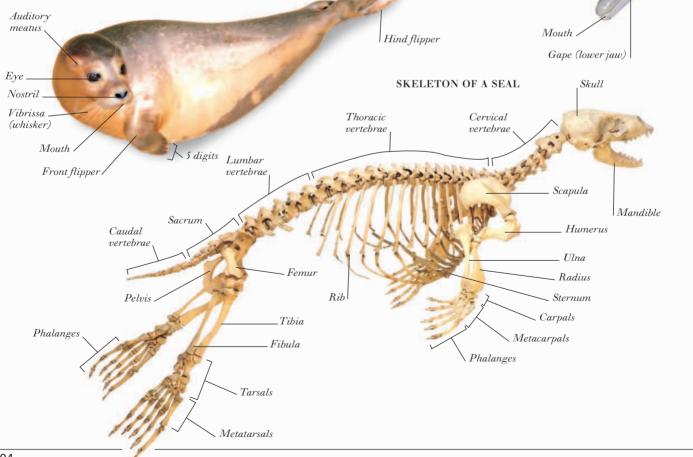
PRIMATES



Dolphins, whales, and seals

DOLPHINS, WHALES, AND SEALS belong to two orders of mammal adapted to living Mouth in water. Dolphins and whales make up the order Cetacea. Typical cetacean features include Gape a streamlined, fishlike shape; forelimbs in the form (lower jaw) of flippers; no visible hind limbs; a horizontally flattened Eve tail; and thick blubber under the skin. There are two groups of cetaceans: toothed whales, including sperm whales, white whales, beaked whales, dolphins, and porpoises; and the larger whalebone (baleen) whales, including rorquals, gray whales, and right whales. The blue whale-a rorqual—is the largest living animal: an adult may be up to 100 ft (30 m) long and weigh 145 tons (130 metric tons). Seals and their relatives-sea lions and walruses-make up the order Pinnipedia. Characteristically, they have a streamlined, torpedo-shaped body; forelimbs and hind limbs modified as flippers; thick blubber; and no external ears. 5 digits

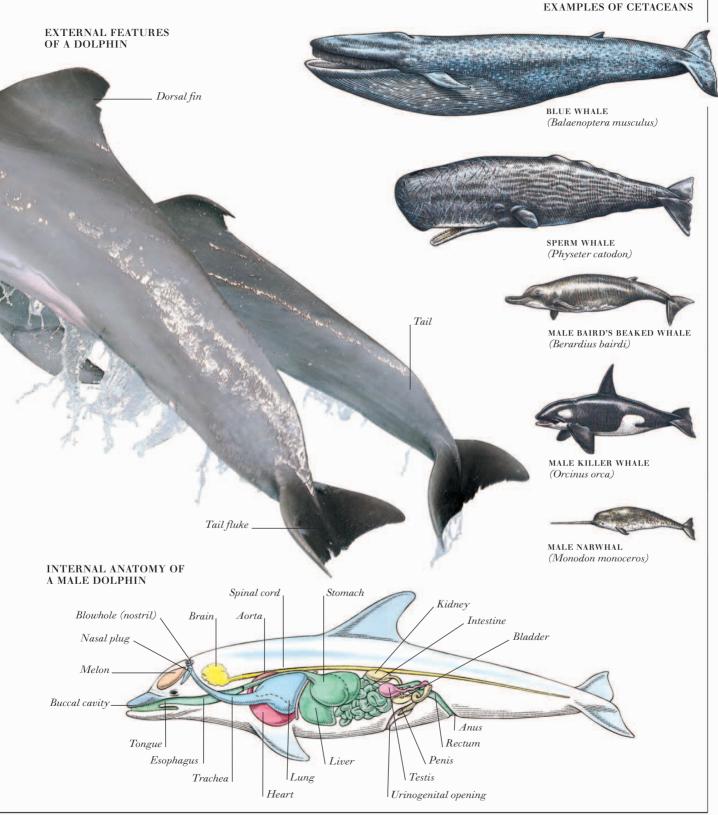
EXTERNAL FEATURES OF A SEAL



Flipper

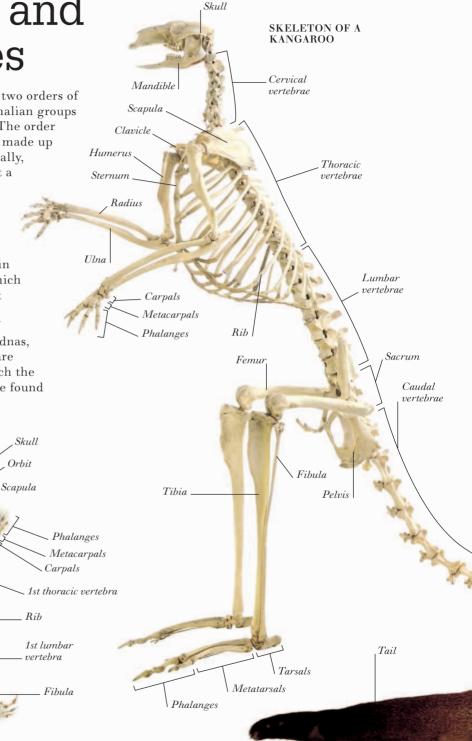
Bell

DOLPHINS, WHALES, AND SEALS



Marsupials and Monotremes

MARSUPIALS AND MONOTREMES are two orders of mammal that differ from other mammalian groups in the ways that their young develop. The order Marsupalia, the pouched mammals, is made up of kangaroos and their relatives. Typically, marsupials give birth to their young at a very early stage of development. The young then crawls to the mother's pouch (which is on the outside of her abdomen), where it attaches itself to a nipple and remains until fully developed. Most marsupials live in Australia, although the opossums-which are classified as marsupials despite not having a pouch—live in the Americas. The order Monotremata is made up of the platypus and its relatives (the echidnas, or spiny anteaters). The monotremes are primitive mammals that lay eggs, which the mother incubates. The monotremes are found only in Australia and New Guinea.



SKELETON OF A

Ulna

Radius

Humerus

Tarsals

Metatarsals

Phalanges

Femur

Tibia

Pelvis

Patella

1st caudal vertebra

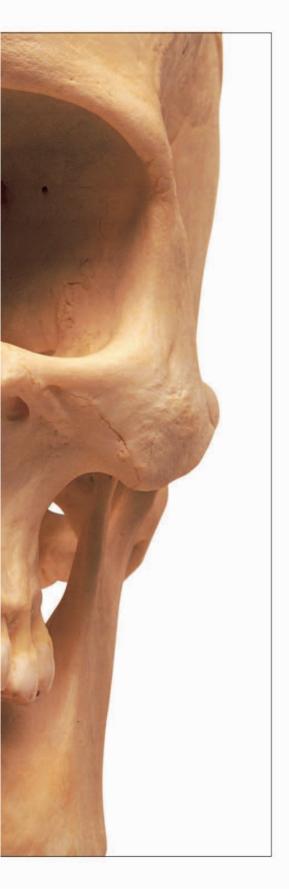
1st cervical

vertebra

PLATYPUS

EXAMPLES OF MARSUPIALS Pinna AND MONOTREMES (ear flap) EXTERNAL FEATURES Ear OF A KANGAROO Eye Nostril_ KOALA (Phascolarctos cinereus) DUCK-BILLED PLATYPUS Mouth -(Ornithorhynchus anatinus) A marsupial À monotreme TASMANIAN DEVIL (Sarcophilus harrisii) A marsupial Forelimb VIRGINIA OPOSSUM *(Didelphis virginiana)* A marsupial Knee Thigh Hip, Claw 5 digits F 3 digits Hind limb Claw, Lower leg_ Foot





The Human Body

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DEVELOPMENT OF A BABY 260

Body features

ALTHOUGH THERE IS enormous variation between the external appearances of humans, all bodies



contain the same basic features. The outward form of the human body depends on the size of the skeleton, the shape of the muscles, the thickness of the fat layer beneath the skin, the elasticity or sagginess of the skin, and the person's age and sex.

Males tend to be taller than females, with broader shoulders, more body hair, and a different pattern of fat deposits under the skin; the female body tends to be less muscular and has a shallower and wider pelvis to allow for childbirth.

Hand _____

Leg_

Foot

Nape of neck Back Shoulder Scapula (shoulderblade) Upper arm Elbow Loin Waist Forearm Natal cleft Buttock Gluteal fold Popliteal fossa

Ear

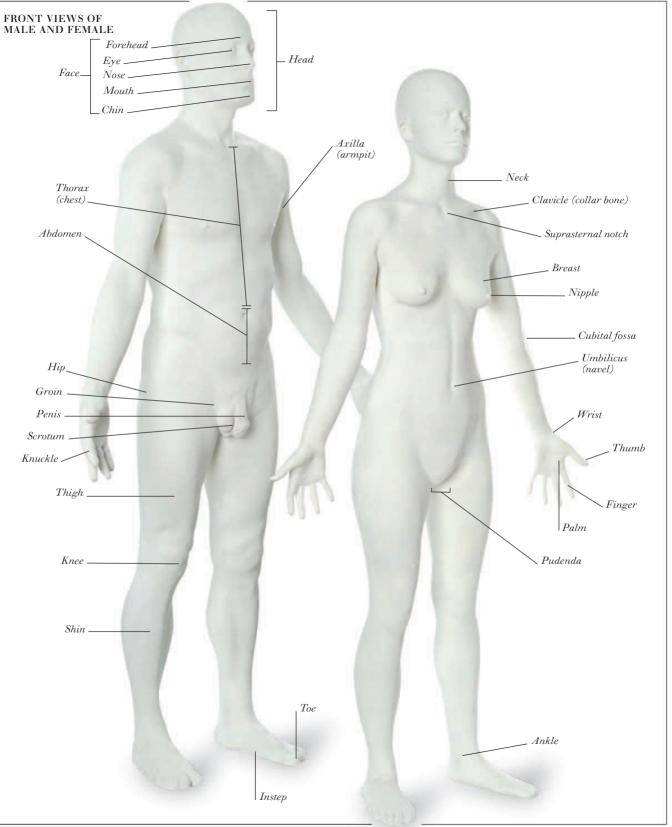
BACK VIEWS OF

MALE AND FEMALE

Calf

Heel

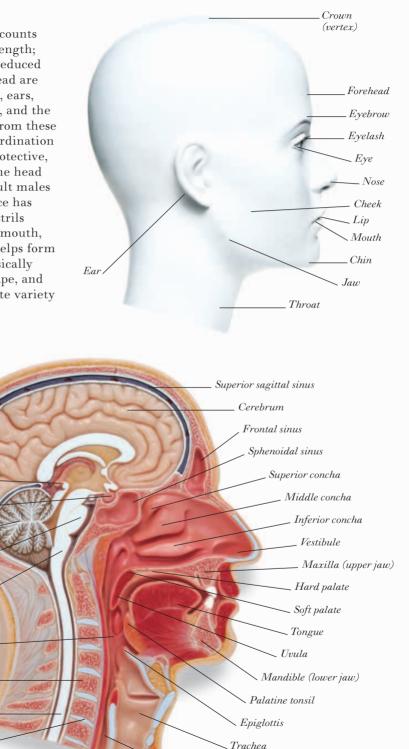
BODY FEATURES



SIDE VIEW OF EXTERNAL FEATURES OF HEAD

Head

IN A NEWBORN BABY, the head accounts for one-quarter of the total body length; by adulthood, the proportion has reduced to one-eighth. Contained in the head are the body's main sense organs: eyes, ears, olfactory nerves that detect smells, and the taste buds of the tongue. Signals from these organs pass to the body's great coordination center: the brain, housed in the protective, bony dome of the skull. Hair on the head insulates against heat loss, and adult males also grow thick facial hair. The face has three important openings: two nostrils through which air passes, and the mouth, which takes in nourishment and helps form speech. Although all heads are basically similar, differences in the size, shape, and color of features produce an infinite variety of appearances.



Esophagus

SECTION THROUGH HEAD

Skull

Pineal body

Pituitary gland

Cerebellum

Pons

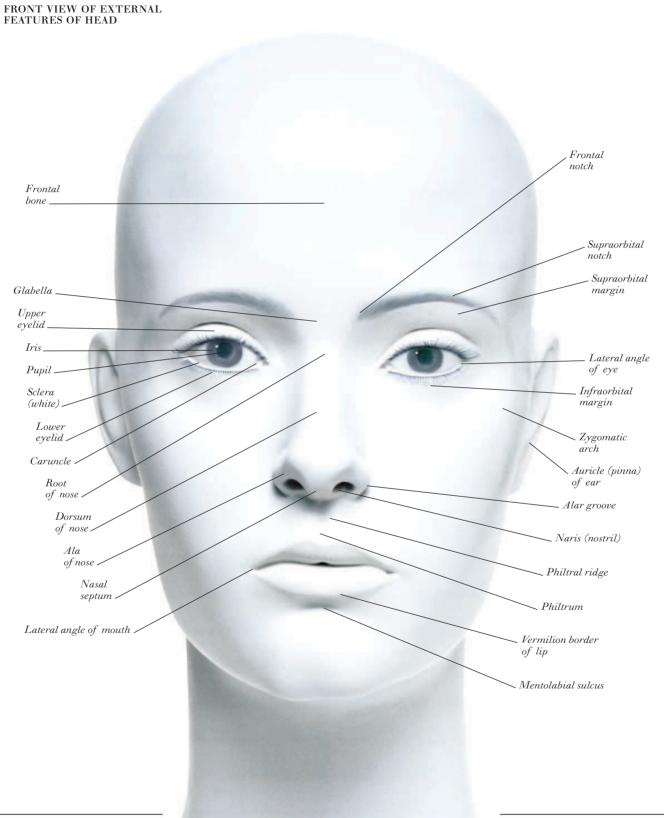
Pharynx

Cervical vertebra

Spinal cord

Intervertebral disk

Medulla oblongata



Body organs



ALL THE VITAL BODY ORGANS except for the brain are enclosed within the trunk or torso (the body apart from the head and limbs). The trunk contains two large cavities separated by a muscular sheet called the diaphragm. The upper

cavity, known as the thorax or chest cavity, contains the heart and lungs. The lower cavity, called the abdominal cavity, contains the stomach, intestines, liver, and pancreas, which all play a role in digesting food. Also within the trunk are the kidneys and bladder, which are part of the urinary system, and the reproductive organs, which hold the seeds of new human life. Modern imaging techniques, such as contrast X-rays and different types of scans, make it possible to see and study body organs without the need to cut through their protective coverings of skin, fat, muscle, and bone.

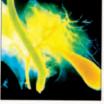
IMAGING THE BODY



SCINTIGRAM OF HEART CHAMBERS



ANGIOGRAM OF RIGHT LUNG



CONTRAST X-RAY OF GALLBLADDER



SCINTIGRAM OF NERVOUS SYSTEM



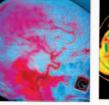
DOUBLE CONTRAST X-RAY OF COLON



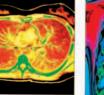
ULTRASOUND SCAN OF TWINS IN UTERUS



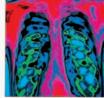
ANGIOGRAM OF KIDNEYS



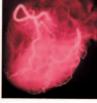
ANGIOGRAM OF ARTERIES OF HEAD



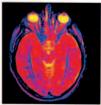
CT SCAN THROUGH FEMALE CHEST



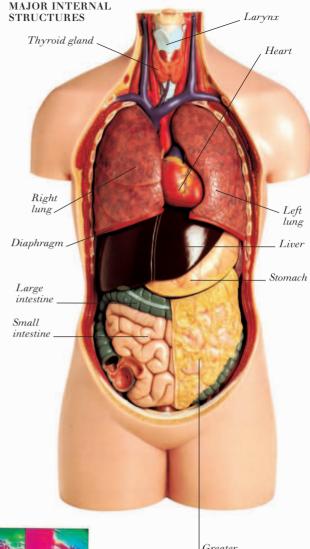
THERMOGRAM OF CHEST REGION



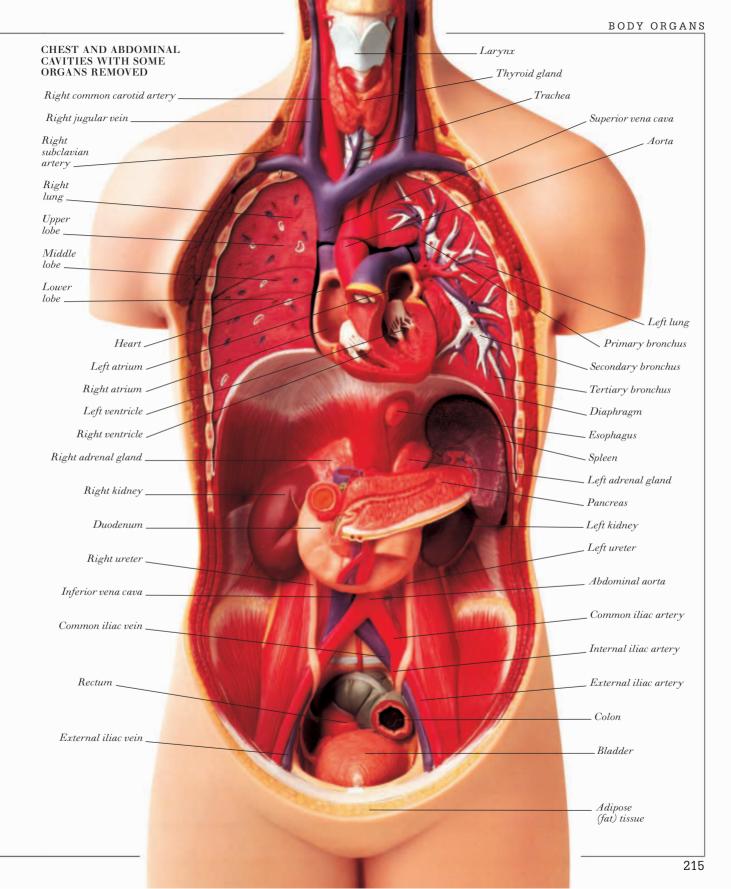
ANGIOGRAM OF ARTERIES OF HEART



MRI SCAN THROUGH HEAD AT EYE LEVEL



Greater omentum



Body cells

EVERYONE IS MADE UP OF BILLIONS OF CELLS, which are the basic structural units of the body. Bones, muscles, nerves, skin, blood, and all other body tissues are formed from different types of cells. Each cell has a specific function but works with other types of cells to perform the enormous number of tasks needed to sustain life. Most body cells have a similar basic structure. Each cell has an outer layer (called the cell membrane) and contains a fluid material (cytoplasm). Within the cytoplasm are many specialized structures (organelles). The most important organelle is the nucleus, which contains

Cytosine

Phosphate/sugar

band

Thymine

Vacuole

Nucleolus

Nuclear membrane

vital genetic material and acts as the cell's control center.

Adenine

Smooth endoplasmic reticulum

Secretory vesicle

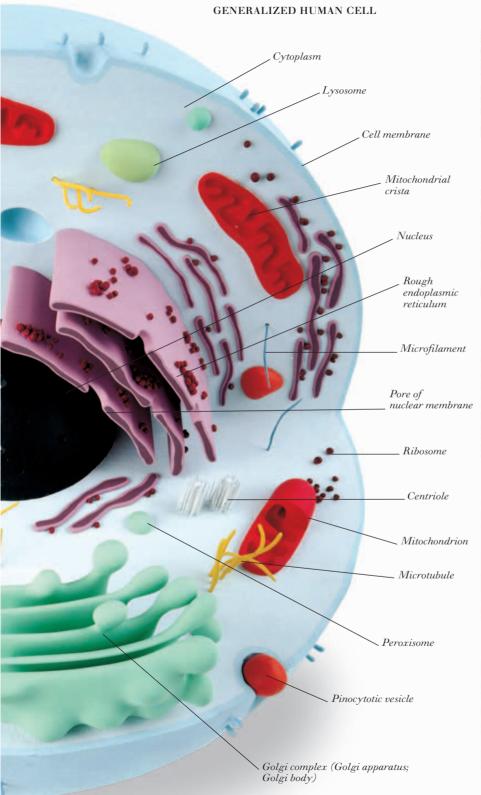
Nucleoplasm

Microvillus

THE DOUBLE HELIX

Diagrammatic representation of DNA, which is structured like a spiral ladder. DNA contains all the vital genetic information and instruction codes necessary for the maintenance and continuation of life.

Guanine

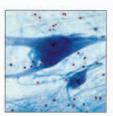


TYPES OF CELLS



BONE-FORMING

CELL



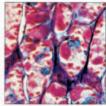
NERVE CELLS IN SPINAL CORD



SPERM CELLS IN SEMEN

20

SECRETORY THYROID GLAND CELLS



ACID-SECRETING STOMACH CELLS



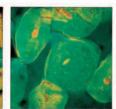
CONNECTIVE TISSUE CELLS



MUCUS-SECRETING DUODENAL CELLS RED AND TWO WHITE BLOOD CELLS

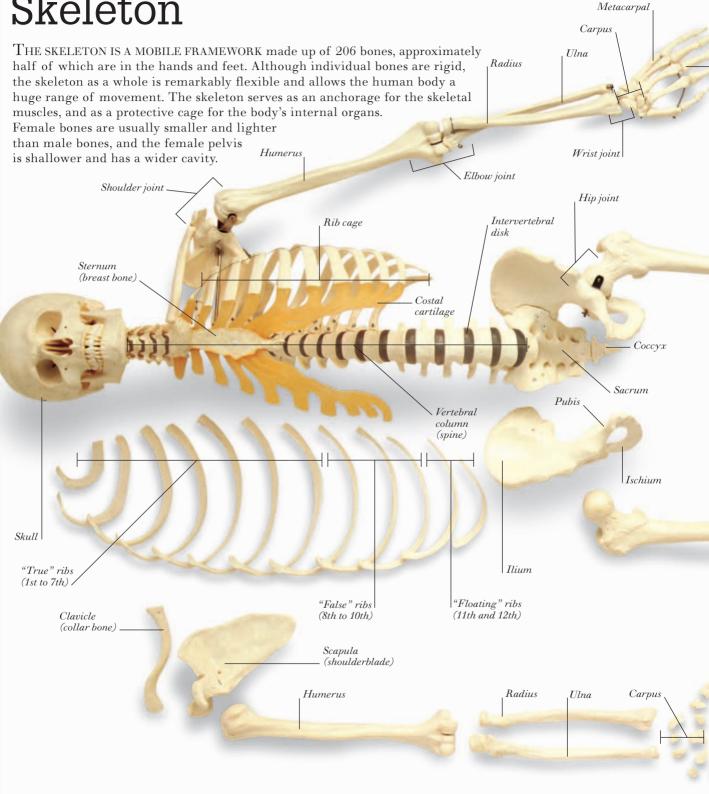


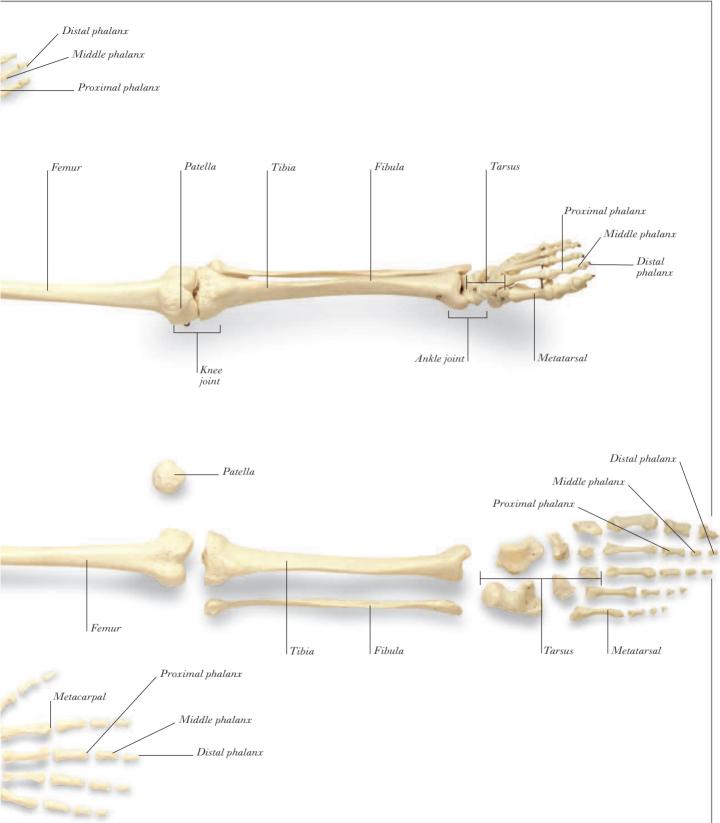
FAT CELLS IN ADIPOSE TISSUE



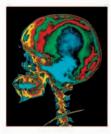
EPITHELIAL CELLS IN CHEEK

Skeleton





Skull



RIGHT SIDE VIEW OF SKULL

Greater wing of sphenoid bone.

Parietal bone

Squamous

Lambdoid

Occipital bone

Temporal bone. External

auditory meatus.

Mastoid process

suture

suture .

THE SKULL is the most complicated bony structure of the body but every feature serves a purpose. Internally, the main hollow chamber of the skull has three levels that support the brain, with every bump and hollow corresponding to the shape of the brain. Underneath and toward the back of the skull is a large round hole, the foramen magnum, through which the spinal

cord passes. To the front of this are many smaller openings through which nerves, arteries, and veins pass to and from the brain. The roof of the skull is formed from four thin, curved bones that are firmly fixed together from the age of about two years. At the front of the skull are the two orbits, which contain the eyeballs, and a central hole for the airway of the nose. The jaw bone hinges on either side at ear level.

Coronal suture

Condyle

Coronoid

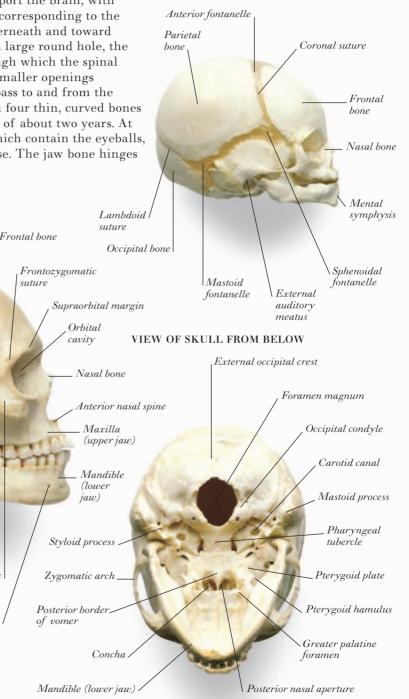
process

Zygomatic

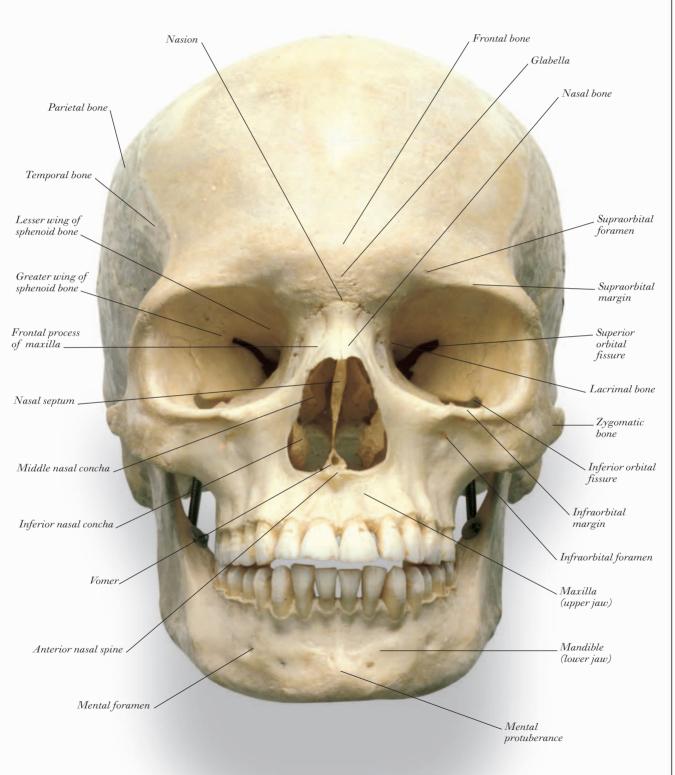
bone

Mental foramen

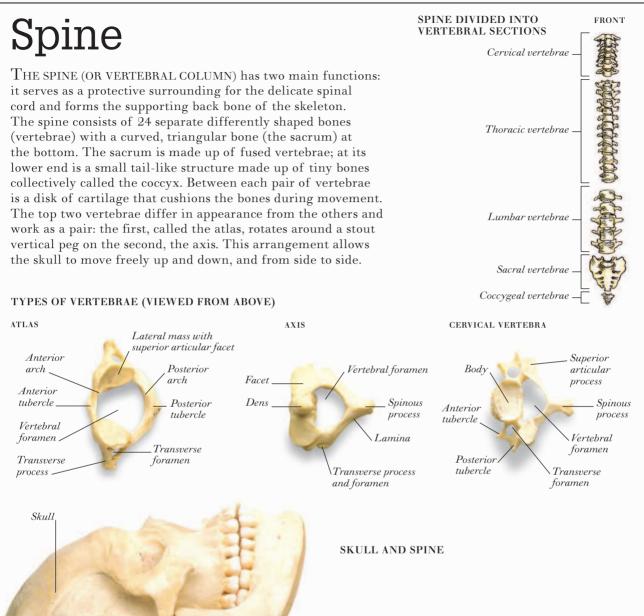
RIGHT SIDE VIEW OF A FETAL SKULL

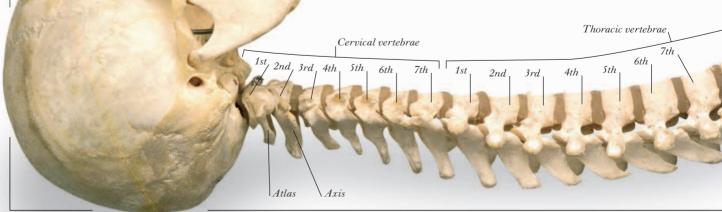


FRONT VIEW OF SKULL

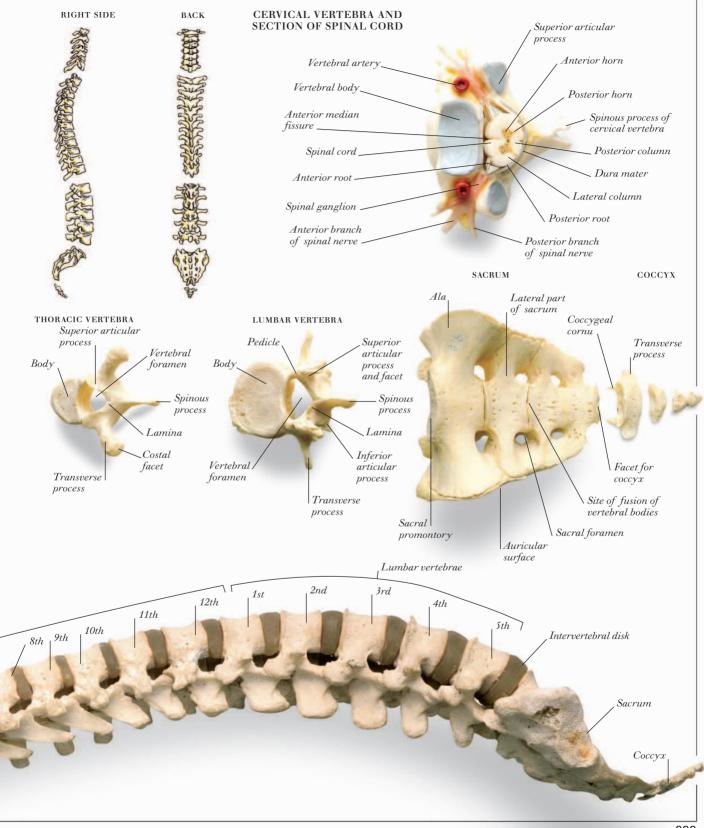


THE HUMAN BODY





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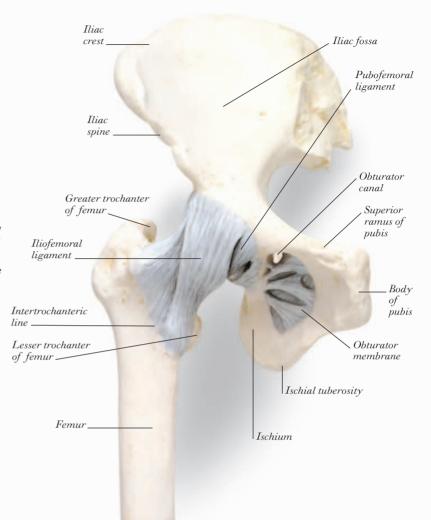


SPINE

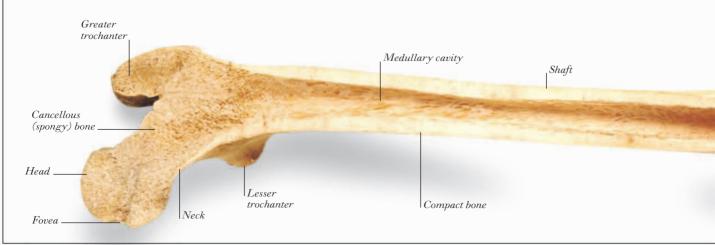
LIGAMENTS SURROUNDING HIP JOINT

Bones and joints

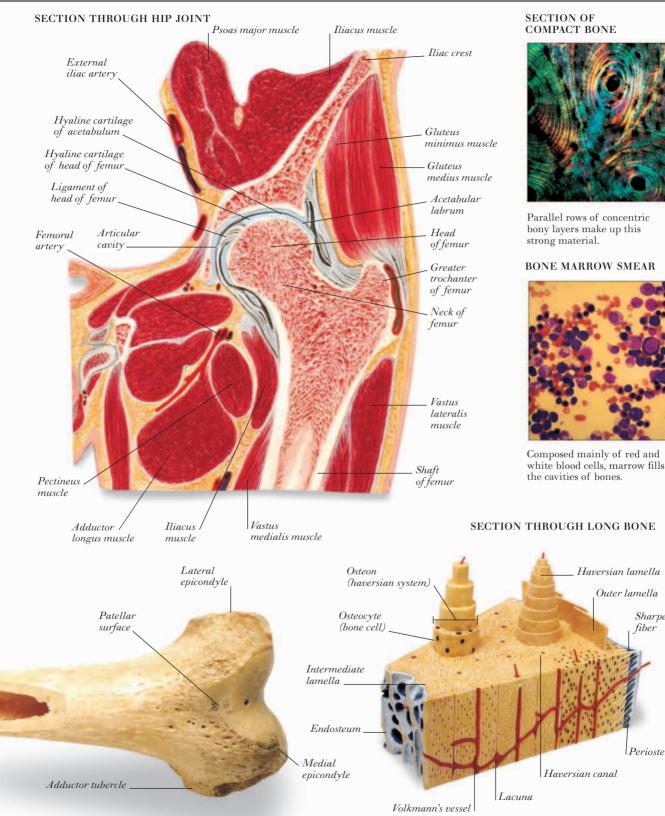
BONES FORM the body's hard, strong skeletal framework. Each bone has a hard, compact exterior surrounding a spongy, lighter interior. The long bones of the arms and legs, such as the femur (thigh bone), have a central cavity containing bone marrow. Bones are composed chiefly of calcium, phosphorus, and a fibrous substance known as collagen. Bones meet at joints, which are of several different types. For example, the hip is a ball-and-socket joint that allows the femur a wide range of movement, whereas finger joints are simple hinge joints that allow only bending and straightening. Joints are held in place by bands of tissue called ligaments. Movement of joints is facilitated by the smooth hyaline cartilage that covers the bone ends and by the synovial membrane that lines and lubricates the joint.



SECTION THROUGH LEFT FEMUR



BONES AND JOINTS



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Outer lamella

Sharpey's

Periosteum

fiber

Muscles 1

THERE ARE THREE MAIN TYPES OF MUSCLE: skeletal muscle (also called voluntary muscle because it can be consciously controlled); smooth muscle (also called involuntary muscle because it is not under voluntary control); and the specialized muscle tissue of the heart. Humans have more than 600 skeletal muscles, which differ in size and shape according to the jobs they do. Skeletal muscles are attached either directly or indirectly (via tendons) to bones, and work in opposing pairs (one muscle in the pair contracts while the other relaxes) to produce body movements as diverse as walking, threading a needle, and an array of facial expressions. Smooth muscles occur in the walls of internal body organs and perform actions such as forcing food through the intestines, contracting the uterus (womb) in childbirth, and pumping blood through the blood vessels.

a needle, and an array of facial expressions. Smooth muscles Trapezius Pectoralis major Deltoid pumping blood through the blood vessels. Serratus anterior SOME OTHER MUSCLES Rectus abdominis Biceps brachii IN THE BODY Linea alba Iris External oblique _ Pupil Tensor fasciae latae . Iliopsoas IBIS Pectineus. The muscle fibers contract and dilate (expand) to alter pupil size. Adductor longus Vastus lateralis Rectus femoris Gracilis Sartorius Vastus medialis TONGUE Interlacing layers of muscle Gastrocnemius allow great mobility. Tibialis anterior ILEUM Opposing muscle layers transport semidigested food.

SUPERFICIAL SKELETAL MUSCLES

Frontalis

Brachioradialis

Flexors of

Brachialis

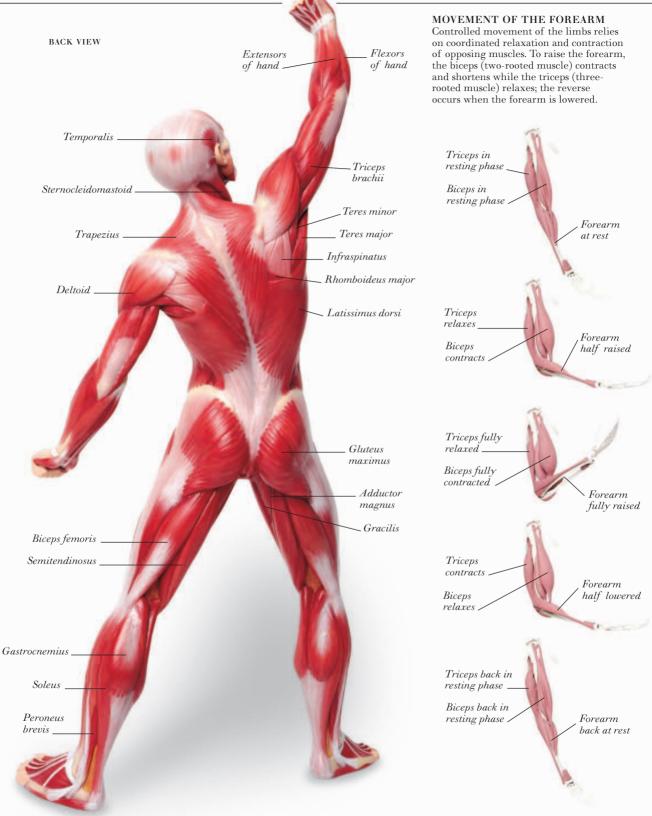
forearm

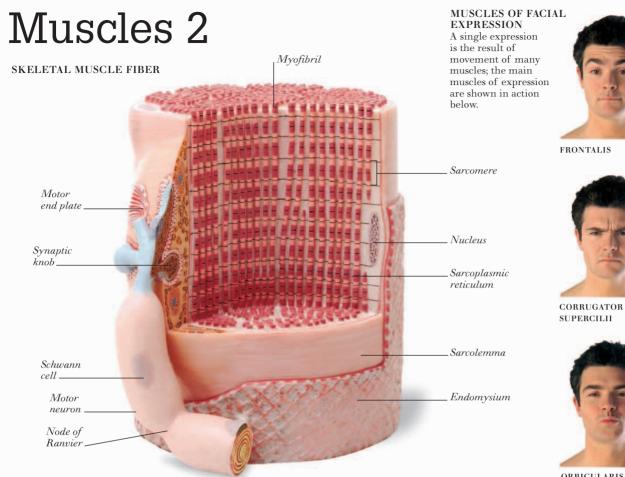
FRONT VIEW

Orbicularis oculi

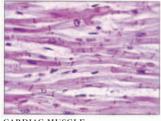
Temporalis

Sternocleidomastoid





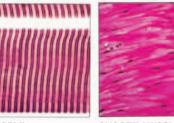
TYPES OF MUSCLE



SKELETAL MUSCLE

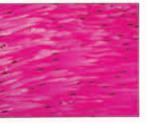
CARDIAC MUSCLE

CONTRACTION OF SKELETAL MUSCLE





SMOOTH MUSCLE









DEPRESSOR ANGULI ORIS







ORBICULARIS ORIS

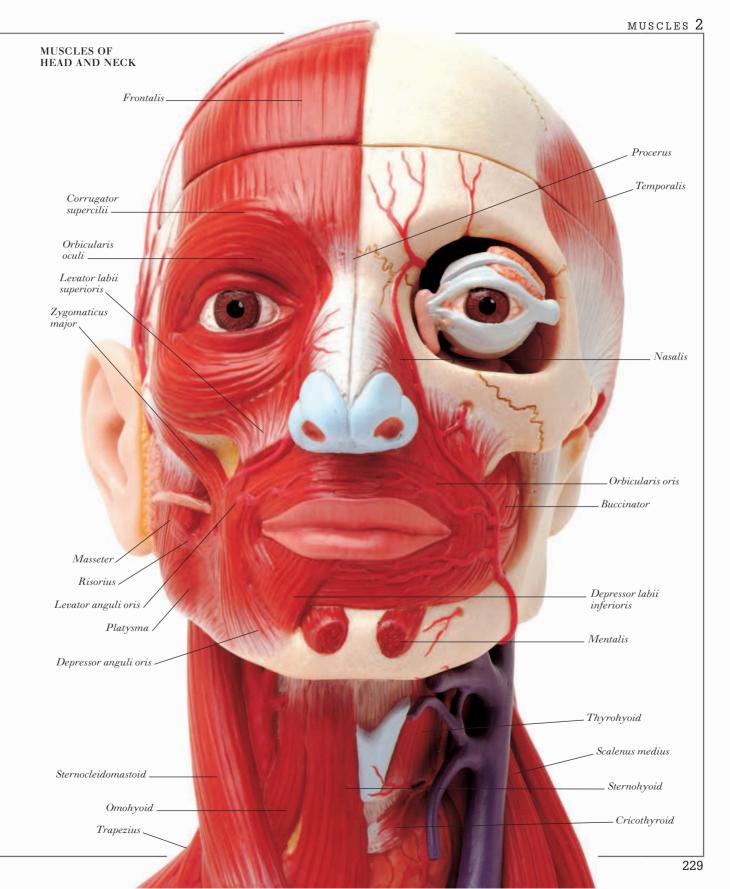


ZYGOMATICUS MAJOR

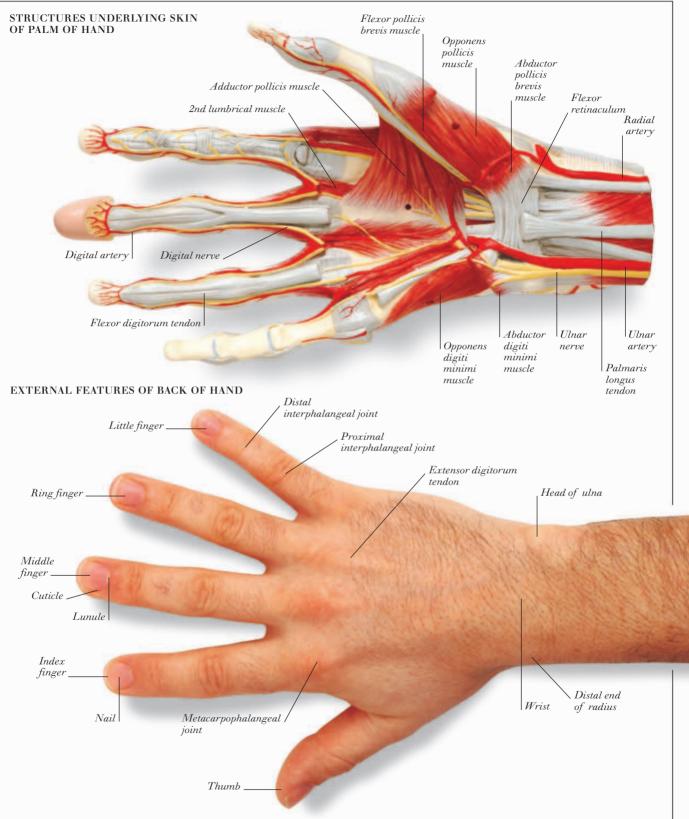


RELAXED STATE





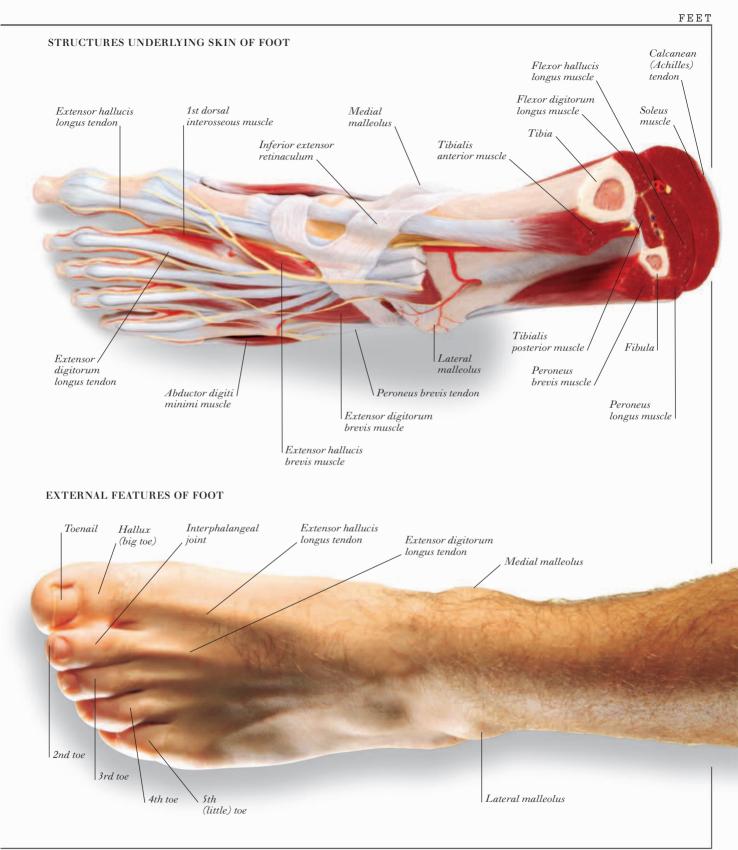
X-RAY OF LEFT HAND Hands OF A YOUNG CHILD Area of ossification THE HUMAN HAND is an extremely versatile in phalanx tool, capable of delicate manipulation as well as powerful gripping actions. The arrangement of its 27 small bones, moved by 37 skeletal muscles that are connected to the bones by tendons, allows a wide range of movements. Our ability to bring the tips of our thumbs and fingers together, combined with the extraordinary sensitivity Area of of our fingertips due to their rich supply of nerve ossification in metacarpal endings, makes our hands uniquely dextrous. Area of Ring Middle Index finger finger ossification finger in wrist . BONES OF HAND Epiphysis Epiphysis of radius Little of ulna. finger Distal Areas of cartilage in the wrist and at the ends of the finger bones are the sites of phalanx growth and have still to ossify. Middle phalanx Proximal phalanx Distal phalanx Head of thumb 2ndmetacarpal 3rd metacarpal Shaft Proximal phalanx of thumb 4th metacarpal Base Sth metacarpal 1st metacarpal Hamate Pisiform. - Trapezium Trapezoid Capitate Scaphoid Triquetral Lunate Ulna Radius



THE HUMAN BODY

Feet 2nd toe Hallux (big toe) THE FEET AND TOES are essential elements 3rd toe in body movement. They bear and propel the Distal weight of the body during walking and phalanx of running, and also help to maintain balance 4th toe hallux Sth during changes of body position. Each foot (little) toe has 26 bones, more than 100 ligaments, Distal and 33 muscles, some of which are Proximal phalanx phalanx of attached to the lower leg. The heel ' hallux pad and the arch of the foot act Middle phalanx as shock absorbers, providing a cushion against the jolts that Proximal occur with every step. phalanx. 1st metatarsal 2ndLIGAMENTS OF FOOT metatarsal Articular 3rd capsule of metatarsal Posterior interphalangeal 4th cuneonavicular 1st joint cuneiform ligament metatarsal Sth Plantar calcaneonavicular metatarsal 2ndligament cuneiform 3rd cuneiform Articular capsule of metatarsophalangeal joint Navicular Cuboid Talus Posterior tarsometatarsal ligament Talonavicular ligament Bifurcate Deltoid ligament ligament Fibula Tibia Calcaneus Calcanean (Achilles) Interosseous tendon ligament

BONES OF FOOT

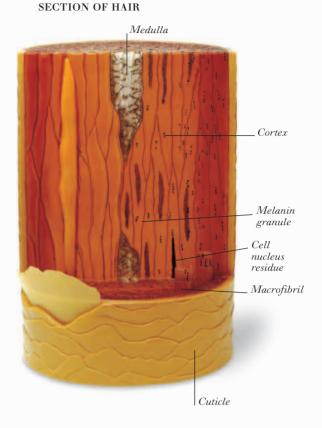


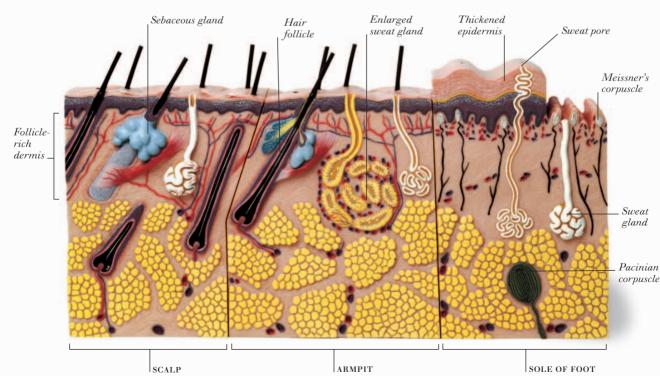
Skin and hair



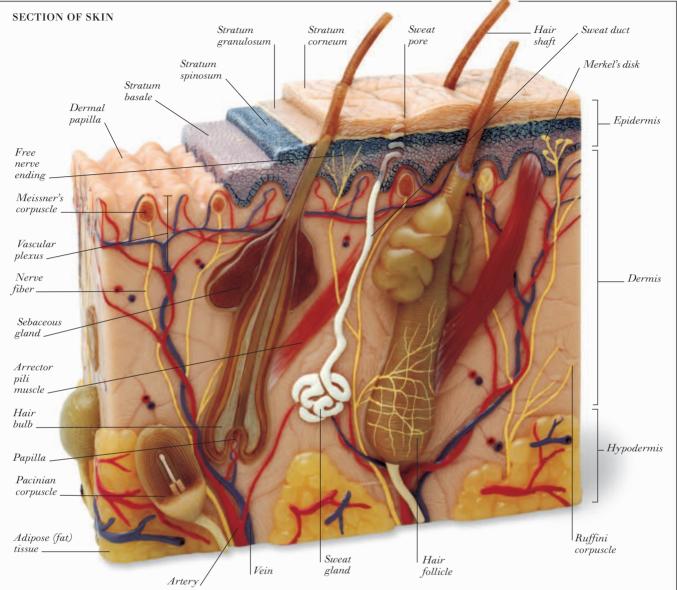
SKIN IS THE BODY'S LARGEST ORGAN, a waterproof barrier that protects the internal organs against infection, injury, and harmful sun rays. The skin is also an important sensory organ and helps to control body

temperature. The outer layer of the skin, known as the epidermis, is coated with keratin, a tough, horny protein that is also the chief constituent of hair and nails. Dead cells are shed from the skin's surface and are replaced by new cells from the base of the epidermis, the region that also produces the skin pigment, melanin. The dermis contains most of the skin's living structures, and includes nerve endings, blood vessels, elastic fibers, sweat glands that cool the skin, and sebaceous glands that produce oil to keep the skin supple. Beneath the dermis lies the subcutaneous tissue (hypodermis), which is rich in fat and blood vessels. Hair shafts grow from hair follicles situated in the dermis and subcutaneous tissue. Hair grows on every part of the skin apart from the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.





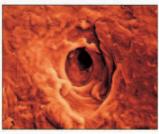
SECTIONS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF SKIN



PHOTOMICROGRAPHS OF SKIN AND HAIR



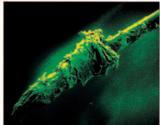
SECTION OF SKIN The flaky cells at the skin's surface are shed continuously.



SWEAT PORE This allows loss of fluid as part of temperature control.



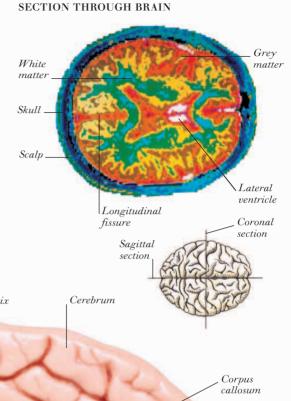
SKIN HAIR Two hairs pushing through the outer layer of skin.



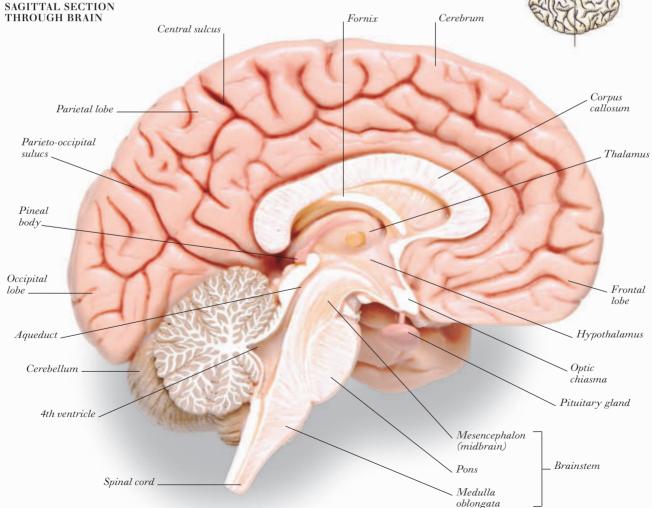
HEAD HAIR The root and part of the shaft of a hair from the scalp.

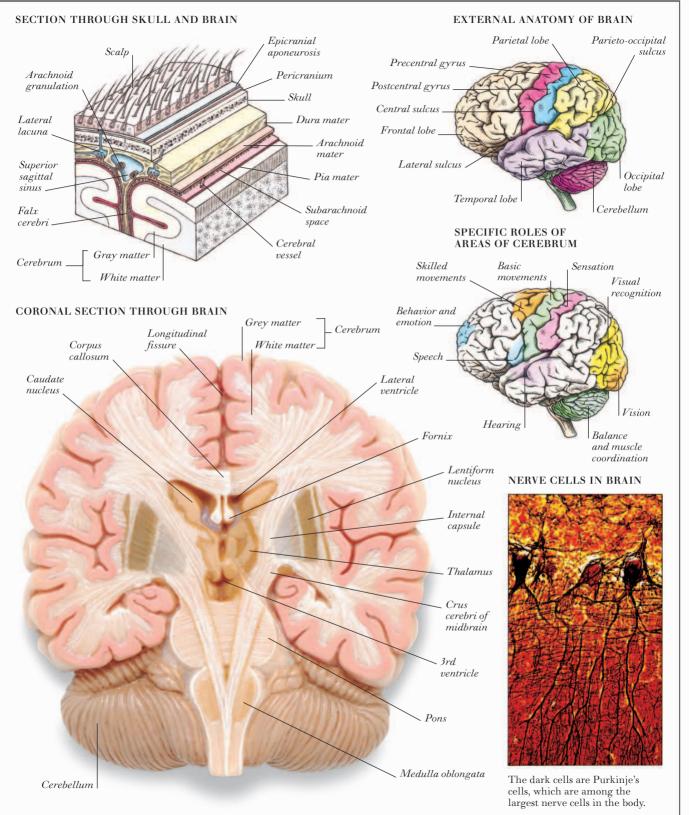
Brain

THE BRAIN IS THE MAJOR ORGAN of the central nervous system and the control center for all the body's voluntary and involuntary activities. It is also responsible for the complexities of thought, memory, emotion, and language. In adults, this complex organ is a mere 3 lb (1.4 kg) in weight, containing over 10 billion nerve cells. Three distinct regions can easily be seen—the brainstem, the cerebellum, and the large cerebrum. The brainstem controls vital body functions, such as breathing and digestion. The cerebellum's main functions are the maintenance of posture and the coordination of body movements. The cerebrum, which consists of the right and left cerebral hemispheres joined by the corpus callosum, is the site of most conscious and intelligent activities.

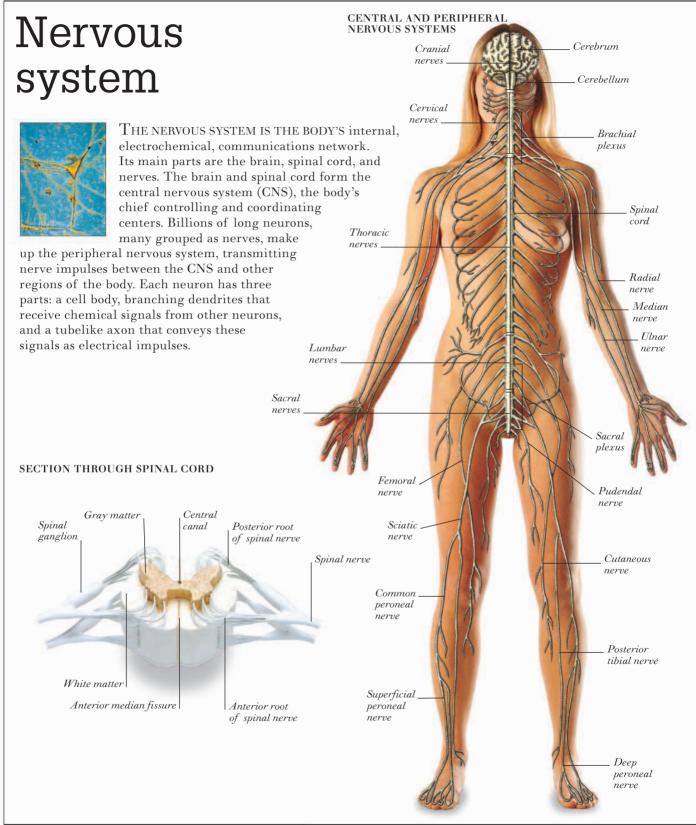


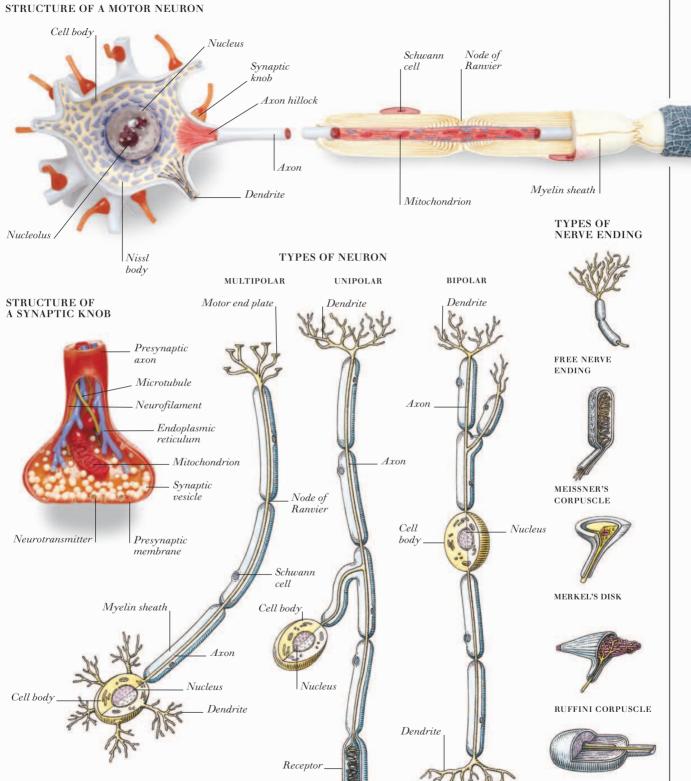
MRI SCAN OF TRANSVERSE





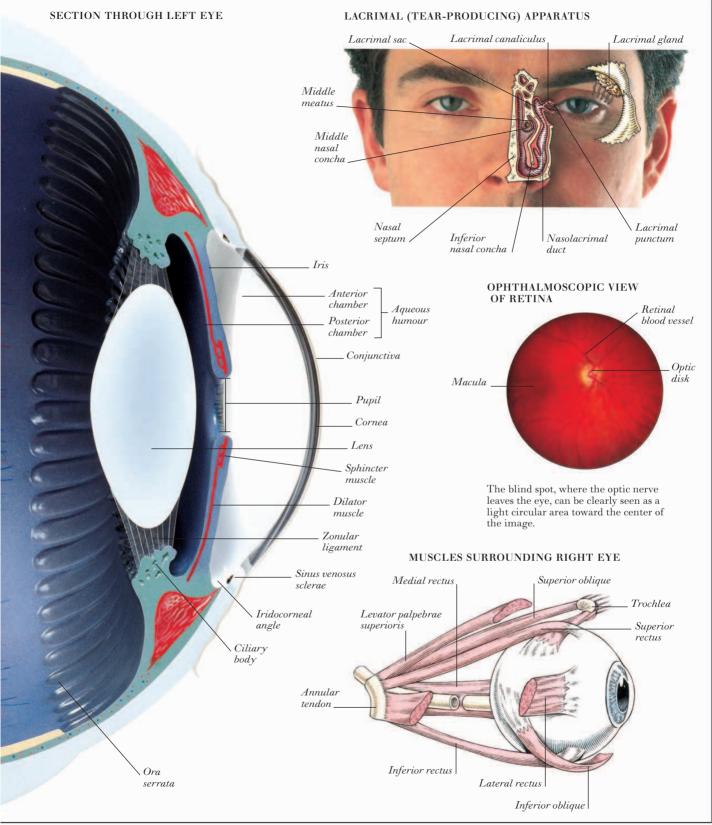
THE HUMAN BODY





NERVOUS SYSTEM

PACINIAN CORPUSCLE Eye Lateral rectus muscle THE EYE IS THE ORGAN OF SIGHT. The two eyeballs, protected within bony sockets called orbits and on the outside by the evelids, evebrows, and tear film, are directly connected to the brain by the optic nerves. Each eye is moved by six muscles, which are attached around the eyeball. Light rays entering the eve through the pupil are focused by the cornea and lens to form an image on the retina. The retina contains millions of light-sensitive cells, called rods and cones, which convert the image into a pattern of nerve impulses. These impulses are transmitted along the optic nerve to the brain. Information from the two optic nerves is processed in the brain to produce a single coordinated image. Vitreous humor Macula Central retinal vein Central retinal artery Pia mater. Arachnoid mater Dura mater. Optic nerve Area of optic ďisk Retina Choroid Sclera Retinal blood vessel Medial rectus muscle



STRUCTURE OF EAR

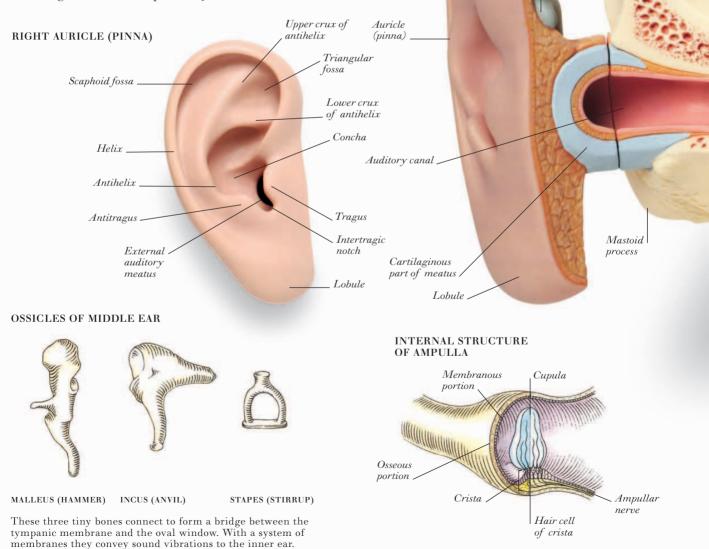
Cartilage

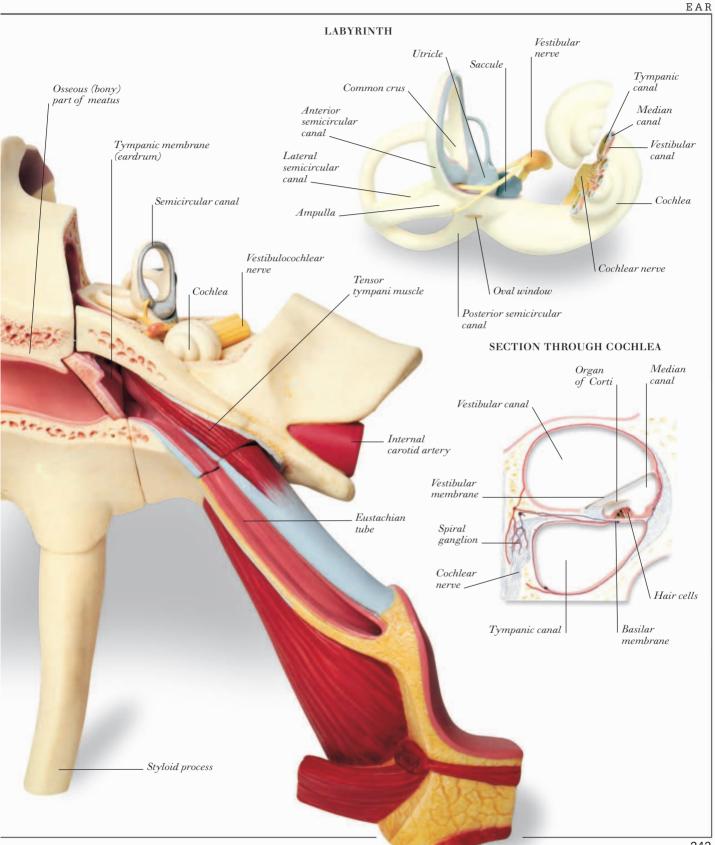
of auricle

Temporal bone

Ear

THE EAR IS THE ORGAN OF HEARING AND BALANCE. The outer ear consists of a flap called the auricle or pinna and the auditory canal. The main functional parts-the middle and inner ears-are enclosed within the skull. The middle ear consists of three tiny bones, known as auditory ossicles, and the eustachian tube, which links the ear to the back of the nose. The inner ear consists of the spiral-shaped cochlea, and also the semicircular canals and the vestibule, which are the organs of balance. Sound waves entering the ear travel through the auditory canal to the tympanic membrane (eardrum), where they are converted to vibrations that are transmitted via the ossicles to the cochlea. Here, the vibrations are converted by millions of microscopic hairs into electrical nerve signals to be interpreted by the brain.

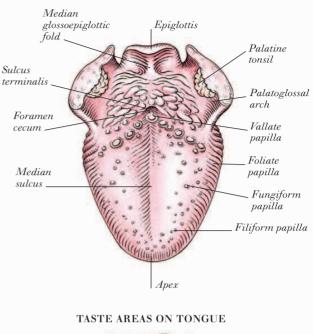


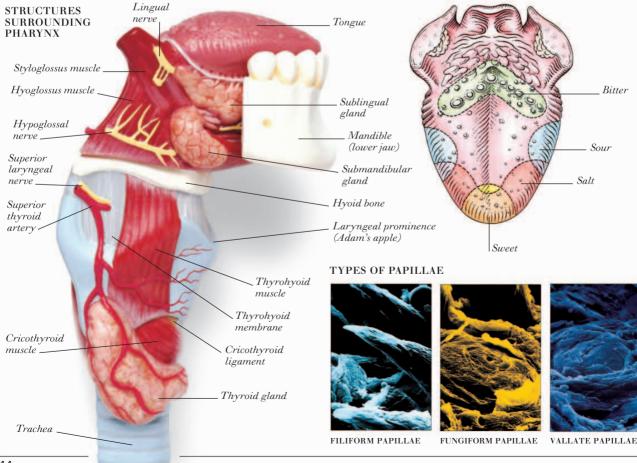


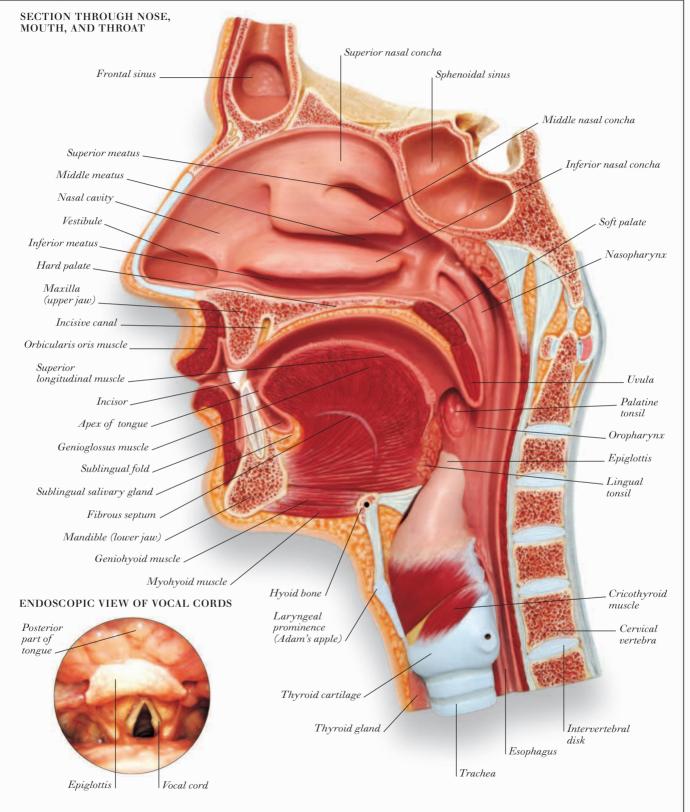
Nose, mouth, and throat

WITH EVERY BREATH, air passes through the nasal cavity down the pharynx (throat), larynx ("voice box"), and trachea (windpipe) to the lungs. The nasal cavity warms and moistens air, and the tiny layers in its lining protect the airway against damage by foreign bodies. During swallowing, the tongue moves up and back, the larvnx rises, the epiglottis closes off the entrance to the trachea, and the soft palate separates the nasal cavity from the pharynx. Saliva, secreted from three pairs of salivary glands, lubricates food to make swallowing easier; it also begins the chemical breakdown of food, and helps to produce taste. The senses of taste and smell are closely linked. Both depend on the detection of dissolved molecules by sensory receptors in the olfactory nerve endings of the nose and in the taste buds of the tongue.

STRUCTURE OF TONGUE



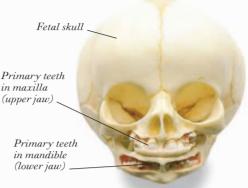




DEVELOPMENT OF TEETH IN A FETUS

Teeth

THE 20 PRIMARY TEETH (also called deciduous or baby teeth) usually begin to erupt when a baby is about six months old. They start to be replaced by the permanent teeth when the child is about six years old. By the age of 20, most adults have a full set of 32 teeth although the third molars (commonly called wisdom teeth) may never erupt. While teeth help people to speak clearly and give shape to the face, their main function is the chewing of food. Incisors and canines shear and tear the food into pieces; premolars and molars crush and grind it further. Although tooth enamel is the hardest substance in the body, it tends to be eroded and destroyed by acid produced in the mouth during the breakdown of food.



FETAL JAWS

By the sixth week of embryonic development areas of thickening occur in each jaw; these areas give rise to tooth buds. By the time the fetus is six months old, enamel has formed on the tooth buds.

DEVELOPMENT OF JAW AND TEETH



Mandible (lower jaw)



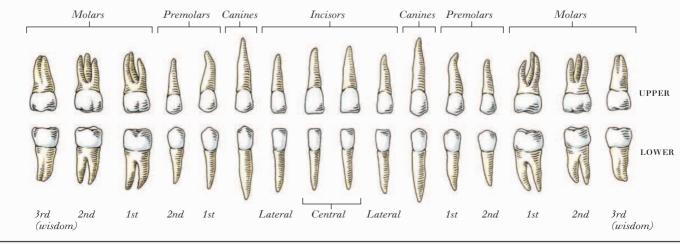
A NEWBORN BABY'S JAWS The primary teeth can be seen developing in the jaw bones; they begin to erupt around the age of six months. A FIVE-YEAR-OLD CHILD'S TEETH There is a full set of 20 erupted primary teeth; the permanent teeth can be seen developing in the upper and lower jaws.



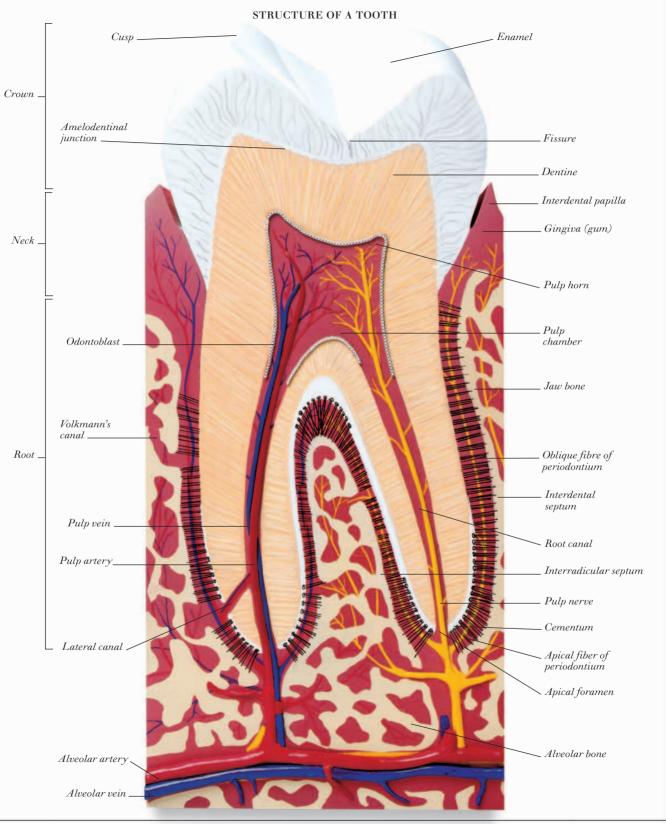
A NINE-YEAR-OLD CHILD'S TEETH Most of the teeth are primary teeth but the permanent incisors and first molars have now emerged.



AN ADULT'S TEETH By the age of 20, the full set of 32 permanent teeth (including the wisdom teeth) should be in position.



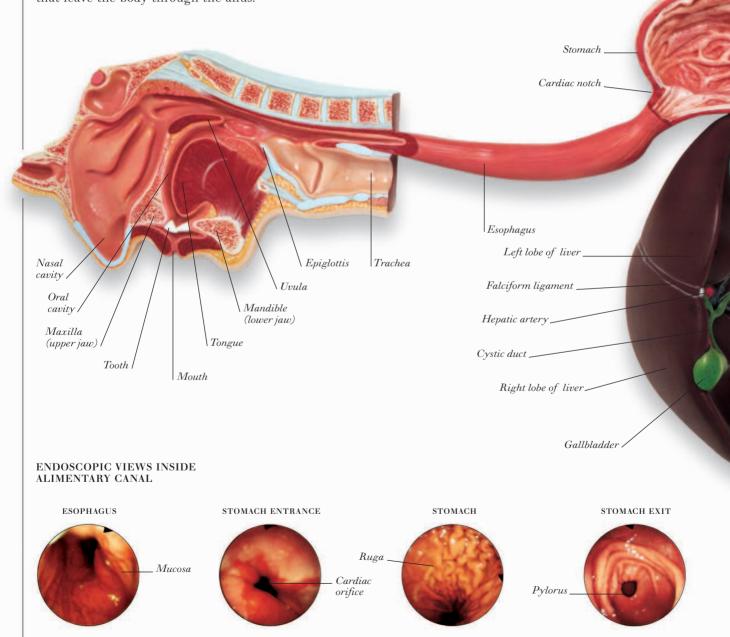
THE PERMANENT TEETH



TEETH

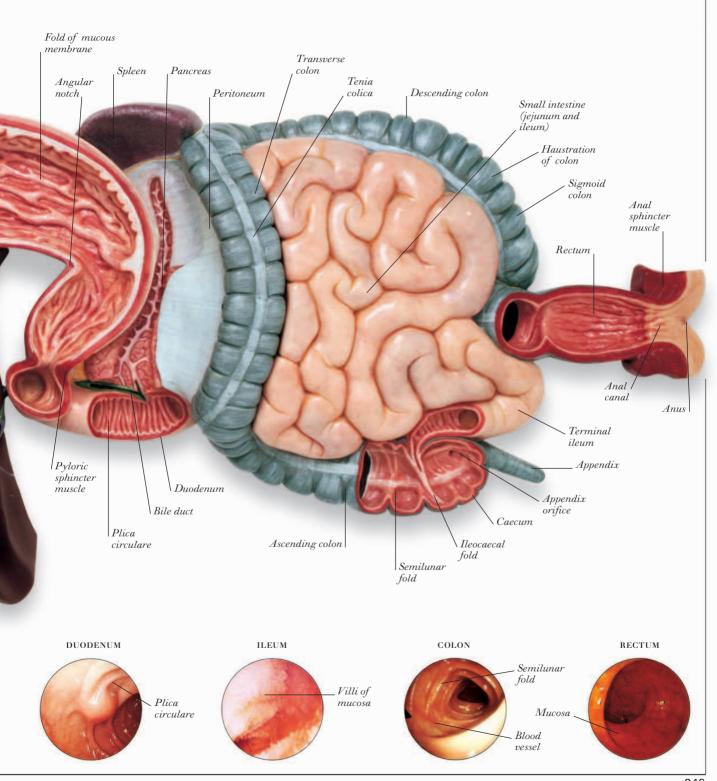
Digestive system

THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM BREAKS DOWN FOOD into particles so tiny that blood can take nourishment to all parts of the body. The system's main part is a 30 ft (9 m) tube from mouth to rectum; muscles in this alimentary canal force food along. Chewed food first travels through the esophagus to the stomach, which churns and liquidizes food before it passes through the duodenum, jejunum, and ileum—the three parts of the long, convoluted small intestine. Here, digestive juices from the gallbladder and pancreas break down food particles; many filter out into the blood through tiny fingerlike villi that line the small intestine's inner wall. Undigested food in the colon forms feces that leave the body through the anus.



DIGESTIVE SYSTEM

ALIMENTARY CANAL



Heart

ARTERIES AND VEINS SURROUNDING HEART

Aorta

Left

coronary

Cardiac

vein

artery

THE HEART IS A HOLLOW MUSCLE in the middle of the chest that pumps blood around the body, supplying cells with oxygen and nutrients. A muscular wall, called

> the septum, divides the heart lengthwise into left and right sides. A valve divides each side

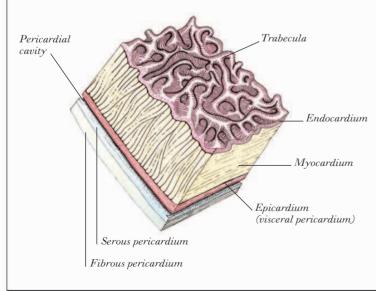
into two chambers: an upper atrium and a lower ventricle. When the heart muscle contracts, it squeezes blood through the atria and then through the ventricles. Oxygenated blood from the lungs flows from the pulmonary veins into the left atrium, through the left ventricle, and then out via the aorta to all parts of the body. Deoxygenated blood returning from the body flows from the vena cava into the right atrium, through the right ventricle, and then out via the pulmonary artery to the lungs for reoxygenation. At rest the heart beats Right between 60 and 80 times a minute; during exercise or at times of stress or excitement the rate may increase to 200 beats a minute.

coronary artery

Coronary sinus

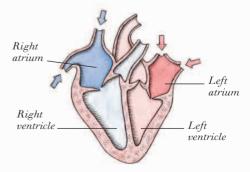
Main branch of left coronary artery

SECTION THROUGH HEART WALL

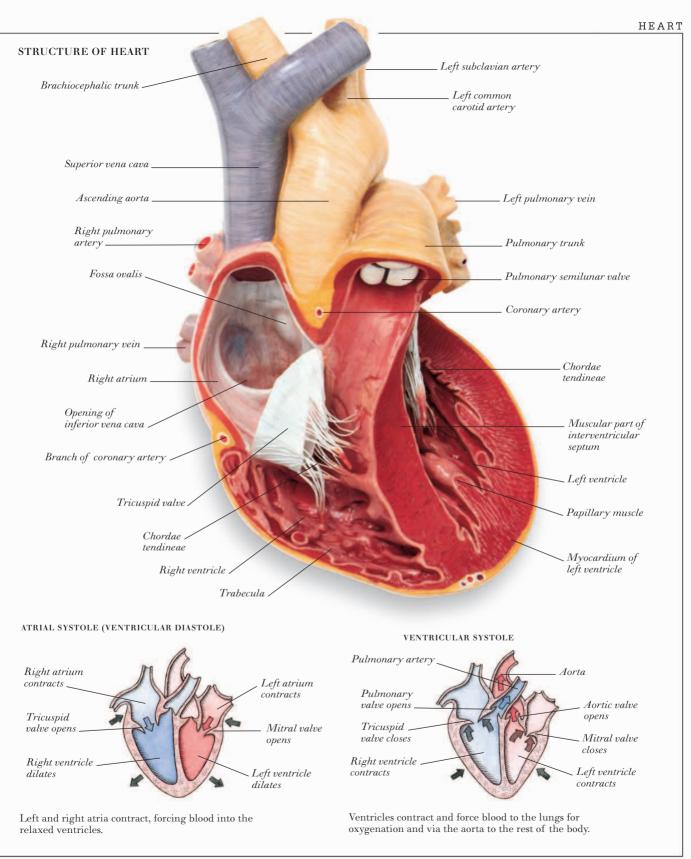


HEARTBEAT SEQUENCE

ATRIAL DIASTOLE



Deoxygenated blood enters the right atrium while the left atrium receives oxygenated blood.

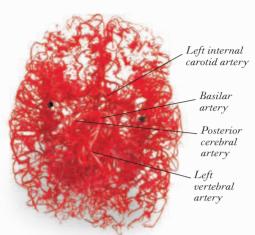


ARTERIAL SYSTEM OF BRAIN

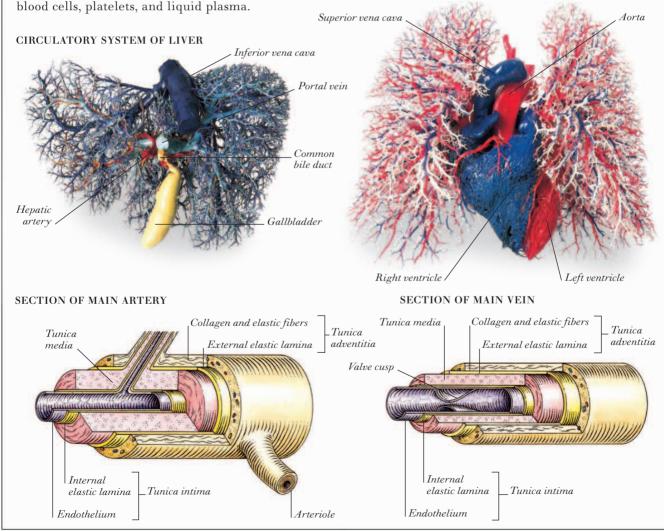
Circulatory system

THE CIRCULATORY SYSTEM consists of the heart and blood vessels, which together maintain a continuous flow of blood around the body. The heart pumps oxygen-rich blood from the lungs to all parts of the body through a network of tubes called arteries, and

smaller branches called arterioles. Blood returns to the heart via small vessels called venules, which lead in turn into larger tubes called veins. Arterioles and venules are linked by a network of tiny vessels called capillaries, where the exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide between blood and body cells takes place. Blood has four main components: red blood cells, white



CIRCULATORY SYSTEM OF HEART AND LUNGS



PRINCIPAL ARTERIES AND VEINS OF CIRCULATORY SYSTEM Internal jugular vein Common Brachiocephalic vein carotid artery Subclavian vein Subclavian artery Axillary vein Arch of aorta Cephalic vein Axillary artery Superior vena cava Pulmonary artery Coronary artery Pulmonary vein Brachial artery Basilic vein Gastric artery_ Hepatic portal vein Hepatic artery Median cubital vein Splenic artery Inferior vena cava Superior . mesenteric artery Anterior median Radial . vein artery Gastroepiploic Ulnar vein artery Palmar vein Palmar Digital arch vein Digital artery Inferior mesenteric vein Common iliac artery Superior mesenteric vein External iliac artery Common iliac vein Internal iliac artery External iliac vein Femoral artery Internal iliac vein Popliteal artery Peroneal artery Femoral vein Great saphenous vein Anterior tibial artery Short saphenous vein Posterior tibial artery Lateral plantar artery Dorsal metatarsal artery Dorsal venous arch . Digital vein

TYPES OF BLOOD CELLS

RED BLOOD CELLS These cells are biconcave in shape to maximize their oxygen-carrying capacity.

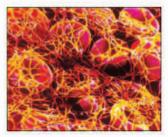


WHITE BLOOD CELLS Lymphocytes are the smallest white blood cells; they form antibodies against disease.



PLATELETS Tiny cells that are activated whenever blood clotting or repair to vessels is necessary.

BLOOD CLOTTING



Filaments of fibrin enmesh red blood cells as part of the process of blood clotting.

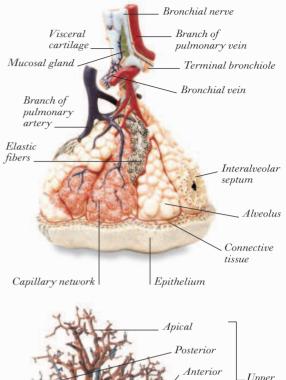
Respiratory system

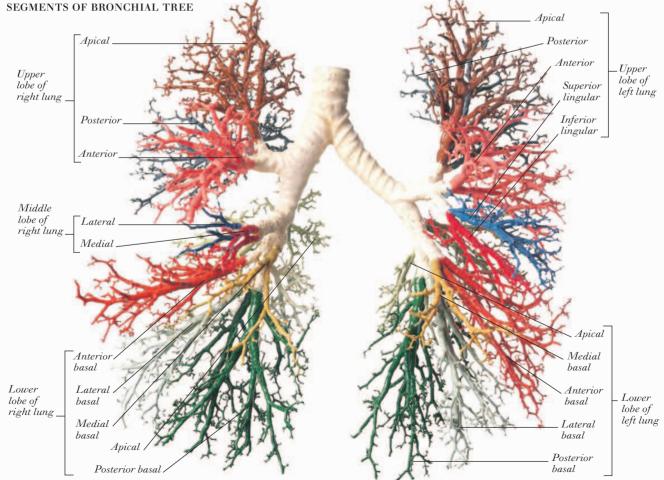


THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM supplies the oxygen needed by body cells and carries off their carbon dioxide waste. Inhaled air passes via the trachea (windpipe) through two narrower tubes, the bronchi, to the lungs. Each lung comprises many fine, branching tubes called bronchioles that end in tiny clustered chambers called alveoli. Gases cross the thin

alveolar walls to and from a network of tiny blood vessels. Intercostal (rib) muscles and the muscular diaphragm below the lungs operate the lungs like bellows, drawing air in and forcing it out at regular intervals.

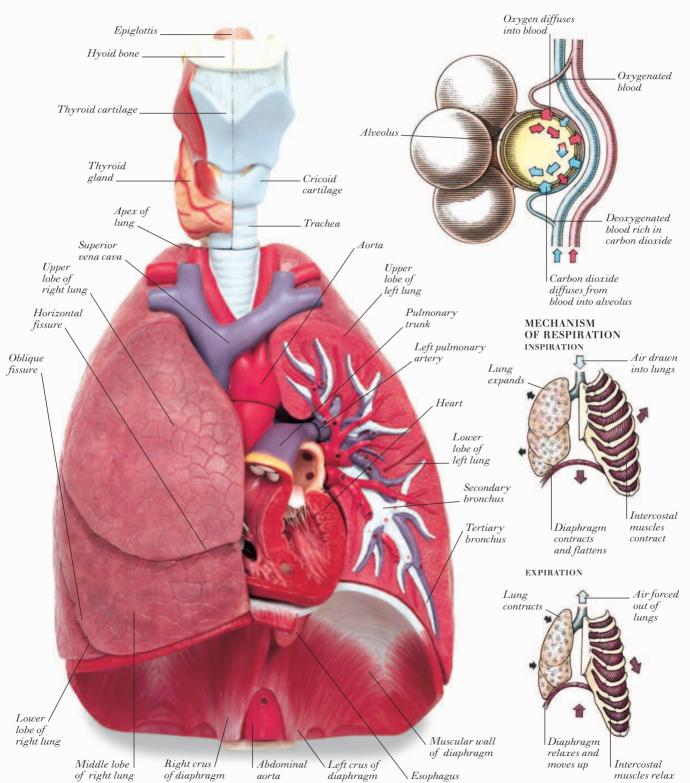
BRONCHIOLE AND ALVEOLI





STRUCTURES OF THORACIC CAVITY

GASEOUS EXCHANGE IN ALVEOLUS



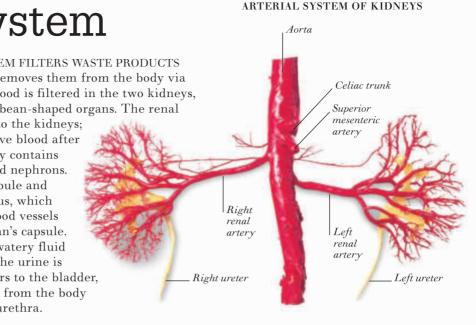
Urinary system



The urinary system filters waste products from the blood and removes them from the body via a system of tubes. Blood is filtered in the two kidneys, which are fist-sized, bean-shaped organs. The renal arteries carry blood to the kidneys;

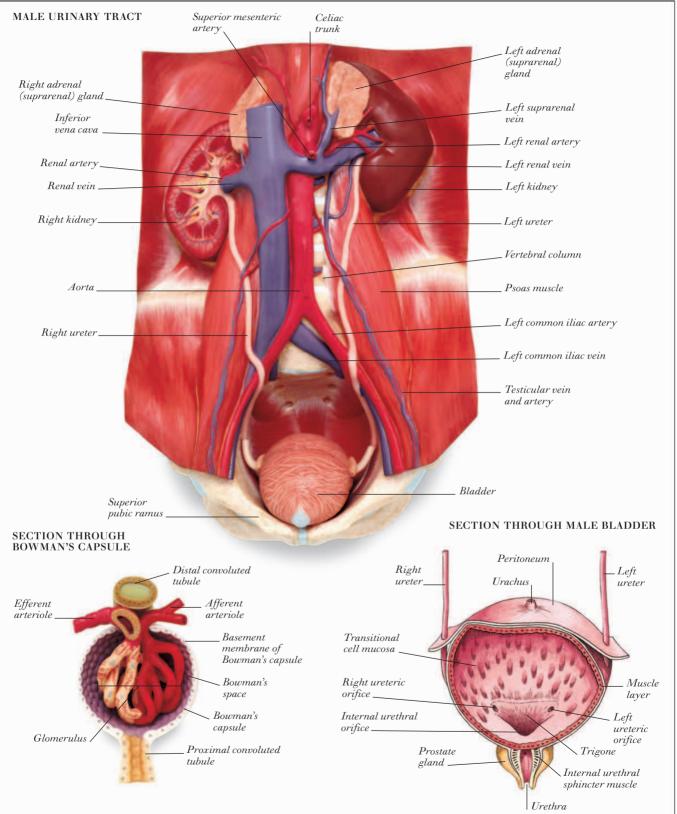
the renal veins remove blood after filtering. Each kidney contains

about one million tiny units called nephrons. Each nephron is made up of a tubule and a filtering unit called a glomerulus, which consists of a collection of tiny blood vessels surrounded by the hollow Bowman's capsule. The filtering process produces a watery fluid that leaves the kidney as urine. The urine is carried via two tubes called ureters to the bladder, where it is stored until its release from the body through another tube called the urethra.



Interlobular Collecting tubule vein Medullary SECTION OF KIDNEY pyramid Bowman's capsule Interlobular Collecting tubule artery Nephron Interlobular Interlobular Distal convoluted artery vein tubule Nephron Cortex Loop of Glomerulus Medulla Henlé Bowman's Cortex capsule Renal artery Proximal convoluted Renal vein Renal tubule Renal pelvis sinus Collecting duct Ureter Medulla Major calyx Loop of Henlé Minor calyx Renal papilla Duct of Fibrous capsule Bellini Vasa recta Renal column

SECTION THROUGH LEFT KIDNEY



Reproductive system

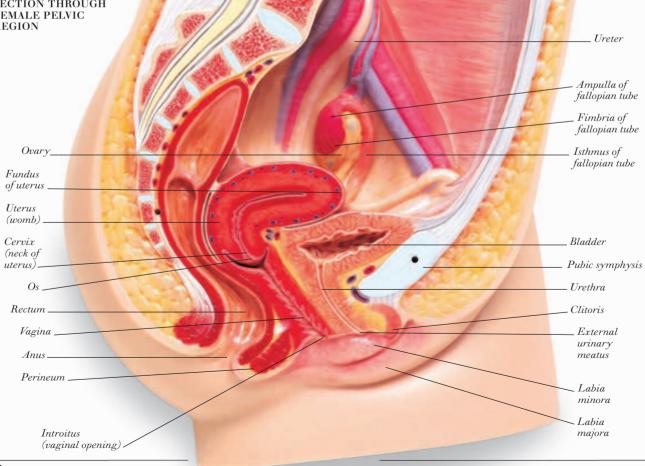
SEX ORGANS LOCATED IN THE PELVIS create new human lives. Each month a ripe egg is released from one of the female's ovaries into a fallopian tube leading to the uterus (womb), a muscular pear-sized organ. A male produces minute tadpolelike sperm in two oval glands called testes. When the male is ready to release sperm into the female's vagina, many millions pass into his urethra and leave his body through the fleshy penis. The sperm travel up through the vagina into the uterus and fallopian tubes, and one sperm may enter and fertilize an egg. The fertilized egg becomes

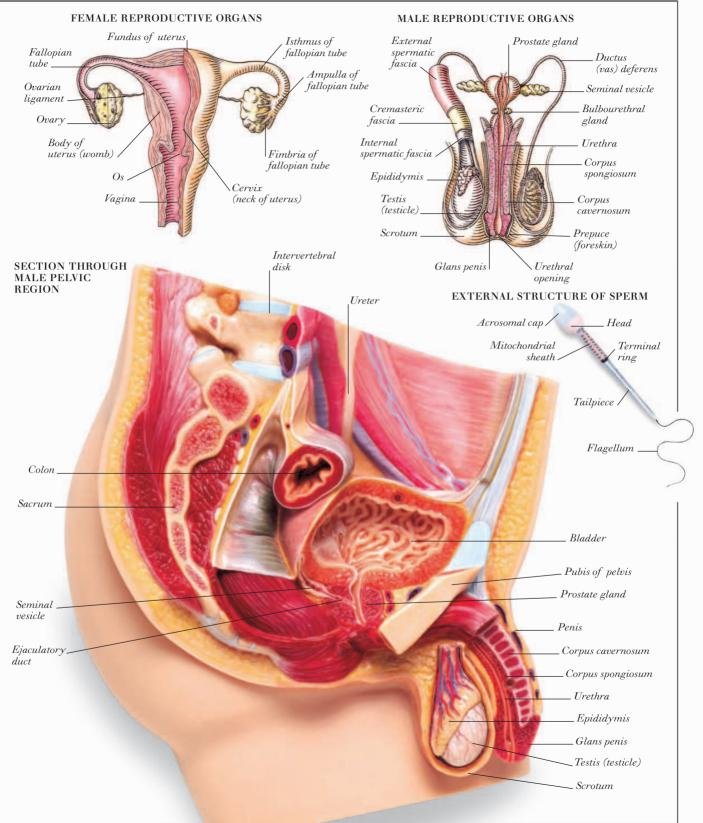
Corpus albicans AS SE Fallopian tube Corpus luteum Primary Mature follicle ruptured follicle_ Germinal epithelium Graffian follicle Oocyte (egg) Secondary follicle

SECTION THROUGH OVARY

embedded in the uterus wall and starts to grow into a new human being.

SECTION THROUGH FEMALE PELVIC REGION

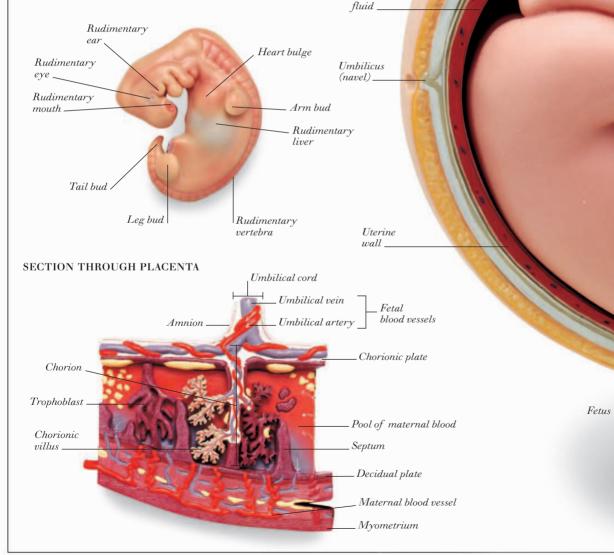




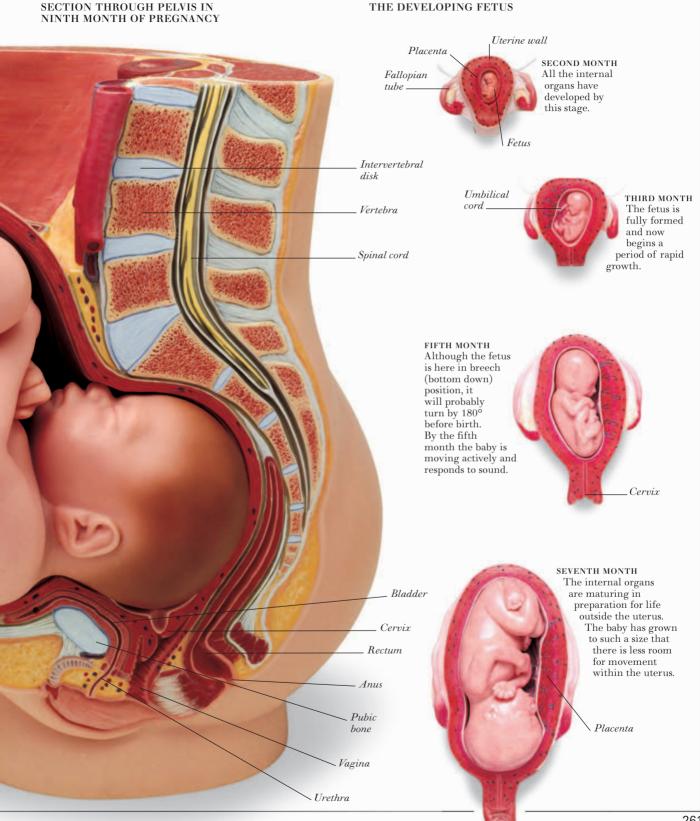
Development of a baby

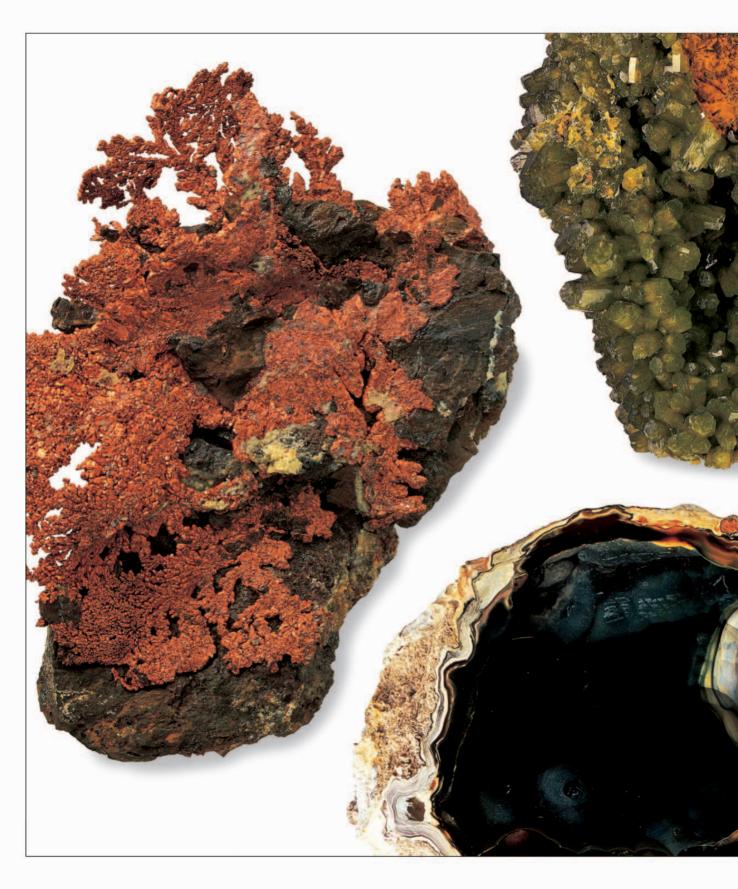
A FERTILIZED EGG IS NOURISHED AND PROTECTED as it develops into an embryo and then a fetus during the 40 weeks of pregnancy. The placenta, a mass of blood vessels implanted in the uterus lining, delivers nourishment and oxygen, and removes waste through the umbilical cord. Meanwhile, the fetus lies snugly in its amniotic sac, a bag of fluid that protects it against any sudden jolts. In the last weeks of the pregnancy, the rapidly growing fetus turns head-down: a baby ready to be born.

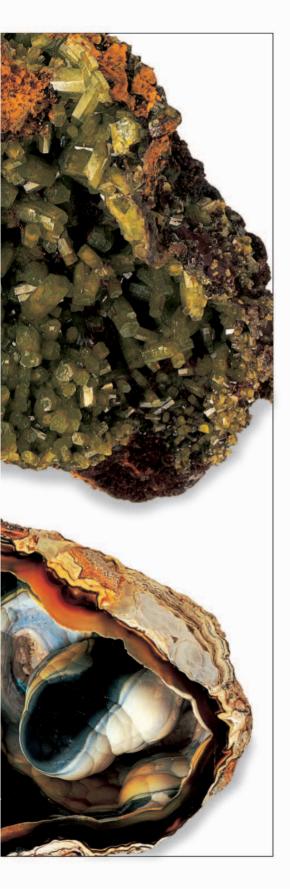
EMBRYO AT FIVE WEEKS



Amniotic







Geology, Geography, and Meteorology

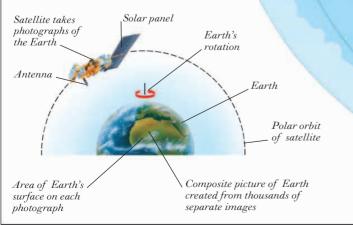
EARTH'S PHYSICAL FEATURES
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Earth's physical features

MOST OF THE EARTH'S SURFACE (about 70 percent) is covered with water. The largest single body of water, the Pacific Ocean, alone covers about 30 percent of the surface. Most of the land is distributed as seven continents; these are (from largest to smallest) Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Antarctica, Europe, and Australasia. The physical features of the land are remarkably varied. Among the most notable are mountain ranges, rivers, and deserts. The largest mountain rangesthe Himalavas in Asia and the Andes in South America-extend for thousands of miles. The Himalayas include the world's highest mountain, Mount Everest (29,029 ft/8,848 m). The longest rivers are the Nile River in Africa (4,160 miles/6,695 km) and the Amazon River in South America (4,000 miles/ Bering 6,437 km). Deserts cover about 20 percent of the total land area. The largest is the Sahara, which covers nearly a third of Africa. The Earth's surface features can be represented in various ways. Only a globe can correctly represent areas, shapes, sizes, and directions, because there is always distortion when a spherical surfacethe Earth's, for exampleis projected on to the flat surface of a map. Each map projection is therefore a compromise; it shows some features accurately but distorts others. Even satellite mapping does not produce PACIFIC OCEAN completely accurate maps, although they can show physical features with great clarity.

SATELLITE MAPPING OF THE EARTH



EXAMPLES OF MAP PROJECTIONS



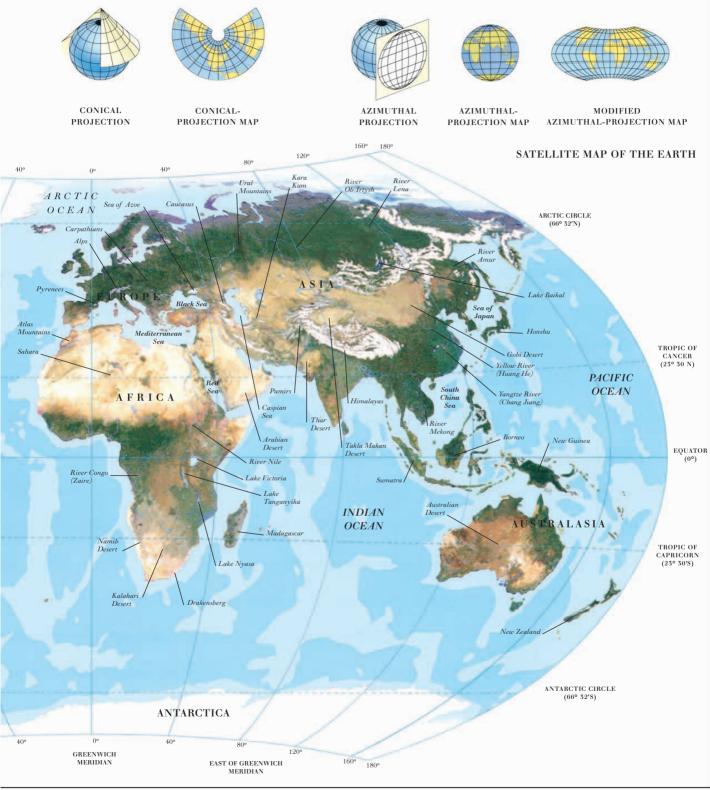
CYLINDRICAL PROJECTION

CYLINDRICAL-PROJECTION MAP

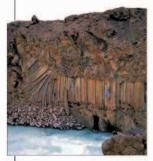


MERIDIAN

264



The rock cycle



HEXAGONAL BASALT COLUMNS, ICELAND THE ROCK CYCLE IS A CONTINUOUS PROCESS through which old rocks are transformed into new ones. Rocks can be divided into three main groups: igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic. Igneous rocks are formed when magma (molten rock) from the Earth's interior cools and solidifies (see pp. 274-275). Sedimentary rocks are formed when sediment (rock particles, for example) becomes compressed and cemented together in a process known as lithification (see pp. 276-277). Metamorphic rocks are formed when igneous, sedimentary, or other metamorphic rocks are changed by heat or pressure (see pp. 274-275). Rocks are added to the Earth's surface by crustal movements and volcanic activity. Once exposed on the surface, the rocks are broken down into rock particles by weathering (see pp. 282-283). The particles are then transported by glaciers, rivers, and wind, and deposited as sediment

COLUMNS, ICELANDin lakes, deltas, deserts, and on the ocean floor. Some
of this sediment undergoes lithification and forms sedimentary rock.This rock may be thrust back to the surface by crustal movements or
forced deeper into the Earth's interior, where heat and pressure
transform it into metamorphic rock. The metamorphic rock in
turn may be pushed up to the surface or may be melted to
form magma. Eventually, the magma cools and solidifies-
below or on the surface-forming igneous rock. When the
sedimentary, igneous, and metamorphic rocks
are exposed once more on the Earth's surface, the
cycle begins again.Main
conduit

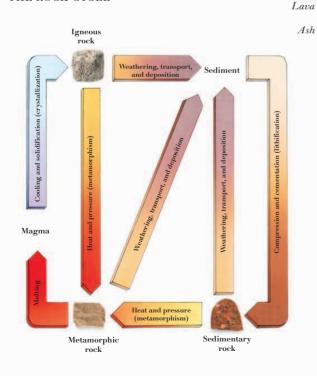


Lava

flow

Vent

Magma extruded as lava, which solidifies to form igneous rock

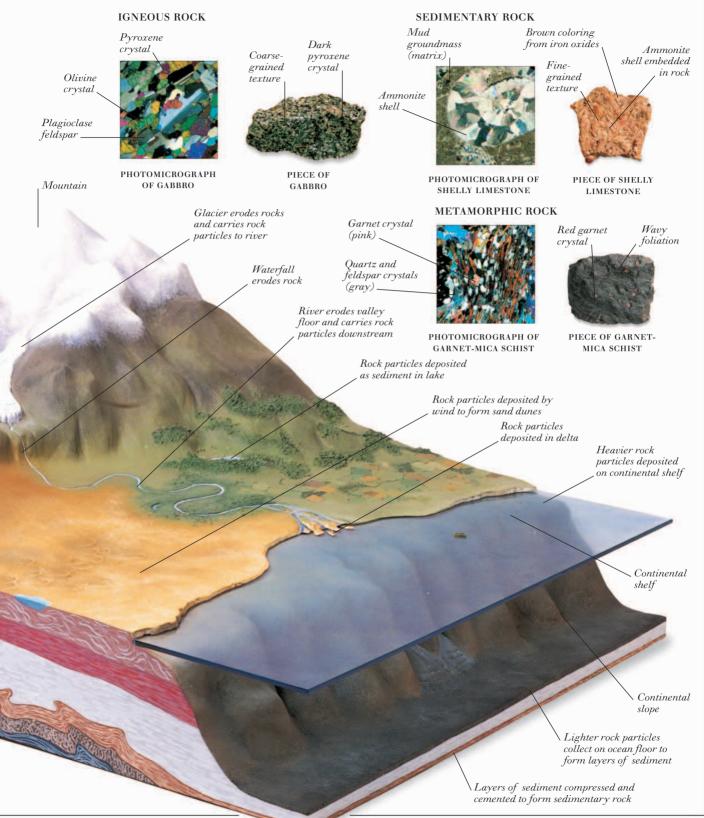


THE ROCK CYCLE

Rock surrounding magma changed by heat to form metamorphic rock

> Intense heat of rising magma melts some of the surrounding rock

Sedimentary rock crushed and folded to form metamorphic rock



Minerals

A MINERAL IS A NATURALLY OCCURRING SUBSTANCE that has a characteristic chemical composition and specific physical properties, such as habit and streak (see pp. 270-271). A rock, by comparison, is an aggregate of minerals and need not have a specific chemical composition. Minerals are made up of elements (substances that cannot be broken down chemically into simpler substances), each of which can be represented by a chemical symbol. Minerals can be divided into two main groups: native elements and compounds. Native elements are made up of a pure element. Examples include gold (chemical symbol Au), silver (Ag), copper (Cu), and carbon (C); carbon occurs as a native element in two forms, diamond and graphite. Compounds are combinations of two or more elements. For example, sulfides are compounds of sulfur (S) and one or more other elements, such as lead (Pb) in the mineral galena, or antimony (Sb) in the mineral stibnite.

groundmass Dendritic COPPER (matrix) (branching) (Cu) SULFIDES White gold Hexagonal diamond graphite Kimberlite crystal groundmass (matrix) Ouartz vein DIAMOND GRAPHITE GOLD (Au) (C) (C) Rounded bauxite Cubic **OXIDES/HYDROXIDES** grains in groundmass galena (matrix) crystal Milky quartz groundmass Mass of specular (matrix) hematite Smoky crystals GALENA quartz (PbS) crystal SMOKY OUARTZ Prismatic SPECULAR HEMATITE stibnite (SiO_{o}) (Fe_2O_5) crystal BAUXITE (FeO(OH) and Al₂O₃.2H₂O) Ouartz Specular groundmass Kidney ore crystals of (matrix) STIBNITE hematite hematite (Sb_0S_5) Ouartz Perfect octahedral crystal pyrites crysta Parallel bands of onyx PYRITES ONYX KIDNEY ORE HEMATITE (FeS_2) (SiO_{0}) $(Fe_{0}O_{5})$

NATIVE ELEMENTS

Limonite

Dendritic (branching)



GREEN FLUORITE

(CaF₂)

ORANGE HALITE (ROCK SALT)

(NaCl)

269

Tabular wulfenite crystal

WULFENITE $(PbMoO_4)$

groundmass (matrix)

Dark rock

Mineral features

MINEBALS CAN BE IDENTIFIED BY STUDYING features such as fracture, cleavage, crystal system, habit, hardness, color, and streak. Minerals can break in different ways. If a mineral breaks in an irregular way, leaving rough surfaces, it possesses fracture. If a mineral breaks along well-defined planes of weakness, it possesses cleavage. Specific minerals have distinctive patterns of cleavage; for example, mica cleaves along one plane. Most minerals form crystals, which can be categorized into crystal systems according to their symmetry and number of faces. Within each system, several different but related forms of crystal are possible; for example, a cubic crystal can have six, eight, or 12 sides. A mineral's habit is the typical form taken by an aggregate of its crystals. Examples of habit include botryoidal (like a bunch of grapes) and massive (no definite form). The relative hardness of a mineral may be assessed by testing its resistance to scratching. This property is usually measured using Mohs scale, which increases in hardness from 1 (talc) to 10 (diamond). The color of a mineral is not a dependable guide to its identity as some minerals have a range of colors. Streak (the color the powdered mineral makes when rubbed across an unglazed tile) is a more reliable indicator.



CLEAVAGE

Cleavage

direction

in one



Cleavage in three directions

forming a

block cube

Cleavage in

Tetragonal

Representation of cubic system

Representation

idocrase crystal -

four directions,

forming a doublepyramid crystal -

CLEAVAGE ALONG ONE PLANE





CLEAVAGE ALONG TWO PLANES

CUBIC SYSTEM

CRYSTAL SYSTEMS

Cubic iron pyrites , crystal



CLEAVAGE ALONG

THREE PLANES

CLEAVAGE ALONG FOUR PLANES

TETRAGONAL SYSTEM

270



TALC GYPSUM 2 1

CALCITE 3

FLUORITE 4

 $\mathbf{5}$

6

7

TOPAZ CORUNDUM DIAMOND 8 9 10

Volcanoes

Folded, ropelike surface___

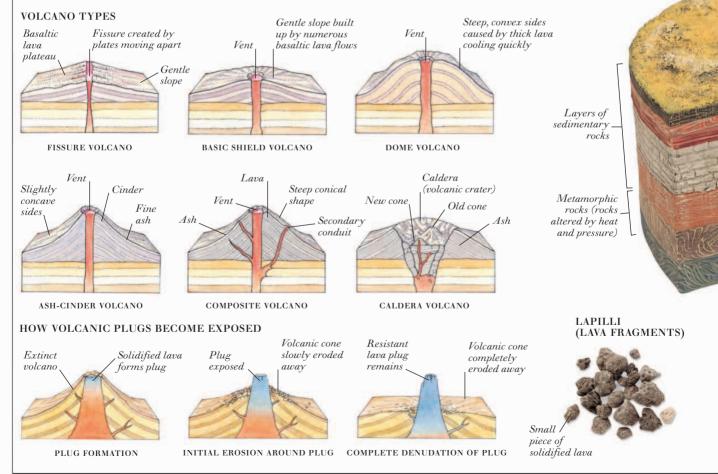
VOLCANOES ARE VENTS OR FISSURES in the Earth's crust through which magma (molten rock that originates from deep beneath the crust) is forced on to the surface as lava. They occur most commonly along the boundaries of crustal plates; most volcanoes lie in a belt called the "Ring of Fire," which runs along the edge of the Pacific Ocean. Volcanoes can be classified according to the violence and frequency of their eruptions.



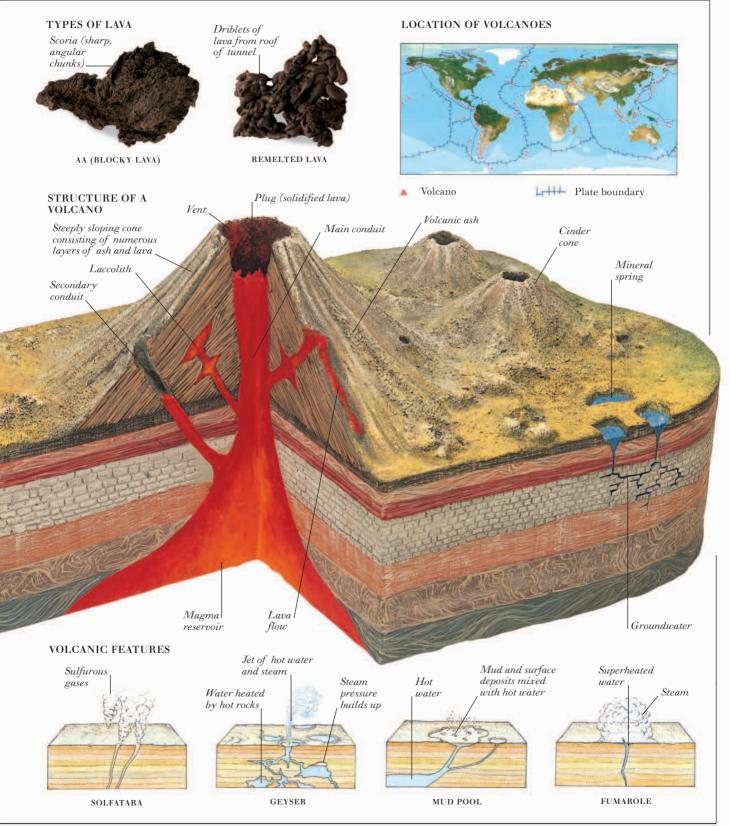
Nonexplosive volcanic eruptions generally occur where crustal plates pull apart. These eruptions produce runny basaltic lava that spreads quickly over a wide area to form relatively flat cones. The most violent eruptions take place where plates collide. Such eruptions produce thick rhyolitic lava and may also blast out clouds of dust and pyroclasts (lava fragments). The lava does not flow far before cooling and therefore builds up steep-sided, conical volcanoes. Some volcanoes produce lava and ash eruptions, which build up composite volcanic cones. Volcanoes that erupt frequently are described as active; those that erupt rarely are termed dormant; and those that have stopped erupting altogether are termed extinct. As well as the volcanoes themselves, other features associated with volcanic regions include geysers, hot mineral springs, solfataras, fumaroles, and bubbling mud pools.

PAHOEHOE (ROPY LAVA)



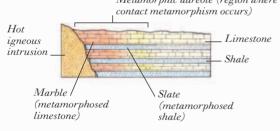


VOLCANOES

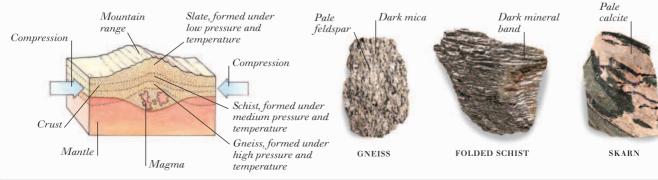


Igneous and metamorphic rocks

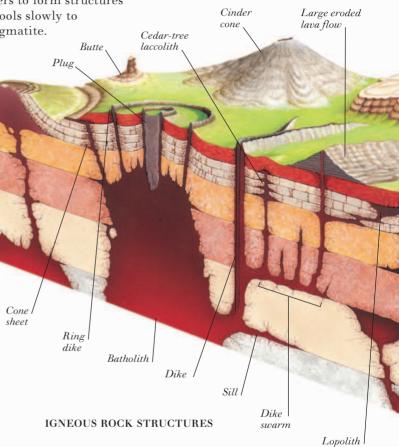
IGNEOUS ROCKS ARE FORMED WHEN MAGMA (molten rock that originates from deep beneath the Earth's crust) cools and solidifies. There are two main types of igneous rock: intrusive and extrusive. Intrusive rocks are formed deep underground where magma is forced into cracks or between rock layers to form structures such as sills, dikes, and batholiths. The magma cools slowly to form coarse-grained rocks such as gabbro and pegmatite. Extrusive rocks are formed above the Earth's laccolith Butte surface from lava (magma that has been Plug ejected in a volcanic eruption). The molten lava cools quickly, producing fine-grained rocks such as rhyolite and basalt. Metamorphic rocks are those that have been altered by intense heat (contact metamorphism) or extreme pressure (regional metamorphism). Contact metamorphism occurs when rocks are changed by heat from, for example, an igneous intrusion or lava flow. Regional metamorphism occurs when rock is crushed in the middle of a folding mountain range. Metamorphic rocks can be formed from igneous rocks, sedimentary rocks, or even from other metamorphic rocks. Cone CONTACT METAMORPHISM sheet Metamorphic aureole (region where Ring



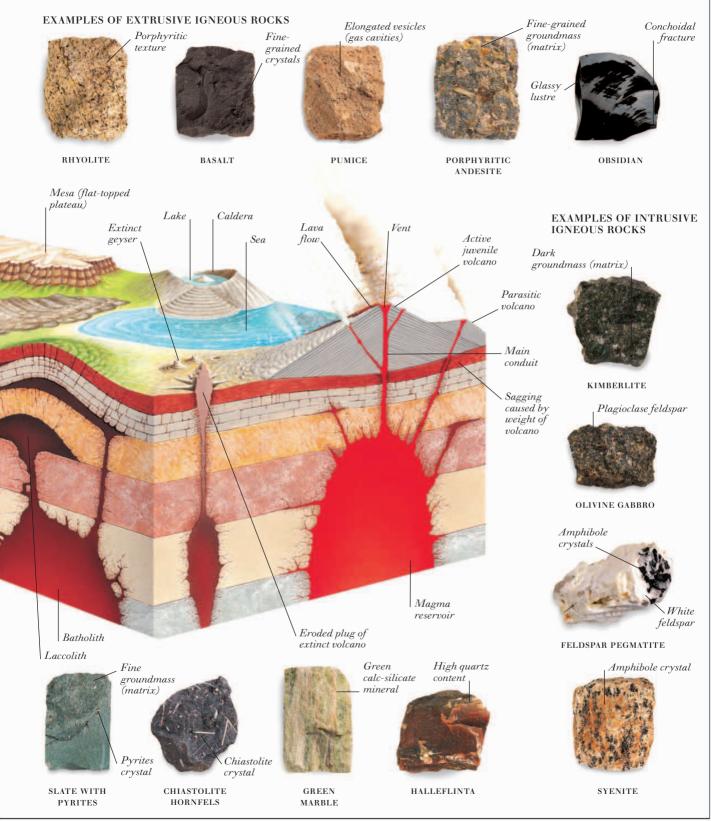
REGIONAL METAMORPHISM







EXAMPLES OF METAMORPHIC ROCKS



Sedimentary rocks

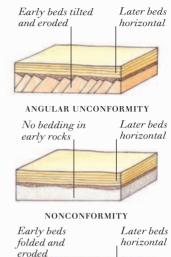
SEDIMENTARY ROCKS ARE FORMED BY THE ACCUMULATION and consolidation of sediments (see pp. 266-267). There are three main types of sedimentary rock. Clastic sedimentary rocks, such as breccia or sandstone, are formed from other rocks that have been broken down into fragments by weathering (see pp. 282-283), which have then been transported and deposited elsewhere. Organic sedimentary rocks—for example, coal (see pp. 280-281)—are derived from plant and animal remains. Chemical sedimentary rocks are formed by

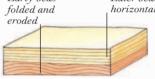


THE GRAND CANYON, USA

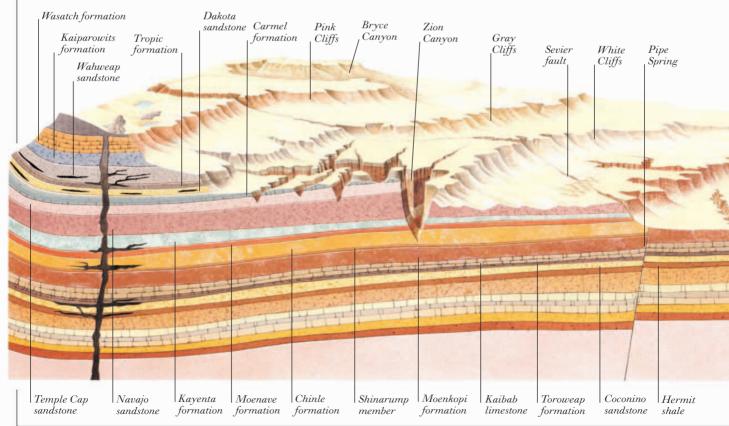
chemical sedimentary rocks are formed by chemical processes. For example, rock salt is formed when salt dissolved in water is deposited as the water evaporates. Sedimentary rocks are laid down in layers, called beds or strata. Each new layer is laid down horizontally over older ones. There are usually some gaps in the sequence, called unconformities. These represent periods in which no new sediments were being laid down, or when earlier sedimentary layers were raised above sea level and eroded away.



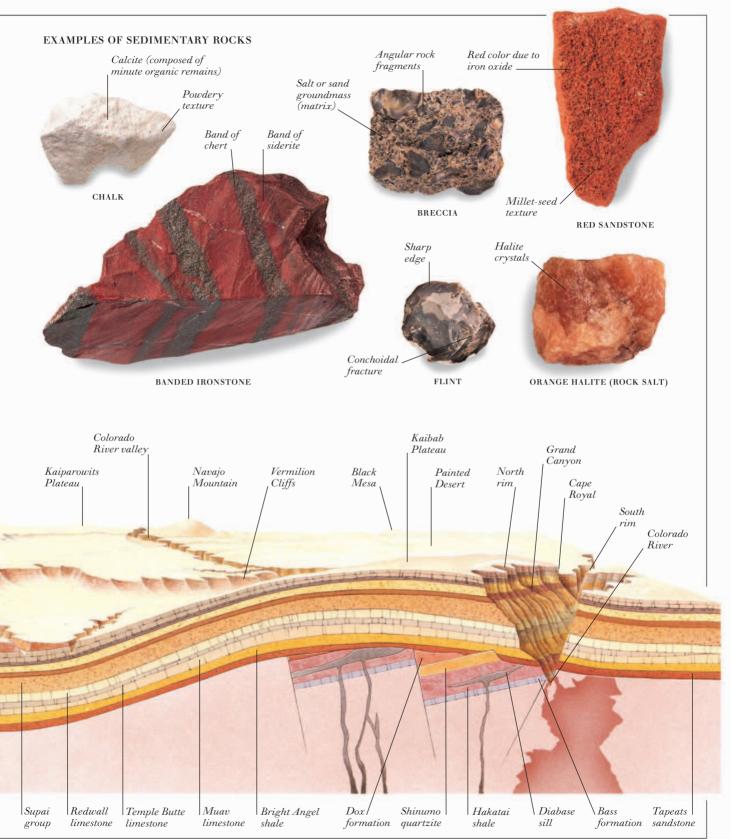




DISCONFORMITY



SEDIMENTARY LAYERS OF THE GRAND CANYON REGION

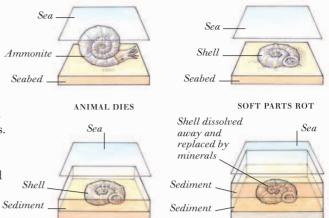


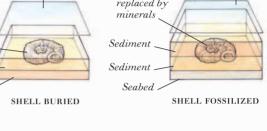
GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY, AND METEOROLOGY

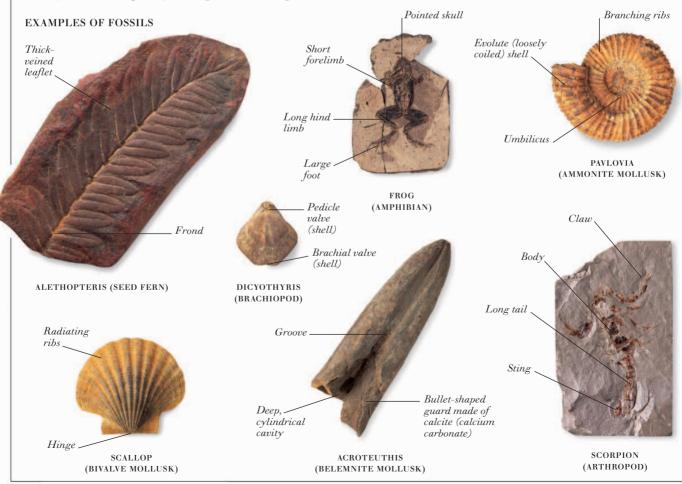
Fossils

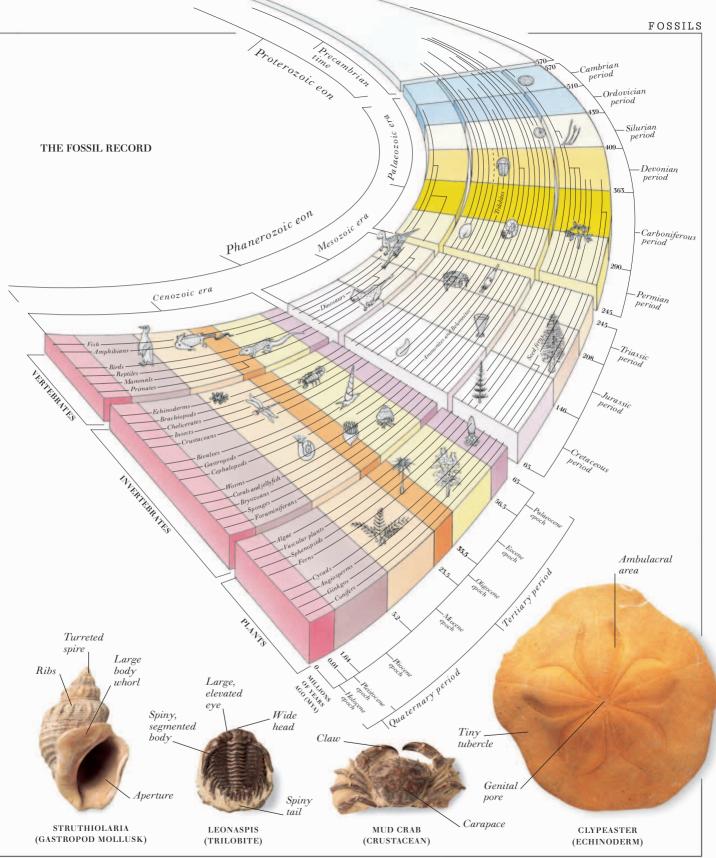
FOSSILS ARE THE REMAINS of plants and animals that have been preserved in rock. A fossil may be the preserved remains of an organism itself, an impression of it in rock, or preserved traces (known as trace fossils) left by an organism while it was alive, such as organic carbon outlines, fossilized footprints, or droppings. Most dead organisms soon rot away or are eaten by scavengers. For fossilization to occur, rapid burial by sediment is necessary. The organism decays, but the harder partsbones, teeth, and shells, for example-may be preserved and hardened by minerals from the surrounding sediment. Fossilization may also occur even when the hard parts of an organism are dissolved away to leave Seabed an impression called a mold. The mold is filled by minerals, thereby creating a cast of the organism. The study of fossils (paleontology) can not only show how living things have evolved, but can also help to reveal the Earth's geological history—for example, by aiding in the dating of rock strata.

PROCESS OF FOSSILIZATION









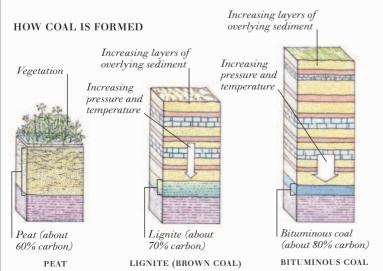
Mineral resources

MINERAL RESOURCES CAN BE DEFINED AS naturally occurring substances that can be extracted from the Earth and are useful as fuels and raw materials. Coal, oil, and gas – collectively called fossil fuels – are commonly included in this group, but are not strictly minerals, because they are of organic origin. Coal formation begins when vegetation is buried and partly decomposed to form peat. Overlying sediments compress the peat and transform it into lignite (soft brown coal). As the overlying sediments

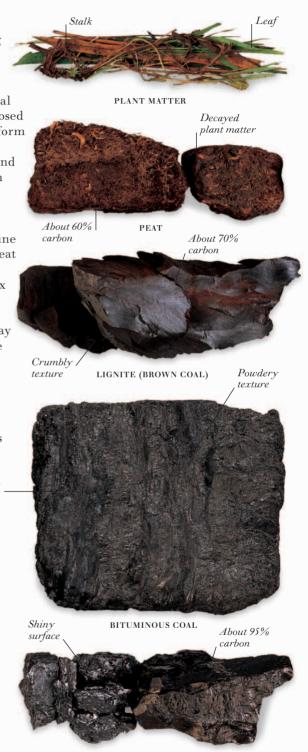


OIL RIG, NORTH SEA

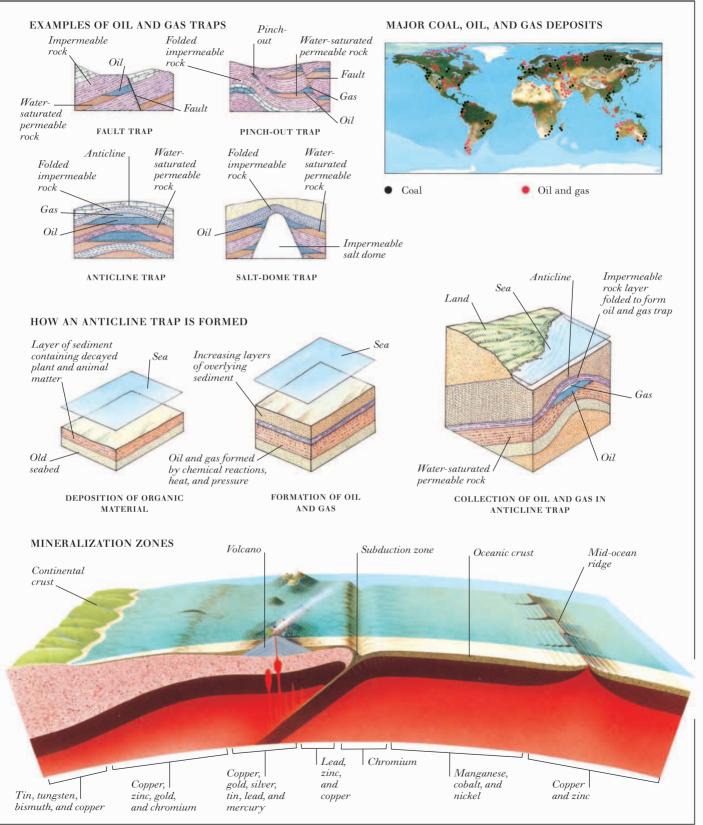
accumulate, increasing pressure and temperature eventually transform the lignite into bituminous and hard anthracite coals. Oil and gas are usually formed from organic matter that was deposited in marine sediments. Under the effects of heat and pressure, the compressed organic matter undergoes complex chemical changes to form oil and gas. The oil and gas percolate



STAGES IN THE FORMATION OF COAL



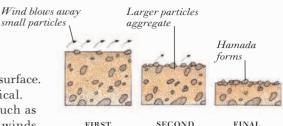
ANTHRACITE COAL



Weathering and erosion

WEATHERING IS THE BREAKING DOWN of rocks on the Earth's surface. There are two main types: physical (or mechanical) and chemical. Physical weathering may be caused by temperature changes, such as freezing and thawing, or by abrasion from material carried by winds, rivers, or glaciers. Rocks may also be broken down by the actions of animals and plants, such as the burrowing of animals and the growth of roots. Chemical weathering causes rocks to decompose by changing their chemical composition—for example, rainwater may dissolve certain minerals in a rock. Erosion is the wearing away and removal of land surfaces by water, wind, or ice. It is greatest in areas of little or no surface vegetation, such as deserts, where sand dunes may form.

FORMATION OF A HAMADA (ROCK PAVEMENT)



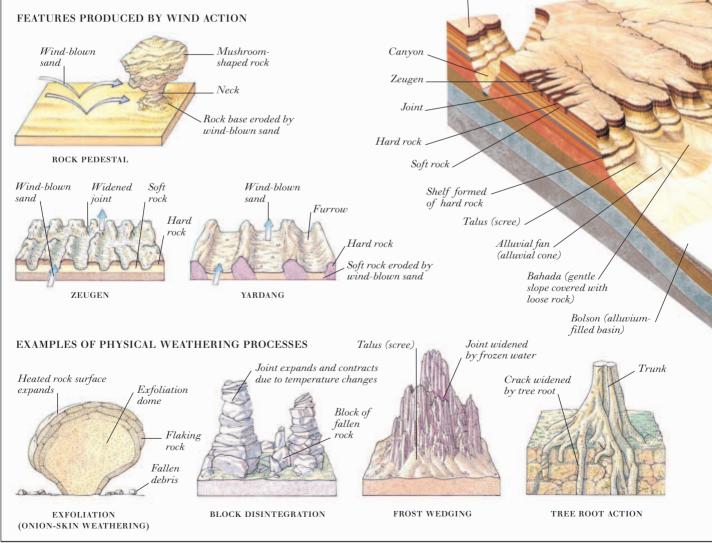
STAGE

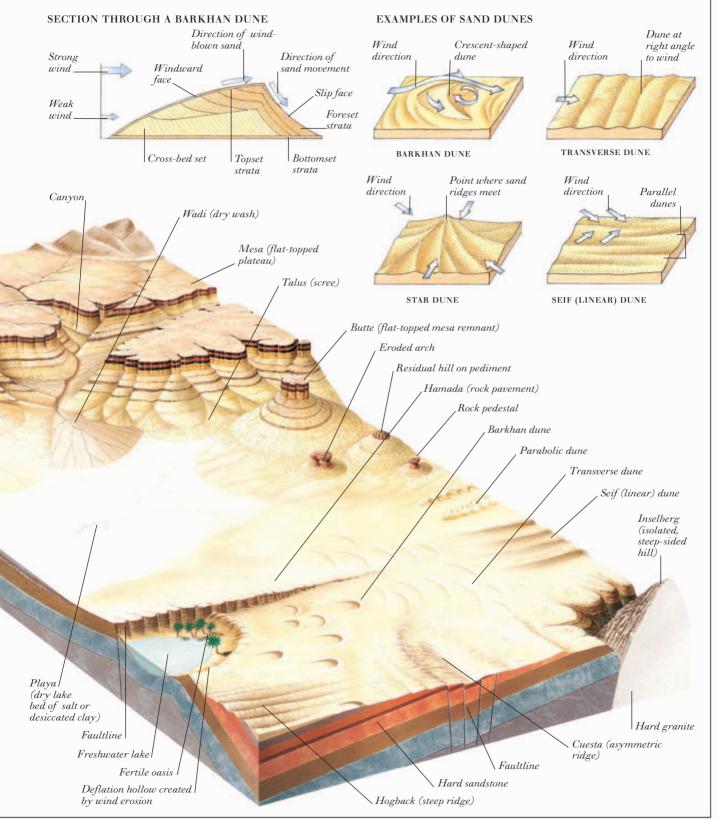
Mesa (flat-topped plateau)

FIRST STAGE

FINAL STAGE

FEATURES OF WEATHERING AND EROSION





Caves

CAVES COMMONLY FORM in areas of limestone, although on coastlines they also occur in other rocks. Limestone is made of calcite (calcium carbonate). which dissolves in the carbonic acid naturally present in rainwater, and in humic acids from the decay of

vegetation. The acidic water

trickles down through cracks and

STALACTITE WITH BING MARKS



joints in the limestone and between rock layers, breaking up the surface terrain into clints (blocks of rock), separated by grikes (deep cracks), and punctuated by sink-holes (also called swallow-holes or potholes) into which surface streams may disappear. Underground,

(depression Sink-hole

Gorge where

cave roof has

Resurgence

. fallen in

SUBFACE TOPOGRAPHY OF A CAVE SYSTEM

caused by collapse of cave roof)

Doline

Ring mark

Porous

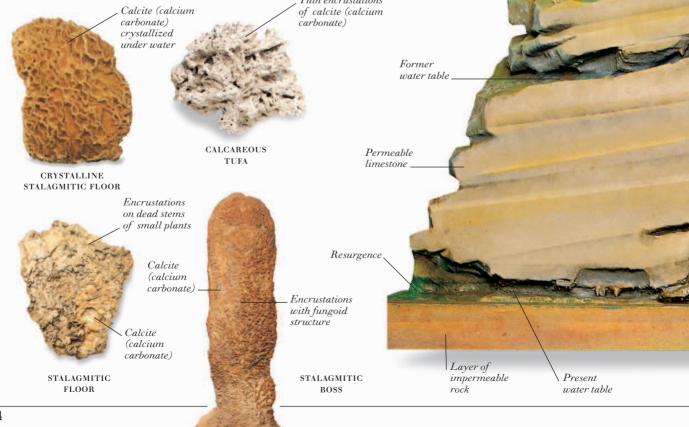
limestone

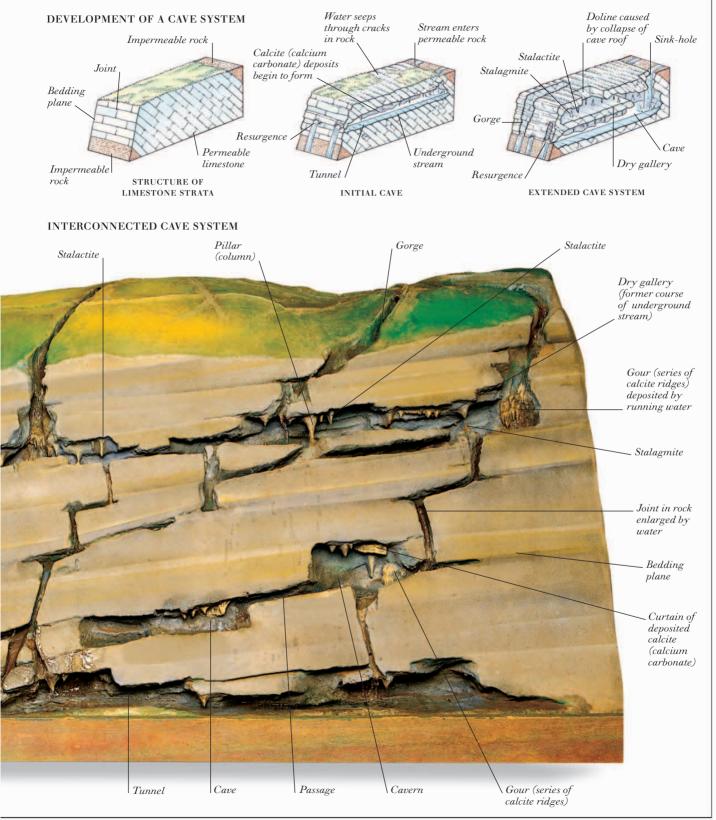


STALACTITES

opening up a network of passages and caves, which can become large caverns if the roofs collapse. Various features are formed when the dissolved calcite is redeposited; for example, it may be redeposited along an underground stream to form a gour (series of calcite ridges), or in caves and passages to form stalactites and stalagmites. Stalactites develop where calcite is left behind as water drips from the roof; where the drops land, stalagmites build up.

STALAGMITE FORMATIONS





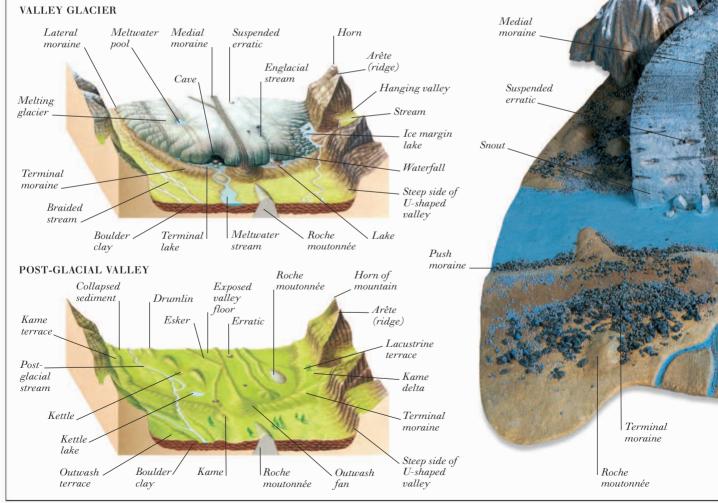
Glaciers

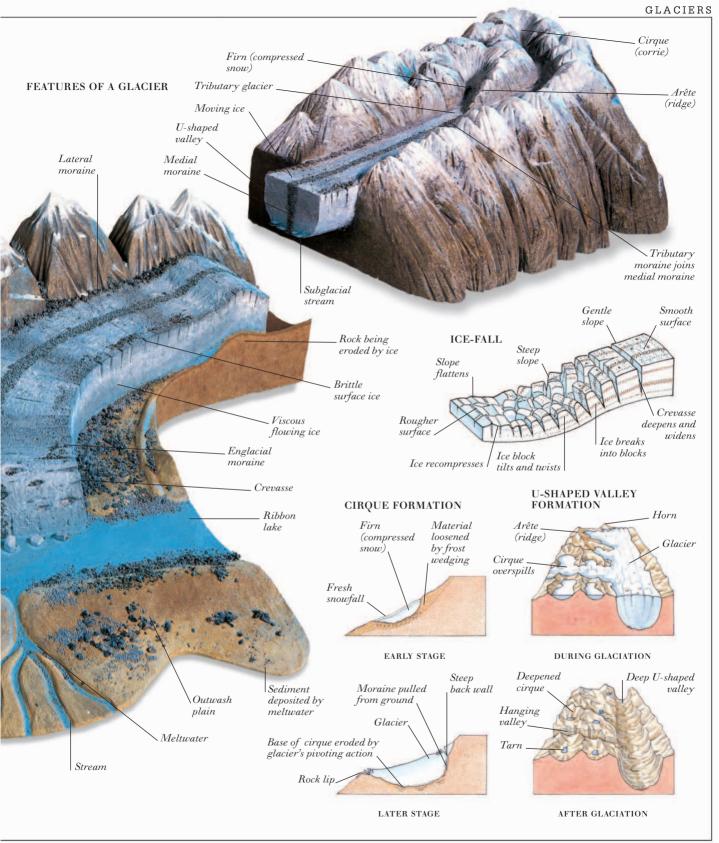


GLACIER BAY, ALASKA

A VALLEY GLACIER IS A LARGE MASS OF ICE that forms on land and moves slowly downhill under its own weight. It is formed from snow that collects in cirques (mountain hollows also known as corries) and compresses into ice as more and more snow accumulates. The cirque is deepened by frost wedging and abrasion (see pp. 282-283), and arêtes (sharp ridges) develop between adjacent cirques. Eventually, so much ice builds up that the glacier begins to move downhill. As the glacier moves it collects moraine (debris), which may range in size from particles of dust to large boulders. The rocks at the base of the glacier erode the glacial valley, giving it a U-shaped cross-section. Under the glacier, *roches moutonnées* (eroded outcrops of hard rock) and drumlins (rounded mounds of rock and clay) are left behind on the valley floor. The glacier ends at a terminus (the snout), where the ice melts as fast as it arrives. If the temperature increases, the ice melts

faster than it arrives, and the glacier retreats. The retreating glacier leaves behind its moraine and also erratics (isolated single boulders). Glacial streams from the melting glacier deposit eskers and kames (ridges and mounds of sand and gravel), but carry away the finer sediment to form a stratified outwash plain. Lumps of ice carried on to this plain melt, creating holes called kettles.



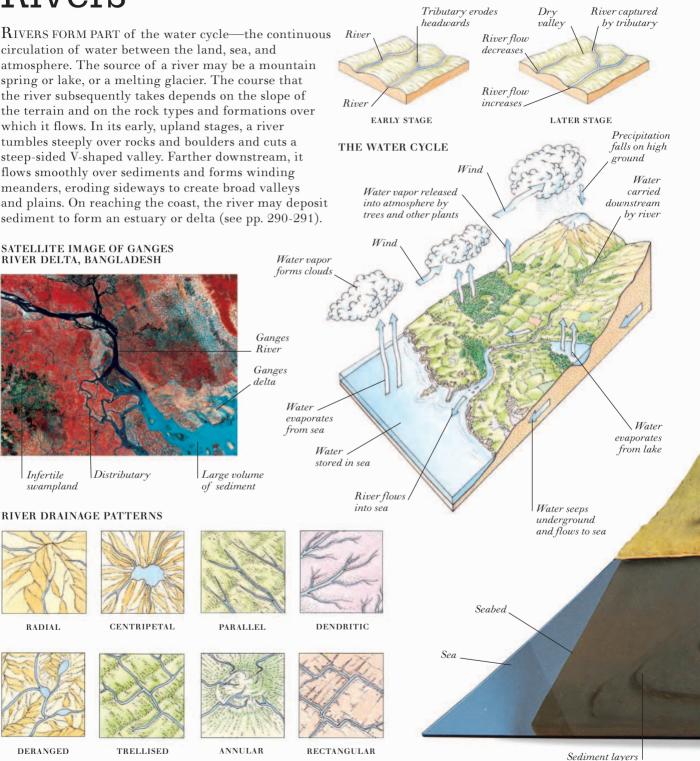


GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY, AND METEOROLOGY

Rivers

RIVERS FORM PART of the water cycle—the continuous circulation of water between the land, sea, and atmosphere. The source of a river may be a mountain spring or lake, or a melting glacier. The course that the river subsequently takes depends on the slope of the terrain and on the rock types and formations over which it flows. In its early, upland stages, a river tumbles steeply over rocks and boulders and cuts a steep-sided V-shaped valley. Farther downstream, it flows smoothly over sediments and forms winding meanders, eroding sideways to create broad valleys and plains. On reaching the coast, the river may deposit sediment to form an estuary or delta (see pp. 290-291).

BIVER CAPTURE

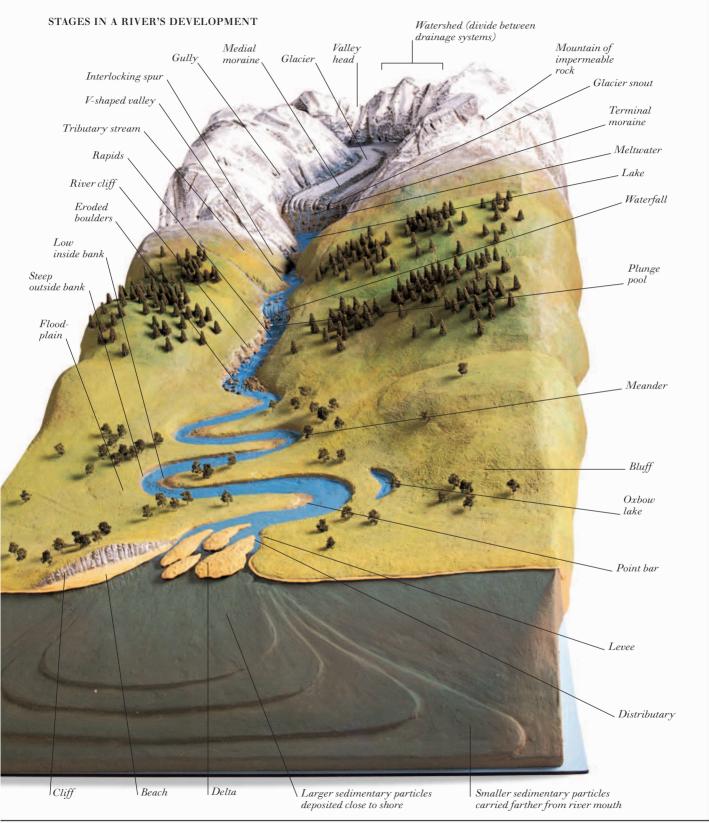


Infertile

RADIAL

DERANGED

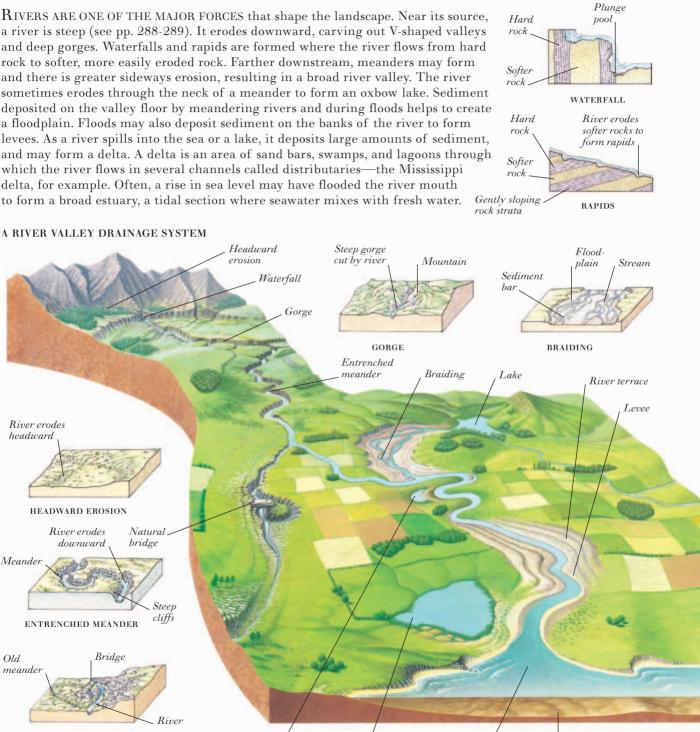
swampland



River features

RIVERS ARE ONE OF THE MAJOR FORCES that shape the landscape. Near its source, a river is steep (see pp. 288-289). It erodes downward, carving out V-shaped valleys and deep gorges. Waterfalls and rapids are formed where the river flows from hard rock to softer, more easily eroded rock. Farther downstream, meanders may form and there is greater sideways erosion, resulting in a broad river valley. The river sometimes erodes through the neck of a meander to form an oxbow lake. Sediment deposited on the valley floor by meandering rivers and during floods helps to create a floodplain. Floods may also deposit sediment on the banks of the river to form levees. As a river spills into the sea or a lake, it deposits large amounts of sediment, and may form a delta. A delta is an area of sand bars, swamps, and lagoons through which the river flows in several channels called distributaries-the Mississippi delta, for example. Often, a rise in sea level may have flooded the river mouth to form a broad estuary, a tidal section where seawater mixes with fresh water.

HOW WATERFALLS AND **RAPIDS ARE FORMED**



Lake

River-mouth

Sediment deposited on seabed

Oxbow lake

NATURAL BRIDGE

290

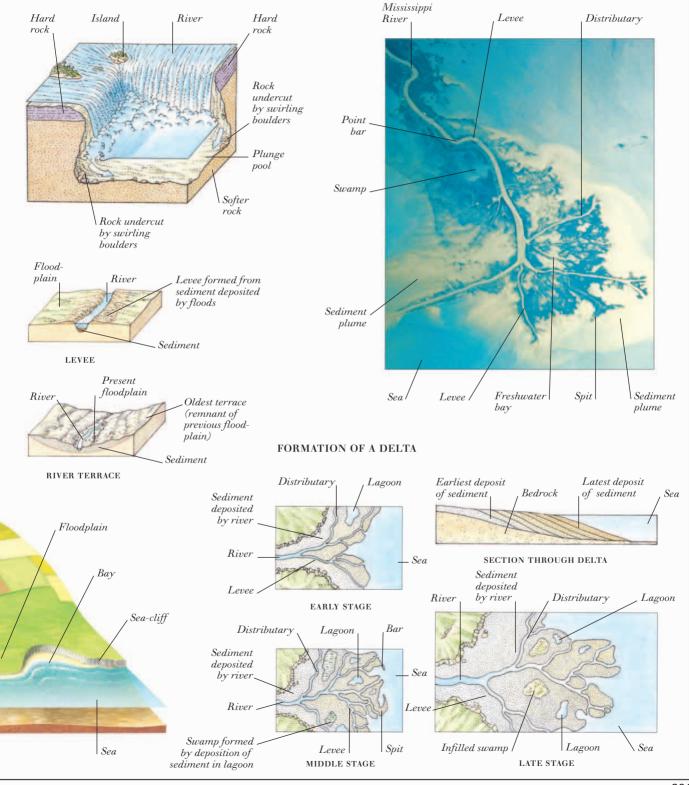
River erodes headward

Meander

Old meander

WATERFALL FEATURES

THE MISSISSIPPI DELTA



Lakes and groundwater

NATURAL LAKE OCCUR WHERE a large quantity of water collects in a hollow in impermeable rock, or is prevented from draining away by a barrier, such as moraine (glacial deposits) or solidified lava. Lakes are often relatively short-lived landscape features, as they tend to become silted up by sediment from the streams and rivers that feed them. Some of the more long-lasting



LAKE BAIKAL, RUSSIA

STRUCTURE OF AN ARTESIAN BASIN

Artesian

spring

Water table

lakes are found in deep rift valleys formed by vertical movements of the Earth's crust (see pp. 58-59)—for example, Lake Baikal in Russia, the world's largest freshwater lake, and the Dead Sea in the Middle East. one of the world's saltiest lakes. Where water is able to drain away, it sinks into the ground until it reaches a layer of impermeable rock, then accumulates in the permeable rock above it; this watersaturated permeable rock is called an aguifer. The saturated zone varies in depth according to seasonal and climatic changes. In wet conditions, the water

Recharge area

Aauifer

rock)

Artesian

well

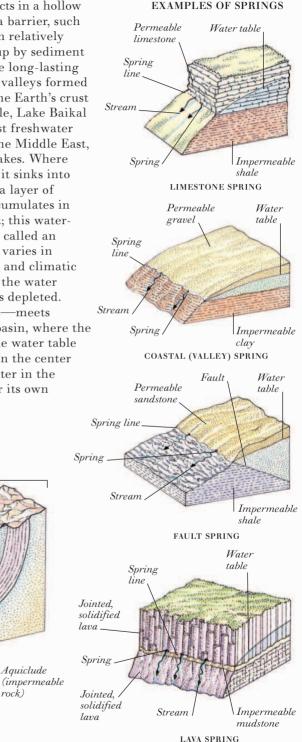
Fault

(saturated

Aquiclude

rock)

stored underground builds up, while in dry periods it becomes depleted. Where the upper edge of the saturated zone—the water table—meets the ground surface, water emerges as springs. In an artesian basin, where the aguifer is below an aguiclude (layer of impermeable rock), the water table throughout the basin is determined by its height at the rim. In the center of such a basin, the water table is above ground level. The water in the basin is thus trapped below the water table and can rise under its own pressure along faultlines or well shafts.



Height of water table

in recharge area

Artesian

Aquiclude

rock)

(impermeable

spring

Zone of aeration Layer Lake Stream of soil moisture Zone of aeration Marsh Capillary fringe Water table Saturated zone CLOSE-UP OF SURFACE LAYER Permanently saturated zone Dry-season (saturated in wet water table Temporarily saturated and dry seasons) zone (saturated only in Present water wet season) THE DEAD SEA, ISRAEL/JORDAN table (wet season) EXAMPLES OF LAKES Lake in kettle Oxbow lake (cut-off river Glacial (former site of deposits ice block) meander) River River KETTLE LAKE OXBOW LAKE Jordan Caldera Volcanic Movement Strike-slip (collapsed lake along strike-(lateral) fault slip (lateral) crater) fault Dead Sea Lake in elongated Steep rift-VOLCANIC LAKE hollow valley walls STRIKE-SLIP (LATERAL) FAULT LAKE Rift valle Steep back wall Moraine eroded by frost or rock lip and ice . damming lake Salt left by evaporation Israel High valley Sinking graben Tarn (circular

Shallow flats

GRABEN (BLOCK-FAULT) LAKE

(block fault)

walls

FEATURES OF A GROUNDWATER SYSTEM

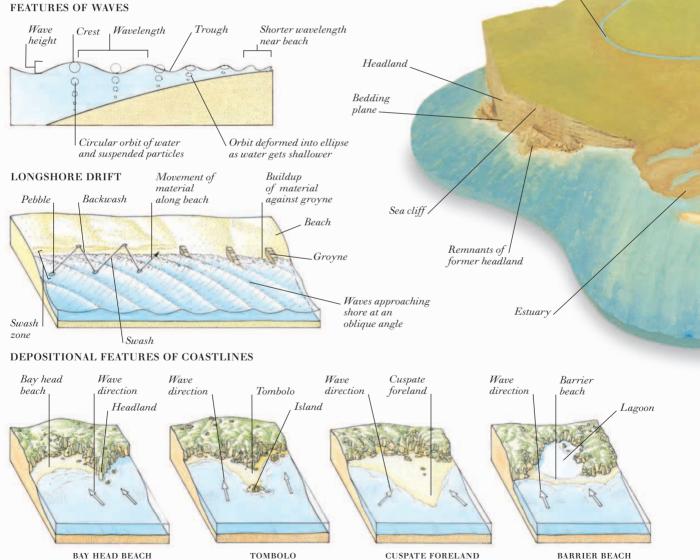
TARN

mountain lake)

Jordan

Coastlines

COASTLINES ARE AMONG THE MOST RAPIDLY changing landscape Low tide features. Some are eroded by waves, wind, and rain, causing level cliffs to be undercut and caves to be hollowed out of solid rock. Others are built up by waves transporting sand and small rocks in a process known as longshore drift, and by rivers depositing sediment in deltas. Additional influences include the activities of living organisms such as coral, crustal movements, and sea-level variations due to climatic changes. Rising land or a drop in sea level creates an emergent coastline, with cliffs and beaches stranded above the new shoreline. Sinking land or a rise in sea level produces a drowned coastline, typified by fjords (submerged glacial valleys) or submerged river valleys.



FEATURES OF A SEA CLIFF

High tide

level

Offshore

deposits

Cliff-face

Wave-cut

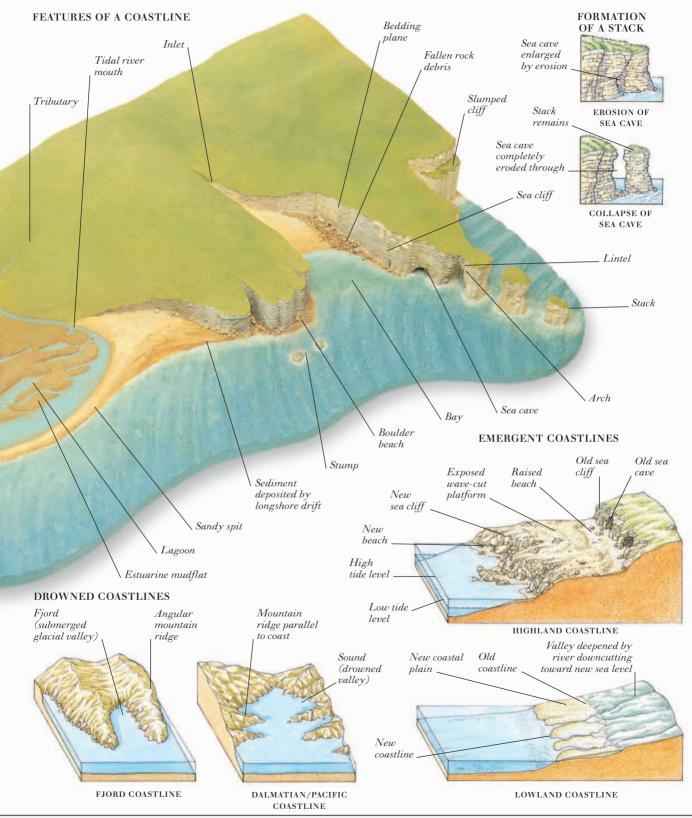
platform

Mature river

Cliff-top

Undercut

area of cliff



Oceans and seas

OCEANS AND SEAS COVER ABOUT 70 PERCENT of the Earth's surface and account for about 97 percent of its total water. These oceans and seas play a crucial role in regulating temperature variations and determining climate. Their waters absorb heat from the Sun, especially in tropical regions, and the surface currents distribute orth Pacific it around the Earth, warming overlying NORTH PACIFIC GYRE air masses and neighboring land in winter and cooling them in summer. The oceans are never still. Differences rth Equatorial Curr in temperature and salinity drive Equatorial Countercurren deep current systems, while surface currents are generated by winds South Equatorial Current blowing over the oceans. All currents are deflected-to the right in the Northern Hemisphere, to the left in the Southern Hemisphere—as a result of the Earth's rotation. This deflective factor is known as the Coriolis force. A current that begins on the surface is immediately deflected. This current in turn generates a current in the layer of water Antarctic Circumpolar Current beneath, which is also deflected. As the movement is transmitted downward, the deflections form an Ekman spiral. The waters of the oceans and seas are also moved by the constant ebb and flow of tides. These are caused by the gravitational pull of the Moon and Sun. The highest tides (Spring tides) occur at full and new Moon; the lowest tides (neap tides) occur at first and last quarter.

SURFACE CURRENTS

GREENWICH

MEBIDIAN

d Current

180

160

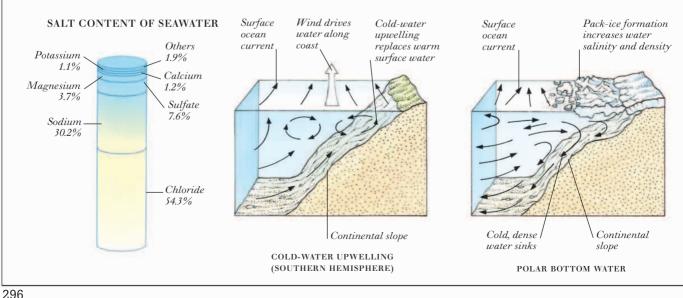
120

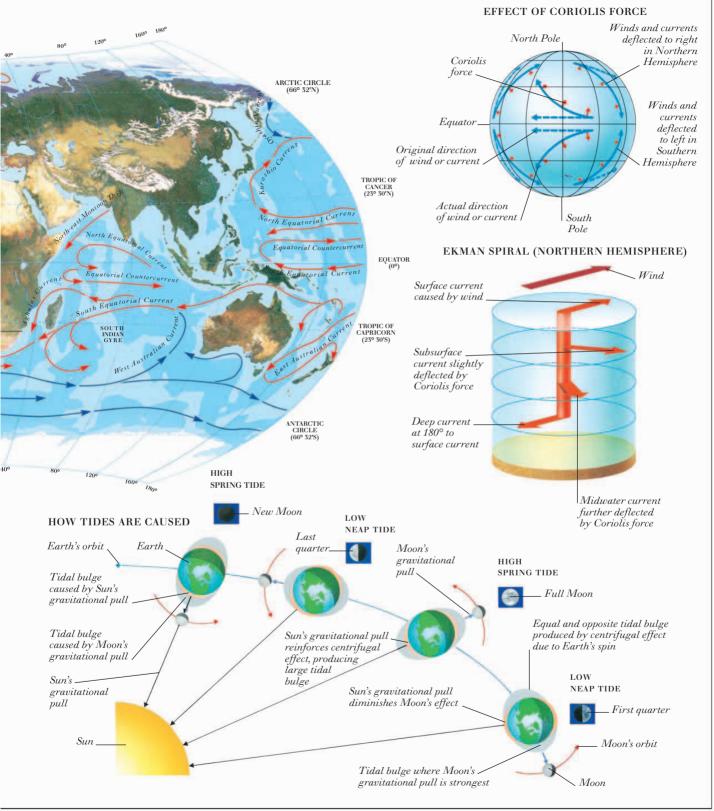
OFFSHORE CURRENTS

GREENWICH

MEBIDIAN

SOUTH FLANTIC GYBE

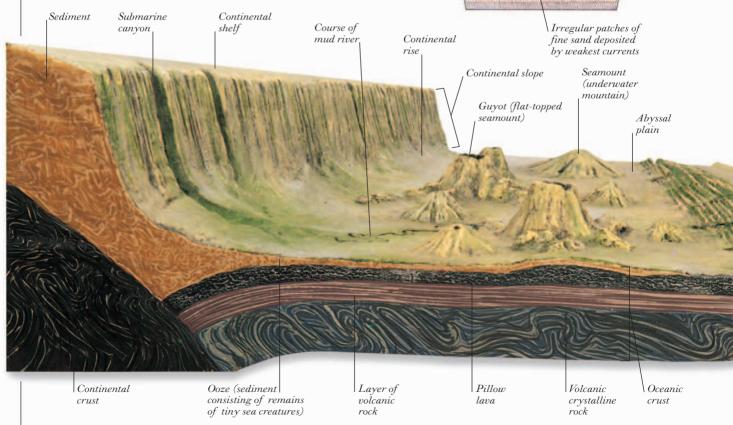




The ocean floor

tidal scour THE OCEAN FLOOR COMPRISES TWO SECTIONS: the continental shelf and slope, and the deep-ocean floor. The continental shelf and slope are part of the continental crust, but may extend far into the ocean. Sloping quite gently to a depth of about 460 feet (140 m), the continental shelf is covered in sandy deposits shaped by waves and tidal currents. At the edge of the continental shelf, the seabed slopes down to the abyssal plain, which lies at an average depth of about 12,500 feet (3,800 m). On this deep-ocean floor is a layer of sediment made up of clays, fine oozes formed from the remains of tiny sea creatures, and occasional mineralrich deposits. Echo-sounding and remote sensing from satellites has revealed that the abyssal plain is divided by a system of mountain ranges, far bigger than any on land-the mid-ocean ridge. Here, magma (molten rock) wells up from the Earth's interior and solidifies, widening the ocean floor (see pp. 58-59). As the ocean floor spreads, volcanoes that have formed over hot spots in the crust move away from their magma source; they become extinct and are increasingly submerged and eroded. Volcanoes eroded below sea level remain as seamounts (underwater mountains). In warm waters, a volcano that projects above the ocean surface often acquires a fringing coral reef, which may develop into an atoll as the volcano becomes submerged.

FEATURES OF THE OCEAN FLOOR



CONTINENTAL-SHELF FLOOR

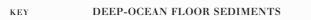
Bedrock

exposed by

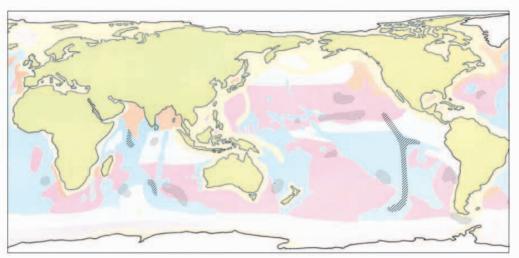
Parallel strips of coarse material left by strong tidal currents

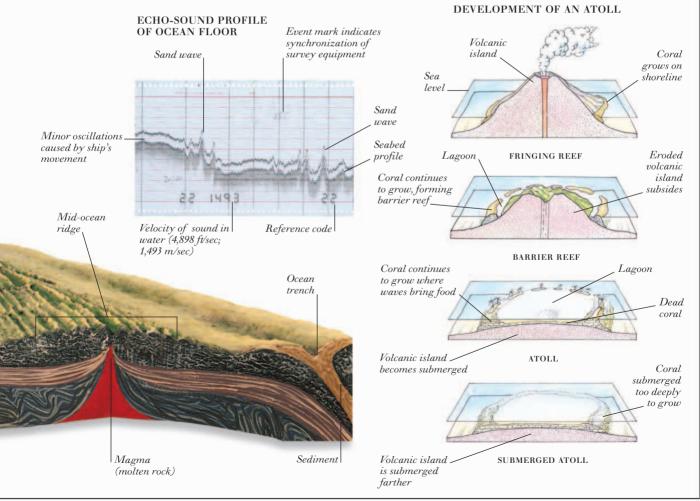
Shoreline

Sand deposited in wavy pattern by weaker currents









The atmosphere

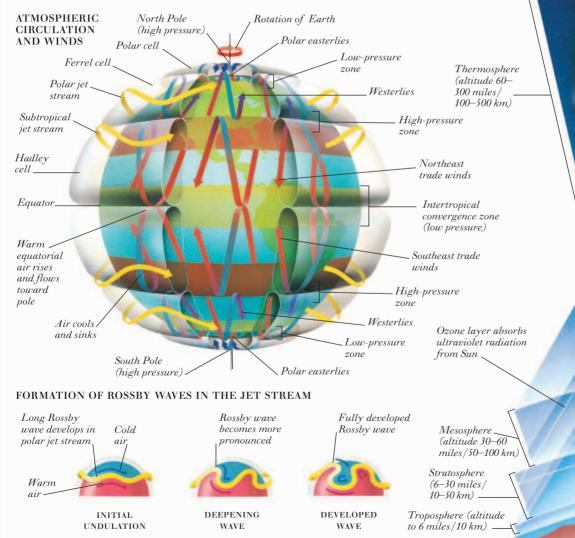
Exosphere ______ (altitude above 300 miles/500 km)

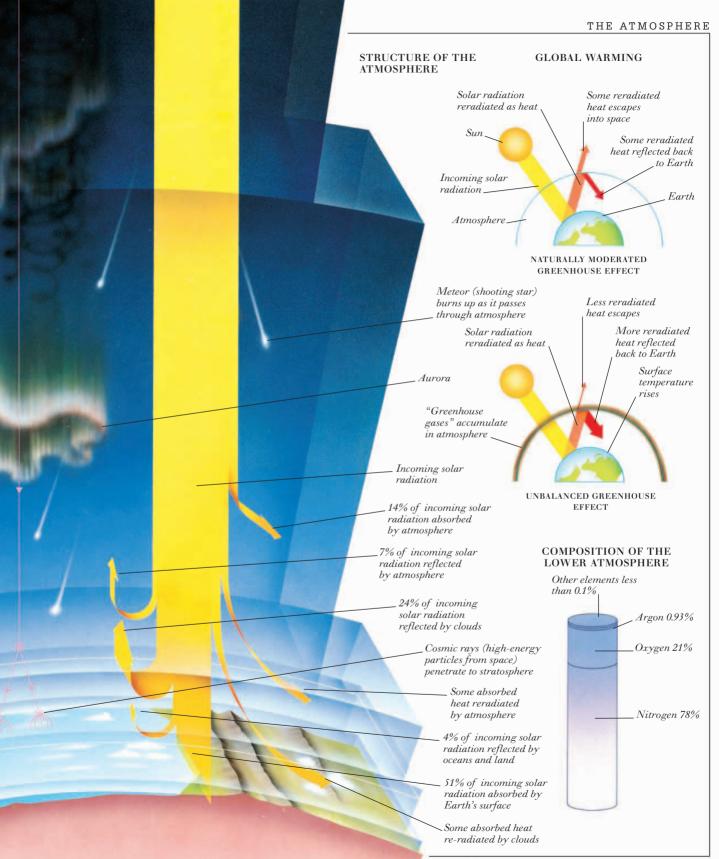


JET STREAM

THE EARTH IS SURROUNDED BY ITS ATMOSPHERE, a blanket of gases that enables life to exist on the planet. This layer has no definite outer edge, gradually becoming thinner until it merges into space, but over 80 percent of atmospheric gases are held by gravity within about 12 miles (20 km) of the Earth's surface. The atmosphere blocks out much harmful ultraviolet solar radiation, and insulates the Earth against extremes of temperature by limiting both incoming solar radiation and the escape of reradiated heat into space.

This natural balance may be distorted by the greenhouse effect, as gases such as carbon dioxide have built up in the atmosphere, trapping more heat. Close to the Earth's surface, differences in air temperature and pressure cause air to circulate between the equator and poles. This circulation, together with the Coriolis force, gives rise to the prevailing surface winds and the high-level jet streams.

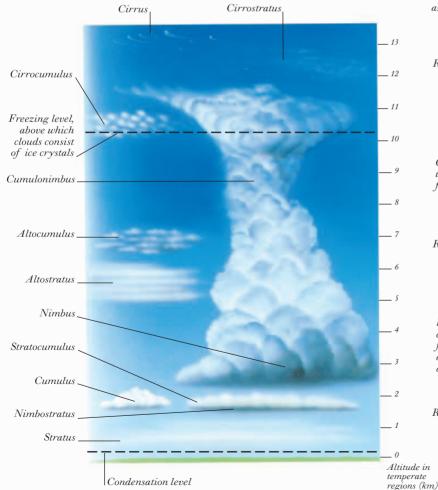




Weather

WEATHER IS DEFINED AS THE ATMOSPHERIC CONDITIONS at a particular time and place; climate is the average weather conditions for a given region over time. Weather is assessed in terms of temperature, wind, cloud cover, and precipitation, such as rain or snow. Good weather is associated with high-pressure areas, where air is sinking. Cloudy, wet, changeable weather is common in low-pressure zones with rising, unstable air. Such conditions occur at temperate latitudes, where warm air meets cool air along the polar fronts. Here, spiraling low-pressure cells known as depressions (mid-latitude cyclones) often form. A depression usually contains a sector of warmer air, beginning at a warm front and ending at a cold front. If the two fronts merge, forming an occluded front, the warm air is pushed upward. An extreme form of low-pressure cell is a hurricane (also called a typhoon or tropical cyclone), which brings torrential rain and exceptionally strong winds.

TYPES OF CLOUD

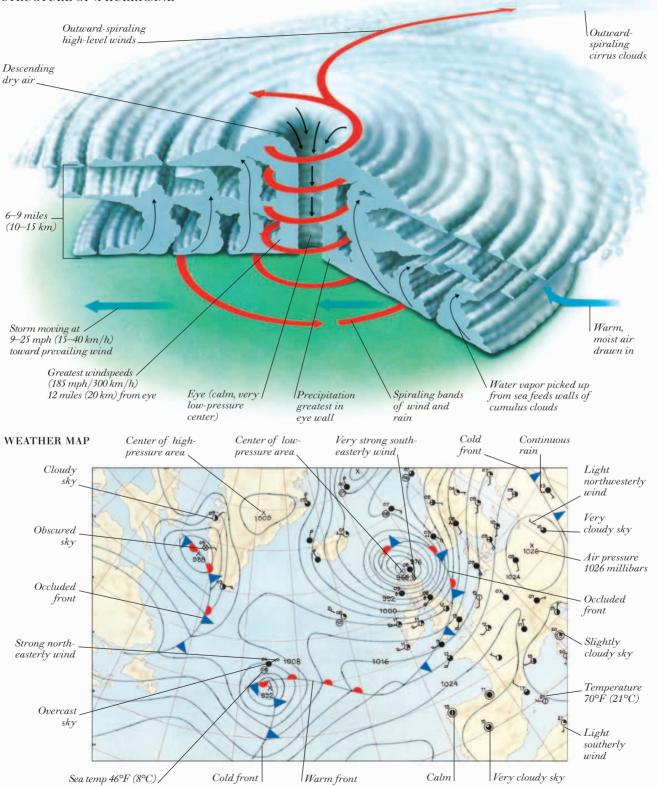


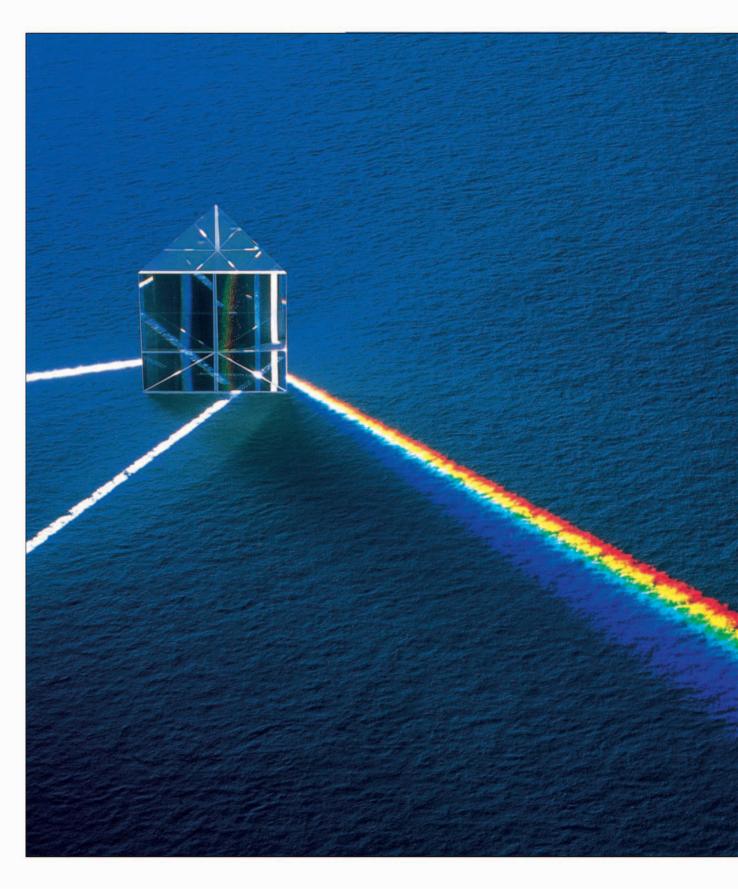
TYPES OF OCCLUDED FRONT Advancing cold Warm air front rises up over warm Warm front front Cold air Cool air WARM OCCLUSION Warm air Cold air Warm front Cold front undercuts warm Cool air front COLD OCCLUSION FORMS OF PRECIPITATION Water droplets less Water droplets than 0.5 mm in coalesce to diameter fall form raindrops 0.5-5.0 mm in as drizzle diameter Rising air. RAIN FROM CLOUDS NOT REACHING FREEZING LEVEL Snowflakes Ice crystal Coalesced grown from water droplets ice crystals fall as snow fall as rain Snowflakes melt to fall Rising air. as rain RAIN AND SNOW FROM CLOUDS REACHING FREEZING LEVEL Vertical air Alternate currents toss freezing frozen water and melting droplets up builds up and down layers of ice Rising air Ice falls as hailstones

HAIL

302

STRUCTURE OF A HURRICANE







Physics and Chemistry

The Variety of Matter $\cdots 306$
${\rm ATOMS}{\rm AND}MOLECULES\cdots\cdots308$
THE PERIODIC TABLE 310
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ENERGY
ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM 316
LIGHT
Force and Motion 320



The variety of matter



PLANT AND INSECT (LIVING MATTER)

MATTER IS ANYTHING THAT HAS A MASS. It includes everything from natural substances, such as minerals or living organisms, to synthetic materials. Matter can exist in three distinct statessolid, liquid, and gas. A solid is rigid and retains its shape. A liquid is fluid, has a definite volume, and will take the shape of its container. A gas (also fluid) fills a space, so its volume will be the same as the volume of its container. Most substances can exist as a solid, a liquid, or a gas: the state

is determined by temperature. At very high temperatures, matter becomes plasma, often considered to be a fourth state of matter. All matter is composed of microscopic particles, such as atoms and molecules (see pp. 308-309). The arrangement and interactions of these particles give a substance its physical and chemical properties, by which matter can be identified. There is a huge variety of matter because particles can arrange themselves in countless ways, in one substance or by mixing with others. Natural glass, for example, seems to be a solid but is, in fact, a supercool liquid: the atoms are not locked into a pattern and can flow. Pure substances known as elements (see p. 310) combine to form compounds or mixtures. Mixtures called colloids are made up of larger particles of matter suspended in a solid, liquid, or gas, while a solution is one substance dissolved in another.

TYPES OF COLLOID



HAIR GEL (SOLID IN LIQUID)

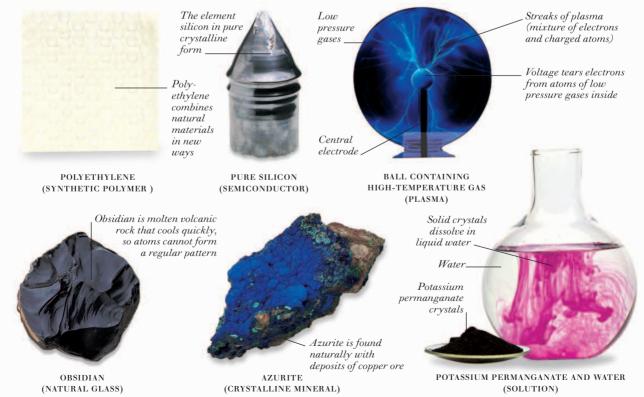


SHAVING CREAM (AIR IN LIQUID)

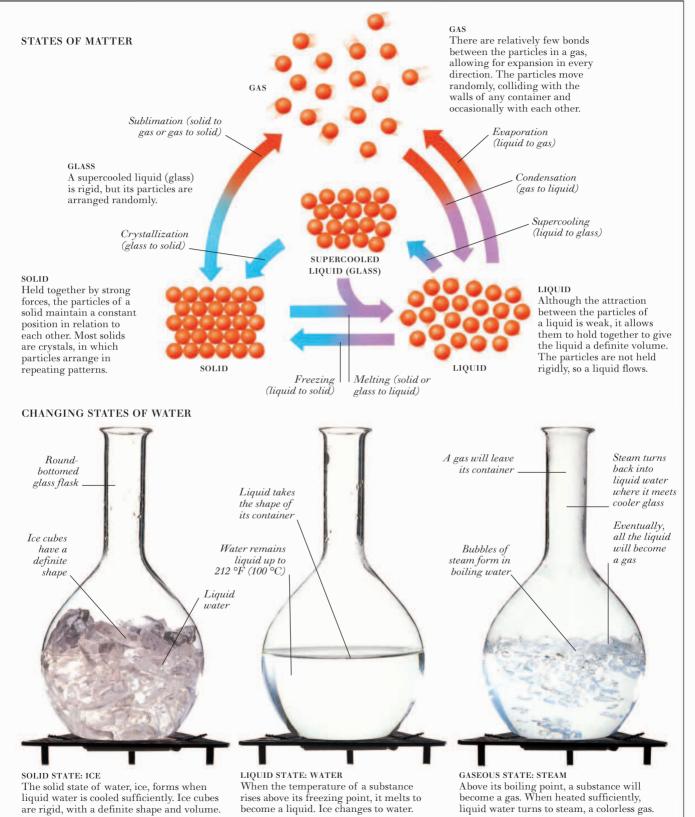


MIST (LIQUID IN GAS)

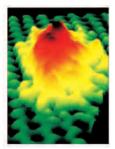
EXAMPLES OF MATTER



306



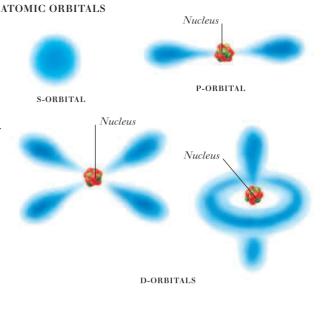
Atoms and molecules



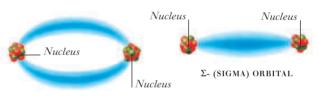
FALSE-COLOR IMAGE OF ACTUAL GOLD ATOMS

ATOMS ARE THE smallest individual parts of an element (see pp. 310-311). They are tiny, with diameters in the order of one ten-thousand-millionth of a meter (10^{-10} m) . Two or more atoms join together (bond) to form a molecule of a substance known as a compound. For example, when atoms of the elements hydrogen and fluorine join together, they form a molecule of the compound hydrogen fluoride. So molecules are the smallest

individual parts of a compound. Atoms themselves are not indivisible-they possess an internal structure. At their center is a dense nucleus, consisting of protons, which have a positive electric charge (see p. 316), and neutrons, which are uncharged. Around the nucleus are the negatively charged electrons. It is the electrons that give a substance most of its physical and chemical properties. They do not follow definite paths around the nucleus. Instead, electrons are said to be found within certain regions, called orbitals. These are arranged around the nucleus in "shells," each containing electrons of a particular energy. For example, the first shell (1) can hold up to two electrons, in a so-called s-orbital (1s). The second shell (2) can hold up to eight electrons, in s-orbitals (2s) and p-orbitals (2p). If an atom loses an electron, it becomes a positive ion (cation). If an electron is gained, an atom becomes a negative ion (anion). Ions of opposite charges will attract and join together, in a type of bonding known as ionic bonding. In covalent bonding, the atoms bond by sharing their electrons in what become molecular orbitals.



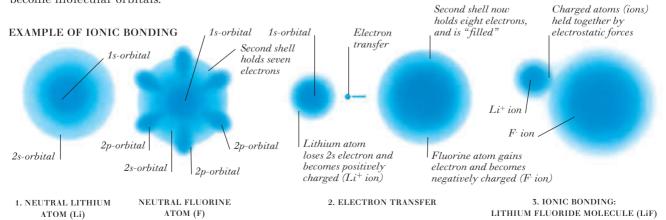
MOLECULAR ORBITALS



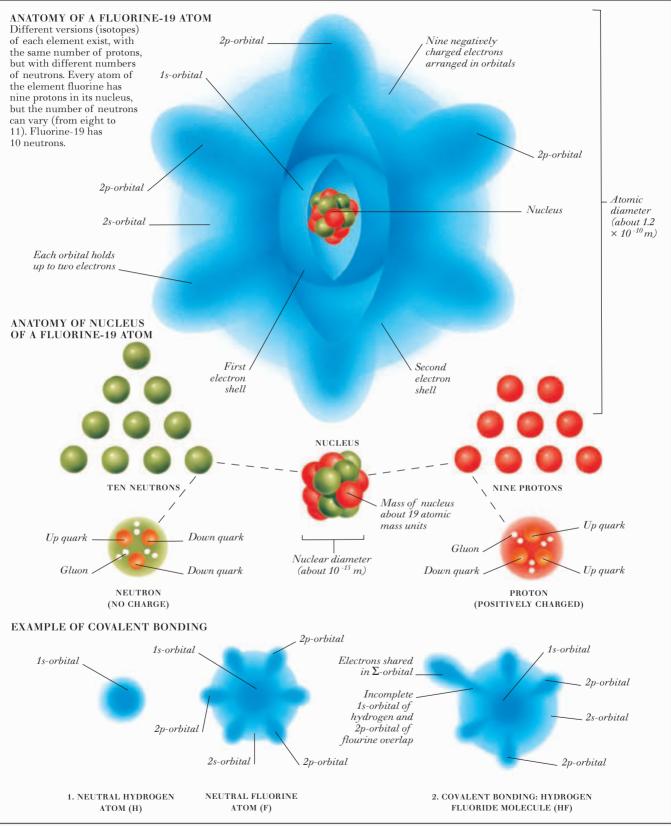
π- (PI) ORBITAL



SP³-HYBRID ORBITAL



ATOMS AND MOLECULES



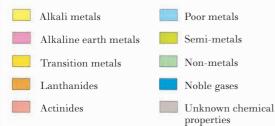
The periodic table

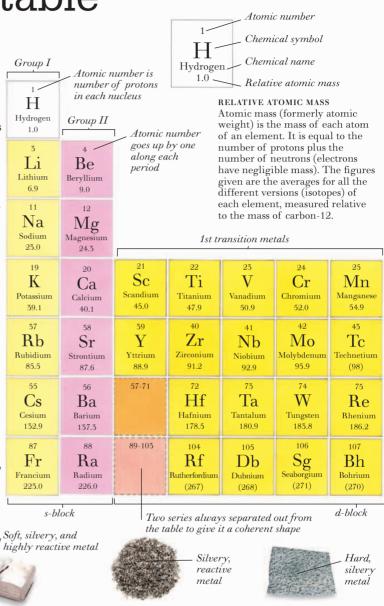
AN ELEMENT is a substance that consists of atoms of one type only. The 92 elements that occur naturally, and the 17 elements created artificially, are often arranged into a chart called the periodic table. Each element is defined by its atomic number—the number of protons in the nucleus of each of its atoms (it is also the number of electrons present). Atomic number increases along each row (period) and down each column (group). The shape of the table is determined by the way in which electrons arrange themselves around the nucleus: the positioning of elements in order of increasing atomic number brings together atoms with a similar pattern of orbiting electrons (orbitals). These appear in blocks. Electrons occupy shells of a certain energy (see pp. 308-309). Periods are ordered according to the filling of successive shells with electrons, while groups reflect the number of electrons in the outer shell (valency electrons). These outer electrons are important-they decide the chemical properties of the atom. Elements that appear in the same group have similar properties because they have the same number of electrons in their outer shell. Elements in Group 0 have "filled shells," where the outer shell holds its maximum number of electrons, and are stable. Atoms of Group I elements have just one electron in their outer shell. This makes them unstable—and ready to react with other substances.

METALS AND NON-METALS

Elements at the left-hand side of each period are metals. Metals easily lose electrons and form positive ions. Nonmetals, on the right of a period, tend to become negative ions. Semimetals, which have properties of both metals and non-metals, are between the two.

TYPES OF ELEMENT KEY:

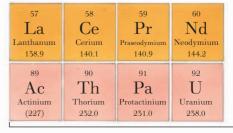




SODIUM: GROUP 1 METAL



MAGNESIUM: GROUP 2 METAL CHROMIUM: 1ST TRANSITION METAL



Bright yellow crystal												
		ALLOTROPES OF CARBON Some elements exist in more than one form— these are known as			IODINE: GROUP 7 SOLID NON-							
R		allotrope graphite	allotropes. Carbon powder, graphite, and diamond are			SULFUR: GROUP 6 SOLID NON-METAL			METAL		Group 0	
I	DIAMOND	all consi	es of carbon. They st of carbon atoms, e very different		Boron and carbon groups		Nitrogen and oxygen groups		Halogens	He	. Period	
	A	physical		Group III Group IV		Group V Group VI		Group VII	Helium 4.0			
					5 B Boron 10.8	6 C Carbon 12.0	7 N Nitrogen 14.0	8 O Oxygen 16.0	9 F Fluorine 19.0	10 Ne Neon 20.2	- Short period	
GRAPHITE			RBON POWI	DER	Al	Si	15 P	16 S	Cl	Ar^{18}		
2nd transition metals 3rd transition metals					Aluminum 27.0	Silicon 28.1	Phosphorus 31.0	Sulfur 32.1	Chlorine 35.5	Argon 40.0		
26 Fe Iron 55.8	27 Co Cobalt 58.9	28 Ni Nickel 58.7	29 Cu Copper 63.5	30 Zn Zinc 65.4	31 Gallium 69.7	32 Ge Germanium 72.6	33 As Arsenic 74.9	34 Se Selenium 79.0	35 Br Bromine 79.9	36 Kr Krypton 83.8	Long period	
Ru ⁴⁴	Rh	$\overset{_{46}}{\mathrm{Pd}}$	$\stackrel{\scriptscriptstyle{47}}{\operatorname{Ag}}$	Cd	⁴⁹ In	Sn 50	$\overset{\scriptscriptstyle{51}}{\mathrm{Sb}}$	Te	53 I	$\overset{^{54}}{\mathrm{Xe}}$		
Ruthenium 101.1	Rhodium 102.9	Palladium 106.4	Silver	Cadmium 112.4	Indium 114.8	Tin 118.7	Antimony 121.8	Tellurium 127.6	Iodine 126.9	Xenon 131.3		
76 Os	$\overset{_{77}}{\mathrm{Ir}}$	$\overset{_{78}}{\mathrm{Pt}}$	⁷⁹ Au	$\overset{\scriptscriptstyle{80}}{\mathrm{Hg}}$	⁸¹ Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	${}^{85}{ m At}$	⁸⁶ Rn		
Osmium 190.2	∎∎ Iridium 192.2	Platinum 195.1	Gold 197.0	Mercury 200.6	Thallium 204.4	Lead 207.2	Bismuth 209.0	Polonium (209)	Astatine (210)	Radon (222)		
$\overset{\scriptscriptstyle 108}{\mathrm{Hs}}$	${\overset{\scriptscriptstyle{109}}{\mathrm{Mt}}}$	$\overset{\scriptscriptstyle{110}}{\mathrm{Ds}}$	111 P .cr	Cn	Uut	114 Uura	115 I Jum	Uuh	Uus	118 U Juno	Unreactive,	
Hassium (269)	IVIL Meitnerium (278)		Rg Roentgenium (281)	-	Uut Ununtrium (286)	Uuq ^{Ununquadium} (289)	Uup Ununpentium (289)		U US Ununseptium (294)	Uuo Ununoctium (294)	colorless gas glows red in	
d-block p-block p-block NOBLE GASES Yellow, unreactive precious metal Soft, shiny, reactive metal Group 0 contains elements that have a filled (complete) outer shell of electrons, which means the atoms do not need to lose or gain electrons by bonding with other atoms. This makes them stable and they do not easily form ions or react with other elements. Noble gases are also called NEON: GOLD: TIN: ANTIMONY: NIMONY: NEON:												
3RD TRANSITION METAL GROUP 4 POOR METAL GROUP 5 SEMI-METAL rare or inert gases. GAS												
61 Pm Promethium (145)	62 Sm Samarium 150.4	63 Eu Europium 152.0	64 Gd Gadolinium 157.3	65 Tb Terbium 158.9	66 Dy Dysprosium 162.5	67 Ho Holmium 164.9	68 Er Erbium 167.3	69 Tm Thulium 168.9	70 Yb Ytterbium 173.0	71 Lu Lutetium 175.0		
$\overset{_{95}}{\mathrm{Np}}$	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	${ m Fm}^{100}$	\mathbf{M}^{101}	102 No	${\overset{\scriptscriptstyle{103}}{\mathrm{Lr}}}$		
Neptunium (237)	Plutonium (244)	Americium (243)	Curium (247)	Berkelium (247)	Californium (251)	Einsteinium (252)	Fermium (257)	Mendelevium (258)		Lawrencium (262)		
		C 1 1 1										

f-block

Chemical reactions

A CHEMICAL REACTION TAKES PLACE whenever bonds between atoms are broken or made. In each case, atoms or groups of atoms rearrange, making new substances (products) from the original ones (reactants). Reactions happen naturally, or can be made to happen; they may take years, or only an instant. Some of the main types are shown here. A reaction usually involves a change in energy (see pp. 314-315). In a burning reaction, for example, the making of new bonds between atoms releases energy as heat and light. This type of reaction, in which heat is given off, is an exothermic reaction. Many reactions, like burning, are irreversible, but some can take place in either direction, and are said to be reversible. Reactions can be used to form solids from solutions: in a double decomposition reaction, two compounds in solution break down and re-form into two new substances, often creating a precipitate (insoluble solid); in displacement, an element (e.g., copper) displaces another element (e.g., silver) from a solution. The rate (speed) of a reaction is determined by many different factors, such as temperature, and the size and shape of the reactants. To describe and keep track of reactions, internationally recognized chemical symbols and equations are used. Reactions are also used in the laboratory to identify matter. An experiment with candle wax, for example, demonstrates that it contains carbon and hydrogen.

BURNING MATTER

Ammonium dichromate $((NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7)$

Flame

THE REACTION When lit, ammonium dichromate combines with oxygen from air. $(NH_4)_2Cr_3O_7 + O_2 \rightarrow Cr_2O_5 + 4H_2O + 2NO$

A REVERSIBLE REACTION

Flat-bottomed glass flask Potassium Chromate solution (K₂CrO₄)

Bright yellow solution contains potassium and chromate ions.

1. THE REACTANT Potassium chromate dissolves in water to form potassium ions and chromate ions. $K_2CrO_4 \rightarrow 2K^+ + CrO_4^{-2}$ In this burning reaction, atoms form simpler substances and give off heat and light

Ammonium dichromate $((NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7)$ converts to chromium oxide (Cr_2O_3)

 Nitrogen monoxide (NO) and water vapor (H₂O) given off as colorless gases

Hydrochloric acid (HCl) added in drops

Pipette

Acid causes reaction to take place 、

Chromate ions converted to orange dichromate ions ____

> Potassium dichromate (KCr₂O₇) forms ~

2. THE REACTION Addition of hydrochloric acid changes chromate ions into dichromate ions. $2\text{CrO}_4{}^2 \rightarrow \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7{}^2$.



Hydrochloric

Effervescence

Zinc metal

chippings (Zn)

acid (HCl)

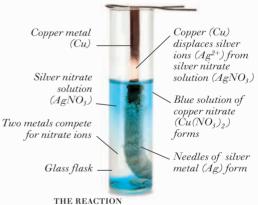
Zinc (Zn) replaces hydrogen in acid (HCl) to form zinc chloride solution (ZnCl₂)

Hydrogen in acid driven off when acid meets a reactive metal

Zinc metal chippings (Zn)

THE REACTION Hydrochloric acid added to zinc produces zinc chloride and hydrogen. Zn + 2HCl \rightarrow ZnCl₂ + H₂

DISPLACEMENT



Copper metal added to silver nitrate solution produces copper nitrate and silver metal. $Cu + 2AgNO_5 \rightarrow Cu(NO_5)_2 + 2Ag$

Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) neutralizes the acid

Pipette

Solution turns to bright orange of potassium dichromate

> Potassium dichromate (KCr₂O₇) re-forms to potassium chromate (K₂CrO₄)

> > 3. REVERSING Addition of sodium

Addition of sodium hydroxide changes dichromate ions back into chromate ions. $Cr_2O_7^{2-} \rightarrow 2CrO_4^{-2-}$

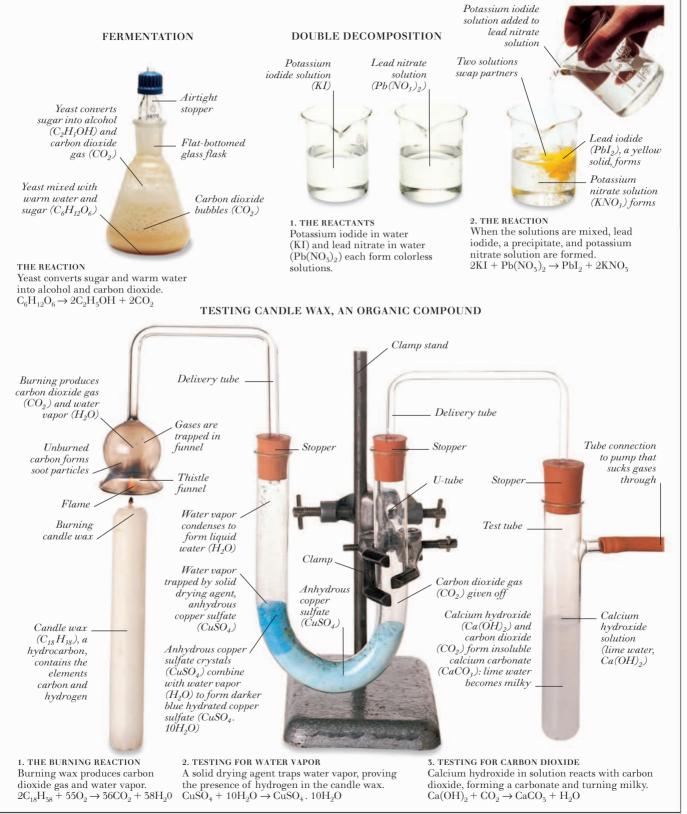
Sodium

hvdroxide

(NaOH)

added in

drops



313

PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

Energy

ANYTHING THAT HAPPENS—from a pin-drop to an explosion—requires energy. Energy is the capacity for "doing work" (making something happen). Various forms of energy exist, including light, heat, sound, electrical, chemical, nuclear, kinetic, and potential energies. The Law of Conservation of Energy states that the total amount of energy in the universe is fixed—energy cannot be created or destroyed. It means that energy can only change from one form to another (energy transfer). For example, potential energy is energy that is "stored," and can be used in the future. An object gains potential energy when it is lifted; as the object is released, potential energy changes into the energy of motion (kinetic energy). During transference, some of the energy converts into heat. A combined heat and power station can put some of the otherwise "waste" heat to useful effect in local schools and housing. Most of the Earth's energy is provided by the Sun, in the form of electromagnetic radiation (see pp. 316-317). Some of this energy transfers to plant and animal life, and ultimately to fossil fuels, where it is stored in chemical form. Our bodies obtain energy from the food we eat, while energy needed for other tasks, such as heating and transport, can be obtained by burning fossil fuels-or by harnessing natural forces like wind or moving water-to generate electricity. Another source is nuclear power, where energy is released by reactions in the nucleus of an atom. All energy is measured by the international unit, the joule (J). As a guide, one joule is about equal to the amount of energy needed to lift an apple one meter.

CROSS-SECTION OF NUCLEAR POWER STATION WITH PRESSURIZED WATER REACTOR

Steam generator,

Concrete

shielding

pressurizer

Steel girder.

framework

Control rod

Reactor core

Moderator (water)

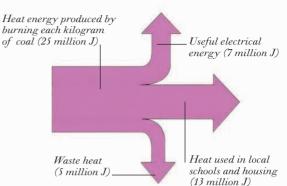
Pump

Enriched

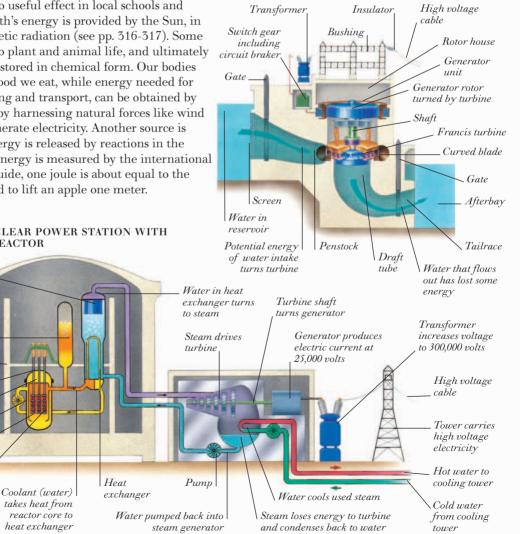
uranium fuel

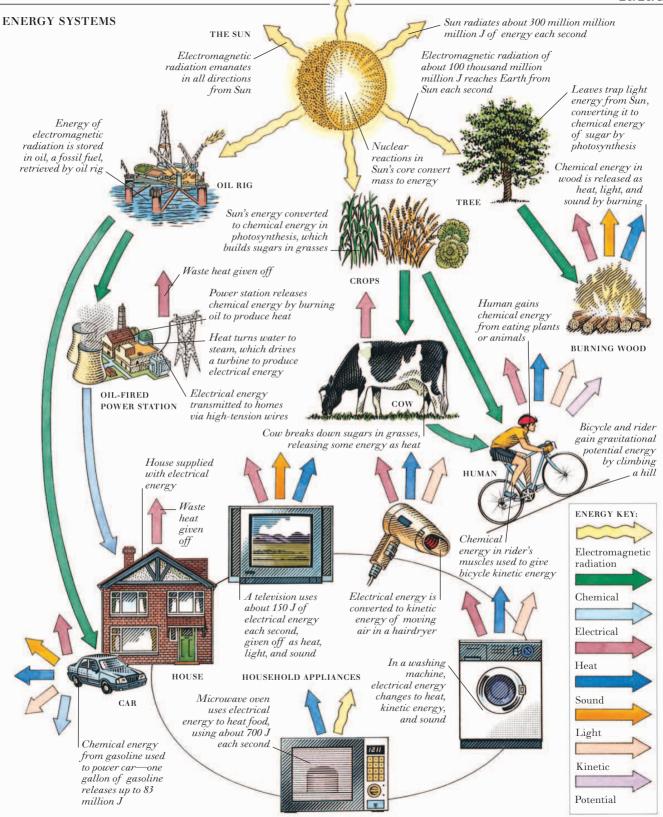
Water

SANKEY DIAGRAM SHOWING ENERGY FLOW IN A COAL-FIRED COMBINED HEAT AND POWER STATION



CROSS-SECTION OF HYDROELECTRIC POWER STATION WITH FRANCIS TURBINE





VAN DE GRAAFF (ELECTROSTATIC) GENERATOR

Electricity and magnetism

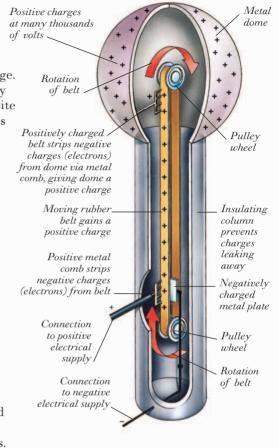
ELECTRICAL EFFECTS result from an imbalance of electric charge. There are two types of electric charge, named positive (carried by protons) and negative (carried by electrons). If charges are opposite (unlike), they attract one another, while like charges repel. Forces of attraction and repulsion (electrostatic forces) exist between any two charged particles. Matter is normally uncharged, but if

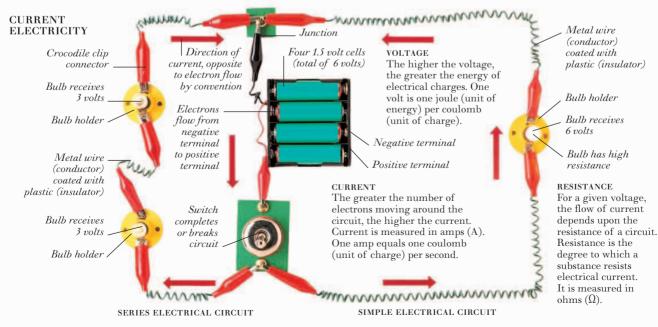


LIGHTNING

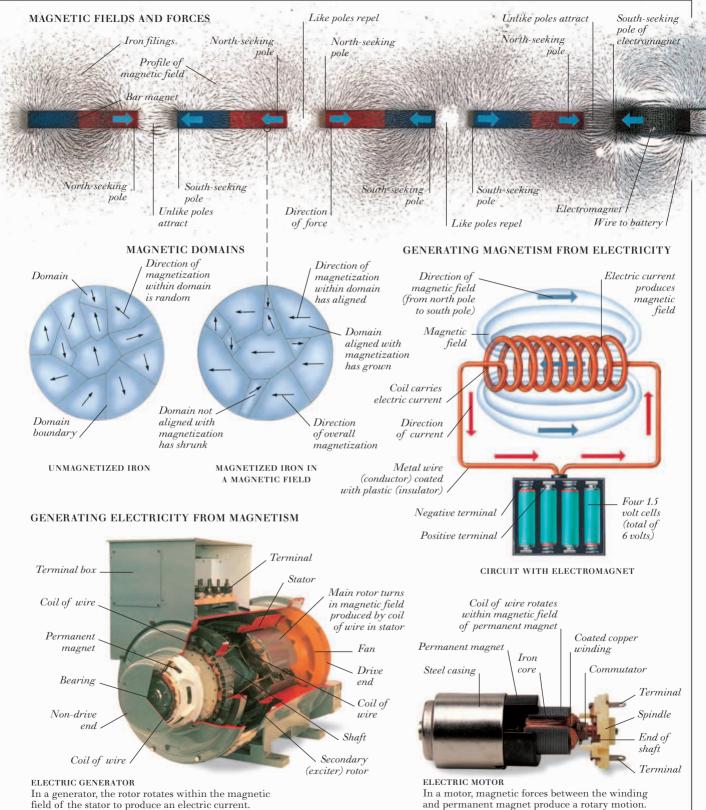
electrons are gained, an object will gain an overall negative charge; if they are removed, it becomes positive. Objects with an overall negative or positive charge are said to have an imbalance of charge, and exert the same forces as individual negative and positive charges. On this larger scale, the forces will always act to regain the balance of charge. This causes static electricity. Lightning, for example, is produced by clouds discharging a huge excess of negative electrons. If charges are "free"—in a wire or material that allows

electrons to pass through it—the forces cause a flow of charge called an electric current. Some substances exhibit the strange phenomenon of magnetism—which also produces attractive and repulsive forces. Magnetic substances consist of small regions called domains. Normally unmagnetized, they can be magnetized by being placed in a magnetic field. Magnetism and electricity are inextricably linked, a fact put to use in motors and generators.





ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM



317



Light

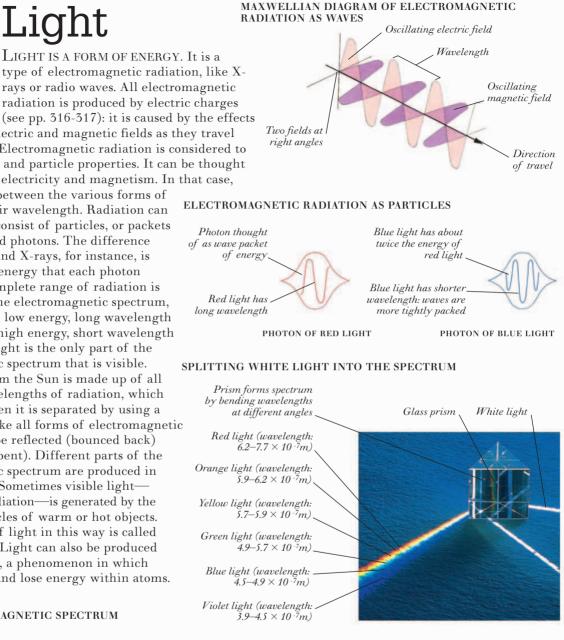
LIGHT IS A FORM OF ENERGY. It is a type of electromagnetic radiation, like Xrays or radio waves. All electromagnetic INFRARED IMAGE radiation is produced by electric charges

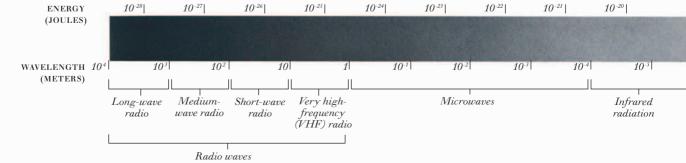
OF A HOUSE

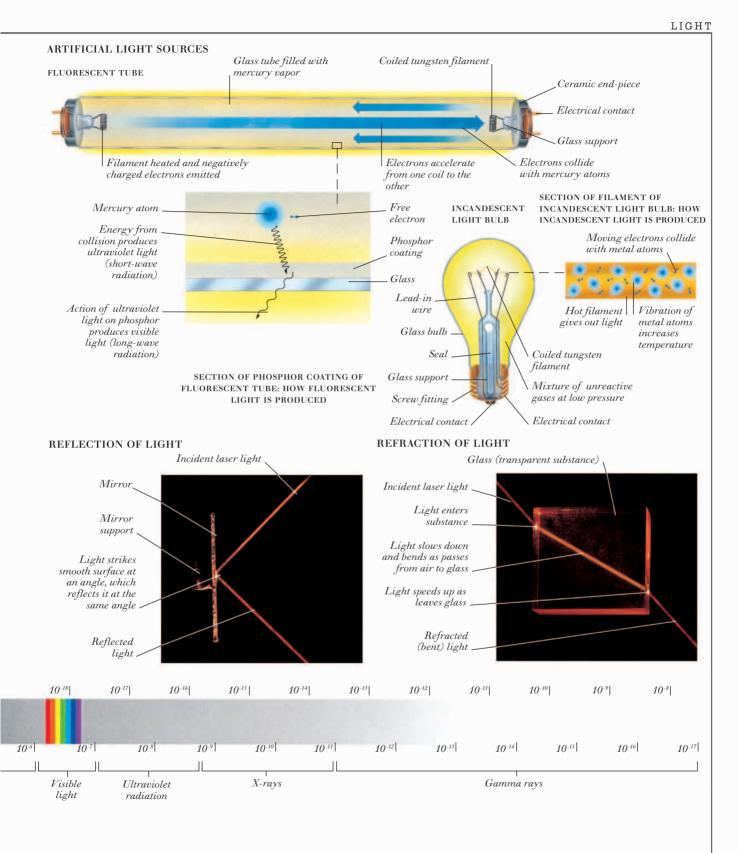
of oscillating electric and magnetic fields as they travel through space. Electromagnetic radiation is considered to have both wave and particle properties. It can be thought of as a wave of electricity and magnetism. In that case,

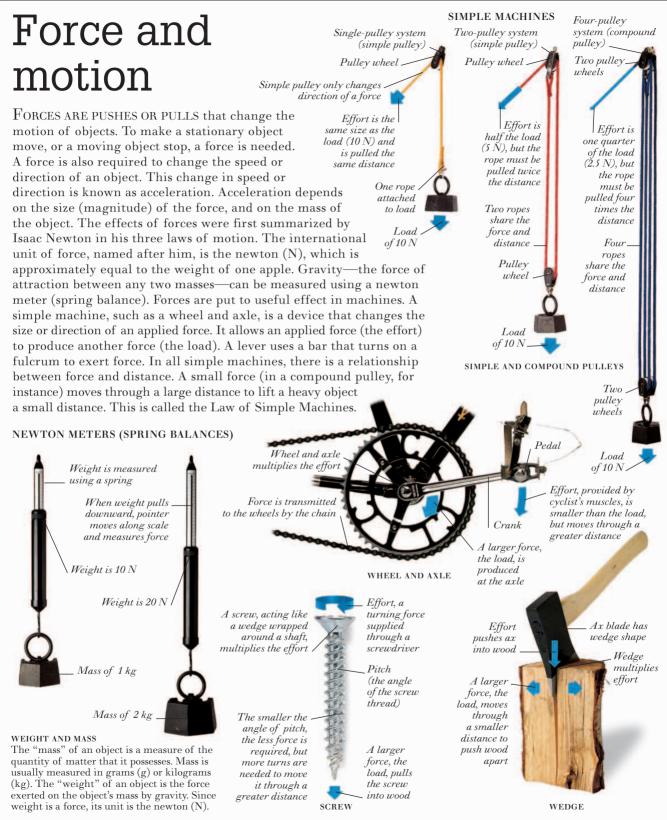
the difference between the various forms of radiation is their wavelength. Radiation can also be said to consist of particles, or packets of energy, called photons. The difference between light and X-rays, for instance, is the amount of energy that each photon carries. The complete range of radiation is referred to as the electromagnetic spectrum, extending from low energy, long wavelength radio waves to high energy, short wavelength gamma rays. Light is the only part of the electromagnetic spectrum that is visible. White light from the Sun is made up of all the visible wavelengths of radiation, which can be seen when it is separated by using a prism. Light, like all forms of electromagnetic radiation, can be reflected (bounced back) and refracted (bent). Different parts of the electromagnetic spectrum are produced in different ways. Sometimes visible lightand infrared radiation—is generated by the vibrating particles of warm or hot objects. The emission of light in this way is called incandescence. Light can also be produced by fluorescence, a phenomenon in which electrons gain and lose energy within atoms.

THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM



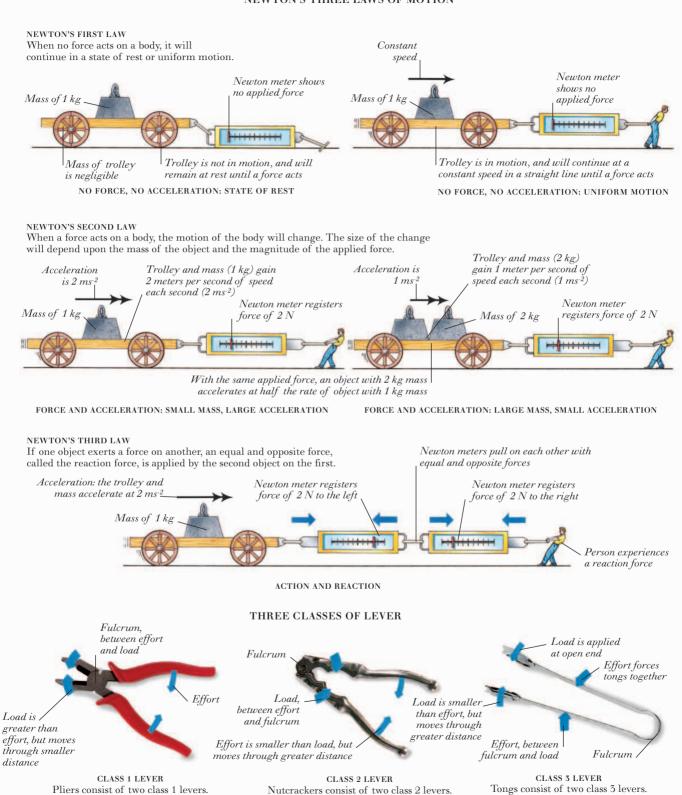






FORCE AND MOTION

NEWTON'S THREE LAWS OF MOTION







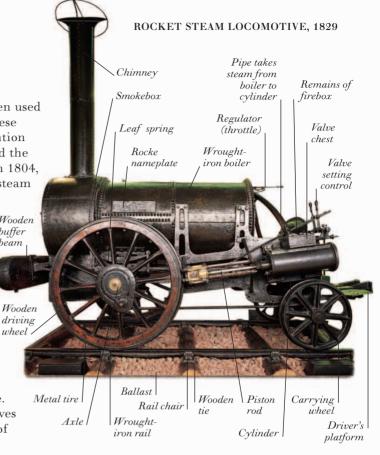
Rail and Road

STEAM LOCOMOTIVES
DIESEL TRAINS
$ELECTRIC \text{and} High-\text{speed} Trains \cdots 328$
TRAIN EQUIPMENT
TROLLEYS AND BUSES
THE FIRST CARS
ELEGANCE AND UTILITY
MASS-PRODUCTION
THE "PEOPLE'S CAR"
EARLY ENGINES
Modern Engines
Alternative Engines
BODYWORK 348
Mechanical Components
CAR TRIM
Hybrid Car
RACE CARS
BICYCLE ANATOMY
BICYCLES
THE MOTORCYCLE
THE MOTORCYCLE CHASSIS
MOTORCYCLE ENGINES 366
Competition Motorcycles



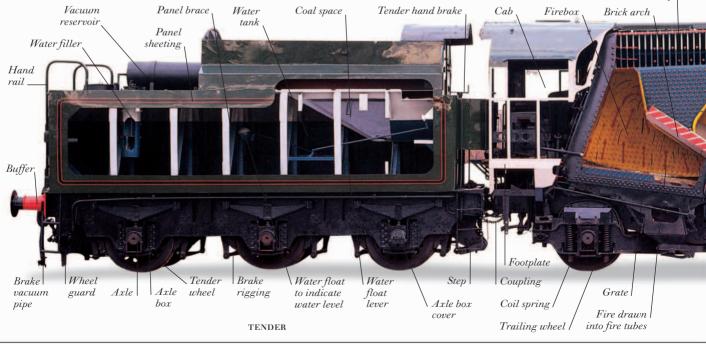
Steam locomotives

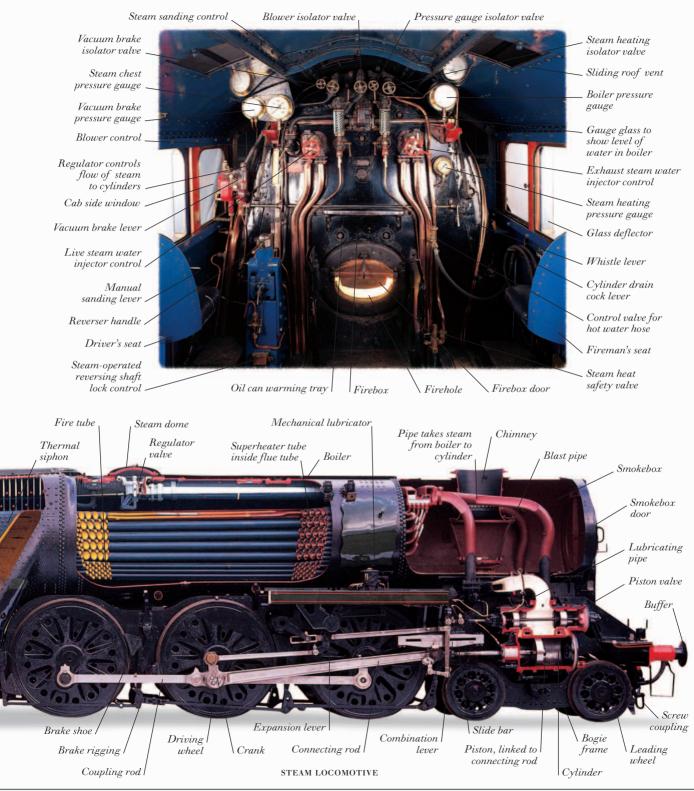
WAGONS THAT ARE PULLED along tracks have been used to transport material since the 16th century, but these trains were drawn by men or horses until the invention of the steam locomotive. Steam locomotives enabled the basic railroad system to realize its true potential. In 1804, Richard Trevithick built the world's first working steam locomotive in South Wales. It was not entirely successful, but it encouraged others to develop Wooden new designs. By 1829, the British engineer buffer Robert Stephenson had built the Rocket, beam considered to be the forerunner of the modern locomotive. The Bocket was a self-sufficient unit, carrying coal to heat the boiler and a water supply for generating steam. Steam passed from the boiler to force the pistons back and forth, wheel and this movement turned the driving wheels, propelling the train forward. Used steam was then expelled in characteristic puffs. Later steam locomotives, like Ellerman Lines and the Mallard, worked in a similar way, but on a much larger scale. The simple design and reliability of steam locomotives ensured that they changed very little in 120 years of use, before being replaced from the 1950s by more efficient diesel and electric power (see pp. 326-329).



ELLERMAN LINES, 1949 (CUTAWAY VIEW)

Stay



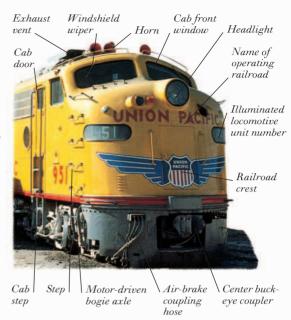


CAB INTERIOR OF MALLARD EXPRESS STEAM LOCOMOTIVE, 1938

Diesel trains

RUDOLF DIESEL FIRST DEMONSTRATED the diesel engine in Germany in 1898, but it was not until the 1940s that diesel locomotives were successfully established on both passenger and freight services in the US. Early diesel locomotives like the Union Pacific were more expensive to build than steam locomotives, but were more efficient and cheaper to operate, especially where oil was plentiful. One feature of diesel engines is that the power output cannot be coupled directly to the wheels. To convert the mechanical energy produced by diesel engines, a transmission system is needed. Almost all diesel locomotives have electric transmissions, and are known as diesel-electric locomotives. The diesel engine works by drawing air into the cylinders and compressing it to increase its temperature; a small quantity of diesel fuel is then injected into it. The resulting combustion drives the generator (more recently an alternator) to produce electricity, which is fed to electric motors connected to the wheels. Diesel-electric locomotives are essentially electric locomotives that carry their own power plants, and are used worldwide today. The Deltic diesel-electric locomotive, similar to the one shown here, replaced classic express steam locomotives, and ran

FRONT VIEW OF UNION PACIFIC **DIESEL-ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE, 1950s**



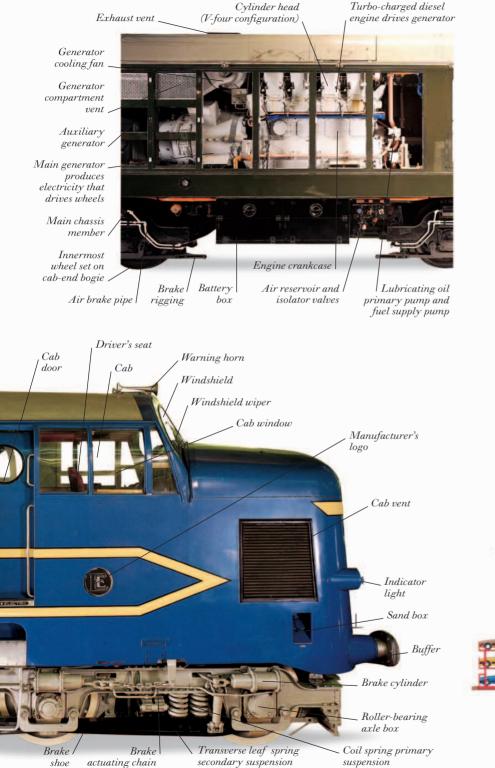
at speeds up to 100 mph (160 kph).

PROTOTYPE DELTIC DIESEL-ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE, 1956



EXAMPLES OF FREIGHT CARS

DIESEL ENGINE OF BRITISH RAIL CLASS 20 DIESEL-ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE



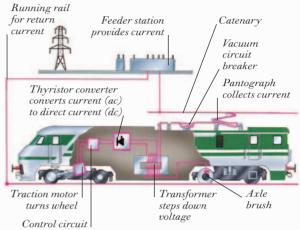


AUTOMOBILE CAR

Electric and high-speed trains

THE FIRST ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE ran in 1879 in Berlin. Germany. In Europe, electric trains developed as a more efficient alternative to the steam locomotive and dieselelectric power. Like diesels, electric trains employ electric motors to drive the wheels but, unlike diesels, the electricity is generated externally at a power station. Electric current is picked up either from a catenary (overhead cable) via a pantograph, or from a third rail. Since it does not carry its own power-generating equipment, an electric locomotive has a better power-to-weight ratio and greater acceleration than its dieselelectric equivalent. This makes electric trains suitable for urban routes with many stops. They are also faster, quieter, and cause less pollution. The latest electric French TGV (Train à Grande Vitesse) reaches 185 mph (300 kph); other trains, like the London to Paris and Brussels Eurostar, can run at several voltages and operate between different countries. Simpler electric trains perform special duties-the "People Mover" at Gatwick Airport in London runs between terminals.

HOW ALTERNATING CURRENT (AC) ELECTRIC TRAINS WORK



FRONT VIEW OF ITALIAN STATE RAILROADS CLASS 402 ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE

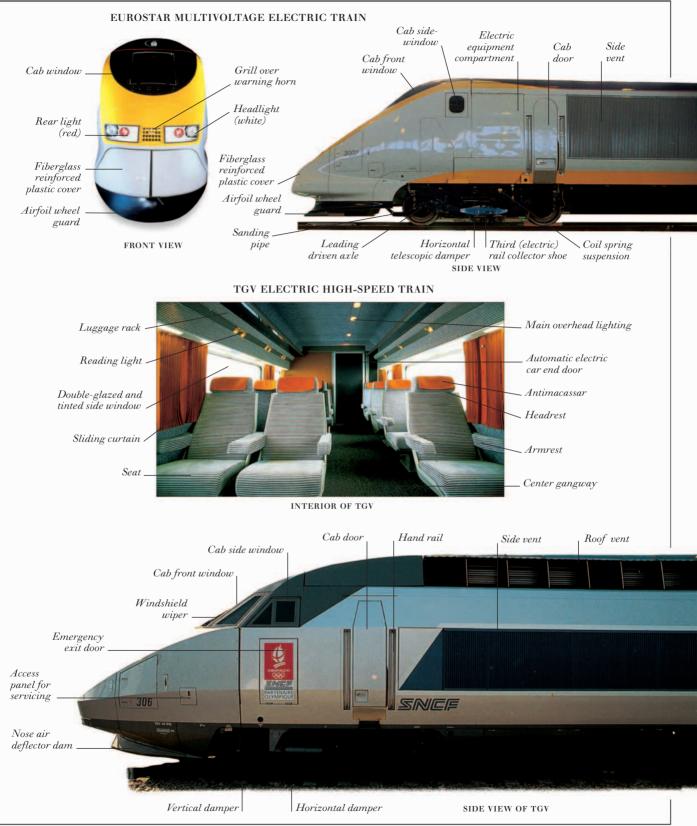
Collector strip for



SIDE VIEW OF SHANGHAI MAGLEV TRAIN



ELECTRIC AND HIGH-SPEED TRAINS

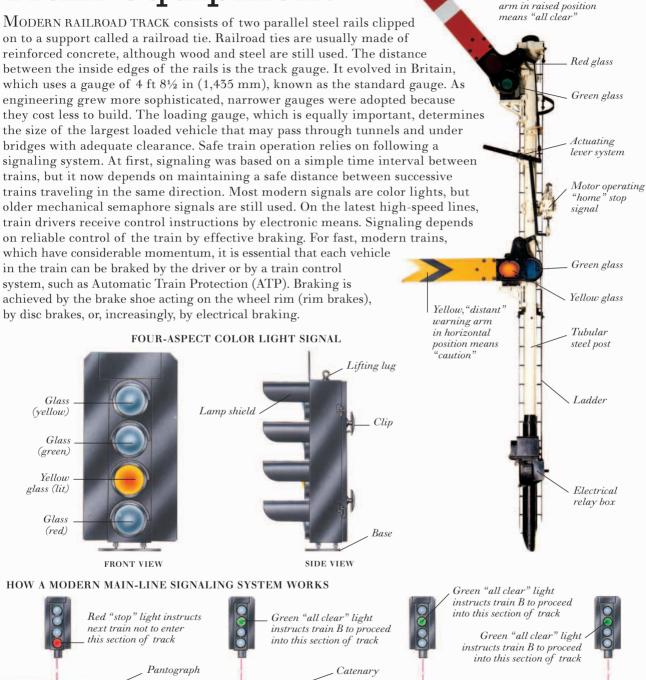


RAIL AND ROAD

MECHANICAL SEMAPHORE SIGNAL

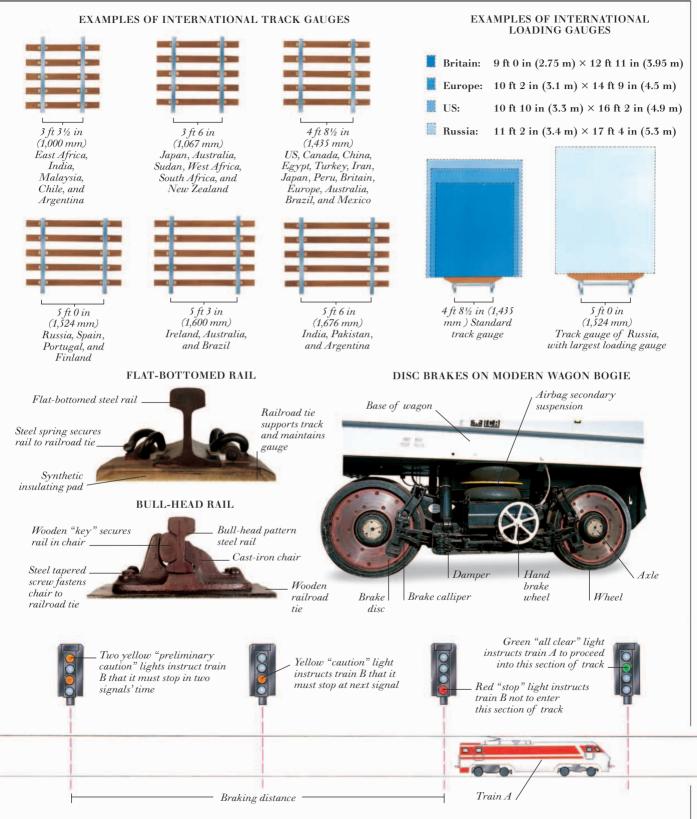


Red. square-ended arm in raised position means "all clear"



Track

Train B



Trolleys and buses



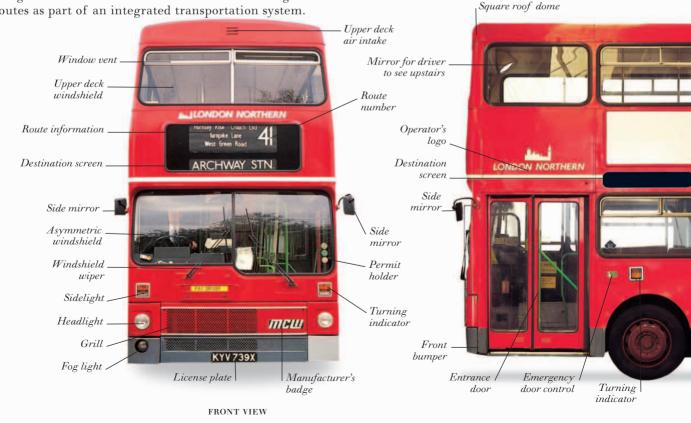
METROLINK TROLLEY, As CITY POPULATIONS exploded in the 1800s, there was an urgent need for mass transportation. Trolleys were an early solution. The first trolleys, like buses, were horse-drawn, but in 1881, electric streetcars appeared in Berlin, Germany. Electric streetcars soon became widespread throughout Europe and North America. Trolleys run on rails along a fixed route, using electric motors that receive power from overhead cables. As road networks

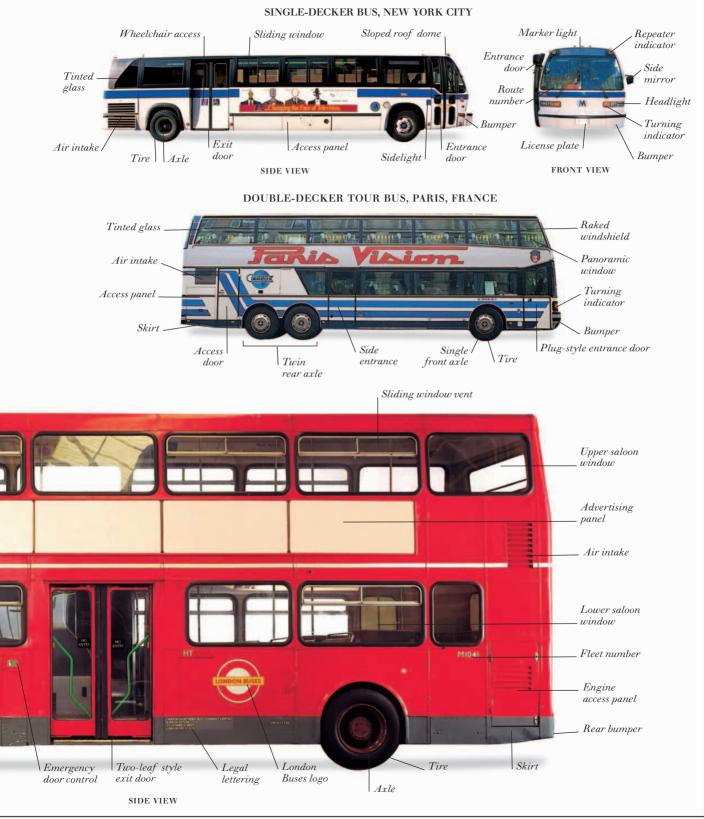
MANCHESTER, UK from overhead cables. As road networks developed, motorized buses offered a flexible alternative to trolleys. By the 1930s, they had replaced trolley systems in many cities. City buses typically have doors at both front and rear to make loading and unloading easier. Double-decker designs are popular, occupying the same amount of street space as single-decker buses but able to transport twice the number of people. Buses are also commonly used for intercity travel and touring. Tour buses have reclining seats, large windows, luggage space, and toilets. Recently, as city traffic has become increasingly congested, many city planners have designed new electric streetcar routes to run alongside bus routes as part of an integrated transportation system.

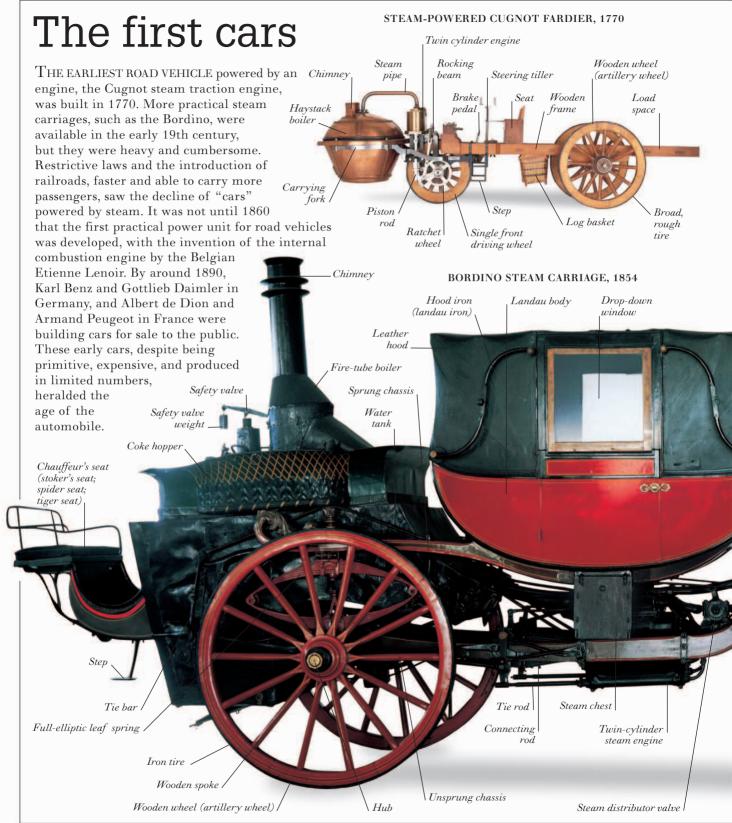
Trolley boom Trolley base Upper deck Upper deck Upper deck Upper deck Upper deck Underframe Controller Underframe Truck Underframe Lifeguard

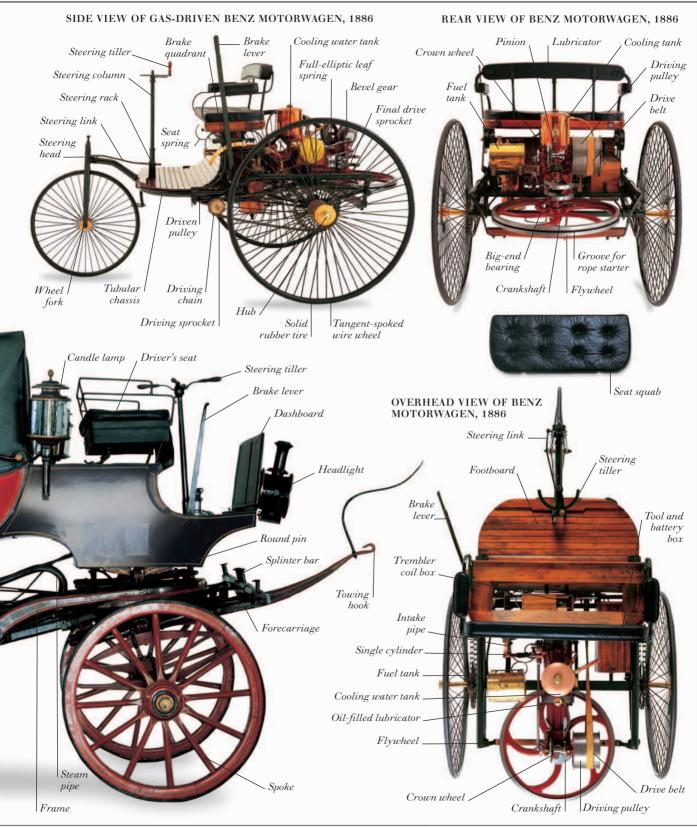
TROLLEY, c.1900

MCW METROBUS, LONDON, UK



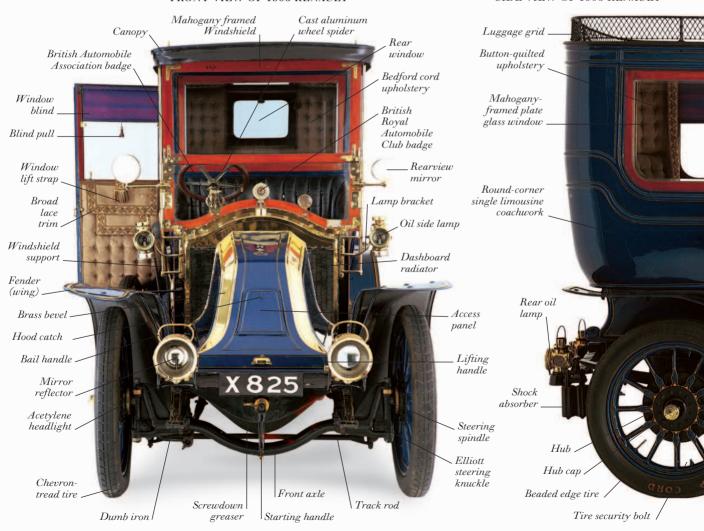


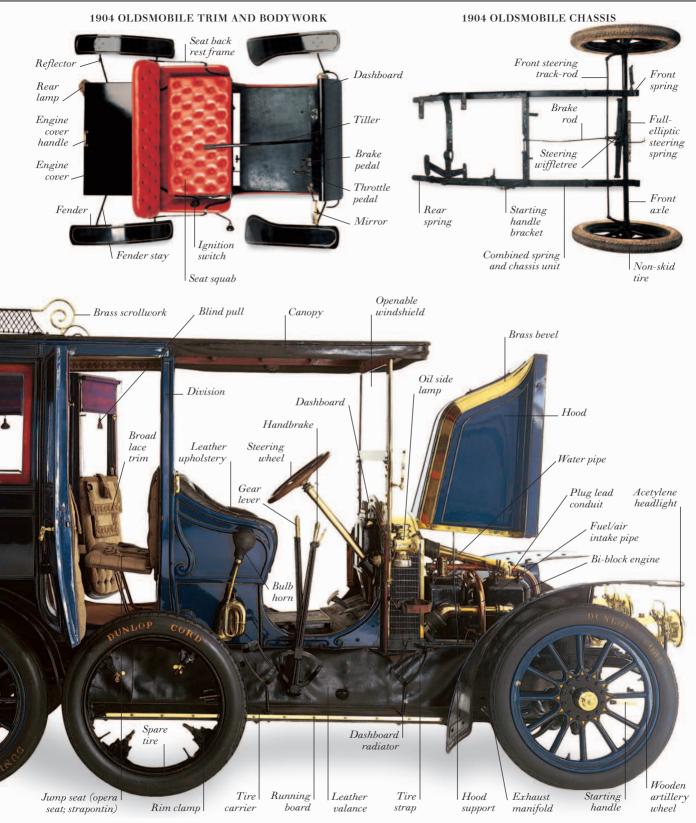




Elegance and utility

1904 OLDSMOBILE SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE Oil bottle dripfeed Crankcase Starting Exhaust pipe handle bracket Cylinder head DURING THE FIRST DECADE OF THE 20TH CENTURY, the Cylinder Starter cog motorist who could afford it had a choice of some of the finest Carburetor Engine cars ever made. These handbuilt cars were powerful and timing gear Crankshaft luxurious, using the finest woods, leathers, and cloths, and bodywork made to the customer's individual requirements; some had six-cylinder engines as big as 15 liters. The price of such cars was several times that of an average house, and their yearly running costs Flywheel were also very high. As a result, basic, utilitarian cars became popular. Gear Costing perhaps one-tenth of the price of a luxury car, these cars had hand very little trim and often had only single-cylinder engines. FRONT VIEW OF 1906 RENAULT SIDE VIEW OF 1906 RENAULT

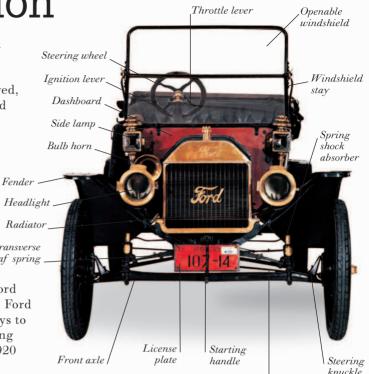




Mass-production

The first cars were hand-assembled from individually built parts, a time-consuming procedure that required skilled mechanics and made cars very expensive. This problem was solved, in America, by a Detroit car manufacturer named Henry Ford; he introduced mass-production by using standardized parts, and later combined these with a moving production line. The work was brought to the workers, each of whom performed one simple task in the construction process as the chassis moved along the line. The first mass-produced car, the Ford Model T, was launched in 1908 and was available in a limited range of body styles and colors. Front transverse

However, when the production line was leaf spring introduced in 1914, the color range was cut back; the Model T became available, as Henry Ford said, in "any color you like, so long as it's black." Ford cut the production time for a car from several days to about 12 hours, and eventually to minutes, making cars much cheaper than before. As a result, by 1920 half the cars in the world were Model T Fords.

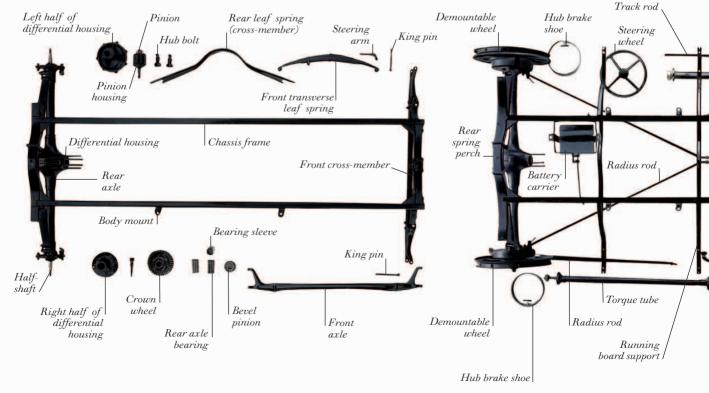


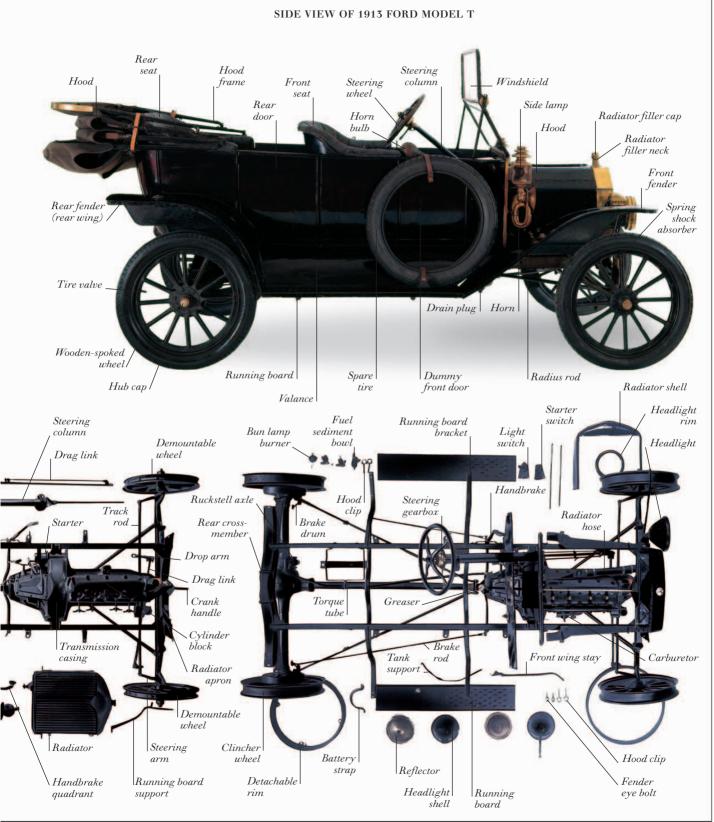
FRONT VIEW OF 1913 FORD MODEL T

Steering spindle connecting-rod

knuckle

STAGES OF FORD MODEL T PRODUCTION



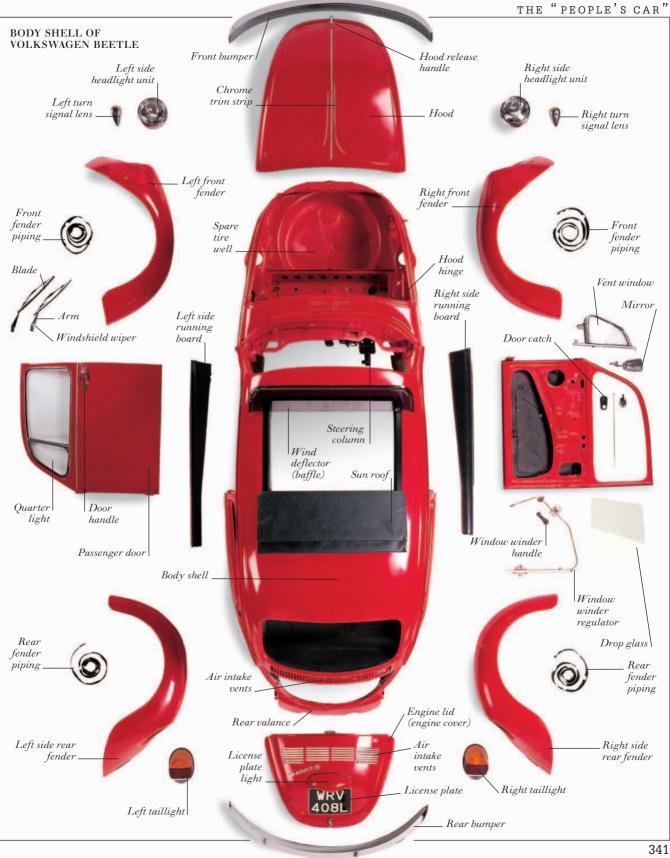


MASS-PRODUCTION

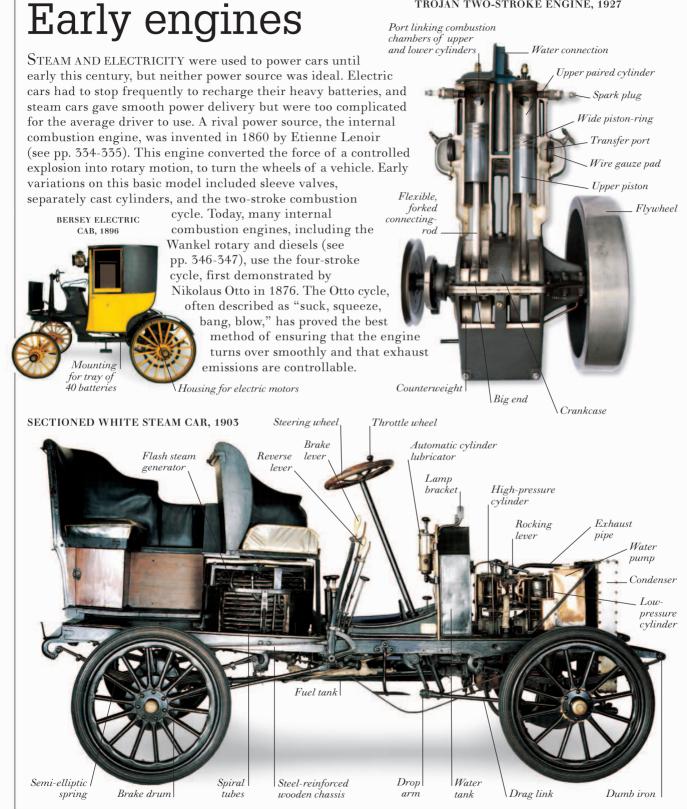
The "people's car"



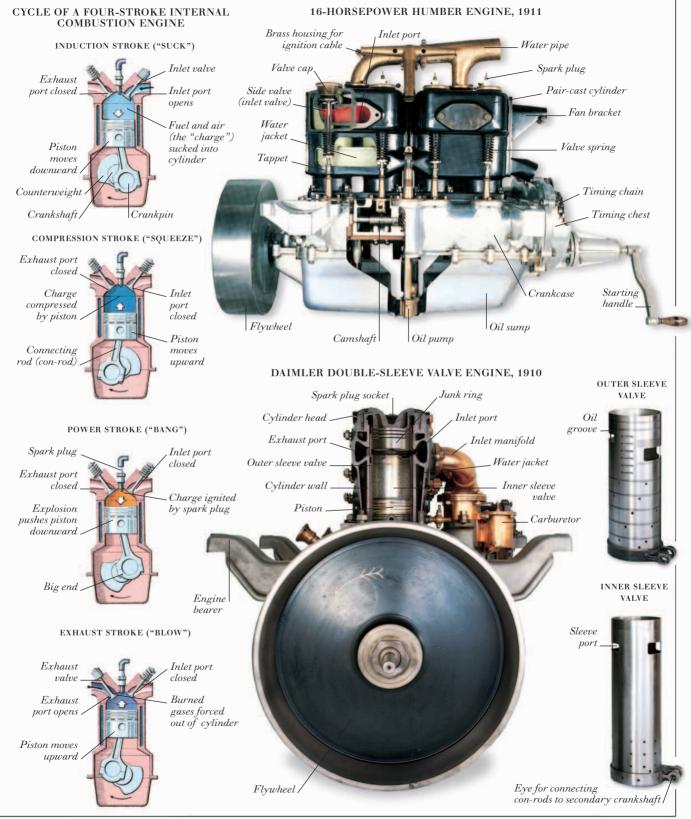
WORKING PARTS OF VOLKSWAGEN BEETLE



TROJAN TWO-STROKE ENGINE, 1927



EARLY ENGINES



Modern engines

TODAY'S GASOLINE ENGINE WORKS on the same basic principles as the first car engines of a century ago, although it has been greatly refined. Modern engines, often made from special metal alloys, are much lighter than earlier engines. Computerized ignition systems, fuel injectors, and multivalve cylinder heads achieve a more efficient combustion of the fuel/air mixture (the charge) so that less fuel is wasted. As a result of this greater efficiency, the power and performance of a modern engine are increased, and the level of pollution in the exhaust gases is reduced. Exhaust pollution levels today are also lowered by the increasing use of special filters called catalytic converters, which absorb many exhaust pollutants. The need to produce ever more efficient engines means that it can take up to seven years to develop a new engine for a family car, at a cost of many millions of dollars.

Cam follower

(bucket tappet)

Camshaft

Cylinder head

Valve stem

Exhaust valve

Cvlinder

liner

Piston

Connecting rod (con-rod)

> Main bearin<u>e</u> housing

Big end Transmission

adaptor plate

Crankshaft

counterweight

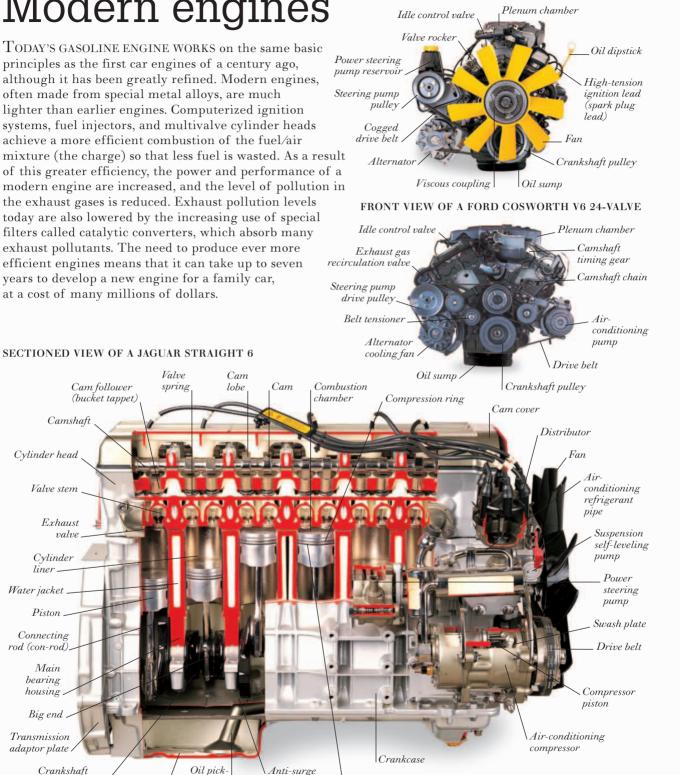
Oil sump

up pipe

baffle

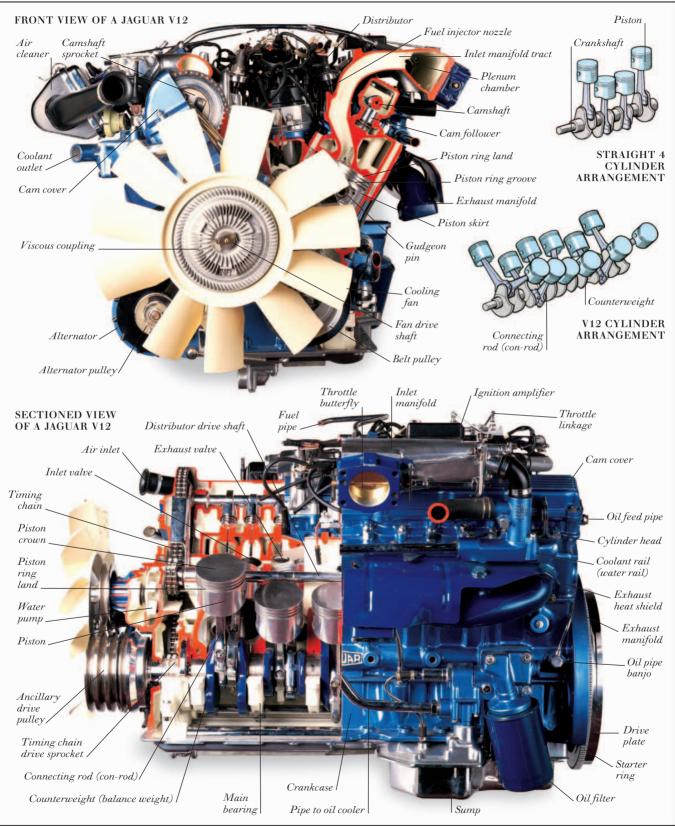
Water jacket

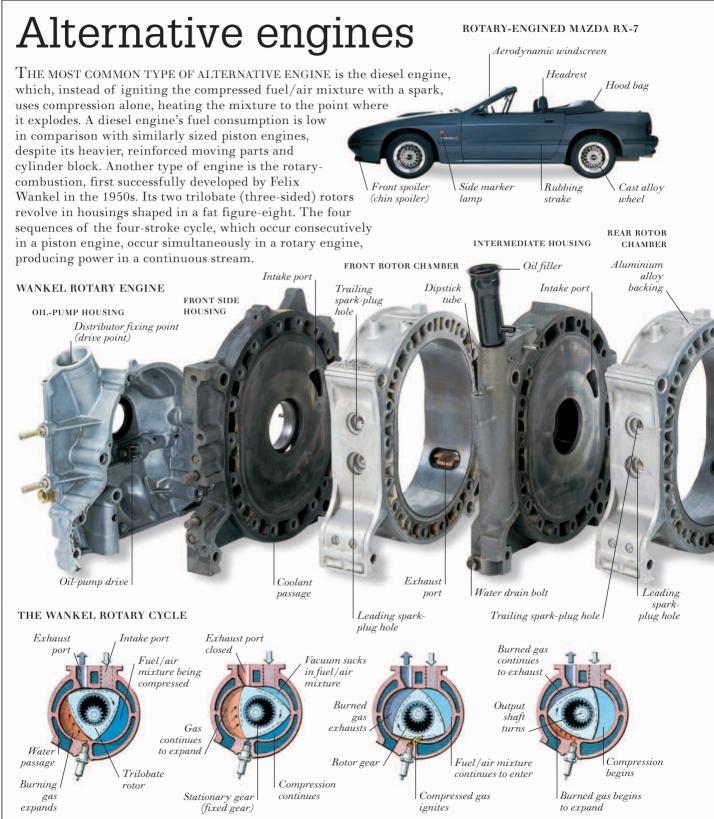
FRONT VIEW OF A FORD COSWORTH V6 12-VALVE

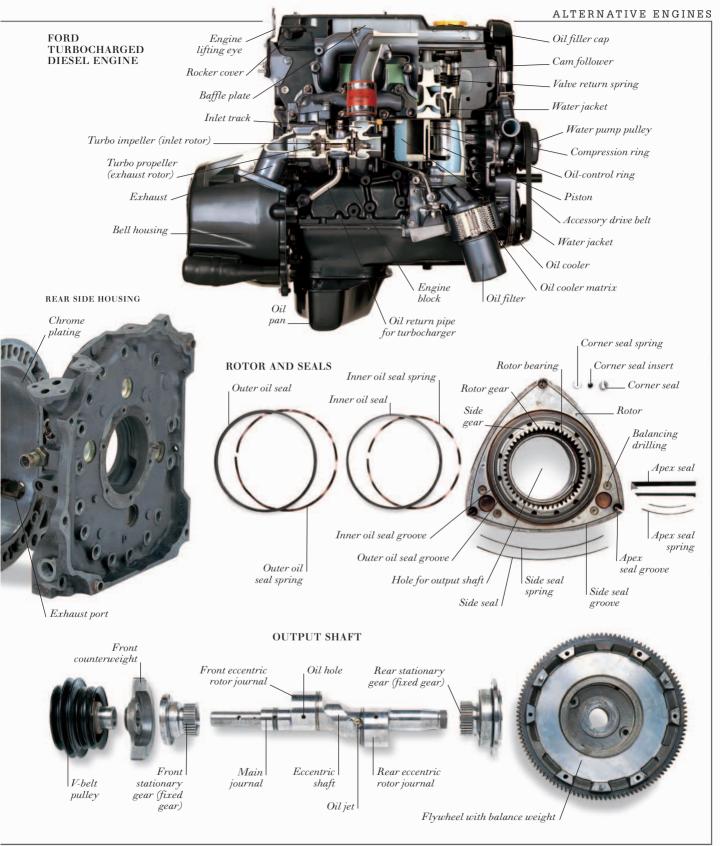


Oil-control ring (scraper ring)

MODERN ENGINES



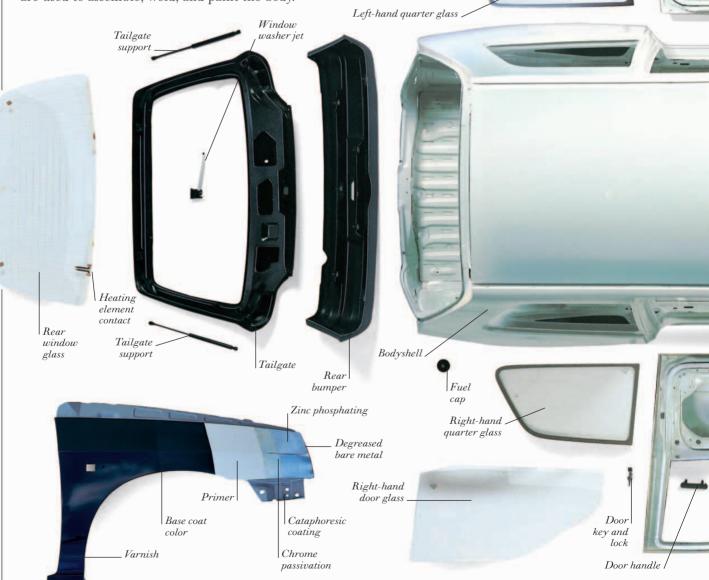




Bodywork

THE BODY OF A MODERN mass-produced car is built on the monocoque (single-shell) principle, in which the roof, side panels, and floor are welded into a single integral unit. This bodyshell protects and supports the car's internal parts.

RENAULT Steel and glass are used to construct the bodyshell, creating LOGO a unit that is both light and strong. Its lightness helps to conserve energy, while its strength protects the occupants. Modern bodywork is designed with the aid of computers, which are used to predict factors such as aerodynamic efficiency and impact-resistance. High-technology is also employed on the production line, where robots are used to assemble, weld, and paint the body.



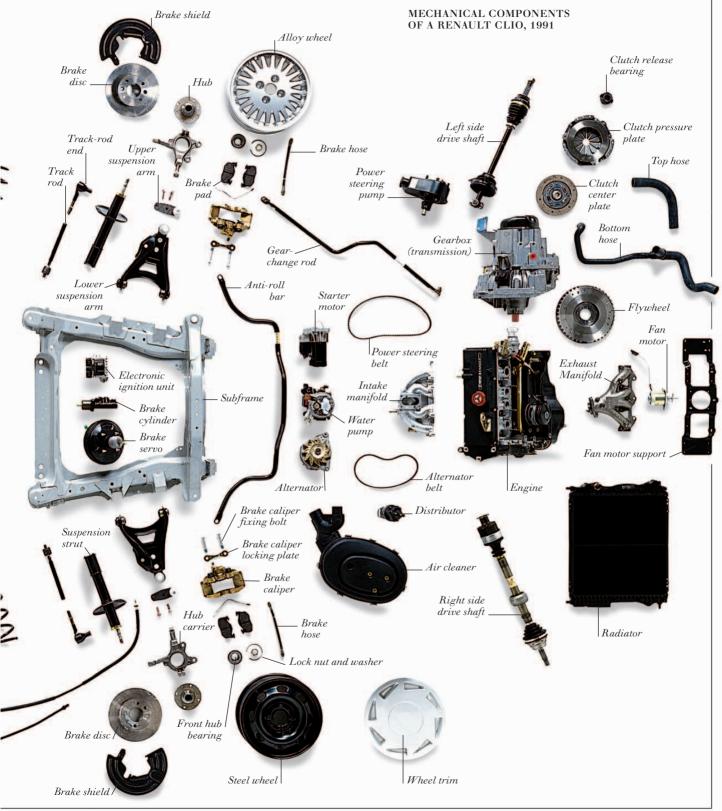
BODYWORK OF A RENAULT CLIO

Left-hand door glass Door handle

> Door lock



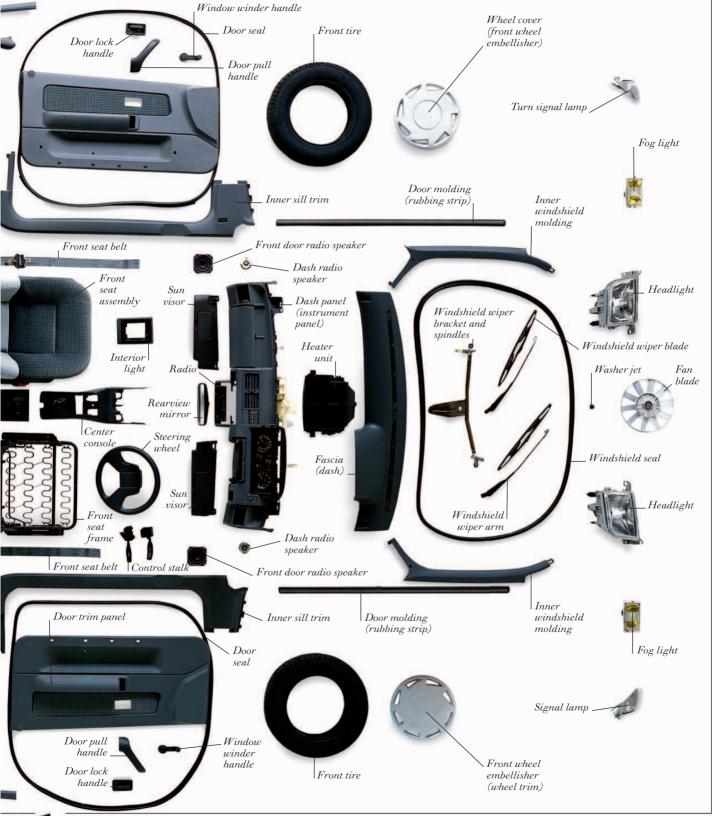
Mechanical Alloy wheel Hub cap _ Exhaust downpipe components Hub nut_ Hub seal A TYPICAL MODERN CAR has several thousand individual mechanical components. These are assembled to form the car's various mechanical systems: engine and exhaust, transmission, steering, suspension, and brakes. To ensure that each system functions properly, components are manufactured to extremely fine tolerances-to within Muffler Catalytic about one ten-thousandth of an inch (one five-hundredth converter Suspension of a millimeter) in some cases. spring Torsion bar Handbrake Left rear Anti-roll bar suspension Rear muffler arm Gear lever Steering Fuel tank wheel Steering rack Right rear suspension arm Steering column Vent pipe Shock absorber Clutch pedal Hub and Brake cylinder brake drum Electric fuel pump Brake shoe Brake pedal Hub seal Brake backplate Throttle pedal Hub nut Fuel tank filler neck Clutch cable Hub Throttle cable cap Wheel trim Steel wheel



Car trim



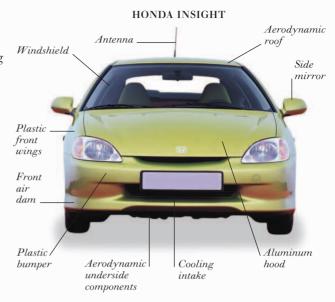
TRIM OF A RENAULT



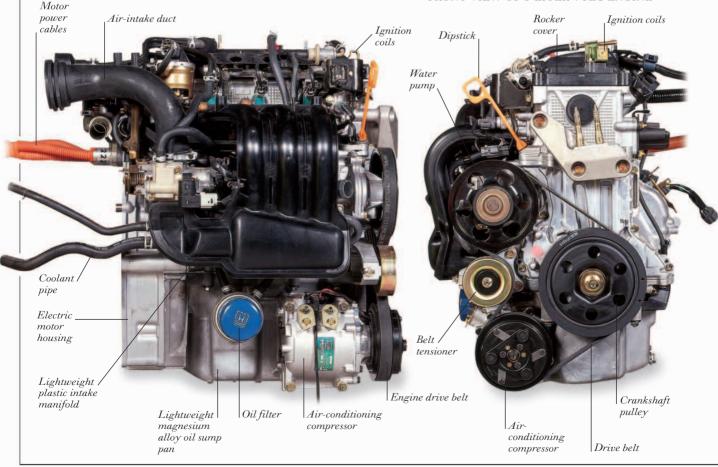
Hybrid car

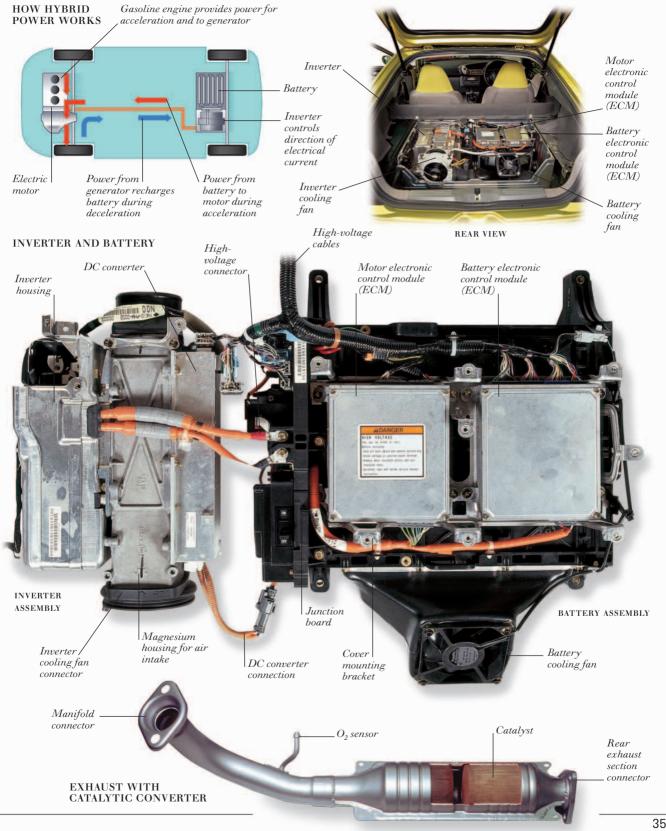
THERE HAVE BEEN SEVERAL proposed alternatives to conventional gas- or diesel-powered cars, including cars that use solar or battery power. The object is to lower harmful emissions and conserve natural resources. One of the alternatives already in production is the hybrid car. A hybrid vehicle uses two or more fuels. Examples include diesel-electric trains and mopeds. The latter combine the power of a gasoline engine with pedal power. In a hybrid car, gas consumption is reduced by the provision of additional power by an electric motor during acceleration. The motor is driven by power from on-board batteries that are recharged by an enginedriven generator when the car is decelerating or cruising. Some hybrid cars transfer energy from the wheels to a flywheel during braking. The flywheel drives the generator, which recharges the batteries.

SIDE VIEW OF 1-LITER VTEC ENGINE

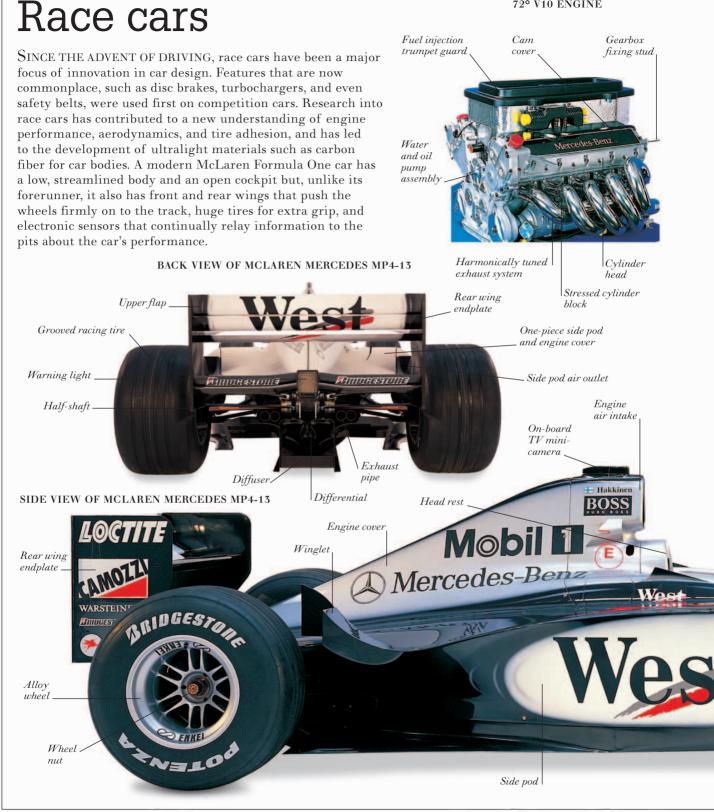


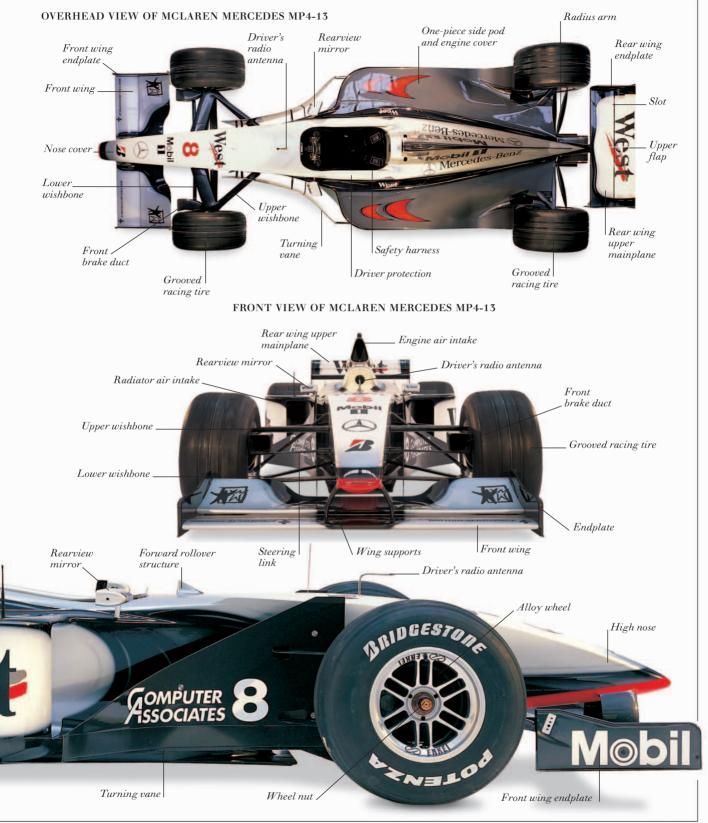
FRONT VIEW OF 1-LITER VTEC ENGINE





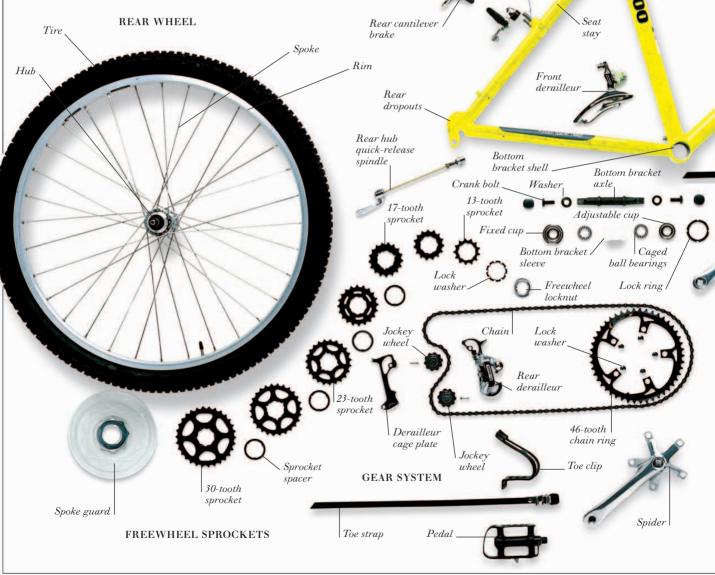
72° V10 ENGINE





Bicycle anatomy

THE BICYCLE IS A TWO-WHEELED, light-weight machine, which is propelled by human power. It is efficient, cheap, easily manufactured, and one of the world's most popular forms of transportation. The first pedal-driven bicycle was built in Scotland in 1839. Since then the basic design—of a frame, wheels, brakes, handlebars, and saddle—has been gradually improved, with the addition of a chain, gear system, and pneumatic tires (tires inflated with air). The recent invention of the mountain bike (all-terrain bike) has been an important development. With its strong, rugged frame, wide tires, and 21 gears, a mountain bike enables riders to reach rough and hilly areas that were previously inaccessible to cyclists.



Saddle

Cable

guide

Seat tube

Seat post.

Seat post

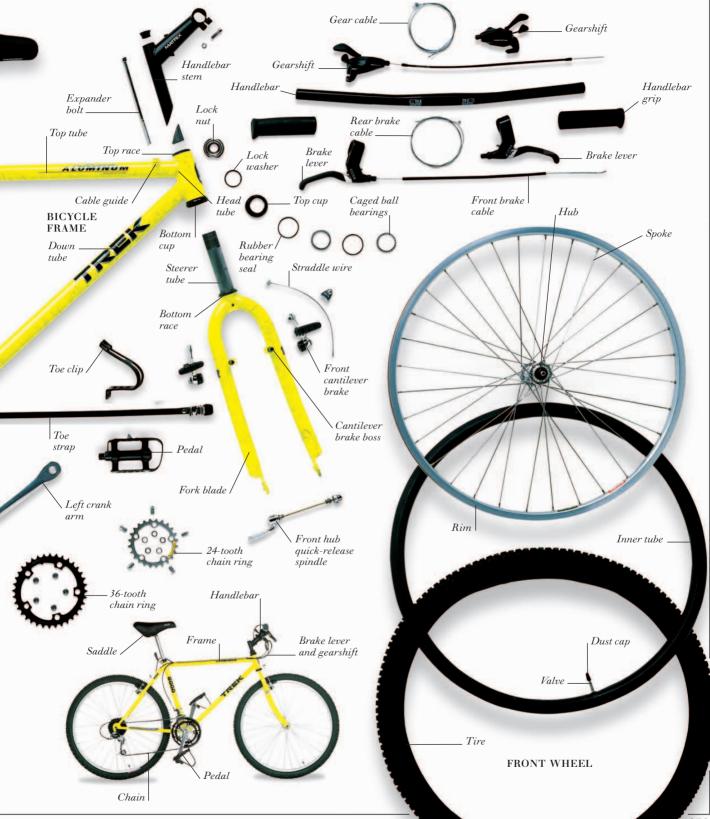
bolt

Straddle

wire

quick-release

BICYCLE ANATOMY



FRONT AND HELMET Bicycles REAR LIGHTS Hard outer shell ALTHOUGH ALL BICYCLES are made up of the same Red basic components, they can vary greatly in design. A rear light racing bike, such as the Eddy Merckx model, with its light frame and steep head- and seat-angles, is built for speed. Its design forces the rider to adopt the "aerotuck," Air vent a crouched, aerodynamic position. While a touring bike Polystyrene White resembles the racing bike in many respects, it is designed front light padding for comfort and stability on long-distance journeys. Quick Touring bikes are characterized by more relaxed frame release strap angles, heavy chain stays that support the rear panniers, and a long wheelbase (the distance between the wheel axles) for reliable handling. All-round bicycles, known EDDY MERCKX RACING BICYCLE as "hybrids," combine the light weight and speed of sports bikes with the rugged durability of mountain bikes (see Saddle pp. 358-359). Bicycles that are not designed for conventional road use include time-trial bikes, which have a short Seat post Saddle clamp head tube, sloping top tube, "aero" handlebars, and Cable guide aerodynamic tubing. Most Human Powered Vehicles Seat-post bolt (HPVs) are recumbents—the rider has a recumbent Rear brake cable position—which maximize power output and minimize drag (resistance). Essential to the safety of all Top tube Brake-block bolt (crossbar) riders are helmets, and both front and rear frame Brake block lights; locks protect against theft. Seat Seat tube Tire stav Down tube Water-bottle Tire tread cage Tire wall Front Wheel rim derailleur Freewheel sprocket STEEL LOCK Key Hardened Crank Chain steel ring Spider Rear Crank bolt

Steel

Pedal

Toe clip

Chain stay

Chain

Pick-proof lock

derailleur

Pulley bolt

Tension

pulley



Windshield

Sidelight

Fender

Sidecar chassis

rail Sidecar

wheel

Fender

Taillight

Suspension

linkage

Knock-off wheel nut

Lockable

luggage trunk

Grab

Sidecar

The motorcycle

THE MOTORCYCLE HAS EVOLVED from a motorized cycle—a basic bicycle with an engine—into a sophisticated, high-performance machine. In 1901, the Werner brothers established the most viable location for the engine by positioning it low in the center of the chassis (see pp. 364-365): the new Werner became the basis for the modern motorcycle. Motorcycles are used for many purposes-for commuting, delivering messages, touring, and racing-and different machines have been developed according to the demands of different types of rider. The Vespa scooter, for instance, which is small-wheeled, economical, and easy-to-ride, was designed to meet the needs of the commuter. Sidecars provided transportation for the family until the arrival of cheap cars caused their popularity to decline. Enthusiast riders generally favor larger capacity machines that are capable of greater performance and offer more comfort. Four-cylinder machines have been common since the Honda CB750 appeared in 1969. Despite advances in motorcycle technology, many riders are attracted to the traditional looks of motorcycles like the twin-cylinder Harley-Davidson. The Harley-Davidson Glides exploit the style of the classic American V-twin engine, where the cylinders are placed in a V-formation.

1901 WERNER MOTORCYCLE





The motorcycle chassis

THE MOTORCYCLE CHASSIS is the main "body" of the motorcycle, to which the engine is attached. Consisting of the frame, wheels, suspension, and brakes, the chassis performs various functions. The frame, which is built from steel or alloy, keeps the wheels in line to maintain the handling of the motorcycle, and serves as a structure for mounting other components. The engine and gearbox unit is bolted into place, while items such as the seat, the fenders, and the fairing are more easily removable. Suspension cushions the rider from irregularities in the road surface. In most suspension systems, coil springs controlled by an oil damper separate the main mass of the motorcycle from the wheels. At the front, the spring and damper are usually incorporated in a telescopic fork; the rear employs a pivoted swingarm. The suspension also helps to retain maximum contact between the tires and the road, necessary for effective braking and steering. Drum brakes were common until the 1970s, but modern motorcycles use disc brakes, which are more powerful.

Square-section

Exhaust pipe

Light alloy wheel

> Axle adjustor

> > Disc brake

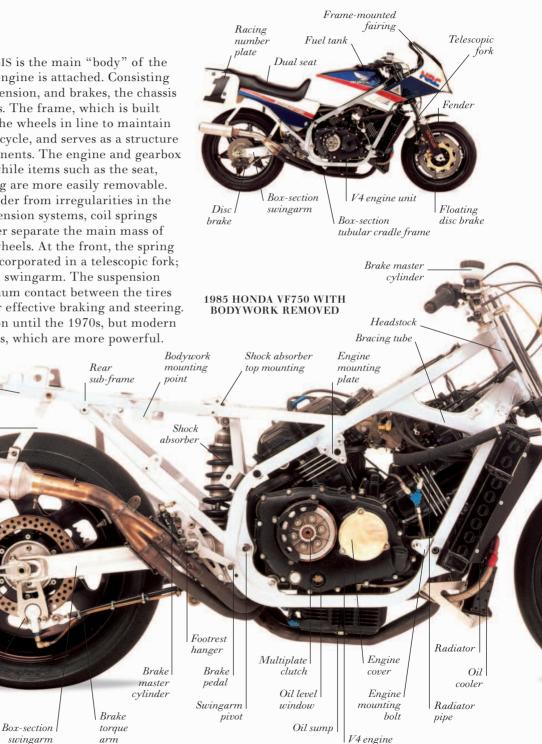
Disc brake

calliper

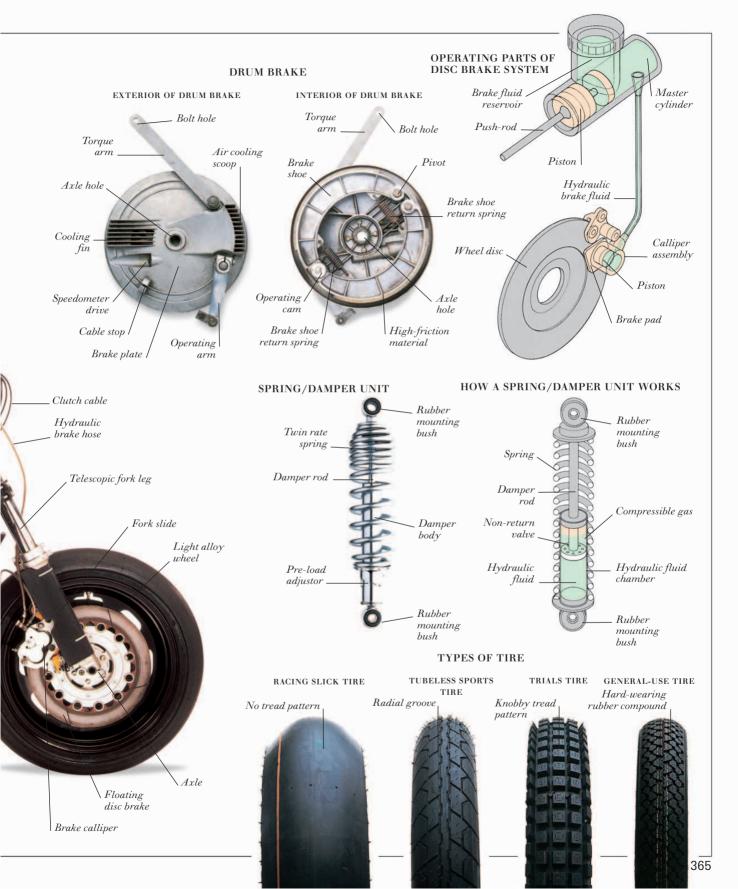
steel tubing

Exhaust mounting strap

1985 HONDA VF750 WITH BODYWORK



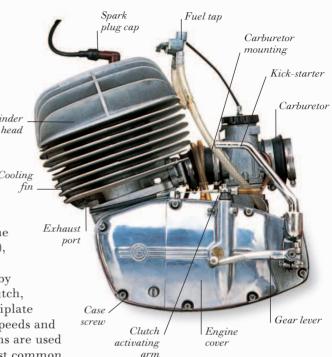
unit



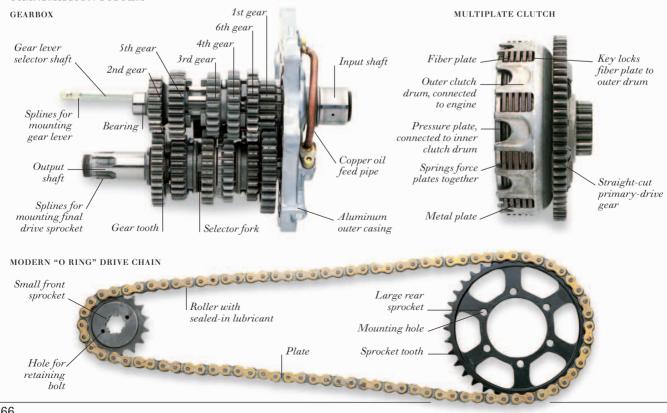
EXTERIOR OF STANDARD TWO-STROKE ENGINE

Motorcycle engines

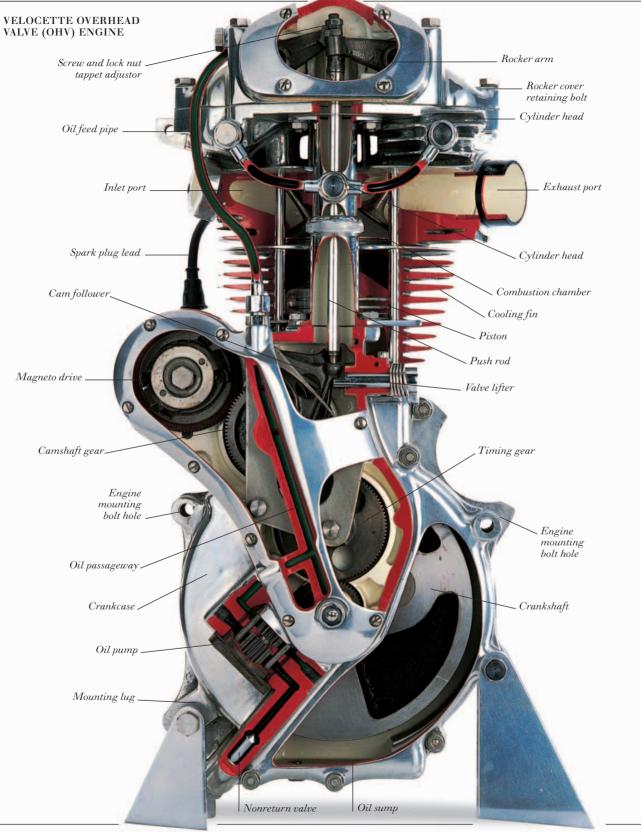
MOTORCYCLE ENGINES must be lightweight and compact and have a good power output. They have between one and six cylinders, can be Cylinder cooled by air or water, and the capacity of the head combustion chamber varies from 49cc (cubic centimeters) to 1500cc. Two types of internal combustion engine are common: the four-stroke, Cooling which is used in cars (see pp. 342-343), and the fin two-stroke. A basic two-stroke engine has only three moving parts-the crankshaft, the connecting rod, and the piston-but the power output is high. The engine fires every two strokes (rather than every four), giving a "power stroke" every revolution (see p. 343). Power is conveyed from the engine to the rear wheel by the transmission system. This usually consists of a clutch, a gearbox, and a final drive system. Clutches are multiplate devices, which run in oil. Gearboxes have five or six speeds and are operated by foot pedal. Shaft and belt drive systems are used in some cases, but chain drive to the rear wheel is most common.



TRANSMISSION SYSTEM

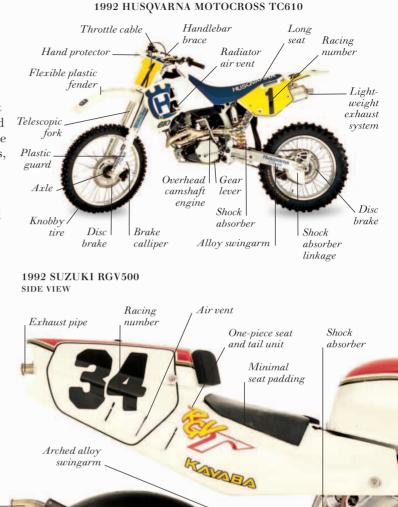


MOTORCYCLE ENGINES

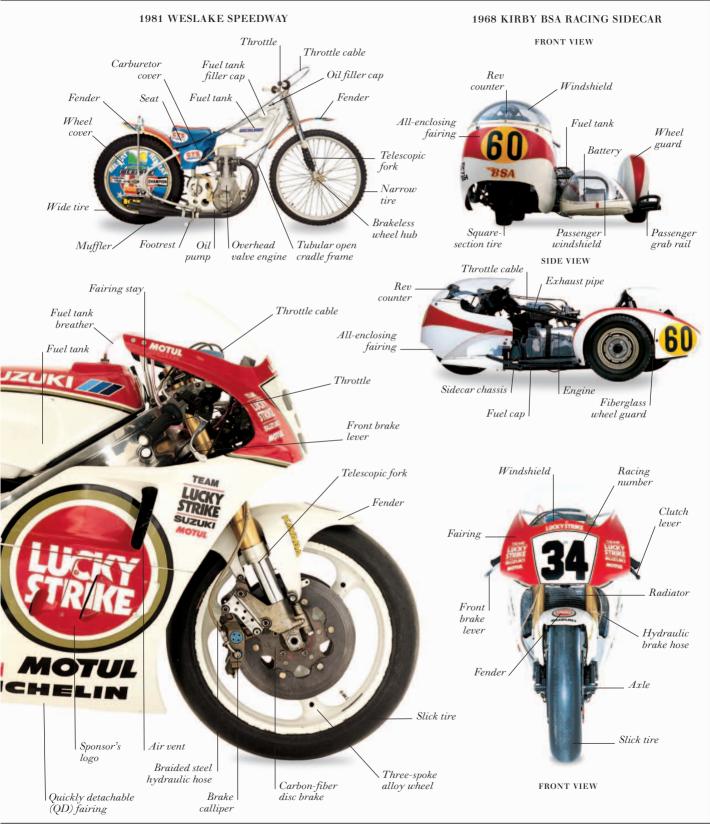


Competition motorcycles

THERE ARE MANY TYPES of motorcycle sport and in each, a specialized machine has evolved to perform to specific requirements. Races take place on roads or tracks or "off-road," in fields, dirt tracks, and even the desert. "Grand Prix" world championships in road-racing are contested by three classes: 125cc, 250cc twostrokes; the top class of 500cc two-strokes; and 900cc four-stroke machines. The latest racing sidecars have more in common with racing cars than motorcycles. The rider and passenger operate within an all-enclosing, aerodynamic fairing. The Suzuki RGV500 shown here. like other Grand Prix machines. carries advertising, which helps to cover the cost of developing motorcycle technology. In Speedway, which originated in the US in 1902, motorcycles operate without brakes or a gearbox. Off-road competition motorcycles have less emphasis on high power output. In Motocross, for example, which is held on rough terrain, they must have high ground clearance, flexible long-travel suspension, and tires with a chunky tread pattern.





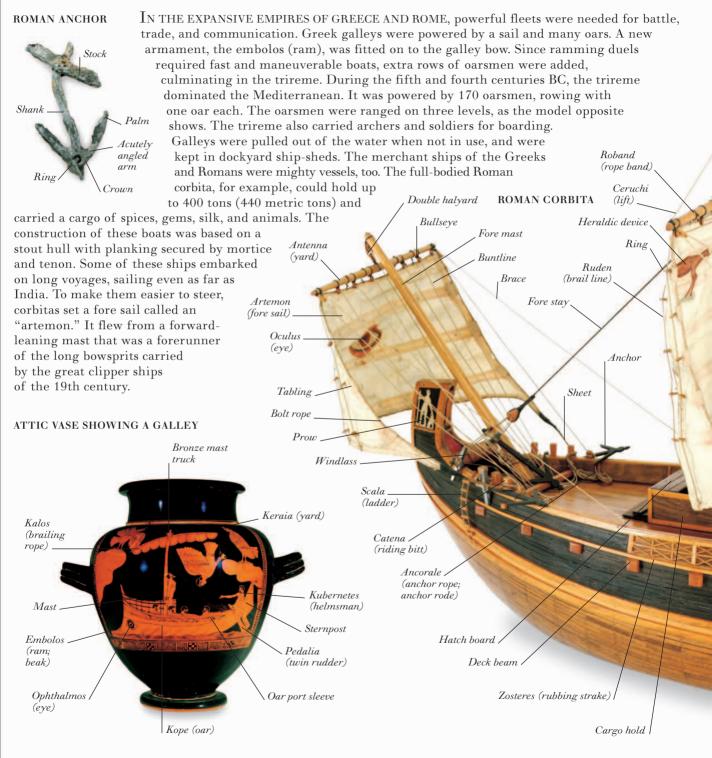




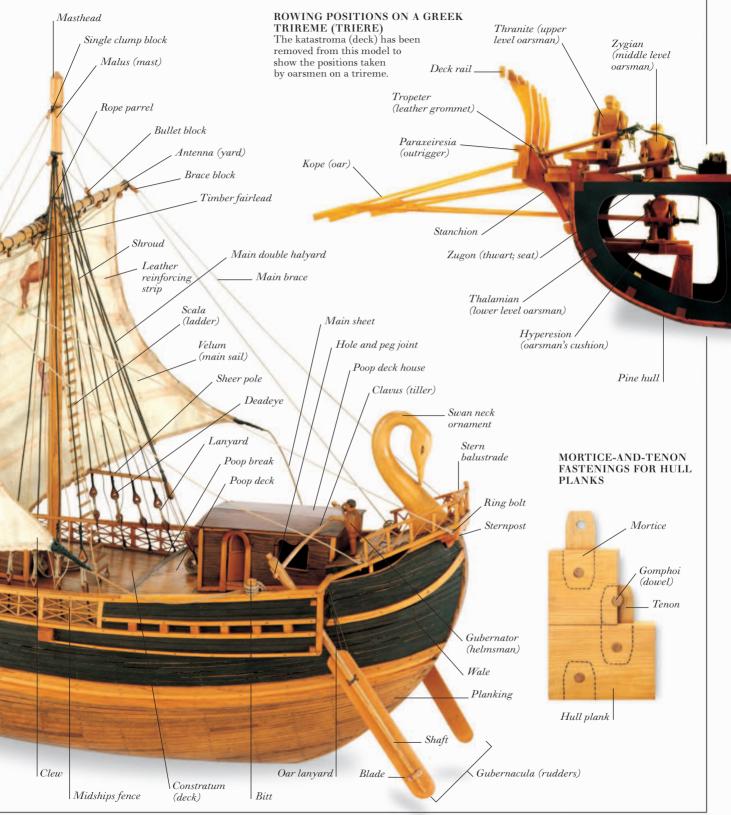


Sea and Air

Ships of Greece and Rome



SHIPS OF GREECE AND ROME



Zoomorphic head

Eve

Viking ships

IN THE DARK AGES and early medieval times, the longships of Scandinavia were one of the most shipwright feared sights for people of northern Europe. The Vikings launched raids from Scandinavia every summer in longships equipped with a single steering oar on the right, or "steerboard," side (hence "starboard"). A longship had one row of oars on each side and a single sail. The hull had clinker (overlapping) planks. Prowheads adorned fighting ships during campaigns of war. The sailing longship was also used

> for local coastal travel. The karv below Keel was probably built as transport for an important family, while the smaller faering (top right) was a rowing boat only. The fleet of William of Normandy that invaded England in 1066 owed much to the Viking boatbuilding tradition, and has been depicted in the Bayeux Tapestry (above). Seals used by port towns and royal courts through the ages provide an excellent Tooth record of contemporary ship design. The seal opposite shows how ships changed from the Viking period to the end of the Middle Ages. The introduction of the fighting platform-the castle-

BOATBUILDERS' Shave Broad ax TOOLS Breast auger Sheer T-handle AxTree cut for auger Strake planking

Leather

diagonal

Roband

Keel

reinforcement and the addition of extra masts and sails changed Square sail of homespun the character of the medieval ship. Note also that the yarn steering oar has been replaced by a centered rudder. Leech (leach) Braiding Snake-tail ornament Serpentine neck VIKING KARV (COASTER) Lozenge-shaped recess Rectangular cross-band Tye Tiller halyard Sternpost Foot

Oar

Master

Stempost

Hood

end

Boss (rudder pivot)

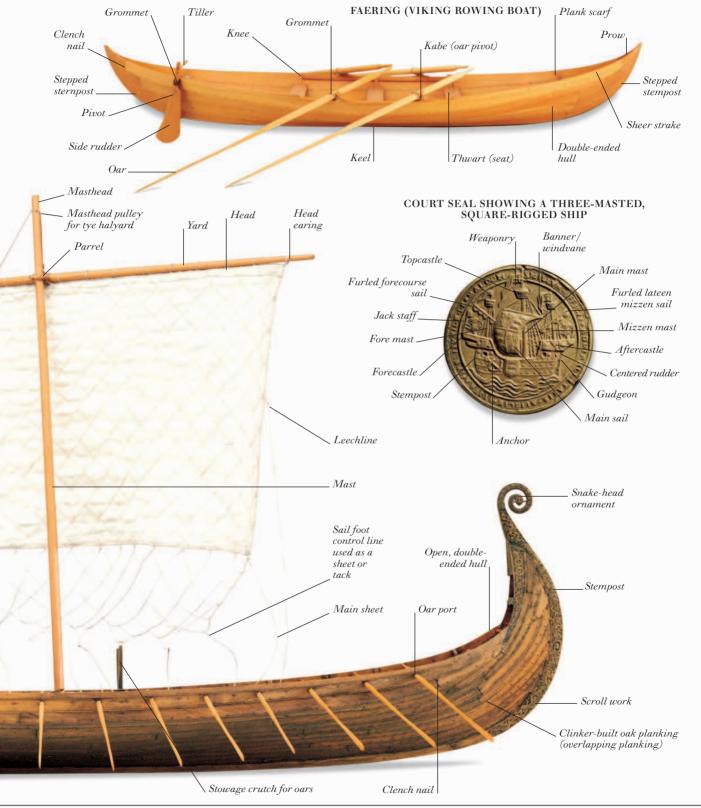
Steering oar

DRAGON PROWHEAD

(side rudder)

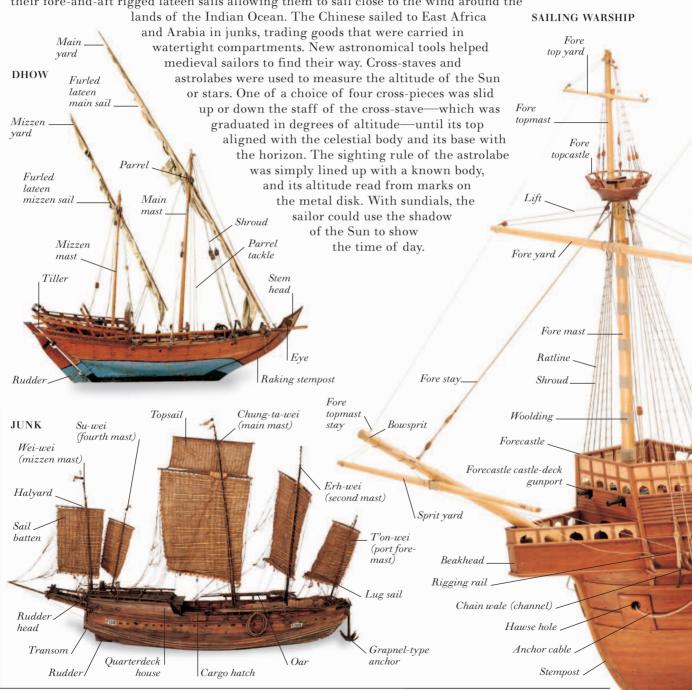
Starboard (steerboard) side

VIKING SHIPS

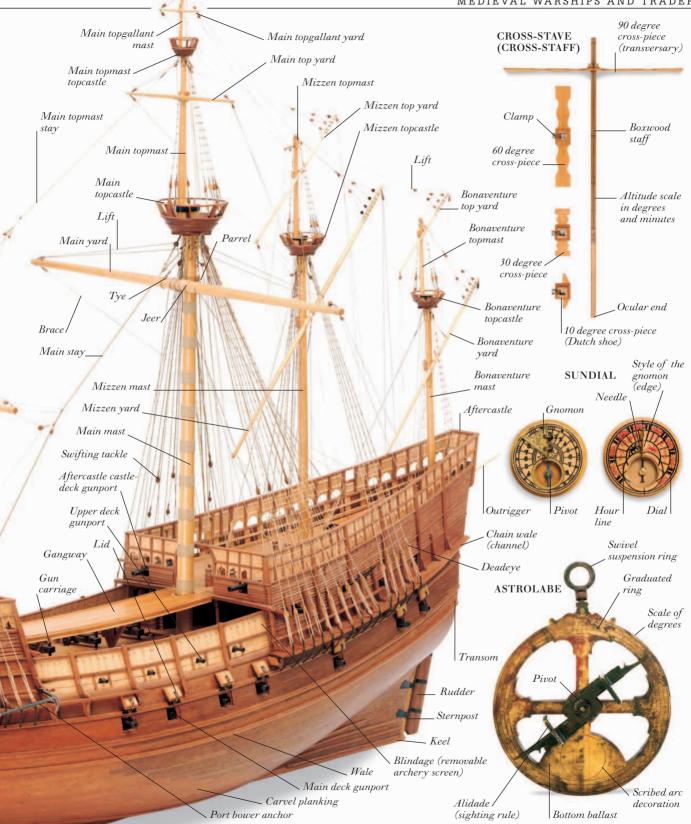


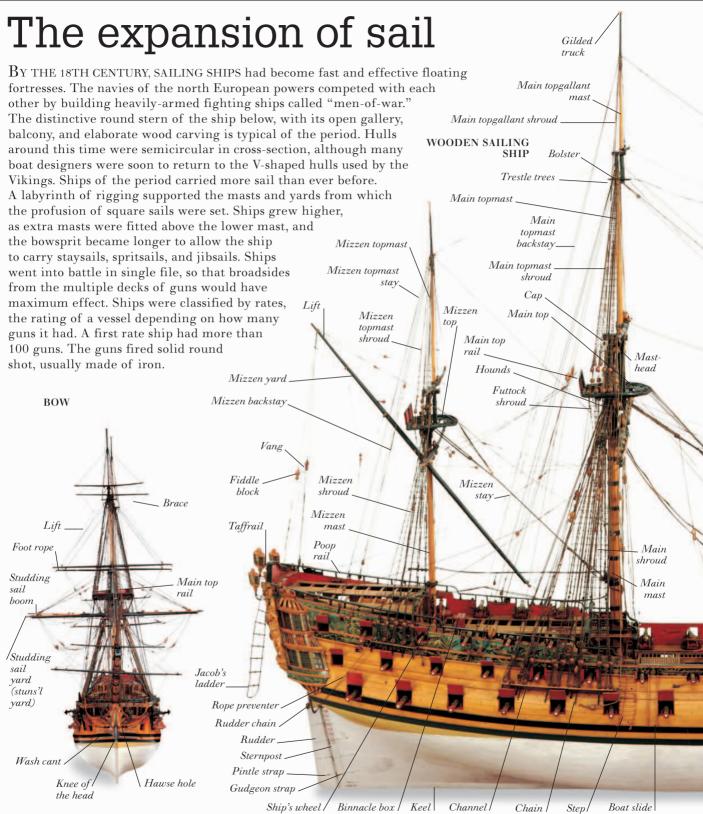
Medieval warships and traders

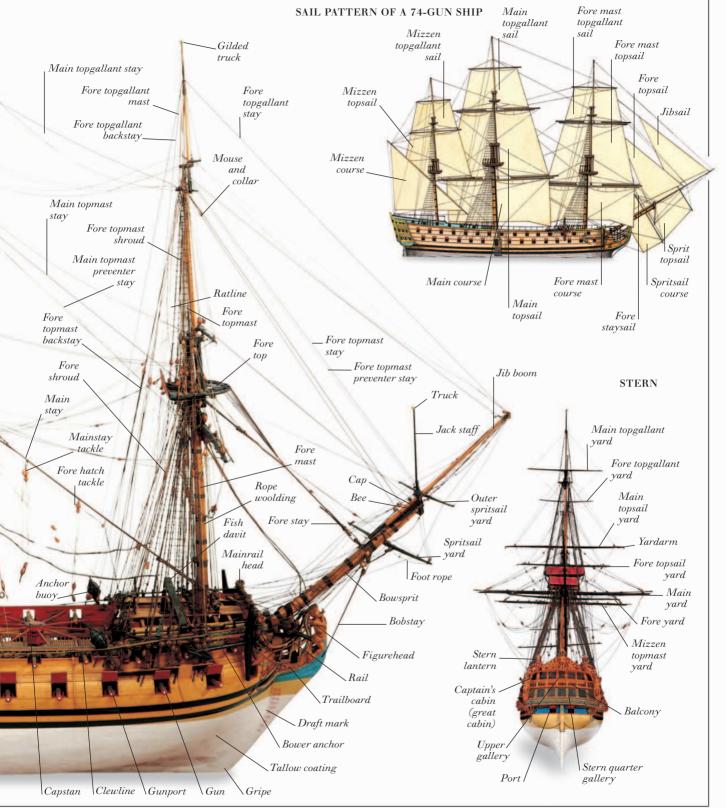
FROM THE 16TH CENTURY, SHIPS WERE BUILT WITH A NEW FORM OF HULL, constructed from carvel (edge-to-edge) planking. Warships of the time, like King Henry VIII of England's Mary Rose, boasted awesome fire power. This ship carried both long-range cannon in bronze, and short-range, anti personnel guns in iron. Elsewhere, ships took on a multiformity of shapes. Dhows transported slaves from East Africa to Arabia, their fore-and-aft rigged lateen sails allowing them to sail close to the wind around the

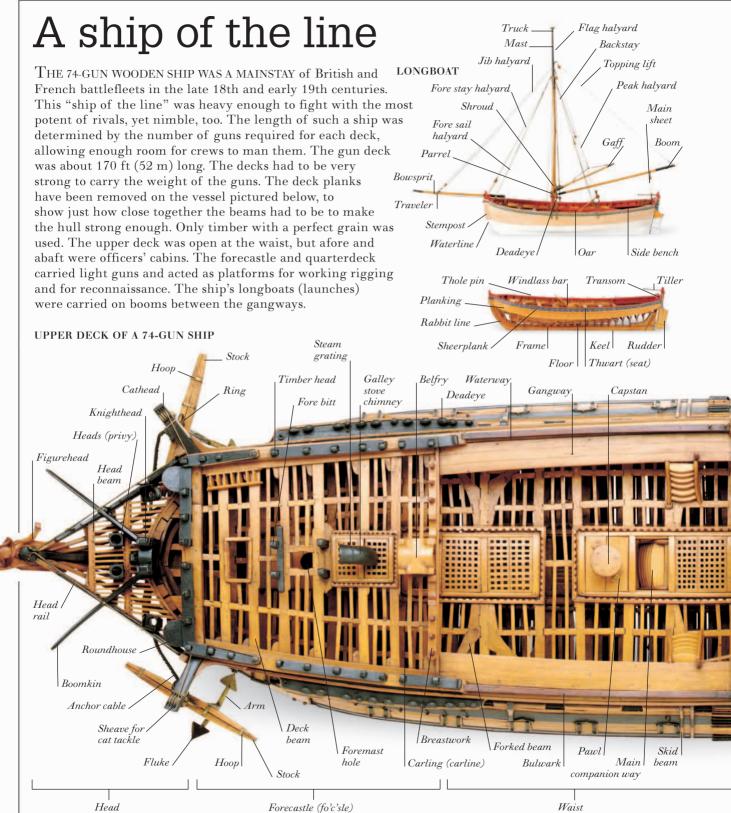


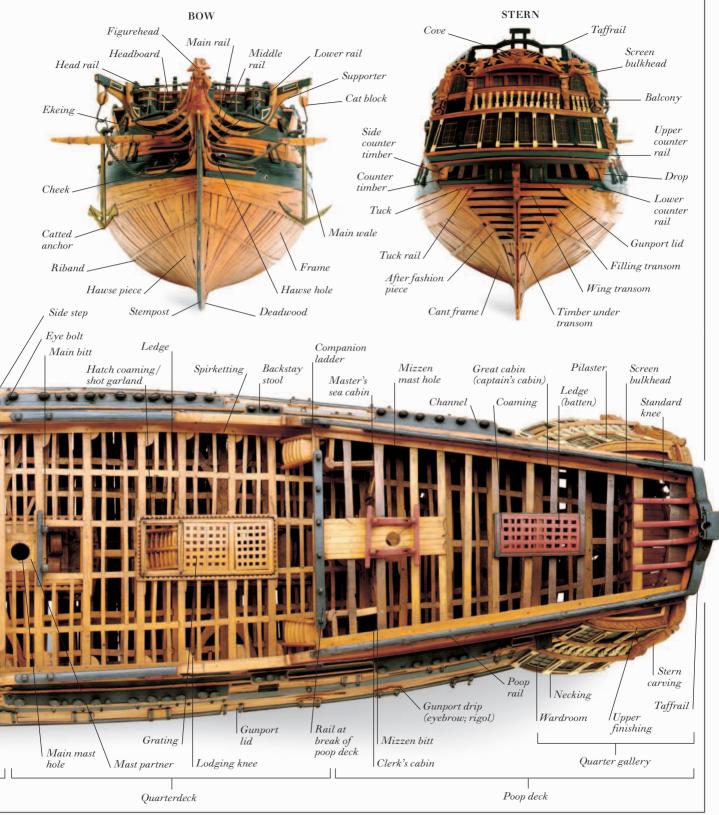


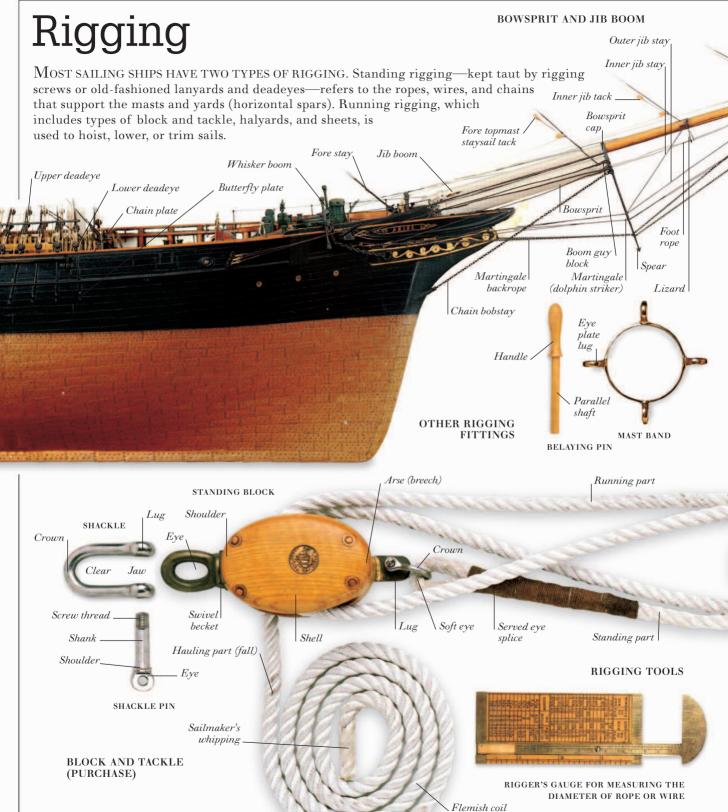












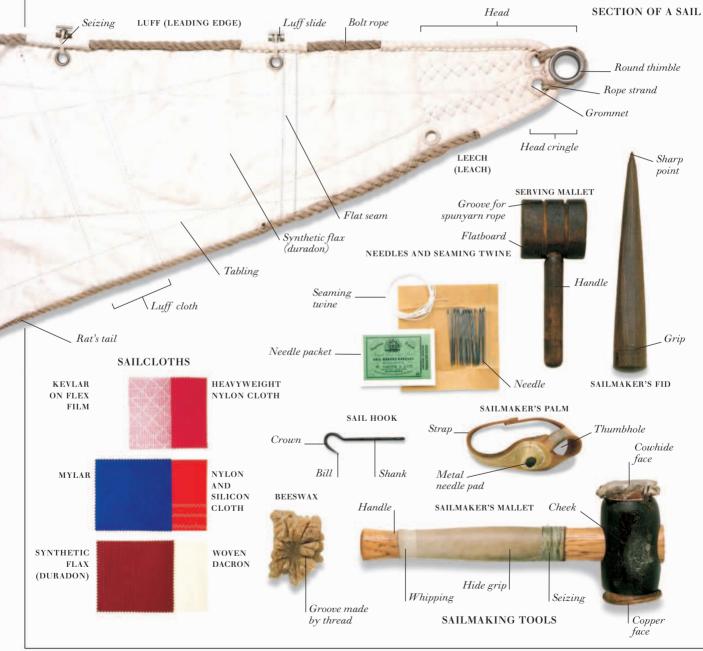
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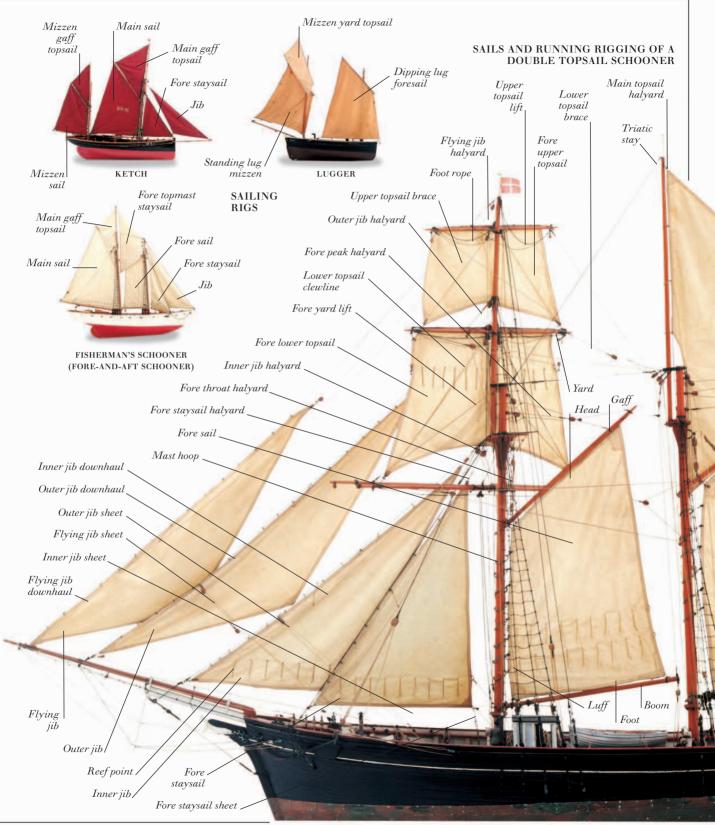


PARREL BEADS

Sails

THERE ARE TWO MAIN TYPES OF SAIL, often used in combination. Square sails are driving sails. They are usually attached by parrels to yards, square to the mast to catch the following wind. On fore-and-aft sails, such as lateen and lug sails, the luff (leading edge) usually abuts a mast or a stay. The head of the sail may abut a gaff, and the foot a boom. Around the world, a great range of rigs (sail patterns), such as the ketch, lugger, and schooner, have evolved to suit local needs. Sails are made from strips of cloth, cut to give the sail a belly and strong enough to resist the most violent of winds. Cotton and flax are the traditional sail materials, but synthetic fabrics are now commonly used.





SAILS

Mooring and anchoring

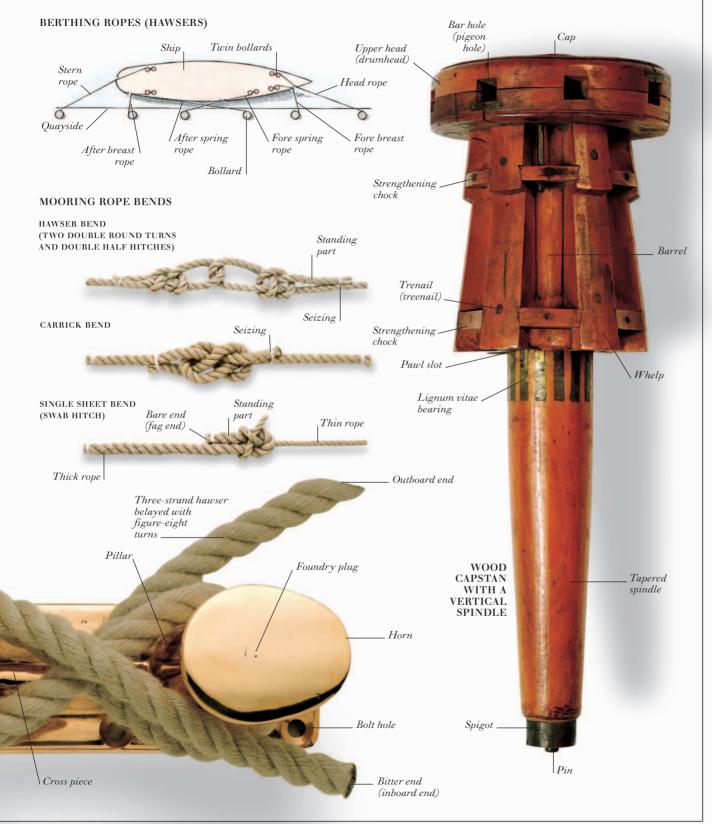
FOR LARGE VESSELS IN OPEN WATER, ANCHORAGE IS ESSENTIAL. By holding a ship securely to the seabed, an anchor prevents the vessel from being at the mercy of wave, tide, and current. The earliest anchors were nothing more than stones. In later years, many anchors had a standard design, much like the Admiralty pattern anchor

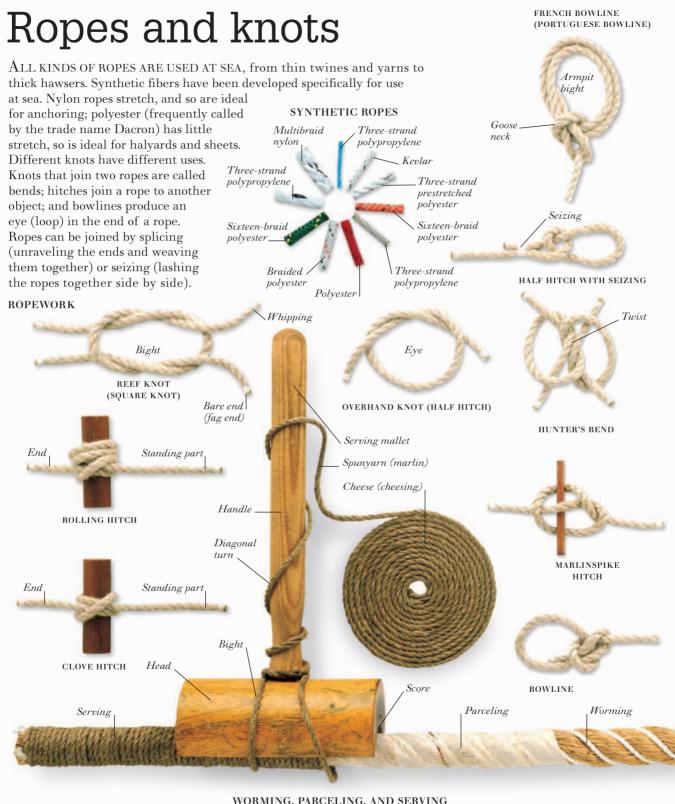
STONE ANCHOR

(KILLICK)

Rope

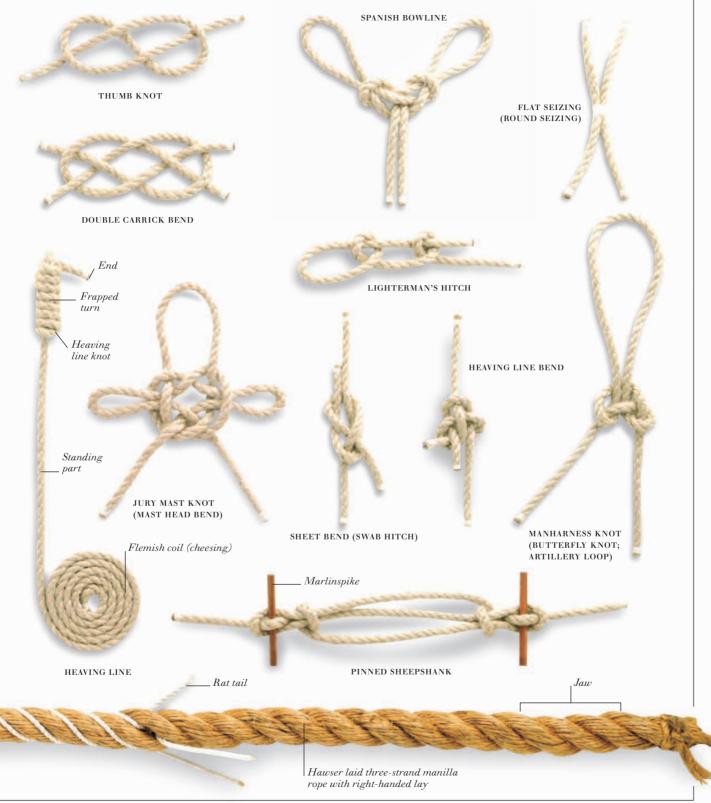
hole shown on this page. The Danforth anchor is somewhat different. It has particularly deep flukes to give it great holding power. On TYPES OF ANCHOR large sailing ships, anchors were worked by teams of sailors. They turned the drum of a capstan by pushing on bars slotted into the revolving cylinder. This, in turn, lifted or lowered the anchor chain. In calm harbors and estuaries. ships can moor (make fast) without using anchors. Berthing ropes can be attached to bollards both inboard and on the quayside. CLOSE-STOWING Berthing ropes are joined to each other by bends, like those opposite. ANCHOR End link Common Patent ANCHOR CHAIN link link SHACKLE, SWIVELS, AND LINK DANFORTH COR ANCHOR Crown (SECURE ANCHOR: ANCHOR Screw PLOW ANCHOR) thread Shank _ Bol Lue Pea (bill) ADMIRALTY ANCHOR MOORING GALVANIZED CHAIN MAILLOT ТҮРЕ АСП "D" SHACKLE SWIVEL SWIVEL (SCREW LINK) TWIN BOLLARDS WITH RAKED PILLARS AND A HAWSER (HEAVY ROPE) Fluke ADMIRALTY PATTERN ANCHOR Flat_ Throat STOCKLESS Blade Rim ANCHOR Stock Crown Base Tripping palm MUSHROOM ANCHOR (PERMANENT MOORING ANCHOR)





WORMING, PARCELING, AND SERVING

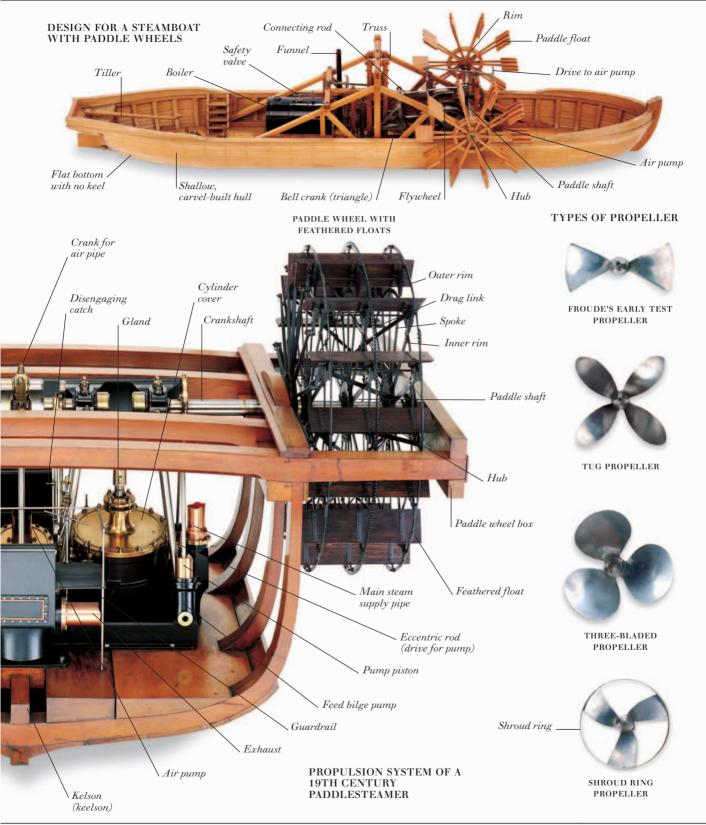
ROPES AND KNOTS



SEA AND AIR Paddle wheels and propellers THE INVENTION OF THE STEAM ENGINE IN THE 18TH CENTURY made mechanically driven ships fitted with paddle wheels or propellers a viable alternative to sails. Paddle wheels have fixed or feathered floats, and the model shown below features both types. Feathered floats give more propulsive power than fixed floats because they are almost upright at all times in the water. Paddle wheels were superseded by the propeller on oceangoing vessels in the mid-19th century. Propellers are more efficient, work better in rough water, and are less vulnerable in collisions. The first propellers were two-bladed but later three-SHIP'S WHEEL and four-bladed versions are more powerful; the shape and pitch of blades have also been King spoke refined over the years. At the beginning of the 18th century, tillers were superseded on handle many larger ships by the ship's wheel as a means of steering. Handle PADDLE WHEEL WITH FIXED FLOATS Slip eccentric Spoke for slide valve Rim plate OSCILLATING Wrist pin STEAM ENGINE Ahead/astern controls Felloe Slide valve (rim section) Limb Main crank Maker's name Fixed float Nave plate Hub Nave Deck beam THREE-BLADED PROPELLER Blade Tapered shaft hole Hub Strut Frame Piston rod (tail rod) Stuffing box Keyway Oscillating cylinder Pitch Propeller blade Bottom plate (bedplate) tip trace Propeller diameter Blade Slide valve rod PROPELLER ACTION Control platform Propeller hub trace

Hub

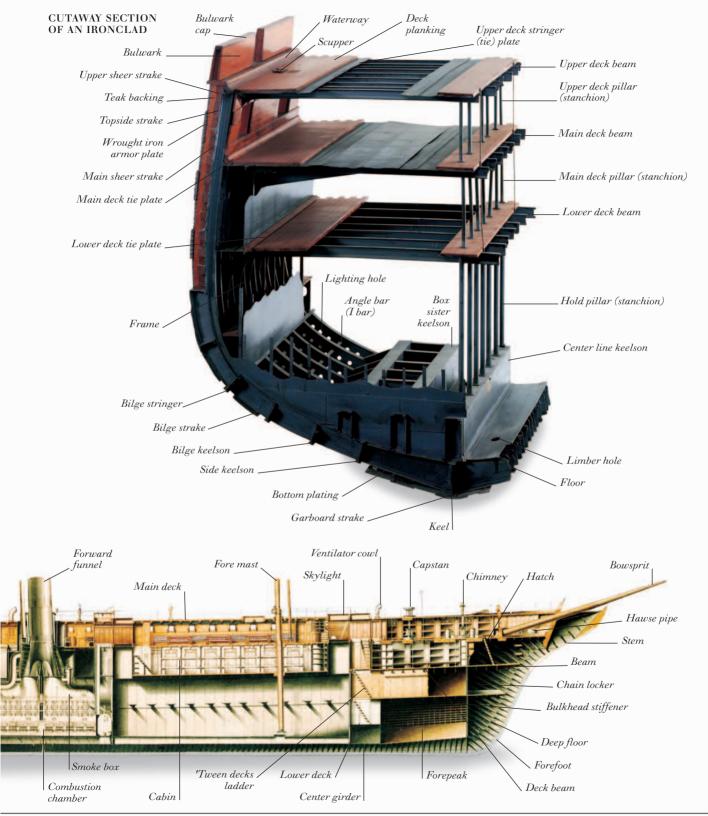
PADDLE WHEELS AND PROPELLERS



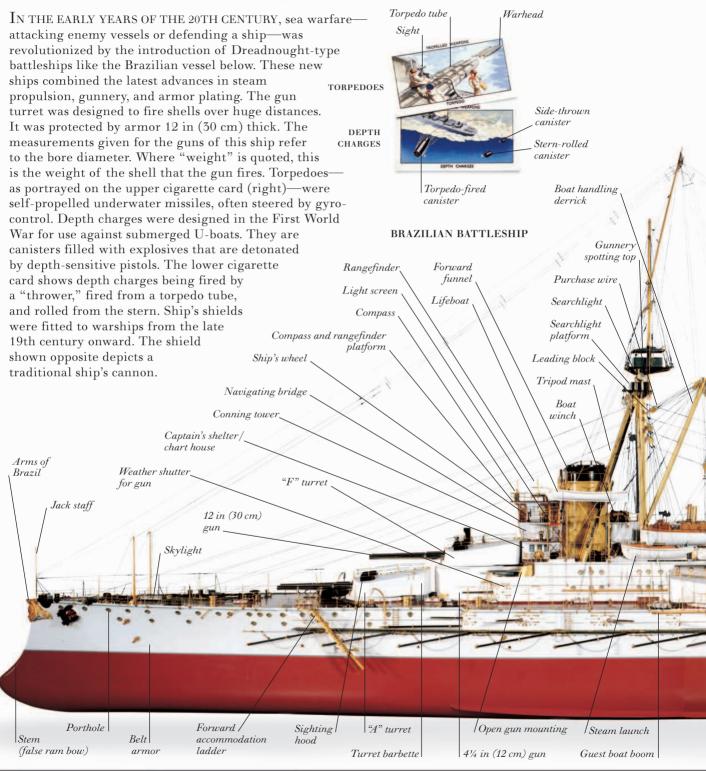
Anatomy of an iron ship

IRON PARTS WERE USED IN THE HULLS OF WOODEN SHIPS AS EARLY AS 1675, often in the same form as the wooden parts that they replaced. Eventually, as on the tea clipper Cutty Sark (below), iron rigging was found to be stronger than the traditional rope. The first "ironclads" were warships whose wooden hulls were protected by iron armor plates. Later ironclads actually had iron hulls. Steel vard Iron wire stay The model opposite is based on the British warship HMS Warrior, launched in 1860, the first battleship built entirely of iron. The plan of the Steel lower mast iron paddlesteamer (bottom), built somewhat later, shows that this vessel was a sailing ship; but it also boasted a steam propulsion Steel bowsprit plant amidships that turned two side paddlewheels. Early iron hulls were made from plates that were painstakingly riveted together (as below), but by the TEA 20th century vessels began to be welded together. CLIPPER whole sections at a time. The Second World War "liberty ship" was one of the first of these "production-line vessels." Wooden Forged planking with iron copper sheathing anchor RIVETTED PLATES Pan head rivet Accommodation section Cargo derrick LIBERTY Plate Weld line SHIP Gun section Button head Seam rivet (snap head) PLAN OF AN IRON Cargo hold Stern section Midships section Bow section PADDLESTEAMER Paddle Crankshaft wheel Steam whistle Guardrail Main mast Mizzen Poop Connecting Deck lantern After funnel Eccentric mast Lounge Steering deck State room rod position Guardrail Binnacle Skylight Steering gear Stern Vertical frame ladder Mast step Rudder Rudder post Reversing Side Tank Heel of . Main mast step wheel lever Bar keel Afterpeak Box boiler rudder post Cabin Donkey boiler. Bottom plate Cylinder Foundation Stern framing

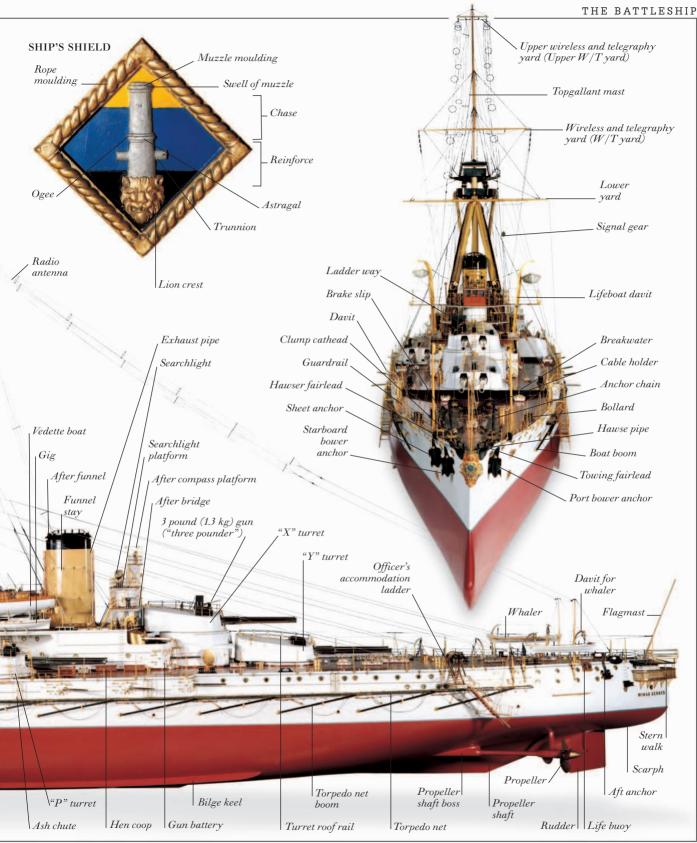
ANATOMY OF AN IRON SHIP



The battleship



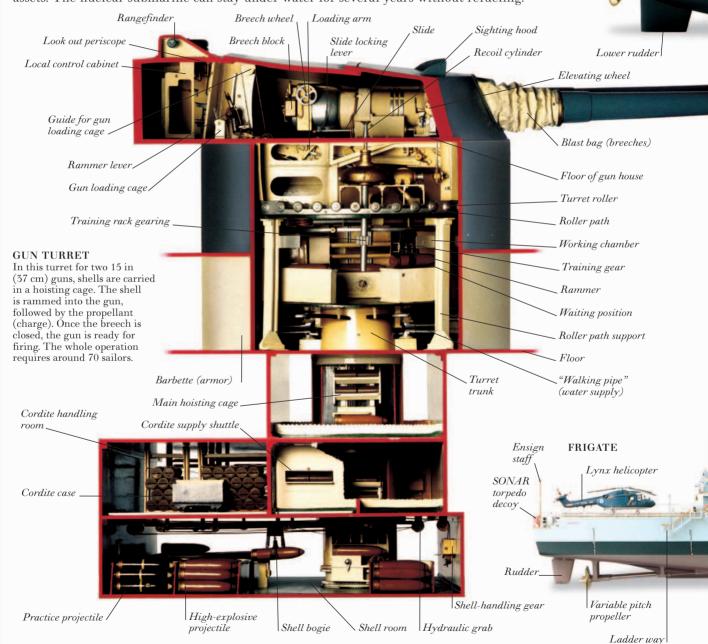
20TH CENTURY WEAPONRY

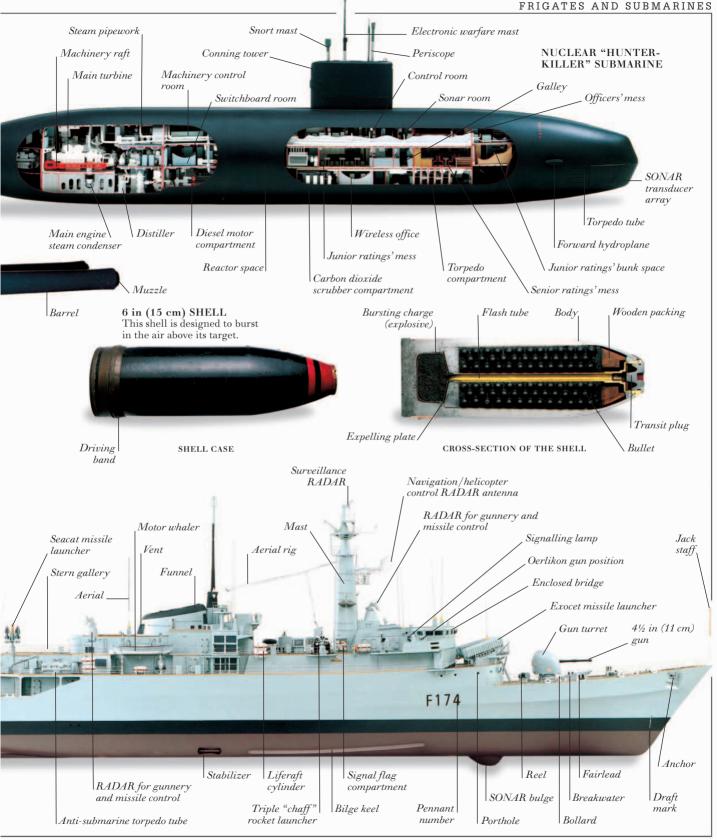


Frigates and submarines

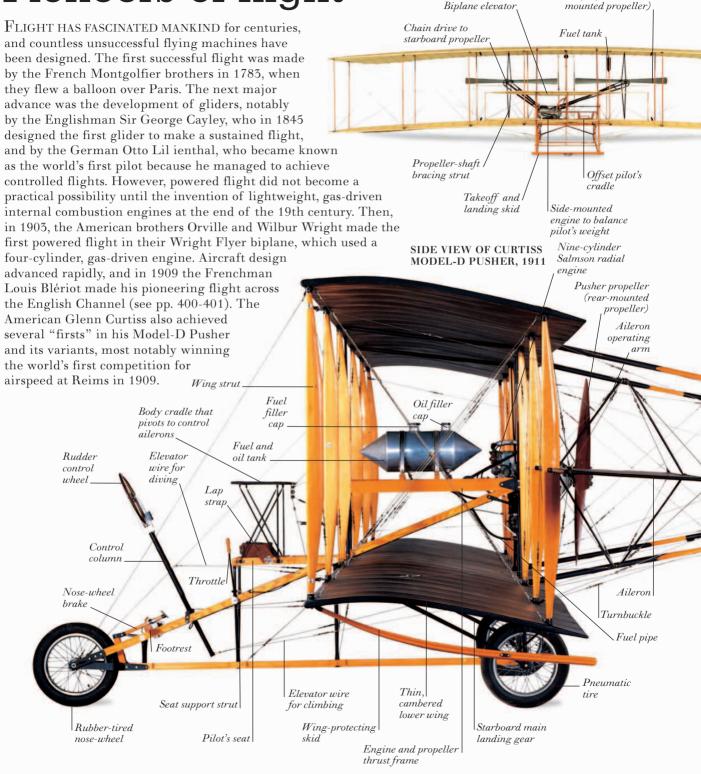
FROM THE MID-19TH CENTURY, ARMORED SHIPS provided a new challenge to enemy craft. In response, huge revolving gun turrets were developed. These could fire in any direction, could be loaded from the breech very rapidly, and, instead of cannonballs, Aft hydroplane they discharged exploding shells. Modern fighting ships, like the frigate, combine heavy Propeller ship-borne armament with light helicopter weaponry. Submarines function below the surface of the sea. Their speed and ability to fire missiles from under water are their major assets. The nuclear submarine can stay under water for several years without refueling.

Stabilizer fin



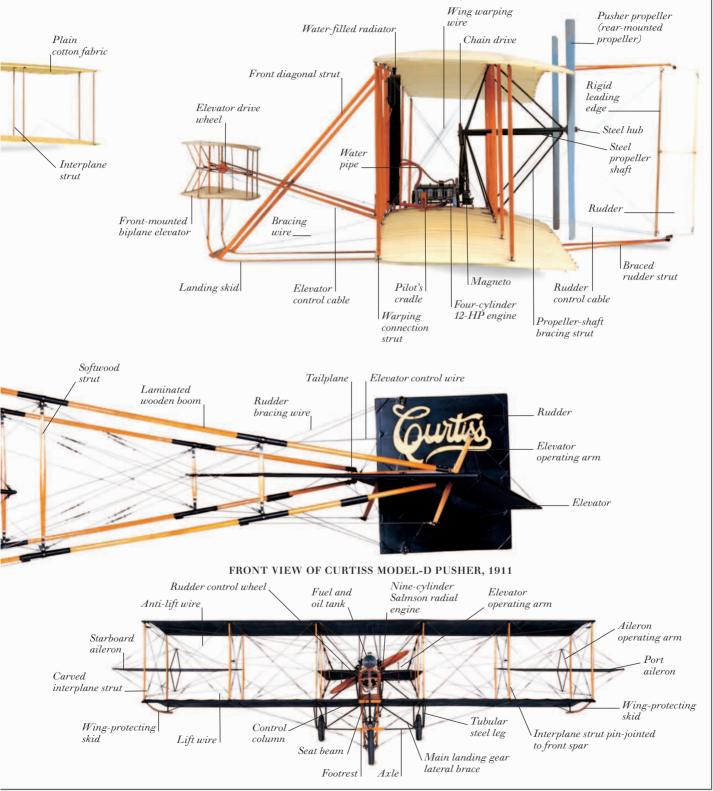


Pioneers of flight



FRONT VIEW OF WRIGHT FLYER, 1903

Pusher propeller (rear-



SIDE VIEW OF WRIGHT FLYER, 1903

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SEA AND AIR
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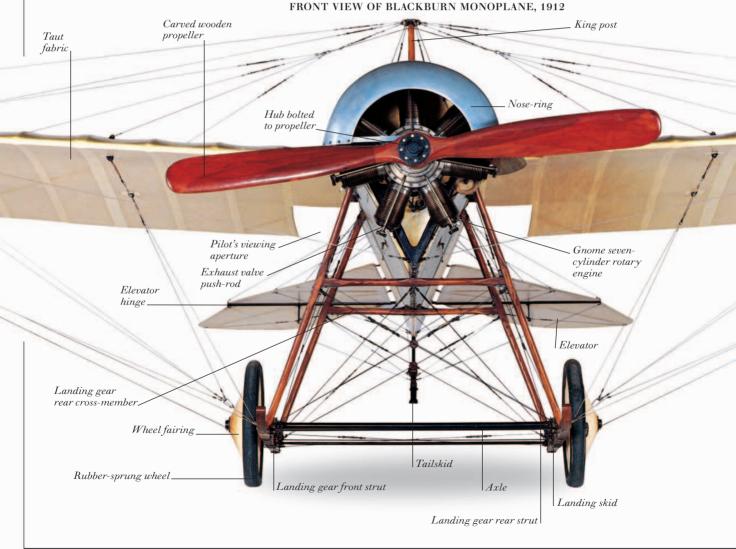
Early monoplanes



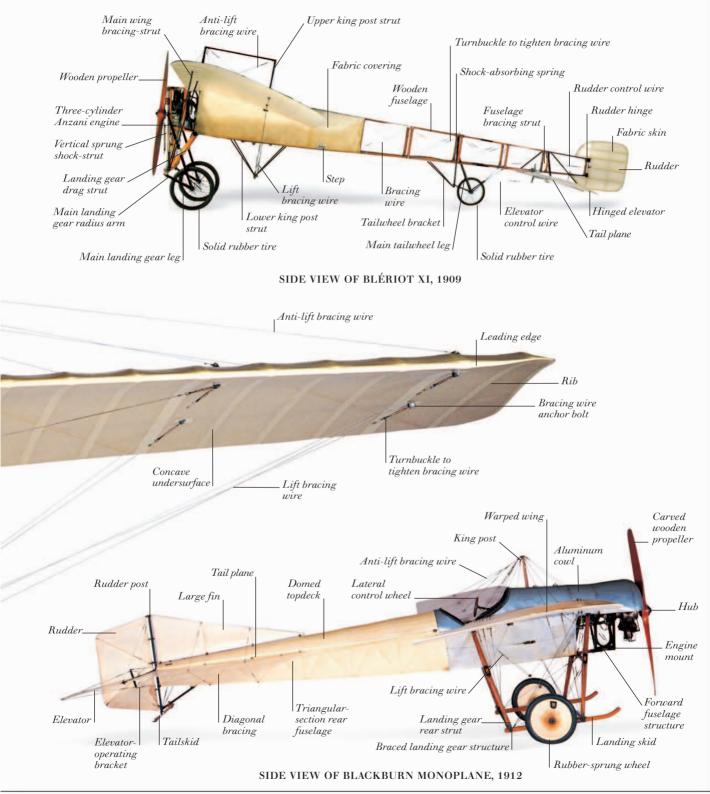
RUMPLER MONOPLANE, 1908

MONOPLANES HAVE ONE WING on each side of the fuselage. The principal disadvantage of this arrangement in early, wooden-framed aircraft was that single wings were weak and required strong wires to brace them to king posts above and below the fuselage. However, single wings also had advantages: they experienced less drag than multiple wings, allowing greater speed; they also made aircraft more manoeuvrable because single wings were easier to warp (twist) than double wings, and warping the wings was how pilots controlled the roll of early aircraft. By 1912, the French pilot Louis Blériot had

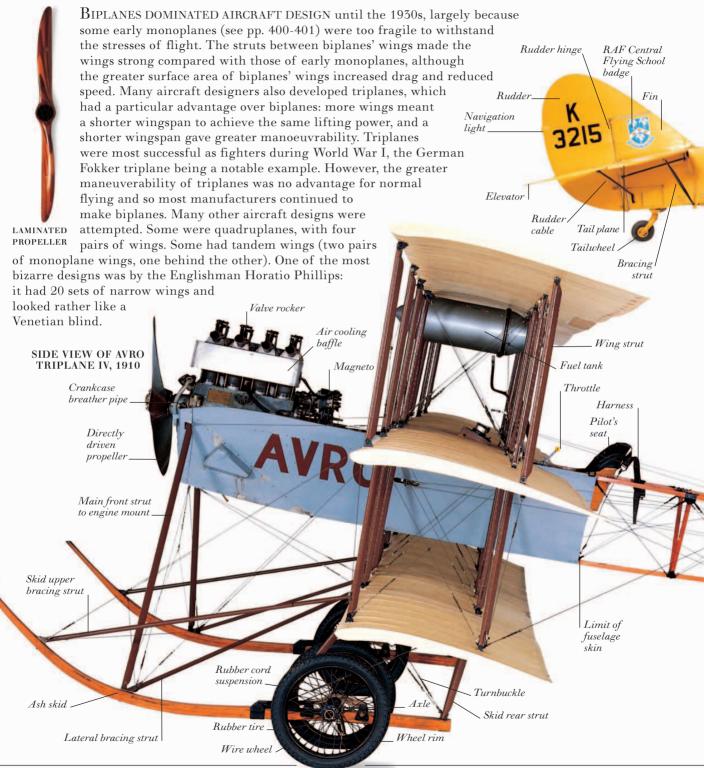
used a monoplane to make the first flight across the English Channel, and the Briton Robert Blackburn and the Frenchman Armand Deperdussin had proved the greater speed of monoplanes. However, a spate of crashes caused by broken wings discouraged monoplane production, except in Germany, where all-metal monoplanes were developed in 1917. The wings of all-metal monoplanes did not need strengthening by struts or bracing wires, but despite this, such planes were not widely adopted until the 1930s.

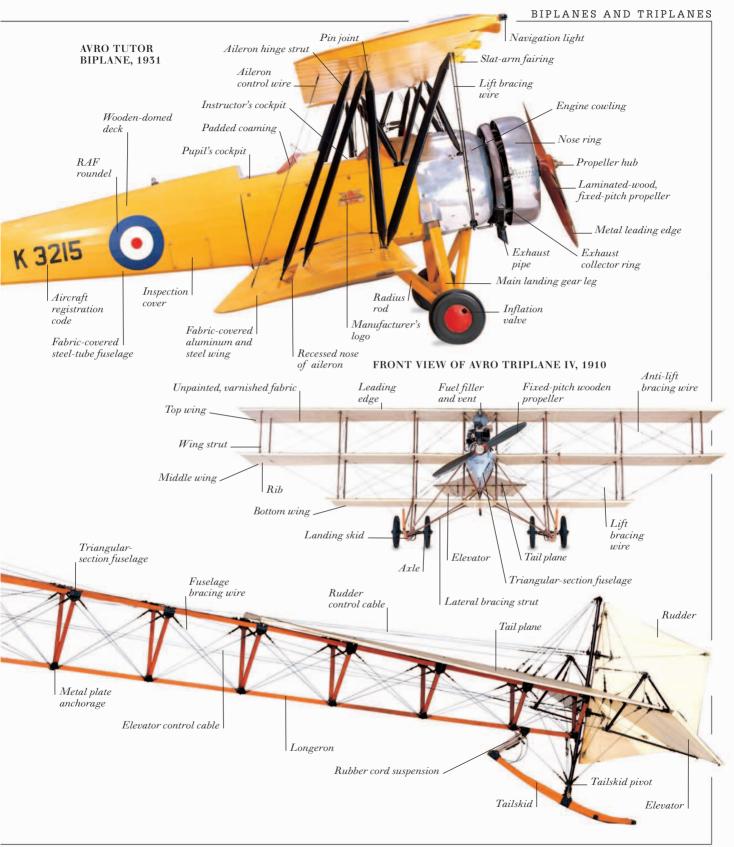


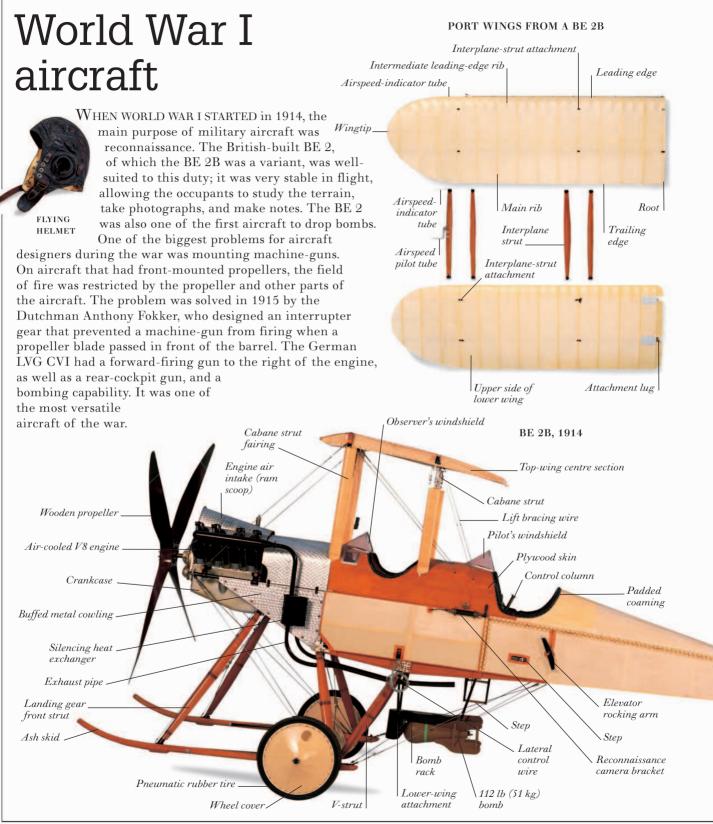
EARLY MONOPLANES



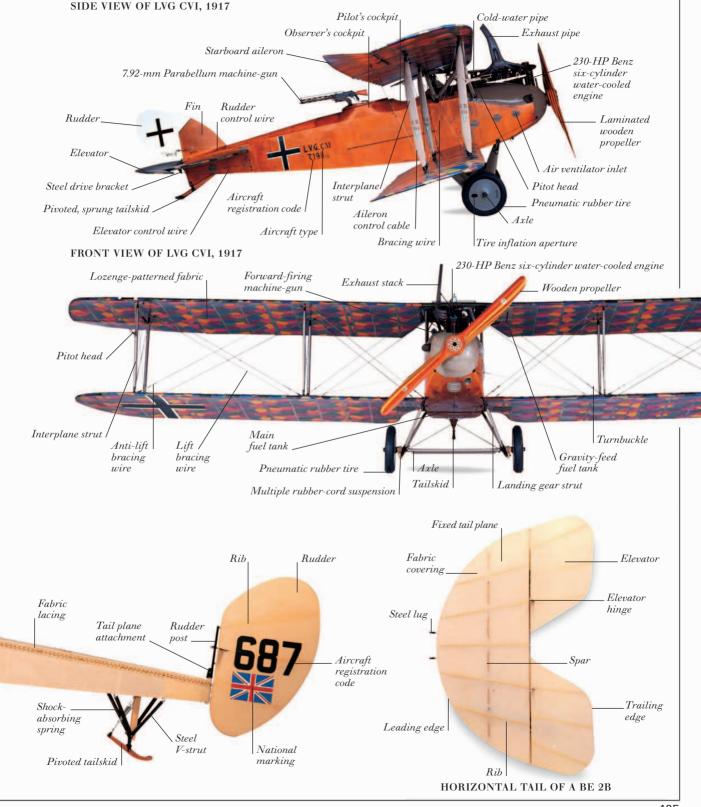
Biplanes and triplanes





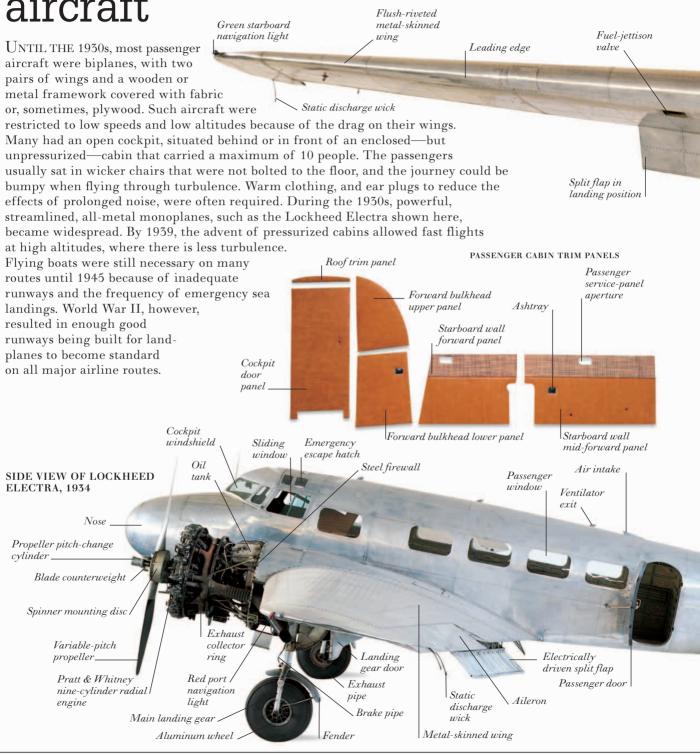


WORLD WAR I AIRCRAFT

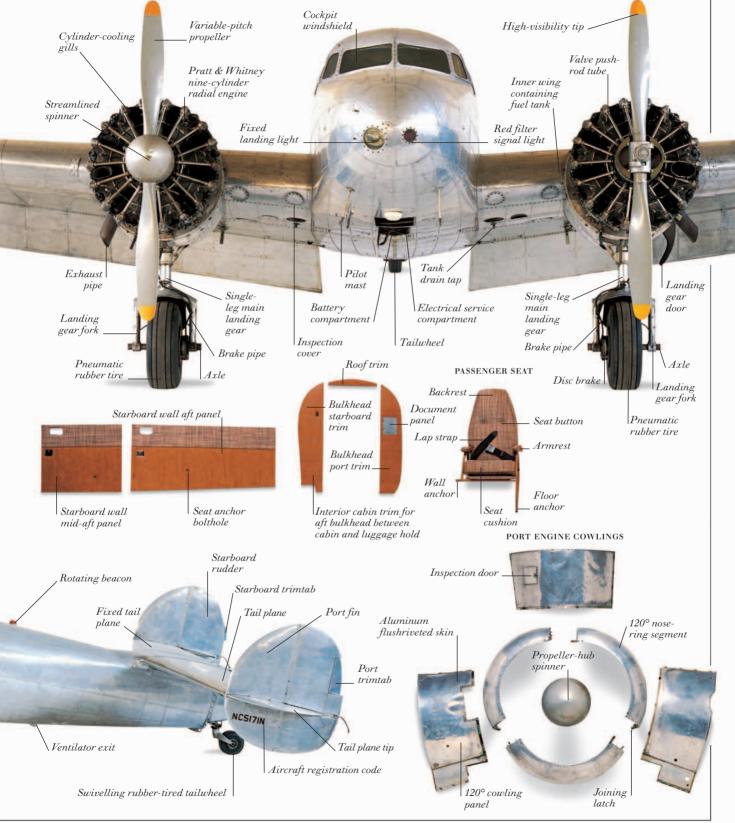


Early passenger aircraft

FRONT VIEW OF LOCKHEED ELECTRA, 1934



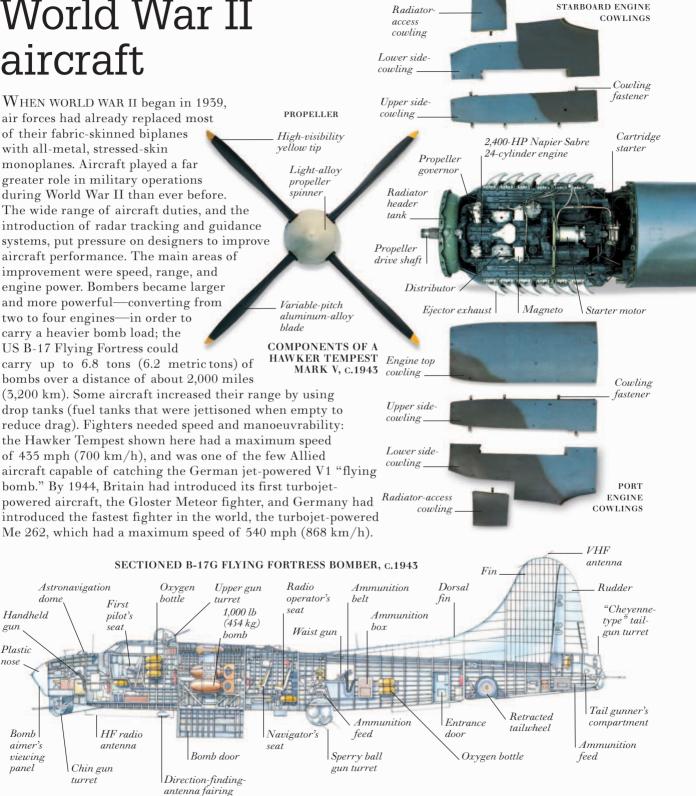
EARLY PASSENGER AIRCRAFT



World War II aircraft

WHEN WORLD WAR II began in 1939, air forces had already replaced most of their fabric-skinned biplanes with all-metal. stressed-skin monoplanes. Aircraft played a far greater role in military operations during World War II than ever before. The wide range of aircraft duties, and the introduction of radar tracking and guidance systems, put pressure on designers to improve aircraft performance. The main areas of improvement were speed, range, and engine power. Bombers became larger and more powerful-converting from two to four engines-in order to carry a heavier bomb load; the US B-17 Flying Fortress could carry up to 6.8 tons (6.2 metric tons) of

(3.200 km). Some aircraft increased their range by using drop tanks (fuel tanks that were jettisoned when empty to reduce drag). Fighters needed speed and manoeuvrability: the Hawker Tempest shown here had a maximum speed of 435 mph (700 km/h), and was one of the few Allied aircraft capable of catching the German jet-powered V1 "flying bomb." By 1944, Britain had introduced its first turbojetpowered aircraft, the Gloster Meteor fighter, and Germany had introduced the fastest fighter in the world, the turbojet-powered Me 262, which had a maximum speed of 540 mph (868 km/h).



dome

Handheld

gun

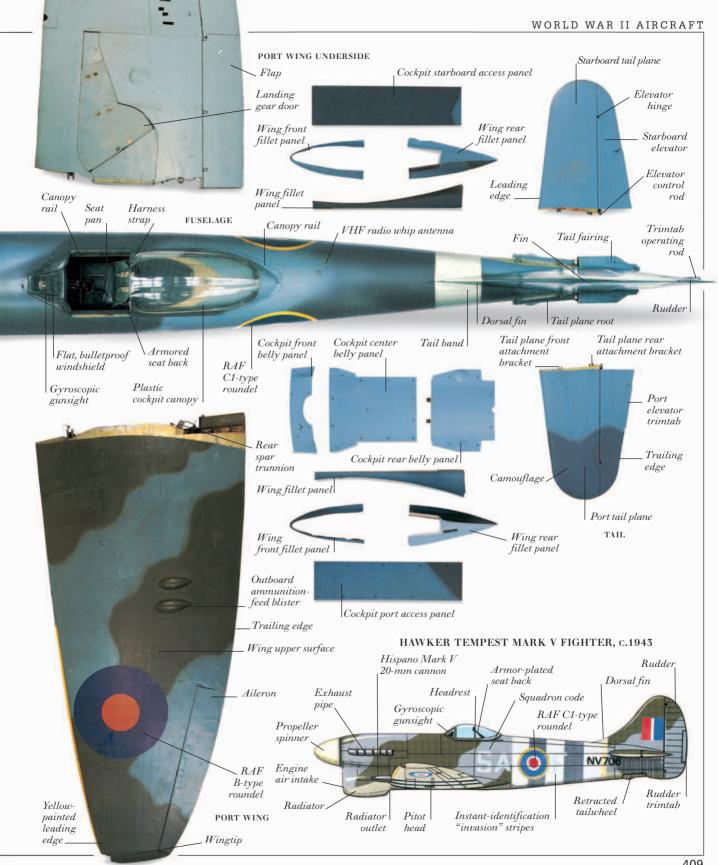
Plastic nose

Bomb

aimer's

viewing

panel



Modern piston aero-engines

PISTON ENGINES today are used mainly to power the vast numbers of light aircraft and microlights, as well as small helicopters, and firebombers (which dump water on large fires). Virtually all

MID WEST TWO-STROKE. THREE-CYLNDER ENGINE

heavier aircraft are now powered by jet engines. Modern piston aero-engines work on the same basic principles as the engine used by the Wright brothers in the first powered flight in 1903. However, today's engines are more sophisticated than earlier engines. Propeller For example, modern drive flange aero-engines may use a two-stroke or a four-stroke combustion cycle; they may have from one to nine air- or water-cooled cylinders, which may be arranged horizontally,

in-line, in V formation, or radially; and they may drive the aircraft's propeller either directly or through a reduction gearbox. One of the more unconventional types of modern aero-engine is the rotary engine shown here, which has a trilobate (three-sided) rotor spinning in a chamber shaped like a fat figure-eight.

crop-sprayers and crop-dusters,

Reduction

Driven gear

Sprag

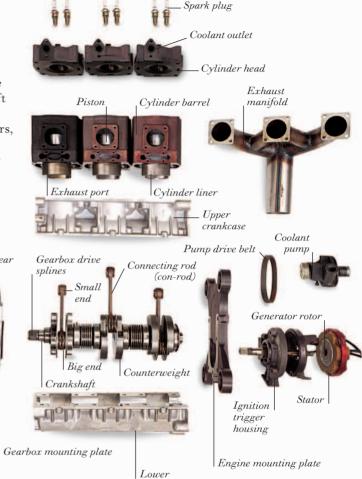
clutch

gearbox

Torsional

vibration

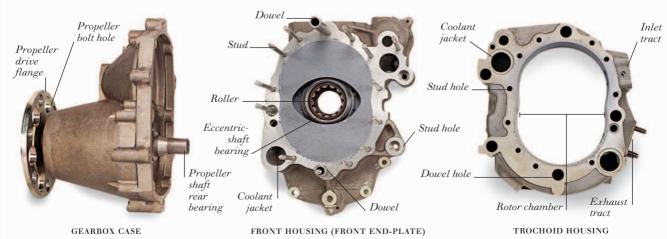
damper

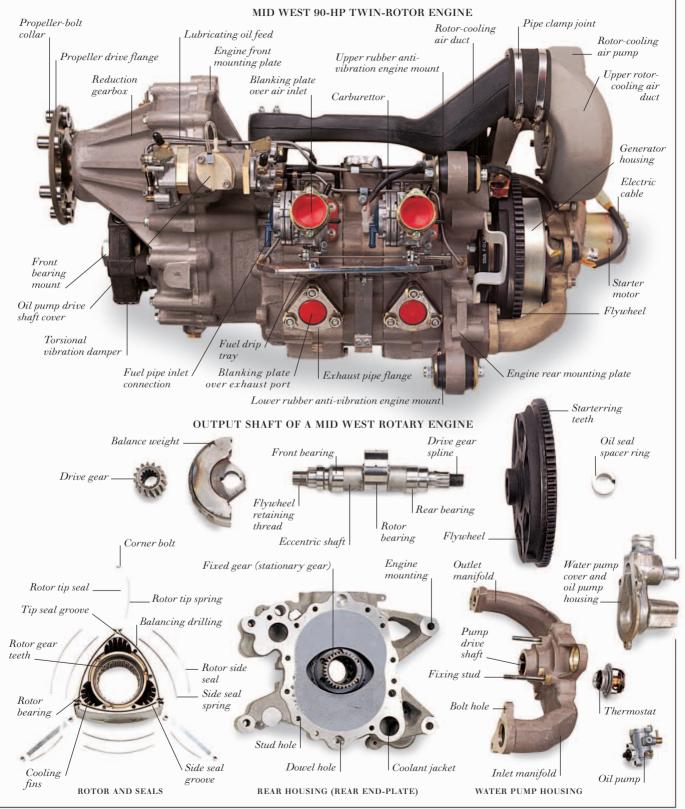


crankcase

ROTOR AND HOUSINGS OF A MID WEST SINGLE-ROTOR ENGINE

MID WEST 75-HP TWO-STROKE, THREE-CYLINDER ENGINE





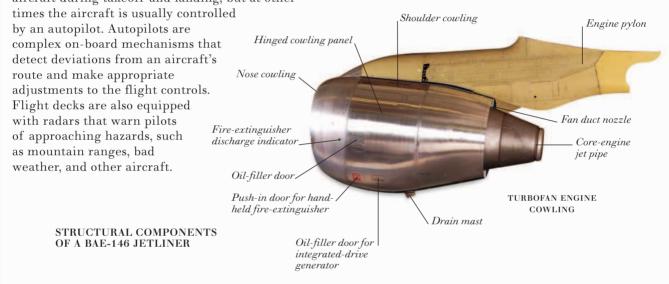
Modern jetliners 1

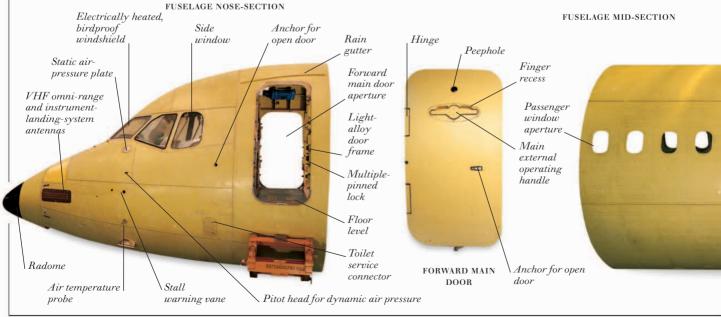


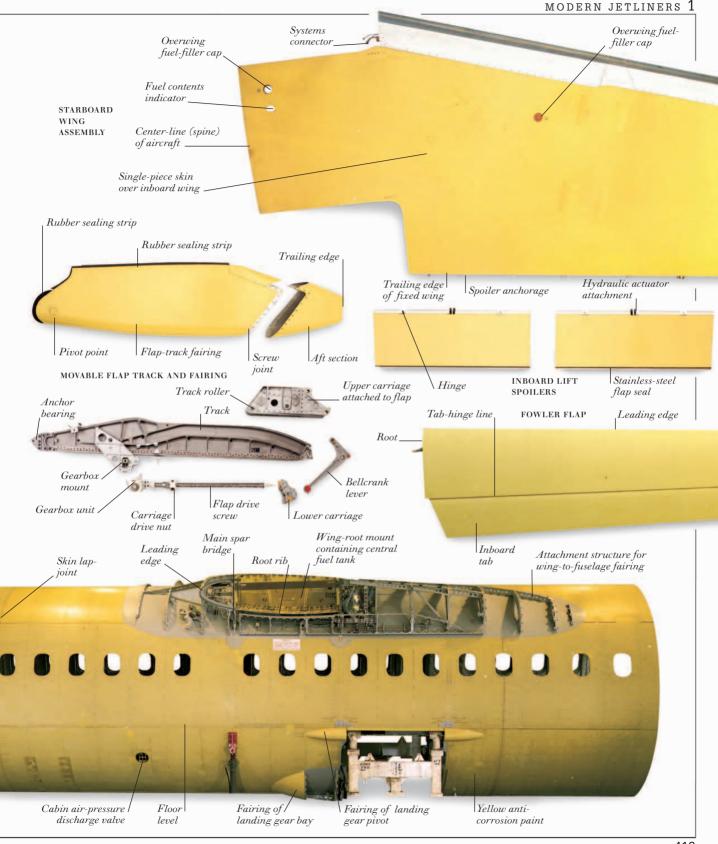
BAE-146 JETLINER

MODERN JETLINERS HAVE ENABLED ordinary people to travel to places where once only the wealthy could afford to go. Compared with the first jetliners (which were introduced in the 1940s), modern ones are much quieter, burn fuel more efficiently, and produce less air pollution. These advances are largely due

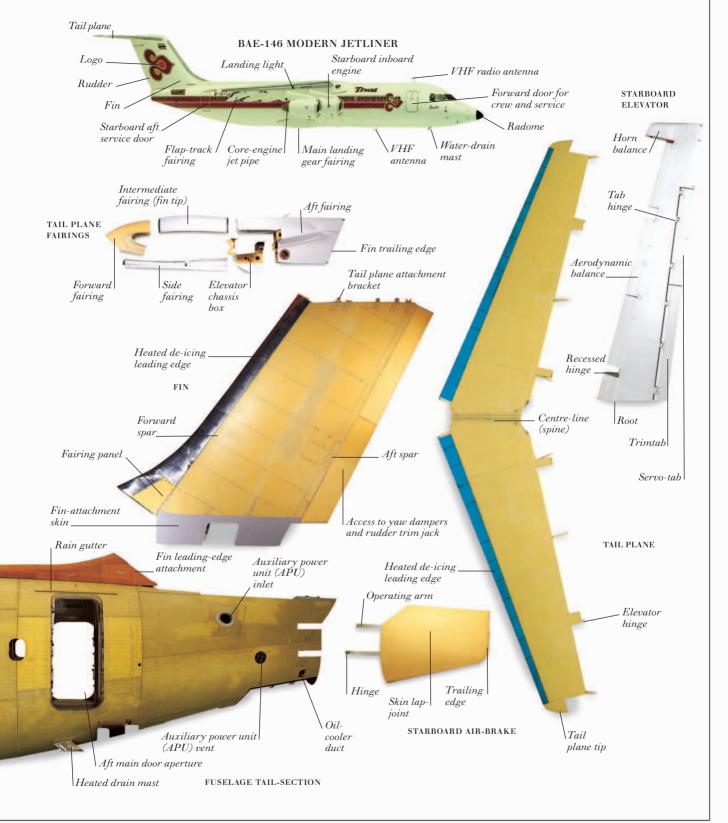
to the replacement of turbojet engines with turbofan engines (see pp. 418-419). The greater power of turbofan engines at low speeds enables modern jetliners to carry more fuel and passengers than turbojet aircraft; a modern Boeing 747-400 (popularly known as a "jumbo jet") can fly 400 people for 8,500 miles (13,700 km) without needing to refuel. Jetliners fly at high altitudes, typically cruising at 26,000-36,000 ft (8000-11,000 m), where they can use fuel efficiently and usually avoid bad weather. The pilot always controls the aircraft during takeoff and landing, but at other







Modern jetliners 2 Landing and taxiing light STARBOARD WING Heated de-icing leading edge Roll-spoiler hinge Roll-spoiler hydraulic actuator attachment Fixed trailing edge Aileron hinge Starboard navigation light Hinge. Hinge Hydraulic actuator attachment Spoiler arm bracket Aerodynamic Horn balance balance Recessed hinge. Flap INTERMEDIATE AILERON OUTBOARD ROLL SPOILER LIFT SPOILER seal MAIN FOWLER FLAP Trimtab Leading edge Servo-tab Flap tip Static discharge wick attachment Tab-hinge line FUSELAGE SPINE FAIRING Outboard tab Finger Hydraulic brake pipe Landing gear recess Hot-air de-icing duct Peephole Main pivot door Skin lap-joint Electrical harness Oleo Passenger lock-jack window aperture Direction Lightbar Main alloy beam external Brake operating Hinge pipe handle Shock-strut bearing Pneumatic Side brace tire Outer and retraction Hinge wheel jack trunnions axle Lower pivot Pivoted. Hydraulic trailing-Wheel hub, link arm brake pipe Anchor for open door Cabin air-STARBOARD TWIN-WHEEL MAIN LANDING GEAR AFT MAIN DOOR discharge aperture



Supersonic jetliners



COMPUTER-DESIGNED SST

Strake SUPERSONIC AIRCRAFT FLY FASTER than the speed of sound (Mach 1). There are many supersonic military aircraft, but only two supersonic passenger-carrying aircraft (also called SSTs, or supersonic transports) have been produced: the Russian Tu-144, and the Concorde, produced jointly by Britain and France. The Tu-144 was withdrawn in 1978, after only seven months in service. The Concorde remained in service from 1976 until 2003, with a Inhoard Starboard elevonbreak for modifications from July 2000 until October 2001. Its outboard iack features included a droop nose, which lowered during takeoff engine air-intake fairing and landing to aid visibility from the cockpit; the pumping of fuel between forward FRONT OF THE CONCORDE and aft trim tanks helped stabilize the aircraft. The Concorde had a narrow fuselage and shortspan wings to reduce drag during supersonic flight. Its noisy turbojet engines

with afterburners enabled it to carry 100 passengers at a cruising speed of Mach 2 at 50,000-60,000 ft (15,000-18,000 m). Once an aircraft is flying faster than Mach 1, it produces a continuous air-pressure wave, which is heard as a "sonic boom."

Electrothermal deicing panel Starboard

Landing gear door.

Bogie main landing gear

forward trim tank

Fin

Vose

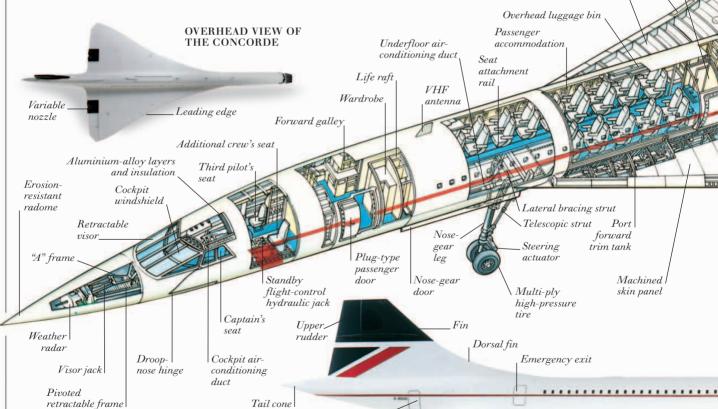
gear

leg

Standby

Toilets

pitot head



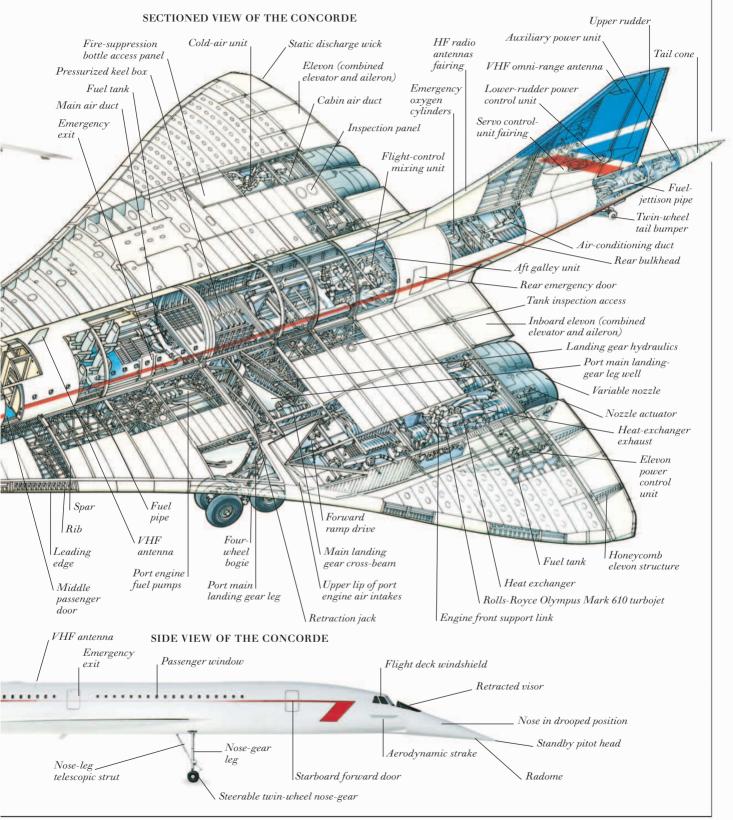
Aft door

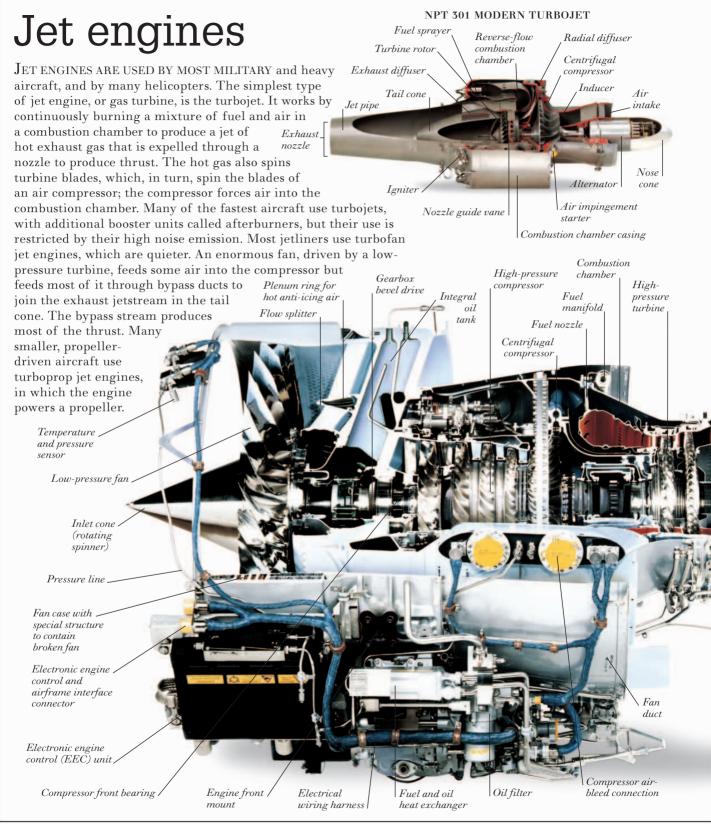
Hot-section steel and titanium skin

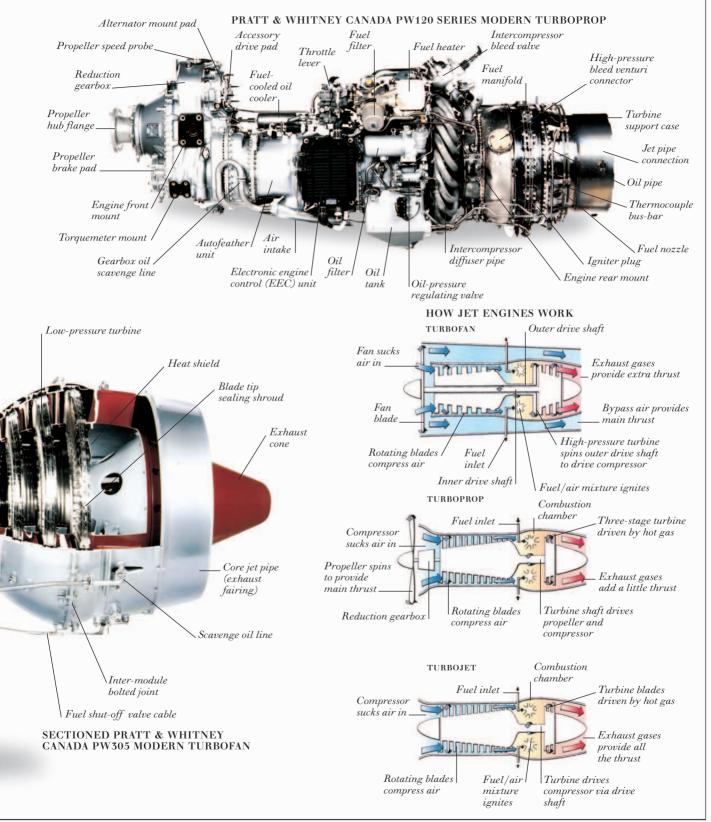
Engine cowling

Elevon (combined elevator and aileron)

SUPERSONIC JETLINERS



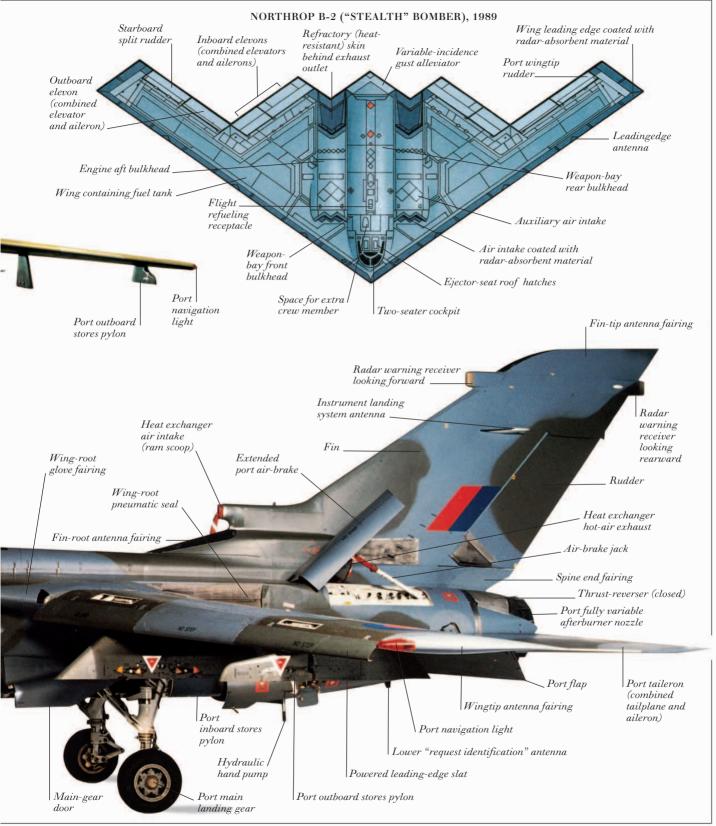




Modern military aircraft

FRONT VIEW OF A MODERN MILITARY AIRCRAFT ARE AMONG THE MOST SOPHISTICATED and expensive PANAVIA TORNADO products of the 21st century. Fighters need computer-operated controls for maneuverability, powerful engines, and effective air-to-air weapons. Most modern Instrument landing system fighters also have guided missiles, radar, and passive, infrared sensors. These antenna developments enable today's fighters to engage in combat with adversaries that are outside visual range. Bombers carry a large weapon load and enough Birdproof fuel for long-range flights. A few military aircraft, such as the Tornado and Port variablewindshield incidence the F-14 Tomcat, have variable-sweep ("swing") wings. During takeoff Air data air intake and landing their wings are fully extended, but for high-speed probe Wing-root flight and low-level attacks the wings are pivoted fully back. A glove fairing recent development is the "stealth" bomber, which is designed to absorb or deflect enemy radar in order to remain undetected. Earlier bombers, such as the Tornado, use terrain-following radars to fly so close to Starboard the ground that they avoid enemy radar detection. inhoard Taileron stores pylon Starboard main landing gear door Wing extended Wing pivoted Main landing gear leg for takeoff and back for high-Radome speed flight landing containing Laser ranger and ground-mapping. marked-target seeker attack, and terrainfollowing radars Starboard nose gear door Steerable twin-wheel nose gear Taxiing light SWING-WING F-14 TOMCAT FIGHTER Navigator's Single canopy over both Pilot's cockpits cockpit SIDE VIEW OF A PANAVIA TORNADO GR1A cockpit Navigator's Engine air intake (RECONNAISSANCE VERSION), 1986 instrument console Navigation light Flat, birdproof windshield High-velocity air duct to disperse rain Upper "request identification" antenna Air data probe Radome containing ground-mapping, Pitot Hinged auxiliary UHF antenna attack, and terrainread air intake Nose gear following radars Angle-of-attack probe door Cold air intake (ram scoop) Tacan (tactical air navigation) antenna Steerable *Heat exchanger exhaust duct* nose gear leg Twin Emergency canopy release handle Window covering infrared reconnaissance camera wheel

MODERN MILITARY AIRCRAFT

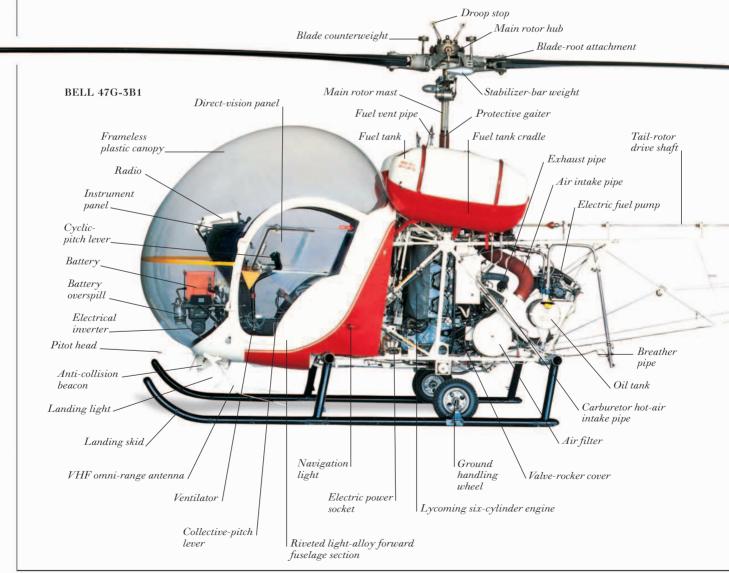


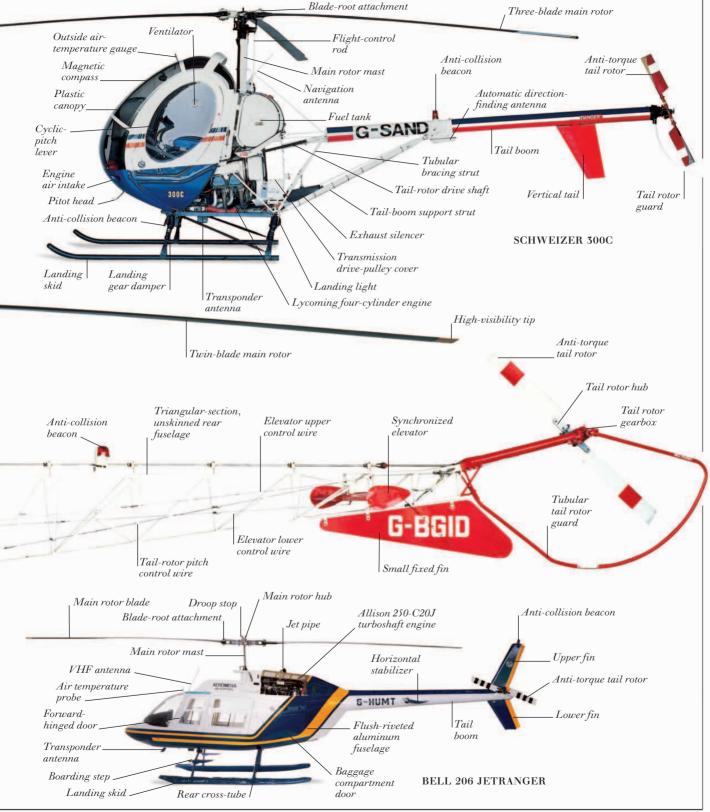
Helicopters



HELICOPTERS USE ROTATING BLADES for lift, propulsion, and steering. The first machine to achieve sustained, controlled flight using rotating blades was the autogiro built in the 1920s by the Spaniard Juan de la Cierva. His machine had unpowered blades above the fuselage that relied on the flow of air to rotate them and provide lift as the autogiro was driven forward by a conventional propeller. Then, in 1939, the Russian-born American Igor Sikorsky produced his VS-300, the forerunner of modern helicopters. Its engine-driven blades provided lift, propulsion, and steering. It could take off vertically, hover, and fly in any direction, and had a tail rotor to prevent the helicopter body from spinning. The introduction of gas turbine jet engines to helicopters in 1955 produced quieter, safer, and more powerful machines. Because of their versatility in flight,

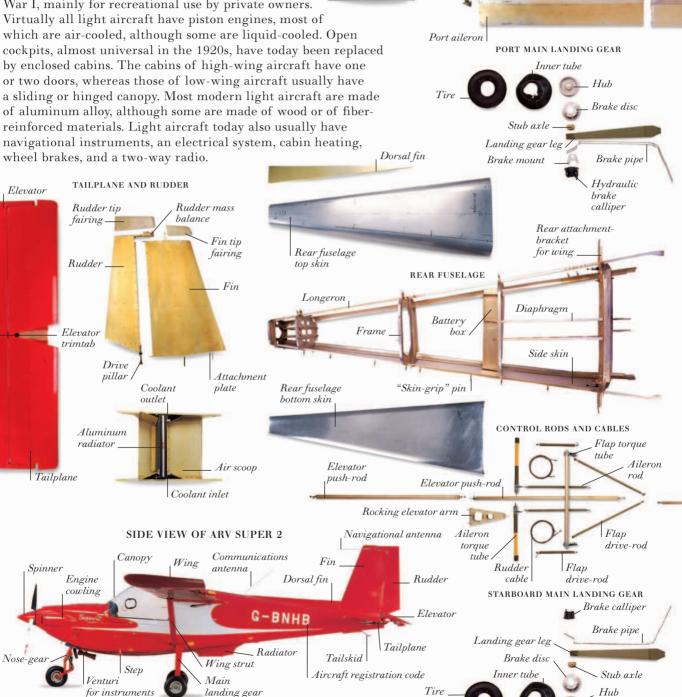
helicopters are today used for many purposes, including crop spraying, traffic surveillance, and transporting crews to deep-sea oil rigs, as well as acting as gunships, air ambulances, and air taxis.





Light aircraft

LIGHT AIRCRAFT, SUCH AS THE ARV SUPER 2 shown here, are small, lightweight, and of simple construction. More than a million have been built since World War I, mainly for recreational use by private owners.

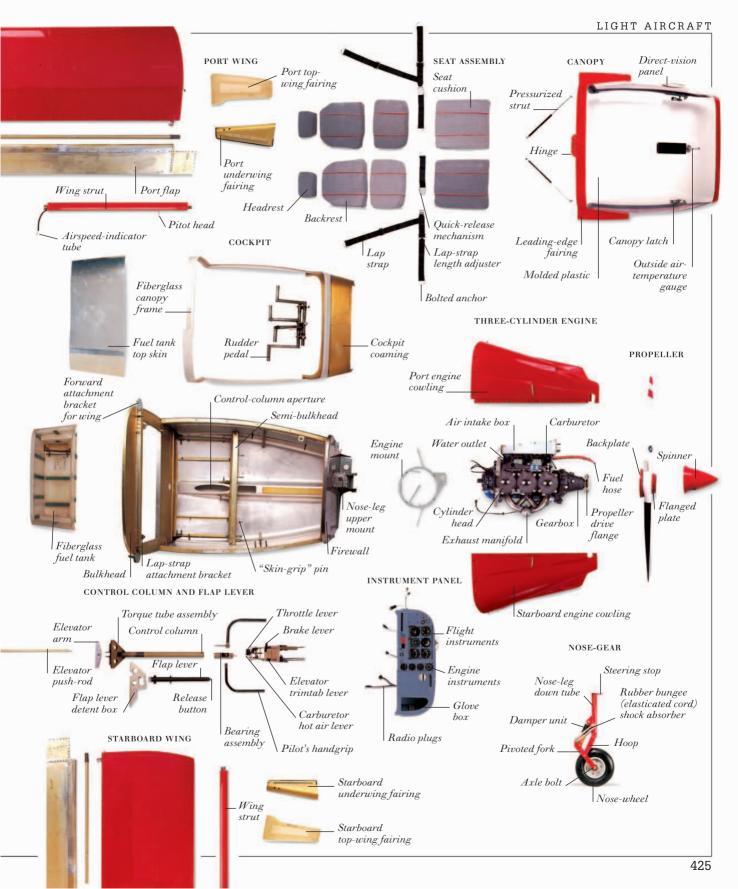


Port wingtip

Aileron

mass balance

Aileron torque tube ____



Gliders, hang-gliders, and ultralights

MODERN GLIDERS ARE AMONG the most graceful and aerodynamically efficient of all aircraft. Unpowered but with a large wingspan (up to about 82 ft, or 25 m), gliders use currents of hot, rising air (thermals) to stay aloft, and a rudder, elevators, and ailerons for control. Modern gliders have achieved flights of more

NOSE SHELL

Aner

Apex wire

Nose shell

Fixed nose wheel

PEGASUS XL SE

Nose-gear

mount

ULTRALIGHT

Grommet for front pylon strut

King post

Instrument

panel

HANG-GLIDER

and altitudes above 49,000 ft (15,000 m). Hang-gliders consist of a simple frame across which rigid or flexible material is stretched to form Stiffening rib the wings. The pilot is suspended below the wings in a harness or body bag and, gripping a triangular Center-line beam A-frame, steers by shifting weight from side to side. Like gliders, hang-gliders rely on thermals for lift. Main suspension Ultralights are basically powered hang-gliders. Rear-mounted A small engine and an open fiberglass car (trike), propeller which can hold a crew of two, are suspended (pusher propeller) beneath a stronger version of a hang-glider frame; the frame may have rigid or flexible wings. Ultralight pilots, like hang-glider pilots, steer by shifting their weight against an A-frame. Ultralights can reach speeds of up to 100 mph (160 kph).

than 900 miles (1.450 km)

fairing) Trailing edge End of rib. HANG-GLIDER BODY BAG Clip-in latch for pilot Shoulder Layers of insulating fabric strap Dacron skin SCHLEICHER K23 GLIDER Body bag Down-turned wingtip acts as skid Camera pouch Armhole Tailplane Aileron Hinged Shoulder pad Single pilot Radio elevator cockpit Aluminum antenna air brake T-type Forward-opening canopy cantilevered fin Towing hook Rudder Nose wheel Fuselage of Nonretractable Tailwheel fiberglass and main wheel foam layers

Fuel

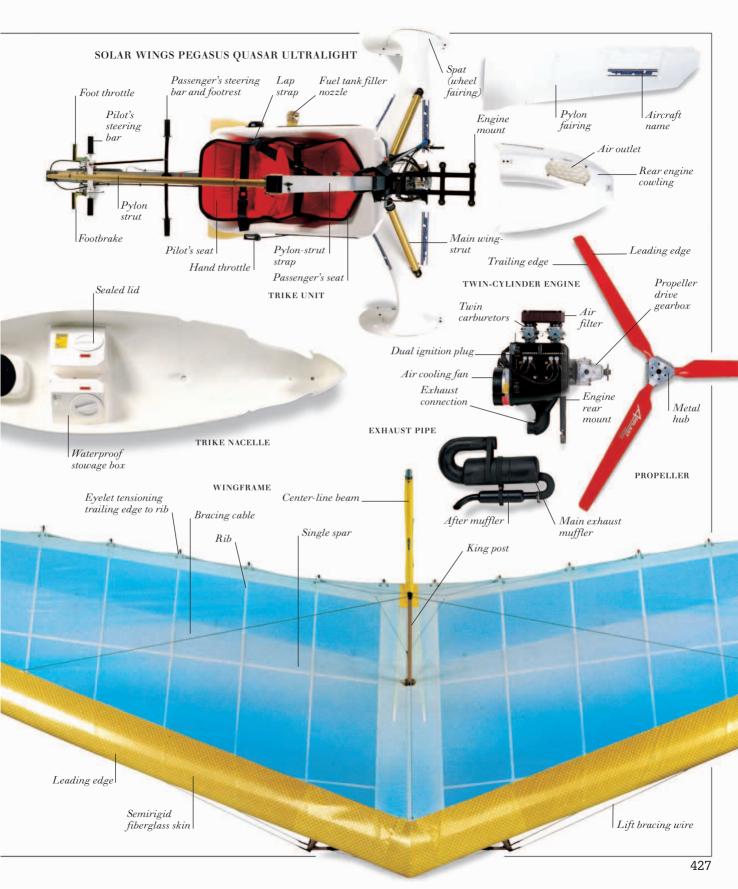
tank

Spat

. wheel

Main wheel

Trike nacelle







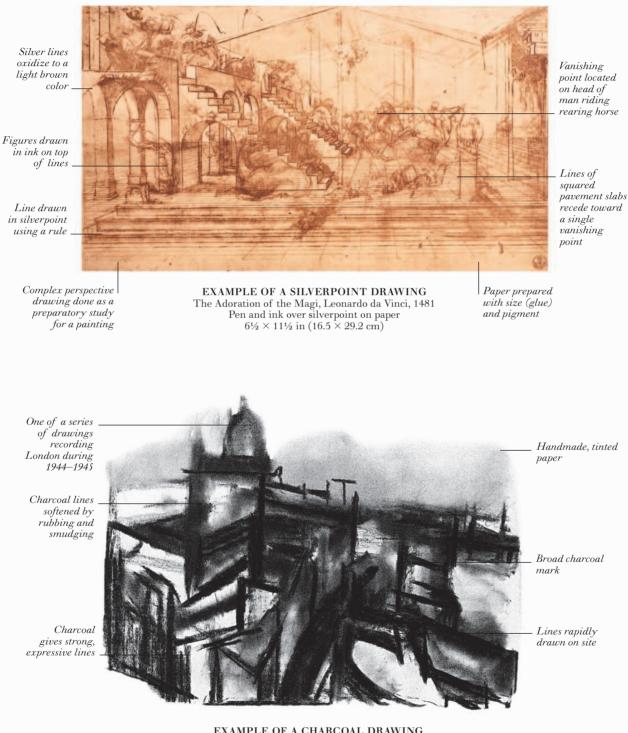
The Visual Arts

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ACRYLICS 442
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PRINTMAKING 2 448
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Sculpture 1452
Sculpture 2454



FIXATIVE AND MOUTH DIFFUSER

Drawing No DRAWINGS CAN BE FINISHED WORKS OF ART, or preparatory studies for Hinge paintings and other visual arts. They can be made using a wide variety of drawing instruments such as pencils, graphite sticks, chalks, charcoal, pens and inks, and silver wires. The most common drawing instrument is the graphite pencil. A graphite pencil consists of a thin rod of graphite mixed with clay, encased in wood. Charcoal is one of the oldest drawing instruments. It is produced by firing twigs of willow, vine, or other Liquid fixative woods at high temperatures in airtight containers. Erasers can be consisting used to rub out marks made by drawing materials such as graphite of dissolved pencils or charcoal, or to achieve a particular effect-such as resin smudging. Fixative is often applied—using a mouth diffuser or aerosol spray fixative-to prevent smudging once a Fixative is sucked. into tube and drawing is finished. Silver lines can be produced by spraved on to drawing silver wire across specially prepared drawing CHALK, CRAYON, AND CHARCOAL paper—a technique known as silverpoint. The Calcite (calcium lines are permanent and cannot carbonate) mixed be erased. In time, the silver Hard with pigment texture lines oxidize and turn brown. ERASERS BLUE CHALK Medium-soft. PLASTIC DRAWING INSTRUMENTS light line ERASER Iron oxide mixed with chalk Soft SANGUINE **2B GRAPHITE** terture CRAYON Carbonized PENCIL Very soft, wood dark line PUTTY ERASER WILLOW CHARCOAL DRAWING MATERIALS **8B GRAPHITE** Graphite stick Bulldog PENCIL clin Colored pencil SILVER WIRE IN A METAL HOLDER DRAWING BOARD Dip pen Drawing board Paper Sketch Pencil Ink book sharpener Drawing bottle clip 430



EXAMPLE OF A CHARCOAL DRAWING St. Paul's and the River, David Bomberg, 1945 Charcoal on paper $20 \times 25 \frac{1}{8}$ in $(50.8 \times 65.8 \text{ cm})$

Tempera



ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPT

in which pigment is tempered (mixed) with a water-based binding medium—usually egg yolk. Egg tempera is applied to a smooth surface such as vellum (for illuminated manuscripts) or more commonly to hardwood panels prepared with gesso-a mixture of chalk and size (glue). Hog hair brushes are used to apply the gesso. A layer of gesso grosso (coarse gesso) is followed by

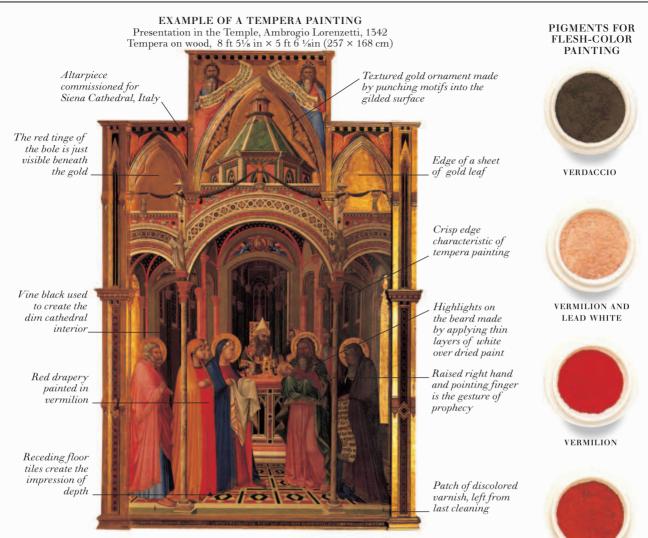
successive layers of gesso sotile (fine gesso) that are sanded between coats to provide a smooth, yet absorbent ground. The paint is applied with fine sable brushes in thin layers, using light brushstrokes. Tempera dries quickly to form a tough skin with a satin sheen. The luminous white surface of the gesso combined with the overlaid paint produces the brilliant crispness and rich colors particular to this medium. Egg tempera paintings are frequently gilded with gold. Leaves of finely beaten gold are applied to a bole (reddishbrown clay) base and polished by burnishing.

MATERIALS FOR TEMPERA PANEL PAINTING





Agate tip



EXAMPLES OF PIGMENTS



MALACHITE



VINE BLACK



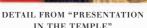
ULTRAMARINE LAPIS LAZULI



LEAD TIN YELLOW

Warm flesh tones achieved by layering vermilion and white over an undercoat of verdaccio

Ultramarine lapis lazuli, as costly as gold, was reserved for significant figures such as the Virgin Mary



Craquelure (pattern of cracks in

Patterned gold

candlelight

IN THE TEMPLE"

halo glitters in

RED EARTH

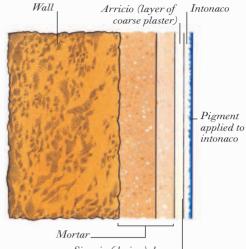
(IRON OXIDE)

the paint)

CROSS-SECTION SHOWING FRESCO LAYERS

Fresco

FRESCO IS A METHOD OF WALL PAINTING. In buon fresco (true fresco), pigments are mixed with water and applied to an intonaco (layer of fresh, damp lime-plaster). The intonaco absorbs and binds the pigments as it dries making the picture a permanent part of the wall surface. The intonaco is applied in sections called giornate (daily sections). The size of each giornata depends on the artist's estimate of how much can be painted before the plaster sets. The junctions between giornate are sometimes visible on a finished fresco. The range of colors used in buon fresco are limited to lime-resistant pigments such as earth colors (below). Slaked lime (burnt lime mixed with water), bianco di San Giovanni (slaked lime that has been partly exposed to air), and chalk can be used to produce fresco whites. In fresco secco (dry fresco), pigments are mixed with a binding medium and applied to dry plaster. The pigments are not completely absorbed into the plaster and may flake off over time.



Sinopia (design) drawn on surface of arricio

EXAMPLES OF EARTH COLOR PIGMENTS



 $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{EXAMPLE OF A FRESCO} \\ \text{The Expulsion of the Merchants from the Temple, Giotto, c.1306} \\ \text{Fresco, 78 \times 72 in (200 \times 185 cm)} \end{array}$

Temple acts as a backdrop for the action

Bianco di San Giovanni often used for fresco whites

Gold leaf applied to apostle's halo

Green earth pigment applied to robe

> Child painted on top of apostle's robe



Azurite blue applied in fresco secco has flaked off to reveal the plaster beneath

Dry, matte surface characteristic of buon fresco

Artist has to finish giornata before plaster dries

Junction between giornate

Paint applied in buon fresco to child's face

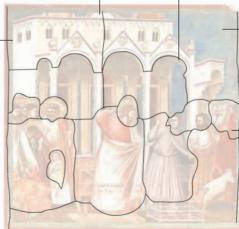
White dove represents the Holy Ghost

Paint applied in fresco secco to child's body has flaked off



DETAIL FROM "THE EXPULSION" A fresco was generally worked in zones from the top down

Sinopia (design) sketched in red earth



GIORNATE (DAILY SECTIONS) IN "THE EXPULSION"

One of a series of frescoes in the Arena Chapel, Padua, Italy

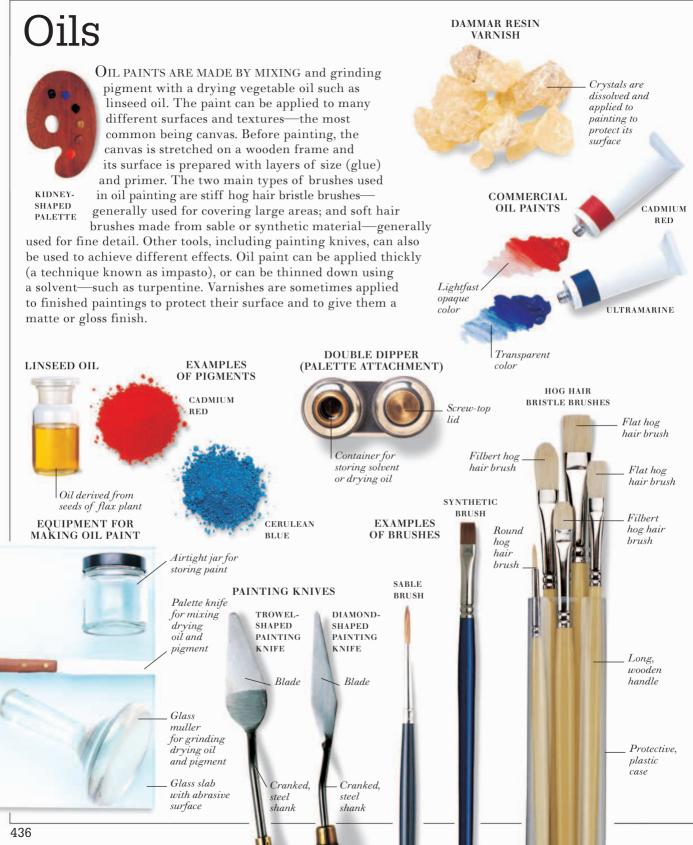
Patches of azurite blue have turned green due to reaction with carbon dioxide

Hairline junction between giornate is visible

Red earth pigment applied in buon fresco has retained rich hue

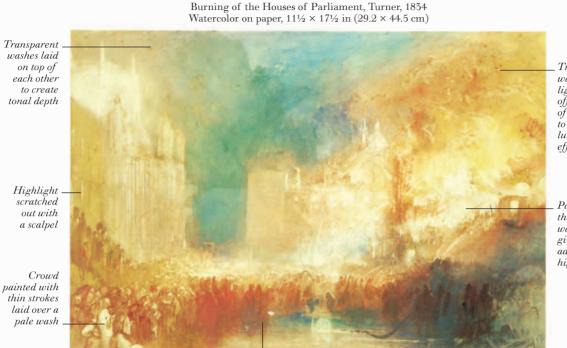
Area with little detail can be painted quickly, allowing a larger giornata to be completed

Highly detailed area takes a longer time to paint, restricting the size of the giornata









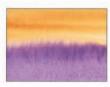
EXAMPLE OF A WATERCOLOR

Transparent washes allow light to reflect off the surface of the paper to give a luminous effect

Paper shows through thin wash to give flames added highlight



WASH OVER DRY BRUSH Wash laid over paint applied with dry brush gives two-tone effect



WET-IN-WET Two diluted washes left to run together to give fused effect

EXAMPLES OF WASHES

Undiluted paint applied, then partly washed out, to create the impression of water



GRADED WASH Strong wash applied to tilted paper gives graded effect

Secondary colors

made by mixing

Red (primary color)

red and yellow



DRY BRUSH Undiluted paint dragged across surface of paper gives broken effect

> ROUGH-TEXTURED PAPER

Secondary colours made by mixing yellow and blue

_ Blue (primary color)

Secondary colors made by mixing blue and red

EXAMPLES OF WATERCOLOR PAPERS

> SMOOTH-TEXTURED PAPER

MEDIUM-TEXTURED PAPER

COLOR WHEEL OF WATERCOLOR PAINTS

Yellow (primary color)

EOUIPMENT FOR MAKING PASTELS

Pastels

PASTELS ARE STICKS OF PIGMENT made by mixing ground pigment Glass muller with chalk and a binding medium, such as gum arabic. They Chalk vary in hardness depending on the proportion of the binding medium to the chalk. Soft pastel-the most common form of pastel-contains just enough binding medium to hold the pigment in stick form. Pastels can be applied directly to any support (surface) with sufficient tooth (texture). When a pastel is drawn over a textured surface, the pigment crumbles and lodges in the fibers of the support. Pastel marks have a Glass slab with Gum Ivory-black particular soft, matte quality and are suitable for techniques abrasive surface arabic pigment such as blending, scumbling, and feathering. Blending is a technique of rubbing and fusing two or more colors on the support using fingers or various tools such as tortillons EXAMPLES OF SOFT PASTELS (paper stumps), soft hair brushes, putty erasers, and soft bread. Scumbling is a technique of building up layers of pastel colors. The side or blunted tip of a soft pastel is lightly drawn over an underpainted area so that patches COBALT-BLUE HALF PASTEL of the color beneath show through. Feathering is a technique of applying parallel strokes of color with the point of a pastel, usually over an existing layer of pastel color. A thin spray of fixative can be appliedusing a mouth diffuser (see pp. 430-431) or aerosol spray fixative—to a finished pastel painting, or in between layers of color, to prevent smudging. VERMILION HALF PASTEL OLIVE-GREEN FULL PASTEL EQUIPMENT USED WITH PASTELS BOXED PASTEL SET Boxed set containing a mixture of portrait and landscape colors Foam BREAD PUTTY ERASER compartments protect the AEBOSOL SOFT pastels HAIR BRUSH SPRAY FIXATIVE TORTILLONS Soft pastel (PAPER STUMPS) Soft point . used for blending Wooden tray Tight roll _ of paper



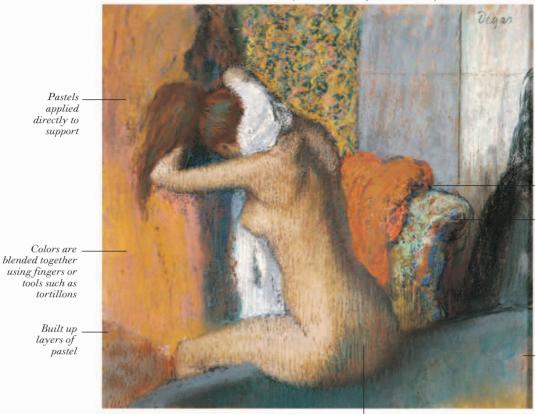


Soft bread suitable for

erasing and

blending

EXAMPLE OF A PASTEL PAINTING Woman Drying her Neck, Edgar Degas, c.1898 Pastel on cardboard, 24½ x 25½ in (62.5 x 65.5 cm)



Pure bright colors laid side by side produce strong contrasts

EXAMPLES OF TEXTURED PAPERS AND PASTEL BOARDS



WATERCOLOR PAPER (ROUGH TEXTURE)



INGRES PAPER



GLASS PAPER



FLOCKED PASTEL BOARD



WATERCOLOR PAPER (MEDIUM TEXTURE)



CANSON PAPER



Feathering technique used to produce skin tones

EXAMPLES OF COLORED AND TINTED PAPERS Rich color of fabric created by overlaying yellows and oranges

Broken colors, characteristic of scumbling technique

Toned color of paper visible beneath thinly applied pastels

DETAIL FROM "WOMAN DRYING HER NECK"

Acrylics Hog hair Sable sash brush brush ACRYLIC PAINT IS MADE BY MIXING PIGMENT with a synthetic resin. It can be thinned with water but dries to become water Hog hair insoluble. Acrylics are applied to many surfaces, such as brush paper and acrylic-primed board and canvas. A variety of brushes, painting knives, rollers, air-brushes, plastic

scrapers, and other tools are used in acrylic painting. The versatility of acrylics makes them suitable for a wide range of techniques. They can be used opaquely or-by adding water—in a transparent, watercolor style. Acrylic mediums can be added to the paint to adjust its consistency for special effects such as glazing and impasto (ridges of paint applied in thick strokes) or to make it more matt or glossy. Acrylics are quick-drying, which allows layers of paint to be applied on top of each other almost immediately.

Phthalo green

SPONGE

ROLLER

Azo

Quinacridone

Flexible, plastic blade

Plastic handle. red

vellow

Yellow

PLASTIC

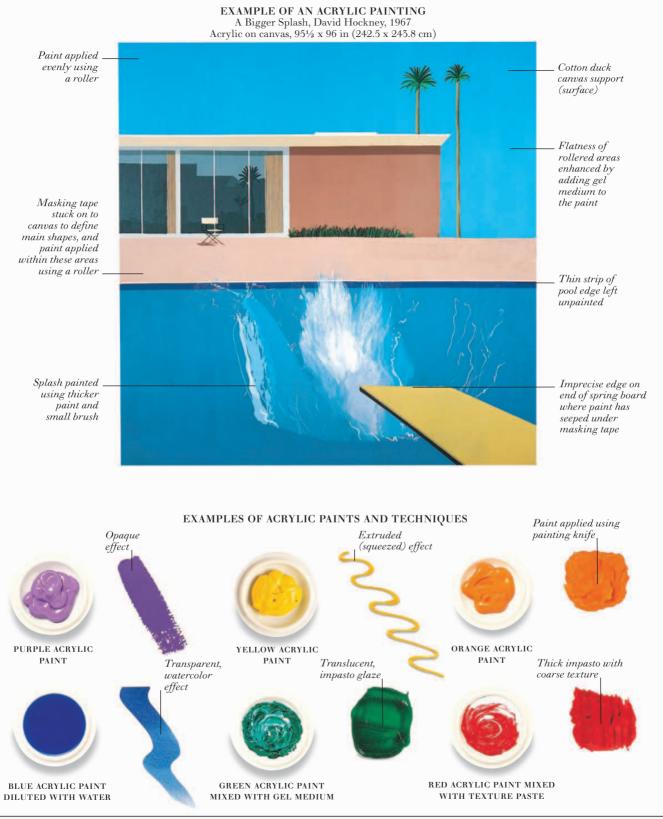
KNIFE

PAINTING

ocher

EXAMPLES OF BRUSHES





Calligraphy

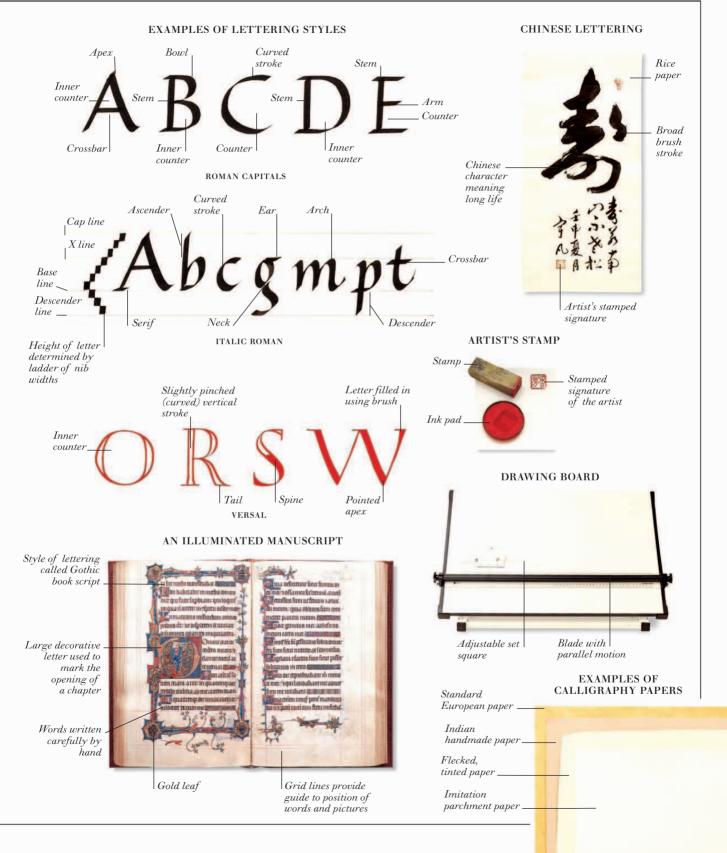
CALLIGRAPHY IS BEAUTIFULLY FORMED LETTERING. The term applies to written text and illumination (the decoration of manuscripts using gold leaf and color). The essential materials needed to practice calligraphy are a writing tool, ink, and a writing surface. Quills are among the oldest writing tools. They are usually made from goose or turkey feathers, and are noted for their flexibility and ability to produce fine lines. A quill point, however, is not very durable and constant recutting and trimming is required. The most commonly used writing instrument in Western calligraphy is a detachable, metal nib held in a penholder. The metal nib is very durable, and there are a wide range of different types. Particular types of nibs-such as copperplate, speedball, and round-hand nibs-are used for specific styles of lettering. Some nibs have integral ink reservoirs and others have reservoirs that are detachable. Brushes are also used for writing, and for filling in outlined letters and painting decoration. Other writing tools used in calligraphy are fountain pens, felt-tip pens, rotring pens, and reed pens. Calligraphy inks may come in liquid form, or as a solid ink stick. Ink sticks are ground down in distilled water to form a liquid ink. The most common writing surfaces for calligraphy are good quality, smooth -surfaced papers. To achieve the best writing position, the calligrapher places the paper on a drawing board set at an angle.





444



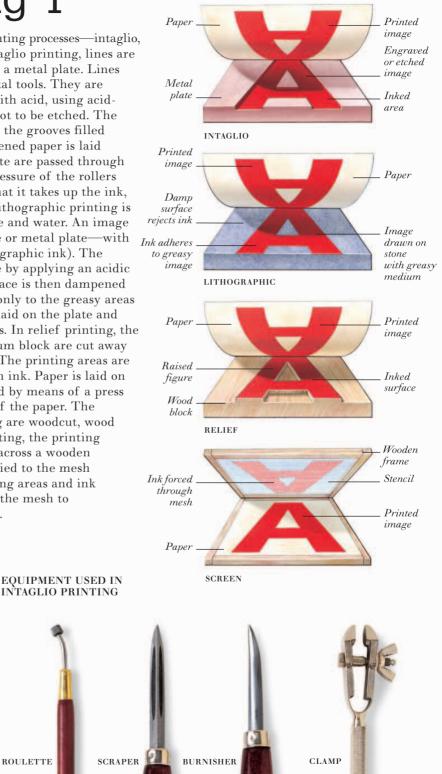


Printmaking 1

PRINTS ARE MADE BY FOUR BASIC printing processes—intaglio, lithographic, relief, and screen. In intaglio printing, lines are engraved or etched into the surface of a metal plate. Lines are engraved by hand using sharp metal tools. They are etched by corroding the metal plate with acid, using acidresistant ground to protect the areas not to be etched. The plate is then inked and wiped, leaving the grooves filled with ink and the surface clean. Dampened paper is laid over the plate, and both paper and plate are passed through the rollers of an etching press. The pressure of the rollers forces the paper into the grooves, so that it takes up the ink, leaving an impression on the paper. Lithographic printing is based on the antipathy between grease and water. An image is drawn on a surface—usually a stone or metal plate—with a greasy medium, such as tusche (lihographic ink). The greasy drawing is fixed on to the plate by applying an acidic solution, such as gum arabic. The surface is then dampened and rolled with ink. The ink adheres only to the greasy areas and is repelled by the water. Paper is laid on the plate and pressure is applied by means of a press. In relief printing, the nonprinting areas of a wood or linoleum block are cut away using gouges, knives, and other tools. The printing areas are left raised in relief and are rolled with ink. Paper is laid on the inked block and pressure is applied by means of a press or by burnishing (rubbing) the back of the paper. The most common forms of relief printing are woodcut, wood engraving, and linocut. In screen printing, the printing surface is a mesh stretched across a wooden

frame. A stencil is applied to the mesh to seal the nonprinting areas and ink is scraped through the mesh to produce an image.

THE FOUR MAIN PRINTING PROCESSES



LEATHER INK DABBER



SCRIBER

ROULETTE

INTAGLIO PRINTING

SCRAPER



Printmaking 2

EXAMPLE OF A LITHOGRAPHIC STONE AND PRINT Crown Gateway 2, Mandy Bonnell, 1987 Lithograph, 19½ × 15¾ in (50 × 40 cm)





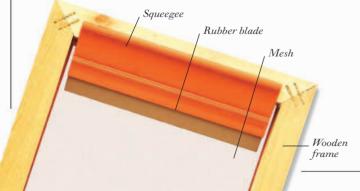
IMAGE DRAWN ON STONE

LITHOGRAPIC PRINT

EXAMPLE OF A SCREEN PRINT Sea Change, Patrick Hughes, 1992 Screen print, 30 × 37 in (77 × 94.5 cm)



SCREEN AND SQUEEGEE

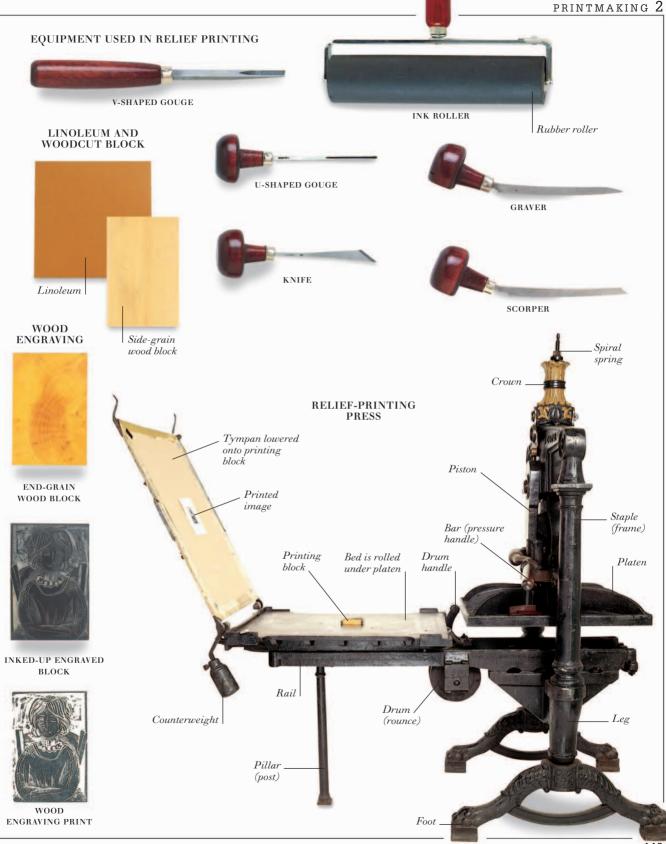




ACRYLIC INK

TEXTILE INK

ACRYLIC INK



Mosaic

MOSAIC IS THE ART OF MAKING patterns and pictures from tesserae (small, colored pieces of glass, marble, and other materials). Different materials are cut into tesserae using different tools. Smalti (glass enamel) and marble are cut into pieces using a hammer and a hardy (a pointed blade) embedded in a log. Vitreous glass is cut into pieces using a pair of pliers. Mosaics can be made using a direct or indirect method. In the direct method, the tesserae are laid directly into a bed of cement-based adhesive. In the indirect method, the design is drawn in reverse on paper or cloth. The tesserae are then stuck face-down on the paper or cloth using water-soluble glue. Adhesive is spread with a trowel on to a solid surface—such as a wall—and the back of the mosaic is laid into the adhesive. Finally, the paper or cloth is soaked off to reveal the mosaic. Gaps between tesserae can be filled with grout. Grout is forced into gaps by dragging a grouting squeegee across the face of the mosaic. Mosaics are usually used to decorate walls and floors, but they can also be applied to smaller objects.

EXAMPLE OF A MOSAIC (DIRECT METHOD) Seascape, Tessa Hunkin, 1993 Smalti mosaic on board 31¹/₂ in (80 cm) diameter

SMALTI (GLASS ENAMEL) RED SMALTI

BLUE

SMALTI







MOSAIC

STAGES IN THE CREATION OF A MOSAIC (INDIRECT METHOD)



COLOR SKETCH A color sketch is drawn in oil pastel to give a clear impression of how the finished mosaic will look.



REVERSE IMAGE Tesserae are glued face-down on reverse image on paper. Mosaic is then attached to solid surface and paper is removed.

Gold tessera with ripple

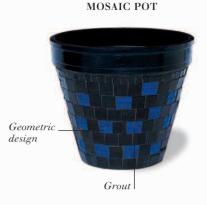
Gold tessera

Plain

finish

down

finish



MOSAIC MOSQUE DESIGN



Geometric border

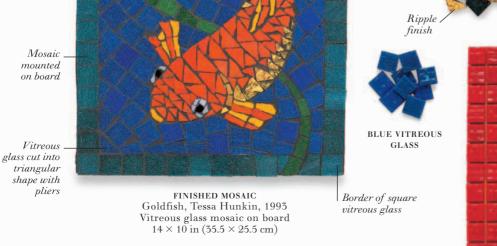
VITREOUS GLASS placed upside

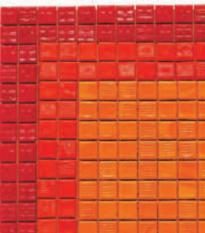
GREEN VITREOUS GLASS WITH GOLD LEAF



RED VITREOUS GLASS

SHEETS OF VITREOUS GLASS





Andamenti (line along which tesserae are laid)

Grout fills the gaps between the tesserae

Sculpture 1

EXAMPLES OF WOOD-CARVING TOOLS

CABINET RASP

STRAIGHT GOUGE

SALMON BEND GOUGE

CARVING

MALLET

CHISEL

Cedar box

THE TWO TRADITIONAL METHODS OF MAKING SCULPTURE are carving and modeling. A carved sculpture is made by cutting away the surplus from a block of hard material such as stone, marble, or wood. The tools used for carving vary according to the material being carved. Heavy steel points, claws, and chisels that are struck with a lump hammer are generally used for stone and marble. Sharp gouges and chisels that are struck with a wooden mallet are used for wood. Sculptures formed from hard materials are generally finished by filing with rasps, rifflers, and other abrasive implements. Modeling is a process by which shapes are built up, using malleable materials such as clay, plaster, and wax. The material is cut with wire-ended tools and modeled with the fingers or a variety of hardwood and metal implements. For large or intricate modeled sculptures an armature (frame), made from metal or wood, is used to provide internal support. Sculptures formed in soft materials may harden naturally or can be made more durable by firing in a kiln. Modeled sculptures are often first designed in wax or another material to be cast later in a metal (see pp. 454-455) such as bronze. The development of many new materials in the 20th century has enabled sculptors to experiment with new techniques such as construction (joining preformed pieces of material such as machine components, mirrors, and furniture) and kinetic (mobile) sculpture.

Curved leg

Wing nut





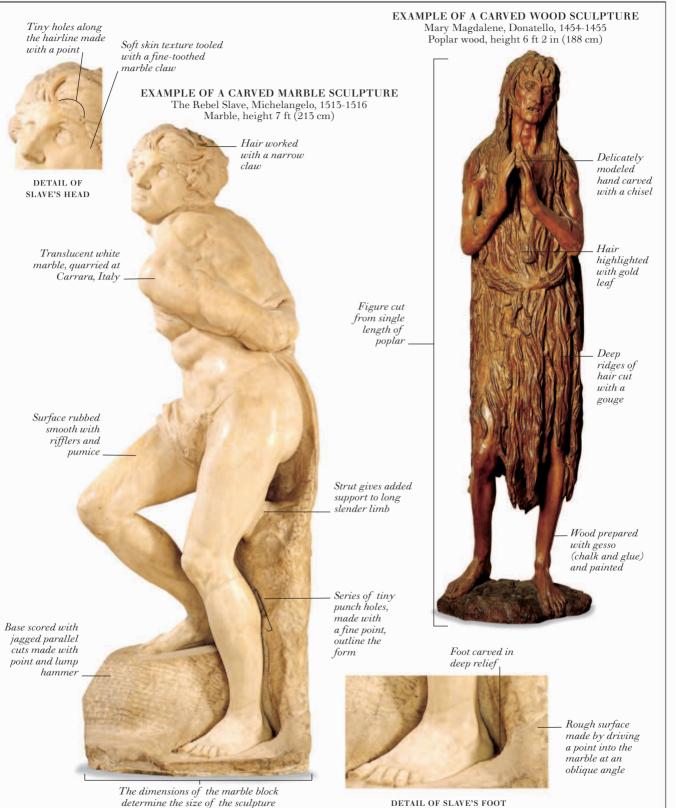
Stone for

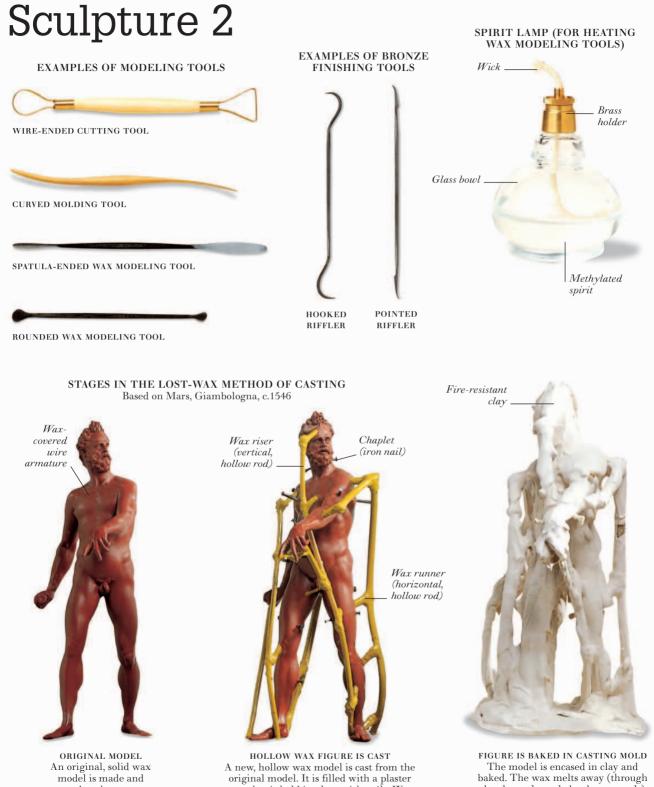
sharpening wood-carving tools

ABKANSAS

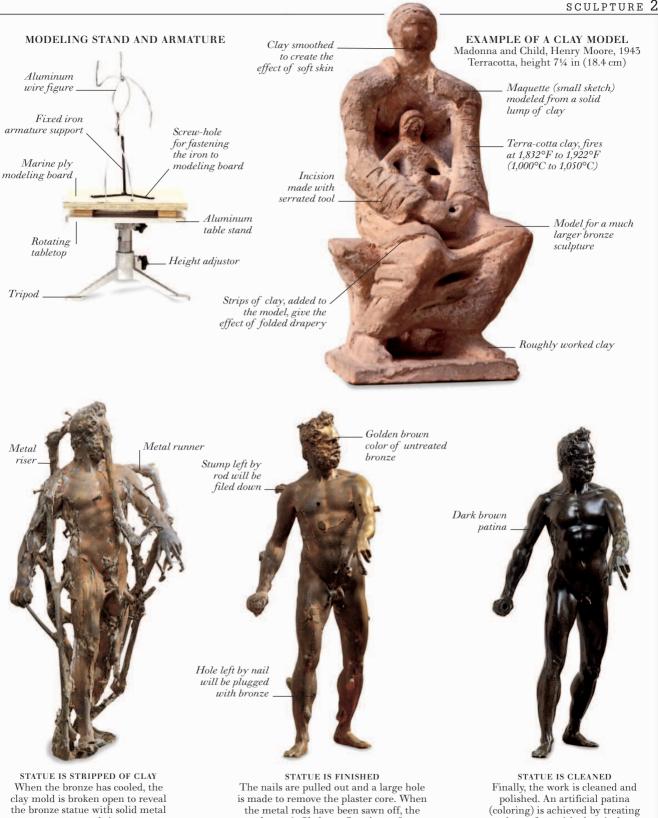
HONE-STONE

SCULPTURE 1





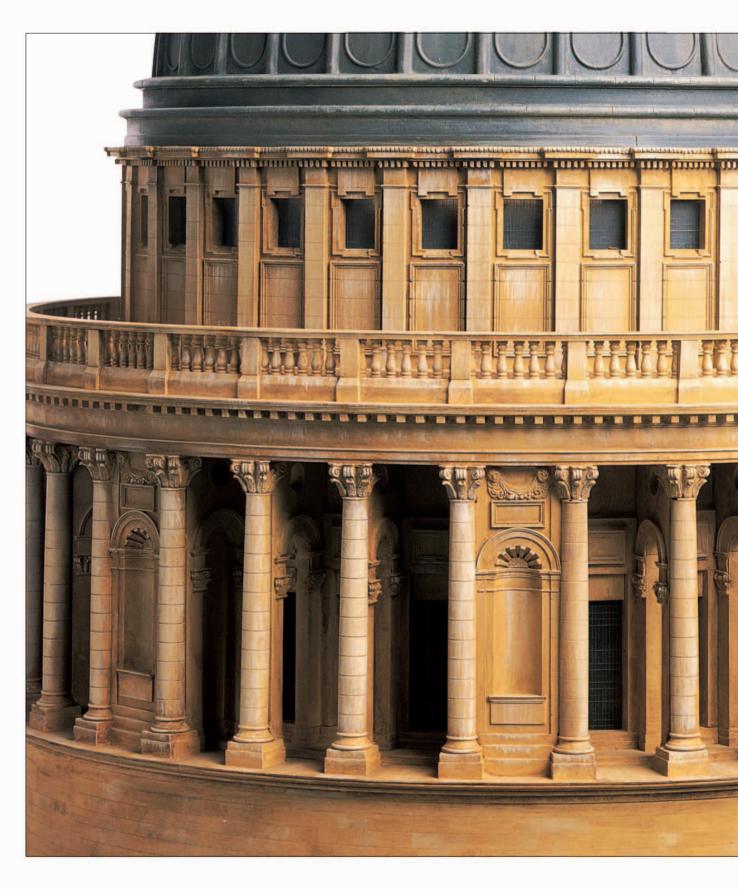
preserved so that numerous replicas can be cast.

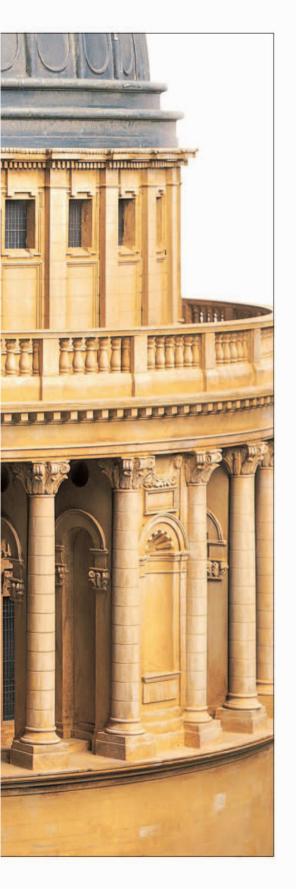


runners and risers.

sculpture is filed to refine the surface.

the surface with chemicals.





Architecture

ANCIENT EGYPT 458
$\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
ANCIENT ROME 1462
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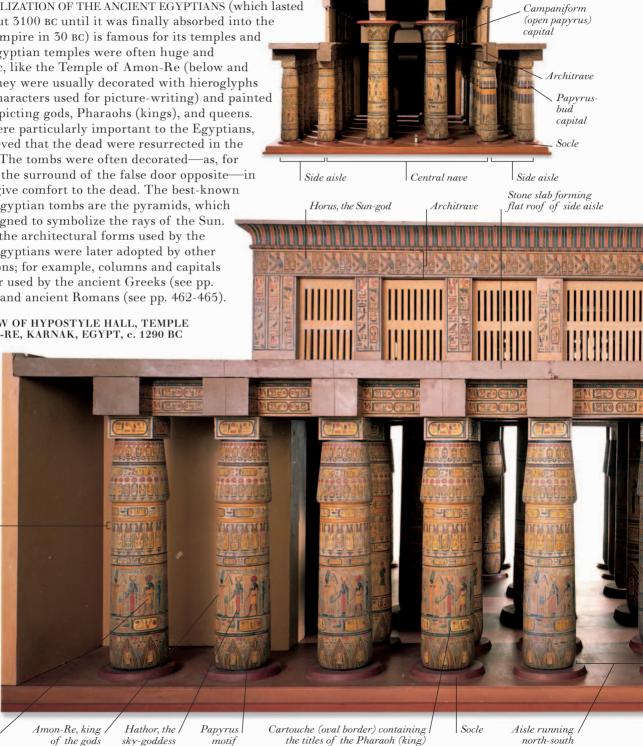
Ancient Egypt

THE CIVILIZATION OF THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS (which lasted from about 3100 BC until it was finally absorbed into the Roman Empire in 30 BC) is famous for its temples and tombs. Egyptian temples were often huge and geometric, like the Temple of Amon-Re (below and right). They were usually decorated with hieroglyphs (sacred characters used for picture-writing) and painted reliefs depicting gods, Pharaohs (kings), and queens. Tombs were particularly important to the Egyptians, who believed that the dead were resurrected in the afterlife. The tombs were often decorated-as, for example, the surround of the false door opposite-in order to give comfort to the dead. The best-known ancient Egyptian tombs are the pyramids, which were designed to symbolize the rays of the Sun. Many of the architectural forms used by the ancient Egyptians were later adopted by other civilizations; for example, columns and capitals were later used by the ancient Greeks (see pp. 460-461) and ancient Romans (see pp. 462-465).

SIDE VIEW OF HYPOSTYLE HALL, TEMPLE OF AMON-RE, KARNAK, EGYPT, c. 1290 BC



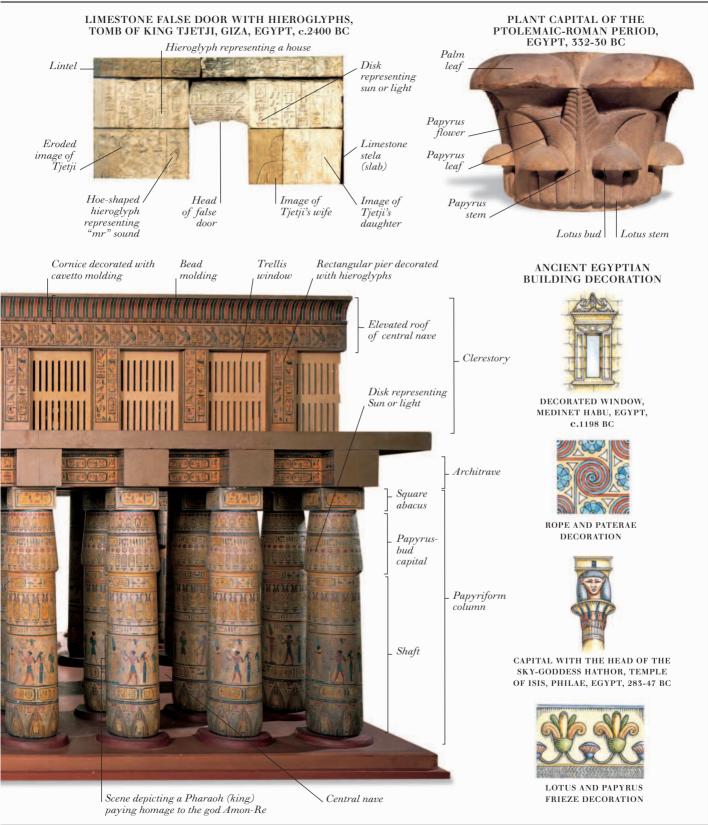
Cornice decorated with cavetto molding



Chons, the

Moon-god

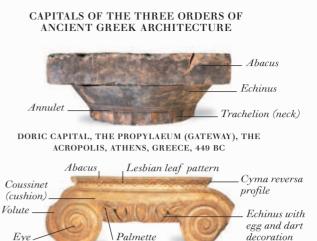
Kepresh crown with disk



Ancient Greece

THE CLASSICAL TEMPLES OF ANCIENT GREECE were built according to the belief that certain forms and proportions were pleasing to the gods. There were three main ancient Greek architectural orders (styles), which can be distinguished by the decoration and proportions of their columns, capitals (column tops), and entablatures (structures resting on the capitals). The oldest is the Doric order, which dates from the seventh century BC and was used mainly on the Greek mainland and in the western colonies, such as Sicily and southern Italy. The Temple of Neptune, shown here, is a classic example of this order. It is hypaethral (roofless) and peripteral (surrounded by a single row of columns). About a century later, the more decorative Ionic order developed on the Aegean Islands. Features of this order include volutes (spiral scrolls) on capitals and acroteria (pediment ornaments). The Corinthian order was invented in Athens in the fifth century BC and is typically identified by an acanthus leaf on the capitals. This order was later widely used in ancient Roman architecture.

TEMPLE OF NEPTUNE, PAESTUM, ITALY, c.460 BC



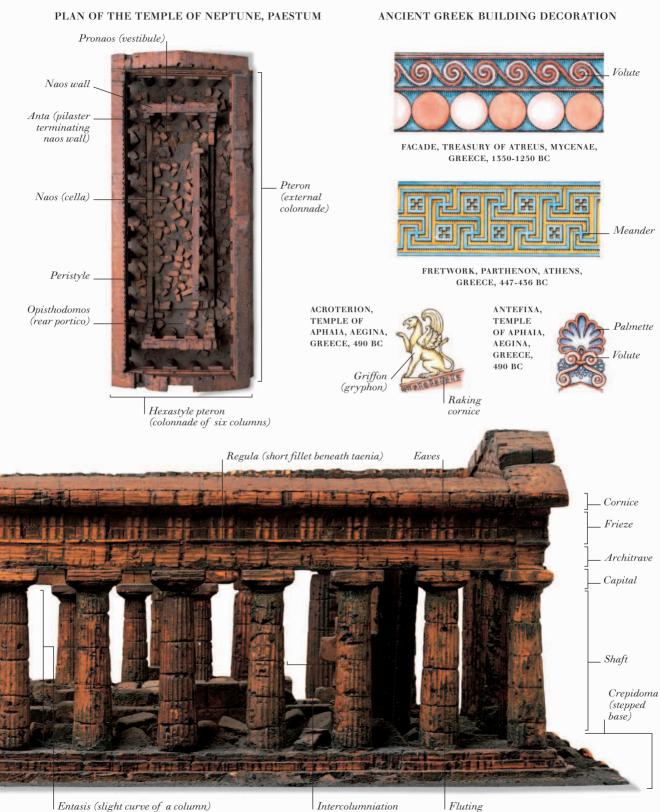
Palmetta IONIC CAPITAL, THE PROPYLAEUM (GATEWAY), TEMPLE OF ATHENA POLIAS, PRIENE, GREECE, c.334 BC



CORINTHIAN CAPITAL FROM A STOA (PORTICO), PROBABLY FROM ASIA MINOR

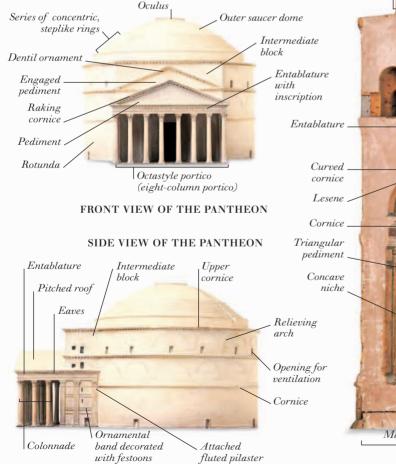


Eve



Ancient Rome 1

IN THE EARLY PERIOD OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE extensive use was made of ancient Greek architectural ideas, particularly those of the Corinthian order (see pp. 460-461). As a result, many early Roman buildings-such as the Temple of Vesta (opposite)—closely resemble ancient Greek buildings. A distinctive Roman style began to evolve in the first century AD. This style developed the interiors of buildings (the Greeks had concentrated on the exterior) by using arches, vaults, and domes inside the buildings, and by ornamenting internal walls. Many of these features can be seen in the Pantheon. Exterior columns were often used for decorative, rather than structural. purposes, as in the Colosseum and the Porta Nigra (see pp. 464-465). Smaller buildings had timber frames with wattle-and-daub walls, as in the mill (see pp. 464-465). Roman architecture remained influential for many centuries, with some of its principles being used in the 11th century in Romanesque buildings (see pp. 468-469) and also in the 15th and 16th centuries in Renaissance buildings (see pp. 474-477).



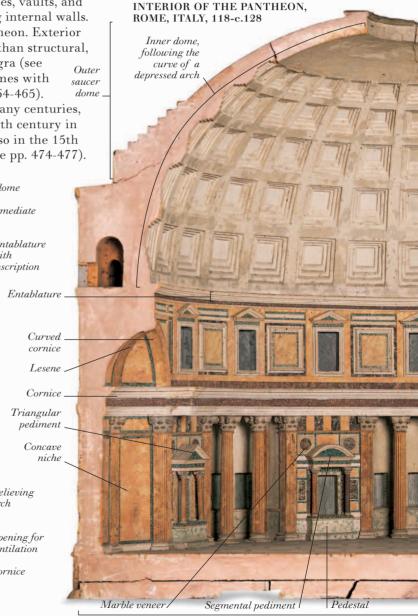
ANCIENT ROMAN BUILDING DECORATION

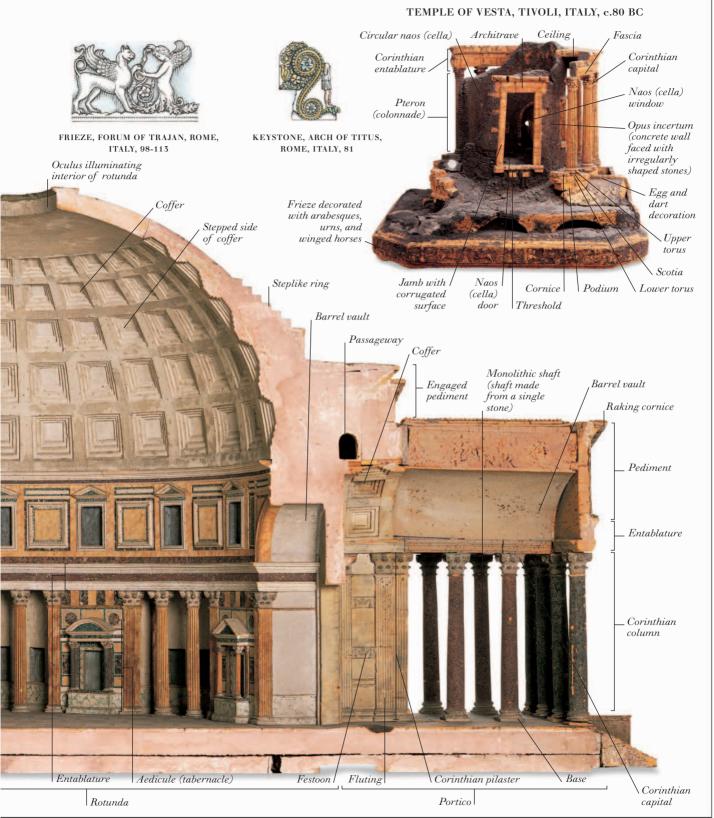


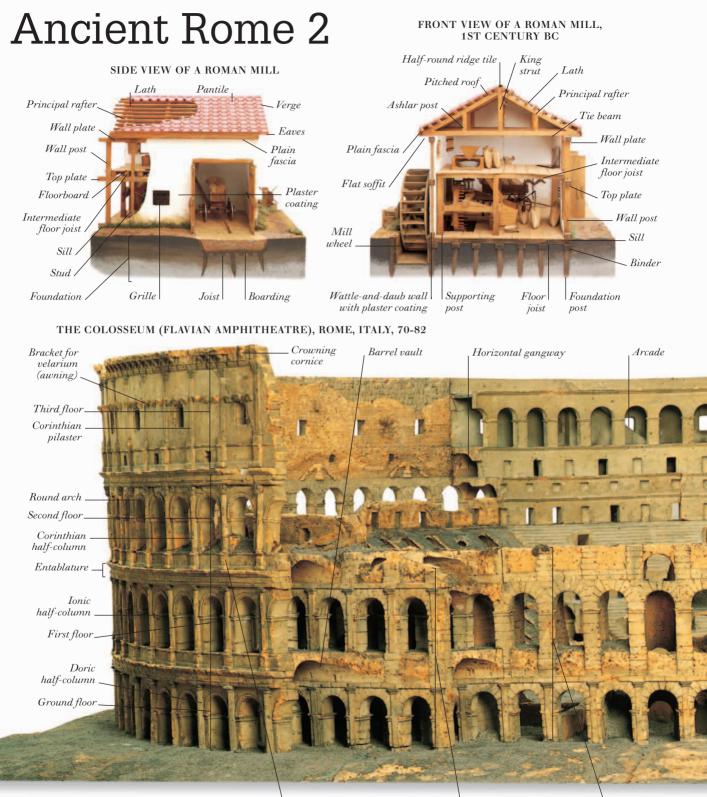


FESTOON, TEMPLE OF VESTA, TIVOLI, ITALY, C.80 BC

RICHLY DECORATED ROMAN OVUM



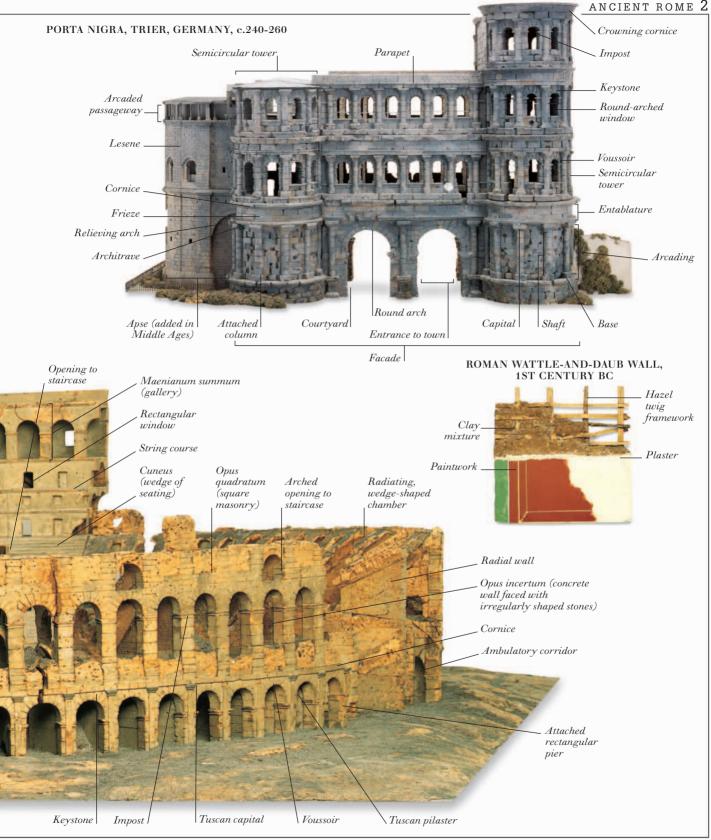




External travertine shell

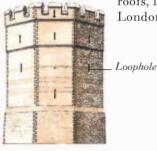
Intermediate shell

Inner shell



Medieval castles and houses

WARFARE WAS COMMON IN EUROPE in the Middle Ages, and many monarchs and nobles built castles as a form of defense. Typical medieval castles have outer walls surrounding a moat. Inside the moat is a bailey (courtvard), protected by a chemise (jacket wall). The innermost and strongest part of a medieval castle is the keep. There are two main types of keep: towers called donjons, such as the Tour de César and Coucy-le-Château, and rectangular keeps ("hall-keeps"), such as the Tower of London. Castles were often guarded by salients (projecting fortifications), like those of the Bastille. Medieval houses typically had timber cruck (tentlike) frames, wattle-and-daub walls, and pitched



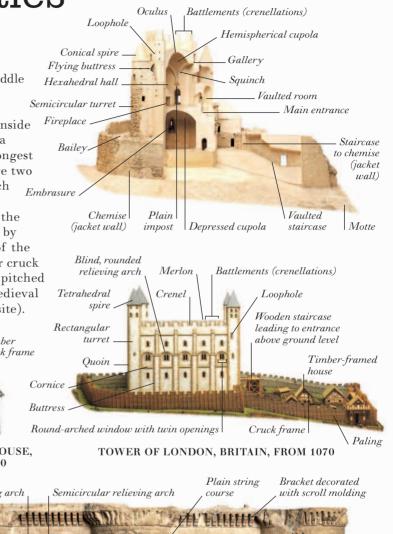
roofs, like those on medieval London Bridge (opposite).

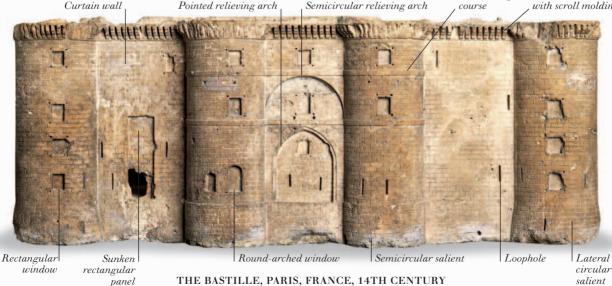


SALIENT, CAERNARVON CASTLE, BRITAIN, 1283-1323

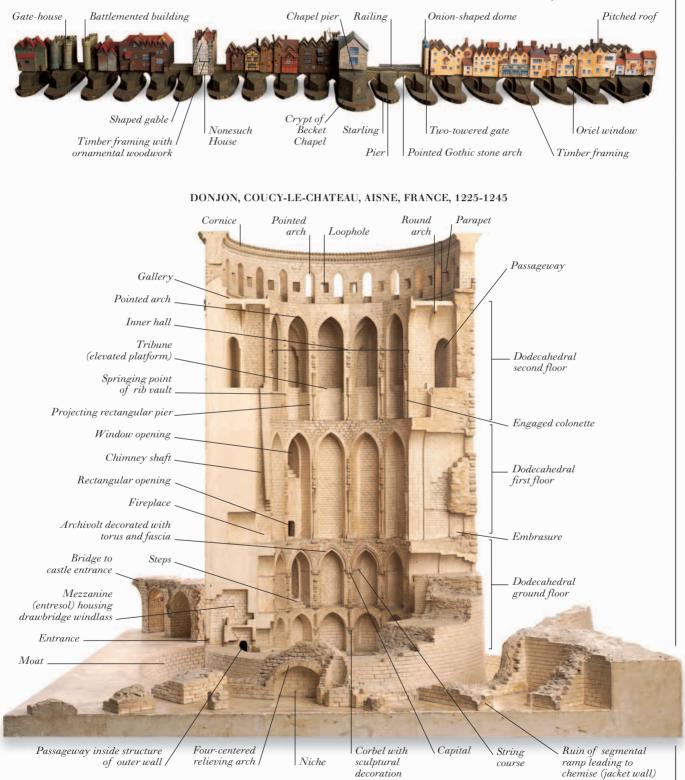


DONJON, TOUR DE CESAR, PROVINS, FRANCE, 12TH CENTURY





MEDIEVAL LONDON BRIDGE, BRITAIN, 1176 (WITH 14TH-CENTURY BATTLEMENTED BUILDING, NONESUCH HOUSE, AND TWO-TOWERED GATE)



Medieval churches

DURING THE MIDDLE AGES, large numbers of churches were built in Europe. European churches of this period typically have high vaults supported by massive piers and columns. In the 10th century, the Romanesque style developed. Romanesque architects adopted many Roman or early Christian architectural ideas, such as cross-shaped ground-plans-like that of Angoulême Cathedral (opposite)-and the basilican system of a nave with a central vessel and side aisles. In the mid-12th century, flying buttresses and pointed vaults appeared. These features later became widely used in Gothic architecture (see pp. 470-471). Bagneux Church (opposite) has both styles: a Romanesque tower, and a Gothic nave and choir.



CHURCH-ROOF BOSS, BRITAIN

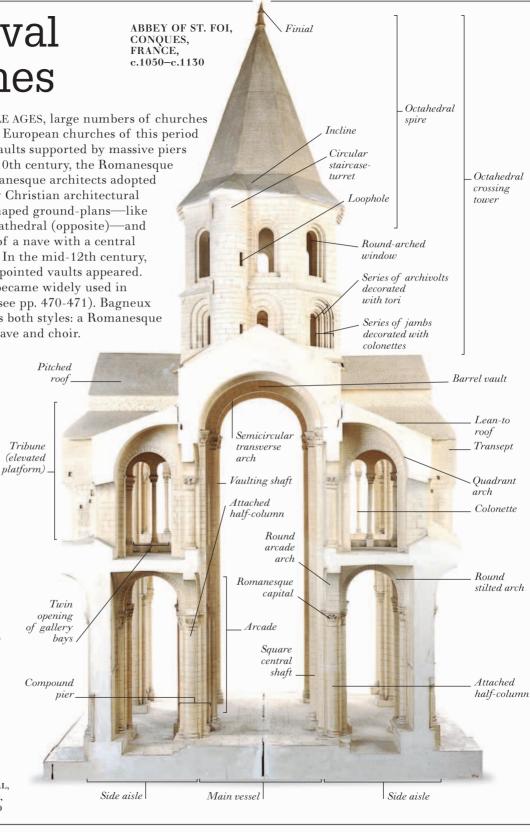
ROMANESOUE CAPITALS

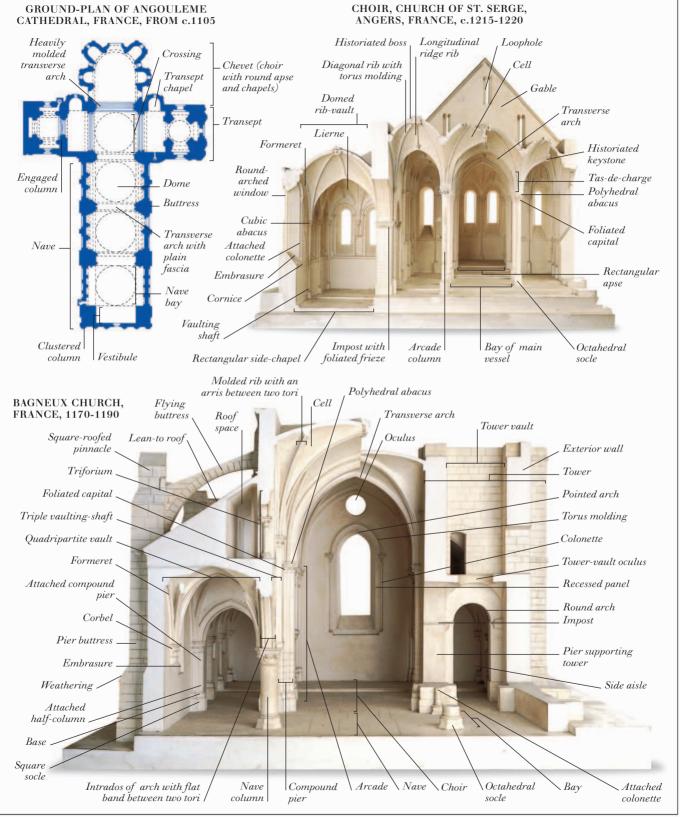


"THE FLIGHT INTO EGYPT" CAPITAL, CATHEDRAL OF ST. LAZARE, AUTUN, FRANCE, 1120-1130



"CHRIST IN MAJESTY" CAPITAL, BASILICA OF ST. MADELEINE, VEZELAY, FRANCE, 1120-1140





GROUND-PLAN OF SALISBURY CATHEDRAL

Gothic 1

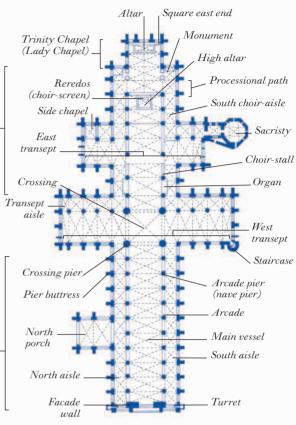


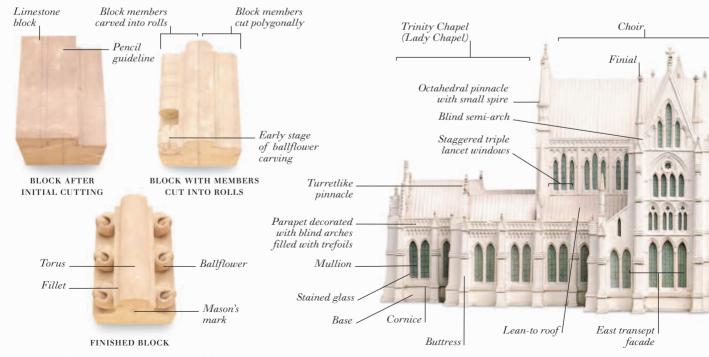
GOTHIC STAINED GLASS WITH FOLIATED SCROLL MOTIF, ON WOODEN FORM

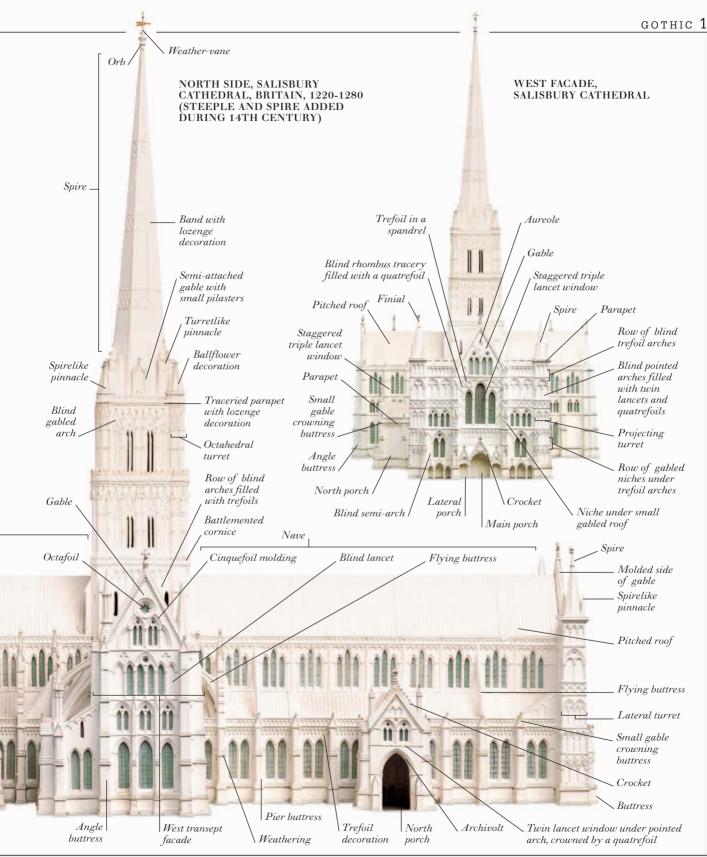
GOTHIC BUILDINGS are characterized by rib vaults, pointed or lancet arches, flying buttresses, decorative tracery and gables, and stained-glass windows. Typical Gothic buildings include the Cathedrals of Salisbury and old St. Paul's in England, and Notre Choir-Dame de Paris in France (see pp. 472-473). The Gothic style developed out of Romanesque architecture in France (see pp. 468-469) in the mid-

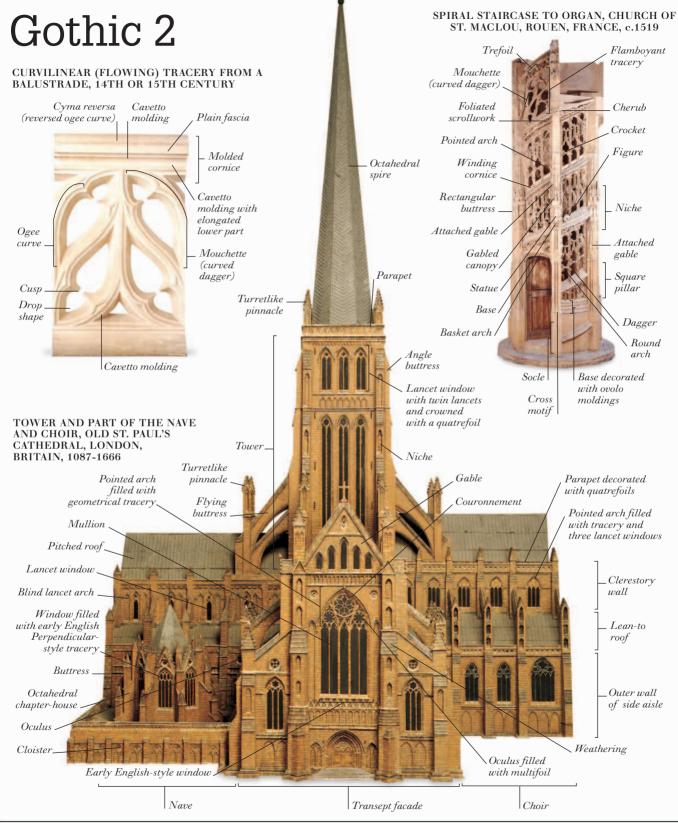
12th century, and then spread throughout Europe. The decorative elements of Gothic architecture became highly developed in buildings of the English Decorated style (late 13th-14th century) and the French Flamboyant style (15th-16th century). These styles are exemplified by the tower of Salisbury Cathedral and the staircase in the Church of St. Maclou (see pp. 472-473), respectively. In both of these styles, embellishments such as ballflowers and curvilinear (flowing) tracery were used liberally. The English Perpendicular style (late 14th-15th century), *Nave* which followed the Decorated style, emphasized the vertical and horizontal elements of a building. A notable feature of this style is the hammer-beam roof.

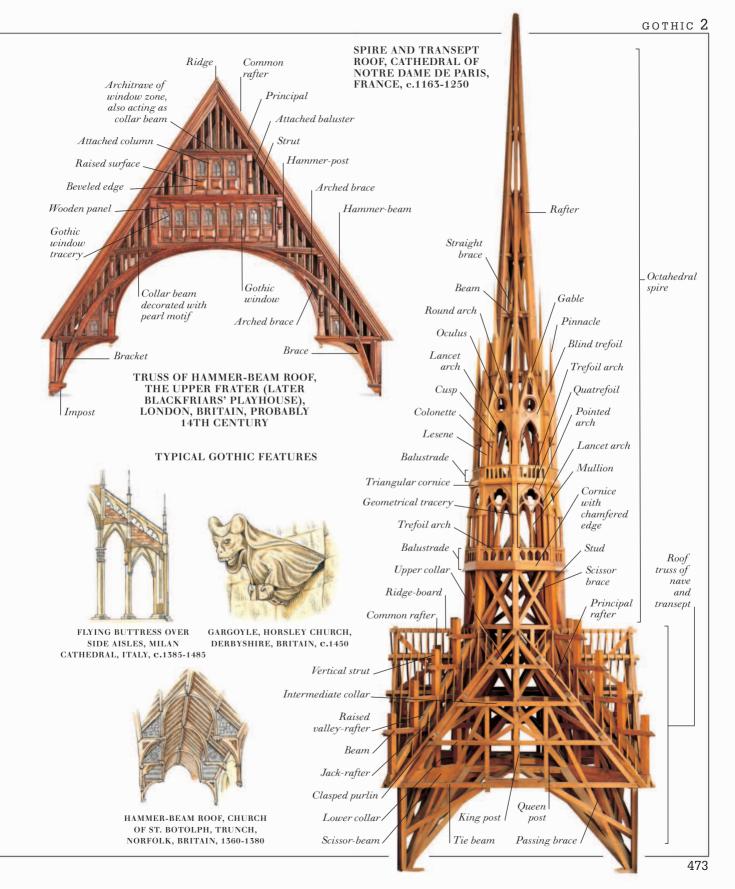
GOTHIC TORUS WITH BALLFLOWERS









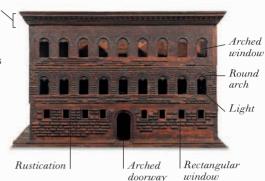


Renaissance 1

Crowning

cornice

THE RENAISSANCE was a European movement—lasting roughly from the 14th century to the mid-17th century—in which the arts and sciences underwent great changes. In architecture, these changes were marked by a return to the classical forms and proportions of ancient Roman buildings. The Renaissance originated in Italy, and the buildings most characteristic of its style can be found there, such as the Palazzo Strozzi shown here. Mannerism is a branch of the Renaissance style that distorts the classical forms; an example is the Laurentian Library staircase. As the Renaissance style spread to other European countries, many of its features were incorporated into the local architecture; for example, the Château de Montal in France (see pp. 476-477) incorporates aedicules (tabernacles).



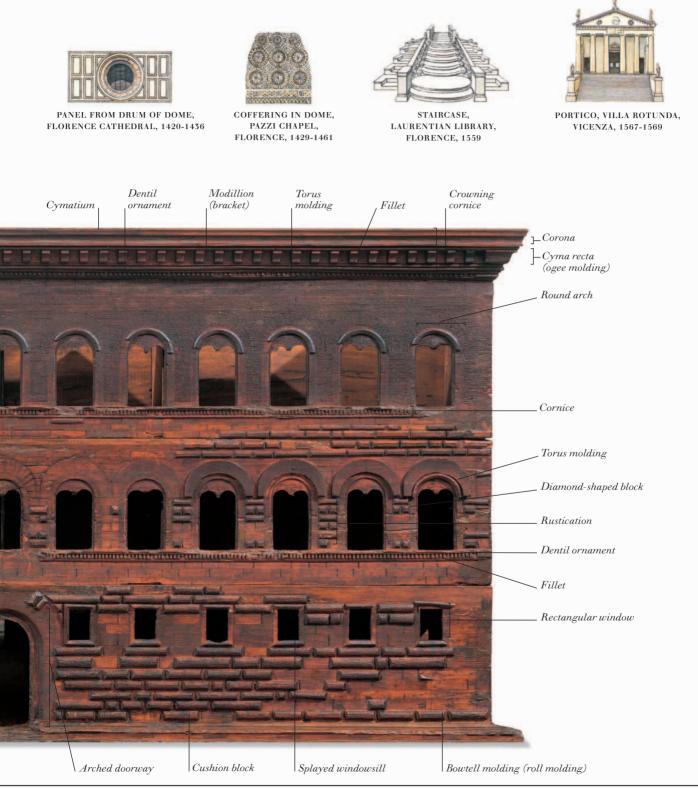
FACADE ON TO PIAZZA, PALAZZO STROZZI

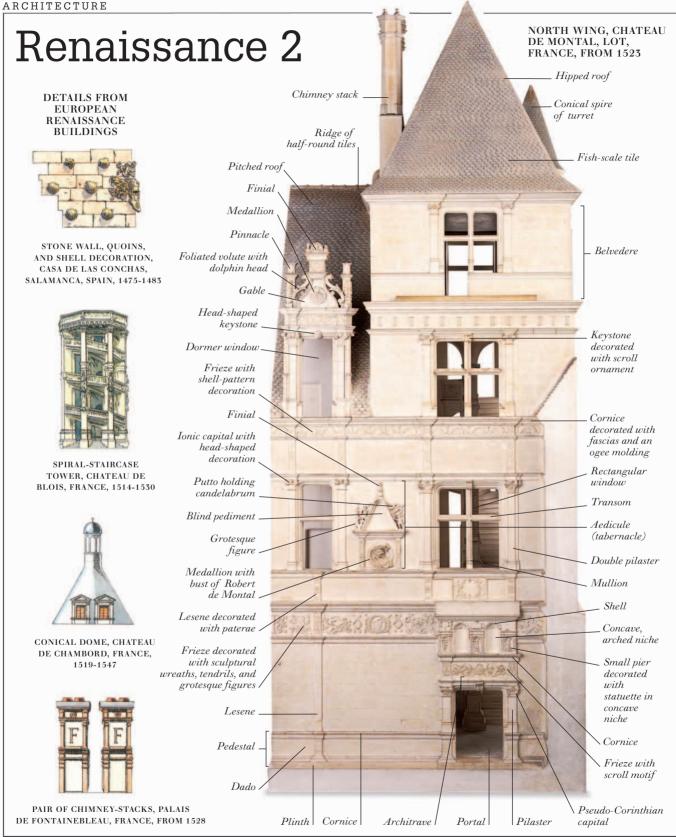
STROZZI, FLORENCE, ITALY, 1489 (BY G. DA SANGALLO, B. DA MAIANO, AND CRONACA) Second Symmetrical floor fenestration Voussoir. Spandrel Piano nobile (first floor) Light Colonette Ground floor. Socle Twin window under round arch Rustication

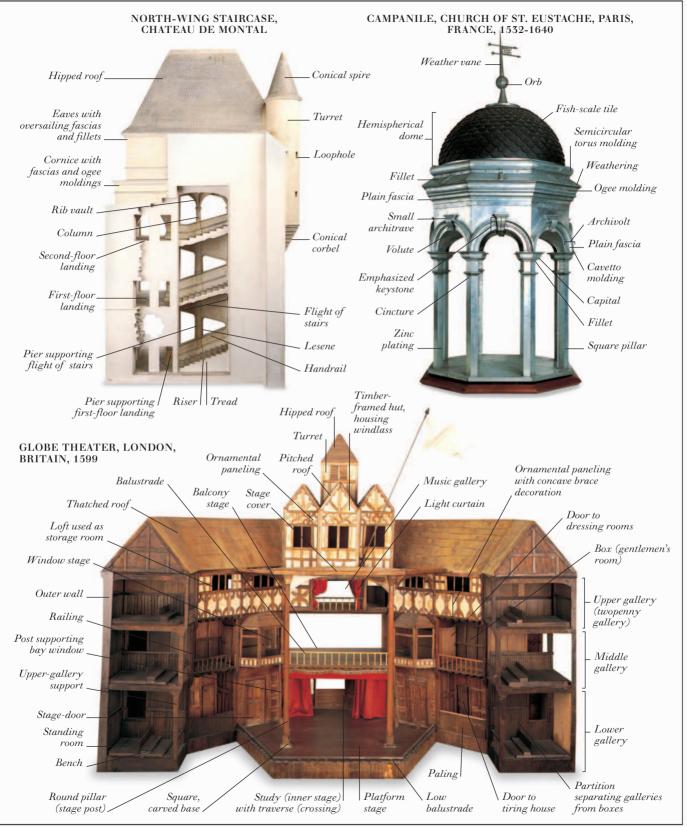
SIDE VIEW OF PALAZZO

RENAISSANCE 1

DETAILS FROM ITALIAN RENAISSANCE BUILDINGS







DETAILS FROM ITALIAN **BAROQUE CHURCHES**

Baroque and neoclassical 1

Round-arched window

Twin pilaster

THE BAROOUE STYLE EVOLVED IN THE EARLY 17TH CENTURY in Rome. It is characterized by curved outlines and ostentatious decoration, as can be seen in the Italian church details (right). The baroque style was particularly widely favored in Italy, Spain, and Germany. It was also adopted in Britain and France, but with adaptations. The British architects Sir Christopher Wren and Nicholas Hawksmoor, for example, used baroque features—such as the concave walls of St. Paul's Cathedral and the curved buttresses of the Church of St. George in the East (see pp. 480-481)—but they did so with restraint. Similarly, the curved buttresses and volutes of the Parisian Church of St. Paul-St. Louis are relatively plain. In the second half of the 17th century, a distinct classical style (known as neoclassicism) developed in northern Europe as a reaction to the excesses of baroque. Typical of this new style were churches such as the Madeleine (a proposed facade is shown below), as well as secular buildings such as the Cirque Napoleon (opposite) and the buildings of the British architect Sir John Soane (see pp. 482-483). In early 18th-century France, an extremely lavish form of baroque developed, known as rococo. The balcony from Nantes (see pp. 482-483) with its twisted ironwork and head-shaped corbels is typical of this style. Attached segmental pediment

Raking cornice

Frieze

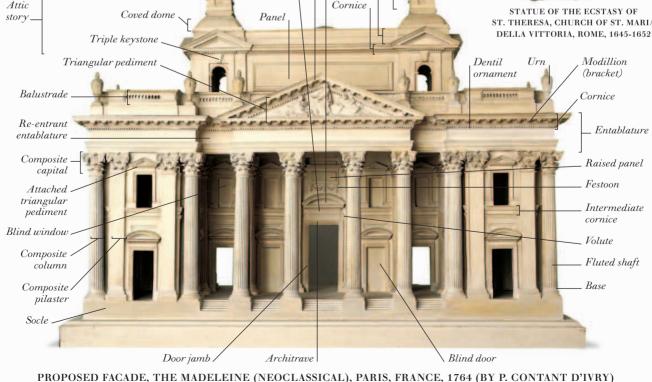


SCROLLED BUTTRESS CHURCH OF ST. MARIA DELLA SALUTE, VENICE, 1631-1682



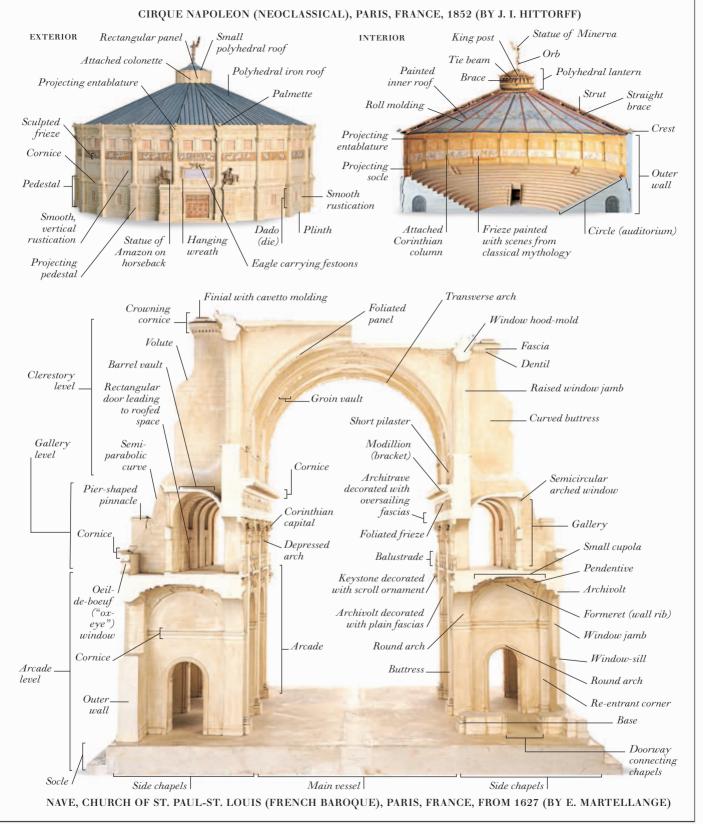
Finial

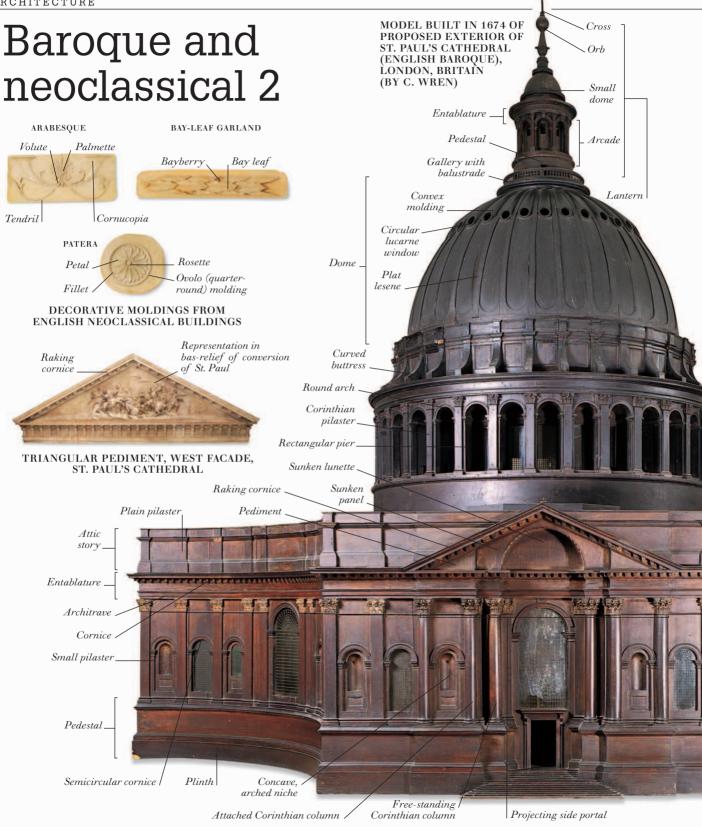
STATUE OF THE ECSTASY OF ST. THERESA, CHURCH OF ST. MARIA



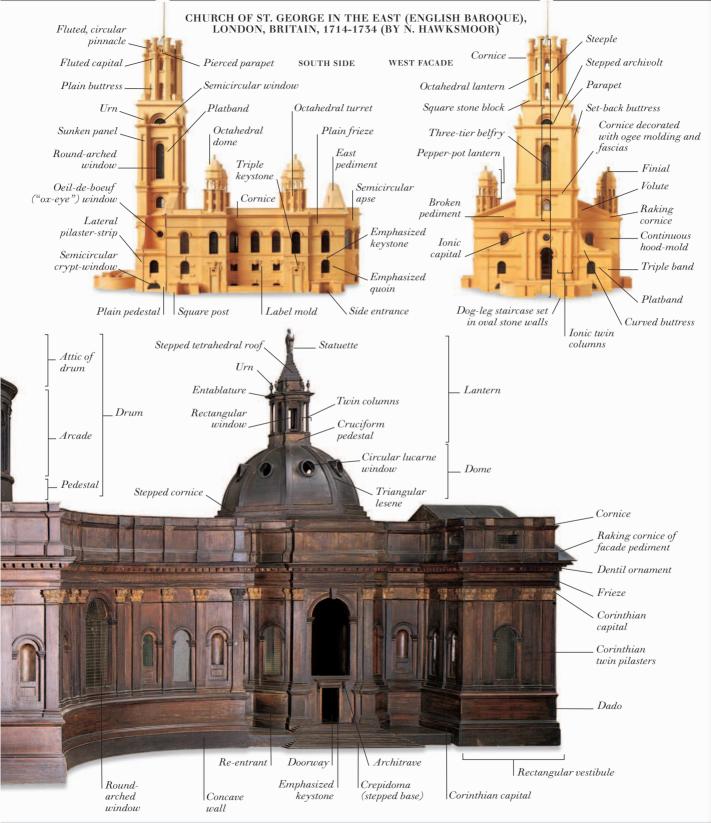
Lantern

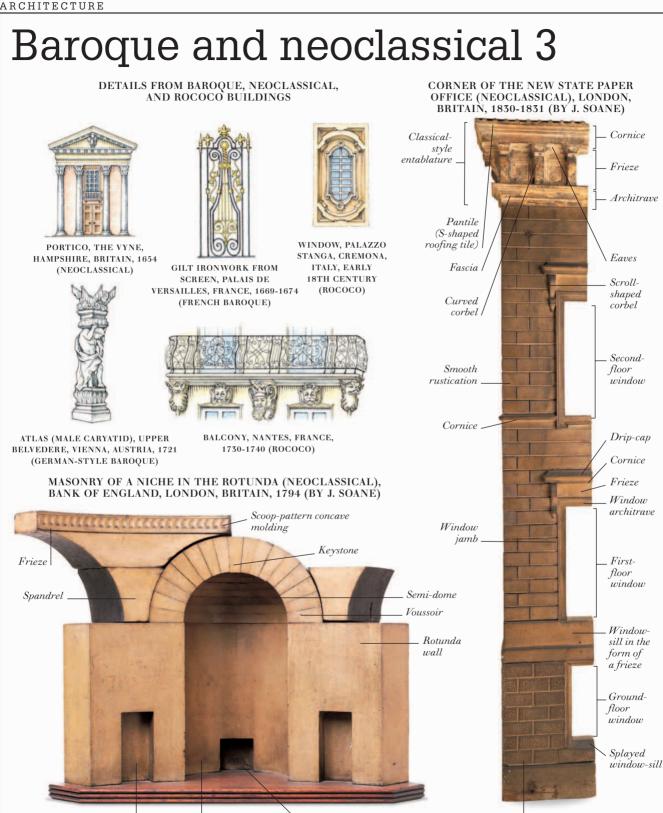
Parapet





BAROQUE AND NEOCLASSICAL 2





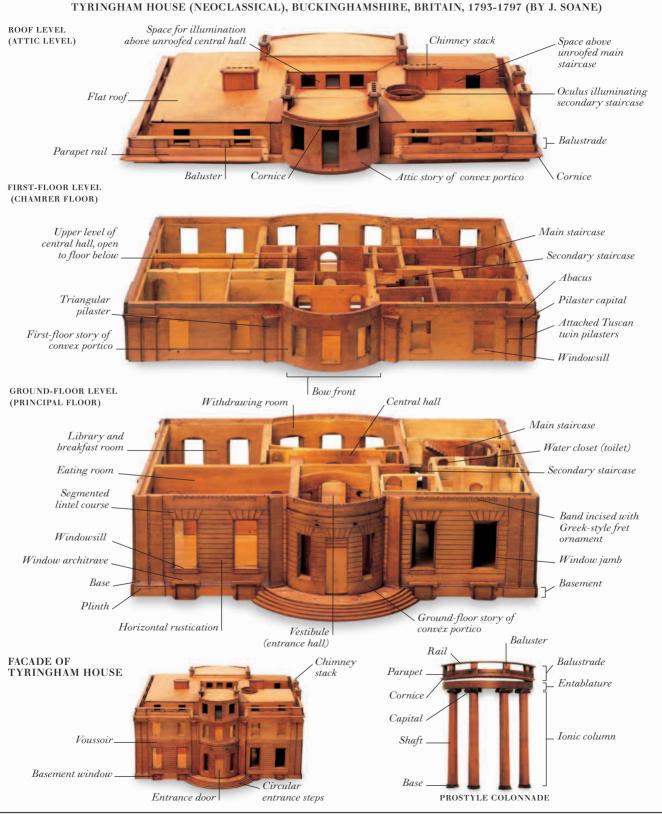
Flat, square niche

Vermiculated rustication

Rounded niche

482

Flat, rectangular niche



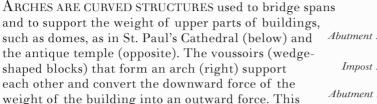
Arches and vaults

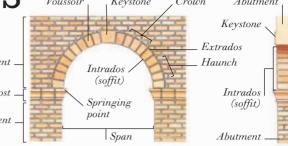
outward force is in turn transferred to buttresses, piers.



Colonnade

Passageway



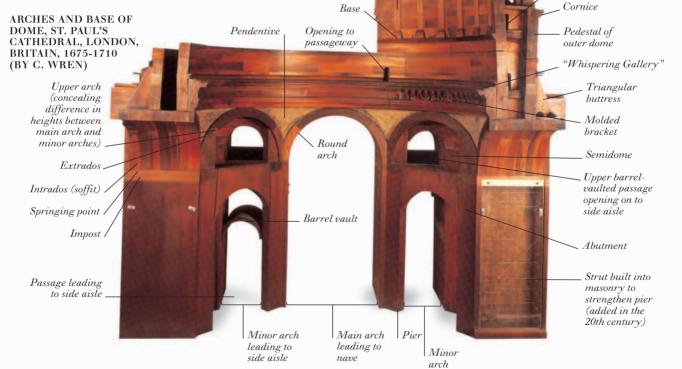


FRONT

Inner

dome

or abutments. A vault is an arched roof or ceiling. There are four main types of vault (opposite). A barrel vault is a single vault, semicircular in cross-section; a groin vault consists of two barrel vaults intersecting at right-angles; a rib vault is a groin vault reinforced by ribs; and a fan vault is a rib vault in which the ribs radiate from the springing Pilaster point (where the arch begins) like a fan.



TYPES OF ARCH



HORSESHOE ARCH (MOORISH ARCH), GREAT MOSQUE, CORDORA, SPAIN, 785



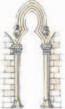
BASKET ARCH (SEMI-ELLIPTICAL ARCH), PALATINE CHAPEL, AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, FRANCE, 790-798



TUDOR ARCH, TOWER OF LONDON, BRITAIN, c.1086-1097



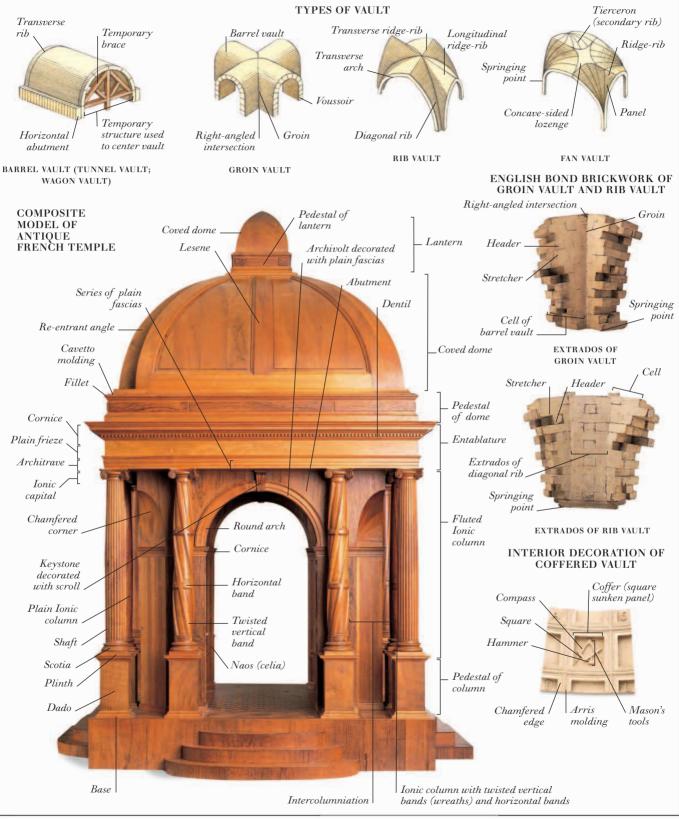
LANCET ARCH, WESTMINSTER ABBEY, LONDON, BRITAIN, 1503-1519



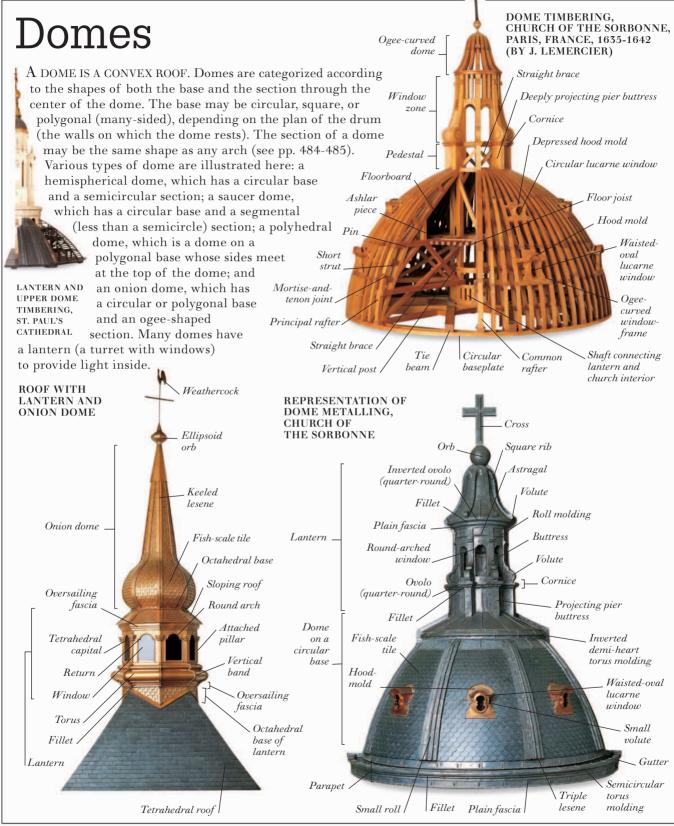
SIDE

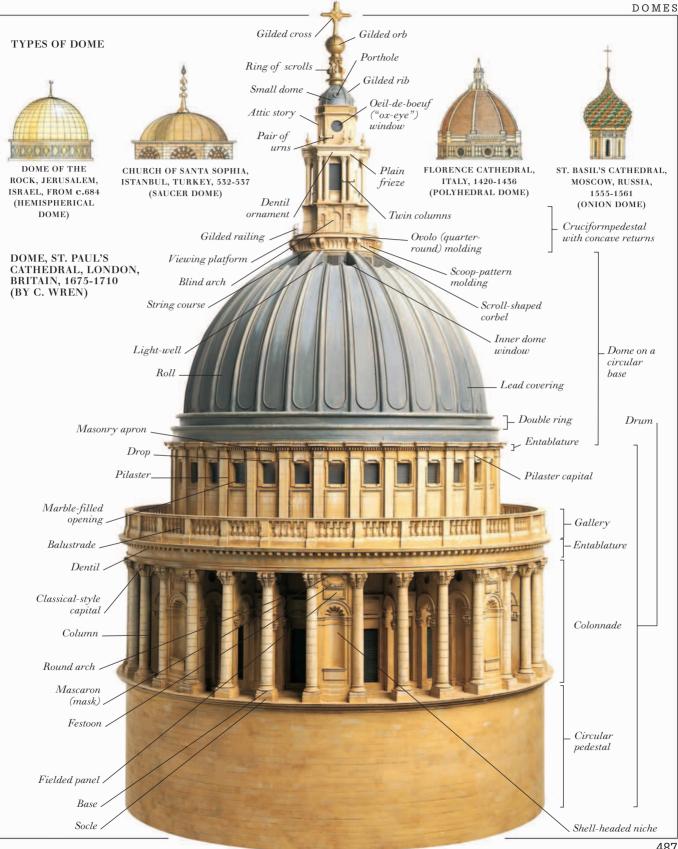
TREFOIL ARCH, BEVERLEY MINSTER, YORKSHIRE, BRITAIN, c.1300

ARCHES AND VAULTS



ARCHITECTURE





Islamic buildings

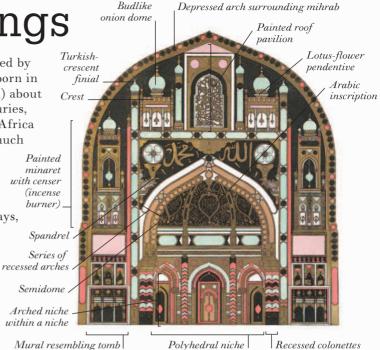
of the rest of Asia. The worldwide



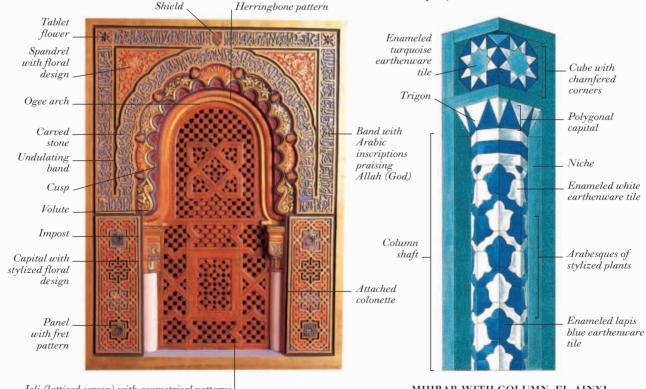
THE ISLAMIC RELIGION was founded by the prophet Mohammed, who was born in Mecca (in present-day Saudi Arabia) about 570 AD. In the following three centuries, Islam spread from Arabia to North Africa and Spain, as well as to India and much

OPUS SECTILE MOSAIC DESIGN

influence of Islam remains strong today. Common characteristics of Islamic buildings ^w include ogee arches and roofs, onion domes, and walls decorated with carved stone, paintings, inlays, or mosaics. The most important type of Islamic building is the mosque—the place of worship which generally has a minaret (tower) from ^{rece} which the muezzin (official crier) calls Muslims to prayer. Most mosques have a mihrab (decorative niche) that indicates the direction ^{AI} of Mecca. As figurative art is not allowed ^{with} in Islam, buildings are ornamented with ^M geometric and arabesque motifs, and inscriptions (frequently Koranic verses).



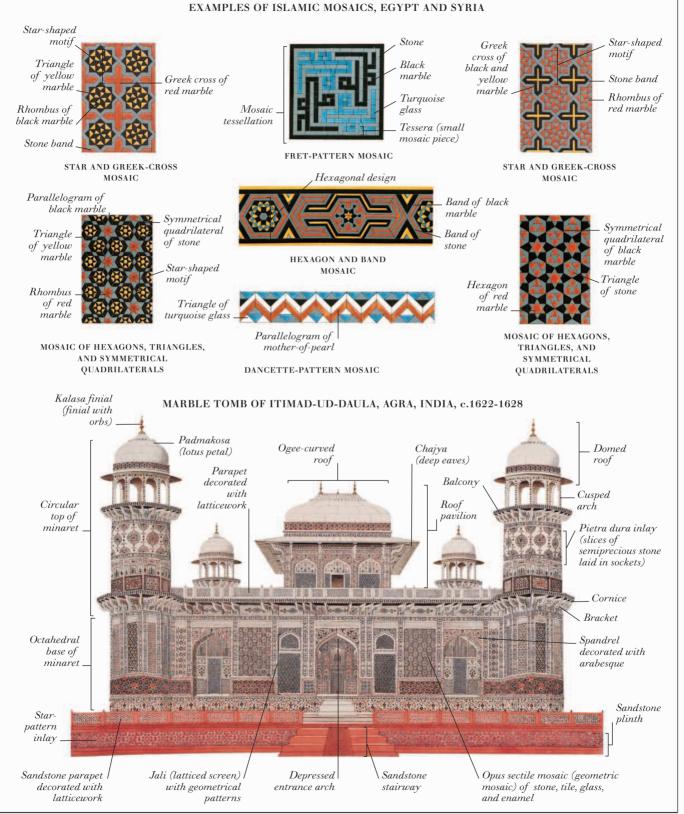
MIHRAB, JAMI MASJID (PRINCIPAL OR CONGREGATIONAL MOSQUE), BIJAPUR, INDIA, c.1636



Jali (latticed screen) with geometrical patterns

ARCH, THE ALHAMBRA, GRANADA, SPAIN, 1333-1354

MIHRAB WITH COLUMN, EL-AINYI MOSQUE, CAIRO, EGYPT, 15TH CENTURY



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South and east Asia

SEVEN-STORIED PAGODA IN BURMESE STYLE. c.9TH-10TH CENTURY Gilded Gilded iron band. hti (crown) THE TRADITIONAL ARCHITECTURE of south and east Asia has been profoundly influenced by the spread from India of Buddhism and Hinduism. This influence is shown both by the abundance and by the architectural styles of temples and shrines in the region. Many early Hindu temples consist of rooms carved from solid rock-faces. However, free-standing structures began to be built in southern India from about the eighth century AD. Many were built in the Dravidian style, like the Temple of Dubika (mast) Virupaksha (opposite) with its characteristic antarala (terraced tower), perforated windows, and numerous arches, pilasters, and carvings. The earliest Buddhist religious monuments were Indian stupas, which consisted of a single hemispherical dome surmounted by a chattravali (shaft) and surrounded by railings with ornate gates. Arrow Later Indian stupas and those built elsewhere were sometimes motif Torus molding modified; for example, in Sri Lanka, the dome became bell-shaped, with spiral and was called a dagoba. Buddhist pagodas, such as the Burmese carving example (right), are multistoried temples, each story having a projecting roof. The form of these buildings probably derived from the yasti (pointed spire) of the stupa. Another feature of many traditional Asian buildings is their imaginative roof-forms, such Decorative as gambrel (mansard) roofs, and roofs with angle-rafters (below). eaves board Ogee-arched Ogee-arched motif forming motif with horn decorative carvings Hip rafter Pentroof Engaged pillar Undulating . molding Arched Baluster entrance finial Rectangular Balustrade window Baluster

Straight

brace

KASUGA-STYLE ROOF WITH SUMIGI (ANGLE-RAFTERS), KASUGADO SHRINE OF ENJOJI, NARA, JAPAN, **12TH-14TH CENTURY**



GAMBREL (MANSARD) ROOF WITH UPSWEPT EAVES AND UNDULATING GABLES, HIMEJI CASTLE, HIMEJI, JAPAN, 1608-1609



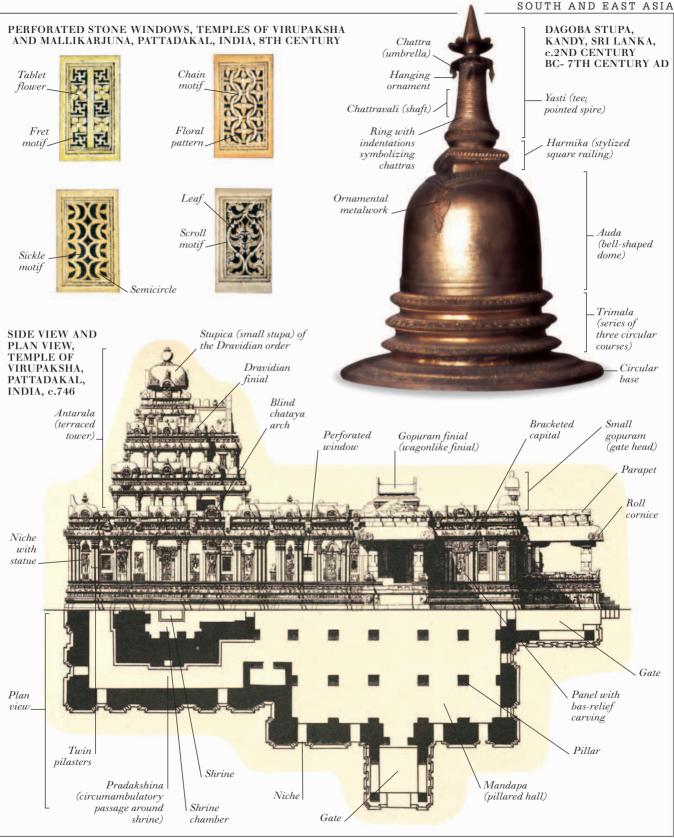
DETAILS FROM EAST ASIAN BUILDINGS

TERRACES, TEMPLE OF HEAVEN, BEIJING, CHINA, 15TH CENTURY

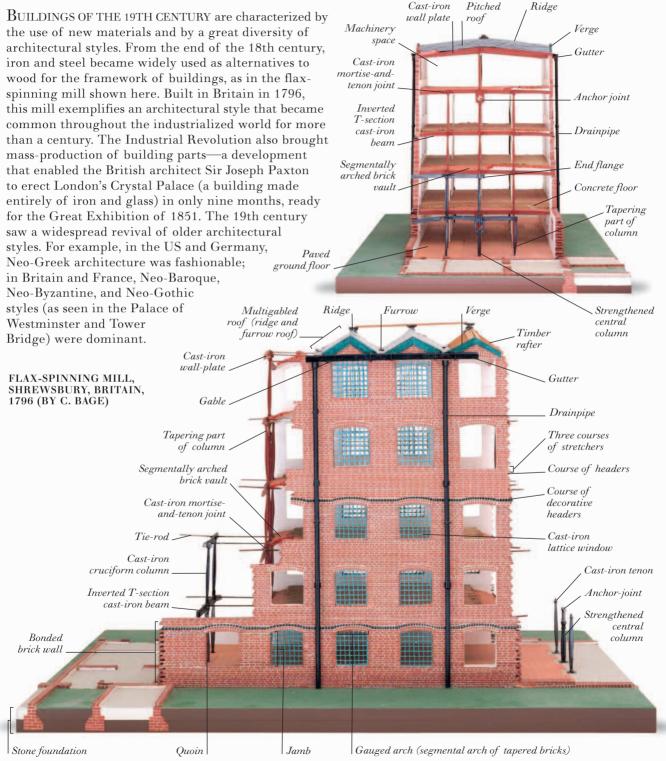


CORNER CAPITAL WITH ROOF BEAMS, POPCHU-SA TEMPLE, POPCHU-SA, SOUTH KOREA, 17TH CENTURY

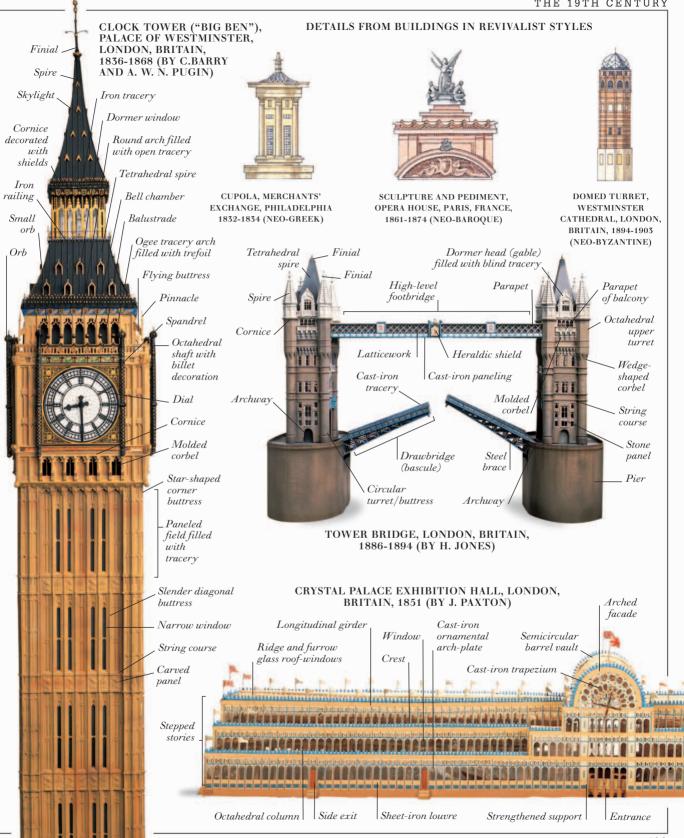
Pillar



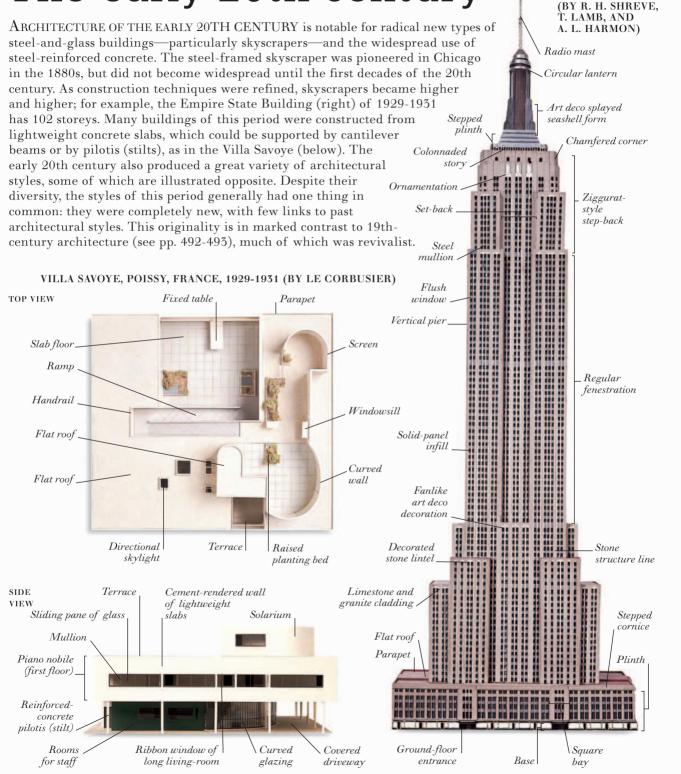
The 19th century



SECTION THROUGH A FLAX-SPINNING MILL

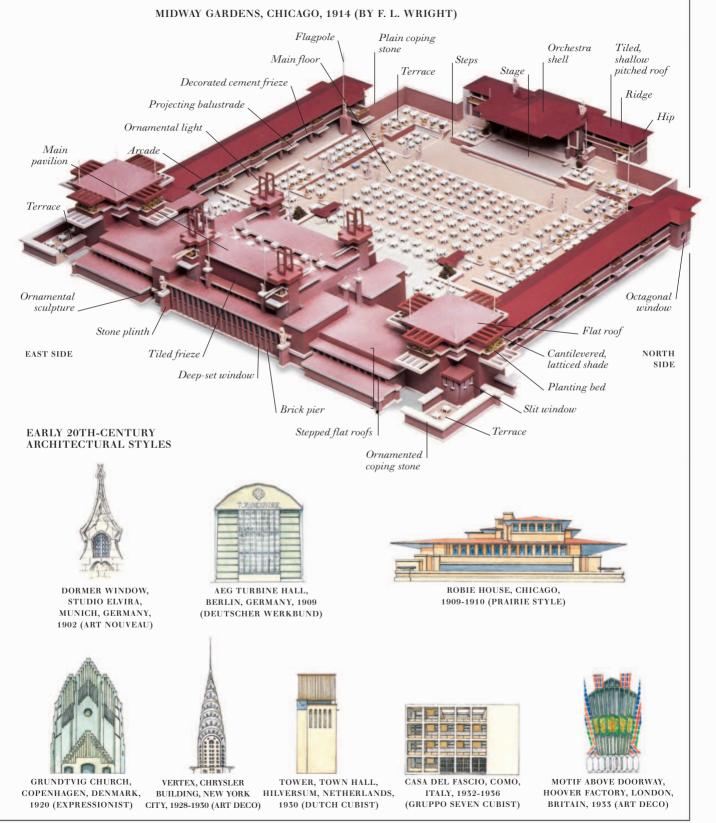


The early 20th century



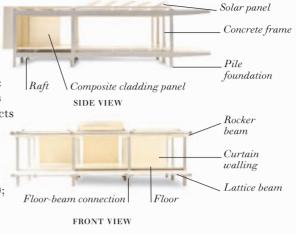
EMPIRE STATE

BUILDING, NEW YORK, USA, 1929-1931



Modern buildings 1

ARCHITECTURE SINCE ABOUT THE 1950s is generally known as modern architecture. One of its main influences has been functionalism—a belief that a building's function should be apparent in its design. Both the Centre Georges Pompidou (below and opposite) and the Hong Kong and Shanghai Bank (see pp. 498-499) are functionalist buildings: on each, elements of engineering and the building's services are clearly visible on the outside. In the 1980s, some architects rejected functionalism in favor of post-modernism, in which historical styles-particularly neoclassicism-were revived, using modern building materials and techniques. In many modern buildings, walls are made of glass or concrete hung from a frame, as in the Kawana House (right); this type of wall construction is known as curtain walling. Other modern construction techniques include the intricate interlocking of concrete vaults-as in the Sydney Opera House (see pp. 498-499)—and the use of high-tension beams to create complex roof shapes, such as the paraboloid roof of Metal-faced, fire-resistant the Church of St. Pierre de Libreville (see pp. 498-499).



Air-conditioning

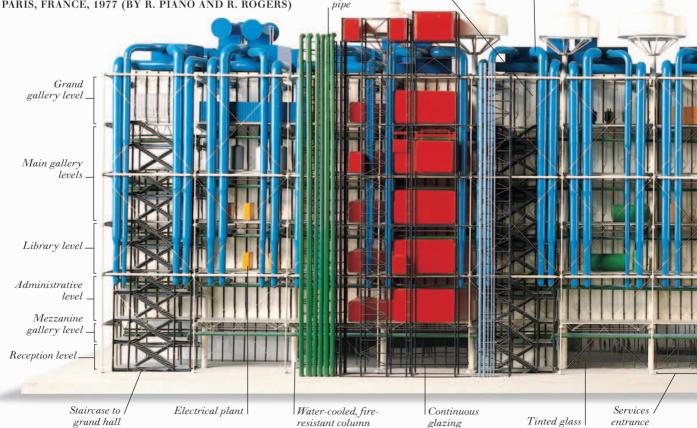
nanel

duct

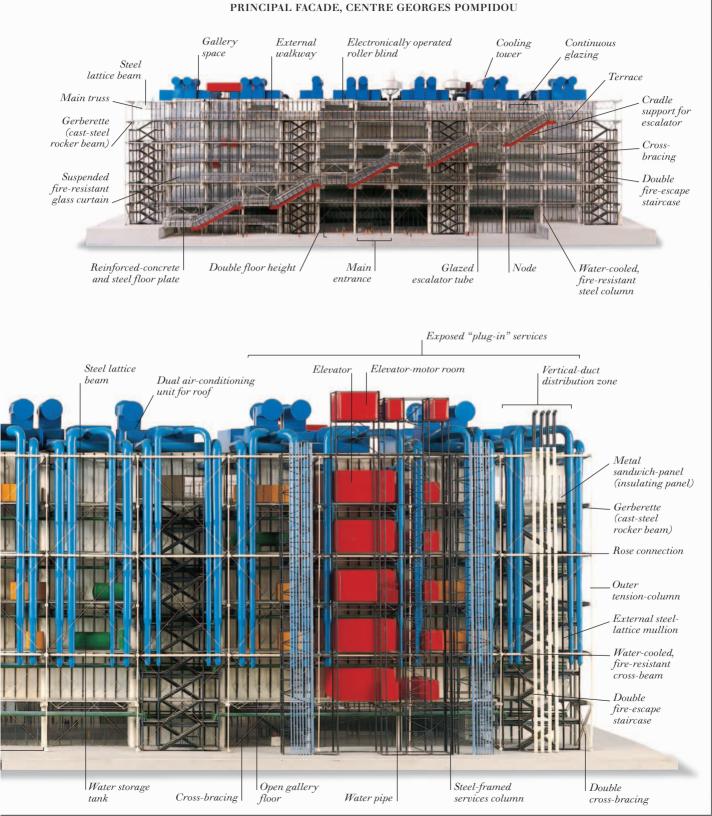
Cooling tower

KAWANA HOUSE, JAPAN, FROM 1987 (BY N. FOSTER)

SERVICES FACADE, CENTRE GEORGES POMPIDOU, PARIS, FRANCE, 1977 (BY R. PIANO AND R. ROGERS)

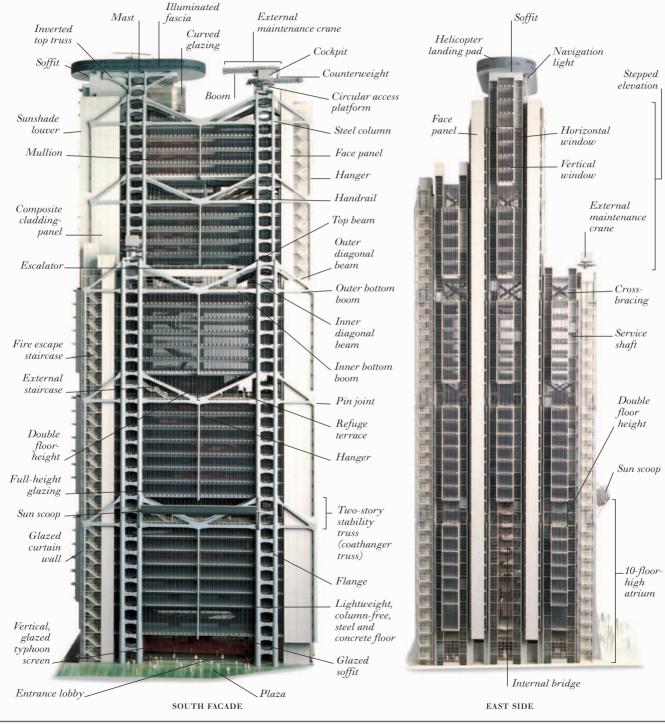


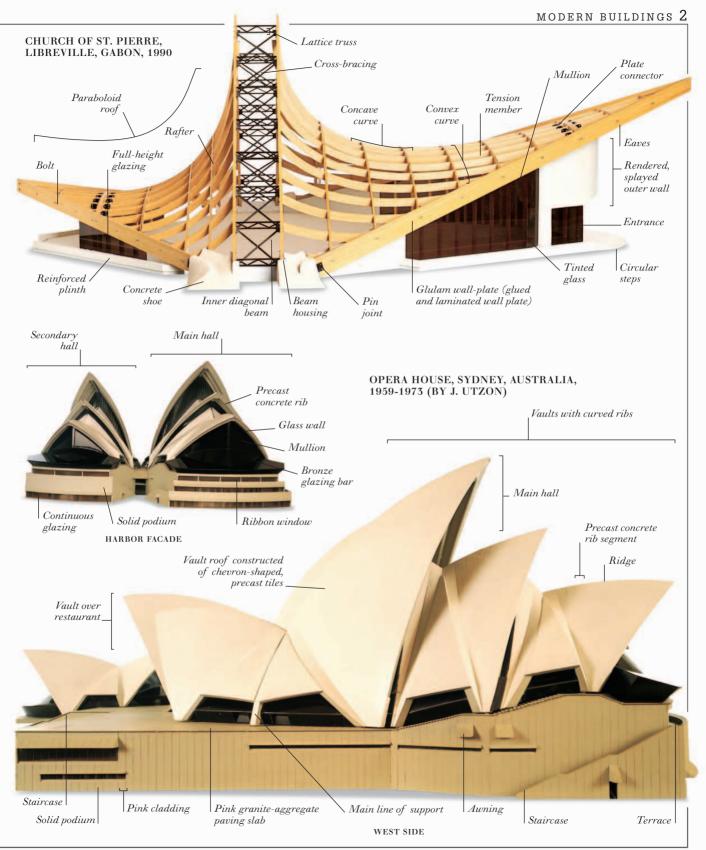
Water



Modern buildings 2

HONG KONG AND SHANGHAI BANK, HONG KONG, 1981-1985 (BY N. FOSTER)









MUSIC

02
04
06
08
10
12
14
16
18
20



Musical notation

MUSICAL NOTATION IS ANY METHOD by written down so that they can be read and others. The present-day conventional syste uses a five-line stave (staff)—divided by v sections known as bars-on which notes, i signatures, time signatures, accidentals, ar are written. A note indicates the duration according to its position on the stave, its pa can be arranged on the stave in order of p form a scale. A silence in the music is indi a rest. The clef, which is placed at the beg of a stave, fixes the pitch. The key signatu which is placed after the clef, indicates the The time signature, placed after the key signature, shows the number of beats in a Accidentals are used to indicate the raisin or lowering of the pitch of a note.

ELEMENTS OF MUSICAL NOTATION



Double

flat

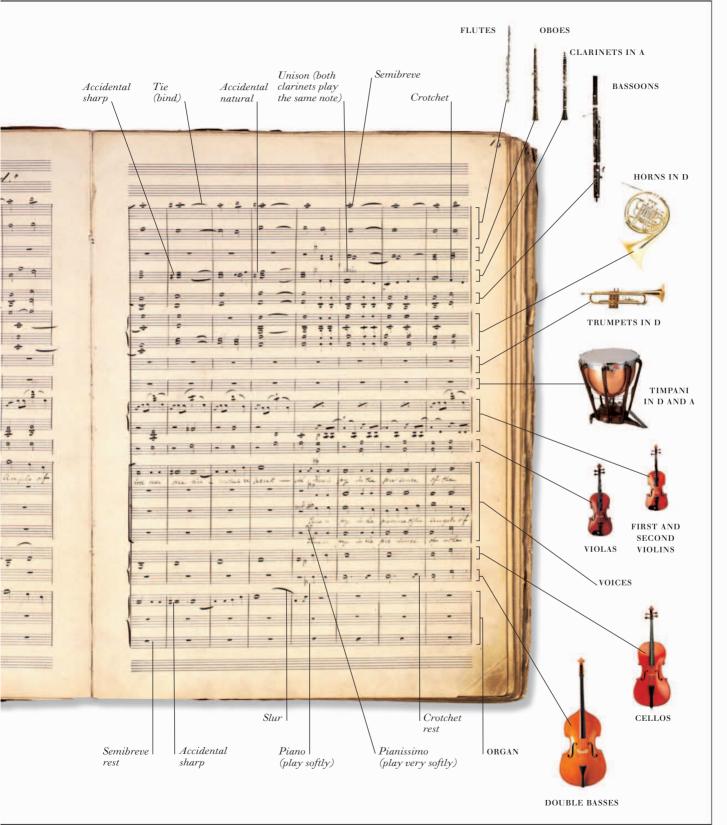
signature

EXAMPLE OF AN ORIGINAL MANUSCRIPT: THE PRODIGAL SON, ARTHUR SULLIVAN, 1869

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rests, clefs, key	COL.			
nd other symbols	1 100.1	horus		
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	allegio		tranguille	
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ure,	Haute II	prop		
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ne key. Bass	10			
clef	Mar. in A	SC B		
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	orchestra	Bass clef	Crotch	het
	written in Italian			
	Italian			
Kev				

Flat

MUSICAL NOTATION



Orchestras

AN ORCHESTRA IS A GROUP of musicians that plays music written for a specific combination of instruments. The number and type of instruments included in the orchestra depends on the style of music being played. The modern orchestra (also known as a symphony orchestra) is made up of four sections of instruments-stringed, woodwind, brass, and percussion. The stringed section consists of violins, violas, cellos (violoncellos), double basses, and sometimes a harp (see pp. 510-511). The main instruments of the woodwind section are flutes. oboes, clarinets, and bassoons-the piccolo, cor anglais, bass clarinet, saxophone, and double bassoon (contrabassoon) can also be included if the music requires them (see pp. 508-509). The brass section usually consists of horns, trumpets, trombones, and the tuba (see pp. 506-507). The main instruments of the percussion section are the timpani (see pp. 518-519). The side drum, bass drum, cymbals, tambourine, triangle, tubular bells, xylophone, HARP vibraphone, tam-tam (gong), castanets, and maracas can also be included in the percussion section (see pp. 516-517). The musicians are usually arranged in a semicircle-strings spread along the front, woodwind and brass in the center, and percussion at the back. A conductor stands in front of the musicians and controls the tempo (speed) of the music and the overall balance of the sound, ensuring that no instruments are too loud or too soft in relation to the others.



FIRST VIOLINS



MUSIC

Brass instruments

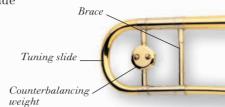


BRASS INSTRUMENTS ARE WIND INSTRUMENTS that are made

of metal, usually brass. Although they appear in many different shapes and sizes, all brass instruments have a mouthpiece, a length of hollow tube, and a flared bell. The mouthpiece of a brass instrument may be cupshaped, as in the cornet, or cone-shaped, as in the horn. The tube may be wide or narrow, mainly

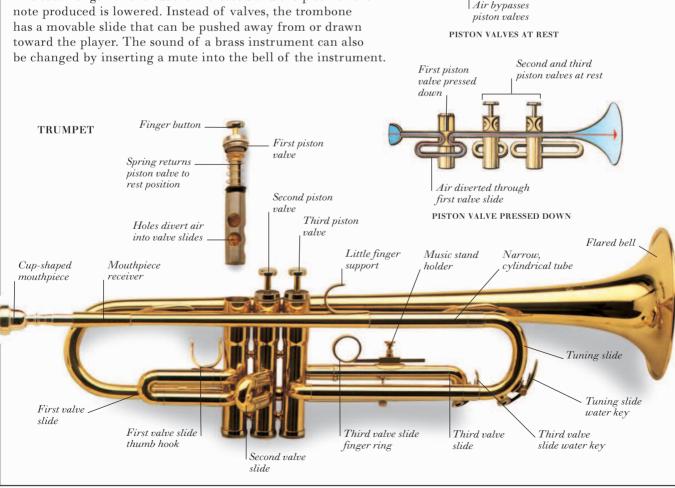
BUGLE

conical, as in the horn and tuba, or mainly cylindrical, as in the trumpet and trombone. The sound of a brass instrument is made by the player's lips vibrating against the mouthpiece, so that the air vibrates in the tube. By changing lip tension, the player can vary the vibrations and produce notes of different pitches. The range of notes produced by a brass instrument can be extended by means of a valve system. Most brass instruments, such as the trumpet, have piston valves that divert the air in the instrument along an extra piece of tubing (known as a valve slide) when pressed down. The total length of the tube is increased and the pitch of the note produced is lowered. Instead of valves, the trombone has a movable slide that can be pushed away from or drawn toward the player. The sound of a brass instrument can also be changed by inserting a mute into the bell of the instrument.



SIMPLIFIED DIAGRAM SHOWING HOW A PISTON VALVE SYSTEM WORKS

Piston valves at rest



BRASS INSTRUMENTS



Woodwind instruments





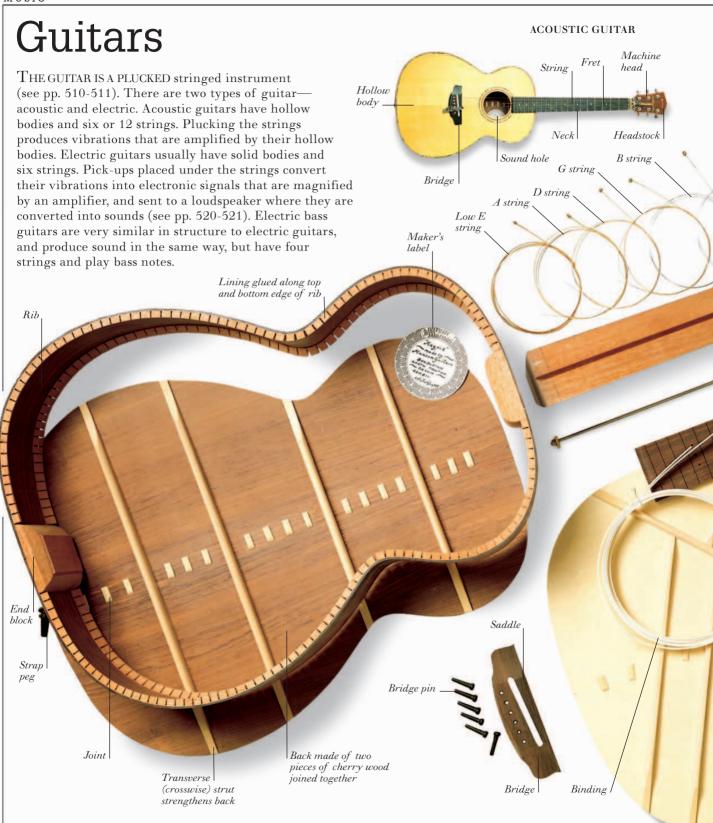
Stringed instruments

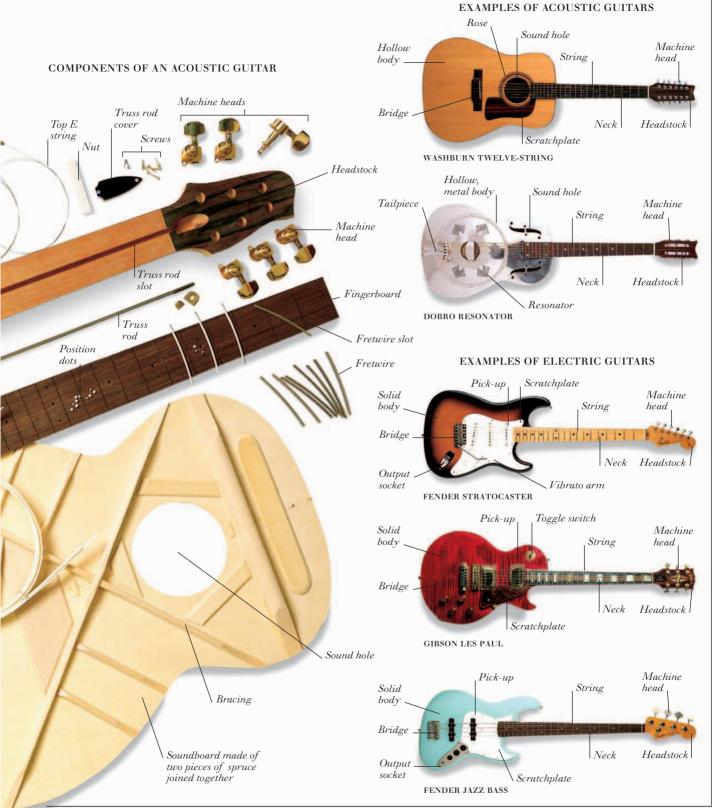
Peg hole STRINGED INSTRUMENTS PRODUCE SOUND by the vibration Ebony of stretched strings. This may be done by drawing a bow tuning pegs across the strings, as in the violin; or by plucking the strings, as in the harp and guitar (see pp. 512-513). The four modern Neck made of maple members of the bowed string family are the violin, viola, cello wood (violoncello), and double bass. Each consists of a hollow, wooden body, a long neck, and four strings. The bow is a wooden stick with horsehair stretched across its length. The vibrations made by drawing the bow across the strings are transmitted to the hollow body, and this itself vibrates, amplifying and enriching the sound produced. The harp consists of a set of strings of different lengths stretched across a wooden frame. The strings are plucked Fingerboard by the player's thumbs and fingers-except Strings the little finger of each hand-which produces vibrations that are amplified Rounded by the harp's sound board. The pitch shoulder of the note produced by any stringed instrument depends on the length, weight, and tension of the string. A shorter, lighter, or tighter string gives a higher note. Belly Head (sound board) Point Scroll Waist Stick Bridge Scroll eye Peg box Tuning peg Horsehair Nut Sound hole String Fingerboard Rounded shoulde Rib. Belly (sound Purfling board) Purfling Sound hole Waist Bridge Tailpiece _ Tuning adjustor Frog Tailpiece loop fits Chin rest Screw Tailpiece around end pin Chin VIOLIN SECTIONS End pin rest BOW VIOLIN OF A VIOLIN (tail-pin)

Scroll eve

Scroli





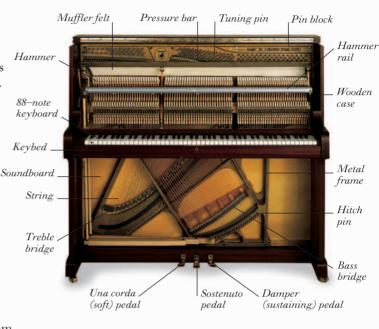


Keyboard instruments

KEYBOARD INSTRUMENTS are instruments that are sounded by means of a keyboard. The organ and piano are two of the principal members of the keyboard family. The organ consists of pipes that are operated by one or more manuals (keyboards) and a pedal board. The pipes are lined up in rows (known as ranks or registers) on top of a wind chest. The sound of the organ is made when air is admitted into a pipe by pressing a key or pedal. The piano

ORGAN PIPE

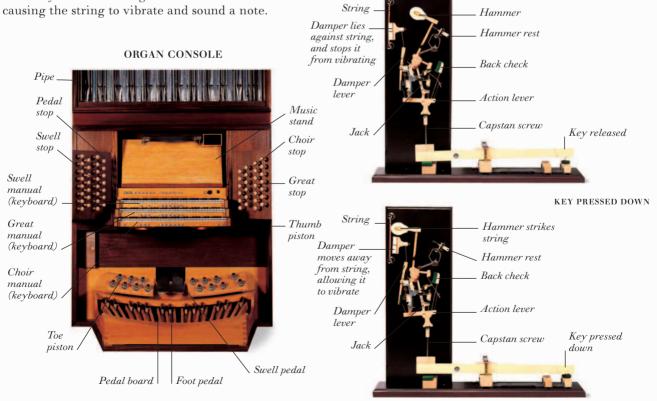
PIPE consists of wire strings stretched over a metal frame, and a keyboard and pedals that operate hammers and dampers. The piano frame is either vertical—as in the upright piano—or horizontal—as in the grand piano. When a key is at rest, a damper lies against the string to stop it from vibrating. When a key is pressed down, the damper moves away from the string as the hammer strikes it, causing the string to vibrate and sound a note.

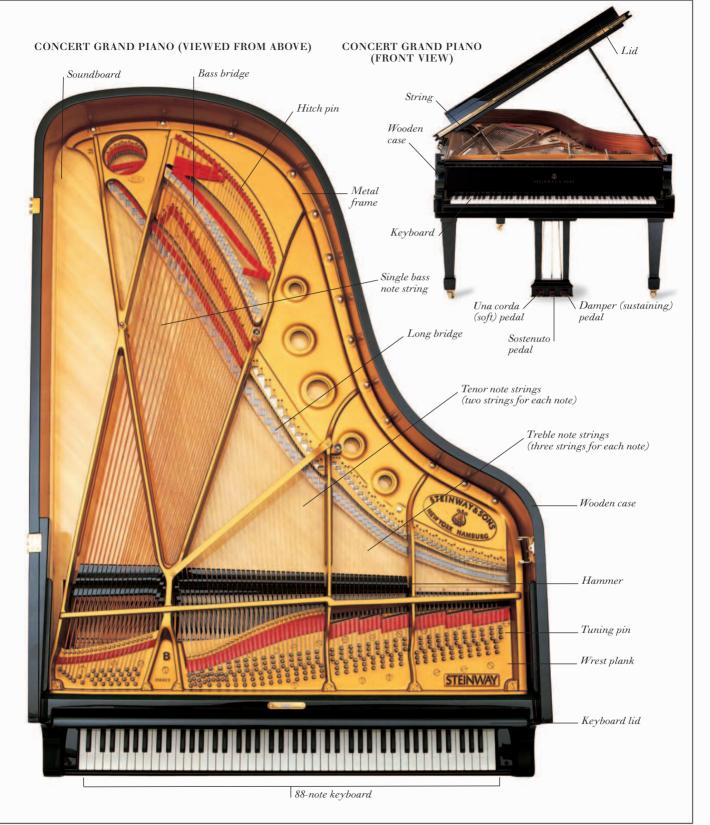


UPRIGHT PIANO

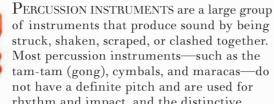
UPRIGHT PIANO ACTION

KEY AT REST

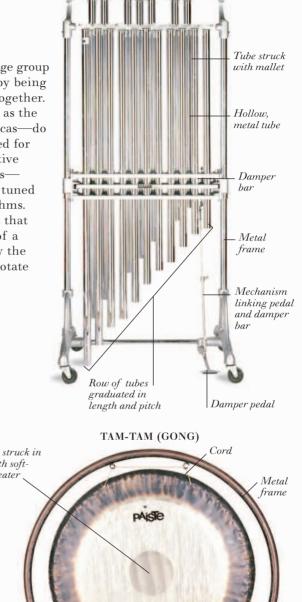




Percussion instruments

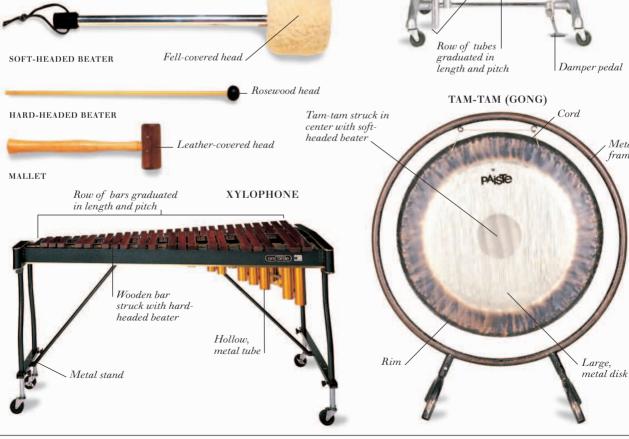


TEMPLE BLOCKS rhythm and impact, and the distinctive timber (color) of their sound. Other percussion instruments such as the xylophone, vibraphone, and tubular bells—are tuned to a definite pitch and can play melody, harmony, and rhythms. The xylophone and vibraphone each have two rows of bars that are arranged in a similar way to the black and white keys of a piano. Metal tubes are suspended below the bars to amplify the sound. The vibraphone has electrically operated fans that rotate in the tubes and produce a vibrato (wavering pitch) effect.



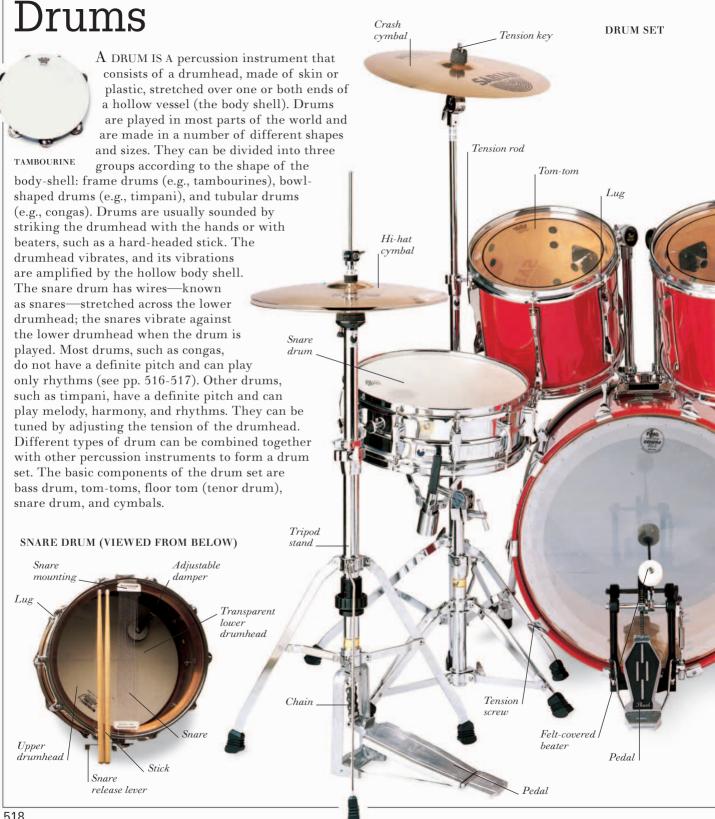
TUBULAR BELLS

EXAMPLES OF BEATERS



PERCUSSION INSTRUMENTS







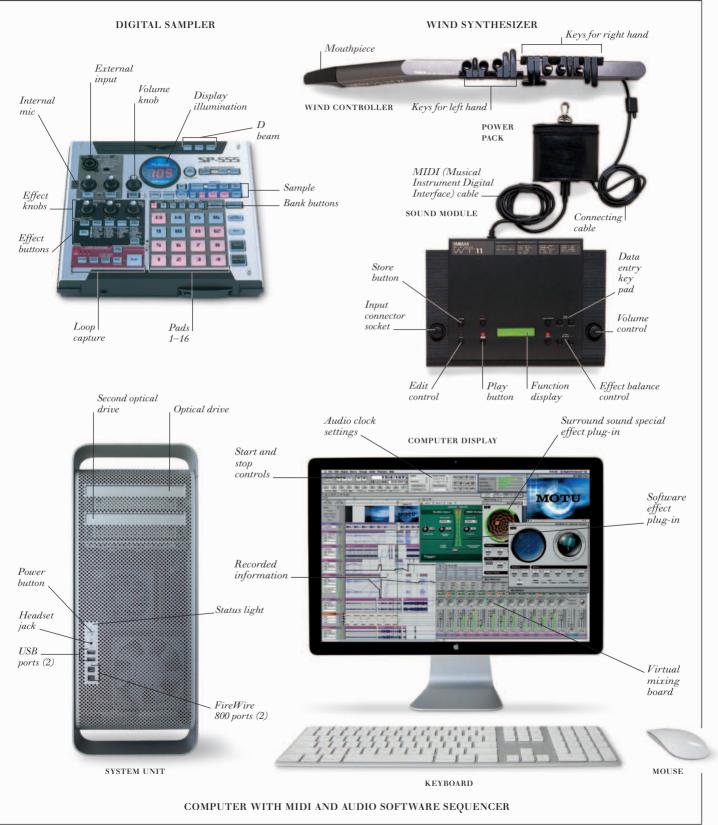
Electronic instruments

ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENTS generate electronic signals that are magnified by an amplifier and sent to a loudspeaker, where they are converted into sounds. Synthesizers, and other electronic instruments, simulate the characteristic sounds of conventional instruments, and also create entirely new sounds. Most electronic instruments are keyboard instruments, but electronic wind and percussion instruments are also popular. A digital sampler records and stores sounds from musical instruments or other sources. When the sound is played back, the pitch of the original sound can be altered. A keyboard can be connected to the sampler so that a tune can be played using the sampled sounds. With a MIDI (Musical Instrument Digital Interface) system, a computer can be linked with other electronic instruments, such as keyboards and electronic drums, to make sounds together or in sequence. It is also possible, using music software, to compose and play music on a home computer.



ELECTRONIC DRUMS

Drum pad







Sports

Soccer524
FOOTBALL
$AustralianRules andGaelicFootball\cdots 528$
Rugby
BASKETBALL 532
Volleyball, Netball, and Handball534
BASEBALL
CRICKET
HOCKEY, LACROSSE, AND HURLING
TRACK AND FIELD
RACKET SPORTS544
Golf546
Archery and Shooting
ICE HOCKEY
Alpine Skiing552
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JUDO AND FENCING
SWIMMING AND DIVING558
CANOEING, ROWING, AND SAILING
Angling

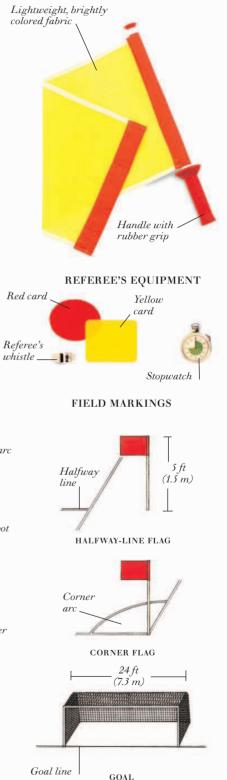


ASSISTANT REFEREE'S FLAG

Soccer

GAMES INVOLVING KICKING A BALL have a long history and were recorded in China as early as 300 BC; in medieval Europe, street football was banned as a menace to the public; only in 1863 were the rules established, specifically banning carrying the ball for all players except the goalkeeper, and separating rugby from soccer. Soccer, officially termed association football, is a team sport in which players attempt to score goals by passing and dribbling the ball down the field past opposing defenders, and kicking or heading the ball into the goal net, outwitting the defending goalkeeper. Each team consists of 10 outfield players (defenders, midfielders, and strikers) and a goalkeeper. Players from the opposing team may challenge the player in possession of the ball, but an illegal or foul tackle results in a penalty if a foul occurs inside the penalty area or a free kick if outside the penalty area. The round ball used in soccer is more easily controlled than the oval balls used in American, Canadian, and Australian rules football and in rugby. The result is a more "open" or flowing game that is played and watched by millions of people worldwide.



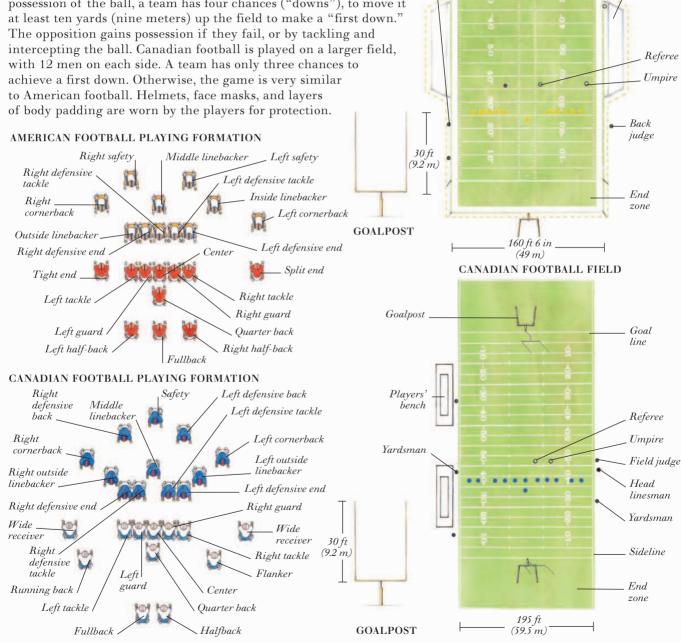




SPORTS

Football

IN AMERICAN AND CANADIAN FOOTBALL, the object of the game Goalis to get the ball across the opponent's goal line, either by passing line or carrying it across (a touchdown), or by kicking it between their goalposts (a field goal). An American football team has 11 players on the field at a time, although up to 40 players can appear for each Line side in a single game. The agile "offense" tries to score points, and iudge the heavy hitting "defense" holds back the opposition. When in possession of the ball, a team has four chances ("downs"), to move it



FOOTBALL FIELD

End line

Inbound

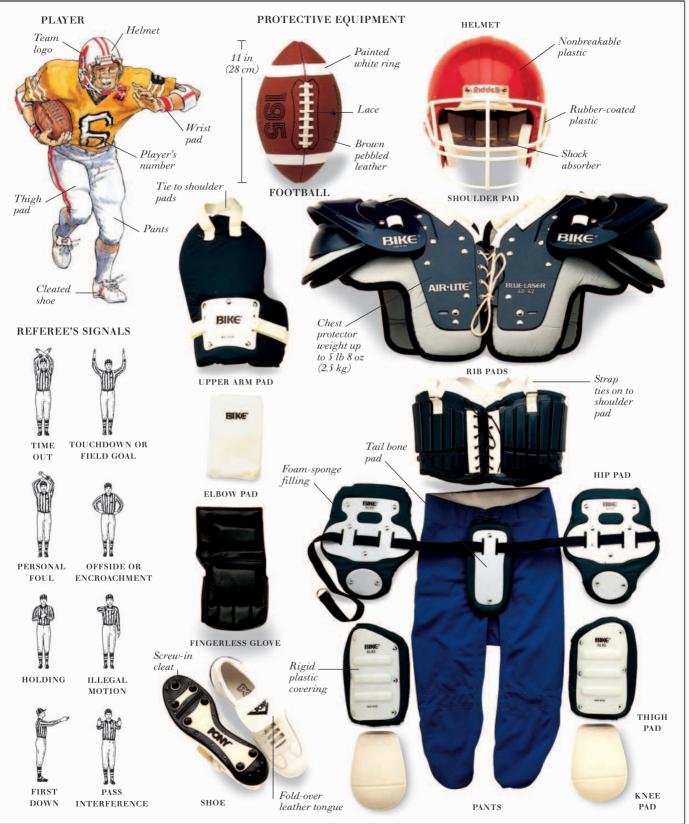
Sideline

Players'

bench

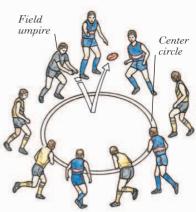
line

Goalpost



Australian rules and Gaelic football

VARIETIES OF FOOTBALL have developed all over the world and Australian rules football is considered to be one of the roughest versions, allowing full body tackles even though participants wear no protective padding. The game is played on a large, oval field by two sides, each of 18 players. Players can kick or punch the ball, which is shaped like a rugby ball, but cannot throw it. Running with the ball is permitted, as long as the ball touches the ground at least once every 10 meters. The fullbacks defend two sets of posts. Teams try to score "goals" (six points) between the inner posts or "behinds" (one point) inside the outer posts. Each game has four quarters of 25 minutes, and the team with the most points at the end of the allotted time is the winner. In Gaelic football, an Irish version of soccer (see pp. 524-525), a size 5 soccer ball is used. Each team can have 15 players on the field at a time. Players are allowed to catch, fist, and kick the ball, or dribble it using their hands or feet, but cannot throw it. Teams are awarded three points for getting the ball into the net, and one point for getting it through the posts above the crossbar. Gaelic football is rarely played outside of Ireland.

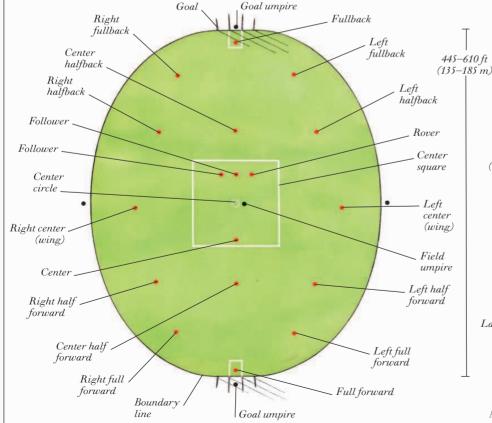


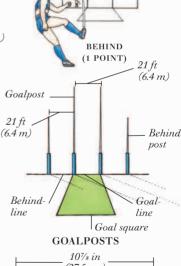
START OF PLAY

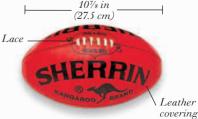
SCORING



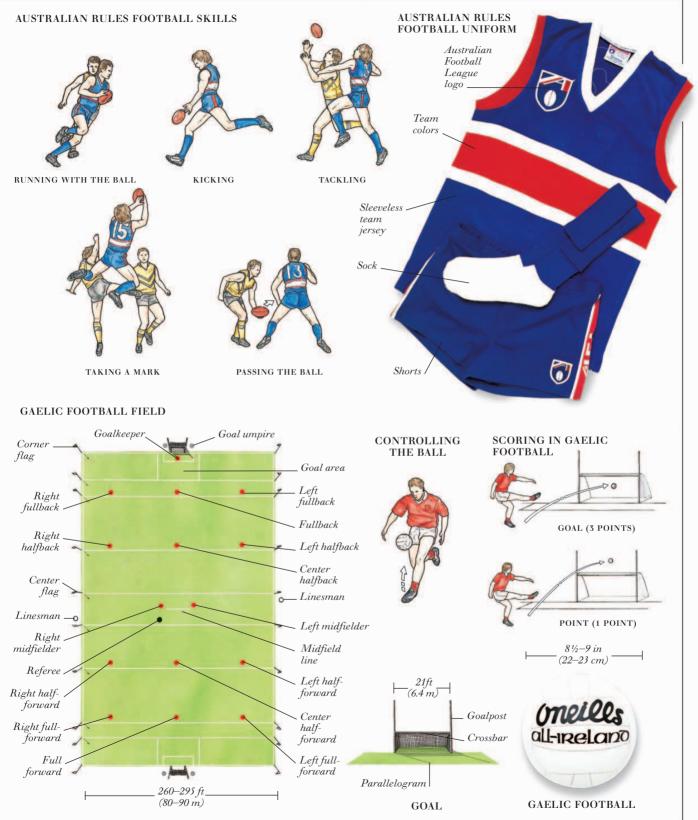
AUSTRALIAN RULES FOOTBALL FIELD



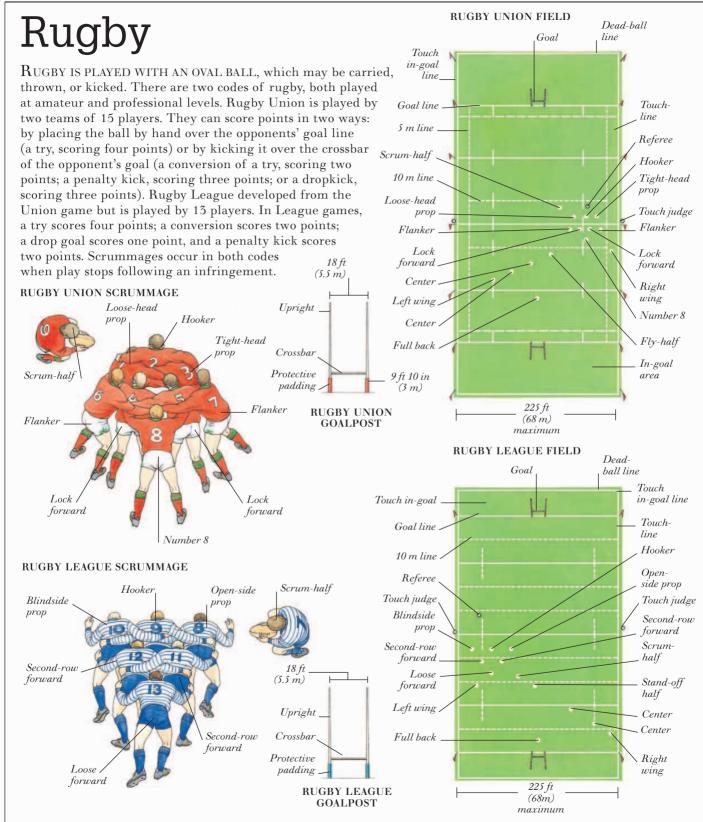




AUSTRALIAN RULES FOOTBALL



SPORTS





CHEST PASS

DRIBBLE

Basketball

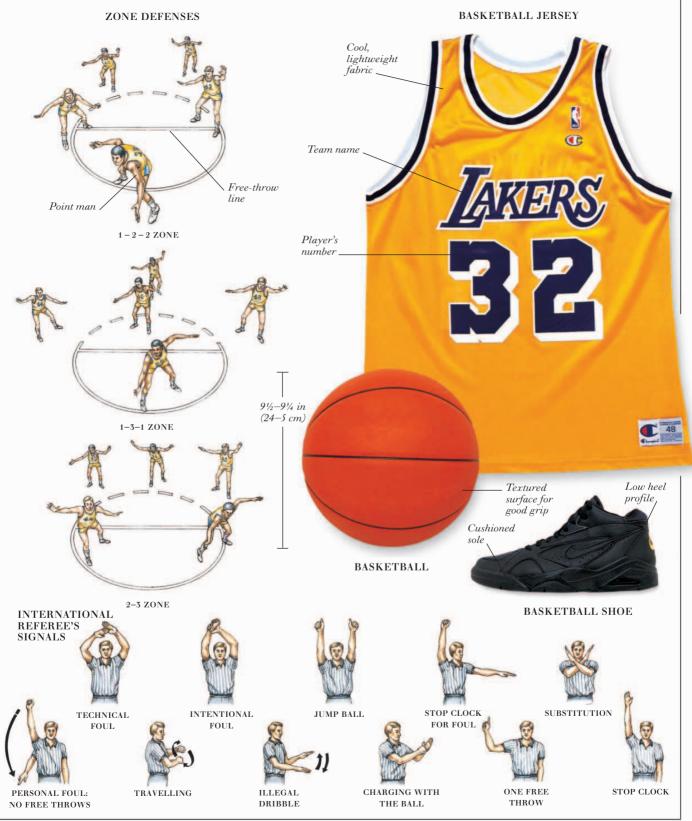
BASKETBALL IS A BALL GAME for two teams of five players, originally devised in 1890 by James Naismath for the Y.M.C.A. in Springfield, Massachusetts. The object of the game is to take possession of the ball and score points by throwing the ball into the opposing team's basket. A player moves the ball up and down the court by bouncing it along the ground or "dribbling"; the ball may be passed between players by throwing, bouncing, or rolling. Players may not run with or kick the ball, although pivoting on one foot is allowed. The game begins with the referee throwing the ball into the air and a player from each team jumping up to try and "tip" the ball to a teammate. The length of the game and the number of periods played varies at different levels. There are amateur, professional, and international rules. No game ends in a draw. An extra period of five minutes is played, plus as many extra periods as are necessary to break the tie. In addition to the five players on court, each team has up to seven substitutes, but players may only leave the court with the permission of the referee. Basketball is a noncontact sport and fouls on other players are penalized by a throw-in awarded against the offending team; a free throw at the basket is awarded when a player is fouled in the act of shooting. Basketball is a fast-moving game, requiring both physical and mental coordination. Skillful tactical play matters more than simple physical strength and the agility of the players makes the game an excellent spectator sport.

INTERNATIONAL BASKETBALL COURT

OVERHEAD PASS End-line Backboard Backboard Restraining circle Basket Player's Semicircle **b**ench Cord Metal Right net rim Referee LAY-UP SHOT guard Timekeeper Left guard (1.8 m)Center ClockCenterline operator Left forward Scorer BASKET AND BACKBOARD STRUCTURE JUMP SHOT Center circle Referee Right Free-throw forward line 10 ft $(3.05\ m)$ Three-Sideline point line 49 ft (15 m) -LONG PASS

BASKET AND BACKBOARD

532

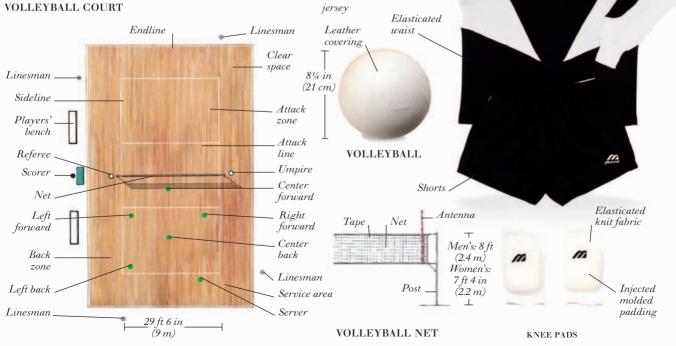


Volleyball, netball, and handball

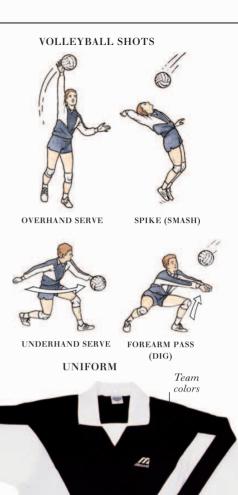
VOLLEYBALL, NETBALL, AND HANDBALL are fast-moving team sports played with balls on courts with a hard surface. In volleyball, the object of the game is to hit the ball over a net strung across the center of the court so that it touches the ground on the opponent's side. The team of six players can take three hits to direct the ball over the net, although the same player cannot hit the ball twice in a row. Players can hit the ball with their arms, hands, or any other part of their upper body. Teams score points only while serving. The first team to score 15 points, with a two-point margin over their opponent, wins the game. Netball is one of the few sports played exclusively by women. Similar to basketball (see pp. 532–533), it is played on a slightly larger court with seven players instead of five. A team moves the ball toward the goal by throwing, passing, and catching it with the aim of throwing the ball through the opponents' goal net. Players are confined by their playing position to specific areas of the court. Team handball is one of the world's fastest games. Each side has seven players. A team moves the ball by dribbling, passing, or bouncing it as they run. Players may stop, catch,

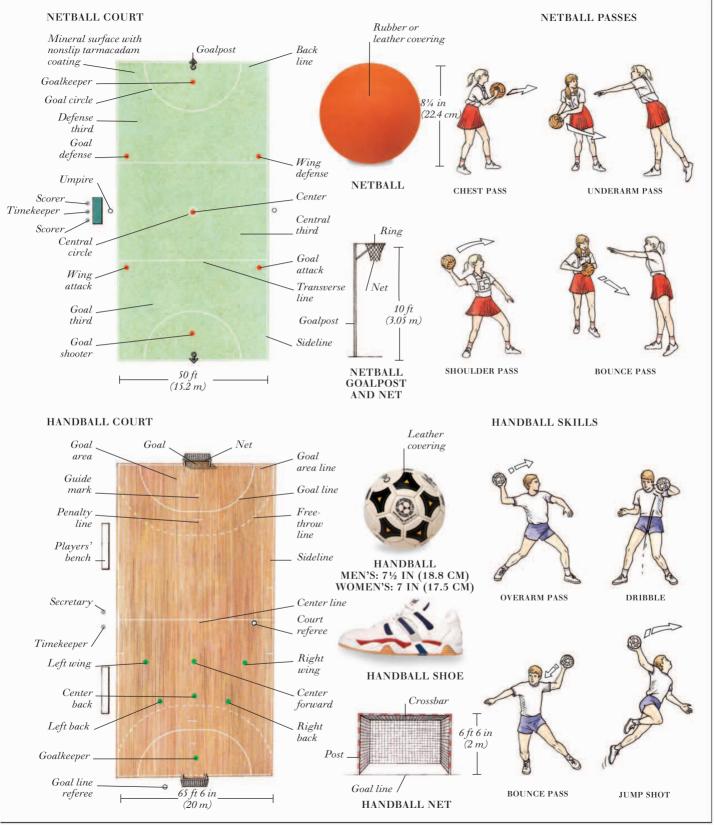
cuff

throw, bounce, or strike the ball with any part of the body above the knees. Each team tries to score goals by directing the ball past the opposition's goalkeeper into the net, which is similar to a soccer net. Ribbed



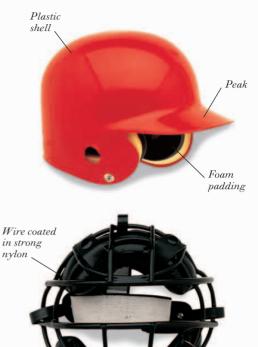
Cotton-knit





Baseball

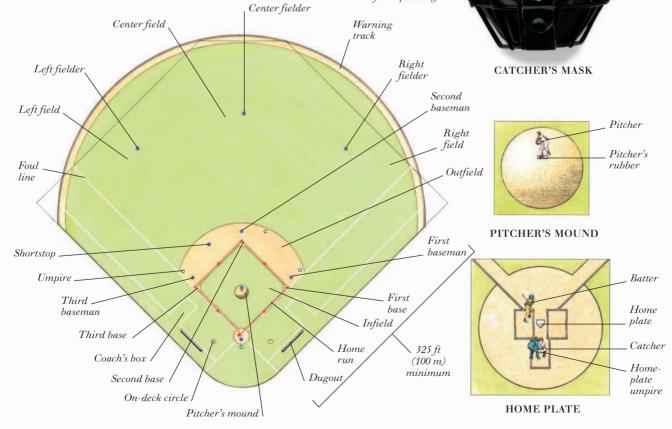
BASEBALL IS A BALL GAME for two teams of nine players. The batter hits the ball thrown by the opposing team's pitcher, into the area between the foul lines. He then runs around all four fixed bases in order to score a run, touching or "tagging" each base in turn. The pitcher must throw the ball at a height between the batter's armpits and knees, a height which is called the "strike zone." A ball pitched in this area that crosses over the "home plate" is called a "strike" and the batter has three strikes in which to try and hit the ball (otherwise he is "struck out"). The fielding team tries to get the batting team out by catching the ball before it bounces, tagging a player of the batting team with the ball who is running between bases, or by tagging a base before the player has reached it. Members of the batting team may stop safely at a base as long as it is not occupied by another member of their team. When the batter runs to first base, his teammate at first base must run on to second—this is called "force play." A game consists of nine innings and each team will bat once during an inning. When three members of the batting team are out, the teams swap roles. The team with the greatest number of runs wins the game.

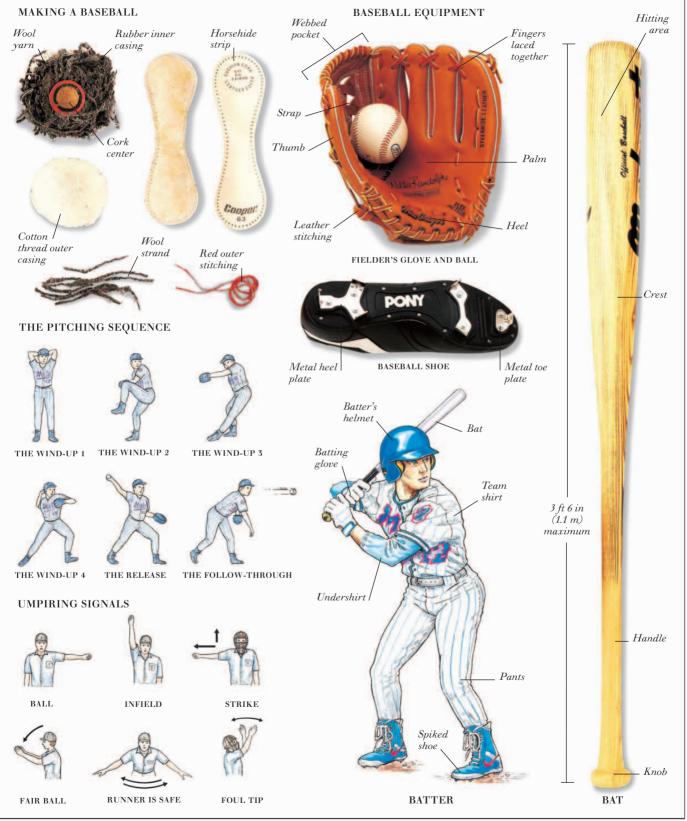


BATTER'S HELMET



Plastic-coated foam padding





Cricket

CRICKET IS A BALL GAME PLAYED by two teams of eleven players on a pitch with two sets of three stumps (wickets). The bowler bowls the ball down the pitch to the batsman of the opposing team, who must defend the wicket in front of which he stands. The object of the game is to score as many runs as possible. Runs can be scored individually by running the length of the playing strip, or by hitting a ball that lands outside the boundary ("six"), or that lands inside the boundary but bounces or rolls outside ("four"); the opposing team will bowl and field, attempting to dismiss the batsmen. A batsman can be dismissed in one of several ways: by the bowler hitting the wicket with the ball ("bowled"); by a fielder catching the ball hit by the batsman before it touches the ground ("caught"); by the wicket-keeper or another fielder breaking the wicket while the batsman is attempting a run and is therefore out of his ground ("stumped" or "run out"); by the batsman breaking the wicket with his own bat or body ("hit wicket"); by a part of Wicket-keeper

the batsman's body being hit by a ball that would otherwise have hit the wicket ("leg before wicket" ["lbw"]). A match consists of one or two innings and each inning ends when the tenth batsman of the batting team is out, when a certain number of overs (a series of six balls bowled) have been played, or when the captain of the batting team "declares" ending the innings voluntarily. *Wicket*





FORWARD DEFENSIVE STROKE





Batsman

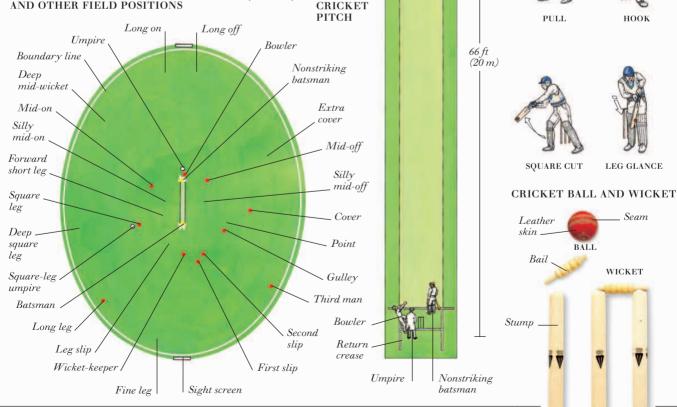




ON-DRIVE C



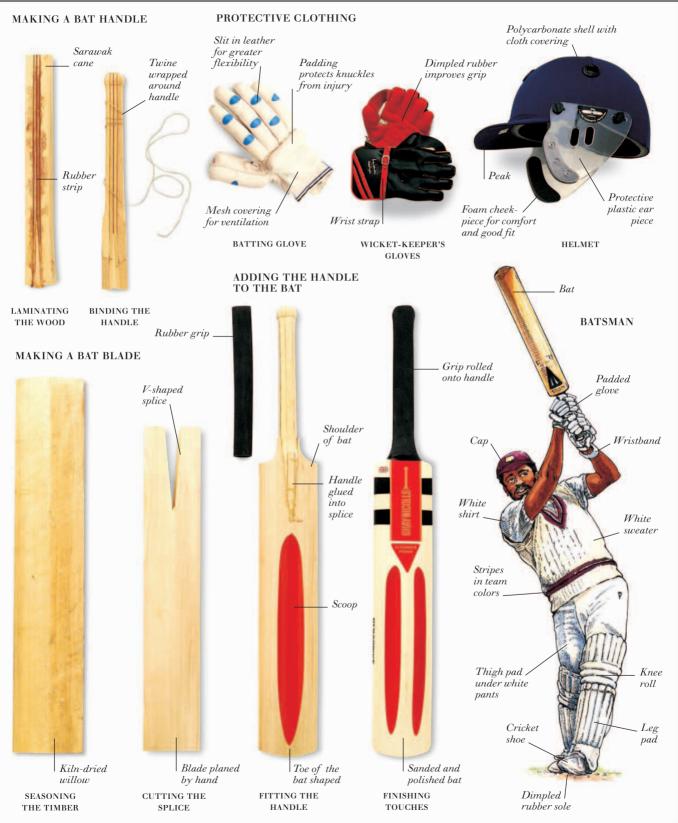
POSSIBLE FIELD POSITIONS FOR AN AWAY SWING BOWLER TO A RIGHT-HANDED BATSMAN (IN RED) AND OTHER FIELD POSITIONS

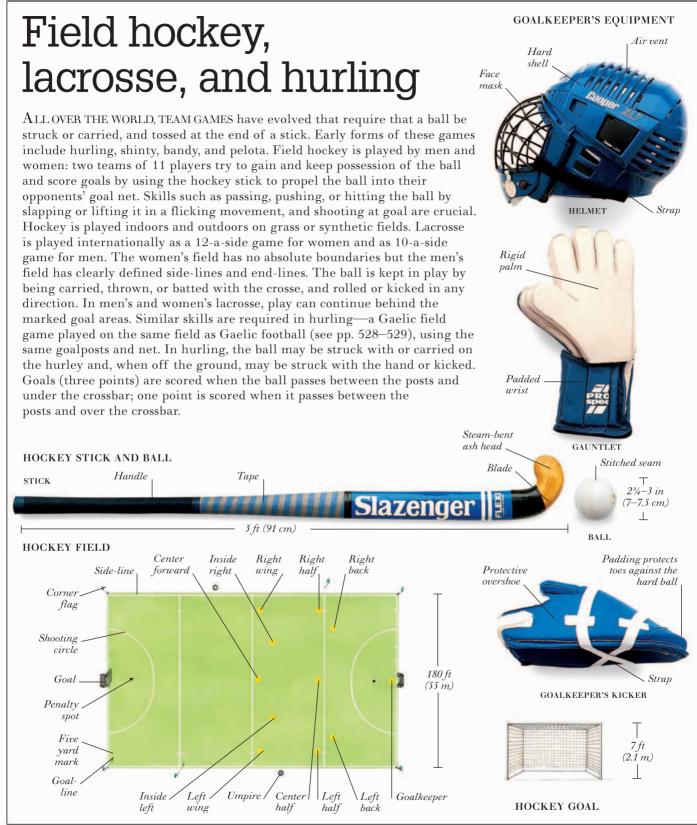


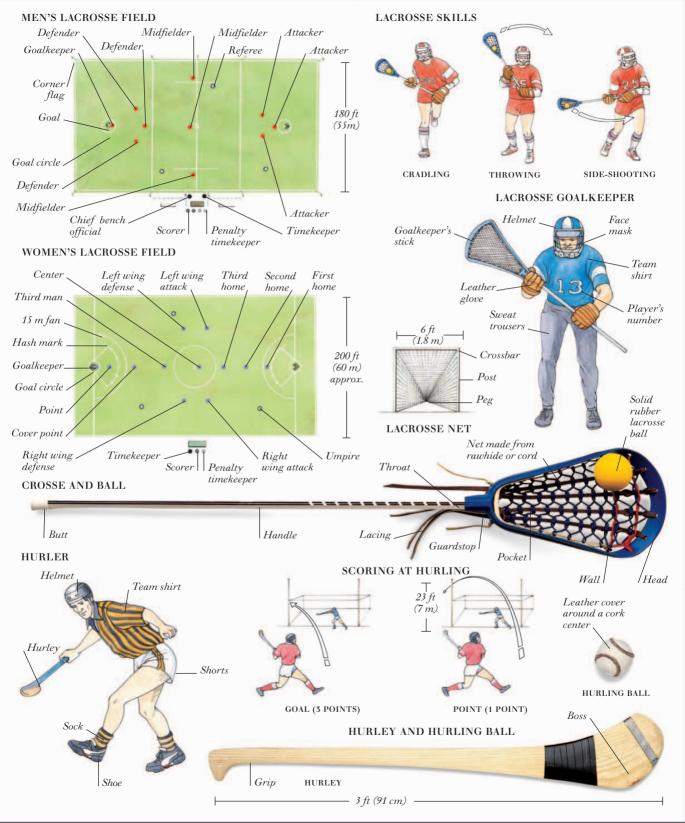
Bowling

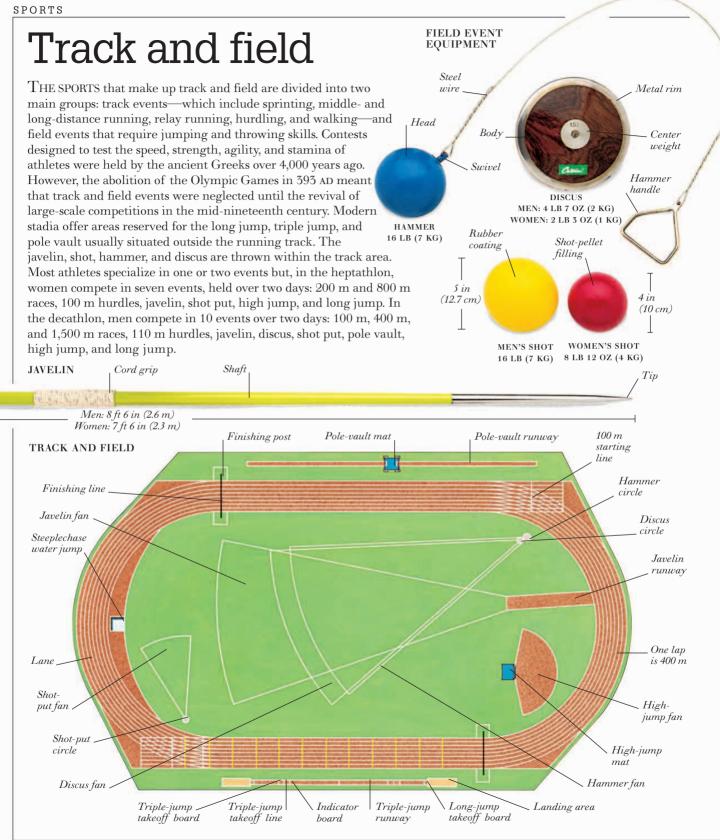
crease



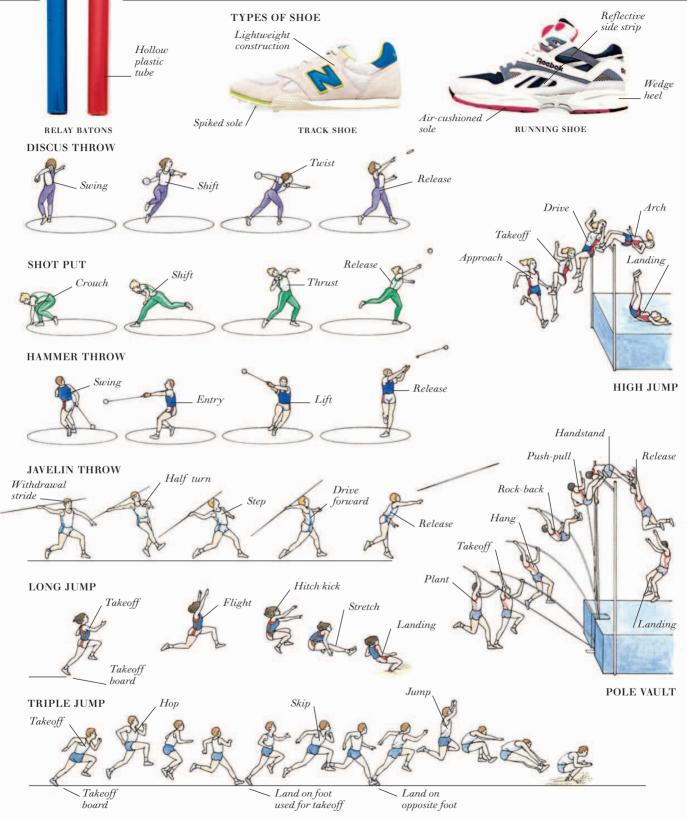


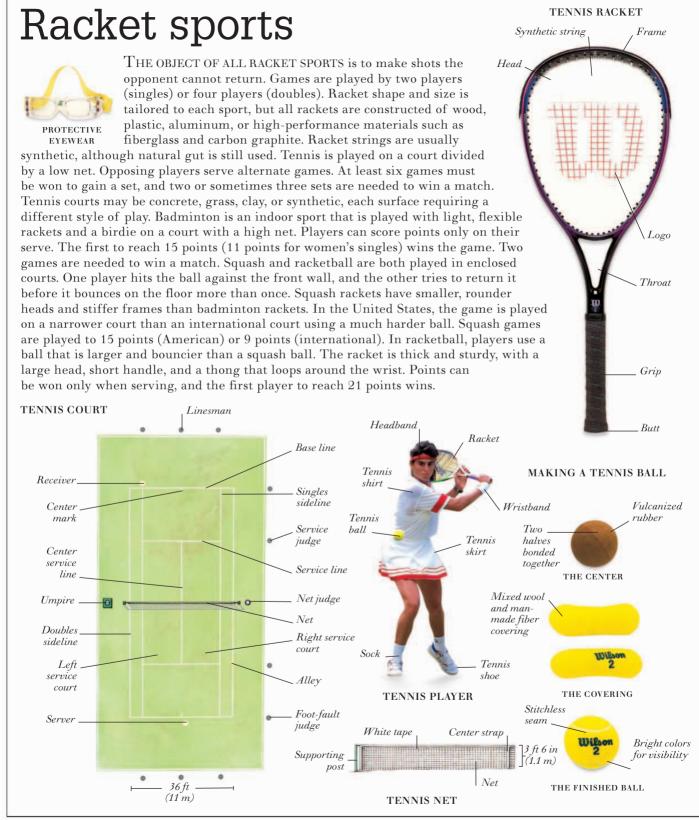




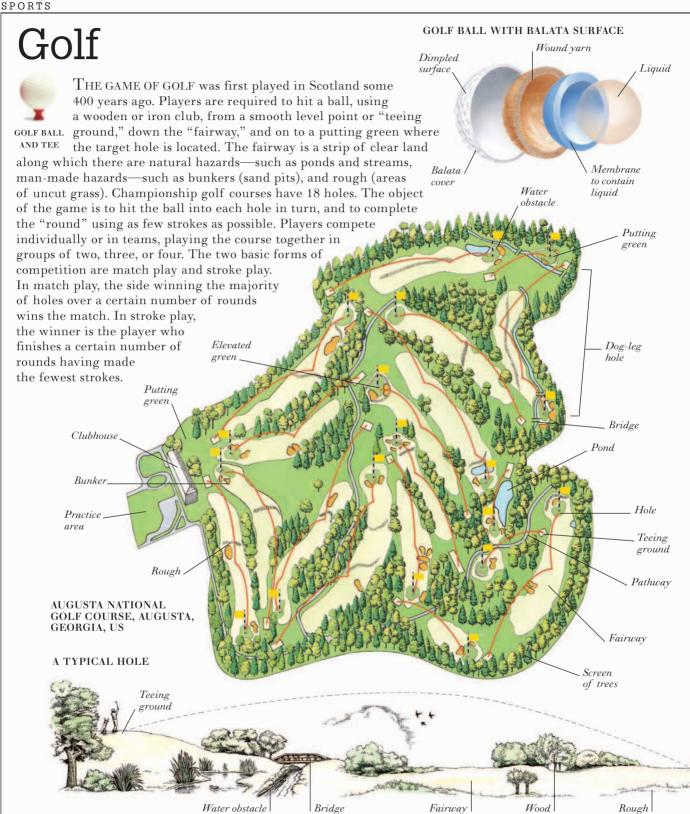


TRACK AND FIELD







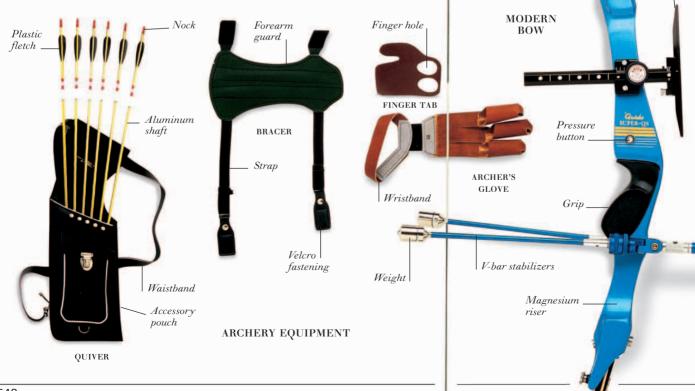


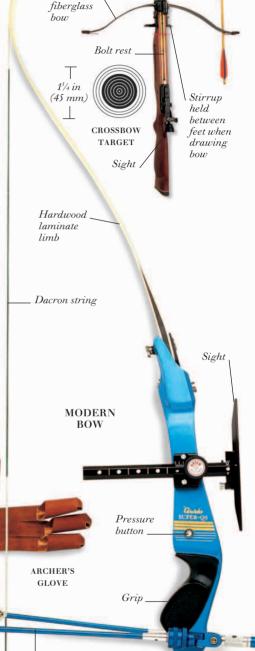
GOLF



Archery and shooting

TARGET SHOOTING AND ARCHERY EVOLVED as practice for hunting and battle skills. Modern bows, although designed according to the principles of early hunting bows, use laminates, fiberglass, dacron, and carbon, and are equipped with sights and stabilizers. Competitors in target archery shoot over distances of 100 ft (30 m), 165 ft (50 m), 230 ft (70 m), and 300 ft (90 m) for men, and 100 ft (30 m), 165 ft (50 m), 200 ft (60 m), and 230 ft (70 m) for women. The closer the shot is to the center of the target, the higher the score. The individual scores are added up, and the archer with the highest total wins the competition. Crossbows are used in match competitions over 33 ft (10 m), and 100 ft (30 m). Rifle shooting is divided into three categories: smallbore, bigbore, and air rifle. Contests take place over a variety of distances and further subdivisions are based on the type of shooting position used: prone, kneeling, or standing. The Olympic biathlon combines cross-country skiing and rifle shooting over a course of approximately 12¹/₂ miles (20 km). Additional magazines of ammunition are carried in the butt of the rifles. Bigbore rifles fitted with a telescopic sight can be used for hunting and running game target shooting. Pistol shooting events, using rapid-fire pistols, target pistols, and air pistols, take place over 33 ft (10 m), 82 ft (25 m), and 165 ft (50 m) distances. In rapid-fire pistol shooting, a total of 60 shots are fired from a distance of 83 ft (25 m).





CROSSBOW AND BOLT

Bolt _

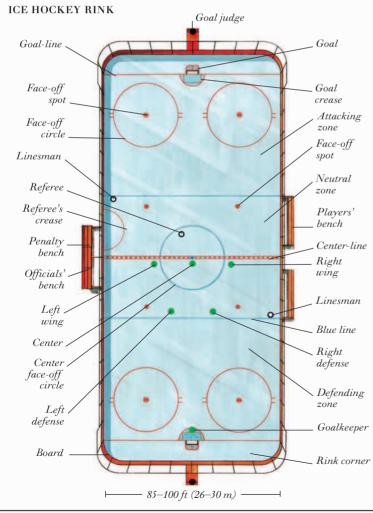
Laminated

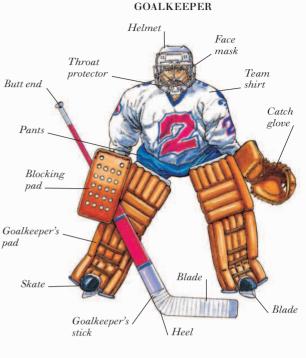
ARCHERY AND SHOOTING



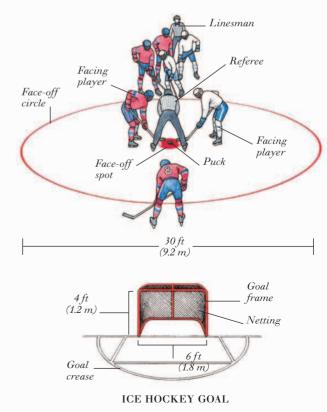
Ice hockey

ICE HOCKEY IS PLAYED by two teams of six players on an ice rink, with a goal net at each end. The object of this fast, and often dangerous, game is to hit a frozen rubber puck into the opposing team's net with a ice hockey stick. The game begins when the referee drops the puck between the sticks of two players from opposing teams, who "face off." The rink is divided into three areas: defending, neutral, and attacking zones. Players may move with the puck and pass the puck to one another along the ice, but may not pass it more than two zones across the rink markings. A goal is scored when the puck entirely crosses the goalline between the posts and under the crossbar of the goal. A team may field up to 20 players although only six players are allowed on the ice at one time; substitutions occur frequently. Each game consists of three periods of 20 minutes, divided by breaks of 15 minutes.



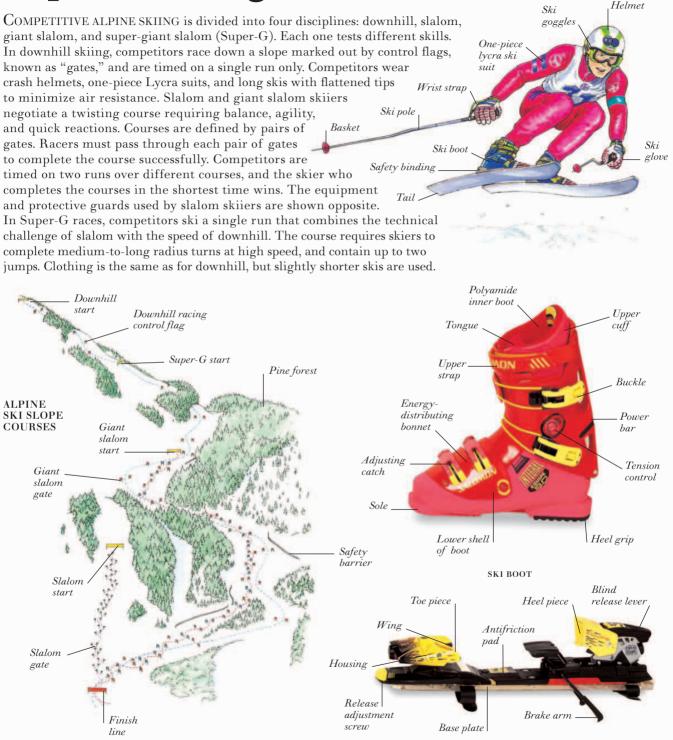


THE FACE OFF





Alpine skiing



SAFETY BINDING

DOWNHILL SKIER

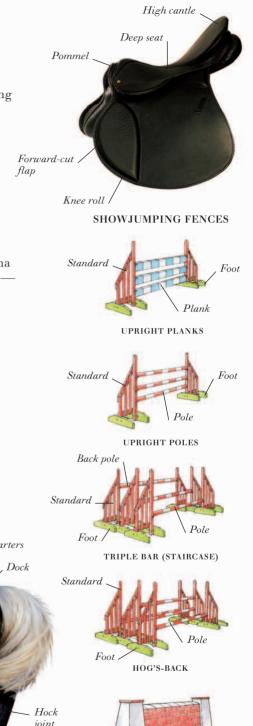


SPORTS

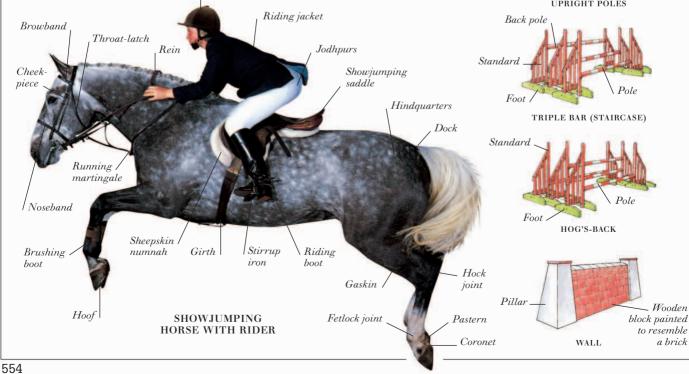
Equestrian sports

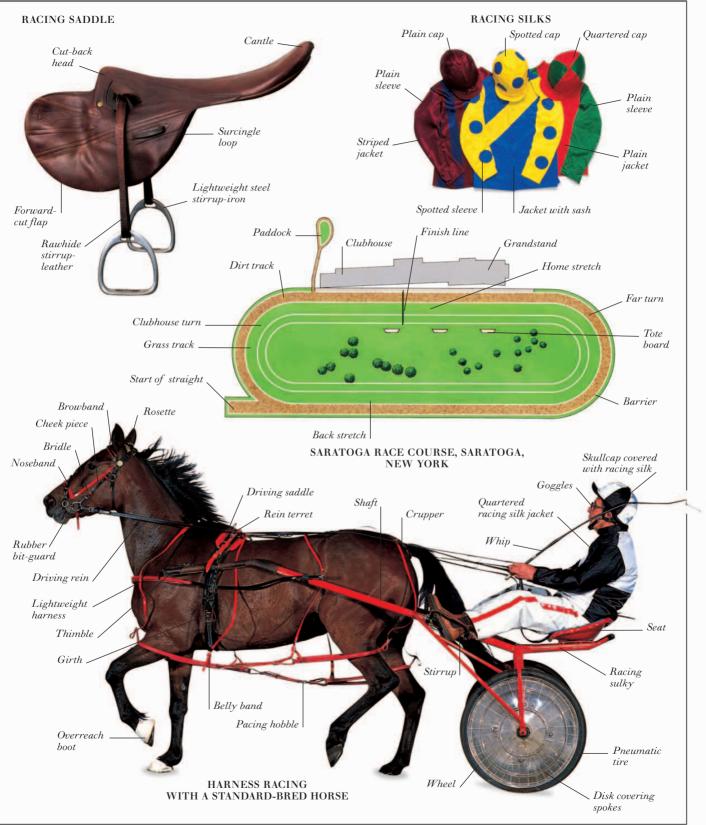
EOUESTRIAN SPORTS HAVE TAKEN place throughout the world for centuries: events involving mounted horses were recorded in the Olympic Games of 642 BC. Showjumping, however, is a much more recent innovation, and the first competitions were held at the beginning of the 1900s. In this sport, horse and rider must negotiate a course of variable, unfixed obstacles, making as few mistakes as possible. Showjumping fences consist of wooden stands, known as standards or wings, that support planks or poles. Parts of the fence are designed to collapse on impact, preventing injury to the horse and rider. Judges penalize competitors for errors, such as knocking down obstacles, refusing jumps, or deviating from the course. Depending on the type of competition, the rider with the fewest faults, most points, or fastest time wins. There are two basic forms of horse racing-flat races and races with jumps, such as steeplechase or hurdle races. Thoroughbred horses are used in this sport, since they have great strength and stamina and can achieve speeds of up to 40 mph (65 kph). Jockeys wear "silks"caps and jackets designed in distinctive colors and patterns that help identify the horses. In harness racing, the horse is driven from a light, two-wheeled carriage called a sulky. Horses are trained to trot and to pace, and different races are held for each of these types of gait. In pacing races, the horses wear hobbles to prevent them from breaking into a trot or gallop. Breeds such as the Standardbred and the French Trotter have been developed especially for this sport.

Hard hat



SHOWJUMPING SADDLE





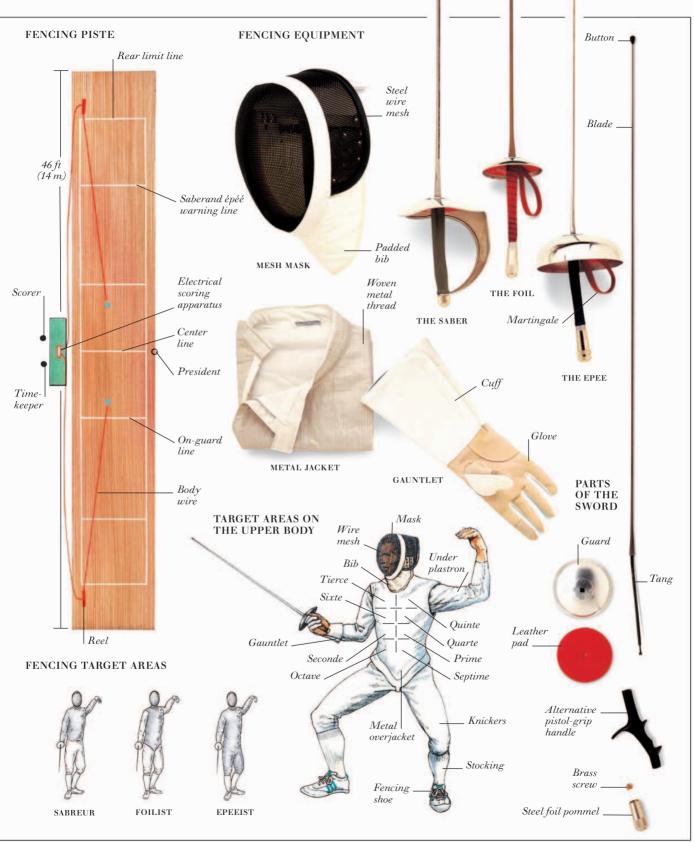
Judo and fencing

COMBAT SPORTS ARE BASED ON THE SKILLS used in fighting. In these sports, the competitors may be unarmed—as in judo and boxing—or armed—as in fencing and kendo. Judo is a system of unarmed combat developed in the East. Translated from the Japanese, the name means "the gentle way." Students learn how to turn an opponent's force to their own advantage. The usual costume is loose white pants and a jacket, fastened with a cloth belt. The color of belt indicates the student's level of expertise, from white-belted novices to the expert "black belts." Competitions take place on a mat or "shiaijo," 30 or 33 ft (9 or 10 m) square in size, bounded by "danger" and "safety" areas to prevent injury. Competitors try to throw, pin, or master their opponent by applying pressure to the arm joints or neck. Judo bouts are strictly monitored, and competitors receive points for superior technique, not for injuring their opponent. Fencing is a combat sport using swords, which takes place on a narrow "piste" 46 ft (14 m) long. Competitors try to touch specific target areas on their opponent with their sword or "foil" while avoiding being touched themselves. The winner is the one who scores the greatest number of hits. Fencers wear clothing made from strong white material that affords maximum protection while allowing freedom of movement, steel mesh masks with padded bibs to protect the fencer's neck, and a long white glove on their sword hand. Fencing foils do not have sharpened blades, and their tips end in a blunt button to prevent injuries. Three types of swords are used-foils, épées, and sabers. Official foil and épée competitions always use an electric scoring system. The sword tips are connected to lights by a long wire that passes underneath each fencer's jacket. A bulb flashes when a hit is made.



JUDO MAT 52 ft 6 in (16 m)Judge _ Drawstring Contestant Scorer _ Holding _ Referee time keeper Timekeeper Contest area Safety area Cotton Danger area Contestant pants -





SPORTS

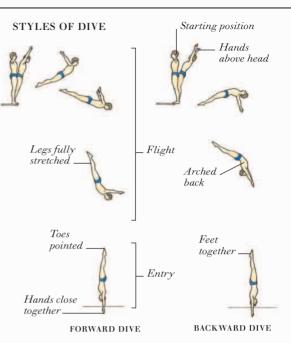
Swimming and diving



GOGGLES

SWIMMING WAS INCLUDED in the first modern Olympic Games in 1896 and diving events were added in 1904. Swimming is both an individual and a team sport and races take

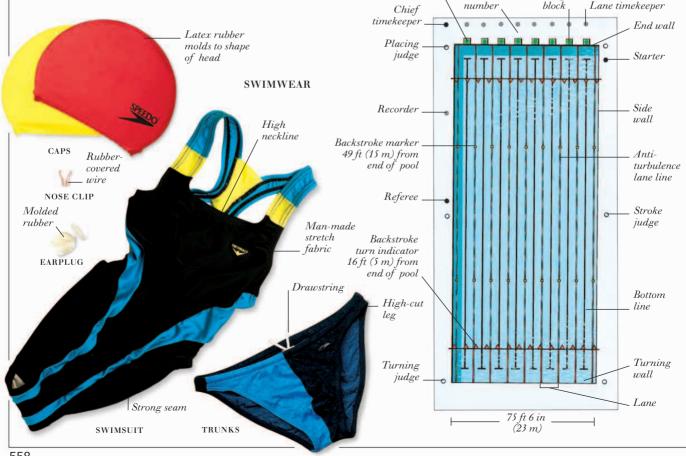
place over a predetermined distance in one of the four major categories of stroke—freestyle (usually front crawl), butterfly, breaststroke, and backstroke. Competition pools are clearly marked for racing and antiturbulence lane lines are used to separate the swimmers and help keep the water calm. The first team or individual to finish the race is the winner. Competitive diving is divided into men's and women's springboard and platform (highboard) events. There are six official groups of dives: forward dives, backward dives, armstand dives, twist dives, reverse dives, and inward dives. Competitors perform a set number of dives and after each one a panel of judges award marks according to the quality of execution and the degree of difficulty.



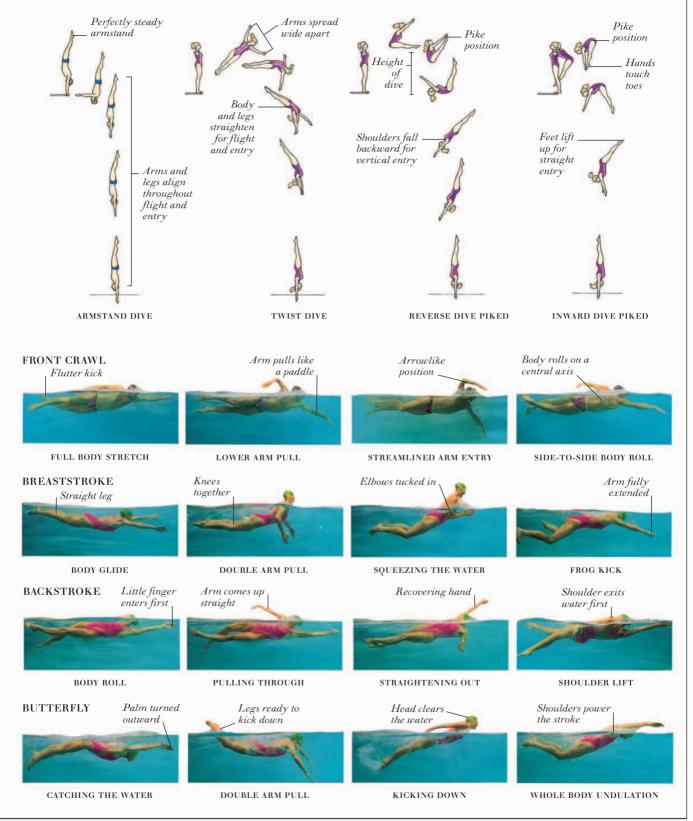
Starting

SWIMMING POOL ner Lane S

Swimmer



SWIMMING AND DIVING



Canoeing, rowing, and sailing

WATERBORNE SPORTS are as varied as the crafts used. There are two disciplines in rowing; sweep rowing, in which each rower has one oar, and sculling, in which rowers use two oars. There are a number of different Olympic and competitive rowing events for both men and women. The number of rowers and weight classes vary. Some rowing events use a coxswain; a steersman who does not row but directs the crew. Kayaks and canoes are used in straight sprint and slalom races. Slalom races take place over a course consisting of 20 to 25 gates, including at least six upstream gates. In yacht racing, competitors must complete prescribed courses, organized by the race committees, in the shortest possible time, using sail power only. Olympic events include classes for keel boats, dinghies, and catamarans.

Ribbed Blade Rim ton Shaft Nonslip sole Back strap BOOT Cockpit Stern High density Right rail polythene Nose cone Toggle 3*0: 1*1.18 Bow Adjusting Left rail screw Seat Cockpit rim Gate clamp SINGLE SCULL AND OARS (WITH CLOTH DECKING REMOVED) Gate Blade Colors Spoon Stroke-side Neck Shaft oa Rigger Sycamore Stretcher Loom beam Grip Bow-side Button Water shoot Keel oar Shoe Diagonal Bung Aft shoulder frame Aluminum beam Spruce beam Sternpost Kelson (keelson)

SAILING GEAR

Sleeveless

long johns

Neoprene

material

Long-sleeved

GLOVE

jacket

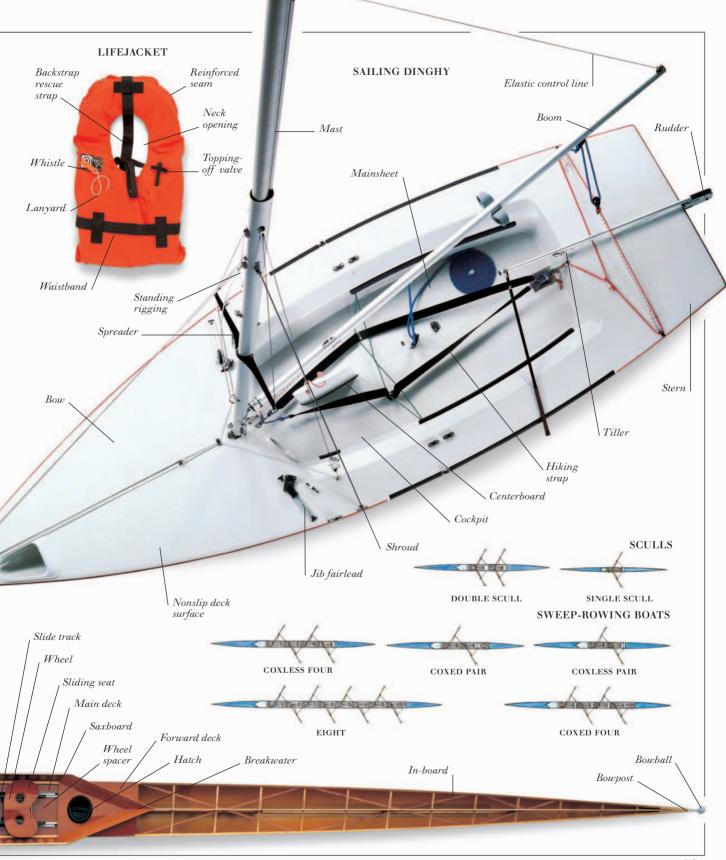
Buoyancy

aid

Belt

Bootlace

ONE-PERSON KAYAK AND PADDLE



BUTT SECTION

Angling

REELS

ANGLING MEANS FISHING WITH A ROD, reel, line, and lure. There are several different types of angling: freshwater coarse angling, for members of the carp family and pike; freshwater game angling, for salmon and trout; and sea angling, for sea fish such as flatfish, bass, and mackerel. Anglers use a variety of methods for catching fish. These include bait fishing, in which bait (food to allure the fish) is placed on a hook and cast into the water; fly fishing, in which a natural or artificial fly is used to lure the fish; and spinning, in which a lure that looks like a small fish revolves as it is pulled through the water. The angler uses the rod, reel, and line to cast the lure over the water. The reel controls the line as it spills off the spool and as it is

wound back. Weights may be fixed to the line so that it will sink. Swivels are attached to prevent the line from twisting. When a fish bites, the hook must become embedded in its mouth and remain there while the catch is reeled in.

Spool-release

button

Star

drag

Level-wind system

Plate-nut.

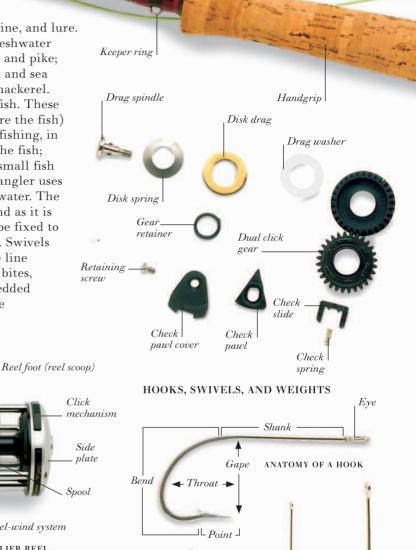
Mechanical

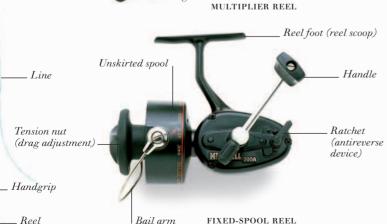
brake

Handle

Centrifugal

brake





EXAMPLES OF BARREL

SWIVELS

ABERDEEN

ноок

REVERSED

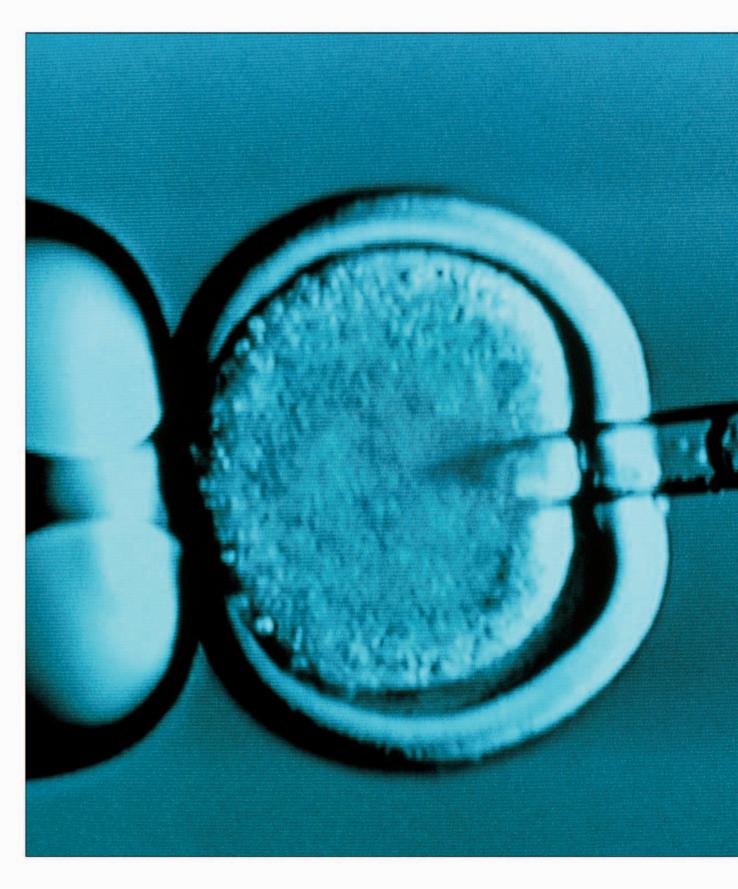
BEND HOOK

Barb

TREBLE HOOK

HILLMAN ANTIKINK WEIGHT







The Modern World

PERSONAL COMPUTER 566
HANDHELD COMPUTER
FLATBED SCANNER 570
AIRBUS 380
INKJET PRINTER 574
THE INTERNET 576
ELECTRONIC GAMES 578
DIGITAL CAMERA 580
DIGITAL VIDEO CAMERA
Home Cinema 584
PERSONAL MUSIC AND VIDEO 586
Cellphones 588
GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM
VACUUM CLEANER 592
IRON AND WASHER-DRYER 594
MICROWAVE COMBINATION OVEN
TOASTER 598
DRILL
HOUSE OF THE FUTURE 602
RENEWABLE ENERGY
CLONING TECHNOLOGY 606
Robots 608
HIGH-PERFORMANCE MICROSCOPES
SPACE TELESCOPE 612
PROBING THE SOLAR SYSTEM

Personal computer

PERSONAL COMPUTERS (PCs) fall into two main types: IBM-compatible PCs, known simply as PCs, and Apple Macintosh PCs, known as "Macs." They differ in the way files and programs, and the user's access to them, are organized, and programs must be tailored for each type. However, in most other respects PCs and Macs have much in common. Both contain microchips, or integrated circuits, that store and process data. The "brain" of any PC is a chip known as the central processing unit (CPU), which performs mathematical operations in order to run program instructions and receive, store, and output data. The most powerful personal computer CPUs today can perform more than a billion calculations a second. Data can be input via CDs, USB memory sticks, and other storage media. Highly portable laptop and network PCs are also in widespread use. Most PCs are able to communicate with many other devices, including digital cameras (see pp. 580-81) and smartphones (see pp. 588-89).

Webcam

Left

button

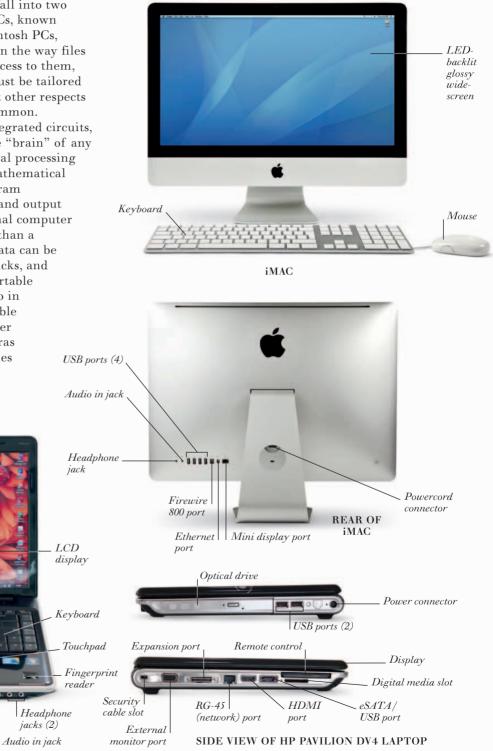
touchpad

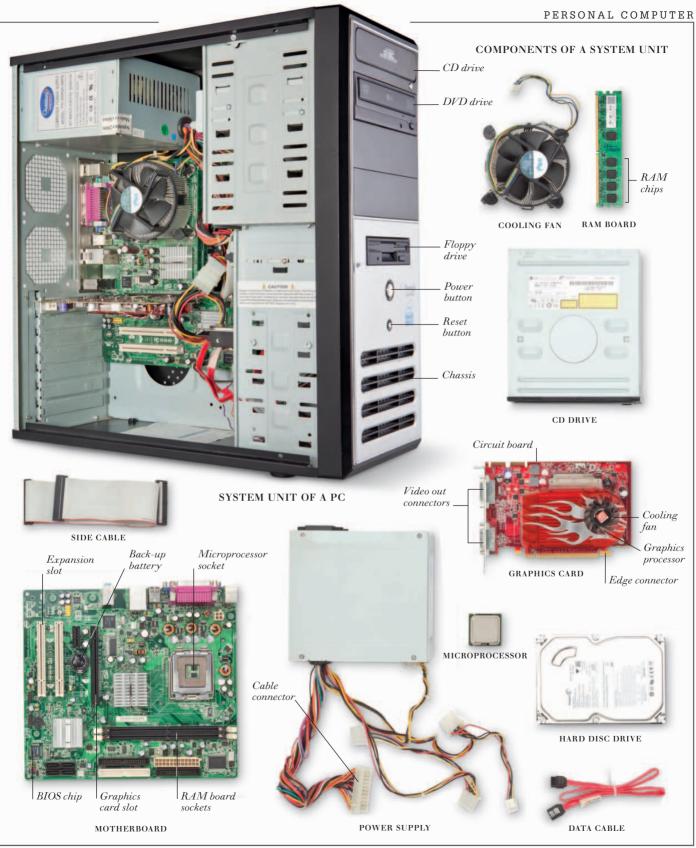
HP PAVILION DV4 LAPTOP

Right

button

touchpad





Handheld computer

Sleep/wake button

BY THE EARLY 1990s electronic circuitry had been miniaturized to such an extent that it was possible to make small handheld computing devices. The first of these was the Personal Digital Assistant (PDA), which offered features including an address book, calendar, and notepad. In recent years, PDAs have been overtaken by smartphones with internet and email access (see pp. 588–589). A related product is the e-book reader, which stores books in digital form and uses "electronic paper" to mimic the appearance of ink on real paper. An e-book reader no bigger than a thin paperback can store several thousand digital books in its memory. The most recent small computing device is the handheld computer. This looks like a thin flat display, but it is actually a complete computer. Handheld computers are typically controlled by a touch-sensitive screen and have a wireless link to other computers and the internet. They run software applications, or apps, downloaded from the internet. The most popular handheld computer currently is the Apple iPad. It has a multitouch interface that enables its screen to detect the movements of fingertips. In addition to selecting options and apps by touching the screen, images can be enlarged or shrunk by moving fingertips apart or together on the screen.



568



Flatbed scanner

SCANNERS CONVERT physical images into electronic form, allowing them to be sent over the internet, displayed on a website, stored on a computer, and manipulated using specialized software. Scanners work by detecting and analyzing light reflected from an opaque image, such as a photographic print. Some can also scan photographic transparencies by analyzing light that has passed through the image. Flatbed scanners contain a unit. called the scan head, that contains a lamp, mirrors, a lens, and an array of CCDs (Charge-Coupled Devices). The carriage passes beneath the image; the lamp shines light on to or through the original; the mirrors reflect the light on to the lens, which focuses it on to the CCD array. Each CCD detects the brightness of light from a particular pixel (picture element) along a. horizontal strip and converts this data into an electric signal. For color images, the light is usually passed through red, green, and blue filters and then directed to the CCD array so that it can be broken down into its component colors. This information is then converted to digital form. The quality of the image depends on its resolution, measured in dpi (Dots Per Inch).

HOW A FLATBED SCANNER WORKS

Lam

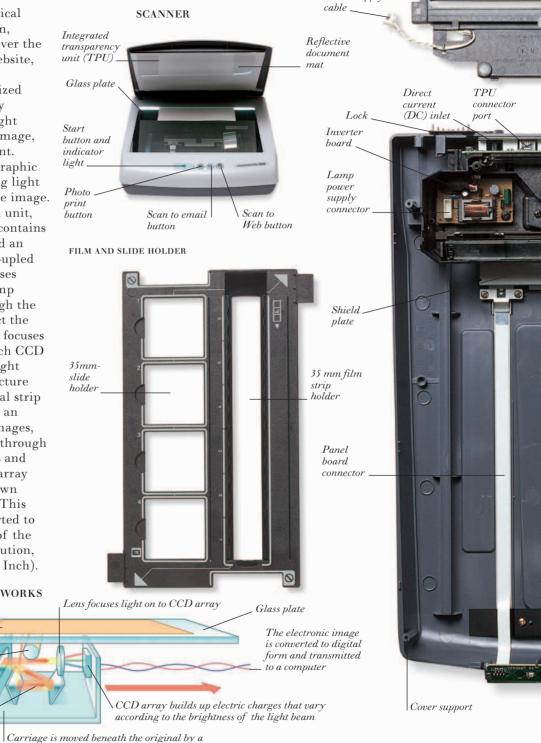
Original image

(photograph or

Light beam is reflected

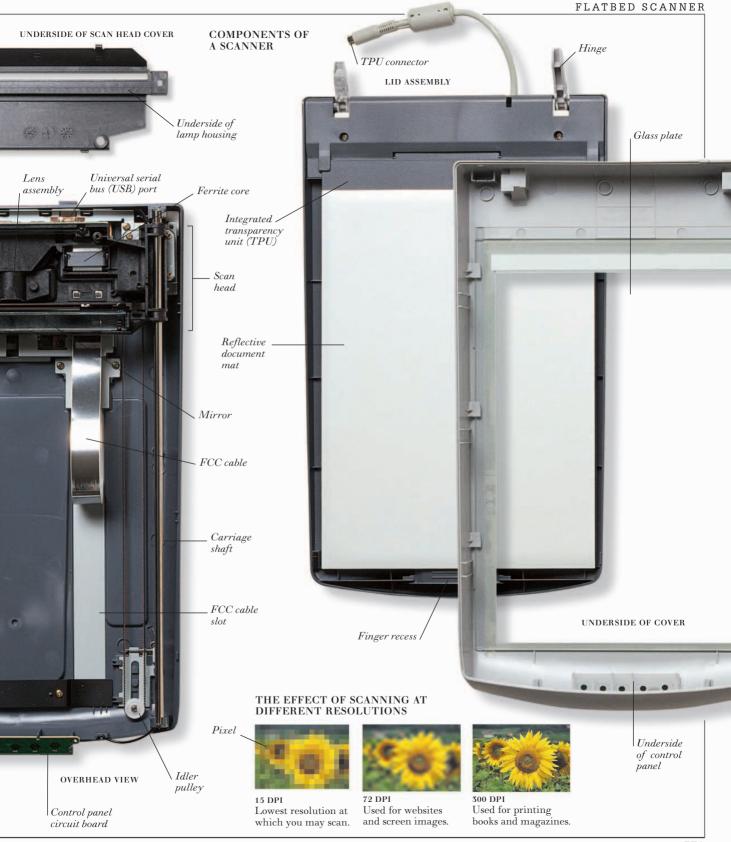
from the original to a series of mirrors

artwork)



Power supply

stepper motor in a rapid series of tiny steps



Airbus 380



early 1990s to compete with, and if possible replace, the Boeing 747. Work began in earnest on what was then called the A3XX in 1994. Its maiden flight was in April 2005. The A380's shape is subtly molded to minimize drag from its ovoid fuselage. The

CROSS-SECTION OF FUSELAGE

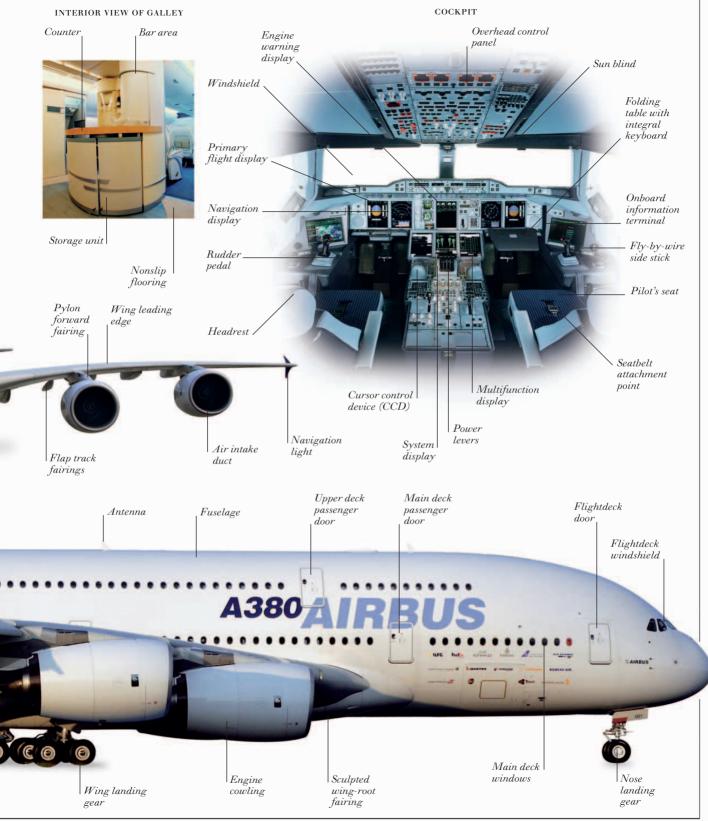
Split rudder

Auxiliary

composite materials, such as thermoplastics and GLARE (aluminum and glass fiber). Its engines are very powerful, but also very efficient. It is claimed that when carrying 550 passengers, the A380 uses only ³/₄ gallon (2.9 liters) of fuel per passenger per 60 miles (100 km).

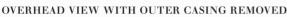
INTERIOR VIEW OF BUSINESS CLASS CABIN





Inkjet printer

INKJET PRINTERS EXPEL ink droplets from hundreds of tiny jets, or nozzles, on to a medium, such as paper, to print an image. Each droplet corresponds to a single pixel (picture element). Black-and-white printers use only black ink, while color printers overprint combinations of the printing colors (cyan, vellow, magenta, and black) to create a full color range. The printhead containing the nozzles moves sideways across the paper, creating a line of pixels, before the paper moves slightly forward so the next line can be printed. Two basic methods are used to eject ink: thermal, in which ink is heated to form an expanding bubble that expels a droplet from the nozzle, and piezoelectric, in which an electric current expands a crystal causing it to push out the ink droplet. The printer shown here can print digital photographs directly from a memory card.



Head data cable

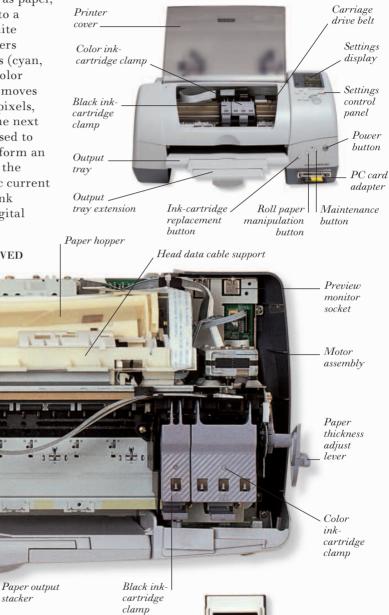
INK CARTRIDGES

Ink outlet

Black ink

cartridge

hole



PC CARD ADAPTER

EPSON STYLUS PHOTO 895 COLOR INKJET PRINTER

Spur gear

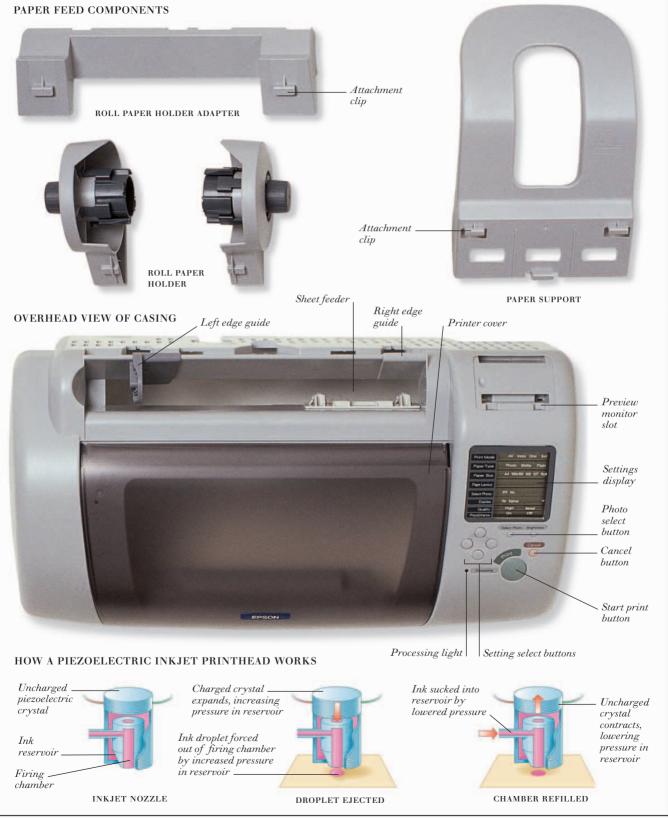
Ink outlet

Color ink

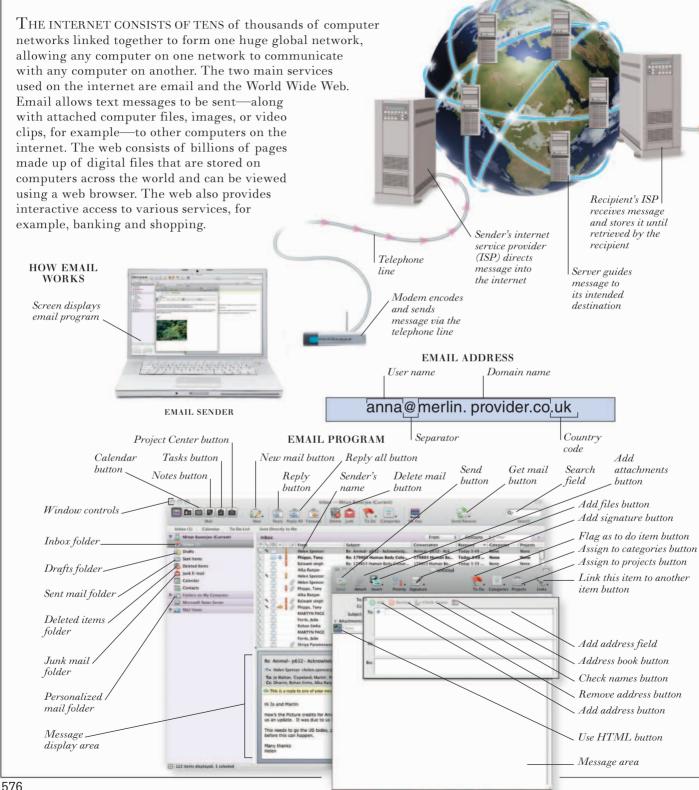
cartridge

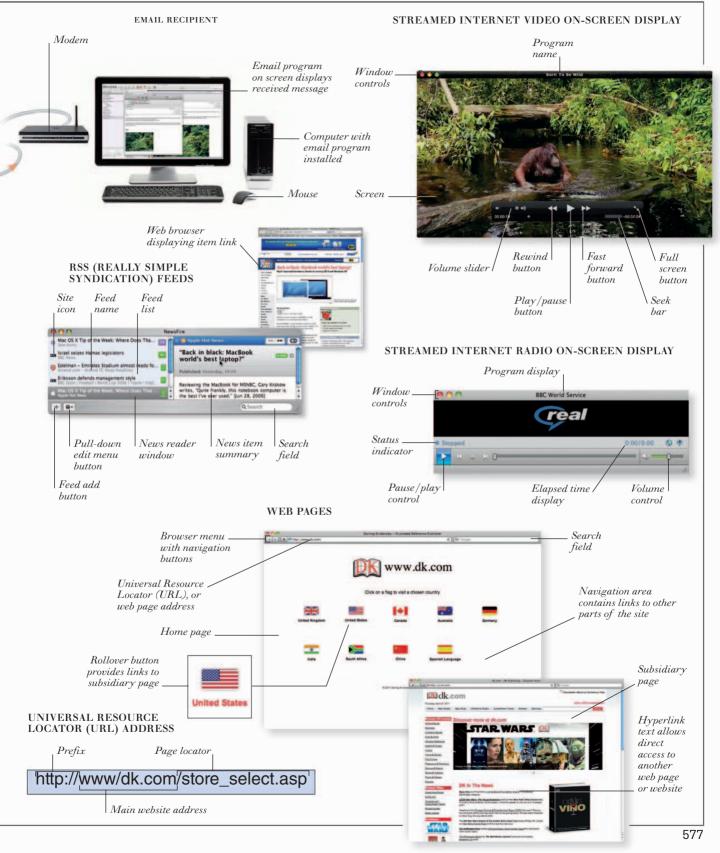
hole .

INKJET PRINTER



The internet





THE MODERN WORLD

Electronic games



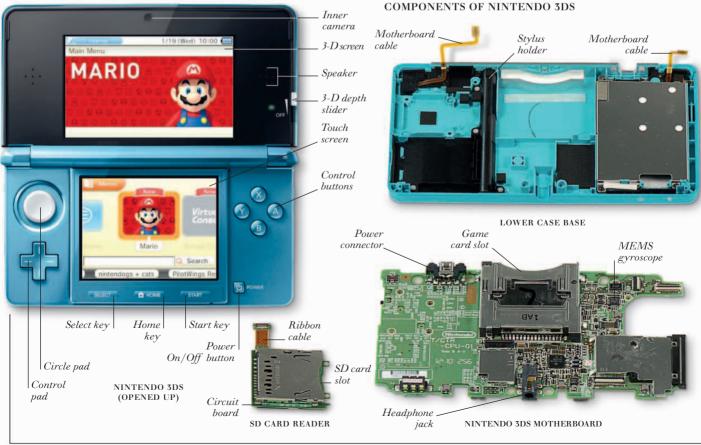
MARIO SPORTS MIX WII

VIDEO GAMES HAVE BEEN around since the early 1970s. They are played on PCs, arcade machines, on a TV using a home console, and on portable handheld consoles. Players use devices such as joysticks and control pads with buttons to control movement and action on screen.

The latest generation of consoles uses motion sensor technology to allow players to manipulate objects on screen by simply moving the controller. The most advanced game systems respond to gestures and commands spoken by a player, without any need to use a hand controller. The game itself is stored in the form of digital information on CD, DVD, or microchip—which may be integral or stored in a removable cartridge—or on an internal hard disk. A central processing unit (CPU) (see pp. 566–567) is needed to process commands from the players, while specialized graphics chips are used to process the complex mapping and texturing functions that make modern games appear so realistic.



NINTENDO 3DS



ELECTRONIC GAMES



Digital camera

FOR MORE THAN 200 YEARS, CAMERAS recorded pictures as chemical changes in silver-containing substances, on a strip of flexible, celluloid film. The digital camera records pictures in electronic form. At its heart is a specialized integrated circuit known as a charge-coupled device (CCD). This has millions of microunits known as pixels. It works in the opposite way from a miniature computer or TV screen. Instead of electric signals making pixels shine, when light hits a pixel it generates a tiny electrical signal, according to the light's color and brightness. The signals from the CCD's millions of pixels are analogue: they vary continuously in a wavelike fashion. They are converted by a microchip to digital codes of numbers, represented as on-off electronic pulses. The digital signals are processed and fed to the camera's internal memory or a removable memory device such as a data card or memory stick. Photographs can be downloaded from a digital camera to a computer via a cable or in some cases a wireless link. Some digital cameras automatically reduce blurring caused by camera shake or fast movement, some can record video clips as well as still pictures.

Lens focuses

Digital

signals

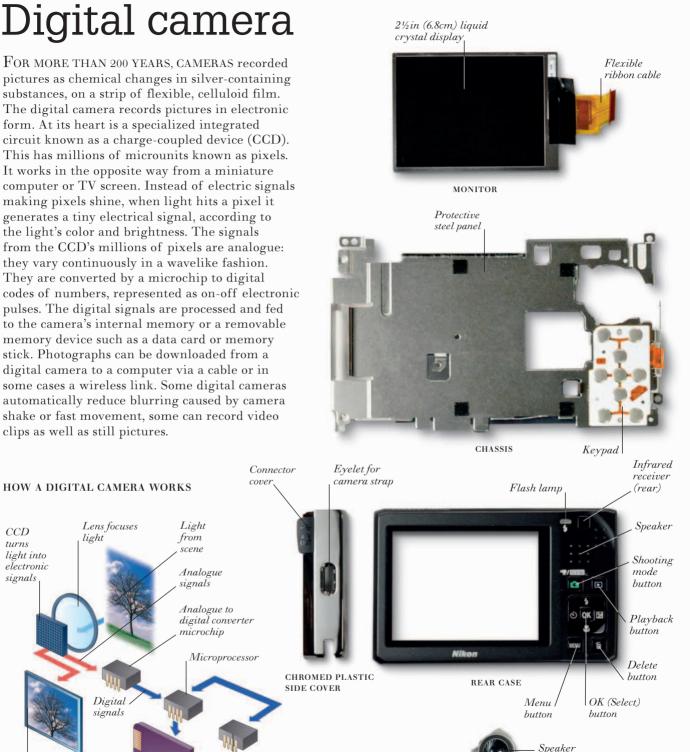
Memory

stick

In-camera

memory chip

light



Speaker mounting

SPEAKER ASSEMBLY

bracket

LCD

screen

CCD

turns

light into

electronic

signals



Digital video camera

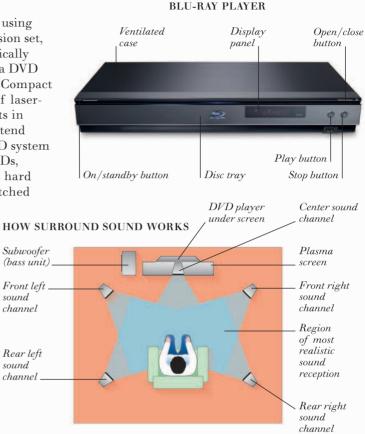


DIGITAL VIDEO CAMERA



Home cinema

HOME CINEMA REPLICATES a real "movie theater" using pictures displayed on a high-quality widescreen television set. such as a plasma TV, and surround sound from strategically sited loudspeakers. The source for sound and vision is a DVD (Digital Versatile Disc). Its player uses standard CD (Compact Disc) digital technology, but with a higher density of laserread microscopic pits-more than 20 billion such pits in multilevel spiral tracks that, stretched out, would extend nearly 25 miles (40km). Blu-ray is a high-quality DVD system that fits much more data on its disc than standard DVDs, allowing High Definition video files to be stored. It is hard for the human ear to discern the direction of low-pitched sounds, so these emanate from a central bass speaker, often built into or below the screen unit. High-pitched sounds, the direction of which is easier to detect, emanate from mid- and highfrequency speakers positioned around the viewer. Plasma screens use fluorescent tube ("striplight") technology. Tiny three-cell pixels, each about one millimeter across, contain red, green, and blue phosphor chemicals and a gas mix. Where electric pulses coincide for a split second in the crisscross matrix of wire electrodes, the gas energizes and emits ultraviolet light, which in turn makes the phosphor glow.

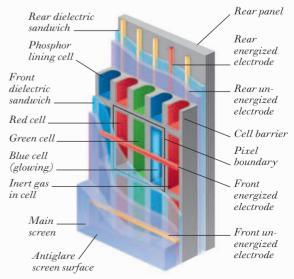


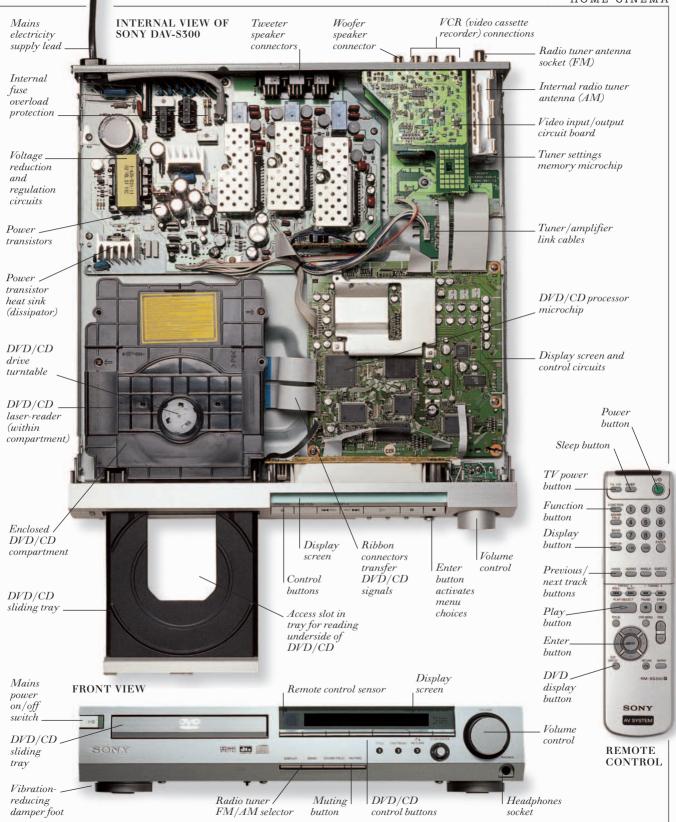
WIDE-SCREEN PLASMA DISPLAY





HOW A PLASMA SCREEN WORKS





Personal music and video



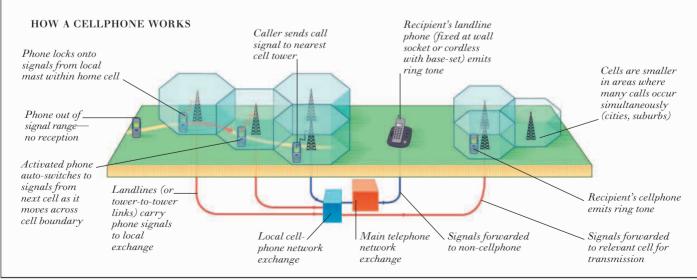
COMPONENTS OF MICROSOFT ZUNE HD



Cellphones

IN THE EARLY 1990s, THE CELLPHONE (or mobile phone) was a rare luxury, but in recent years it has outsold almost every other electrical gadgetas a professional tool, domestic convenience, and even a fashion accessory. Cellphones have also generally shrunk in size, due to improvements in rechargeable batteries, which now store more electricity for longer in a smaller package, and to smaller, more efficient electronics that use less electricity. A "cellphone" is basically a low-power radio receiver-transmitter, plus a tiny microphone to convert sounds into electrical signals, and a small speaker that does the reverse. When the cellphone is activated, it sends out a radio signal that is answered by nearby mast transmitter-receivers. The phone locks onto the clearest signal and uses this while within range (the range of each transmitter is known as a cell). The phone continuously monitors signal strength and switches to an alternative transmitter when necessary. The phone's liquid crystal display (LCD) shows numbers, letters, symbols, and color pictures. Newer models have a larger screen for more complex color images, and commonly incorporate a camera, radio, and MP3 functionality. Smartphones, which are increasingly widespread, contain additional software and more may be downloaded. Smartphones typically offer internet and email access, PDA-like functions (see pp. 568–569), and may even contain GPS navigation software.







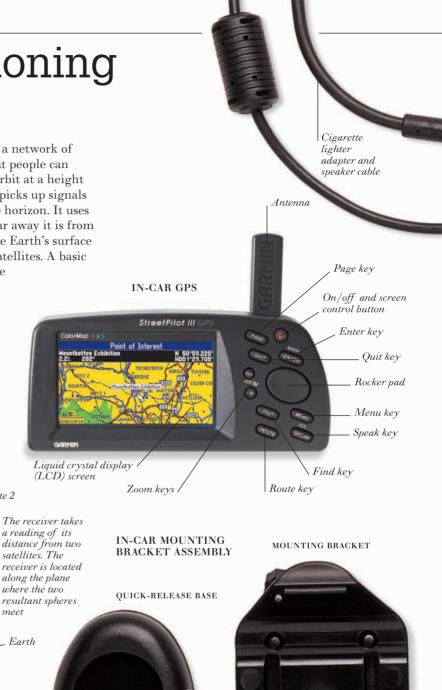
HOW GPS WORKS

Satellite 1

Satellite 3

Global positioning system

THE GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM (GPS) is a network of 24 navigation satellites orbiting the Earth that people can use to pinpoint their position. The satellites orbit at a height of 12,500 miles (20,000 km). A GPS receiver picks up signals from any of these satellites that are above the horizon. It uses information in each signal to work out how far away it is from the satellite. It can calculate its position on the Earth's surface when it has information from at least three satellites. A basic GPS receiver shows the latitude and longitude of its position on its screen. More advanced receivers, especially those designed for use in vehicles, show their position on a digital map. These receivers often show extra information, such as the vehicle's speed and the length of the journey. Some receivers warn drivers if they exceed the speed limit for a road and even tell drivers which traffic lane to use at the next junction. Directions are shown on the screen and also spoken by a synthesized voice.



A signal from a third satellite defines two positions on that plane. The position on the Earth's surface is read as the correct location

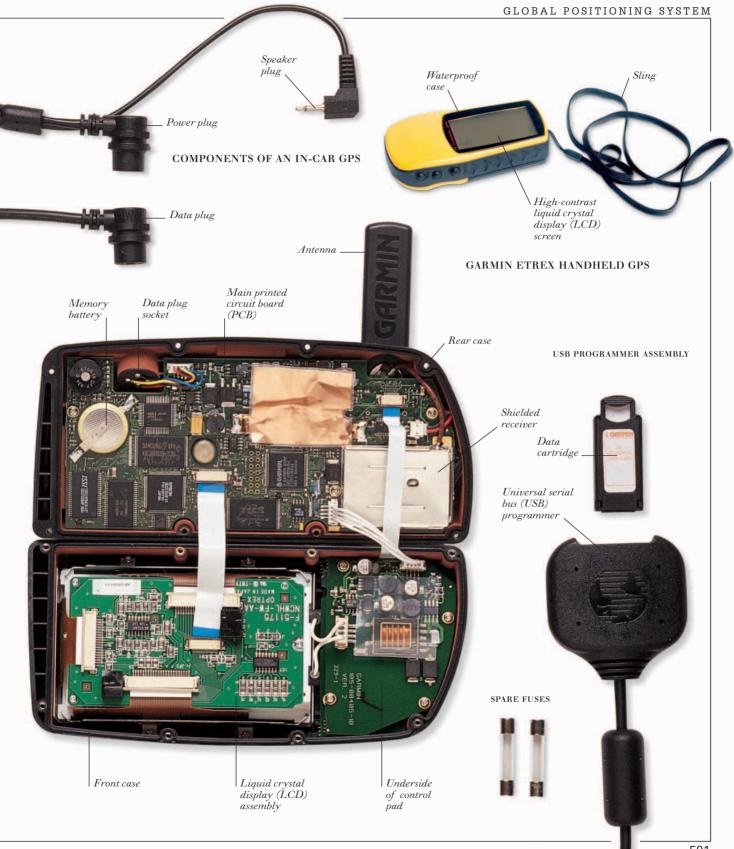
Locking lever

Satellite 2

meet

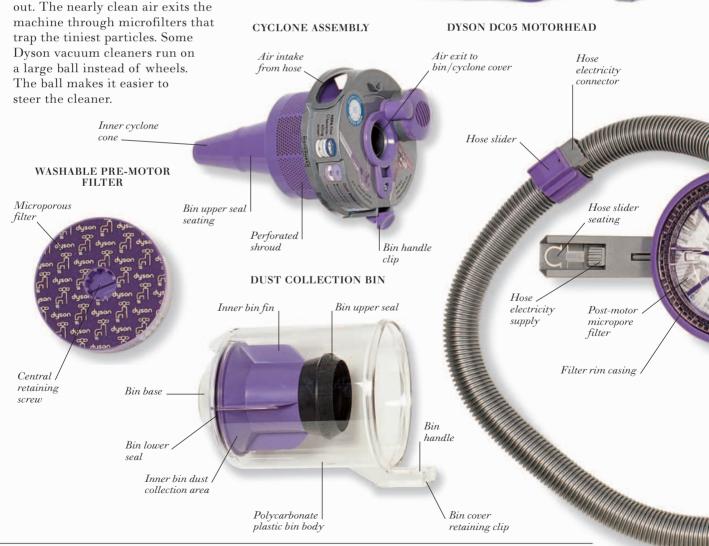
Release catch

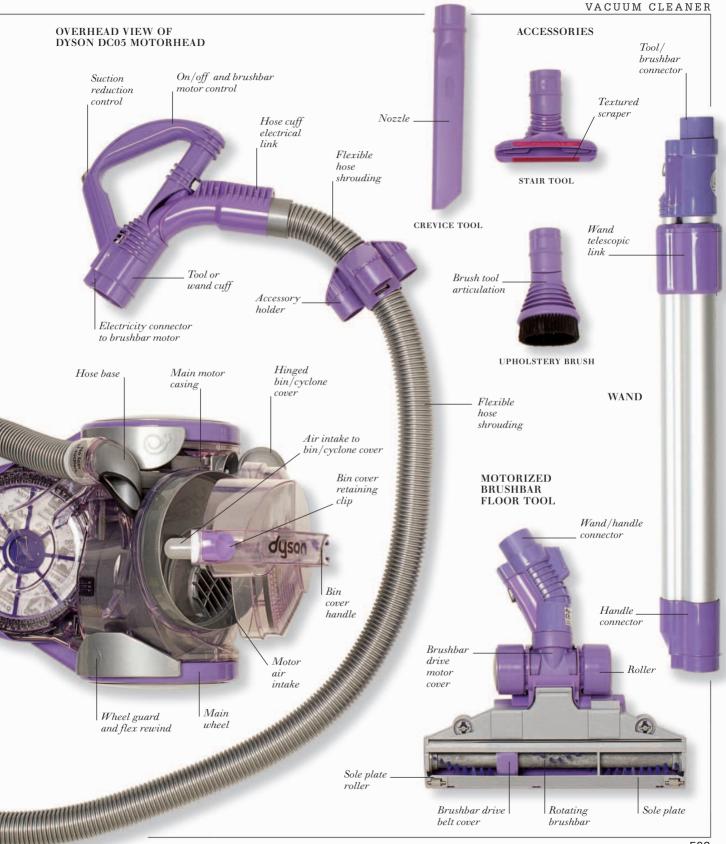
Ratcheted base



Vacuum cleaner

IN A CONVENTIONAL VACUUM CLEANER, an electric motor spins a fan that sucks in air carrying dust and debris. The air is forced through tiny pores in a dust bag, trapping most particles. In the 1990s, James Dyson's dual cyclone "bagless" design did away with the dust bag—and the reduced airflow caused by clogging of its pores. An electrically driven fan creates a partial vacuum within the machine. This sucks air into the machine past a rotating brush that loosens dirt. The air flows into a cylinder-shaped bin. As the air whirls around the bin like a miniature storm, or cyclone, larger particle are flung outward and fall to the bottom of the bin. The air then passes through perforations into a cone-shaped inner bin and then into a series of smaller cones, spinning faster all the time and flinging smaller and smaller particle Wand handle and brushbar controls Upper wand Lower wand Motorized brushbar floor tool





Iron and washer-dryer

IN THE DAYS BEFORE WASHING MACHINES, laundry was done by hand washed in a barrel, squeezed in a roller-mangle, hung on a line, and smoothed with an iron heated on the stove. In the 1880s, electrically heated irons were one of the first home electrical appliances. Today's iron still applies heat, sometimes moistened with steam, to dampen and flatten garment fibers. Machines with electric heaters and motors took the strain out of washing from the 1910s. Up to the 1960s, three machines were needed to wash, spin, and dry. Now clothes are swirled in a rotating ribbed tub of hot water, then spun fast to throw off most of the water, before slowly tumbling in electrically heated air to dry—all in one appliance.

flap COMPONENTS OF A STEAM IBON Nose Steam Spray Steam barrel barrel control Steam Sprav Spray knob release Spray nozzle nozzle Nose activator pump aperture Heating elements Water Soleplate tank surround Pilot light Handle Temperature and steam control dial Power spade SIDE VIEW OF STEAM IRON contacts Flex kink guard Steam control knob Grounding Pilot wire light Spray and supply steam knobs Securing screw Power wire mounting supply Temperature and cord steam control dial Heel molding Water tank Flex clamp Flex cord Soleplate

Detergent

Control

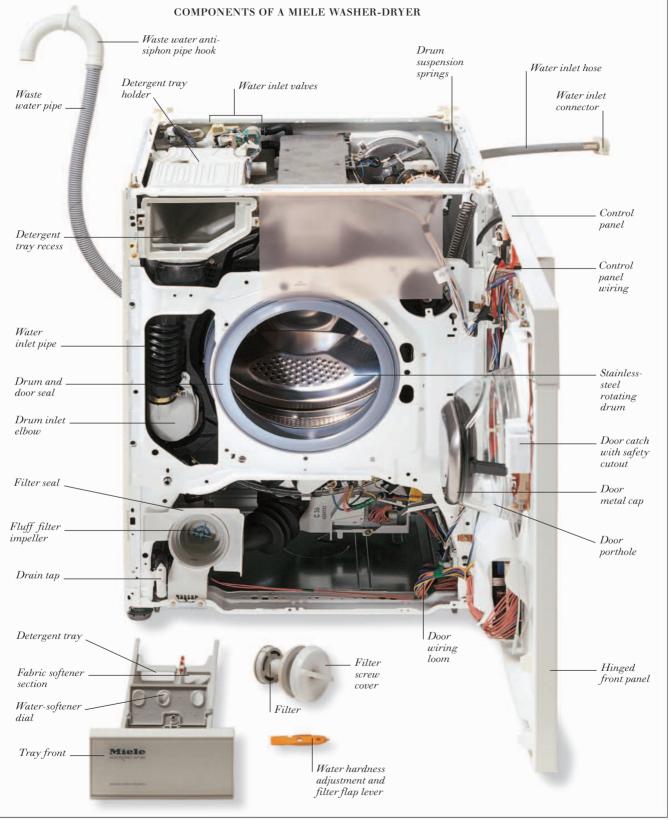
panels

Door

Filter

access

tray



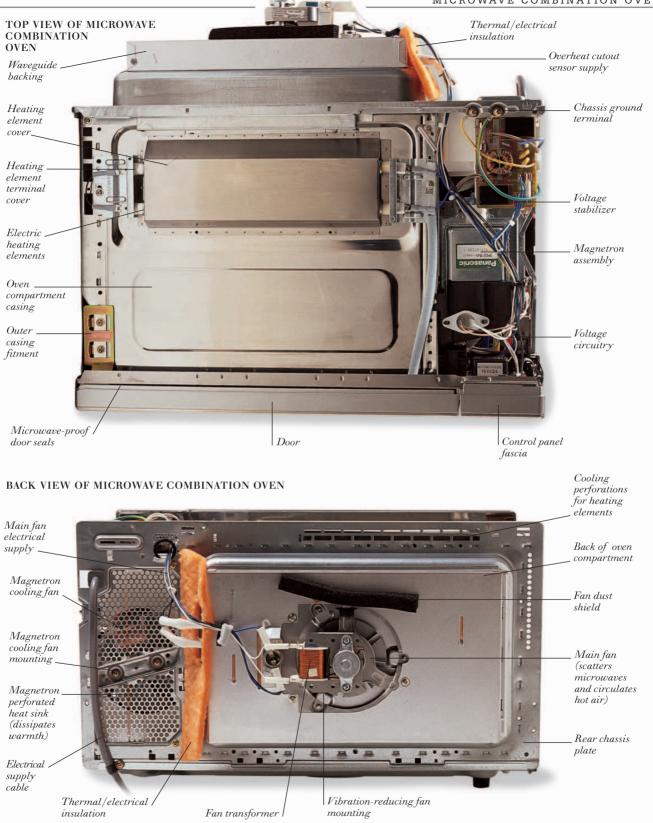
Microwave combination oven

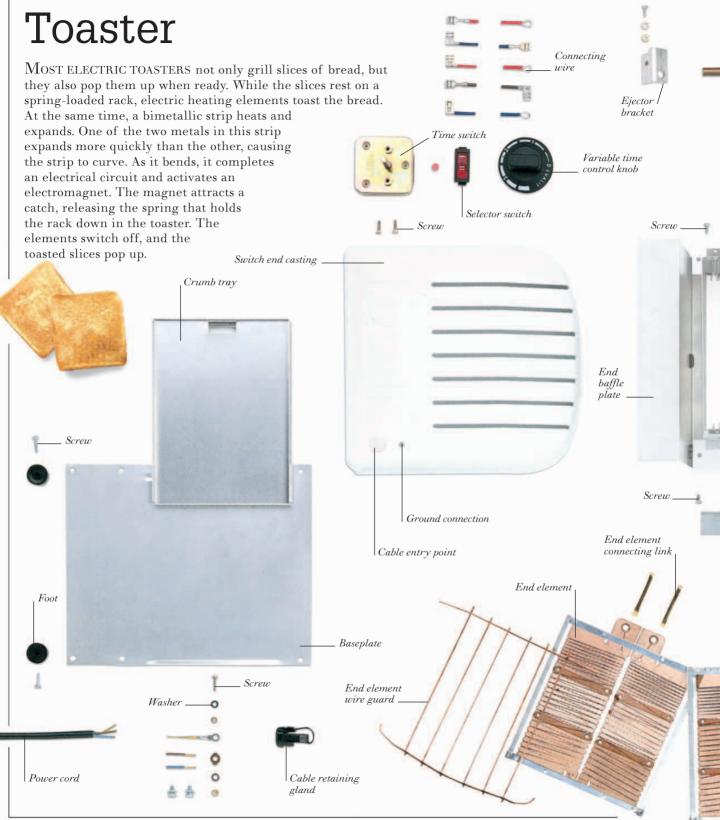
CONVENTIONAL OVENS use electrically warmed elements or a flame to heat food. In a microwave oven heat energy is created by electromagnetic waves produced by a magnetron and led by waveguides into the oven compartment. These microwaves cannot pass through the compartment's metal casing, being reflected within and spread evenly by a fan. But they do pass through most types of plastic, ceramics, and glass. Therefore platters or containers made from these materials are suitable for use in microwave ovens. A combination oven also has conventional heating elements, to grill and "brown" in the traditional fashion, either alone or in conjunction with microwaves.

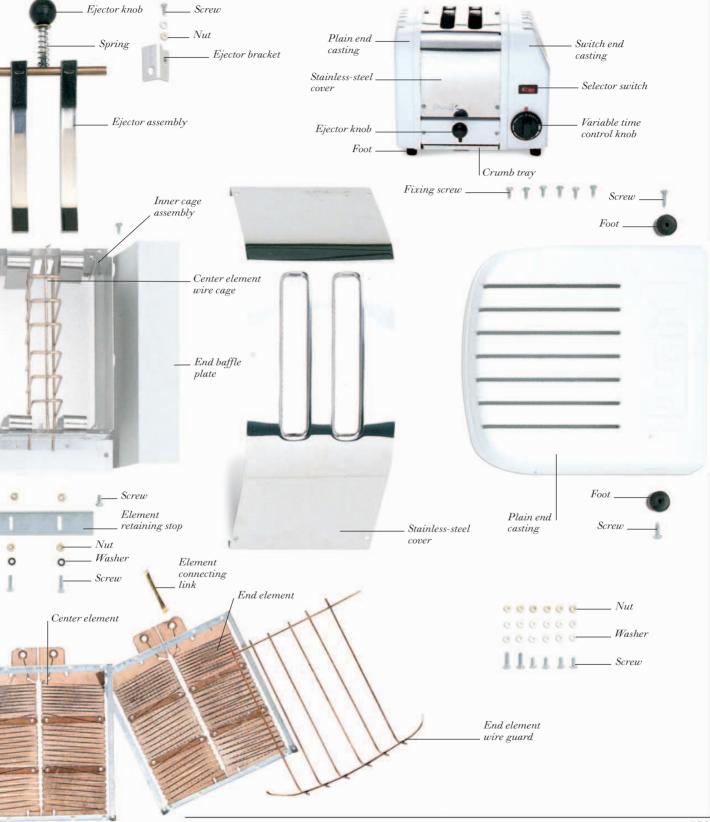
Rollers (nonand "brown" in the traditional fashion, either turntable (non-microwave) microwave) alone or in conjunction with microwaves. Under-turntable roller Water molecules spin ring (non-microwave) HOW MICROWAVES HEAT FOOD with energy from microwaves Oxygen atom Hydrogen atom Making the Microwaves Each water molecules move make water molecule in generates heat molecules vibrate food has two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom SIDE VIEW OF MICROWAVE COMBINATION OVEN Magnetron assembly Waveguide Voltage regulators Wiring loom Grounding wire to case and chassis Fan Door electricity supply Control panel Main fan circuitry Magnetron Rigid metal cooling fan chassis Voltage transformers Door safety cutout mechanism Thermal/ electrical Low-voltage insulation supply for control circuits Electrical outlet cord High-voltage Circuit board plug Electricity supply magnetron to magnetron supply

MICROWAVE COMBINATION OVEN Turntable Door lock Display Metal screen rotator cook/grill tray (nonmicrowave) Control nanel Metal Glass grill/griddle Metal turntable cover cooking



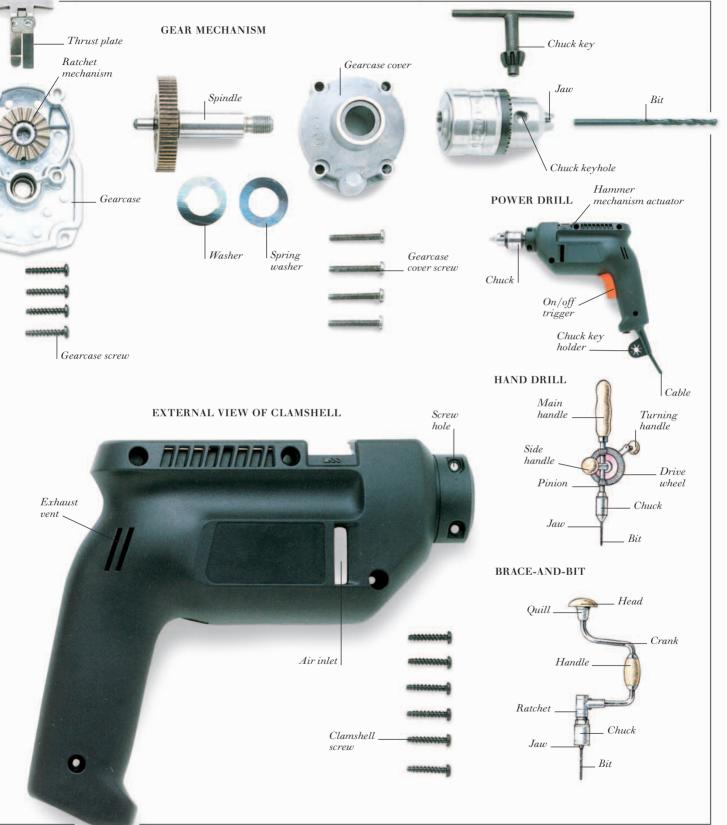






Drills





House of the future

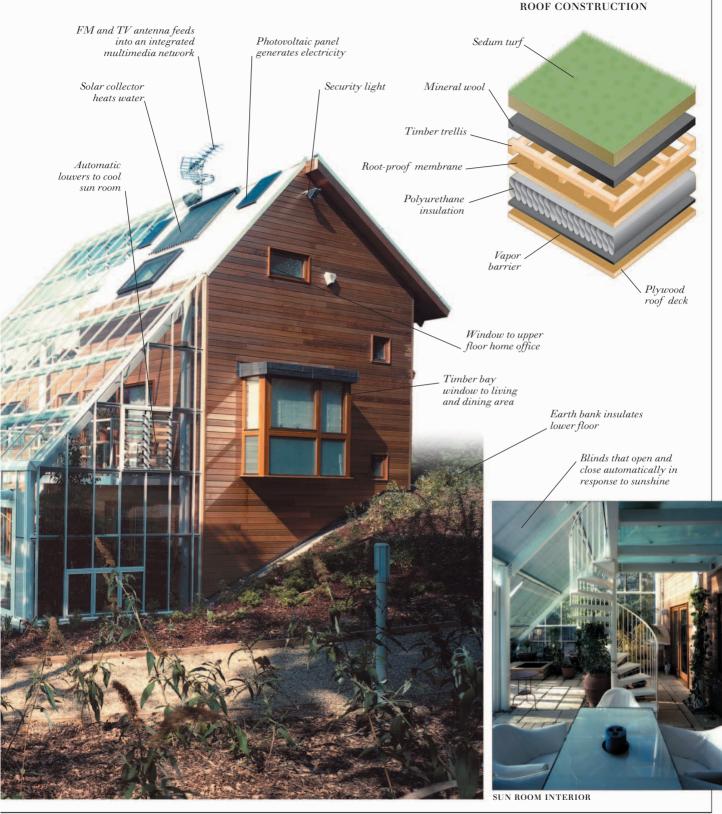
Houses in the future are likely to be more environmentally friendly and energy-efficient than older dwellings, by making better use of materials and intelligent control systems. The Integer house was designed by Cole Thompson Associates, Bree Day Partnership, and Paul Hodgkins Associates, and built in conjunction with the Building Research Establishment in the UK. One of its key features is a large sun room that warms one side of the house. Extensive use is made of recycled, natural, and renewable materials and energy. The walls are made from timber and insulated with fiber from recycled newspaper; waste water from the bathrooms is saved and used to flush the toilets; and a wind turbine and solar panels contribute some of the electricity requirements. Many elements were prefabricated off-site for ease of construction. The Integer house uses only half the energy and a third less water than a traditionally built house.

FRONT VIEW OF THE INTEGER HOUSE



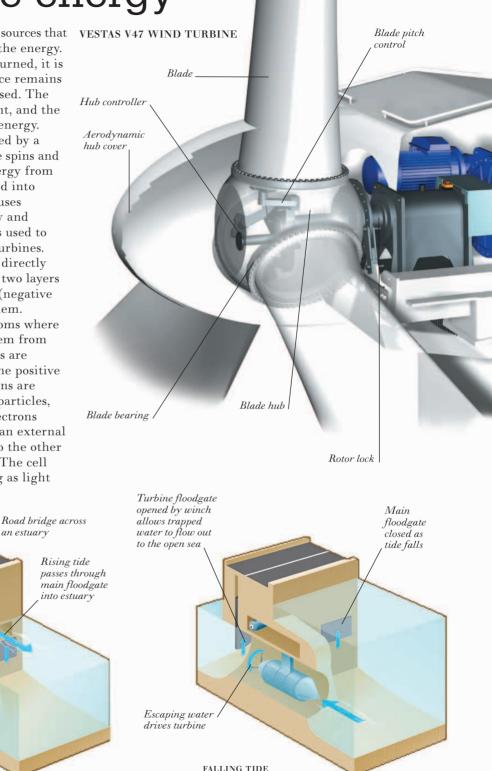
Cellulose fiber Vertical batten insulation Plasterboard SIDE AND REAR VIEW OF THE **INTEGER HOUSE** Vertical batten Red cedar boarding Noggin Single-glazed sun room Skirting board Breather Floating floor paper Cables and ducting Wooden boarding Gutter collects rain water for use in the yard Composter for recycling kitchen waste Passive stack vents from Automatic louvers cool sun room Small windows reduce heat loss Red cedar walls that do not require painting or staining

WALL CONSTRUCTION



Renewable energy

RENEWABLE ENERGY COMES from sources that **VESTAS V47 WIND TURBINE** do not become depleted as we use the energy. When a fossil fuel such as coal is burned, it is gone forever, but a renewable source remains available no matter how much is used. The tides, waves, flowing water, sunlight, and the wind are all renewable sources of energy. Wind and water energy are captured by a device called a turbine. The turbine spins and drives an electricity generator. Energy from sunlight, or solar energy, is changed into electricity in two main ways. One uses mirrors to concentrate solar energy and magnify its heating effect which is used to change water into steam to drive turbines. Photovoltaic cells change sunlight directly into electricity. A cell is made from two layers of silicon. One gives out electrons (negative particles) and the other receives them. Sunlight knocks electrons out of atoms where the two layers meet, separating them from the positive particles. The electrons are attracted to one layer of the cell, the positive particles to the other layer. Electrons are naturally attracted to the positive particles, but to come together again, the electrons must flow out of the cell, through an external electric circuit, or load, and back to the other side of the cell, creating a charge. The cell supplies electric current for as long as light keeps falling on it.



TIDAL POWER

Open sea

Winch

operates turbine floodgate

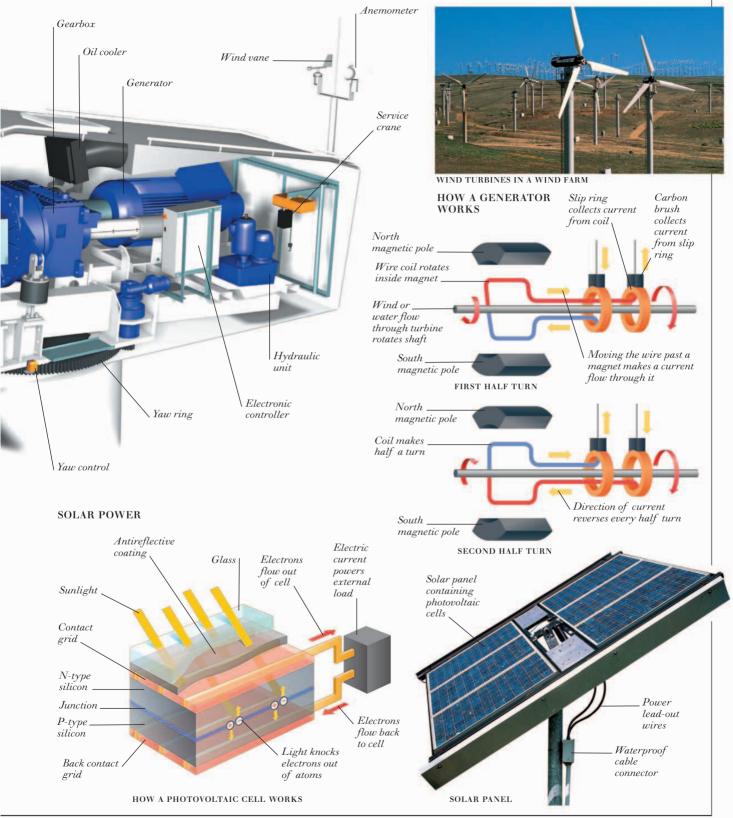
Turbine

floodgate

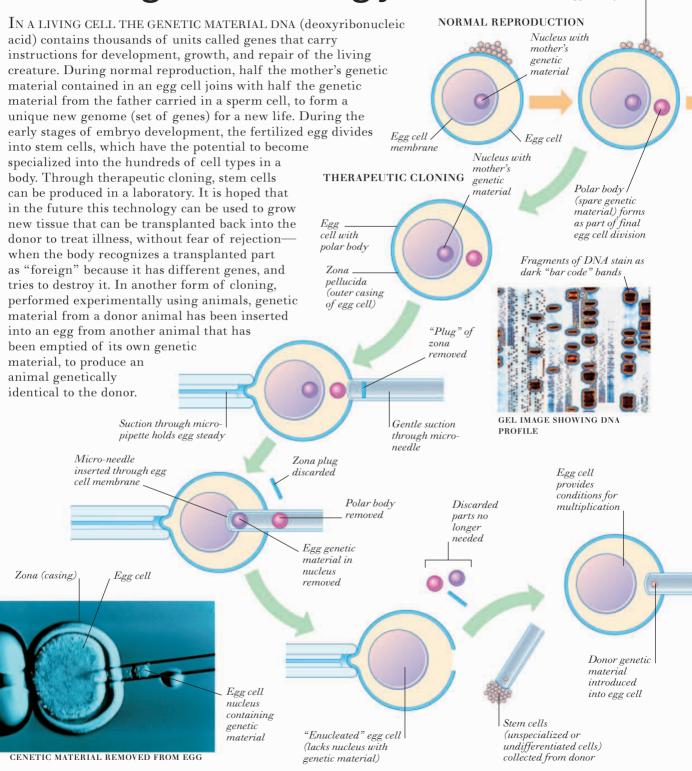
closed, trapping water behind it

RISING TIDE

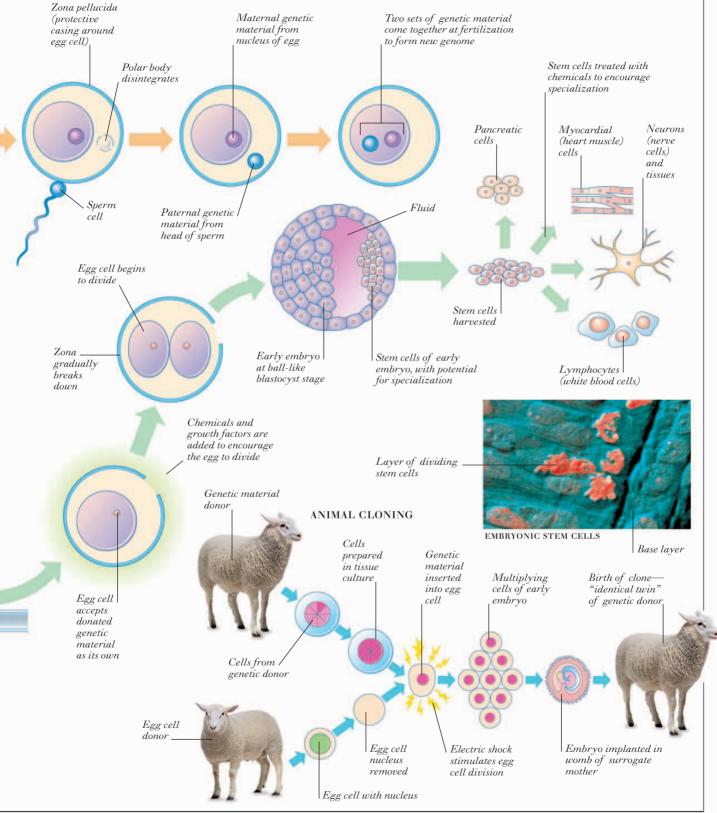
RENEWABLE ENERGY



Cloning technology



Spare cells from egg development

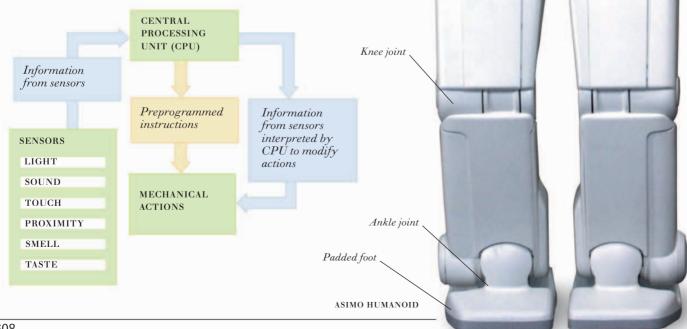


THE MODERN WORLD

Robots

ROBOTS ARE MACHINES THAT CAN carry out a variety of tasks on their own, with little or no human Battery charge control. Most robots are indicator . mechanical arms used to build things in factories. The end of the robot's arm can be equipped with different tools for gripping, drilling, cutting, welding, and painting. Robot toys have become popular, too. They incorporate sensors that respond to sounds and sometimes touch. Some of them can even understand spoken words. Scientists are also trying to create more advanced, humanlike robots that can see, hear, learn, and make their own Rigid torso decisions. ASIMO, a robot developed by the Japanese car manufacturer Honda, is one of these advanced humanoid robots. ASIMO stands for Advanced Step in Innovative MObility. It looks like a small astronaut wearing a backpack. ASIMO can walk, talk, carry things, recognize familiar faces, and respond to its name. It was the first robot that could walk independently and climb stairs. There are robot toys, too, in the shape of animals with simple artificial intelligence.

ELEMENTS OF ROBOT ACTION



Neck joint

Shoulder joint

Motorized fingers

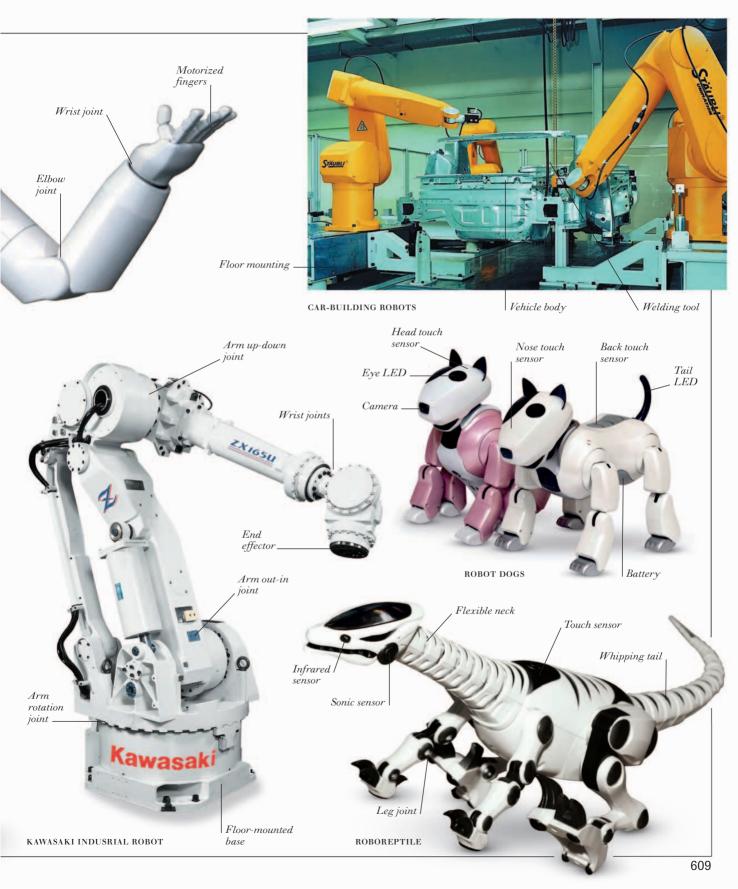
SIMO

HONDA

Battery

backpack

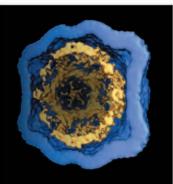
Hip joint.



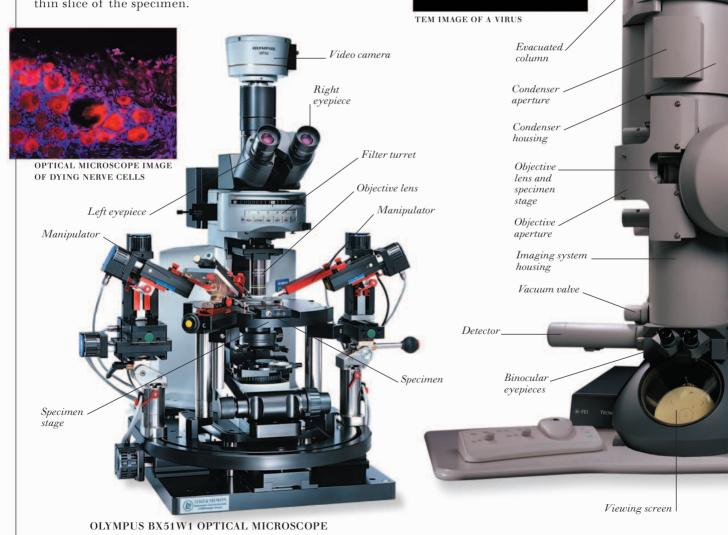
High-performance microscopes

OPTICAL MICROSCOPES FORM A MAGNIFIED image by using lenses to bend light. Some special-purpose optical microscopes used in industry and research are designed for observing particular materials, such as living cells. They produce magnifications of up to about 2,000. Electron microscopes produce magnifications of as much as 50 million, although 2 million is more typical. Their images are formed by means of electrons focused by magnetic lenses. There are two main types: scanning electron microscopes (SEMs) scan electrons back and forth across the surface of a specimen; transmission electron microscopes (TEMs) transmit electrons through a thin slice of the specimen.

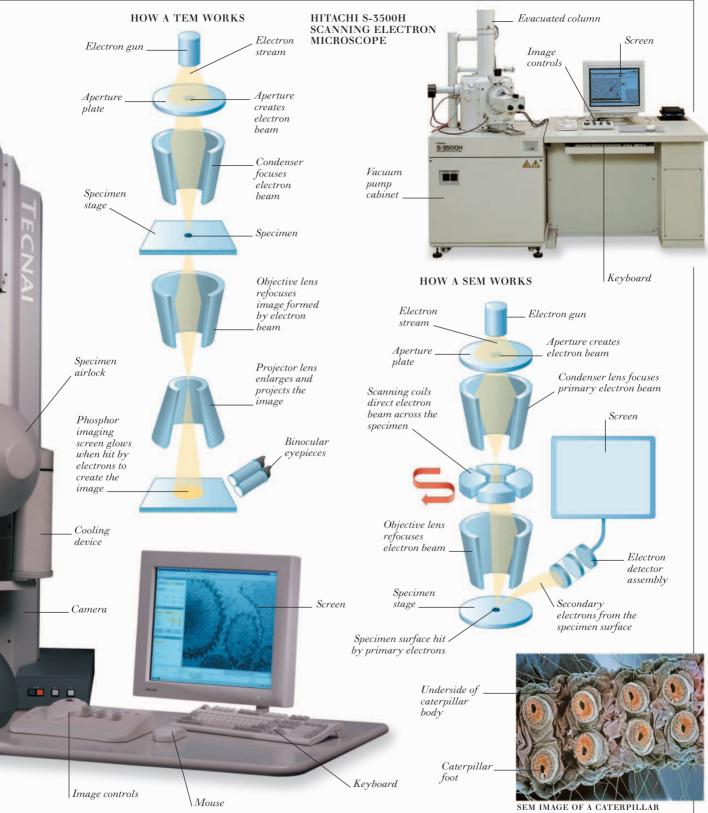
FEI TECNAI G² TRANSMISSION ELECTRON MICROSCOPE



Electron gun housing

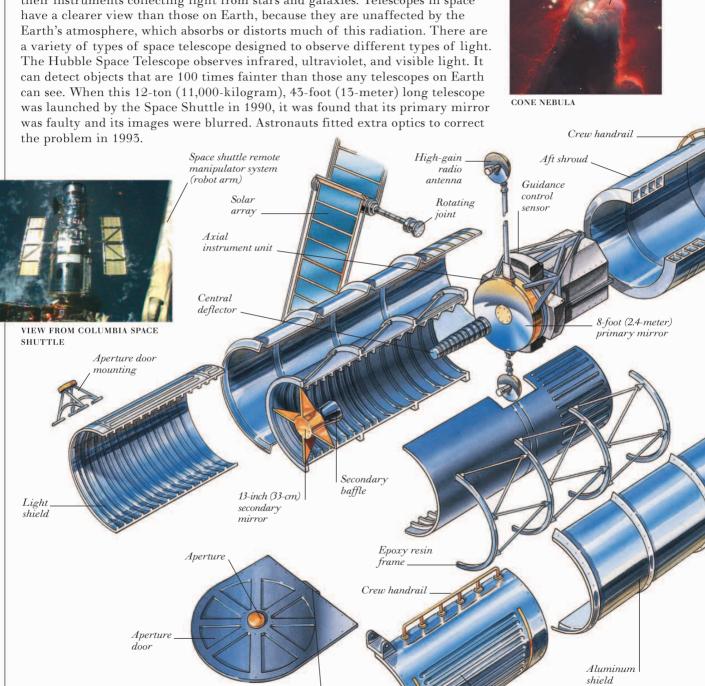


HIGH-PERFORMANCE MICROSCOPES



Space telescope

SPACE TELESCOPES ORBIT THE EARTH hundreds of miles above the ground, their instruments collecting light from stars and galaxies. Telescopes in space



Door hinge

Light

shield

IMAGES TAKEN

BY HUBBLE

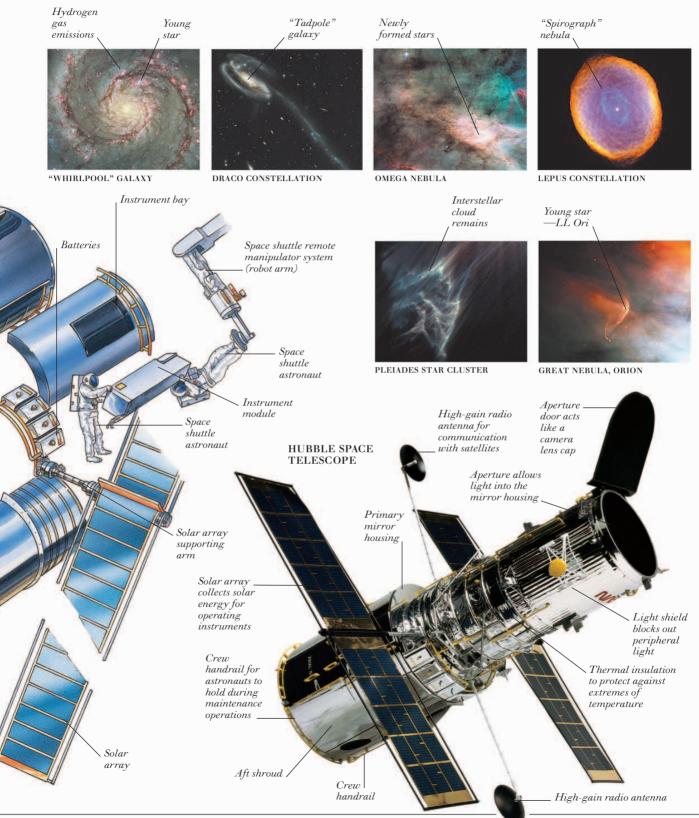
Pillar

of gas

EXPLODED VIEW OF HUBBLE

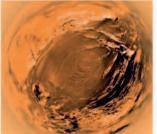
SPACE TELESCOPE

SPACE TELESCOPE

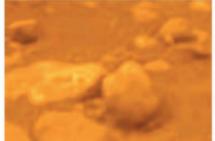


Probing the solar system

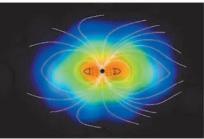
SPACE PROBES HAVE VISITED every planet in the solar system. They take photographs and gather data that cannot be collected using Earth-based equipment. Some probes fly past or orbit around planets or moons, while others land. Two Voyager space probes flew past the outer planets in the 1970s and 1980s. Two Viking spacecraft landed on Mars in 1976. The Magellan spacecraft orbited Venus from 1989 and mapped its surface. The Pathfinder spacecraft landed on Mars in 1997 and released a rover vehicle to explore the surface. The Mars Exploration Rover (MER) Mission landed two rovers in 2003. The Cassini space probe reached Saturn in 2004, and in 2005 its mini-probe, Huygens, landed on one of its moons, Titan, and became the first probe to land on a moon of another planet.



PANORAMIC VIEW OF TITAN TAKEN AS HUYGENS DESCENDED



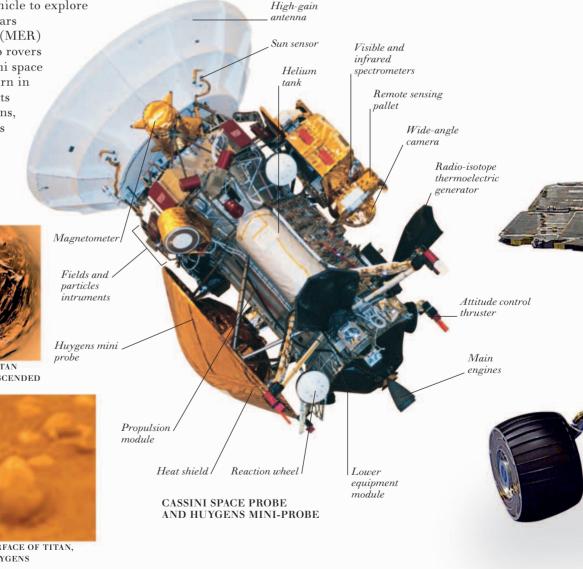
THE ROCK-STREWN SURFACE OF TITAN, PHOTOGRAPHED BY HUYGENS



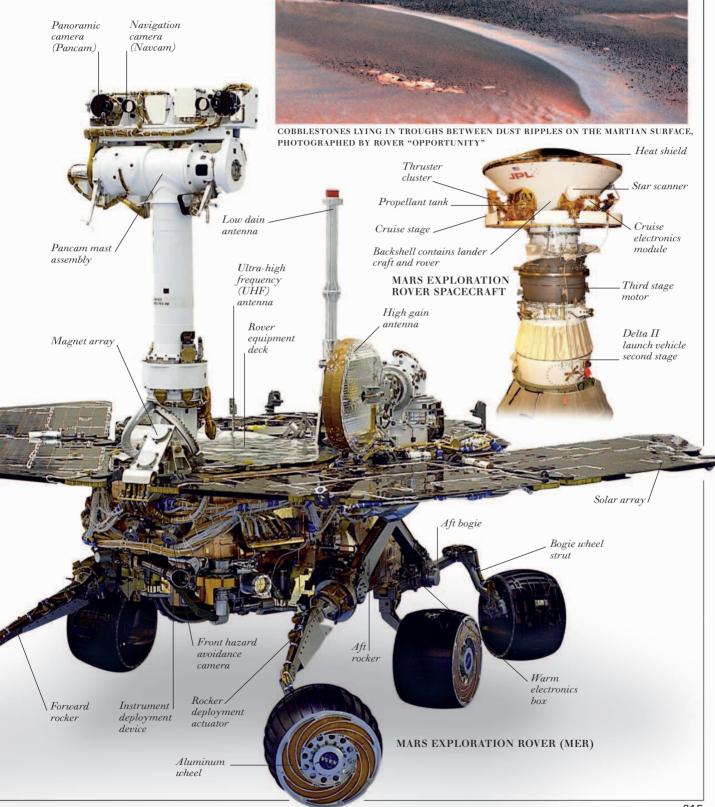
A MAP OF JUPITER'S VAST MAGNETIC FIELD PRODUCED BY CASSINI'S INSTRUMENTS



DIONE, ONE OF SATURN'S MOONS, ORBITING ABOVE THE "A" RING



PROBING THE SOLAR SYSTEM

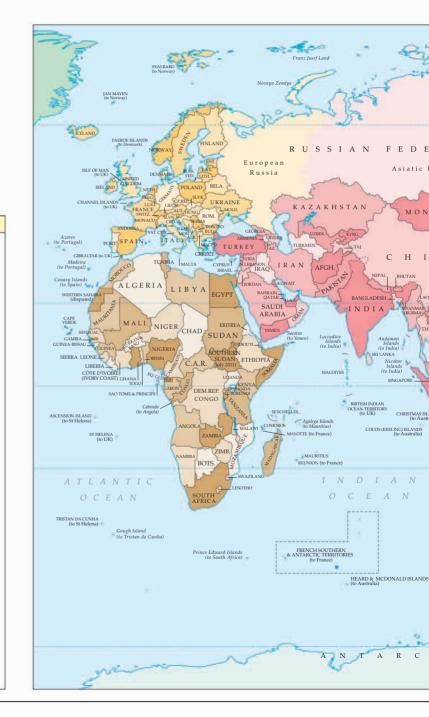


Political map of the world

This map depicts the political boundaries of the world's nations. There are currently 196 independent countries in the world a marked increase from the 82 that existed in 1950. With the trend toward greater fragmentation, most recently with the creation of Southern Sudan in July 2011, this figure is likely to increase. The largest country in the world is the Russian Federation, which covers 6,592,800 square miles (17,075,400 sq km), while the smallest is the Vatican City, covering 0.17 square miles (0.44 sq km). Under the Antarctic Treaty of 1959, no countries are permitted territorial claims in Antarctica.

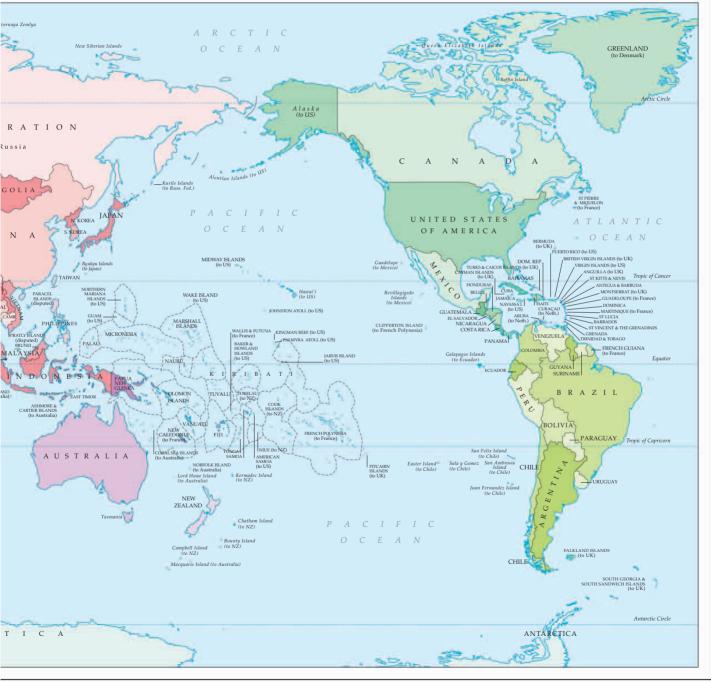
ABBREVIATIONS

AFGH.	Afghanistan
ALB.	Albania
AUT.	Austria
AZ. OR AZERB.	Azerbaijan
В. & Н.	Bosnia & Herzegovina
BELG.	Belgium
BELO.	Belorussia
BOTS.	Botswana
BULG.	Bulgaria
CAMB.	Cambodia
C.A.R.	Central African Republic
CRO.	Croatia
CZ. REP.	Czech Republic
DOM. REP.	Dominican Republic
EST.	Estonia
HUNG.	Hungary
KYRG.	Kyrgyzstan
LAT.	Latvia
LIECH.	Liechtenstein
LITH.	Lithuania
LUX.	Luxemburg
MACED.	Macedonia
MOLD.	Moldavia
MON.	Montenegro
NETH.	Netherlands
PORT.	Portugal
ROM.	Romania
RUSS. FED.	Russian Federation
SLVK.	Slovakia
SLVN.	Slovenia
S.M.	San Marino
SWITZ.	Switzerland
TAJ.	Tajikistan
THAI.	Thailand
TURKMEN.	Turkmenistan
U.A.E.	United Arab Emirates
UZBEK.	Uzbekistan
VAT. CITY	Vatican City
ZIMB.	Zimbabwe



POLITICAL MAP OF THE WORLD

KEY						
CONTINENTS	LABEL STYLES					
Europe North & Central America	E.g., Mexico Independent state					
Africa South America	E.g., FAEROE ISLANDS Self-governing territory (to Denmark) (parent state)					
Asia Antarctica	E.g., Andaman Islands Non self-governing territory					
Australasia & Oceania	(to India) (parent state)					



Time zones

The world is divided into 24 time zones, measured in relation to 12 noon Coordinated Universal Time (UTC), on the Greenwich Meridian (0°). Time advances by one hour for every 15° longitude east of Greenwich (and goes back one hour for every 15° west), but the system is adjusted in line with administrative boundaries. Numbers on the map indicate the number of hours that must be added to, or subtracted from UTC to calculate the time in each zone. Thus, the eastern United States (-5) is 5 hours behind UTC.

TYPES OF CALENDAR

GREGORIAN

The 365-day Gregorian calendar was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582 and is now in use throughout most of the Western world. Every four years (leap year) an extra day is added. Below are the names of the months (and number of days).

January (31) February (28, 29 in leap years) March (31) April (30) May (31) June (30) July (31) August (31) September (30) October (31) November December (31)

JEWISH

The Jewish calendar is a lunar calendar adapted to the solar year. It normally has 12 months but in leap years, which occur seven times in every cycle of 19 years, there are 15 months. The years are calculated from the Creation (which is placed at 3761 BC); the months are Nisan, Iyyar, Sivan, Thammuz, Ab, Elul, Tishri, Hesvan, Kislev, Tebet, Sebat, and Adar, with an intercalary month (First Adar) being added in leap years.

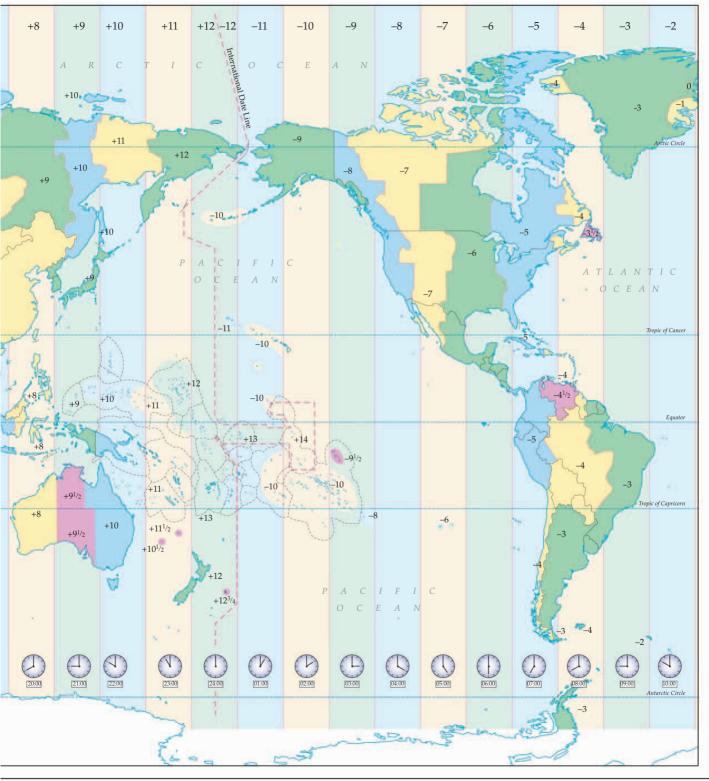
MUSLIM

The Muslim calendar is based on a year of 12 months, each month beginning roughly at the time of the New Moon. The months are Muharram, Safar, Rabi'I, Rabi'II, Jumada I, Jumada II, Rajab, Sha'ban, Ramadan, Shawwal, Dhu l-Qa'dah, and Dhu l-Hijja.

CHINESE

The Chinese calendar is a lunar calendar, with a year consisting of 12 months. Intercalary months are added to keep the calendar in step with the solar year of 365 days. Months are referred to by a number within a year, but also by animal names that, from ancient times, have been attached to years and hours of the day.





UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

METRIC UNIT

Length

1 centimeter (cm) 1 meter (m) 1 kilometer (km)

Mass

1 kilogram (kg) 1 metric ton (t)

Area

1 square centimeter (cm^2) 1 square meter (m²) 1 hectare 1 square kilometer (km^2)

Volume

1 cubic centimeter (cc) 1 liter (l) 1 cubic meter (m⁵)

Capacity (liquid and dry m 1 centiliter (cl) 10 m

1 deciliter (dl) 1 liter (l) 1 decaliter (dal) 1 hectoliter (hi) 1 kiloliter (kl)

100 1,00

100

1 m

10 10 10 10 10

| IMPERIAL TO METRIC CONVERSIONS

METRIC TO IMPERIAL C	ONVERSIONS		IMPERIAL TO METR	IC CONVERSIONS	
TO CONVERT	INTO	MULTIPLY BY	TO CONVERT	INTO	MULTIPLY BY
Length			Length		
Centimeters	inches	0.3937	Inches	centimeters	2.5400
Meters	feet	3.2810	Feet	meters	0.3048
Kilometers	miles	0.6214	Miles	kilometers	1.6090
Meters	yards	1.0940	Yards	meters	0.9144
Mass			Mass		
Grams	ounces	0.0352	Ounces	grams	28.3500
Kilograms	pounds	2.2050	Pounds	kilograms	0.4536
Metric tons	long tons	0.9843	Long tons	metric tons	1.0160
Metric tons	short tons	1.1025	Short tons	metric tons	0.9070
Area			Area		
Square centimeters	square inches	0.1550	Square inches	square centimeters	6.4520
Square meters	square feet	10.7600	Square feet	square meters	0.0929
Hectares	acres	2.4710	Acres	hectares	0.4047
Square kilometers	square miles	0.3861	Square miles	square kilometers	2.5900
Square meters	square yards	1.1960	Square yards	square meters	0.8361
Volume			Volume		
Cubic centimeters	cubic inches	0.0610	Cubic inches	cubic centimeters	16.3900
Cubic meters	cubic feet	35.3100	Cubic feet	cubic meters	0.0283
Capacity			Capacity		
Liters	pints	1.7600	Pints	liters	0.5683
Liters	gallons	0.2200	Gallons	liters	4.5460

MOTO			THO MIDLIC C	101110
data	IMPERIAL UNIT	EQUIVALENT	ROMAN	ARABIC
	Length		Ι	1
	1 foot (ft)	12 inches (in)	II	2
	1 yard (yd)	3 feet	III	3
	1 rod (rd)	$5\frac{1}{2}$ yards	IV	4
	1 mile (mi)	1,760 yards	V	5
NT		, U	VI	6
FOLIVALENT	Mass		VII	7
EQUIVALENT	1 dram (dr)	27.344 grains (gr)	VIII	8
	1 ounce (oz)	16 drams	IX	9
10 millimeters (mm)	1 pound (lb)	16 ounces	X	10
100 centimeters	1 hundredweight (cwt)	112 pounds	XI	11
1,000 meters	(long)		XII	12
	1 hundredweight (cwt)	100 pounds	XIII	13
	(short)		XIV	14
1,000 grams (g)	1 ton (long)	2,240 pounds	XV	15
1,000 kilograms	1 ton (short)	2,000 pounds	XX	20
			XXI	21
	Area		XXX	30
100 square millimeters	1 square foot (ft^2)	144 square inches	XL	40
(mm^2)	(in^2)	1 square yard (yd²)	L	50
10,000 square centimeters	9 square feet		LX	60
10,000 square meters	1 acre	4,840 square yards	LXX	70
1,000,000 square meters	1 square mile	640 acres	LXXX	80
			XC	90
	Volume		C	100
	1 cubic foot	1,728 cubic inches	CI	101
1 milliliter (ml)	1 cubic yard	27 cubic feet	CC	200
1,000 milliliters			CCC	300
1,000 liters	Capacity (liquid and o	dry measures)	CD	400
、 、	1 fluidram (fl dr)	60 minims (min)	D	500
ry measures)	1 fluid ounce (fl oz)	8 fluidrams	DC	600
10 milliliters (ml)	1 gill (gi)	5 fluid ounces	DCC	700
10 centiliters	1 pint (pt)	4 gills	DCCC	800
10 deciliters	1 quart (qt)	2 pints	CM	900
10 liters	1 gallon (gal)	4 quarts	M	1,000
10 decaliters	1 peck (pk)	2 gallons	MM	2,000
10 hectoliters	1 bushel (bu)	4 pecks	1	

INUMBER SYSTEMS

RULES OF ALGE	BRA	
EXPRESSION	COMMENTS	EXPRESSION BECOMES
a + a a + b = c + d ab = cd (a + b) (c + d) $a^{2} + ab$ $(a + b)^{2}$ $a^{2} - b^{2}$	Simple addition Subtract b from either side Divide both sides by b Multiplication of bracketed terms Use parentheses Expand terms in parentheses	$2a$ $a = c + d - b$ $a = cd \div b$ $ac + ad + be + bd$ $a(a + b)$ $a^{2} + 2ab + b^{2}$ $(c + b)(c + b)$
$a^{2} - b^{2}$ $1/a + 1/b$ $a/b \div c/d$	Difference of two squares Find common denominator Dividing by a fraction is the same as multiplying by its reciprocal	(a + b)(a-b) (a + b)/ab $a/b \times d/c$

POWERS OF TEN USED WITH SCIENTIFIC UNITS

FACTOR	NAME	PREFIX	SYMBOL			
1018	quintillion	exa-	Е			
1015	quadrillion	peta-	Р			
1012	trillion	tera-	Т			
109	billion	giga-	G			
10^{6}	million	mega-	Μ			
103	thousand	kilo-	k			
10^{2}	hundred	hecto-	h			
101	ten	deca-	da			
10-1	one-tenth	deci-	d			
10-2	one-hundredth	centi-	с			
10-3	one-thousandth	milli-	m			
10-6	one-millionth	micro-	u			
10-9	one-billionth	nano-	n			
10^{-12}	one-trillionth	pico-	p f			
10-15	one-quadrillionth	femto-	f			
10^{-18}	one-quintillionth	atto-	а			

Note: The American system of numeration for denominations above one million is used in this book. In this system, each of the denominations above one billion (1,000 millions) is 1,000 times the preceding one.

BIOLOGY SYMBOLS

SYMBOL	MEANING
0	female individual
	(used in inheritance charts) male individual
	(used in inheritance charts)
Ŷ	female
♀ ♂ ×	male
×	crossed with; hybrid
+	wild type
F ₁	offspring of the first
	generation
\mathbf{F}_2	offspring of the second
	generation

TEMPERATURE SCALES

To convert from Fahrenheit (F) to Celsius (C): $C = (F-32) \times 5 \div 9$ To convert from Celsius to Fahrenheit: $F = (C \times 9 \div 5) + 32$ To convert from Celsius to Kelvin (K): K = C + 273To convert from Kelvin to Celsius: C = K - 273

					and the second se								-
Celsius	-20	-10	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Fahrenh		14	32	50	68	86	104	122	140	158	176	194	212
Kelvin	253	263	273	283	293	305	313	325	333	343	353	363	373

SYMBOL	EXPLANATION
+	addition
-	subtraction
×	multiplication
\div = \neq > $<$ > \leq 8	division
=	equals
\neq	does not equal
>	greater than
<	less than
\geq	greater than or equal to
\leq	less than or equal to
	infinity
%	percent
π	pi (3.1416)
-	degree
$\stackrel{\approx}{\underset{\prod}{\underset{\Sigma}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset{\simeq}{\overset$	is approximately equal to
\angle	angle
ĮĮ	parallel to
	summation
u, u	vectors
f(x)	function
!	factorial
V E	square root
! √ ξ Α∩Β	universal set
	intersection
$A \cup B$	unison
$A \subset B$ Ø	subset null set

CHEMISTRY SYMBOLS

ULS	SYMBOL	MEANING
MEANING	+	plus; together with
alpha particle	_	single bond
beta ray gamma ray; photon	•	single bond; single
electromotive force		unpaired electron; two separate parts or
efficiency; viscosity		compounds regarded
wavelength micro-; permeability	=	as loosely joined double bond
frequency; neutrino	=	triple bond
density; resistivity	R	group
conductivity velocity of light	XZ	halogen atom atomic number
electronic charge		atomic number

SCIENTIFIC NOTATION

PHYSICS SYMBOLS

SYMBOL

α β γ

ε

η

λ

μ v

ρ

σ

 \mathbf{c}

е

NUMBER	NUMBER BETWEEN 1 AND 10	POWER OF TEN	SCIENTIFIC NOTATION
10	1	101	$1 \ 3 \ 10^{1}$
150	1.5	$10^2 (= 100)$	$1.5 \ 3 \ 10^2$
274,000,000	2.74	$10^8 (= 100,000,000)$	$2.74 \ 3 \ 10^8$
0.0023	2.3	$10^{-5} (= 0.001)$	2.3 3 10-3
		1	

TRIGONOMETRY

Angle A (degrees)	sin A	cos A	tan A
0	0	1	0
30	1/2	$\sqrt{3}/2$	1/√3
45	$1/\sqrt{2}$	$1/\sqrt{2}$	1
60	√3/2	1/2	√ 3
90	1	0	00

Shapes: Plane

Two-dimensional shapes are termed plane (or flat) shapes. Plane shapes constructed with straight sides, as illustrated here, are called polygons. They are categorized according to the number of sides they have—for example, three-sided polygons are known as

triangles. A polygon that has sides of equal length and internal angles of equal size, such as a square, is said to be regular.



SCALENE TRIANGLE A triangle (three-sided polygon) with no equal sides or angles.



EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE A regular triangle. All angles are 60°.



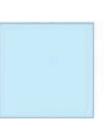
RECTANGLE A quadrilateral with four right angles and opposite sides of equal length.



PENTAGON A five-sided polygon. A regular pentagon is shown above.



ISOSCELES TRIANGLE A triangle with only two sides and two angles equal.



SQUARE A regular quadrilateral. All angles are 90°.



PARALLELOGRAM A quadrilateral with two pairs of parallel sides.



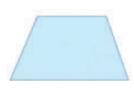
HEXAGON A six-sided polygon. A regular hexagon is shown above.



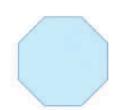
RIGHT-ANGLED TRIANGLE A triangle with one angle as a right angle (90°).



RHOMBUS A quadrilateral with all sides equal and two pairs of equal angles.



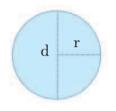
TRAPEZIUM A quadrilateral with one pair of parallel sides.



OCTAGON An eight-sided polygon. A regular octagon is shown above.

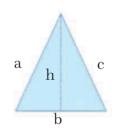
AREAS AND PERIMETERS

The formulae for calculating the areas and perimeters of simple plane shapes were devised by Classical Greek mathematicians.



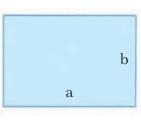
 $\begin{array}{c} \text{CIRCLE} \\ \text{r} = \text{radius} \\ \text{d} = \text{diameter} = 2 \, \times \, \text{r} \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} Circumference = 2 \times \pi \times r \\ Area = \pi \times r^2 \\ (\pi = 3.1416) \end{array}$



 $\begin{array}{l} \text{TRIANGLE} \\ \text{Height} = h \\ \text{Sides} = a, b, c \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Perimeter} = a + b + c \\ \operatorname{Area} = \frac{1}{2} \times b \times h \end{array}$



 $\begin{array}{l} \text{RECTANGLE} \\ \text{Sides} = \text{a, b} \end{array}$

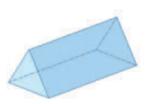
 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Perimeter} = 2 \ \times \ (a + b) \\ \text{Area} = a \ \times \ b \end{array}$

Shapes: Solid

Three-dimensional shapes are known as solid shapes and include spheres, cubes, and pyramids. A solid shape with a polygon at each face is called a polyhedron.



TETRAHEDRON A four-sided polyhedron. A regular tetrahedron is shown.



PRISM A polyhedron of constant cross-sections in planes perpendicular to its longitudinal axis.



SPHERE A round shape, as in a ball or an orange.



CONE An elliptical or circular base with sides tapering to a single point.



CUBE A regular hexahedron. All sides are equal and all angles are 90°.



PYRAMID A polygonal base and triangular sides that meet at a point.



HEMISPHERE Formed when a sphere is cut exactly in half.



RIGHT CYLINDER A tube-shaped, solid figure. A right cylinder has parallel faces.



OCTAHEDRON A polyhedron with eight sides.



TORUS A doughnutlike, ring shape.



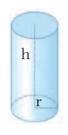
SPHEROID An egg-shaped solid object whose cross-section is a circle or an ellipse.



HELIX A twisted curve. The distance moved in one revolution is its pitch.

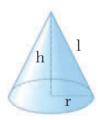
SURFACE AREAS AND VOLUMES

Volume refers to the amount of space that a solid object occupies. Its surface area is the sum of the area of each of its faces.



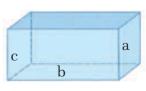
 $\begin{array}{c} \text{CYLINDER} \\ \text{Surface area} = \\ 2 \times \pi \times r \times h + 2\pi r^2 \\ \text{Volume} = \pi \times r^2 \times h \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathrm{Height} = \mathrm{h} \\ \mathrm{Radius} = \mathrm{r} \end{array}$



 $\begin{array}{l} \text{CONE} \\ \text{Surface area} = \\ \pi \times r \times l + \pi r^2 \\ \text{Volume} = \frac{1}{3} \times \pi \times r^2 \times l \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} Height = h \\ Radius = r \\ Side = l \end{array}$



 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{RECTANGULAR BLOCK}\\ Surface area =\\ 2 \left(a \times b + b \times c + a \times c\right)\\ \text{Volume} = a \times b \times c \end{array}$

Sides \equiv a, b, c

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